

Chapter 19

Other Conditional and Iterative Statements

The `if/else` and `while` statements are flexible enough to implement the logic of any algorithm we might wish to implement, but Java provides some additional conditional and iterative statements that are more convenient to use in some circumstances. These additional statements include

- `switch`: an alternative to some multi-way `if/else` statements
- conditional operator: an expression that exhibits the behavior of an `if/else` statement
- `do/while`: a loop that checks its condition after its body is executed
- `for`: a loop convenient for counting

19.1 The `switch` Statement

The `switch` statement provides a convenient alternative for some multi-way `if/else` statements like the one in `RestyledDigitToWord` (Figure 6.7). The general form of a `switch` is:

```
switch ( integral expression ) {
    case integral constant 1 :
        statement(s)
        break;
    case integral constant 2 :
        statement(s)
        break;
    case integral constant 3 :
        statement(s)
        break;
        .
        .
        .
    case integral constant n :
        statement(s)
        break;
    default:
        statement(s)
        break;
}
```

- The reserved word `switch` identifies a switch statement.
- The expression, contained in parentheses, must evaluate to an integral value. Any integer type, characters, and Boolean expressions are acceptable. Floating point expressions are forbidden.
- The body of the switch is enclosed by curly braces, which are required.
- Each `case` label is followed by an integral *constant*. This constant can be either a literal value or a final symbolic value. In particular, non-final variables and other expressions are expressly forbidden. If the case label matches the switch's expression, then the statements that follow that label are executed. The statements and `break` statement that follow each case label are optional. One way to execute one set of statements for more than one case label is to provide empty statements for one or more of the labels, as in:

```
switch ( inKey ) {
    case 'p':
    case 'P':
        System.out.println("Executing print");
        break;
    case 'q':
    case 'Q':
        done = true;
```

```
break;
}
```

Here either an upper- or lowercase *P* result in the same action; either an upper- or lowercase *Q* sets the done Boolean variable. The `break` statement is optional. When a case label is matched, the statements that follow are executed until a `break` statement is encountered. The control flow then transfers out of the body of the switch. (In this way, the `break` within a switch works just like a `break` within a loop: the rest of the body of the statement is skipped and program execution resumes at the next statement following the body.) A missing `break` (a common error, when its omission is not intentional) causes the statements of the succeeding case label to be executed. The process continues until a `break` is encountered or the end of the body is reached.

- The default label is matched if none of the case labels match. It serves as a “catch all” like the final `else` in a multi-way `if/else` statement. The default label is optional. If it is missing and none of the case labels match the expression, then no statements in the switch’s body are executed.

`SwitchDigitToWord` (▮19.1) shows what `RestyledDigitToWord` (▮6.7) would look like with a switch statement instead of the multi-way `if/else` statement.

```
import java.util.Scanner;

public class SwitchDigitToWord {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner scanner = new Scanner(System.in);
        int value;
        System.out.println("Please enter an integer in the range 0...5: ");
        value = scanner.nextInt();
        if ( value < 0 ) {
            System.out.println("Too small");
        } else {
            switch ( value ) {
                case 0:
                    System.out.println("zero");
                    break;
                case 1:
                    System.out.println("one");
                    break;
                case 2:
                    System.out.println("two");
                    break;
                case 3:
                    System.out.println("three");
                    break;
                case 4:
                    System.out.println("four");
                    break;
                case 5:
                    System.out.println("five");
                    break;
                default:
```

```
        System.out.println("Too large");
    }
}
}
```

Listing 19.1: SwitchDigitToWord—switch version of multi-way if

The switch statement has two restrictions that make it less general than the multi-way if/else:

1. The switch argument must be an integral expression.
2. Case labels must be constant integral values. Integral literals and constants are acceptable. Variables or expressions are *not* allowed.

To illustrate these restrictions, consider the following if/else statement that translates easily to an equivalent switch statement:

```
if ( x == 1 ) {
    // Do 1 stuff here . . .
} else if ( x == 2 ) {
    // Do 2 stuff here . . .
} else if ( x == 3 ) {
    // Do 3 stuff here . . .
}
```

The corresponding switch statement is:

```
switch ( x ) {
    case 1:
        // Do 1 stuff here . . .
        break;
    case 2:
        // Do 2 stuff here . . .
        break;
    case 3:
        // Do 3 stuff here . . .
        break;
}
```

Now consider the following if/else:

```
if ( x == y ) {
    // Do "y" stuff here . . .
} else if ( x > 2 ) {
    // Do "> 2" stuff here . . .
} else if ( x == 3 ) {
    // Do 3 stuff here . . .
}
```

This code cannot be easily translated into a `switch` statement. The variable `y` cannot be used as a `case` label. The second choice checks for an inequality instead of an exact match, so direct translation to a `case` label is impossible.

As a consequence of the `switch` statement's restrictions, the compiler produces more efficient code for a `switch` than for an equivalent `if/else`. If a choice must be made from one of several or more options, and the `switch` statement can be used, then the `switch` statement will likely be faster than the corresponding multi-way `if/else`.

19.2 The Conditional Operator

As purely a syntactical convenience, Java provides an alternative to the `if/else` construct called the *conditional operator*. It has limited application but is convenient nonetheless. The following section of code assigns either the result of a division or a default value acceptable to the application if a division by zero would result:

```
// Assign a value to x:
if ( z != 0 ) {
    x = y/z;
} else {
    x = 0;
}
```

This code has two assignment statements, but only one is executed at any given time. The conditional operator makes for a simpler statement:

```
// Assign a value to x:
x = ( z != 0 ) ? y/z : 0;
```

The general form of a conditional expression is:

$$\textit{condition} \ ? \ \textit{expression}_1 \ : \ \textit{expression}_2$$

- *condition* is a normal Boolean expression that might appear in an `if` statement. Parentheses around the condition are not required but should be used to improve the readability.
- *expression*₁ the overall value of the conditional expression if the condition is true.
- *expression*₂ the overall value of the conditional expression if the condition is false.

The conditional operator uses two symbols (`?` and `:`) and three operands. Since it has three operands it is classified as a *ternary* operator (Java's only one). Both *expression*₁ and *expression*₂ must be assignment compatible; for example, it would be illegal for one expression to be an `int` and the other to be `boolean`. The overall type of a conditional expression is the type of the more dominant of *expression*₁ and *expression*₂. The conditional expression can be used anywhere an expression can be used. It is not a statement itself; it is used within a statement.

As another example, the *absolute value* of a number is defined in mathematics by the following formula:

$$|n| = \begin{cases} n, & \text{when } n \geq 0 \\ -n, & \text{when } n < 0 \end{cases}$$

In other words, the absolute value of a positive number or zero is the same as that number; the absolute value of a negative number is the additive inverse (negative of) of that number. The following Java expression represents the *absolute value* of the variable `n`:

$(n < 0) ? -n : n$

Some argue that the conditional operator is cryptic, and thus its use reduces a program's readability. To seasoned Java programmers it is quite understandable, but it is actually used sparingly because of its very specific nature.

19.3 The do/while Statement

The while statement (Section 17.1) checks its condition before its body is executed; thus, it is a *top-checking* loop. Its body is not executed if its condition is initially false. At times, this structure is inconvenient. Consider GoodInputOnly (Figure 19.2).

```
import javax.swing.JOptionPane;

public class GoodInputOnly {
    public static void main() {
        int inValue = -1;
        while ( inValue < 0 || inValue > 10 ) {
            // Insist on values in the range 0...10
            inValue = Integer.parseInt
                (JOptionPane.showInputDialog
                 ("Enter integer in range 0...10: "));
        }
        // inValue at this point is guaranteed to be within range
        JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "Legal value entered was "
                                     + inValue);
    }
}
```

Listing 19.2: GoodInputOnly—Insist the user enter a good value

The loop in GoodInputOnly traps the user until he provides a good value. Here's how it works:

- The initialization of `inValue` to `-1` ensures the condition of the `while` will be true, and, thus, the body of the loop will be entered.
- The condition of the `while` specifies a set that includes all values that are *not* in the desired range. `inValue` is initially in this set, so the loop is entered.
- The user does not get a chance to enter a value until program execution is inside the loop.
- The only way the loop can be exited is if the user enters a value that violates the condition—precisely a value in the desired range.

The initialization before the loop check is somewhat artificial. It is there only to ensure entry into the loop. It seems unnatural to check for a valid value *before* the user gets a chance to enter it. A loop that checks its condition after its body is executed at least once would be more appropriate. The `do/while` is *bottom-checking* loop that behaves exactly in this manner. Its flowchart is shown in Figure 19.1.

The `do/while` statement has the general form:

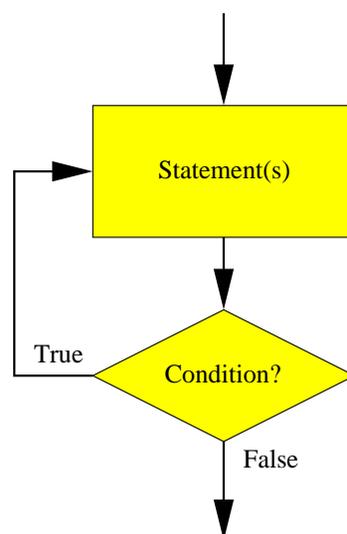


Figure 19.1: Execution flow in a do/while statement

```

do
    body
while ( condition );
  
```

- The reserved words `do` and `while` identify a do/while statement. The `do` and `while` keywords delimit the loop's body, but curly braces are still required if the body consists of more than one statement.
- The condition is associated with the `while` at the end of the loop. The condition must be enclosed within parentheses.
- The body is like the body of the `while` loop.

`BetterInputOnly` (Figure 19.3) uses a do/while to erase the criticisms of `GoodInputOnly` (Figure 19.2).

```

import javax.swing.JOptionPane;

public class BetterInputOnly {
    public static void main() {
        int inValue;
        do {
            // Insist on values in the range 0...10
            inValue = Integer.parseInt
                (JOptionPane.showInputDialog
                    ("Enter integer in range 0...10: "));
        } while ( inValue < 0 || inValue > 10 );
        // inValue at this point is guaranteed to be within range
        JOptionPane.showMessageDialog(null, "Legal value entered was "
            + inValue);
    }
}
  
```

Listing 19.3: BetterInputOnly—GoodInputOnly (Listing 19.2) using a do/while loop

The body of a do/while statement, unlike the while statement, is guaranteed to execute at least once. This behavior is convenient at times as BetterInputOnly shows.

We can use BetterInputOnly as a starting point for a general-purpose reusable class, IntRange (Listing 19.4).

```
import javax.swing.JOptionPane;

// Restricts the user to entering a restricted range of integer
// values
public class IntRange {
    public static int get(int low, int high) {
        int inValue;
        do {
            // Insist on values in the range low...high
            inValue = Integer.parseInt
                (JOptionPane.showInputDialog
                 ("Enter integer in range " + low + "... " + high));
        } while ( inValue < low || inValue > high );
        // inValue at this point is guaranteed to be within range
        return inValue;
    }
}
```

Listing 19.4: IntRange—a useful reusable input method

The break and continue statements can be used in the body of a do/while statement. Like with the while statement, break causes immediate loop termination (any remaining statements within the body are skipped), and continue causes the remainder of the body to be skipped and the condition is immediately checked to see if the loop should continue or be terminated.

19.4 The for Statement

Recall IterativeCountToFive (Listing 17.2) from Section 17.1, reproduced here.

It simply counts from one to five. Counting is a frequent activity performed by computer programs. Certain program elements are required in order for any program to count:

- A variable must be used to keep track of the count; count is the aptly named counter variable.
- The counter variable must be given an initial value, 1.
- The variable must be modified (usually incremented) as the program counts. The statement

```
count = count + 1;
```

increments count.

- A way must be provided to determine if the count has completed. The condition of the `while` controls the extent of the count.

Java provides a specialized loop that packages these four programming elements into one convenient statement. Called the `for` statement, its general form is

```
for ( initialization ; condition ; modification )  
    body
```

- The reserved word `for` identifies a `for` statement.
- The header, contained in parentheses, contains three parts, each separated by semicolons:
 1. **Initialization.** The initialization part assigns an initial value to the loop variable. The loop variable may be declared here as well; if it is declared here, then its scope is limited to the `for` statement. The initialization part is performed one time.
 2. **Condition.** The condition part is a Boolean expression, just like the condition of `while` and `do/while`. The condition is checked each time before the body is executed.
 3. **Modification.** The modification part changes the loop variable. The change should be such that the condition will eventually become false so the loop will terminate. The modification is performed during each iteration *after* the body is executed.
- The body is like the body of any other loop.

With a `while` loop, these four counting components (variable declaration, initialization, condition, and modification) can be scattered throughout the method. With a `for` loop, the programmer can determine all the important information about the loop's control by looking at one statement. Figure 19.2 shows the control flow within a `for` statement.

`ForCounter` (Figure 19.5) uses a `for` loop to do the work of `IterativeCountToFive` (Figure 17.2).

```
public class ForCounter {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        for ( int count = 1; count <= 5; count++ ) {  
            System.out.println(count);  
        }  
    }  
}
```

Listing 19.5: `ForCounter`—`IterativeCountToFive` (Figure 17.2) using a `for` statement in place of the `while`

`TimesTable` (Figure 17.5) that prints a multiplication table is better written with nested `for` statements as `BetterTimesTable` (Figure 19.6) shows.

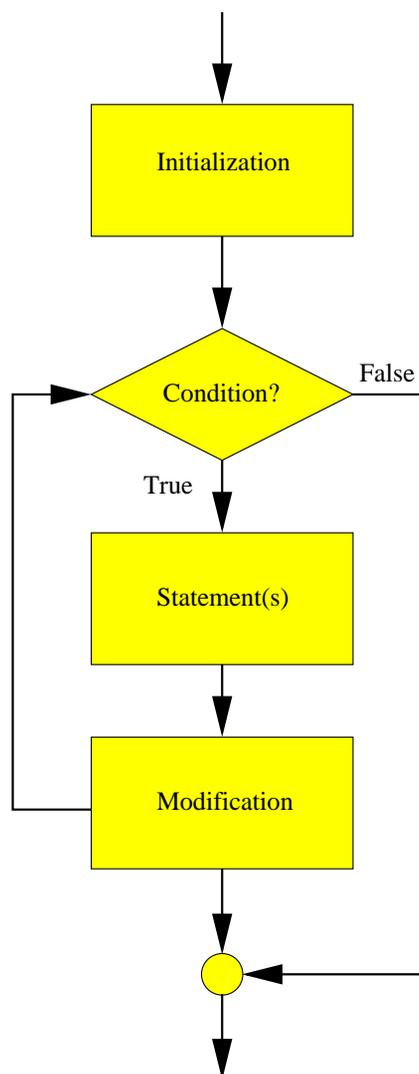


Figure 19.2: Execution flow in a for statement

```

public class BetterTimesTable {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        // Print a multiplication table to 10 x 10
        // Print column heading
        System.out.println("      1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9  10");
        System.out.println(" +-----");
        for ( int row = 1; row <= 10; row++ ) { // Table has ten rows.
            System.out.printf("%3d|", row); // Print heading for this row.
            for ( int column = 1; column <= 10; column++ ) {
                System.out.printf("%4d", row*column);
            }
            System.out.println(); // Move cursor to next row
        }
    }
}
  
```

Listing 19.6: BetterTimesTable—Prints a multiplication table using for statements

A `for` loop is ideal for stepping through the rows and columns. The information about the control of both loops is now packaged in the respective `for` statements instead of being spread out in various places in `main()`. In the `while` version, it is easy for the programmer to forget to update one or both of the counter variables (`row` and/or `column`). The `for` makes it harder for the programmer to forget the loop variable update, since it is done right up front in the `for` statement header.

It is considered bad programming practice to do either of the following in a `for` statement:

- **Modify the loop control variable within the body of the loop.** If the loop variable is modified within the body, then the logic of the loop's control is no longer completely isolated to the `for` statement's header. The programmer must look elsewhere within the statement to understand completely how the loop works.
- **Prematurely exit the loop with a `break`.** This action also violates the concept of keeping all the loop control logic in one place (the `for`'s header).

The language allows both of these practices, but experience shows that it is best to avoid them. If it seems necessary to violate this advice, consider using a different kind of loop (`while` or `do/while`) that does not imply the same degree of control regularity implied by the `for` loop.

`ForPrintPrimes` (Listing 19.7) is a rewrite of `PrintPrimes` (Listing 18.2) that replaces its `while` loops with `for` loops.

```
import java.util.Scanner;

public class ForPrintPrimes {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Scanner scan = new Scanner(System.in);
        int maxValue;
        System.out.print("Display primes up to what value? ");
        maxValue = scan.nextInt();
        for ( int value = 2; value <= maxValue; value++ ) {
            // See if value is prime
            int trialFactor = 2;
            boolean isPrime = true; // Assume no factors unless we find one
            for ( trialFactor = 2; isPrime && trialFactor < value - 1;
                trialFactor++ ) {
                if ( value % trialFactor == 0 ) { // Is trialFactor a factor?
                    isPrime = false;
                    break; // No need to continue, we found a factor
                }
            }
            if ( isPrime ) {
                System.out.print(value + " "); // Display the prime number
            }
        }
        System.out.println(); // Move cursor down to next line
    }
}
```

Listing 19.7: `ForPrintPrimes`—`PrintPrimes` using `for` loops

The conditional in the `for` loop can be any legal Boolean expression. The logical *and* (`&&`), *or* (`||`), and *not* (`!`) operators can be used to create complex Boolean expressions, if necessary. The modification part of the `for` loop is not limited to simple arithmetic and can be quite elaborate. For example:

```
for ( double d = 1000; d >= 1; d = Math.sqrt(d) ) {
    /* Body goes here */
}
```

Here `d` is reassigned by a method call. The following loop is controlled entirely by user input (`scan` is a `Scanner` object):

```
for ( int i = scan.nextInt(); i != 999; i = scan.nextInt() ) {
    /* Body goes here */
}
```

While the `for` statement supports such complex headers, simpler is usually better. Ordinarily the `for` loop should manage just one control variable, and the initialization, condition, and modification parts should be straightforward. If a particular programming situation warrants a particularly complicated `for` construction, consider using another kind of loop.

Any or all of the parts of the `for` statement (initialization, condition, modification, and body) may be omitted:

- **Initialization.** If the initialization is missing, as in

```
for ( ; i < 10; i++ ) {
    /* Body goes here */
}
```

then no initialization is performed by the `for` loop, and it must be done elsewhere.

- **Condition.** If the condition is missing, as in

```
for ( int i = 0; ; i++ ) {
    /* Body goes here */
}
```

then the condition is `true` by default. A `break` must appear in the body unless an infinite loop is intended.

- **Modification.** If the modification is missing, as in

```
for ( int i = 0; i < 10; ) {
    /* Body goes here */
}
```

then the `for` performs no automatic modification; the modification must be done by a statement in the body to avoid an infinite loop.

- **Body.** If the body is missing, as in

```
for ( int i = 0; i < 10; i++ ) {}
```

or

```
for ( int i = 0; i < 10; i++ );
```

then an empty loop results. This can be used for a nonportable delay (slower computers will delay longer than faster computers), but some compilers may detect that such code has no functional effect and “optimize” away such an empty loop.

While the `for` statement supports the omission of parts of its header, such constructs should be avoided. The `for` loop’s strength lies in the ability for the programmer to see all the aspects of the loop’s control in one place. If some of these control responsibilities are to be handled elsewhere (not in the `for`’s header) then consider using another kind of loop.

Programmers usually select a simple name for the control variable of a `for` statement. Recall that variable names should be well chosen to reflect the meaning of their use within the program. It may come as a surprise that `i` is probably the most common name used for an integer control variable. This has its roots in mathematics where variables such as *i*, *j*, and *k* are commonly used to index vectors and matrices. Computer programmers make considerable use of `for` loops in array processing, so programmers have universally adopted this convention of short control variable names. Thus, it generally is acceptable to use simple identifiers like `i` as loop control variables.

The `break` and `continue` statements can be used in the body of a `for` statement. Like with the `while` and `do/while` statements, `break` causes immediate loop termination, and `continue` causes the condition to be immediately checked to determine if the iteration should continue. As previously mentioned, `for` loop control should be restricted to its header, and the use of `break` and `continue` should be avoided.

Any `for` loop can be rewritten with a `while` loop and behave identically. For example, consider the `for` loop

```
for ( int i = 1; i <= 10; i++ ) {
    System.out.println(i);
}
```

and next consider the `while` loop that behaves exactly the same way:

```
int i = 1;
while ( i <= 10 ) {
    System.out.println(i);
    i++;
}
```

Which is better? The `for` loop conveniently packages the loop control information in its header, but in the `while` loop this information is distributed throughout the small section of code. The `for` loop thus provides a better organization of the loop control code. Does one loop outperform the other? No. These two sections of code are compiled into *exactly* the same bytecode:

```
0 iconst_1          // ----+
1 istore_0          // ----+----> i = 1
2 goto 15           // -----> go to line 15
5 getstatic #2 <Field java.io.PrintStream out> // --+
8 iload_0           // -----+
9 invokevirtual #3 <Method void println(int)> // --+----> print i
12 iinc 0 1         // ----> i++
15 iload_0          // ----+
16 bipush 10        // ----+
18 if_icmple 5      // ----+-----> if i <= 10 go to line 5
```

Thus, the `for` loop is preferred in this example.

19.5 Summary

- Add summary items here.

19.6 Exercises