

# Control Structures

CS152

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# Outline

- More on Polymorphism
- Structures/ Signatures
- Control Structures
  
- As we talk about the above we'll continue to introduce ML.

# More on Polymorphism

- We were talking about types, polymorphism and type inference.
- There are several kinds of polymorphism: for instance, function overloading is a kind of polymorphism (**ad hoc**); overriding methods in subclasses of classes is called **pure** or **subtype** polymorphism.
- ML's type inference scheme, where we define a function's type parameters implicitly, and then can use the function on any subtype of this type is called **implicit parametric polymorphism**.
- In contrast, things like C++ templates would be examples of **explicit parametric polymorphism**.
- In ML, example of **explicit parametric polymorphism** might be where we write a recursive data type like:  
    `datatype 'a Stack = EmptyStack | Stack of 'a*('a Stack);`
- Here 'a is explicitly given as being of any type; we could then create value of types like `int Stack`. Ex: `Stack(1, EmptyStack)`

# ML Modules

- ML provides a notion of unit data abstraction called a **module**. This is similar to a C++ namespace or Java Package.

```
structure SomeName = struct
```

```
  val bob = 50;
```

```
  (* more values *)
```

```
  fun curry a b = (a, b);
```

```
  (* more functions *)
```

```
end;
```

- To use things in SomeName, I can either do things like:

```
  SomeName.bob (* or *)
```

```
  open SomeName;
```

```
  bob;
```

# Signatures

- Notice when we define/open a structure ML gives us its type back.
- ML also has a mechanism for creating types of modules called signatures:

```
signature SomeType = sig
  val bob:int;
  val curry : int -> int -> int * int
  (* last thing does not end with a ; *)
end;
```

- Notice, curry on the last slide was type 'a -> 'b -> 'a \* 'b; but above is int -> int -> int \* int.
- We can use SomeType to create narrowed instances of our previous structure, again illustrating parametric polymorphism:

```
structure SomeOtherName: SomeType = SomeName;
```

# Some Useful ML Modules

- There are several useful modules which come with ML:
  - Int, Bool, Char, String each have the corresponding conversion functions for the given type
  - Math - has abs, sin, cos, tan, etc
  - Substring: has substring, splitl, splitr, triml, trimr, token, etc
  - TextIO - openIn, openOut, print, etc.
- Some function in the global environment are bound to things in these modules for example int actually binds to Int.int
- To find out more about these modules:  
<http://www.standardml.org/Basis/overview.html>

# Control Structures

- Recall at the beginning of the semester we distinguished between two main kinds of abstractions connected with programming languages: **data abstraction** and **control abstraction**.
- We divided each of these into three levels: basic, structure and unit abstraction.
- We have now discussed in detail each of these levels for data abstractions, and gave examples of each in the ML language: primitive and enumerated type; type constructors and recursive type; and structures and signatures.
- We now begin our study of control abstractions looking at each of these levels in turn.

# Basic Control Structures

- We first set up some terminology, which is often abused when people talk about particular languages:
  - A (pure) **expression** is a piece of code which executes some computation, returns a value, and has no side-effect (doesn't alter program memory).
  - A **statement** is a piece of code which is executed for its side-effect and which returns no value.
- We will now look at some of the control questions which arise when we evaluate expressions and statements.



# Expressions

- Depending on the language expressions can be written using infix (C, ML), prefix (Scheme), postfix (RPN calculators) notations. So  $(3 + 4) * 5$ , might look like  $* + 3 4 5$ , or  $3 4 + 5 *$ .
- $+$  and  $*$  are called **operators**, the inputs they take are called **parameters/operands**, the particular values of those parameters in a given use of these operators are called **arguments**.
- There are several ways one could evaluate the arguments to expressions.
- We have seen **applicative evaluation**: compute the values of all subexpressions, then apply the root operator.
- For boolean expressions, one also has things like **short-circuit evaluation**: keep evaluating subexpression left to right until the value is determined then stop. Ex:  $3 = 4$  or else  $2 = 0$  or else  $1 = 1$  or else  $1 = 0$ ; (\*would not bother to evaluate the last  $1 = 0$  \*)
- We have also seen that **if-expressions** and **case-expressions** don't evaluate all their arguments. These are examples of **delayed evaluation**.

# Normal Order Evaluation

- In this kind of evaluation, evaluation begins before its operands are evaluated, and each operand is evaluated only as needed.
- This is sometimes called **lazy-evaluation**.
- In a language with applicative order evaluation, one way to achieve normal order evaluation is to define for each argument to create a new argument which is its **delay**'d version.
- So for example, consider the function:  

```
fun count 0 b = b | count a b = count (a - 1) (b + 1);
```
- `(count 1000000000 0)` is slow enough you can notice it compute.
- Notice though: `val b = fn () => count 100000000 0;` computes instantaneously as the expression `count 100000000 0` isn't being evaluated, `b` is just a function which if applied would compute `count 100000000 0`. We call `b` here is the delay of `count 100000000 0`;
- Once we have replaced each argument with its delayed, we rewrite our function to operate on delay'd argument.
- To evaluate a delayed argument (**force it**) we apply it on an empty argument list: For `b`, we do `b()`;
- Now to do normal order evaluation, we take our rewritten function and make sure to only force argument as we need them.

# Statements

- We have already seen several kinds of statements: if statements, case statements.
- There are also structured statements like: for, while, do-while loops.
- In ML, while loops can be done using the syntax like:

```
val i = ref 1;  
while !i <= 10 do (print (Int.toString(!i)); print (" "); i := !i +1);
```
- You sometimes see the control of these statement written abstractly as: if  $B_1 \rightarrow S_1 \mid \dots \mid B_n \rightarrow S_n$ . Here  $B_i$  is called a **guard** on the statement  $S_i$ .
- do-while can be viewed as just syntactic sugar on the basic while loop.
- Many languages restrict the way the control variables of a for loop work. For instance,  $i$  cannot be changed in the body of the loop,  $i$  is undefined after the loop terminates,  $i$  must be an int, etc.