## Subprograms

Programming Languages
CS 214



## Categorizing Functions

Recall: The function set constructor:  $f(D) \rightarrow R$  can be used to describe the operations in a language.

This approach categorizes functions

Example: C++ lets us use function notation to *cast...* 

```
int(real) \rightarrow int
double(int) \rightarrow real
```

But if we write a *round()* function:

```
int round( double value) { return int(value + 0.5); }
```

then *round()* is also a member of:

and int() and round() obviously behave very differently...



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## Functions: as Mapping Rules

Behavior can be defined via a domain-to-range mapping rule:

Example: In C++, we can *specify* that:  $abs(int) \rightarrow int$  but to define the *behavior* of abs(), we need a rule:

A *mapping rule* must specify the range-value for each domain-value for which the function is defined.

### Functions: as Algorithms

An alternative way to specify behavior is to specify:

- •the function's \_\_\_\_\_ •the function's \_\_\_\_\_
- •a \_\_\_\_\_ for computing the result, using the parameters.

```
"Lisp"
(defun abs (val)
  (if (>= val 0)
    val
     (- 0 val) ))

"Smalltalk (Number method)"
abs
  self >= 0
   ifTrue: ^self
  ifFalse: ^(0 - self).
```

Some like to view a HLL as a



### Functions and Operators

Most functions can be defined as operators, and vice versa.

Example: Ada provides an exponentiation operator \_\_\_\_\_ where C++ provides an exponentiation function \_\_\_\_\_.

So a 3rd-order polynomial can be expressed in C++ as

$$y = a * pow(x,3) + b * pow(x,2) + c * x + d;$$

or in Ada as:

$$y = a * x ** 3 + b * x ** 2 + c * x + d;$$

Superficially, functions and operators are equivalent:

- The \_\_\_\_\_ of a function  $\equiv$  the \_\_\_\_ of an operator.
- A function can be thought of as a \_\_\_\_\_



### Functions: as Abstractions

Others prefer to view functions as an abstraction mechanism:

- the ability to \_

Example: If a library provides a *summation()* function, it might use any of these algorithms:

```
// iterative algorithm
int summation(int n) {
  int result = 1;
  for (int i = 2; i <= n; i++)
    result += i;
  return result;
}</pre>
```

```
// recursive algorithm
int summation(int n) {
  if (n >= 2)
    return n + summation(n-1);
  else
    return 1;
}
```

```
// using Gauss' formula
int summation(int n) {
  return n * (n+1) / 2;
}
```

The name *summation()* is an *abstraction* that hides the details of the particular algorithm it uses.

## Functions: as Subprograms

#### Imperative HLLs divide functions into two categories:

- \_\_\_\_\_: subprograms that map:  $(P_1 \times P_2 \times ... \times P_n) \rightarrow \emptyset$
- \_\_\_\_\_: subprograms that map:  $(P_1 \times P_2 \times ... \times P_n) \rightarrow R \neq \emptyset$

#### There are no standard names for these categories:

HLL	$(D) \rightarrow \emptyset$	$(D) \rightarrow R$
C/C++	void function	function
Fortran	subroutine	function
Pascal	procedure	function
Modula-2	proper procedure	function procedure
Ada	procedure	function

We will describe subprograms mapping (D)  $\rightarrow$  R as *functions*, and describe subprograms mapping (D)  $\rightarrow$  Ø as *procedures*.

### Functions: as Messages

OO languages view functions as \_\_\_\_\_ The receiver of a message executes its \_\_\_ - The result is controlled by the \_\_\_\_\_\_, not the *sender*. Different OO languages use different syntax for messages... Example: To find the length of anArray, we send it a message: // C++ // Smalltalk // Java anArray->length() anArray.length anArray size Example: To find the length of aString, we send it a message: // C++ // Java // Smalltalk aString->length() aString.length() aString size

Messages are something like \_\_\_

## Subprogram Mechanisms

To have a subprogram mechanism, a language must provide:

- A means of \_\_\_\_ the subprogram (specifying its behavior);
- A means of \_\_\_\_\_ the subprogram (or *activating* it).

In programming languages, to define a thing is to:

Example: This is a C++ subprogram definition: because it:

```
int summation(int n) {
  return n * (n+1) / 2;
```

- (i) reserves storage (for the function's code); and
- (ii) binds the name summation to the first address in that storage.



### Definitions vs. Declarations

Where a *definition* binds a name to *storage*,

a \_\_\_\_\_\_ binds a name to a \_\_\_\_\_\_.

Example: This is a

C++ declaration:

int summation(int n);

because it tells the compiler this about summation:

allowing the compiler to type-check calls to the function.

For a *variable*, declaration and definition are

int result;

This statement reserves a word of memory, and binds the name *result* to the address of that word.

For subprograms, declaration and definition \_\_\_\_



### C/C++ Function Pointers

#### Implication of a function definition:

a C/C++ function's name is a

Example: If summation and factorial are two functions:

```
int summation(int n) { return n * (n+1) / 2; }
int factorial(int n) { ... definition of factorial ... }
```

then we can declare a pointer type:

use it to define a pointer array:

initialize our array:

and then call either function:

Classes use a similar table for

```
typedef int * fptr(int);
```

```
fptr fTable[2];
```

```
fTable[0] = summation;
fTable[1] = factorial;
```

```
cout << fTable[i](n);</pre>
```



# Subprogram Definitions

To allocate a	subprogram's storage, 4 items are needed:	
1. Its	(data storage for values sent by the caller);	
2. Its	(data storage for the return value);	
3. Its	(data storage for local variables); and	
4. Its	or statements (executable code storage).	
These are al	l provided by a subprogram's definition.	
By contrast, a subprogram's declaration requires only:		
1. Its	(i.e., its domain-set D); and	
2. Its	(i.e., its range-set R)	
This	$f(D) \rightarrow R$	
lets the co	mpiler check calls to the function for correctness.	

### Imperative Examples

Consider these imperative function definitions:

```
// C++
void swap(int & a, int & b) {
  int t = a; a = b; b = t;
}
```

```
-- Ada
procedure swap(a, b: in out integer) is
integer t;
begin
  t := a; a := b; b := t;
end swap;
```

In each case, we have:

This allows the compiler to check that in calls: swap(x, y); the arguments x and y are compatible with the parameters.



### Subprograms: Lisp and Smalltalk

#### A Lisp subprogram definition uses the \_\_\_\_\_ function:

```
"Lisp"
(defun factorial (n)
  if (< n 2)
     1
     (* n (factorial (- n 1) )) )</pre>
```

When evaluated, *defun* parses the function that follows it and (assuming no errors) creates a symbol table entry for it.

### A Smalltalk subprogram must be

On an *accept event*,
Smalltalk parses the
method and (assuming no
errors) creates a symbol
table entry for it.



### Calling Subprograms

In most languages, a subprogram is called by

```
// C++
swap(x, y);

(* Modula-2 *)
swap(x, y);
```

```
-- Ada
swap(x, y);

* Fortran
   CALL swap(x, y);
```

Fortran subroutines must be called with the *CALL* keyword.

Lisp functions must be called

(following an o-parenthesis):

Smalltalk requires that a message be sent to an object:

```
"Lisp"
(setq answer (factorial n) )
```

"Smalltalk"
answer := 5 factorial



### Issue: Parameterless Subprograms

Must parentheses be given at calls to parameterless functions?

- •C/C++:
  - doSomething();
- () is the *function-call operator;* jumps to address preceding it
- Modula-2: \_\_\_\_\_

doSomething;

- () delimits arguments
- •Lisp: \_

(doSomething)

() delimits function calls

• Ada:

doSomething;

- () delimits arguments (syntax)
- •Fortran:

CALL doSomething

- () delimits arguments
- •Smalltalk:

obj doSomething

no method has 0 parameters...

### **Activations**

An activation is \_\_\_\_\_\_, and involves 3 steps:

- -Space for the subprogram's data values is allocated on a special run-time stack;
- -The caller's arguments are associated with the subprogram's parameters;
- -Control is transferred from the caller to the starting address of the subprogram.

On Unix systems, the run-time stack grows "downward"

The space for one subprogram's data is called a stack frame, or

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Caller's Frame

Return Value

Last parameter

Second parameter First parameter

Caller's

State

Information

Local

Variables

**Temporaries** 

run-time stack

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### Why a Stack?

Consider a recursive subprogram:

When called: sum(3)

sum(3) calls: sum(2)

sum(2) calls: sum(1)

sum(1) returns 1 to: sum(2)

sum(2) returns 2+1 to: sum(3)

sum(3) returns 3+3 to its caller.

The call-sequence uses

behavior, so a *stack* is the appropriate data structure.

Each activation's parameters (n) and locals must be kept distinct.

A stack is necessary in

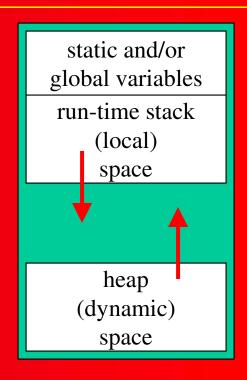
```
// C++
int sum(n) {
 if (n > 1)
  return n + sum(n-1);
 else
  return 1;
```

```
rv:?
       rv:?
             rv:?
                    rv:?
                           rv:6
n:3
              n:3
                     n:3
                            n:3
             rv:?
       rv:?
                    rv:3
       n:2
              n:2
                    n:2
             rv:1
              n:1
```

### Memory Layout

On Unix systems, a program's data space is laid out something like this:

- Space for static/global variables
- The *run-time stack* for locals, parameters, etc.
- The *heap* for dynamically allocated variables.



This flexible design uses memory efficiently:
A typical program only runs out of memory if

- its stack overruns its heap (\_\_\_\_\_\_\_), or
- its heap overruns its stack (\_\_\_\_\_\_)



### Parameter Passing

Parameters are allocated space \_\_\_\_\_

on the run-time stack.

Before control is transferred to the subprogram, the call's arguments are "associated with" these parameters.

Return Value

Last parameter

• • •

Second parameter First parameter

Caller's

State

Information

Local

Variables

Temporaries

Exactly how arguments get associated with parameters depends on the *parameter passing mechanism* being used.

There are *four* general mechanisms:



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### Call-by-Value Parameters

... are \_\_\_\_\_ into which their arguments are \_\_\_\_

- Changing a parameter doesn't affect its argument's value.
- This is the *default* mechanism in most languages.
- This is the *only* mechanism in C, Lisp, Java, Smalltalk, ...

```
// C++
int summ (int a, int b) {
  return (a+b) * (b-a+1) / 2;
}
```

```
"Lisp"
(defun summ (a b)
(/ (* (+ a b) (+ (- b a) 1))
2) )
```

```
"Smalltalk Integer method"
summ: b
    ^(self+b) * (b-self+1) / 2
```

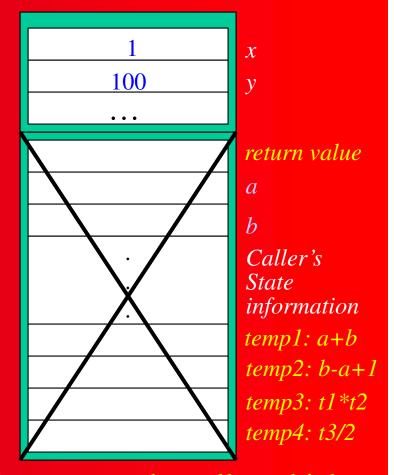
In Ada, in is optional, but is considered good programming style.



### When function *summ()* is called

```
// C++
total = summ(x, y);
```

- An activation record for summ()
   containing space for a and b is
   pushed onto the run-time stack.
- The arguments are evaluated and copied into their parameters.
- Control is tranferred to summ()
   which executes and computes its return-value.



- summ()'s AR is popped, and control returns to the caller which retrieves the return-value from just "above" its stack-frame.



### Call-by-Reference Parameters

... are \_\_\_\_\_ storing \_\_\_\_ that are auto-dereferenced whenever they are accessed.

- The parameter is an *alias* for the argument.
- Changing the parameter's value changes the argument's value.

```
// C++
void swap (int& a, int& b) {
  int t = a; a = b; b = t;
}
```

```
-- Ada
procedure swap (a, b: in out integer)
is t: integer;
begin
  t:= a; a:= b; b:= t;
end swap;
```

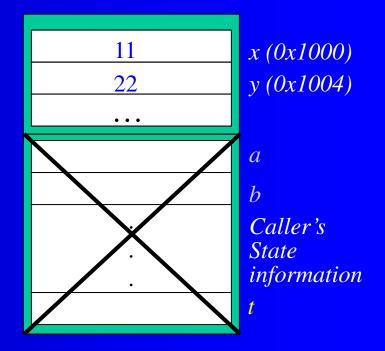
Smalltalk and Lisp implicitly provide call-by-reference, because "variables" are actually pointers to dynamic objects.

Java is complicated...

### When swap() is called

```
// C++
swap(x, y);
```

- An activation record for swap()
   containing space for a and b is
   pushed onto the run-time stack.
- The *addresses* of the arguments are stored into their parameters.



- Control is transferred to swap() which executes, automatically dereferencing accesses to a and b.
- The RTS is popped, control returns to the caller, and the original values of x and y have been overwritten with new values.



## Implementing Call-by-Reference?

Stroustrup's first C++ "compiler" just produced C code, so if C only provides the call-by-value mechanism, how can it handle the C++ call-by-reference mechanism?

```
swap(x, y);

// C++
void swap (int& a,
          int& b);
```

// C++

```
1. At the call, replace arguments with :
```

```
2. In the declaration and definition, replace reference parameters with _____:
```

```
3. Within the function definition, _____ each access to the parameter
```

Any compiler can implement call-by-reference this way.

```
/* C */
swap(&x, &y);
```

```
/* C */
void swap (int* a,
int* b);
```



### Call-by-Copy-Restore Parameters

#### ... store Within the subprogram, parameter accesses – When the subprogram terminates, the local value is into the corresponding argument. — More time-efficient then call-by-reference for *heavily-used* parameters (avoids slow pointer-dereferencing). - Ada's parameters may use copy-restore... procedure get (str: in out ubString; length in out integer) is ch: character; begin length:= 0; str:= ""; get(ch); while not End Of Line loop str:= str + ch; length:= length + 1;



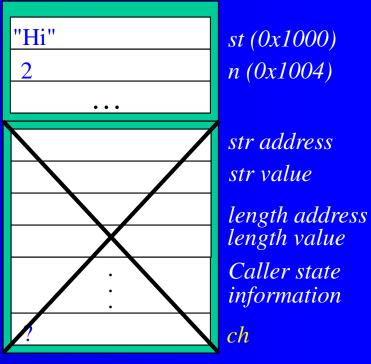
get (ch);

end get;

### When get() is called

```
-- Ada
get(st, n);
```

- An activation record for get()
   containing space for the data and address of both str and length is pushed onto the run-time stack.
- Argument values and addresses are written to their parameters.
- Control is tranferred to *get()* which executes, accessing only local values *str* and *length*.
- The original values of arguments *st* and *n* are overwritten with the values of parameters *str* and *length*, the RTS is popped, and control returns to the caller.



### Aliasing

Copy-restore parameters behave the same as reference parameters, so long as the parameter is not an \_\_\_\_\_ for a non-local that is accessed within the same subprogram.

Example:
Suppose we have this subprogram:

```
procedure aliasExample (param: in out integer) is
begin
   param:= 1;
   a:= 2;
end get;
a:= 0;
aliasExample(a);
```

put(a);

What is output, if *param* uses:

- call-by-reference?
- call-by-value-restore?

To avoid this, Ada \_



### Call-by-Name Parameters

- 1. Copy the body of the subprogram;
- 2. In the copy, substitute the arguments for the parameters;
- 3. Substitute the resulting copy for the call;

The result is the *call-by-name* mechanism (aka \_\_\_\_\_)

```
/* C */
#define SWAP (a, b) { int t = a; a = b; b = t; }
```

```
// C++
inline void swap (int& a, int& b) { int t = a; a = b; b = t; }
```

- Call-by-name originated with *Algol-60*.
- By replacing the function-call with the altered body, call-by-name:
  - by eliminating the call and the RTS overhead; but
  - o \_\_\_\_\_\_ by increasing the size of the program.



### At each call to swap()

```
// C++ call to swap()
swap(w, x);
```

```
// C++ call to swap()
swap (y, z);
```

• The compiler makes a *copy* of the body of the function.

```
{ int t = a; a = b; b = t; } { int t = a; a = b; b = t; }
```

• In it, the compiler substitutes arguments for parameters.

```
{ int t = w; w = x; x = t; } { int t = y; y = z; z = t; }
```

• The compiler substitutes the resulting body for the call.

```
// C++ call to swap()
```

The resulting code is \_\_\_\_\_, but without the overhead of pushing a stack-frame, setting parameters, ... it runs

### Macro-Substitution Anomaly

Suppose we have defined this C macro:

```
#define SWAP (a, b) { int t = a; a = b; b = t; }
 a and i are as follows:
                                                  33
                                                      44
                                                         55
                                         a 11
 and we call:
                                SWAP(i, a[i]);
What we expect is:
                                         a 11
                                                      44
                                                         55
 but what we get is:
What happened? Our call:
                                SWAP(i, a[i]);
 is replaced by:
                                 \{int \ t = i; \ i = a[i]; \ a[i] = t; \ \}
```

Because of such unexpected results, the use of macrosubstitution (#define) for call-by-name is discouraged.



Tracing, we see: t

 $a[i] \rightarrow \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \rightarrow \text{bus error}$ 

### What About inline?

Suppose we have defined this C++ *inline* function:

```
inline void swap (int& a, int& b) { int t = a; a = b; b = t; }
 a and i are as follows:
                                        11
                                               33
                                                  44
                                                     55
 and we call:
                              swap(i, a[i]);
What we expect is:
                                                  44
                                                     55
                                      a 11
                                                     55
 and we get:
What happened? Our call: swap(i, a[i]);
 is replaced by:
                        \{int* t1 = &i; int* t2 = &a[i];
                         int t = *t1; *t1 = *t2; *t2 = t;
Since a[i] has a reference parameter, its address is computed
 and stored (in t2), and
Call-by-name (via inline) is _____ in C++.
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```

# Summary

The	ere are two broad categories of subprograms: : that map: $(P_1 \times P_2 \times \times P_n) \rightarrow$ : that map: $(P_1 \times P_2 \times \times P_n) \rightarrow$
	en a subprogram is <i>called</i> , ancontaining ce for its variables is pushed onto the
The	four parameter-passing mechanisms are: Call-by
_ <u>_</u>	stores a copy of the argument.
	stores the address (reference) of the argument and
a	uto-dereferences all accesses to the parameter.
	stores a copy and the address of the argument, and
re	eplaces the argument's value with the copy's value on termination.
	makes a copy of the function, replaces the parameter in the
C	opy with the argument, and then replaces the call with that copy.
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