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 all 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

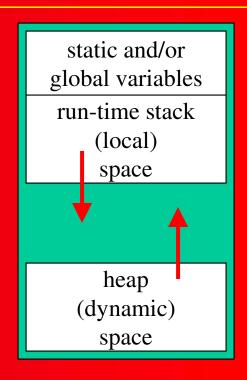
```
// C++
int sum(n) {
 if (n > 1)
  return n + sum(n-1);
 else
  return 1;
```

```
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 value into which their arguments are *copied*. 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
```

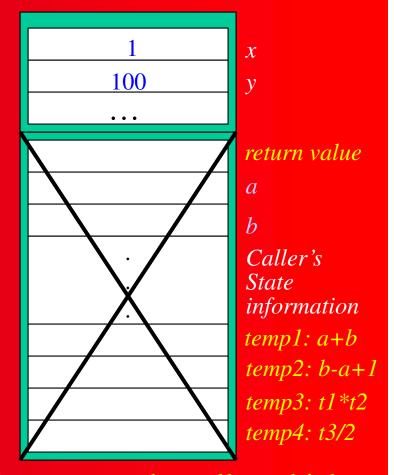
In Ada, in is optional, but is considered good programming style.



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 pointers storing the addresses of their arguments, 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;
```

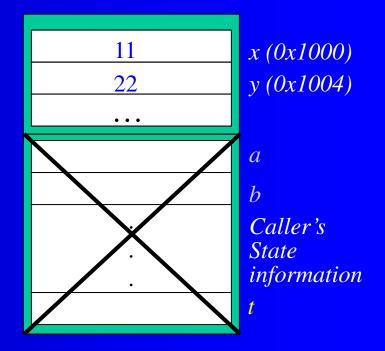
Smalltalk and Lisp implicitly provide call-by-reference, because "variables" are actually pointers to dynamic objects.

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++

- 1. At the call, replace arguments with their *adresses*:
- 2. In the declaration and definition, replace reference parameters with *pointers*:
- 3. Within the function definition, *dereference* each access to the parameter

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

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



Call-by-Copy-Restore Parameters

- ... store both the value and the address of their arguments.
 - Within the subprogram, parameter accesses use the local value
 - When the subprogram terminates, the local value is *copied back* into the corresponding argument.
 - More time-efficient then call-by-reference for *heavily-used* parameters (avoids slow pointer-dereferencing).
 - Ada's *in-out* parameters *may* use copy-restore...

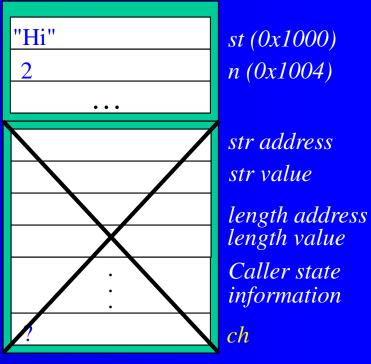
```
procedure get (str: in out ubString; length in out integer) is
  ch: character;
begin
  length:= 0; str:= ""; get(ch);
  while not End_Of_Line loop
    str:= str + ch;
  length:= length + 1;
    get(ch);
end get;
```



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 *alias* 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 forbids aliasing.



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:
 - o improves time efficiency by eliminating the call and the RTS overhead; but
 - o decreases space-efficiency 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 *larger*, but without the overhead of pushing a stack-frame, setting parameters, ... it runs faster.



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:
                                           a 11 22
                                                     33
                                                         44
                                                            55
                                  SWAP(i, a[i]);
 and we call:
What we expect is:
                                           a 11
                                                         44
                                                            55
 but what we get is:
                                  bus error: core dumped
What happened? Our call:
                                  SWAP(i, a[i]);
 is replaced by:
                                   \{int \ t = i; \ i = a[i]; \ a[i] = t; \}
                                           a[i] \rightarrow a[33] \rightarrow \text{bus error}
Tracing, we see:
```

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



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
                                       \overline{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 changes to i do not affect t2.

Call-by-name (via inline) is safe in C++.



Summary

There are two broad categories of subprograms:

- -procedures: that map: $(P_1 \times P_2 \times ... \times P_n) \rightarrow \text{null/void}$
- -functions: that map: $(P_1 \times P_2 \times ... \times P_n) \rightarrow \text{null/void}$

When a subprogram is *called*, an *activation record* containing space for its variables is pushed onto the *runtime stack*.

The four parameter-passing mechanisms are: Call-by - value stores a copy of the argument.

- Value stores the address (reference) of the argument and autodereferences all accesses to the parameter.
- Reference stores a copy and the address of the argument, and replaces the argument's value with the copy's value on termination.
- Name makes a copy of the function, replaces the parameter in the copy with the argument, and then replaces the call with that copy.



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