

Theory of Programming Languages

Week 8 SUBPROGRAMS

Fundamental Characteristics of Subprograms

1. A subprogram has a single entry point
2. The caller is suspended during execution of the called subprogram
3. Control always returns to the caller when the called subprogram's execution terminates

Basic definitions:

A *subprogram definition* is a description of the actions of the subprogram abstraction

A *subprogram call* is an explicit request that the subprogram be executed

A *subprogram header* is the first line of the definition, including the name, the kind of subprogram, and the formal parameters

The *parameter profile* of a subprogram is the number, order, and types of its parameters

The *protocol* of a subprogram is its parameter profile plus, if it is a function, its return type

A subprogram *declaration* provides the protocol, but not the body, of the subprogram

A *formal parameter* is a dummy variable listed in the subprogram header and used in the subprogram

An *actual parameter* represents a value or address used in the subprogram call statement

Actual/Formal Parameter Correspondence:

1. *Positional*

2. *Keyword*

e.g. `SORT(LIST => A, LENGTH => N);`

Advantage: order is irrelevant

Disadvantage: user must know the formal parameter's names

Default Values:

e.g.

```
procedure SORT(LIST : LIST_TYPE;
               LENGTH : INTEGER := 100);
...
SORT(LIST => A);
```

Procedures provide user-defined statements

Functions provide user-defined operators

Design Issues for Subprograms

1. What parameter passing methods are provided?
2. Are parameter types checked?
3. Are local variables static or dynamic?
4. What is the referencing environment of a passed subprogram?
5. Are parameter types in passed subprograms checked?
6. Can subprogram definitions be nested?
7. Can subprograms be overloaded?
8. Are subprograms allowed to be generic?
9. Is separate or independent compilation supported?

Local referencing environments

If local variables are stack-dynamic:

- **Advantages:**
 - a. Support for recursion
 - b. Storage for locals is shared among some subprograms
- **Disadvantages:**
 - a. Allocation/deallocation time
 - b. Indirect addressing
 - c. Subprograms cannot be history sensitive

Static locals are the opposite

Language Examples:

1. FORTRAN 77 and 90 - most are static, but can have either (`SAVE` forces static)
2. C - both (variables declared to be static are) (default is stack dynamic)
3. Pascal, Modula-2, and Ada - dynamic only

Parameters and Parameter Passing

Semantic Models: in mode, out mode, inout mode

Conceptual Models of Transfer:

1. Physically move a value
2. Move an access path

Implementation Models:

1. Pass-by-value (in mode)

- Either by physical move or access path
- **Disadvantages of access path method:**
 - Must write-protect in the called subprogram
 - Accesses cost more (indirect addressing)
- **Disadvantages of physical move:**
 - Requires more storage
 - Cost of the moves

2. Pass-by-result (out mode)

- Local's value is passed back to the caller
 - Physical move is usually used
 - **Disadvantages:**
 - a. If value is passed, time and space
 - b. In both cases, order dependence may be a problem
- e.g.

```
procedure subl(y: int, z: int);  
...  
  subl(x, x);
```

Value of x in the caller depends on order of assignments at the return

3. Pass-by-value-result (inout mode)

- Physical move, both ways
- Also called pass-by-copy
- **Disadvantages:**
 - Those of pass-by-result
 - Those of pass-by-value

4. Pass-by-reference (inout mode)

- Pass an access path
- Also called pass-by-sharing
- **Advantage:** passing process is efficient
- **Disadvantages:**
 - a. Slower accesses
 - b. Can allow aliasing:
 - i. **Actual parameter collisions:**
 - e.g.

```
procedure subl(a: int, b: int);  
...  
  subl(x, x);
```
 - ii. **Array element collisions:**
 - e.g.

```
subl(a[i], a[j]); /* if i = j */  
Also, sub2(a, a[i]);
```
 - iii. **Collision between formals and globals**
- Root cause of all of these is: The called subprogram is provided wider access to nonlocals than is necessary
- Pass-by-value-result does not allow these aliases (but has other problems!)

5. Pass-by-name

- By textual substitution
- Formals are bound to an access method at the time of the call, but actual binding to a value or address takes place at the time of a reference or assignment
- Purpose: flexibility of late binding
- *Resulting semantics:*
 - If actual is a scalar variable, it is pass-by-reference.
 - If actual is a constant expression, it is pass-by-value
 - If actual is an array element, it is pass-by-reference.

e.g.

```
procedure subl(x: int; y: int);
begin
  x := 1;
  y := 2;
  x := 2;
  y := 3;
end;

subl(i, a[i]);
```

If actual is an expression with a reference to a variable that is also accessible in the program, a special case arises:

e.g. (assume k is a global variable)

```
procedure subl(x: int; y: int; z: int);
begin
  k := 1;
  y := x;
  k := 5;
  z := x;
end;
subl(k+1, j, i);
```

- *Disadvantages of pass by name:*
 - Inefficient references (and late binding of values)
 - Too tricky; hard to read and understand

Implementing Parameter Passing

- **Pass by value:** copy it to the stack; references are direct to the stack (pass by result is the same).
- **Pass by reference:** regardless of form, put the address in the stack. References are indirect through the address on the stack.
- **Pass by Name:** run-time resident code segments or subprograms evaluate the address of the parameter; called for each reference to the formal; these are called *thunks*.

Multidimensional Arrays as Parameters

-If a multidimensional array is passed to a subprogram and the subprogram is separately compiled, the compiler needs to know the declared size of that array for mapping function (e.g. to map 2D coordinates to 1D)

- C and C++

- Programmer is required to include the declared sizes of all but the first subscript in the actual parameter. This reduces flexibility.

```
void someFunc(int someArray[][3]) ;
```

Solution: pass a pointer to the array and the sizes of the dimensions as other parameters; the user must include the storage mapping function, which is in terms of the size parameters.

- **Pascal:** Not a problem (declared size is part of the array's type)

- Ada

Constrained arrays - like Pascal

Unconstrained arrays - declared size is part of the object declaration.

Pre-90 FORTRAN

- Formal parameter declarations for arrays can include passed parameters

```
SUBPROGRAM SUB(MATRIX, ROWS, COLS, RESULT)
  INTEGER ROWS, COLS
  REAL MATRIX (ROWS, COLS), RESULT
  ...
END
```

Design Considerations for Parameter Passing

1. Efficiency
2. One-way or two-way

But these two are in conflict with one another!

- Good programming => limited access to variables, which means one-way whenever possible.
- Efficiency => pass by reference is fastest way to pass structures of significant size.

Parameters that are Subprogram Names

1. Are parameter types checked?

- Early Pascal and FORTRAN 77 do not
- Later versions of Pascal, Modula-2, and FORTRAN 90 do
- Ada does not allow subprogram parameters
- C and C++ - pass pointers to functions; type checking possible.

2. What is the correct referencing environment for a subprogram that was sent as a parameter?

- Possibilities:

- a. It is that of the subprogram that enacted it.
 - *Shallow binding*
- b. It is that of the subprogram that declared it.
 - *Deep binding*
- c. It is that of the subprogram that passed it.
 - *Ad hoc binding* (Has never been used)

- For static-scoped languages, deep binding is most natural. Why?
- For dynamic-scoped languages, shallow binding is most natural.

An **overloaded subprogram** is one that has the same name as another subprogram in the same referencing environment

C++ and Ada have overloaded subprograms built-in, and users can write their own overloaded subprograms

These are differentiated based on their profiles.

Generic Subprograms

A **generic or polymorphic subprogram** is one that takes parameters of different types on different activations

Overloaded subprograms provide **ad hoc polymorphism**

A subprogram that takes a generic parameter that is used in a type expression that describes the type of the parameters of the subprogram provides **parametric polymorphism**

Example of a generic subprogram in Ada

```
generic
type ELEMENT is private;
type VECTOR is array (INTEGER range <>) of ELEMENT;
procedure GENERIC_SORT(List: in out VECTOR);

procedure GENERIC_SORT(List: in out VECTOR) is
TEMP : ELEMENT;
begin
for INDEX_1 in LIST'FIRST ..
INDEX_1'PRED(LIST'LAST) loop
for INDEX_2 in INDEX'SUCC(INDEX_1) ..
LIST'LAST loop
if LIST(INDEX_1) > LIST(INDEX_2) then
TEMP := LIST (INDEX_1);
LIST(INDEX_1) := LIST(INDEX_2);
LIST(INDEX_2) := TEMP;
end if;
end loop; -- for INDEX_1 ...
end loop; -- for INDEX_2 ...
end GENERIC_SORT;

procedure INTEGER_SORT is new GENERIC_SORT(ELEMENT =>
INTEGER; VECTOR => INT_ARRAY);
```

C++

Templated functions are generic subprograms

```
template <class Type>
Type max(Type first, Type second) {
return first > second ? first : second;
}
```

C++ template functions are instantiated **implicitly** when the function is named in a call or when its address is taken with the & operator

Another example:

```
template <class Type>
void generic_sort(Type list[], int len) {
int top, bottom;
Type temp;
for (top = 0; top < len - 2; top++)
for (bottom = top + 1; bottom < len - 1;
bottom++) {
if (list[top] > list[bottom]) {
temp = list [top];
list[top] = list[bottom];
list[bottom] = temp;
} /** end of for (bottom = ...
} /** end of generic_sort
```

Example use:

```
float flt_list[100];
...
generic_sort(flt_list, 100); // Implicit
// instantiation
```

Independent and Separate Compilations

Independent compilation is compilation of some of the units of a program independently from the rest of the program, without the benefit of interface information (variable types and protocols of sub-programs).

Separate compilation is compilation of some of the units of a program separately from the rest of the program, using interface information to check the correctness of the interface between the two parts.

Reading assignment: Read about these in detail, and how various languages allow or do not allow them.

Accessing Nonlocal Environments

The **nonlocal variables** of a subprogram are those that are visible but not declared in the subprogram

Global variables are those that may be visible in all of the subprograms of a program

What are the various methods to access Nonlocal Environments?

Methods to access Nonlocal Environments

1. FORTRAN COMMON

COMMON is a special statement that allows access to nonlocal variables stored in a special block.

Following is one sub-program, adding to a specific block.

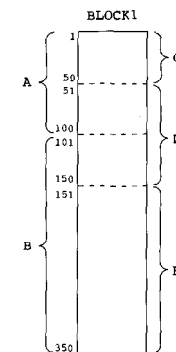
```
REAL A(100)
INTEGER B(250)
COMMON /BLOCK1/ A, B
```

following is another subprogram adding to the same block:

```
REAL C(50), D(100)
INTEGER E(200)
COMMON /BLOCK1/ C, D, E
```

2. STATIC SCOPING – already discussed.

Two perspectives of the common block



User-Defined Overloaded Operators

Nearly all programming languages have *overloaded operators*

Users can further overload operators in C++ and Ada
(Not carried over into Java)

Example (Ada) (assume `VECTOR_TYPE` has been defined to be an array type with `INTEGER` elements):

```
function ""(A, B : in VECTOR_TYPE)
  return INTEGER is
  SUM : INTEGER := 0;
  begin
  for INDEX in A'range loop
    SUM := SUM + A(INDEX) * B(INDEX);
  end loop;
  return SUM;
end "";
```

Are user-defined overloaded operators good or bad?

Co-Routines

Co-routines

A **coroutine** is a subprogram that has multiple entries and controls them itself (also called symmetric control)

- A coroutine call is named a **resume**
- The first resume of a coroutine is to its beginning, but subsequent calls enter at the point just after the last executed statement in the coroutine
- Typically, co-routines repeatedly resume each other, possibly forever.
- Co-routines provide quasi-concurrent execution of program units (the co-routines)
- Their execution is interleaved, but not overlapped

More on these later.