

# Chapter 8

## ***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

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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);`

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**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?**

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## 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

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## 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

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## ***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

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## 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 sub1(a: int, b: int);  
...  
sub1(x, x);
```

- ii. *Array element collisions:*

e.g.

```
sub1(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!)

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## 5. *Pass-by-name (multiple mode)*

- 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 like nothing else

e.g.

```
procedure sub1(x: int; y: int);  
begin  
  x := 1;  
  y := 2;  
  x := 2;  
  y := 3;  
end;
```

```
sub1(i, a[i]);
```



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- If actual is an expression with a reference to a variable that is also accessible in the program, it is also like nothing else

**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:***
  - Very inefficient references
  - Too tricky; hard to read and understand

## Language Examples:

### 1. FORTRAN

- Before 77, pass-by-reference
- 77 - scalar variables are often passed by value-result

### 2. ALGOL 60

- Pass-by-name is default; pass-by-value is optional

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## 3. ALGOL W

- Pass-by-value-result

## 4. C

- Pass-by-value

## 5. Pascal and Modula-2

- Default is pass-by-value; pass-by-reference is optional

## 6. C++

- Like C, but also allows reference type parameters, which provide the efficiency of pass-by-reference with in-mode semantics

## 7. Ada

- All three semantic modes are available
- If `out`, it cannot be referenced
- If `in`, it cannot be assigned

## 8. Java

- Like C++, except only references

## Type checking parameters

- *Now considered very important for reliability*

- FORTRAN 77 and original C: none
- Pascal, Modula-2, FORTRAN 90, Java, and Ada: it is always required
- ANSI C and C++: choice is made by the user

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## Implementing Parameter Passing

*ALGOL 60 and most of its descendants* use the run-time stack

- **Value** - copy it to the stack; references are indirect to the stack
- **Result** - same
- **Reference** - regardless of form, put the address in the stack
- **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*
  - Very expensive, compared to reference or value-result

### *Ada*

- Simple variables are passed by copy (value-result)
- Structured types can be either by copy or reference
  - This can be a problem, because
    - a) Of aliases (reference allows aliases, but value-result does not)
    - b) Procedure termination by error can produce different actual parameter results
- Programs with such errors are erroneous

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## 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 to build the storage mapping function
- C and C++
  - Programmer is required to include the declared sizes of all but the first subscript in the actual parameter
  - This disallows writing flexible subprograms
  - 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 (See example, p. 351)
- 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 (See book example p. 351)

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- **Pre-90 FORTRAN**

- **Formal parameter declarations for arrays can include passed parameters**

- **e.g.**

```
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**

- **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**

- **Also, functions should not allow reference parameters**

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## Parameters that are Subprogram Names

### Issues:

#### 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; parameters can be type checked

#### 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)

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

**Example:**

```
sub1
├── sub2
│   ├── sub3
│   │   ├── call sub4(sub2)
│   │   └── sub4(subx)
│   │       └── call subx
│   └── call sub3
```

**What is the referencing environment of `sub2` when it is called in `sub4`?**

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**Def:** 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

## 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*

### *Examples of parametric polymorphism*

#### 1. Ada

- Types, subscript ranges, constant values, etc., can be generic in Ada subprograms and packages e.g. - see next page



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```
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_1'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);
```

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- **Ada generics are used to provide the functionality of parameters that are subprograms; generic part is a subprogram**

## **Example:**

```
generic
  with function FUN(X : FLOAT) return FLOAT;
procedure INTEGRATE(LOWERBD : in FLOAT;
                    UPPERBD  : in FLOAT;
                    RESULT   : out FLOAT);
procedure INTEGRATE(LOWERBD : in FLOAT;
                    UPPERBD  : in FLOAT;
                    RESULT   : out FLOAT) is

  FUNVAL : FLOAT;
begin
  ...
  FUNVAL := FUN(LOWERBD);
  ...
end;
```

```
INTEGRATE_FUN1 is new INTEGRATE(FUN => FUN1);
```

## **2. C++**

- **Templated functions**
- **e.g.**

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

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**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
```

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**Def:** *Independent compilation* is compilation of some of the units of a program separately from the rest of the program, without the benefit of interface information

**Def:** *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.

***Language Examples:***

**FORTRAN II to FORTRAN 77 - independent**

**FORTRAN 90, Ada, Modula-2, C++ - separate**

**Pascal - allows neither**

## Functions

***Design Issues:***

- 1. Are side effects allowed?**
  - a. Two-way parameters (Ada does not allow)**
  - b. Nonlocal reference (all allow)**
- 2. What types of return values are allowed?**

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## Functions (continued)

*Language Examples* (for possible return types):

1. FORTRAN, Pascal, Modula-2 - only simple types
2. C - any type except functions and arrays
3. Ada - any type (but subprograms are not types)
4. C++ and Java - like C, but also allow classes to be returned

## Accessing Nonlocal Environments

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

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

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## *Methods:*

### **1. FORTRAN COMMON**

- The only way in pre-90 FORTRANs to access nonlocal variables
- Can be used to share data or share storage

### **2. *Static scoping* - discussed in Chapter 4**

### **3. *External declarations* - C**

- Subprograms are not nested
- Globals are created by external declarations (they are simply defined outside any function)
- Access is by either implicit or explicit declaration
- Declarations (not definitions) give types to externally defined variables (and say they are defined elsewhere)

### **4. *External modules* - Ada and Modula-2**

- More about these later (Chapter 10)

### **5. *Dynamic Scope* - discussed in Chapter 4**

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## 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?**

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## Coroutines

**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, coroutines repeatedly resume each other, possibly forever**
- **Coroutines provide quasiconcurrent execution of program units (the coroutines)**
- **Their execution is interleaved, but not overlapped**