# Lab 9: Nested and High-Order Functions

(adapted from Profs. Jones and Tolmach's earlier version)

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### **Nested Functions**

► Sometimes it is useful to allow function definitions to be nested, one inside another

```
int f(int x, int y) {
  int square(int z) { return z*z; }
  return square(x) + square(y);
}
```

- ► This might, for example, be used to introduce a local function, square, without making it more widely visible
- ▶ Java, (standard) C, C++ do not allow this, but ML, Pascal, Haskell, and many other languages do ...

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```
void sort(File inp, File out) {
  int[] a;
  ... a ... readArray ... quicksort ... writeArray ...
}

void readArray(inp, a) { ... inp ... a ... }

void writeArray(a, out) { ... a ... out ... }

void quicksort(a, lo, hi) {
  int pivot = ...;
  ... a ... pivot ... partition ... quicksort ...
}

void partition(a, pivot, lo, hi) {
  ... a ... pivot ... swap ...
}

void swap(a, i, j) { ... a[i] ... a[j] ... }
```

Now let's move readArray and writeArray in to sort

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### A More Complicated Example: Quicksort

```
void sort(File inp, File out) {
  int[] a;
  void readArray() { ... inp ... a ... }
  void writeArray() { ... a ... out ... }

  ... a ... readArray ... quicksort ... writeArray ...
}

void quicksort(a, lo, hi) {
  int pivot = ...;
   ... a ... pivot ... partition ... quicksort ...
}

void partition(a, pivot, lo, hi) {
   ... a ... pivot ... swap ...
}

void swap(a, i, j) { ... a[i] ... a[j] ... }
```

parameters are no longer required!

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```
void sort(File inp, File out) {
  int[] a;
  void readArray() { ... inp ... a ... }
  void writeArray() { ... a ... out ... }

  ... a ... readArray ... quicksort ... writeArray ...
}

void quicksort(a, lo, hi) {
  int pivot = ...;
  void partition(a, pivot, lo, hi) {
    ... a ... pivot ... swap ...
  }
  void swap(a, i, j) { ... a[i] ... a[j] ... }

  ... a ... pivot ... partition ... quicksort ...
}
```

Move partition and swap in to quicksort

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# A More Complicated Example: Quicksort

```
void sort(File inp, File out) {
  int[] a;
  void readArray() { ... inp ... a ... }
  void writeArray() { ... a ... out ... }

  ... a ... readArray ... quicksort ... writeArray ...
}

void quicksort(a, lo, hi) {
  int pivot = ...;
  void partition() {
        ... a ... pivot ... swap ...
  }
  void swap(i, j) { ... a[i] ... a[j] ... }

  ... a ... pivot ... partition ... quicksort ...
}
```

again, fewer parameters are required!

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```
void sort(File inp, File out) {
  int[] a;
  void readArray() { ... inp ... a ... }
  void writeArray() { ... a ... out ... }

  ... a ... readArray ... quicksort ... writeArray ...
}

void quicksort(a, lo, hi) {
  int pivot = ...;
  void partition() {
    void swap(i, j) { ... a[i] ... a[j] ... }
    ... a ... pivot ... swap ...
  }

  ... a ... pivot ... partition ... quicksort ...
}
```

▶ Move swap in to partition

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# A More Complicated Example: Quicksort

```
void sort(File inp, File out) {
  int[] a;
  void readArray() { ... inp ... a ... }
  void writeArray() { ... a ... out ... }

void quicksort(a, lo, hi) {
  int pivot = ...;
  void partition() {
    void swap(i, j) { ... a[i] ... a[j] ... }
    ... a ... pivot ... swap ...
  }

  ... a ... pivot ... partition ... quicksort ...
}

... a ... readArray ... quicksort ... writeArray ...
}
```

Move quicksort in to sort

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```
void sort(File inp, File out) {
  int[] a;
  void readArray() { ... inp ... a ... }
  void writeArray() { ... a ... out ... }

void quicksort(lo, hi) {
  int pivot = ...;
  void partition() {
    void swap(i, j) { ... a[i] ... a[j] ... }
    ... a ... pivot ... swap ...
  }

  ... a ... pivot ... partition ... quicksort ...
}

... a ... readArray ... quicksort ... writeArray ...
}
```

- yet again, fewer parameters are required!
- how can we compile code like this?

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### Exercise

Warning: These exercises require gcc extensions to C that are enabled by default on linux lab machines, but may not be available on Macs (where gcc is not actually really gcc ...)

- ► Compile and run the program example1.c
- ▶ Rewrite it to use nested functions as much as possible, but without changing the parameters to any function. Name this program nested1.c
- ▶ Test this new program by compiling and running it
- Now attempt to drop as many parameters as possible from each nested function, but without changing the sequence of calls made. Name this program dropped1.c
- ► Test this new program by compiling and running it

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# Implementation: Free Variables

► The challenge here is in dealing with nested functions that access variables that are defined in enclosing functions

```
int f(int x, int y) {
  int g(int z) { return x+z; }
  return g(x+y);
}
```

- ► For example, x is said to be "bound" in the definition of f, but "free" in the definition of g
- ▶ The code for g refers to a variable that is not in its stack frame

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enclosing

### Static Links

- ➤ To support calls to nested functions like this, we can give the callee a pointer to the stack frame of the "lexically enclosing" function.
- This is known as a static link (or access link)
- ► For example, if arguments are passed on stack, we might include the static length as a special "zeroeth" argument

```
stack
                            frame
            arg_n
             . . .
            arg_1
 24
         static link
 16
          ret addr
 +8
       dynamic link
rbp
           local<sub>1</sub>
-8
             . . .
           local_m
rsp
```

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# Example

Given the earlier definition:

```
int f(int x, int y) {
  int g(int z) { return x+z; }
  return g(x+y);
}
```

and a call f(4,2), the stack might look something like the following during the call to g

In particular, the value for x can be found by following the static link g and taking the usual offset for x

```
y=2
x=4
frame
for f
```

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# Static Link $\neq$ Base Pointer

► Suppose we have the definition:

```
int f(int x, int y) {
  int g(int z) { return h(x+h(z)); }
  int h(int u) { return y*u; }
  return g(x+y);
}
```

► The static link that g uses in calls to h points to the stack frame for f, not the stack frame for g

```
У
stack
frame static link f
for f
         ret addr f
         dyn link f
             z
stack
       static link _{\it g}
frame
         ret addr g
for g
         dyn link g
stack
        static link h
frame
         ret addr h
for h
         dyn link h
```

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# Lexical Depth

- ► A function at the top level (i.e., with no enclosing function) has lexical depth 0 (and does not need a static link)
- ► A function that appears inside the definition of a function with depth n has depth n+1
- ▶ To access a variable/call a function at depth n, from a function at depth m (note that  $n \le m$ ), then we have to follow the static link in the current frame (m-n) times

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### Lexical Depth for Quicksort

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# Static Links in gcc for X86-64

- ► The X86-64 ABI tries to avoid passing arguments on the stack, and the same philosophy applies to the static link
- ► So the static link is passed in %r10 (an otherwise unused caller-save register)
- ► Even when compiling with optimization on, any variable accessed from a nested function *must* be stored in a stack frame!
  - ▶ But still typically no need for %rbp; static link points to bottom address of this frame

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### Worked Example

- ► Compile the program example2.c to a .s file using gcc -01 -S -o example2.s example2.c
- ► Walk step-by-step through the behavior of the assembly code, annotating it
- ▶ Show the contents of the stack and key registers at each point

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#### Exercise

Repeat the same steps for example3.c

- Annotate the assembly code.
- ▶ Identify the lexical depth of each function
- ► Clearly identify the code that implements a variable reference which spans a lexical depth difference of 2

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# **Higher Order Functions**

Functions that take other functions as arguments or return other functions as results are sometimes called *higher order functions*:

```
int(int) f(int x, int y) {
  int g(int z) { return x+z; }
  return g;
}
```

int(int) represents a type for functions that take an
int argument and return an int result

- In this case, g may be called after f has returned
- ightharpoonup ... so g may need to access f's x parameter after f has returned
- ... so we can't just dispose of the activation record as soon as a function exits.

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# Moving from the Stack to the Heap ...

- ► A solution in this case is to allocate the activation record for f on the heap, and not on the stack
- ▶ Note that the term "stack frame" is no longer appropriate!
- ► Unused activation records can be recovered by garbage collection instead of by popping them off the stack
- ► Alternatively, if we don't keep the stack frames in the heap, then we will need to save a copy of x's value in the representation for g before f returns
- ► Variants of these schemes are used in many functional language implementations (and, increasingly now, also in other settings such as C++, Python, and Javascript implementations)

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### Lambda Expressions

Lambda expressions (anonymous functions) provide a way to write functions without giving them a name.

$$x \rightarrow \lambda x.e \rightarrow e$$

Haskell	\x -> x + 1
LISP	(lambda (x) (+ x 1))
Python	lambda x: x + 1
Javascript	function (x) x + 1
C++11	[](int x) -> int { return x + 1; }
Java 8	(int x) -> x + 1

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# Example

► The previous example:

```
int(int) f(int x, int y) {
  int g(int z) { return x+z; }
  return g;
}
```

▶ Rewritten using a lambda expression:

```
int(int) f(int x, int y) {
  return (\z -> x+z);
}
```

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# Using Function Values

► A general purpose "mapping" primitive:

```
void mapArray(int(int) f, int[] arr) {
  for (int i=0; i<arr.length; i++) {
    arr[i] = f(arr[i]);
  }
}</pre>
```

Note that the f in the body of the for loop is a parameter of mapArray, not a known function

► To increment every element in an array, arr:

```
mapArray(\x -> x + 1, arr);
```

► To double every element in an array, arr:

```
mapArray(\x -> x * 2, arr);
```

▶ Etc...

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# Composing Function Values

▶ A general purpose "composition" primitive:

```
(int)int compose(int(int) f, int(int) g) {
  return \x -> f (g x);
}
```

Using compose, we can combine two separate mapping operations:

```
mapArray(g, arr);
mapArray(f, arr);
```

Into a single iteration across the array:

```
mapArray(compose(f, g), arr);
```

► Etc...

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### Representing Function Values

How should we represent values of type int(int)?

► There are many different values, including:

```
(\z \rightarrow x+z), (\x \rightarrow x+1), (\x \rightarrow x*2), (\x \rightarrow f(g(x))), ...
```

- ► ... any of which could be passed as arguments to functions like mapArray or compose, ...
- ... so we need a uniform, but flexible way to represent them

A common answer is to represent functions like these by a pointer to a "closure", a heap allocated record that contains:

- ▶ a code pointer (i.e., the code for the function)
- the values of its free variables

Because we're making copies of the free variables, we usually require them to be immutable

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#### Closures

Every function of type int(int) will be represented using the same basic structure:



► The code pointer and list of variables vary from one function value to the next:

$$(\z \rightarrow x+z) \quad codeptr1 \quad x$$

$$(\x \rightarrow x+1) \quad codeptr2$$

$$(\x \rightarrow x*2) \quad codeptr3$$

$$(\x \rightarrow f(g(x))) \quad codeptr4 \quad f \quad g$$

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### Constructing and Calling Closures

We can encode closure construction in standard IR code:

- ▶ make an RTS call to allocate the closure record
- store the values of the free variables into the record

To call a function via a closure:

- add a pointer to the closure as an extra initial argument (to provide access to any free variables)
- make an indirect call to the code pointed to by the first field of the closure

Within the function code, free variables are referenced via the closure argument

► Known functions without free variables don't need a closure argument and can be called directly

# Implementation of $(\z \rightarrow x+z)$

```
t1 = call _malloc(12)
0[t1]:P = _code1
8[t1]:I = x
...

_code1(clo,z)
(x)
{
    x = 8[clo]:I
    t1 = x+z
    return t1
}
```

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# Implementation of ( $x \rightarrow x+1$ )

```
t1 = call _malloc(8)
0[t1]:P = _code2
...

_code2(clo,x)
{
   t1 = x+1
   return t1
}
```

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# Implementation of $(\x \rightarrow f(g(x)))$

```
t1 = call _malloc(24)
    0[t1]:P = _code4
    8[t1]:P = f
    16[t1]:P = g
    ...

_code4(clo,x)
    (f,g)
    {
        f = 8[clo]:P
        g = 16[clo]:P
        t1 = 0[g]:P
        t2 = call *t1(g,x)
        t3 = 0[f]:P
        t4 = call *t3(f,t2)
        return t4
}
```

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#### **Exercises**

▶ Fill in the code for these three functions in example4.ir. For simplicity, assume that they are always called directly, rather than via closures, so they have no closure argument

▶ Test your code using the IR interpreter

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# Closures vs. Objects

Invoking an unknown function through a closure is very similar to invoking a method of an object ...

- Recall that method invocations pass the object itself as an implicit argument
- Closures are like objects with a single method
- Free variables correspond to object fields

In Java 8, lambda expressions are "just" a convenient way to write (local, anonymous) definitions of single-method classes

Very useful for GUI call-backs, aggregate operations, etc.

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### **Summary**

- More sophisticated forms of function can be supported by modifying or generalizing how activation records are used
- ► For a language with higher-order functions, we need to allocate activation records on the heap, or copy data to other heapallocated objects, because a function value may have a longer lifetime than the function that created it
- ► Function values can be represented by closure records that pair a code pointer with a list of variable values
- ► Invoking an unknown function through a closure is very similar to invoking a method of an object ...
- ► The techniques shown here are key tools in the implementation of functional programming languages and are gradually becoming common in OO languages too

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