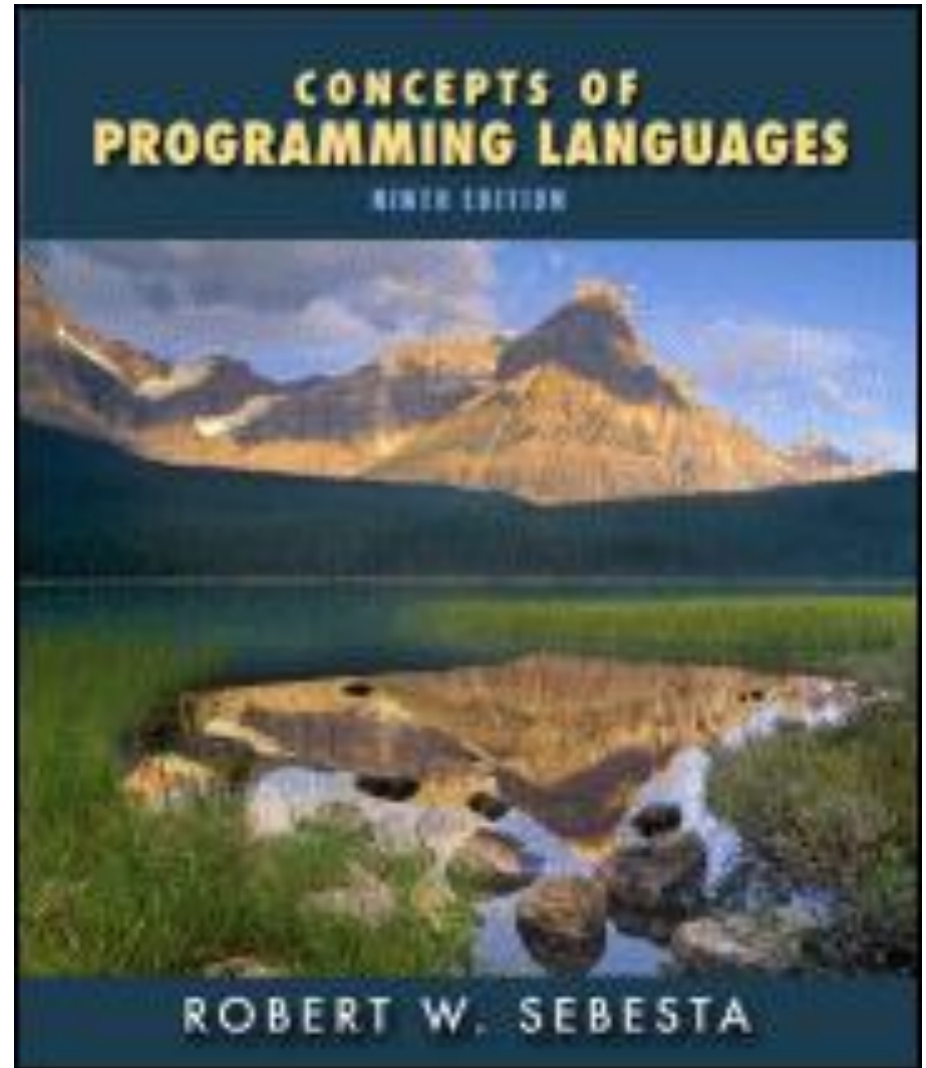


Chapter 9

Subprograms



Ch09 – Subprograms

- 9.1 Introduction*
- 9.2 Fundamentals of Subprograms*
- 9.3 Design Issues for Subprograms*
- 9.4 Local Referencing Environments*
- 9.5 Parameter-Passing Methods
- 9.6 Parameters That Are Subprogram Names
- 9.7 Overloaded Subprograms
- 9.8 Generic Subprograms
- 9.9 Design Issues for Functions*
- 9.10 User-Defined Overloaded Operators*
- 9.11 Coroutines

9.6 Parameters That Are Subprogram Names

- Example

- In C and C++, pointers or references to functions can be passed as parameters, but not functions.

- `int y = 2;`

```
int f(int x) { return x+y; }    // look up y in global data area
```

Method 1 – Pointers to functions as parameters

```
int p(int (*f)(int)) { return f(7); } // (*f) → f; f(7) → (*f)(7)
cout << p(f) << p(&f);           // only code pointer is passed
```

Method 2 – References to functions as parameters

```
int p(int (&f)(int)) { return f(7); } // f(7) → (*f)(7)
cout << p(f);                       // only code pointer is passed
```

9.6 Parameters That Are Subprogram Names

- Referencing environment for passed subprograms
 - Shallow binding
The passed subprogram is executed in the calling env.
 - Deep binding
The passed subprogram is executed in the defining env.
 - Ad hoc binding
The passed subprogram is executed in the passing env.

9.6 Parameters That Are Subprogram Names

- A Javascript example

- function sub1()

- {

- var x = 1;

- function sub2() { alert(x); }

static distance = 1



- function sub3() { var x = 3; sub4(sub2); }

- function sub4(subx) { var x = 4; subx(); }

- sub3();

- }

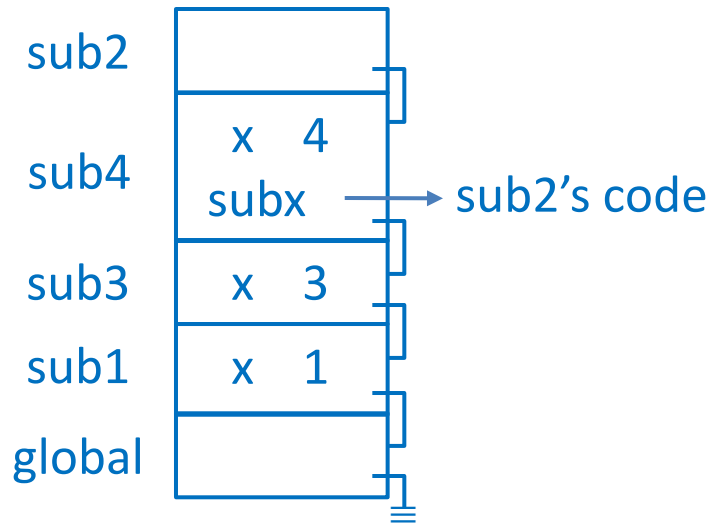
alert(4) – shallow binding, dynamic scoping

alert(1) – deep binding, static scoping

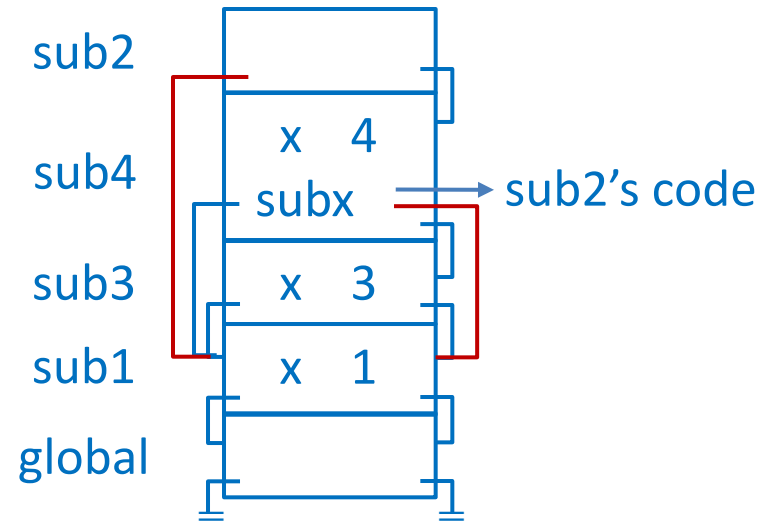
alert(3) – ad hoc binding; never used

9.6 Parameters That Are Subprogram Names

- Shallow binding

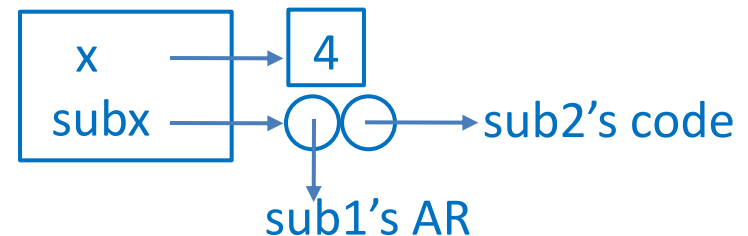


- Deep binding



- Note: The r.h.s. diagram is for typed languages that don't allow returning functions as values (e.g. Pascal).

An AR for untyped languages:



Supplementary: Scheme Implementation

- First-class objects

- First-class objects satisfy 3 properties:

- Storable
 - Can be passed as arguments
 - Can be returned as function values

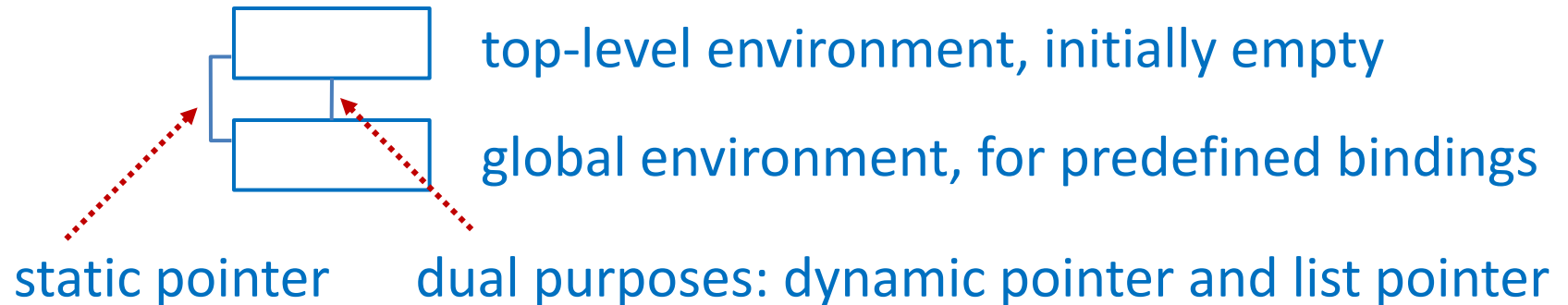
- Example

In C/C++, arrays and functions aren't first-class.

In Scheme, SML, Javascript, and Perl, functions are first-class

Supplementary: Scheme Implementation

- Initial run-time stack



```
global
├── top-level
│   ├── > cons
│   │   └── #<procedure cons>
│   ├── > car
│   │   └── #<procedure car>
```

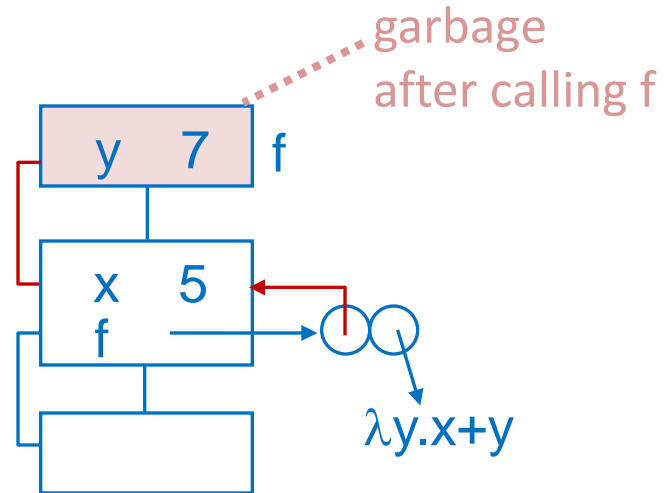

Supplementary: Scheme Implementation

- Evaluation of λ -expressions

(define x 5)

(define f (lambda (y) (+ x y)))

(f 7) \Rightarrow 12



A λ -expression evaluates to a closure

(code pointer, environment pointer)

where the environment pointer points to the stack top in which the λ -expression is evaluated (i.e. the definition environment of the λ -expression).

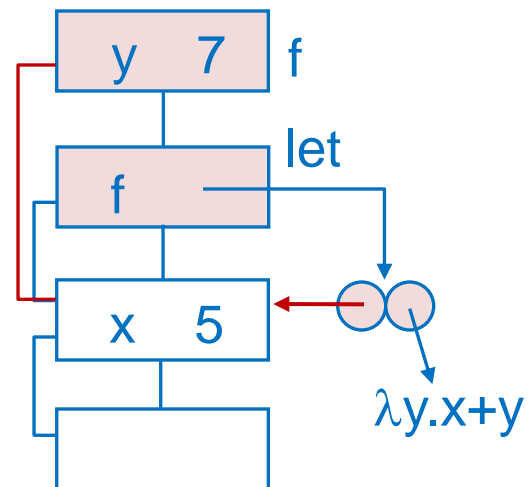
Supplementary: Scheme Implementation

- Evaluation of let expressions

(define x 5)

(let ((f (lambda (y) (+ x y))))

(f 7)) \Rightarrow 12



$\lambda y.x+y$ is evaluated before allocating let's AR.

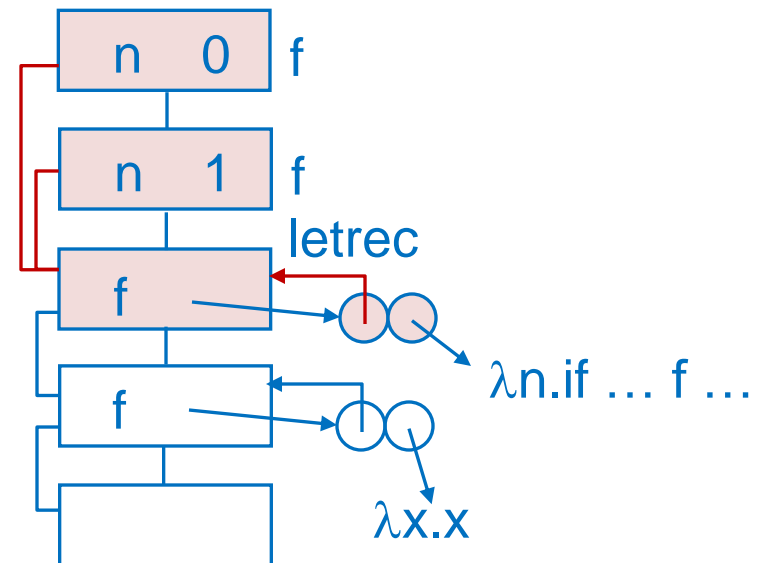
Supplementary: Scheme Implementation

- Evaluation of letrec expressions

```
(define f (lambda (x) x))
```

```
(letrec ((f (lambda (n) (if (= n 0) 1 (* n (f (- n 1)))))))
```

```
(f 1)) ⇒ 1
```



$\lambda n. \text{if} \dots f \dots$ is evaluated after allocating letrec's AR.

Supplementary: Scheme Implementation

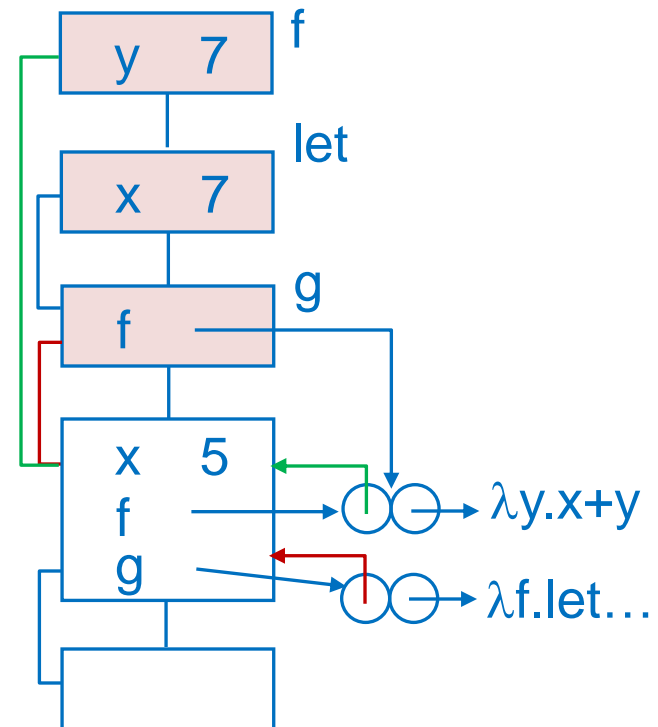
- Functions as arguments

```
(define x 5)
```

```
(define f (lambda (y) (+ x y)))
```

```
(define g  
  (lambda (f) (let ((x 7)) (f x))))
```

```
(g f) ⇒ 12
```



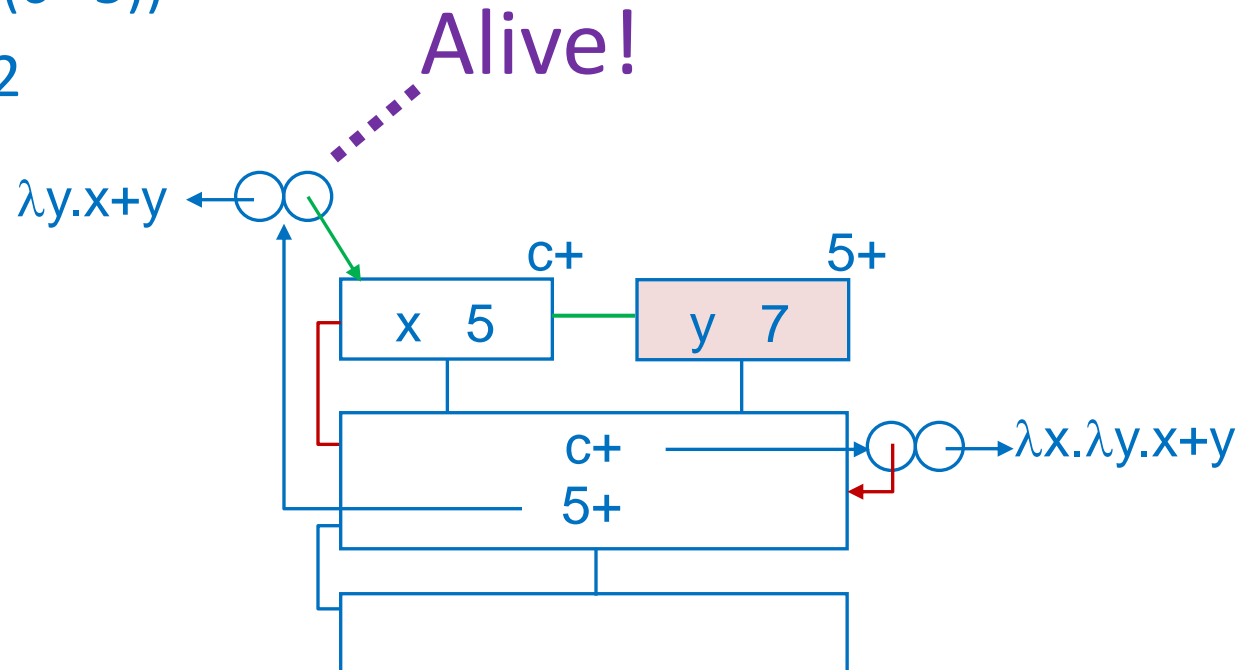
Supplementary: Scheme Implementation

- Functions as returned values

```
(define c+ (lambda (x) (lambda (y) (+ x y))))
```

```
(define 5+ (c+ 5))
```

```
(5+ 7) ⇒ 12
```



Supplementary: Scheme Implementation

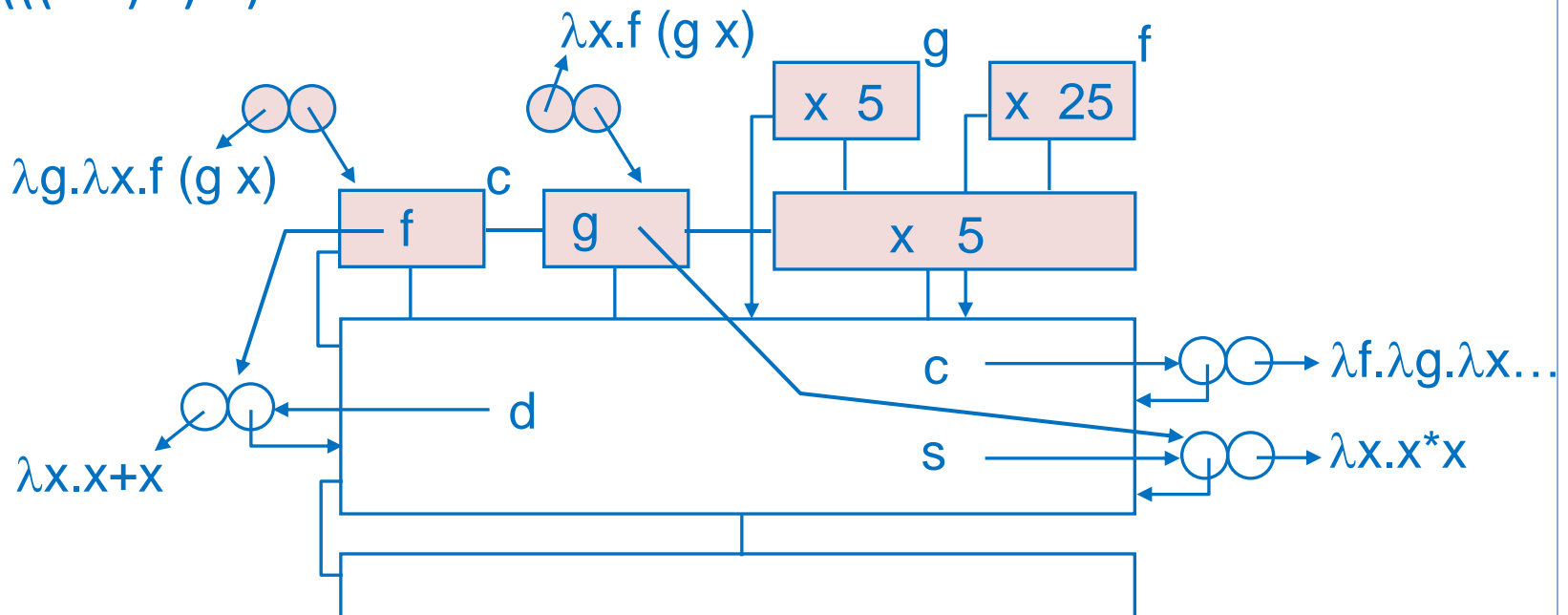
- Functions as returned values

```
(define c (lambda (f) (lambda (g) (lambda (x) (f (g x))))))
```

```
(define d (lambda (x) (+ x x)))
```

```
(define s (lambda (x) (* x x)))
```

```
((c d) s) 5 ⇒ 50
```



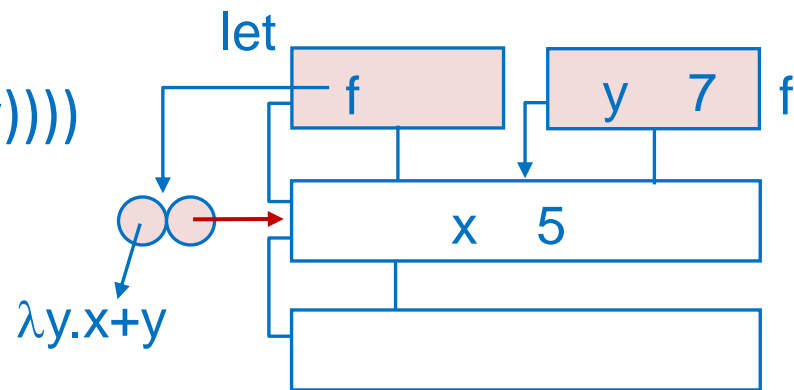
Supplementary: Scheme Implementation

- Conclusions on functions as returned values
 - The run-time stack must be implemented as a linked list.
 - The run-time stack grows like a tree.
 - All objects (in particular, local objects) in Scheme have unlimited extent – they continue to exist as long as they aren't garbage collected.

```
(define x 5)

((let ((f (lambda (y) (+ x y))))
  f)
  7)                                      $\lambda y.$ 

 $\Rightarrow 12$ 
```



Supplementary: Scheme Implementation

- Note on C/C++

- Pointers/references to functions may be returned as function values, but not functions.
- Only code pointers are returned.

Free variables of a function must be global and can be accessed directly in the global/static data area.

```
int f(int x) { return x+y; }           // free y is global
int (*p())(int) { return &f; }        // or, return f;
int (&q())(int) { return f; }
cout << p()(7) << (*p())(7) ;
cout << q()(7) << (*q())(7);
```


9.7 Overloaded Subprograms

- Overloaded subprograms
 - An *overloaded subprogram* is one that has the same name as another subprogram in the same referencing environment
 - Properties of overloaded subprograms
 - Have distinct definitions
 - Needn't behave similarly
 - Subprogram calls are resolved by the compiler
 - Example

```
int square(int n) { return n*n; }  
double square(double n) { return n*n; }  
long square(long n) { return 8825252*n; }
```

9.7 Overloaded Subprograms

- Two kinds of overloading
 - Context-independent overloading
 - Overloaded subprograms must differ in parameters, e.g. C++
 - Context-dependent overloading
 - Overloaded subprograms must differ in parameters or function value's type, e.g. Ada
 - Example

```
int square(int n) { return n*n; }
```

```
double square(int n) { return n*n; }
```

```
int x = square(2);      // call int → int
```

```
double x = square(2);   // call int → double
```

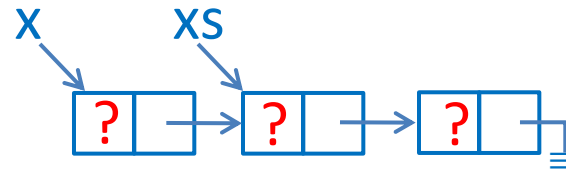
9.8 Generic Subprograms

- Generic subprograms
 - A *generic subprogram* takes parameters of different types on different activations.
- Generic subprograms in C++
 - Properties of generic subprograms in C++
 - abbreviations for sets of overloaded subprograms
 - template instantiations (macro-expansion) driven by the template arguments at compile time
 - Example

```
template<typename T> T square(T n) { return n*n; }
template<> long square(long n) { return 8825252*n; }
cout << square(2) << square(2.0) << square(2L);
```

9.8 Generic Subprograms

- Generic subprograms in ML
 - Properties of generic subprograms in ML
 - Have a single definition
 - Behave similarly
 - Example
 - fun length [] = 0
 - = | length (x::xs) = 1+length xs;
 - val length = fn : 'a list -> int
 - length [1,2,3];
 - length [1.1,2.2,3.3];



9.8 Generic Subprograms

- Polymorphism
 - Ad hoc polymorphism (i.e. overloading)
 - Parameterized polymorphism
 - Usually refer to ML's generic subprograms
 - C++'s generic subprograms is usually regarded as a special kind of parameterized polymorphism
 - Inclusion polymorphism
 - Polymorphism in OOP
 - Late binding; run-time polymorphism
(Ad hoc and parameterized polymorphisms are early-binding compile-time polymorphisms.)

9.8 Generic Subprograms

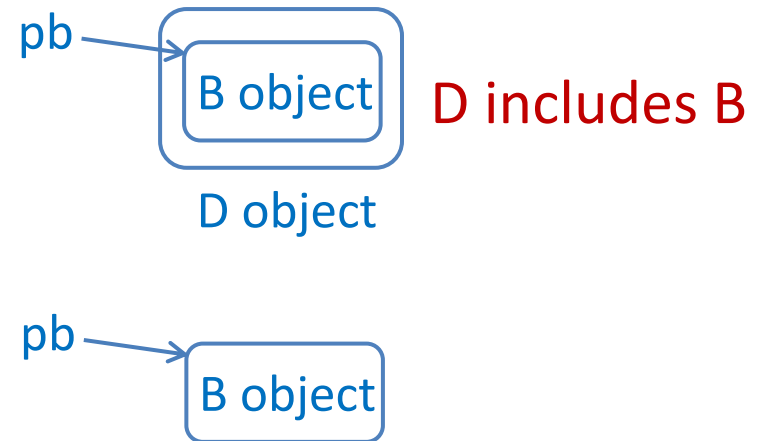
- Polymorphism

- Inclusion polymorphism in C++

```
class B {  
public: virtual void p() {}  
};
```

```
class D : public B {  
public: virtual void p() {}  
};
```

```
B* pb=new D;  
pb->p();           // D::p  
pb=new B;  
pb->p();           // B::p
```

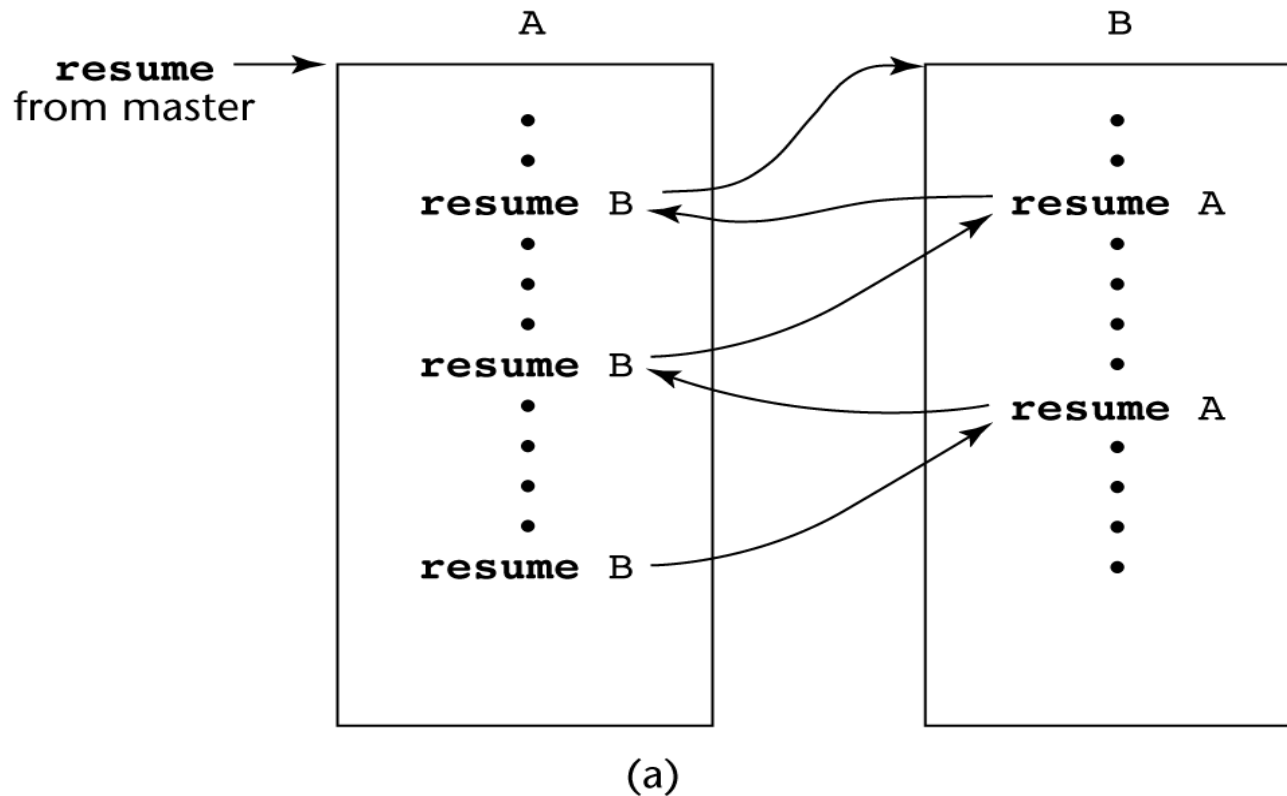


9.11 Coroutines

- Coroutine (Concurrent routine)
 - A *coroutine* is a subprogram that has multiple entries and controls them itself.
 - 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.
 - Coroutines repeatedly resume each other, possibly forever
 - Coroutines provide *quasi-concurrent execution* of program units (the coroutines)

9.11 Coroutines

- Coroutines illustrated: possible execution controls



9.11 Coroutines

- Coroutines in C/C++

// generate the infinite sequence 0,1,2,..., one at a time

```
int nats()
```

```
{
```

```
    static int state=0,k=0;
```

```
    switch (state) {
```

```
        case 0: goto start;
```

```
        case 1: goto resume;
```

```
    }
```

```
start: state=1;
```

```
    while (true) { return k; resume: k++; }
```

```
}
```

```
// ordinary function
```

```
int nats()
```

```
{
```

```
    static int k=0;
```

```
    return k++;
```

```
}
```

9.11 Coroutines

- Coroutines in C/C++

// Duff's device

```
int nats()
{
    static int state=0,k=0;
    switch (state) {
        case 0: state=1;
                while (true) {
                    return k;
                }
        case 1: k++;    // case within the nested block
                }
    }
}
```

9.11 Coroutines

- Coroutines in C/C++

// Take the next n natural numbers from coroutine nats()

```
void takenext(int n)
```

```
{
```

```
    for (int i=1;i<=n;i++) cout << nats() << ' ';
```

```
    cout << endl;
```

```
}
```

```
int main(void)
```

```
{
```

```
    takenext(7); takenext(8);
```

```
}
```

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Parameter passing methods

- Call by value
 - Call by result
 - Call by value-result
 - Call by reference
 - Call by name
 - Call by need
- } call by copy
- } delayed evaluation

- Call by copy

- Disadvantages
 - Space and time overhead for copying in/out large objects
 - Unsuitable for some types, e.g. functions.

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Advantage
 - Time efficient when accessing formal parameters
- Call by reference
 - Disadvantage
 - Time inefficient when accessing formal parameters, due to indirection operations.
 - Advantages
 - Space and time efficient at the entry time when passing large objects.
 - Suitable for any type, e.g. functions

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Parameter functionality and passing method
 - In some languages (e.g. Ada, Fortran 95), parameters are declared according to their *high-level* functionalities, rather than the *low-level* passing methods.
 - Three modes of functionalities
 - in caller \rightarrow callee
 - out caller \leftarrow callee
 - inout caller \leftrightarrow callee

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Parameter functionality and passing method
 - For efficiency reasons, the passing methods used for each mode of functionality depend on the types of parameters.

	in	out	in out
Primitive type	value	result	value-result
Structured type	reference	reference	reference

Requirement: in mode parameters can't be modified.

Warning: out mode parameters should not be referenced before being assigned values.

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- A Fortran 95 example

```
subroutine fact(n,r)
```

```
implicit none
```

```
integer, intent(in) :: n
```

```
integer, intent(out) :: r
```

```
r=1
```

```
do while (n>1)
```

```
    r=n*r
```

```
    n=n-1    ! error
```

```
end do
```

```
end subroutine
```

! default is inout

```
integer :: i
```

```
r=1; i=n
```

```
do while (i>1)
```

```
    r=i*r
```

```
    i=i-1
```

```
end do
```


9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

More on call by copy and call by reference

- Design of call by result and value result
 - The order of copying-out the parameters is important.

```
program main
implicit none
integer :: x=7
call p(x,x) ! unspecified
print *, x
end program
```

```
subroutine p(a,b)
implicit none
integer, intent(inout) :: a,b
a=2          ! or, out
b=3
end subroutine
```

$a \rightarrow x$ and then $b \rightarrow x$, or $b \rightarrow x$ and then $a \rightarrow x$?

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Design of call by result and value result

- Where to copy out?

program main

implicit none

integer :: i=2

integer, dimension(3) :: a=[1,2,3]

call p(i,a(i)) ! unspecified

end program

subroutine p(a,b)

implicit none

integer, intent(inout) :: a,b

a=3 ! or, out

b=4

end subroutine

With left-to-right copying out process, should b be copied out to a[2] or a[3]?

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Difference between call by reference and value result
Call-by-reference may introduce aliases, due to sharing.
Call-by-value-result never introduces aliases, due to copying.

```
void swap(int& a,int& b)
{
    a = a+b; b = a-b; a = a-b;
}
```

```
swap(x,x);    // NO
```

```
subroutine swap(a,b)
implicit none
integer, intent(inout) :: a, b
a = a+b; b = a-b; a = a-b;
end subroutine
```

```
call swap(x,x) ! OK
```

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Difference between call by reference and value result
Call-by-reference modifies the actual parameters immediately
Call-by-value-result modifies the actual parameters on exit.

```
void p(int& x)
{
    x++; throw 777;
}
a=2;
p(a);           // with call-by-reference, a becomes 3
                // with call-by-value-result, a is still 2.
```

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Delayed evaluation (call by name, call by need)
 - An actual parameter isn't evaluated at the point of call. It is evaluated only when its value is needed (i.e. the corresponding formal parameter is referenced.)
 - Call by name
 - An actual parameter is evaluated *each time* its value is needed
 - Call by need
 - An actual parameter is evaluated *only* when its value is needed for *the first time*.
 - The value obtained is cached for further use.

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Call by name

- Used in Algol 60, Simula 67
- Substitution rule: for the effect of call-by-name

Substitute the actual parameter for every occurrence of the corresponding formal parameter.

```
void swap (int x,int y) { int z=x; x=y; y=z; }
```

```
swap(a,b)      ⇒ int z=a; a=b; b=z;
```

```
swap(i,a[i])   ⇒ int z=i; i=a[i]; a[i]=z;
```

- Difference between call by name and call by reference

Call by name adopts flexible late binding

Call by reference adopts fixed early binding

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Call by name

- How to resolve name conflict?


- Rename the local variable

`void swap (int x,int y) { int z=x; x=y; y=z; }`

`swap(a,z) \Rightarrow int z'=a; a=z; z=z';`

- Evaluate the actual parameter in its environment

`swap(a,z) \Rightarrow int z=a; a=z; z=z`


evaluate in caller's env. evaluate in callee's env.

Thus, the code `z` and its environment, i.e. a closure, must be passed.

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Implementation of call by name
 - An actual parameter *exp* is passed as a parameterless function, called a *thunk*.
`thunk() { exp }`
 - A reference to the formal parameter becomes a call to the thunk.
- Implementation of call by need
 - Like call-by-name, except that a call-by-need thunk must memoize the value of the actual parameter computed for the 1st time.

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Simulation of call-by-name in Scheme

- (define-syntax freeze

(syntax-rules ()

((freeze exp) (lambda () exp))))



macro call



macro expansion

(define thaw (lambda (promise) (promise)))

- Since Scheme uses call by value, freeze can't be defined as a function.

(define freeze (lambda (exp) (lambda () exp))) ; NO!

(freeze (+ 2 3)) \Rightarrow (freeze 5) \Rightarrow (lambda () 5)

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Simulation of call-by-name in Scheme

- Example

```
(define myif
```

```
  (lambda (e1 e2 e3) (if e1 e2 e3)))
```

```
(define f
```

```
  (lambda (n) (myif (= n 0) 1 (* n (f (- n 1))))))
```

```
(f 3)    ⇒ ???
```

```
(define myif
```

```
  (lambda (e1 e2 e3) (if e1 (thaw e2) (thaw e3))))
```

```
(define f
```

```
  (lambda (n)
```

```
    (myif (= n 0) (freeze 1) (freeze (* n (f (- n 1)))))))
```

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Simulation of call-by-need in Scheme
 - Delay and force are built-in.
 - > (delay (+ 2 3))
#<procedure>
 - > (force (delay (+ 2 3)))
5
 - > (define x 1)
 - > (define f (lambda (x) (+ (force x) (force x))))
 - > (f (delay (begin (set! x (+ x 1)) x)))
4
 - > x
2

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Simulation of call-by-need in Scheme
 - (define-syntax delay
 (syntax-rules ()
 ((delay exp)
 (let ((result-ready? #f)(result #f))
 (lambda ()
 (cond (result-ready? result)
 (else (set! result exp)
 (set! result-ready? #t) result)))))))
 (define force (lambda (promise) (promise))))
 - NB. This version of delay doesn't work on recursive forcing.

9.5 Parameter Passing Methods

- Parameter-passing in functional languages

Parameter-passing	Evaluation	Semantics	Language	Implementation
call by value	applicative-order eager	strict	Scheme ML	environment
call by name	normal-order	non-strict	λ calculus	
call by need	lazy	non-strict	Haskell	graph reduction

Non-strict semantics allows one to bypass undefined values.

$f\ x = 5$

$f\ (1/0) = \perp \quad \Leftarrow$ strict semantics: $f\ (\perp) = \perp$

$f\ (1/0) = 5 \quad \Leftarrow$ non-strict semantics: $f\ (\perp) \neq \perp$