

# Subprograms

In Text: Chapter 9

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## Outline

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- Definitions
- Referencing environments
- Parameter passing modes and mechanisms
- Advanced subprogram issues

## Characteristics of Subprograms

- Fundamental characteristics:
  - A subprogram has a single entry point
  - The caller is suspended during execution of the called subprogram
  - Control always returns to the caller when the called subprogram's execution terminates

## Actual/Formal Param Correspondence

- Two basic choices:
  - Positional
  - Keyword
- Sort (List => A, Length => N);
- For Keyword association:
  - Advantage: order is irrelevant
  - Disadvantage: user must know the formal parameter's names

## Default Parameter Values

### ■ Example, in Ada:

```
procedure sort (list    : List_Type;
               length : Integer := 100);
...
sort (list => A);
```

## Design Issues for Subprograms

- What parameter passing methods are provided?
- Are parameter types checked?
- Are local variables static or dynamic?
- What is the referencing environment of a passed subprogram?
- Are parameter types in passed subprograms checked?
- Can subprogram definitions be nested?
- Can subprograms be overloaded?
- Are subprograms allowed to be generic?
- Is separate/independent compilation supported?

## Local Referencing Environments

- If local variables are stack-dynamic:
  - Advantages:
    - Support for recursion
    - Storage for locals is shared among some subprograms
  - Disadvantages:
    - Allocation/deallocation time
    - Indirect addressing
    - Subprograms cannot be history sensitive
- Static locals are the opposite

## Local Variables in Example PLs

- FORTRAN 77 and 90—most are static, but can have either (SAVE forces static)
- C—both; default is stack dynamic, but variables declared to be static are not
- Pascal, Modula-2, and Ada—dynamic only

## Parameters and Parameter Passing

- Semantic Models: in mode, out mode, inout mode
- Conceptual Models of Transfer:
  - Physically move a value
  - Move an access path
- Implementation Models:
  - Pass-by-value
  - Pass-by-result
  - Pass-by-value-result
  - Pass-by-reference
  - Pass-by-name

## 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

## Pass-By-Result

- out mode
  - Local's value is passed back to the caller
  - Physical move is usually used
  - Disadvantages:
    - If value is moved, time and space
    - In both cases, order dependence may be a problem
- ```
procedure sub1(y: int, z: int);  
    ...  
    sub1(x, x);
```
- Value of x in the caller depends on order of assignments at the return

## 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

## Pass-By-Reference

- inout mode
- Pass an access path
- Also called pass-by-sharing
- Advantage: passing process is efficient
- Disadvantages:
  - Slower accesses
  - Can allow aliasing:
    - Actual parameter collisions: `sub1(x, x);`
    - Array element collisions: `sub1(a[i], a[j]); /* if i = j */`
    - 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!)

## Ex: value/result vs. reference

```

program foo;
var x : int;
  procedure p(y : int);
  begin
    y := y + 1;
    y := y * x;
  end;
begin
  x := 2;
  p(x);
  print(x)
end.

```

Here, y is an  
alias for x

|                           | <i>value/result</i> | <i>reference</i> |
|---------------------------|---------------------|------------------|
|                           | <b>x y</b>          | <b>x y</b>       |
| <i>(entry to p)</i>       | 2 2                 | 2 2              |
| <i>(after y := y + 1)</i> | 2 3                 | 3 3              |
| <i>(at p's return)</i>    | 6 (6)*              | 9 (9)*           |

\* Actually NOT available after the return

## Pass-By-Name

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

## Pass-By-Name Example 1

```
procedure sub1(x: int; y: int);  
begin  
  x := 1;  i := 1;  
  y := 2;  a[i] := 2;  
  x := 2;  i := 2;  
  y := 3;  a[i] := 3;  
end;  
  
sub1(i, a[i]); 
```

The diagram illustrates the pass-by-name semantics for the procedure call `sub1(i, a[i])`. The procedure `sub1` has two parameters, `x` and `y`, both of type `int`. The body of the procedure contains four statements: `x := 1;`, `y := 2;`, `x := 2;`, and `y := 3;`. The actual arguments in the call are `i` and `a[i]`. Arrows indicate the binding of the actual arguments to the formal parameters at the time of the call. The first arrow points from `i` to the first parameter `x`, and the second arrow points from `a[i]` to the second parameter `y`. The procedure body is shown with a gray background, and the actual arguments are shown in a white box.



## Pass-By-Name Example 2

- Assume *k* is a global variable

```

procedure sub2(x: int; y: int; z: int);
begin
  k := 1;
  y := x;
  k := 5;
  z := x;
end;

sub2(k+1, j, i);

```

## Pass-by-Name (continued)

```

procedure p1;
var x:int;
begin
  x := 2;
  p2(x+1);
end;

procedure p2(y:int);
var x:int;
begin
  x := 5;
  glob := x + y ==>
    x + (x + 1) => p2.x + (p1.x + 1)
end;

```

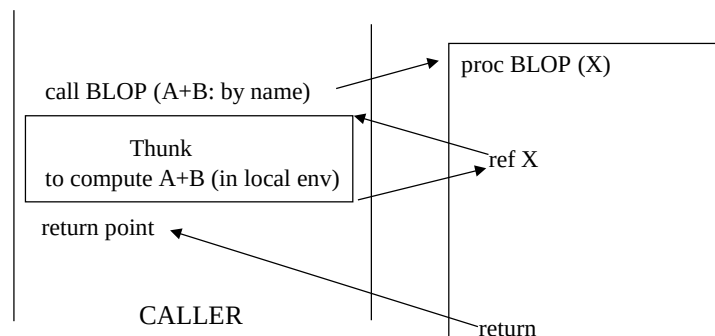
*Now: glob = 11 or 8?*

## Disadvantages of Pass-By-Name

- Very inefficient references
- Too tricky; hard to read and understand
- re-evaluation of actuals
- need *thunk* = (code,env)
  - Special implementation issue

## THUNKS (aka Jensen's Device)

- A Thunk is a parameterless\* function, that exists in the calling program that evaluates the argument
- A parameter reference in the called program compiles as a call to the corresponding Thunk



## Param Passing: Language Examples

- FORTRAN
  - Before 77, pass-by-reference
  - 77—scalar variables are often passed by value-result
- ALGOL 60
  - Pass-by-name is default; pass-by-value is optional
- ALGOL W: Pass-by-value-result
- C: Pass-by-value
- Pascal and Modula-2: Default is pass-by-value; pass-by-reference is optional

## Param Passing: PL Examples (cont.)

- C++: Like C, but also allows reference type parameters, which provide the efficiency of pass-by-reference with in-mode semantics
- Ada
  - All three semantic modes are available
  - If out, it cannot be referenced
  - If in, it cannot be assigned
- Java
  - Like C++, except only references

## 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

## Multidimensional Arrays as Params

- 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)

## More Array Passing Designs

- 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)
- 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
```

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## Design Considerations for Parameter Passing

- Efficiency
- 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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## Subprograms As Parameters: Issues

- 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

## Subprogs as Params: Issues (cont.)

- What is the correct referencing environment for a subprogram that was sent as a parameter?
  - Possibilities:
    - It is that of the subprogram that called it (shallow binding)
    - It is that of the subprogram that declared it (deep binding)
    - It is that of the subprogram that passed it (ad hoc binding, never been used)
  - For static-scoped languages, deep binding is most natural
  - For dynamic-scoped languages, shallow binding is most natural

## Procedure and Function Arguments

```
program p123();
  procedure p1(p);
    /* p is a procedure parameter */
    var x: int;
    begin {p1}
      x := 1;
    /* the passed procedure is invoked */
      p();
    end; {p1}

  procedure p2();
    var x : int;
    /* Note: p3 not normally visible to p1 */
    procedure p3();
      begin {p3}
        /* X must be the x in p2,
           not the x in p1! */
        print (x)
      end; {p3}
    begin {p2}
      x := 2;
      p1(p3)
    end {p2}
  end; {p2}
end; {p123}
```

begin {main} p2(); end. {p123}

Note: This requires *thunks* for static scoping ("deep binding").

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## Overloading

- 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
- Signature used to determine which overloaded subprogram is being referenced
  - Parameter number
  - Parameter types
  - Return value

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## 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**
- See Ada generic and C++ template examples in text

## Functions

### Design Issues:

- Are side effects allowed?
  - Two-way parameters (Ada does not allow)
  - Nonlocal reference (all allow)
- What types of return values are allowed?
  - FORTRAN, Pascal, Modula-2: only simple types
  - C: any type except functions and arrays
  - Ada: any type (but subprograms are not types)
  - C++ and Java: like C, but also allow classes to be returned



## 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

## Methods for Accessing Nonlocals

- **FORTRAN COMMON**
  - The only way in pre-90 FORTRANs to access nonlocal variables
  - Can be used to share data or share storage
- **Static scoping**—discussed in Chapter 4
- **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)
- **External modules: Ada and Modula-2: Sec Ch. 10**
- **Dynamic Scope:** discussed in Ch. 4

## 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)
- Ada Example (where Vector\_Type is an array of Integers):

```
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?

## 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 quasicurrent execution of program units (the coroutines)
- Their execution is interleaved, but not overlapped