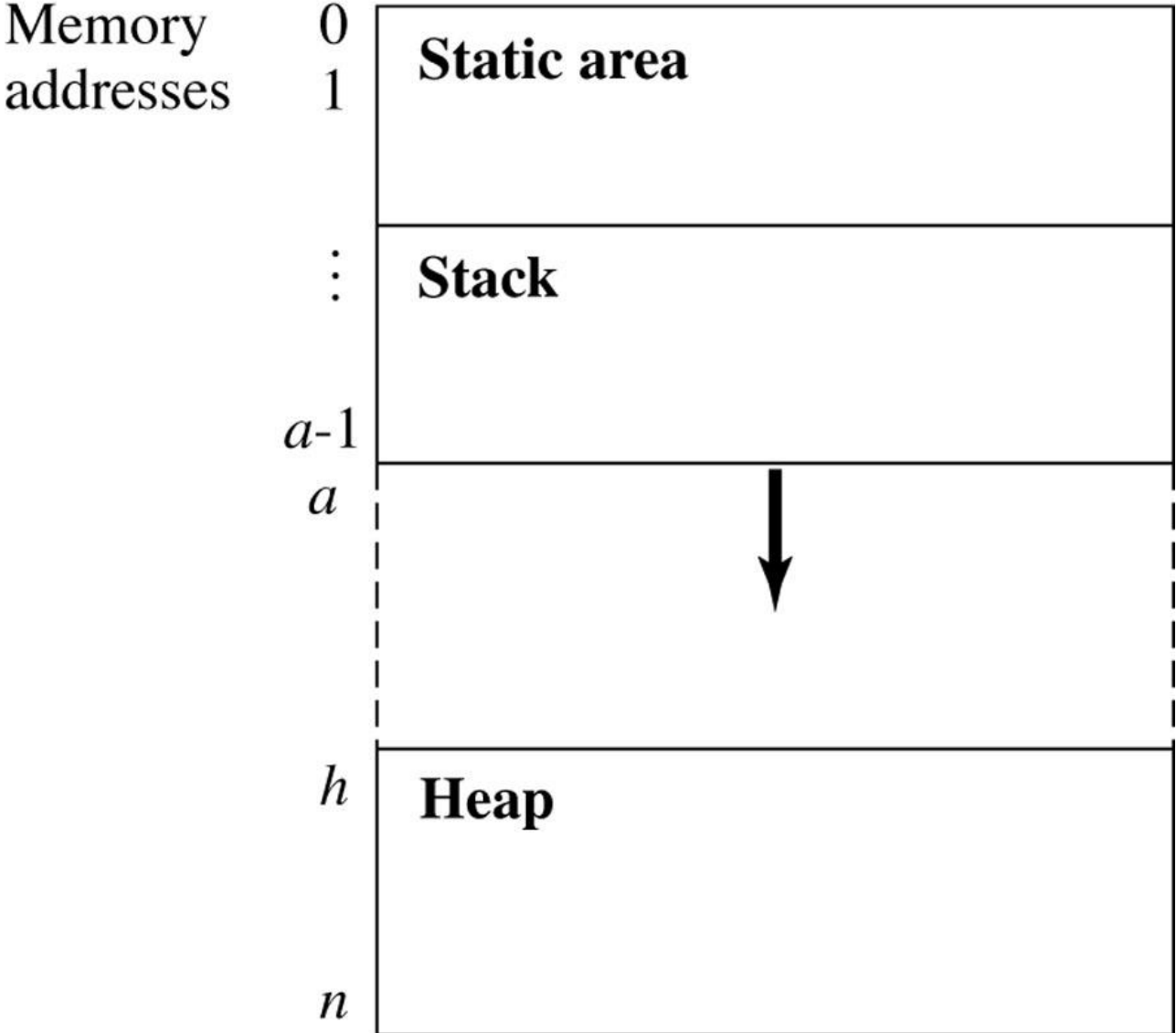


Chapter 9

Subprograms

The Structure of Run-Time Memory



Subprograms

- ❖ Two fundamental abstraction facilities in programming language:
 - ⇒ Process abstraction – represented by subprograms
 - ⇒ Data abstraction

- ❖ General 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

Subprograms

- ❖ 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 is active if, after being called, it has begun execution but has not yet completed that execution
- ❖ A subprogram header is the first line of the definition
 - ⇒ Specifies that the following syntactic unit is a subprogram of some particular kind - using a special word (function, procedure, etc)
 - ⇒ Provides name of subprogram
 - ⇒ Specifies the list of formal parameters
 - Fortran: Subroutine Adder(parameters)
 - Ada: procedure Adder(parameters)

Subprograms

- ❖ The parameter profile (signature) 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
- ❖ Subprograms can have declarations as well as definitions
- ❖ Subprogram declaration provides the subprogram's protocol but do not include their bodies
 - ⇒ Function declarations in C/C++ are called prototypes

Parameters

- ❖ 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

```
void doNothing (int formal_param) {  
    ...  
}  
main() {  
    int actual_param;  
    doNothing(actual_param);  
}
```

Parameters

❖ Actual/Formal Parameter Correspondence

⇒ Binding of actual to formal parameters (type checking)

1. Positional parameters

❖ First actual param bound to first formal param, etc

2. Keyword parameters

❖ Name of formal param to which actual param is bound is specified with actual param

```
Ada:          Sumer( Length => My_Length,  
                List => My_Array,  
                Sum => My_Sum );
```

❖ Advantage: order is irrelevant

❖ Disadvantage: user must know the formal parameter's names

Parameters

❖ Default values of formal parameters

- ⇒ Allowed by C++, Fortran 95, Ada and PHP
- ⇒ Default value is used if no actual parameter is passed to the formal parameter

```
Ada:    function Compute_Pay(  Income : Float; Exemptions : Integer := 1;
                               Tax_Rate : Float ) return Float
pay := Compute_Pay (20000.00, Tax_Rate => 0.15);
```

- ⇒ C# allows methods to accept variable number of params of the same type

```
public void DisplayList(params int[] list ) {
    foreach (int nextValue in list) {
        Console.WriteLine("Next value {0}", nextValue);
    }
}
```


Procedures and Functions

- ❖ A **function** is called from within an expression and returns a result after invocation. A **procedure** is treated as an atomic statement and does not return a result after invocation.
- ❖ Procedures provide user-defined statements
- ❖ Functions provide user-defined operators
 - ⇒ Value produced by function is returned to the calling code, effectively replacing the call itself

```
float power(float base, float exp)
```

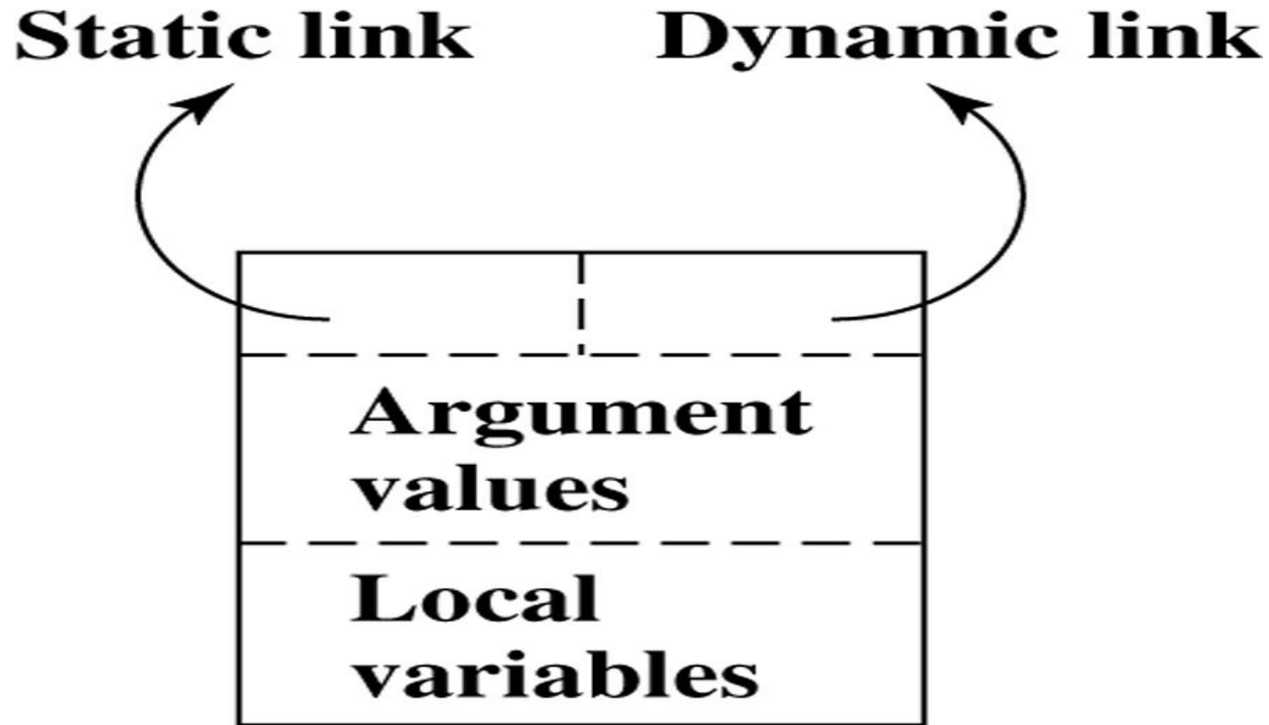
```
result = 3.4 * power(10.0, x);
```

- ❖ C-based languages
 - ⇒ have only functions (but they can behave like procedures)
 - ⇒ Can be defined to return no value if the return type is void

Local Referencing Environments

- ❖ Local variables: variables defined inside subprograms
 - ⇒ their scope is the body of subprogram in which they are defined
 - **Stack-dynamic**: bound to storage when subprogram begins execution, unbound when its execution terminates
 - Advantages:
 1. Support for recursion
 2. Storage for local variables of active subprogram can be shared with local variables of inactive subprograms
 - Disadvantages:
 1. Allocation/deallocation time
 2. Indirect addressing (indirectness because the place in stack where a particular local variable is stored can only be determined at run time)
 3. Subprograms cannot be history sensitive
 - Cannot retain data values of local variables between calls
 - **Static**: bound to storage at compile-time

Structure of a Called Method's Stack Frame (Activation record)



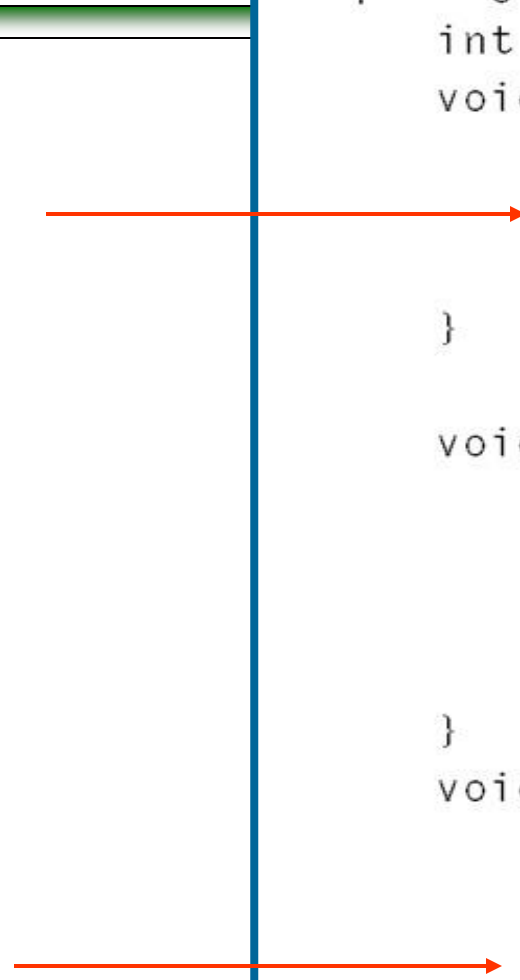
- Run-time activation of subprograms that are managed with a stack of **Activation Record Instances (ARIs)**.
- The **dynamic link** is a pointer to the base of the activation record instance of the caller. In static-scoped languages, this link is used to provide traceback information when a run-time error occurs. In dynamic-scoped languages, the dynamic link is used to access nonlocal variables.
- The **static link** is a pointer to Static area.

Example Program with Methods and Parameters

```
package K {
    int h, i;
    void A(int x, int y) {
        boolean i, j;
        B(h);
        ...
    }

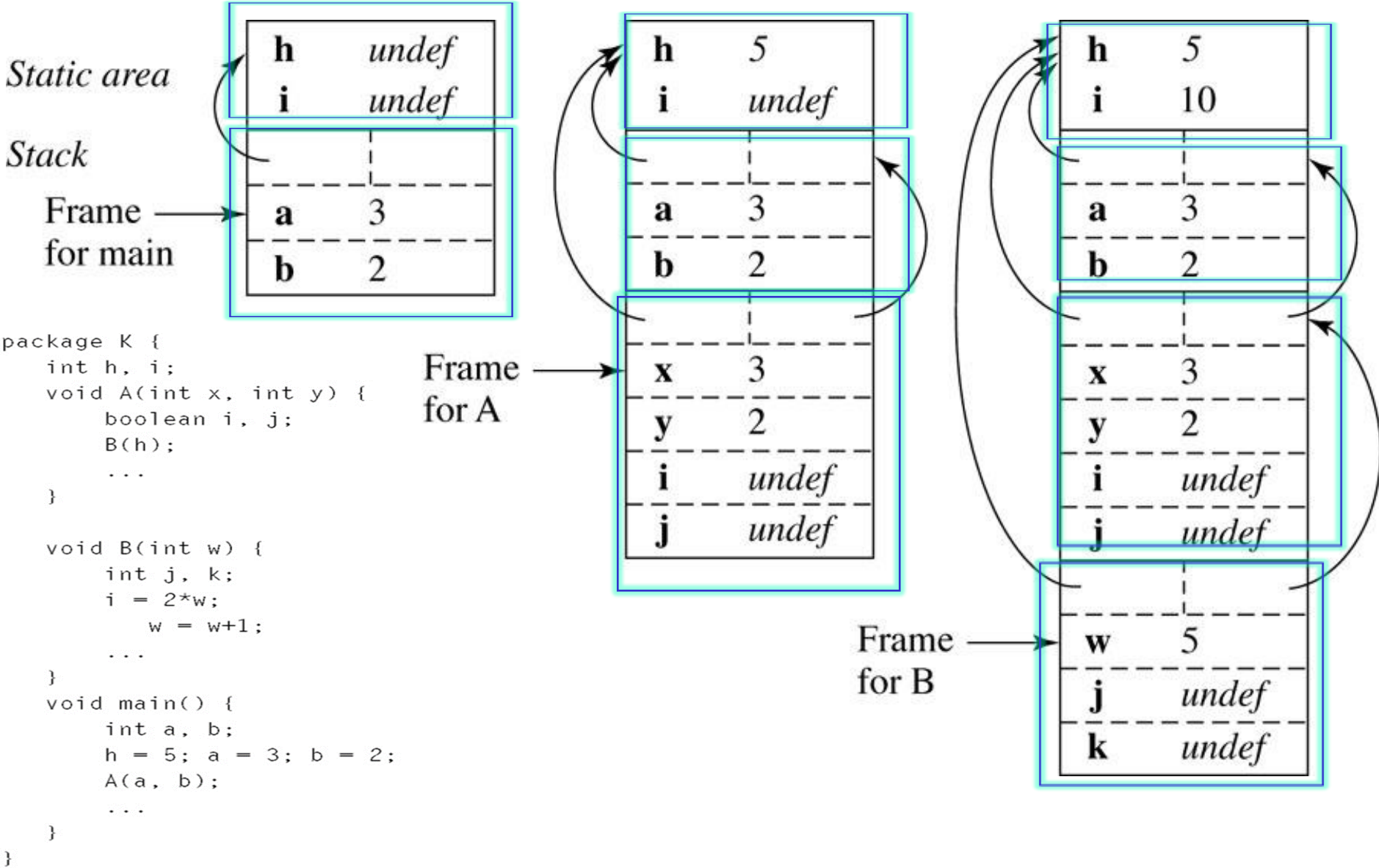
    void B(int w) {
        int j, k;
        i = 2*w;
        w = w+1;
        ...
    }

    void main() {
        int a, b;
        h = 5; a = 3; b = 2;
        A(a, b);
        ...
    }
}
```



The diagram illustrates the execution flow of the program. A red arrow points from the `B(h);` call inside the `A` method to the `void B(int w) {` definition. Another red arrow points from the `A(a, b);` call inside the `main` method to the `void A(int x, int y) {` definition. A horizontal bar is positioned above the `A` method definition.

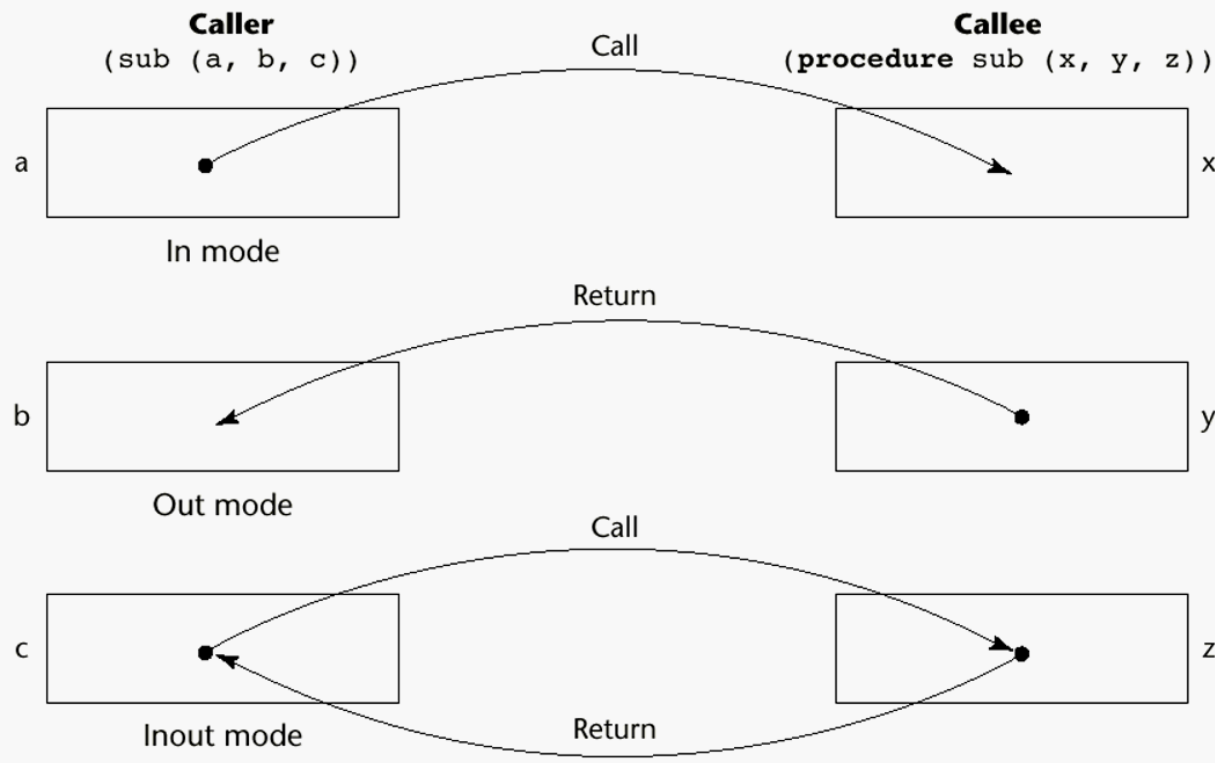
Run-Time Stack with Stack Frames for Method Invocations



Parameter Passing: Semantic Models

❖ Semantic models for formal parameters

- In mode – can receive data from corresponding actual parameters
 - Actual value is either copied to caller, or an access path is transmitted
- Out mode – can transmit data to actual parameters
- Inout mode – can do both receive/transmit data



Parameter Passing

- ❖ Pass-by-value
- ❖ Pass-by-result
- ❖ Pass-by-value-result
- ❖ Pass-by-reference
- ❖ Pass-by-name

Parameter Passing: Implementation

❖ Pass by value (in mode)

- Value of actual parameter is used to initialize formal parameter, which acts as a local variable

```
void foo (int a) {  
    a = a + 1;  
}  
void main() {  
    int b = 2;  
    foo(b);  
}
```

- Normally **implemented by copying actual parameter to formal parameter**
- Can also be implemented by transmitting access path to the value of actual parameter as long as cell is write protected
- Disadvantages:
 - Requires more storage (duplicated space)
 - Cost of the moves (if the parameter is large)

Parameter Passing: Implementation

❖ Pass by result (out mode)

- ⇒ Local's value is passed back to the caller
- ⇒ No value transmitted to the subprogram
- ⇒ Formal parameter acts as local variable, but **just before control is transferred back to caller, its value is transmitted to actual parameter**
- ⇒ Disadvantages:
 1. If value is copied back (as opposed to access paths), need extra time and space
 2. Pass-by-result can create parameter collision

e.g. procedure sub1(y: int, z: int);

 ...

 sub1(x, x);

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

Parameter Passing: Implementation

- ❖ Pass by value-result (or pass-by-copy)
 - ⇒ Combination of pass-by-value and pass-by-result
 - ⇒ Formal parameter acts as local variable in subprogram
 - ⇒ Actual parameter is **copied to formal parameter at subprogram entry and copied back at subprogram termination**
 - ⇒ Share disadvantages of pass-by-result and pass-by-value
 - Requires multiple storage for parameters
 - Requires time for copying values
 - Problems with parameter collision

Parameter Passing: Implementation

❖ Pass by reference (or pass-by-sharing)

- ⇒ transmits an access path (e.g., address) to the called subprogram
 - ⇒ Called subprogram is allowed to access actual parameter in the calling program unit
 - ⇒ Advantage:
 - passing process is efficient (no copying and no duplicated storage)
 - ⇒ Disadvantages:
 - Slower accesses to formal parameters due to additional level of indirect addressing
 - Allows aliasing
- ```
void fun (int &first, int &second);
...
fun(total, total);
```

# Parameter Passing: Implementation

## ❖ Pass-by-reference

⇒ Collisions due to array elements can also cause aliases

```
void fun(int &first, int &second)
fun(list[i], list[j]); /* where i=j */
void fun1(int &first, int *a);
fun1(list[i], list);
```

⇒ Collisions between formal parameters and nonlocal variables that are visible

```
int *global;
void main() {
 extern int *global;
 ...
 sub(global);
 ...
}

void sub(int *param) {
 extern int *global;
 ...
}
```

# Parameter Passing: Implementation

---

## ❖ Pass by Name

- ⇒ Another type of inout mode
- ⇒ Actual parameter is **textually substituted for the corresponding formal parameters**
  - Actual binding of value and address is delayed until formal parameter is assigned or referenced
- ⇒ Advantage:
  - flexibility of late binding
- ⇒ Disadvantage:
  - very expensive related to other parameter passing
    - Not used in any widely used language
- ⇒ Another Example:
  - Used at compile time by macros, and for generic subprograms in C++

# Pass-by-value

---

```
int m=8, i=5;
foo(m);
print m; # prints 8
 # since m is passed by-value

...
proc foo (byval b) {
 b = i + b;

 # b is byval so it is essentially a local variable
 # initialized to 8 (the value of the actual back in
 # the calling environment)
 # the assignment to b cannot change the value of m back
 # in the main program
}
```

# Pass-by-reference

---

```
int m=8, i=5;
foo(m);
print m; # prints 13
 # since m is passed by-reference
...
proc foo (byref b) {
 b = i + b;

 # b is byref so it is a pointer back to the actual
 # parameter back in the main program (containing 8
 # initially)
 # the assignment to b actually changes the value in m
 # back
 # in the main program
 # i accesses the variable in the main via scope rules
}
```

# Pass-by-value-result

---

```
int m=8, i=5;
foo(m);
print m; # prints 13
 # since m is passed by-value-result
...
proc foo (byvres b) {
 b = i + b;

 # b is byvres so it copies value of the actual
 # parameter (containing 8 initially)
 # new value of b is copied back to actual parameter
 # in the main program
 # i accesses the variable in the main via scope rules
}
```



# Pass-by-name

```
array A [1..100] of int;
int i=5;
foo(A[i],i);
print A[i]; # prints A[6]
... # so prints 7
```

*# good example*

```
proc foo (name B,name k) {
 k = 6;
 B = 7;
}
```

*# text substitution does this*

```
proc foo {
 i = 6;
 A[i] = 7;
}
```

```
array A [1..100] of int;
int i=5;
foo(A[i]);
print A[i]; # prints A[5]
... # not sure what
```

*# a problem here...*

```
proc foo (name B) {
 int i = 2;
 B = 7;
}
```

```
proc foo {
 int i = 2;
 A[i] = 7;
}
```

# Parameter Passing in PL

## ❖ Fortran

- ⇒ Always use inout-mode semantics model of parameter passing
- ⇒ Before Fortran 77, mostly uses pass-by-reference
- ⇒ Later implementations mostly use pass-by-value-result

## ❖ C

- ⇒ mostly pass by value
- ⇒ Pass-by-reference is achieved using pointers as parameters

```
int *p = { 1, 2, 3 };
void change(int *q) {
 q[0] = 4;
}
main() {
 change(p); /* p[0] = 4 after calling the change function */
}
```

# Parameter Passing in PL

---

## ❖ C++

⇒ includes a special pointer type called **a reference type**

```
void GetData(double &Num1, const int &Num2) {
 int temp;
 for (int i=0; i<Num2; i++) {
 cout << "Enter a number: ";
 cin >> temp;
 if (temp > Num1)
 { Num1 = temp; return; }
 }
}
```

⇒ **Num1** and **Num2** are **passed by reference**

⇒ **const modifier** prevents a function from changing the values of reference parameters

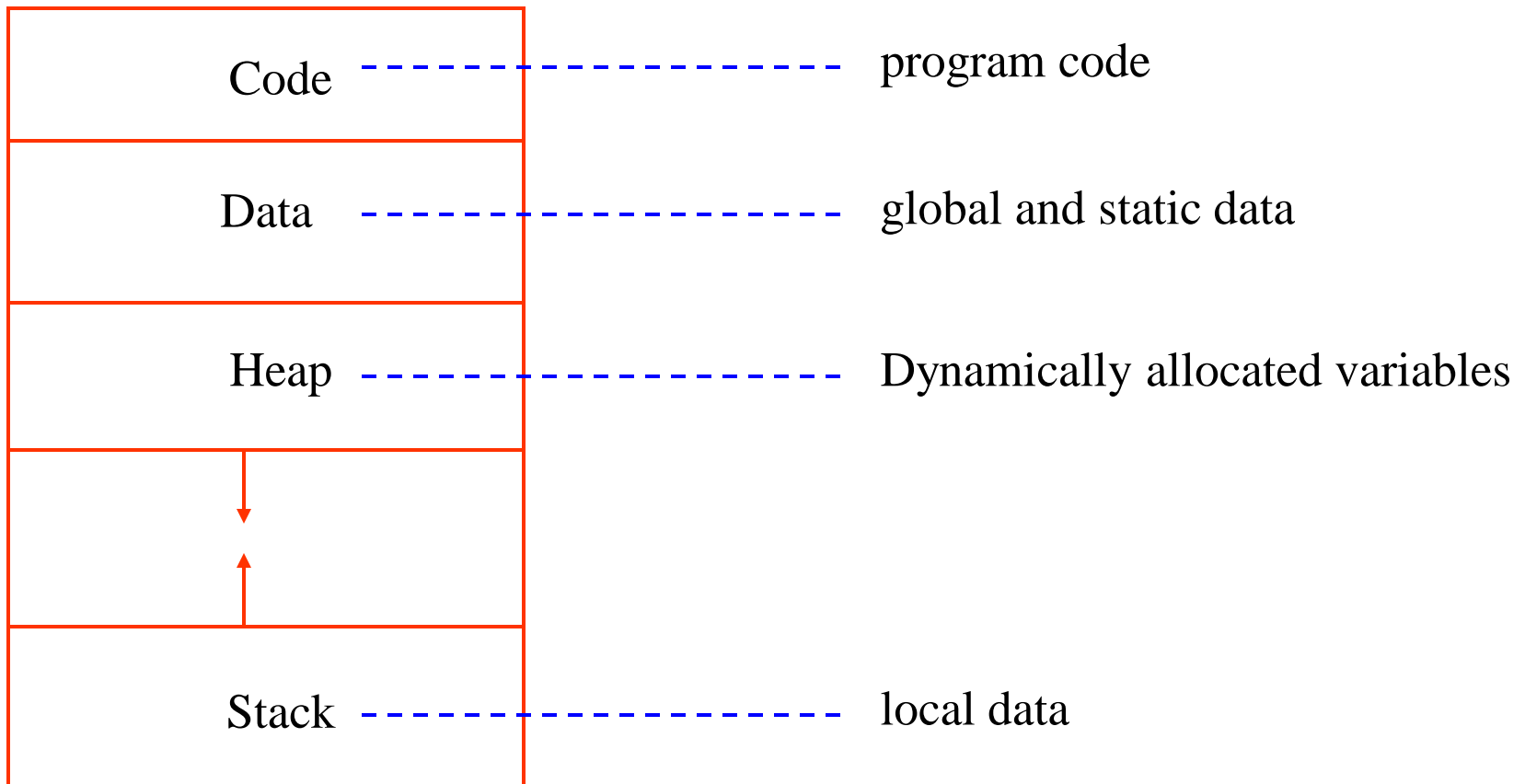
⇒ Referenced parameters are implicitly dereferenced

⇒ Why do we need a constant reference parameter?

# Implementing Parameter Passing

---

Memory contents



# Implementing Parameter Passing

---

## ❖ Pass by Value

- ⇒ Values copied into stack locations
- ⇒ **Stack locations** serve as storage for corresponding formal parameters

## ❖ Pass by Result

- ⇒ Implemented opposite of pass-by-value
- ⇒ Values assigned to **actual parameters** are placed in the stack, where they can be **retrieved by calling program unit** upon termination of called subprogram

## ❖ Pass by Value Result

- ⇒ Stack location for parameters is **initialized by the call** and then copied **back to actual parameters** upon termination of called subprogram

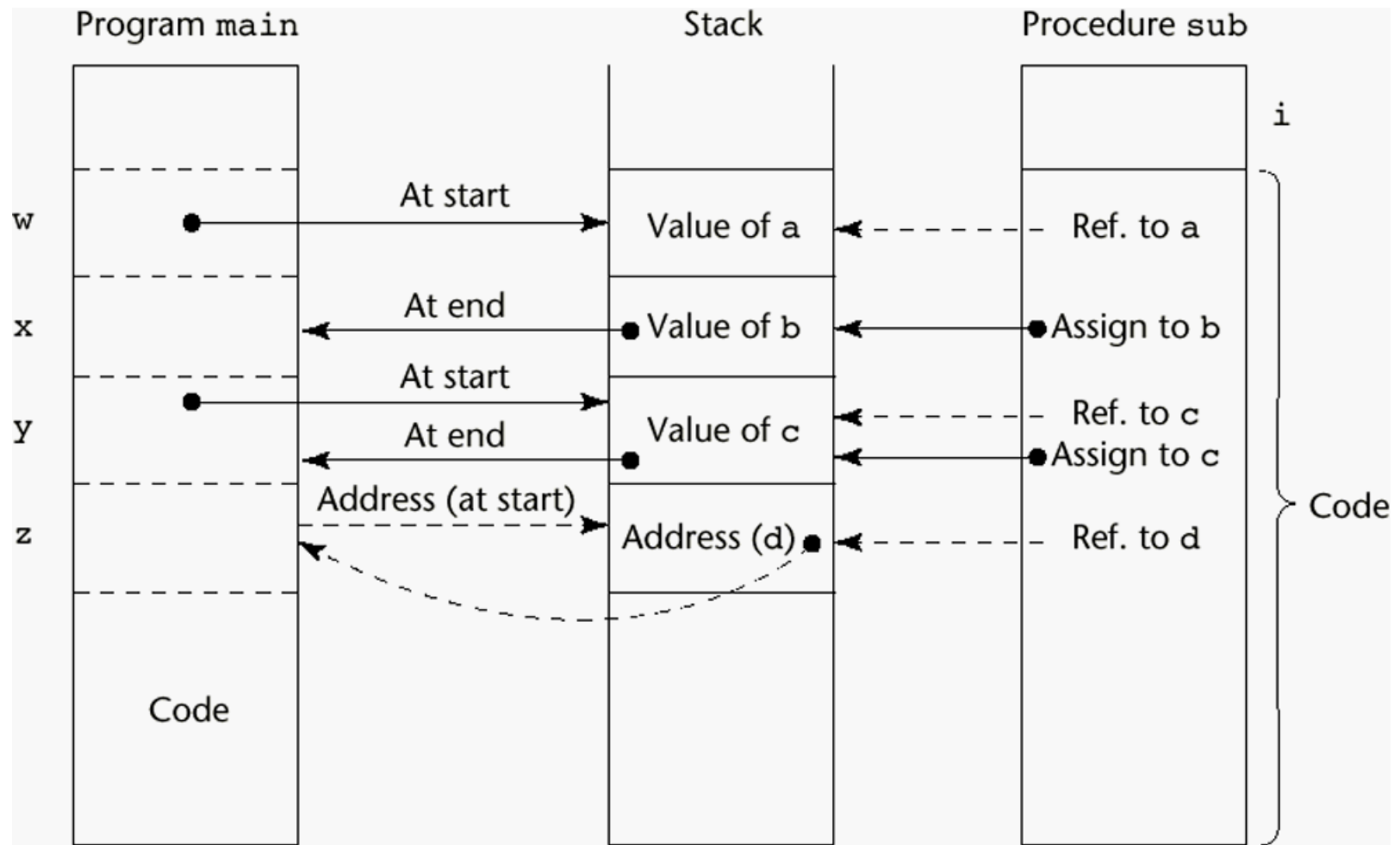
# Implementing Parameter Passing

---

## ❖ Pass by Reference

- ⇒ Regardless of type of parameter, **put the address in the stack**
- ⇒ **For literals, address of literal** is put in the stack
- ⇒ **For expressions, compiler must build code to evaluate expression** before the transfer of control to the called subprogram
  - **Address of memory cell** in which code places the result of its evaluation is then put in the stack
- ⇒ Compiler must make sure to **prevent called subprogram from changing parameters that are literals or expressions**
- ⇒ Access to formal parameters is by **indirect addressing from the stack location of the address**

# Implementing Parameter Passing



Main program calls  $\text{sub}(w,x,y,z)$  where  $w$  is passed by value,  $x$  is passed by result,  $y$  is passed by value-result, and  $z$  is passed by reference

# Implementing Parameter Passing

---

## ❖ Pass by Name

- ⇒ run-time resident code segments or subprograms evaluate the address of the parameter
- ⇒ called for each reference to the formal
- ⇒ **Very expensive**, compared to pass by reference or value-result



# Subprogram Names as Parameters

---

## ❖ Issues:

### 1. Are parameter types checked?

- Early Pascal and FORTRAN 77 **do not**; later versions of Pascal and FORTRAN 90 **do**
- Ada does **not allow subprogram parameters**
- Java does **not allow method names** to be passed as 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?

- **Environment of the call statement** that enacts the passed subprogram
  - Shallow binding
- Environment of the definition of **the passed subprogram**
  - Deep binding
- Environment of the call statement **that passed the subprogram as actual parameter**
  - Ad hoc binding (Has never been used)

# Subprogram Names as Parameters

```
function sub1() {
 var x;
 function sub2() {
 alert(x); ←
 };
 function sub3() {
 var x;
 x = 3;
 sub4(sub2);
 }
 function sub4(subx) {
 var x;
 x = 4;
 subx();
 };
 x = 1;
 sub3();
};
```

Shallow binding:

⇒ Referencing environment of sub2 is that of sub4

Deep binding

⇒ Referencing environment of sub2 is that of sub1

Ad-hoc binding

⇒ Referencing environment of sub2 is that of sub3

# Overloaded Subprograms

---

- ❖ A subprogram that has **the same name** as another subprogram in the same referencing environment
- ❖ Every version of the overloaded subprogram must have a unique protocol
  - ⇒ Must be different from others in the number, order, or types of its parameters, or its return type (if it is a function)
- ❖ C++, Java, Ada, and C# include predefined overloaded subprograms – e.g., overloaded constructors in C++
- ❖ Overloaded subprograms with default parameters can lead to ambiguous subprogram calls

```
void foo(float b = 0.0);
```

```
void foo();
```

```
...
```

```
foo(); /* call is ambiguous; may lead to compilation error */
```

# Generic (Polymorphic) Subprograms

---

## ❖ Polymorphism:

⇒ Increase reusability of software

⇒ Types:

- Ad hoc polymorphism = Overloaded subprogram
- Parametric polymorphism
  - Provided by a subprogram that **takes a generic parameter** that is used in a type expression
  - Ada and C++ provide compile-time parametric polymorphism

# Generic Subprograms

---

```
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
```

```
float flt_list[100];
```

```
...
```

```
generic_sort(flt_list, 100); // Implicit instantiation
```

# Generic Method in Java

---

```
public class GenericMethodTest {
 // generic method printArray
 public static < E > void printArray(E[] inputArray) {
 // Display array elements
 for(E element : inputArray) {
 System.out.printf("%s ", element);
 }
 System.out.println();
 }

 public static void main(String args[]) {
 // Create arrays of Integer, Double and Character
 Integer[] intArray = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
 Double[] doubleArray = { 1.1, 2.2, 3.3, 4.4 };
 Character[] charArray = { 'H', 'E', 'L', 'L', 'O' };

 System.out.println("Array integerArray contains:");
 printArray(intArray); // pass an Integer array

 System.out.println("\nArray doubleArray contains:");
 printArray(doubleArray); // pass a Double array

 System.out.println("\nArray characterArray contains:");
 printArray(charArray); // pass a Character array
 }
}
```

# Generic Class in Java

---

```
public class Box<T> {
 private T t;

 public void add(T t) {
 this.t = t;
 }

 public T get() {
 return t;
 }

 public static void main(String[] args) {
 Box<Integer> integerBox = new Box<Integer>();
 Box<String> stringBox = new Box<String>();

 integerBox.add(new Integer(10));
 stringBox.add(new String("Hello World"));

 System.out.printf("Integer Value :%d\n\n", integerBox.get());
 System.out.printf("String Value :%s\n", stringBox.get());
 }
}
```