

# CSC 533: Organization of Programming Languages

Spring 2008

## Control and subprogram implementation

- control structures  
conditionals, loops, branches, ...
- subprograms (procedures/functions/subroutines)  
subprogram linkage, parameter passing, implementation, ...

We will focus on C, C++, and Java as example languages

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## Conditionals & loops

early control structures were tied closely to machine architecture

e.g., FORTRAN arithmetic if: based on IBM 704 instruction

```
      IF (expression) 10, 20, 30
10   code to execute if expression < 0
      GO TO 40
20   code to execute if expression = 0
      GO TO 40
30   code to execute if expression > 0
40   . . .
```

later languages focused more on abstraction and machine independence

some languages provide counter-controlled loops

e.g., in Pascal:

```
      for i := 1 to 100 do
begin
    . . .
end;
```

- counter-controlled loops tend to be more efficient than logic-controlled
- C/C++ and Java don't have counter-controlled loops (for is syntactic sugar for while)

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## Branching

unconditional branching (i.e., GOTO statement) is very dangerous

- leads to *spaghetti code*, raises tricky questions w.r.t. scope and lifetime
  - what happens when you jump out of a function/block?
  - what happens when you jump into a function/block?
  - what happens when you jump into the middle of a control structure?

most languages that allow GOTO's restrict their use

- in C/C++, can't jump into another function
  - can jump into a block, but not past declarations

```
void foo() {  
    . . .  
    goto label2;    // illegal: skips declaration of str  
    . . .  
    label1:  
        string str;  
        . . .  
    label2:  
        goto label1;    // legal: str's lifetime ends before branch  
}
```

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## Branching (cont.)

why provide GOTO's at all? (Java doesn't)

- backward compatibility
- some argue for its use in specific cases (e.g., jump out of deeply nested loops)

C/C++ and Java provide statements for more controlled loop branching

- *break*: causes termination of a loop

```
while (true) {  
    num = input.nextInt();  
    if (num < 0) break;  
    sum += num;  
}
```

- *continue*: causes control to pass to the loop test

```
while (inputKey != 'Q') {  
    if (keyPressed()) {  
        inputKey = GetInput();  
        continue;  
    }  
    . . .  
}
```

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## Procedural control

any implementation method for subprograms is based on the semantics of subprogram linkage (call & return)

in general, a subprogram call involves:

1. save execution status of the calling program unit
  2. parameter passing
  3. pass return address to subprogram
  4. transfer control to subprogram
- possibly*: allocate local variables, provide access to non-locals

in general, a subprogram return involves:

1. if out-mode parameters or return value, pass back value(s)
2. deallocate parameters, local variables
3. restore non-local variable environment
4. transfer control to the calling program unit

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## Parameters

in most languages, parameters are *positional*

- Ada also provides *keyword* parameters:

```
AddEntry(dbase -> cds, new_entry -> mine);
```

*advantage*: don't have to remember parameter order

*disadvantage*: do have to remember parameter names

Ada and C/C++ allow for default values for parameters

C/C++ & Java allow for optional parameters (specify with ...)

```
public static double average(double... values) {
    double sum = 0;
    for (double v : values) { sum += v; }
    return sum / values.length;
}

System.out.println( average(3.2, 3.6) );
System.out.println( average(1, 2, 4, 5, 8) );
```

- if multiple parameters, optional parameter must be rightmost **WHY?**

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## Parameter passing

can be characterized by the direction of information flow

*in mode:* pass by-value  
*out mode:* pass by-result  
*inout mode:* pass by-value-result, by-reference, by-name

### by-value (in mode)

- parameter is treated as local variable, initialized to argument value

*advantage:* safe (function manipulates a copy of the argument)

*disadvantage:* time & space required for copying

used in ALGOL 60, ALGOL 68  
default method in C++, Pascal, Modula-2  
only method in C (and, technically, in Java)

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## Parameter passing (cont.)

### by-result (out mode)

- parameter is treated as local variable, no initialization
- when function terminates, value of parameter is passed back to argument

potential problems:

```
ReadValues(x, x);
```

```
Update(list[GLOBAL]);
```

### by-value-result (inout mode)

- combination of by-value and by-result methods
- treated as local variable, initialized to argument, passed back when done

same potential problems as by-result

used in ALGOL-W, later versions of FORTRAN

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## Parameter passing (cont.)

### by-reference (inout mode)

- instead of passing a value, pass an access path (i.e., reference to argument)

*advantage:* time and space efficient

*disadvantage:* slower access to values (must dereference), alias confusion

```
void IncrementBoth(int & x, int & y)      |      int a = 5;
{                                         |      IncrementBoth(a, a);
    x++;                                  |
    y++;                                  |
}                                         |
```

requires care in implementation: arguments must be l-values (i.e., variables)

used in early FORTRAN

can specify in C++, Pascal, Modula-2

*Java objects look like by-reference*

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## Parameter passing (cont.)

### by-name (inout mode)

- argument is textually substituted for parameter
- form of the argument dictates behavior
  - if argument is a:     variable → by-reference
  - constant → by-value
  - array element or expression → ???

```
real procedure SUM(real ADDER, int INDEX, int LENGTH);
begin
    real TEMPSUM := 0;
    for INDEX := 1 step 1 until LENGTH do
        TEMPSUM := TEMPSUM + ADDER;
    SUM := TEMPSUM;
end;
```

SUM(X, I, 100)                    →     100 \* X  
SUM(A[I], I, 100)                →     A[1] + . . . + A[100]  
SUM[A[I]\*A[I], I, 100)          →     A[1]<sup>2</sup> + . . . + A[100]<sup>2</sup>

- flexible but tricky – used in ALGOL 60, replaced with by-reference in ALGOL 68

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## Parameters in Ada

in Ada, programmer specifies parameter mode

- implementation method is determined by the compiler

in → by-value  
out → by-result  
inout → by-value-result (for non-structured types)  
→ by-value-result *or* by-reference (for structured types)

- choice of inout method for structured types is implementation dependent

*DANGER:* `IncrementBoth(a, a)` yields different results for each method!

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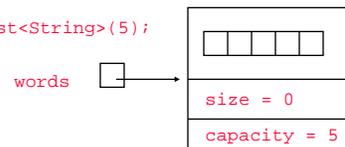
## Parameters in Java

parameter passing is by-value, but looks like by-reference for objects

- recall, Java objects are implemented as pointers to dynamic data

```
public void messWith(ArrayList<String> lst)
{
    lst.add("okay");
    . . .
    lst = new ArrayList();
}
```

```
ArrayList<String> words = new ArrayList<String>(5);
messWith(words);
```



when pass an object, by-value makes a copy (here, copies the pointer)  
pointer copy provides access to data fields, can change  
but, can't move the original

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## Polymorphism

in C/C++ & Java, can have different functions/methods with the same name

- overloaded functions/methods must have different parameters to distinguish

```
public double doStuff(String str) { ... }  
  
public double doStuff(int x) { ... }    // OK since param type is different  
  
public int doStuff(String str) { ... }  // not OK, since only return differs
```

in C++, can overload operators for new classes

```
bool Date::operator==(const Date & d1, const Date & d2) {  
    return (d1.day == d2.day &&  
            d1.month == d2.month &&  
            d1.year == d2.year);  
}
```

- overloaded operators are NOT allowed in Java    RISKS?

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## Implementing subprograms

- some info about a subprogram is independent of invocation

e.g., constants, instructions

→ can store in static code segment

- some info is dependent upon the particular invocation

e.g., return value, parameters, local variables (?)

→ must store an *activation record* for each invocation

- local variables may be allocated when subprogram is called, or wait until declarations are reached (stack-dynamic)

### *Activation Record*

local variables
parameters
static link
dynamic link
return address

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## Run-time stack

when a subroutine is called, an instance of its activation record is pushed

```

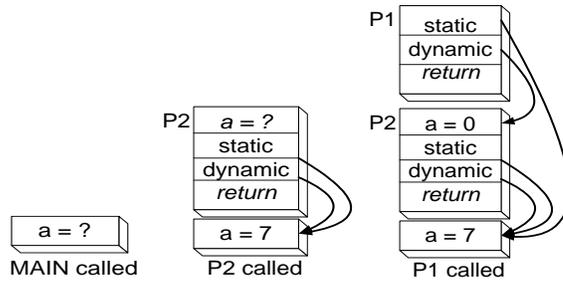
program MAIN;
  var a : integer;

  procedure P1;
  begin
    print a;
  end; {of P1}

  procedure P2;
  var a : integer;
  begin
    a := 0;
    P1;
  end; {of P2}

begin
  a := 7;
  P2;
end. {of MAIN}

```



when accessing a non-local variable

- follow static links for static scoping
- follow dynamic links for dynamic scoping

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## Run-time stack (cont.)

when a subroutine terminates, its activation record is popped (LIFO behavior)

```

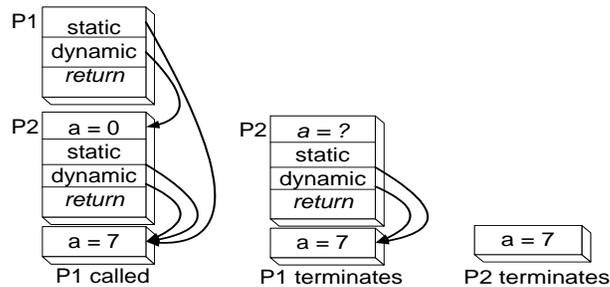
program MAIN;
  var a : integer;

  procedure P1;
  begin
    print a;
  end; {of P1}

  procedure P2;
  var a : integer;
  begin
    a := 0;
    P1;
  end; {of P2}

begin
  a := 7;
  P2;
end. {of MAIN}

```



when the last activation record is popped,  
control returns to the operating system

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## Run-time stack (cont.)

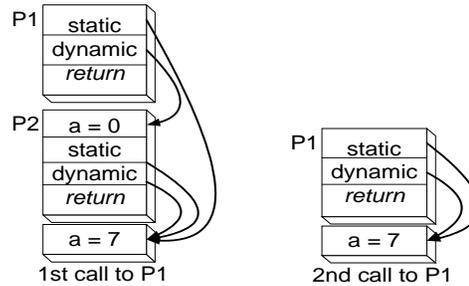
note: the same subroutine may be called from different points in the program

```
program MAIN;
  var a : integer;

  procedure P1;
  begin
    print a;
  end; {of P1}

  procedure P2;
  var a : integer;
  begin
    a := 0;
    P1;
  end; {of P2}

begin
  a := 7;
  P2;
  P1;
end. {of MAIN}
```



→ using dynamic scoping, the same variable in a subroutine may refer to a different addresses at different times

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## In-class exercise

run-time stack?

output using static scoping?

output using dynamic scoping?

```
program MAIN;
  var a : integer;

  procedure P1(x : integer);
  procedure P3;
  begin
    print x, a;
  end; {of P3}
  begin
    P3;
  end; {of P1}

  procedure P2;
  var a : integer;
  begin
    a := 0;
    P1(a+1);
  end; {of P2}

begin
  a := 7;
  P1(10);
  P2;
end. {of MAIN}
```

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## Optimizing scoping

### naïve implementation:

- if variable is not local, follow chain of static/dynamic links until found

### in reality, can implement static scoping more efficiently (displays)

- block nesting is known at compile-time, so can determine number of links that must be traversed to reach desired variable
  - can also determine the offset within the activation record for that variable
- can build separate data structure that provides immediate access

### can't predetermine # links or offset for dynamic scoping

- subroutine may be called from different points in the same program
- can't even perform type checking statically **WHY NOT?**

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## Monday: TEST 1

### types of questions:

- factual knowledge: TRUE/FALSE
- conceptual understanding: short answer, discussion
- synthesis and application: parse trees, heap trace, scoping rules, ...

### the test will include extra points (Mistakes Happen!)

- e.g., 52 or 53 points, but graded on a scale of 50

### study advice:

- review online lecture notes (if not mentioned in class, won't be on test)
- review text
- reference other sources for examples, different perspectives
- look over quizzes

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