

COMP 181

Lecture 12 The procedure abstraction

October 12, 2006



Prelude

- Copying an array

```
do { /* count > 0 assumed */  
  *to++ = *from++;  
} while (--count > 0);
```

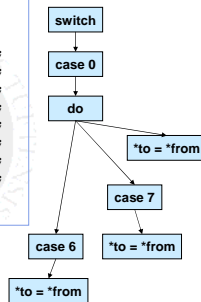


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Duff's device

```
int n = (count + 7) / 8;  
switch (count % 8)  
{  
  case 0: do { *to++ = *from++;  
  case 7: *to++ = *from++;  
  case 6: *to++ = *from++;  
  case 5: *to++ = *from++;  
  case 4: *to++ = *from++;  
  case 3: *to++ = *from++;  
  case 2: *to++ = *from++;  
  case 1: *to++ = *from++;  
} while (--n > 0);  
}
```



- Why is this faster?



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Heterogeneous data structures

- Simple example: shapes
 - Abstract type "shape"
 - Concrete subtypes: square, circle, triangle

```
C: typedef struct Shape {  
  int kind; /* 0=square, 1=circle, 2=triangle */  
  union {  
    struct Square { . . . } square;  
    struct Circle { . . . } circle;  
    struct Triangle { . . . } triangle;  
  } info;  
} Shape, * ShapePtr;
```



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Labeled unions

- Visiting a series of shapes

```
Shape * all_shapes[50];  
float area = 0.0;  
for (int i = 0; i < 50; i++) {  
  Shape * cur_shape = all_shapes[i];  
  switch (cur_shape->kind) {  
    case 0: area += cur_shape->stuff.square.side *  
             cur_shape->stuff.square.side;  
           break;  
    case 1: . . .  
    case 2: . . .  
  }  
}
```



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Labeled unions

- What's good?
 - Code for "area" all in one place
 - Probably fast
- What's bad?
 - Have to make sure to get kinds right (Could use enum to help)
 - No control over access to fields
 - New shapes: fix all the switch statements



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Objects

- Common superclass
 - Common functionality
 - Required functionality

```
class Shape {
    abstract float area();
}
class Square extends Shape {
    float side;
    float area() { return side * side; }
}
class Circle extends Shape { . . . }
class Triangle extends Shape { . . . }
```



Objects

- What's good
 - Encapsulation – all fields protected
 - No type errors
 - Easy to add new shapes
- What's bad
 - How do we add new functions?
 - May need to modify all subclasses



Visitor

- Method for each kind

```
class Visitor {
    void visitSquare(Square sq) { }
    void visitCircle(Circle ci) { }
    void visitTriangle(Triangle tr) { }
}
```

- Idea:
 - Describe what to do with each kind of object
 - Object calls its visit class



Visitor

- Implement subclass:

```
class areaVisitor extends Visitor {
    float area = 0.0;
    void visitSquare(Square sq) {
        area += sq.side() * sq.side();
    }
    void visitCircle(Circle ci) {
        area += pi * ci.radius() * ci.radius();
    }
    void visitTriangle(Triangle tr) { . . . }
}
```

- Note:
 - May need to carry data in the visitor



Supporting visitors

- In the shapes classes

```
class Shape {
    void accept(Visitor vis) {
        vis.visitShape(this);
    }
}
class Square extends Shape {
    float side;
    void accept(Visitor vis) {
        vis.visitSquare(this);
    }
}
```



Using a visitor

- Three parts
 - Create visitor instance
 - Call “accept” method on each shape
 - Read out the result at end

```
Shape[] all_shapes;
Visitor vis = new areaVisitor();
for (int i = 0; i < 50; i++) {
    Shape cur_shape = all_shapes[i];
    cur_shape.accept(vis);
}
float result = vis.area;
```



Visitor

- What's good
 - Easy to add new "passes"
 - All code is in one place
- What's bad
 - New shapes: *may* have to modify all visitors



Last time: type checking

- Type system
 - Set of rules for assigning types to parts of the program
 - Inference rules for operators
- Type checker
 - Start with declared types
 - Apply typing rules
 - At each step, make sure resulting types obey the rules of the language
- Why type checking?
 - Alert the programmer to errors
 - Help compiler generate a correct translation

| Expr | Type rule |
|----------------|--|
| $E_1, [E_2]$ | if $\text{type}(E_2)$ is int and $\text{type}(E_1)$ is $\text{array}(T)$ result type is T else error |



Polymorphism

- Ordinary procedures
 - Accept fixed type signature
 - Example: `search(char c, string s)`
- Generic procedures
 - Work on arguments of different types
- User-defined generics
 - Define interface with type variables
 - Example: `search(E1 c, E1 [] list)`



Type checking polymorphism

- Problem:

How do we check generics statically?

```
int search(E1 x, E1 [] list) {
    for (int i = 0; i < list.length; i++)
        if (x.compareTo(list[i])) return i;
    return -1;
}
...
search(5, A);
```

- What do we need to know?
 - Does E1 have a method "compareTo"?
 - Is A an array of type int?



Type checking polymorphism

- Checking generic code:
 - C++ templates
 - Checked at instantiation
 - Plug in the type variables
 - Compile and check resulting code
 - Java generics
 - Constrain type variables
 - Declare "type E1 must implement interface X"
 - Can check generic code independent of use



Type checking polymorphism

- Checking uses of generics
 - Is `search(5, A)` correct? *(Let's say int A[20];)*
 - Find a mapping from $E1, E1[]$ to $\text{type}(5), \text{type}(A)$
 - Mapping: $(E1, E1[]) \rightarrow (\text{int}, \text{int}[])$ when E1 is int
 - This process is called **unification**
- Unification
 - Given two type expressions, one with type variables
 - Find a consistent substitution of type variables that turns it into the other type expression
 - Used in many other areas: theorem proving,



Template metaprogramming

- C++ templates are very powerful

```
template<int N>
class Factorial {
public:
    enum { value = N * Factorial<N-1>::value };
};

class Factorial<1> {
public:
    enum { value = 1 };
};

x = Factorial<8>::value;
```



More...

```
template<bool C> class IfThen { };

class IfThen<true> {
public:
    static inline void do() { statement1; } // true case
};

class IfThen<false> {
public:
    static inline void do() { statement2; } // false case
};

// Replacement for 'if/else' statement:
IfThen<condition>::do();
```



Type inference

- Languages without declarations
 - ML, Haskell
 - Still statically typed
 - Types determined by use
- Requires *type inference* algorithm
 - Determine constraints from program
 - Results in type expressions with type variables
 - Compute a consistent assignment to variables



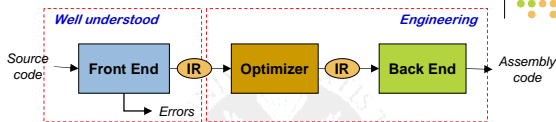
Back to Mars Orbiter

- Language support for units
 - *Idea*: make units a part of the type
 - Use polymorphism for operators
 - Type-check the computations
- Example:


```
double<kg> weight;
double<s> time;
double<m> distance;
double<m s^-2> gravity = 9.8 * m/(s * s);
double<kg m s^-2> force = weight * gravity;
```
- Issues:
 - Type checker must understand algebra
 - Generics are tricky (*what is the type of sqrt?*)



Where are we?



The latter half of a compiler contains more open problems, more challenges, and more gray areas than the front half

- Implementing promised behavior
 - What defines the *meaning* of the program?
- Managing target machine resources
 - Registers, memory, issue slots, locality, power, ...
 - These issues determine the *quality* of the compiler



Procedure abstraction

- Compile-time versus run-time
 - The compiler takes a *static* program and generates code for *dynamic* execution
 - Most of the tricky issues arise in “procedures”
- Issues
 - Finding storage, and mapping names to addresses
 - Emit code to compute addresses that the compiler cannot know at compile-time!
 - Interfaces with other programs, other languages, and the OS
 - Efficiency of implementation



Procedure: three abstractions

- **Control** abstraction
 - Well defined entries & exits
 - Mechanism to return control to caller
 - Some notion of parameterization (usually)
- Clean **name space**
 - Clean slate for writing locally visible names
 - Local names may obscure identical, non-local names
 - Local names cannot be seen outside
- External **interface**
 - Access is by procedure name & parameters
 - Clear protection for both caller & callee
 - Invoked procedure can ignore calling context



The Procedure (Realist's View)

Procedures are the key to building large systems

- Requires **system-wide contract**
 - Conventions on memory layout, protection, resource allocation calling sequences, & error handling
 - Must involve architecture (ISA), OS, & compiler
- Provides shared **access to system-wide facilities**
 - Storage management, flow of control, interrupts
 - Interface to input/output devices, protection facilities, timers, synchronization flags, counters, ...
- Establishes a **private context**
 - Create private storage for each procedure invocation
 - Encapsulate information about control flow & data abstractions



Run Time versus Compile Time

These concepts are often confusing to the newcomer

- **Linkage** is the code that implements the procedure interface
- Code for the linkage is emitted at **compile time**
- Linkages execute at **run time**
- The linkage is designed long before either of these
- More confusion:
 - Dynamic linking and shared libraries
 - Just-in-time compilers



The Procedure (Realist's View)

Procedures allow us to use **separate compilation**

- Keeps compile times reasonable
- Lets multiple programmers collaborate
- Allows procedures to be independent
- Without it, we **would not** build large systems

The **linkage convention** ensures that

- Procedures inherit a valid run-time environment
- Callers environment is saved/restored
- The compiler generates code to make this happen



The Procedure (More Abstract View)

- A procedure is an **abstract structure** constructed via software
- Underlying hardware does explicitly not support:
 - Entries and exits
 - Interfaces and parameter passing
 - Call and return mechanism (*may be special instructions*)
 - Name spaces and nested scopes
- Abstraction created by cooperation between:
 - Compiler
 - Run-time system
 - Linkage editor and loader
 - Operating system

ABI
Application Binary Interface



The Procedure as a Control Abstraction

Procedures have well-defined control-flow

The Algol-60 procedure call

- Invoked at a call site, with some set of *actual parameters*
- Control returns to call site, immediately after invocation



The Procedure as a Control Abstraction

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```

...
s = p(10,t,u);
...
int p(a,b,c)
  int a, b, c;
  {
    int d;
    d = q(c,b);
    ...
  }
  
```



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    ...
  }
int q(x,y)
  int x,y;
  {
    return x + y;
  }
  
```



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    ...
  }
int q(x,y)
  int x,y;
  {
    return x + y;
  }
  
```

- Most languages allow recursion



The Procedure as a Control Abstraction

Implementing procedures with this behavior

- Requires code to *save* and *restore* a "return address"
- Must map *actual parameters* to *formal parameters* ($c \rightarrow x, b \rightarrow y$)
- Must create storage for *local variables* (and, maybe, parameters)
 - p needs space for d (and, maybe, $a, b,$ & c)
 - Where does this space go in recursive invocations?

```

...
s = p(10,t,u);
...
int p(a,b,c)
  int a, b, c;
  {
    int d;
    d = q(c,b);
    ...
  }
  
```



The Procedure as a Name Space

Each procedure creates its own name space

- Any name (almost) can be declared locally
- Local names hide identical non-local names (*shadowing*)
- Local names cannot be seen outside the procedure
- We call this set of rules & conventions *lexical scoping*

Examples

- C has global, static, local, and block scopes
Blocks can be nested, procedures cannot
- Scheme has global, procedure-wide, and nested scopes
Procedure scope (typically) contains formal parameters



The Procedure as a Name Space

- Why introduce lexical scoping?
 - Flexibility for programmer
 - Simplifies rules for naming & resolves conflicts
- Implementation:
 - The compiler responsibilities:*
 - At point *p*, which "x" is the programmer talking about?
 - At run-time, where is the value of *x* found in memory?
- Solution:
 - Lexically scoped symbol tables*



Examples

- In C++ and Java

```
{
  for (int i=0; i < 100; i++) {
    ...
  }

  for (Iterator i=list.iterator(); i.hasNext(); ) {
    ...
  }
}
```

- This is actually useful!



Dynamic vs static

- Static scoping
 - Most compiled languages – C, C++, Java, Fortran
 - Scopes only exist at compile-time
 - We'll see the corresponding run-time structures that are used to establish addressability later.
- Dynamic scoping
 - Interpreted languages – Perl, Common Lisp

```
int x = 0;
int f() { return x; }
int g() { int x = 1; return f(); }
```



Lexically-scoped Symbol Tables

- The problem
 - Compiler needs a distinct entry for each declaration
 - Nested lexical scopes admit duplicate declarations
- The interface
 - **enter()** – enter a new scope level
 - **insert(name)** – creates entry for *name* in current scope
 - **lookup(name)** – lookup a name, return an entry
 - **exit()** – leave scope, remove all names declared there



Example

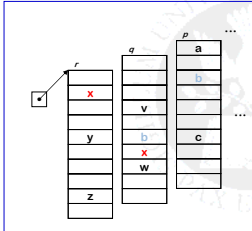
```
procedure p {
  int a, b, c
  procedure q {
    int v, b, x, w
    procedure r {
      int x, y, z
      ...
    }
    procedure s {
      int x, a, v
      ...
    }
  }
  ... r ... s
}
... q ...
```

```
L0: {
  int a, b, c
L1: {
  int v, b, x, w
L2a: {
  int x, y, z
  ...
}
L2b: {
  int x, a, v
  ...
}
}
```



Chained implementation

- Create a new table for each scope, chain them together for lookup



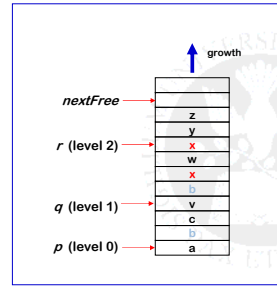
"Sheaf of tables" implementation

- enter()** creates a new table
- insert()** adds at current level
- lookup()** walks chain of tables & returns first occurrence of name
- exit()** throws away table for level *p*, if it is top table in the chain

Individual tables can be hash tables.



Stack implementation



Implementation

- enter()** puts a marker in stack
- insert()** inserts at nextFree
- lookup()** searches linearly from nextFree-1 forward
- exit()** sets nextFree back to the previous marker.

Advantage

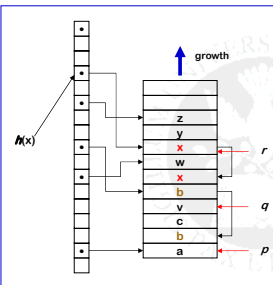
- Uses less space

Disadvantage

- Lookups can be expensive



Threaded stack implementation



Implementation

- insert()** puts new entry at the head of the list for the name
- lookup()** goes direct to location
- exit()** processes each element in level being deleted to remove from head of list

Advantage

- lookup is fast

Disadvantage

- exit takes time proportional to number of declared variables in level



Symbol tables in C

- Identifiers
 - Mapping from names to declarations
 - Fully nested – each '{' opens new scope
- Labels
 - Mapping from names to labels (for goto)
 - Flat table – one set of labels for each procedure
- Tags
 - Mapping from names to struct definitions
 - Fully nested
- Externals
 - Record of extern declarations
 - Flat table – redundant extern declarations must be identical

In general, rules can be very subtle



Examples

- Example of typedef use:

```
typedef int T;
struct S { T T; }; /* redefinition of T as member name */
```

- Example of proper declaration binding:

```
int; /* syntax error: vacuous declaration */
struct S; /* no error: tag is defined or elaborated */
```

- Example of declaration name spaces

- Declare "a" in the name space before parsing initializer

```
int a = sizeof(a);
```

- Declare "b" with a type before parsing "c"

```
int b, c[sizeof(b)];
```



Next time...

- Midterm review
- More on language abstractions
 - Methods (vs procedures)
 - Object-oriented programs

