

Control Flow



COMP 524: Programming Language Concepts
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Sequential Control Flow

Determines **what is computed**, and in **which order**.

Imperative PL: order mostly **explicit**.

Declarative PL: order mostly **implicit**

The Basis: Conditional Branching

Virtually all instructions sets support:

- **Unconditional branching** to a fixed address.
 - e.g., `jmp 0x123`: “jump to address 0x123”
- **Unconditional branching** to an address in a register, i.e, to an address determined at runtime.
 - e.g, `jmp (%eax)`: “jump to the address in the accumulator register.”
- **Conditional branching** to a fixed address.
 - e.g., `jne 0x123`: “jump to address 0x123 if last two values that were compared were not equal”

This is sufficient to implement a universal programming language!

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- **Unconditional branching** to an address determined at runtime
 - e.g., `jmp (%eax)`: “jump to address in accumulator register.”
- **Conditional branching** to a fixed address.
 - e.g., `jne 0x123`: “jump to address 0x123 if last two values that were compared were not equal”

Any higher-level control flow abstraction can be realized in terms of these jumps.

This is sufficient to implement a universal programming language!

Sequencing

Sequencing: explicit control flow.

- Abstractions that **control the order of execution**.
- Crucial to imperative programming.

Levels of abstraction.

- **Unstructured** control flow
 - hardly any abstraction over jumps
 - **hard to reason about**
- **Structured** control flow
 - amendable to formal proofs
 - easier to understand
 - jumps are implicit

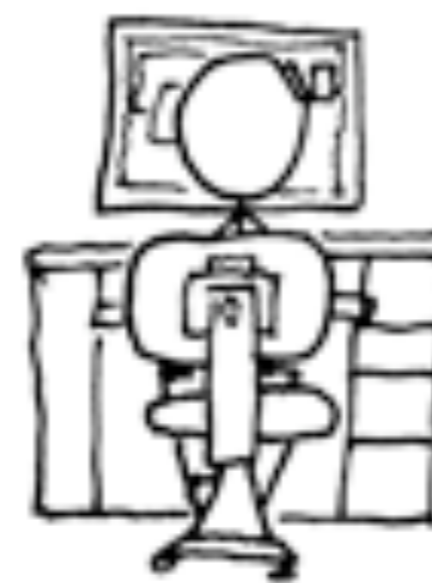
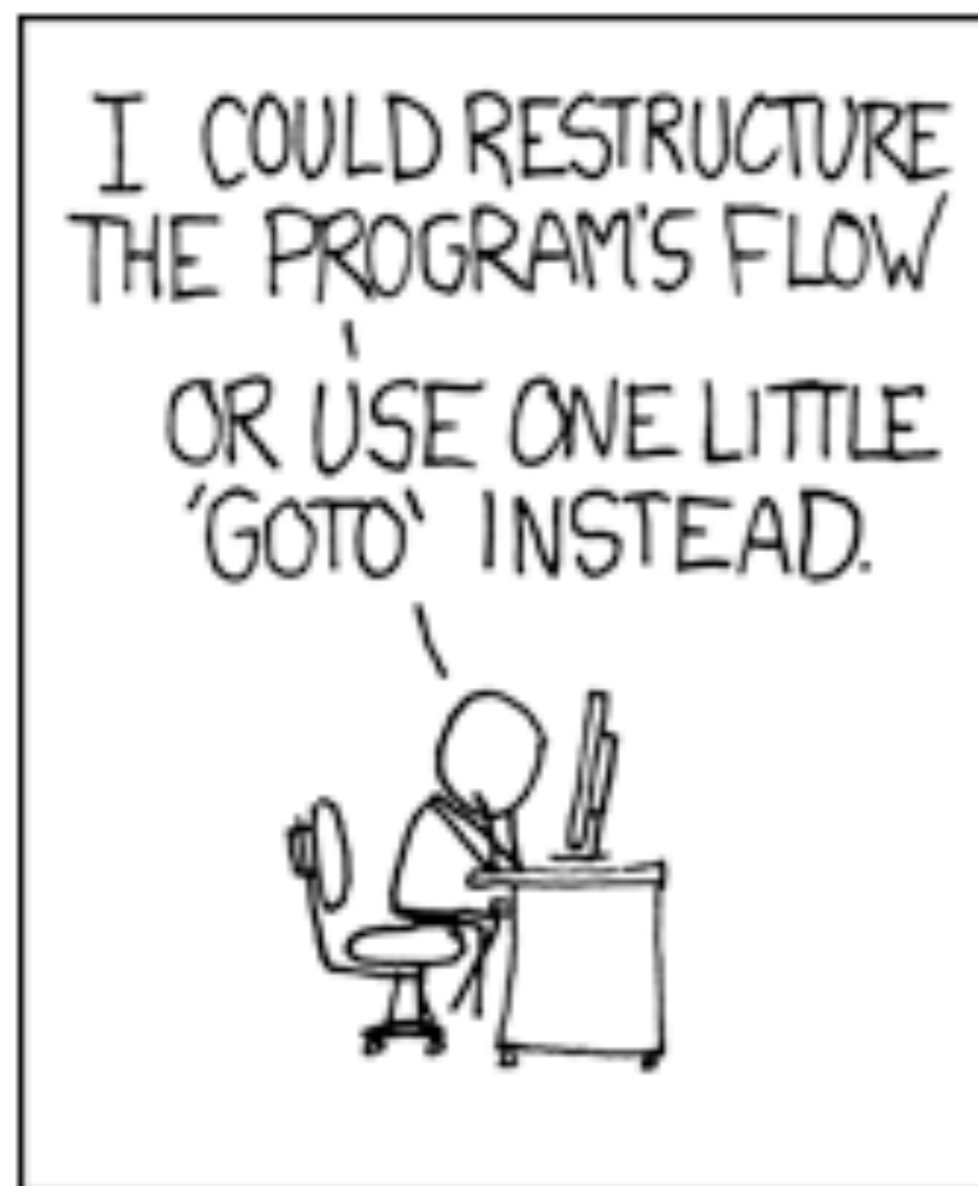
sequential composition:
do this first ; then this

unstructured:
e.g., **goto**, **break**, **redo**,
last, **continue**, **continue**,
and **return** if used to “skip”
over rest of subroutine

structured:
e.g. **for**, **while**, and **if**

Goto Considered Harmful

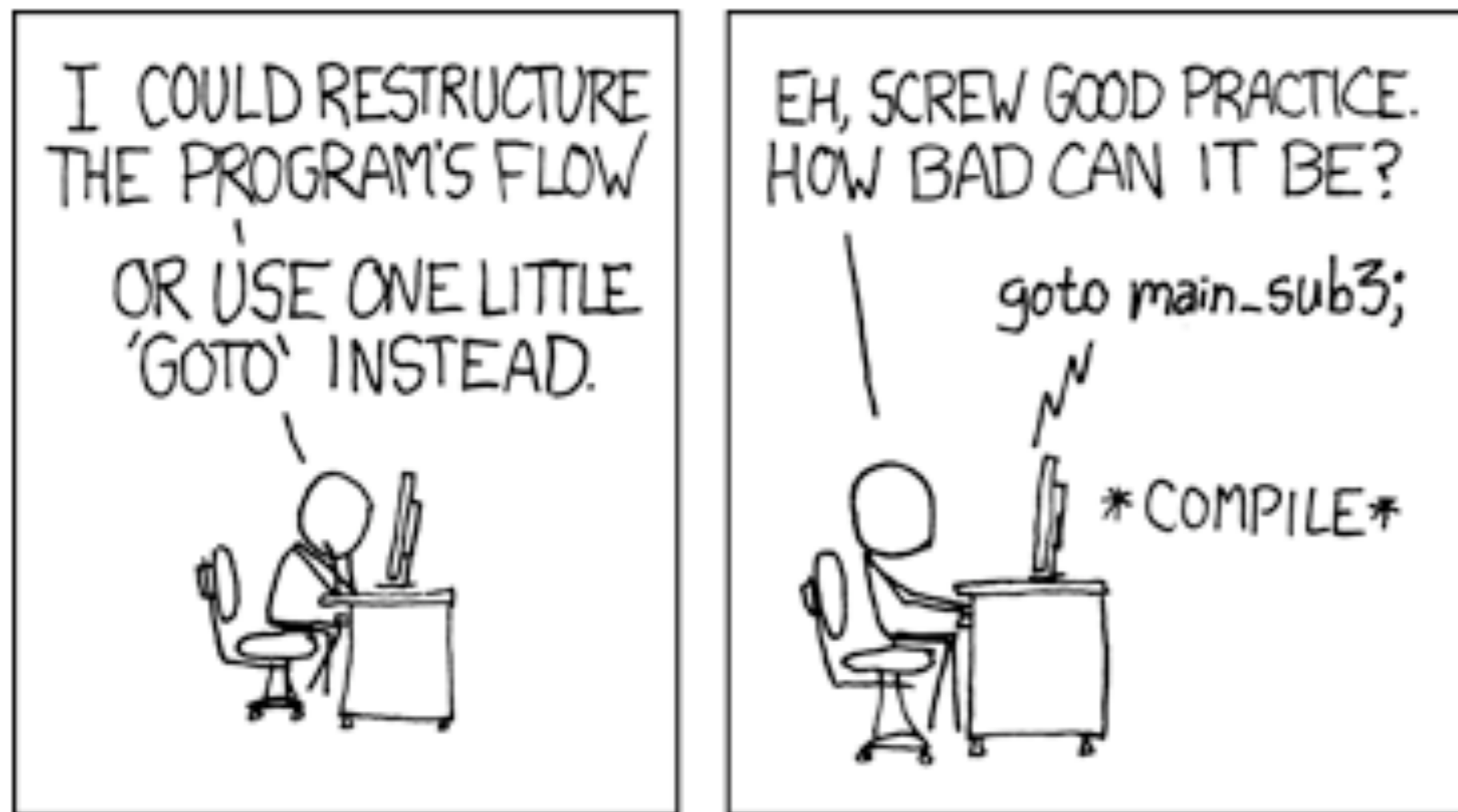
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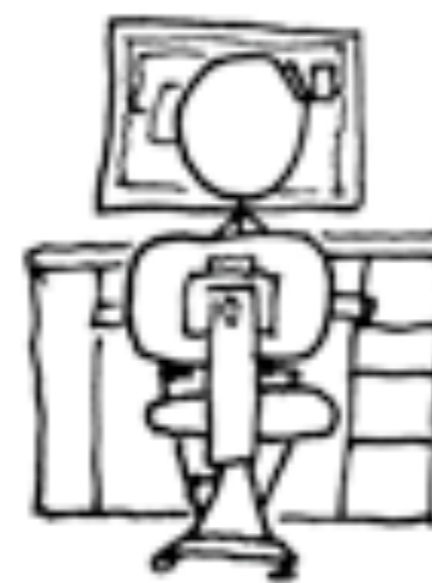
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Bohm & Jacopini, 1964
 every use of goto can be
 equivalently expressed with
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Goto Considered Harmful

Title of a famous critique of unstructured control flow by Dijkstra, 1968.

Bottom line: Don't ever use **goto**. Try hard to avoid all other unstructured control flow constructs, too.

(Footnote: some **very special** settings can benefit from a goto, e.g., some kernel routines. However, this does not apply to 99% of all software, in particular business & web software.)

Bohm & Jacopini, 1964

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Loops and Conditionals

Selection: execute one choice, but not the other(s).

- ➔ if-then-else
- ➔ if-then(-elsif)*-else
- ➔ switch, case statements
 - Implementation driven: exists to facilitate generation of efficient machine code.
 - This reason is somewhat obsolete with improved compilers.

Iteration: do something a pre-determined number of times.

- ➔ for (enumeration controlled)
 - from x to y; sometimes also from y downto x.
- ➔ for each (iterator)
 - executing a loop body for each element of a “collection.”
 - can be emulated with iterator pattern if not supported by language
 - hasNext() and next()

Logically-controlled loops...

Logically-controlled Loops

repeat something while a condition is satisfied

```
do
{
...
}
while i==true;
```

Post-test

```
for(;;){
...
if i==true break;
...
}
```

Midtest

```
while (i==false)
{
...
}
```

Pre-test

Subroutines

subprograms, functions, procedures, methods,...

Control Flow Abstraction.

- Separate “**what it does**” from “**how it’s done.**”
 - API: subroutine as a service provider.
- Reuse **high-level** code.
 - DRY: write it only once.
 - Maintenance: fix bugs only once.
- Reuse **machine** code.
 - Usually, only one copy of a subroutine is included in final program.

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Instead of writing a concrete sequence of instructions, a subroutine is **parametrized sequence of instructions.**

Execution Context

A subroutine is executed in the context of the **(virtual) machine state** (global variables, device state, ...). A subroutine's result may differ between calls with the same arguments if the global context changed.

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The “main effect” is the value that is computed (i.e., the return value).

Side Effect

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Function vs. Procedure

Pure Function.

- A pure function has **no side effects**.
- A pure function's **result only depends on its arguments**, and not on any global state; not affected by side effects.
- “Always the same” and “leaves no trace.”

Pure Procedure.

- A pure procedure **returns no value**, and is only executed for its side effects.
- Java: any method with return type **void**.

Subroutine Parameters

```
define my_subroutine(x, y, z) {  
    ...  
    print x;  
    ...  
}
```

```
define getval() {  
    return 42;  
}
```

```
...  
my_var = 4;  
my_subroutine(my_var, 3 + 4, getval());  
...
```

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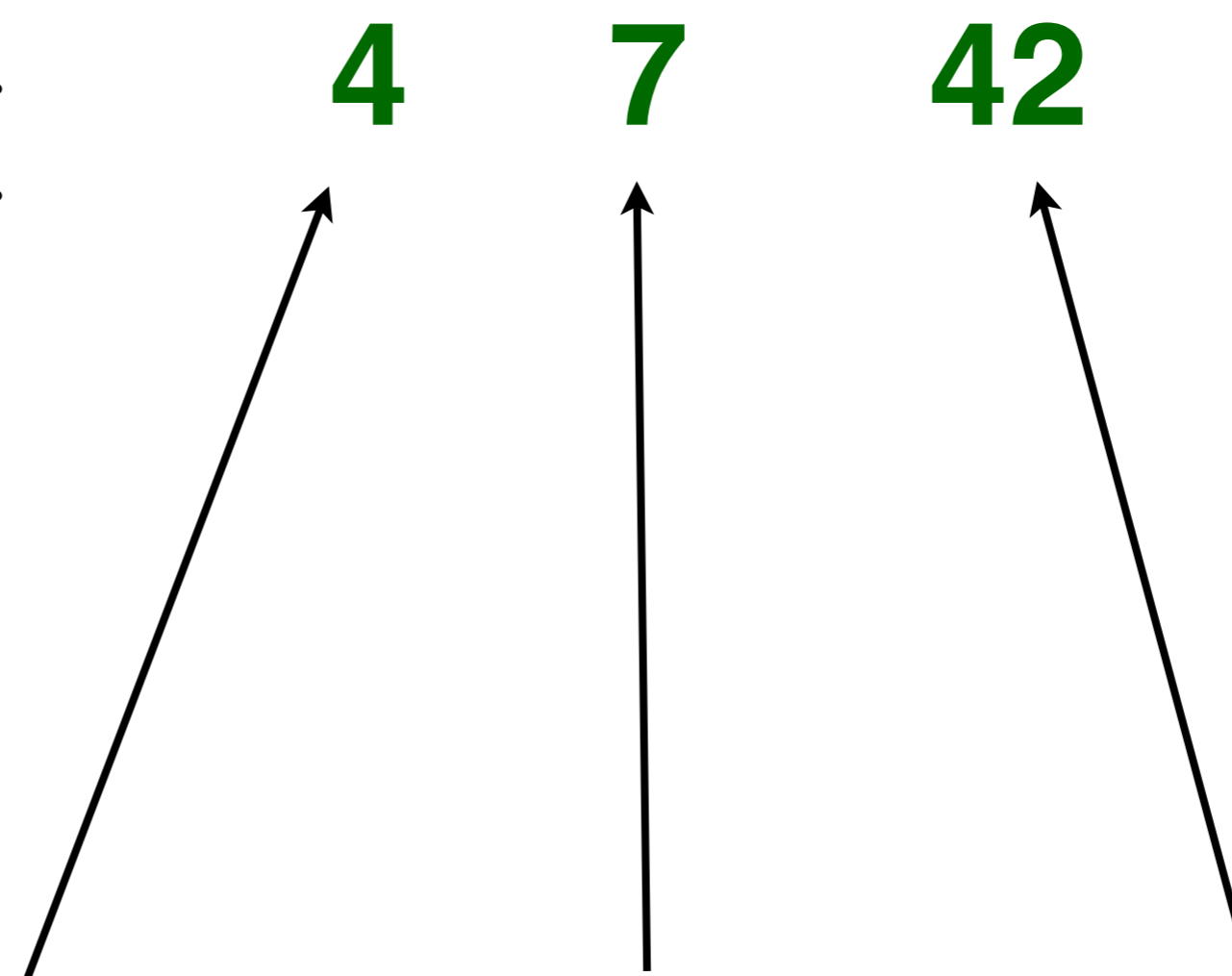
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The names used in the
subroutine definition
are called the
formal parameters.

Subroutine Parameters

```
define my_subroutine(x, y, z) {  
  ...  
  print x;  
  ...
```

The program fragments used in the
subroutine call
are called the
actual parameters.

```
...  
my_var = 4;  
my_subroutine(my_var, 3 + 4, getval())  
...
```

42

The **values** resulting from the evaluation of the **actual parameters** are called the **arguments**.

```

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  ...
  print x;
  ...
}

define getval() {
  return 42;
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...
my_var = 4;
my_subroutine(my_var, 3 + 4, getval());
...

```

Parameter Passing

The formal parameters have to be bound to the arguments at some point during the subroutine call.

Actual Parameter Evaluation.

- ➔ **When?** As soon as possible?
 - Evaluate actual parameters before call?
 - What if argument is not needed? **On demand?**
- ➔ In **what order?**
 - Left to right?
 - Any order?
 - Does it matter?
- ➔ Are **updates by the callee** to the formal parameters “visible” to the caller?

Parameter Passing: Information Flow

In Parameters

Information/data provided by the caller;
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Actual parameter remains unchanged.

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Receiving variable provided by caller;
information stored by callee.

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In-Out Parameters

Information/data provided by the caller;
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Any change by callee visible to caller.

Parameter Passing: Semantics

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Behaves as if arguments are copied from the caller to the callee prior to the call.

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Behaves as if formal parameter is replaced by actual parameter in subroutine body; evaluated whenever needed.

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Example: Java

Scalar types (int, double, etc.) are in parameters and passed-by-value, whereas objects are passed-by-reference.

Parameter Passing: Semantics

Pass-By-Value

Example: C Preprocessor
Macro parameters are passed-by-name.

Pass-By-Reference

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Param

Usually implemented with actual copying, but details vary.



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Parameter Passing: Semantics

Pass-By-Value

Usually implemented by copying address, but sometimes more complex (e.g., Java RMI).

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Parameter Evaluation Time

When to evaluate actual parameters to the obtain arguments.

Eager Evaluation.

- Evaluate all arguments before call.
- **Easy to implement.**
- But can be **problematic.**
 - What if not needed?
 - What if error might occur?

Normal-order evaluation.

- Evaluate every time when argument needed.
- But **only if needed.**
- i.e., call-by-name.
- May be **not very efficient**; hard to implement.

Lazy evaluation.

- Actual parameter evaluated **once** when the argument is used.
- Result cached.

Parameter Evaluation Time

When to evaluate actual parameters to the obtain arguments.

Eager Evaluation.

- Evaluate all arguments before call.

Mainly used in **purely-functional languages**:
requires that time of evaluation does not impact result.

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Positional Parameters

How are actual parameters and the resulting arguments matched to formal parameters?

Matched **one-to-one, based on **index**.**

- Order of formal parameters determines the order in which actual parameters must occur.
- **Simple** to understand and implement.
- Sometimes too **inflexible** or **inconvenient**.
 - Infrequently used options must always be specified.
 - Rigid order required; can be tedious for many parameters.

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Python Function Definition

```
def f(a, b, c):  
    print a, b, c
```

Python Shell Output:

```
>>> f(1, 2, 3)  
1 2 3
```

```
>>> f(1)  
Traceback (most recent call last):  
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>  
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Specifying **too few or too many** actual parameters results in error.

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In Python, all arguments are available as a tuple.

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The number of required parameters not fixed.

Keyword Parameters

How are actual parameters and the resulting arguments matched to formal parameters?

Matched **one-to-one**, either by position or **keyword**.

- Parameter can occur **out of order**.
- If default value is provided, then parameter **can be omitted**, too.
- Some languages (e.g., C++) allow only default values, but not keyword parameters.
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def f(a=10, b=20, c=30):  
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```

Python Shell Output:

```
>>> f(c=3, b=2)  
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```

```
>>> f(1, 2, 3)  
1 2 3
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Keyword Parameters

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Matched one Parameters can be **provided as needed**; by naming their **keyword**, they can occur in any order.

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Function can still be called with **positional** parameters.

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Parameter Passing: Efficiency

Compile-time.

- Parameters with **default values** and **keyword parameters** do not necessarily incur additional runtime overheads.
- Can be **automatically translated** to regular positional parameters.

Run-time.

- Support for **variable number of parameters** (“varargs”) requires **construction of list-like structure** and **iteration**.
- However, the added flexibility is usually a good tradeoff.

Parameter Passing: Efficiency

Compile-time.

→ Parameters with **default values** and **keyword parameters** do

Example: C

On x86, most **positional parameters** are passed through **registers (fast)**, but varargs must be passed via the **stack (slower)**.

→ However, the added flexibility is usually a good tradeoff.

Recursion

$$fib(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ fib(n-1) + fib(n-2) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Definition of the Fibonacci Sequence for $n \geq 0$.

A subroutine that calls itself.

- Either directly or indirectly.
- Requires runtime stack.

Repetition without loops.

- Natural fit for “divide-and-conquer” algorithms.
 - E.g., Quicksort.
- From a math point of view:
 - **recursion is natural**;
 - **loops can be difficult to reason about.**

```
naive_fib(0, 0) :- !.
naive_fib(1, 1) :- !.
naive_fib(X, N) :-
    N_1 is N - 1,
    N_2 is N - 2,
    naive_fib(A, N_1),
    naive_fib(B, N_2),
    X is A + B.
```

Naive, recursive computation of Fibonacci numbers in Prolog.

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This causes exponential runtime complexity!

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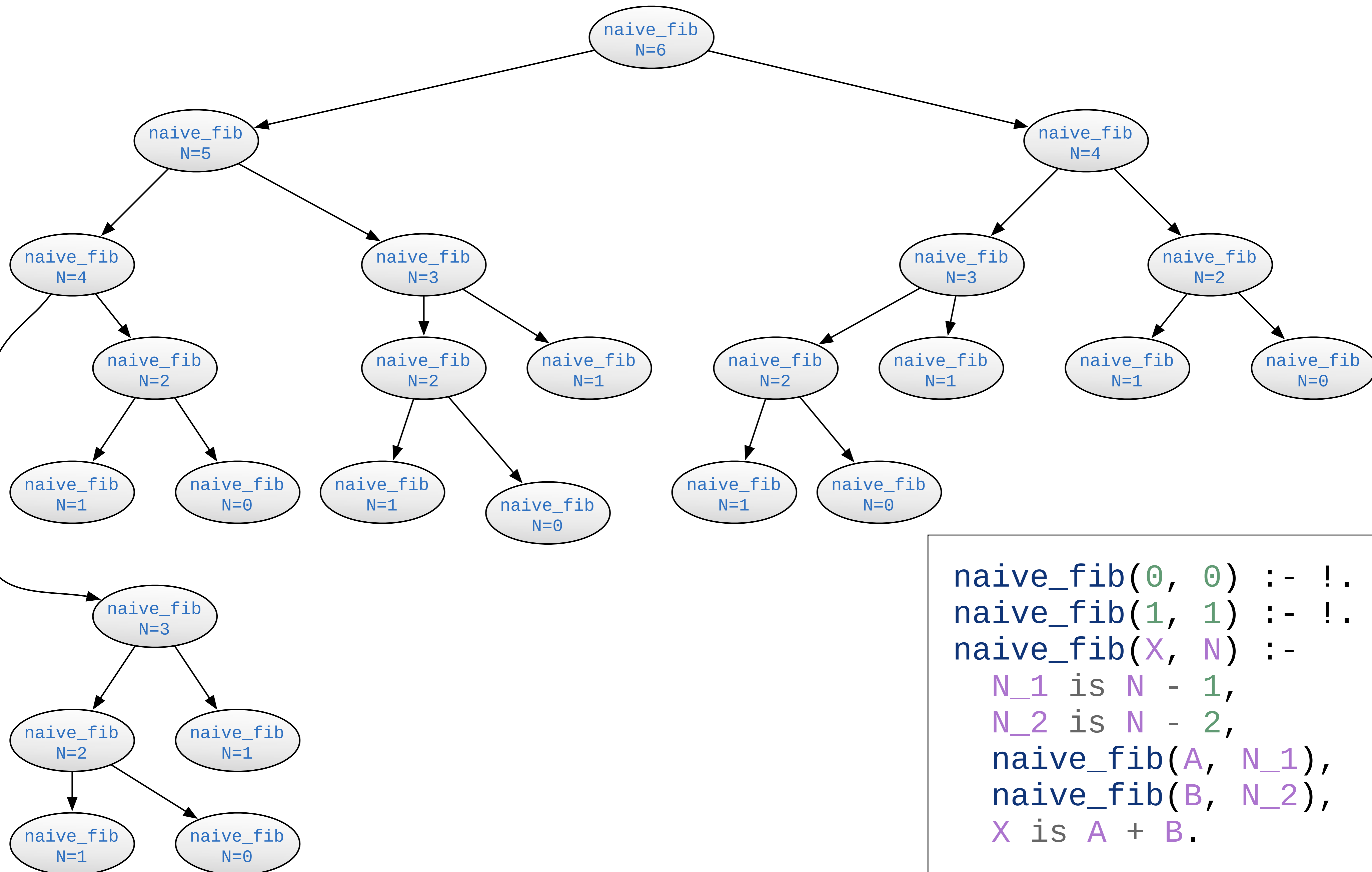
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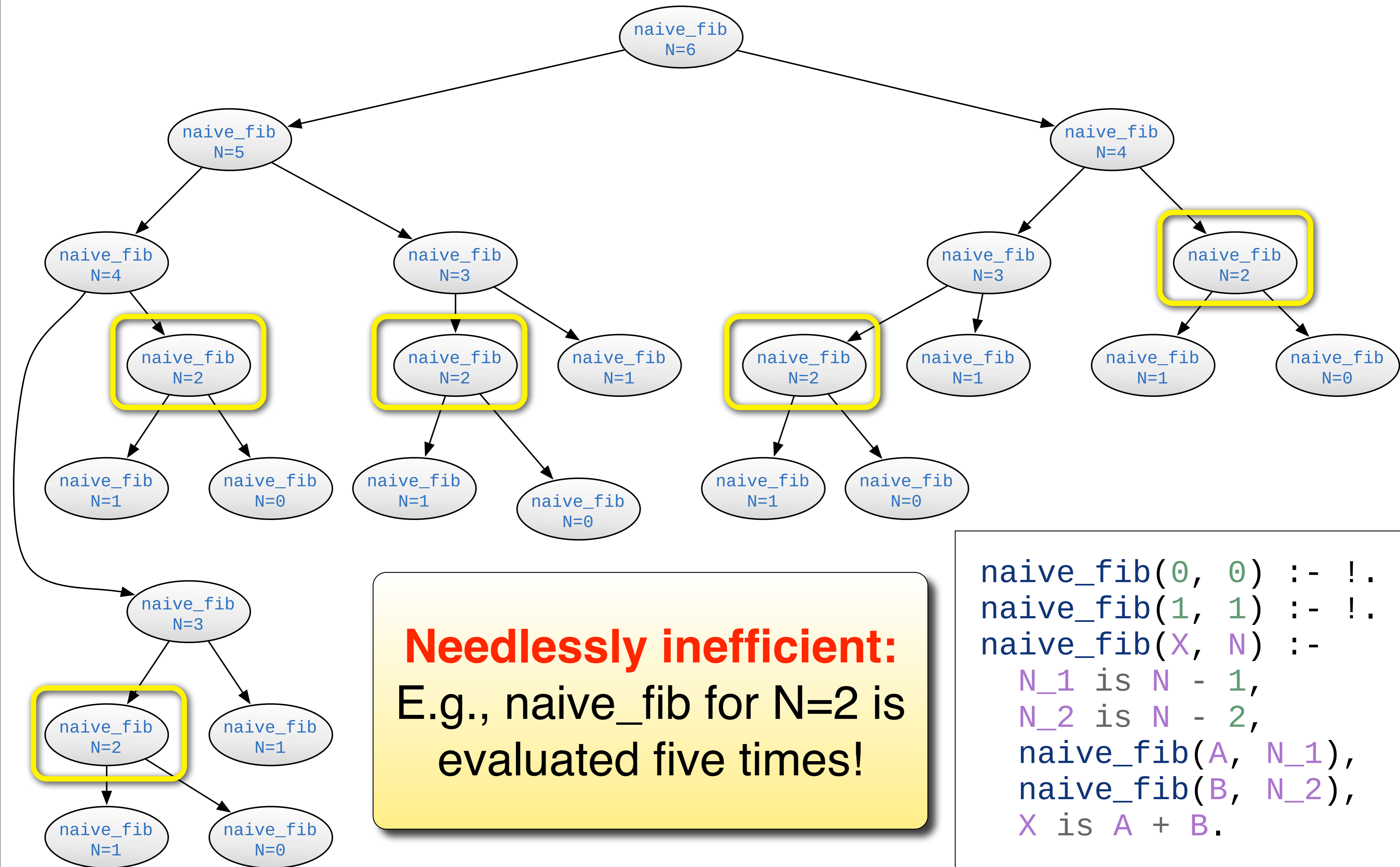
Exponential Call Tree for naive_fib(X, 6)



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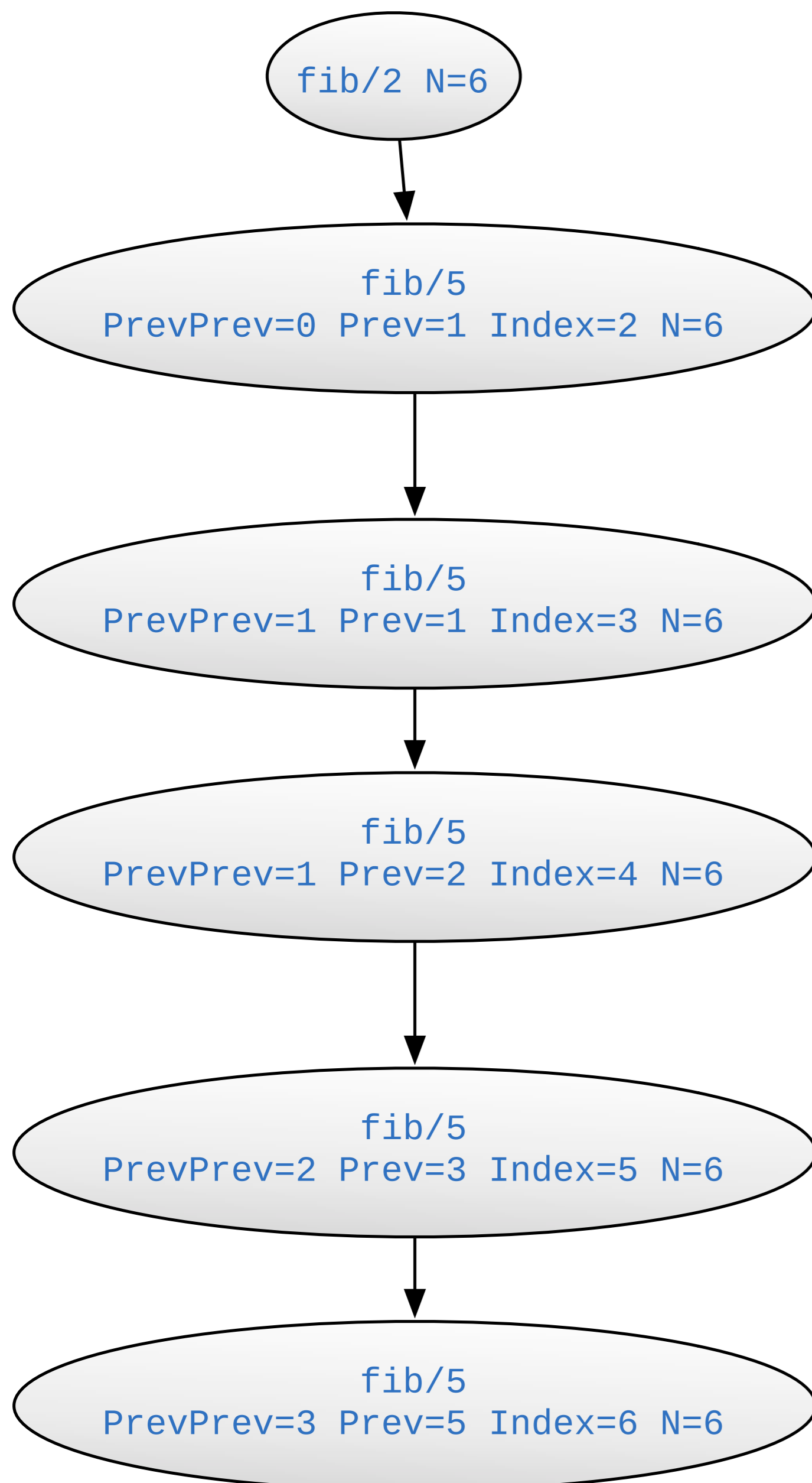
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Needlessly inefficient:
E.g., `naive_fib` for `N=2` is
evaluated five times!

Linear Recursion



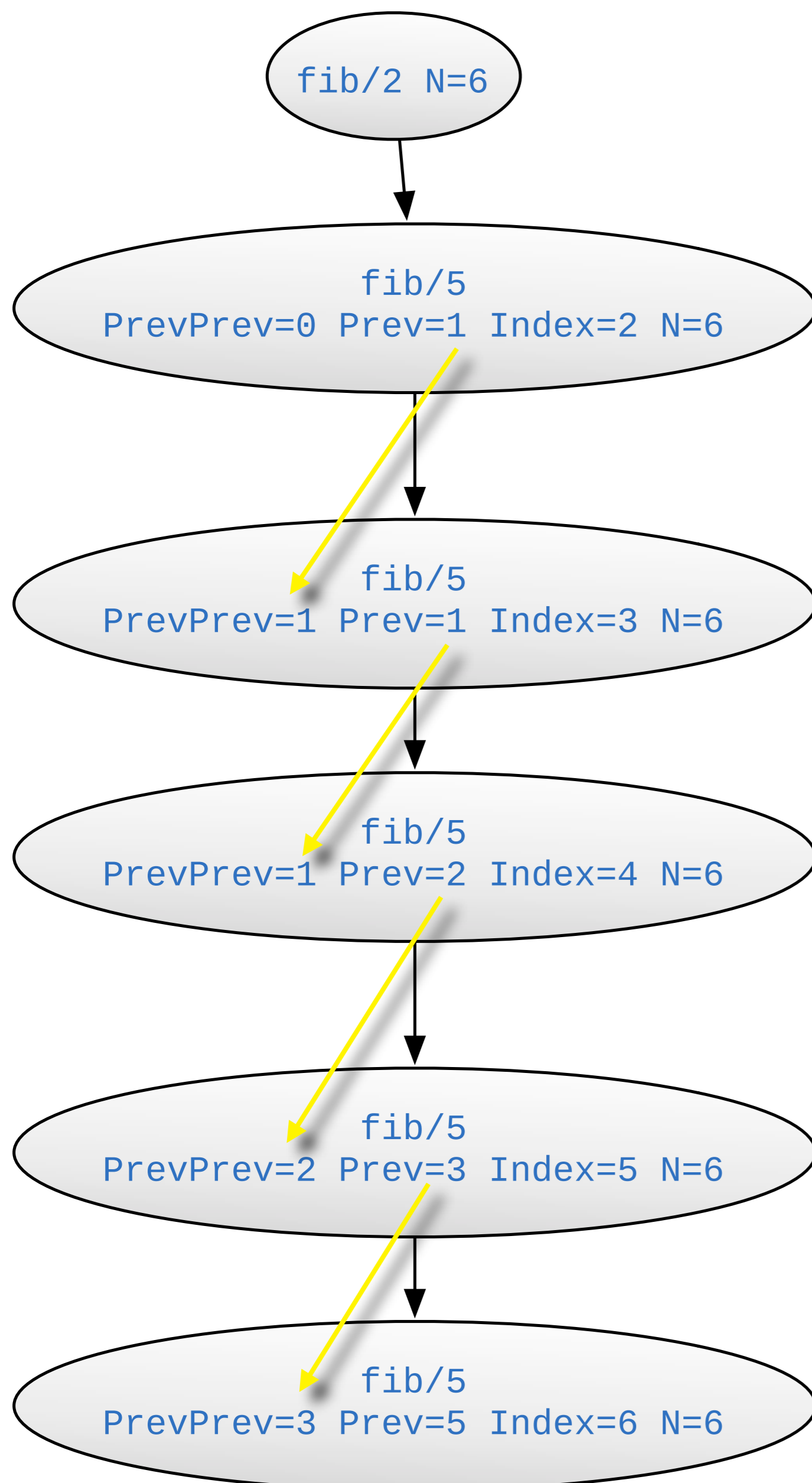
```

% fib/2 --- compute the Nth Fibonacci
number.
% Two trivial cases first.
fib(0, 0) :- !.
fib(1, 1) :- !.
% Cases that actually require iteration.
fib(X, N) :-
    fib(0, 1, 2, N, X).

% fib/5 --- Fibonacci helper clause;
%           does the actual iteration.
% Base case: have reached end of iteration.
fib(PrevPrev, Prev, Index, Stop, Res) :-
    Index = Stop, !,
    Res is PrevPrev + Prev.
% Recursive case: have not yet reached the
% desired index.
fib(PrevPrev, Prev, Index, Stop, Res) :-
    Index < Stop,
    Cur is PrevPrev + Prev,
    Next is Index + 1,
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Linear Recursion

Auxiliary values are kept for the iterations where they are needed.



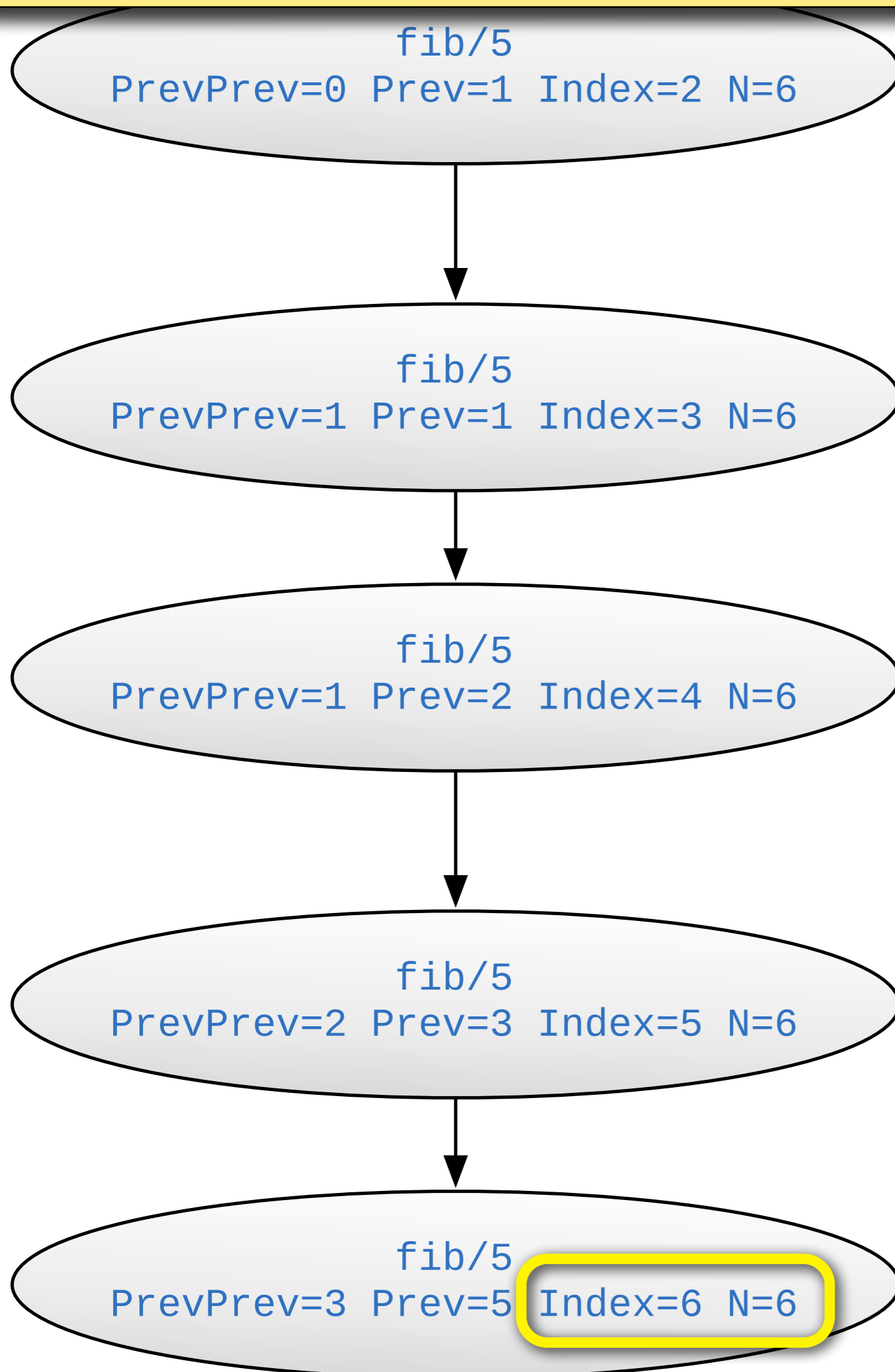
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```


Iteration ends when desired index is reached.
 At this point, computing the result is simple since
 both previous Fibonacci numbers are known.

$$X = Res = 8$$



```

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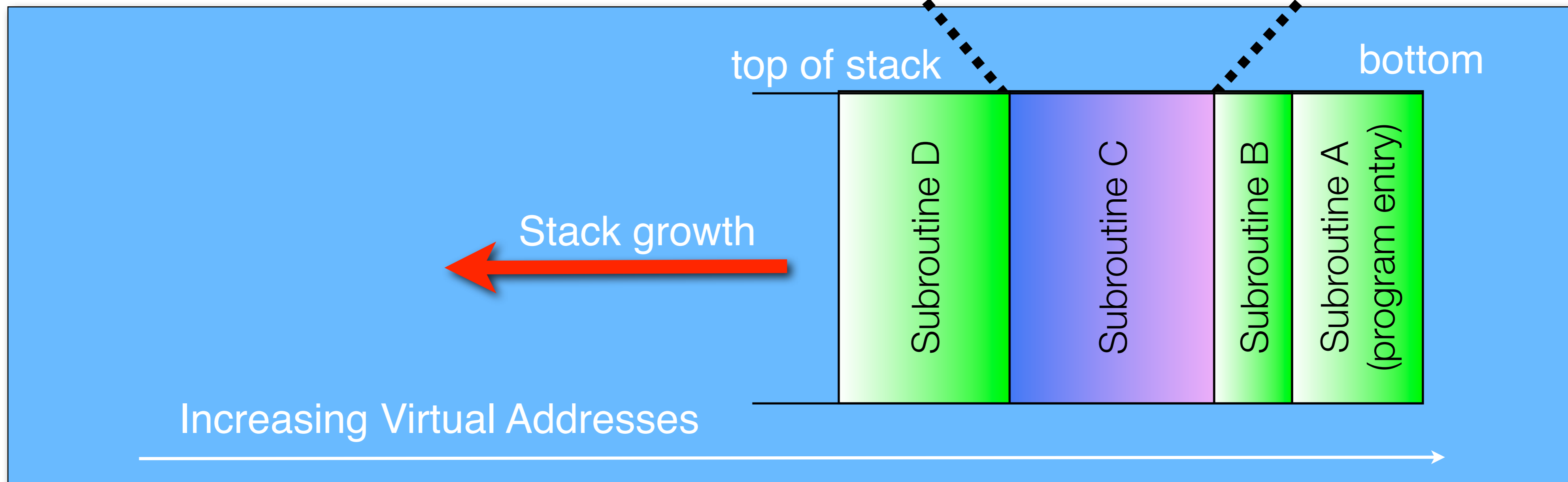
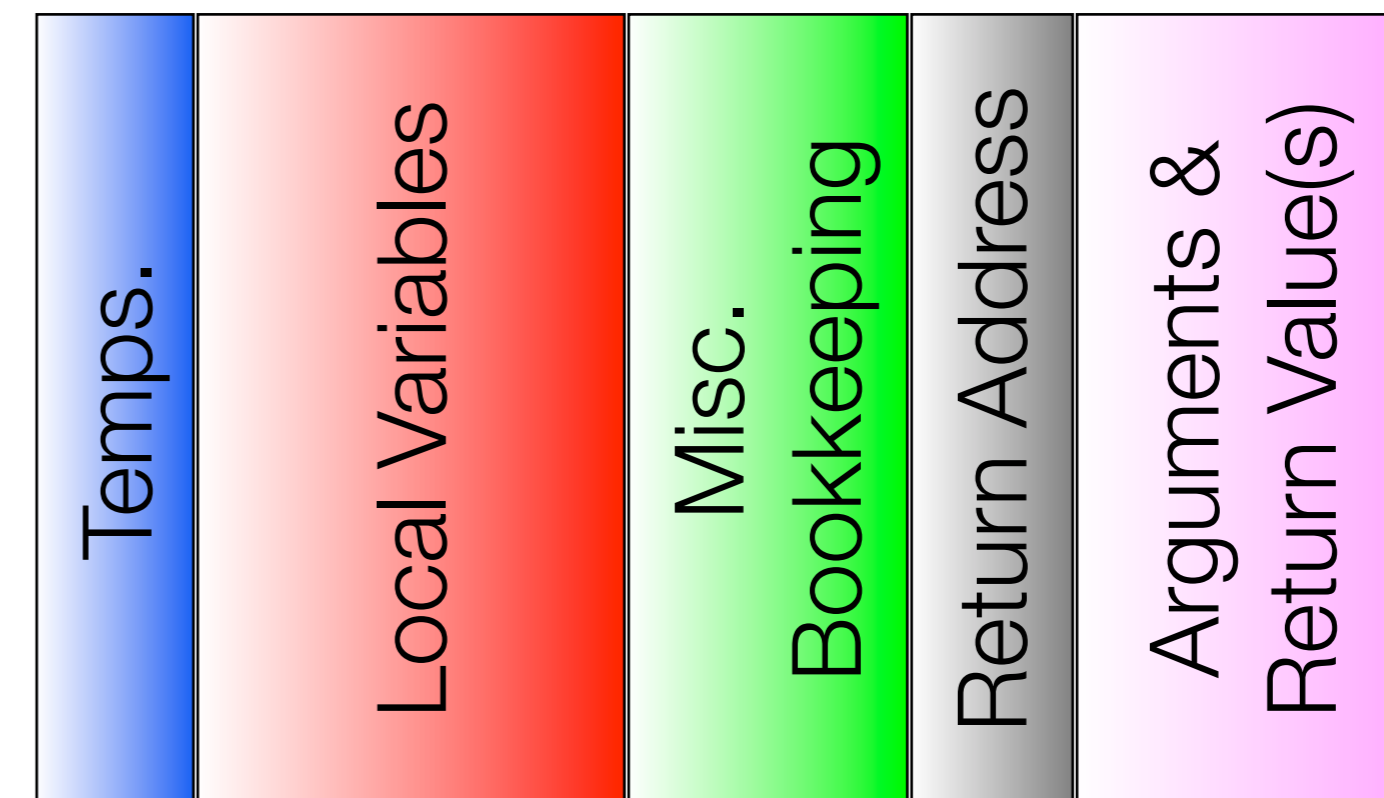
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% Recursive case: have not yet reached the
% desired index.
fib(PrevPrev, Prev, Index, Stop, Res) :-
    Index < Stop,
    Cur is PrevPrev + Prev,
    Next is Index + 1,
    fib(Prev, Cur, Next, Stop, Res).
  
```


Stack Overflow

Subroutine call requires stack space.

- Stack space is a **limited resource**.
- Problem: **max recursion depth is limited** by stack space if implemented naively.
- Suppose **Subroutine D** is recursive.

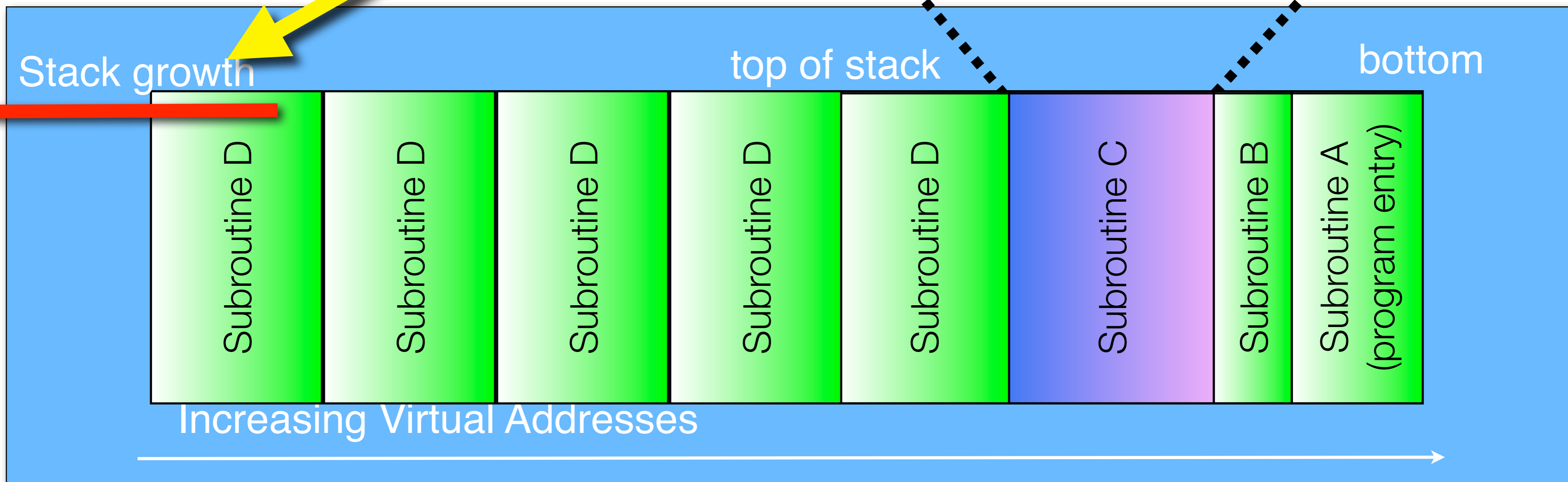


Stack Overflow

The recursion will run out of space eventually.

Subroutine call requires stack space.

- Stack space is a **limited resource**.
- Problem: **max recursion depth is limited** by stack space if implemented naively.
- Suppose **Subroutine D** is recursive.



Stack Overflow Example

```
public static void main(String args[]) {
    System.out.println(factorial(4));
    System.out.println(factorial(100000));
}

static long factorial(long n) {
    if (n == 0)
        return 1;
    else
        return factorial(n - 1) * n;
}
```

Output:

```
24
Exception in thread "main"
java.lang.StackOverflowError
  at Factorial.factorial(Factorial.java:18)
  at Factorial.factorial(Factorial.java:18)
  at Factorial.factorial(Factorial.java:18)
  at Factorial.factorial(Factorial.java:18)
  (repeated several thousand times)
```

Stack Overflow Example

So how can we implement **arbitrary loops** with recursion if we have only finite memory?

```
static long factorial(long n) {  
    if (n == 0)  
        return 1;  
    else  
        return factorial(n - 1) * n;  
}
```

Output:

```
24  
Exception in thread "main"  
java.lang.StackOverflowError  
    at Factorial.factorial(Factorial.java:18)  
    at Factorial.factorial(Factorial.java:18)  
    at Factorial.factorial(Factorial.java:18)  
    at Factorial.factorial(Factorial.java:18)  
    (repeated several thousand times)
```


Tail Recursion

If a **recursive call is the last statement/expression** of a subroutine to be evaluated, then the **already-allocated stack frame of the caller is reused.**

Stack frame = local execution context.

- If nothing remains to be executed, then stack frame contents are no longer required.
- Conceptually, instead of allocating a new stack frame, **the compiler simply generates a jump** to the beginning of the subroutines code.
 - A bit more complicated with indirect recursion...
- **Elegant recursion compiled to efficient loop.**

Tail Recursion Example

Prolog supports proper tail recursion.

```
naive_fact(1, 0) :- !.  
naive_fact(X, N) :-  
    Prev is N - 1,  
    naive_fact(X, Prev),  
    X is Y * N.
```

```
fact(X, N) :- fact(X, N, 1, 0).  
fact(X, N, Accumulator, Index) :-  
    Index = N, !,  
    X = Accumulator.  
fact(X, N, Accumulator, Index) :-  
    Next is Index + 1,  
    Fact is Accumulator * Next,  
    fact(X, N, Fact, Next).
```


Inline Expansion

Subroutine granularity.

- ➔ **Using many, very short subroutines is good** software engineering practice.
 - Easier to understand and debug.
- ➔ However, **subroutine calls incur overhead.**

Inline subroutines.

- ➔ Semantically, like a normal subroutine.
 - **Type checking**, etc.
- ➔ However, instead of generating a call, compiler **“copy&pastes” subroutine code into caller.**
 - Like macro expansion.
 - **Increases code size**, but **call overhead is avoided.**

Inline Expansion Example

```
#include <stdio.h>

int normal_function(void)
{
    return 1;
}

inline int inline_function(void)
{
    return 2;
}

int main(int argc, char** argv)
{
    printf("result = %d\n",
        normal_function() + inline_function());
    return 0;
}
```

C99 Example.

Inline Expansion Example

```
#include <stdio.h>

int normal_function(void)
{
    return 1;
}

inline int inline_function(void)
{
    return 2;
}

int main(int argc, char** argv)
{
    printf("result = %d\n",
        normal_function() + inline_function());
    return 0;
}
```

Inline keyword is a **hint** to the compiler to include body instead of generating a call.

C99 Example.

Inline Expansion Example

```

080483a4 <normal_function>:
80483a4:    55                push   %ebp
80483a5:    89 e5            mov    %esp,%ebp
80483a7:    b8 01 00 00 00   mov    $0x1,%eax
80483ac:    5d                pop    %ebp
80483ad:    c3                ret

080483b8 <main>:
80483b8:    55                push   %ebp
80483b9:    89 e5            mov    %esp,%ebp
80483bb:    83 e4 f0         and    $0xffffffff,%esp
80483be:    83 ec 10         sub    $0x10,%esp
80483c1:    e8 de ff ff ff   call   80483a4 <normal_function>
80483c6:    83 c0 02         add    $0x2,%eax
80483c9:    89 44 24 04      mov    %eax,0x4(%esp)
80483cd:    c7 04 24 a0 84 04 08  movl  $0x80484a0,(%esp)
80483d4:    e8 ff fe ff ff   call   80482d8 <printf@plt>
80483d9:    b8 00 00 00 00   mov    $0x0,%eax
80483de:    c9                leave
80483df:    c3                ret

```

Generated machine code.

Inline Expansion

Call generated for normal function.

```

080483a4 <normal_function>:
80483a4:    55                push   %ebp
80483a5:    89 e5            mov    %esp,%ebp
80483a7:    b8 01 00 00 00   mov    $0x1,%eax
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80483d9:    b8 00 00 00 00   mov    $0x0,%eax
80483de:    c9                leave
80483df:    c3                ret

```

Generated machine code.

Inline Expansion Example

080483a4 <normal_function>:

The “return 2” was inlined; no call to inline_function generated.

```

push    %ebp
mov     %esp,%ebp
mov     $0x1,%eax
pop     %ebp
ret

```

080483b8 <main>:

80483b8:	55	push	%ebp
80483b9:	89 e5	mov	%esp,%ebp
80483bb:	83 e4 f0	and	\$0xffffffff0,%esp
80483be:	83 ec 10	sub	\$0x10,%esp
80483c1:	e8 de ff ff ff	call	80483a4 <normal_function>
80483c6:	83 c0 02	add	\$0x2,%eax
80483c9:	89 44 24 04	mov	%eax,0x4(%esp)
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80483d4:	e8 ff fe ff ff	call	80482d8 <printf@plt>
80483d9:	b8 00 00 00 00	mov	\$0x0,%eax
80483de:	c9	leave	
80483df:	c3	ret	

Generated machine code.

Exception Handling

How to report errors?

With error or **return codes.**

- Commonly done in C.
- Tedious and error-prone.
 - Hard to read, complex control flow.
 - Easy to forget.

With (unstructured**) jumps.**

- Also error prone.

Exceptions: **structured error handling.**

- **Checked** exceptions: **anticipated failures** that can occur in correct program.
 - e.g., `IOException`: user could have specified incorrect file.
- **Unchecked** exceptions: errors that indicate **programmer error** or catastrophic **system failure**.
 - e.g., `IllegalArgumentException`: misuse of API.
 - e.g., `OutOfMemoryError`: program can't do anything about it.

Exception Handling

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With error or re

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 - Hard to read
 - Easy to forg

With (unstruct

- Also error pro

In many languages (e.g., C++, Python,...),
all exceptions are unchecked.

(checked: compiler raises error if possible
exception is not handled or propagated)

Exceptions: structured error handling.

- **Checked** exceptions: **anticipated failures** that can occur in correct program.
 - e.g., IOException: user could have specified incorrect file.
- **Unchecked** exceptions: errors that indicate **programmer error** or catastrophic **system failure**.
 - e.g., IllegalArgumentException: misuse of API.
 - e.g., OutOfMemoryError: program can't do anything about it.

Expression Evaluation

Statement vs. Expression

- Imperative languages often differentiate between “statements” and “expressions”.
- Functional languages usually focus on expressions.

Expressions

- Can be evaluated to yield a **value**.
- E.g., in Java, “`1 + 2`”, “`Math.sqrt(2)`”.

Statements

- Give imperative languages **sequential nature**.
- E.g., in Java, “`if`” is a statement; it cannot occur in expressions.

Expression Evaluation

Expressions usually consist of **operators**, **operands** (literals, variables, and subexpressions), and subroutine calls.

Functional languages usually focus on expressions.

Expressions

- Can be evaluated to yield a **value**.
- E.g., in Java, “`1 + 2`”, “`Math.sqrt(2)`”.

Statements

- Give imperative languages **sequential nature**.
- E.g., in Java, “`if`” is a statement; it cannot occur in expressions.

Unary, Binary, and Ternary Operators

Unary: Operator has **single operand**.

Example: logical negation

Binary: Operator has **two operands**.

Examples: logical and, addition

Ternary: Operator has **three operands**.

Example: `?:` (conditional expression) in C-like languages

Prefix, Infix, and Postfix Operators

Prefix: Operator **before** Operand

Examples: ++, !

Infix: Operator **between** Operands

Examples: &&, ||, +=, ==

Postfix: Operator **after** Operand

Examples: ++

Operators as Function Applications

Operators are **not inherently special**.

→ An operator is a **function/subroutine with human-friendly syntax**.

<operand1> <op> <operand2>
 is the same as
<op> (<operand1>, <operand2>)

Examples:

$3 + 4 \Leftrightarrow +(3, 4)$

$3 + 4 \Leftrightarrow (+ 3 4)$ ← LISP

$x = 4 \Leftrightarrow (\text{setq } x 4)$

$x = 4 \Leftrightarrow (\text{set! } x 4)$ ← Scheme

$3 + 4 \Leftrightarrow (+) 3 4$ ← Haskell

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<op>(<operand1>, <operand2>)

Examples: $3 + 4 \Leftrightarrow +(3, 4)$

This is a **purely syntactic transformation**
 that **can be done by the parser**.

The semantic analysis, optimization, and code generation phases
 only need to implement one concept: subroutine calls.

$3 + 4 \Leftrightarrow (+) 3 4$ ← Haskell

Operators as Function Applications

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$\langle operand1 \rangle \langle op \rangle \langle operand2 \rangle$
is the same as
 $\langle op \rangle (\langle operand1 \rangle, \langle operand2 \rangle)$

Compilation of operators.

→ Some operators **correspond directly to machine instructions**.

▸ e.g., integer addition

▸ These are called **built-in** or **primitive** functions.

→ Which operations are primitive is entirely machine-dependent.

▸ e.g., some machines require **software floating point** emulation.

→ **Avoiding a subroutine call** in the case of primitive functions is a compile-time **optimization similar to inlining**.

Operators as Function Applications

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is the same as
<op> (<operand1>, <operand2>)

However, classic **imperative language design** treats operators as a concept that is different from a regular subroutine abstraction. This is a **serious design limitation**.

- ▶ e.g., in **Pascal, C, and Java**, operators are unrelated to functions/procedures (even if they are implemented in software) and are **syntactically different**.
- ▶ e.g., in **C++**, the user can override select operators with custom methods, but the user **cannot define new operators**.

Operator Precedence

<operand1> <op1> <operand2> <op2> <operand3>

Automatically transformed by
parser into subroutine calls...

Operator Precedence

`<operand1> <op1> <operand2> <op2> <operand3>`

Problem: how to match operators to operands?

`<op1>(<operand1>, <op2>(<operand2>, <operand3>))`

or

`<op2>(<op1>(<operand1>, <operand2>), <operand3>))`

Operator Precedence

<operand1> <op1> <operand2> <op2> <operand3>

Tie breaking rules.

- Each operator is assigned a **numeric precedence value**.
- Operators are evaluated in order of decreasing precedence.
 - Conceptually, **implicit parentheses** are inserted to disambiguate expression.
- e.g., multiplication usually has higher precedence than addition.

Operator Precedence

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 - Conceptually, **implicit parentheses** are inserted to disambiguate expression.
- e.g., multiplication usually has higher precedence than addition.

If *<op1>* has higher precedence than *<op2>*, then:

<op2>(<op1>(<operand1>, <operand2>), <operand3>)

Operator Associativity

What if both operators have the same precedence?

<operand1> <op1> <operand2> <op2> <operand3>

Consistent placement of implicit parentheses.

- Either start on left or start on right.
 - Called **left-associative** and **right-associative**.
- Determines result if operator is not commutative.
 - **Note**: addition/multiplication not necessarily commutative on a computer due to **overflow** / **underflow** / **loss of precision**.

Operator Associativity

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Java:

`a = b = c;` \Leftrightarrow `a = (b = c);`

`a / b / c;` \Leftrightarrow `(a / b) / c;`

Short-Circuit Operators

Value of expressions does not always depend on all operands.

- Logical **and**: if first operand is false.
- Logical **or**: if first operand is true.
- **Short-circuit**: only evaluate second operand if result is required.
 - i.e., use **lazy evaluation**!

Uses.

- This is an optimization: put the computationally cheap tests first.
- Short-circuit operators are often used to guard potentially erroneous sub-expressions.

Java:

```
HashMap dict = null;
// ...
// possibly initialized by other code
if (dict != null && dict.containsKey("key"))
    // do something;
```

Short-Circuit Operators

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 - ▶ i.e., use **lazy evaluation**!

Uses.

→ This is an optimization: put the computationally cheap tests first

→ Short-circuiting can prevent errors

Potential null dereference (dict) **guarded by short-circuit operator**:
equivalent to call-by-name invocation of subroutine named &&.

Java:

```
HashMap dict = null;  
// ...  
// possibly initialized by other code  
if (dict != null && dict.contains("key"))  
    // do something;
```

Nested Subroutines

Subroutines definitions *within subroutines*.

- Subroutine definition creates a local, **nested scope**.
- **Orthogonality**: it should be possible to define new, nested subroutines in a subroutine's local scope.
- Allows **decomposing large subroutines into smaller parts** without “leaking” names into surrounding namespace.

History.

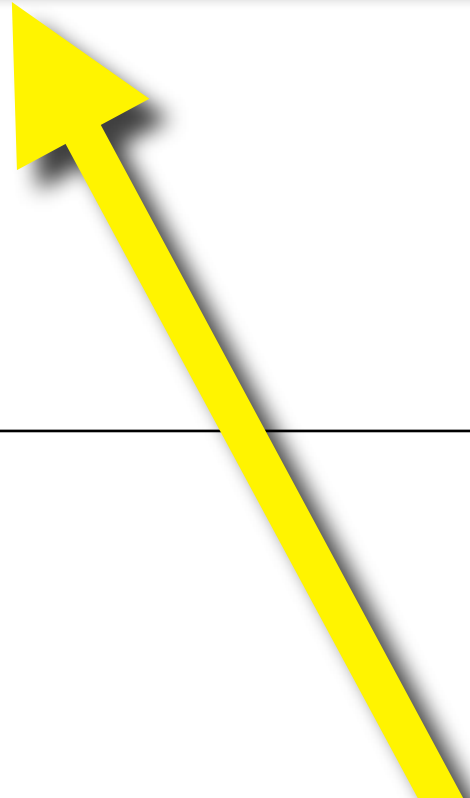
- Introduced in **Algol 60**; adopted by many modern languages (e.g., Pascal, Python, Scheme, etc.).
- **Ignored by C** and most descendants.
 - ▶ In C, originally probably for **ease of implementation**.
 - ▶ However, **gcc supports nested functions** as an extension.
 - ▶ In Java, there isn't really a good reason not to include it...

Nested Subroutines: Example

```
def long_running_operation(list_of_work_items):  
    def progress(i):  
        print "finished %d of %d" % (i, len(list_of_work_items))  
    while not done:  
        # ... complicated logic ...  
        progress(current_index)  
        # ... more complicated logic...
```


Nested Subroutines: Example

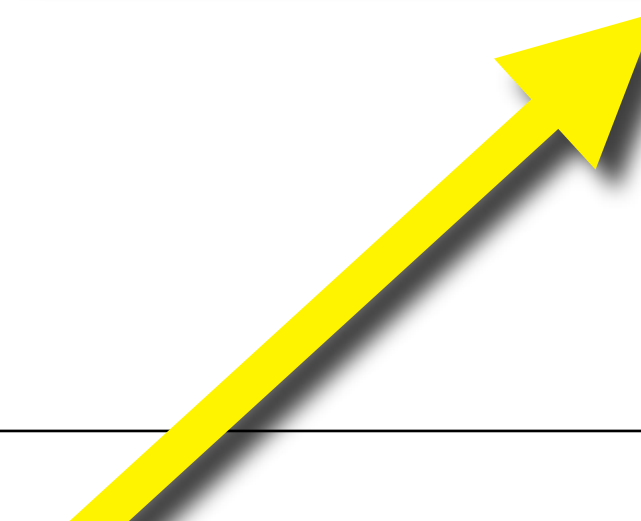
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    while not done:  
        # ... complicated logic ...  
        progress(current_index)  
        # ... more complicated logic...
```



Nested subroutine: remove UI clutter from main logic.
(especially useful if GUI code is involved)

Nested Subroutines: Example

```
def long_running_operation(list_of_work_items):  
    def progress(i):  
        print "finished %d of %d" % (i, len(list_of_work_items))  
    while not done:  
        # ... complicated logic ...  
        progress(current_index)  
        # ... more complicated logic...
```



Nesting of scopes: bindings from enclosing scope(s) visible.

Higher-Order Functions

Subroutines as **arguments** and return **values**.

- ➔ A function (i.e., subroutine) that either accepts (a reference to) another function as an argument or yields a subroutine as its return value is called a **higher-order function**.
- ➔ This allows users to write very flexible functions.
- ➔ Caller can “customize” implemented algorithm.

Python:

```
def update_elements(update, array):
    for i in range(len(array)):
        array[i] = update(array[i])

def scale_by_ten(x):
    return x * 10

a = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]

update_elements(scale_by_ten, a)

print a # prints [10, 20, 30, 40, 50]
```

Higher-Order Functions

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def scale_by_ten(x):  
    return x * 10  
  
a = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]  
update_elements(scale_by_ten, a)  
  
print a # prints [10, 20, 30, 40, 50]
```

A higher-order function: caller can customize the update that is applied to each element.

Higher-Order Functions

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    return x * 10  
  
a = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]  
update_elements(scale_by_ten, a)  
print a # prints [10, 20, 30, 40, 50]
```

Separation of Concerns:

The loop “knows” nothing about scaling, and the scaling operation “knows” nothing about arrays.

DRY: write the loop once and **reuse** it with different update functions.

Higher-Order Functions: Subroutines as Arguments

Example: customized sort order.

```
def last_char(x):  
    return x[-1]  
  
strings = ["just", "some", "number", "of", "character", "sequences"]  
  
print 'by length', sorted(strings, key=len)  
print 'by last', sorted(strings, key=last_char)  
  
# Output:  
# by length ['of', 'just', 'some', 'number', 'character', 'sequences']  
# by last ['some', 'of', 'number', 'character', 'sequences', 'just']
```

Higher-Order Functions: Subroutines as Arguments

Example: customized sort order.

```
def last_char(x):  
    return x[-1]  
  
strings = ["just", "some", "number", "of", "character", "sequences"]  
  
print 'by length', sorted(strings, key=len)  
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# Output:  
# by length ['of', 'just', 'some', 'number', 'character', 'sequences']  
# by last ['some', 'of', 'number', 'character', 'sequences', 'just']
```

Python:

Negative indices count from the end of the list, thus, **x[-1] is the last element.**

Higher-Order Functions: Subroutines as Arguments

Example: customized sort order.

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def last_char(x):  
    return x[-1]
```

```
strings = ["just", "some", "number", "of", "character", "sequences"]
```

```
print 'by length', sorted(strings, key=len)  
print 'by last', sorted(strings, key=last_char)
```

Output:

by length ['of', 'just', 'some', 'number', 'character', 'sequences']

by last ['some', 'of', 'number', 'character', 'sequences', 'just']

Algorithmic Customization:

Python allows items in a list be sorted based upon an arbitrary **key function**.

Higher-Order Functions: Subroutines as Arguments

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print 'by length', sorted(strings, key=len)  
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# Output:  
# by length ['of', 'just', 'some', 'number', 'character', 'sequences']  
# by last ['some', 'of', 'number', 'character', 'sequences', 'just']
```

Java does not support higher-order functions:

The same effect is achieved by `Collections.sort()` by accepting a reference to a **Comparator** instance.

(Which is significantly less elegant and natural.)

Anonymous Functions

```
def last_char(x):  
    return x[-1]  
  
strings = ["just", "some", "number", "of", "character", "sequences"]  
  
print 'by length', sorted(strings, key=len)  
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# Output:  
# by length ['of', 'just', 'some', 'number', 'character', 'sequences']  
# by last ['some', 'of', 'number', 'character', 'sequences', 'just']
```

Definition of short “use once” functions.

- ➔ Defining a function and coming up with a **good name** for each “customization” can be tedious.
- ➔ Thus, it may be convenient to use **unnamed functions**.
- ➔ I.e., instead of defining a function and then referring to it, anonymous functions allow us to simply write **a function literal**.
- ➔ Due to their theoretical roots, these are often called **lambda expressions**.

Anonymous Functions

Unnecessarily verbose: the definition “boilerplate code” is much longer than the actual logic, the function is only used once.

```
def last_char(x):
    return x[-1]
```

```
strings = ["just", "some", "number", "of", "character", "sequences"]
```

```
print 'by length', sorted(strings, key=len)
print 'by last', sorted(strings, key=last_char)
```

Output:

```
# by length ['of', 'just', 'some', 'number', 'character', 'sequences']
# by last ['some', 'of', 'number', 'character', 'sequences', 'just']
```

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- ➔ Due to their theoretical roots, these are often called **lambda expressions**.

Anonymous Functions

```
strings = ["just", "some", "number", "of", "character", "sequences"]

print 'by length', sorted(strings, key=len)
print 'by last', sorted(strings, key=lambda x: x[-1])

# Output:
# by length ['of', 'just', 'some', 'number', 'character', 'sequences']
# by last ['some', 'of', 'number', 'character', 'sequences', 'just']
```

Definition

- Define “custom” functions (indicated by lambda keyword) to achieve same effect. each
- Thus, it may be convenient to use **unnamed functions**.
- I.e., instead of defining a function and then referring to it, anonymous functions allow us to simply write **a function literal**.
- Due to their theoretical roots, these are often called **lambda expressions**.

Closures

Nested subroutines that “capture” their referencing environment.

Free variables.

- In a subroutine F , a variable that is **neither a formal parameter of F nor a local variable** is called **a free variable**.
- What happens if F is a nested subroutine and **returned** by the subroutine in which it was defined?
 - Or if it is otherwise passed to code that may call it after the subroutine call in which was defined terminated.

```
int foo(int x)
{
    int y = 0;
    return x + y + z;
}
```

Closures


Nested subroutines that “capture” their referencing environment.

Free variables.

- In a subroutine F , a variable that is **neither a formal parameter of F nor a local variable** is called **a free variable**.
- What happens if F is a nested subroutine and **returned** by the subroutine in which it was defined?
 - Or if it is otherwise passed to code that may call it after the subroutine call in which was defined

z is a free variable: neither local nor a parameter.

```
int foo(int x)
{
    int y = 0;
    return x + y + z;
}
```



Closures

Nested subroutines that “capture” their referencing environment.

Free variables.

- In a subroutine F , a variable that is **neither a formal parameter of F nor a local variable** is called **a free variable**.
- What happens if F is a nested subroutine and **returned** by the subroutine in which it was defined?
 - Or if it is otherwise passed to code that may call it after the subroutine call in which was defined terminated.

Closure.

- A subroutine that is “closed over” its **free variables**.
- Meaning: the **free variables stay bound** to whatever they became bound at definition time (see lexical scoping) and **remain valid**.
- This requires all entities that are referenced by closures **to be allocated on the heap**, since they may have to “outlive” the call in which the closure was created.
- Hence, closures are usually found **in garbage-collected languages**.
- **Note**: closures and anonymous functions are not the same concept!
 - Closures do not have to be anonymous.
 - Anonymous functions do not necessarily have free variables.

Closure Example: A "Hidden" Stack

Python:

```
def make_stack():
    mystack = []
    def _push(x):
        mystack.append(x)
    def _pop():
        val = mystack[-1]
        del mystack[-1]
        return val
    return (_push, _pop)

(a, b) = make_stack()
(c, d) = make_stack()

a(1); a(2); a(3)
c(9); c(8); c(7)

print 'b:', b(), b(), b()
print 'd:', d(), d(), d()
```

Output:

```
b: 3 2 1
d: 7 8 9
```

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```

Output:

```
b: 3 2 1
d: 7 8 9
```

Two **nested** subroutine definitions; the defined subroutines are returned as the return value.

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a(1); a(2); a(3)
c(9); c(8); c(7)
```

```
print 'b:', b(), b(), b()
print 'd:', d(), d(), d()
```

Output:

```
b: 3 2 1
d: 7 8 9
```

Functions **a** and **b** share a common stack;
functions **c** and **d** share a different stack!

Closure Example: A "Hidden" Stack

Python:

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    def _push(x):
        mystack.append(x)
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        val = mystack[-1]
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(a, b) = make_stack()
(c, d) = make_stack()
```

```
a(1); a(2); a(3)
c(9); c(8); c(7)
```

```
print 'b:', b(), b(), b()
print 'd:', d(), d(), d()
```

Output:

```
b: 3 2 1
d: 7 8 9
```

The name `mystack` is a free variable; thus `_push()` and `_pop()` are closures.

Closure Example: A "Hidden" Stack

Python:

```
def make_stack():
    mystack = []
    def _push(x):
        mystack.append(x)
    def _pop():
        val = mystack[-1]
        del mystack[-1]
        return val
    return (_push, _pop)
```

```
(a, b) = make_stack()
(c, d) = make_stack()
```

```
a(1); a(2); a(3)
c(9); c(8); c(7)
```

```
print 'b:', b(), b(), b()
print 'd:', d(), d(), d()
```

Output:

```
b: 3 2 1
d: 7 8 9
```

Creates **hidden state** that is neither global nor local nor class-based.

Can be used to implement object systems.

Closure Example: A “Hidden” Stack

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    mystack = []
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```

Output:

```
b: 3 2 1
d: 7 8 9
```

Java does not support closures:

Again, it uses (inelegant) class-based workarounds, known as “**object-closures**”.

This design choice is limiting. For example, the Swing GUI API would be a lot easier to use if Java had anonymous functions and closures; the need for “Listener” interfaces would be greatly reduced.

Partial Application

Specializing functions.

What happens if you supply “**too few**” actual parameters to a function?

- Normally, this is an error.
- Partial application allows the programmer to **specialize functions** by “fixing” some of the parameters.
- This is similar to a closure in that some parameters become “hidden.”

Python:

```
from functools import partial

def scale_by(factor, x):
    return factor * x

scale_by_ten = partial(scale_by, 10)
scale_by_20 = partial(scale_by, 20)

print scale_by_ten(1), scale_by_20(1)
# prints 10 20
```

Haskell:

```
plus :: Int -> Int -> Int
plus a b = a + b

main = do
    let f = plus 10
    print (f 20)
    -- prints 30
```

Partial Application

Specializing functions.

What happens if you supply “**too few**” actual parameters to a function?

→ Normally, this is an error.

→ Partial application allows the programmer to **specialize functions** by

scale_by requires two parameters...

...some parameters become “hidden.”

Python:

```
from functools import partial
```

```
def scale_by(factor, x):
    return factor * x
```

```
scale_by_ten = partial(scale_by, 10)
scale_by_20 = partial(scale_by, 20)
```

```
print scale_by_ten(1), scale_by_20(1)
# prints 10 20
```

...by **partially applying** one parameter, a new function is created that only requires a single parameter.

```
plus a b = a + b

main = do
  let f = plus 10
  print (f 20)
  -- prints 30
```

Partial Application

Specializing functions.

What happens if you supply “**too few**” actual parameters to a function?

- Normally, this is an error.
- Partial application allows the programmer to **specialize functions** by “fixing” some of the parameters.

This allows the creation of specialized versions **without duplicating the implemented logic.**

(DRY, good for maintenance)

```
from functools import partial

def scale_by(factor, x):
    return factor * x

scale_by_ten = partial(scale_by, 10)
scale_by_20 = partial(scale_by, 20)

print scale_by_ten(1), scale_by_20(1)
# prints 10 20
```

parameters become “hidden.”

askell:

```
plus :: Int -> Int -> Int
plus a b = a + b

main = do
    let f = plus 10
        print (f 20)
    -- prints 30
```

Partial Application

Specializing functions.

What happens if you supply “**too few**” actual parameters to a function?

→ Normally, this is an error.

→ Partial application “fixing” some of the parameters by

→ This is similar to a closure in that some parameters become “hidden.”

A function that maps **two** integers to an integer.

Python:

```
from functools import partial

def scale_by(factor, x):
    return factor * x

scale_by_ten = partial(scale_by, 10)
scale_by_20 = partial(scale_by, 20)

print scale_by_ten(1), scale_by_20(1)
# prints 10 20
```

Haskell:

```
plus :: Int -> Int -> Int
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main = do
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```


Partial Application

Specializing functions.

What happens if you supply “**too few**” actual parameters to a function?

- Normally, this is an error.
- Partial application allows the programmer to **specialize functions** by “fixing” some of the parameters.
- This is similar to a closure in that some parameters become “hidden.”

Given only one parameter, Haskell automatically creates a function that maps **one** integer to an integer.

Python:

```
from functools import partial

def scale_by(factor, x):
    return factor * x

scale_by_ten = partial(scale_by, 10)
scale_by_20 = partial(scale_by, 20)

print scale_by_ten(1), scale_by_20(1)
# prints 10 20
```

```
plus :: Int -> Int -> Int
plus a b = a + b
```

```
main = do
```

```
let f = plus 10
print (f 20)
-- prints 30
```

Partial Application

Specializing functions.

What happens if you supply “**too few**” actual parameters to a function?

- Normally, this is an error.
- Partial application allows the programmer to **specialize functions** by “fixing” some of the parameters.

In the context of mathematics and **functional programming**, partial application is commonly called **currying** in honor of the logician **Haskell Curry** (1900–1982).

Python:

```
from functools import partial

def scale_by(factor, x):
    return factor * x

scale_by_ten = partial(scale_by, 10)
scale_by_20 = partial(scale_by, 20)

print scale_by_ten(1), scale_by_20(1)
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```

Haskell:

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plus :: Int -> Int -> Int
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main = do
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```

Continuations

Simplified: snapshot of execution state.

- Stack + registers (incl. instruction pointer).
- Execution can be **resumed** (continue) from snapshot at later point in time.
- Very powerful abstraction.
 - e.g., can be used to implement exception handling.

Adoption.

- **Not widespread.**
- **Scheme** is the most-prominent example.
 - Well worth studying over the summer...
- Challenging to implement without extensive runtime system.

Co-Routines

Concurrent execution of subroutines.

- **Execution** of several subroutines is **interleaved**.
- Not by OS (e.g., processes), but by compiler / runtime system.

Uses.

- Emulate concurrency on a uniprocessor.
 - **Less overhead than actual multithreading.**
- Process simulation (SIMULA 67).
- Discrete-event simulation.

Adoption.

- Not supported by most main-stream programming languages.
 - Can be emulated in C with libraries (and inline assembly code).
- Relevance likely reduced on multicore systems.