Subprograms

Lecture 15

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- Two fundamental abstraction facilities can be included in a programming language:
  - Process abstraction
  - Data abstraction
- In the early history of high-level programming languages, only process abstraction was included.
- Process abstraction, in the form of subprograms, has been a central concept in all programming languages.



# Fundamentals of Subprograms: General Subprogram Characteristics

- All subprograms discussed have the following characteristics:
  - Each subprogram has a single entry point.
  - The calling program unit is suspended during the execution of the called subprogram, which implies that there is only one subprogram in execution at any given time.
  - Control always returns to the caller when the subprogram execution terminates.



- A subprogram definition describes the interface and the actions of the subprogram abstraction.
- A subprogram call is the explicit request that a specific subprogram be executed.
- A subprogram is said to be *active* if, after having been called, it has begun execution but has not yet completed that execution.



- A **subprogram header**, which is the first part of the *definition*, serves several purposes.
  - First, it specifies that the following syntactic unit is a subprogram definition of some particular kind.
  - Second, the header provides a name for the subprogram.
  - Third, it may optionally specify a list of parameters.



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**def** adder (parameters):

- This is the header of a Python subprogram named adder.
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- This is the header of a Python subprogram named adder.
- Ruby subprogram headers also begin with **def**.
- The header of a JavaScript subprogram begins with *function*.

function name (argument I, argument 2, ...)

```
function AbsoluteValue (x) {
    if (x < 0) {
        x = -x;
    }
    return x;
}</pre>
```



In C, the header of a function named adder might be as follows:

**void** adder (parameters)

The reserved word void in this header indicates that the subprogram does not return a value.

```
int adder (int a, int b) {
    return a + b;
}
```



- The body of subprograms defines its actions.
- In the C-based languages (and some others—for example, JavaScript) the body of a subprogram is delimited by *braces*.
- In Ruby, an **end** statement terminates the body of a subprogram.
- As with compound statements, the statements in the body of a Python function must be *indented* and the end of the body is indicated by the first statement that is not indented.



- One characteristic of Python functions that sets them apart from the functions of other common programming languages is that function *def* statements are executable.
- When a *def* statement is executed, it assigns the given name to the given function body.
- Until a function's *def* has been executed, the function cannot be called.



Consider the following skeletal example:

```
if ...
    def fun l (...):
        ...
else
        def fun2(...):
```

- A function definition is an executable statement. Its execution binds the function name in the current local namespace to a function object (a wrapper around the executable code for the function).
- The function definition does not execute the function body; this gets executed only when the function is called.



- Subprograms can have **declarations** as well as **definitions**.
- This form parallels the variable declarations and definitions in C, in which the declarations can be used to provide type information but not to define variables.
- Subprogram declarations provide the subprogram's *protocol* but do not include their *bodies*.



- In both the cases of variables and subprograms, declarations are needed for static type checking.
  - In the case of subprograms, it is the type of the parameters that must be checked.
- Function declarations are common in C and C++ programs, where they are called *prototypes*.
  - Such declarations are often placed in *header files*.



Example of *function declaration*:

int max (int a, int b);

Example of *function definition*:

```
int max(int a, int b) {
    /* local variable declaration */
    int result;
    if (a > b)
        result = a;
    else
        result = b;
    return result;
}
```



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- There are two ways that a subprogram can gain access to the data that it is to process:
  - through direct access to nonlocal variables (declared elsewhere but visible in the subprogram)
  - through parameter passing



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x = "global"
def foo():
 print("x inside:", x)

foo() print("x outside:", x)



- Subprograms typically describe computations.
- There are two ways that a subprogram can gain access to the data that it is to process:
  - through parameter passing

def func l (list): print list list = [47,11] print list

fib = [0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8]func l (fib)



- Data passed through parameters are accessed through names that are local to the subprogram.
- Parameter passing is more flexible than direct access to nonlocal variables.
- In essence, a subprogram with parameter access to the data that it is to process is a *parameterized computation*.
- It can perform its computation on whatever data it receives through its parameters (presuming the types of the parameters are as expected by the subprogram).



- If data access is through nonlocal variables, the only way the computation can proceed on different data is to assign new values to those nonlocal variables between calls to the subprogram.
- Extensive access to nonlocals can reduce reliability.
- Variables that are visible to the subprogram where access is desired often end up also being visible where access to them is not needed.



The parameters in the subprogram header are called formal parameters.

```
int adder (int a, int b) {
    return a + b;
}
```

- They are sometimes thought of as dummy variables because they are not variables in the usual sense:
  - In most cases, they are bound to storage only when the subprogram is called, and that binding is often through some other program variables.



- Subprogram call statements must include the name of the subprogram and a list of parameters to be bound to the formal parameters of the subprogram.
- These parameters are called *actual parameters*.

sum = adder (x, y);

They must be distinguished from *formal parameters*, because the two usually have different restrictions on their forms, and of course, their uses are quite different.



- In nearly all programming languages, the correspondence between *actual* and *formal* parameters—or the binding of *actual* parameters to *formal* parameters—is done by *position*:
  - The *first actual parameter* is bound to the *first formal parameter* and so forth.
  - Such parameters are called **positional parameters**.
  - This is an effective and safe method of relating actual parameters to their corresponding formal parameters, as long as the parameter lists are relatively short.



When lists are long, however, it is easy for a programmer to make mistakes in the order of actual parameters in the list.

**def** myFunction(alpha, beta, gamma, zeta, alphaList, betaList, gammaList, zetaList): ...

- One solution to this problem is to provide keyword parameters
  - **The name of the formal parameter** to which an actual parameter is to be bound is specified with the actual parameter in a call.
- The advantage of keyword parameters is that they can appear in any order in the actual parameter list.



Python functions can be called using this technique, as in

sumer (length = my\_length, list = my\_array, sum = my\_sum)

- where the definition of *sumer* has the *formal parameters length*, *list*, and *sum*.
- The disadvantage to keyword parameters is that the user of the subprogram must know the names of formal parameters.



- In addition to keyword parameters, Ada, Fortran 95+ and Python allow positional parameters.
- Keyword and positional parameters can be mixed in a call, as in

sumer (my\_length, sum = my\_sum, list = my\_array)

- The only restriction with this approach is that after a positional parameter appears in the list, all remaining parameters must be keyworded.
- This restriction is necessary because a position may no longer be well defined after a keyword parameter has appeared.



- In Python, Ruby, C++, Fortran 95+ Ada, and PHP, formal parameters can have default values.
  - A default value is used if no actual parameter is passed to the formal parameter in the subprogram header.
- Consider the following Python function header:

**def** compute\_pay (income, exemptions = 1, tax\_rate)

pay = compute\_pay (20000.0, tax\_rate = 0.15)



- In C++, which does not support keyword parameters, the rules for default parameters are necessarily different.
- The default parameters must *appear last*, because parameters are positionally associated.
- Once a default parameter is omitted in a call, all remaining formal parameters must have default values.

float compute\_pay (float income, float tax\_rate, int exemptions = 1)

pay = compute\_pay(20000.0, 0.15);

