

CS558

Programming Languages

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Lecture 6b

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Semantics of first-class functions

- What's in the “value” of a first-class function f ?
- Roughly speaking, just f 's definition (its parameters and body expression)
- But nested functions can have **free variables** defined in an enclosing scope, and the behavior of the function depends on their values.
- To find those values, it suffices to record the environment surrounding the **declaration** of f
 - Store this in a “**closure**” representing f
- But: must make sure locations used in environment stay live as long as closure does!

Semantics of first-class functions

```
case class ClosureV(x:String, b:Expr, e:Env) extends Value
def interpFun(x:String, b:Expr, cenv:Env):Value = {
  val fp = stack.getSp()
  interpE(cenv + (x -> StackFrameOffset(-4)), fp, b)
}
```

```
def interpE(env:Env, fp:Int, expr:Expr):Value = expr match {
  case Fun(x, e) => ClosureV(x, e, makeLocsAbsolute(env))
  case App(f, e) => interpE(env, fp, f) match {
    case ClosureV(x, b, cenv) =>
      val offset = stack.push(fp, 1)
      val v = interpE(env, fp, e)
      setLocation(fp, StackFrameOffset(offset), v)
      val r = interpFun(x, b, cenv)
      stack.pop(1)
      r
    case _ => throw InterpException (...)
  }
  case Let(x, e, b) => ...
  ...
}
```

Makes copy of env converting
all stack locations to
absolute addresses

But using stack allocation
for locals and parameters
won't work!

Trouble with first-class functions

- Problem: if a closure value is **returned**, the environment may point to locations that have been popped from the stack!

```
(let f (fun (x) (fun (y) (+ x y))))  
  (let g (@ f 42)  
        ...))
```

At this point, stack storage for `x` has been popped. So we're in trouble if we call `g`.

- You will explore this scenario in this week's lab.
- Similar problems can occur if closure is **stored** into a heap data structure.

First-class functions need the heap

- Bottom line: if we want the flexibility of fully first-class functions, we **cannot** store their free variables on the stack.
- They must instead live in the **heap**. How to arrange this?
- Simple solution: just allocate **all** activation record data in the heap instead of the stack
 - Rely heavily on garbage collection to deallocate and re-use them.
 - (A few compilers do this.)

More refined solutions

- One option: heap-allocate just those variables that are **free** in some closure expression.
 - Usually done by adding an extra layer of boxing around such variables.
 - (Some compilers do this.)
- Pure functional language solution: if the free “variables” are actually immutable, we can store **copies** of their values in a heap closure record.
 - (Most functional language compilers do this. See this week's lab!)
 - Again, suffices to copy just the free variables of the body.

The tyranny of the stack

- Many older languages support functions as values, but not in fully first-class way—so that variables can still be stored in the stack.
- For example, C allows fully first-class functions, but has **no nested functions**. Hence functions have no free variables and closures are not needed: function values are just simple **code pointers**.
- On the other hand, some languages with nested functions (e.g. Pascal, Modula, Ada) allow functions to be passed **downwards** as parameters to other functions, but **not returned or stored**.

“Downwards funargs”

Nested functions on the stack

- In a language with only downwards funargs, if function f defines nested function g , it is impossible for g to be called after f has returned. Why?
- So the compiler can use conventional stack storage, because every free variable of a function lives in an activation record that is still on the stack when the function might be called.
- Finding the values of those variables may be non-trivial. For example, compiler might need to maintain **static links** between frames. (See textbook and this week's lab for more details.)

Closures vs. Objects

- First-class function closures provide a way to package a function with some (relatively) fixed parameters (its free variables)
- Objects can be used to give a similar effect:

```
case class MultiplesOf(n: Int) {  
  def apply(xs: List[Int]) : List[Int] = xs match {  
    case Nil => Nil  
    case (y::ys) => if (y%n == 0) y::apply(ys)  
                    else apply(ys)  
  }  
}
```

Can treat all first-class
functions this way

More verbose
than implicit closures

```
val evens = MultiplesOf(2)  
val v = evens.apply(List(1,2,3,4)) // yields List(2,4)
```

Call-by-name using closures

- Recall semantics of call-by-name: bind formal parameter to actual argument expression, with free variables resolved in caller

```
foo x y = if x = 0 then x else y
let x = 1000000 in foo 1 (factorial x)
```

- We can implement this using “**thunks**”: first-class functions of zero arguments

```
foo x y = if x() = 0 then x() else y()
let x = 1000000 in
  foo (fun () => 1) (fun () => factorial x)
```

- Shows that CBN introduces significant overhead

Pure Functional Programming

- Idea: compose programs out of **pure functions** that have no side-effects
- Software engineering advantage: greatly improves **modularity**, because no hidden interactions between functions
- Pure functions won't interfere if evaluated in **parallel**
- Works well with call-by-name/need (in impure languages we need to worry about evaluation order)
- I/O is problematic, but Haskell has a good solution: program computes an I/O **action** which is then performed
- ML family is impure: no variables, but mutable heap structures (e.g. boxes) and explicit I/O

Recursion vs. iteration, again

- Recall that tail-recursive functions can be converted into iterations.
- If our language has first class functions, we can code in a style where **every** call is a tail call.
- To show the idea, consider the familiar list `length` function:

```
def length (xs:List[Int]):Int = xs match {  
  case Nil => 0  
  case (_::xs1) => 1 + length(xs1) // not tail-recursive  
}
```

- (We already know how to write this tail-recursively using an accumulating parameter.)

Tail-calls are enough

- Here's another tail-recursive way to write `length`:

```
def length (xs:List[Int]) : Int = {  
  def klength (xs:List[Int],k:Int => Int) : Int = xs match {  
    case Nil => k(0)  
    case (_::xs1) => klength(xs1,r => k(1+r))  
  }  
  klength(xs,r => r)  
}
```

- This rather odd code was constructed by giving `klength` an additional parameter, `k`, of type `Int => Int`. Instead of returning its “result” value, `klength` passes it **downwards** to `k`.
- The `k` parameter tells `klength` “what to do next”
- **Every** call in `klength` is a tail-call, so we can evaluate `klength` **without a stack!**

Comparison of computations

length (1::2::Nil) →
1 + (length(2::Nil)) →
1 + (1 + length(Nil)) →
1 + (1 + 0) →
1 + 1 →
2

```
def length (xs:List[Int]):Int = xs match {  
  case Nil => 0  
  case (_::xs1) => 1 + length(xs1) // not tail-recursive  
}
```

length (1::2::Nil) →
klength(1::2::Nil, λr.r) →
klength(2::Nil, λr₁.(λr.r) (1+r₁)) →
klength(Nil,λr₂.(λr₁.(λr.r) (1+r₁)) (1+r₂)) →
(λr₂.(λr₁.(λr.r) (1+r₁)) (1+r₂)) (0) →
(λr₁.(λr.r) (1+r₁)) (1+0) →
(λr₁.(λr.r) (1+r₁)) (1) →
(λr.r)(1+1) →
(λr.r)(2) →
2

```
def length (xs:List[Int]) : Int = {  
  def klength (xs:List[Int],k:Int => Int) : Int = xs match {  
    case Nil => k(0)  
    case (_::xs1) => klength(xs1,r => k(1+r))  
  }  
  klength(xs,r => r)  
}
```

Continuation-passing Style

- Functions like `k` are (loosely) called **continuations** and programs written using them are said to be in (a form of) **continuation-passing style (CPS)**.
- We might choose to write (parts of) programs explicitly because it makes it easier to express a particular algorithm, or because it clarifies the control structure of the program
- Note that CPS'ed Scala programs are just a subset of ordinary Scala programs that happen to make use of the (existing) enormous power of first-class functions.
- (Remarkably, we can systematically convert **any** functional language program into an equivalent CPS-style program.)