

CS107: Functions and Arrays

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What did we learn last time?

- Type checking/inference
- Adding functions to our language

Let's Add Functions - Interpreter

What does a function call mean?

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```
def f(x: Int) = {  
    x + 1  
};  
f(1)
```

*// LetRec(List(
 // FunDef("f", List(Arg("x", IntType)), UnknownType,
 // Prim("+", Ref("x"), Lit(1))
 //)),
 // App(Ref("f"), List(Lit(1)))
 //)*

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});              //   )),
f(1)             //   App(Ref("f"), List(Lit(1)))
                // )

def f(x: Int) = { g(x) + 1 };
def g(x: Int): Int = 2 * x;
f(1 + 1)
```

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def g(x: Int): Int = 2 * x;  
f(1 + 1)
```

```
def f(x: Int): Int = { g(x) + 1 };  
def g(x: Int): Int = if (x == 0) 0 else f(x-1);  
f(1)
```

Let's Add Functions - Interpreter

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abstract class Val
case class Cst(x: Any) extends Val
case class Func(args: List[String], fbody: Exp, env: Env) extends Val
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def eval(exp: Exp)(env: Env): Val = exp match
  case LetRec(funs, body) =>
    val funcs: List[(String, Val)] = funs.map {
      case f@FunDef(n, _, _, _) => (n, eval(f)(env))
    }
    eval(body)(env.withVals(funcs))
  case FunDef(name, args, rte, fbody) => ...
  case App(f, args) => ...
```


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```

What about recursive functions?

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    }
    funcs.foreach {
      case (_, f@Func(_, _, _)) => f.withVals(funcs)
    }
    eval(body)(env.withVals(funcs))
  case FunDef(name, args, rte, fbody) =>
    Func(args.map(arg => arg.name), fbody, env)
  case App(f, args) => ...
```

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    }
    funcs.foreach {
      case (_, f@Func(_, _, _)) => f.withVals(funcs)
    }
    eval(body)(env.withVals(funcs))
  case FunDef(name, args, rte, fbody) =>
    Func(args.map(arg => arg.name), fbody, env)
  case App(f, args) =>
    val eargs = args.map(arg => eval(arg)(env))
    val Func(fargs, fbody, fenv) = eval(f)(env)
    eval(fbody)(fenv.withVals(fargs.zip(eargs)))
```

Let's Add Functions - Semantics

- Argument names must be distinct. Arguments behave like immutable variables.

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- We don't allow overloading, i.e. a function cannot have the same name that another one even with different arguments.

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- Functions can be recursive (even mutually recursive).
- Function application is left associative, i.e. $f(1)(3)$ will be parsed as `App ( App ( "f" , 1) , 3) .`
- We don't allow overloading, i.e. a function cannot have the same name that another one even with different arguments.
- We allow functions to be stored in variables, used as parameters and returns from other functions.

Let's Add Functions - Type Conformance

```
case class FunType(args: List[(String,Type)], rte: Type) extends Type
```

A function type is well-formed if all of its argument types and its return type are well-formed.

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```

A function type is well-formed if all of its argument types and its return type are well-formed.

A function type `tp` conforms to type `pt` if all of the following hold:

- 1) `pt` is a function type *or* `UnknownType`
- 2) `pt` has the same number of arguments as `tp`
- 3) the type of `pt` argument `#n` conforms to the type of `tp` argument `#n` (note the inversion)
- 4) the return type of `tp` conforms to the return type of `pt`

Let's Add Functions - Type Conformance - Examples

Example:

- $(\text{Int}, \text{Boolean}) \Rightarrow \text{Int}$ conforms to $???$ (result: $(\text{Int}, \text{Boolean}) \Rightarrow \text{Int}$)
- $\text{Int} \Rightarrow \text{Int}$ conforms to $\text{Int} \Rightarrow \text{Int}$
- $\text{Int} \Rightarrow \text{Int}$ does not conform to Boolean - rule #1
- $???$ conforms to $\text{Int} \Rightarrow \text{Int}$ (result: $\text{Int} \Rightarrow \text{Int}$)
- $\text{Int} \Rightarrow \text{Boolean}$ does not conform to $\text{Int} \Rightarrow \text{Int}$ - rule #4
- $???$ conforms to $\text{Int} \Rightarrow ???$ (result: $\text{Int} \Rightarrow \text{Boolean}$)
- $\text{Int} \Rightarrow \text{Int}$ does not conform to $???$ - rule #3

Let's Add Functions - Type Checking

Now let's talk about inference rules!

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$$\frac{\Gamma, x_1 : T_1, \dots, x_n : T_n \vdash fb : T}{\Gamma \vdash \text{FunDef}(f, x_1, \dots, x_n, T, fb) : (T_1, \dots, T_n) \Rightarrow T} \text{FUNDEF}$$

$$\Gamma, f_1 : FT_1, \dots, f_n : FT_n \vdash f_1 : FT_1$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\Gamma, f_1 : FT_1, \dots, f_n : FT_n \vdash f_n : FT_n$$

$$\Gamma, f_1 : FT_1, \dots, f_n : FT_n \vdash b : T$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, f_1 : FT_1, \dots, f_n : FT_n \vdash b : T}{\Gamma \vdash \text{LetRec}(f_1, \dots, f_n, b) : T} \text{LETREC}$$

Let's Add Functions - Type Checking

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \Gamma \vdash f : (T_1, \dots, T_n) \Rightarrow T \\ \Gamma \vdash a_1 : T_1 \\ \vdots \\ \Gamma \vdash a_n : T_n \end{array}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{App}(f, \text{List}(a_1, \dots, a_n)) : T} \text{ APP}$$

One of the main concepts we have been using so far is **convention**.

Our compiler only generates code that uses registers `sp` and above and which puts the result in `sp`.

Thus, we can keep intermediate results and know which memory locations are available at any given point.

How should we call a function from any point in the program without losing data?

Example:

```
def f(x: Int) = 1+x;
```

```
val y = f(1);
```

```
val z = f(2);
```

```
y + z
```

Compilation - Calling Conventions

Example:

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val y = f(1);
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y + z
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```
# main program
```

```
main:
```

```
...
```

```
call f
```

```
...
```

```
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```
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```
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```

```
# generated function
```

```
f:
```

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# generated function
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f: ←
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mov $1, reg0
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where is value of x?

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```
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```
...
```

```
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where should we return?

Compilation - Calling Conventions

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```

```
ret
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where the value is stored?

where is value of x?

where should we return?

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Compilation - Calling Convention

Calling convention: how functions receive parameters from their caller and how they return a result.

Mostly the System V AMD64 ABI (used on Linux, Mac OS, BSD, etc.) calling convention:

- Argument passing: `%rdi, %rsi, %rdx, %rcx, %r8, %r9`

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- Return value will be saved in `%rax`

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- Return value will be saved in `%rax`
- Before calling a function, all intermediate values will be saved on the stack

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 - **`ret`** pops the return address from the stack and jumps to it
 - Corollary: we need to reset the stack before calling **`ret`**
- Return value will be saved in `%rax`
- Before calling a function, all intermediate values will be saved on the stack
- After the call, they need to be restored from the stack

Compilation - Calling Convention

Example:

```
def f(x: Int) = 1+x;
```

```
val y = f(1);
```

```
val z = f(2);
```

```
y + z
```

Your compiler in project 3 should generate code similar to this:

```
# main program
main:
    pushq %rbp
    movq %rsp, %rbp
    movq $1, %rdi
    call f
    movq %rax, %rdi
    movq $2, %rsi
    pushq %rdi
    movq %rsi, %rdi
    call f
    popq %rdi
    movq %rax, %rsi
    movq %rdi, %rdx
    movq %rsi, %rcx
    addq %rcx, %rdx
    movq %rdx, %rsi
    movq %rsi, %rdi
    movq %rdi, %rax
    movq %rbp, %rsp
    popq %rbp
    ret
# generated function
f:
    pushq %rbp
    movq %rsp, %rbp
    movq $1, %rsi
    movq %rdi, %rdx
    addq %rdx, %rsi
    movq %rsi, %rax
    movq %rbp, %rsp
    popq %rbp
    ret
```

Let's Add Arrays

We are going to use Scala syntax, but we are not (yet) going to handle objects.

The array will behave more like a C array; the length needs to be remembered.

```
val arr = new Array[Int](4 + 5);
```


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```
val arr = new Array[Int](4 + 5);
```

```
val arr: Array[Int] = new Array[Int](4 + 5);
```

Let's Add Arrays - Syntax

```
<type> ::= <ident> | <type> '=' <type> // '=' is right associative
        | '(' [<type> ',' <type>]* ')' '=' <type>
        | 'Array' [<type>] // array type
<atom> ::= <number> | <bool> | <ident> | '()' | '(' <simp> ')'
<tight> ::= <atom> '(' [<simp> ',' <simp>]* ')' '[' '(' <simp> ')' '=' <simp> ]
        | '{' <exp> '}'
<uatom> ::= [<op>] <tight> // Previously atom
<simp> ::= ... // same as before
        | 'new' 'Array' '[' <type> ']' '(' <simp> ')' // array constructor
<exp> ::= ... // same as before
<arg> ::= <ident> ':' <type>
<prog> ::=
    ['def' <ident> '(' [<arg> ',' <arg>]* ')' '[' ':' <type> ] '=' <simp> ';' ]* <exp>
```

Let's Add Arrays - Syntax

Scala array read syntax:

```
arr(1)
```

Wait a minute! Is this a function application?

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Array write syntax:

```
arr(1) = 5
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Let's Add Arrays - Syntax

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Wait a minute! Is this a function application?

Array write syntax:

```
arr(1) = 5
```

The operations on arrays are primitive operations:

- "block - get "
- "block - set "

Let's Add Arrays - AST

```
case class Prim(op: String, args: List[Exp]) extends Exp
```

Let's Add Arrays - AST

```
case class Prim(op: String, args: List[Exp]) extends Exp
case class ArrayDec(size: Exp, tp: Type) extends Exp
```

Let's Add Arrays - AST

```
case class Prim(op: String, args: List[Exp]) extends Exp
```

```
case class ArrayDec(size: Exp, tp: Type) extends Exp
```

It is the parser's job to translate `arr(i) = v` to

`Prim("block-set", List(arr, i, v))`, and the semantic analyzer's job to translate `arr(i)` to `Prim("block-get", List(arr, i))`.

Let's Add Arrays - Semantic Analysis

```
case class ArrayType(tp: Type) extends Type
```

How do we know if an array is well-formed?

Let's Add Arrays - Semantic Analysis

```
case class ArrayType(tp: Type) extends Type
```

How do we know if an array is well-formed?

If tp is well-formed!

Let's Add Arrays - Semantic Analysis

An array type tp conforms to type pt if:

- pt is an array type, and
- inner type tp conforms to pt inner type.

Let's Add Arrays – Semantic Analysis

An array type tp can be converted to a type pt if all of the following hold:

- pt is a function type with one argument
- the function argument's type conforms to Int type
- the inner type of tp conforms to the return type of pt

Let's Add Arrays – Semantic Analysis

An array type tp can be converted to a type pt if all of the following hold:

- pt is a function type with one argument
- the function argument's type conforms to Int type
- the inner type of tp conforms to the return type of pt

In other words, $Array[T]$ can be converted to $Int \Rightarrow T$ (i.e., how you would read an array).

Let's Add Arrays - Semantic Analysis

Inference rules:

Let's Add Arrays - Semantic Analysis

Inference rules:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \textit{size} : \textit{Int}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{ArrayDec}(\textit{size}, T) : \text{Array}[T]} \text{ARRAYDEC}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \textit{arr} : \text{Array}[T] \quad \Gamma \vdash \textit{i} : \textit{Int}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{Prim}(\text{"block-get"}, \text{List}(\textit{arr}, \textit{i})) : T} \text{ARRAYGET}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \textit{arr} : \text{Array}[T] \quad \Gamma \vdash \textit{i} : \textit{Int} \quad \Gamma \vdash \textit{v} : T}{\Gamma \vdash \text{Prim}(\text{"block-set"}, \text{List}(\textit{arr}, \textit{i}, \textit{v})) : \text{Unit}} \text{ARRAYSET}$$

Let's Add Arrays - Interpreter

```
abstract class Val
case class Cst(x: Any) extends Val

def eval(exp: Exp)(env: Env): Val = exp match {
  case ArrayDec(size, _) =>
    val Cst(s: Int) = eval(size)(env) // Why is this safe?
    Cst(new Array[Any](s))
  case Prim("block-get", args) => ??? // left as exercise
  case Prim("block-set", args) => ??? // left as exercise
}
```


Let's Add Arrays - Compiler

Where do we want to store our arrays?

Let's Add Arrays - Compiler

Where do we want to store our arrays?

We will use the heap. The heap is permanent, i.e., not erased once a function call is over (unlike the stack and local variables).

Therefore the heap is used as persistent storage.

Let's Add Arrays - Compiler

When the (compiled) program launches, the OS maps a memory space for our stack. Thus, we can access the memory location stored in registers, e.g.:

```
mov $4, -8(%rsp)
```

To have access to the heap, we call `malloc` in `bootstrap.c` and pass the pointer to our main function as the first argument.

```
char* heap = malloc(SIZE);  
entry_point(heap);  
free(heap);
```

Let's Add Arrays - Compiler

Where is this pointer going to be saved?

Let's Add Arrays - Compiler

Where is this pointer going to be saved?

A global variable: `heap`. This address represents the first memory address that we are allowed to use.

So, how do we allocate an array (`ArrayDec`)?

Subsequent array allocations must not overlap!

Let's Add Arrays - Compiler

Initially:

```
[byte0, byte1, byte2, byte3, ..., byteN]  
  ^  
  |  
heap
```

Let's Add Arrays - Compiler

Now we want to allocate an array `arr1` of size 4 (each element is 8 bytes):

`[byte0, byte1, byte2, byte3, ..., byte32, byteN]`

^
|
`arr1`

^
|
`heap`

Let's Add Arrays - Compiler

We assume %rax contains the address of the array we want to access.

How to write to a memory location:

```
movq $1, (%rax)    # write one in the first element of the array
```

How to read from a memory location?

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How to write to a memory location:

```
movq $1, (%rax)      # write one in the first element of the array
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How to read from a memory location?

```
movq (%rax), %rax    # read the first element of the array  
                      # and store it in %rax
```

Let's Add Arrays - Compiler

We assume %rax contains the address of the array we want to access.

How to write to a memory location:

```
movq $1, (%rax)      # write one in the first element of the array
```

How to read from a memory location?

```
movq (%rax), %rax    # read the first element of the array  
                        # and store it in %rax
```

Shortcuts for arrays:

```
movq heap, %rax  
movq $3, %rcx  
movq (%rax, %rcx, 8), %rax # read the 3rd (stored in %rcx)  
                        # element of the array and store it in %rax
```

Read content $M[R[\%rax] + R[\%rcx] * 8]$ into %rax; see more in x64 Cheat Sheet.

Today, we learned the following:

- Type checking functions
- Interpreting functions
- Calling conventions
- Adding arrays