

Chapter 8

Run-time environments

Course "Compiler Construction" Martin Steffen Spring 2018



Section

Targets

Chapter 8 "Run-time environments" Course "Compiler Construction" Martin Steffen Spring 2018



Chapter 8

Learning Targets of Chapter "Run-time environments".

- 1. memory management
- 2. run-time environment
- 3. run-time stack
- 4. stack frames and their layout
- 5. heap



Chapter 8

Outline of Chapter "Run-time environments". Targets

Intro

Static layout

Stack-based runtime environments

Stack-based RTE with nested procedures

Functions as parameters

Parameter passing

Virtual methods in OO



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Intro

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Static & dynamic memory layout at runtime



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code area

global/static area

stack

free space

heap

Memory

typical memory layout: for languages (as nowadays basically all) with

- static memory
 - dynamic memory:
 - stack
 - heap

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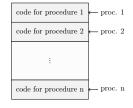
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Translated program code



Code memory

- code segment: almost always considered as statically allocated
- ⇒ neither moved nor changed at runtime
- compiler aware of all addresses of "chunks" of code: entry points of the procedures
- but:
 - generated code often relocatable
 - final, absolute adresses given by linker / loader



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Activation record

space for arg's (parameters)

space for bookkeeping info, including return address

space for local data

space for local temporaries

Schematic activation record

- schematic organization of activation records/activation block/stack frame . . .
- goal: realize
 - parameter passing
 - scoping rules /local variables treatment
 - prepare for call/return behavior
- calling conventions on a platform



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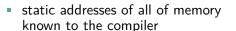
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Static layout

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Full static layout





- executable code
- variables
- all forms of auxiliary data (for instance big constants in the program, e.g., string literals)
- for instance: (old) Fortran
- nowadays rather seldom (or special applications like safety critical embedded systems)



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Fortran example

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99

```
PROGRAM TEST
COMMON MAXSIZE
INTEGER MAXSIZE
REAL TABLE(10), TEMP
MAXSIZF = 10
READ *, TABLE(1), TABLE(2), TABLE(3)
CALL QUADMEAN(TABLE, 3, TEMP)
PRINT * .TEMP
FNID
SUBROUTINE QUADMEAN(A, SIZE, QMEAN)
COMMON MAXSIZE
INTEGERMAXSIZE SIZE
REAL A(SIZE), QMEAN, TEMP
INTEGER K
TFMP = 0.0
IF ((SIZE.GT.MAXSIZE).OR.(SIZE.LT.1)) GOTO 99
DO 10 K = 1, SIZE
   TEMP = TEMP + A(K)*A(K)
CONTINUE
QMEAN = SQRT(TEMP/SIZE)
RETURN
END
```



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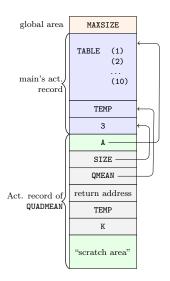
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Static memory layout example/runtime environment





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Static memory layout example/runtime environment



in Fortan (here Fortran77)

- parameter passing as pointers to the actual parameters
- activation record for QUADMEAN contains place for intermediate results, compiler calculates, how much is needed.
- note: one possible memory layout for FORTRAN 77, details vary, other implementations exists as do more modern versions of Fortran

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Stack-based runtime environments

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Stack-based runtime environments

- so far: no(!) recursion
- everything static, incl. placement of activation records
- ⇒ also return addresses statically known
- ancient and restrictive arrangement of the run-time envs
- calls and returns (also without recursion) follow at runtime a LIFO (= stack-like) discipline

Stack of activation records

- procedures as abstractions with own local data
- ⇒ run-time memory arrangement where procedure-local data together with other info (arrange proper returns, parameter passing) is organized as stack.
 - AKA: call stack, runtime stack
 - AR: exact format depends on language and platform



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Situation in languages without local procedures



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- recursion, but all procedures are global
- C-like languages

Activation record info (besides local data, see later)

- frame pointer
- control link (or dynamic link)¹
- (optional): stack pointer
- return address

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¹Later, we'll encounter also *static links* (aka *access* links).

Euclid's recursive gcd algo

```
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```

```
#include <stdio.h>
int x, y;
int gcd (int u, int v)
{ if (v==0) return u;
    else return gcd(v,u % v);
int main ()
\{ scanf("%d%d",&x,&y); \}
  printf("%d\n", gcd(x,y));
  return 0:
```

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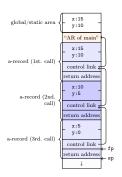
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Stack gcd





aka: dynamic link

refers to caller's FP

frame pointer FP

- points to a fixed location in the current a-record
- stack pointer (SP)
 - border of current stack and unused memory
- return address: program-address of call-site



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Local and global variables and scoping

```
int x = 2:
/* global var */
void g(int); /* prototype
*/
void f(int n)
  \{ \text{ static int } x = 1; 
    g(n);
    x--;
void g(int m)
  { int y = m-1;
    if (y > 0)
      { f(y);
        x --:
       g(y);
int main ()
    g(x);
    return 0:
```

- global variable x
- but: (different) x local tof
 - remember C:
 - call by value
 - static lexical scoping



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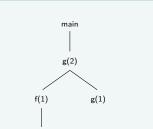
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Activation records and activation trees

- activation of a function: corresponds to: call of a function
- activation record
 - data structure for run-time system
 - holds all relevant data for a function call and control-info in "standardized" form
 - control-behavior of functions: LIFO
 - if data *cannot* outlive activation of a function
 - ⇒ activation records can be arranged in as stack (like here)
 - in this case: activation record AKA stack frame

gcd(10,5)

f and g example





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Variable access and design of ARs

language (or at least compiler) / platform

different function defs. different size of AR

⇒ frames on the stack differently sized

note: FP points

not to the "top" of the frame/stack, but

to a well-chosen, well-defined position in the frame

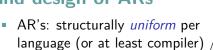
other local data (local vars) accessible relative to that

conventions

higher addresses "higher up"

stack "grows" towards lower addresses

in the picture: "pointers" to the





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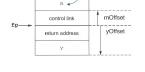
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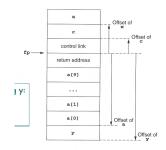
fp: frame pointer

m (in this example): parameter of q

Layout for arrays of statically known size

```
void f(int x, char c)
{ int a[10];
  double y;
```

name	offset	
Х	+5	
С	+4	
a	-24	
У	-32	





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(-24+2*i)(fp)

access for A[i]

c: 4(fp) y: -32(fp)

access of c and

Back to the C code again (global and local variables)

```
int x = 2; /* global var */
void g(int); /* prototype */
void f(int n)
  \{ \text{ static int } x = 1; 
    g(n);
    x --;
void g(int m)
  \{ \text{ int } y = m-1; 
    if (v > 0)
      { f(y);
       x --:
       g(y);
int main ()
  \{ g(x);
    return 0:
```



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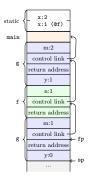
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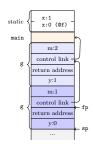
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2 snapshots of the call stack





note: call by value, x in f static



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How to do the "push and pop"

- calling sequences: AKA as linking conventions or calling conventions
- for RT environments: uniform design not just of
 - data structures (=ARs), but also of
 - uniform actions being taken when calling/returning from a procedure
- how to *do* details of "push and pop" on the call-stack

E.g: Parameter passing

- not just where (in the ARs) to find value for the actual parameter needs to be defined, but well-defined steps (ultimately code) that copies it there (and potentially reads it from there)
- "jointly" done by compiler + OS + HW
- distribution of responsibilities between caller and callee:
 - who copies the parameter to the right place
 - who saves registers and restores them



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Steps when calling

- For procedure call (entry)
 - compute arguments, store them in the correct positions in the new activation record of the procedure (pushing them in order onto the runtime stack will achieve this)
 - store (push) the fp as the control link in the new activation record
 - 3. change the fp, so that it points to the beginning of the new activation record. If there is an sp, copying the sp into the fp at this point will achieve this.
 - store the return address in the new activation record, if necessary
 - **5.** perform a *jump* to the code of the called procedure.
 - Allocate space on the stack for local var's by appropriate adjustement of the sp
- procedure exit
 - 1. copy the fp to the sp (inverting 3. of the entry)
 - 2. load the control link to the fp
 - 3. perform a jump to the return address
 - 4. change the sp to pop the arg's



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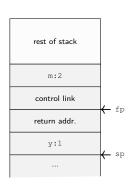
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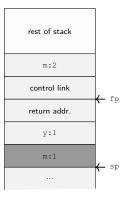
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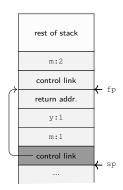
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Steps when calling g







before call to q

pushed param.

pushed fp



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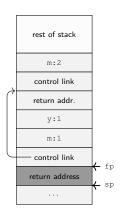
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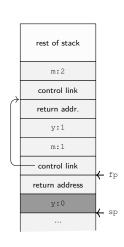
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Steps when calling g (cont'd)



fp := sp,push return addr.



alloc. local var y



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Treatment of auxiliary results: "temporaries"

- calculations need memory for intermediate results
- called temporaries in ARs.

```
x[i] = (i + j) * (i/k + f(j));
```

- note: x[i] represents an address or reference, i, j, k represent values^a
- assume a strict left-to-right evaluation (call f (j) may change values.)
- stack of temporaries.
- [NB: compilers typically use registers as much as possible, what does not fit there goes into the



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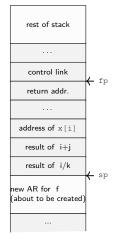
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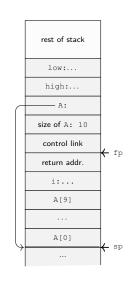
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Variable-length data

```
type Int_Vector is
array(INTEGER range <>) of INTEGER;
procedure Sum(low,high: INTEGER;
A: Int_Vector) return INTEGER
is
i: integer
begin
...
end Sum;
```

- Ada example
- assume: array passed by value ("copying")
- A[i]: calculated as @6(fp)+ 2*i
- in Java and other languages: arrays passed by reference
- note: space for A (as ref) and size of A is fixed-size (as well as low and high)



AR of call to SUM



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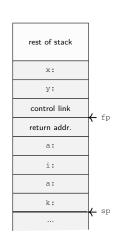
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Nested declarations ("compound statements")

```
void p(int x, double y)
{ char a;
   int i;
   ...;
   A:{ double x;
   int j;
   ...;
   }
   ...;
   B: { char * a;
   int k;
   ...;
   };
   ...;
};
```

```
rest of stack
    v.
    v:
control link
                  ← fp
return addr.
    a:
    i:
    х:
    i:

∠ sp
```





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area for block A allocated

area for block B allocated



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Stack-based RTE with nested procedures

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Nested procedures in Pascal

```
program nonLocalRef;
procedure p:
var n : integer;
   procedure q:
   begin
      (* a ref to n is now
       non-local, non-global *)
   end: (* a *)
   procedure r(n : integer);
   begin
   end; (* r *)
begin (* p *)
   \mathbf{n} := 1;
   r(2);
end: (* p *)
begin (* main *)
end.
```

- proc. p contains q and r nested
- also "nested" (i.e., local) in p: integer n
 - in scope for q and r but
 - neither global nor local to q and r



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Accessing non-local var's

- n in q: under lexical scoping: n declared in procedure p is meant
- this is not reflected in the stack (of course) as this stack represents the run-time call stack.
- remember: static links (or access links) in connection with symbol tables

vars of main control link return addr. n:1 n:2 control link return addr. q control link return addr. sp

calls $m \rightarrow p \rightarrow r \rightarrow q$

Symbol tables

- "nameaddressable" mapping
 - access at compile time
 - cf. scope tree

Dynamic memory

- "adresss-adressable"
 mapping
- access at run time
- stack-organized, reflecting paths in call graph
- cf. activation tree



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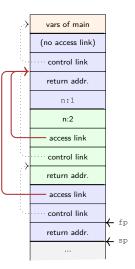
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Access link as part of the AR



- access link (or static link): part of AR (at fixed position)
- points to stack-frame representing the current AR of the statically enclosed "procedural" scope



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Example with multiple levels

```
program chain;
procedure p;
var x : integer;
   procedure q;
      procedure r:
      begin
         \mathbf{x} := 2:
          . . . ;
         if then p;
      end; (*r *)
   begin
   end; (* q *)
begin
   q;
end; (* p *)
begin (* main *)
   p:
end.
```



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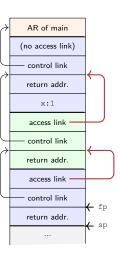
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Access chaining



- program chain
- access (conceptual): fp.al.al.x
- access link slot: fixed "offset" inside AR (but: AR's differently sized)
- "distance" from current AR to place of x
 - not fixed, i.e.
 - statically unknown!
- However: number of access link dereferences statically known
- lexical nesting level



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calls $m \to p \to q \to r$

Implementing access chaining

As example:

```
fp.al.al.al. ... al.x
```

- access need to be fast => use registers
- assume, at fp in dedicated register

often: not so many block-levels/access chains nessessary



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Calling sequence

- For procedure call (entry)
 - compute arguments, store them in the correct positions in the new activation record of the procedure (pushing them in order onto the runtume stack will achieve this)
 - 2. push access link, value calculated via link chaining ("fp.al.al....")
 - $\, \blacksquare \,$ store (push) the fp as the $\emph{control link}$ in the new AR
 - 3. change fp, to point to the "beginning"

of the new AR. If there is an ${\tt sp}$, copying ${\tt sp}$ into ${\tt fp}$ at this point will achieve this.

- 1. store the return address in the new AR, if necessary
- 2. perform a jump to the code of the called procedure.
- Allocate space on the stack for local var's by appropriate adjustement of the sp
- procedure exit
 - 1. copy the fp to the sp
 - 2. load the control link to the fp
 - 3. perform a jump to the return address
 - 4. change the sp to pop the arg's and the access link



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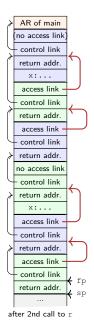
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Calling sequence: with access links



- main $\rightarrow p \rightarrow q \rightarrow r \rightarrow p \rightarrow q$ $\rightarrow r$
- calling sequence: actions to do the "push & pop"
- distribution of responsibilities between caller and callee
- generate an appropriate access chain, chain-length statically determined
- actual computation (of course)
 done at run-time



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Example with multiple levels

```
program chain;
procedure p;
var x : integer;
   procedure q;
      procedure r:
      begin
         \mathbf{x} := 2:
          . . . ;
         if then p;
      end; (*r *)
   begin
   end; (* q *)
begin
   q;
end; (* p *)
begin (* main *)
   p:
end.
```



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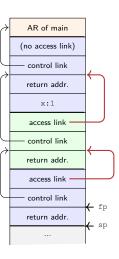
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Access chaining



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calls $m \to p \to q \to r$

Procedures as parameter

```
program closureex(output);
procedure p(procedure a);
begin
   a :
end:
procedure q;
var x : integer;
   procedure r;
   begin
      writeln(x); // ``non-local''
   end:
begin
   x := 2;
   p (r);
end; (* q *)
begin (* main *)
   a:
end.
```



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Procedures as parameters, same example in Go



```
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```

```
package main
import ("fmt")
var p = func (a (func () ())) { // (unit \rightarrow unit) \rightarrow unit
         a()
var q = func () {
         var x = 0
         var r = func () {
         fmt. Printf(" \times = \%v", \times)
         x = 2
         p(r) // r as argument
func main() {
         q();
```

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Procedures as parameters, same example in ocaml



```
let p (a : unit -> unit) : unit = a();;

let q() =
    let x: int ref = ref 1
    in let r = function () -> (print_int !x) (* deref *)
    in
    x := 2;    (* assignment to ref-typed var *)
    p(r);;

q();;    (* ``body of main'' *)
```

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Closures in [1]

- [1] rather "implementation centric"
- closure there:
 - restricted setting
 - specific way to achieve closures
 - specific semantics of non-local vars ("by reference")
- higher-order functions:
 - functions as arguments and return values
 - nested function declaration
- similar problems with: "function variables"
- Example shown: only procedures as parameters, not returned



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Closures, schematically

- independent from concrete design of the RTE/ARs:
- what do we need to execute the body of a procedure?

Closure (abstractly)

A closure is a function body² *together* with the values for all its variables, including the non-local ones.²

- individual AR not enough for all variables used (non-local vars)
- in *stack*-organized RTE's:
 - fortunately ARs are stack-allocated
 - → with clever use of "links" (access/static links): possible to access variables that are "nested further out"/ deeper in the stack (following links)



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²Resp.: at least the possibility to locate them.

Organize access with procedure parameters

- when calling p: allocate a stack frame
- executing p calls a => another stack frame
- number of parameters etc: knowable from the type of a
- but 2 problems

"control-flow" problem

currently only RTE, but: how can (the compiler arrange that) p calls a (and allocate a frame for a) if a is not know yet?

data problem

How can one statically arrange that a will be able to access non-local variables if statically it's not known what a will be?

- solution: for a procedure variable (like a): store in AR
 - reference to the code of argument (as representation of the function body)
 - reference to the frame, i.e., the relevant frame pointer (here: to the frame of q where r is defined)
- this pair = closure!



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Closure for formal parameter a of the example



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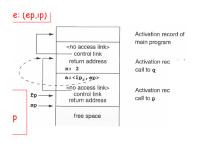
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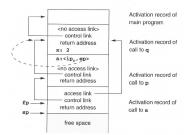
Virtual methods in



- stack after the call to p
- closure \(ip, ep \)
- ep: refers to q's frame pointer
- note: distinction in calling sequence for
 - calling "ordinary" proc's and
 - calling procs in proc parameters (i.e., via closures)
- that may be unified ("closures" only)

After calling a = r





 note: static link of the new frame: used from the closure! Targets

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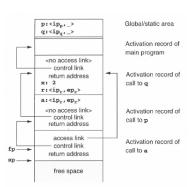
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Making it uniform



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note: calling conventions differ

- calling procedures as formal parameters
- "standard" procedures (statically known)
- treatment can be made uniform

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Limitations of stack-based RTEs

- procedures: central (!) control-flow abstraction in languages
- stack-based allocation: intuitive, common, and efficient (supported by HW)
- used in many languages
- procedure calls and returns: LIFO (= stack) behavior
- AR: local data for procedure body

Underlying assumption for stack-based RTEs

The data (=AR) for a procedure cannot outlive the activation where they are declared.

- assumption can break for many reasons
 - returning references of local variables
 - higher-order functions (or function variables)
 - "undisciplined" control flow (rather deprecated, goto's can break any scoping rules, or procedure abstraction)
 - explicit memory allocation (and deallocation), pointer arithmetic etc.



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Dangling ref's due to returning references

```
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```

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```
int * dangle (void) {
  int x;     // local var
  return &x;     // address of x
}
```

- similar: returning references to objects created via new
- variable's lifetime may be over, but the reference lives on . . .

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Function variables

```
program Funcvar;
var pv : Procedure (x: integer); (* procedur var
   Procedure Q();
   var
      a integer;
      Procedure P(i : integer);
      begin
         a:= a+i; (* a def'ed outside
     end:
   begin
      pv := QP; (* ``return'' P (as side effect) *)
   end:
                    (* "@" dependent on dialect
                    (* here: free Pascal
begin
  Q();
   pv (1);
end.
```

funcvar

Runtime error 216 at \$0000000000400233 \$000000000400233 \$0000000000400268 \$0000000004001E0



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Functions as return values

```
package main
import ("fmt")
var f = func () (func (int) int) { // unit -> (int -> int)}
                                   // local variable
        var x = 40
        var g = func (y int) int { // nested function
                return \times + 1
        x = x+1
                                    // update x
                                     // function as return
        return g
func main() {
        var x = 0
        var h = f()
        fmt. Println(x)
        var r = h (1)
        fmt.Printf(" r = %v", r)
```

- function q
 - defined local to f
 - uses x, non-local to g, local to f
 - is being returned from f



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Parameter passing

Chapter 8 "Run-time environments" Course "Compiler Construction" Martin Steffen Spring 2018

Communicating values between procedures

- INF5110 Compiler Construction

- procedure abstraction, modularity
- parameter passing = communication of values between procedures
- from caller to callee (and back)
- binding actual parameters
- with the help of the RTE
- formal parameters vs. actual parameters
- two modern versions
 - 1. call by value
 - 2. call by reference

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CBV and CBR, roughly

Core distinction/question

on the level of caller/callee *activation records* (on the stack frame): how does the AR of the callee get hold of the value the caller wants to hand over?

- callee's AR with a copy of the value for the formal parameter
- 2. the callee AR with a *pointer* to the memory slot of the actual parameter
- if one has to choose only one: it's call-by-value
- remember: non-local variables (in lexical scope), nested procedures, and even closures:
 - those variables are "smuggled in" by reference
 - [NB: there are also by value closures]



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Parameter passing "by-value"

- in C: CBV only parameter passing method
- in some lang's: formal parameters "immutable"
- straightforward: copy actual parameters → formal parameters (in the ARs).

```
void inc2 (int x) { ++x, ++x; }
```

```
void inc2 (int* x)
{ ++(*x), ++(*x); }
/* call: inc(&y) */
```

```
void init(int x[], int size) {
  int i;
  for (i=0;i<size,++i) x[i]= 0
}</pre>
```

arrays: "by-reference" data



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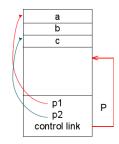
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Call-by-reference

- hand over pointer/reference/address of the actual parameter
- useful especially for large data structures
- typically (for cbr): actual parameters must be variables
- Fortran actually allows things like P (5,b) and P (a+b,c).

```
void inc2 (int* x)
{ ++(*x), ++(*x); }
/* call: inc(&y) */
```

```
void P(p1,p2) {
    ..
    p1 = 3
}
var a,b,c;
P(a,c)
```





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Call-by-value-result

- call-by-value-result can give different results from cbr
- allocated as a *local* variable (as cbv)
- however: copied "two-way"
 - when calling: actual → formal parameters
 - $\bullet \quad \text{when returning: actual} \leftarrow \text{formal parameters}$
- aka: "copy-in-copy-out" (or "copy-restore")
- Ada's in and out paremeters
- when are the value of actual variables determined when doing "actual ← formal parameters"
 - when calling
 - when returning
- not the cleanest parameter passing mechanism around...



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Call-by-value-result example

```
void p(int x, int y)
{
    ++x;
    ++y;
}

main ()
{    int a = 1;
    p(a,a);  // :-O
    return 0;
}
```

- C-syntax (C has cbv, not cbvr)
- note: aliasing (via the arguments, here obvious)
- cbvr: same as cbr, unless aliasing "messes it up"³



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 $^{^{3}}$ One can ask though, if not call-by-reference would be messed-up in the example already.

Call-by-name (C-syntax)

- most complex (or is it ",?)
- hand over: textual representation ("name") of the argument (substitution)
- in that respect: a bit like macro expansion (but lexically scoped)
- actual paramater not calculated before actually used!
- on the other hand: if needed more than once: recalculated over and over again
- aka: delayed evaluation
- Implementation
 - actual parameter: represented as a small procedure (thunk, suspension), if actual parameter = expression
 - optimization, if actually parameter = variable (works like call-by-reference then)



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Call-by-name examples

- in (imperative) languages without procedure parameters:
 - delayed evaluation most visible when dealing with things like a[i]
 - a[i] is actually like "apply a to index i"
 - combine that with side-effects (i++) ⇒ pretty confusing

```
void p(int x) {...; ++x; }
```

- call as p(a[i])
- corresponds to ++(a[i])
- note:
 - ++ _ has a side effect
 - i may change in . . .

```
int i:
int a[10];
void p(int x) {
 ++x:
main () {
  a[2] = 2:
  return 0:
```



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Another example: "swapping"

```
int i; int a[i];
swap (int a, b) {
  int i:
  i = a:
  a = b:
  b = i:
i = 3:
a[3] = 6;
swap (i,a[i]);
```

note: local and global variable i



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Call-by-name illustrations

```
procedure P(par): name par, int par
begin
  int x,y;
  ...
  par := x + y; (* alternative: x:= par + y *)
end;
P(v);
P(r.v);
P(5);
P(u+v)
```

	V	r.v	5	u+v_	
par := x+y	ok	ok	error	error	
x := par + y	ok	ok	ok	ok	



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Call by name (Algol)

```
begin comment Simple array example;
  procedure zero (Arr, i, j, u1, u2);
  integer Arr;
  integer i, j, u1, u2;
begin
    for i := 1 step 1 until u1 do
      for j := 1 step 1 until u2 do
       Arr := 0
end;
integer array Work [1:100,1:200];
integer p,q,x,v,z;
x := 100:
v := 200
zero (Work[p,q],p,q,x,y);
end
```



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Lazy evaluation

- call-by-name
 - complex & potentially confusing (in the presence of side effects)
 - not really used (there)
- declarative/functional languages: lazy evaluation
- optimization:
 - avoid recalculation of the argument
 - ⇒ remember (and share) results after first calculation ("memoization")
 - works only in absence of side-effects
- most prominently: Haskell
- useful for operating on *infinite* data structures (for instance: streams)



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Lazy evaluation / streams

```
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```

```
magic :: Int -> Int -> [Int]
magic 0 _ = []
magic m n = m : (magic n (m+n))

getlt :: [Int] -> Int -> Int
getlt [] _ = undefined
getlt (x:xs) 1 = x
getlt (x:xs) n = getlt xs (n-1)
```

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Chapter 8 "Run-time environments" Course "Compiler Construction" Martin Steffen Spring 2018

Object-orientation

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- class-based/inheritance-based OO
- classes and sub-classes
- typed references to objects
- virtual and non-virtual methods

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Virtual and non-virtual methods + fields

```
class A {
  int x, y
    void f(s,t) { ... F_A ... };
                                                             A-obiekt
  virtual void g(p,q) { ... G_A ...
                                                              hode
};
                                          A rA
class B extends A {
                                                             B-objekt
  int z
                                                              hode
    void f(s,t) \{ \ldots F_B \ldots \};
    redef void g(p,q) {... G_B ...}
    virtual void h(r) { ... H_B ...
};
                                                             C-obiekt
                                                              hode
class C extends B {
                                          C rC
  int u:
  redef void h(r) \{ \ldots H_C \ldots \};
```



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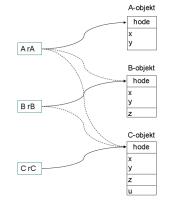
Call to virtual and non-virtual methods

non-virtual method f

call	target
$r_A.f$	F_A
$r_B.f$	F_B
$r_C.f$	F_B

virtual methods \boldsymbol{g} and \boldsymbol{h}

call	target
$r_A.g$	G_A or G_B
$r_B.g$	G_B
$r_C.g$	G_B
$r_A.h$	illegal
$r_B.h$	H_B or H_C





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Late binding/dynamic binding

- details very much depend on the language/flavor of OO
 - single vs. multiple inheritance?
 - method update, method extension possible?
 - how much information available (e.g., static type information)?
- simple approach: "embedding" methods (as references)
 - seldomly done (but needed for updateable methods)
- using inheritance graph
 - each object keeps a pointer to its class (to locate virtual methods)
- virtual function table
 - in static memory
 - no traversal necessary
 - class structure need be known at compile-time
 - C++



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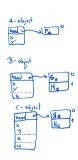
Virtual methods in OO

Virtual function table

- static check ("type check") of $r_X.f()$
 - for virtual methods: ${\tt f}$ must be defined in X or one of its superclasses
- non-virtual binding: finalized by the compiler (static binding)
- virtual methods: enumerated (with offset) from the first class with a virtual method, redefinitions get the same "number"
- object "headers": point to the class's virtual function table
- $r_A.g()$:

call r_A.virttab[g_offset]

- compiler knows
 - $= g_offset = 0$
 - h offset = 1





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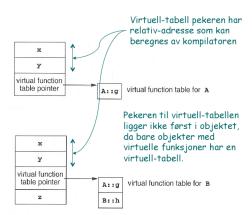
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Virtual method implementation in C++

according to [1]

```
class A {
  public:
  double x,y;
  void f();
  virtual void g();
};

class B: public A {
  public:
  double z;
  void f();
  virtual void h();
};
```





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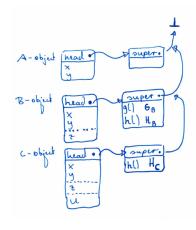
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Untyped references to objects (e.g. Smalltalk)

- all methods virtual
- problem of virtual-tables now: virtual tables need to contain all methods of all classes
- additional complication: method extension, extension methods
- Thus: implementation of r.g() (assume: f omitted)
 - go to the object's class
 - search for g following the superclass hierarchy.





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Chapter 8 "Run-time environments" Course "Compiler Construction" Martin Steffen Spring 2018

Management of dynamic memory: GC & alternatives



- dynamic memory: allocation & deallocation at run-time
- different alternatives
 - 1. manual
 - · "alloc". "free"
 - error prone
 - 2. "stack" allocated dynamic memory
 - typically not called GC
 - 3. automatic reclaim of unused dynamic memory
 - requires extra provisions by the compiler/RTE

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Heap

- "heap" unrelated to the well-known heap-data structure from A&D
- part of the dynamic memory
- contains typically
 - objects, records (which are dynamocally allocated)
 - often: arrays as well
 - for "expressive" languages: heap-allocated activation records
 - coroutines (e.g. Simula)
 - higher-order functions

code area	
global/static area	
stack	
free space	
heap	
Memory	



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Problems with free use of pointers

```
int * dangle (void) {
 int x; // local var
 return &x; // address of x
}
```

```
typedef int (* proc) (void);
proc g(int x) {
   int f(void) { /* illegal
   */
      return x;
   }
   return f;
}
main () {
   proc c;
   c = g(2);
   printf("%d\n", c()); /* 2? */
   return 0;
}
```

- as seen before: references, higher-order functions, coroutines etc ⇒ heap-allocated ARs
- higher-order functions: typical for functional languages,
- heap memory: no LIFO discipline
 - unreasonable to expect user to "clean up" AR's (already alloc and free is error-prone)
 - ⇒ garbage collection (already dating back to 1958/Lisp)



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Some basic design decisions

- gc approximative, but non-negotiable condition: never reclaim cells which may be used in the future
- one basic decision:
 - 1. never *move* "objects"
 - may lead to fragmentation
 - 2. move objects which are still needed
 - extra administration/information needed
 - all reference of moved objects need adaptation
 - all free spaces collected adjacently (defragmentation)
- when to do gc?
- how to get info about definitely unused/potentially used obects?

 - inspect (at approriate points in time) the state of the heap



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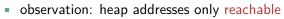
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Mark (and sweep): marking phase



directly through variables (with references), kept in the run-time stack (or registers) indirectly following fields in reachable objects, which

point to further objects . . .

- heap: graph of objects, entry points aka "roots" or root set
 - *mark*: starting from the root set:
 - find reachable objects, mark them as (potentially) used
 - one boolean (= 1 bit info) as mark
 - depth-first search of the graph



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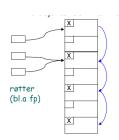
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Garbage collection

Marking phase: follow the pointers via DFS





- layout (or "type") of objects need to be known to determine where pointers are
- food for thought: doing DFS requires a stack, in the worst case of comparable size as the heap itself

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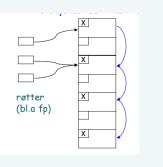
Garbage collection

Compactation

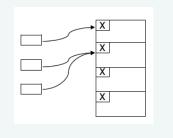


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Marked



Compacted



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After marking?

- known classification in "garbage" and "non-garbage"
- pool of "unmarked" objects
- however: the "free space" not really ready at hand:
- two options:

1. sweep

- go again through the heap, this time sequentially (no graph-search)
- collect all unmarked objects in free list
- objects remain at their place
- RTE need to allocate new object: grab free slot from free list

2. compaction as well:

- avoid fragmentation
- move non-garbage to one place, the rest is big free space
- when moving objects: adjust pointers



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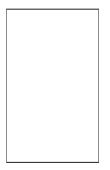
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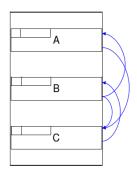
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Stop-and-copy

- variation of the previous compactation
- mark & compactation can be done in recursive pass
- space for heap-managment
 - split into two halves
 - only one half used at any given point in time
 - compactation by copying all non-garbage (marked) to the currently unused half





Hvert objekt må ha et ledig bit ("er flyttet")

Da angir "neste ordet" adressen det er flyttet til



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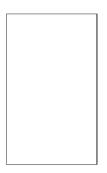
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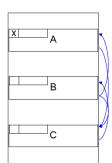
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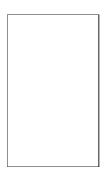
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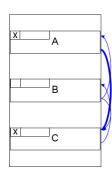
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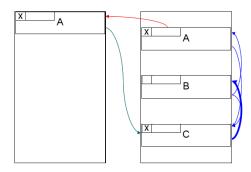
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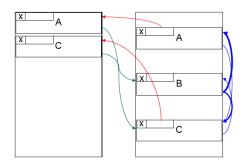
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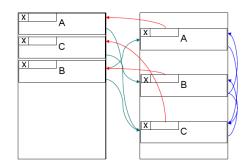
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References I



References II





Chapter 9

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Martin Steffen

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