G53CMP: Lecture 14 Run-Time Organisation I

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Storage Areas

- Static storage: storage for entities that live throughout an execution.
- Stack storage: storage allocated dynamically, but deallocation must be carried out in the opposite order to allocation.
- Heap storage: region of the memory where entities can be allocated and deallocated dynamically as needed, in any order.

This Lecture

One aspect of run-time organisation: stack-based storage allocation

- Lifetime and storage
- Basic stack allocation:
 - stack frames
 - dynamic links
- Allocation for nested procedures:
 - non-local variable access
 - static links

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Example: Lifetime (1)

```
var x, y: ...
proc P()
    var p1, p2: ...
    begin ... end

proc Q()
    var q1, q2: ...
    begin ... if ... Q(); ... end

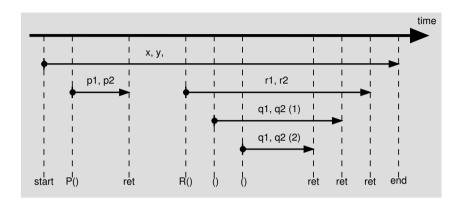
proc R()
    var r1, r2: ...
    begin ... Q() ... end

begin ... P() ... R() ... end
```

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Example: Lifetime (2)



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Storage Allocation (1)

- Global variables exist throughout the program's run-time.
- Where to store such variables can thus be decided statically, at compile (or link) time, once and for all.

Example:

```
private static String [] tokenTable
= ...
```

Example: Lifetime (3)

```
private static Integer foo(int i) {
    Integer n = new Integer(i);
    return n;
}
```

- The lifetimes of i and n coincides with the invocation of foo.
- The lifetime of the integer object created by new starts when new is executed and ends when there are no more references to it.
- The integer object thus survives the invocation of foo.

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Storage Allocation (2)

- Arguments and local variables exist only during a function (or procedure or method) invocation:
 - Function calls are properly nested.
 - In case of *recursion*, a function may be re-entered any number of times.
 - Each function activation needs a private set of arguments and local variables.
- These observations suggest that storage for arguments and local variables should be allocated on a stack.

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Storage Allocation (3)

- When the lifetime does not coincide with procedure/function invocations, heap allocation is needed. E.g. for:
 - objects in object-oriented languages
 - function closures in languages supporting functions as first class entities
 - storage allocated by procedures like malloc in C.
- Such storage either explicitly deallocated when no longer needed, or automatically reclaimed by a garbage collector.

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Defining the Stack

The stack is usually defined by a handful of registers, dictated by the CPU architecture and/or convention. For example:

• SB: Stack Base

• ST: Stack Top

• LB: Local Base

The names vary. Stack Pointer (SP) and Frame Pointer (FP) are often used instead of ST and LB, respectively.

Stack Frames

One **stack frame** or **activation record** for each currently active function/procedure/method.

Contents:

- Arguments
- · Bookkeeping information; e.g.
 - Return address
 - Dynamic link
 - Static link
- Local variables
- Temporary workspace

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Typical Stack Frame Layout

address			contents
LB	_	argOffset	arguments
LB			static link
LB	+	1	dynamic link
LB	+	2	return address
LB	+	3	local variables
LB	+	tempOffset	temporary storage

where

```
argOffset = size(arguments)

tempOffset = 3 + size(local\ variables)
```

TAM uses this convention. (Word (e.g. 4 bytes) addressing assumed, offsets in words.)

Example: A function f

(Not quite current MiniTriangle, but language could easily be extended in this way.)

```
var n: Integer;
...
fun f(x,y: Integer): Integer =
   let
        z: Integer
   in begin
        z := x * x + y * y;
        return n * z
end
```

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Example: Stack layout on entry to f

On entry to f; caller's ST = f's LB:

address	contents	
SB + 42	n: n	
LB - 2	x: 3	
LB - 1	y: 7	
LB	static link	
LB + 1	dynamic link	
LB + 2	return address = 2018	

Ret. addr. = old program counter (PC) = addr. of instruction immediately after the call instruction. New PC = address of first instruction of f = 2082.

Example: Calling f

Call sequence for f(3,7) * 8:

```
2015 LOADL 3 ; 1st arg. (x)
2016 LOADL 7 ; 2nd arg. (y)
2017 CALL f
```

2018 LOADL 8 2019 MUL

Address of each instruction explicitly indicated to the left. Address of f here given symbolically by a label. Corresponds to the address where the code for f starts, say 2082.

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Example: TAM Code for f

TAM-code for the function f (at address 2082):

```
LOADL 0
                       ADD
     [LB - 2]; x
                               [LB + 3] ; z
LOAD
                       STORE
     [LB - 2]; x
                               [SB + 42]; n
LOAD
                       LOAD
MUL
                       LOAD
                               [LB + 3]; z
LOAD
     [LB - 1]; y
                       MUL
     [LB - 1]; y
LOAD
                       POP
                               1 1
MUL
                       RETURN
                              1 2
```

RETURN replaces activation record (frame) of f by result, restores LB, and jumps to ret. addr. (2018).

Note: all variable offsets are *static*.

Dynamic and Static Links

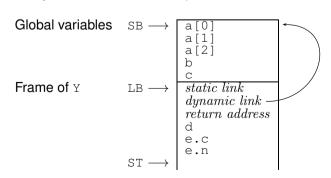
- Dynamic Link: Value to which LB (Local Base)
 is restored by RETURN when exiting procedure;
 i.e. addr. of caller's frame = old LB:
 - "Dynamic" because related to dynamic call graph.
- Static Link: Base of underlying frame of function that immediately lexically encloses this one.
 - "Static" because related to program's static structure.
 - Used to determine addresses of variables of lexically enclosing functions.

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Example: Stack Allocation (2)

Initially LB = SB; i.e., the global variables constitute the frame of the main program.

Call sequence: main $\rightarrow Y$ (i.e. after main calling Y):



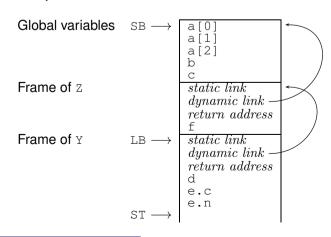
Example: Stack Allocation (1)

```
let
  var a: Integer[3];
  var b: Boolean;
  var c: Character;

proc Y ()
  let
     var d: Integer;
     var e: record c: Character, n: Integer end
  in
     ...;
proc Z ()
  let
     var f: Integer
  in
     begin ...; Y(); ... end
in
begin ...; Y(); ... end
```

Example: Stack Allocation (3)

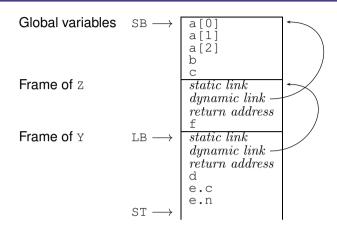
Call sequence: main $\rightarrow Z \rightarrow Y$:



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Exercise: Stack Allocation



In Y, what is the address of: b? e.c? f?

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Non-Local Variable Access (2)

In particular:

- We cannot access x, y, z relative to the stack base (SB) since we cannot (in general) statically know if P was called directly from the main program or indirectly via one or more other procedures.
- I.e., there could be arbitrarily many stack frames below P's frame.

Non-Local Variable Access (1)

Consider *nested* procedures:

P's variables are in scope also in Q and R. But how to access them from Q or R? Neither global, nor local!

Belong to the *lexically enclosing procedure*.

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Non-Local Variable Access (3)

- We cannot access x, y, z relative to the local base (LB) since we cannot (in general) statically know if e.g. Q was called directly from P, or indirectly via R and/or recursively via itself.
- I.e., there could be arbitrarily many stack frames between O's and P's frames.

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Non-Local Variable Access (4)

Answer:

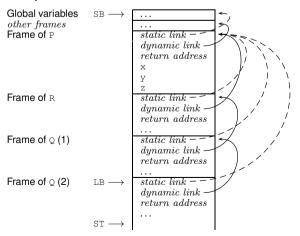
- The Static Links in Q's and R's frames are set to point to P's frame on each activation.
- The static link in P's frame is set to point to the frame of its closest lexically enclosing procedure, and so on.
- Thus, by following the chain of static links, one can access variables at any level of a nested scope.

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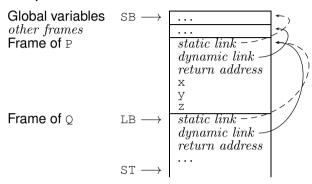
Non-Local Variable Access (6)

Call sequence: main $\rightarrow ... \rightarrow P \rightarrow R \rightarrow Q \rightarrow Q$:



Non-Local Variable Access (5)

Call sequence: main $\rightarrow ... \rightarrow P \rightarrow Q$:



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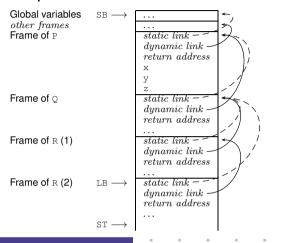
Non-Local Variable Access (7)

Consider further levels of nesting:

Note: Q's variables now in scope in R. To access, compute the *difference between scope levels* of the accessing procedure/function and the accessed variable (*note: static information*), and follow that many static links.

Non-Local Variable Access (8)

Call sequence: main $\rightarrow ... \rightarrow P \rightarrow Q \rightarrow R \rightarrow R$:



Example: Non-local Access

Accessing y in P from within R; scope level difference is 2:

```
LOAD [LB + 0] ; R's static link
LOADI 0 ; Q's static link
LOADI 4 ; y at offset 4 in P's frame
```

Example: Call with Static Link

TAM code, P calling Q: Q's static link = P's local base, pushed onto stack prior to call:

```
LOADA [LB + 0] ; Q's static link
LOADCA #1_Q ; Address of Q
CALLI
```

TAM code, R calling iteself recursively: copy of R's static link (as callee's and caller's scope levels are the same) pushed onto stack prior to call:

```
LOAD [LB + 0] ; R's static link
LOADCA #2_R ; Address of R
CALLI
```

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Code Generation (1)

Note: A label represents a procedure or function; what is pushed onto stack is effectively the corresponding *closure* (see later slide).

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Code Generation (2)

Closures (1)

A closure:

- Code for function or procedure; and
- Bindings for all its free variables.

Under the present scheme:

- Code: Address of function or procedure;
- Bindings: Chain of stack-allocated activation records linked by the static links.

Works only when closure does not survive the activation of the function/procedure where it was created. *Cannot* support first-class functions/procedures!

Code Generation (3)

Closures (2)

- Functions/procedures are first class if they can be handled just like any other values; e.g.
 - bound to variables
 - passed as arguments
 - returned as results.
- Supporting first-class functions/procedures requires closures to be <u>heap-allocated</u>:
 - Code still just address of function or procedure.
 - Static link replaced by (pointer(s) to) heap-allocated activation record(s).

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Closures (3)

 As an optimisation, one could imagine combined schemes: stack allocation and static links might be used when known that a closure will never survive activation of enclosing function/procedure.

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