

# Run-time Environments

# Status

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- We have so far covered the front-end phases
  - Lexical analysis
  - Parsing
  - Semantic analysis
- Next come the back-end phases
  - Code generation
  - Optimization
  - Register allocation
  - Instruction scheduling
- We will examine code generation first . . .

# Run-time Environments

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- Before discussing code generation, we need to understand what we are trying to generate
- There are a number of standard techniques for structuring executable code that are widely used

# Outline

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- Management of run-time resources
- Correspondence between static (compile-time) and dynamic (run-time) structures
- Storage organization

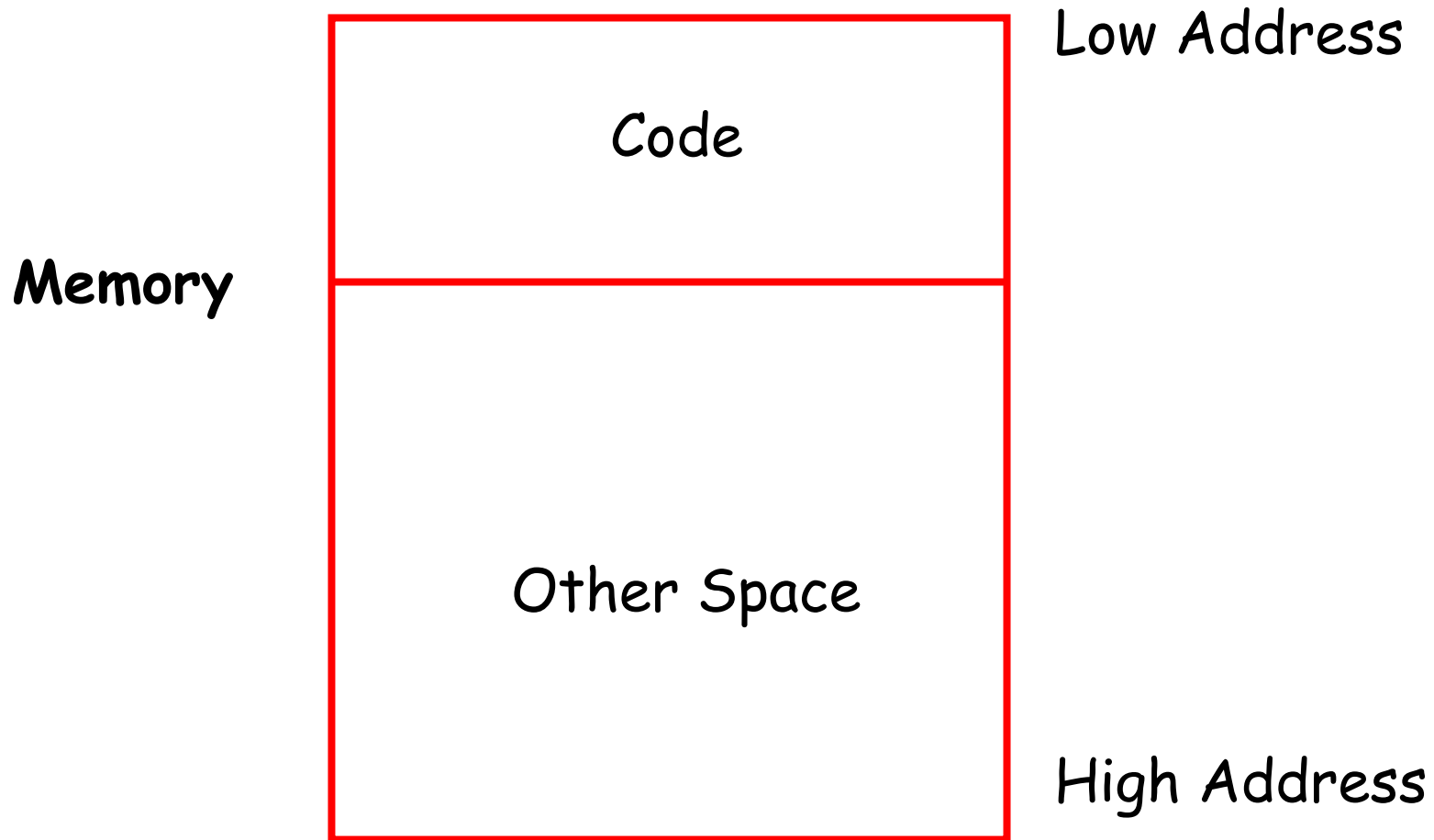
# Run-time Resources

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- Execution of a program is initially under the control of the operating system (OS)
- When a program is invoked:
  - The OS allocates space for the program
  - The program code is loaded into part of this space
  - The OS jumps to the entry point of the program (i.e., to the beginning of the "main" function)

# Memory Layout

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# Notes

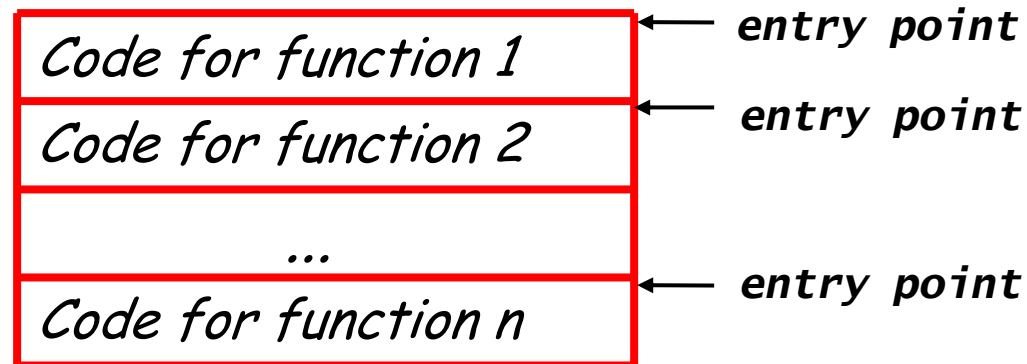
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- By tradition, pictures of run-time memory organization have:
  - Low addresses at the top
  - High addresses at the bottom
  - Lines delimiting areas for different kinds of data
- These pictures are simplifications
  - E.g., not all memory need be contiguous

# Organization of Code Space

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- Usually, code is generated one function at a time. The code area thus is of the form:



- Careful layout of code within a function can improve i-cache utilization and give better performance
- Careful attention in the order in which functions are processed can also improve i-cache utilization



# What is Other Space?

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- Holds all data needed for the program's execution
- Other Space = Data Space
- Compiler is responsible for:
  - Generating code
  - Orchestrating the use of the data area

# Code Generation Goals

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- Two goals:
  - Correctness
  - Efficiency
- Most complications in code generation come from trying to be efficient as well as correct

# Assumptions about Flow of Control

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- (1) Execution is sequential; at each step, control is at some specific program point and moves from one point to another in a well-defined order
- (2) When a procedure is called, control eventually returns to the point immediately after the place where the call was made

Do these assumptions always hold?

# Language Issues that affect the Compiler

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- Can procedures be recursive?
- What happens to the values of the locals on return from a procedure?
- Can a procedure refer to non-local variables?
- How are parameters to a procedure passed?
- Can procedures be passed as parameters?
- Can procedures be returned as results?
- Can storage be allocated dynamically under program control?
- Must storage be deallocated explicitly?

# Activations

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- An invocation of procedure  $P$  is an *activation* of  $P$
- The *lifetime* of an activation of  $P$  is
  - All the steps to execute  $P$
  - Including all the steps in procedures that  $P$  calls

# Lifetimes of Variables

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- The *lifetime* of a variable  $x$  is the portion of execution in which  $x$  is defined
- Note that:
  - Lifetime is a dynamic (run-time) concept
  - Scope is (usually) a static concept

# Activation Trees

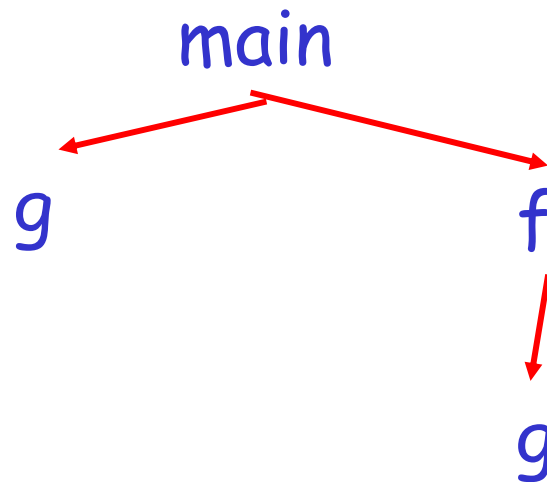
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- Assumption (2) requires that when  $P$  calls  $Q$ , then  $Q$  returns before  $P$  does
- Lifetimes of procedure activations are thus either disjoint or properly nested
- Activation lifetimes can be depicted as a tree

# Example 1

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```
g(): int { return 42; }  
f(): int { return g(); }  
main() { g(); f(); }
```





## Example 2

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```
g(): int { return 42; }
f(x:int): int {
    if x = 0 then return g();
    else return f(x - 1);
}
main() { f(3); }
```

What is the activation tree for this example?

# Notes

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- The activation tree depends on run-time behavior
- The activation tree may be different for every program input

Since activations are properly nested, a *(control) stack* can track currently active procedures

- push info about an activation at the procedure entry
- pop the info when the activation ends; i.e., at the return from the call

# Example

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```
g(): int { return 42; }  
f(): int { return g(); }  
main() { g(); f(); }
```

main

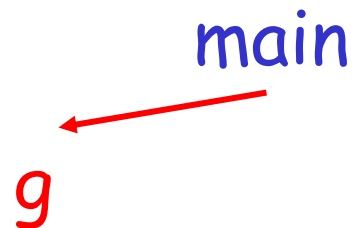
Stack

*main*

# Example

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```
g(): int { return 42; }  
f(): int { return g(); }  
main() { g(); f(); }
```



**Stack**

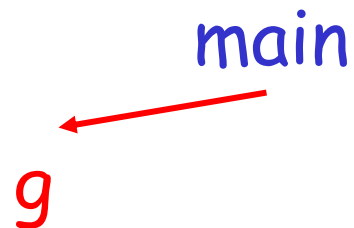
*main*

*g*

# Example

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```
g(): int { return 42; }  
f(): int { return g(); }  
main() { g(); f(); }
```



**Stack**

*main*

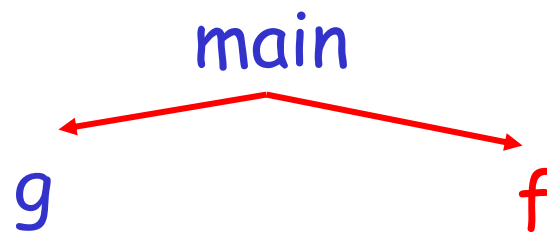
# Example

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```
g(): int { return 42; }
```

```
f(): int { return g(); }
```

```
main() { g(); f(); }
```



**Stack**

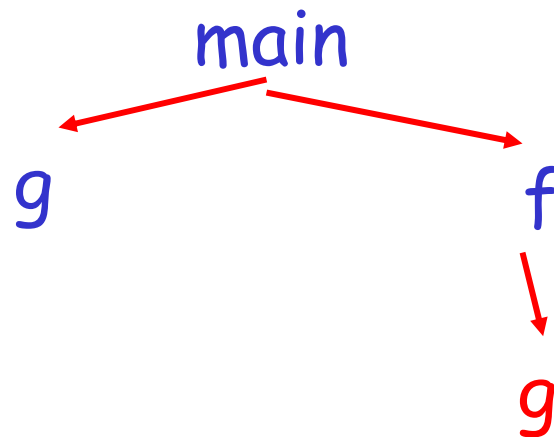
*main*

*f*

# Example

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```
g(): int { return 42; }  
f(): int { return g(); }  
main() { g(); f(); }
```



**Stack**

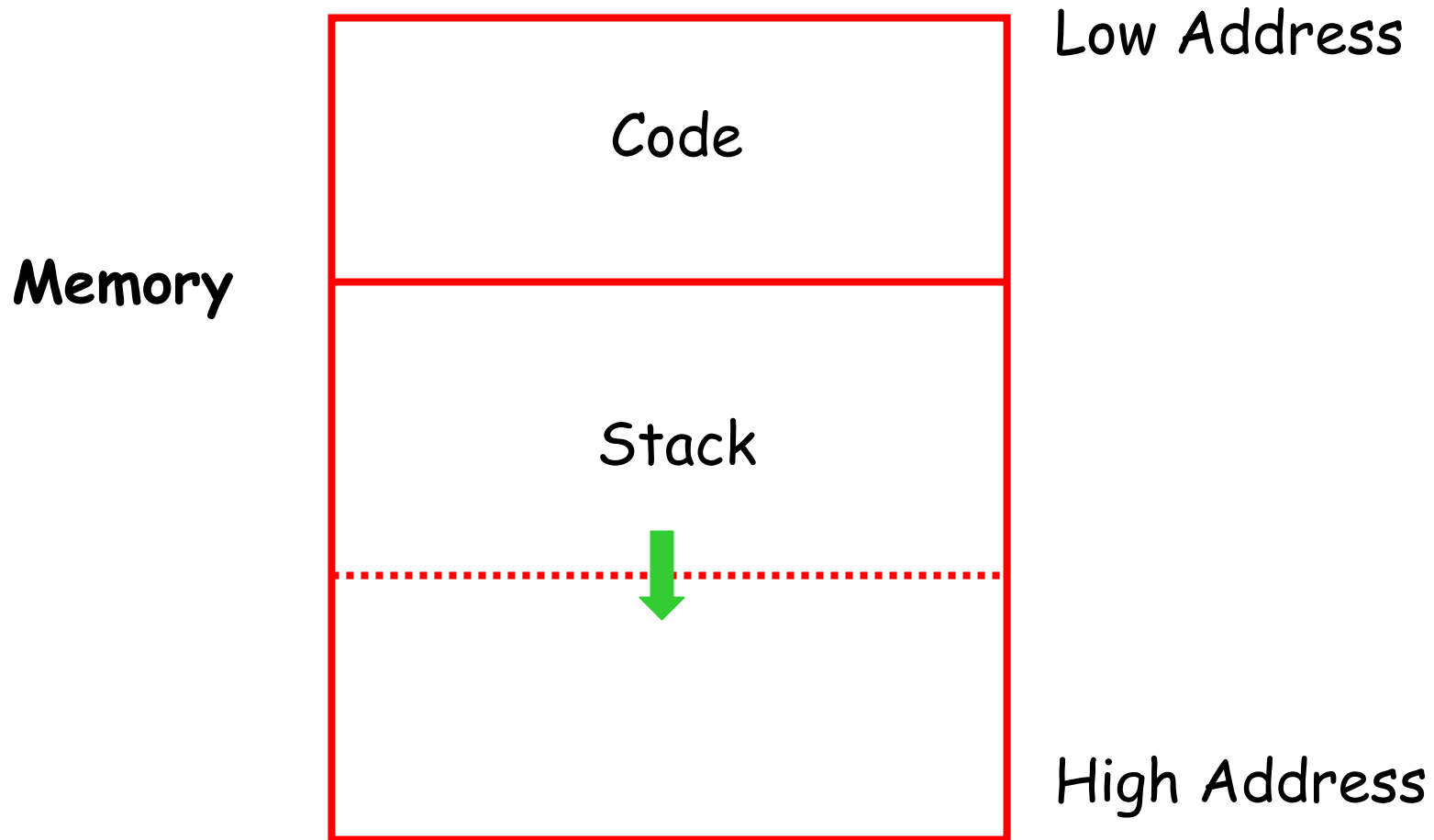
*main*

*f*

*g*

# Revised Memory Layout

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# Activation Records

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- The information needed to manage a single procedure activation is called an *activation record (AR)* or a *stack frame*
- If a procedure  $F$  calls  $G$ , then  $G$ 's activation record contains a mix of info about  $F$  and  $G$

## What is in $G$ 's AR when $F$ calls $G$ ?

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- $F$  is "suspended" until  $G$  completes, at which point  $F$  resumes.  $G$ 's AR contains information needed to resume execution of  $F$ .
- $G$ 's AR may also contain:
  - $G$ 's return value (needed by  $F$ )
  - Actual parameters to  $G$  (supplied by  $F$ )
  - Space for  $G$ 's local variables

# The Contents of a Typical AR for $G$

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- Space for  $G$ 's return value
- Actual parameters
- (optional) Pointer to the previous activation record
  - The *control link*; points to the AR of caller of  $G$
- (optional) *Access link* for access to non-local names
  - Points to the AR of the function that statically contains  $G$
- Machine status prior to calling  $G$ 
  - Return address, values of registers & program counter
  - Local variables
- Other temporary values used during evaluation

## Example 2, Revisited

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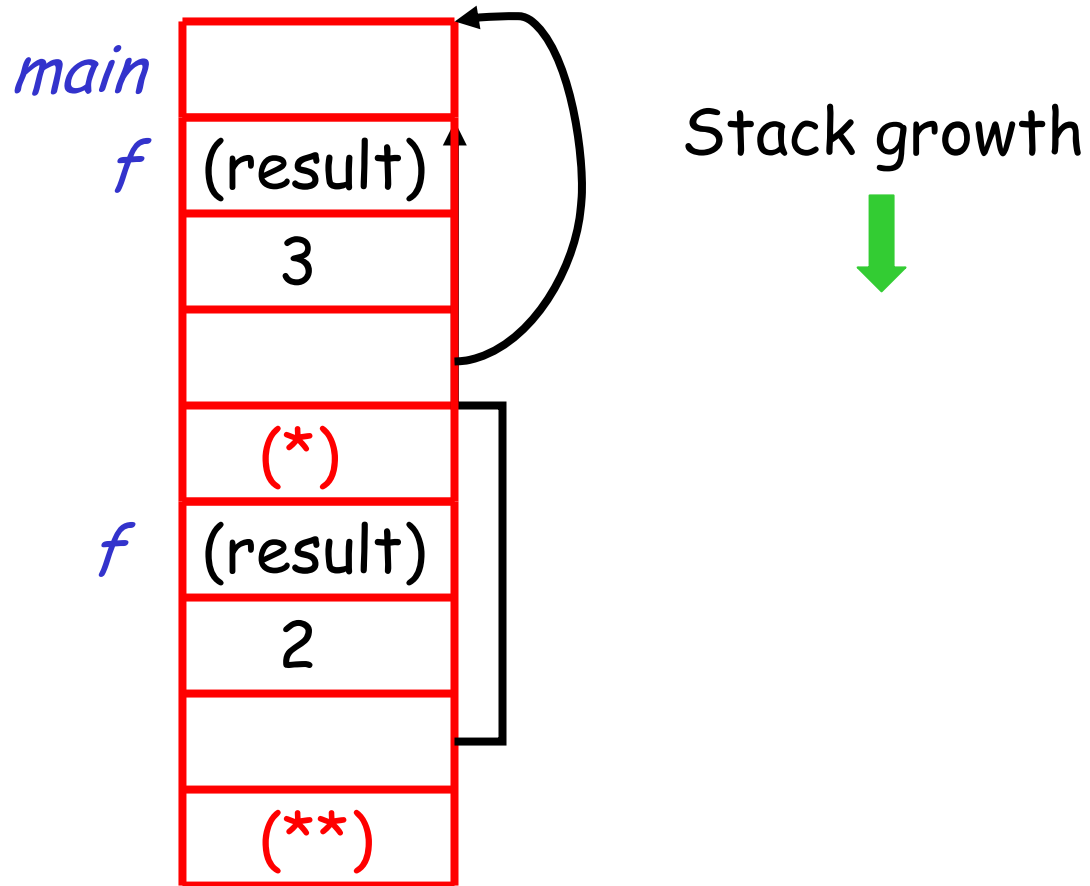
```
g(): int { return 42; }
f(x:int): int {
    if x = 0 then return g();
    else return f(x - 1); (**)
}
main() { f(3); (*) }
```

AR for f:

<i>result</i>
<i>argument</i>
<i>control link</i>
<i>return address</i>

# Stack After Two Calls to f

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# Notes

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- `main()` has no argument or local variables and returns no result; its AR is uninteresting
- `(*)` and `(**)` are return addresses (continuation points) of the invocations of `£()`
  - The return address is where execution resumes after a procedure call finishes
- This is only one of many possible AR designs
  - Would also work for C, Pascal, FORTRAN, etc.

# The Main Point

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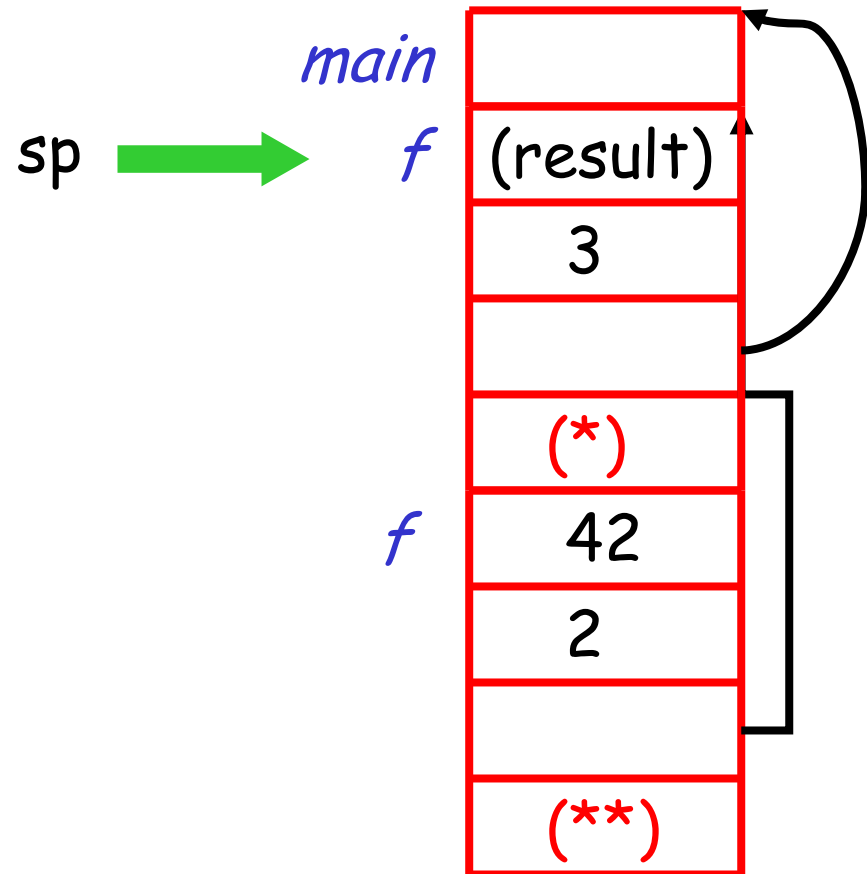
- The compiler must determine, at compile-time, the layout of activation records and generate code that correctly accesses locations in the activation record (as displacements from `sp`)

*Thus, the AR layout and the code generator must be designed together!*

## Example 2, continued

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The picture shows the state after the call to the 2nd invocation of `f()` returns





# Discussion

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- The advantage of placing the return value 1st in a frame is that the caller can find it at a fixed offset from its own frame
- There is nothing magical about this run-time organization
  - Can rearrange order of frame elements
  - Can divide caller/callee responsibilities differently
  - An organization is better if it improves execution speed or simplifies code generation

## Discussion (Cont.)

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- Real compilers hold as much of the frame as possible in registers
  - Especially the function result and (some of) the arguments

# Storage Allocation Strategies for Activation Records (1)

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## Static Allocation (Fortran 77)

- Storage for all data objects is laid out at compile time
- Can be used only if size of data objects and constraints on their position in memory can be resolved at compile time  $\Rightarrow$  no dynamic structures
- Recursive procedures are restricted, since all activations of a procedure must share the same locations for local names

# Storage Allocation Strategies for Activation Records (2)

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## Stack Allocation (Pascal, C)

- Storage organized as a stack
- Activation record pushed when activation begins and popped when it ends
- Cannot be used if the values of local names must be retained when the evaluation ends or if the called invocation outlives the caller

## Heap Allocation (Lisp, ML)

- Activation records may be allocated and deallocated in any order
- Some form of garbage collection is needed to reclaim free space

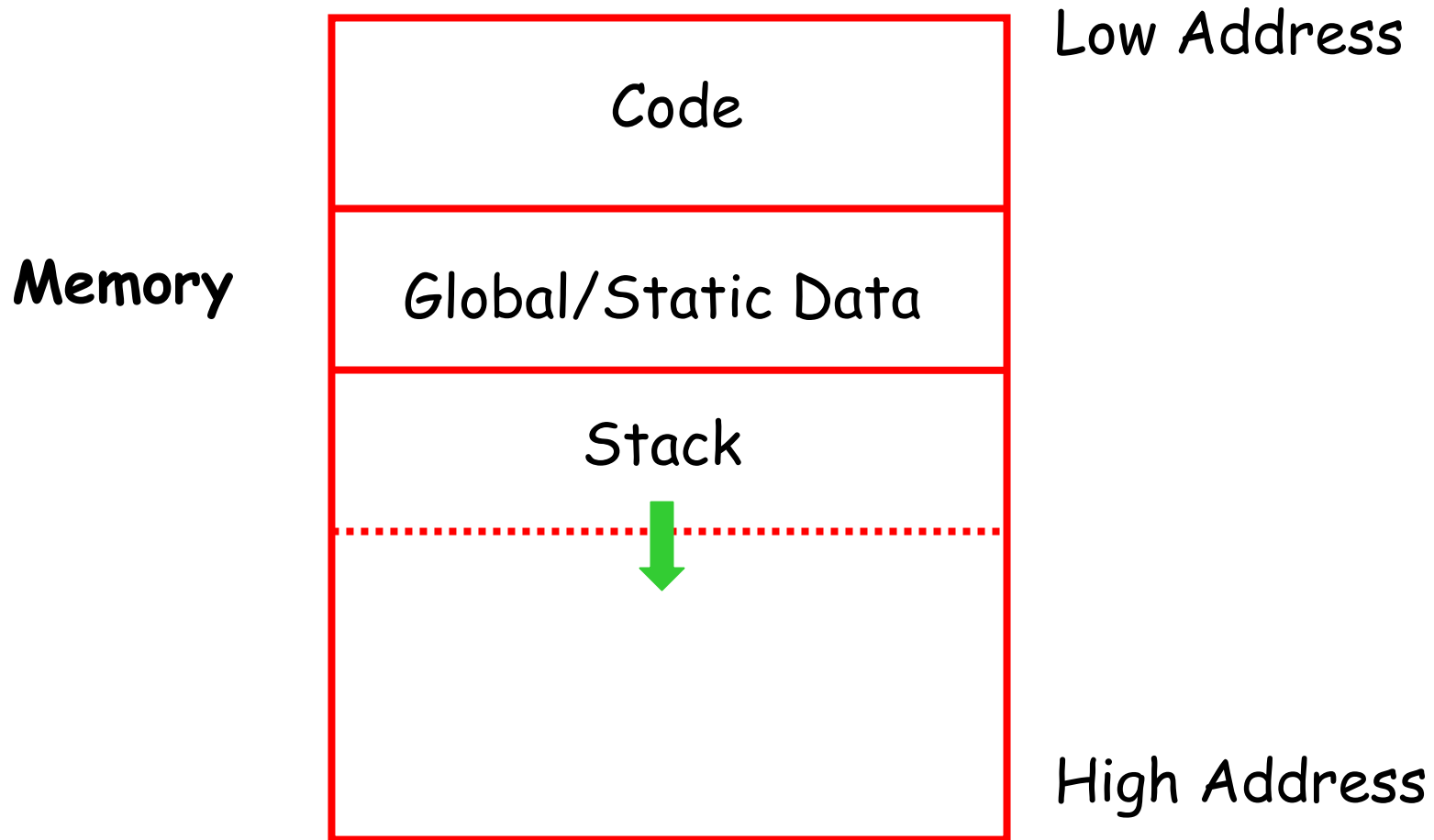
# Global Variables

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- All references to a global variable point to the same object
  - Can't store a global in an activation record
- Globals are assigned a fixed address once
  - Variables with fixed address are "statically allocated"
- Depending on the language, there may be other statically allocated values
  - e.g., static variables in C

# Memory Layout with Static Data

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# Heap Storage

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- A value that outlives the procedure that creates it cannot be kept in the AR

```
foo() { new bar; }
```

The `bar` value must survive deallocation of `foo`'s AR

- Languages with dynamically allocated data use a *heap* to store dynamic data

# Review of Runtime Organization

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- The **code area** contains object code
  - For most languages, fixed size and read only
- The **static area** contains data (not code) with fixed addresses (e.g., global data)
  - Fixed size, may be readable or writable
- The **stack** contains an AR for each currently active procedure
  - Each AR usually has fixed size, contains locals
- The **heap** contains all other data
  - In C, heap is managed explicitly by `malloc()` and `free()`
  - In Java, heap is managed by `new()` and garbage collection
  - In ML, both allocation and deallocation in the heap is managed implicitly



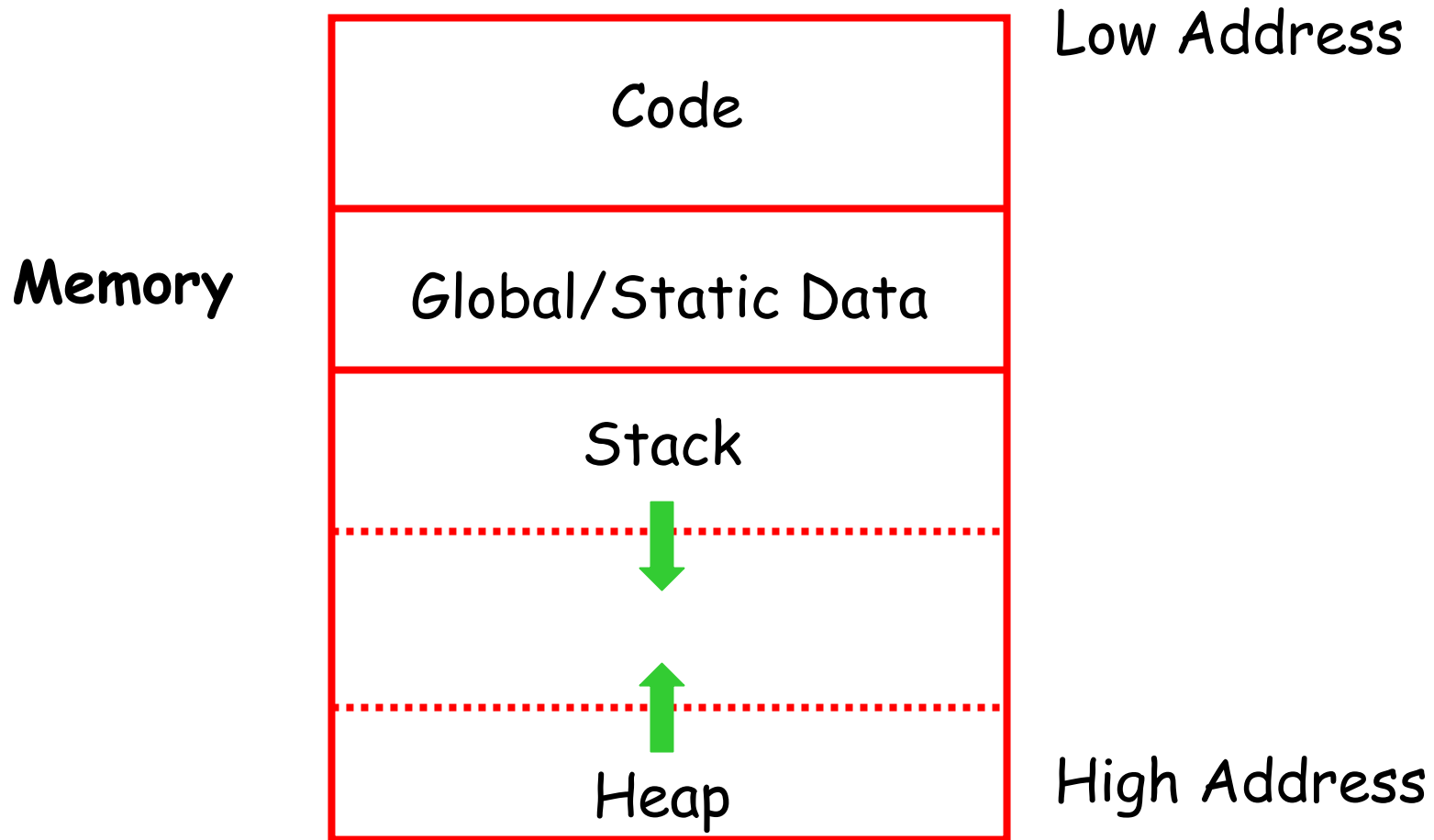
# Notes

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- Both the heap and the stack grow
- Must take care so that they don't grow into each other
- Solution: start heap and stack at opposite ends of memory and let them grow towards each other

# Memory Layout with Heap

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# Data Layout

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- Low-level details of computer architecture are important in laying out data for correct code and maximum performance
- Chief among these concerns is *alignment* of data

# Alignment

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- Most modern machines are 32 or 64 bit
  - 8 bits in a byte
  - 4 or 8 bytes in a word
  - Machines are either byte or word addressable
- Data is *word-aligned* if it begins at a word boundary

Most machines have some alignment restrictions  
(Or performance penalties for poor alignment)

## Alignment (Cont.)

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Example: An ASCII string:

"Hello"

Takes 5 characters (without the terminating \0)

- To word-align next datum on a 32-bit machine, add 3 "padding" characters to the string
- The padding is not part of the string, it's just unused memory