

The STG Language

Advanced Compiler Construction and Program Analysis

Lecture 14

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The topics of this lecture are covered in detail in...

Simon Peyton Jones.

Implementing Lazy Functional Languages on Stock Hardware: The Spineless Tagless G-machine.

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Implementing lazy functional languages on stock hardware: the Spineless Tagless G-machine

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Abstract

The Spineless Tagless G-machine is an abstract machine designed to support non-strict higher-order functional languages. This presentation of the machine falls into three parts. Firstly, we give a general discussion of the design issues involved in implementing non-strict functional languages. Next, we present the *STG language*, an austere but recognizably-functional language, which as well as a *denotational* meaning has a well-defined *operational* semantics. The STG language is the 'abstract machine code' for the Spineless Tagless G-machine. Lastly, we discuss the mapping of the STG language onto stock hardware. The success of an abstract machine model depends largely on how efficient this mapping can be made, though this topic is often relegated to a short section. Instead, we give a detailed discussion of the design issues and the choices we have made. Our principal target is the C language, treating the C compiler as a portable assembler.

The STG Language: syntax

`binds ::= x1=lf1 ; ... ; xn=lfn`

`lf ::=`

`{v1, ..., vn} \u {x1, ..., xn} → expr`

`{v1, ..., vn} \n {x1, ..., xn} → expr`

`expr ::=`

`let binds in expr`

`letrec binds in expr`

`case expr of constr1 {x11, ..., xn1} → expr1; ...; default`

`case expr of literal → expr1; ...; default`

`x {atom1, ..., atomn}`

`constr {atom1, ..., atomn}`

`prim {atom1, ..., atomn}`

`literal`

`default ::=`

`x → expr`

`default → expr`

`literal ::= #0 | #1 | ...`

`prim ::= +# | -# | *# | /# | ...`

`atom ::= x | literal`

bindings

lambda forms

updatable lambda form

non-updatable lambda form

expressions

non-recursive let-binding

recursive let-binding

algebraic case-expression

primitive case-expression

application

saturated constructor

saturated built-in operator

literal value

default case alternative

variable alternative

default alternative

literal values

primitive operators

atoms

The STG Language: syntax vs semantics

Syntactic construction	Operational reading
Function application	Tail call
Let expression	Heap allocation
Case expression	Evaluation
Constructor application	Return to continuation

The STG Language: syntax characteristics

1. All function and constructor arguments are **simple variables or constants**.
2. All constructors and primitive operators are **saturated**.

$x \{atom_1, \dots, atom_n\}$ *application*
 $constr \{atom_1, \dots, atom_n\}$ *saturated constructor*
 $prim \{atom_1, \dots, atom_n\}$ *saturated built-in operator*

3. Pattern matching is performed **only** by a case-expression.
4. Lambda abstraction is special — it mentions free variables and updatability:

$\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \setminus u \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \rightarrow expr$ *updatable lambda form*
 $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \setminus n \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \rightarrow expr$ *non-updatable lambda form*

5. The STG supports unboxed values.

Translating into the STG language: example (1)

```
map f [] = []  
map f (y:ys) = (f y) : (map f ys)
```

```
map = {} \n {f,xs} →  
  case xs of  
    Nil {} → Nil {}  
    Cons {y,ys} →  
      let fy = {f,y} \u {} → f {y} ;  
          mfy = {f,ys} \u {} → map {f,ys}  
      in Cons {fy, mfy}
```

Translating into the STG language: example (2)

```
map f = mf
```

```
  where
```

```
    mf [] = []
```

```
    mf (y:ys) = (f y) : (mf ys)
```

```
map = {} \n {f} →
```

```
  letrec
```

```
    mf = {f,mf} \n {xs} →
```

```
      case xs of
```

```
        Nil {} → Nil {}
```

```
        Cons {y,ys} →
```

```
          let fy = {f,y} \u {} → f {y} ;
```

```
            mfy = {mf,ys} \u {} → mf {ys}
```

```
          in Cons {fy, mfy}
```

```
in mf
```

Translating into the STG language: in general

1. Replace nested binary applications with multiple application:

$$(\dots((f\ e_1)\ e_2)\ \dots)\ e_n \Rightarrow f\ \{e_1,\ e_2,\ \dots,\ e_n\}$$

2. Saturate all constructors and built-in operators:

$$\text{constr}\ e_1\ e_2\ \dots\ e_n \Rightarrow \lambda x_1. \dots \lambda x_n. \text{constr}\ e_1\ e_2\ \dots\ e_n\ x_1$$

3. Name every non-atomic argument and every lambda abstraction, using **let**.
4. Convert right hand side of let into a lambda form,
by adding free variables and update information.

Translating into the STG language: free variables

A variable is considered free in a given lambda-form if

1. It is **mentioned** in the body of the lambda abstraction
2. It is **not bound** by the lambda
3. It is **not bound** by the top-level bindings of the program

This specifies variables that **must** appear in the free variables list.
However, any (redundant) in-scope variable **may** appear as well.

Closures and updates

Which lambda forms can safely be made non-updatable, without losing the single-evaluation property?

1. **Manifest functions** are lambda forms with a non-empty argument list.
2. **Partial applications** are lambda forms of the following form:

$$\{v_1, \dots, v_m\} \backslash n \ \{\} \rightarrow f \ \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$$

where f is known to be a manifest function with more than m arguments.

3. **Constructors** are lambda forms of the following form:

$$\{v_1, \dots, v_m\} \backslash n \ \{\} \rightarrow \text{constr} \ \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$$

4. **Thunks** are any other lambda forms.

Updates are *never required* for manifest functions, partial applications, and constructors. Updates can *sometimes* be omitted for thunks.

Translating into the STG language: exercise

Exercise 14.1.

Translate the following Haskell program into the STG language.

```
sum :: [Int] → Int
```

```
sum [] = 0
```

```
sum (x:xs) = x + sum xs
```

Standard constructors

```
let ys = y1 : (y2 : (y3 : [])) in ...
```

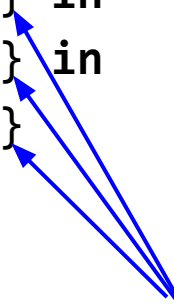
```
let ys3 = {} \n {} → Nil {} in
```

```
let ys2 = {y3, ys3} \n {} → Cons {y3, ys3} in
```

```
let ys1 = {y2, ys2} \n {} → Cons {y2, ys2} in
```

```
let ys = {y1, ys1} \n {} → Cons {y1, ys1}
```

```
in ...
```



Same shape,
can share the code pointer!

Standard constructors: top-level definitions

```
ys = [thing]  
thing = ...
```

```
nil = {} \n {} → Nil {}  
ys = {} \n {} → Cons {thing, nil}  
thing = ...
```

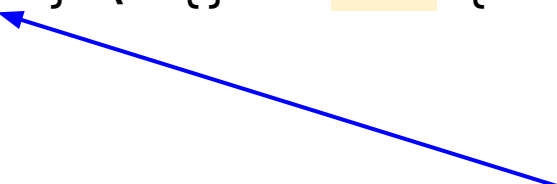
Standard constructors: top-level definitions

```
ys = [thing]  
thing = ...
```

For nullary constructors, we can
share the entire closure



```
nil = {} \n {} → Nil {}  
ys = {thing, nil} \n {} → Cons {thing, nil}  
thing = ...
```



Adding top-level definitions
to the free variables, so that we
can reuse the same code pointer

Arithmetic and unboxed values

```
data Int = MkInt Int#
```

```
plus :: Int → Int → Int
```

```
plus e1 e2 =
```

```
  case e1 of
```

```
    MkInt x# →
```

```
      case e2 of
```

```
        MkInt y# →
```

```
          case (x# +# y#) of
```

```
            t# → MkInt t#
```

Arithmetic and unboxed values

1. Data type are divided into two kinds: **algebraic** data types are introduced explicitly by the user with data keyword, while **primitive** data types are built into the system.
2. All literal constants are of primitive types. Literals of algebraic types are given by using appropriate constructors.
3. All built-in operations operate over primitive values.
4. Values of unboxed type do not have to be of the same size as pointer. As a result, polymorphic functions can take only arguments of boxed type.
5. A **let** or **letrec** cannot bind a variable of unboxed type. Such binding instead happens instead using a primitive case expression.
6. There are two forms of **case** expressions (algebraic and primitive).

Summary

- ❏ The STG language

See you next time!