COMP3048: Lecture 14 Run-Time Organisation I

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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

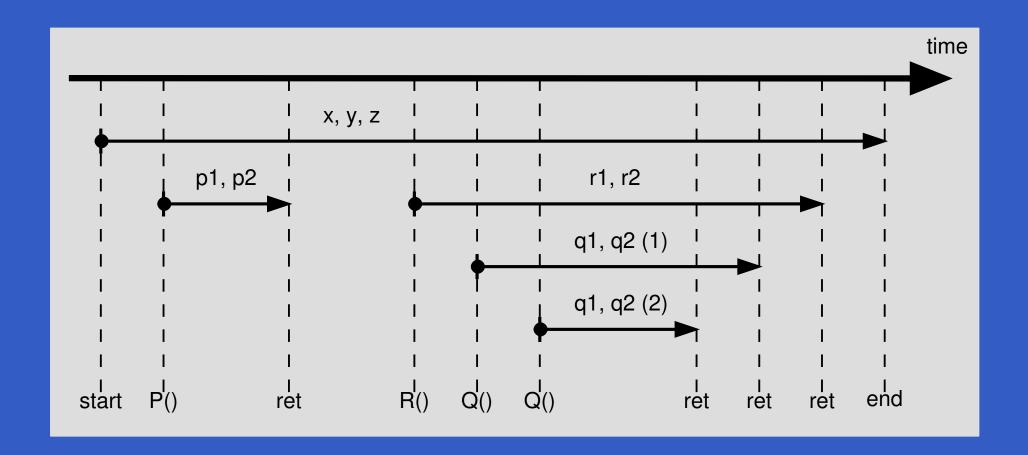
Storage Areas

- 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.

Example: Lifetime (1)

```
var x, y, z: ...
proc P()
    var p1, p2: ...
    begin ... end
proc Q()
    var q1, q2: ...
    begin ... if ... Q(); ... end
proc R()
    var r1, r2: ...
    begin \dots Q() \dots end
begin \dots P() \dots R() \dots end
```

Example: Lifetime (2)



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.

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 = ...
```

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*.

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.

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

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.

Typical Stack Frame Layout

addresscontentsLB - argOffsetargumentsLB - static linkLB + 1dynamic linkLB + 2return addressLB + 3local variablesLB + tempOffsettemporary 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
```

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.

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: TAM Code for f

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

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

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 depends on where function was called from.
- Static Link: Base of underlying frame of function that immediately lexically encloses this one.
 - "Static" because depends on the program's structure and not on its execution.
 - Used to determine addresses of variables of lexically enclosing functions.

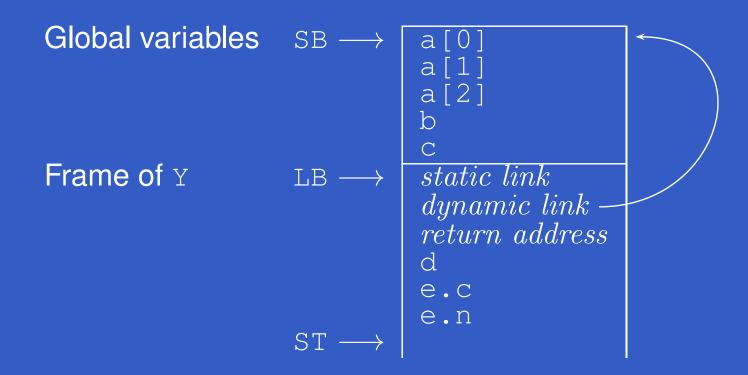
Example: Stack Allocation (1)

```
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 \ldots; Y(); \ldots; Z(); \ldots end
```

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):

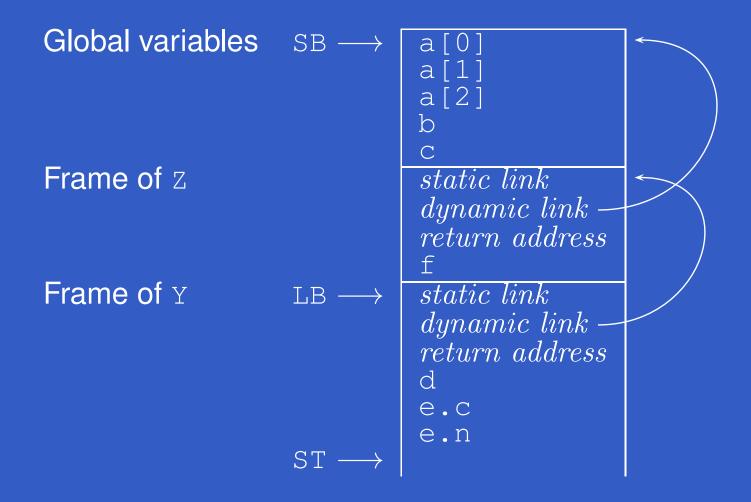


Example: Stack Allocation (3)

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

Global variables	$SB \longrightarrow$	a[0]	—
		a[1]	
		a[2]	
		b	
		С	
Frame of Z		$static\ link$	
		$\mid dynamic\ link$ —	
		return address	
		f	
Frame of Y	$\texttt{LB} \longrightarrow$	static link	
		dynamic link —	
		$return\ address$	
		d	
		e.c	
		e.n	
	$ST \longrightarrow$		

Exercise: Stack Allocation



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

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*.

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 (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 Q's and P's frames.

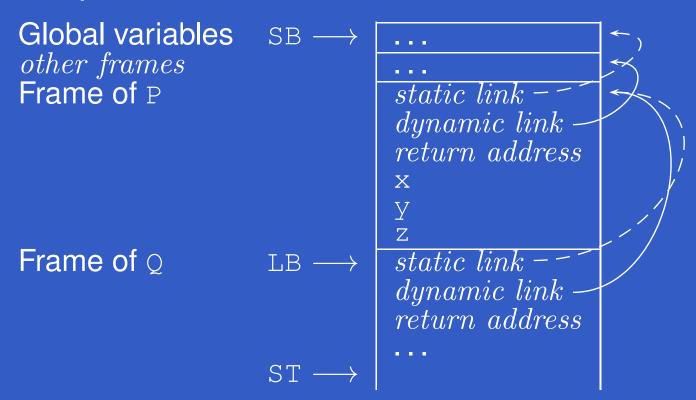
Non-Local Variable Access (4)

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.

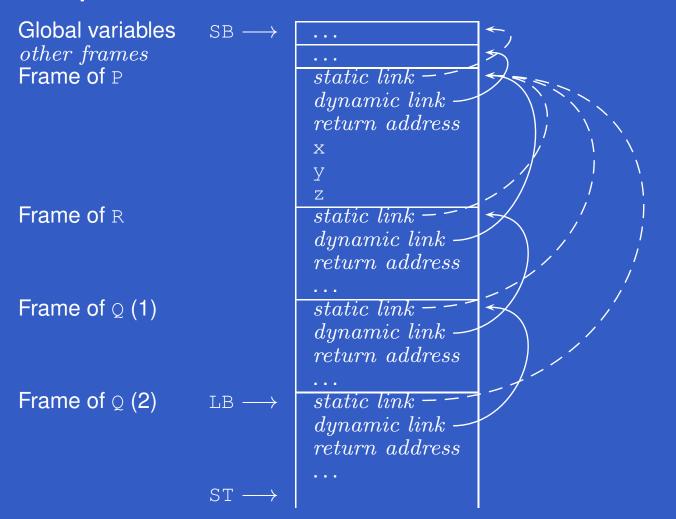
Non-Local Variable Access (5)

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



Non-Local Variable Access (6)

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



Non-Local Variable Access (7)

Consider further levels of nesting:

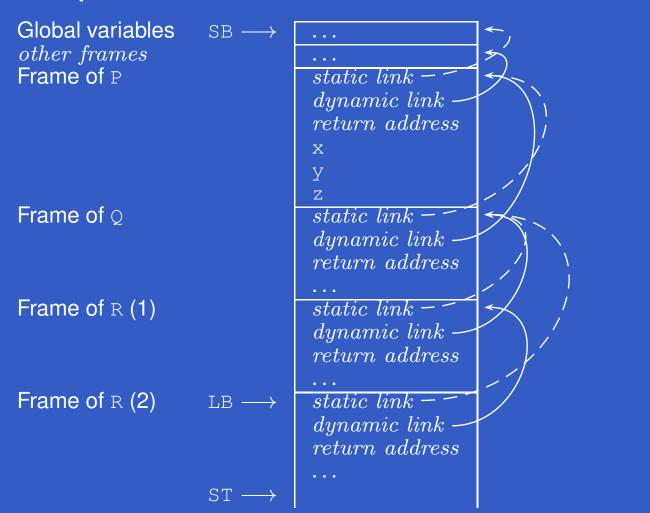
```
proc P()
  var x, y, z: Integer
  proc Q()
    proc R()
    begin ...if ... R() ... end
  begin ... R() ... end
  begin ... Q() ... end
```

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 $\rightarrow ... \rightarrow P \rightarrow Q \rightarrow R \rightarrow R$:



Non-Local Variable Access (9)

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 calle'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
CALLT
```

Non-Local Variable Access (10)

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
```