
$$E = \frac{mc^2}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

# GENEROVÁNÍ KÓDU

## 4. RUN-TIME PROSTŘEDÍ

# INTRODUCTION

## Compiler:

- implements the source language definitions,
- cooperates with the operating system and other system sw,
- creates and manages a **run-time environment**.

## **Run-time environment** deals with:

- the layout and allocation of storage locations of objects in the source program,
- linkages between procedures, passing parameters,
- ...

When writing compiler, the code for the run-time environment must also be generated and the related issues must be considered.

# NOTE. TYPICAL COMPUTER MEMORY HIERARCHY

Kind of memory	Typical access times	Typical sizes
Virtual memory (disks)	3 – 15 ms	> 16 GB
Physical memory	100 – 150 ns	156 MB – 16 GB
2 <sup>nd</sup> level cache	40 – 60 ns	128KB – 4MB
1 <sup>st</sup> level cache	5 – 10 ns	16 – 64 KB
Registers (processor)	1 ns	32 words

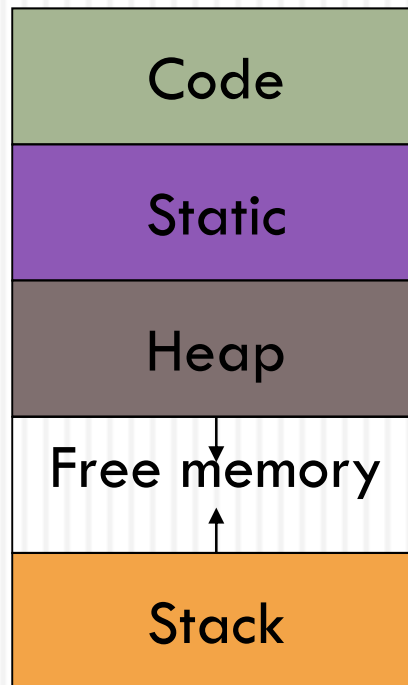


# STORAGE ORGANIZATION

# Usage of memory

- Typically, executing program runs in its own logical address space provided by the operating system. The operating system maps the logical addresses into physical addresses, which can be spread throughout memory.
- Source programming languages differ in using static and dynamic objects. Locations of static objects in memory can be known in the compile-time, whereas the locations of dynamic objects is known during run-time. There are languages:
  - with only static objects, e.g. Fortran 77
  - with both static and dynamic objects, e.g. C
  - with mostly dynamic objects, e.g. Lisp

# Typical subdivision of run-time memory



# Subdivision of run-time memory

## **Static part:**

- Objects created when program is compiled, persists throughout run. Global constants, global and static variables, data generated by a compiler, ...

## ➤ **Heap:**

- Objects created/deleted in any order during run-time.
- Heap contains dynamic variables and objects.
- In some environments, heap is maintained by an automatic garbage collection.

# Subdivision of run-time memory



## ➤ **Stack:**

- Objects created/destroyed in last-in, first-out order.
- Variables and objects local to a procedure (in so-called activation records). Stack supports call/return policy for procedures.





# Allocation of static objects

# Static objects

```
class Example {  
    public static final int a = 3;  
    public void hello() {  
        System.out.println("Hello");  
    }  
}
```

- Static class variable
- Code for hello method
- String constant "Hello"
- Information about the Example class

# Static objects

- Advantages:

- Zero-cost memory management
- Often faster access (address a constant)
- No out-of-memory danger

- Disadvantages:

- Size and number must be known beforehand



# Allocation of space in the stack

# Stack-Allocated Objects

- Natural for supporting recursion.
- Idea: some objects persist from when a procedure is called to when it returns.
- Naturally implemented with a stack: linear array of memory that grows and shrinks at only one boundary.
- Each invocation of a procedure gets its own frame (**activation record**) where it stores its own local variables and bookkeeping information.
- Calling a procedure is implemented by **calling sequence**, returning is implemented by **return sequence**.

# What to save to activation record? example

(Real C)

```
int fib(int n) {  
    if (n<2)  
        return 1;  
    else  
        return  
            fib(n-1) +  
            fib(n-2);  
}
```

(Assembly-like C)

```
int fib(int n) {  
    int tmp1, tmp2, tmp3;  
    tmp1 = n < 2;  
    if (!tmp1) goto L1;  
    return 1;  
L1: tmp1 = n - 1;  
    tmp2 = fib(tmp1);  
L2: tmp1 = n - 2;  
    tmp3 = fib(tmp1);  
L3: tmp1 = tmp2 + tmp3;  
    return tmp1;  
}
```

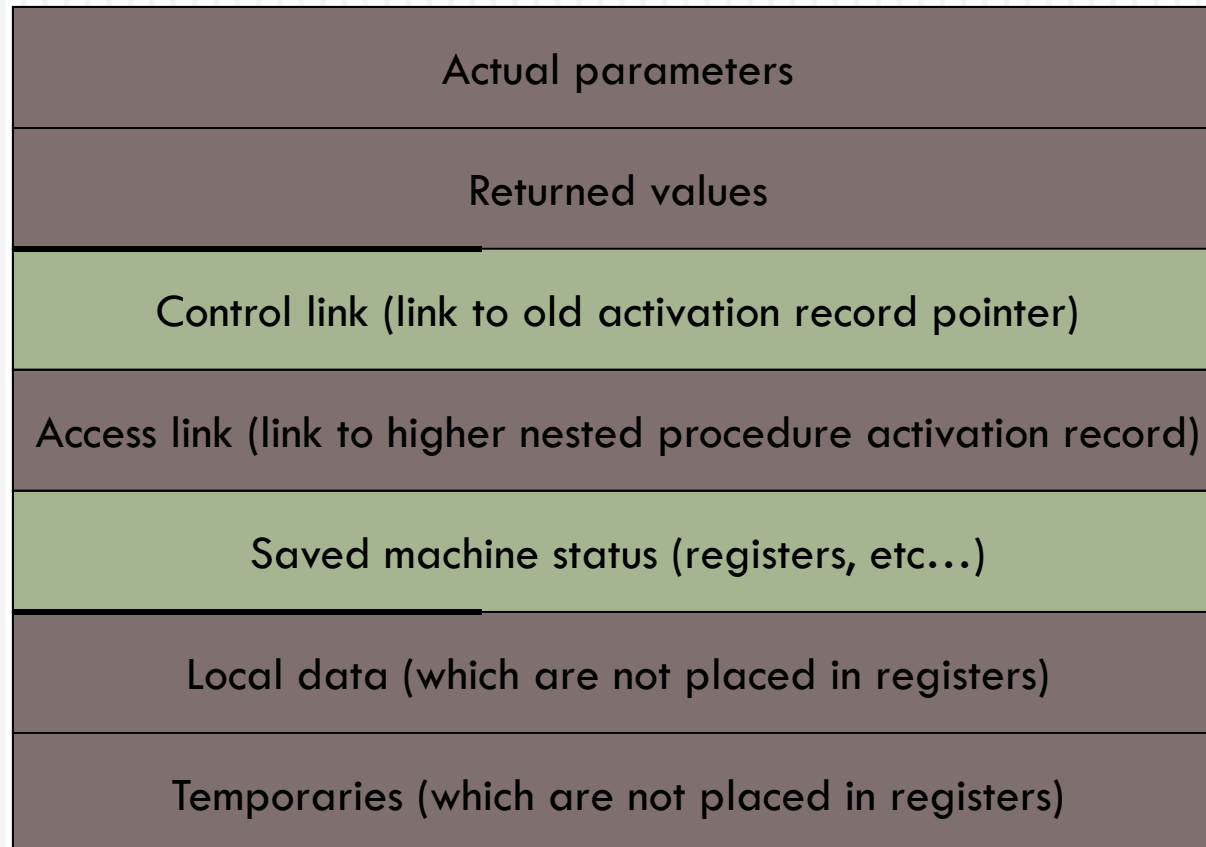
# What to save to activation record?



Programming languages differ:

- Languages without nested procedures, e.g. C
  - Simple: global variables are in the static storage. Local variables can be found in the local activation record on the top of the stack.
- Languages with nested procedures, e.g. Pascal, Lisp and functional languages in general (in Lisp a function can even create another function)
  - there must be some links among activation records.

# A general activation record

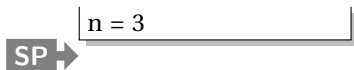




# Example



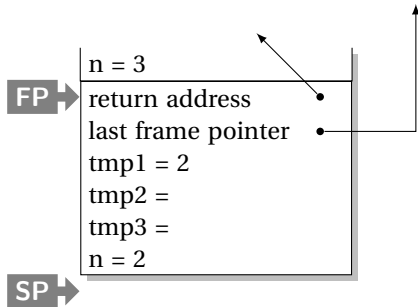
## Executing fib(3)



```
int fib(int n) {  
    int tmp1, tmp2, tmp3;  
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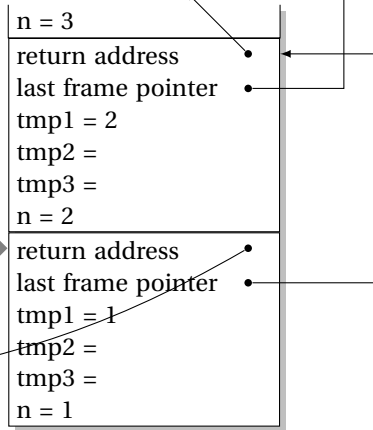


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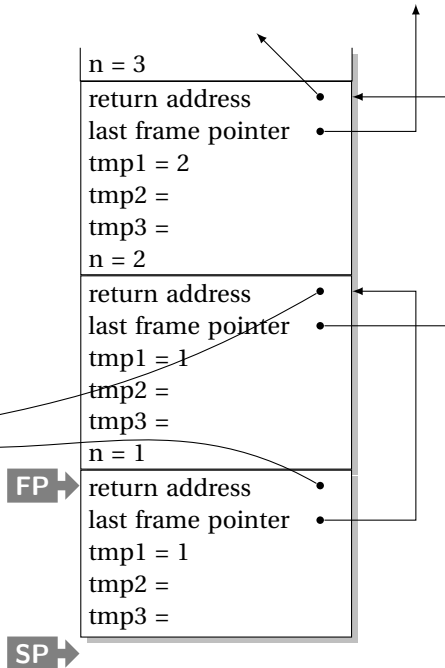
FP →

SP →



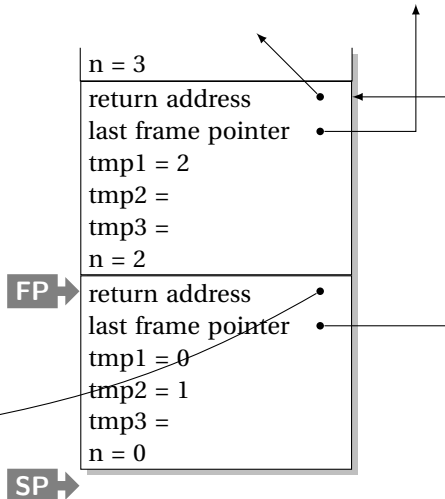
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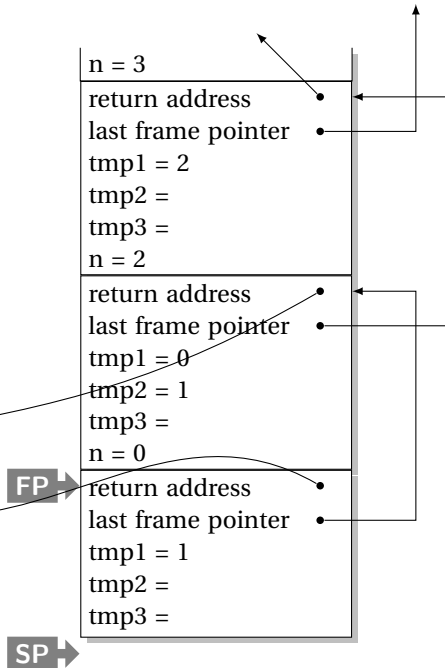
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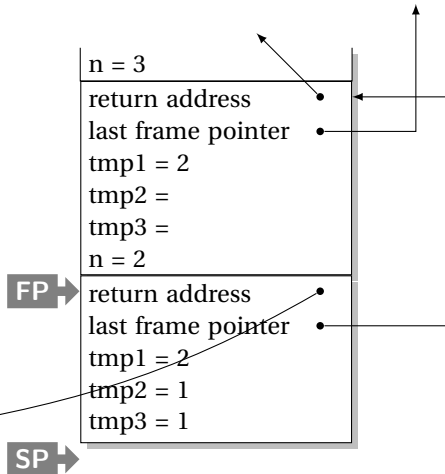
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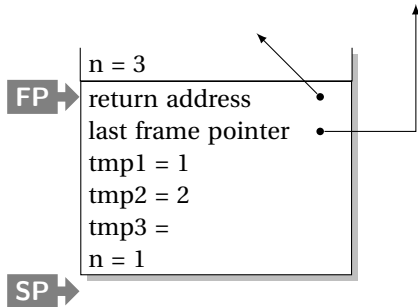
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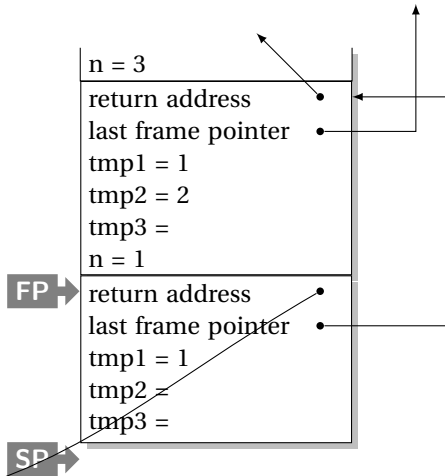
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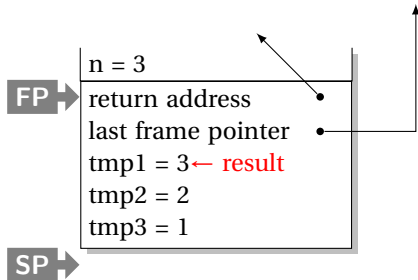
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# Passing parameters to procedures

- By value:
  - Actual value is computed and copied
  - Input parameter, behaves as local variable
- By reference:
  - Caller gives address in memory
  - Input/Output variables
- By name
  - Behaves as macro – the actual expression is inlined in the place of its use



## Allocation of space in the heap

A *heap* is a region of memory where blocks can be allocated and deallocated in any order.

(These heaps are different than those in, e.g., heapsort)

# Heap - example



# Dynamic Storage Allocation in C

```
struct point {  
    int x, y;  
};  
  
int play_with_points(int n)  
{  
    int i;  
    struct point *points;  
  
    points = malloc(n * sizeof(struct point));  
  
    for ( i = 0 ; i < n ; i++ ) {  
        points[i].x = random();  
        points[i].y = random();  
    }  
  
    /* do something with the array */  
  
    free(points);  
}
```

# Dynamic Storage Allocation





# Dynamic Storage Allocation



↓ free(  )

# Dynamic Storage Allocation



↓ free(  )



# Dynamic Storage Allocation



↓ free(  )



↓ malloc(  )

# Dynamic Storage Allocation



↓ free(  )



↓ malloc(  )



# Dynamic Storage Allocation

Rules:

- Each allocated block contiguous (no holes)

- Blocks stay fixed once allocated

`malloc()`

- Find an area large enough for requested block

- Mark memory as allocated

`free()`

- Mark the block as unallocated



# Simple Dynamic Storage Allocation

Maintaining information about free memory

Simplest: Linked list

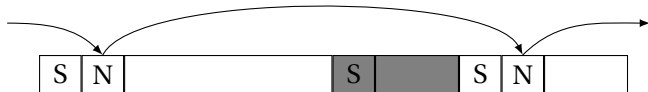
The algorithm for locating a suitable block

Simplest: First-fit

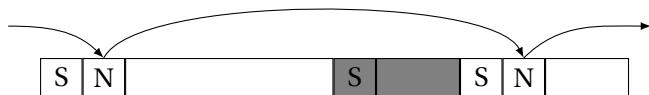
The algorithm for freeing an allocated block

Simplest: Coalesce adjacent free blocks

# Simple Dynamic Storage Allocation



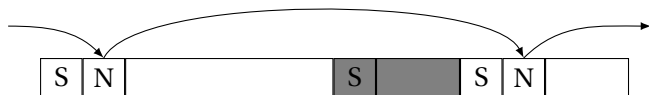
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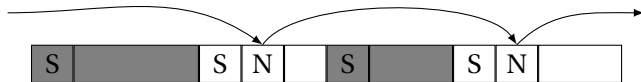
`malloc(  )`



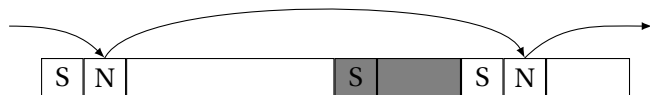
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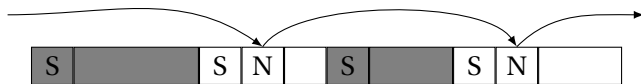
malloc(  )



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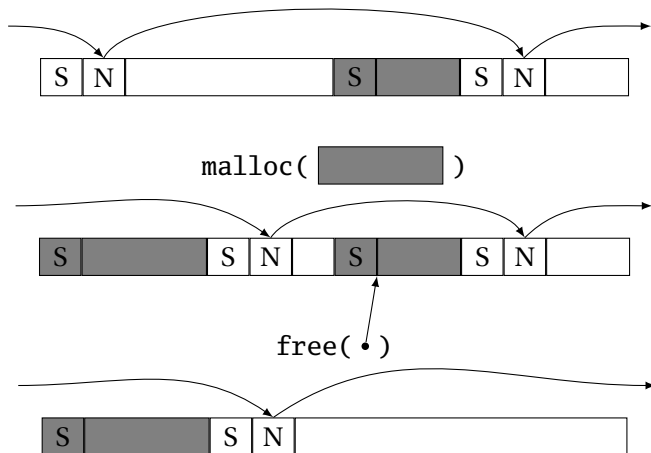


malloc(  )



free( • )

# Simple Dynamic Storage Allocation



# Dynamic Storage Allocation

Many, many other approaches.

Other “fit” algorithms

Segregation of objects by size

More clever data structures

# Heap Variants

Memory pools: Differently-managed heap areas

Stack-based pool: only free whole pool at once

- Nice for build-once data structures

Single-size-object pool:

- Fit, allocation, etc. much faster

- Good for object-oriented programs

# Fragmentation

malloc(  ) seven times give



free() four times gives



malloc(  ) ?

Need more memory; can't use fragmented memory.

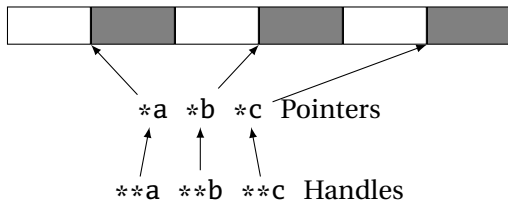
Hockey smile



# Fragmentation and Handles

Standard CS solution: Add another layer of indirection.

Always reference memory through “handles.”

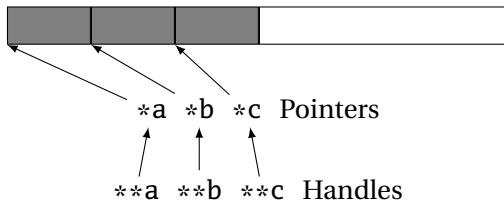


The original Macintosh did this to save memory.

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# Automatic garbage collection



- Remove the need for explicit deallocation.
- System periodically identifies reachable memory and frees unreachable memory.
- Reference counting approach.
- Many for example for curing fragmentation.