

## Script generated by TTT

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Pages: 47

A program is an expression  $e$  of the form:

$$\begin{aligned} e ::= & b \mid x \mid (\square_1 e) \mid (e_1 \square_2 e_2) \\ & \mid (\text{if } e_0 \text{ then } e_1 \text{ else } e_2) \\ & \mid (e' e_0 \dots e_{k-1}) \\ & \mid (\text{fun } x_0 \dots x_{k-1} \rightarrow e) \\ & \mid (\text{let } x_1 = e_1 \text{ in } e_0) \\ & \mid (\text{let rec } x_1 = e_1 \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } x_n = e_n \text{ in } e_0) \end{aligned}$$

An expression is therefore

- a basic value, a variable, the application of an operator, or
- a function-**application**, a function-**abstraction**, or
- a **let**-expression, i.e. an expression with **locally defined variables**, or
- a **let-rec**-expression, i.e. an expression with **simultaneously defined** local variables.

For simplicity, we only allow **int** as basic type.

## 11 The language PuF

We only regard a mini-language **PuF** ("Pure Functions").

We do not treat, as yet:

- Side effects;
- Data structures;
- Exceptions.

### Example

The following well-known function computes the factorial of a natural number:

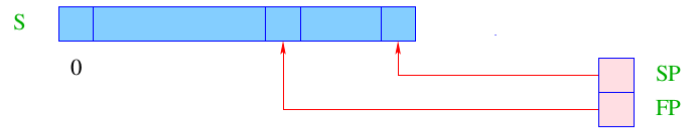
```
let rec fac = fun x → if x ≤ 1 then 1
                  else x · fac (x - 1)
in fac 7
```

As usual, we only use the minimal amount of parentheses.

There are two **Semantics**:

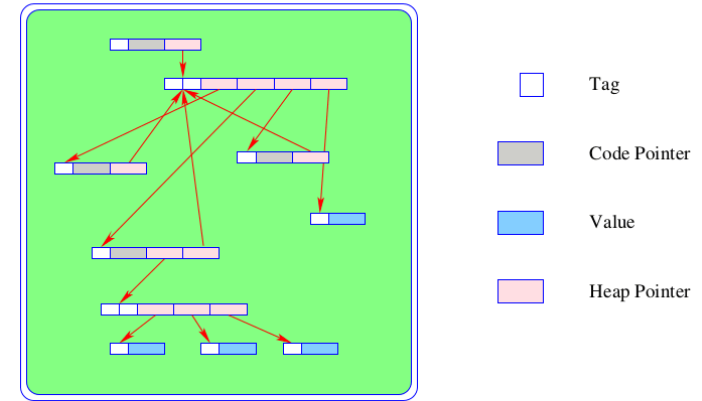
**CBV**: Arguments are evaluated **before** they are passed to the function (as in SML);

**CBN**: Arguments are passed unevaluated; they are only evaluated when their value is needed (as in Haskell).



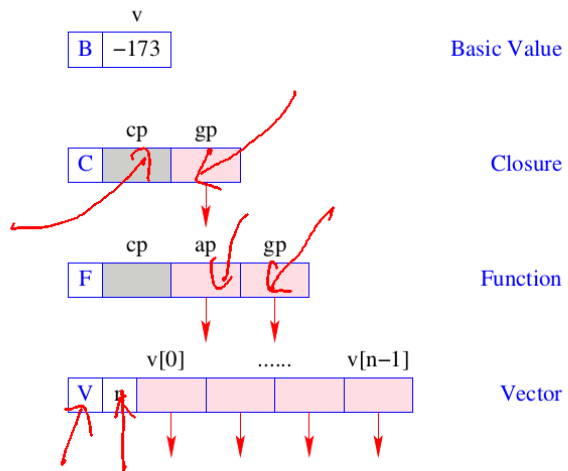
**S** = Runtime-Stack – each cell can hold a basic value or an address;  
**SP** = Stack-Pointer – points to the topmost occupied cell;  
 as in the **CMa** implicitly represented;  
**FP** = Frame-Pointer – points to the actual stack frame.

We also need a heap H:

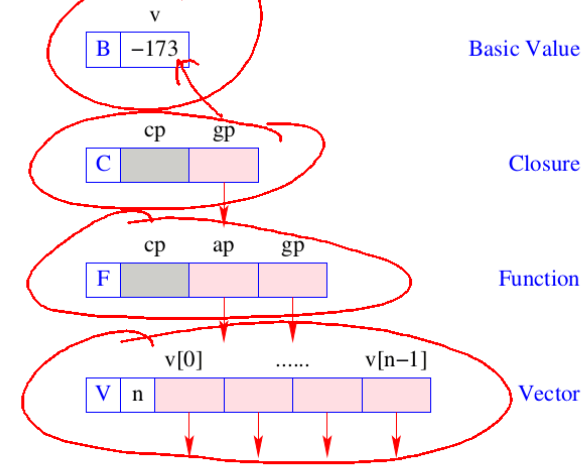


Tag  
 Code Pointer  
 Value  
 Heap Pointer

... it can be thought of as an **abstract data type**, being capable of holding data objects of the following form:



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The instruction `new (tag, args)` creates a corresponding object (B, C, F, V) in `H` and returns a reference to it.

We distinguish three different kinds of code for an expression  $e$ :

- `codeV e` — (generates code that) computes the Value of  $e$ , stores it in the heap and returns a reference to it on top of the stack (the normal case);
- `codeB e` — computes the value of  $e$ , and returns it on the top of the stack (only for Basic types);
- `codeC e` — does not evaluate  $e$ , but stores a Closure of  $e$  in the heap and returns a reference to the closure on top of the stack.

We start with the code schemata for the first two kinds:

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$$\text{code}_B(\text{if } e_0 \text{ then } e_1 \text{ else } e_2) \rho \text{ sd} = \begin{array}{l} \text{code}_B e_0 \rho \text{ sd} \\ \text{jumpz A} \\ \text{code}_B e_1 \rho \text{ sd} \\ \text{jump B} \\ \text{A: code}_B e_2 \rho \text{ sd} \\ \text{B: } \leftarrow \dots \end{array}$$

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### 13 Simple expressions

Expressions consisting only of constants, operator applications, and conditionals are translated like expressions in imperative languages:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{code}_B b \rho \text{ sd} & = & \text{loadc b} \\ \text{code}_B (\square_1 e) \rho \text{ sd} & = & \text{code}_B e \rho \text{ sd} \\ & & \text{op}_1 \\ \text{code}_B (e_1 \square_2 e_2) \rho \text{ sd} & = & \text{code}_B e_1 \rho \text{ sd} \leftarrow \\ & & \text{code}_B e_2 \rho (\text{sd} + 1) \leftarrow \\ & & \text{op}_2 \end{array}$$

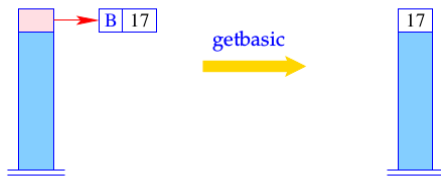
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Note:

- $\rho$  denotes the actual address environment, in which the expression is translated.
- The extra argument `sd`, the stack difference, simulates the movement of the SP when instruction execution modifies the stack. It is needed later to address variables.
- The instructions `op1` and `op2` implement the operators  $\square_1$  and  $\square_2$ , in the same way as the operators `neg` and `add` implement negation resp. addition in the CMA.
- For all other expressions, we first compute the value in the heap and then dereference the returned pointer:

$$\text{code}_B e \rho \text{ sd} = \begin{array}{l} \text{code}_V e \rho \text{ sd} \\ \text{getbasic} \end{array}$$

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```

if (H[S[SP]] != (B,_))
    Error "not basic!";
else
    S[SP] = H[S[SP]].v;

```

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```

codeB (if e0 then e1 else e2) ρ sd =
    codeB e0 ρ sd
    jumpz A
    codeB e1 ρ sd
    jump B
A: codeB e2 ρ sd
B: ...

```

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For `codeV` and simple expressions, we define analogously:

→ (8, 42)

b

```

codeV b ρ sd = loadc b; mkbasic
codeV (□1 e) ρ sd = codeB e ρ sd
                    op1; mkbasic
codeV (e1 □2 e2) ρ sd = codeB e1 ρ sd
                            codeB e2 ρ (sd + 1)
                            op2; mkbasic
codeV (if e0 then e1 else e2) ρ sd = codeB e0 ρ sd
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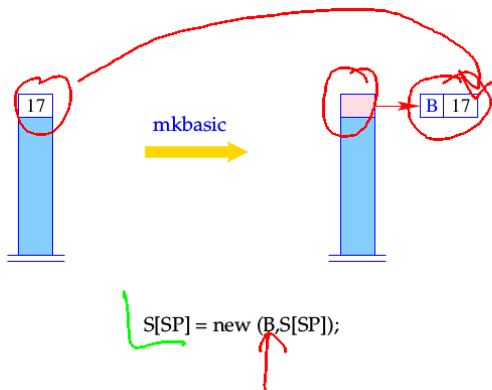
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## 14 Accessing Variables

We must distinguish between **local** and **global** variables.

**Example** Regard the function  $f$ :

```

let c = 5
in let f = fun a → let b = a * a
                    in b + c
in f c

```

The function  $f$  uses the **global** variable  $c$  and the **local** variables  $a$  (as formal parameter) and  $b$  (introduced by the inner let).

The binding of a global variable is determined, when the function is **constructed** (**static binding!**), and later only looked up.

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C | CP | GP      F | CP | AP | GP  
 Accessing Global Variables

- The bindings of global variables of an expression or a function are kept in a vector in the heap (**Global Vector**).
- They are addressed consecutively starting with 0.
- When an F-object or a C-object are constructed, the Global Vector for the function or the expression is determined and a reference to it is stored in the gp-component of the object.
- During the evaluation of an expression, the (**new**) register **GP** (**Global Pointer**) points to the actual Global Vector.
- In contrast, local variables should be administered on the stack ...

⇒ General form of the address environment:

$$\rho : \text{Vars} \rightarrow \{L, G\} \times \mathbb{Z}$$

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F<sub>1</sub> | CP | AP | GP  
 ↓ GV | --  
 F<sub>2</sub> | CP | AP | GP  
 ↓ GV |

C | CP | GP      F | CP | AP | GP

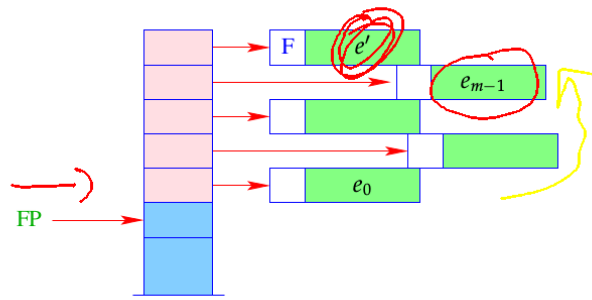
Accessing Global Variables

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⇒ General form of the address environment:

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Possible stack organisations:



- + Addressing of the arguments can be done relative to FP
- The local variables of  $e'$  cannot be addressed relative to FP.
- If  $e'$  is an  $n$ -ary function with  $n < m$ , i.e., we have an over-supplied function application, the remaining  $m - n$  arguments will have to be shifted.

Accessing Local Variables

Local variables are administered on the stack, in stack frames.

Let  $e \equiv e' e_0 \dots e_{m-1}$  be the application of a function  $e'$  to arguments  $e_0, \dots, e_{m-1}$ .

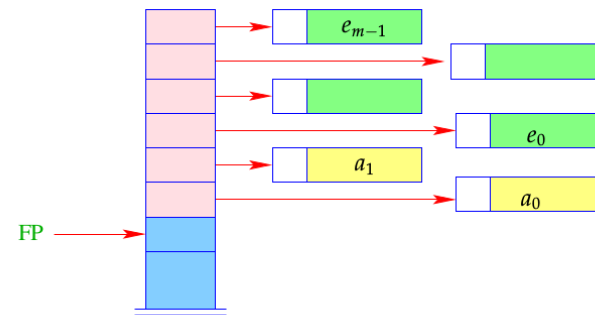
Caveat:

The arity of  $e'$  does not need to be  $m$  :-)

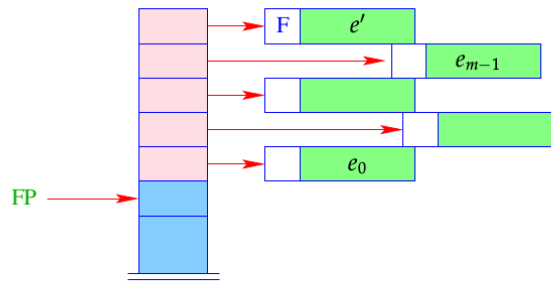
- $f$  may therefore receive less than  $n$  arguments (under supply);
- $f$  may also receive more than  $n$  arguments, if  $t$  is a functional type (over supply).

$m \supset n$

- If  $e'$  evaluates to a function, which has already been partially applied to the parameters  $a_0, \dots, a_{k-1}$ , these have to be sneaked in underneath  $e_0$ :



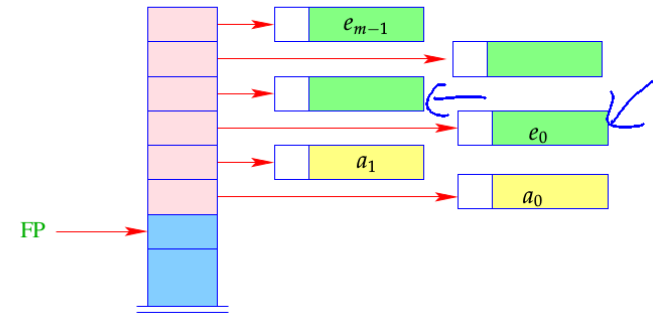
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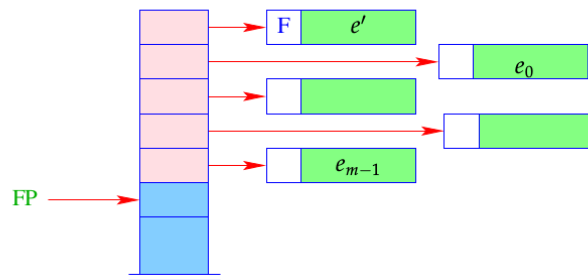
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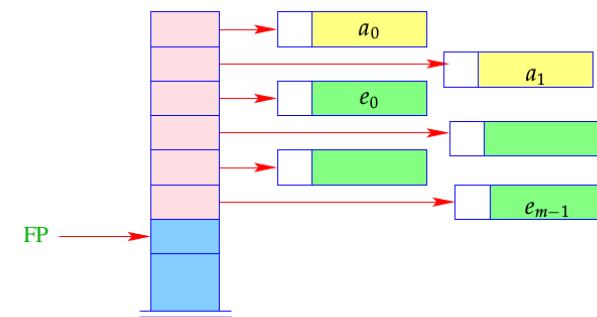
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Alternative:



- + The further arguments  $a_0, \dots, a_{k-1}$  and the local variables can be allocated above the arguments.

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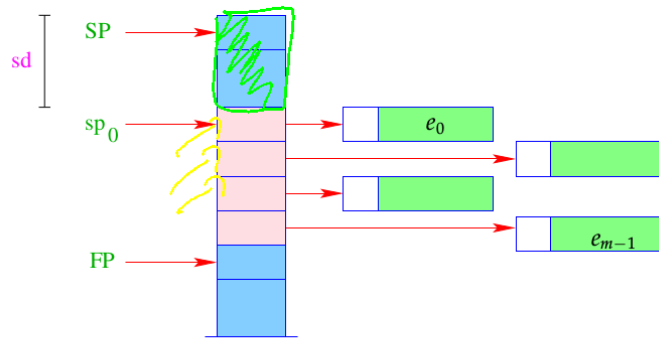


- Addressing of arguments and local variables relative to FP is no more possible. (Remember:  $m$  is unknown when the function definition is translated.)

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Way out:

- We address both, arguments and local variables, relative to the stack pointer **SP !!!**
- However, the stack pointer changes during program execution...



- The difference between the **current** value of **SP** and its value **sp<sub>0</sub>** at the entry of the function body is called the stack distance, **sd**.
- Fortunately, this stack distance can be determined at compile time for each program point, by **simulating the movement** of the **SP**.

- The formal parameters  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots$  successively receive the **non-positive** relative addresses  $0, -1, -2, \dots$ , i.e.,  $\rho x_i = (L, -i)$ .

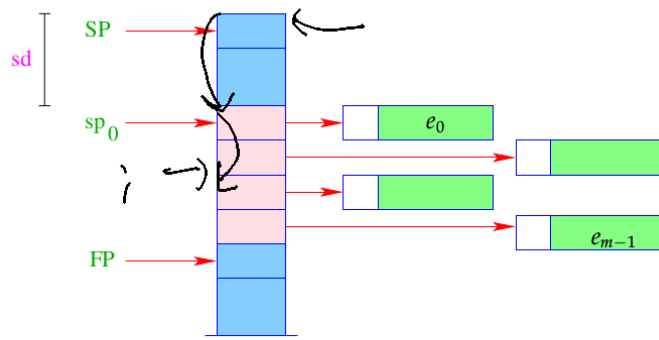
- The **absolute** address of the  $i$ -th formal parameter consequently is

$$sp_0 - i = (SP - sd) - i$$

- The local let-variables  $y_1, y_2, y_3, \dots$  will be successively pushed onto the stack:

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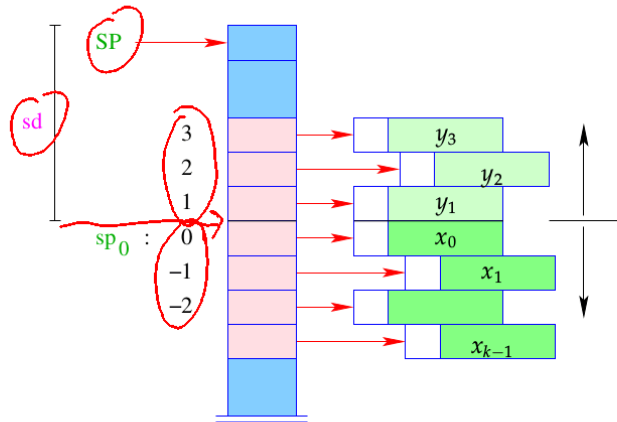
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- The  $y_i$  have **positive** relative addresses  $1, 2, 3, \dots$ , that is:  $\rho y_i = (L, i)$ .
- The absolute address of  $y_i$  is then  $sp_0 + i = (SP - sd) + i$

With **CBN**, we generate for the access to a variable:

```
codev x ρ sd = getvar x ρ sd
                eval
```

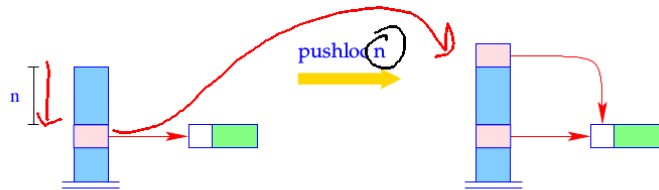
The instruction **eval** checks, whether the value has already been computed or whether its evaluation has to yet to be done (⇒ will be treated later :-)

With **CBV**, we can just delete **eval** from the above code schema.

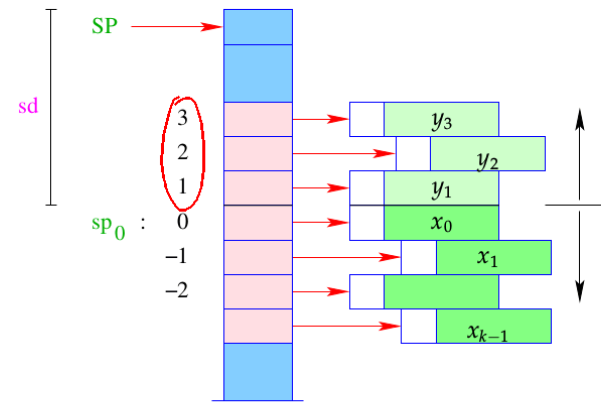
The (compile-time) macro **getvar** is defined by:

```
getvar x ρ sd = let (i, i) = ρ x in
                 match t with
                 | L → pushloc (sd - i)
                 | G → pushglob i
                 end
```

The access to local variables:

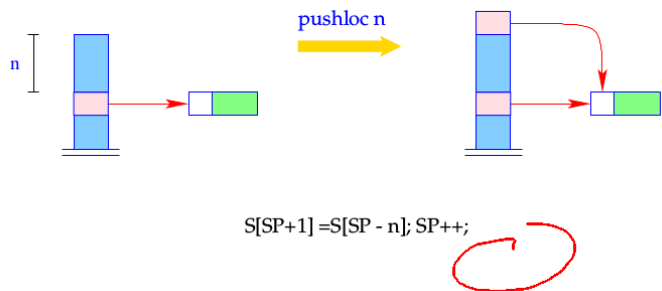


$$S[SP+1] = S[SP - n]; SP++;$$



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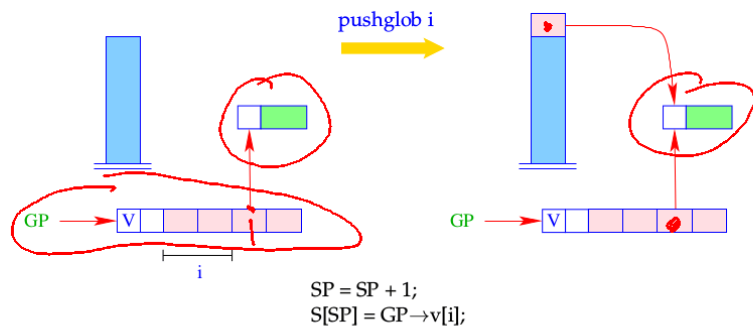
Correctness argument:

Let  $sp$  and  $sd$  be the values of the stack pointer resp. stack distance before the execution of the instruction. The value of the local variable with address  $i$  is loaded from  $S[a]$  with

$$a = sp - (sd - i) = (sp - sd) + i = sp_0 + i$$

... exactly as it should be :-)

The access to global variables is much simpler:



Example

Regard  $e \equiv (b + c)$  for  $\rho = (b \mapsto (L1), c \mapsto (G0))$  and  $sd \equiv 1$ .

With CBN, we obtain:

```

codev e ρ 1 = getvar b ρ 1 = 1 pushloc 0
              eval          2 eval
              getbasic       2 getbasic
              getvar c ρ 2    2 pushglob 0
              eval          3 eval
              getbasic       3 getbasic
              add            3 add
              mkbasic        2 mkbasic
    
```

## 15 let-Expressions

As a warm-up let us first consider the treatment of local variables :-)

Let  $e \equiv \text{let } y_1 = e_1 \text{ in } \dots \text{let } y_n = e_n \text{ in } e_0$  be a nested let-expression.

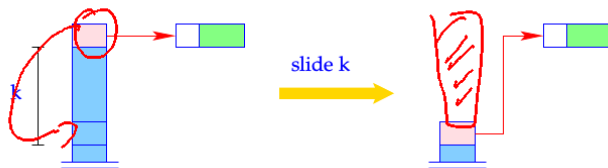
The translation of  $e$  must deliver an instruction sequence that

- allocates local variables  $y_1, \dots, y_n$ ;
- in the case of
  - CBV**: evaluates  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  and binds the  $y_i$  to their values;
  - CBN**: constructs closures for the  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  and binds the  $y_i$  to them;
- evaluates the expression  $e_0$  and returns its value.

Here, we consider the **non-recursive** case only, i.e. where  $y_j$  only depends on  $y_1, \dots, y_{j-1}$ . We obtain for **CBN**:

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The instruction **slide k** deallocates again the space for the locals:



$S[\text{SP}-k] = S[\text{SP}]$ ;  
 $\text{SP} = \text{SP} - k$ ;

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```

codeV e ρ sd = codeC e1 ρ sd
               codeC e2 ρ1 (sd + 1)
               ...
               codeC en ρn-1 (sd + n - 1)
               codeV e0 ρn (sd + n)
               slide n // deallocates local variables
    
```

where  $\rho_j = \rho \oplus \{y_i \mapsto (L, \text{sd} + i) \mid i = 1, \dots, j\}$ .

In the case of **CBV**, we use **code<sub>V</sub>** for the expressions  $e_1, \dots, e_n$ .

**Caveat!**

All the  $e_i$  must be associated with the same binding for the global variables!

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$a \mapsto (L, 1)$   
 $b \mapsto (L, 2)$

Example

Consider the expression

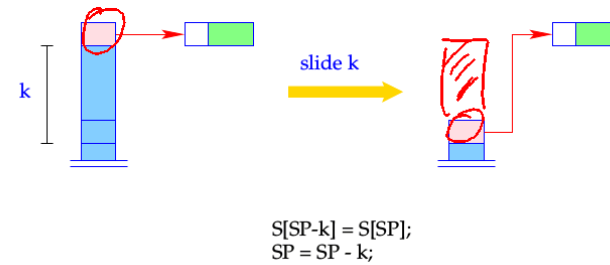
$e \equiv \text{let } a = 19 \text{ in let } b = a * a \text{ in } a + b$

for  $\rho = \emptyset$  and  $sd = 0$ . We obtain (for CBV):

|   |           |   |           |   |           |
|---|-----------|---|-----------|---|-----------|
| 0 | loadc 19  | 3 | getbasic  | 3 | pushloc 1 |
| 1 | mkbasic   | 3 | mul       | 4 | getbasic  |
| 1 | pushloc 0 | 2 | mkbasic   | 4 | add       |
| 2 | getbasic  | 2 | pushloc 1 | 3 | mkbasic   |
| 2 | pushloc 1 | 3 | getbasic  | 3 | slide 2   |

1

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