# Script generated by TTT

Title: Petter: Virtual Machines (13.05.2019)

Date: Mon May 13 10:14:35 CEST 2019

Duration: 86:53 min

Pages: 23

A program is an expression e of the form:

$$\begin{array}{lll} e & ::= & b \mid x \mid (\Box_1 \, e) \mid (e_1 \, \Box_2 \, e_2) \\ & \mid & (\text{if } e_0 \, \text{then } e_1 \, \text{else } e_2) \\ & \mid & (e' \, e_0 \dots e_{k-1}) \\ & \mid & (\text{fun } x_0 \dots \, x_{k-1} \to e) \\ & \mid & (\text{let } x_1 = e_1 \, \text{in } e_0) \\ & \mid & (\text{let rec } x_1 = e_1 \, \text{and} \dots \text{and } x_n = e_n \, \text{in } e_0) \end{array}$$

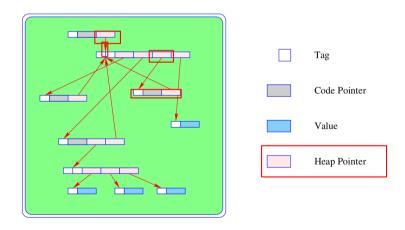
An expression is therefore

- 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

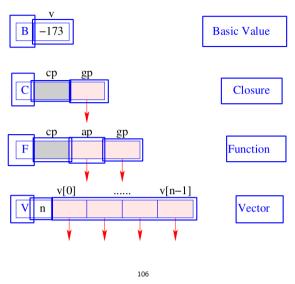
For simplicity, we only allow int as basic type.

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We also need a heap H:



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



# 13 Simple expressions

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

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:

- $code_V e$  (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);
- $code_B e$  computes the value of e, and returns it on the top of the stack (only for Basic types);
- $code_C e$  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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### Remark

- $m{
  ho}$  denotes the actual address environment, in which the expression is translated.
- The extra argument sd, the stack distance simulates the movement of the SP when instruction execution modifies the stack. It is needed later to address variables.
- The instructions op<sub>1</sub> and op<sub>2</sub> implement the operators  $\square_1$  and  $\square_2$ , in the same way as the 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:

```
code_B e \rho sd = code_V e \rho sd
getbasic
```

## 13 Simple expressions

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

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### 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 constrast, local variables should be maintained on the stack ...

General form of the address environment:

$$\rho: \mathit{Vars} \to \overbrace{\{L,G\}} \times Z$$

## 14 Accessing Variables

We must distinguish between local and global variables.

Example Regard the function f:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \mathbf{let} & c = 5 \\ \mathbf{in} \ \mathbf{let} & f = \mathbf{fun} \ a & \rightarrow & \mathbf{let} \ b = a*a \\ & & \mathbf{in} \ b + \boxed{c} \\ \mathbf{in} & f \ c & \end{array}$$

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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## Accessing Local Variables

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

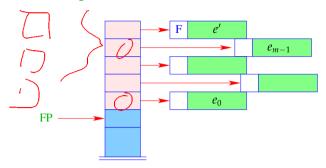
Let  $e \equiv e' \ e_0 \ \dots \ e_{m-1}$  be the application of a function e' to arguments  $e_0, \dots, e_{m-1}$ .

#### Caveat

The arity of e' does not need to be m.

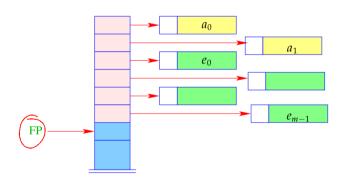
- f may therefore receive less than n arguments (under supply);
- f may also receive more than n arguments, if t is a functional type (over supply).

## Possible stack organisations



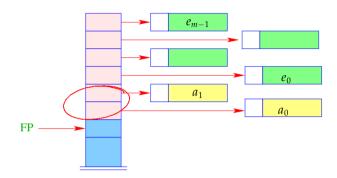
- + Addressing of the arguments can be done relative to FP
- The local variables of e' cannot be addressed relative to FP.
- If e' is an n-ary function with n < m, i.e., we have an over-supplied function application, the remaining m-n arguments will have to be shifted.

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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.)

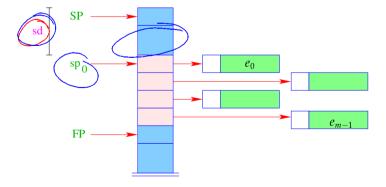
— If e' evaluates to a function, which has already been partially applied to the parameters  $a_0, \ldots, a_{k-1}$ , these have to be sneaked in underneath  $e_0$ :



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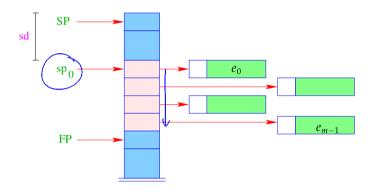
## Way out

- $\bullet$  We address both, arguments and local variables, relative to the stack pointer SP  $_{\rm III}$
- However, the stack pointer changes during program execution...



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- The differerence 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  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \ldots$  successively receive the non-positive relative addresses  $0, -1, -2, \ldots$ , i.e.,  $\rho x_i = (L, -i)$ .
- The absolute address of the *i*-th formal parameter consequently is

$$(SP - sd - i)$$

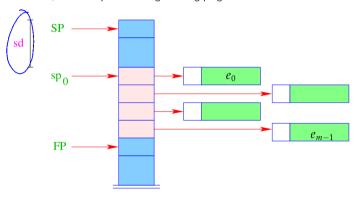
• The local **let**-variables  $y_1, y_2, y_3, \ldots$  will be successively pushed onto the stack:

## Way out

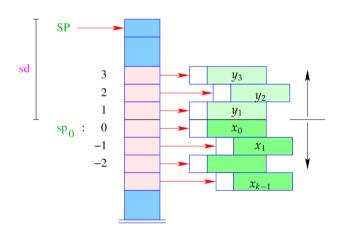
We address both, arguments and local variables, relative to the stack pointer SP

III

• However, the stack pointer changes during program execution...



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- ullet The  $y_i$  have positive relative addresses 1, 2, 3, . . . , that is:  $\rho \ y_i = (L, i)$
- The absolute address of  $y_i$  is then

## Example

Regard  $e\equiv (b+c)$  for  $\rho=\{b\mapsto (L,1),c\mapsto (G,0)\}$  and  ${\rm sd}=1.$  With CBN, we obtain:

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### 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	gethasic	3	slide 2

# 15 let-Expressions

#### rec

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

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

The translation of e must deliver an instruction sequence that

- allocates local variables  $y_1, \ldots, y_n$ ;
- in the case of

CBV: evaluates  $e_1, \ldots, e_n$  and binds the  $y_i$  to their values;

CBN: constructs closures for the  $e_1, \ldots, e_n$  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  $y_1, \ldots, y_{j-1}$ . We obtain for CBN:

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### Example

### Consider the expression

 $e \equiv \mathbf{let} \ a = 19 \ \mathbf{in} \ \mathbf{let} \ b = a * a \ \mathbf{in} \ a + b$ for  $\rho = \emptyset$  and sd = Q. We obtain (for CBV): pushloc 1 loadc 19 getbasic. mkbasic getbasic mul pushloc 0 mkbasic add mkbasic getbasic pushloc 1 pushloc 1 getbasic slide 2