



Memory Management and Run-Time Systems

Run-Time Systems Support Program Execution

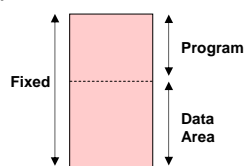


- Memory management of a program during execution. This includes allocation and de-allocation of memory cells.
- Address calculation for variable references.
- For references to non-local data, finding the right object taking scope into consideration.
- Recursion, which means that several instances of the same procedure are active (activations of a procedure) at the same time during execution.
- Dynamic language constructs, such as dynamic arrays, pointer structures, etc.
- Different sorts of parameter transfer

Two different memory management strategies: **static** and **dynamic** memory management, determined by the language to be executed.

Static Memory Management

- All data and its size must be known during compilation, i.e. the memory space needed during execution is known at compile-time.
- The underlying language has no recursion.
- Data is referenced to by absolute addresses.
- Static memory management needs no run-time support, because everything about memory management can be decided during compilation.
- An example of such a language is FORTRAN77, whereas FORTRAN90 has recursion.



Dynamic Memory Management (1)



- Data size is not known at compiler time (e.g. dynamic arrays, pointer structures)
- There is recursion
- Examples of such languages are: Pascal, C, Algol, Java,

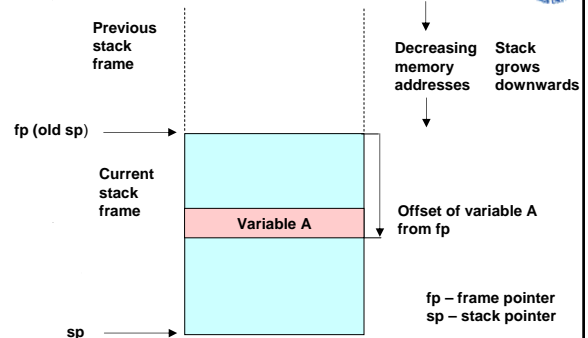
Dynamic Memory Management (2) Run-Time Support



Run-Time support is needed for languages with dynamic memory management:

- The call chain must be stored somewhere and references to non-local variables must be dealt with.
- Variables can not be referenced by absolute addresses, but by *<blockno, offset>*.
- All data belonging to a block (procedure) is gathered together in an *activation record (stack frame)*.
- At a procedure call memory is allocated on the stack and each call involves constructing an activation record.

A Stack Frame with Frame and Stack Pointers



Some Concepts (Rep.)



- **Activation**
 - Each call (execution) of a procedure is known as **activation** of the procedure.
- **Life span of an activation**
 - The life span of an activation of a procedure p lasts from the execution's first statement to the last statement in p's procedure body.
- **Recursive procedure**
 - A procedure is recursive if it can be activated again during the life span of the previous activation.
- **Activation tree**
 - An activation tree shows how procedures are activated and terminated during an execution of a program.
 - Note that a program can have different activation trees in different executions.
- **Call chain**
 - All current activations (ordered by activation time)
 - - a path in the activation tree
 - - a sequence of procedure frames on the run-time stack

Example of Activation Tree (Rep.)



```

program p;
procedure q;
...
end (* q *);

procedure r;
...
q;
end (* r *);

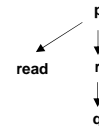
begin (* p *)
read(x);
if x = 0
then q;
else r;
end (* p *);
    
```

Two different activation trees for the program:

Activation tree when x=0



Activation tree when x≠0



Formal and Actual Parameters (Rep.)



- Arguments declared in the head of a procedure declaration are its **formal** parameters and arguments in the procedure call are its **actual** parameters.
- In the example below:
 - i: is a formal parameter
 - k: is an actual parameter

```

procedure A(i: integer);
begin (* A *)
...
A(k);
...
end (* A *);
    
```

Activation Record



All information which is needed for an activation of a procedure is put in a record which is called an activation record. The activation record remains on the stack during the life span of the procedure. An activation record contains:

- Local data
- Temporary data
- Return address
- Parameters
- Pointers to previous activation records (*dynamic link*, *control link*)
- *Static link* (*access link*) or *display* for finding the correct references to non-local data (e.g. in enclosing scopes)
- Dynamically allocated data (*dope vectors*)
- Space for a return value (where needed)
- Space for saving the contents of registers

```

procedure p1
var A: ...
...
procedure p2
... reference A
end (* p2 *)
end (* p1 *)
    
```

Typical Memory Organization (Pascal/Java-like language)



Static data

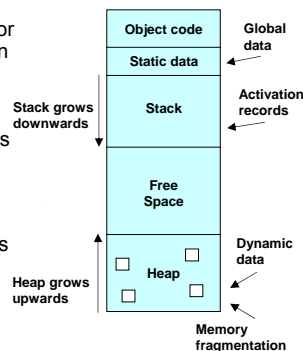
- The memory requirement for data objects must be known at compile time and the address to these objects is not changed during execution, so the addresses can be hard-coded in the object code.

Stack

- Space for activation records is allocated for each new activation of procedures.

Heap

- Allocation when necessary.



How are non-local variables referenced?



- Static link (access link)
- Display

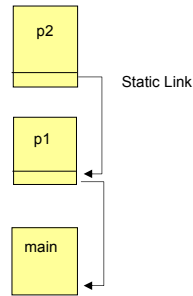
```

Example:
program prog;
var a,b,c: integer; (* Block B0, predefined vars)
...
procedure p1;
var b, c: real; (* Block B2 *)
...
procedure p2;
var c: real; (* Block B3 *)
begin
c := b+a; (* B3.c := B2.b + B1.a *)
end (* p2 *);
begin
p2;
end (* p1 *);
begin
p1;
end (* prog *).
    
```

In the procedures the variables are referenced using <blockno, offset>:
 B3.c := B2.b + B1.a
 or by using relative blocknumber:
 0.c := 1.b + 2.a
 (0: current block, 1: nearest surrounding block, etc.)

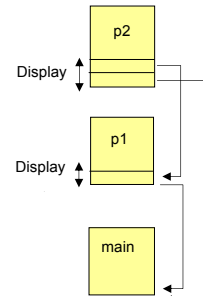
Non-local references through Static Link

- The static link is a pointer to the most recent activation record for the **textually surrounding** block
- Example. Use relative block number for statement inside procedure p2:
`0.c := 1.b + 2.a`
 For variable a follow the static link 2 steps.
- This method is practical and uses little space. With deeply nested procedures it will be slow.



Non-local references through Display

- Display is a table with pointers (addresses) to surrounding procedures' activation records.
- The display can be stored in the activation records.
- Display is faster than static link for deep nesting, but requires more space.
- Display can be slightly slower than static link for very shallow nesting.



Dynamic Link, i.e., Control Link

- Dynamic link specifies the call chain,
- Not the same as static link if there is a recursive call chain, e.g.

```

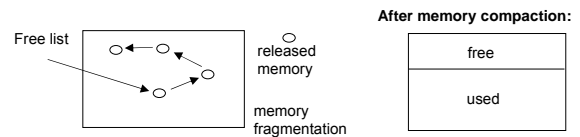
program foo;
procedure p1;
  procedure p2;
    procedure p3;
      begin (* p3 *)
        p1;
        ...
      end (* p3 *)
    begin (* p2 *)
      p3;
      ...
    end (* p2 *)
  begin (* p1 *)
    p2;
    ...
  end (* p1 *)
begin (* main *)
  p1;
end (* main *)
    
```

The stack at 2nd call for p1

(On return from p1 we continue inside p3)

Heap Allocation (Rep.)

- In some languages data can dynamically be built during execution and its size is not known (e.g. strings of variable length, lists, tree structures, etc).
- Manual memory management
 - De-allocation is **not** performed automatically as in stack allocation. Hard work, can lead to bugs.
 - Pascal: `new(p)` (*allocation*) `dispose(p)` (* deallocation*)
 - C: `p=malloc()` (*allocation*) `free(p)` (* deallocation*)
- Automatic memory management, with garbage collection (e.g. Lisp, Java)
 - De-allocation is automatic. Resource-consuming, but avoids bugs.

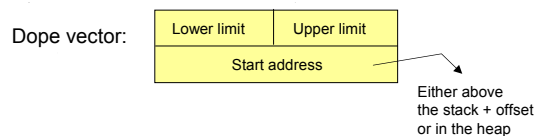


Data Storage and Referencing

- Where is data stored and how is it referenced?
 - (Semi-static) Static data can be allocated directly (consecutive in the activation record, data area).
 - Data is referenced by `<blockno, offset>`. `blockno` is specified as **nesting depth**.
- Simple variables (boolean, integer, real ...)
- These have a fixed size and are put directly into the activation record, or in registers.
- Static arrays
 - Fixed number of elements, i.e. size is known at compile time.
 Example: `A: array[1..100] of integer;`
 - Stored directly in the activation record.

Dynamic Arrays

- The size is unknown at compile time:
 - Example: `B: array[1..max] of integer;`
 - `max` not known at compile time.
- *Dope vector* (data descriptor) is used for dynamic arrays. Dope vectors are stored in the activation record.



Dynamic Arrays and Block Structures in ALGOL (1)

```

PROCEDURE A(X,Y); INTEGER X, Y;
L1: BEGIN REAL Z;          (block B1)
    ARRAY B[X:Y];
    L2: BEGIN REAL D,E;
        L3: ...
        END;
    L4: BEGIN ARRAY A[1:X];
        L5: BEGIN REAL E;
            L6: ...
            END;
        L7: END;
    L8: END;

```

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Dynamic Arrays and Block Structures in ALGOL (2)

```

PROCEDURE A(X,Y); INTEGER X, Y;
L1: BEGIN REAL Z;          (block B1)
    ARRAY B[X:Y];
    L2: BEGIN REAL D,E;
        L3: ...
        END;
    L4: BEGIN ARRAY A[1:X];
        L5: BEGIN REAL E;
            L6: ...
            END;
        L7: END;
    L8: END;

```

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Dynamic Arrays and Block Structures in ALGOL (3)

```

PROCEDURE A(X,Y); INTEGER X, Y;
L1: BEGIN REAL Z;          (block B1)
    ARRAY B[X:Y];
    L2: BEGIN REAL D,E;
        L3: ...
        END;
    L4: BEGIN ARRAY A[1:X];
        L5: BEGIN REAL E;
            L6: ...
            END;
        L7: END;
    L8: END;

```

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Parameter Passing (1) (Rep.) Call by Reference

- There are different ways of passing parameters in different programming languages. Here are four of the most common methods:
 - Call by reference (Call by location)**
 - The address to the actual parameter, *l-value*, is passed to the called routine's AR
 - The actual parameter's value can be changed.
 - Causes aliasing.
 - The actual parameter must have an l-value.
 - Example: Pascal's **VAR** parameters, reference parameters in C++. In Fortran, this is the only kind of parameter.

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Parameter Passing (2) (Rep.) Call by Value

- 2. Call by value**
 - The value of the actual parameter is passed
 - The actual parameter cannot change value
- Example: Pascal's non-**VAR** parameters, found in most languages (e.g. C, C++, Java)

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Parameter Passing (3) (Rep.) Call by value-result (hybrid)

- 3. Call by value-result (hybrid)**
 - The value of the actual parameter is calculated by the calling procedure and is copied to AR for the called procedure.
 - The actual parameter's value is not affected during execution of the called procedure.
 - At return the value of the formal parameter is copied to the actual parameter, if the actual parameter has an l-value (e.g. is a variable).
- Found in Ada.

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Parameter Passing (4) (Rep.) Call by Name



4. Call by name

- Similar to macro definitions
- No values calculated or passed
- The whole expression of the parameter is passed as a procedure without parameters, a *thunk*.
- Calculating the expression is performed by evaluating the thunk each time there is a reference to the parameter.
- Some unpleasant effects, but also general/powerful.

- Found in Algol, Mathematica, Lazy functional languages

Example of Using the Four Parameter Passing Methods: (Rep.)



```

procedure swap(x, y : integer); ...
var temp : integer;           i := 1;
begin                         a[i]:=10; (* a: array[1..5]
  temp := x;                  of integer *)
  x := y;                     print(i, a[i]);
  y := temp;                  swap(i, a[i]);
end (*swap*);                 print(i, a[i]);
    
```

Results from the 4 parameter passing methods
Printouts from the print statements in the above example

Call by reference	Call by value	Call by value-result	Call by name
1 10	1 10	1 10	1 10
10 1	1 10	10 1	Error!

Reason for the Error in the Call-by-name Example



The following happens:

```

x = text('i');
y = text('a[i]');
    
```

```

temp := i;      (* => temp:=1 *)
i := a[i];     (* => i:=10 since a[i]=10 *)
a[i] := temp;  (* => a[10]:=1 => index out of bounds *)
    
```

Note: This error does not occur in lazy functional languages using call-by-name since side-effects are not allowed.

Static Memory Management E.g. Fortran77 and (partly) CUDA/C on NVIDIA



- No procedure nesting, i.e., no block structure.
 - ⇒ References to variables locally or globally.
 - ⇒ No displays or static links needed.
- No recursion (⇒ stack not needed).
- All data are static (⇒ heap not needed).
- All memory is allocated **statically**
 - ⇒ variables are referenced by absolute address.
 - The data area (i.e. the activation record) is often placed with the code.
 - Inefficient for allocating space for objects which are perhaps used only a short time during execution.
 - But execution is efficient in that all addresses are placed and ready in the object code

Static Memory Allocation and Procedure Call/Return for Fortran77



```

SUBROUTINE SUB(J)
  I = 1
  J = I+3*J
END
    
```

Return address
I
J
Temp
...
Code for SUB
...

- **At procedure call**
 1. Put the addresses (or values) of the actual parameters in the data area.
 2. Save register contents.
 3. Put return address in the data area.
 4. Execute the routine.
- **On return:**
 1. Re-set the registers.
 2. Jump back.

Memory management in Algol, Pascal, C, C++, Java



- **Language Properties:**
 - Nested procedures/blocks (PASCAL, ALGOL)
 - Dynamic arrays (ALGOL, C++, Java, ...)
 - Recursion
 - Heap allocation (PASCAL, C, C++, Java, ...)
- **Problems:**
 - References to non-local variables (solved by display or static link)
 - Call-by-name (ALGOL, Lazy Functional Languages)
 - Dynamic arrays (*dope vector*)
 - Procedures as parameters

Events when Procedure P Calls Q



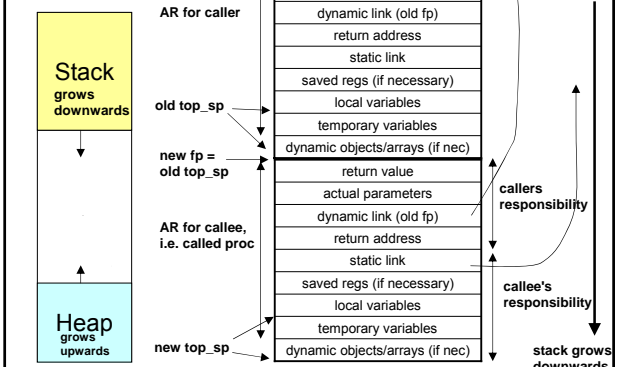
At call:

- P already has an AR (activation record) on the stack
- P's responsibility:
 - Allocate space for Q's AR.
 - Evaluate actual parameters and put them in Q's AR.
 - Save return address and dynamic links (i.e. top_sp) in new (Q's) AR.
 - Update (increment) top_sp.
- Q's responsibility:
 - Save register contents and other status info.
 - Initialise own local data and start to execute.

At return:

- Q's responsibility
 - Save return value in own AR (NB! P can access the return value after the jump).
 - Reset the dynamic link and register contents, ...
 - Q finishes with return to P's code.
- P's Responsibility
 - P collects the return value from Q, despite update of top_sp.

At Calls Stack and Heap



Procedure Call/Return in Algol, Pascal, C, ...



At call:

1. Space for activation record is allocated on the stack.
2. Display / static link is set.
3. Move the actual parameters.
4. Save implicit parameters (e.g. registers).
5. Save return address.
6. Set dynamic link.
7. Execute the routine.

At return:

1. Reset dynamic link.
2. Reset the registers
3. Reset display / static link
4. Jump back.