Programs as data Interpretation vs compilation, stack machines

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Plan for today

- F# polymorphic functions and types
- Concepts:
 - free and bound variables and occurrences
 - closed expressions
 - substitution
- Interpreters and compilers
- Compilation of expressions
 - Replace names by indices (numbers)
 - To stack machine code, without variables
 - To stack machine code, with variables
- The Postscript language



F# polymorphic functions



Same as a generic method in Java or C#

static int Count<T>(IEnumerable<T> xs) { ... }



F# polymorphic types



• Same as a generic **type** in Java or C#:

```
class ArrayList<T> { ... }
interface IEnumerable<T> { ... }
struct Pair<T,U> { ... }
delegate R Func<A,R>(A x);
```



Kinds of polymorphism

- *Parametric polymorphism*, as in ML, F#, Java and C#:
 - The type variable 'a stands for an arbitrary type
 - A parametric polymorphic function works the same way regardless what the type variable stands for
- *Bounded parametric polymorphism*, as in Java, C#:
 - The type variable T stands for a type with certain properties
 - For instance, a List<T> is printable if all its elements are:

```
class List<T> : IPrintable where T : IPrintable { ... }
```

- Ad hoc polymorphism, or overloading:
 - Java operator (+) works on int, double, String but not boolean
- Virtual method calls are sometimes said to be `polymorphic`

```
Vehicle v = getMyVehicle();
... v.getWeight() ...
May call getWeight()
on Bike, Car, Tank, ...
```

- A parametric polymorphic type is an assertion about a function
 - What terminating pure F# function has type 'a -> 'a ??
 - What terminating pure F# function has type 'a * 'b -> 'b * 'a ??

Polymorphic functions on polymorphic types

- Return the tree's node values in pre-order
 first root, then left subtree, then right subtree
- Works on any type of tree
- What is the type of this function?



Accumulating parameters

- The append (@) operation may be slow
- A faster version of preorder, no append!



- Function preorder2 is correct because:
 preo t acc = preorder1 t @ acc
- and therefore:

preorder2 t = preo t [] = preorder1 t

Proof, by induction on the tree

- Case t = Lf:
 - preo Lf acc
 - = acc
 - = [] @ acc
 - = preorder1 Lf @ acc
- Case t = Br(v, t1, t2):
 - preo (Br(v, t1, t2)) acc
 - = v :: preo t1 (preo t2 acc)
 - = v :: preo t1 (preorder1 t2 @ acc)
 - = v :: preorder1 t1 @ (preorder1 t2 @ acc)
 - = (v :: preorder1 t1 @ preorder1 t2) @ acc
 - = preorder1 (Br(v, t1, t2)) @ acc

Ikke pensum, bare nyttigt...

Set operations in F#

- We represent a set as a list without duplicates; simple but inefficient for large sets
- The empty set Ø is represented by []
- Set membership: $x \in vs$

```
let rec mem x vs =
   match vs with
   [] -> false
   | v::vr -> x=v || mem x vr;;
```

```
> mem 42 [2; 5; 3];;
val it : bool = false
> mem 42 [];;
val it : bool = false
> mem 42 [2; 67; 42; 5];;
val it : bool = true
```

Set union and difference in F#

• Set union: $A \cup B$

Set difference: A \ B





Let("z", CstI 17, Prim("+", Var "z", Var "z"))

How represent

```
let z=x in z+x
let z=3 in let y=z+1 in z+y
let z=(let x=4 in x+5) in z*2
```

Evaluation of expressions with let



- To evaluate "let x=erhs in ebody":
 - Evaluate erhs in given environment to get xval
 - Extend env with binding (x, xval) binding to get env1
 - Evaluate ebody in env1

Concepts:

Free and bound variable occurrences

- A variable occurrence x is *bound* if it is in the ebody of a binding let x=erhs in ebody
- Otherwise it is *free*
- Which occurrences are bound and which free here: let z=x in z+x let z=3 in let y=z+1 in x+y let z=(let x=4 in x+5) in z*2 let z=(let x=4 in x+5) + x in z*2
- A variable is *free* if it has some free occurrence
- Usually, a program must have no free variables...
- (... in C it may, but then must be bound by linking)



Finding the set of free variables

```
let rec freevars e : string list =
  match e with
  | CstI i -> []
  | Var x -> [x]
  | Let(x, erhs, ebody) ->
    union (freevars erhs, minus (freevars ebody, [x]))
  | Prim(ope, e1, e2) -> union (freevars e1, freevars e2)
```

An expression is *closed* if it has no free variables

let closed e = (freevars e = [])



Substitution: replace free variables

- The substitution [(5-4)/z](y*z) replaces free z by expression (5-4) in expr. (y*z)
- The result is (y*(5-4))
- Think of [(5-4)/z] as an environment that maps z to (5-4)
 Like [("z", Prim("-", CstI 5, CstI 4))]
- A variable not mentioned maps to itself:

```
let rec lookOrSelf env x =
  match env with
    [] -> Var x
    [(y, e)::r -> if x=y then e else lookOrSelf r x;;
```

Substitution, continued

- Substitution affects only free occurrences of z
- So what is the expected result of [(5-4)/z](let z=22 in y*z end)??
- And what is the expected result of [(5-4)/z](z + let z=22 in y*z end)??
- Remove z from environment when processing body Of let z = rhs in body end



Naive implementation of substitution

• Substitution recursively transforms expr. e:



Apparently this works:

> let e6 = Prim("+", Var "y", Var "z");;
> let e6s2 = nsubst e6 [("z", Prim("-", CstI 5, CstI 4))];;
val e6s2 : expr = Prim ("+",Var "y",Prim ("-",CstI 5,CstI 4))

Also [(5-4)/z](let z=22 in y*z end) gives
 let z=22 in y*z end as it should

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recursively in operands

Problem: Capture of free variables

- But replacing y by z, as in [z/y](let z=22 in y*z end) gives let z=22 in z*z end
- The free variable z that was substituted in for variable y was *captured* by let z=...
- In a substitution [e/y]... free variables in e should remain free



Capture-avoiding substitution

- To avoid capture of new free variables, rename existing bound variables
- Easy: Invent fresh names, substitute for old

```
let rec subst (e : expr) (env : (string * expr) list) : expr =
    match e with
    | CstI i -> e
    | Var x -> lookOrSelf env x
                                       rename bound
    | Let(x, erhs, ebody) \rightarrow
                                         variable x
      let news = newVar x
      let newenv = (x, Var newx) :: remove env x
      Let(newx, subst erhs env, subst ebody newenv)
    | Prim(ope, e1, e2) -> Prim(ope, subst e1 env, subst e2 env)
let newVar : string -> string =
                                        make fresh variables
    let n = ref 0
    let varMaker x = (n := 1 + !n; x + string (!n))
   varMaker
```

Interpretation and compilation

• Interpretation = one-stage execution/evaluation:



• Compilation = two-stage execution/evaluation:



Why compilation?

- Better correctness and safety. The compiler can:
 - check that all names are defined: classes, methods, fields, variables, types, functions, ...
 - check that the names have the correct type
 - check that it is legal to refer to them (not private etc)
 - improve the code, e.g. inline calls to private methods
- Better performance
 - The compiler checks are performed once, but the machine code gets executed again and again
- Why *not* compilation?
 - Compilation reduces flexibility by imposing static type checks and static name binding
 - Web programming often requires more flexibility
 - ... hence PHP, Python, Ruby, JavaScript, VB.NET, ...



Replacing variable names with indices

- After compilation, there are no variable names, only indices (locations), at runtime
- Instead of symbolic names:

```
Let("z", CstI 17, Prim("+", Var "z", Var "z"))
```

we shall use variable indexes:



• Index = number of let-bindings to cross:

Let("z", CstI 17, Let("y", CstI 25, Prim("+", Var "z", Var "y")))

Indexes instead of variable names

• We shall compile to this "target" language:





Evaluating texprs

 The runtime environment of a texpr is a list of values – not (name, value) pairs



Replacing variable names with indices

```
let rec getindex vs x =
    match vs with
      | [] -> failwith "Variable not found"
      | y::yr \rightarrow if x=y then 0 else 1 + getindex yr x;;
let rec tcomp (e : expr) (cenv : string list) : texpr =
   match e with
   | CstI i -> TCstI i
   | Var x -> TVar (getindex cenv x)
   | Let(x, erhs, ebody) \rightarrow
     let cenv1 = x :: cenv
     in TLet(tcomp erhs cenv, tcomp ebody cenv1)
   | Prim(ope, e1, e2) -> TPrim(ope, tcomp e1 cenv, tcomp e2 cenv)
      let z=3 in let y=z+1 in z+y
                                     ["y"; "z"]
                       ["z"]
        []
```

• What if the expression e is not closed?

Binding-times in the environment

- Run-time environment in expr interpreter:
 [("y", 4); ("z", 3)]
- Compile-time environment in expr compiler:
 ["y"; "z"]
- Run-time environment of texpr "machine":
 [4; 3]
- The interpreter runtime environment splits to
 - A compile-time environment in the compiler
 - A runtime environment in the "machine"
- We meet such "binding-time" separation again later...



Towards more machine-like code

- Consider expression 2 * 3 + 4 * 5
- Write it in *postfix*: 2 3 * 4 5 * +
- This is sequential code for a *stack machine*:

Instructions:	Stack contents:
2 3 * 4 5 * +	2
3 * 4 5 * +	2 3
* 4 5 * +	6
4 5 * +	64
5 * +	645
* +	6 20
+	26

10-minute exercises

• What is the postfix of

• Evaluate the postfix versions using a stack



Expression stack machine without variables

Instruction	Stack before	Stack after	Effect
RCSTI n	S	s, n	Push const
RADD	s, n1, n2	s, n1+n2	Add
RSUB	s, n1, n2	s, n1-n2	Subtract
RMUL	s, n1, n2	s, n1*n2	Multiply
RDUP	S, V	S, V, V	Duplicate top elem
RSWAP	s, v1, v2	s, v2, v1	Swap





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Compilation of expr to stack machine code

- A constant i compiles to code [RCst i]
- An operator application **e1+e2** compiles to:
 - code for operand e1
 - code for operand **e2**
 - code for the operator +

rcomp (Prim("+", Prim("*", CstI 2, CstI 3), CstI 4));;
val it : rinstr list = [RCstI 2; RCstI 3; RMul; RCstI 4; RAdd]

Stack machine (without variables)

• A direct implementation of state transitions:



Concepts

An expression e is compiled to a sequence of instructions

• Net effect principle:

- The *net effect* of executing the instructions is to leave the expression's value on the stack
- Compiler correctness relative to interpreter
 - Executing the compiled code gives the same result as executing the original expression
 - That is:

reval (rcomp e []) [] equals eval e []



How store (let-bound) variables?

- Idea: Put them in the stack! Classic, 1960'es
- So stack contains mixture of
 - intermediate results (as before)
 - values of bound variables
- To get a variable's value, index off the stack top
- Example: 2 * let x=3 in x+4 end
- Code: 2 3 SVAR(0) 4 SADD SSWAP SPOP SMUL

		Inst	ructio	ons:	Stack:
2 3 SVAR (0) 4 SZ	ADD SSWAP	SPOP	SMUL	2
3 SVAR (0) 4 SZ	ADD SSWAP	SPOP	SMUL	2 3
SVAR (0) 4 SZ	ADD SSWAP	SPOP	SMUL	2 3 3
	4 SZ	ADD SSWAP	SPOP	SMUL	2 3 3 4
Value of let-	SZ	ADD SSWAP	SPOP	SMUL	2 3 7
rhs is nut		SSWAP	SPOP	SMUL	273
on stack ton			SPOP	SMUL	27
UT SLACK LUP	Mus	t be remo	oved	SMUL	14
	af	ter let-bo	dy		

Expression stack machine with variables

Instruction	Stack before	Stack after	Effect
SCSTI n	S	s, n	Push const
SVAR x	S	s, s[x]	Index into stack
SADD	s, n1, n2	s, n1+n2	Add
SSUB	s, n1, n2	s, n1-n2	Subtract
SMUL	s, n1, n2	s, n1*n2	Multiply
SPOP	S, V	S	Remove top elem
SSWAP	s, v1, v2	s, v2, v1	Swap



Stack machine (with vars) in F#

```
type sinstr =
  | SCstI of int
  | SVar of int
  | SAdd
  | SSub
  | Smul
  | Spop
  | SSwap
```

This **seval** "machine" combines

- teval: variables as indices
- reval: stack machine code

Compiling to the seval "machine"

• The compile-time env. must distinguish between intermediate results and let-bound variables:

```
type stackvalue =
  | Value
                                         (* A computed value *)
  | Bound of string;;
                                         (* A bound variable *)
let rec scomp (e:expr) (cenv : stackvalue list) : sinstr list =
 match e with
  | CstI i -> [SCstI i]
  | Var x -> [SVar (getindex cenv (Bound x))]
  | Let(x, erhs, ebody) \rightarrow
    scomp erhs cenv @ scomp ebody (Bound x :: cenv)
                    @ [SSwap; SPop]
  | Prim("+", e1, e2) ->
    scomp e1 cenv @ scomp e2 (Value :: cenv) @ [SAdd]
  | Prim("-", e1, e2) ->
    scomp e1 cenv @ scomp e2 (Value :: cenv) @ [SSub]
  | Prim("*", e1, e2) ->
    scomp e1 cenv @ scomp e2 (Value :: cenv) @ [SMul]
  | Prim -> failwith "scomp: unknown operator";;
```

The compile-time environment

- The compile-time environment keeps track of variable positions in the stack
- The compile-time environment is a stack; an abstraction of the run-time stack

Position in expression:	Compile-time env:
2*	TEMP
2*let x=3 in	TEMP x
2*let x=3 in x+	TEMP x TEMP
2*let x=3 in x+4 end	TEMP



seval stack machine in Java (almost C)

```
while (pc < code.length)
  switch (instr = code[pc++]) {
  case SCST:
    stack[sp+1] = code[pc++]; sp++; break;
  case SVAR:
    stack[sp+1] = stack[sp-code[pc++]]; sp++; break;
  case SADD:
    stack[sp-1] = stack[sp-1] + stack[sp]; sp--; break;
  case SSUB:
    stack[sp-1] = stack[sp-1] - stack[sp]; sp--; break;
  case SMUL:
    stack[sp-1] = stack[sp-1] * stack[sp]; sp--; break;
  case SPOP:
    sp--; break;
                                  code : int[]
  case SSWAP:
                                  pc = program counter, points into code
    { int tmp = stack[sp];
                                  stack : int[]
      stack[sp] = stack[sp-1];
                                  sp = stack pointer, points into stack
      stack[sp-1] = tmp;
     break; }
  default:
    throw new RuntimeException("Illegal instruction");
}
```

Stack machines everywhere

- Burroughs B5000 (1961)
- Forth virtual machine (1970)
- P-code, UCSD Pascal (1977)
- Western Digital Pascal microEngine
- Postscript (1984)
- Java Virtual Machine (1994)
- picoJava JVM core
- .NET Common Language Runtime (1999)
- ARM Jazelle instructions (2005)
- Intel cpu stack pointer prediction
- ... zillions of others





hardware

hardware

hardware

Postscript (.ps) is a postfix, stack-based language

• A Postscript printer is an interpreter:



Reading and homework

- This week's lecture:
 - PLC chapter 2
 - Exercises 2.2, 2.3, 2.4, 2.8
 - Send zip-file BPRD-02-Dit-Navn.zip to drc@itu.dk
 no later than Wednesday 12 September
- Next week's lecture:
 - PLC chapter 3
 - Mogensen ICD 2011 sections 1.1-1.8, 2.1-2.5
 or Mogensen 2010 sections 2.1-2.7, 2.9, 3.1-3.6

