

# The Layers of Larceny's Foreign Function Interface

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## Abstract

The Foreign Function Interface (FFI) in Larceny supports interacting with dynamically loaded C libraries via glue code written in Scheme. The programmer does not need to develop any C code to interface with C libraries. The FFI is divided into layers of Larceny Scheme code; the lower layers implement kernel functionality, and the higher layers support portable glue code development.

The lower level has two main features of interest. First, the FFI supports callbacks: objects that look like simple function pointers to foreign code but invoke Scheme closures when called. This requires generating specialized machine code, and is further complicated by the potential movement of the closures during garbage collections. Second, Larceny heaps can be dumped to disk and reloaded during a fresh runtime execution. The FFI automatically relinks the foreign procedures in such heaps.

The higher level layers provide macros and procedures for extracting information from header files and dictating how values translate between Scheme and foreign code. These tools ease development of portable glue code. The upper layers have simple implementations and do not require much Larceny-specific functionality; they may be useful for the FFIs of other Scheme systems.

## 1. Introduction

Scheme implementations cannot provide built-in access to all low-level libraries, and clients cannot be expected to reimplement them from scratch. Many Scheme implementations provide a Foreign Function Interface (FFI) to allow the connection of Scheme programs with foreign C libraries.

An FFI has many design axes. First, an FFI that only allows Scheme to hook into C functions that receive and produce values of a single `scheme_value` type (as in [Kelsey and Sperber(2003)]) forces the client to develop (write, compile, debug, etc) glue code written in C, rather than accessing the external library directly via Scheme expressions. [Barzilay and Orlovsky(2004)] motivates support for a more expressive FFI.

Second, transmitting complex objects requires bridging the gap between the semantics of Scheme and that of C. For example, making a Scheme closure appear to the C world as a C function pointer requires some semantic gymnastics, as the calling convention for invoking a closure may differ significantly from that of a C function pointer.

Finally, a low-level interface to a foreign library that requires hard coding offsets into native structures (see Figure 1), or transcribing full C structure definitions from header files can lead to glue code that works on one host but not others. Such code is fragile in the presence of C source-compatible changes to the library's header files, such as the addition (or reordering) of fields in its structure definitions. Specifying an interface *portably* requires a more sophisticated approach.

In Larceny, we have developed a *layered* FFI. The lower layers constitute the kernel of Larceny's FFI implementation; their description here is targeted at Scheme implementors. The upper layers aid development of portable glue code, and illustrate ideas worth incorporating into other Scheme systems. In particular, the interface provided by the `define-c-info` special form is a simple, structure-shy approach for portably interfacing with library frameworks written in C.

The next section shows example uses of the FFI. Section 3 describes how the lower layers of the FFI libraries work together with the Larceny runtime to handle value marshaling and procedure invocation. Section 4 describes the middle layer, which provides the most primitive interface we expect developers to use. Section 5 describes the higher layers that ease interfacing with foreign libraries. Section 6 describes related work and section 7 concludes.

## 2. Example FFI code

This section presents code using foreign functions, starting with low-level file-system examples and working up to GUI interactions. The tour starts with a *misuse* of the Larceny FFI: a low-level definition with a portability bug. The bug motivates our higher level tools, which we present in the remaining examples.

Figure 1 defines a directory listing procedure. Lines 5 through 10 link the UNIX procedures for opening, traversing, and closing a directory. It then defines `dirent->name`, a procedure that extracts filenames from `dirent` structures<sup>1</sup> via the low-level (and unsafe) `%peek-string` procedure that constructs a Scheme string from a zero-terminated string of bytes at the given memory address.

There is significant machinery beneath the surface of Figure 1. For example, `unix/ opendir` marshals its argument Scheme string to a zero-terminated byte array, matching the `char*` idiom for C strings.

On Mac OS X (Intel), Figure 1's `list-directory` *misbehaves*:

```
> (begin (for-each system '("mkdir dtmp"
                          "touch dtmp/abcdef"
                          "touch dtmp/mnopqrst"))
        (list-directory "dtmp"))
(" " " " "def" "qrst")
```

<sup>1</sup> The author of Figure 1 presumably determined that the `d_name` field is located 11 bytes after the start of the `dirent` structure, perhaps by manual inspection of the header files on a Linux distribution, or perhaps by writing C code to reveal this information.

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```

1 ;; The offsets in the dirent accessors
2 ;; are probably x86-Linux-specific!!
3 (require 'std-ffi)
4
5 (define unix/ opendir
6   (foreign-procedure "opendir" '(string) 'uint))
7 (define unix/ readdir
8   (foreign-procedure "readdir" '(uint) 'uint))
9 (define unix/ closedir
10  (foreign-procedure "closedir" '(uint) 'int))
11
12 ;; dirent->name : [Addressof dirent] -> String
13 (define (dirent->name ent)
14   (%peek-string (+ ent 11)))
15
16 ;; list-directory : String -> [Listof String]
17 (define (list-directory dirname)
18   (let ((dir (unix/ opendir dirname)))
19     (if (zero? dir)
20         (error 'list-directory path)
21         (let loop ((files '()))
22             (let ((ent (unix/ readdir dir)))
23                 (if (zero? ent)
24                     (begin (unix/ closedir dir)
25                             (reverse files))
26                     (loop (cons (dirent->name ent)
27                                 files))))))))))

```

Figure 1. A [mis]use of the FFI

```

1 (require 'foreign-ctools)
2
3 ;; dirent->name : [Addressof dirent] -> String
4 (define (dirent->name ent)
5   (define-c-info (include<> "dirent.h")
6     (struct "dirent" (name-offs "d_name")))
7   (%peek-string (+ ent name-offs)))

```

Figure 2. More portable dirent->name definition

On Mac OS X, `list-directory` returns strict suffixes of the actual filenames in the directory. The hard-coded offset to `d_name` ties the code to one host and does not work on other systems.

Figure 2 shows a more portable definition of `dirent->name`. It uses the `define-c-info` special form of Larceny's `foreign-ctools` library, binding the identifier `name-offs` to the offset appropriate to the host. The developer did *not* have to provide the entire definition for the `struct dirent` type (a definition that may differ between operating systems, introducing a new portability issue). One only indicates a source header file, via `(include<> "dirent.h")`, and lists the fields of interest ("`d_name`") alongside identifiers to bind their offsets (`name-offs`).

Figure 3 defines a predicate distinguishing directories from other nodes in the file system. It illustrates some subtle policies in communicating with C procedures.

The definition of `file-directory?` uses the `define-c-struct` form to bind `make-stat` to a `stat` buffer constructor and `stat-mode` to a field accessor. It also binds `ifdir-const` to a preprocessor constant needed to compute with the mode. It then binds `unix/stat` to the foreign function:

```
int stat(const char *path, struct stat *buf);
```

```

1 (require 'foreign-ctools)
2 (require 'foreign-cstructs)
3
4 (define file-directory?
5   (let ()
6     (define-c-info (include<> "sys/stat.h")
7       (const s-ifdir uint "S_IFDIR"))
8     (define-c-struct ("struct stat" make-stat
9                       (include<> "sys/stat.h"))
10      ("st_mode" (stat-mode)))
11     ;; unix/stat : String Bytevector -> Int
12     (define unix/stat
13       (foreign-procedure "stat" '(string boxed) 'int))
14     ;; file-directory? : String -> Boolean
15     (define (file-directory? filename)
16       (let* ((buf (make-stat))
17              (errcode (unix/stat filename buf)))
18             (cond ((zero? errcode)
19                    (let ((mode (stat-mode buf)))
20                        (not (zero? (integer-logand mode s-ifdir))))))
21                 (else (error 'file-directory? filename))))))
22     file-directory?)

```

Figure 3. Semi-portable file-directory? definition

```

1 ;; void qsort(void *base, size_t nmemb, size_t size,
2 ;;           int (*compar)(const void*, const void*))
3 (let* ((qsort (foreign-procedure
4              "qsort" '(boxed uint uint
5                      (-> (void* void*) int))
6              'void))
7       (input (sint-list->bytevector
8              '(10000 20 10001 100) 'little 4))
9       (len (bytevector-length input))
10      (output (make-nonrelocatable-bytevector len)))
11 (bytevector-copy! input 0 output 0 len)
12 (qsort output (quotient len 4) 4
13      (lambda (x y) (- (void*-word-ref x 0)
14                       (void*-word-ref y 0))))
15 (list input output
16      (bytevector->sint-list output 'little 4)))
=> (#vu8(16 39 0 0 20 0 0 0 17 39 0 0 100 0 0 0)
    #vu8(20 0 0 0 100 0 0 0 16 39 0 0 17 39 0 0)
    (20 100 10000 10001))

```

Figure 4. Callback example (with result on little-endian systems)

The `foreign-procedure` invocation linking `unix/stat` to `stat` uses `'string` to say that its first parameter is a Scheme string to be marshaled to a zero-terminated byte array. The linkage uses `'boxed` to say the second parameter is a Scheme heap-allocated object. The invocation of `unit/stat` maps the bytevector `buf` (produced by `make-stat`) to a pointer to the memory immediately after the bytevector's header and passes that pointer to the C `stat` function. `stat` initializes the bytevector's contents with information about the argument path. `file-directory?` finally determines whether the path is a directory by performing the Scheme equivalent of the C expression: `!(st.st_mode & S_IFDIR)`.

The FFI also supports callbacks: marshaling closures to C function pointers. Figure 4 presents an example with the C quicksort function, `qsort`. Callback invocation could cause garbage collections, which may relocate objects; therefore this code copies the unsorted bytevector into non-relocatable (but still managed) memory. The callback itself uses `void*-word-ref` to access memory via an address held in an opaque `void*-rt` record.

```

1 (require 'gtk)
2
3 (define (gtk-example)
4   (define (key-press w e)
5     (write '(key-press ,(gdk-event-keyval e)))
6     (newline))
7   (gtk-init)
8   (let* ((lambda-img (gtk-image-new-from-file
9                     "/tmp/Lambda.png"))
10          (window (gtk-window-new 'toplevel)))
11     (gtk-window-set-title window "Example")
12     (gtk-widget-set-size-request window 400 500)
13     (g-signal-connect window "key_press_event"
14                        key-press)
15     (g-signal-connect window "delete_event"
16                        (lambda (w e)
17                          (gtk-main-quit) #f))
18     (gtk-widget-show window)
19     (gtk-container-add window lambda-img)
20     (gtk-widget-show lambda-img)
21     (gtk-main)))

```

**Figure 5.** Example of FFI callbacks in the Gimp Toolkit (GTK+)

Marshaling Scheme closures is handled by all of the layers working together; the lower layers provide the basic functionality for creating and invoking C callbacks, while the middle and upper layers ease interfacing to foreign functions with callbacks.

As a final example, figure 5 uses the Gimp toolkit to create a window that responds to key presses by printing their character value. This code builds upon the `gtk` library. Figures 6 and 7 present relevant snippets of the `gtk` library using high-level functionality further described in section 5.

Figure 5 marshals the Scheme symbol `'toplevel` to the integer value of the C enum `GTK_WINDOW_TOPLEVEL`. Figure 6 uses the `define-c-enum` form to introduce a `gtkwindowtype` symbolic enumeration, which marshals `'toplevel` and `'popup` to and from `GTK_WINDOW_TOPLEVEL` and `GTK_WINDOW_POPUP`. This marshaling happens only in contexts expecting `gtkwindowtype`, such as `gtk-window-new` invocations. The upper layers of the FFI implement enum support; the lower layers are oblivious to C enums.

Figure 6's invocation of `establish-void*-subhierarchy!` establishes classes of C pointers extending the `void*-rt` type. Foreign function invocations with arguments that do not satisfy the encoded subtyping relation signal an error. The special form `(define-foreign (foo-bar-baz —) —)` searches for a foreign export named `foo_bar_baz` (note the underscores) and then `fooBarBaz`, binding `foo-bar-baz` to the resulting foreign function if found.

Figure 7 links to the GTK+ function `gtk_init`. To satisfy the interface of `gtk_init`, it uses the combinators `call-with-char**` (marshaling a vector of strings to a `char**`) and `call-with-boxed` (taking values of C type `T` to `T*`).

After tasting the FFI programming experience, we now delve into its implementation.

### 3. Lower layers of the FFI

This section describes the implementation of the FFI's kernel functionality. During the invocation of callouts and callbacks, control flows from the MacScheme machine through the Larceny runtime and into C code (and back again). Support for this is distributed amongst structures allocated on the Larceny heap.

```

1 (require 'foreign-ctools)
2 (require 'foreign-cenums)
3 (require 'foreign-stdlib)
4 (require 'foreign-sugar)
5
6 (foreign-file "/sw/lib/libgtk-x11-2.0.dylib")
7
8 (define-c-enum gtkwindowtype
9   ((path "/sw/include/glib-2.0")
10    (path "/sw/lib/glib-2.0/include")
11    (path "/sw/lib/gtk-2.0/include")
12    (path "/sw/include/pango-1.0")
13    (path "/sw/include/gtk-2.0")
14    (include<> "gtk/gtkenums.h"))
15   (toplevel "GTK_WINDOW_TOPLEVEL")
16   (popup "GTK_WINDOW_POPUP"))
17
18 ;; (actual hierachy is much larger)
19 (establish-void*-subhierarchy!
20  '(gtkwidget* (gtkcontainer* (gtkwindow*))
21              (gtkimage*)))
22
23 (define-foreign (gtk-window-new
24                gtkwindowtype) gtkwindow*)
25 (define-foreign (gtk-window-set-title
26                gtkwindow* string) void)
27 (define-foreign (gtk-image-new-from-file
28                string) gtkimage*)
29 (define-foreign (gtk-widget-set-size-request
30                gtkwidget* int int) void)
31 (define-foreign (gtk-widget-show
32                gtkwidget*) void)
33 (define-foreign (gtk-main) void)
34 (define-foreign (gtk-main-quit) void)
35 (define-foreign (gtk-container-add
36                gtkcontainer* gtkwidget*) void)

```

**Figure 6.** Some definitions from `gtk` library

```

1 ;; void gtk_init(int *argc, char ***argv)
2 (define gtk-init
3   (let ()
4     (define-foreign (gtk-init void* void*) void)
5     (lambda arg-strings
6       (let ((string-vec
7             (list->vector
8              (cons "larceny" arg-strings))))
9         (call-with-char**
10          string-vec
11          (lambda (argv)
12            (call-with-boxed
13             argv
14             (lambda (&argv)
15              (call-with-boxed
16               (vector-length string-vec)
17               (lambda (&argc)
18                (gtk-init &argc &argv))))))))))

```

**Figure 7.** Definition of `gtk-init` from `gtk` library

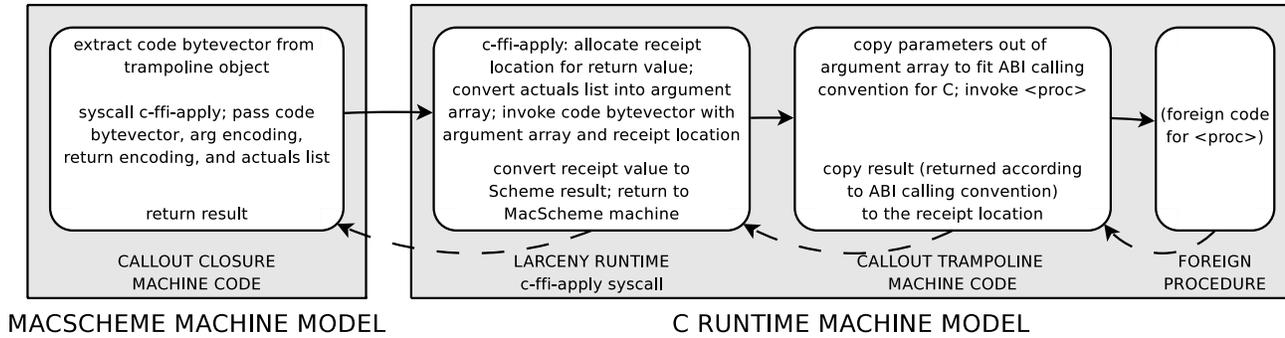


Figure 8. Control flow of a callout (solid lines for main invocation; dashed for return)

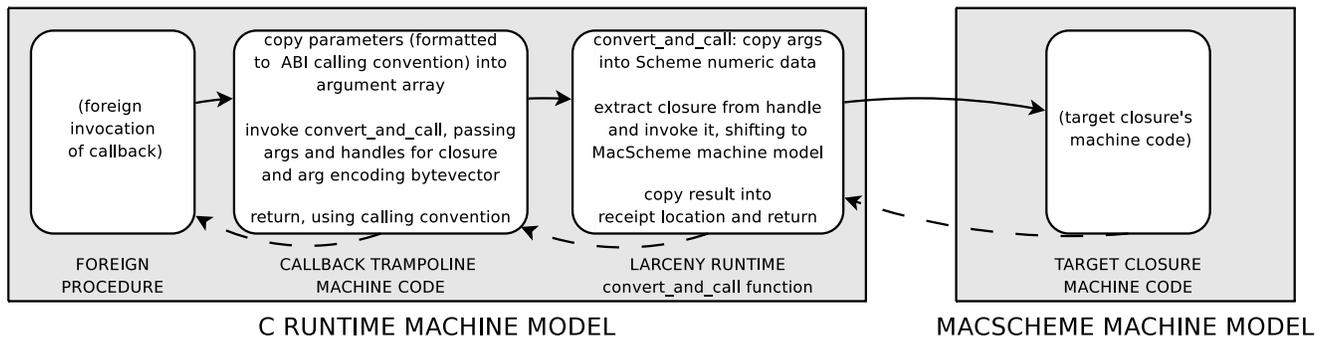


Figure 9. Control flow of a callback (solid lines for main invocation; dashed for return)

### 3.1 Control flow of FFI invocations

Scheme code in Larceny is compiled and run in the environment of an abstract MacScheme machine, with its own stack and heap representations and conventions for using registers.

The abstract MacScheme machine is supported by the Larceny runtime, implemented in C. System calls shift control from the MacScheme machine model to the runtime; during such shifts, MacScheme state is copied into C-accessible memory and the processor is reconfigured to follow the machine model expected by the runtime’s compiled C code.

Foreign libraries expect to be invoked using the C machine model. It would be nice for FFI invocations to reuse the shift of machine model implemented to support Larceny system calls. That is, we desire an FFI callout that jumps into the Larceny runtime and then directly to the target foreign function. We would also like a callback to be a pointer to a Larceny runtime function that shifts into the MacScheme machine when invoked.

Unfortunately, we cannot implement this approach directly.

#### 3.1.1 Customized machine code is necessary

The foreign target of an FFI callout expects its parameters to be set up according to the calling convention of the application binary interface (ABI). We do not want to code a separate system call for each possible argument combination. Also, an FFI callback must appear to be a C function pointer that consumes some number of parameters that depends on what function type the callback is emulating and somehow knows which Scheme closure it is associated with; no fixed function implemented in the runtime would suffice for this purpose.

Instead of having the Larceny runtime directly interact with foreign functions, a fragment of dynamically generated machine

code sits between the Larceny runtime and the world of foreign functions. We call each such fragment an *FFI trampoline*.

#### 3.1.2 Control flow of a callout

The FFI trampoline generated for calling out to a foreign function  $f$  declared to have type  $T$  can be thought of as implementing a “scatter arguments for  $T$  and invoke  $f$ ” operation, illustrated in figure 8.

The trampoline code has a fixed input interface where it receives a set of arguments (packaged as an array in memory). It is responsible for distributing the arguments from the packaged array into the ABI-specified format expected by the compiled C code for a function of type  $T$ . The trampoline code must then invoke  $f$  according to the calling convention. The trampoline code copies the value returned from  $f$  into a receiving area established by the runtime, and then returns control to the runtime. The runtime marshals the returned value back to the MacScheme machine. Section 3.2.3 has more details on this structure.

#### 3.1.3 Control flow of a callback

The trampoline code generated for a callback to a Scheme procedure  $p$  and emulating a foreign function of type  $T$  can be thought of as implementing a “gather arguments of  $T$  and invoke  $p$ ” operation, illustrated in figure 9.

The machine code receives its arguments according to the callback’s type  $T$  and the ABI. The code packages pointers to its arguments (copying from positions specified by the calling convention into a C stack allocated array when necessary), and then directly invokes the `ffi_convert_and_call` Larceny runtime function to perform the remaining work: set up the MacScheme machine, unpackage the arguments according to the MacScheme calling con-

vention, and invoke  $p$ . If the invocation returns, then the runtime marshals the returned value according to  $T$  and returns control to the trampoline code. The trampoline code puts the marshaled value into the appropriate place according to the ABI calling convention and finally returns to the foreign code. Section 3.2.4 documents this structure further.

Both callout and callback trampolines use *only* the C calling convention. The complexity of shifting the machine’s register state from MacScheme mode to the C runtime’s state and back again is isolated from the machine code associated with the trampolines. This simplifies porting the FFI to other ABIs; one can start by inspecting the object code for a hand-constructed C program.

Separating the trampoline’s calling convention from that of MacScheme was a crucial design decision. When an FFI for the Intel x86 architecture was first added, only Petit Larceny ran on x86 processors. Years after that addition, the project introduced a native Larceny implementation that compiles x86 code on the fly. Even after this dramatic change (and significant experimentation with its native calling convention), the FFI worked *unchanged*, because it only depends on the ABI calling convention, not that of MacScheme!

### 3.2 Structures supporting the FFI

Larceny *Scheme source code* is responsible for constructing the machine code that lies between the runtime and the foreign functions. Larceny FFI’s lower layers are factored into three components: the Larceny runtime itself, ABI-dependent Scheme source providing a small interface for constructing FFI trampolines for each target architecture and operating system, and ABI-independent Scheme source implementing the remainder of the low-level FFI.

This section describes the different structures allocated from Scheme code to support the FFI. We illustrate them using heap diagrams in figures 10 and 11. In the diagrams, *circles* denote objects scanned by the garbage collector (e.g. closures, vectors), *rectangles* denote unscanned objects (e.g. bytevectors), *solid* arrows denote object references traced by the collector (tagged pointers), and *dashed* arrows are untraced memory references (integer addresses).

Here are three invariants that the diagrams must observe to reflect a sound heap structure:

1. Solid arrows originate at circles
2. Dashed arrows cannot point into relocatable memory
3. No solid arrows point into the unmanaged C runtime state

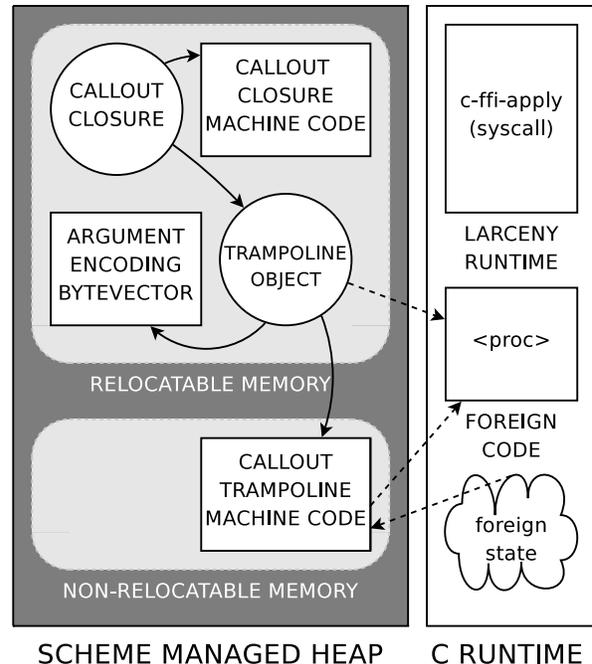
These invariants motivate constructions introduced in this section.

#### 3.2.1 Anatomy of a trampoline

The core of each FFI trampoline object is a list of bytevectors (called an *ilist* for “instruction list”), where each bytevector holds ABI-dependent machine code to accomplish a task, such as copying a double word argument packaged by the runtime into the appropriate location according to the calling convention, or performing the actual foreign invocation invocation. New bytevectors can be added to this list via the mutation procedures `tr-at-end` and `tr-at-beginning`.

After the necessary bytevectors have been added to a trampoline, the `tr-pasteup` allocates a *nonrelocatable* bytevector and copies all of the machine code fragments to it. This bytevector is the code for the trampoline; it is the intermediary between the runtime and the foreign function. The trampoline also clears the processor instruction cache if necessary.

Each callout trampoline must support a `change-fptr` operation, which takes an integer address of a foreign function as an additional argument. This operation modifies the *ilist* so that the invocation code targets the new foreign function. After `change-fptr` is invoked, `tr-pasteup` regenerates the code for



**Figure 10.** Callout heap structure; diagrammatic conventions are listed in section 3.2.

the trampoline. The `change-fptr` operation supports relinking foreign functions during heap loads; see section 3.3.3.

#### 3.2.2 Descriptors for primitive type signatures

At this lower level of the FFI, the argument list for a callout is made up of only fixnums or objects allocated on the Scheme heap. This argument list does not indicate on its own whether a given argument should be marshaled as a pointer, a signed 32-bit integer, or an unsigned 64-bit integer, etc. Invocations of `c-ffi-apply` pass along an encoding of the argument signature for the target function; we use a bytevector based encoding, where the  $i$ th byte indicates a primitive type.

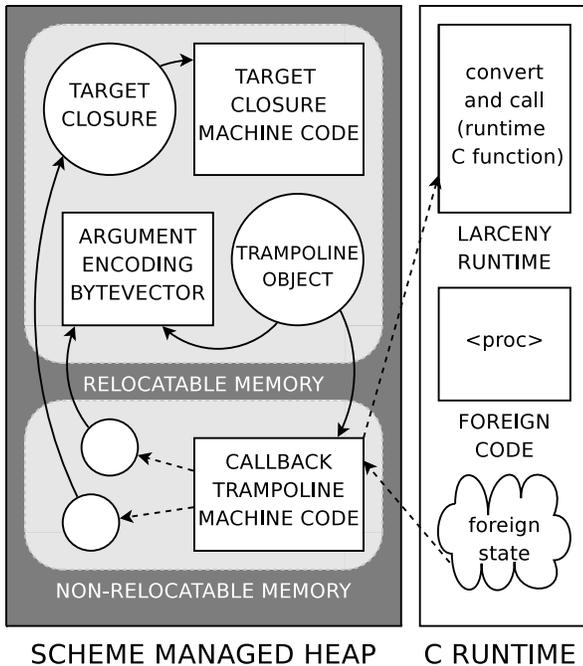
byte	primitive type	scheme types accepted
0	signed32	exact integer in $[-2^{31}, 2^{31})$
1	unsigned32	exact integer in $[0, 2^{32})$
2	ieee32 (“float”)	flonum
3	ieee64 (“double”)	flonum
4	pointer	bytevector, vector, pair
5	signed64	exact integer in $[-2^{63}, 2^{63})$
6	unsigned64	exact integer in $[0, 2^{64})$

Likewise, for return types we encode the primitive types `signed32`, `unsigned32`, `ieee32`, `ieee64`, `signed64`, `unsigned64`, as well as `void`. `pointer` is not a primitive return type; the FFI design assumes that if a foreign function is returning a pointer, it is a pointer into the C heap, could not be sensibly treated as a pointer into the Scheme heap, and thus should be marshaled as an integer, not `pointer`.

The current FFI does not support direct `struct` parameters or return types; only pointers to structures.

#### 3.2.3 Anatomy of a callout

Figure 10 shows the heap structure for a callout: a closure that invokes a foreign procedure. The callout’s lexical environment carries three key components: an FFI trampoline, a bytevector describing the argument signature for the foreign function, and an integer



**Figure 11.** Callback heap structure; diagrammatic conventions are listed in section 3.2.

describing the type of the return value it expects from the foreign function.

The invocation of a callout first extracts the code associated with its trampoline. It then invokes the `c-ffi-apply` runtime system call, passing the trampoline’s code object, the signature bytevector, the return code integer, and the list of arguments for the invocation. The system call first marshals the arguments into an `args` array according to the signature bytevector and sets up a location on the stack for the trampoline code to write the result value returned by the foreign invocation. The system call then invokes the trampoline code, passing the `args` array and the result location along as arguments. When that returns, the `c-ffi-apply` system call proceeds to convert the result held in the return location into a Scheme value and returns it to the MacScheme machine.

### 3.2.4 Anatomy of a callback

Each callback is associated with a Scheme closure targeted for invocation. The garbage collector may *move* the target closure. The callback’s code is just a bytevector of machine code; if the closure’s address were directly encoded in the bytevector, the garbage collector would not update that address (because the garbage collector does not modify the contents of bytevectors), and the callback’s encoded reference to the closure would become invalid.

We resolve the problem of closures moving during garbage collections by introducing a level of indirection. Instead of putting a direct reference to the targeted closure in the callback code bytevector, we create a nonrelocatable *handle* for every callback. The handle points to the closure, and the callback’s machine code holds an untraced reference to the handle.

Also, the callback and its target closure need to live as long as the foreign library could invoke it. Since the garbage collector is not going to scan foreign memory, we keep extra references to the callback and its handles in a manually managed list.

Figure 11 illustrates the resulting structure of a callback. From the Scheme side, a callback is an FFI trampoline coupled with two

nonrelocatable handles: one that points to the target Scheme closure and another that points to a bytevector holding the argument descriptors. From the C side, a callback is the address of the trampoline’s code. When foreign code invokes the trampoline, it first ensures that the arguments are all stack-allocated, and then invokes the runtime function `ffi_convert_and_call`, passing along the handles for the closure and the bytevector of argument descriptors, as well as an array of argument addresses, and a descriptor and receiving location for the result when the callback returns. The implementation of `ffi_convert_and_call` is careful not to dereference the handles until *after* it has finished allocating state on the heap, so that potential garbage collections will not invalidate the dereferenced values.

## 3.3 Source code factoring of the lower layers

### 3.3.1 Runtime system calls supporting the FFI

The runtime provides a small set of system calls to support the FFI. We limit the runtime code supporting the FFI, moving functionality into Scheme when possible.

- `c-ffi-dlopen` takes a path to a file holding a foreign library; it delegates to `dlopen` on UNIX (`LoadLibrary` on Win32) and returns a library handle (or 0 for errors).
- `c-ffi-dlsym` takes a library handle and a symbol name; it delegates to `dlsym` on UNIX (`GetProcAddress` on Win32) and returns the associated address (or 0 for errors).
- `c-ffi-apply` is described in section 3.2.3.
- `ffi-getaddr` extracts functions within the runtime. its used to get the `ffi_convert_and_call` function (see section 3.2.4).
- `make-nonrelocatable` takes a size and a type tag; it allocates (and initializes) an object that the collector cannot move.

There are also system calls for low-level memory interactions: `object->address` produces the address for an object on the Scheme heap, while `peek-bytes`, and `poke-bytes` provide unchecked functionality to read and write C runtime memory.

### 3.3.2 Construction of callouts and callbacks

Callouts and callbacks have ABI-independent interfaces. From the viewpoint of a client of the FFI, a callout can be specified by just the name of the function being invoked, the library exporting the function, and the primitive types of the function’s arguments and return type (see section 3.2.2). Likewise, a callback can be specified by just the target closure along with the primitive types of the function’s arguments and its return type (from the viewpoint of C code).

Every callout and callback is associated with a trampoline structure. The construction of the trampoline requires the injection of ABI-dependent machine code. The injected machine code is processor dependent as well as calling-convention dependent.

The Larceny code base separates the ABI-independent interface from the ABI-dependent implementation using an object-oriented style of implementation. Each target supported by the FFI provides a *callout-abi* object that implements methods for constructing callout trampolines, and likewise a *callback-abi* object for constructing callback trampolines. This object-oriented style eases code reuse of details (such as instruction encodings) between different hosts.

### 3.3.3 Relink on load

The lower layer of the FFI provides the kernel interface for constructing callouts. The last part of this layer maintains a table of the foreign functions that it has linked. If the heap is dumped and subsequently reloaded, FFI attempts to *reload and relink* all of the libraries and foreign procedures that were linked at the time the heap was dumped.

Two operations act together to support this. First, the trampoline object provides a `change-fptr` operation, which allows one to change the function address associated with a trampoline. To support this, a foreign callout does not directly reference the trampoline's machine code, but rather pulls the code out of the trampoline on demand (see figure 10).

Second, Larceny provides a primitive, `add-init-procedure!`, which registers a Scheme procedure as an initialization routine. When the heap is dumped and later loaded, all of the initialization routines for that heap are invoked. The FFI maintains a list of foreign objects and registers an initialization procedure that will relink them during a heap reload.

## 4. Middle layer of the FFI

The lower layer of the FFI offers all of the basic primitives required to dynamically load a foreign library and hook into symbols exported by the foreign library. However, the interface provided by the lower layer is baroque.

The remaining middle and upper layers of the FFI are built upon the lower layer. The middle layer provides procedures for loading libraries and linking foreign functions. Part of the linkage functionality is an extensible domain specific language (DSL) for defining the interface to foreign functions. The upper layers build upon this interface by adding common patterns and automating some of the work of extracting information from header files for C source code.

At its core, the middle layer provides the following procedures:

- `(foreign-file lib)` opens the dynamic library specified by *lib* and registers it on a list of loaded libraries.
- `(foreign-procedure name param-types ret-type)` searches the loaded libraries for an export of *name* and generates a callout invoking the function at the exported address.
- `(foreign-procedure-pointer addr param-types ret-type)` generates a callout invoking the function at *addr*.<sup>2</sup>

Above, *param-types* and *ret-type* are s-expressions of the middle layer's interface DSL. These arguments guide the marshaling of parameters from Scheme to C and unmarshaling of values passed from C to Scheme. For the remainder of this section we focus on the interface DSL used for *param-types* and *ret-type*.

### 4.1 FFI attribute entries

The lowest layer of the FFI expresses all data in terms of a fixed set of primitive types like "unsigned 32-bit word" and "64-bit floating point number." Foreign libraries are often written in terms of C types like `char` or `int`. Therefore, the interface DSL introduces symbolic names such as `'char` or `'int` with intuitive mappings to foreign values, richer names such as `'string` or `'bool`, and complex symbolic expressions like `'(-> (string) int)`. The middle layer translates these specifications into the primitive types of the lower layer.

We call these symbolic type expressions *FFI attributes*, or just *attributes*.

Each attribute can be thought of as describing a domain of high-level Scheme values, a domain of low-level Scheme values (that trivially correspond to foreign values) and the functions necessary to map elements of the Scheme domain into and out of the foreign domain. The middle layer associates every attribute s-expression with three components: a low-level primitive type descriptor, a Scheme procedure that marshals values from the high-level domain

<sup>2</sup> Unlike functions linked via `foreign-procedure`, foreign function pointers will not be automatically reestablished by the lower layer.

to the low-level domain, and a Scheme procedure that unmarshals values from the low-level domain to the high-level domain.

There are two kinds of attributes: a *core attribute* is a Scheme symbol registered in a table maintained by the middle layer; this table stores the association between such symbols and their low level descriptor and mapping functions. A *constructed attribute* is a non-atomic s-expression which the middle layer maps to appropriate attribute components.

### 4.2 Core (symbolic) attribute entries

There are a number of predefined core attributes. The simplest, `'byte`, `'short`, `'int`, `'long`, `'unsigned`, `'uint`, `'ushort`, and `'ulong`, all map to one of the descriptors for primitive integers, with marshaling that performs a range check but is otherwise the identity. Likewise `'float` maps to the primitive `ieee32` and `'double` maps to the primitive `ieee64`.

The `'char` and `'uchar` attributes map to 32-bit integers, with marshaling that identifies characters with corresponding ASCII values. Both attributes do not handle characters that fall outside the expected range of ASCII characters gracefully.<sup>3</sup> The `'bool` attribute maps to the `signed32` domain, marshals non-false Scheme values to 1 (`#f` to 0) and unmarshals 0 to `#f` (other integers to `#t`).

The more interesting built-in core attributes are those that represent objects with more state than fixed-width integers. There are three of these: `'boxed`, `'string`, and `'void*`.

The `'boxed` attribute maps to the `'pointer` low-level descriptor, and marshals heap-allocated objects (pairs, vector-likes, bytevector-likes, and procedures) to themselves and `#f` to the foreign null pointer. There is no unmarshaling function; it is an error for a callout to indicate that it returns a `'boxed`. The main values used with `'boxed` are bytevectors; other heap allocated objects hold Scheme formatted words that foreign libraries do not generally process.

The `'string` attribute maps to the `'pointer` low-level descriptor. Marshaling and unmarshaling of `'string` allocates a fresh object on the Scheme heap and copies character data into it.

Finally, the `'void*` attribute is used to encode pointers to memory unmanaged by the Scheme runtime system.

#### 4.2.1 The 'void\* FFI attribute and void\*-rt

Using the `'void*` attribute wraps addresses up in a Larceny record, so that standard numeric operations cannot be directly applied by accident. Larceny's record system is similar to that proposed for ERR5RS [Clinger(2008)]. The FFI uses two properties of the record system: the record type descriptor is a first class value with an inspectable name, and record types are extensible via single-inheritance.

The FFI provides `void*-rt`, a record type descriptor with a single field (a wrapped address). The FFI provides a family of functions for dereferencing the pointer within a `void*-rt`.

The `'void*` attribute maps to the `unsigned32` low-level descriptor. Marshaling checks that its input is an instance of the `void*-rt` record type and then extracts its wrapped address. Its unmarshaling function constructs an instance of `void*-rt`.

#### 4.2.2 Extending the set of core FFI attributes

The public interface to many foreign libraries is written in terms of types defined within that foreign library. One can introduce new types to the Larceny FFI by extending the core attribute entry table. The `ffi-add-attribute-core-entry!` procedure consumes four parameters: a symbol (the high-level attribute), a low-

<sup>3</sup> The majority of the middle and lower layers of the FFI was developed ten years ago when Larceny did not have Unicode support; adding Unicode support to the FFI is future work.

level type descriptor symbol, a marshaling function, and a unmarshaling function; it extends the internal table with the new entry. This extensibility is crucial; one can add new domains that correspond to the abstractions provided by particular foreign library. The upper layers of the FFI assist with common extensions.

### 4.3 Constructured FFI attribute entries

Core attributes suffice for linking to simple functions. Constructured FFI attributes express more complex marshaling protocols

A structured FFI attribute of the form  $(\rightarrow (s_1 \dots s_n) s_r)$  allows passing functions from Scheme to C and back again. The low-level descriptor for such a form is a pointer to non-relocatable (and possibly unmanaged) memory; an `unsigned32` on 32-bit architectures.

To marshal a closure  $p$  of arity  $n$ , the  $(\rightarrow (s_1 \dots s_n) s_r)$  attribute:

1. wraps  $p$  in another closure  $p'$  that *unmarshals* the foreign arguments of  $p'$  according to  $\{s_1 \dots s_n\}$ , feeds the results to  $p$ , and then *marshals* the value returned by invoking  $f$  according to  $s_r$ . Note that  $p'$  is itself *not* acceptable by the lower layers.
2. Next the marshaling procedure for  $(\rightarrow \text{---})$  constructs a call-back trampoline,  $p''$ , from  $p'$ , using the callback construction procedure provided by the FFI's lower layer.
3. Finally the marshaling extracts the code bytevector from  $p''$ , passing the address of the trampoline machine code as the `unsigned32` received by the foreign code.

The unmarshaling of a  $(\rightarrow (s_1 \dots s_n) s_r)$  FFI attribute accepts an address (the function pointer to be invoked), and constructs a callout to that machine code, using  $[s_1 \dots s_n]$  as the callout's parameter attributes and  $s_r$  as its return type, as one would expect.

These two mappings naturally generalize to arbitrary nesting of  $\rightarrow$  FFI attributes, so one can create callbacks that consume callouts, return callouts that consume callbacks, and so on.

Other structured attribute entries encode common marshaling patterns. The structured attribute  $(\text{maybe } t)$  captures the pattern of passing NULL in C and `#f` in Scheme to represent the absence of information. The low-level descriptor of  $(\text{maybe } t)$  is the same as that of  $t$ ; it marshals `#f` to the foreign null pointer, and otherwise applies the marshaling of  $t$ . Likewise, it unmarshals the foreign null pointer to `#f` and otherwise applies the unmarshaling of  $t$ .

### 4.4 Accessing foreign memory

If all foreign libraries provided a complete set of procedures for *every* kind of operation provided by the library, then the FFI might not need more than the `foreign-procedure` function. However, most C libraries are designed with the assumption that they will be used from C code that directly accesses and modifies the fields of structures in memory.

To support operations like extracting an integer field from a C structure, the middle layer provides a family of functions for reading and writing arbitrary addresses in memory. Such functions introduce a measure of unsafety to Larceny, since uncontrolled invocations could corrupt the internal state of the MacScheme machine.

On top of the two system calls `peek-bytes` and `poke-bytes`, the middle layer provides two large families of functions for observing and modifying low-level memory. One family is organized around exact bitwidths (e.g. `%peek8`, `%peek16u`, `%poke32`); the other family is organized around primitive C types (e.g. `%peek-short`, `%peek-ulong`, `%poke-pointer`).

## 5. Upper layer of the FFI

The upper layer of the FFI consists of various libraries that add syntactic sugar, capture common programming patterns, and aid in making code more abstract and portable.

### 5.1 foreign-ctools

The `foreign-ctools` library provides a special form, `define-c-info`, that binds Scheme identifiers to values computed from the contents of C header files.

The interesting thing about `define-c-info` is its implementation (section 5.1.1); here we describe its specification.

Figure 12 presents the grammar of the `define-c-info` special form. The  $\langle c\text{-decl} \rangle$  clauses of `define-c-info` control how header files are processed. The `compiler` clause selects between `cc` (the default UNIX system compiler) and `c1` (the compiler included with Microsoft's Windows SDK). The `path` clause adds a directory to search when looking for header files. The `include` and `include<>` clauses indicate header files to include when executing the  $\langle c\text{-defn} \rangle$  clauses; the two variants correspond to the quoted and bracketed forms of the C preprocessor's `#include` directive.

The  $\langle c\text{-defn} \rangle$  clauses bind identifiers.<sup>4</sup> A  $(\text{const } x \text{ } t \text{ } "ae")$  clause binds  $x$  to the integer value of  $ae$  according to the C language;  $ae$  can be any C arithmetic expression that evaluates to a value of type  $t$ . (The expected usage is for  $e$  to be an expression that the C preprocessor expands to an arithmetic expression.)

The remaining clauses provide similar functionality:

- $(\text{sizeof } x \text{ } "te")$  binds  $x$  to the size occupied by values of type  $te$ , where  $te$  is any C type expression.
- $(\text{struct } "cn" \dots (x \text{ } "cf" \text{ } y) \dots)$  binds  $x$  to the offset from the start of a structure of type `struct cn` to its  $cf$  field, and binds  $y$ , if present, to the field's size. A `fields` clause is similar, but it applies to structures of type  $cn$  rather than `struct cn`.
- $(\text{ifdefconst } x \text{ } t \text{ } "cn")$  clause binds  $x$  to the value of  $cn$  if  $cn$  is defined;  $x$  is otherwise bound to Larceny's unspecified value.

#### 5.1.1 The implementation of `define-c-info`

Header files are usually written with the assumption that they will first be passed through a C preprocessor and then a C parser. Even after preprocessing, C is a tricky language to parse, due in part to its context-sensitivity. Furthermore, the contents of included system header files are sometimes written in a non-standard dialect of C, further complicating direct attempts to parse header files.

The `foreign-ctools` library resolves these problems by using a (perhaps surprising) "standard library": the system's C compiler itself.

The philosophy behind the `foreign-ctools` library is: "A C program generator is easier to write than a C parser." That claim, combined with the common Scheme `system` procedure, procedural Scheme macros, and C pointer arithmetic, leads to the `define-c-info` design.

The `define-c-info` form is a procedural macro that:

1. generates a C program (in a temporary file),
2. compiles the program,
3. executes the program, printing results to another temporary file,
4. reads the output of the execution (usually numeric data), and,
5. expands to a Scheme expression binding the read values.

<sup>4</sup>This is binding in the sense of the `define` special form; at the top-level `define-c-info` introduces global definitions, and in internal definition contexts it introduces local definitions.

```

⟨exp⟩ ::= (define-c-info ⟨c-decl⟩ ...
          ⟨c-defn⟩ ...)
⟨c-decl⟩ ::= (compiler ⟨cc-spec⟩)
            | (path ⟨include-path⟩)
            | (include ⟨header⟩)
            | (include<> ⟨header⟩)
⟨cc-spec⟩ ::= cc | cl
⟨c-defn⟩ ::= (const ⟨id⟩ ⟨c-type⟩ ⟨c-expr⟩)
            | (sizeof ⟨id⟩ ⟨c-type-expr⟩)
            | (struct ⟨c-name⟩ ⟨field-clause⟩ ...)
            | (fields ⟨c-name⟩ ⟨field-clause⟩ ...)
            | (ifdefconst ⟨id⟩ ⟨c-type⟩ ⟨c-name⟩)
⟨c-type⟩ ::= int | uint | long | ulong
⟨include-path⟩ ::= ⟨string-literal⟩
⟨header⟩ ::= ⟨string-literal⟩
⟨field-clause⟩ ::= (⟨offset-id⟩ ⟨c-field⟩)
                | (⟨offset-id⟩ ⟨c-field⟩ ⟨size-id⟩)
⟨c-expr⟩ ::= ⟨string-literal⟩
⟨c-type-expr⟩ ::= ⟨string-literal⟩
⟨c-name⟩ ::= ⟨string-literal⟩
⟨c-field⟩ ::= ⟨string-literal⟩

```

Figure 12. Grammar for define-c-info form

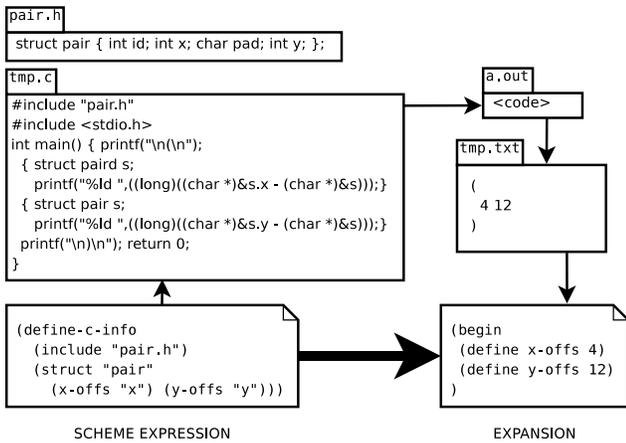


Figure 13. Expansion of define-c-info form

All of these steps occur during macro expansion; the evaluation of the expanded code does *not* invoke the C compiler. This enables distribution of compiled Scheme code that uses `define-c-info` to end-users who do not have a C compiler or the necessary header files.

Figure 13 provides a concrete example of `define-c-info`. The thin arrows are actions of the procedural macro; they commute with the thick arrow representing macro expansion.

The functionality provided by `foreign-ctools` is useful but incomplete; there are desirable pieces of information that a specialized tool could extract from the header files but the `foreign-ctools` library cannot. Examples include: the bodies of parameterized C macros, the names of all of fields of an enum or struct type, and the equivalences established by `typedef`.

Despite such shortcomings, the `foreign-ctools` library has been a useful way to develop code abstracted from system-specific values when programming to a foreign interface. In particular, one can write code to access fields of a structure without knowing the entire set of fields or their ordering.

```

⟨exp⟩ ::= (define-c-struct
          ⟨struct-type⟩ ⟨ctor-id⟩ ⟨c-decl⟩ ...)
          ⟨field-clause⟩ ...)
⟨field-clause⟩ ::= (⟨c-field⟩ ⟨getter⟩)
                | (⟨c-field⟩ ⟨getter⟩ ⟨setter⟩)
⟨getter⟩ ::= (⟨id⟩) | (⟨id⟩ ⟨unmarshal⟩)
⟨setter⟩ ::= (⟨id⟩) | (⟨id⟩ ⟨marshal⟩)
⟨marshal⟩ ::= ⟨ffi-attr-symbol⟩ | ⟨marshal-proc-exp⟩
⟨unmarshal⟩ ::= ⟨ffi-attr-symbol⟩ | ⟨unmarshal-proc-exp⟩
⟨struct-type⟩ ::= ⟨string-literal⟩

```

Figure 14. Grammar for define-c-struct form

```

⟨exp⟩ ::= (define-c-enum ⟨enum-id⟩ (⟨c-decl⟩ ...)
          ⟨id⟩ ⟨c-name⟩) ...)
⟨exp⟩ ::= (define-c-enum-set ⟨enum-id⟩ (⟨c-decl⟩ ...)
          ⟨id⟩ ⟨c-name⟩) ...)
⟨enum-id⟩ ::= ⟨id⟩

```

Figure 15. Grammar for foreign-cenums forms

## 5.2 foreign-structs

The `foreign-structs` library provides a more direct interface to C structures. Figure 14 presents the grammar of its `define-c-struct` form. This form is layered on top of `define-c-info`; the latter provides the structure field offsets and sizes used to generate constructors<sup>5</sup> and field accessors. The `define-c-struct` form combines them with the marshaling and unmarshaling procedures from the middle layer's DSL to provide high-level access to a structure.

## 5.3 foreign-cenums

The `foreign-cenums` library provides forms to associate the identifiers of a C enum type declaration with the integer values they denote. The `foreign-cenums` library is layered above the `foreign-ctools` library.

The two forms introduced by the library are `define-c-enum` and `define-c-enum-set` (Figure 15). The `define-c-enum` form describes enums encoding a discriminated sum; `define-c-enum-set` describes bitmasks, mapping them to  $R^{6RS}$  enum-sets in Scheme.

Both forms expand into uses of the `define-c-info` form to extract integer values associated with the `⟨c-name⟩`'s. Both also invoke `ffi-add-attribute-core-entry!`, extending the attribute table with bindings for `⟨enum-id⟩`.

The `(define-c-enum en (⟨id⟩) (xi "cni") ...)` form adds the `'en` FFI attribute. The attribute marshals each symbol `'xi` to the integer value that `cni` denotes in C; unmarshaling does the inverse translation.

The `(define-c-enum-set ens (⟨id⟩) (xi "cni") ...)` form binds `ens` to an  $R^{6RS}$  enum-set constructor with universe resulting from `(make-enumeration '⟨id⟩ ...)`; it also adds the `'ens` FFI attribute. The attribute marshals an enum-set `s` constructed by `ens` to the corresponding bitmask in C (that is, the integer one would get by logically or'ing all `cnj` such that `xj` is in `s`). Unmarshaling attempts to do the inverse translation.<sup>6</sup>

Unlike constructs derived from unguided automated processing of C header files, `define-c-enum` works on *any* set of integer

<sup>5</sup> The constructors produce appropriately sized bytevectors, not record instances.

<sup>6</sup> The inverse uniquely exists when the high-to-low mapping is a bijection, which depends on the denotations of `{cni ...}` assigned by the header files.

valued identifiers. It can capture discriminated tags that are not explicitly defined as C `enums.x`

## 5.4 foreign-stdlib

The `(ffi-install-void*-subtype sub-rt)` procedure is the heart of the `foreign-stdlib` library. It extends the FFI attribute entry table with a new primitive entry for `(rt-name sub-rt)`, where `sub-rt` must extend `void*-rt`. The resulting record represents a tagged wrapped C pointer, allowing one to encode type hierarchies.

This procedure is then used to establish the FFI attributes `'char*`, `'int*`, `'double*`, `'float*`, and `'char**`. For each such attribute `'T`, there is a record type `T-rt` and a combinator function `call-with-T` that allocates (deallocates) an appropriately marshaled array on entry (exit) to a procedure parameterized over an instance of the corresponding record type.

For example, `(call-with-char** strings proc)` consumes an vector of strings and a procedure that consumes a `char**-rt`. It first allocates an array on the C heap, marshaling each argument string to a C string in the newly allocated array. Then it invokes `proc` on `char**-rt` wrapped address of the array. When `proc` returns, it deallocates the array. The `call-with-boxed` procedure uses a similar pattern to allocate a memory cell to hold any instance of `void*-rt`.

Finally, `(establish-void*-subhierarchy! symbol-tree)` is a convenience function for constructing large object hierarchies, such as that found in GTK+. It descends the `symbol-tree`, creates a record type descriptor for each symbol (where the root of the tree has the parent `void*-rt`), and invokes `ffi-install-void*-subtype` on all of the introduced types.

## 5.5 foreign-sugar

The `(define-foreign (name arg-type ...) ret-type)` form is the heart of the `foreign-sugar` library.

This form is simple when `name` directly corresponds to a foreign function; then its expansion is:

```
(define name
  (foreign-procedure (symbol->string 'name)
                    '(arg-type ...) 'ret-type))
```

The interesting case is when `name` is not a foreign export. Then the `define-foreign` form performs a search, applying a sequence of name generators to `name` until it finds an export from some foreign library. Each name generator maps a string to another string (or false when inapplicable). The library itself provides the sample name generators `foo-bar-baz->foo_bar_baz` and `foo-bar-baz->fooBarBaz`, which perform transformations capturing some common naming conventions found in C libraries.

The library also provides procedures to extend the set of name generators, changing the search strategy to deal with other naming conventions. One can devise “natural” mappings of foreign function names to Scheme procedure names. (However, there are phase issues when extending the set of name generators; one must ensure that the appropriate name generators are installed before performing the expansion of `define-foreign`.)

When this library was developed, Larceny’s reader case-folded by default, and many C identifiers did not directly correspond to Scheme identifiers. Automatically mapping Scheme-compatible names to their C counterparts was preferable to linking them by hand. With Larceny’s new case-sensitive reader, such name mapping is unnecessary and this library is less relevant.

## 6. Related Work

Almost every Lisp and Scheme implementation has some sort of foreign function interface; we cannot address all of them. Here

we review some published treatments of interfacing to foreign libraries.

### 6.1 Interfacing high-level languages with foreign libraries

[Fisher et al.(2000)Fisher, Pucella, and Reppy] argue that a foreign interface should not copy a foreign structure into corresponding structures in the target system, but rather should manipulate the raw memory directly. We support either approach: a developer can indicate that a foreign value should be copied and provide the corresponding marshaling procedure via our middle layer, or can use a `void*-rt` record to pass around a pointer into memory managed by the C runtime. Much of their paper is devoted to how types are translated from C to Moby; we mostly sidestep the issue, allowing the introduction of unsafe operations but also providing some high-level interfaces to structures and enums so that users are not always forced into to low-level interactions.

[Blume(2001)] presents an FFI between SML/NJ and C based on data-level interoperability. It encodes much of the C type system directly into complex ML types. Their system supports preservation of foreign functions during a heap export in a manner analogous to how we support them during a heap dump. Their FFI avoids much of the complexity that we show in our lower layer because it does not support *callbacks*.

[Huelsenbergen(1995)] presents an FFI between SML/NJ and C that employs a copying policy for marshaling (as opposed to a policy of data-level interoperability). It works by generating C code that one compiles and links into the SML runtime (they state replacing this static linkage with a dynamic one based on dynamically linked libraries is straightforward). Their system supports callouts and callbacks; they deal with migration of callback target closures by registering the closure’s address in the callback as a root with the collector. We instead introduce a level of indirection between the machine code bytevector and the target closure.

[Urban(2004)] provides a broad (though incomplete) survey of FFI systems and implementations. The current draft ends with the suggestion that that values should be passed only by value (not by reference), to avoid any use of foreign pointers,<sup>7</sup> which appears at odds with a policy of data-level interoperability. It is interesting that even as late as 2004 there is not an obviously “right” choice for this design axis.

### 6.2 FFI’s for Scheme

[Rose and Muller(1992)] present a Scheme system centered around integrated development with C. All C types are mapped into some class of data on the Scheme side, allowing seamless transfer of data between the two sides. This design goal led to a number of design constraints, such as using a “hyperconservative” garbage collector and a calling convention for Scheme compatible with that of C. In contrast, we layered an FFI *on top of* a high-performance Scheme runtime: we extended the runtime with new primitives, but the FFI does not compromise the main design goals of Larceny. Larceny has precise garbage collectors and a specialized calling convention for the MacScheme machine.

[Kelsey and Sperber(2003)] propose an interface for writing glue code in C. It provides a “lowest common demoninator” approach to interfacing with foreign libraries: you can hook into arbitrary libraries, but you have to develop C code to do it.

[Barzilay and Orlovsky(2004)] present the FFI for PLT Scheme. Their philosophy of “stay in the fun world” agrees with our own; we have taken that philosophy further by using Scheme to generate our callout and callback trampolines. The PLT Scheme FFI uses

<sup>7</sup>Urban’s conclusion is based in part on his view that lisp code for interacting with foreign memory is even less readable than C code; perhaps tools such as those provided by our upper layers would address this concern.

a GNU library, `libffi` [Green(2008)], to support callouts and callbacks; they point out that the `libffi` generated structures are allocated via `malloc` to circumvent the garbage collector, but do not provide further detail on how movement of callback targets is handled. It would be interesting to see if Larceny could also use `libffi` to avoid the need to develop ABI-specific code in the FFI lower layer; but the effort of hooking into `libffi` may exceed the effort of maintaining our construction of callout and callback trampolines. The PLT Scheme FFI has a sophisticated extensible syntax for generating wrapper code; we hope to adopt some of their ideas in a future revision of the middle layer of the Larceny FFI.<sup>8</sup>

### 6.3 Extracting information from header files

[Rose and Muller(1992)] describes an interface extractor tool to scan header files and store information in Unix object files that their Scheme system can later load. They extract a large amount of data from the headers, converting definitions of macros with arguments into dynamic functions and definitions of types into first class Scheme values. We are much more limited in what we can extract, because we do not parse the header files directly.

[Hansen(1996)] claims that header files do not provide reasonable definitions of library interfaces, and argues that converting a C header into a rational intermediate form should be separated from generating an FFI specification. His FFIGEN system has a front-end derived from a portable ANSI C compiler and a sample back-end for Chez Scheme. We agree that one cannot generally derive all necessary interface information from a C header file alone. Thus we require a user to specify more specific policy information to our FFI's middle layer. Like FFIGEN, we attempt to isolate the policy writer from the pain of parsing C header files; our approach in `foreign-ctools` of invoking the system's C compiler directly avoids porting a C compiler. We cannot automatically extract as much as FFIGEN, because we did not develop a separate C header file parser.

[Beazley(1996)] is a popular tool for generating C and C++ header files into scripts for hooking to foreign libraries. SWIG processes interface files written using a large subset of C and C++ syntax, and generates code to interface to one of a number of scripting languages. Our system, like that of [Barzilay and Orlovsky(2004)], stays in the Scheme world. The user must write interface code in Scheme, rather than automatically extracting the interface from header files, but even SWIG cannot automatically extract interfaces from arbitrary header file code, and if one is to be forced to write code, we prefer to do it using Scheme syntax.

[Reppy and Song(2006)] presents a tool for generating foreign interfaces by combining header files with a declarative script. Their *typemap* four tuples seem analogous to the FFI attributes that we employ in our middle layer. Their work uses a combination of a declarative DSL and term-rewriting to derive interfaces to foreign libraries, which they claim is simpler than expressions in a full programming language as is done in FFIGEN and in our higher layer libraries.

## 7. Conclusion and Future Work

We have presented the layers of the Larceny FFI, from the low level details of callouts and callbacks and up to the high level syntactic forms used to write abstract interfaces.

Our FFI supports advanced features such as relinking foreign functions on heap reload. The FFI design is robust: we dynamically generate ABI-specific machine code in our trampolines, but that

code is completely independent from the the MacScheme machine model used for compiled Scheme code.

Our higher layer libraries provide `define-c-info`, a tool that extracts information from C header files without reinventing the wheel of a C parser. This special form provides the basis for a high-level portable interface to C `struct` and `enum` types.

Future work includes improving Unicode interface support, adding the ability to marshal structure parameters between the middle and lower layers, and adopting a more expressive interface DSL along the lines of [Barzilay and Orlovsky(2004)]. We also want to acquire experience interfacing to other foreign libraries, such as OpenGL.

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<sup>8</sup>The interface of the PLT FFI is not directly portable to Larceny; in particular, their strategy for extensibility requires procedural macros to be able to expand subexpressions and inspect the results in a local manner, which Larceny does not currently support.

