

COMPILER DESIGN

Code generation

Variable declarations and value access/assignment

- Integer variable declaration:

```
int x;
```

x	res 4
---	-------

where x is the address of x , which is a (unique) label generated during the parse and stored in the symbol table.

- To load or change the content of an integer variable:

lw r1, x(r0)
sw x(r0), r1

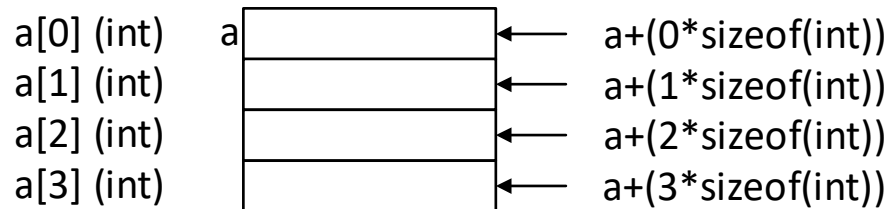
where x is the label of variable x , $r1$ is the register containing the value of variable x and $r0$ is assumed to contain 0 (offset).

Variable declarations and access

- Array of integers variable declaration:

```
int a[4];
```

```
a      res 16
```



- Accessing elements of an array of integers, using offsets:

```
x = a[2];
```

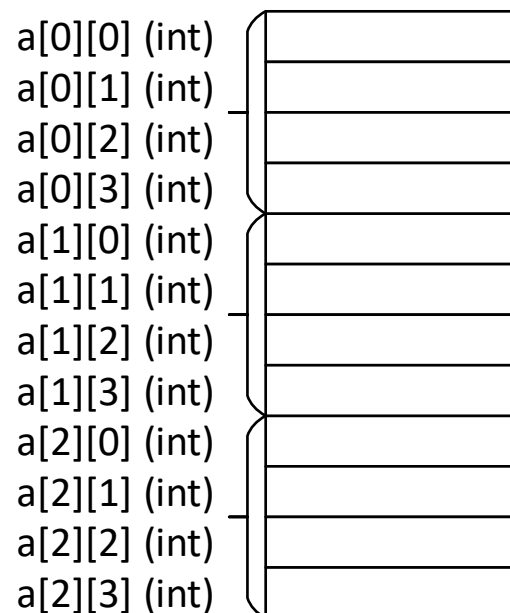
```
addi r1,r0,8
lw r2,a(r1)
sw x(r0),r2
```

Variable declarations and access

- Multidimensional arrays of integers:

```
int a[3][4];
```

a	res 48
---	--------



```

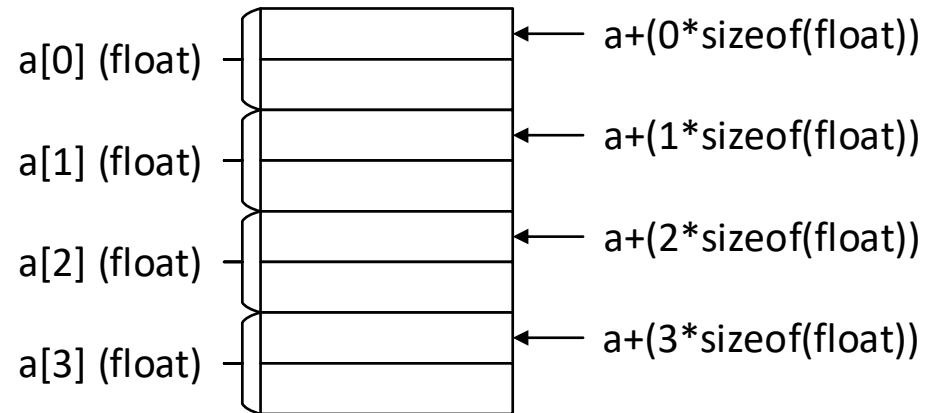
a+((0*sizeof(int)*col) + 0*sizeof(int))
a+((0*sizeof(int)*col) + 1*sizeof(int))
a+((0*sizeof(int)*col) + 2*sizeof(int))
a+((0*sizeof(int)*col) + 3*sizeof(int))
a+((1*sizeof(int)*col) + 0*sizeof(int))
a+((1*sizeof(int)*col) + 1*sizeof(int))
a+((1*sizeof(int)*col) + 2*sizeof(int))
a+((1*sizeof(int)*col) + 3*sizeof(int))
a+((2*sizeof(int)*col) + 0*sizeof(int))
a+((2*sizeof(int)*col) + 1*sizeof(int))
a+((2*sizeof(int)*col) + 2*sizeof(int))
a+((2*sizeof(int)*col) + 3*sizeof(int))

```

- To access specific elements, a more elaborated offset calculation needs to be implemented, and the offset value be put in a register before accessing.

Variable declarations and access

- For arrays of elements of aggregate type, each element takes more than one memory cell.
- The offset calculation needs to take into account to size of each element.
- For example, assuming a float takes 8 bytes (2 words):



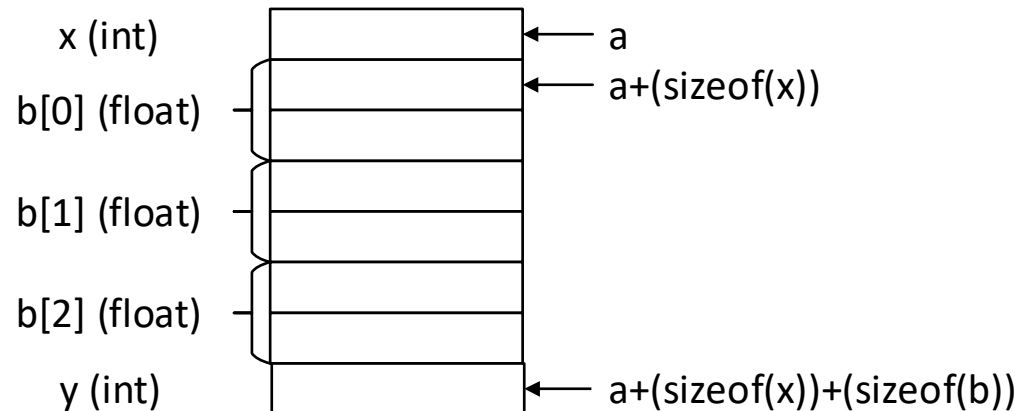
Variable declarations and access

- For an object variable declaration, each data member is stored contiguously in the order in which it is declared.

```
class MyClass{
  int x;
  float b[3]
  int y;
}
```

```
Myclass a;
```

```
a          res 32
```



- The offsets are calculated according to the total size of the data members preceding the member to access.

```
x = a.b[2]...
a + (offset of x) + (offset of b[2])
a + (sizeof(x))   + sizeof(float)*2
```

```
addi r1,r0,4
addi r1,r1,16
lw r2,a(r1)
sw x(r0),r2
```

Arithmetic operations

a+b

```
lw r1, a(r0)
lw r2, b(r0)
add r3, r1, r2
t1 res 4
sw t1(r0), r3
```

a+8

```
lw r1, a(r0)
addi r2, r1, 8
t2 res 4
sw t2(r0), r2
```

a*b

```
lw r1, a(r0)
lw r2, b(r0)
mul r3, r1, r2
t3 res 4
sw t3(r0), r3
```

a*8

```
lw r1, a(r0)
mul r2, r1, 8
t4 res 4
sw t4(r0), r2
```

Relational operators

a==b

```
lw r1, a(r0)
lw r2, b(r0)
ceq r3, r1, r2
t5 res 4
sw t5(r0), r3
```

a==8

```
lw r1, a(r0)
ceqi r2, r1, 8
t6 res 4
sw t6(r0), r2
```


Logical operators

- The Moon machine's **and**, **or** and **not** operators are bitwise operators.
- In order to have a logical operators, we need to code them with the assumption that false is 0 and anything else is true.

a and b

```

t7      lw r1, a(r0)
        lw r2, b(r0)
        res 4
        bz r1, zero1
        bz r2, zero1
        addi r1, r0, 1
        j endand1
zero1   addi r3, r0, 0
endand1 sw t7(r0), r0

```

not a

```

t8      lw r1, a(r0)
        not r2, r1
        res 4
        bz r2, zero2
        addi r1, r0, 1
        sw t8(r0), r1
        j endnot1
zero2   sw t8(r0), r0
endnot1

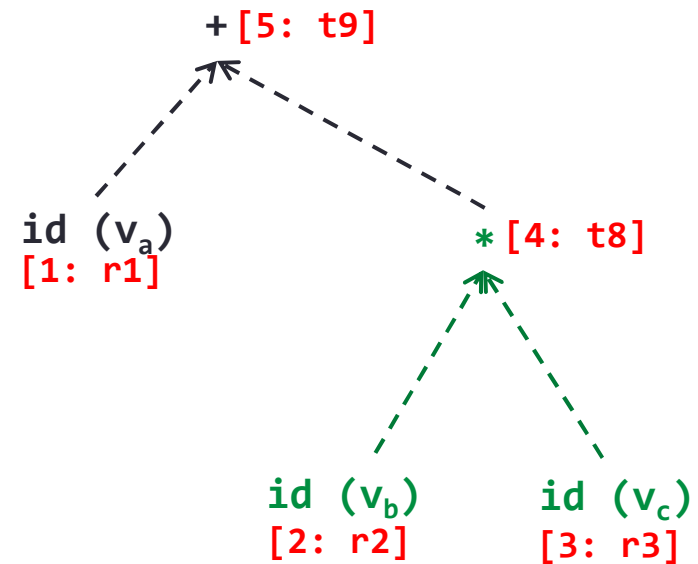
```

Expressions

- Each operator's code generation in the previous examples is the result of translating a subtree with two leaves as the operands and one intermediate node as the operator.
- For composite expressions, the temporary results become operands of operators higher in the tree.

$a+b*c$

	<code>lw r1, a(r0)</code>	[1]
	<code>lw r2, b(r0)</code>	[2]
	<code>lw r3, c(r0)</code>	[3]
	<code>mul r4, r2, r3</code>	[4]
t8	<code>res 4</code>	[4]
	<code>sw t8(r0), r4</code>	[4]
	<code>lw r5, t8(r0)</code>	[5]
	<code>add r6, r1, r5</code>	[5]
t9	<code>res 4</code>	[5]
	<code>sw t9(r0), r6</code>	[5]



Assignment operation

`a := b;`

```
lw r1, b(r0)
sw a(r0), r1
```

`a := 8;`

```
sub r1, r1, r1
addi r1, r1, 8
sw a(r0), r1
```

`a := b+c;`

```
{code for b+c. yields tn as a result}
lw r1, tn(r0)
sw a(r0), r1
```

Conditional statements

```
if a>b then a:=b; else a:=0;
  [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6]
```

	{code for "a>b", yields tn as a result}	[1]
	lw r1,tn(r0)	[2]
	bz r1,else1	[2]
	{code for "a:=b"}	[3]
	j endif1	[4]
else1	{code for "a:=0"}	[5]
endif1	{code continuation}	[6]

Loop statements

```
while a<b do a:=a+1;
[1]   [2]   [3] [4]   [5]
```

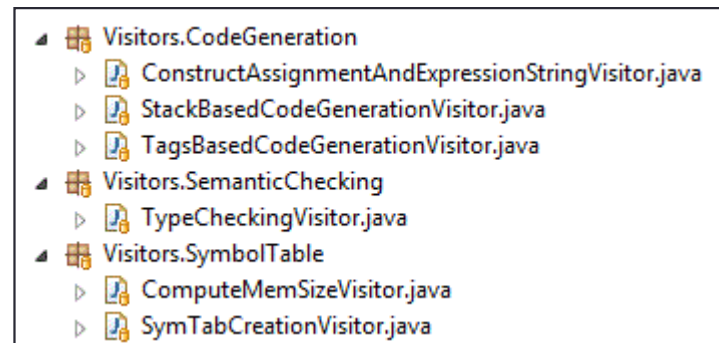
```
gowhile1 [1] {code for "a<b". yields tn as a result} [2]
          lw r1,tn(r0)                               [3]
          bz r1,endwhile1                             [3]
          {code for statblock (a:=a+1)}              [4]
          j gowhile1                                  [5]
endwhile1[5] {code continuation}
```

Translating functions

- There are two essential parts in translating programs that use functions:
 - translating function definitions.
 - translating function calls.
- First, the compiler encounters a function header. It can either be a function prototype (if the language has them) or the header of a full function definition.
- In both cases, a record can be created in the appropriate symbol table, and a local symbol table can be created if it is a new function.
- In the case of a full definition, the code is generated for the variable declarations and statements inside the body of the function, which is preceded by parameter-passing instructions, and followed by return value passing instructions.

Translating functions

- The address field in the symbol table entry of the function contains the address (or label) of the first memory cell assigned to the function.
- This address/label will be used to jump to the function when a function call is encountered and translated.
- Function calls raise the need for semantic checking. The number and type of actual parameters must match with the information stored in the symbol table for that function.
- Once the semantic check is successful, semantic translation can occur for the function call.
- For modularity purposes, it is better to have all semantic checks in a separate phase that runs prior to the code generation.



Function declarations

```

int fn ( int a, int b ){ statlist };
      [1]  [2]  [3]  [4]  [5]

```

fnres	res 4	[1]
fnp1	res 4	[2]
fn	sw fnp1(r0),r2	[2]
fnp2	res 4	[3]
	sw fnp2(r0),r3	[3]
	{code for var. decl. & statement list}	[4]
	{assuming tn contains return value}	[4]
	lw r1,tn(r0)	
	sw fnres(r0),r1	
	jr r15	[5]

- The above code assumes that the parameters are passed using registers, and that they are eventually stored in memory cells identified with a tag name.
 - Dependent on number of registers available.
 - Can only pass a value that fits into a register (or pass an address).
 - This is a simple solution, but with severe limitations.

Function declarations

- **fn** corresponds to the first instruction in the function.
- **fnres** contains the return value of **fn**.
- Parameters are copied to registers at function call and copied in the local variables when the function execution begins.
- This limits the possible number of parameters to the number of registers available.
- **r15** is reserved for linking back to the instruction following the jump at function call (see the following slides for function calls).

Function calls

- For languages not allowing recursive function calls, only one occurrence of any function can be running at any given time if we are using this model.
- In this case, all variables local to the function are statically allocated at compile time. The only things there are to manage are:
 - the jump to the function code.
 - the passing of parameters upon calling and return value upon completion.
 - the jump back to the instruction following the function call.

Function calls: simple case: no parameters

`fn()`

```
...  
{code for calling function}  
jl r15,fn  
{code continuation in the calling function}
```

`fn`

```
...  
{code for called function}  
...  
jr r15  
...
```

Function calls: passing parameters

- Parameters may be passed using registers.
- In this case, the number of parameters passed cannot exceed the total number of registers.
- The return value can also be passed using a register, typically **r1**.
- Simplistic parameter passing method. Works only in restricted cases.

Function calls: passing parameters (registers)

```
x = fn(p1,p2);
```

```
...  
{code for the calling function}  
lw r2,p1(r0)  
lw r3,p2(r0)  
jl r15,fn  
{assignment: assumes r1 contains return value}  
sw x(r0),r1  
{code continuation in the calling function}
```

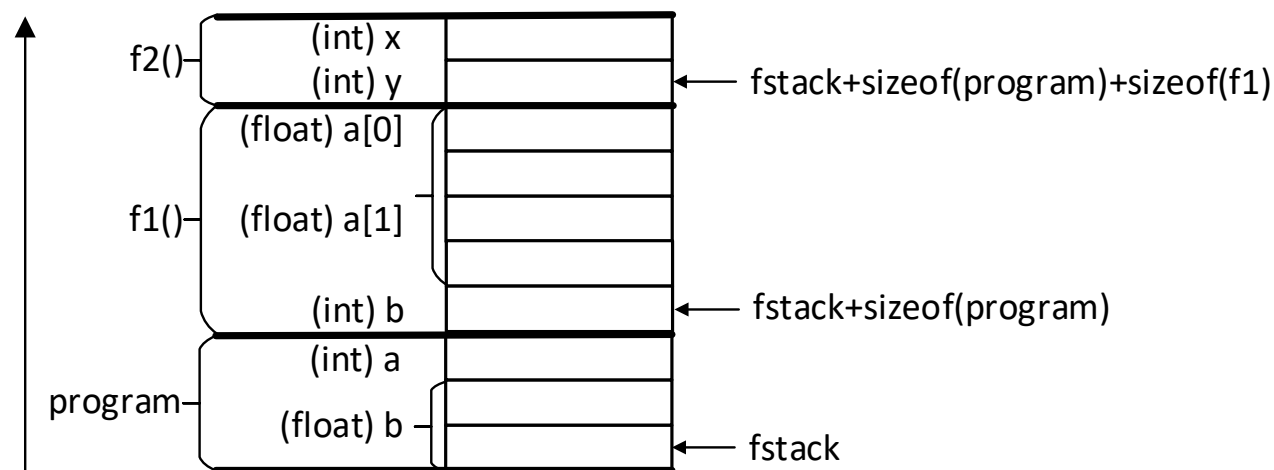
```
fn  
...  
{refer to param[i] as ri+1 in fn code}  
sw fnp2(r0),r3  
sw fnp1(r0),r2  
...  
{assuming tn contains return value}  
lw r1,tn(r0)  
jr r15
```

Function calls: passing parameters: multiple function call instances

- To avoid the limitation of the allowed number of parameters to the number of registers, parameters can be stored statically in a tagged memory cell (one for each parameter).
- These methods are only usable for languages where recursive function calls are not allowed.
- With recursive function calls, the problem is that several instances of the same function can be running at the same time, hence there is a need to store the state of each function invocation of the same function.
- To enable more than one function instance to run at the same time, all the variables and parameters of a running function are stored in a stack frame which is dynamically allocated on the function call stack.
- This involves the elaboration of a primitive run-time system as part of the compiled code.
- Another problem with multiple function instances is that **r15** is used to store the return address after a call. If there is more than one consecutive call (i.e. **prog** calls **f1**, then **f1** calls **f2**), then the return address needs to be stored in the function call stack frame.

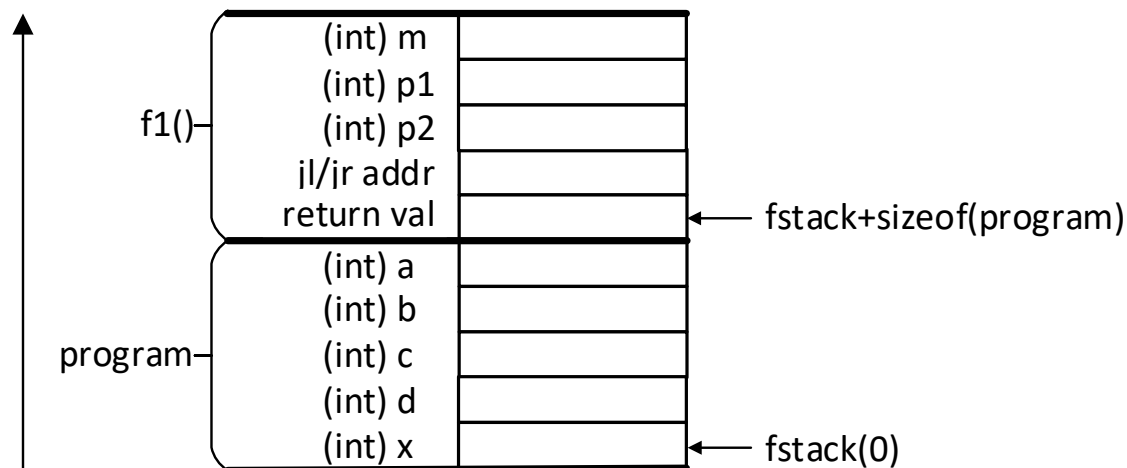
Function calls: function call stack and stack frames

- If multiple call instances is allowed, a **function call stack** is required:
 - The function call stack is a fixed-size memory area statically reserved.
 - For each function call, a **stack frame** is created on the function call stack.
 - The stack frame contains the values of all the local variables declared in the function.
 - The size of a stack frame is the sum of the sizes of all the function's local variables.
 - The location of the top of the stack is managed by adding/subtracting stack frame sizes as an accumulated offset from the initial address of the stack.
 - Then, when the functions' code uses its local variables, it refers to them as stored on the current function's stack frame.
 - When the function returns, its stack frame is "removed", i.e. the function call stack offset is decremented by its function call stack frame size.



Function calls: function call stack

- Function stack frames also need to contain space necessary to store values used in the function call mechanism, i.e. not only the local variables, but also:
 - The address stored in `r15` by `jl` as the function is called.
 - The return value in a place predictable by the calling function. From the perspective of the calling function, the return value is always stored at:
 - $\text{fstack} + \text{sizeof}(\text{myblock}) + \text{sizeof}(\text{typeof}(\text{return value}))$
 - The parameters in a place predictable by the calling function.
 - e.g. for `f1`'s parameters:
 - $\text{fstack} + \text{sizeof}(\text{myblock}) + \text{sizeof}(\text{typeof}(\text{return value})) + 4 + \text{sizeof}(\text{typeof}(\text{parameter1})) + \text{sizeof}(\text{typeof}(\text{parameter1}))$
 - $\text{fstack} + \text{sizeof}(\text{myblock}) + \text{sizeof}(\text{typeof}(\text{return value})) + 4 + \text{sizeof}(\text{typeof}(\text{parameter1})) + \text{sizeof}(\text{typeof}(\text{parameter1}))$



```
int f1(int p1, int p2){
    int m1;
    m1 = 5;
    p1 = p1 * m1;
    p2 = p2 * m1;
    return(p1 + p2);
}
program{
    int a;
    int b;
    int c;
    int d;
    int x;
    a = 1;
    b = 2;
    c = 3;
    d = 4;
    x = a + f1(b,c) * d;
    put(x);
} // result = 101
```


Function calls: function call stack: compute variables/block sizes and offsets

- For code generation the most important thing is to proceed in stages. Do not try to resolve all code generation in a single batch.
 - The first step is to compute the size of all variables involved in the compiled program.
 - These can be stored in the symbol tables.
 - Memory also needs to be reserved for intermediate results, and literal values used in the compiled program.
 - Then you can compute the offset of each element in a reserved block.

```

program{
  int a;
  int b;
  int c;
  a = 1;
  put(a);
  b = 2;
  put(b);
  c = 3;
  put(c);
  a = a + b c;
  put(a + 6);
} // result = 13

```

```

=====
| table: global          scope size: 0          |
=====
| func      | program | void          |
|-----|-----|-----|
| table: program      scope size: 40      |
|-----|-----|-----|
| var      | a       | int          | 4   | 0   |
| var      | b       | int          | 4   | 4   |
| var      | c       | int          | 4   | 8   |
| litval   | t1      | int          | 4   | 12  |
| litval   | t2      | int          | 4   | 16  |
| litval   | t3      | int          | 4   | 20  |
| tempvar  | t4      | int          | 4   | 24  |
| tempvar  | t5      | int          | 4   | 28  |
| litval   | t6      | int          | 4   | 32  |
| tempvar  | t7      | int          | 4   | 36  |
|-----|-----|-----|
=====

```

Function calls: function call stack: compute variables/block sizes and offsets

```

class class1{
    float float1;
    int int1;
}

int func1(int int235[2][3][5], float float4[10]){
    float float7;
    a=a+b*3;
}

program{
    int int532[5][3][2];
    class1 class110[10];
    float float3;
    int int3;
    a=a+b*c;
    x=a+b*c;
    a=x+z*y
}

```

=====				
class	class1			
=====				
table: class1		scope size: 12		
=====				
var	float1	float	8	0
var	int1	int	4	8
=====				
func	int	func1		
=====				
table: func1		scope size: 216		
=====				
param	int235	int	120	0
param	float4	float	80	120
var	float7	float	8	200
tempvar	t1	int	4	208
tempvar	t2	int	4	212
litval	t3	int	4	216
=====				
func	program	void		
=====				
table: program		scope size: 856		
=====				
var	int532	int	120	0
var	float101	class1	120	120
var	float3	float	8	240
var	int3	int	4	248
tempvar	t7	int	4	252
litval	t8	int	4	256
tempvar	t9	int	4	260
tempvar	t10	int	4	264
tempvar	t11	int	4	268
tempvar	t12	int	4	272
tempvar	t13	int	4	276
=====				
=====				

get and put: calling the operating system

- Some function calls interact with the operating system, e.g. when a program does input/output
- In these cases, there are several possibilities depending on the resources offered by the operating system, e.g.:
 - treatment via special predefined ASM operations/subroutines
 - access to the OS via calls or traps
- In the Moon processor, we have two special operators: **putc** and **getc**
- They respectively output some data to the screen and input data from the keyboard
- They are used to directly translate **get()** and **put()** statements (see the Moon manual)
- There are also a variety of libraries provided with the Moon code:
 - **lib.m**: read/write strings to console/from keyboard, string/integer conversion, string operations
 - **util.m**: read/write integer to console/from keyboard, string operations.

Code generation: suggested sequence

- Suggested sequence:
 - variable declarations (integers first)
 - expressions (one operator at a time)
 - assignment statement
 - put and get statements
 - conditional statement
 - loop statement
- Tricky parts:
 - function calls
 - expressions involving arrays (offset calculation)
 - floating point numbers
 - recursive function calls
 - expressions involving access to object members (offset calculations)
 - calls to member functions (access to object's data members)

Hints for final stages leading to the project demonstration

- You will not fail the project if you did not implement code generation for all aspects of the language.
- But, you might fail if your compiler is not working at all.
- This is why you should proceed in stages and make sure each successive stage is correct before going further.
- Be careful to not break what was previously working.
- This is the main reason why you should have numerous tests in place, ideally organized in automated regression testing. Unit testing is a good way to achieve that.
- Make sure you have a compiler that works properly for a subset of the problem.
- For the parts that you did not implement, think of a solution. You may get some marks if you are able to clearly explain how to do what is missing during your project demonstration.