

AIM

To have an understanding of foundations of design of assemblers, loaders, linkers, and macro processors.

OBJECTIVES

- To understand the relationship between system software and machine architecture.
- To know the design and implementation of assemblers
- To know the design and implementation of linkers and loaders.
- To have an understanding of macroprocessors.
- To have an understanding of system software tools.

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TEXT BOOK

1. Leland L. Beck, “System Software – An Introduction to Systems Programming”, 3rd Edition, Pearson Education Asia, 2006.

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UNIT I - INTRODUCTION

The subject introduces the design and implementation of system software. Software is set of instructions or programs written to carry out certain task on digital computers. It is classified into **system software** and **application software**.

System software consists of a variety of programs that support the operation of a computer. This software makes it possible for the user to focus on an application or other problem to be solved, without needing to know the details of how the machine works internally. Eg. Operating system, compiler, assembler, macro processor, loader or linker, debugger, text editor, database management systems (some of them) and, software engineering tools.

Application software focuses on an application or problem to be solved. System software consists of a variety of programs that support the operation of a computer.

DIFFERENT STEPS INVOLVED IN USING A HIGH LEVEL LANGUAGE

Types of system s/w that has been used by us in a C program

- Step 1: A program written (create & modify) in High level language (C, C++, pascal typed in text editor
- Step 2: Translated into machine language (object program) using compiler. The compiler in turn store the .obj into the secondary device
- Step 3: The resulting machine language program was loaded into memory & prepared for execution by a loader or linker. There are diff loading schemes viz. absolute, relocating and direct linking. In general the loader must load relocate and link the object program
- Step 4: debugger -> helps to detect errors in the program

DIFFERENT STEPS INVOLVED IN USING ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE

- Step 1: Program written using macro instructions to read & write data
- Step 2: Uses assembler, which probably included a macro processor to translate these programs into machine language
- Step 3: loader or linker (prepared for execution)
- Step 4: tested using debugger

All these processes are controlled by interacting with the OS of the computer

UNIX or DOS -> Keyboard Commands

MacOs or Windows -> Menus -> Click

SYSTEM SOFTWARE AND MACHINE ARCHITECTURE

One characteristic in which most system software differs from application software is machine dependency.

System software – support operation and use of computer.

Application software - solution to a problem.

Assembler translates mnemonic instructions into machine code. The instruction formats, addressing modes etc., are of direct concern in assembler design. Similarly, **Compilers** must generate machine language code, taking into account such hardware characteristics as the

number and type of registers and the machine instructions available. **Operating systems** are directly concerned with the management of nearly all of the resources of a computing system.

There are aspects of system software that do not directly depend upon the type of computing system, general design and logic of an assembler, general design and logic of a compiler and, code optimization techniques, which are independent of target machines. Likewise, the process of linking together independently assembled subprograms does not usually depend on the computer being used.

THE SIMPLIFIED INSTRUCTIONAL COMPUTER (SIC)

Simplified Instructional Computer (SIC) is a hypothetical computer that includes the hardware features most often found on real machines. There are two versions of SIC, they are, standard model (SIC), and, extension version (SIC/XE) (extra equipment or extra expensive).

SIC MACHINE ARCHITECTURE

We discuss here the SIC machine architecture with respect to its Memory and Registers, Data Formats, Instruction Formats, Addressing Modes, Instruction Set, Input and Output

Memory

There are 2^{15} bytes in the computer memory, that is 32,768 bytes , It uses Little Endian format to store the numbers, 3 consecutive bytes form a word , each location in memory contains 8-bit bytes.

Registers

There are five registers, each 24 bits in length. Their mnemonic, number and use are given in the following table.

Mnemonic	Number	Use
A	0	Accumulator; used for arithmetic operations
X	1	Index register; used for addressing
L	2	Linkage register; JSUB
PC	8	Program counter
SW	9	Status word, including CC

Data Formats

Integers are stored as 24-bit binary numbers, 2's complement representation is used for negative values, characters are stored using their 8-bit ASCII codes, No floating-point hardware on the standard version of SIC.

Instruction Formats

Opcode(8)	x	Address (15)
-----------	---	--------------

All machine instructions on the standard version of SIC have the 24-bit format as shown above

Addressing Modes

Mode	Indication	Target address calculation
Direct	x = 0	TA = address
Indexed	x = 1	TA = address + (x)

There are two addressing modes available, which are as shown in the above table. Parentheses are used to indicate the contents of a register or a memory location.

Instruction Set

SIC provides, load and store instructions (LDA, LDX, STA, STX, etc.). Integer arithmetic operations: (ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV, etc.). All arithmetic operations involve register A and a word in memory, with the result being left in the register. Two instructions are provided for subroutine linkage. COMP compares the value in register A with a word in memory, this instruction sets a condition code CC to indicate the result. There are conditional jump instructions: (JLT, JEQ, JGT), these instructions test the setting of CC and jump accordingly. JSUB jumps to the subroutine placing the return address in register L, RSUB returns by jumping to the address contained in register L.

Input and Output

Input and Output are performed by transferring 1 byte at a time to or from the rightmost 8 bits of register A (accumulator). The Test Device (TD) instruction tests whether the addressed device is ready to send or receive a byte of data. Read Data (RD), Write Data (WD) are used for reading or writing the data.

Data movement and Storage Definition

LDA, STA, LDL, STL, LDX, STX (A- Accumulator, L – Linkage Register, X – Index Register), all uses 3-byte word. LDCH, STCH associated with characters uses 1-byte. There are no memory-memory move instructions.

Storage definitions are

WORD - ONE-WORD CONSTANT

RESW - ONE-WORD VARIABLE

BYTE - ONE-BYTE CONSTANT

RESB - ONE-BYTE VARIABLE

Example Programs (SIC)

Example 1(Simple data and character movement operation)

```
          LDA FIVE
          STA ALPHA
          LDCH   CHARZ
          STCH   C1

ALPHA     RESW   1
FIVE      WORD  5
CHARZ     BYTE  C'Z'
C1        RESB   1
```

Example 2(Arithmetic operations)

```
          LDA ALPHA
          ADD INCR
          SUB ONE
          STA BEETA
          .....
          .....
          .....
          .....

ONE       WORD  1
ALPHA     RESW  1
BEETA     RESW  1
INCR      RESW  1
```

Example 3(Looping and Indexing operation)

```
          LDX   ZERO      : X = 0
          MOVECH LDCH STR1, X : LOAD A FROM STR1
          STCH  STR2, X    : STORE A TO STR2
          TIX   ELEVEN    : ADD 1 TO X, TEST
          JLT   MOVECH
          .
          .
          .

STR1     BYTE  C 'HELLO WORLD'
STR2     RESB  11
ZERO     WORD  0
ELEVEN   WORD  11
```

Example 4(Input and Output operation)

```

INLOOP  TD    INDEV      : TEST INPUT DEVICE
        JEQ    INLOOP    : LOOP UNTIL DEVICE IS READY
        RD     INDEV      : READ ONE BYTE INTO A
        STCH   DATA     : STORE A TO DATA
        .
        .
OUTLP   TD     OUTDEV     : TEST OUTPUT DEVICE
        JEQ    OUTLP     : LOOP UNTIL DEVICE IS READY
        LDCH   DATA     : LOAD DATA INTO A
        WD     OUTDEV     : WRITE A TO OUTPUT DEVICE
        .
        .
INDEV   BYTE   X 'F5'     : INPUT DEVICE NUMBER
OUTDEV  BYTE   X '08'     : OUTPUT DEVICE NUMBER
DATA    RESB   1         : ONE-BYTE VARIABLE

```

Example 5 (To transfer two hundred bytes of data from input device to memory)

```

LDX  ZERO
CLOOP TD    INDEV
      JEQ    CLOOP
      RD     INDEV
      STCH   RECORD, X
      TIX    B200
      JLT    CLOOP
      .
      .
INDEV  BYTE   X 'F5'
RECORD RESB   200
ZERO   WORD   0
B200   WORD   200

```

Example 6 (Subroutine to transfer two hundred bytes of data from input device to memory)

```

      JSUB  READ
      .....
      .....
READ  LDX   ZERO
CLOOP TD    INDEV
      JEQ    CLOOP
      RD     INDEV
      STCH   RECORD, X
      TIX    B200      : add 1 to index compare 200 (B200)

```

```

JLT    CLOOP
RSUB
.....
.....
INDEV  BYTE  X 'F5'
RECORD RESB  200
ZERO   WORD  0
B200   WORD  200

```

SIC/XE MACHINE ARCHITECTURE

Memory

Maximum memory available on a SIC/XE system is 1 Megabyte (2^{20} bytes)

Registers

Additional B, S, T, and F registers are provided by SIC/XE, in addition to the registers of SIC

Mnemonic	Number	Special use
B	3	Base register
S	4	General working register
T	5	General working register
F	6	Floating-point accumulator (48 bits)

Floating-point data type

There is a 48-bit floating-point data type, $F \cdot 2^{(e-1024)}$

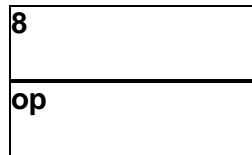
1	11	36
s	exponent	fraction

Instruction Formats

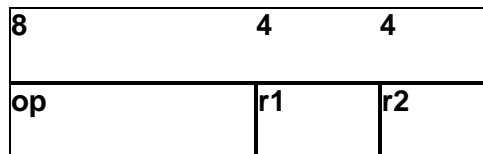
The new set of instruction formats for SIC/XE machine architecture are as follows. Format 1 (1 byte): contains only operation code (straight from table). Format 2 (2 bytes): first eight bits for operation code, next four for register 1 and following four for register 2. The numbers for the registers go according to the numbers indicated at the registers section (ie, register T is replaced by hex 5, F is replaced by hex 6). Format 3 (3 bytes): First 6 bits contain operation code, next 6 bits contain flags, last 12 bits contain displacement for the address of the operand. Operation code uses only 6 bits, thus the second hex digit will be affected by the values of the first two flags (n and i). The flags, in order, are: n, i, x, b, p, and e. Its functionality is explained in the next section. The last flag e indicates the instruction format (0 for 3 and 1 for

4). Format 4 (4 bytes): same as format 3 with an extra 2 hex digits (8 bits) for addresses that require more than 12 bits to be represented.

Format 1 (1 byte)

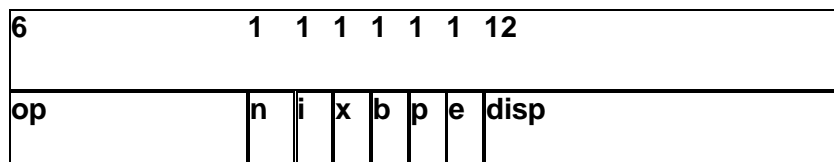


Format 2 (2 bytes)

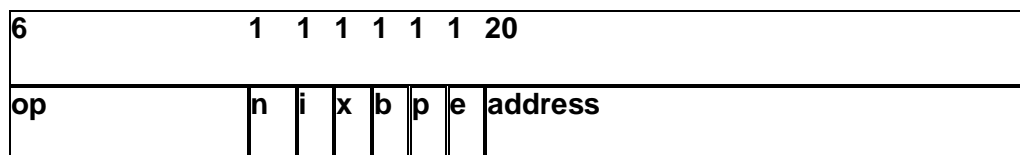


Formats 1 and 2 are instructions do not reference memory at all

Format 3 (3 bytes)



Format 4 (4 bytes)



Addressing modes & Flag Bits

Five possible addressing modes plus the combinations are as follows.

Direct (x, b, and p all set to 0): operand address goes as it is. n and i are both set to the same value, either 0 or 1. While in general that value is 1, if set to 0 for format 3 we can assume that the rest of the flags (x, b, p, and e) are used as a part of the address of the operand, to make the format compatible to the SIC format

Relative (either b or p equal to 1 and the other one to 0): the address of the operand should be added to the current value stored at the B register (if b = 1) or to the value stored at the PC register (if p = 1)

Immediate (i = 1, n = 0): The operand value is already enclosed on the instruction (ie. lies on the last 12/20 bits of the instruction)

Indirect (i = 0, n = 1): The operand value points to an address that holds the address for the operand value.

Indexed (x = 1): value to be added to the value stored at the register x to obtain real address of the operand. This can be combined with any of the previous modes except immediate.

The various flag bits used in the above formats have the following meanings

e - e = 0 means format 3, e = 1 means format 4

Bits x,b,p: Used to calculate the target address using relative, direct, and indexed addressing Modes

Bits i and n: Says, how to use the target address

b and p - both set to 0, disp field from format 3 instruction is taken to be the target address. For a format 4 bits b and p are normally set to 0, 20 bit address is the target address

x - x is set to 1, X register value is added for target address calculation

i=1, n=0 Immediate addressing, **TA**: TA is used as the operand value, no memory reference

i=0, n=1 Indirect addressing, **((TA))**: The word at the TA is fetched. Value of TA is taken as the address of the operand value

i=0, n=0 or i=1, n=1 Simple addressing, **(TA)**:TA is taken as the address of the operand value

Two new relative addressing modes are available for use with instructions assembled using format 3.

Mode	Indication	Target address calculation
Base relative	b=1,p=0	TA=(B)+ disp ($0 \leq \text{disp} \leq 4095$)
Program-counter relative	b=0,p=1	TA=(PC)+ disp ($-2048 \leq \text{disp} \leq 2047$)

Instruction Set

SIC/XE provides all of the instructions that are available on the standard version. In addition we have, Instructions to load and store the new registers LDB, STB, etc, Floating-point arithmetic operations, ADDF, SUBF, MULF, DIVF, Register move instruction : RMO, Register-to-register arithmetic operations, ADDR, SUBR, MULR, DIVR and, Supervisor call instruction : SVC.

Input and Output

There are I/O channels that can be used to perform input and output while the CPU is executing other instructions. Allows overlap of computing and I/O, resulting in more efficient system operation. The instructions SIO, TIO, and HIO are used to start, test and halt the operation of I/O channels.

Example Programs (SIC/XE)

Example 1 (Simple data and character movement operation)

```
        LDA #5
        STA ALPHA
        LDA #90
        STCH C1
        .
        .
ALPHA   RESW 1
C1      RESB 1
```

Example 2(Arithmetic operations)

```
        LDS INCR
        LDA ALPHA
        ADD S,A
        SUB #1
        STA BEETA
        .....
        .....
ALPHA RESW 1
BEETA RESW 1
INCR  RESW 1
```

Example 3(Looping and Indexing operation)

```
        LDT #11
        LDX #0      : X = 0
MOVECH  LDCH STR1, X : LOAD A FROM STR1
        STCH STR2, X : STORE A TO STR2
        TIXR T       : ADD 1 TO X, TEST (T)
        JLT MOVECH
        .....
        .....
        .....
STR1    BYTE C 'HELLO WORLD'
STR2    RESB 11
```

Example 4 (To transfer two hundred bytes of data from input device to memory)

```
        LDT #200
        LDX #0
CLOOP   TD INDEV
```

```

        JEQ    CLOOP
        RD     INDEV
        STCH   RECORD, X
        TIXR   T
        JLT    CLOOP
        .
        .
INDEV    BYTE   X 'F5'
RECORD   RESB   200

```

Example 5 (Subroutine to transfer two hundred bytes of data from input device to memory)

```

        JSUB   READ
        .....
READ     .....
        LDT    #200
        LDX    #0
CLOOP    TD     INDEV
        JEQ    CLOOP
        RD     INDEV
        STCH   RECORD, X
        TIXR   T           : add 1 to index compare T
        JLT    CLOOP
        RSUB
        .....
        .....
INDEV    BYTE   X 'F5'
RECORD   RESB   200

```

DIFFERENT ARCHITECTURES

The following section introduces the architectures of CISC and RISC machines. CISC machines are called traditional machines. In addition to these we have recent RISC machines. Different machines belonging to both of these architectures are compared with respect to their Memory, Registers, Data Formats, Instruction Formats, Addressing Modes, Instruction Set, Input and Output

CISC MACHINES

Traditional (CISC) Machines, are nothing but, Complex Instruction Set Computers, has relatively large and complex instruction set, different instruction formats, different lengths, different addressing modes, and implementation of hardware for these computers is complex. VAX and Intel x86 processors are examples for this type of architecture.

VAX ARCHITECTURE

Memory - The VAX memory consists of 8-bit bytes. All addresses used are byte addresses. Two consecutive bytes form a word, Four bytes form a longword, eight bytes form a quadword, sixteen bytes form a octaword. All VAX programs operate in a virtual address space of 232 bytes , One half is called system space, other half process space.

Registers – There are 16 general purpose registers (GPRs) , 32 bits each, named as R0 to R15, PC (R15), SP (R14), Frame Pointer FP (R13), Argument Pointer AP (R12) ,Others available for general use. There is a Process status longword (PSL) – for flags.

Data Formats - Integers are stored as binary numbers in byte, word, longword, quadword, octaword. 2's complement notation is used for storing negative numbers. Characters are stored as 8-bit ASCII codes. Four different floating-point data formats are also available.

Instruction Formats - VAX architecture uses variable-length instruction formats – op code 1 or 2 bytes, maximum of 6 operand specifiers depending on type of instruction. Tabak – Advanced Microprocessors (2nd edition) McGraw-Hill, 1995, gives more information.

Addressing Modes - VAX provides a large number of addressing modes. They are Register mode, register deferred mode, autoincrement, autodecrement, base relative, program-counter relative, indexed, indirect, and immediate.

Instruction Set – Instructions are symmetric with respect to data type - Uses prefix – type of operation, suffix – type of operands, a modifier – number of operands. For example, ADDW2 - add, word length, 2 operands, MULL3 - multiply, longwords, 3 operands CVTCL - conversion from word to longword. VAX also provides instructions to load and store multiple registers.

Input and Output - Uses I/O device controllers. Device control registers are mapped to separate I/O space. Software routines and memory management routines are used for input/output operations.

PENTIUM PRO ARCHITECTURE

Introduced by Intel in 1995.

Memory - consists of 8-bit bytes, all addresses used are byte addresses. Two consecutive bytes form a word, four bytes form a double word (dword). Viewed as collection of segments, and, address = segment number + offset. There are code, data, stack , extra segments.

Registers – There are 32-bit, eight GPRs, namely EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX, ESI, EDI, EBP, ESP. EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX – are used for data manipulation, other four are used to hold addresses. EIP – 32-bit contains pointer to next instruction to be executed. FLAGS is an 32 - bit flag register. CS, SS, DS, ES, FS, GS are the six 16-bit segment registers.

Data Formats - Integers are stored as 8, 16, or 32 bit binary numbers, 2's complement for negative numbers, BCD is also used in the form of unpacked BCD, packed BCD. There are three floating point data formats, they are single, double, and extended-precision. Characters are stored as one per byte – ASCII codes.

Instruction Formats – Instructions use prefixes to specify repetition count, segment register, following prefix (if present), an opcode (1 or 2 bytes), then number of bytes to specify operands, addressing modes. Instruction formats vary in length from 1 byte to 10 bytes or more. Opcode is always present in every instruction.

Addressing Modes - A large number of addressing modes are available. They are immediate mode, register mode, direct mode, and relative mode. Use of base register, index register with displacement is also possible.

Instruction Set – This architecture has a large and complex instruction set, approximately 400 different machine instructions. Each instruction may have one, two or three operands. For example Register-to-register, register-to-memory, memory-to-memory, string manipulation, etc...are the some the instructions.

Input and Output - Input is from an I/O port into register EAX. Output is from EAX to an I/O port.

RISC MACHINES

RISC means Reduced Instruction Set Computers. These machines are intended to simplify the design of processors. They have Greater reliability, faster execution and less expensive processors. And also they have standard and fixed instruction length. Number of machine instructions, instruction formats, and addressing modes are relatively small. UltraSPARC Architecture and Cray T3E Architecture are examples of RISC machines.

ULTRASPARC ARCHITECTURE

Introduced by Sun Microsystems. SPARC – Scalable Processor ARChitecture. SPARC, SuperSPARC, UltraSPARC are upward compatible machines and share the same basic structure.

Memory - Consists of 8-bit bytes, all addresses used are byte addresses. Two consecutive bytes form a halfword, four bytes form a word, eight bytes form a double word. Uses virtual address space of 2^{64} bytes, divided into pages.

Registers - More than 100 GPRs, with 64 bits length each called Register file. There are 64 double precision floating-point registers, in a special floating-point unit (FPU). In addition to these, it contains PC, condition code registers, and control registers.

Data Formats - Integers are stored as 8, 16, 32 or 64 bit binary numbers. Signed, unsigned for integers and 2's complement for negative numbers. Supports both big-endian and little-endian byte orderings. Floating-point data formats – single, double and quad-precision are available. Characters are stored as 8-bit ASCII value.

Instruction Formats - 32-bits long, three basic instruction formats, first two bits identify the format. Format 1 used for call instruction. Format 2 used for branch instructions. Format 3 used for load, store and for arithmetic operations.

Addressing Modes - This architecture supports immediate mode, register-direct mode, PC-relative, Register indirect with displacement, and Register indirect indexed.

Instruction Set – It has fewer than 100 machine instructions. The only instructions that access memory are loads and stores. All other instructions are register-to-register operations. Instruction execution is pipelined – this results in faster execution, and hence speed increases.

Input and Output - Communication through I/O devices is accomplished through memory. A range of memory locations is logically replaced by device registers. When a load or store instruction refers to this device register area of memory, the corresponding device is activated. There are no special I/O instructions.

CRAY T3E ARCHITECTURE

Announced by Cray Research Inc., at the end of 1995 and is a massively parallel processing (MPP) system, contains a large number of processing elements (PEs), arranged in a three-dimensional network. Each PE consists of a DEC Alpha EV5 RISC processor, and local memory.

Memory - Each PE in T3E has its own local memory with a capacity of from 64 megabytes to 2 gigabytes, consists of 8-bit bytes, all addresses used are byte addresses. Two consecutive bytes form a word, four bytes form a longword, eight bytes form a quadword.

Registers – There are 32 general purpose registers(GPRs), with 64 bits length each called R0 through R31, contains value zero always. In addition to these, it has 32 floating-point registers, 64 bits long, and 64-bit PC, status, and control registers.

Data Formats - Integers are stored as long and quad word binary numbers. 2's complement notation for negative numbers. Supports only little-endian byte orderings. Two different floating-point data formats – VAX and IEEE standard. Characters stored as 8-bit ASCII value.

Instruction Formats - 32-bits long, five basic instruction formats. First six bits always identify the opcode.

Addressing Modes - This architecture supports, immediate mode, register-direct mode, PC-relative, and Register indirect with displacement.

Instruction Set - Has approximately 130 machine instructions. There are no byte or word load and store instructions. Smith and Weiss – “PowerPC 601 and Alpha 21064: A Tale of TWO RISCs “ – Gives more information.

Input and Output - Communication through I/O devices is accomplished through multiple ports and I/O channels. Channels are integrated into the network that interconnects the processing elements. All channels are accessible and controllable from all PEs.

UNIT II ASSEMBLERS

Assembler is system software which is used to convert an assembly language program to its equivalent object code. The input to the assembler is a source code written in assembly language (using mnemonics) and the output is the object code. The design of an assembler depends upon the machine architecture as the language used is mnemonic language.

BASIC ASSEMBLER FUNCTIONS:

The basic assembler functions are:

- Translating mnemonic language code to its equivalent object code.
- Assigning machine addresses to symbolic labels.



The design of assembler can be to perform the following:

- Scanning (tokenizing)
- Parsing (validating the instructions)
- Creating the symbol table
- Resolving the forward references
- Converting into the machine language

The design of assembler in other words:

- Convert mnemonic operation codes to their machine language equivalents
- Convert symbolic operands to their equivalent machine addresses
- Decide the proper instruction format Convert the data constants to internal machine representations
- Write the object program and the assembly listing

So for the design of the assembler we need to concentrate on the machine architecture of the SIC/XE machine. We need to identify the algorithms and the various data structures to be used. According to the above required steps for assembling the assembler also has to handle *assembler directives*, these do not generate the object code but directs the assembler to perform certain operation. These directives are:

START: Specify name & starting address.

END: End of the program, specify the first execution instruction.

BYTE, WORD, RESB, RESW

End of record: a null char(00)

End of file: a zero length record

The assembler design can be done in two ways:

1. Single pass assembler
2. Multi-pass assembler

Single-pass Assembler:

In this case the whole process of scanning, parsing, and object code conversion is done in single pass. The only problem with this method is resolving forward reference. This is shown with an example below:

10	1000	FIRST	STL	RETADR	141033
--					
--					
--					
--					
95	1033	RETADR	RESW	1	

In the above example in line number 10 the instruction STL will store the linkage register with the contents of RETADR. But during the processing of this instruction the value of this symbol is not known as it is defined at the line number 95. Since I single-pass assembler the scanning, parsing and object code conversion happens simultaneously. The instruction is fetched; it is scanned for tokens, parsed for syntax and semantic validity. If it valid then it has to be converted to its equivalent object code. For this the object code is generated for the opcode STL and the value for the symbol RETADR need to be added, which is not available.

Due to this reason usually the design is done in two passes. So a multi-pass assembler resolves the forward references and then converts into the object code. Hence the process of the multi-pass assembler can be as follows:

Pass-1

- Assign addresses to all the statements
- Save the addresses assigned to all labels to be used in *Pass-2*
- Perform some processing of assembler directives such as RESW, RESB to find the length of data areas for assigning the address values.
- Defines the symbols in the symbol table(generate the symbol table)

Pass-2

- Assemble the instructions (translating operation codes and looking up addresses).
- Generate data values defined by BYTE, WORD etc.
- Perform the processing of the assembler directives not done during *pass-1*.
- Write the object program and assembler listing.

Assembler Design:

The most important things which need to be concentrated is the generation of Symbol table and resolving *forward references*.

Symbol Table:

- This is created during pass 1
- All the labels of the instructions are symbols
- Table has entry for symbol name, address value.

Forward reference:

- Symbols that are defined in the later part of the program are called forward referencing.
- There will not be any address value for such symbols in the symbol table in pass 1.

Example Program:

The example program considered here has a main module, two subroutines

Purpose of example program

- Reads records from input device (code F1)
- Copies them to output device (code 05)
- At the end of the file, writes EOF on the output device, then RSUB to the OS

Data transfer (RD, WD)

- A buffer is used to store record
- Buffering is necessary for different I/O rates
- The end of each record is marked with a null character (00)16
- The end of the file is indicated by a zero-length record

Subroutines (JSUB, RSUB)

- RDREC, WRREC
- Save link register first before nested jump

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Line	Loc	Source statement			Object code
5	1000	COPY	START	1000	
10	1000	FIRST	STL	RETADR	141033
15	1003	CLOOP	JSUB	RDREC	482039
20	1006		LDA	LENGTH	001036
25	1009		COMP	ZERO	281030
30	100C		JEQ	ENDFIL	301015
35	100F		JSUB	WRREC	482061
40	1012		J	CLOOP	3C1003
45	1015	ENDFIL	LDA	EOF	00102A
50	1018		STA	BUFFER	0C1039
55	101B		LDA	THREE	00102D
60	101E		STA	LENGTH	0C1036
65	1021		JSUB	WRREC	482061
70	1024		LDL	RETADR	081033
75	1027		RSUB		4C0000
80	102A	EOF	BYTE	C' EOF'	454F46
85	102D	THREE	WORD	3	000003
90	1030	ZERO	WORD	0	000000
95	1033	RETADR	RESW	1	
100	1036	LENGTH	RESW	1	
105	1039	BUFFER	RESB	4096	
110					

110	.				
115	.				SUBROUTINE TO READ RECORD INTO BUFFER.
120	.				
125	2039	RDREC	LDX	ZERO	041030
130	203C		LDA	ZERO	001030
135	203F	RLOOP	TD	INPUT	E0205D
140	2042		JEQ	RLOOP	30203F
145	2045		RD	INPUT	D8205D
150	2048		COMP	ZERO	281030
155	204B		JEQ	EXIT	302057
160	204E		STCH	BUFFER,X	549039
165	2051		TIX	MAXLEN	2C205E
170	2054		JLT	RLOOP	38203F
175	2057	EXIT	STX	LENGTH	101036
180	205A		RSUB		4C0000
185	205D	INPUT	BYTE	X'F1'	F1
190	205E	MAXLEN	WORD	4096	001000
195					

195	.				
200	.			SUBROUTINE TO WRITE RECORD FROM BUFFER	
205	.				
210	2061	WRREC	LDX	ZERO	041030
215	2064	WLOOP	TD	OUTPUT	E02079
220	2067		JEQ	WLOOP	302064
225	206A		LDCH	BUFFER,X	509039
230	206D		WD	OUTPUT	DC2079
235	2070		TIJ	LENGTH	2C1036
240	2073		JLT	WLOOP	382064
245	2076		RSUB		4C0000
250	2079	OUTPUT	BYTE	X'05'	05
255			END	FIRST	

The first column shows the line number for that instruction, second column shows the addresses allocated to each instruction. The third column indicates the labels given to the statement, and is followed by the instruction consisting of opcode and operand. The last column gives the equivalent object code.

The *object code* later will be loaded into memory for execution. The simple object program we use contains three types of records:

Header record

- Col. 1 H
- Col. 2~7 Program name
- Col. 8~13 Starting address of object program (hex)
- Col. 14~19 Length of object program in bytes (hex)

Text record

- Col. 1 T
- Col. 2~7 Starting address for object code in this record (hex)
- Col. 8~9 Length of object code in this record in bytes (hex)
- Col. 10~69 Object code, represented in hex (2 col. per byte)

End record

- Col.1 E

Col.2~7 Address of first executable instruction in object program (hex) “^” is only for separation only

Simple SIC Assembler

The program below is shown with the object code generated. The column named LOC gives the machine addresses of each part of the assembled program (assuming the program is starting at location 1000). The translation of the source program to the object program requires us to accomplish the following functions:

- Convert the mnemonic operation codes to their machine language equivalent.

- Convert symbolic operands to their equivalent machine addresses.
- Build the machine instructions in the proper format.
- Convert the data constants specified in the source program into their internal machine representations in the proper format.
- Write the object program and assembly listing.

All these steps except the second can be performed by sequential processing of the source program, one line at a time. Consider the instruction

```
10      1000          LDA      ALPHA      00-----
```

This instruction contains the forward reference, i.e. the symbol ALPHA is used is not yet defined. If the program is processed (scanning and parsing and object code conversion) is done line-by-line, we will be unable to resolve the address of this symbol. Due to this problem most of the assemblers are designed to process the program in two passes.

In addition to the translation to object program, the assembler has to take care of handling assembler directive. These directives do not have object conversion but gives direction to the assembler to perform some function. Examples of directives are the statements like BYTE and WORD, which directs the assembler to reserve memory locations without generating data values. The other directives are START which indicates the beginning of the program and END indicating the end of the program.

The assembled program will be loaded into memory for execution. The simple object program contains three types of records: Header record, Text record and end record. The header record contains the starting address and length. Text record contains the translated instructions and data of the program, together with an indication of the addresses where these are to be loaded. The end record marks the end of the object program and specifies the address where the execution is to begin.

The format of each record is as given below.

Header record:

Col 1	H
Col. 2-7	Program name
Col 8-13	Starting address of object program (hexadecimal)
Col 14-19	Length of object program in bytes (hexadecimal)

Text record:

Col. 1	T
Col 2-7.	Starting address for object code in this record (hexadecimal)
Col 8-9	Length off object code in this record in bytes (hexadecimal)
Col 10-69	Object code, represented in hexadecimal (2 columns per byte of object code)

End record:

Col. 1	E
Col 2-7	Address of first executable instruction in object program (hexadecimal)

The assembler can be designed either as a single pass assembler or as a two pass assembler. The general description of both passes is as given below:

Pass 1 (define symbols)

- Assign addresses to all statements in the program
- Save the addresses assigned to all labels for use in Pass 2
- Perform assembler directives, including those for address assignment, such as BYTE and RESW

Pass 2 (assemble instructions and generate object program)

- Assemble instructions (generate opcode and look up addresses)
- Generate data values defined by BYTE, WORD
- Perform processing of assembler directives not done during Pass 1
- Write the object program and the assembly listing

ALGORITHMS AND DATA STRUCTURE

The simple assembler uses two major internal data structures: the operation Code Table (OPTAB) and the Symbol Table (SYMTAB).

OPTAB: It is used to lookup mnemonic operation codes and translates them to their machine language equivalents. In more complex assemblers the table also contains information about instruction format and length. In pass 1 the OPTAB is used to look up and validate the operation code in the source program. In pass 2, it is used to translate the operation codes to machine language. In simple SIC machine this process can be performed in either in pass 1 or in pass 2. But for machine like SIC/XE that has instructions of different lengths, we must search OPTAB in the first pass to find the instruction length for incrementing LOCCTR. In pass 2 we take the information from OPTAB to tell us which instruction format to use in assembling the instruction, and any peculiarities of the object code instruction.

OPTAB is usually organized as a hash table, with mnemonic operation code as the key. The hash table organization is particularly appropriate, since it provides fast retrieval with a minimum of searching. Most of the cases the OPTAB is a static table- that is, entries are not normally added to or deleted from it. In such cases it is possible to design a special hashing function or other data structure to give optimum performance for the particular set of keys being stored.

SYMTAB: This table includes the name and value for each label in the source program, together with flags to indicate the error conditions (e.g., if a symbol is defined in two different places).

During Pass 1: labels are entered into the symbol table along with their assigned address value as they are encountered. All the symbols address value should get resolved at the pass 1.

During Pass 2: Symbols used as operands are looked up the symbol table to obtain the address value to be inserted in the assembled instructions.

SYMTAB is usually organized as a hash table for efficiency of insertion and retrieval. Since entries are rarely deleted, efficiency of deletion is the important criteria for optimization.

Both pass 1 and pass 2 require reading the source program. Apart from this an intermediate file is created by pass 1 that contains each source statement together with its assigned address, error indicators, etc. This file is one of the inputs to the pass 2. A copy of the source program is also an input to the pass 2, which is used to retain the operations that may be performed during pass 1 (such as scanning the operation field for symbols and addressing flags), so that these need not be performed during pass 2. Similarly, pointers into OPTAB and SYMTAB is retained for each operation code and symbol used. This avoids need to repeat many of the table-searching operations.

LOCCTR: Apart from the SYMTAB and OPTAB, this is another important variable which helps in the assignment of the addresses. LOCCTR is initialized to the beginning address mentioned in the START statement of the program. After each statement is processed, the length of the assembled instruction is added to the LOCCTR to make it point to the next instruction. Whenever a label is encountered in an instruction the LOCCTR value gives the address to be associated with that label.

The Algorithm for Pass 1:

```
Begin
  read first input line
  if OPCODE = 'START' then begin
    save #[Operand] as starting addr
    initialize LOCCTR to starting address
    write line to intermediate file
    read next line
  end( if START)
  else
    initialize LOCCTR to 0
While OPCODE != 'END' do
  begin
    if this is not a comment line then
      begin
        if there is a symbol in the LABEL field then
          begin
            search SYMTAB for LABEL
            if found then
              set error flag (duplicate symbol)
            else
              (if symbol)
            search OPTAB for OPCODE
            if found then
              add 3 (instr length) to LOCCTR
            else if OPCODE = 'WORD' then
              add 3 to LOCCTR
          else if OPCODE = 'RESW' then
            add 3 * #[OPERAND] to LOCCTR
          else if OPCODE = 'RESB' then
            add #[OPERAND] to LOCCTR
          else if OPCODE = 'BYTE' then
            begin
              find length of constant in bytes
```

```
        add length to LOCCTR
    end
else
    set error flag (invalid operation code)
end (if not a comment)
write line to intermediate file
read next input line
end { while not END}
write last line to intermediate file
Save (LOCCTR – starting address) as program length
End {pass 1}
```

The algorithm scans the first statement START and saves the operand field (the address) as the starting address of the program. Initializes the LOCCTR value to this address. This line is written to the intermediate line. If no operand is mentioned the LOCCTR is initialized to zero. If a label is encountered, the symbol has to be entered in the symbol table along with its associated address value. If the symbol already exists that indicates an entry of the same symbol already exists. So an error flag is set indicating a duplication of the symbol. It next checks for the mnemonic code, it searches for this code in the OPTAB. If found then the length of the instruction is added to the LOCCTR to make it point to the next instruction. If the opcode is the directive WORD it adds a value 3 to the LOCCTR. If it is RESW, it needs to add the number of data word to the LOCCTR. If it is BYTE it adds a value one to the LOCCTR, if RESB it adds number of bytes. If it is END directive then it is the end of the program it finds the length of the program by evaluating current LOCCTR – the starting address mentioned in the operand field of the END directive. Each processed line is written to the intermediate file.

The Algorithm for Pass 2:

```
Begin
read 1st input line
if OPCODE = 'START' then
    begin
        write listing line
        read next input line
    end
write Header record to object program
initialize 1st Text record
while OPCODE != 'END' do
    begin
        if this is not comment line then
            begin
                search OPTAB for OPCODE
                if found then
                    begin
                        if there is a symbol in OPERAND field then
                            begin
                                search SYMTAB for OPERAND field then
                                    if found then

```



```
        store symbol value as operand address
      else
        begin
        store 0 as operand address
        set error flag (undefined symbol)
      end
    end (if symbol)
  else store 0 as operand address
    assemble the object code instruction
  else if OPCODE = 'BYTE' or 'WORD' then
    convert constant to object code
    if object code doesn't fit into current Text record then
      begin
        Write text record to object code
        initialize new Text record
      end
    add object code to Text record
  end {if not comment}
write listing line
read next input line
end
write listing line
read next input line
write last listing line
End {Pass 2}
```

Here the first input line is read from the intermediate file. If the opcode is START, then this line is directly written to the list file. A header record is written in the object program which gives the starting address and the length of the program (which is calculated during pass 1). Then the first text record is initialized. Comment lines are ignored. In the instruction, for the opcode the OPTAB is searched to find the object code. If a symbol is there in the operand field, the symbol table is searched to get the address value for this which gets added to the object code of the opcode. If the address not found then zero value is stored as operands address. An error flag is set indicating it as undefined. If symbol itself is not found then store 0 as operand address and the object code instruction is assembled.

If the opcode is BYTE or WORD, then the constant value is converted to its equivalent object code(for example, for character EOF, its equivalent hexadecimal value '454f46' is stored). If the object code cannot fit into the current text record, a new text record is created and the rest of the instructions object code is listed. The text records are written to the object program. Once the whole program is assemble and when the END directive is encountered, the End record is written.

DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION ISSUES

Some of the features in the program depend on the architecture of the machine. If the program is for SIC machine, then we have only limited instruction formats and hence limited addressing modes. We have only single operand instructions. The operand is always a memory reference. Anything to be fetched from memory requires more time. Hence the improved version of SIC/XE

machine provides more instruction formats and hence more addressing modes. The moment we change the machine architecture, the availability of number of instruction formats and the addressing modes change. Therefore the design usually requires considering two things: Machine-dependent features and Machine-independent features.

MACHINE-DEPENDENT FEATURES:

- Instruction formats and addressing modes
- Program relocation

Instruction formats and Addressing Modes

The instruction formats depend on the memory organization and the size of the memory. In SIC machine the memory is byte addressable. Word size is 3 bytes. So the size of the memory is 2^{12} bytes. Accordingly it supports only one instruction format. It has only two registers: register A and Index register. Therefore the addressing modes supported by this architecture are direct, indirect, and indexed. Whereas the memory of a SIC/XE machine is 2^{20} bytes (1 MB). This supports four different types of instruction types, they are:

- 1 byte instruction
- 2 byte instruction
- 3 byte instruction
- 4 byte instruction

Instructions can be:

- Instructions involving register to register
- Instructions with one operand in memory, the other in Accumulator (Single operand instruction)
- Extended instruction format

Addressing Modes are:

- Index Addressing(SIC): Opcode m, x
- Indirect Addressing: Opcode @m
- PC-relative: Opcode m
- Base relative: Opcode m
- Immediate addressing: Opcode #c

Translations for the Instruction involving Register-Register addressing mode:

During pass 1 the registers can be entered as part of the symbol table itself. The value for these registers is their equivalent numeric codes. During pass 2, these values are assembled along with the mnemonics object code. If required a separate table can be created with the register names and their equivalent numeric values.

Translation involving Register-Memory instructions:

In SIC/XE machine there are four instruction formats and five addressing modes. For formats and addressing modes refer chapter 1.

Among the instruction formats, format -3 and format-4 instructions are Register-Memory type of instruction. One of the operand is always in a register and the other operand is in the memory. The addressing mode tells us the way in which the operand from the memory is to be fetched.

There are two ways: *Program-counter relative* and *Base-relative*. This addressing mode can be represented by either using format-3 type or format-4 type of instruction format. In format-3, the instruction has the opcode followed by a 12-bit displacement value in the address

field. Where as in format-4 the instruction contains the mnemonic code followed by a 20-bit displacement value in the address field.

Program-Counter Relative:

In this usually format-3 instruction format is used. The instruction contains the opcode followed by a 12-bit displacement value. The range of displacement values are from 0 -2048. This displacement (should be small enough to fit in a 12-bit field) value is added to the current contents of the program counter to get the target address of the operand required by the instruction. This is relative way of calculating the address of the operand relative to the program counter. Hence the displacement of the operand is relative to the current program counter value. The following example shows how the address is calculated:

10	0000	FIRST	STL	RETADR
RETADR is at address (0030) ₁₆				
After the SIC fetches this instruction, (PC) = (0003) ₁₆				
TA = (PC) + disp ⇒ disp = TA – (PC) = 0030 – 0003 = (02D) ₁₆				
	op	n i	x b p e	disp
	000101	1 1	0 0 1 0	02D ⇒ 17202D
40	0017	J	CLOOP	
CLOOP is at address (0006) ₁₆				
After the SIC fetches this instruction, (PC) = (001A) ₁₆				
TA = (PC) + disp ⇒ disp = TA – (PC) = 0006 – 001A = (FEC) ₁₆				
	op	n i	x b p e	disp
	001111	1 1	0 0 1 0	FEC ⇒ 3F2FEC
70	002A	J	@RETADR	
CLOOP is at address (0030) ₁₆				
After the SIC fetches this instruction, (PC) = (002D) ₁₆				
TA = (PC) + disp ⇒ disp = TA – (PC) = 0030 – 002D = (0003) ₁₆				
	op	n i	x b p e	disp
	001111	1 0	0 0 1 0	003 ⇒ 3E2003

12-bits

Indirect addressing

Base-Relative Addressing Mode:

In this mode the base register is used to mention the displacement value. Therefore the target address is

$$TA = (\text{base}) + \text{displacement value}$$

This addressing mode is used when the range of displacement value is not sufficient. Hence the operand is not relative to the instruction as in PC-relative addressing mode. Whenever this mode is used it is indicated by using a directive BASE. The moment the assembler encounters this directive the next instruction uses base-relative addressing mode to calculate the target address of the operand.

When NOBASE directive is used then it indicates the base register is no more used to calculate the target address of the operand. Assembler first chooses PC-relative, when the displacement field is not enough it uses Base-relative.

[LDB #LENGTH \(instruction\)](#)

BASE LENGTH (*directive*)

:
NOBASE

For example:

12	0003	LDB	#LENGTH		69202D
13		BASE	LENGTH		
::					
100	0033	LENGTH	RESW	1	
105	0036	BUFFER	RESB	4096	
::					
160	104E	STCH	BUFFER,	X	57C003
165	1051	TIXR	T	B850	

In the above example the use of directive BASE indicates that Base-relative addressing mode is to be used to calculate the target address. PC-relative is no longer used. The value of the LENGTH is stored in the base register. If PC-relative is used then the target address calculated is:

The LDB instruction loads the value of length in the base register which 0033. BASE directive explicitly tells the assembler that it has the value of LENGTH.

BUFFER is at location $(0036)_{16}$

$(B) = (0033)_{16}$

$\text{disp} = 0036 - 0033 = (0003)_{16}$

	op	n	i	x	b	p	e		disp	
	010101	1	1	1	1	0	0	003	\Rightarrow	57C003

20	000A		LDA	LENGTH	032026
::					
175	1056	EXIT	STX	LENGTH	134000


Consider Line 175. If we use PC-relative

$\text{Disp} = \text{TA} - (\text{PC}) = 0033 - 1059 = \text{EFDA}$


PC relative is no longer applicable, so we try to use BASE relative addressing mode.

Immediate Addressing Mode

In this mode no memory reference is involved. If immediate mode is used the target address is the operand itself.

55 0020 LDA #3
 TA = (0003)₁₆  Immediate operand

op	n	i	x	b	p	e	disp
000000	0	1	0	0	0	0	003 ⇒ 010003

133 103C +LDT #4096
 TA = (01000)₁₆  Extended instruction format

op	n	i	x	b	p	e	disp(20 bits)
011101	0	1	0	0	0	1	01000 ⇒ 75101000

If the symbol is referred in the instruction as the immediate operand then it is immediate with PC-relative mode as shown in the example below:

12 0003 LDB #LENGTH
 LENGTH is at address 0033
 TA = (PC) + disp ⇒ disp = 0033 – 0006 = (002D)₁₆

op	n	i	x	b	p	e	disp
011010	0	1	0	0	1	0	02D ⇒ 69202D

5. Indirect and PC-relative mode:

In this type of instruction the symbol used in the instruction is the address of the location which contains the address of the operand. The address of this is found using PC-relative addressing mode. For example:

70 002A J @RETADR
 : :

95 0030 RETADR RESW 1
 RETADR is at address 0030
 TA = (PC) + disp ⇒ disp = 0030 – 002D = (0003)₁₆

op	n	i	x	b	p	e	disp
001111	1	0	0	0	1	0	003 ⇒ 3E2003

The instruction jumps the control to the address location RETADR which in turn has the address of the operand. If address of RETADR is 0030, the target address is then 0003 as calculated above.

Program Relocation

Sometimes it is required to load and run several programs at the same time. The system must be able to load these programs wherever there is place in the memory. Therefore the exact starting is not known until the load time.

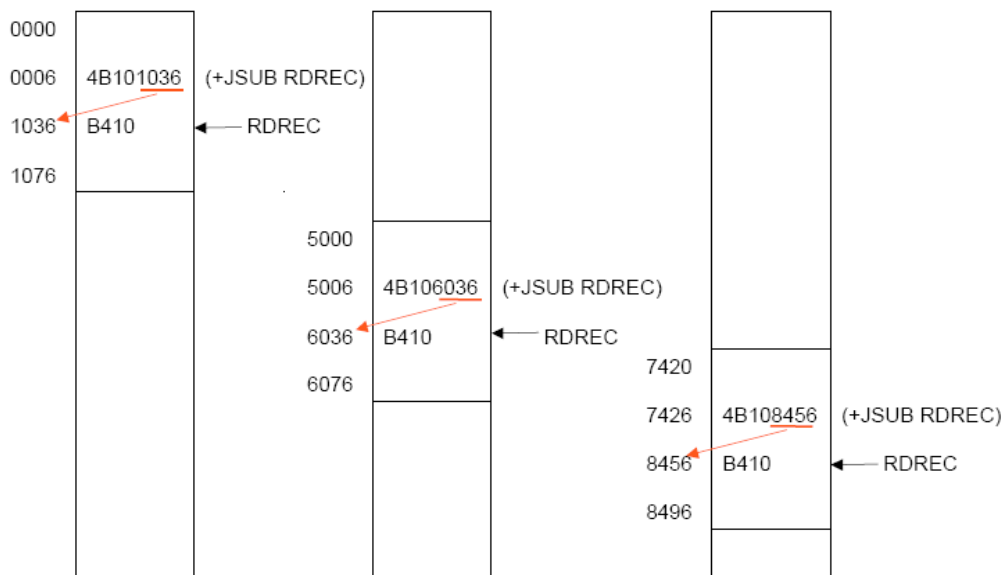
Absolute Program

In this the address is mentioned during assembling itself. This is called *Absolute Assembly*. Consider the instruction:

55 101B LDA THREE 00102D

This statement says that the register A is loaded with the value stored at location 102D. Suppose it is decided to load and execute the program at location 2000 instead of location 1000. Then at address 102D the required value which needs to be loaded in the register A is no more available. The address also gets changed relative to the displacement of the program. Hence we need to make some changes in the address portion of the instruction so that we can load and execute the program at location 2000. Apart from the instruction which will undergo a change in their operand address value as the program load address changes. There exist some parts in the program which will remain same regardless of where the program is being loaded.

Since assembler will not know actual location where the program will get loaded, it cannot make the necessary changes in the addresses used in the program. However, the assembler identifies for the loader those parts of the program which need modification. An object program that has the information necessary to perform this kind of modification is called the relocatable program.



The above diagram shows the concept of relocation. Initially the program is loaded at location 0000. The instruction JSUB is loaded at location 0006. The address field of this instruction contains 01036, which is the address of the instruction labeled RDREC. The second figure shows that if the program is to be loaded at new location 5000. The address of the instruction JSUB gets modified to new location 6036. Likewise the third figure shows that if the program is relocated at location 7420, the JSUB instruction would need to be changed to 0108456 that correspond to the new address of RDREC.

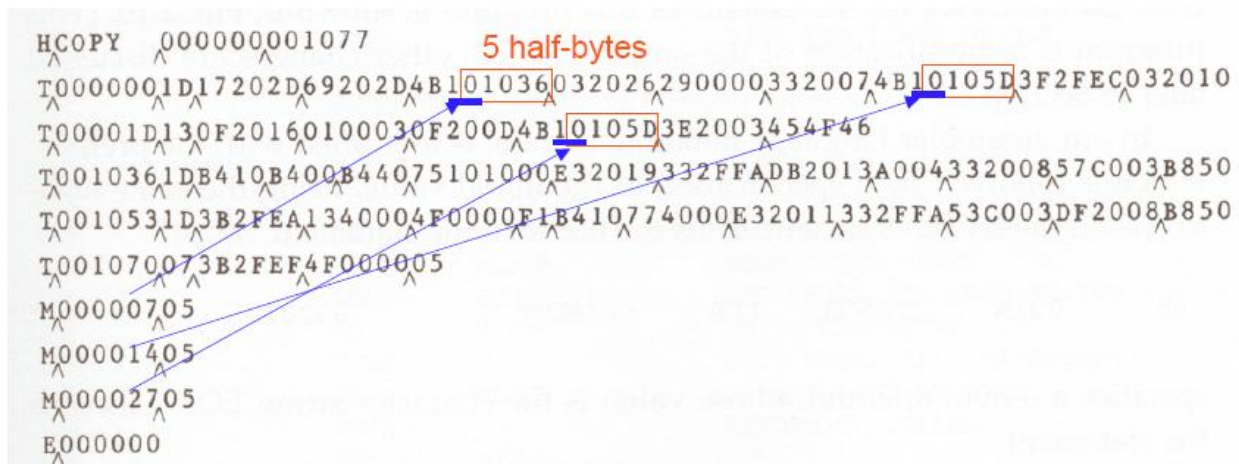
The only part of the program that require modification at load time are those that specify direct addresses. The rest of the instructions need not be modified. The instructions which doesn't require modification are the ones that is not a memory address (immediate addressing) and PC-relative, Base-relative instructions. From the object program, it is not possible to distinguish the address and constant. The assembler must keep some information to tell the loader. The object program that contains the modification record is called a relocatable program.

For an address label, its address is assigned relative to the start of the program (START 0). The assembler produces a *Modification record* to store the starting location and the length of the address field to be modified. The command for the loader must also be a part of the object program. The Modification has the following format:

Modification record

Col. 1	M
Col. 2-7	Starting location of the address field to be modified, relative to the beginning of the program (Hex)
Col. 8-9	Length of the address field to be modified, in half-bytes (Hex)

One modification record is created for each address to be modified. The length is stored in half-bytes (4 bits). The starting location is the location of the byte containing the leftmost bits of the address field to be modified. If the field contains an odd number of half-bytes, the starting location begins in the middle of the first byte.



In the above object code the red boxes indicate the addresses that need modifications. The object code lines at the end are the descriptions of the modification records for those instructions which need change if relocation occurs. M00000705 is the modification suggested for the statement at location 0007 and requires modification 5-half bytes. Similarly the remaining instructions indicate.

Machine-Independent features:

These are the features which do not depend on the architecture of the machine. These are:

- Literals
- Expressions
- Program blocks
- Control sections

Literals:

A literal is defined with a prefix = followed by a specification of the literal value.

Example:

```
45    001A  ENDFIL      LDA  =C'EOF'      032010
-
-
93          LTORG
      002D  *           =C'EOF'      454F46
```

The example above shows a 3-byte operand whose value is a character string EOF. The object code for the instruction is also mentioned. It shows the relative displacement value of the location where this value is stored. In the example the value is at location (002D) and hence the displacement value is (010). As another example the given statement below shows a 1-byte literal with the hexadecimal value '05'.

```
215   1062  WLOOP      TD    =X'05'      E32011
```

It is important to understand the difference between a constant defined as a literal and a constant defined as an immediate operand. In case of literals the assembler generates the specified value as a constant at some other memory location. In immediate mode the operand value is assembled as part of the instruction itself. Example

```
55    0020          LDA  #03      010003
```

All the literal operands used in a program are gathered together into one or more *literal pools*. This is usually placed at the end of the program. The assembly listing of a program containing literals usually includes a listing of this literal pool, which shows the assigned addresses and the generated data values. In some cases it is placed at some other location in the object program. An assembler directive LTORG is used. Whenever the LTORG is encountered, it creates a literal pool that contains all the literal operands used since the beginning of the program. The literal pool definition is done after LTORG is encountered. It is better to place the literals close to the instructions.

A literal table is created for the literals which are used in the program. The literal table contains the *literal name, operand value and length*. The literal table is usually created as a hash table on the literal name.

Implementation of Literals:

During Pass-1:

The literal encountered is searched in the literal table. If the literal already exists, no action is taken; if it is not present, the literal is added to the LITTAB and for the address value it waits till it encounters LTORG for literal definition. When Pass 1 encounters a LTORG statement or the end of the program, the assembler makes a scan of the literal table. At this time each literal currently in the table is assigned an address. As addresses are assigned, the location counter is updated to reflect the number of bytes occupied by each literal.

During Pass-2:

The assembler searches the LITAB for each literal encountered in the instruction and replaces it with its equivalent value as if these values are generated by BYTE or WORD. If a literal represents an address in the program, the assembler must generate a modification relocation for, if it all it gets affected due to relocation. The following figure shows the difference between the SYMTAB and LITAB

SYMTAB		LITAB			
Name	Value	Literal	Hex Value	Length	Address
COPY	0	C'EOF'	454F46	3	002D
FIRST	0	X'05'	05	1	1076
CLOOP	6				
ENDFIL	1A				
RETADR	30				
LENGTH	33				
BUFFER	36				
BUFEND	1036				
MAXLEN	1000				
RDRRC	1036				
RLOOP	1040				
EXIT	1056				
INPUT	105C				
WREC	105D				
WLOOP	1062				

Symbol-Defining Statements:

EQU Statement:

Most assemblers provide an assembler directive that allows the programmer to define symbols and specify their values. The directive used for this EQU (Equate). The general form of the statement is

Symbol EQU value

This statement defines the given symbol (i.e., entering in the SYMTAB) and assigning to it the value specified. The value can be a constant or an expression involving constants and any other symbol which is already defined. One common usage is to define symbolic names that can be used to improve readability in place of numeric values. For example

+LDT #4096

This loads the register T with immediate value 4096, this does not clearly what exactly this value indicates. If a statement is included as:

MAXLEN EQU 4096 and then
+LDT #MAXLEN

Then it clearly indicates that the value of MAXLEN is some maximum length value. When the assembler encounters EQU statement, it enters the symbol MAXLEN along with its value in the symbol table. During LDT the assembler searches the SYMTAB for its entry and its equivalent value as the operand in the instruction. The object code generated is the same for both the options discussed, but is easier to understand. If the maximum length is changed from 4096 to 1024, it is difficult to change if it is mentioned as an immediate value wherever required in the instructions. We have to scan the whole program and make changes wherever 4096 is used. If we mention this value in the instruction through the symbol defined by EQU, we may not have to search the whole program but change only the value of MAXLENGTH in the EQU statement (only once).

Another common usage of EQU statement is for defining values for the general-purpose registers. The assembler can use the mnemonics for register usage like a-register A , X – index register and so on. But there are some instructions which requires numbers in place of names in the instructions. For example in the instruction RMO 0,1 instead of RMO A,X. The programmer can assign the numerical values to these registers using EQU directive.

```
A      EQU      0
X      EQU      1 and so on
```

These statements will cause the symbols A, X, L... to be entered into the symbol table with their respective values. An instruction RMO A, X would then be allowed. As another usage if in a machine that has many general purpose registers named as R1, R2,..., some may be used as base register, some may be used as accumulator. Their usage may change from one program to another. In this case we can define these requirement using EQU statements.

```
BASE    EQU      R1
INDEX   EQU      R2
COUNT  EQU      R3
```

One restriction with the usage of EQU is whatever symbol occurs in the right hand side of the EQU should be predefined. For example, the following statement is not valid:

```
BETA    EQU      ALPHA
ALPHA    RESW     1
```

As the symbol ALPHA is assigned to BETA before it is defined. The value of ALPHA is not known.

ORG Statement:

This directive can be used to indirectly assign values to the symbols. The directive is usually called ORG (for origin). Its general format is:

```
ORG      value
```

where value is a constant or an expression involving constants and previously defined symbols. When this statement is encountered during assembly of a program, the assembler resets its location counter (LOCCTR) to the specified value. Since the values of symbols used as labels are taken from LOCCTR, the ORG statement will affect the values of all labels defined until the next ORG is encountered. ORG is used to control assignment storage in the object program. Sometimes altering the values may result in incorrect assembly.

ORG can be useful in label definition. Suppose we need to define a symbol table with the following structure:

```
SYMBOL    6 Bytes
VALUE     3 Bytes
FLAG      2 Bytes
```

The table looks like the one given below.

	SYMBOL	VALUE	FLAGS
STAB (100 entries)			
	⋮	⋮	⋮

The symbol field contains a 6-byte user-defined symbol; VALUE is a one-word representation of the value assigned to the symbol; FLAG is a 2-byte field specifies symbol type and other information. The space for the table can be reserved by the statement:

```
STAB      RESB      1100
```

If we want to refer to the entries of the table using indexed addressing, place the offset value of the desired entry from the beginning of the table in the index register. To refer to the fields SYMBOL, VALUE, and FLAGS individually, we need to assign the values first as shown below:

```
SYMBOL    EQU        STAB
VALUE     EQU        STAB+6
FLAGS     EQU        STAB+9
```

To retrieve the VALUE field from the table indicated by register X, we can write a statement:

```
LDA      VALUE, X
```

The same thing can also be done using ORG statement in the following way:

```
STAB      RESB      1100
          ORG        STAB
SYMBOL     RESB      6
VALUE      RESW      1
FLAG       RESB      2
          ORG        STAB+1100
```

The first statement allocates 1100 bytes of memory assigned to label STAB. In the second statement the ORG statement initializes the location counter to the value of STAB. Now the LOCCTR points to STAB. The next three lines assign appropriate memory storage to each of SYMBOL, VALUE and FLAG symbols. The last ORG statement reinitializes the LOCCTR to a new value after skipping the required number of memory for the table STAB (i.e., STAB+1100).

While using ORG, the symbol occurring in the statement should be predefined as is required in EQU statement. For example for the sequence of statements below:

```
                ORG      ALPHA
BYTE1 RESB     1
BYTE2 RESB     1
BYTE3 RESB     1
                ORG
ALPHA          RESB     1
```

The sequence could not be processed as the symbol used to assign the new location counter value is not defined. In first pass, as the assembler would not know what value to assign to ALPHA, the other symbol in the next lines also could not be defined in the symbol table. This is a kind of problem of the forward reference.

EXPRESSIONS:

Assemblers also allow use of expressions in place of operands in the instruction. Each such expression must be evaluated to generate a single operand value or address. Assemblers generally arithmetic expressions formed according to the normal rules using arithmetic operators +, -, *, /. Division is usually defined to produce an integer result. Individual terms may be constants, user-defined symbols, or special terms. The only special term used is * (the current value of location counter) which indicates the value of the next unassigned memory location. Thus the statement

```
BUFFEND EQU *
```

Assigns a value to BUFFEND, which is the address of the next byte following the buffer area. Some values in the object program are relative to the beginning of the program and some are absolute (independent of the program location, like constants). Hence, expressions are classified as either absolute expression or relative expressions depending on the type of value they produce.

Absolute Expressions: The expression that uses only absolute terms is absolute expression. Absolute expression may contain relative term provided the relative terms occur in pairs with opposite signs for each pair. Example:

```
MAXLEN EQU BUFEND-BUFFER
```

In the above instruction the difference in the expression gives a value that does not depend on the location of the program and hence gives an absolute immaterial o the relocation of the program. The expression can have only absolute terms. Example:

```
MAXLEN EQU 1000
```

Relative Expressions: All the relative terms except one can be paired as described in “absolute”. The remaining unpaired relative term must have a positive sign. Example:

```
STAB EQU OPTAB + (BUFEND – BUFFER)
```

Handling the type of expressions: to find the type of expression, we must keep track the type of symbols used. This can be achieved by defining the type in the symbol table against each of the symbol as shown in the table below:

Symbol	Type	Value
RETADR	R	0030
BUFFER	R	0036
BUFEND	R	1036
MAXLEN	A	1000

Program Blocks:

Program blocks allow the generated machine instructions and data to appear in the object program in a different order by Separating blocks for storing code, data, stack, and larger data block.

Assembler Directive USE:

USE [blockname]

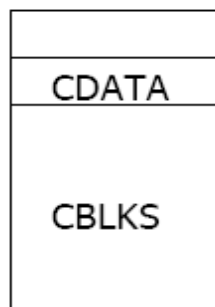
At the beginning, statements are assumed to be part of the *unnamed* (default) block. If no USE statements are included, the entire program belongs to this single block. Each program block may actually contain several separate segments of the source program. Assemblers rearrange these segments to gather together the pieces of each block and assign address. Separate the program into blocks in a particular order. Large buffer area is moved to the end of the object program. *Program readability is better* if data areas are placed in the source program close to the statements that reference them.

In the example below three blocks are used :

Default: executable instructions

CDATA: all data areas that are less in length

CBLKS: all data areas that consists of larger blocks of memory



Example Code

(default) block		Block number				
0000	0	COPY	START	0		
0000	0	FIRST	STL	RETADR		172063
0003	0	CLOOP	JSUB	RDREC		4B2021
0006	0		LDA	LENGTH		032060
0009	0		COMP	#0		290000
000C	0		JEQ	ENDFIL		332006
000F	0		JSUB	WRREC		4B203B
0012	0		J	CLOOP		3F2FEE
0015	0	ENDFIL	LDA	=C'EOF'		032055
0018	0		STA	BUFFER		0F2056
001B	0		LDA	#3		010003
001E	0		STA	LENGTH		0F2048
0021	0		JSUB	WRREC		4B2029
0024	0		J	@RETADR		3E203F
0000	1		USE	CDATA	← CDATA block	
0000	1	RETADR	RESW	1		
0003	1	LENGTH	RESW	1		
0000	2		USE	CBLKS	← CBLKS block	
0000	2	BUFFER	RESB	4096		
1000	2	BUFEND	EQU	*		
1000	2	MAXLEN	EQU	BUFEND-BUFFER		
0027	0	RDREC	USE		← (default) block	
0027	0		CLEAR	X		B410
0029	0		CLEAR	A		B400
002B	0		CLEAR	S		B440
002D	0		+LDT	#MAXLEN		75101000
0031	0	RLOOP	TD	INPUT		E32038
0034	0		JEQ	RLOOP		332FFA
0037	0		RD	INPUT		DB2032
003A	0		COMPR	A,S		A004
003C	0		JEQ	EXIT		332008
003F	0		STCH	BUFFER,X		57A02F
0042	0		TIXR	T		B850
0044	0		JLT	RLOOP		3B2FEA
0047	0	EXIT	STX	LENGTH		13201F
004A	0		RSUB			4F0000
0006	1		USE	CDATA	← CDATA block	
0006	1	INPUT	BYTE	X'F1'		F1

{	004D	0		<u>USE</u>			(default) block
	004D	0	WRREC	CLEAR	X	B410	
	004F	0		LDT	LENGTH	772017	
	0052	0	WLOOP	TD	=X'05'	E3201B	
	0055	0		JEQ	WLOOP	332FFA	
	0058	0		LDCH	BUFFER,X	53A016	
	005B	0		WD	=X'05'	DF2012	
	005E	0		TIXR	T	B850	
	0060	0		JLT	WLOOP	3B2FEF	
	0063	0		RSUB		4F0000	
{	0007	1		<u>USE</u>	CDATA		CDATA block
				LTORG			
	0007	1	*	=C'EOF		454F46	
	000A	1	*	=X'05'		05	
				END	FIRST		

Arranging code into program blocks:

Pass 1

- A separate location counter for each program block is maintained.
- Save and restore LOCCTR when switching between blocks.
- At the beginning of a block, LOCCTR is set to 0.
- Assign each label an address relative to the start of the block.
- Store the block name or number in the SYMTAB along with the assigned relative address of the label
- Indicate the block length as the latest value of LOCCTR for each block at the end of Pass1
- Assign to each block a starting address in the object program by concatenating the program blocks in a particular order

Pass 2

- Calculate the address for each symbol relative to the start of the object program by adding
 - The location of the symbol relative to the start of its block
 - The starting address of this block

Control Sections:

A *control section* is a part of the program that maintains its identity after assembly; each control section can be loaded and relocated independently of the others. Different control sections are most often used for subroutines or other logical subdivisions. The programmer can assemble, load, and manipulate each of these control sections separately.

Because of this, there should be some means for linking control sections together. For example, instructions in one control section may refer to the data or instructions of other control sections. Since control sections are independently loaded and relocated, the assembler is unable to process these references in the usual way. Such references between different control sections are called *external references*.

The assembler generates the information about each of the external references that will allow the loader to perform the required linking. When a program is written using multiple control sections, the beginning of each of the control section is indicated by an assembler directive
assembler directive: CSECT

The syntax

secname CSECT

separate location counter for each control section

Control sections differ from program blocks in that they are handled separately by the assembler. Symbols that are defined in one control section may not be used directly another control section; they must be identified as external reference for the loader to handle. The external references are indicated by two assembler directives:

EXTDEF (external Definition):

It is the statement in a control section, names symbols that are defined in this section but may be used by other control sections. Control section names do not need to be named in the EXTREF as they are automatically considered as external symbols.

EXTREF (external Reference):

It names symbols that are used in this section but are defined in some other control section.

The order in which these symbols are listed is not significant. The assembler must include proper information about the external references in the object program that will cause the loader to insert the proper value where they are required.

COPY			COPY FILE FROM INPUT TO OUTPUT		
FIRST CLOOP	START	0			
	EXTDEF	BUFFER,BUFEND,LENGTH			
	EXTREF	RDREC,WRREC			
	STL	RETADR	SAVE RETURN ADDRESS		
	+JSUB	RDREC	READ INPUT RECORD		
	LDA	LENGTH	TEST FOR EOF (LENGTH=0)		
	COMP	#0			
	JEQ	ENDFIL	EXIT IF EOF FOUND		
	+JSUB	WRREC	WRITE OUTPUT RECORD		
	J	CLOOP	LOOP		
ENDFIL	LDA	=C'EOF'	INSERT END OF FILE MARKER		
	STA	BUFFER			
	LDA	#3	SET LENGTH = 3		
	STA	LENGTH			
RETADR	+JSUB	WRREC	WRITE EOF		
	J	@RETADR	RETURN TO CALLER		
LENGTH	RESW	1	LENGTH OF RECORD		
	LTORG				
BUFFER	RESB	4096	4096-BYTE BUFFER AREA		
BUFEND	EQU	*			
MAXLEN	EQU	BUFEND-BUFFER			

Implicitly defined as an external symbol
second control section

RDREC CSECT

```

:          SUBROUTINE TO READ RECORD INTO BUFFER
:
      EXTREF  BUFFER,LENGTH,BUFFEND
      CLEAR  X          CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
      CLEAR  A          CLEAR A TO ZERO
      CLEAR  S          CLEAR S TO ZERO
      LDT    MAXLEN
RLOOP    TD      INPUT   TEST INPUT DEVICE
          JEQ    RLOOP   LOOP UNTIL READY
          RD      INPUT   READ CHARACTER INTO REGISTER A
          COMPR  A,S     TEST FOR END OF RECORD (X'00')
          JEQ    EXIT    EXIT LOOP IF EOR
          +STCH  BUFFER,X STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
          TIXR   T       LOOP UNLESS MAX LENGTH HAS
          JLT    RLOOP   BEEN REACHED
EXIT      +STX    LENGTH  SAVE RECORD LENGTH
          RSUB    RETURN TO CALLER
INPUT     BYTE    X'F1'  CODE FOR INPUT DEVICE
MAXLEN    WORD    BUFFEND-BUFFER

```

Implicitly defined as an external symbol
third control section

WRREC CSECT

```

:          SUBROUTINE TO WRITE RECORD FROM BUFFER
:
      EXTREF  LENGTH,BUFFER
      CLEAR  X          CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
      +LDT   LENGTH
WLOOP    TD      =X'05'  TEST OUTPUT DEVICE
          JEQ    WLOOP   LOOP UNTIL READY
          +LDCH  BUFFER,X GET CHARACTER FROM BUFFER
          WD      =X'05'  WRITE CHARACTER
          TIXR   T       LOOP UNTIL ALL CHARACTERS HAVE
          JLT    WLOOP   BEEN WRITTEN
          RSUB    RETURN TO CALLER
END       FIRST

```

Handling External Reference

Case 1

15 0003 CLOOP +JSUB RDREC 4B100000

The operand RDREC is an external reference.
The assembler has no idea where RDREC is

inserts an address of zero

can only use **extended format** to provide enough room (that is, relative addressing for external reference is invalid)

The assembler generates information for each external reference that will allow the **loader** to perform the required **linking**.

Case 2

```
190 0028 MAXLEN WORD BUFEND-BUFFER 000000
```

There are two external references in the expression, BUFEND and BUFFER.

The assembler inserts a value of zero

passes information to the loader

Add to this data area the address of BUFEND

Subtract from this data area the address of BUFFER

Case 3

On line 107, BUFEND and BUFFER are defined in the same control section and the expression can be calculated immediately.

```
107 1000 MAXLEN EQU BUFEND-BUFFER
```

Object Code for the example program:

0000	COPY	START	0	
		EXTDEF	BUFFER,BUFFEND,LENGTH	
		EXTREF	RDREC,WRREC	
0000	FIRST	STL	RETADR	172027
0003	CLOOP	+JSUB	RDREC	4B100000
0007		LDA	LENGTH	032023
000A		COMP	#0	290000
000D		JEQ	ENDFIL	332007
0010		+JSUB	WRREC	4B100000
0014		J	CLOOP	3F2FEC
0017	ENDFIL	LDA	=C'EOF'	032016
001A		STA	BUFFER	0F2016
001D		LDA	#3	010003
0020		STA	LENGTH	0F200A
0023		+JSUB	WRREC	4B100000
0027		J	@RETADR	3E2000
002A	RETADR	RESW	1	
002D	LENGTH	RESW	1	
		LTORG		
0030	*	=C'EOF'		454F46
0033	BUFFER	RESB	4096	
1033	BUFEND	EQU	*	
1000	MAXLEN	EQU	BUFEND-BUFFER	

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<u>0000</u>	RDREC	CSECT		
	.		SUBROUTINE TO READ RECORD INTO BUFFER	
	.			
		EXTREF	BUFFER,LENGTH,BUFEND	
0000		CLEAR	X	B410
0002		CLEAR	A	B400
0004		CLEAR	S	B440
0006		LDT	MAXLEN	77201F
0009	RLOOP	TD	INPUT	E3201B
000C		JEQ	RLOOP	332FFA
000F		RD	INPUT	DB2015
0012		COMPR	A,S	A004
0014		JEQ	EXIT	332009
0017		+STCH	BUFFER,X	57900000
001B		TIXR	T	B850
001D		JLT	RLOOP	3B2FE9
0020	EXIT	+STX	LENGTH	13100000
0024		RSUB		4F0000
0027	INPUT	BYTE	X'F1'	F1
0028	MAXLEN	WORD	BUFFEND-BUFFER	000000

Case 2

<u>0000</u>	WRREC	CSECT		
	.		SUBROUTINE TO WRITE RECORD FROM BUFFER	
	.			
		EXTREF	LENGTH,BUFFER	
0000		CLEAR	X	B410
0002		+LDT	LENGTH	77100000
0006	WLOOP	TD	=X'05'	E32012
0009		JEQ	WLOOP	332FFA
000C		+LDCH	BUFFER,X	53900000
0010		WD	=X'05'	DF2008
0013		TIXR	T	B850
0015		JLT	WLOOP	3B2FEE
0018		RSUB		4F0000
		END	FIRST	
001B	*	=X'05'		05

The assembler must also include information in the object program that will cause the loader to insert the proper value where they are required. The assembler maintains two new record in the object code and a changed version of modification record.

Define record (EXTDEF)

Col. 1	D
Col. 2-7	Name of external symbol defined in this control section
Col. 8-13	Relative address within this control section (hexadecimal)
Col.14-73	Repeat information in Col. 2-13 for other external symbols

Refer record (EXTREF)

Col. 1	R
Col. 2-7	Name of external symbol referred to in this control section
Col. 8-73	Name of other external reference symbols

Modification record

Col. 1	M
Col. 2-7	Starting address of the field to be modified (hexadecimal)
Col. 8-9	Length of the field to be modified, in half-bytes (hexadecimal)
Col.11-16	External symbol whose value is to be added to or subtracted from the indicated field

A define record gives information about the external symbols that are defined in this control section, i.e., symbols named by EXTDEF.

A refer record lists the symbols that are used as external references by the control section, i.e., symbols named by EXTREF.

The new items in the modification record specify the modification to be performed: adding or subtracting the value of some external symbol. The symbol used for modification may be defined either in this control section or in another section.

The object program is shown below. There is a separate object program for each of the control sections. In the *Define Record* and *refer record* the symbols named in EXTDEF and EXTREF are included.

In the case of *Define*, the record also indicates the relative address of each external symbol within the control section.

For EXTREF symbols, no address information is available. These symbols are simply named in the *Refer record*.

COPY

HCOPY 00000001033

DBUFFER000033BUFEND001033LENGTH00002D

RRDREC WRREC

T0000001D1720274B100000320232900003320074B1000003F2FE0320160F2016

T00001D0D0100030F200A4B1000003E2000

T00003003454F46

M00000405+RDREC

M00001105+WRREC

M00002405+WRREC

E000000

```

RDREC
HRDREC 00000000002B
RBUFFERLENGTHBUFEND
T0000001DB410B400B44077201FE3201B332FFADB2015A00433200957900000B850
T00001D0E3B2FE9131000004F000QF1000000
M00001805+BUFFER
M00002105+LENGTH
M00002806+BUFEND
M00002806-BUFFER } BUFEND - BUFFER
E
WRREC
HWRREC 00000000001C
RLENGTHBUFFER
T0000001CB41077100000E3201232FFA53900000DF2008B8503B2FEE4F000005
M00000305+LENGTH
M00000D05+BUFFER
E

```

Handling Expressions in Multiple Control Sections:

The existence of multiple control sections that can be relocated independently of one another makes the handling of expressions complicated. It is required that in an expression that all the relative terms be paired (for absolute expression), or that all except one be paired (for relative expressions).

When it comes in a program having multiple control sections then we have an extended restriction that:

Both terms in each pair of an expression must be within the same control section

If two terms represent relative locations within the same control section, their difference is an absolute value (regardless of where the control section is located).

Legal: BUFEND-BUFFER (both are in the same control section)

If the terms are located in different control sections, their difference has a value that is unpredictable.

Illegal: RDREC-COPY (both are of different control section) it is the difference in the load addresses of the two control sections. This value depends on the way run-time storage is allocated; it is unlikely to be of any use.

How to enforce this restriction

When an expression involves external references, the assembler cannot determine whether or not the expression is legal.

The assembler evaluates all of the terms it can, combines these to form an initial expression value, and generates Modification records.

The loader checks the expression for errors and finishes the evaluation.

One-Pass Assembler

The main problem in designing the assembler using single pass was to resolve forward references. We can avoid to some extent the forward references by:

Eliminating forward reference to data items, by defining all the storage reservation statements at the beginning of the program rather at the end.

Unfortunately, forward reference to labels on the instructions cannot be avoided. (forward jumping)

To provide some provision for handling forward references by prohibiting forward references to data items.

There are two types of one-pass assemblers:

One that produces object code directly in memory for immediate execution (Load-and-go assemblers).

The other type produces the usual kind of object code for later execution.

Load-and-Go Assembler

Load-and-go assembler generates their object code in memory for immediate execution.

No object program is written out, no loader is needed.

It is useful in a system with frequent program development and testing

The efficiency of the assembly process is an important consideration.

Programs are re-assembled nearly every time they are run; efficiency of the assembly process is an important consideration.

Line	Loc	Source statement			Object code
0	1000	COPY	START	1000	
1	1000	EOF	BYTE	C'EOF'	454F46
2	1003	THREE	WORD	3	000003
3	1006	ZERO	WORD	0	000000
4	1009	RETADR	RESW	1	
5	100C	LENGTH	RESW	1	
6	100F	BUFFER	RESB	4096	
9					
10	200F	FIRST	STL	RETADR	141009
15	2012	CLOOP	JSUB	RDREC	48203D
20	2015		LDA	LENGTH	00100C
25	2018		COMP	ZERO	281006
30	201B		JEQ	ENDFIL	302024
35	201E		JSUB	WRREC	482062
40	2021		J	CLOOP	302012
45	2024	ENDFIL	LDA	EOF	001000
50	2027		STA	BUFFER	0C100F
55	202A		LDA	THREE	001003
60	202D		STA	LENGTH	0C100C
65	2030		JSUB	WRREC	482062
70	2033		LDL	RETADR	081009
75	2036		RSUB		4C0000
110					

Forward Reference in One-Pass Assemblers: In load-and-Go assemblers when a forward reference is encountered :

- Omits the operand address if the symbol has not yet been defined
- Enters this undefined symbol into SYMTAB and indicates that it is undefined
- Adds the address of this operand address to a list of forward references associated with the SYMTAB entry
- When the definition for the symbol is encountered, scans the reference list and inserts the address.
- At the end of the program, reports the error if there are still SYMTAB entries indicated undefined symbols.
- For Load-and-Go assembler
- Search SYMTAB for the symbol named in the END statement and jumps to this location to begin execution if there is no error

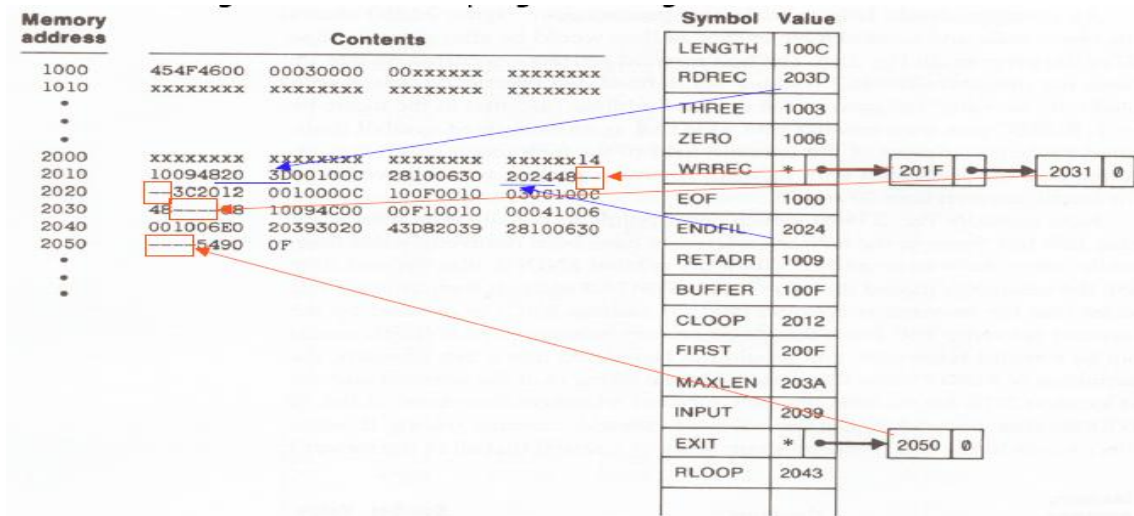
After Scanning line 40 of the program:

```
40      2021      J      CLOOP      302012
```

The status is that upto this point the symbol RREC is referred once at location 2013, ENDFIL at 201F and WRREC at location 201C. None of these symbols are defined. The figure shows that how the pending definitions along with their addresses are included in the symbol table.

Memory address	Contents	Symbol	Value
1000	454F4600 00030000 00xxxxxx xxxxxxxx	LENGTH	100C
1010	xxxxxxxx xxxxxxxx xxxxxxxx xxxxxxxx	RDREC	* → 2013 0
...	...	THREE	1003
...	...	ZERO	1006
2000	xxxxxxxx xxxxxxxx xxxxxxxx xxxxxxx14	WRREC	* → 201F 0
2010	100948 00100C 28100630 48	EOF	1000
2020	3C2012	ENDFIL	* → 201C 0
...	...	RETADR	1009
...	...	BUFFER	100F
...	...	CLOOP	2012
...	...	FIRST	200F

The status after scanning line 160, which has encountered the definition of RDREC and ENDFIL is as given below:



If One-Pass needs to generate object code:

- If the operand contains an undefined symbol, use 0 as the address and write the Text record to the object program.
- Forward references are entered into lists as in the load-and-go assembler.
- When the definition of a symbol is encountered, the assembler generates another Text record with the correct operand address of each entry in the reference list.
- When loaded, the incorrect address 0 will be updated by the latter Text record containing the symbol definition.

Object Code Generated by One-Pass Assembler:

```

HCOPY 00100000107A
T00100009454F46000003000000
T00200F1514100948000000100C2810063000004800003C2012
T00201C022024
T002024190010000C100F0010030C100C4800000810094C0000F1001000
T00201302203D
T00203D1E041006001006E02039302043D8203928100630000054900F2C203A382043
T00205002205B
T00205B0710100C4C000005
T00201F022062
T002031022062
T00206218041006E0206130206550900FDC20612C100C3820654C0000
E00200F
  
```

Multi Pass Assembler:

For a two pass assembler, forward references in symbol definition are not allowed:

```

ALPHA    EQU    BETA
BETA     EQU    DELTA
DELTA    RESW 1
  
```

Symbol definition must be completed in pass 1.

Prohibiting forward references in symbol definition is not a serious inconvenience.

Forward references tend to create difficulty for a person reading the program.

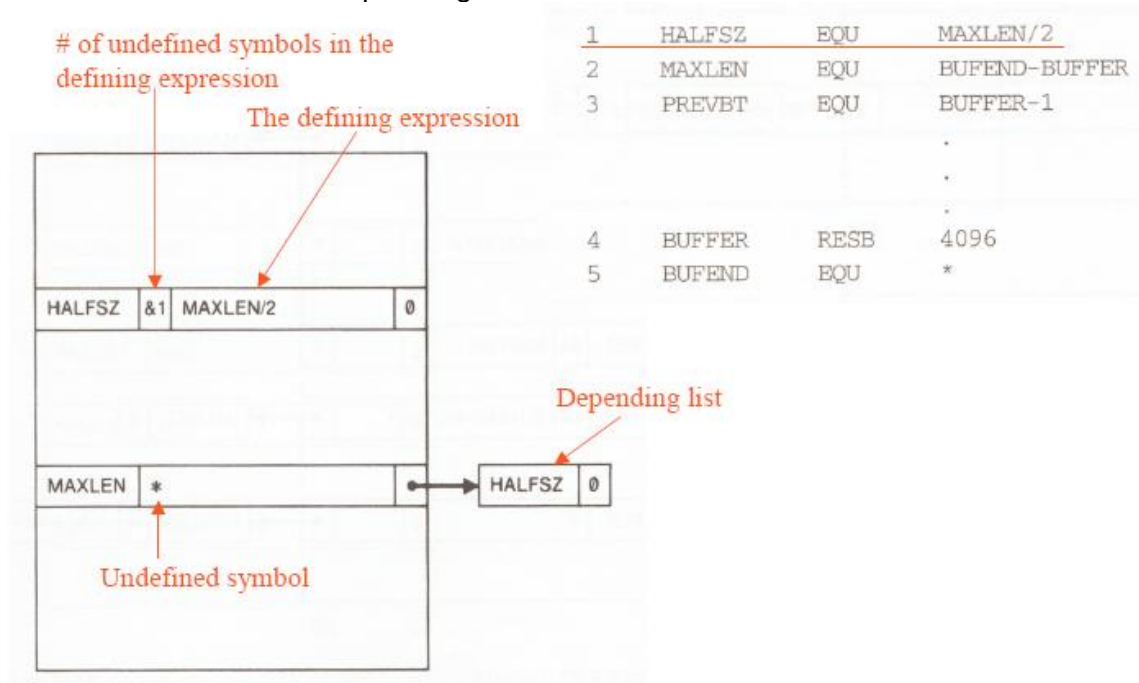
Implementation Issues for Modified Two-Pass Assembler:

Implementation Issues when forward referencing is encountered in *Symbol Defining statements*:

For a forward reference in symbol definition, we store in the SYMTAB:

The symbol name, The defining expression, The number of undefined symbols in the defining expression, The undefined symbol (marked with a flag *) associated with a list of symbols depend on this undefined symbol. When a symbol is defined, we can recursively evaluate the symbol expressions depending on the newly defined symbol.

Multi-Pass Assembler Example Program



Multi-Pass Assembler (Figure 2.21 of Beck): Example for forward reference in Symbol Defining Statements:

UNIT III - LOADERS AND LINKERS

Introduction

The Source Program written in assembly language or high level language will be converted to object program, which is in the machine language form for execution. This conversion either from assembler or from compiler, contains translated instructions and data values from the source program, or specifies addresses in primary memory where these items are to be loaded for execution.

This contains the following three processes, and they are,

Loading - which allocates memory location and brings the object program into memory for execution - (Loader)

Linking- which combines two or more separate object programs and supplies the information needed to allow references between them - (Linker)

Relocation - which modifies the object program so that it can be loaded at an address different from the location originally specified - (Linking Loader)

Basic Loader Functions

A loader is a system program that performs the loading function. It brings object program into memory and starts its execution. The role of loader is as shown in the figure 3.1. In figure 3.1 translator may be assembler/compiler, which generates the object program and later loaded to the memory by the loader for execution. In figure 3.2 the translator is specifically an assembler, which generates the object loaded, which becomes input to the loader. The figure 3.3 shows the role of both loader and linker.

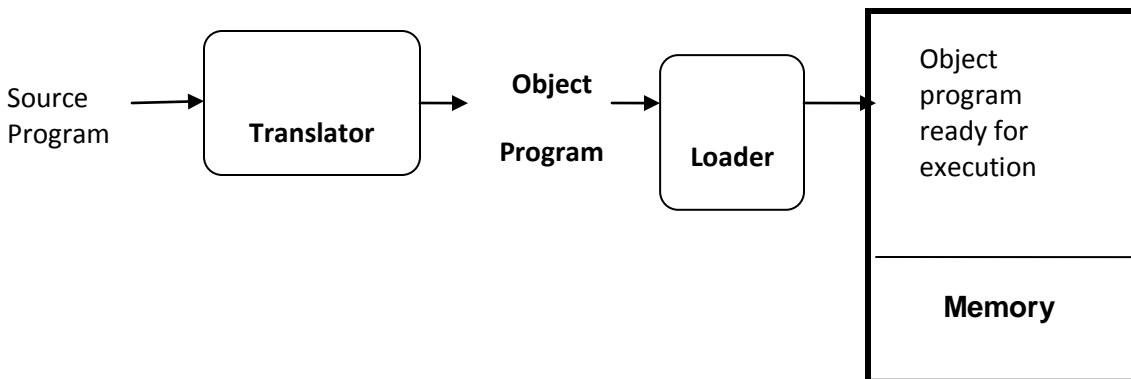


Figure 3.1 : The Role of Loader

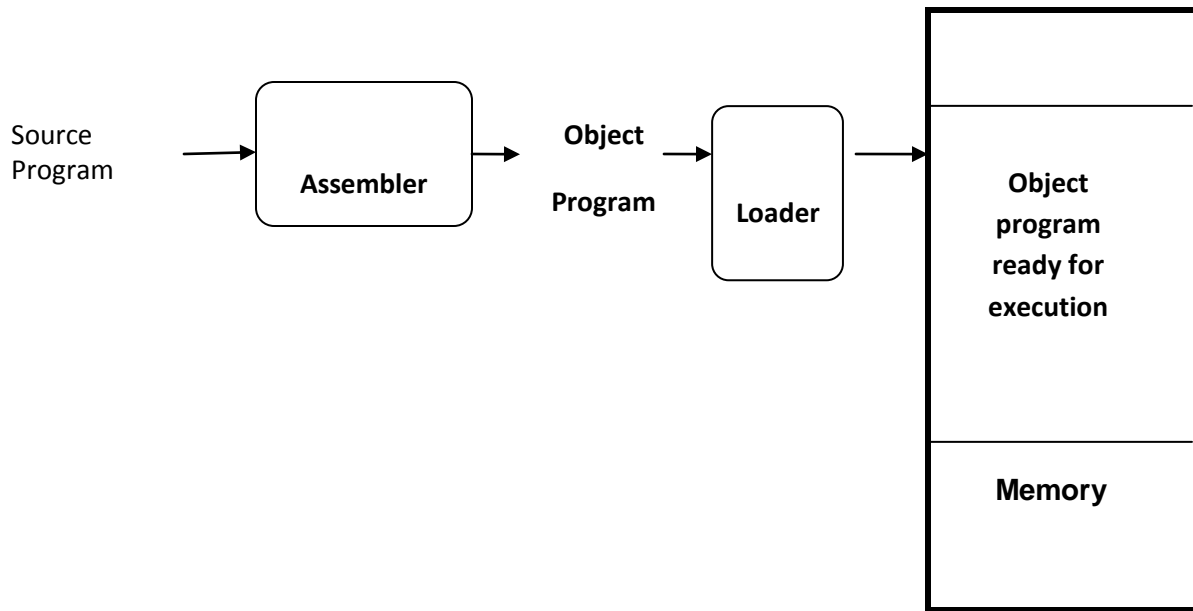


Figure 3.2: The Role of Loader with Assembler

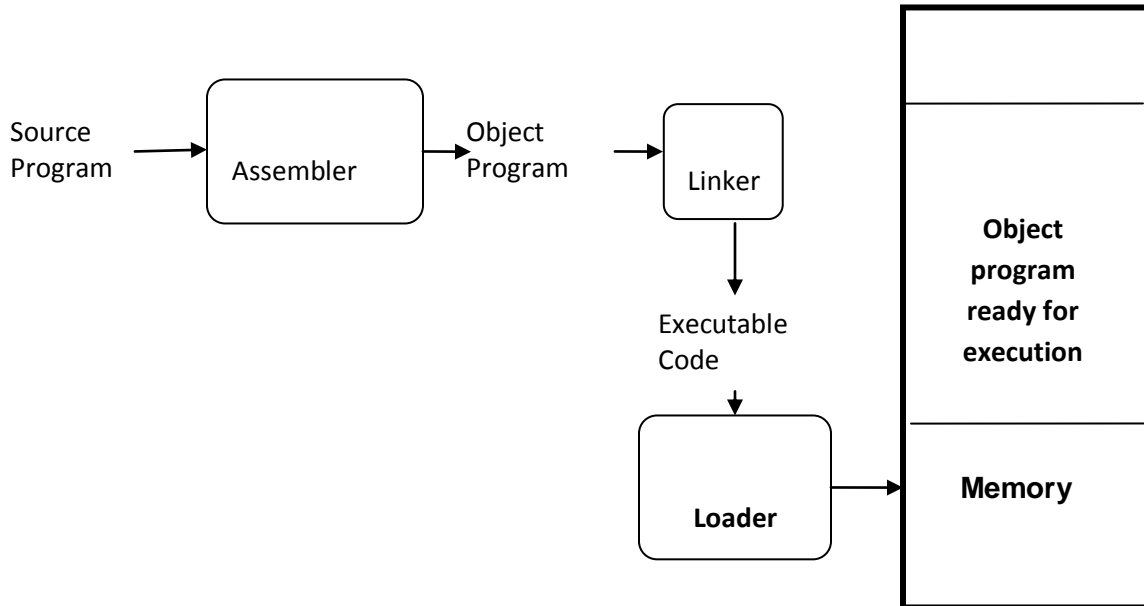


Figure 3.3 : The Role of both Loader and Linker

Type of Loaders

The different types of loaders are, absolute loader, bootstrap loader, relocating loader (relative loader), and, direct linking loader. The following sections discuss the functions and design of all these types of loaders.

Absolute Loader

The operation of absolute loader is very simple. The object code is loaded to specified locations in the memory. At the end the loader jumps to the specified address to begin execution of the loaded program. The role of absolute loader is as shown in the figure 3.3.1. The advantage of absolute loader is simple and efficient. But the disadvantages are, the need for programmer to specify the actual address, and, difficult to use subroutine libraries.

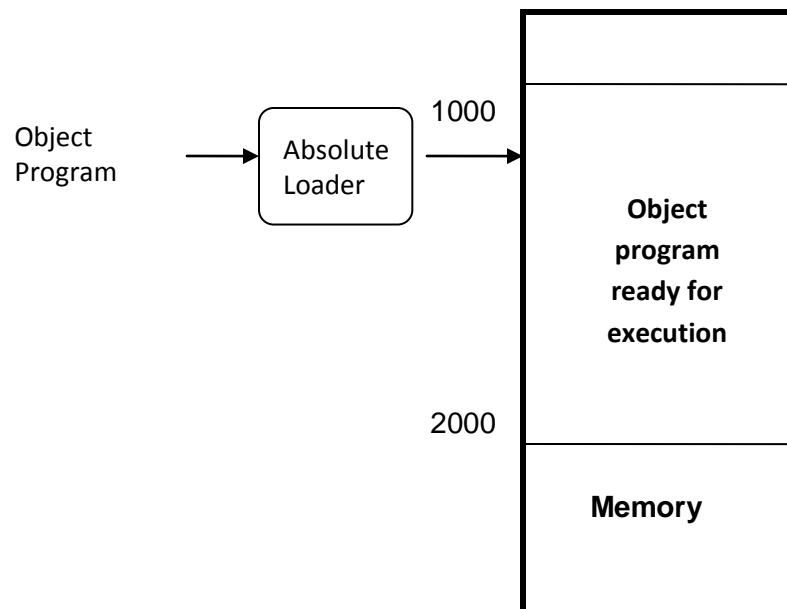


Figure 3.3.1: The Role of Absolute Loader

The algorithm for this type of loader is given here. The object program and, the object program loaded into memory by the absolute loader are also shown. Each byte of assembled code is given using its hexadecimal representation in character form. Easy to read by human beings. Each byte of object code is stored as a single byte. Most machine store object programs in a binary form, and we must be sure that our file and device conventions do not cause some of the program bytes to be interpreted as control characters.

Begin

read Header record

verify program name and length

read first Text record

while record type is <> 'E' do

begin

{if object code is in character form, convert into internal representation}

move object code to specified location in memory

read next object program record

end

jump to address specified in End record

end

```

HCOPY  CC100000107A
T0010001E1410334820390010362810303010154820613C100300102A0C103900102D
T00101E150C10364820610810334C0000454F46CC0003000000
T0020391E041030001030E0205030203FD8205D2810303020575490392C205E38203F
T0020571C1010364C0000F1001000041030E02079302064509039DC20792C1036
T002073073820644C000005
E001000

```

(a) Object program

Memory address

Contents

0000	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
0010	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮
0FF0	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
1000	14103348	20390010	36281030	30101548
1010	20613C10	0300102A	0C103900	102D0C10
1020	36482061	0810334C	0000454F	46000003
1030	000000xx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮
2030	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xx041030	001030E0
2040	205D3020	3FD8205D	28103030	20575490
2050	392C205E	38203F10	10364C00	00F10010
2060	00041030	E0207930	20645090	39DC2079
2070	2C103638	20644C00	0005xxxx	xxxxxxxx
2080	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮

← COPY

(b) Program loaded in memory

A Simple Bootstrap Loader

When a computer is first turned on or restarted, a special type of absolute loader, called bootstrap loader is executed. This bootstrap loads the first program to be run by the computer -- usually an operating system. The bootstrap itself begins at address 0. It loads the OS starting address 0x80. No header record or control information, the object code is consecutive bytes of memory.

The algorithm for the bootstrap loader is as follows

Begin

X=0x80 (the address of the next memory location to be loaded

Loop

 A←GETC (and convert it from the ASCII character
 code to the value of the hexadecimal digit)

 save the value in the high-order 4 bits of S

 A←GETC

 combine the value to form one byte A← (A+S)

 store the value (in A) to the address in register X

 X←X+1

End

It uses a subroutine GETC, which is

GETC A←read one character

 if A=0x04 then jump to 0x80

 if A<48 then GETC

 A ← A-48 (0x30)

 if A<10 then return

 A ← A-7

 return

Machine-Dependent Loader Features

Absolute loader is simple and efficient, but the scheme has potential disadvantages. One of the most disadvantage is the programmer has to specify the actual starting address, from where the program to be loaded. This does not create difficulty, if one program to run, but not for several programs. Further it is difficult to use subroutine libraries efficiently.

This needs the design and implementation of a more complex loader. The loader must provide program relocation and linking, as well as simple loading functions.

Relocation

The concept of program relocation is, the execution of the object program using any part of the available and sufficient memory. The object program is loaded into memory wherever there is room for it. The actual starting address of the object program is not known until load time. Relocation provides the efficient sharing of the machine with larger memory and when several independent programs are to be run together. It also supports the use of subroutine libraries efficiently. Loaders that allow for program relocation are called relocating loaders or relative loaders.

Methods for specifying relocation

Use of modification record and, use of relocation bit, are the methods available for specifying relocation. In the case of modification record, a modification record M is used in the object program to specify any relocation. In the case of use of relocation bit, each instruction is associated with one relocation bit and, these relocation bits in a Text record is gathered into bit masks.

Modification records are used in complex machines and are also called Relocation and Linkage Directory (RLD) specification. The format of the modification record (M) is as follows. The object program with relocation by Modification records is also shown here.

Modification record

- col 1: M
- col 2-7: relocation address
- col 8-9: length (halfbyte)
- col 10: flag (+/-)
- col 11-17: segment name

```
H COPY 000000 001077
T 000000 1D 17202D 69202D 48101036... 4B105D 3F2FEC 032010
T 00001D 13 0F2016 010003 0F200D 4B10105D 3E2003 454F46
T 001035 1D B410 B400 B440 75101000... 332008 57C003 B850
T 001053 1D 3B2FEA 134000 4F0000 F1... 53C003 DF2008 B850
T 00070 07 3B2FEF 4F0000 05
M 000007 05+COPY
M 000014 05+COPY
M 000027 05+COPY
E 000000
```

The relocation bit method is used for simple machines. Relocation bit is 0: no modification is necessary, and is 1: modification is needed. This is specified in the columns 10-12 of text record (T), the format of text record, along with relocation bits is as follows.

Text record

col 1: T
col 2-7: starting address
col 8-9: length (byte)
col 10-12: relocation bits
col 13-72: object code

Twelve-bit mask is used in each Text record (col:10-12 – relocation bits), since each text record contains less than 12 words, unused words are set to 0, and, any value that is to be modified during relocation must coincide with one of these 3-byte segments. For absolute loader, there are no relocation bits column 10-69 contains object code. The object program with relocation by bit mask is as shown below. Observe FFC - means all ten words are to be modified and, E00 - means first three records are to be modified.

```
H COPY 000000 00107A
T 000000 1E FFC 140033 481039 000036 280030 300015 ... 3C0003 ...
T 00001E 15 E00 0C0036 481061 080033 4C0000 ... 000003 000000
T 001039 1E FFC 040030 000030 ... 30103F D8105D 280030 ...
T 001057 0A 800 100036 4C0000 F1 001000
T 001061 19 FE0 040030 E01079 ... 508039 DC1079 2C0036 ...
E 000000
```

Program Linking

The Goal of program linking is to resolve the problems with external references (EXTREF) and external definitions (EXTDEF) from different control sections.

EXTDEF (external definition) - The EXTDEF statement in a control section names symbols, called external symbols, that are defined in this (present) control section and may be used by other sections.

ex: EXTDEF BUFFER, BUFFEND, LENGTH
EXTDEF LISTA, ENDA

EXTREF (external reference) - The EXTREF statement names symbols used in this (present) control section and are defined elsewhere.

ex: EXTREF RDREC, WRREC
EXTREF LISTB, ENDB, LISTC, ENDC

How to implement EXTDEF and EXTREF

The assembler must include information in the object program that will cause the loader to insert proper values where they are required – in the form of Define record (D) and, Refer record(R).

Define record

The format of the Define record (D) along with examples is as shown here.

Col. 1	D
Col. 2-7	Name of external symbol defined in this control section
Col. 8-13	Relative address within this control section (hexadecimal)
Col.14-73	Repeat information in Col. 2-13 for other external symbols

Example records

D LISTA 000040 ENDA 000054

D LISTB 000060 ENDB 000070

Refer record

The format of the Refer record (R) along with examples is as shown here.

Col. 1	R
Col. 2-7	Name of external symbol referred to in this control section
Col. 8-73	Name of other external reference symbols

Example records

R LISTB ENDB LISTC ENDC

R LISTA ENDA LISTC ENDC

R LISTA ENDA LISTB ENDB

Here are the three programs named as PROGA, PROGB and PROGC, which are separately assembled and each of which consists of a single control section. LISTA, ENDA in PROGA, LISTB, ENDB in PROGB and LISTC, ENDC in PROGC are external definitions in each of the control sections. Similarly LISTB, ENDB, LISTC, ENDC in PROGA, LISTA, ENDA, LISTC, ENDC in PROGB, and LISTA, ENDA, LISTB, ENDB in PROGC, are external references. These sample programs given here are used to illustrate linking and relocation. The following figures give the sample programs and their corresponding object programs. Observe the object programs, which contain D and R records along with other records.

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```

0000  PROGA      START      0
                        EXTDEF   LISTA, ENDA
                        EXTREF   LISTB, ENDB, LISTC, ENDC
                        .....
                        .....
0020  REF1        LDA        LISTA      03201D
0023  REF2        +LDT       LISTB+4    77100004
0027  REF3        LDX        #ENDA-LISTA 050014
                        .
                        .
0040  LISTA       EQU        *
                        .
0054  ENDA       EQU        *
0054  REF4       WORD       ENDA-LISTA+LISTC 000014
0057  REF5       WORD       ENDC-LISTC-10    FFFFF6
005A  REF6       WORD       ENDC-LISTC+LISTA-1 00003F
005D  REF7       WORD       ENDA-LISTA-(ENDB-LISTB) 000014
0060  REF8       WORD       LISTB-LISTA     FFFFC0
                        END
                        REF1

0000  PROGB      START      0
                        EXTDEF   LISTB, ENDB
                        EXTREF   LISTA, ENDA, LISTC, ENDC
                        .....
                        .....
0036  REF1        +LDA       LISTA      03100000
003A  REF2        LDT        LISTB+4    772027
003D  REF3        +LDX       #ENDA-LISTA 05100000
                        .
                        .
0060  LISTB       EQU        *
                        .
0070  ENDB       EQU        *
0070  REF4       WORD       ENDA-LISTA+LISTC 000000
0073  REF5       WORD       ENDC-LISTC-10    FFFFF6
0076  REF6       WORD       ENDC-LISTC+LISTA-1 FFFFFF
0079  REF7       WORD       ENDA-LISTA-(ENDB-LISTB) FFFFF0
007C  REF8       WORD       LISTB-LISTA     000060
                        END

0000  PROGC      START      0
                        EXTDEF   LISTC, ENDC
                        EXTREF   LISTA, ENDA, LISTB, ENDB

```

```

.....
0018 REF1 +LDA LISTA 03100000
001C REF2 +LDT LISTB+4 77100004
0020 REF3 +LDX #ENDA-LISTA 05100000
.
.
0030 LISTC EQU *
.
0042 ENDC EQU *
0042 REF4 WORD ENDA-LISTA+LISTC 000030
0045 REF5 WORD ENDC-LISTC-10 000008
0045 REF6 WORD ENDC-LISTC+LISTA-1 000011
004B REF7 WORD ENDA-LISTA-(ENDB-LISTB) 000000
004E REF8 WORD LISTB-LISTA 000000
END

```

H **PROGA** 000000 000063
D **LISTA** 000040 **ENDA** 000054
R **LISTB** **ENDB** **LISTC** **ENDC**

```

.
.
T 000020 0A 03201D 77100004 050014
.
.
T 000054 0F 000014 FFFF6 00003F 000014 FFFFC0
M000024 05+LISTB
M000054 06+LISTC
M000057 06+ENDC
M000057 06 -LISTC
M00005A06+ENDC
M00005A06 -LISTC
M00005A06+PROGA
M00005D06-ENDB
M00005D06+LISTB
M00006006+LISTB
M00006006-PROGA

```

E000020

H **PROGB** 000000 00007F
D **LISTB** 000060 **ENDB** 000070
R **LISTA** **ENDA** **LISTC** **ENDC**

```

.
T 000036 0B 03100000 772027 05100000
.
T 000007 0F 000000 FFFFF6 FFFFFF FFFFF0 000060
M000037 05+LISTA
.
M00003E 06+ENDA

```

```
M00003E 06 -LISTA
M000070 06 +ENDA
M000070 06 -LISTA
M000070 06 +LISTC
M000073 06 +ENDC
M000073 06 -LISTC
M000073 06 +ENDC
M000076 06 -LISTC
M000076 06+LISTA
M000079 06+ENDA
M000079 06 -LISTA
M00007C 06+PROGB
M00007C 06-LISTA
E
```

```
H PROGC 000000 000051
D LISTC 000030 ENDC 000042
R LISTA ENDA LISTB ENDB
```

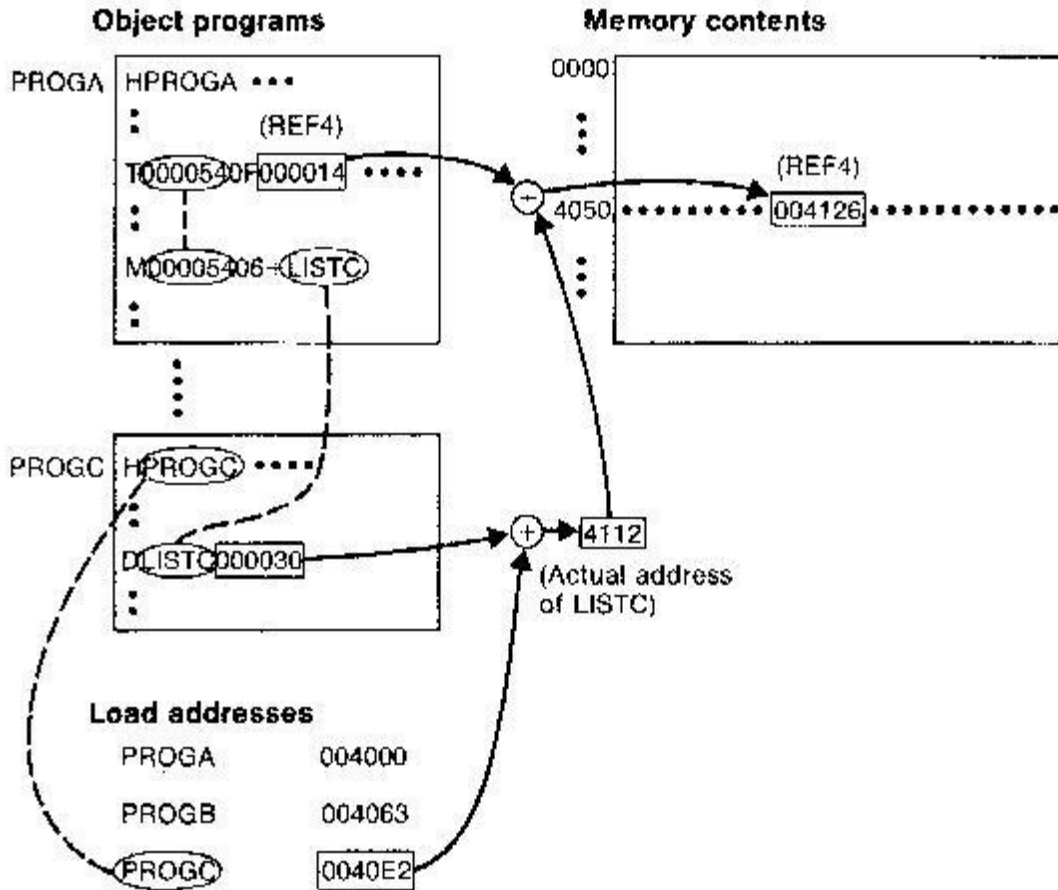
```
.
T 000018 0C 03100000 77100004 05100000
```

```
.
T 000042 0F 000030 000008 000011 000000 000000
M000019 05+LISTA
M00001D 06+LISTB
M000021 06+ENDA
M000021 06 -LISTA
M000042 06+ENDA
M000042 06 -LISTA
M000042 06+PROGC
M000048 06+LISTA
M00004B 06+ENDA
M00004B 06-LISTA
M00004B 06-ENDB
M00004B 06+LISTB
M00004E 06+LISTB
M00004E 06-LISTA
E
```

The following figure shows these three programs as they might appear in memory after loading and linking. PROGA has been loaded starting at address 4000, with PROGB and PROGC immediately following.

Memory address	Contents			
0000	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮
3FF0	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX
4000
4010
4020	03201D77	1040C705	0014..... ← PROGA
4030
4040
4050	00412600	00080040	51000004
4060	000083.....
4070
4080
4090031040	40772027 ← PROGB
40A0	05100014
40B0
40C0
40D000	41260000	08004051	00000400
40E0	0083.....
40F00310	40407710 ← PROGC
4100	40C70510	0014.....
4110
4120	00412600	00080040	51000004
4130	000083xx	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX
4140	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮

For example, the value for REF4 in PROGA is located at address 4054 (the beginning address of PROGA plus 0054, the relative address of REF4 within PROGA). The following figure shows the details of how this value is computed.



The initial value from the Text record

T0000540F000014FFFFFF600003F000014FFFC0 is 000014. To this is added the address assigned to LISTC, which is 4112 (the beginning address of PROGC plus 30). The result is 004126.

That is REF4 in PROGA is $ENDA-LISTA+LISTC=4054-4040+4112=4126$.

Similarly the load address for symbols LISTA: $PROGA+0040=4040$, LISTB: $PROGB+0060=40C3$ and LISTC: $PROGC+0030=4112$

Keeping these details work through the details of other references and values of these references are the same in each of the three programs.

Algorithm and Data structures for a Linking Loader

The algorithm for a linking loader is considerably more complicated than the absolute loader program, which is already given. The concept given in the program linking section is used for developing the algorithm for linking loader. The modification records are used for relocation so that the linking and relocation functions are performed using the same mechanism.

Linking Loader uses two-passes logic. ESTAB (external symbol table) is the main data structure for a linking loader.

Pass 1: Assign addresses to all external symbols

Pass 2: Perform the actual loading, relocation, and linking

ESTAB - ESTAB for the example (refer three programs PROGA PROGB and PROGC) given is as shown below. The ESTAB has four entries in it; they are name of the control section, the symbol appearing in the control section, its address and length of the control section.

Control section	Symbol	Address	Length
PROGA		4000	63
	LISTA	4040	
	ENDA	4054	
PROGB		4063	7F
	LISTB	40C3	
	ENDB	40D3	
PROGC		40E2	51
	LISTC	4112	
	ENDC	4124	

Program Logic for Pass 1

Pass 1 assign addresses to all external symbols. The variables & Data structures used during pass 1 are, PROGADDR (program load address) from OS, CSADDR (control section address), CSLTH (control section length) and ESTAB. The pass 1 processes the Define Record. The algorithm for Pass 1 of Linking Loader is given below.

Pass 1:

```
begin
get PROGADDR from operating system
set CSADDR to PROGADDR {for first control section}
while not end of input do
  begin
    read next input record {Header record for control section}
    set CSLTH to control section length
    search ESTAB for control section name
    if found then
      set error flag {duplicate external symbol}
    else
      enter control section name into ESTAB with value CSADDR
    while record type () 'E' do
      begin
        read next input record
        if record type = 'D' then
          for each symbol in the record do
            begin
              search ESTAB for symbol name
              if found then
                set error flag {duplicate external symbol}
              else
                enter symbol into ESTAB with value
                  (CSADDR + indicated address)
            end {for}
          end {while () 'E'}
          add CSLTH to CSADDR {starting address for next control section}
        and {while not EOF}
      end {Pass 1}
```

Program Logic for Pass 2

Pass 2 of linking loader perform the actual loading, relocation, and linking. It uses modification record and lookup the symbol in ESTAB to obtain its address. Finally it uses end record of a main program to obtain transfer address, which is a starting address needed for the execution of the program. The pass 2 process Text record and Modification record of the object programs. The algorithm for Pass 2 of Linking Loader is given below.

Pass 2:

```

begin
  set CSADDR to PROGADDR
  set EXECADDR to PROGADDR
  while not end of input do
    begin
      read next input record {Header record}
      set CSLTH to control section length
      while record type is 'E' do
        begin
          read next input record
          if record type = 'T' then
            begin
              {if object code is in character form, convert
               into internal representation}
              move object code from record to location
                (CSADDR + specified address)
            end {if 'T'}
          else if record type = 'M' then
            begin
              search ESTAB for modifying symbol name
              if found then
                add or subtract symbol value at location
                  (CSADDR + specified address)
              else
                set error flag (undefined external symbol)
              end {if 'M'}
            end {while () 'E'}
          if an address is specified (in End record) then
            set EXECADDR to (CSADDR + specified address)
            add CSLTH to CSADDR
          end {while not EOF}
        end {while not EOF}
      jump to location given by EXECADDR {to start execution of loaded program}
    end {Pass 2}
  
```

Improve Efficiency, How?

The question here is can we improve the efficiency of the linking loader. Also observe that, even though we have defined Refer record (R), we haven't made use of it. The efficiency can be improved by the use of local searching instead of multiple searches of ESTAB for the same symbol. For implementing this we assign a reference number to each external symbol in the Refer record. Then this reference number is used in Modification records instead of external symbols. 01 is assigned to control section name, and other numbers for external reference symbols.

The object programs for PROGA, PROGB and PROGC are shown below, with above modification to Refer record (Observe R records).

```

HPRGGA 000000000063
DLISTA 000040ENDA 000054
R02LISTB 03ENDB 04LISTC 05ENDC
.
.
T0000200A03201D77100004050014
.
.
T0000540F00C0148FFFF600003F000014FFFFC0
M00002405+02
M00005406+04
M00005706+05
M00005706-04

```

```

HPRGGB 00000000007F
DLISTB 000060ENDB 000070
R02LISTA 03ENDA 04LISTC 05ENDC
.
.
T0000360B0310000077202705100000
.
.
T0000700E0000000FFFFF6FFFFFFF00000060
M00003705+02
M00003E05+03
M00003E05-02
M00007006+03
M00007006-02
M00007006+04
M00007306+05
M00007306-04
M00007606+05
M00007606-04
M00007606+02
M00007906+03
M00007906-02
M00007C06+01
M00007C06-02
E

```

```

HPRGCG 000000000051
DLISTC 000030ENDC 000042
R02LISTA 03ENDA 04LISTB 05ENDB
*
*
T0000180C031000007710000405100000
*
*
T0000420F000030000008000011000000000000
M00001905+02
M00001D05+04
M00002105+03
M00002105-02
M00004206+03
M00004206-02
M00004206+01
M00004806+02
M00004E06+03
M00004E06-02
M00004E06-05
M00004E06+04
M00004E06+04
M00004E06-02
E

```

Symbol and Addresses in PROGA, PROGB and PROGC are as shown below. These are the entries of ESTAB. The main advantage of reference number mechanism is that it avoids multiple searches of ESTAB for the same symbol during the loading of a control section

Ref No.	Symbol	Address
1	PROGA	4000
2	LISTB	40C3
3	ENDB	40D3
4	LISTC	4112
5	ENDC	4124

Ref No.	Symbol	Address
1	PROGB	4063
2	LISTA	4040
3	ENDA	4054
4	LISTC	4112
5	ENDC	4124

Ref No.	Symbol	Address
1	PROGC	4063
2	LISTA	4040
3	ENDA	4054
4	LISTB	40C3
5	ENDB	40D3

Machine-independent Loader Features

Here we discuss some loader features that are not directly related to machine architecture and design. Automatic Library Search and Loader Options are such Machine-independent Loader Features.

Automatic Library Search

This feature allows a programmer to use standard subroutines without explicitly including them in the program to be loaded. The routines are automatically retrieved from a library as they are needed during linking. This allows programmer to use subroutines from one or more libraries. The subroutines called by the program being loaded are automatically fetched from the library, linked with the main program and loaded. The loader searches the library or libraries specified for routines that contain the definitions of these symbols in the main program.

Loader Options

Loader options allow the user to specify options that modify the standard processing. The options may be specified in three different ways. They are, specified using a command language, specified as a part of job control language that is processed by the operating system, and can be specified using loader control statements in the source program.

Here are some examples of how options can be specified.

INCLUDE program-name (library-name) - read the designated object program from a library

DELETE csect-name – delete the named control section from the set of programs being loaded

CHANGE name1, name2 - external symbol name1 to be changed to name2 wherever it appears in the object programs

LIBRARY MYLIB – search MYLIB library before standard libraries

NOCALL STDDEV, PLOT, CORREL – no loading and linking of unneeded routines

Here is one more example giving, how commands can be specified as a part of object file, and the respective changes are carried out by the loader.

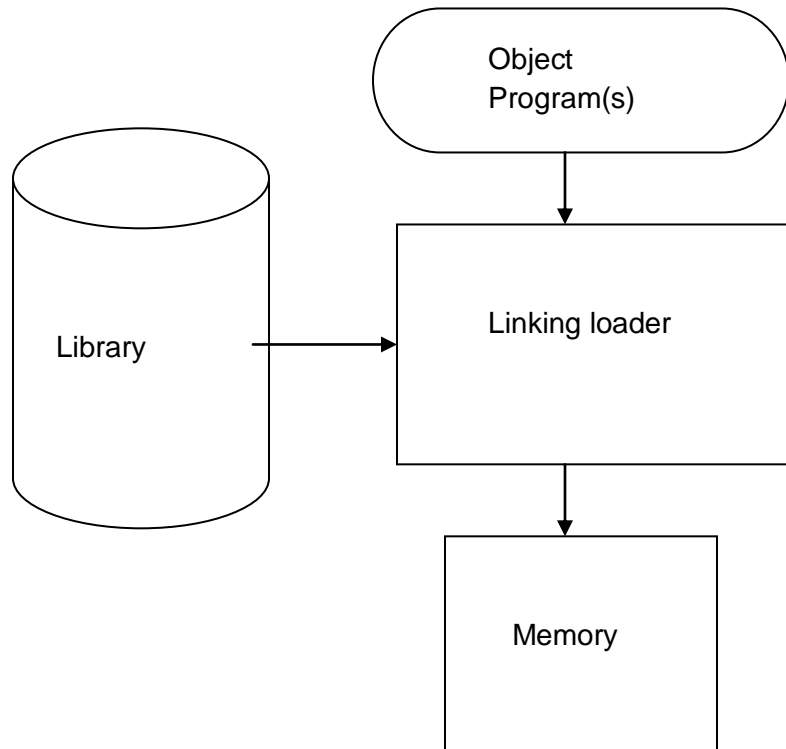
```
LIBRARY UTLIB
INCLUDE READ (UTLIB)
INCLUDE WRITE (UTLIB)
DELETE RDREC, WRREC
CHANGE RDREC, READ
CHANGE WRREC, WRITE
NOCALL SQRT, PLOT
```

The commands are, use UTLIB (say utility library), include READ and WRITE control sections from the library, delete the control sections RDREC and WRREC from the load, the change command causes all external references to the symbol RDREC to be changed to the symbol READ, similarly references to WRREC is changed to WRITE, finally, no call to the functions SQRT, PLOT, if they are used in the program.

Loader Design Options

There are some common alternatives for organizing the loading functions, including relocation and linking. Linking Loaders – Perform all linking and relocation at load time. The Other Alternatives are Linkage editors, which perform linking prior to load time and, Dynamic linking, in which linking function is performed at execution time

Linking Loaders

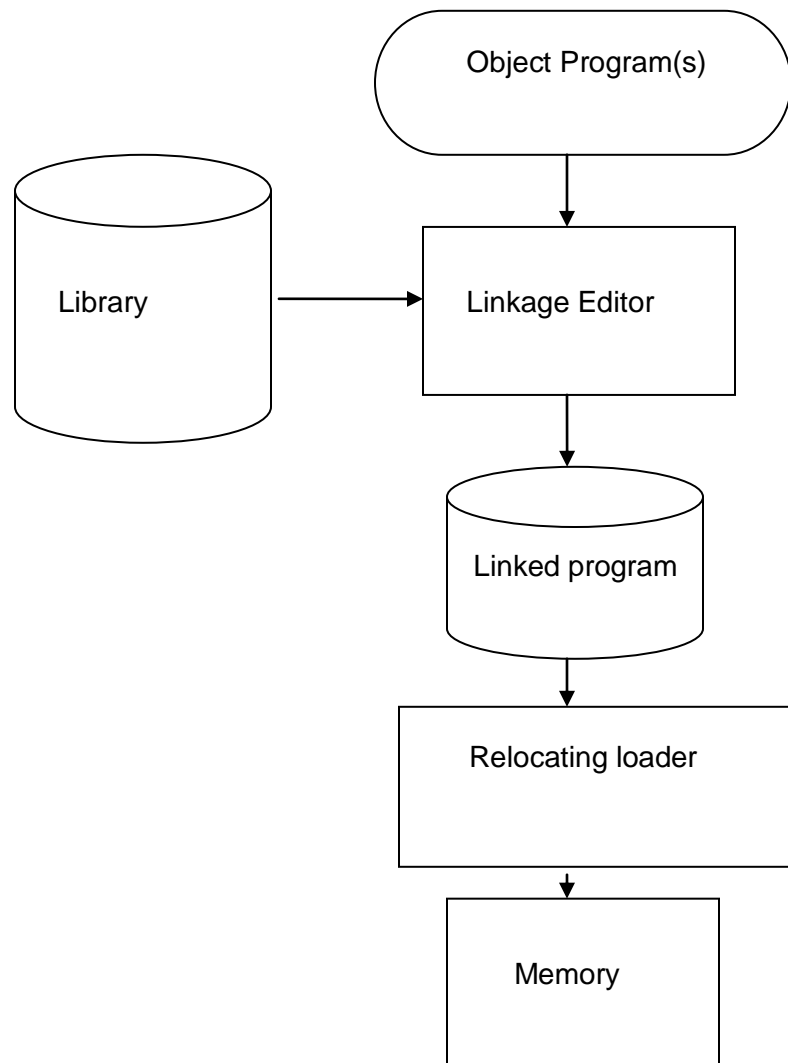


The above diagram shows the processing of an object program using Linking Loader. The source program is first assembled or compiled, producing an object program. A linking loader performs all linking and loading operations, and loads the program into memory for execution.

Linkage Editors

The figure below shows the processing of an object program using Linkage editor. A linkage editor produces a linked version of the program – often called a load module or an executable image – which is written to a file or library for later execution. The linked program produced is generally in a form that is suitable for processing by a relocating loader.

Some useful functions of Linkage editor are, an absolute object program can be created, if starting address is already known. New versions of the library can be included without changing the source program. Linkage editors can also be used to build packages of subroutines or other control sections that are generally used together. Linkage editors often allow the user to specify that external references are not to be resolved by automatic library search – linking will be done later by linking loader – linkage editor + linking loader – savings in space



Dynamic Linking

The scheme that postpones the linking functions until execution. A subroutine is loaded and linked to the rest of the program when it is first called – usually called dynamic linking, dynamic loading or load on call. The advantages of dynamic linking are, it allow several executing programs to share one copy of a subroutine or library. In an object oriented system, dynamic linking makes it possible for one object to be shared by several programs. Dynamic linking provides the ability to load the routines only when (and if) they are needed. The actual loading and linking can be accomplished using operating system service request.

Bootstrap Loaders

If the question, how is the loader itself loaded into the memory ? is asked, then the answer is, when computer is started – with no program in memory, a program present in ROM (absolute address) can be made executed – may be OS itself or A Bootstrap loader, which in turn loads OS and prepares it for execution. The first record (or records) is generally referred to as a bootstrap loader – makes the OS to be loaded. Such a loader is added to the beginning of all object programs that are to be loaded into an empty and idle system.

Implementation Examples

This section contains brief description of loaders and linkers for actual computers. They are, MS-DOS Linker - Pentium architecture, SunOS Linkers - SPARC architecture, and, Cray MPP Linkers – T3E architecture.

MS-DOS Linker

This explains some of the features of Microsoft MS-DOS linker, which is a linker for Pentium and other x86 systems. Most MS-DOS compilers and assemblers (MASM) produce object modules, and they are stored in .OBJ files. MS-DOS LINK is a linkage editor that combines one or more object modules to produce a complete executable program - .EXE file; this file is later executed for results.

The following table illustrates the typical MS-DOS object module

Record Types	Description
THEADR	Translator Header
TYPDEF,PUBDEF, EXTDEF	External symbols and references
LNames, SEGDEF, GRPDEF	Segment definition and grouping
LEDATA, LIDATA	Translated instructions and data
FIXUPP	Relocation and linking information
MODEND	End of object module

THEADR specifies the name of the object module. MODEND specifies the end of the module. PUBDEF contains list of the external symbols (called public names). EXTDEF contains list of external symbols referred in this module, but defined elsewhere. TYPDEF the data types are defined here. SEGDEF describes segments in the object module (includes name, length, and alignment). GRPDEF includes how segments are combined into groups. LNAMEs contains all segment and class names. LEDATA contains translated instructions and data. LIDATA has above in repeating pattern. Finally, FIXUPP is used to resolve external references.

SunOS Linkers

SunOS Linkers are developed for SPARC systems. SunOS provides two different linkers – link-editor and run-time linker.

Link-editor is invoked in the process of assembling or compiling a program – produces a single output module – one of the following types

A relocatable object module – suitable for further link-editing

A static executable – with all symbolic references bound and ready to run

A dynamic executable – in which some symbolic references may need to be bound at run time

A shared object – which provides services that can be, bound at run time to one ore more dynamic executables

An object module contains one or more sections – representing instructions and data area from the source program, relocation and linking information, external symbol table.

Run-time linker uses dynamic linking approach. Run-time linker binds dynamic executables and shared objects at execution time. Performs relocation and linking operations to prepare the program for execution.

Cray MPP Linker

Cray MPP (massively parallel processing) Linker is developed for Cray T3E systems. A T3E system contains large number of parallel processing elements (PEs) – Each PE has local memory and has access to remote memory (memory of other PEs). The processing is divided among PEs - contains shared data and private data. The loaded program gets copy of the executable code, its private data and its portion of the shared data. The MPP linker organizes blocks containing executable code, private data and shared data. The linker then writes an executable file that contains the relocated and linked blocks. The executable file also specifies the number of PEs required and other control information. The linker can create an executable file that is targeted for a fixed number of PEs, or one that allows the partition size to be chosen at run time. Latter type is called plastic executable.

UNIT IV - MACRO PROCESSORS

A *Macro* represents a commonly used group of statements in the source programming language.

- A macro instruction (**macro**) is a notational convenience for the programmer
 - It allows the programmer to write shorthand version of a program (module programming)
- The macro processor **replaces** each macro instruction with the corresponding group of source language statements (**expanding**)
 - Normally, it performs no analysis of the text it handles.
 - It does not concern the meaning of the involved statements during macro expansion.
- The design of a macro processor generally is *machine independent!*
- Two new assembler directives are used in macro definition
 - **MACRO**: identify the beginning of a macro definition
 - **MEND**: identify the end of a macro definition
- Prototype for the macro
 - Each parameter begins with '&'
 - name MACRO parameters
 - :
 - body
 - :
 - MEND
 - Body: the statements that will be generated as the expansion of the macro.

Basic Macro Processor Functions:

- *Macro Definition and Expansion*
- *Macro Processor Algorithms and Data structures*

Macro Definition and Expansion:

The figure shows the MACRO expansion. The left block shows the MACRO definition and the right block shows the expanded macro replacing the MACRO call with its block of executable instruction.

M1 is a macro with two parameters D1 and D2. The MACRO stores the contents of register A in D1 and the contents of register B in D2. Later M1 is invoked with the parameters DATA1 and DATA2, Second time with DATA4 and DATA3. Every call of MACRO is expended with the executable statements.

Source			Expanded source		
M1	MACRO	&D1, &D2	.		
	STA	&D1	.		
	STB	&D2	.		
	MEND		.		
.			.		
M1 DATA1, DATA2			{	STA	DATA1
.				STB	DATA2
.			.		
M1 DATA4, DATA3			{	STA	DATA4
				STB	DATA3
			.		

Fig 4.1

The statement M1 DATA1, DATA2 is a macro invocation statements that gives the name of the macro instruction being invoked and the arguments (M1 and M2) to be used in expanding. A macro invocation is referred as a Macro Call or Invocation.

Macro Expansion:

The program with macros is supplied to the macro processor. Each macro invocation statement will be expanded into the statements that form the body of the macro, with the arguments from the macro invocation substituted for the parameters in the macro prototype. During the expansion, the macro definition statements are deleted since they are no longer needed.

The arguments and the parameters are associated with one another according to their positions. The first argument in the macro matches with the first parameter in the macro prototype and so on.

After *macro processing* the expanded file can become the input for the *Assembler*. The *Macro Invocation* statement is considered as comments and the statement generated from expansion is treated exactly as though they had been written directly by the programmer.

The difference between *Macros* and *Subroutines* is that the statements from the body of the Macro is expanded the number of times the macro invocation is encountered, whereas the statement of the subroutine appears only once no matter how many times the subroutine is called. Macro instructions will be written so that the body of the macro contains no labels.

- Problem of the label in the body of macro:
 - If the same macro is expanded multiple times at different places in the program
 - ...
 - There will be *duplicate labels*, which will be treated as errors by the assembler.
- Solutions:
 - Do not use labels in the body of macro.
 - Explicitly use PC-relative addressing instead.
- Ex, in RDBUFF and WRBUFF macros,

- JEQ *+11
- JLT *-14
- It is inconvenient and error-prone.

The following program shows the concept of Macro Invocation and Macro Expansion.

```

170 .                MAIN PROGRAM
175 .
180  FIRST  STL      RETADR      SAVE RETURN ADDRESS
190  CLOOP  RDBUFF  F1,BUFFER,LENGTH  READ RECORD INTO BUFFER
195        LDA      LENGTH      TEST FOR END OF FILE
200        COMP     #0
205        JEQ      ENDFIL      EXIT IF EOF FOUND
210        WRBUFF  05,BUFFER,LENGTH  WRITE OUTPUT RECORD
215        J        CLOOP      LOOP
220  ENDFIL  WRBUFF  05,EOF,THREE  INSERT EOF MARKER
225        J        @RETADR
230  EOF    BYTE    C'EOF'
235  THREE  WORD    3
240  RETADR  RESW    1
245  LENGTH  RESW    1          LENGTH OF RECORD
250  BUFFER  RESB    4096      4096-BYTE BUFFER AREA
255        END      FIRST

```

5	COPY	START	0	COPY FILE FROM INPUT TO OUTPUT
180	FIRST	STL	RETADR	SAVE RETURN ADDRESS
190	.CLOOP	RDBUFF	F1,BUFFER,LENGTH	READ RECORD INTO BUFFER
190a	CLOOP	CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
190b		CLEAR	A	
190c		CLEAR	S	
190d		+LDT	#4096	SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
190e		TD	=X'F1'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
190f		JEQ	*-3	LOOP UNTIL READY
190g		RD	=X'F1'	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
190h		COMPR	A, S	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
190i		JEQ	*+11	EXIT LOOP IF EOR
190j		STCH	BUFFER, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
190k		TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
190l		JLT	*-19	HAS BEEN REACHED
190M		STX	LENGTH	SAVE RECORD LENGTH

Fig 4.2

Macro Processor Algorithm and Data Structure:

Design can be done as two-pass or a one-pass macro. In case of two-pass assembler.

Two-pass macro processor

- You may design a two-pass macro processor
 - Pass 1:
 - Process all macro definitions
 - Pass 2:
 - Expand all macro invocation statements
- However, one-pass may be enough
 - Because all macros would have to be defined during the first pass before any macro invocations were expanded.
 - The definition of a macro must appear before any statements that invoke that macro.
- Moreover, the body of one macro can contain definitions of the other macro
- Consider the example of a Macro defining another Macro.
- In the example below, the body of the first Macro (MACROS) contains statement that define RDBUFF, WRBUFF and other macro instructions for SIC machine.
- The body of the second Macro (MACROX) defines the same macros for SIC/XE machine.
- A proper invocation would make the same program to perform macro invocation to run on either SIC or SIC/XEmachine.

MACROS for SIC machine

1	MACROS	MACRO	{Defines SIC standard version macros}
2	RDBUFF	MACRO	&INDEV,&BUFADR,&RECLTH
		.	{SIC standard version}
		.	
3		MEND	{End of RDBUFF}
4	WRBUFF	MACRO	&OUTDEV,&BUFADR,&RECLTH
		.	{SIC standard version}
5		MEND	{End of WRBUFF}
		.	
		.	
6		MEND	{End of MACROS}

Fig 4.3(a)

MACROX for SIC/XE Machine

1	MACROX	MACRO	{Defines SIC/XE macros}
2	RDBUFF	MACRO	&INDEV,&BUFADR,&RECLTH
		.	{SIC/XE version}
		.	
3		MEND	{End of RDBUFF}
4	WRBUFF	MACRO	&OUTDEV,&BUFADR,&RECLTH
		.	{SIC/XE version}
		.	
5		MEND	{End of WRBUFF}
		.	
		.	
6		MEND	{End of MACROX}

Fig 4.3(b)

- A program that is to be run on SIC system could invoke MACROS whereas a program to be run on SIC/XE can invoke MACROX.
- However, defining MACROS or MACROX does not define RDBUFF and WRBUFF.
- These definitions are processed only when an invocation of MACROS or MACROX is expanded.

One-Pass Macro Processor:

- A one-pass macro processor that alternate between *macro definition* and *macro expansion* in a recursive way is able to handle recursive macro definition.
- Restriction
 - The definition of a macro must appear in the source program before any statements that invoke that macro.
 - This restriction does not create any real inconvenience.

The design considered is for one-pass assembler. The data structures required are:

- DEFTAB (Definition Table)
 - Stores the macro definition including *macro prototype* and *macro body*
 - Comment lines are omitted.
 - References to the macro instruction parameters are converted to a positional notation for efficiency in substituting arguments.
- NAMTAB (Name Table)
 - Stores macro names
 - Serves as an index to DEFTAB
 - Pointers to the beginning and the end of the macro definition (DEFTAB)
- ARGTAB (Argument Table)
 - Stores the arguments according to their positions in the argument list.
 - As the macro is expanded the arguments from the Argument table are substituted for the corresponding parameters in the macro body.
 - The figure below shows the different data structures described and their relationship.

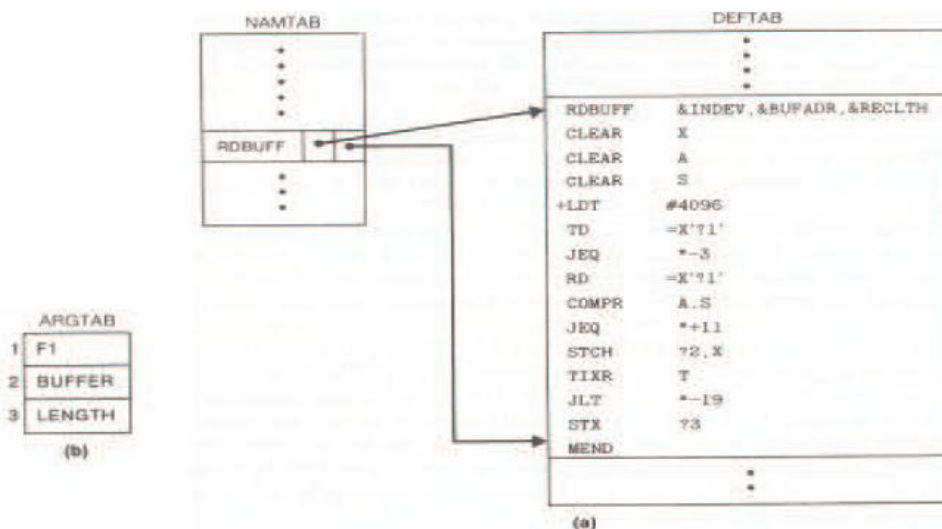


Fig 4.4

The above figure shows the portion of the contents of the table during the processing of the program in page no. 3. In fig 4.4(a) definition of RDBUFF is stored in DEFTAB, with an entry in NAMTAB having the pointers to the beginning and the end of the definition. The arguments referred by the instructions are denoted by their positional notations. For example,

TD =X'?1'

The above instruction is to test the availability of the device whose number is given by the parameter &INDEV. In the instruction this is replaced by its positional value? 1.

Figure 4.4(b) shows the ARTAB as it would appear during expansion of the RDBUFF statement as given below:

CLOOP RDBUFF F1, BUFFER, LENGTH

For the invocation of the macro RDBUFF, the first parameter is F1 (input device code), second is BUFFER (indicating the address where the characters read are stored), and the third is LENGTH (which indicates total length of the record to be read). When the ?n notation is encountered in a line from DEFTAB, a simple indexing operation supplies the proper argument from ARG TAB.

The algorithm of the Macro processor is given below. This has the procedure DEFINE to make the entry of *macro name* in the NAMTAB, *Macro Prototype* in DEFTAB. EXPAND is called to set up the argument values in ARG TAB and expand a *Macro Invocation* statement. Procedure GETLINE is called to get the next line to be processed either from the DEFTAB or from the file itself.

When a macro definition is encountered it is entered in the DEFTAB. The normal approach is to continue entering till MEND is encountered. If there is a program having a Macro defined within another Macro. While defining in the DEFTAB the very first MEND is taken as the end of the Macro definition. This does not complete the definition as there is another outer Macro which completes the definition of Macro as a whole. Therefore the DEFINE procedure keeps a counter variable LEVEL. Every time a Macro directive is encountered this counter is incremented by 1. The moment the innermost Macro ends indicated by the directive MEND it starts decreasing the value of the counter variable by one. The last MEND should make the counter value set to zero. So when LEVEL becomes zero, the MEND corresponds to the original MACRO directive.

Most macro processors allow the definitions of the commonly used instructions to appear in a standard system library, rather than in the source program. This makes the use of macros convenient; definitions are retrieved from the library as they are needed during macro processing.

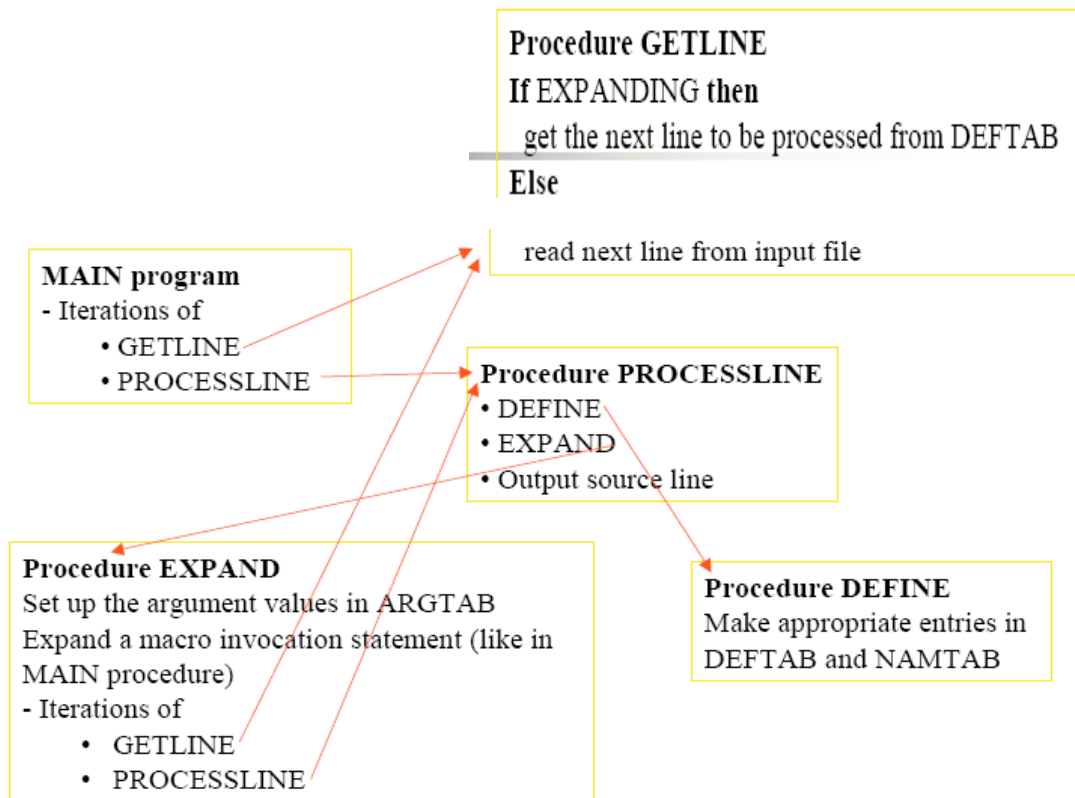


Fig 4.5

Algorithms

```
begin {macro processor}
    EXPANDINF := FALSE
    while OPCODE  $\neq$  'END' do
        begin
            GETLINE
            PROCESSLINE
        end {while}
    end {macro processor}
```

```
Procedure PROCESSLINE
begin
    search MAMTAB for OPCODE
    if found then
        EXPAND
    else if OPCODE = 'MACRO' then
        DEFINE
    else write source line to expanded file
end {PRCOESSOR}
```

```
Procedure DEFINE
begin
    enter macro name into NAMTAB
    enter macro prototype into DEFTAB
    LEVEL := 1
    while LEVEL > 0 do
        begin
            GETLINE
            if this is not a comment line then
                begin
                    substitute positional notation for parameters
                    enter line into DEFTAB
                    if OPCODE = 'MACRO' then
                        LEVEL := LEVEL + 1
                    else if OPCODE = 'MEND' then
                        LEVEL := LEVEL - 1
                    end {if not comment}
                end {while}
            store in NAMTAB pointers to beginning and end of definition
        end {DEFINE}
```

```
Procedure EXPAND
begin
    EXPANDING := TRUE
    get first line of macro definition {prototype} from DEFTAB
    set up arguments from macro invocation in ARG TAB
    while macro invocation to expanded file as a comment
    while not end of macro definition do
        begin
            GETLINE
            PROCESSLINE
        end {while}
    EXPANDING := FALSE
end {EXPAND}

Procedure GETLINE
begin
    if EXPANDING then
        begin
            get next line of macro definition from DEFTAB
            substitute arguments from ARG TAB for positional notation
        end {if}
    else
        read next line from input file
    end {GETLINE}
```

Fig 4.6

Comparison of Macro Processor Design

- *One-pass algorithm*
 - Every macro must be defined before it is called
 - One-pass processor can alternate between macro definition and macro expansion
 - Nested macro definitions are allowed but nested calls are not allowed.
- *Two-pass algorithm*
 - Pass1: Recognize macro definitions
 - Pass2: Recognize macro calls
 - Nested macro definitions are not allowed

Machine-independent Macro-Processor Features.

The design of macro processor doesn't depend on the architecture of the machine. We will be studying some extended feature for this macro processor. These features are:

- Concatenation of Macro Parameters
- Generation of unique labels
- Conditional Macro Expansion
- Keyword Macro Parameters

Concatenation of unique labels:

Most macro processor allows parameters to be concatenated with other character strings. Suppose that a program contains a series of variables named by the symbols XA1, XA2, XA3,..., another series of variables named XB1, XB2, XB3,..., etc. If similar processing is to be performed on each series of labels, the programmer might put this as a macro instruction. The parameter to such a macro instruction could specify the series of variables to be operated on (A, B, etc.). The macro processor would use this parameter to construct the symbols required in the macro expansion (XA1, Xb1, etc.).

Suppose that the parameter to such a macro instruction is named &ID. The body of the macro definition might contain a statement like

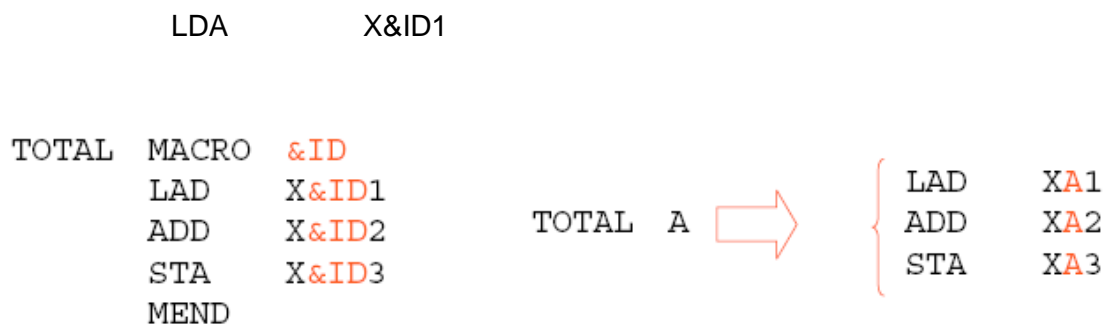


Fig 4.7

& is the starting character of the macro instruction; but the end of the parameter is not marked. So in the case of &ID1, the macro processor could deduce the meaning that was intended. If the macro definition contains &ID and &ID1 as parameters, the situation would be unavoidably ambiguous.

Most of the macro processors deal with this problem by providing a special concatenation operator. In the SIC macro language, this operator is the character →. Thus the statement LDA X&ID1 can be written as

```
LDA    X&ID→
```

```
ID123  MACRO  &ID
        LAD    X&ID→1
        ADD    X&ID→2
        STA    X&ID→3
        MEND
```

1	SUM	MACRO	&ID
2		LDA	X&ID→ 1
3		ADD	X&ID→ 2
4		ADD	X&ID→ 3
5		STA	X&ID→ S
6		MEND	

SUM	A		SUM	BETA
↓			↓	
LDA	XA1		LDA	XBEATA1
ADD	XA2		ADD	XBEATA2
ADD	XA3		ADD	XBEATA3
STA	XAS		STA	XBEATAS

Fig 4.8

The above figure shows a macro definition that uses the concatenation operator as previously described. The statement SUM A and SUM BETA shows the invocation statements and the corresponding macro expansion.

Generation of Unique Labels

As discussed it is not possible to use labels for the instructions in the macro definition, since every expansion of macro would include the label repeatedly which is not allowed by the assembler. This in turn forces us to use relative addressing in the jump instructions. Instead we can use the technique of generating unique labels for every macro invocation and expansion. During macro expansion each \$ will be replaced with \$XX, where xx is a two-character alphanumeric counter of the number of macro instructions expansion.

For example,

XX = AA, AB, AC...

This allows 1296 macro expansions in a single program.

The following program shows the macro definition with labels to the instruction.

25	RDBUFF	MACRO	&INDEV, &BUFADR, &RECLTH	
30		CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35		CLEAR	A	
40		CLEAR	S	
45		+LDT	#4096	SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50	<u>\$LOOP</u>	TD	=X'&INDEV'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
55		JEQ	<u>\$LOOP</u>	LOOP UNTIL READY
60		RD	=X'&INDEV'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
65		COMPR	A, S	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70		JEQ	<u>\$EXIT</u>	EXIT LOOP IF EOR
75		STCH	&BUFADR, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80		TIXR	<u>\$LOOP</u>	HAS BEEN REACHED
90	<u>\$EXIT</u>	STX	&RECLTH	SAVE RECORD LENGTH
		MEND		

The following figure shows the macro invocation and expansion first time.

```

.          RDBUFF  F1, BUFFER, LENGTH

30          CLEAR  X          CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35          CLEAR  A
40          CLEAR  S
45          +LDT   #4096      SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50          $AALoop TD    =X'F1'  TEST INPUT DEVICE
55          JEQ    $AALoop      LOOP UNTIL READY
60          RD     =X'F1'      READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
65          COMPR  A, S        TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70          JEQ    $AAEXIT      EXIT LOOP IF EOR
75          STCH   BUFFER, X   STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80          TIXR   T           LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85          JLT    $AALoop      HAS BEEN REACHED
90          $AAEXIT STX    LENGTH  SAVE RECORD LENGTH

```

If the macro is invoked second time the labels may be expanded as \$ABLOOP \$ABEXIT.

Conditional Macro Expansion

There are applications of macro processors that are not related to assemblers or assembler programming. Conditional assembly depends on parameters provides

MACRO &COND

.....

IF (&COND NE “)

part I

ELSE

part II

ENDIF

.....

ENDM

Part I is expanded if condition part is true, otherwise part II is expanded. Compare operators: NE, EQ, LE, GT.

Macro-Time Variables:

Macro-time variables (often called as SET Symbol) can be used to store working values during the macro expansion. Any symbol that begins with symbol & and not a macro instruction parameter is considered as *macro-time variable*. All such variables are initialized to zero.

25	RDBUFF	MACRO	&INDEV, &BUFADR, &RECLTH, <u>&FOR, &MAXLTH</u>	
26		IF	(<u>&EOR</u> NE '')	
27	<u>&EORCK</u>	SET	1	
28		ENDIF		
30		CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35		CLEAR	A	
38		IF	(<u>&EORCK</u> EQ 1)	
40		LDCH	=X'&EOR'	SET EOR COUNTER
42		RMO	A, S	
43		ENDIF		
44		IF	(<u>&MAXLTH</u> EQ '')	
45		+LDT	#4096	SET MAX LENGTH = 4096
46		ELSE		
47		+LDT	#&MAXLTH	SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
48		ENDIF		
50	\$LOOP	TD	=X'&INDEV'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
55		JEQ	\$LOOP	LOOP UNTIL READY
60		RD	=X'&INDEV'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
63		IF	(<u>&EORCK</u> EQ 1)	
65		COMPR	A, S	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70		JEQ	\$EXIT	EXIT LOOP IF EOR
73		ENDIF		
75		STCH	&BUFADR, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80		TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85		JLT	\$LOOP	HAS BEEN REACHED
90	\$EXIT	STX	&RECLTH	SAVE RECORD LENGTH
95		MEND		

Macro-time variable

Fig 4.9(a)

Figure 4.5(a) gives the definition of the macro RDBUFF with the parameters &INDEV, &BUFADR, &RECLTH, &EOR, &MAXLTH. According to the above program if &EOR has any value, then &EORCK is set to 1 by using the directive SET, otherwise it retains its default value 0.


```

.      RDBUFF    F31 BUF, RECL, 04, 2048

30          CLEAR    X                CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35          CLEAR    A
40          LDCH      =X'04'          SET EOR CHARACTER
42          RMO       A, S
47          +LDT      #2048           SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50  $AALoop  TD        =X'F3'          TEST INPUT DEVICE
55          JEQ        $AALoop        LOOP UNTIL READY
60          RD         =X'F3'          READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
65          COMPR     A, S            TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70          JEQ        $AAEXIT        EXIT LOOP IF EOR
75          STCH       BUF, X         STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80          TIXR       T              LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85          JLT        $AALoop        HAS BEEN REACHED
90  $AAEXIT  STX        RECL           SAVE RECORD LENGTH

```

Fig 4.9(b) Use of Macro-Time Variable with EOF being NOT NULL

```

.      RDBUFF    OE, BUFFER, LENGTH, , 80

30          CLEAR    X                CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35          CLEAR    A
47          +LDT      #80             SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50  $ABLoop  TD        =X'0E'          TEST INPUT DEVICE
55          JEQ        $ABLoop        LOOP UNTIL READY
60          RD         =X'0E'          READ CHARACTER IN REG A
75          STCH       BUFFER, X       STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80          TIXR       T              LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
87          JLT        $ABLoop        HAS BEEN REACHED
90  $ABEXIT  STX        LENGTH         SAVE RECORD LENGTH

```

Fig 4.9(c) Use of Macro-Time conditional statement with EOF being NULL

		<u>RDBUFF</u>	<u>F1. BUFF, ELENG, 04</u>	
30		CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35		CLEAR	A	
40		LDCH	=X'04'	SET EOR CHARACTER
42		RMO	A, S	
45		+LDT	#4096	SET MAX LENGTH = 4096
50	\$ACLOOP	TD	=X'F1'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
55		JEQ	\$ACLOOP	LOOP UNTIL READY
60		RD	=X'F1'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
65		COMPR	A,S	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70		JEQ	\$ACEXIT	EXIT LOOP IF EOR
75		STCH	BUFF,X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80		TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85		JLT	\$ACLOOP	HAS LOOP REACHED
90	\$ACEXIT	STX	RLENG	SAVE RECORD LENGTH

Fig 4.9(d) Use of Time-variable with EOF NOT NULL and MAXLENGTH being NULL

The above programs show the expansion of Macro invocation statements with different values for the time variables. In figure 4.9(b) the &EOF value is NULL. When the macro invocation is done, IF statement is executed, if it is true EORCK is set to 1, otherwise normal execution of the other part of the program is continued.

The macro processor must maintain a symbol table that contains the value of all macro-time variables used. Entries in this table are modified when SET statements are processed. The table is used to look up the current value of the macro-time variable whenever it is required.

When an IF statement is encountered during the expansion of a macro, the specified Boolean expression is evaluated.

If the value of this expression TRUE,

- The macro processor continues to process lines from the DEFTAB until it encounters the ELSE or ENDIF statement.
- If an ELSE is found, macro processor skips lines in DEFTAB until the next ENDIF.
- Once it reaches ENDIF, it resumes expanding the macro in the usual way.

If the value of the expression is FALSE,

- The macro processor skips ahead in DEFTAB until it encounters next ELSE or ENDIF statement.
- The macro processor then resumes normal macro expansion.

The *macro-time* IF-ELSE-ENDIF structure provides a mechanism for either generating(once) or skipping selected statements in the macro body. There is another construct WHILE statement which specifies that the following line until the next ENDW statement, are to be generated repeatedly as long as a particular condition is true. The testing of this condition, and the looping

are done during the macro is under expansion. The example shown below shows the usage of Macro-Time Looping statement.

WHILE-ENDW structure

- When an WHILE statement is encountered during the expansion of a macro, the specified Boolean expression is evaluated.
- TRUE
 - The macro processor continues to process lines from DEFTAB until it encounters the next ENDW statement.
 - When ENDW is encountered, the macro processor returns to the preceding WHILE, re-evaluates the Boolean expression, and takes action **based on the new value**.
- FALSE
 - The macro processor skips ahead in DEFTAB until it finds the next ENDW statement and then resumes normal macro expansion.

25	RDBUFF	MACRO	&INDEV, &BUFADR, &RECLTH, &EOR	
27	&EORCT	SET	%NITEMS (&EOR)	← Macro processor function
30		CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35		CLEAR	A	
45		+LDT	#4096	SET MAX LENGTH = 4096
50	\$LOOP	TD	=X'&INDEV'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
55		JEQ	\$LOOP	LOOP UNTIL READY
60		RD	=X'&INDEV'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
63	&CTR	SET	1	
64		WHILE	(&CTR LE &EORCT)	
65		COMPR	=X'0000&EOR[&CTR]'	← List index
70		JEQ	\$EXIT	
71	&CTR	SET	&CTR+1	
73		ENDW		
75		STCH	&BUFADR, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80		TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85		JLT	\$LOOP	HAS BEEN REACHED
90	\$EXIT	STX	&RECLTH	SAVE RECORD LENGTH
100		MEND		

```

RDBUFF  F2, BUFFER, LENGTH, (00, 03, 04)

```

List

30	CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35	CLEAR	A	
45	+LDT	#4096	SET MAX LENGTH = 4096
50	\$AALoop	TD	=X'F2'
55	JEQ	\$AALoop	TEST INPUT DEVICE
60	RD	=X'F2'	LOOP UNTIL READY
65	COMP	=X'000000'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
70	JEQ	\$AAEXIT	
65	COMP	=X'000003'	
70	JEQ	\$AAEXIT	
65	COMP	=X'000004'	
70	JEQ	\$AAEXIT	
75	STCH	BUFFER, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80	TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85	JLT	\$AALoop	HAS BEEN REACHED
90	\$AAEXIT	STX	LENGTH
			SAVE RECORD LENGTH

Keyword Macro Parameters

All the macro instruction definitions used positional parameters. Parameters and arguments are matched according to their positions in the macro prototype and the macro invocation statement. The programmer needs to be careful while specifying the arguments. If an argument is to be omitted the macro invocation statement must contain a null argument mentioned with two commas.

Positional parameters are suitable for the macro invocation. But if the macro invocation has large number of parameters, and if only few of the values need to be used in a typical invocation, a different type of parameter specification is required (for example, in many cases most of the parameters may have default values, and the invocation may mention only the changes from the default values).

Ex: XXX MACRO &P1, &P2,, &P20,

XXX A1, A2,,,,,,,,,,,,,,A20,.....

Null arguments

Keyword parameters

- Each argument value is written with a keyword that names the corresponding parameter.
- Arguments may appear in any order.
- Null arguments no longer need to be used.
- Ex: XXX P1=A1, P2=A2, P20=A20.
- It is easier to read and much less error-prone than the positional method.

25	RDBUFF	MACRO	<u>&INDEV=F1, &BUFADR=, &RECLTH=, &EOR=04, &MAXLTH=4096</u>	
26		IF	(&EOR NE '')	
27	&EORCK	SET	1	
28		ENDIF		
30		CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35		CLEAR	A	
38		IF	(&EORCK EQ 1)	
40		LDCH	=X'&EOR'	SET EOR CHARACTER
42		RMO	A, S	
43		ENDIF		
47		+LDT	#MAXLTH	SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50	\$LOOP	TD	=X'&INDEV'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
55		JEQ	\$LOOP	LOOP UNTIL READY
60		RD	=X'&INDEV'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
63		IF	(&EORCK EQ 1)	
65		COMPR	A, S	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70		JEQ	\$EXIT	EXIT LOOP IF EOR
73		ENDIF		
75		STCH	\$BUFADR, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80		TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85		JLT	\$LOOP	HAS BEEN REACHED
90	\$EXIT	STX	&RECLTH	SAVE RECORD LENGTH
95		MEND		

Parameters with default value

RDBUFF BUFADR=BUFFER, RECLTH=LENGTH

30		CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35		CLEAR	A	
40		LDCH	=X'04'	SET EOR CHARACTER
42		RMO	A, S	
47		+LDT	#4096	SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50	\$AALOOP	TD	=X'F1'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
55		JEQ	\$AALOOP	LOOP UNTIL READY
60		RD	=X'F1'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
65		COMPR	A, S	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70		JEQ	\$AAEXIT	EXIT LOOP IF EOR
75		STCH	BUFFER, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80		TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85		JLT	\$AALOOP	HAS BEEN REACHED
90	\$AAEXUT	STX	LENGTH	SAVE RECORD LENGTH

```

1      .      RDBUFF RECLTH=LENGTH, BUFADR=BUFFER, EOR=, INDEV=F3

30          CLEAR    X          CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35          CLEAR    A
47      +LDT    #4096          SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50      $ABLOOP TD    =X'F3'    TEST INPUT DEVICE
55          JEQ      $ABLOOP    LOOP UNTIL READY
60          RD       =X'F3'    READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
75          STCH     BUFFER, X  STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80          TIXR     T          LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85          JLT      $ABLOOP    HAS BEEN REACHED
90      $ABEXIT STX    LENGTH    SAVE RECORD LENGTH

```

Fig 4.10 Example showing the usage of Keyword Parameter

Macro Processor Design Options

Recursive Macro Expansion

We have seen an example of the *definition* of one macro instruction by another. But we have not dealt with the *invocation* of one macro by another. The following example shows the invocation of one macro by another macro.

```

10      RDBUFF  MACRO    &BUFADR, &RECLTH, &INDEV
15      .
20      .      MACRO TO READ RECORD INTO BUFFER
25      .
30          CLEAR    X          CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35          CLEAR    A
40          CLEAR    S
45      +LDT    #4096          SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50      $LOOP   RDCHAR  &INDEV    READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
65          COMPR    A, S      TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70          JEQ      &EXIT    EXIT LOOP IF EOR
75          STCH     &BUFADR, X STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80          TIXR     T          LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85          JLT      $LOOP    HAS BEEN REACHED
90      $EXIT   STX      &RECLTH  SAVE RECORD LENGTH
95          MEND

```

```
5  RDCHAR      MACRO  &IN
10  .
15  .          MACRO TO READ CHARACTER INTO REGISTER A
20  .
25          TD      =X'&IN'          TEST INPUT DEVICE
30          JEQ      *-3              LOOP UNTIL READY
35          RD      =X'&IN'          READ CHARACTER
40          MEND
```

Problem of Recursive Expansion

- Previous macro processor design cannot handle such kind of recursive macro invocation and expansion
 - The procedure EXPAND would be called recursively, thus the invocation arguments in the ARGTAB will be overwritten. (P.201)
 - The Boolean variable EXPANDING would be set to FALSE when the “inner” macro expansion is finished, *i.e.*, the macro process would forget that it had been in the middle of expanding an “outer” macro.
- Solutions
 - Write the macro processor in a programming language that allows recursive calls, thus local variables will be retained.
 - If you are writing in a language without recursion support, use a stack to take care of pushing and popping local variables and return addresses.

The procedure EXPAND would be called when the macro was recognized. The arguments from the macro invocation would be entered into ARGTAB as follows:

Parameter	Value
1	BUFFER
2	LENGTH
3	F1
4	(unused)
-	-

The Boolean variable EXPANDING would be set to TRUE, and expansion of the macro invocation statement would begin. The processing would proceed normally until statement invoking RDCHAR is processed. This time, ARGTAB would look like

Parameter	Value
1	F1
2	(Unused)
--	--

At the expansion, when the end of RDCHAR is recognized, EXPANDING would be set to FALSE. Thus the macro processor would 'forget' that it had been in the middle of expanding a macro when it encountered the RDCHAR statement. In addition, the arguments from the original macro invocation (RDBUFF) would be lost because the value in ARGTAB was overwritten with the arguments from the invocation of RDCHAR.

General-Purpose Macro Processors

- Macro processors that do not dependent on any particular programming language, but can be used with a variety of different languages
- **Pros**
 - Programmers do not need to learn many macro languages.
 - Although its development costs are somewhat greater than those for a language specific macro processor, this expense does not need to be repeated for each language, thus save substantial overall cost.
- **Cons**
 - Large number of details must be dealt with in a real programming language
 - Situations in which normal macro parameter substitution should not occur, e.g., comments.
 - Facilities for grouping together terms, expressions, or statements
 - Tokens, e.g., identifiers, constants, operators, keywords
 - Syntax had better be consistent with the source programming language

Macro Processing within Language Translators

- The macro processors we discussed are called "Preprocessors".
 - Process macro definitions
 - Expand macro invocations
 - Produce an expanded version of the source program, which is then used as input to an assembler or compiler
- You may also combine the macro processing functions with the language translator:
 - Line-by-line macro processor
 - Integrated macro processor

Line-by-Line Macro Processor

- Used as a sort of input routine for the assembler or compiler
- Read source program
- Process macro definitions and expand macro invocations
- Pass output lines to the assembler or compiler

Benefits

- Avoid making an extra pass over the source program.
- Data structures required by the macro processor and the language translator can be combined (e.g., OPTAB and NAMTAB)
- Utility subroutines can be used by both macro processor and the language translator.
 - Scanning input lines
 - Searching tables
 - Data format conversion
- It is easier to give diagnostic messages related to the source statements

Integrated Macro Processor

- An integrated macro processor can potentially make use of any information about the source program that is extracted by the language translator.
 - Ex (blanks are not significant in FORTRAN)
 - DO 100 I = 1,20
 - a DO statement
 - DO 100 I = 1
 - An assignment statement
 - DO100I: variable (blanks are not significant in FORTRAN)
- An integrated macro processor can support macro instructions that depend upon the context in which they occur.

UNIT V - TEXT- EDITORS

These are the primary interface to the computer for all types of “Knowledge workers” as they compose, organize, study and manipulate computer-based information.

OVERVIEW OF THE EDITING PROCESS.

An interactive editor is a computer program that allows a user to create and revise a target document. The term document includes objects such as computer programs, texts, equations, tables, diagrams, line art and photographs—anything that one might find on a printed page. Text editor is one in which the primary elements being edited are character strings of the target text.

The document editing process is an interactive user-computer dialogue designed to accomplish four tasks:

- 1) Select the part of the target document to be viewed and manipulated
- 2) Determine how to format this view on-line and how to display it.
- 3) Specify and execute operations that modify the target document.
- 4) Update the view appropriately.

Traveling – Selection of the part of the document to be viewed and edited. It involves first **traveling** through the document to locate the area of interest such as “next screenful”, “bottom”, and “find pattern”. Traveling specifies where the area of interest is;

Filtering - The selection of what is to be viewed and manipulated is controlled by filtering. Filtering extracts the relevant subset of the target document at the point of interest such as next screenful of text or next statement.

Formatting: Formatting determines how the result of filtering will be seen as a visible representation (the view) on a display screen or other device.

Editing: In the actual editing phase, the target document is created or altered with a set of operations such as insert, delete, replace, move or copy.

Manuscript oriented editors operate on elements such as single characters, words, lines, sentences and paragraphs;

Program-oriented editors operates on elements such as identifiers, keywords and statements

THE USER-INTERFACE OF AN EDITOR.

The user of an interactive editor is presented with a conceptual model of the editing system. The model is an abstract framework on which the editor and the world on which the operations are based.

The **line editors** simulated the world of the keypunch they allowed operations on numbered sequence of 80-character card image lines.

The **Screen-editors** define a world in which a document is represented as a quarter-plane of text lines, unbounded both down and to the right. The user sees, through a cutout, only a rectangular subset of this plane on a multi line display terminal. The cutout can be moved left or right, and up or down, to display other portions of the document.

The user interface is also concerned with the input devices, the output devices, and the interaction language of the system.

INPUT DEVICES: The input devices are used to enter elements of text being edited, to enter commands, and to designate editable elements.

Input devices are categorized as:

- 1) Text devices
- 2) Button devices
- 3) Locator devices

1) Text or string devices are typically typewriter like keyboards on which user presses and release keys, sending unique code for each key. Virtually all computer key boards are of the QWERTY type.

2) Button or Choice devices generate an interrupt or set a system flag, usually causing an invocation of an associated application program. Also special function keys are also available on the key board. Alternatively, buttons can be simulated in software by displaying text strings or symbols on the screen. The user chooses a string or symbol instead of pressing a button.

3) Locator devices: They are two-dimensional analog-to-digital converters that position a cursor symbol on the screen by observing the user's movement of the device. The most common such devices are the **mouse** and the **tablet**.

The Data Tablet is a flat, rectangular, electromagnetically sensitive panel. Either the ballpoint pen like stylus or a puck, a small device similar to a mouse is moved over the surface. The tablet returns to a system program the co-ordinates of the position on the data tablet at which the stylus or puck is currently located. The program can then map these data-tablet coordinates to screen coordinates and move the cursor to the corresponding screen position.

Text devices with arrow (Cursor) keys can be used to simulate locator devices. Each of these keys shows an arrow that point up, down, left or right. Pressing an arrow key typically generates an appropriate character sequence; the program interprets this sequence and moves the cursor in the direction of the arrow on the key pressed.

VOICE-INPUT DEVICES: which translate spoken words to their textual equivalents, may prove to be the text input devices of the future. Voice recognizers are currently available for command input on some systems.

OUTPUT DEVICES

The output devices let the user view the elements being edited and the result of the editing operations.

- The first output devices were **teletypewriters** and other character-printing terminals that generated output on paper.
- Next "**glass teletypes**" based on Cathode Ray Tube (CRT) technology which uses CRT screen essentially to simulate the hard-copy teletypewriter.
- Today's **advanced CRT terminals** use hardware assistance for such features as moving the cursor, inserting and deleting characters and lines, and scrolling lines and pages.
- The modern **professional workstations** are based on personal computers with high resolution displays; support multiple proportionally spaced character fonts to produce realistic facsimiles of hard copy documents.

INTERACTION LANGUAGE:

The interaction language of the text editor is generally one of several common types.

The typing oriented or text command-oriented method

It is the oldest of the major editing interfaces. The user communicates with the editor by typing text strings both for command names and for operands. These strings are sent to the editor and are usually echoed to the output device.

Typed specification often requires the user to remember the exact form of all commands, or at least their abbreviations. If the command language is complex, the user must continually refer to a manual or an on-line Help function. The typing required can be time consuming for in-experienced users.

Function key interfaces:

Each command is associated with marked key on the key board. This eliminates much typing. E.g.: Insert key, Shift key, Control key

Disadvantages:

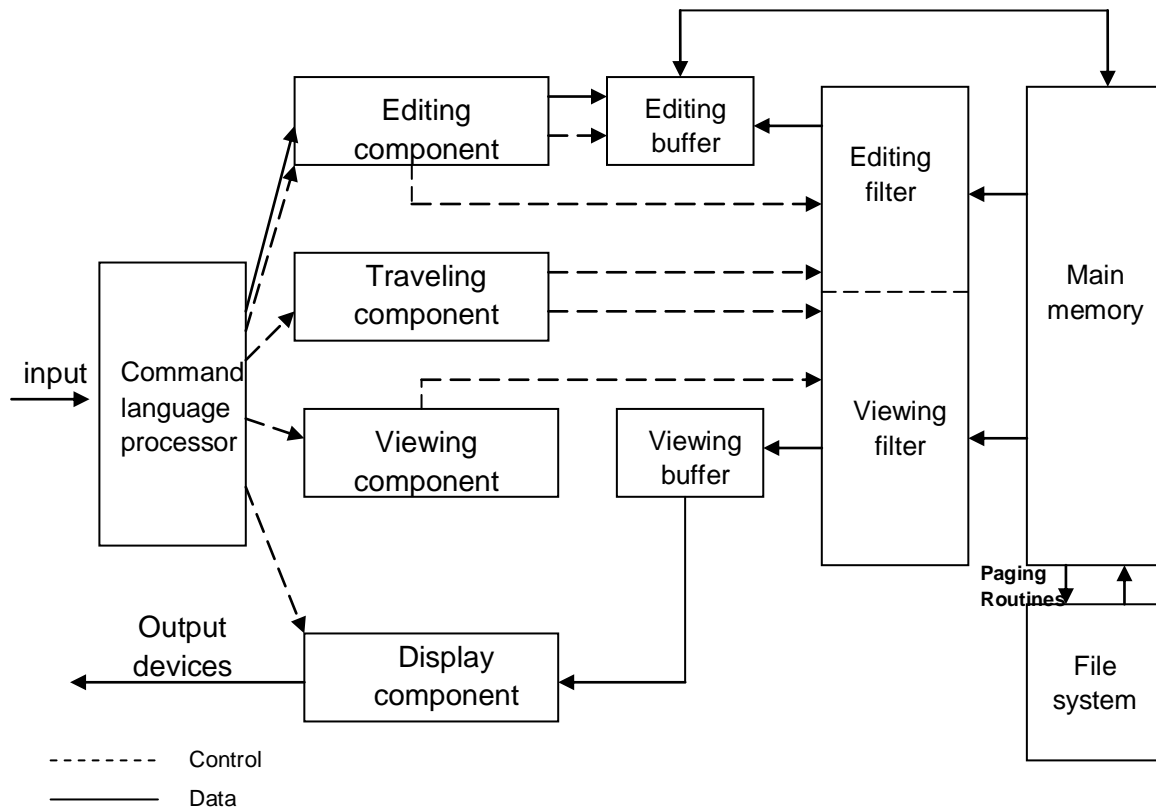
Have too many unique keys

Multiple key stroke commands

Menu oriented interface

A menu is a multiple choice set of text strings or icons which are graphical symbols that represent objects or operations. The user can perform actions by selecting items for the menus. The editor prompts the user with a menu. One problem with menu oriented system can arise when there are many possible actions and several choices are required to complete an action. The display area of the menu is rather limited

EDITOR STRUCTURE



Most Text editors have a structure similar to that shown above.

The command Language Processor

It accepts input from the user's input devices, and analyzes the tokens and syntactic structure of the commands. It functions much like the lexical and syntactic phases of a compiler. The command language processor may invoke the semantic routines directly. In a text editor, these semantic routines perform functions such as editing and viewing.

The semantic routines involve traveling, editing, viewing and display functions. Editing operations are always specified by the user and display operations are specified implicitly by the other three categories of operations. Traveling and viewing operations may be invoked either explicitly by the user or implicitly by the editing operations.

Editing Component

In editing a document, the start of the area to be edited is determined by the **current editing pointer** maintained by the editing component, which is the collection of modules dealing with editing tasks. The current editing pointer can be set or reset explicitly by the user using travelling commands, such as next paragraph and next screen, or implicitly as a side effect of the previous editing operation such as delete paragraph.

Traveling Component

The traveling component of the editor actually performs the setting of the current editing and viewing pointers, and thus determines the point at which the viewing and /or editing filtering begins.

Viewing Component

The start of the area to be viewed is determined by the current viewing pointer. This pointer is maintained by the viewing component of the editor, which is a collection of modules responsible for determining the next view. The current viewing pointer can be set or reset explicitly by the user or implicitly by system as a result of previous editing operation.

The viewing component formulates an ideal view, often expressed in a device independent intermediate representation. This view may be a very simple one consisting of a window's worth of text arranged so that lines are not broken in the middle of the words.

Display Component

It takes the idealized view from the viewing component and maps it to a physical output device in the most efficient manner. The display component produces a display by mapping the buffer to a rectangular subset of the screen, usually a window

Editing Filter

Filtering consists of the selection of contiguous characters beginning at the current point. The editing filter filters the document to generate a new editing buffer based on the current editing pointer as well as on the editing filter parameters

Editing Buffer

It contains the subset of the document filtered by the editing filter based on the editing pointer and editing filter parameters

Viewing Filter

When the display needs to be updated, the viewing component invokes the viewing filter. This component filters the document to generate a new viewing buffer based on the current viewing pointer as well as on the viewing filter parameters.

Viewing Buffer

It contains the subset of the document filtered by the viewing filter based on the viewing pointer and viewing filter parameters.

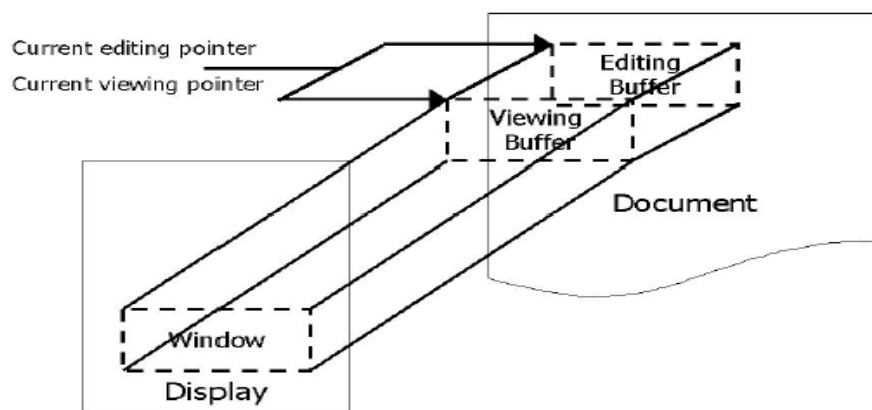
E.g. The user of a certain editor might travel to line 75, and after viewing it, decide to change all occurrences of “ugly duckling” to “swan” in lines 1 through 50 of the file by using a change command such as

[1,50] c/ugly duckling/swan/

As a part of the editing command there is implicit travel to the first line of the file. Lines 1 through 50 are then filtered from the document to become the editing buffer. Successive substitutions take place in this editing buffer without corresponding updates of the view

In Line editors, the viewing buffer may contain the current line; in screen editors, this buffer may contain rectangular cut out of the quarter-plane of text. This viewing buffer is then passed to the display component of the editor, which produces a display by mapping the buffer to a rectangular subset of the screen, usually called a window.

The editing and viewing buffers, while independent, can be related in many ways. In a simplest case, they are identical: the user edits the material directly on the screen. On the other hand, the editing and viewing buffers may be completely disjoint.



Simple relationship between editing and viewing buffers

Windows typically cover the entire screen or rectangular portion of it. Mapping viewing buffers to windows that cover only part of the screen is especially useful for editors on modern graphics based workstations. Such systems can support multiple windows, simultaneously showing different portions of the same file or portions of different file. This approach allows the user to perform inter-file editing operations much more effectively than with a system only a single window.

The mapping of the viewing buffer to a window is accomplished by two components of the system.

- (i) First, the viewing component formulates an ideal view often expressed in a device **independent intermediate representation**. This view may be a very simple one consisting of a windows worth of text arranged so that lines are not broken in the middle of words. At the other extreme, the idealized view may be a facsimile of a page of fully formatted and typeset text with equations, tables and figures.
- (ii) Second the display component takes these idealized views from the viewing component and maps it to a physical output device the most efficient manner possible.

The components of the editor deal with a user document on two levels:

(i) **In main memory and**

(ii) **In the disk file system.**

Loading an entire document into main memory may be infeasible. However if only part of a document is loaded and if many user specified operations require a disk read by the editor to locate the affected portions, editing might be unacceptably slow. In some systems this problem is solved by the mapping the entire file into **virtual memory** and letting the operating system perform efficient demand paging.

An alternative is to provide is the editor paging routines which read one or more logical portions of a document into memory as needed. Such portions are often termed **pages**, although there is usually no relationship between these pages and the hard copy document pages or virtual memory pages. These pages remain resident in main memory until a user operation requires that another portion of the document be loaded.

Editors function in three basic types of computing environment:

- (i) **Time-sharing environment**
- (ii) **Stand-alone environment and**
- (iii) **Distributed environment.**

Each type of environment imposes some constraint on the design of an editor.

The Time –Sharing Environment

The time sharing editor must function swiftly within the context of the load on the computer's processor, central memory and I/O devices.

The Stand alone Environment

The editor on a stand-alone system must have access to the functions that the time sharing editors obtain from its host operating system. This may be provided in part by a small local operating system or they may be built into the editor itself if the stand alone system is dedicated to editing.

Distributed Environment

The editor operating in a distributed resource sharing local network must, like a standalone editor, run independently on each user's machine and must, like a time sharing editor, content for shared resources such as files.

INTERACTIVE DEBUGGING SYSTEMS

An interactive debugging system provides programmers with facilities that aid in testing and debugging of programs interactively.

DEBUGGING FUNCTIONS AND CAPABILITIES

Execution sequencing:

It is the observation and control of the flow of program execution. For example, the program may be halted after a fixed number of instructions are executed.

Breakpoints – The programmer may define break points which cause execution to be suspended, when a specified point in the program is reached. After execution is suspended, the debugging command is used to analyze the progress of the program and to diagnose errors detected. Execution of the program can then be resumed.

Conditional Expressions – Programmers can define some conditional expressions, evaluated during the debugging session, program execution is suspended, when conditions are met, analysis is made, later execution is resumed

Gaits- Given a good graphical representation of program progress may even be useful in running the program in various speeds called gaits.

A Debugging system should also provide functions such as tracing and traceback.

Tracing can be used to track the flow of execution logic and data modifications. The control flow can be traced at different levels of detail – procedure, branch, individual instruction, and so on...

Traceback can show the path by which the current statement in the program was reached. It can also show which statements have modified a given variable or parameter. The statements are displayed rather than as hexadecimal displacements.

Program-display Capabilities

It is also important for a debugging system to have good program display capabilities. It must be possible to display the program being debugged, complete with statement numbers.

Multilingual Capability

A debugging system should consider the language in which the program being debugged is written. Most user environments and many applications systems involve the use of different programming languages. A single debugging tool should be available to multilingual situations.

Context Effects

The context being used has many different effects on the debugging interaction.

For example. The statements are different depending on the language

COBOL - MOVE 6.5 TO X

FORTTRAN - X = 6.5

Likewise conditional statements should use the notation of the source language

COBOL - IF A NOT EQUAL TO B

FORTTRAN - IF (A .NE. B)

Similar differences exist with respect to the form of statement labels, keywords and so on.

Display of source code

The language translator may provide the source code or source listing tagged in some standard way so that the debugger has a uniform method of navigating about it.

Optimization:

It is also important that a debugging system be able to deal with optimized code. Many optimizations involve the rearrangement of segments of code in the program.

For eg.

- invariant expressions can be removed from loop
- separate loops can be combined into a single loop
- redundant expression may be eliminated
- elimination of unnecessary branch instructions

The debugging of optimized code requires a substantial amount of cooperation from the optimizing compiler.

Relationship with Other Parts of the System

An interactive debugger must be related to other parts of the system in many different ways.

Availability

Interactive debugger must appear to be a part of the run-time environment and an integral part of the system. When an error is discovered, immediate debugging must be possible because it may be difficult or impossible to reproduce the program failure in some other environment or at some other times.

Consistency with security and integrity components

User need to be able to debug in a production environment. When an application fails during a production run, work dependent on that application stops. Since the production environment is often quite different from the test environment, many program failures cannot be repeated outside the production environment.

Debugger must also exist in a way that is consistent with the security and integrity components of the system. Use of debugger must be subjected to the normal authorization mechanism and must leave the usual audit trails. Someone (unauthorized user) must not access any data or code. It must not be possible to use the debuggers to interface with any aspect of system integrity.

Coordination with existing and future systems

The debugger must co-ordinate its activities with those of existing and future language compilers and interpreters.

It is assumed that debugging facilities in existing language will continue to exist and be maintained. The requirement of cross-language debugger assumes that such a facility would be installed as an alternative to the individual language debuggers.

USER- INTERFACE CRITERIA

The interactive debugging system should be user friendly. The facilities of debugging system should be organized into few basic categories of functions which should closely reflect common user tasks.

Full – screen displays and windowing systems

- ❖ The user interaction should make use of full-screen display and windowing systems. The advantage of such interface is that the information can be should displayed and changed easily and quickly.

Menus:

- ❖ With menus and full screen editors, the user has far less information to enter and remember
- ❖ It should be possible to go directly to the menus without having to retrace an entire hierarchy.
- ❖ When a full-screen terminal device is not available, user should have an equivalent action in a linear debugging language by providing commands.

Command language:

- ❖ The command language should have a clear, logical, simple syntax. Parameters names should be consistent across set of commands
- ❖ Parameters should automatically be checked for errors for type and range values.
- ❖ Defaults should be provided for parameters.
- ❖ Command language should minimize punctuations such as parenthesis, slashes, and special characters.

On Line HELP facility

- ❖ Good interactive system should have an on-line HELP facility that should provide help for all options of menu
- ❖ Help should be available from any state of the debugging system.

UNIT I - INTRODUCTION

1. Define system software.

It consists of variety of programs that supports the operation of the computer. This software makes it possible for the user to focus on the other problems to be solved without needing to know how the machine works internally.

Eg: operating system, assembler, loader.

2. Give some applications of operating system.

- to make the computer easier to use
- to manage the resources in computer
- process management
- data and memory management
- to provide security to the user.
- Operating system acts as an interface between the user and the system

Eg: windows, linux, unix, dos

3. Define compiler and interpreter.

Compiler is a set of program which converts the whole high level language program to machine language program.

Interpreter is a set of programs which converts high level language program to machine language program line by line.

4. Define loader.

Loader is a set of program that loads the machine language translated by the translator into the main memory and makes it ready for execution.

5. What is the need of MAR register?

MAR (memory address register) is used to store the address of the memory from which the data is to be read or to which the data is to be written.

6. Define indirect addressing

In the case of immediate addressing the operand field gives the memory location. The word from the given address is fetched and it gives the address of the operand.

Eg: ADD R5, [600]

Here the second operand is given in indirect addressing mode. First the word in memory location 600 is fetched and which will give the address of the operand.

7. Define immediate addressing.

In this addressing mode the operand value is given directly. There is no need to refer memory. The immediate addressing is indicated by the prefix '#’.

Eg: ADD #5

In this instruction one operand is in accumulator and the second operand is an immediate value the value 5 is directly added with the accumulator content and the result is stored in accumulator.

8. List out any two CISC and RISC machine.

CISC –Power PC, Cray T3E

RISC – VAX, Pentium Pro architecture

9. What is the name of A and L register in SIC machine and also specify its use.

A-accumulator

Used for arithmetic operation. i.e., in the case of arithmetic operations one operand is in the accumulator, and other operand may be an immediate value, register operand or memory content. The operation given in the instruction is performed and the result is stored in the accumulator register.

L-linkage register

It is used to store the return address in the case of jump to subroutine (JSUB) instructions.

10. What are the instruction formats used in SIC/XE architecture? Give any one format.

Format 1 (1 byte), Format 2 (2 bytes), Format 3 (3 bytes) & Format 4(4 bytes)

Format 2:

8 4 4

OPCODE	R1	R2
--------	----	----

11. What is the difference between the instructions LDA # 3 and LDA THREE?

In the first instruction immediate addressing is used. Here the value 3 is directly loaded into the accumulator register.

In the second instruction the memory reference is used. Here the address (address assigned for the symbol THREE) is loaded into the accumulator register.

12. Differentiate trailing numeric and leading separate numeric.

The numeric format is used to represent numeric values with one digit per byte. In the numeric format if the sign appears in the last byte it is known as the trailing numeric. If the sign appears in a separate byte preceding the first digit then it is called as leading separate numeric.

13. What are the addressing modes used in VAX architecture?

Register direct; register deferred, auto increment and decrement, program counter

relative, base relative, index register mode and indirect addressing are the various addressing modes in VAX architecture.

14. How do you calculate the actual address in the case of register indirect with immediate index mode?

Here the target address is calculated using the formula

$T.A = (\text{register}) + \text{displacement}.$

15. Write the sequence of instructions to perform the operation $BETA = ALPHA + 1$ using SIC instructions.

```
LDA    ALPHA
ADD     ONE
STA     BETA
```

.....

```
ALPHA   RESW 1
BETA    RESW 1
ONE      RESW 1
```

16. Write the sequence of instructions to perform the operation $BETA = ALPHA + 5$ using SIC/XE instructions.

```
LDA    ALPHA
ADD     #1
STA     BETA
```

.....

```
ALPHA   RESW      1
BETA    RESW 1
```

17. What is the use of TD instruction in SIC architecture?

The test device (TD) instruction tests whether the addressed device is ready to send or receive a byte of data. The condition code is set to indicate the result of this test. Setting of < means the device is ready to send or receive, and = means the device is not ready.

18. Give the instruction set of SIC / XE.

```
Load and store instruction
Arithmetic instruction
Register Move
```

Floating point arithmetic operations

Supervisor call instruction

Conditional jump

Subroutine linkages

19. Give the instruction set of SIC.

Load and store instruction

Arithmetic instruction

Conditional jump instruction

Subroutine linkages

20. What are the various data formats of SIC.

Integers	– 24 bits
Negative no.	- 2's complement form
Characters	- 8 bits ASCII code

21. What is the format of floating pt data type in SIC/XE?

S	exponent	fraction
1	11	36

22. What are the various data formats of SIC / XE?

Integers	– 24 bits
Negative no.	- 2's complement form
Characters	- 8 bits ASCII code
Floating point	- 48 bits.

UNIT II – ASSEMBLERS

1. Define the basic functions of assembler.

- * Translating mnemonic operation codes to their machine language equivalents.
- * Assigning machine addresses to symbolic labels used by the programmer.

2. What is meant by assembler directives? Give example.

These are the statements that are not translated into machine instructions, but they provide instructions to assembler itself.

example START,END,BYTE,WORD,RESW and RESB.

3. What are forward references?

It is a reference to a label that is defined later in a program.

Consider the statement

```
10 1000 STL RETADR
```

```
....
```

```
....
```

```
80 1036 RETADR RESW 1
```

The first instruction contains a forward reference RETADR. If we attempt to translate the program line by line, we will be unable to process the statement in line 10 because we do not know the address that will be assigned to RETADR. The address is assigned later (in line 80) in the program.

4. What are the three different records used in object program?

The header record, text record and the end record are the three different records used in object program.

(i) The header record contains the program name, starting address and length of the

program.

(ii) Text record contains the translated instructions and data of the program.

(iii) End record marks the end of the object program and specifies the address in the program where execution is to begin.

5. What is the need of SYMTAB (symbol table) in assembler?

The symbol table includes the name and value for each symbol in the source program, together with flags to indicate error conditions. Some times it may contain details about the data area. SYMTAB is usually organized as a hash table for efficiency of insertion and retrieval.

6. What is the need of OPTAB (operation code table) in assembler?

The operation code table contains the mnemonic operation code and its machine language equivalent. Some assemblers it may also contain information about instruction format and length. OPTAB is usually organized as a hash table, with mnemonic operation code as the key.

7. What are the symbol defining statements generally used in assemblers?

☐ 'EQU'-it allows the programmer to define symbols and specify their values directly. The general format is

Symbol **EQU** value

☐ 'ORG'-it is used to indirectly assign values to symbols. When this statement is encountered the assembler resets its location counter to the specified value. The general format is

ORG value

In the above two statements value is a constant or an expression involving constants

and previously defined symbols.

8. Define relocatable program.

An object program that contains the information necessary to perform required modification in the object code depends on the starting location of the program during load time is known as relocatable program.

9. Differentiate absolute expression and relative expression.

If the result of the expression is an absolute value (constant) then it is known as absolute expression.

Eg: BUFEND – BUFFER

If the result of the expression is relative to the beginning of the program then it is known as relative expression. Label on instructions and data areas and references to the location counter values are relative terms.

Eg: BUFEND + BUFFER

10. Write the steps required to translate the source program to object program.

- Convert mnemonic operation codes to their machine language equivalents.
- Convert symbolic operands to their equivalent machine addresses
- Build the machine instruction in the proper format.
- Convert the data constants specified in the source program into their internal machine representation
- Write the object program and assembly listing.

11. What is the use of the variable LOCCTR (location counter) in assembler?

This variable is used to assign addresses to the symbols. LOCCTR is initialized to the beginning address specified in the START statement. After each source statement is processed the length of the assembled instruction or data area to be generated is added to LOCCTR and hence whenever we reach a label in the source program the current value of LOCCTR gives the address associated with the label.

12. Define load and go assembler.

One pass assembler that generates their object code in memory for immediate execution is known as load and go assembler. Here no object programmer is written out and hence no need for loader.

13. What are the two different types of jump statements used in MASM assembler?

- Near jump

A near jump is a jump to a target in the same segment and it is assembled by using a current code segment CS.

- Far jump

A far jump is a jump to a target in a different code segment and it is assembled by using different segment registers.

14. What is the use of base register table in AIX assembler?

A base register table is used to remember which of the general purpose registers are currently available as base registers and also the base addresses they contain. USING statement causes entry to the table and .DROP statement removes the corresponding table entry.

15. Differentiate the assembler directives RESW and RESB.

RESW –It reserves the indicated number of words for data area.

Eg: 10 1003 THREE RESW 1

In this instruction one word area (3 bytes) is reserved for the symbol THREE. If the memory is byte addressable then the address assigned for the next symbol is 1006.

RESB –It reserves the indicated number of bytes for data area.

Eg: 10 1008 INPUT RESB 1

In this instruction one byte area is reserved for the symbol INPUT .Hence the address assigned for the next symbol is 1009.

16. Define modification record and give its format.

This record contains the information about the modification in the object code during program relocation. The general format is

Col 1	M
Col 2-7	Starting location of the address field to be modified relative to the beginning of the program
Col 8-9	length of the address field to be modified in half bytes.

17. Write down the pass numbers (PASS 1/ PASS 2) of the following activities that occur in a two pass assembler:

- a. Object code generation**
- b. Literals added to literal table**
- c. Listing printed**
- d. Address location of local symbols**

Answer:

- a. Object code generation - PASS 2
- b. Literals added to literal table – PASS 1
- c. Listing printed – PASS2
- d. Address location of local symbols – PASS1

18. What is meant by machine independent assembler features?

The assembler features that do not depend upon the machine architecture are known as machine independent assembler features.

Eg: program blocks, Literals.

19. How the register to register instructions are translated in assembler?

In the case of register to register instructions the operand field contains the register name. During the translation first the object code is converted into its corresponding machine language equivalent with the help of OPTAB. Then the SYMTAB is searched for the numeric equivalent of register and that value is inserted into the operand field.

Eg: 125 1036 RDREC CLEAR X B410

B4-machine equivalent of the opcode CLEAR

10-numeric equivalent of the register X.

20. What is meant by external references?

Assembler program can be divided into many sections known as control sections and each control section can be loaded and relocated independently of the others. If the instruction in one control section needs to refer instruction or data in another control section the assembler is unable to process these references in normal way. Such references between controls are called external references.

21. Define control section.

A control section is a part of the program that maintains its identity after assembly; each control section can be loaded and relocated independently of the others. Control sections are most often used for subroutines. The major benefit of using control sections is to increase flexibility.

22. What is the difference between the assembler directive EXTREF and EXTDEF.

EXTDEF names external symbols that are defined in a particular control section and may be used in other sections.

EXTREF names external symbols that are referred in a particular control section and defined in another control section.

23. Give the general format of define record.

This record gives information about external symbols that are defined in a particular control section. The format is

Col 1	D
Col 2-7	name of external symbol defined in this control section
Col 8-13	relative address of the symbol with in this control section
Col 14-73	name and relative address for other external symbols.

24. Give the use of assembler directive CSECT and USE

CSECT - used to divide the program into many control sections

USE – used to divide the program in to many blocks called program blocks

25. What is the use of the assembler directive START?

The assembler directive START gives the name and starting address of the program. The format is

PN START 1000

Here

PN – Name of the program

1000 - Starting address of the program.

UNIT III - LOADERS AND LINKERS

1. What are the basic functions of loaders?

- Loading – brings the object program into memory for execution

- Relocation – modifies the object program so that it can be loaded at an address different from the location originally specified
- Linking – combines two or more separate object programs and also supplies the information needed to reference them.

2. Define absolute loader.

The loader, which is used only for loading, is known as absolute loader.

e.g. Bootstrap loader

3. What is meant by bootstrap loader?

This is a special type of absolute loader which loads the first program to be run by the computer. (usually an operating system)

4. What are relative (relocative) loaders?

Loaders that allow for program relocation are called relocating (relocative) loaders.

5. What is the use of modification record?

Modification record is used for program relocation. Each modification record specifies the starting address and the length of the field whose value is to be altered and also describes the modification to be performed.

6. What are the 2 different techniques used for relocation?

Modification record method and Relocation bit method.

7. Define Relocation bit method.

If the relocation bit corresponding to a word of object code is set to 1, the program's starting address is to be added to this word when the program is relocated. Bit value 0 indicates no modification is required.

8. Define bit mask.

The relocation bits are gathered together following the length indicator in each text record and which is called as bit mask. For e.g. the bit mask FFC (11111111100) specifies that the first 10 words of object code are to be modified during relocation.

9. What is the need of ESTAB?

It is used to store the name and address of the each external symbol. It also indicates in which control section the symbol is defined.

10. What is the use of the variable PROGADDR?

It gives the beginning address in memory where the linked program is to be loaded. The starting address is obtained from the operating system.

11. Write the two passes of a linking loader.

Pass1: assigns address to all external symbols

Pass2: it performs actual loading, relocation and linking.

12. Define automatic library search.

In many linking loaders the subroutines called by the program being loaded are automatically fetched from the library, linked with the main program and loaded. This feature is referred to as automatic library search.

13. List the loader options INCLUDE &DELETE.

The general format of INCLUDE is

INCLUDE program_name (library name)

This command directs the loader to read the designated object program from a library and treat it as the primary loader input.

The general format of DELETE command is

DELETE Csect-name

It instructs the loader to delete the named control sections from the sets of programs loaded.

14. Give the functions of the linking loader.

The linking loader performs the process of linking and relocation. It includes the operation of automatic library search and the linked programs are directly loaded into the memory.

15. Define dynamic linking.

If the subroutine is loaded and linked to the program during its first call (run time), then it is called as dynamic loading or dynamic linking.

16. Write the advantage of dynamic linking.

- It has the ability to load the routine only when they are needed.
- The dynamic linking avoids the loading of entire library for each execution.

17. What is meant by static executable and dynamic executable?

In static executable, all external symbols are bound and ready to run. In dynamic executables some symbols are bound at run time.

18. What is shared and private data?

The data divided among processing element is called shared data. If the data is not shared among processing elements then it is called private data.

20. Write the absolute loader algorithm.

```
Begin
Read Header record
Verify program name and length
Read first text record
While record type != 'E' do
Begin
Move object code to specified location in memory
Read next object program record
End
Jump to address specified in End record
End
```

UNIT IV - MACRO PROCESSORS

1. Define macro processor.

Macro processor is system software that replaces each macroinstruction with the corresponding group of source language statements. This is also called as expanding of macros.

2. What do macro expansion statements mean?

These statements give the name of the macroinstruction being invoked and the arguments to be used in expanding the macros. These statements are also known as macro call.

3. What are the directives used in macro definition?

MACRO - it identifies the beginning of the macro definition

MEND - it marks the end of the macro definition

4. What are the data structures used in macro processor?

DEFTAB – the macro definitions are stored in a definition table i.e. it contains a macro prototype and the statements that make up the macro body.

NAMTAB – it is used to store the macro names and it contains two pointers for each macro instruction which indicate the starting and end location of macro definition

DEFTAB. it also serves as an index to DEFTAB

ARGTAB – it is used to store the arguments during the expansion of macro invocations.

5. Define conditional macro expansion.

If the macro is expanded depends upon some conditions in macro definition (depending on the arguments supplied in the macro expansion) then it is called as conditional macro expansion.

6. What is the use of macro time variable?

Macro time variable can be used to store working values during the macro expansion. Any symbol that begins with the character & and then is not a macro instruction parameter is assumed to be a macro time variable.

7. What are the statements used for conditional macro expansion?

IF-ELSE-ENDIF statement

WHILE-ENDW statement

8. What is meant by positional parameters?

If the parameters and arguments were associated with each other according to their positions in the macro prototype and the macro invocation statement, then these parameters in macro definitions are called as positional parameters.

9. Consider the macro definition

#define DISPLAY (EXPR) Printf (“EXPR = %d\n”, EXPR)

Expand the macro instruction DISPLAY (ANS)

Ans.: Printf (“EXPR = %d\n”, ANS)

10. What are known as nested macro call?

The statement, in which a macro calls on another macro, is called nested macro call. In the nested macro call, the call is done by outer macro and the macro called is the inner macro.

11. How the macro is processed using two passes?

Pass 1: processing of definitions

Pass 2: actual-macro expansion.

12. Give the advantage of line by line processors.

- It avoids the extra pass over the source program during assembling.
- It may use some of the utility that can be used by language translators so that can be loaded once.

13. What is meant by line by line processor?

This macro processor reads the source program statements, process the statements and then the output lines are passed to the language translators as they are generated, instead of being written in an expanded file.

14. Give the advantages of general-purpose macro processors.

- The programmer does not need to learn about a macro facility for each compiler.
- Overall saving in software development cost and maintenance cost.

15. What is meant by general-purpose macro processors?

The macro processors that are not dependent on any particular programming language, but can be used with a variety of different languages are known as general purpose macro processors.

Eg. The ELENA macro processor.

16. What are the important factors considered while designing general purpose macro processors?

- comments
- grouping of statements
- tokens
- syntax used for macro definitions

17. What is the symbol used to generate unique labels?

\$ symbol is used in macro definition to generate unique symbols. Each macro expansion the \$ symbol is replaced by \$XX, where XX is the alpha numeric character.

18. How the nested macro calls are executed?

The execution of nested macro call follows the LIFO rule. In case of nested macro calls the expansion of the latest macro call is completed first.

19. Mention the tasks involved in macro expansion.

- identify the macro calls in the program
- the values of formal parameters are identified
- maintain the values of expansion time variables declared in a macro
- expansion time control flow is organized
- determining the values of sequencing symbols
- expansion of a model statement is performed

20. How to design the pass structure of a macro assembler?

To design the structure of macro-assembler, the functions of macro preprocessor and the conventional assembler are merged. After merging, the functions are structured into passes of the macro assembler.

UNIT V - TEXT EDITORS

1. Define interactive editor?

An interactive editor is a computer program that allows a user to create and revise a target document. The term document includes objects such as computer programs, text, equations, tables, diagrams, line art, and photographs anything that one might find on a printed page.

2. What are the tasks performed in the editing process?

4 tasks

- Select the part of the target document to be viewed and manipulated.
- Determine how to format this view on-line and how to display it.
- Specify and execute operations that modify the target document.
- Update the view appropriately.

3. What are the three categories of editor's devices?

- Text device/ String devices
- Button device/Choice devices
- Locator device

4. What is the function performed in editing phase?

In the actual editing phase, the target document is created or altered with a set of operations such as insert, delete, replace, move and copy.

5. Define Locator device?

Locator devices are two-dimensional analog-to-digital converters that position a cursor symbol on the screen by observing the user's movement of the device. The most common such devices for editing applications are the mouse and the data tablet.

6. What is the function performed in voice input device?

Voice-input devices, which translate spoken words to their textual equivalents, may prove to be the text input devices of the future. Voice recognizers are currently available for command input on some systems.

7. What are called tokens?

The lexical analyzer tracks the source program one character at a time by making the source program into sequence of atomic units is called tokens.

8. Name some of typical tokens.

Identifiers, keywords, constants, operators and punctuation symbols such as commas and parentheses are typical tokens.

9. What is meant by lexeme?

The character that forms a token is said to be a lexeme.

10. Mention the main disadvantage of interpreter.

The main disadvantage of interpreter is that the execution time of interpreted program is slower than that of a corresponding compiled object program.

11. What is meant by code optimization?

The code optimization is designed to improve the intermediate code, which helps the object program to run faster and takes less space.

12. What is error handler?

The error handler is used to check if there is an error in the program. If any error, it should warn the programmer by instructions to proceed from phase to phase.

13. Name some of text editors.

- line editors
- stream editors
- screen editors
- word processors
- structure editors

14. What for debug monitors are used?

Debug monitors are used in obtaining information for localization of errors.

15. Mention the features of word processors.

- moving text from one place to another
- merging of text
- searching
- word replacement

16. What are the phases in performing editing process?

- Traveling phase
- Filtering phase
- Formatting phase
- Editing phase

17. Define traveling phase.

The phase specifies the region of interest. Traveling is achieved using operations such as next screenful, bottom, find pattern.

18. Filtering phase.

The selection of what is to be viewed and manipulated is given by filtering.

19. Editing phase

In this phase, the target document is altered with the set of operations such as insert, delete, replace, move and copy.

20. Define user interface?

User interface is one, which allows the user to communicate with the system in order to perform certain tasks. User interface is generally designed in a computer to make it easier to use.

21. Define input device?

Input device is an electromechanical device, which accepts data from the outside world and translates them into a form, which the computer can interpret.

22. Define output devices

Output devices help the user to view the elements being edited and the results of the editing operations.

23. What are the methods in Interaction language of a text editor?

- Typing –oriented or text command oriented method
- Function key interfaces
- Menu oriented method

24. Define interactive debugging systems.

An interactive debugging system provides programmers with facilities that aid in the testing and debugging of programs.

- Debugging functions and capabilities
- Relationship with other parts of the system
- User interface criteria.

25. Define editor structure.

The command language processor accepts input from the users input devices and analyzes the tokens and syntactic structure of the commands.

26. Give the components of editor structure

4 components

- Editing component
- Traveling component
- Viewing component
- Display component

27. What are the basic types of computing environments used in editor's functions?

Editor's function in three basic types of computing environments

i. Time sharing ii. Stand-alone iii. Distributed