Code Generation

Lecture 12

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Lecture Outline

- Topic 1: Basic Code Generation
 - The MIPS assembly language
 - A simple source language
 - Stack-machine implementation of the simple language
- Topic 2: Code Generation for Objects

From Stack Machines to MIPS

- The compiler generates code for a stack machine with accumulator
- We want to run the resulting code on the MIPS processor (or simulator)
- We simulate stack machine instructions using MIPS instructions and registers

Simulating a Stack Machine...

- The accumulator is kept in MIPS register \$a0
- The stack is kept in memory
 - The stack grows towards lower addresses
 - Standard convention on the MIPS architecture
- The address of the next location on the stack is kept in MIPS register \$sp
 - The top of the stack is at address \$sp + 4

MIPS Assembly

MIPS architecture

- Prototypical Reduced Instruction Set Computer (RISC) architecture
- Arithmetic operations use registers for operands and results
- Must use load and store instructions to use operands and results in memory
- 32 general purpose registers (32 bits each)
 - We will use \$sp, \$a0 and \$t1 (a temporary register)
- · Read the SPIM documentation for details

A Sample of MIPS Instructions

- lw reg₁ offset(reg₂)
 - Load 32-bit word from address reg₂ + offset into reg₁
- add reg₁ reg₂ reg₃
 - $reg_1 \leftarrow reg_2 + reg_3$
- sw reg₁ offset(reg₂)
 - Store 32-bit word in reg₁ at address reg₂ + offset
- addiu reg₁ reg₂ imm
 - $reg_1 \leftarrow reg_2 + imm$
 - · "u" means overflow is not checked
- li reg imm
 - reg \leftarrow imm

MIPS Assembly. Example.

The stack-machine code for 7 + 5 in MIPS:

```
      acc \leftarrow 7
      li \$a0 7

      push acc
      sw \$a0 0(\$sp)

      addiu \$sp \$sp -4

      acc \leftarrow 5
      li \$a0 5

      acc \leftarrow acc + top\_of\_stack
      lw \$t1 4(\$sp)

      add \$a0 \$a0 \$t1

      pop
      addiu \$sp \$sp 4
```

We now generalize this to a simple language...

A Small Language

A language with integers and integer operations

```
P \rightarrow D; P \mid D

D \rightarrow def id(ARGS) = E;

ARGS \rightarrow id, ARGS \mid id

E \rightarrow int \mid id \mid if E_1 = E_2 then E_3 else E_4

\mid E_1 + E_2 \mid E_1 - E_2 \mid id(E_1,...,E_n)
```

A Small Language (Cont.)

- The first function definition f is the "main" routine
- Running the program on input i means computing f(i)
- Program for computing the Fibonacci numbers:

```
def fib(x) = if x = 1 then 0 else

if x = 2 then 1 else

fib(x - 1) + fib(x - 2)
```

Code Generation Strategy

- For each expression e we generate MIPS code that:
 - Computes the value of e in \$a0
 - Preserves \$sp and the contents of the stack
- We define a code generation function cgen(e) whose result is the code generated for e

Code Generation for Constants

 The code to evaluate a constant simply copies it into the accumulator:

$$cgen(i) = li $a0 i$$

· This preserves the stack, as required

- Color key:
 - RED: compile time
 - BLUE: run time

Code Generation for Add

```
cgen(e_1 + e_2) = cgen(e_1)
sw $a0 0($sp)
addiu $sp $sp -4
cgen(e_2)
lw $t1 4($sp)
add $a0 $t1 $a0
addiu $sp $sp 4
```

```
cgen(e_1 + e_2) =
cgen(e_1)
print "sw $a0 0($sp)"
print "addiu $sp $sp -4"
cgen(e_2)
print "lw $t1 4($sp)"
print "add $a0 $t1 $a0"
print "addiu $sp $sp 4"
```

Code Generation for Add. Wrong!

• Optimization: Put the result of e_1 directly in \$t1?

```
cgen(e_1 + e_2) =
cgen(e_1)
move $11 $a0
cgen(e_2)
add $a0 $11 $a0
```

• Try to generate code for : 3 + (7 + 5)

Code Generation Notes

- The code for + is a template with "holes" for code for evaluating e_1 and e_2
- Stack machine code generation is recursive
 - Code for $e_1 + e_2$ is code for e_1 and e_2 glued together
- Code generation can be written as a recursivedescent of the AST
 - At least for expressions

Code Generation for Sub and Constants

New instruction: sub reg1 reg2 reg3

```
- Implements reg_1 \leftarrow reg_2 - reg_3
       cgen(e_1 - e_2) =
              cgen(e_1)
              sw $a0 0($sp)
              addiu $sp $sp -4
              cgen(e_2)
              lw $t1 4($sp)
              sub $a0 $t1 $a0
              addiu $sp $sp 4
```

Code Generation for Conditional

- We need flow control instructions
- New instruction: beq reg₁ reg₂ label
 - Branch to label if $reg_1 = reg_2$
- New instruction: b label
 - Unconditional jump to label

Code Generation for If (Cont.)

```
cgen(if e_1 = e_2 then e_3 else e_4) = \\ cgen(e_1) \\ sw $a0 0($sp) \\ addiu $sp $sp -4 \\ cgen(e_2) \\ lw $t1 4($sp) \\ addiu $sp $sp 4 \\ beq $a0 $t1 true\_branch cgen(e_3) \\ end_if \\ end_if \\ cgen(e_3) \\ end_if \\ end
```

The Activation Record

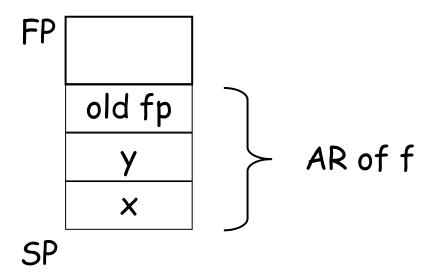
- Code for function calls and function definitions depends on the layout of the AR
- A very simple AR suffices for this language:
 - The result is always in the accumulator
 - · No need to store the result in the AR
 - The activation record holds actual parameters
 - For $f(x_1,...,x_n)$ push $x_n,...,x_1$ on the stack
 - These are the only variables in this language

The Activation Record (Cont.)

- The stack discipline guarantees that on function exit \$sp is the same as it was on function entry
 - No need for a control link
- We need the return address
- A pointer to the current activation is useful
 - This pointer lives in register \$fp (frame pointer)
 - Reason for frame pointer will be clear shortly

The Activation Record

- Summary: For this language, an AR with the caller's frame pointer, the actual parameters, and the return address suffices
- Picture: Consider a call to f(x,y), the AR is:



Code Generation for Function Call

- The calling sequence is the instructions (of both caller and callee) to set up a function invocation
- · New instruction: jal label
 - Jump to label, save address of next instruction in \$ra
 - On other architectures the return address is stored on the stack by the "call" instruction

Code Generation for Function Call (Cont.)

```
cgen(f(e_1,...,e_n)) =
  sw $fp O($sp)
  addiu $sp $sp -4
  cgen(e_n)
  sw $a0 0($sp)
  addiu $sp $sp -4
  cgen(e_1)
  sw $a0 0($sp)
  addiu $sp $sp -4
  jal f_entry
```

- The caller saves its value of the frame pointer
- Then it saves the actual parameters in reverse order
- The caller saves the return address in register \$ra
- The AR so far is 4*n+4 bytes long

Code Generation for Function Definition

- New instruction: jr reg
 - Jump to address in register reg

```
cgen(def f(x_1,...,x_n) = e) =
move f(x_1,...,x_n) = e) =

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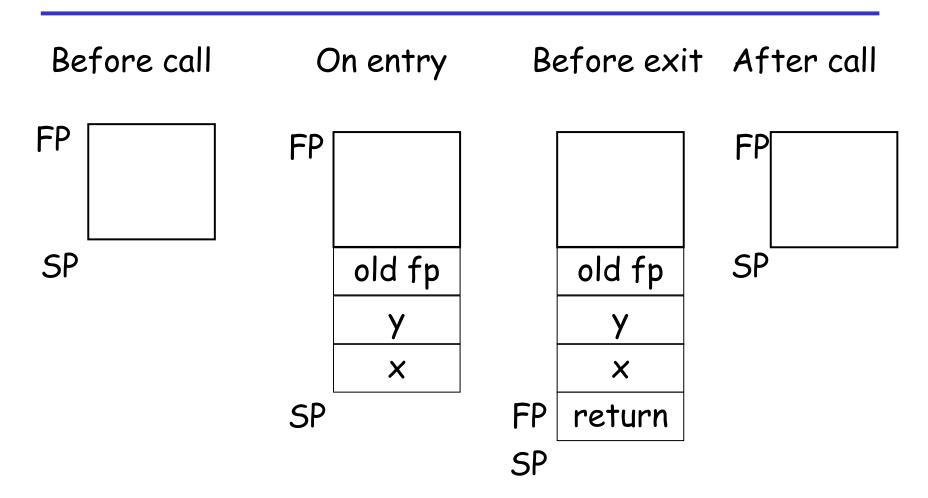
move f(x_1,...,x_n) = e) =

move f(x_1,...,x_n) = e) =

mo
```

- Note: The frame pointer points to the top, not bottom of the frame
- The callee pops the return address, the actual arguments and the saved value of the frame pointer
- z = 4*n + 8

Calling Sequence: Example for f(x,y)



Code Generation for Variables

- Variable references are the last construct
- The "variables" of a function are just its parameters
 - They are all in the AR
 - Pushed by the caller
- Problem: Because the stack grows when intermediate results are saved, the variables are not at a fixed offset from \$sp

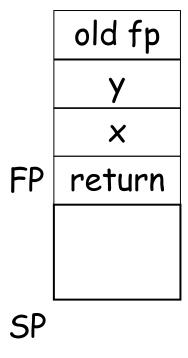
Code Generation for Variables (Cont.)

- Solution: use a frame pointer
 - Always points to the return address on the stack
 - Since it does not move it can be used to find the variables
- Let x_i be the i^{th} (i = 1,...,n) formal parameter of the function for which code is being generated

$$cgen(x_i) = lw $a0 z($fp) (z = 4*i)$$

Code Generation for Variables (Cont.)

• Example: For a function def f(x,y) = e the activation and frame pointer are set up as follows:



- X is at fp + 4
- Y is at fp + 8

Summary

- The activation record must be designed together with the code generator
- Code generation can be done by recursive traversal of the AST
- We recommend you use a stack machine for your Cool compiler (it's simple)

Summary

- Production compilers do different things
 - Emphasis is on keeping values (esp. current stack frame) in registers
 - Intermediate results are laid out in the AR, not pushed and popped from the stack

An Improvement

- · Idea: Keep temporaries in the AR
- The code generator must assign a location in the AR for each temporary

Example

```
def fib(x) = if x = 1 then 0 else
if x = 2 then 1 else
fib(x - 1) + fib(x - 2)
```

- What intermediate values are placed on the stack?
- How many slots are needed in the AR to hold these values?

How Many Temporaries?

Let NT(e) = # of temps needed to evaluate e

- $NT(e_1 + e_2)$
 - Needs at least as many temporaries as $NT(e_1)$
 - Needs at least as many temporaries as NT(e2) + 1
- Space used for temporaries in e_1 can be reused for temporaries in e_2

The Equations

```
NT(e_1 + e_2) = \max(NT(e_1), 1 + NT(e_2)) NT(e_1 - e_2) = \max(NT(e_1), 1 + NT(e_2)) NT(if \ e_1 = e_2 \ then \ e_3 \ else \ e_4) = \max(NT(e_1), 1 + NT(e_2), NT(e_3), NT(e_4)) NT(id(e_1, ..., e_n) = \max(NT(e_1), ..., NT(e_n)) NT(int) = 0 NT(id) = 0
```

Is this bottom-up or top-down? What is NT(...code for fib...)?

The Revised AR

- For a function definition $f(x_1,...,x_n) = e$ the AR has 2 + n + NT(e) elements
 - Return address
 - Frame pointer
 - n arguments
 - NT(e) locations for intermediate results

Picture

Old FP
× _n
• • •
x_1
Return Addr.
Temp NT(e)
Temp 1

Revised Code Generation

- Code generation must know how many temporaries are in use at each point
- Add a new argument to code generation: the position of the next available temporary

Code Generation for + (original)

```
cgen(e_1 + e_2) =
              cgen(e_1)
              sw $a0 0($sp)
             addiu $sp $sp -4
              cgen(e_2)
              lw $t1 4($sp)
              add $a0 $t1 $a0
              addiu $sp $sp 4
```

Code Generation for + (revised)

Notes

 The temporary area is used like a small, fixedsize stack

• Exercise: Write out cgen for other constructs

Code Generation for OO Languages

Topic II

Object Layout

- OO implementation = Stuff from last part + more stuff
- OO Slogan: If B is a subclass of A, than an object of class B can be used wherever an object of class A is expected
- This means that code in class A works unmodified for an object of class B

Two Issues

- · How are objects represented in memory?
- How is dynamic dispatch implemented?

Object Layout Example

```
Class A {
                                            Class C inherits A {
   a: Int <- 0;
                                                c: Int <- 3;
                                                h(): Int { a <- a * c };
   d: Int <- 1;
   f(): Int { a \leftarrow a + d };
                                            };
};
Class B inherits A {
   b: Int <- 2;
   f(): Int { a };
   g(): Int { a \leftarrow a - b };
};
```

Object Layout (Cont.)

- Attributes a and d are inherited by classes B and C
- All methods in all classes refer to a
- For A methods to work correctly in A, B, and C objects, attribute a must be in the same "place" in each object

Object Layout (Cont.)

An object is like a struct in C. The reference foo.field

is an index into a foo struct at an offset corresponding to field

Objects in Cool are implemented similarly

- Objects are laid out in contiguous memory
- Each attribute stored at a fixed offset in object
- When a method is invoked, the object is self and the fields are the object's attributes

Cool Object Layout

 The first 3 words of Cool objects contain header information:

Class Tag	0
Object Size	4
Dispatch Ptr	8
Attribute 1	12
Attribute 2	16

Offset

Cool Object Layout (Cont.)

- Class tag is an integer
 - Identifies class of the object
- Object size is an integer
 - Size of the object in words
- Dispatch ptr is a pointer to a table of methods
 - More later
- Attributes in subsequent slots
- Lay out in contiguous memory

Subclasses

Observation: Given a layout for class A, a layout for subclass B can be defined by extending the layout of A with additional slots for the additional attributes of B

Leaves the layout of A unchanged (B is an extension)

Layout Picture

Offset Class	0	4	8	12	16	20
Α	Atag	5	*	α	d	
В	Btag	6	*	α	d	b
С	Ctag	6	*	α	d	С

Subclasses (Cont.)

- The offset for an attribute is the same in a class and all of its subclasses
 - Any method for an A_1 can be used on a subclass A_2
- Consider layout for $A_n < ... < A_3 < A_2 < A_1$

Header	Ш	A ₁ object	What about	
A ₁ attrs.	Ш	A2 object	multiple	
A ₂ attrs		A3 object	inheritance?	
A ₃ attrs			, v	

Dynamic Dispatch

 Consider the following dispatches (using the same example)

Object Layout Example (Repeat)

```
Class A {
                                            Class C inherits A {
   a: Int <- 0;
                                                c: Int <- 3;
                                                h(): Int { a <- a * c };
   d: Int <- 1;
   f(): Int { a \leftarrow a + d };
                                            };
};
Class B inherits A {
   b: Int <- 2;
   f(): Int { a };
   g(): Int { a \leftarrow a - b };
};
```

Dynamic Dispatch Example

- e.g()
 - g refers to method in B if e is a B
- e.f()
 - f refers to method in A if f is an A or C
 (inherited in the case of C)
 - f refers to method in B for a B object
- The implementation of methods and dynamic dispatch strongly resembles the implementation of attributes

Dispatch Tables

- Every class has a fixed set of methods (including inherited methods)
- · A dispatch table indexes these methods
 - An array of method entry points
 - A method f lives at a fixed offset in the dispatch table for a class and all of its subclasses

Dispatch Table Example

Offset Class	0	4
A	fA	
В	fB	9
С	fA	h

- The dispatch table for class A has only 1 method
- The tables for B and C extend the table for A to the right
- Because methods can be overridden, the method for f is not the same in every class, but is always at the same offset

Using Dispatch Tables

- The dispatch pointer in an object of class X points to the dispatch table for class X
- Every method f of class X is assigned an offset O_f in the dispatch table at compile time

Using Dispatch Tables (Cont.)

- To implement a dynamic dispatch e.f() we
 - Evaluate e, giving an object x
 - Call D[O_f]
 - D is the dispatch table for x
 - In the call, self is bound to x