

1 An Overview of Loops, Set, Break, Input, Blocks, and Errors

In this section, we'll go over a high-level overview of some additional features.

1.1 Loops & Break

Loop and break expressions are relatively simple; they look something like

```
(loop <expr>)  
(break <expr>)
```

At its core, a `loop` will repeat an expression over and over again until it encounters a `break`, in which case the loop terminates.

1.1.1 Assembly Representation

The assembly representation of loops is straightforward:

```
loop:  
    ; body of loop  
    jmp loop  
done:
```

Here, we defined two labels:

- `loop`, indicating the beginning of the loop.
- `done`, indicating the end of the loop (where we should “break” out).

The idea is that, as long as we aren't breaking out, we will unconditionally jump back to `loop`. If we do want to incorporate a `break` statement, we can add a jump to that label.

1.1.2 Labeling

As is the case with `if`-statements, we can have many loops! So, we need to create a unique label for each loop. We can use the `new_label` function from the last section to do this for us.

1.1.3 Implementing Break

To implement `break`, the idea is for the compiler to include an additional argument. We can call this argument `loop_label`, which will be an `Option<String>` (recall that an `Option<T>` will either be a `Some(T)` or `None`, indicating some or no value, respectively).

Before we compile the expression associated with the loop, we need to create a unique label. Once we create this label, we can compile the expression, passing that label as our argument for `loop_label`. Because of the recursive nature of the `compile` function, if we end up inside another loop, compiling its associated expression will result in another label for *that* function call, but not for the current function call. In that sense, we don't need to worry about the possibility of overwriting the break labels.

1.2 Set

Set is relatively straightforward: it's analogous to reassignment in most other programming languages. Its syntax looks like

```
(set! <name> <expr>)
```

Here, we're assigning the result of evaluating `<expr>` to the identifier, `<name>`. If the identifier doesn't exist, an error should be thrown.

1.3 Blocks

Blocks are just a way of writing more than one statement for an expression. Syntactically, they look like

```
(block <expr>+)
```

In other words, it takes one or more expressions, and then runs each expression in the order that they appear.

Rust	Our Language
<pre>if x > 10 { x = x + y + z; y = x - z; z = z + 5; } else { x += 10; }</pre>	<pre>(if (> x 10) (block (set! x (+ x (+ y z))) (set! y (- x z)) (set! z (+ z 5))) (set! x (+ x 10)))</pre>

1.4 Handling Inputs

Our programming language is now expected to take a single input, which can either be a number or boolean value. Syntactically, the command is just

```
input
```

In order to handle any input, we need to think about the runtime and, more importantly, the role that `start.rs` plays (recall that `start.rs` is how we call into our assembly code.)

```
fn parse_input(input: &str) -> i64 {
    if input == "true" {
        0b11
    } else if input == "false" {
        0b01
    } else if let Ok(val) = input.parse::<i64>() {
        (val << 1) as u64
    } else {
        panic!("unsupported input: '{}'", input);
    }
}

fn main() {
    let args: Vec<String> = env::args().collect();
    // This is our single input, which by default will be
    // "false" if none are provided
    let input = if args.len() == 2 { &args[1] } else { "false" };
    // Call our assembly code with the given input.
    let i: i64 = unsafe { our_code_starts_here(parse_input(&input)) };
    // Finally, determine what was returned to us.
    if i & 1 == 0 {
        // Number
        println!("{}", i >> 1);
    } else {
        // Boolean
        println!("{}", i >> 1 == 1);
    }
}
```

Note that our input will be in the register `rdi`. So, we can modify the compiler to simply move `rdi` into `rax` before using it.

```
match e {
  ...
  Expr::Id(s) if s == "input" => "mov rax, rdi"
}
```

That's it!

1.5 Errors

Recall that, in the previous sections, we didn't want things like `(+ true 1)` to work. This should cause a *runtime error*. So, how do we invoke a runtime error from our assembly code?

- First, we want to create a function in Rust that our assembly code will call.

```
#[export_name = "\x01snek_error"]
pub extern "C" fn snek_error(errcode: i64) {
    eprintln!("error code {errcode} received.");
    std::process::exit(1);
}
```

- Next, in our assembly header, we want to define this function as an external function.

```
section .text
global our_code_starts_here
extern snek_error                ; right here!
```

- From there, we can define a `throw_error` label which will handle calling the Rust code. It will look like

```
throw_error:
    mov rdi, 7                ; rdi is the register representing the first arg
                                ; 7 is some error code we made up
    push rsp
    call snek_error           ; calls the snek_error rust function
    ret
```

We'll worry about the `push` and `pop` instruction later.