Notes on more datastructures

- This assignment should be fairly straightforward but there are a lot of details that you need to remember
- What I want to review mainly is:
 - ► How does the "stack" work?
 - Allocations / Heaps. Arrays + Indexing.
 - ► Machine details (padding, offset, etc)

AT&T Syntax vs Intel syntax

- Use the **AT&T** one
- Look at: https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/X86_Assembly

Get started with the "Simple" Instructions

- Arith, Load and Store, Cmp
- What do these mean *denotationally* (after running this instruction, what is the *new state* of your stack / heap) and *operationally* (*how* what assembly instructions do you need to achieve the end points)?

Draw out a computer

- Stack is a **byte addressable** array. A variable will occupy a **word** or **8 bytes**.
- Variables are **stored on the stack** ordered in the way that they are declared
- Registers are **much faster** to acess than the stack and the only way your CPU does computation
 - So when accessing a variable you need to load them off of the stack into a register before doing anything

Suffixes

- "word" in the 64-bit case means 64-bits but an alternate meaning of "word" is 16. Don't use movw cus that's wrong.
- X86 instructions only work on certain bit-width integers. The suffix of each instruction determines what bit-width the instruction works on:

```
• q = "quad" or 64-bit
```

- ► l = "long" or 32-bits
- ► w = "word" or 16-bits
- ▶ b = "byte" or 8-bits
- For the most part the solution will always use the <instr>q version of the assembly instruction.

Example of calling "add" (drawn out)

• Example program:

This:

```
fn main() -> int {
    let x: int = 3;
    let j: int = 4;

    x = x + j;
    return 0;
}
```

Gets lowered to:

Globals

```
Function main() -> Int {
    Locals
    _t1 : Int
    j : Int
    x : Int

entry:
    Copy(x, 3)
    Copy(j, 4)
    Arith(_t1, add, x, j)
    Copy(x, _t1)
    Ret(0)
}
```

Now, how do we do codegen for this program?

- First **set up the stack** by "pushing" the stack pointer to allocate space for the variables. The stack **grows downward** from the "base pointer" which denotes the location of the base of this frame.
- · Now the stack will look like: image drawn on whiteboard
- Finally, we deal with the entry block of main:
 - make a label for it and jump to it (the label will be in the LIR)
- What should we do on Copy? Since we are copying constants this is easy. **Mutate the stack**. Semantiacally, what Copy should do is:
 - Mutate the location in the stack where the lhs is stored with the value of the rhs
 - You need to codegen in a way that respects this (this is what ben's solution does)
 - ► This is just done with a simple movq \$0, -<loc>(%rbp) where loc is the location where the variable is stored.
- What about Arith?
 - The **semantics** of Arith is to take the two operands (the last 2 arguments), load their values, do the operation, then store the result in the lhs (first argument).
 - You can achieve this with these instructions:

```
; load the value of x
movq -24(%rbp), %r8
; the source of "addq" can be a memory location - in this case y
addq -16(%rbp), %r8
; move the result into the temp variable
movq %r8, -8(%rbp)
```

- ▶ Note that because **at most one operand may be a memory location** we use the %r8 register.
- Finally how about Ret?
 - Ret should just jump to the epilouge
 - ▶ the epilouge resets the stack to what it was, then calls the ret assembly instruction

A quirk with Compare

- In x86 assembly, the cmp instruction sets a flag rather than storing the result in a visible register.
- That's why compare needs to be done into two instructions:

```
asm
  ;; do the comparison
  cmpq v1, v2
```

```
;; set the value to 0 or 1 based on the result of the comparison
 ;; where c is one of the condition codes: (`e`, `ne`, `z`, `nz`, `s`, `ns`, `g`,
`ge`, `l`, `le`)
 set<c> %r8b
```

Function pointers

• Implicitly every declared function has a pointer to it with itself as the name.

```
• i.e:
```

```
fn foo() -> int {
  return 0;
fn main() -> int {
  let x: &() -> int;
  let y: int;
  x = foo;
  y = x();
  return 0;
is implicitly
let foo: &() -> int;
fn foo() -> int {
  return 0;
}
fn main() -> int {
  let x: &() -> int;
  let y: int;
  x = foo;
  y = x();
  return 0;
```

• what happens when I have a global variable that has the same name as a function? I need to mangle the global. This is described in the lecture notes.

```
let foo: int;
fn foo() -> int {
  return 0;
fn main() -> int {
 let x: &() -> int;
 let y: int;
 x = foo;
 y = x();
  return 0;
```

- A label is just a location in memory. What ben does for each function pointer global is store the pointer to the function label in that global.
- You can run call on an adress directly as well.

Structs and Arrays review

- Structs and arrays are heap allocated meaning you can use an "allocator" to give you access to memory
 - ► Allocators are very interesting but the "classic" allocator is malloc from glibc.

- ► The interface of the allocator is much less restricted (i.e. you can malloc and free) than a stack but that also makes it harder to manage (i.e. you need to figure out when to free or you'll have a memory leak).
- Arrays are run-time checked by size.
- All fields in the struct are 8-bytes (64-bits). This means that a **struct is almost like an array** (at least, has the same offset logic as an array).
 - Map the field to an index remember that this is **alphabetically ordered** this matters b/c you'll get a wrong offset from the reference solution if you don't respect this.
 - Since all fields accesses are valid (due to type checking) we can just access directly. The code should be similar to array access.

Calling Conventions

- Internal functions:
 - Save any caller saved regiesters before calling
 - push all args on the stack
 - call the function
- External functions:
 - ► Follow what's on the lecture notes
 - ► This is the **C** calling convention. This is not dictated by us but by how C fuctions work.