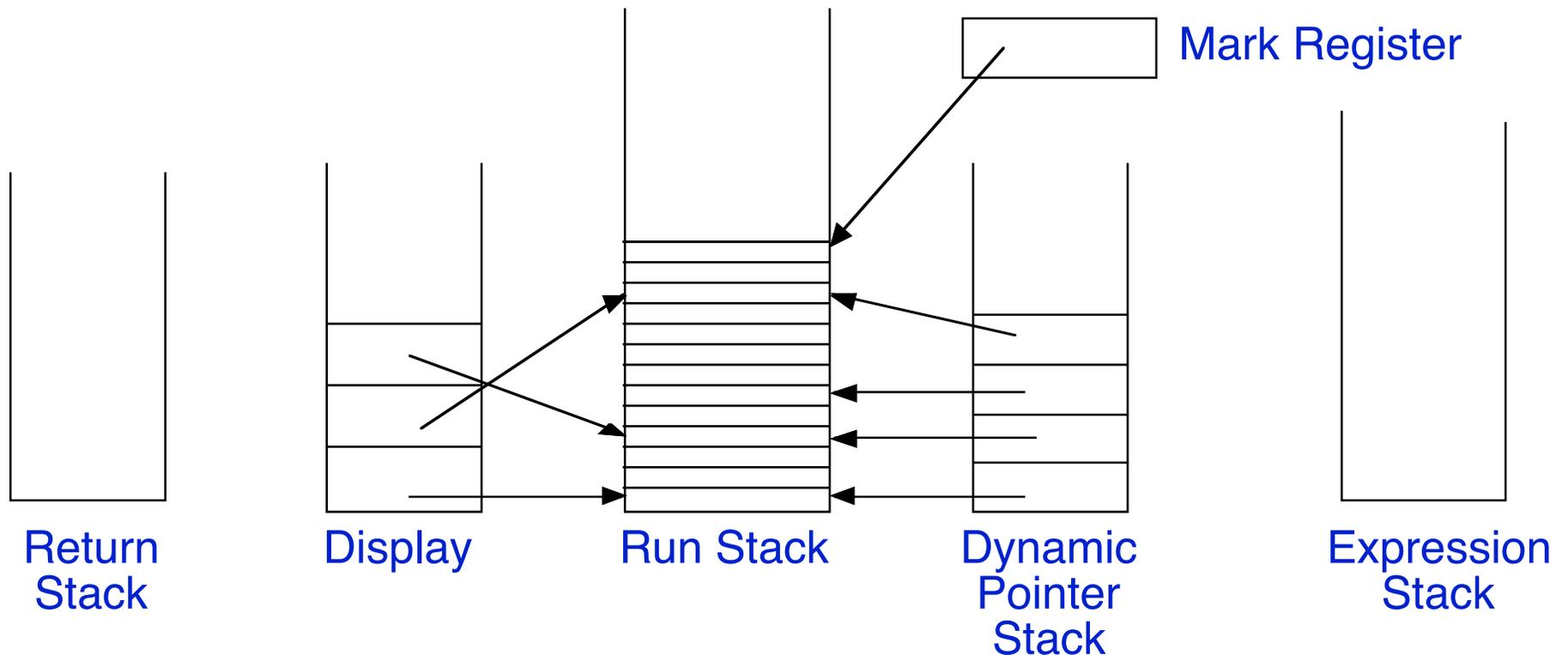


Implementing the Run Time Model

- Before we can proceed to the final stages of compilation, **storage allocation** and **code generation**, we need to consider some general questions of representation of the **Run Time Model** on real machines
- The basic problem will be designing efficient representations of each of the model's structures using real machine resources such as **registers**, **memory management facilities** and **built-in stacks** of the target machine architecture
- The choices we make here will determine, to a large extent, how efficient the code we generate will be in its use of memory and CPU time

Recall ...

- Run Time Model – 5 stacks
 - **Expression Stack** – expression evaluation
 - **Run Stack** – storage allocation
 - **Display** – scope management
 - **Dynamic Pointer Stack** – restoring Run Stack and Display
 - **Return Stack** – remember program counter for call/return



Implementation of the Run Time Model

- Depending on the language we are compiling, we may have more or less freedom in our choices
- Some languages, like **C** and **C++**, have features that are very close to the hardware, such as variables at **absolute addresses**, **register variables**, and so on, that severely limit our choices

- Example:

```
int x = 1;
char *p = (char *)&x;
if (*p == 0){
    printf("big endian");
} else {
    printf("little endian");
}
```

byte address	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0</u>
byte value	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1

- But most modern languages, like **Turing**, **Java**, **Modula 3**, **Python**, **Perl**, and so on, have a semantics that is intended to be machine independent, and leave us a lot of freedom in our choices

Run Time Model - Machine Dependencies

- One of the main purposes of the standard compiler structure is to isolate target machine dependencies to the back end
- There are two main phases of the back end:
 - *Storage Allocation*, which determines the representation of variables and data in the target machine, and
 - *Code Generation*, which chooses the instruction sequences to implement computations and statements
- In **PT**, Storage Allocation is simple since it allocates all variables as static (i.e., as if they were all in the global scope) - so it is done as part of **Semantic Analysis**
- This introduces a slight machine dependency in the **PT** Semantic phase - it needs to know the sizes of **integers**, **characters** and **addresses** in the memory of the target machine

Run Time Model - Machine Architectures

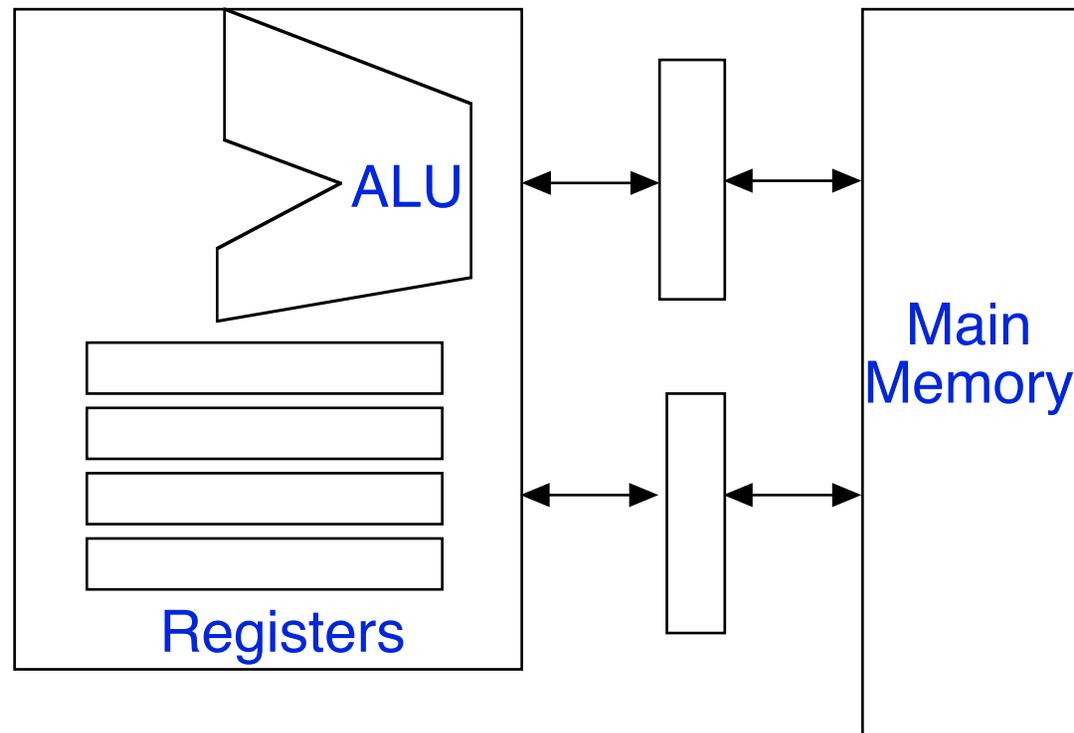
- Before we continue with the issues in the text, we'll do a quick review of some of the characteristics of the kinds of **target machines** we might be compiling for
- Given the recent prevalence of the Intel **x86** and related architectures as general purpose computers, it's easy to forget the range of other possible target computer structures - but many other machines are in active use that we must compile for
- Examples:
 - MS Xenon / IBM **PowerPC** (Xbox 360),
 - **ARM** Snapdragon / Apple A8
(almost all smartphones, automobiles, appliances, etc.),
 - IBM **Cell** (Sony Playstation 3)
 - IBM Z **mainframe** (every business enterprise in the world)
- Some main differences to consider are:
 - **stack** vs. **register** architecture
 - addressing modes
 - **CISC** vs. **RISC** instruction set
 - general purpose vs. special purpose vs. windowed register sets

Stack vs Register Machines

- The first distinction is between **stack-based** and **register-based** machines
- In **Stack Based** machines (e.g., Burroughs B5500, Lilith M Machine, Symbolics Lisp Computers, Forth and Postscript machines) the architecture is based entirely on a **fast hardware stack** to hold all memory and data - all instructions act directly on the elements on top of the stack (no registers!)
- In this sense they are very similar to the **PT** virtual machine, but implemented directly in hardware
- These were very popular in the early 1980's, when the speed of processors was not so different from the speed of memory, and are enjoying a bit of a resurgence in embedded systems as large, fast static caches make them faster again
- The first computer on the Hubble space telescope was a **Forth** machine, and **Postscript** machines are common in printers

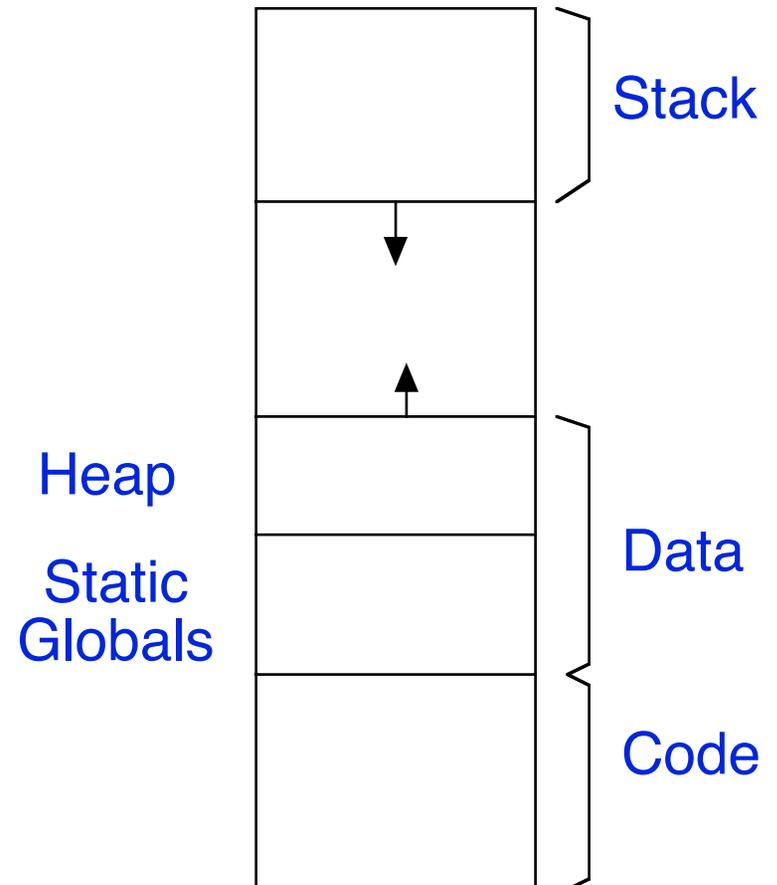
Register Based Machines

- **Register Based** machines are now much more common - in this model, there is a limited amount of very fast memory located in the CPU, specially addressed called **registers**
- It is the **compiler's responsibility** to manage register use such that data used in instructions is in registers when needed, and such that frequently accessed data stays there - modern static caches help with this, but don't solve the whole problem



Memory in a Register Machine

- Register machines typically treat memory as a single **linear array of bytes** - however, some machines distinguish more than one address space, for example instructions may have a different address space than data, which makes the machine look like two separate memories to the compiler
- In a concession to the stack architecture, modern register machines typically support a **memory-based hardware stack** as well - using special addressing modes and dedicated registers
- Thus the compiler has the choice on these machines of what to represent in **registers** and what to represent using the **hardware stack**



Addressing Modes

- Data in memory may be accessed in various ways, called **addressing modes** - depending on the style of machine, there may be few or many, and they may be simple or complex

- Examples:

Immediate

- value of the operand is stored in the instruction

Register

- the operand is in a register e.g., `move #3,r1`

Static

- absolute address of the operand is in the instruction

PC Relative

- the operand address relative to the instruction address is in the instruction

Register Indirect

- the address of the operand is in a register

e.g., `move (r1),r2`

Base Register + Offset

- a base address is in a register, a constant offset of the operand is added

e.g., `move 4(r1),r2`

Base Register + Offset + Index

- a base address is in a register, a constant offset is added and the contents of another register (the index) is added, scaled by the operand size (subscripting)

Addressing Modes

- Any given machine will have a **subset** of all possible addressing modes - e.g., RISC machines are typically load-store machines, with only simple modes to load or store from registers
- On these machines operands (with a few small exceptions) must be loaded from memory into **registers** before they can be used
- Some instructions on some machines require the use of particular registers - a common approach is to have some registers specifically for use as arithmetic operands (*data registers*) and some reserved for use as bases and indexes (*address registers*)
- Other restrictions may apply - e.g., on the IBM Z series (a "**mainframe**" computer), offsets from a base address are limited to 4096 bytes, and most machines have limits on the ranges of immediate values - e.g., a constant operand on the Sun SPARC is limited to 13 bits
- The compiler must **enforce** and **adapt** to these limitations in the code it generates, while still implementing the semantics of the programming language

Example Architecture - IBM 360 "Mainframe"

- Now called the **IBM "Z-series"**, one of the oldest still operating architectures - and one of the most prevalent (you don't see them much, but you use several every day)
 - 16 general purpose **registers**
 - address offset limited to **12 bits** (0 to 4095)
 - limited immediate operands, constants normally stored in static memory locations and accessed as constant variables
 - addressing modes: **Register, Base+Offset, Base+Offset+Index**
 - multi-byte **decimal** operands - up to 18 digits long

Example Architecture - PDP-11

- The machine that launched **UNIX**, **C**, and the model for many modern computers
 - 8 general purpose **registers**, each 16 bits
one reserved as stack pointer (SP),
one for program counter (PC)
 - 8 general **addressing modes**: Register, Register Indirect, Indexed, Indexed Indirect, AutoIncrement/Decrement (for push/pop), AutoIncrement/Decrement Indirect
- The **autoincrement/autodecrement** modes are where C gets its ++ and -- operations from
- A very general and powerful set of addressing modes, allowing many nonobvious operand paradigms (e.g., PC autoincrement allows immediate operand values directly in the code)
- Similar machines - NS32000, VAX, **MC68000** (original Mac, Palm, cellphones)

Example Architecture - x86

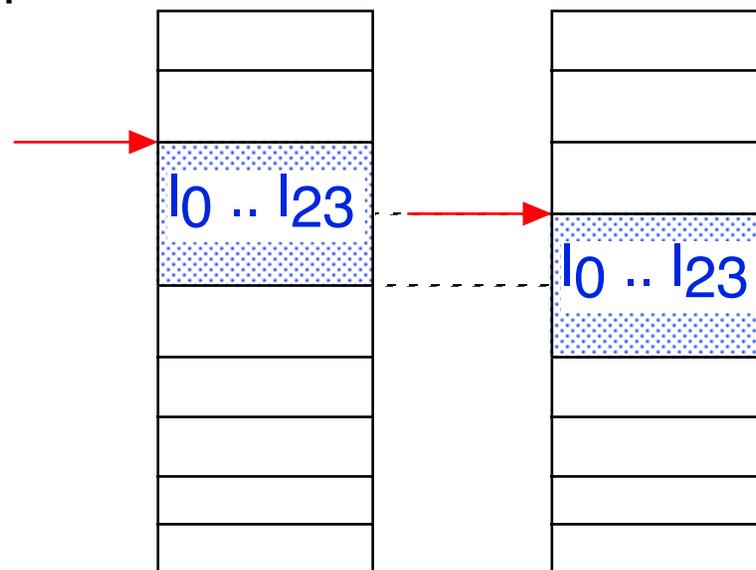
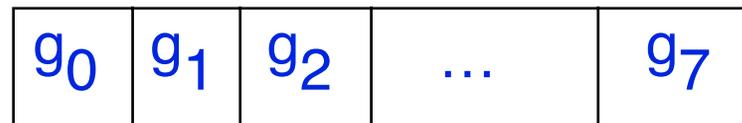
- Among the most common machines today
 - 4 **general purpose** registers (A, B, C, D), 4 **address** registers one of which is the **stack pointer** (SI, DI, BP, SP)
 - one operand of every instruction must be a **register**
 - A,B,C,D registers are accumulators, C,D counters, some instructions require particular registers or pairs
 - special **index** registers
 - **addressing modes**: Register, Immediate, Static, Base, Base+Offset, Index + Offset, Scaled Index + Offset, Base + Index, Base +Index +Offset, Base + Offset + Scaled Index, Base + Scaled Index
- Later versions (starting with **i386**) have generalized the registers, but introduced a performance penalty for using them incorrectly

Fixed Register Set RISC Architectures

- Modern computers are increasingly RISC (**Reduced Instruction Set Computer**) architectures (e.g, MIPS, Sun Sparc, DEC Alpha, IBM PowerPC, ARM Snapdragon, Intel Itanium, IBM Cell)
- There are two general classes of **RISC** machines - **fixed** register set and **windowed** register set
- All RISC machines are characterized by
 - a large set (at least 32, and up to about 1,024) of general purpose **registers**
 - load/store architecture - arithmetic operations accept only **registers** as operands
 - limited set of **addressing modes**, often only two, Register +Base and Indirect Register + Base - all other modes must be programmed using these
- In a fixed register set **RISC** computer, all registers are **global** and must be managed by the compiler globally

Windowed Register Set RISC Architectures

- Windowed register set **RISC** computers (e.g., Sun Sparc, Pyramid) also have a large number of registers, but only a subset of them can be used at a time
- Some of the registers (the **global** registers, typically 8) are usable everywhere - the rest are arranged into a **register file**
- A special internal register (not program controllable) is a pointer to the current **window** in the register file
- The window gives access to a number of registers (typically 24) that can currently be used
- On procedure call, the pointer is advanced 16 registers, providing an 8 register **overlap**, allowing fast parameter passing



Summary

- Two tasks left - **storage allocation** and **code generation**
- In order to allocate storage and generate code for a target machine, we need to choose representations of the abstract machine structures - this depends on the target machine
- Choice of representation is the **single biggest factor** in determining the quality of code we can generate
- There are several classes of target machines, for which we need to make different representation decisions - **stack** machines, **register** machines, **RISC** machines, fixed vs windowed registers
- **Next:**
Representation of the ES, RS and Display on different classes of machines