

Compiling (especially C)

CSE 410 22wi

Lecture 05

What is a compiler?

- ❖ A compiler is a translator
- ❖ It translates the **meaning** of a program written in one language into an **equivalent program** written in (usually) another language
 - E.g., C to Assembler (or machine code)
 - E.g., Java to Java bytecode
 - E.g., Javascript to “native code”

Program

- ❖ A program is the specification of a computation
- ❖ It is not (necessarily) a description of what steps **must** be taken to carry out the computation
 - Even though we usually think of it that way
- ❖ A straightforward compilation will do a fairly direct translation
 - A multiply in the source program will cause there to be a multiple in the target program, say
- ❖ The compiler is free to create an target program that is equivalent to the source program, though

The C Compiler

- ❖ Decides where to store variables

```
int h = 8;
h: .word 8
```

- ❖ Generates instructions / Manages Use of Registers

```
lw x10, h
```

```
sll x10, x10, 1
```

```
addi x10, x10, -1
```

```
sw x10, h
```

```
lw x10, h
```

```
slli x10, x10, 1
```

```
addi x10, x10, -1
```

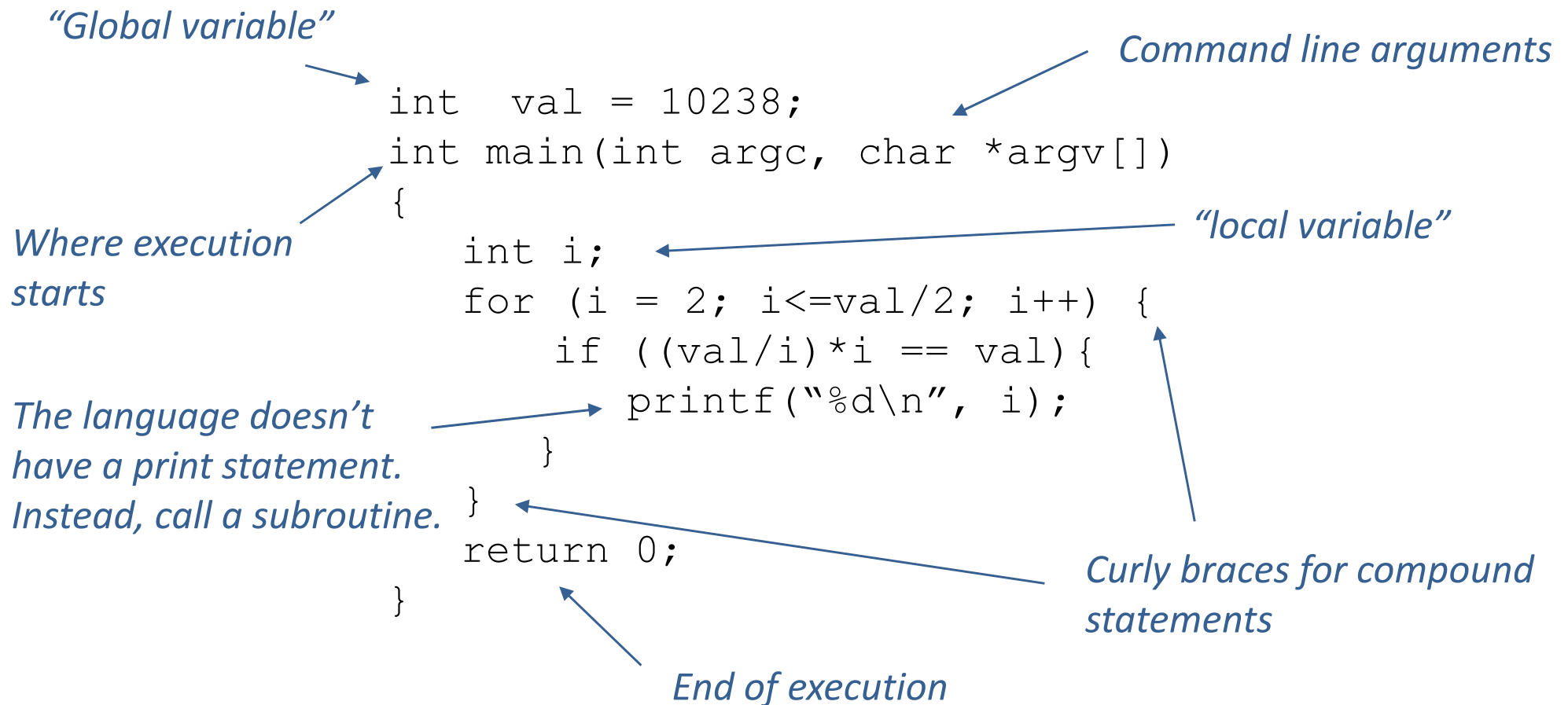
```
slli x10, x10, 2
```

```
addi x10, x10, -1
```

```
sw x10, h
```

- ❖ Tries to detect errors and/or make it hard(er) to write programs that have errors

Anatomy of a C Program



Output:
2
5119

Compiling a C Program

```
int val = 10238;
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    int i;
    for (i = 2; i<=val/2; i++) {
        if ((val/i)*i == val) {
            printf("%d\n", i);
        }
    }
    return 0;
}
```

```
lw    x7, val
lw    x9, i
div   x10, x9, x7
mul   x10, x10, x9
bne   x10, x7, else
<body code>
```


Part 1: Summary

```
int  val = 10238;
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    int i;
    for (i = 2; i<=val/2; i++) {
        if ((val/i)*i == val) {
            printf("%d\n", i);
        }
    }
    return 0;
}
```

- Translating the **bolded** lines to what we know of the ISA is pretty straightforward
- Notice **that the language defines the rules for things like** operator precedence, as well as basic syntax, like the use of curly braces for compound statements
- The language may provide higher level abstractions than can be implemented in a single machine instruction, like classes
 - Single statements in the language may generate many many assembler instructions, or may even require calling some language provided method at runtime (e.g., object creation)

Part II: Subroutines

```
int val = 10238;
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    int i;
    for (i = 2; i<=val/2; i++) {
        if ((val/i)*i == val){
            printf("%d\n", i);
        }
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Subroutines?

- Where do argument values go?
- Storage for local variables is allocated dynamically, on entry to subroutine.
- Control flow on return is “go back to wherever you came from”!

Subroutines

- ❖ When compiling a call of a subroutine, the compiler has to generate instructions that put the arguments somewhere the called routine can find them
 - We may already know about instructions that will let us do that
- ❖ When compiling a subroutine, the compiler needs to generate code that will allocate memory for local variables at run time, and code that accesses the arguments supplied on this call
 - This sounds more like a question of memory management than what instructions are in the ISA...
- ❖ In the general case, the subroutine might itself call another subroutine (or even itself) before it returns
 - The only control flow instructions we have seen are branches. Can call/return be done with those? (*Hint: no*)

The Memory Model

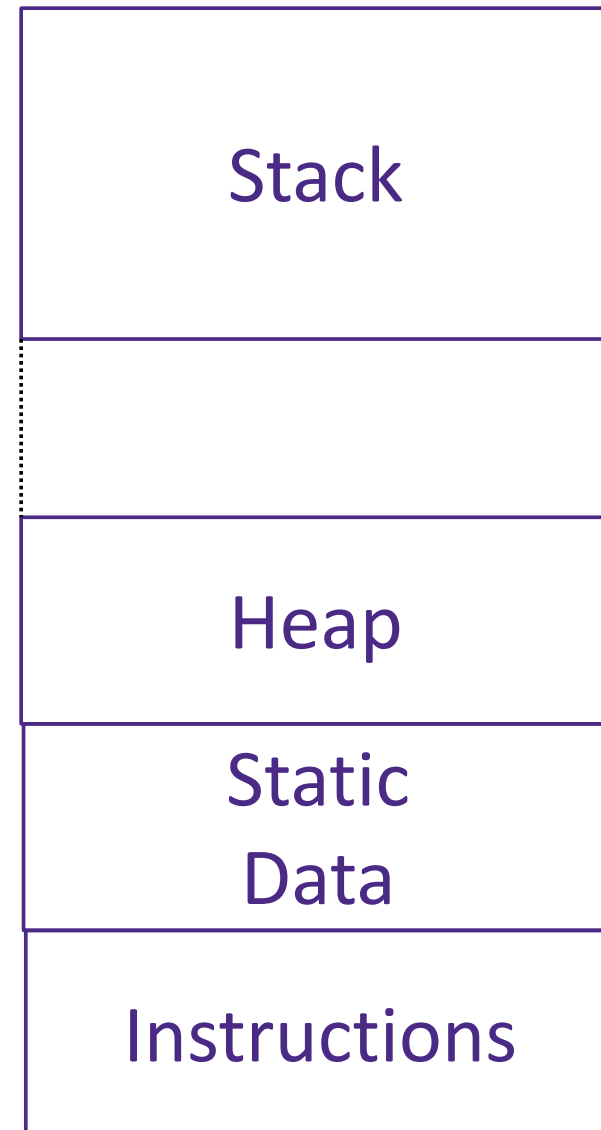
- ❖ While compiling the code, the compiler “knows” what memory will look like at run time
- ❖ The OS (program loader) knows the same thing

subroutine
args & locals

“new”
(*malloc*)

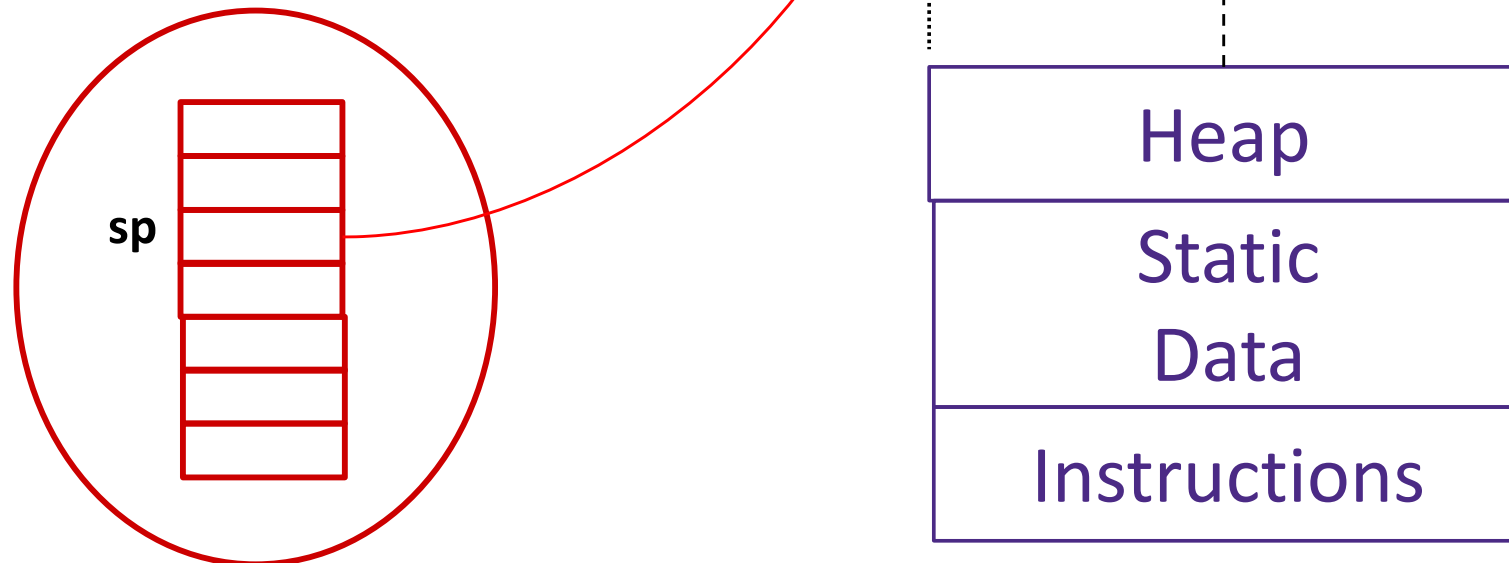
.data section

.text section



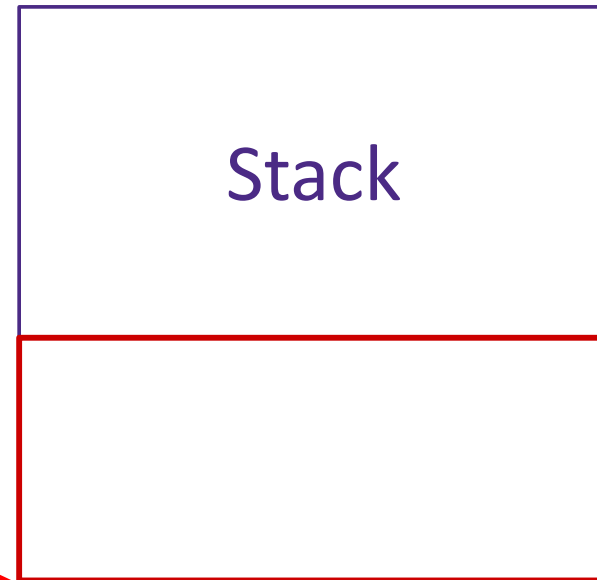
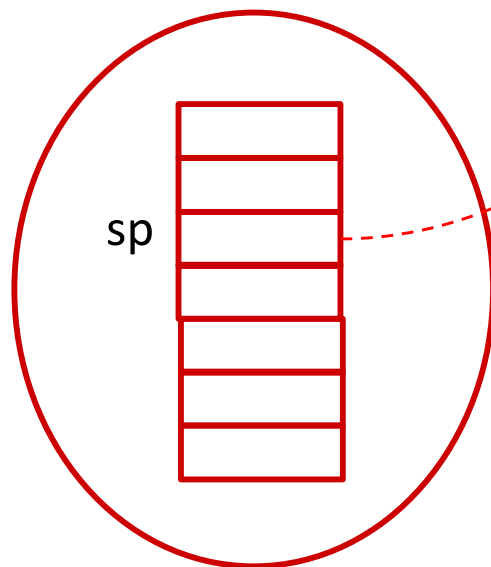
The Stack

- The stack grows downward during execution, from high memory toward low memory
- The operating system (loader) and the compiler agree to use register **sp** (formerly known as x2) as a pointer to the bottom of the stack



The Stack

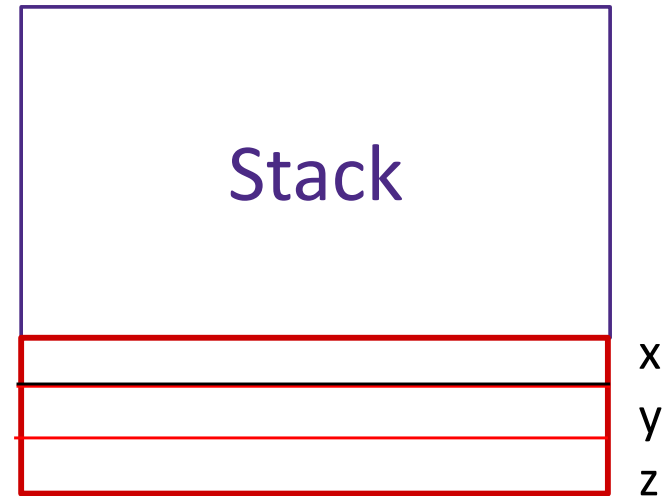
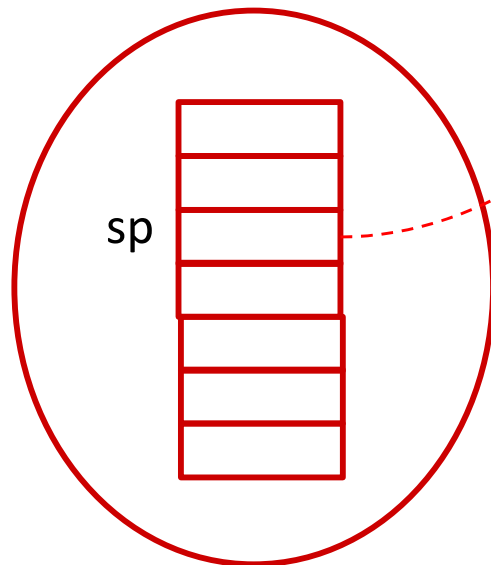
- The first thing the subroutine code does is allocate space by moving the stack pointer down



```
sub:  addi  sp, sp, -32
      ...
      addi sp, sp, 32
      <return to caller>
```


The Stack / Locals

```
int sub(int w) {  
    int x, y, z;  
    ...  
    return x;  
}
```



```
sub:  addi  sp, sp, -12  
      ...  
      addi sp, sp, 12  
      <return to caller>
```

*Example: to move variable x into a register,
the compiler could generate*
lw x10, 8(sp)

Passing Arguments

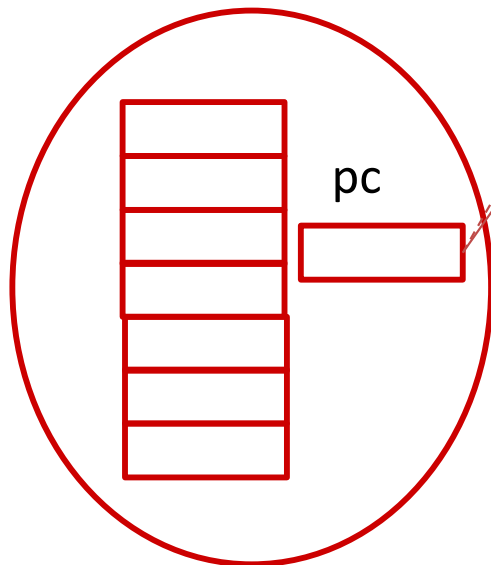
```
int sub(int w) {
    int x, y, z;
    ...
    return x;
}
```

Both the caller
and the subroutine
know how many
arguments there are

Calling code

```
val = sub(2);
```

Subroutine code

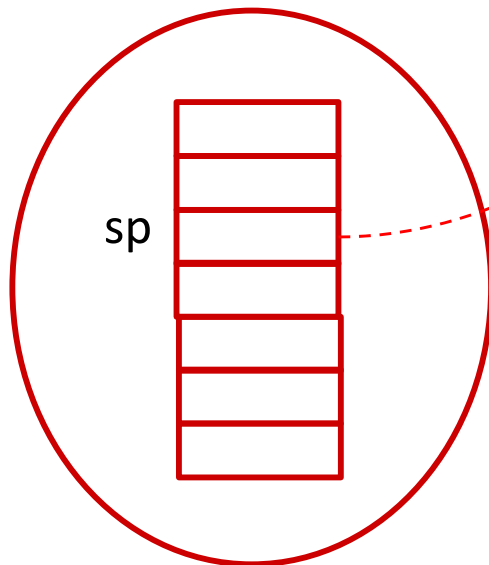
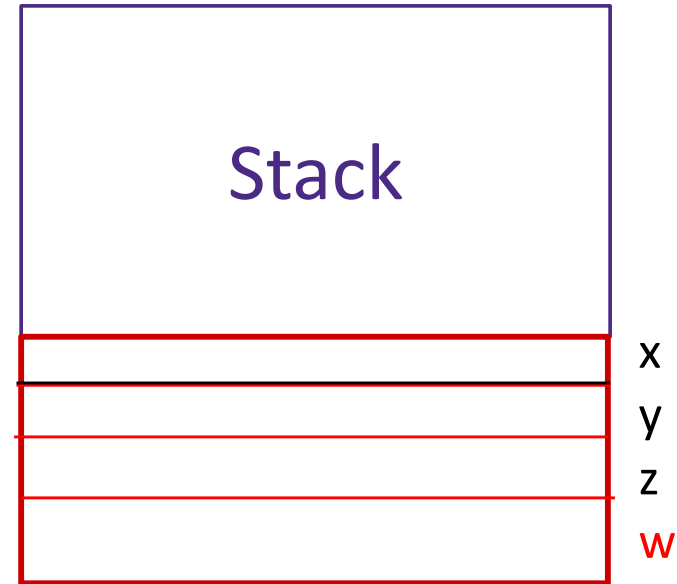


1. *The caller puts the arguments in registers a0-a7 (10-x17) before branching.*
2. *The calling code “branches” to the subroutine.*
3. *The subroutine starts running, on the same cpu/core.*
4. *The subroutine knows they’re in those registers.*
5. *(If the arguments don’t fit in 8 registers, the caller puts the excess on the stack before branching, and the subroutine gets them from there.)*

The Stack / Arguments

```
int sub(int w) {
    int x, y, z;
    ...
    return x;
}
```

```
val = sub(2);
```

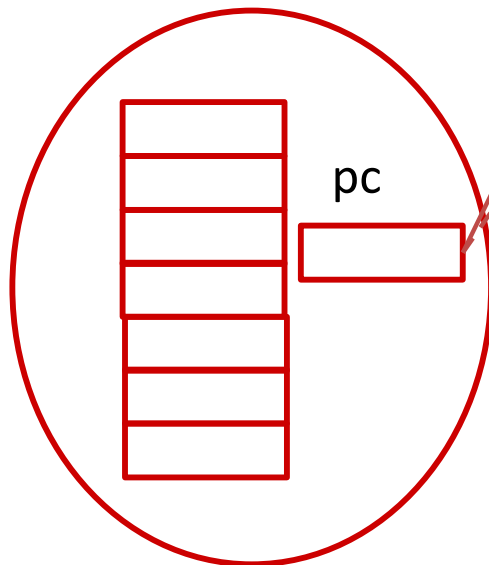
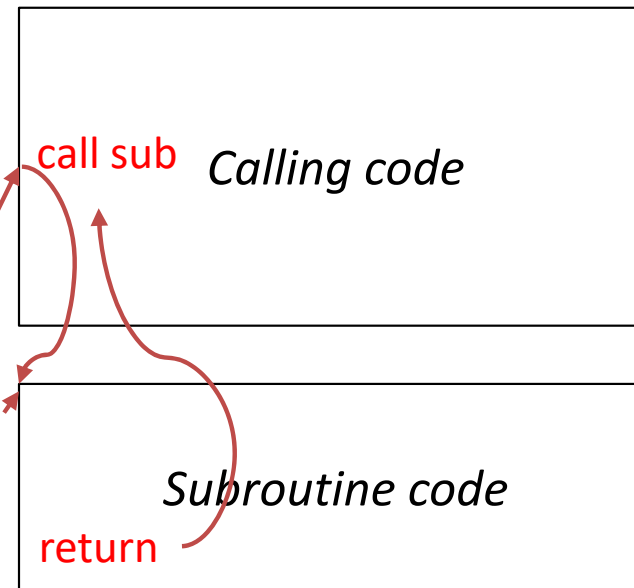


```
sub:   addi  sp, sp, -16
       sw    a0, 0(sp)
       ...
       addi  sp, sp, 16
       <return to caller>
```

Because the compiler might want to use register a0 for the subroutine's code (e.g., the subroutine calls a subroutine), it generates code to make space to save it on the stack and to copy a0... to that space on entry.

Call / Return

```
int sub(int w) {  
    int x, y, z;  
    ...  
    return x;  
}
```



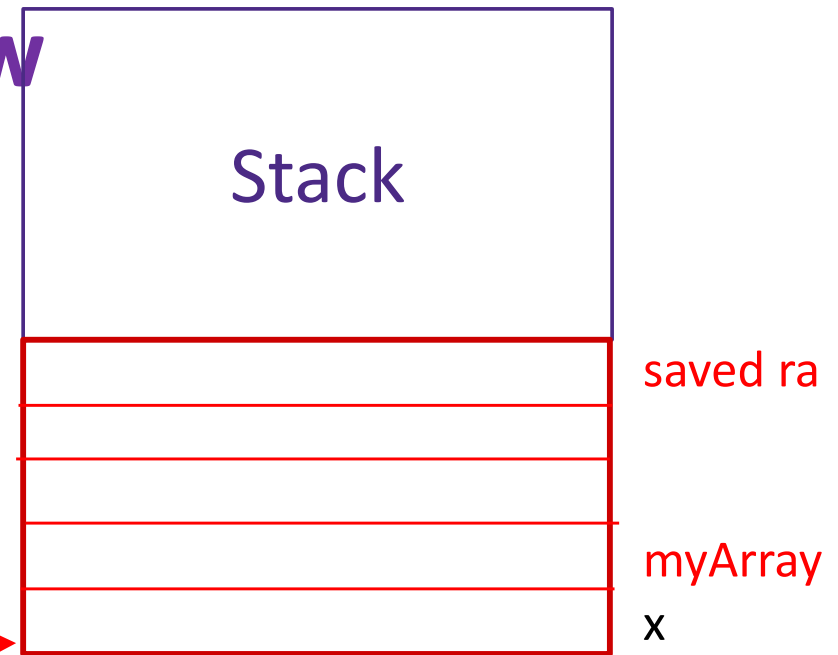
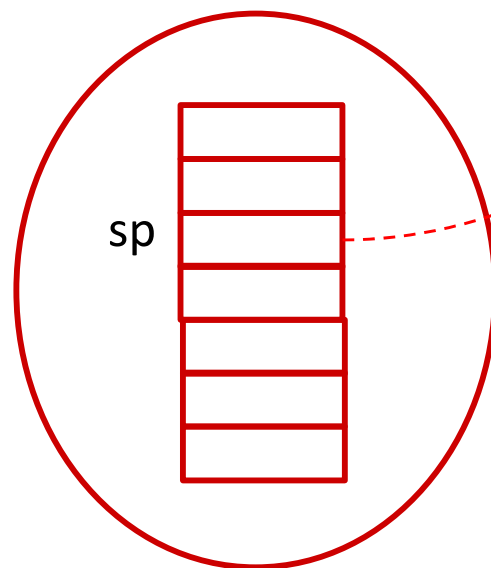
- The "call" writes the PC and so branches to the subroutine
- When the subroutine wants to "return", it needs to branch to the instruction after the call.
- Where is that?
- *Need to save the PC somewhere when calling*
 - (Why is it too late to do it in the subroutine?)

- ❖ The problem of returning a value back to the caller is just like the problem of passing arguments in from the caller
- ❖ The solution is the same
 - Leave the return value in a register
 - In RISC-V, register a0 is used

Security: Buffer Overflow

```
int sub(int x) {  
    int myArray[3];  
    ...  
    return x;  
}
```

val = sub(2);



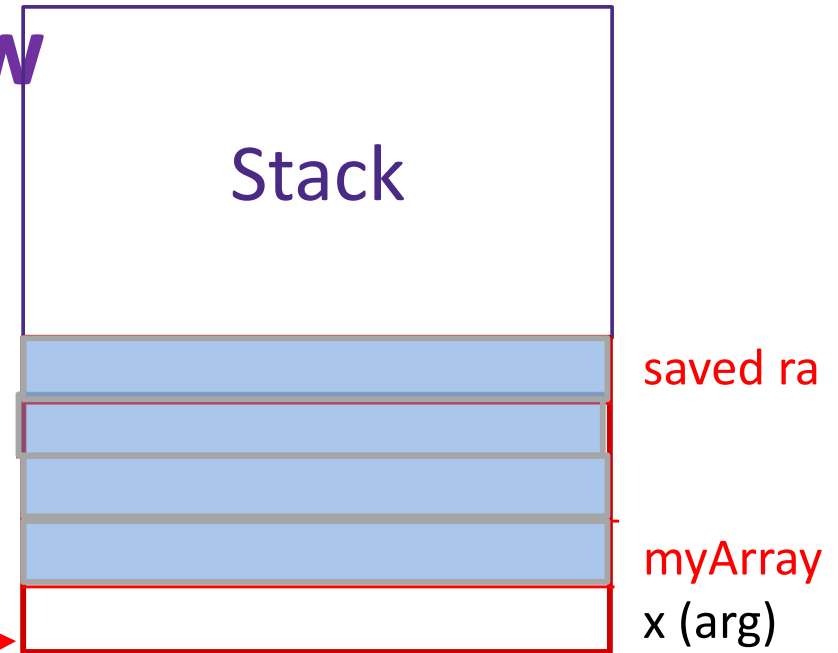
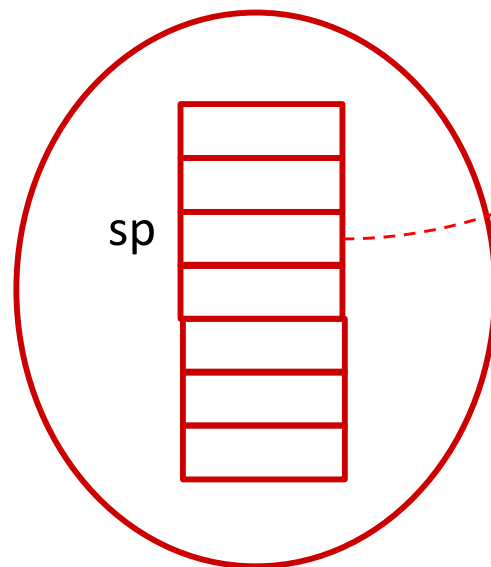
Suppose the code fills myArray with data it gets from the user (e.g., from a file or from the network)
AND
the code doesn't check how much data it gets.

```
i = 0;  
while ( more data ) {  
    x[i] = <new data element>;  
    i++;  
}
```


Security: Buffer Overflow

```
int sub(int x) {  
    int myArray[3];  
    ...  
    return x;  
}
```

val = sub(2);



Suppose the code fills myArray with data it gets from the user: from a file or from the network AND the code doesn't check how much data it gets.

```
i = 0;  
while ( more data ) {  
    x[i] = <new data element>;  
    i++;  
}  
return; // !!!
```


Procedures: Managing Register Usage

❖ Options:

■ Caller Saves All

- Before making the call, the caller saves any values currently in registers that it might want to use again after the call
- Callee doesn't have to save and restore any register

■ Callee Saves All

- Callee must save the value in any register it wants to use, and must restore it just before returning

■ Problems

- Caller Saves All might save registers the callee isn't going to use anyway
- Callee Saves All might save registers the caller doesn't care about

Procedure Call Summary (to this point)

- ❖ Procedure call works by agreement between the caller and the callee
- ❖ Both caller and callee know “the signature” of the procedure: e.g., `int sub(int x, int y)`
- ❖ Both know the caller will leave the two arguments in registers `a0` through `a7`, so the callee should look for them there
- ❖ Both know the caller must save values in registers `t0` through `t6`
- ❖ Both know the caller will use a `jal` that saves the address of its next instruction in register `ra`
- ❖ On entry, the callee allocates space by moving the stack pointer down to:
 - to (possibly) save the arguments in memory,
 - for its own local variables
 - to save any of `s0-s11` that it wants to use, 0
- ❖ On return, the callee loads the saved `ra` value back into `ra`, restores any saved `s0-s11` registers, moves the stack pointer back up to where it was, and branches to the address in `ra`