

# Programming Language (5)

## Basics of Programming Language Implementation

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- 1 Introduction
- 2 CPU and machine code : An overview
- 3 A glance at x86 machine (assembly) code

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# Two basic forms of language implementation

- **interpreter**: interprets and executes programs (takes a program and an input; and computes the output)
- **compiler**: translates programs into **a machine (assembly) code**, that can directly execute by the processor
  - ▶ **ahead-of-time (AOT)**: the entire program is compiled before execution
  - ▶ **just-in-time (JIT)**: programs are incrementally compiled as they get executed (e.g., a function at a time)

*regardless of details, the central issue is how to translate **a source program** → **machine code***

# Why do you want to build a language, today?

- new hardware
  - ▶ GPUs (CUDA, OpenACC, OpenMP), AI chips, Quantum, ...
  - ▶ new instruction set (e.g., SIMD, matrix, ...) of the processor
- new general purpose languages
  - ▶ Scala, Julia, Go, Rust, etc.
- special purpose (domain specific) languages
  - ▶ statistics (R, MatLab, etc.)
  - ▶ data processing (SQL, NoSQL, SPARQL, etc.)
  - ▶ deep learning
  - ▶ constraint solving, proof assistance (Coq, Isabelle, etc.)
  - ▶ macro (Visual Basic (MS Office), Emacs Lisp (Emacs), Javascript (web browser), etc.)

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# What a machine (assembly) code looks like

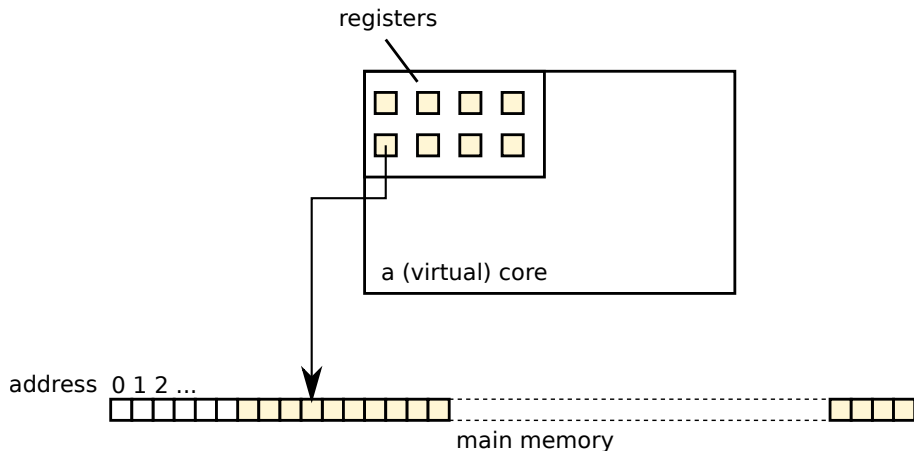
- it *is* just another programming language
- it has many features present in programming languages

source	machine code
expressions	arithmetic instructions
if statement	compare / conditional jump instructions
variables	<i>registers</i> and <i>memory</i>
structs and arrays	memory and load/store instructions

*compilation is nothing like a magic; it's more like translating English to French*

# What a CPU (core) looks like

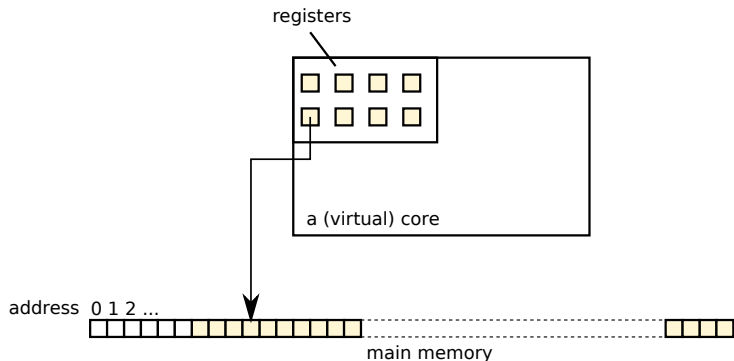
- a small number (typically  $< 100$ ) of *registers*
  - ▶ each register can hold a small amount of (e.g., 64 bit) data
- majority of data are stored in *memory* (a few to  $\sim 1000$  GB)





# Memory

- where majority of data your program processes are stored
- memory is essentially a large flat array indexed by integers, often called *addresses*
- an address is just an integer

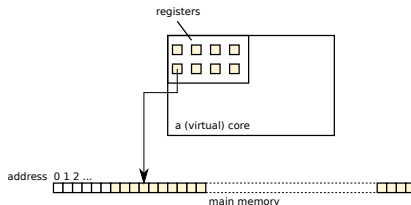


# What a CPU (core) does

- a special register, called *program counter* or *instruction pointer* specifies the address to fetch the next instruction at
- a CPU core is essentially a machine that does the following

```
1 repeat:  
2   inst = memory[program counter]  
3   execute inst
```

- an instruction
  - ▶ performs some computation of values on a few registers or a memory location, and
  - ▶ changes the program counter (typically to the next instruction on memory)



# Exercise objectives

- `pl06_how_it_gets_compiled`
- learn how a **compiler** does the job,
- by inspecting assembly code generated from functions of the source language

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# Registers

- general-purpose 64 bit integer registers: `r{a,b,c,d}x`, `rdi`, `rsi`, `r[8-15]`, `rbp`
- general-purpose floating point number registers: `xmm[0-15]`
- stack pointer register: `rsp`
- a compare flag register: `eflags`, not directly used by instructions
  - ▶ implicitly set by compare instructions
  - ▶ implicitly used by conditional jump instructions
- an instruction pointer register: `rip`, not directly used by instructions
  - ▶ set by every instruction
- [https://wiki.cdot.senecapolytechnic.ca/wiki/X86\\_64\\_Register\\_and\\_Instruction\\_Quick\\_Start](https://wiki.cdot.senecapolytechnic.ca/wiki/X86_64_Register_and_Instruction_Quick_Start)

# Frequently used instructions

learn details and other instructions from the exercise

- `addq` (+), `leaq` (+), `subq` (-), `imulq` ( $\times$ ), `idivq` ( $\div$ )
- `movq` : move values between registers or between register and memory (load/store)
- `cmpq` : compare two values and set the result into the `eflags` register
- `jl` ( $<$ ), `jle` ( $\leq$ ), `jg` ( $>$ ), `jge` ( $\geq$ ), `je` ( $=$ ), `jne` ( $\neq$ ) : jump if a condition (indicated by `eflags`) is met
- `call`, `ret` : call or return from a function

# How to read instructions and operands (GNU assembler)

- e.g., `addq` instructions takes two operands

```
1 addq x,y
```

and its effect is

```
1 y += x
```

- many two operand instructions behave similarly

```
1 opq x,y  $\equiv$  y = y op x
```

- especially confusing is `subq`

```
1 subq x,y  $\equiv$  y = y - x
```

- *operand order actually depends on assembler*

# Syntax of operands

- $\$n$  : immediate value of  $n$
- $\%R$  : register named  $R$
- $(\dots)$  : address operand (details in the next slide)

where

- $n$  : a constant (4, 8, etc.)
- $R$  : register name (`rax`, `rbx`, `rdi`, etc.)

ex.

- `addq $1,%rax` : add 1 to `%rax` register
- `subq $1,%rax` : subtract 1 from `%rax` register



# Address operands

- an address operand (...) specifies an address, and can be
  - ▶  $(\%R) : R$
  - ▶  $n(\%R) : R + n$
  - ▶  $n(\%R, s, R') : R + sR' + n$
- where
  - ▶  $n, s$  : integer constants
  - ▶  $R, R'$  : register names
- ex.
  - ▶ `mulq (%rdi), %rax` : reads address specified by `%rdi` and multiply `%rax` by it
  - ▶ `movq %rax, (%rdi)` : writes the value of `%rax` to the address specified by `%rdi`
  - ▶ `leaq 4(%rdi), %rax` : `%rax = %rdi + 4`; this instruction does not read/write memory

# Things to watch in the exercise

- calling convention or ABI : function's incoming parameters and the return value are put in places (typically registers) predetermined by convention
- observe where incoming parameters are by compiling simple functions like

```
1 f(int x, int y) = x + y
```

- change parameter types and function body to know
  - ▶ how data are represented (integers, floating point numbers, arrays, structs, etc.)
  - ▶ how various expressions are implemented (arithmetic, array access, structure access, etc.)