How Programming Languages Work (Basics)

Kenjiro Taura

2024/05/19

Contents

Contents

Introduction	. 2
CPU and machine code: an overview	. 5
A glance at ARM64 machine (assembly) code	18

Introduction

Why you want to make a language, today?

- new hardware
 - ► GPUs, AI chips, Quantum, ...
 - ▶ new instructions (e.g., SIMD, matrix, ...)
- new general purpose languages
 - Scala, Julia, Go, Rust, etc.

Why you want to make a language, today?

- 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.)

Taxonomy: interaction mode

- interactive / read-eval-print-loop (REPL)
 - type code directly or load source code in a file interactively
 - Julia
- batch compile
 - convert source into an executable file
 - and run it (typically the "main" function)
 - ► Go, Rust
- some language implementations provide both
 - OCaml

Taxonomy: execution strategy

- interpreter executes source code directly with its input
 - interpreter (source-code, input) \rightarrow output
- **compiler** first converts source code into *a machine* (assembly) code that is directly executed by the CPU
 - ► compiler (*source-code*) \rightarrow *machine-code*;
 - ▶ machine-code (input) → output
- translator or transpiler are like compiler, but convert into another language, not machine (assembly) code

A (minor) note: machine code vs. assembly code

- in many contexts, they are used almost interchangeably
- machine (assembly) *languages* are almost interchangeable, too
- if asked a difference,
 - machine code is the real encoding of instructions interpretable by a CPU
 - assembly code refers to a textual (human-readable)
 representation of machine code

Taxonomy: compiler/translator

- ahead-of-time (AOT) compiler converts all the program parts into assembly before execution
- just-in-time (JIT) compiler converts program parts incrementally as they get executed (e.g., a function at a time)

CPU and machine code: an overview

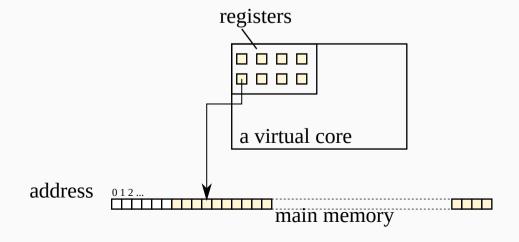
High-level (programming) languages vs. assembly languages

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

high-level language	assembly language
variables	registers and memory
structs and arrays	memory and load/store instructions
expressions	arithmetic instructions
if / loop	compare, conditional branch instructions
functions	branch and link instructions

What a CPU looks like

- has a small number (typically < 100) of *registers*
 - each register can hold a small amount of (e.g., 64-bit) data
- \Rightarrow majority of data are stored in the *main memory*
 - ► a few GB to >1000 GB

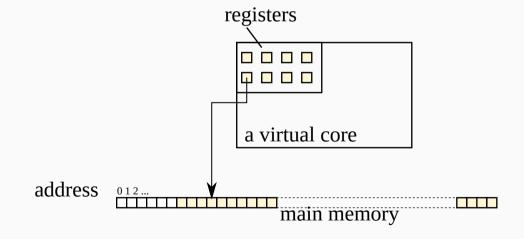


Terminology note : $CPU \ni core \ni virtual core$

- a *CPU* has multiple (typically, 2 to >100) *cores*
- a core has multiple (typically, 1 to a few) *virtual cores* or *hardware threads*
- each virtual core has its own registers and is capable of fetching and executing instructions
- all virtual cores of a CPU share the main memory
- they are often used interchangeably when the distinction is not important
- this course is only concerned about a single virtual core

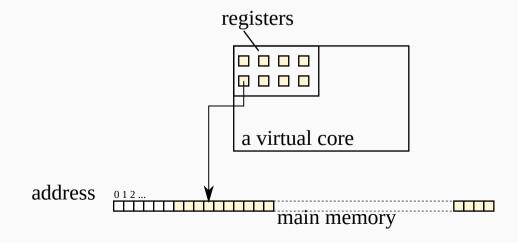
Main memory

- \approx a large array indexed by integers, called *addresses*
- in machine code level, an address is just an integer



Main memory

- each address typically stores 8 bits (a byte) of data
- a larger word is stored in consecutive addresses. e.g.,
 - 32 bit (4 byte) word occupies 4 consecutive addresses
 - ▶ 64 bit (8 byte) word occupies 8 consecutive addresses



What a virtual core does

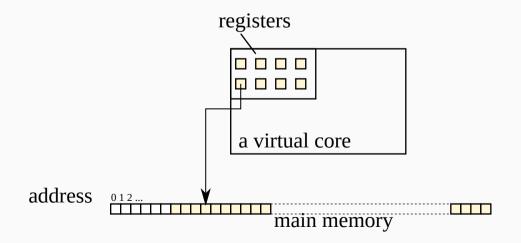
• a core is a machine that does the following:

```
repeat:
  instruction = memory[program counter]
  execute instruction
```

• *program counter* (or *instruction pointer*) is the register that specifies the address to fetch the next instruction from

What an istruction does

- 1. perform some computation on specified register(s) or a memory address
- 2. change the program counter
 - typically to the next address of the instruction just executed



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

A glance at ARM64 machine (assembly) code

A glance at ARM64 machine (assembly) code

Rust

```
#[no mangle]
                                               .text
pub fn add123(x:i64, y:i64) -> i64 {
                                               .file "pl06.1ebfa1..."
    y + 123
                                               .section .text.add123,...
                                               .globl add123
                                               .p2align
                                               .type add123,@function
                                       add123:
                                               .cfi startproc
                                               add \times 0, \times 1, #123
                                               ret
                                       .Lfunc end0:
                                               .size add123, .Lfunc ...
```

assembly

.cfi endproc

Unimportant lines

- indented lines starting with a dot (e.g., .file, .section, .text, etc.) are *directives* (not instructions) and largely not important
- unintended lines ending in a colon (e.g., add123:) are *labels* used to human-readably specify jump targets

```
.text
        .file "pl06.1ebfa1..."
        .section .text.add123,...
        .globl add123
        .p2align
        .type add123,@function
add123:
        .cfi startproc
       add x_0, x_1, \#123
        ret
.Lfunc_end0:
        .size
add123, .Lfunc_end0-add123
        .cfi endproc
```

Unimportant lines

- indented lines starting with a dot (e.g., .file, .section, .text, etc.) are *directives* (not instructions) and largely not important
- unintended lines ending in a colon (e.g., add123:) are *labels* used to human-readably specify jump targets

```
add123:

add x0, x1, #123
ret
.Lfunc_end0:
```

How to look at assembly

- focus on lines that are instructions
- look for a label *similar to* the function name, which is where its instructions start
 - the label may not be exactly
 the same as the function name
 (name mangling)

```
add123:

add x0, x1, #123

ret
.Lfunc_end0:
```

How to look at instructions

• ex.

```
add x_0, x_1, \#123
performs x_0 = x_1 + 123
```

- add is an *instruction name* or *mnemonic*
- takes three *operands* (x0, x1, and #123)
 - ► x0, x1 : register
 - #123 : constant (immediate value or literal)

ARM64 registers

- integer registers \times 32
 - ► 64 bit : x0, x1, ..., x31
 - ► 32 bit : w0, w1, ..., w31
 - uses low 32 bits of x_0 , x_1 , ..., x_{31}
- floating point registers \times 32
 - ▶ 64 bit (double precision) : d0, d1, ..., d31
 - ▶ 32 bit (single precision): s0, s1, ..., s31
 - uses low 32 bits of d0, d1, ..., d31

ARM64 registers

- implicit registers (state)
 - conditional code register
 - program counter

ARM64 instructions

- arithmetic
- move
- load / store
- compare
- conditional / unconditional branch
- branch and link
- return

Arithmetic

• ex.

performs

$$x0 = x1 - x2$$

• typically takes three operands

Return

Things to learn in the exercise

- 1. Calling convention / ABI : How parameters and return values are passed (typically via registers)
- 2. Data representation : Learn how data types (ints, floats, structs, pointers, arrays) are represented

```
f(a, i) = a[i]
```

- 3. Control flow: How conditionals and loops are implemented
- 4. Function calls: How function call/return is implemented