

# How Programming Languages Work (Basics)

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2024/05/19

## Contents

Introduction .....	2
CPU and machine code : an overview .....	9
A glance at ARM64 machine (assembly) code .....	18
ARM64 instructions .....	26

# 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)*  $\rightarrow$  *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**

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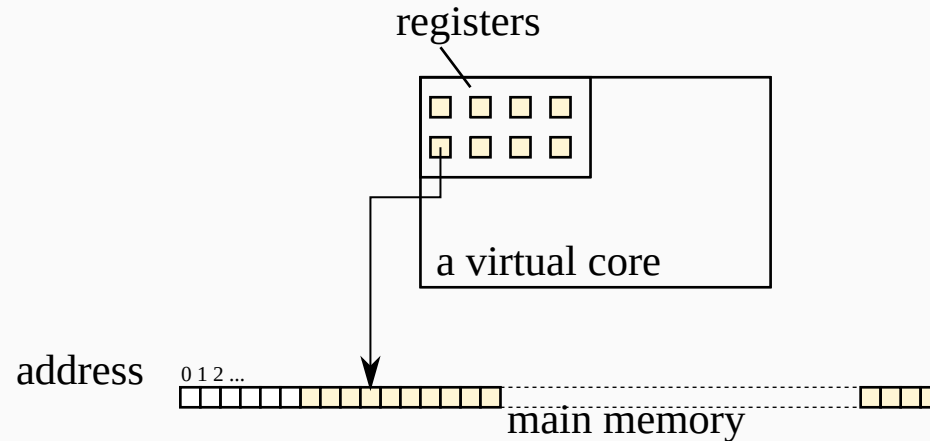
# High-level (programming) languages vs. assembly languages

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

high-level language	assembly language
variables	<i>registers and memory</i>
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

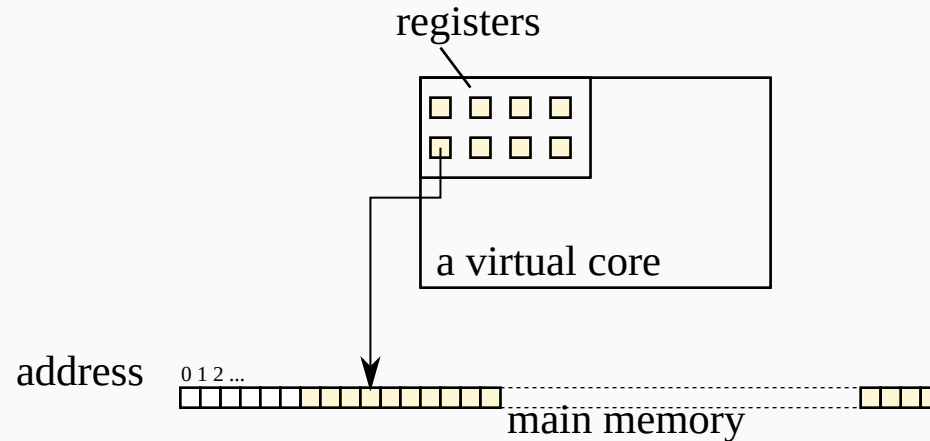


# Terminology note : CPU $\ni$ core $\ni$ virtual core

- 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
- a single instruction sequence is executed by a single OS-level *thread*, which is on a single virtual core at any given time
- this course is only concerned about single-thread execution

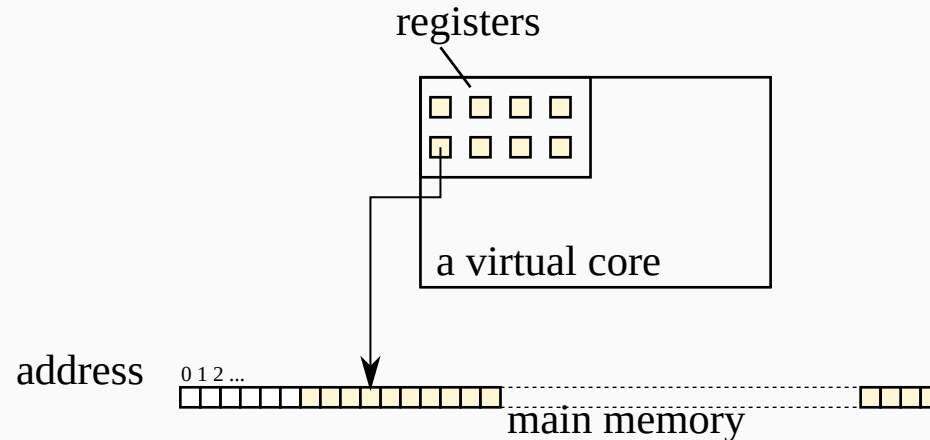
# Main memory

- $\approx$  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 virtual core is a machine that does the following:

repeat:

```
instruction = memory[program counter]
```

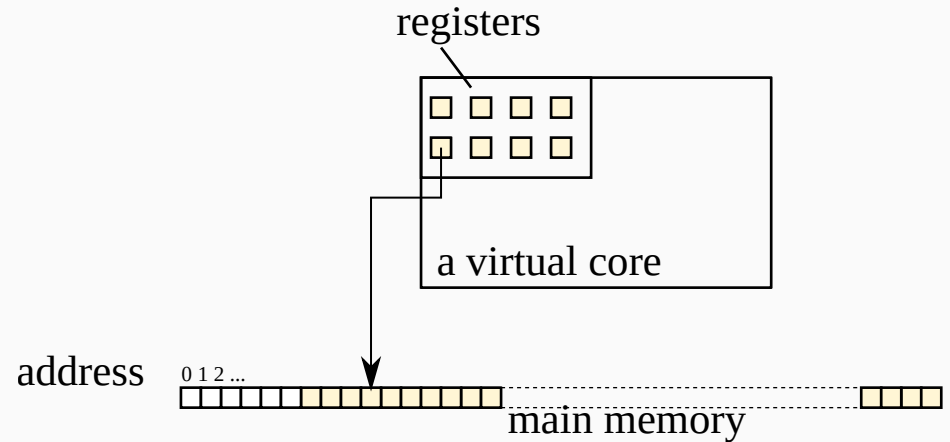
```
execute instruction
```

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



# What an instruction does

1. perform some computation on specified register(s) or a memory address
2. change the program counter,
  - typically to the address of the instruction immediately following it
  - except branch / jump instructions



# 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**

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# A glance at ARM64 machine (assembly) code

## Rust (add123.rs)

```
#[no_mangle]
pub fn add123(x:i64, y:i64) -> i64 {
    y + 123
}
```

```
$ rustc -O --emit asm --crate-type lib
add123.rs -o add123.s
```

## assembly (add123.s)

```
.text
.file    "pl06.lebfa1..."
.section .text.add123,...
.globl   add123
.p2align        2
.type     add123,@function

add123:
.cfi_startproc
add      x0, x1, #123
ret

.Lfunc_end0:
.size    add123, .Lfunc_end0-.Lfunc_start0
.cfi_endproc
```

# Insignificant lines

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

```
.text
.file    "pl06.lebfa1..."
.section .text.add123,...
.globl   add123
.p2align          2
.type     add123,@function

add123:
    .cfi_startproc
    add     x0, x1, #123
    ret
.Lfunc_end0:
    .size
add123, .Lfunc_end0-add123
    .cfi_endproc
```

# Insignificant lines

- indented lines starting with a dot (e.g., `.file`, `.section`, `.text`, etc.) are *directives* (not instructions) and largely not important
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```
add123:
```

```
    add    x0, x1, #123
```

```
    ret
```

```
.Lfunc_end0:
```

# How to read assembly

- focus on lines that are *instructions*
- look for a label *similar to* the function name — 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 read instructions

- ex.

```
add    x0, x1, #123
```

performs  $x0 = x1 + 123$

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



# ARM64 registers

- integer registers  $\times 32$ 
  - 64 bit :  $x0, x1, \dots, x31$
  - 32 bit :  $w0, w1, \dots, w31$ 
    - the lower 32 bits of  $x0, x1, \dots, x31$
- floating point registers  $\times 32$ 
  - 64 bit (double precision) :  $d0, d1, \dots, d31$
  - 32 bit (single precision):  $s0, s1, \dots, s31$ 
    - the lower 32 bits of  $d0, d1, \dots, d31$

# Implicit registers

- *condition code register (CC)* — holds the result of the last compare instruction
- *program counter register (PC)* — holds the address of the next instruction

# SIMD registers

- pack a few floating point numbers / integers in a register
- a SIMD instruction can perform an operation on all values on SIMD register(s)
- important for performance, but omitted in this course for brevity

# ARM64 instructions

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# ARM64 instruction categories

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

# Sources

- when you encounter unfamiliar instructions, see [Arm A-profile A64 Instruction Set Architecture](#)
- Cheat sheet
- Google / AI

# Arithmetic / move

assembly	pseudo C
<code>sub x0, x1, x2</code>	<code>x0 = x1 - x2</code>
<code>add x0, x1, x2</code>	<code>x0 = x1 + x2</code>
<code>mov x0, x1</code>	<code>x0 = x1</code>
<code>. . .</code>	<code>. . .</code>

- typically takes three operands
- the result is written to the first operand

# Load / store

	assembly	pseudo C
basic load	<code>ldr x0, [x1]</code>	<code>x0 = *(long*)x1</code>
basic store	<code>str x0, [x1]</code>	<code>*(long*)x1 = x0</code>
offset	<code>ldr x0, [x1, #8]</code>	<code>x0 = *(long*)(x1+8)</code>
scaled offset	<code>ldr x0, [x1, x2, lsl #3]</code>	<code>x0 = *(long*)(x1 + (x2&lt;&lt;3))</code>
pre-increment	<code>ldr x0, [x1, #8]!</code>	<code>x1 += 8; x0 = *(long*)x1</code>
post-increment	<code>ldr x0, [x1], #8</code>	<code>x0 = *(long*)x1; x1 += 8</code>
negative offset	<code>ldur x0, [x1, #-8]</code>	<code>x0 = *(long*)(x1 - 8)</code>
load pair	<code>ldp x0, x1, [x2]</code>	<code>x0 = *(long*)x2; x1 = *(long*)(x2 + 8)</code>

- there are similar variations for store



# Compare and conditional branches

<code>cmp x0, x1</code>	$CC = x0 - x1$
<code>b.eq label</code>	if $CC = 0$ , goto <i>label</i>
<code>b.lt label</code>	if $CC < 0$ (signed), goto <i>label</i>
<code>b.le label</code>	if $CC \leq 0$ (signed), goto <i>label</i>
<code>b.lo label</code>	if $CC < 0$ (unsigned), goto <i>label</i>
...	...

- notes:
  - $CC = \textit{condition code register}$
  - $CC$  does not hold the value of  $x0 - x1$  itself
  - but holds whether it is  $> 0$ ,  $= 0$ ,  $< 0$ , etc. as a bit sequence

# Other jump variants

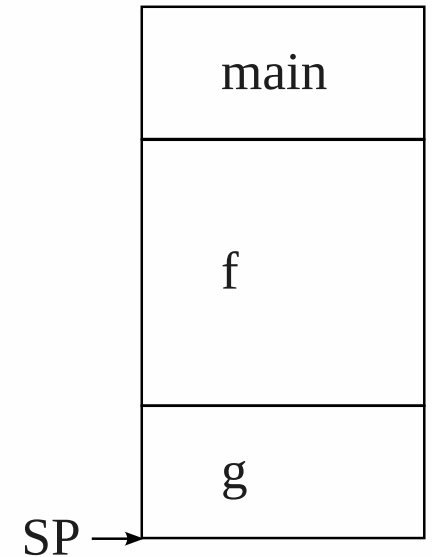
<b>b</b> <i>label</i>	goto <i>label</i>	
<b>bl</b> <i>label</i>	goto <i>label</i> ; <code>x30</code> = the next address of the <b>bl</b>	(*)
<b>ret</b>	goto the address in <code>x30</code>	(†)

- (\*) used for calling a function; set `x30` to the address to return after the function
- (†) used for returning from a function; jump to the “return address”, presumably set by the **bl** instruction that called it

# How function calls work — overview

- memory may be required to execute a function, to remember local variables
  - *activation frame* or *stack frame* of a function call
- since life time of a function call is nested inside that of the caller, they are typically LIFO data structure (i.e., stack)

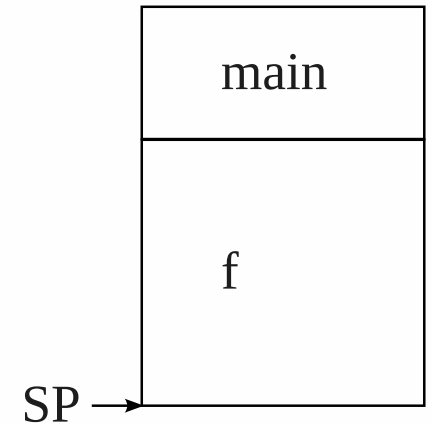
```
int main() {  
    ... f(...) ...  
    ... i(...) ...  
}  
void f(...) {  
    ... g(...) ...  
    ... h(...) ...  
}
```



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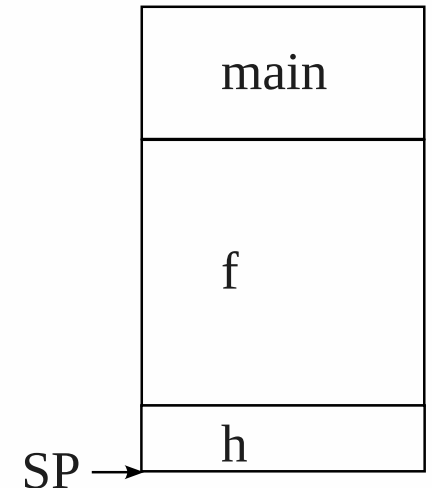
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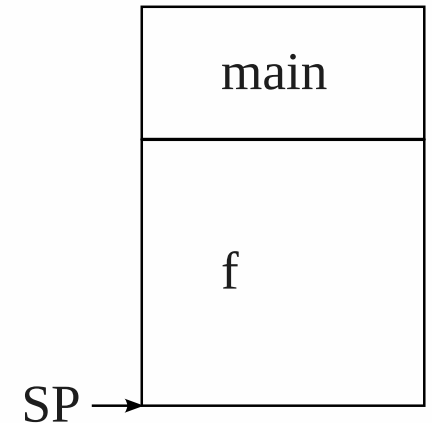
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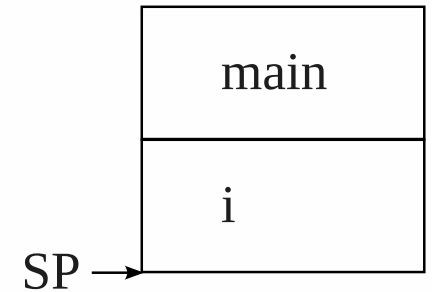
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}
```

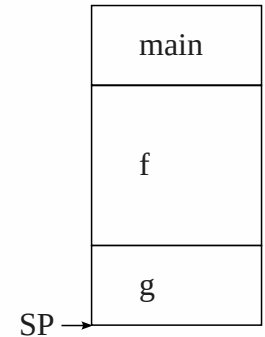




# Note about the stack data structure

- a register, typically called *stack pointer* or *SP*, points to the end of the used part of the stack
- the entire stack is typically a single contiguous region, but it doesn't have to
- if it is, allocating an activation frame from the stack just entails bumping a stack pointer

```
int main() {  
    ... f(...) ...  
    ... i(...) ...  
}  
void f(...) {  
    ... g(...) ...  
    ... h(...) ...  
}
```



# Looking into a function call

- rules must exist for function calls to work
  1. where are arguments
  2. where to jump after finished (*return address*)
  3. where to use if the function wants to use memory
  4. which registers must be preserved across a call
  5. where to pass the return value
- they are variously called
  - *calling convention, register usage convention, or*
  - *Application Binary Interface (ABI)*

# Application Binary Interface (ABI) of ARM64

Omitting details you should learn through experiments (and which may be language-dependent),

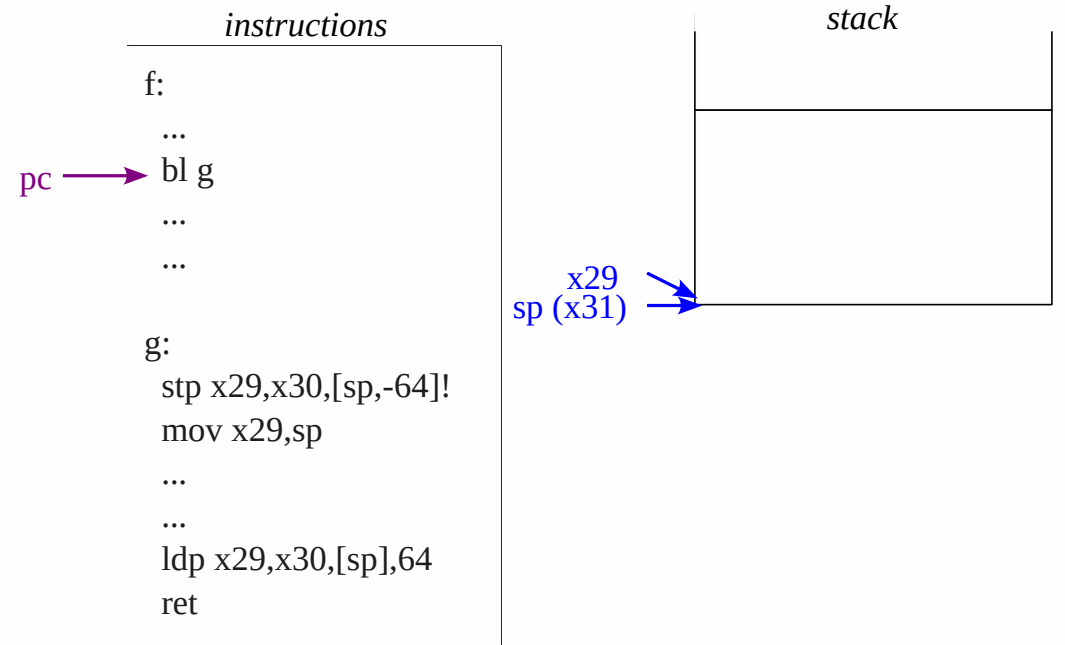
- upon entry:
  - arguments: `x0`, `x1`, ... (integers), `d0`, `d1`, ... (floats)
  - return address: `x30`
  - `sp` points to the end of the stack, below which the callee can use for its purpose

# Application Binary Interface (ABI) of ARM64

- upon return:
  - return value: `x0` (integer), `d0` (float)
  - `x19` - `x28` must hold the same values as those upon entry  
*(callee-save registers)*
  - the following registers must also be preserved
    - `x29` (*frame pointer*),
    - `x30` (*link register or return address register*),
    - `sp` (*stack pointer*)
- `x0` - `x15` can be destroyed by the callee *(caller-save registers)*

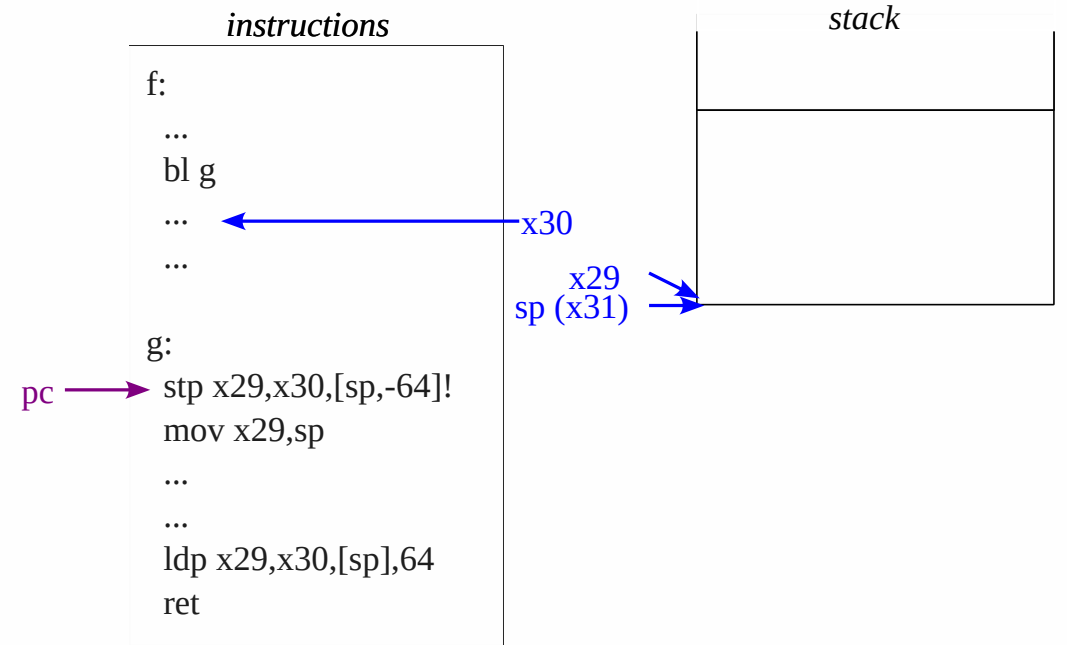
# A function call in action

- say `f` is calling `g`
- `f` puts arguments at right places and executes `bl g` instruction



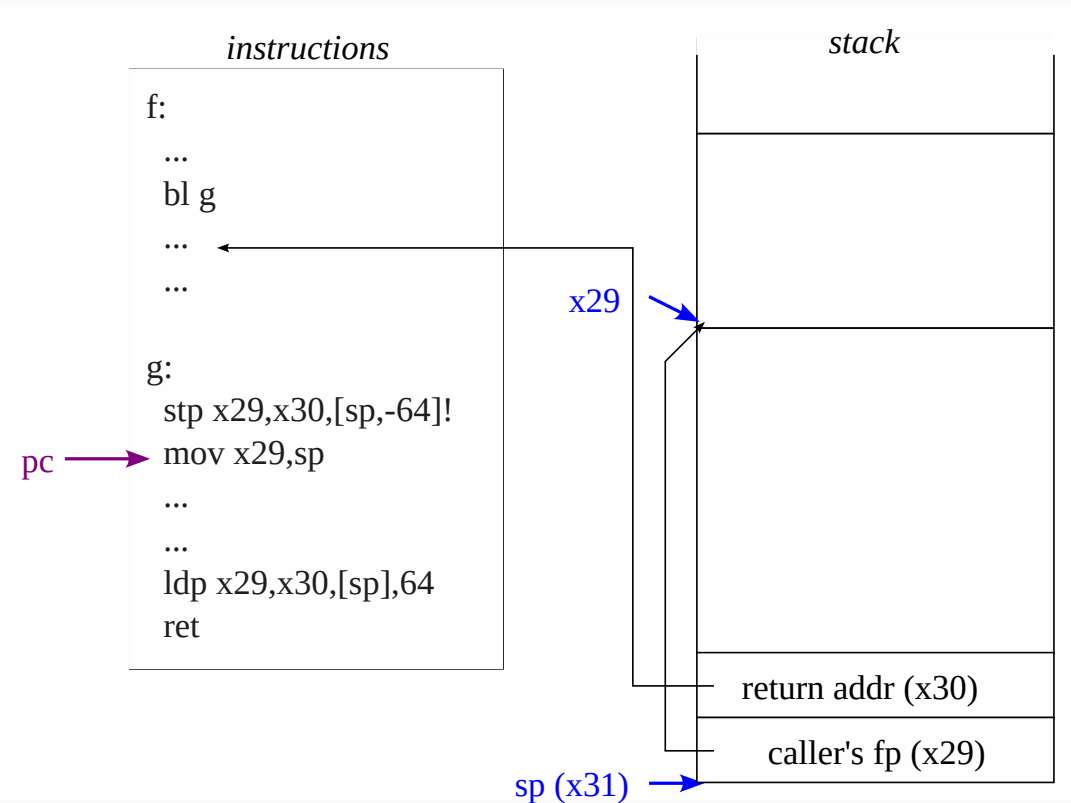
# A function call in action

- x30 now holds the **return address** (address of the instruction immediately following `bl g`)
- if `g` calls another function, it first extends the stack and saves x30 and x29 (typically by `stp x29,x30,[sp,#-??]`)



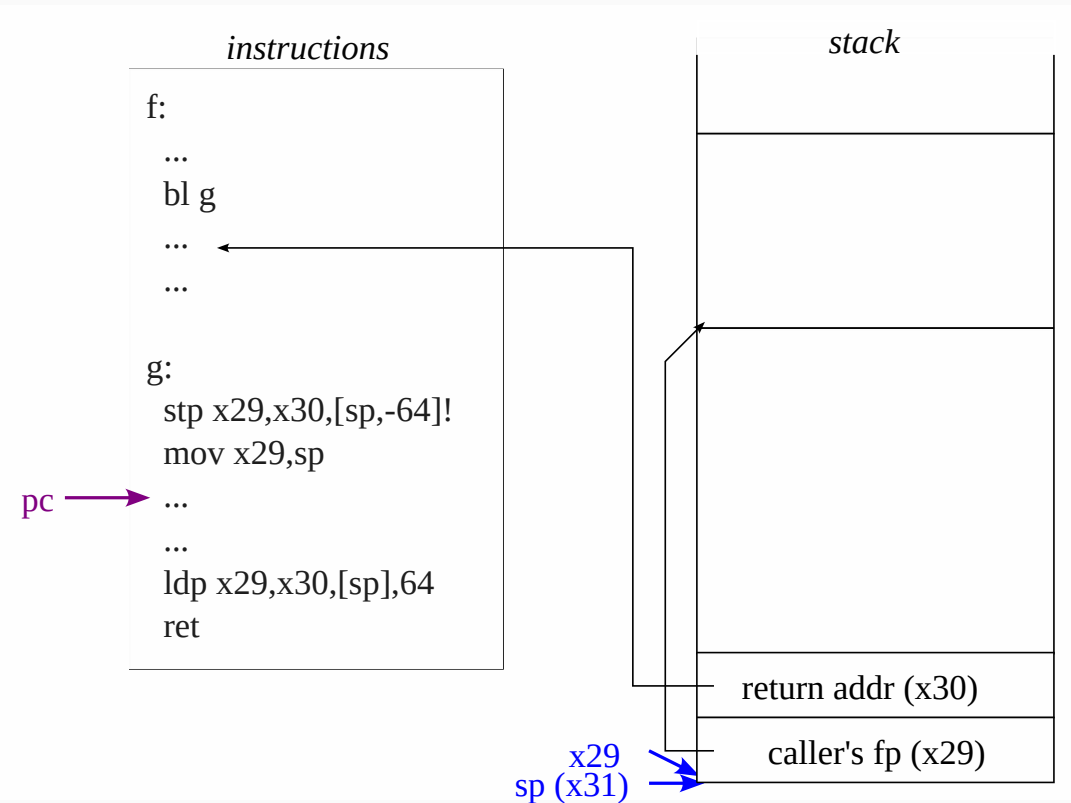
# A function call in action

- it then sets up *frame pointer* (x29), typically to the same as sp (more on this later)



# A function call in action

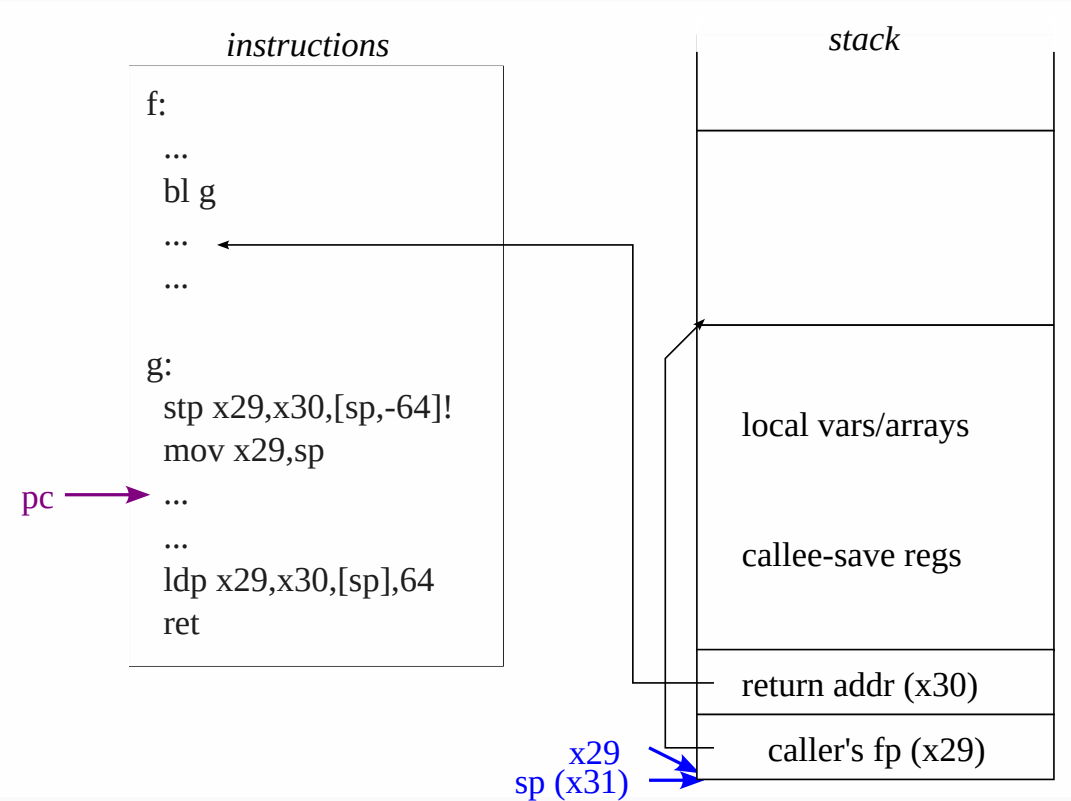
- if it uses some callee-save registers, it saves them on stack





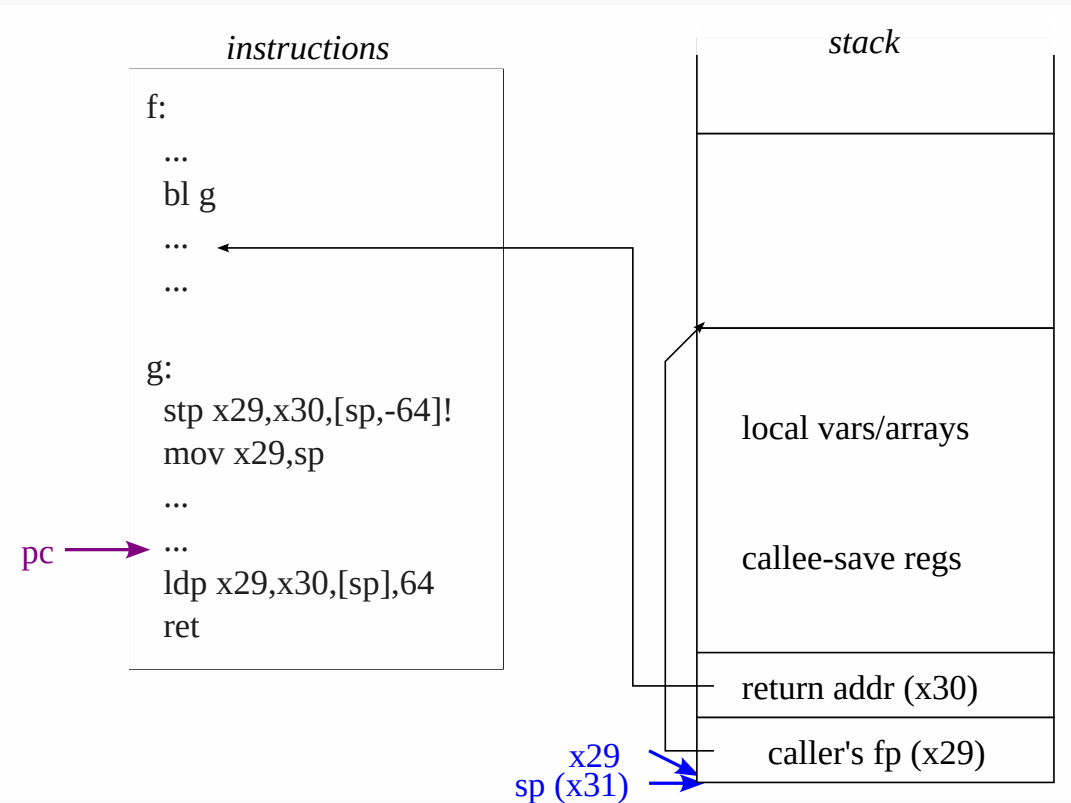
# A function call in action

- `g` is now really ready to execute ...



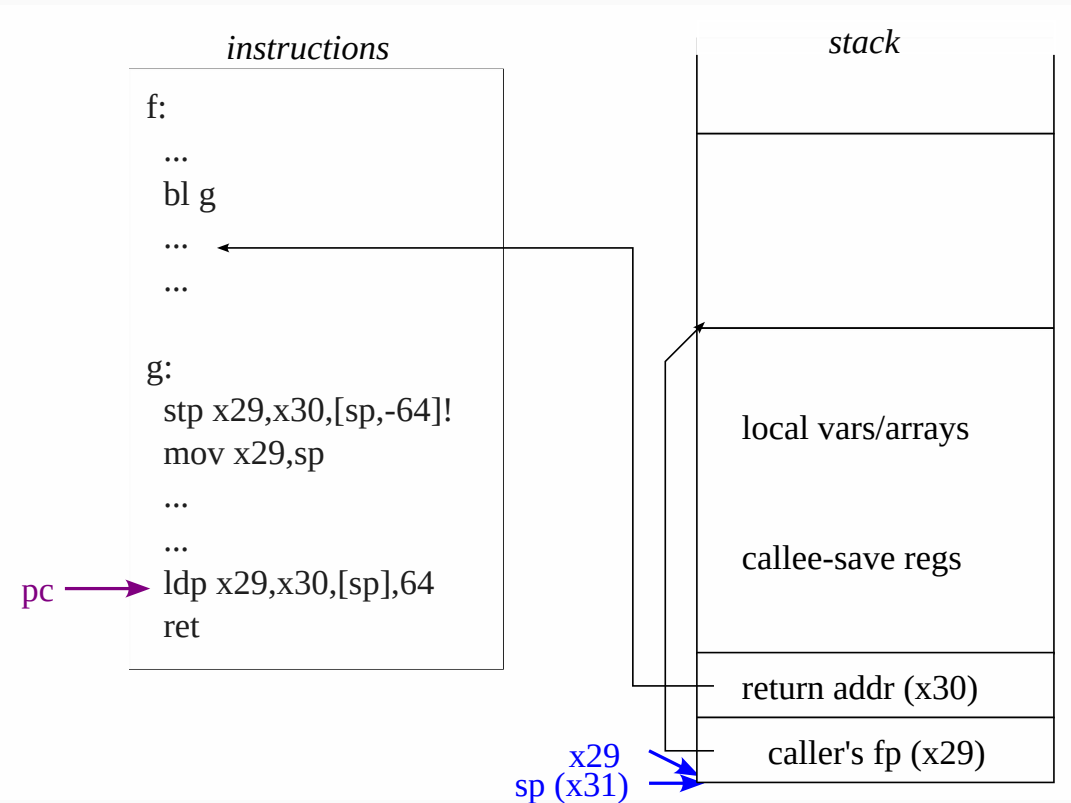
# A function call in action

- ... before it returns,
- it restores callee-save registers, if any



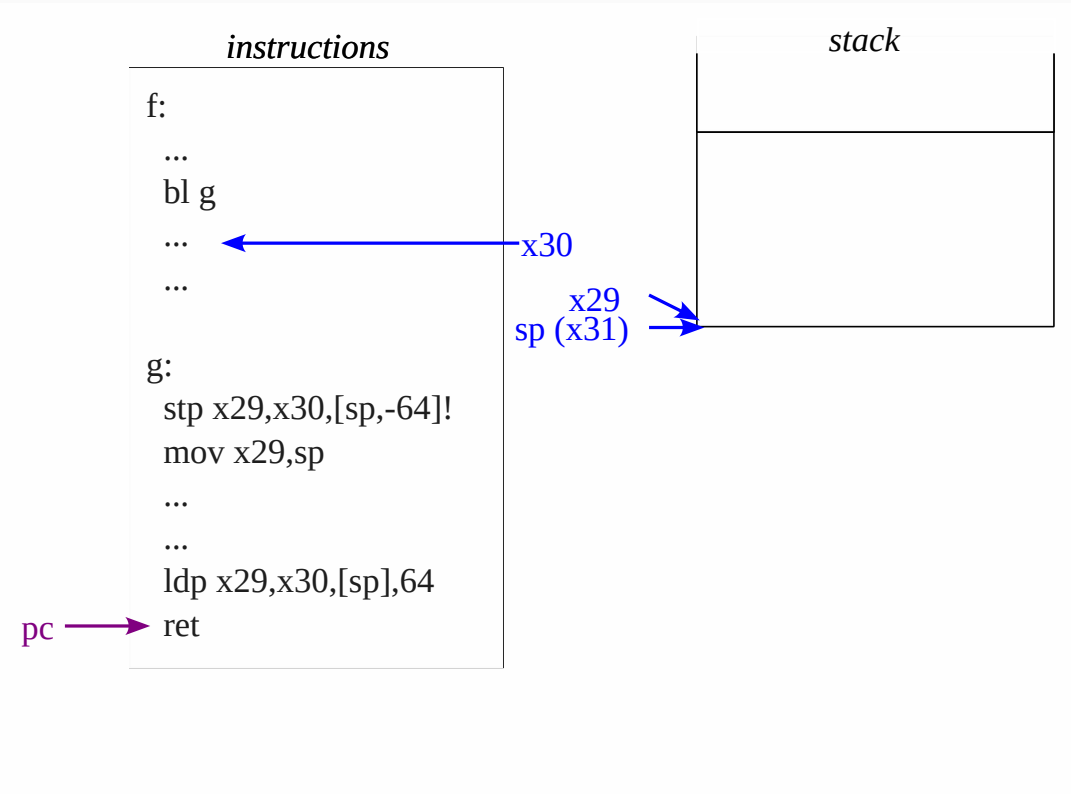
# A function call in action

- it then restores `x29` and `x30` and shrinks the stack (typically by `ldp x29,x30,[sp],64`, `[sp],??`)



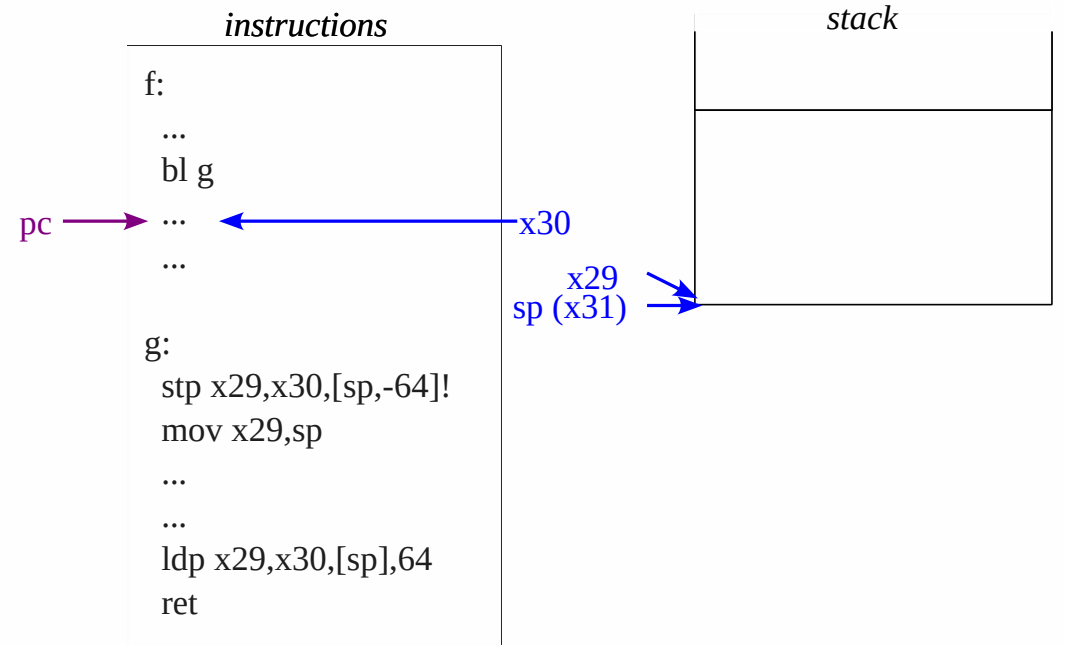
# A function call in action

- it finally executes `ret`, which jumps to the address in `x30`, which should hold the return address just restored



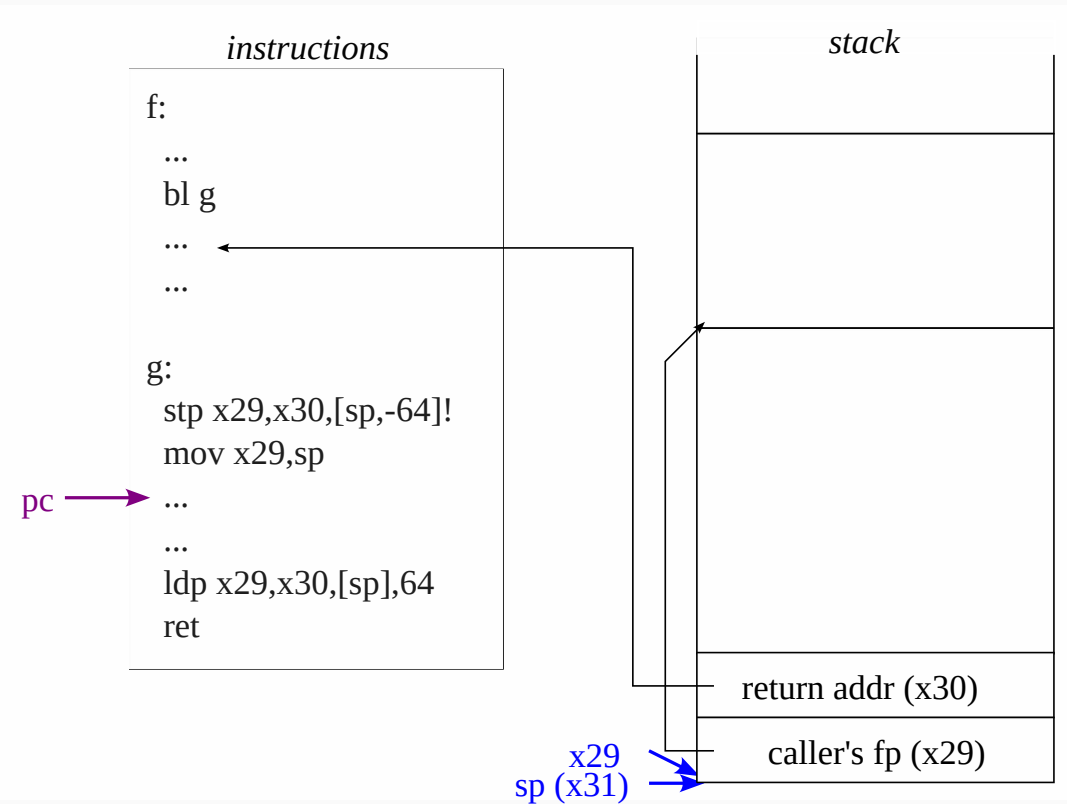
# A function call in action

- execution of `f` continues, from the instruction immediately following the `bl`



# Note: stack pointer (SP) and frame pointer (FP)

- they are usually the same
- more generally,
  - SP may change while executing a function (e.g., when dynamically allocating memory from stack with `alloca`)
  - FP is fixed and always points to where the caller's FP is stored



# Things to learn in the exercise

1. **calling convention / ABI:** how a function call works
2. **control flow:** how conditionals and loops are implemented
3. **data representation:** how various data types (ints, floats, structs, pointers, arrays) are represented