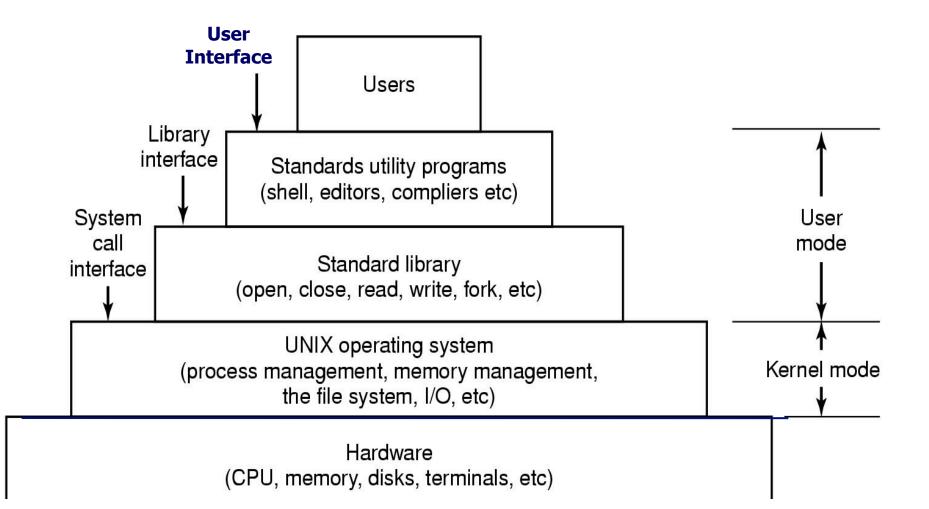
Computer Systems Organization

Outline

- gcc The Compiler Driver
- cpp The Preprocessor
- **The Virtual Address Space**
- Linking
- The Operating System
 - The File System
 - Processes
 - The Memory Hierarchy
- **Program Execution**

A software view



How it works

hello.c program

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
    printf("hello, world\n");
}
```

The gcc compilation system

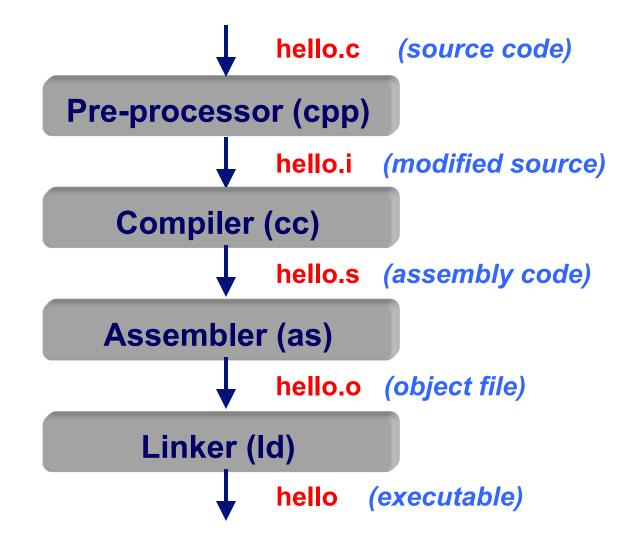
gcc is a *compiler driver*

gcc is a script program

gcc invokes the compilation phases

- Preprocessor
- Compiler
- Assembler
- Linker

The gcc compilation system



The Preprocessor: cpp

First step: gcc compiler driver invokes cpp

Output is expanded C source

cpp does text substitution

Converts the C source file to another C source file

Expands

#define

#include

#if...

Output is another C source file

The Preprocessor: cpp

Included files:

#include <foo.h>

#include "bar.h"

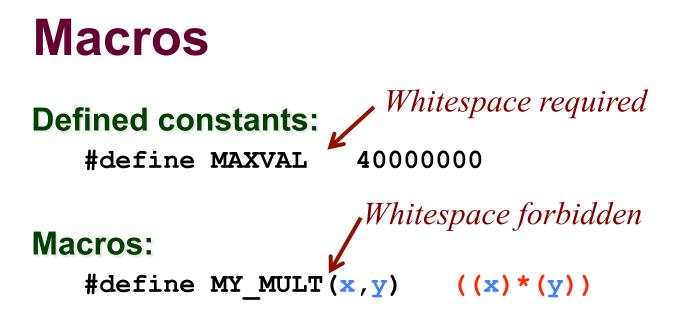
Defined constants:

#define MAXVAL 4000000

By convention, all capitals tells us it's a constant, not a variable.

Macros:

#define MY_MULT(x,y) ((x)*(y))
#define MIN(x,y) ((x)<(y) ? (x):(y))
#define RIDX(i, j, n) ((i) * (n) + (j))</pre>



Input to cpp:

$$a = MY_MULT(b+c, d-foo(17));$$

Input to compiler:

a = ((b+c) * (d-foo(17)));

Macros - Why the parens?

Defined constants: #define MAXVAL 4000000 Macros: #define MY_MULT(x,y) (x * y)

Input to cpp:

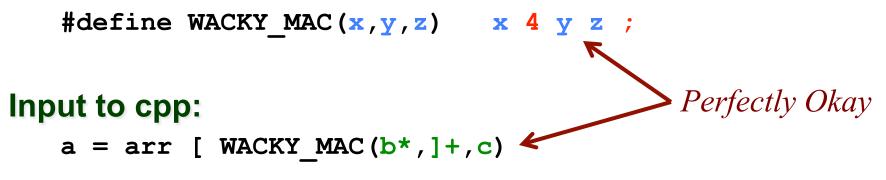
$$a = MY_MULT(b+c, d-foo(17));$$

Input to compiler:

a = (b+c * d-foo(17));

Macros – Just Textual Substitution

Macros:



Substituting:

a = arr [x 4 y z ;

Input to compiler: a = arr [b* 4]+ c ; a = arr[b*4] + c ; No syntax error, after all!

Conditional Compilation

Conditional compilation:

#ifdef ... or #if defined(...)
#endif

Code you think you may need again (e.g. debug print statements)

Include or exclude code based on #define/#ifdef

More readable than commenting code out

```
Portability
```

Compilers have "built in" constants defined

Operating system specific code

```
#if defined(__i386__) || defined(WIN32) || ...
```

Compiler-specific code

```
#if defined(__INTEL_COMPILER)
```

Processor-specific code

```
#if defined(__SSE__)
```

Compiler

Next, gcc compiler driver invokes cc to generate assembly code

Translates C source code into assembly code.

<u>Variables</u>: mapped to memory locations and registers.

Logical and arithmetic operations: mapped to underlying machine opcodes

Assembler

Next, gcc compiler driver invokes as to generate object code

Translates assembly code into binary object code that can be directly executed by CPU

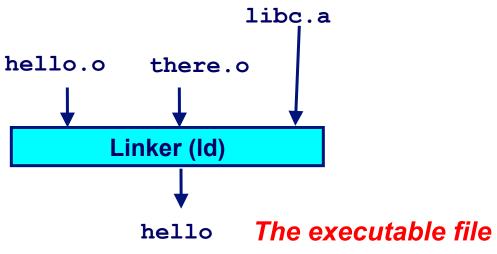
Linker

Finally, gcc compiler driver calls linker (Id) to generate executable

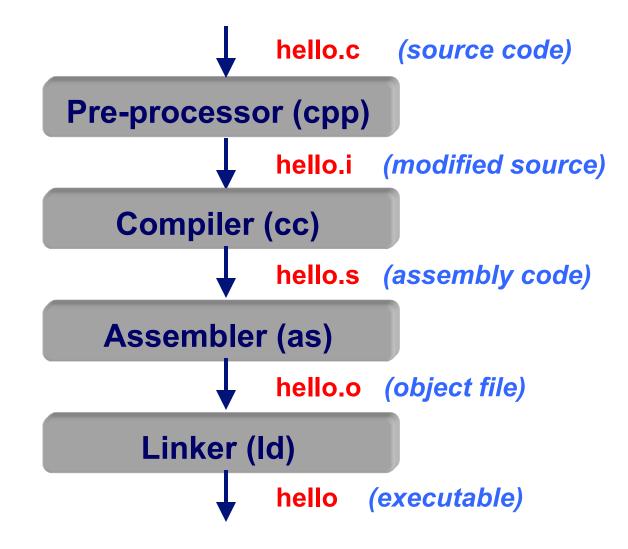
Combine:

- One or more object files.
- Functions from (static) libraries, as needed.
- Create:
 - The executable file





The gcc compilation system



GCC variations

Stop after the preprocessor

gcc -E hello.c

Stop after the C compiler

gcc -S hello.c

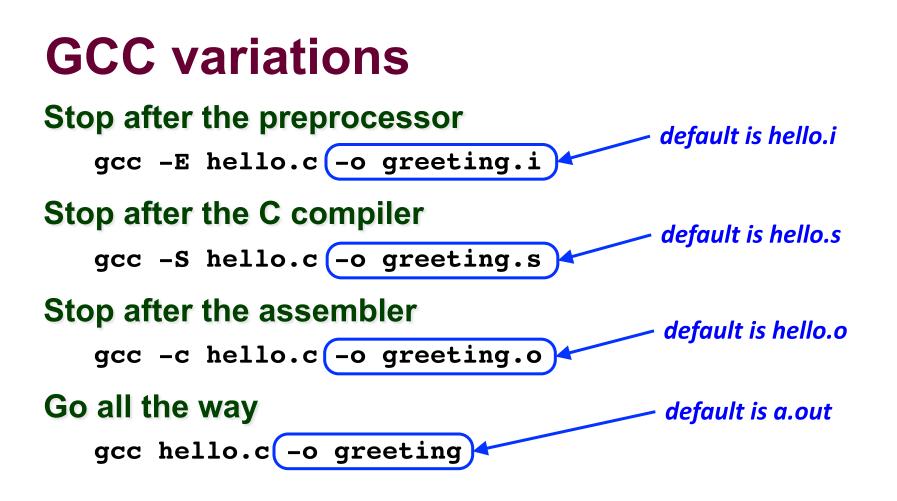
Stop after the assembler

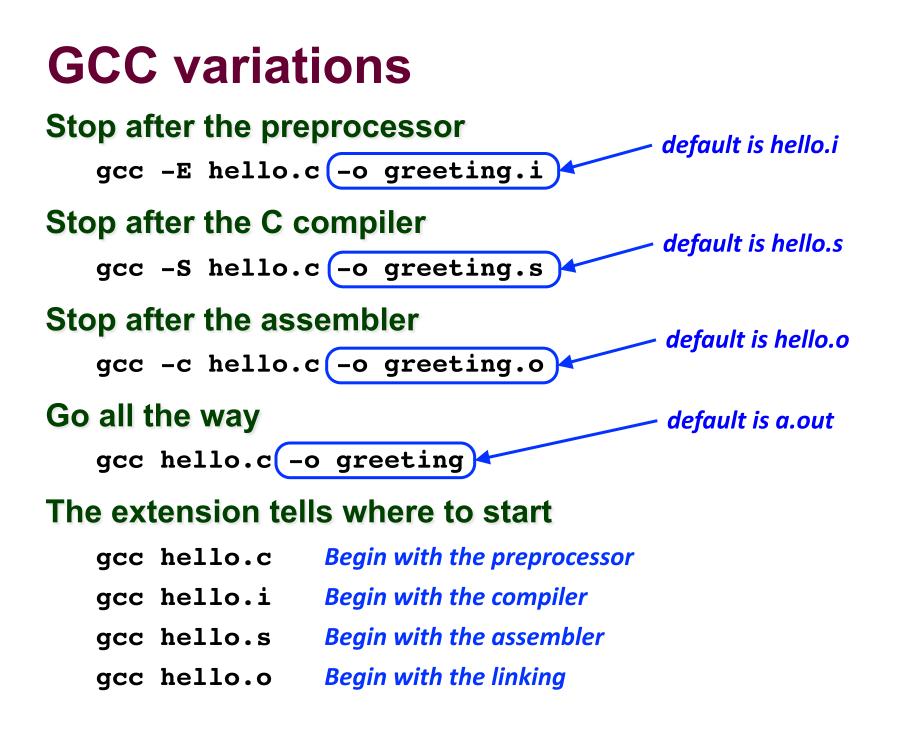
gcc -c hello.c

Go all the way

gcc hello.c -o greeting

default is a.out





GCC variations

Print all warnings:

gcc -Wall hello.c

Produce an assembler listing & stop:

gcc -Wa,-alh hello.c -c

Optimize the code:

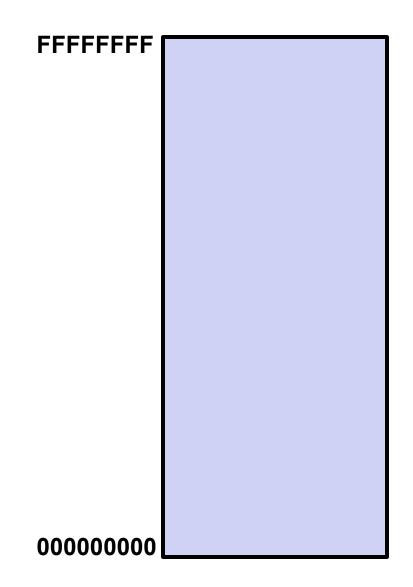
gcc -01 hello.c

Include info for gdb and don't optimize too much:

gcc -g -Og hello.c

Compile for 32-bits or 64-bits:

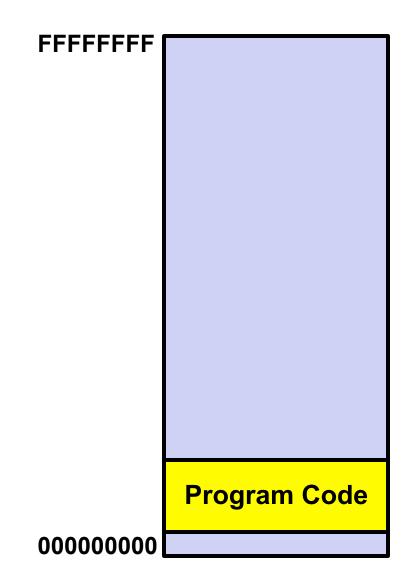
gcc -m32 hello.c gcc -m64 hello.c



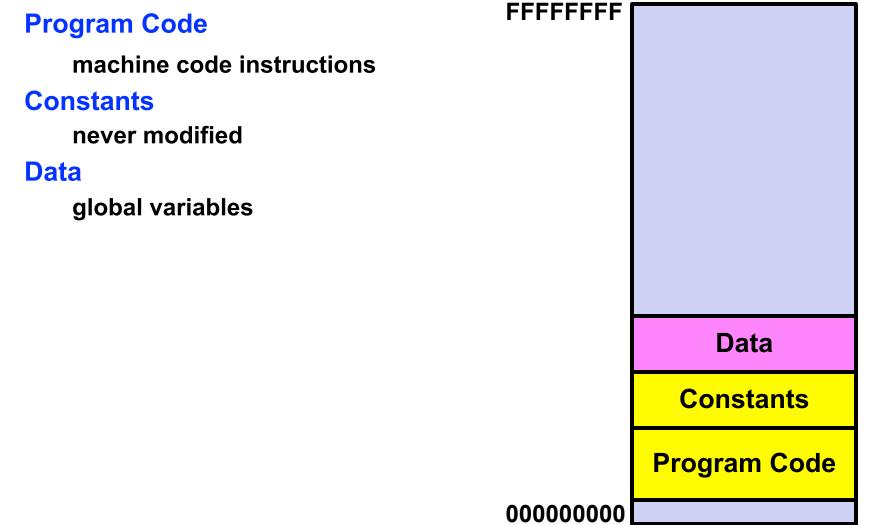
What goes into memory?

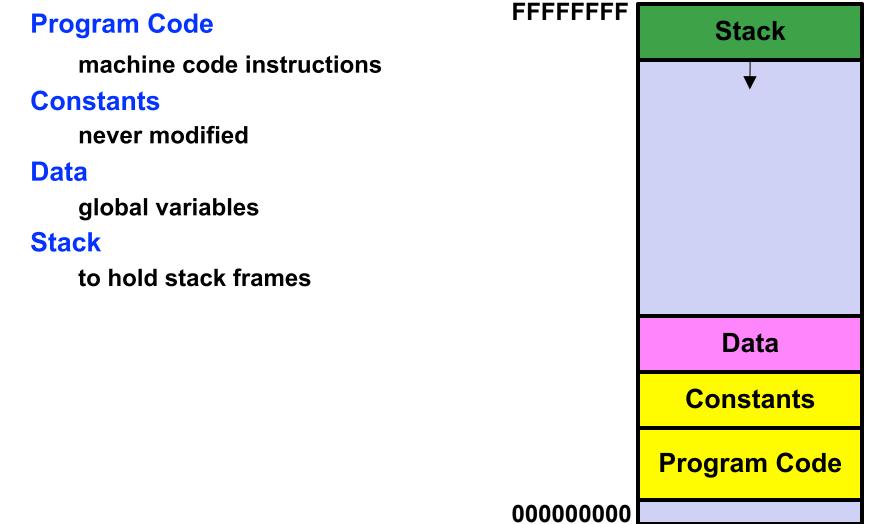
Program Code

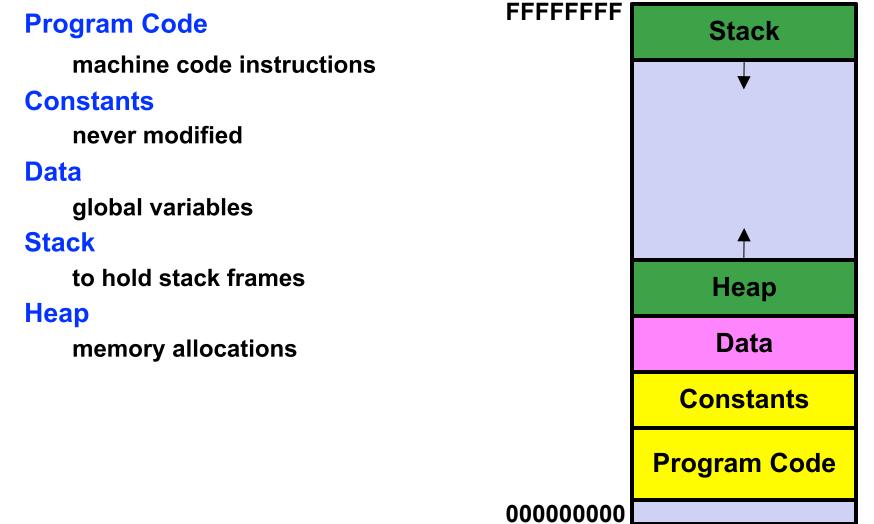
machine code instructions



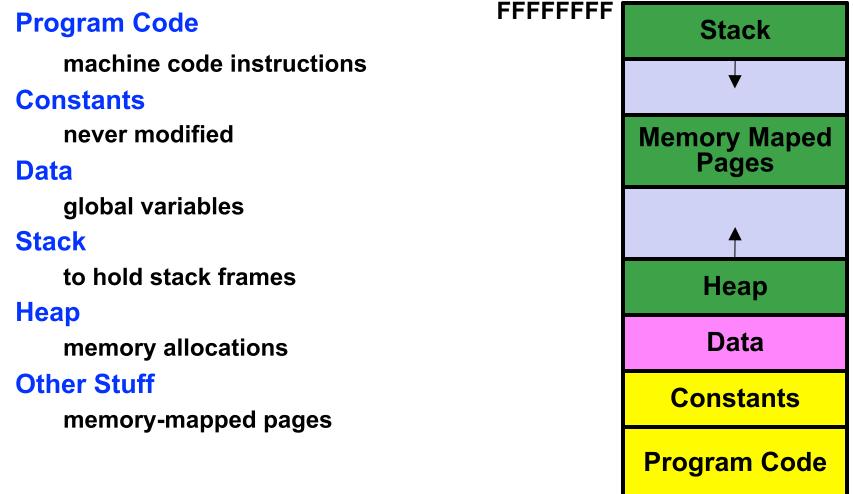
The Virtual Address Space What goes into memory? FFFFFFF **Program Code** machine code instructions **Constants** never modified **Constants Program Code** 00000000



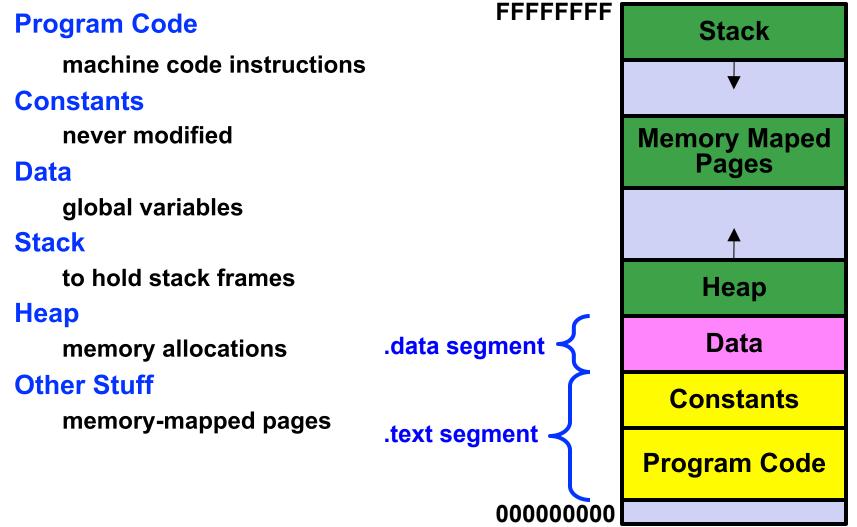




What goes into memory?

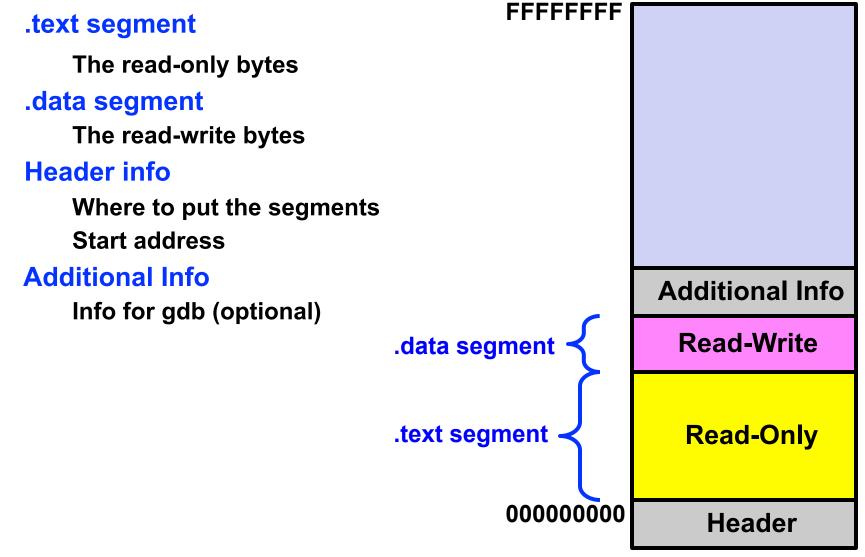


00000000



The Executable File

What is in an ELF file?



Why Link?

- Program is composed of smaller source files, rather than one monolithic mass.
- Build one big library containing all common functions libc.a (Standard C Library); libm.a (Math Library)
- Quicker Program Build

Change one source file, compile, and then relink. No need to recompile other source files.

- Programs contain only the functions they actually use Smaller executable files; less runtime memory usage
- Many useful functions collected into a single library file The library is used by all programs

The linking process (Id)

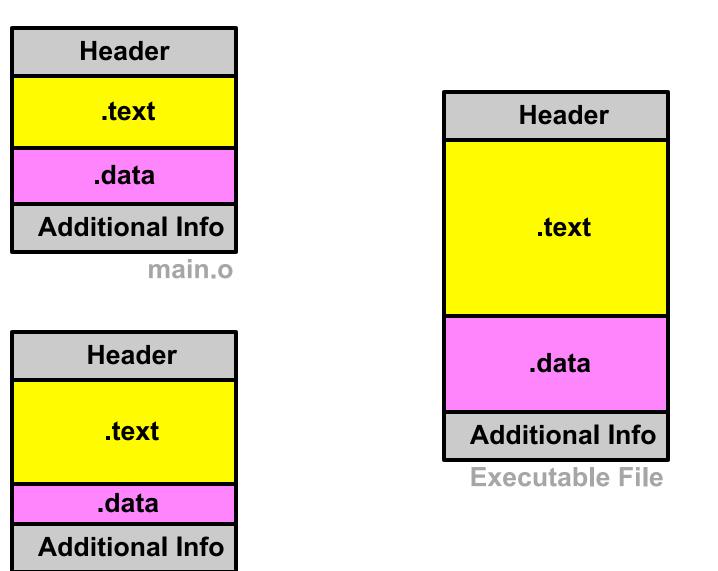
Merges multiple relocatable (.o) object files into a single executable program.

Resolves external references

External reference: reference to a symbol defined in another object file.

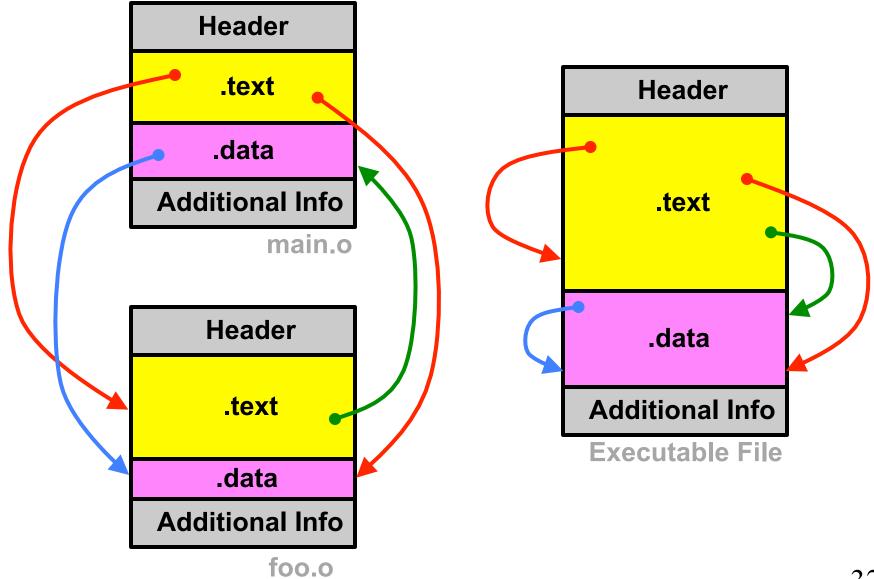
Ensures each symbol is uniquely defined

The Linking Process



foo.o

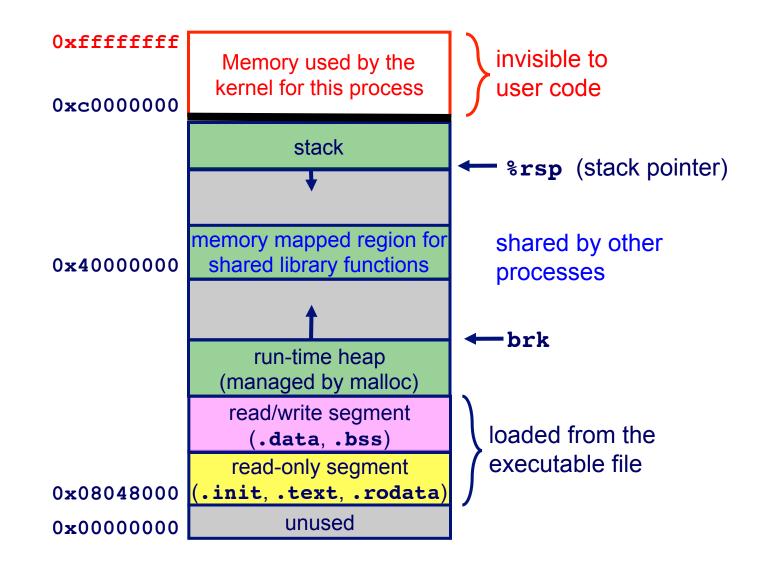
Resolving External References



32

Example Virtual Address Space

This is what the program "sees"



Libraries and Linking

Two types of libraries

- **Static libraries**
 - Library of code that linker copies into the executable at <u>compile time</u>

Dynamic shared object libraries

The function is loaded at <u>run-time</u> by system loader upon execution

Three Kinds of Object Files (Modules)

Relocatable object file (.o file)

Contains code and data in a form that can be combined with other relocatable object files to form executable object file. Each .o file is produced from exactly one source (.c) file

Executable object file (a.out file)

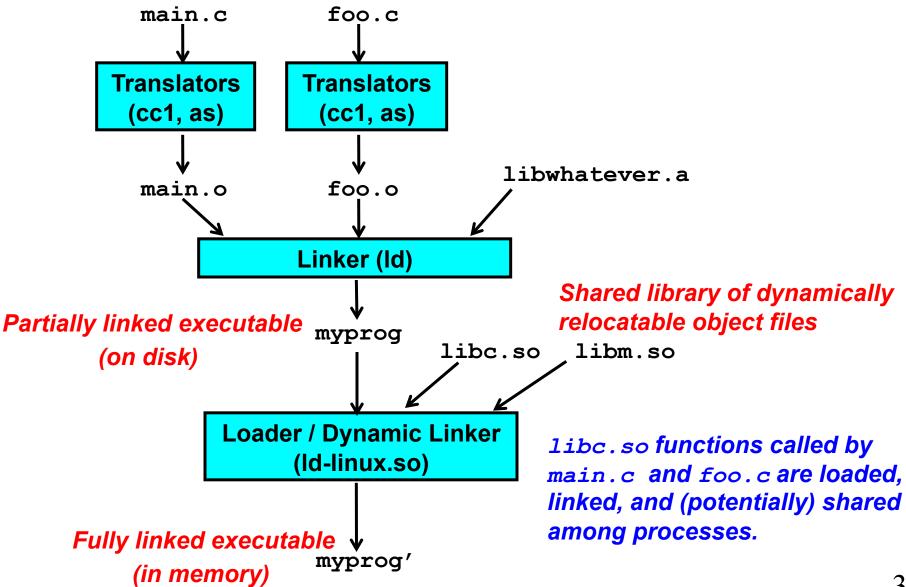
Contains code and data in a form that can be copied directly into memory and then executed.

Shared object file (.so file)

Special type of relocatable object file that can be loaded into memory and linked dynamically, at either load time or runtime.

Called Dynamic Link Libraries (DLLs) by Windows

The Complete Picture



The Operating System

Programs run on top of operating system

OS implements

- File system
- Memory management
- Processes
- Device management
- Network support
- etc.

Operating system functions

Protection

- Protects the hardware/itself from user programs
- Protects user programs from each other
- Protects files from unauthorized access

Resource allocation

Memory, I/O devices, CPU time, space on disks

Operating system functions

Abstract view of resources

- Files \rightarrow an abstraction of storage devices
- System Calls \rightarrow an abstraction for OS services
- Virtual memory → a uniform memory space for each process Gives the illusion that each process has entire memory space
- A process \rightarrow an abstraction for a virtual computer

"Timeslicing" – Dividing CPU time into pieces

Each program gets a slice of time

All programs make progress, but only when they "have" the CPU

Each program must wait when other programs are executing

Unix file system

Key concepts

Everything is a file.

- Keyboards, mice, CD-ROMS, disks, modems, networks, pipes, sockets
- One abstraction for accessing most external things

A file is a stream of bytes with no other structure. Higher levels of structure are an application concept, not an

operating system concept

Unix file systems

Managed by OS on disk

- Dynamically allocates space for files
- Implements a name space so we can find files
- Hides where the file lives and its physical layout on disk
- Provides an illusion of sequential storage

All we have to know to find a file is its name

Process abstraction

A fundamental concept of operating systems.

A process is an instance of a program when it is running.

A program is a file on the disk containing instructions to execute

• A recipe for cookies

A process is an instance of that program loaded in memory and running

• The act of baking a particular batch of cookies

A process includes:

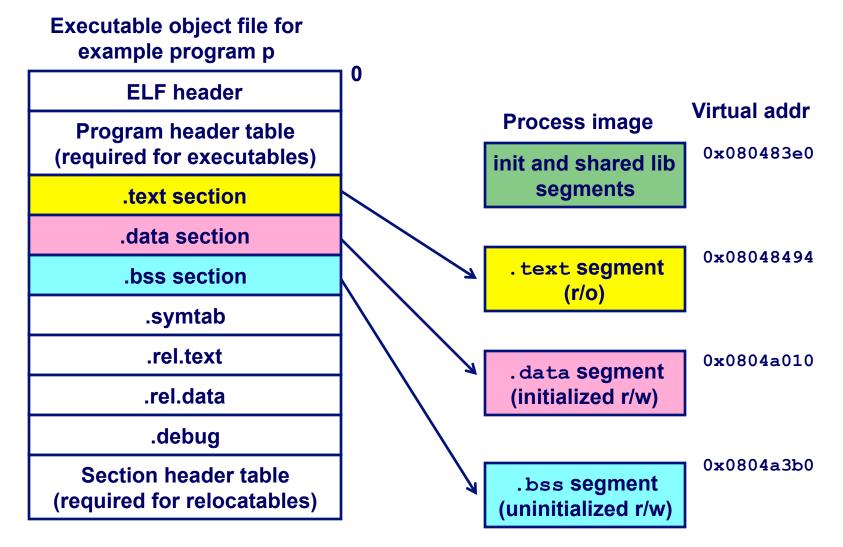
- Code and data in memory
- CPU state
- Open files
- Thread of execution

How does a program get executed?

The operating system creates a process.

- Including a virtual address space
- System loader reads executable from file system and loads into memory
 - Already includes statically linked library functions
- System loader loads dynamic shared objects/libraries into memory
- Then it starts the thread of execution running
 - Registers & Stack are initialized
 - The thread is scheduled (Jump to the starting addresses)

Loading Executable Binaries



Where are programs loaded in memory?

To start with, imagine a primitive operating system.

- Only one process at a time
- Physical memory addresses go from zero to N.

The problem of loading is simple

- Load the program at address zero
- Use as much memory as it takes.
- Linker binds the program to absolute addresses
 - Code starts at zero
 - Data concatenated after that

Where are programs loaded, cont'd

Next imagine a multi-tasking operating system on a primitive computer.

- Physical memory space, from zero to N.
- Applications share space
- Memory allocated at load time in unused space
- Linker does not know where the program will be loaded
- Binds together all the modules, but keeps them relocatable

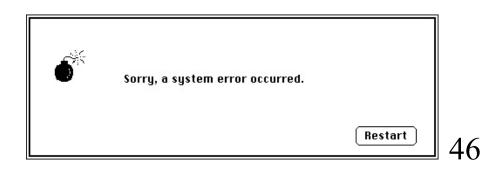
How does the operating system load this program?

Not a pretty solution, must find contiguous unused blocks

How does the operating system provide protection?

Not pretty either





Where are programs loaded, cont'd

- Next, imagine a multi-tasking operating system on a modern computer, with hardware-assisted virtual memory
- The OS creates a virtual memory space for each user's program.
 - As though there is a single user with the whole memory all to itself.

Now we're back to the simple model

- The linker statically binds the program to virtual addresses
- At load time, the operating system allocates memory, creates a virtual address space, and loads the code and data.

Modern linking and loading

Dynamic linking and loading

- Single, uniform, "flat" VM address space
- But, code must be relocatable again
 - Many dynamic libraries, no fixed/reserved addresses to map them into
 - As a security feature to prevent predictability in exploits (Address-Space Layout Randomization)

The memory hierarchy

Operating system and CPU memory management unit gives each process the "illusion" of a uniform, dedicated memory space

- i.e. 0x0 0xFFFFFFF for IA32
- Allows multitasking
- Hides underlying non-uniform memory hierarchy

Memory heirarchy motivation

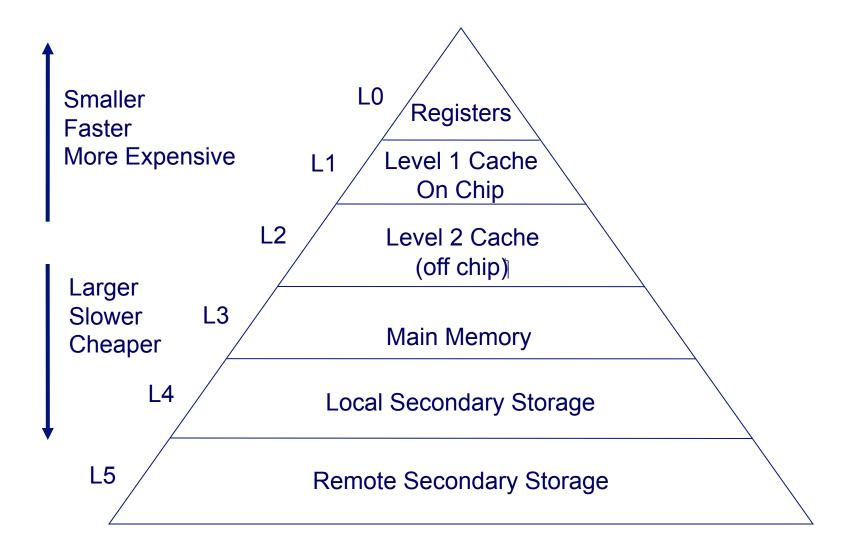
In 1980

- CPUs ran at around 1 mHz.
- A memory access took about as long as a CPU instruction
- Memory was not a bottleneck to performance

Today

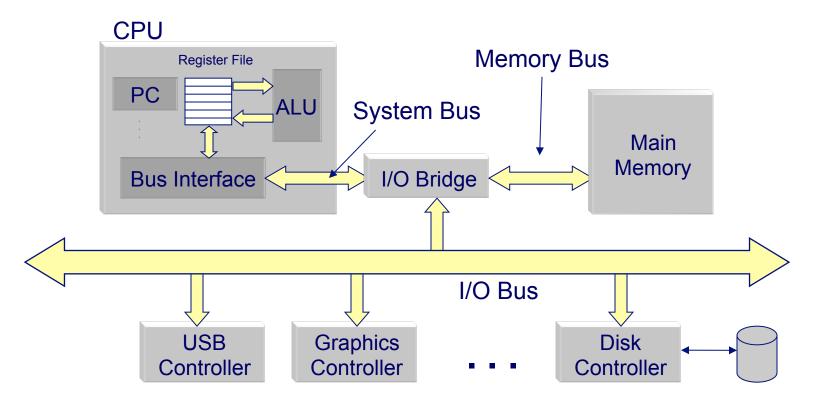
- CPUs are about 3000 times faster than in 1980
- DRAM Memory is about 10 times faster than in 1980
- We need a small amount of faster, more expensive memory for stuff we'll need in the near future
 - How do you know what you'll need in the future?
 - Locality
 - L1, L2, L3 caches

The memory heirarchy

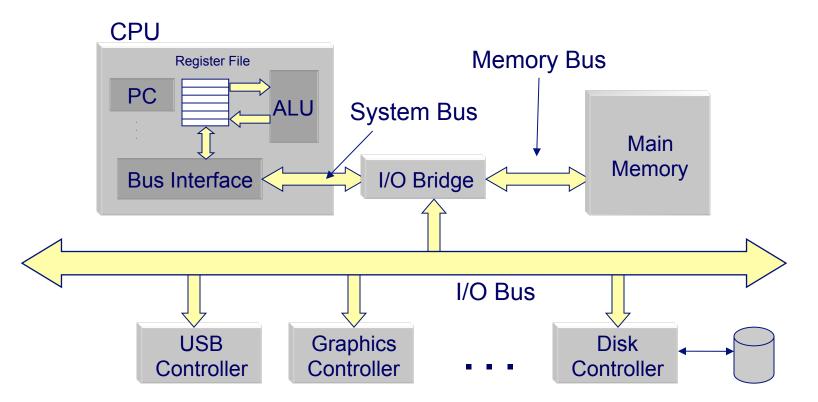


Hardware organization

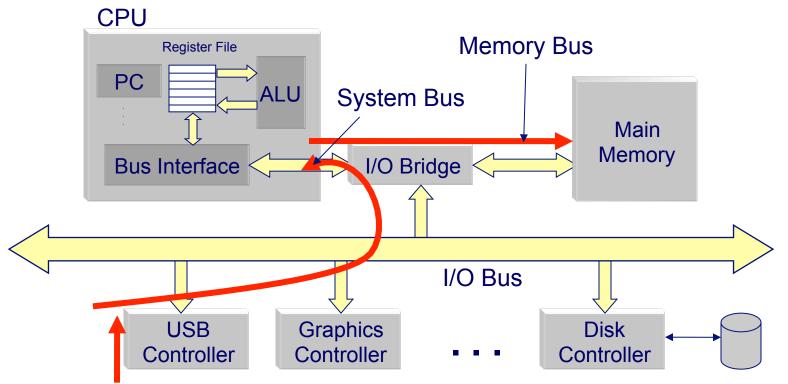
The last piece...how does it all run on hardware?



1. Shell process running, waiting for input



- 3. Command read into registers
- 4. Before sent to main memory before being read by shell process



2. User types ./hello

5. Shell process creates new process through OS and initiates DMA of hello executable from disk to main memory

