inst.eecs.berkeley.edu/~cs61c CS61CL: Machine Structures

Lecture #7 – Compilation, Assembly, and Linking

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Review: Two's Complement

 Change every 0 to 1 and 1 to 0 (invert or complement), then add 1 to the result



Review: IEEE 754 Single Precision FP

• Reserve exponents, significands:

Exponent	Significand	Object
0	0	+/- 0
0	nonzero	+/- Denorm
1-254	anything	+/- Norm
255	0	+/- ∞
255	nonzero	NaN



Review: Rounding

- When we perform math on floating point numbers, we have to worry about rounding to fit the result in the significand field.
- The FP hardware carries two extra bits of precision, and then round to get the proper value
- Rounding also occurs when converting:
 double to a single precision value
 floating point number to an integer
 integer > ____ to floating point

Review: IEEE FP Rounding Modes

Examples in decimal (but, of course, IEEE754 in binary)

- Round towards + ∞
 - ALWAYS round "up": 2.001 → 3, -2.001 → -2
- Round towards ∞
 - ALWAYS round "down": 1.999 → 1, -1.999 → -2
- Truncate
 - Just drop the last bits (round towards 0)
- Unbiased (default mode). Midway? Round to even
 - Normal rounding, almost: $2.4 \rightarrow 2$, $2.6 \rightarrow 3$, $2.5 \rightarrow 2$, $3.5 \rightarrow 4$
 - Round like you learned in grade school (nearest int)
 - Except if the value is right on the borderline, in which case we round to the nearest EVEN number
 - Insures fairness on calculation
 - This way, half the time we round up on tie, the other half time we round down. Tends to balance out inaccuracies



Assignment Administrivia

- hw3, proj1 will be graded soon.
- hw4 Expertiza & peer review
- proj2 Friday



Feedback Administrivia

Feedback Responses (Thank You)

- Discussion Sections
 - Wednesday 12-1, _____ (Paul)
 - Thursday 10-11, 277 Cory (Jeremy)
- More OH time?
 - Currently 5.5hrs/wk
 - Email if you need another block. I'm flexible.
- Labs rushed...
 - Should have about 2 staff in lab at all times now
- More animated examples, blackboard
- "Extra for Experts"
 - If it's not labeled as such, it's "fair game"



Midterm Administrivia

- Next Monday (in class)
 - No Lab (catch up!)
- "FAA" rules for what you can bring
 - Nothing electronic
 - 2 books and a few pages of notes
 - "a few pages" means no more than ~35 sheets
 - Bringing in P&H, K&R, all the slides, and some handwritten notes is OK
 - Don't kill trees printing out every lab, brainstorm answer, etc!
 - If we say it's too much, it's too much. If in doubt, ask ahead of time.

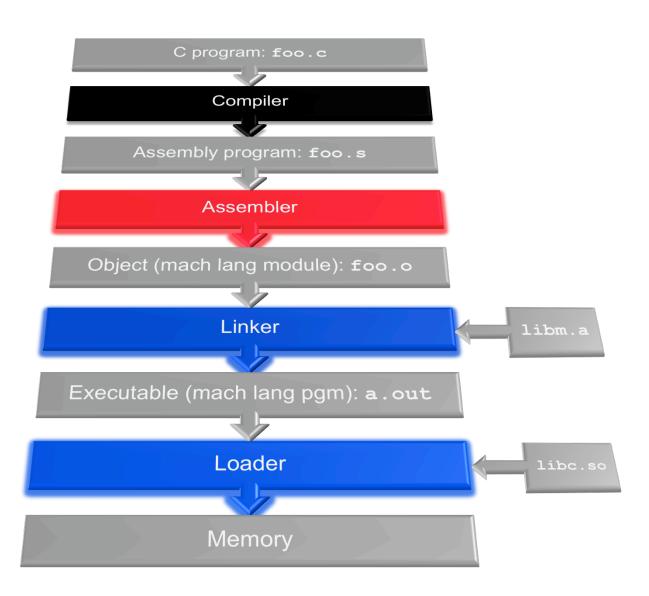


Overview

- Translating C Programs
 - Compiler
 - Assembler
 - Linker
 - Loader
- Interpretation vs Translation



Steps to Starting a Program (translation)



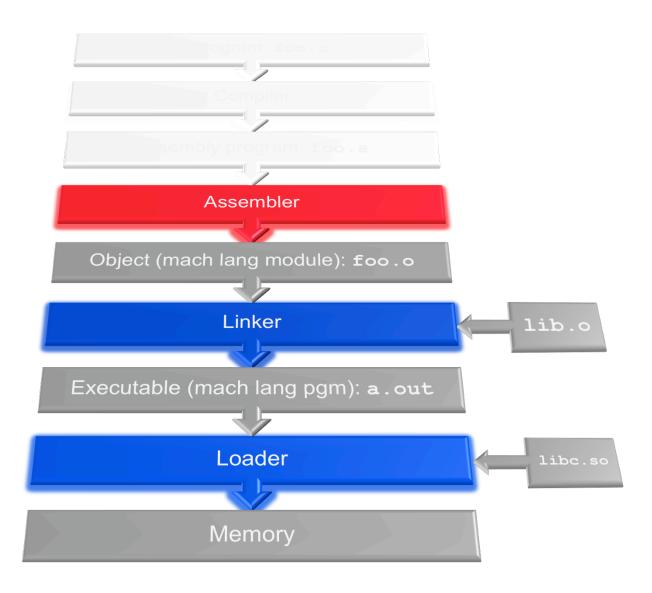


Compiler

- Input: High-Level Language Code (e.g., C, Java such as foo.c)
- Output: Assembly Language Code (e.g., foo.s for MIPS)
- Note: Output may contain pseudoinstructions



Where Are We Now?





Assembler

- Input: Assembly Language Code (e.g., foo.s for MIPS)
- Output: Object Code, information tables (e.g., foo.o for MIPS)
- Reads and Uses Directives
- Replace Pseudoinstructions
- Produce Machine Language
- Creates Object File



Assembler Directives (p. A-51 to A-53)

 Give directions to assembler, but do not produce machine instructions

. text: Subsequent items put in user text segment (machine code)

.data: Subsequent items put in user data segment (binary rep of data in source file)

.glob1 sym: declares sym global and can be referenced from other files

.asciiz str: Store the string str in memory and null-terminate it

.word w1...wn: Store the n 32-bit quantities in successive memory words



True Assembly Language (1/6)

- Pseudoinstruction: A MIPS instruction that doesn't turn directly into a machine language instruction, but into other MIPS instructions
- What happens with pseudo-instructions?
 - They're broken up by the assembler into several "real" MIPS instructions.
- Some examples follow



True Assembly Language (2/6)

Register Move

```
move reg2, reg1
Expands to:
add reg2, $zero, reg1
or perhaps:
or reg2, $zero, reg1
```

Load Immediate

```
li reg, value
If value fits in 16 bits:
addi reg, $zero, value
else:
lui reg, upper 16 bits of value
ori reg, $zero, lower 16 bits
```



True Assembly Language (3/6)

Problem:

- When breaking up a pseudo-instruction, the assembler may need to use an extra register
- If it uses any regular register, it'll overwrite whatever the program has put into it.

Solution:

- Reserve a register (\$1, called \$at for "assembler temporary") that assembler will use to break up pseudo-instructions.
- Since the assembler may use this at any time, it's not safe to code with it.



True Assembly Language (4/6)

- •So how does lui help us?
 - Example:

```
addi $t0, $t0, 0xABABCDCD
```

becomes:

```
lui $at, 0xABAB
ori $at, $at, 0xCDCD
add $t0, $t0, $at
```

- Now each I-format instruction has only a 16bit immediate.
- The assembler does this for us!
 - If number too big, then just automatically replace addi with lui, ori, add



True Assembly Language (3/3)

- MAL (MIPS Assembly Language): the set of instructions that a programmer may use to code in MIPS; this includes pseudoinstructions
- TAL (True Assembly Language): set of instructions that can actually get translated into a single machine language instruction (32-bit binary string)
- A program must be converted from MAL into TAL before translation into 1s & 0s.



Pseudoinstruction Replacement

Asm. treats convenient variations of machine language instructions as if real instructions
 Pseudo: Real:

subu \$sp,\$sp,32	addiu \$sp,\$sp,-32
sd \$a0, 32(\$sp)	sw \$a0, 32(\$sp) sw \$a1, 36(\$sp)
mul \$t7,\$t6,\$t5	mul \$t6,\$t5 mflo \$t7
addu \$t0,\$t6,1	addiu \$t0,\$t6,1
ble \$t0,100,loop	<pre>slti \$at,\$t0,101 bne \$at,\$0,loop</pre>
la \$a0, str	<pre>lui \$at,upper(str) ori \$a0,\$at,lower(str)</pre>



Producing Machine Language (1/3)

- Simple Case
 - Arithmetic, Logical, Shifts, and so on.
 - All necessary info is within the instruction already.
- What about Branches?
 - PC-Relative
 - So once pseudo-instructions are replaced by real ones, we know by how many instructions to branch.
- So these can be handled.



Producing Machine Language (2/3)

- "Forward Reference" problem
 - Branch instructions can refer to labels that are "forward" in the program:

- Solved by taking 2 passes over the program.
 - First pass remembers position of labels
 - Second pass uses label positions to generate code



Producing Machine Language (3/3)

- What about jumps (j and jal)?
 - Jumps require absolute address.
 - So, forward or not, still can't generate machine instruction without knowing the position of instructions in memory.
- What about references to data?
 - ·la gets broken up into lui and ori
 - These will require the full 32-bit address of the data.
- These can't be determined yet, so we create two tables...



Symbol Table

- List of symbols exported by this file that may be used by other files and symbols local to this file that will need relocation.
- In C, function names and variable names
- What are they in MAL?
 - Labels in .data and .text section; variables/functions which may be accessed across files



Relocation Table

- List of instructions that will need to be edited based on where a symbol is located at runtime.
- What are they?
 - Any label jumped to: j or jal
 - internal
 - external (including lib files)
 - Any piece of data
 - such as the la instruction

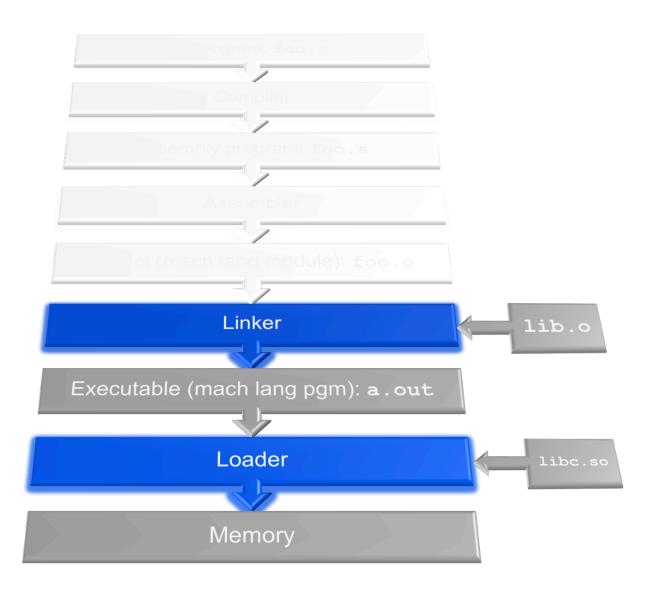


Object File Format

- object file header: size and position of the other pieces of the object file
- text segment: the machine code
- data segment: binary representation of the data in the source file
- relocation information: identifies lines of code that need to be "handled"
- symbol table: list of this file's labels and data that can be referenced
- debugging information
- A common format is ELF

http://www.skyfree.org/linux/references/ELF_Format.pdf

Where Are We Now?



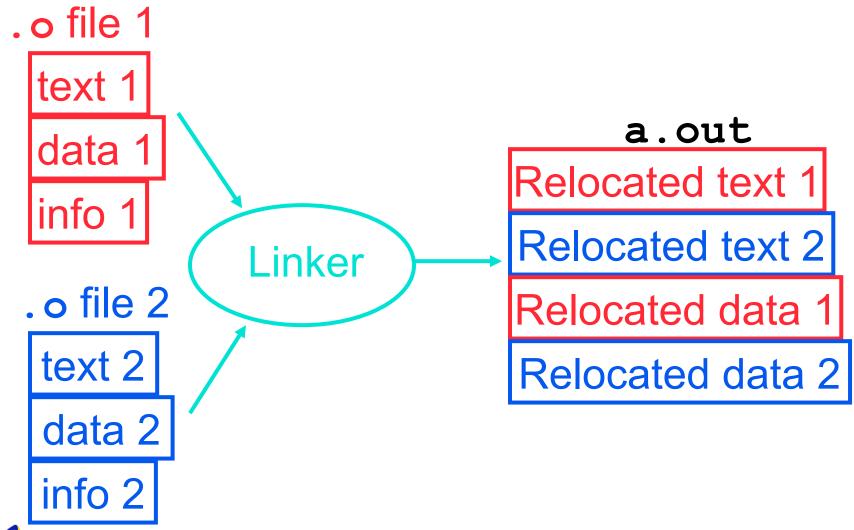


Linker (1/3)

- Input: Object Code files, information tables (e.g., foo.o,libm.a for MIPS)
- Output: Executable Code (e.g., a.out for MIPS)
- Combines several object (.o) files into a single executable ("linking")
- Enable Separate Compilation of files
 - Changes to one file do not require recompilation of whole program
 - Windows NT source was > 40 M lines of code!
 - Old name "Link Editor" from editing the "links" in jump and link instructions



Linker (2/3)





Linker (3/3)

- Step 1: Take text segment from each .o file and put them together.
- Step 2: Take data segment from each .o file, put them together, and concatenate this onto end of text segments.
- Step 3: Resolve References
 - Go through Relocation Table; handle each entry
 - That is, fill in all absolute addresses



Four Types of Addresses we'll discuss

- PC-Relative Addressing (beq, bne)
 - never relocate
- Absolute Address (j, jal)
 - always relocate
- External Reference (usually jal)
 - always relocate
- Data Reference (often lui and ori)
 - always relocate



Absolute Addresses in MIPS

- Which instructions need relocation editing?
 - J-format: jump, jump and link

j/jal xxxxx

 Loads and stores to variables in static area, relative to global pointer

lw/sw \$g	\$x	address
-----------	-----	---------

What about conditional branches?

beq/bne \$rs	\$rt	address
--------------	------	---------

 PC-relative addressing preserved even if code moves

Resolving References (1/2)

- Linker assumes first word of first text segment is at address 0x0000000.
 - (More later when we study "virtual memory")
- Linker knows:
 - length of each text and data segment
 - ordering of text and data segments
- Linker calculates:
 - absolute address of each label to be jumped to (internal or external) and each piece of data being referenced



Resolving References (2/2)

- To resolve references:
 - search for reference (data or label) in all "user" symbol tables
 - if not found, search library files (for example, for printf)
 - once absolute address is determined, fill in the machine code appropriately
- Output of linker: executable file containing text and data (plus header)



Static vs Dynamically linked libraries

- What we've described is the traditional way: statically-linked approach
 - The library is now part of the executable, so if the library updates, we don't get the fix (have to recompile if we have source)
 - It includes the entire library even if not all of it will be used.
 - Executable is self-contained.
- An alternative is dynamically libraries (DLL, SO, DYLIB), common on Windows & UNIX platforms



Dynamically linked libraries

en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dynamic linking

- Space/time issues
 - + Storing a program requires less disk space
 - + Sending a program requires less time
 - + Executing two programs requires less memory (if they share a library)
 - – At runtime, there's time overhead to do link
- Upgrades
 - + Replacing one file (libXYZ.so) upgrades every program that uses library "XYZ"
 - Having the executable isn't enough anymore

Overall, dynamic linking adds quite a bit of complexity to the compiler, linker, and operating system.

However, it provides many benefits that often outweigh these.

CS61CL L07 Compilation, Assembly, and Linking (36)

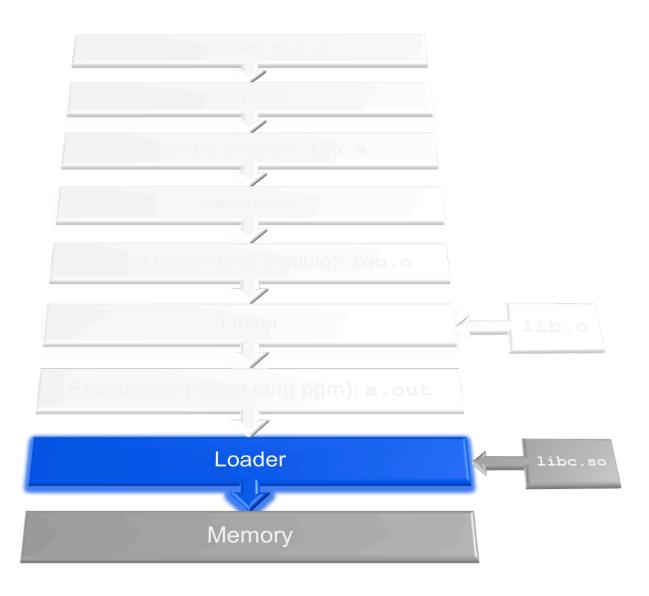
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Dynamically linked libraries

- The prevailing approach to dynamic linking uses machine code as the "lowest common denominator"
 - The linker does not use information about how the program or library was compiled (i.e., what compiler or language)
- Executables produced by the linker still contain symbol tables and relocation tables to be resolved later.



Where Are We Now?





Loader (1/3)

- Input: Executable Code (e.g., a.out for MIPS)
- Output: (program is run)
- Executable files are stored on disk.
- When one is run, loader's job is to load it into memory and start it running.
- In reality, loader is part of the operating system (OS)
 - loading is one of the OS tasks

Loader (2/3)

- So what does a loader do?
- Reads executable file's header to determine size of text and data segments
- Creates new address space for program large enough to hold text and data segments, along with a stack segment
- Copies instructions and data from executable file into the new address space

Loader (3/3)

- Copies arguments passed to the program onto the stack
- Initializes machine registers
 - Most registers cleared, but stack pointer assigned address of 1st free stack location
- Jumps to start-up routine that copies program's arguments from stack to registers and sets the PC
 - If main routine returns, start-up routine terminates program with the exit system call

Language Execution Continuum

An Interpreter is a program that executes other programs.

	Java bytecode	
Scheme Java C++ C	Assembly machine language	
Easy to program	Efficient to interpret	
Inefficient to interpret	Difficult to program	

- Language translation gives us another option.
- In general, we interpret a high level language when efficiency is not critical and translate to a lower level language to up performance

Interpretation vs Translation

- How do we run a program written in a source language?
 - Interpreter: Directly executes a program in the source language
 - Translator: Converts a program from the source language to an equivalent program in another language
- For example, consider a Scheme program foo.scm



Interpretation

Scheme program: foo.scm

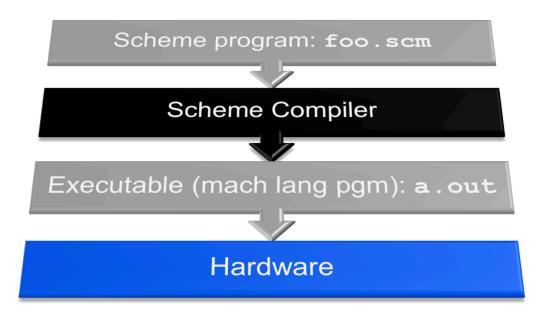
Scheme interpreter

 Scheme Interpreter is just a program that reads a scheme program and performs the functions of that scheme program.



Translation

- Scheme Compiler is a translator from Scheme to machine language.
- The processor is a hardware interpeter of machine language.





Interpretation

- Any good reason to interpret machine language in software?
- MARS useful for learning / debugging
- Apple Macintosh conversion
 - Switched from Motorola 680x0 instruction architecture to PowerPC.
 - Similar issue with switch to x86.
 - Could require all programs to be retranslated from high level language
 - Instead, let executables contain old and/or new machine code, interpret old code in software if necessary (emulation)



Interpretation vs. Translation? (1/2)

- Generally easier to write interpreter
- Interpreter closer to high-level, so can give better error messages (MARS)
 - Translator reaction: add extra information to help debugging (line numbers, names)
- Interpreter slower (10x?)
- Interpreter provides instruction set independence: run on any machine

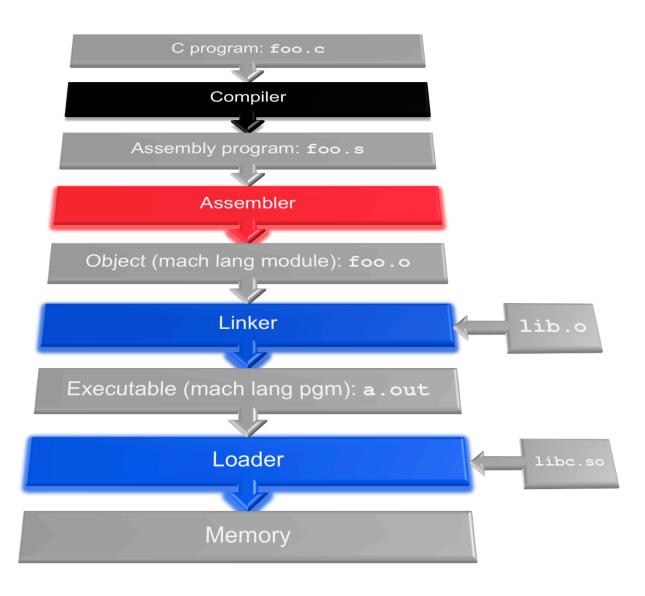


Interpretation vs. Translation? (2/2)

- Translated/compiled code almost always more efficient and therefore higher performance:
 - Important for many applications, particularly operating systems and graphics.
- Translation/compilation helps "hide" the program "source" from the users:
 - One model for creating value in the marketplace (eg. Microsoft keeps all their source code secret)
 - Alternative model, "open source", creates value by publishing the source code and fostering a community of developers. (eg. Darwin [core of OSX], Linux, BSD, Solaris...)



Things to Remember (1/3)





Things to Remember (2/3)

- Compiler converts a single HLL file into a single assembly language file.
- Assembler removes pseudoinstructions, converts what it can to machine language, and creates a checklist for the linker (relocation table). A .s file becomes a .o file.
 - Does 2 passes to resolve addresses, handling internal forward references
- Linker combines several .o files and resolves absolute addresses.
 - Enables separate compilation, libraries that need not be compiled, and resolves remaining addresses
- Loader loads executable into memory and begins execution.



Things to Remember 3/3

- Stored Program concept is very powerful. It means that instructions sometimes act just like data. Therefore we can use programs to manipulate other programs!
 - Compiler ⇒ Assembler ⇒ Linker (⇒ Loader)



Bonus slides

- These are extra slides that used to be included in lecture notes, but have been moved to this, the "bonus" area to serve as a supplement.
- The slides will appear in the order they would have in the normal presentation





Integer Multiplication (1/3)

Paper and pencil example (unsigned):

```
Multiplier <u>x1001</u> 9

1000
0000
0000
+1000
01001000
```

• m bits x n bits = m + n bit product



Integer Multiplication (2/3)

- In MIPS, we multiply registers, so:
 - 32-bit value x 32-bit value = 64-bit value
- Syntax of Multiplication (signed):
 - mult register1, register2
 - Multiplies 32-bit values in those registers & puts 64-bit product in special result regs:
 - puts product upper half in hi, lower half in lo
 - hi and lo are 2 registers separate from the 32 general purpose registers
 - Use mfhi register & mflo register to move from hi, lo to another register



Integer Multiplication (3/3)

Example:

- in C: a = b * c;
- ·in MIPS:
 - let b be \$s2; let c be \$s3; and let a be \$s0 and \$s1 (since it may be up to 64 bits)

 Note: Often, we only care about the Jower half of the product.

Integer Division (1/2)

Paper and pencil example (unsigned):

Dividend = Quotient x Divisor + Remainder

Integer Division (2/2)

- Syntax of Division (signed):
 - div register1, register2
 - Divides 32-bit register 1 by 32-bit register 2:
 - puts remainder of division in hi, quotient in lo
- Implements C division (/) and modulo (%)
- Example in C: a = c / d; b = c % d;
- in MIPS: a↔\$s0;b↔\$s1;c↔\$s2;d↔\$s3

```
div $s2,$s3  # lo=c/d, hi=c%d
mflo $s0  # get quotient
mfhi $s1  # get remainder
```



Big Endian vs. Little Endian

Big-endian and little-endian derive from Jonathan Swift's *Gulliver's Travels* in which the Big Endians were a political faction that broke their eggs at the large end ("the primitive way") and rebelled against the Lilliputian King who required his subjects (the Little Endians) to break their eggs at the small end.

(E.g., 0xC2=0b 1100 0010)

Consider the number 1025 as we normally write it:

BYTE2 BYTE1 BYTE0 000000000 00000100 00000001 Big Endian Little Endian

- ADDR3 ADDR2 ADDR1 ADDR0 BYTE0 BYTE1 BYTE2 00000001 00000100 00000000
- ADDR0 ADDR1 ADDR2 ADDR3 BYTE2 BYTE1 BYTE0 00000000 00000100 00000001
- ADDR3 ADDR2 ADDR1 ADDR0 BYTE2 BYTE1 BYTE0 00000000 00000100 00000001
- ADDR0 ADDR1 ADDR2 ADDR3 BYTE0 BYTE1 BYTE2 00000001 00000100 00000000

Example: $\underline{C} \Rightarrow Asm \Rightarrow Obj \Rightarrow Exe \Rightarrow Ru$

```
C Program Source Code: prog. c
#include <stdio.h>
int main (int argc, char *argv[]) {
 int i, sum = 0;
 for (i = 0; i \le 100; i++)
   sum = sum + i * i;
printf ("The sum of sq from 0 .. 100 is
 %d\n", sum);
"printf" lives in "libc"
```

Compilation: MAL

```
.text
 .align 2
 .qlobl main
main:
 subu $sp,$sp,32
 sw $ra, 20($sp)
 sd $a0, 32($sp)
 sw $0, 24($sp)
 sw $0, 28($sp)
loop:
 lw $t6, 28($sp)
 mul $t7, $t6,$t6
 lw $t8, 24($sp)
 addu $t9,$t8,$t7
 sw $t9, 24($sp)
```

```
addu $t0, $t6, 1
 sw $t0, 28($sp)
 ble $t0,100, loop
 la $a0, str
 lw $a1, 24($sp)
 jal printf
 move $v0, $0
 lw $ra, 20($sp)
 addiu $sp,$sp,32
 jr $ra
               Where are
 .data
 .align 0 7 pseudo-
              instructions?
str:
 .asciiz "The sum of sq from 0 .. 100 is %d\n"
```



Compilation: MAL

```
.text
 .align 2
 .globl
          main
main:
 subu $sp,$sp,32
 sw $ra, 20($sp)
 sd $a0, 32($sp)
 sw $0, 24($sp)
 sw $0, 28($sp)
loop:
 lw $t6, 28($sp)
 mul $t7, $t6,$t6
 lw $t8, 24($sp)
 addu $t9,$t8,$t7
 sw $t9, 24($sp)
```

```
addu $t0, $t6, 1
 sw $t0, 28($sp)
 ble $t0,100, loop
 la $a0, str
 lw $a1, 24($sp)
 jal printf
 move $v0, $0
 lw $ra, 20($sp)
 addiu $sp,$sp,32
 jr $ra
             7 pseudo-
 .data
          0 instructions
 .align
             underlined
str:
 .asciiz "The sum
 of sq from 0 .. 100 is %d\n"
```



Assembly step 1:

Remove pseudoinstructions, assign addresses

```
00 addiu $29,$29,-32
          $31,20($29)
04 sw
08 sw
          $5, 36($29)
Oc sw
         $0, 24($29)
10 sw
14 sw
         $0, 28($29)
18 lw $14, 28($29)
1c multu $14, $14
20 mflo
        $24, 24($29)
24 lw
28 addu $25,$24,$15
        $25, 24($29)
2c sw
```

30	addiu	\$8,\$14, 1
34	SW	\$8,28(\$29)
38	slti	\$1,\$8, 101
<u>3c</u>	bne	\$1,\$0, loop
40	lui	\$4, 1.str
44	ori	\$4,\$4,r.str
48	lw	\$5,24(\$29)
	lw jal	\$5,24(\$29) printf
4c		• • •
4c 50	jal	printf
4c 50 54	jal add	printf \$2, \$0, \$0



Assembly step 2

Create relocation table and symbol table

Symbol Table

Label	address (in module)		type
main:	0×000000000	global	text
loop:	0×00000018	local	text
str:	0×000000000	local	data

Relocation Information

Address	Instr. type	Dependency
0×00000040	lui	1.str
0×00000044	ori	r.str
0×0000004 c	jal	printf



Assembly step 3

Resolve local PC-relative labels

```
00 addiu $29,$29,-32
04 sw $31,20($29)
08 sw $4, 32($29)
0c sw $5, 36($29)
10 sw $0, 24($29)
14 sw $0, 28($29)
18 lw $14, 28($29)
1c multu $14, $14
20 mflo $15
24 lw $24, 24($29)
28 addu $25,$24,$15
2c sw $25, 24($29)
```

```
30 addiu $8,$14, 1
34 sw $8,28($29)
38 slti $1,$8, 101
3c bne $1,$0, -10
|40 lui
         $4, 1.str
44 ori
         $4,$4,r.str
48 lw
         $5,24($29)
4c jal printf
50 add
         $2, $0, $0
54 lw $31,20($29)
58 addiu $29,$29,32
5c jr
         $31
```



Assembly step 4

- Generate object (.o) file:
 - Output binary representation for
 - ext segment (instructions),
 - data segment (data),
 - symbol and relocation tables.
 - Using dummy "placeholders" for unresolved absolute and external references.



Text segment in object file

0x000000	001001111011110111111111111100000
0×000004	101011111011111100000000000010100
800000x0	10101111101001000000000000100000
0x00000c	101011111010010100000000000100100
0×000010	10101111101000000000000000011000
0×000014	10101111101000000000000000011100
0×000018	10001111101011100000000000011100
$0 \times 00001c$	10001111101110000000000000011000
0×000020	0000000111001110000000000011001
0×000024	001001011100100000000000000000000
0×000028	00101001000000010000000001100101
0x00002c	$10101111101010000000000000011100 \\ 00000000$
0x000030 0x000034	0000001100001111100000010010010
0x000034 $0x000038$	000101000011111110010000100001
0x000036	101011111011100100000000000011000
0x000030	001111000000100000000000000000000000000
0x000044	100011111010010100000000000000000000000
0x000048	00001100000100000000000011101100
0x00004c	001001000000000000000000000000000000000
0×000050	100011111011111100000000000010100
0×000054	001001111011110100000000000000000000000
0x000058	000000111110000000000000000000000000000
0x00005c	00000000000000000100000100001



Link step 1: combine prog.o, libc.o

- Merge text/data segments
- Create absolute memory addresses
- Modify & merge symbol and relocation tables
- Symbol Table

```
    Label Address
```

```
main: 0x00000000
loop: 0x00000018
str: 0x10000430
printf: 0x000003b0
```

Relocation Information

 Address 	Instr. Type	Dependency
0×00000040	lui	l.str
0×00000044	ori	r.str
$0 \times 0000004c$	jal	printf



Link step 2:

Edit Addresses in relocation table

(shown in TAL for clarity, but done in binary)

```
00 addiu $29,$29,-32
04 sw
         $31,20($29)
         $4, 32($29)
08 sw
         $5, 36($29)
Oc sw
10 sw $0, 24($29)
14 sw $0, 28($29)
18 lw $14, 28($29)
1c multu $14, $14
20 mflo $15
24 lw $24, 24($29)
28 addu $25,$24,$15
2c sw $25, 24($29)
```

- 1			
	30	addiu	\$8,\$14, 1
	34	SW	\$8,28(\$29)
	38	slti	\$1,\$8, 101
	3c	bne	\$1,\$0, <u>-10</u>
	40	lui	\$4, <u>4096</u>
	44	ori	\$4,\$4, <u>1072</u>
	48	lw	\$5,24(\$29)
	4c	jal	812
	50	add	\$2, \$0, \$0
	54	lw	\$31,20(\$29)
	58	addiu	\$29,\$29,32
	5c	jr	\$31



Link step 3:

- Output executable of merged modules.
 - Single text (instruction) segment
 - Single data segment
 - Header detailing size of each segment

• NOTE:

 The preceeding example was a much simplified version of how ELF and other standard formats work, meant only to demonstrate the basic principles.

