Compiling Fundamentals

15-213/15-513/14-513: Introduction to Computer Systems

Questions that will be answered today

- What does it mean to compile code?
- What does compiling code look like?
- How can code be compiled?
- What are Makefiles?

Why is this important?

- It is important to understand how programs are compiled to have a better understanding of how different parts of a computer interact with each other.
- Fundamental aspect of how computers run code.

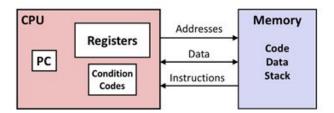
Levels of Abstraction

- C [and other high level languages]
 are easy for programmers to
 understand, but computers
 require lots of software to process
 them
- Machine code is just the opposite: easy for the computer to process, humans need lots of help to understand it
- Assembly language is a compromise between the two: readable by humans (barely), close correspondence to machine code

C programmer

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
  int i, n = 10, t1 = 0, t2 = 1, nxt;
  for (i = 1; i <= n; ++i) {
    printf("%d, ", t1);
    nxt = t1 + t2;
    t1 = t2;
    t2 = nxt; }
  return 0; }</pre>
```

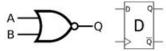
Assembly programmer

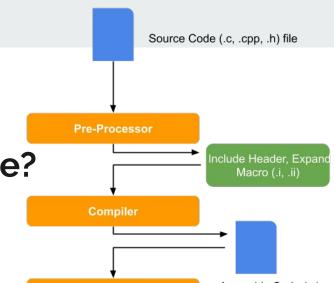


Computer designer



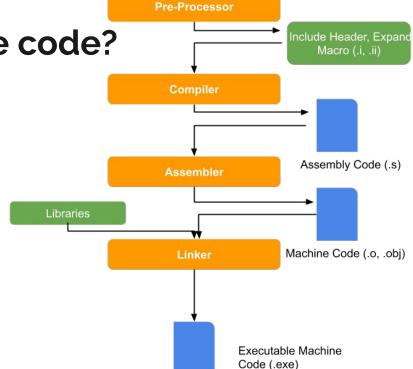
Gates, clocks, circuit layout, ...

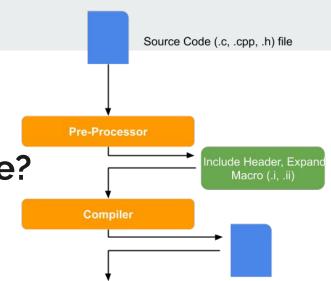




What does it mean to compile code?

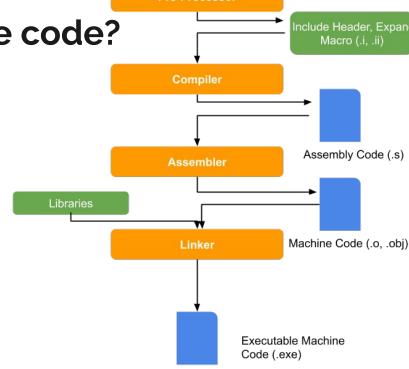
- The computer only understands machine code directly
- All other languages must be either
 - interpreted: executed by software
 - compiled: translated to machine code by software





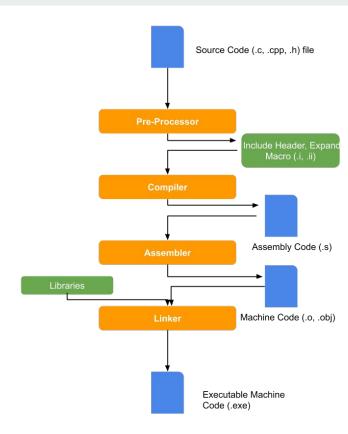
What does it mean to compile code?

- Computer follows steps to **translate** your code into something the computer can understand
- This is the process of **compiling** code [a compiler completes these actions
- Four steps for C: preprocessing, compiling, assembling, linking
 - Most other compiled languages don't have the preprocessing step, but do have the other three



Stepping through the stages

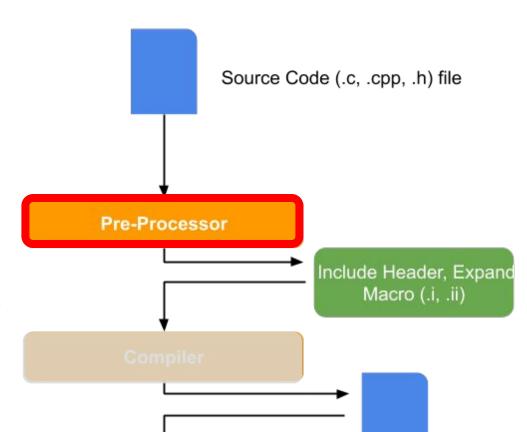
- Pre-Processor
 - \$ gcc -E [flags] [filenames]
- Compiler
 - \$ gcc -S [flags] [filenames]
- Assembler
 - \$ gcc -c [flags] [filenames]
 - \$ objdump -d [filenames]
- Linker
 - \$ gcc -o [exename] [flags] [filenames]



C Code to Machine Code

Pre-Processor

- Peculiar to the C family; other languages don't have this
- Processes #include, #define, #if, macros
 - Combines main source file with headers (textually)
 - Defines and expands macros (token-based shorthand)
 - Conditionally removes parts of the code (e.g. specialize for Linux, Mac, ...)
- Removes all comments
- Output looks like C still



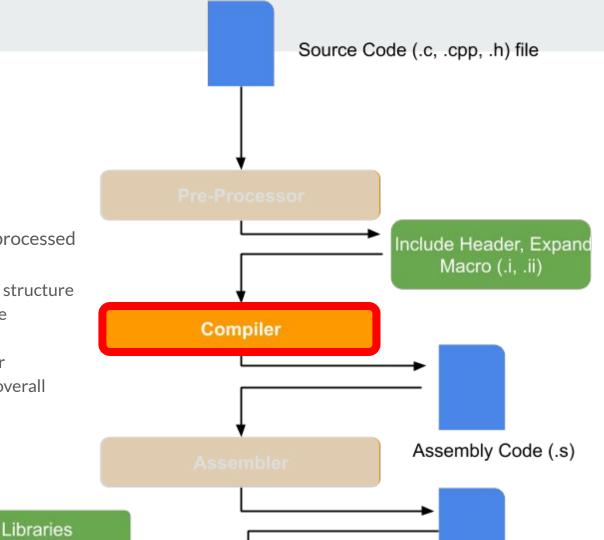
Before and after preprocessing

- Contents of header files inserted inline
- Comments removed
- Macros expanded
- "Directive" lines (beginning with #)
 communicate things like original line numbers

```
# 1 "test.c"
# 1 "/usr/lib/gcc/x86_64-linux-gnu/10/include/limits.h" 1 3 4
# 1 "/usr/include/stdio.h" 1 3 4
extern int fprintf (FILE *__restrict __stream,
        const char *__restrict __format, ...);
extern int printf (const char *__restrict __format, ...);
# 874 "/usr/include/stdio.h" 3 4
# 3 "test.c" 2
int main(void) {
   printf("CHAR_MIN = %d\n"
           "CHAR MAX = %d\n",
# 6 "test.c" 3 4
           (-0x7f - 1)
# 6 "test.c"
                  , 0x7f);
    return 0;
```

Compiler

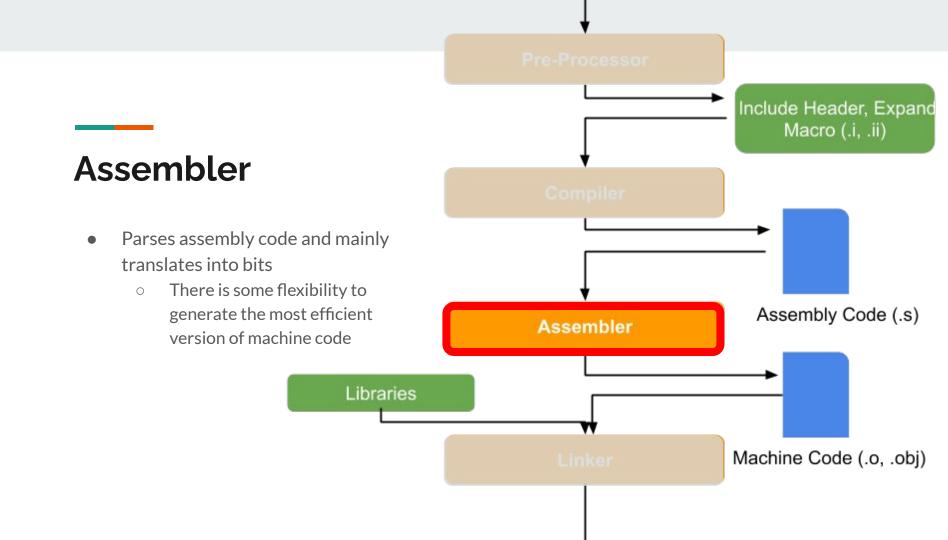
- The compiler translates the preprocessed code into assembly code
 - This changes the format and structure of the code but preserves the semantics (what it does)
 - Can change lots of details for optimization, as long as the overall effect is the same



Before and after compilation

- C source code converted to assembly language
- Textual, but 1:1 correspondence to machine language
- String out-of-line, referred to by label (.LC0)
- printf just referred to, not declared

```
.file
             "test.c"
    .section
                .rodata.str1.1, "aMS", @progbits, 1
.LCO:
    .string
               "CHAR MIN = %d\nCHAR MAX = %d\n"
    .text
    .globl
              main
main:
            $8, %rsp
    subq
    movl
            $127, %edx
    mov1
            $-128, %esi
            .LCO(%rip), %rdi
    leaa
    xorl
            %eax, %eax
    call
            printf@PLT
    xorl
            %eax, %eax
    addq
            $8, %rsp
    ret
    .size
             main, .-main
```



Before and after assembling

```
.file
              "test.c"
                .rodata.str1.1, "aMS", @progbits, 1
    .section
.LC0:
               "CHAR MIN = %d\nCHAR MAX = %d\n"
    .string
    .text
    .globl
              main
main:
    subq
            $8, %rsp
            $127, %edx
    movl
            $-128, %esi
    movl
            .LCO(%rip), %rdi
    leag
            %eax, %eax
    xorl
    call
            printf@PLT
    xorl
            %eax, %eax
            $8, %rsp
    addq
    ret
    .size
             main, .-main
```

- Everything is now binary
- "Relocations" for addresses not yet known

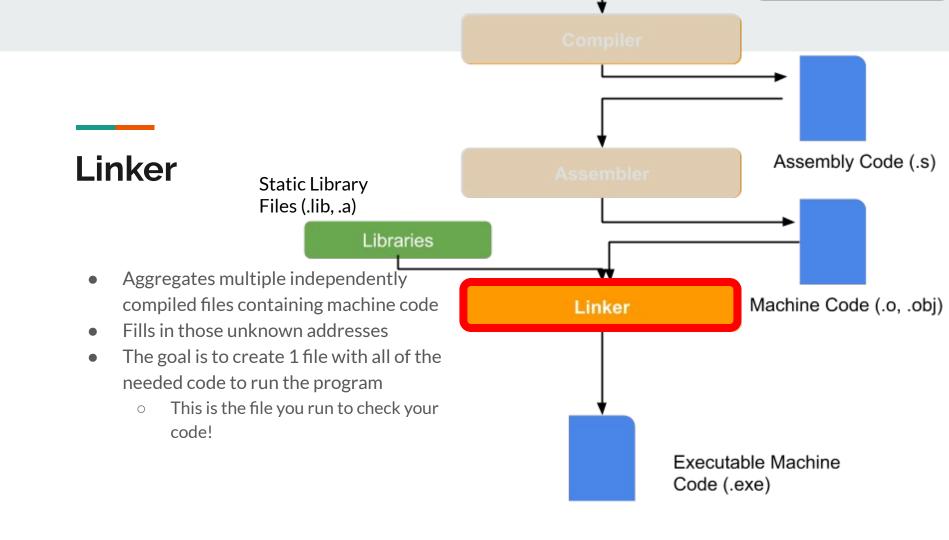
```
$ objdump -s -r test.o
test.o: file format elf64-x86-64
RELOCATION RECORDS FOR [.text]:
               TYPE
                             VALUE
OFFSET
0000000000000011 R_X86_64_PC32
                             .LC0-0x00000000000000004
0000000000000018 R_X86_64_PLT32
                            printf-0x00000000000000004
Contents of section .rodata.str1.1:
                                     CHAR MIN = %d.CH
0000 43484152 5f4d494e 203d2025 640a4348
0010 41525f4d 4158203d 2025640a 00
                                      AR MAX = %d..
Contents of section .text:
0010 3d000000 0031c0e8 00000000 31c04883 =...1....1.H.
0020 c408c3
```

Before and after assembling

```
.file
              "test.c"
                .rodata.str1.1, "aMS", @progbits, 1
    .section
.LC0:
               "CHAR MIN = %d\nCHAR MAX = %d\n"
    .string
    .text
    .globl
              main
main:
    subq
            $8, %rsp
            $127, %edx
    movl
            $-128, %esi
    movl
            .LCO(%rip), %rdi
    leaq
            %eax, %eax
    xorl
    call
            printf@PLT
    xorl
            %eax, %eax
    addq
            $8, %rsp
    ret
             main, .-main
    .size
```

 Just to emphasize that 1:1 correspondence between assembly and machine instructions

```
$ objdump -d -r test.o
test.o: file format elf64-x86-64
Disassembly of section .text.startup:
00000000000000000 <main>:
        48 83 ec 08
                                         $0x8,%rsp
                                sub
        ba 7f 00 00 00
                                         $0x7f,%edx
                                mov
        be 80 ff ff ff
                                         $0xffffff80,%esi
                                mov
        48 8d 3d 00 00 00 00
                               lea
                                         0x0(%rip),%rdi
                  11: R_X86_64_PC32 .LC0-0x4
                                         %eax,%eax
 15:
         31 c0
        e8 00 00 00 00
                                      1c <main+0x1c>
 17:
                                call
            18: R_X86_64_PLT32
                                  printf-0x4
 1c:
        31 c0
                                         %eax,%eax
                                xor
        48 83 c4 08
                                         $0x8,%rsp
  1e:
                                add
  22:
        с3
                                ret
```



How to Use The Compiler (gcc)

GCC - What is it?

- GNU Compiler Collection
 - GCC is a set of compilers for various languages. It provides all of the infrastructure for building software in those languages from source code to assembly.
- The compiler can handle compiling everything on its own, but you can use various flags to breakdown the compilation steps
- Example:

```
gcc [flags] [infile(s)]
```

Common GCC Flags

- -o [EXECUTABLE NAME]: names executable file
- **-0***x* : Code optimization
 - **-00**: Compile as fast as possible, don't optimize [this is the default]
 - -01, -02, -03: Optimize for reduced execution time [higher numbers are more optimized]
 - **-0s**: Optimize for code size instead of execution time.
 - **-0g**: Optimize for execution time, but try to avoid making interactive debugging harder.
- -g: produce "debug info": annotate assembly so gdb can find variables and source code
- **-Wall**: enable many "warning" messages that should be on by default, but aren't
 - Does *not* turn on all of the warning messages GCC can produce.
 - See https://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc-4.8.0/gcc/Warning-Options.html for many more
- **-Werror**: turns all warnings into errors
- -std=c99: use the 1999 version of the C standard and disable some (not all!) extensions

Makefiles

What is a makefile?

- Automates the process of creating files (using a compiler)
- For example, create **bomb** from bomb.c, phases.c, and util.c
- Running make bomb will update bomb
 - Only if any of the source files have changed; avoids unnecessary work
 - Remembers complicated compiler commands for you
- Can also store recipes for automating development tasks
 - make format to reformat source files



Makefile

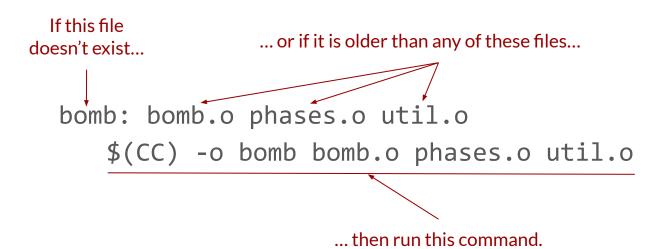
Makefiles are lists of *rules*

- There are two kinds of rules: **normal** and **phony**
 - Normal rules create files
 - Phony rules don't directly create files
- Each rule has a target.
 - o For **normal** rules, the target is the name of the file that the rule will create
 - For **phony** rules, the target is an arbitrary name for what the rule does
- Rules may have prerequisites (also known as dependencies)
 - Prerequisites are the files that are needed to create the target
 - If any of the prerequisites doesn't exist, it must be created first
 - o If any of the prerequisites is newer than the target, the target is "out of date" and must be re-created
- Rules may have **commands**.
 - One or more shell commands that create the target from its prerequisites
 - For phony rules, just some commands to be run

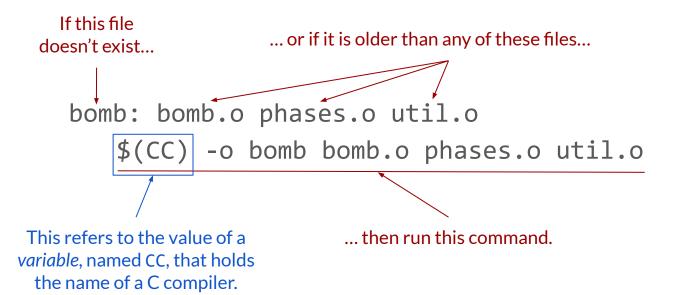
Normal rule example

```
bomb: bomb.o phases.o util.o
$(CC) -o bomb bomb.o phases.o util.o
```

Normal rule example



Normal rule example



Normal rule without prerequisites

```
output_dir:
    mkdir output_dir
```

- Run mkdir output_dir if output_dir does not exist
- If it does exist, no action

Normal rule without commands

bomb.o: bomb.c support.h phases.h

- Re-create bomb.o if any of bomb.c, support.h, phases.h is newer
- The commands to do this are given somewhere else
 - A pattern rule elsewhere in the Makefile
 - An implicit rule built into Make

Pattern and implicit rules

```
%.o: %.c
$(CC) $(CFLAGS) -c -o $@ $<
```

- To create an .o file from a .c file with the same base name, use this command
- Special variables \$@ and \$< give the name of the .o and .c files respectively
- Variables CC and CFLAGS can be set to customize behavior
- This rule is *implicit* built into Make you don't have to write it yourself

Phony rule example

all: bomb bomb-solve

.PHONY: all

- When asked to create "all", create bomb and bomb-solve
- Does **not** create a file named "all"
- The . PHONY annotation can be anywhere in the makefile

Phony rule example 2

```
clean:
    rm -f bomb bomb-solve *.o
.PHONY: clean
```

- When asked to create "clean", run this command
 - Which deletes bomb, bomb-solve, and all object files
- Does not create a file named "clean"

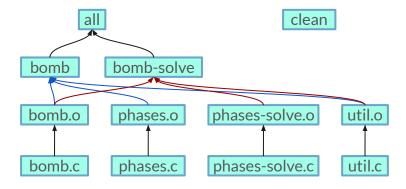
The make command

- Running make in the shell will cause the shell to look for a Makefile in the current directory. If it finds one, it will attempt to create the first target listed in the Makefile.
- You can also run make <target_name> to indicate exactly which target you want to create.
- By convention, the first target is a phony target named all
 - o so make and make all do the same thing
 - o as the name implies, this is to create everything that the makefile knows how to create
- Phony rules serve as entry points into the Makefile
 - make all creates everything, make clean deletes all generated files, make check runs tests....
 - But you can also make bomb.o if that's the only thing you want

A complete Makefile

- OK to use undefined variables
 - LDFLAGS, LIBS
 - Found in environment or treated as empty
- Don't need to give commands to create object files from C source
 - But do need to list header file dependencies for each object file
- Do need to give commands to create executables (missing feature)
- all rule at the top, clean rule at the bottom
- One . PHONY annotation for all phony rules

Rules form a graph



- Make avoids unnecessary work
 - If bomb.c changes, make all will re-create bomb.o, bomb, bomb-solve
 - If phases.c changes, make all will only re-create phases.o and bomb
- Make can see through missing targets
 - If bomb.o does not exist, make bomb creates it from bomb.c

Practice!

https://www.cs.cmu.edu/~213/bootc amps/lab3_handout.pdf Feedback:

https://tinyurl.com/213bootcam

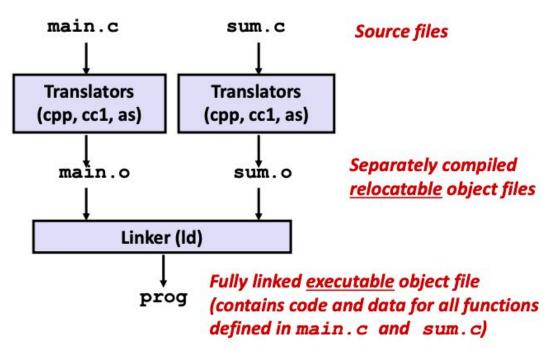
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Appendix

Linking Files

Why are we learning about linking files?

- Linker is a computer system program
 that object files (generated by a
 compiler or an assembler) and
 combines them into a single executable
 file, library file, or another object file.
- Programs are translated and linked using a compiler driver:
 - O linux> gcc -Og -o prog main.c sum.c
 - o linux> ./prog
- More in future lecture!



What does a linker do?

- Symbol resolution
 - Programs define and reference *symbols* (global variables and functions)
 - Linker associates each symbol reference with exactly 1 symbol definition
- Relocation
 - Merges separate code and data sections into single sections
 - Relocates symbols from relative locations in .o files to final memory locations
 - Updates all references to symbols to reflect new positions

Linker symbols

- Global symbols
 - Symbols defined by module m that can be referenced by other modules.
 - e.g., non-static C functions and non-static global variables.
- External symbols
 - Global symbols that are referenced by module m but defined by some other module.
- Local symbols
 - Symbols that are defined and referenced exclusively by module m.
 - e.g., C functions and global variables defined with the static attribute.
 - Local linker symbols are not local program variables

Symbols

Definitions

```
int sum(int *a, int n);
int array[2] = {1, 2};
int main(int argc, char** argv)
{
   int val = sum(array, 2);
   return val;
}
```

```
int sum()nt *a, int n)
{
   int i, s = 0;

   for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
      s += a[i];
   }
   return s;
}</pre>
```

Why do you need linkers?

- Modularity
 - Program can be written as a collection of smaller source files, rather than one monolithic mass.
- Efficiency
 - Time: Separate compilation
 - Change one source file, compile, and then relink. No need to recompile other source files.
 - Space: Libraries
 - Common functions can be aggregated into a single file...

Static vs Dynamic Linking

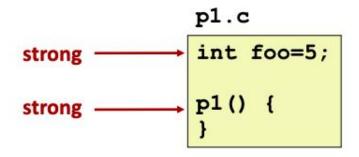
- Static Linking
 - Executable files and running memory images contain only the library code they actually use
- Dynamic linking
 - Executable files contain no library code
 - During execution, single copy of library code can be shared across all executing processes

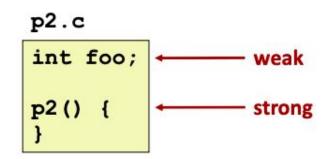
Types of object files

- Relocatable object file (.o file)
 - Code and data 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)
 - Code and data 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 run-time

How Linker resolves duplicate symbol definitions

- Program symbols are either strong or weak
 - Strong: procedures and initialized globals
 - Weak: uninitialized globals
 - Or one's declared with specifier extern





Symbol rules

- 1. Multiple strong symbols are not allowed
 - Each item can be defined only once
- 2. Given a strong symbol and multiple weak symbols, choose the strong symbol
 - References to the weak symbol resolve to the strong symbol
- 3. If there are multiple weak symbols, pick an arbitrary one

LD_LIBRARY_PATH

- If you are using dynamic libraries, you need to tell the compiler where to look for the library!
- It is easiest to use dynamic libraries with makefiles, just include this line:

- If you are interested in creating a dynamic library, follow the steps here:
 - Shared Libraries: https://tldp.org/HOWTO/Program-Library-HOWTO/shared-libraries.html
 - Dynamic Libraries: https://tldp.org/HOWTO/Program-Library-HOWTO/dl-libraries.html

Resources

https://missing.csail.mit.edu/2020/metaprogramming/

https://www.cs.cmu.edu/~15131/f17/topics/makefiles/

https://www.gnu.org/software/make/manual/html node/Phony-Targets.html

https://makefiletutorial.com/

https://www.oreilly.com/library/view/programming-embedded-systems/0596009836/ch04.html

https://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc/

https://daveparillo.github.io/cisc187-reader/build-tools/make.html