Welcome to Systems Programming!

- ▶ A Computer System is the hardware and systems software that work in concert to run an application program.
- ► In this course, you will learn many practical skills and hopefully obtain a *deep* knowledge of the system that makes you a better programmer.
- The course has two major components of nearly equal weight: Lectures/Assignments/Quizzes C Labs

 56%
 44%
- ➤ You need to work on both to do well in the course. Details in the **Course Outline**.
- ► There is ample help available: Lab TAs will be on duty (TEAMS) every day of the week. Take advantage of it!.

What happened in a past term:

	La	b 4			La	b 5			La	b 6	
Score	Count	% Sub	% All	Score	Count	% Sub	% All	Score	Count	% Sub	% All
10	51	42.50%	29.48%	10	78	65.00%	45.09%	10	85	68.00%	49.13%
5	29	24.17%	16.76%	6	2	1.67%	1.16%	6	29	23.20%	16.76%
0	40	33.33%	23.12%	4	16	13.33%	9.25%	4	1	0.80%	0.58%
NoSub	53		30.64%	0	24	20.00%	13.87%	3	1	0.80%	0.58%
				NoSub	53		30.64%	0	9	7.20%	5.20%
								NoSub	48		27.75%
T-1-IC-I	420			T-1-10-1	400	1 / 22		T-4-10-1	425		

Administrivia

- ► The course text: Computer Systems: A Programmer's Perspective 3rd Ed. is the best text I know of, on the subject. I expect you will read the sections we cover carefully!
- ► The lectures will follow the text closely. We will cover Chapters 1 -3, 6, 7 & 8 (selected parts).
- ▶ There is a public channel for asking lecture & assignment related questions. Please ask questions in that channel, unless the content of your question is private. Treat the channel as a discussion forum i.e. if you know how to answer a fellow student, please do so.
- Assignment submission should be (i) properly organized (ii) legibly written. If a marker cannot read your submission or they need a scavenger hunt to put your answer together, the problem will be awarded a zero. After solutions is posted, a resubmission will not be accepted. (iii) A Method for re-assessment of a]ssignments will be posted. Please follow that

Administrivia continued

- ▶ Please work on the assignment solutions on your own. Avoid looking for solutions on the web/from friends who have taken the course in past terms *etc etc* .
- Assignment submission is via Crowdmark

Academic Integrity:

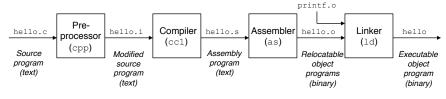
Past experience shows that there is a great temptation to copy code for the labs and answers for the quizes. Please understand that we are looking for this. Your submissions will be put through a plagiarism detector. In a past term, 52 students were reported to the AIO, for cheating. 49 of them were found to be **in violation of academic integrity rules**. L:ast term, in 1120, 43 people were reported to the AIO office.

- ► The Safety Rule: Discuss the problems with your friends/classmates. However the work you turn in must be your own. Also remember: Both sides of the copying couplet are considered equally guilty.
- Besides, you will be glad you worked on the course when you get to OS (CS3120)!

```
The C compilation Chain
```

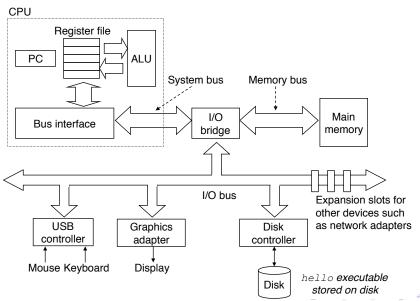
```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {
  printf("Yeah Whatever\n");
  return 0;
}
```

The C compilation chain:



```
gcc -Og -S hello.c generates hello.s
gcc -Og -o hello.o hello.c generates hello.o
gcc -Og -c hello.c generates hello.o
To run the code ./hello
```

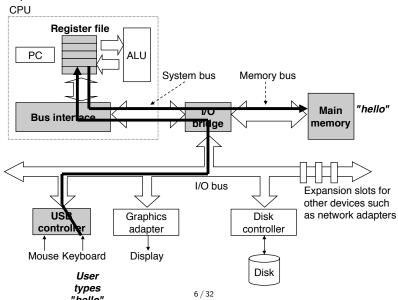
Basic Hardware Organization



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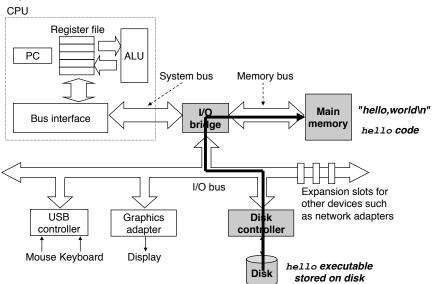
Keyboard read - hello.c

Step 1



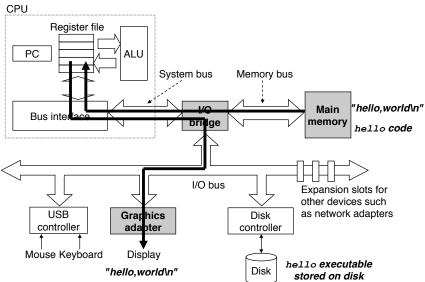
Load - hello.c

Step 2



Execute - hello.c

Step 3

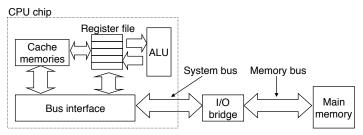


running hello.c

- ► The system spends a lot of time moving information around:
- ▶ hello.o stored on the hard disk
 → Loaded into Memory → Instructions copied to processor
 Data string ''Yeah....'' copied → Mem. → display device.
- Moving stuff around is "overhead" to running the program
- (i) Large storage devices slower than smaller devices
 (ii) Faster storage devices more expensive than slower.
- ▶ Typical Hard disk: $\sim 1TB$; RAM: $\sim 1GB$; Reg.File $\sim 0.5KB$
- \blacktriangleright Processor reads data from Register File ~ 100 times faster than from RAM.
 - Processor reads data from RAM $\sim 10^7 x$ faster than from Disk.
- ► To deal with the Processor-Memory gap: Use smaller faster devices: *Cache Memories* between Processor & Memory.



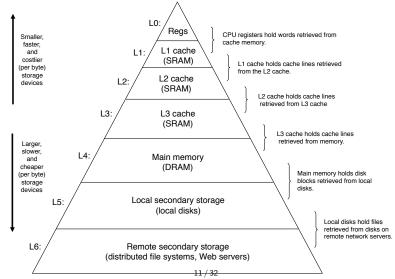
Cache Memories



Instructions that are repeatedly accessed from memory are "cached" closer to the CPU. Think of the instructions in a loop. The speed-up is greater if the code written takes advantage of caches.

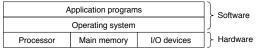
Memories Hierarchy

Inserting smaller, faster storage between Processor and a larger, slower storage is a general idea.

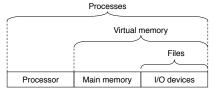


Role of the Operating System in the Execution

The OS manages the hardware. Applications programs do not directly access memory.



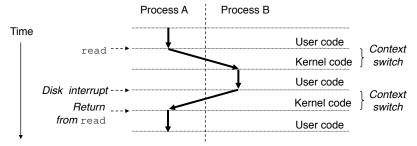
OS: (i) Protects hardware from runaway applications (ii) Provides applications a uniform mechanism to access device that wildly differ in speed.



The OS handles this by providing Applications program with abstractions: *Processes; Virtual Memory; & Files*

Fundamental abstractions provided by the OS

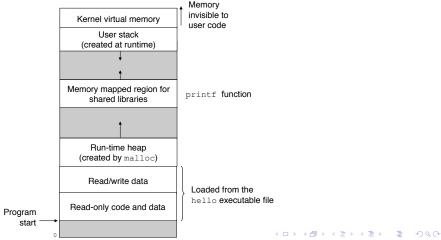
- * **Process:** OS's abstraction of a running program.
 - Processes can be run concurrently.
 - ► Traditional system sequential & more processes than processors.
 - ▶ Instructions of P_A interleaved with those of P_B .
 - Context Switching



Fundamental abstractions provided by the OS

* **Virtual Memory** Abstraction that allows each process the illusion that it has exclusive use of memory.

The virtual address space seen by each process has several well defined areas with specific purposes:



Fundamental abstractions provided by the OS

* **Files**: A *file* is a sequence of bytes. Every I/O device including displays. keyboards and even the network is modelled as a file. Files provide applications a uniform view across many types of I/O devices.

Quantifying performance of the 'system'

Amdahl's law

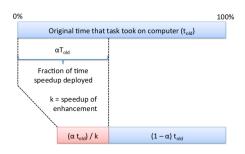
- α is the fraction of time an enhancement can be used
- 'k' is the speedup due to the enhancement
- · So.
 - αt_{old} is the original time
 - $(\alpha t_{old})/k$ is the new time
- Or

$$t_{new} = (1 - \alpha)t_{old} + (\alpha t_{old})/k$$

- Let 'speedup' $(S) = t_{old}/t_{new}$
- So.

$$S = \frac{1}{(1 - \alpha) + \alpha/k}$$

This holds for any 'system'.



Amdahl's Law Example:

▶ The design goal for a new release of a 'system' is to provide a 2X performance improvement. Adding additional processors, can only enhance 70% of the system. How much would you need to improve this part for the application to reach the design goal? (Find *k*)

▶ If we could speed-up the processing of the 70% of the system, so that the time spent by it is negligible, what will be the overall speed-up?

Bits and Bytes: Review

- A Computer Stores everything as numbers.
- ► The only symbols (modern) computers use are '0' and '1'. A single '0' or '1' is called a *bit* (for *b*inary digit).
- ► A group of 8 contiguous bits, treated as a unit is called a *Byte*. A lesser know unit: a group of 4 bits is called a *Nybble*.
- When the bits are grouped, there are different methods for interpreting them.
- Each method of interpretation is called a bit model. The bit model used to represent strictly non-negative integers is unsigned binary.
- ➤ A study of the bit-models of the different C data types allows a deeper understanding based on the actual memory the bits occupy.

Placeholder representation

We write numbers in a positional representation system: $(357)_{10}$ is

$$3 \times 10^2 + 5 \times 10^1 + 7 \times 10^0$$

A number in base (or *radix*) r: $(d_{n-1}d_{n-2}\dots d_1d_0)_r$ is

$$d_{n-1} \times r^{n-1} + d_{n-2} \times r^{n-2} + \dots + d_1 \times r^1 + d_0 \times r^0$$

In base 2 or binary: the *value* of: $(b_{n-1}b_{n-2}\dots b_1b_0)_2$ is:

$$b_{n-1} \times 2^{n-1} + b_{n-2} \times 2^{n-2} + \dots + b_1 \times 2^1 + b_0 \times 2^0$$

So, in (unsigned) binary 101010_2 is:

$$1 \times 2^5 + 0 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0$$

which is equal to 42_{10} .



Conversion Decimal \rightarrow Binary

A simple algorithm allows is to convert decimal \rightarrow binary:

- 1. Start with two columns: value and bit, next to each other
- 2. For the given value, bit = 0 if value even and bit = 1 if odd.
- 3. Update: value $\leftarrow |number/2|$
- 4. If value = 1 stop, else goto 1.
- 5. The binary representation of the given value is now read bottom(MSB) to top (LSB)in the *bit* column.

.

The process carried out for 123_{10}

$\lfloor v/2 \rfloor$	$value\ (v)$	BIT		
_	123	1		
[123/2]	= 61	1		
[61/2]	= 30	0		
$\lfloor 30/2 \rfloor$	= 15	1		
$\lfloor 15/2 \rfloor$	= 7	1		
$\lfloor 7/2 \rfloor$	= 3	1		
$\lfloor 3/2 \rfloor$	= 1	1		

Reading the bit column bottom \rightarrow top gives: 1111011_2

Let $\overrightarrow{x} = [x_{w-1}, \dots, x_0]$ be a vector of w-bits.

Ntn:
$$B2U_w(\vec{x}) = \sum_{i=0}^{w-1} x_i 2^i$$

Q: Is the algorithm *correct*?

Q: Why does it work?

Q: Can you think of another algorithm to do the same?

Note: Practice: $63_{10}, 127_{10}, 255_{10}, 254_{10}, 511_{10}, 1024_{10}$ **Q.** What gen. can you make about how decimal numbers are related to their bit-patterns in binary? Can you use this knowledge to convert 1033_{10}

mentally?

A few Examples:

Hexadecimal Representation:

Modern computers have 32 or 64-bit units words. It is difficult to examine groups of 32 or 64 bits. To overcome this, we use base 16.

Representation in base 16 or ${\tt HEXADECIMAL}$ (commonly: ${\tt HEX}$). Need 16 symbols, identifying "higits" from 0 to 15.

Problem: In decimal, we represent values larger than nine using two or more symbols.

In \mbox{HEX} the symbols 0 - 9 are the same as in decimal.

After that: $10 \rightarrow A$; $11 \rightarrow B$; $12 \rightarrow C$; $13 \rightarrow D$; $14 \rightarrow E$; $15 \rightarrow F$.

HEX values are identified with the prefix 0x. e.g. 0xF00D

Q: How many bits does it take to represent all possible values between 0 & 15?



Hex	Binary	Decimal
0	0000	0
1	0001	1
2	0010	2
3	0011	3
4	0100	4
5	0101	5
6	0110	6
7	0111	7
8	1000	8
9	1001	9
Α	1010	10
В	1011	11
C	1100	12
D	1101	13
E	1110	14
F	1111	15

Conversion Binary \longleftrightarrow Hex

- To convert Binary → Hex: Starting from the LSB (right end), create groups of 4 bits. Pad the front with zeros if necessary: e.g. 0111 1111 1111 1000
- Replace each group of 4 with the "higit" from table on the prev. slide: e.g. 0x7 F F 8
- To go Hex → Binary: Replace each "higit" with the group of 4 bits from table:
- ► e.g. 0xB A D e.g. 1011 1010 1101
- ▶ **Q:** How do we go $Decimal \leftarrow \rightarrow Hex$? **Q:** Written in hex, what is the range of values of a single byte?

Practice

Practice Problem (pp) 2.2 - text, p. 38

- For n=19 find 2^n in decimal & hex
- For $2^n=32$, Find n in decimal & 2^n in Hex item For $2^n=0x80$, Find n in decimal & 2^n in Hex
- For $2^n = 0x10000$, Find n in decimal & 2^n in decimal
- For $2^n = 16,384$, Find n in decimal & 2^n in Hex
- **Q**(pp2.4): Without converting, what is: (i) 0x503c + 0x8 (ii) 0x503c + 0x40 (iii) 0x50ea 0x503c?

Practice

Basic C data types

Every computer has a *word size*. Technically, it is the largest number of contiguous bits that the ALU handles. Practically, it manifests itself as the nominal size of pointer data *i.e.* the the number of bits required for a virtual address.

A 32-bit $w\!or\!d$ limits virtual address space to 4GB and A 64-bit $w\!or\!d$ to $2^{64}=2^4\cdot 2^{60}=16$ Exabytes!

Signed	Unsigned	Bytes				
[signed] char	unsigned char	1				
short	unsigned short	2				
int	unsigned	4				
long	unsigned long	4, 8				
int32_t	unit_32	4				
${\tt int64_t}$	$\mathtt{unit}_{-}64$	8				
char *		8				
float		4				
double		8				

- ► These are typically allocated sizes. Not guaranteed.
- ► The C standard only guarantees *minimum* sizes. Actual size is implementation dependant.
- ➤ To avoid vagaries of "typical" sizes **ISO C99** defines int32_t, int64_t. These are guaranteed 4 & 8 bytes. In fact intN_t for N = 8, 16, 32, 64.
- ▶ **All** pointers are 8 bytes (4 bytes for 32-bit systems).
- Compilers typically treat char as signed. Not guaranteed by C std. Use prefix signed.
- C std. only guarantees lower bounds. Not upper bounds (except intN₋t types).

printf, scanf

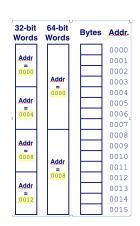
printf(): A general purpose output formatting function.
scanf(): Reads data from stdin and stores them according to the
format into the location(s) pointed to by additional arguments.

- Not defined in C. These are part of the standard library of functions (stdio.h).
- ▶ 1st arg: string of chars to be printed, each % indicating where one of the arguments substituted.
 e.g. printf("%2d\t %4.2f", dayNum, temperature, cost)
 The format string above specifies print:
 dayNum is an int at least 2 digits wide %2d;
 temperature as floating point;
 cost print as floating point, at least 4 characters wide, 2 after the decimal point.
- Other format specifiers: u unsigned; x, X (int) hex; c single char f, g, G floating point; p pointer; (void *).
- More on this next class.



Multi-byte Data and Addressing

- Programs refer to data by address: Conceptually, a very large array of bytes (not in reality).
- An address is like an index into that array and, a pointer variable stores an address.
- System provides private address spaces for each process.
- Addresses specify byte locations: Address of first byte in word.
 Successive word addresses differ by 8 bytes (for 64-bit) and



Multi-byte Data and Addressing

Variable x has a 4-byte value: 0x01234567 Address given by &x is 0x100

 Big Endian
 0x100 0x101 0x102 0x103

 01
 23
 45
 67

 Little Endian
 0x100 0x101 0x102 0x103

 67
 45
 23
 01