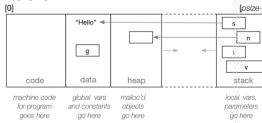
A Circus of Circuitry - A COMP1521 Notation

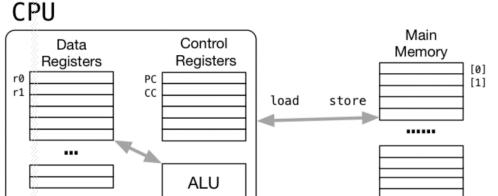
THEORY

CPUs – Level 9

- Processors (CPU)
 - o Control, arithmetic, logic, bit operators
 - Small set of simple operations
 - A range of ways to determine data locations
 - Small amount of very fast storage (registers)
 - o Small number of control registers
 - Fast fetch-decode-execute cycle
 - Access to system bus to communicate with other components
- Storage
 - Memory (small and fast)
 - Very large random-addressable array of bytes
 - Can fetch single bytes, or multiple-byte chunks into CPU
 - Access time typically $0.1\mu s$, size perhaps 64GB
 - o Disk storage (large and slower)
 - Very very large block-oriented storage
 - Often on a spinning disk, 512-4KB per request
 - Access time typically 30ms, size 8TB
 - Access time nowadays 100 μ s, size 512GB
- CPU Architecture modern processors (CPUs) have:
 - A set of data registers
 - Fast storage used to contain data while it is being manipulated
 - A set of control registers
 - Places to control the actions of a CPU
 - Including PC Program Counter
 - A control register which keeps track of execution
 - An arithmetic-logic unit (ALU)
 - Access to memory (RAM)
 - o A set of simple instructions to:
 - Transfer data between memory and registers
 - Push values through the ALU to compute results



Make tests and transfer control of execution

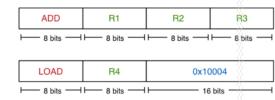


```
while (1)
{
   instruction = memory[PC]
   PC++ // move to next instr
   if (instruction == HALT)
       break
   else
      execute(instruction)
}
```

Execution logic looks like the right

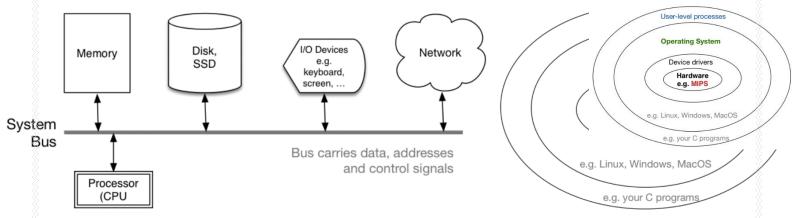
Instructions

- They are stored as strings of bits (as all things ultimately are)
 - 32-bit bit-strings
- o They contain info about:
 - What the operator is
 - What registers are involved
 - What memory locations are involved
- o They carry out the operation
- They store the value (if required) in memory



Address	Content
0x100000	0x3c041001
0x100004	0x34020004
0x100008	0x00000000
0x10000C	0x03e00008

Computer Architecture – *Like an Abacus but Amazing*



- Computer system
 - o Hardware core surrounded by layers of software
- Modern computer
 - o Devices connected via a system "bus"

 Bus – a communication system that transfers data between the components of a computer

Operating systems (OSs)

- Provide an abstraction layer on top of hardware (provide the same view regardless of underlying hardware)
- Have privileged access to the raw machine
- o Manage the use of machine resources (CPU, disk, memory...)
- o Provide uniform interface to access machine-level operations
- o Arrange for controlled execution of user programs
- o Provide multi-tasking and parallelism

Operating systems 'flavours'

- Batch (eg Eniac, early IBM OSs)
 - Computational jobs run one-at-a-time in a queue
- Multi-user (eg Unix/Linux, OSX, Windows)
 - Multiple jobs appear to run parallel
- o Embedded (eg Android, iOS)
- o Small, cut-down OS embedded in a device
- Real-time (eg RTLinux)
 - Specialised OS with time guarantees on job completion

Modern OSs abstractions

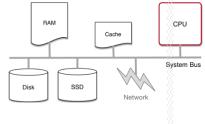
- Users who can access the system
- Access rights what users are allowed to do
- o File system how data is organised
- Input/output transferring data to/from devices
- o Processes active computation on the system
- Communication how processes interact
- Networking how the system talks to other systems
- Core OS functions stem from the operating system kernel

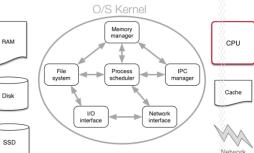
Execution modes

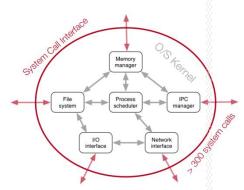
- Privileged mode
 - Full access to all machine operations and memory regions
- Non-privileged (user) mode
 - A limited set of operations (still Turing complete)
 - Access to only part of the memory
- System calls allow programs to cross the privileged/user boundary in a controlled manner via well-defined requests
 - Full OSs provide 100s of system calls
 - Process management
 - File management
 - Device management
 - Information maintenance
 - Communication

Libraries

- We resort to these when we want to do something beyond the low-level operations of system calls
- Collections of useful functions







- Referenced from within user programs (eg C functions)
- O Defined by #include <xxx.h>
- o Integrated with user code at 'link time'

Applications

- User-level programs which perform some useful task
- Possibly supplied with system (ls, vim, gcc)
- Possibly implemented by users (dcc, check, Webcms3)
- o They live in /bin, etc
- o Generally built using libraries, may also use system calls
- o Unix is unusual
 - Has a command interpreter that runs as a user-level process
 - But can invoke other user-level processes

System calls

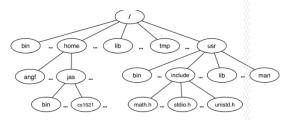
- o Invoked directly (library provided in the manual for the OS)
- Invoked indirectly through functions in the C libraries (also documented in the manual)
- May fail
 - This can be detected by checking return values or the global variable errno
 - C programs need to check and handle error themselves (provides no exception handling)
- Failed calls in C
 - fprintf(stderr, "Can't do %s", Something);exit(1)
 - perror(char *Message);
 exit(errno);
 (sends precise error to shell)
 - error(Status, ErrNum, Format, Expressions, ...); (Linux library function)
 - Print error message using program name, Format and Expressions
 - If Status is non-zero, invoke exit(Status) after printing message
 - If ErrNum is non-zero, also print standard system error message

File Systems – *The Bureaucracy*

File systems

- o Provide a mechanism for managing stored data
- Typically on a disk device
- Allocates chunks of space on the device to files
 - A file can be viewed as a sequence of bytes
 - A directory can be viewed as a file containing references to other files
- Allows access to files by name and with access rights
- Arranges access to files via directories (folders)
- Maintains information about files/directories (meta-data)
- Deals with damage on the storage device ("bad blocks")

- Unix/Linux file system
 - o "Tree structured"
 - Actually a graph after considering symbolic links
 - Used to access various types of objects
 - Files, directories, devices, processes, sockets
 - o Paths can be
 - Absolute (full path from root)
 - Relative (path starts from CWD)
- File manipulation commands
 - FILE * and it's relevant operations
 - o fgets, fputs, fgetc, fputc
 - fscanf, fprintf
- Unix file system defines a range of file-system-related types
 - o off t
 - Offsets within files
 - Typically long and signed to allow backward references
 - o size_t
 - Number of bytes in some object
 - (Basically an unsigned int or long long)
 - Unsigned
 - o ssize t
 - Sizes of read/written blocks
 - Like size_t, but signed to allow for error values
 - struct stat
 - File system object metadata
 - Stores info about a file
 - Requires ino_t, dev_t, time_t, uid_t
- Inodes
 - Data structures which store metadata for file system objects
 - Physical location on storage device
 - File type, file size
 - Ownership, access permissions, timestamps
 - o Each file system volume (designated storage area) has a table of inodes
 - Access to a file by name requires a directory
 - Directories are lists of name/inode pairs
 - Access to files looks like this:
 - Open directory and scan for name
 - If not found, "No such file or directory"
 - If found (name, ino) access inode table inodes[ino]
 - Collect file metadata
 - Check file permissions
 - If no permission, "Permission denied"
 - Collect information, update timestamp
 - Use physical location to access device and manipulate file data
- Unix presents a uniform interface to file system objects
 - Functions and syscalls manipulate objects as a stream of bytes
 - Accessed via a file descriptor (index into a system table)



- Common operations are open(), close(), read(), write(), etc
- o int open(char *Path, int Flags)
 - Attempt to open an object at Path according to Flags
 - Flags are constants defined in <fcntl.h>
 - O RDONLY (open for reading)
 - O_WRONLY (open for writing)
 - Etc
 - They can be combined
- int close(int FileDesc)
 - Attempt to release an open file descriptor
 - If this is the last reference to object, release its resources
- ssize_t read(int FileDesc, void *Buffer, size_t Count)
 - Attempt to read Count bytes from FileDesc into Buffer
 - Does not check whether Buffer has enough space
 - Returns number of bytes read
- ssize_t write(int FileDesc, void *Buffer, size_t Count)
 - Attempt to write Count bytes from Buffer onto FileDesc
 - Does not check whether Buffer has Count bytes of data
 - Returns number of bytes written
 - Useful can write into structs
- off_t lseek(int FileDesc, off_t Offset, int Whence)
 - Set the "current position" of the FileDesc (basically we move around in a file)
 - Offset is in units of bytes, can be negative
 - Whence can be:
 - SEEK SET set to Offset from start of file
 - SEEK_CUR set to Offset from current position
 - SEEK_END set file position to Offset from end of file
- int stat(char *FileName, struct stat *StatBuf)
 - Stores metadata associated with FileName into StatBuf
 - Includes
 - Inode number, file type and access mode, owner, group, etc
 - Size in bytes, storage block size, allocated blocks
 - Time of last access, modification, status change
 - int fstat(int FileDesc, struct stat *StatBuf)
 - Same but gets data via an open file descriptor
 - int lstat(char *FileName, struct stat *StatBuf)
 - Same but doesn't follow symbolic links
- Links
 - Hard links
 - Multiple directory entries referencing the same inode
 - The two entries must be on the same filesystem
 - Symbolic links (symlinks)
 - A file containing the path name of another file
 - Opening the symlink opens the file being referenced
 - o int mkdir(char *PathName, mode_t Mode)
 - Create a new directory called PathName with mode Mode

- All files in the path must exist
- The directory we write to must be writeable to the caller
- The directory we create must not already exist
- The new directory contains two initial entries
 - . is a reference to itself
 - .. is a reference to its parent directory
- Returns 0 if successful, otherwise -1
- int fsync(int FileDesc)
 - Ensures that data associated with FileDesc is written to storage
 - (Usually written data is stored in memory buffers, and eventually goes to permanent storage)
 - (fsync() forces this to happen immediately

Processors and Processing – It's a Process

- A process is an active computation, consisting of:
 - o RAM: code (read-only), data (read/write)
 - Registers: program counter (PC) and other registers
 - o Other management info
- Multiple processes can be active simultaneously
 - Typically not all loaded in RAM at onces
 - o Processes can be suspended (waiting)
 - Restoring a process: load code, data, registers
- If we have multiple processes...
 - We can't structure our program linearly, since the stack frames would interfere with each other
 - We thus allocate some memory for both processes
 - When we reference memory in our [p1size+psize2-1] code, we can't do it directly, so we need to remember the base address for each process

proc1

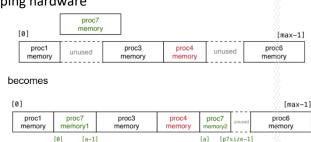
[p1size]

proc1

proc1

proc2

- \circ We then reference specific areas of memory with addr + p1size instead of addr
 - This can be automatically mapped during execution
- Remember base address for each process (process table)
 - When process starts, load base into mapping hardware
 - Interpret every addr as base + addr
- If we add a new process...
 - Slot it in a free chunk of memory that's big enough
 - Otherwise, split our process into two smaller chunks of memory



[plsize-1]

[max-1]

proc1

Memory Management

- It makes sense to standardise chunks of memory
 - Call each chunk of address space a page
 - All pages are the same size P
 - Page i has addresses A in the range $i * P \le A < (i + 1) * P$
- Virtual addresses and address mapping tables
 - Each process has an array of page entries
 - Each page entry contains the start address of one chunk
 - Can compute the index of relevant page entry by A/P
 - Can compute the offset within the page by A%P
- Eg: Pages p0@5000, p1@3000, p2@1000, page size 1000
 - Virtual address 0 refers to physical address 5000
 - Virtual address 128 refers to physical address 5128
 - Virtual address 1500 refers to physical address 3500
 - Virtual address 2200 refers to physical address 1200
- o If pages are of size $Pagesize == 2^n ...$
 - Computing page number and offset becomes very efficient
 - We simply use bitwise operators with two bitmasks (for pageno and offset)

Virtual Memory

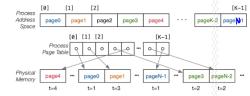
- A side effect of this mapping is that we don't need to load all of our process's pages upfront (like we would in MIPS)
 - We start with a small memory footprint (ie just main and stack top)
 - We load new process address pages into memory as needed
 - Grow up to the size of the physical memory
- o We can:
 - Divide process memory space into fixed-size pages
 - Load process pages into physical memory
- This is virtual memory
 - We map virtual to physical memory in a table

Implications

- In any given time, a process is likely to access only a fraction of its pages
- This is known as the working set model
- We only need to hold the working set at a given time
- If each process has a relatively small working set, it can hold pages for many processes simultaneously
- The process address space can be larger than immediate physical memory
- Where do we "load" pages from?
 - o Code, global data from executable file stored on disk
 - O Dynamic (heap, stack) data is created in memory
 - Note: transferring between disk→memory is very expensive

Pre-process page table

- Can be considered a struct of structs, stored in memory
- Allows us to keep track of what is and is not loaded
- Requesting a non-loaded page generates a page fault
 - We often keep a free list to keep track of free frames
 - If there are no free frames, we either suspend the request or replace a currently loaded page



Memory

Disk

[1]

[L-1]

[0] [1]

T [2]

] [K-1]

Page Table

[O] Loaded

NotLoaded

where K =

[K-2]

[K-1] Modified

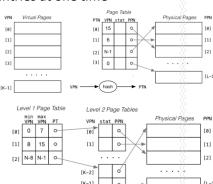
- Page replacement
 - When a page is replaced
 - If it's been modified since loading, save to disk (requires flags)
 - Grab its frame number and give it to the requestor
 - Which frame should be replaced
 - Define a "usefulness" measure for each frame
 - Grab the frame with the lowest usefulness. When replacing...
 - Prefer pages that are read-only (no need to write to disk)
 - Prefer pages that are unmodified (no need to write to disk)
 - Prefer pages that are only used by one process
 - "A page not used recently may not be needed again soon" (LRU replacement)
 - Thrashing: constantly swapping pages in and out of memory
 - The working set model and LRU helps avoid this
- Page replacement strategies
 - o LRU
 - Least recently used
 - FIFO
 - Page frames are entered into a queue and page replacement uses the frame from the front of the queue
 - Clock sweep
 - Uses a reference bit for each frame
 - Maintains a circular list of allocated frames
 - Uses a "clock hand" which iterates over page frame list
 - All referenced pages are skipped and reset
 - First-found unreferenced frame used
- Page table strategies (we only need in practice some $n \ll K$ page table entries at one time
 - o Hashing
 - Make a page table
 - Hash it (map several pages to one spot to save space)
 - Multi-level page tables
 - One table of tables
 - le entries 0 to 7 in one table, 8 to 15 in another, etc
 - It's unlikely we use all at once

Cache memory

- o Small, fast memory close to CPU
- o Holds parts of RAM we think will be heavily used
- Transfers data to/from RAM in blocks
- Memory reference hardware checks cache first
 - If not there, gets from RAM
- Similar replacement strategies similar to virtual memory
- Memory management hardware
 - Address translation is done by MMU
 - o TLB translation lookaside buffer

Process

o An instance of an executing program



- Each process has an execution state defined by
 - Current execution point
 - Current values of CPU registers
 - Current contents of virtual address space
 - Information about open files, sockets, etc
- o To manage processes, maintain
 - Process page table
 - Process metadata
- OS ideology
 - Multiple processes are active "simultaneously"
 - The processes have control-flow independence and private address space

• Control-flow independence

- o Each process executes as if the only process running on the machine
- If there are in fact multiple processes running on the machine
 - Each process uses the CPU until pre-empted or exits
 - Then another process uses the CPU until it is pre-empted
 - Eventually the first process will get another run
 - (Effectively a priorityQ)
- O What causes pre-emption?
 - If it runs "long enough" and the OS replaces it
 - It attempts to perform a long-duration task
- On pre-emption
 - The process's entire **context** is saved
 - Static information (code, data)
 - Dynamic state (heap, stack, registers)
 - OS-supplied state (environment variables, stdin, stdout)
 - The process is flagged and suspended
 - It is places on a process (priority) queue
 - On resuming it is restored
 - Contexts are entirely switched (context switch)
- Non-static process context is held in a process control block (PCB)
 - Identifier (unique process ID)
 - Status (running, ready, suspended, exited)
 - State (registers)
 - Privileges (owner, group)
 - Memory management info (page table reference)
 - Accounting (CPU time used, amount done)
 - I/O (open file descriptors)
- o The OS scheduler maintains a queue
- The OS maintains a table of PCBs
- Unix/Linux Process
 - Commands
 - sh For creating processes via object-file name
 - ps Show process info
 - w Show per-user process info
 - top Show high-CPU-usage process info

- kill Send a signal to a process
- o PCB info
 - pid process id
 - ruid, euid real and effective user id
 - rgid, egid real and effective group id
 - Cwc
 - Accumulated execution time
 - User file descriptor table
 - Info on how to react to signals
 - Pointer to process page table
 - Process state
- Process ID (PID)
 - A positive integer, unique
 - Type pid_t
 - Process 0 is the idle process (always runnable)
 - A 'kernel artefact'
 - Not a real process
 - Needed to ensure there is always at least one process
 - Process 1 is init ("the system")
 - Low-numbered processes are system-related
 - Regular processes are in (300, maxPID (maybe 2¹⁶))
- o 'Families'
 - Each process had a parent process (usually that which created it)
 - A process may have child processes
 - Process 1 created at system startup
 - If a process' parent dies, it is inherited by process 1
- Process groups
 - Each group is associated with a unique PGID
 - Type pid t
 - A child belongs to the process group of its parent
 - A process can create its own process group or move to another one
 - Allow the OS to keep track of groups working together
 - Signals sent to related processes
 - Management of processes for job control
 - Management of processes within pipelines
- System calls (and failure)
 - Use wrapper functions
 - Same arguments/returns as system call
 - Catches and reports the error
 - Only ever returns with a valid result
 - Not always appropriate (open() is best handled by caller)
- Unix/Linux process-related system calls
 - o pid_t fork(void)
 - Requires #include <unistd.h>
 - Creates new process by duplicating the calling process
 - New process is the child
 - Child has different process ID

- Returns
 - In the child, fork() returns 0
 - In the parent, fork() returns the pid of the child
 - If the call fails, fork() returns -1
- Child inherits copies of parent's address space and open file descriptors
- Wrapper function for fork():

```
pid_t Fork() {
    pid_t pid;
    if ((pid = fork())<0) {
        perror("fork() failed");
        exit(1);
    }
    return pid;
}</pre>
```

- void _exit(int status)
 - Terminates current process
 - Closes any file descriptors
 - A SIGCHLD signal is sent to parent
 - Returns status to parent (via wait())
- void exit(int status)
 - Terminates current process
 - Triggers any functions registered as atexit()
 - Flushes stdio buffers, closes open FILE *s
 - Then behaves like exit()
- void atexit(void (*func)(void))
 - Executes the function at exit
- o pid_t getpid() / getppid()
 - Requires #include <sys/types.h>
 - Returns the process ID / parent process ID of the current process
 - Also getpgid(), setpgid()
- pid_t waitpid(pid_t pid, int *status, int options)
 - Pause current process until process pid changes state (finishing, stopping, restarting)
 - Ensures that child resources are released on exit
- o pid_t wait(int *status)
 - Pauses until one of the child processes terminates
- int kill(pid_t ProcID, int SigID)
 - Requires #include <signal.h>
 - Send signal SigID to process ProcID
 - Various signals, eg:
 - SIGHUP hangup detected on controlling terminal/process
 - SIGINT interrupt from keyboard (ctrl+C)
 - SIGKILL kill signal
 - SIGILL illegal instruction
 - SIGFPE floating point exception
 - SIGSEGV invalid memory reference

- SIGPIPE broken pipe
- o int execve(char *Path, char *Argv[], char *Envp[])
 - Transforms current process by executing Path object
 - Path must be an executable, binary or script (starting with #!)
 - Passes array of strings to new process
 - Both arrays terminated by a NLL pointer element
 - Envp[] contains strings of the form key=value
 - Most of the original process is lost
 - New virtual address space, signal handlers reset, etc
 - New process inherits open file descriptors from original process

Zombie process

- o A process which has exited but signal not handled
- o All processes become zombie until a SIGCHLD handled
- o Parent may be delayed, but usually resolved quickly
- Long-term zombies created when a bug in parent causes it to ignore SIGCHLD
- o Zombies occupy a slot in the process table

Orphan process

- When parent exits, orphan is given pid=1 as its parent
- o pid=1 always handles SIGCHLD when process exits

Process Control Flow

- o Flow
 - Fetch instruction from memory[PC], PC++
 - Decode and execute instruction
 - If jump-type instruction, PC = new address
 - If regular instruction, carry out
 - Repeat above
- System calls
 - Typically operate via exceptions
 - Generates an exception
 - Control transferred to exception handler
 - · Carries out system-level operations
 - Returns control to the process
 - Effect is like a normal function call
- o Signals
 - Can be generated from a variety of sources
 - From another process via kill()
 - From the OS
 - From within the process
 - From a fault in the process
 - From a device
 - Processes can define how they want to handle signals

Signal handlers

Functions invoked in response to a signal

- Knows which signal it was invoked by
- Ensures the invoking signal is blocked and carried out any appropriate action
- SigHnd signal(int SigID, SigHnd Handler)
 - Defines with what function a process will handle a signal
 - Requires <signal.h>
 - SigID is an OS-defined signal
 - Handler is one of:
 - SIG IGN (ignore)
 - SIG_DFL (default handler)
 - A user defined function to handle SigID signals
- o int sigaction(int sigID, struct sigaction *newAct, struct sigaction *oldAct)
 - sigID is an OS-defined signal
 - newAct defines how signal should be handled
 - oldAct saves a copy of how signal was handled
 - if newAct.sa_handler ==
 - SIG_IGN, ignore
 - SIG DFL, default
 - struct sigaction has:
 - A pointer to a handler function
 - A mask, specifying signal to block
 Flags to modify how signal is treated

• Interrupts

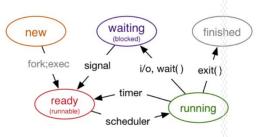
- Signals which cause normal process execution to be suspended
- o An interrupt handler then carries out tasks related to interrupt
 - Control is then returned to original process
- o Egs
- When data is fetched from the disk, interrupt and place data in a buffer
- If a process is pre-empted

Exceptions

- Like interrupts but for internal factors (computation)
- Egs
- Division by 0
- Failed malloc call
- Muti-tasking summary
 - Multiple processes "active"
 - o Processes not executing simultaneously (although could with multiple CPUs)
 - o Processes are a mixture of
 - Blocked waiting on signal
 - Runnable
 - One is running (each CPU)
 - Appearance of multiple simultaneous processes
 - Swap process after one runs for a defined time
 - Processes are pre-empted
 - System scheduler selects new process

Scheduling

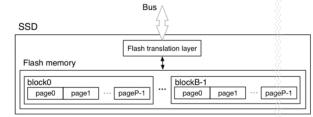
- o Processes organised into priorityQs
- Determined by several factors:



- System processes > user processes
- Long running <
- Memory intensive <
- Some processes suggest their own priority

Device Management – The Heavy Hardware

- I/O devices
 - o Allow programs to communicate with "the outside" world
- Memory-based data
 - o Fast random access via virtual address
 - Transfer data in bytes, words, etc
- Device data
 - Must slower access
 - o Random or sequential
 - Often in blocks (128B, 512B, 4KB etc)
- Hard disk
 - Address by track and sector
 - Around 0.1ms transfer
- Solid State Disk (SSD) characteristics
 - High capacity (GB), high cost, reads faster than writes
 - Pages 512B..4KB, blocks 32..128 pages, R/W page-at-a-time
 - o Pages updates by erase then write
 - \circ Average read/write time in order of 10^{-5}
- Device Drivers
 - o Each type of device has a unique access protocol
 - Special control and data registers
 - Locations for data to be R/W
 - Device drivers code chunks to control an i/o device
 - Core OS components
 - Sometimes written in assembler
 - o Typical protocol to manipulate
 - Send request
 - Receive interrupt when completed
- Memory mapped I/O
 - OS defines special memory address
 - User programs perform i/o by getting/putting data into memory
 - Virtual addresses associated with
 - Data buffers
 - Control registers
 - Advantages:
 - Can use existing memory to access logic circuits
 - Can use full range of CPU operations
- Devices on Linux/Unix



Device "files" can be accessed via file system under "/dev"

dev/diskN hard drivedev/ttyN terminal device

dev/ptyN pseudo-terminal device

and also lol...

dev/mem the physical memory of the computer

dev/null data sink / empty source

dev/random stream of pseudo-random numbers

- int ioctl(int FileDesc, int Request, void *Arg)
 - Manipulates parameters of special files
 - o Request is a device specific request code
 - o Arg is an integer modifier or pointer to data block

Networking – Gotta Make Those Connections

Sockets

 Unix/Linux provides sockets to communicate processes that may be on difference systems



- Consider them to be "a door"
- Both endpoints need to create one
- Socket an end-point of a channel
 - Either locally (Unix domain) or network-wide (internet domain)
- Server creates a socket, then
 - Binds to an address
 - Listens for connections from clients
- Client creates a socket then
 - Connects to server using an address
 - R/W to server via socket
- int socket(int Domain, int Type, int Protocol)
 - Requires #include <sys/socket.h>
 - Creates a socket using:
 - Domain communications domain
 - AF_LOCAL (local host)
 - AF_INET (over the network)
 - Type semantics of communication
 - SOCK_STREAM (sequenced, reliable communications stream)
 - SOCK_DGRAM (connectionless, unreliable packet transfer)
 - Protocol communication protocol
 - Many exist
- int bind(int Sockfd, SockAddr *Addr, socklen_t AddrLen)
 - Associates open socket with an address
 - For Unix, address is a pathname
 - For Internet, address is IP and port number
- int listen(int Sockfd, int Backlog)

- Wait for connections on socket Sockfd
- Allow at most Backlog connections to queue up
- SockAddr = struct sockaddr_in
 - sin_family domain (AF_UNIX or AF_INET)
 - sin port port number
 - sin_addr structure containing host address
 - sin_zero[8] padding
- accept(int Sockfd, SockAddr *Addr, socklen_t *AddrLen)
 - Sockfd has been created, bound and is listening
 - Blocks until a connection request is received
 - Sets up a connection between client/server after connect()
- connect(int Sockfd, SockAddr *Addr, socklen_t *AddrLen)
 - Connects the socket Sockfd to address Addr
 - Assumes that Addr contains a process listening appropriately

Networks

- Interconnected collections of computers
- o Flavours
 - Local area networks (within a physical location) (LAN)
 - Wide area networks (geographically dispersed) (WAN)
 - Internet (global set of WANs)
- Basic requirements
 - Get data from machine A to machine B
 - A and B may be separated by 100s of networks and devices
- How to achieve
 - Need a unique address for destination
 - Identify a route
 - Process at intermediate nodes
 - Follow certain protocols
- How a file is sent
 - File data divided into packets by source device
 - Packets are small fixed-size chunks of data with headers
 - Passed across physical link
 - Wire, radio, optic fibre
 - May not actually be "physical" physical lol
 - Passed through multiple nodes
 - Each node redirects to another node
 - Packets reach destination
 - Re-ordering, error-checking, buffering
 - File received by receiving process or user

• The Internet

- o Concept
 - Millions of connected devices
 - Communication links
 - Fibre, copper, radio satellite
 - Packet switches
 - Routers, network switches

The 5-layer Model for the Internet

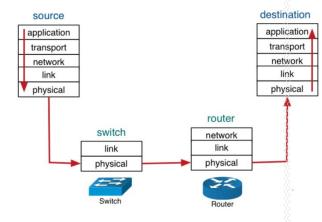
- Lowest (least abstract)
- Physical layer
 - Bits
- Link layer
 - Ethernet, MAC addressing, CSMA
- Network layer
 - Routing protocols (IP)
- Transport layer
 - TCP Transmission Control Protocol
 - Wait for a signal (connection established and held)
 - UDP User Datagram Protocol
 - Keep sending, minimal checks in place, no guarantees
- Application layer
 - NWS, HTTP, email, FTP
- Highest (most abstract)
- Protocols effectively 'rules and regulations'
 - o Govern all communication activity on the network
 - Format and order of messages sent/received
 - Actions taken on transmission/receipt
 - Defined in all the layers
 - Link: PPP (point-to-point)
 - Network: IP (internet protocol)
 - Transport: TCP (transmission control), UDP (user datagram)
 - Application: HTTP, FTP SSH, POP, SMTP

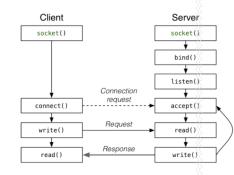
Client-Server Architecture

- Server is a data provider
 - Process that waits for requests
 - Always-on host, permanent IP
 - Possibly using data centres / multiple CPUs
- Client is a data consumer
 - Sends requests to server, collects response
 - May be intermittently connected
 - Does not communicate with other clients

IP Addresses

- o Unique identifiers for host on a network
- Given as a 32-bit identifier (dotted quad)
 - 127.0.0.1 (refers to local host)
- o IP addresses are assigned by the sys admin entering into local registry
- The HTTP Protocol

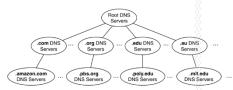




- HTTP = HyperText Transfer Protocol
 - Drives the web
 - Message types:
 - URLs (requests)
 - Web pages (responses)
 - Message syntax:
 - Headers and data
 - Client-server model:
 - Client = web browser
 - Server = web server



- URL components
 - Protocol
 - Host
 - Port
 - Path
 - Query (everything after the '?')
- Server Addresses (DNS)
 - Domain Name System provides name to IP mapping
 - le www.cse.unsw.edu.au → IP
 - Effectively a database of mappings
 - Name servers cooperate to achieve this
 - Name resolution (two styles)
 - Iterated query
 - Client contacts name server X
 - Response: "I don't know, but ask name server Y" OR "Here it is"
 - Recursive query
 - Client contacts name server X
 - X contacts Y, Y contacts Z... until resolve
 - Management of servers
 - Top-level domain (TLD) name servers
 - Authoritative name servers (within an organisation)
 - Local (default)
 - o The Unix/Linux host command does this too
- Transport Layer deals with
 - Data integrity
 - Some apps (file transfer) require 100% reliable transfer
 - Other apps can tolerate some loss
 - Timing
 - Some appes (eg networked games) require low transmission delay
 - Throughput
 - Some apps require minimum throughput



- Others ("elastic apps") can use whatever
- Security
 - Some require encrypted transmission

Multiple Processes – Threading the Needle

Parallelism

- Multiple computations executed simultaneously
- Eg multiple CPUs, one process on each CPU
- Eg data vector, one processor computes each element
- o Eg SIMD (single instruction, multiple data) like above

Concurrency

- Multiple processes running (pseudo-) simultaneously
- Eg single CPU alternating between processes
 - Can be achieved from processes
 - This requires kernel intervention
 - Each process has a significant amount of state
 - Requires system-level mechanisms
- o Increases system throughput
 - If one process is delayed, others can still run
 - Use all CPUs if multiple
- Effects of poorly controlled concurrency
 - Nondeterminism same code, different runs, different results
 - Deadlock a group of processes wait for each other
 - Starvation one process keeps missing access to a resource
 - Other: eg bank withdrawal conundrum
- Concurrency control
 - Provide correct sequencing of interactions between processes
 - Coordinate semantically-valid access to shared resources
 - Shared memory based scheme
 - Uses shared variable, manipulated atomically
 - Blocks if access unavailable, decrements once available
 - Message passing based scheme
 - Processes communicate by sending/receiving messages
 - Receiver can block waiting for message to arrive
 - Sender may block waiting for message to be received

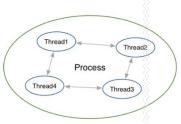
• Producer-consumer problem

- Producer produces (puts item into an array)
- Consumer consumes (takes item from an array)
- We need a mechanism for a process to pause itself, and a mechanism for signalling for a process to wake up

Semaphores

- Shared memory objects to prevent these issues (literally just a shared variable)
 - Can be thought of as a count of available resources
- Init(Sem, InitValue), while(Sem), signal(Sem)
 - Init set value

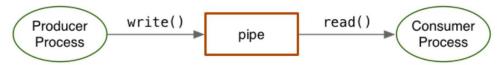
- Wait if sem>0, decrement, else wait until sem>0
- Signal increment sem
- Note: a series of Linux commands for this exist
- Threads alternate method for concurrency
 - Threads exist within a parent process (processes independent)
 - Threads share parent process state (processes own)
 - All threads share an address space (processes own)
 - Threats communicate via shared memory (processes use IPC)
 - Content switching between threads is cheaper than with processes
- Linux/Unix thread commands (#include <pthread.h>)
 - Int pthread_create(pthread_t *Thread, pthread_attr_t *Attr, void *(*Func)(void *), void *Arg)
 - Creates a new thread with specified attributes
 - Thread info in *Thread
 - Starts by executing Func() with Arg
 - pthread_t pthread_self(void)
 - Returns pthread_t for current thread
 - Analogous getpid()
 - o int pthread_equal(pthread_t t1, pthread_t t2)
 - Compares two threads
 - Returns non-zero if same thread
 - o int pthread_join(pthread_t T, void **value_ptr)
 - Suspend execution until threat T terminates
 - Exit value placed in value_ptr
 - If T has exited already, does not wait
 - void pthread_exit(void *value_ptr)
 - Terminate a thread and clean up
 - Store return value in value_ptr
- MapReduce
 - o A model for manipulating very large data on a large network of nodes
 - Map filter data and distribute to nodes as (key, value) pairs
 - Each node receives a set of pairs with common keys
 - o Reduce nodes perform calculation on received data items
 - Outputs from the nodes combined
- Interacting processes
 - o Processes can interact via:
 - Signals, signal handlers
 - Accessing the same resource
 - Pipes (stdout of process A goes into stdin of process B)
 - Message queues
 - Sockets
 - Issues
 - Eg two processes writing to the same file 'simultaneously'
- File Locking
 - o int flock(int FileDesc, int Operation)
 - Operations:
 - LOCK_SH (acquire share lock)



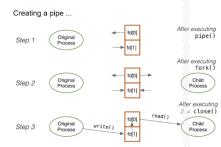
- LOCK_EX (acquire exclusive lock)
 - Blocks if a process tries to acquire shared lock
 - Will fail if already locked
- LOCK_UN (unlock)
- LOCK_NB (operation fails rather than blocking)
- o Does not return until lock available
- Only works if all processes accessing file use locks

Pipes

- A style of process interaction
- Producer process writes to a byte stream, consumer process reads from same byte stream
- o Provides buffered i/o between producer and consumer
 - Producer blocks when buffer full
 - Consumer blocks when buffer empty
- o Pipes are bidirectional (unless processes close one file descriptor)



- o int pipe(int fd[2])
 - Open two file descriptors (shares by proceses)
 - fd[0] is opened for reading, fd[1] for writing
- Creating a pipe would be followed by fork() to create a child process
 - Both have copies of fd[]
 - One can write to fd[1], the other can read from fd[0]
- FILE *popen(char *Cmd, char *Mode)
 - Analogous to fopen()
 - Cmd is passed to shell for interpretation
 - Returns FILE *, which can be read/written based on Mode (or NULL if can't establish)
- Only works because both processes share an address space (both can access p[])
 What if we execve() in the child? How can we still access the pipe?
 - Connect stdout and p[1] in the parent process
 - Connect stdin and p[0] in the child
 - Then exec (parent can send data to child)
 - Swap 'em for child sending data to parent
- Connecting via dup2()
 - dup2(fd1,fd2)
 - Copies file descriptor fd1 onto fd2
 - fd's are just indexes into a table of structures
 - dup(fd1) copies fd1 onto the "next free" fd



stdin

stdout

pipe(

1

3

p[0]

p[1]

0

p[0]

p[1]

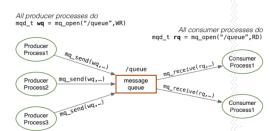
Message queues

- Provides a mechanism for unrelated processes to pass information along a buffered channel shared by many processes
- o Processes connect to message queues by name
- o Requires #include <mqueue.h>
- mqd_t mq_open(char *Name, int Flags)
 - Creates a new message queue, or opens existing one
 - Flags same as fopen() (eg O_RDONLY)
- o int mq_close(mqd_t *MQ)
 - Finish accessing message queue MQ
 - It continues to exist
- int mq_send(mqd_t MQ, char *Msg, int Size, uint Prio)
 - Adds message Msg to the queue MQ
 - Prio gives priority
 - If MQ is full, blocks until MQ space available
- o mq_timedsend()
 - Waits for specified time if MQ full
 - Fails if still no space on MQ after timeout

<u>CRAFT</u>

Bits and Bytes – *Delicious!*

- One byte is 8 bits
 - o int = 4 bytes = 32 bits
- C bitwise operators
 - & (AND)
 - Goes through every digit and applies the operator to each matching digit
 - O | (OR)
 - Likewise
 - ^ (XOR)
 - Result is 1 if the compared numbers are different, else 0
 - O ~ (NEG)
 - Negation converts all zeroes to ones and ones to zeroes
 - << (left shift)</p>
 - Sends digits to the left by a given amount and replaces with 0s
 - Eg: "01011011 << 3" gives 11011000
 - o >> (right shift)
 - Sends digits to the right by a given amount and replaces with 0s**
 - **unless the quantity is signed, then it is replaces with the first digit
 - Eg: "01011011 >> 3" gives 00010110



- Representing numbers
 - Hexadecimal
 - Each number is 4 bits
 - Eg 4 = 0100
 - Eg F = 1111
 - When writing hex in C, begin it with 0x
 - Eg 0x71 for 113
 - Octal
 - Each number is 3 bits
 - Eg 5 = 101
 - Eg 6 = 110
 - Binary
 - Each digit is one bit
 - Eg 1 = 1
 - Eg 0 = 0
 - When writing binary in C, begin it with 0b
 - Eg 0b1101 for 13

Data Representation – *Let Me Lay it All Out for Ya*

- Typical memory usage for a given C code
 - Space in between malloc and stack
 - Stack needs the space, keeps adding variables 'on top' as required by the code
 - Different "stack frames" for different 'levels' of the
 - Eg if we call a function in a function, we put another frame on the stack
 - Malloc is fluid and so needs its distance
- int g(int y) {
 int r = 4 * h(y);
 return r; Stack frame for g() contains y, r int h(int z) {
 int i, p = 1;
 for (i=1; i<=z; i++)
 p = p * i;
 return p</pre> Stack frame for f() Stack frame for main() [psize-1] "Hello" ◀ s n

Stack frame for h() contains i, p,2

local vars,

parameters

go here

int main() {

int f(int x) {
 return g(x);

g

data

global vars

and constants

go here

malloc'd

objects

go here

int n, m; n = 5; m = f(n);

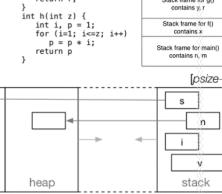
- The C view of data
 - o Variables are an example of computational objects
- Computational objects have:
 - A location in memory (obtain with (&')
 - A value (a bit string)
 - A name (unless malloc'd)
 - A type, which determines
 - **Size** (in units of whole bytes, found with sizeof)
 - Which options to use to interpret its value
 - A scope (where it's visible in the program)
 - A lifetime (during which part of execution it exists)
- A global variable has global region, scope of the whole file, lifetime of all runtime

code

machine code

for program

goes here



- A local variable is in the stack, has a scope in main(), and has a lifetime ending with main()
- Static variables in main have global region, scope in main() and lifetime of the whole runtime
- Variables defined after main() can only be accessed in functions
- Functions are in the code, with scope everywhere and lifetime of their execution
- Function arguments are in the stack, with scope and lifetime in f()
 - Same for local function variables
- The physical view of data essentially a very large array of bytes
 - o Called main memory, RAM, primary storage, etc
 - Indexes are memory addresses (pointers)
 - Data can be fetched in chunks of 1,2,4,8 bytes
 - The cost of fetching any byte (no matter where it is) is the same (nanoseconds)
 - The byte address for an N-byte object must be divisible by N
 - Can be volatile or non-volatile
 - o -endian
 - Little-endian
 - Least significant byte first, then second least second, etc



[1]

byte2 byte1

[2]

- Big-endian
 - "It's when you look at it and it looks nice." -Annie
 - Most significant byte first, then second second, etc
- Data representation
 - ASCII (ISO 646)
 - 7-bit values, using lower 7-bits of a byte, with the top bit 0

0	ΙΙТ	E 0	ии	nicoc	1~1
()	UI.	Г-О	w	IILUL	ıeı

- 8-bit values, with ability to extend further
- Can encode all human language and other symbols, including mathematical signs or emojis
- #bytes #bits Byte 1 Byte 2 Byte 3 Byte 4

 1 7 0xxxxxxx -
 2 11 110xxxx 10xxxxxx -
 3 16 1110xxx 10xxxxx 10xxxxx
 4 21 11110xx 10xxxxx 10xxxxx 10xxxxx

The 127 1-byte codes are compatible with ASCII

The 2048 2-byte codes include most Latin-script alphabets

The 65536 3-byte codes include most Asian languages

The 2097152 4-byte codes include symbols and emojis and .

- Uses a variable length encoding (one, two, three or four bytes)
- The first byte begins with a code instructing the compiler to detect ASCII
 - Eg μ is U+00B5 which is 1011 0101 in binary and unicode **110**00010 **10**110101
- Integers (three ways to write)

Signed decimal
 Unsigned hexadecimal
 Signed octal
 42 (0-9)
 0x2A (0-F)
 052 (0-7)

Variations:

Unsigned int 123U (32-bit)
 Long int 123L (64-bit)
 Short int 123S (16-bits)

- Easy data conversions
 - Binary → hex: look in blocks of four digits

Signed integers

- The first bit (digit) is 0 for positive, 1 for negative
 - Several representation options
- Signed magnitude
 - First digit is sign, the rest are magnitude
 - Simple addition does not work
- Ones complement
 - -N is formed by converting all bits in N
 - But we have two zeros: 11111111 (-0) and 00000000 (0)
- Twos complement
 - -N is formed by converting all bits in N and adding 1
 - x = -(-x)
 - Addition works
 - There's a random 'overflow' bit we conveniently ignore

• Different types of pointers to point to different things

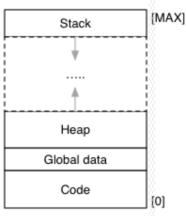
- However they all have the same size (typically 32-bit)
- The values must all be appropriate for the given data point
 - (char *) can reference any byte address
 - (int *) must have addr%4 == 0

• Considering the diagram

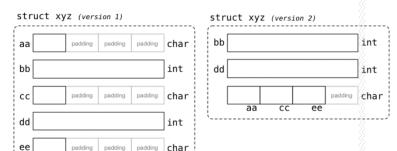
- o Low memory values tend to be associated with the code
- o High memory values tend to be associated with the stack
- Incrementing pointers (pointer arithmetic)
 - o Moves them to the next memory address forward
 - o A common (efficient) method for scanning a string is to increment a charcter pointer
- Normalisation "New binary scientific notation"
 - Floats are represented by: $Num = (1 + fraction) * 2^{(exp-bias)}$
 - o Exponent is represented relative to a bias value B
 - $Bias = 2^{nbits-1} 1$
 - o 1010.1011 is normalised as 1.0101011x2⁰¹¹
 - Always have 1 before the decimal point
 - If we had a zero we'd be wasting memory, we could just shift the whole thing

Floating point

- Float typically 32 bit
 - 1 bit for sign
 - 8 bits for exponent
 - 23 bits for fraction
 - Each bit is $+2^{-1}$, $+2^{-2}$, etc
- Double typically 64 bit
 - 1 bit for sign
 - 11 bits for exponent
 - 52 bits for fraction



- o Example
 - 0 10000000 110000000000000000000000
 - Sign is positive
 - Exponent is 128 Bias = 1
 - We thus multiply the fraction by $2^{exp} = 2^1$
 - Fraction is $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} = 0.75$
 - Number is thus 1.75 x 2¹
- Representation
 - printf("%X.Ylf", number)
 - o Prints X digits total (including the DP)
 - Y of them are after the DP
- Structs
 - Order of struct elements is largely determined by compiler
 - Re-ordering fields may save space



The Command Line – A Strange Place

- Compiling
 - o gcc -E x.c (executes the C pre-processor, rewriting code)
 - o gcc -S x.c (produces a file x.s containing assembly code)
 - o gcc -c x.c (produces a file x.o containing relocatable machine code)
 - gcc x.c (produces a.out)
 - gcc *.o (compiles everything)
- Makefiles
 - Sometimes you don't want to compile every file, but keeping track of which files you want to compile is tedious
 - o Between files:
 - Dependencies exist
 - Eg x.o depends on x.c and y.h
 - Actions state how to produce targets from sources
 - Rules combine dependencies and actions
 - Eg if x.c changes, rebuild x.o
 - o Makefiles contain definitions and rules for compilation
 - Target
 - Source
 - If you change one of these, the blue and red files will recompile upon 'make'
 - Action
 - Other arguments
 - CC = compiler

- CFLAGS = (compiler flags)
 - -Wall (display all warnings)
 - -Werror (display all errors)
- Commands
 - cat file
 - Prints the contents of the file
 - o man some_command
 - Opens the manual page for that command

MIPS - *Man, I Program Sowell*

- A well-known and relatively simple architecture
 - o Silicon graphics, NEC, Nintendo64, etc
- MIPS features
 - o 32 x 32-bit general purpose registers
 - o 16 x 64-bit double precision registers
 - PC 32-bit register
 - o HI, LO store the results of multiplication and division
 - Two 32-bit registers to store big integers
- Data types
 - o Byte (8 bits)
 - Halfword (2 bytes)
 - Word (4 bytes)
 - Characters require 1 byte of storage
 - o Integers require 1 word of storage
- Reference
 - o Registers can be referred to as \$0,...,\$31 or by symbolic names

Register	Name	Notes	Cont
\$0	zero	The value 0; unchangeable	
\$1	\$at	Assembler temporary; reserved for assembler use	
\$2	\$v0	Value from expression evaluation or function return	This is what we use for all syscalls. If we load an integer it goes here. Also used for function returns.
\$3	\$v1	Value from expression evaluation or function return	
\$4	\$a0	First argument to a function/subroutine, if needed	This mean when we call a function, it immediately looks to the \$a? registers
\$5	\$a1	Second	
\$6	\$a2	Third	
\$7	\$a3	Fourth	

\$8,,\$15	\$t0,,\$t7	Temporary; must be saved by caller to subroutine; subroutine can overwrite	
\$16,,\$23	\$s0,,\$s7	Safe function variable; must not be overwritten by called subroutine	We modify these within functions
\$24, \$25	\$t8, \$t9	Temporary; must be saved by caller to subroutine; subroutine can overwrite	
\$26, \$27	\$k0, \$k1	For kernel use; may change unexpectedly	
\$28	\$gp	Global pointer	
\$29	\$sp	Stack pointer	
\$30	\$fp	Frame pointer	
\$31	\$ra	Return address of most recent caller	We store the pointer to the place in our program whence we jumped.

- There are also floating point registers
- Features of MIPS language
 - o # comments
 - Labels appended with ':'
 - Directives a symbol beginning with '.'
 - Directives list:
 http://students.cs.tamu.edu/tanzir/csce350/reference/assembler_dir.html
 - Assembly language instructions
- Pre-main tags:
 - o .data
 - .data on a line on its own introduces the data section
 - Variables can now be introduced
 - a: .word 42
 - array: .space 20
 - msg: .asciiz "Hello world"
 - Etc
 - o .globl
 - .globl main declares the main function
 - o .text
 - text on a line on its own introduces the text section
 - Functions can now be introduced (beginning with their own tag)
 - main:

• General code structure and example code

```
.data
a: .word 42
                            # int a = 42;
b: .space 4
                            # int b;
    .text
     .globl main
main:
    lw
          $t0, a
                            \# \operatorname{reg}[t0] = a
    li
          $t1, 8
                            \# reg[t1] = 8
    add $t0, $t0, $t1 # reg[t0] = reg[t0]+reg[t1]
    li
          $t2, 666
                          \# \text{ reg}[t2] = 666
                           # (Lo,Hi) = reg[t0]*reg[t2]
    mult $t0, $t2
    mflo $t0
                            \# \operatorname{reg}[t0] = Lo
          $t0, b
                            \# b = reg[t0]
```

- Instructions (all 32-bit)
 - Instructions list:

http://www.dsi.unive.it/~gasparetto/materials/MIPS Instruction Set.pdf

- o lw load word (assign value from a memory (word) address)
- li load integer (assign value)
- la load address
- o add add (requires three variables)
- o mult multiply (requires two variables and stored in Lo,Hi)
- mflo / mfhi store the value from Lo / Hi in a specified variable (must call one at a time)
- o sw store word (store a value into a memory (word) address)
- o mov move a value from one register to another
- Memory layout

Region	Address	Notes	
Text	0x00400000	Contains only instructions (read only)	
Data	0x10000000	Data objects (read/write)	
Stack	0x7fffefff	Grows down (read/write)	
k_text	0x80000000	Kernel code. Only accessible kernel mode (read only)	
k_data	0x9000000	Kernel data. Only accessible kernel mode (read only)	

Classes of instructions

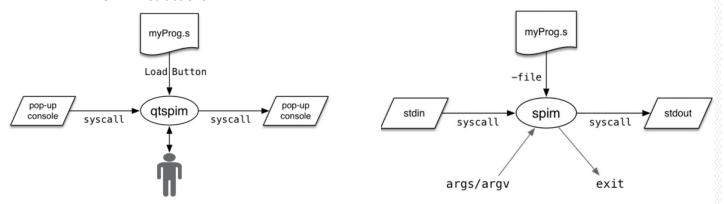
- Load and store
 - Transfer data between registers and memory
- Computational
 - Performs arithmetic/logical operations
- Jump and branch
 - Transfer control of program execution
- Coprocessor
 - Standard interface to various co-processors
- Special
 - Miscellaneous tasks

syscall

- A special instruction
- Several types of calls
- Called from a \$v register
 - li \$v0, 5 syscall
 - The above scans a value into \$v0

Service	Code	Arguments	Result
print_int	1	\$a0 = integer	
print_float	2	\$f12 = float	
print_double	3	\$f12 = double	
print_string	4	\$a0 = char *	
read_int	5		integer in \$v0
read_float	6		float in \$f0
read_double	7		double in \$f0
read_string	8	\$a0 = buffer, \$a1 = length	string in buffer (including "\n\0")

SPIM instructions:



https://cgi.cse.unsw.edu.au/~cs1521/19T2/docs/spim.php

 SPIM has its own useful instructions that are mapped to one of more MIPS instructions

• Directive note

- Directives apply to everything below the directive, before a new directive
- The importance of .align
 - \circ . align n means we jump to the nearest specified block of memory dividible by 2^n
 - This is critical for storing certain data types

Addressing modes

- lw \$t0, var (address via naming)lw \$t0, (\$s0) (indirect addressing)
- lw \$t0, 4(\$s0) (indexed addressing accesses from the fourth element/byte)

```
1w
      $t1, label
                        # reg[t1] = memory[&label]
      $t3,label
                        # memory[&label] = reg[t3]
SW
                            &label must be 4-byte aligned
      $t1,label
                       \# reg[t1] = \&label
la
                        \# reg[t2] = const << 16
lui
      $t2,const
      $t0,$t1,$t2
                        \# \text{ reg}[t0] = \text{reg}[t1] \& \text{reg}[t2]
and
      $t0,$t1,$t2
                        \# \operatorname{reg}[t0] = \operatorname{reg}[t1] + \operatorname{reg}[t2]
                            add as signed (2's complement) ints
addi $t2,$t3, 5
                        \# \text{ reg}[t2] = \text{reg}[t3] + 5
                             "add immediate" (no sub immediate)
mult $t3,$t4
                       # (Hi,Lo) = reg[t3] * reg[t4]
                           store 64-bit result in registers Hi,Lo
     $t7,$t1,$t2
                        \# reg[t7] = (reg[t1] = reg[t2]) ? 1 : 0
seq
      label
                        \# PC = \&label
      $t1,$t2,label # PC = &label if (reg[t1] == reg[t2])
beq
nop
                        # do nothing
```

```
.text
                   # following instructions placed in text
    .data
                   # following objects placed in data
    .globl
                   # make symbol available globally
                   # uchar a[18]; or uint a[4];
    .space 18
    .align 2
                   # align next object on 2<sup>2</sup>-byte addr
i:
    .word 2
                   # unsigned int i = 2;
v:
   .word 1,3,5
                  # unsigned int v[3] = \{1,3,5\};
h:
    .half 2,4,6 # unsigned short h[3] = \{2,4,6\};
    .byte 1,2,3  # unsigned char b[3] = {1,2,3};
.float 3.14  # float f = 3.14;
b:
f:
    .asciiz "abc"
s:
                   # char s[4] {'a','b','c','\0'};
    .ascii "abc"
                   # char s[3] {'a','b','c'};
```

- Like pointer arithmetic, but this only does 4 bytes (not 4*4 bytes)
- Addresses are hard : ((a and b are registers and/or variables)
 - o la a, b
 - Takes the ADDRESS of b and puts that in a
 - o lwa,b
 - Takes the CONTENT of b and puts that in a
 - o li a, num
 - Puts the number num into a
 - o lw a, (b)
 - a = *b
 - o lw a, 4(b)
 - a = *b + 4

• Additional loading

- o Ib load one byte (Ibu for unsigned)
- Ih load two bytes (Ihu for unsigned)
- o lw load four words
- o la load the address

While loops

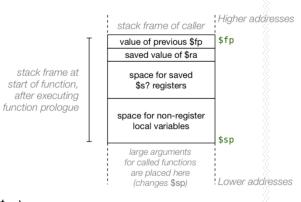
More C to MIPS:

```
int x = 5;
                                      x: .word 5
                   int y;
                                      y: .space 4
z = 5 * (x+y); t = x + y;
                                      lw $t0, x
                                      lw $t1, y
                                      add $t0, $t0, $t1
                   t = 5 * t;
                                      li $t1, 5
                                      mul $t0, $t0, $t1
                   z = t;
                                      sw $t0, z
                                      li $t0, 2
                   x = 2;
                                      sw $t0, x
```

```
i = 0; n = 0;
                    i = ; n = 0;
while (i < 5) {
                    loop:
                        if (i >= 5) goto end;
    n = n + i;
    i++;
                        n = n + i;
                        i++;
                        goto loop:
                    end:
if (cond)
                    if stat:
                                                     if stat:
    {statements1}
                        t0 = (cond)
                                                         t0 = evaluate (cond)
[not actual MIPS]
else
                        if (t0 == 0)
                                                         beqz $t0, else_part
    {statements}
                            goto else_part
                                                         statements1
                        statements1
                                                         j end_if
                        goto end_if
                                                     else_part:
                    else part:
                                                          statements2
                                                     end_if:
                        statements2
                    end if:
```

Functions

- The process
 - The arguments are evaluated and set up for function
 - Control is transferred to the code for the function
 - Local variables are created
 - Function code executes
 - The return value is set up
 - Control transfers back to where the function was called from
 - The caller receives the return value
- Stack frames
 - Each function allocates a stack frame
 - Uses:
 - Saved registers
 - Local variables
 - Parameters to callees
 - Created in the prologue (push)
 - Removed in the *epilogue* (pop)
- Conventions
 - Caller saved registers (\$t0...\$t9, \$a0...\$a3, \$ra)
 - f() calls g() knowing these registers may change
 - Callee saved registers (\$s0...\$s7, \$sp, \$fp)
 - f() calls g() assuming the registers will be unchanged
 - If g() modifies them, they will first be saved and then restored
- o Call with instruction "jal func"
- Put return value in \$v0



o End instruction is "jr \$ra"

This jumps back to where we left off with jal

```
# Set up stack frame.
    sw $fp, -4($sp) # push $fp onto stack
    la $fp, -4($sp) # set up $fp for this function
                      # Using $sp and $fp we chuck all our
                      # variables onto the stack
    sw $ra, -4($fp) # save return address
   sw $s0, -8($fp) # save $s0 to use as ...
   sw $s1, -12($fp) # save $s1 to use as ...
    sw $s2, -16($fp) # save $s2 to use as ...
    addi
          $sp, $sp, -20 # move $sp to top of stack
# Alternatively:
addi $sp, $sp, -4
sw $fp, ($sp)
move $fp, $sp
addi $sp, $sp, -4
sw $ra, ($sp)
addi $sp, $sp, -4
sw $s0, ($sp)
addi $sp, $sp, -4
sw $s1, ($sp)
addi $sp, $sp, -4
sw $s2, ($sp)
   # clean up stack frame
                      # We retrive all our variables
                      # from the stack
    lw $s2, -16($fp) # restore $s2 value
   lw $s1, -12($fp) # restore $s1 value
   lw $s0, -8($fp) # restore $s0 value
   lw $ra, -4($fp) # restore $ra for return
    la $sp, 4($fp) # restore $sp (remove stack frame)
   lw $fp, ($fp) # restore $fp (remove stack frame)
    jr $ra
```

Function calling protocol

- o Before calling
 - Place arguments in \$a0...\$a3
 - If more than 4 args, push all args onto the stack

- Save any non-\$s registers that need to be preserved by pushing onto the stack # start of function
- jal address of the function (usually labelled)
- Pushing onto the stack (eg \$t0)
 - addi \$sp, \$sp, -4 sw \$t0, (\$sp)
 - OR
 - sw \$t0, -4(\$sp)addi \$sp, \$sp, -4

function body
perform computation using \$a0, etc.
leaving result in \$v0
...
function epilogue
restore saved registers (esp. \$ra)
clean up stack frame (\$fp, \$sp)

FuncName:

function prologue

set up stack frame (\$fp, \$sp)

save relevant registers (incl. \$ra)

Arrays

```
    a: .space 20 (holds 5 elements, ie 20 bytes worth of words)
    a: .word 1, 3, 5, 7, 9 (a = {1,3,5,7,9})
```

- How do we access the numbers?
- o Increment the memory location by 4 (if we are dealing with words)!

```
int sum, i;
                          sum: .word 4
                                             # use reg for i
int a[5] = \{1,3,5,7,9\};
                               .word 1,3,5,7,9
                          a:
sum = 0;
                               li
                                    $t0, 0 # i = 0
                               li
                                    $t1, 0 # sum = 0
                               li
                                    $t2, 4  # max index
for (i = 0; i < N; i++) for: bgt $t0, $t2, end_for
                               move $t3, $t0
                               mul
                                    $t3, $t3, 4
   sum += a[i];
                               add $t1, $t1, a($t3)
printf("%d",sum);
                               addi $t0, $t0, 1 # i++
                                    for
                               j
                                    $t1, sum
                      end_for: sw
                               move $a0, $t1
                               li
                                    $v0, 1
                               syscall
                                             # printf
```

Note: a(\$t3) is &a + \$t3

2D Arrays

- To access array[row][col]
- We access offset(array), where offset = row*rowsize + col
- o Make sure to multiply this offset by 4 if we are dealing with words!

• Structs

- Literally just define space
- o Stu1: .space 56
- You then put values into the struct according to offsets

o You save pointers to structs if you want to work with them

argc and argv

o These are just put on main's stack frame

Data structures

char as one byte in memory
 int as one word in memory
 double as two words in memory

- All of the above could be implemented:
 - In a register (small scope)
 - On the stack
 - In .data if we need longer lifetimes (but don't do this lol)

arrays sequence of memory bytes/words
 structs chunk of memory accessed by offsets
 linked structures struct containing address of another struct

Static VS dynamic

- o Static:
 - Uninitialized memory is allocated at compile time
 - val: .space 4
 - Initialised memory allocated at compile time
 - val: .word 5
- o Dynamic:
 - Put things in registers