# Section 1: OS Concepts and x86

## CS 162

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### 1 Vocabulary

With credit to the Anderson & Dahlin textbook (A&D):

- stack The stack is the memory set aside as scratch space for a thread of execution. When a function is called, a block is reserved on the top of the stack for local variables and some book-keeping data. When that function returns, the block becomes unused and can be used the next time a function is called. The stack is always reserved in a LIFO (last in first out) order; the most recently reserved block is always the next block to be freed.
- heap The heap is memory set aside for dynamic allocation. Unlike the stack, there is no enforced pattern to the allocation and deallocation of blocks from the heap; you can allocate a block at any time and free it at any time.
- process A process is an instance of a computer program that is being executed, typically with restricted rights. It consists of an address space and one or more threads of control. It is the main abstraction for protection provided by the operating system kernel.
- address space The address space for a process is the set of memory addresses that it can use and the state associated with them. The memory corresponding to each process' address space is private and cannot be accessed by other processes, unless it is explicitly shared.
- C A high-level programming language. In order to run it, C will be compiled to low level machine instructions like x86\_64 or RISC-V. Note that it is often times easier to express high level ideas in C, but C cannot be used to express many details (such as register allocation).
- x86 A very popular family of instruction sets (which includes i386 and x86\_64). Unlike MIPS or RISC-V, x86 is primarily based on CISC (Complex Instruction Set Computing) architecture. Virtually all servers, desktops, and most laptops (with Intel or AMD) natively execute x86.

### 2 C Review

### 2.1 Pointer and C Programming Practice

Write a function that places source inside of dest, starting at the offset position of dest. This is effectively swapping the tail-end of dest with the string contained in source (including the null terminator). Assume both are null-terminated and the programmer will never overflow dest. As an exercise in using pointers, implement it without using libraries.

```
void replace(char *dest, char *source, int offset)
{
```

## 3 Fundamental Operating System Concepts

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1.	What are the 3 roles the OS plays?
2.	How is a process different from a thread?

3.	What is the process address space and address translation? Why are they important?		
4.	What is dual mode operation and what are the three forms of control transfer from user to kerne mode?		
5	Why does a thread in kernel mode have a separate kernel stack? What can happen if the kernel		
•	stack was in the user address space?		
6.	How does the syscall handler protect the kernel from corrupt or malicious user code?		

### 4 x86 Assembly

In the projects for this class, you will write an operating system for a 32-bit x86 machine. The class VM (and probably your laptop) use a 64-bit x86 processor (i.e., an x86-64 processor) that is capable of executing 32-bit x86 instructions. There are significant differences between the 64-bit and 32-bit versions of x86. For this worksheet, we will focus on the 32-bit x86 ISA because that is the ISA you will have to read when working on the projects. Remember that if you compile programs on your local machine or directly in the class VM (not in Pintos), the result will be in x86-64 assembly.

#### 4.1 Registers

The 32-bit x86 ISA has 8 main registers: eax, ebx, ecx, edx, esi, edi, esp, and ebp. You can omit the "e" to reference the bottom half of each register. For example, ax refers to the bottom half of eax. esp is the stack pointer and ebp is the base pointer. Additionally, eip is the instruction pointer, similar to the program counter in MIPS or RISC-V.

x86 also has segment registers (cs, ds, es, fs, gs, and ss) and control registers (e.g., cr0). You can think of segment registers as offsets when accessing memory in certain ways (e.g., cs is for instruction fetches, ss is for stack memory), and control registers as configuring what features of the processor are enabled (e.g., protected mode, floating point unit, cache, paging). We won't focus on them in this worksheet, but you should know that they exist. In particular, Pintos sets these up carefully upon startup in pintos/src/threads/start.S, so look there if you are interested. Keep in mind that there are special restrictions as to how these registers are used as operands to instructions.

#### 4.2 Syntax

Although the x86 ISA specifies the registers and instructions, there are two different syntaxes for writing them out: Intel and AT&T. Instruction operands are written in a different order in each syntax, which can make it confusing to read one syntax if you are used to the other. For this worksheet, we will focus on the AT&T syntax because it is the version used by the toolchain we are using (gcc, as).

In the AT&T syntax:

- Registers are preceded by a percent sign (e.g., %eax for the register eax)
- Immediates are preceded by a dollar sign (e.g., \$4 for the constant 4)
- For many (but not all!) instructions, use parentheses to dereference memory addresses (e.g., (%eax) reads from the memory address in eax)
- You can add a constant offset by prefixing the parentheses (e.g., 8(%eax) reads from the memory address eax + 8)
- Source operands typically precede destination operands, for instructions with two operands.

Instructions are often suffixed by a letter to specify the size of operands. Use the suffix b to work with 8-bit bytes. Use the suffix w to work with 16-bit words. Use the suffix 1 to work with 32-bit longwords (or doublewords). (Analogously, on the x86-64 ISA, append q to work with 64-bit quadwords). If you omit the suffix, the assembler will add it for you.

Some examples:

- addw %ax, %bx: Add the word in ax to the word in bx, and store the result in bx.
- addl %eax, %ebx: Add the longword in eax to the longword in ebx, and store the result in ebx.
- addl (%eax), %ebx: Add the longword in memory at the address in eax to the longword in ebx, and store the result in ebx.
- addl 12(%eax), %ebx: Add the longword in memory at the address eax + 12 to the longword in ebx, and store the result in ebx.
- subl \$12, %esp: Subtract the constant 12 from the longword in esp, and store the result in esp.

Notice that you don't need special instructions to load from/store to memory. Some other useful instructions are and, or, and xor. An especially common instruction is mov:

- movl %eax, %ebx: Copy the longword in eax into ebx.
- movl \$4, %ecx: Set the longword in ecx to 4.
- movl 4, %ecx: Read the longword in memory at address 4 and store the result in ecx.
- mov1 %edx, -8 (%ecx): Write the longword in edx to memory at the address ecx -8.

For the instructions lea and leal, which you will find in Pintos, the parenthesis notation for memory works differently. They calculate an absolute memory address given a register and offset.

• leal 8(%eax), %ebx: Sets ebx to eax + 8. You can think of this as setting ebx to the memory address that mov1 8(%eax), %ebx would read from.

#### 4.3 Practice: Clearing a Register

Write an instruction that clears register eax (i.e., stores zero in eax).

#### 4.4 Calling Convention

The **caller** does the following:

- 1. Push the arguments onto the stack, in reverse order. After this step, the top of the stack must be 16-byte aligned add padding before pushing arguments, if necessary, so that this is true.
- 2. Push the return address and jump to the function you are trying to call.
- 3. When the callee returns, the return address is gone but the arguments are still on the stack.

The callee does the following, and must preserve ebx, esi, edi, and ebp:

- 1. (Typical, but not required) Push ebp onto the stack, and store current esp into ebp.
- 2. Compute the return value and store it in eax.
- 3. Restore esp to its value at the time the callee began executing.
- 4. Pop the return address off of the stack and jump to it.

#### 4.5 Instructions Supporting the Calling Convention

• push1 %eax is equivalent to:

```
subl $4, %esp
movl %eax, (%esp)
```

• popl %eax is equivalent to:

```
movl (%esp), %eax
addl $4, %esp
```

- $\bullet$  call 0x1234: push the return address (address of the next instruction of the caller) onto the stack and jump to the specified address (address of the callee).
- leave is equivalent to:

```
movl %ebp, %esp
popl %ebp
```

• ret pops a longword off of the stack (typically a return address) and jumps to it.

pushal pushes eax, ecx, edx, ebx, esp, ebp, esi, and edi to the stack, and popal pops values off of the stack and stores them in those registers. They are useful to switch context or handle interrupts.

#### 4.6 Practice: Reading Disassembly

#### file.c:

```
int global = 0;
int callee(int x, int y) {
   int local = x + y;
   return local + 1;
}

void caller(void) {
   global = callee(3, 4);
}
```

When gcc compiles this file, with optimizations off, it outputs: file.s:

```
callee:
                %ebp
        pushl
        movl
                %esp, %ebp
                 $16, %esp
        subl
                8(%ebp), %edx
        movl
        movl
                 12(%ebp), %eax
        addl
                %edx, %eax
                \%eax, -4(\%ebp)
        movl
                 -4(\%ebp), \%eax
        movl
                 $1, %eax
        addl
        leave
        ret
caller:
                 %ebp
        pushl
        movl
                 %esp, %ebp
                 $4
        pushl
        pushl
                 $3
                 callee
        call
        addl
                 $8, %esp
                 %eax, global
        movl
        nop
        leave
        ret
```

What does each instruction do? Mark the prologue(s), epilogue(s), and call sequence(s).

## 4.7 Practice: x86 Calling Convention

```
Sketch the stack frame of helper before it returns.

void helper(char* str, int len) {
  char word[len];
  strncpy(word, str, len);
  printf("%s", word);
  return;
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
  char* str = "Hello World!";
  helper(str, 13);
}
```