CS 33

Linking and Libraries

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Libraries

- · Collections of useful stuff
- · Allow you to:
 - incorporate items into your program
 - substitute new stuff for existing items
- Often ugly ...



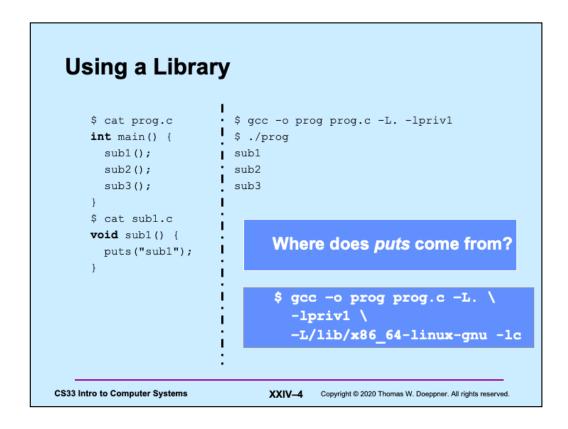
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XXIV-2

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Creating a Library \$ gcc -c sub1.c sub2.c sub3.c \$ ls sub1.c sub2.c sub3.c sub1.o sub2.o sub3.o \$ ar cr libpriv1.a sub1.o sub2.o sub3.o \$ ar t libpriv1.a sub1.o sub2.o sub3.o **CS33 Intro to Computer Systems** XXIV-3 Copyright © 2020 Thomas W. Doeppner. All rights reserved.

Files ending with ".a" are known as archives or static libraries.



The function "puts" is from the standard-I/O library, just as printf is, but it's far simpler. It prints its single string argument, appending a '\n' (newline) to the end.

Note that "-lpriv1" (the second character of the string is a lower-case L and the last character is the numeral one) is, in this example, shorthand for libpriv1.a, but we'll soon see that it's shorthand for more than that.

Normally, libraries are expected to be found in the current directory. The "-L" flag is used to specify additional directories in which to look for libraries.

Static-Linking: What's in the Executable

- Id puts in the executable:
 - » (assuming all .c files have been compiled into .o files)
 - all .o files from argument list (including those newly compiled)
 - .o files from archives as needed to satisfy unresolved references
 - » some may have their own unresolved references that may need to be resolved from additional .o files from archives
 - » each archive processed just once (as ordered in argument list)
 - · order matters!

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Example

```
$ cat prog2.c
int main() {
  void func1();
 func1();
 return 0;
$ cat func1.c
void func1() {
  void func2();
 func2();
$ cat func2.c
void func2() {
```

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Order Matters ...

```
$ ar t libf1.a
func1.o
$ ar t libf2.a
func2.o
$ gcc -o prog2 prog2.c -L. -lf1 -lf2
$ gcc -o prog2 prog2.c -L. -lf2 -lf1
./libfl.a(subl.o): In function `funcl':
func1.c:(.text+0xa): undefined reference to `func2'
collect2: error: ld returned 1 exit status
```

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Substitution

```
$ cat myputs.c
int puts(char *s) {
 write(1, "My puts: ", 9);
 write(1, s, strlen(s));
 write(1, "\n", 1);
 return 1;
$ gcc -c myputs.c
$ ar cr libmyputs.a myputs.o
$ gcc -o prog prog.c -L. -lpriv1 -lmyputs
$ ./prog
My puts: sub1
My puts: sub2
My puts: sub3
```

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An Urgent Problem

- · printf is found to have a bug
 - perhaps a security problem
- · All existing instances must be replaced
 - there are zillions of instances ...
- · Do we have to re-link all programs that use printf?

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Dynamic Linking

- · Executable is not fully linked
 - contains list of needed libraries
- · Linkages set up when executable is run

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Benefits

- · Without dynamic linking
 - every executable contains copy of printf (and other stuff)
 - » waste of disk space
 - » waste of primary memory
- · With dynamic linking
 - just one copy of printf
 - » shared by all

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Shared Objects: Unix's Dynamic Linking

- 1 Compile program
- 2 Track down references with Id
 - archives (containing relocatable objects) in ".a" files are statically linked
 - shared objects in ".so" files are dynamically linked » names of needed .so files included with executable
- 3 Run program
 - Id-linux.so is invoked first to complete the linking and relocation steps, if necessary

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Linux supports two kinds of libraries — static libraries, contained in archives, whose names end with ".a" (e.g. libc.a) and shared objects, whose names end with ".so" (e.g. libc.so). When ld is invoked to handle the linking of object code, it is normally given a list of libraries in which to find unresolved references. If it resolves a reference within a .a file, it copies the code from the file and statically links it into the object code. However, if it resolves the reference within a .so file, it records the name of the shared object (not the complete path, just the final component) and postpones actual linking until the program is executed.

If the program is fully bound and relocated, then it is ready for direct execution. However, if it is not fully bound and relocated, then *ld* arranges things so that when the program is executed, rather than starting with the program's main routine, a runtime version of ld, called ld-linux.so, is called first. ld-linux.so maps all the required libraries into the address space and then calls the main routine.

Creating a Shared Library

```
$ gcc -fPIC -c myputs.c
$ ld -shared -o libmyputs.so myputs.o
$ gcc -o prog prog.c -fPIC -L. -lprivl -lmyputs -Wl,-rpath \
    /home/twd/libs
$ ldd prog
linux-vdso.so.1 => (0x00007fff235ff000)
libmyputs.so => /home/twd/libs/libmyputs.so (0x00007f821370f000)
libc.so.6 => /lib/x86_64-linux-gnu/libc.so.6 (0x00007f821314e000)
/lib64/ld-linux-x86-64.so.2 (0x00007f8213912000)
$ ./prog
My puts: sub1
My puts: sub2
My puts: sub3

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```

The -fPIC flag tells gcc to produce "position-independent code," which is something we discuss soon. The ld command invokes the loader directly. The – shared flag tells it to created a shared object. In this case, it's creating it from the object file *myputs.o* and calling the shared object *libmyputs.so*.

The "-Wl,-rpath /home/twd/libs" flag (the third character of the string is a lower-case L) tells the loader to indicate in the executable (prog) that ld-linux.so should look in the indicated directory for shared objects. (The "-Wl" part of the flag tells gcc to pass the rest of the flag to the loader.)

Order Still Matters

- · All shared objects listed in the executable are loaded into the address space
 - whether needed or not
- · Id-linux.so will find anything that's there
 - looks in the order in which shared objects are listed

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A Problem

- · You've put together a library of useful functions
 - libgoodstuff.so
- · Lots of people are using it
- It occurs to you that you can make it even better by adding an extra argument to a few of the functions
 - doing so will break all programs that currently use these functions
- You need a means so that old code will continue to use the old version, but new code will use the new version

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A Solution

- · The two versions of your program coexist
 - libgoodstuff.so.1
 - libgoodstuff.so.2
- · You arrange so that old code uses the old version, new code uses the new
- Most users of your code don't really want to have to care about version numbers
 - they want always to link with libgoodstuff.so
 - and get the version that was current when they wrote their programs

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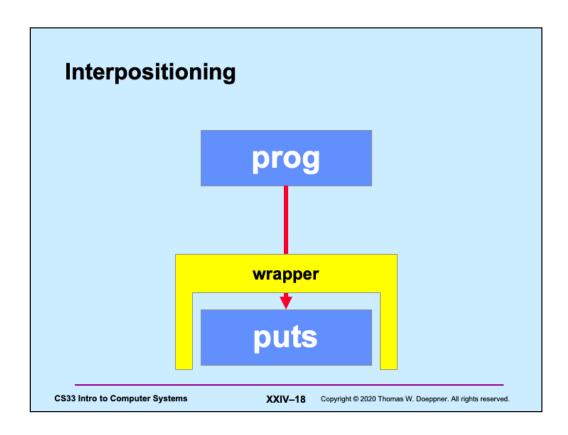
Versioning

```
$ gcc -fPIC -c goodstuff.c
     $ ld -shared -soname libgoodstuff.so.1 \
     -o libgoodstuff.so.1 goodstuff.o
     $ ln -s libgoodstuff.so.1 libgoodstuff.so
     $ gcc -o prog1 prog1.c -L. -lgoodstuff \
     -Wl,-rpath .
     $ vi goodstuff.c
     $ qcc -fPIC -c goodstuff.c
     $ ld -shared -soname libgoodstuff.so.2 \
     -o libgoodstuff.so.2 goodstuff.o
     $ rm -f libgoodstuff.so
     $ ln -s libgoodstuff.so.2 libgoodstuff.so
     $ gcc -o prog2 prog2.c -L. -lgoodstuff \
     -Wl,-rpath .
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```

Here we are creating two versions of libgoodstuff, in libgoodstuff.so.1 and in libgoodstuff.so.2. Each is created by invoking the loader directly via the "ld" command. The "-soname" flag tells the loader to include in the shared object its name, which is the string following the flag ("libgoodstuff.so.1" in the first call to ld). The effect of the "ln -s" command is to create a new name (its last argument) in the file system that refers to the same file as that referred to by ln's next-to-last argument. Thus, after the first call to ln -s, libgoodstuff.so refers to the same file as does libgoodstuff.so.1. Thus the second invocation of gcc, where it refers to -lgoodstuff (which expands to libgoodstuff.so), is actually referring to libgoodstuff.so.1.

Then we create a new version of goodstuff and from it a new shared object called libgoodstuff.so.2 (i.e., version 2). The call to "rm" removes the name libgoodstuff.so (but not the file it refers to, which is still referred to by libgoodstuff.so.1). Then ln is called again to make libgoodstuff.so now refer to the same file as does libgoodstuff.so.2. Thus when prog2 is linked, the reference to –lgoodstuff expands to libgoodstuff.so, which now refers to the same file as does libgoodstuff.so.2.

If prog1 is now run, it refers to libgoodstuff.so.1, so it gets the old version (version 1), but if prog2 is run, it refers to libgoodstuff.so.2, so it gets the new version (version 2). Thus programs using both versions of goodstuff can coexist.



How To ... int __wrap_puts(const char *s) { int __real_puts(const char *); write(2, "calling myputs: ", 16); return real puts(s);

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_wrap_puts is the "wrapper" for puts. _real_puts is the "real" puts routine. What we want is for calls to puts to go to _wrap_puts, and calls to _real_puts to go to the real puts routine (in stdio).

Compiling/Linking It

```
$ cat tputs.c
int main() {
   puts("This is a boring message.");
   return 0;
}
$ gcc -o tputs -Wl,--wrap=puts tputs.c myputs.c
$ ./tputs
calling myputs: This is a boring message.
$
```

The arguments to gcc shown in the slide cause what we asked for in the previous slide to actually happen. Calls to *puts* go to __wrap_puts, and calls to

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__real_puts go to the real puts routine.

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How To (Alternative Approach) ...

```
#include <dlfcn.h>
int puts(const char *s) {
  int (*pptr) (const char *);
 pptr = (int(*)())dlsym(RTLD NEXT, "puts");
 write(2, "calling myputs: ", 16);
  return (*pptr)(s);
```

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An alternative approach to wrapping is to invoke ld-linux.so directly from the program, and have it find the real puts routine. The call to dlsym above directly invokes ld-linux.so, asking it (as given by the first argument) to find the next definition of puts in the list of libraries. It returns the location of that routine, which is then called (*pptr).

What's Going On ...

- · gcc/ld
 - compiles code
 - does static linking
 - » searches list of libraries
 - » adds references to shared objects
- runtime
 - program invokes Id-linux.so to finish linking
 - » maps in shared objects
 - » does relocation and procedure linking as required
 - dlsym invokes Id-linux.so to do more linking
 - » RTLD_NEXT says to use the next (second) occurrence of the symbol

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Delayed Wrapping

- LD_PRELOAD
 - environment variable checked by Id-linux.so
 - specifies additional shared objects to search (first) when program is started

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Environment Variables

· Another form of exec

```
-int execve(const char *filename,
            char *const argv[],
            char *const envp[]);
```

- · envp is an array of strings, of the form
 - key=value
- · programs can search for values, given a key
- example
 - PATH=~/bin:/bin:/usr/bin:/course/cs0330/bin

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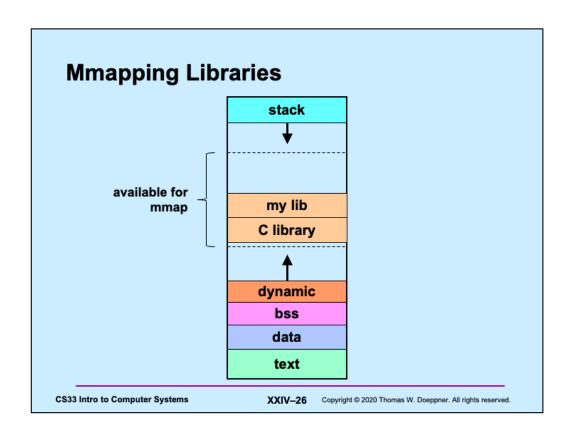
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Example

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```
$ gcc -o tputs tputs.c
$ ./tputs
This is a boring message.
$ LD_PRELOAD=./libmyputs.so.1; export LD_PRELOAD
$ ./tputs
calling myputs: This is a boring message.
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```

Here we add "LD_PRELOAD=./libmyputs.so.1" to the environment. The export command instructs the shell to supply this as part of the environment for the commands it runs.

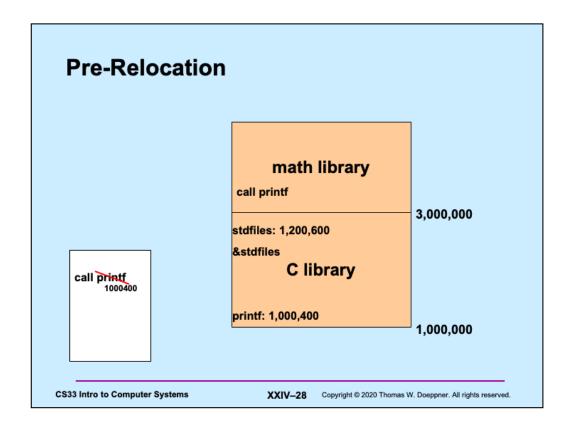


Problem

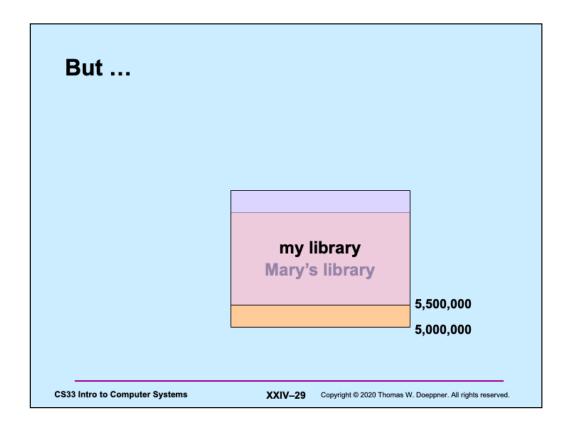
How is relocation handled?

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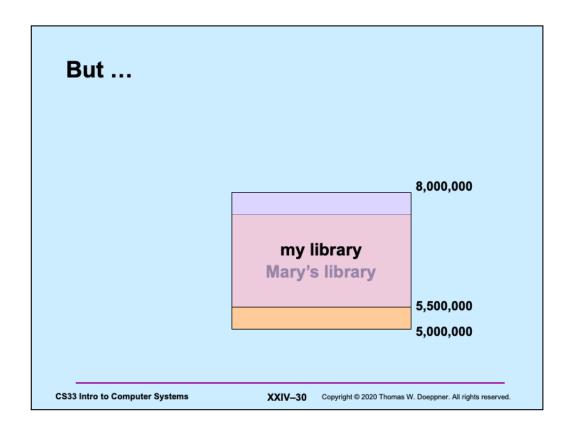
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Assuming we're using pre-relocation, the C library and the math library would be assumed to be in virtual memory at their pre-assigned locations. In the slide, these would be starting at locations 1,000,000 and 3,000,000, respectively. Let's suppose printf, which is in the C library, is at location 1,000,400. Thus calls to printf at static link time could be linked to that address. If the math library also contains calls to printf, these would be linked to that address as well. The C library might contain a global identifies, such as stdfiles. Its address would also be known.



Pre-relocation doesn't work if we have two libraries pre-assigned such that they overlap. If so, at least one of the two will have to be moved, necessitating relocation.



Quiz 1

We need to relocate all references to Mary's library in my library. What option should we give to mmap when we map my library into our address space?

- a) the MAP_SHARED option
- b) the MAP_PRIVATE option
- c) mmap can't be used in this situation

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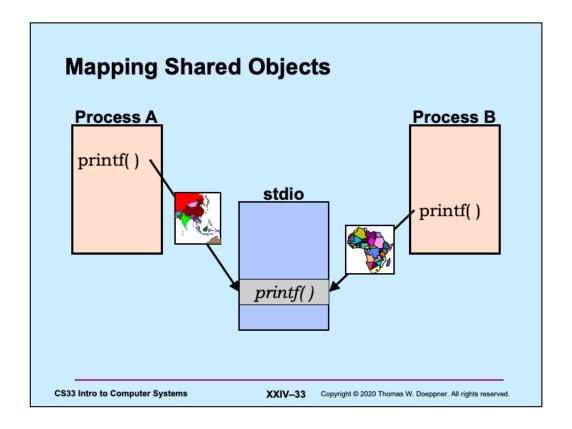
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Relocation Revisited

- · Modify shared code to effect relocation
 - result is no longer shared!
- Separate shared code from (unshared) addresses
 - position-independent code (PIC)
 - code can be placed anywhere
 - addresses in separate private section
 - » pointed to by a register

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The C library (and other libraries) can be mapped into different locations in different processes' address spaces.

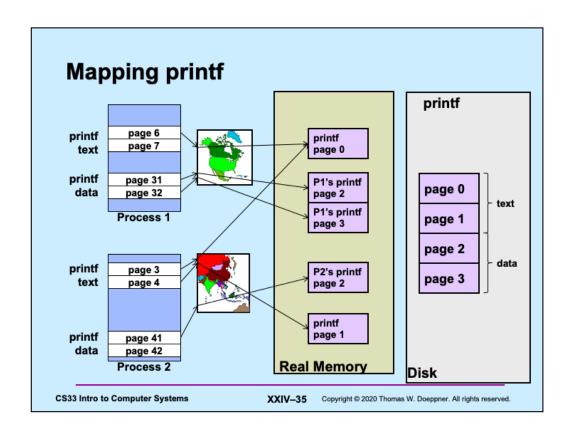
Mapping printf into the Address Space

- Printf's text
 - read-only
 - can it be shared?
 - » yes: use MAP_SHARED
- · Printf's data
 - read-write
 - not shared with other processes
 - initial values come from file
 - can mmap be used?
 - » MAP_SHARED wouldn't work
 - · changes made to data by one process would be seen by others
 - » MAP PRIVATE does work!
 - · mapped region is initialized from file
 - · changes are private

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For this slide, we assume relocation is dealt with through the use of positionindependent code (PIC).



Position-Independent Code

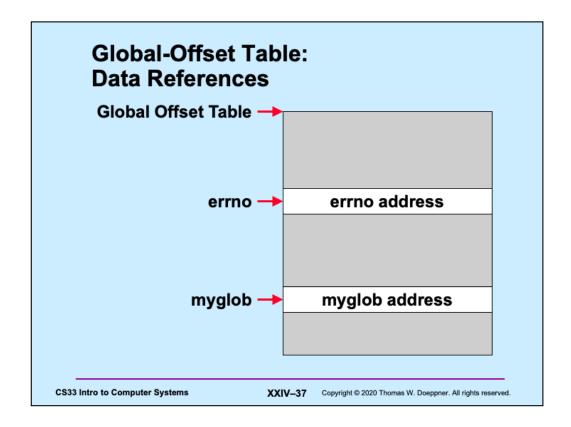
- Produced by gcc when given the –fPIC flag
- Processor-dependent; x86-64:
 - each dynamic executable and shared object has:
 - » procedure-linkage table
 - · shared, read-only executable code
 - · essentially stubs for calling functions
 - » global-offset table
 - · private, read-write data
 - relocated dynamically for each process
 - » relocation table
 - · shared, read-only data
 - · contains relocation info and symbol table

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To provide position-independent code on x86-64, ELF requires three data structures for each dynamic executable (i.e., the program binary loaded by exec) and shared object: the procedure-linkage table, the global-offset table, and the relocation table. To simplify discussion, we refer to dynamic executables and shared objects as modules. The procedure linkage table contains the code that's actually called when control is to be transferred to an externally defined routine. It is shared by all processes using the associated executable or object, and makes use of data in the global-object table to link the caller to the called program. Each process has its own private copy of each globalobject table. It contains the relocated addresses of all externally defined symbols. Finally, the relocation table contains much information about each module. What is used for linking is relocation information and the symbol table, as we explain in the next few slides.

How things work is similar for other architectures, but definitely not the same.



To establish position-independent references to global variables, the compiler produces, for each module, a *global-offset table*. Modules refer to global variables indirectly by looking up their addresses in the table, using PC-relative addressing. The item needed is at some fixed offset from the beginning of the table. When the module is loaded into memory, ld-linux.so is responsible for putting into it the actual addresses of all the needed global variables.

Functions in Shared Objects

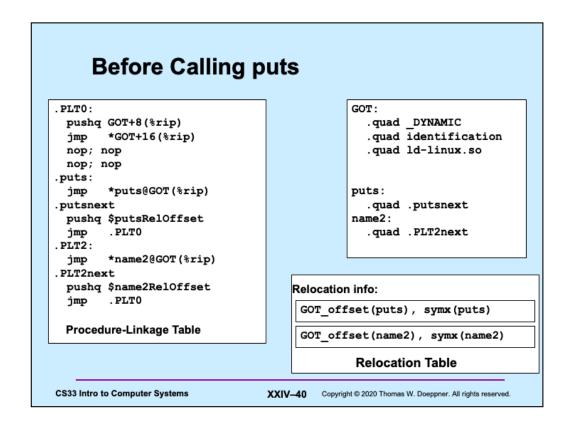
- · Lots of them
- Many are never used
- · Fix up linkages on demand

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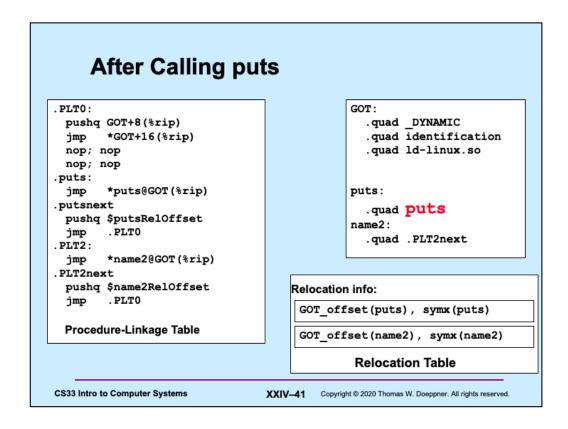
```
An Example
      int main() {
          puts("Hello world\n");
          return 0;
      }
00000000000006b0 <main>:
 6b0: 55
                                 push
                                         %rbp
 6b1: 48 89 e5
                                         %rsp,%rbp
                                 mov
 6b4: 48 8d 3d 99 00 00 00
                                 lea
                                         0x99(%rip),%rdi
 6bb: e8 a0 fe ff ff
                                 callq 560 <puts@plt>
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```

The top half of the slide contains an excerpt from a C program. For the bottom half, we've compiled the program and have printed what "objdump –d" produces for main. Note that the call to puts is actually a call to "puts@plt", which is a reference to the procedure linkage table.



Dealing with references to external procedures is considerably more complicated than dealing with references to external data. This slide shows the procedure linkage table, global offset table, and relocation information for a module that contains references to external procedures *puts* and *name2*. Let's follow a call to procedure *puts*. The general idea is before the first call to puts, the actual address of the puts procedure is not recorded in the global-offset table, Instead, the first call to puts actually invokes ld-linux.so, which is passed parameters indicating what is really wanted. It then finds puts and updates the global-offset table so that things are more direct on subsequent calls.

To make this happen, references from the module to *puts* are statically linked to entry .puts in the procedure-linkage table. This entry contains an unconditional jump (via PC-relative addressing) to the address contained in the *puts* offset of the global-offset table. Initially this address is of the instruction following the jump instruction, which contains code that pushes onto the stack the offset of the puts entry in the relocation table. The next instruction is an unconditional jump to the beginning of the procedure-linkage table, entry .PLTO. Here there's code that pushes onto the stack the second 64-bit word of the global-offset table, which contains a value identifying this module. The following instruction is an unconditional jump to the address in the third word of the global-offset table, which is conveniently the address of ld-linux.so. Thus control finally passes to ld-linux.so, which looks back on the stack and determines which module has called it and what that module really wants to call. It figures this out based on the module-identification word and the relocation table entry, which contains the offset of the puts entry in the global-offset table (which is what must be updated) and the index of *puts* in the symbol table (so it knows the name of what it must locate).



Finally, ld-linux.so writes the actual address of the *puts* procedure into the puts entry of the global-offset table, and, after unwinding the stack a bit, passes control to *puts*. On subsequent calls by the module to puts, since the global-offset table now contains puts's address, control goes to it more directly, without an invocation of ld-linux.so.

Not a Quiz!

On the second and subsequent calls to puts

- a) control goes directly to puts
- b) control goes to an instruction that jumps to puts
- c) control still goes to Id-linux.so, but it now transfers control directly to puts

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