

SYSTEM PROGRAMMING

AIM

To have an understanding of foundations of design of assemblers, loaders, linkers, and macro processors.

OBJECTIVES

- To understand the relationship between system software and machine architecture.
- To know the design and implementation of assemblers
- To know the design and implementation of linkers and loaders.
- To have an understanding of macroprocessors.
- To have an understanding of system software tools.

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TEXT BOOK

1. Leland L. Beck, "System Software – An Introduction to Systems Programming", 3rd Edition, Pearson Education Asia, 2006.

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UNIT I - INTRODUCTION

The subject introduces the design and implementation of system software. Software is set of instructions or programs written to carry out certain task on digital computers. It is classified into **system software** and **application software**.

System software consists of a variety of programs that support the operation of a computer. This software makes it possible for the user to focus on an application or other problem to be solved, without needing to know the details of how the machine works internally Eg. Operating system, compiler, assembler, macro processor, loader or linker, debugger, text editor, database management systems (some of them) and, software engineering tools.

Application software focuses on an application or problem to be solved. System software consists of a variety of programs that support the operation of a computer.

DIFFERENT STEPS INVOLVED IN USING A HIGH LEVEL LANGUAGE

Types of system s/w that has been used by us in a C program

- Step 1: A program written (create & modify) in High level language (C, C++, pascal typed in text editor
- Step 2: Translated into machine language (object program) using compiler. The compiler in turn store the .obj into the secondary device
- Step 3. The resulting machine language program was loaded into memory & prepared for execution by a loader or liker. There are diff loading schemes viz. absolute, relocating and direct linking. In general the loader must load relocate and link the object program
- Step 4: debugger -> helps t detect errors in the program

DIFFERENT STEPS INVOLVED IN USING ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE

- Step 1: Program written using macro instructions to read & write data
- Step 2: Uses assembler, which probably included a macro processor to translate these programs into machine language
- Step 3: loader or linker (prepared for execution)
- Step 4: tested using debugger

All these processes are controlled by interacting withthe OS of the computer
UNIX or DOS -> Keyboard Commands
MacOs or Windows -> Menus -> Click

SYSTEM SOFTWARE AND MACHINE ARCHITECTURE

One characteristic in which most system software differs from application software is machine dependency.

System software – support operation and use of computer.
Application software - solution to a problem.

Assembler translates mnemonic instructions into machine code. The instruction formats, addressing modes etc., are of direct concern in assembler design. Similarly, **Compilers** must generate machine language code, taking into account such hardware characteristics as the

number and type of registers and the machine instructions available. **Operating systems** are directly concerned with the management of nearly all of the resources of a computing system.

There are aspects of system software that do not directly depend upon the type of computing system, general design and logic of an assembler, general design and logic of a compiler and, code optimization techniques, which are independent of target machines. Likewise, the process of linking together independently assembled subprograms does not usually depend on the computer being used.

THE SIMPLIFIED INSTRUCTIONAL COMPUTER (SIC)

Simplified Instructional Computer (SIC) is a hypothetical computer that includes the hardware features most often found on real machines. There are two versions of SIC, they are, standard model (SIC), and, extension version (SIC/XE) (extra equipment or extra expensive).

SIC MACHINE ARCHITECTURE

We discuss here the SIC machine architecture with respect to its Memory and Registers, Data Formats, Instruction Formats, Addressing Modes, Instruction Set, Input and Output

Memory

There are 2^{15} bytes in the computer memory, that is 32,768 bytes , It uses Little Endian format to store the numbers, 3 consecutive bytes form a word , each location in memory contains 8-bit bytes.

Registers

There are five registers, each 24 bits in length. Their mnemonic, number and use are given in the following table.

Mnemonic	Number	Use
A	0	Accumulator; used for arithmetic operations
X	1	Index register; used for addressing
L	2	Linkage register; JSUB
PC	8	Program counter
SW	9	Status word, including CC

Data Formats

Integers are stored as 24-bit binary numbers , 2's complement representation is used for negative values, characters are stored using their 8-bit ASCII codes, No floating-point hardware on the standard version of SIC.

Instruction Formats

Opcode(8)	x	Address (15)
-----------	---	--------------

All machine instructions on the standard version of SIC have the 24-bit format as shown above

Addressing Modes

Mode	Indication	Target address calculation
Direct	x = 0	TA = address
Indexed	x = 1	TA = address + (x)

There are two addressing modes available, which are as shown in the above table. Parentheses are used to indicate the contents of a register or a memory location.

Instruction Set

SIC provides, load and store instructions (LDA, LDX, STA, STX, etc.). Integer arithmetic operations: (ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV, etc.). All arithmetic operations involve register A and a word in memory, with the result being left in the register. Two instructions are provided for subroutine linkage. COMP compares the value in register A with a word in memory, this instruction sets a condition code CC to indicate the result. There are conditional jump instructions: (JLT, JEQ, JGT), these instructions test the setting of CC and jump accordingly. JSUB jumps to the subroutine placing the return address in register L, RSUB returns by jumping to the address contained in register L.

Input and Output

Input and Output are performed by transferring 1 byte at a time to or from the rightmost 8 bits of register A (accumulator). The Test Device (TD) instruction tests whether the addressed device is ready to send or receive a byte of data. Read Data (RD), Write Data (WD) are used for reading or writing the data.

Data movement and Storage Definition

LDA, STA, LDL, STL, LDX, STX (A- Accumulator, L – Linkage Register, X – Index Register), all uses 3-byte word. LDCH, STCH associated with characters uses 1-byte. There are no memory-memory move instructions.

Storage definitions are
 WORD - ONE-WORD CONSTANT
 RESW - ONE-WORD VARIABLE
 BYTE - ONE-BYTE CONSTANT
 RESB - ONE-BYTE VARIABLE

Example Programs (SIC)

Example 1(Simple data and character movement operation)

```

          LDA FIVE
          STA ALPHA
          LDCH   CHARZ
          STCH   C1

ALPHA     RESW   1
FIVE      WORD   5
CHARZ     BYTE  C'Z'
C1        RESB   1

```

Example 2(Arithmetic operations)

```

          LDA ALPHA
          ADD INCR
          SUB ONE
          STA BEETA
          .....
          .....
          .....
          .....
ONE        WORD  1
ALPHA     RESW   1
BEETA     RESW   1
INCR      RESW   1

```

Example 3(Looping and Indexing operation)

```

          LDX   ZERO      : X = 0
          MOVECH LDCH STR1, X : LOAD A FROM STR1
          STCH  STR2, X   : STORE A TO STR2
          TIX   ELEVEN    : ADD 1 TO X, TEST
          JLT   MOVECH
          .
          .
          .
STR1      BYTE  C,'HELLO WORLD'
STR2      RESB   11
ZERO      WORD   0
ELEVEN    WORD  11

```

Example 4(Input and Output operation)

```
INLOOP  TD    INDEV      : TEST INPUT DEVICE
        JEQ   INLOOP    : LOOP UNTIL DEVICE IS READY
        RD    INDEV      : READ ONE BYTE INTO A
        STCH  DATA      : STORE A TO DATA
        .
        .
OUTLP   TD    OUTDEV     : TEST OUTPUT DEVICE
        JEQ   OUTLP     : LOOP UNTIL DEVICE IS READY
        LDCH  DATA      : LOAD DATA INTO A
        WD    OUTDEV     : WRITE A TO OUTPUT DEVICE
        .
        .
INDEV   BYTE   X„F5     : INPUT DEVICE NUMBER
OUTDEV  BYTE   X„08     : OUTPUT DEVICE NUMBER
DATA    RESB   1        : ONE-BYTE VARIABLE
```

Example 5 (To transfer two hundred bytes of data from input device to memory)

```
LDX  ZERO
CLOOP TD    INDEV
      JEQ   CLOOP
      RD    INDEV
      STCH  RECORD, X
      TIX   B200
      JLT   CLOOP
      .
      .
INDEV  BYTE   X„F5
RECORD RESB   200
ZERO   WORD   0
B200   WORD   200
```

Example 6 (Subroutine to transfer two hundred bytes of data from input device to memory)

```
      JSUB  READ
      .....
      .....
READ  LDX   ZERO
CLOOP TD    INDEV
      JEQ   CLOOP
      RD    INDEV
      STCH  RECORD, X
      TIX   B200      : add 1 to index compare 200 (B200)
```

```

JLT  CLOOP
RSUB
.....
.....
INDEV  BYTE  X „F5
RECORD RESB  200
ZERO   WORD  0
B200   WORD  200

```

SIC/XE MACHINE ARCHITECTURE

Memory

Maximum memory available on a SIC/XE system is 1 Megabyte (2^{20} bytes)

Registers

Additional B, S, T, and F registers are provided by SIC/XE, in addition to the registers of SIC

Mnemonic	Number	Special use
B	3	Base register
S	4	General working register
T	5	General working register
F	6	Floating-point accumulator (48 bits)

Floating-point data type

There is a 48-bit floating-point data type, $F \cdot 2^{(e-1024)}$

1	11	36
s	exponent	fraction

Instruction Formats

The new set of instruction formats for SIC/XE machine architecture are as follows. Format 1 (1 byte): contains only operation code (straight from table). Format 2 (2 bytes): first eight bits for operation code, next four for register 1 and following four for register 2. The numbers for the registers go according to the numbers indicated at the registers section (ie, register T is replaced by hex 5, F is replaced by hex 6). Format 3 (3 bytes): First 6 bits contain operation code, next 6 bits contain flags, last 12 bits contain displacement for the address of the operand. Operation code uses only 6 bits, thus the second hex digit will be affected by the values of the first two flags (n and i). The flags, in order, are: n, i, x, b, p, and e. Its functionality is explained in the next section. The last flag e indicates the instruction format (0 for 3 and 1 for

4). Format 4 (4 bytes): same as format 3 with an extra 2 hex digits (8 bits) for addresses that require more than 12 bits to be represented.

Format 1 (1 byte)

8
op

Format 2 (2 bytes)

8	4	4
Op	r1	r2

Formats 1 and 2 are instructions do not reference memory at all

Format 3 (3 bytes)

6	1 1 1 1 1 1 12						
Op	n	i	x	b	p	e	disp

Format 4 (4 bytes)

6								1	1	1	1	1	1	20
Op		n	i	x	b	p	e	address						

Addressing modes & Flag Bits

Five possible addressing modes plus the combinations are as follows.

Direct (x, b, and p all set to 0): operand address goes as it is. n and i are both set to the same value, either 0 or 1. While in general that value is 1, if set to 0 for format 3 we can assume that the rest of the flags (x, b, p, and e) are used as a part of the address of the operand, to make the format compatible to the SIC format

Relative (either b or p equal to 1 and the other one to 0): the address of the operand should be added to the current value stored at the B register (if b = 1) or to the value stored at the PC register (if p = 1)

Immediate (i = 1, n = 0): The operand value is already enclosed on the instruction (ie. lies on the last 12/20 bits of the instruction)

Indirect (i = 0, n = 1): The operand value points to an address that holds the address for the operand value.

Indexed (x = 1): value to be added to the value stored at the register x to obtain real address of the operand. This can be combined with any of the previous modes except immediate.

The various flag bits used in the above formats have the following meanings

e - e = 0 means format 3, e = 1 means format 4

Bits x,b,p: Used to calculate the target address using relative, direct, and indexed addressing Modes

Bits i and n: Says, how to use the target address

b and p - both set to 0, disp field from format 3 instruction is taken to be the target address. For a format 4 bits b and p are normally set to 0, 20 bit address is the target address

x - x is set to 1, X register value is added for target address calculation

i=1, n=0 Immediate addressing, **TA**: TA is used as the operand value, no memory reference

i=0, n=1 Indirect addressing, **((TA))**: The word at the TA is fetched. Value of TA is taken as the address of the operand value

i=0, n=0 or i=1, n=1 Simple addressing, **(TA)**: TA is taken as the address of the operand value

Two new relative addressing modes are available for use with instructions assembled using format 3.

Mode	Indication	Target address calculation
Base relative	b=1,p=0	TA=(B)+ disp (0 ≤ disp ≤ 4095)
Program-counter Relative	D=U,p=1	TA=(PC)+ disp (-2048 ≤ disp ≤ 2047)

Instruction Set

SIC/XE provides all of the instructions that are available on the standard version. In addition we have, Instructions to load and store the new registers LDB, STB, etc, Floating-point arithmetic operations, ADDF, SUBF, MULF, DIVF, Register move instruction : RMO, Register- to-register arithmetic operations, ADDR, SUBR, MULR, DIVR and, Supervisor call instruction : SVC.

Input and Output

There are I/O channels that can be used to perform input and output while the CPU is executing other instructions. Allows overlap of computing and I/O, resulting in more efficient system operation. The instructions SIO, TIO, and HIO are used to start, test and halt the operation of I/O channels.

Example Programs (SIC/XE)

Example 1 (Simple data and character movement operation)

```
        LDA #5
        STA ALPHA
        LDA #90
        STCH C1
        .
        .
ALPHA   RESW 1
C1      RESB 1
```

Example 2(Arithmetic operations)

```
        LDS INCR
        LDA ALPHA
        ADD S,A
        SUB #1
        STA BEETA
        .....
        .....
ALPHA   RESW 1
BEETA   RESW 1
INCR    RESW 1
```

Example 3(Looping and Indexing operation)

```
        LDT #11
        LDX #0          : X = 0
MOVECH  LDCH STR1, X     : LOAD A FROM STR1
        STCH STR2, X     : STORE A TO STR2
        TIXR T           : ADD 1 TO X, TEST (T)
        JLT MOVECH
        .....
        .....
        .....
STR1     BYTE C „HELLO WORLD“
STR2     RESB 11
```

Example 4 (To transfer two hundred bytes of data from input device to memory)

```
        LDT #200
        LDX #0
CLOOP   TD INDEV
```

```

        JEQ  CLOOP
        RD   INDEV
        STCH RECORD, X
        TIXR T
        JLT  CLOOP
        .
        .
INDEV   BYTE  X_F5
RECORD  RESB  200

```

Example 5 (Subroutine to transfer two hundred bytes of data from input device to memory)

```

        JSUB READ
        .....
READ    LDT   #200
        LDX   #0
CLOOP   TD    INDEV

```

DIFFERENT ARCHITECTURES

The following section introduces the architectures of CISC and RISC machines. CISC machines are called traditional machines. In addition to these we have recent RISC machines. Different machines belonging to both of these architectures are compared with respect to their Memory, Registers, Data Formats, Instruction Formats, Addressing Modes, Instruction Set, Input and Output

CISC MACHINES

Traditional (CISC) Machines, are nothing but, Complex Instruction Set Computers, has relatively large and complex instruction set, different instruction formats, different lengths, different addressing modes, and implementation of hardware for these computers is complex. VAX and Intel x86 processors are examples for this type of architecture.

VAX ARCHITECTURE

Memory - The VAX memory consists of 8-bit bytes. All addresses used are byte addresses. Two consecutive bytes form a word, Four bytes form a longword, eight bytes form a quadword, sixteen bytes form an octaword. All VAX programs operate in a virtual address space of 232 bytes, One half is called system space, other half process space.

Registers – There are 16 general purpose registers (GPRs), 32 bits each, named as R0 to R15, PC (R15), SP (R14), Frame Pointer FP (R13), Argument Pointer AP (R12), Others available for general use. There is a Process status longword (PSL) – for flags.

Data Formats - Integers are stored as binary numbers in byte, word, longword, quadword, octaword. 2's complement notation is used for storing negative numbers. Characters are stored as 8-bit ASCII codes. Four different floating-point data formats are also available.

Instruction Formats - VAX architecture uses variable-length instruction formats – op code 1 or 2 bytes, maximum of 6 operand specifiers depending on type of instruction. Tabak – Advanced Microprocessors (2nd edition) McGraw-Hill, 1995, gives more information.

Addressing Modes - VAX provides a large number of addressing modes. They are Register mode, register deferred mode, autoincrement, autodecrement, base relative, program-counter relative, indexed, indirect, and immediate.

Instruction Set – Instructions are symmetric with respect to data type - Uses prefix – type of operation, suffix – type of operands, a modifier – number of operands. For example, ADDW2 - add, word length, 2 operands, MULL3 - multiply, longwords, 3 operands CVTCL - conversion from word to longword. VAX also provides instructions to load and store multiple registers.

Input and Output - Uses I/O device controllers. Device control registers are mapped to separate I/O space. Software routines and memory management routines are used for input/output operations.

PENTIUM PRO ARCHITECTURE

Introduced by Intel in 1995.

Memory - consists of 8-bit bytes, all addresses used are byte addresses. Two consecutive bytes form a word, four bytes form a double word (dword). Viewed as collection of segments, and, address = segment number + offset. There are code, data, stack, extra segments.

Registers – There are 32-bit, eight GPRs, namely EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX, ESI, EDI, EBP, ESP. EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX – are used for data manipulation, other four are used to hold addresses. EIP – 32-bit contains pointer to next instruction to be executed. FLAGS is a 32-bit flag register. CS, SS, DS, ES, FS, GS are the six 16-bit segment registers.

Data Formats - Integers are stored as 8, 16, or 32 bit binary numbers, 2's complement for negative numbers, BCD is also used in the form of unpacked BCD, packed BCD. There are three floating point data formats, they are single, double, and extended-precision. Characters are stored as one per byte – ASCII codes.

Instruction Formats – Instructions use prefixes to specify repetition count, segment register, following prefix (if present), an opcode (1 or 2 bytes), then number of bytes to specify operands, addressing modes. Instruction formats vary in length from 1 byte to 10 bytes or more. Opcode is always present in every instruction

Addressing Modes - A large number of addressing modes are available. They are immediate mode, register mode, direct mode, and relative mode. Use of base register, index register with displacement is also possible.

Instruction Set – This architecture has a large and complex instruction set, approximately 400 different machine instructions. Each instruction may have one, two or three operands. For example Register-to-register, register-to-memory, memory-to-memory, string manipulation, etc...are the some the instructions.

Input and Output - Input is from an I/O port into register EAX. Output is from EAX to an I/O port

RISC MACHINES

RISC means Reduced Instruction Set Computers. These machines are intended to simplify the design of processors. They have Greater reliability, faster execution and less expensive processors. And also they have standard and fixed instruction length. Number of machine instructions, instruction formats, and addressing modes are relatively small. UltraSPARC Architecture and Cray T3E Architecture are examples of RISC machines.

ULTRASPARC ARCHITECTURE

Introduced by Sun Microsystems. SPARC – Scalable Processor ARChitecture. SPARC, SuperSPARC, UltraSPARC are upward compatible machines and share the same basic structure.

Memory - Consists of 8-bit bytes, all addresses used are byte addresses. Two consecutive bytes form a halfword, four bytes form a word , eight bytes form a double word. Uses virtual address space of 2^{64} bytes, divided into pages.

Registers - More than 100 GPRs, with 64 bits length each called Register file. There are 64 double precision floating-point registers, in a special floating-point unit (FPU). In addition to these, it contains PC, condition code registers, and control registers.

Data Formats - Integers are stored as 8, 16, 32 or 64 bit binary numbers. Signed, unsigned for integers and 2's complement for negative numbers. Supports both big-endian and little-endian byte orderings. Floating-point data formats – single, double and quad-precision are available. Characters are stored as 8-bit ASCII value.

Instruction Formats - 32-bits long, three basic instruction formats, first two bits identify the format. Format 1 used for call instruction. Format 2 used for branch instructions. Format 3 used for load, store and for arithmetic operations.

Addressing Modes - This architecture supports immediate mode, register-direct mode, PC-relative, Register indirect with displacement, and Register indirect indexed.

Instruction Set – It has fewer than 100 machine instructions. The only instructions that access memory are loads and stores. All other instructions are register-to-register operations. Instruction execution is pipelined – this results in faster execution, and hence speed increases.

Input and Output - Communication through I/O devices is accomplished through memory. A range of memory locations is logically replaced by device registers. When a load or store instruction refers to this device register area of memory, the corresponding device is activated. There are no special I/O instructions.

CRAY T3E ARCHITECTURE

Announced by Cray Research Inc., at the end of 1995 and is a massively parallel processing (MPP) system, contains a large number of processing elements (PEs), arranged in a three-dimensional network. Each PE consists of a DEC Alpha EV5 RISC processor, and local memory.

Memory - Each PE in T3E has its own local memory with a capacity of from 64 megabytes to 2 gigabytes, consists of 8-bit bytes, all addresses used are byte addresses. Two consecutive bytes form a word, four bytes form a longword, eight bytes form a quadword.

Registers – There are 32 general purpose registers (GPRs), with 64 bits length each called R0 through R31, contains value zero always. In addition to these, it has 32 floating-point registers, 64 bits long, and 64-bit PC, status, and control registers.

Data Formats - Integers are stored as long and quad word binary numbers. 2's complement notation for negative numbers. Supports only little-endian byte orderings. Two different floating-point data formats – VAX and IEEE standard. Characters stored as 8-bit ASCII value.

Instruction Formats - 32-bits long, five basic instruction formats. First six bits always identify the opcode.

Addressing Modes - This architecture supports, immediate mode, register-direct mode, PC- relative, and Register indirect with displacement.

Instruction Set - Has approximately 130 machine instructions. There are no byte or word load and store instructions. Smith and Weiss – “PowerPC 601 and Alpha 21064: A Tale of TWO RISCs “ – Gives more information.

Input and Output - Communication through I/O devices is accomplished through multiple ports and I/O channels. Channels are integrated into the network that interconnects the processing elements. All channels are accessible and controllable from all PEs.

UNIT II ASSEMBLERS

Assembler is system software which is used to convert an assembly language program to its equivalent object code. The input to the assembler is a source code written in assembly language (using mnemonics) and the output is the object code. The design of an assembler depends upon the machine architecture as the language used is mnemonic language.

BASIC ASSEMBLER FUNCTIONS:

The basic assembler functions are:

- Translating mnemonic language code to its equivalent object code.
- Assigning machine addresses to symbolic labels.



The design of assembler can be to perform the following:

- Scanning (tokenizing)
- Parsing (validating the instructions)
- Creating the symbol table
- Resolving the forward references
- Converting into the machine language

The design of assembler in other words:

- Convert mnemonic operation codes to their machine language equivalents
- Convert symbolic operands to their equivalent machine addresses
- Decide the proper instruction format Convert the data constants to internal machine representations
- Write the object program and the assembly listing

So for the design of the assembler we need to concentrate on the machine architecture of the SIC/XE machine. We need to identify the algorithms and the various data structures to be used. According to the above required steps for assembling the assembler also has to handle *assembler directives*, these do not generate the object code but directs the assembler to perform certain operation. These directives are:

START: Specify name & starting address.
END: End of the program, specify the first execution instruction.
BYTE, WORD, RESB, RESW
End of record: a null char(00)
End of file: a zero length record

The assembler design can be done in two ways:

1. Single pass assembler
2. Multi-pass assembler

Single-pass Assembler:

In this case the whole process of scanning, parsing, and object code conversion is done in single pass. The only problem with this method is resolving forward reference. This is shown with an example below:

10	1000	FIRST	STL	RETADR	141033
--					
--					
--					
--					
95	1033	RETADR	RESW	1	

In the above example in line number 10 the instruction STL will store the linkage register with the contents of RETADR. But during the processing of this instruction the value of this symbol is not known as it is defined at the line number 95. Since in single-pass assembler the scanning, parsing and object code conversion happens simultaneously. The instruction is fetched; it is scanned for tokens, parsed for syntax and semantic validity. If it is valid then it has to be converted to its equivalent object code. For this the object code is generated for the opcode STL and the value for the symbol RETADR needs to be added, which is not available.

Due to this reason usually the design is done in two passes. So a multi-pass assembler resolves the forward references and then converts into the object code. Hence the process of the multi-pass assembler can be as follows:

Pass-1

- Assign addresses to all the statements
- Save the addresses assigned to all labels to be used in *Pass-2*
- Perform some processing of assembler directives such as RESW, RESB to find the length of data areas for assigning the address values.
- Defines the symbols in the symbol table (generate the symbol table)

Pass-2

- Assemble the instructions (translating operation codes and looking up addresses).
- Generate data values defined by BYTE, WORD etc.
- Perform the processing of the assembler directives not done during *pass-1*.
- Write the object program and assembler listing.

Assembler Design:

The most important things which need to be concentrated is the generation of Symbol table and resolving *forward references*.

Symbol Table:

- This is created during pass 1
- All the labels of the instructions are symbols
- Table has entry for symbol name, address value.

Forward reference:

- Symbols that are defined in the later part of the program are called forward referencing.
- There will not be any address value for such symbols in the symbol table in pass 1.

Example Program:

The example program considered here has a main module, two subroutines

Purpose of example program

- Reads records from input device (code F1)
- Copies them to output device (code 05)
- At the end of the file, writes EOF on the output device, then RSUB to the OS

Data transfer (RD, WD)

- A buffer is used to store record
- Buffering is necessary for different I/O rates
- The end of each record is marked with a null character (00)16
- The end of the file is indicated by a zero-length record

Subroutines (JSUB, RSUB)

- RDREC, WRREC
- Save link register first before nested jump

Line	Loc	Source statement			Object code
5	1000	COPY	START	1000	
10	1000	FIRST	STL	RETADR	141033
15	1003	CLOOP	JSUB	RDREC	482039
20	1006		LDA	LENGTH	001036
25	1009		COMP	ZERO	281030
30	100C		JEQ	ENDFIL	301015
35	100F		JSUB	WRREC	482061
40	1012		J	CLOOP	3C1003
45	1015	ENDFIL	LDA	EOF	00102A
50	1018		STA	BUFFER	0C1039
55	101B		LDA	THREE	00102D
60	101E		STA	LENGTH	0C1036
65	1021		JSUB	WRREC	482061
70	1024		LDL	RETADR	081033
75	1027		RSUB		4C0000
80	102A	EOF	BYTE	C'EOF'	454F46
85	102D	THREE	WORD	3	000003
90	1030	ZERO	WORD	0	000000
95	1033	RETADR	RESW	1	
100	1036	LENGTH	RESW	1	
105	1039	BUFFER	RESB	4096	
110					

110	.				
115	.			SUBROUTINE TO READ RECORD INTO BUFFER	
120	.				
125	2039	RDREC	LDX	ZERO	041030
130	203C		LDA	ZERO	001030
135	203F	RLOOP	TD	INPUT	E0205D
140	2042		JEQ	RLOOP	30203F
145	2045		RD	INPUT	D8205D
150	2048		COMP	ZERO	281030
155	204B		JEQ	EXIT	302057
160	204E		STCH	BUFFER,X	549039
165	2051		TIX	MAXLEN	2C205E
170	2054		JLT	RLOOP	38203F
175	2057	EXIT	STX	LENGTH	101036
180	205A		RSUB		4C0000
185	205D	INPUT	BYTE	X'F1'	F1
190	205E	MAXLEN	WORD	4096	001000
195					

195		.			
200		.	SUBROUTINE TO WRITE RECORD FROM BUFFER		
205		.			
210	2061	WRREC	LDX	ZERO	041030
215	2064	WLOOP	TD	OUTPUT	E02079
220	2067		JEQ	WLOOP	302064
225	206A		LDCH	BUFFER, X	509039
230	206D		WD	OUTPUT	DC2079
235	2070		TIX	LENGTH	2C1036
240	2073		JLT	WLOOP	382064
245	2076		RSUB		4C0000
250	2079	OUTPUT	BYTE	X'05'	05
255			END	FIRST	

The first column shows the line number for that instruction, second column shows the addresses allocated to each instruction. The third column indicates the labels given to the statement, and is followed by the instruction consisting of opcode and operand. The last column gives the equivalent object code.

The *object code* later will be loaded into memory for execution. The simple object program we use contains three types of records:

Header record

- Col. 1 H
- Col. 2~7 Program name
- Col. 8~13 Starting address of object program (hex)
- Col. 14~19 Length of object program in bytes (hex)

Text record

- Col. 1 T
- Col. 2~7 Starting address for object code in this record (hex)
- Col. 8~9 Length of object code in this record in bytes (hex)
- Col. 10~69 Object code, represented in hex (2 col. per byte)

End record

- Col.1 E

Col.2~7 Address of first executable instruction in object program (hex) “^” is only for separation only

Simple SIC Assembler

The program below is shown with the object code generated. The column named LOC gives the machine addresses of each part of the assembled program (assuming the program is starting at location 1000). The translation of the source program to the object program requires us to accomplish the following functions:

- Convert the mnemonic operation codes to their machine language equivalent.

- Convert symbolic operands to their equivalent machine addresses.
- Build the machine instructions in the proper format.
- Convert the data constants specified in the source program into their internal machine representations in the proper format.
- Write the object program and assembly listing.

All these steps except the second can be performed by sequential processing of the source program, one line at a time. Consider the instruction

```
10      1000          LDA          ALPHA      00-----
```

This instruction contains the forward reference, i.e. the symbol ALPHA is used is not yet defined. If the program is processed (scanning and parsing and object code conversion) is done line-by-line, we will be unable to resolve the address of this symbol. Due to this problem most of the assemblers are designed to process the program in two passes.

In addition to the translation to object program, the assembler has to take care of handling assembler directive. These directives do not have object conversion but gives direction to the assembler to perform some function. Examples of directives are the statements like BYTE and WORD, which directs the assembler to reserve memory locations without generating data values. The other directives are START which indicates the beginning of the program and END indicating the end of the program.

The assembled program will be loaded into memory for execution. The simple object program contains three types of records: Header record, Text record and end record. The header record contains the starting address and length. Text record contains the translated instructions and data of the program, together with an indication of the addresses where these are to be loaded. The end record marks the end of the object program and specifies the address where the execution is to begin.

The format of each record is as given below.

Header record:

Col 1	H
Col. 2-7	Program name
Col 8-13	Starting address of object program (hexadecimal)
Col 14-19	Length of object program in bytes (hexadecimal)

Text record:

Col. 1	T
Col 2-7.	Starting address for object code in this record (hexadecimal)
Col 8-9	Length off object code in this record in bytes (hexadecimal)
Col 10-69	Object code, represented in hexadecimal (2 columns per byte of object code)

End record:

Col. 1	E
Col 2-7	Address of first executable instruction in object program (hexadecimal)

The assembler can be designed either as a single pass assembler or as a two pass assembler. The general description of both passes is as given below:

Pass 1 (define symbols)

- Assign addresses to all statements in the program
- Save the addresses assigned to all labels for use in Pass 2
- Perform assembler directives, including those for address assignment, such as BYTE and RESW

Pass 2 (assemble instructions and generate object program)

- Assemble instructions (generate opcode and look up addresses)
- Generate data values defined by BYTE, WORD
- Perform processing of assembler directives not done during Pass 1
- Write the object program and the assembly listing

ALGORITHMS AND DATA STRUCTURE

The simple assembler uses two major internal data structures: the operation Code Table (OPTAB) and the Symbol Table (SYMTAB).

OPTAB: It is used to lookup mnemonic operation codes and translates them to their machine language equivalents. In more complex assemblers the table also contains information about instruction format and length. In pass 1 the OPTAB is used to look up and validate the operation code in the source program. In pass 2, it is used to translate the operation codes to machine language. In simple SIC machine this process can be performed in either in pass 1 or in pass 2. But for machine like SIC/XE that has instructions of different lengths, we must search OPTAB in the first pass to find the instruction length for incrementing LOCCTR. In pass 2 we take the information from OPTAB to tell us which instruction format to use in assembling the instruction, and any peculiarities of the object code instruction.

OPTAB is usually organized as a hash table, with mnemonic operation code as the key. The hash table organization is particularly appropriate, since it provides fast retrieval with a minimum of searching. Most of the cases the OPTAB is a static table- that is, entries are not normally added to or deleted from it. In such cases it is possible to design a special hashing function or other data structure to give optimum performance for the particular set of keys being stored.

SYMTAB: This table includes the name and value for each label in the source program, together with flags to indicate the error conditions (e.g., if a symbol is defined in two different places).

During Pass 1: labels are entered into the symbol table along with their assigned address value as they are encountered. All the symbols address value should get resolved at the pass 1.

During Pass 2: Symbols used as operands are looked up the symbol table to obtain the address value to be inserted in the assembled instructions.

SYMTAB is usually organized as a hash table for efficiency of insertion and retrieval. Since entries are rarely deleted, efficiency of deletion is the important criteria for optimization.

Both pass 1 and pass 2 require reading the source program. Apart from this an intermediate file is created by pass 1 that contains each source statement together with its assigned address, error indicators, etc. This file is one of the inputs to the pass 2. A copy of the source program is also an input to the pass 2, which is used to retain the operations that may be performed during pass 1 (such as scanning the operation field for symbols and addressing flags), so that these need not be performed during pass 2. Similarly, pointers into OPTAB and SYMTAB is retained for each operation code and symbol used. This avoids need to repeat many of the table- searching operations.

LOCCTR: Apart from the SYMTAB and OPTAB, this is another important variable which helps in the assignment of the addresses. LOCCTR is initialized to the beginning address mentioned in the START statement of the program. After each statement is processed, the length of the assembled instruction is added to the LOCCTR to make it point to the next instruction. Whenever a label is encountered in an instruction the LOCCTR value gives the address to be associated with that label.

The Algorithm for Pass 1:

```

Begin
  read first input line
  if OPCODE = „START“ then begin save
    #[Operand] as starting addr initialize
    LOCCTR to starting address write
    line to intermediate file
    read next line
  end( if START)
  else
    initialize LOCCTR to 0
  While OPCODE != „END“ do
  begin
    if this is not a comment line then
      begin
        if there is a symbol in the LABEL field then
          begin
            search SYMTAB for LABEL
            if found then
              set error flag (duplicate symbol)
            else
              (if symbol)
            search OPTAB for OPCODE
            if found then
              add 3 (instr length) to LOCCTR
            else if OPCODE = „WORD“ then
              add 3 to LOCCTR
            else if OPCODE = „RESW“ then
              add 3 * #[OPERAND] to LOCCTR
            else if OPCODE = „RESB“ then
              add #[OPERAND] to LOCCTR
            else if OPCODE = „BYTE“ then
              begin
                find length of constant in bytes

```

```

        add length to LOCCTR
    end
    else
        set error flag (invalid operation code)
    end (if not a comment)
    write line to intermediate file
    read next input line
end { while not END}
write last line to intermediate file
Save (LOCCTR – starting address) as program length
End {pass 1}

```

The algorithm scans the first statement START and saves the operand field (the address) as the starting address of the program. Initializes the LOCCTR value to this address. This line is written to the intermediate line. If no operand is mentioned the LOCCTR is initialized to zero. If a label is encountered, the symbol has to be entered in the symbol table along with its associated address value. If the symbol already exists that indicates an entry of the same symbol already exists. So an error flag is set indicating a duplication of the symbol. It next checks for the mnemonic code, it searches for this code in the OPTAB. If found then the length of the instruction is added to the LOCCTR to make it point to the next instruction. If the opcode is the directive WORD it adds a value 3 to the LOCCTR. If it is RESW, it needs to add the number of data word to the LOCCTR. If it is BYTE it adds a value one to the LOCCTR, if RESB it adds number of bytes. If it is END directive then it is the end of the program it finds the length of the program by evaluating current LOCCTR – the starting address mentioned in the operand field of the END directive. Each processed line is written to the intermediate file.

The Algorithm for Pass 2:

```

Begin
    read 1st input line
    if OPCODE = „START“ then
        begin
            write listing line
            read next input line
        end
        write Header record to object program
        initialize 1st Text record
    while OPCODE != „END“ do
        begin
            if this is not comment line then
                begin
                    search OPTAB for OPCODE
                    if found then
                        begin
                            if there is a symbol in OPERAND field then
                                begin
                                    search SYMTAB for OPERAND field then
                                    if found then

```



```

        store symbol value as operand address
    else
        begin
        store 0 as operand address
        set error flag (undefined symbol)
    end
end (if symbol)
else store 0 as operand address
assemble the object code instruction
else if OPCODE = „BYTE“ or „WORD“ then
    convert constant to object code
if object code doesn't fit into current Text record then
    begin
    Write text record to object code
    initialize new Text record

    end
add object code to Text record
end {if not comment}
write listing line
read next input line
end
write listing line
read next input line
write last listing line
End {Pass 2}

```

Here the first input line is read from the intermediate file. If the opcode is START, then this line is directly written to the list file. A header record is written in the object program which gives the starting address and the length of the program (which is calculated during pass 1). Then the first text record is initialized. Comment lines are ignored. In the instruction, for the opcode the OPTAB is searched to find the object code. If a symbol is there in the operand field, the symbol table is searched to get the address value for this which gets added to the object code of the opcode. If the address not found then zero value is stored as operands address. An error flag is set indicating it as undefined. If symbol itself is not found then store 0 as operand address and the object code instruction is assembled.

If the opcode is BYTE or WORD, then the constant value is converted to its equivalent object code(for example, for character EOF, its equivalent hexadecimal value „454f46“ is stored). If the object code cannot fit into the current text record, a new text record is created and the rest of the instructions object code is listed. The text records are written to the object program. Once the whole program is assemble and when the END directive is encountered, the End record is written.

DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION ISSUES

Some of the features in the program depend on the architecture of the machine. If the program is for SIC machine, then we have only limited instruction formats and hence limited addressing modes. We have only single operand instructions. The operand is always a memory reference. Anything to be fetched from memory requires more time. Hence the improved version of SIC/XE

machine provides more instruction formats and hence more addressing modes. The moment we change the machine architecture, the availability of number of instruction formats and the addressing modes change. Therefore the design usually requires considering two things: Machine-dependent features and Machine-independent features.

MACHINE-DEPENDENT FEATURES:

- Instruction formats and addressing modes
- Program relocation

Instruction formats and Addressing Modes

The instruction formats depend on the memory organization and the size of the memory. In SIC machine the memory is byte addressable. Word size is 3 bytes. So the size of the memory is 2^{12} bytes. Accordingly it supports only one instruction format. It has only two registers: register A and Index register. Therefore the addressing modes supported by this architecture are direct, indirect, and indexed. Whereas the memory of a SIC/XE machine is 2^{20} bytes (1 MB). This supports four different types of instruction types, they are:

- 1 byte instruction
- 2 byte instruction
- 3 byte instruction
- 4 byte instruction

Instructions can be:

- Instructions involving register to register
- Instructions with one operand in memory, the other in Accumulator (Single operand instruction)
- Extended instruction format

Addressing Modes are:

- Index Addressing(SIC): Opcode m, x
- Indirect Addressing: Opcode @m
- PC-relative: Opcode m Base
- relative: Opcode m Immediate
- addressing: Opcode #c

Translations for the Instruction involving Register-Register addressing mode:

During pass 1 the registers can be entered as part of the symbol table itself. The value for these registers is their equivalent numeric codes. During pass 2, these values are assembled along with the mnemonics object code. If required a separate table can be created with the register names and their equivalent numeric values.

Translation involving Register-Memory instructions:

In SIC/XE machine there are four instruction formats and five addressing modes. For formats and addressing modes refer chapter 1.

Among the instruction formats, format -3 and format-4 instructions are Register-Memory type of instruction. One of the operand is always in a register and the other operand is in the memory. The addressing mode tells us the way in which the operand from the memory is to be fetched.

There are two ways: *Program-counter relative and Base-relative*. This addressing mode can be represented by either using format-3 type or format-4 type of instruction format. In format-3, the instruction has the opcode followed by a 12-bit displacement value in the address

field. Where as in format-4 the instruction contains the mnemonic code followed by a 20-bit displacement value in the address field.

Program-Counter Relative:

In this usually format-3 instruction format is used. The instruction contains the opcode followed by a 12-bit displacement value. The range of displacement values are from 0 -2048. This displacement (should be small enough to fit in a 12-bit field) value is added to the current contents of the program counter to get the target address of the operand required by the instruction. This is relative way of calculating the address of the operand relative to the program counter. Hence the displacement of the operand is relative to the current program counter value. The following example shows how the address is calculated:

10	0000	FIRST	STL	RETADR
RETADR is at address $(0030)_{16}$				
After the SIC fetches this instruction, $(PC) = (0003)_{16}$				
$TA = (PC) + disp \Rightarrow disp = TA - (PC) = 0030 - 0003 = (02D)_{16}$				
	op	n i	x b p e	disp
	000101	1 1	0 0 1 0	02D \Rightarrow 17202D
40	0017	J	CLOOP	
CLOOP is at address $(0006)_{16}$				
After the SIC fetches this instruction, $(PC) = (001A)_{16}$				
$TA = (PC) + disp \Rightarrow disp = TA - (PC) = 0006 - 001A = (FEC)_{16}$				
	op	n i	x b p e	disp
	001111	1 1	0 0 1 0	FEC \Rightarrow 3F2FEC
70	002A	J	@RETADR	
CLOOP is at address $(0030)_{16}$				
After the SIC fetches this instruction, $(PC) = (002D)_{16}$				
$TA = (PC) + disp \Rightarrow disp = TA - (PC) = 0030 - 002D = (0003)_{16}$				
	op	n i	x b p e	disp
	001111	1 0	0 0 1 0	003 \Rightarrow 3E2003

Base-Relative Addressing Mode:

In this mode the base register is used to mention the displacement value. Therefore the target address is

$$TA = (\text{base}) + \text{displacement value}$$

This addressing mode is used when the range of displacement value is not sufficient. Hence the operand is not relative to the instruction as in PC-relative addressing mode. Whenever this mode is used it is indicated by using a directive BASE. The moment the assembler encounters this directive the next instruction uses base-relative addressing mode to calculate the target address of the operand.

When NOBASE directive is used then it indicates the base register is no more used to calculate the target address of the operand. Assembler first chooses PC-relative, when the displacement field is not enough it uses Base-relative.

LDB #LENGTH (instruction)

BASE LENGTH (*directive*)

:

NOBASE

For example:

```
12      0003  LDB      #LENGTH      69202D
13      BASE      LENGTH
::
100     0033  LENGTH  RESW      1
105     0036  BUFFER  RESB     4096
::
160     104E  STCH     BUFFER,    X      57C003
165     1051  TIXR     T          B850
```

In the above example the use of directive BASE indicates that Base -relative addressing mode is to be used to calculate the target address. PC-relative is no longer used. The value of the LENGTH is stored in the base register. If PC-relative is used then the target address calculated is:

The LDB instruction loads the value of length in the base register which 0033. BASE directive explicitly tells the assembler that it has the value of LENGTH.

BUFFER is at location $(0036)_{16}$

$(B) = (0033)_{16}$

$\text{disp} = 0036 - 0033 = (0003)_{16}$

	op	n	i	x	b	p	e	disp	
	010101	1	1	1	1	0	0	003	$\Rightarrow 57C003$
20	000A								
175	1056	EXIT							


Consider Line 175. If we use PC-relative

$\text{Disp} = \text{TA} - (\text{PC}) = 0033 - 1059 = \text{EFDA}$


PC relative is no longer applicable, so we try to use BASE relative addressing mode.

Immediate Addressing Mode

In this mode no memory reference is involved. If immediate mode is used the target address is the operand itself.

55 0020 LDA #3
 TA = (0003)₁₆  Immediate operand

op	n	i	x	b	p	e	disp
000000	0	1	0	0	0	0	003 ⇒ 010003

133 103C +LDT #4096
 TA = (01000)₁₆  Extended instruction format

op	n	i	x	b	p	e	disp (20 bits)
011101	0	1	0	0	0	1	01000 ⇒ 75101000

If the symbol is referred in the instruction as the immediate operand then it is immediate with PC-relative mode as shown in the example below:

12 0003 LDB #LENGTH
 LENGTH is at address 0033
 TA = (PC) + disp ⇒ disp = 0033 – 0006 = (002D)₁₆

op	n	i	x	b	p	e	disp
011010	0	1	0	0	1	0	02D ⇒ 69202D

5. Indirect and PC-relative mode:

In this type of instruction the symbol used in the instruction is the address of the location which contains the address of the operand. The address of this is found using PC-relative addressing mode. For example:

70 002A J @RETADR
 : :
 95 0030 RETADR RESW 1
 RETADR is at address 0030
 TA = (PC) + disp ⇒ disp = 0030 – 002D = (0003)₁₆

op	n	i	x	b	p	e	disp
001111	1	0	0	0	1	0	003 ⇒ 3E2003

The instruction jumps the control to the address location RETADR which in turn has the address of the operand. If address of RETADR is 0030, the target address is then 0003 as calculated above.

Program Relocation

Sometimes it is required to load and run several programs at the same time. The system must be able to load these programs wherever there is place in the memory. Therefore the exact starting is not known until the load time.

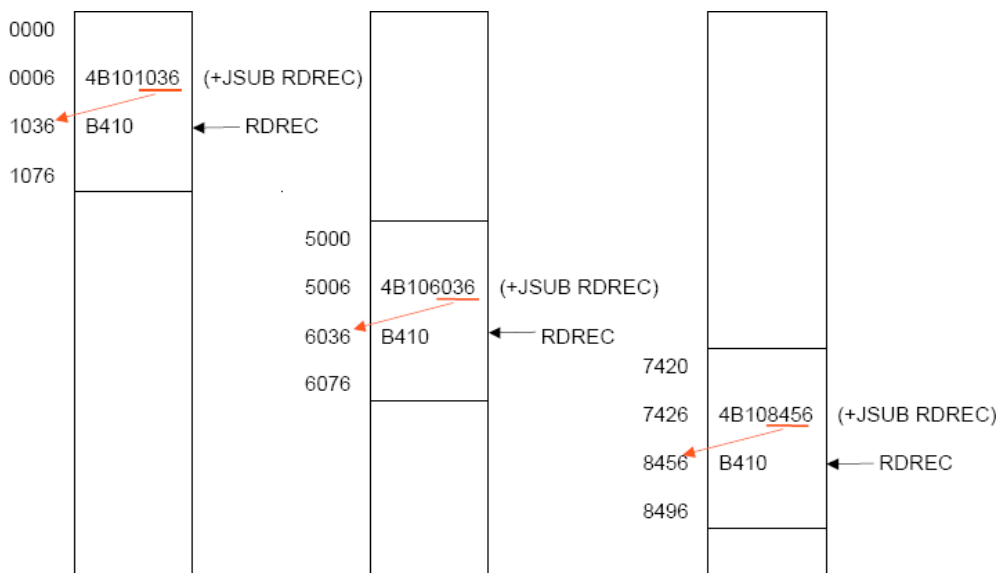
Absolute Program

In this the address is mentioned during assembling itself. This is called *Absolute Assembly*. Consider the instruction:

```
55          101B          LDA          THREE          00102D
```

This statement says that the register A is loaded with the value stored at location 102D. Suppose it is decided to load and execute the program at location 2000 instead of location 1000. Then at address 102D the required value which needs to be loaded in the register A is no more available. The address also gets changed relative to the displacement of the program. Hence we need to make some changes in the address portion of the instruction so that we can load and execute the program at location 2000. Apart from the instruction which will undergo a change in their operand address value as the program load address changes. There exist some parts in the program which will remain same regardless of where the program is being loaded.

Since assembler will not know actual location where the program will get loaded, it cannot make the necessary changes in the addresses used in the program. However, the assembler identifies for the loader those parts of the program which need modification. An object program that has the information necessary to perform this kind of modification is called the relocatable program.



The above diagram shows the concept of relocation. Initially the program is loaded at location 0000. The instruction JSUB is loaded at location 0006. The address field of this instruction contains 01036, which is the address of the instruction labeled RDREC. The second figure shows that if the program is to be loaded at new location 5000. The address of the instruction JSUB gets modified to new location 6036. Likewise the third figure shows that if the program is relocated at location 7420, the JSUB instruction would need to be changed to 4B108456 that correspond to the new address of RDREC.

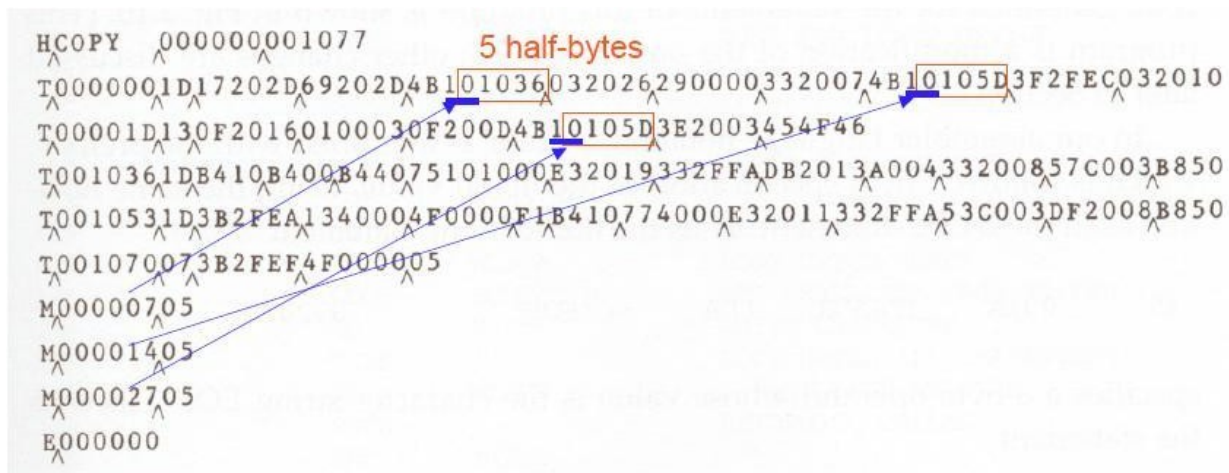
The only part of the program that require modification at load time are those that specify direct addresses. The rest of the instructions need not be modified. The instructions which doesn't require modification are the ones that is not a memory address (immediate addressing) and PC-relative, Base-relative instructions. From the object program, it is not possible to distinguish the address and constant. The assembler must keep some information to tell the loader. The object program that contains the modification record is called a relocatable program.

For an address label, its address is assigned relative to the start of the program (START 0). The assembler produces a *Modification record* to store the starting location and the length of the address field to be modified. The command for the loader must also be a part of the object program. The Modification has the following format:

Modification
record

Col. 1	M
Col. 2-7	Starting location of the address field to be modified, relative to the beginning of the program (Hex)
Col. 8-9	Length of the address field to be modified, in half-bytes (Hex)

One modification record is created for each address to be modified. The length is stored in half-bytes (4 bits). The starting location is the location of the byte containing the leftmost bits of the address field to be modified. If the field contains an odd number of half-bytes, the starting location begins in the middle of the first byte.



In the above object code the red boxes indicate the addresses that need modifications. The object code lines at the end are the descriptions of the modification records for those instructions which need change if relocation occurs. M00000705 is the modification suggested for the statement at location 0007 and requires modification 5-half bytes. Similarly the remaining instructions indicate.

UNIT III - LOADERS AND LINKERS

Introduction

The Source Program written in assembly language or high level language will be converted to object program, which is in the machine language form for execution. This conversion either from assembler or from compiler, contains translated instructions and data values from the source program, or specifies addresses in primary memory where these items are to be loaded for execution.

This contains the following three processes, and they are,

Loading - which allocates memory location and brings the object program into memory for execution - (Loader)

Linking- which combines two or more separate object programs and supplies the information needed to allow references between them - (Linker)

Relocation - which modifies the object program so that it can be loaded at an address different from the location originally specified - (Linking Loader)

Basic Loader Functions

A loader is a system program that performs the loading function. It brings object program into memory and starts its execution. The role of loader is as shown in the figure 3.1. In figure 3.1 translator may be assembler/compiler, which generates the object program and later loaded to the memory by the loader for execution. In figure 3.2 the translator is specifically an assembler, which generates the object loaded, which becomes input to the loader. The figure 3.3 shows the role of both loader and linker.

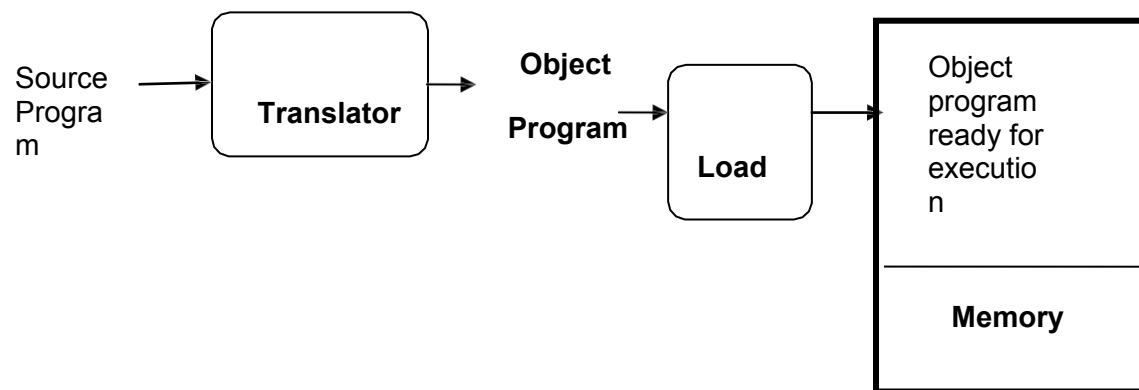


Figure 3.1 : The Role of Loader

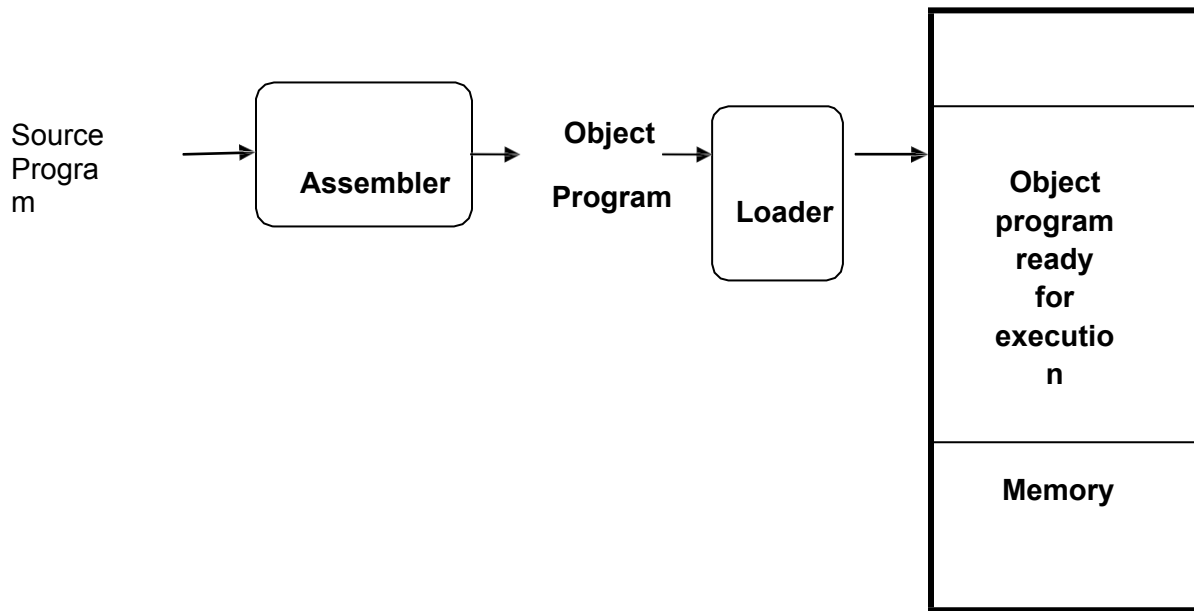


Figure 3.2: The Role of Loader with Assembler

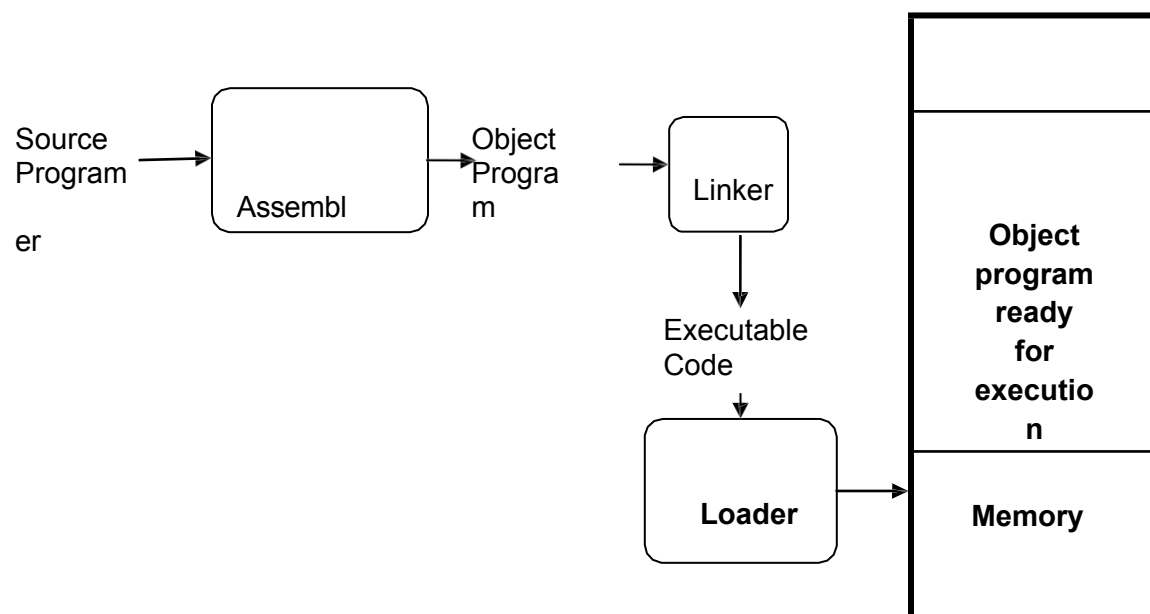


Figure 3.3 : The Role of both Loader and Linker

Type of Loaders

The different types of loaders are, absolute loader, bootstrap loader, relocating loader (relative loader), and, direct linking loader. The following sections discuss the functions and design of all these types of loaders.

Absolute Loader

The operation of absolute loader is very simple. The object code is loaded to specified locations in the memory. At the end the loader jumps to the specified address to begin execution of the loaded program. The role of absolute loader is as shown in the figure 3.3.1. The advantage of absolute loader is simple and efficient. But the disadvantages are, the need for programmer to specify the actual address, and, difficult to use subroutine libraries.

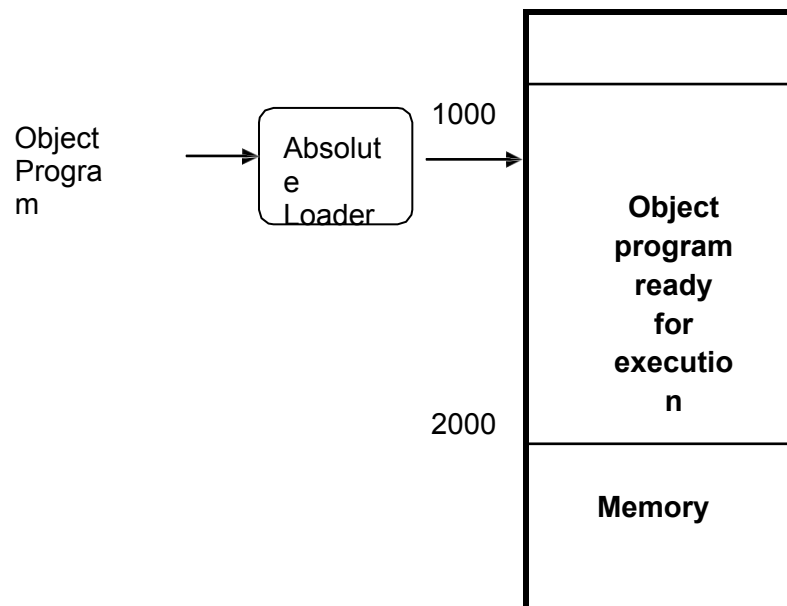


Figure 3.3.1: The Role of Absolute Loader

The algorithm for this type of loader is given here. The object program and, the object program loaded into memory by the absolute loader are also shown. Each byte of assembled code is given using its hexadecimal representation in character form. Easy to read by human beings. Each byte of object code is stored as a single byte. Most machine store object programs in a binary form, and we must be sure that our file and device conventions do not cause some of the program bytes to be interpreted as control characters.

Begin

read Header record

verify program name and length

read first Text record

while record type is <> 'E'**do begin**

{if object code is in character form, convert into internal representation} move object code to specified location in memory

read next object program record

end

jump to address specified in End record

end

HCOPY CC100000107A

T0010001E1410334820390010362810303010154820613C100300102A0C103900102D

T00101E150C10364820610810334C0000454F4600003000000

T0020391E041030001030E0205030203FD8205D2810303020575490392C205E38203F

T0020571C1010364C0000F1001000041030E02079302064509039DC20792C1036

T002073073820644C000005

E001000

(a) Object program

**Memory
address****Contents**

0000	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
0010	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮
0FF0	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
1000	14103348	20390010	36281030	30101548
1010	20613C10	0300102A	0C103900	102D0C10
1020	36482061	0810334C	0000454F	46000003
1030	000000xx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮
2030	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xx041030	001030E0
2040	205D3020	3FD8205D	28103030	20575490
2050	392C205E	38203F10	10364C00	00F10010
2060	00041030	E0207930	20645090	39DC2079
2070	2C103638	20644C00	0005xxxx	xxxxxxxx
2080	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮

← COPY

(b) Program loaded in memory

A Simple Bootstrap Loader

When a computer is first turned on or restarted, a special type of absolute loader, called bootstrap loader is executed. This bootstrap loads the first program to be run by the computer -- usually an operating system. The bootstrap itself begins at address 0. It loads the OS starting address 0x80. No header record or control information, the object code is consecutive bytes of memory.

The algorithm for the bootstrap loader is as follows

Begin

X=0x80 (the address of the next memory location to be loaded)

Loop

 A ← GETC (and convert it from the ASCII character code to the value of the hexadecimal digit)

 save the value in the high-order 4 bits of S

 A ← GETC

 combine the value to form one byte A ← (A+S)

 store the value (in A) to the address in register

End X ← X+1

It uses a subroutine GETC, which is

GETC A ← read one character

 if A=0x04 then jump to

 0x80 if A<48 then GETC

 A ← A-48 (0x30)

 if A<10 then

 return A ← A-7

 return

Machine-Dependent Loader Features

Absolute loader is simple and efficient, but the scheme has potential disadvantages. One of the most disadvantage is the programmer has to specify the actual starting address, from where the program to be loaded. This does not create difficulty, if one program to run, but not for several programs. Further it is difficult to use subroutine libraries efficiently.

This needs the design and implementation of a more complex loader. The loader must provide program relocation and linking, as well as simple loading functions.

Relocation

The concept of program relocation is, the execution of the object program using any part of the available and sufficient memory. The object program is loaded into memory wherever there is room for it. The actual starting address of the object program is not known until load time. Relocation provides the efficient sharing of the machine with larger memory and when several independent programs are to be run together. It also supports the use of subroutine libraries efficiently. Loaders that allow for program relocation are called relocating loaders or relative loaders.

Methods for specifying relocation

Use of modification record and, use of relocation bit, are the methods available for specifying relocation. In the case of modification record, a modification record M is used in the object program to specify any relocation. In the case of use of relocation bit, each instruction is associated with one relocation bit and, these relocation bits in a Text record is gathered into bit masks.

Modification records are used in complex machines and are also called Relocation and Linkage Directory (RLD) specification. The format of the modification record (M) is as follows. The object program with relocation by Modification records is also shown here.

Modification record

- col 1: M
- col 2-7: relocation address
- col 8-9: length (halfbyte)
- col 10: flag (+/-)
- col 11-17: segment name

```
H 000000 001077
T 000000
0 1D 17202D 69202D 48101036 ... 4B105D 3F2FEC 03201
0
T 00001D 13 0F2016 010003 0F200D 4B10105D 3E2003 4
54F46 T 001035
0 1D B410 B400 B440 75101000 ... 332008 57C003 B850
T 001053 1D 3B2FEA 134000 4F0000 F1 ... 53C003 DF200
8 B850 T 00070 07 3B2FEF 4F0000 05
M 000007 05+C
OPY
M 000014 05+C
OPY
M 000027 05+C
OPY E 000000
```

The relocation bit method is used for simple machines. Relocation bit is 0: no modification is necessary, and is 1: modification is needed. This is specified in the columns 10- 12 of text record (T), the format of text record, along with relocation bits is as follows.

Text record

col 1: T
col 2-7: starting
address col 8-9: length
(byte)
col 10-12: relocation bits
col 13-72: object code

Twelve-bit mask is used in each Text record (col:10-12 – relocation bits), since each text record contains less than 12 words, unused words are set to 0, and, any value that is to be modified during relocation must coincide with one of these 3-byte segments. For absolute loader, there are no relocation bits column 10-69 contains object code. The object program with relocation by bit mask is as shown below. Observe FFC - means all ten words are to be modified and, E00 - means first three records are to be modified.

```
H COPY 000000 00107A
T 000000 1E FFC 140033 481039 000036 280030 300015 ...
 3C0003 ...
T 00001E 15 E00 0C0036 481061 080033 4C0000 ... 000003
 000000
T 001039 1E FFC 040030 000030 ... 30103F D8105D 280030
 ...
T 001057 0A 800 100036 4C0000 F1 001000
T 001061 19 FE0 040030 E01079 ... 508039 DC1079
 2C0036 ... E 000000
```

Program Linking

The Goal of program linking is to resolve the problems with external references (EXTREF) and external definitions (EXTDEF) from different control sections.

EXTDEF (external definition) - The EXTDEF statement in a control section names symbols, called external symbols, that are defined in this (present) control section and may be used by other sections.

ex: EXTDEF BUFFER, BUFFEND, LENGTH
EXTDEF LISTA, ENDA

EXTREF (external reference) - The EXTREF statement names symbols used in this (present) control section and are defined elsewhere.

ex: EXTREF RDREC, WRREC
EXTREF LISTB, ENDB, LISTC, ENDC

How to implement EXTDEF and EXTREF

The assembler must include information in the object program that will cause the loader to insert proper values where they are required – in the form of Define record (D) and, Refer record(R).

Define record

The format of the Define record (D) along with examples is as shown here.

Col. 1	D
Col. 2-7	Name of external symbol defined in this control section
Col. 8-13	Relative address within this control section (hexadecimal)
Col.14-73	Repeat information in Col. 2-13 for other external symbols

Example records

D LISTA 000040 ENDA 000054

D LISTB 000060 ENDB 000070

Refer record

The format of the Refer record (R) along with examples is as shown here.

Col. 1	R
Col. 2-7	Name of external symbol referred to in this control section
Col. 8-73	Name of other external reference symbols

Example records

R LISTB ENDB LISTC ENDC R

LISTA ENDA LISTC ENDC R

LISTA ENDA LISTB ENDB

Here are the three programs named as PROGA, PROGB and PROGC, which are separately assembled and each of which consists of a single control section. LISTA, ENDA in PROGA, LISTB, ENDB in PROGB and LISTC, ENDC in PROGC are external definitions in each of the control sections. Similarly LISTB, ENDB, LISTC, ENDC in PROGA, LISTA, ENDA, LISTC, ENDC in PROGB, and LISTA, ENDA, LISTB, ENDB in PROGC, are external references. These sample programs given here are used to illustrate linking and relocation. The following figures give the sample programs and their corresponding object programs. Observe the object programs, which contain D and R records along with other records.

0000	PROGA	START	0	
		EXTDEF	LISTA, ENDA	
		EXTREF	LISTB, ENDB, LISTC, ENDC	
			
0020	REF1	LDA	LISTA	03201D
0023	REF2	+LDT	LISTB+4	77100004
0027	REF3	LDX	#ENDA-LISTA	050014
		.		
0040	LISTA	EQU	*	
0054	ENDA	EQU	*	
0054	REF4	WORD	ENDA-LISTA+LISTC	000014
0057	REF5	WORD	ENDC-LISTC-10	FFFFFF6
005A	REF6	WORD	ENDC-LISTC+LISTA-1	00003F
005D	REF7	WORD	ENDA-LISTA-(ENDB-LISTB)	000014
0060	REF8	WORD	LISTB-LISTA	FFFFC0
		END	REF1	

0000	PROGB	START	0	
		EXTDEF	LISTB, ENDB	
		EXTREF	LISTA, ENDA, LISTC, ENDC	
			
0036	REF1	+LDA	LISTA	03100000
003A	REF2	LDT	LISTB+4	772027
003D	REF3	+LDX	#ENDA-LISTA	05100000
		.		
0060	LISTB	EQU	*	
0070	ENDB	EQU	*	
0070	REF4	WORD	ENDA-LISTA+LISTC	000000
0073	REF5	WORD	ENDC-LISTC-10	FFFFFF6
0076	REF6	WORD	ENDC-LISTC+LISTA-1	FFFFFFF
0079	REF7	WORD	ENDA-LISTA-(ENDB-LISTB)	FFFFFF0
007C	REF8	WORD	LISTB-LISTA	000060
		END		

0000	PROGC	START	0	
		EXTDEF	LISTC, ENDC	
		EXTREF	LISTA, ENDA, LISTB, ENDB	


```

.....
0018 REF1 +LDA LISTA 03100000
001C REF2 +LDT LISTB+4 77100004
0020 REF3 +LDX #ENDA-LISTA 05100000
.
.
0030 LISTC EQU *
.
0042 ENDC EQU *
0042 REF4 WORD ENDA-LISTA+LISTC 000030
0045 REF5 WORD ENDC-LISTC-10 000008
0045 REF6 WORD ENDC-LISTC+LISTA-1 000011
004B REF7 WORD ENDA-LISTA-(ENDB-LISTB) 000000
004E REF8 WORD LISTB-LISTA 000000
END

```

```

H PROGA 000000 000063
D LISTA 000040 ENDA 000054
R LISTB ENDB LISTC ENDC
.
.

```

```

T 000020 0A 03201D 77100004 050014
.
.

```

```

T 000054 0F 000014 FFFF6 00003F 000014 FFFFC0
M000024 05+LISTB
M000054 06+LISTC
M000057 06+ENDC
M000057 06 -LISTC
M00005A06+ENDC
M00005A06 -LISTC
M00005A06+PROGA
M00005D06-ENDB
M00005D06+LISTB
M00006006+LISTB
M00006006-PROGA

```

```

E000020

```

```

H PROGB 000000 00007F
D LISTB 000060 ENDB 000070
R LISTA ENDA LISTC ENDC
.
.

```

```

T 000036 0B 03100000 772027 05100000
.
.

```

```

T 000007 0F 000000 FFFFF6 FFFFFF FFFFF0000060
M000037 05+LISTA

```

```

M00003E 06+ENDA

```

M00003E 06 -LISTA
M000070 06 +END
M000070 06 -LISTA
M000070 06 +LISTC
M000073 06 +ENDC
M000073 06 -LISTC
M000073 06 +ENDC
M000076 06 -LISTC
M000076 06+LISTA
M000079 06+END
M000079 06 -LISTA
M00007C 06+PROGB
M00007C 06-LISTA
E

H **PROGC** 000000 000051
D **LISTC** 000030 **ENDC** 000042
R **LISTA** **END** **LISTB** **ENDB**

.
T 000018 0C 03100000 77100004 05100000

.
T 000042 0F 000030 000008 000011 000000 000000
M000019 05+LISTA
M00001D 06+LISTB
M000021 06+END
M000021 06 -LISTA
M000042 06+END
M000042 06 -LISTA
M000042 06+PROGC
M000048 06+LISTA
M00004B 06+END
M00004B 06-LISTA
M00004B 06-ENDB
M00004B 06+LISTB
M00004E 06+LISTB
M00004E 06-LISTA
E

The following figure shows these three programs as they might appear in memory after loading and linking. PROGA has been loaded starting at address 4000, with PROGB and PROGC immediately following.

**Memory
address**

Contents

0000	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	
3FF0	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	
4000	
4010	
4020	03201D77	1040C705	0014....	← PROGA
4030	
4040	
4050	00412600	00080040	51000004	
4060	000083..	
4070	
4080	
4090031040	40772027	← PROGB
40A0	05100014	
40B0	
40C0	
40D000	41260000	08004051	00000400	
40E0	0083....	
40F00310	40407710	
4100	40C70510	0014....	← PROGC
4110	
4120	00412600	00080040	51000004	
4130	000083xx	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	
4140	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	XXXXXXXX	
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	

For example, the value for REF4 in PROGA is located at address 4054 (the beginning address of PROGA plus 0054, the relative address of REF4 within PROGA). The following figure shows the details of how this value is computed.

Algorithm and Data structures for a Linking Loader

The algorithm for a linking loader is considerably more complicated than the absolute loader program, which is already given. The concept given in the program linking section is used for developing the algorithm for linking loader. The modification records are used for relocation so that the linking and relocation functions are performed using the same mechanism.

Linking Loader uses two-passes logic. ESTAB (external symbol table) is the main data structure for a linking loader.

Pass 1: Assign addresses to all external symbols

Pass 2: Perform the actual loading, relocation, and linking

ESTAB - ESTAB for the example (refer three programs PROGA PROGB and PROGC) given is as shown below. The ESTAB has four entries in it; they are name of the control section, the symbol appearing in the control section, its address and length of the control section.

Control section	Symbol	Address	Length
PROGA		4000	63
	LISTA	4040	
	ENDA	4054	
PROGB		4063	7F
	LISTB	40C3	
	ENDB	40D3	
PROGC		40E2	51
	LISTC	4112	
	ENDC	4124	

Program Logic for Pass 1

Pass 1 assign addresses to all external symbols. The variables & Data structures used during pass 1 are, PROGADDR (program load address) from OS, CSADDR (control section address), CSLTH (control section length) and ESTAB. The pass 1 processes the Define Record. The algorithm for Pass 1 of Linking Loader is given below.

Pass 1:

```
begin
get PROGADDR from operating system
set CSADDR to PROGADDR {for first control section}
while not end of input do
  begin
    read next input record {Header record for control section}
    set CSLTH to control section length
    search ESTAB for control section name
    if found then
      set error flag {duplicate external symbol}
    else
      enter control section name into ESTAB with value CSADDR
    while record type () 'E' do
      begin
        read next input record
        if record type = 'D' then
          for each symbol in the record do
            begin
              search ESTAB for symbol name
              if found then
                set error flag {duplicate external symbol}
              else
                enter symbol into ESTAB with value
                  (CSADDR + indicated address)
            end {for}
          end {while () 'E'}
          add CSLTH to CSADDR {starting address for next control section}
        and {while not EOF}
      end {Pass 1}
```

Program Logic for Pass 2

Pass 2 of linking loader perform the actual loading, relocation, and linking. It uses modification record and lookup the symbol in ESTAB to obtain its address. Finally it uses end record of a main program to obtain transfer address, which is a starting address needed for the execution of the program. The pass 2 process Text record and Modification record of the object programs. The algorithm for Pass 2 of Linking Loader is given below.

Pass 2:

```
begin
set CSADDR to PROGADDR
set EXECADDR to PROGADDR
while not end of input do
begin
read next input record {Header record}
set CSLTH to control section length
while record type {} 'E' do
begin
read next input record
if record type = 'T' then
begin
{if object code is in character form, convert
into internal representation}
move object code from record to location
(CSADDR + specified address)
end {if 'T'}
else if record type = 'M' then
begin
search ESTAB for modifying symbol name
if found then
add or subtract symbol value at location
(CSADDR + specified address)
else
set error flag (undefined external symbol)
end {if 'M'}
end {while () 'E'}
if an address is specified {in End record} then
set EXECADDR to (CSADDR + specified address)
add CSLTH to CSADDR
end {while not EOF}
jump to location given by EXECADDR {to start execution of loaded program}
end {Pass 2}
```

Improve Efficiency, How?

The question here is can we improve the efficiency of the linking loader. Also observe that, even though we have defined Refer record (R), we haven't made use of it. The efficiency can be improved by the use of local searching instead of multiple searches of ESTAB for the same symbol. For implementing this we assign a reference number to each external symbol in the Refer record. Then this reference number is used in Modification records instead of external symbols. 01 is assigned to control section name, and other numbers for external reference symbols.

The object programs for PROGA, PROGB and PROGC are shown below, with above modification to Refer record (Observe R records).

HPRGGA 000000000063
DLISTA 000040ENDA 000054
R02LISTB 03ENDB 04LISTC 05ENDC

•
■

T0000200A03201D77100004050014

•
■

Y0000540F00C0148FFFF600003F000014FFFE0
M00002405+02
M00005406+04
M00005706+05
M00005706-04

HPRGGB 00000000007F
DLISTB 000060ENDB 000070
R02LISTA 03ENDA 04LISTC 05ENDC

•
■

T0000360B0310000077202705100000

•
■

T0000700E0000000FFFFF6FFFFFEFFFFF0000060
M00003705+02
M00003E05+03
M00003E05-02
M00007006+03
M00007006-02
M00007006+04
M00007306+05
M00007306-04
M00007606+05
M00007606-04
M00007606+02
M00007906+03
M00007906-02
M00007C06+01
M00007C06-02
E


```

HPRGCG 000000000051
DLISTC 000030ENDC 000042
R02LISTA 03ENDA 04LISTB 05ENDB
*
*
T0000180C031000007710000405100000
*
*
T0000420F000030000008000011000000000000
M00001905+02
M00001D05+04
M00002105+03
M00002105-02
M00004206+03
M00004206-02
M00004206+01
M00004806+02
M00004B06+03
M00004B06-02
M00004B06-05
M00004B06+04
M00004E06+04
M00004E06-02
E

```

Symbol and Addresses in PROGA, PROGB and PROGC are as shown below. These are the entries of ESTAB. The main advantage of reference number mechanism is that it avoids multiple searches of ESTAB for the same symbol during the loading of a control section

Ref No.	Symbol	Address
1	PROGA	4000
2	LISTB	40C3
3	ENDB	40D3
4	LISTC	4112
5	ENDC	4124

Ref No.	Symbol	Address
1	PROGB	4063
2	LISTA	4040
3	ENDA	4054
4	LISTC	4112
5	ENDC	4124

Ref No.	Symbol	Address
1	PROGC	4063
2	LISTA	4040
3	ENDA	4054
4	LISTB	40C3
5	ENDB	40D3

Machine-independent Loader Features

Here we discuss some loader features that are not directly related to machine architecture and design. Automatic Library Search and Loader Options are such Machine- independent Loader Features.

Automatic Library Search

This feature allows a programmer to use standard subroutines without explicitly including them in the program to be loaded. The routines are automatically retrieved from a library as they are needed during linking. This allows programmer to use subroutines from one or more libraries. The subroutines called by the program being loaded are automatically fetched from the library, linked with the main program and loaded. The loader searches the library or libraries specified for routines that contain the definitions of these symbols in the main program.

Loader Options

Loader options allow the user to specify options that modify the standard processing. The options may be specified in three different ways. They are, specified using a command language, specified as a part of job control language that is processed by the operating system, and can be specified using loader control statements in the source program.

Here are some examples of how options can be specified.

INCLUDE program-name (library-name) - read the designated object program from a library

DELETE csect-name - delete the named control section from the set of programs being loaded

CHANGE name1, name2 - external symbol name1 to be changed to name2 wherever it appears in the object programs

LIBRARY MYLIB - search MYLIB library before standard libraries

NOCALL STDDEV, PLOT, CORREL - no loading and linking of unneeded routines

Here is one more example giving, how commands can be specified as a part of object file, and the respective changes are carried out by the loader.

LIBRARY UTLIB INCLUDE

READ (UTLIB) INCLUDE

WRITE (UTLIB) DELETE

RDREC, WRREC

CHANGE RDREC, READ

CHANGE WRREC, WRITE

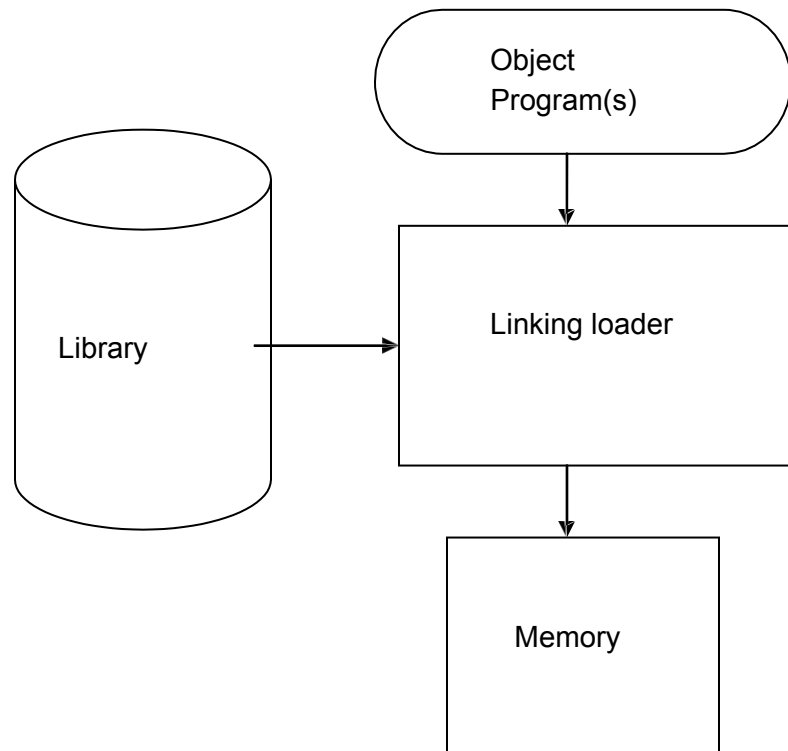
NOCALL SQRT, PLOT

The commands are, use UTLIB (say utility library), include READ and WRITE control sections from the library, delete the control sections RDREC and WRREC from the load, the change command causes all external references to the symbol RDREC to be changed to the symbol READ, similarly references to WRREC is changed to WRITE, finally, no call to the functions SQRT, PLOT, if they are used in the program.

Loader Design Options

There are some common alternatives for organizing the loading functions, including relocation and linking. Linking Loaders – Perform all linking and relocation at load time. The Other Alternatives are Linkage editors, which perform linking prior to load time and, Dynamic linking, in which linking function is performed at execution time

Linking Loaders

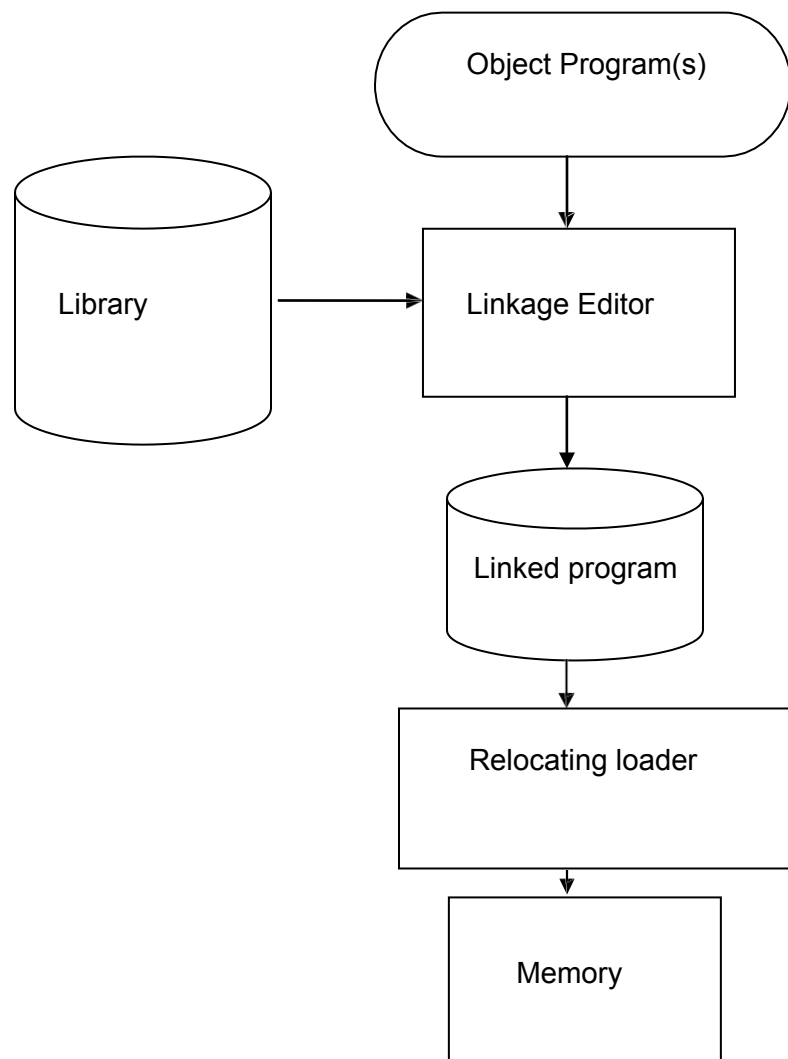


The above diagram shows the processing of an object program using Linking Loader. The source program is first assembled or compiled, producing an object program. A linking loader performs all linking and loading operations, and loads the program into memory for execution.

Linkage Editors

The figure below shows the processing of an object program using Linkage editor. A linkage editor produces a linked version of the program – often called a load module or an executable image – which is written to a file or library for later execution. The linked program produced is generally in a form that is suitable for processing by a relocating loader.

Some useful functions of Linkage editor are, an absolute object program can be created, if starting address is already known. New versions of the library can be included without changing the source program. Linkage editors can also be used to build packages of subroutines or other control sections that are generally used together. Linkage editors often allow the user to specify that external references are not to be resolved by automatic library search – linking will be done later by linking loader – linkage editor + linking loader – savings in space



Dynamic Linking

The scheme that postpones the linking functions until execution. A subroutine is loaded and linked to the rest of the program when it is first called – usually called dynamic linking, dynamic loading or load on call. The advantages of dynamic linking are, it allow several executing programs to share one copy of a subroutine or library. In an object oriented system, dynamic linking makes it possible for one object to be shared by several programs. Dynamic linking provides the ability to load the routines only when (and if) they are needed. The actual loading and linking can be accomplished using operating system service request.

Bootstrap Loaders

If the question, how is the loader itself loaded into the memory ? is asked, then the answer is, when computer is started – with no program in memory, a program present in ROM (absolute address) can be made executed – may be OS itself or A Bootstrap loader, which in turn loads OS and prepares it for execution. The first record (or records) is generally referred to as a bootstrap loader – makes the OS to be loaded. Such a loader is added to the beginning of all object programs that are to be loaded into an empty and idle system.

Implementation Examples

This section contains brief description of loaders and linkers for actual computers. They are, MS-DOS Linker - Pentium architecture, SunOS Linkers - SPARC architecture, and, Cray MPP Linkers – T3E architecture.

MS-DOS Linker

This explains some of the features of Microsoft MS-DOS linker, which is a linker for Pentium and other x86 systems. Most MS-DOS compilers and assemblers (MASM) produce object modules, and they are stored in .OBJ files. MS-DOS LINK is a linkage editor that combines one or more object modules to produce a complete executable program - .EXE file; this file is later executed for results.

The following table illustrates the typical MS-DOS object module

Record Types	Description
THEADR	External
Translator Header TYPDEF, PUBDEF, EXTDEF	
symbols and references LNames, SEGDEF, GRPDEF	
Segment definition and grouping LEDATA, LIDATA	
	Translated instructions and data
FIXUPP	Relocation and linking information
MODEND	End of object module

THEADR specifies the name of the object module. MODEND specifies the end of the module. PUBDEF contains list of the external symbols (called public names). EXTDEF contains list of external symbols referred in this module, but defined elsewhere. TYPDEF the data types are defined here. SEGDEF describes segments in the object module (includes name, length, and alignment). GRPDEF includes how segments are combined into groups. LNames contains all segment and class names. LEDATA contains translated instructions and data. LIDATA has above in repeating pattern. Finally, FIXUPP is used to resolve external references.

SunOS Linkers

SunOS Linkers are developed for SPARC systems. SunOS provides two different linkers – link-editor and run-time linker.

Link-editor is invoked in the process of assembling or compiling a program – produces a single output module – one of the following types

A relocatable object module – suitable for further link-editing

A static executable – with all symbolic references bound and ready to run

A dynamic executable – in which some symbolic references may need to be bound at run time

A shared object – which provides services that can be, bound at run time to one ore more dynamic executables

An object module contains one or more sections – representing instructions and data area from the source program, relocation and linking information, external symbol table.

Run-time linker uses dynamic linking approach. Run-time linker binds dynamic executables and shared objects at execution time. Performs relocation and linking operations to prepare the program for execution.


Cray MPP Linker

Cray MPP (massively parallel processing) Linker is developed for Cray T3E systems. A T3E system contains large number of parallel processing elements (PEs) – Each PE has local memory and has access to remote memory (memory of other PEs). The processing is divided among PEs - contains shared data and private data. The loaded program gets copy of the executable code, its private data and its portion of the shared data. The MPP linker organizes blocks containing executable code, private data and shared data. The linker then writes an executable file that contains the relocated and linked blocks. The executable file also specifies the number of PEs required and other control information. The linker can create an executable file that is targeted for a fixed number of PEs, or one that allows the partition size to be chosen at run time. Latter type is called plastic executable.

UNIT IV - MACRO PROCESSORS

A *Macro* represents a commonly used group of statements in the source programming language.

- A macro instruction (**macro**) is a notational convenience for the programmer
 - It allows the programmer to write shorthand version of a program (module programming)
- The macro processor **replaces** each macro instruction with the corresponding group of source language statements (**expanding**)
 - Normally, it performs no analysis of the text it handles.
 - It does not concern the meaning of the involved statements during macro expansion.
- The design of a macro processor generally is *machine independent!*
- Two new assembler directives are used in macro definition
 - **MACRO**: identify the beginning of a macro definition
 - **MEND**: identify the end of a macro definition
- Prototype for the macro
 - Each parameter begins with „&“

 name MACRO parameters

:

body

:

MEND
 - Body: the statements that will be generated as the expansion of the macro.

Basic Macro Processor Functions:

- Macro Definition and Expansion
- Macro Processor Algorithms and Data structures

Macro Definition and Expansion:

The figure shows the MACRO expansion. The left block shows the MACRO definition and the right block shows the expanded macro replacing the MACRO call with its block of executable instruction.

M1 is a macro with two parameters D1 and D2. The MACRO stores the contents of register A in D1 and the contents of register B in D2. Later M1 is invoked with the parameters DATA1 and DATA2, Second time with DATA4 and DATA3. Every call of MACRO is expended with the executable statements.

Source	Expanded source
M1 MACRO &D1, &D2	.
STA &D1	.
STB &D2	.
MEND	{ STA DATA1
.	STB DATA2
M1 DATA1, DATA2	.
.	{ STA DATA4
M1 DATA4, DATA3	STB DATA3
	.

Fig 4.1

The statement M1 DATA1, DATA2 is a macro invocation statements that gives the name of the macro instruction being invoked and the arguments (M1 and M2) to be used in expanding. A macro invocation is referred as a Macro Call or Invocation.

Macro Expansion:

The program with macros is supplied to the macro processor. Each macro invocation statement will be expanded into the statements that form the body of the macro, with the arguments from the macro invocation substituted for the parameters in the macro prototype. During the expansion, the macro definition statements are deleted since they are no longer needed.

The arguments and the parameters are associated with one another according to their positions. The first argument in the macro matches with the first parameter in the macro prototype and so on.

After *macro processing* the expanded file can become the input for the *Assembler*. The *Macro Invocation* statement is considered as comments and the statement generated from expansion is treated exactly as though they had been written directly by the programmer.

The difference between *Macros* and *Subroutines* is that the statements from the body of the Macro is expanded the number of times the macro invocation is encountered, whereas the statement of the subroutine appears only once no matter how many times the subroutine is called. Macro instructions will be written so that the body of the macro contains no labels.

❏ Problem of the label in the body of macro:

- If the same macro is expanded multiple times at different places in the program
- ...
- There will be *duplicate labels*, which will be treated as errors by the assembler.

❏ Solutions:

- Do not use labels in the body of macro.
- Explicitly use PC-relative addressing instead.

❏ Ex, in RDBUFF and WRBUFF macros,

- JEQ *+11
 - JLT *-14
- It is inconvenient and error-prone.

The following program shows the concept of Macro Invocation and Macro Expansion.

```

170 .                MAIN PROGRAM
175 .
180  FIRST  STL      RETADR      SAVE RETURN ADDRESS
190  CLOOP  RDBUFF  F1,BUFFER,LENGTH  READ RECORD INTO BUFFER
195          LDA      LENGTH      TEST FOR END OF FILE
200          COMP     #0
205          JEQ       ENDFIL      EXIT IF EOF FOUND
210          WRBUFF  05,BUFFER,LENGTH  WRITE OUTPUT RECORD
215          J         CLOOP      LOOP
220  ENDFIL  WRBUFF  05,EOF,THREE      INSERT EOF MARKER
225          J         @RETADR
230  EOF     BYTE     C'EOF'
235  THREE   WORD     3
240  RETADR  RESW     1
245  LENGTH  RESW     1            LENGTH OF RECORD
250  BUFFER  RESB     4096        4096-BYTE BUFFER AREA
255          END      FIRST

```

5	COPY	START	0	COPY FILE FROM INPUT TO OUTPUT
180	FIRST	STL	RETADR	SAVE RETURN ADDRESS
190	.CLOOP	RDBUFF	F1,BUFFER,LENGTH	READ RECORD INTO BUFFER
190a	CLOOP	CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
190b		CLEAR	A	
190c		CLEAR	S	
190d		+LDT	#4096	SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
190e		TD	=X'F1'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
190f		JEQ	*-3	LOOP UNTIL READY
190g		RD	=X'F1'	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
190h		COMPR	A, S	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
190i		JEQ	*+11	EXIT LOOP IF EOR
190j		STCH	BUFFER, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
190k		TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
190l		JLT	*-19	HAS BEEN REACHED
190M		STX	LENGTH	SAVE RECORD LENGTH

Fig 4.2

Macro Processor Algorithm and Data Structure:

Design can be done as two-pass or a one-pass macro. In case of two-pass assembler.

Two-pass macro processor

- You may design a two-pass macro processor
 - Pass 1:
 - ▢ Process all macro definitions
 - Pass 2:
 - ▢ Expand all macro invocation statements
- However, one-pass may be enough
 - Because all macros would have to be defined during the first pass before any macro invocations were expanded.
 - ▢ The definition of a macro must appear before any statements that invoke that macro.
- Moreover, the body of one macro can contain definitions of the other macro
- Consider the example of a Macro defining another Macro.
- In the example below, the body of the first Macro (MACROS) contains statement that define RDBUFF, WRBUFF and other macro instructions for SIC machine.
- The body of the second Macro (MACROX) defines the same macros for SIC/XE machine.
- A proper invocation would make the same program to perform macro invocation to run on either SIC or SIC/XE machine.

MACROS for SIC machine

1	MACROS	MACRO	{Defines SIC standard version macros}
2	RDBUFF	MACRO	&INDEV,&BUFADR,&RECLTH
		.	{SIC standard version}
		.	
3		MEND	{End of RDBUFF}
4	WRBUFF	MACRO	&OUTDEV,&BUFADR,&RECLTH
		.	{SIC standard version}
		.	
5		MEND	{End of WRBUFF}
		.	
		.	
6		MEND	{End of MACROS}

Fig 4.3(a)

MACROX for SIC/XE Machine

1	MACROX	MACRO	{Defines SIC/XE macros}
2	RDBUFF	MACRO	&INDEV,&BUFADR,&RECLTH
		.	{SIC/XE version}
		.	
3		MEND	{End of RDBUFF}
4	WRBUFF	MACRO	&OUTDEV,&BUFADR,&RECLTH
		.	{SIC/XE version}
		.	
5		MEND	{End of WRBUFF}
		.	
		.	
6		MEND	{End of MACROX}

Fig 4.3(b)

- A program that is to be run on SIC system could invoke MACROS whereas a program to be run on SIC/XE can invoke MACROX.
- However, defining MACROS or MACROX does not define RDBUFF and WRBUFF.
- These definitions are processed only when an invocation of MACROS or MACROX is expanded.

One-Pass Macro Processor:

- A one-pass macro processor that alternate between *macro definition* and *macro expansion* in a recursive way is able to handle recursive macro definition.

■ Restriction

- The definition of a macro must appear in the source program before any statements that invoke that macro.
- This restriction does not create any real inconvenience.

The design considered is for one-pass assembler. The data structures required are:

■ DEFTAB (Definition Table)

- Stores the macro definition including *macro prototype* and *macro body*
- Comment lines are omitted.
- References to the macro instruction parameters are converted to a positional notation for efficiency in substituting arguments.

■ NAMTAB (Name Table)

- Stores macro names
- Serves as an index to DEFTAB
- Pointers to the beginning and the end of the macro definition (DEFTAB)

■ ARGTAB (Argument Table)

- Stores the arguments according to their positions in the argument list.
- As the macro is expanded the arguments from the Argument table are substituted for the corresponding parameters in the macro body.
- The figure below shows the different data structures described and their relationship.

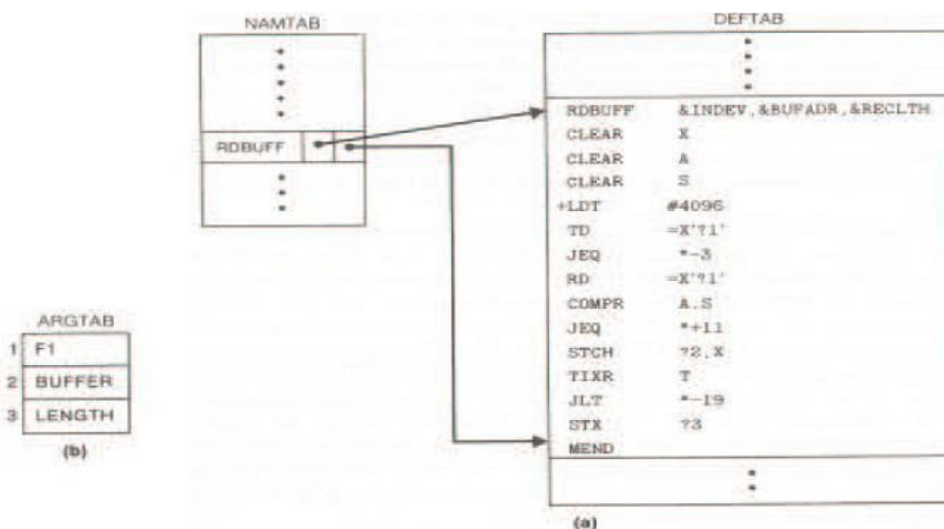


Fig 4.4

The above figure shows the portion of the contents of the table during the processing of the program in page no. 3. In fig 4.4(a) definition of RDBUFF is stored in DEFTAB, with an entry in NAMTAB having the pointers to the beginning and the end of the definition. The arguments referred by the instructions are denoted by the their positional notations. For example,

```
TD      =X[?1]
```

The above instruction is to test the availability of the device whose number is given by the parameter &INDEV. In the instruction this is replaced by its positional value? 1.

Figure 4.4(b) shows the ARTAB as it would appear during expansion of the RDBUFF statement as given below:

```
CLOOP      RDBUFF      F1, BUFFER, LENGTH
```

For the invocation of the macro RDBUFF, the first parameter is F1 (input device code), second is BUFFER (indicating the address where the characters read are stored), and the third is LENGTH (which indicates total length of the record to be read). When the ?n notation is encountered in a line fro DEFTAB, a simple indexing operation supplies the proper argument from ARGTAB.

The algorithm of the Macro processor is given below. This has the procedure DEFINE to make the entry of *macro name* in the NAMTAB, *Macro Prototype* in DEFTAB. EXPAND is called to set up the argument values in ARGTAB and expand a *Macro Invocation* statement. Procedure GETLINE is called to get the next line to be processed either from the DEFTAB or from the file itself.

When a macro definition is encountered it is entered in the DEFTAB. The normal approach is to continue entering till MEND is encountered. If there is a program having a Macro defined within another Macro. While defining in the DEFTAB the very first MEND is taken as the end of the Macro definition. This does not complete the definition as there is another outer Macro which completes the difintion of Macro as a whole. Therefore the DEFINE procedure keeps a counter variable LEVEL. Every time a Macro directive is encountered this counter is incremented by 1. The moment the innermost Macro ends indicated by the directive MEND it starts decreasing the value of the counter variable by one. The last MEND should make the counter value set to zero. So when LEVEL becomes zero, the MEND corresponds to the original MACRO directive.

Most macro processors allow thr definitions of the commonly used instructions to appear in a standard system library, rather than in the source program. This makes the use of macros convenient; definitions are retrieved from the library as they are needed during macro processing.

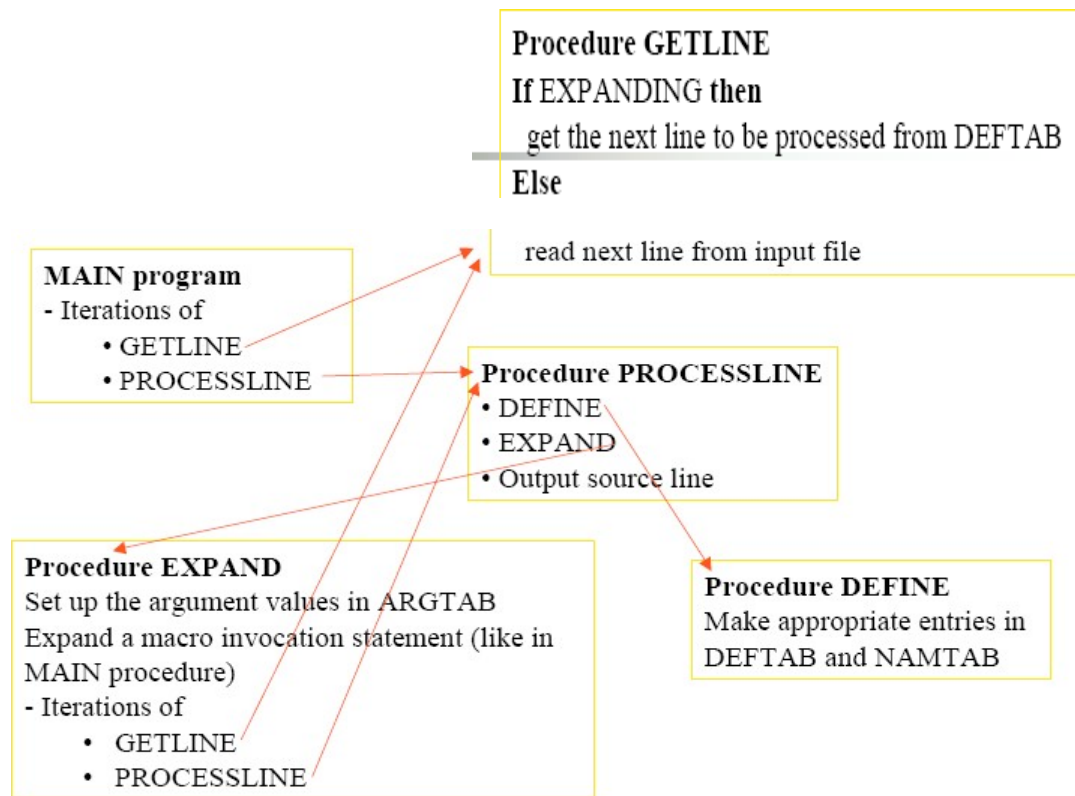


Fig 4.5

Algorithms

```
begin {macro processor}
    EXPANDINF := FALSE
    while OPCODE  $\neq$  'END' do
        begin
            GETLINE
            PROCESSLINE
        end {while}
    end {macro processor}
```

```
Procedure PROCESSLINE
begin
    search MAMTAB for OPCODE
    if found then
        EXPAND
    else if OPCODE = 'MACRO' then
        DEFINE
    else write source line to expanded file
end {PRCOESSOR}
```

```
Procedure DEFINE
begin
    enter macro name into NAMTAB
    enter macro prototype into DEFTAB
    LEVEL := 1
    while LEVEL > 0 do
        begin
            GETLINE
            if this is not a comment line then
                begin
                    substitute positional notation for parameters
                    enter line into DEFTAB
                    if OPCODE = 'MACRO' then
                        LEVEL := LEVEL + 1
                    else if OPCODE = 'MEND' then
                        LEVEL := LEVEL - 1
                    end {if not comment}
                end {while}
                store in NAMTAB pointers to beginning and end of definition
            end {DEFINE}
```


Procedure EXPAND

begin

EXPANDING := TRUE

get first line of macro definition {prototype} from DEFTAB

set up arguments from macro invocation in ARG TAB

while macro invocation to expanded file as a comment

while not end of macro definition **do**

begin

GETLINE

PROCESSLINE

end {while}

EXPANDING := FALSE

end {EXPAND}

Procedure GETLINE

begin

if EXPANDING **then**

begin

get next line of macro definition from DEFTAB

substitute arguments from ARG TAB for positional notation

end {if}

else

read next line from input file

end {GETLINE}

Fig 4.6

Comparison of Macro Processor Design

■ *One-pass algorithm*

- Every macro must be defined before it is called
- One-pass processor can alternate between macro definition and macro expansion
- Nested macro definitions are allowed but nested calls are not allowed.

■ *Two-pass algorithm*

- Pass1: Recognize macro definitions
- Pass2: Recognize macro calls
- Nested macro definitions are not allowed

Machine-independent Macro-Processor Features.

The design of macro processor doesn't depend on the architecture of the machine. We will be studying some extended feature for this macro processor. These features are:

- Concatenation of Macro Parameters
- Generation of unique labels
- Conditional Macro Expansion
- Keyword Macro Parameters

Concatenation of unique labels:

Most macro processor allows parameters to be concatenated with other character strings. Suppose that a program contains a series of variables named by the symbols XA1, XA2, XA3,..., another series of variables named XB1, XB2, XB3,..., etc. If similar processing is to be performed on each series of labels, the programmer might put this as a macro instruction. The parameter to such a macro instruction could specify the series of variables to be operated on (A, B, etc.). The macro processor would use this parameter to construct the symbols required in the macro expansion (XA1, Xb1, etc.).

Suppose that the parameter to such a macro instruction is named &ID. The body of the macro definition might contain a statement like

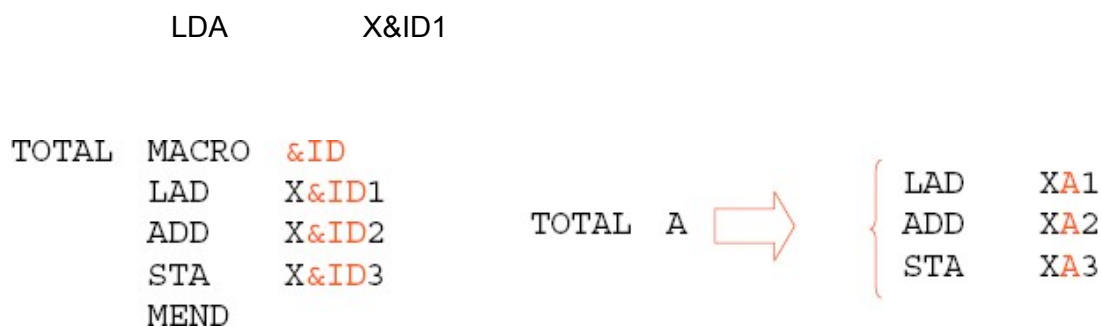


Fig 4.7

& is the starting character of the macro instruction; but the end of the parameter is not marked. So in the case of &ID1, the macro processor could deduce the meaning that was intended. If the macro definition contains &ID and &ID1 as parameters, the situation would be unavoidably ambiguous.

Most of the macro processors deal with this problem by providing a special concatenation operator. In the SIC macro language, this operator is the character `⌘`. Thus the statement `LDA X&ID1` can be written as

```
LDA      X&ID⌘
```

```

ID123  MACRO  &ID
        LAD    X&ID→1
        ADD    X&ID→2
        STA    X&ID→3
        MEND

```

1	SUM	MACRO	&ID
2		LDA	X&ID→ 1
3		ADD	X&ID→ 2
4		ADD	X&ID→ 3
5		STA	X&ID→ S
6		MEND	

SUM	A	SUM	BETA
↓		↓	
LDA	XA1	LDA	XBEATA1
ADD	XA2	ADD	XBEATA2
ADD	XA3	ADD	XBEATA3
STA	XAS	STA	XBEATAS

Fig 4.8

The above figure shows a macro definition that uses the concatenation operator as previously described. The statement SUM A and SUM BETA shows the invocation statements and the corresponding macro expansion.

Generation of Unique Labels

As discussed it is not possible to use labels for the instructions in the macro definition, since every expansion of macro would include the label repeatedly which is not allowed by the assembler. This in turn forces us to use relative addressing in the jump instructions. Instead we can use the technique of generating unique labels for every macro invocation and expansion. During macro expansion each \$ will be replaced with \$XX, where xx is a two-character alphanumeric counter of the number of macro instructions expansion.

For example,

XX = AA, AB, AC...

This allows 1296 macro expansions in a single program.

The following program shows the macro definition with labels to the instruction.

25	RDBUFF	MACRO	&INDEV, &BUFADR, &RECLTH	
30		CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35		CLEAR	A	
40		CLEAR	S	
45		+LDT	#4096	SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50	<u>\$LOOP</u>	TD	=X'&INDEV'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
55		JEQ	<u>\$LOOP</u>	LOOP UNTIL READY
60		RD	=X'&INDEV'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
65		COMPR	A, S	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70		JEQ	<u>\$EXIT</u>	EXIT LOOP IF EOR
75		STCH	&BUFADR, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80		TIXR	<u>\$LOOP</u>	HAS BEEN REACHED
90	<u>\$EXIT</u>	STX	&RECLTH	SAVE RECORD LENGTH
		MEND		

The following figure shows the macro invocation and expansion first time.

		RDBUFF	F1, BUFFER, LENGTH	
30		CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35		CLEAR	A	
40		CLEAR	S	
45		+LDT	#4096	SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50	<u>\$AALoop</u>	TD	=X'F1'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
55		JEQ	<u>\$AALoop</u>	LOOP UNTIL READY
60		RD	=X'F1'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
65		COMPR	A, S	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70		JEQ	<u>\$AAEXIT</u>	EXIT LOOP IF EOR
75		STCH	BUFFER, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80		TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85		JLT	\$AALoop	HAS BEEN REACHED
90	\$AAEXIT	STX	LENGTH	SAVE RECORD LENGTH

If the macro is invoked second time the labels may be expanded as \$ABLOOP \$ABEXIT.

Conditional Macro Expansion

There are applications of macro processors that are not related to assemblers or assembler programming. Conditional assembly depends on parameters provides

MACRO &COND

.....

IF (&COND NE 0)

part I

ELSE

part II

ENDIF

.....

ENDM

Part I is expanded if condition part is true, otherwise part II is expanded. Compare operators: NE, EQ, LE, GT.

Macro-Time Variables:

Macro-time variables (often called as SET Symbol) can be used to store working values during the macro expansion. Any symbol that begins with symbol & and not a macro instruction parameter is considered as *macro-time variable*. All such variables are initialized to zero.

25	RDBUFF	MACRO	&INDEV, &BUFADR, &RECLTH, &EOR, &MAXLTH	
26		IF	(&EOR NE ' ')	
27	&EORCK	SET	1	
28		ENDIF		
30		CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35		CLEAR	A	
38		IF	(&EORCK EQ 1)	
40		LDCH	=X'&EOR'	SET EOR COUNTER
42		RMO	A, S	
43		ENDIF		
44		IF	(&MAXLTH EQ ' ')	
45		+LDT	#4096	SET MAX LENGTH = 4096
46		ELSE		
47		+LDT	&MAXLTH	SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
48		ENDIF		
50	\$LOOP	TD	=X'&INDEV'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
55		JEQ	\$LOOP	LOOP UNTIL READY
60		RD	=X'&INDEV'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
63		IF	(&EORCK EQ 1)	
65		COMPR	A, S	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70		JEQ	\$EXIT	EXIT LOOP IF EOR
73		ENDIF		
75		STCH	&BUFADR, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80		TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85		JLT	\$LOOP	HAS BEEN REACHED
90	\$EXIT	STX	&RECLTH	SAVE RECORD LENGTH
95		MEND		

Macro-time variable

Fig 4.9(a)

Figure 4.5(a) gives the definition of the macro RDBUFF with the parameters &INDEV, &BUFADR, &RECLTH, &EOR, &MAXLTH. According to the above program if &EOR has any value, then &EORCK is set to 1 by using the directive SET, otherwise it retains its default value 0.

```

.      RDBUFF    F31 BUF, RECL, 04, 2048

30          CLEAR    X              CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35          CLEAR    A
40          LDCH     =X'04'         SET EOR CHARACTER
42          RMO      A, S
47          +LDT     #2048          SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50  $AALoop  TD       =X'F3'         TEST INPUT DEVICE
55          JEQ      $AALoop        LOOP UNTIL READY
60          RD       =X'F3'         READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
65          COMPR    A, S           TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70          JEQ      $AAEXIT        EXIT LOOP IF EOR
75          STCH     BUF, X         STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80          TIXR     T              LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85          JLT      $AALoop        HAS BEEN REACHED
90  $AAEXIT  STX      RECL          SAVE RECORD LENGTH

```

Fig 4.9(b) Use of Macro-Time Variable with EOF being NOT NULL

```

.      RDBUFF    OE, BUFFER, LENGTH, , 80

30          CLEAR    X              CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35          CLEAR    A
47          +LDT     #80            SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50  $ABLoop  TD       =X'0E'         TEST INPUT DEVICE
55          JEQ      $ABLoop        LOOP UNTIL READY
60          RD       =X'0E'         READ CHARACTER IN REG A
75          STCH     BUFFER, X      STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80          TIXR     T              LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
87          JLT      $ABLoop        HAS BEEN REACHED
90  $ABEXIT  STX      LENGTH        SAVE RECORD LENGTH

```

Fig 4.9(c) Use of Macro-Time conditional statement with EOF being NULL

		<u>RDBUFF</u>	<u>F1. BUFF, ELENG, 04</u>	
30		CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35		CLEAR	A	
40		LDCH	=X'04'	SET EOR CHARACTER
42		RMO	A, S	
45		+LDT	#4096	SET MAX LENGTH = 4096
50	\$ACLOOP	TD	=X'F1'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
55		JEQ	\$ACLOOP	LOOP UNTIL READY
60		RD	=X'F1'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
65		COMPR	A,S	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70		JEQ	\$ACEXIT	EXIT LOOP IF EOR
75		STCH	BUFF,X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80		TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85		JLT	\$ACLOOP	HAS LOOP REACHED
90	\$ACEXIT	STX	RLENG	SAVE RECORD LENGTH

Fig 4.9(d) Use of Time-variable with EOF NOT NULL and MAXLENGTH being NULL

The above programs show the expansion of Macro invocation statements with different values for the time variables. In figure 4.9(b) the &EOF value is NULL. When the macro invocation is done, IF statement is executed, if it is true EORCK is set to 1, otherwise normal execution of the other part of the program is continued.

The macro processor must maintain a symbol table that contains the value of all macro-time variables used. Entries in this table are modified when SET statements are processed. The table is used to look up the current value of the macro-time variable whenever it is required.

When an IF statement is encountered during the expansion of a macro, the specified Boolean expression is evaluated.

If the value of this expression TRUE,

- The macro processor continues to process lines from the DEFTAB until it encounters the ELSE or ENDIF statement.
- If an ELSE is found, macro processor skips lines in DEFTAB until the next ENDIF.
- Once it reaches ENDIF, it resumes expanding the macro in the usual way.

If the value of the expression is FALSE,

- The macro processor skips ahead in DEFTAB until it encounters next ELSE or ENDIF statement.
- The macro processor then resumes normal macro expansion.


The *macro-time* IF-ELSE-ENDIF structure provides a mechanism for either generating (once) or skipping selected statements in the macro body. There is another construct WHILE statement which specifies that the following line until the next ENDW statement, are to be generated repeatedly as long as a particular condition is true. The testing of this condition, and the looping

are done during the macro is under expansion. The example shown below shows the usage of Macro-Time Looping statement.

WHILE-ENDW structure

- When an WHILE statement is encountered during the expansion of a macro, the specified Boolean expression is evaluated.
- TRUE
 - The macro processor continues to process lines from DEFTAB until it encounters the next ENDW statement.
 - When ENDW is encountered, the macro processor returns to the preceding WHILE, re-evaluates the Boolean expression, and takes action **based on the new value**.
- FALSE
 - The macro processor skips ahead in DEFTAB until it finds the next ENDW statement and then resumes normal macro expansion.

25	RDBUFF	MACRO	&INDEV, &BUFADR, &RECLTH, &EOR	
27	&EORCT	SET	%NITEMS (&EOR)	← Macro processor function
30		CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35		CLEAR	A	
45		+LDT	#4096	SET MAX LENGTH = 4096
50	\$LOOP	TD	=X'&INDEV'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
55		JEQ	\$LOOP	LOOP UNTIL READY
60		RD	=X'&INDEV'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
63	&CTR	SET	1	
64		WHILE	(&CTR LE &EORCT)	
65		COMPR	=X'0000&EOR[&CTR]'	← List index
70		JEQ	\$EXIT	
71	&CTR	SET	&CTR+1	
73		ENDW		
75		STCH	&BUFADR, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80		TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85		JLT	\$LOOP	HAS BEEN REACHED
90	\$EXIT	STX	&RECLTH	SAVE RECORD LENGTH
100		MEND		

	RDBUFF	F2, BUFFER, LENGTH, (00, 03, 04)	
			 List
30	CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35	CLEAR	A	
45	+LDT	#4096	SET MAX LENGTH = 4096
50	\$AALoop	TD =X'F2'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
55	JEQ	\$AALoop	LOOP UNTIL READY
60	RD	=X'F2'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
65	COMP	=X'000000'	
70	JEQ	\$AAEXIT	
65	COMP	=X'000003'	
70	JEQ	\$AAEXIT	
65	COMP	=X'000004'	
70	JEQ	\$AAEXIT	
75	STCH	BUFFER, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80	TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85	JLT	\$AALoop	HAS BEEN REACHED
90	\$AAEXIT	STX LENGTH	SAVE RECORD LENGTH

Keyword Macro Parameters

All the macro instruction definitions used positional parameters. Parameters and arguments are matched according to their positions in the macro prototype and the macro invocation statement. The programmer needs to be careful while specifying the arguments. If an argument is to be omitted the macro invocation statement must contain a null argument mentioned with two commas.

Positional parameters are suitable for the macro invocation. But if the macro invocation has large number of parameters, and if only few of the values need to be used in a typical invocation, a different type of parameter specification is required (for example, in many cases most of the parameters may have default values, and the invocation may mention only the changes from the default values).

Ex: XXX MACRO &P1, &P2,, &P20,

XXX A1, A2,,,,,,,,,,,,,,A20,.....

Null arguments

Keyword parameters

- Each argument value is written with a keyword that names the corresponding parameter.
- Arguments may appear in any order.
- Null arguments no longer need to be used.

■ Ex: XXX P1=A1, P2=A2, P20=A20.

- It is easier to read and much less error-prone than the positional method.

25	RDBUFF	MACRO	<u>&INDEV=F1, &BUFADR=, &RECLTH=, &EOR=04, &MAXLTH=4096</u>	
26		IF	(&EOR NE ' ')	
27	&EORCK	SET	1	
28		ENDIF		
30		CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35		CLEAR	A	
38		IF	(&EORCK EQ 1)	
40		LDCH	=X'&EOR'	SET EOR CHARACTER
42		RMO	A, S	
43		ENDIF		
47		+LDT	#MAXLTH	SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50	\$LOOP	TD	=X'&INDEV'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
55		JEQ	\$LOOP	LOOP UNTIL READY
60		RD	=X'&INDEV'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
63		IF	(&EORCK EQ 1)	
65		COMPR	A, S	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70		JEQ	\$EXIT	EXIT LOOP IF EOR
73		ENDIF		
75		STCH	\$BUFADR, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80		TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85		JLT	\$LOOP	HAS BEEN REACHED
90	\$EXIT	STX	&RECLTH	SAVE RECORD LENGTH
95		MEND		

Parameters with default value

RDBUFF BUFADR=BUFFER, RECLTH=LENGTH

30		CLEAR	X	CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35		CLEAR	A	
40		LDCH	=X'04'	SET EOR CHARACTER
42		RMO	A, S	
47		+LDT	#4096	SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50	\$AALoop	TD	=X'F1'	TEST INPUT DEVICE
55		JEQ	\$AALoop	LOOP UNTIL READY
60		RD	=X'F1'	READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
65		COMPR	A, S	TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70		JEQ	\$AAEXIT	EXIT LOOP IF EOR
75		STCH	BUFFER, X	STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80		TIXR	T	LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85		JLT	\$AALoop	HAS BEEN REACHED
90	\$AAEXIT	STX	LENGTH	SAVE RECORD LENGTH

```

1      .      RDBUFF  RECLTH=LENGTH, BUFADR=BUFFER, EOR=, INDEV=F3

30          CLEAR    X          CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35          CLEAR    A
47          +LDT      #4096      SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50      $ABLOOP  TD      =X'F3'   TEST INPUT DEVICE
55          JEQ       $ABLOOP    LOOP UNTIL READY
60          RD        =X'F3'     READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
75          STCH      BUFFER, X  STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80          TIXR      T          LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85          JLT       $ABLOOP    HAS BEEN REACHED
90      $ABEXIT  STX      LENGTH  SAVE RECORD LENGTH

```

Fig 4.10 Example showing the usage of Keyword Parameter

Macro Processor Design Options

Recursive Macro Expansion

We have seen an example of the *definition* of one macro instruction by another. But we have not dealt with the *invocation* of one macro by another. The following example shows the invocation of one macro by another macro.

```

10      RDBUFF  MACRO  &BUFADR, &RECLTH, &INDEV
15      .
20      .      MACRO TO READ RECORD INTO BUFFER
25      .
30          CLEAR    X          CLEAR LOOP COUNTER
35          CLEAR    A
40          CLEAR    S
45          +LDT      #4096      SET MAXIMUM RECORD LENGTH
50      $LOOP   RDCHAR  &INDEV  READ CHARACTER INTO REG A
65          COMPR    A, S        TEST FOR END OF RECORD
70          JEQ       &EXIT      EXIT LOOP IF EOR
75          STCH      &BUFADR, X  STORE CHARACTER IN BUFFER
80          TIXR      T          LOOP UNLESS MAXIMUM LENGTH
85          JLT       $LOOP      HAS BEEN REACHED
90      $EXIT   STX      &RECLTH  SAVE RECORD LENGTH
95          MEND

```

```

5  RDCHAR      MACRO  &IN
10  .
15  .    MACRO TO READ CHARACTER INTO REGISTER A
20  .
25          TD      =X'&IN'          TEST INPUT DEVICE
30          JEQ      *-3              LOOP UNTIL READY
35          RD      =X'&IN'          READ CHARACTER
40          MEND

```

Problem of Recursive Expansion

- Previous macro processor design cannot handle such kind of recursive macro invocation and expansion
 - The procedure EXPAND would be called recursively, thus the invocation arguments in the ARGTAB will be overwritten. (P.201)
 - The Boolean variable EXPANDING would be set to FALSE when the “inner” macro expansion is finished, *i.e.*, the macro process would forget that it had been in the middle of expanding an “outer” macro.
- Solutions
 - Write the macro processor in a programming language that allows recursive calls, thus local variables will be retained.
 - If you are writing in a language without recursion support, use a stack to take care of pushing and popping local variables and return addresses.

The procedure EXPAND would be called when the macro was recognized. The arguments from the macro invocation would be entered into ARGTAB as follows:

Parameter	Value
1	BUFFER
2	LENGTH
3	F1
4	(unused)
-	-

The Boolean variable EXPANDING would be set to TRUE, and expansion of the macro invocation statement would begin. The processing would proceed normally until statement invoking RDCHAR is processed. This time, ARGTAB would look like

Parameter	Value
1	F1
2	(Unused)
--	--

At the expansion, when the end of RDCHAR is recognized, EXPANDING would be set to FALSE. Thus the macro processor would „forget“ that it had been in the middle of expanding a macro when it encountered the RDCHAR statement. In addition, the arguments from the original macro invocation (RDBUFF) would be lost because the value in ARG TAB was overwritten with the arguments from the invocation of RDCHAR.

General-Purpose Macro Processors

- Macro processors that do not depend on any particular programming language, but can be used with a variety of different languages
- **Pros**
 - Programmers do not need to learn many macro languages.
 - Although its development costs are somewhat greater than those for a language specific macro processor, this expense does not need to be repeated for each language, thus save substantial overall cost.
- **Cons**
 - Large number of details must be dealt with in a real programming language
 - ☞ Situations in which normal macro parameter substitution should not occur, e.g., comments.
 - ☞ Facilities for grouping together terms, expressions, or statements
 - ☞ Tokens, e.g., identifiers, constants, operators, keywords
 - ☞ Syntax had better be consistent with the source programming language

Macro Processing within Language Translators

- The macro processors we discussed are called “Preprocessors”.
 - Process macro definitions
 - Expand macro invocations
 - Produce an expanded version of the source program, which is then used as input to an assembler or compiler
- You may also combine the macro processing functions with the language translator:
 - Line-by-line macro processor
 - Integrated macro processor

Line-by-Line Macro Processor

- Used as a sort of input routine for the assembler or compiler
- Read source program
- Process macro definitions and expand macro invocations
- Pass output lines to the assembler or compiler

Benefits

- Avoid making an extra pass over the source program.
- Data structures required by the macro processor and the language translator can be combined (e.g., OPTAB and NAMTAB)
- Utility subroutines can be used by both macro processor and the language translator.
 - Scanning input lines
 - Searching tables
 - Data format conversion
- It is easier to give diagnostic messages related to the source statements

Integrated Macro Processor

- An integrated macro processor can potentially make use of any information about the source program that is extracted by the language translator.
 - Ex (blanks are not significant in FORTRAN)
 - DO 100 I = 1,20
 - a DO statement
 - DO 100 I = 1
 - An assignment statement
 - DO100I: variable (blanks are not significant in FORTRAN)
- An integrated macro processor can support macro instructions that depend upon the context in which they occur.

CHAPTER 5

Object Oriented System Design

It focuses mainly the objects handled by the object rather than the algorithms. Programs are designed and implemented as collection of objects, not as collection of procedures. OOP has thought to be 'silver bullet' in software engineering but still appears that it is not the universal best and many practices are still going on. But yet it has the number of potential advantages.

Principles of OOP (object oriented programming)

Object: Class templates are used as a blueprint to create individual **objects**. Each object can have unique values to the properties defined in the class.

Class: A **class** is an abstract blueprint used to create more specific, concrete objects. These classes define what attributes an instance of this type will have.

Methods: Classes can also contain functions, called **methods** available only to objects of that type. These functions are defined within the class and perform some action helpful to that specific type of object.

Inheritance: Inheritance is one of the most important aspects of Object Oriented Programming (OOP). The key to understanding Inheritance is that it provides code re-usability. In place of writing the same code, again and again, we can simply inherit the properties of one class into the other.

Abstraction: Abstraction is a programming methodology in which details of the programming codes are hidden away from the user, and only the essential things are displayed to the user. Abstraction is concerned with ideas rather than events

Encapsulation: This is a programming style where implementation details are hidden. It reduces software development complexity greatly. With Encapsulation, only methods are exposed. The programmer does not have to worry about implementation details but is only concerned with the operations.

Polymorphism: Polymorphism means existing in many forms. Variables, functions, and objects can exist in multiple forms in. There are two types of polymorphism which are run time polymorphism and compile-time polymorphism. Run time can take a different form while the application is running and compile-time can take a different form during compilation.

Relationship between the classes:

Here you will have to explain the relationship between the classes in terms of

1. 'has-a' relationship
2. 1: N Relationship
3. Is-a relationship

You can also explain little about class and super class and inheritance briefly here.

For the diagram you have to draw the figure given in your book page number 450.

Figure is a most here.

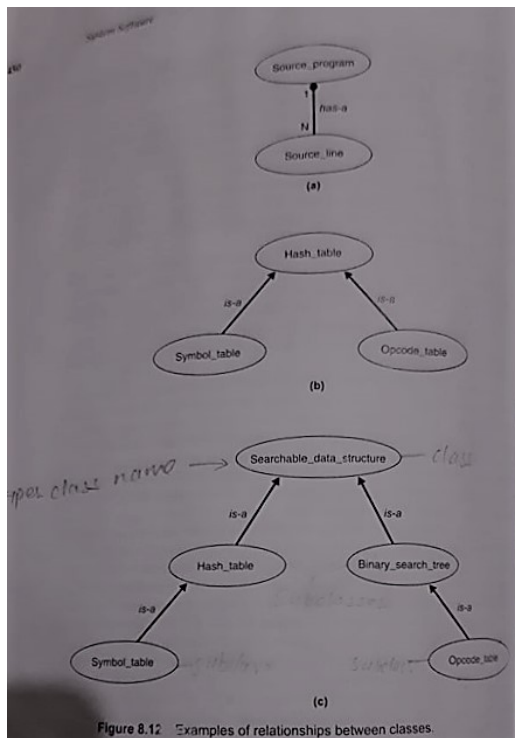


Figure 8.12 Examples of relationships between classes.

Dear student please go through these links in youtube for few topics which we discuss in the class too. It will be very helpful for you.

1. Machine independent loader features and machine dependent loader features. In the link 1 there is explanation of Automatic Library Search and Loader options and also example and explanation of Program linking from 7:38

Link 1: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iWUbjK0I93c>

2. I have already explained relocating loader in the class and also provided the reference link for explanation. (Have you guys seen it and tried to understand it???) Here is the link for you once again.

LINK 2: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UCfjP4IB7XQ>

3. Conditional macro expansion : LINK 3:
[:https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qgYDDk-ADLc](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qgYDDk-ADLc)