

# Systems Programming and Computer Architecture

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January 10, 2026

## TITLE PAGE COMING SOON

*“If you are using CMake to solve the exercises... First off, sorry that you like CMake“*

- Timothy Roscoe, 2025

HS2025, ETHZ  
Summary of the Lectures and Lecture Slides

## Quotes

*“An LLM is a lossy index over human statements”*

- Professor Buhmann, Date unknown

*“If you are using CMake to solve the exercises... First off, sorry that you like CMake”*

*“You can't have a refrigerator behave like multiple refrigerators”*

*“Why is C++ called C++ and not ++C? It's like you don't get any value and then it's incremented, which is true”*

- Timothy Roscoe, 2025

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## 1 Introduction

This summary tries to summarize everything that is important to know for this course. It aims to be a full replacement for the slides, but as with all my summaries, there may be missing or incorrect information in here, so use at your own risk. You have been warned!

The summary does *not* follow the order the lecture does. This is to make related information appear more closely to each other than they have in the lecture and the summary assumes you have already seen the concepts in the lectures or elsewhere (or are willing to be thrown in the deep end).

The target semester for this summary is HS2025, so there might have been changes in your year. If there are changes and you'd like to update this summary, please open a pull request in the summary's repo at

<https://github.com/janishutz/eth-summaries>

## 2 x86 Assembly

**Definition:** (*Architecture*) Also known as ISA (Instruction Set Architecture) is “The parts of a processor design that one needs to understand to write assembly code”. It includes for example the definition of instructions (and their options) and what registers are available. Notable examples are x86, RISC-V (this one is open-source!), MIPS, ARM, etc

x86-Assembly files usually use the file extension .s or .asm

**Definition:** (*Microarchitecture*) The implementation of the ISA. It defines the actual hardware layout and how the individual instructions are actually implemented and thus also defines things such as core frequency, cache layout and more.

Thus, the ISA is more or less precisely on the boundary of the software/hardware interface.

**Definition:** Complex Instruction Set (CISC):

- Stack oriented instruction set: Uses it to pass arguments, save program counter and features explicit push and pop instructions for the stack.
- Arithmetic instructions can access memory
- Condition codes set side effect of arithmetic and logical instructions.
- Design Philosophy: Add new instructions for typical tasks.

**Definition:** Reduced Instruction Set (RISC):

- Fewer, simpler instructions, commonly with fixed-size encoding. As a result, we might need more to get a given task done. On the other hand, we can execute them with small and fast hardware
- Register-oriented instruction set with many more registers that are used for arguments, return pointers, temporaries, etc.
- Load-Store architecture, i.e. only load and store instructions can access memory
- Thus: No Condition codes

What to choose? Both have advantages that the other has as disadvantage: Compiling for CISC is usually easier and usually results in smaller code size. For RISC however, compiler optimization can give a huge performance uplift and it can run fast with even a simple chip design.

Today, the choices are made based on outside constraints usually. For desktops and servers, there is enough compute to make anything run fast. For embedded systems though, the reduced complexity of RISC makes more sense, but for how long still?

What matters most today are non-technical factors such as existence of code for one ISA or licensing costs (and of course, Geopolitics)

## 2.1 The syntax

There are two common styles: AT&T syntax (common on UNIX) and Intel syntax (common on Windows)

The state that is visible to us is:

- PC (Program Counter) that contains the address of the next instruction
- Register file that contains the most used program data
- Condition codes that store status information about most recent arithmetic operation and are used for conditional branching

To view what C code looks like in assembly, we can use `gcc -O0 -S code.c`, which produces `code.s` which contains assembly code.

### 2.1.1 Registers

x86 assembly is a bit particular with register naming (register names all start in %). The initial 16-bit version of x86 had the following registers (sub registers are registers that can be used to access the high (h suffix) or low (l suffix) half of the register. Only registers ending in x feature these sub registers. They, as well as %si and %di are general purpose):

Name	Sub-registers	Description
%ax	%ah, %al	accumulate
%cx	%ch, %cl	counter
%dx	%dh, %dl	data
%bx	%bh, %bl	base
%si	-	Source index
%di	-	Destination index
%sp	-	Stack pointer
%bp	-	Base pointer
%ip	-	Instruction pointer
%sr	-	Status (flags)

When the architecture was extended to 32-bit, all registers previously available were retained and a 32 bit version of each was introduced with the prefix e. In other words, any 16 bit code would still work as previously, as e.g. the %ax register was simply now the lower 16 bits of the %eax register.

The same happened again when extending to 64-bit, only this time the r prefix was used. So, the register \$eax was now the lower 32 bits of %rax.

Additionally, the following registers are also available, with X to be substituted with 8 through 15: %rX and the lower 32 bits %rXd

### 2.1.2 Instructions

Instructions usually have a 3 letter mnemonic with a one letter postfix that indicates the number of bytes. The following postfixes are available: b (byte, 1 byte), w (word, 2 bytes), l (long word, 4 bytes) and q (quad, 8 bytes).

The following options can be passed for source and destination: Registers,

**Immediates** To use a constant value (aka Immediate) in an instruction, we prefix the number with \$ (following number is decimal). To use hex, we can use \$0x, etc.

**Memory addresses** To treat a register as a memory address, use parenthesis, e.g. (%rax) interprets the value of %rax as a memory address. The instruction will then read the number of bytes, as specified by the postfix of the instruction.

The full syntax for memory address modes is D(Rb, Ri, S), where

- D: Displacement (constant offset), can be 0, 1, 2 or 4 bytes (not bits, if you are confused as I was)
- Rb: Base register (to which offsets, etc are added). Can be any of the 16 integer registers
- Ri: Index register: Any, except for %rsp (and %rbp is also rarely used)
- S: Scale factor (1, 2, 4 or 8, to correct offsets)

The computation that happens is the following:  $\text{Mem}[\text{Reg}[Rb] + S * \text{Reg}[Ri] + D]$ . Using the `lea src, dest` instruction, we can get the address computed into the dest register. Can be abused for similar arithmetic expressions.

## 2.2 Data types

- “Integer” data type of 1, 2, 4 or 8 bytes that are data values or addresses (untyped pointers)
- “Floating point” data type of 4, 8 or 10 bytes
- No aggregate types (such as arrays, structs, etc)

## 2.3 Operations

Assembly operations include performing arithmetic or logic functions on registers or memory data, transferring data between memory and registers and transferring control (conditional or unconditional jumps)

Most of the memory-related instructions in x86 assembly have the format

`movq dest, src`

whereas arithmetic / logic operations have the format inversed (below X is to be replaced with size postfix).

Mnemonic	Format	Computation
addl	Src, Dest	$\text{Dest} \leftarrow \text{Dest} + \text{Src}$
subX	Src, Dest	$\text{Dest} \leftarrow \text{Dest} - \text{Src}$
imulX	Src, Dest	$\text{Dest} \leftarrow \text{Dest} * \text{Src}$
salX	Src, Dest	$\text{Dest} \leftarrow \text{Dest} \ll \text{Src}$
sarX	Src, Dest	$\text{Dest} \leftarrow \text{Dest} \gg \text{Src}$ (arithmetic)
shrX	Src, Dest	$\text{Dest} \leftarrow \text{Dest} \gg \text{Src}$ (logical)
xorX	Src, Dest	$\text{Dest} \leftarrow \text{Dest} \wedge \text{Src}$
andX	Src, Dest	$\text{Dest} \leftarrow \text{Dest} \& \text{Src}$
orX	Src, Dest	$\text{Dest} \leftarrow \text{Dest} \mid \text{Src}$
incX	Dest	$\text{Dest} \leftarrow \text{Dest} + 1$
decX	Dest	$\text{Dest} \leftarrow \text{Dest} - 1$
negX	Dest	$\text{Dest} \leftarrow -\text{Dest}$
notX	Dest	$\text{Dest} \leftarrow \sim \text{Dest}$

### 2.3.1 Condition Codes and jumping

Any arithmetic operation (that is truly part of the arithmetic operations group, so not including `lea` for example) implicitly sets the **condition codes**. The following condition codes were covered in the lecture (operation:  $t = a + b$ ):

- CF (Carry Flag): Set if carry out from MSB (unsigned overflow)
- ZF (Zero Flag): Set if  $t == 0$
- SF (Sign Flag): Set if  $(a - b) < 0$  (for signed)
- OF (Overflow Flag): Set if two's complement overflow (i.e.  $(a>0 \&& b>0 \&& t<0) \mid\mid (a<0 \&& b<0 \&& t>=0)$ )

**Explicit computation** In the below explanations, we always assume `src2 = b` and `src1 = a`

To explicitly compute them, we can use the `cmpX src2, src1` instruction, that essentially computes  $(a - b)$  without setting a destination register. When we execute that instruction, CF is set if  $a < b$  (unsigned), ZF is set if  $a == b$ , SF is set if  $a < b$  (signed) and OF is set as above, where  $t = a - b$ .

Another instruction that is used is `testX src2, src1`, and acts like computing  $a \& b$  and where ZF is set if  $a \& b == 0$  and SF is set if  $a \& b < 0$ .

**Zeroing register** We can use a move instruction, but that is less efficient than using `xorl reg, reg`, where `reg` is the 32-bit version of the `reg` we want to zero.

**Reading condition codes** To read condition codes, we can use the `setX` instructions, where the X is to be substituted by an element of table 1

**Jumping** To jump, we have the `jmp <label>` instruction (unconditional jump) or the `jX` instructions, with X from table 1

setX	Condition	Description
e	ZF	Equal / Zero
ne	$\sim ZF$	Not Equal / Not Zero
s	SF	Negative
ns	$\sim SF$	Nonnegative
g	$\sim (SF \wedge OF) \wedge \sim ZF$	Greater (signed)
ge	$\sim (SF \wedge OF)$	Greater or equal (signed)
l	$SF \wedge OF$	Less (signed)
le	$(SF \wedge OF) \mid ZF$	Less or equal (signed)
a	$\sim CF \wedge \sim ZF$	Above (unsigned)
b	CF	Below (unsigned)

Table 1: Condition code postfixes for jump and set instructions

### 3 The C Programming Language

I can clearly C why you'd want to use C. Already sorry in advance for all the bad C jokes that are going to be part of this section

C is a compiled, low-level programming language, lacking many features modern high-level programming languages offer, like Object Oriented programming, true Functional Programming (like Haskell implements), Garbage Collection, complex abstract datatypes and vectors, just to name a few. (It is possible to replicate these using Preprocessor macros, more on this later).

On the other hand, it offers low-level hardware access, the ability to directly integrate assembly code into the .c files, as well as bit level data manipulation and extensive memory management options, again just to name a few.

This of course leads to C performing excellently and there are many programming languages whose compiler doesn't directly produce machine code or assembly, but instead optimized C code that is then compiled into machine code using a C compiler. This has a number of benefits, most notably that C compilers can produce very efficient assembly, as lots of effort is put into the C compilers by the hardware manufacturers.

There are many great C tutorials out there, a simple one (as for many other languages too) can be found [here](#)

#### 3.1 Basics

C uses a very similar syntax as many other programming languages, like Java, JavaScript and many more... to be precise, it is *them* that use the C syntax, not the other way around. So:

File: 00\_intro.c

```

1 // This is a line comment
2 /* this is a block comment */
3 #include "01_func.h" // Relative import
4
5 int i = 0; // This allocates an integer on the stack
6
7 int main( int argc, char *argv[] ) {
8     // This is the function body of a function (here the main function)
9     // which serves as the entrypoint to the program in C and has arguments
10    printf( "Argc: %d\n", argc ); // Number of arguments passed, always >= 1
11                                // (first argument is the executable name)
12    for ( int i = 0; i < argc; i++ ) // For loop just like any other sane programming language
13        printf( "Arg %d: %s\n", i, argv[ i ] ); // Outputs the i-th argument from CLI
14
15    get_user_input_int( "Select a number" ); // Function calls as in any other language
16    return 0; // Return a POSIX exit code
17 }
```

In C we are referring to the implementation of a function as a (**function**) **definition** (correspondingly, *variable definition*, if the variable is initialized) and to the definition of the function signature (or variables, without initializing them) as the (**function**) **declaration** (or, correspondingly, *variable declaration*).

C code is usually split into the source files, ending in .c (where the local functions and variables are declared, as well as all function definitions) and the header files, ending in .h, usually sharing the filename of the source file, where the external declarations are defined. By convention, no definition of functions are in the .h files, and neither variables, but there is nothing preventing you from putting them there.

File: 01\_func.h

```

1 #include <stdio.h> // Import from system path
2                                // (like library imports in other languages)
3
4 int get_user_input_int( char prompt[] );
```

### 3.1.1 Control Flow

Many of the control-flow structures of C can be found in the below code snippet. A note of caution when using goto: It is almost never a good idea (can lead to unexpected behaviour, is hard to maintain, etc). Where it however is very handy is for error recovery (and cleanup functions) and early termination of multiple loops (jumping out of a loop). So, for example, if you have to run multiple functions to set something up and one of them fails, you can jump to a label and have all cleanup code execute that you have specified there. And because the labels are (as in Assembly) simply skipped over during execution, you can make very nice cleanup code. We can also use continue and break statements similarly to Java, they do not however accept labels. (Reminder: continue skips the loop body and goes to the next iteration)

File: 01\_func.c

---

```

1 #include "01_func.h"
2 #include <stdio.h>
3
4 int get_user_input_int( char prompt[] ) {
5     int input_data;
6     printf( "%s", prompt );           // Always wrap strings like this for printf
7     scanf( "%d", &input_data );      // Get user input from CLI
8     int input_data_copy = input_data; // Value copied
9
10    // If statements just like any other language
11    if ( input_data )
12        printf( "Not 0" );
13    else
14        printf( "Input is zero" );
15
16    // Switch statements just like in any other language
17    switch ( input_data ) {
18        case 5:
19            printf( "You win!" );
20            break; // Doesn't fall through
21        case 6:
22            printf( "You were close" ); // Falls through
23        default:
24            printf( "No win" ); // Case for any not covered input
25    }
26
27    while ( input_data > 1 ) {
28        input_data -= 1;
29        printf( "Hello World\n" );
30    }
31
32    // Inversed while loop (executes at least once)
33    do {
34        input_data -= 1;
35        printf( "Bye World\n" );
36        if ( input_data_copy == 0 )
37            goto this_is_a_label;
38    } while ( input_data_copy > 1 );
39
40 this_is_a_label:
41     printf( "Jumped to label" );
42     return 0;
43 }
```

---

### 3.1.2 Declarations

We have already seen a few examples for how C handles declarations. In concept they are similar (and scoping works the same) to most other C-like programming languages, including Java.

File: 02\_declarations.c

---

```

1 int my_int;           // Allocates memory on the stack.
2                         // Variable is global (read / writable by entire program)
3 static int my_local_int; // only available locally (in this file)
4 extern const char *var; // Defined in some other file
5 const int MY_CONST = 10; // constant (immutable), convention: SCREAM_CASE
6
7 enum { ONE, TWO } num; // Enum. ONE will get value 0, TWO has value 1
8
9 enum { O = 2, T = 1 } n; // Enum with values specified
10
11 // Structs are like classes, but contain no logic
12 struct MyStruct {
13     int el1;
14     int el2;
15 };
16
17 // Like structs, but can only hold one of the values!
18 union MyUnion {
19     int ival;
20     float fval;
21     char *sval;
22 };
23
24 int fun( int j ) {
25     static int i = 0;           // Persists across calls of fun
26     short my_var = 1;          // Block scoped (deallocated when going out of scope)
27     int my_var_dbl = (int) my_var; // Explicit casting (works between almost all types)
28     return i;
29 }
30
31 int main( int argc, char *argv[] ) {
32     if ( ( my_local_int = fun( 10 ) ) ) {
33         // Every c statement is also an expression, i.e. you can do the above!
34     }
35     struct MyStruct test;        // Allocate memory on stack for struct
36     struct MyStruct *test_p = &test; // Pointer to memory where test resides
37     struct MyStruct test2;
38     union MyUnion my_uval; // Work exactly like structs for access
39     test.el1 = 1;             // Direct element access
40     test_p->el2 = 2;          // Via pointer
41     test2 = test;             // Copies the struct
42     return 0;
43 }
```

---

A peculiarity of C is that the bit-count is not defined by the language, but rather the hardware it is compiled for.

C data type	typical 32-bit	ia32	x86-64
char	1	1	1
short	2	2	2
int	4	4	4
long	4	4	8
long long	8	8	8
float	4	4	4
double	4	8	8
long double	8	10/12	16

Table 1: Comparison of byte-sizes for each datatype on different architectures

**Type format** Be however aware that this table uses the LP64 format for the x86-64 sizes and this is the format all UNIX-Systems use (i.e. Linux, BSD, Darwin (the Mac Kernel)). 64 bit Windows however uses LLP64, i.e. int and long have the same size (32) and long long and pointers are 64 bit.

**Integers** By default, integers in C are signed, to declare an unsigned integer, use `unsigned int`. Since it is hard and annoying to remember the number of bytes that are in each data type, C99 has introduced the extended integer types, which can be imported from `stdint.h` and are of form `int<bit count>_t` and `uint<bit count>_t`, where we substitute the `<bit count>` with the number of bits (have to correspond to a valid type of course).

**Booleans** Another notable difference of C compared to other languages is that C doesn't natively have a boolean type, by convention a `short` is used to represent it, where any non-zero value means true and 0 means false. Since boolean types are quite handy, the `!` syntax for negation turns any non-zero value of any integer type into zero and vice-versa. C99 has added support for a `bool` type via `stdbool.h`, which however is still an integer.

**Implicit casts** Notably, C doesn't have a very rigid type system and lower bit-count types are implicitly cast to higher bit-count data types, i.e. if you add a `short` and an `int`, the `short` is cast to `short` (bits 16-31 are set to 0) and the two are added. Explicit casting between almost all types is also supported. Some will force a change of bit representation, but most won't (notably, when casting to and from float-like types, minus to `void`)

**Expressions** Every C statement is also an expression, see above code block for example.

**Void** The `void` type has *no* value and is used for untyped pointers and declaring functions with no return value

**Structs** Are like classes in OOP, but they contain no logic. We can assign copy a struct by assignment and they behave just like everything else in C when used as an argument for functions in that they are passed by value and not by reference. You can of course pass it also by reference (like any other data type) by setting the argument to type `struct mystruct * name` and then calling the function using `func(&test)` assuming `test` is the name of your struct

**Typedef** To define a custom type using `typedef <type it represents> <name of the new type>`.

You may also use `typedef` on structs using `typedef struct <struct tag> <name of the new alias>`, you can thus instead of e.g. `struct list_el my_list; write list my_list;`, if you have used `typedef struct list_el list;` before. It is even possible to do this:

```

1 typedef struct list_el {
2     unsigned long val;
3     struct list_el *next;
4 } list_el;
5
6 struct list_el my_list;
7 list_el my_other_list;

```

**Namespaces** C has a few different namespaces, i.e. you can have the one of the same name in each namespace (i.e. you can have `struct a`, `int a`, etc). The following namespaces were covered:

- Label names (used for `goto`)
- Tags (for `struct`, `union` and `enum`)
- Member names one namespace for each `struct`, `union` and `enum`
- Everything else mostly (types, variable names, etc, including `typedef`)

### 3.1.3 Operators

The list of operators in C is similar to the one of Java, etc. In Table 2, you can see an overview of the operators, sorted by precedence in descending order. You may notice that the `&` and `*` operators appear twice. The higher precedence occurrence is the address operator and dereference, respectively, and the lower precedence is bitwise and and multiplication, respectively.

Very low precedence belongs to boolean operators `&&` and `||`, as well as the ternary operator and assignment operators

Operator	Associativity
<code>() [] -&gt; .</code>	Left-to-right
<code>! ~ ++ -- + - * &amp; (type) sizeof</code>	Right-to-left
<code>* / %</code>	Left-to-right
<code>+ -</code>	Left-to-right
<code>&lt;&lt; &gt;&gt;</code>	Left-to-right
<code>&lt; &lt;= &gt;= &gt;</code>	Left-to-right
<code>== !=</code>	Left-to-right
<code>&amp; (logical and)</code>	Left-to-right
<code>^ (logical xor)</code>	Left-to-right
<code>  (logical or)</code>	Left-to-right
<code>&amp;&amp; (boolean and)</code>	Left-to-right
<code>   (boolean or)</code>	Left-to-right
<code>? : (ternary)</code>	Right-to-left
<code>= += -= *= /= %= &amp;= ^= == &lt;&lt;= &gt;&gt;=</code>	Right-to-left
<code>,</code>	Left-to-right

Table 2: C operators ordered in descending order by precedence

#### Associativity

- Left-to-right:  $A + B + C \mapsto (A + B) + C$
- Right-to-left:  $A += B += C \mapsto (A += B) += C$

As it should be, boolean and, as well as boolean or support early termination.

The ternary operator works as in other programming languages `result = expr ? res_true : res_false;`

As previously touched on, every statement is also an expression, i.e. the following works

```
printf("%s", x = foo(y)); // prints output of foo(y) and x has that value
```

Pre-increment (`++i`, new value returned) and post-increment (`i++`, old value returned) are also supported by C.

C has an `assert` statement, but do not use it for error handling. The basic syntax is `assert( expr );`

### 3.1.4 Arrays

C compiler does not do any array bound checks! Thus, always check array bounds. Unlike some other programming languages, arrays are **not** dynamic length.

The below snippet includes already some pointer arithmetic tricks. The variable `data` is a pointer to the first element of the array.

File: 03\_arrays.c

```

1 #include <stdint.h>
2 #include <stdio.h>
3
4 int main( int argc, char *argv[] ) {
5     int data[ 10 ];           // Initialize array of 10 integers
6     data[ 5 ] = 5;           // element 5 is now 5
7     *data = 10;              // element 0 is now 5
8     printf( "%d\n", data[ 0 ] ); // print element 0 (prints 10)
9     printf( "%d\n", *data );   // equivalent as above
10    printf( "%d\n", data[ 5 ] ); // print element 5 (prints 5)
11    printf( "%d\n", *( data + 5 ) ); // equivalent as above
12    int multidim[ 5 ][ 5 ];    // 2-dimensional array
13                                // We can iterate over it using two for-loops
14    int init_array[ 2 ][ 2 ] = {
15        {1, 2},
16        {3, 4}
17    };                         // We can initialize an array like this
18    int empty_arr[ 4 ] = {}; // Initialized to 0
19    return 0;
20 }
```

### 3.1.5 Strings

C doesn't have a `string` data type, but rather, strings are represented (when using ASCII) as `char` arrays, with length of the array  $n + 1$  (where  $n$  is the number of characters of the string). The extra element is the termination character, called the `null character`, denoted `\0`. To determine the actual length of the string (as it may be padded), we can use `strlen(str, maxlen)` from `string.h`.

File: 04\_strings.c

```

1 #include <stdio.h>
2 #include <string.h>
3
4 int main( int argc, char *argv[] ) {
5     char hello[ 6 ] = "hello";           // Using double quotes
6     char world[ 6 ] = { 'w', 'o', 'r', 'l', 'd', '\0' }; // As array
7
8     char src[ 12 ], dest[ 12 ];
9     strcpy( src, "ETHZ", 12 );          // Copy strings (extra elements will be set to \0)
10    strcpy( dest, src, 12 );            // Copy strings (last arg is first n chars to copy)
11    if ( strcmp( src, dest, 12 ) ) // Compare two strings. Returns 1 if src > dest
12        printf( "Hello World" );
13    strcat( dest, " is in ZH", 12 ); // Concatenate strings
14    return 0;
15 }
```

### 3.1.6 Integers in C

As a reminder, integers are encoded as follows in big endian notation, with  $x_i$  being the  $i$ -th bit and  $w$  being the number of bits used to represent the number:

- **Unsigned:**  $\sum_{i=0}^{w-1} x_i \cdot 2^i$
- **Signed:**  $-x_{w-1} \cdot 2^{w-1} + \sum_{i=0}^{w-1} x_i \cdot 2^i$  (two's complement notation, with  $x_{w-1}$  being the sign-bit)

The minimum number representable is 0 and  $-2^{w-1}$ , respectively, whereas the maximum number representable is  $2^w - 1$  and  $2^{w-1} - 1$ . `limits.h` defines constants for the minimum and maximum values of different types, e.g. `ULONG_MAX` or `LONG_MAX` and `LONG_MIN`

We can use the shift operators to multiply and divide by two. Shift operations are usually *much* cheaper than multiplication and division. Left shift ( $u << k$  in C) always fills with zeros and throws away the extra bits on the left (equivalent to multiplication by  $2^k$ ), whereas right shift ( $u >> k$  in C) is implementation-defined, either arithmetic (fill with most significant bit, division by  $2^k$ ). This however rounds incorrectly, see below) or logical shift (fill with zeros, unsigned division by  $2^k$ ).

Signed division using arithmetic right shifts has the issue of incorrect rounding when number is  $< 0$ . Instead, we represent  $s/2^k = s + (2^k - 1) >> k$  for  $s < 0$  and  $s/2^k = s >> k$  for  $s > 0$

**In expressions, signed values are implicitly cast to unsigned**

This can lead to all sorts of nasty exploits (e.g. provide  $-1$  as the argument to `memcpy` and watch it burn, this was an actual exploit in FreeBSD)

### Addition & Subtraction

A nice property of the two's complement notation is that addition and subtraction works exactly the same as in normal notation, due to over- and underflow. This also obviously means that it implements modular arithmetic, i.e.

$$\text{Add}_w(u, v) = u + v \bmod 2^w \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Sub}_w(u, v) = u - v \bmod 2^w$$

### Multiplication & Division

Unsigned multiplication with addition forms a commutative ring. Again, it is doing modular arithmetic and

$$\text{UMult}_w(u, v) = u \cdot v \bmod 2^w$$

### 3.1.7 Pointers

On loading of a program, the OS creates the virtual address space for the process, inspects the executable and loads the data to the right places in the address space, before other preparations like final linking and relocation are done.

Stack-based languages (supporting recursion) allocate stack in frames that contain local variables, return information and temporary space. When a procedure is entered, a stack frame is allocated and executes any necessary setup code (like moving the stack pointer, see later). When a procedure returns, the stack frame is deallocated and any necessary cleanup code is executed, before execution of the previous frame continues.

**In C a pointer is a variable whose value is the memory address of another variable**

Of note is that if you simply declare a pointer using type `* p`; you will get different memory addresses every time. The (Linux)-Kernel randomizes the address space to prevent some common exploits.

File: 05\_pointers.c

```

1 #include "01_func.h" // See a few pages up for declarations
2 #include <assert.h>
3 #include <stdio.h>
4 #include <stdlib.h>
5
6 void a_function( int ( *func )( char * ), char prompt[] ) {
7     ( *func )( prompt ); // Call function with arguments
8 }
9
10 int main( int argc, char *argv[] ) {
11     int x = 0;
12     int *p = &x;           // Get x's memory address
13     printf( "%p\n", p ); // Print the address of x
14     printf( "%d\n", *p ); // Dereference pointer (get contents of memory location)
15     *p = 10;              // Dereference assign
16     int **dbl_p = &p;    // Double pointer (pointer to pointer to value)
17     int *null_p = NULL;  // Create NULL pointer
18     *null_p = 1;          // Segmentation fault due to null pointer dereference
19
20     // pointer arithmetic
21     int arr[ 3 ] = { 2, 3, 4 };
22     char c_arr[ 3 ] = { 'A', 'B', 'C' };
23     int *arr_p = &arr[ 1 ];
24     char *c_arr_p = &c_arr[ 1 ];
25     c_arr_p += 1; // Now points to c_arr[2]
26     arr_p -= 1;   // Now points to arr[0]
27
28     char *arr_p_c = (char *) arr_p; // Cast to char pointer (points to first byte of arr[0])
29     printf( "%d", *( arr_p - 5 ) ); // No boundary checks (can access any memory)
30     assert( arr == &( arr[ 0 ] ) ); // Evaluates to true
31     int new_arr[ 3 ] = arr;        // Compile time error (cannot use other array as
32     ↪   initializer)
33     int *new_arr_p = &arr[ 0 ];    // This works
34
35     a_function( &get_user_input_int, c_arr );
36
37     return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}

```

Some pointer arithmetic has already appeared in section 3.1.4, but same kind of content with better explanation can be found here

**Pointer Arithmetic** Note that when doing pointer arithmetic, adding 1 will move the pointer by `sizeof(type)` bits.

You may use pointer arithmetic on whatever pointer you'd like (as long as it's not a null pointer). This means, you *can* make an array wherever in memory you'd like. The issue is just that you are likely to overwrite something, and that something might be something critical (like a stack pointer), thus you will get **undefined** behaviour! (This is by the way a common concept in C, if something isn't easy to make more flexible (example for `malloc`, if you pass a pointer to memory that is not the start of the `malloc`'d section, you get undefined behaviour), in the docs mention that one gets undefined behaviour if you do not do as it says so... RTFM!)

As already seen in the section arrays (section 3.1.4), we can use pointer arithmetic for accessing array elements. The array name is treated as a pointer to the first element of the array, except when:

- it is operand of `sizeof` (return value is  $n \cdot \text{sizeof}(\text{type})$  with  $n$  the number of elements)
- its address is taken (then `&a == a`)
- it is a string literal initializer. If we modify a pointer `char *b = "String";` to string literal in code, the "String" is stored in the code segment and if we modify the pointer, we get undefined behaviour

**Fun fact** : `A[i]` is always rewritten `*(A + i)` by compiler.

**Function arguments** Another important aspect is passing by value or by reference. You can pass every data type by reference, you can not however pass an array by value (as an array is treated as a pointer, see above).

### Body-less loops

```
1 int x = 0;
2 while ( x++ < 10 ); // This is (of course) not a useful snippet, but shows the concept
```

**Function pointers** A function can be passed as an argument to another function using the typical address syntax with the `&` symbol is annotated as argument using type `(* name)(type arg1, ...)` and is called using `(*func)(arg1, ...)`.

### 3.2 The C preprocessor

To have gcc stop compilation after running through cpp, the C preprocessor, use `gcc -E <file name>`.

Imports in C are handled by the preprocessor, that for each `#include <file1.h>`, the preprocessor simply copies the contents of the file recursively into one file.

Depending on if we use `#include <file1.h>` or `#include "file1.h"` the preprocessor will search for the file either in the system headers or in the project directory. Be wary of including files twice, as the preprocessor will recursively include all files (i.e. it will include files from the files we included)

The C preprocessor gives us what are called **preprocessor macros**, which have the format `#define NAME SUBSTITUTION`.

File: 00\_macros.c

```

1 #include <stdio.h>
2 #include <stdlib.h>
3 #define FOO      BAZ
4 #define BAR( x ) ( x + 3 )
5 #define SKIP_SPACES( p )
6     do {
7         while ( p > 0 ) { p--; }
8     } while ( 0 )
9 #define COMMAND( c ) { #c, c##_command } // Produces { "<val(c)>", "<val(c)>_command" }
10
11 #ifdef FOO // If macro is defined, ifndef for if not defined
12     #define COURSE "SPCA"
13 #else
14     #define COURSE "Systems Programming and Computer Architecture"
15 #endif
16
17 #if 1
18     #define OUT HELLO // if statement
19 #endif
20
21 int main( int argc, char *argv[] ) {
22     int i = 10;
23     SKIP_SPACES( i );
24
25     printf( "%s", COURSE );
26
27     return EXIT_SUCCESS;
28 }
```

To avoid issues with semicolons at the end of preprocessor macros that wrap statements that cannot end in semicolons, we can use a concept called semicolon swallowing. For that, we wrap the statements in a `do ... while(0)` loop, which is removed by the compiler on compile, also taking with it the semicolon.

There are also a number of predefined macros:

- `__FILE__`: Filename of processed file
- `__LINE__`: Line number of this usage of macro
- `__DATE__`: Date of processing
- `__TIME__`: Time of processing
- `__STDC__`: Set if ANSI Standard C compiler is used
- `__STDC_VERSION__`: The version of Standard C being compiled
- ... many more

In headers, we typically use `#ifndef __FILENAME_H__` followed by a `#define __FILENAME_H__` or the like to check if the header was already included before

### 3.3 Memory

In comparison to most other languages, C does not feature automatic memory management, but instead gives us full, manual control over memory. This of course has both advantages and disadvantages.

File: 00\_memory.c

```

1 #include <stdlib.h>
2
3 int main( int argc, char *argv[] ) {
4     long *arr = (long *) malloc( 10 * sizeof( long ) ); // Allocate on heap
5     if ( arr == NULL )                                // Check if successful
6         return EXIT_FAILURE;
7     arr[ 0 ] = 5;
8
9     long *arr2;
10    if ( ( arr2 = (long *) calloc( 10, sizeof( long ) ) ) == NULL )
11        return EXIT_FAILURE; // Same as above, but fewer lines and memory zeroed
12
13    // Reallocate memory (to change size). Always use new pointer and do check!
14    if ( ( arr2 = (long *) realloc( arr2, 15 * sizeof( long ) ) ) == NULL )
15        return EXIT_FAILURE;
16
17    free( arr ); // Deallocate the memory
18    arr = NULL; // Best practice: NULL pointer
19    free( arr2 ); // *Can* omit NULLing pointer because end
20
21    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
22 }
```

Notably, the argument `size_t sz` for `malloc`, `calloc` and `realloc` is an `unsigned integer` of some size and differs depending on hardware and software platforms.

`malloc` keeps track of which blocks are allocated. If you give `free` a pointer that isn't the start of the memory region previously `malloc`'d, you get undefined behaviour.

**Memory corruption** There are many ways to corrupt memory in C. The below code shows off a few of them:

File: 01\_mem-corruption.c

```

1 #include <stdlib.h>
2
3 int main( int argc, char **argv ) {
4     int a[ 2 ];
5     int *b = malloc( 2 * sizeof( int ) ), *c;
6     a[ 2 ] = 5;           // assign past the end of an array
7     b[ 0 ] += 2;          // assume malloc zeroes out memory
8     c = b + 3;            // mess up your pointer arithmetic
9     free( &( a[ 0 ] ) ); // pass pointer to free() that wasn't malloc'ed
10    free( b );
11    free( b ); // double-free the same block
12    b[ 0 ] = 5; // use a free()'d pointer
13    // any many more!
14    return 0;
15 }
```

**Memory leaks** If we allocate memory, but never free it, we use more and more memory (old memory is inaccessible)

**Dynamic data structures** We build it using structs that have a pointer to another struct inside them. We have to allocate memory for each element and then add the pointer to another struct. For a generic dynamic data structure, make the element a `void pointer`. This in general is the concept used for functions operating on any data type.

### 3.3.1 Dynamic Memory Allocation

Memory allocated with `malloc` is typically 8- or 16-byte aligned.

**Explicit vs. Implicit** In explicit memory management, the application does both the allocation *and* deallocation memory, whereas in implicit memory management, the application allocates the memory, but usually a *Garbage Collector* (GC) frees it.

For some languages, like Rust, one would assume that it does implicit allocation, but Rust is a language using explicit management, it's just that the *compiler* and not the programmer decides when to allocate and when to deallocate.

**Assumption in this course:** Memory is **word** addressed (= 8 Bytes on 64-bit platform).

**Goals** The allocation should have the highest possible throughput and at the same time the best (i.e. lowest) possible memory utilization. This however is usually conflicting, so we have to balance the two.

**Definition: Aggregate payload**  $P_k$ : All `malloc`'d stuff minus all `free`'d stuff

**Definition: Current heap size**  $H_k$ : Monotonically non-decreasing. Grows when `sbrk` system call is issued.

**Definition: Peak memory utilization**  $U_k = (\max_{i < k} P_i)/H_k$

A bit problem for the `free` function is to know how much memory to free without knowing the size of the to be freed block. This is just one of many other implementation issues:

- (1) How much memory to free? → Headers
- (2) How do we keep track of the free blocks? I.e. where and how large are they? → Free lists
- (3) What do we do with the extra space of a block when allocating a smaller block? → Coalescing
- (4) How do we pick a block? → Placement policies
- (5) How do we reinsert a freed block into the heap? → When to coalesce

This all leads to an issue known as **fragmentation**

**Definition: Internal Fragmentation:** If for a given block the payload (i.e. the requested size) is smaller than the block size. This depends on the pattern of previous requests and is thus easy to measure

**Definition: External Fragmentation:** There is enough aggregate heap memory, but there isn't a single large enough free block available. This depends on the pattern of future requests and is thus hard to measure.

**Header** : Stores size of block and is usually placed in the word that precedes the allocated block (standard method).

#### Free lists

M1 **Implicit list** using length: Links all blocks and uses a low-order bit to indicate free / allocated, as for aligned blocks, a / some low-order bit(s) are always 0.

M2 **Explicit list** among free blocks using a pointer in the first (and possibly second) word of the block

M3 **Segregated free list**: different free lists for different size classes

M4 **Blocks sorted by size**: Using a balanced tree with pointers within each free block and the length is the key

**Definition: Coalescing** Connecting two (or more) (free) blocks to form a larger (free) block.

We can do this efficiently in one direction with just a header, however in both directions requires what are referred to as **boundary tags**. They are simply headers on both sides of the block and this allows us to traverse backwards.

We can do coalescing in constant time, by looking at the previous block's footer and next block's header to check if they are free or not.

- If the previous block is free, we can coalesce it by updating its header to include the length of the to be freed block and the middle two words. Same update has to happen to the to be freed block's footer.
- If the next block is free, update its footer to the size of the to be freed block plus the free block's size plus the two words in the middle. Do the same update to the to be freed block's header.

If both blocks are free, then of course we can do this step in one go for both.

Using the headers or boundary tags is just one option to do it and it can be optimized.

**Implicit Free List** If we use the size that is stored in the header, we know where the next block is going to be already. To know if the block has already been allocated, we are using a low-order bit. If the blocks are aligned, then some of the low-order bits are always 0.

To find a free block, we can use the `first fit`, `next fit` or `best fit` policies. When a block is picked, we might want to split it by adding a header to the remaining part.

To free a block, we can simply clear the allocated flag, however that can lead to fragmentation. Thus: Coalesce the freed blocks.

**Explicit Free List** Here, we maintain pointers to the next and possibly (and preferably) previous free block(s). This means that all free blocks form a linked list. Thus, to allocate a free block, we remove the element from the list by updating the pointers and we can again use the `first fit`, `next fit` or `best fit` policies.

To free, we can use LIFO (last-in-first-out) or address-ordered policies and we also have to clear the allocated bit in the footer and header. The latter policy is slower, but likely suffers from lower fragmentation.

To prevent fragmentation, we again want to use coalescing. Only that this time, we also need to update the pointers. Thus, we again go to the adjacent blocks, and check if they are allocated. Say we coalesce the adjacent next block. We go to the location of the previous free block pointer and update that block's next pointer to point to the start of the to be freed block. We then copy the previous pointer from the free block to the correct location in the to be freed block.

**Segregated Free List** Here, we keep separate lists for different sizes. We first check the list for the requested size class, and if no fitting block is found, roll up to the next list until we have reached the last list and if it doesn't contain a suitable block, request new memory using `sbrk()`.

This leads to an increased throughput and better memory utilization as compared to the previous two. Another benefit is that we do not necessarily have to coalesce or that we can coalesce if the length of a certain list has reached a certain threshold.

### Placement policies

- **First fit** Search the list from the beginning, pick first free block that fits. This will usually cause "splinters" at the beginning of the list and can take linear time in the total number of blocks (allocated and free)
- **Next fit** Like first fit, but start at point the previous search finished at. This should be faster, however leads to worse fragmentation.
- **Best fit** Searches the list and chooses the *best* free block that fits and has fewest bytes left over. Leads to lower fragmentation, but is slower than first fit.

### 3.3.2 Garbage Collection

The memory manager must somehow be able to tell what memory can be freed. In general, we cannot know if memory is going to be used or not, except if there exists no pointer to it anymore. Garbage collectors use graphs to track pointer availability. In other words, a block is reachable if there exists a path from a root node to it.

An easy GC algorithm is called **Mark and Sweep**. It has an extra bit in the header called the *mark bit* and can be built on top of malloc/free. The concept is to use malloc until we "run out of space" and to then run these steps:

- **Mark**: Starts at each root node and sets a mark bit on each reachable block.
- **Sweep**: Scan all blocks and free all blocks that are unmarked.

### 3.3.3 Common pitfalls

- Dereferencing bad pointers (e.g. passing an `int` to a function expecting a pointer)
- Reading uninitialized memory (memory allocated with `malloc` should be considered garbage)
- Overwriting memory (if you mess up pointer arithmetic or don't do boundary checks)
- Referencing nonexistent variables (variables go out of scope on function returns, except `static`)
- Freeing blocks multiple times (can corrupt the heap)
- Referencing freed blocks (always `NULL` pointers after using `free()`)
- Failing to free blocks (memory leak incoming and make sure to free the ENTIRE data structure!)

Some of these bugs (especially bad references) can usually be found using a debugger.

Substitute `malloc` with a `malloc` that has extra checking code (like UToronto CSRI `malloc` to detect memory leaks)

Another option is using `valgrind` (a memory debugger). Or, simply don't bother with C and use Rust.

## 4 Hardware

Remember: Rust and the like have an `unsafe` block... C's equivalent to this is

---

```
1 int main( int argc, char *argv[] ) {
2     // Unsafe code goes here
3 }
```

---

i.e. ***YOU are the one that makes C code safe!***