

High-Level Programming

- You are used to writing programs in high level programming languages
- Examples:
 - C#
 - Java
 - Python
 - Visual Basic

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High-Level Programming

- These are third-generation languages
- They and are designed to <u>isolate</u> you from architecture of the machine
- This layer of abstraction makes programs "portable" between systems



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Machine Language

- Instructions, that are actually executed on the processor, are a series of bytes
- Bytes contain *encoded* instructions
 - each instruction is in a compact binary form
 - easy for the processor to interpret and execute
 - some instructions are take more bytes than others not all are equal

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Assembly Language



- Assembly allows you to write machine language programs using easy-to-read text
- Assembly programs is based on a specific processor architecture
- So, it won't "port"

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Assembly Benefits

- 1. Consistent way of writing instructions
- 2. Automatically counts bytes and allocates buffers
- Labels are used to keep track of addresses which prevents a common machine-language mistake

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1. Consistent Instructions

- Assembly combines related machine instructions into a single notation (and name)
- For example, the following machinelanguage actions are different, but related:
 - register → memory
 - register → register
 - constant → register

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2. Count and Allocate Buffers

- Assembly automatically counts bytes and allocates buffers
- Miscounts (when done by hand) can be very problematic – and can lead to hard to find errors

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3. Labels & Addresses

- Assembly uses *labels* are used to store addresses
- These can be memory locations or parts of your running program
- They are <u>automatically</u> calculated when the assembler is creating machine code

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Battle of the Syntax

- The basic concept of assembly's notation and syntax hasn't changed
- However, there are two major competing notations
- They are just different enough to make it confusing for students and programmers (who are use to the other notation)

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Battle of the Syntax

- AT&T / GNU Syntax
 - · dominate on UNIX / Linux systems
 - registers prefixed by %, values prefixed with \$
 - receiving register is <u>last</u>
- Intel Syntax
 - dominate on DOS / Windows systems
 - neither registers or values have a prefix
 - receiving register is first

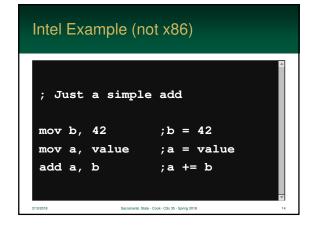
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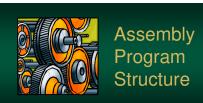
```
# Just a simple add

mov $42, %b  #b = 42

mov value, %a  #a = value

add %b, %a  #a += b
```





How these little beasties are organized

Assembly Programs

- Assembly programs are divided into two sections
- data section allocate the bytes to store your constants, variables, etc...
- text/code section contains the processor instructions that will make up your program



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Labels

- As the machine code is created, the assembler keeps track of the current address
- You can define labels
 - will be assigned an address
 - ... of the program created up to that point
- Notation: end in a colon

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Literals – the dollar sign

- Literals are denoted using a dollar sign \$ prefix
- This is commonly used for constants and to get the actual value of a label (an address)
- A common mistake is to forget it

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Registers – the percent sign

- Registers are using a percent sign % prefix
- If a percent sign is left off, the assembler will think you typed a label
- The explicit notation is actually useful – albeit odd looking



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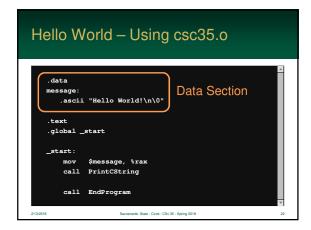
Directives

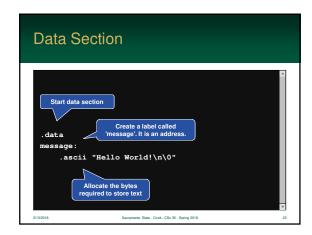
- A directive is a special command for the assembler
- Notation: starts with a period
- What they do:
 - · allocate space
 - · define constants
 - · start the text or data section
 - define the "start" address

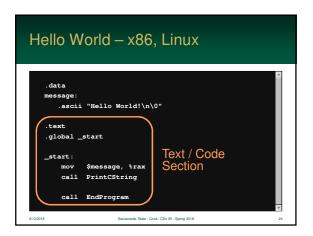
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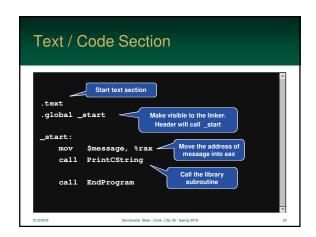


.data
message:
.ascii "Hello World!\n\0"
.text
.global _start
_start:
mov \$message, \$rax
call PrintCString
call EndProgram











Compilers & Assemblers



- When you hit "compile" or "run" (e.g. in your Java IDE), many actions take place "behind the scenes"
- You are usually only aware of the work that the parser does

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Development Process

- 1. Write program in high-level language
- 2. Compile program into assembly
- 3. Assemble program into objects
- 4. Link multiple objects programs into one executable
- 5. Load executable into memory
- 6. Execute it

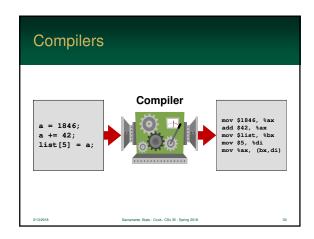
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Compiler

- Convert programs from high-level languages (such as C or C++) into assembly language
- Some create machine-code directly...
- Interpreters, however...
 - never compile code
 - Instead, they run parts of their own program

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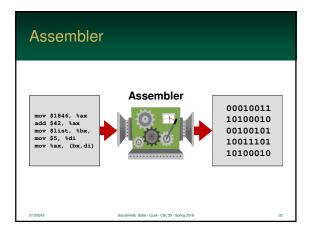


Assembler

- Converts assembly into the binary representation used by the processor
- Often the result is an object file
 - · usually not executable yet
 - contains computer instructions and information on how to "link" into other executable units
 - file may include: relocation data, unresolved labels, debugging data

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Linkers

- Often, parts of a program are created <u>separately</u>
- Happens more often than you think – almost always
- A linker joins multiple parts (usually object files) into a single file



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What a Linker Does

- Connects labels (identifiers) used in one object - to the object to that defines it
- So, one object can call another object
- What you will see: label conflicts and missing labels

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Linking your program

- UNIX file header defined by crt1.o and crti.o
- They are supplied behind the scenes, so you don't need to worry about them

UNIX Header



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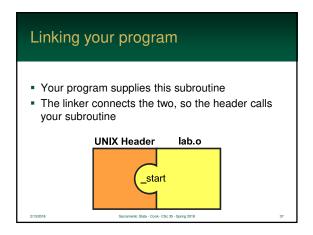
Linking your program

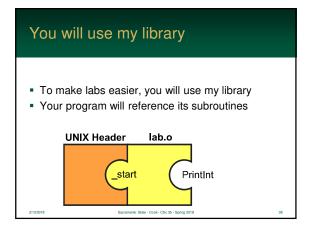
- It references a subroutine called <u>start</u> and is used as the executable entry point
- But... it is not defined in the header

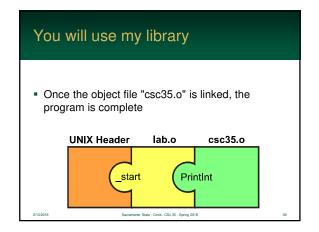
UNIX Header

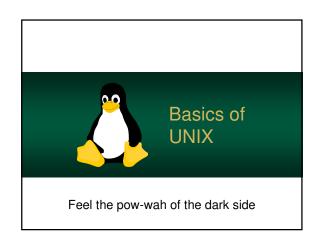


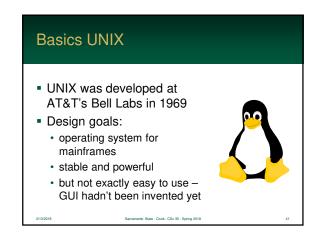
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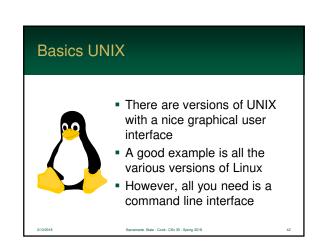












Command Line Interface

- Command line interface is text-only
- But, you can perform all the same functions you can with a graphical user interface
- This is how computer scientists have traditionally used computers



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Each command starts with a name followed by zero or more arguments Using these, you have the same abilities that you do in Windows/Mac

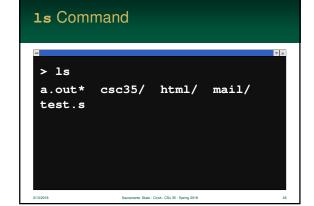
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1s Command

- Lists all the files in the current directory (folder)
- It has arguments that control how the list will look
- Folder names will have a slash suffix
- Programs have an asterisk suffix

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11 Command

- This command is a shortcut notation for ls -l
- It displays all the files in "long" format
- Besides the filename, its size, access rights, etc... are displayed



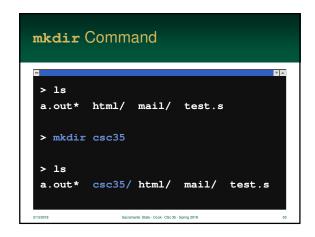
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```
11 Command

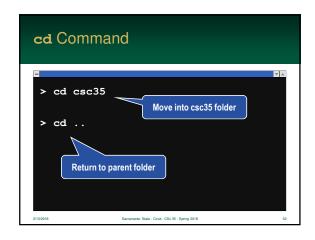
> 11

-rwx----- 1 cookd othcsc 4650 Sep 10 17:44 a.out*
drwx----- 2 cookd othcsc 4096 Sep 5 17:49 csc35/
drwxrwxrwx 10 cookd othcsc 4096 Sep 6 11:04 html/
drwxrwxrwx 2 cookd othcsc 4096 Jun 20 17:58 mail/
-rw----- 1 cookd othcsc 74 Sep 10 17:44 test.s
```

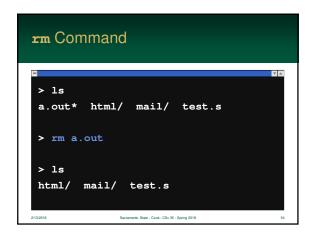


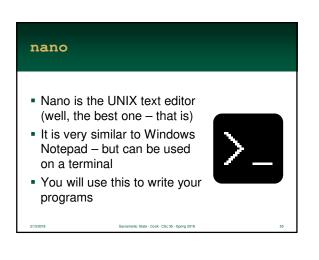


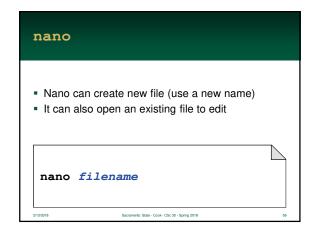
```
    To change your current folder, you will use the "change directory" command
    If you specify a folder name, you will move into it
    If you use .. (two dots), you will got to the parent folder
```

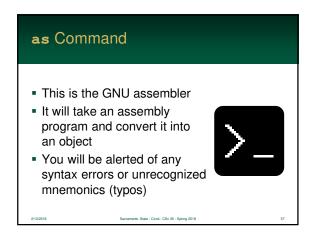


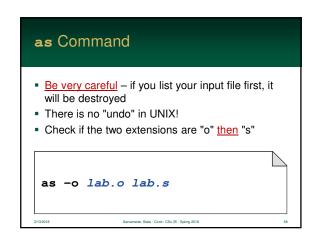
```
If you want to delete a file, you can use the "remove" command
It's good to cleanup your folders from time to time
It can also delete multiple files using patterns
```

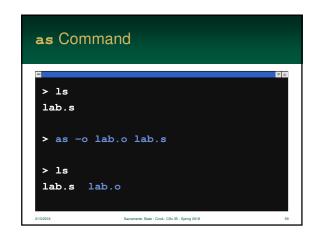


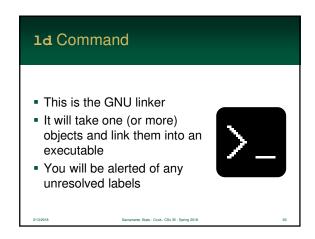












```
The "-o" specifies the next name is the output
The second is the output file (executable)
The third is your input objects (1 or more)

Id -o a.out csc35.o lab.o
```

```
Description

Be very careful — if you list your input file first, it will be destroyed
I will provide the "csc35.o" file

Id —o a.out csc35.o lab.o
```

```
ld Command

> 1s
lab.o csc35.o

> 1d -o a.out lab.o csc35.o

> 1s
lab.o csc35.o a.out*
```