Final Exam

+Logistics



- 100 minutes (half an hour longer than midterm)
 - Covers all materials, emphasizes second half
 - You may bring 1 page (8.5 by 11, two-sided) of notes. It must be hand-written.
- Disclaimer: this review is not complete.
 - Not all exam materials are mentioned by this review!
 - We are not even mentioning things from the first half of the semester.

+General Tips

- Read through all questions, do what you think are the easier ones first.
- Make sure you have *completed and understood* all the homeworks, recitation exercises, labs, quizzes and exams.
- Use Piazza! Have discussions there with your classmates.

Machine-Level Programming

+Machine-Level Programs

- Basic information about x84-64
- Source, assembly, object & machine code
- General purpose registers
- Data movement instructions.
 - movq %rdi, %rsi
 - movq (%rdi), %rsi

+ Memory Addressing

General form

$$D(Rb, Ri, S) \qquad \qquad Mem[D + Reg[Rb] + Reg[Ri] * S]$$

- D: Constant "displacement"
- Rb: Base register: Any of 16 integer registers
- Ri: Index register: Any, except for %rsp
- S: Scale: 1, 2, 4, or 8
- Special cases: you can omit certain arguments if not needed.

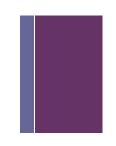
$$(Rb,Ri,S)$$
 Mem[$Reg[Rb] + Reg[Ri] * S$]

Address Computation

- leaq src, dest
 - *src* is an address computation expression
 - set *dest* to address denoted by expression
- use case 1
 - Computing addresses without a memory reference
 - E.g., translation of p = &x[i];
- Example

```
char* a2(char* x) {
   return &x[2];
}
```

```
leaq 2(%rdi), %rax # return &x[2]
ret
```



Arithmetic Operations



```
• Format Computation
```

Watch out for argument order!



Arithmetic Expression Example

```
long arith (long x, long y, long z) {
  long t1 = x + y;
  long t2 = z + t1;
  long t3 = x + 4;
  long t4 = y * 48;
  long t5 = t3 + t4;
  long rval = t2 * t5;
  return rval;
}
```

```
arith:
  leaq (%rdi,%rsi), %rax #t1
  addq %rdx, %rax #t2
  leaq (%rsi,%rsi,2), %rdx
  salq $4, %rdx #t4
  leaq 4(%rdi,%rdx), %rcx #t5
  imulq %rcx, %rax #rval
  ret
```

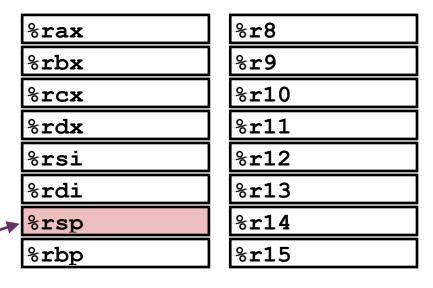
- Noteworthy instructions:
 - leaq: "address" computation
 - salq: shift
 - imulq: integer multiplication

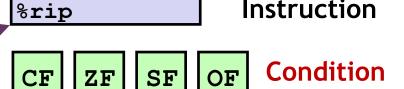
Register	Use(s)
%rdi	Argument x
%rsi	Argument y
%rdx	Argument z
%rax	t1, t2, rval
%rdx	t4
%rcx	t5

Control

Registers

- Information about currently executing program...
 - temporary data (%rax, ...)
 - location of runtime stack (%rsp)
 - location of current code point (%rip)
 - status of recent tests (**CF**, **ZF**, **SF**, **OF**)

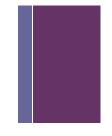




Instruction

Current stack 'top' Current instruction

Condition Codes (Implicit Setting)



- Single bit registers
 - **CF** Carry Flag (for unsigned)
 - ZF Zero Flag

- **SF** Sign Flag (for signed)
- **OF** Overflow Flag (for signed)
- Implicitly set (think of it as a side effect) by arithmetic operations
 - Example: **addq** src, $dest \Leftrightarrow b = a + b$
 - **CF** set if carry out from most significant bit (unsigned overflow)
 - **ZF** set if t == 0
 - **SF** set if t < 0 (as signed)
 - **OF** set if two's-complement (signed) overflow (a > 0 && b > 0 && t < 0) // (a < 0 && b < 0 && t > 0)
- Not set by leaq instruction (!!!)

*Conditional Branching by Jumping

```
long absdiff(long x, long y)
{
    long result;
    if (x > y)
        result = x - y;
    else
        result = y - x;
    return result;
}
```

```
absdiff:
         %rsi, %rdi # y, x
  cmpq
  jle
          .L4
         %rdi, %rax
  movq
  subq
         %rsi, %rax
  ret
.L4:
        # x <= y
  movq %rsi, %rax
  subq
         %rdi, %rax
  ret
```

Register	Use(s)
%rdi	Argument x
%rsi	Argument y
%rax	Return value

+ Conditional Move Example

```
long absdiff(long x, long y) {
    long result;
    if (x > y)
        result = x-y;
    else
        result = y-x;
    return result;
}
```

Register	Use(s)
%rdi	Argument x
%rsi	Argument y
%rax	Return value
%rdx	Temp variable

+ "Do-While" Loop Compilation

```
long pcount_goto(unsigned long x) {
  long result = 0;
  loop:
    result += x & 0x1;
    x >>= 1;
    if(x) goto loop;
    return result;
}
```

Register	Use(s)
%rdi	Argument x
%rax	result

```
result = 0
          $0, %rax
  movl
.L2:
                         # loop:
  movq %rdi, %rdx
                         # t = x & 0x1
  andq $1, %rdx
                         # result += t
  addq %rdx, %rax
         %rdi
                         # x >>= 1
  shrq
         .L2
  ine
                          if (x) goto loop
  rep; ret
```

• Note: some processors' branch predictors behave badly when a branch's target or fall-through is a **ret** instruction, and adding the **rep**; prefix avoids this.

+Procedure Data Flow



Registers

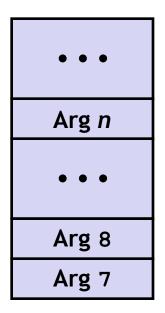
First 6 arguments



Return value

%rax

Stack



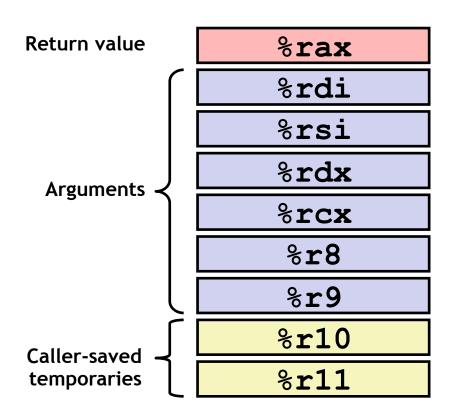
* Only allocate stack space when needed

+x86-64 Caller-saved Registers



■ %rax

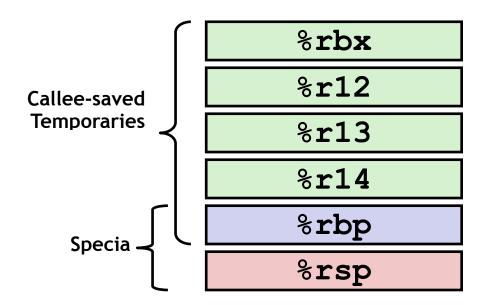
- Return value
- Also caller-saved
- Can be modified by procedure
- %rdi, ..., %r9
 - Arguments
 - Also caller-saved
 - Can be modified by procedure
- %r10, %r11
 - Caller-saved
 - Can be modified by procedure



+x86-64 Callee-saved Registers

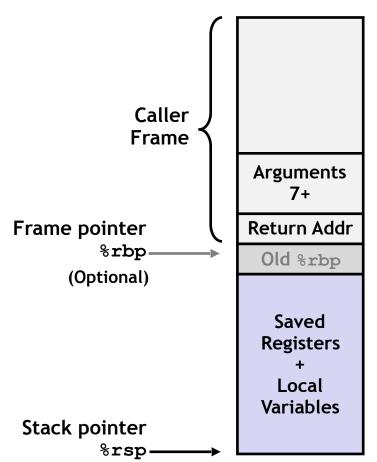


- %rbx, %r12, %r13, %r14
 - Callee-saved
 - Callee must save & restore
- %rbp
 - Callee-saved
 - Callee must save & restore
 - May be used as frame pointer
- %rsp
 - Special form of callee save
 - Restored to original value upon exit from procedure

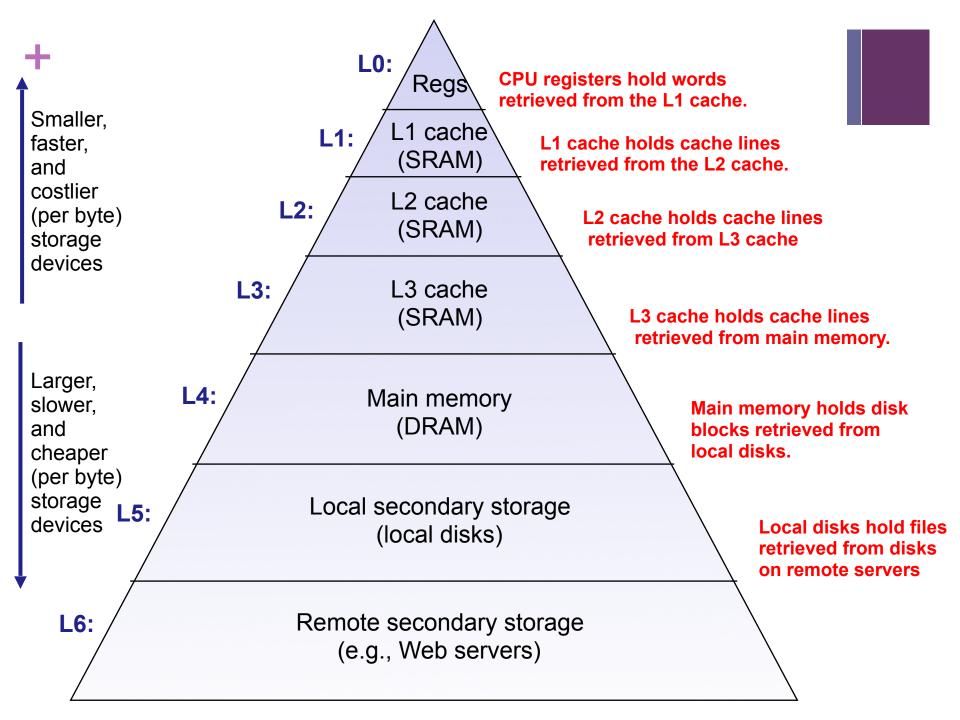


+x86-64/Linux Stack Frame

- Current Stack Frame ('Top' to 'Bottom')
 - Local variablesIf can't keep in registers
 - *Old frame pointer* (optional)
- Caller Stack Frame
 - Return address
 - Pushed by call instruction
 - Arguments for this call



Memory

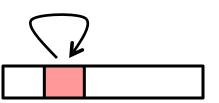


+Locality

• **Principle of Locality:** Programs tend to use data and instructions with addresses near or equal to those they have used recently

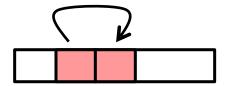
Temporal locality:

 Recently referenced items are likely to be referenced again in the near future



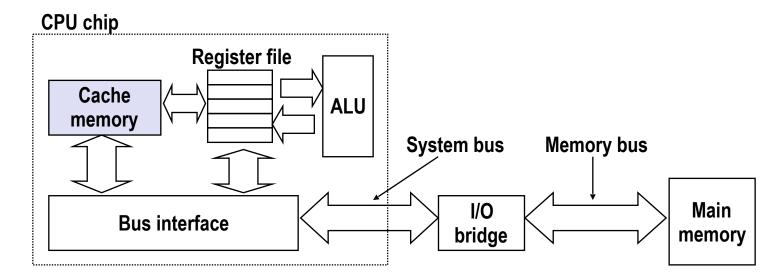
• Spatial locality:

 Items with nearby addresses tend to be referenced close together in time



+Cache Memories

- Cache memories are small, fast SRAM-based memories managed automatically in hardware
 - Hold frequently accessed blocks of main memory
- CPU looks first for data in cache
- Typical system structure:



+Stride-n Access Patterns

- C arrays allocated in row-major order, contiguously
- Stepping through columns in one row:
 - for (i = 0; i < N; i++)

 sum += a[0][i];
 - accesses successive, contiguous elements
- Stepping through rows in one column:
 - for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
 sum += a[i][0];</pre>
 - accesses distant elements (stride-rowsize pattern)
 - no spatial locality!

+Array Access



T A[N];

- Array of data type T and length N
- Identifier A can be used as a pointer to array element 0: type T^*

<pre>int val[5];</pre>	1	0	0	0	3	
,	1	Î ´	Î		Î Î	Ì
	X X	+ 4 x	+ 8 x +	- 12 <i>x</i> +	+ 16 <i>x</i> +	- 20

Reference	Type	Value
val[4]	int	3
val	int*	X
val+1	int*	x + 4
&val[2]	int*	x + 8
val[5]	int	??
*(val+1)	int	0
val + i	int*	x + 4i

+Array Accessing Example



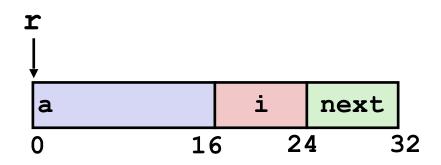
```
int get_digit(int[] z, int digit){
  return z[digit];
}
```

```
# %rdi = z
# %rsi = digit
movq (%rdi,%rsi,4), %rax # z[digit]
```

- Register %rdi contains starting address of array
- Register %rsi contains array index
- Desired digit at%rdi + 4*%rsi
- Use memory reference (%rdi, %rsi, 4)

+Structure Representation

```
struct rec {
    int a[4];
    long i;
    struct rec *next;
};
```



- Structure represented as block of memory
 - Big enough to hold all of the fields
- Fields ordered according to declaration
 - Even if another ordering could yield a more compact representation
 - Machine-level program has no understanding of the structures in the source code

+Structures & Alignment



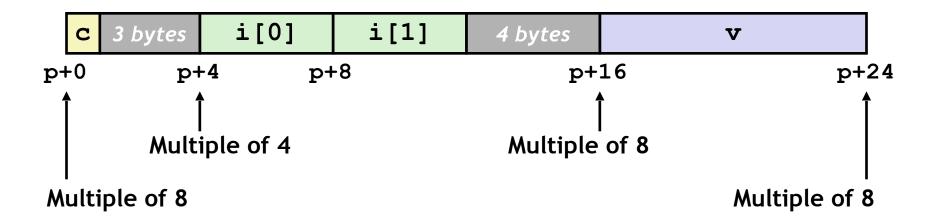
Unaligned Data

```
c i[0] i[1] v
p p+1 p+5 p+9 p+17
```

```
struct S1 {
  char c;
  int i[2];
  double v;
} *p;
```

Aligned Data

- Primitive data type requires *K* bytes
- Address must be multiple of K



Linking

+What Do Linkers Do?



Step 1: Symbol resolution

- Programs define and reference symbols (global variables and functions):
 - void swap() {...} /* define symbol swap */
 swap(); /* reference symbol swap */
 int *xp = &x; /* define symbol xp, reference x */
- Symbol definitions are stored in object file in symbol table.
 - Symbol table is an array of structs
 - Each entry includes name, size, and location of symbol.
- During symbol resolution step, the linker associates each symbol reference with exactly one symbol definition.

+Linker Symbols



Global symbols

- Symbols defined by module *m* that can be referenced by other modules.
- E.g.: non-static C functions and non-static global variables.

External symbols

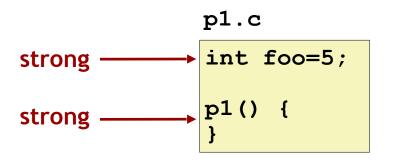
• Global symbols that are referenced by module *m* but defined by some other module.

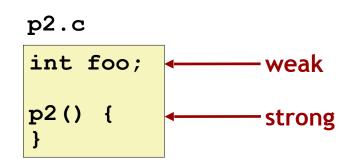
Local symbols

- Symbols that are defined and referenced exclusively by module m.
- E.g.: C functions and global variables with the static attribute.
- Local linker symbols are not local program variables

+Resolving Duplicate Symbol Definitions

- All symbol references must be mapped to 1 definition.
 - How to choose when there are duplicates?
- Taxonomy of symbol definitions aids decision.
- Program symbols are either strong or weak
 - Strong: procedures and initialized globals
 - Weak: uninitialized globals

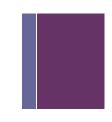




+Linker's Symbol Rules

- Rule 1: Multiple strong symbols are not allowed
 - Each item can be defined only once
 - Otherwise: Linker error
- Rule 2: Given a strong symbol and multiple weak symbols, choose the strong symbol
 - References to the weak symbol resolve to the strong symbol
- Rule 3: If there are multiple weak symbols, pick any one
 - Can override this with gcc –fno-common
 - Probably a good idea to use above flag

+What Do Linkers Do? (cont)



Step 2: Relocation

- Merges separate code and data sections into single sections
- Relocates symbols from their relative locations in the .o files to their final absolute memory locations in the executable.
- Updates all references to these symbols to reflect their new positions.

+When Can Linking Happen?

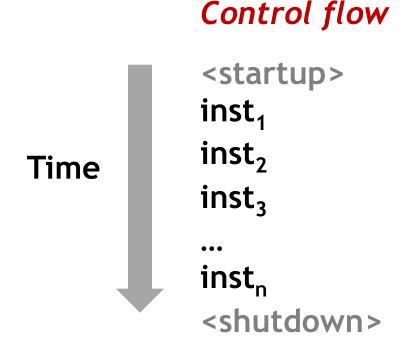
- Linking can happen at different times in a program's lifetime:
 - Compile time (when a program is compiled)
 - Load time (when a program is loaded into memory)
 - Run time (while a program is executing)

Exceptions & Processes

+Control Flow

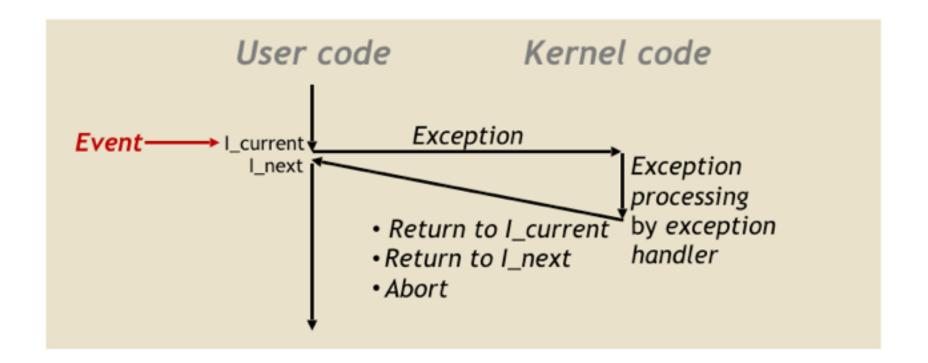


- Processors do only one thing:
 - From startup to shutdown, a CPU simply reads and executes (interprets) a sequence of instructions, one at a time
 - This sequence is the CPU's control flow (or flow of control)



+Exceptions

- An exception is a transfer of control to the OS kernel in response to some event (i.e., change in processor state)
 - Examples of events: Divide by 0, page fault, I/O request completes, typing Ctrl-C



+Asynchronous Exceptions (Interrupts)



- Caused by events external to the processor
 - Indicated by setting the processor's *interrupt pin*
 - Handler returns to "next" instruction

• Examples:

- *Timer interrupt*
 - Every few ms, an external timer chip triggers an interrupt
 - Used by the kernel to take back control from user programs
- I/O interrupt from external device
 - Arrival of a packet from a network
 - Arrival of data from a disk

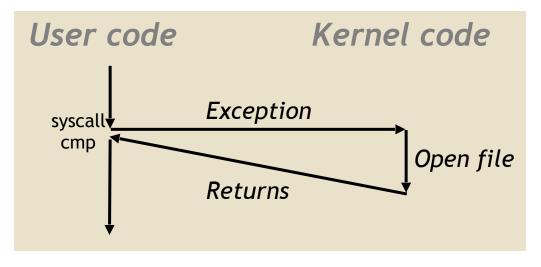
+Synchronous Exceptions



- Caused by events that occur as a result of executing an instruction:
 - <u>Traps</u>
 - Intentional
 - Example: system calls
 - Returns control to "next" instruction
 - Faults
 - Unintentional but possibly recoverable
 - Example: page fault
 - Either re-executes faulting ("current") instruction or aborts
 - Aborts
 - Unintentional and unrecoverable
 - Example: *illegal memory access*
 - Aborts current program

+System Call Example: Opening File

- User calls: open (filename, options)
- Calls open function, which invokes system call instruction syscall



- %rax contains syscall number
- Other arguments in %rdi, %rsi, %rdx, %r10, %r8, %r9
- Return value in %rax
- Negative value is an error corresponding to negative errno

+Processes

- A process is an instance of a running program.
 - One of the most successful ideas in computer science
 - Not the same as "program"
- Process provided with two key abstractions by OS:
 - Logical control flow
 - Each program seems to have exclusive use of the CPU
 - Provided by kernel mechanism called *context* switching
 - Private address space
 - Each program seems to have exclusive use of main memory.
 - Provided by kernel mechanism called *virtual memory*

Memory

Stack

Heap

Data

Code

CPU

Registers

+Creating and Terminating Processes



• From a programmer's perspective, we can think of a process as being in one of three states

Running

 Process is either executing, or waiting to be executed and will eventually be scheduled (i.e., chosen to execute) by the kernel

Stopped

 Process execution is suspended and will not be scheduled until further notice

Terminated

Process is stopped permanently

+Process Management

Creating processes

- Call fork
- One call, *two* returns

Process completion

- Call exit
- One call, no return

Reaping and waiting for processes

Call wait or waitpid

Loading and running programs

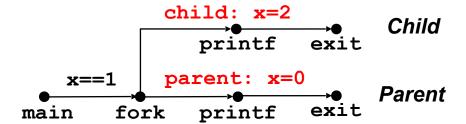
- Call execve
- One call, no return

+Process Graph Example

```
int main() {
    pid_t pid;
    int x = 1;

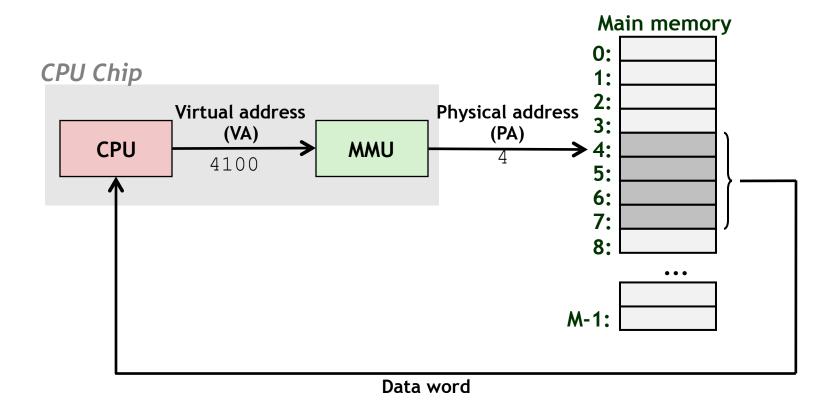
    pid = fork();
    if (pid == 0) { /* Child */
        printf("child : x=%d\n", ++x);
        exit(0);
    }

    /* Parent */
    printf("parent: x=%d\n", --x);
    exit(0);
}
```

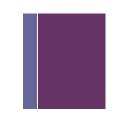


+ Virtual Addressing

- Creates illusion to process that it has total address space.
- Used in all modern, non-trivial systems



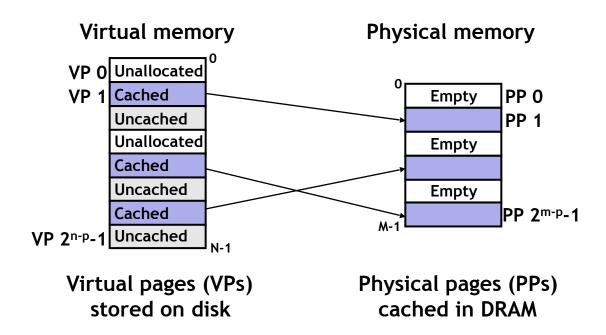
+Why Virtual Memory (VM)?



- Uses main memory efficiently
 - Use DRAM as a cache for parts of a virtual address space
- Simplifies memory management
 - Each process gets the same uniform linear address space
- Isolates address spaces
 - One process can't interfere with another's memory
 - User program cannot access privileged kernel information and code

+VM as Caching

- Conceptually, virtual memory is an array of N contiguous bytes stored on disk.
- The contents of the array on disk are cached in physical memory
 - These cache blocks are called pages



+

Dynamic Allocation

+Dynamic Memory Allocation



- Allocator maintains heap as collection of variable sized blocks, which are either allocated or free
- Types of allocators
 - Explicit allocator: application allocates and frees space
 - E.g., malloc and free in C
 - Implicit allocator: application allocates, but does not free space
 - E.g. garbage collection in Java, ML, and Lisp

+Constraints



Applications

- Can issue arbitrary sequence of malloc and free requests
- free request must be to a malloc'd block

Allocators

- Can't control number or size of allocated blocks
- Can't reorder or buffer requests for memory
- Must allocate blocks from free memory
- Can manipulate and modify only free memory
- Can't move the allocated blocks once they are malloc'd

+Performance Goal: Throughput

- Goal: Maximize throughput:
 - Number of completed requests per unit time
 - Example:
 - 5,000 malloc calls and 5,000 free calls in 10 seconds
 - Throughput is 1,000 operations/second

+Performance Goal: Peak Memory Utilization

- Aggregate payload / Current heap size = Utilization
 - Utilization is the sum of currently allocated payloads divided by the current total heap size.
- Goal: Increase utilization (by reducing fragmentation)
 - internal fragmentation
 - external fragmentation

+Free Lists: Keeping Track of Free Blocks

Method 1: Implicit list using length—links all blocks



Method 2: Explicit list among the free blocks using pointers

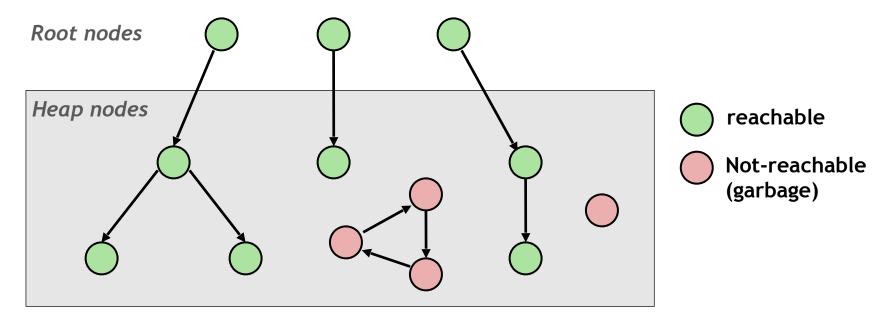


- Method 3: Segregated free list
 - Different free lists for different size classes

+Memory as a Graph



- We view memory as a directed graph
 - Each <u>block</u> is a node in the graph, each <u>pointer</u> is an edge in the graph
 - Locations not in the heap that contain pointers into the heap are called root nodes (e.g. registers, locations on the stack, global variables)



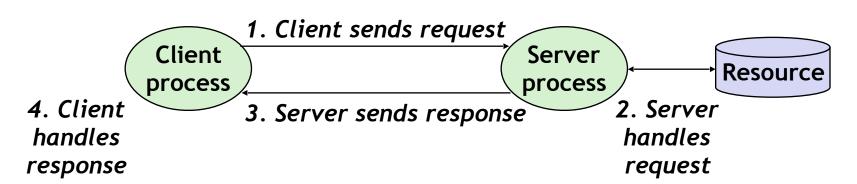
A node (block) is *reachable* if there is a path from any root to that node. Non-reachable nodes are *garbage* (cannot be needed by the application)



Network Programming

+ A Client-Server Transaction

- Many network applications are based on the client-server model:
 - A server process and one or more client processes
 - Server manages some resource
 - Server provides service by manipulating resource for clients
 - Server activated by request from client



Note: clients and servers are processes running on hosts (can be the same or different hosts)

+Computer Networks

- A network is a group of connected systems that are able to communicate in order to exchange data.
- There are many kinds of networks, some examples...
 - LAN (Local Area Network) spans a building or campus
 - *Ethernet* is a prominent example
 - WAN (Wide Area Network) spans country or world
 - Typically high-speed point-to-point telecom lines
- Network devices that originate, route and terminate data are called 'nodes'.
 - Nodes or 'hosts' can be personal computers, phones, servers as well as special networking hardware.

+Computer Networks con't

- Two devices can be said to be 'networked' when one device is able to exchange information with the other.
- An 'internetwork' (internet) is a connected set of networks
 - The Global IP Internet (uppercase "I") is the most famous example of an internet (lowercase "i")
- A 'router' is an networking device that forwards data between networks in an internet.
- A 'link' is the means of connecting one location to another for the purpose of transmitting and receiving data across networks.
 - phone lines, fiberoptic cables, smoke signals, etc...

+Sockets

- What is a socket?
 - To the kernel, a socket is an endpoint of communication
 - To an application, a socket is a file descriptor that lets the application read/write from/to the network
 - All Unix I/O devices, including networks, are modeled as files
- Clients and servers communicate with each other by reading from and writing to socket descriptors



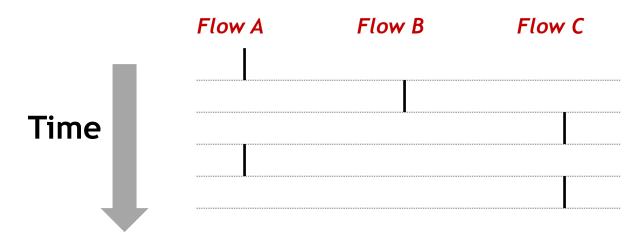
• The main distinction between regular file I/O and socket I/O is how the application "opens" the socket descriptors

+

Concurrent Programming

+Concurrency

- Multiple logical control flows.
- Flows run concurrently if they overlap in time
 - Otherwise, they are sequential
- Examples (running on single core):
 - Concurrent: A & B, A & C
 - Sequential: B & C



+Process Concurrency

- Use fork to launch multiple processes to do work.
 - Hard for them to share data. Must use IPC.
- How to communicate across processes? (inter-process communication or IPC)
 - via sockets
 - via *pipes*
 - via shared memory objects

+Thread-based Concurrency

A thread is...

- a unit of execution, associated with a process.
- the smallest sequence of instructions that can be managed independently by the OS scheduler

Multiple threads can..

- exist within one process
- be executing concurrently
- *share resources* such as memory

+Threads vs. Processes



Similarities

- Each has its own logical control flow
- Each can run concurrently (possibly on different cores)
- Each is context switched

Differences

- Threads share all code and data (except local stacks)
 - Processes do not
- Threads are somewhat less expensive than processes
 - Process control (creating/reaping) 2x as expensive as thread control

+Concurrent Programming is Hard!

- The ease with which threads share data and resources also makes them vulnerable to subtle and baffling errors.
- Classical problem classes of concurrent programs:
 - *Races*: outcome depends on arbitrary scheduling decisions elsewhere in the system
 - Deadlock: improper resource allocation prevents forward progress
 - Livelock / Starvation / Fairness: external events and/or system scheduling decisions can prevent sub-task progress

+Race Example

- What's the expected output on line 11?
 - **2**
- Possible output...
 - 1

```
int numbers [2] = \{ 1, 1 \};
     int sum = 0;
     int main() {
       pthread_t tid;
       pthread_create(&tid,NULL,run,numbers[1]);
       for (int i = 0; i < 1; i++) {
           sum += numbers[i];
       pthread_join(tid, NULL);
10
       printf("sum is %d\n", sum);
11
12
13
     void* run(void* arg) {
14
       int* numbers = (int*) arg;
15
       for (int i = 0; i < 1; i++) {
16
           sum += numbers[i]:
17
18
       return NULL;
19
20
```

+Synchronizing Threads

- Shared variables are sometimes useful but they introduce the possibility of *synchronization* errors.
 - Like the one we saw last time
- How do we prevent such things?
 - We need to make sure that only one thread is mutating shared variables at a time.
 - This is known as *mutual exclusion*
- Moreover, we must protect critical sections.

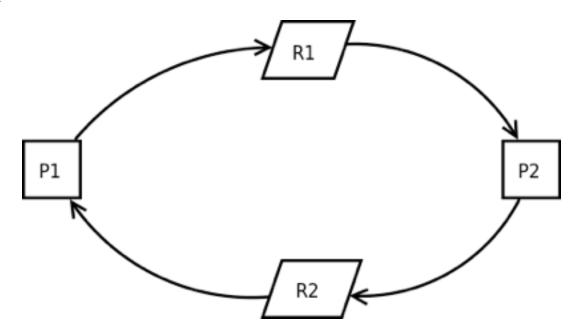
+Mutual Exclusion



- A mutex...
 - is synchronization variable that is used to protect the access to shared variables.
 - surrounds critical sections so that one threads is allowed inside at a time.
- However we have to be careful with these because they can lead to code that performs poorly, or in some cases not at all...

+Deadlock

- Both processes need resources to continue execution.
- P1 requires additional resource R1 and is in possession of resource R2
- P2 requires additional resource R2 and is in possession of R1; neither process can continue.



+Thread Safety

- Functions called from a thread must be thread-safe
- Def: A function is thread-safe iff it will always produce correct results when called repeatedly from multiple concurrent threads
- Classes of thread-unsafe functions:
 - Class 1: Functions that do not protect shared variables
 - Class 2: Functions that keep state across multiple invocations
 - Class 3: Functions that return a pointer to a static variable
 - Class 4: Functions that call thread-unsafe functions ⊙