Name a *value* that you feel is embedded in the C language.

(open-ended survey question)

By “value” we mean an adjective describing the relative worth, merit, or importance of something (*e.g.*, loyalty, kindness), NOT a number or constant.
System Calls, Makefiles
CSE 333 Summer 2023

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Relevant Course Information (1/2)

- Exercise 4 released Monday, due next Monday
  - Read a directory and open/copy text files found there
  - Implement light versions of C std I/O functions using POSIX

- Homework 1 due tomorrow night (7/6)
  - Can submit until Sunday for 2 late day tokens (weekends count as 1 day)
  - After all late day tokens are used, 10% penalties applied as “kindly” as possible on any HWs submitted late

- Homework 2 will be released Friday night (7/7)
  - See Ed post #116 for partner sign-up & matching forms
Quiz 1 released next Monday (7/10)

- Will be administered on Gradescope, open @ 2pm and closes Wednesday @ 11:59pm
- Questions are short-answer, somewhat reflective in nature.
- Be comfortable with learning objectives and memory diagramming.
- We’ve tried to keep the quiz short, should be 30-45 min
  - Please don’t spend 3 hours on this
- Academic Conduct Policy applies to all Quizzes as well
  - Please don’t copy other’s work, do not use Chat-GPT
Lecture Outline

- System Calls (High-Level View)
- Make and Build Tools
- Makefile Basics
- C History
- C++ Preview
OS: Abstraction Provider

- The OS is the “layer below”
  - A module that your program can call (with system calls)
  - Provides a powerful OS API – POSIX, Windows, etc.

File System
- `open()`, `read()`, `write()`, `close()`, ...

Network Stack
- `connect()`, `listen()`, `read()`, `write()`, ...

Virtual Memory
- `brk()``, `shm_open()`, ...

Process Management
- `fork()`, `wait()`, `nice()`, ...

a process running your program
OS: Protection System

- OS isolates process from each other
  - But permits controlled sharing between them
    - Through shared name spaces (e.g., file names)

- OS isolates itself from processes
  - Must prevent processes from accessing the hardware directly

- OS is allowed to access the hardware
  - User-level processes run with the CPU (processor) in unprivileged mode
  - The OS runs with the CPU in privileged mode
  - User-level processes invoke system calls to safely enter the OS

There are special cases where “super-user” permissions granted
System Call Analogy

❖ The OS is a bank manager overseeing safety deposit boxes in the vault
  ▪ Is the only one allowed in the vault and has the keys to the safety deposit boxes

❖ If a client wants to access a deposit box (i.e., add or remove items), they must request that the bank manager do it for them
  ▪ Takes time to locate and travel to box and find the right key
  ▪ Client must wait in the lobby while the bank manager accesses the box – prevents messing with requested box or other boxes
  ▪ Takes time to put box away, return from vault, and let client know that request was fulfilled
System Calls Simplified Overview

❖ The operating system (OS) is a super complicated “program overseer” program for the computer
  ▪ The only software that is directly trusted with hardware access

❖ If a user process wants to access an OS feature, they must invoke a system call
  ▪ A system call involves context switching into the OS/kernel, which has some overhead
  ▪ The OS will handle hardware/special functionality directly (in privileged mode) while user processes wait and don’t touch anything themselves
  ▪ OS will eventually finish, return result to user process, and context switch back
A CPU (thread of execution) is running user-level code in Process A; the CPU is set to \textit{unprivileged mode}. 

**System Call Trace (high-level view)**
System Call Trace (high-level view)

Code in Process A invokes a system call; the hardware then sets the CPU to **privileged mode** and transfers control to the OS, which invokes the appropriate system call handler.
Because the CPU executing the thread that’s in the OS is in privileged mode, it is able to use *privileged instructions* that interact directly with hardware devices like disks.
System Call Trace (high-level view)

Once the OS has finished servicing the system call, which might involve long waits as it interacts with HW, it:

1) Sets the CPU back to unprivileged mode and
2) Returns out of the system call back to the user-level code in Process A.
System Call Trace (high-level view)

The process continues executing whatever code is next after the system call invocation.

Useful reference: CSPP § 8.1–8.3 (the 351 book)
“Library calls” on x86/Linux

❖ A more accurate picture:
   ▪ Consider a typical Linux process
   ▪ Its thread of execution can be in one of several places:
     • In your program’s code
     • In glibc, a shared library containing the C standard library, POSIX, support, and more
     • In the Linux architecture-independent code
     • In Linux x86-64 code
“Library calls” on x86/Linux: Option 1

- Some routines your program invokes may be entirely handled by glibc without involving the kernel
  - e.g., `strcmp()` from `stdio.h`
  - There is some initial overhead when invoking functions in dynamically linked libraries (during loading)
    - But after symbols are resolved, invoking glibc routines is basically as fast as a function call within your program itself!
"Library calls" on x86/Linux: Option 2

- Some routines may be handled by glibc, but they in turn invoke Linux system calls
  - e.g., POSIX wrappers around Linux system calls
    - POSIX readdir() invokes the underlying Linux readdir()
  - e.g., C stdio functions that read and write from files
    - fopen(), fclose(), fprintf() invoke underlying Linux open(), close(), write(), etc.
“Library calls” on x86/Linux: Option 3

- Your program can choose to directly invoke Linux system calls as well
  - Nothing is forcing you to link with glibc and use it
  - But relying on directly-invoked Linux system calls may make your program less portable across UNIX varieties
strace

- A useful Linux utility that shows the sequence of system calls that a process makes:

```
bash$ strace ls 2>&1 | less
execve("/usr/bin/ls", ["ls"], [/* 41 vars */]) = 0
brk(NULL) = 0x15aa000
mmap(NULL, 4096, PROT_READ|PROT_WRITE, MAP_PRIVATE|MAP_ANONYMOUS, -1, 0) = 0x7f03bb741000
access("/etc/ld.so.preload", R_OK) = -1 ENOENT (No such file or directory)
open("/etc/ld.so.cache", O_RDONLY|O_CLOEXEC) = 3
fstat(3, {st_mode=S_IFREG|0644, st_size=126570, ...}) = 0
mmap(NULL, 126570, PROT_READ, MAP_PRIVATE, 3, 0) = 0x7f03bb722000
close(3)
open("/lib64/libselinux.so.1", O_RDONLY|O_CLOEXEC) = 3
read(3, ":177ELF\2\1\1\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\3\0>\0\1\0\0\0\0\300j\0\0\0\0\0"
832) = 832
fstat(3, {st_mode=S_IFREG|0755, st_size=155744, ...}) = 0
mmap(NULL, 2255216, PROT_READ|PROT_EXEC, MAP_PRIVATE|MAP_DENYWRITE, 3, 0x23000) = 0x7f03bb51d000
mprotect(0x7f03bb31e000, 2093056, PROT_NONE) = 0
mmap(0x7f03bb51d000, 8192, PROT_READ|PROT_WRITE, MAP_PRIVATE|MAP_FIXED|MAP_DENYWRITE, 3, 0x23000) = 0x7f03bb51d000
... etc ...
```
Lecture Outline

❖ System Calls (High-Level View)
❖ Make and Build Tools
❖ Makefile Basics
❖ C History
❖ C++ Preview
“Real” Build Process

- On larger projects, you can’t or don’t want to have one big (set of) command(s) that are all run every time you change anything. To do things “smarter,” consider:
  1) It could be worse: If gcc didn’t combine steps for you, you’d need to preprocess, compile, and link on your own (along with anything you used to generate the C files)
  2) Source files could have multiple outputs (e.g., javadoc). You may have to type out the source file name(s) multiple times
  3) You don’t want to have to document the build logic when you distribute source code; make it relatively simple for others to build
  4) You don’t want to recompile everything every time you change something (especially if you have $10^5$-$10^7$ files of source code)

- A script can handle 1-3 (use a variable for filenames for 2), but 4 is trickier
Building Software

❖ Programmers spend a lot of time “building”
  ▪ Creating programs from source code
  ▪ Both programs that they write and other people write

https://xkcd.com/303/
Building Software

- Programmers spend a lot of time “building”
  - Creating programs from source code
  - Both programs that they write and other people write

- Programmers like to automate repetitive tasks
  - Repetitive: gcc -Wall -g -std=c17 -o widget foo.c bar.c baz.c
    - Retype this every time:
    - Use up-arrow or history: (still retype after logout)
    - Have an alias or bash script:
    - Have a Makefile: (you’re ahead of us)
**make**

- **make** is a classic program for controlling what gets (re)compiled and how
  - Many other such programs exist (*e.g.*, **ant**, **maven**, IDE “projects”)

- **make** has tons of fancy features, but only two basic ideas:
  1. Scripts for executing commands
  2. Dependencies for avoiding unnecessary work

- To avoid “just teaching **make** features” (boring and narrow), let’s focus more on the concepts...
Recompilation Management

- The “theory” behind avoiding unnecessary compilation is a dependency dag (directed, acyclic graph)

  1. To create a target $t$, you need sources $s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n$ and a command $c$ that directly or indirectly uses the sources
     - If $t$ is newer than every source (file-modification times), assume there is no reason to rebuild it
     - Recursive building: if some source $s_i$ is itself a target for some other sources, see if it needs to be rebuilt...
     - Cycles “make no sense”!
Theory Applied to C

- Compiling a `.c` creates a `.o` — the `.o` depends on the `.c` and all included files (.h, recursively/transitively)
Theory Applied to C

- Compiling a `.c` creates a `.o` – the `.o` depends on the `.c` and all included files (.h, recursively/transitively)
- An archive (library, .a) depends on included .o files
Theory Applied to C

- Compiling a `.c` creates a `.o` – the `.o` depends on the `.c` and all included files (`.h`, recursively/transitively)
- An archive (library, `.a`) depends on included `.o` files
- Creating an executable (“linking”) depends on `.o` files and archives
  - Archives linked by `-L<path> -l<name>`
    (e.g., `-L. -lfoo` to get `libfoo.a` from current directory)
Theory Applied to C

❖ If one `.c` file changes, just need to recreate one `.o` file, maybe a library, and re-link

❖ If a `.h` file changes, may need to rebuild more

❖ Many more possibilities!
Lecture Outline

❖ System Calls (High-Level View)
❖ Make and Build Tools
❖ Makefile Basics
❖ C History
❖ C++ Preview
make Basics

- A makefile contains a bunch of triples:

  \[ \text{target: sources → command} \]

  - Colon after target is \textit{required}
  - Command lines must start with a \textbf{TAB}, NOT SPACES
  - Multiple commands for same target are executed \textit{in order}
    - Can split commands over multiple lines by ending lines with `\`

- Example: `foo.o: foo.c foo.h bar.h
  gcc -Wall -o foo.o -c foo.c`
Using make

$ make -f <makefileName> target

❖ Defaults: $ make
  ▪ If no -f specified, use a file named Makefile in current dir
  ▪ If no target specified, will use the first one in the file
  ▪ Will interpret commands in your default shell
    • Set SHELL variable in makefile to ensure

❖ Target execution:
  ▪ Check each source in the source list:
    • If the source is a target in the makefile, then process it recursively
    • If some source does not exist, then error
    • If any source is newer than the target (or target does not exist), run command (presumably to update the target)
“Phony” Targets

- A make target whose command does not create a file of the target’s name (*i.e.*, a “recipe”)
  - As long as target file doesn’t exist, the command(s) will be executed because the target must be “remade”

- *e.g.*, target `clean` is a convention to remove generated files to “start over” from just the source

  ```make
  clean:
  rm foo.o bar.o baz.o widget *~
  ```

- *e.g.*, target `all` is a convention to build all “final products” in the makefile
  - Lists all of the “final products” as sources
“all” Example

```
all: prog B.class someLib.a
     # notice no commands this time

prog: foo.o bar.o main.o
     gcc -o prog foo.o bar.o main.o

B.class: B.java
     javac B.java

someLib.a: foo.o baz.o
     ar r foo.o baz.o

foo.o: foo.c foo.h header1.h header2.h
     gcc -c -Wall foo.c

# similar targets for bar.o, main.o, baz.o, etc...
```
**make Variables**

- You can define variables in a makefile:
  - All values are strings of text, no “types”
  - Variable names are case-sensitive and can’t contain ‘:’, ‘#’, ‘=’, or whitespace

- **Example:**
  ```make
  CC = gcc
  CFLAGS = -Wall -std=c17
  OBJFILES = foo.o bar.o baz.o
  widget: $(OBJFILES)
  $(CC) $(CFLAGS) -o widget $(OBJFILES)
  ```

- **Advantages:**
  - Easy to change things (especially in multiple commands)
    - It’s common to use variables to hold lists of filenames
  - Can also specify/overwrite variables on the command line:
    (e.g., make CC=clang CFLAGS=-g)
Makefile Writing Tips

❖ **When creating a Makefile, first draw the dependencies!!!!**

❖ **C Dependency Rules:**
  ▪ `.c` and `.h` files are never targets, only sources.
  ▪ Each `.c` file will be compiled into a corresponding `.o` file
    • Header files will be implicitly used via `#include`
  ▪ Executables will typically be built from one or more `.o` file

❖ **Good Conventions:**
  ▪ Include a `clean` rule
  ▪ If you have more than one “final target,” include an `all` rule
  ▪ The first/top target should be your singular “final target” or `all`
Writing a Makefile Example

❖ “talk” program (find files on web with lecture slides)

```
main.c speak.h speak.c shout.h shout.c
```

```
main.o

#include "speak.h"
#include "shout.h"

int main(int argc, char** argv) {...

```

```
speak.o

#include "speak.h"
...

```

```
shout.o

#include "speak.h"
#include "shout.h"
...

```

CFLAGS:
-g -Wall -std=c17
Writing a Makefile Example

❖ “talk” program (find files on web with lecture slides)

target: sources command

main.c speak.h speak.c shout.h shout.c

main.o speak.o shout.o
talk

talk: main.o speak.o shout.o
gcc $(CFLAGS) -o talk main.o speak.o shout.o

main.o: main.c speak.h shout.h
 gcc $(CFLAGS) -c main.c

speak.o: speak.c speak.h
 gcc $(CFLAGS) -c speak.c

shout.o: shout.c speak.h shout.h
 gcc $(CFLAGS) -c shout.c

clean:
 rm talk *.o
Revenge of the Funny Characters

- **Special variables:**
  - `$@` for target name
  - `$^` for all sources
  - `$<$` for left-most source
  - Lots more! – see the documentation

- **Examples:**

  ```
  # CC and CFLAGS defined above
  widget:  foo.o bar.o
          $(CC) $(CFLAGS) -o $@ $^ 
  foo.o:  foo.c foo.h bar.h
          $(CC) $(CFLAGS) -c $<
  ```

And more...

- There are a lot of “built-in” rules – see documentation
- There are “suffix” rules and “pattern” rules
  - Example: 
    ```
    %.class: %.java
    javac $<  # we need the $< here
    ```
- Remember that you can put *any* shell command – even whole scripts!
- You can repeat target names to add more dependencies
- Often this stuff is more useful for reading makefiles than writing your own (until some day...)
Lecture Outline

❖ System Calls (High-Level View)
❖ Make and Build Tools
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❖ C++ Preview
Name a value that you feel is embedded in the C language.
Development of the C Language

- Created in 1972
  - BCPL → B → C
  - Designed specifically as a system programming language for Unix
    - Unix was rewritten entirely in C (Version 4 in 1973)
- “Standardized” in 1978 with release of K&R Ed. 1
  - From initial creation, developed in terms of portability and type safety
  - Non-portable portion of the Unix C library was the basis for the POSIX standard via IEEE
Development of the C Language

❖ Development Context:
  ▪ Developed for the PDP-7/PDP-11
    • Very limited memory available for program
  ▪ Improvements over B: data typing, performance, byte addressibility
  ▪ Developed in the context of operating system innovations (Multics, Unix)
    • “Particularly oriented towards system programming, are small and compactly described, and are amenable to translation by simple compilers.”
    • “By design, C provides constructs that map efficiently to typical machine instructions. It has found lasting use in applications previously coded in assembly language.”

❖ Who used computers and programming at the time?
Development of the C Language

❖ Credits:

- **Dennis Ritchie** designed C
- **Ken Thompson** designed B and, with Ritchie, were the primary architects of UNIX (in assembly)
- **Brian Kernighan** helped Ritchie write K&R, the first “standardization” of the C language

Principles of C

❖ Some commonly-held contemporary views:
  ▪ “Since C is relatively small, it can be described in small space and learned quickly.”
  ▪ “Shows what’s really happening.”
  ▪ “Close to the machine/hardware.”
  ▪ “Only the bare essentials.”
  ▪ “No one to help you.”
  ▪ “You’re on your own.”
  ▪ “I know what I’m doing, get out of my way.”
Principles of C – Embedded Values

❖ Some commonly-held contemporary views:
  ▪ “Since C is relatively small, it can be described in small space and learned quickly.”
  ▪ “Shows what’s really happening.”
  ▪ “Close to the machine/hardware.”
  ▪ “Only the bare essentials.”
  ▪ “No one to help you.”
  ▪ “You’re on your own.”
  ▪ “I know what I’m doing, get out of my way.”

  Minimalistic

  Rugged

  Individualistic
Lecture Outline

❖ System Calls (High-Level View)
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Programming Terminology Review

❖ **Encapsulation and Abstraction:** Hiding implementation details (restricting access) and associating behaviors (methods) with data

❖ **Polymorphism:** The provision of a single interface to entities of different types

❖ **Generics:** Algorithms written in terms of types *to-be-specified-later*
Transitioning to C++

- **Support for classes and objects!**
  - Polymorphism and inheritance
- **Templates** facilitate generic data types
- **Specialized casts** to increase type safety
- **Explicit namespaces** allow for duplicate names without collisions
- **A huge C++ standard library**
  - Including generic containers & algorithms, a string class, streams
- **Exceptions** for error handling
  - Except not widely used...
How to Think About C++

Set of styles and ways to use C++

Style guides

Good styles and robust engineering practices

Set of styles and ways to use C
BONUS SLIDES

A quick walkthrough of the system call details on an IA32 (i.e., 32-bit x86) Linux system that highlights the transitions in privilege mode and where different pieces of code are accessed.

These slides expand on material covered today but won’t be needed for CSE333; they become relevant if you take CSE451 and need to implement system calls.
Details on x86/Linux

- Let’s walk through how a Linux system call actually works
  - We’ll assume 32-bit x86 using the modern SYSENTER / SYSEXIT x86 instructions
    - x86-64 code is similar, though details always change over time, so take this as an example – not a debugging guide
System Calls on x86/Linux

Remember our process address space picture?

- Let’s add some details:

  ![Diagram of process address space]
System Calls on x86/Linux

Process is executing your program code

- **SP** Stack
- **IP** Program code

0x00000000

0xFFFFFFFF

- **Linux-gate.so**
- **Linux kernel**
- **Shared Libraries**
- **Heap (malloc/free)**
- **Read/Write Segment .data, .bss**
- **Read-Only Segment .text, .rodata**

Your program

- **C standard library**
- **POSIX**
- **glibc**

- **architecture-independent code**
- **architecture-dependent code**

- **unpriv**

- **CPU**

- **Linux kernel**
System Calls on x86/Linux

Process calls into a glibc function

- *e.g.*, `fopen()`
- We’ll ignore the messy details of loading/linking shared libraries
System Calls on x86/Linux

glibc begins the process of invoking a Linux system call

- glibc’s \texttt{fopen()} likely invokes Linux’s \texttt{open()} system call
- Puts the system call # and arguments into registers
- Uses the \texttt{call} x86 instruction to call into the routine \_\_kernel\_vsyscall located in linux-gate.so
**System Calls on x86/Linux**

**linux-gate.so is a vdso**
- A virtual dynamically-linked shared object
- Is a kernel-provided shared library that is plunked into a process’ address space
- Provides the intricate machine code needed to trigger a system call (details not important)

![Diagram of system calls and memory layout]
System Calls on x86/Linux

`linux-gate.so` eventually invokes the `SYSENTER` x86 instruction

- **SYSENTER** is x86’s “fast system call” instruction
  - Causes the CPU to raise its privilege level
  - Traps into the Linux kernel by changing the SP, IP to a previously-determined location
  - Changes some segmentation-related registers (see CSE451)
System Calls on x86/Linux

The kernel begins executing code at the `SYSENTER` entry point

- Is in the architecture-dependent part of Linux
- It’s job is to:
  - Look up the system call number in a system call dispatch table
  - Call into the address stored in that table entry; this is Linux’s system call handler
    - For `open()` , the handler is named `sys_open`, and is system call #5
System Calls on x86/Linux

The system call handler executes:

- What it does is system-call specific
- It may take a long time to execute, especially if it has to interact with hardware
  - Linux may choose to context switch the CPU to a different runnable process

0xFFFFF000

\[\text{linux-gate.so} \]

\[\text{kernel stack} \]

\[\text{Stack} \]

\[\text{Shared Libraries} \]

\[\text{Heap (malloc/free)} \]

\[\text{Read/Write Segment .data, .bss} \]

\[\text{Read-Only Segment .text, .rodata} \]

0x00000000

Linux kernel

Your program

C standard library

POSIX

glibc

architecture-independent code

architecture-dependent code

Linux kernel

CPU
System Calls on x86/Linux

Eventually, the system call handler finishes

- Returns back to the system call entry point
  - Places the system call’s return value in the appropriate register
  - Calls `SYSEXIT` to return to the user-level code

```
0xFFFFFFFF
```

```
linux-gate.so
```

```
kernel stack
```

```
Stack
```

```
Shared Libraries
```

```
Heap (malloc/free)
```

```
Read/Write Segment .data, .bss
```

```
Read-Only Segment .text, .rodata
```

```
0x00000000
```

Your program

```
C standard library
```

```
POSIX
glibc
```

```
architecture-independent code
```

```
architecture-dependent code
```

```
Linux kernel
```

```
PRIV
```

```
CPU
```

```
SP
```

```
IP
```

```
X86/Linux
```

```
Eventually, the system call handler finishes
```

- Returns back to the system call entry point
  - Places the system call’s return value in the appropriate register
  - Calls `SYSEXIT` to return to the user-level code
**System Calls on x86/Linux**

**SYSEXIT** transitions the processor back to user-mode code:

- Restores the IP, SP to user-land values
- Sets the CPU back to unprivileged mode
- Changes some segmentation-related registers (see CSE451)
- Returns the processor back to glibc

![Diagram of system calls and memory management on x86/Linux](image-url)
**System Calls on x86/Linux**

**glibc continues to execute**

- Might execute more system calls
- Eventually returns back to your program code

---

**Diagram:**

- **CPU**: unpriv
- **Linux kernel**: architecture-independent code, architecture-dependent code
- **C standard library**: POSIX
- **glibc**: Linux - gate.so
- **Kernel stack**: SP, IP
- **Heap (malloc/free)**
- **Read/Write Segment**: .data, .bss
- **Read-Only Segment**: .text, .rodata
- **Stack**
- **Shared Libraries**
- **Your program**

---

**Notes:**

- Might execute more system calls
- Eventually returns back to your program code