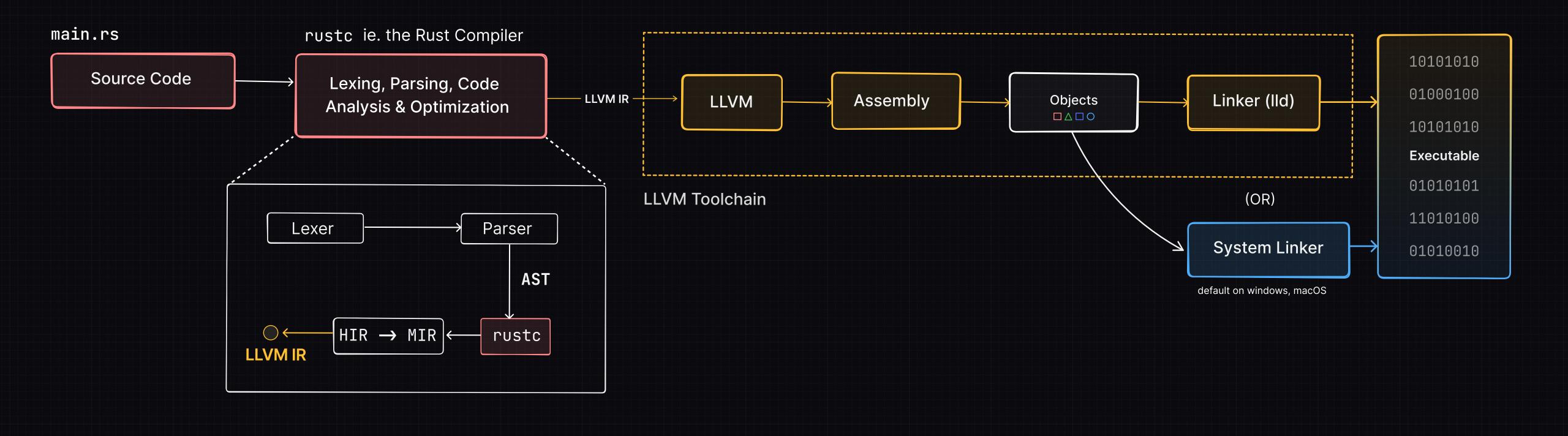
Rust Unlinked Compiler, Symbols, Linkers & Static Libraries



ABOUT ME

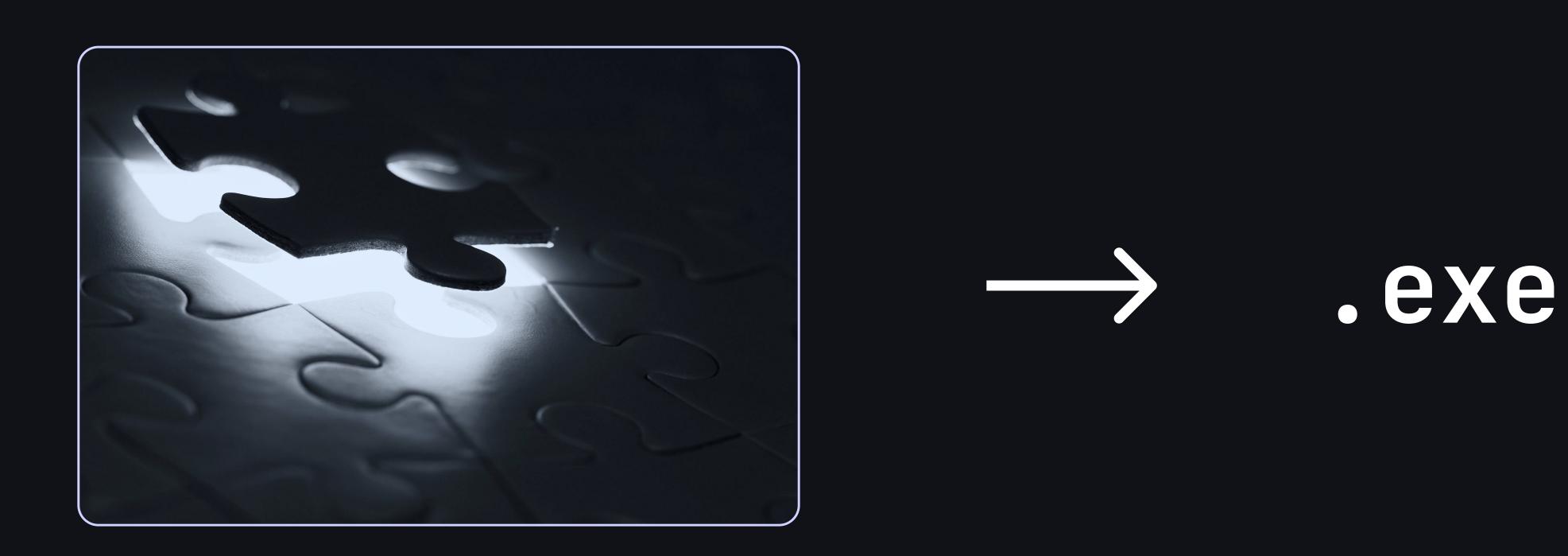
- Working on M365 Core at Microsoft
- Tinkering with Rust since 2020
- Lately, I've been into reading about databases, systems programming languages, and distributed systems
- @shrirambalaji everywhere X (?) in

AGENDA

- Understanding Linking
- Rust Compilation A High Level Overview
- What's in an Object File? Can we link them?
- ELF The Executable and Linkable Format
- Symbols, Symbol Tables and how to visualize them?
- staticlib to the rescue
- Cargo Build Script for linking object files

Understanding Linking

Linking involves combining object files into an executable or shared library. It's like putting together puzzle pieces to create a working program.



Linking involves combining object files into an executable or shared library. It's like putting together puzzle pieces to create a working program.



-> ./program

Linking does the magic of **Symbol Resolution**, where the linker matches variable and function names (ie. symbols) to their specific memory addresses, making sure everything fits together.





Why is understanding Linking necessary?

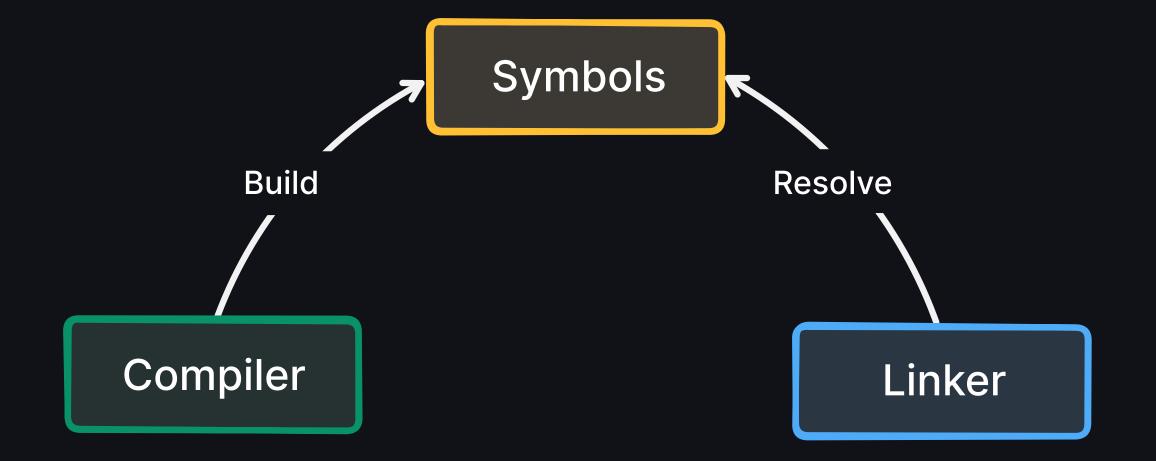
Linking time is often a big part of compilation time.

In large Rust projects, <u>roughly half</u> of the time could be spent in the linker.

COMPILATION

Phases of Compilation

- a compiler compiles source files into object files (.o files)
- then, a linker takes all object files and combines them into a single executable or shared library file.



Rust >> Static Linking

STATIC LINKING

All the necessary dependencies are compiled and linked in the final executable binary **statically**. This enables easier distribution, but the tradeoff being bigger executables.

DYNAMIC LINKING

Dynamic linking allows a program to load external libraries / shared libraries into memory and use their functionalities at runtime, rather than at compile time.

It is **crucial** to understand a little about the stages of rust compilation, *before* we get to linking.

Disclaimer: I'm not a rustc compiler dev, rather just someone curious about it

Simplified

- *presented linearly for clarity

*actual implementation is query based

Source Code

```
main.rs
```

```
fn main() {
  println!("Hello, world!");
}
```

rustc ie. the Rust Compiler

Source Code

Lexing, Parsing, Code Analysis & Optimization

main.rs

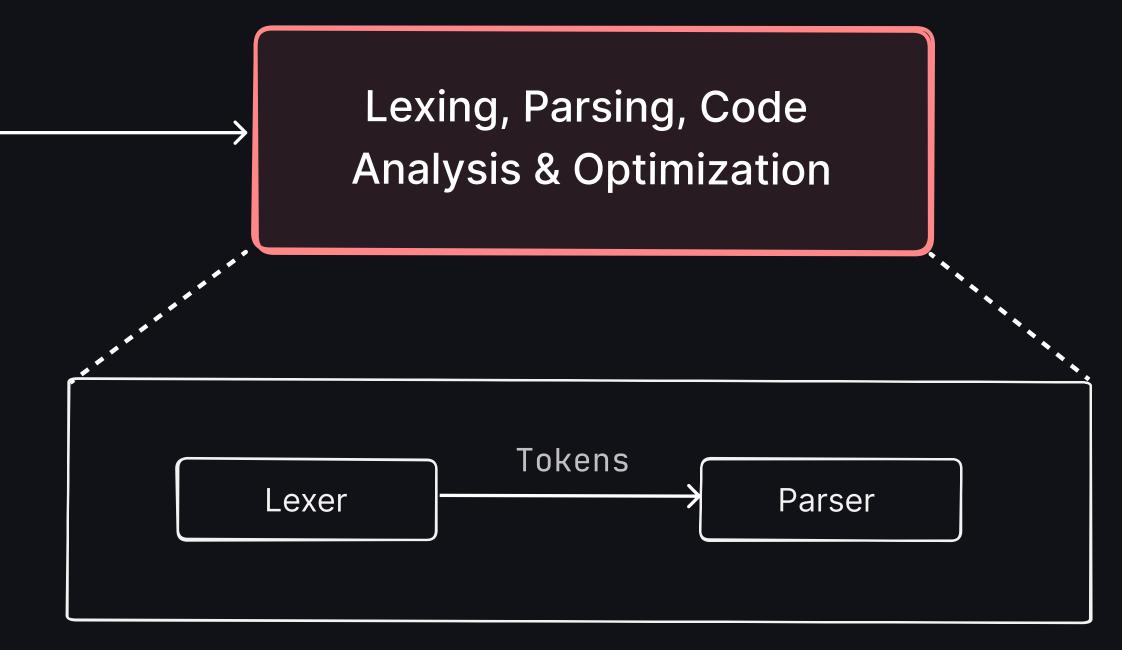
```
fn main() {
  println!("Hello, world!");
}
```

rustc ie. the Rust Compiler

Source Code

main.rs

```
fn main() {
  println!("Hello, world!");
}
```



rustc_lexer + rustc_parse::lexer converts source
code &str into parse-able token types for the

rustc ie. the Rust Compiler

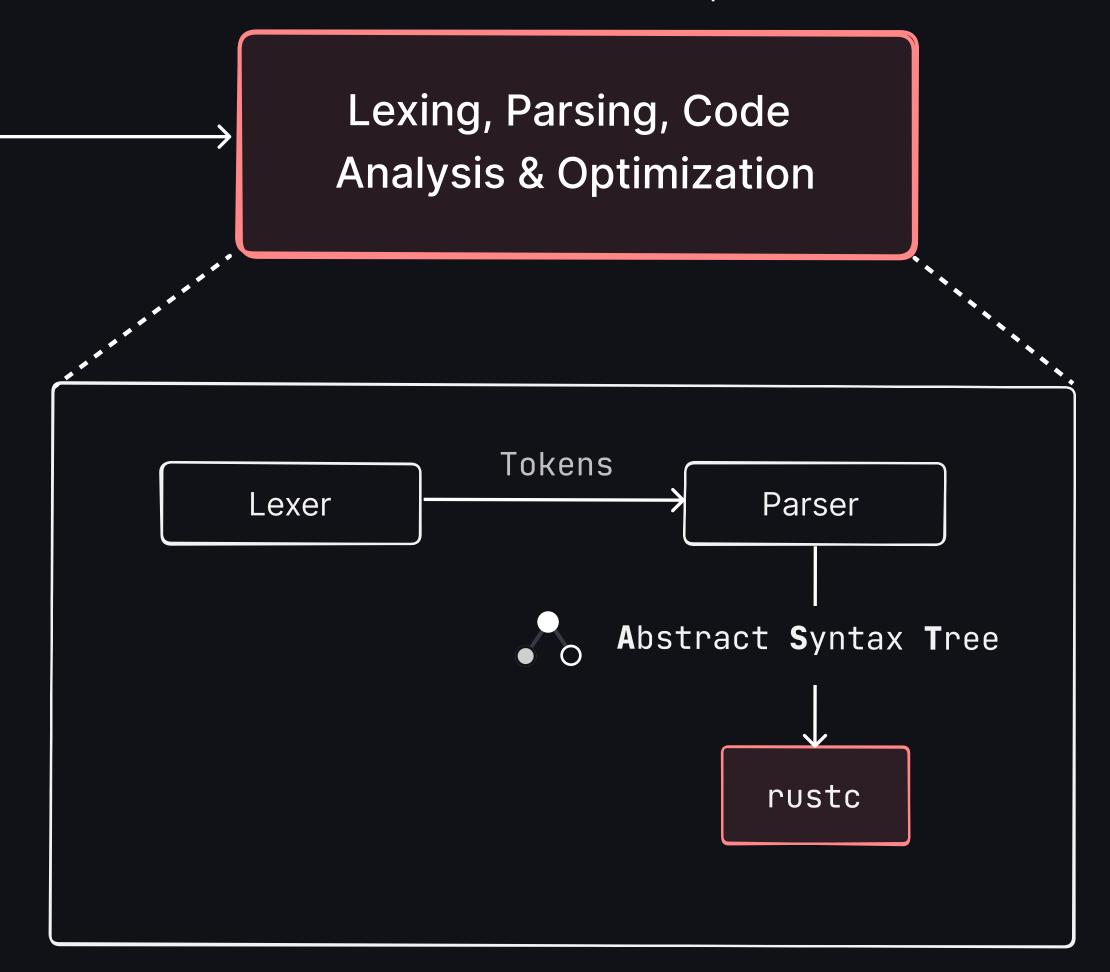
Source Code

main.rs

```
fn main() {
  println!("Hello, world!");
}
```

Parser (rustc_parse:: parser) takes the streams of tokens and turns them into a structured form which is easier for the compiler to work with - an Abstract Syntax Tree (AST).

AST mirrors the structure of a Rust program in-memory, using a Span to link a particular AST node back to its source text.



Code Analysis & Optimization

rustc ie. the Rust Compiler

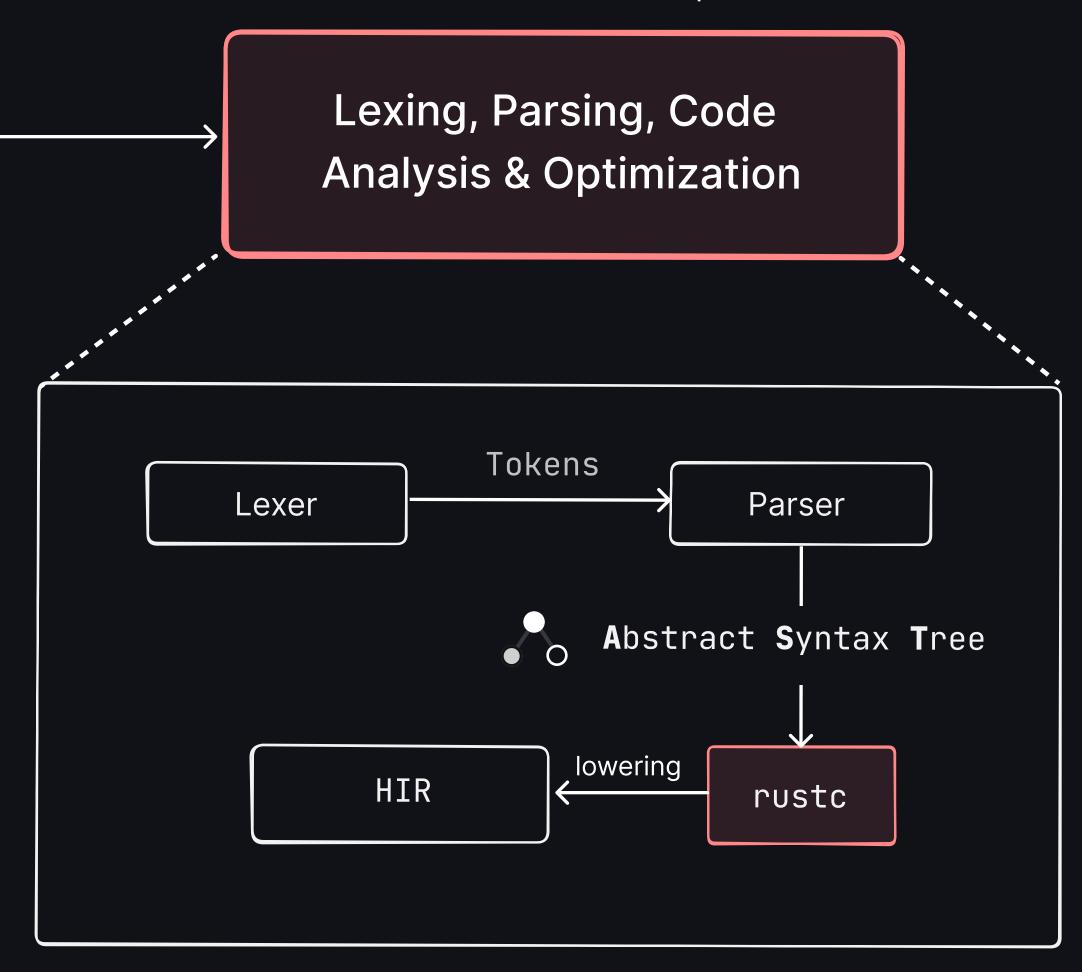
Source Code

main.rs

```
fn main() {
  println!("Hello, world!");
}
```

AST is further lowered into a High Level Intermediate Representation (HIR). During lowering - rustc expands macros, de-sugars syntax (for eg. if let \rightarrow match), performs name resolution to resolve import and macro names. then, it does:

- Type inference → automatically deducing the types of variables and expressions
- Trait Solving → Finding the correct implementation of a trait for a type



Code Analysis & Optimization

rustc ie. the Rust Compiler

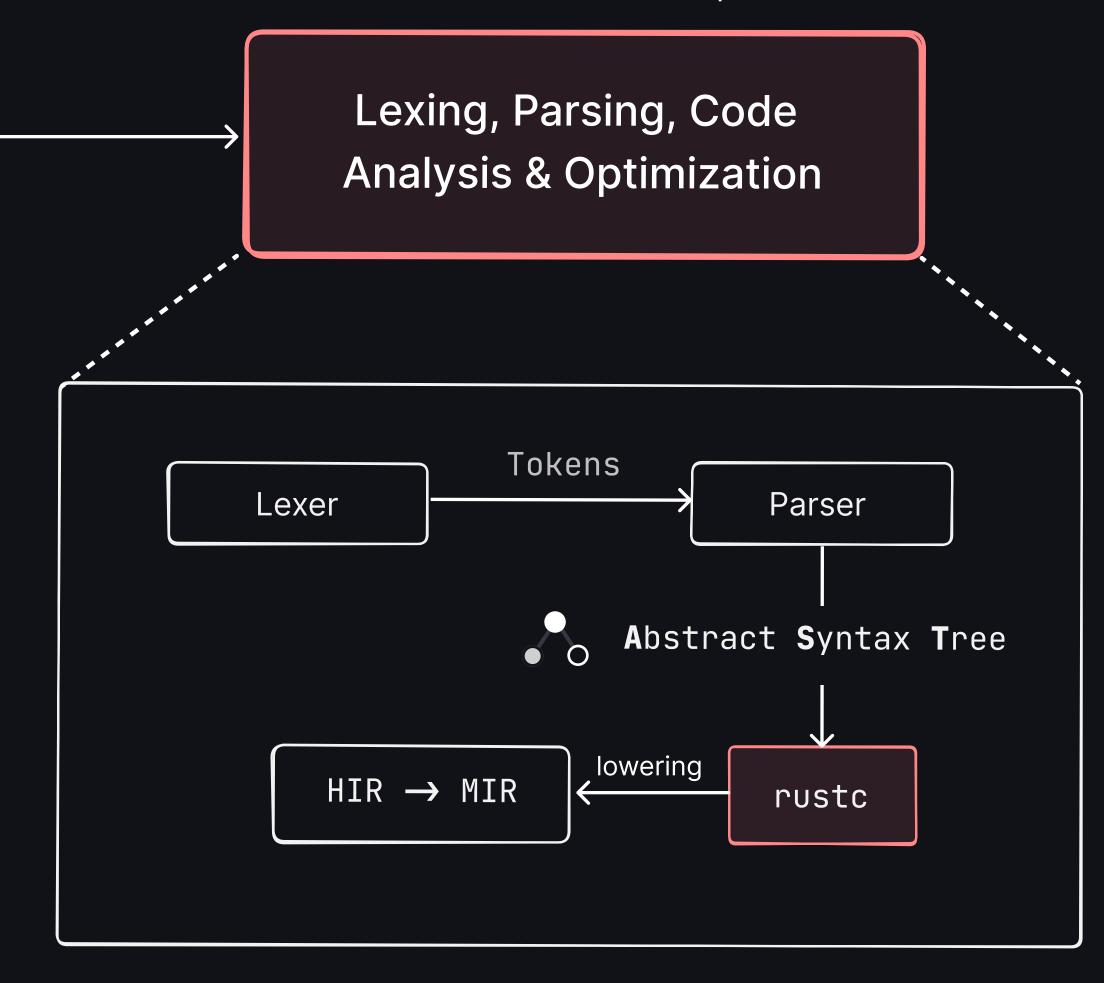
Source Code

main.rs

```
fn main() {
  println!("Hello, world!");
}
```

The Compiler then runs **Type Checking** on the **HIR**, and is lowered into a **Typed HIR** (**THIR**) and then even further into **M**id-Level **IR** (**MIR**). Borrow Checking happens in this phase and along with that **rustc** does operator lowering, monomorphization and many more optimizations *after* borrow checking.

Monomorphization is the fancy term for generating specialized code for each type that a generic function is called with.



Preparing for Code Generation

rustc ie. the Rust Compiler

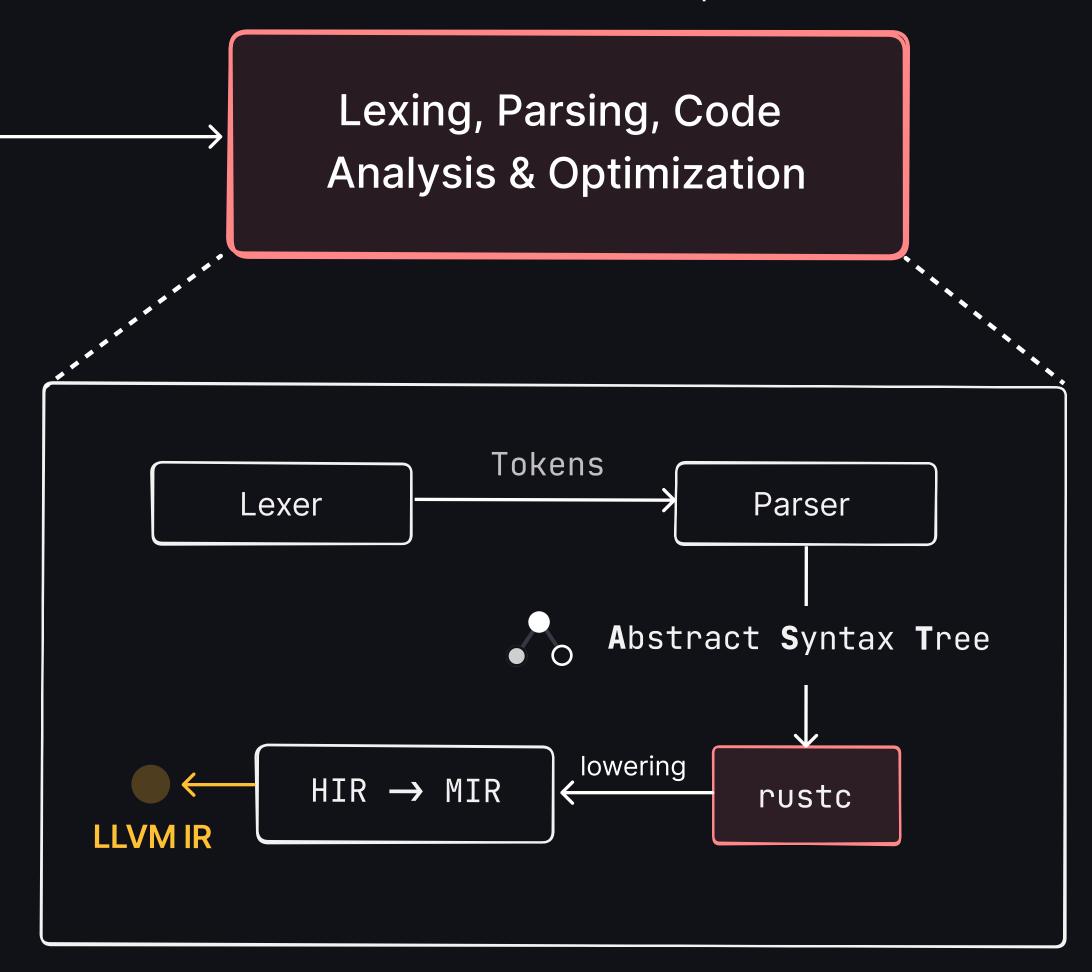
Source Code

main.rs

```
fn main() {
  println!("Hello, world!");
}
```

After all the optimizations, the MIR needs to get ready for code generation. By default rustc uses LLVM for codegen, and hence the MIR is converted to **LLVM I**ntermediate **R**epresentation (LLVM IR), which is what the LLVM Toolchain works with.

LLVM project contains a modular, reusable & pluggable compiler backend used by many compiler projects, including the clang C compiler and rustc.



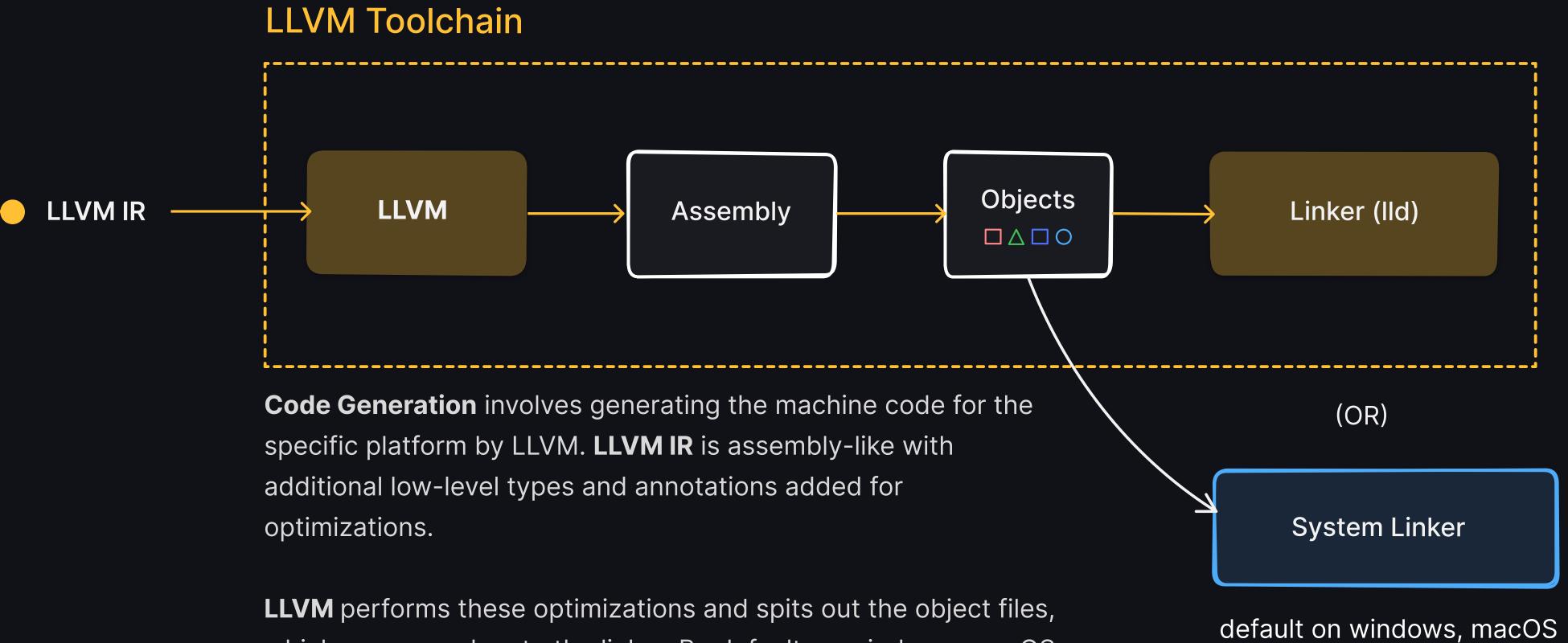




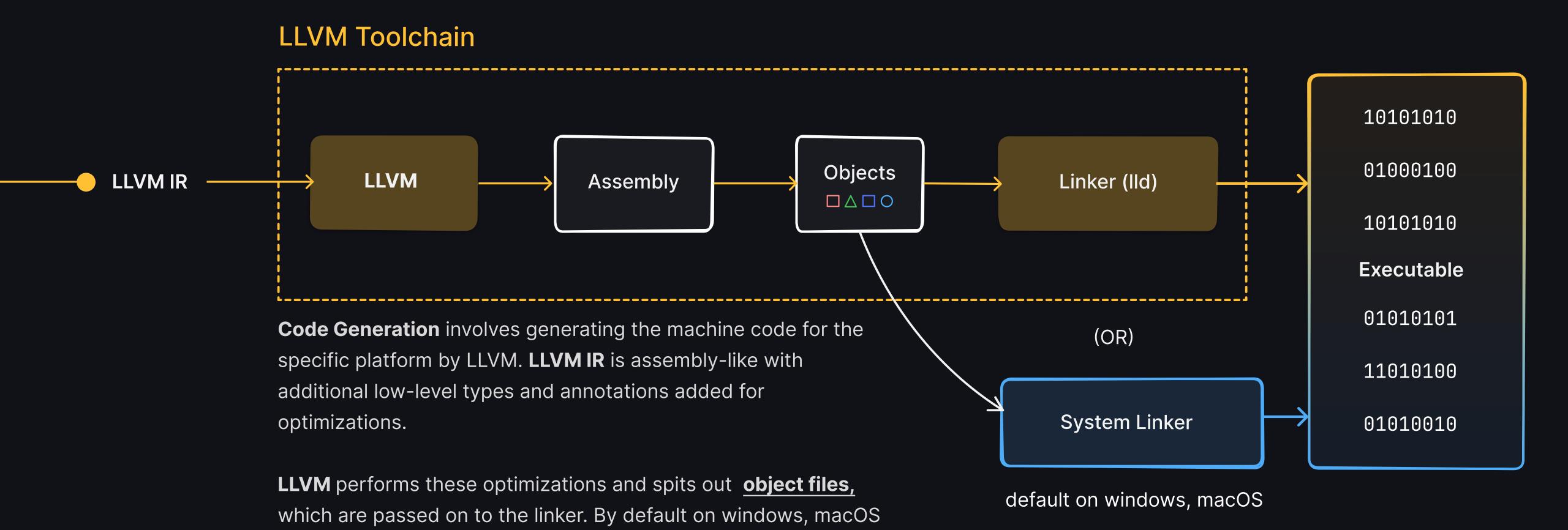


Code Generation involves generating the machine code for the specific platform by LLVM. **LLVM IR** is assembly-like with additional low-level types and annotations added for optimizations.

LLVM performs these optimizations and spits out the object files, which are passed on to the linker.



which are passed on to the linker. By default on windows, macOS they are passed to system's linker. On linux, as of May 2024 it's passed onto rust-lld in nightly builds.



they are passed to system's linker. On linux, as of May 2024 it's

the object files to return an executable.

passed onto rust-lld in nightly builds. The linker then links together

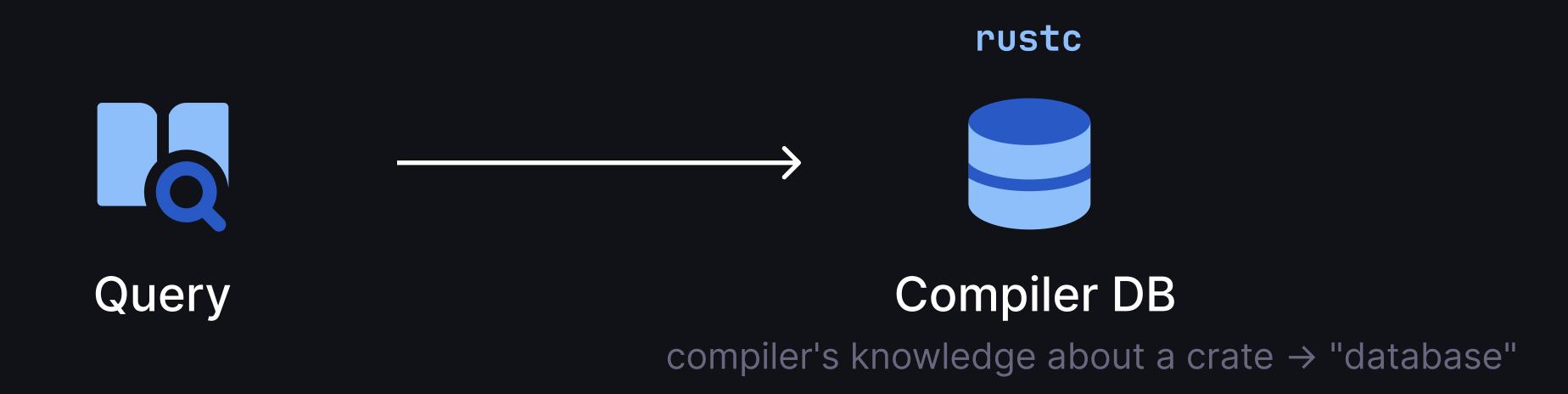
What does query based compilation look like in rustc?

Demand Driven Compilation with Queries



Query

Demand Driven Compilation with Queries



Demand Driven Compilation with Queries



Every Step from earlier is modeled as a "Query"

Let's look at a query from the "Trait Solving" Step

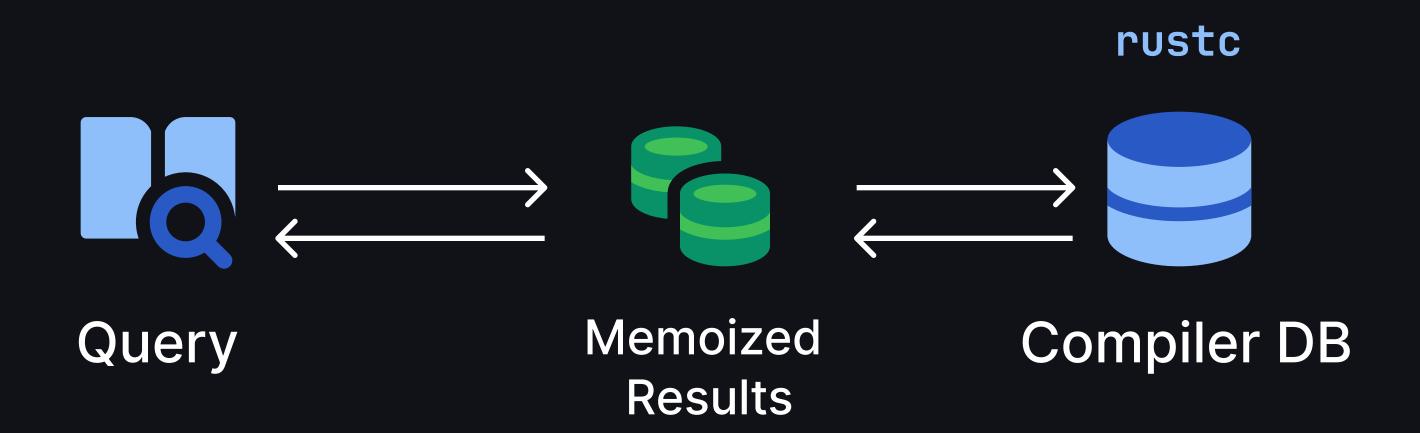
Demand Driven Compilation with Queries

```
/// Given a crate and a trait, look up all impls of that trait in the crate.
/// Return `(impl_id, self_ty)`.
query implementations_of_trait(key: (CrateNum, DefId)) → &'tcx [(DefId, Option<SimplifiedType>)] {
    desc { "looking up implementations of a trait in a crate" }
    separate_provide_extern
}
```

Demand Driven Compilation with Queries

```
Given a crate and a trait, look up all impls of that trait in the crate.
/// Return `(impl_id, self_ty)`.
query implementations_of_trait(key: (CrateNum, DefId)) \rightarrow &'tcx [ ... ]
                                                                query modifiers
                                                         result type
                                     query key type
          query name
keyword
```

Demand Driven Compilation with Queries

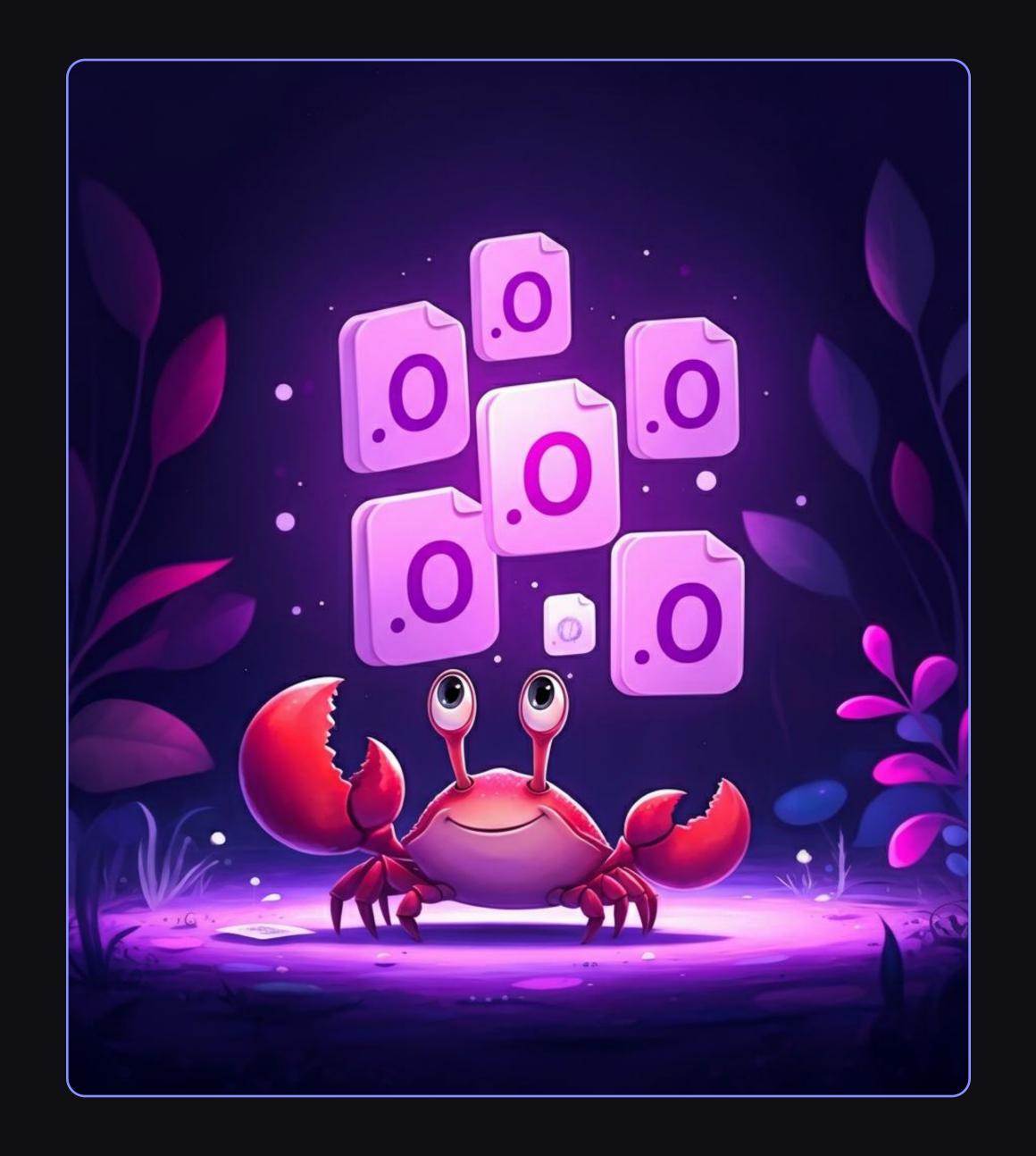


*Memoization enables incremental compilation, and faster builds

Enough about Compilation, Back to Linking §§

You may have looked at .o files in the past and wondered . . .

What's in these . o files?



"An **object file** contains machine code or bytecode, as well as other data and metadata, generated by a compiler or assembler from source code during the compilation or assembly process. The machine code that is generated is known as object code."

source: Wikipedia

If it's just machine code, can we link them ourselves?



Let's understand with an example

```
#![no_main]
#[no_mangle]
pub static mut Global: i32 = 5;
#[no_mangle]
pub fn foo() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 10;
```

BAR.RS

```
#![no_main]
extern "C" {
    static mut Global: i32;
#[no_mangle]
pub extern "C" fn bar() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 20;
```

importing a Global variable from foo.rs in bar.rs and update it's value to 20.

```
#![no_main]
```

```
#[no_mangle]
pub static mut Global: i32 = 5;

#[no_mangle]
pub fn foo() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 10;
    }
}
```

The #! [no_main] attribute tells the compiler that there is no main function, and effectively not to throw a compiler error when it doesn't find one.

```
#![no_main]
extern "C" {
    static mut Global: i32;
#[no_mangle]
pub extern "C" fn bar() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 20;
```

```
#![no_main]
#[no_mangle]
pub static mut Global: i32 = 5;
#[no_mangle]
pub fn foo() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 10;
```

The #[no_mangle] attribute disables mangling.
When Rust code is compiled, identifiers are
"mangled" ie. transformed into a different name.

```
#![no_main]
extern "C" {
    static mut Global: i32;
#[no_mangle]
pub extern "C" fn bar() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 20;
```

```
#![no_main]
#[no_mangle]
pub static mut Global: i32 = 5;
#[no_mangle]
pub fn foo() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 10;
```

for eg. Global variable gets mangled to __ZN11foo6Global17ha2a12041c4e557c5E. This is done to avoid naming conflicts when linking with other libraries.

```
#![no_main]
extern "C" {
    static mut Global: i32;
#[no_mangle]
pub extern "C" fn bar() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 20;
```

```
#![no_main]
#[no_mangle]
pub static mut Global: i32 = 5;
#[no_mangle]
pub fn foo() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 10;
```

however, we disable it with #[no_mangle] so that the symbol name is preserved, and can be easily linked by name.

```
#![no_main]
extern "C" {
    static mut Global: i32;
#[no_mangle]
pub extern "C" fn bar() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 20;
```

```
#![no_main]
#[no_mangle]
pub static mut Global: i32 = 5;
#[no_mangle]
pub fn foo() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 10;
```

```
#![no_main]
extern "C" {
    static mut Global: i32;
#[no_mangle]
pub extern "C" fn bar() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 20;
```

```
#![no_main]
#[no_mangle]
pub static mut Global = i32 = 5;-
#[no_mangle]
pub fn foo() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 10;
```

```
#![no_main]
extern "C" {
     static mut Global: i32;
#[no_mangle]
 pub extern "C" fn bar() {
     unsafe {
         Global = 20;
```

```
#![no_main]
#[no_mangle]
pub static mut Global = i32 = 5;-
#[no_mangle]
pub fn foo() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 10;
```

BAR.RS

```
#![no_main]
extern "C" {
     static mut Global: i32;
#[no_mangle]
 pub extern "C" fn bar() {
     unsafe {
         Global = 20;
```

The extern "C" block tells the compiler that Global is defined elsewhere in a foreign library.

```
#![no_main]
#[no_mangle]
pub static mut Global = i32 = 5;-
#[no_mangle]
pub fn foo() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 10;
```

BAR.RS

```
#![no_main]
extern "C" {
     static mut Global: i32;
#[no_mangle]
 pub extern "C" fn bar() {
     unsafe {
         Global = 20;
```

extern "C" doesn't mean we are inter-operating with C, but rather using the platform's C ABI (Application Binary Interface).

```
#![no_main]
#[no_mangle]
pub static mut Global = i32 = 5;-
#[no_mangle]
pub fn foo() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 10;
```

BAR.RS

```
#![no_main]
extern "C" {
     static mut Global: i32;
#[no_mangle]
 pub extern "C" fn bar() {
     unsafe {
         Global = 20;
```

bar.rs assumes that a variable declaration for Global, is present in a foreign library.

```
#![no_main]
#[no_mangle]
pub static mut Global: i32 = 5;
#[no_mangle]
pub fn foo() {
   unsafe {
        Global = 10;
```

This block is unsafe because we are updating a global static mutable.

```
#![no_main]
extern "C" {
    static mut Global: i32;
#[no_mangle]
pub extern "C" fn bar() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 20;
```

```
#![no_main]
#[no_mangle]
pub static mut Global: i32 = 5;
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pub fn foo() {
    unsafe {
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```

BAR.RS

```
#![no_main]
extern "C" {
    static mut Global: i32;
#[no_mangle]
pub extern "C" fn bar() {
    unsafe {
        Global = 20;
```

This block is **unsafe** because Rust cannot guarantee safety in FFI calls. We are trying to mutate a global static variable imported from a library, which cannot be memory-safe.

Let's compile and get those object files!

But, wait since we want to try manually linking - let's **not** use cargo for now

Compiling & Emitting Object Files

```
$ rustc --emit=obj src/foo.rs && rustc --emit=obj src/bar.rs
```

A **symbol** in a symbol table refers to an identifier, such as a variable name or function name, that is stored in a data structure called a **symbol table**.

Symbols are stored in sections of the object file in a specific format - ELF (Executable and Linkable Format) on Unix-like systems. On macOS, it's Mach-O (Mach Object) but similar to ELF. On Windows, it's the COFF (Common Object File Format)

Visualizing Symbols - nm

```
$ nm foo.o
0000000000000000 D _Global
00000000000000 T _foo
00000000000000 t ltmp0
000000000000000 d ltmp1
0000000000000000 s ltmp2
```

The output of nm is in the following format:

- D Global Data section symbol
- T Global Text symbol
- d Local symbol in the data section
- s Unitialized Local symbol for small objects

If you haven't noticed, lowercase denotes local symbols, and uppercase denotes global symbols.

The ltmp symbols are temporary symbols generated by the compiler during compilation.

Visualizing Symbols - nm

Let's take a look at the symbol table for bar.o as well:

```
$ nm bar.o

U _Global

00000000000000 T _bar

00000000000000 t ltmp0

00000000000000 N ltmp1
```

wherein U denotes an Undefined symbol. Remember, the Undefined pseudo section I was mentioning, that's where the Global symbol exists. This is because there's an *undefined* symbol reference to the Global variable, which will be resolved only during the linking phase.

Inside ELF - Executable & Linkable Format

ELF Header ———	metadata of .o file
.text	assembly language code
.rodata	readonly variables
.data	read/write/global variables
.bss	block starting symbol (ie. values that start with 0) shortcut that is used to save space instead of allocating zeroes in .o file
.symtab	symbol table
.rel.text	relocation entry for text section
.rel.data	relocation entry for data section
.debug	stack local variables, debugger info
.line	maps asm code to line number in source
.strtab	maps symtab entries to source var names

Let's try manually linking!

Lets make a main.rs that calls the foo and bar functions.

```
main.rs
extern "C" {
    fn foo();
    fn bar();
    static mut Global: i32;
fn main() {
    unsafe {
        foo();
        bar();
        println!("Global: {}", Global);
```

Let's compile the main.rs file and emit an object file like before:

```
$ rustc --emit=obj -o main.o main.rs
```

Manually Linking using Ld

```
$ ld -o main main.o foo.o bar.o
```

Manually Linking using Ld

std::core crate needs to be linked ld -o main main.o foo.o bar.o Undefined symbols for architecture arm64: "___Unwind_Resume", referenced from: ZN4core3ops8function6Fn0nce9call_once17hf02687347fd78dc0E]in main.o "___ZN3std2io5stdio6_print17h27e3b43a8b5f8b6aE", referenced from: __ZN4main4main17h49930d4df5c05f23E in main.o "__ZN3std2rt19lang_start_internal17h47d7f1f6477d860bE", referenced from: __ZN3std2rt10lang_start17h43f0cdc6e9029b25E in main.o "___ZN4core3fmt3num3imp52_\$LT\$impl\$u20\$core..fmt..Display\$u20\$for\$u20\$i32\$GT\$3fmt17h810eb3 12f616c580E", referenced from: __ZN4main4main17h49930d4df5c05f23E in main.o "_rust_eh_personality", referenced from: /Users/shrirambalaji/Repositories/learning-linkers/main.o "dyld_stub_binder", referenced from: <initial-undefines> ld: symbol(s) not found for architecture arm64

staticlib to the rescue

Instead of us trying to link the core crate and bring in std dependencies ourselves, we can create a static library from the foo.rs and bar.rs files, and then link them manually:

```
$ mkdir -p target/out
$ rustc --crate-type=staticlib -o target/out/libfoo.a foo.rs
$ rustc --crate-type=staticlib -o target/out/libbar.a bar.rs
```

The output is a .a file, which is a static library / archive in *nix systems. and it contains the .o files we saw previously.

staticlib to the rescue

We can use the ar command to list the contents of the archive.

```
$ ar -t target/out/libfoo.a | grep foo foo.foo.730f9a7e513a85b2-cgu.0.rcgu.o foo.10ftosr6tvdwscdu.rcgu.o
```

Interestingly the .a file contains the .o files we saw earlier, but with a different name, specifically with *.rcgu.o suffix. The rcgu stands for "Rust Codegen Unit" and is a unit of code that the compiler generates during Code Generation phase.

staticlib to the rescue

If we extract the .o file and look, we can see the same symbols we saw earlier.

```
$ ar -x target/out/libfoo.a foo.foo.730f9a7e513a85b2-cgu.0.rcgu.o
$ nm foo.foo.730f9a7e513a85b2-cgu.0.rcgu.o
00000000000000000000 D _Global
00000000000000000 T _foo
00000000000000000 t ltmp0
00000000000000010 d ltmp1
00000000000000018 s ltmp2
```

Doing things the rust way - cargo's back!

Until now, we ignored poor cargo and were relying on rustc. Ideally, we should leverage cargo as its meant to be

Cargo build script

We can add a build script in a build.rs that goes in the project's root. This will link the static libraries from the previous step together.

```
build.rs

fn main() {
    println!("cargo:rustc-link-search=native=target/out");
    println!("cargo:rustc-link-lib=static=foo");
    println!("cargo:rustc-link-lib=static=bar");
}
```

- cargo:rustc-link-search=native=target/out instruction tells the compiler to search
 for the static libraries in the target/out directory
- cargo:rustc-link-lib=static=foo and cargo:rustc-link-lib=static=bar tells the
 compiler to link the foo and bar static libraries. As an alternative to the linking these in
 the build script, we can also use the #[link](https://doc.rustlang.org/reference/items/external-blocks.html#the-link-attribute) attribute
 directly in main.rs

Bonus: What does the LLVM IR look like?

LINKS

References

- Blog
- Slides
- Code Snippets on Github
- CS 361 Systems Programming by Chris Kanich
- High Level Compiler Architecture Rustc Guide
- Rust Borrow Checker Nell Shamrell-Harrington
- Linkage Rust Reference
- Visualizing Rust Compilation
- Freestanding Rust Binary Philipp Oppermann
- Matt Godbolt The Bits between the Bits

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Thank You

@shrirambalaji X (7) in





