

Program design and analysis for dedicated systems

Lecture 07 on Dedicated systems

Teacher: Giuseppe Scollo

University of Catania
Department of Mathematics and Computer Science
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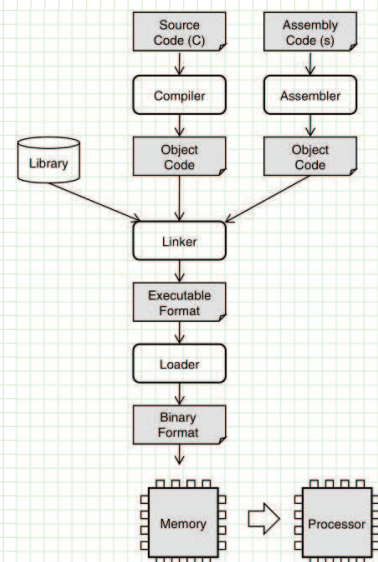
outline:

- motivation for using dedicated microprocessors
- program development toolchain
- tools for object code analysis
- data type representation
- variables in the memory hierarchy
- compilation of function calls
- memory layout of executable programs
- C and ARM assembly examples

microprocessors, toolchain

microprocessor: most successful programmable component over the past decades... why?

- separation of software from hardware through definition of an instruction set
- wide availability of software tools to support program development, also in high-level languages
- highly efficient options of reuse of components and of interoperability with other components, both hardware (standard bus) and software (libraries)
- high scalability, e.g. 4-bit up to 64-bit word length, use of a microprocessor as coordination component in a complex SoC architecture, etc.



Schaumont, Figure 7.1 – Standard design flow of software source code to processor instruction

from C to (ARM) assembly: an example

```
int gcd(int a[5], int b[5]) {
    int i, m, n, max;
    max = 0;
    for (i=0; i<5; i++) {
        m = a[i];
        n = b[i];
        while (m != n) {
            if (m > n) m = m - n;
            else n = n - m;
        }
        if (max < m) max = m;
    }
    return max;
}
int a[] = {26, 3, 33, 56, 11};
int b[] = {87, 12, 23, 45, 17};
int main() {
    return gcd(a, b);
}
```

Schaumont, Listing 7.1 - A C program to find a maximum GCD

Diagram illustrating the assembly program structure with labels and instructions. The code snippet shows the main function prologue, a branch to the gcd function, and the end of the main function. The gcd function is defined later in the listing.

Schaumont, Figure 7.2 - Elements of an assembly program produced by gcc

```
gcd:
    str    lr, [sp, #-4]!
    mov    lr, #0
    .L13:
    ldr    r3, [r0, ip, asl #2]
    ldr    r2, [r1, ip, asl #2]
    cmp    r3, r2
    beq    .L17
    .L11:
    cmp    r3, r2
    rsbgt  r3, r2, r3
    rsble  r2, r3, r2
    cmp    r3, r2
    bne    .L11
    .L17:
    add    ip, ip, #1
    cmp    lr, r3
    movlt  lr, r3
    cmp    ip, #4
    movgt  r0, lr
    ldrgt  pc, [sp], #4
    b      .L13
a:
    .word  26, 3, 33, 56, 11
b:
    .word  87, 12, 23, 45, 17
main:
    str    lr, [sp, #-4]!
    ldr    r0, .L19
    ldr    r1, .L19+4
    ldr    lr, [sp], #4
    b      gcd
    .align 2
.L19:
    .word  a
    .word  b
```

Schaumont, Listing 7.2 - ARM assembly dump of Listing 7.1

object code analysis

the example just seen is developed with the GNU cross-compiler arm-linux-gcc, available as a Debian package from the Gezel repository:

rijndael.ece.vt.edu/gezel2repo/pool/main/a/arm-linux-gcc

the symbolic assembly code is obtained from the C source by the command:

```
/usr/local/arm/bin/arm-linux-gcc -c -S -O2 gcd.c -o gcd.s
```

the command to generate the ARM ELF executable is:

```
/usr/local/arm/bin/arm-linux-gcc -O2 gcd.c -o gcd
```

it is also possible to obtain the symbolic code from the ELF executable by means of a disassembler, in this example with the following command:

```
/usr/local/arm/bin/arm-linux-objdump -d gcd
```

the disassembler output also shows the binary code of each symbolic instruction and the address value of each label

the use of this tool, as well as of other utilities which come along with compilers, for executable code analysis will be further explored in lab tutorials

data type representation

efficient hardware/software codesign requires a simultaneous understanding of both system architecture and software

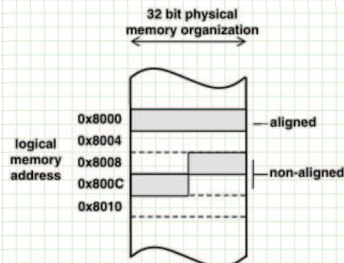
data type representation is a good starting point, compilers are aware of differences in:

- memory size
- low-level implementation of operations

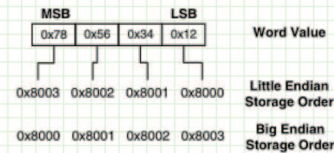
table 7.1 shows how C maps to the native data types supported by 32-bit processors

char	8-bit
short	signed 16-bit
int	signed 32-bit
long	signed 32-bit
long long	signed 64-bit

Schaumont, Table 7.1 - Compiler data types



Schaumont, Figure 7.7 (a) - Alignment of data types



Schaumont, Figure 7.7 (b) - Little-endian and Big-endian storage order

word-based memory organization requires alignment to word boundaries, to perform a word transfer by a single memory access

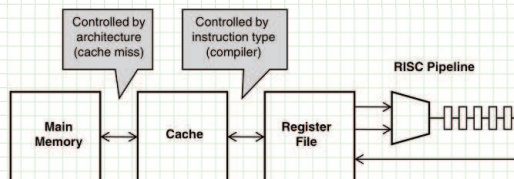
the compiler generates directives to this purpose

byte ordering, in some cases even the bit-ordering, is relevant to hardware/software codesign

in the transition of software to hardware and back

variables in the memory hierarchy

another relevant aspect of data representation is the kind of physical memory they are assigned to



Schaumont, Figure 7.8 - Memory hierarchy

memory hierarchy is transparent to high-level programs, e.g. written in C, yet the low-level control affects performance; here is an example:

```
void accumulate(int *c, int a[10]) {
    int i;
    *c = 0;
    for (i=0; i<10; i++) *c += a[i];
}
```

/usr/local/arm/bin/arm-linux-gcc -O2 -c -S accumulate.c

generates the following code in accumulate.s :

```
.L6:
    mov     r3, #0
    str     r3, [r0, #0]
    mov     ip, r3
    ldr     r2, [r1, ip, asl #2] ; r2 ← a[i]
    ldr     r3, [r0, #0]        ; r3 ← *c (memory)
    add     ip, ip, #1          ; increment loop ctr
    add     r3, r3, r2
    cmp     ip, #9
    str     r3, [r0, #0]        ; r3 → *c (memory)
    movgt   pc, lr
    b       .L6
```

in the example, the value of the accumulator variable travels up and down in the memory hierarchy

in C a limited control is available through use of storage class specifiers and type qualifiers

Storage specifier	Type qualifier
register	const
static	volatile
extern	

function calls: an example

function calls are the fundamental structure of behavioural hierarchy of programs; here is an example of their translation to machine language

```
int accumulate(int a[10]) {
    int i;
    int c = 0;
    for (i=0; i<10; i++)
        c += a[i];
    return c;
}
int a[10];
int one = 1;
int main() {
    return one + accumulate(a);
}
```

Schaumont, Listing 7.4 - Sample program

compiling this program without optimization shows the creation of the *activation frame* within the stack, that is dynamically associated to the function execution to host local variables and register saving

in this case, the function parameter and return value are passed in register r0; when several parameters are to be passed, then the activation frame is made use of

the use of the *frame pointer* (FP) register enables call nesting and recursion

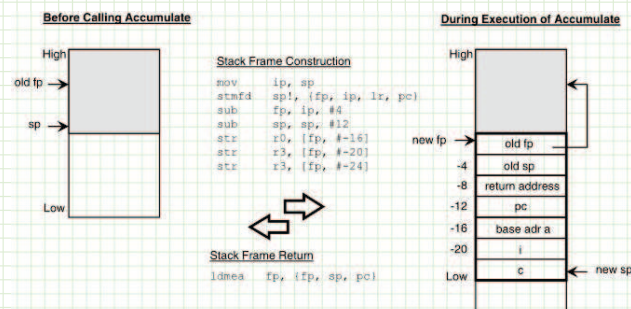
```
accumulate:
    mov     ip, sp
    stmfd   sp!, {fp, ip, lr, pc}
    sub     fp, ip, #4
    sub     sp, sp, #12
    str     r0, [fp, #-16]      ; base address a
    mov     r3, #0
    str     r3, [fp, #-24]      ; c
    mov     r3, #0
    str     r3, [fp, #-20]      ; i
.L2:
    ldr     r3, [fp, #-20]
    cmp     r3, #9
    ble     .L5
    b       .L3
.L5:
    ldr     r3, [fp, #-20]      ; i * 4
    mov     r2, r3, asl #2
    ldr     r3, [fp, #-16]
    add     r3, r2, r3
    ldr     r2, [fp, #-24]
    ldr     r3, [r2, #0]
    add     r3, r2, r3
    str     r3, [fp, #-24]      ; c = c + a[i]
    ldr     r3, [fp, #-20]
    add     r3, r3, #1
    str     r3, [fp, #-20]      ; i = i + 1
    b       .L2
.L3:
    ldr     r3, [fp, #-24]      ; return arg
    mov     r0, r3
    ldmea   fp, {fp, sp, pc}
```

Schaumont, Listing 7.6 - Accumulate without compiler optimizations

stack frame construction

figure 7.9 shows an *assumption* about the construction of the activation frame in the stack

the SP register points to the full top of the stack, which grows downwards; these conventions are reflected in the *fd* (*full, descending*) suffix of the multiple transfer instruction *stmfd*, saving registers in the stack frame



Schaumont, Figure 7.9 - Stack frame construction

the restoring of the saved registers and return take place by just one multiple transfer instruction

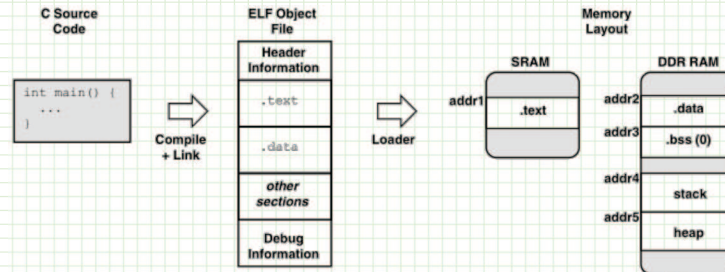
in this case the converse suffix *ea* (*empty, ascending*) is appropriate, noting that FP, rather than SP, is the base register for the transfer start address ... however, the figure does not correctly reflect the use of these instructions, which conforms to the ARM specifications for multiple transfer instructions

the analysis of this problem is deferred to the forthcoming lab tutorial experience

program layout in memory

for the physical representation of the program and its data structures in the memory hierarchy, a distinction is to be made between:

- *static program layout*: organization of the compiler+linker output in an ELF file (or ROM)
- *dynamic program layout*: memory organization of an executable program during execution



Schaumont, Figure 7.10 - Static and dynamic program layout

- the *loader* may assign different sections of the ELF program to different kinds of storage
- in the dynamic layout, sections appear that are not present in the ELF file, for the storage of dynamic data (stack, heap etc.)

references

recommended readings:

Schaumont, Ch. 7, Sect. 7.1, 7.3

for experimentation:

installation of the arm-linux-gcc cross-compiler

for further consultation:

Schaumont, Ch. 7, Sect. 7.2

Introduction to the ARM® Processor Using Intel FPGA Toolchain - For Quartus Prime 16.1, Intel Corp. - FPGA University Program, November 2016

VisUAL - A highly visual ARM emulator, by Salman Arif, Imperial College London (2015)