# Low-Level C Programming CSEE W4840

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#### Goals

Function is correct

Source code is concise, readable, maintainable

Time-critical sections of program run fast enough

Object code is small and efficient

Basically, optimize the use of three resources:

- Execution time
- Memory
- Development/maintenance time

## **Like Writing English**

You can say the same thing many different ways and mean the same thing.

There are many different ways to say the same thing.

The same thing may be said different ways.

There is more than one way to say it.

Many sentences are equivalent.

Be succinct.

## **Arithmetic**

**Integer Arithmetic** 

**Fastest** 

Floating-point arithmetic in hardware Slower

Floating-point arithmetic in software Very slow

## Simple benchmarks

```
for (i = 0 ; i < 10000 ; ++i)
/* arithmetic operation */</pre>
```

On my desktop Pentium 4 with good hardware floating-point support,

<b>Operator</b>	Time	<b>Operator</b>	Time
+ (int)	1	+ (double)	5
* (int)	5	* (double)	5
/ (int)	12	/ (double)	10
« (int)	2	sqrt	28
		sin	48
		pow	275

## Simple benchmarks

On my Zaurus SL 5600, a 400 MHz Intel PXA250 Xscale (ARM) processor:

<b>Operator</b>	Time			
+ (int)	1	+ (double)	140	
* (int)	1	* (double)	110	
/ (int)	7	/ (double)	220	
« (int)	1	sqrt	500	
		sin	3300	
		pow	820	

## **C Arithmetic Trivia**

Operations on char, short, int, and long probably run at the same speed (same ALU).

Same for unsigned variants

int or long slower when they exceed machine's word size.

### **Arithmetic Lessons**

Try to use integer addition/subtraction

Avoid multiplication unless you have hardware

Avoid division

Avoid floating-point, unless you have hardware

Really avoid math library functions

## **Bit Manipulation**

C has many bit-manipulation operators.

- & Bit-wise AND
- Bit-wise OR
- A Bit-wise XOR
- Negate (one's complement)
- >> Right-shift
- << Left-shift

Plus assignment versions of each.

## **Bit-manipulation basics**

```
a |= 0x4;  /* Set bit 2 */
b &= ~0x4;  /* Clear bit 2 */
c &= ~(1 << 3); /* Clear bit 3 */
d ^= (1 << 5); /* Toggle bit 5 */
e >>= 2;  /* Divide e by 4 */
```

## **Advanced bit manipulation**

```
/* Set b to the rightmost 1 in a */
b = a & (a ^ (a - 1));

/* Set d to the number of 1's in c */
char c, d;
d = (c & 0x55) + ((c & 0xaa) >> 1);
d = (d & 0x33) + ((d & 0xcc) >> 2);
d = (d & 0x0f) + ((d & 0xf0) >> 4);
```

## **Faking Multiplication**

Addition, subtraction, and shifting are fast. Can sometimes supplant multiplication. Like floating-point, not all processors have a dedicated hardware multiplier. Recall the multiplication algorithm from elementary school, but think binary:

$$\begin{array}{r}
101011 \\
\times 1101 \\
\hline
101011 \\
10101100 \\
+101011000 \\
\hline
1000101111
\end{array}$$
= 43 + 43 << 2 + 43 << 3 = 559

## **Faking Multiplication**

Even more clever if you include subtraction:

$$\frac{101011}{\times 1110} \times \frac{1110}{1010110} = 43 << 1 + 43 << 2 + 43 << 3$$

$$\frac{1010110}{101011000} = 43 << 4 - 43 << 2$$

$$= 602$$

#### Only useful

- for multiplication by a constant
- for "simple" multiplicands
- when hardware multiplier not available

## **Faking Division**

Division is a much more complicated algorithm that generally involves decisions.

However, division by a power of two is just a shift:

There is no general shift-and-add replacement for division, but sometimes you can turn it into multiplication:

```
a / 1.33333333
= a * 0.75
= a * 0.5 + a * 0.25
= a >> 1 + a >> 2
```

## **Multi-way branches**

```
switch (a) {
if (a == 1)
                      case 1:
  foo();
                        foo(); break;
else if (a == 2)
                      case 2:
  bar();
                        bar(); break;
else if (a == 3)
                      case 3:
  baz();
                        baz(); break;
else if (a == 4)
                      case 4:
  qux();
                        qux(); break;
else if (a == 5)
                      case 5:
  quux();
                        quux(); break;
else if (a == 6)
                      case 6:
  corge();
                        corge(); break;
```

### Nios code for if-then-else

```
ldw r2, 0(fp) # Fetch a from stack
 cmpnei r2, r2, 1  # Compare with 1
 bne r2, zero, .L2 # If not 1, jump to L2
 call foo
            # Call foo()
                     # branch out
 hr
        .L3
.L2:
 ldw r2, 0(fp) # Fetch a from stack (again!)
 cmpnei r2, r2, 2  # Compare with 2
 bne r2, zero, .L4 # If not 1, jump to L4
                     # Call bar()
 call bar
 br
        .L3
                     # branch out
. L4:
```

## Nios code for switch (1)

```
r2, 0(fp) # Fetch a
   ldw
   cmpgeui r2, r2, 7 # Compare with 7
   bne r2, zero, .L2 # Branch if greater or equal
   1dw r2, 0(fp) # Fetch a
   muli r3, r2, 4 # Multiply by 4
   movhi r2, %hiadj(.L9) # Load address .L9
   addi r2, r2, %lo(.L9)
   add r2, r3, r2 \# = a * 4 + .L9
   ldw r2, 0(r2) # Fetch from jump table
                       # Jump to label
   jmp r2
   .section
                .rodata
   .align 2
. L9:
   .long .L2
                       # Branch table
   .long .L3
   .long .L4
   .long .L5
   .long .L6
   .long .L7
   .long
          .L8
```

## Nios code for switch (2)

```
.section .text
.L3:
    call
            foo
   br
             .L2
.L4:
   call
            bar
   br
             .L2
.L5:
   call
            baz
   br
            .L2
.L6:
    call
            qux
   br
             .L2
.L7:
    call
            quux
   br
             .L2
.L8:
   call
            corge
.L2:
```

## **Computing Discrete Functions**

There are many ways to compute a "random" function of one variable:

```
/* OK, especially for sparse domain */
if (a == 0) x = 0;
else if (a == 1) x = 4;
else if (a == 2) x = 7;
else if (a == 3) x = 2;
else if (a == 4) x = 8;
else if (a == 5) x = 9;
```

## **Computing Discrete Functions**

```
/* Better for large, dense domains */
switch (a) {
case 0: x = 0; break;
case 1: x = 4; break;
case 2: x = 7; break;
case 3: x = 2; break;
case 4: x = 8; break;
case 5: x = 9; break;
/* Best: constant-time lookup table */
int f[] = \{0, 4, 7, 2, 8, 9\};
x = f[a]; /* assumes 0 <= a <= 5 */
```

## **Function calls**

Modern processors, especially RISC, strive to make this cheap. Arguments passed through registers. Still has noticable overhead.

Calling, entering, and returning:

```
int foo(int a, int b) {
  int c = bar(b, a);
  return c;
}
```

## Code for foo() (unoptimized)

```
foo:
 addi sp, sp, -20 # Allocate space on stack
      ra, 16(sp) # Store return address
 stw
 stw fp, 12(sp) # Store frame pointer
 mov fp, sp # Frame pointer is new SP
 stw r4, O(fp) # Save a on stack
 stw r5, 4(fp) # Save b on stack
 ldw r4, 4(fp) # Fetch b
 1dw r5, 0(fp) # Fetch a
 call bar
          # Call bar()
 stw r2, 8(fp) # Store result in c
 ldw r2, 8(fp) # Return value in r2 = c
 ldw ra, 16(sp) # Restore return address
 ldw fp, 12(sp) # Restore frame pointer
 addi sp, sp, 20 # Release stack space
                  # Return from subroutine
 ret
```

## Code for foo() (optimized)

```
foo:
   addi sp, sp, -4  # Allocate stack space
   stw ra, O(sp)  # Store return address
   mov r2, r4  # Swap arguments (r4, r5)
   mov r4, r5  # using r2 as temporary
   mov r5, r2
   call bar  # Call bar() (return in r2)
   ldw ra, O(sp)  # Restore return address
   addi sp, sp, 4  # Release stack space
   ret  # Return from subroutine
```

## Strength Reduction

#### Why multiply when you can add?

```
struct {
                              struct {
  int a:
                                int a:
  char b;
                                char b;
  int c:
                                int c:
} foo[10];
                              } *fp, *fe, foo[10];
int i:
                              fe = foo + 10:
for (i=0; i<10; ++i) {
                              for (fp = foo ; fp != fe ; ++fp) {
  foo[i].a = 77;
                              fp->a = 77;
  foo[i].b = 88;
                                fp->b = 88;
                                fp->c = 99;
  foo[i].c = 99;
```

Good optimizing compilers do this automatically.

## **Unoptimized array code (fragment)**

```
.L2:
 1dw r2, 0(fp) # Fetch i
 cmpgei r2, r2, 10 \# i >= 10?
 bne r2, zero, .L1 # exit if true
 movhi r3, %hiadj(foo) # Get address of foo array
 addi r3, r3, %lo(foo)
 1dw r2, 0(fp) # Fetch i
 muli r2, r2, 12 # i * 12
 add r3, r2, r3 # foo[i]
 movi r2, 77
 stw r2, 0(r3) # foo[i].a = 77
 movhi r3, %hiadj(foo)
 addi r3, r3, %lo(foo)
 1dw r2, 0(fp)
 muli r2, r2, 12
 add r2, r2, r3 # compute &foo[i]
 addi r3, r2, 4 # offset for b field
 movi r2, 88
 stb r2, 0(r3) # foo[i].b = 88
```

## **Unoptimized pointer code (fragment)**

```
.L2:
 1dw r3, 0(fp) # fp
 ldw r2, 4(fp) # fe
 beq r3, r2, .L1 # fp == fe?
 ldw r3, 0(fp)
 movi r2, 77
 stw r2, 0(r3) # fp->a = 77
 1dw r3, 0(fp)
 movi r2, 88
 stb r2, 4(r3) # fp->b = 88
 1dw r3, 0(fp)
 movi r2, 99
 stw r2, 8(r3) # fp->c = 99
 1dw r2, 0(fp)
 addi r2, r2, 12
 stw r2, 0(fp) # ++fp
 br .L2
```

## Optimized (-O2) array code

```
movi r6, 77 # Load constants
 movi r5, 88
 movi r4, 99
 movhi r2, %hiadj(foo) # Load address of array
 addi r2, r2, %lo(foo)
 movi r3, 10 # iteration count
.L5:
 addi r3, r3, -1 # decrement iterations
 stw r6, 0(r2) # foo[i].a = 77
 stb r5, 4(r2) # foo[i].b = 88
 stw r4, 8(r2) # foo[i].c = 99
 addi r2, r2, 12  # go to next array element
      r3, zero, .L5 # if there are more to do
 bne
 ret
```

## Optimized (-O2) pointer code

```
movhi r6, \%hiadj(foo+120) # fe = foo + 10
 addi r6, r6, %lo(foo+120)
 addi r2, r6, -120
                          # fp = foo
                              # Constants
 movi r5, 77
 movi r4, 88
 movi r3, 99
.L5:
 stw r5, 0(r2)
                              \# \text{ fp->a} = 77
                              # fp -> b = 88
 stb r4, 4(r2)
                              \# \text{ fp->c} = 99
 stw r3, 8(r2)
 addi r2, r2, 12
                              # ++fp
                              # fp == fe?
 bne
       r2, r6, .L5
 ret
```

## **How Rapid is Rapid?**

How much time does the following loop take?

for ( 
$$i = 0$$
 ;  $i < 1024$  ; ++i)  $a += b[i]$ ;

**Operation** Cycles per iteration

Memory read 2 or 7

Addition 1

Loop overhead  $\approx 4$ 

Total 6–12

The Nios runs at 50 MHz, one instruction per cycle, so this takes

$$6 \cdot 1024 \cdot \frac{1}{50 \text{MHz}} = 0.12 \mu \text{s or } 12 \cdot 1024 \cdot \frac{1}{50 \text{MHz}} = 0.24 \mu \text{s}$$

## **Double-checking**

#### GCC generates good code with -07:

## Features in order of increasing cost

- 1. Integer arithmetic
- 2. Pointer access
- 3. Simple conditionals and loops
- 4. Static and automatic variable access
- 5. Array access
- 6. Floating-point with hardware support
- 7. Switch statements
- 8. Function calls
- 9. Floating-point emulation in software
- 10. Malloc() and free()
- 11. Library functions (sin, log, printf, etc.)
- 12. Operating system calls (open, sbrk, etc.)

## Storage Classes in C

```
/* fixed address: visible to other files */
int global_static;
/* fixed address: only visible within file */
static int file_static;
/* parameters always stacked */
int foo(int auto_param)
  /* fixed address: only visible to function */
  static int func_static;
  /* stacked: only visible to function */
  int auto_i, auto_a[10];
  /* array explicitly allocated on heap */
  double *auto_d =
      malloc(sizeof(double)*5);
  /* return value in register or stacked */
  return auto_i;
```

# **Dynamic Storage Allocation**



## **Dynamic Storage Allocation**

```
Rules:
```

Each allocated block contiguous (no holes)

Blocks stay fixed once allocated

malloc()

Find an area large enough for requested block

Mark memory as allocated

free()

Mark the block as unallocated

## Simple Dynamic Storage Allocation

Maintaining information about free memory

Simplest: Linked list

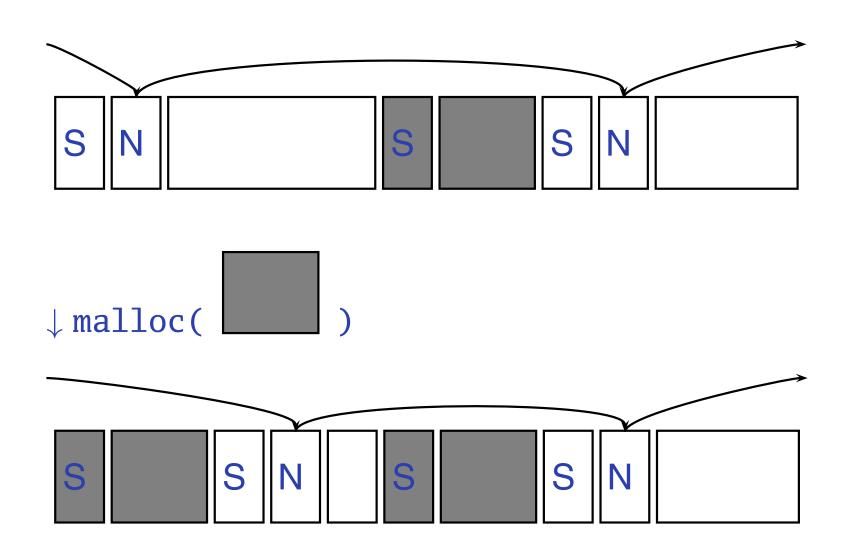
The algorithm for locating a suitable block

Simplest: First-fit

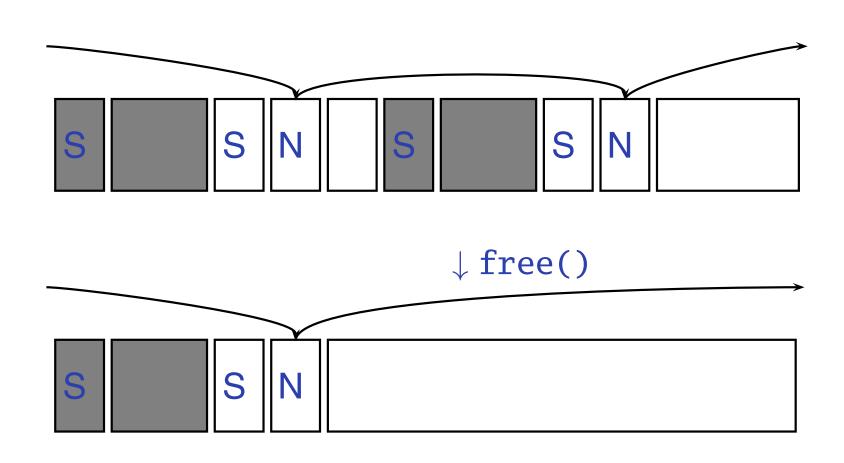
The algorithm for freeing an allocated block

Simplest: Coalesce adjacent free blocks

# **Dynamic Storage Allocation**



# Simple Dynamic Storage Allocation



## Storage Classes Compared

On most processors, access to automatic (stacked) data and globals is equally fast.

Automatic usually preferable since the memory is reused when function terminates.

Danger of exhausting stack space with recursive algorithms. Not used in most embedded systems.

The heap (malloc) should be avoided if possible:

- Allocation/deallocation is unpredictably slow
- Danger of exhausting memory
- Danger of fragmentation

Best used sparingly in embedded systems

### Memory-Mapped I/O

"Magical" memory locations that, when written or read, send or receive data from hardware.

Hardware that looks like memory to the processor, i.e., addressable, bidirectional data transfer, read and write operations.

Does not always behave like memory:

- Act of reading or writing can be a trigger (data irrelevant)
- Often read- or write-only
- Read data often different than last written

# Memory-Mapped I/O Access in C

```
#define SWITCHES \
    ((volatile char *) 0x1800)
#define LEDS \
    ((volatile char *) 0x1810)

void main() {
    for (;;) {
     *LEDS = *SWITCHES;
    }
}
```

#### What's With the Volatile?

```
Compiled with
#define ADDRESS \
  ((char *) 0x1800)
                                optimization:
#define VADDRESS \
  ((volatile char *) 0x1800)
                                foo:
                                  movi r2, 6144
char foo() {
                                  ldbu r2, 0(r2)
  char a = *ADDRESS;
                                  add r2, r2, r2
  char b = *ADDRESS;
                                  andi r2, r2, 0xff
 return a + b;
                                  ret
                                bar:
char bar() {
                                  movi r3, 6144
  char a = *VADDRESS;
                                  ldbu r2, 0(r3)
  char b = *VADDRESS;
                                  ldbu r3, 0(r3)
 return a + b;
                                  add r2, r2, r3
                                  andi r2, r2, 0xff
                                  ret
```

#### Altera I/O

```
/* Definitions of alt_u8, etc. */
#include "alt_types.h"
/* IORD_ALTERA_AVALON... for the ''PIO'' device */
#include "altera_avalon_pio_regs.h"
/* Auto-generated addresses for all peripherals */
#include "system.h"
int main() {
  alt_u8 sw;
  for (;;) {
    sw = IORD_ALTERA_AVALON_PIO_DATA(SWITCHES_BASE);
    IOWR_ALTERA_AVALON_PIO_DATA(LEDS_BASE, sw);
```

(From the Nios II Software Developer's Handbook)

### **HW/SW Communication Styles**

Memory-mapped I/O puts the processor in charge: only it may initiate communication.

Typical operation:

- Check hardware conditions by reading "status registers"
- When ready, send next "command" by writing control and data registers
- Check status registers for completion, waiting if necessary

Waiting for completion: "polling"

"Are we there yet?" "No." "Are we there yet?" "No"

"Are we there yet?" "No" "Are we there yet?" "No"

### **HW/SW Communication: Interrupts**

Idea: have hardware initiate communication when it wants attention.

Processor responds by immediately calling an interrupt handling routine, suspending the currently-running program.

#### **Unix Signals**

The Unix environment provides "signals," which behave like interrupts.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <signal.h>
void handleint() {
  printf("Got an INT\n");
  /* some variants require this */
  signal(SIGINT, handleint);
int main() {
  /* Register signal handler */
  signal(SIGINT, handleint);
  /* Do nothing forever */
  for (;;) { }
  return 0;
```

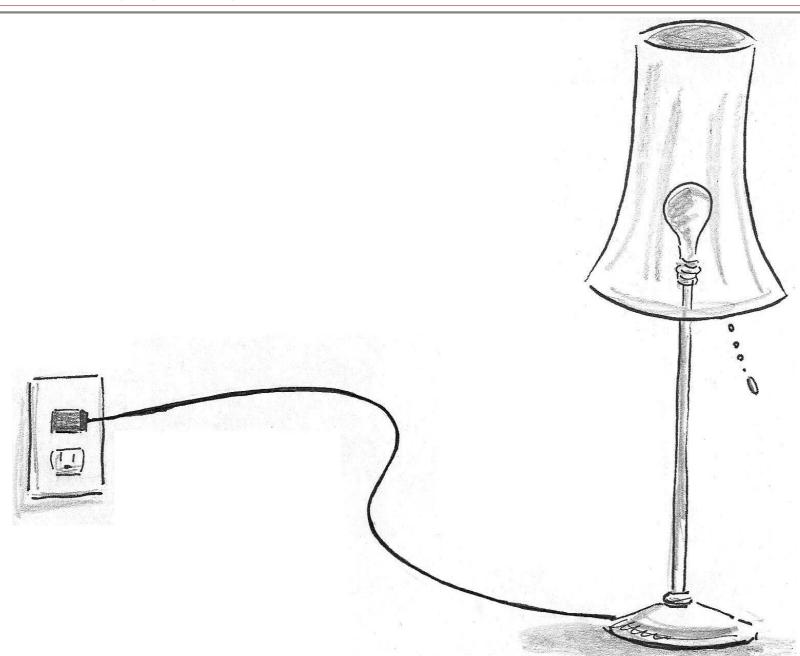
#### Interrupts under Altera (1)

```
#include "system.h"
#include "altera_avalon_pio_regs.h"
#include "alt_types.h"
static void button_isr(void* context, alt_u32 id)
  /* Read and store the edge capture register */
  *(volatile int *) context =
    IORD_ALTERA_AVALON_PIO_EDGE_CAP(BUTTON_PIO_BASE);
  /* Write to the edge capture register to reset it */
  IOWR_ALTERA_AVALON_PIO_EDGE_CAP(BUTTON_PIO_BASE, 0);
  /* Reset interrupt capability for the Button PIO */
  IOWR_ALTERA_AVALON_PIO_IRQ_MASK(BUTTON_PIO_BASE, Oxf);
```

#### Interrupts under Altera (2)

```
#include "sys/alt_irq.h"
#include "system.h"
volatile int captured_edges;
static void init_button_pio()
  /* Enable all 4 button interrupts. */
  IOWR_ALTERA_AVALON_PIO_IRQ_MASK(BUTTON_PIO_BASE, Oxf);
  /* Reset the edge capture register. */
  IOWR_ALTERA_AVALON_PIO_EDGE_CAP(BUTTON_PIO_BASE, 0x0);
  /* Register the ISR. */
  alt_irq_register( BUTTON_PIO_IRQ,
                    (void *) &captured_edges,
                    button_isr );
```

# **Debugging Skills**



## The Edwards Way to Debug

- 1. Identify undesired behavior
- 2. Construct linear model for desired behavior
- 3. Pick a point along model
- 4. Form desired behavior hypothesis for point
- 5. Test
- 6. Move point toward failure if point working, away otherwise
- 7. Repeat #4–#6 until bug is found