

# ECE 471 – Embedded Systems

## Lecture 12

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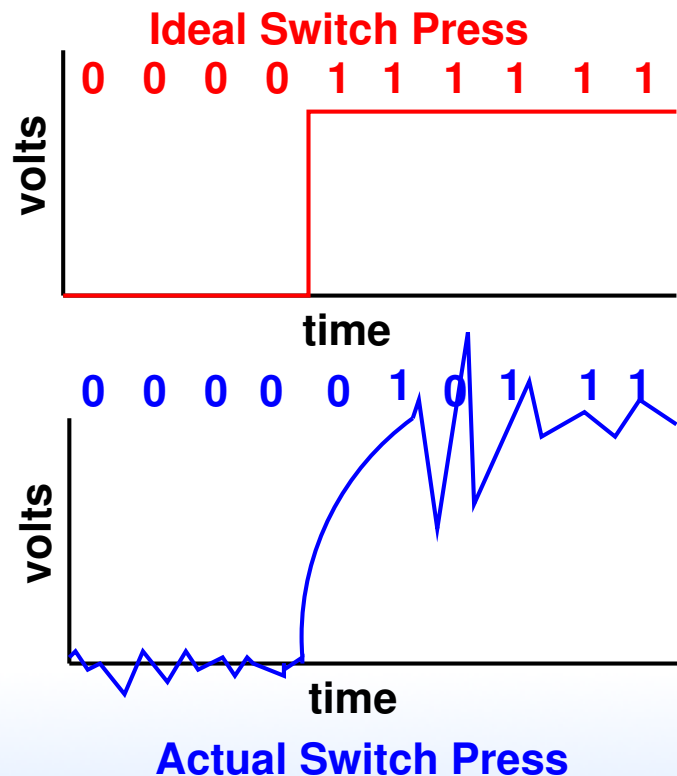
# Announcements

- HW#4 was posted
- If you need any parts (LED, breadboard) let me know



# Debouncing (from last time)

- Noisy switches, have to debounce



# Debouncing!

- Can you fix in hardware?
  - Capacitors (not for homework, will be grading software)
  - Built-in debounce (shift-registers?) like on STM32L?
- Can you fix in software? Algorithms
  - Wait until you get  $X$  consecutive values before changing
  - Get new value, wait short time and check again
  - These all have tradeoffs and can get caught by different



# patterns of noise



# Bypassing Linux for speed

<http://codeandlife.com/2012/07/03/benchmarking-raspberry-pi-gpio-speed/>

Trying to generate fastest GPIO square wave.

shell	gpio util	40Hz
shell	sysfs	2.8kHz
Python	WiringPi	28kHz
Python	RPi.GPIO	70kHz
C	sysfs (vmw)	400kHz
C	WiringPi	4.6MHz
C	libbcm2835	5.4MHz
C	Rpi Foundation "Native"	22MHz



# How Executables are Made

- Compiler generates ASM (Cross-compiler)
- Assembler generates machine language objects
- Linker creates Executable (out of objects)



# Tools – Compiler

- takes code, usually (but not always) generates assembly
- Compiler can have front-end which generates intermediate language, which is then optimized, and back-end generates assembly
- Can be quite complex
- Examples: gcc, clang
- What language is a compiler written in? Who wrote the first one?





# Tools – Assembler

- Takes assembly language and generates machine language
- creates object files
- Relatively easy to write
- Examples: GNU Assembler (gas), tasm, nasm, masm, etc.



# Tools – Linker

- Creates executable files from object files
- resolves addresses of symbols.
- Links to symbols in libraries.
- Examples: ld, gold



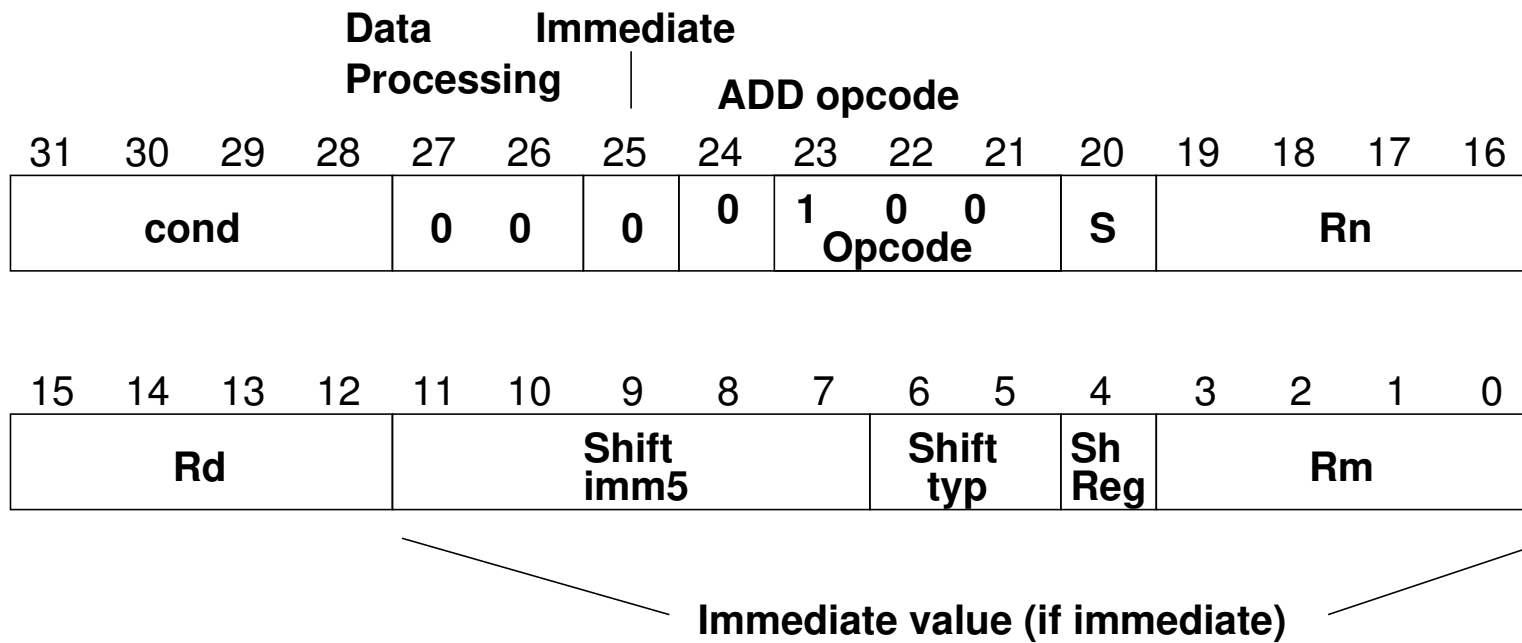
# Converting Assembly to Machine Language

Thankfully the assembler does this for you.

ARM32 ADD instruction – 0xe0803080 == add r3,  
r0, r0, lsl #1

ADD{S}<c> <Rd>, <Rn>, <Rm>{, <shift>}





# Executable Format

- ELF (Executable and Linkable Format, Extensible Linking Format)  
Default for Linux and some other similar OSes  
header, then header table describing chunks and where they go
- Other executable formats: a.out, COFF, binary blob



# ELF Layout

ELF Header
Program header
Text (Machine Code)
Data (Initialized Data)
Symbols
Debugging Info
....
Section header



# ELF Description

- ELF Header includes a “magic number” saying it’s 0x7f, ELF, architecture type, OS type, etc. Also location of program header and section header and entry point.
- Program Header, used for execution:  
has info telling the OS what parts to load, how, and where (address, permission, size, alignment)
- Program Data follows, describes data actually loaded into memory: machine code, initialized data

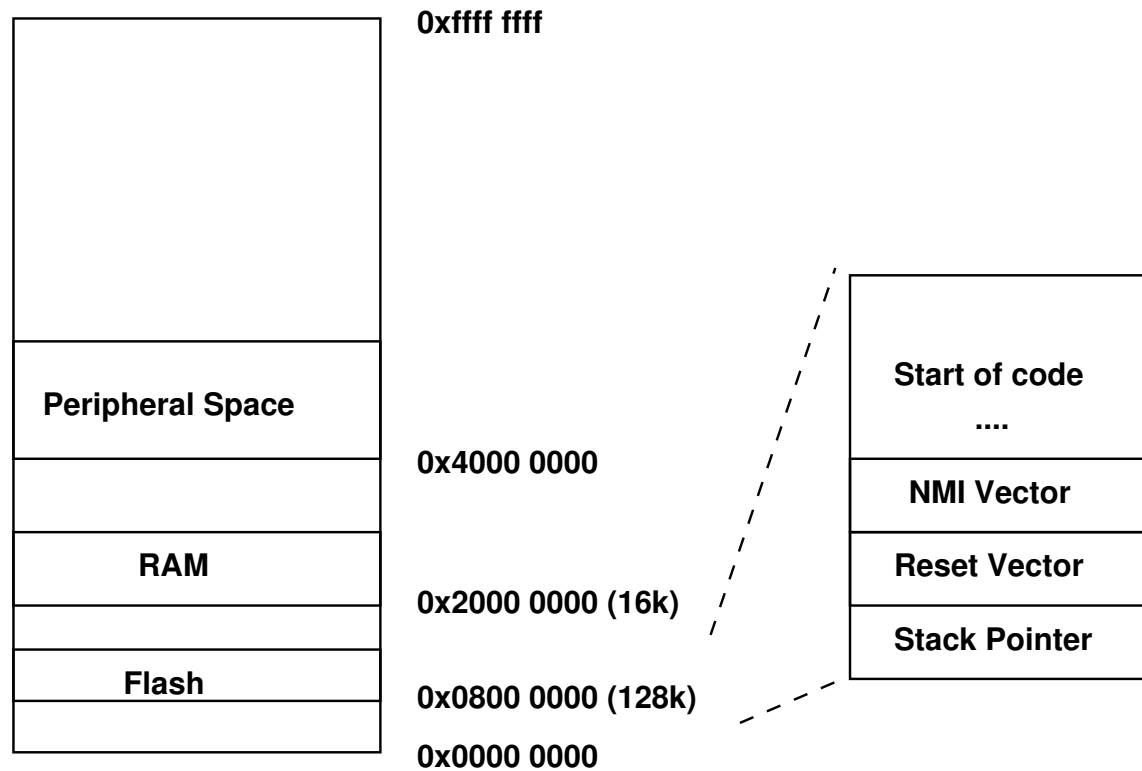


- Other data: things like symbol names, debugging info (DWARF), etc.  
DWARF backronym = “Debugging with Attributed Record Formats”
- Section Header, used when linking:  
has info on the additional segments in code that aren’t loaded into memory, such as debugging, symbols, etc.





# STM32L-Discovery Physical Memory Layout

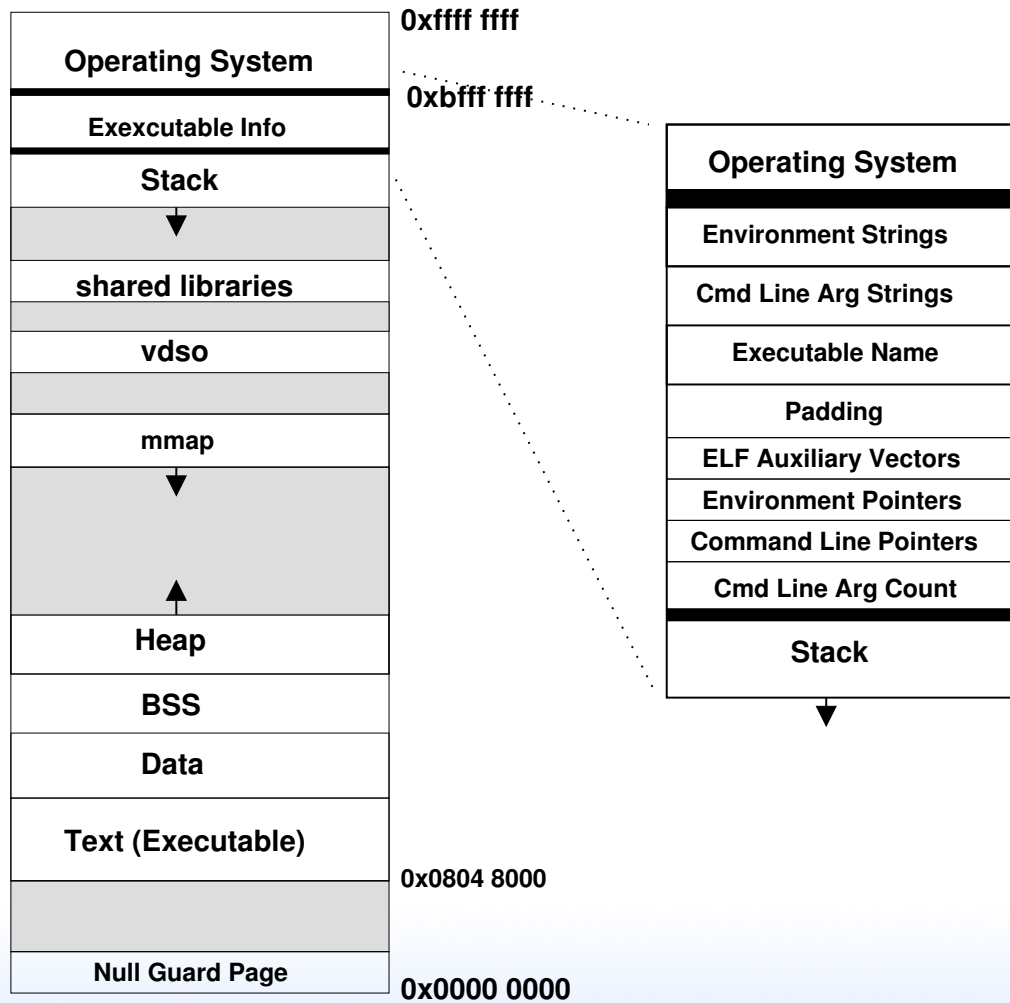


# Raspberry Pi Physical Layout

<b>Invalid</b>	0xffff ffff	(4GB)
<b>Peripheral Registers</b>	0x2100 0000	(528MB)
<b>GPU RAM</b>	0x2000 0000	(512MB)
<b>Unused RAM</b>	0x1c00 0000	(448MB)
<b>Our Operating System</b>		
<b>System Stack</b>	0x0000 8000	(32k)
<b>IRQ Stack</b>	0x0000 4000	(16k)
<b>ATAGs</b>		
<b>IRQ Vectors</b>	0x0000 0100	(256)
	0x0000 0000	



# Linux 32-bit Virtual Memory Map



# Program Memory Layout on Linux

- Text: the program's raw machine code
- Data: Initialized data
- BSS: uninitialized data; on Linux this is all set to 0.
- Heap: dynamic memory. `malloc()` (`brk()` syscall) and C++ `new()`. Grows up.
- Stack: LIFO memory structure. Grows down.



# Program Layout

- Kernel: is mapped into top of address space, for performance reasons (but security...)
- Command Line arguments, Environment, AUX vectors, etc., available above stack
- For security reasons “ASLR” (Address Space Layout Randomization) is often enabled. From run to run the exact addresses of all the sections is randomized, to make it harder for hackers to compromise your system.



# Brief overview of Virtual Memory

- Each program gets a flat 4GB (on 32-bit) memory space. The CPU and Operating system work together to provide this, even if not that much RAM is available and even though different processes seem to be using the same addresses.
- Physical vs Virtual Memory
- OS/CPU deal with “pages”, usually 4kB chunks of memory.
- Every mem access has to be translated. The operating



system looks in the “page table” to see which physical address your virtual address maps to.

This is slow. That’s where TLB comes in; it caches pagetable translations. As long as you don’t run out of TLB entries this goes fast.

- Demand paging: the OS doesn’t have to load pages into memory until the first time you actually load/store them.
- Context Switch: when you switch to a new program, the TLB is flushed and a different page table is used to provide the new program its own view of memory.

