

Topic 1 (Revision):

Overview of C Language for Microprogrammed Embedded Systems and Memory Hierarchy Use in NDS

Systèmes Embarqués Microprogrammés

- Nowadays, the most commonly-used programming language for embedded systems
- Powerful and easy-to-use to express algorithmic steps
 - Only 32 reserved words
- Considered “high-level” assembly ...
 - Low-level control of what the processor does
 - Efficient compilers available almost for every existing architecture
 - High efficiency of the produced code
- ... but highly portable
 - From mainframes to microprocessors and micro-controllers

The examples have been extracted and adapted from:

Programming in C – A Tutorial

Brian Kernighan, Bell Labs

<http://www.lysator.liu.se/c/bwk-tutor.html>

“Introduction au langage C”, Bernard Cassagne (CNRS),
(free on-line access and PDF in Moodle website of our course)

The program structure in C

```
main() {  
    printf("hello, world\n");  
}
```

printf is a standard library (stdio.h) function that format and prints texts to the standard output

Execution starts with the first statement of the main function

- One or more functions
 - At least, there is one main function
 - Different functions are called in order to do the work
- Functions are limited by: { }
- Statements end up in: ;

A functional program in C:

An example of variables, types and declarations

- This program sums three elements and returns the sum
 - *a*, *b*, *c*, and *sum* are *declared* as integer type variables
 - Variables names should not contain strange characters (a-z, A-Z, 0-9, _)

```
main() {  
    int a, b, c, sum;  
    a = 1; b = 2; c = 3;  
    sum = a + b + c;  
    printf("sum is %d", sum);  
}
```

Basic assignments
a = 1; b = 2; c = 3;

- Variables should be **declared** before used (specifying their type)
- Basic Types
 - **int** Integer of a word size
 - **char** Character (or integer) of 1 byte size
 - **float** Real number in simple precision floating point
 - **double** Real number in double precision floating point

- `'\n'` new line
 - `'\t'` tab
 - `'\b'` backspace
 - `'\0'` end
 - `'\\'` character `\`
- `77` decimal
 - `077` octal
 - `0x77` hexadecimal

```
int a; char quest, newline, flags;  
a = 1;  
quest = '?';  
newline = '\n';  
flags = 077;
```

- `%d` formatted as decimal number
- `%o` formatted as octal number
- `%X` formatted as hexadecimal number
- `%s` it places a text string

```
main( ) {  
    int n;  
    n = 511;  
    printf ("What is the value of %d in octal notation?", n);  
    printf ("%s! %d decimal is %o octal\n", "Correct", n, n);  
}
```

The format

The text to be
formatted

Conditional statement

if, relation and logical operations

- Basic conditional statement
 - *if (expression) statement;*
- Two types of operations
 - Relational Operation: == != < > <= >=
 - Logical Operation: && || !
- Example: *if (a < b && (a < 0 || a > 100))*

```
Int c = 16;  
if(c == 0x0010)  
    printf("c is equal to 16");
```

It evaluates if the
expression is ≠0

false: = 0
true: ≠ 0

- $a == b$ 1 if a equals to b
- $a != b$ 1 if a differs from b
- $a > b$ 1 if a is greater than b
- $a < b$ 1 if a is less than b
- $a >= b$ 1 if a is greater than/equal to b
- $a <= b$ 1 if a is less than/equal to b
- $a \&\& b$ 1 if $a \neq 0$ and $b \neq 0$
- $a || b$ 1 if $a \neq 0$ or $b \neq 0$

Conditional expression: The *else* clause

- Each *if* statement might have an associate *else* clause

- if (expression) statement1;*
else statement2;

Statement1 is executed if the
expression is $\neq 0$

- A different way

- expression1 ? statement1 : statement2*

- It evaluates *expresion1*
 - If true ($\neq 0$), then evaluates *statement1*
 - If it is false ($=0$), then evaluates *statement2*

Conditional ternary
operator

- As it is an statement, different if-then-else clauses can be nested

- if (expression1) if(expression2) statement2_1;*
else statement2_2;

else clauses associate to the
closest *if* statement

- Blocks, limited by `{}`, are used delimit groups of statements
 - They are considered as a statement

```
if (a < b) {  
    t = a;  
    a = b;  
    b = t;  
}
```

A block instead of a single statement is executed when the condition is true

- Arithmetic Operators: + - * / %

Modulus operator

- Characters can be treated as 8-bit integers

```
main( ) {  
    char c = 'R';  
    if(c % 2 == 0)  
        printf("%c is an even char (%d) \n", c, c);  
    else  
        printf("%d is an odd char (%d) \n", c, c);  
}
```

If c is an even character
(e.g. 0, 2, 4...)

C characters:

They follow the ASCII code order

DEC	HEX	OCT	CHAR	DEC	HEX	OCT	CH	DEC	HEX	OCT	CH	DEC	HEX	OCT	CH
0	0	000	NUL	32	20	040		64	40	100	@	96	60	140	`
1	1	001	SOH	33	21	041	!	65	41	101	A	97	61	141	a
2	2	002	STX	34	22	042	"	66	42	102	B	98	62	142	b
3	3	003	ETX	35	23	043	#	67	43	103	C	99	63	143	c
4	4	004	EOT	36	24	044	\$	68	44	104	D	100	64	144	d
5	5	005	ENQ	37	25	045	%	69	45	105	E	101	65	145	e
6	6	006	ACK	38	26	046	&	70	46	106	F	102	66	146	f
7	7	007	BEL	39	27	047	'	71	47	107	G	103	67	147	g
8	8	010	BS	40	28	050	(	72	48	110	H	104	68	150	h
9	9	011	TAB	41	29	051	)	73	49	111	I	105	69	151	i
10	A	012	LF	42	2A	052	*	74	4A	112	J	106	6A	152	j
11	B	013	VT	43	2B	053	+	75	4B	113	K	107	6B	153	k
12	C	014	FF	44	2C	054	,	76	4C	114	L	108	6C	154	l
13	D	015	CR	45	2D	055	-	77	4D	115	M	109	6D	155	m
14	E	016	SO	46	2E	056	.	78	4E	116	N	110	6E	156	n
15	F	017	SI	47	2F	057	/	79	4F	117	O	111	6F	157	o
16	10	020	DLE	48	30	060	0	80	50	120	80	112	70	160	p
17	11	021	DC1	49	31	061	1	81	51	121	Q	113	71	161	q
18	12	022	DC2	50	32	062	2	82	52	122	R	114	72	162	r
19	13	023	DC3	51	33	063	3	83	53	123	S	115	73	163	s
20	14	024	DC4	52	34	064	4	84	54	124	T	116	74	164	t
21	15	025	NAK	53	35	065	5	85	55	125	U	117	75	165	u
22	16	026	SYN	54	36	066	6	86	56	126	V	118	76	166	v
23	17	027	ETB	55	37	067	7	87	57	127	W	119	77	167	w
24	18	030	CAN	56	38	070	8	88	58	130	X	120	78	170	x
25	19	031	EM)	57	39	071	9	89	59	131	Y	121	79	171	y
26	1A	032	SUB	58	3A	072	:	90	5A	132	Z	122	7A	172	z
27	1B	033	ESC	59	3B	073	;	91	5B	133	[	123	7B	173	{
28	1C	034	FS	60	3C	074	<	92	5C	134	\	124	7C	174	
29	1D	035	GS	61	3D	075	=	93	5D	135	]	125	7D	175	}
30	1E	036	RS	62	3E	076	>	94	5E	136	^	126	7E	176	~
31	1F	037	US	63	3F	077	?	95	5F	137	_	127	7F	177	DEL

- Strict preference between operators and symbols
 - 1: Highest preference
 - 15: Least preference

- For equal preference, then from left to right on the same statement

	Category	Operator	Associativity
1	Postfix	<code>() [] -> . ++ --</code>	Left to right
2	Unary	<code>+ - ! ~ ++ -- (type) * & sizeof</code>	Right to left
3	Multiplicative	<code>* / %</code>	Left to right
4	Additive	<code>+ -</code>	Left to right
5	Shift	<code><< >></code>	Left to right
6	Relational	<code>< <= > >=</code>	Left to right
7	Equality	<code>== !=</code>	Left to right
8	Bitwise AND	<code>&</code>	Left to right
9	Bitwise XOR	<code>^</code>	Left to right
10	Bitwise OR	<code> </code>	Left to right
11	Logical AND	<code>&&</code>	Left to right
12	Logical OR	<code> </code>	Left to right
13	Conditional	<code>?:</code>	Right to left
14	Assignment	<code>= += -= *= /= %= >>= <<= &= ^= =</code>	Right to left
15	Comma	<code>,</code>	Left to right

Operators precedence: with and without parenthesis

- $(c = a + b) < 33$

- It assigns to c the result of $a+b$
- and compares it to 33

The $<$ operator has higher priority than $=$

- $c = a + b < 33$

- It performs $a+b$
- and compares it to 33
- and assigns the result of the comparison operation to c

Basic loop

while, assignment expression

- While loop

- *while (expression) statement;*

- Behavior:

1. It evaluates the expression

2. If it is true ($\neq 0$) then it executes the statement and returns to the step 1.

```
main() {  
    int c = 0;  
    while(c < 16) {  
        printf("%d ", c);  
        c = c+1;  
    }  
}
```

- More compact does not necessarily means superior
 - It is easier to understand the first expression
 - But advanced users rather use the second one because it is more compact
- It is said that C is an expressive programming language because
 - It is mainly composed of expressions
 - It is capable of expressing complex behaviors in few lines

```
Int c = 0;  
while(c <16) printf("%d ", c++);
```

- $++n$ is equivalent to $n = n + 1$
- $--n$ is equivalent to $n = n - 1$
 - It is more clear, specially if n is complicated
- The post-fix expression returns the value before the increment or decrement expression

```
int a, b, x, y;  
a = b = 5;  
x = a++;  
y = ++b;
```

a == 6 b == 6
x == 5 y == 6

- Arrays can be declared and used in the following way:

```
int x[10]; int y[10][10];  
x[0] = 1; x[8] = x[9] = 5;  
y[0][0] = y[1][0] = 8;
```

- At declaration time, the number of elements must be stated
 - It has to be constant
 - Index goes from 0..N-1
 - They can be N-dimensional

- Counting upper-case characters in a sentence

```
main( ) {  
    int n = 0, count = 0;  
    char line[] = "This Is My Line \n";  
    while(line[n] != '\n') {  
        if((line[n] >= 'A') && (line[n] <= 'Z'))  
            count++;  
        n++;  
    }  
}
```

The array size has to be known at compilation time (Length of the sentence!!)

- This is a special case of the loop while
 - `for(begin; expression; increment)`
 `statement;`
- It is equivalent to
 - `initialization;`
 `while(expression) {`
 `statement;`
 `increment;`
 `}`

- Character arrays copy

```
for(i=0; (t[i]=s[i]) != '\0'; i++);
```

- Array elements sum

```
sum = 0;  
for( i=0; i<n; i++) sum = sum + array[i];
```

- Bi-dimensional array initialization

```
for( i=0; i<n; i++ )  
    for( j=0; j<m; j++ )  
        array[i][j] = 0;
```

It does not need composed statements
(blocks with '{ }')

Functions

Definitions and Declarations

■ Function definition

```
int min(int a, int b) {  
    return a < b ? a : b;  
}
```

A **void** value can be returned =
nothing is returned

■ Function declaration

```
int min(int a, int b);  
...  
i = min(10, 6);  
...
```

It declares argument types and return type

The compiler checks that the
function is correctly used

- Functions have to be always declared
- If they are not explicitly declared, an implicit declaration is generated:
 - `int function();` 
- The implicit declaration prevents the compiler from checking the function arguments

- Some nested *if/else* can be more efficiently implemented using the *switch* statement:

```
switch(c) {  
  case 'a':  
    aflag++;  
    break;  
  case 'b':  
    bflag++;  
    break;  
  case 'c':  
    cflag++;  
    break;  
  default:  
    printf("%c?\n", c);  
}
```

```
switch(c) {  
  case 'a': case 'A':  
    aflag++;  
    break;  
  case 'b': case 'B':  
    bflag++;  
    break;  
  ...  
}
```

- The *switch* statement uses *break*; to exit
 - Similarly, using *break* in a *while* or *for* loop results in the loop being finished

```
for(;;) {  
    ...  
    if (ExitCondition) break;  
    ...  
}
```

- The *continue* statement is used to step into the next iteration without executing the current one

- The initial value is provided during the variable definition
 - Initializations can be more efficient than assignments

```
int x = 20; int a = 'k'; char c = 0177;  
int y[] = { 1, 2, 3, 4 };  
int* p = &y[1];  
char* msg = "Format error";  
char buf[] = "Insert your data";
```

msg and *buf* are not equivalent. The *msg* string cannot be modified. Why not?

- Pre-processor: compilation previous step

- Directives are interpreted
- Directives starts with #

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
FILE* f;
```

Includes the *stdio.h* file
(i.e., declarations from the
standard C library)

```
#define MAXBUFSIZE 25
```

```
int buf[MAXBUFSIZE];
```

Macro-constant

- Comments are placed in between */* */*

- In C99 it is possible to also use: *//* To the end of the line

```
void strcpy(char s1[], char s2[]) { /* copy s1 to s2 */  
    int i;  
    for(i = 0; (s2[i] = s1[i]) != '\0'; i++);  
}
```

Comments are eliminated
by the pre-processor so the
compiler ignores them

Bitwise operations and Special Assignments

- Operations are evaluated bit by bit among the operands

- $a \& b$ AND
- $a | b$ OR (or inclusive)
- $a \wedge b$ XOR (or exclusive)
- $\sim a$ 1's Complement
- $!$ Logic negation
- $a \ll b$ Shift b bits to the left
- $a \gg b$ Shift b bits to the right

- Special assignments

- $a -= b$ $a = a - b$
- $a \&= b$ $a = a \& b$
- $a \ll= b$ $a = a \ll b$
- ...

- Calculating the average of a real simple precision vector

```
double sum;  
float avg, y[10];  
sum = 0.0;  
for( i=0; i<n; i++ )  
    sum += y[i];  
avg = sum/n;
```

Different numeric types can be mixed. There is a implicit type promotion

- Normally, the use of ***goto*** statement is not required (and **VERY STRONGLY** discouraged!)
 - Beginners might fall into abusing of goto statement, making the code hard to understand

```
loopA:  
    ...  
    if (a > b) goto loopA;  
    ...
```

- There is always a structured way to program the same functionality, while being much clearer to follow for any additional user or maintainer of the code

- Automatic variables are local to the block

```
if (a < b) {  
    int i;  
    ...  
}
```

They disappear at the end of the block

The i variable is available to different functions, even from different files

- Extern variables are always available

```
int i;  
void f() {  
    ...  
}
```

Extern variables are automatically initialized to 0

```
void g() {  
    extern int i;  
    ...  
}
```

Advanced data management in C: Pointers and addresses

- Pointer: Object containing memory address of an object

Except void*

- Type of pointer: determined by the type of pointed object

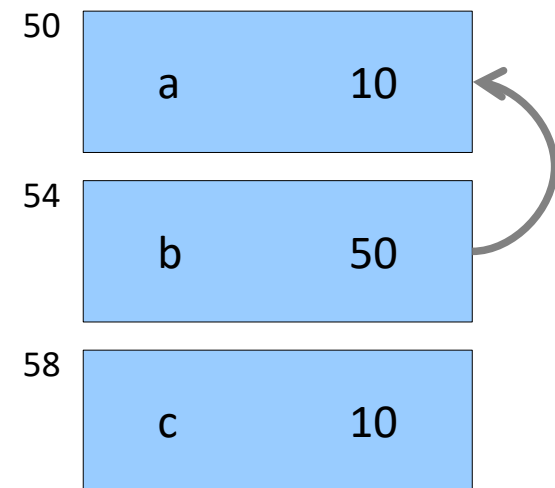
```
int x = 1, y = 2, z[10];  
int *ip;  
ip = &x;  
y = *ip;  
*ip = 0;  
ip = &z[0];
```

& retrieves the memory address of the object
* retrieves the object pointed by the pointer

- Pointer = the address of ...
 - A variable address is retrieved by using `&`
 - The value of an object pointed by a pointer is retrieved by `*`

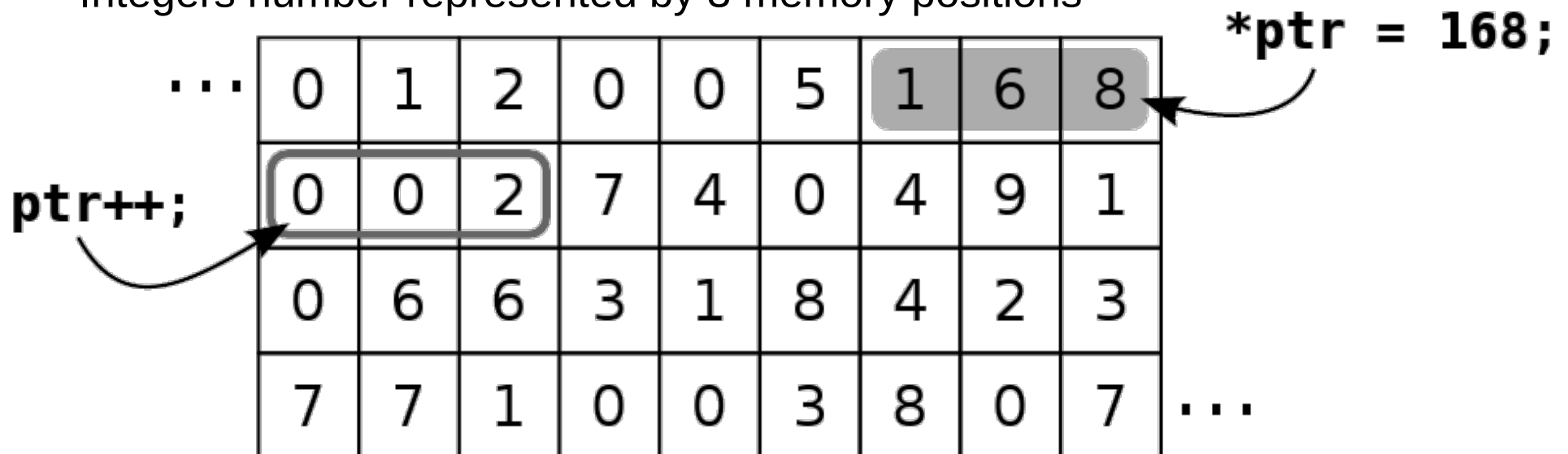
```
int a, *b, c;  
a = 10;  
b = &a;  
c = *b;
```

Pointer to an integer



- Arithmetic operations over pointers modify the object referred by the pointer
 - Incrementing/decrementing the pointer means referring to the respective next/previous element: $ptr++$, $ptr--$, $ptr=ptr+2$, $ptr=ptr-2$...

Integers number represented by 3 memory positions

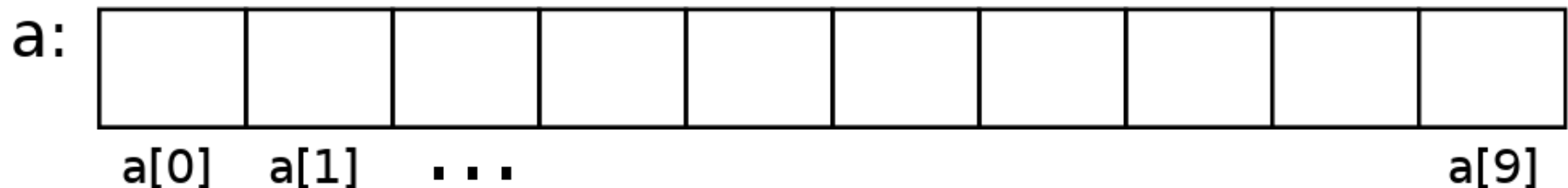


Advanced data management in C: Arrays (or vectors)

- Arrays are homogeneous sequences
 - Index from 0 to N-1

```
int a[10];
```

- They are stored in consecutive positions in memory



Advanced data management in C: Arrays and pointers

- Pointers and arrays representations are closely related

```
int a[10];  
int* pa;  
pa = &a[0];
```

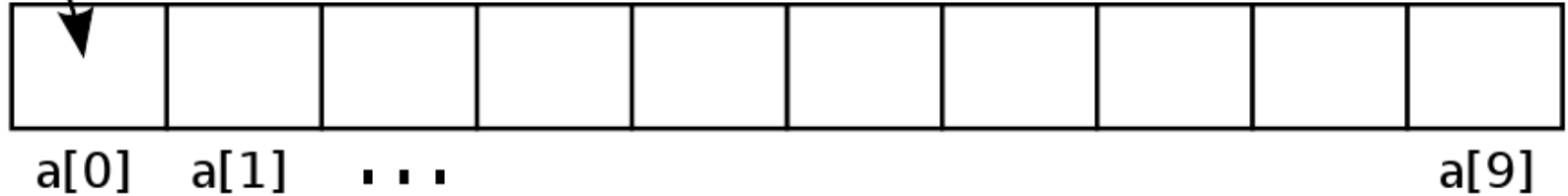
Equivalent to `pa = a`

pa:



*int *pa* points to the first element of the array *int a[10]*, which has a first pointer: *a*

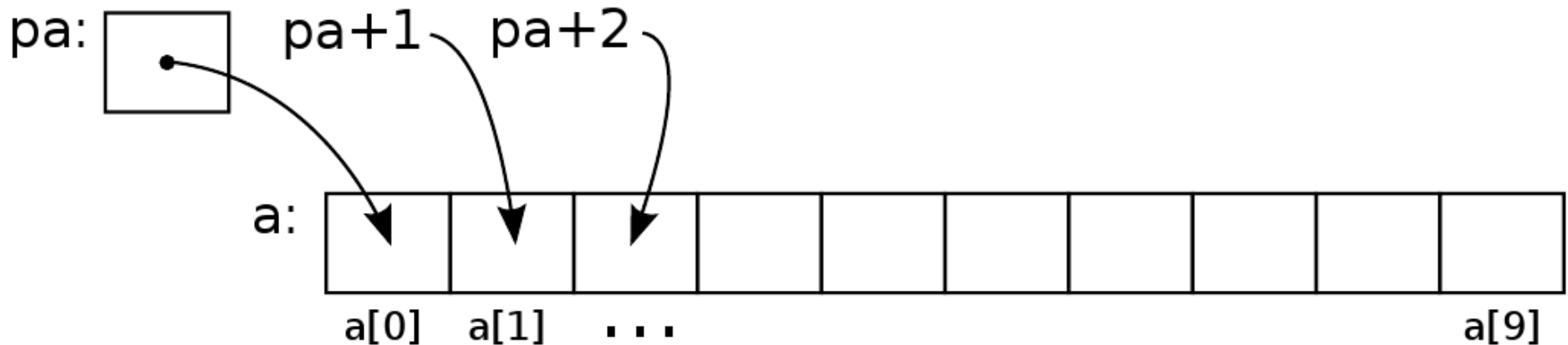
a:



- Indexing arrays/matrices is like moving positions of pointers

```
pa + 1 == &a[1]  
pa + 2 == &a[2]  
pa[i] == *(pa + i) == a[i]
```

I am just increasing positions in the array!



Pointers and arrays

Pointer Arithmetic

- Using the array name in an expression is equivalent to use the address of the first element of the array

```
char *y;  
char x[100];
```

```
y = &x[0];  
y = x;
```

Equivalent

```
char buf[100];  
extern void f(char* p);
```

```
f(buf);
```

Arrays are passed to functions as a pointer to the first element

- Pointer arithmetic can be used to access the array elements

```
*(y+1) == x[1];  
*(y+i) == x[i];
```

```
y = &x[0]; y++;  
*y == x[1];
```

Pointers and arrays

A Pointer Arithmetic Example

- The name of an array, used in an expression, holds the address of the array first element

```
int length(char s[]) {  
    int n;  
    for(n=0; s[n] != '\0';)  
        n++;  
    return n;  
}
```

```
int length(char* s) {  
    int n;  
    for(n=0; *s != '\0'; s++)  
        n++;  
    return n;  
}
```

Nowadays, the code generated by compilers are equally efficient in all these situations.

```
int length(char* s) {  
    int n;  
    for(n=0; *s++ != '\0'; n++);  
    return n;  
}
```

Passing Arguments

Passing values and references

- In C, arguments are passed by value
 - Passing the pointer is how references are passed to functions

```
void flip(int *x, int* y) {  
    int temp;  
    temp = *x; *x = *y;  
    *y = temp;  
}
```

```
int a, b;  
a = 1; b = 2;  
flip(&a, &b);  
// a == 2 , b == 1
```

- Which value is printed by this fragment?

```
void fill0(int a[]) {  
    a[0] = 10;  
}
```

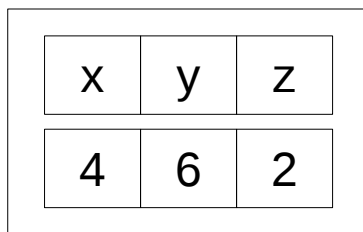
```
int buf[10];  
fill0(buf);  
printf("%d", buf[0]);
```

- Structures are used to create new complex types

Example 1:
Coordinates in 3D space

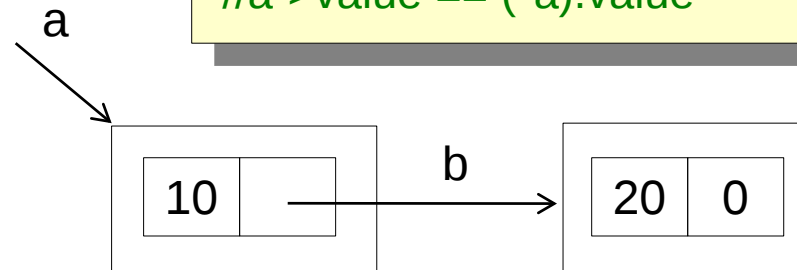
```
struct coordinates {  
    int x;  
    int y;  
    int z;  
};  
struct coordinates point;  
point.x = 4;  
point.y = 6;  
point.z = 2;
```

point



Example 2:
Linked list

```
Struct element {  
    int value;  
    int *Next;  
};  
  
struct element *a, *b;  
a->value = 10;  
a.Next = a;  
b->value = 20;  
b.Next = 0;  
//a->value == (*a).value
```



Communicating data between parts of the programs: Passing arguments

- Two ways to pass arguments in C functions

- Pass by value

A copy of each argument is passed to the function

```
int sum(int x, int y, int z){
    z = x + y ;
    printf ("z == %d", z);
}

//main function
int main(){
    int a=10; int b=5; int c=0;
    sum(a, b, c);
    //a, b and c are passed by value
    printf ("c == %d", c);
}
```

Screen output

```
z == 15
c == 0
```

- Pass by reference

Pointer argument are used to pass the adress of a variable

```
int sum(int x, int y, int *z){
    *z = x + y ;
    printf ("*z == %d", *z);
}

//main function
int main(){
    int a=10; int b=5; int c=0;
    sum(a, b, &c);
    //a and b are passed by value
    //c is passed by reference
    printf ("c == %d", c);
}
```

Screen output

```
z == 15
c == 15
```

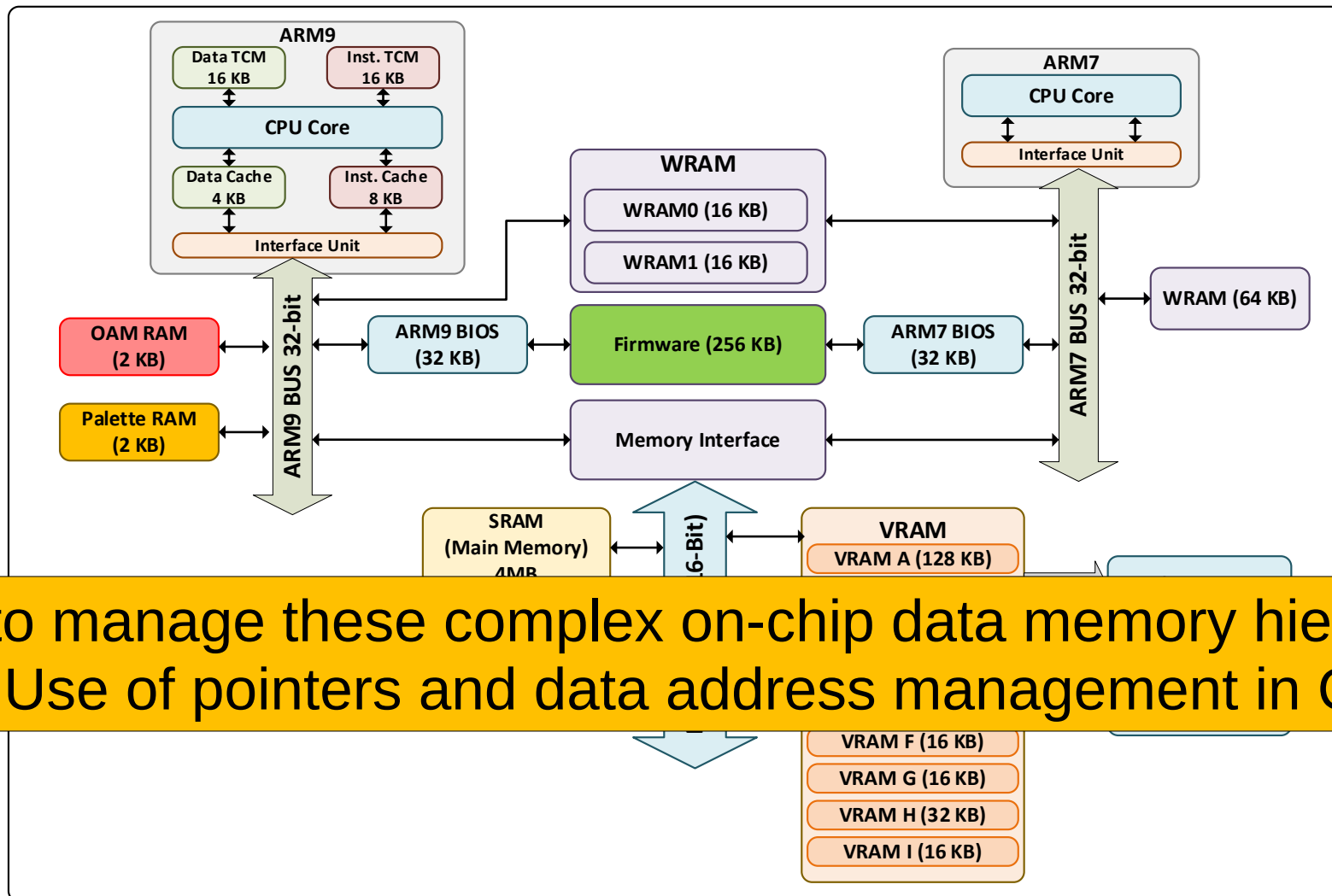
- Two ways to allocate an array in memory
 - Static allocation:
 - The size of the memory to be allocated is known before execution
int array[10];
 - Dynamic allocation
 - Useful when the size is known only at run-time of the application
*void *malloc(size_t size) ; /*similar to new int [] in c++ */*
 - Dynamic allocated memory must be freed once it not used anymore
*void free(void *pointer); /*similar to delete [] pointer in c++ */*

```
//Static memory
int StaticArray[10];

//Dynamic memory
int *DynamicArray; //Static pointer
...
DynamicArray=malloc( n*sizeof(int) ); //n=size of the array
ProcessArray(DynamicArray);
free(DynamicArray); //de-allocate memory
```

Practical Work 3: Advanced C Programming on the Nintendo DS

- Accessing multiple memory locations: complex memory hierarchy
 - ARM9 SW-controlled memories: D-/I- tightly coupled memories (TCMs)



How to manage these complex on-chip data memory hierarchy?
Use of pointers and data address management in C!

Practical Work 3: Advanced C Programming on the Nintendo DS

- Matrix representations can be declared in 2 different ways

Algebraic

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

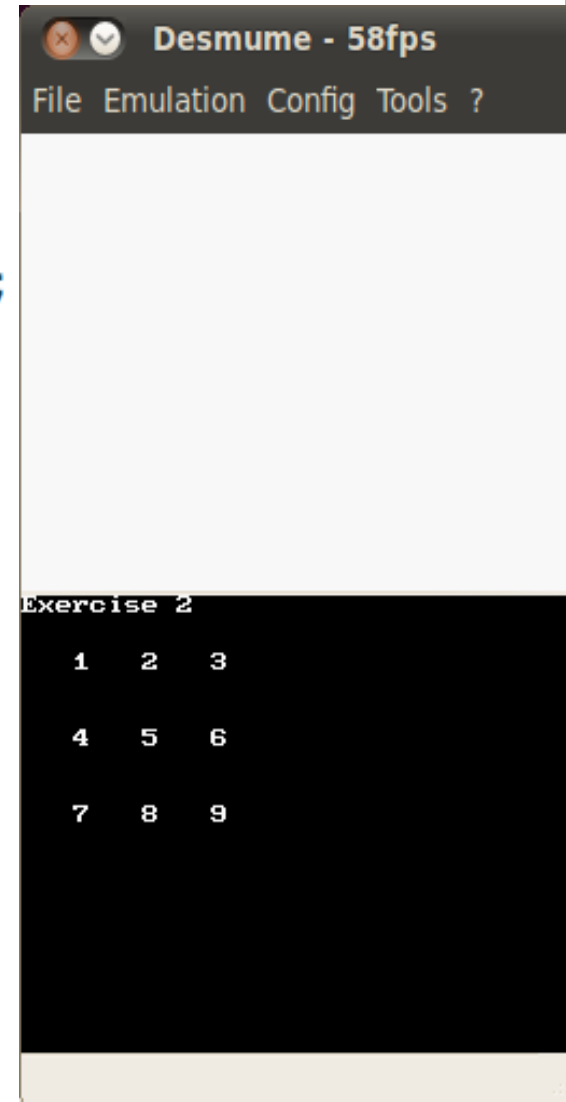
Static Declaration

```
//Matrix with 9 components preinitialized  
int myMatrix[] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9};
```

Dynamic Declaration

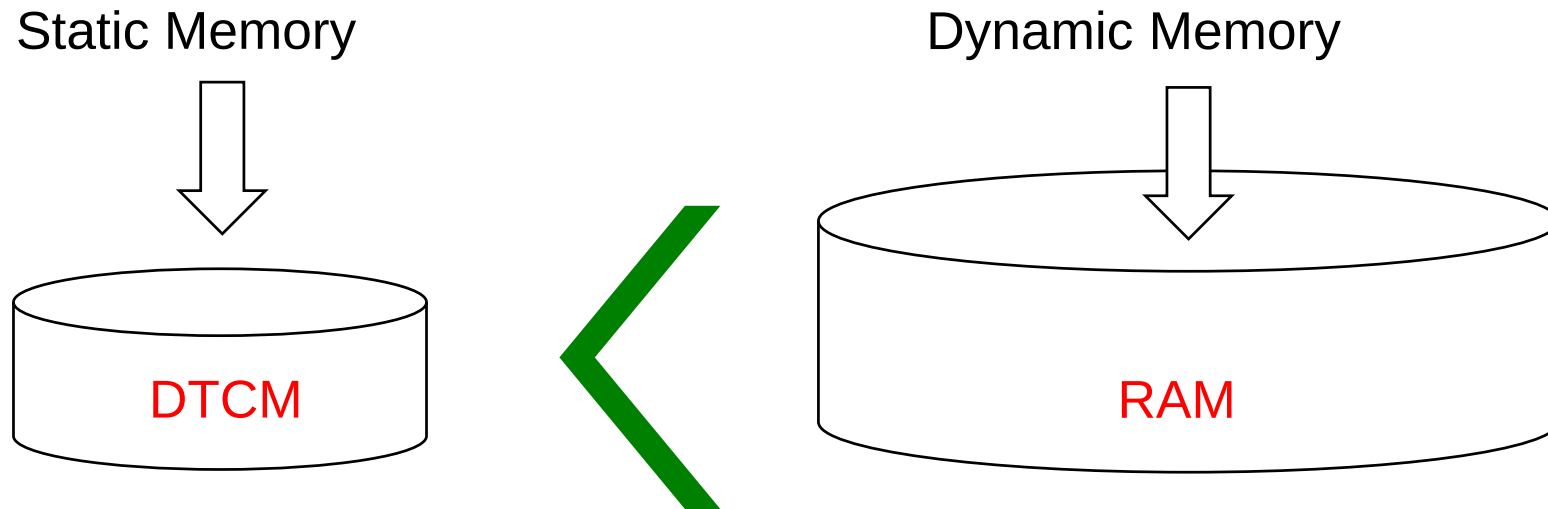
```
//Matrix with 9 components  
int *myMatrix2 = malloc(sizeof(int)*9);  
//Initialization  
for(i=0; i<9;i++) myMatrix2[i] = i+1;
```

NDS Visualization



Practical Work 3: Advanced C Programming on the Nintendo DS

- The matrices are then stored in different parts of the NDS memory hierarchy



- Can we run out of memory in these two cases below? How?
 - Automatic static variables
 - Dynamic Memory

Practical Work 3: Advanced C Programming on the Nintendo DS

- Matrix representation
 - Combining structures and dynamic memory

NDS Visualization

Algebraic

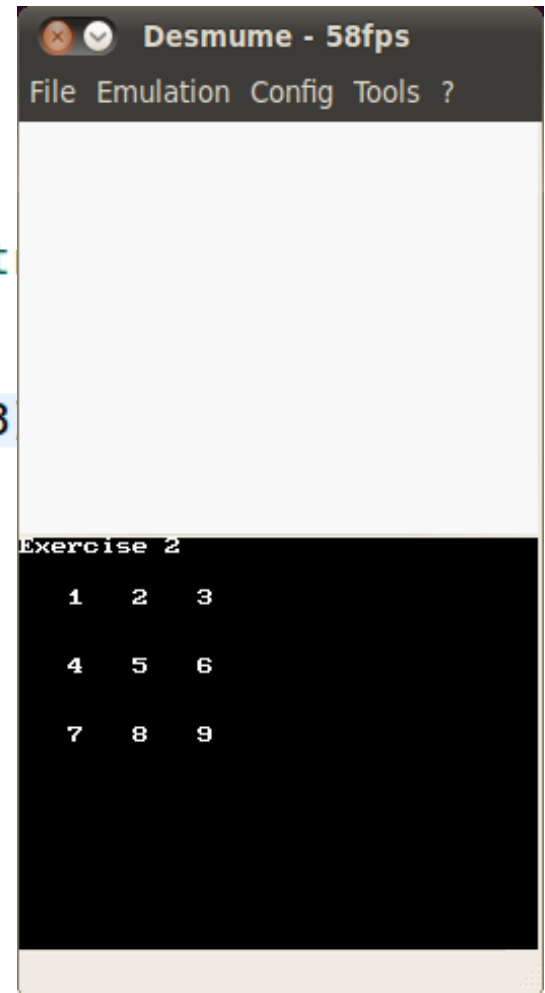
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Dynamic Declaration

```
//3x3 Matrix
tMatrix *myDynamicMatrix = malloc(sizeof(tMat
myDynamicMatrix->cols = 3;
myDynamicMatrix->rows = 3;
myDynamicMatrix->mat = malloc(sizeof(int)*3*3
//Initialization
for(i=0;i<9;i++)
    myDynamicMatrix->mat[i] = i+1;
```

Struct

```
20 /
21 typedef struct{
22     int *mat;
23     int rows;
24     int cols;
25 }tMatrix;
26
```



Practical Work 3: Advanced C Programming on the Nintendo DS

- Exercises (and homework)
 - Exercise 1 – Separating function prototypes from implementations
 - Exercise 2 – Displaying matrices on NDS console
 - Exercise 3 – Initialization of matrices
 - Exercise 4 – Summation of arrays and matrices
 - Exercise 5 – Vector sorting
 - Exercise 6 – Matrices multiplication
 - *Exercise 7 – Run-time resources errors on the NDS
 - *Exercise 8 – Managing the different types of memory resources in the NDS
 - *Exercise 9 – Allocating/deallocating memory
 - *Exercise 10 – Understanding how arguments are passed between NDS functions

* Data management for the NDS

Questions?



Let's manage the NDS using the C language