

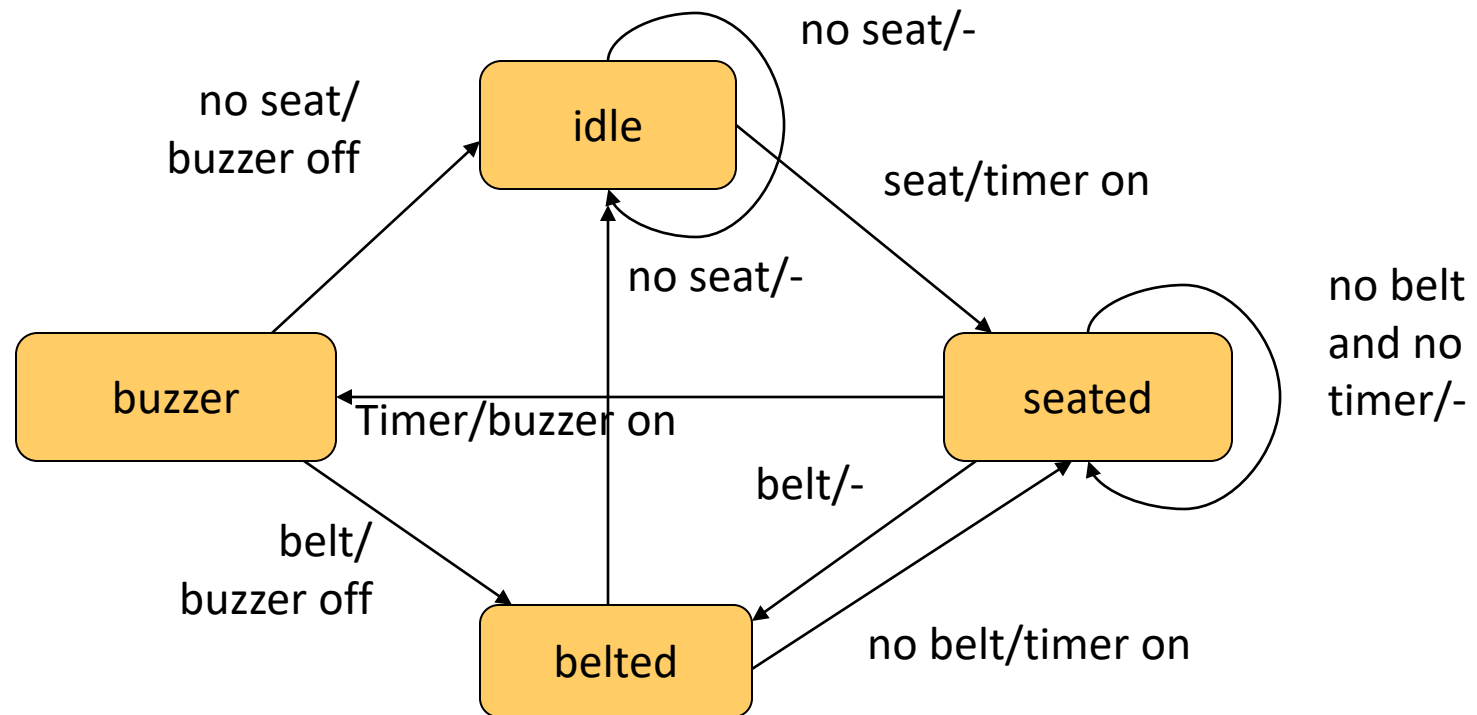
# Program design and analysis

- Software components.
- Representations of programs.
- Assembly and linking.

# Software state machine

- State machine keeps internal state as a variable, changes state based on inputs.
- Uses:
  - control-dominated code;
  - reactive systems.

# State machine example



# C implementation

```
#define IDLE 0
#define SEATED 1
#define BELTED 2
#define BUZZER 3
switch (state) {
    case IDLE: if (seat) { state = SEATED; timer_on = TRUE; }
                break;
    case SEATED: if (belt) state = BELTED;
                  else if (timer) state = BUZZER;
                break;
    ...
}
```

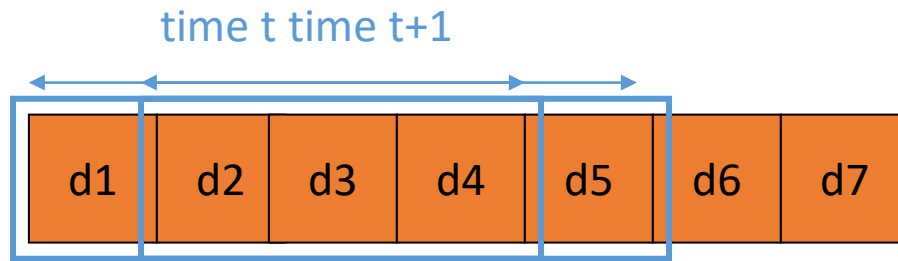
```

switch(state) { /*check the current state */
    case IDLE:
        if (seat){ state = SEATED; timer_on = TRUE; }
        /*default case is self-loop */
        break;
    case SEATED:
        if (belt) state = BELTED; /*won't hear the buzzer */
        else if (timer) state = BUZZER; /*didn't put on
belt in time */
        /*default case is self-loop */
        break;
    case BELTED:
        if (!seat) state = IDLE; /* person left */
        else if (!belt) state = SEATED; /* person still
in seat */
        break;
    case BUZZER:
        if (belt) state = BELTED; /*belt is on---turn off
buzzer */
        else if (!seat) state = IDLE; /* no one in seat--
turn off buzzer */
        break;
}

```

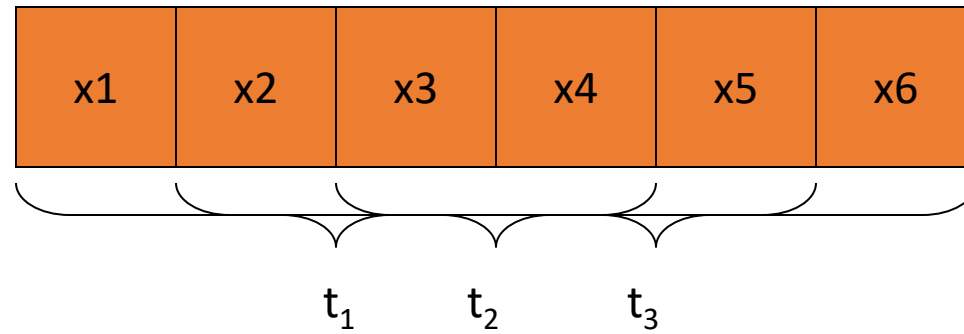
# Signal processing and circular buffer

- Commonly used in signal processing:
  - new data constantly arrives;
  - each datum has a limited lifetime.

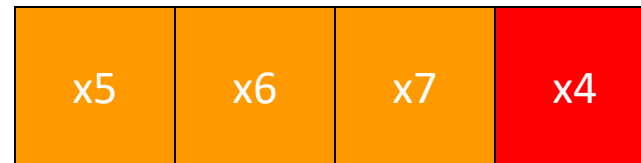


- Use a circular buffer to hold the data stream.

# Circular buffer



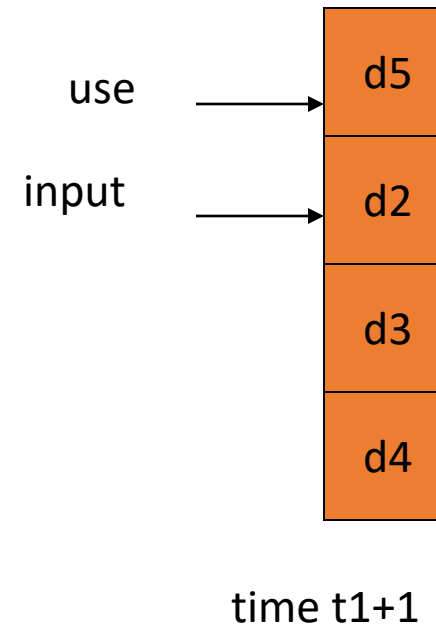
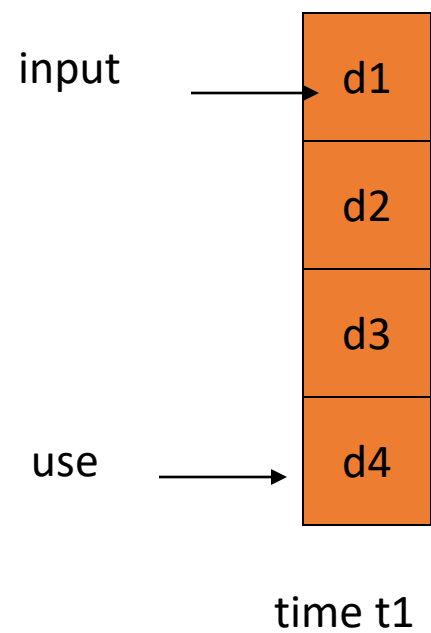
Data stream



Circular buffer

# Circular buffers

- Indexes locate currently used data, current input data:





# Circular buffer in C

```
#define CMAX 6 /* filter order */
int circ[CMAX]; /* circular buffer */
int pos; /* position of current sample */

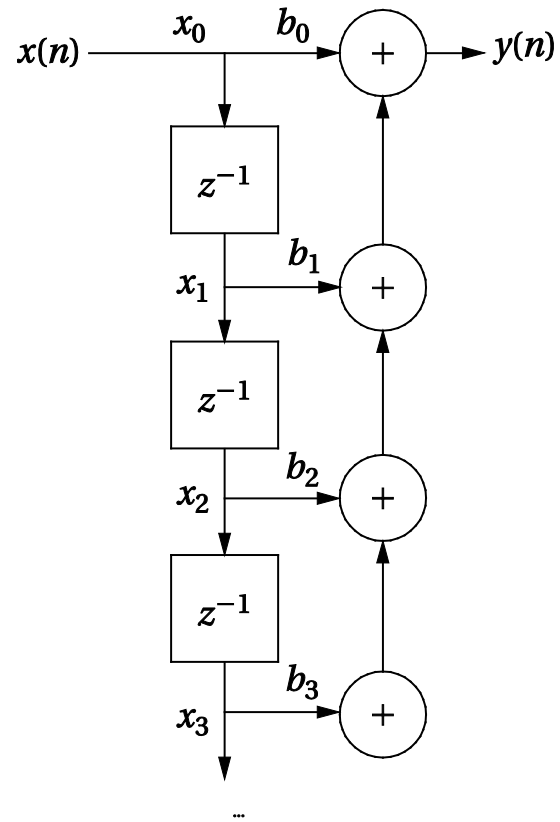
void circ_update(int xnew) {
    /* compute the new head value with wraparound; the pos pointer moves from 0 to CMAX-1 */
    pos = ((pos == CMAX-1) ? 0 : (pos+1));
    /* insert the new value at the new head */
    circ[pos] = xnew;
}
```

# Circular buffer in C, cont'd.

```
void circ_init() {
    int i;
    for (i=0; i<CMAX; i++) /* set values to 0 */
        circ[i] = 0; pos=CMAX-1; /* start at tail so first element will be at 0 */
}

int circ_get(int i) {
    int ii;
    /* compute the buffer position */
    ii = (pos - i) % CMAX;
    return circ[ii]; /* return the value */
}
```

# FIR filter



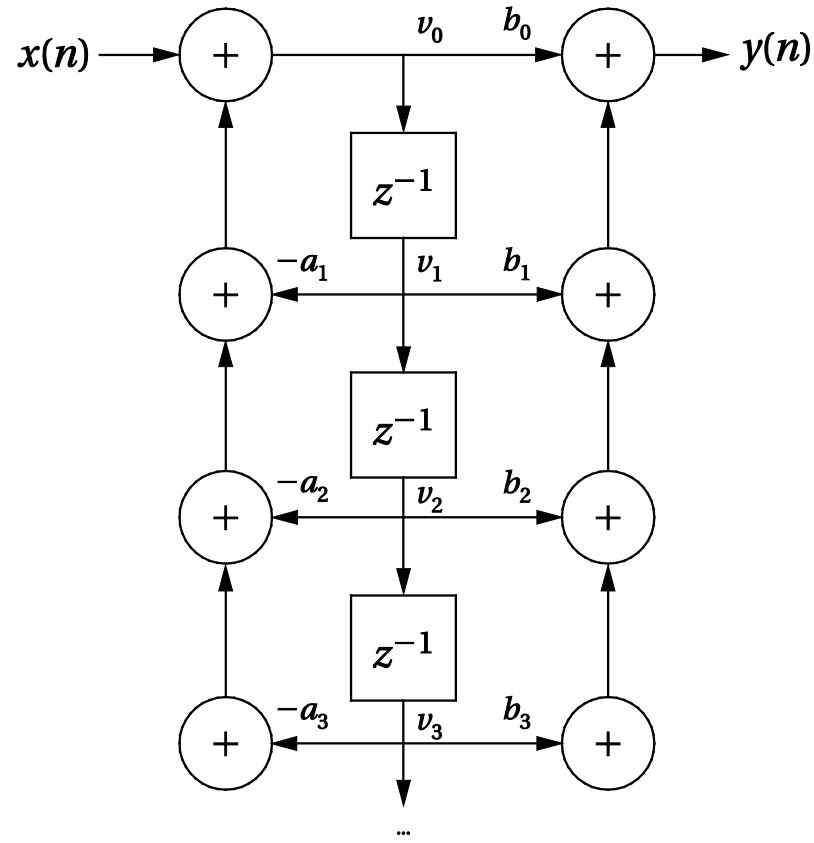
# FIR filter update function

```
void circ_update(int xnew) {  
    /* add the new sample and push off the oldest one */  
    /* compute the new head value with wraparound; the pos pointer moves from  
    CMAX-1 down to 0 */  
    pos = ((pos == 0) ? CMAX-1 : (pos-1));  
    /* insert the new value at the new head */  
    circ[pos] = xnew;  
}
```

# FIR filter using circular buffer

```
int fir(int xnew) {  
    /* given a new sample value, update the queue and      compute the filter  
    output */  
    int i;  
    int result; /* holds the filter output */  
    circ_update(xnew); /* put the new value in */  
    for (i=0, result=0; i<CMAX; i++)  
        result += b[i] * circ_get(i);  
    return result;  
}
```

# IIR direct form type II filter



# IIR filter in C

```
int iir2(int xnew) {  
    int i, aside, bside, result;  
    for (i=0, aside=0; i<ZMAX; i++)  
        aside += -a[i+1] * circ_get(i);  
    for (i=0, bside=0; i<ZMAX; i++)  
        bside += b[i+1] * circ_get(i);  
    result = b[0] * (xnew + aside) + bside;  
    circ_update(xnew); /* put the new value in */  
    return result;  
}
```

# Array-based queue in C

```
#define Q_SIZE 5 /* your queue size may vary */
#define Q_MAX (Q_SIZE-1) /* this is the maximum index value into the array */
int q[Q_SIZE]; /* the array for our queue */
int head, tail; /* indexes for the current queue head and tail */
void queue_init() {
    /* initialize the queue data structure */
    head = 0;
    tail = 0;
}
```



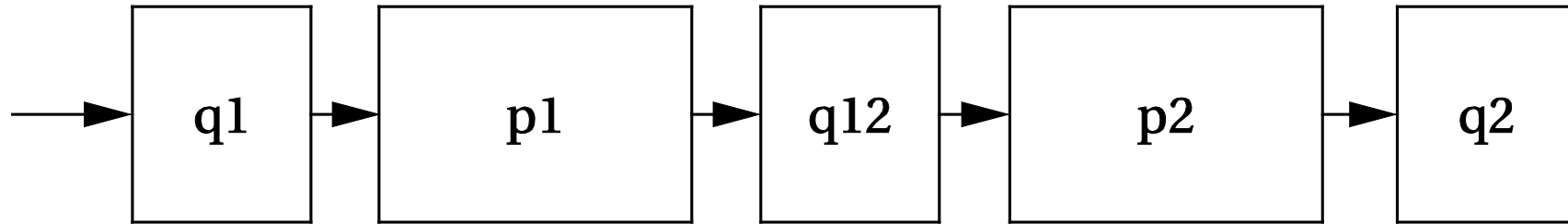
# Array based queue, cont'd.

```
void enqueue(int val) {  
    if (((tail+1) % Q_SIZE) == head) error("enqueue onto full queue",tail);  
    q[tail] = val;  
    /* update the tail */  
    if (tail == Q_MAX)  
        tail = 0;  
    else  
        tail++;  
}
```

# Array based queue, cont'd.

```
int dequeue() {  
    int returnval;  
    if (head == tail) error("dequeue from empty queue",head);  
    returnval = q[head];  
    if (head == Q_MAX)  
        head = 0;  
    else  
        head++;  
    return returnval;  
}
```

# Producer-consumer system



- Queues allow varying input and output rates.

# Models of programs

- Source code is not a good representation for programs:
  - clumsy;
  - leaves much information implicit.
- Compilers derive intermediate representations to manipulate and optimize the program.

# Data flow graph

- **DFG**: data flow graph.
- Does not represent control.
- Models basic block: code with no entry or exit.
- Describes the minimal ordering requirements on operations.

# Single assignment form

$x = a + b;$

$y = c - d;$

$z = x * y;$

$y = b + d;$

original basic block

$x = a + b;$

$y = c - d;$

$z = x * y;$

$y1 = b + d;$

single assignment form

# Data flow graph

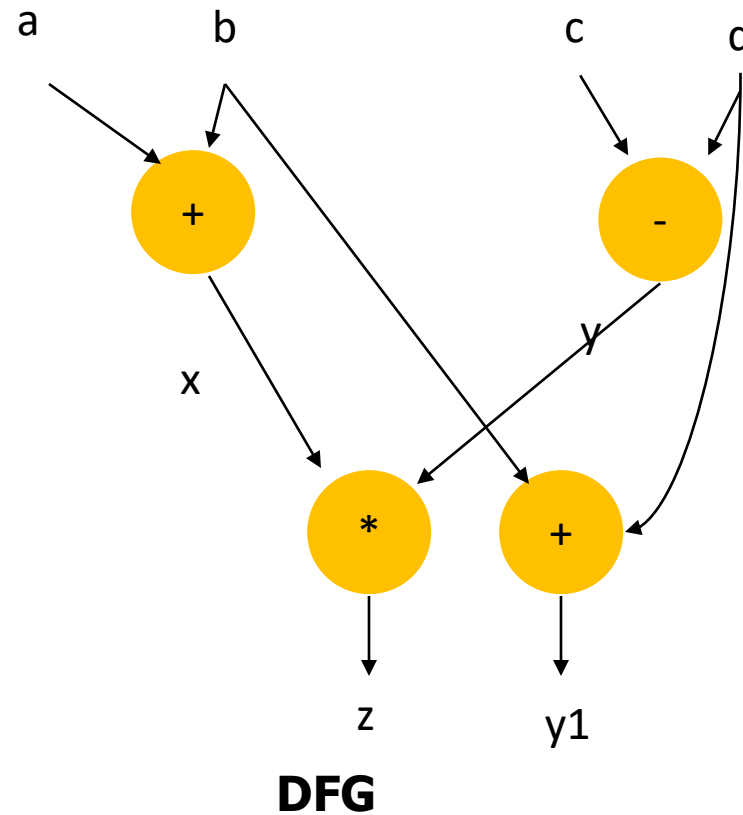
$x = a + b;$

$y = c - d;$

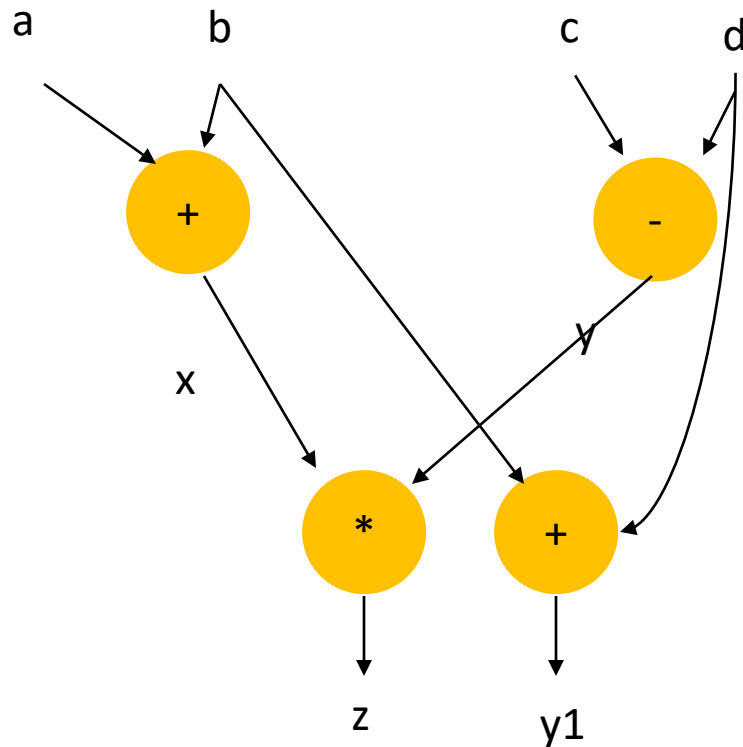
$z = x * y;$

$y1 = b + d;$

single assignment form



# DFGs and partial orders



Partial order:

- $a+b, c-d; b+d \times y$

Can do pairs of operations in any order.

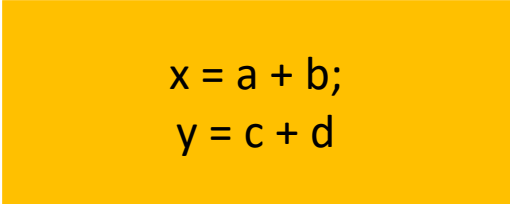


# Control-data flow graph

- **CDFG**: represents control and data.
- Uses data flow graphs as components.
- Two types of nodes:
  - decision;
  - data flow.

# Data flow node

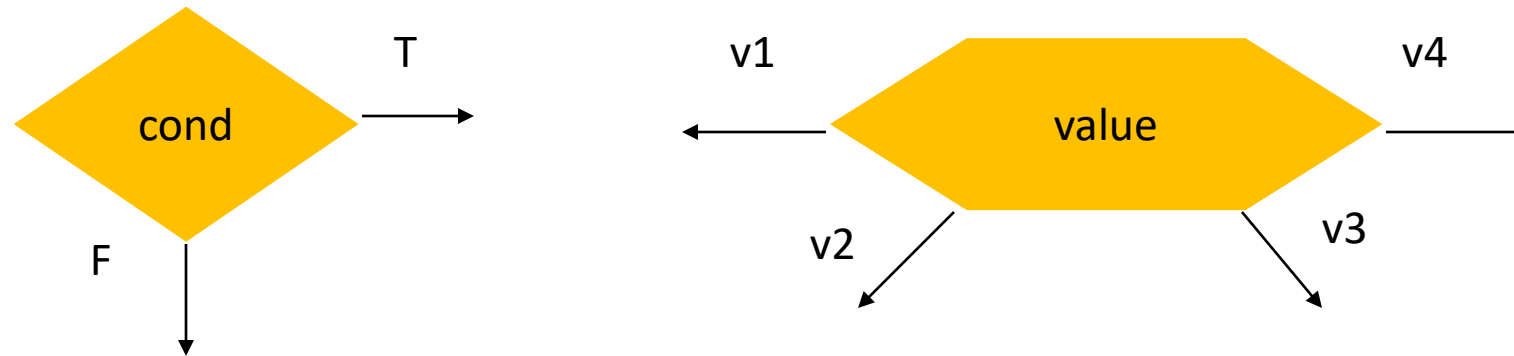
Encapsulates a data flow graph:



```
x = a + b;  
y = c + d
```

Write operations in basic block form for simplicity.

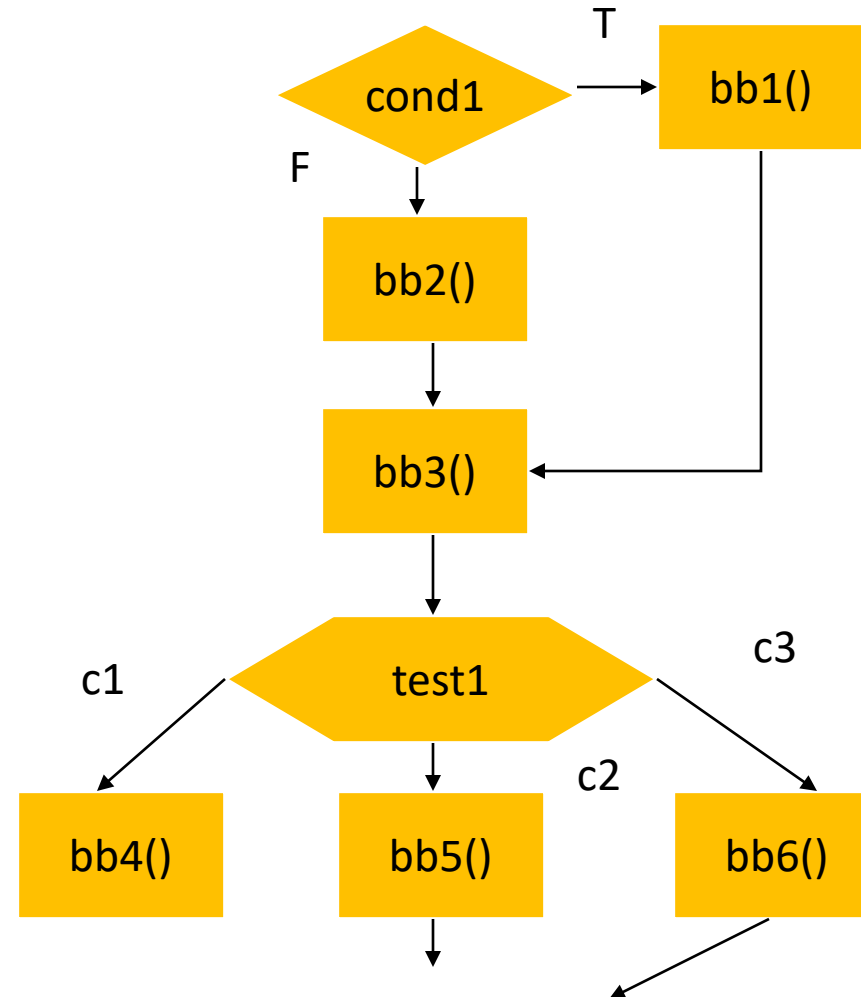
# Control



**Equivalent forms**

# CDFG example

```
if (cond1) bb1();  
else bb2();  
bb3();  
switch (test1) {  
  case c1: bb4(); break;  
  case c2: bb5(); break;  
  case c3: bb6(); break;  
}
```



# for loop

```
for (i=0; i<N; i++)
```

```
    loop_body();
```

*for loop*

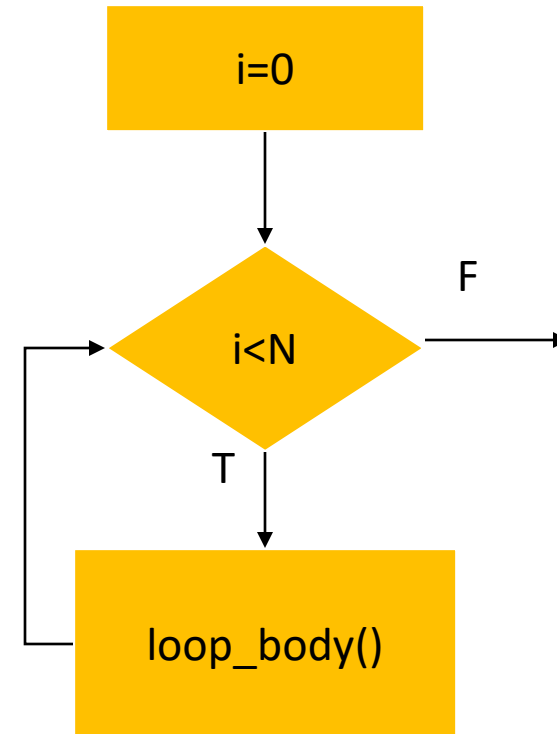
---

```
i=0;
```

```
while (i<N) {
```

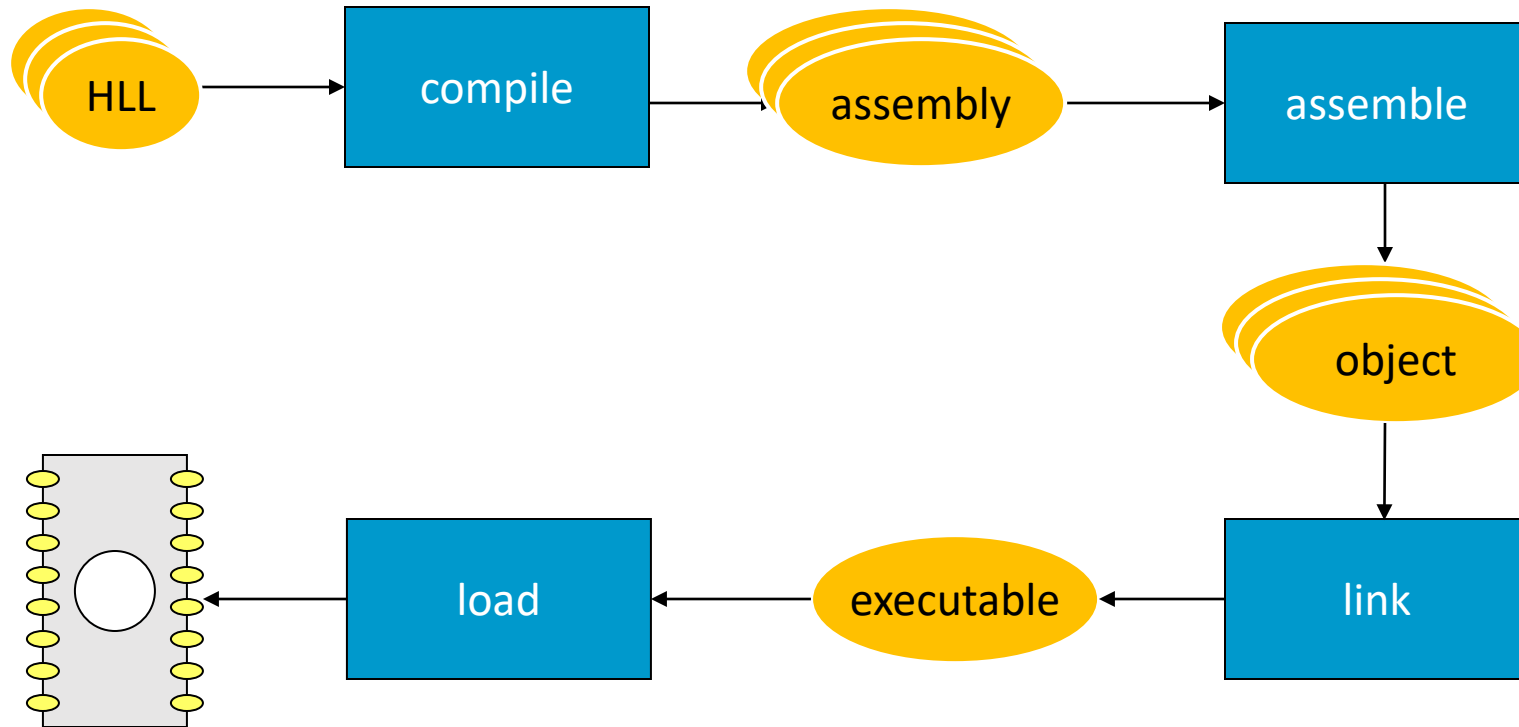
```
    loop_body(); i++; }
```

*equivalent*



# Assembly and linking

- Last steps in compilation:



# Multiple-module programs

- Programs may be composed from several files.
- Addresses become more specific during processing:
  - **relative addresses** are measured relative to the start of a module;
  - **absolute addresses** are measured relative to the start of the CPU address space.

# Assemblers

- Major tasks:
  - generate binary for symbolic instructions;
  - translate labels into addresses;
  - handle pseudo-ops (data, etc.).
- Generally one-to-one translation.
- Assembly labels:

```
        ORG 100  
label1   ADR r4,c
```



# Symbol table

	ADD r0,r1,r2
xx	ADD r3,r4,r5
	CMP r0,r3
yy	SUB r5,r6,r7

assembly code

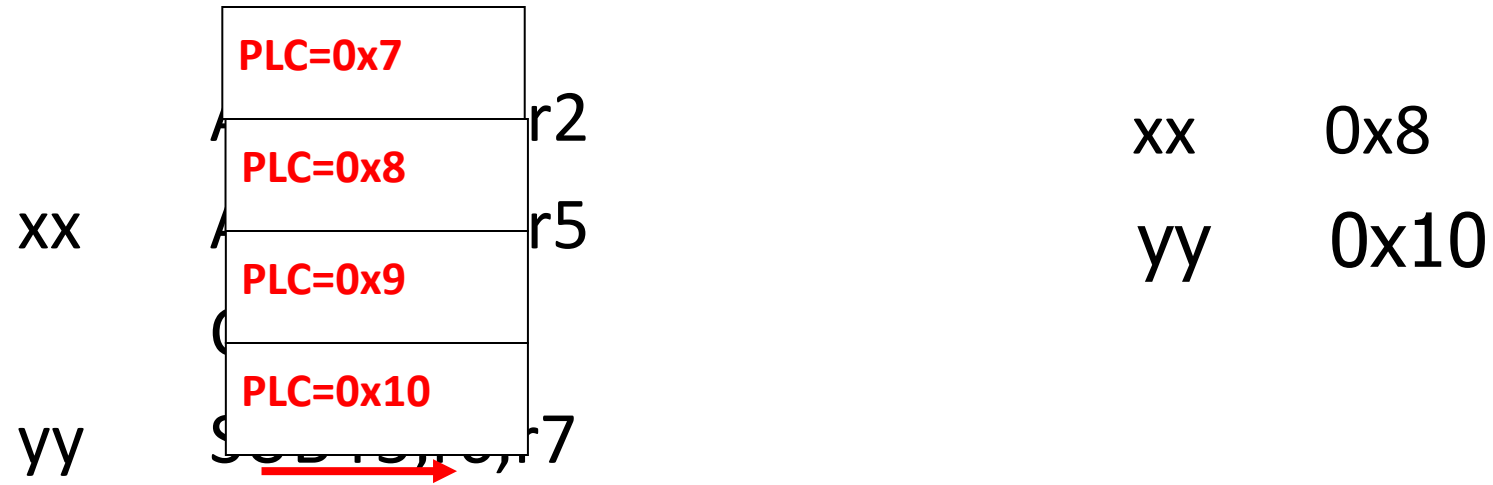
xx	0x8
yy	0x10

symbol table

# Symbol table generation

- Use program location counter (**PLC**) to determine address of each location.
- Scan program, keeping count of PLC.
- Addresses are generated at assembly time, not execution time.

# Symbol table example



# Two-pass assembly

- Pass 1:
  - generate symbol table
- Pass 2:
  - generate binary instructions

# Relative address generation

- Some label values may not be known at assembly time.
- Labels within the module may be kept in relative form.
- Must keep track of external labels---can't generate full binary for instructions that use external labels.

# Pseudo-operations

- Pseudo-ops do not generate instructions:
  - **ORG** sets program location.
  - **EQU** generates symbol table entry without advancing PLC.
  - **Data statements** define data blocks.

```
                ORG 100
label1  ADR r4,c
                LDR r0,[r4]
label2  ADR r4,d
                LDR r1,[r4]
label3  SUB r0,r0,r1
```

PLC = 116     $\longrightarrow$     label3

	ORG 100
label1	ADR r4,c
	LDR r0,[r4]
label2	ADR r4,d
	LDR r1,[r4]
label3	SUB r0,r0,r1

**Code**

label1	100
label2	108
label3	116

**Symbol table**

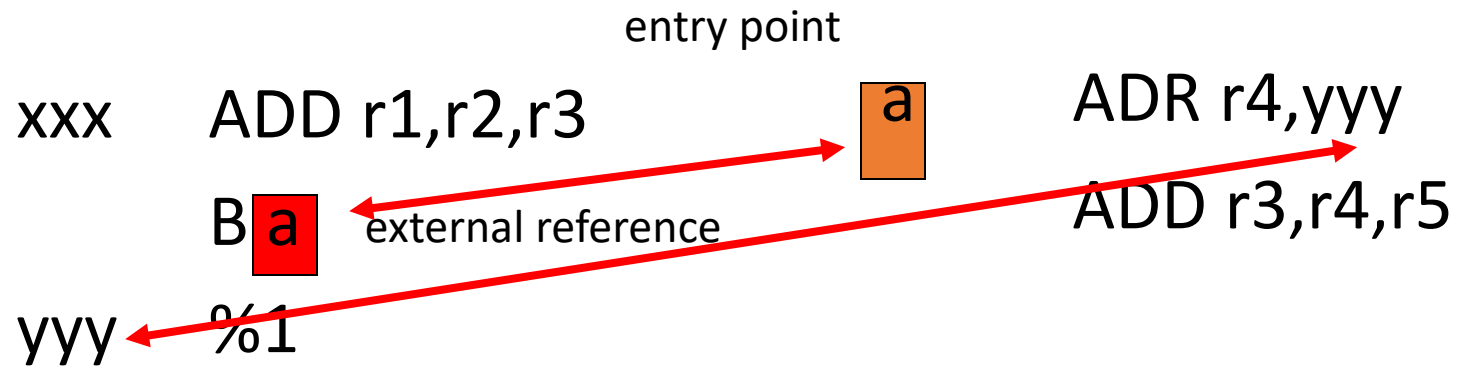


```
        ADD  r0,r1,r2
FOO     EQU  5
BAZ     SUB  r3,r4,#FOO
```

# Linking

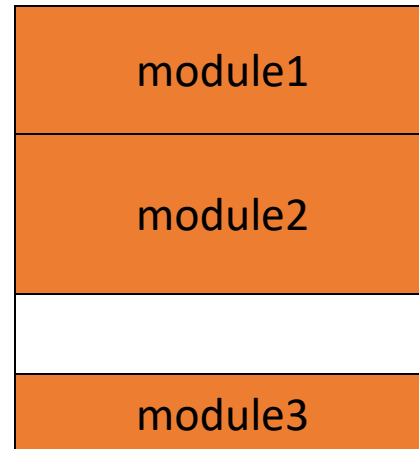
- Combines several object modules into a single executable module.
- Jobs:
  - put modules in order;
  - resolve labels across modules.

# Externals and entry points



# Module ordering

- Code modules must be placed in absolute positions in the memory space.
- **Load map** or linker flags control the order of modules.



# Dynamic linking

- Some operating systems link modules dynamically at run time:
  - shares one copy of library among all executing programs;
  - allows programs to be updated with new versions of libraries.

# Reentrancy

- Interrupting program with another call to the function does not change results.
  - Changing global variables compromises reentrancy.
- Recursive code:

```
int foo = 1;  
int task1() {  
    foo = foo + 1;  
    return foo;  
}
```

# Program design and analysis

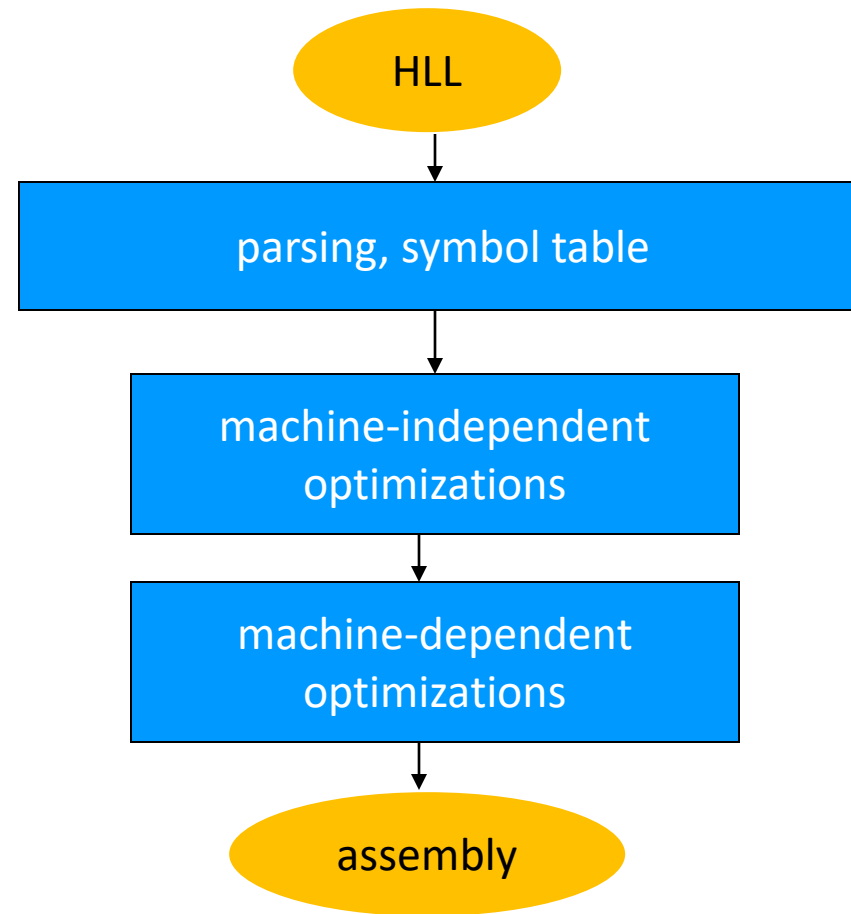
- Compilation flow.
- Basic statement translation.
- Basic optimizations.
- Interpreters and just-in-time compilers.

# Compilation

- Compilation strategy (Wirth):
  - compilation = translation + optimization
- Compiler determines quality of code:
  - use of CPU resources;
  - memory access scheduling;
  - code size.



# Basic compilation phases



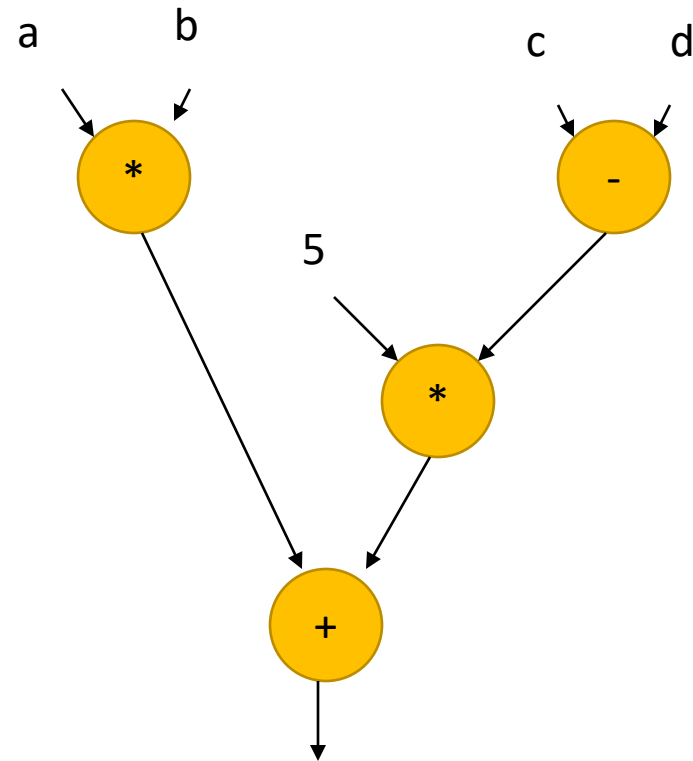
# Statement translation and optimization

- Source code is translated into intermediate form such as CDFG.
- CDFG is transformed/optimized.
- CDFG is translated into instructions with optimization decisions.
- Instructions are further optimized.

# Arithmetic expressions

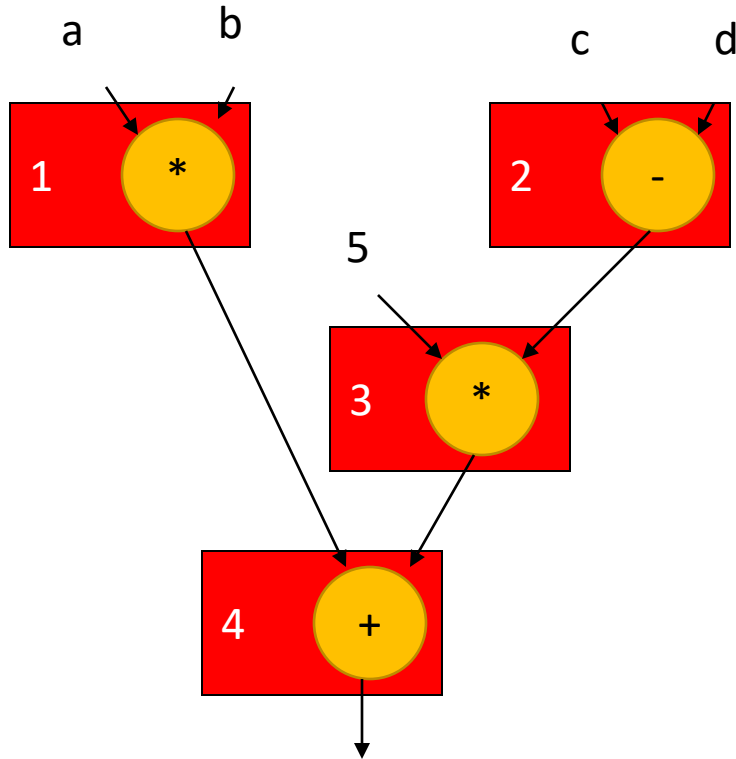
$a*b + 5*(c-d)$

expression



DFG

# Arithmetic expressions, cont'd.



DFG

```
ADR r4,a
MOV r1,[r4]
ADR r4,b
MOV r2,[r4]
MUL r3,r1,r2

ADR r4,c
MOV r1,[r4]
ADR r4,d
MOV r5,[r4]
SUB r6,r4,r5
MUL r7,r6,#5
ADD r8,r7,r3
```

code

# Compiled code for arithmetic expressions

ldr r2, [fp, #-16]

ldr r3, [fp, #-20]

mul r1, r3, r2 ; multiply

ldr r2, [fp, #-24]

ldr r3, [fp, #-28]

rsb r2, r3, r2 ; subtract

mov r3, r2

mov r3, r3, asl #2

add r3, r3, r2 ; add

add r3, r1, r3 ; add

str r3, [fp, #-32] ; assign

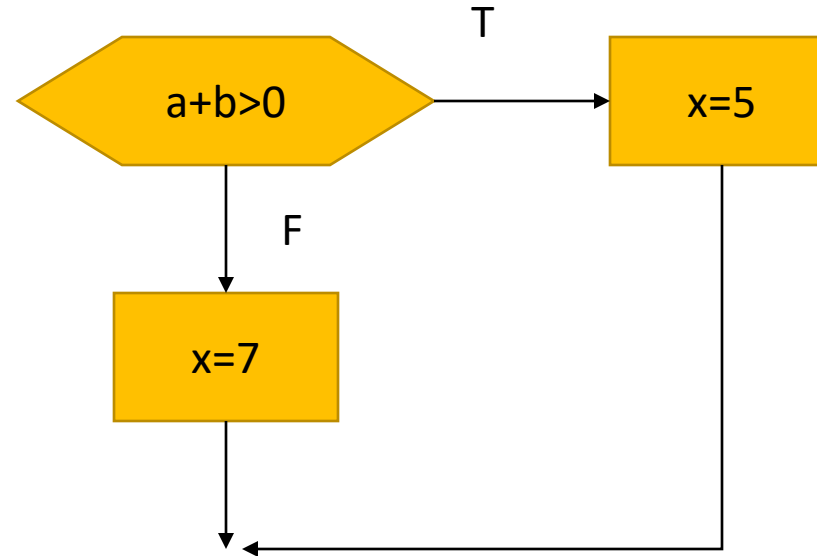
# Control code generation

if ( $a+b > 0$ )

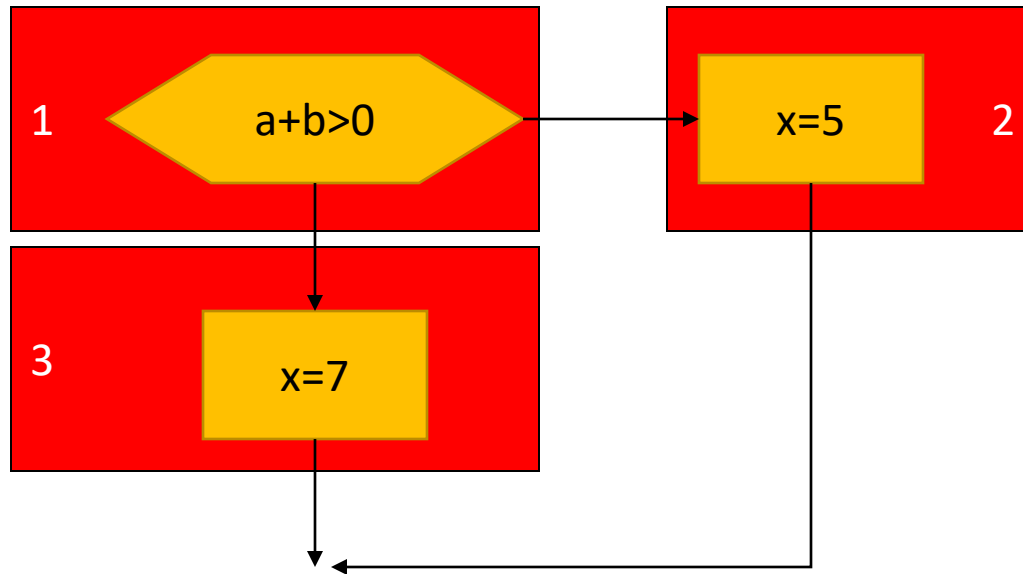
$x = 5$ ;

else

$x = 7$ ;



# Control code generation, cont'd.



```
ADR r5,a
LDR r1,[r5]
ADR r5,b
LDR r2,[r5]
ADD r3,r1,r2
BLE label3
  LDR r3,#5
  ADR r5,x
  STR r3,[r5]
  B stmtent
label3 LDR r3,#7
  ADR r5,x
  STR r3,[r5]
stmtent ...
```

# Compiled code for control

ldr r2, [fp, #-16]

ldr r3, [fp, #-20]

add r3, r2, r3

cmp r3, #0 ; test the branch  
condition

ble .L3 ; branch to false block if <=

mov r3, #5 ; true block

str r3, [fp, #-32]

b .L4 ; go to end of if statement

.L3: ; false block

mov r3, #7

str r3, [fp, #-32]

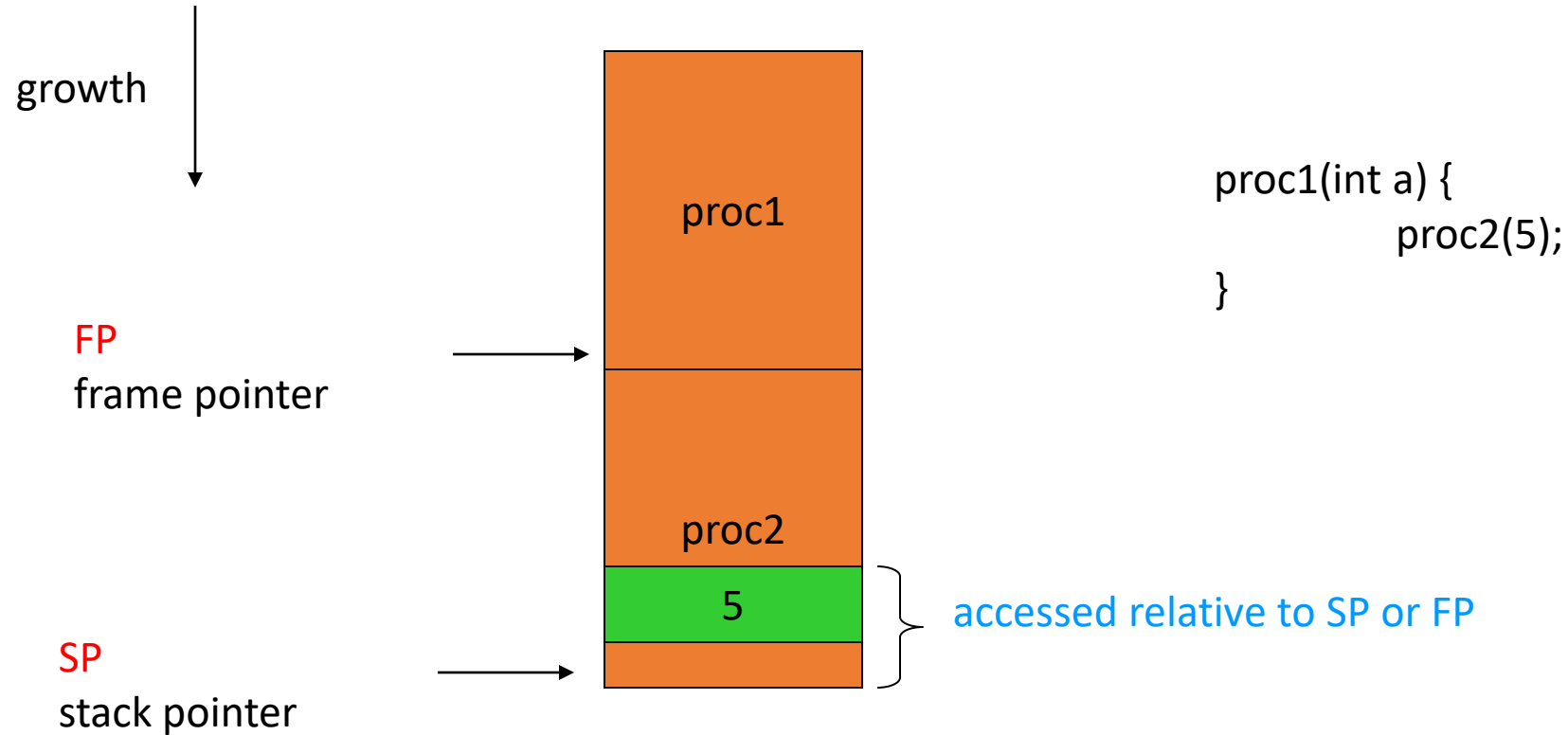
.L4:



# Procedure linkage

- Need code to:
  - call and return;
  - pass parameters and results.
- Parameters and returns are passed on stack.
  - Procedures with few parameters may use registers.
- Local variables are stored in the stack.

# Procedure stacks



# ARM procedure linkage

- APCS (ARM Procedure Call Standard):
  - r0-r3 pass parameters into procedure. Extra parameters are put on stack frame.
  - r0 holds return value.
  - r4-r7 hold register values.
  - r11 is frame pointer, r13 is stack pointer.
  - r10 holds limiting address on stack size to check for stack overflows.

```
int p1(int a, int b, int c, int d, int e) {  
    return a + e;  
}
```

```
mov    ip, sp          ; procedure entry  
stmfd  sp!, {fp, ip, lr, pc}  
sub    fp, ip, #4  
sub    sp, sp, #16  
str    r0, [fp, #-16]   ; put first four args on stack  
str    r1, [fp, #-20]  
str    r2, [fp, #-24]  
str    r3, [fp, #-28]  
ldr    r2, [fp, #-16]   ; load a  
ldr    r3, [fp, #4]     ; load e  
add    r3, r2, r3       ; compute a + e  
mov    r0, r3           ; put the result into r0 for return  
ldmea  fp, {fp, sp, pc} ; return
```

# Compiled procedure call code

```
ldr r3, [fp, #-32] ; get e
str r3, [sp, #0] ; put into p1()'s stack frame
ldr r0, [fp, #-16] ; put a into r0
ldr r1, [fp, #-20] ; put b into r1
ldr r2, [fp, #-24] ; put c into r2
ldr r3, [fp, #-28] ; put d into r3
bl p1 ; call p1()
mov r3, r0 ; move return value into r3
str r3, [fp, #-36] ; store into y in stack frame
```

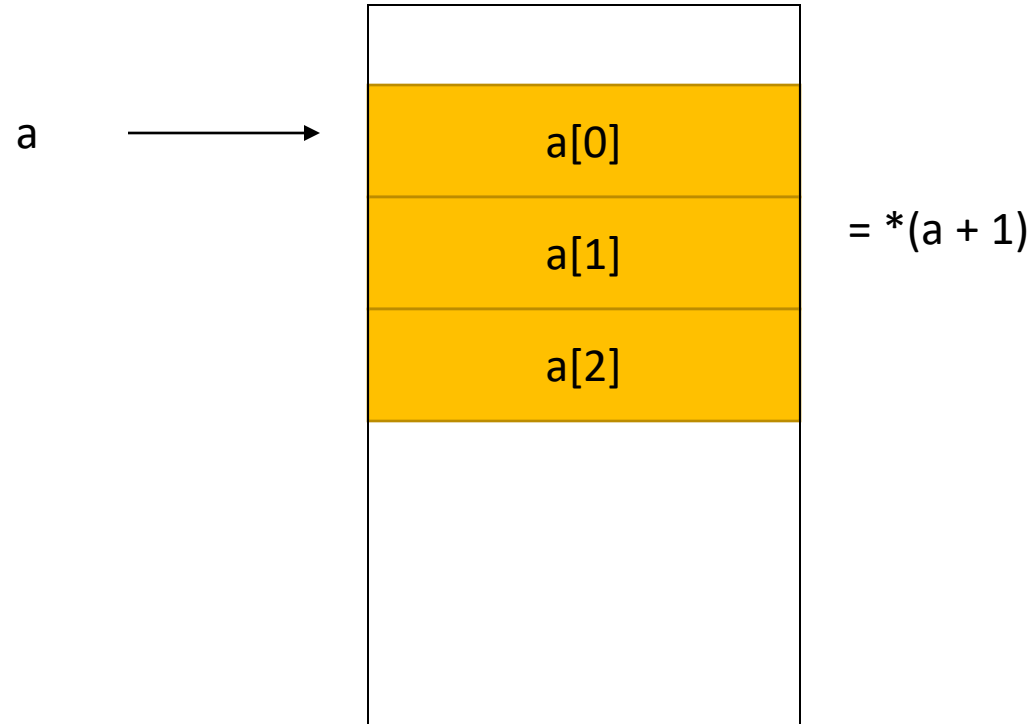
`y = p1(a, b, c, d, x);`

# Data structures

- Different types of data structures use different data layouts.
- Some offsets into data structure can be computed at compile time, others must be computed at run time.

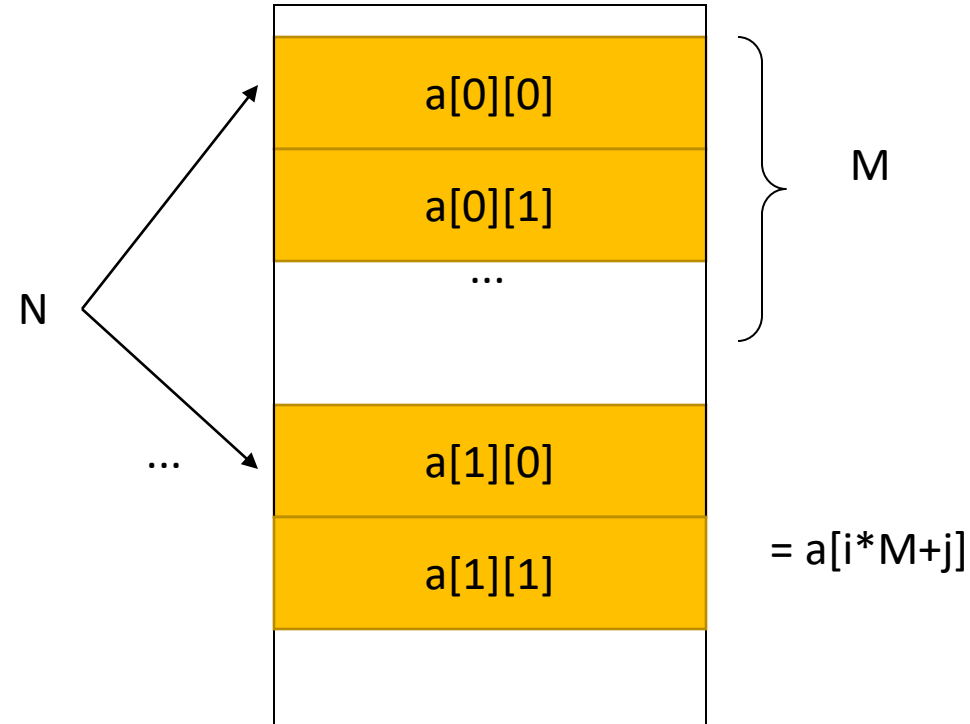
# One-dimensional arrays

- C array name points to 0th element:



# Two-dimensional arrays

- Row-major layout:



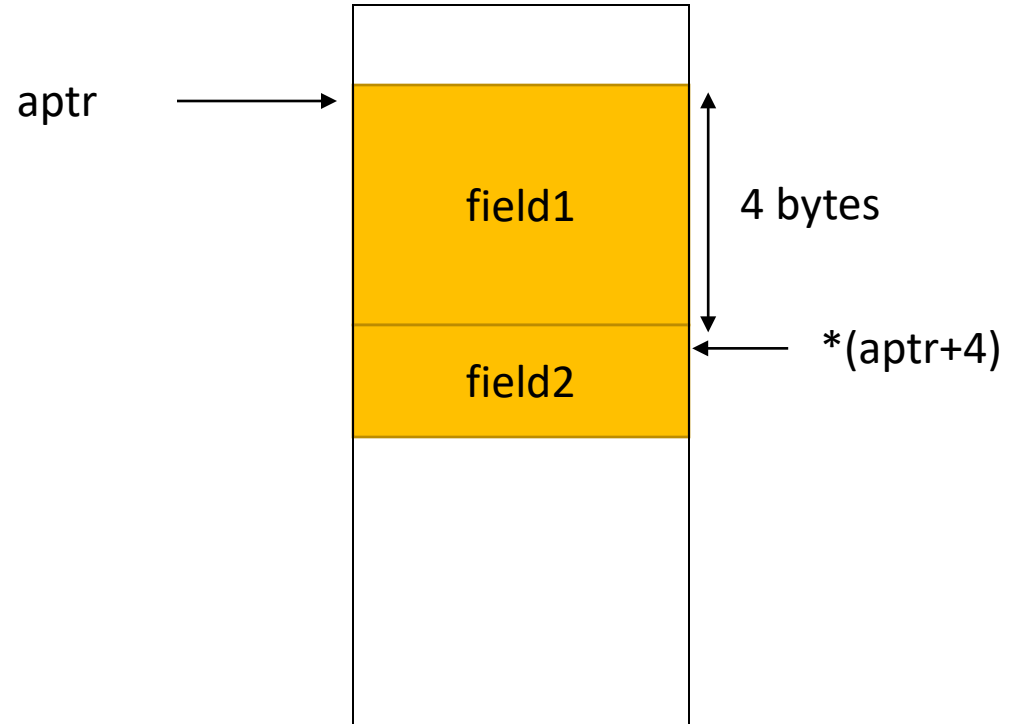


# Structures

- Fields within structures are static offsets:

```
struct {  
    int field1;  
    char field2;  
} mystruct;
```

```
struct mystruct a, *aptr = &a;
```



# Expression simplification

- Constant folding:
  - $8+1 = 9$
- Algebraic:
  - $a*b + a*c = a*(b+c)$
- Strength reduction:
  - $a*2 = a<<1$

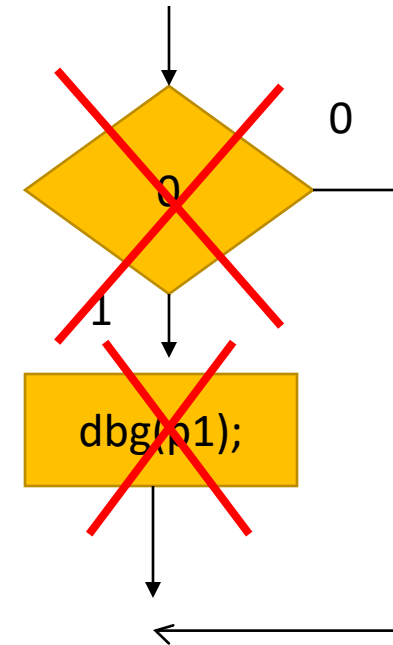
# Dead code elimination

- Dead code:

```
#define DEBUG 0
```

```
if (DEBUG) dbg(p1);
```

- Can be eliminated by analysis of control flow, constant folding.



# Procedure inlining

- Eliminates procedure linkage overhead:

```
int foo(a,b,c) { return a + b - c;}
```

```
z = foo(w,x,y);
```



```
z = w + x + y;
```

# Loop transformations

- Goals:
  - reduce loop overhead;
  - increase opportunities for pipelining;
  - improve memory system performance.

# Loop unrolling

- Reduces loop overhead, enables some other optimizations.

```
for (i=0; i<4; i++)
```

```
    a[i] = b[i] * c[i];
```



```
for (i=0; i<2; i++) {
```

```
    a[i*2] = b[i*2] * c[i*2];
```

```
    a[i*2+1] = b[i*2+1] * c[i*2+1];
```

```
}
```

# Loop fusion and distribution

- Fusion combines two loops into 1:

```
for (i=0; i<N; i++) a[i] = b[i] * 5;
```

```
for (j=0; j<N; j++) w[j] = c[j] * d[j];
```

```
⇒ for (i=0; i<N; i++) {  
    a[i] = b[i] * 5; w[i] = c[i] * d[i];  
}
```

- Distribution breaks one loop into two.
- Changes optimizations within loop body.

# Register allocation

- Goals:
  - choose register to hold each variable;
  - determine lifespan of variable in the register.
- Basic case: within basic block.



# Register lifetime graph

$w = a + b;$

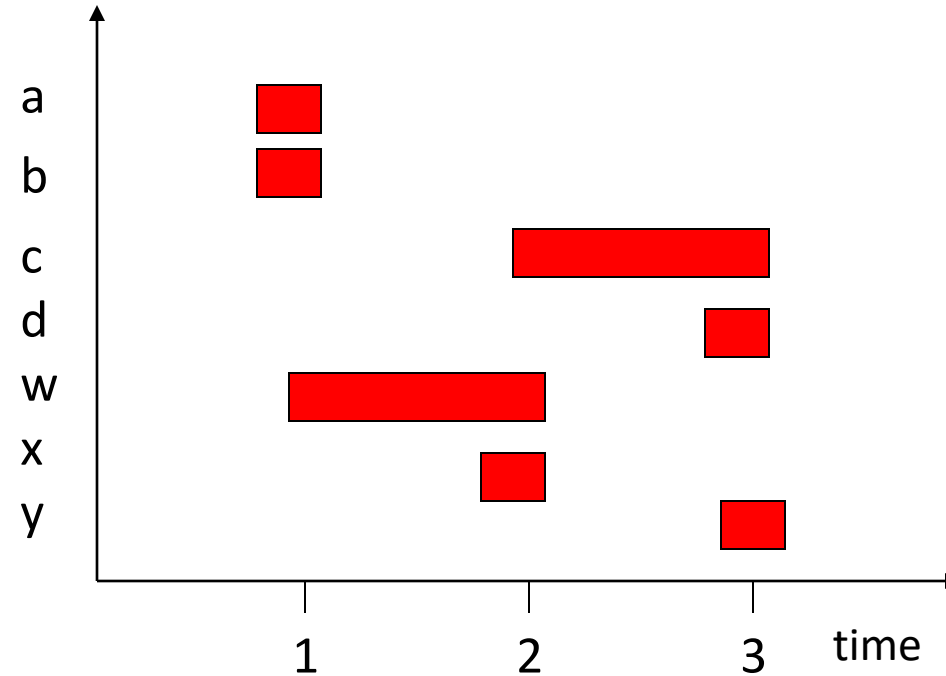
$x = c + w;$

$y = c + d;$

$t=1$

$t=2$

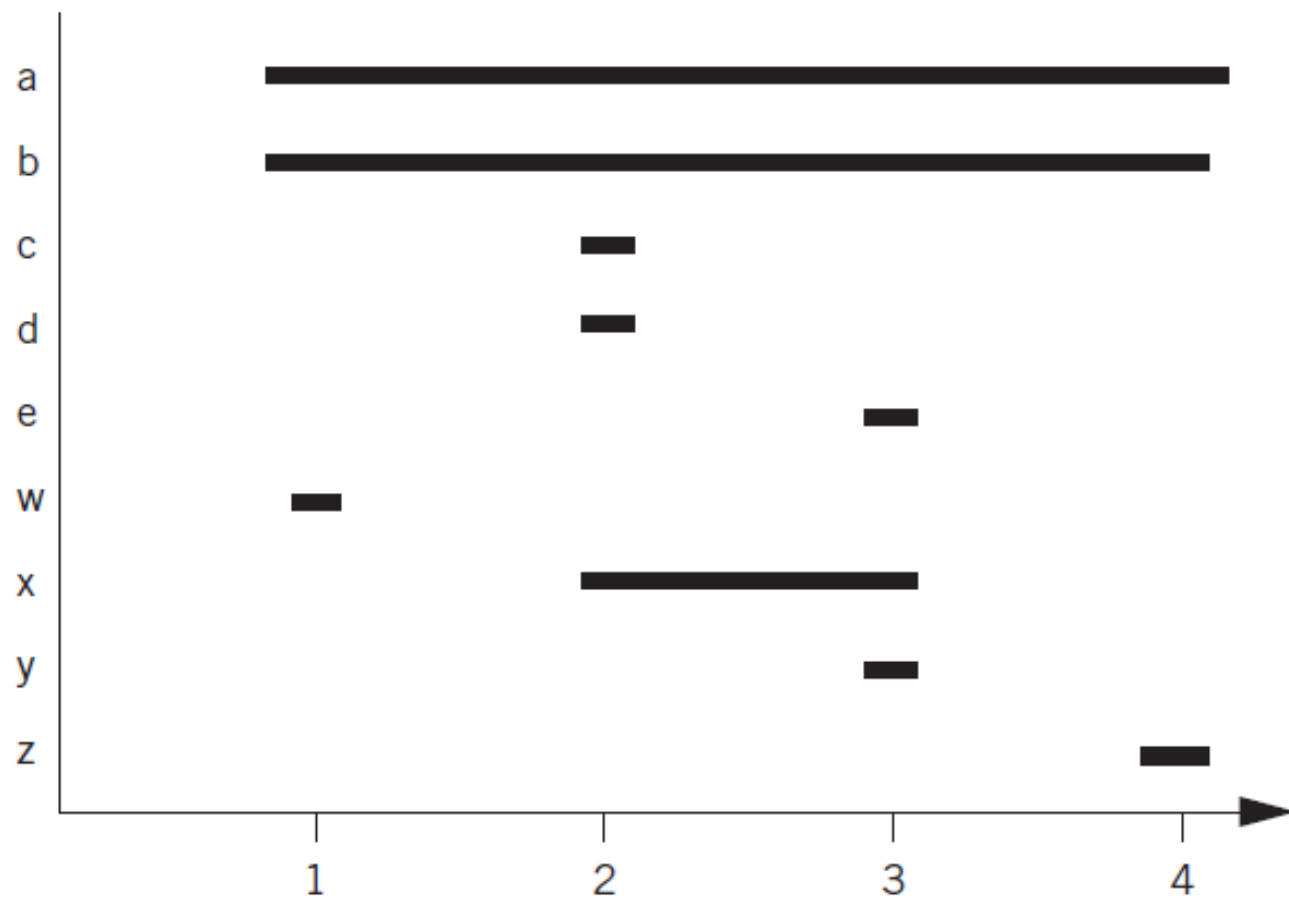
$t=3$



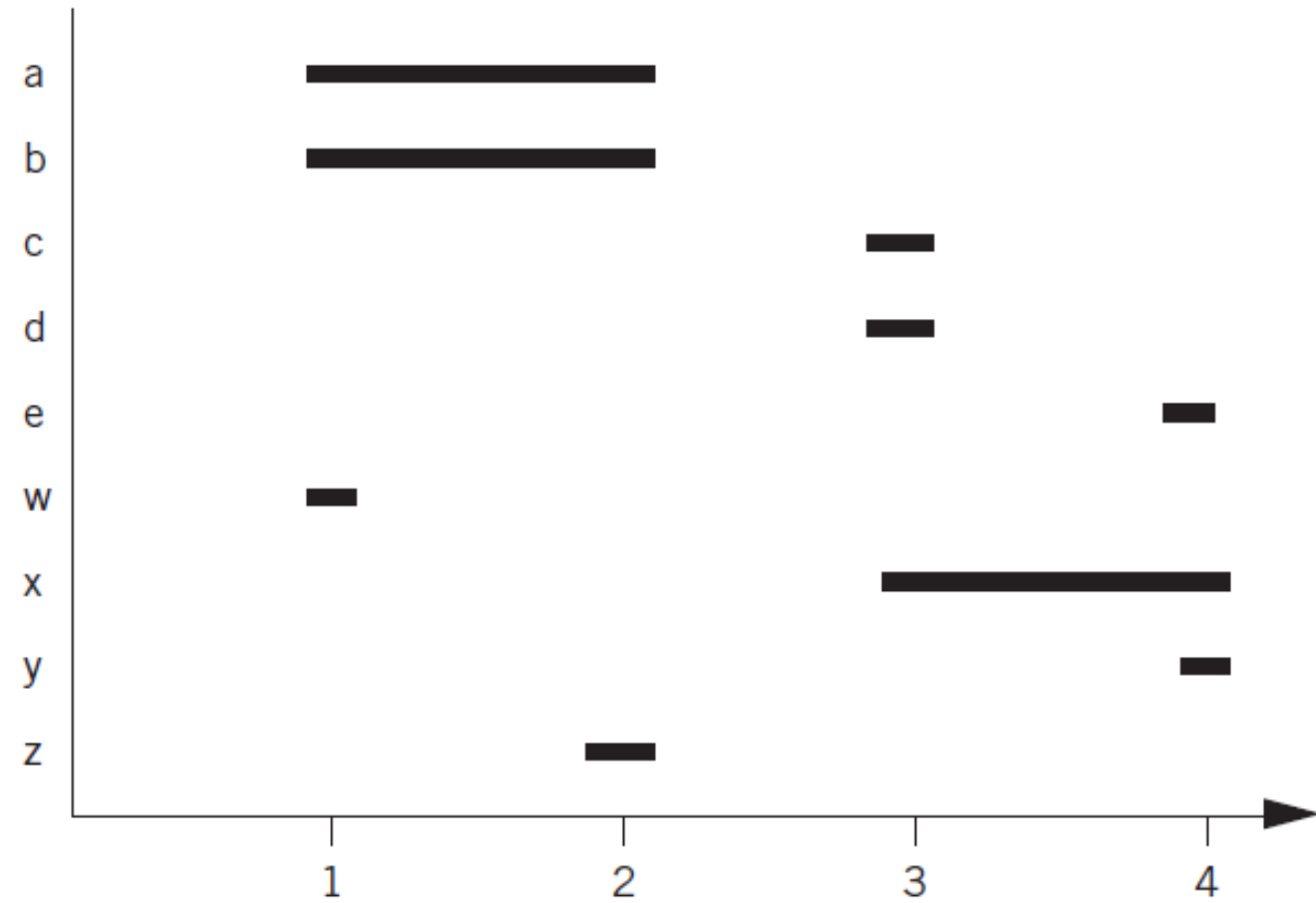
# Instruction scheduling

- Non-pipelined machines do not need instruction scheduling: any order of instructions that satisfies data dependencies runs equally fast.
- In pipelined machines, execution time of one instruction depends on the nearby instructions: **opcode**, **operands**.

```
w = a + b; /* statement 1 */  
x = c + d; /* statement 2 */  
y = x + e; /* statement 3 */  
z = a - b; /* statement 4 */
```



```
w = a + b; /*statement 1 */  
z = a - b; /* statement 29 */  
x = c + d; /*statement 39 */  
y = x + e; /*statement 49 */
```



# Reservation table

- A reservation table relates instructions/time to CPU resources.

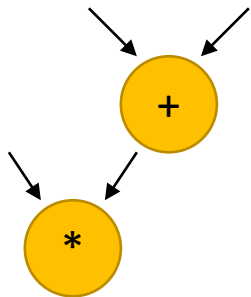
Time/instr	A	B
instr1	X	
instr2	X	X
instr3	X	
instr4		X

# Software pipelining

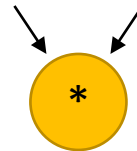
- Schedules instructions across loop iterations.
- Reduces instruction latency in iteration  $i$  by inserting instructions from iteration  $i+1$ .

# Instruction selection

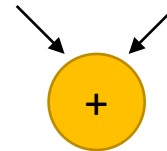
- May be several ways to implement an operation or sequence of operations.
- Represent operations as graphs, match possible instruction sequences onto graph.



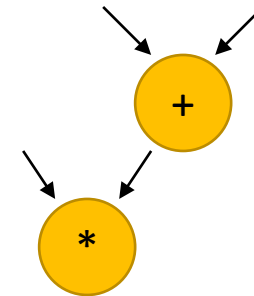
expression



MUL



ADD



MADD

templates

# Using your compiler

- Understand various optimization levels (-O1, -O2, etc.)
- Look at mixed compiler/assembler output.
- Modifying compiler output requires care:
  - correctness;
  - loss of hand-tweaked code.



# Interpreters and JIT compilers

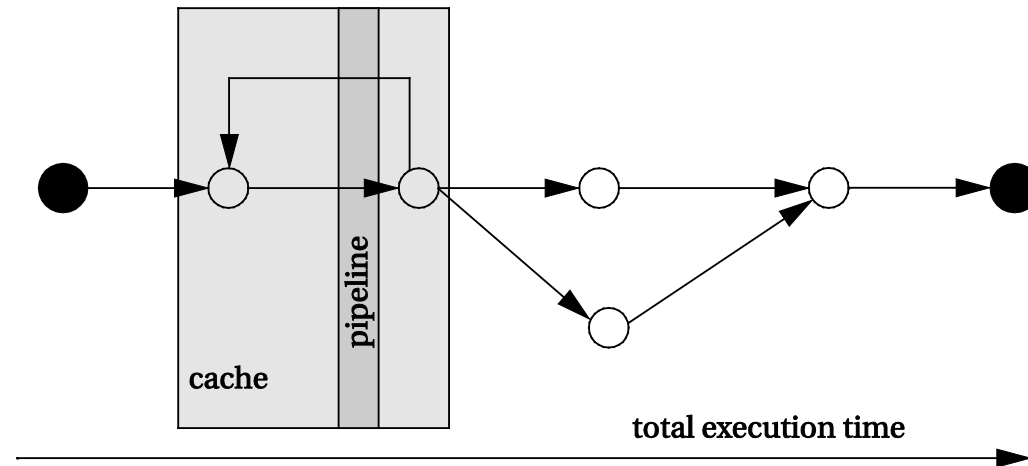
- **Interpreter**: translates and executes program statements on-the-fly.
- **JIT compiler**: compiles small sections of code into instructions during program execution.
  - Eliminates some translation overhead.
  - Often requires more memory.

# Program design and analysis

- Program-level performance analysis.
- Optimizing for:
  - Execution time.
  - Energy/power.
  - Program size.
- Program validation and testing.
- Safety and security.

# Program-level performance analysis

- Need to understand performance in detail:
  - Real-time behavior, not just typical.
  - On complex platforms.
- Program performance  $\neq$  CPU performance:
  - Pipeline, cache are windows into program.
  - We must analyze the entire program.



# Complexities of program performance

- Varies with input data:
  - Different-length paths.
- Cache effects.
- Instruction-level performance variations:
  - Pipeline interlocks.
  - Fetch times.

# How to measure program performance

- Simulate execution of the CPU.
  - Makes CPU state visible.
- Measure on real CPU using timer.
  - Requires modifying the program to control the timer.
- Measure on real CPU using logic analyzer.
  - Requires events visible on the pins.

# Program performance metrics

- Average-case execution time.
  - Typically used in application programming.
- Worst-case execution time.
  - A component in deadline satisfaction.
- Best-case execution time.
  - Task-level interactions can cause best-case program behavior to result in worst-case system behavior.

# Elements of program performance

- Basic program execution time formula:
  - execution time = program path + instruction timing
- Solving these problems independently helps simplify analysis.
  - Easier to separate on simpler CPUs.
- Accurate performance analysis requires:
  - Assembly/binary code.
  - Execution platform.

# Data-dependent paths in an if statement

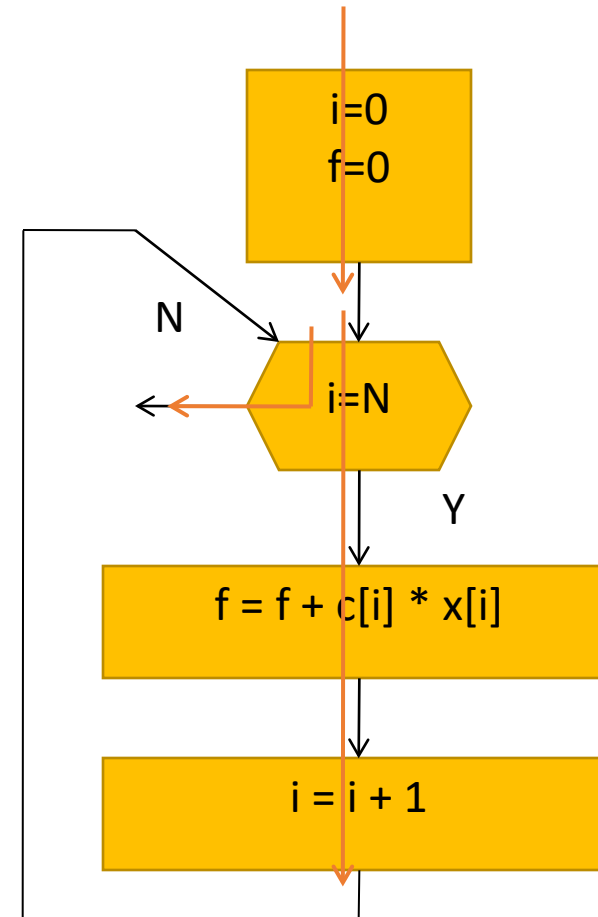
```
if (a || b) { /* T1 */  
    if ( c ) /* T2 */  
        x = r*s+t; /* A1 */  
    else y=r+s; /* A2 */  
    z = r+s+u; /* A3 */  
}  
else {  
    if ( c ) /* T3 */  
        y = r-t; /* A4 */  
}
```

a	b	c	path
0	0	0	T1=F, T3=F: no assignments
0	0	1	T1=F, T3=T: A4
0	1	0	T1=T, T2=F: A2, A3
0	1	1	T1=T, T2=T: A1, A3
1	0	0	T1=T, T2=F: A2, A3
1	0	1	T1=T, T2=T: A1, A3
1	1	0	T1=T, T2=F: A2, A3
1	1	1	T1=T, T2=T: A1, A3



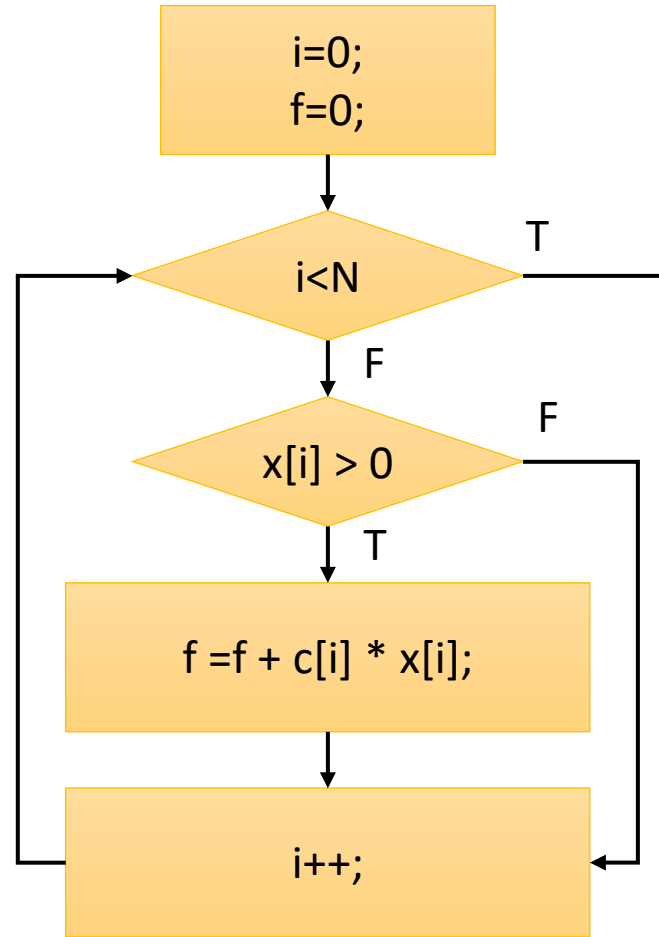
# Paths in a loop

```
for (i=0, f=0; i<N; i++)  
    f = f + c[i] * x[i];
```



# Paths in a loop with conditions

```
for (i=0, f=0; i<N; i++) {  
    if (x[i] > 0)  
        f = f + c[i] * x[i];  
}
```



executed 1 time

executed  $N+1$  times

executed  $N$  times

executed  $[0, N]$  times

executed  $N$  times

# Instruction timing

- Not all instructions take the same amount of time.
  - Multi-cycle instructions.
  - Fetches.
- Execution times of instructions are not independent.
  - Pipeline interlocks.
  - Cache effects.
- Execution times may vary with operand value.
  - Floating-point operations.
  - Some multi-cycle integer operations.

# Caching effects

```
for (i = 0, f = 0; i < N; i++)  
    f = f + c[i] * x[i];
```

$$t_{loop} = 2N + \frac{N}{L}t_{miss} + N\left(1 - \frac{1}{L}\right)t_{hit}$$

line 0	Word 0	Word 1	Word 2	Word 3
line 1	Word 4	Word 5	Word 6	Word 7

- First access to a cache line causes a miss and prefetch.
- Later accesses to that line result in cache hits.

# Mesaurement-driven performance analysis

- Not so easy as it sounds:
  - Must actually have access to the CPU.
  - Must know data inputs that give worst/best case performance.
  - Must make state visible.
- Still an important method for performance analysis.

# Feeding the program

- Need to know the desired input values.
- May need to write software scaffolding to generate the input values.
- Software scaffolding may also need to examine outputs to generate feedback-driven inputs.

# Trace-driven measurement

- Trace-driven:
  - Instrument the program.
  - Save information about the path.
- Requires modifying the program.
- Trace files are large.
- Widely used for cache analysis.

# Physical measurement

- In-circuit emulator allows tracing.
  - Affects execution timing.
- Logic analyzer can measure behavior at pins.
  - Address bus can be analyzed to look for events.
  - Code can be modified to make events visible.
- Particularly important for real-world input streams.



# CPU simulation

- Some simulators are less accurate.
- Cycle-accurate simulator provides accurate clock-cycle timing.
  - Simulator models CPU internals.
  - Simulator writer must know how CPU works.

# SimpleScalar FIR filter simulation

```
int x[N] = {8, 17, ... };
int c[N] = {1, 2, ... };
main() {
    int i, k, f;
    for (k=0; k<COUNT; k++)
        for (i=0; i<N; i++)
            f += c[i]*x[i];
}
```

COUNT	total sim cycles	sim cycles per filter execution
100	25854	259
1,000	155759	156
1,0000	1451840	145

# Performance optimization motivation

- Embedded systems must often meet deadlines.
  - Faster may not be fast enough.
- Need to be able to analyze execution time.
  - Worst-case, not typical.
- Need techniques for reliably improving execution time.

# Programs and performance analysis

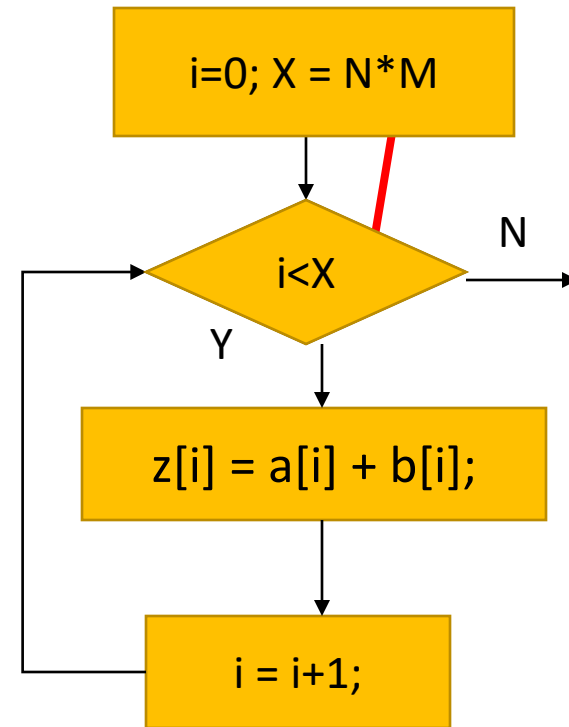
- Best results come from analyzing optimized instructions, not high-level language code:
  - non-obvious translations of HLL statements into instructions;
  - code may move;
  - cache effects are hard to predict.

# Loop optimizations

- Loops are good targets for optimization.
- Basic loop optimizations:
  - code motion;
  - induction-variable elimination;
  - strength reduction ( $x*2 \rightarrow x \ll 1$ ).

# Code motion

```
for (i=0; i<N*M; i++)  
    z[i] = a[i] + b[i];
```



# Induction variable elimination

- **Induction variable**: loop index.
- Consider loop:  
    for (i=0; i<N; i++)  
        for (j=0; j<M; j++)  
            z[i,j] = b[i,j];
- Rather than recompute  $i*M+j$  for each array in each iteration, share induction variable between arrays, increment at end of loop body.

```
for (i = 0; i < N; i++)  
    for (j = 0; j < M; j++) {  
        zbinduct = i*M + j;  
        *(zptr + zbinduct) = *(bptr + zbinduct);  
  
zbinduct = 0;  
for (i = 0; i < N; i++) {  
    for (j = 0; j < M; j++) {  
        *(zptr + zbinduct) = *(bptr + zbinduct);  
        zbinduct++;  
    }  
}
```

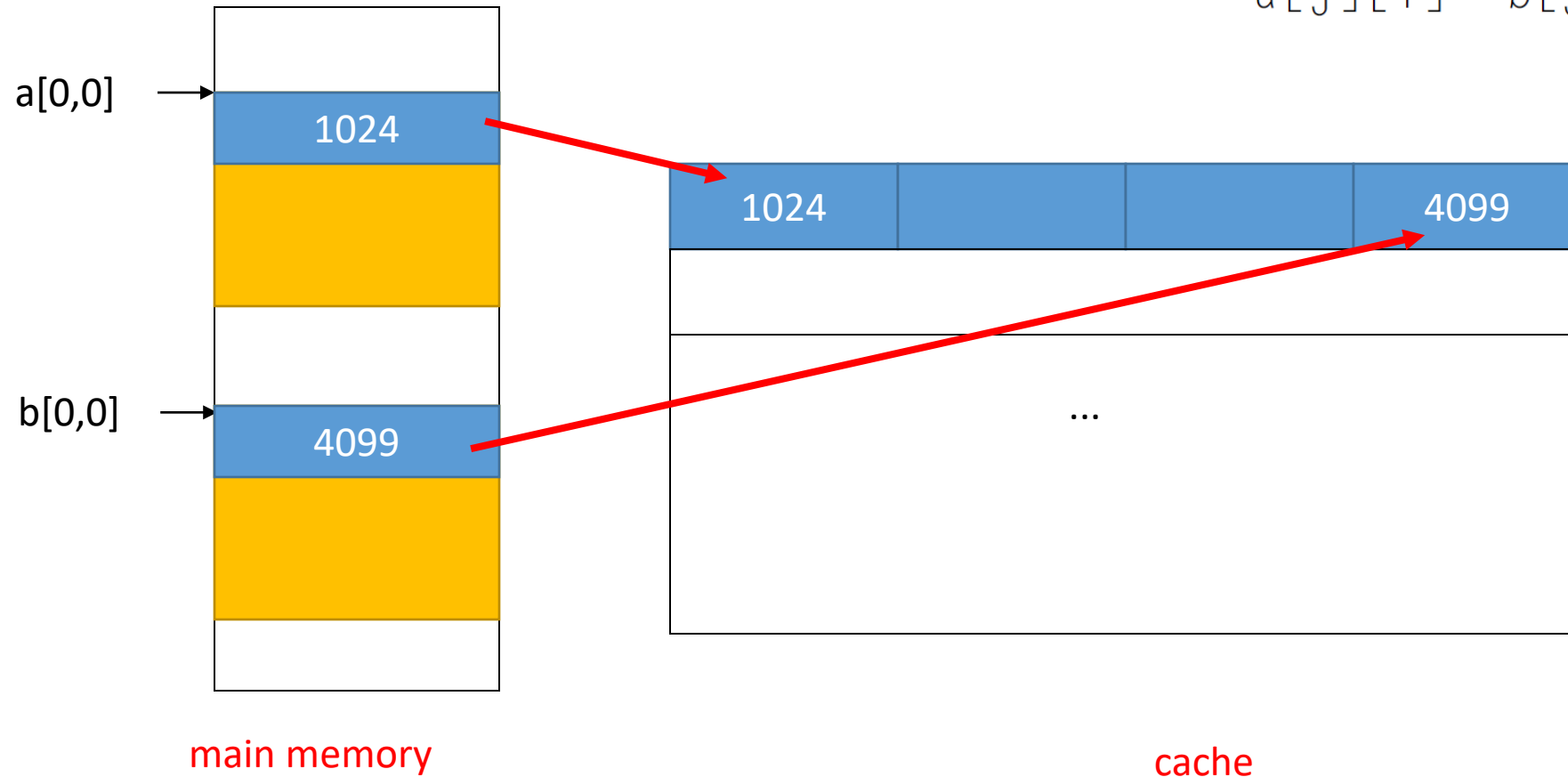


# Cache analysis

- **Loop nest**: set of loops, one inside other.
- **Perfect loop nest**: no conditionals in nest.
- Because loops use large quantities of data, cache conflicts are common.

# Array conflicts in cache

```
for (j = 0; j < M; j++)  
  for (i = 0; i < N; i++)  
    a[j][i] = b[j][i] * c;
```



# Array conflicts, cont'd.

- Array elements conflict because they are in the same line, even if not mapped to same location.
- Solutions:
  - move one array;
  - pad array to change alignment.

# Array padding

- Add array elements to change mapping into cache:

	a[1,1]	a[1,2]

before

a[0,0]	a[0,1]	a[0,2]	a[0,2]
a[1,0]	a[1,1]	a[1,2]	a[1,2]

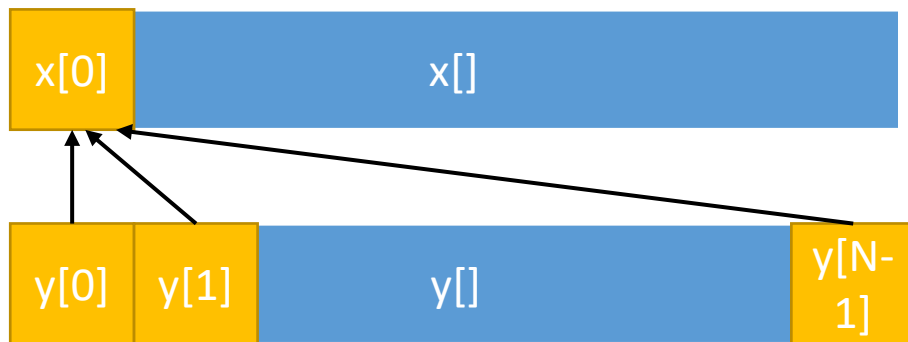
after

# Loop tiling

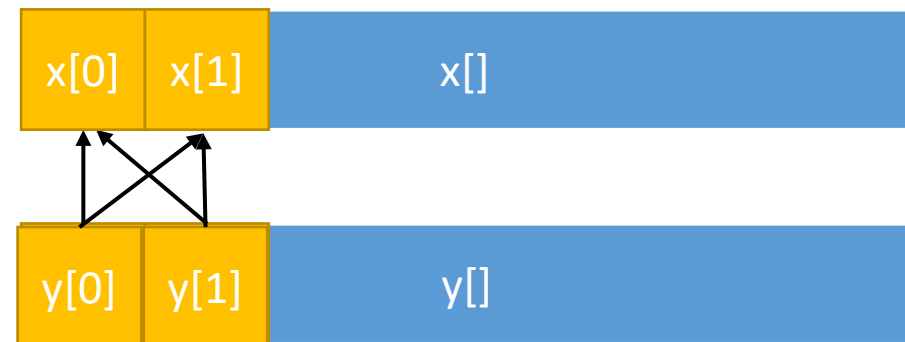
- Breaks one loop into a nest of loops.
- Changes order of accesses within array.
  - Changes cache behavior.

# Loop tiling example

```
for (i=0; i<N; i++) {  
    for (j=0; j<N; j++) {  
        z[i][j] = x[i] * y[j];  
    }  
}
```



```
for (j=0; j < N; j += TILE) {  
    for (i=0; i<N; i++) {  
        for (jj=0; jj<TILE; jj++) {  
            z[i][j + jj] = x[i] * y[j + jj];  
        }  
    }  
}
```



# Performance optimization hints

- Use registers efficiently.
- Use page mode memory accesses.
- Analyze cache behavior:
  - instruction conflicts can be handled by rewriting code, rescheduling;
  - conflicting scalar data can easily be moved;
  - conflicting array data can be moved, padded.

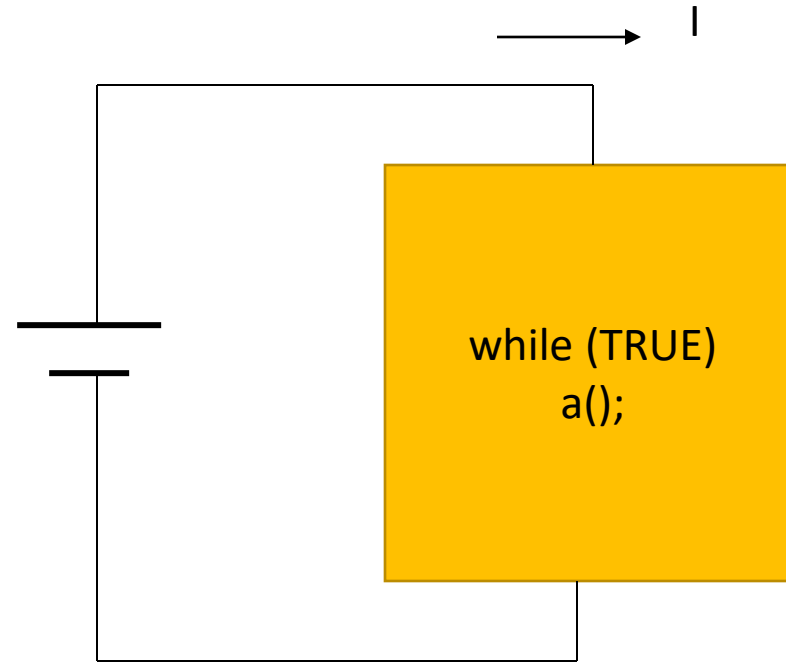
# Energy/power optimization

- **Energy**: ability to do work.
  - Most important in battery-powered systems.
- **Power**: energy per unit time.
  - Important even in wall-plug systems---power becomes heat.



# Measuring energy consumption

- Execute a small loop, measure current:



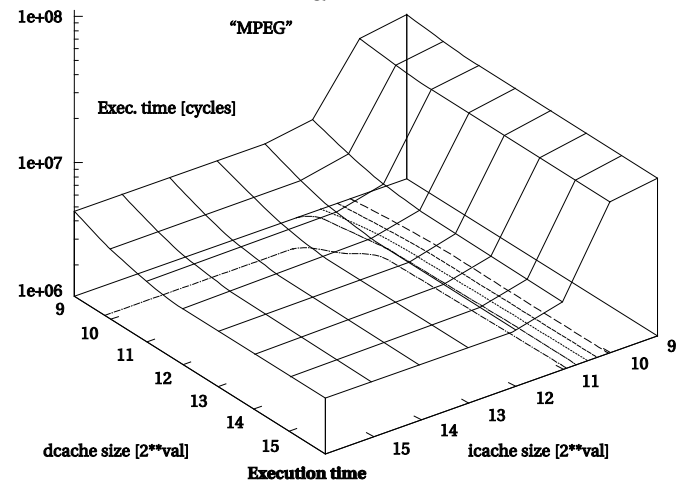
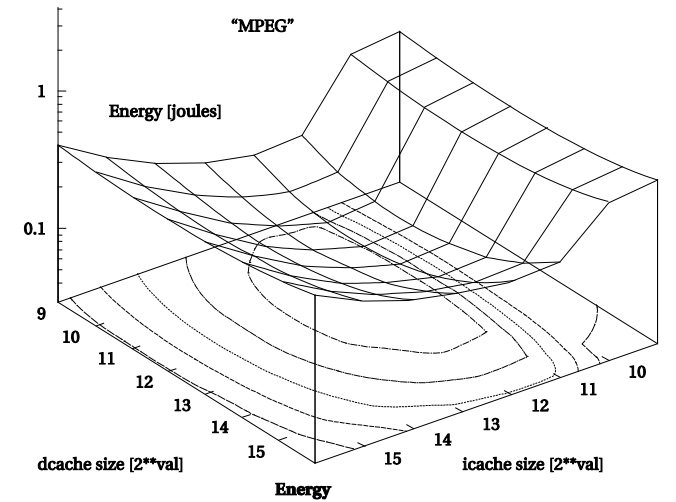
# Sources of energy consumption

- Relative energy per operation (Catthoor et al):
  - memory transfer: 33
  - external I/O: 10
  - SRAM write: 9
  - SRAM read: 4.4
  - multiply: 3.6
  - add: 1

# Cache behavior is important

- Energy consumption has a sweet spot as cache size changes:
  - **cache too small**: program thrashes, burning energy on external memory accesses;
  - **cache too large**: cache itself burns too much power.

# Cache sweet spot



[Li98] © 1998 IEEE

# Optimizing for energy

- First-order optimization:
  - high performance = low energy.
- Not many instructions trade speed for energy.

# Optimizing for energy, cont'd.

- Use registers efficiently.
- Identify and eliminate cache conflicts.
- Moderate loop unrolling eliminates some loop overhead instructions.
- Eliminate pipeline stalls.
- Inlining procedures may help: reduces linkage, but may increase cache thrashing.

# Efficient loops

- General rules:
  - Don't use function calls.
  - Keep loop body small to enable local repeat (only forward branches).
  - Use unsigned integer for loop counter.
  - Use  $\leq$  to test loop counter.
  - Make use of compiler---global optimization, software pipelining.

# Single-instruction repeat loop example

STM #4000h,AR2

; load pointer to source

STM #100h,AR3

; load pointer to destination

RPT #(1024-1)

MVDD \*AR2+,\*AR3+

; move



# Optimizing for program size

- Goal:
  - reduce hardware cost of memory;
  - reduce power consumption of memory units.
- Two opportunities:
  - data;
  - instructions.

# Data size minimization

- Reuse constants, variables, data buffers in different parts of code.
  - Requires careful verification of correctness.
- Generate data using instructions.

# Reducing code size

- Avoid function inlining.
- Choose CPU with compact instructions.
- Use specialized instructions where possible.

# Program validation and testing

- But does it work?
- Concentrate here on functional verification.
- Major testing strategies:
  - Black box doesn't look at the source code.
  - Clear box (white box) does look at the source code.

# Clear-box testing

- Examine the source code to determine whether it works:
  - Can you actually exercise a path?
  - Do you get the value you expect along a path?
- Testing procedure:
  - **Controllability**: provide program with inputs.
  - Execute.
  - **Observability**: examine outputs.

# Controlling and observing programs

```
firout = 0.0;
for (j=curr, k=0; j<N; j++, k++)
    firout += buff[j] * c[k];
for (j=0; j<curr; j++, k++)
    firout += buff[j] * c[k];
if (firout > 100.0) firout = 100.0;
if (firout < -100.0) firout = -100.0;
```

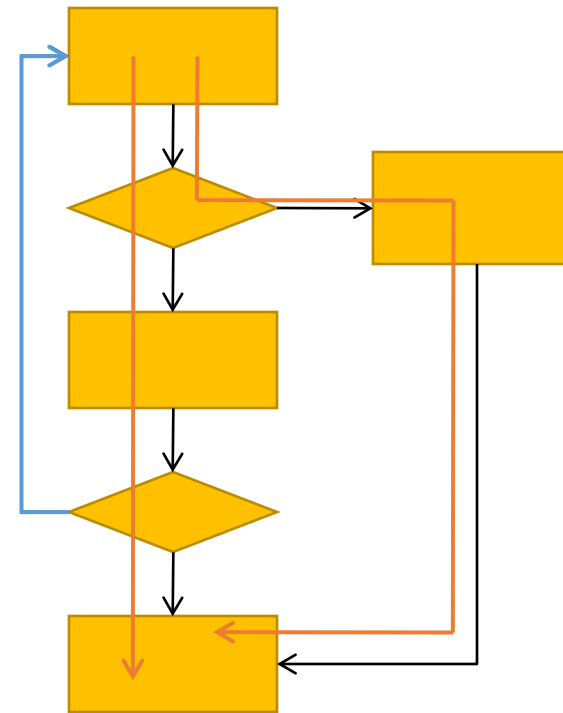
- **Controllability:**
  - Must fill circular buffer with desired N values.
  - Other code governs how we access the buffer.
- **Observability:**
  - Want to examine firout before limit testing.

# Execution paths and testing

- Paths are important in functional testing as well as performance analysis.
- In general, an exponential number of paths through the program.
  - Show that some paths dominate others.
  - Heuristically limit paths.

# Choosing the paths to test

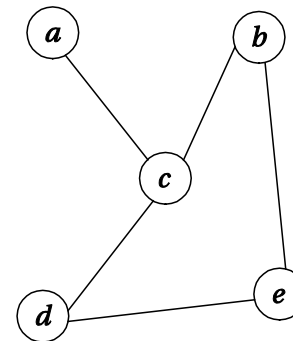
- Possible criteria:
  - Execute every statement at least once.
  - Execute every branch direction at least once.
- Equivalent for structured programs.
- Not true for gotos.





# Basis paths

- Approximate CDFG with undirected graph.
- Undirected graphs have basis paths:
  - All paths are linear combinations of basis paths.



**Graph**

	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>e</i>
<i>a</i>	0	0	1	0	0
<i>b</i>	0	0	1	0	1
<i>c</i>	1	1	0	1	0
<i>d</i>	0	0	1	0	1
<i>e</i>	0	1	0	1	0

**Incidence matrix**

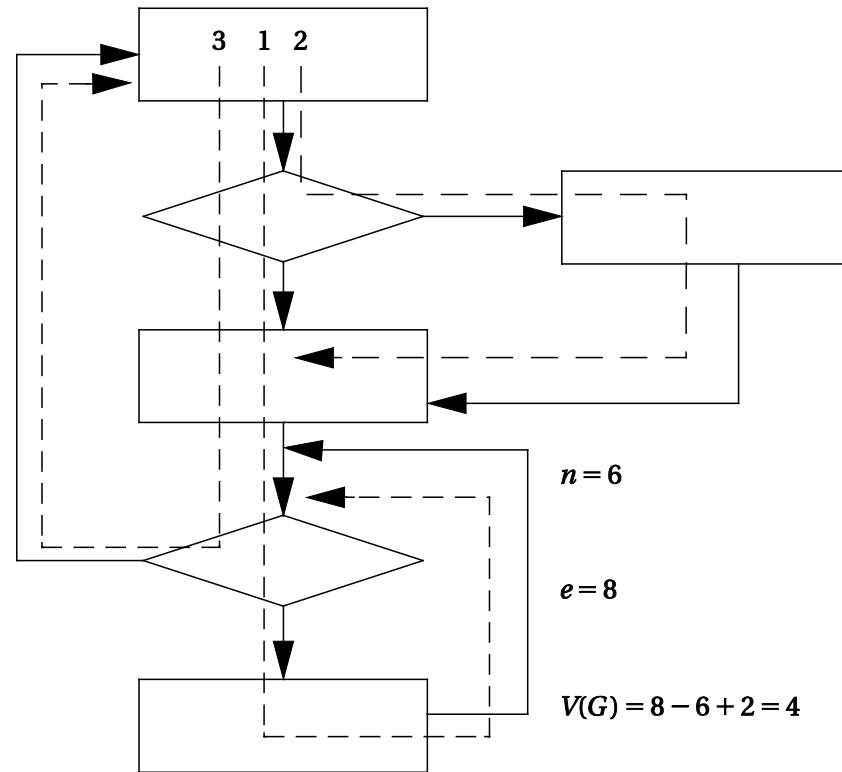
<i>a</i>	1	0	0	0	0
<i>b</i>	0	1	0	0	0
<i>c</i>	0	0	1	0	0
<i>d</i>	0	0	0	1	0
<i>e</i>	0	0	0	0	1

**Basis set**

# Cyclomatic complexity

- Cyclomatic complexity is a bound on the size of basis sets:

- $e = \# \text{ edges}$
- $n = \# \text{ nodes}$
- $p = \text{number of graph components}$
- $M = e - n + 2p.$



# Branch testing

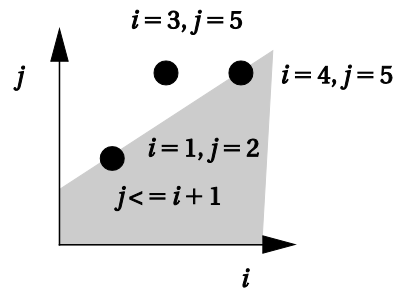
- Heuristic for testing branches.
  - Exercise true and false branches of conditional.
  - Exercise every simple condition at least once.

# Branch testing example

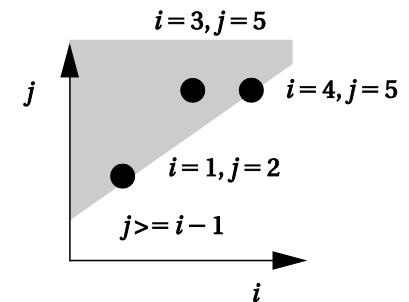
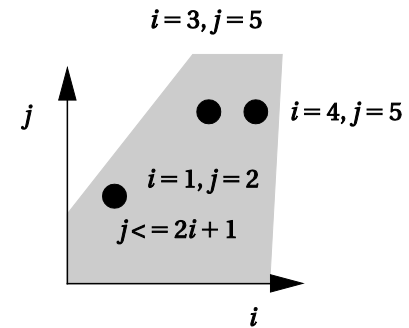
- Correct:
  - `if (a || (b >= c)) { printf("OK\n"); }`
- Incorrect:
  - `if (a && (b >= c)) { printf("OK\n"); }`
- Test:
  - `a = F`
  - `(b >= c) = T`
- Example:
  - Correct: `[0 || (3 >= 2)] = T`
  - Incorrect: `[0 && (3 >= 2)] = F`

# Domain testing

- Heuristic test for linear inequalities.
- Test on each side + boundary of inequality.



**Correct test**



**Incorrect tests**

# Def-use pairs

- Variable def-use:
  - Def when value is assigned (defined).
  - Use when used on right-hand side.
- Exercise each def-use pair.
  - Requires testing correct path.

```
graph TD; A["a = mypointer;"] --> B["if (c > 5){"]; A --> C["if (a->field2 == val2)"]; B --> D["while (a->field1 != val1)"]; B --> C; D --> E["a = a->next;"]; E --> D; E --> C; C --> F["someproc(a,b);"];
```

a = mypointer;  
if (c > 5){  
    while (a->field1 != val1)  
        a = a->next;  
}  
if (a->field2 == val2)  
    someproc(a,b);

# Loop testing

- Loops need specialized tests to be tested efficiently.
- Heuristic testing strategy:
  - Skip loop entirely.
  - One loop iteration.
  - Two loop iterations.
  - # iterations much below max.
  - $n-1$ ,  $n$ ,  $n+1$  iterations where  $n$  is max.

# Black-box testing

- Complements clear-box testing.
  - May require a large number of tests.
- Tests software in different ways.



# Black-box test vectors

- Random tests.
  - May weight distribution based on software specification.
- Regression tests.
  - Tests of previous versions, bugs, etc.
  - May be clear-box tests of previous versions.

# How much testing is enough?

- Exhaustive testing is impractical.
- One important measure of test quality---bugs escaping into field.
- Good organizations can test software to give very low field bug report rates.
- Error injection measures test quality:
  - Add known bugs.
  - Run your tests.
  - Determine % injected bugs that are caught.

# Security-related bugs

- Buffer overflows provide attackers with attack vectors.
- Failure to initialize buffers can leak information to attackers.

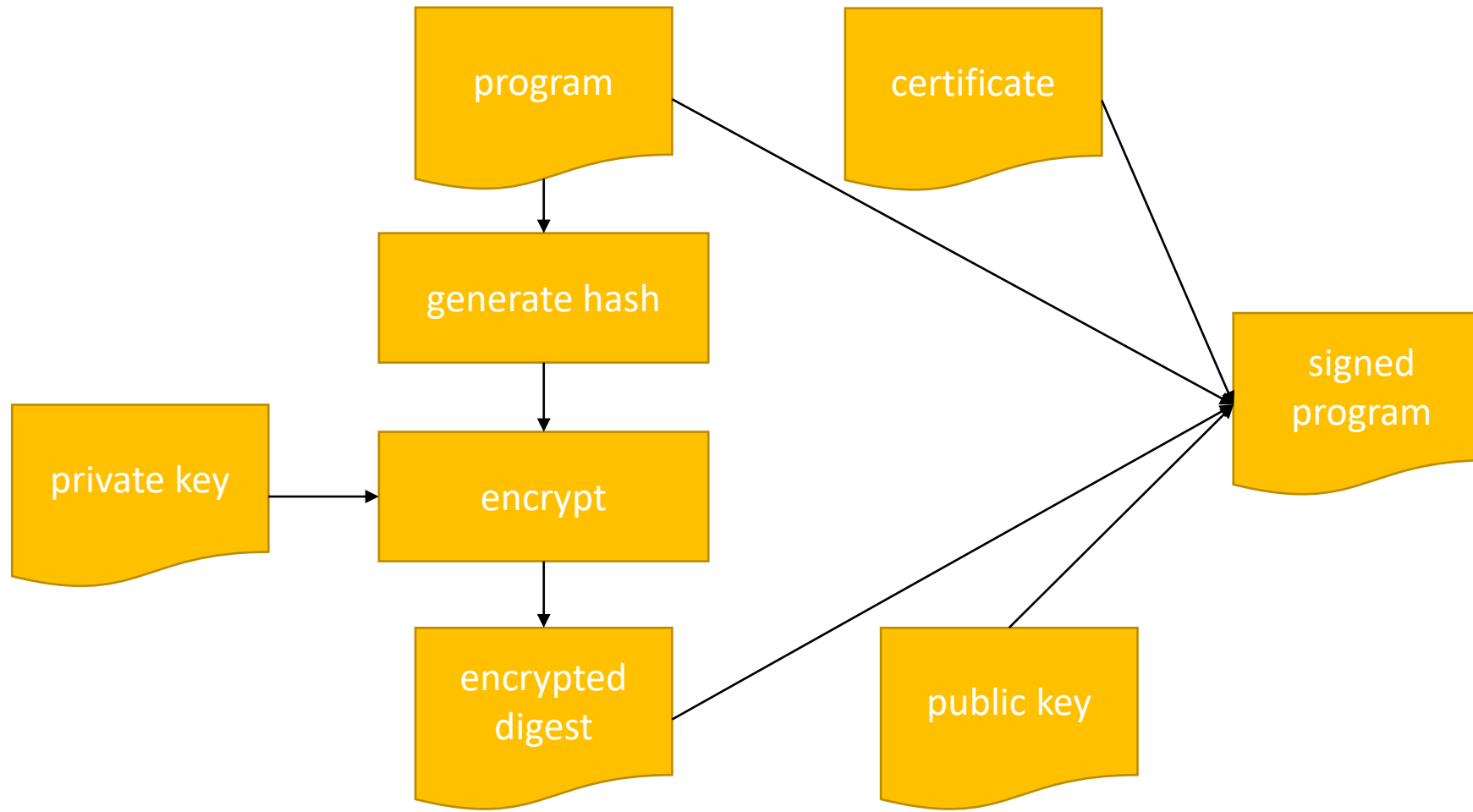
# Code certificates

- Provide assurance that code comes from a trusted source:
  - Certification authority provides certificate service.
- Certificate:
  - Certification authority is given code/data.
  - Generates certificate with source for data and associated encryption date.
  - May include expiration date.
- Recipient checks source identifier before decrypting and using code/data.

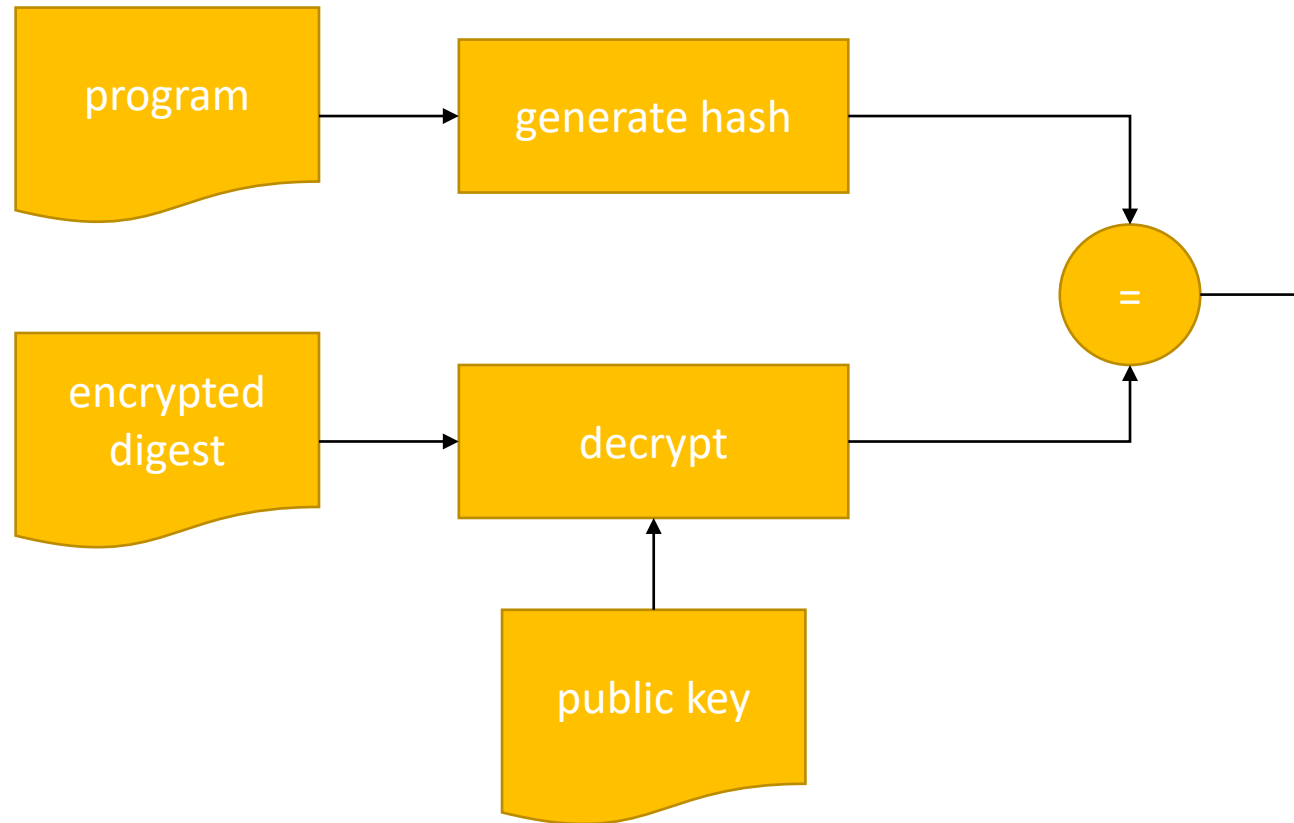
# Code signing

- Combines signing certificate with digital signature.
  - Hash code to provide a digest.
  - Signature includes original program, encrypted digest, public key, signing certificate.

# Code signing process



# Checking signed code



# Passwords

- Passwords should be stored in encrypted form.