Howto: Porting the GNU Debugger

Practical Experience with the OpenRISC 1000 Architecture

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# Table of Contents

1. Introduction .................................................................................................................. 1
   1.1. Rationale .................................................................................................................. 1
   1.2. Target Audience ..................................................................................................... 1
   1.3. Further Sources of Information .............................................................................. 1
       1.3.1. Written Documentation ................................................................................... 1
       1.3.2. Other Information Channels ........................................................................... 2
   1.4. About Embecosm .................................................................................................. 2

2. Overview of GDB Internals .......................................................................................... 3
   2.1. GDB Nomenclature ............................................................................................. 3
   2.2. Main Functional Areas and Data Structures ....................................................... 3
       2.2.1. Binary File Description (BFD) ................................................................. 3
       2.2.2. Architecture Description .......................................................................... 4
       2.2.3. Target Operations .................................................................................... 5
       2.2.4. Adding Commands to GDB ................................................................. 5
   2.3. GDB Architecture Specification .......................................................................... 5
       2.3.1. Looking up an Existing Architecture ....................................................... 6
       2.3.2. Creating a New Architecture ................................................................... 7
       2.3.3. Specifying the Hardware Data Representation ...................................... 8
       2.3.4. Specifying the Hardware Architecture and ABI .................................. 8
       2.3.5. Specifying the Register Architecture ................................................... 9
       2.3.6. Specifying Frame Handling ................................................................ 11
   2.4. Target Operations .............................................................................................. 17
       2.4.1. Target Strata ............................................................................................. 17
       2.4.2. Specifying a New Target ....................................................................... 17
       2.4.3. struct target_ops Functions and Variables Providing Information ........ 18
       2.4.4. struct target_ops Functions Controlling the Target Connection .......... 19
       2.4.5. struct target_ops Functions to Access Memory and Registers ............. 19
       2.4.6. struct target_ops Functions to Handle Breakpoints and Watchpoints .... 19
       2.4.7. struct target_ops Functions to Control Execution ................................ 20
   2.5. Adding Commands to GDB ............................................................................... 20
   2.6. Simulators .......................................................................................................... 21
   2.7. Remote Serial Protocol (RSP) ........................................................................... 22
       2.7.1. RSP Client Implementation ................................................................... 22
       2.7.2. RSP Server Implementation .................................................................. 22
   2.8. GDB File Organization ....................................................................................... 22
   2.9. Testing GDB ....................................................................................................... 23
   2.10. Documentation .................................................................................................. 23
   2.11. Example Procedure Flows in GDB ................................................................. 23
       2.11.1. Initial Start Up ......................................................................................... 24
       2.11.2. The GDB target Command ................................................................. 24
       2.11.3. The GDB load Command .................................................................. 25
       2.11.4. The GDB break Command ................................................................ 25
       2.11.5. The GDB run Command .................................................................... 26
       2.11.6. The GDB backtrace Command ............................................................ 28
       2.11.7. The GDB continue Command after a Breakpoint ................................. 29
   2.12. Summary: Steps to Port a New Architecture to GDB .................................... 30

3. The OpenRISC 1000 Architecture ................................................................................. 31
   3.1. The OpenRISC 1000 JTAG Interface ................................................................ 32
   3.2. The OpenRISC 1000 Remote JTAG Protocol .................................................. 33
   3.3. Application Binary Interface (ABI) ..................................................................... 34
   3.4. Or1ksim: the OpenRISC 1000 Architectural Simulator .................................... 35
4. Porting the OpenRISC 1000 Architecture ................................................................. 36
  4.1. BFD Specification ................................................................................................. 36
  4.2. OpenRISC 1000 Architecture Specification ....................................................... 36
    4.2.1. Creating struct gdbarch .............................................................................. 37
    4.2.2. OpenRISC 1000 Hardware Data Representation .............................................. 37
    4.2.3. Information Functions for the OpenRISC 1000 Architecture ........................... 38
    4.2.4. OpenRISC 1000 Register Architecture ........................................................ 39
    4.2.5. OpenRISC 1000 Frame Handling .................................................................. 40
  4.3. OpenRISC 1000 JTAG Remote Target Specification ............................................. 46
    4.3.1. Creating struct target_ops for OpenRISC 1000 ............................................. 47
    4.3.2. OpenRISC 1000 Target Functions and Variables Providing Information .......... 47
    4.3.3. OpenRISC 1000 Target Functions Controlling the Connection ......................... 48
    4.3.4. OpenRISC 1000 Target Functions to Access Memory and Registers ............... 49
    4.3.5. OpenRISC 1000 Target Functions to Handle Breakpoints and Watchpoints ..... 50
    4.3.6. OpenRISC 1000 Target Functions to Control Execution ................................... 51
    4.3.7. OpenRISC 1000 Target Functions to Execute Commands ............................... 53
    4.3.8. The Low Level JTAG Interface .................................................................... 53
  4.4. The OpenRISC 1000 Disassembler .................................................................... 54
  4.5. OpenRISC 1000 Specific Commands for GDB ...................................................... 54
    4.5.1. The info spr Command .............................................................................. 55
    4.5.2. The spr Command ................................................................................... 55
5. Summary .................................................................................................................... 56
Glossary ........................................................................................................................ 57
References ...................................................................................................................... 59
Index .............................................................................................................................. 60
List of Figures

2.1. An example stack frame ..................................................................................................... 12
2.2. Sequence diagram for GDB start up ................................................................................ 24
2.3. High level sequence diagram for the GDB target command ........................................... 24
2.4. handle_inferior_event sequence diagram in response to the GDB target command .......... 25
2.5. Sequence diagram for the GDB load command .............................................................. 25
2.6. Sequence diagram for the GDB break command ............................................................. 26
2.7. High level sequence diagram for the GDB run command ............................................... 26
2.8. Sequence diagram for the GDB wait_for_inferior function as used by the run command .............................................................. 27
2.9. Sequence diagram for the GDB normal_stop function as used by the run command ............................................................................................................................. 27
2.10. High level sequence diagram for the GDB backtrace command .................................... 28
2.11. Sequence diagram for the GDB print_frame function used by the backtrace command .............................................................. 28
2.12. High level sequence diagram for the GDB continue command after a breakpoint ............................................................................................................................. 29
2.13. Sequence diagram for the GDB handle_inferior_event function after single stepping an instruction for the continue command .............................................................. 30
3.1. The OpenRISC 1000 Remote JTAG Protocol data structures ........................................... 34
4.1. The OpenRISC 1000 stack frame at the end of the prologue ........................................... 41
Chapter 1. Introduction

This document complements the existing documentation for GDB ([3], [4], [5]). It is intended to help software engineers porting GDB to a new architecture for the first time.

This application note is based on the author's experience to date. It will be updated in future issues. Suggestions for improvements are always welcome.

1.1. Rationale

Although the GDB project includes a 100 page guide to its internals, that document is aimed primarily at those wishing to develop GDB itself. The document also suffers from three limitations.

1. It tends to document at a detailed level. Individual functions are described well, but it is hard to get the big picture.

2. It is incomplete. Many of the most useful sections (for example on frame interpretation) are yet to be written.

3. It tends to be out of date. For example the documentation of the UI-Independent output describes a number of functions which no longer exist.

Consequently the engineer faced with their first port of GDB to a new architecture is faced with discovering how GDB works by reading the source code and looking at how other architectures have been ported.

The author of this application note went through that process when porting the Open-RISC 1000 architecture to GDB. This document captures the learning experience, with the intention of helping others.

1.2. Target Audience

If you are about to start a port of GDB to a new architecture, this document is for you. If at the end of your endeavors you are better informed, please help by adding to this document.

If you have already been through the porting process, please help others by adding to this document.

1.3. Further Sources of Information

1.3.1. Written Documentation

The main user guide for GDB [3] provides a great deal of context about how GDB is intended to work.

The GDB Internals document [4] is essential reading before and during any porting exercise. It is not complete, nor is it always up to date, but it provides the first place to look for explanation of what a particular function does.

GDB relies on a separate specification of the Binary file format; for each architecture. That has its own comprehensive user guide [5].

The main GDB code base is generally well commented, particularly in the headers for the major interfaces. Inevitably this must be the definitive place to find out exactly how a particular function behaves.
The files making up the port for the OpenRISC 1000 are comprehensively commented, and can be processed with Doxygen [7]. Each function’s behavior, its parameters and any return value is described.

1.3.2. Other Information Channels

The main GDB website is at sourceware.org/gdb/. It is supplemented by the less formal GDB Wiki at sourceware.org/gdb/wiki/.

The GDB developer community communicate through the GDB mailing lists and using IRC chat. These are always good places to find solutions to problems.

The main mailing list for discussion is gdb@sourceware.org, although for detailed understanding, the patches mailing list, gdb-patches@sourceware.org. See the main GDB website for details of subscribing to these mailing lists.

IRC is channel #gdb on irc.freenode.net.

1.4. About Embecosm

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Chapter 2. Overview of GDB Internals

There are three major areas to GDB:

1. The user interface. How GDB communicates with the user.

2. The symbol side. The analysis of object files, and the mapping of the information contained to the corresponding source files.

3. The target side. Executing programs and analyzing their data.

GDB has a very simple view of a processor. It has a block of memory and a block of registers. Executing code contains its state in the registers and in memory. GDB maps that information to the source level program being debugged.

Porting a new architecture to GDB means providing a way to read executable files, a description of the ABI, a description of the physical architecture and operations to access the target being debugged.

Probably the most common use of GDB is to debug the architecture on which it is actually running. This is native debugging where the architecture of the host and target are the same.

For the OpenRISC 1000 GDB is normally run on a host separate to the target (typically a workstation) connecting to the OpenRISC 1000 target via JTAG, using the OpenRISC 1000 Remote JTAG Protocol. Remote debugging in this way is the most common method of working for embedded systems.

2.1. GDB Nomenclature

A full Glossary is provided at the end of this document. However a number of key concepts are worth explaining up front.

- **Exec or program.** An executable program, i.e. a binary file which may be run independently of other programs. Commonly the term program is found in user documentation, and exec in comments and GDB internal documentation.

- **Inferior.** A GDB entity representing a program or exec which has run, is running, or will run in the future. An inferior corresponds to a process or a core dump file.

- **Address space.** A GDB entity which can interpret addresses (that is values of type CORE_ADDR). Inferiors must have at least one address space and inferiors may share an address space.

- **Thread.** A single thread of control within an inferior.

The OpenRISC 1000 port for GDB is designed for "bare metal" debugging, so will have only a single address space and inferiors with a single thread.

2.2. Main Functional Areas and Data Structures

2.2.1. Binary File Description (BFD)

BFD is a package which allows applications to use the same routines to operate on object files whatever the object file format. A new object file format can be supported simply by creating a new BFD back end and adding it to the library.
The BFD library back end creates a number of data structures describing the data held in a particular type of object file. Ultimately a unique enumerated constant (of type `enum bfd_architecture`) is defined for each individual architecture. This constant is then used to access the various data structures associated with the BFD of the particular architecture.

In the case of the OpenRISC 1000, 32-bit implementation (which may be a COFF or ELF binary), the enumerated constant is `bfd_arch_or32`.

BFD is part of the `binutils` package. A `binutils` implementation must be provided for any architecture intending to support the GNU tool chain.

The OpenRISC 1000 is supported by the GNU tool chain. BFD back ends already exist which are suitable for use with 32-bit OpenRISC 1000 images in ELF or COFF format as used with either the RTEMS or Linux operating systems.

### 2.2.2. Architecture Description

Any architecture to be debugged by GDB is described in a `struct gdbarch`. When an object file is to be debugged, GDB will select the correct `struct gdbarch` using information about the object file captured in its BFD.

The data in `struct gdbarch` facilitates both the symbol side processing (for which it also uses the BFD information) and the target side processing (in combination with the frame and target operation information).

`struct gdbarch` is a mixture of data values (number of bytes in an integer for example) and functions to perform standard operations (e.g. to print the registers). The major functional groups are:

- Data values capturing details of the hardware architecture. For example the endianism and the number of bits in an address and in a word. Some of this data is captured in the BFD, to which there is a reference in the `struct gdbarch`. There is also a structure, `struct gdbarch_tdep` to capture additional target specific data, beyond that which is covered by the standard `struct gdbarch`.

- Data values describing how all the standard high level scalar data structures are represented (`char`, `int`, `double` etc).

- Functions to access and display registers. GDB includes the concept of "pseudo-registers", those registers which do not physically exist, but which have a meaning within the architecture. For example in the OpenRISC 1000, floating point registers are actually the same as the General Purpose Registers. However a set of floating point pseudo-registers could be defined, to allow the GPRs to be displayed in floating point format.

- Functions to access information on stack frames. This includes setting up "dummy" frames to allow GDB to evaluate functions (for example using the `call` command).

An architecture will need to specify most of the contents of `struct gdbarch`, for which a set of functions (all starting `set_gdbarch_`) are provided. Defaults are provided for all entries, and in a small number of cases these will be suitable.

Analysis of the stack frames of executing programs is complex with different approaches needed for different circumstances. A set of functions to identify stack frames and analyze their contents is associated with each `struct gdbarch`. 
A set of utility functions are provided to access the members of `struct gdbarch`. Element `xyz` of a `struct gdbarch` pointed to by `g` may be accessed by using `gdbarch_xyz (g, ...)`. This will check, using `gdb_assert` that `g` is defined, and in the case of functions that `g->x` is not NULL and return either the value `g->xyz` (for values) or the result of calling `g->xyz (...)` (for functions). This saves the user testing for existence before each function call, and ensures any errors are handled cleanly.

### 2.2.3. Target Operations

A set of operations is required to access a program using the target architecture described by `struct gdbarch` in order to implement the `target side` functionality. For any given architecture there may be multiple ways of connecting to the target, specified using the GDB `target` command. For example with the OpenRISC 1000 architecture, the connection may be directly to a JTAG interface connected through the host computer's parallel port, or through the OpenRISC 1000 Remote JTAG Protocol over TCP/IP.

These target operations are described in a `struct target_ops`. As with `struct gdbarch` this comprises a mixture of data and functions. The major functional groups are:

- Functions to establish and close down a connection to the target.
- Functions to access registers and memory on the target.
- Functions to insert and remote breakpoints and watchpoints on the target.
- Functions to start and stop programs running on the target.
- A set of data describing the features of the target, and hence what operations can be applied. For example when examining a core dump, the data can be inspected, but the program cannot be executed.

As with `struct gdbarch`, defaults are provided for the `struct target_ops` values. In many cases these are sufficient, so need not be provided.

### 2.2.4. Adding Commands to GDB

GDB's command handling is intended to be extensible. A set of functions (defined in `cli-decode.h`) provide that extensibility.

GDB groups its commands into a number of command lists (of `struct cmd_list_element`), pointed to by a number of global variables (defined in `cli-cmds.h`). Of these, `cmdlist` is the list of all defined commands. Separate lists define sub-commands of various top level commands. For example `infolist` is the list of all `info` sub-commands.

Commands are also classified according the the area they address, for example commands that provide support, commands that examine data, commands for file handling etc. These classes are specified by `enum command_class`, defined in `command.h`. These classes provide the top level categories in which help will be given.

### 2.3. GDB Architecture Specification

A GDB description for a new architecture, `arch` is created by defining a global function `initialize_arch_tdep`, by convention in the source file `arch-tdep.c`. In the case of the OpenRISC 1000, this function is called `initialize_or1k_tdep` and is found in the file `or1k-tdep.c`.


The resulting object files containing the implementation of the \_initialize\_arch\_tdep function are specified in the GDB configure.tgt file, which includes a large case statement pattern matching against the --target option of the configure command.

The new \texttt{struct gdbarch} is created within the \_initialize\_arch\_tdep function by calling \texttt{gdbarch\_register}:

\begin{verbatim}
void gdbarch_register (enum bfd_architecture architecture,
    gdbarch_init_ftype *init_func,
    gdbarch_dump_tdep_ftype *tdep_dump_func);
\end{verbatim}

For example the \_initialize\_or1k\_tdep creates its architecture for 32-bit OpenRISC 1000 architectures by calling:

\begin{verbatim}
gdbarch_register (bfd_arch_or32, or1k_gdbarch_init, or1k_dump_tdep);
\end{verbatim}

The \texttt{architecture} enumeration will identify the unique BFD for this architecture (see Section 2.2.1). The \texttt{init\_func} is called to create and return the new \texttt{struct gdbarch} (see Section 2.3). The \texttt{tdep\_dump\_func} is a function which will dump the target specific details associated with this architecture (also described in Section 2.3).

The call to \texttt{gdbarch\_register} (see Section 2.2) specifies a function which will define a \texttt{struct gdbarch} for a particular BFD architecture.

\begin{verbatim}
struct gdbarch gdbarch_init_func (struct gdbarch_info info,
    struct gdbarch_list *arches);
\end{verbatim}

For example, in the case of the OpenRISC 1000 architecture, the initialization function is \texttt{or1k\_gdbarch\_init}.

\textbf{Tip}

By convention all target specific functions and global variables in GDB begin with a string unique to that architecture. This helps to avoid namespace pollution when using C. Thus all the MIPS specific functions begin \texttt{mips\_}, the ARM specific functions begin \texttt{arm\_} etc.

For the OpenRISC 1000 all target specific functions and global variables begin with \texttt{or1k\_}.

\subsection*{2.3.1. Looking up an Existing Architecture}

The first argument to the architecture initialization function is a \texttt{struct gdbarch\_info} containing all the known information about this architecture (deduced from the BFD enumeration provided to \texttt{gdbarch\_register}). The second argument is a list of the currently defined architectures within GDB.

The lookup is done using \texttt{gdbarch\_list\_lookup\_by\_info}. It is passed the list of existing architectures and the \texttt{struct gdbarch\_info} (possibly updated) and returns the first matching architecture it finds, or \texttt{NULL} if none are found. If an architecture is found, the initialization function can finish, returning the found architecture as result.
2.3.1.1. struct gdbarch_info
The struct gdbarch_info has the following components:

```c
struct gdbarch_info
{
    const struct bfd_arch_info *bfd_arch_info;
    int                         byte_order;
    bfd                        *abfd;
    struct gdbarch_tdep_info   *tdep_info;
    enum gdb_osabi              osabi;
    const struct target_desc   *target_desc;
};
```

*bfd_arch_info* holds the key details about the architecture. *byte_order* is an enumeration indicating the endianism. *abfd* is a pointer to the full BFD. *tdep_info* is additional custom target specific information, *gdb_osabi* is an enumeration identifying which (if any) of a number of operating specific ABIs are used by this architecture and *target_desc* is a set of name-value pairs with information about register usage in this target.

When the struct gdbarch initialization function is called, not all the fields are provided—only those which can be deduced from the BFD. The struct gdbarch_info is used as a look-up key with the list of existing architectures (the second argument to the initialization function) to see if a suitable architecture already exists. The *tdep_info osabi* and *target_desc* fields may be added before this lookup to refine the search.

2.3.2. Creating a New Architecture
If no architecture is found, then a new architecture must be created, by calling *gdbarch_alloc* using the supplied struct gdbarch_info and any additional custom target specific information in a struct gdbarch_tdep.

The newly created struct gdbarch must then be populated. Although there are default values, in most cases they are not what is required. For each element, X, there is a corresponding accessor function to set the value of that element, *set_gdbarch_X*. The following sections identify the main elements that should be set in this way. This is not the complete list, but represents the functions and elements that must commonly be specified for a new architecture. Many of the functions are described in the header file, gdbarch.h and many may be found in the GDB Internals document [4].

2.3.2.1. struct gdbarch_tdep

```c
struct gdbarch *gdbarch_alloc (const struct gdbarch_info *info,
                                struct gdbarch_tdep       *tdep);
```

*struct gdbarch_tdep* is not defined within GDB—it is up to the user to define this struct if it is needed to hold custom target information that is not covered by the standard struct gdbarch. For example with the OpenRISC 1000 architecture it is used to hold the number of matchpoints available in the target (along with other information). If there is no additional target specific information, it can be set to NULL.
2.3.3. Specifying the Hardware Data Representation

A set of values in `struct gdbarch` define how different data types are represented within the architecture.

- **short_bit.** Number of bits in a C/C++ `short` variable. Default is `2*TARGET_CHAR_BIT`. `TARGET_CHAR_BIT` is a defined constant, which if not set explicitly defaults to 8.

- **int_bit, long_bit, long_long_bit, float_bit, double_bit, long_double_bit.** These are analogous to `short` and are the number of bits in a C/C++ variable of the corresponding type. Defaults are `4*TARGET_CHAR_BIT` for `int, long` and `float` and `4*TARGET_CHAR_BIT` for `long long, double` and `long double`.

- **ptr_bit.** Number of bits in a C/C++ pointer. Default is `4*TARGET_CHAR_BIT`.

- **addr_bit.** Number of bits in a C/C++ address. Almost always this is the same as the number of bits in a pointer, but there are a small number of architectures for which pointers cannot reach all addresses. Default is `4*TARGET_CHAR_BIT`.

- **float_format, double_format and long_double_format.** These point to an array of C structs (one for each endianness), defining the format for each of the floating point types. A number of these arrays are predefined. They in turn are built on top of a set of standard types defined by the library `libiberty`.

- **char_signed.** 1 if `char` to be treated as signed, 0 if `char` is to be treated as unsigned. The default is -1 (undefined), so this should always be set.

2.3.4. Specifying the Hardware Architecture and ABI

A set of function members of `struct gdbarch` define aspects of the architecture and its ABI. For some of these functions, defaults are provided which will be suitable for most architectures.

- **return_value.** This function determines the return convention for a given data type. For example on the OpenRISC 1000, structs/unions and large (>32 bit) scalars are returned as references, while small scalars are returned in GPR 11. This function should always be defined.

- **breakpoint_from_pc.** Returns the breakpoint instruction to be used when the PC is at a particular location in memory. For architectures with variable length instructions, the choice of breakpoint instruction may depend on the length of the instruction at the program counter. Returns the instruction sequence and its length. The default value is `NULL` (undefined). This function should always be defined if GDB is to support breakpointing for this architecture.

- **adjust_breakpoint_address.** Some architectures do not allow breakpoints to be placed at all points. Given a program counter, this function returns an address where a breakpoint can be placed. Default value is `NULL` (undefined). The function need only be defined for architectures which cannot accept a breakpoint at all program counter locations.

- **memory_insert_breakpoint and memory_remove_breakpoint.** These functions insert or remove memory based (a.k.a. soft) breakpoints. The default values `default_memory_insert_breakpoint` and `default_memory_remove_breakpoint` are suitable for most architectures, so in most cases these functions need not be defined.

- **decr_pc_after_break.** Some architectures require the program counter to be decremented after a break, to allow the broken instruction to be executed on resumption. This function returns the number of bytes by which to decrement the address. The default
value is **NULL** (undefined) which means the program counter is left unchanged. This function need only be defined if the functionality is required.
In practice this function is only of use for the very simplest architectures. It applies only to software breakpoints, not watchpoints or hardware breakpoints. It is more usual to adjust the program counter as required in the target `to_wait` and `to_resume` functions (see Section 2.4).

- **single_step_through_delay.** Returns 1 if the target is executing a delay slot and a further single step is needed before the instruction finishes. The default value is **NULL** (not defined). This function should be implemented if the target has delay slots.
- **print_insn**. Disassemble an instruction and print it. Default value is **NULL** (undefined). This function should be defined if disassembly of code is to be supported. Disassembly is a function required by the *binutils* library. This function is defined in the `opcodes` sub-directory. A suitable implementation may already exist if *binutils* has already been ported.

2.3.5. Specifying the Register Architecture

GDB considers registers to be a set with members numbered linearly from 0 upwards. The first part of that set corresponds to real physical registers, the second part to any "pseudo-registers". Pseudo-registers have no independent physical existence, but are useful representations of information within the architecture. For example the OpenRISC 1000 architecture has up to 32 general purpose registers, which are typically represented as 32-bit (or 64-bit) integers. However it could be convenient to define a set of pseudo-registers, to show the GPRs represented as floating point registers.

For any architecture, the implementer will decide on a mapping from hardware to GDB register numbers. The registers corresponding to real hardware are referred to as `raw` registers, the remaining registers are `pseudo`-registers. The total register set (raw and pseudo) is called the `cooked` register set.

2.3.5.1. **struct gdbarch Functions Specifying the Register Architecture**

These functions specify the number and type of registers in the architecture.

- **read_pc** and **write_pc**. Functions to read the program counter. The default value is **NULL** (no function available). However, if the program counter is just an ordinary register, it can be specified in **struct gdbarch** instead (see `pc_regnum` below) and it will be read or written using the standard routines to access registers. Thus this function need only be specified if the program counter is not an ordinary register.
- **pseudo_register_read** and **pseudo_register_write**. These functions should be defined if there are any pseudo-registers (see Section 2.2.2 and Section 2.3.5.3 for more information on pseudo-registers). The default value is **NULL**.
- **num_regs** and **num_pseudo_regs**. These define the number of real and pseudo-registers. They default to -1 (undefined) and should always be explicitly defined.
- **sp_regnum**, **pc_regnum**, **ps_regnum** and **fp0_regnum**. These specify the register holding the stack pointer, program counter, processor status and first floating point register. All except the first floating-point register (which defaults to 0) default to -1 (not defined). They may be real or pseudo-registers. **sp_regnum** must always be defined. If **pc_regnum** is not defined, then the functions **read_pc** and **write_pc** (see above) must be defined. If **ps_regnum** is not defined, then the $ps variable will not be available to the GDB user. **fp0_regnum** is not needed unless the target offers support for floating point.
2.3.5.2. struct gdbarch Functions Giving Register Information

These functions return information about registers.

- **register_name**. This function should convert a register number (raw or pseudo) to a register name (as a C `char *`). This is used both to determine the name of a register for output and to work out the meaning of any register names used as input. For example with the OpenRISC 1000, GDB registers 0-31 are the General Purpose Registers, register 32 is the program counter and register 33 is the supervision register, which map to the strings "gpr00" through "gpr31", "pc" and "sr" respectively. This means that the GDB command `print $gpr5` should print the value of the OR1K general purpose register 5. The default value for this function is `NULL`. It should always be defined. Historically, GDB always had a concept of a *frame pointer* register, which could be accessed via the GDB variable, `$fp`. That concept is now deprecated, recognizing that not all architectures have a frame pointer. However if an architecture does have a frame pointer register, and defines a register or pseudo-register with the name "fp", then that register will be used as the value of the `$fp` variable.

- **register_type**. Given a register number, this function identifies the type of data it may be holding, specified as a `struct type`. GDB allows creation of arbitrary types, but a number of built in types are provided (`builtin_type_void`, `builtin_type_int32` etc), together with functions to derive types from these. Typically the program counter will have a type of “pointer to function” (it points to code), the frame pointer and stack pointer will have types of “pointer to void” (they point to data on the stack) and all other integer registers will have a type of 32-bit integer or 64-bit integer. This information guides the formatting when displaying out register information. The default value is `NULL` meaning no information is available to guide formatting when displaying registers.

- **print_registers_info**. Define this function to print out one or all of the registers for the GDB `info registers` command. The default value is the function `default_print_registers_info` which uses the type information (see `register_type` above) to determine how each register should be printed. Define this function for fuller control over how the registers are displayed.

- **print_float_info** and **print_vector_info**. Define this function to provide output for the GDB `info float` and `info vector` commands respectively. The default value is `NULL` (not defined), meaning no information will be provided. Define each function if the target supports floating point or vector operations respectively.

- **register_reggroup_p**. GDB groups registers into different categories (general, vector, floating point etc). This function given a register and group returns 1 (true) if the register is in the group and 0 otherwise. The default value is the function `default_register_reggroup_p` which will do a reasonable job based on the type of the register (see the function `register_type` above), with groups for general purpose registers, floating point registers, vector registers and raw (i.e not pseudo) registers.

2.3.5.3. Register Caching

Caching of registers is used, so that the target does not need to be accessed and reanalyzed multiple times for each register in circumstances where the register value cannot have changed.

GDB provides `struct regcache`, associated with a particular `struct gdbarch` to hold the cached values of the raw registers. A set of functions is provided to access both the raw registers (with `raw` in their name) and the full set of cooked registers (with `cooked` in their name). Functions
are provided to ensure the register cache is kept synchronized with the values of the actual registers in the target.

Accessing registers through the `struct regcache` routines will ensure that the appropriate `struct gdbarch` functions are called when necessary to access the underlying target architecture. In general users should use the "cooked" functions, since these will map to the "raw" functions automatically as appropriate.

The two key functions are `regcache_cooked_read` and `regcache_cooked_write` which read or write a register to or from a byte buffer (type `gdb_byte *`). For convenience the wrapper functions `regcache_cooked_read_signed`, `regcache_cooked_read_unsigned`, `regcache_cooked_write_signed` and `regcache_cooked_write_unsigned` are provided, which read or write the value and convert to or from a value as appropriate.

### 2.3.6. Specifying Frame Handling

GDB needs to understand the stack on which local (automatic) variables are stored. The area of the stack containing all the local variables for a function invocation is known as the stack frame for that function (or colloquially just as the “frame”). In turn the function that called the function will have its stack frame, and so on back through the chain of functions that have been called.

Almost all architectures have one register dedicated to point to the end of the stack (the stack pointer). Many have a second register which points to the start of the currently active stack frame (the frame pointer). The specific arrangements for an architecture are a key part of the ABI.

A diagram helps to explain this. Here is a simple program to compute factorials:

```
#include <stdio.h>

int fact( int n )
{
  if( 0 == n ) {
    return 1;
  }
  else {
    return n * fact( n - 1 );
  }
}

main()
{
  int i;

  for( i = 0 ; i < 10 ; i++ ) {
    int f = fact( i );
    printf( "%d! = %d\n", i, f );
  }
}
```

Consider the state of the stack when the code reaches line 6 after the main program has called `fact (3)`. The chain of function calls will be `main, fact (3), fact (2), fact (1) and fact (0)`.

In this example the stack is falling (as used by the OpenRISC 1000 ABI). The stack pointer (SP) is at the end of the stack (lowest address) and the frame pointer (FP) is at the highest address in the current stack frame. Figure 2.1 shows how the stack looks.

Figure 2.1. An example stack frame

In each stack frame, offset 0 from the stack pointer is the frame pointer of the previous frame and offset 4 (this is illustrating a 32-bit architecture) from the stack pointer is the return address. Local variables are indexed from the frame pointer, with negative indexes. In the function fact, offset -4 from the frame pointer is the argument n. In the main function, offset -4 from the frame pointer is the local variable i and offset -8 from the frame pointer is the local variable f.

Note
This is a simplified example for illustrative purposes only. Good optimizing compilers would not put anything on the stack for such simple functions. Indeed they might eliminate the recursion and use of the stack entirely!

It is very easy to get confused when examining stacks. GDB has terminology it uses rigorously throughout. The stack frame of the function currently executing, or where execution stopped is numbered zero. In this example frame #0 is the stack frame of the call to fact (0). The stack frame of its calling function (fact(1) in this case) is numbered #1 and so on back through the chain of calls.

The main GDB data structure describing frames is struct frame_info. It is not used directly, but only via its accessor functions. struct frame_info includes information about the registers in the frame and a pointer to the code of the function with which the frame is associated. The entire stack is represented as a linked list of struct frame_info.

2.3.6.1. Frame Handling Terminology
It is easy to get confused when referencing stack frames. GDB uses some precise terminology.
• **THIS frame** is the frame currently under consideration.

• The **NEXT frame**, also sometimes called the *inner or newer* frame is the frame of the function called by the function of **THIS frame**.

• The **PREVIOUS frame**, also sometimes called the *outer or older* frame is the frame of the function which called the function of **THIS frame**.

So in the example of Figure 2.1, if **THIS frame** is #3 (the call to `fact (3)`), the **NEXT frame** is frame #2 (the call to `fact (2)` and the **PREVIOUS frame** is frame #4 (the call to `main ()`).

The **innermost** frame is the frame of the current executing function, or where the program stopped, in this example, in the middle of the call to `fact (0)`. It is always numbered frame #0.

The **base** of a frame is the address immediately before the start of the **NEXT** frame. For a falling stack this will be the lowest address and for a rising stack this will be the highest address in the frame.

GDB functions to analyze the stack are typically given a pointer to the **NEXT** frame to determine information about **THIS frame**. Information about **THIS frame** includes data on where the registers of the **PREVIOUS frame** are stored in this stack frame. In this example the frame pointer of the **PREVIOUS frame** is stored at offset 0 from the stack pointer of **THIS frame**.

The process whereby a function is given a pointer to the **NEXT frame** to work out information about **THIS frame** is referred to as **unwinding**. The GDB functions involved in this typically include **unwind** in their name.

The process of analyzing a target to determine the information that should go in **struct frame_info** is called **sniffing**. The functions that carry this out are called **sniffers** and typically include **sniffer** in their name. More than one sniffer may be required to extract all the information for a particular frame.

Because so many functions work using the **NEXT frame**, there is an issue about addressing the **innermost** frame—it has no **NEXT frame**. To solve this GDB creates a dummy frame #-1, known as the **sentinel frame**.

### 2.3.6.2. Prologue Caches

All the frame sniffing functions typically examine the code at the start of the corresponding function, to determine the state of registers. The ABI will save old values and set new values of key registers at the start of each function in what is known as the function **prologue**.

For any particular stack frame this data does not change, so all the standard unwinding functions, in addition to receiving a pointer to the **NEXT frame** as their first argument, receive a pointer to a **prologue cache** as their second argument. This can be used to store values associated with a particular frame, for reuse on subsequent calls involving the same frame.

It is up to the user to define the structure used (it is a **void * pointer**) and arrange allocation and deallocation of storage. However for general use, GDB provides **struct trad_frame_cache**, with a set of accessor routines. This structure holds the stack and code address of **THIS frame**, the base address of the frame, a pointer to the **struct frame_info** for the **NEXT frame** and details of where the registers of the **PREVIOUS frame** may be found in **THIS frame**.

Typically the first time any sniffer function is called with **NEXT frame**, the prologue sniffer for **THIS frame** will be **NULL**. The sniffer will analyze the frame, allocate a prologue cache structure and populate it. Subsequent calls using the same **NEXT frame** will pass in this prologue cache, so the data can be returned with no additional analysis.
2.3.6.3. struct gdbarch Functions to Analyze Frames

These **struct gdbarch** functions and value provide analysis of the stack frame and allow it to be adjusted as required.

- **skip_prologue.** The prologue of a function is the code at the beginning of the function which sets up the stack frame, saves the return address etc. The code representing the behavior of the function starts after the prologue. This function skips past the prologue of a function if the program counter is within the prologue of a function. With modern optimizing compilers, this may be a far from trivial exercise. However the required information may be within the binary as DWARF2 debugging information, making the job much easier.

  The default value is **NULL** (not defined). This function should always be provided, but can take advantage of DWARF2 debugging information, if that is available.

- **inner_than.** Given two frame or stack pointers, return 1 (true) if the first represents the "inner" stack frame and 0 (false) otherwise. This is used to determine whether the target has a rising or a falling stack frame. See Section 2.3.6 for an explanation of "inner" frames.

  The default value of this function is **NULL** and it should always be defined. However for almost all architectures one of the built-in functions can be used: `core_addr_lesthan` (for falling stacks) or `core_addr_greaterthan` (for rising stacks).

- **frame_align.** The architecture may have constraints on how its frames are aligned. Given a proposed address for the stack pointer, this function returns a suitably aligned address (by expanding the stack frame). The default value is **NULL** (undefined). This function should be defined for any architecture where it is possible the stack could become misaligned. The utility functions `align_down` (for falling stacks) and `align_up` (for rising stacks) will facilitate the implementation of this function.

- **frame_red_zone_size.** Some ABIs reserve space beyond the end of the stack for use by leaf functions without prologue or epilogue or by exception handlers (OpenRISC 1000 is in this category). This is known as a red zone (AMD terminology). The default value is 0. Set this field if the architecture has such a red zone.

2.3.6.4. struct gdbarch Functions to Access Frame Data

These functions provide access to key registers and arguments in the stack frame.

- **unwind_pc** and **unwind_sp.** These functions are given a pointer to **THIS** stack frame (see Section 2.3.6 for how frames are represented) and return the value of the program counter and stack pointer respectively in the **PREVIOUS** frame (i.e. the frame of the function that called this one).

- **frame_num_args.** Given a pointer to **THIS** stack frame (see Section 2.3.6 for how frames are represented), return the number of arguments that are being passed, or -1 if not known. The default value is **NULL** (undefined), in which case the number of arguments passed on any stack frame is always unknown. For many architectures this will be a suitable default.

2.3.6.5. struct gdbarch Functions Creating Dummy Frames

GDB can call functions in the target code (for example by using the **call** or **print** commands). These functions may be breakpointed, and it is essential that if a function does hit a breakpoint, commands like **backtrace** work correctly.
This is achieved by making the stack look as though the function had been called from the point where GDB had previously stopped. This requires that GDB can set up stack frames appropriate for such function calls.

The following functions provide the functionality to set up such "dummy" stack frames.

- **push_dummy_call.** This function sets up a dummy stack frame for the function about to be called. push_dummy_call is given the arguments to be passed and must copy them into registers or push them on to the stack as appropriate for the ABI. GDB will then pass control to the target at the address of the function, and it will find the stack and registers set up just as expected.
  
  The default value of this function is **NULL** (undefined). If the function is not defined, then GDB will not allow the user to call functions within the target being debugged.

- **unwind_dummy_id.** This is the inverse of push_dummy_call which restores the stack and frame pointers after a call to evaluate a function using a dummy stack frame. The default value is **NULL** (undefined). If push_dummy_call is defined, then this function should also be defined.

- **push_dummy_code.** If this function is not defined (its default value is **NULL**), a dummy call will use the entry point of the target as its return address. A temporary breakpoint will be set there, so the location must be writable and have room for a breakpoint.

  It is possible that this default is not suitable. It might not be writable (in ROM possibly), or the ABI might require code to be executed on return from a call to unwind the stack before the breakpoint is encountered.

  If either of these is the case, then push_dummy_code should be defined to push an instruction sequence onto the end of the stack to which the dummy call should return.

  **Note**
  
  This does require that code in the stack can be executed. Some Harvard architectures may not allow this.

### 2.3.6.6. Analyzing Stacks: Frame Sniffers

When a program stops, GDB needs to construct the chain of **struct frame_info** representing the state of the stack using appropriate **sniffers.**

Each architecture requires appropriate sniffers, but they do not form entries in **struct gdbarch**, since more than one sniffer may be required and a sniffer may be suitable for more than one **struct gdbarch**. Instead sniffers are associated with architectures using the following functions.

- **frame_unwind_append_sniffer** is used to add a new sniffer to analyze THIS frame when given a pointer to the NEXT frame.

- **frame_base_append_sniffer** is used to add a new sniffer which can determine information about the base of a stack frame.

- **frame_base_set_default** is used to specify the default base sniffer.

These functions all take a reference to **struct gdbarch**, so they are associated with a specific architecture. They are usually called in the **struct gdbarch** initialization function, after the **struct gdbarch** has been set up. Unless a default has been set, the most recently appended sniffer will be tried first.

The main frame unwinding sniffer (as set by **frame_unwind_append_sniffer**) returns a structure specifying a set of sniffing functions:
struct frame_unwind
{
    enum frame_type            type;
    frame_this_id_ftype       *this_id;
    frame_prev_register_ftype *prev_register;
    const struct frame_data   *unwind_data;
    frame_sniffer_ftype       *sniffer;
    frame_prev_pc_ftype       *prev_pc;
    frame_dealloc_cache_ftype *dealloc_cache;
};

The type field indicates the type of frame this sniffer can handle: normal, dummy (see push_dummy_call in Section 2.3), signal handler or sentinel. Signal handlers sometimes have their own simplified stack structure for efficiency, so may need their own handlers.

unwind_data holds additional information which may be relevant to particular types of frame. For example it may hold additional information for signal handler frames.

The remaining fields define functions that yield different types of information when given a pointer to the NEXT stack frame. Not all functions need be provided. If an entry is NULL, the next sniffer will be tried instead.

• this_id determines the stack pointer and function (code entry point) for THIS stack frame.
• prev_register determines where the values of registers for the PREVIOUS stack frame are stored in THIS stack frame.
• sniffer takes a look at THIS frame's registers to determine if this is the appropriate unwinder.
• prev_pc determines the program counter for THIS frame. Only needed if the program counter is not an ordinary register (see prev_pc in Section 2.3).
• dealloc_cache frees any additional memory associated with the prologue cache for this frame (see Section 2.3.6.2).

In general it is only the this_id and prev_register functions that need be defined for custom sniffers.

The frame base sniffer is much simpler. It is a struct frame_base, which refers to the corresponding struct frame_unwind and provides functions yielding various addresses within the frame.

struct frame_base
{
    const struct frame_unwind *unwind;
    frame_this_base_ftype     *this_base;
    frame_this_locals_ftype   *this_locals;
    frame_this_args_ftype     *this_args;
};

All these functions take a pointer to the NEXT frame as argument. this_base returns the base address of THIS frame, this_locals returns the base address of local variables in THIS frame and this_args returns the base address of the function arguments in this frame.
As described above the base address of a frame is the address immediately before the start of the NEXT frame. For a falling stack, this is the lowest address in the frame and for a rising stack it is the highest address in the frame. For most architectures the same address is also the base address for local variables and arguments, in which case the same function can be used for all three entries.

It is worth noting that if it cannot be determined in any other way (for example by there being a register with the name "fp"), then the result of the this_base function will be used as the value of the frame pointer variable $fp in GDB.

2.4. Target Operations

The communication with the target is down to a set of target operations. These operations are held in a struct target_ops, together with flags describing the behavior of the target. The struct target_ops elements are defined and documented in target.h. The sections following describe the most important of these functions.

2.4.1. Target Strata

GDB has several different types of target: executable files, core dumps, executing processes etc. At any time, GDB may have several sets of target operations in use. For example target operations for use with an executing process (which can run code) might be different from the operations used when inspecting a core dump.

All the targets GDB knows about are held in a stack. GDB walks down the stack to find the set of target operations suitable for use. The stack is organized as a series of strata of decreasing importance: target operations for threads, then target operations suitable for processes, target operations to download remote targets, target operations for core dumps, target operations for executable files and at the bottom target operations for dummy targets. So GDB when debugging a running process will always select target operations from the process_stratum if available, over target operations from the file stratum, even if the target operations from the file stratum were pushed onto the stack more recently.

At any particular time, there is a current target, held in the global variable current_target. This can never be NULL—if there is no other target available, it will point to the dummy target.

2.4.2. Specifying a New Target

Some targets (sets of target operations in a struct target_ops) are set up automatically by GDB—these include the operations to drive simulators (see Section 2.6 and the operations to drive the GDB Remote Serial Protocol (RSP) (see Section 2.7).

Other targets must be set up explicitly by the implementer, using the add_target function. By far the most common is the native target for native debugging of the host. Less common is to set up a non-native target, such as the JTAG target used with the OpenRISC 1000.

2.4.2.1. Native Targets

A new native target is created by defining a function _initialize_arch_os_nat for the architecture, arch and operating system os, in the source file arch-os-nat.c. A fragment of a make-

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1 For a new remote target of any kind, the recommended approach is to use the standard GDB Remote Serial Protocol (RSP) and have the target implement the server side of this interface. The only remote targets remaining are historic legacy interfaces, such as the OpenRISC 1000 Remote JTAG Protocol.
file to create the binary from the source is created in the file `config/arch/os.mh` with a header giving any macro definitions etc in `config/arch/nm-os.h` (which will be linked to `nm.h` at build time).

The `_initialize_` function should create a new `struct target_ops` and call `add_target` to add this target to the list of available targets.

For new native targets there are standard implementations which can be reused, with just one or two changes. For example the function `linux_trad_target` returns a `struct target_ops` suitable for most Linux native targets. It may prove necessary only to alter the description field and the functions to fetch and store registers.

### 2.4.2.2. Remote Targets

For a new remote target, the procedure is a little simpler. The source files should be added to `configure.tgt`, just as for the architectural description (see Section 2.3). Within the source file, define a new function `_initialize_remote_arch` to implement a new remote target, `arch`.

For new remote targets, the definitions in `remote.c` used to implement the RSP provide a good starting point.

### 2.4.3. `struct target_ops` Functions and Variables Providing Information

These functions and variables provide information about the target. The first group identifies the name of the target and provides help information for the user.

- **to_shortname.** This string is the name of target, for use with GDBs `target`. Setting `to_shortname` to `foo` means that `target foo` will connect to the target, invoking `to_open` for this target (see below).

- **to_longname.** A string giving a brief description of the type of target. This is printed with the `info target` information (see also `to_files_info` below).

- **to_doc.** The help text for this target. If the short name of the target is `foo`, then the command `help target` will print `target foo` followed by the first sentence of this help text. The command `help target foo` will print out the complete text.

- **to_files_info.** This function provides additional information for the `info target` command.

The second group of variables provides information about the current state of the target.

- **to_stratum.** An enumerated constant indicating to which stratum this `struct target_ops` belongs

- **to_has_all_memory.** Boolean indicating if the target includes all of memory, or only part of it. If only part, then a failed memory request may be able to be satisfied by a different target in the stack.

- **to_has_memory.** Boolean indicating if the target has memory (dummy targets do not)

- **to_has_stack.** Boolean indicating if the target has a stack. Object files do not, core dumps and executable threads/processes do.

- **to_has_registers.** Boolean indicating if the target has registers. Object files do not, core dumps and executable threads/processes do.
2.4.4. struct target_ops Functions Controlling the Target Connection

These functions control the connection to the target. For remote targets this may mean establishing and tearing down links using protocols such as TCP/IP. For native targets, these functions will be more concerned with setting flags describing the state.

- **to_open**. This function is invoked by the GDB `target` command. Any additional arguments (beyond the name of the target being invoked) are passed to this function. `to_open` should establish the communications with the target. It should establish the state of the target (is it already running for example), and initialize data structures appropriately. This function should *not* start the target running if it is not currently running—that is the job of the functions (`to_create_inferior` and `to_resume`) invoked by the GDB `run` command.

- **to_xclose** and **to_close**. Both these functions should close the remote connection. `to_close` is the legacy function. New implementations should use **to_xclose** which should also free any memory allocated for this target.

- **to_attach**. For targets which can run without a debugger connected, this function attaches the debugger to a running target (which should first have been opened).

- **to_detach**. Function to detach from a target, leaving it running.

- **to_disconnect**. This is similar to **to_detach**, but makes no effort to inform the target that the debugger is detaching. It should just drop the connection to the target.

- **to_terminal_inferior**. This function connects the target’s terminal I/O to the local terminal. This functionality is not always available with remote targets.

- **to_rcmd**. If the target is capable of running commands, then this function requests that command to be run on the target. This is of most relevance to remote targets.

2.4.5. struct target_ops Functions to Access Memory and Registers

These functions transfer data to and from the target registers and memory.

- **to_fetch_registers** and **to_store_registers**. Functions to populate the register cache with values from the target and to set target registers with values in the register cache.

- **to_prepare_to_store**. This function is called prior to storing registers to set up any additional information required. In most cases it will be an empty function.

- **to_load**. Load a file into the target. For most implementations, the generic function, `generic_load`, which reuses the other target operations for memory access is suitable.

- **to_xfer_partial**. This function is a generic function to transfer data to and from the target. Its most important function (often the only one actually implemented) is to load and store data from and to target memory.

2.4.6. struct target_ops Functions to Handle Breakpoints and Watchpoints

For all targets, GDB can implement breakpoints and write access watchpoints in software, by inserting code in the target. However many targets provide hardware assistance for these functions which is far more efficient, and in addition may implement read access watchpoints.
These functions in `struct target_ops` provide a mechanism to access such functionality if it is available.

- **to_insert_breakpoint** and **to_remove_breakpoint**. These functions insert and remove breakpoints on the target. They can choose to use either hardware or software breakpoints. However if the insert function allows use of hardware breakpoints, then the GDB command `set breakpoint auto-hw off` will have no effect.

- **to_can_use_hw_breakpoint**. This function should return 1 (true) if the target can set a hardware breakpoint or watchpoint and 0 otherwise. The function is passed an enumeration to indicate whether watchpoints or breakpoints are being queried, and should use information about the number of hardware breakpoints/watchpoints currently in use to determine if a breakpoint/watchpoint can be set.

- **to_insert_hw_breakpoint** and **to_remove_hw_breakpoint**. Functions to insert and remove hardware breakpoints. Return a failure result if no hardware breakpoint is available.

- **to_insert_watchpoint** and **to_remove_watchpoint**. Functions to insert and remove watchpoints.

- **to_stopped_by_watchpoint**. Function returns 1 (true) if the last stop was due to a watchpoint.

- **to_stopped_data_address**. If the last stop was due to a watchpoint, this function returns the address of the data which triggered the watchpoint.

### 2.4.7. `struct target_ops` Functions to Control Execution

For targets capable of execution, these functions provide the mechanisms to start and stop execution.

- **to_resume**. Function to tell the target to start running again (or for the first time).

- **to_wait**. Function to wait for the target to return control to the debugger. Typically control returns when the target finishes execution or hits a breakpoint. It could also occur if the connection is interrupted (for example by ctrl-C).

- **to_stop**. Function to stop the target—used whenever the target is to be interrupted (for example by ctrl-C).

- **to_kill**. Kill the connection to the target. This should work, even if the connection to the target is broken.

- **to_create_inferior**. For targets which can execute, this initializes a program to run, ready for it to start executing. It is invoked by the GDB `run` command, which will subsequently call `to_resume` to start execution.

- **to_mourn_inferior**. Tidy up after execution of the target has finished (for example after it has exited or been killed). Most implementations call the generic function, `generic_mourn_inferior`, but may do some additional tidying up.

### 2.5. Adding Commands to GDB

As noted in Section 2.2, GDB’s command handling is extensible. Commands are grouped into a number of command lists (of type `struct cmd_list_element`), pointed to by a number of global variables (defined in `cli-cmds.h`). Of these, `cmdlist` is the list of all defined commands,
with separate lists defined for sub-commands of various top level commands. For example \texttt{infolist} is the list of all \texttt{info} sub-commands.

Each command (or sub-command) is associated with a callback function which implements the behavior of the functions. There are additional requirements for functions which set or show values within GDB. Each function also takes a documentation string (used by the help command). Functions for adding commands all return a pointer to the \texttt{struct cmd_list_element} for the command added (which is not necessarily the head of its command list). The most useful functions are:

- \texttt{add_cmd}. Add a function to a command list.
- \texttt{add_com}. Add a function to the main command list, \texttt{cmdlist}. This is a convenience wrapper for \texttt{add_cmd}.
- \texttt{add_prefix_cmd}. Add a new prefix command. This command should have its own function for use if it is called on its own, and a global command list pointer specific to the prefix command to which all its sub-commands will be added. If a prefix command is called with an unknown sub-command, it can either give an error or call the function of the prefix command itself. Which of these is used is specified by a flag in the call to \texttt{add_prefix_cmd}.
- \texttt{add_alias_cmd}. Add an alias for a command already defined.
- \texttt{add_info}. Add a sub-command to the \texttt{info}. A convenience wrapper for \texttt{add_cmd}.

New commands are usually added in the \texttt{_initialize_arch} function after the \texttt{struct gdbarch} has been defined.

### 2.6. Simulators

GDB enables implementers to link gdb to a built-in simulator, so that a simulated target may be executed through use of the \texttt{target sim} command.

The simulator should be built as a library, \texttt{libsim.a}, implementing the standard GDB simulator interface. The location of the library is specified by setting the \texttt{gdb_sim} parameter in \texttt{configure.tgt}.

The interface consists of a set of functions which should be implemented. The detailed specification is found in the header \texttt{remote-sim.h} in the include directory.

- \texttt{sim_open}. Initialize the simulator.
- \texttt{sim_close}. Destroy the simulator instance, including freeing any memory.
- \texttt{sim_load}. Load a program into the simulator's memory.
- \texttt{sim_create_inferior}. Prepare to run the simulated program. Don't actually run it until \texttt{sim_resume} (see below) is called.
- \texttt{sim_read} and \texttt{sim_write}. Read and write bytes from and to the simulator's memory.
- \texttt{sim_fetch_register} and \texttt{sim_store_register}. Read and write the simulator's registers.
- \texttt{sim_info}. Print information for the \texttt{info sim} command.
- \texttt{sim_resume}. Resume (or start) execution of the simulated program.
- \texttt{sim_stop}. Stop execution of the simulated program.
• **sim_stop_reason.** Return the reason why the program stopped.

• **sim_do_command.** Execute some arbitrary command that the simulator supports.

### 2.7. Remote Serial Protocol (RSP)

The GDB **Remote Serial Protocol** is a general purpose protocol for connecting to remote targets. It is invoked through the `target remote` and `target extended-remote` commands.

The protocol is a simple text command-response protocol. The GDB session acts as the client to the protocol. It issues commands to the server, which in turn must be implemented by the target. Any remote target can communicate with GDB by implementing the server side of the RSP. A number of stub implementations are provided for various architectures, which can be used as the basis of new implementations. The protocol is fully documented as an appendix within the main GDB User Guide [3].

It is strongly recommended that any new remote target should be implemented using the RSP, rather than by creating a new remote target protocol.

#### 2.7.1. RSP Client Implementation

The client implementation can be found in the source files `remote.h` and `remote.c` in the `gdb` subdirectory. These implement a set of target operations, as described in Section 2.4. Each of the standard operations is mapped into a sequence of RSP interactions with the server on the target.

#### 2.7.2. RSP Server Implementation

RSP server implementation is a large subject in its own right, and does not form a direct part of the GDB implementation (since it is part of the target, not the debugger).

A comprehensive "Howto" has been written by Embecosm, describing the implementation techniques for RSP servers, illustrated by examples using the OpenRISC 1000 architectural simulator, Or1ksim as RSP target [2].

### 2.8. GDB File Organization

The bulk of the GDB source code is in a small number of directories. Some components of GDB are libraries used elsewhere (for example BFD is used in GNU binutils), and these have their own directory. The main directories are:

• **include.** Header files for information which straddles major components. For example the main simulator interface header is here (`remote-sim.h`), because it links GDB (in directory `gdb`) to the simulators (in directory `sim`). Other headers, specific to a particular component reside in the directory of that component.

• **bfd.** The Binary File Descriptor library. If a new object file type must be recognized, it should be added here.

• **gdb.** The main GDB directory. All source files should include `defs.h` first and then any other headers they reference. Headers should also include any headers they reference, but may assume that `defs.h` has been included.

The file `configure.tgt` contains a huge switch statement to match targets specified to the main `configure` command. Add a new target by incorporating its pattern match in this file.

The sub-directory **config** contains target specific configuration information for native targets.
• **libiberty.** Before POSIX and *glibc*, this was a GNU project to provide a set of standard functions. It lives on in GDB. Most valuable are its free store management and argument parsing functions.

• **opcodes.** This contains disassemblers for use by GDB (the `disassemble` command); in a directory of its own, because this code is also used in *binutils*.

• **sim.** The simulators for various targets. Each target architecture simulator is built in its own sub-directory.

### 2.9. Testing GDB

Running the GDB test suite requires that the *DejaGNU* package is installed. The tests can then be run with:

```
make check
```

On completion of the run, the summary results will be in the *gdb/testsuite* directory in *gdb.sum* with the detailed log in *gdb.log*

For the most comprehensive tests in an environment where host and target differ, *DejaGNU* needs some additional configuration. This can be achieved by setting the `DEJAGNU` environment variable to refer to a suitable configuration file, and defining a custom board configuration file in the directory `~/boards`. These configuration files can be used to specify a suitable simulator and how to connect it when running tests.

### 2.10. Documentation

Some of GDB sub-directories in turn have *doc* sub-directories. The documentation is written in *texinfo* [9], from which documents can be generated as PDF, *PostScript*, HTML or *info* files. The documentation is not built automatically with `make all`, nor with `make doc`.

To create documentation, change to the individual documentation directory and use `make html`, `make pdf`, `make ps` or `make info` as required.

The main documents of interest are:

• **bfd/doc/bfd.texinfo.** This is the BFD manual.

• **gdb/doc/gdb.texinfo.** This is the main GDB user guide [3].

• **gdb/doc/gdbint.texinfo.** This is the internals user guide [4]. It is essential reading for any developer porting the code.

The exception to automatic building is with `make install`. This will build *info* files for any documents in the *gdb/doc* directory and install them in the *info* sub-directory of the install directory.

### 2.11. Example Procedure Flows in GDB

It is instructive to see how the architecture specification functions and target operations are invoked in response to various GDB commands. This gives useful points for debugging a new architecture port.

In the following sections, several procedure flows are illustrated by sequence diagrams. These show the calling chain for procedures. Only the key functions are shown - the actual calls usually involve several intermediate function calls.
2.11.1. Initial Start Up

Figure 2.2 shows the sequence diagram for GDB start up.

- `gdb_main`
- `gdb_init`
- `initialize_all_files`
- `_initialize_arch_tdep`
- `_initialize_arch_remote`
- `initialize_current_architecture`
- `arch_gdbarch_init`
- `current_interp_command_loop`

**Figure 2.2. Sequence diagram for GDB start up**

On start up, the GDB initialization function, `gdb_init` calls all the `_initialize` functions, including those for any architectures or remote targets.

Having initialized all the architectures, the first alphabetically is selected as the default architecture by `initialize_current_architecture`, and its initialization function, (by convention `arch_gdbarch_init`) is called.

Control returns to `gdb_main`, which sits in the command interpreter, waiting for commands to execute.

2.11.2. The GDB target Command

Figure 2.3 shows the high level sequence diagram for GDB in response to the `target` command.

- `current_interp_command_loop`
- `target_open`
- `start_remote`
- `wait_for_inferior`
- `target_wait`
- `handle_inferior_event`
- `normal_stop`

**Figure 2.3. High level sequence diagram for the GDB target command**

The `target` command maps directly on to the current target `to_open`. A typical implementation establishes physical connection to the target (for example by opening a TCP/IP link to a remote target). For a remote target, it then typically calls `start_remote`, which waits for the target to stop (using the current target `to_wait` function), determines the reason for stopping (`handle_inferior_event`) and then marks this as a normal stop (`normal_stop`).

`handle_inferior_event` is a central function in GDB. Whenever control is returned to GDB, via the target `to_wait` function, it must determine what has happened and how it should be
handled. Figure 2.4 shows the behavior of `handle_inferior_event` in response to the `target` command.

![Sequence Diagram](image)

**Figure 2.4. handle_inferior_event sequence diagram in response to the GDB target command**

`handle_inferior_event` needs to establish the program counter at which execution stopped, so calls `read_pc_pid`. Since the program counter is a register, this causes creation of a register cache, for which the type of each register must be determined by `gdbarch_register_type` (a one-off exercise, since this never changes). Having determined register types, the register cache is populated with the value of the program counter by calling the current target `target_fetch_registers` for the relevant register.

`handle_inferior_event` then determines if the stop was due to a breakpoint or watchpoint. The function `watchpoints_triggered` uses the target `target_stopped_by_watchpoint` to determine if it was a watchpoint which triggered the stop.

The call to `normal_stop` also invokes the `struct gdbarch` functions, calling `gdbarch_unwind_pc` to establish the current program counter and and frame sniffer functions to establish the frame sniffer stack.

### 2.11.3. The GDB load Command

Figure 2.5 shows the high level sequence diagram for GDB in response to the `load` command. This maps to the current target's `to_load` function, which in most cases will end up calling the current target's `to_xfer_partial` function once for each section of the image to load it into memory.

![Sequence Diagram](image)

**Figure 2.5. Sequence diagram for the GDB load command**

The load function will capture data from the loaded file, most importantly its start address for execution.

### 2.11.4. The GDB break Command

Figure 2.6 shows the high level sequence diagram for GDB in response to the `break` command. This example is for the case where the target of the break is a symbol (i.e. a function name) in the target executable.
Most of the action with breakpoints occurs when the program is set running, at which any active breakpoints are installed. However for any `break` command, the address for the break must be set up in the breakpoint data structure.

For symbolic addresses, the start of the function can be obtained from the line number information held for debugging purposes in the symbol table (known as symbol-and-line information, or SAL). For a function, this will yield the start address of the code. However the breakpoint must be set after the function prologue. `gdbarch_skip_prologue` is used to find that address in the code.

**2.11.5. The GDB run Command**

Figure 2.7 shows the high level sequence diagram for GDB in response to the `run` command.

The `run` command must create the inferior, insert any active breakpoints and watchpoints, and then start execution of the inferior. Control does not return to GDB until the target reports that it has stopped.

The top level function implementing the `run` command is `run_command`. This creates the inferior, but calling the current target’s `to_create_inferior` function. GDB supports targets which can give a dynamic description of their architecture (for example the number of registers available). This is achieved through the `to_find_description` function of the current target (which is an empty function by default).

Execution is started by the `proceed`. This must first determine if the code is restarting on an instruction which will need stepping through a delay slot (so that code nev-
er stops on a delay slot). If this functionality is required, it is implemented by the `gdbarch_single_sep_through_delay` function.

Active breakpoints are inserted using the current target’s `to_insert_breakpoint` function. The code is then run using the `to_resume` function of the current target.

GDB then calls `wait_for_inferior`, which will wait for the target to stop, and then determine the reason for the stop. Finally `normal_stop` will remove the breakpoints from the target code and report to the user the current state of the target as appropriate.

Much of the detailed processing takes place in the `wait_for_inferior` and `normal_stop` functions (see also their use in Section 2.11.2). These are important functions and it is useful to look at their behavior in more detail.

Figure 2.8 shows the sequence diagram for `wait_for_inferior` when handling the GDB `run` command.

![Sequence Diagram](image)

**Figure 2.8. Sequence diagram for the GDB `wait_for_inferior` function as used by the `run` command**

Once again the key work is in `handle_inferior_event`. The code checks for watchpoints using the `to_stopped_by_watchpoint` function of the current target. The function also checks breakpoints, but since it already knows the current program counter (set by `target_wait` when control is returned), it needs no further call to the target operations. `target_wait` will have reported if it stopped due to an exception that could be due to a breakpoint. `handle_inferior_event` can then look up the program counter in the list of active breakpoints, to determine which breakpoint was encountered.

Figure 2.9 shows the sequence diagram for `normal_stop` when handling the GDB `run` command. In this example the stop was due to the target encountering a breakpoint.

![Sequence Diagram](image)

**Figure 2.9. Sequence diagram for the GDB `normal_stop` function as used by the `run` command**

The first action is to remove breakpoints. This ensures that the target executable is returned to its normal state, without any trap or similar code inserted.
The frame sniffer for the target are identified, using the frame sniffer for the architecture, `arch_frame_sniffer`. The current stack frame is then printed for the user. This requires use of the frame sniffer to identify the ID (and hence all the other data) of THIS frame from the NEXT frame (`arch_frame_this_id` here). `print_stack_frame` will start from the sentinel frame and work inwards until it finds the stack frame containing the current stack pointer and program counter.

### 2.11.6. The GDB backtrace Command

Figure 2.10 shows the high level sequence diagram for GDB in response to the `backtrace` command. This sequence shows the behavior for the first call to backtrace after control has returned to GDB.

The main command function is `backtrace_command`, which uses `print_frame_info` to print the name of each function on the stack with its arguments.

The first frame is already known from the program counter and stack pointer of the stopped target, so is printed out by `print_frame`. That will ultimately use the current target’s `to_xfer_partial` function to get the local argument values.

Since this is the first `backtrace` after the program stopped, the stack pointer and program counter are each obtained from the sentinel frame using `get_func_type`. `print_frame` is then called for each frame in turn as the stack is unwound until there are no more stack frames. The information in each frame is built up using the architecture’s frame sniffers.

It is useful to look at `print_frame` in more detail. Figure 2.11 shows the sequence diagram for the second series of calls to the `print_frame` function when handling the GDB `backtrace` command, used to print out the stack frame.

![Sequence Diagram](image)
The information about the function on the stack frame can be obtained from the program counter and stack pointer associated with the stack frame. These are obtained by calls to the `gdbarch_unwind_pc` and `gdbarch_unwind_sp` functions.

Then for each argument, its value must be printed out. The symbol table debug data will identify the arguments, and enough information for GDB to work out if the value is on the stack or in a register. The frame sniffer function to get registers from the stack frame (in this example `arch_frame_prev_register`) is used to get the values of any registers as appropriate.

The precise sequence of calls depends on the functions in the stack frame, the arguments they have, and whether those arguments are in registers or on the stack.

### 2.11.7. The GDB continue Command after a Breakpoint

The final sequence shows the behavior when execution is resumed after a breakpoint with the `continue` command. Figure 2.12 shows the high level sequence diagram for GDB in response to the `continue` command. This sequence shows the behavior for the first call to continue after a run stopped due to a breakpoint.

![High level sequence diagram for the GDB continue command after a breakpoint](image)

**Figure 2.12.** High level sequence diagram for the GDB continue command after a breakpoint

The command functionality is provided by the `continue_command`, which calls the `proceed` function for much of its behavior.

`proceed` calls the `to_resume` function of the current target to resume execution. For this first call, the breakpoint(s) removed when execution completed after the `run` command are **not** replaced and the target resumption is only for a single instruction step. This allows the target to be stepped past the breakpoint without triggering an exception.

`proceed` then uses `wait_for_inferior` to wait for control to return after the single step and diagnose the next action. Waiting uses the `to_wait` function of the current target, then calls `handle_inferior_event` to analyze the result. In this case, `handle_inferior_event` determines that a target has just stepped past a breakpoint. It reinserts the breakpoints and calls the target `to_resume` function again, this time to run continuously.

`wait_for_inferior` will use the current target `to_wait` function again to wait for the target to stop executing, then again call the `handle_inferior_event` to process the result. This time, control should return to GDB, so breakpoints are removed, and `handle_inferior_event` and `wait_for_inferior` return. `proceed` calls `normal_stop` to tidy up and print out a message about the current stack frame location where execution has stopped (see Section 2.11.5.).
It is useful to examine the behavior of the first call to `handle_inferior_event`, to see the sequence for completing the single step and resuming continuous execution. Figure 2.13 shows the sequence diagram for the first call to `handle_inferior_event`.

![Sequence diagram for the GDB handle_inferior_event function after single stepping an instruction for the continue command](image)

**Figure 2.13. Sequence diagram for the GDB handle_inferior_event function after single stepping an instruction for the continue command**

`handle_inferior_event` first determines if a watchpoint has now been triggered. If this is not the case, it checks if the processor is now in the delay slot of an instruction (requiring another single-step immediately). Having determined that continuous execution is appropriate, it calls the function `keep_going` to reinsert active breakpoints (using the `to_insert_breakpoint` function of the current target). Finally it calls the `to_resume` function of the current target without the single-step flag set to resume continuous execution.

### 2.12. Summary: Steps to Port a New Architecture to GDB

Porting a new architecture to GDB can be broken into a number of steps.

- Ensure a BFD exists for executables of the target architecture in the `bfd` directory. If one does not exist, create one by modifying an existing similar one.
- Implement a disassembler for the target architecture in the `opcodes` directory.
- Define the target architecture in the `gdb` directory. Add the pattern for the new target to `configure.tgt` with the names of the files that contain the code. By convention the target architecture definition for an architecture `arch` is placed in `arch-tdep.c`. Within `arch-tdep.c` define the function `_initialize_arch_tdep` which calls `gdbarch_register` to create the new struct `gdbarch` for the architecture.
- If a new remote target is needed, consider adding a new remote target by defining a function `_initialize_remote_arch`. However if at all possible use the Remote Serial Protocol for this and implement the server side protocol independently with the target.
- If desired implement a simulator in the `sim` directory. This should create the library `libsim.a` implementing the interface in `remote-sim.h` (found in the `include` directory).
- Build and test. If desired, lobby the GDB steering group to have the new port included in the main distribution!

The remainder of this document shows how this process was used to port GDB to the Open-RISC 1000 architecture.
Chapter 3. The OpenRISC 1000 Architecture

The OpenRISC 1000 architecture defines a family of free, open source RISC processor cores. It is a 32 or 64-bit load and store RISC architecture designed with emphasis on performance, simplicity, low power requirements, scalability and versatility.

The OpenRISC 1000 is fully documented in its Architecture Manual [8].

From a debugging perspective, there are three data areas that are manipulated by the instruction set.

1. Main memory. A uniform address space with 32 or 64-bit addressing. Provision for separate or unified instruction and data and instruction caches. Provision for separate or unified, 1 or 2-level data and instruction MMUs.

2. General Purpose Registers (GPRs). Up to 32 registers, 32 or 64-bit in length.

3. Special Purpose Registers (SPRs). Up to 32 groups each with up to 2048 registers, up to 32 or 64-bit in length. These registers provide all the administrative functionality of the processor: program counter, processor status, saved exception registers, debug interface, MMU and cache interfaces, etc.

The Special Purpose Registers (SPRs) represent a challenge for GDB, since they represent neither addressable memory, nor have the characteristics of a register set (generally modest in number).

A number of SPRs are of particular significance to the GDB implementation.

- **Configuration registers.** The Unit Present register (SPR 1, UPR), CPU Configuration register (SPR 2, CPUCFGR) and Debug Configuration register (SPR 7, DCFG) identify the features available in the particular OpenRISC 1000 implementation. This includes the instruction set in use, number of general purpose registers and configuration of the hardware debug interface.

- **Program counters.** The Previous Program Counter (SPR 0x12, PPC) is the address of the instruction just executed. The Next Program Counter (SPR 0x10, NPC) is the address of the next instruction to be executed. The NPC is the value reported by GDBs $pc variable.

- **Supervision Register.** The supervision register (SPR 0x11, SR) represents the current status of the processor. It is the value reported by GDBs status register variable, $ps.

Of particular importance are the SPRs in group 6 controlling the debug unit (if present). The debug unit can trigger a trap exception in response to any one of up to 10 *watchpoints*. Watchpoints are logical expressions built by combining *matchpoints*, which are simple point tests of particular behavior (has a specified address been accessed for example).

- **Debug Value and Control registers.** There are up to 8 pairs of Debug Value (SPR 0x3000–0x3007, DVR through DVR7) and Debug Control (SPR 0x3008–0x300f, DCR through DCR7) registers. Each pair is associated with one hardware *matchpoint*. The Debug Value register in each pair gives a value to compare against. The Debug Control register indicates whether the matchpoint is enabled, the type of value to compare against (instruction fetch address, data load and/or store address data load and/or store value) and the comparison to make (equal, not equal, less than, less than or equal, greater than, greater than or equal), both signed and unsigned. If the matchpoint is enabled and the test met, the corresponding matchpoint is triggered.


- **Debug Watchpoint counters.** There are two 16-bit Debug Watchpoint Counter registers (SPR 0x3012–0x3013, \texttt{DWCR0} and \texttt{DWCR1}), associated with two further matchpoints. The upper 16 bits are a value to match, the lower 16 bits a counter. The counter is incremented when specified matchpoints are triggered (see Debug Mode register 1). When the count reaches the match value, the corresponding matchpoint is triggered.

  
  
  
  Caution
  
  There is potential ambiguity in that counters are incremented in response to matchpoints and also generate their own matchpoints. It is not good practice to set a counter to increment on its own matchpoint!

- **Debug Mode registers.** There are two Debug Mode registers to control the behavior of the debug unit (SPR 0x3010–0x3011, \texttt{DMR1} and \texttt{DMR2}). \texttt{DMR1} provides a pair of bits for each of the 10 matchpoints (8 associated with DVR/DCR pairs, 2 associated with counters). These specify whether the watchpoint is triggered by the associated matchpoint, by the matchpoint AND-ed with the previous watchpoint or by the matchpoint OR-ed with the previous watchpoint. By building chains of watchpoints, complex logical tests of hardware behavior can be built up.

  Two further bits in \texttt{DMR1} enable single step behavior (a trap exception occurs on completion of each instruction) and branch step behavior (a trap exception occurs on completion of each branch instruction).

  \texttt{DMR2} contains an enable bit for each counter, 10 bits indicating which watchpoints are assigned to which counter and 10 bits indicating which watchpoints generate a trap exception. It also contains 10 bits of output, indicating which watchpoints have generated a trap exception.

- **Debug Stop and Reason registers.** In normal operation, all OpenRISC 1000 exceptions are handled through the exception vectors at locations 0x100 through 0xf00. The Debug Stop register (SPR 0x3014, \texttt{DSR}) is used to assign particular exceptions instead to the JTAG interface. These exceptions stall the processor, allowing the machine state to be analyzed through the JTAG interface. Typically a debugger will enable this for trap exceptions used for breakpointing.

  Where an exception has been diverted to the development interface, the Debug Reason register (SPR 0x3021, \texttt{DRR}) indicates which exception caused the diversion. Note that although single stepping and branch stepping cause a trap, if they are assigned to the JTAG interface, they do not set the \texttt{TE} bit in the \texttt{DRR}. This allows an external debugger to distinguish between breakpoint traps and single/branch step traps.

3.1. The OpenRISC 1000 JTAG Interface

There are two variants of the JTAG interface for use with the OpenRISC 1000.

1. The original JTAG interface was created as part of the OpenRISC SoC project, ORPSoC [10]. It provides three scan chains: one to access to all the SPRs, one to access external memory and one providing control of the CPU. The control scan chain reset, stall or trace the processor.

2. A new JTAG interface was provided by Igor Mohor in 2004 [11]. It provides the same access to SPRs and external memory, but offers a simpler control interface offering only the ability to stall or reset the processor.

At present the OpenRISC Architectural Simulator, Or1ksim, (see Section 3.4) supports the first of these interfaces.

Three scan chains are provided by both interfaces.
• **RISC_DEBUG** (scan chain 1), providing read/write access to the SPRs.

• **REGISTER** (scan chain 4), providing control of the CPU. In the ORPSoC interface, this provides multiple registers which are read and written to control the CPU. Of these register 0, **MODER**, which controls hardware trace, and register 4, **RISC_OP**, which controls reset and stall are the most important. Trace is enabled by setting, and disabled by clearing bit 1 in **MODER**. Reset and processor stall are triggered and cleared by setting and clearing respectively bit 1 and bit 0 in **RISC_OP**. The stall state may be determined by reading the stall bit in **RISC_OP**.

In the Mohor interface, there is a single control register which behaves identically to **RISC_OP** in the original debug interface.

• **WISHBONE** (scan chain 5), providing read/write access to main memory.

Since the General Purpose Registers (GPRs) are mapped to SPR group 0, this mechanism also allows GPRs to be read and written.

### 3.2. The OpenRISC 1000 Remote JTAG Protocol

**Important**

The latest version of GDB for OpenRISC 1000 implements the GDB Remote Serial Protocol, which is the preferred mechanism for connecting to remote targets [2]. However the protocol described here is retained for backward compatibility. It is used here as a tutorial vehicle to illustrate how a custom debugging protocol can be used within GDB.

To facilitate remote debugging by GDB, the OpenRISC defines a software protocol describing JTAG accesses, suitable for transport over TCP/IP via a socket interface.

**Note**

This protocol pre-dates the GDB Remote Serial Protocol (see Section 2.7). At some future date the OpenRISC 1000 Remote JTAG Protocol will be replaced by the RSP.

The OpenRISC 1000 Remote JTAG Protocol is a simple message send/acknowledge protocol. The JTAG request is packaged as a 32 bit command, 32-bit length and series of 32-bit data words. The JTAG response is packaged as a 32-bit status and optionally a number of 32-bit data words. The commands available are:

• **OR1K_JTAG_COMMAND_READ** (1). Read a single JTAG register. A 32-bit address is provided in the request. The response includes 64-bits of read data.

• **OR1K_JTAG_COMMAND_WRITE** (2). Write a single JTAG register. A 32-bit address is provided in the request and 64-bit data to be written.

• **OR1K_JTAG_COMMAND_READ_BLOCK** (3). Read multiple 32-bit JTAG registers. A 32-bit address of the first register and number of registers to be read is provided in the request. The response includes the number of registers read and 32-bits of data for each one read.

• **OR1K_JTAG_COMMAND_WRITE_BLOCK** (4). Write multiple 32-bit JTAG registers. A 32-bit address of the first register and number of registers to be written is provided in the request followed by 32-bits of data to be written for each register.

• **OR1K_JTAG_COMMAND_CHAIN** (5). Select the scan chain. A 32-bit scan chain number is provided in the request.

Where the Mohor version of the JTAG interface is being used, addresses for read/write accesses to the **REGISTER** scan chain are ignored—there is only one control register.
There is apparently a contradiction in this protocol. Provision is made for individual registers to be read/written as 64 bits, whereas block read/writes (provided for communication efficiency) are only 32-bits.

Figure 3.1 shows the structures of all five requests and their corresponding (successful) responses. Note that if a request fails, the response will only contain the status word.

**Figure 3.1. The OpenRISC 1000 Remote JTAG Protocol data structures**

The client side of this protocol (issuing the requests) is implemented by the GDB port for OpenRISC 1000.

Server side applications may implement this protocol to drive either physical hardware (via its JTAG port) or simulations, which include the JTAG functionality. Examples of the former include USB JTAG connectors, such as those produced by ORSoC™ AB. An example of the latter is the OpenRISC 1000 Architectural Simulator, Or1ksim (see Section 3.4).

### 3.3. Application Binary Interface (ABI)

The ABI for the OpenRISC 1000 is described in Chapter 16 of the Architecture Manual [8]. However the actual GCC compiler implementation differs very slightly from the documented
ABI. Since precise understanding of the ABI is critical to GDB, those differences are documented here.

- Register Usage: R12 is used as another callee-saved register. It is never used to return the upper 32 bits of a 64-bit result on a 32-bit architecture. All values greater than 32-bits are returned by a pointer.

- Although the specification requires stack frames to be double word aligned, the current GCC compiler implements single word alignment.

- Integral values more than 32 bits (64 bits on 64-bit architectures), structures and unions are returned as pointers to the location of the result. That location is provided by the calling function, which passes it as a first argument in GPR 3. In other words, where a function returns a result of this type, the first true argument to the function will appear in R4 (or R5/R6 if it is a 64-bit argument on a 32-bit architecture).

3.4. Or1ksim: the OpenRISC 1000 Architectural Simulator

Or1ksim is an instruction set simulator (ISS) for the OpenRISC 1000 architecture. At present only the 32-bit architecture is modeled. In addition to modeling the core processor, Or1ksim can model a number of peripherals, to provide the functionality of a complete System-on-Chip (SoC).

Or1ksim models the OpenRISC 1000 JTAG interface and implements the OpenRISC 1000 Remote JTAG protocol server side. It was used as the testbed for this port of GDB.

The JTAG interface models the behavior of the old ORPSoC (with support for multiple control registers and hardware trace). A future release will provide an option to support Igor Mohor’s JTAG interface.

Note

Porting GDB uncovered a number of bugs in Or1ksim. The implementation is now quite old, and predates the current OpenRISC 1000 specification. A patch (available from www.embecosm.com/download.html) is available to fix these bugs.
Chapter 4. Porting the OpenRISC 1000 Architecture

This chapter describes the steps in porting the OpenRISC 1000 architecture to GDB. It uses the information and data structures described in Chapter 2.

The OpenRISC 1000 version of GDB is documented briefly in the GDB User Guide [3]. A more comprehensive tutorial [6] is provided within the gdb/doc sub-directory in the file or1k.texinfo.

Strictly speaking this was not a new port. An old port existed for GDB 5.3. However GDB has changed substantially since that time, and an almost complete reimplementation was required.

Tip

When working with any large code base a TAGS file is invaluable. This allows immediate lookup of any procedure or variable across the entire code base. Normally for any GNU project, this is achieved with the command make tags. However this does not work for GDB—there is a problem with the tags target in the opcodes directory.

However tags building does work in the gdb directory, so a TAGS file can be built in that directory by:

```
  cd gdb
  make tags
  cd ..
```

4.1. BFD Specification

The BFD specification for OpenRISC 1000 already existed (it is part of binutils), so there was no need to implement this. The existing code is just reused.

4.2. OpenRISC 1000 Architecture Specification

The code resides in the gdb sub-directory. The main architectural specification is in or1k-tdep.c, with and OpenRISC 1000 wide header in or1k-tdep.h. Support for the OpenRISC 1000 Remote JTAG interface is in remote-or1k.c with the detailed protocol in or1k-jtag.c and a protocol header in or1k-jtag.h.

There are several targets which can use the OpenRISC 1000 architecture. These all begin or16, or32 or or64. The configure.tgt is edited to add patterns for these that will pick up the binaries generated from these source files.

```
or16* | or32* | or64*)
  # Target: OpenCores OpenRISC 1000 architecture
  gdb_target_obs="or1k-tdep.o remote-or1k.o or1k-jtag.o"
  ;;
```
Caution
configure.tgt only specifies binaries, so cannot show dependencies on headers. To correct this, Makefile.in can be edited, so that automake and configure will generate a Makefile with the correct dependencies.

The architecture definition is created from the _initialize_or1k_tdep by a call to gdbarch_register. That function also initializes the disassembler (build_automata) and adds two new commands: a sub-command to the info command to read SPRs and a new top level support command, spr to set the value of SPRs.

4.2.1. Creating struct gdbarch

gdbarch_register is called for BFD type bfd_arch_or32 with the initialization function or1k_gdbarch_init and the target specific dump function, or1k_dump_tdep.

Future implementations may make additional calls to use the same function to create a 64-bit version of the architecture.

gdbarch_init receives the struct gdbarch_info created from the BFD entries and the list of existing architectures. That list is first checked, using gdbarch_list_lookup_by_info to see if there is already an architecture defined suitable for the given struct gdbarch_info and if so it is returned.

Otherwise a new struct gdbarch is created. For that the target dependencies are saved in an OpenRISC 1000 specific struct gdbarch_tdep, defined in or1k-tdep.h.

struct gdbarch_tdep
{
    unsigned int num_matchpoints;
    unsigned int num_gpr_regs;
    int bytes_per_word;
    int bytes_per_address;
};

This is information beyond that which is held in the struct gdbarch. By using this structure, the GDB implementation for OpenRISC 1000 can be made flexible enough to deal with both 32 and 64-bit implementations and with variable numbers of registers and matchpoints.

Caution
Although this flexibility is built in to the code, the current implementation has only been tested with 32-bit OpenRISC 32 registers.

The new architecture is then created by gdbarch_alloc, passing in the struct gdbarch_info and the struct gdbarch_tdep. The struct gdbarch is populated using the various set_gdbarch_ functions, and OpenRISC 1000 Frame sniffers are associated with the architecture.

When creating a new struct gdbarch a function must be provided to dump the target specific definitions in struct gdbarch_tdep to a file. This is provided in or1k_dump_tdep. It is passed a pointer to the struct gdbarch and a file handle and simply writes out the fields in the struct gdbarch_tdep with suitable explanatory text.

4.2.2. OpenRISC 1000 Hardware Data Representation

The first entries in struct gdbarch initialize the size and format of all the standard data types.
4.2.3. Information Functions for the OpenRISC 1000 Architecture

These `struct gdbarch` functions provide information about the architecture.

```c
set_gdbarch_short_bit (gdbarch, 16);
set_gdbarch_int_bit (gdbarch, 32);
set_gdbarch_long_bit (gdbarch, 32);
set_gdbarch_long_long_bit (gdbarch, 64);
set_gdbarch_float_bit (gdbarch, 32);
set_gdbarch_float_format (gdbarch, floatformats_ieee_single);
set_gdbarch_double_bit (gdbarch, 64);
set_gdbarch_double_format (gdbarch, floatformats_ieee_double);
set_gdbarch_long_double_bit (gdbarch, 64);
set_gdbarch_long_double_format (gdbarch, floatformats_ieee_double);
set_gdbarch_ptr_bit (gdbarch, binfo->bits_per_address);
set_gdbarch_addr_bit (gdbarch, binfo->bits_per_address);
set_gdbarch_char_signed (gdbarch, 1);
```

- **or1k_return_value.** This function tells GDB how a value of a particular type would be returned by the ABI. Structures/unions and large scalars (> 4 bytes) are placed in memory and returned by reference (`RETURN_VALUE_ABI_RETURNS_ADDRESS`). Smaller scalars are returned in GPR 11 (`RETURN_VALUE_REGISTER_CONVENTION`).

- **or1k_breakpoint_from_pc** returns the breakpoint function to be used at a given program counter address. Since all OpenRISC 1000 instructions are the same size, this function always returns the same value, the instruction sequence for a `l.trap` instruction.

- **or1k_single_step_through_delay.** This function is used to determine if a single stepped instruction is actually executing a delay slot. This is the case if the previously executed instruction was a branch or jump.
4.2.4. OpenRISC 1000 Register Architecture

The register architecture is defined by two groups of `struct gdbarch` functions and fields. The first group specifies the number of registers (both raw and pseudo) and the register numbers of some “special” registers.

```
set_gdbarch_pseudo_register_read  (gdbarch, or1k_pseudo_register_read);
set_gdbarch_pseudo_register_write (gdbarch, or1k_pseudo_register_write);
set_gdbarch_num_regs              (gdbarch, OR1K_NUM_REGS);
set_gdbarch_num_pseudo_regs       (gdbarch, OR1K_NUM_PSEUDO_REGS);
set_gdbarch_sp_regnum             (gdbarch, OR1K_SP_REGNUM);
set_gdbarch_ps_regnum             (gdbarch, OR1K_PC_REGNUM);
set_gdbarch_deprecated_fp_regnum  (gdbarch, OR1K_FP_REGNUM);
```

The second group of functions provides information about registers.

```
set_gdbarch_register_name         (gdbarch, or1k_register_name);
set_gdbarch_register_type         (gdbarch, or1k_register_type);
set_gdbarch_print_registers_info  (gdbarch, or1k_registers_info);
set_gdbarch_register_reggroup_p   (gdbarch, or1k_register_reggroup_p);
```

The representation of the raw registers (see Section 2.3.5.3) is: registers 0-31 are the corresponding GPRs, register 32 is the previous program counter, 33 is the next program counter (often just called the program counter) and register 34 is the supervision register. For convenience, constants are defined in the header, `or1k_tdep.h`, for all the special registers.

```
#define OR1K_SP_REGNUM         1
#define OR1K_FP_REGNUM         2
#define OR1K_FIRST_ARG_REGNUM  3
#define OR1K_LAST_ARG_REGNUM   8
#define OR1K_LR_REGNUM         9
#define OR1K_LV_REGNUM         11
#define OR1K_PC_REGNUM         (OR1K_MAX_GPR_REGS + 0)
#define OR1K_SR_REGNUM         (OR1K_MAX_GPR_REGS + 1)
```

In this implementation there are no pseudo-registers. A set could have been provided to represent the GPRs in floating point format (for use with the floating point instructions), but this has not been implemented. Constants are defined for the various totals.

```
#define OR1K_MAX_GPR_REGS    32
#define OR1K_NUM_PSEUDO_REGS 0
#define OR1K_NUM_REGS        (OR1K_MAX_GPR_REGS + 3)
#define OR1K_TOTAL_NUM_REGS  (OR1K_NUM_REGS + OR1K_NUM_PSEUDO_REGS)
```
Caution

These totals are currently hard-coded constants. They should really draw on the data in the `struct gdbarch_tdep`, providing support for architectures which have less than the full complement of 32 registers. This functionality will be provided in a future implementation.

One consequence of providing no pseudo-registers is that the frame pointer variable, \$fp in GDB will not have its correct value. The provision of this register as an intrinsic part of GDB is no longer supported. If it is wanted then it should be defined as a register or pseudo-register.

However if there is no register with this name, GDB will use either the value of the `deprecated_fp_regnum` value in `struct gdbarch` or the current frame base, as reported by the frame base sniffer.

For the time being, the `deprecated_fp_regnum` is set. However the longer term plan will be to represent the frame-pointer as a pseudo-register, taking the value of GPR 2.

The register architecture is mostly a matter of setting the values required in `struct gdbarch`. However two functions, `or1k_pseudo_register_read` and `or1k_pseudo_register_write` are defined to provide access to any pseudo-register. These functions are defined to provide hooks for the future, but in the absence of any pseudo-registers they do nothing.

There are set of functions which yield information about the name and type of registers and which provide the output for the GDB `info registers` command.

- `or1k_register_name`. This is a simple table lookup to yield the register name from its number.

- `or1k_register_type`. This function must return the type as a `struct type`. This GDB data structure contains detailed information about each type and its relationship to other types. For the purposes of this function, a number of standard types are predefined, with utility functions to construct other types from them. For most registers the predefined `builtin_type_int32` is suitable. The stack pointer and frame pointer are pointers to arbitrary data, so the equivalent of `void *` is required. This is constructed by applying the function `lookup_pointer_type` to the predefined `builtin_type_void`. The program counter is a pointer to code, so the equivalent of a pointer to a void function is appropriate. This is constructed by applying `lookup_pointer_type` and `lookup_function_type` to `builtin_type`.

- `or1k_register_info`. This function is used by the `info registers` command to display information about one or more registers. This function is not really needed. It is just a wrapper for `default_print_registers_info`, which is the default setting for this function anyway.

- `or1k_register_reggroup_p`. This predicate function returns 1 (true) if a given register is in a particular group. This is used by the command `info registers` when registers in a particular category are requested. The function as implemented is little different from the default function `default_register_reggroup_p`, which is called for any unknown cases anyway. However it does make use of the target dependent data (`struct gdbarch_tdep`), thus providing flexibility for different OpenRISC 1000 architectures.

### 4.2.5. OpenRISC 1000 Frame Handling

The OpenRISC 1000 frame structure is described in its ABI [8]. Some of the detail is slightly different in current OpenRISC implementations—this is described in Section 3.3.
The key to frame handling is understanding the prologue (and possibly epilogue) in each function which is responsible for initializing the stack frame. For the OpenRISC 1000, GPR 1 is used as the stack pointer, GPR 2 as the frame pointer and GPR 9 as the return address. The prologue sequence is:

```
l.addi r1, r1, -frame_size
l.sw save_loc(r1), r2
l.addi r2, r1, frame_size
l.sw save_loc-4(r1), r9
l.sw x(r1), ry
```

The OpenRISC 1000 stack frame accommodates any local (automatic) variables and temporary values, then the return address, then the old frame pointer and finally any stack based arguments to functions called by this function. This last rule means that the return address and old frame pointer are not necessarily at the end of the stack frame - enough space will be left to build up any arguments for called functions that must go on the stack. Figure 4.1 shows how the stack looks at the end of the prologue.

![Stack Frame Diagram](image)

**Figure 4.1. The OpenRISC 1000 stack frame at the end of the prologue**

Not all fields are always present. The function need not save its return address to stack, and there may be no callee-saved registers (i.e. GPRs 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28 and 30) which require saving. Leaf functions are not required to set up a new stack frame at all.

The epilogue is the inverse. Callee-saved registers are restored, the return address placed in GPR 9 and the stack and frame pointers restored before jumping to the address in GPR 9.

```
l.lwz r_y, x(r1)
l.lwz r9, save_loc-4(r1)
l.lwz r2, save_loc(r1)
l.jr r9
1.addi r1, r1, frame_size
```

Only those parts of the epilogue which correspond to the prologue need actually appear. The OpenRISC 1000 has a delay slot after branch instructions, so for efficiency the stack restoration can be placed after the `l.jr` instruction.

4.2.5.1. OpenRISC 1000 Functions Analyzing Frames

A group of `struct gdbarch` functions and a value provide information about the current stack and how it is being processed by the target program.
**set_gdbarch_skip_prologue** (gdbarch, or1k_skip_prologue);
**set_gdbarch_inner_than** (gdbarch, core_addr_lessthan);
**set_gdbarch_frame_align** (gdbarch, or1k_frame_align);
**set_gdbarch_frame_red_zone_size** (gdbarch, OR1K_FRAME_RED_ZONE_SIZE);

- **or1k_skip_prologue**. This function returns the end of the function prologue, if the program counter is currently in a function prologue. The initial approach is to use the DWARF2 symbol-and-line (SAL) information to identify the start of the function (**find_pc_partial_function**) and hence the end of the prologue (**skip_prologue_using_sal**). If this information is not available, **or1k_skip_prologue** reuses the helper functions from the frame sniffer function, **or1k_frame_unwind_cache** (see Section 4.2.5.5) to step through code that appears to be function prologue.

- **core_addr_lessthan**. This standard function returns 1 (true) if its first argument is a lower address than its second argument. It provides the functionality required by the **struct gdbarch inner_than** function for architectures like OpenRISC 1000, which have falling stack frames.

- **or1k_frame_align**. This function takes a stack pointer and returns a value (expanding the frame) which meets the stack alignment requirements of the ABI. Since the OpenRISC 1000 ABI uses a falling stack, this uses the built-in function, **align_down**. The alignment is specified in the constant **OR1K_STACK_ALIGN** defined in **or1k-tdep.h**.

  **Note**
  The OpenRISC 1000 ABI specifies that frames should be double-word aligned. However the version of GCC in the current OpenRISC tool chain implements single-word alignment. So the current GDB implementation specifies **OR1K_STACK_ALIGN** to be 4, not 8.

- **OR1K_FRAME_RED_ZONE_SIZE**. The OpenRISC 1000 reserves the 2,560 bytes below the stack pointer for use by exception handlers and frameless functions. This is known as a red zone (an AMD term). This constant is recorded in the **struct gdbarch frame_red_zone_size** field. Any dummy stack frames (see Section 4.2.5.3) will be placed after this point.

4.2.5.2. OpenRISC 1000 Functions for Accessing Frame Data

| set_gdbarch_unwind_pc          | (gdbarch, or1k_unwind_pc); |
| set_gdbarch_unwind_sp          | (gdbarch, or1k_unwind_sp); |

There are only two functions required here, **or1k_unwind_pc** and **or1k_unwind_sp**. Given a pointer to the NEXT frame, these functions return the value of respectively the program counter and stack pointer in THIS frame.

Since the OpenRISC architecture defines standard frame sniffs, and both these registers are raw registers, the functions can be implemented very simply by a call to **frame_unwind_register_unsigned**.

4.2.5.3. OpenRISC 1000 Functions to Create Dummy Stack Frames

Two **struct gdbarch** provide support for calling code in the target inferior.
set_gdbarch_push_dummy_call (gdbarch, or1k_push_dummy_call);
set_gdbarch_unwind_dummy_id (gdbarch, or1k_unwind_dummy_id);

• **or1k_push_dummy_call.** This function creates a dummy stack frame, so that GDB can evaluate a function within the target code (for example in a call command). The input arguments include all the parameters for the call, including the return address and an address where a structure should be returned.

The return address for the function is always breakpointed (so GDB can trap the return). This return address is written into the link register (in the register cache) using regcache_cooked_write_unsigned).

If the function is to return a structure, the address where the structure is to go is passed as a first argument, in GPR 3.

The next arguments are passed in the remaining argument registers (up to GPR 8). Structures are passed by reference to their locating in memory. For 32-bit architectures passing 64-bit arguments, a pair of registers (3 and 4, 5 and 6 or 7 and 8) are used.

Any remaining arguments must be pushed on the end of the stack. There is a difficulty here, since pushing each argument may leave the stack misaligned (OpenRISC 1000 specifies double-word alignment). So the code first works out the space required, then adjusts the resulting stack pointer to the correct alignment. The arguments can then be written to the stack in the correct location.

• **or1k_unwind_dummy_id.** This is the inverse of or1k_push_dummy_call. Given a pointer to the NEXT stack frame (which will be the frame of the dummy call), it returns the frame ID (that is the stack pointer and function entry point address) of THIS frame.

This is not completely trivial. For a dummy frame, the NEXT frame information about THIS frame is not necessarily complete, so a simple call to frame_unwind_id recurses back to this function ad infinitum. Instead the frame information is built by unwind the stack pointer and program counter and attempting to use DWARF2 symbol-and-line (SAL) information to find the start of the function from the PC with find_pc_partial_function. If that information is not available, the program counter is used as a proxy for the function start address.

### 4.2.5.4. OpenRISC 1000 Frame Sniffers

The preceding functions all have a 1:1 relationship with struct gdbarch. However for stack analysis (or "sniffing") more than one approach may be appropriate, so a list of functions is maintained.

The low level stack analysis functions are set by frame_unwind_append_sniffer. The OpenRISC 1000 has its own sniffers for finding the ID of a frame and getting the value of a register on the frame specified by or1k_frame_sniffer. For all other sniffing functions, the default DWARF2 frame sniffer is used, dwarf2_frame_sniffer.

The high level sniffer finds the base of the stack frame. OpenRISC defines its own base sniffer, or1k_frame_base as default. It provides all the functionality needed, so can be used as the default base sniffer, set using frame_base_set_default. The frame base is a structure, with entries pointing to the corresponding frame sniffer and functions to give the base address of the frame, the arguments on the frame and the local variables on the frame. Since these are all the same for the OpenRISC 1000, the same function, or1k_frame_base_address is used for all three.
4.2.5.5. OpenRISC 1000 Frame Base Sniffer

The same function, `or1k_frame_base_address` is used to provide all three base functions: for the frame itself, the local variables and any arguments. In the OpenRISC 1000 these are all the same value.

```
or1k_frame_base.unwind      = or1k_frame_sniffer (NULL);
or1k_frame_base.this_base   = or1k_frame_base_address;
or1k_frame_base.this_locals = or1k_frame_base_address;
or1k_frame_base.this_args   = or1k_frame_base_address;
frame_base_set_default            (gdbarch, &or1k_frame_base);
```

The specification of this function requires the end of the stack, i.e. the stack pointer. Rather confusingly the function is also used to determine the value of the $fp$ variable if `deprecated_fp_regnum` has not been set and there is no register with the name "$fp". However, as noted earlier, GDB is moving away from an intrinsic understanding of frame pointers. For the OpenRISC 1000, `deprecated_fp_regnum` is currently defined, although in time a pseudo register will be defined, with the name of $fp$ and mapping to GPR 2.

Like all the frame sniffers, this function is passed the address of the NEXT frame, and requires the value for THIS frame, so the value of the stack pointer is unwound from the stack by using the generic register unwinder, `frame_unwind_register_unsigned`.

4.2.5.6. OpenRISC 1000 Low Level Frame Sniffers

The function `or1k_frame_sniffer` returns a pointer to `struct frame_unwind` with entries for the functions defined by this sniffer. For the OpenRISC 1000, this defines a custom function to construct the frame ID of THIS frame given a pointer to the NEXT frame (`or1k_frame_this_id`) and a custom function to give the value of a register in THIS frame given a pointer to the NEXT frame (`or1k_frame_prev_register`).

- **or1k_frame_this_id**. This function's inputs are a pointer to the NEXT frame and the prologue cache (if any exists) for THIS frame. It uses the main OpenRISC 1000 frame analyzer, `or1k_frame_unwind_cache` to generate the prologue cache if it does not exist (see below).

  From the cached data, the function returns the frame ID. This comprises two values, the stack pointer for this frame and the address of the code (typically the entry point) for the function using this stack frame.

  **Note**

  Strictly speaking frame IDs can have a third value, the special address for use with architectures which have more complex frame structures. However this is rarely used.

  The result is returned in a `struct frame_id` passed by reference as a third argument. Since the implementation uses the built in `struct trad_frame_cache` for its register cache, the code can use the `trad_frame_get_id` function to decode the frame ID from the cache.

- **or1k_frame_prev_register**. This function's inputs are a pointer to the NEXT frame, the prologue cache (if any exists) for THIS frame and a register number. It uses the main OpenRISC 1000 frame analyzer, `or1k_frame_unwind_cache` to generate the prologue cache if it does not exist (see below).

  From the cached data, a flag is returned indicating if the register has been optimized out (this is never the case), what sort of l-value the register represents (a register, memory...
or not an l-value), the address where it is saved in memory (if it is saved in memory), the number of a different register which holds the value of this register (if that is the case) and if a buffer is provided the actual value as obtained from memory or the register cache.

Since the implementation uses the built in `struct trad_frame_cache` for its register cache, the code can use the `trad_frame_get_register` function to decode all this information from the cache.

The OpenRISC 1000 low level sniffers rely on `or1k_frame_unwind_cache`. This is the heart of the sniffer. It must determine the frame ID for `THIS` frame given a pointer to the `NEXT` frame and then the information in `THIS` frame about the values of registers in the `PREVIOUS` frame.

All this data is returned in a prologue cache (see Section 2.3.6), a reference to which is passed as an argument. If the cache already exists for `THIS` frame it can be returned immediately as the result.

If the cache does not yet exist, it is allocated (using `trad_frame_cache_zalloc`). The first step is to unwind the start address of this function from the `NEXT` frame. The DWARF2 information in the object file can be used to find the end of the prologue (using `skip_prologue_using_sal`).

The code then works through each instruction of the prologue to find the data required.

![Caution]

The analysis must only consider prologue instructions that have actually been executed. It is quite possible the program counter is in the prologue code, and only instructions that have actually been executed should be analyzed.

The stack pointer and program counter are found by simply unwinding the `NEXT` frame. The stack pointer is the base of `THIS` frame, and is added to the cache data using `trad_frame_set_this_base`.

`end_iaddr` marks the end of the code we should analyze. Only instructions with addresses less than this will be considered.

The `l.addi` instruction should be first and its immediate constant field is the size of the stack. If it is missing, then this is a frameless call to a function. If the program counter is right at the start of the function, before the stack and frame pointers are set up, then it will also look like a frameless function.

Unless it is subsequently found to have been saved on the stack, the program counter of the `PREVIOUS` frame is the link register of `THIS` frame and can be recorded in the register cache.

![Tip]

It is essential to save the register data using the correct function.

- Use `trad_frame_set_reg_realreg` when a register in the `PREVIOUS` frame is obtained from a register in `THIS` frame.
- Use `trad_frame_set_reg_addr` when a register in the `PREVIOUS` frame is obtained from an address in `THIS` frame.
- Use `trad_frame_set_reg_value` when a register in the `PREVIOUS` frame is a particular value in `THIS` frame.

The default entry for each register is that its value in the `PREVIOUS` frame is obtained from the same register in `THIS` frame.

For a frameless call, there is no more information to be found, so the rest of the code analysis only applies if the frame size was non-zero.
The second instruction in the prologue is where the frame pointer of the `PREVIOUS` frame is saved. It is an error if this is missing. The address where it is saved (the stack pointer of `THIS` frame plus the offset in the `1.sw` instruction) is saved in the cache using `trad_frame_set_reg_addr`.

The third instruction should be an `l.addi` instruction which sets the frame pointer. The frame size set in this instruction should match the frame size set in the first instruction. Once this has been set up, the frame pointer can be used to yield the stack pointer of the previous frame. This information is recorded in the register cache.

The fourth instruction is optional and saves the return address to the stack. If this instruction is found, the entry in the register cache for the program counter in the `PREVIOUS` frame must be changed using `trad_frame_set_reg_addr` to indicate it is found at an address in this frame.

All the subsequent instructions in the prologue should be saves of callee-savable registers. These are checked for until the code address has reached the end of the prologue. For each instruction that is found, the save location of the register is recorded in the cache using `trad_frame_set_reg_addr`.

The detailed analysis in `or1k_frame_unwind_cache` uses a series of helper functions: `or1k_frame_size`, `or1k_frame_fp_loc`, `or1k_frame_size_check`, `or1k_link_address` and `or1k_get_saved_reg`. These helper routines check each of the instructions in the prologue. By breaking out this code into separate functions, they can be reused by `or1k_skip_prologue`.

### 4.3. OpenRISC 1000 JTAG Remote Target Specification

The code for the remote target specification for the OpenRISC Remote JTAG protocol is found in the `gdb` sub-directory. `remote-or1k.c` contains the target definition. The low-level interface is found in `or1k-jtag.c` with a shared header in `or1k-jtagh`.

The low-level interface is abstracted to a set of OpenRISC 1000 specific functions relating to the behavior of the target. Two implementations are provided (in `or1k-jtag.c`), one for targets connected directly through the host's parallel port, and one for targets connected over TCP/IP using the OpenRISC 1000 Remote JTAG Protocol.

```c
void      or1k_jtag_init (char *args);
void      or1k_jtag_close ();
ULONGEST  or1k_jtag_read_spr (unsigned int  sprnum);
void      or1k_jtag_write_spr (unsigned int  sprnum,
                               ULONGEST      data);
int       or1k_jtag_read_mem (CORE_ADDR  addr,
                              gdb_byte  *bdata,
                              int        len);
int       or1k_jtag_write_mem (CORE_ADDR  addr,
                                const gdb_byte *bdata,
                                int             len);
void      or1k_jtag_stall ();
void      or1k_jtag_unstall ();
void      or1k_jtag_wait (int  fast);
```

The choice of which implementation to use is determined by the argument to `or1k_jtag_init`.

- **or1k_jtag_init** and **or1k_jtag_close**. Initialize and close a connection to the target. **or1k_jtag_init** is passed an argument string with the address of the target (either a
local device or a remote TCP/IP port address). An optional second argument, `reset` can be provided to indicate the target should be reset once connected.

- `or1k_jtag_read_spr` and `or1k_jtag_write_spr`. Read or write a special purpose register.
- `or1k_jtag_read_mem` and `or1k_jtag_write_mem`. Read or write a block of memory.
- `or1k_jtag_stall` and `or1k_jtag_unstall`. Stall or unstall the target.
- `or1k_jtag_wait`. Wait for the target to stall.

The binaries for the remote target interface (`remote-or1k.o` and `or1k-jtag.o`) are added to the `configure.tgt` file for the OpenRISC targets. As noted in Section 4.2, this only specifies binaries, so dependencies on headers cannot be captured. To do this requires editing the `Makefile.in`.

**Tip**
As a shortcut for a simple port, editing `Makefile.in` can be omitted. Instead, `touch` the target specific C source files before calling `make` to ensure they are rebuilt.

### 4.3.1. Creating struct target_ops for OpenRISC 1000

The remote target is created by defining the function `_initialize_remote_or1k`. A new `struct target_ops`, `or1k_jtag_target` is populated and added as a target by calling `add_target`.

The majority of the target operations are generic to OpenRISC 1000, and independent of the actual low level interface. This is achieved by abstracting the low level interface through the interface functions described in Section 4.3.

Having established all the target functions, the target is added by calling `add_target`.

When a target is selected (with the GDB `target jtag` command), the set of target operations chosen for use with the OpenRISC 1000 architecture will be referred to by the global variable, `or1k_target`, defined in `or1k-tdep.c`.

**Note**
GDB has its own global variable, `current_target`, which refers to the current set of target operations. However this is not sufficient, since even though a target may be connected via the OpenRISC remote interface, it may not be the `current` target. The use of strata by GDB means there could possibly be another target which is active at the same time.

Much of the operation of the target interface involves manipulating the debug SPRs. Rather than continually writing them out to the target, a cache of their values is maintained in `or1k_dbgcache`, which is flushed prior to any operation that will unstall the target (thus causing it to execute).

### 4.3.2. OpenRISC 1000 Target Functions and Variables Providing Information

A group of variables and functions give the name of the interface and different types of information.

- `to_shortname`. This is the name of the target for use when connecting in GDB. For the OpenRISC 1000, it is "jtag", so connection in GDB will be established by using the command `target jtag ....`
• **to_longname.** A brief description of the command for use by the GDB info target command.

• **to_doc.** The help text for this target. The first sentence is used for general help about all targets, the full text for help specifically about this target. The text explains how to connect both directly and over TCP/IP.

• **or1k_files_info.** This function provides the initial information for info target. For the OpenRISC 1000 it provides the name of the program being run on the target, if known. OpenRISC remote targets are always executable, with full access to memory, stack, registers etc once the connection is established. A set of variables in struct target_ops for OpenRISC 1000 records this.

• **to_stratum.** Since the OpenRISC 1000 target can execute code, this field is set to process_stratum.

• **to_has_all_memory, to_has_memory, to_has_stack and to_has_registers.** Once the OpenRISC 1000 target is connected, it has access to all its memory, a stack and registers, so all these fields are set to 1 (true).

• **to_has_execution.** When the connection is initially established, the OpenRISC 1000 processor will be stalled, so is not actually executing. So this field is initialized to 0 (false).

• **to_have_steppable_watchpoint and to_have_continuable_watchpoint.** These flags indicate whether the target can step through a watchpoint immediately after it has been executed, or if the watchpoint can be immediate continued without having any effect. If the OpenRISC 1000 triggers a hardware watchpoint, the instruction affected will not have completed execution, so must be re-executed (the code cannot continue). Furthermore the watchpoint must be temporarily disabled while re-executing, or it will trigger again (it is not steppable). Thus both these flags are set to 0 (false).

### 4.3.3. OpenRISC 1000 Target Functions Controlling the Connection

These functions control the connection to the target. For remote targets this involves setting up and closing down a TCP/IP socket link to the server driving the hardware. For local targets it involves opening and closing the device.

• **or1k_open.** This is passed the arguments to the target jtag command and establishes the connection to the target. The arguments are the address of the target (either a local device, or a TCP/IP host/port specification) and an optional second argument reset indicating the target should be reset on connection. Any existing connections are tidied up by target_preopen and any instances of this target are removed from the target stack by unpush_target.

Connection is then established through the low level interface routine, or1k_jtag_init, which resets the target if requested.

With the connection established, the target’s Unit Present SPR is checked to verify it has a debug unit available. Data about the number of GPRs and matchpoints is read from the CPU Configuration SPR and used to update struct gdbarch_tdep.

The target processor is then stalled, to prevent further execution, with a 1000μs wait to allow the stall to complete.

The debug cache is cleared, and the Debug Stop SPR set to trigger the JTAG interface on trap exceptions (which are used for debug breakpoints, watchpoints and single stepping). The cache will be written out to the SPRs before execution recommences.
Having established a connection, the target is pushed on to the stack. It is marked running, which sets all the flags associated with a running process and updates the choice of current target (which depending on the stratum could be this target). However, the OpenRISC connection is established with the target processor stalled, so the `to_has_execution` flag is cleared by setting the macro `target_has_execution` to 0. It will be set when `or1k_resume` unstalls the target.

As a matter of good housekeeping, any shared library symbols are cleared using `no_shared_libraries`.

GDB identifies all inferior executables by their process and thread ID. This port of the OpenRISC 1000 is for bare metal debugging, so there is no concept of different processes that may be executing. Consequently the `null_ptid` is used as the process/thread ID for the target. This is set in the GDB global variable `inferior_pid`.

**Note**

It is important that the inferior process/thread ID is established at this early stage, so that the target can always be uniquely identified.

Finally the generic `start_remote` is called to set up the new target ready for execution. It is possible this could fail, so the call is wrapped in a function, `or1k_start_remote`, which has the correct prototype to run using `catch_exception`. If failure occurs, the target can be popped, before the exception is thrown on to the top level.

- **or1k_close**. This closes the connection by calling the low level interface function, `or1k_jtag_close`. The target will already have been unpushed and the inferior mourned (see Section 4.3.6), so these actions are not required.

- **or1k_detach**. This just detaches from the target being debugged, which is achieved by calling `or1k_close`. There is no explicit function to reattach to the target, but a call to `or1k_open` (by giving a `target_jtag` command in GDB) will achieve the same effect.

### 4.3.4. OpenRISC 1000 Target Functions to Access Memory and Registers

These are a group of functions to access the registers and memory of the target.

- **or1k_fetch_registers**. This function populates the register cache from the actual target registers. The interface to the OpenRISC 1000 only provides for reading of memory or SPRs. However the GPRs are mapped into the SPR space, so can be read in this way.

- **or1k_store_registers**. This is the inverse of `or1k_fetch_registers`. It writes the contents of the register cache back to the physical registers on the target.

- **or1k_prepare_to_store**. GDB allows for targets which need some preparatory work before storing, so provides this function. It is not needed for the OpenRISC 1000, so just returns.

- **or1k_xfer_partial**. This is the generic function for reading and writing objects from and to the target. However the only class of object which needs be supported is read and write from memory. This is achieved through the low-level interface routines `or1k_jtag_read_mem` and `or1k_jtag_write_mem`.

- **generic_load**. This generic function is used as the `to_load` function of the target operations. There is nothing special about loading OpenRISC 1000 images. This function will call the `or1k_xfer_partial` function to transfer the bytes for each section of the image.
4.3.5. OpenRISC 1000 Target Functions to Handle Breakpoints and Watchpoints

The OpenRISC 1000 can support hardware breakpoints and watchpoints, if matchpoints are free in the debug unit.

**Note**

Beware of confusion over the term “watchpoint”. It is used in GDB to mean a location, being watched for read or write activity. These may be implemented in hardware or software.

If implemented in hardware, they may make use of the OpenRISC 1000 Debug Unit mechanism, which also uses the term watchpoint. This document uses the terms “GDB watchpoint” and “OpenRISC 1000 watchpoint” where there is any risk of confusion.

- **or1k_set_breakpoint**. This is the underlying OpenRISC 1000 function which sets a hardware breakpoint if one is available. This is controlled through the Debug Value Register and Debug Control Register. This function is used by the target operation functions **or1k_insert_breakpoint** and **or1k_insert_hw_breakpoint**.
  The first free hardware matchpoint is found by searching through the Debug Control Registers for a register without its DVR/DCR Preset (DP) flag set using **or1k_first_free_matchpoint**.
  The Debug Value Register is set to the address of the breakpoint and the Debug Control Register to trigger when the unsigned effective address of the fetched instruction is equal to the Debug Value Register. The corresponding OpenRISC 1000 watchpoint is marked as unchained in Debug Mode Register 1 and set to trigger a trap exception in Debug Mode Register 2.

- **or1k_clear_breakpoint**. This is the counterpart to **or1k_set_breakpoint**. It is called by the target operation functions **remove_breakpoint** and **remove_hw_breakpoint**.
  The Debug Control Registers are searched for an entry matching the given address (using **or1k_matchpoint_equal**). If a register is found, its DVR/DCR Present flag is cleared, and the matchpoint marked unused in Debug Mode Register 2.

- **or1k_insert_breakpoint**. This function inserts a breakpoint. It tries to insert a hardware breakpoint using **or1k_set_breakpoint**. If this fails, the generic **memory_insert_breakpoint** is used to set a software breakpoint.

- **or1k_remove_breakpoint**. This is the counterpart to **or1k_insert_breakpoint**. It tries to clear a hardware breakpoint, and if that fails tries to clear a software breakpoint using the generic **memory_remove_breakpoint**.

- **or1k_insert_hw_breakpoint** and **or1k_remove_hw_breakpoint**. These functions are similar to **or1k_insert_breakpoint** and **or1k_remove_breakpoint**. However if a hardware breakpoint is not available, they do not attempt to use a software (memory) breakpoint instead.

- **or1k_insert_watchpoint**. This function attempts to insert a GDB hardware watchpoint. For this it requires a pair of OpenRISC 1000 watchpoints chained together. The first will check for a memory access greater than or equal to the start address of interest. The second will check for a memory access less than or equal to the end address of interest. If both criteria are met. The access type can be the load effective address (for GDB rwatch watchpoints), store effective address (for GDB watch watchpoints) or both (for GDB awatch watchpoints).
  The pair of OpenRISC 1000 watchpoints must be adjacent (so they can be chained together using Debug Mode Register 1), but it is possible that successive breakpoints
have fragmented the use of OpenRISC 1000 watchpoints. or1k_watchpoint.gc is used to shuffle up all the existing OpenRISC 1000 watchpoints which can be moved, to find a pair if possible.

• or1k_remove_watchpoint. This is the counterpart of or1k_insert_watchpoint. It searches for an adjacent pair of OpenRISC 1000 watchpoints that match using or1k_matchpoint_equal. If found both are marked unused in their Debug Control Register and cleared from triggering in Debug Mode Register 2.

• or1k_stopped_by_watchpoint and or1k_stopped_data_address. These functions are called to find out about GDB watchpoints which may have triggered. Both make use of the utility function, or1k_stopped_watchpoint_info, which determines if a GDB watchpoint was triggered, if so which watchpoint and for what address. or1k_stopped_watchpoint just returns a Boolean to indicate if a watchpoint was triggered. or1k_stopped_data_address is called once for each watchpoint that has triggered. It returns the address that triggered the watchpoint and must also clear the watchpoint (in Debug Mode Register 2).

4.3.6. OpenRISC 1000 Target Functions to Control Execution

When the run command is used to start execution with GDB it needs to establish the executable on the inferior, and then start execution. This is done using the to_create_inferior and to_resume functions of the target respectively.

Once execution has started, GDB waits until the target to_wait function returns control.

In addition the target provides operations to stop execution.

• or1k_resume. This is the function which causes the target program to run. It is called in response to the run, step, stepi, next and nexti instructions.

The behavior of this function is far simpler than its counterpart in GDB 5.3, which required complex logic to re-execute instructions after a breakpoint or watchpoint. GDB 6.8 will sort out all the issues of re-execution after a breakpoint or watchpoint has been encountered (see or1k_wait below for more on this).

The function clears the Debug Reason Register, clears any watchpoint status bits in Debug Mode Register 2 and then commits the debug registers.

If the caller has requested single stepping, this is set using Debug Mode Register 1, otherwise this is cleared.

Finally the target can be marked as executing (the first time or1k_resume is called it will not be marked as executing), the debug registers written out, and the processor uninstalled.

• or1k_wait . This function waits for the target to stall, and analyzes the cause. Information about why the target stalled is returned to the caller via the status argument. The function returns the process/thread ID of the process which stalled, although for the OpenRISC 1000 this will always be the same value.

While waiting for the target to stall (using or1k_jtag_wait), a signal handler is installed, so the user can interrupt execution with ctrl-C.

After the wait returns, all register and frame caches are invalid. These are cleared by calling registers_changed (which in turn clears the frame caches).

When the processor stalls, the Debug Reason Register (a SPR) shows the reason for the stall. This will be due to any exception set in the Debug Stop Register (currently only
trap), due to a single step, due to a reset (the debugger stalls the processor on reset) or (when the target is the architectural simulator, Or1ksim) due to an exit 1.nop 1 being executed.

In all cases the previous program counter SPR points to the instruction just executed and the next program counter SPR to the instruction about to be executed. For watchpoints and breakpoints, which generate a trap however the instruction at the previous program counter will not have completed execution. As a result, when the program resumes, this instruction should be re-executed without the breakpoint/watchpoint enabled.

GDB understands this. It is sufficient to set the program counter to the previous program counter. GDB will realize that the instruction corresponds to a breakpoint/watchpoint that has just been encountered, lift the breakpoint, single step past the instruction and reimpose the breakpoint. This is achieved by a call to write_pc with the previous program counter value.

The OpenRISC 1000 imposes a slight problem here. The standard GDB approach works fine, except if the breakpoint was in the delay slot of a branch or jump instruction. In this case the re-execution must be not just of the previous instruction, but the one before that (restoring the link register as well if it was a jump-and-link instruction). Furthermore this must only be in the case where the branch was truly the preceding instruction, rather than the delay slot having been the target of a different branch instruction.

In the absence of a "previous previous" program counter, this restart cannot be correct under all circumstances. For the time being, breakpoints on delay slots are not expected to work. However it is highly unlikely a source level debugger would ever place a breakpoint in a delay slot.

A more complete solution for the future would use the struct gdbarch
adjust_breakpoint_address to move any breakpoint requested for a delay slot, to insist the breakpoint is placed on the preceding jump or branch. This would work for all but the most unusual code, which used a delay slot as a branch target.

Having sorted out the program counter readjustment, any single step is marked as though it were a trap. Single step does not set the trap exception, nor does it need re-executing, but by setting the flag here, the exception will be correctly mapped to the TARGET_SIGNAL_TRAP for return to GDB.

The response is marked as a a stopped processor (TARGET_WAITKIND_STOPPED). All exceptions are mapped to their corresponding GDB signals. If no exception has been raised, then the signal is set to the default, unless the instruction just executed was 1.nop 1, which is used by the architectural simulator to indicate termination. In this case the response is marked as TARGET_WAITKIND_EXITED, and the associate value set to the exit return code.

The debug reason register (which is sticky) can now be cleared and the process/thread ID returned.

- or1k_stop. This stops the processor executing. To achieve this cleanly, the processor is stalled, single step mode is set and the processor unstalled, so execution will have stopped at the end of an instruction.

- or1k_kill. This is a more dramatic termination, when or1k_stop has failed to give satisfaction. Communication with the target is assumed to have broken down, so the target is then mourned, which will close the connection.

- or1k_create_inferior. This sets up a program to run on the target, but does not actually start it running. It is called in response to the GDB run command and is passed any
arguments to that command. However the OpenRISC 1000 JTAG protocol has no way to send arguments to the target, so these are ignored. Debugging is much easier if a local copy of the executable symbol table has been loaded with the file command. This is checked for and a warning issued. However if it is not present, it is perfectly acceptable to debug code on the OpenRISC 1000 target without symbol data.

All static data structures (breakpoint lists etc) are then cleared within GDB by calling init_wait_for_inferior.

Tip
If GDB for the OpenRISC 1000 is used with ddd the warning about passing arguments will often be triggered. This occurs when ddd is asked to run a program in a separate execution window, which it attempts to achieve by creating an xterm and redirecting I/O via pseudo-TTYs to that xterm. The redirections are arguments to the GDB run command.

GDB for OpenRISC 1000 does not support this. The run in separate window option should be disabled with ddd.

• or1k_mourn_inferior. This is the counterpart to or1k_create_inferior, called after execution has completed. It tidies up by calling the generic function generic_mourn_inferior. If the target is still shown as having execution, it is marked as exited, which will cause the selection of a new current target.

4.3.7. OpenRISC 1000 Target Functions to Execute Commands
The OpenRISC 1000 target does not really have a way to execute commands. However implementing SPR access as remote commands provides a mechanism for access, which is independent of the target access protocol. In particular the GDB architecture need know nothing about the actual remote protocol used.

SPR access is implemented as though the target were able to run two commands, readspr to get a value from a SPR and writespr to set a value in a SPR. Each takes a first argument, specified in hexadecimal, which is the SPR number. writespr takes a second argument, specified in hexadecimal, which is the value to be written. readspr returns the value read as a number in hexadecimal.

When access is needed to the SPRs it is achieved by passing one of these commands as argument to the to_rcmd function of the target.

• or1k_rcmd. The command to execute (readspr or writespr) is passed as the first argument. Results of the command are written back through the second argument, which is a UI independent file handle.

readspr is mapped to the corresponding call to or1k_jtag_read_spr. writespr is mapped to the corresponding call to or1k_jtag_write_spr. In the case of an error (for example badly formed command), the result "E01" is returned. If writespr is successful, "OK" is returned as result. If readspr is successful, the value as hexadecimal is returned as result. In all cases the result is written as a string to the UI independent file handle specified as second argument to the function.

4.3.8. The Low Level JTAG Interface
The interface to the OpenRISC JTAG system is found in gdb/or1k-jtag.c and gdb/or1k-jtag.h. The details are not directly relevant to porting GDB so only an overview is given here. Full details are found in the commenting within the source code.
The interface is layered, to maximize use. In particular much of the functionality is the same whether the target is connected remotely over TCP/IP or directly via a JP1 header connected to the parallel port.

- The highest level is the public function interface, which operate in terms of entities that are visible in GDB: open and close the connection, read and write SPRs, read and write memory, stall, uninstall and wait for the processor. These functions always succeed and have function prefixes `or1k_jtag_`.

- The next level is the abstraction provided by the OR1K JTAG protocol: read/write a JTAG register, read/write a block of JTAG registers and select a scan chain. These functions may encounter errors and will deal with them, but otherwise return no error result. These are static functions (i.e. local to this file), with prefixes `or1k_jtag_`.

- The next level is in two sets, one for use with a locally connected (JP1) JTAG and one for a remote connection over TCP/IP corresponding to the functions in the previous layer. These functions detect with errors and return an error code to indicate an error has occurred. These are static functions with prefixes: `jp1_` and `jtr_` respectively.

- The final level comes in separate flavors for locally connected JTAG (low level routines to drive the JP1 interface) and remote use (to build and send/receive packets over TCP/IP). These functions detect errors and return an error code to indicate an error has occurred. These are static function with prefixes: `jp1_ll_` and `jtr_ll_` respectively.

Errors are either dealt with silently or (if fatal) via the GDB `error` function.

**Caution**
Few people now use the JP1 direct connection, and there is no confidence that this code works at all!

### 4.4. The OpenRISC 1000 Disassembler

The OpenRISC 1000 disassembler is part of the wider `binutils` utility set and is found in the `opcodes` sub-directory. It provides two versions of the disassembly function, `print_insn_big_or32` and `print_insn_little_or32` for use with big-endian and little-endian implementations of the architecture in `or32-dis.c`

The instruction decode uses a finite state automaton (FSA) in `or32-opc.c`. This is constructed at start-up by the function `build_automata` from a table describing the instruction set. This function is invoked from the `_initialize_or1k_tdep` function immediately after the OpenRISC 1000 architecture has been defined.

The disassembler takes advantage of any symbol table information to replace branch and jump targets by symbolic names where possible.

### 4.5. OpenRISC 1000 Specific Commands for GDB

Section 2.5 describes how to extend the GDB command set. For the OpenRISC 1000 architecture, the `info` command is extended to show the value of SPRs (`info spr`) and a new command, `spr` is added to set the value of a SPR\(^1\).

Both these commands are added in `_initialize_or1k_tdep` after the architecture has been created and the disassembler automata initialized.

---

\(^1\) There is a strong case for this being a new sub-command of the `set`. However the `spr` command was introduced in GDB 5.0, and there is no point in replacing it now.
4.5.1. The info spr Command

The new sub-command for info is added using add_info

```
add_info ("spr", or1k_info_spr_command,
          "Show the value of a special purpose register");
```

The functionality is provided in or1k_info_spr_command. The user can specify a group by name or number (the value of all registers in that group is displayed), or a register name (the value of that register is displayed) or a group name/number and register name/number (the value of that register in the group is displayed).

The arguments are broken out from the text of the command using or1k_parse_params, which also handles any errors in syntax or semantics. If the arguments are successfully parsed the results are then printed out using the UI independent function, ui_out_field_fmt.

The SPR is read using the convenience function or1k_read_spr. This converts the access to a call of the command readspr, which can be passed to the target usings its to_rcmd target operation (see Section 4.3.7). This will allow the SPR to be accessed in the way most appropriate to the current target access method.

4.5.2. The spr Command

This new top level command is added, classified as a support command (class_support), using the add_com command.

The functionality is provided in or1k_spr_command. This also uses or1k_parse_spr_params to parse the arguments, although there is now one more (the value to set). The new value is written into the relevant SPR and the change recorded using ui_out_field_fmt.

The SPR is written using the convenience function or1k_write_spr. This converts the access to a call of the command writespr, which can be passed to the target usings its to_rcmd target operation (see Section 4.3.7). This will allow the SPR to be accessed in the way most appropriate to the current target access method.
Chapter 5. Summary

This application note has described in detail the steps required to port GDB to a new architecture. That process has been illustrated using the port for the OpenRISC 1000 architecture. Suggestions for corrections or improvements are welcomed. Please contact the author at jeremy.bennett@embecosm.com.
Glossary

Application Binary Interface
The low-level interface between an application program and the operating system, thus ensuring binary compatibility between programs.

big endian
A description of the relationship between byte and word addressing on a computer architecture. In a big endian architecture, the least significant byte in a data word resides at the highest byte address (of the bytes in the word) in memory. The alternative is little endian addressing.
See also: little endian.

Binary File Descriptor (BFD)
A package which allows applications to use the same routines to operate on object files whatever the object file format [5]. A new object file format can be supported simply by creating a new BFD back end and adding it to the library.

Common Object File Format (COFF)
A specification of a format for executable, object code, and shared library computer files used on Unix systems. Now largely replaced by ELF
See also: Executable and Linkable Format (ELF).

Executable and Linkable Format (ELF)
a common standard file format for executables, object code, shared libraries, and core dumps. It is the standard binary file format for Unix and Unix-like systems on x86, where it has largely replaced COFF.
Formerly known as the Extensible Linking Format.
See also: Common Object File Format (COFF).

frame pointer
In stack based languages, the stack pointer typically refers to the end of the local frame. The frame pointer is a second register, which refers to the beginning of the local frame. Not all stack based architectures make use of a frame pointer.
See also: Stack Frame.

General Purpose Register (GPR)
In the OpenRISC 1000 architecture, one of between 16 and 32 general purpose integer registers.
Although these registers are general purpose, some have specific roles defined by the architecture and the ABI. GPR 0 is always 0 and should not be written to. GPR 1 is the stack pointer, GPR 2 the frame pointer and GPR 9 the return address set by 1, jal (known as the link register) and 1, jalr instructions. GPR 3 through GPR 8 are used to pass arguments to functions, with scalar results returned in GPR 11.
See also: Application Binary Interface.
Joint Test Action Group (JTAG)

JTAG is the usual name used for the IEEE 1149.1 standard entitled *Standard Test Access Port and Boundary-Scan Architecture* for test access ports used for testing printed circuit boards and chips using boundary scan. This standard allows external reading of state within the board or chip. It is thus a natural mechanism for debuggers to connect to embedded systems.

little endian

A description of the relationship between byte and word addressing on a computer architecture. In a little endian architecture, the least significant byte in a data word resides at the lowest byte address (of the bytes in the word) in memory. The alternative is big endian addressing.

See also: big endian.

Memory Management Unit (MMU)

A hardware component which maps virtual address references to physical memory addresses via a page lookup table. An exception handler may be required to bring non-existent memory pages into physical memory from backing storage when accessed. On a Harvard architecture (i.e. with separate logical instruction and data address spaces), two MMUs are typically needed.

Real Time Executive for Multiprocessor Systems (RTEMS)

An operating system for real-time embedded systems offering a POSIX interface. It offers no concept of processes or memory management.

Special Purpose Register (GPR)

In the OpenRISC 1000 architecture, one of up to 65536 registers controlling all aspects of the processor. The registers are arranged in groups of 2048 registers. The present architecture defines 12 groups in total. In general each group controls one component of the processor. Thus there is a group to control the DMMU, the IMMU the data and instruction caches and the debug unit. Group 0 is the system group and includes all the system configuration registers, the next and previous program counters, supervision register and saved exception registers.

stack frame

In procedural languages, a dynamic data structure used to hold the values of local variables in a procedure at a particular point of execution. Typically successive stack frames are placed next to each other in a linear data area. The last address of the current stack frame is pointed to by a register, known as the stack pointer. It will be the first address of the next stack pointer.

See also: frame pointer.

System on Chip (SoC)

A silicon chip which includes one or more processor cores.
References


[10] OpenRISC 1000: ORPSoC Damjan Lampret et al. OpenCores http://opencores.org/projects.cgi/web/or1k/orpsoc

Index

Symbols

_initialize functions, 21, 24
_initialize_arch_os_nat, 18
_initialize_arch_remote, 24
_initialize_arch_tdep, 5, 24, 30
_initialize_or1k_tdep, 6, 6, 37, 54, 54
_initialize_remote_arch, 18, 30
_initialize_remote_or1k, 47

A

ABI, 57
   and function prologue, 13
   OpenRISC 1000 (see OpenRISC 1000)
accessor functions
   struct gdbarch, 5
address space, 3
add_com, 55
add_info, 55
add_target, 18, 47
align_down, 14
align_up, 14
Application Binary Interface (see ABI)
arch-os-nat.c file, 18
arch-tdep.c file, 30
arch_frame_prev_register, 29
arch_frame_prev_sniffer, 29
arch_frame_sniffer, 28
arch_frame_this_id, 28
arch_gdbarch_init, 24

B

backtrace_command, 28
BFD, 4, 30, 57
   back end, 4
   OpenRISC 1000 (see OpenRISC 1000)
User Guide, 1, 59
   source (see documentation)
bfd directory, 22
bfd.texinfo file, 23
bfd_arch_or32, 4, 37
Binary File Descriptor (see BFD)
binutils, 4, 22, 23
   disassembly function, 9, 54
breakpoint
   functions in struct gdbarch, 8, 8, 8, 9
   functions in struct target_ops, 20, 20, 20
   in hardware, 20, 20
      for OpenRISC 1000, 49, 50, 50, 50
insertion and removal, 8
instruction
   for OpenRISC 1000, 38
   restriction on location, 8
   size, 8
program counter adjustment after, 9
reinsertion when continuing, 29, 30, 52
restarting after, 52
   problem with OpenRISC 1000, 52
break_command, 26
build_automata, 37, 54
byte order, 7

C

catch_exception, 49
class_support, 55
cli-cmds.h file, 21
cmdlist, 21, 21
COFF, 4
   and OpenRISC 1000, 4
cfg sub-directory, 22
   (see also gdb directory)
config/arch/nm-os.h file, 18
config/arch/os.mh file, 18
configure command, 22
configure.tgt
   header file dependencies, 37
   OpenRISC 1000 targets supported, 36
configure.tgt file, 6, 18, 30, 47
   (see also GDB configuration)
gdb_sim parameter, 21
target matching, 22
continue_command, 29
convenience macros
   for struct target_ops, 17
core_addr_greaterthan, 14
core_addr_lessthan, 14, 42
CPU Configuration Register (see Special Purpose Register)
CPUCFGR (see Special Purpose Register)
current target (see target operations)
current_interp_command_loop, 24, 24, 25, 26, 26, 28, 29
current_target, 17, 47

D

DCFGR (see Debug Configuration Register)
DCR (see Debug Control Register)
ddd
problem with argument passing, 53
Debug Configuration Register (see Special Purpose Register)
Debug Control Register (see Special Purpose Register)
Debug Mode Register (see Special Purpose Register)
Debug Reason Register (see Special Purpose Register)
Debug Stop Register (see Special Purpose Register)
Debug Unit, 31
   availability, 48
   GDB hardware breakpoint
      insertion, 50
      removal, 50
   GDB hardware watchpoint
      insertion, 50
      removal, 51
      restarting after, 48
   JTAG interface, 32
      access to General Purpose Registers, 33
      access to main memory, 33
      access to Special Purpose Registers, 33
      CPU control, 33
      direct connection (parallel port), 46
   error handling, 54
   Igor Mohor version, 32, 34, 59
   JP1 interface limitations, 54
   layered interface, 54
   ORPSoC version, 32, 59
   remote connection over TCP/IP (see Remote JTAG Protocol)
   scan chains, 32
   matchpoint, 32, 50
   registers (see Special Purpose Register)
      watchpoint, 32, 49
      watchpoint counter, 32
Debug Value Register (see Special Purpose Register)
Debug Watchpoint Counter Register (see Special Purpose Register)
default_memory_insert_breakpoint, 8
default_memory_remove_breakpoint, 8
default_print_registers_info, 10
default_register_reggroup_p, 10
defs.h file, 22
DejaGNU, 23
delay slot
   in OpenRISC 1000, 38, 41
   struct gdbarch functions to handle, 9
disassembly, 9, 23, 30
   for OpenRISC 1000, 39, 54
DMR (see Debug Mode Register)
documentation, 30
   building, 23
      automatic, 23
   HTML output format, 23
   info output format, 23
   PDF output format, 23
   PostScript output format, 23
   source, 23
      BFD User Guide, 23
      GDB Internals document, 23
      GDB User Guide, 23, 30
      OpenRISC 1000 Target GDB User Guide, 36, 59
Doxygen, 59
   use with GDB for OpenRISC 1000, 2
DRR (see Debug Reason Register)
DSR (see Debug Stop Register)
dummy frame (see stack frame)
dummy target (see target operations)
DVR (see Debug Value Register)
DWARF2, 43, 45
dwarf2_frame_sniffer, 43
DWCR (see Debug Watchpoint Counter Register)
E
ELF, 4
   and OpenRISC 1000, 4
Embecosm, 2
   endianism, 57, 58
enum bfd_architecture, 4
enum command_class, 5
eexec, 3
   (see also program)
executable (see exec)
F
find_pc_partial_function, 42, 43
frame (see stack frame)
frame base sniffer (see struct frame_base)
frame number (see stack frame)
frame pointer, 11, 12, 57
   in OpenRISC 1000, 39, 57
   value in $fp (see GDB)
   value in stack frame (see stack frame)
frameless function (see stack frame)
frame_base_append_sniffer, 15
frame_base_set_default, 15, 43
frame_pointer
   in OpenRISC 1000, 44
frame_unwind_append_sniffer, 15, 15, 43
frame_unwind_id, 43
frame_unwind_register_unsigned, 42, 44
frame ID (see stack frame)
function epilogue (see OpenRISC 1000)
function prologue, 13 (see OpenRISC 1000)
cache (see prologue cache)

G

GDB
built in variables
$fp, 10, 17, 44
$pc, 31
$ps, 9, 31
configuration, 6
(see also configure.tgt file)
Internals document, 1, 1, 7, 36, 59
source (see documentation)
naming conventions, 6
new architecture description, 6
signals, 52
TAGS file, 36
target creation, 17
UI independent output, 55, 55
User Guide, 1, 59
source (see documentation)
value types (see struct type)
GDB commands
adding new commands, 5, 21
for OpenRISC 1000, 54
awatch, 50
backtrace, 15, 28
break, 25
call, 4, 14, 43
classification, 5
continue, 29
disassemble, 23
file, 53
hbreak, 50
help, 21
help target, 18
help target, 48
help target jtag, 48
implementation functions
add_alias_cmd, 21
add_cmd, 21
add_com, 21
add_info, 21
add_prefix_cmd, 21
callback functions, 21
info, 21, 55
info sim, 21
info spr, 37, 54, 55
info target, 18, 18
info registers, 40

info target, 48, 48
internal representation, 5
next, 51
nexti, 51
print, 15
procedure flows (see procedure flows)
run, 19, 26, 51, 51, 53
rwatch, 50
set breakpoint auto-hw off, 20
spr, 37, 54, 55
step, 51
stepi, 51
target, 18, 19, 24, 25
target remote, 22
target jtag, 47, 47
target sim, 21
watch, 50
gdb directory, 22, 30, 36, 46
gdb.log file, 23
gdb.sum file, 23
gdb.texinfo file, 23, 30
gdb/or1k-jtag.c file, 53
gdb/or1k-jtag.h file, 54
gdb/testsuite sub-directory, 23
gdbarch.h file, 7
gdbarch_alloc, 7, 37
gdbarch_list_lookup_by_info, 6, 37
gdbarch_register, 6, 6, 30, 37, 37
gdbarch_register_type (see accessor functions)
gdbarch_single_step_through_delay (see accessor functions)
gdbarch_skip_prologue (see accessor functions)
gdbarch_unwind_pc (see accessor functions)
gdbarch_unwind_sp (see accessor functions)
gdbint.texinfo file, 23
gdb_byte, 11
gdb_init, 24
gdb_main, 24
General Purpose Register, 31, 57
access via JTAG interface (see Debug Unit, JTAG interface, access to General Purpose Registers)
generic_load, 49
generic_mourn_inferior, 53
get_func_type, 28
glibc, 23
GPRs (see General Purpose Register)

H

handle_inferior_event, 24, 27, 29
hardware breakpoint (see breakpoint)
hardware watchpoint (see watchpoint)
Harvard architecture, 15, 58
header dependencies, 47
   (see also Makefile.in file)

I
include directory, 22, 30
inferior, 3
   process ID
      for OpenRISC 1000, 49
      remote creation, 20, 51, 53
      remote destruction (mourning), 20, 52, 53
inferior_pid, 49
info spr (see GDB commands)
infolist, 21
initialize_current_architecture, 24
init_wait_for_inferior, 53

J
jp1_ functions, 54
jp1_ll_ functions, 54
JTAG, 58 (see Debug Unit)
jtr_ functions, 54
jtr_ll_ functions, 54

K
keep_going, 30

L
libiberty, 23
   floating point formats, 8
libsim.a file, 21, 30
Linux
   and OpenRISC 1000, 4
linux_trad_target, 18

M
Makefile.in file, 47
   touch command as alternative to changing, 47
matchpoint (see Debug Unit)

N
native debugging, 3
   target creation, 17, 18
next frame (see stack frame)
Next Program Counter (see Special Purpose Register)
nm.h file, 18
normal_stop, 24, 27, 27, 29
no_shared_libraries, 49
NPC (see Next Program Counter)
null_ptid, 49

O
opcodes directory, 23, 54
OpenRISC 1000
   ABI, 8, 41, 43
      argument passing, 35
      result return register, 35
      stack frame alignment, 35, 42
      variations from documented standard, 35, 42
additional GDB commands, 37
architecture, 31
   GPRs (see General Purpose Register)
   information functions, 38
   main memory, 31
   manual, 59
   SPRs (see Special Purpose Register)
bare metal debugging, 3, 49
BFD, 37
   variations from documented standard, 36
breakpoint instruction, 38
creating new struct gdbarch for, 6
creating new struct target_ops for, 47
dependism, 39
frame handling, 41
function epilogue, 41
function prologue, 41
hardware data representation, 38
hardware matchpoints and watchpoints, 50, 50
   distinction from GDB watchpoint, 50
interrupt during debugging, 51
legacy GDB 5.3 port, 36
link register, 43, 45, 46, 52, 57
naming conventions, 6
red zone, 14, 42
register assignment in GDB, 10, 39, 41
register types in GDB, 40
Remote JTAG Protocol (see Remote JTAG Protocol)
sourse files for GDB port, 36
supported targets in GDB, 36
tool chain, 4, 59
or1k-jtag.c, 36
or1k-jtag.c file, 46
or1k-jtag.h, 36
or1k-jtag.h file, 46
or1k-jtag.o file, 47
or1k-tdep.c, 36
or1k-tdep.c file, 47
or1k-tdep.h, 36
or1k-tdep.h file, 37
Or1ksim, 35
  bug fixes, 35
debug interface variants, 35
exit handling in GDB, 52
\texttt{or1k\_breakpoint\_from\_pc}, 38
\texttt{or1k\_clear\_breakpoint}, 50
\texttt{or1k\_close}, 49, 49
\texttt{or1k\_create\_inferior}, 53
\texttt{or1k\_dbgcache}, 47, 49
\texttt{or1k\_detach}, 49
\texttt{or1k\_dump\_tddep}, 37, 37
\texttt{or1k\_fetch\_registers}, 49
\texttt{or1k\_files\_info}, 48
\texttt{or1k\_first\_free\_matchpoint}, 50
\texttt{OR1K\_FP\_REGNUM}, 39
\texttt{or1k\_frame\_align}, 42
\texttt{or1k\_frame\_base}, 43
\texttt{or1k\_frame\_base\_address}, 43, 44
\texttt{or1k\_frame\_fp\_loc}, 46
\texttt{or1k\_frame\_prev\_register}, 44, 44
\texttt{OR1K\_FRAME\_RED\_ZONE\_SIZE}, 42
\texttt{or1k\_frame\_size}, 46
\texttt{or1k\_frame\_size\_check}, 46
\texttt{or1k\_frame\_sniffer}, 43, 44, 44
\texttt{or1k\_frame\_this\_id}, 44
\texttt{or1k\_frame\_unwind\_cache}, 42, 44, 44
\texttt{or1k\_gdarch\_init}, 6, 37
\texttt{or1k\_get\_saved\_reg}, 46
\texttt{or1k\_info\_spr\_command}, 55
\texttt{or1k\_insert\_breakpoint}, 50, 50
\texttt{or1k\_insert\_hw\_breakpoint}, 50, 50
\texttt{or1k\_insert\_watchpoint}, 50
\texttt{or1k\_jtag\_functions}, 54, 54
\texttt{or1k\_jtag\_close}, 47, 49
\texttt{OR1K\_JTAG\_COMMAND\_CHAIN}, 33
\texttt{OR1K\_JTAG\_COMMAND\_READ}, 33
\texttt{OR1K\_JTAG\_COMMAND\_READ\_BLOCK}, 33
\texttt{OR1K\_JTAG\_COMMAND\_WRITE}, 33
\texttt{OR1K\_JTAG\_COMMAND\_WRITE\_BLOCK}, 33
\texttt{or1k\_jtag\_init}, 47, 48
\texttt{or1k\_jtag\_read\_mem}, 47, 49
\texttt{or1k\_jtag\_read\_spr}, 47
\texttt{or1k\_jtag\_stall}, 47
\texttt{or1k\_jtag\_target}, 47
\texttt{or1k\_jtag\_uninstall}, 47
\texttt{or1k\_jtag\_wait}, 47, 51
\texttt{or1k\_jtag\_write\_mem}, 47, 49
\texttt{or1k\_jtag\_write\_spr}, 47
\texttt{or1k\_kill}, 52
\texttt{or1k\_link\_address}, 46
\texttt{or1k\_matchpoint\_equal}, 51
\texttt{or1k\_mourn\_inferior}, 53
\texttt{OR1K\_NUM\_PSEUDO\_REGS}, 39
\texttt{OR1K\_NUM\_REGS}, 39
\texttt{or1k\_open}, 48, 49
\texttt{or1k\_parse\_params}, 55, 55
\texttt{OR1K\_PC\_REGNUM}, 39
\texttt{or1k\_prepare\_to\_store}, 49
\texttt{or1k\_pseudo\_register\_read}, 40
\texttt{or1k\_pseudo\_register\_write}, 40
\texttt{or1k\_push\_dummy\_call}, 43
\texttt{or1k\_rcmd}, 53
\texttt{or1k\_read\_spr}, 55
\texttt{or1k\_register\_info}, 40
\texttt{or1k\_register\_name}, 40
\texttt{or1k\_register\_reggroup\_p}, 40
\texttt{or1k\_register\_type}, 40
\texttt{or1k\_remove\_breakpoint}, 50, 50
\texttt{or1k\_remove\_hw\_breakpoint}, 50, 50
\texttt{or1k\_remove\_watchpoint}, 51
\texttt{or1k\_resume}, 49, 51
\texttt{or1k\_return\_value}, 38
\texttt{or1k\_set\_breakpoint}, 50
\texttt{or1k\_single\_step\_through\_delay}, 38
\texttt{or1k\_skip\_prologue}, 42, 46
\texttt{or1k\_spr\_command}, 55
\texttt{OR1K\_SP\_REGNUM}, 39
\texttt{OR1K\_SR\_REGNUM}, 39
\texttt{OR1K\_STACK\_ALIGN}, 42
\texttt{or1k\_start\_remote}, 49
\texttt{or1k\_stop}, 52
\texttt{or1k\_stopped\_by\_watchpoint}, 51
\texttt{or1k\_stopped\_data\_address}, 51
\texttt{or1k\_stopped\_watchpoint\_info}, 51
\texttt{or1k\_store\_registers}, 49
\texttt{or1k\_target}, 47
\texttt{or1k\_unwind\_dummy\_id}, 43
\texttt{or1k\_unwind\_pc}, 42
\texttt{or1k\_unwind\_sp}, 42
\texttt{or1k\_wait}, 51
\texttt{or1k\_watchpoint\_gc}, 51
\texttt{or1k\_write\_spr}, 55, 55
\texttt{or1k\_xfer\_partial}, 49
\texttt{or32\_dis\_c\ file}, 54
\texttt{or32\_opc\_c\ file}, 54

\textbf{P}

\texttt{parse\_breakpoint\_sals}, 26
POSIX, 23
PPC (see \textit{Previous Program Counter})
previous frame (see stack frame)
Previous Program Counter (see Special Purpose Register)
\texttt{print\_frame}, 28
\texttt{print\_frame\_args}, 28
print_frame_info, 28
print_insn_big_or32, 39, 54
print_insn_little_or32, 39, 54
print_stack_frame, 28
procedure flows, 23
  initial start up, 24
    target command, 24
  proceed, 27, 29
process and thread ID
  for OpenRISC 1000, 49
null value, 49
program, 3
  (see also exec)
program counter
  as Special Purpose Register, 31
  functions in struct gdbarch, 9, 14
  in OpenRISC 1000, 39
  value in stack frame, 16, 28
program_counter
  value in stack frame
    for OpenRISC 1000, 42, 45
prologue cache, 13
  and stack frame sniffer, 14
  memory management, 16
  for OpenRISC 1000, 44
  invalidating, 51
pseudo-register, 4, 9

R
readspr, 53
read_pc_pid, 25
read_var_value, 29
red zone (see stack frame)
regcache_cooked_read, 11
regcache_cooked_read_signed, 11
regcache_cooked_read_unsigned, 11
regcache_cooked_write, 11
regcache_cooked_write_signed, 11
regcache_cooked_write_unsigned, 11, 43
register
  architecture for OpenRISC 1000, 39
  availability in OpenRISC 1000 target, 48
  cache, 10
    invalidating, 51
    synchronization with target, 19
  cache access functions, 11, 11
  cooked, 9, 11
  fields in struct gdbarch, 9, 9
  floating point, 10
  functions for OpenRISC 1000, 42, 45, 49, 49, 49
  functions in struct gdbarch, 9, 9, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 14
functions in struct target_ops, 19, 19
pseudo- (see pseudo-register)
raw, 9, 11
simulator functions, 21
vector, 10
registers_changed, 51
remote debugging, 3
  remote command execution, 19
Remote Serial Protocol (see Remote Serial Protocol)
  remote terminal access, 19
  target creation, 17, 18
remote inferior (see inferior)
Remote JTAG Protocol, 5, 46
  commands
    block read registers, 33
    block write registers, 33
    read register, 33
    setting scan chain, 33
    write register, 33
  execution status, 48, 49
  implementation over TCP/IP, 33
  interface functions, 46, 47
  packet format, 33
  reattaching to target, 49
  replacement by Remote Serial Protocol, 33
  resetting the target, 47, 48
  server side, 34
Remote Serial Protocol, 17, 18, 22, 30, 59
  server side implementation, 22
remote-or1k.c, 36
remote-or1k.c file, 46
remote-or1k.o file, 47
remote-sim.a file, 21
remote-sim.h file, 22, 30
remote.c file, 18
remove_breakpoints, 27
run_command, 26

S
sentinel frame (see stack frame)
sim directory, 23
simulator library, 21
  creation, 30
  directory for code, 23
  functions
    sim_close, 21
    sim_create_inferior, 21
    sim_do_command, 22
    sim_fetch_register, 21
    sim_info, 21
    sim_load, 21
    sim_open, 21
sim_read, 21
sim_resume, 21
sim_stop, 21
sim_stop_reason, 22
sim_store_register, 21
sim_write, 21
sim_close (see simulator library)
sim_create_inferior (see simulator library)
sim_do_command (see simulator library)
sim_fetch_register (see simulator library)
sim_info (see simulator library)
sim_load (see simulator library)
sim_open (see simulator library)
sim_read (see simulator library)
sim_resume (see simulator library)
sim_stop (see simulator library)
sim_stop_reason (see simulator library)
sim_store_register (see simulator library)
sim_write (see simulator library)
single step execution, 51, 52, 52
in hardware
for OpenRISC 1000, 49
skip_prologue_using_sal, 42, 45
sniffer (see stack frame)
Special Purpose Register, 31, 58
access via JTAG interface (see Debug Unit, JTAG interface, access to Special Purpose Registers)
configuration registers
CPU Configuration Register, 31, 48
Debug Configuration Register, 31
Unit Present Register, 31, 48
Debug Unit
Debug Control Register, 50
Debug Control Registers, 31
Debug Mode Register, 50, 51, 51, 51, 51
Debug Mode Registers, 32
Debug Reason Register, 32, 51, 52
debug register cache, 47, 49
Debug Stop Register, 32, 52
Debug Value Register, 50
Debug Value Registers, 31
Debug Watchpoint Counter Registers, 32
examining in GDB, 55
program counters
Next Program Counter, 31, 52
Previous Program Counter, 31, 52
setting in GDB, 55
Supervision Register, 31, 39
spr (see GDB commands)
SPRs (see Special Purpose Register)
SR (see Supervision Register)
stack frame, 11, 58
alignment, 14
for OpenRISC 1000, 35, 42, 43
analysis, 14
backtrace, 28
base address, 17
for OpenRISC 1000, 43
dummy, 15
for OpenRISC 1000, 43
functions in struct gdbarch, 15, 15, 15
terminal, 11
example, 11
OpenRISC 1000 as example, 42
fields in GDB, 42
frame # -1 (see stack frame)
frame ID, 44
(see also struct frame_id)
frame number, 12
frame pointer value in
for OpenRISC 1000, 46
frameless function
for OpenRISC 1000, 42, 45
functions for OpenRISC 1000, 42, 42, 43
functions in struct gdbarch, 14, 14, 14, 14, 14, 14, 15, 15, 15
red zone, 12, 14
return address
for OpenRISC 1000, 46
rising, 14, 42
sentinel frame, 13
sniffer, 13, 15, 28, 29
and prologue cache (see prologue cache)
for OpenRISC 1000, 43
functions, 15, 15, 15
stack pointer value in, 16, 28
for OpenRISC 1000, 42, 45
terminology, 12
frame base, 13
inner frame (see next frame)
innermost frame, 13
newer frame (see next frame)
next frame, 13
older frame (see previous frame)
outer frame (see previous frame)
previous frame, 13
this frame, 13
unwinder, 13, 14
for OpenRISC 1000, 42, 42, 43
stack pointer, 11, 12, 58
functions in struct gdbarch, 14
in OpenRISC 1000, 39, 39
value in stack frame (see stack frame)
start_remote, 24, 49
status register (see GDB)
strata (see target strata)
struct frame_unwind, 16
  fields
    type, 16
    unwind_data, 16
  functions
    dealloc_cache, 16
    prev_pc, 16
    prev_register, 16
    sniffer, 16
    this_id, 16
struct cmd_list_element, 21
struct frame_base, 16
  fields
    unwind, 16
  for OpenRISC 1000, 43, 44
  functions
    this_args, 17, 44
    this_base, 17, 44
    this_locals, 17, 44
struct frame_id, 44
struct frame_info, 12
struct frame_unwind
  for OpenRISC 1000, 44
  functions
    this_id, 28
struct gdbarch, 4
  architecture lookup, 7
    (see also gdbarch_list_lookup_by_info)
  creating new instance, 6, 7, 30
    for OpenRISC 1000, 37
  data representation, 4, 8
  default values, 4
  fields
    addr_bit, 8, 38
    char_signed, 8, 38
    deprecated_fp_regnum, 39, 44
    double_bit, 8, 38
    double_format, 8, 38
    float_bit, 8, 38
    float_format, 8, 38
    fp0_regnum, 9
    frame_red_zone_size, 14, 42
    int_bit, 8, 38
    long_bit, 8, 38
    long_double_bit, 8, 38
    long_double_format, 8, 38
    long_long_bit, 8, 38
    num_pseudoRegs, 9, 39
    numRegs, 9, 39
    pc_regnum, 9, 9, 39
    ps_regnum, 9, 39
    ptr_bit, 8, 38
    short_bit, 38
    sp_regnum, 9, 39
    values for OpenRISC 1000, 38
  fields and functions
    short_bit, 8
  functions
    adjust_breakpoint_address, 8, 52
    breakpoint_from_pc, 8, 38
    decr_pc_after_break, 9
    frame_align, 14, 42
    frame_num_args, 14
    implementations for OpenRISC 1000, 38
    inner_than, 14, 42
    memory_insert_breakpoint, 8
    memory_remove_breakpoint, 8
    print_float_info, 10
    print_insn, 9, 39
    print_registers_info, 10
    print_vector_info, 10
    pseudo_register_read, 9, 40
    pseudo_register_write, 9, 40
    push_dummy_call, 15, 43
    push_dummy_code, 15
    read_pc, 9, 9
    register_info, 40
    register_name, 10, 40
    register_reggroup_p, 10, 40
    register_type, 10, 10, 25, 40
    return_value, 8, 38
    single_step_through_delay, 9, 27, 30, 38
    skip_prologue, 14, 26, 42, 46
    unwind_dummy_id, 15, 43
    unwind_pc, 14, 29, 42
    unwind_sp, 14, 29, 42
    write_pc, 9, 9
    reference to BFD, 4, 6
    register handling, 4
    set_gdbarch functions, 4, 4, 37
    stack frame handling, 4
struct gdbarch_info, 6
  byte order, 7
  fields in the structure, 7
  for OpenRISC 1000, 37
struct gdbarch_tdep, 8
  for OpenRISC 1000, 37, 40
struct target_ops, 5, 17
  breakpoint handling, 5
  convenience macros (see convenience macros)
creation, 17, 18
  for OpenRISC 1000, 47
creation>, 30
default values, 5
fields
  to_doc, 18, 48
  to_has_all_memory, 18, 48
to_has_execution, 19, 48, 49
  to_has_memory, 18, 48
  to_has_registers, 18, 48
  to_has_stack, 18, 48
to_longname, 18, 48
to_shortname, 18, 47
to_stratum, 18, 48
functions
  to_attach, 19
to_can_use_hw_breakpoint, 20
to_close, 19
to_create_inferior, 20, 26, 51, 53
to_detach, 19, 19
to_disconnect, 19
  to_fetch_registers, 19, 25, 49
to_files_info, 18, 18, 48
to_find_description, 26
  to_insert_breakpoint, 20, 27, 30, 50, 50
to_insert_hw_breakpoint, 20
  to_insert_watchpoint, 20, 50
  to_kill, 20, 52
  to_load, 19, 25, 49
to_mourn_inferior, 20, 28, 50, 50
to_open, 18, 19, 24, 48
to_prepare_to_store, 19, 49
to_print_insn, 54
to_rcmd, 19, 53, 53
to_remove_breakpoint, 20, 28, 50, 50
to_remove_hw_breakpoint, 20
to_remove_watchpoint, 20, 51
  to_resume, 9, 20, 27, 29, 51, 51
to_stop, 20, 52
to_stopped_by_watchpoint, 20, 25, 27, 30
  to_stopped_data_address, 20
to_store_registers, 19, 49
to_terminal_inferior, 19
  to_wait, 9, 20, 24, 27, 29, 51, 51
to_xclose, 19
to_xfer_partial, 19, 25, 49
memory management, 19
opening and closing a connection, 5
register access, 5
starting and stopping programs, 5
state information, 5
to_have_continuable_watchpoint, 48
to_have_steppable_watchpoint, 48
to_insert_hw_breakpoint, 50, 50
to_remove_hw_breakpoint, 50, 50
to_stopped_by_watchpoint, 51
to_stopped_data_address, 51
struct trad_frame_cache, 13, 44
  choice of register data function, 45
  meaning of cached data fields, 45
struct type
  builtin types
    builtin_type_int32, 10
    builtin_type_void, 10
Supervision Register (see Special Purpose Register)
symbol side, 3, 4
symbol-and-line (SAL) information, 26, 42, 45
T
TAGS file (see GDB)
target operations, 17
  (see also struct target_ops)
current target, 17
dummy target, 17
  for OpenRISC 1000, 46
  macros (see convenience macros)
target side, 3, 4
target strata, 17, 18
target.h, 17
target.h file, 17
TARGET_CHAR_BIT, 8
target_create_inferior (see convenience macros)
target_fetch_registers (see convenience macros)
target_find_description (see convenience macros)
target_has_execution (see convenience macros)
target_insert_breakpoint (see convenience macros)
target_load (see convenience macros)
target_open (see convenience macros)
target_preopen, 48
target_remove_breakpoint (see convenience macros)
target_resume (see convenience macros)
TARGET_SIGNAL_TRAP, 52
target_stop_by_watchpoint (see convenience macros)
target_strata, 47
  for OpenRISC 1000, 48
target_wait (see convenience macros)
TARGET_WAITKIND_EXITED, 52
TARGET_WAITKIND_STOPPED, 52
target_xfer_partial (see convenience macros)
testing, 30
running tests, 23
test results, 23
this frame (see stack frame)
thread, 3
touch command
instead of changing Makefile.in , 47
trad_frame_cache_zalloc, 45
trad_frame_get_id, 44
trad_frame_get_register, 45
trad_frame_set_reg_addr , 45
trad_frame_set_reg_realreg , 45
trad_frame_set_reg_value , 45
trad_frame_set_this_base, 45

U
ui_out_field_fmt, 55, 55
Unit Present Register (see Special Purpose Register)
unpush_target, 48
unwinder (see stack frame)
UPR (see Unit Present Register)
user interface, 3

W
wait_for_inferior, 24, 27, 29
watchpoint
functions in struct target_ops, 20, 20, 20, 20
in hardware, 20
for OpenRISC 1000, 49, 50, 50
in OpenRISC 1000 (see Debug Unit)
reinsertion when continuing, 30, 52
restarting after, 52
problem with OpenRISC 1000, 52
watchpoints_triggered, 25, 27
writespr, 53
write_pc, 52