

Kapitel 1 Modular Coding/Linking

Low Module Coupling: Die Kopplung zwischen Modulen soll möglichst klein sein, d.h. die Abhängigkeit zwischen Modulen soll minimiert werden. Ein Modul verwendet wenige Funktionen anderer Module.

High Module Cohesion: Der funktionale Zusammenhang innerhalb eines Moduls soll hoch sein. Das Modul ist für eine klar definierte Aufgabe zuständig und hat eine schmale Schnittstelle nach außen. Die im Modul zusammengefassten Funktionen haben einen klaren Zusammenhang und bilden eine Einheit.

Information Hiding – Geheimnisprinzip: Die innere Struktur eines Moduls ist vor anderen Modulen verborgen. Interface und Implementation werden getrennt. Die Implementation eines Moduls kann jederzeit geändert werden ohne andere Module zu beeinflussen.

Deklaration: Spezifiziert wie ein Name verwendet werden kann.

```
uint32_t square(uint32_t v); // square function defined elsewhere
extern uint32_t counter; // counter variable defined elsewhere
struct S { ... }; // struct S type defined elsewhere
```

Definition: Funktion wird mit ihrem Rumpf definiert. Speicher wird einer Variable zugewiesen. Ein Strukttyp mit seinen Mitgliedern.

```
uint32_t square(uint32_t v) { ... } // square function definition
uint32_t counter; // counter variable definition
struct S { ... }; // struct S type definition
```

Header Files: Deklaration von Header Files und Verwendung in anderen c Programmen.

```
// square.h
#ifndef _SQUARE_H_ // incl.-guard
#define _SQUARE_H_ // guard

// declaration of square
uint32_t square(uint32_t v);

#endif // end of incl.-guard
```

```
// square.c
#include "square.h"

// definition of square
uint32_t square(uint32_t v)
{
    return v*v;
}
```

```
// program A.c
#include "square.h"
int main(void) {
    res = square(a) + b;
    ...
}
```

```
// square.c
...
uint32_t square(uint32_t v) {
    return v*v;
}
```

```
// main.c
#include "square.h"
static uint32_t a = 5;
static uint32_t b = 7;
int main(void) {
    uint32_t res;
    res = square(a) + b;
    ...
}
```

a = internal linkage
b = internal linkage
main = external linkage
res = no linkage
square = external linkage¹⁾

Konzept der Verknüpfungen in C (linkage):

External linkage: - Funktion oder globale Variable; - Der globale Name steht extern zur Verwendung in verschiedenen Modulen zur Verfügung.

Internal linkage: - Funktion oder eine globale Variable (mit dem Schlüsselwort „static“); - Der globale Name ist nur intern für die Verwendung in diesem Modul verfügbar.

No linkage: Jeder Name, der sich nicht im globalen Raum befindet.

```
// square.c
...
uint32_t square(uint32_t v) {
    return v*v;
}
```

```
// main.c
#include "square.h"
static uint32_t a = 5;
static uint32_t b = 7;
int main(void) {
    uint32_t res;
    res = square(a) + b;
    ...
}
```

a = internal linkage
b = internal linkage
main = external linkage
res = no linkage
square = external linkage¹⁾

Import und Export Symbole

Linkage control

- EXPORT declares a symbol for use by other modules
- IMPORT declares a symbol from another module for use in this module

Internal symbols

- Neither EXPORT nor IMPORT
- Defined in this module
- Can only be used within this module

```
// main.c
#include "square.h"
static uint32_t a = 5;
static uint32_t b = 7;
int main(void) {
    uint32_t res;
    res = square(a) + b;
    ...
}
```

internal symbols →

```
; main.S
AREA MyCode, CODE, READONLY
EXPORT main
IMPORT square <----- from module square

main PROC
    LDR r0, [r0, #0] ; a
    BL square
    ...
ENDP

a adr DCD a
b adr DCD b

AREA myData, DATA
DCD 0x00000005
DCD 0x00000007
```

Von Assembler Symbolen zu Object-File Symbolen

Referenzen - Importierte Symbole aus dem Assembler-Code werden in **globale Referenzsymbole** in der Objektdatei übersetzt.

Global - Exportierte Symbole aus Assembler-Code werden in **globale Symbole** in der Objektdatei übersetzt.

Lokal - Interne Symbole aus dem Assembler-Code werden übersetzt zu **lokalen Symbolen** in der Objektdatei übersetzt.

Beispiel Assembler-Code zu Object-File

Exported

- Code symbol square

```
; square.s
AREA myCode, CODE, READONLY
EXPORT square
square PROC
    MOV r1, r0
    MULS r0, r1, r0
    BX lr
ENDP
END
```

Assemble

Ref: -
Global: square (code) square.o
Local: -

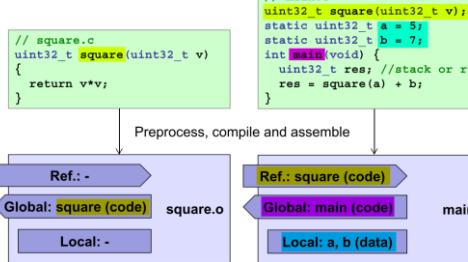
Referenced/Imported

- None
- No external symbol used

Local

- None
- No internal symbol defined

Beispiel C-Code zu Object-File



Linker Aufgaben

Fügt mehrere Objectfiles zu einem ausführbaren Objektfile zusammen (Merge Sections), löst die Symbol Referenzen zwischen den einzelnen Objektfiles auf (Resolution) und passt Zugriffe auf Symbole an (Relocation).

Ergebnis: Ausführbares Objektfile (Executable)

- **Codeabschnitte (CODE)** zusammenführen; - **Datenabschnitte (DATA)** zusammenführen; - **Symbolauflösung** Verweise auf andere Module; - **Adressverschiebung** Anpassung an neue Positionen von Symbolen

Linker Input → Object-Files

Code - Code und konstante Daten des Moduls, basierend auf der Adresse 0x0

Data - Alle globalen Variablen des Moduls, basierend auf der Adresse 0x0

Symbol Tabelle - Alle Symbole mit den Attributen global / lokal, Referenz, etc.

Relocation Tabelle - Welche Bytes der CODE und DATA Sektion, müssten nach dem Zusammenführen angepasst werden.

ELF = Executable and Linkable Format

ELF enthält die oben genannten Abschnitte sowie weitere Abschnitte (z. B. Zeichenfolgentabellen, Debugging-Informationen usw.)

Beispiel square.o ELF Object File

- File section #1: code section, at base address 0x00000000
- File section #5: symbol table: square = global, code symbol
- No data section (has no global variables)
- No relocation section (no referenced symbols in code/data)

```
File Type: ET_REL (Relocatable object) (1)
...
*** Section #1: .text' (SHT_PROGBITS) [SHF_ALLOC + SHF_EXECINSTR]
Address: 0x00000000
square
0x00000000: 4c01 .P MOV r1,r0
0x00000002: 4408 .P MOV r0,r1
0x00000004: 4404 MC MULS r0,r1,r0
0x00000006: 4770 pG BX r1
...
*** Section #5: .symtab' (SHT_SYMTAB)
# Symbol Name Value Bind Sec Type Vis Size
6 square 0x00000001 1 Code Hi 0x8
```

Beispiel main.o ELF Object-File

main.o (part I)

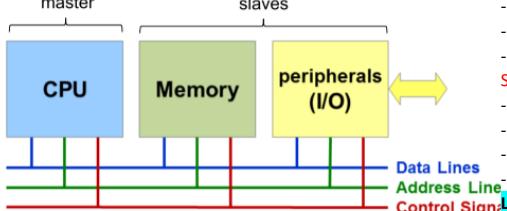
- File section #1: code section, at base address 0x00000000
- 0x00000002: LDR r0, a (address a stored at 0x14)
- 0x00000004: LDR r1, b (address b stored at 0x18)
- BL square calls a dummy address until linked

File section #4: data section, at base address 0x00000000

```
...
*** Section #4: .data' (SHT_PROGBITS) [SHF_ALLOC + SHF_WRITE]
Address: 0x00000000
main
0x00000000: 4100 .W VMOV r0,(r1)
0x00000002: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000004: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000006: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000008: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000000A: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x0000000C: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000000E: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000010: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000012: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000014: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000016: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000018: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000001A: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x0000001C: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000001E: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000020: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000022: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000024: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000026: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000028: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000002A: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x0000002C: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000002E: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000030: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000032: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000034: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000036: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000038: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000003A: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x0000003C: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000003E: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000040: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000042: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000044: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000046: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000048: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000004A: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x0000004C: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000004E: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000050: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000052: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000054: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000056: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000058: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000005A: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x0000005C: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000005E: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000060: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000062: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000064: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000066: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000068: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000006A: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x0000006C: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000006E: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000070: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000072: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000074: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000076: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000078: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000007A: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
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0x0000007E: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000080: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000082: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000084: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000086: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000088: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000008A: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x0000008C: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000008E: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000090: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000092: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000094: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x00000096: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
0x00000098: 4400 .P LDR r1,(r0)
0x0000009A: 4400 .P LDR r0,(r1)
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Kapitel 2 Microcontroller Basics

Signal Gruppen



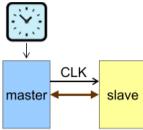
Adressen Leitung: **Unidirektional**, Vom Master zu Slaven

Daten Leitung: 8, 16, 32 oder 64 parallele Daten Leitungen, **bidi-rektional** (lesen, schreiben)

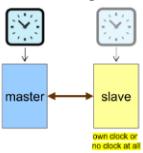
Control Signale: Kontrollierte Lese- und Schreibrichtung, enthält Zeitinformationen. **Meist Unidirektional**.

Bus-Timing-Optionen

Synchron: Master und Slave haben denselben Takt. Takt steuert die Busübertragung auf beiden Seiten.



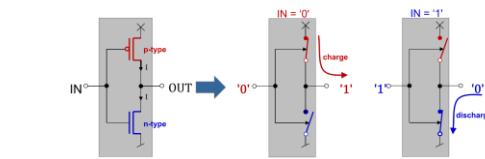
Asynchron: Slave haben keinen Zugriff auf den Takt vom Master. Steuersignale enthalten Zeitinformationen, um eine Synchronisation zu ermöglichen.



CMOS Inverter

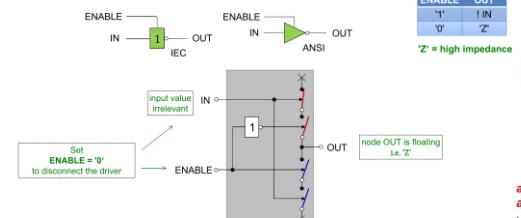
■ CMOS Inverter

- Complementary switches (transistors)



CMOS Tri-State Inverter

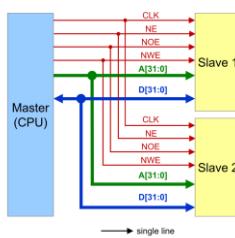
■ CMOS Tri-State Inverter



Synchroner Bus - Block Diagram

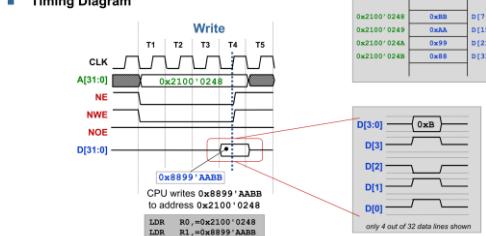
Block Diagram

- Address lines A[31:0]
- Data lines D[31:0]
- Control
 - CLK
 - NE
 - NWE
 - NOE
- Not Enable indicates start and end of cycle, active-low
- Not Write Enable active-low
- Not Output Enable (read), active-low

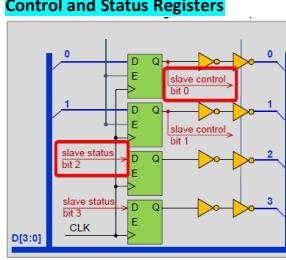


Timing Diagram

■ Timing Diagram



Control and Status Registers



Kontrollbits

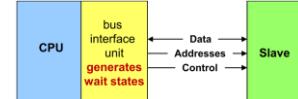
- Lassen Sie die CPU den Slave konfigurieren
- CPU (Software) schreibt in das Registerbit
- Die Slave-Hardware verwendet die Ausgabe des Registerbits
- Normalerweise lesen / schreiben

Statusbits

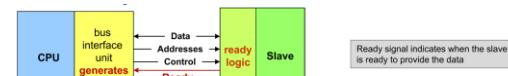
- Lassen Sie die CPU einen Slave überwachen
- Der Slave schreibt den Status in das Registerbit
- CPU (Software) liest Registerbit
- Normalerweise schreibgeschützt

Langsame Slaves – Zwei Möglichkeiten

- 1 Einzelne Wartezustände können an einer Busschnittstelleneinheit programmiert werden.



- 2 Der Slave teilt der Busschnittstelleneinheit mit, wann sie bereit ist.



Ansprechen der Control Register in C (Volatile)

Mit dem Schlüsselwort **Volatile** kann dem Compiler mitgeteilt werden, dass Statements nicht wegkompliiert werden sollen, da die Variablen durch die Hardware oder einen Interrupt Handler geändert werden könnten. **Der Compiler darf den schreib/lese Zugriff nicht weg-optimieren**.

Quiz_V04

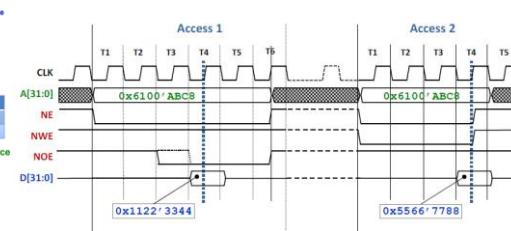
- c) Wann und wo im Zeitverlauf werden allenfalls benötigte «Wait States» eingebaut? Wozu dienen diese?

Wait states werden benötigt, wenn ein Slave die Daten nicht schnell genug nach der fallenden Flanke des «NOE» Signals bereitstellen kann. Diese zusätzlichen Clock-Perioden werden zwischen dem fallenden NOE und dem Lesezeitpunkt (Steigende Flanke in T4) eingeschoben. Kriterium: Maximale Zeit des Slave zwischen fallender NOE Flanke und Gültigkeit der Datenleitungen. (→ Datenblatt).

Uebung02

Aufgabe 1

Gegeben sind die folgenden Buszugriffe



- a) Geben Sie für beide Zugriffe jeweils die Richtung an (write oder read) sowie die Adresse des Zugriffs und den geschriebenen bzw. gelesenen Wert.

access 1: read von Adresse 0x6100'ABC8 mit Wert 0x1122'3344

access 2: write nach Adresse 0x6100'ABC8 mit Wert 0x5566'7788

- b) Was enthält der Speicher vor dem Zugriff "Access 1"? Tragen Sie die Bytes, auf welche zugegriffen wird, mit ihren Adressen in der Memory Map ein. Der Prozessor ist little endian.

Adresse	Inhalt (Byte)
0x6100' ABC8	0x44
0x6100' ABC9	0x33
0x6100' ABCA	0x22
0x6100' ABCB	0x11

- c) Was enthält der Speicher nach dem Zugriff "Access 2"? Tragen Sie die Bytes, auf welche zugegriffen wird, mit ihren Adressen in der Memory Map ein. Der Prozessor ist little endian.

Adresse	Inhalt (Byte)
0x6100' ABC8	0xB8
0x6100' ABC9	0x77
0x6100' ABCA	0x66
0x6100' ABCB	0x55

Aufgabe 2

Gegeben ist ein System Bus mit den 6 Adresslinien A[5:0].

- a) Wie viele Bytes können damit adressiert werden?

$$2^6 = 64 \rightarrow \text{Es können } 64 \text{ Bytes adressiert werden.}$$

- b) Unter wie vielen Adressen kann ein 8-bit Control Register angesprochen werden, wenn dafür 4 dieser Adressleitungen dekodiert werden?

$$2^{6-4} = 4 \rightarrow \text{Es können 4 Bytes adressiert werden.}$$

- c) Unter welchen Adressen (in Hex) kann das Control Register angesprochen werden, wenn nur die oberen 4 Adressleitungen wie folgt dekodiert werden:

$$\text{select} = \text{A}[5] \& \text{A}[4] \& \text{!A}[3] \& \text{!A}[2]$$

$$1100XXb \rightarrow 0x30, 0x31, 0x32, 0x33$$

- d) Unter welchen Adressen (in Hex) kann das Control Register angesprochen werden, wenn nur die unteren 4 Adressleitungen wie folgt dekodiert werden:

$$\text{select} = \text{!A}[5] \& \text{!A}[4] \& \text{A}[3] \& \text{A}[2] \& \text{!A}[1] \& \text{!A}[0]$$

$$XX010b \rightarrow 0x06, 0x16, 0x26, 0x36$$

- e) Unter welchen Adressen (in Hex) kann das Control Register angesprochen werden, wenn nur die mittleren 4 Adressleitungen wie folgt dekodiert werden:

$$\text{select} = \text{!A}[4] \& \text{!A}[3] \& \text{A}[2] \& \text{!A}[1]$$

$$X0010b \rightarrow 0x04, 0x05, 0x24, 0x25$$

- f) Wie müssen die Adressen dekodiert werden, wenn das Control Register genau unter der Adresse 0x28 angesprochen werden soll?

$$\text{select} = \text{A}[5] \& \text{!A}[4] \& \text{A}[3] \& \text{A}[2] \& \text{!A}[1] \& \text{!A}[0]$$

Aufgabe 3

Schreiben Sie Codesequenzen in C für die folgenden Fälle. Verwenden Sie unsigned integer Typ aus stdint.h

a) Lesen Sie den Wert eines 8-bit Control Registers an der Adresse 0x6100'0007 in eine von Ihnen zu definierende Variable ein.

```
#define MY_BYTE_REG (*((volatile uint8_t *) (0x61000007)))
```

```
uint8_t my_var;
```

```
my_var = MY_BYTE_REG;
```

b) Setzen Sie sämtliche Bits eines 16-Bit Control Registers an der Adresse 0x6100'0008 auf '1'.

```
#define MY_HALFWORD_REG (*((volatile uint16_t *) (0x61000008)))
```

```
MY_HALFWORD_REG = 0xFFFF;
```

c) Warten Sie in einer Schleife, bis Bit 15 im 32-bit Control Register an der Adresse 0x6100'000C auf '1' gesetzt ist.

```
#define MY_WORD_REG (*((volatile uint32_t *) (0x6100000C)))
```

```
while (! (MY_WORD_REG & 0x00000001)) { }
```

d) Setzen Sie Bit 16 im Control Register an Adresse 0x6100'0010 auf '1' ohne die anderen Bits des Registers zu verändern.

```
#define MY_WORD_REG2 (*((volatile uint32_t *) (0x61000010)))
```

```
MY_WORD_REG2 |= 0x00010000;
```


Kapitel 4 Serial Data Transfer

Serial Communication

Communication Modes

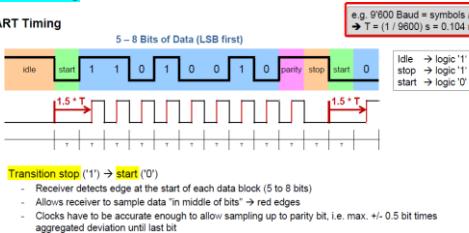
- Simplex Unidirectional, one way only
- Half-duplex Bidirectional, only one direction at a time
- Full-duplex Bidirectional, both directions simultaneously

Timing

- Asynchronous Each node uses an individual clock
- Synchronous Both nodes use same clock
- Clock often provided by master

UART Timing

UART Timing



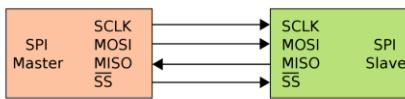
SPI Basics

SPI – Serial Peripheral Interface

- Serial bus for on-board connections**
 - Used for short distance communication
- Connects microcontroller and external devices
 - Sensors, A/D converters, displays, flash memories, codecs
 - I/Os, Real Time Clocks (RTC), wireless transceivers...
- Synchronous**
 - Master distributes the clock to slaves
- Compared to a parallel bus
 - Saves board area
 - Lowers pin count on both chips (TX and RX) → smaller, low-cost
 - Simplifies EMC (Electromagnetic compatibility)

Synchronous Serial Data Connection

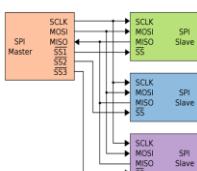
- Full duplex



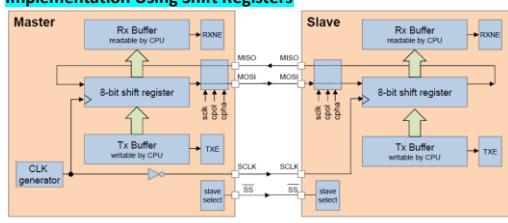
- Master (single master)**
 - Generates clock (SCLK)
 - Initiates data transfer by setting $\overline{SS} = 0$ (Slave Select)
- MOSI – Master Out Slave In**
 - Data from master to slave
- MISO – Master In Slave Out**
 - Data from slave to master

Single Master – Multiple Slaves

- Single Master – Multiple Slaves
 - Master generates a common clock signal for all slaves
 - MOSI**
 - From master output to all slave inputs
 - MISO**
 - All slave outputs connected to single master input
 - Slaves**
 - Individual select $\overline{SS}_1, \overline{SS}_2, \overline{SS}_3$
 - $\overline{SS}_x = 1 \rightarrow$ Slave output MISO $_x$ is tri-state



Implementation Using Shift Registers



LSB first vs. MSB first is configurable in most microcontrollers. Slaves are often hard-wired.

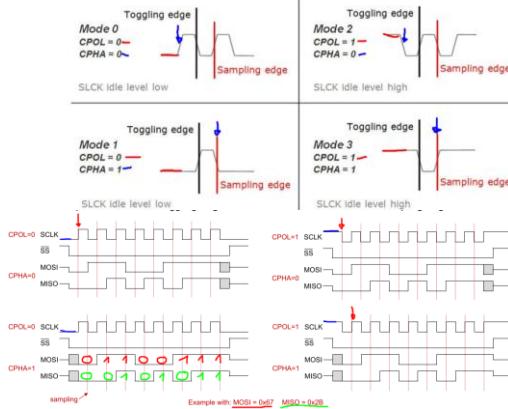
Status bits with interrupt
TXE: Tx Buffer Empty
RNE: Rx Buffer Not Empty

CPOL ist Ruhezustand des CLOCK-Signals
CPHA ist die CLOCK-PHASE →
CPHA = 0 erste Flanke ist Sampling Edge
CPHA = 1 zweite Flanke ist Sampling Edge

Clock Polarity and Clock Phase

Clock Polarity and Clock Phase

- TX** provides data on 'Toggling Edge'
- RX** takes over data with 'Sampling Edge'



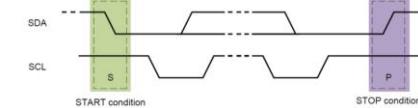
I2C Bus

Operation

- Master drives clock line (SCL)
- Master initiates transaction through **START condition**
 - Falling edge on SDA when SCL high
- Master terminates transaction through **STOP condition**
 - Rising edge on SDA when SCL high

Driving Data on SDA

- Data driven onto SDA by master or by addressed slave
 - Depending on transaction (read/write) and point in time
 - Change of data only allowed when SCL is low**
 - Allows detection of START and STOP condition



Uebung04

Aufgabe 1

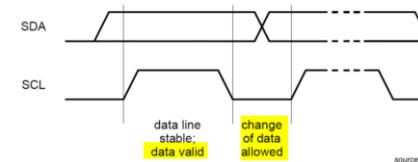
Auf einer seriellen asynchronen Übertragungsleitung (UART) mit 19'200 Bits/s, 7 Daten-Bits und einem Stop-Bit (ohne Parity Bit) soll die Zeichenfolge "AC" übertragen werden.

ASCII('A') = 0x41 = 100 0001b

ASCII('C') = 0x43 = 100 0011b

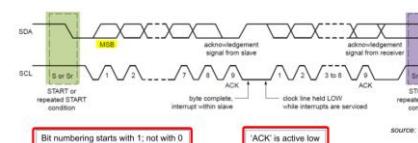
a) Wie lange dauert die Übertragung eines Bits (Periode T)?

1/19'200 s = 52.1 us

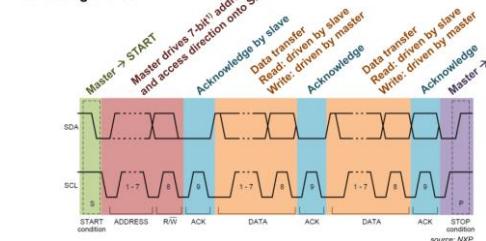


Data Transfer on I2C

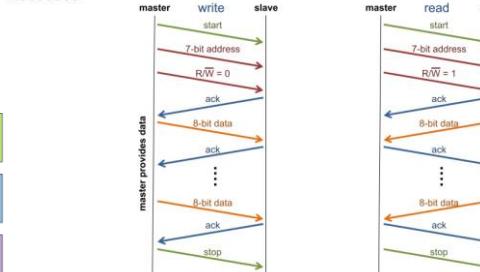
- 8-bit oriented transfers
- Bit 9: Receiver acknowledges by driving SDA low
- Master defines number of 8-bit transfers (STOP)



Addressing Slaves



Accesses



Comparison UART, SPI & I2C

UART	SPI	I2C
serial ports (RS-232)	4-wire bus	2-wire bus
TX, RX opt. control signals	MOSI, MISO, SCLK, SS	SCL, SDA
point-to-point	point-to-multipoint	(multi-) point-to-multi-point
full-duplex	full-duplex	half-duplex
asynchronous	synchronous	synchronous
only higher layer addressing	slave selection through SS signal	7/10-bit slave address
parity bit possible	no error detection	no error detection
chip-to-chip, PC terminal program	chip-to-chip, on-board connections	board-to-board connections

The three interfaces provide the lowest layer of communication and require higher level protocols to provide and interpret the transferred data.

Quiz_V07

Aufgabe 1: SPI

- a) SPI ist ein De-Facto Standard. Geben Sie mindestens 4 Parameter an, die Sie für eine SPI Verbindung konfigurieren bzw. überprüfen müssen.

CPOL ist Ruhezustand der SCLK-Leitung

CPHA Clock Phase (sampling edge: Erste oder zweite SCLK Flanke)

Bit Order (MSB / LSB)

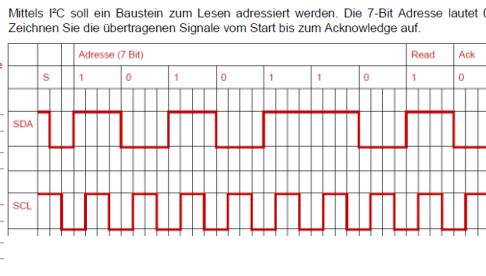
Wortgröße (8 / 16 Bit)

Baudrate (heruntergeteilt von der Peripheriebus Clockrate)

PP

Aufgabe 6

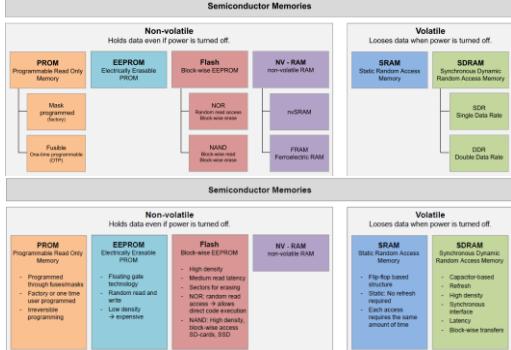
Mittels I2C soll ein Baustein zum Lesen adressiert werden. Die 7-Bit Adresse lautet 0x56. Zeichnen Sie die übertragenen Signale vom Start bis zum Acknowledge auf.



6 Punkte

Kapitel 5 Memory

Memory Technologien



Untis

Unit Symbols

- b = bit
- B = Byte

Memory Chips

- Binary prefixes according to JEDEC¹⁾ and IEC²⁾

- Kilo K	= 1024
- Mega M	= 1024 x 1024
- Giga G	= 1024 x 1024 x 1024

= 1'048'510

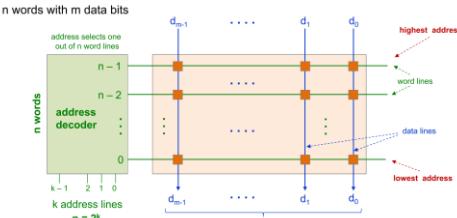
= 1073'741'824

Hard Disks

- Often use SI (or metric) prefixes
 - Kilo k = 1000
 - Mega M = 1000 x 1000
 - Giga G = 1000 x 1000 x 1000

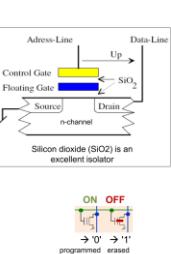
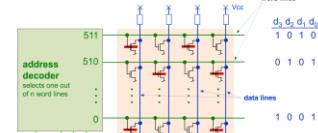
Memory Architektur

Memory Architecture → n × m array



PROM – Programmable Read Only Memory

- n × m array
 - n = number of word lines
 - m = number of bit lines



EEPROM und Flash

Making PROMs Reprogrammable

- Floating Gate Transistor
 - Replace fusing by reprogrammable "Floating Gate"
- Write cell to '0' → ON
 - High voltage Up deposit charge on floating gate (isolated by SiO₂)
 - Transistor ON (conducting) if control gate equal '1'
- Erase cell to '1' → OFF
 - Discharge floating gate with negative Up
 - Transistor is OFF, i.e. blocking independent of value on control gate

EEPROM

- High cell area → low density, high cost per bit

Flash

- Erasing can only be done for whole sectors
- Small cell area, high density, low cost per bit

Flash

Write Operations (Programming)

- Can only change bits from '1' to '0'
 - Otherwise an erase operation is required
- Word-, half-word or byte access possible
- Writing a double word → 16 us
 - i.e. around 1000 times slower than SRAM



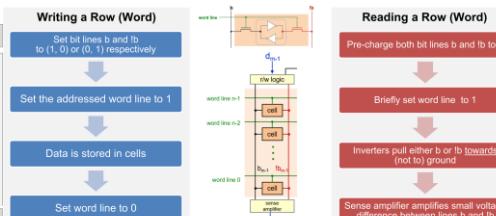
Erase Operations

- Change all bits from '0' to '1'
 - Only possible by sector or by bank, not on a word
 - Typical sector sizes of 16
- A 128 Kbytes sector takes between 1 and 2 seconds¹⁾
- Endurance: 10'000 erase cycles²⁾
- Sector may not be accessible (write or read) during erase
 - i.e. execute program from another sector or from SRAM during erase

Flash – NOR und NAND Topologie

	NOR Flash	NAND Flash
Topology		
Applications	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Execute code directly from memory Persistent device configurations (replacement of EEPROM) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> File-based IO, disks Large amounts of sequential data (images, SD cards, SSD) Load programs into RAM before executing
Density	Medium. Up to 2 GB = 256 MByte	High. Up to 1 Tbit
Interface	Read same as asynchronous SRAM	Special NAND flash interface
Access	Random access read ~0.12 µs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Slow random access read: 1. Byte 25 µs, then 0.03 us each Writing of individual bytes difficult Fast block write ~300 µs / 2'112 Bytes

SRAM – Static Random Access Memory



Lesen und schreiben: Alle Zugriffe dauern ungefähr gleich lange; - Zugriffszeit unabhängig vom Speicherort des Datenelements im Speicher

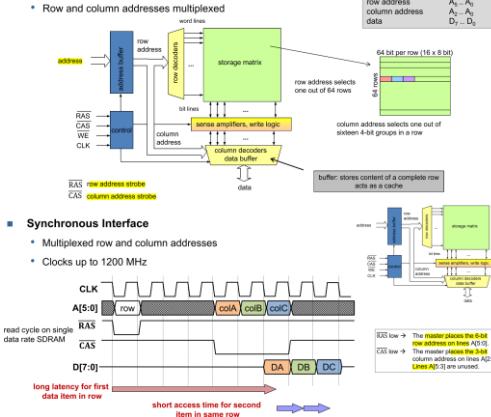
Volatile: Der Speicherinhalt bleibt nur so lange erhalten, wie das Gerät mit Strom versorgt wird

Statisch: - Keine Aktualisierung erforderlich; - Aktualisieren: Regelmäßiges Lesen und Umschreiben der Speicherzelle, um den Inhalt zu erhalten

SDRAM – Synchronous Dynamic RAM

- Informationen, die als **Ladung im Kondensator** gespeichert sind
- Der **Kondensator hält die Ladung nur einige Millisekunden** lang
- Die Ladung muss regelmäßig aktualisiert werden
- Aktualisierungslogik befindet sich normalerweise auf dem SDRAM-Gerät

SDRAM Structure



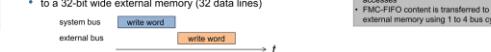
Synchronous Interface

- Multiplexed row and column addresses
- Clocks up to 1200 MHz
- Read cycle on single data rate SDRAM
- long latency for first data item in row
- short access time for second item in same row

Static RAM (SRAM) vs Synchronous Dynamic RAM (SDRAM)

Static RAM (SRAM) vs Synchronous Dynamic RAM (SDRAM)

Flip-flop/latch → 4 Transistors / 2 resistors



Large cell

- Low density, high cost
- Up to 64 Mb per device

Small cell

- High density, low cost
- Up to 4 Gb per device

Almost no static power consumption

- Static, i.e. no accesses taking place

Asynchronous interface (no clock)

- Simple connection to bus

Synchronous interface (clocked)

- Requires dedicated SDRAM Controller

All accesses take roughly the same time

- ~5ns per access → 200 MHz
- Suitable for distributed accesses

Long latency for first access of a block

- Fast access for blocks of data (bursts)

Large overhead for single byte

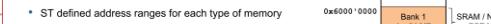
Externe Memory – Schreibe 32-Bit Word (Flexible Memory Controller FMC)

Writing a 32-bit Word from System Bus (32 Data Lines)

- to a 32-bit wide external memory (32 data lines)



to a 16-bit wide external memory (16 data lines)



to an 8-bit wide external memory (8 data lines)



Externe Memory – Lese 32-Bit Word (Flexible Memory Controller FMC)

Reading a 32-bit Word from

- a 32-bit wide external memory (32 data lines)



a 16-bit wide external memory (16 data lines)



an 8-bit wide external memory (8 data lines)

FMC – Memory Banks

FMC – Memory Banks!!

- ST defines address ranges for each type of memory

- Organized in 6 banks

- Each bank allows connection of 4 devices

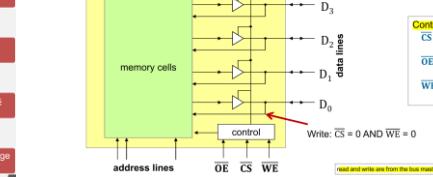
- Pins are multiplexed

- Not possible to fully use all the banks simultaneously

Asynchronous SRAM Device

Asynchronous SRAM Device

- No clock input



Alternatively the control logic can be represented with a truth table

CS	OE	WE	I/O	Function
L	L	H	DATA OUT	Read Data
L	X	L	DATA IN	Write Data
L	H	H	HIGH-Z	Outputs Disabled
H	X	X	HIGH-Z	Deselected

FMC – Signale für SRAM

FMC Signals for SRAMs

- Prefix 'N' → active-low signal

FMC signal name	I/O	Function
A[25:0]	OUT	Address bus
D[31:0]	INOUT	Data bidirectional bus
NE[4:1]	OUT	Four active-low lines ¹⁾
NOE	OUT	Output enable
NWE	OUT	Write enable
NBL[3:0]	OUT	Byte enable

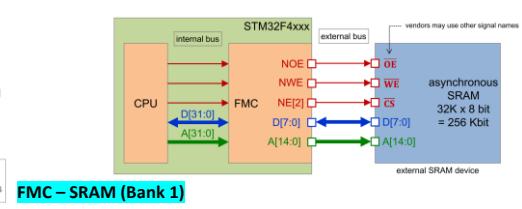
- Write accesses: NBL[3:0] indicate which bytes shall be updated (see lab)
 - Example 32-bit data bus D[31:0]
 - all four bytes
 - Word access
 - Half-word access
 - Byte access

- all four bytes
- e.g. NBL[3:0] = 0000b → all 0s
- two out of four bytes
- e.g. NBL[3:0] = 0011b → bytes 1 and 2
- one out of four bytes
- e.g. NBL[3:0] = 1011b → bytes 3 and 4

Beispiel 32K x 8Bit SRAM

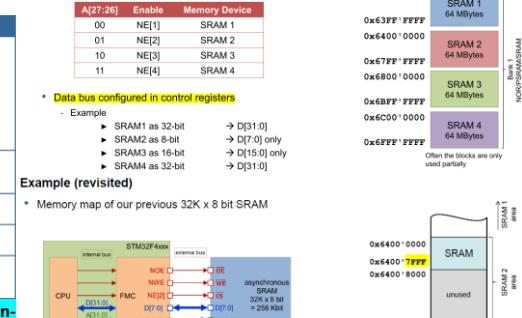
Example 32K x 8 bit SRAM

- Connecting an external 8-bit asynchronous SRAM device



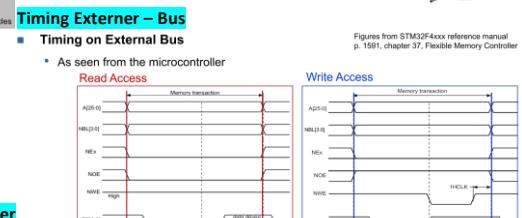
Example (revisited)

- Memory map of our previous 32K x 8 SRAM



Timing on External Bus

- As seen from the microcontroller



Quiz V07

Aufgabe 2: Memory

Im Datenblatt eines Speicherbausteines finden Sie folgende Angabe:

128k × 16 Bit SRAM

$\text{Y} \cdot \text{m}$

- Wie viele Bytes kann der Baustein speichern?

16 Bit → 2 Byte Speicherwortbreite

128k * 2 = 256 kB

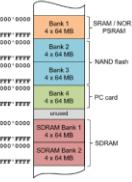
- Wie viele Datenleitungen werden benötigt?
 - $m = 16$ also 16 Datenleitungen notwendig
 - $D[15:0]$
- Wie viele Adressleitungen werden benötigt?
 - $n = 2^x$
 - $128k = 2^x$
 - $128k * 1024 = 131072$
 - $\log(131072) = 17 \rightarrow$ Somit sind 17 Adressleitungen notwendig
 - $A[16:0]$

1) An organizational unit of memory. Bank size is architecture dependent.

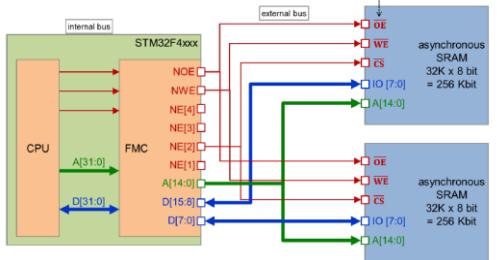
2) Taken from STM32F429I reference manual

Aufgabe 2: Flexible Memory Controller

- a) Welcher Speichertyp kann unter den folgenden Adressen angesprochen werden?
- 0xC864'2000 → SDRAM (Bank 1, Device 3)
 0x7324'1478 → NAND – Flash (Bank 2, Device 1)
 0x643A'89BC → SRAM (Device 2)



- b) Zwei 8-Bit Bausteine werden zusammen als 16-Bit SRAM Device 2 an den FMC angeschlossen. Wie müssen diese angeschlossen werden?



Aufgabe 1

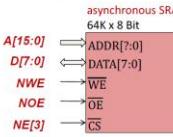
- a) Nennen Sie drei Unterschiede zwischen einem 'asynchronous SRAM' (statisches RAM) und einem SDRAM (Synchronous Dynamic RAM).
1. statisch (Inhalt bleibt bestehen solange Speisung anliegt) vs. dynamisch (permanenter refresh notwendig)
 2. Speicherelement: Flip-flop vs. Kondensator
 3. Schnittstelle: asynchron (NWE,NOE) vs. synchron (RAS,CAS)
 4. Zugriffszeit: SRAM alle Zugriffzeiten gleich lang
SDRAM Hohe Latenz für ersten Zugriff, kurze Zugriffszeit für Folgeadressen
 5. SDRAM: kleinere Speicherzellen pro Fläche

b) Was ist die typische Funktion des Pins \overline{OE} bei einem asynchronen SRAM?

Der Pin kontrolliert, ob das Memory Daten auf den Bus schreibt (treibt) oder ob sich die SRAM Ausgangstreiber der Datenleitungen im Floating Zustand befinden. Der Pin wird beim Auslesen des RAMs durch den Prozessor aktiviert (low gesetzt).

Aufgabe 2

Gegeben ist der folgende 'asynchronous SRAM' Baustein.



- a) Wie viele Adresspins benötigt der Baustein?

$$64K = 2^{16} \rightarrow 16 \text{ Adresspins} \rightarrow ADDR[15:0]$$

$64 \cdot 1024 = 65536$
 $\log_2(65536) = 16$

- b) Der Baustein wird an den 'Flexible Memory Controller' (FMC) des STM32F4xx angeschlossen. Adresse 0x6800'0000 soll die niedrige Adresse sein, unter welcher der Baustein angesprochen werden kann. Tragen Sie die anzuschliessenden FMC-Signale direkt links neben den Prellen ein.

- c) Unter welcher Adresse greifen Sie aus der Software heraus auf das Byte an der höchsten Adresse des Bausteines zu?
- 0x6800'FFFF

- d) Beim Entwickeln der Software stellen Sie fest, dass Sie unter der Adresse 0x68FF'0000 auf das identische Byte des Bausteins wie unter 0x6800'0000 zugreifen. Was ist die Erklärung?

Partial Address Decoding: Die Bits A[25:16] sind nicht angeschlossen und werden deshalb nicht decodiert.

- e) Unter wie vielen 64KByte Adressblöcken kann auf den Baustein zugegriffen werden?

$$A[25:16] \rightarrow 10 \text{ Adresslinien} \rightarrow 2^{10} = 1024 \text{ Adressblöcke}$$

0x68XX'0000
 0x69XX'0000
 0x6AXX'0000
 0x6BXX'0000

Aufgabe 3

Welche der folgenden Aussagen treffen für ein DRAM (Dynamisches RAM) zu?

Bezeichnen Sie das entsprechende Feld mit einem 'X'.

trifft zu trifft nicht zu

Die Daten werden in einer RS Flip-flop artigen Zelle gespeichert.

Zugriffe auf einzelne Speicherstellen haben eine hohe Latenz.

Auf Grund der Leckströme ist ein periodischer Refresh notwendig.

Der Preis pro Speicherzelle ist hoch.

Ist ein flüchtiger (volatiler) Speicher.

Eignet sich gut für Blockzugriffe.

Falls keine Zugriffe erfolgen, ist der Leistungsverbrauch sehr klein.

Quiz_V09

Aufgabe 1: Welche Zugriffsdiagramme sind hier gezeichnet?

Abbildung 1

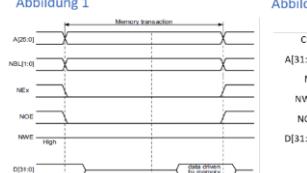
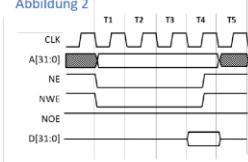


Abbildung 2



- a) Asynchroner / synchron Zugriff

- b) Speicherbaustein vermutlich on-chip / off-chip

Abbildung 1: Asynchrones SRAM/NOR-Flash, Off-Chip (26 Adress-Bits)

Abbildung 2: Synchrones SRAM/NOR-Flash, On-Chip (32 Adress-Bits)

Aufgabe 3: Speichertechnologien

Ordnen Sie die folgenden Speichertechnologien zu:

Prozessor-nahe Memory, geeignet als Cache	SRAM
Prozessor-nahe Memory, geeignet für Code	NOR-Flash
Prozessor-fernes Memory, geeignet für Code und Daten, flüchtig	SDRAM
Prozessor-fernes Memory, geeignet für Code und Daten, nichtflüchtig	NAND-Flash
Prozessor-fernes Memory, geeignet für grosse Mengen Code und Daten, nichtflüchtig	Hard Disk

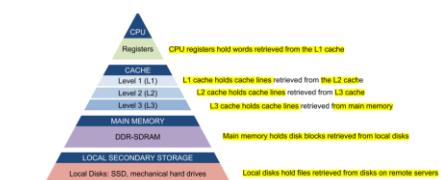
Kapitel 6 Cache

Prinzip der Lokalität

Räumliche Lokalität: Der aktuelle Datenstandort befindet sich wahrscheinlich in der Nähe des nächstgelegenen Speicherorts

Zeitliche Lokalität: Auf den aktuellen Datenstandort wird wahrscheinlich in naher Zukunft erneut zugegriffen

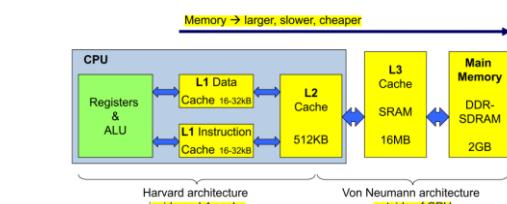
Speicher Hierarchy



Cache Level

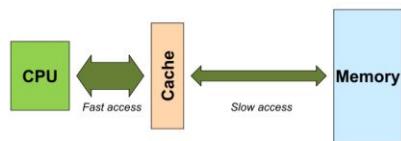
Cache Levels

- Typical Cache Architecture



Definition Cache

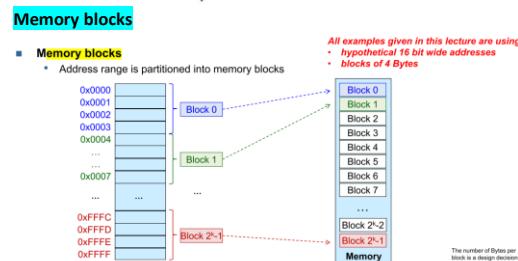
Computerspeicher mit kurzer Zugriffszeit. Speicherung häufig oder kürzlich verwendeter Anweisungen oder Daten.



Memory blocks

Memory blocks

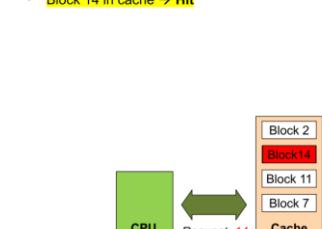
- Address range is partitioned into memory blocks



Cache hit

Cache hit

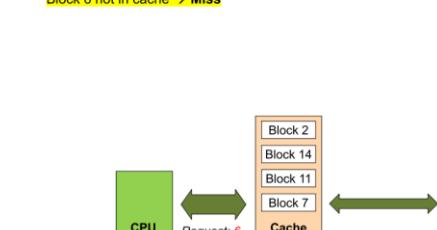
- Data in block 14 is needed
- Block 14 in cache → HIT



Cache miss

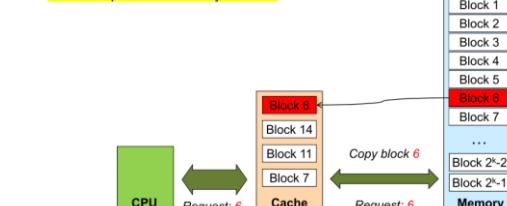
Cache miss (I)

- Data in block 6 is needed
- Block 6 not in cache → Miss



Cache miss (II)

- Data in block 6 is needed
- Block 6 not in cache → Miss
- Block 6 copied from memory to cache



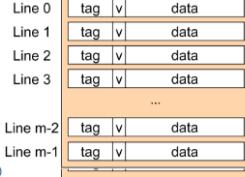
Cache Organisation

Valid bit v = zeigt an, dass die Zeile gültige Daten enthält

Tag = eindeutige Kennung für den Speicherort

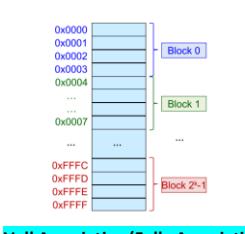
Data = Daten von genau einem Speicherblock

m = Gesamtzahl der Cache-Zeilen



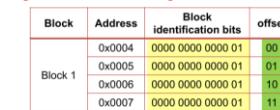
Adressierung

Addressing



Voll Assoziativ (Fully Associative)

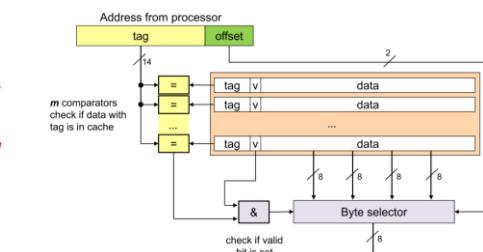
Tag enthält vollständige Blockidentifikation.



14 bit tag | 2 bit offset

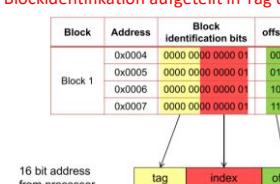
Jede Cache-Zeile kann jeden Block laden

Architecture



Direkt Zugeordnet (Direct Mapped)

Blockidentifikation aufgeteilt in Tag und Index



Jeder Speicherblock ist genau einer Cache-Zeile zugeordnet. Mehrere Speicherblöcke sind derselben Zeile zugeordnet.

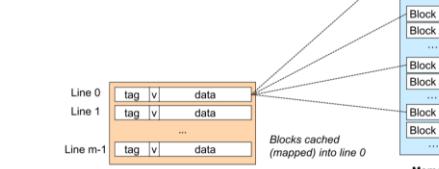
Organization

- Each memory block is mapped to exactly one cache line

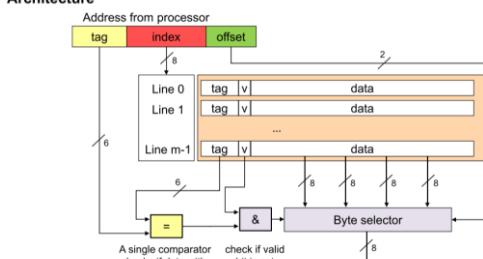
- Multiple memory blocks mapped to the same line

Example: $m = 2^k = 256$

LineNr = BlockNr mod m



Architecture

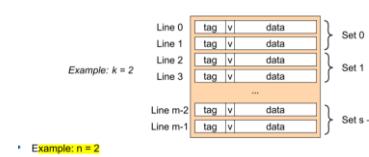


N-Wege Satz Assoziative (N-Way Set Associative)

Organization

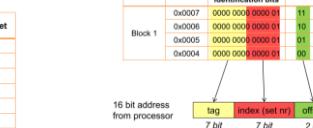
- Partition into sets
 - s = min. number of sets
 - n lines per set (N-way*)
 - b Bytes per line

* $s \times n \times b$ data Bytes



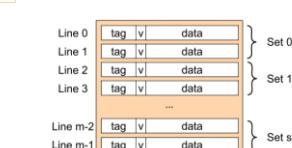
Example: $n = 2$

- Maximum index corresponds to number of sets ($s = m/n$)

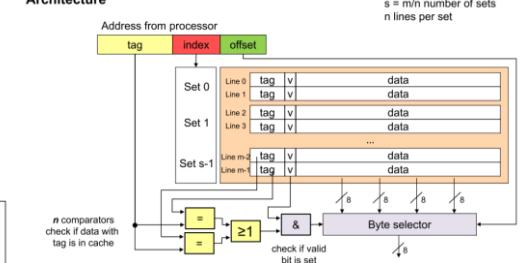


Architectures

- Partition into sets
- Example: $m=2^k, n=2$
- $s = m/n = 2^k = 128$
- $\text{Sethr} = \text{BlockNr} \bmod s$



Architecture



Vergleich Voll assoziativ, direkt zugeordnet und N-Wege Satz assoziativ

Comparison

Organization	Fully associative	Direct mapped	N-way set associative
Number of sets	1	m	m/n
Associativity	$m=(n)$	1	n
Advantages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fast, flexible Highest hit rates Advanced replacement strategies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Simple logic Defined by organization 	Combination of both other concepts to combine advantages and to compensate disadvantages
Disadvantages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Complex logic: one comparator per line Requires large area Replacement can be complex 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low hit rates 	

Performance

Cold miss: Erster Zugriff auf einen Block.

Capacity miss: Arbeitssatz größer als Cache.

Conflict miss: Mehrere Datenobjekte werden demselben Steckplatz zugeordnet.

Hit rate / miss rate: Bruchteil der im Cache gefundenen / nicht gefundenen Speicherreferenzen

hit rate = nr_of_hits / nr_of_accesses

miss rate = nr_of_misses / nr_of_accesses = 1 - hit rate

Hit time: Zeit, um einen Block im Cache an den Prozessor zu liefern

Miss penalty: Zusätzliche Zeit zum Abrufen von Daten aus dem Speicher aufgrund eines Cache-Fehlers

Ersatzstrategien

Auswahl der zu ersetzenen Cache-Zeile:

LRU: Least recently used (Zuletzt benutzt)

LFU: Least frequently used (Am wenigsten verwendet)

FIFO: First In – First Out (ältestes)

Random Replace: zufällig gewählt

Schreibstrategien

Was tun bei einem Schreibhit?

Schreibe durch: Schreiben Sie sofort in den Speicher

Schreib zurück: Verzögerung des Schreibvorgangs in den Speicher bis zum Ersetzen der Zeile (benötigt ein gültiges Bit)

Was tun bei einem Schreibfehler?

Write-Allocate: Laden Sie die Zeile in den Cache (aus dem Speicher) und aktualisieren Sie die Zeile im Cache

No-Write-Allocate: Schreibt sofort in den Speicher

Aufgabe 2: Direct Mapped Cache

Bestimmen Sie aus den Angaben die Anzahl Adress-Bits sowie die Aufteilung auf Tag, Index und Offset

Größe des Caches 32 kByte
 Block-Größe 64 Byte
 Größe des Arbeitsspeichers 2MByte

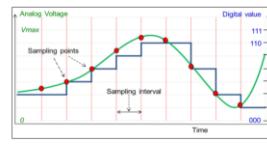
Tag	Index	Offset
-----	-------	--------

Anzahl Adress-Bits	21 (Schritt 1: 2 Mbyte = $2 * 2^{20}$ Byte)	$2^{21} * 2^{20} = 2^{41}$
Anzahl Bits für Tag	6 (Schritt 4: übrige Adressbits: 21 - 6 - 9 = 6)	
Bits für Index	9 (Schritt 3: Grösse Cache (2^{15}) dividiert durch Blockgröße)	$32K * 1024 = 32768$ $32768 / 64 = 512$ $512 = 2^9 \rightarrow x = 9$
Bits for Offset	6 (Schritt 2: 64 Byte = 2^6 Byte pro Block/Zeile)	

Kapitel 7 ADC / DAC

Analog to Digital Converter

- ADC – Analog to Digital Converter**
 - Converts input signal (voltage) to a digital value (N-bit)
 - Conversion results in one of 2^N possible numerical levels
 - Raw input signal can be dynamic! or static!
 - Dynamic signal (green) sampled at specific time intervals
 - Samples transformed into series of discrete values (blue)



1) changing over time 2) time-invariant

Input signals

- Differential inputs
 - V_{in+} signal to convert (non-inverting input)
 - V_{in-} signal to convert (inverting input)

Single ended mode

- Only V_{in+} used
- V_{in-} is grounded

Reference voltage V_{REF}

- Internal or external stable voltage
- Needed to weight input voltage

Resolution

- Number of bits N
- Size of digital word

LSB¹

- $1 \text{ LSB} \triangleq V_{REF} / (2^N)$

Full Scale Range (FSR)

- Range between analog levels of minimum and maximum digital codes
- V_{FSR} is one LSB less than V_{REF}

Example

$$V_{REF} = 8 \text{ V}, N = 3 \text{ bits} \rightarrow 1 \text{ LSB} = 8 \text{ V} / 8 = 1 \text{ V}$$

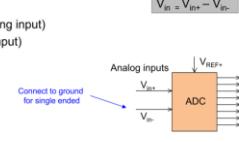
$$\rightarrow \text{FSR from } 0 \text{ V to } 7 \text{ V}$$

Example Flash ADC

- Network of 2^N resistors to divide V_{REF} into 2^N levels
- $2^N - 1$ analog comparators
 - Compare input signal to divided reference voltages

- Encoder transforms digital comparator results into N-bit word

3-bit ADC
Example: $V_{REF} = 8 \text{ V}, V_{in} = 2.3 \text{ V}$
 $V_{REF} / 16 = 0.5 \text{ V}$
 $3 V_{REF} / 16 = 1.5 \text{ V}$
 $5 V_{REF} / 16 = 2.5 \text{ V}$
...
Comparator stream = 00000011
3-bit output word = 010



$$V_{in} = (\text{digital value}) * V_{REF} / (2^N)$$

Conversion time (Umwandlungszeit)

Conversion time (Umwandlungszeit)

-Zeit zwischen Beginn der Abtastung und digitaler Ausgabe verfügbar

-Das Programmieren einer höheren Auflösung kann die Konvertierungszeit verlängern

Monotonicity (Monotonie)

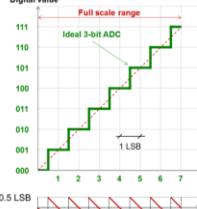
-Eine Erhöhung von V_{in} führt zu einer Erhöhung oder keiner Änderung der digitalen Ausgabe und umgekehrt

Quantization Fehler

Quantization error

- Analog input is continuous
 - Infinite number of states
- Digital output is discrete
 - Finite number of states
- Introduces an error between -0.5 LSB and 0.5 LSB

Quantization error can be reduced by reducing N , e.g. either by increasing number of bits (resolution) or by reducing V_{REF} . Reducing V_{REF} also reduces full scale range.

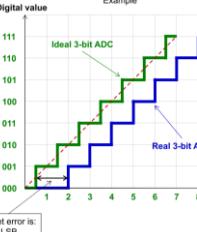


Offset Fehler

Offset error

- Also called zero-scale error
- Deviation of real N-bit ADC from ideal N-bit ADC at input point zero
- For an ideal N-bit ADC, the first transition occurs at 0.5 LSB above zero
- Can be corrected using the microcontroller

Measuring the offset error:
Zero-scale voltage is applied to analog input and is increased until first transition occurs

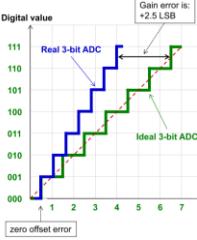


Gain Fehler

Gain error

- Indicates how well the slope of an actual transfer function matches the slope of the ideal transfer function
- Expressed in LSB or as a percent of full-scale range (%FSR)
- Calibration with hardware or software possible

$$\text{full-scale error} = \text{offset error} + \text{gain error}$$

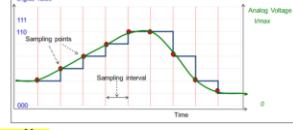


Digital to Analog Converter

DAC – Digital to Analog Converter

- Converts N-bit digital input to analog voltage level
- E.g. music from your MP3 player is read and converted back to sound

- A series of different values in the digital domain leads to a series of steps in the analog domain. The result is a dynamic output signal
- "Play-back" time depends on time between conversions (sampling interval)



Reference voltage V_{REF}

- Accurate reference voltage (from internal or external source)
- Needed to relate digital value to a voltage

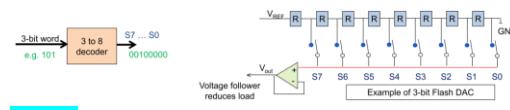
Output signal V_{out}

- Analog output
 - Unipolar (only positive)
 - Bipolar (positive or negative)
- Conversion yields approximation of digital signal

$$V_{out} = (\text{digital value}) * V_{REF} / (2^N)$$

Example Flash DAC

- Network of resistors (of same value) creates 2^N voltage levels
- N-bit digital input decoded into 2^N values (S0 ... Sx)
 - Select single voltage level as DAC output



SAR ADC

Successive Approximation Register (SAR) ADC

- Approach V_{in} with successive division by 2
 - Binary search
- Start with half the digital value
 - MSB = 1, all other bits at 0
- DAC generates analog value V_{DAC} that is compared to V_{in}
 - If $V_{DAC} < V_{in}$ → keep MSB at 1, otherwise set MSB to 0
- Continue with other N bits in same way (N steps)

Flash ADC und SAR ADC

Flash ADC

- Fast conversion
- Requires many elements
 - e.g. 256 comparators for 8-bit resolution
 - Power hungry
 - Consumes large chip area

SAR ADC

- Used on most microcontrollers
- Good trade-off between speed, power and cost
 - Up to 5 Msps
 - Resolution from 8 to 16 bits

DAC output voltage

DAC output voltage

- Digital values are converted to output voltages on a linear conversion between 0 and V_{REF} .
- Analog output voltages on each DAC channel pin are determined by the following equation:

$$DAC_{output} = V_{REF} * DOR / 4095$$

- DOR is the digital value that should be converted

- Use of an external V_{REF} can help to improve results.

- By choosing a smaller V_{REF} , the minimal "analog step" is reduced

- Using a dedicated pin allows the use of less noisy references

What is the max. achievable sampling rate with these settings and APB2 clock = 42 MHz?

```
/* Setup GPIO and ADC3 */
hal_rcc_set_peripheral(PER_GPIOF, ENABLE);
hal_rcc_set_peripheral(PER_ADC3, ENABLE);

GPIOF->MODER |= (0x3 << 12); // analog pin conf on PF.6
ADC3COM3->CCR = (0x3 << 16); // ADC prescaler 8

ADC3->CR1 = 0x0;
ADC3->CR2 = 0x1; // single conv., enable ADC, right align

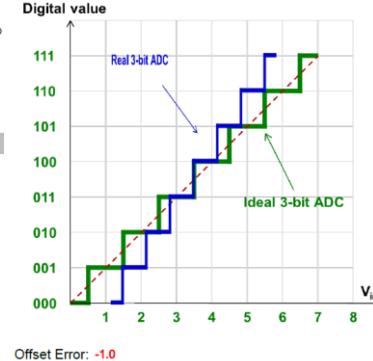
ADC3->MPR1 = 0x0;
ADC3->MPR2 = (0x6 << 12); // ch1: 144 cycles sampling time
ADC3->MPR3 = 0x0;
ADC3->MPR4 = 0x4; // ch4 is first in sequence

ADC3->CR3 = 0x0;
ADC3->CR2 = 0x0;
ADC3->CR3 = 0x4; // ch4 is first in sequence

while (1) {
  ADC3->CR2 |= (0x1 << 30); // start conversion
  while(!((ADC3->SR & 0x2)) { // wait while conversion not finished
    CT_SEG7->BIN.HWORD = ADC3->DR; // show on 7-segment display
  }
}
```

Quiz V10

Aufgabe 1: Bestimmen Sie den Offset- und Gain Error für die folgende Fehlerkurve eines 3-Bit AD Converters. Antwort auf Menti



Offset Error: -1.0
Gain Error: 2.0 (Blau linie, muss auf den Startpunkt geschoben werden um besser z. erkennen.)

Full Scale Error: offset + Gain = -1.0 + 2.0 = 1.0

ADC Charakteristiken

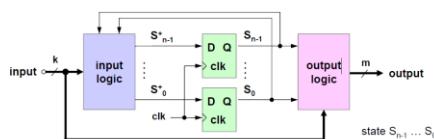
Sample rate (Abtastrate)

- Eingangssignal, das zu diskreten Zeitpunkten abgetastet wird
- Sollte mindestens doppelt so hoch sein wie die höchste Frequenzkomponente des Eingangssignals sein - Nyquist-Shannon-Abtasttheorem

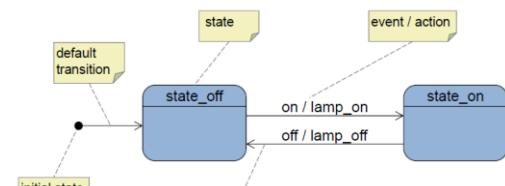
Kapitel 9 Software State Machine

Finite State Machine (FSM) in hardware

- Flip-flops store internal state
- Clock-driven
 - Inputs are evaluated¹⁾ at each clock edge
 - State can only change on a clock edge



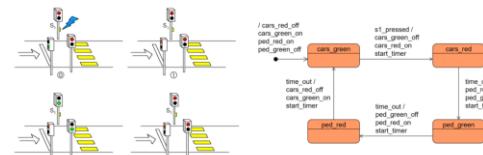
UML state diagram example



- **State**
 - Internal state of the system in which it is awaiting the next event
- **Event**
 - Asynchronous input that may cause a transition
- **Transition**
 - Reaction to an event: May change the state and/or trigger an action
- **Action**
 - Output associated with a transition
 - Either a directly carried out operation or a
 - Message to another FSM (seen as an event by the receiving FSM)
- **Finite State Machine (FSM)**
 - Machine with a finite number of states and transitions

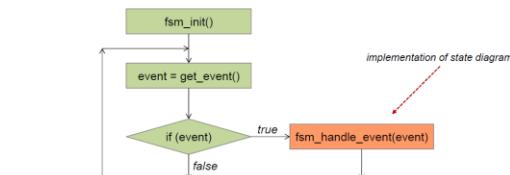
Beispiel mit Ampel

- Example: Traffic light



Simple FSM System

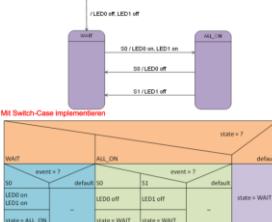
Simple FSM System



Beispiel LED Control

- Example: LED control

```
int main(void)
{
    event_t event;
    fsm_init();
    while(1) {
        event = get_event();
        if (event != NO_SWITCH) {
            fsm_handle_event(event);
        }
    }
}
```



→ see code example

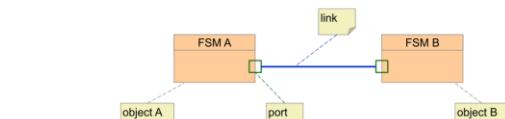
Interaktionen von FSM

Port

- Defines the messages that can be sent and received by an FSM
 - Output message → action of the FSM
 - Input message → event of the FSM

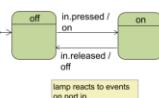
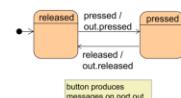
Link

- Defines a connection for sending messages



Example

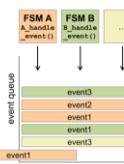
- Reactive system partitioned into two FSMs
- Interaction of FSMs happens through event-messages



Event queue

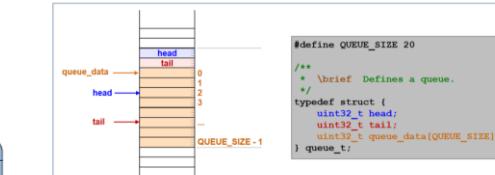
Event queue

- Collect events generated by different objects
- Buffered in event queue: Avoids losing events
- FSM processes one event after the other
- Events are deleted after processing



Event queues

- Covered in Microcomputer Systems 1 (MC1)



Beispiel mit switch Case

```
switch (state) {
    case STATE_A:
        switch (event) {
            case S0:
                action();
                state = NEW_STATE;
                break;
            default:
                state = WAIT;
        }
        break;

    case STATE_B:
        switch (event)
```

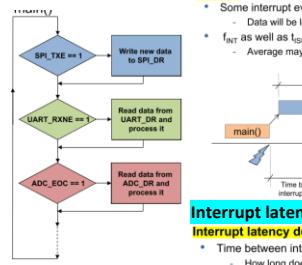
Kapitel 10 Interrupt Performance

Polling

Periodic Query of Status Information

- Synchronous with main program
- Advantages**
 - Simple and straightforward Einfach und unkompliziert
 - Implicit synchronization
 - Deterministic
 - No additional interrupt logic required Keine zusätzliche Interrupt-Logik erforderlich
- Disadvantages**
 - Busy wait → wastes CPU time
 - Reduced throughput Reduzierter Durchsatz
 - Long reaction times in case of many I/O devices or if the CPU is working on other tasks

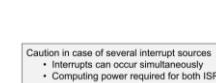
¹⁾ to poll → abfragen



Time between two interrupt events

$t_{INT} > \text{"Time between two interrupt events"}$

- Some interrupt events will not be serviced (lost)
 - Data will be lost
- t_{INT} as well as t_{ISR} may vary over time
 - Average may be ok, individual interrupt events may still be lost



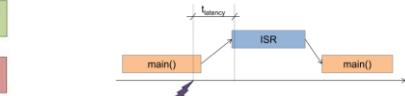
Caution in case of several interrupt sources

- Interruptions can occur simultaneously
- Computing power required for both ISRs

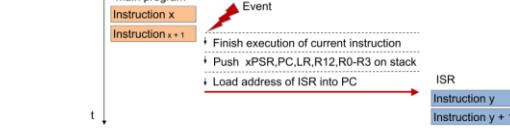
Interrupt latency

Interrupt latency definition

- Time between interrupt event and start of servicing by ISR Zeit zwischen Interrupt-Ereignis und Beginn der Wartung
 - How long does it take until first "useful" instruction in ISR is executed
- Range**
 - From about 50 nanoseconds (ns) up to several milliseconds (ms)
- Relevant in cases where guaranteed service times are required**
 - E.g. audio/video streaming



Latency influenced by hardware (CPU)



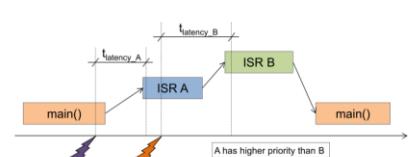
Latency influenced by software (code)

- Saving additional registers on stack

- Process ongoing or higher prioritized ISRs

- Masked (disabled) interrupts → CPSID i / CPSIE i

- In case several sources are using the same interrupt line
 - SW has to use polling to know which peripheral requires servicing



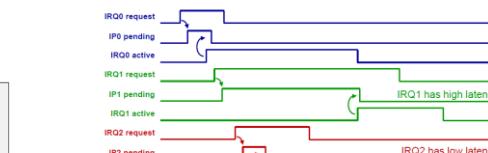
Beispiel Interrupt Prioritäten

Example interrupt priorities

- ISR1 does not pre-empt ISR0

- ISR2 pre-empts ISR0

assuming
 IRQ0 PL0 = 0x2 medium priority
 IRQ1 PL1 = 0x3 lowest priority
 IRQ2 PL2 = 0x1 highest priority



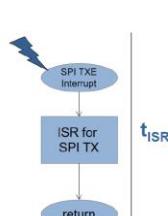
Interrupt service time

Interrupt service time

t_{ISR}

- Required time to process an interrupt
 - i.e. execution time of ISR

- Depends on**
 - Number of instructions in ISR
 - Required number of clock cycles per instruction
 - depends on CPU architecture
 - CPU clock frequency
 - Time for switching to and returning from ISR



Impact on system performance

Impact on system performance

- Percentage of CPU time used to service interrupts

$$\text{Impact} = f_{INT} * t_{ISR} * 100 \%$$

- Example keyboard

$$f_{INT} = 20 \text{ Hz} = 20 \frac{1}{s} \quad t_{ISR} = 6 \text{ us}^1) \\ \text{Impact} = 20 \text{ Hz} * 6 \text{ us} * 100 \% = 0.012 \%$$

- Example serial interface with 230'400 Baud

$$f_{INT} = 230'400 / 8 = 28'800 \text{ Hz} \quad t_{ISR} = 6 \text{ us}^1) \\ \text{Impact} = 28'800 \text{ Hz} * 6 \text{ us} * 100 \% = 17.3 \%$$

Interrupt Driven FSM



Kapitel 11 Remaining Data types

Binary representation

■ Binary representation

$2^i \quad 2^{i-1} \quad \dots \quad 4 \quad 2 \quad 1 \quad 1/2 \quad 1/4 \quad 1/8 \quad 2^{-j}$

b_i	b_{i-1}	\dots	b_2	b_1	b_0	b_{-1}	b_{-2}	b_{-3}	\dots	b_{-j}

■ Value $\sum_{k=-j}^i b_k \cdot 2^k$

■ Examples

- $5/4 = 1.0111_2$
- $2/8 = 0.10111_2$

■ Real numbers: general notation

Value = Sign · Fraction · Base^{Exponent}

■ Normalized scientific notation

- Single non-zero digit to the left of the decimal (binary) point

■ Decimal vs. binary

- Decimal: $0.00002796 = 2.796 \cdot 10^{-5}$
- Binary: $0.000010110111 = 1.0110111 \cdot 2^{-5}$

■ Defines how floating point numbers are represented

- Easy exchange of data between machines
- Simplifies hardware algorithms
- Exists since 1980

■ Binary notation

Sign	Exponent	Fraction
S	E	F

Fraction

■ Fraction

S	E	F
---	---	---

- Binary notation
- Representing normalized numbers → number of form $1.xxxx..$
- In IEEE 754 standard, the 1 is implicit

Fraction value = $(1 + F)$

■ Example

$1.265625 \text{ d} = 1.010001 \text{ b} \rightarrow F = 010001$

Remark: $1.010001 \text{ b} = (1 + 0 \cdot 2^{-1} + 1 \cdot 2^{-2} + \dots + 1 \cdot 2^{-6}) \text{ d}$

Exponent

■ Exponent

S	E	F
---	---	---

■ Binary excess notation

Exponent value = $(E - \text{Bias})$

■ Bias: 127 (float) / 1023 (double)

■ Example (float):

$0111'1010 \text{ b} = 122 \rightarrow 122 - 127 = -5 \rightarrow \text{Value} = 2^{-5}$

Value = $2^{-5} \rightarrow -5 + 127 = 122 = 0111'1010 \text{ b}$

■ Exponent Single precision (float)

S	E	F
---	---	---

E		Meaning
0000 0000		Reserved
0000 0001		-126_{10}
0000 0010		-125_{10}
0111 1111		0_{10}
1111 1110		127_{10}
1111 1111		Reserved

→ Unnormalized

→ See later...

→ Not a Number

→ See later...

Sign

■ Sign

S	E	F
---	---	---

- 1 bit
- Sign value = $(-1)^S$

■ Sign and Magnitude Representation



Value = $(-1)^S \cdot (1 + F) \cdot 2^{(E - \text{Bias})}$

- More exponent bits → wider range of numbers
- More fraction bits → higher precision

Beispiel

■ Decimal 7.5 d = ?

$7.5d = 111.1 \text{ b} = 1.111 \cdot 2^2$

$E = 2 + 127 = 129$

$01000000'11110000'00000000'00000000 = 0x4F00000$

Decimal → binary $7.5d = 111.1\text{b}$

Normalise (1.xx) $111.1 = 1.111 \cdot 2^2$

Exponent $E = 2 + 127 = 129d = 1000'0001\text{b}$

Sign $7.5 > 0 \rightarrow V = 0$

«Package» $01000000'11110000'00000000'00000000$

Vorzeichen Exponent Fraction

■ Binary $10111111'01010000'00000000'00000000 = ?$

$S = 1 (\text{Vorzeichen})$

$E = 129 \rightarrow E - \text{Bias} = 129 - 127 = -2$

$F = 101$

$-1.101 \cdot 2^{-2} \rightarrow -0.1101 = -(0.5 + 0.25 + 0.0625) = -0.8125$

Special Values

■ Special Values

E F S Result

255	$\neq 0$	Not a Number (NaN)
255	0	$1 \cdot -\infty$
255	0	$0 \cdot \infty$
$0 < E < 255$		$(-1)^S \cdot (1 + F) \cdot 2^{(E - \text{Bias})}$ Normalized
0	$\neq 0$	$(-1)^S \cdot (0 + F) \cdot 2^{(1 - \text{Bias})}$ Unnormalized
0	0	$1 \cdot -0$
0	0	$+0$

Ranges (Normalized / Unnormalized)

■ Normalized (positive): $(1 + F) \cdot 2^{(E - \text{Bias})}$

- Smallest $[0 00000001 000000000000000000000000] + 2^{-126}(1+0) = 2^{-126}$
- Largest $[0 11111110 111111111111111111111111] + 2^{127}(1+(1-2^{-23}))$

■ Unnormalized (positive): $(0 + F) \cdot 2^{(1 - \text{Bias})}$

- Smallest $[0 00000000 000000000000000000000001] + 2^{-126}(2^{-23}) = 2^{-149}$
- Largest $[0 00000000 111111111111111111111111] + 2^{126}(1-2^{-23})$



Single precision and double precision

■ Single precision (float)

1 bit 8 bits 23 bits

S	E	F
---	---	---

- 32 bits
- Exponent bias: 127
- Dynamics: $-3.4 \cdot 10^{38} \dots -1.17 \cdot 10^{-38}$, 0 , $1.17 \cdot 10^{-38} \dots 3.4 \cdot 10^{38}$
- Resolution: $2^{-24} = 0.6 \cdot 10^{-7} \rightarrow 7$ digits

■ Double precision (double)

1 bit 11 bits 52 bits

S	E	F
---	---	---

- 64 bits
- Exponent bias: 1023
- Dynamics: $-1.8 \cdot 10^{308} \dots -2.2 \cdot 10^{-308}$, 0 , $2.2 \cdot 10^{-308} \dots 1.8 \cdot 10^{308}$
- Resolution: $2^{-53} = 0.11 \cdot 10^{-15} \rightarrow 15$ digits

Precision errors

Precision:

```
int main(void) {
    float a = 1.8;
    float b = 18;
    if(a*10 == b) printf("\nNumbers are the same\n");
    else printf("\nNumbers differ!!\n");
}
```

* Output: Numbers are the same

```
int main(void) {
    float a = 1.81;
    float b = 18.1;
    if(a*10 == b) printf("\nNumbers are the same\n");
    else printf("\nNumbers differ!!\n");
}
```

* Output: Numbers differ!!

Precision:

```
int main(void) {
    int x = 33554431;
    float y = 33554431;
    printf("int: %d\n", x);
    printf("float: %f\n", y);
}
```

* Output:

int: 33554431
float: 33554432.000000

* Single Precision float of 33554431:

Binary32: 4C000000	Status: Normal	Sign [1]: 0 (+)	Exponent [8]: 10011000 (+25)	Significant [23]: 1.0000000000000000000000000000000 (1.0)
--------------------	----------------	-----------------	------------------------------	---

$2^{25} = 33554432$

Arrays

■ Pointer to first element of array

```
int main(void) {
    int j, sum = 0;
    int array[5];
    int *ptr; // pointer to integer
    for (j = 0; j < 5; j++) {
        array[j] = j;
    }
    ptr = array; // copy pointer
    for (j = 0; j < 5; j++) {
        sum = sum + *ptr;
        ptr++; // point to next element
    }
}
```

for (j = 0; j < 5; j++) {
 sum = sum + array[j];
}

■ Multidimensional arrays are "Arrays of Arrays"

```
void main(void) {
    int array [3][3];
    int *ptr;
    int i, j, k;
    j = 0;
    for (i = 0; i < 3; i++) { // fill array with ascending
        for (k = 0; k < 3; k++) { // numbers
            array [i][k] = j++;
        }
    }
    ptr = array [0]; // get pointer to first element
    for (i = 0; i < 3; i++) {
        printf("index: %d, value: %d\n", i, *ptr);
        ptr++;
    }
}
```

* Array a[3][3]: a00 a01 a02
a10 a11 a12
a20 a21 a22

* Is stored as: [a00 a01 a02 a10 a11 a12 a20 a21 a22]

Strings

■ Strings in C are not objects

- Declaration with char arrays
- Example

```
char Name[16] = "Meier";
```

* Question: How is the end of a string recognised?

* All Strings in C are 0-terminated

→ after the last character follows a '0'

M e T e ' Y ' e ' 0 ' Y ' e ' a ' Q ' u ' a ' Y ' 0 ' T Y

valid String Terminator undefined content

* Length of strings not stored → count characters to '0'

Structs

■ Structs contain different data that belong together

- Declaration

```
struct person {
    char name[8];
    char prename[8];
    int pers_nr;
    unsigned char day_of_birth;
    unsigned char month_of_birth;
};
```

- Definition

```
struct person aperson;
```

- Usage

```
strcpy(aperson.Name, "Meier");
strcpy(aperson.prename, "Peter");
```

■ Access to struct

```
struct person {
    char name[8];
    char prename[8];
    int pers_nr;
    unsigned char day_of_birth;
    unsigned char month_of_birth;
};
```

- Using base address

```
- name: base address + 0
- prename: base address + 8
- pers_nr: base address + 16
- day_of_birth: base address + 18
- month_of_birth: base address + 19
```

`sizeof(struct person) = 20`

Identifier	Memory Content	Address
m	e	000002000
e	e	000002001
t	e	000002002
r	e	000002003
10	10	000002005
11	11	000002006
12	12	000002007
13	13	000002008
14	14	000002009
15	15	000002010
16	16	000002011
17	17	000002012
18	18	000002013
19	19	000002014
20	20	000002015
21	21	000002016
22	22	000002017
23	23	000002018
24	24	000002019
25	25	000002020
26	26	000002021
27	27	000002022
28	28	000002023

Union Memory Layout

Union Memory Layout

