

Introduction

Embedded systems

Continue pervasive expansion into

Vast variety of electronic systems and products

Have difficulty identifying any products

Not incorporating embedded processor

In one form or another

Different kinds of computing

We identify three basic kinds of component

We embed into our systems

Microprocessors microcomputers and microcontrollers

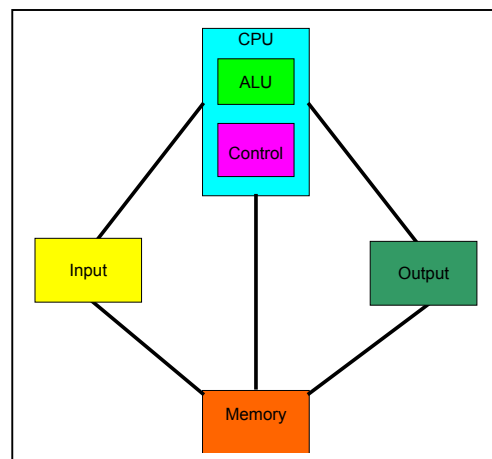
What's the difference

First

Most units CISC architecture

Based upon fundamental von Neumann architecture

Also known as Princeton architecture



- Microprocessor
 - Integrated implementation of central processing unit – CPU
 - Given in above diagram
 - Thus often simply referred to as CPU
 - Microprocessors will differ in
 - Complexity
 - Power

Cost

One may also find differences in

Number of registers

Overall control

Bus structure

Increasingly Aiken or Harvard architecture

Becoming mixed in

In addition RISC features being utilized as well

Microprocessors range from devices with

Few thousand transistors

Cost of a dollar or less

Units with 5-10 million transistors

Cost several thousand dollars

To implement complete computer

Must still include

Input / output subsystems

Memory

Will examine each of these in detail

In context of embedded system

Such components connected via system bus

- Microcomputer

Complete computer

Implemented using microprocessor

Typically constructed utilizing

Numerous integrated circuits

Once again complexity varies

Simple microcomputers

Can be implemented on single chip

These will have limited

Onboard memory

Simple I/O system

- Microcontroller

Includes

Microprocessor

I/O subsystems

Typically these include such things as

Timers

Serial communications channels

Analog to digital conversion

Digital to analog conversion

DMA

Memory subsystem

May or may not be included

Embedded Systems an Overview

- An embedded system is a microcomputer system

Comprising hardware and software

Designed and optimized

To solve specific problem very efficiently

- Typically continually

Interacts with environment

Monitor and control some process

Term embedded system refers to fact

Microcomputer system

Enclosed or embedded

In larger system

Typical person

May interact with 10-20 embedded systems

Around home each day

Single contemporary automobile

May contain as many as 100 embedded microprocessors and microcontrollers

Engine ignition

Transmission shifting

Power steering

Antilock braking

Security

Entertainment

Time

Many embedded systems

Considered to be real time systems

Real time system

Must respond within constrained time interval

To external or internal events

Response is execution of task associated with event

Soft real time system

If time constraint not met

Performance degraded

Hard real time system

If time constraint not met

System considered to have failed

Failure may be considered to be catastrophic

When operating system used in embedded microcomputer

Typically is real time operating system

Real time operating (RTOS)

Designed and optimized

To handle strict time constraints

Associated with events in real time context

Architecture

As noted earlier

Components of microcomputer

Connected via system bus

System bus

Provides path for electrical signals

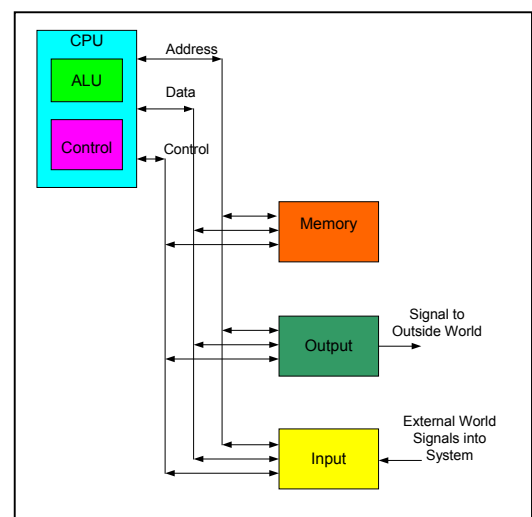
To flow amongst components

Subdivided into three busses

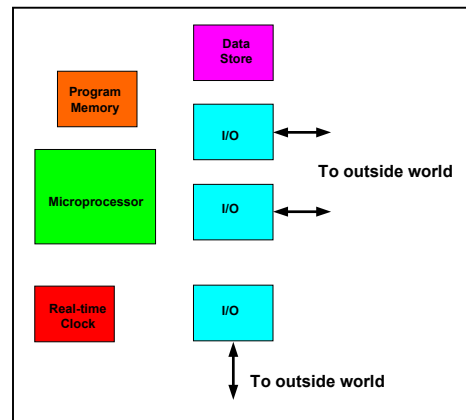
Segregated by function

System may now look like following

At high level



Implementation of *microprocessor* embedded system
Takes the following form



Observe

Individual pieces segregated

As the engineer

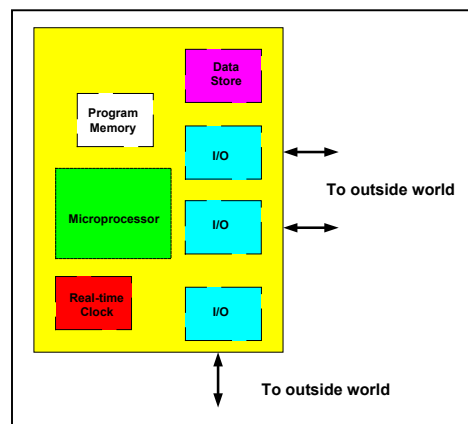
We design and integrate each of the pieces

Must have an understanding of and consider

HW point of view

SW point of view

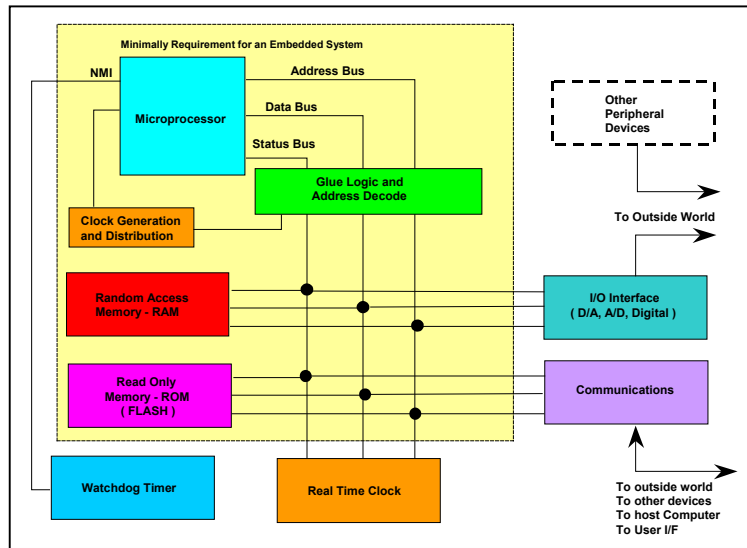
Implementation of *microcontroller* embedded system
Takes the following form



Observe

Individual pieces combined into whole

We now combine all pieces into complete system



Microprocessor controls whole system

- Executing set of instructions

- Stored in memory subsystem

- Generally stored in ROM type memory

- Thus called *firmware*

- At power on

- Microprocessor addresses

- Predefined location

- Fetches, decodes and executes instruction

- When instruction execution complete

- Fetch next one

- Process repeats forever

- Unlike typical application program

- At top-level of embedded program

```
while(1)
{
    embedded program
}
```

Does not execute return

No place to return to

Specific set of instructions for microprocessor

Called *instruction set*

Includes instructions that

Bring data in from outside world

Output signals to external world

Provide means to exchange data

With memory subsystem

Instructions or control flow

Sequential

Branch

Loop

Function call

Embedded Systems Development

As we've seen

Most embedded systems

Share a common structure

Also share a common development cycle

Through such a cycle

Develop the embedded design

Adjacent figure

Gives high level flow

Identifies major elements of such cycle

In subsequent lectures

Will examine each phase in detail

Specifically

Hardware design

Involves design of

Components

Printed circuit boards

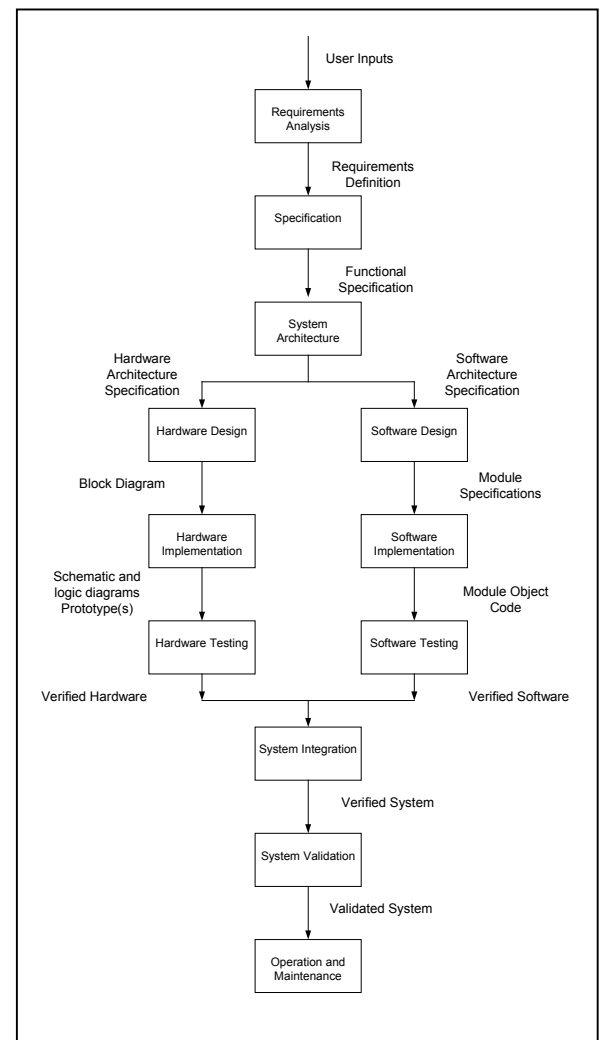
System

Software design

May entail design of

High level language code

Assembly



Work in assembly
Requires detailed knowledge of
Microprocessor architecture
Its register structure
Mixture of assembler and high level

Embedded Systems – A Register View

Registers one of fundamental elements of microprocessor system

We define 3 basic operations on data in system

All involve registers

Operations

- Store data
- Transfer data
- Operate on data

Using register view of system

Simplifies and aides understanding

Referred to as RTL model

Commonly used as one of our high level models

Basic Register Operations

We express basic register operations

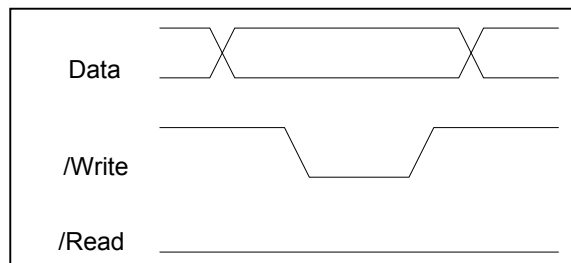
According to following timing diagram

Reflected are

- Read
- Write

All other operations built on these

On *write* operation



Data changed on inputs to register

Following delay

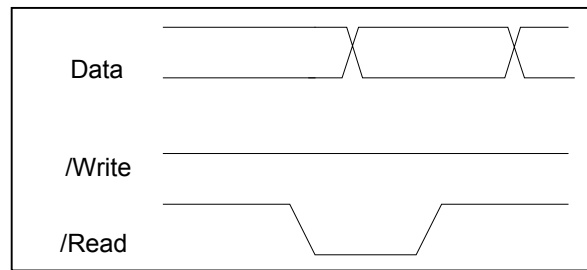
To allow data to settle on bus

Write signal asserted

In drawing signal asserted low

This is typical

Read follows similarly



The read signal is asserted

In drawing

Asserted low

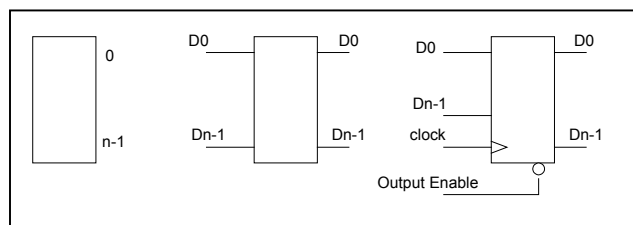
Following some delay

Data appears on output of register

This will be copy of contents of register

Based upon the level of detail we need

We take several views of a register



Simplest view shows simple box

With bits numbered

More complex shows

Inputs and outputs

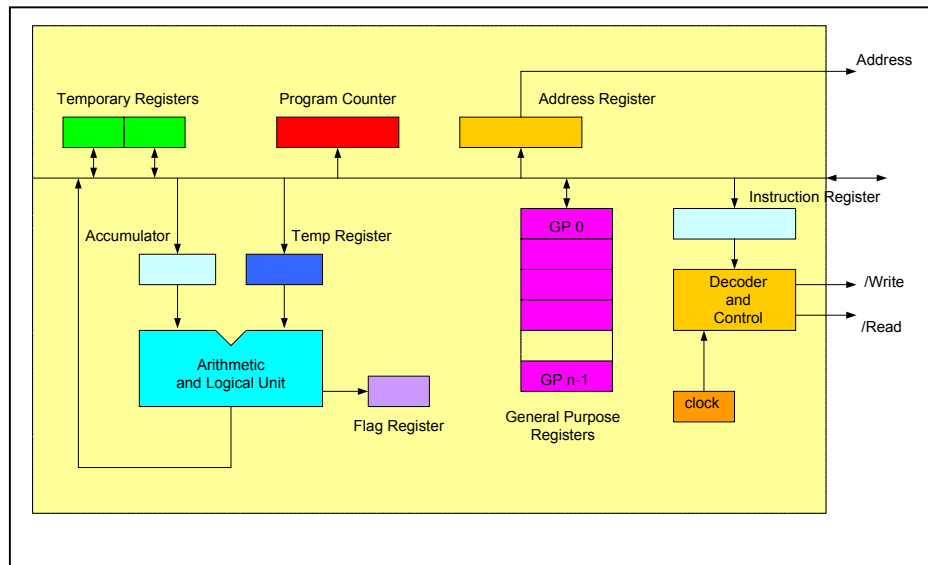
Some control signals

Register View of Microprocessor – The RTL Architecture

Can now express architecture of simple microprocessor

From register point of view

See this in following figure



System Operation

We can now view system operation

From register's point of view

Microprocessor's instruction set

Specifies how we execute the basic operations

On the registers

Once again these are

- Store data
- Transfer data
- Operate on data

Corresponding to such operations

Classify instructions into following groups

- Data Transfer
- Logic
- Execution Flow
- Arithmetic
- Processor Control

We express instructions

Assembly level

Register transfer level

Following table gives representative examples

Each kind of instruction

Type	Instruction	Assembler	Register Transfer
Data Transfer	move register	MOV R1,R2	$R1 \leftarrow R2$
	move from memory	MOV R1,memadx	$R1 \leftarrow (\text{memadx})$
	move to memory	MOV memadx, R1	$(\text{memadx}) \leftarrow R1$
	move immediate	MVI R1,#DEAD	$R1 \leftarrow \#DEAD$
Logic	complement accumulator	CMA	$A \leftarrow !A$
	AND register	AND R1	$A \leftarrow A \wedge R1$
	OR register	OR R1	$A \leftarrow A \vee R1$
Execution Flow	unconditional jump	JMP \$1	$PC \leftarrow \$1$
	conditional jump	J<cond>	if<cond> == 1 $PC \leftarrow \$1$
Arithmetic	ADD register with carry	ADD R1	$A \leftarrow A + R1 + C$
	Clear carry	CLC	$C \leftarrow 0$
Program Control	Don't execute an instruction	NOP	
	Stop executing instructions	HALT	

Embedded Systems – A Software View

Computer hardware is a tool for getting job done

As early computer developers showed

By re-wiring computer appropriately

Could configure to solve desired problem

Originally all integer math

Anyone knows how to scale numbers

Quest for making job easier

Increasingly sophisticated and powerful languages developed

Machine language

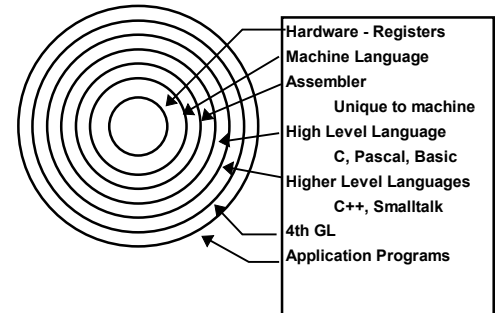
Assembler

Higher level

Can use familiar onion model to view relationship

Begin at center with hardware

Move to outside to point and click languages



Combining Hardware and Software

As we've noted

Embedded computer and hence system

Is a tool we've used to make solving problems easier

Requires understanding of both hardware and software

Let's follow the process from problem statement

Through a computer to see how it works

Problem

Let's begin with simple problem

Control brakes to prevent locking the wheels

Problem is stated in natural language

Our embedded system

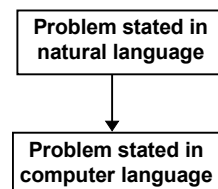
Cannot accept problem in such a form

1. Must translate into more compatible form

We will see that all our activities really involve

Translating problem from one form to another

Until we reach representation we can solve



In current case

We translate into some new language

C

Basic

This translation is done by hand

Note at this point

We can have a variety of translations

They are not unique

This translation is what we call software design

Or in embedded case this turns into firmware

Result is what we call a program

Let's see where we are now

2. More translation

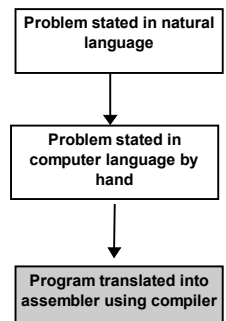
This still not enough

We require addition levels of translation

At this stage

We can begin to use some additional tool to help in process

First such tool is called compiler



Compiler

Compiler is a tool for translating programs

Into variety of forms

Comprises several different tools including

Assembler

Linker

One such form

Assembly language

Observe prior to this stage

Program did not depend upon machine

Now program in form that will execute only on particular machine

In embedded case

We work with a cross compiler

Compiles on one machine for a second or target machine

Assembler

Assembler is next tool we use for translating

Converts assembly language into machine language

Program expressed as collection of 0's and 1's machine understands

Linker and Loader

Although program now in machine language

Not ready to be executed

Problem

All variables and data structures we use

Must reside in computer memory

Each needs an address in memory

Question

Which address should we use

Unfortunately

Cannot always use the same address

What if someone else wants to use same address

Typical for desktop PC

In embedded application

Want to put at specific address

To solve problem assembler generates

Relocatable code

Code that can be placed anywhere in memory

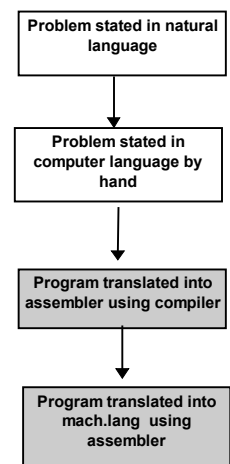
Second question arises at this time

We'd like to be able to use existing code

Our own

Other people's

How do we get this into our program without typing in each time



Tool called *linker loader* can help with both problems

Does two jobs

1. Links collection of program modules together
2. Resolves address problems

Adding that step to flow we now have

3. Into Memory

Not quite there yet

Several more stages to go

At this point linker and loader have gotten program into memory

PC systems this means onto the hard drive

Embedded system this means a ROM

We will see shortly

Memory actually comprised of hierarchy of elements

On desktop computer these can include

Hard drive

RAM

CACHE

Registers

Instruction register

In embedded application we have

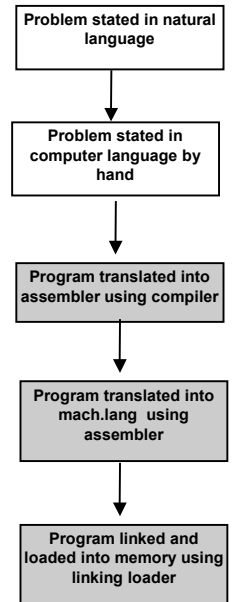
ROM

RAM

CACHE

Registers

Instruction register



Adding these we come up with

We have now seen how to take problem

Expressed in natural language

Turn into something that can be solved by computer

Throughout remainder of quarter

Will examine all steps in greater detail

Embedded Systems – A Firmware View

Generally we write embedded system program

High level language

C, C++

Assembly language

For the machine on which we're working

Sometimes we write combination

Done when portions of programs

Optimized for

Speed

Size

When working with assembly language

We work directly with microprocessor's

Various registers

Consequently

Must have knowledge of machine's architecture

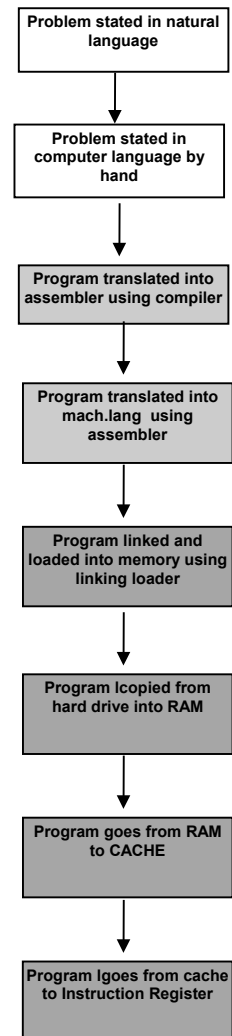
Assembly language instructions

Translated into *machine code*

By assembler

Machine code reflects binary encoding

Machine's instructions



Anatomy of a Machine Instruction

At highest level machine instruction

Machine instruction contains following information

Operation the instruction is to perform

Referred to as *operation code*

Shortened to *op-code*

Operand information

Operands are pieces of data the

Microprocessor is operating on

Typical machines support instructions

Involve

One, two, or three operands

Known as

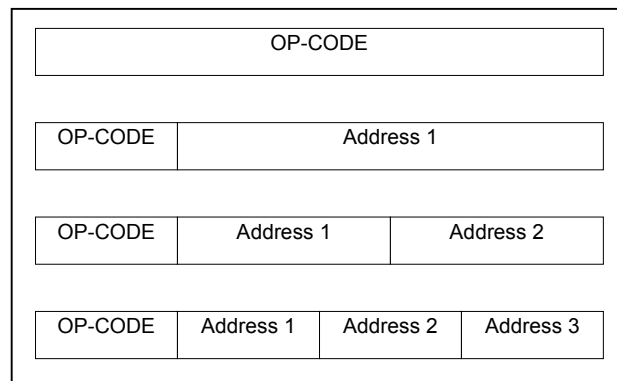
One, two, or three operand instructions

Each such operand has an address

Consequently also known as

One, two, or three address instructions

We depict these graphically as shown



Observe that we have one instruction

With no apparent address

Such instructions support actions such as

NOP – no operation

HALT – stop executing

Referred to as zero address instructions

Remaining instructions interpret addresses as

- Source of operand
- Destination of result

<i>Code Fragment</i>	<i>Operand 1 (Source 1)</i>	<i>Operand 2 (Source 2)</i>	<i>Result (Destination)</i>	<i>Type</i>
int a = 10; int b = 20; int c; c = a + b;	a	b	c	3 address
int a = 10; int b = 20; b = a + b;	a	b	b	2 address
a = ~a	a			1 address

To support full address of operand

- Address fields of instruction must necessarily
 - Be very large
- For 16 bit machine
 - Support for 3 address instruction would necessitate
 - 48 bits for address
 - op-code bits

- While certainly feasible
 - Alternate schemes possible
 - Driven by need for speed
 - Flexibility
 - Interpretation of address at
 - Compile time vs. runtime

Alternate interpretation for bits in address fields

- Provides for speed and flexibility

- Designate subset of bits as address mode
- Let remainder specify address

Addressing Modes

Commonly implemented addressing modes include

- Immediate

Operand is part of instruction

```
LOADI R1, #FACEh;    // put hex constant FACE into register R1
```

- Register direct

Named registers contain operand

```
ADD R1, R2;           // add contents of R1 to contents of R2 and put result  
                      // into R1
```

- Register indirect

Named register contains address of operand

```
ADD R1, *R2;          // add contents of R1 to contents of what R2 is  
                      // pointing at and put result into R1
```

- Indexed

Address computed as sum of

Base address

Contents of indexing register

```
ADD R1, 1800(R2);     // add contents of R1 to contents of memory location  
                      // 1800 + contents of R2 and put result into R1
```

- PC relative

Signed offset added to PC

Becomes address of next instruction

```
BR -10;               // add -10 to contents of PC go to that location
```

Different vendors implement

Addressing modes in different ways

May have variations on fundamental scheme

Flow of Control

We can now use various addressing schemes

To alter the flow of control through program

Let's look at alternatives at high level first

High Level View

We have 4 basic ways we can proceed through program

Sequential

Each instruction executed in sequence

Branch

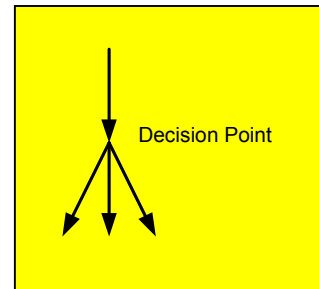
Select one of several branches based upon condition

Graphically

Type of construct seen in

if else

switch or case



Loop

Repeatedly execute set of instructions

Forever

Until some condition met

Can make decision

Before

Code may not be executed

After loop

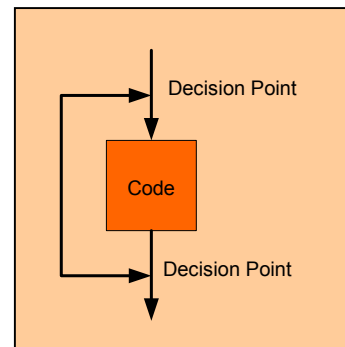
Code executed at least once

Type of construct seen in

do or repeat

while

for

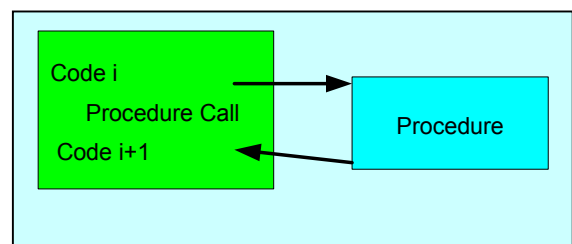


Procedure or Function Call

Leave current context

Execute set of instructions

Return to context



Type of construct seen for
Procedure or subroutine call
Interrupt handler
Co-routine

Implementation

Let's now look at the assembly language level

Sequential

```
a = 10;  
b = 20;  
c = a + b;
```

```
LD R1, 10      // puts 10 into R1  
LD R2, 20      // puts 20 into R2  
add R3, R1, R2 // computes R1 + R2 and puts result into R3
```

Branch

if - else construct

```
if (a == b)  
    c = d + e;  
else  
    c = d - e;
```

Assume a .. e in registers R1..R5

```
CMP R2, R1      // test if contents of R1 and R2 equal  
JE $1           // if equal branch to $1  
  
                // $1 is a label created by compiler  
SUB R3, R4, R5  // compute d - e and put results in c  
BR $2           // $2 is label created by compiler  
$1: ADD R3, R4, R5 // compute d - e and put results in c  
$2: ...
```

Loop

```
while (a < 10)
{
    i = i + 2;
    a++;
}
```

Assume a in R2 and i in R3

```
$1: CMP R2, 10      // test if R2 < 10
    JGE $2          // if R2 greater than or equal 10 branch to $2
    ADD R3, 2        // compute i + 2 put result in i
    ADD R2, 1        // auto increment a note an int is 4 bytes
    j $1             // continue looping
$2: ....
```

Procedure Call

Most complex of flow of control constructs

Not more difficult

More involved

Will include

Procedures

Subroutines

Co-routines

Process

We'll consider from high level

Program loaded at address 3000

Code executed until address 3053

Procedure encountered

1. Save return address

Several important things to note

Address saved is 3057

Stack gets

3000 Code
3053 Procedure Call F1
3054 More Code

5000 F1
 Procedure Code
5053 Return

Return address

Parameters

2. Address of procedure 5000 put into PC
3. Instruction at 5000 begins executing
4. Execution continues until 5053
5. Return encountered

Action similar to call

Stack gets

Return values

Stack loses

Return address

6. Return Address put into PC
7. Execution continues at 3057

Had procedure call been encountered in procedure F1

Identical process repeated

Can be repeated multiple times

Must be aware that stack can overflow

If too much pushed on

Begin to lose information

Particularly return address

Stack

Stack data structure

Occupies an area in memory

Has finite size and several operations

Push

Puts something onto top of stack

Top of stack is special value

Saved for ongoing operations

Push operation

Writes something to memory

Increments address of top of stack

Ready for next push

For ease of implementation

Stack typically implemented from

Lower memory addresses to higher memory addresses

Pop

Takes something off the top of stack

Pop operation

Removes something from top of stack by

Decrementing top of stack

Returning previous top of stack

Peek

Looks at something on the top of stack

Peek operation

Returns something from top of stack by

Does not decrement top of stack

Stack Frame

Item being pushed onto or popped from stack

Data structure called stack frame

Special area set aside in memory for such purpose

Will not go into details at moment of

Implementation

Handling

Sufficient to say

Contains

- Return address
- From calling context
 - Register values
 - Local variables
 - Passed parameters
- From return context

Values to be returned

Management

Created when procedure called

Pointer

To stack frame returned

Pointer placed on stack

Expanding Op-Codes

In discussion above

We've assumed op-code field fixed

No reason for this to be the case

Consider high level strategy

Similar to encoding data for transmission

Make most frequently sent the simplest

At outset of design

Designers examine necessary capabilities for system

Entails identifying

What kinds of instructions to support

How many of each kind

Recall our earlier discussion

How many of each operand type

May need only few 1 address instructions

Many 2 address versions

Somewhat fewer 3 address implementations

Forcing all op-code fields to be same width

Wasteful

Consider logically subdividing op-code field

Into subfields

Devote portion to encoding intended operation

Let remainder distinguish amongst types

Now consider how we might interpret such a field

One possibility

Assume we need a large number of 2 address instructions

Let MSB distinguish between

Two address (operand) instruction

Not two address instruction

Second MSB or two MSBs

Distinguish amongst remaining types

Now we can specify

If two address instruction

Most significant m bits express op-code

If not two address instruction

Most significant k bits express op-code

As designers

We have perfect knowledge

What bits represent

How to interpret them

One Bus Architecture

Let's now take one step further and see how all this works

Inside the microprocessor

From name we see design has single bus

Made up of

- Data
- Address
- Control

Only one device can be driving the bus at any time

Multiple devices can be simultaneously listening

At top

Instruction Register - IR

Holds instructions fetched from memory

Program Counter

Identifies the next instruction to be fetched from memory

Registers R0 - R31

Hold information

Y, Z

Temporary registers

ALU

Arithmetic and Logical Unit

Does computation

Memory

Stores instructions and data

Memory Address Register - MAR

Holds address or instruction or data in memory

Memory Data Register - MDR

Holds data to be read from or written to memory

Instruction Execution Cycle

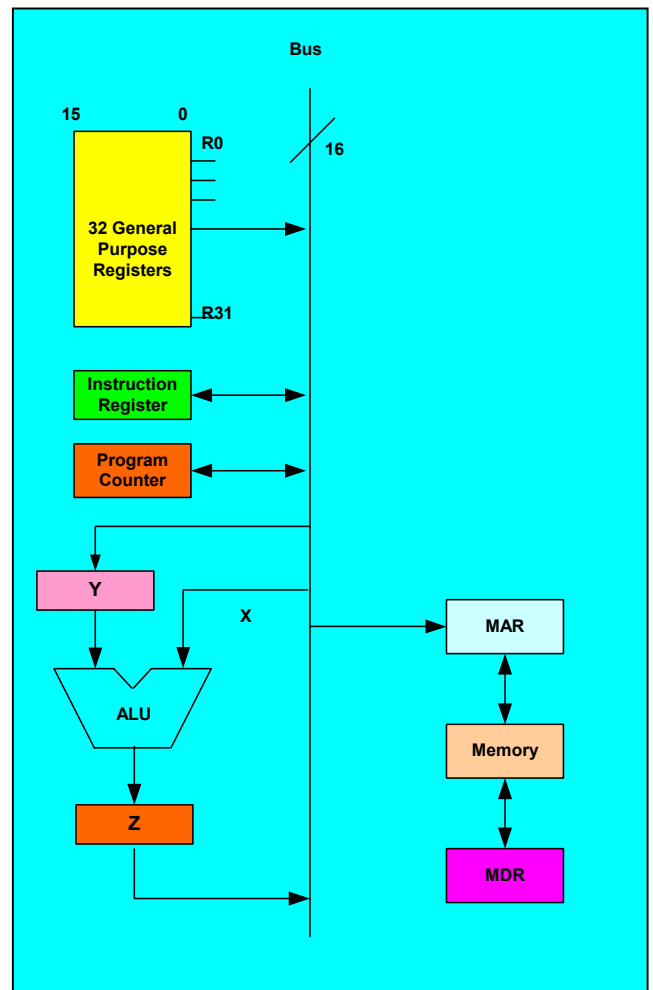
Instruction execution cycle comprised of 4 basic steps

Fetch Fetch instruction

Next Compute address of next instruction

Decode Decode current instruction

Execute Execute current instruction



Can describe according to following state diagram

Operation

Fetch

- Place address of instruction from PC onto Bus
- Store contents of BUS into MAR
- Issue a READ command
- Place contents of memory location into MDR
- Place MDR onto BUS
- Store contents of Bus into IR

Next

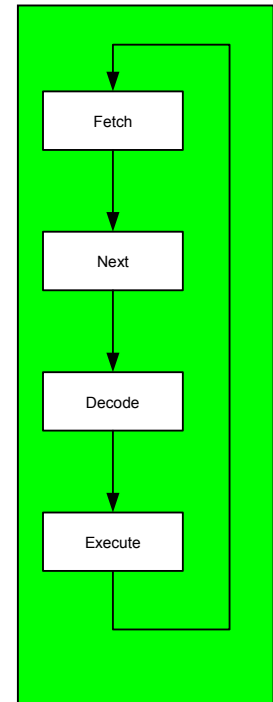
- Place contents of PC onto Bus
- Place 1 into Y register
- Add contents of Y and Bus in ALU
- Place output of ALU into Z register
- Place contents of Z register onto Bus
- Store contents of Bus into PC

Decode

- Decode OP Code field

Execute

- Do the sequence of steps to perform the instruction



Let's look at the sequence of operations necessary to execute a simple instruction

In assembler

ST *R1, R2

This is a move indirect instruction

- Use the contents of register R1 as an address in memory

- Read what's at that location in memory

- Place the value in R2

Recall the instruction cycle

- Fetch, Next, Decode, Execute

Let's assume we've done the fetch part and the instruction is in the IR

We now first walk through the sequence of operations

Note the control signals that are active at each step

We read / write from/to a register by

Selecting it

Issuing the Read / Write control signal

We assume all such actions are synchronized to the system clock

Next

Place 1 on input to Y register

Write to Y register

Read to PC register

Command ADD to ALU to Add contents of Y and Bus in ALU

Place output of ALU on input to Z register

Write to Z register

Read from Z register

Write to PC

Decode

Decode the opcode ST

Routed to collection of control logic called microprogram

Knows how to execute each assembler instruction

Execute

Read from R1 onto the Bus // Instruction contains adx of R1
// and info for indirect addressing

Write to MAR // Specified in microcode for ST

READ to memory

Wait

Write to MDR

Read from MDR

Write to R2 // Instruction contains adx of R2
// and info for direct addressing

Observe that we've indicated all actions happen in strict sequential order

In fact number of operations can be combined to happen at same time

Provided actions don't require same resource

- Cannot
Read from two different sources at same time
Both require bus
- Can
Write to two different destinations
Read from one and write to another

Summary

We've looked at

High level view of computing elements

Distinguished

- Microprocessors
- Microcomputers
- Microcontrollers

Introduced the concept of embedded systems

Taken an overview of such systems

Seen how time plays role in

Behaviour of such systems

Notions of

Soft real time

Hard real time

Explored system architecture

Distinguished

Hardware

Software

Firmware

Seen the embedded systems development cycle

Examined various views of embedded systems

Register view

Firmware view

Instruction formats

Addressing modes