

LECTURE SUMMARY

Introduction to Embedded Systems

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Definition

There is no fully rigorous 'mathematical' definition that cleanly separates everything that is an embedded system from everything that isn't. Instead, embedded systems exist on a spectrum. We can say that a system is *more embedded* or *less embedded* depending on how many of the typical properties of an embedded system apply to it. **Embedded Systems** are **computer systems** that tend to:

- be **integrated (embedded)** into a larger system, which they may control and/or provide information processing for.
- be **specialized** to provide exactly the functions they need to.
- be forced to work with **constraints** in time, memory, energy consumption, space, etc.

The term **Cyber-Physical System** generally refers to a larger system that combines computational elements with physical elements, with embedded systems generally being smaller components of such a system. Examples of Cyber-Physical Systems include **IoT** (Internet of Things) devices, **Ubiquitous Computing** devices, and **SCADA** (Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition) systems.

An embedded system generally consists of physical components such as sensors and actuators, computational components including memory and processors, and software. Since the computational components tend to work with digital representation of numbers, while the physical components work with analog voltages, additional conversion through A/D and D/A converters is needed.

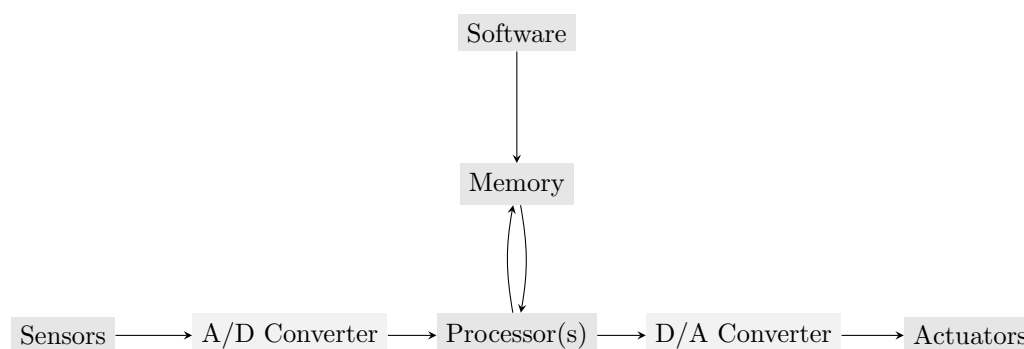


Figure 1.1: The structure of a typical embedded system.

Embedded systems have extremely widespread applications, especially in fields such as automotive and aerospace engineering and in medical technology.

1.2 Design

Embedded systems must be **dependable**:

- The **Availability** is the probability of the system working at time t .
- The **Reliability** of an embedded system is the probability of the system working correctly provided that it was working at time $t=0$.
- The **Maintainability** is the probability of the system working correctly at time $t+d$ after encountering an error at time t .
- Additional factors are **Safety** (How much harm could the system potentially cause?) and **Security** (How resistant to outside interference is the system?)

Since embedded systems are often employed in safety-critical roles, such as in the aforementioned aerospace industry, dependability is extremely important. For safety-critical systems, **redundancy** is generally a desired trait, so that if one component fails there are still other components to cover the same function.

Embedded systems also generally need to be efficient enough to meet constraints in:

- Energy consumption
- Physical Size
- Code Size
- Required Memory
- Runtime
- Weight
- Cost

Lastly, Embedded systems are typically **reactive systems**, meaning that they work through interacting with their environment at a pace dictated by that environment. This often also makes them **real-time systems**, meaning they need to meet real-time constraints - If a right answer arrives too late, it is just as bad as a wrong answer. If failure to meet a deadline results in catastrophe, that constraint is called a **hard constraint**. This means that worse average runtimes are acceptable, or even necessary, if it leads to a better worst case runtime.

Chapter 2

Specification

Design by Contract (**DbC**), also known as contract programming or simply as internal testing, is the idea that software designers should define precise, formal, verifiable specifications for the desired behaviour of their systems. These often extend the ordinary usage of abstract data types with the description of desired preconditions, postconditions and invariants. Testing can prove the presence of errors, but in order to prove the absence of errors, more complicated methods of Program and Hardware Verification are needed, which are not covered in this course.

Such specifications generally involve the **abstraction** of a given system in order to simplify its description, and hierarchical separation of the description, in order to make a description more easily digestible. We distinguish between two kinds of hierarchy:

- Behavioral hierarchy, which describes a systems behavior in terms of states, events, and output signals. Examples of concepts of "high level" behavioral hierarchy are interrupts and exceptions.
- Structural hierarchy, which describes how a system can be thought of as a collection of separate components: processors, actuators, sensors, etc.

Specifications generally need to describe a systems **Timing Behavior**, especially in the case of real-time systems. This involves specifying the elapsed time during execution of a given task, the delay between processes, Timeouts (maximum waiting times for a given event), and Deadlines.

It is helpful to model a system as a flow of states (**State-Oriented Behavior**). However, classical automata are often insufficient, since they don't model timing and don't support hierarchical description.

2.1 VHDL

VHDL is a **Hardware Description Language**, meaning that it describes digital circuits (instead of abstract algorithms).

VHDL code is split into **entities** and **architectures**. Entities describe ports, such as inputs (*in*), outputs (*out*), bi-directional ports (*inout*), and *buffers* (Output that the entity itself can read). An architecture defines the actual implementation of an entity - internal wiring, connection of signals, and assignment of values. For example, an OR gate could be implemented as:

```
entity orGate is
  port(a,b: in bit;
        c: out bit);
end orGate;
architecture arch1 of orGate is
begin
  c <= a or b;
end arch1;
```

or:

```

entity orGate is
    port(a,b: in bit;
          c: out bit);
end orGate;
architecture arch2 of orGate is
begin
    c <= 1 when (a = '1' or b = '1') else 0;
end arch2;

```

There may be several architectures for a single entity. By default, the most recently analyzed architecture is the one that ends up being used.

2.1.1 Testbenches

A testbench is a VHDL Design without inputs or outputs, designed to test another VHDL Design, generally through Port mapping and verifying that the entity produces the correct outputs for given inputs. For example, a test bench for our OR gate could be realized as:

```

entity testbench is
    --empty
end testbench;

architecture test of testbench is
    signal d,e,f: bit := '0'

begin
    or1: entity orGate port map (a=>d,b=>e,c=>f);
    d <= not d after 10 ns;
end;

```

The **port map** maps the signals d, e, f in the software to the ports a, b, c in the hardware. It is also possible to use positional association instead of explicit association, which means simply writing

```

architecture test of testbench is
    signal d,e,f: bit := '0'

begin
    or1: entity orGate port map (d,e,f);
    d <= not d after 10 ns;
end;

```

after which the compiler will assign the ports based on the order of the signals in the port map. It is however good practice to always use explicit association.

2.1.2 A Full Adder in VHDL

```

entity fullAdder is
    port(a,b,cin: in bit;
          sum,cout: out bit);

end fullAdder;

```

Dataflow description of the architecture:

```

architecture dataflow of fullAdder is
begin
    sum <= (a xor b) xor cin;
    cout <= (a and b) or (a and cin) or (b and cin);
end dataflow;

```

Components are entities used within a **structural definition** of an architecture, where a new architecture is defined as an interconnected circuit of already known smaller components. They are defined either via component and signal binding or via entity instantiation. For example, a fully structural definition of a full adder would be something like:

```
entity FULLADDER is
  port (A,B, CARRY_IN : in bit;
        SUM, CARRY    : out bit);
end FULLADDER;

architecture STRUCT of FULLADDER is
  component HALFADDER
    port (A, B      : in  bit;
          SUM, CARRY : out bit);
  end component;

  component ORGATE
    port (A, B : in  bit;
          RES  : out bit);
  end component;
  signal W_SUM, W_CARRY1, W_CARRY2 : bit;

begin

  MODULE1 : HALFADDER
    port map(A, B, W_SUM, W_CARRY1);

  MODULE2 : HALFADDER
    port map (W_SUM, CARRY_IN,
              SUM, W_CARRY2);

  MODULE3 : ORGATE
    port map (W_CARRY2, W_CARRY1, CARRY);

end STRUCT;
```

2.1.3 Data Types in VHDL

Standard data types:

bit	0,1
boolean	true,false
character	most ASCII characters
integer	$-2^{31}-1, \dots, 2^{31}-1$
real	$-1.7e38, \dots, 1.7e48$
time	1fs, ..., 1hr

Users can also define their own datatypes, either as integer types:

```
--64 bits
type small is range 0 to 63;

--32 bits
type result32 is range 31 downto 0;

--16 bits
subtype result16 is result32 range 15 downto 0;

or as enumeration types:
```

```
type state is (idle,start,stop);
type hexDigits is ('0', {...} , '9', 'A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'E', 'F')
```

std_logic

In realistic circuits, voltages may come in many forms not accurately described as simple boolean variables / bits. To model these, the datatype `std_logic` is used, which contains signal types such as:

0,1	"Ground" and "High" Voltages
U	uninitialized
X	unknown, impossible to determine (generally a short circuit)
Z	high impedance (circuit connected to neither ground nor voltage)
H	weak drive, logic one (i.e. voltage behind resistor)
L	weak drive, logic zero
W	weak drive, undefined logic value
-	don't care

Priority-wise, in logical operations, we have $X > 0|1 > W > L||H > Z$.

Arrays and Vectors

```
type intArray is array (15 downto 0) of integer;
type bitArray is array (0 to 7) of bit;
type myMatrix is array (1 to 3, 1 to 3) of std_logic;
subtype myVector4 is std_logic_vector(3 downto 0);
```

2.1.4 Operators

No.	Type	Examples
7	Other Operators	<code>abs</code> , <code>not</code> (Negation of bits), <code>**</code> (exponentiation)
6	Multiplying Operators	<code>*</code> , <code>/</code> , <code>mod</code> , <code>rem</code> (remainder)
5	Unary Operators	<code>+</code> (identity), <code>-</code> (negation of a numeric type)
4	Addition Operators	<code>+</code> , <code>-</code> , <code>&</code> (vector concatenation)
3	Shift Operators	<code>sll</code> , <code>srl</code> , <code>sla</code> , <code>sra</code> , <code>rol</code> , <code>ror</code> ¹
2	Relational Operators	<code>=</code> , <code>/=</code> (not equal), <code><</code> , <code><=</code> , <code>></code> , <code>>=</code>
1	Logical Operators	<code>and</code> , <code>or</code> , <code>nand</code> , <code>nor</code> , <code>xor</code> , <code>xnor</code>

¹ - Shift operators ending in "l" are "logical", meaning vacated bits are filled with 0. Shift operators ending in "a" are "arithmetical", meaning vacated bits are filled with the value of the rightmost/leftmost bit. The operators "rol" and "ror" rotate the bits instead of shifting them.

Operators with higher numbers in this table take priority over operators with lower numbers.

2.1.5 Constants and Signals

Constants work as expected in a programming language:

```
constant PI: real := 3.1415;
constant PERIOD: time := 100ns;
type vecType is array (0 to 3) of integer;
constant VEC: vecType := (2,4,-1,7)
```

Signals represent a wire or register. They can be of any data type, can be declared in architectures only.


```

signal sum: std_logic;
signal clk: bit;
signal data: std_logic_vector(0 to 7) := "00X0X011";
signal value: integer range 16 to 31 := 17;

```

Signals assignments are performed **concurrently**, meaning that they are sequentially collected until the process is stopped, and then collectively performed in parallel after all processes are stopped.

Signals can be assigned with either an explicit user-defined time delay ("after 10ns", etc.), or with an implicit small delta delay:

```

sum <= (a xor b) after 2 ns; -- explicit delay
data(1) <= 'x'; -- implicit delay

```

Signal assignments can also include conditionals. This can be done using the when-else condition:

```

clk <= '0' after 5ns when clk = '1' else '1' after 7ns when clk = '0';
a <= "1000" when b = "00"
else "0100" when b = "01"
else "0010" when b = "10"
else "0001" when b = "11";

```

Or using the with-select condition:

```

with b select a <=
"1000" when "00",
"0100" when "01",
"0010" when "10",
"0001" when "11";

```

Neither of the two conditionals may be used inside a process. Within the finished hardware, conditions like this are realized using a multiplexer. Custom multiplexer code would look something like this:

```

entity mux is
port (i3, i2, i1, i0: in bit;
      sel: in bit_vector(1 downto 0);
      otp: out bit);
end;

architecture wSelect of mux is
begin
  with sel select
    otp <= i0 when "00",
    i1 when "01",
    i2 when "10",
    i3 when others;
end;

```

2.1.6 Variables

Variables work like variables in other programming languages. They store temporary values and are only usable in processes, procedures and functions. **Usage of them is not recommended in VHDL for synthesis.** Unlike signal assignments, variables assignments are performed sequentially as they are encountered in the code.

2.1.7 Processes

We've already seen two styles of modelling using VHDL: A Dataflow architecture uses concurrent signal assignment statements, while a structural architecture uses only component instantiation statements. We will now learn a third style: **Behavioural architecture**, which uses **process statements**. A process is simply a set of statements that are executed sequentially-ish:

```
signal clk : std_logic := '0';
clk_gen: process ( )
begin
  clk <= '0';
  wait for 10 ns;
  clk <= '1';
  wait for 10 ns;
end process;
```

VHDL supports four different types of wait statements:

- **wait on** waits until one of the given signals changes (e.g. `wait on a,b,c;`).
- **wait until** waits until the given condition is met (e.g. `wait until (clkEvent and clk = '1')`).
- **wait for** waits for a specified amount of time (e.g. `wait for 25 ns;`).
- **wait** waits indefinitely.

Only simple signal assignments are allowed inside a process. When a simulation starts, each process will be executed at least once. Afterwards, they will loop infinitely. If the process has a *sensitivity list*, a new iteration will occur whenever a signal from the sensitivity list changes:

```
entity DFF is
port (D, clk: in std_logic;
      Q: out std_logic);
end DFF;
architecture rtl of DFF is
begin
  p : process(clk) -- sensitivity list
  begin
    if (clk'event) and (clk='1') then
      Q <= D;
    end if;
  end process p;
end rtl;
```

Processes with sensitivity lists are equivalent to processes without a sensitivity loop that have **wait on** statements instead:

```
entity DFF is
port (D, clk: in std_logic;
      Q: out std_logic);
end DFF;
architecture rtl of DFF is
begin
  p : process
  begin
    if (clk'event) and (clk='1') then
      Q <= D;
    end if;
    wait on clk; -- equivalent wait statement
  end process p;
end rtl;
```

Processes are not allowed to have subprocesses. They always loop, and are often used to specify sequential hardware. Everything in VHDL is implicitly part of a "main" process.

2.1.8 Statements

`if`-Statements and `case`-Statements are comparable to `if`-Statements and `switch`-statements in other languages. Both of them can be nested. Conditions in `if`-Statements can be any boolean expression.

```
if a = b then
...
elseif a > b or a > c then
...
else
...
end if;

case a is
when "01" =>
...
when "10" =>
...
when others =>
...
end case;
```

Chapter 3

Hardware

Chapter 4

Software