
Chapter 9

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Overview

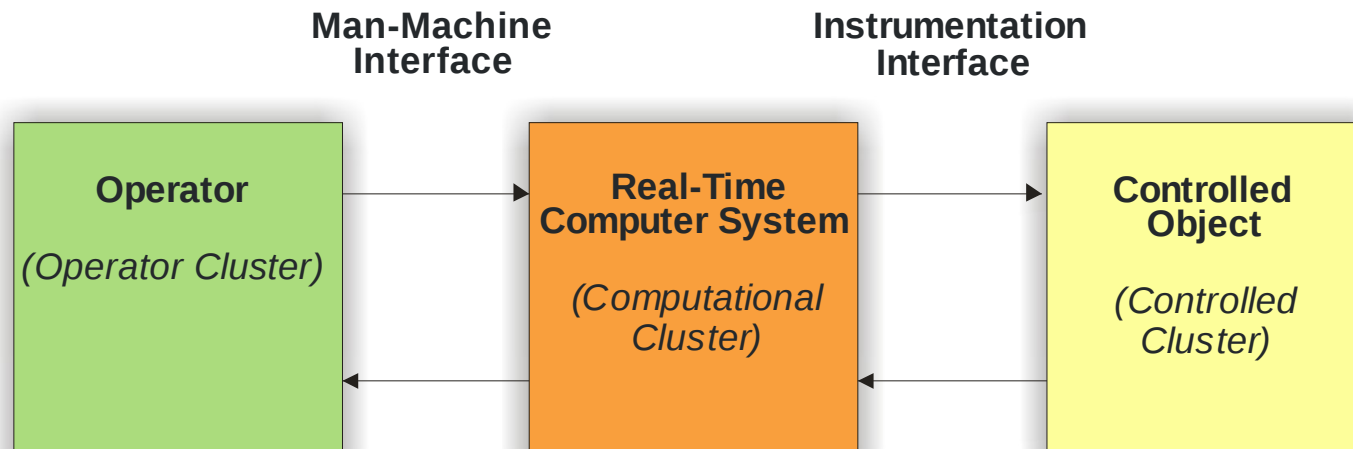
- The dual role of time: time as data and time as control
- The different types of I/O
- Sampling and polling
- Interrupts
- Sensors and actuators

9.1 Input/Output Architecture

9.1 Input/Output Architecture

The real-time computer system interfaces to the controlled object via the [instrumentation interface](#).

The real-time computer system interfaces to the operator via the [man-machine interface](#).



The computer system hardware interfaces to the other objects via [input/output devices](#).

Functional requirements for [input/output](#) devices are:

- [Buffering](#) of input and output data
- [Conversion](#) and transformation of data (e.g., serial/parallel, analogue, digital)
- Generation of [control](#)- and [handshaking signals](#)
- Picking up and generating [interrupt](#) signals

9.1 Input/Output Architecture

Input/output devices are

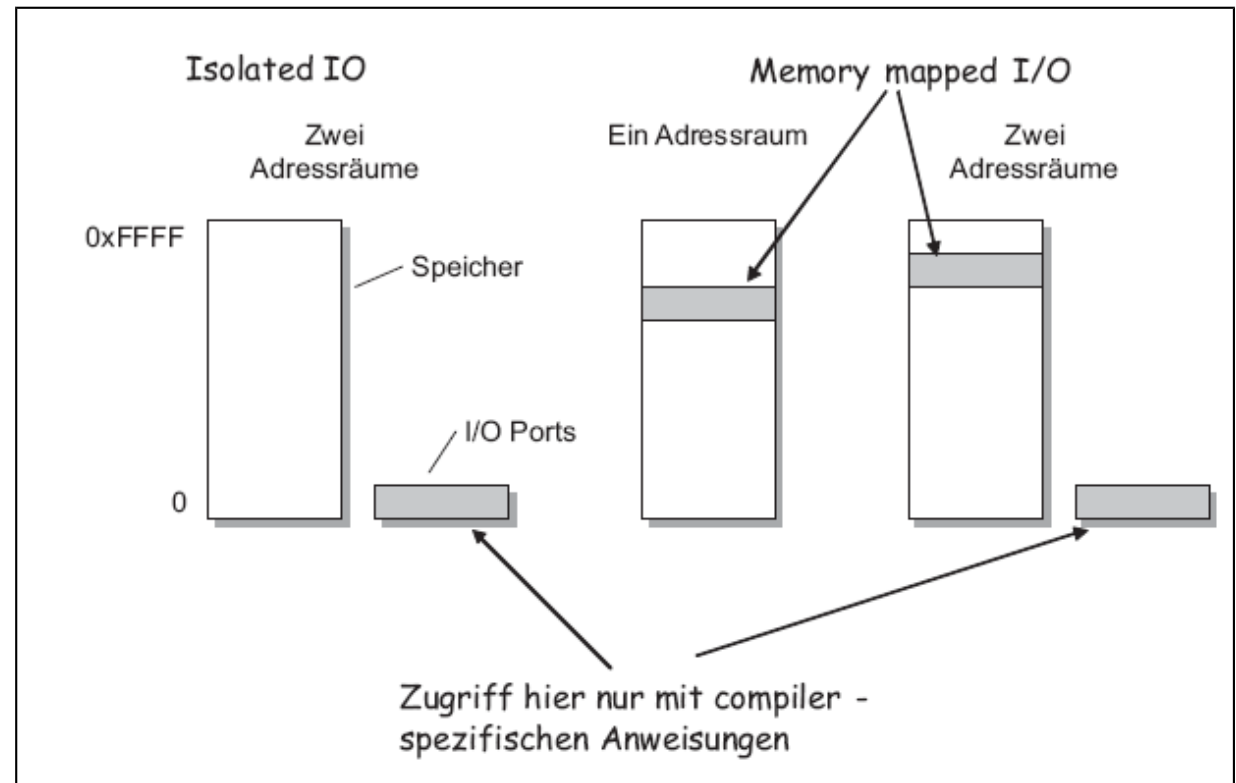
- Integrated in a microcontroller
- Placed on separate circuits (interface controller)

Input/output devices are connected to the computer system core via

- Memory mapped I/O
- Isolated I/O
- Direct Memory Access I/O (DMA)

We classify interfaces as

- **Simple interfaces** (a single register for input or output)
- **Complex interfaces** (input register, output register, status register, control register)
- **Intelligent interfaces** (with own microcomputer, programmable locally)



9.1 Input/Output Architecture

Interface Data Transfer Rates

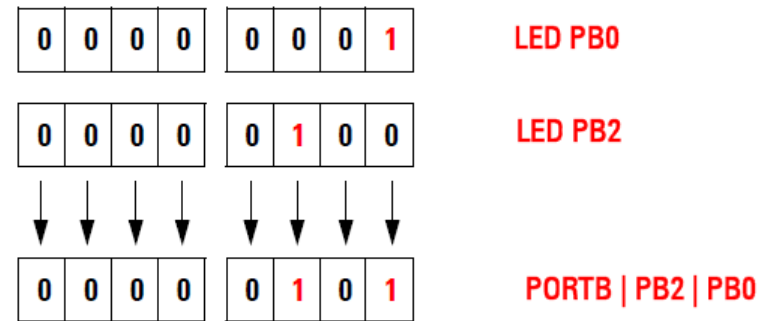
Interface	Data transfer rates
System bus	> 1 GBytes/sec
Byte move in memory	> 1 GByte/sec
Ethernet	> 10 MBytes/sec
ISDN phone line	8 kBytes/sec
Serial line (RS232)	1 kBytes/sec
Printer	100 bytes/sec
Keyboard	4 bytes/sec

Memory Mapped I/O and Bit Manipulations in the C Language

Example 1: **setting** bits on Port B of the Dragon 12 board (PB0 and PB2 are called “**mask**”):

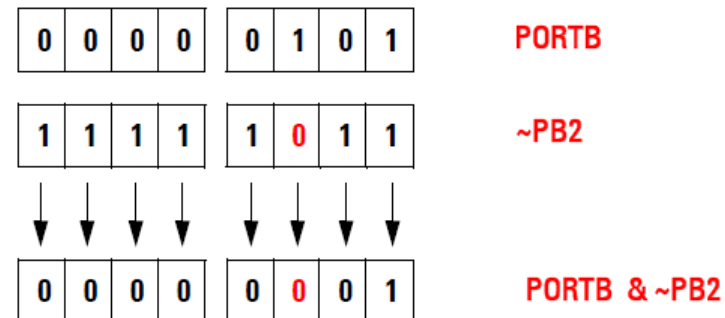
```
1 enum leds {PB0 = 0x01, PB1 = 0x02, PB2 = 0x04, PB3 = 0x08,  
2 PB4 = 0x10, PB5 = 0x20, PB6 = 0x40, PB7 = 0x80};  
3  
4 PORTB = PORTB | PB0 | PB2;
```

9.1 Input/Output Architecture



Example 2: **resetting** bits on Port B of the Dragon 12 board (PB2 is called a “**mask**”):

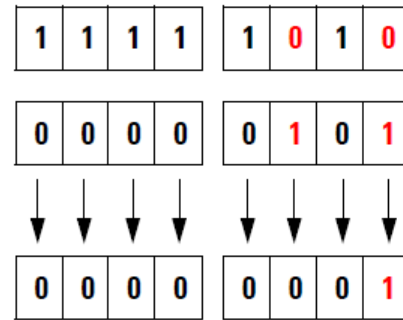
```
1 enum leds {PB0 = 0x01, PB1 = 0x02, PB2 = 0x04, PB3 = 0x08,
2 PB4 = 0x10, PB5 = 0x20, PB6 = 0x40, PB7 = 0x80};
3
4 PORTB = PORTB & ~PB2;
```



9.1 Input/Output Architecture

Example 3: **testing** bits on Port H of the Dragon 12 board (0x20 is called a “**mask**”):

```
1 enum switches {SW5 = 0x01, SW4 = 0x02, SW3 = 0x04, SW2 = 0x08};  
2  
3 if (~PTIH & SW5) { ... /* SW5 pressed */
```



PTIH mit SW5 und SW3 gedrückt

~PTIH mit SW5 und SW3 gedrückt

~PTIH & SW5

9.1 Input/Output Architecture

Isolated I/O on SICOMP Industrial PC

Separate I/O address space, in the following example ports 0x440 to 0x443:

Adresse Port 0x440

Bit 7	Bohrer hoch
Bit 6	Bohrer runter
Bit 5	Prüftstift ein
Bit 4	Prüftstift aus
Bit 3	Prüftstift hoch
Bit 2	Prüftstift runter
Bit 1	Sauger hoch
Bit 0	Sauger runter

Adresse Port 0x441

Bit 7	
Bit 6	
Bit 5	
Bit 4	
Bit 3	
Bit 2	Motor Bohrmaschine ein/aus
Bit 1	Motor Drehteller ein/aus
Bit 0	Sauger ein/aus

The following code fragment shows how to control these ports via a utility routine:

9.1 Input/Output Architecture

```
4 ...
5 /*-----*/
6 /* Digital Input/Output 24V AMS-P218 */
7 /*-----*/
8 #define P218_BASE 0x0440 /* base address */
9 #define P218_CHN0 0x0440 /* channel group 0 (output) */
10 #define P218_CHN1 0x0441 /* channel group 1 (output) */

11 unsigned char portWrite(unsigned int io_address,
12                          unsigned char outputValue,
13                          unsigned char mask) {
14 ...
15 unsigned char outv, x;
16 outv = outputValue & mask ;
17 x = inbyte (io_address); /* Requires special function, can only be
                           written in assembly language */

19 x = ( x & ~mask ) | outv ;
20 outbyte (io_address , x ) /* Requires special function, can only be
                           written in assembly language */

22 ret = inbyte (io_address) ;
23 return (ret);
24 }
25
```

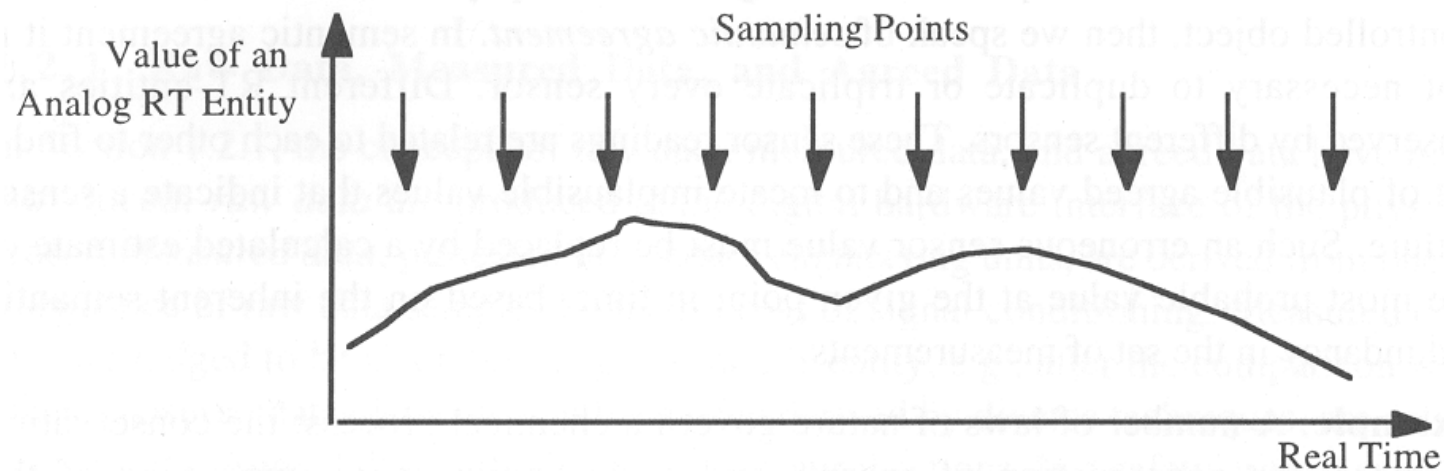
9.2 Sampling and Polling

9.2 Sampling and Polling

In **sampling**, the state of an RT entity is periodically interrogated by the computer system at points in time called **sampling points**. The constant **interval between sampling points** is called the **sampling interval**. The sampled signals are then quantized with approximations of the sampled real numbers at predetermined discrete values.

Sampling of Analog Values

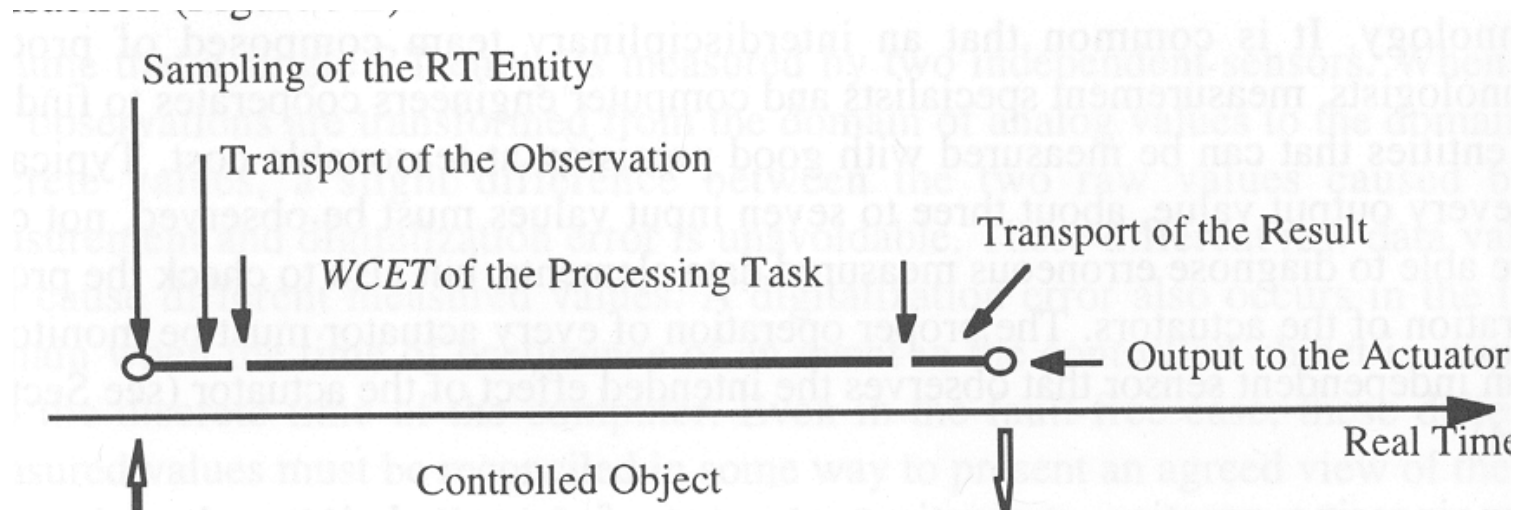
The most recent current value of an analog RT entity is observed at a moment **determined by the computer system**.



Discrete values signals are only an approximation of the continuous valued discrete time signals, which is itself only an approximation of the continuous valued continuous time signal.

9.2 Sampling and Polling

In a **time-triggered architecture**, the **sampling points** can be **coordinated** with the **transmission schedule** to generate phased-aligned transaction. This ensures the **shortest possible response time**.



Sampling of Digital Values

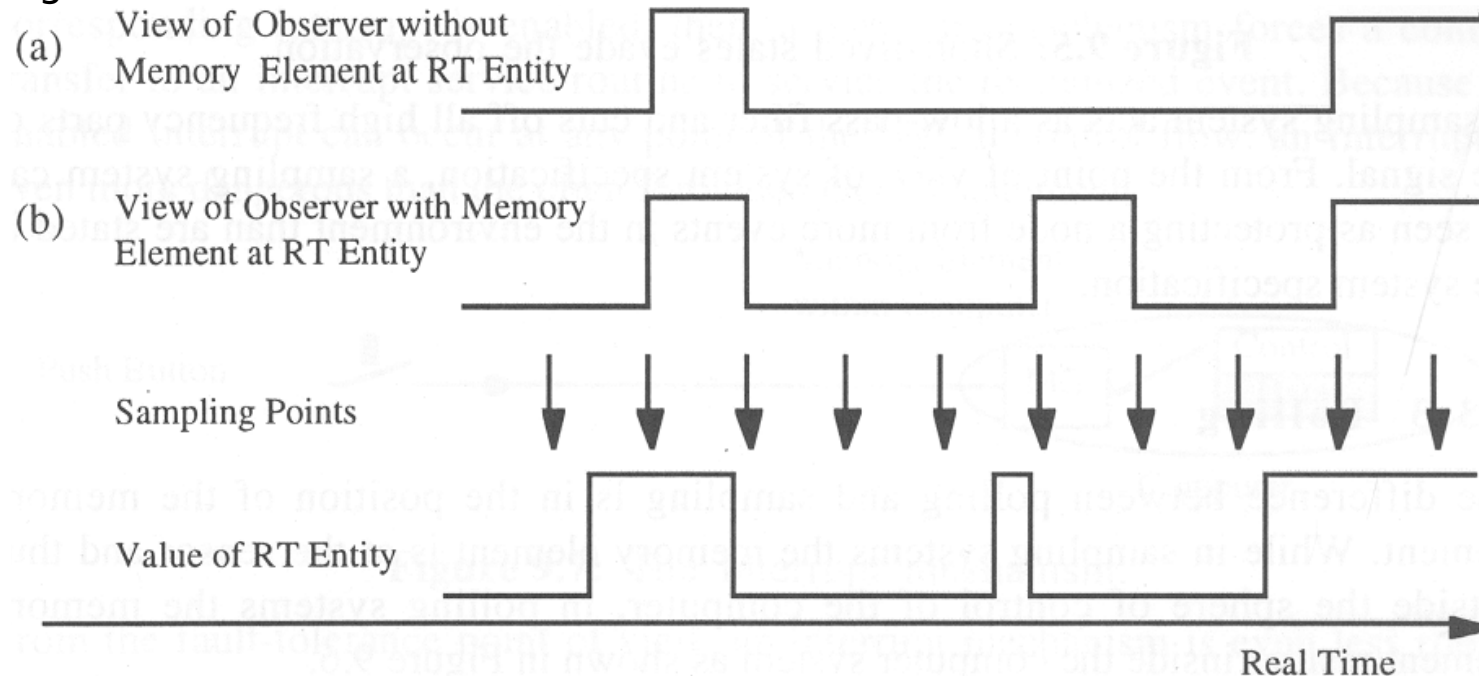
When **sampling a digital value**, the **current state** and the **temporal position of the most recent state change** are of interest.

The current state is observed at the sampling point.

The temporal position of the most recent state change can only be **inferred** by comparing the **current observation** with the **most recent observation**.

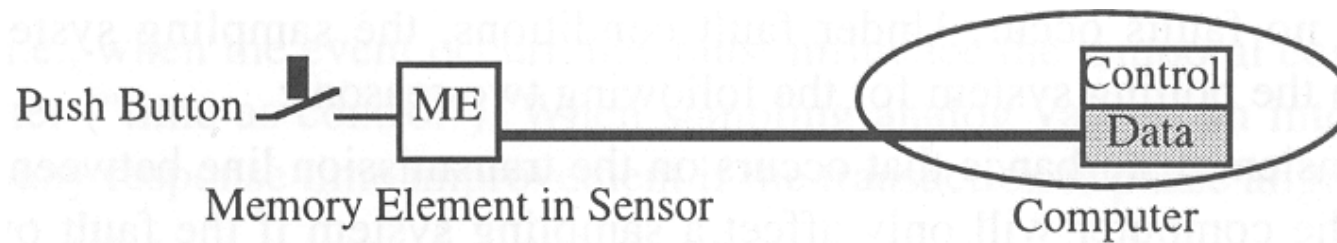
9.2 Sampling and Polling

This can lead to problems when the state of the RT entity can change more than once during the sampling interval.

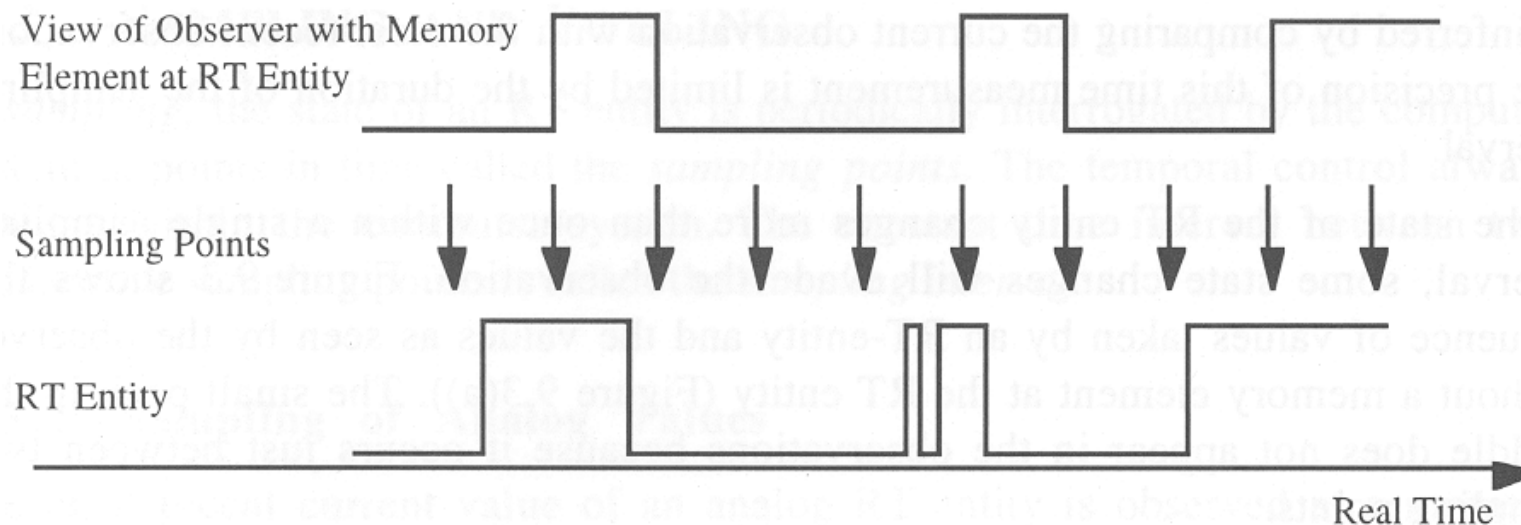


If every event is significant, a **memory element** must be inserted directly at the RT entity. This memory element **stores** any **state change** until the next sampling point.

9.2 Sampling and Polling



This does not solve all problems:



A **sampling system** acts as a **low pass filter** and cuts off all high frequency parts of the signal. A sampling system can **protect** a computer system from **more events** than are stated in the specification.

Polling

9.2 Sampling and Polling

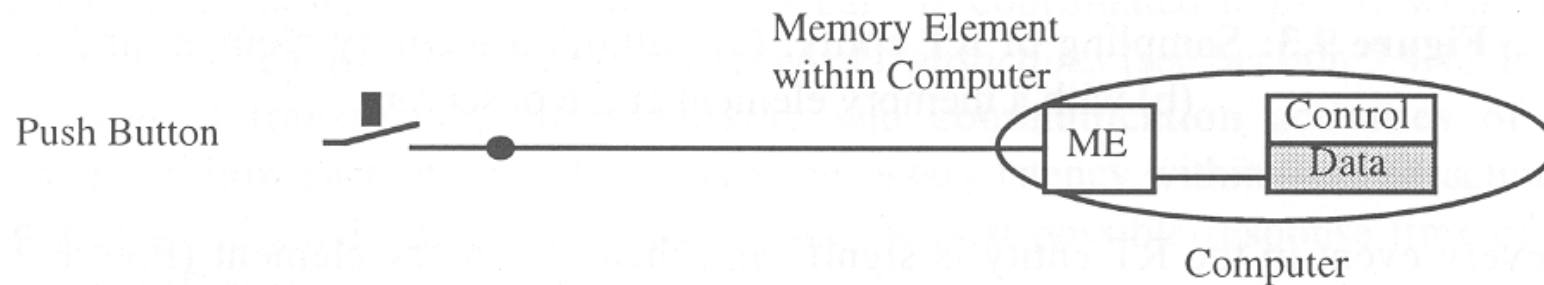
In a **sampling** system the **memory element** is **placed at the sensor**.
In a **polling system** the **memory element** is **placed at the computer**.

Functionally this makes no difference as long as there are no faults.

9.2 Sampling and Polling

We consider two faults:

- A **transient disturbance** on the transmission line between the sensor and the computer has **no effect** on the measurement with a **sampling system**, unless it occurs directly at the sampling point (low probability of occurrence). In a **polling system** every single **fault** will be **stored** in the memory element.
- In case of a **node shutdown** and restart, all **data** from volatile memory is **lost** in a **polling system**. In a **sampling system** the stored **event** in the sensor can **survive** a computer reset.



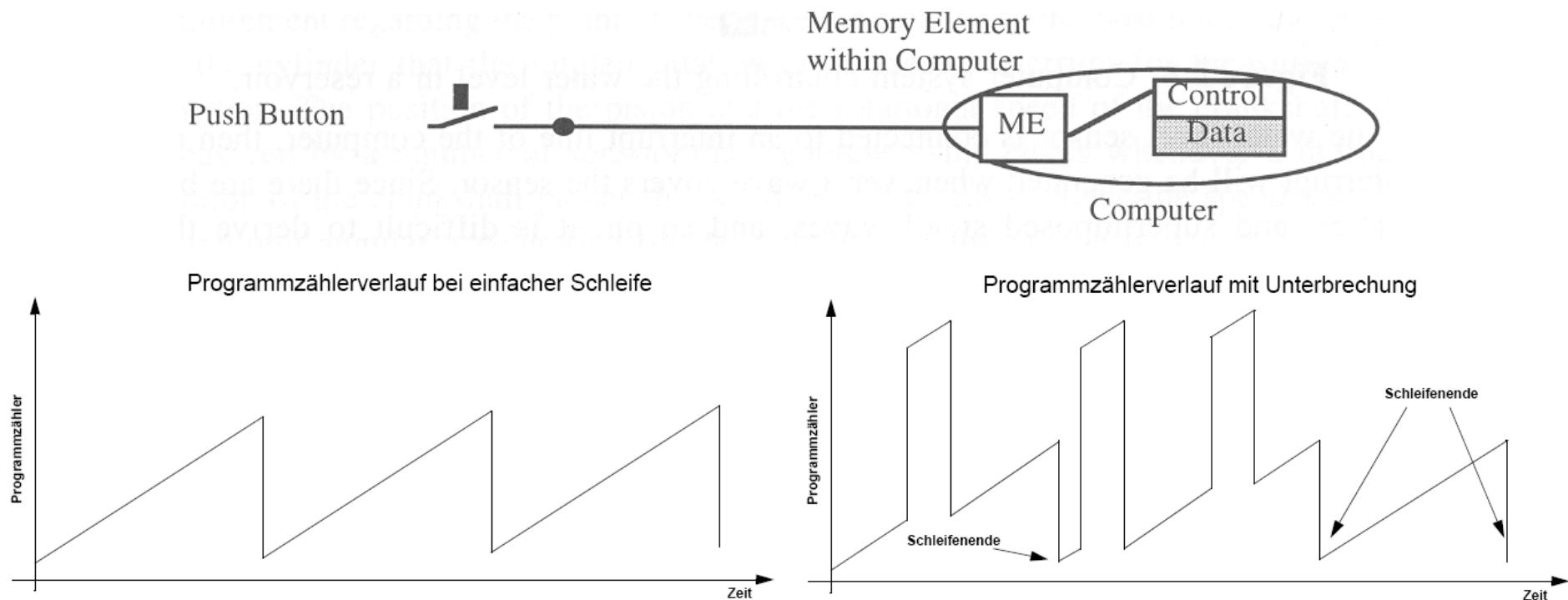
9.4 Sensors and Actuators

9.3 Interrupts

The **interrupt mechanism** permits a device outside the sphere of control of the computer to make the computer **execute** a specific **“Jump Subroutine”** instruction **any time** that interrupt is enabled.

The **flow of control** is thus **determined by** an **external device**.

The target of the “Jump Subroutine” is called an **Interrupt Service Routine (ISR)**. After the ISR has been executed, control is given back to the regular program flow.



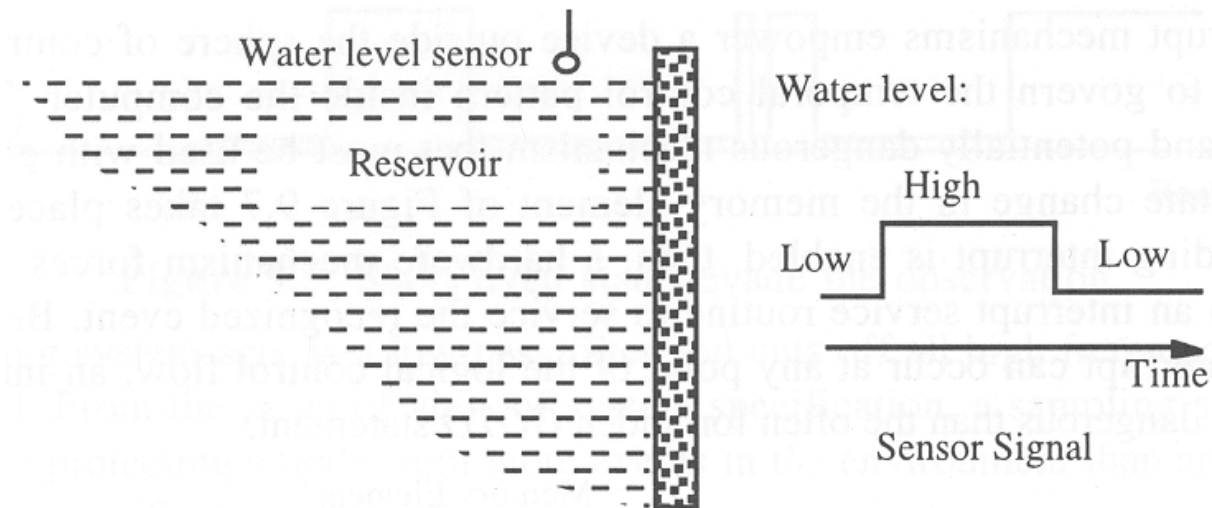
9.4 Sensors and Actuators

When Are Interrupts Needed?

Interrupts are needed when external events require short reaction times that cannot be efficiently met with a sampling implementation.

An alternative to interrupts are trigger tasks. The trigger task itself requires some time to run. As a rule of thumb, if the WCET of the trigger task is larger than 10 times the required response time, interrupts should be avoided.

Example 1:



An overflow valve is controlled by a computer and is to be opened when the water level reaches the high-level mark. When the sensor is connected to an interrupt line of the computer, small waves can produce high frequency interrupts.

Attaching the sensor to a digital input line, and sampling and filtering the values, would lead to a more robust behaviour.

Example 2: Bouncing switch

9.4 Sensors and Actuators

On our lab boards we have switches connected to digital input lines. When these switches are closed or opened, they “bounce”, i.e. oscillate for some time (typically a few ms up to 50 ms) rapidly between the “open” and “closed” state.

It would not be wise to connect such switches directly to an interrupt line.

Example: Implementing a 10 ms timer tick

This is the interrupt service routine for the ticker:

```
1  /*
2   * Interrupt service routine for timer channel 4
3   *
4   */
5  interrupt 12 void isr_tc4(void) {
6
7   /* increment timer count register (16 bits) */
8   /* current count + increment = new count */
9   TC4 = TC4 + TENMS;
15  if ((void *) tickerFunctionPointer > NULL) {
16      tickerFunctionPointer();
17  }
18  /* clear the interrupt: write a 1 to bit 4 */
19  TFLG1 = TIMER_CH4;
20 }
```

9.4 Sensors and Actuators

This is the routine to initialize the hardware for the ticker:

```
1  /*
2   * Initialize the timer 4 hardware and interrupt
3   *
4   */
5  void initTicker(void) {
6
7      tickerFunctionPointer = 0;
8      ticks = 0;
9      /* Timer master ON switch */
10     TSCR1 = TIMER_ON;
11
12     /* Set channel 4 in "output compare" mode */
13     TIOS = TIOS | TIMER_CH4; /* bit 4 corresponds to channel 4 */
14
15     /* Enable channel 4 interrupt; bit 4 corresponds to channel 4 */
16     TIE = TIE | TIMER_CH4;
17
18     /* Set timer prescaler (bus clock : prescale factor) */
19     /* In our case: divide by 2^7 = 128. This gives a timer */
20     /* driver frequency of 187500 Hz or 5.3333 us time interval */
21     TSCR2 = (TSCR2 & 0xf8) | 0x07;
22
23     /* switch timer on */
24     TCTL1 = (TCTL1 & ~TCTL1_CH4) | TCTL1_CH4_DISCONNECT;
25 }
```

9.4 Sensors and Actuators

This is the main program:

```
#include <hides.h>           /* some macros and defines      */
#include <mc9s12dp256.h>      /* processor specific definitions */
#include "ticker.h"

void tickRoutine(void);

#pragma LINK_INFO DERIVATIVE "mc9s12dp256b"

static unsigned long cc = 0;

void main(void) {

    EnableInterrupts; /* We need this for the debugger */

    DDRB = 0xff;      /* Set PORTB to output */

    PORTB = 0x00;     /* Turn off all LEDs initially */

    initTicker();
    registerTickRoutine(&tickRoutine); /* Register callback routine */

    for(;;) {
        /* Just go crazy */
    }
}
```

9.4 Sensors and Actuators

This is the callback routine:

```
void tickRoutine(void) {  
    ++cc;  
    if (cc > 100) {  
        cc = 0;  
        PORTB = ~PORTB & 0x01;  
    }  
}
```

9.4 Sensors and Actuators

9.4 Sensors and Actuators

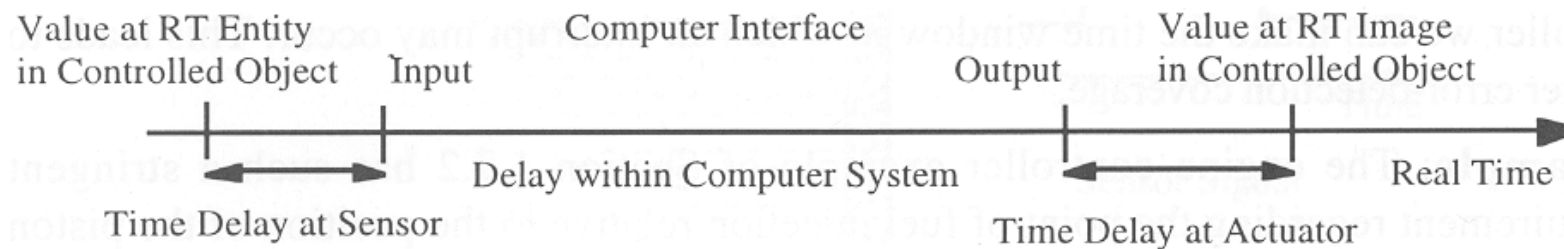
Controlled objects contain **transducers** (**sensors** and **actors**) that **measure RT entities**, or **accept RT images** from the controlling computer.

Analog input/output

Many **RT entities** are observed by sensors that produce **analog values**. A typical industry standard for analog value encoding is the **4-20 mA range** current encoding, 4 mA meaning 0% and 20 mA meaning 100% of the value. This scheme permits to detect broken wires (i.e. a current of 0 mA).

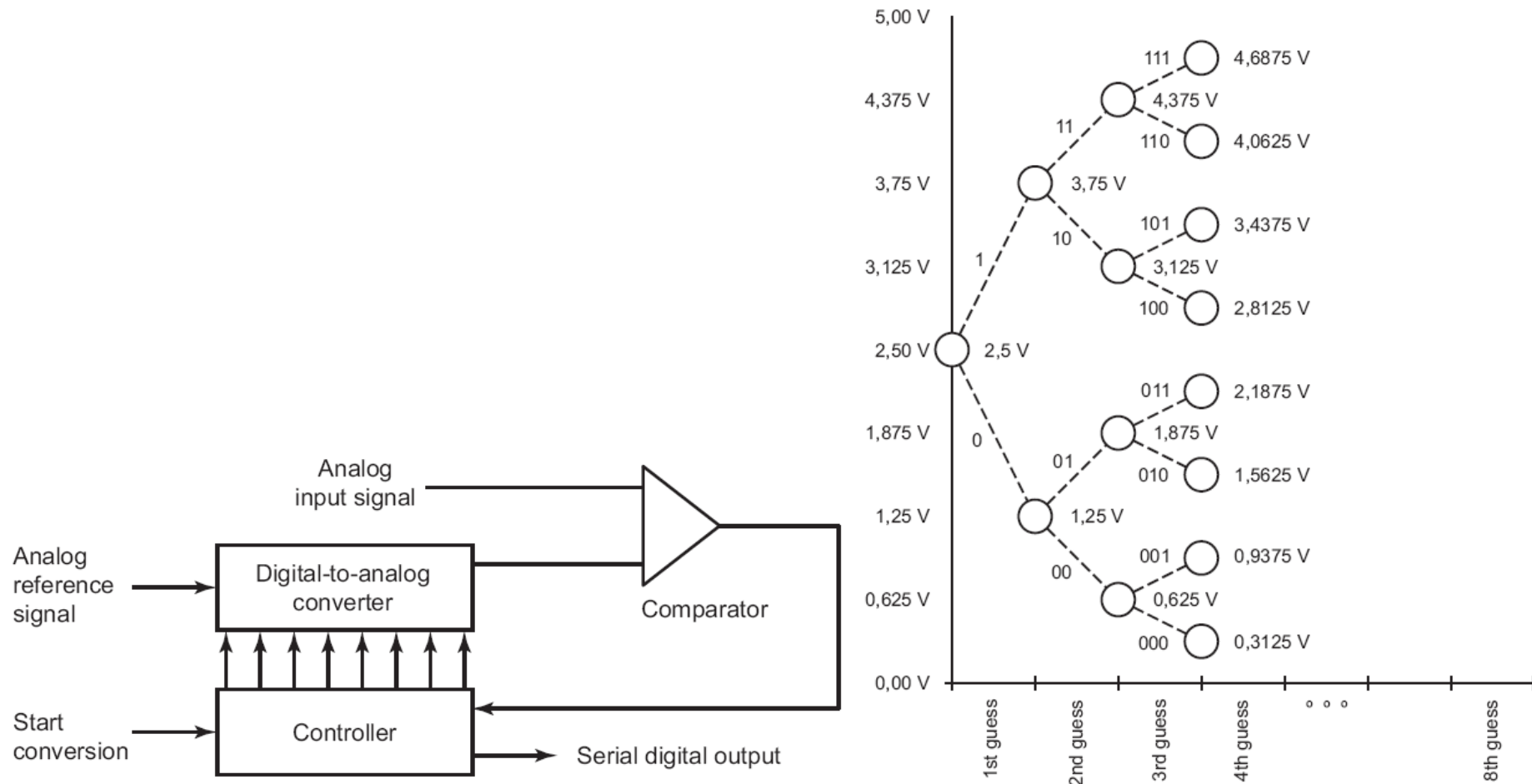
The accuracy of any analog control signal is limited by the electrical noise level, to about 0.1%, corresponding to an A/D converter resolution of about 11 bit (2^{-11}). Many microcontrollers have 10 bit A/D converters, and a 16-bit word is more than sufficient to encode analog values.

The time interval required for the transducer to present the value of an RT entity at the sensor/computer interface influences the temporal accuracy interval for that RT entity and its corresponding image. The smaller the time interval for the sensor, the more time remains for the computer to create a corresponding output action.



9.4 Sensors and Actuators

A commonly used strategy for fast A/D conversion is the [successive approximation](#) method.



This type of A/D converter can be found on the 68HCS12 microcontroller in the lab.

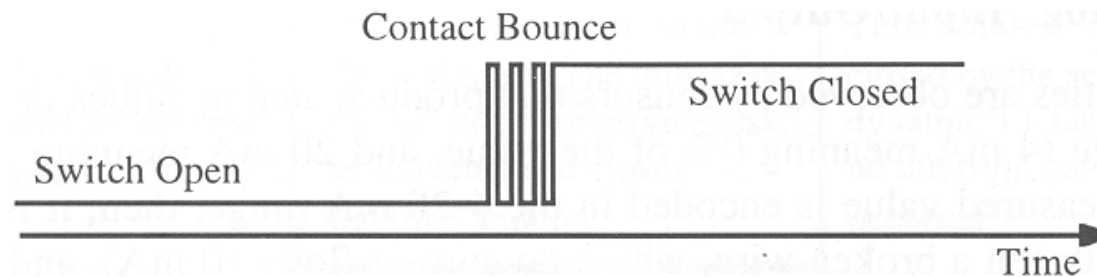
9.4 Sensors and Actuators

Digital Input/Output

A **digital I/O signal** transits between the two states “0” and “1” or “TRUE” and “FALSE”. Typical representations of “0” are 0 Volts, or open contact. Typical representations for “1” are 3.3, 5.0, or 24 Volts, or a closed contact.

In some applications not just the state itself is important, but also the **duration of that state** or the **moment when a state transition occurs**.

Mechanical contacts do not reach their new state immediately but only after a number of random oscillations (**contact bounce**) caused by the **mechanical vibrations** of the switch contact.



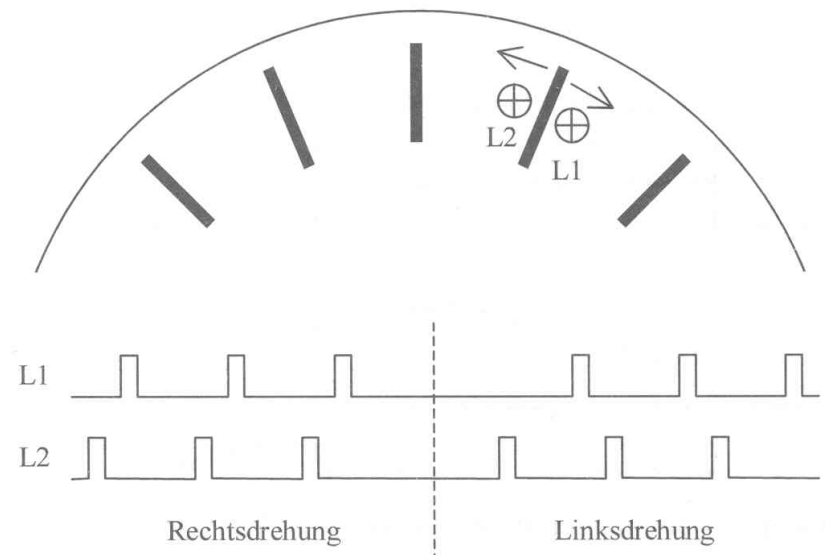
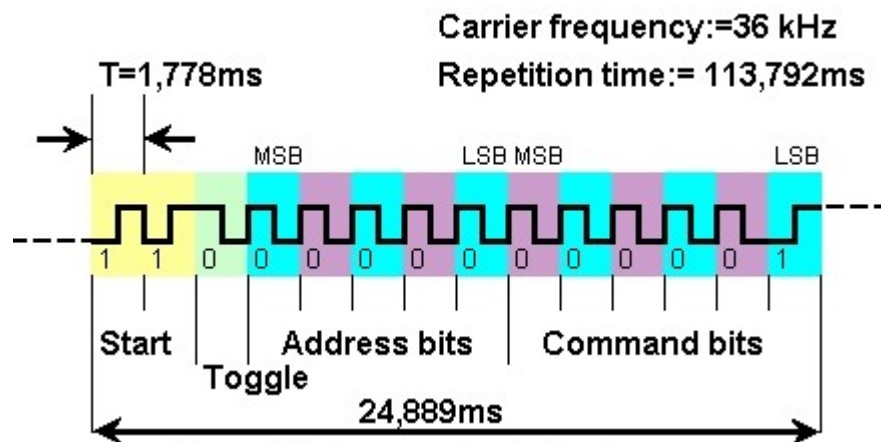
This contact bounce must be eliminated by either an electric low pass filter, or more commonly due to cost reasons, by appropriate debouncing routines in software.

Some sensors generate a sequence of pulses as outputs, where each pulse carries information about an event. Example: distance measurement using a wheel that generates pulses. The pulse frequency indicates the speed.

9.4 Sensors and Actuators

Time encoded signals: Many output devices are controlled by pulse sequences of well-specified shape (pulse width modulation-PWM). For example, a control signal for a stepping motor must adhere precisely to the temporal shape prescribed by the motor hardware supplier.

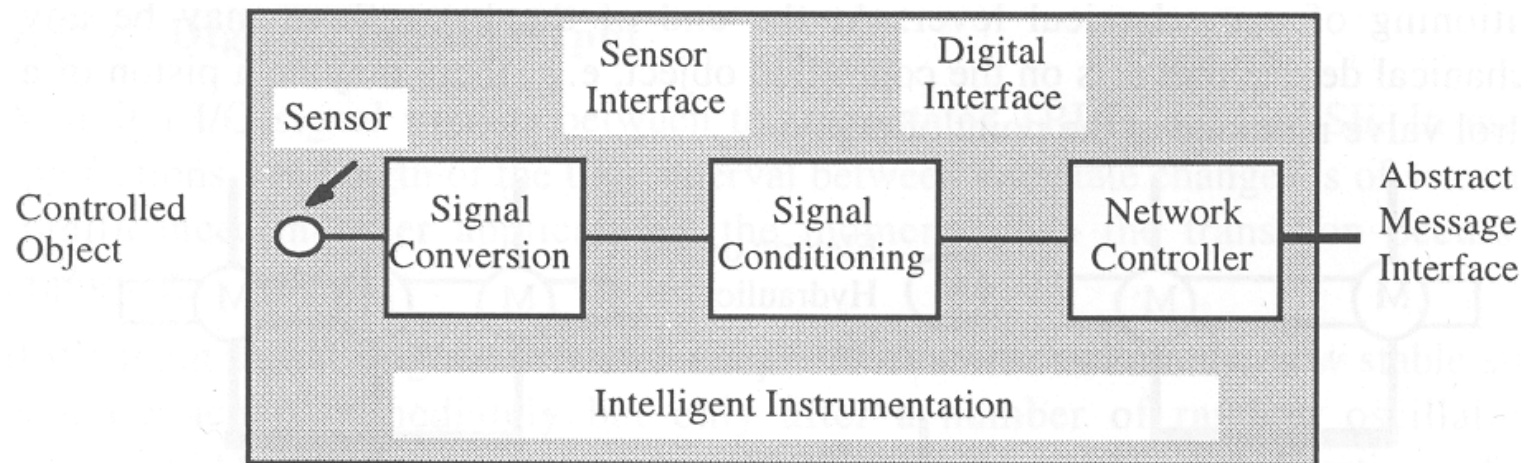
Another example is the encoding for remote controls, here the RC5 protocol from Philips for TV remote controls. A “1” is encoded as a low-high transition, a “0” as a high-low transition.



9.4 Sensors and Actuators

Intelligent Instrumentation

With decreasing silicon cost, there is a tendency towards **encapsulating sensors/actuators** and the **associated microcontroller** into a single physical housing to provide a standard abstract message interface. Such a unit is called an **intelligent instrument**.



The intelligent instrument hides the concrete sensor interface. Its microcontroller performs signal conditioning, signal smoothing, and local error detection.

Intelligent instruments simplify the connection of the plant equipment to the computer. To make a measured value fault-tolerant, a number of independent sensors can be packaged into a single intelligent instrument.

Examples: acceleration sensor, airbag actuator, have a look at <http://www.rn-wissen.de/index.php/Sensorarten>

Points to Remember

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