## Introduction to Embedded Systems

#### **Branden Ghena**

UC Berkeley EECS 149/249A Fall 2018

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**Chapter 9: Memory Architectures** 

#### Homework Announcement

Homework 1 is available on bcourses

It's due in one week on Thursday 9/6 at 11:59 PM

Remember

Homework is 15% of your final grade

And the best 6 out of the 7 homeworks are counted

#### **Outline**

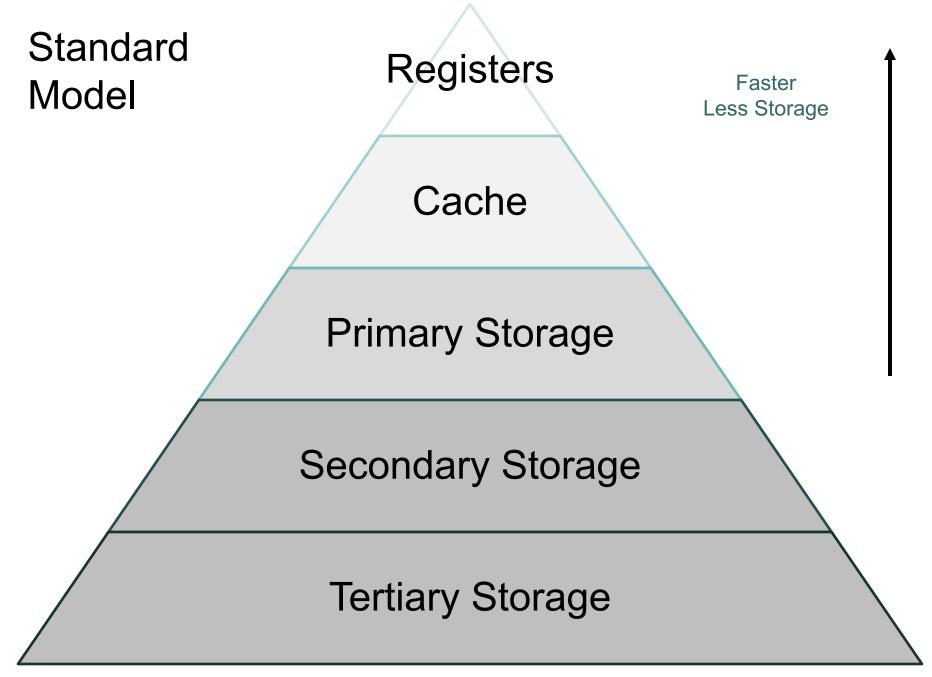
- Memory Hierarchy
  - Types of memory
- Using Memory
  - Caches
  - Memory Maps
  - Memory-mapped I/O
- Lab Hardware
  - nRF52832 example
- Software Organization of Memory
  - Stacks & Heaps
  - Code examples

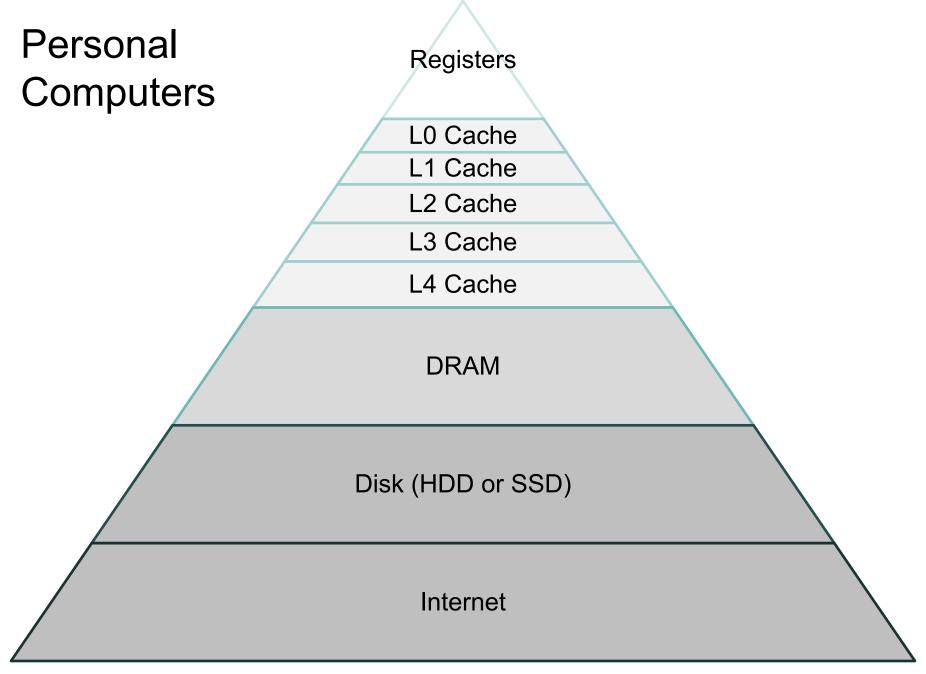
## MEMORY HIERARCHIES

#### Memory Hierarchy

- o Memories on a system can be arranged as a pyramid
  - Top is the most frequently used memory
  - Bottom is the least frequently used

- Let's draw the hierarchy pyramid
- o What are the capabilities and constraints as you move up and down the hierarchy?
- o How do we implement each of these categories?





# Microcontrollers Registers Cache SRAM Flash

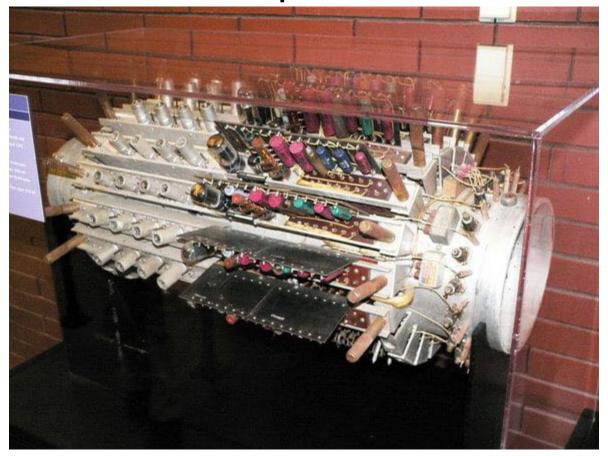
## **Memory Classes**

## Two major types

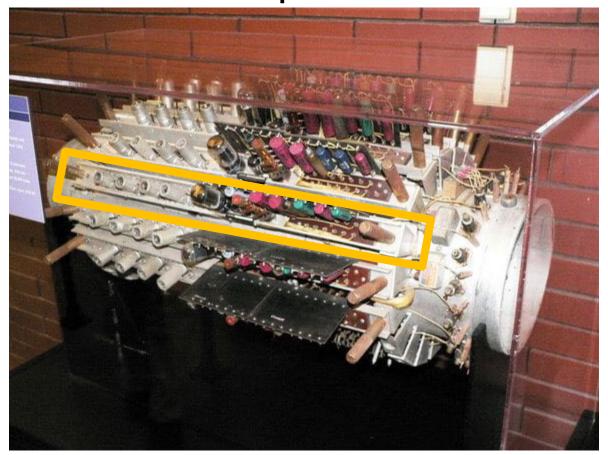
1. Memory which is temporary

2. Memory which is permanent

## Volatile Memory Loses contents when power is off.



## Volatile Memory Loses contents when power is off.



- Mercury Delay Line
  - 18-bit memory for UNIVAC

#### **Volatile Memory**

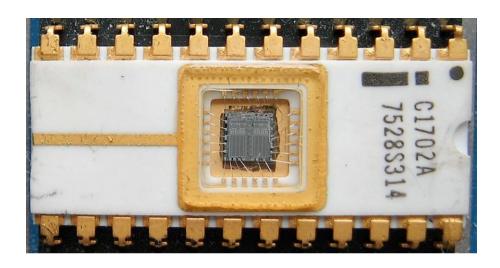
Loses contents when power is off.

- SRAM: static random-access memory
  - Fast, deterministic access time
  - But more power hungry and less dense than DRAM
  - Used for registers, caches, and small embedded memories
- DRAM: dynamic random-access memory
  - Slower than SRAM
  - Access time depends on the sequence of addresses
  - Denser than SRAM (higher capacity)
  - Requires periodic refresh (typically every 64 milliseconds)
  - Typically used for main memory

## Non-Volatile Memory

#### Preserves contents when power is off

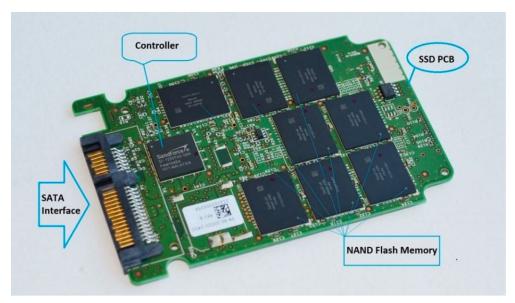
- EPROM: erasable programmable read only memory
  - Invented by Dov Frohman of Intel in 1971
  - Erase by exposing the chip to strong UV light
- EEPROM: electrically erasable programmable read-only memory
  - Invented by George Perlegos at Intel in 1978



#### Non-Volatile Memory

#### Preserves contents when power is off

- Flash memory
  - Invented by Dr. Fujio Masuoka at Toshiba around 1980
  - Erased a "block" at a time
  - Limited number of program/erase cycles (~100,000)
  - Controllers can get quite complex
- Disk drives
  - Not as well suited for embedded systems



#### Example:

Die of a STM32F103VGT6 ARM Cortex-M3 microcontroller with 1 megabyte flash memory by STMicroelectronics.

Which part is the memory?

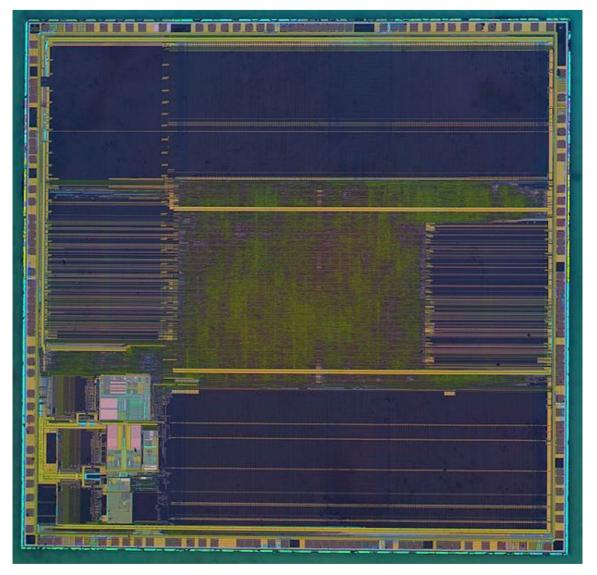
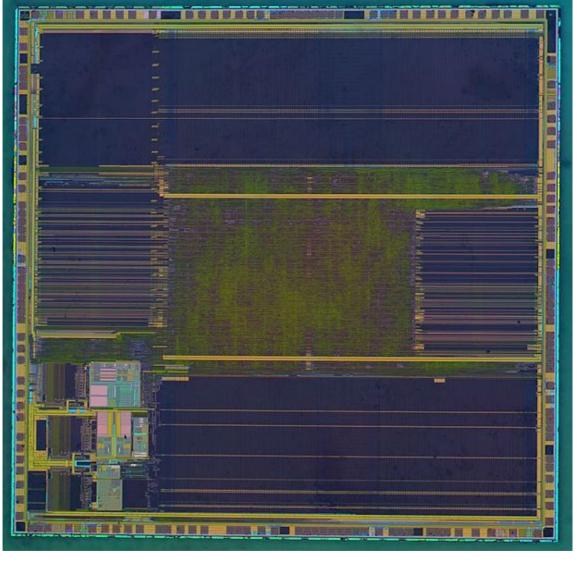


Image from Wikimedia Commons

#### Example:

Die of a STM32F103VGT6 ARM Cortex-M3 microcontroller with 1 megabyte flash memory by STMicroelectronics.



Which part is the memory?

Image from Wikimedia Commons

Just about everything but the bottom right corner

## **USING MEMORY**

## Registers

o How do we read or write to registers?

#### Registers

- o How do we read or write to registers?
  - Most assembly instructions!

```
MOV <Destination Register>, <Source Register>
MOV <Destination Register>, #<Literal>

ADD <Destination Register>, <Source 1>, <Source 2>
```

Registers don't have memory addresses

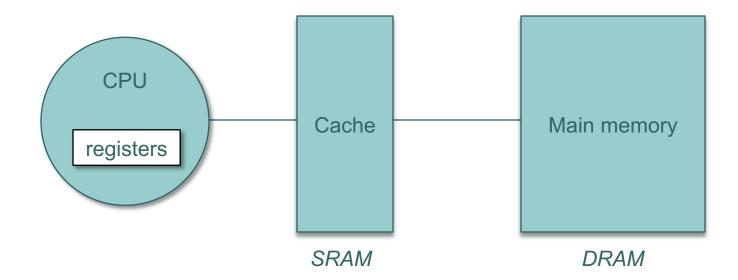
#### Caches

o How do we read or write to a cache?

#### Caches

- o How do we read or write to a cache?
  - You don't! Caches are automatic.

## Personal Computer Example



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A "set" consists of one "line"

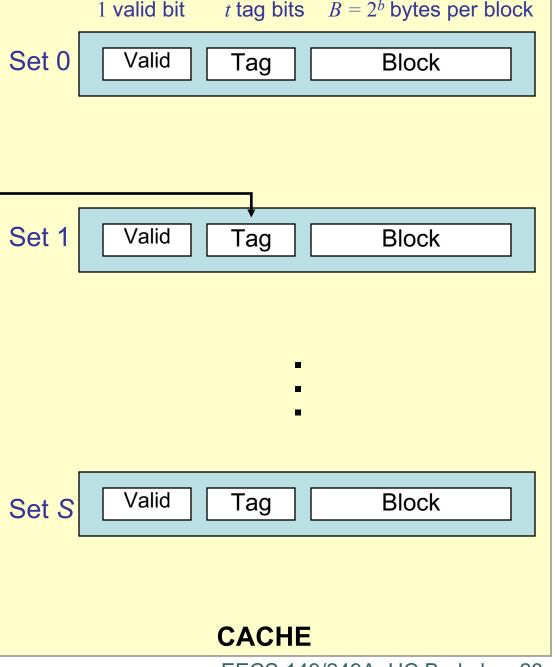
t bits s bits b bits

Tag Set index Block offset m-1

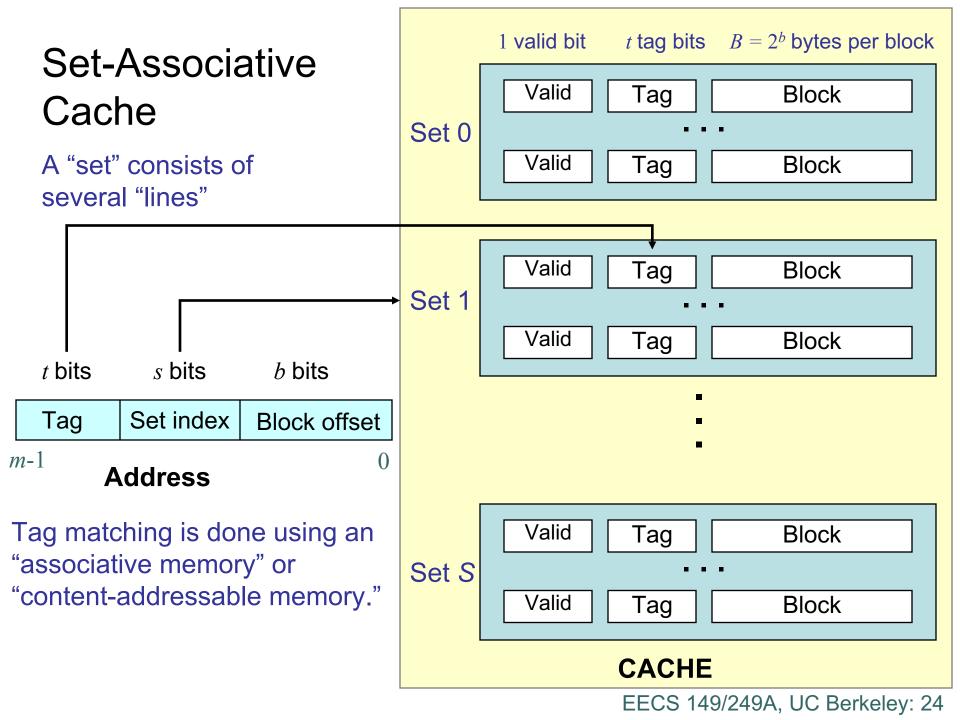
If the tag of the address matches the tag of the line, then we have a "cache hit."

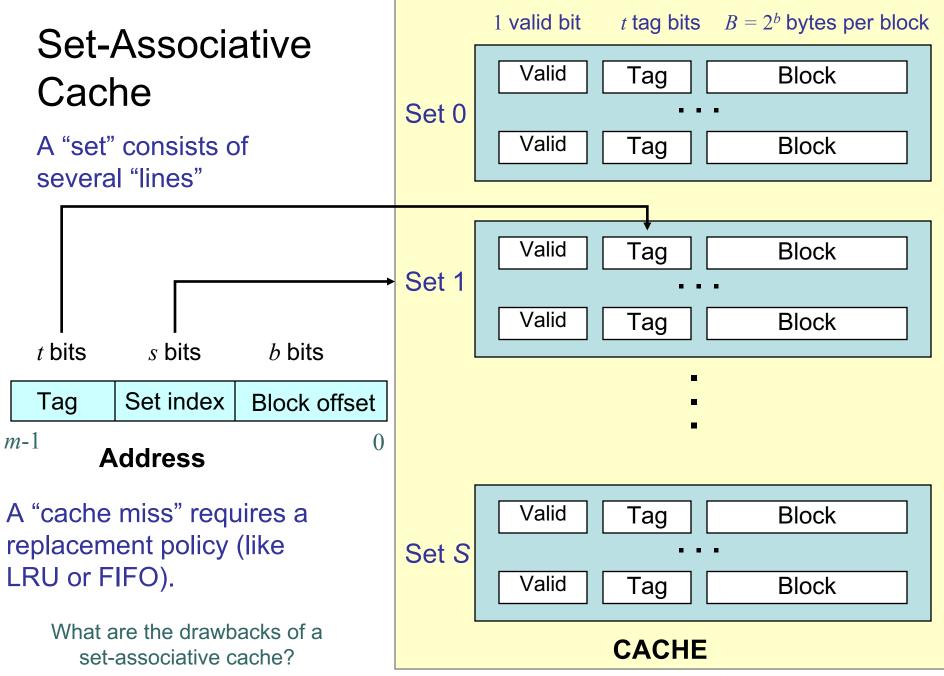
Otherwise, the fetch goes to main memory, updating the line.

Address

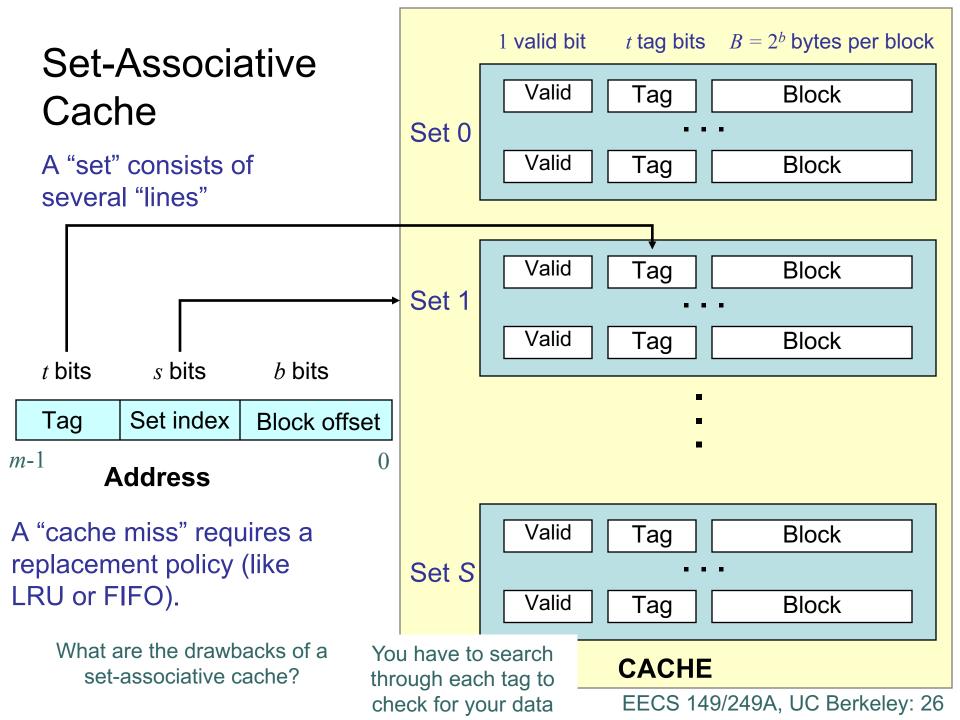


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## Caches in Embedded Systems

Why do embedded systems avoid using caches?

## Caches in Embedded Systems

Why do embedded systems avoid using caches?

Caches improve performance, but making timing unreliable (could be faster or slower in any given case)

A Fact About the 20th Century Notion of Computing: Timing is not Part of Software Semantics

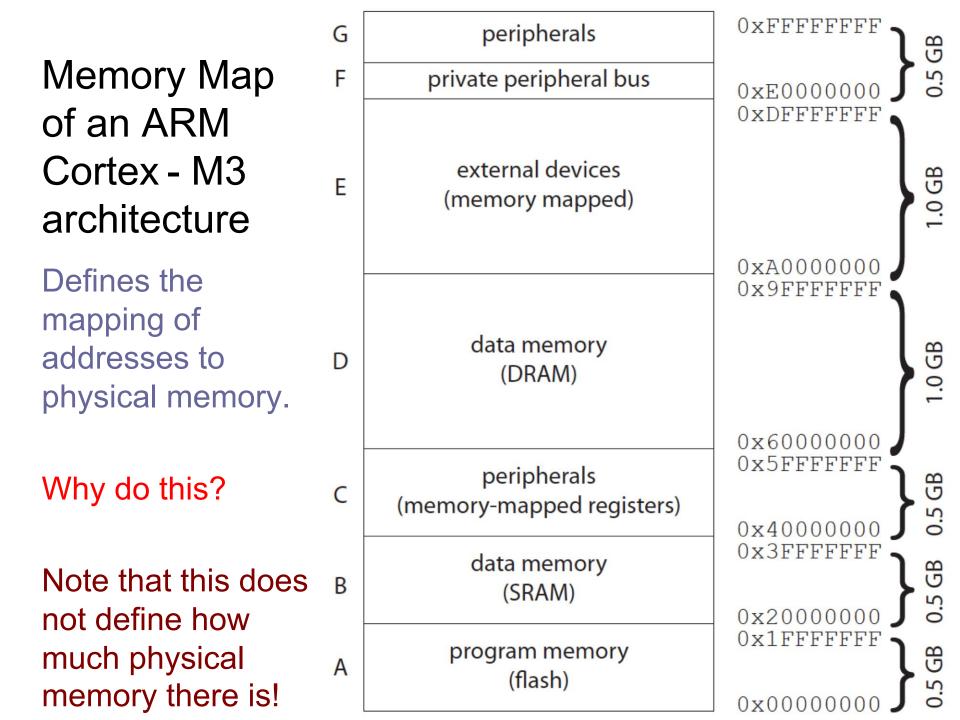
Correct execution of a program in C, C#, Java, Haskell, OCaml, Esterel, etc. has nothing to do with how long it takes to do anything. Nearly all our computation and networking abstractions are built on this premise.



Caches improve *performance* for a fixed cost, at the expense of making it very difficult to control timing.

## Main Memory (and further)

- RAM and Disk are accessed through reads and writes to addresses
- Which addresses are valid and point to which thing depend on the memory "map" of the system



## Main Memory on Personal Computers

- Applications on personal computers don't see a memory map like the Cortex-M3 one
  - Why not?
  - What does their memory look like?

 How this is implemented quickly and securely are major topics of Operating Systems and Computer Architecture

#### Main Memory on Personal Computers

- Applications on personal computers don't see a memory map like the Cortex-M3 one
  - Why not?
  - What does their memory look like?

Applications are provided virtual memory spaces, where it appears as if they own all addresses and start at address 0. This makes them easier to create and more secure.

 How this is implemented quickly and securely are major topics of Operating Systems and Computer Architecture

#### Things That Aren't Memory

- Microcontrollers have a lot of peripherals
  - General Purpose I/O (GPIO) pins
  - Analog to Digital Converters
  - Digital to Analog Converters
  - Pulse-Width Modulation Generators
  - Timers
  - Various communication buses: UART, SPI, I<sup>2</sup>C
- o How do they access the peripherals?
- o Why not create special assembly functions to access them?

#### Things That Aren't Memory

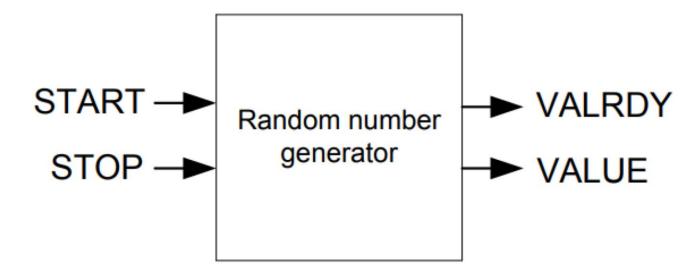
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  - Pulse-Width Modulation Generators
  - Timers
  - Various communication buses: UART, SPI, I<sup>2</sup>C
- How do they access the peripherals?
   With memory reads and writes
- o Why not create special assembly functions to access them?

That would make the processor harder to design. In the memory-mapped case, one processor can use an arbitrary selection of peripherals and doesn't have to know anything about them.

#### **Example: Random Number Generator**

Example RNG peripheral from the nRF52832

#### Interface:



## Example: Random Number Generator

#### 26.3 Registers

#### **Table 45: Instances**

Base address	Peripheral	Instance	Description	Configuration
0x4000D000	RNG	RNG	Random Number Generator	

#### **Table 46: Register Overview**

Register	Offset	Description	
TASKS_START	0x000	Task starting the random number generator	
TASKS_STOP	0x004	Task stopping the random number generator	
EVENTS_VALRDY	0x100	Event being generated for every new random number written to the VALUE register	
SHORTS	0x200	Shortcut register	
INTENSET	0x304	Enable interrupt	
INTENCLR	0x308	Disable interrupt	
CONFIG	0x504	Configuration register	
VALUE	0x508	Output random number	

#### 26.3 Registers

# How do we access these registers from C code?

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#### 26.3 Registers

#### **Table 45: Instances**

Base address	Peripheral	Instance
0x4000D000	RNG	RNG

# How do we access these registers from C code?

By reading and writing the raw address. (Although we usually create structures at that address to make things more clear)



Register	Offset	Description
TASKS_START	0x000	Task starting the random number generator
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VALUE	0x508	

#### #define NRF\_RNG\_BASE 0x4000D000

```
* @brief Random Number Generator (RNG)
typedef struct {
 __0 uint32_t TASKS_START;
 __0 uint32_t TASKS_STOP;
 __I uint32_t RESERVED0[62];
 __IO uint32_t EVENTS_VALRDY;
      uint32_t RESERVED1[63];
 __IO uint32_t SHORTS;
  __I uint32_t RESERVED2[64];
 __IO uint32_t INTENSET;
  __IO uint32_t INTENCLR;
  __I uint32_t RESERVED3[126];
  __IO uint32_t CONFIG;
 __I uint32_t
                VALUE:
 NRF_RNG_Type;
```

#define NRF\_RNG (NRF\_RNG\_Type\*)NRF\_RNG\_BASE;

#### **26.3.5 VALUE**

Address offset: 0x508

Output random number

```
31 30 29 28 27 26 25 24 23 22 21 20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3
 Value
             Description
[0..255]
             Generated random number
```

```
uint8_t nrf_rng_random_value_get(void) {
    return (uint8_t)(NRF_RNG->VALUE & RNG_VALUE_VALUE_Msk);
```

#### **26.3.5 VALUE**

Address offset: 0x508

Output random number

```
31 30 29 28 27 26 25 24 23 22 21 20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3
 Value
             Description
             Generated random number
```

[0..255]

```
uint8_t nrf_rng_random_value_get(void) {
    return (uint8_t)(NRF_RNG->VALUE & RNG_VALUE_VALUE_Msk);
```

Remember: at the very bottom these are still just memory reads and writes!

```
uint32_t value = NRF_RNG->Value;
```

Is equivalent to

```
uint32_t value = *(uint32_t*)(0x4000D508);
```

## LAB HARDWARE

#### nRF52832 Microcontroller

#### **Processor**

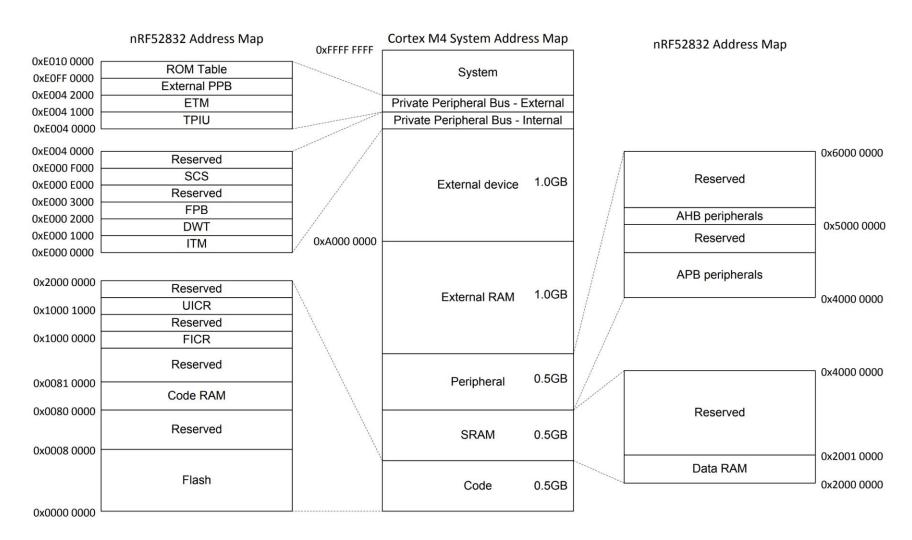
- ARM Cortex-M4F
- 3-stage pipeline!
- Floating point support

#### Memory

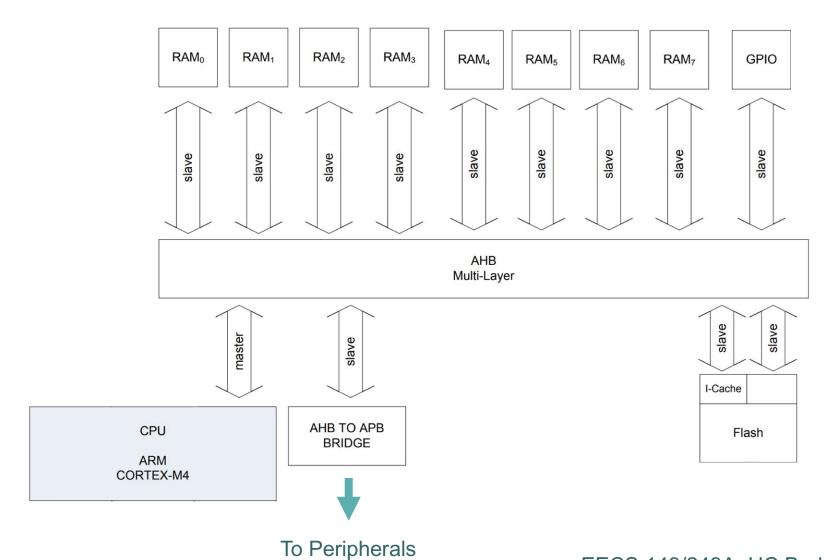
- Instruction Cache
  - Off by default
- 64 kB SRAM
- 512 kB Flash



### **Memory Map**

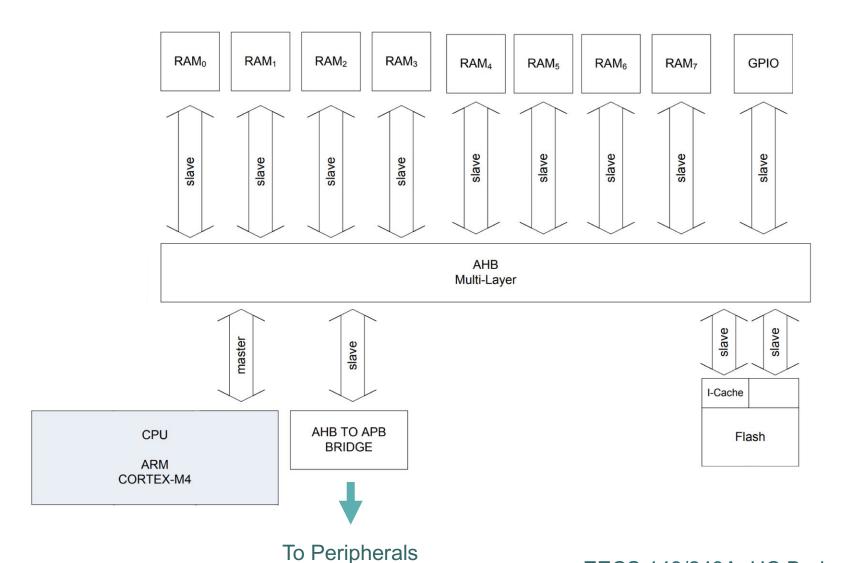


### nRF52832 Block Diagram



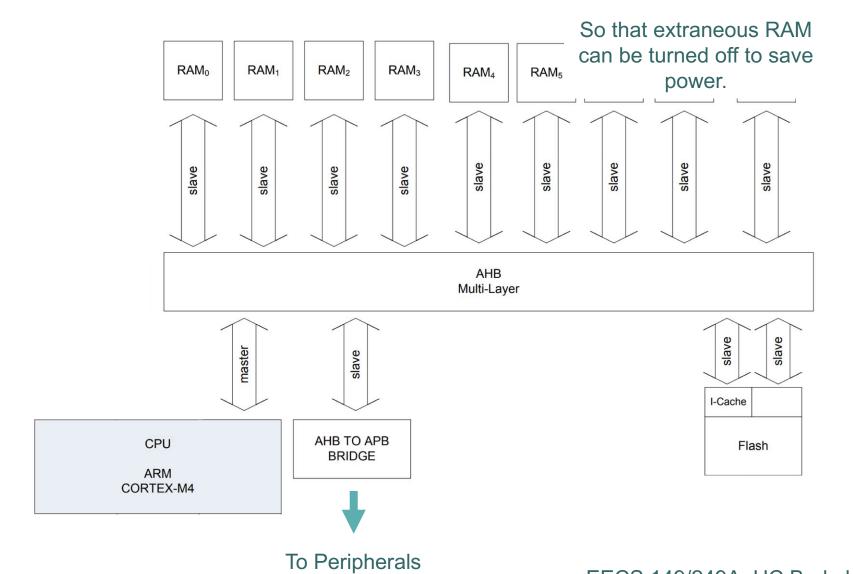
# nRF52832 Block Diagram

# Why have 8 separate RAM banks?

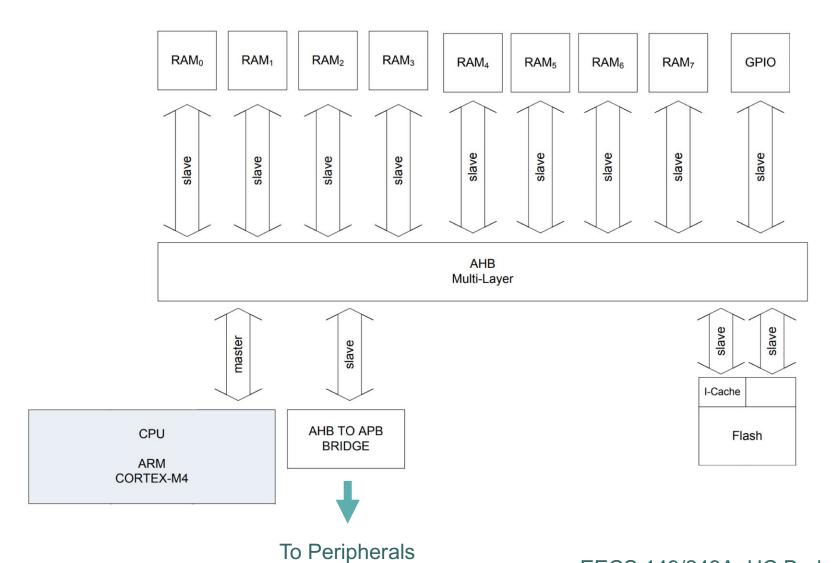


## nRF52832 Block Diagram

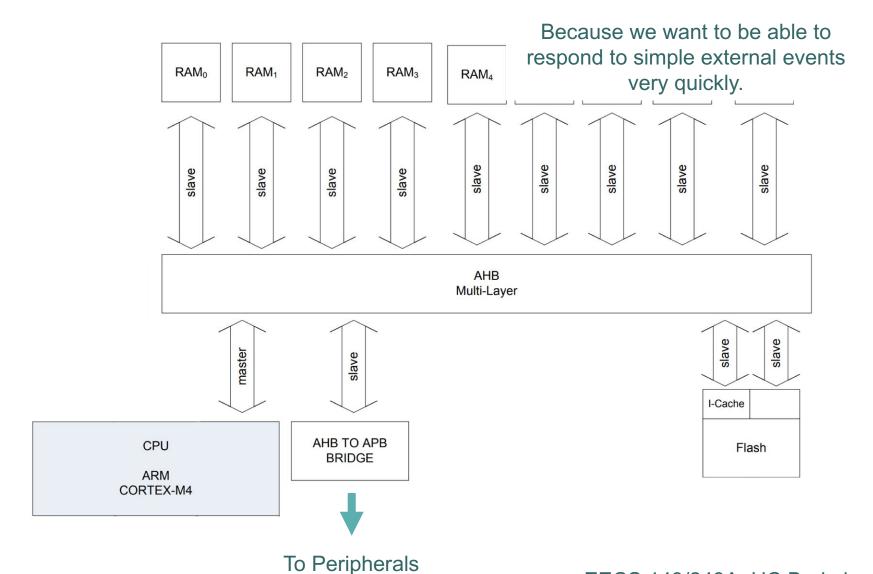
# Why have 8 separate RAM banks?



### nRF52832 Block Diagram Why is GPIO special?



### nRF52832 Block Diagram Why is GPIO special?



## SOFTWARE USE OF MEMORY

#### Memory Organization for Programs

- Statically-allocated memory
  - Compiler chooses the address at which to store a variable.
- Stack
  - Dynamically allocated memory with a Last-in, First-out (LIFO) strategy
- Heap
  - Dynamically allocated memory

### Statically-Allocated Memory in C

```
char x;
void foo(void) {
    x = 0x20;
    ...
}
```

Compiler chooses what address to use for x, and the variable is accessible across procedures. The variable's lifetime is the total duration of the program execution.

### Statically-Allocated Memory with Limited Scope

```
void foo(void) {
    static char y;
    y = 0x20;
    ...
}
```

Compiler chooses what address to use for y, but the variable is meant to be accessible only in foo(). The variable's lifetime is the total duration of the program execution (values persist across calls to foo()).

### Statically-Allocated Memory with Limited Scope

What is the difference between x and y when code is loaded on the device?

#### Statically-Allocated Memory with Limited Scope

What is the difference between x and y when code is loaded on the device?

There is no difference! Accessibility of a variable is a compile-time concept, not a run-time one.

# Variables on the Stack ("automatic variables")

```
void foo(void) {
    char x;
    x = 0x20;
    ...
}
```

When the procedure is called, x is assigned an address on the stack (by decrementing the stack pointer). When the procedure returns, the memory is freed (by incrementing the stack pointer). The variable persists only for the duration of the call to foo().

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# Assume a 32-bit ARM microcontroller

Memory

```
char x;
void foo(void) {
    x = 0x20;
    ...
}
```

How many bytes does **x** take, and in which section of the memory layout?

Stack

Heap

Data (Static)

# Assume a 32-bit ARM microcontroller

Memory

```
char x;
void foo(void) {
    x = 0x20;
    ...
}
```

Stack

Heap

Data (Static)

How many bytes does **x** take, and in which section of the memory layout?

1 byte in the data section

# Assume a 32-bit ARM microcontroller

Memory

```
char* x;
void foo(void) {
    x = 0x20;
    ...
}
```

Stack

Heap

Data (Static)

How many bytes does **x** take, and in which section of the memory layout?

4 bytes in the data section

### Assume a 32-bit ARM microcontroller

Memory

```
int a;
                                               Stack
void foo(short b) {
      static int c = 3;
      char* d;
                                               Heap
      d = (char*) malloc(4);
      printf("Hello EECS149\n");
                             a – 4 bytes in the data section
```

What about **a**, **b**, **c**, and **d**?

b - 2 bytes in the stack

c – 4 bytes in the data section

d - 4 bytes in the stack

contents of d - 4 bytes in the heap

#### Find the flaw in this program

(begin by thinking about where each variable is allocated)

```
int x = 2;
int* foo(int y) {
  int z;
  z = y * x;
  return &z;
int main(void) {
  int* result = foo(10);
```

#### Solution: Find the flaw in this program

```
statically allocated: compiler assigns a memory location.
int x = 2;
                               arguments on the stack
int* foo(int y)
  int z;
                                 automatic variables on the stack
  return &z;
int main(void)
                                                   program counter, argument 10,
  int* result \neq foo(10);
                                                   and z go on the stack (and
                                                   possibly more, depending on the
                                                   compiler).
```

The procedure foo() returns a pointer to a variable on the stack. What if another procedure call (or interrupt) occurs before the returned pointer is de-referenced?

### The embedded systems perspective

#### The embedded systems perspective

# The Heap is EVIL!!!!

Why?

# Dynamically-Allocated Memory The Heap

An operating system typically offers a way to dynamically allocate memory on a "heap".

Memory management (malloc() and free()) can lead to many problems with embedded systems:

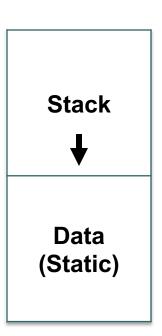
- Memory leaks (allocated memory is never freed)
- Memory fragmentation (allocatable pieces get smaller)

Automatic techniques ("garbage collection") often require stopping everything and reorganizing the allocated memory. This is deadly for real-time programs.

#### The embedded systems perspective

How do we handle memory faults?

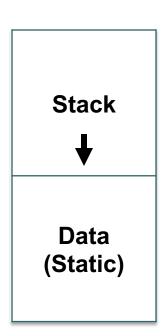
What if the stack grows too much?



### The embedded systems perspective

How do we handle memory faults?

What if the stack grows too much?



Nothing stops it!

Hopefully the failure is easy to understand...

#### Conclusion

Understanding memory architectures is essential to programming embedded systems.