

Lecture 5

Embedded system design

Bus architectures

CS476 - ESD
April 8, 2024

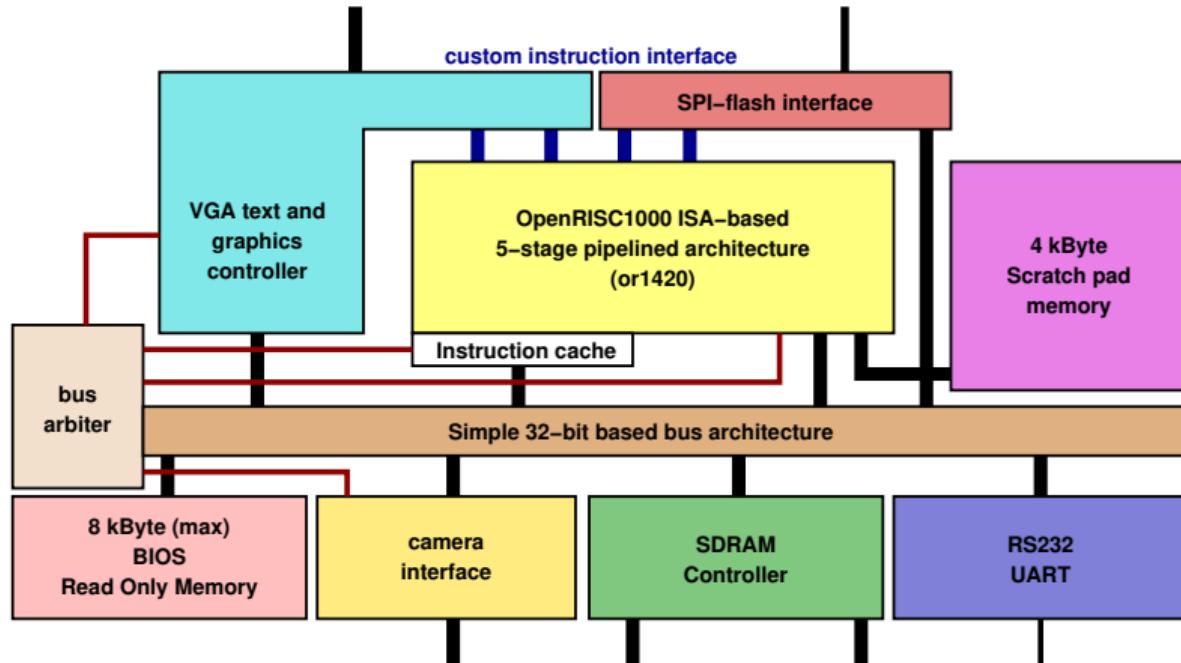
Introduction

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- ▶ We have already seen a lot of parts of our embedded system.
- ▶ This week we are going to dive into the bus system.

- ▶ Let's start out with the basic idea of a bus system.

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- ▶ Let's start out with the basic idea of a bus system.
- ▶ We need to exchange information from (a) *master* device(s) to (a) *slave* device(s).

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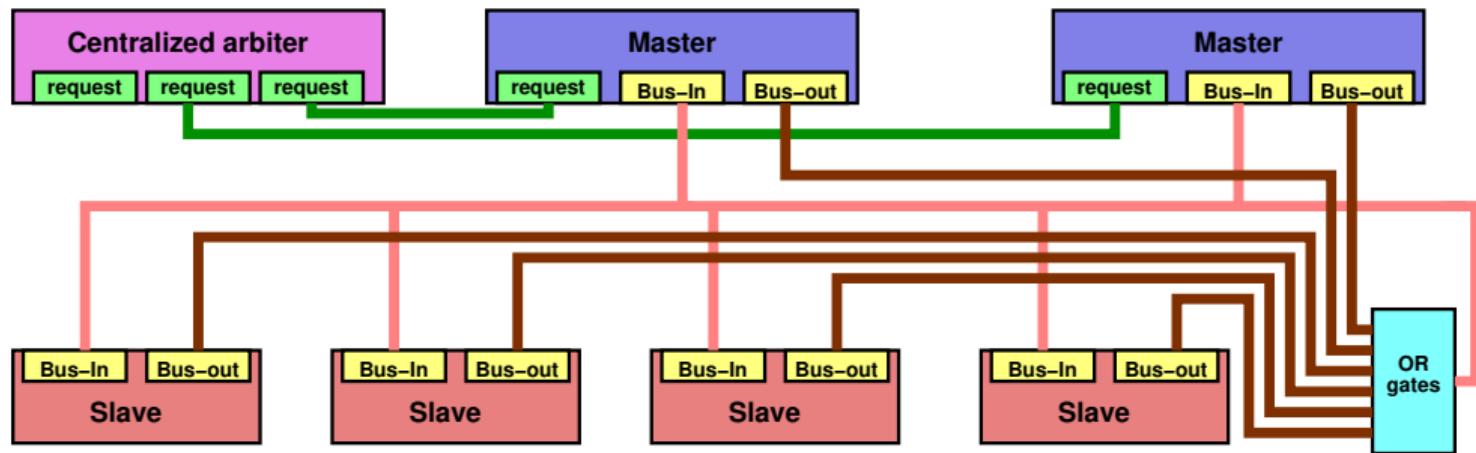
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- ▶ Let's start out with the basic idea of a bus system.
- ▶ We need to exchange information from (a) *master* device(s) to (a) *slave* device(s).
- ▶ this information consists of:
 - ▶ The memory address of the access.
 - ▶ The type of access (read or write).
 - ▶ The data (to/from the master).
 - ▶ Some handshake signals.

- ▶ Let's start out with the basic idea of a bus system.
- ▶ We need to exchange information from (a) *master* device(s) to (a) *slave* device(s).
- ▶ this information consists of:
 - ▶ The memory address of the access.
 - ▶ The type of access (read or write).
 - ▶ The data (to/from the master).
 - ▶ Some handshake signals.
- ▶ There are many different ways how we can set-up this transfer of information, let's start with the bus realized in our system, a transaction based multi-master burst-enabled shared bus system.

Simple bus architectures



- ▶ The block diagram of the applied bus-system is shown above.
- ▶ This bus is working with a 74.25MHz clock.

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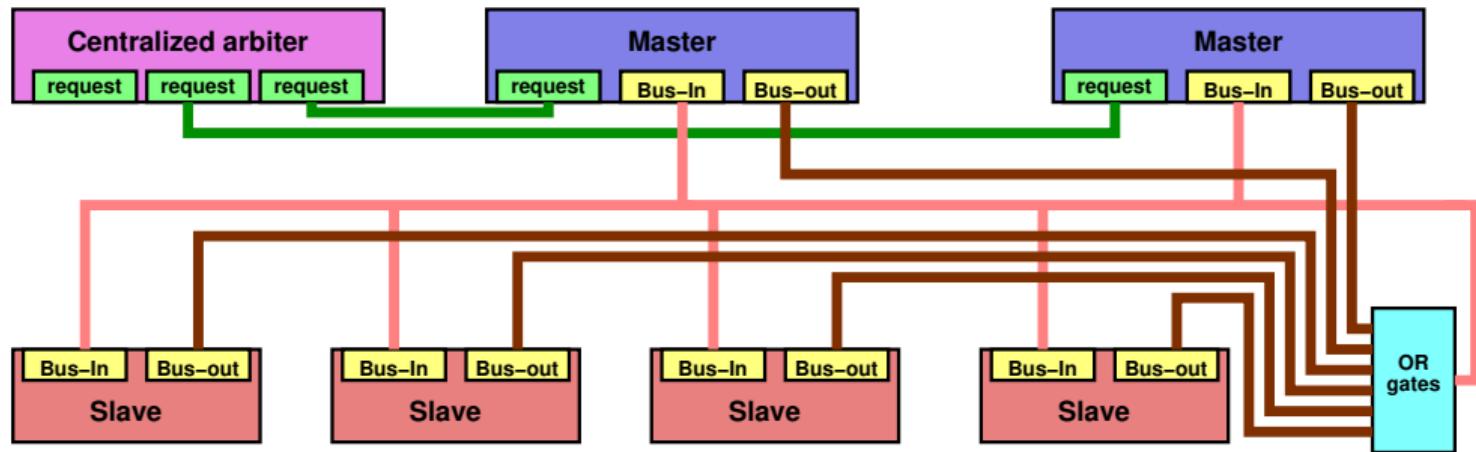
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Simple bus architectures



- ▶ The block diagram of the applied bus-system is shown above.
- ▶ This bus is working with a 74.25MHz clock.
- ▶ Note the OR-gates (sometime realize with AND-gates), this is typical for on-chip buses, as we do not apply tri-state (bi-directional) buses as:
 - ▶ They are slow (tri-state capacitance, etc.)
 - ▶ They may cause short circuits if improper used.

Simple bus architectures

- ▶ So which signals are defined in our bus?
 - ▶ **address_data** : 32-bit channel that transports the address or data.
 - ▶ **byte_enables** : 4-bit channel that indicates in a single transfer which bytes are valid.
 - ▶ **burst_size** : 8-bit channel that indicates the number of words to transfer (value+1).
 - ▶ **read_n_write** : 1-bit channel indicates a read (when 1) or write transaction (when 0).
 - ▶ **begin_transaction** : 1-bit channel that indicates the beginning of a transaction.
 - ▶ **end_transaction** : 1-bit channel that indicates the end of a transaction.
 - ▶ **data_valid** : 1-bit channel that indicates a valid datum on the *address_data* lines.
 - ▶ **busy** : 1-bit channel that indicates that the receiver cannot process yet the datum.
 - ▶ **error** : 1-bit channel that indicates a bus error.
- ▶ All signals (50-bits) are active-high and should be forced to 0 when not in use (due to the or-gates).

Channel:	master		slave	
	Bus-in	Bus-out	Bus-in	Bus-out
address_data	required	required	required	required
byte_enables	X	required	required	X
burst_size	X	required	required	X
read_n_write	X	required	required	X
begin_transaction	X	required	required	X
end_transaction	required	required	required	required
data_valid	required	required	required	required
busy	required	optional	required	optional
error	required	X	X	optional

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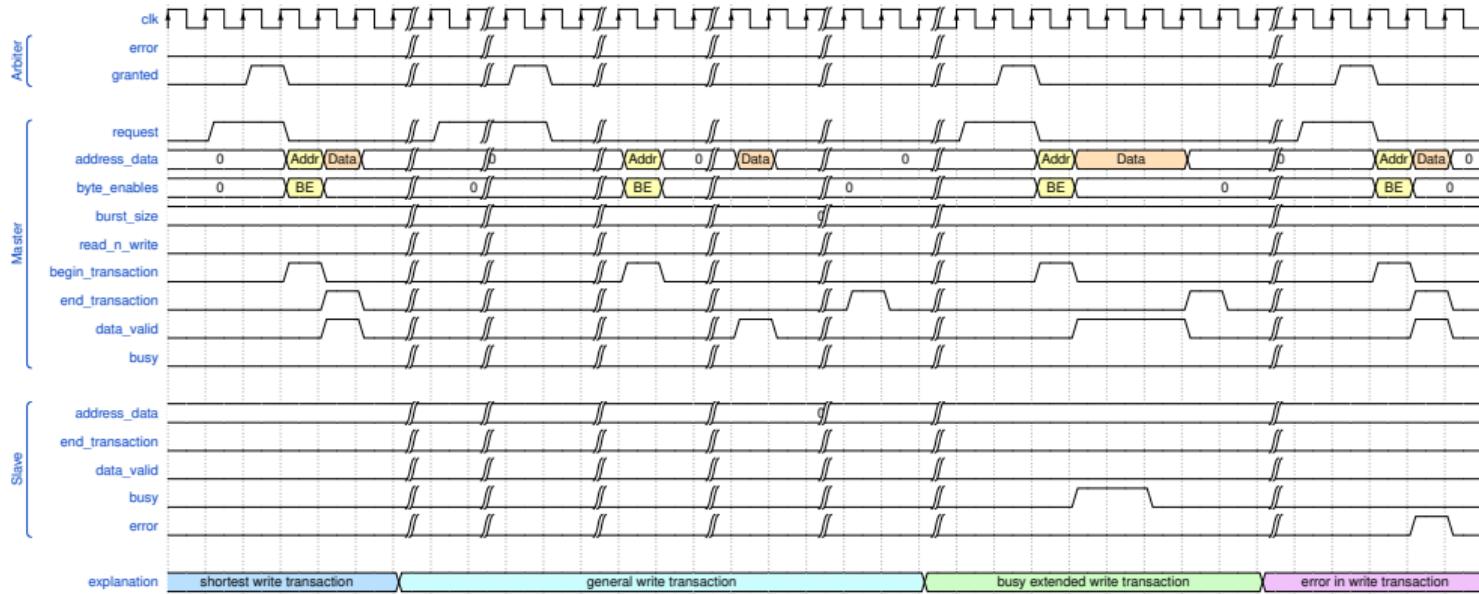
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Single word write transactions



- The signals above are the signals seen at the Bus-out ports (the Bus-in ports see the or-ed version of these signals).

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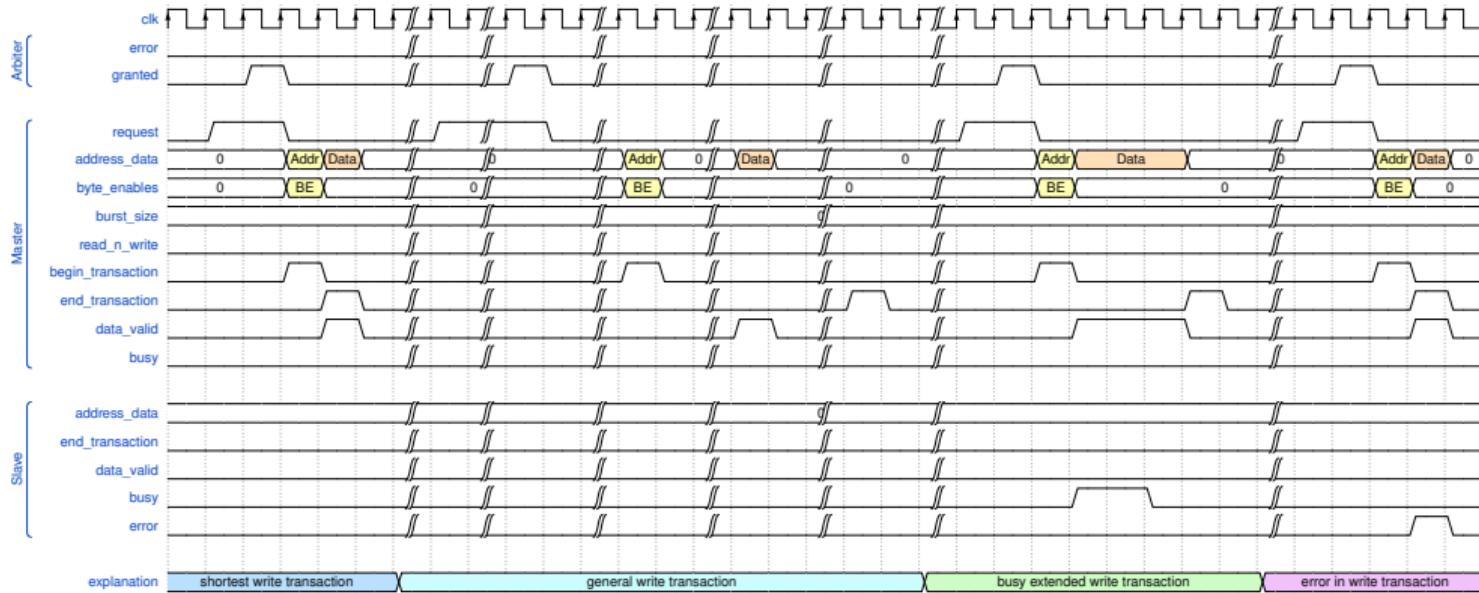
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- At the beginning of the transaction (yellow) all information is provided.

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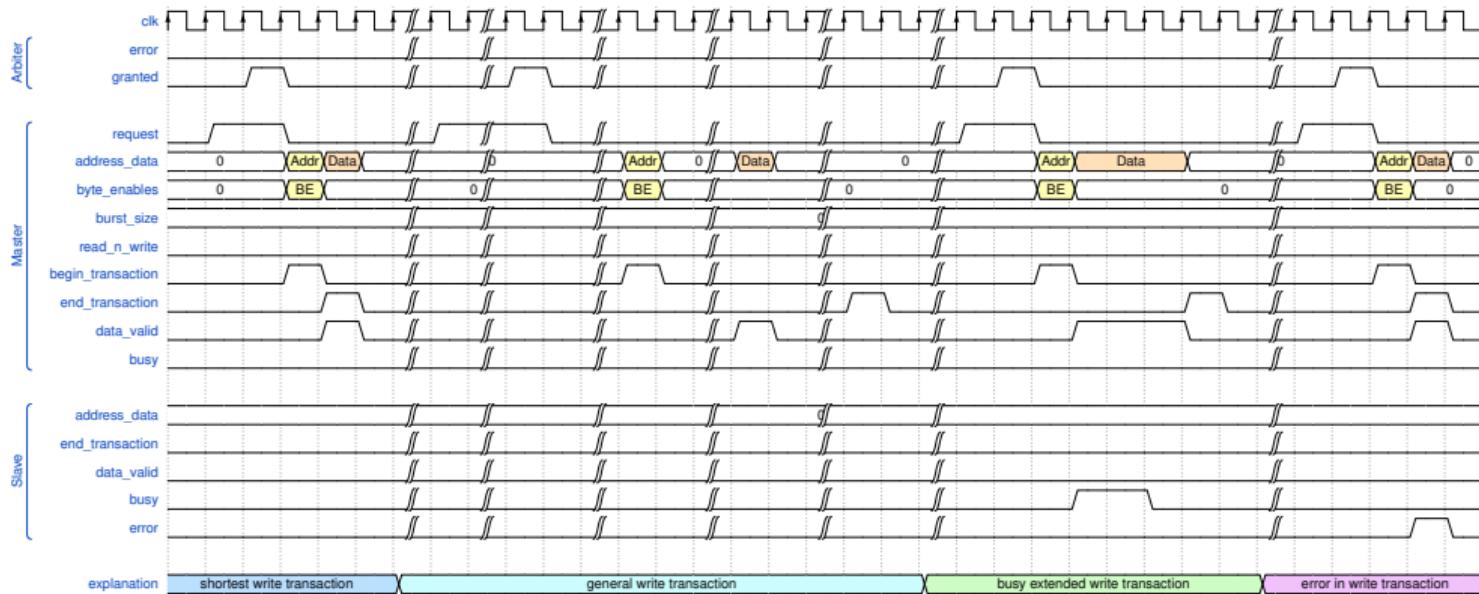
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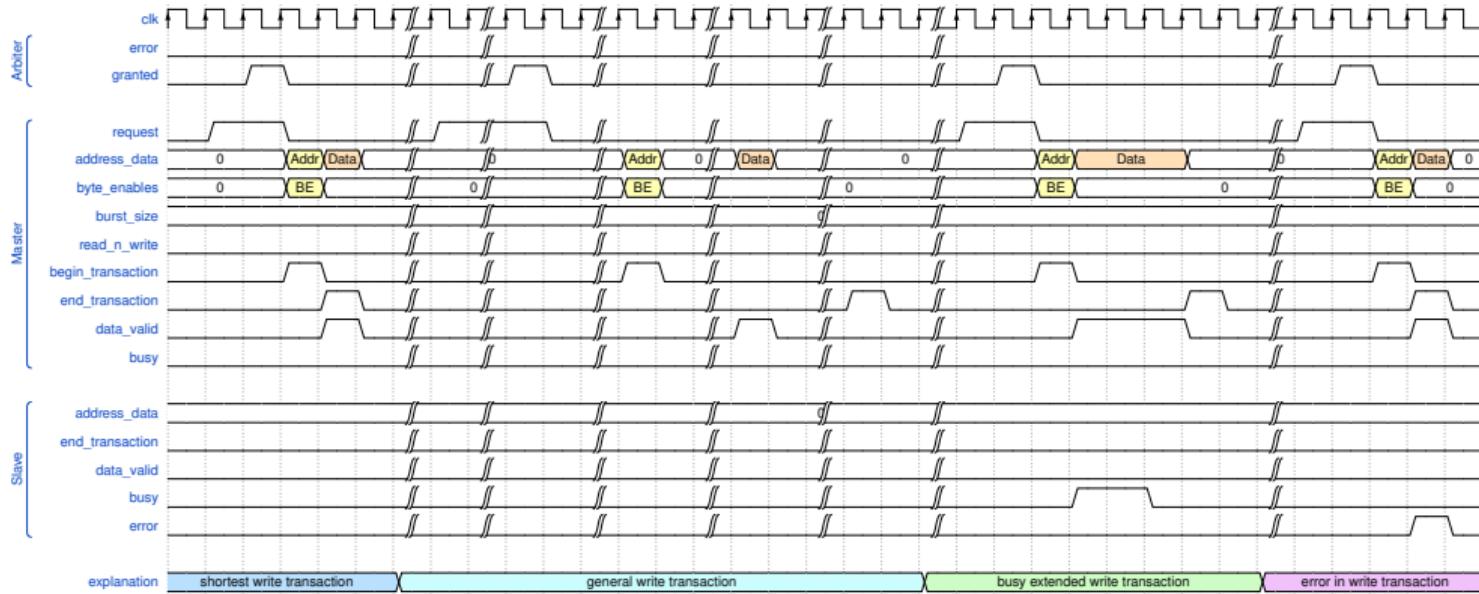
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- ▶ At the beginning of the transaction (yellow) all information is provided.
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- ▶ *Note:* The minimal time of a transaction is 5 clock-cycles.

Multiple words write transactions

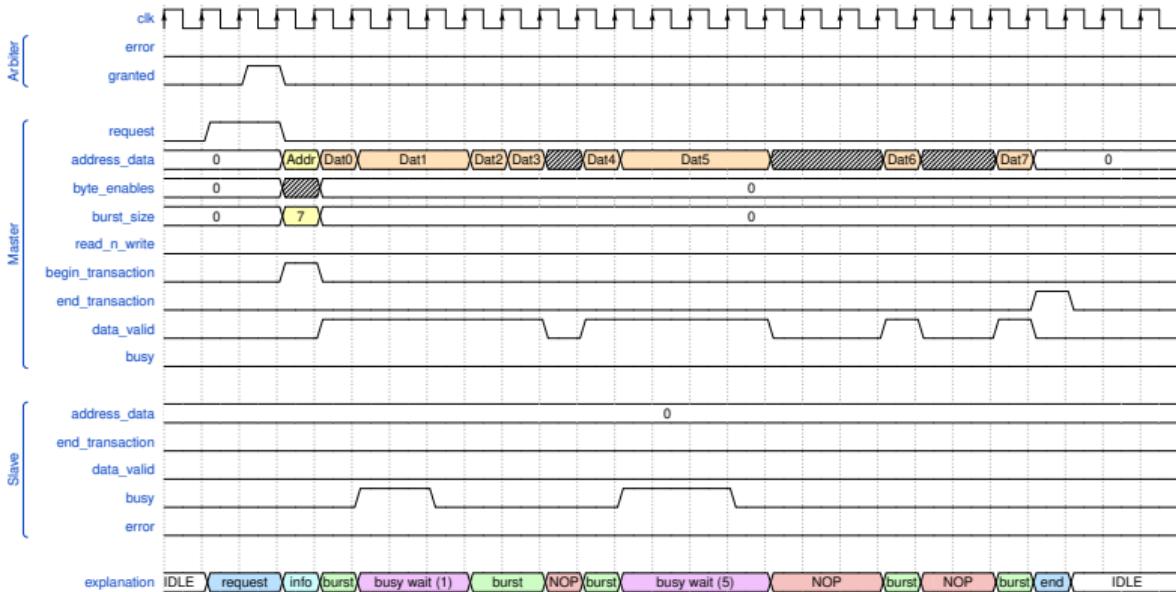
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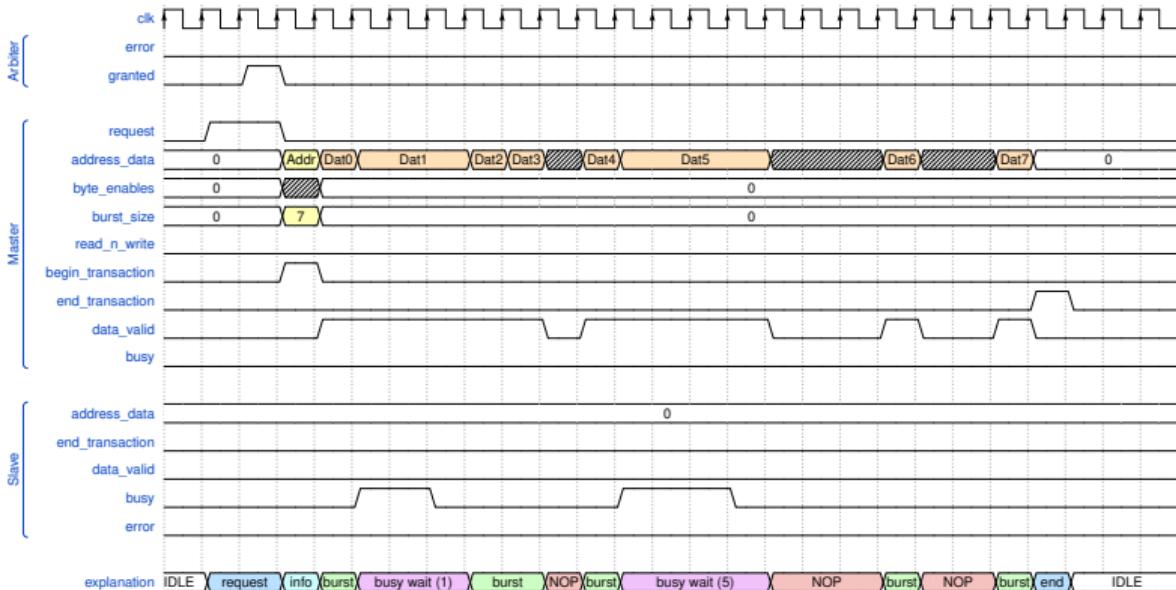
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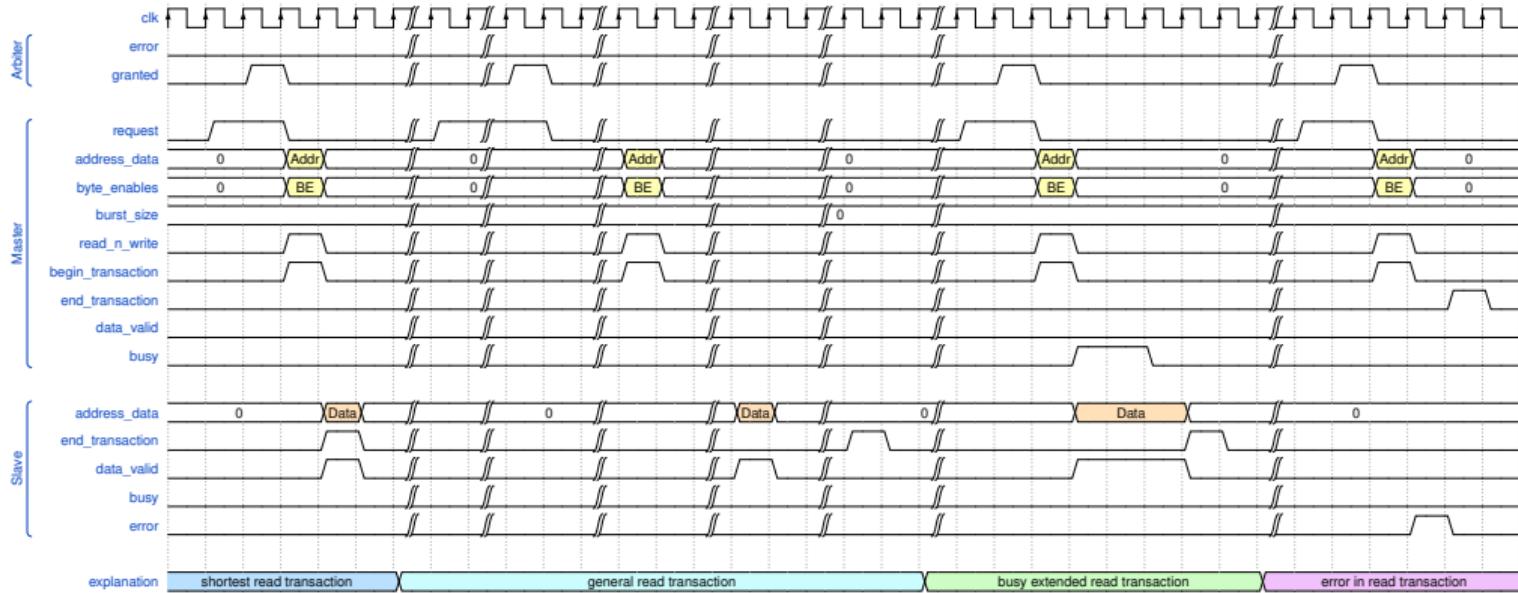
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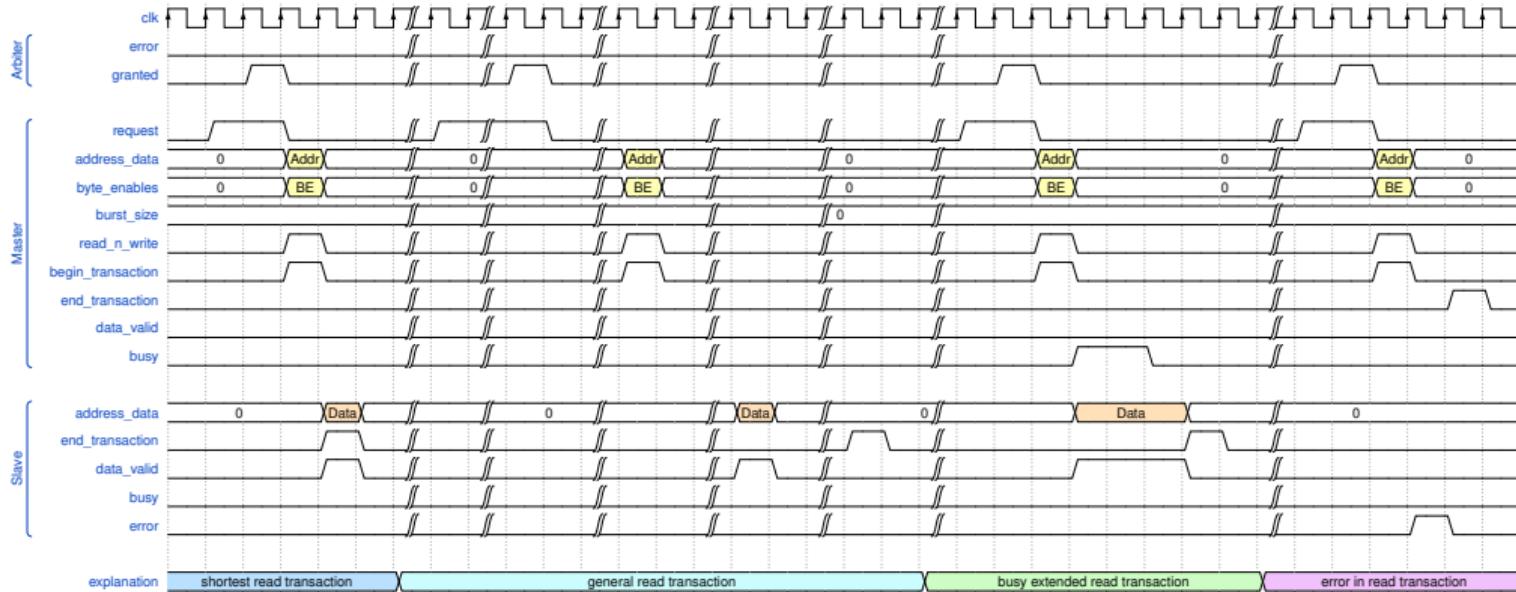
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- Note: the minimal time of a transaction is $3 + \text{NrOfWords}$ clock-cycles.

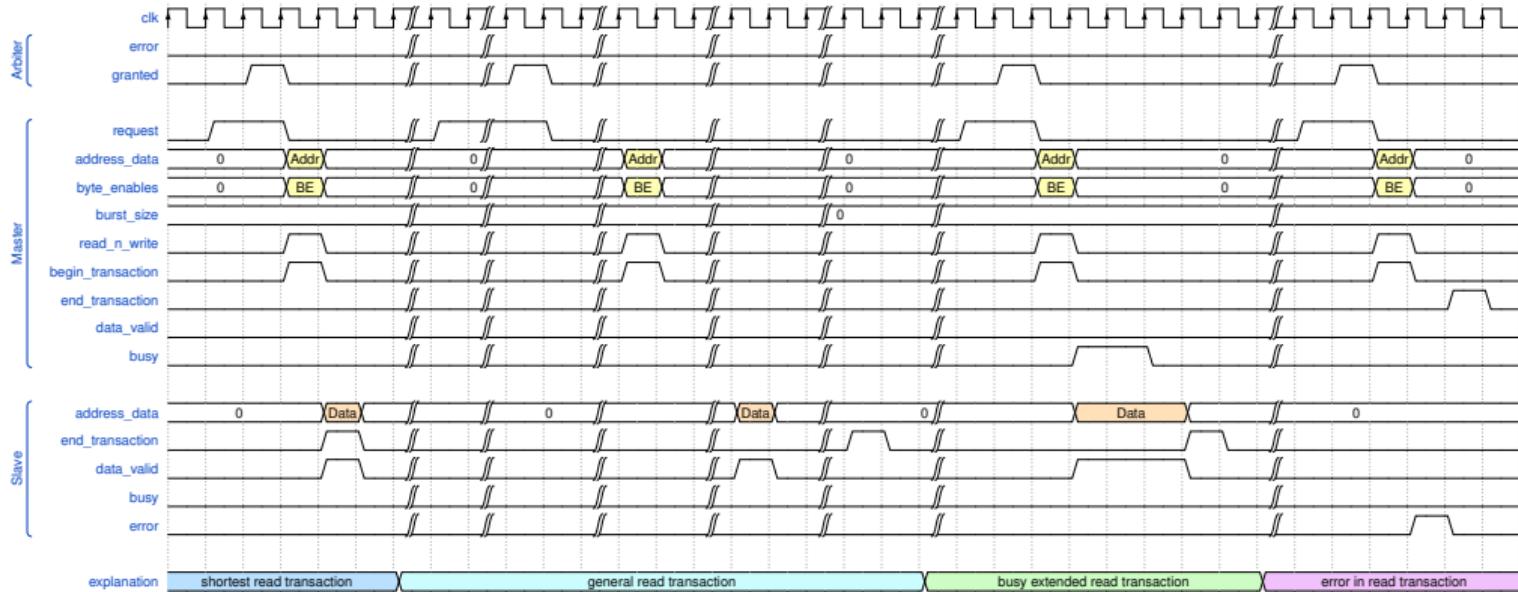


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Single word read transactions



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- In case of an “error” the master must end the transaction. Otherwise the slave ends the transaction.
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Multiple words read transactions

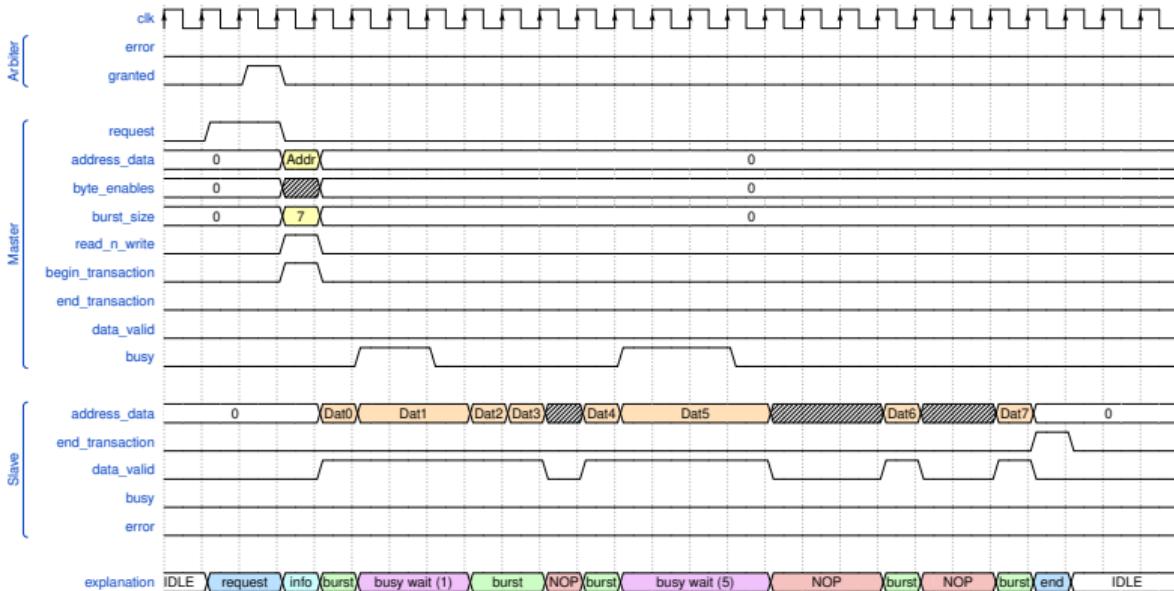
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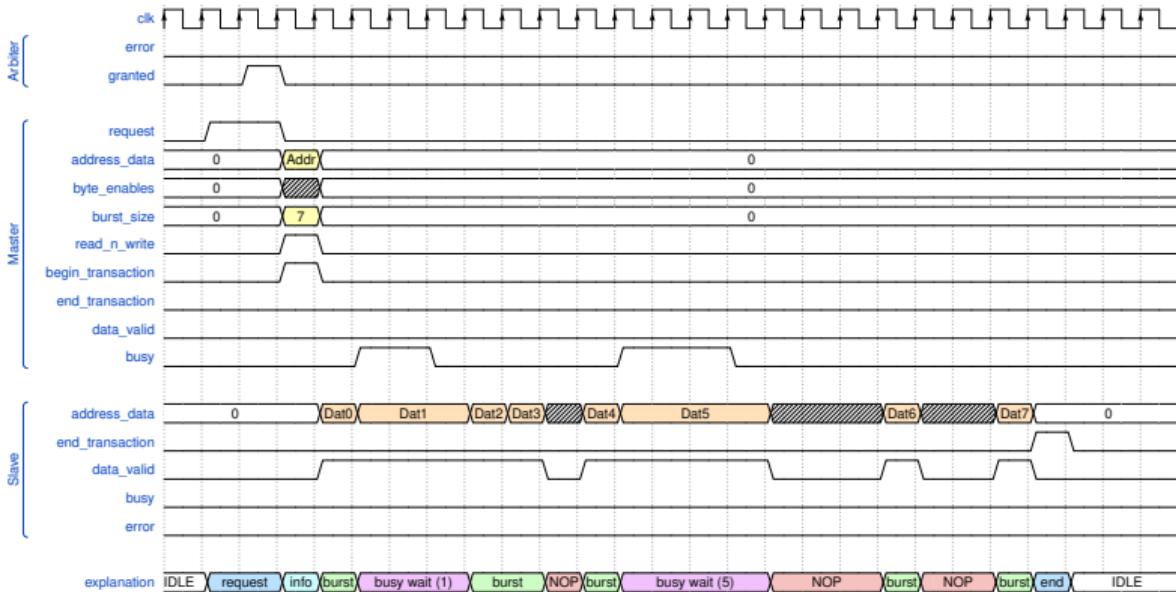
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Multiple words read aborted transaction

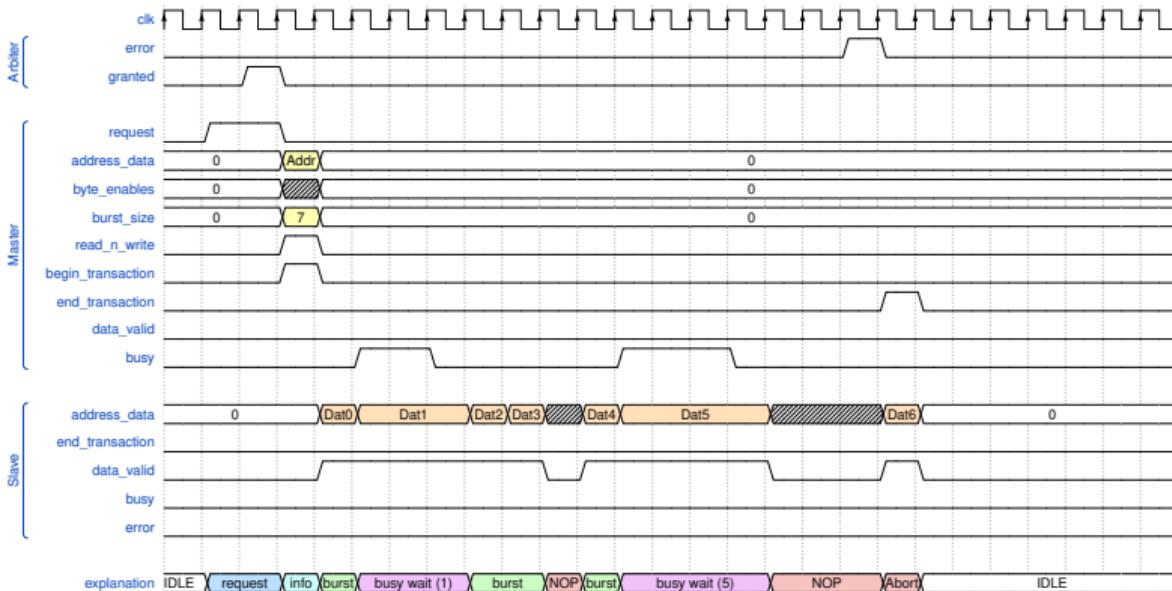
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- In case an error is detected the master must end the transaction.

Multiple words read aborted transaction

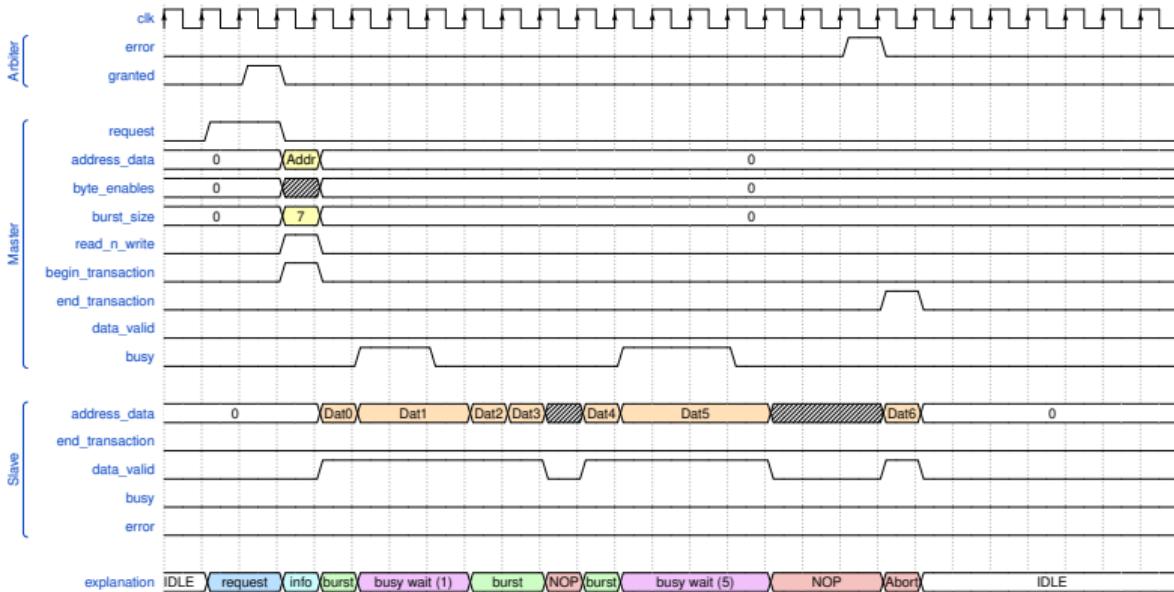
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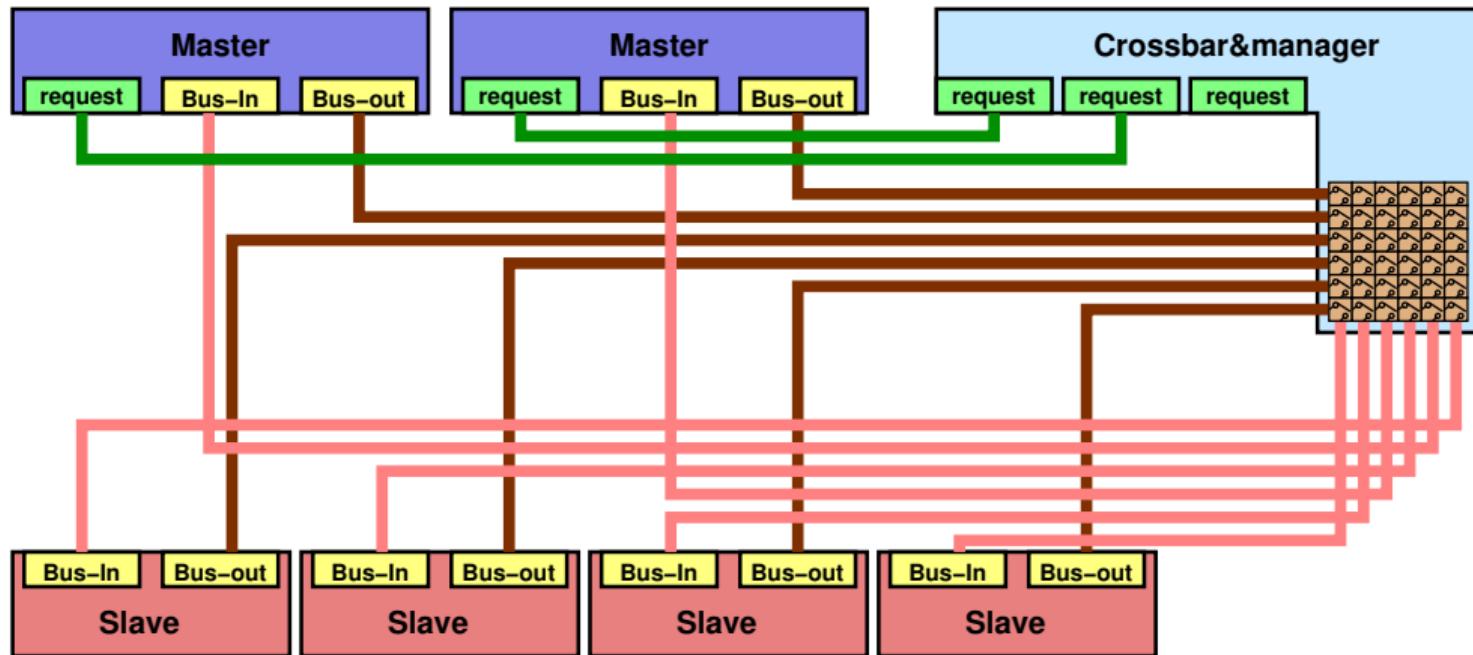
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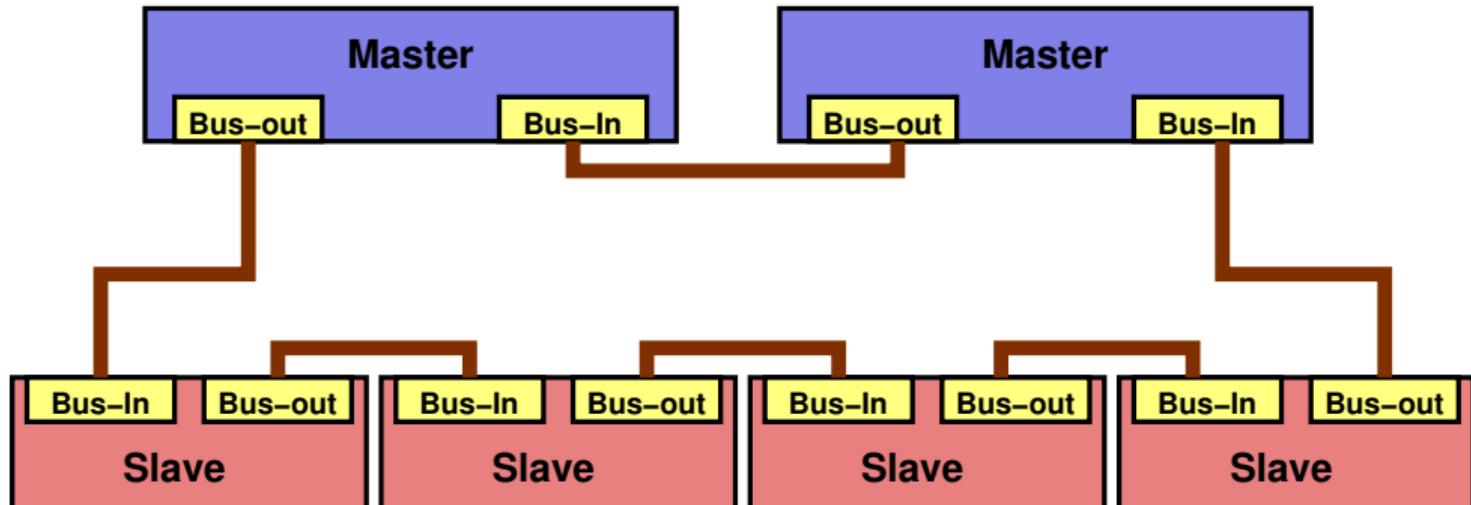
- ▶ In case an error is detected the master must end the transaction.
- ▶ If the slave sees an end of transaction before the burst/single read is finished it must end the ongoing transaction and release the bus.

Crossbar architectures

- ▶ Is this the only bus architecture, of course not, this is the one we started out with (the most simple one).
- ▶ We will visit some more advanced architecture, the first one is the cross-bar (sometimes referred to as point-to-point):



- ▶ The next one is the ring architecture.
- ▶ This architecture is sometimes also called *streaming interface* or *network-on-chip (NOC)*.



- ▶ There exists a lot of different on-chip bus-systems that apply one or multiple of the shown topologies, some well known are:
 - ▶ Arm's AMBA bus that has all of the above topologies.
 - ▶ IBM's CoreConnect bus that is a bus-architecture.
 - ▶ Altera/Intels Avalon bus that is a special version of a cross-bar architecture.
 - ▶ Open Source Hardware's Wishbone bus that allows for all of the above architectures.

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 - ▶ Open Source Hardware's Wishbone bus that allows for all of the above architectures.
- ▶ Now that we know how to transfer information let us look into some constructs that are often used:

```
void* memset(void* dest, register int val, register size_t len);
void* memmove(void* s1, const void* s2, size_t n);
void* memcpy(void* dst0, const void* src0, size_t length);
```

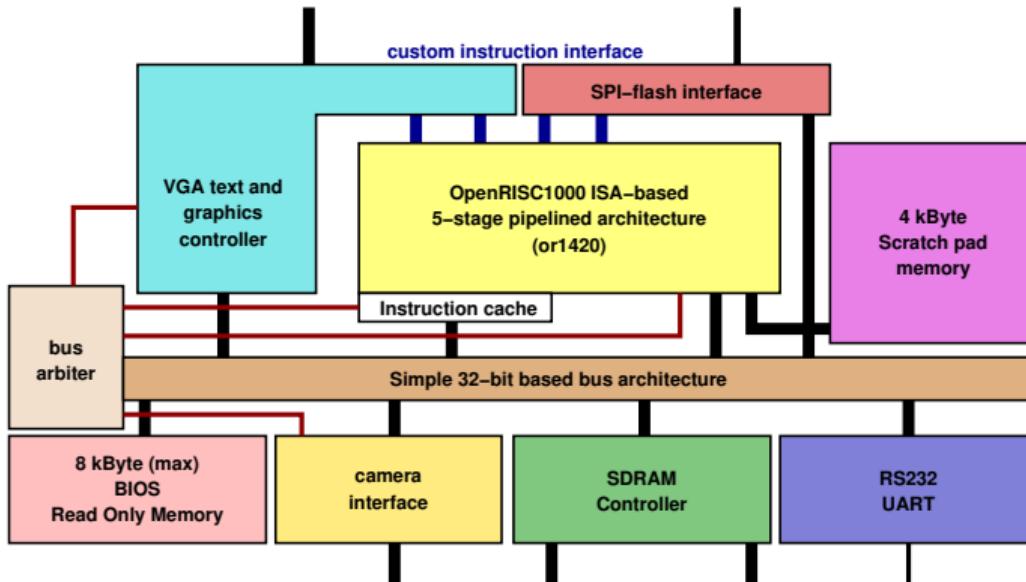
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- ▶ These constructs execute very inefficient on a CPU...

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- ▶ Arguably one of the reasons to accelerate such operations led to the invention of the *Direct Memory Access (DMA)*.
- ▶ A DMA-controller is a host that is connected to the bus.

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- ▶ Arguably one of the reasons to accelerate such operations led to the invention of the *Direct Memory Access (DMA)*.
- ▶ A DMA-controller is a host that is connected to the bus.
- ▶ There are basically two types of DMA-controllers:
 - ▶ General purpose DMA-controllers.
 - ▶ Build-in peripheral DMA-controller.

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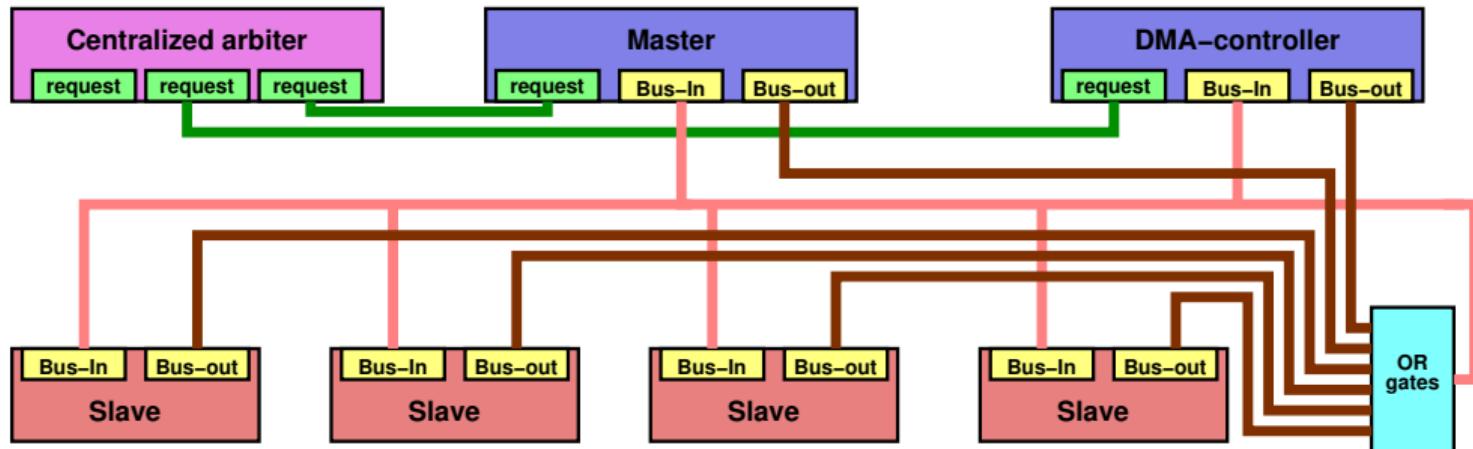
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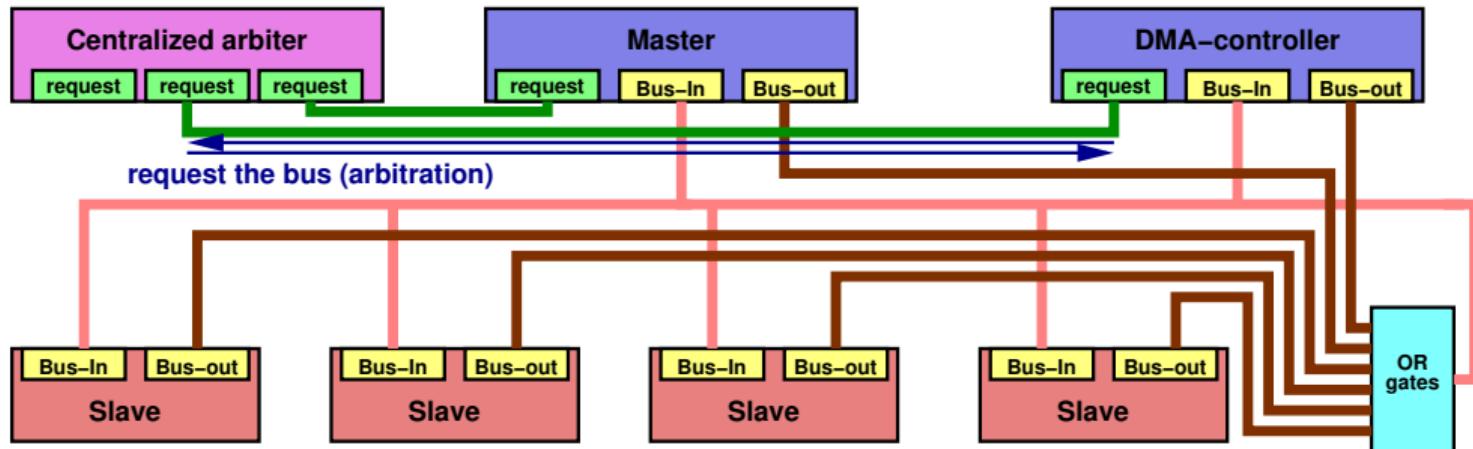
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 - ▶ General purpose DMA-controllers.
 - ▶ Build-in peripheral DMA-controller.
- ▶ We start with the general purpose DMA-controller.

Direct Memory Access (DMA)



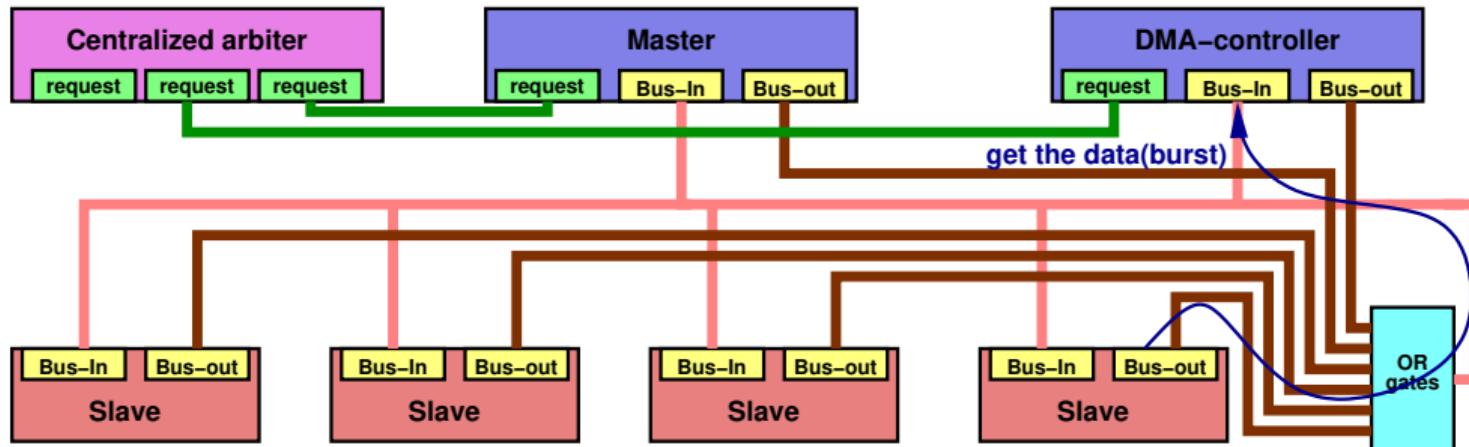
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Direct Memory Access (DMA)



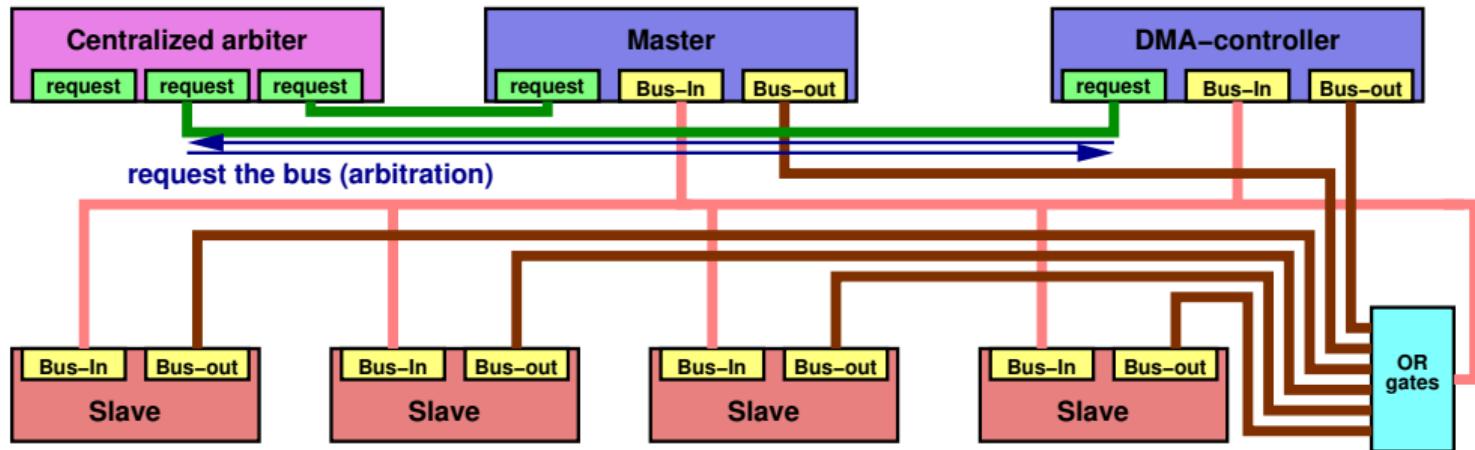
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 1. Transfer the data from the source device to an internal buffer.

Direct Memory Access (DMA)



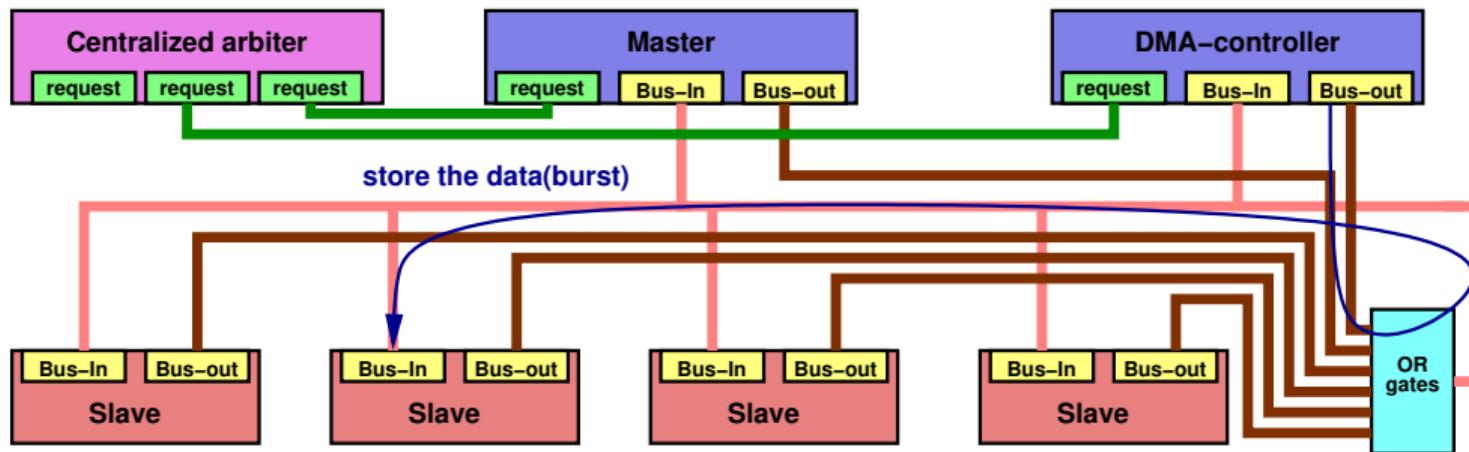
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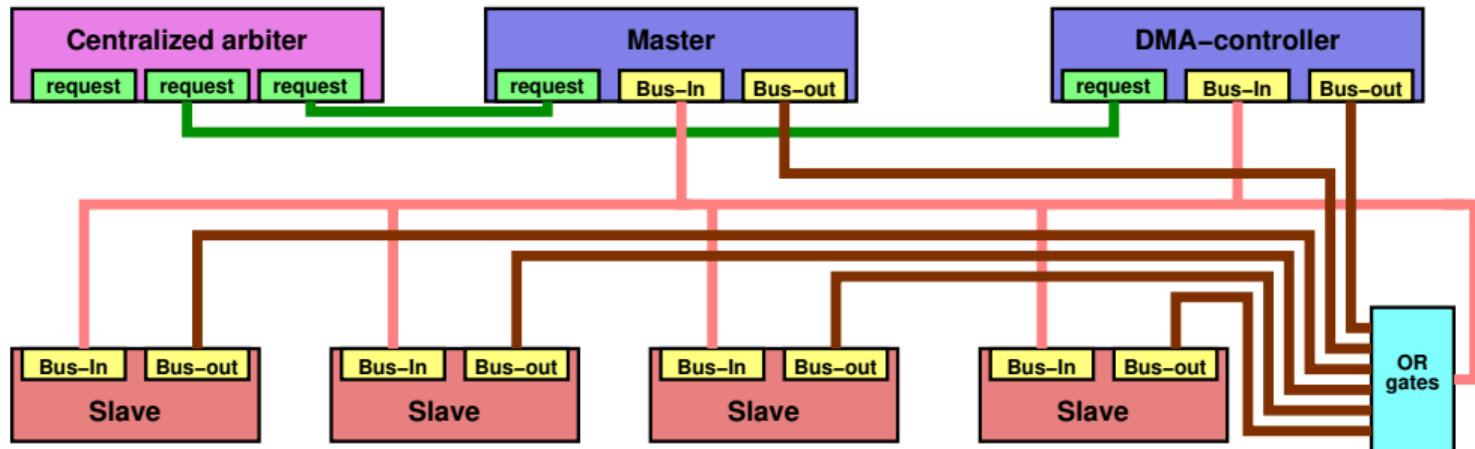
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Direct Memory Access (DMA)



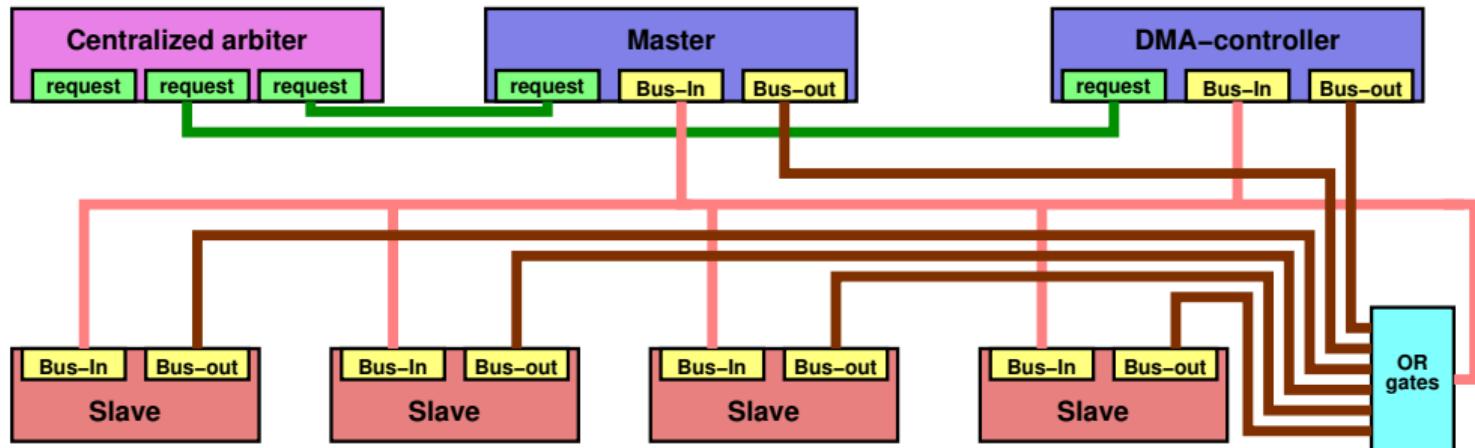
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- ▶ Both transfers are done in a programmable burst-size for efficiency (remember the SDRAM).

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- ▶ Note: In case of a cross-bar where the source and destination are not the same slaves, or NOC bus-architecture, both phases can be performed in parallel (timely-shifted).

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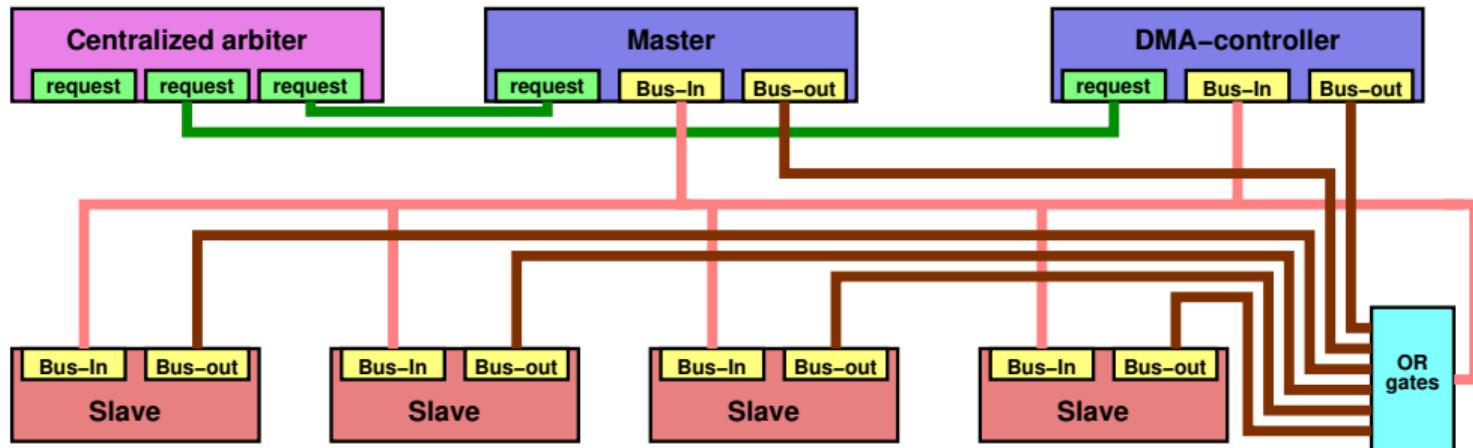
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- ▶ Both transfers are done in a programmable burst-size for efficiency (remember the SDRAM).
- ▶ Note: In case of a cross-bar where the source and destination are not the same slaves, or NOC bus-architecture, both phases can be performed in parallel (timely-shifted).
- ▶ The *build-in peripheral DMA-controller* only has a single phase, either a transfer to a destination device, or a transfer from a source device.

- ▶ To be able to use the DMA-controller, it has to be set up by the CPU.

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- ▶ To be able to use the DMA-controller, it has to be set up by the CPU.
- ▶ The minimal information the DMA-controller needs to have/provide is:
 - ▶ The source Address.
 - ▶ The destination Address.
 - ▶ The amount of data to transfer.
 - ▶ The mode of operation.
 - ▶ The amount of data already transferred.
 - ▶ The status of the controller.
 - ▶ The interrupt control (later more on this).

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 - ▶ The interrupt control (later more on this).
- ▶ This information can either be provided in special purpose registers of the CPU, or
- ▶ as a register map in the memory region (hence the DMA-controller is both a master and a slave device).

- ▶ A DMA-controller supports different modes of operations:
 - ▶ Single address to single address: In this case both the source- and destination address are kept constant.

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- ▶ A DMA-controller supports different modes of operations:
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 - ▶ Memory block to memory block: In this case both the source- and destination address are auto-incremented.
- ▶ Depending on the source and destination device one of these modi might be required.
- ▶ But how does the CPU know when the operation is completed?

- ▶ As the DMA-controller provides (a) status register(s), the CPU can know the status of the DMA-transfer.

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- ▶ As the DMA-controller provides (a) status register(s), the CPU can know the status of the DMA-transfer.
- ▶ By reading this register over and over again, it can see if the transfer has finished.

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- ▶ We call this method *polling*.

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- ▶ We call this method *polling*.
- ▶ Of course this method is very inefficient as:
 - ▶ Each request (poll) consumes energy.
 - ▶ The CPU reads often exactly the same datum (busy).
 - ▶ The CPU is busy with waiting instead of doing some "real work", defeating partially the purpose of a DMA-controller.

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 - ▶ The CPU is busy with waiting instead of doing some "real work", defeating partially the purpose of a DMA-controller.
- ▶ A solution to this might be to poll with lower frequency, however, this could lead to:
 - ▶ Loosing data, as the next DMA-transfer is not started fast enough.
 - ▶ Loosing performance, as the DMA-controller is ready directly after a poll.
 - ▶ ...

- ▶ A better method is the *interrupt driven* approach.

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- ▶ A better method is the *interrupt driven* approach.
- ▶ In this case the DMA-controller is programmed by the CPU to raise an *interrupt (IRQ)* the moment there is an error and/or the transfer has finished.

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- ▶ In this case the DMA-controller is programmed by the CPU to raise an *interrupt (IRQ)* the moment there is an error and/or the transfer has finished.
- ▶ An interrupt-service routine can then handle the next transfer.

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- ▶ In this case the DMA-controller is programmed by the CPU to raise an *interrupt (IRQ)* the moment there is an error and/or the transfer has finished.
- ▶ An interrupt-service routine can then handle the next transfer.
- ▶ Also this method can have some draw-backs, as:
 1. We have an interrupt latency (the time it takes between the IRQ and the CPU starts the interrupt-service routine).
 2. We have an interrupt-service-routine latency (the number of cycles the CPU requires to take the exception, run the interrupt-service routine, and return to the interrupted program).
 3. We have the IRQ-repetition rate (the frequency the IRQ's come in).

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- ▶ Also this method can have some draw-backs, as:
 1. We have an interrupt latency (the time it takes between the IRQ and the CPU starts the interrupt-service routine).
 2. We have an interrupt-service-routine latency (the number of cycles the CPU requires to take the exception, run the interrupt-service routine, and return to the interrupted program).
 3. We have the IRQ-repetition rate (the frequency the IRQ's come in).
- ▶ What can happen is:
 - ▶ The CPU is only handling IRQ's, hence not doing anything any more on the main program.
 - ▶ IRQ's are "missed" as the CPU is still in an interrupt-service-routine when the next IRQ comes in.
 - ▶ The latency's are longer than the time it takes to copy the data by the CPU, hence we "loose".