



Master Thesis

**Design and Implementation of a Model
CPU with Basic Logic Chips and related
Development Environment for
Educational Purposes**

created by

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Eidesstattliche Erklärung

Hiermit erkläre ich, dass ich die vorliegende Arbeit selbstständig und eigenhändig sowie ohne unerlaubte fremde Hilfe und ausschließlich unter Verwendung der aufgeführten Quellen und Hilfsmittel angefertigt habe.

Berlin, den 09.06.2022

Unterschrift

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Abstract

This thesis covers stuff.

Kurzfassung

Diese Arbeit umfasst Zeugs.

1 Introduction

This thesis covers the development and engineering process of the Educational Digital Computer (EDiC) pictured in figure 1.1. It is a completely novel Central Processing Unit (CPU) architecture built to visualize and show the fundamental workings of any CPU. The EDiC can execute over half a million instructions per second but also features step-by-step, instruction-by-instruction as well as breakpoint capabilities for better understanding of how CPUs work. All components can be tested individually with the help of dedicated test adapters and, therefore, Integrated Circuit (IC) failures can be tracked down and fixed easily. Additionally to the hardware built, the project includes an open source development environment including an assembler, tools to modify the micro-code and also Field Programmable Gate Array (FPGA) simulation and emulation of the hardware [10].

1.1 The Beginning

The foundation of this project started at the end of 2020 where I decided to design and build a CPU from scratch. In many university courses we would discuss some parts of a CPU like different approaches to binary adders or pipelining concepts but never would we build a complete CPU including the control logic. Due to a Covid-19 lockdown I had enough time at my hands and after 6 years of study, I felt like I had the expertise to complete this project.

At the end of January 2021 I succeeded with the actual hardware built and the CPU was able to execute a prime factorization of 7 bit numbers. Figure 1.2 depicts the final hardware build. Its design ideas, implementation and flaws are shown in ??.

TODO: rewrite to current chapters

Through the university module “Mixed-Signal-Baugruppen” I got to know Henry

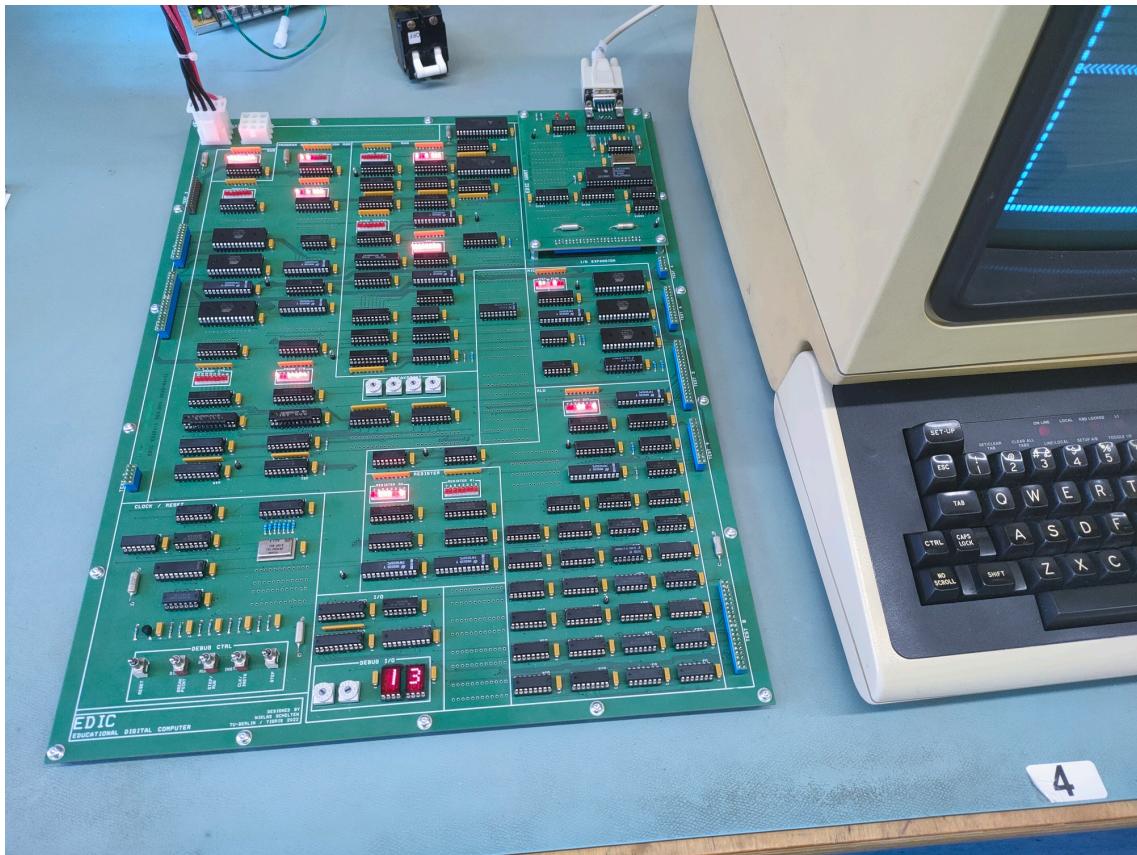


Figure 1.1: The final version of the EDiC playing Snake on a VT-100 over an RS-232 I/O card.

Westphal in summer 2021. He established a company that builds mixed-signal-electronics and, therefore, has a deep understanding of analog and digital circuitry. As he heard of my plans to build a future version of my CPU he was immediately interested and we wanted to rebuild a CPU with some changes:

- The general architecture should remain similar to the existing CPU with only changes where it was necessary.
- The objective was no longer only to create a functioning CPU, this was already accomplished, but the build should be such that it could be used for education.
- It should be more reliable, more capable and its components should be easily distinguishable. Therefore, it is to be build on a large Printed Circuit Board (PCB).
- There should be a generic interface for extension cards, i.e. IO Devices.

How the, now called, EDiC differs from its predecessor is presented in chapter 2.

To achieve the goal of the EDiC being educational it is important to not only build

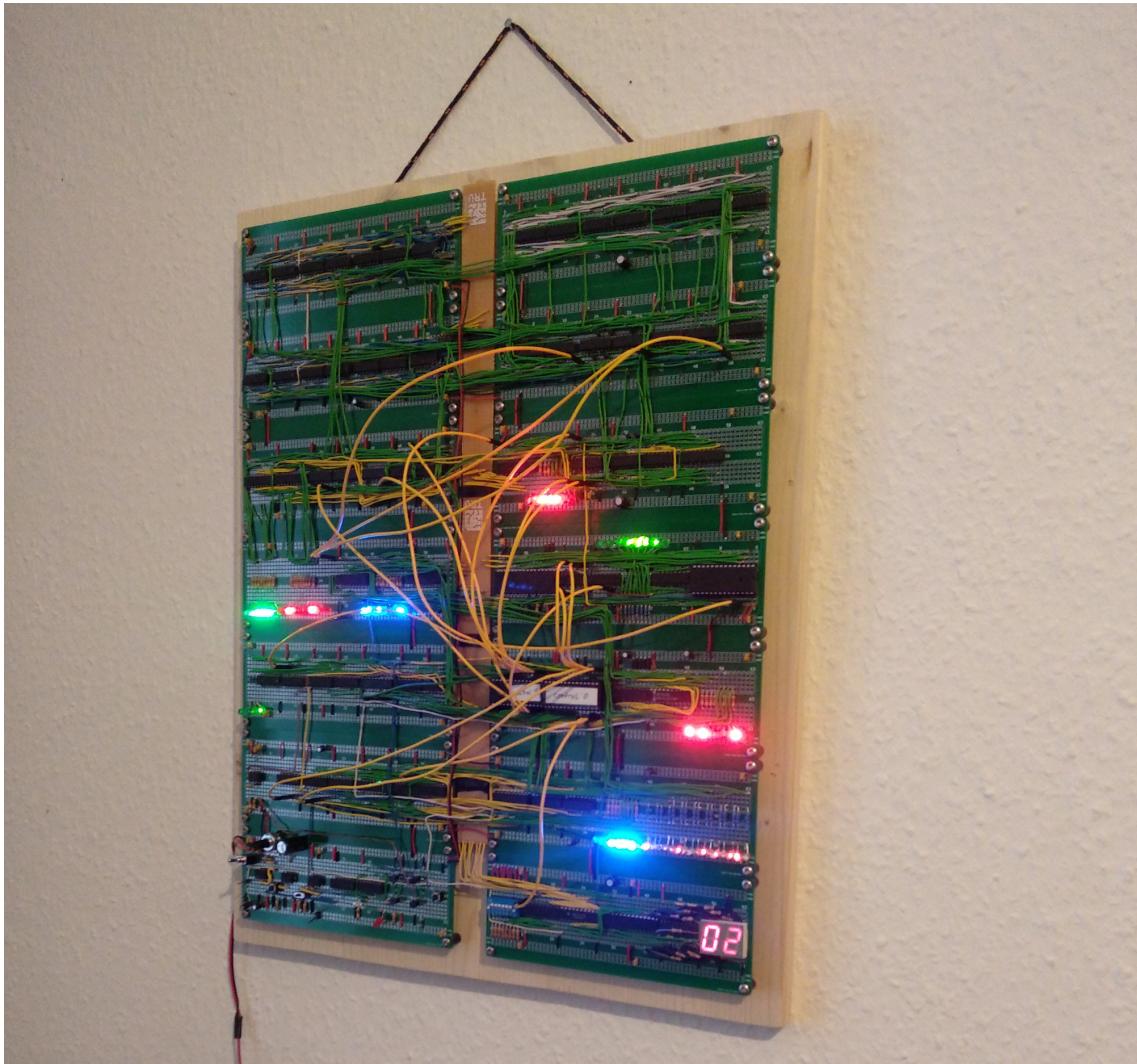


Figure 1.2: The first version of the CPU in its final state.

the hardware but to also provide a Software Environment to, for example, write applications. This is presented in chapter 3.

An important step in the design of the EDiC was to thoroughly simulate and implement the behavior on an FPGA. I firstly simulated the behavior and after the hardware schematic was finished, we built a script to convert the exported netlist to verilog to simulate the CPU on chip level. The process and differences between the FPGA design and the actual hardware are presented in chapter 4.

Chapter 5 describes the final hardware assembly, commissioning and timing analysis to determine the final clock frequency.

The final conclusion and future improvements are given in chapter 7.

TODO: Explain output buffer and why low level outputs have higher current ratings

2 Architecture

Designing and building a general purpose CPU includes a lot of architectural decisions which will decide how well the CPU performs, how complex it is and a lot more. The goal for the EDiC was to build a CPU that is capable of basic basic interaction with an I/O device such as the VT-100 but at the same time simple enough to easily understand its workings, such that it may be used in education.

2.1 Design Decisions

First of all, there are several decisions about the general structure of a CPU that need to be made. These decisions greatly influence how the EDiC can be structured into modules and how the final hardware build is setup. Another important factor towards architectural structure is the fact that the final hardware build of the CPU will be based on the 74-series of ICs.

2.1.1 8 bit bus width

Most current era CPUs employ a 32 bit or 64 bit bus to handle large numbers and large amounts of data. This, however, is not feasible when using 74-series ICs and at the same time targeting an easy to understand hardware build. Some early CPUs build with similar ICs worked with only 4 bits. This can work very well for specific applications but for the most arithmetics and data handling 8 bits are more practical. The EDiC will, therefore, use an 8 bit bus for data with a integer range of -128 to 127 or 0 to 255 for unsigned integers.

One of the major limitation of an overall 8 bit bus is the addressable memory space. With only 8 bit for the memory address, the maximum amount of memory addressable is 256 bytes. In the first version of the CPU this limitation was extended a bit by providing 256 bytes of instruction memory besides 256 bytes of read only memory for instruction immediate values and 256 bytes of addressable Static Random-Access Memory (SRAM). However, especially with a Complex Instruction

Set Computer (CISC) architecture, the limited SRAM memory space greatly limits the overall complexity of programs that can be executed. Additionally, more complex programs or even small operating systems are impossible to fit into 256 instructions.

Therefore, it was decided to extend the Program Counter (PC) and the memory addresses to 16 bit, which yields 65536 bytes of addressable SRAM and theoretically 65536 instructions¹. However, this raises problems of where the 16 bit addresses come from when all the registers and the memory only store 8 bit. The solution for the EDiC is presented in section 2.2.5.3 when explaining the different modules of the EDiC.

2.1.2 Datapath Architecture - Multicycle CISC

In most CPUs an instruction is not done in one clock cycle but it is divided into several steps that are done in sequence. There are two general approaches that are called *Multicycle* and *Pipelining* [21]. Multicycle means that all the steps of one instruction are performed sequentially and a new instruction is only dispatched after the previous instruction is finished. This is usually used when implementing CISCs, where one instruction can be very capable [4]. For example a add instruction in CISC could fetch operands from memory, execute the add and write the result back to memory. Reduced Instruction Set Computers (RISCs) on the other hand would need independent instruction to load operands from memory into registers, do the addition and write the result back to memory.

In Pipelining there a fixed steps each instruction goes through in a defined order and the intermediate results are stored in so called pipeline registers. Each pipeline step is constructed in such a way that it does not intervene with the others. Therefore, it is, in theory, possible to dispatch a new instruction each cycle even though the previous instruction is not yet finished. A typically 5-step pipeline would consist of the following steps [21]:

1. **Instruction Fetch:** The instruction is retrieved from memory and stored in a register.
2. **Instruction Decode:** The fetched instruction is decoded into control signals (and instruction specific data) for all the components of the CPU.
3. **Execute:** If arithmetic or logical operations are part of the instruction, they are performed.

¹The largest feasible Electrically Erasable Programmable Read-Only Memory (EEPROM) available has only 15 address bits and with that only 32768 words of data.

4. **Memory Access:** Results are written to the memory and/or data is read from memory.
5. **Writeback:** The results are written back to the registers.

However good the performance of a pipelined CPU is, it also comes with challenges. Those include a greater resource usage because all intermediate results need to be stored in pipeline registers. Additionally, branch instructions² pose a greater challenge because at the moment, the CPU execute the branch the next instructions have already been dispatched. This means that the pipeline needs to be flushed (i.e. cleared), performance is lost and more logic is required. It also noteworthy that branch prediction and pipeline flushes can be quite vulnerable as recently shown in CVE-2017-5753 with the Spectre bug [6].

Therefore, the EDiC is to built as a Multicycle CISC.

2.1.3 Single-Bus Oriented

The decision for a Multicycle CPU also enabled the architecture to be single-bus oriented. This means that all modules (e.g. the Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU) or the memory) are connected to a central bus for data transfer. The central bus is then used as a multi-directional data communication. To allow this in hardware, all components that drive the bus (i.e. “send” data) need to have a tri-state driver. A tri-state driver can either drive the bus with a defined ‘0’ or ‘1’ or high impedance which allows other tri-state drivers on the same bus to drive it. That way an instruction which fetches a word from the memory from an address stored in a register, adds a register value to it and stores it in a register could consist of the following steps:

1. Instruction Fetch
2. Instruction Decode
3. Memory Address from register over *bus* to memory module
4. Memory Access
5. Data from memory module over *bus* to ALU input
6. ALU operation
7. Data from ALU output over *bus* to register

²Branch Instructions change the PC and with that the location from which the next instruction is to be fetched. This is required for conditional and looped execution.

Table 2.1: Summary of the available alu operations.

aluOp[1]	aluOp[0]	aluSub	Resulting Operation
0	0	0	(A + B) Addition
0	0	1	(A - B) Subtraction
0	1	0	(A \wedge B) AND
0	1	1	(A $\wedge \bar{B}$)
1	0	0	(A \vee B) XOR
1	0	1	($\bar{A} \vee \bar{B}$) XNOR
1	1	0	(A \gg B) logical shift right
1	1	1	(A \ll B) logical shift left

With such an architecture it is possible to avoid large multiplexers and keep the overall architecture simple.

2.2 Modules

The design has been split into 7 rather independent modules of varying complexity which mainly interface with the bus and control signals.

2.2.1 Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

An ALU is the operational core of any CPU as it performs the calculations. The ALU of the EDiC is by design simple with only 4 different operations plus an option to invert the second input. The result of the ALU is stored in a result register which can drive the bus to store the result in a register or memory. For simplicity, the first input of the ALU (A input) is directly connected to the register file (section 2.2.2) and only the second input (B input) is accessible from the bus. This limits the possibilities of instructions, however, if both inputs should have been driven by the bus, one input would have needed a register and every ALU instruction would have taken two instead of one cycle.

The ALU consists of an 8 bit ripple carry full adder and a barrel shifter. The operations are controlled by three control signals: The first two bits select which ALU operation to perform and the third bit modifies the operation to perform. The possible operations are shown in table 2.1. For the adder, the third bit inverts the B input when active (All input bits are XORed with the control bit) and is used as the carry in of the adder. This essentially subtracts the B input from the A input

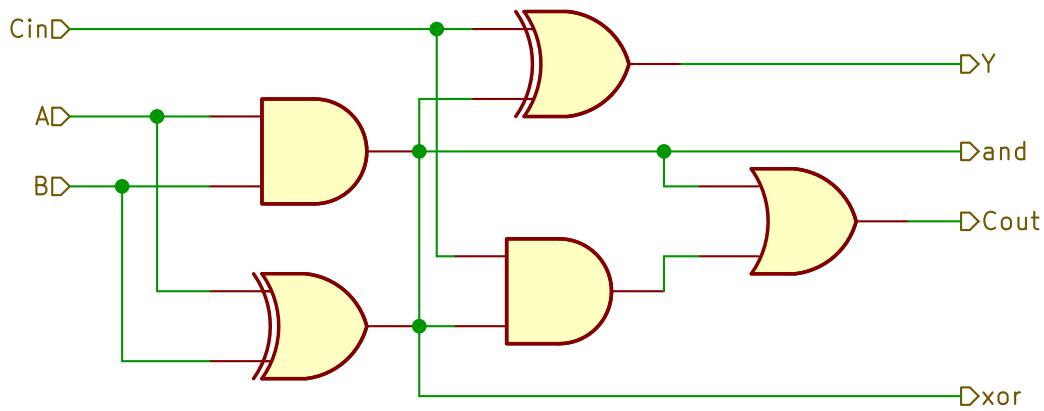


Figure 2.1: 1 bit full adder with the usual A, B and Carry inputs and Y and Carry outputs as well as the XOR and AND outputs.

in two's complement arithmetic. For the barrel shifter, the third bit reverses the shift direction. The XOR and AND operations shown in table 2.1 are chosen because they are already implemented in the half-adders and no additional logic is required to implement them. A complete 1 bit full-adder of the EDiC is shown in figure 2.1.

It was desirable to include a barrel shifter to have the possibility to improve multiply operation with a shift and add approach instead of repeated addition. The barrel shifter works by 3 consecutive multiplexers to shift by 1, 2 or 4 bit to the right that are controlled by the first 3 bit of the (not inverted) B input. To also allow shifting to the left there is one multiplexer before the three shift multiplexers to invert the order of bits and another one after the shifting to reorder the bits. In figure 2.2 a bidirectional barrel shifter implemented with the 74F157 is visualized. The 74F157 implements four 2 to 1 multiplexer and, therefore, 2 chips are needed for a full 8 bit 2 to 1 multiplexer.

The ALU also provides four flags which are used for condition execution. The Zero (all result bits are zero) and Negative (The Most Significant Bit (MSB) of the result) flag are both very easy to derive and were the only ones included in the first version of the CPU. However, the experience of programming for the CPU showed that it is desireable to be able to work with more advanced ALU flags when programming more complex functions. Having only Zero and Negative Flags, for example, does not allow unsigned operations of the full width³ which is especially important with only 8 data bits. It limits unsigned operations to only 0-127 even though the ALU would be capable of calculations with 0-255.

³An overflow and with that a greater or less than comparison cannot be done

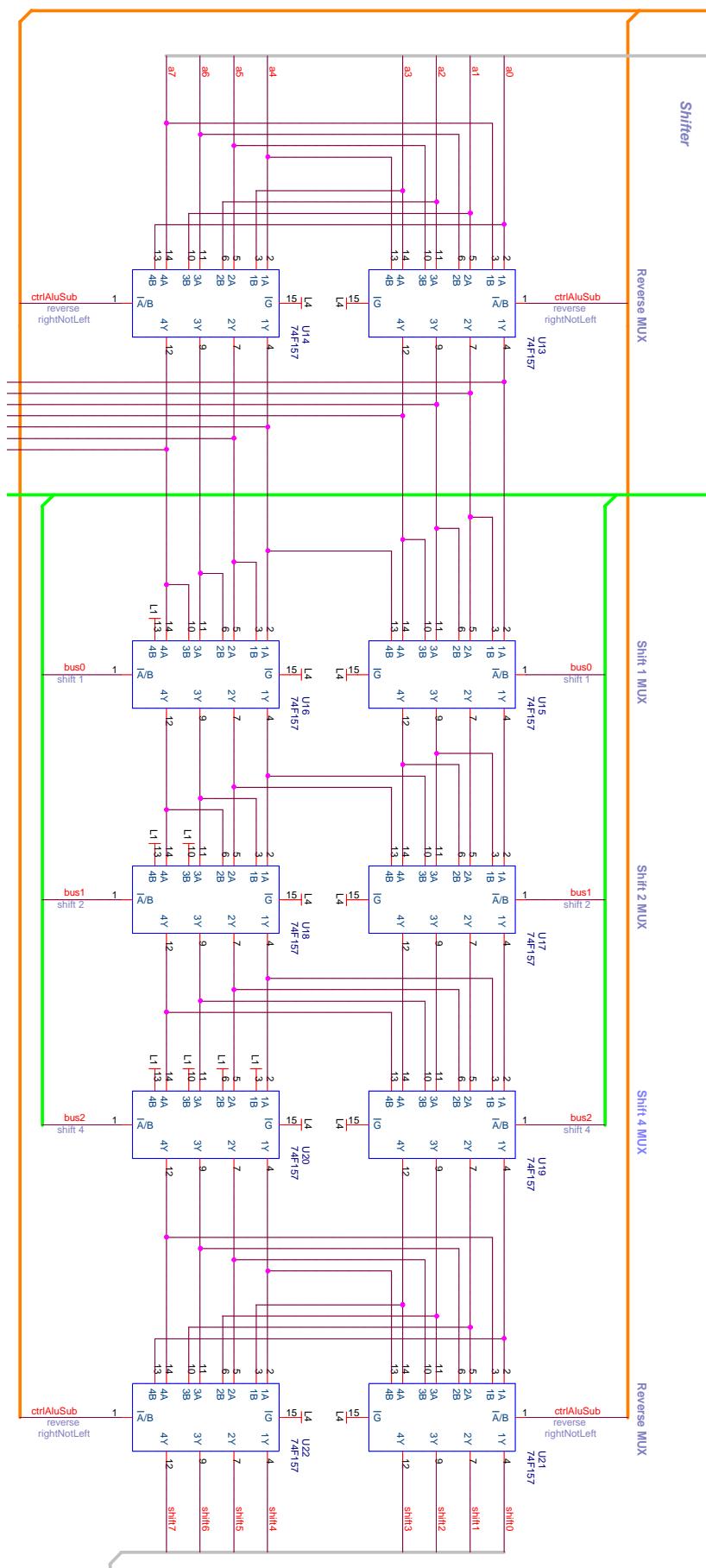


Figure 2.2: 8 bit bidirectional barrel shifter.

A lot of modern CPUs feature many different flags with the Intel 64® and IA-32 CPU having about 20 different flags [14, Section 3.4.3]. However, the popular ARM Architecture has a rather unique but very capable system for conditional execution which relies on only the four most used ALU flags. The EDiC uses the same flags and their functions are as follows:

- **N** The *Negative* flag indicates that the result is negative and is set if the 8th bit of the ALU result is '1'.
- **Z** The *Zero* flag indicates that the result is 0 and is set if all 8 result bits are 0.
- **V** The *Overflow* flag indicates that an overflow occurred and is set if the carry in and carry out of the 8th full-adder are different. This detects arithmetic overflows for signed two's-complement calculations.
- **C** The *Carry* flag is the carry out bit of the adder for adding and subtracting. For logical operations (**XOR** and **AND**) the carry flag has no meaning and for shifting operations it equals the last bit that was “carried out” (or is unchanged if shifting by 0 bits).

2.2.2 Register File

As is typical with CISCs the CPU does not need many general purpose registers and the register file can be kept simple with only two registers. The register file has one write port (from the bus) and two read ports of which one reads to the bus and the other is directly connected to the A input of the ALU. All ports can access both registers.

2.2.3 Program Counter (PC) & Instruction Register

The PC is a special 16 bit register which is used to store the address for the current instruction. Usually it is incremented by one for each instruction. However, it is also possible to load the PC from an instruction immediate (see below) or from the memory (section 2.2.5). The first option is used for branch instruction while the second option is used for returning from a function, which is explained in more detail in section 2.2.5.2. The value of the PC is used as address for the instruction EEPROMs and can also be driven to the bus (lower 8 bits) and a second 8 bit memory line (section 2.2.5) to store the PC for function calls.

Each instruction of the EDiC is stored in a 24 bit register of which 8 bits are the instruction and 16 bits represent an optional instruction immediate which can be used as an address for the memory/PC (16 bit) or as data (8 bit) driven to the bus. The instruction is directly forwarded to the control logic (section 2.2.4).

2.2.4 Control Logic

The control logic's job is to decode the current instruction and provide all the control signals for each cycle for any instruction. What kind of control signals exist in the EDiC is explained after all the modules are described in section 2.3. For keeping track which cycle of each instruction is currently executing a 3 bit synchronous counter is needed. Each control signal could be derived by a logical circuitry with 13 inputs: 8 bits instruction, 4 bits ALU flags and 3 bits cycle counter. However, designing these logic circuits is a lot of work, takes up a lot of space and cannot be changed easily later on. (For example when finding a bug in one instruction) Therefore, an EEPROM is used where the 13 bits that define one cycle of one specific instruction are used as addresses. The control signals then are the data bits of the word that is stored at the specific address in the EEPROM. How the EEPROM is programmed with the correct data is explained in depth in section 3.1.

One special case are the 3 bits ALU opcodes. They are not decoded the usual way from the instruction but are directly taken from the 3 Least Significant Bits (LSBs) of the instruction. This is done to reduce the storage requirements for the decoding EEPROMs. For instructions that use the ALU, the 3 LSBs need to be set accordingly but for all other instructions, the three bits can be used as usual for decoding the instruction because it does not matter what the combinatorial part of ALU does.

The first two cycles of each instruction need to be taken in special consideration because the instruction register is not yet loaded with the next instruction, because it is still being fetched and decoded. However, the instruction fetch and decode are always the same for each instruction, which means that all memory locations where the cycle counter is equal to 0 or 1 (the first two instructions) are filled with the control signals for an instruction fetch and decode.

2.2.5 Memory

The memory module became the most complex module because it includes not only the main memory of the CPU in form of an asynchronous SRAM but also includes a lot of addressing logic for the 16 bit addresses.

The addressing logic is required because the EDiC has 16 bit address with only an 8 bits data bus. However, the EDiC also features memory mapped I/O and a stack implementation which further complicate the addressing logic. Both these features and the result logic is described below.

2.2.5.1 Memory Mapped I/O

Input and Output is one of the most important factors of any CPU besides the computing capabilities which are mostly defined by the ALU. Using individual instructions for I/O which directly read from and write to the bus are limiting the usability quite a lot. A common way to extend the I/O capabilities is to use so called Memory Mapped I/O. This works by splitting the address space between actual memory and I/O devices. Then every I/O operation is performed as a usual memory access but the memory chip does not receive the access and the I/O device addressed performs the operation. In the EDiC the memory address is decoded in such a way, that accesses to addresses `0xfe00` to `0xffff` are performed by any connected I/O devices. For this to work, the lower 8 address bits, the bus and memory control signals - i.e. write enable, read enable and I/O chip enable (active when the upper 8 address bits are `0xff`) - are exposed for I/O devices to connect to.

2.2.5.2 Stack Implementation

A feature that has been thoroughly missing from the first CPU version is a kind of stack implementation. The stack is essential to the workings of the programming paradigm *functions*. When calling functions, the return address is usually (automatically) stored on the stack where also local variables can be stored. This allows functions to be called recursively and also simplifies the written assembler compared to simple branching.

However, a typical stack implementation as in modern CPU architectures like ARM is rather complex. It requires a Stack Pointer (SP) register which usually is accessible like any other general purpose register and can be directly used as an address. This includes using it as operand for arithmetic operations which is not possible when the

bus width is only 8 bits but the SP needs to be 16 bits wide to be used as an address. Therefore, the EDiC uses an unique approach to the stack:

Similarly to the memory mapped I/O it was decided to implement the stack as an 8 bit register which can be incremented and decremented. Every time a memory access is performed where the upper 8 bits of the address equal `0xff`, a 17th address bit is set and the upper 8 address bits are replaced by the current value of the SP. For example: The SP is currently `0x21` and a memory access to the address `0xff42` is performed. Then the actual address at the memory IC is `0x1_2142`.

This allows each function (which has a unique SP value on the current call stack) to have 256 bytes of function local memory. In the *call* instruction, the EDiC automatically stores the return address (next PC value) at address `0xffff`, which is `0x1_{sp}ff` after translation. To store the whole 16 bit return address, a second memory IC is used in parallel which only needs 256 bytes of storage. In the hardware build of the EDiC the same SRAM IC as for the main memory is used because it is cheaply available and the built is simplified by not using more different components. The call and return instructions are further described in section 2.4.

Usually, the stack is also used to store parameters for a function call. In the EDiC, this can be achieved by providing a special *store* and *load* instruction which access the stack memory with an increment SP. This way it is possible to store parameter before calling a function and it is also possible to retrieve modified values after the call⁴

2.2.5.3 Addressing Logic

With increasing the address width to 16 bit and also adding more functionality to the memory access, the addressing logic has become more complex. There are two main sources for memory addresses: The new 16 bit Memory Address Register (MAR) which can be written to from the bus and the 16 bit instruction immediate. As the bus is only 8 bits wide, there is a special instruction to write to the upper 8 bits of the MAR and the lower bits are written in the memory access instruction. This can be used when a memory address is stored in registers and is needed when looping through values in the memory like arrays. When accessing addresses known at compile time, the instruction immediate can be used as an address which has

⁴This is important when a function takes memory pointers as parameters and modifies them. For example a string parsing function could take a pointer to the start of the string, parse some characters as a number, return its number representation and modify the parameter such that it points to where the parsing stopped.

been extended to support 16 bit. These two sources of addresses are then decoded to either select the stack (upper 8 bits equal `0xff`), memory mapped I/O (`0xfe`) or regular memory access. The chip enable of the main memory is only asserted when performing stack and regular memory accesses while the I/O chip enable is only asserted when the upper 8 bits are `0xfe`. Additionally, the 17th address bit is asserted when stack access is performed and the upper 8 bits of the address are replaced with the SP in this case.

2.2.6 Input & Output

The EDiC can interface with different I/O devices connected to it via the memory mapped I/O. For evaluation and debugging, the EDiC includes one I/O device at address `0x00` which can be read from and written to. The values to be read can be selected by the user with a hexadecimal 8 bit switch and the values written to the address `0x00` are displayed with a 2 digit display. This allows simple programs to run independently of external I/O devices.

2.2.7 Clock, Reset & Debugging

An important feature when developing a CPU is debugging capabilities. The initial version could at least step the clock cycle by cycle. However, as programs get complexer this feature quickly becomes less useful as each instruction is made of several cycles and when a problem occurs after several hundred instructions it is infeasible to step through all cycles. Additionally, the usual application developer does not want to step through each cycle but rather step through each instruction, assuming that the instruction set works as intended. Another important debugging feature is the use of breakpoints where the CPU halts execution when the PC reaches a specific address.

In the EDiC halting was not realized by stopping the clock completely but rather by inhibiting the instruction step counter increment. This has the advantage that the clock is not abruptly pulled to 0 or 1 and, therefore, no spikes on the clock line can occur. To implement a cycle by cycle stepping mode, the halt signal is de-asserted for only one clock cycle, which in turn increments the step counter only once. To step whole instructions, the halt signal is de-asserted until the instruction is finished (marked by a control signal that is asserted at the end of each instruction from the control logic). In breakpoint mode, the halt signal is controlled from a comparator that compares the PC and a 16 bit user input, asserting the halt signal when those

two equal. As soon as the CPU halts, the user can then switch to stepping mode and debug the specific instruction of the program. The user can freely switch between these modes with switches and buttons.

2.3 Control Signals

The EDiC has 24 control signals which define what the current cycle does:

- **aluYNWE** - ALU output register write enable (active low): Connects to the clock enable input of the ALU output register.
- **aluNOE** - ALU output enable (active low): Enables the Three State buffer to drive the bus with the value of the ALU output register.
- **reg0NWE** - Register 0 write enable (active low): Connects to the clock enable input of the register 0.
- **reg1NWE** - Register 1 write enable (active low): Connects to the clock enable input of the register 1.
- **regAluSel** - Register Select for the ALU A input: When 0 sets register 0 as A input to the ALU, otherwise, register 1.
- **reg0BusNOE** - Register 0 bus output enable (active low): Drives the bus with the value of register 0.
- **reg1BusNOE** - Register 1 bus output enable (active low): Drives the bus with the value of register 1.
- **memPCFromImm** - load data for PC from instruction immediate: Selects the load input of the PC to be from the instruction immediate instead of from the memory.
- **memPCNEn** - PC enable (active low): enables the PC to load data or increment by one depending on the next control signal.
- **memPCLoadN** - PC load and not increment (active low): When 0 load the PC with the data specified by **memPCFromImm**, otherwise, increment the PC by one.
- **memPCToRamN** - PC output enable (active low): Drives the bus and ram2data with the value of the PC.

- **memSPNEn** - SP enable (active low): enable the SP to be incremented or decremented depending on the next control signal.
- **memSPUp** - SP increment not decrement: When 1 increment the SP, otherwise, decrement.
- **memInstrNWE** - Instruction write enable (active low): Connects to the clock enable input of the instruction register.
- **memInstrNOE** - Instruction output enable (active low): Drives the bus with the lower 8 bits of the instruction immediate.
- **memMar0NWE** - MAR bits 7..0 write enable (active low): Connects to the clock enable input of the lower 8 bits of the MAR.
- **memMar1NWE** - MAR bits 15..8 write enable (active low): Connects to the clock enable input of the upper 8 bits of the MAR.
- **memInstrImmToRamAddr** - Random-Access Memory (RAM) address from instruction immediate and not MAR: When 1 use the instruction immediate as address for the memory, otherwise, use the MAR content.
- **memRamNWE** - Memory write enable (active low): Connects to the write enable input of the SRAM and I/O.
- **memRamNOE** - Memory output enable (active low): Drives the bus with the value of the SRAM or I/O depending on the memory address (section 2.2.5).
- **instrFinishedN** - Instruction finished (active low): Is asserted at the last active cycle of the instruction to reset the step counter to 0⁵.
- **busFFNOE**⁶ - Drive 0xff to the bus (active low): Connects to the output enable input of the constant 0xff driver.

2.4 Final Instruction Set

This section describes all available instructions, what they do and which instruction cycle performs which steps of the instruction. Each instruction starts with the same two cycles for instruction fetching. The following instructions are supported by the hardware:

⁵the instruction finished signal is also used for the debugger to detect the end of an instruction and halt when stepping through instructions and not single cycles.

⁶Was added in the component verification and is explained in chapter 6.

2.4.1 ALU operations

The EDiC supports a wide variety of instructions that perform ALU operations. All these operations take two arguments which are used for one of the possible operations shown in table 2.1. Each ALU operation modifies the status flags.

- *Register x Register*: Takes two registers as parameter and the result is stored in the first parameter.

Cycles:

1. Both register to ALU A and B input, write enable of ALU result register.
 2. Write content of ALU result register into first parameter register.
- *Register x Register (no write back)*: Takes two registers as parameter and the result is only calculated for the status flags.

Cycles:

1. Both register to ALU A and B input, write enable of ALU result register.
- *Register x Memory (from Register)*: Takes one register as ALU A input and a second register which is used as a memory address for the ALU B input. The result is stored in the first register.

Cycles:

1. Second register is stored in the lower 8 bits of the MAR⁷.
 2. Address calculations.
 3. First register and memory content as A and B inputs, write enable of the result register.
 4. Write content of ALU result register into first parameter register.
- *Register x Memory (from immediate)*: Takes one register as ALU A input and a 16 bit value as immediate which is used as a memory address for the ALU B input. The result is stored in the first register.

Cycles:

1. Address calculations.
2. First register and memory content as A and B inputs, write enable of the result register.

⁷The upper 8 bits of the MAR should be set beforehand

3. Write content of ALU result register into first parameter register.

- *Register x Memory (from immediate, no write back)*: Takes one register as ALU A input and a 16 bit value as immediate which is used as a memory address for the ALU B input. The result is only calculated for the status flags.

Cycles:

1. Address calculations.

2. First register and memory content as A and B inputs, write enable of the result register.

- *Register x Immediate*: Takes one register as ALU A input and an 8 bit value as immediate for the ALU B input. The result is stored in the first register.

Cycles:

1. Register and immediate value as A and B inputs and write enable of the result register.

2. Write content of ALU result register into first parameter register.

- *Register x Immediate (no write back)*: Takes one register as ALU A input and an 8 bit value as immediate for the ALU B input. The result is only calculated for the status flags.

Cycles:

1. Register and immediate value as A and B inputs and write enable of the result register.

2.4.2 Memory operations

Some ALU operations also include reading values from memory. However, the EDiC features a lot more memory operations which are detailed below. As all memory operations may perform memory mapped I/O operations, special care must be taken to allow asynchronous I/O devices to function as well. This means that for each memory access, the address setup and hold must be an individual cycle, resulting in a 3 cycle memory access.

- *Load from register address*: Takes the second register parameter as the lower 8 bits of the memory address and writes the memory content to the first register.

Cycles:

1. Second register to lower MAR.
 2. Memory address setup.
 3. Memory read access and write back to first register.
 4. Memory address hold.
- *Load from immediate address:* Takes a 16 bit immediate as the memory address and writes the memory content to the register.

Cycles:

1. Memory address setup.
 2. Memory read access and write back to first register.
 3. Memory address hold.
- *Load from immediate address with incremented SP:* Takes a 16 bit immediate as the memory address and writes the memory content to the register. However, before the memory access, the SP is incremented and after the access, the SP is decremented again. This is used to access parameters for subfunctions.

Cycles:

1. Increment Stack Pointer.
 2. Memory address setup.
 3. Memory read access and write back to first register.
 4. Memory address hold.
 5. Decrement Stack Pointer.
- *Store to register address:* Takes the second register parameter as the lower 8 bits of the memory address and writes the content of the first register to the memory.

Cycles:

1. Second register to lower MAR.
2. Memory address and data setup.
3. Memory write access.
4. Memory address and data hold.

- *Store to immediate address:* Takes a 16 bit immediate as the memory address and writes the register content to memory.

Cycles:

1. Memory address and data setup.
2. Memory write access.
3. Memory address and data hold.

- *Store to immediate address with incremented SP:* Takes a 16 bit immediate as the memory address and writes the register content to memory. However, before the memory access, the SP is incremented and after the access, the SP is decremented again. This is used to access parameters for subfunctions.

Cycles:

1. Increment Stack Pointer.
2. Memory address and data setup.
3. Memory write access.
4. Memory address and data hold.
5. Decrement Stack Pointer.

- *Set upper 8 bits of MAR from register:* Sets the upper MAR register to the content of the register.

Cycles:

1. Register output enable and upper MAR write enable.
- *Set upper 8 bits of MAR from immediate:* Sets the upper MAR register to the 8 bit immediate value.

Cycles:

1. Immediate output enable and upper MAR write enable.

2.4.3 Miscellaneous operations

There are some more operations that are strictly speaking neither ALU nor memory operations like moves and branches.

- *Move between register:* Set the first register to the value of the second.

Cycles:

1. Second register output enable and first register write enable.
- *Move immediate to register:* Set the register to the value of the immediate.

Cycles:

1. Immediate output enable and first register write enable.
- *Conditionally set PC from immediate:* This is the only conditional operation available. Depending on the current status register the following cycles are either executed or No Operations (NOPs) are executed.

Cycles:

1. PC write enable from immediate.
- *Function Call:* Takes a 16 bit address which the PC is set to. The SP is incremented and the return address is stored on the stack.

Cycles:

1. Increment SP and write **0xffff** into the MAR.
2. Memory address and data (PC) setup.
3. Memory write access.
4. Memory address and data hold.
5. Load PC from instruction immediate.
- *Function Return:* Decrements the SP and the PC is loaded from the return address which is read from the memory.

Cycles:

1. Write **0xffff** into the MAR.
2. Memory address setup.
3. Memory read access and PC write enable.
4. Memory address hold.
5. Decrement SP.

3 Software Development Environment

When just providing the hardware, the CPU can hardly be used. It is possible to write programs by hand by writing single bytes to the EEPROMs that hold the program. However, it is quite infeasible to write complex programs this way. Even more extreme is content of the EEPROMs holding the micro code, i.e. that decode the instruction depending on the instruction cycle and ALU flags.

Therefore, the EDiC comes with two main software utilities that form the Software Development Environment.

3.1 Microcode Generation

The goal is to define all the available instructions and what they perform in which instruction step and then have a program automatically generate the bit-files for the EEPROM. This approach allows to easily make changes to the existing microcode if a bug was found or a new instruction should be added. The file format which defines the microcode has to be human and machine readable as it should be easily edited by hand and also be read by the tool that generates the bit-files. A very common file format for tasks like this is JavaScript Object Notation (JSON) [15] which is widely used in the computer industry. Besides basic types as strings and numbers, it allows basic arrays with square brackets (`[]`) and objects with curly braces (`{}`). Each object contains key value pairs and everything can be nested as desired. For the EDiC microcode generation CoffeeScript-Object-Notation (CSon) was used which is very similar to JSON but is slightly easier to write by hand because its syntax is changed a bit:

- It allows comments which is extensively used to ease the understanding of individual instruction steps
- Braces and commas are not required

```

1 interface IMicrocodeFile {
2     signals: [
3         {
4             name: string;
5             noOp: 0 | 1;
6         }
7     ];
8
9     instructionFetch: [
10    {
11        [signalName: string]: 0 | 1;
12    }
13];
14
15     instructions: [
16     {
17         op: string;
18         cycles: [
19             {
20                 [signalName: string]: 0 | 1 | 'r' | 's' | '!r' | '!s';
21             }
22         ];
23     }
24 ];
25 };

```

Code Example 3.1: Schema of the Microcode Definition CSON-File [3] as a TypeScript [17] Type definition.

- Keys do not require string quotation marks

The schema for the file describing the microcode is shown in Code Example 3.1. The file is an object with three key, value pairs:

```

1 {
2     name: 'regONWE'
3     noOp: 1
4 }

```

Code Example 3.2: Example of a control signal definition for the microcode generation.

Signals The signals array consists of Objects that define the available control signals and the default value of the control signal. Code Example 3.2 defines the *not*

write enable signal for register 0 control signal and defines the default state as high. This means, when this control signal is not specified it will stay high and, therefore, register 0 will not be written.

InstructionFetch This array defines the steps that are performed at the beginning of each instruction to fetch the new instruction and decode it. Each object represents one step and consists of key value pairs that define one control signal.

```

1   instructionFetch: [
2     { # write instruction
3       memInstrNWE: 0
4     }
5     { # increment PC
6       memPCNEn: 0
7       memPCLoadN: 1
8     }
9   ]

```

Code Example 3.3: Definition of the instruction fetch and decode steps for the microcode generation.

For example Code Example 3.3 he first step specifies only the *instruction not write enable* to be low and with this write the instruction into the instruction register. Secondly, the PC is incremented by setting *PC not enable* to low and *PC not load* to high.

Instructions The instructions are an array of all available instructions. Each instruction is defined as an op code, which is the 8 bit instruction in binary format. However, if it was only possible to define the 8 bit as 0s and 1s instructions which only differ in the register used would need to be specified separately which is very error prone. Therefore, it is allowed to specify the bit that specifies if register 0 or 1 is used to be set to 'r' or 's' and then multiple instructions are generated. Each instruction then The `cycles` array define the steps each instruction does in the same way as the `instructionFetch` array does. However, as the value of individual control signals may depend up on which register is specified in the op code, it is also possible to specify 'r', '!r', 's' or '!s'.

Code Example 3.4 defines the move immediate to register instruction for both register at the same time. The *instruction immediate not output enable* is low and

```

1  {
2      op: '11111100r' # r = imm
3      cycles: [
4          { # imm to bus to r
5              regONWE: 'r'
6              reg1NWE: '!r'
7              memInstrNOE: 0
8          }
9      ]
10 }

```

Code Example 3.4: Definition of the move immediate to register instruction for the microcode generation.

either register 0 or register 1 is written to. This definition would be equal to Code Example 3.5.

```

1  [
2      {
3          op: '11111000' # r0 = imm
4          cycles: [
5              { # imm to bus to r0
6                  regONWE: 0
7                  reg1NWE: 1
8                  memInstrNOE: 0
9              }
10         ]
11     }
12     {
13         op: '11111001' # r1 = imm
14         cycles: [
15             { # imm to bus to r1
16                 regONWE: 1
17                 reg1NWE: 0
18                 memInstrNOE: 0
19             }
20         ]
21     }
22 ]

```

Code Example 3.5: Definitions of the move immediate to register instruction for each register separately for the microcode generation.

This example is quite simple, however, instructions with two registers as arguments would result in four times the same definition and duplication can always

result in inconsistencies. The same idea is also used for the ALU operations. The ALU operations are not generated by the microcode but are rather the three least significant bits of the instruction. Therefore, all instructions using the ALU can have the exact same control signals stored in the microcode EEPROM. To avoid 8 definitions of the same instructions, the op code can contain 'alu' and all 8 instructions are generated. Code Example 3.6 for example defines the alu operation

```

1   {
2     op: '000rsalu' # r = r x s (alu)
3     cycles: [
4       { # r x s into alu
5         aluYNWE: 0
6         reg0BusNOE: 's'
7         reg1BusNOE: '!s'
8         regAluSel: 'r'
9       }
10      { # alu into r
11        aluNOE: 0
12        reg0NWE: 'r'
13        reg1NWE: '!r'
14      }
15    ]
16  }

```

Code Example 3.6: Definition of the alu operation with two register arguments for the microcode generation.

with two registers and defines all 32 instructions with the op codes '00000000' to '00011111'.

```

1   {
2     op: '1010flag' # pc := imm
3     cycles: [
4       { # imm to pc
5         memPCNEn: 0
6         memPCLoadN: 0
7         memPCFromImm: 1
8       }
9     ]
10  }

```

Code Example 3.7: Definition of the branch instructions.

There is one final specialty built into the Microcode Generator: The EDiC has a branch instruction which is either executed or treated as a no-operation depending

Table 3.1: All available branch instructions with their op-code and microcode translation based on the ALU flags explained in section 2.2.1.

flag (OP-Code)	Assembler Instruction	ALU flags	Interpretation
0000	<code>jmp/bal/b</code>	Any	Always
0001	<code>beq</code>	$Z==1$	Equal
0010	<code>bne</code>	$Z==0$	Not Equal
0011	<code>bcs/bhs</code>	$C==1$	Unsigned \geq
0100	<code>bcc/blo</code>	$C==0$	Unsigned $<$
0101	<code>bmi</code>	$N==1$	Negative
0110	<code>bpl</code>	$N==0$	Positive or Zero
0111	<code>bvs</code>	$V==1$	Overflow
1000	<code>bvc</code>	$V==0$	No overflow
1001	<code>bhi</code>	$C==1$ and $Z==0$	Unsigned $>$
1010	<code>bls</code>	$C==0$ or $Z==1$	Unsigned \leq
1011	<code>bge</code>	$N==V$	Signed \geq
1100	<code>blt</code>	$N!=V$	Signed $<$
1101	<code>bgt</code>	$Z==0$ and $N==V$	Signed $>$
1110	<code>ble</code>	$Z==0$ or $N!=V$	Signed \leq
1111	-	Any	Never (Not used)

on the current state of the ALU flags. For all other instructions, the flags are ignored and always executed¹. For this special instruction, the last four bits replaced with `flag` define at which state of the ALU flags, the branch should be executed. The possible conditions are heavily inspired by the conditional execution of ARM CPUs[7] as the ALU flag architecture is very similar. The possible values for the `flag` field and their meanings are listed in table 3.1. Especially for a CPU with only 8 bits it is important to support unsigned and signed operations and with a complex microcode it is no problem to support all the different branch instructions and with it facilitate the application design.

3.2 Assembler

The second software that is probably even more important is the assembler. An assembler translates human readable instructions into the machine code, i.e. the

¹Meaning that all memory locations for the instruction and step counter, no matter the ALU flags, store the operation.

```

1 PRNG_SEED = 0x0000
2 SIMPLE_IO = 0xfe00
3
4 prng:
5   ldr r0, [PRNG_SEED]
6   subs r0, 0
7   beq prngDoEor
8   lsl r0, 1
9   beq prngNoEor
10  bcc prngNoEor
11 prngDoEor:
12  xor r0, 0x1d
13 prngNoEor:
14  str r0, [PRNG_SEED]
15 ret
16
17 start:
18  mov r0, 0
19  str r0, [PRNG_SEED]
20 prng_loop:
21  call prng
22  str r0, [SIMPLE_IO]
23  b prng_loop

```

Code Example 3.8: Pseudo Random Number Generator (PRNG) written in the EDiC Assembler.

bits that are stored in the instruction EEPROMs. For the EDiC each instruction is 24 bits wide, with 8 bits instruction op code and 8 or 16 bits immediate value. Even though assemblers usually only translate instructions one for one, they can have quite advanced features. With an assembler, the programmer is no longer required to know the specific op codes for all instructions and set individual bits of the instructions which is very error prone. The assembler for the EDiC, therefore, allows easier programming with a simple text-based assembly syntax similar to the well-known ARM syntax.

Code Examples 3.8 and 3.9 show the translation that the assembler does where Code Example 3.8 shows the assembler program that is written by any programmer and Code Example 3.9 summarizes what values are stored in the program EEPROM.

```

1 0x0000 - op: 10100000, imm: 0x000a - b 0x0a
2 0x0001 - op: 11110000, imm: 0x0000 - ldr r0, [0x00]
3 0x0002 - op: 10010001, imm: 0x0000 - subs r0, 0x00
4 0x0003 - op: 10100001, imm: 0x0007 - beq 0x07
5 0x0004 - op: 10000111, imm: 0x0001 - lsl r0, 0x01
6 0x0005 - op: 10100001, imm: 0x0008 - beq 0x08
7 0x0006 - op: 10100100, imm: 0x0008 - bcc 0x08
8 0x0007 - op: 10000100, imm: 0x001d - xor r0, 0x1d
9 0x0008 - op: 11110010, imm: 0x0000 - str r0, [0x00]
10 0x0009 - op: 10110001, imm: ----- - ret
11 0x000a - op: 11111000, imm: 0x0000 - mov r0, 0
12 0x000b - op: 11110010, imm: 0x0000 - str r0, [0x00]
13 0x000c - op: 10110000, imm: 0x0001 - call 0x01
14 0x000d - op: 11110010, imm: 0xfe00 - str r0, [0xfe00]
15 0x000e - op: 10100000, imm: 0x000c - b 0x0c

```

Code Example 3.9: The output of the PRNG of Code Example 3.8. The first 16 bits are the memory address, then 8 bits for the instruction op-code and 16 bits for the instruction immediate and for reference the original instruction with variables replaced.

3.2.1 Calling conventions

Even though calling conventions are strictly speaking not a feature of the assembler, it is an important factor to keep in mind with functional programming. Calling conventions are a set of rules which caller (the instructions calling a subroutine) and callee (the subroutine that is called) should usually follow.

Parameters Usually the first parameters from the caller to the callee are passed in registers, which avoids long memory operations for storing and loading the parameters. In the EDiC memory operations cannot stall and are, therefore, not slower than register operation and the EDiC has only 2 registers. Therefore, only the very first argument is passed in `r0` and all further arguments are passed in the memory. The parameters are stored on the stack of the callee starting at stack address `0x00` (`0xff00` as memory address).

Return value The return value is to be place in `r0`. If a return value larger than 8 bit (or multiple 8 bit values) are to be returned, the caller may pass a pointer to a memory location as a parameter and the callee works on the memory content pointed to.

Preservation The register **r1** can to be used as a function local variable and, therefore, has to be preserved by any callee. This is usually done by storing the content on the stack at the beginning of the function and restoring them from the stack at the end of the function.

3.2.2 Available Instructions

First of all, this section summarizes all available instructions and which parameters they take. All instructions start with the operation and then up two parameters separated by a comma.

There are four different parameter types. It can either be a register specified as **r0** or **r1**. The register value can also be passed as the address to a memory operation with **[r0]**.

Immediate values can also be specified as value or as address with brackets around the immediate value. However, the syntax for immediate values is more complex, as the assembler can parse decimal (positive and negative) as well as hexadecimal numbers. Additionally, variables can be used which are further explained in section 3.2.3.

When specifying a value, the immediate can range between -127 and 255 (two's complement and unsigned) and when used as an address it can range between 0 and 0xffffe (65534). The upper limit is not 0xffff because that address is reserved for the return address and should not be overwritten.

3.2.2.1 ALU Instructions

The following ALU instructions are available:

- add
- and
- xor
- lsr
- sub
- eor
- xnor
- lsl

ALU instructions always take two parameters. The first parameter is the left hand side operand and the register where the result is stored in and the second parameter is the right hand side operand.

- Two registers

sub r0, r1 does: $r_0 := r_0 - r_1$

- One register and one register as memory address
 $\text{lsr } r1, [r0]$ does: $r_1 := r_1 \gg \text{mem}[r_0]$ (section 3.2.2.2)
- One register and an immediate value
 $\text{and } r0, 0x0f$ does: $r_0 := r_0 \wedge 15$
- One register and an immediate value as memory address
 $\text{add } r1, [0x0542]$ does: $r_1 := r_1 + \text{mem}[1346]$

All of the ALU instructions can have an ‘s’ as suffix which has the effect that the result of the operation is not written to the first operand. This is useful when a calculation is only performed to update the ALU flags but the register value is used later on. This results in a special ALU instruction: `cmp` which is an alias to `subs` which is typically used to compare two values and perform a branch instruction based on the result.

```
cmp r0, 10 // equal to subs r0, 10
blt 0x42
```

compares the `r0` register with the value 10 and if $r0 < 10$ branches to instruction at address 66 and preserves the content of `r0`.

3.2.2.2 Memory Instructions

The following memory instructions are supported:

- | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| • str | • sts | • stf | • sma |
| • ldr | • lds | • ldf | |

The two common instructions are `str` and `ldr` which are *store* and *load* operations. These two instructions take two parameters: The first is the register used in the store or load operation and the second is the memory address. They either take an 16bit immediate address which is used as the full address for the access or a register as address. As the registers are only 8 bits, the register value is only used for the lower 8 bits of the address and the upper 8 bits are the value of the MAR. The upper 8 bits of the MAR can be set with the `sma` instruction which takes either a register or an 8 bit immediate value.

The `lds` and `sts` instructions are used for accessing the stack. They only take immediate addresses and the compiler makes sure that the addresses upper 8 bits are `0xff` to always access the stack.

The `ldf` and `stf` functions work very similar in only accessing the stack. However, before the memory access, the SP is incremented and after the access, it is restored. This way, it is possible to access parameters of a function that is called.

Some examples:

<code>ldr r0, [0xabba]</code>	Loads the value from address <code>0xabba</code> into <code>r0</code>
<code>str r1, [0xc0de]</code>	Stores the value in <code>r1</code> to address <code>0xc0de</code>
<code>sma 0xca</code>	
<code>mov r0, 0xfe</code>	Loads the value from address <code>0xcafe</code> into <code>r0</code>
<code>ldr r0, [r0]</code>	
<code>lds r1, [0x42]</code>	Loads the value fromm address <code>0xff42</code> which is translated into <code>0x{sp}42</code> into <code>r1</code>
<code>stf r0, [0xab]</code>	Stores the value in <code>r0</code> to address <code>0xffab</code> with incremented SP which is translated into <code>0x{sp+1}ab</code>

3.2.2.3 Miscellaneous Instructions

There are four more instructions that are essential:

- `mov`
- `b`
- `call`
- `ret`

The `mov` instruction either takes two registers or one register and an 8 bit immediate value as parameters. When specifying two registers, the content of the second register is copied to the first register. Otherwise, the immediate value is stored in the register. The branch (`b`) instruction takes a 16 bit immediate value which is used as the new PC content. It is the only conditional instruction that is available in the EDIC instruction set. The second column of table 3.1 lists all the possible suffixes for conditional branches and their meanings. If the condition is met, the branch is executed, otherwise the instruction has no effect.

The `call` instruction also takes a 16 bit immediate address which is the destination address for the call. In contrast to the branch instruction, the call is not conditional (i.e. it is always executed) and has the side effect of incrementing the SP and storing the current PC on the stack at address `0x{sp}ff`.

The `ret` instruction is used at the end of a function without any parameters to restore the PC from the stack at address `0x{sp}ff` and decrement the SP again.

Some examples:

<code>mov r0, 0xda</code>	Sets <code>r0</code> to <code>0xda</code>
<code>mov r1, r0</code>	Copies the value of <code>r0</code> to <code>r1</code>
<code>cmp r0, 10</code>	
<code>blt 0x42</code>	Branches to address (sets the PC to) <code>0x42</code> if the value of <code>r0</code> is smaller than 10
<code>call 0x100</code>	Calls a function at address <code>0x100</code>
<code>ret</code>	Returns from a function to the caller

3.2.3 Constants

One main improvement that an assembler allows over manually setting the instruction bits is the use of constants in the code. They can be declared to represent a value and then used similarly to variables of higher level languages instead of hard coded numbers. The EDiC assembler supports three kinds of constants: Value constants, labels and string constants.

3.2.3.1 Value constants

Value constants are the easiest kind of constants available. The first two lines of Code Examples 3.8 and 3.10 both declare a common constant that is used exactly like in higher level languages. Each instruction, taken an immediate value can instead specify the name of the constant and the value of the constant is then used instead. In Code Example 3.10 line 5 (`ldr r0, [PRNG_SEED]`) is assembled into the same instruction as `ldr r0, [0x00]`. Constant declarations have the format `<name> = <value>`.

These value constants can be used to make the code easier to understand. For example `str r0, [SIMPLE_IO]` makes it clearer that the value of `r0` is not stored in some memory location but rather send to some I/O device (in this case the internal I/O register from section 2.2.6). It also prevents errors where a typo in an address causes unintended behavior of the code.

3.2.3.2 Labels

Instruction labels are often used in assemblers are a huge convenience. They are declared by specifying a label name followed by a colon and hold the address of the next instruction. Then, they can be used as immediate values for branch and

```

1  PRNG_SEED = 0x0000           // no instruction
2  SIMPLE_IO = 0xfe00           // no instruction
3
4  prng:
5    ldr r0, [PRNG_SEED]        b 0xa // inserted by assembler
6    subs r0, 0                 // no instruction
7    beq prngDoEor             ldr r0, [0x00]
8    lsl r0, 1                 subs r0, 0
9    beq prngNoEor             beq 0x07
10   bcc prngNoEor            lsl r0, 1
11  prngDoEor:                beq 0x08
12    xor r0, 0x1d              bcc 0x08
13  prngNoEor:                // no instruction
14    str r0, [PRNG_SEED]       xor r0, 0x1d
15  ret                         // no instruction
16
17  start:                     str r0, [0x00]
18    mov r0, 0                 ret
19    str r0, [PRNG_SEED]       // no instruction
20  prng_loop:                mov r0, 0
21    call prng                str r0, [0x00]
22    str r0, [SIMPLE_IO]       // no instruction
23    b prng_loop              call 0x01
                                str r0, [0xfe00]
                                b 0xc

```

Code Example 3.10: The PRNG of Code Example 3.8 with the constants and labels resolved.

call instructions to jump to the instruction followed by the label declarations. As seen in Code Example 3.8 the line 21 (`call prng`) is assembled into the instruction `call 0x01` which is the location of the instruction after the declarations of the `prng` label (`ldr r0, [PRNG_SEED]`).

The load instruction from line 5 is actually the first instruction of the PRNG algorithm, however, it is not assembled as the first instruction. This is due to a special label being declared in the code at line 17. When the `start` label is declared, then a new instruction is inserted at the beginning which unconditionally branches to the instruction after the start label. This can be seen in Code Example 3.9 where the first instruction is a `b 0x0a` because the first instruction after the start label got assembled to the address `0x0a`. The use of the start label comes especially clear in the section 3.2.4.

3.2.3.3 String constants

The third constant is rather advanced and uses very EDiC specific features. It allows the definition of character strings with a maximum length of 255 chars which can later be used. Differently to the value constants of section 3.2.3.1 strings cannot be used as parameters to instructions directly, because a string is a rather complex data structured in the context of assemblers. In the EDiC assembler a string can be defined as shown in Code Example 3.11 line 4 with the syntax `<address>. <name> = "<value>"`. In the example a string constant with the name “`LOST_STRING`” is defined to have the content “You lost!!! Score: ” at the address `0x20`. The EDiC assembler treats a string as an NULL-terminated array of characters which are characters stored consecutively and after the last character a NULL-byte is stored to signal the end of the string. The address of a string constant actually defines the upper 8 bits of the address where the string is stored and is also the value of the constant itself. This means that the string in the example is actually stored at addresses `0x2000` to `0x2013` (18 characters plus 1 NULL-byte) and `mov r0, LOST_STRING` in line 9 is equivalent to `mov r0, 0x20`. As the assembler has no direct control over the memory contents as for example the ARM assembler, each string declarations results in two instructions per character that are inserted at the start of the program² as shown in Code Example 3.12.

Code Example 3.11 lines 15 to 31 show a function that gets the upper 8 bits of the string address as a parameter in `r0`. It outputs the characters one by one in a loop until the NULL-byte is reached. To retrieve each character, firstly the `sma`

²Before the `b start` instruction that is inserted when a start label exists.

```
1 include "prng.s"
2 include "uart_16c550.s"
3 0x20.LOST_STRING = "You lost!!! Score: "
4 lost:
5 // [...]
6 // output the lost string
7 mov r0, LOST_STRING
8 call outputString
9 // output the score
10 ldr r0, [SNAKE_LENGTH]
11 call outputDecimal
12 // [...]
13
14 // r0: address of string
15 outputString:
16 str r1, [0xffff]
17 sts r0, [0x00]
18 mov r1, 0
19 outputStringLoop:
20 lds r0, [0x00]
21 sma r0
22 ldr r0, [r1]
23 cmp r0, 0
24 beq outputStringEnd
25 call uart_write
26 add r1, 1
27 cmp r1, 255
28 bne outputStringLoop
29 outputStringEnd:
30 ldr r1, [0xffff]
31 ret
```

Code Example 3.11: Excerpts of the Snake assembler program used in the demo in figure 1.1.

```

1  mov r0, 0x59 // 'Y'
2  str r0, [0x2000]
3  mov r0, 0x6f // 'o'
4  str r0, [0x2001]
5  mov r0, 0x75 // 'u'
6  str r0, [0x2002]
7  mov r0, 0x20 // ' '
8  str r0, [0x2003]
9  mov r0, 0x6c // 'l'
10 str r0, [0x2004]
11 mov r0, 0x6f // 'o'
12 str r0, [0x2005]
13 mov r0, 0x73 // 's'
14 str r0, [0x2006]
15 mov r0, 0x74 // 't'
16 str r0, [0x2007]
17 mov r0, 0x21 // '!'
18 str r0, [0x2008]
19 mov r0, 0x21 // '!'
20 str r0, [0x2009]
21 mov r0, 0x21 // '!'
22 str r0, [0x200a]
23 mov r0, 0x20 // ' '
24 str r0, [0x200b]
25 mov r0, 0x53 // 'S'
26 str r0, [0x200c]
27 mov r0, 0x63 // 'c'
28 str r0, [0x200d]
29 mov r0, 0x6f // 'o'
30 str r0, [0x200e]
31 mov r0, 0x72 // 'r'
32 str r0, [0x200f]
33 mov r0, 0x65 // 'e'
34 str r0, [0x2010]
35 mov r0, 0x3a // ':'
36 str r0, [0x2011]
37 mov r0, 0x20 // ' '
38 str r0, [0x2012]
39 mov r0, 0x0 // NULL-byte
40 str r0, [0x2013]
41 mov r0, 0 // restore r0

```

Code Example 3.12: The instructions resulting from the string definition of Code Example 3.11 line 4.

instruction is called with the MSBs of the address and then the `ldr` instruction with the loop register `r1` as an address argument is called. The character (in `r0`) is then passed as an argument to the `uart_write` function.

3.2.4 File imports

An important factor of software development is reusability. This also holds for assembler development and is the reason why the EDiC assembler supports including other assembler files. This can for example be used to write a library utility and then importing its functions for multiple projects. This way, a bug fix in the utility library will be fixed across all projects at the same time.

As can be seen in Code Example 3.11 lines 1 and 2, the EDiC assembler supports the `include` keyword followed by a relative filename in double quotes. Before assembling a file, all the include statements are replaced with the content of the file specified. All the constants and labels are used as is with some exceptions:

- The start label of all included files are discarded and the main file is required to

```

1  include "prng.s"
2  include "uart_16c550.s"
3  0x20.LOST_STRING = "You lost!!! Score: "
4  lost:
5  ...//...[ ... ]
6  ...//...output the lost string
7  ...mov r0, LOST_STRING
8  ...call outputString
9  ...//...output the score
10 ...ldr r0, [SNAKE_LENGTH]
11 ...call outputDecimal
12 ...//...[ ... ]
13
14 // r0:: address of string
15 outputString:
16 ...str r1, [0xffff]
17 ...sts r0, [0x00]
18 ...mov r1, 0
19 ...outputStringLoop:
20 ...ld r0, [0x00]
21 ...sma r0
22 ...ld r0, [r1]
23 ...cmp r0, 0
24 ...beq outputStringEnd
25 ...call uart_write
26 ...add r1, 1
27 ...cmp r1, 255
28 ...bne outputStringLoop
29 ...outputStringEnd:
30 ...ld r1, [0xffff]
31 ret

```

Figure 3.1: The syntax highlighting with the EDIC Visual Studio Code Extension and the Atom One Light Theme [1].

provide a start label. Otherwise, the starting point is ambiguous and probably not where the programmer expects it.

- Constants from included files can be overwritten in the main file. This can be useful when value constants hold memory locations of global variables that need to be repositioned in the main file.

3.2.5 Syntax Definition for VS Code

Syntax Highlighting has become a very important factor for software development as Integrated Development Environments (IDEs) grow more capable. The highlighting is usually done by firstly, parsing the syntax and associating parts of the text

file with specific categories and, secondly, assigning styles like font color to these categories. This way, a programmer can select a global color scheme which will define colors for different categories for all programming languages. When applied correctly, code in different languages becomes easier to recognize because variables are always colored the same way, no matter the language. The syntax parser, however, needs to be selected correctly for each file type and categorize the file content correctly.

Even though the EDiC syntax is similar to the ARM syntax, it is not syntactically identical which makes syntax highlighting in editors difficult. As can be seen in Code Example 3.11 line 3, the ARM syntax definition used for the highlighting in this document is not perfect (The leading 0 is red and the string is not colored correctly).

As Visual Studio Code [18] is one of the leading extensible code editors, an extension for EDiC assembler has been developed and published [22]. The code of the Code Example 3.11 is shown again in figure 3.1 as it is highlighting using the developed extension. The extension itself mainly consists of a TextMate language definition [16] and configuration files to work correctly with Visual Studio Code. TextMate is a tokenization engine which works with a structured collection of regular expressions as language definitions.

4 FPGA Model

The goal of the FPGA model is to proof the general workings of the CPU architecture before finalizing the hardware layout and PCB design. With the design running on an actual FPGA it is also possible to debug and test extension cards without the actual hardware of the EDiC.

4.1 FPGAs Background

An FPGA can be seen as an intermediary between Application-Specific Integrated Circuits (ASICs) and general purpose CPUs. It allows for a lot more design flexibility in contrast to ASICs by being reprogrammable but at the same time has similar applications. The first FPGA was released by Altera in 1984 which featured a quartz window to erase the Erasable Programmable Read-Only Memory (EPROM) cells that hold the configuration. It only had eight macrocells and a maximum frequency of about 30MHz [2]. Today's FPGAs can have several million logic elements with several hundred MBs of Block RAM (BRAM), more than thousand floating-point Digital Signal Processors (DSPs) and usual frequencies of more than 200MHz. However, the general idea of how FPGAs work stayed the same:

Field Programmable means that the FPGA can programmed in the application field, even though *configure* is the better word to be used.

Gate Array stands for an array of logic gates which make up the FPGA. These logic gates can then be freely routed by the developer and with that different logic functions can be implemented.

FPGAs are built out of so called Configurable Logic Blocks (CLBs) which can be connected with each other to create larger designs. Such a CLB contains several different elements like Lookup Tables (LUTs), registers and Multiplexers (MUXs) which allows one CLB to provide different functionality as needed. Each LUT can encode any kind of multi-bit boolean functionality. Figure 4.1 shows how a 2-bit LUT is built out of three 2-to-1 MUXes. Depending on the input values of the SRAM into the MUXs, a different logic function can be implemented. For example: For

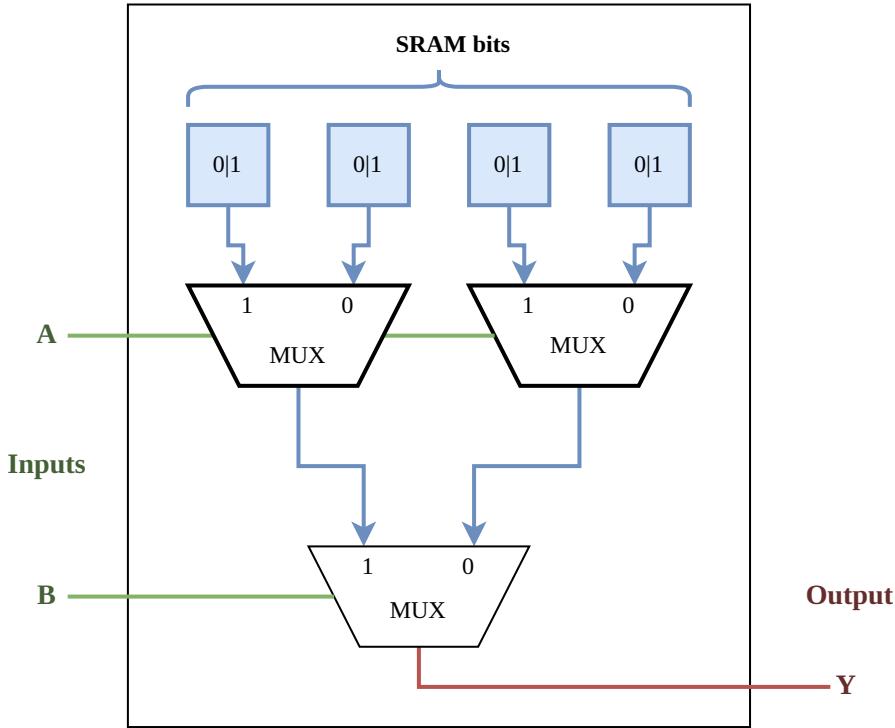


Figure 4.1: Internal structure of a 2-bit LUT

a NAND function, the SRAM is loaded with the bits 0111. In FPGAs these LUTs usually take 4-6 bit inputs and can, therefore, implement more complex logic functions.

Combining these LUTs with registers, complex hardware DSPs and a lot more advanced hardware, modern FPGAs are very capable and complex devices that are increasingly used in prototyping and low to medium quantity products. There are several cheaply available FPGAs development boards available that are very well suited for a prototype for the EDiC.

4.2 FPGA choices

For the EDiC the Nexys A7 development board [8] with the AMD-Xilinx Artix 7 XC7A100T-1CSG324C FPGA has been chosen. Its synthesis tool is the AMD-Xilinx Vivado [25] which is available as a free version and includes an advanced simulation environment.

```

65 assign s_cin[0] = i_ctrlAluSub;
66 for (i = 0; i < 8; i=i+1) begin
67     assign s_yXor[i] = i_a[i] ^ s_b[i];
68     assign s_yAnd[i] = i_a[i] & s_b[i];
69     assign s_yAdder[i] = s_cin[i] ^ s_yXor[i];
70     assign s_cin[i + 1] = s_yAnd[i] | (s_cin[i] & s_yXor[i]);
71 end

```

Code Example 4.1: Behavioral Verilog Description of the Adder (including XOR and AND) of the ALU module.

4.2.1 Language Choice

There are two main Hardware Description Languages (HDLs): Verilog and VH-SIC (Very High Speed Integrated Circuit) Hardware Description Language (VHDL). Both are widely supported and used and can also be used in the same project with the help of mixed-language compilation. At the Technical University Berlin (TUB) VHDL is taught, however, in general both are used about equally often [19]. As Verilog is often cited as being less verbose and, therefore, easier to write and understand it was chosen as the hardware description language.

Code Example 4.1 shows the Adder described in Verilog as an example. It iterates over all 8 bits, calculates the XOR and AND results and based on these and the carry input, the bit result and the carry output is calculated.

4.2.2 Tri-State Logic in FPGAs

One major problem with tri-state bus logic for FPGAs is that most current era FPGAs do not feature tri-state bus drivers in the logic slices. Most FPGAs do have bidirectional tri-state transceiver for I/O but not for internal logic routing. However, the HDLs (both VHDL and Verilog) support tri-state logic and the Xilinx Simulation tool also does. Therefore, a simulation with tri-state logic would work but it cannot be synthesized.

This is solved with a custom module for each Tri-State network “tristatenet.v”. Each tri-state driver exposes the current data and output enable signal to the tristate module which then has only one output which represents the value of the net. If none of the driver have an active output enable, the output is `0xff`; if one of the driver has an active output enable, the output represents its value and if more than one driver have an active output enable, an error is raised. The modules logic representation for a Tri-State net with two inputs is shown in figure 4.2. The `o_noe`

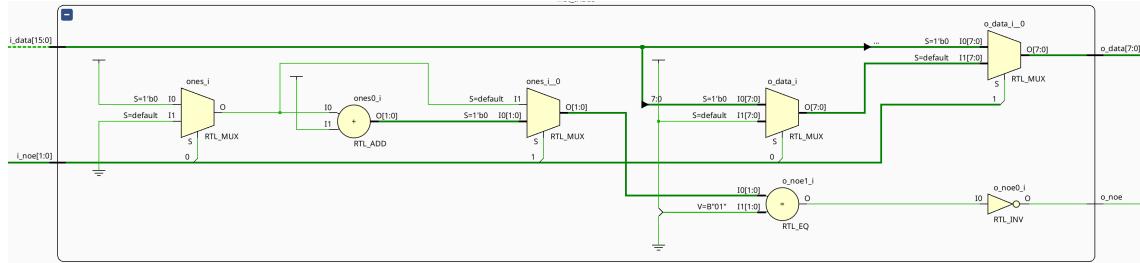


Figure 4.2: The elaborated Tri-State module with two 8 bit inputs.

is only active (low) if exactly one input `i_noe` is active (low) and depending it, the data output is selected. For this FPGA it is implemented with one LUT4 primitive per output data bit.

4.3 Behavioral Implementation

Two kinds of FPGA designs were developed in the process. The first is a behavioral description of the whole CPU and, therefore, only models the general workings of a module but does not describe the individual chips that are used in the final hardware assembly. The description in Code Example 4.1, for example, is a behavioral description because it only describes the logical level of what should happen. This is quite useful for development, because it is quickly changed and bugs are fixed more efficiently as opposed to a chip-level model.

To visualize how a behavioral simulation looks like, a simulation of the code in Code Example 4.2 is shown in figure 4.3. The first instruction (`mov r1, 0x12`) starts at 1 µs where the instruction step counter is 0 and the instruction fetch is executed. Step 1 increments the program counter and starts the instruction decoding. The `mov` instruction only consists of one step and, therefore, the `ctrInstrFinishedN` signal is asserted in step 2 together with the control signals of the actual instruction. Due to `ctrInstrFinishedN`, the step counter is reset to 0 and the second instruction (`pc==1`) is executed. After the instruction fetch steps, the ALU adds `0x12` and `0x42` at 2 µs and writes the result into `r1` at `step==3`. The third instruction then just branches to itself, resulting in an infinite loop.

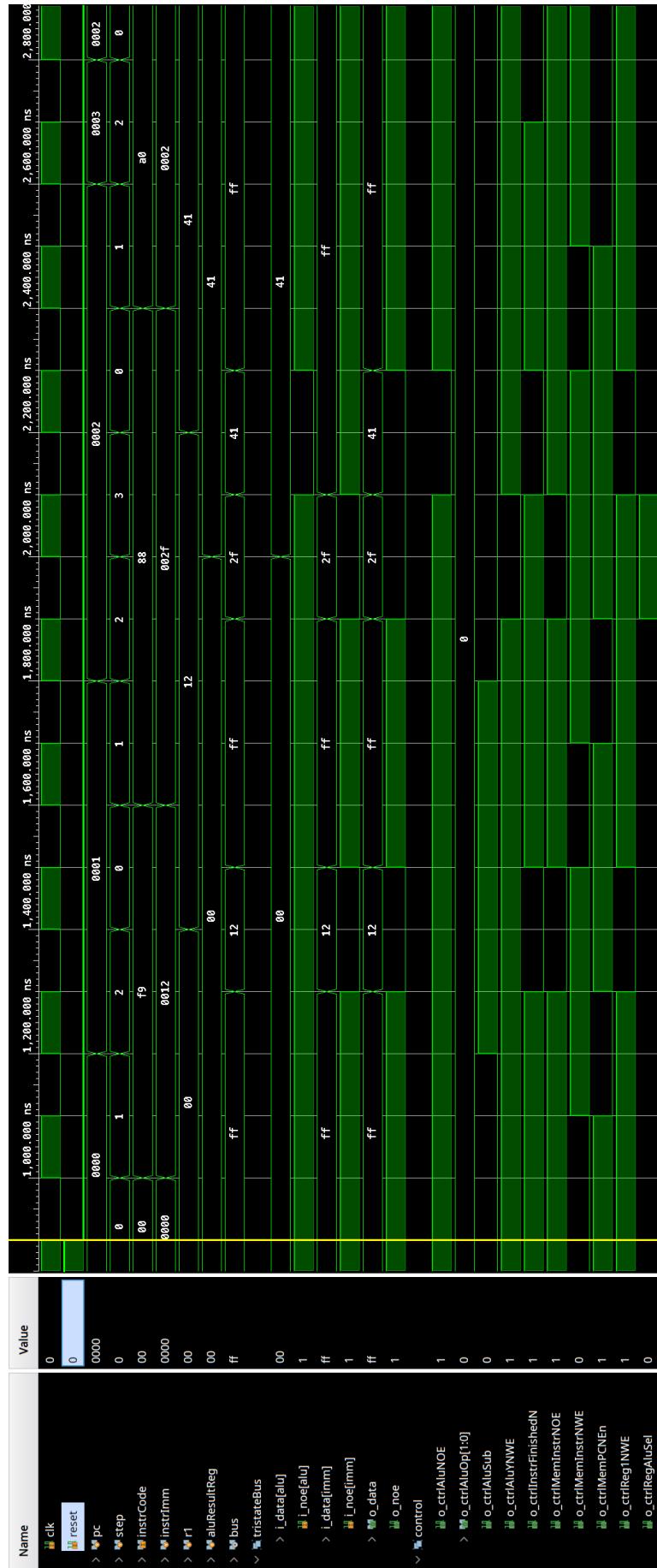


Figure 4.3: Waveform of the relevant signals for setting a register to 0x12 and adding 0x2f to it (Assembler code is shown in Code Example 4.2).

```
1 mov r1, 0x12
2 add r1, 0x2f
3 end:
4 b end
```

Code Example 4.2: The code for the waveform example of figure 4.3.

4.4 Chip-level Implementation

With the behavioral simulation working, the hardware schematic can be developed. The schematic and then the placing and routing for the PCB is described in chapter 5. However, for the EDiC it was decided to add another verification step after developing the schematic. From the schematic a netlist is generated which is usually used to summarize all the components and connections in a machine readable format for the software that does placing and routing. Here, a tool was written which converts a given netlist into a Verilog file which can be compiled and synthesized by Vivado.

4.4.1 Conversation Script

The netlist file used is an `*.edn` which is exported by OrCAD/CAPTURE version 9.2.1.148. It follows the EDIF and contains a list of all instances (i.e. ICs and other components) with port numbers and a second list of all nets (connections between ports). The conversion script consists of a parser which analyzes such a netlist. The parsed netlist is then further processed until a verilog file can be created. The generated verilog file only consists of wire definitions and module instantiations. Each of the instantiated modules has its own, manually written implementation. The implementation for an 74F08 (quad AND gate) is, for example, shown in Code Example 4.5.

Code Example 4.3 specifies the instance U54 which is an 74AS867. The format also specifies the port numbers but they are not processed by the parser because they are not required. Code Example 4.4 then specifies a net with the name PCIN0 which connects U52 port 18 with U51 port 18 and U54 port 3. In this case U52 and U51 are both 74F245 octal bus transceivers where port 18 is the B0 port and U54 is a 74AS867 (synchronous up/down counter with load) where port 3 is the D0 input port. Depending on the control signals of U51 and U52 this net connects the 0th bit of the bus or the instruction immediate with the 0th bit of the load input of the PC. Internally the list of instances and list of nets is combined into a list of

```

1  (instance U54
2    (viewRef NetlistView
3      (cellRef &74AS867_0
4        (libraryRef OrCAD_LIB))) (designator "U54")
5    (property PCB Footprint (string "DIP.100/24/W.300/L1.175"))
6    (property Name (string "I656203"))
7    (property Value (string "74AS867"))
8    (portInstance &3)
9    (portInstance &4)
10   (portInstance &5)
11   (portInstance &6)
12   (portInstance &7)
13   (portInstance &8)
14   (portInstance &9)
15   (portInstance &10)
16   (portInstance &14)
17   (portInstance &22)
18   (portInstance &21)
19   (portInstance &20)
20   (portInstance &19)
21   (portInstance &18)
22   (portInstance &17)
23   (portInstance &16)
24   (portInstance &15)
25   (portInstance &13)
26   (portInstance &24)
27   (portInstance &12)
28   (portInstance &11)
29   (portInstance &23)
30   (portInstance &1)
31   (portInstance &2))

```

Code Example 4.3: An Electronic Design Interchange Format (EDIF) definition of an instance as exported by OrCAD/CAPTURE.

```

1  (net PCINO
2    (joined
3      (portRef &18 (instanceRef U52))
4      (portRef &18 (instanceRef U51))
5      (portRef &3 (instanceRef U54)))
6    (property Name (string "PCINO")))
7

```

Code Example 4.4: An EDIF definition of a net as exported by OrCAD/CAPTURE.

```
1 // quad and https://www.ti.com/lit/ds/symlink/sn74ls08.pdf
2 module ic74x08(
3   input wire port1,
4   input wire port2,
5   output wire port3,
6   input wire port4,
7   input wire port5,
8   output wire port6,
9   input wire port7,
10  output wire port8,
11  input wire port9,
12  input wire port10,
13  output wire port11,
14  input wire port12,
15  input wire port13,
16  input wire port14
17 );
18
19 assign port3 = port1 & port2;
20 assign port6 = port4 & port5;
21 assign port8 = port9 & port10;
22 assign port11 = port12 & port13;
23
24 endmodule
```

Code Example 4.5: Verilog implementation for the 74F08 IC.

instances where each instance contains a mapping of port numbers to connected nets.

The parser discards all components except logic ICs (id starting with ‘U’) save for 0Ω resistors. The schematic includes some 0Ω resistors between control signals to be able to rewire them more easily on the PCB if needed. As they essentially behave as direct connections, the nets on either side of one 0Ω resistor are merged.

The basic instances are easily converted to verilog instantiations. However, there are some obstacles that need to be taken with more advanced instances.

4.4.1.1 EEPROMs

The 6 EEPROMs (3 for the instructionROM and 3 for the microcode) need to be instantiated with the correct data loaded into them. Those six instantiations are

```

1364 microCodeRom inst_microCodeRom (
1365     .clka(i_asyncEEPROMSpecialClock),
1366     .addr({MC_A14, MC_A13, MC_A12, MC_A11, MC_A10, MC_A9, MC_A8,
1367         → MC_A7, MC_A6, CTRLALUOP1_SRC, CTRLALUOPO_SRC, CTRLALUSUB_SRC,
1368         → MC_A2, MC_A1, MC_A0}),
1367     .douta({unconnected_U87_19, unconnected_U87_18,
1368         → unconnected_U87_17, CTRLINSTRFINISHED_SRC,
1368         → CTRLMEMPCTORAM_SRC, CTRLMEMPCFROMIMM_SRC, CTRLMEMPCEN_SRC,
1368         → CTRLMEMRAMOE_SRC, CTRLMEMRAMWE_SRC,
1368         → CTRLMEMINSTRIMMTORAMADDR_SRC, CTRLMEMMAR1WE_SRC,
1368         → CTRLMEMMAROWE_SRC, CTRLMEMINSTROE_SRC, CTRLMEMINSTRWE_SRC,
1368         → CTRLMEMSPEN_SRC, CTRLMEMSPUP_SRC, CTRLMEMPCLOAD_SRC,
1368         → CTRLREG1BUSOE_SRC, CTRLREGOBUSOE_SRC, CTRLREGALUSEL_SRC,
1368         → CTRLREG1WE_SRC, CTRLREGOWE_SRC, CTRLALUOE_SRC,
1368         → CTRLALUYWE_SRC})
1368 );

```

Code Example 4.6: Verilog instantiation of the microcode ROM generated out of three EEPROM instantiations.

identified by the unit id and the wires are then connected to one of the custom Xilinx ROM IP Cores which are configured with the respective initial values. The addresses for one ROM instantiations are used and then all 24 data ports from the 3 EEPROMs are connected resulting in a verilog instantiation as shown in Code Example 4.6.

4.4.1.2 Tri-State Ports

Some ICs provide Tri-State ports. As discussed above, they cannot be implemented on FPGAs and, therefore, need to be converted. The same tristatenet component as in the behavioral implementation is used. However, for this to work, each bidirectional port of the ICs needs to be replaced by one input and one output port. Also, one output enable port needs to be added. Then the output port that replaced the bidirectional port is an input to the tristatenet instance and a new net is created for each tristatenet which is the actual value of the net (the output of the tristatenet module). The tristatenet for the PCIN0 signal (Code Example 4.4) is represented by the instantiation shown in Code Example 4.7.

```
1794 tristatenet #(  
1795     .INPUT_COUNT(2)  
1796 ) inst_tribusPCINO (  
1797     .i_data({PCINO_U51, PCINO_U52}),  
1798     .i_noe({U51_b_noe, U52_b_noe}),  
1799     .o_data(PCINO),  
1800     .o_noe(PCINO_noe)  
1801 );
```

Code Example 4.7: Verilog instantiation for the Tri-State Net PCINO.

4.4.1.3 RAMs and EEPROMs clock

Another problem with the FPGA implementation in general is that both, the SRAM and EEPROM chips used are asynchronous and the FPGA only has synchronous logic elements. In the behavioral implementation, exact timings were no requirement and, therefore, the memory and Read-Only Memorys (ROMs) were clocked with the inverse clock, mimicking an asynchronous behavior. However, for the exact netlist FPGA implementation this is not a good way to mimic the behavior. Therefore, the exact delay of both chips were calculated with the help of the datasheets and they are both clocked with a custom clock that is out of phase with the global logic clock by the exact amount of the delay.

This means, that the clock inputs of the memory and EEPROM instantiations are replaced with the corresponding custom clock as can be seen in Code Example 4.6.

Figure 4.4 visualizes how the main clock (CLK1 in the waveform) and the clock for the ROM (`asyncEEPROMSpecialClock` in the waveform) differ in phase. Consequently, the step register and with it the address for the microcode ROM change with a rising edge of the main clock but all the control signals which are outputs of the ROM change with the rising edge of the phase shifted clock.

4.4.1.4 Assignments

There are some connections which are unique to the FPGA implementation and, therefore, are not contained in the netlist. These are mainly the inputs and outputs of the CPU for the I/O extensions, the user buttons (reset, step etc.), clock oscillator, breakpoint addresses and so on. However, one exception are the L1-L4 and H1-H4 nets which are static nets connected to ground or 5V through resistors. They are used for logic inputs of ICs instead of directly using GND or 5V to ease the error

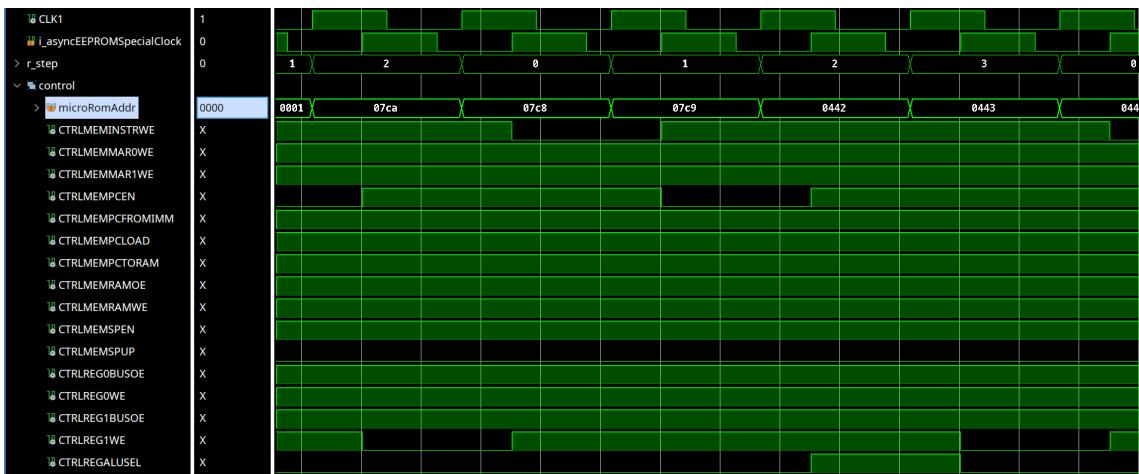


Figure 4.4: Waveform showing the clock used for the FPGA ROM to mimic the asynchronous behavior of the EEPROMs.

fixing on the PCB. If one would connect the pins directly to the GND or 5V planes, it would be hard to heat up the solder on the pin for removal because the whole plane needs to be heated. Additionally, when connected to the plane, there is no trace that can be scratched through if the pin needs to be connected to another net.

In the FPGA design they are, therefore, assigned to 0 or 1 respectively.

4.4.1.5 Display Driver

The hardware build will feature 2 displays for the built-in I/O which can be directly addressed with 4 bits to display hexadecimal digits. The FPGA development board on the other hand, features simpler and more common 7-segment displays. In total, there are 8 7-segment displays of which two are used as the built-in I/O and the others are used for debugging when the CPU is halted. The wiring of the displays is shown in figure 4.5. For this purpose, a custom displayDriver has been developed which has 32 data inputs plus 8 inputs for the dots between the digits and 8 bits to encode which 7-segment display should be illuminated. It loops through the digits by setting each anode to 0 individually and setting the cathodes according the corresponding input bits. This way, each display is illuminated for 2ms which makes it look like all displays are illuminated all the time.

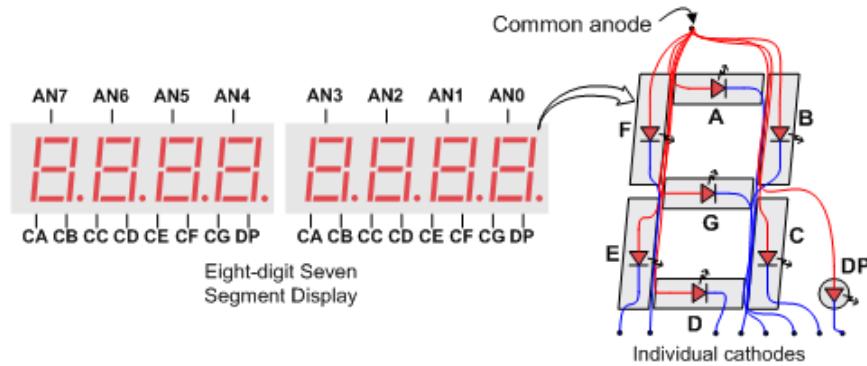


Figure 4.5: Overview of the 8 7-segment displays of the Nexys A7 development board [9].

4.4.2 RS232 I/O Extension Debugging

One goal of creating a logical replication of the CPU on a FPGA was to verify the I/O extension cards before ordering the large PCB for the CPU. All extension cards will be daughterboards and sit on top of the main PCB in a smaller form factor. The following logical connections are passed through pin headers:

- Bus (8 bits, bidirectional)
- IO Address (lower 8 bits, to I/O)
- Control Signals:
 - `ioCE`: active when the upper 8 RAM address bits equal `0xfe`.
 - `ctrlMemRamWE`: write enable signal. Write should only happen when `ioCE` is active.
 - `ctrlMemRamOE`: output enable signal. Read should only happen when `ioCE` is active.
 - `clk`: Clock signal.
 - `reset`: Reset signal.

Additionally, ground and 5V is passed through the connector. However, the Nexys A7 FPGA development board only features digital 3V3 voltages on the side. Thus, an adapter board is required which converts the 3V3 voltages to 5V and the other way around while providing the correct pin locations for the Nexys A7 board and the daughterboard. Its schematic is shown in figure 4.6 where the 74LVC8T245 is used as a voltage converting buffer. For the control signals and addresses, its

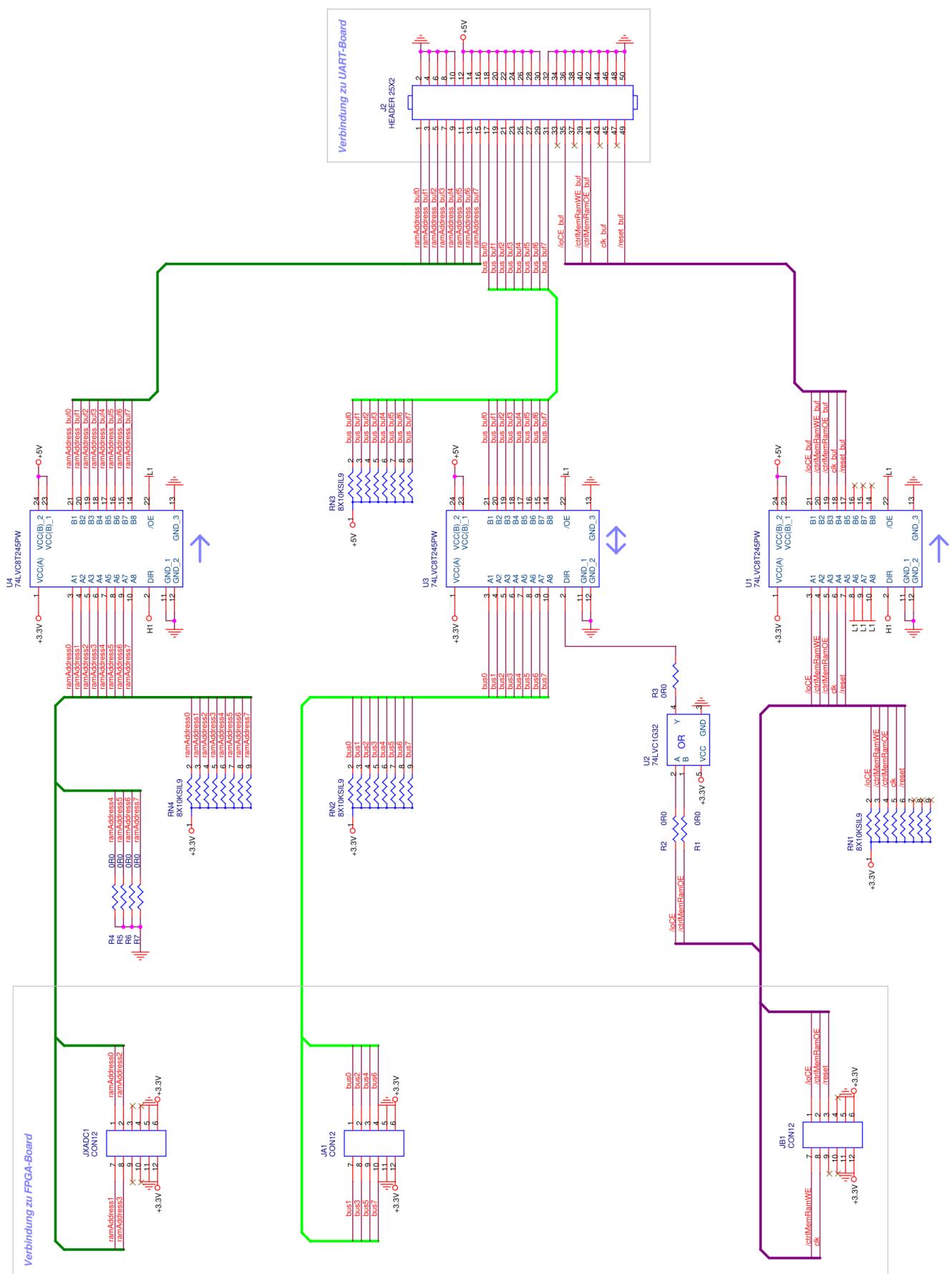


Figure 4.6: The Schematic for the 3V3 to 5V conversion to use extension cards with the FPGA development board.

direction is always from the A port (3V3) to the B port. On the other hand, the direction pin of the bus buffer is low (from B to A) when both, output enable and chip enable, signals are active.

5 Hardware Design

After the FPGA behavioral simulation is successful, the hardware design process is started. The initial step is designing a schematic (section 5.1) which is followed by the netlist simulation and the placing and routing of components and wires section 5.2.

5.1 Schematic

The full schematics of the hardware design can be found in appendix A in figures A.1 to A.7. The schematic is created in such a way that the logical connections are easy to understand. Each IC has its pins arranged for easy understanding and the connections have meaningful names to easier understand the logic.

The 74 series of ICs is used for the EDiC. However, a lot of decisions need to be made in choosing the correct ICs and

5.1.1 Register Comparison

The 74 series of logic ICs feature many different registers. The most basic register IC has n D-type flip-flops with respective data inputs and outputs plus one common clock input. On each rising edge of the clock the flip-flops capture the input values and hold them until the next rising edge of the clock. However, often it is required that a register does not capture data on every rising edge of the clock. This is done with an additional input, called *clock enable*. Implementing the clock enable with a basic AND gate of the clock and a control bit has the major drawback that glitches of the enable control signal can propagate to the clock input of the register and, therefore, falsely trigger the register. There are two widely used alternatives to the simple AND gate: The enable input can be used as the select input for an multiplexer to the data input of the flip flop, where it multiplexes between the actual input and the current output. This allows the flip-flop to always capture data but when the enable input is inactive, it recaptures the current output. The drawbacks are that

Table 5.1: All logic ICs used in the EDiC.

IC	Quantity	Function
74F245	17	Three-State Octal Bus Transceiver
74ABT540	14	Inverting Octal Buffer (LED Driver)
74F157	12	Quad 2 to 1 multiplexer
74F825	10	Octal register with Three-State, Asynchronous Clear and Clock Enable
74F86	7	Quad XOR
74F08	7	Quad AND
74F521	6	8 bit Inverting Comparator with Enable
28C256	6	EEPROM with 15 address bits
74ACT245	5	Octal Bus Transceiver used for SRAM
74F153	4	Dual 4 to 1 multiplexer
74F32	4	Quad OR
BERG40	3	40 pin Connector for Test-Adapter
BERG26	3	26 pin Connector for Test-Adapter
74F151	3	8 to 1 multiplexer
74AS867	3	Synchronous 8 bit cascaded counter with loading
BERG10	2	10 pin Connector for Test-Adapter
74F273	2	Octal register with clear
74F04	2	Hex Inverter
AS6C4008	2	SRAM with 19 address bits
5082_7340	2	hexadecimal display
74ACT14	1	Hex Inverter with Schmitt Trigger
DS1813-10	1	Reset Generator
74F374	1	Octal register with output enable
74ABT245	1	Bus driver used for clock and reset
Sum	118	-

each bit of the register needs a multiplexer at the input and, furthermore, that the flip-flops draw power on every clock pulse, even though no new data is captured. The *74F825* logic IC solves this with the circuit shown in figure 5.1. When the \overline{EN} input is low, the CP input is NAND gate on the right passed the negated CP through¹. When the \overline{EN} input is high, on the other hand, the output does not change. This circuit prevents the \overline{EN} to trigger a falling edge (which would trigger the flip-flops)

¹The internal flip-flops of the *74F825* are negative edge triggered

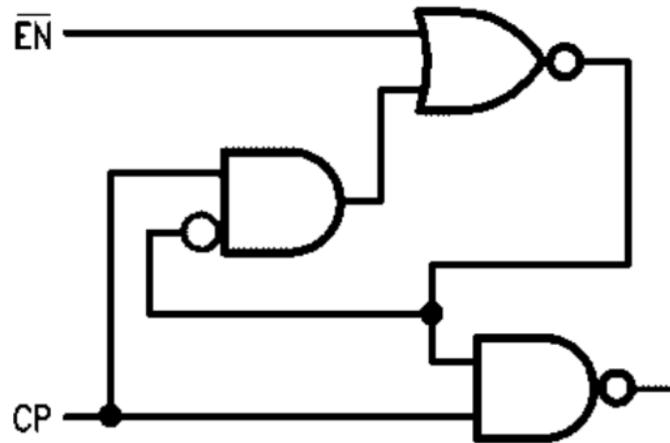


Figure 5.1: Clock Enable circuit of the *74F825* IC [5].

on the CP output. However, when the \overline{EN} goes high while the CP input is high, then the output also goes high. This is not directly a problem because the flip-flops only trigger on falling edges but is the reason for timing requirements on the \overline{EN} input which are discussed in more detail in section 5.3.

As the registers store the current state of execution, it is required that the registers start up to a known state. Therefore, some registers feature an asynchronous clear input (or set input) which forces all flip-flops to 0 (or 1). This is usually accomplished by modifying the classical D-type flip-flop to allow for setting and resetting the internal \overline{SR} NAND latches as shown in figure 5.2.

A third feature that may be important is a three-state output which allows the register to be directly connected to a bus. It is accomplished by adding a tri-state output driver to the outputs of the flip-flops.

The register that was chosen for the EDiC is the *74F825* because it has all three features and is 8 bits wide. However, three other kinds of registers are also sparsely used in the EDiC:

- The *74AS867* is a more advanced synchronous counter register which is used for the PC and SP. It is described below.
- The *74F374* register only features the output enable and is used once where no additional control logic is required.
- The *74F273* is used for the built-in I/O to mimic the typical asynchronous extension cards and for the buffering of user control inputs (stepping etc.).

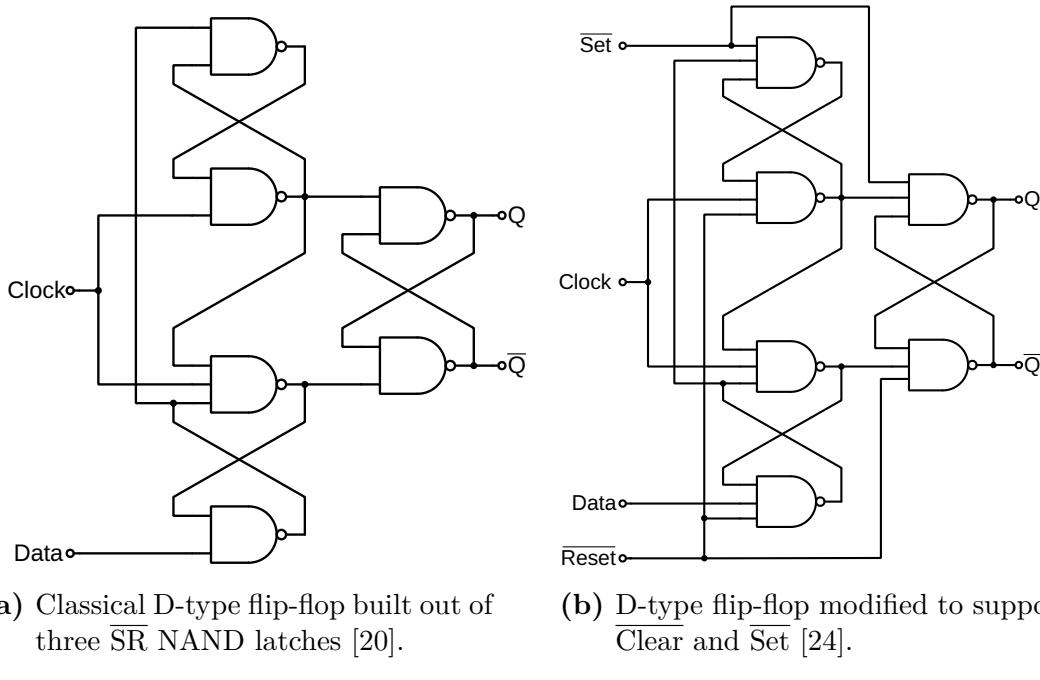


Figure 5.2: Comparison of D-type flip-flops with and without \overline{Clear} and \overline{Set} .

5.1.2 LED Driver

The EDiC features many LEDs showing the register contents to aid the understanding of the workings of a CPU. However, naively connecting the LEDs to the logic outputs of registers may lead to unwanted behavior because the outputs of all logic ICs have a limited current they can provide. This leads to the usage of specific buffers for the LEDs. Additionally, the current rating usually is higher for low-level output due to the internal workings of the output buffer as explained in section 1.1. For example, the *74F245* non-inverting buffers B output is rated for maximum -15 mA for high-level output and 64 mA for a low-level output [13]. Therefore, connecting the anode of a LED via a current limiting resistor to the output of a non-inverting buffer and the cathode to GND will not be ideal. To be able to draw more current from the buffer and thus having brighter LEDs inverting buffers are used and the LEDs are connected “backwards”. The *74ABT540* is the IC used as LED buffer in the EDiC with a low-level current rating of 64 mA [23]. The cathodes of the LEDs are then connected to the *74ABT540* and the anodes are connected through current limiting resistors to V_{cc} .

5.1.3 Program Counter & Instruction EEPROMs

Figure A.1 contains the PC (U54 and U55) with the instruction EEPROMs (U62, U67, U69) and the registers to store the instruction. The PC can be incremented

or loaded from either an instruction immediate (U50 and U52) for branching or the SRAM (U49 and U51) for returning from a function call. To facilitate these operations, the $74AS867$ is used which is an 8 bit synchronous counter with loading and asynchronous clear capabilities that can be cascaded with a ripple carry output. The PC is then used as the address to the instruction EEPROMs and can also be saved to the SRAMs. As the main memory is only 8 bits wide but the PC 16 bit wide, a second SRAM IC is used to store the upper bits of the PC in the case of a function call (see section 5.1.4). The PC is, additionally, used as A inputs to the $74F521$ (U53 and U60) comparators to detect when a breakpoint is reached. The 8 bit comparators can be cascaded via the enable input to compare 16 bit values. The B input is selected by the user with four hexadecimal digit switches.

The function of the “Test” block between the output of the instruction EEPROMs and the instruction registers is explained in section 6.1.1. For understanding the function of the schematic, it can be assumed that it shorts the connections on the left with the corresponding connections on the right. The lowest of the 3 instruction registers (U64) holds the instruction code which is used in the section 5.1.5. The upper two registers (U70 and U71) hold the immediate value which can be used as an address in the section 5.1.4, as a branch address for the PC and the lower 8 bits can be used as immediate value on the bus (U75).

All 5 registers have LEDs connected to them as described in section 5.1.2.

5.1.4 Memory

The memory module (figure A.2) features three registers used for the address logic: The MAR (U68 and U63) is a 16 bit register where the lower and upper 8 bits can be loaded independently from the bus. The SP (U56) is a $74AS867$ counter register as the PC but only 8 bits wide and wired differently to only allow incrementing and decrementing. The three different kinds of memory accesses are decoded from the upper 8 address bits which either come from the instruction immediate (U74) or the MAR (U73):

- *I/O access:* When the upper 8 bits equal $0xfe$ (U79), the I/O chip enable (CE) signal is asserted and the SRAM CE is deasserted.
- *Stack access:* When the upper 8 bits equal $0xff$ (U76), the stack memory is selected. Then the upper 8 bits of the address is replaced by the SP and a 17th address bit is asserted to access the stack memory.

The address is then driven by several bus driver according to the decoding logic (U61, U63, U65, U66 and U72).

The actual SRAM ICs (U77 and U100) have voltage levels which are not quite compatible with the standard $74F$ ICs [11] which is why all the signals connecting to them are buffered with the $74ACT245$ [12] (U201, U202, U203, U204 and U205).

5.1.5 Control Logic

Figure A.3 contains two registers for the address of the microcode EEPROMs (U85, U86 and U87) of which the data pins are the control signals (section 2.3). The first register (U83) is used as a synchronous 3 bit step counter which increments each cycle except when the halt signal is asserted. The instruction finished control signal will reset the step counter to 0 at the next cycle. U83 also registers the four ALU flags and U84 registers the instruction to synchronizes all address bits for the EEPROMs.

5.1.6 Clock and Reset

Figure A.4 contains the oscillator (X1) which frequency is determined in section 5.3 and a active low reset controller (U34) which resets on power-on and can be combined with a user reset switch (SW1301). The clock and reset is buffered with an $74ABT245$ for minimal latency. To avoid glitches (see section 6.1) on the four user inputs, a low pass and a Schmitt trigger and two registers are used. A multiplexer (U39) generates the halt signal from the debug user inputs and the instruction finished control signal to implement the logic described in section 2.2.7

5.1.7 Built-In I/O

The built-in I/O (figure A.5) consists of one register to hold the output value (U92) which is connected to two hexadecimal displays (U93 and U94). For input two hexadecimal switches (SW10 and SW11) are used with a bus driver (U91). To control the register clock pulse and the output enable of the bus driver, the I/O CE is combined with the I/O write enable and I/O output enable and the I/O address is compared with 0x00 (U88).

5.1.8 Register Set and ALU output

The register set in figure A.6 consists of two registers (U40 and U41) which can be loaded from the bus. The register outputs can drive the bus (U44 and U45) and are multiplexed for the A input of the ALU (U42 and U43). After the combinatorial ALU (section 5.1.9), the four operation results are multiplexed (U5, U6, U7 and U8) and stored in the ALU output register (U9). Even though the ALU output register features output enable inputs, an individual bus driver is used (U10) because the content of the ALU output register should be displayed to the user (U11). The carry flags are also multiplexed (U101) as the carry flag from the shift operation is generated independently. The overflow flag is generated in the combinatorial schematic of the ALU, the negative flag is just the MSB of the output and the zero flag is deduced from a comparison with zero (U12). All four flags are then stored in a register (U97).

5.1.9 Combinatorial ALU

Figure A.7 shows the ripple carry adder on the left composed out of 8 full adder and with subtracting capabilities. The barrel shifter on the right side is explained in depth in section 2.2.1. The carry flag resulting from a shift operation should always represent the last bit which was shifted out of the 8 bits and should be unchanged when shifting by 0. This is accomplished with another multiplexer (U102).

5.2 Placing and Routing

For placing and routing several factors are important. As the goal of the EDiC is to be easy to understand for future students, all components were not only placed to optimize the wiring but also to place components of the same modules close together. Additionally, extra space was left to mark each module and to name all the LEDs on the silkscreen of the PCB for easier reference. Figure 5.3 is a rendering showing the traces (red and green), silkscreen (violet) and through-holes/vias (green/yellow).

Especially on larger PCBs and designs with quickly switching power consumption it is important to ensure good power delivery to all components. In the case of the EDiC this is achieved by using a 4-layer PCB with the two internal layers being filled with GND and 5V planes. The top and bottom layer are then used for logical

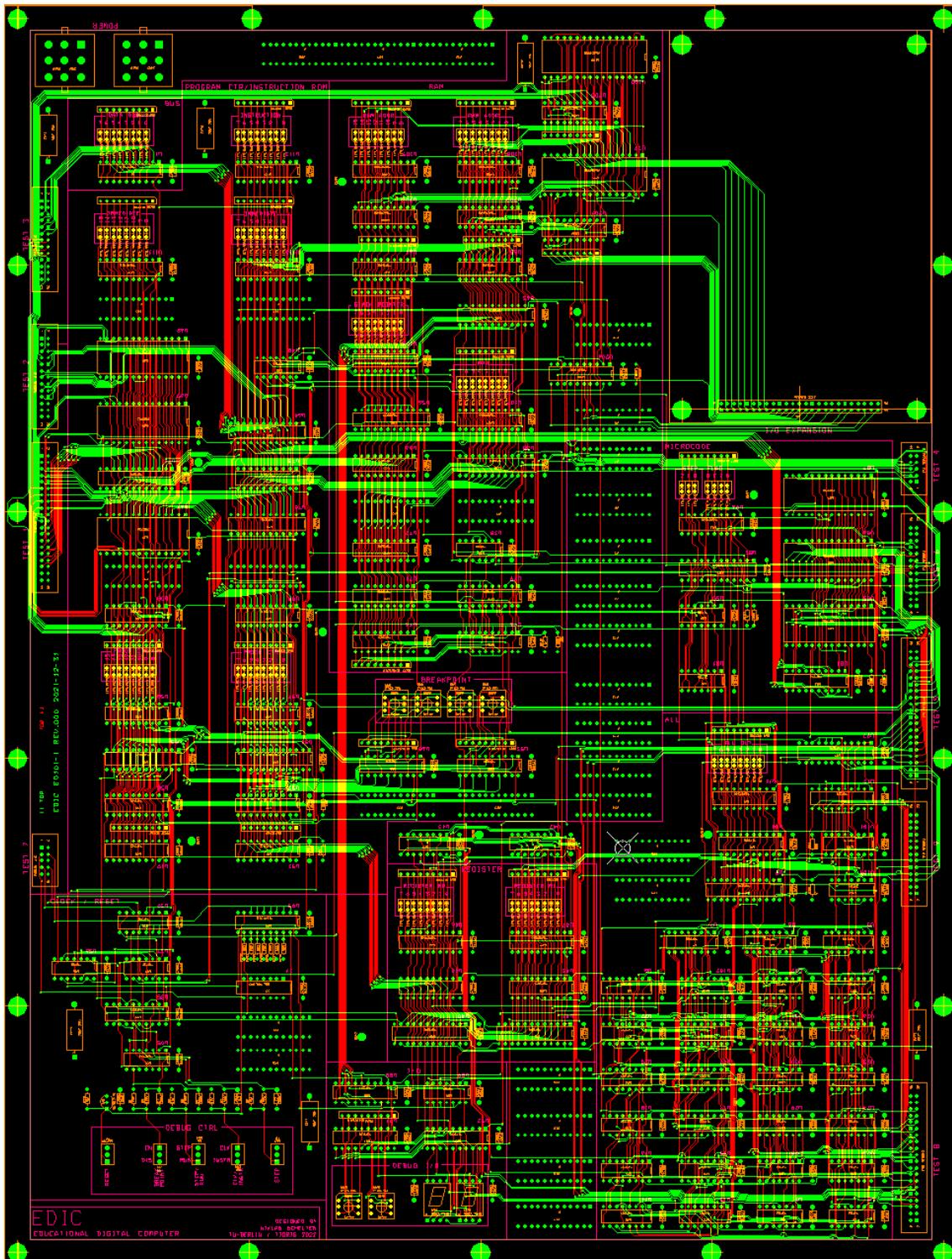


Figure 5.3: Rendering with all components placed and all the traces routed on the two logic layers (green and red).

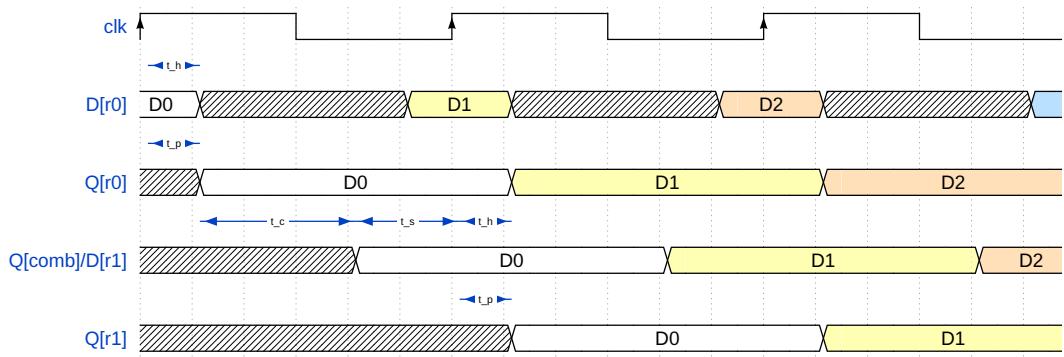


Figure 5.4: Timing relations for a combinational datapath between two registers.

connections where the most efficient wiring can be done when one layer mostly has vertical wires (red traces in figure 5.3) and the other layer mostly horizontal wires (green traces). This way interference of vertical and horizontal traces is not possible due to the GND and 5V panes separating the logic panes.

Another important factor to bear in mind is to route the traces in a way that makes it possible to access every trace. It is always possible that some bug was not detected in the schematic design or netlist simulation. If a bug has been found it may be required to cut a trace and rewire it (see chapter 6). Therefore, logical wires are always placed on the top or bottom pane and on the top pane traces will never be completely covered by ICs. If, for example, connecting pins 1 and 24 of a 24 pin IC (they are directly opposite of each other) they should not be connected directly but a detour should be taken to expose the trace from under the IC.

It is also possible that a further IC needs to be placed on the PCB to fix a bug, like an extra register or bus driver. Therefore, through holes are provided to allow spare ICs to be placed at convenient locations throughout the PCB.

5.3 Timing Analysis

To figure out what the maximum frequency is at which the EDIC can operate on, a detailed timing analysis was performed. The timing analysis computes the path with the longest propagation delay which called the critical path. The delay of the critical path can then be used as a baseline for choosing the correct frequency.

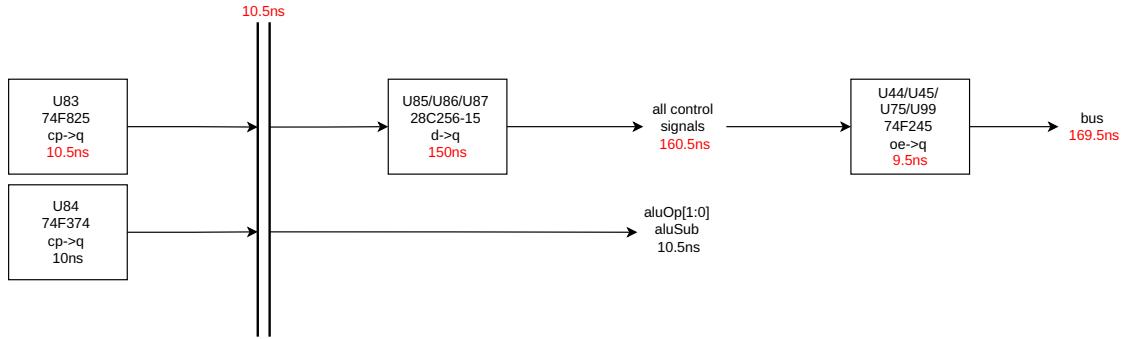


Figure 5.5: Timing analysis for the control signals.

Figure 5.4 visualizes how the propagation delays work: Each IC has delays which are specified in the datasheet. In the example of figure 5.4, a value of register r_0 goes through a combinatorial path and is then stored in register r_1 . The registers have a propagation delay t_p which specifies the time from a rising edge of the clock to the output (Q). In theory it is also important to hold the input data of a register for the specified hold delay t_h , however, in the EDiC this is no problem. Then the combinatorial path also has propagation delays from inputs to outputs which need to be added up (t_c). At the next register, a setup time t_s has to be met which specifies the amount of time the input data needs to be stable before the rising edge.

The figures 5.5 to 5.7 show three timing analysis for the EDiC. Each block represents one IC with the corresponding delay. The first column shows the unit number of the schematic, the second line the type of IC and the third shows the kind of delay with the fourth showing the time. The kind of delay of a buffer can for example be $d \rightarrow q$ which means input data to output data delay or $oe \rightarrow q$ which is the time from asserting output enable until the data is valid. The delay time is always the worst case time as specified in the datasheet². A vertical double line represents a point where multiple delay paths must be met until the execution can continue. In figure 5.5 for example, the propagation delay of register U83 (flags and step register) and register U84 (instruction) must both be over until the address for the EEPROMs U85, U86 and U87 are valid. At these points the maximum of the merging delay paths is used as the starting point for the next path. The maximum delay up to this point is also added at the top. Additionally, some paths are labeled for clarity. All the times of the critical path (the path that takes the longest from one starting point to one end point) are marked in red.

Figure 5.5 shows the basic latency path for control signals and the common bus

²Propagation typically varies with the temperature and age of the IC and by taking the worst case time (maximum) it is assured that no timings bugs occur due to e.g. weather changes.

driver ICs. The latencies inside the register set and program counter are neglectable and, therefore, only the memory module with the complex address decoding and the ALU is further examined. For the memory module (figure 5.6), there are two critical paths: The first comes from the `memInstrToRamAddr` control signal, through the stack selection logic to the memory address and finally to the buffered output data of the SRAM on the bus (281.3 ns). The second has the same origin but represents the writing option of the SRAM (272.2 ns).

The ALU latency path (figure 5.7) is more complex which is mainly due to the ripple carry adder. Consequently, the critical path comes from the bus, through all the carry flags to the final adder result. After the result multiplexer the longest path is from the zero flag to the alu flag register U97 (313.9 ns).

Theoretically, it is possible for one instruction to read a value from the SRAM and using it in the same instruction as an input to the ALU. This would replace the baseline delay of the bus input in figure 5.7 (169.5 ns) with 281.3 ns and, therefore, enlarge the total worst case latency to

$$281.3 \text{ ns} - 169.5 \text{ ns} + 313.9 \text{ ns} = 425.7 \text{ ns} \quad (5.1)$$

Notwithstanding, because the EDiC is a multicycle CPU it is easily possible to assign two cycles to all ALU operations where the B operand is read from the memory. With this trick, the overall critical path is the maximum of 313.9 ns and half of equation (5.1) which is 313.9 ns. With a safety margin of 30% it is feasible to choose an oscillator with a frequency of 2.4 MHz:

$$2.4 \text{ MHz} \leq \frac{1}{1.3 \cdot 313.9 \text{ ns}} = 2.45 \text{ MHz} \quad (5.2)$$

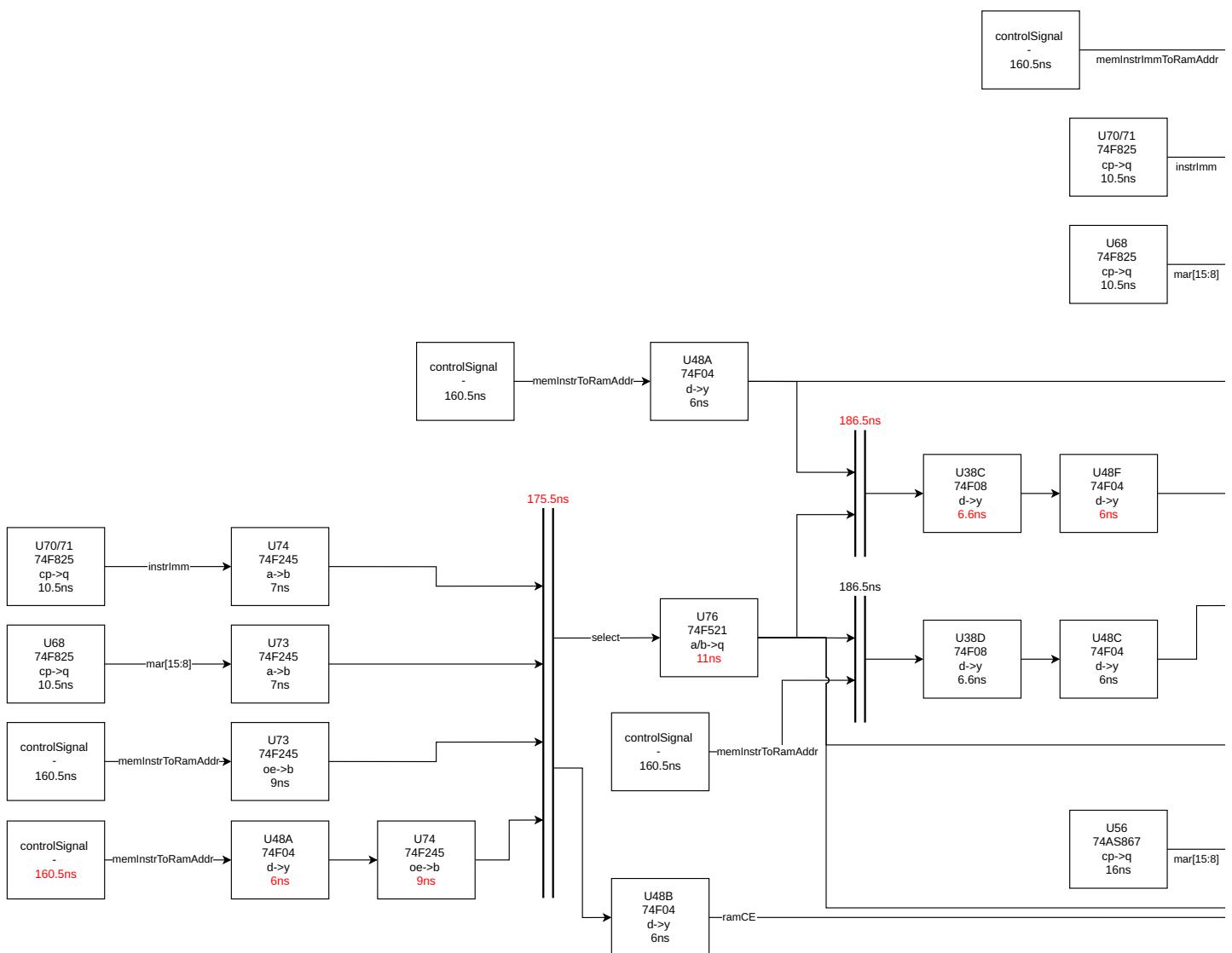
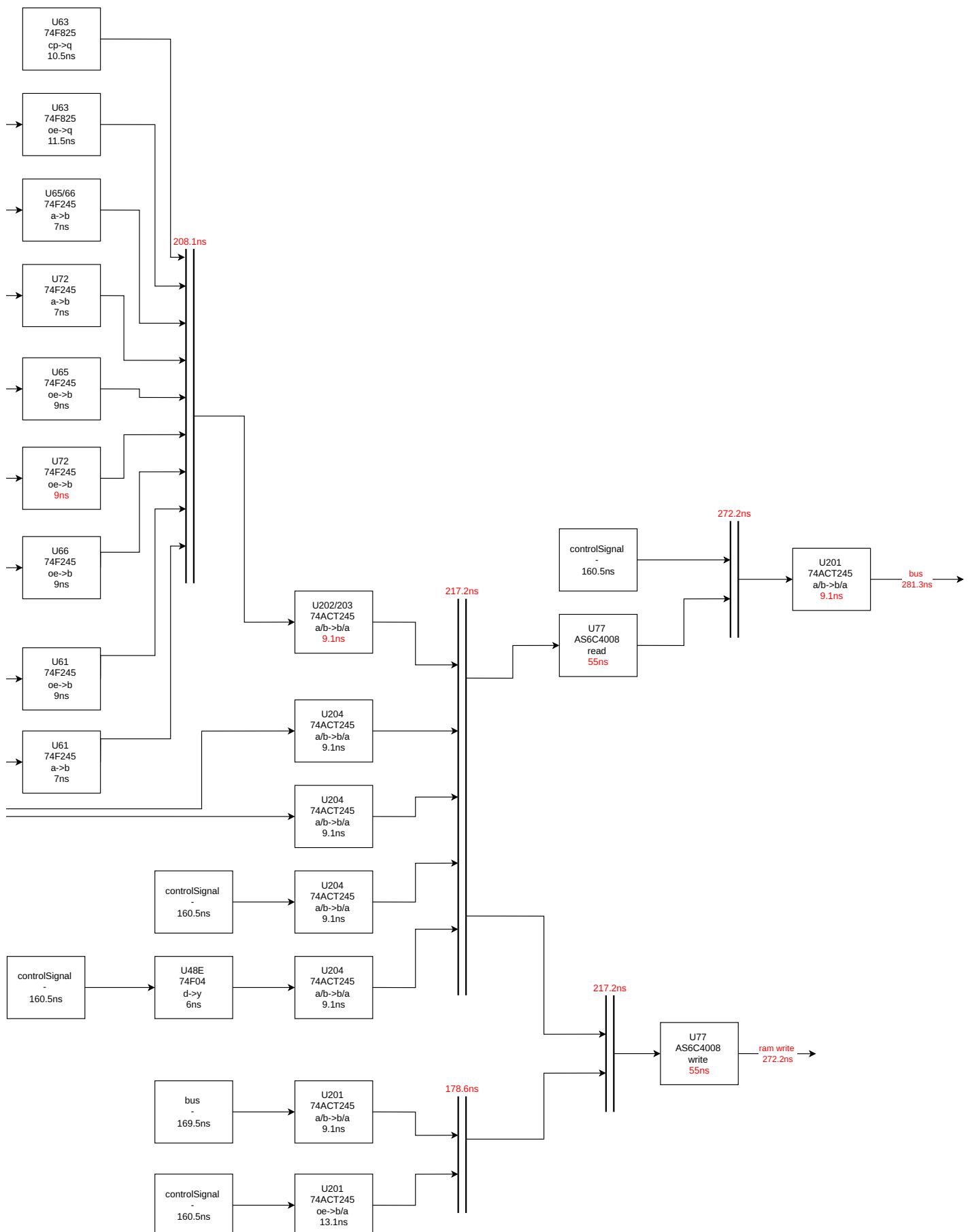


Figure 5.6: Timing analysis for the memory latency.



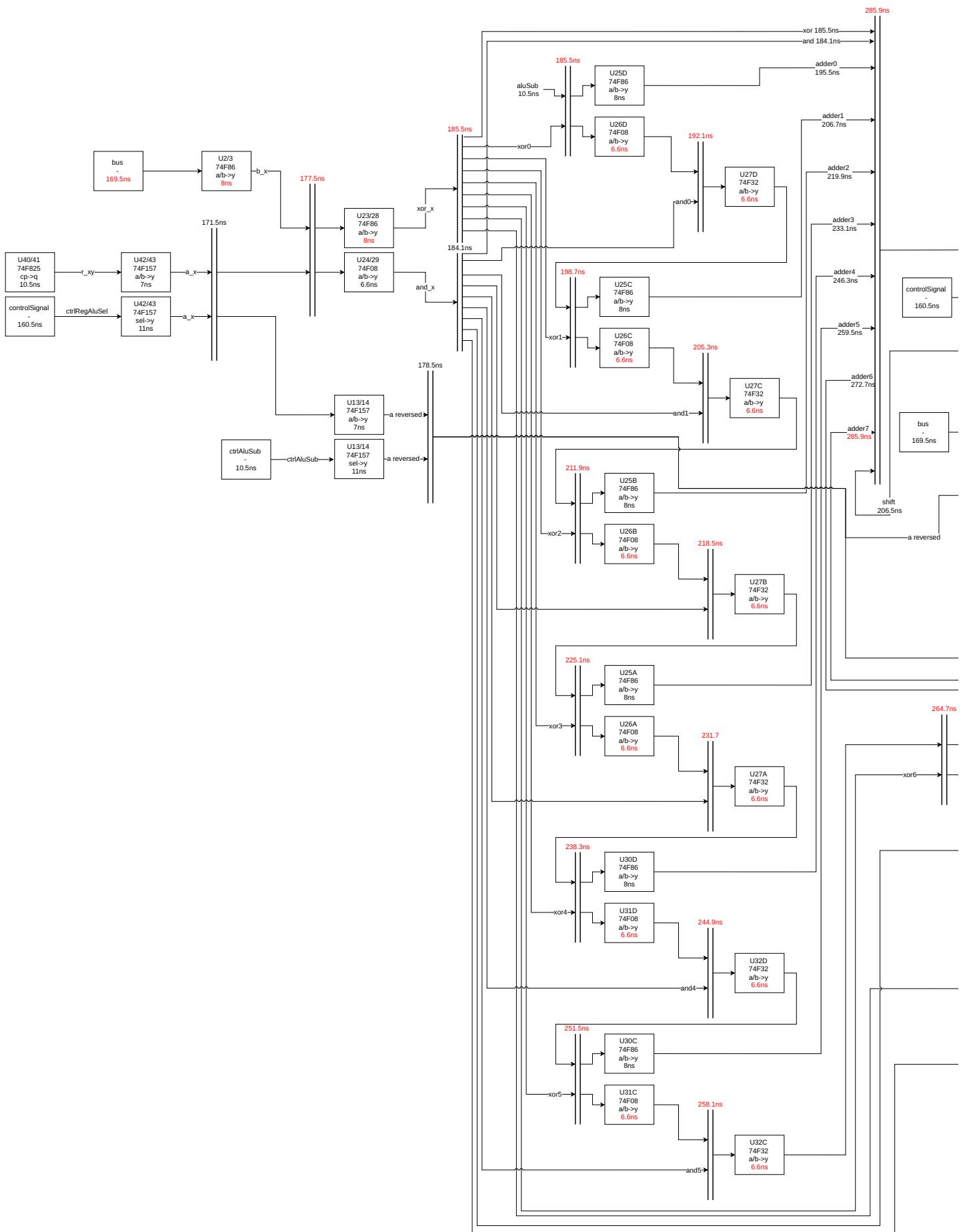
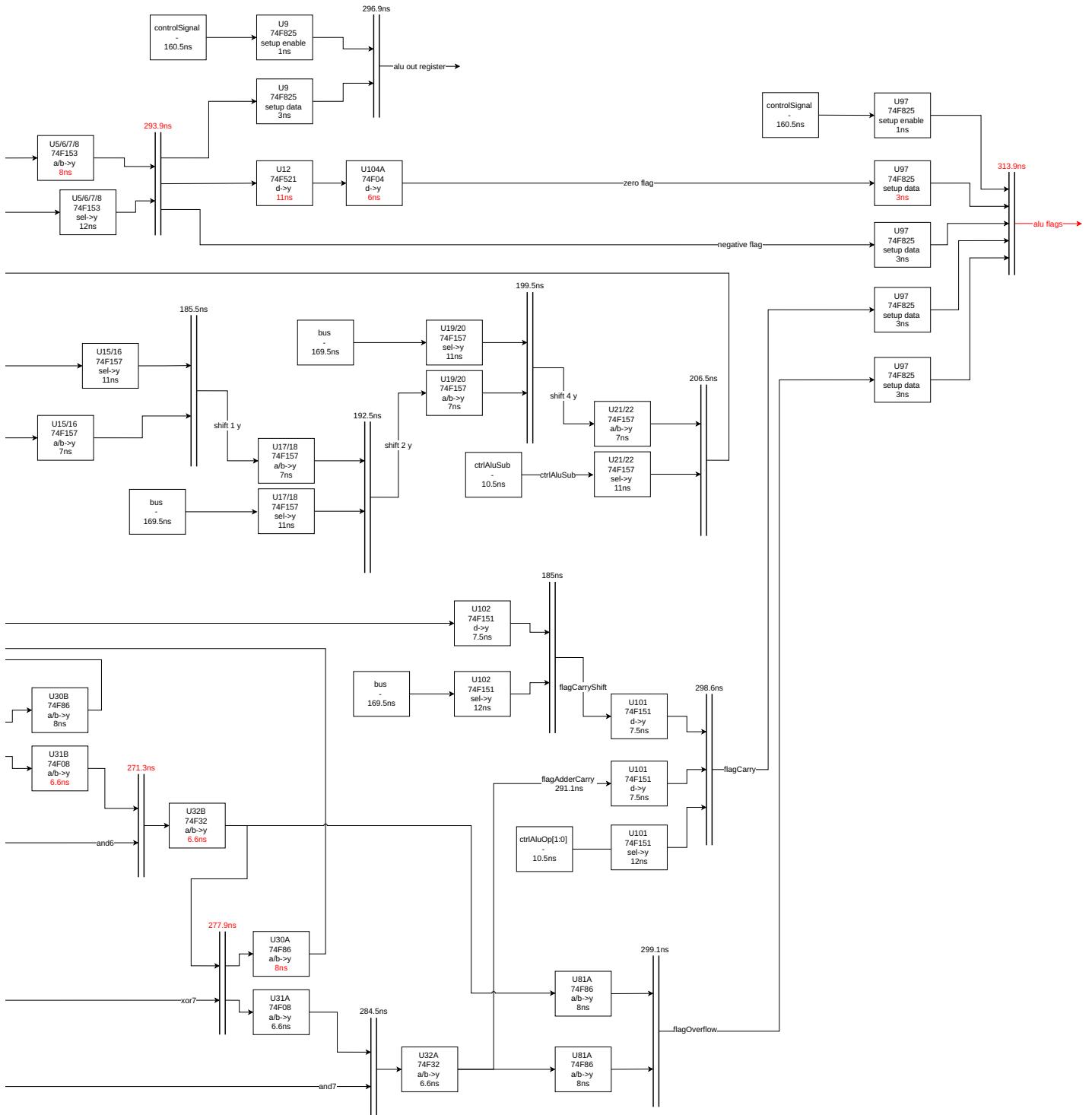


Figure 5.7: Timing analysis for the ALU latency.



6 Initial Hardware Test & Component Verification

6.1 Switch Glitches

6.1.1 Test Adapter

7 Conclusion and Future Work

Acronyms

Notation	Description
ALU	Arithmetic Logic Unit i, 7
ASIC	Application-Specific Integrated Circuit 41
BRAM	Block RAM 41
CE	chip enable 59
CISC	Complex Instruction Set Computer 5
CLB	Configurable Logic Block 41
CPU	Central Processing Unit 1
CSON	CoffeeScript-Object-Notation 23
DSP	Digital Signal Processor 41
EDiC	Educational Digital Computer iii, 1
EDIF	Electronic Design Interchange Format 47
EEPROM	Electrically Erasable Programmable Read-Only Memory ii, 6
EPROM	Erasable Programmable Read-Only Memory 41
FPGA	Field Programmable Gate Array ii, 1
HDL	Hardware Description Language 43
IC	Integrated Circuit 1
IDE	Integrated Development Environment 39
JSON	JavaScript Object Notation 23
LSB	Least Significant Bit 12

Notation	Description
LUT	Lookup Table 41
MAR	Memory Address Register 14
MSB	Most Significant Bit 9
MUX	Multiplexer 41
NOP	No Operation 22
PC	Program Counter i, 6
PCB	Printed Circuit Board 2
PRNG	Pseudo Random Number Generator 29
RAM	Random-Access Memory ii, 17
RISC	Reduced Instruction Set Computer 6
ROM	Read-Only Memory 50
SP	Stack Pointer 13
SRAM	Static Random-Access Memory 5
TUB	Technical University Berlin 43
UART	Universal Asynchronous Receiver-Transmitter 82
VHDL	VHSIC (Very High Speed Integrated Circuit) Hardware Description Language 43

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A Full Schematics of the EDiC

A Full Schematics of the EDiC

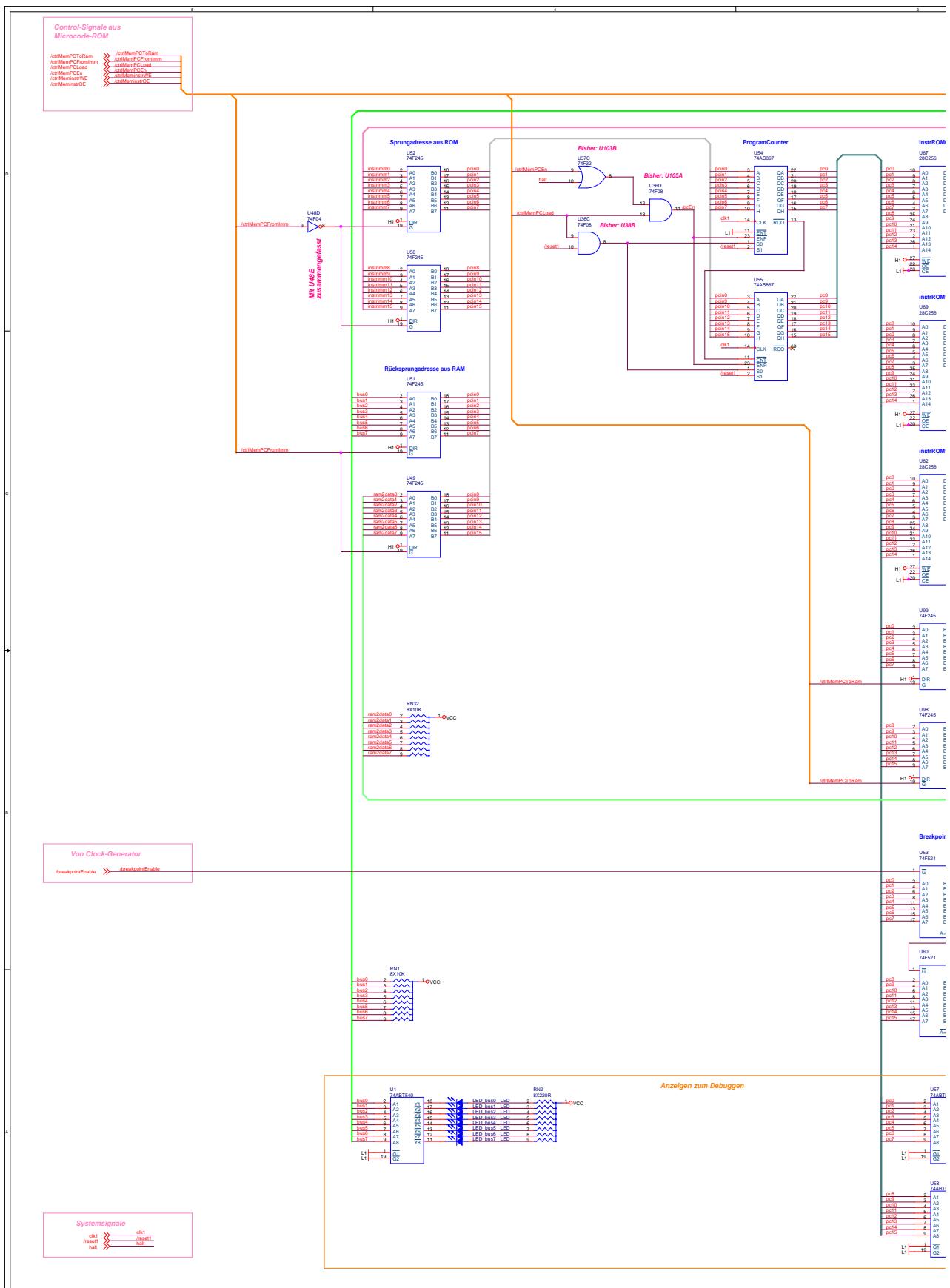
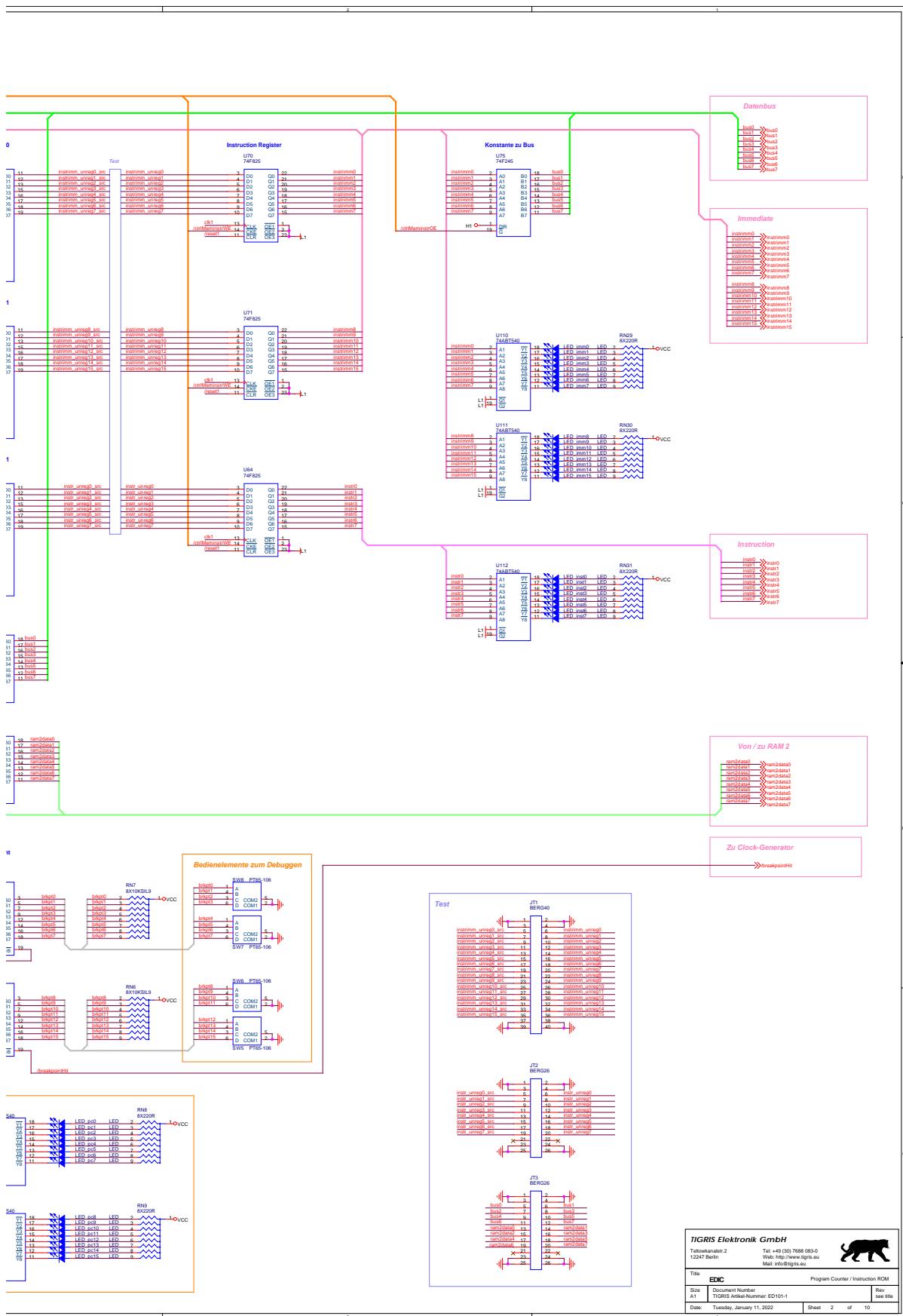


Figure A.1: Schematic: Program Counter / Instruction ROM.



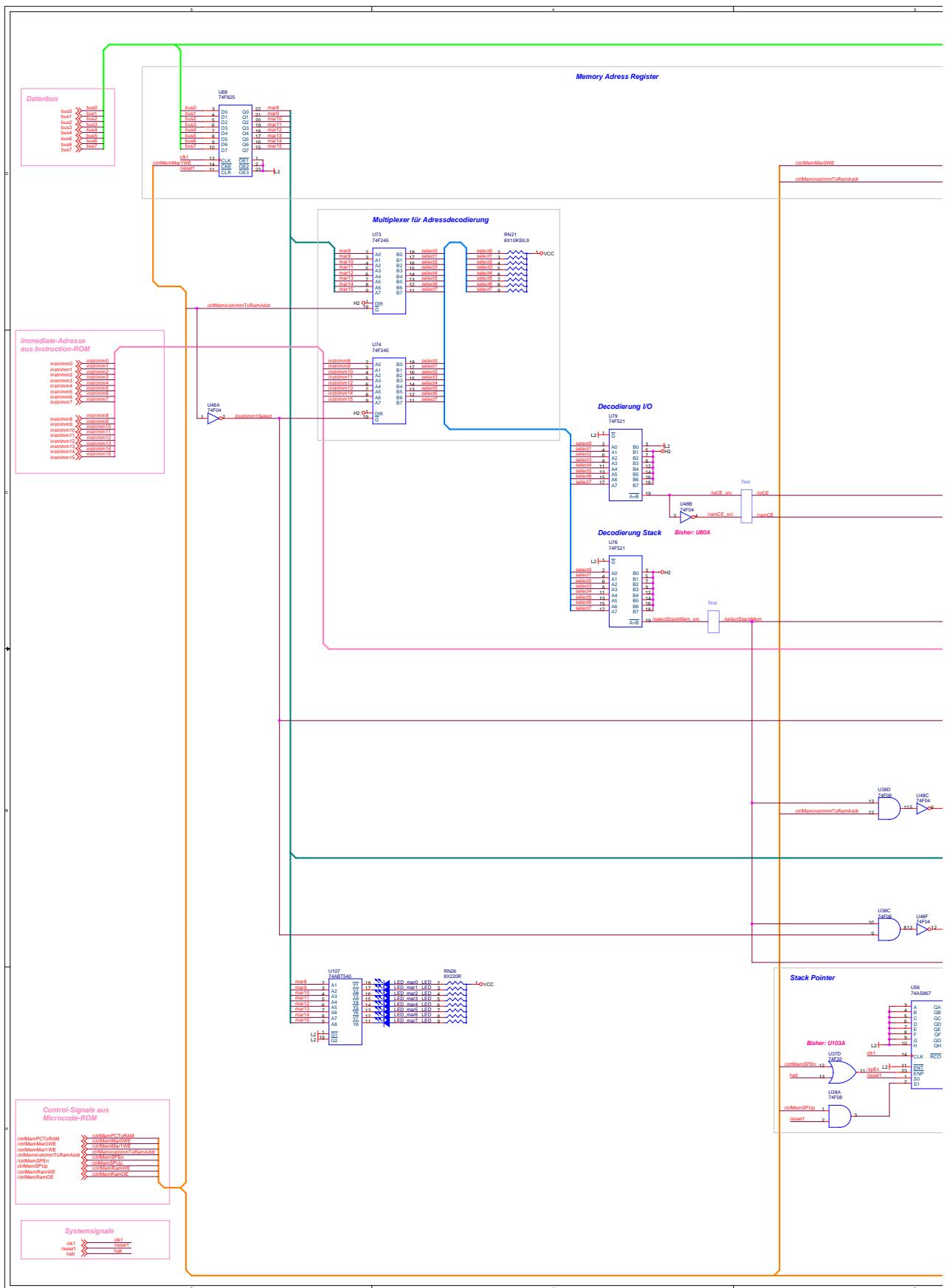
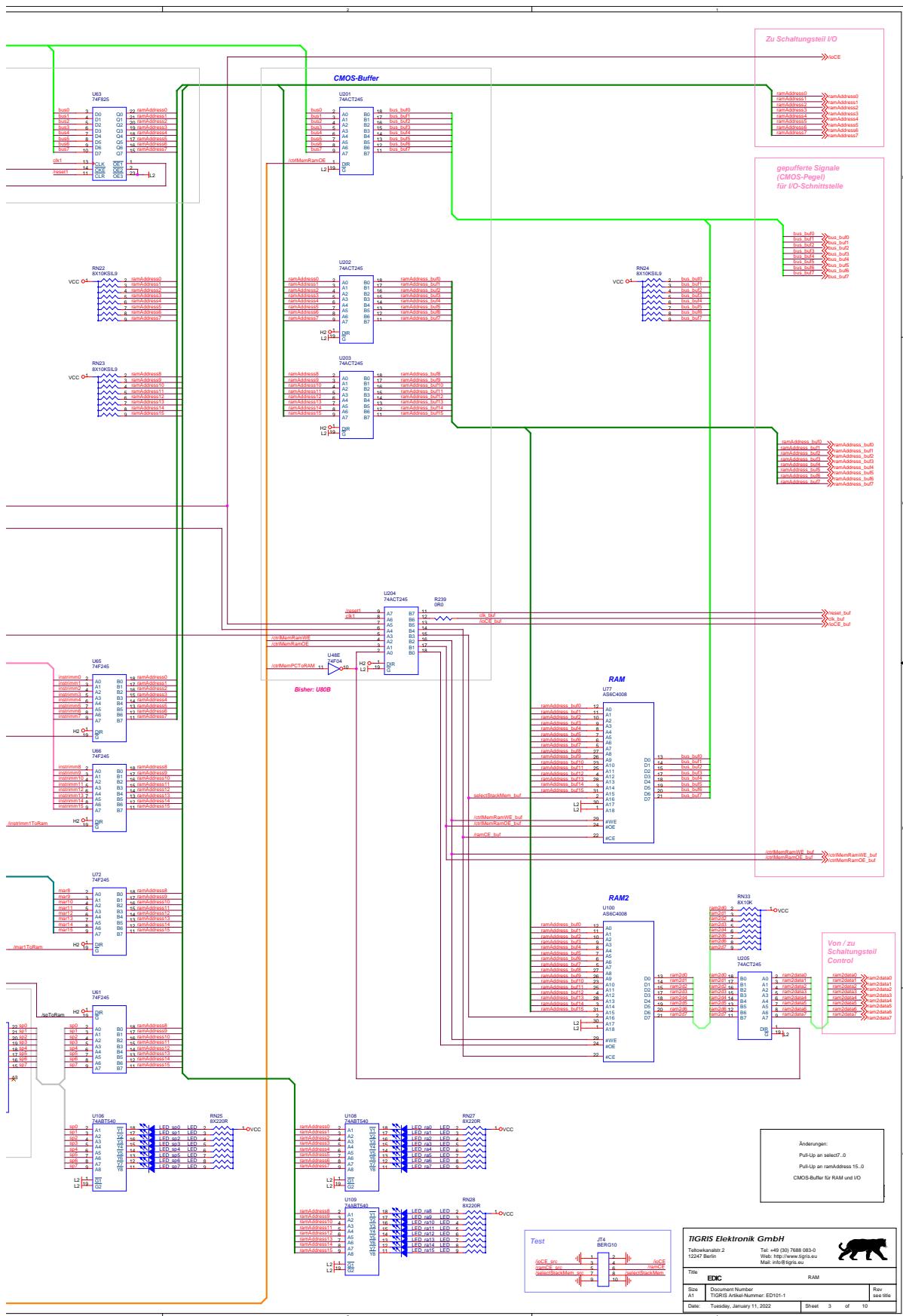


Figure A.2: Schematic: RAM.



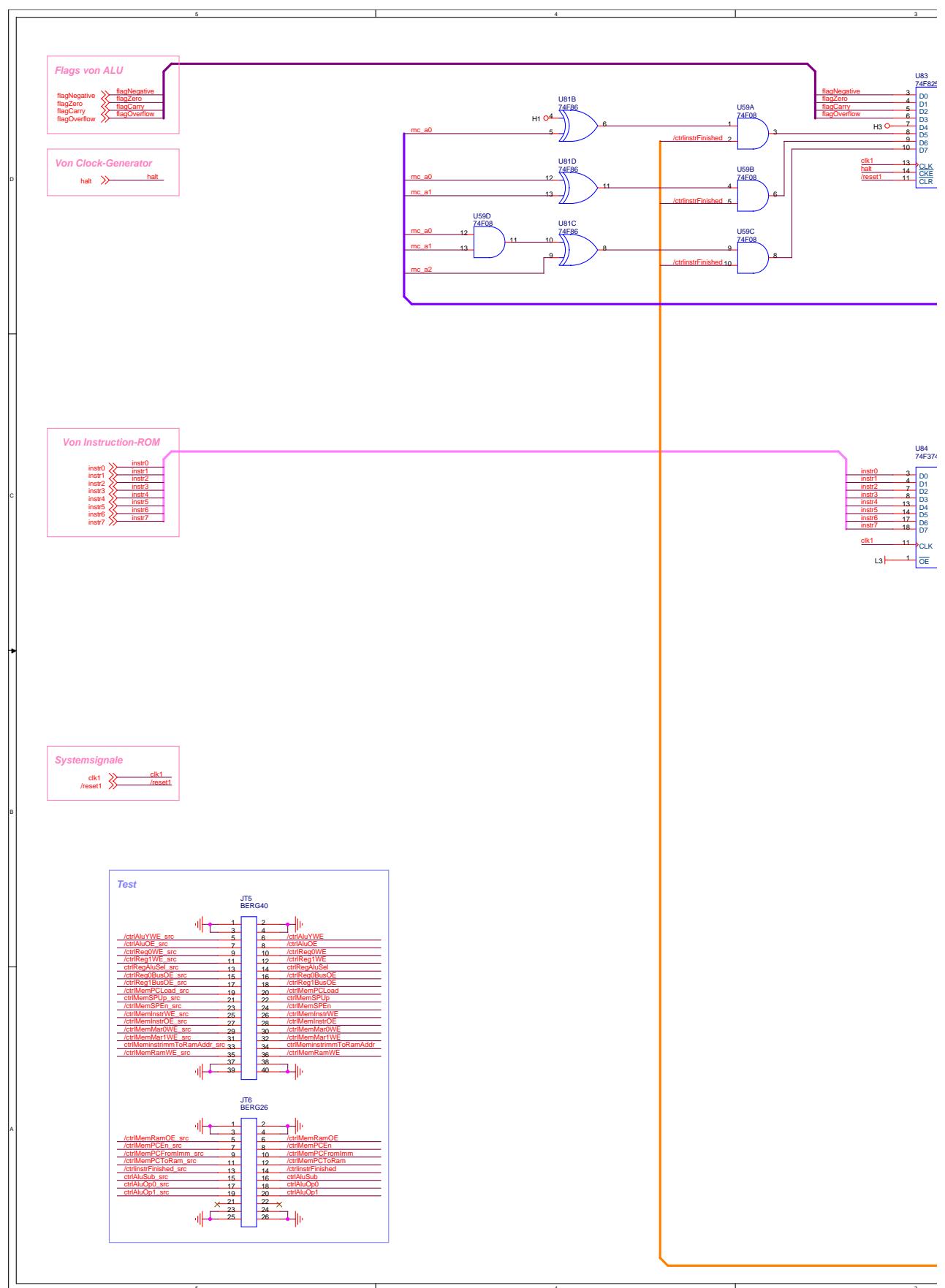
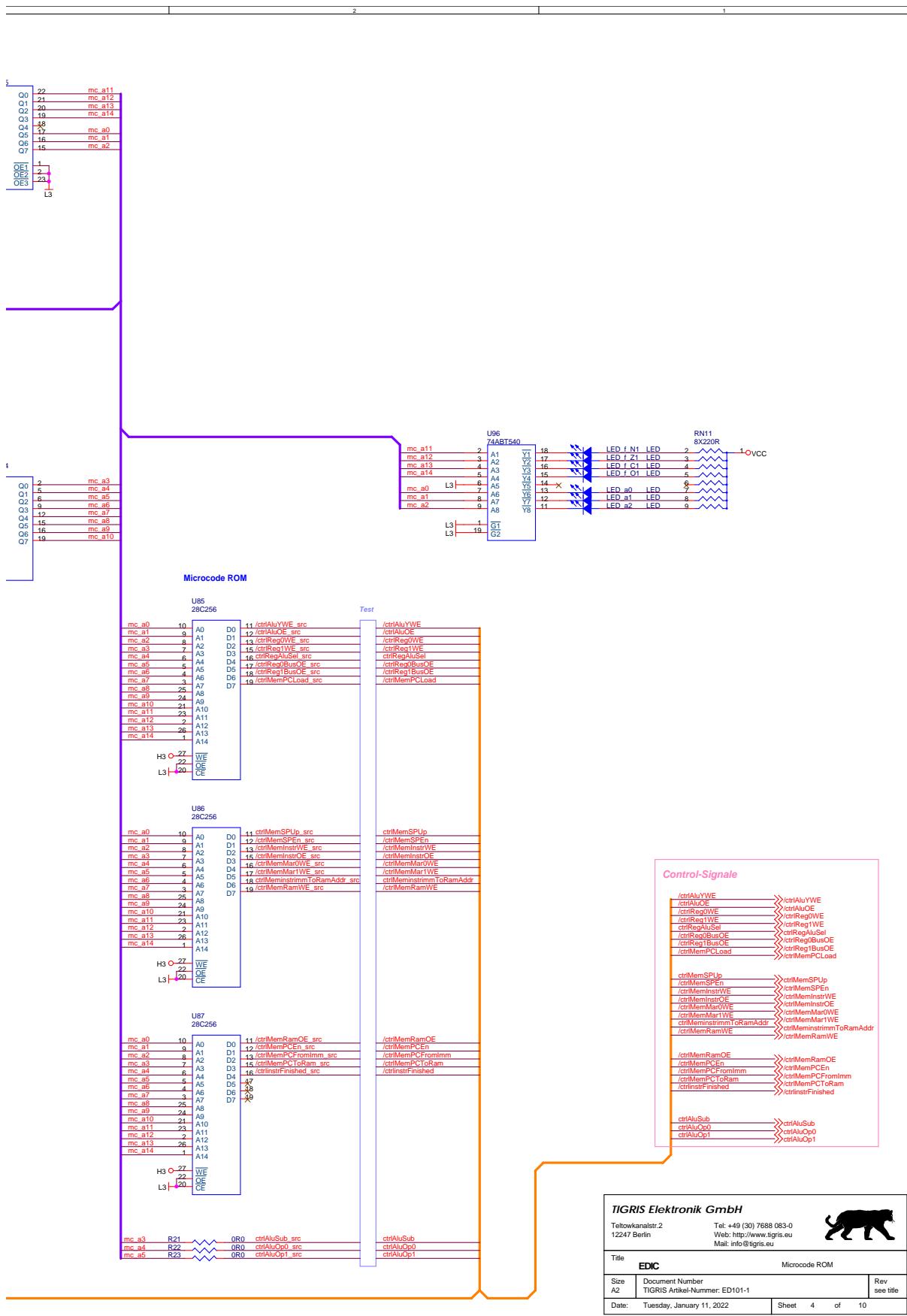


Figure A.3: Schematic: Microcode.



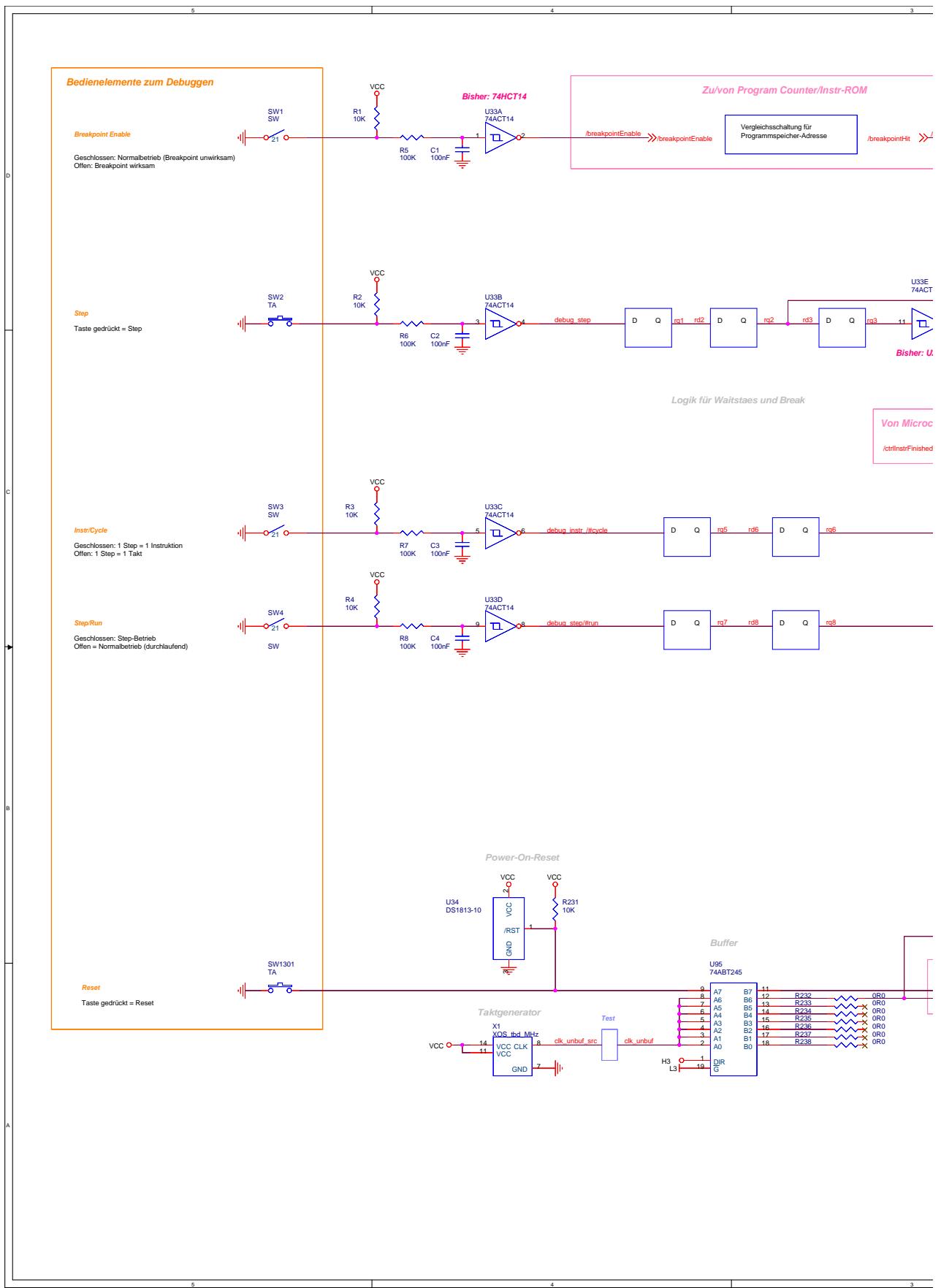
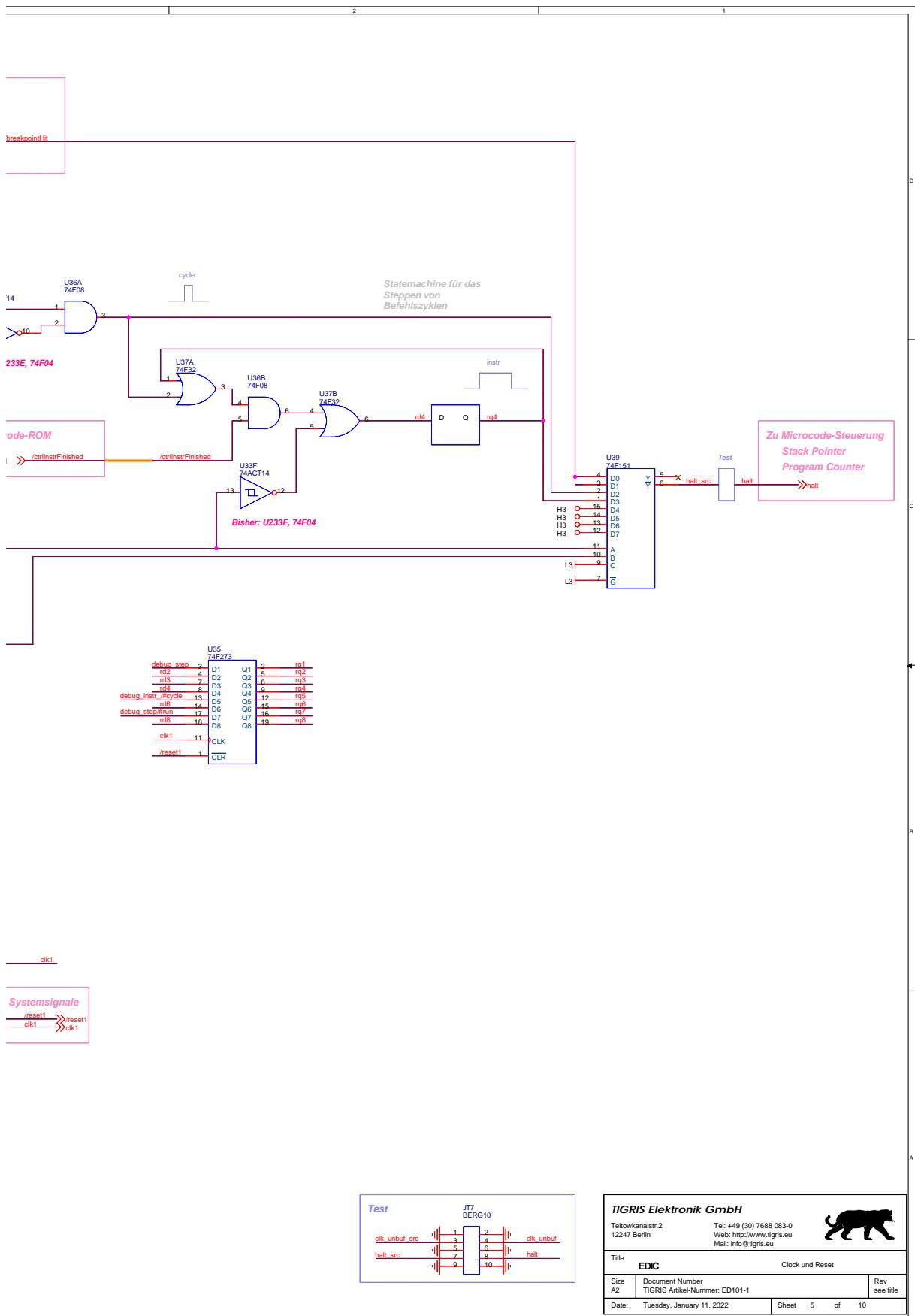


Figure A.4: Schematic: Clock and Reset.



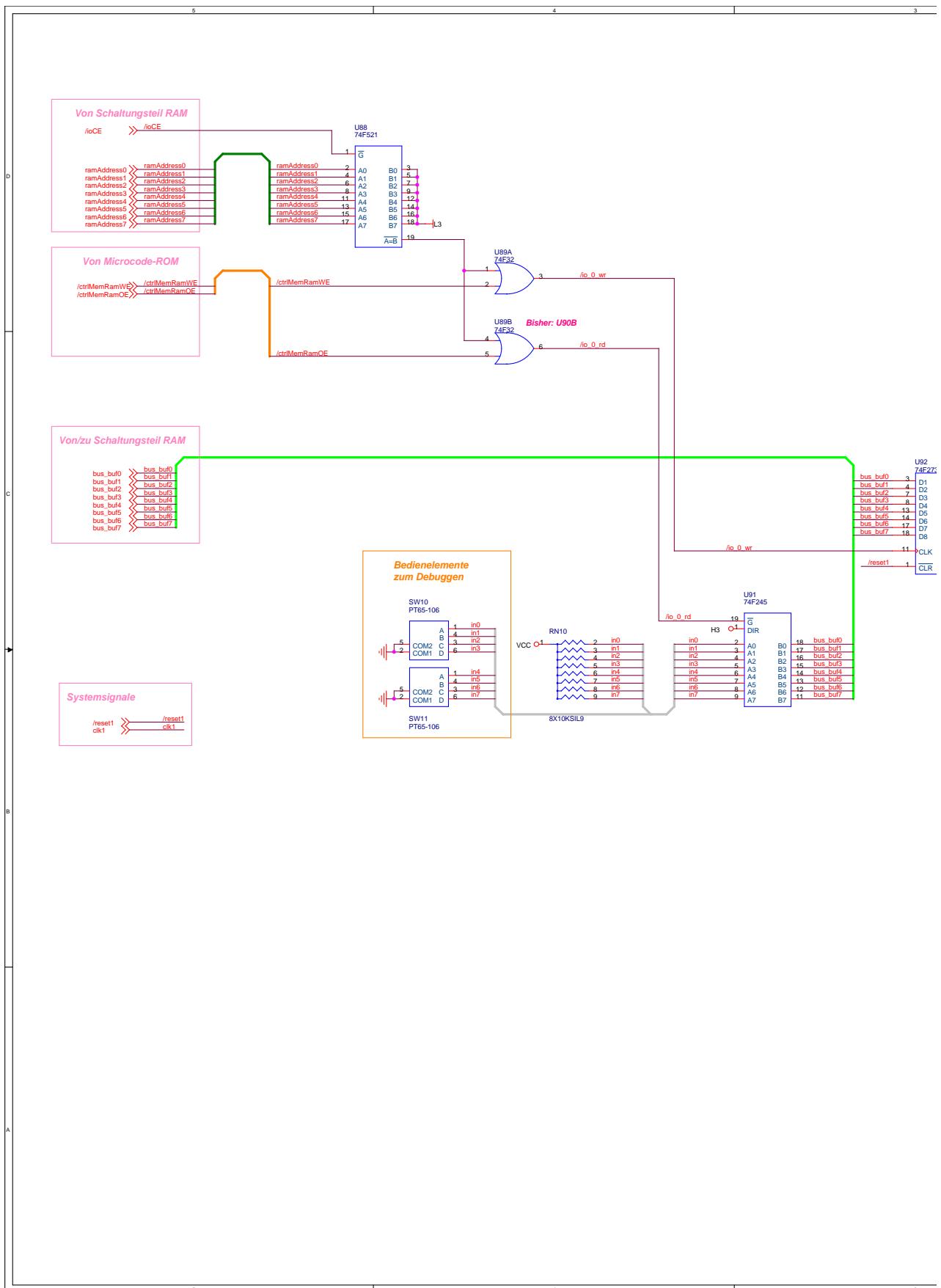
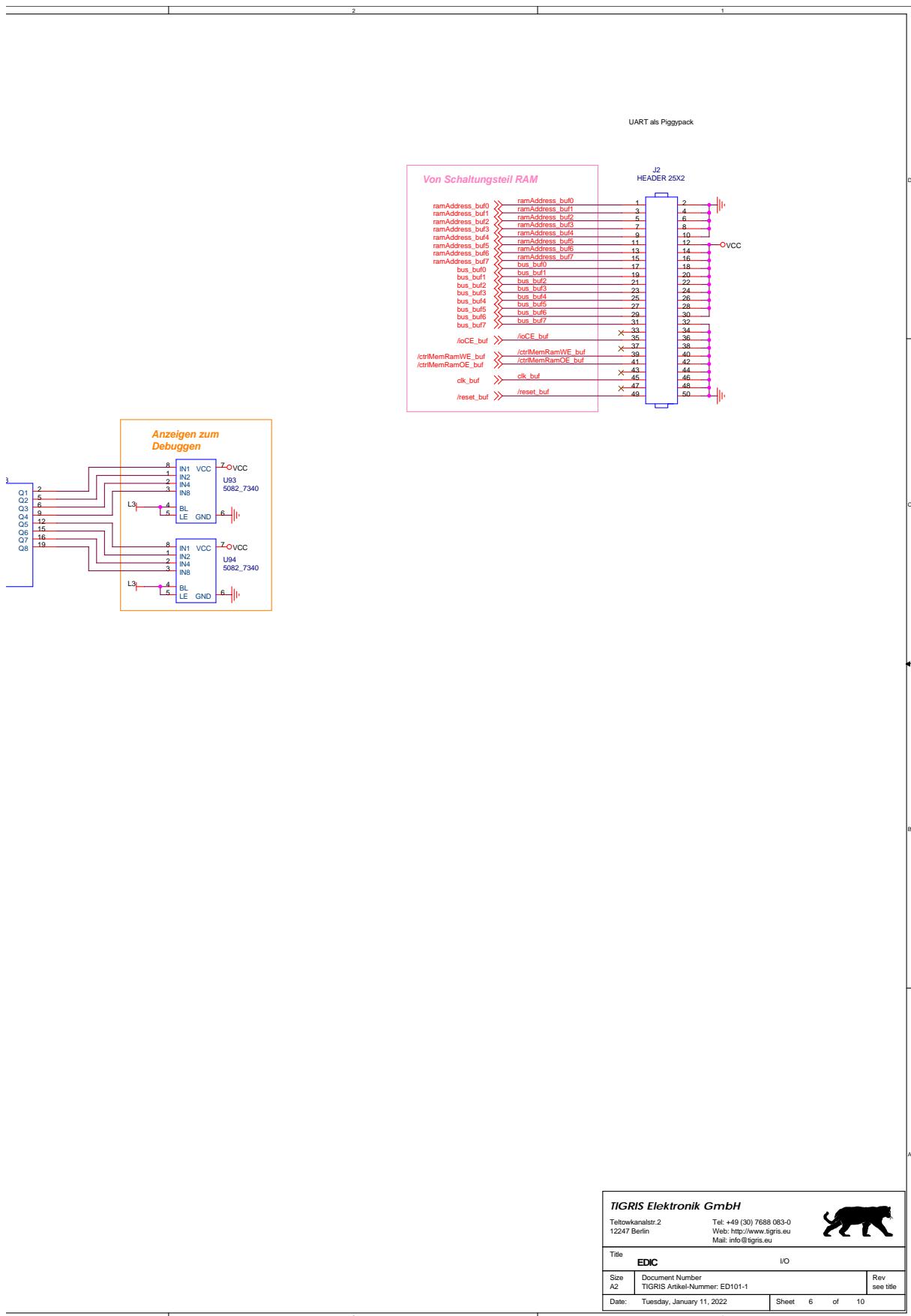


Figure A.5: Schematic: Built-In I/O.



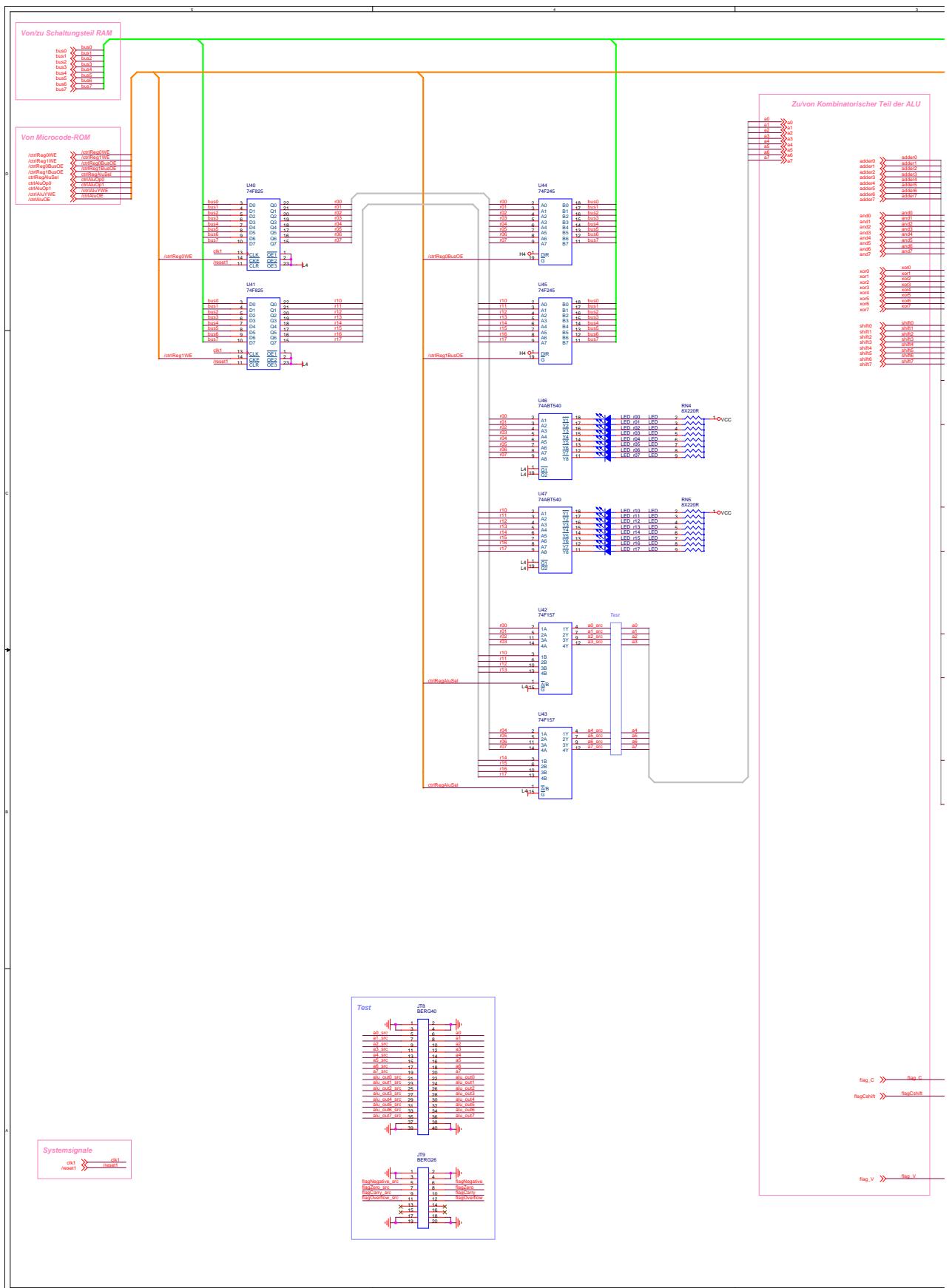
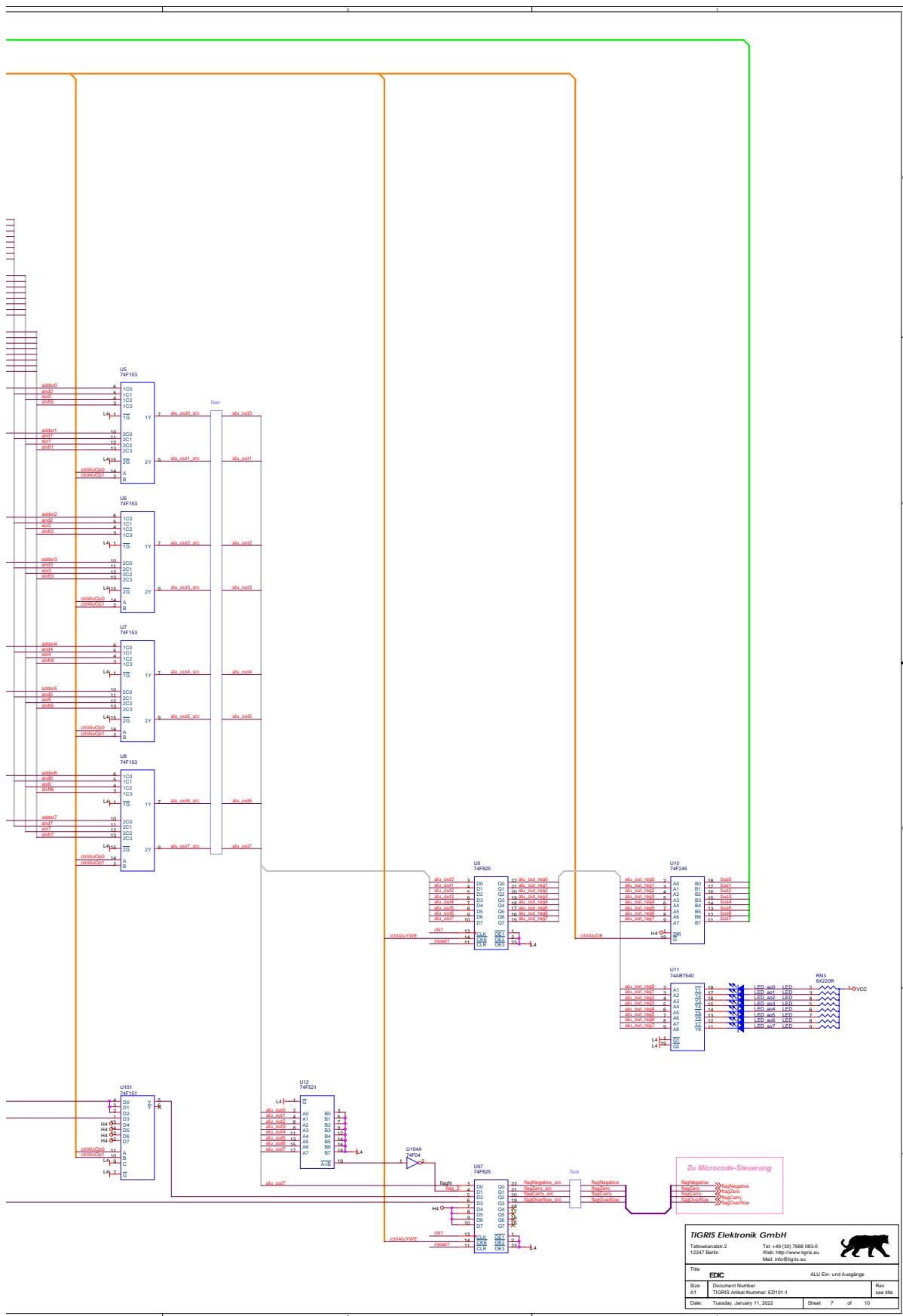


Figure A.6: Schematic: Register Set + ALU output.



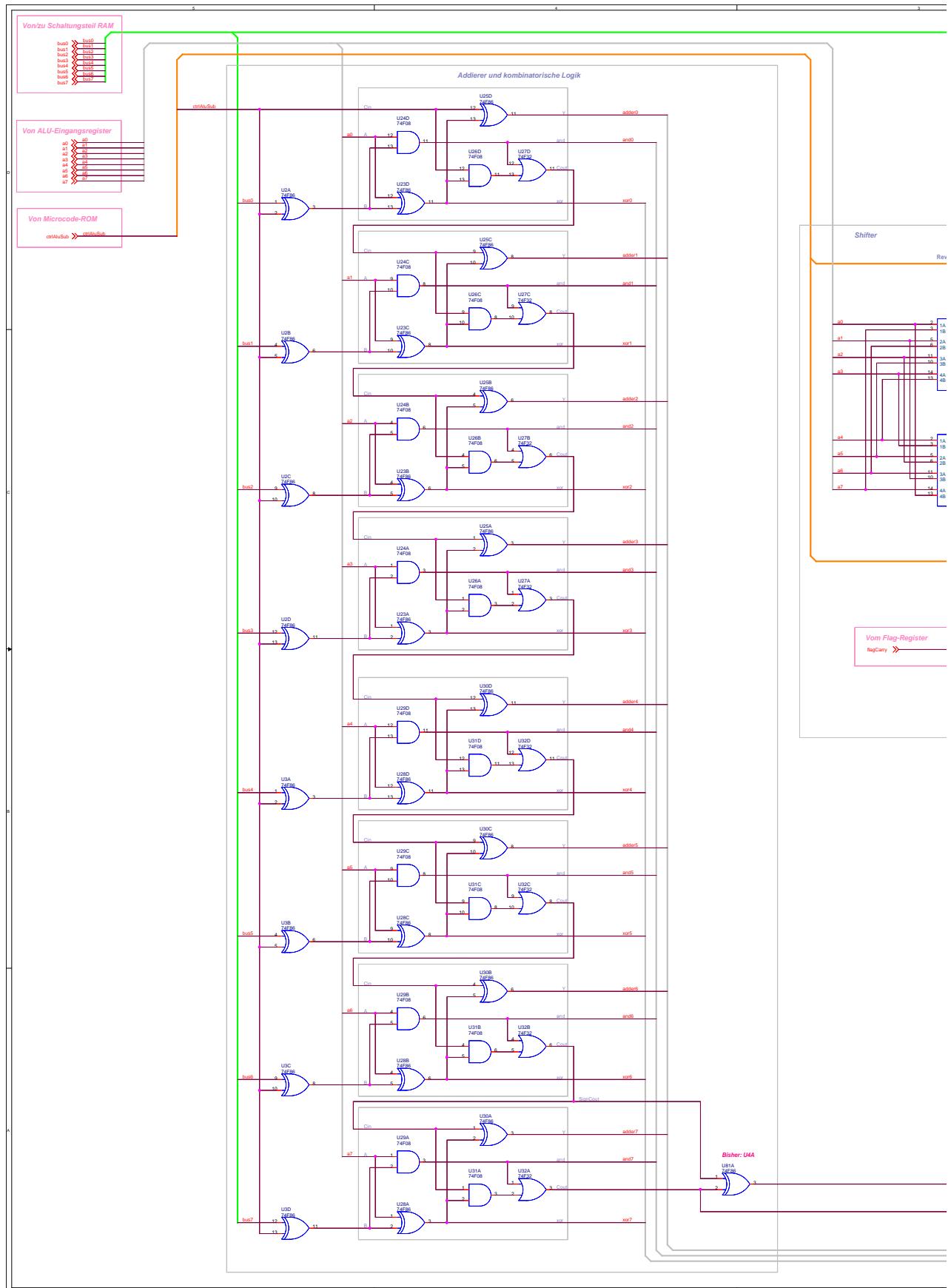
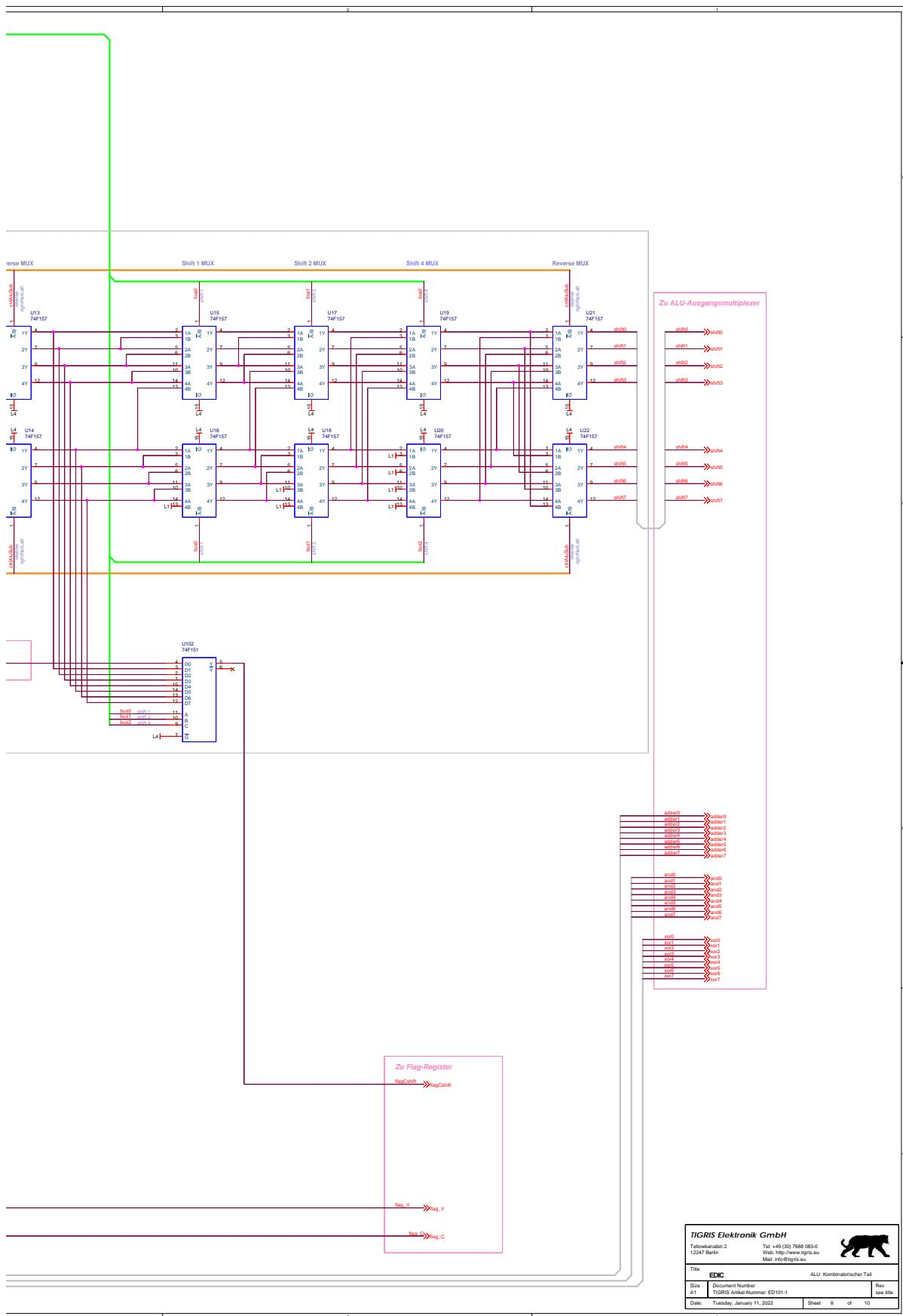


Figure A.7: Schematic: combinatorial ALU.



B Collection of assembler programs for the EDiC

Code Example B.1: The full snake assembler program.

```
1  include "prng.s"
2  include "uart_16c550.s"
3
4  SIMPLE_IO = 0xfe00
5  UART_RX_EMPTY = 0xfe09
6  UART_TX_FULL = 0xfe0a
7  UART_DATA = 0xfe0b
8  PAR1 = 0xff00
9  PAR2 = 0xff01
10 PAR3 = 0xff02
11 ESCAPE0 = 0x1b // \033
12 ESCAPE1 = 0x5b // '['
13 BORDER = 0x23 // '#'
14 SPACE = 0x20 // ' '
15 HEAD = 0x40 // '@'
16 LEFT = 0x3c // '<'
17 RIGHT = 0x3e // '>'
18 UP = 0x5e // '^'
19 DOWN = 0x76 // 'v'
20 ITEM = 0x58 // 'X'
21 ASCII_W = 0x77
22 ASCII_A = 0x61
23 ASCII_S = 0x73
24 ASCII_D = 0x64
25 ASCII_CAPITAL_W = 0x57
26 ASCII_CAPITAL_A = 0x41
27 ASCII_CAPITAL_S = 0x53
28 ASCII_CAPITAL_D = 0x44
29
30 // global variables
31 SNAKE_LENGTH      = 0x0000
32 SNAKE_DIRECTION   = 0x0001
33 SNAKE_HEAD_LINE   = 0x0002
34 SNAKE_HEAD_COL    = 0x0003
35 SNAKE_TAIL_LINE   = 0x0004
36 SNAKE_TAIL_COL    = 0x0005
37 SNAKE_LEFT_LINE   = 0x0006
38 SNAKE_LEFT_COL    = 0x0007
39 PRNG_SEED         = 0x0008 // ← do not init for extra
40                                     ← randomness
41 // local variables
42 LINE_COUNTER = 0xff00
43 COLUMN_COUNTER = 0xff01
44
45
46 // screen is in memory
47                                     ← starting from 0x0100
```

```

47 // one line has 256 bytes for      83
48   ↳ ease of access             84   // move cursor to the top
49 LINES = 24                      85   // mov r0, 1 // line
50 COLUMNS = 80                   86   // stf r0, [PAR2]
51 COLUMNS_1 = 79                 87   // mov r0, 0 // col
52 0x20.LOST_STRING = "You      88   // stf r0, [PAR1]
53   ↳ lost!!! Score: "         89   // mov r0, BORDER
54 start:                         90   // call setScreen
55   call uart_init              91   ldr r0, [SNAKE_LENGTH]
56   // clear screen            92   str r0, [SIMPLE_IO]
57   mov r0, ESCAPE0             93   // wait x ms
58   call uart_write             94   // mov r0, 90
59   mov r0, ESCAPE1             95   // call delay_ms
60   call uart_write             96
61   mov r0, 0x32 // '2'          97   call readArrow
62   call uart_write             98   // change direction if != -1
63   mov r0, 0x4a // 'J'          99   cmp r0, -1
64   call uart_write             100  beq mainLoop
65                               101  str r0, [SNAKE_DIRECTION]
66   call createBoard            102  b mainLoop
67   call updateItem             103
68 mainLoop:                      104  lost:
69   call updateHead             105  // set position to upper
70   cmp r0, -1                  106  ↳ center
71   beq lost                   107  mov r0, 6 // line
72   cmp r0, 1                   108  stf r0, [PAR2]
73   beq mainAteItem            109  mov r0, 27 // col
74   call updateTail             110  stf r0, [PAR1]
75   b mainUpdateBoard           111  mov r0, SPACE
76 mainAteItem:                  112  call setScreen
77   ldr r0, [SNAKE_LENGTH]      113  mov r0, LOST_STRING
78   add r0, 1                   114  call outputString
79   str r0, [SNAKE_LENGTH]      115  ldr r0, [SNAKE_LENGTH]
80   call updateItem             116  call outputDecimal
81 mainUpdateBoard:              117  lostLoop:
82   ldr r0, [SNAKE_LENGTH]      118  b lostLoop

```

<pre> 119 120 updateItem: 121 str r1, [0xffffe] 122 123 itemColumn: 124 call prng 125 and r0, 0x7f // limit 126 → columns 127 cmp r0, COLUMNS 128 bhs itemColumn // if out 129 → of scope redo 130 mov r1, r0 131 132 itemLine: 133 call prng 134 and r0, 0x1f // limit 135 → lines 136 cmp r0, LINES 137 bgt itemLine // if out of 138 → scope redo 139 stf r0, [PAR2] 140 sma r0 // line 141 ldr r0, [r1] 142 cmp r0, SPACE 143 bne itemColumn // if there 144 → is something at the new 145 → item position find a 146 → new one 147 // store new item 148 stf r1, [PAR1] 149 mov r0, ITEM 150 151 call setScreen 152 153 ldr r1, [0xffffe] 154 155 ret 156 157 // returns -1 if lost, 0 if 158 → nothing happened and 1 if 159 → ate item </pre>	<pre> 148 updateHead: 149 str r1, [0xffffe] 150 151 ldr r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_LINE] 152 stf r0, [PAR2] 153 sma r0 154 ldr r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_COL] 155 stf r0, [PAR1] 156 // load correct direction 157 → char into r0 158 ldr r1, [SNAKE_DIRECTION] 159 cmp r1, 0 160 beq headUp 161 cmp r1, 1 162 beq headDown 163 cmp r1, 2 164 beq headRight 165 cmp r1, 3 166 beq headLeft 167 b headEnd // should not 168 → happen 169 170 headUp: 171 mov r0, UP 172 call setScreen 173 ldr r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_LINE] 174 sub r0, 1 175 str r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_LINE] 176 b headEnd 177 178 headDown: 179 mov r0, DOWN 180 call setScreen 181 ldr r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_LINE] 182 add r0, 1 183 str r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_LINE] </pre>
--	---

184 headLeft:	219 ldr r1, [0xffffe]
185 mov r0, LEFT	220 ret
186 call setScreen	221 headSpace:
187 ldr r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_COL]	222 mov r0, 0
188 sub r0, 1	223 ldr r1, [0xffffe]
189 str r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_COL]	224 ret
190 b headEnd	225 headItem:
191	226 mov r0, 1
192 headRight:	227 ldr r1, [0xffffe]
193 mov r0, RIGHT	228 ret
194 call setScreen	229
195 ldr r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_COL]	230 updateTail:
196 add r0, 1	231 str r1, [0xffffe]
197 str r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_COL]	232
198 b headEnd	233 ldr r0, [SNAKE_TAIL_LINE]
199	234 str r0, [SNAKE_LEFT_LINE]
200 headEnd:	235 stf r0, [PAR2]
201	236 sma r0
202 ldr r1, [SNAKE_HEAD_LINE]	237 ldr r0, [SNAKE_TAIL_COL]
203 stf r1, [PAR2]	238 str r0, [SNAKE_LEFT_COL]
204 sma r1	239 stf r0, [PAR1]
205 ldr r1, [SNAKE_HEAD_COL]	240 // load direction char
206 stf r1, [PAR1]	241 ldr r1, [r0]
207 ldr r1, [r1] // load item	242 mov r0, SPACE
→ at new position	243 call setScreen
208 sts r1, [0x00]	244 cmp r1, UP
// store & show head	245 beq tailUp
209 mov r0, HEAD	246 cmp r1, DOWN
210 call setScreen	247 beq tailDown
211 // if new position is not	248 cmp r1, RIGHT
→ space or item -> lost	249 beq tailRight
212 lds r0, [0x00] // load	250 cmp r1, LEFT
→ saved item	251 beq tailLeft
213 cmp r0, SPACE	252 b tailEnd // should not
214 beq headSpace	→ happen
215 cmp r0, ITEM	253
216 beq headItem	254 tailUp:
217 mov r0, -1	255 ldr r1, [SNAKE_TAIL_LINE]

<pre> 256 sub r1, 1 257 str r1, [SNAKE_TAIL_LINE] 258 b tailEnd 259 260 tailDown: 261 ldr r1, [SNAKE_TAIL_LINE] 262 add r1, 1 263 str r1, [SNAKE_TAIL_LINE] 264 b tailEnd 265 266 tailLeft: 267 ldr r1, [SNAKE_TAIL_COL] 268 sub r1, 1 269 str r1, [SNAKE_TAIL_COL] 270 b tailEnd 271 272 tailRight: 273 ldr r1, [SNAKE_TAIL_COL] 274 add r1, 1 275 str r1, [SNAKE_TAIL_COL] 276 b tailEnd 277 278 tailEnd: 279 ldr r1, [0xffff] 280 ret 281 282 createBoard: 283 str r0, [0xffff] 284 str r1, [0xfffd] 285 286 // init snake 287 mov r0, 4 288 str r0, [SNAKE_LENGTH] 289 mov r0, 2 290 str r0, [SNAKE_DIRECTION] 291 mov r0, 12 // center 292 str r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_LINE] 293 mov r0, 40 #center </pre>	<pre> 294 str r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_COL] 295 mov r0, 12 296 str r0, [SNAKE_TAIL_LINE] 297 mov r0, 37 298 str r0, [SNAKE_TAIL_COL] 299 mov r0, 12 300 str r0, [SNAKE_LEFT_LINE] 301 mov r0, 36 302 str r0, [SNAKE_LEFT_COL] 303 304 // move to home position 305 mov r0, ESCAPE0 306 call uart_write 307 mov r0, ESCAPE1 308 call uart_write 309 mov r0, 0x48 // 'H' 310 call uart_write 311 312 313 // first and last line is 314 // → full border 315 mov r1, 0 316 317 createLine0Loop: 318 sma 1 319 mov r0, BORDER 320 str r0, [r1] 321 call uart_write 322 add r1, 1 323 cmp r1, COLUMNS 324 blt createLine0Loop 325 326 mov r0, 0x0a // LF 327 call uart_write 328 mov r0, 0x0d // CR 329 call uart_write 330 331 // line 2 to 23 have first 332 // → and last column border </pre>
---	--

<pre> 330 mov r1, 2 // skip first 364 blt createLineLoop // skip ↳ line ↳ last line 331 str r1, [LINE_COUNTER] 365 332 createLineLoop: 366 // draw last line 333 // load mar1 with line 367 mov r1, 0 334 ↳ space 368 createLineLastLoop: 335 sma r1 369 sma LINES 336 mov r1, 0 370 mov r0, BORDER 337 mov r0, BORDER 371 str r0, [r1] 338 str r0, [r1] 372 call uart_write 339 call uart_write 373 add r1, 1 340 add r1, 1 374 cmp r1, COLUMNS 341 // loop through line 375 blt createLineLastLoop 342 ↳ (1-79) and store space 376 343 createColumnLoop: 377 // draw snake 344 ldr r0, [LINE_COUNTER] 378 ldr r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_LINE] 345 sma r0 379 stf r0, [PAR2] 346 mov r0, SPACE 380 ldr r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_COL] 347 str r0, [r1] 381 stf r0, [PAR1] 348 call uart_write 382 mov r0, HEAD 349 add r1, 1 383 call setScreen 350 cmp r1, COLUMNS_1 384 351 blt createColumnLoop 385 mov r1, 1 352 // store end border 386 snakeBody: 353 mov r0, BORDER 387 ldr r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_LINE] 354 str r0, [r1] 388 stf r0, [PAR2] 355 call uart_write 389 ldr r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_COL] 356 mov r0, 0x0a // LF 390 sub r0, r1 357 call uart_write 391 stf r0, [PAR1] 358 mov r0, 0x0d // CR 392 mov r0, RIGHT 359 call uart_write 393 call setScreen 360 ldr r1, [LINE_COUNTER] 394 add r1, 1 361 add r1, 1 395 cmp r1, 3 362 str r1, [LINE_COUNTER] 396 ble snakeBody 363 cmp r1, LINES 397 364 365 366 367 368 369 370 371 372 373 374 375 376 377 378 379 380 381 382 383 384 385 386 387 388 389 390 391 392 393 394 395 396 397 398 399 400 </pre>	<pre> 364 blt createLineLoop // skip ↳ last line 365 366 // draw last line 367 mov r1, 0 368 createLineLastLoop: 369 sma LINES 370 mov r0, BORDER 371 str r0, [r1] 372 call uart_write 373 add r1, 1 374 cmp r1, COLUMNS 375 blt createLineLastLoop 376 377 // draw snake 378 ldr r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_LINE] 379 stf r0, [PAR2] 380 ldr r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_COL] 381 stf r0, [PAR1] 382 mov r0, HEAD 383 call setScreen 384 385 mov r1, 1 386 snakeBody: 387 ldr r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_LINE] 388 stf r0, [PAR2] 389 ldr r0, [SNAKE_HEAD_COL] 390 sub r0, r1 391 stf r0, [PAR1] 392 mov r0, RIGHT 393 call setScreen 394 add r1, 1 395 cmp r1, 3 396 ble snakeBody 397 398 ldr r0, [0xffffe] 399 ldr r1, [0xffffd] 400 ret </pre>
---	--

<pre> 401 402 403 // r0: char, PAR1: col, PAR2: 404 ↳ line 405 setScreen: 406 str r0, [0xffffe] 407 str r1, [0xffffd] 408 409 // store 410 ldr r1, [PAR2] 411 sma r1 412 ldr r1, [PAR1] 413 str r0, [r1] 414 415 // decimal needs to be one 416 ↳ based 417 mov r0, ESCAPE0 418 call uart_write 419 mov r0, ESCAPE1 420 call uart_write 421 ldr r0, [PAR2] // line is 422 ↳ already one based 423 call outputDecimal 424 mov r0, 0x3b // ';' 425 call uart_write 426 ldr r0, [PAR1] 427 add r0, 1 // column is not 428 ↳ one based 429 call outputDecimal 430 mov r0, 0x48 // 'H' 431 call uart_write 432 433 ldr r0, [0xffffe] 434 call uart_write 435 </pre>	<pre> 435 436 // r0 is parameter 437 outputDecimal: 438 str r1, [0xffffe] 439 440 mov r1, 100 441 stf r1, [PAR1] 442 call divMod // r0 / 100 443 ldf r1, [PAR1] // mod 444 ↳ result 445 add r0, 0x30 // make to 446 ↳ char 447 call uart_write 448 mov r0, r1 // remainder is 449 ↳ parameter for next 450 ↳ divMod 451 mov r1, 10 452 stf r1, [PAR1] 453 call divMod 454 ldf r1, [PAR1] 455 add r0, 0x30 // make to 456 ↳ char 457 call uart_write 458 mov r0, r1 // last char to 459 ↳ output 460 add r0, 0x30 // make to 461 ↳ char 462 call uart_write 463 464 // r0: address of string 465 outputString: 466 str r1, [0xffffe] 467 sts r0, [0x00] 468 mov r1, 0 469 outputStringLoop: </pre>
--	---

```

466     lds r0, [0x00]           501 // -1 for nothing, 0 for up,
467     sma r0                  ↳ 1 for down, 2 for right,
468     ldr r0, [r1]             ↳ 3 for left
469     cmp r0, 0
470     beq outputStringEnd    502 readArrow:
471     call uart_write         503     str r1, [0xffff]
472     add r1, 1               504 readArrowLoop:
473     cmp r1, 255             505     call uart_read
474     bne outputStringLoop   506     cmp r0, 0
475
476     outputStringEnd:       507     beq readArrowNothing // no
477
478     ldr r1, [0xffff]         508     ↳ char received
479     ret                     509 // up
480
481
482 // r0 / PAR1              510     cmp r0, ASCII_W
483 // result: r0 -> div, *PAR1 -> 511     beq readArrowUp
484     ↳ mod                  512     cmp r0, ASCII_CAPITAL_W
485 divMod:                  513     beq readArrowUp
486     str r1, [0xffff]         514     // left
487     mov r1, 0               515     cmp r0, ASCII_A
488     divLoop:                516     beq readArrowLeft
489     add r1, 1               517     cmp r0, ASCII_CAPITAL_A
490     sub r0, [PAR1]          518     beq readArrowLeft
491     bpl divLoop // positive or 519     // down
492     ↳ zero (N Clear)      520     cmp r0, ASCII_S
493     // executing one step too 521     beq readArrowDown
494     ↳ much, undo it        522     cmp r0, ASCII_CAPITAL_S
495     add r0, [PAR1]          523     beq readArrowDown
496     sub r1, 1               524     // right
497
498     str r0, [PAR1]          525     cmp r0, ASCII_D
499     mov r0, r1              526     beq readArrowRight
500     ldr r1, [0xffff]         527     cmp r0, ASCII_CAPITAL_D
501     ret                     528     beq readArrowRight
502
503
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534

```

<pre> 535 cmp r0, ESCAPE1 536 bne readArrowLoop 537 538 call uart_read 539 cmp r0, 0x41 // A 540 blt readArrowLoop 541 cmp r0, 0x44 // D 542 bgt readArrowLoop 543 sub r0, 0x41 // return 0-4 544 ret 545 // -1 for nothing, 0 for up, ↳ 1 for down, 2 for right, ↳ 3 for left 546 readArrowNothing: 547 ldr r1, [0xffff] 548 mov r0, -1 549 ret 550 readArrowUp: 551 ldr r1, [0xffff] 552 mov r0, 0 553 ret 554 readArrowLeft: 555 ldr r1, [0xffff] 556 mov r0, 3 557 ret 558 readArrowDown: 559 ldr r1, [0xffff] 560 mov r0, 1 561 ret 562 readArrowRight: 563 ldr r1, [0xffff]</pre>	<pre> 564 mov r0, 2 565 ret 566 567 // r0: delay in ms 568 delay_ms: 569 sts r0, [0x00] 570 571 delay_ms_outer_loop: 572 573 // 2MHz clock -> 1ms is ↳ 2000cycle 574 // per loop 4+4+3+3=14 ↳ cycles (below) 575 // -> 198.6 times 10 ↳ cycles per iteration 576 mov r0, 0 577 delay_ms_loop: 578 add r0, 1 // 4 cycles 579 cmp r0, 199 // 3 cycles 580 blo delay_ms_loop // 3 ↳ cycles 581 582 lds r0, [0x00] // 4 ↳ cycles 583 sub r0, 1 // 4 cycles 584 sts r0, [0x00] // 3 ↳ cycles 585 bhi delay_ms_outer_loop // ↳ 3 cycles 586 ret</pre>
---	---

Code Example B.2: The PRNG assembler program “prng.s” used in the snake program in Code Example B.1.

<pre> 1 PRNG_SEED = 0x0000 2 SIMPLE_IO = 0xfe00 3</pre>

```

4 prng:
5   ldr r0, [PRNG_SEED]
6   subs r0, 0
7   beq prngDoEor
8   lsl r0, 1
9   beq prngNoEor
10  bcc prngNoEor
11 prngDoEor:
12  xor r0, 0x1d
13 prngNoEor:
14  str r0, [PRNG_SEED]
15 ret
16
17 start:
18  mov r0, 0
19  str r0, [PRNG_SEED]
20 prng_loop:
21  call prng
22  str r0, [SIMPLE_IO]
23  b prng_loop

```

Code Example B.3: The utility library for the UART extension card of the EDIC with the 16c550 UART Transceiver.

1	UART_DAT = 0xfe08	14	// UART_DIV = 20 // 9600 baud
2	UART_IER = 0xfe09	15	UART_FILL_AMOUNT = 60 //
3	UART_IIR = 0xfe0a		→ 19200 baud
4	UART_FCR = 0xfe0a	16	// UART_FILL_AMOUNT = 30 //
5	UART_LCR = 0xfe0b		→ 9600 baud
6	UART_MCR = 0xfe0c	17	
7	UART_LSR = 0xfe0d	18	uart_init:
8	UART_MSR = 0xfe0e	19	// line control register
9	UART_SCR = 0xfe0f	20	// 8bit, 2 stopbits, no
10	UART_DLL_DLAB = 0xfe08		→ parity, dlab active:
11	UART_DLM_DLAB = 0xfe09	21	// 0b10xx_0111
12			// 8bit, 1 stopbit, no
13	UART_DIV = 10 // 19200 baud	22	→ parity, dlab active:

<pre> 23 // 0b10xx_0011 24 mov r0, 0x87 25 str r0, [UART_LCR] 26 27 // divisor latch access 28 mov r0, 0x00 29 str r0, [UART_DLM_DLDB] 30 mov r0, UART_DIV 31 str r0, [UART_DLL_DLDB] 32 33 // lcr as above but dlbd 34 ↳ inactive 35 mov r0, 0x07 36 str r0, [UART_LCR] 37 38 // fifo control register 39 // fifo enable, reset tx 40 ↳ and rx fifo 41 // 0b00xx_x111 42 mov r0, 0x07 43 str r0, [UART_FCR] 44 45 // interrupt enable register 46 // clear all interrupts -> 47 ↳ fifo polled mode 48 mov r0, 0x00 49 str r0, [UART_IER] 50 51 // modem control register 52 // assert dtr, deassert rts 53 ↳ (should be asserted?),, 54 // 0bxxxx0_xx01 55 mov r0, 0x01 56 str r0, [UART_MCR] 57 ret 58 59 // r0 is byte to write 60 uart_write_inner: </pre>	<pre> 57 sts r1, [0x00] 58 59 uart_write_loop: 60 ldr r1, [UART_LSR] 61 and r1, 0x20 // bit 5, 62 ↳ fifo empty (not full?) 63 ↳ -> if 1, can accept 64 ↳ new data 65 beq uart_write_loop 66 67 str r0, [UART_DAT] 68 69 lds r1, [0x00] 70 ret 71 72 uart_write: 73 sts r1, [0x00] 74 call uart_write_inner 75 76 cmp r0, 0x20 // if less 77 ↳ than 0x20 -> send fill 78 ↳ null bytes 79 bge uart_write_end 80 81 mov r0, 0x00 82 mov r1, UART_FILL_AMOUNT 83 84 uart_write_fill_loop: 85 call uart_write_inner 86 sub r1, 1 87 cmp r1, 0 88 bhi uart_write_fill_loop 89 90 uart_write_end: 91 lds r1, [0x00] 92 93 ret 94 95 // r0 is byte to write </pre>
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90  uart_read:           108      and r1, 0x01 // bit 0,
91    ldr r0, [UART_LSR]          ↳ fifo not empty -> 1
92    and r0, 0x01 // bit 0, fifo
93      ↳ not empty -> 1 if data 109      beq uart_read_busy_loop
94      ↳ exists                110
95    beq uart_read_0           111      ldr r0, [UART_DAT]
96    ldr r0, [UART_DAT]         112
97    ret                      113      lds r1, [0x00]
98  uart_read_0:            114      ret
99    mov r0, 0                 115
100   ret                     116
101
102 // r0 is byte to write   117      start:
103 uart_read_busy:          118      call uart_init
104   sts r1, [0x00]           119      uart_loop:
105
106 uart_read_busy_loop:    120      call uart_read
107   ldr r1, [UART_LSR]        121      str r0, [0xfe00]
108
109
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```