



# Microprocessor and Assembly language

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# Reference Books

1. Microprocessors and Microcomputer-based System Design – By Mohamed Rofiquzzaman
2. Microprocessor theory and applications with 68000/68020 and pentium – By Mohamed Rofiquzzaman
3. Assembly Language Programming and Organization of the IBM PC- by Ytha Yu and Charles Marut

# Microprocessor and Assembly



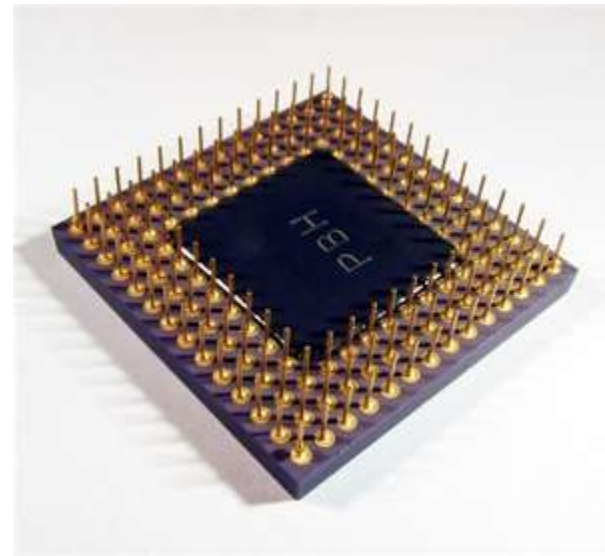
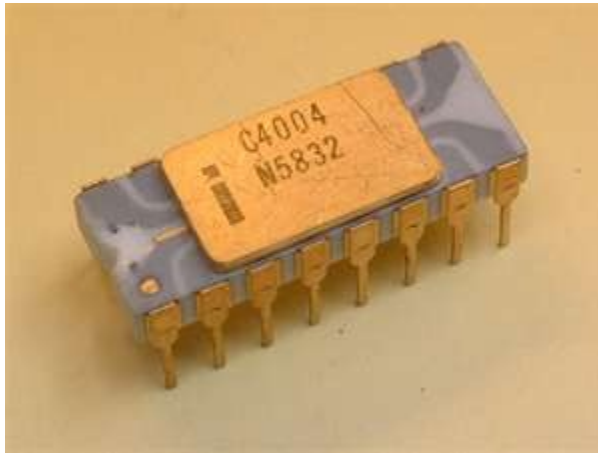
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# Microprocessor

- A **microprocessor** (sometimes abbreviated  $\mu\text{P}$ ) is a digital electronic component with transistors on a single **semiconductor integrated circuit (IC)**.
- A **Central processing unit (CPU)** in a **computer system** or handheld device consists of one or more microprocessors.

- A Microprocessor is essentially a set of switches. A massive set of electronic switches is superimposed onto a very small piece of silicon.
- Through the use of binary language, which consists of only two states; one and zero (on and off), these can be used to store information and perform operations on it.

- A bit refers to one binary digit; a **zero or one**. In computer memory and processing **this refers to the state of one switch**. The transistors are arranged into groups in order to represent complex numbers and instructions



# History of Microprocessor

## First Generation $\mu$ P

- **INTEL 4004** ( 1971) – **First Microprocessor**
- **4-bit** microprocessor
- **4 KB** main memory
- 45 instructions
- PMOS technology
- **Low cost**
- **Slow speed**
- was **first programmable device which was used in calculators**

# History of Microprocessor

## First Generation $\mu$ P

- **INTEL 8008** (1972)
- **8-bit** version of 4004
- **16 KB** main memory
- **48** instructions
- PMOS technology
- Slow speed
- Low cost
- Low output currents
- Not compatible with TTL (Transistor Transistor logic)



# History of Microprocessor

## First Generation $\mu$ P

- Intel 8080 (1973)
  - 8-bit microprocessor
  - 64 KB main memory
  - 2 microseconds clock cycle time
  - 500,000 instructions/sec
  - 10X faster than 8008
  - NMOS technology
  - Drawback was that it needed three power supplies.
- Small computers (Microcomputers) were designed in mid 1970's Using 8080 as CPU.

# History of Microprocessor

## Second Generation $\mu$ P

- Motorola 6800, 6809, Intel 8085 and Zilog Z80  
(after 1973 ~ before 1978)
- 8-bit microprocessor
- NMOS technology
- Faster speed than first generation  $\mu$ P
- High density Transistor deployment.
- TTL compatible

# History of Microprocessor

## Third Generation $\mu$ P

- **INTEL 8086/8088**
- Year of introduction 1978 for 8086 and 1979 for 8088
- **16-bit** microprocessors
- Data bus width of 8086 is 16 bit and 8 bit for 8088
- **1 MB** main memory
- 400 nanoseconds clock cycle time
- 6 byte instruction cache for 8086 and 4 byte for 8088
- Other improvements included more registers and additional instructions
- In 1981 IBM decided to use 8088 in its personal computer

# History of Microprocessor

## Third Generation $\mu$ P

- **INTEL 80186 (1982)**
- **16-bit** microprocessor-upgraded version of 8086
- **1 MB** main memory
- Contained special hardware like programmable counters,
- **interrupt controller** etc.
- Never used in the PC
- But was ideal for systems that required a minimum of hardware .

# History of Microprocessor

## Third Generation $\mu$ P

- **INTEL 80286 (1983)**
- **16-bit** high performance microprocessor with memory management & protection
- **16 MB** main memory
- Few additional instructions (15) to handle extra operation
- Instruction execution time is as little as 250 ns
- Concentrates on the features needed to implement MULTITASKING

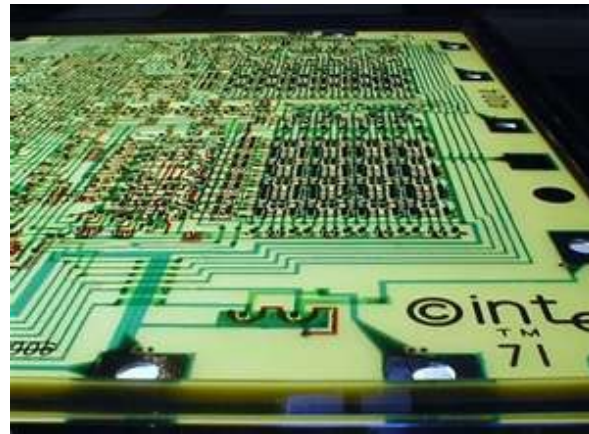
# History of Microprocessor

## Fourth Generation $\mu$ P

- **INTEL 80386/80486/Pentium Motorola MC68020/68030/68040/PowerPC (1980 ~ later)**
- **32-bit high performance** microprocessor
- Fabricated using Low power consumption of HMOS called HCMOS technology
- Operating speed comparing to supercomputers (VAX11/750, VAX11/780)
- Both Intel(80960) and Motorola (MC88100/ PowerPC) introduced RISC (Reduced instruction set computer)  $\mu$ P
- Pipelining enhance the throughput performance of instruction execution.

# Current status of Microprocessor

- Most of today's computers are turning to 64 bit designs to handle dealing with very large amounts of data. This is needed especially as demand for 3D Graphics and fast video has risen. E.g. AMD Athlon, Pentium i5/i7 processors integrated with GPU (Graphics processing unit).



- Microprocessors are classified into different types on the basis of the bit of operation. Based on bit of operation at a time, the following are the types of microprocessors:

• ==> 4 bit. e.g. Intel 4004

• ==> 8 bit. e.g. Intel 8085, 8088, Zilog Z80, Z180

• ==> 16 bit. e.g. Intel 8086, 80186, 80286, 80386,

• ==> 32 bit. e.g. Intel Pentium, Celeron, AMD Sempron

• ==> 64 bit. e.g. AMD Athlon, intel core i5/i7.

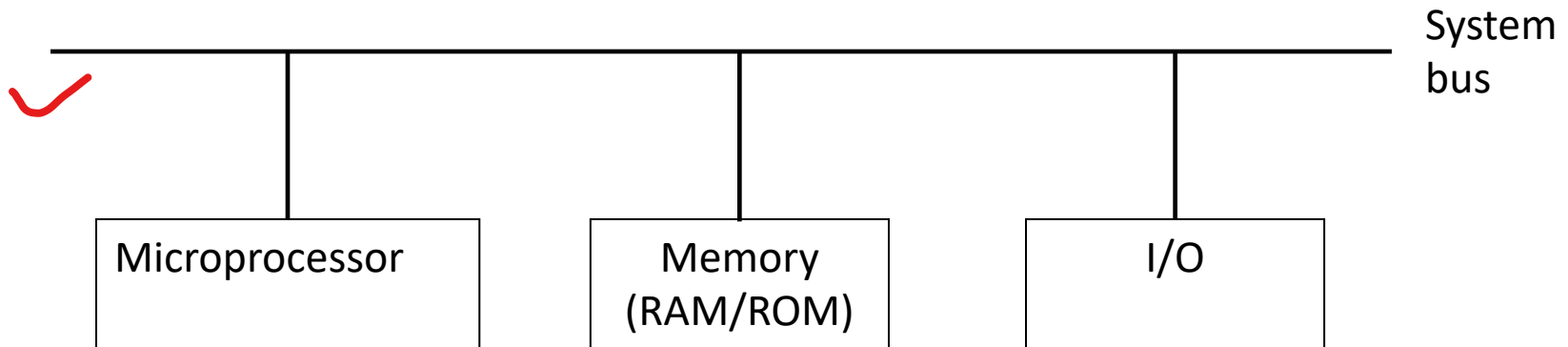
- Based on the instruction set microprocessors are classified into:
- RISC — Reduced Instruction Set Computing. These types of processors are commonly used in ovens, air conditioners, etc.
- CISC — Complex Instruction Set Computing. The types of processors are used in desktops, laptops and servers.



# Microprocessor Data Types

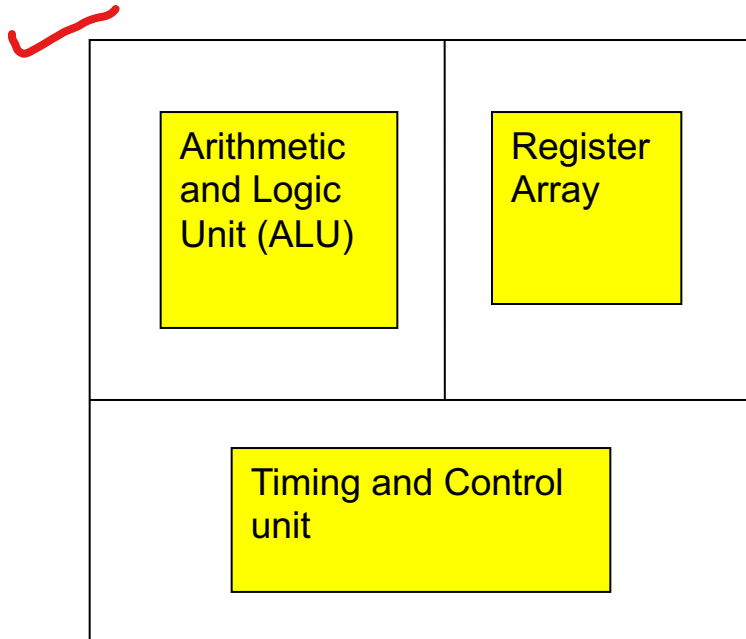
- **Unsigned(positive)** and **Signed** Binary numbers(**Both** positive and negative binary number)
- Binary Coded Decimal (**BCD**)
  - Four digits ( $0000_2 \sim 1001_2$ )
- **ASCII** (American Standard Code for Information Interchange)
  - Represents alphanumeric and symbols in  $\mu P$ 's memory
- **Floating point number**
  - Contain **three** component
    - **Sign** (Positive or negative)
    - **Exponent** (power)
    - **Mantissa**
    - $-2.5 \times 10^{-2}$

# Microprocessor Block Diagram



- The system bus contains three bus
  - Address bus
  - Data bus
  - Control bus
- The buses connect the  $\mu$ P to each memory and I/O to transfer information.
- In address bus, information transfer in one direction ( $\mu$ P  $\rightarrow$  memory and I/O)
- Data bus is a bidirectional bus
- Control bus dealing instruction both unidirectional and bidirectional

# Inside the Microprocessor



**ALU** – Performs all arithmetic and logical operations

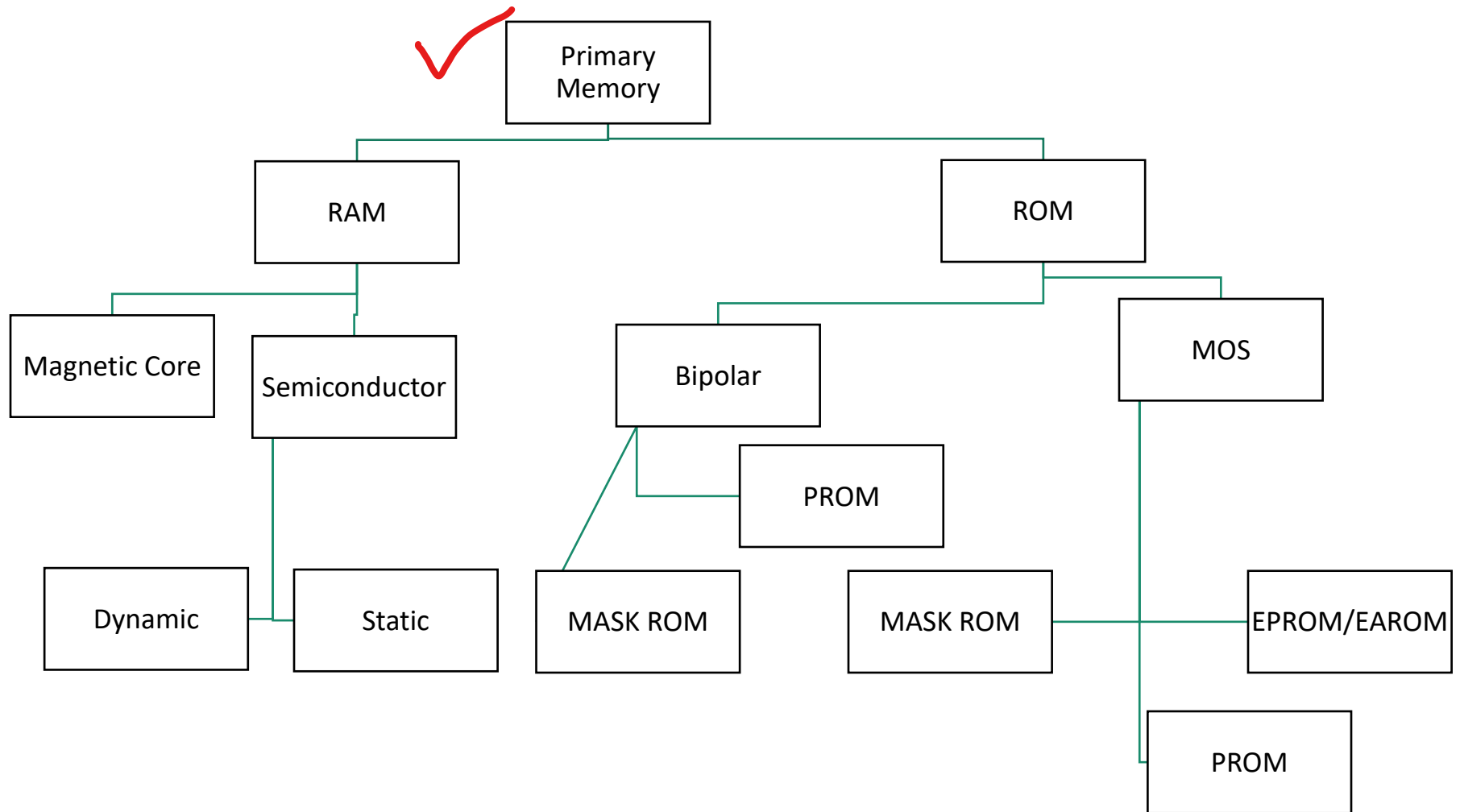
**Register array** – Holds the data temporarily for processing

**Control Unit** – It supervises/monitors all the operations carried out in the computer

# μP's Memory

- Logically divided into three groups
  - Processor Memory
    - μP's registers. It hold temporary results of an operation.
  - Primary/Main memory
    - A storage area where all programs are executed.
  - Secondary Memory
    - Storage device where data stored after the operation.

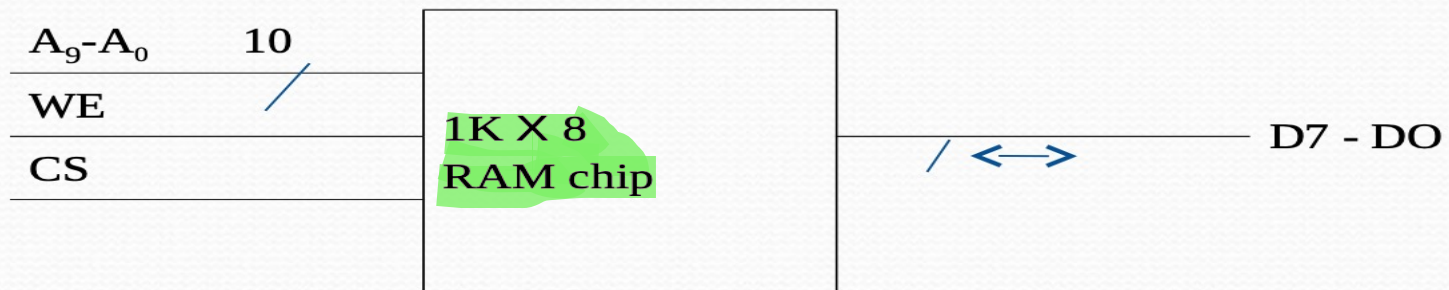
# Primary memory subcategories



# Main Memory Array Design

- In many application, a memory of large capacity is often realized by interconnecting several small-size memory blocks.
- 3 types of techniques used for designing the main memory.
  - Linear decoding
  - Full decoding /partial decoding &
  - Memory decoding using PALs.

Consider the block diagram of typical static RAM Chip as shown below. The capacity of this chip 8192 bits are organized as 1024 words with 8 bits / word. Each word has a unique address and this is specified on 10 bit address lines A9 - A0 .



**Fig: Typical Static RAM chip**

# Main Memory Array Design

- The inputs and outputs are routed through the 8 bit bidirectional data lines D7 through D0.
- The operation of this chip is governed by the two control units: WE and CS
- The truth table describes the operation of this chip.

Table: Truth table for 1K X 8 static RAM

CS	WE	MODE	Status of D7-D0	Power
L	X	Not selected	High impedance	Standby
H	L	Write	Acts as input bus	Active
H	H	Read	Acts as output bus	Active

H- High, L- Low, X- don't care

# Main Memory Array Design

## Linear Decoding

- uses the unused address lines of the  $\mu$ P as chip selects for the memory chips.
- This method is used for small systems.
- A simple way to connect an 8 bit microprocessor to a 6k RAM system using linear decoding is shown as follows.
- In this approach, the address lines A9 though A0 of the microprocessor are used as a common input to each 1K x 8 RAM chip.
- The remaining 6 high – order lines are use to select one of the 6 RAM chips.
- For Example,  
If A15 A14 A13 A12 A11 A10 = 000010  
Then chip 2(RAM 2) is selected.



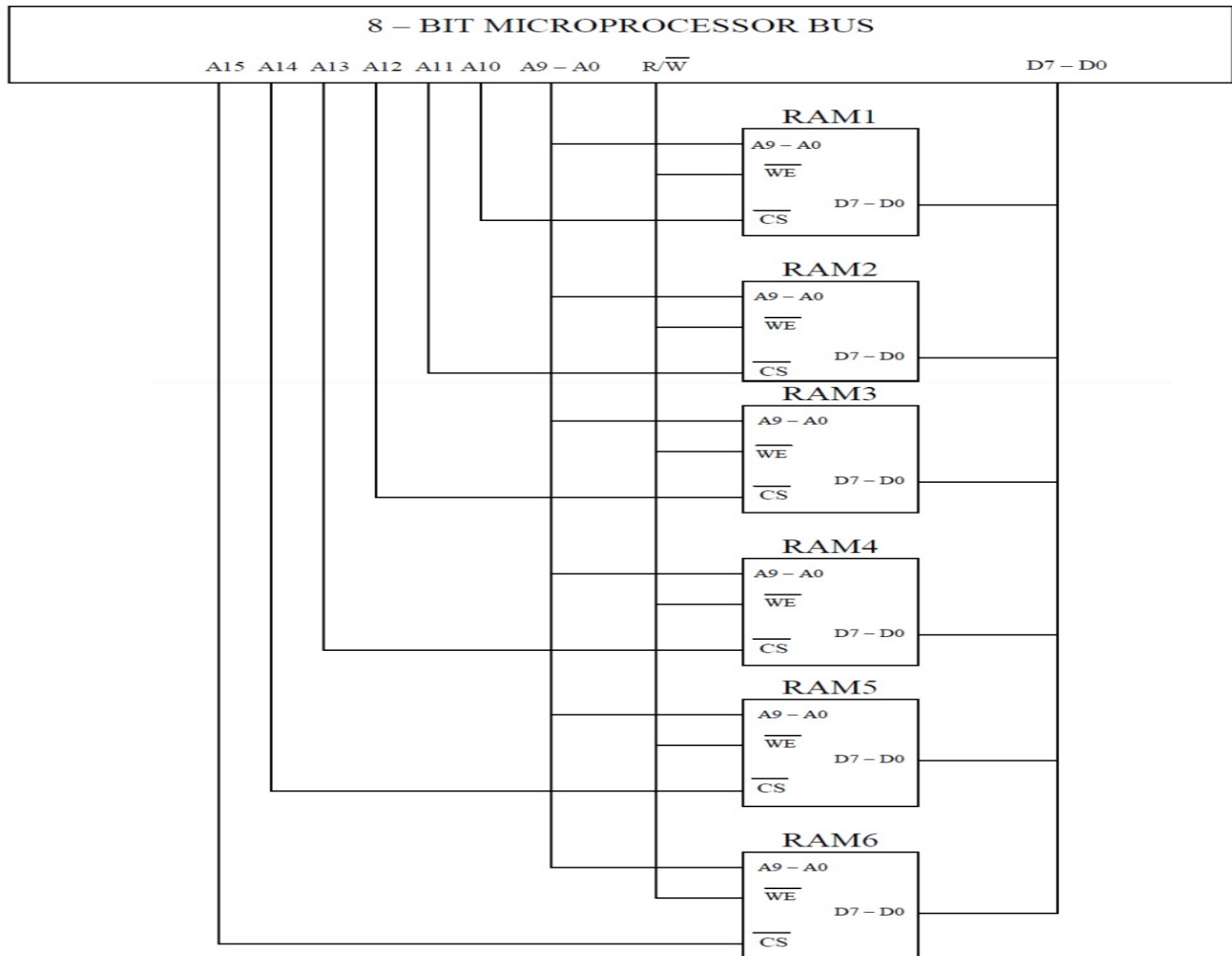


Fig. Linear Decoding

# Main Memory Array Design

## Linear Decoding

- **Advantages:** The principal advantage of this method is that it does not require any **decoding hardware**.
- **Disadvantage:**
  - 64K bytes of RAM space, interface only 6 K (Wastage address space).
  - Address map is not contiguous, it is sparsely distributed.
- If both A11 & A12 high at the same time, bus conflict occurs.
- If all unused address lines are not utilized as CS for memory, then unused pins don't care (Can be 0 or 1).

# Main Memory Array Design

## Full/partial Decoding

- Difficulties (Bus conflict & sparse address) are eliminated by the use of the full / partial decoded addressing technique.
- Consider the figure in the next slide.
- Here **2- to- 4 decoder** is used and **interface** the 8 bit microprocessor with **4K bytes of RAM**.
- In particular, the four combinations of the lines A11 & A10 select the RAM chips as follow:

A11	A10	Device Selected
0	0	RAM chip 0
0	1	RAM chip 1
1	0	RAM chip 2
1	1	RAM chip 3



# Main Memory Array Design

## Memory Decoding using PAL

- Programmable Array Logic (PAL) is similar to a ROM in concept except that it does not provide full decoding of the input lines.
- A PAL provide a partial sum of products which can be obtained via programming.
- It saves a lot of space on the board.
- PAL chip contain a fused programmable AND array and a fixed OR array.



# Main Memory Array Design

## Memory Decoding using PAL

Binary Address Pattern A15 A14 A13 A12 A11 A10 A9 A8 A7 A6 A5 A4 A3 A2 A1 A0	Device Selected	Address Assignment in Hex
0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 . . . . . 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	RAM CHIP 0	0400 to 07FF
0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 . . . . . 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	RAM CHIP 1	0800 to 0BFF
0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 . . . . . 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	RAM CHIP 2	1000 to 13FF
0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 . . . . . 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	RAM CHIP 3	2000 to 23FF
0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 . . . . . 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	RAM CHIP 4	4000 to 43FF
1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 . . . . . 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	RAM CHIP 5	8000 to 83FF

# Memory Management Concept

- Due to the massive amount of information that must be saved in most systems, the mass storage is often a disk.
- If each access to a disk (hard disk), system throughput reduce to unacceptable levels.
- Obvious solution: large and fast locally accessed semiconductor Memory but
- Unfortunately storage cost per bit is very high.
- A combination of both off board disk (secondary memory) and on board semiconductor must be designed into a system.
- This requires a mechanism to manage the two way flow of information between the primary & secondary media.

# Memory Management Concept

- This mechanism must be able to transfer blocks of data efficiently, keep track of block usage, and replace them in a non arbitrary way.
- An O/S must have resource protection from corruption or abuse by others.
- Users must be able to protect areas of code from each other, while maintaining the ability to communicate and share other areas of code.
- All these requirements indicate the need for a device, located between microprocessor and memory, to control access perform address mapping, and act as an interface between logical (program memory) and microprocessor Physical (memory) address spaces.



# Memory Management Concept

- Since this device **must manage memory use**, it is called the memory management unit (MMU).
- Typical 32-bit microprocessor (Motorola 68030 & Intel 80386) include on chip MMU.
- The MMU reduces the burden of the memory management function of the O/S.
- The basic function provided by the MMU are
  - Address translation &
  - Protection

# Memory Management Unit(MMU)

- The MMU translates these logical addresses to physical addresses provided by the memory chips.
- The MMU can perform address translation in one of two ways:
  - Using substitution technique
  - By adding an offset to each logical address to obtain the corresponding physical address.

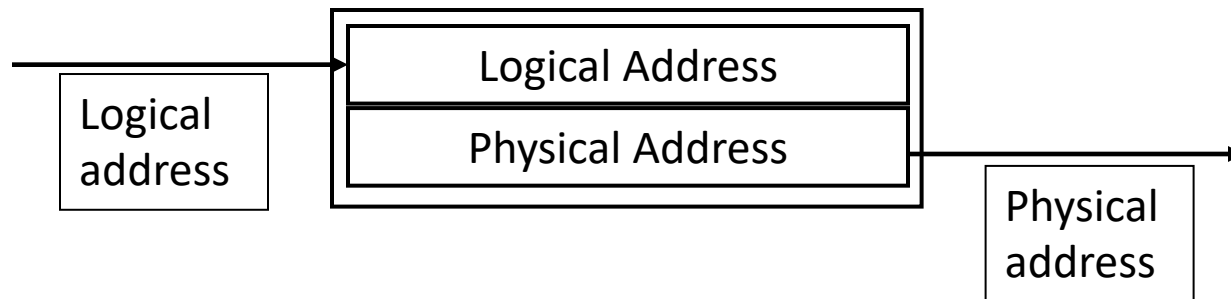


Fig: Address translation using substitution technique

# Memory Management Unit(MMU)

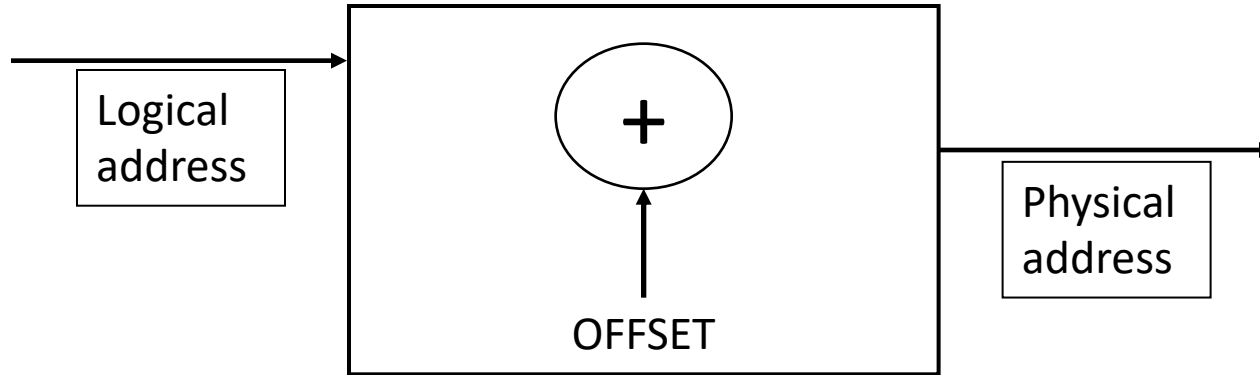
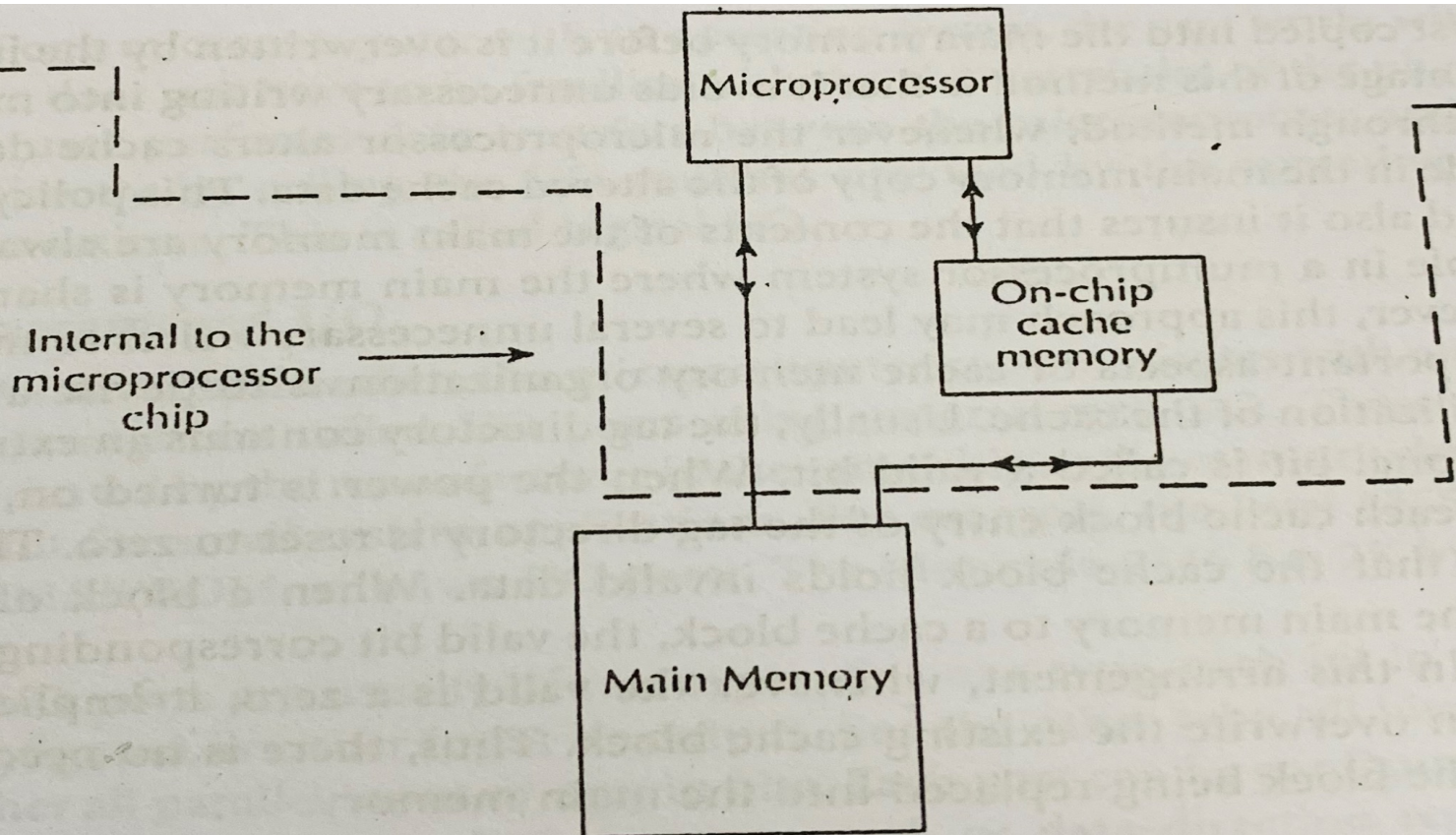


Fig: Address translation using offset technique

- Substitution → faster than offset method.
- Offset method has the advantage of mapping a logical address to physical address by the offset value.

# Cache Memory

- Computer system performance can be significantly improved by introducing a small, expensive, but fast memory between the  $\mu$ P and main memory.
- This memory is called Cache memory.



# Cache Memory

- The relationship between the cache and main memory blocks is established using mapping technique.
- There are three mapping techniques widely used.
  - Direct Mapping
  - Fully-Associative mapping
  - Set-associative mapping
- In direct mapping, the main memory address is divided into two fields
  - Index field and
  - Tag field
- The number of bits in the index field of the main memory is equal to the number of address bits required to access the cache memory.

# Cache Memory

## Direct Mapping

- Assume that the main memory address is  $M$  bits wide and the cache memory address is  $N$  bits wide.
- Then the index field requires  $N$  bits and tag field is  $(M-N)$  bits wide.
- Drawbacks of direct mapping
  - Numerous misses may occur if two or more words with addresses having the same index but different tags are accessed several times

# Cache Memory

## Fully Associative Mapping

- Fully associative mapping is the fastest cache memory mapping that utilizes an associative memory.
- Each associative memory content contains main memory address and its content(data).
- When a  $\mu P$  request a main memory address, it compared associatively with all address in the associative memory.
- If there is a match, the corresponding data word is read from associative cache memory.
- If a miss occurs, the main memory is accessed and the address and its corresponding data are written to the associative cache memory.
- If the cache is full, then certain page replacement algorithms as FIFO are used to replace the cache.

# Cache Memory

## Set-Associative Mapping

- A combination of direct and fully associative mapping.
- Each cache word stores two or more main memory words using the same index address.
- Each main memory word consists of a tag and its data word.
- An index with two or more tags and data words forms a set.
- When the  $\mu P$  make a memory request, the index of the main memory is used as the cache address.
- The tag filed of the main memory address is then compared associatively with all tags stored under the index.
- If a match occurs, the data word is read. But
- If a miss occurs, the data word along with its tag is read from main memory and also written into the cache.



# Input/ Output

- Used for interchange data and information from  $\mu P$  to other unit.
- Three ways of transferring data between  $\mu P$  and physical I/O device
  - Programmed I/O
  - Interrupt driven I/O
  - Direct Memory Access (DMA)
- The microcomputer executes a program to communicate with an external device via a register called programmed I/O.
- An external device request the  $\mu P$  to transfer data by activating a signal on the  $\mu P$  's interrupt line during interrupt I/O. The  $\mu P$  then called interrupt-service routine to carry out the function.
- Data transfer between the  $\mu P$ 's memory and an external device occurs without  $\mu P$ 's involvement is called Direct Memory Access (DMA)

*Thank You*