

CSE 331 / EEE 332 / ETE 332/EEE 453 Microprocessor and Interfacing

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1

Topics

1. Fundamentals of microprocessor and computer design, processor data path, architecture, microarchitecture, complexity, metrics, and benchmark; complexity, metrics, and benchmark, Instruction Set Architecture, introduction to CISC and RISC,
2. Assembly language programming of Arm Cortex M / RISC-V based embedded microprocessors (jump, call-return, stack, push and pop, shift, rotate, logic instructions, port operations, serial communication and interfacing), system clock, exceptions and interrupt handling.
3. Instruction-Level Parallelism, pipelining, pipelining hazards and data dependency, branch prediction, exceptions and limits, super-pipelined vs superscalar processing; Memory hierarchy and management, Direct Memory Access.
4. Introduction to embedded systems design, software concurrency and Realtime Operating Systems, Arm Cortex M / RISC-V microcontroller architecture, registers and I/O, memory map and instruction sets, endianness and image

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2

Books

1. Sarah Harris, David Harris – “Digital Design and Computer Architecture”, ARM Edition, Morgan Kaufmann (2015)
2. David A. Patterson and John L. Hennessy, “Computer Organization and Design– The Hardware / Software Interface ARM edition” Morgan Kaufmann
3. Yifeng Zhu “Embedded Systems with ARM Cortex-M Microcontrollers with Assembly Language and C”

Marks Distribution

Category	Marks	Percentage
Attendance (Class+Lab)	5+5	10%
Quiz (2 out of 3)	10 each	20%
Mid-term	20	20%
Lab	20	20%
Final	30	30%

Course Objective

Upon the completion of the course, the student should

- 1) Understand the architecture, instruction set, memory and input/output interface of a ARM Microprocessor and different principles of Embedded Systems
- 2) Construct simple microprocessor systems using state-of-the-art tools like Arm Assembly compiler and VerilogHDL understanding the limitations
- 3) Illustrate emerging technologies and trends in Microprocessor design to recognize the need to always learn the state-of-the art

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5

Instructor-in-charge

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6

Number System (Review)

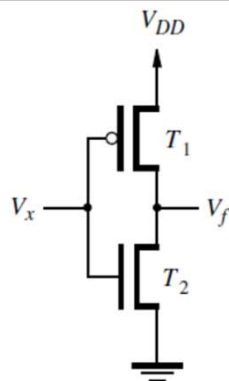
TABLE 1-4. EQUIVALENCES

Hexadecimal	Binary	Decimal
0	0000	0
1	0001	1
2	0010	2
3	0011	3
4	0100	4
5	0101	5
6	0110	6
7	0111	7
8	1000	8
9	1001	9
A	1010	10
B	1011	11
C	1100	12
D	1101	13
E	1110	14
F	1111	15

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7

CMOS Logic Gates (Not Gate)



(a) Circuit

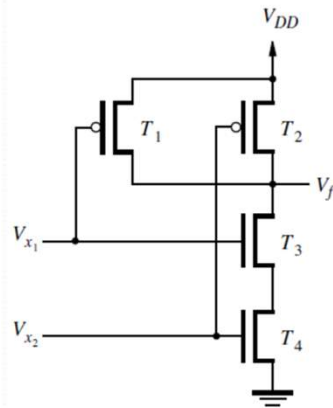
x	T_1	T_2	f
0	on	off	1
1	off	on	0

(b) Truth table and transistor states

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8

CMOS Logic Gates (Nand Gate)



(a) Circuit

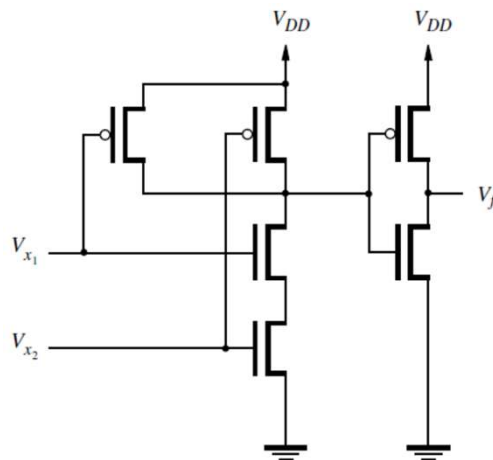
x_1	x_2	T_1	T_2	T_3	T_4	f
0	0	on	on	off	off	1
0	1	on	off	off	on	1
1	0	off	on	on	off	1
1	1	off	off	on	on	0

(b) Truth table and transistor states

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9

CMOS Logic Gates (And Gate)



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10

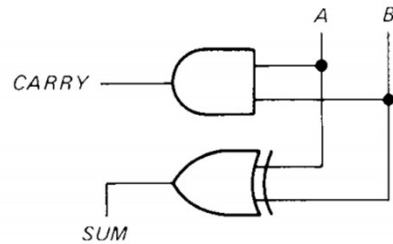
Half-Adder

TABLE 6-1. HALF-ADDER

A	B	CARRY	SUM
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0

$$SUM = A \oplus B$$

$$CARRY = AB$$



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11

Full-Adder

$$SUM = A \oplus B \oplus C \quad (6-8)$$

$$CARRY = AB + AC + BC \quad (6-9)$$

TABLE 6-2. FULL ADDER

A	B	C	CARRY	SUM
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	0	1
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	1	1

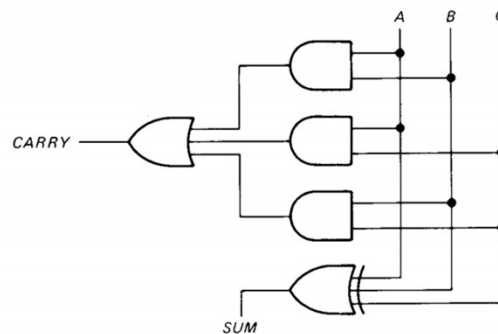


Fig. 6-2 Full adder.

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12

Binary Adder

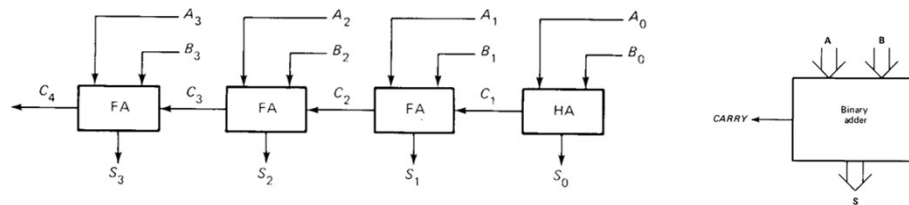


Fig. 6-5 Symbol for binary adder.

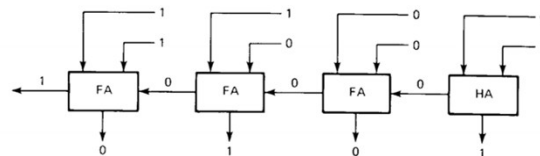


Fig. 6-4 Adding 12 and 9 to get 21.

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13

Signed Numbers

- For computers, desirable to represent everything as *bits*.
- Three types of signed binary number representations: **signed magnitude**, **1's complement**, **2's complement**.
- In each case: **left-most bit indicates sign: positive (0) or negative (1)**.

Consider **signed magnitude**:

00001100₂ = 12₁₀
 Sign bit Magnitude

10001100₂ = -12₁₀
 Sign bit Magnitude

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14

One's Complement

The one's complement of a binary number involves inverting all bits.

- 1's comp of 00110011 is 11001100
- 1's comp of 10101010 is 01010101

To find negative of 1's complement number take the 1's complement.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{00001100}_2 = 12_{10} \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ \text{Sign bit} \quad \text{Magnitude} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{11110011}_2 = -12_{10} \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ \text{Sign bit} \quad \text{Magnitude} \end{array}$$

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15

Two's Complement

The two's complement of a binary number involves inverting all bits and adding 1.

- 2's comp of 00110011 is 11001101
- 2's comp of 10101010 is 01010110

To find negative of 2's complement number take the 2's complement.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{00001100}_2 = 12_{10} \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ \text{Sign bit} \quad \text{Magnitude} \end{array}$$

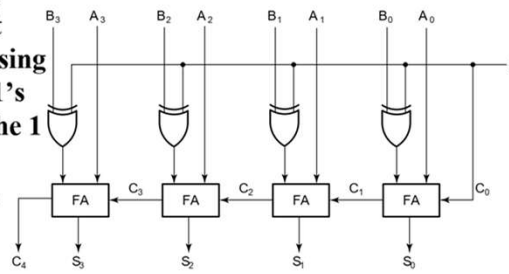
$$\begin{array}{c} \text{11110100}_2 = -12_{10} \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ \text{Sign bit} \quad \text{Magnitude} \end{array}$$

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16

2's Complement Adder/Subtractor

- Subtraction can be done by addition of the 2's Complement.
 1. Complement each bit (1's Complement.)
 2. Add 1 to the result.
- The circuit shown computes $A + B$ and $A - B$:
- For $S = 1$, subtract, the 2's complement of B is formed by using XORs to form the 1's comp and adding the 1 applied to C_0 .
- For $S = 0$, add, B is passed through unchanged



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17

Flip-Flops, Registers, and Counters

(REVIEW)

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18

Combinational vs Sequential Logic

- In **combinational circuits**, the value of each output depends solely on the current values of signals applied to the inputs.
- In **sequential circuits**, the values of the outputs depend not only on the present values of the inputs but also on the past behavior of the circuit.
- Such circuits include **storage elements** that store the values of logic signals. The contents of the storage elements are said to represent the **state** of the circuit.
- Over time, the network changes through a **sequence of states** as a result of changes in the inputs.

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19

A Memory Element

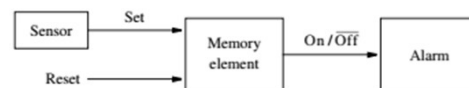


Figure 5.1 Control of an alarm system.

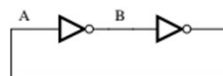


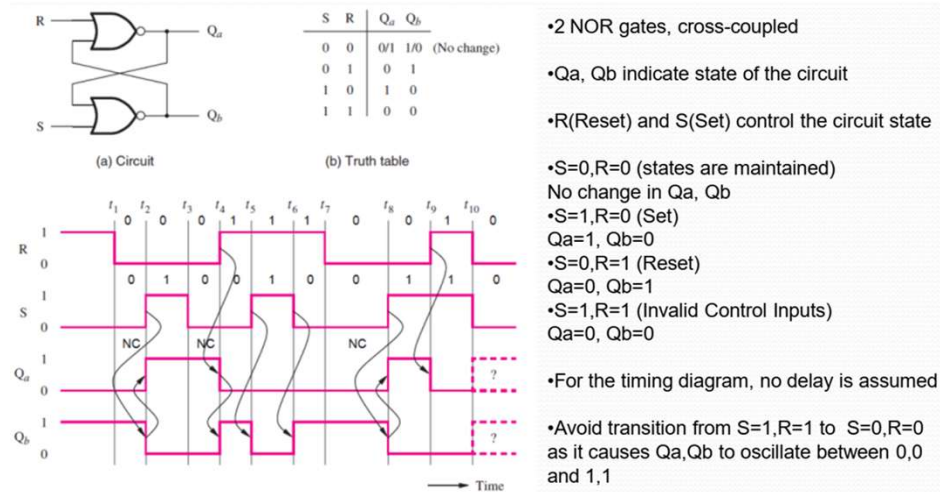
Figure 5.2 A simple memory element.

If we assume that $A = 0$, then $B = 1$. The circuit will maintain these values indefinitely because of the feedback loop.

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20

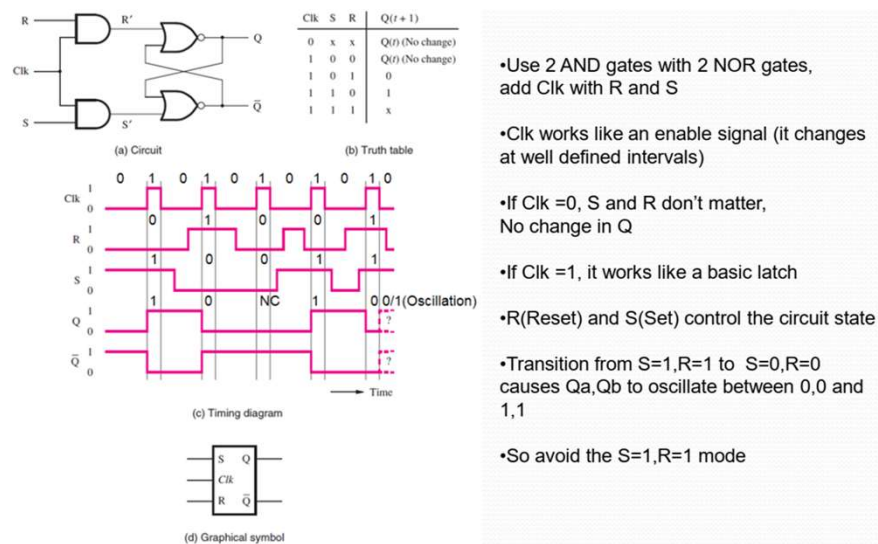
Basic Latch



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21

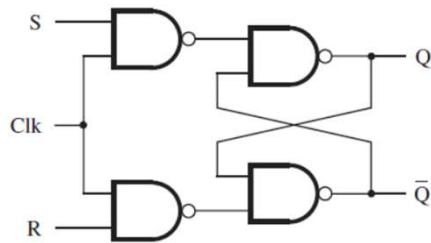
Gated SR Latch



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22

Gated SR Latch with NAND Gates



- Use 4 NAND gates instead of 2 AND and 2 NOR gates

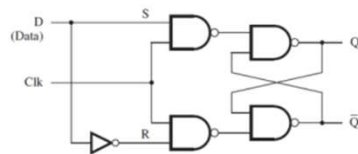
- Its truth table is similar to the previous gated SR latch

- It requires fewer transistors than the previous latch

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23

Gated D Latch

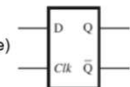


(a) Circuit

Clk	D	$Q(t+1)$
0	x	$Q(t)$
1	0	0
1	1	1

(b) Truth table

(No change)
(Reset)
(Set)



(c) Graphical symbol

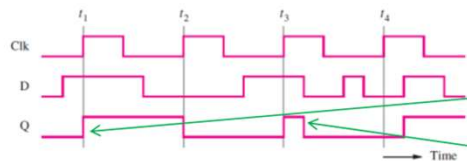
- Single data input D (S and R combined into D)

- If D =1, S=1 R=0, Set
- If D =0, S=0 R=1, Reset

- State of circuit (Q, ~Q) is changed only when Clk=1

- Impossible to have S=1 R=1 (invalid combination is not achieved)

- If Clk =1, Q follows the state of D
- If Clk =0, Q does not change its state



(d) Timing diagram

- The latch is level sensitive (as opposed to being edge-triggered)

- Q may change at edge of Clk pulse (depending on D)

- Q may change in middle of Clk pulse (depending on D)

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24

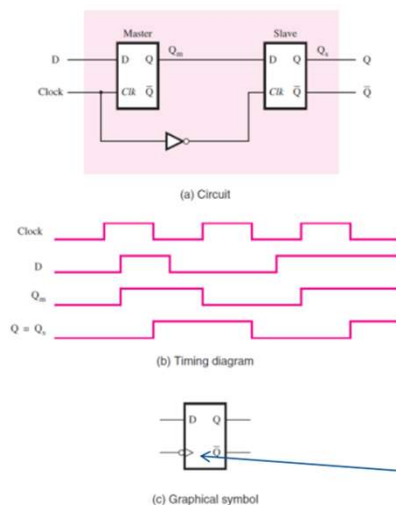
Flip-Flops (FF)

- In the **level-sensitive latches**, the state of the latch keeps changing according to the values of input signals during the period when the clock signal is active.
- So Q may change **more than once** during a Clk cycle for a latch.
- **Flip-flops** are storage elements that can change their states **no more than once** during one clock cycle.
- Type of Flip-flops:
 - **Edge-triggered flip-flop** is affected only by the input values present when the active edge of the clock occurs. It can be **positive edge-triggered** or **negative edge-triggered**.
 - **Master-slave flip-flop** is built with two gated latches (one master and one slave).

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25

Master-Slave D Flip-Flop (Negative Edge-triggered)



•Two gated D latches (One master, One Slave)

•It is typically built with 8 NAND gates (4 for each latch)

•Master changes state when Clk=1

•Slave changes state when Clk=0

•Qm follows any change in D while Clk=1

•Qm does not change while Clk=0

•Qm is output of Master and input of Slave

•So, Qs changes at most once during a clock cycle (When Clk goes from 1 to 0)

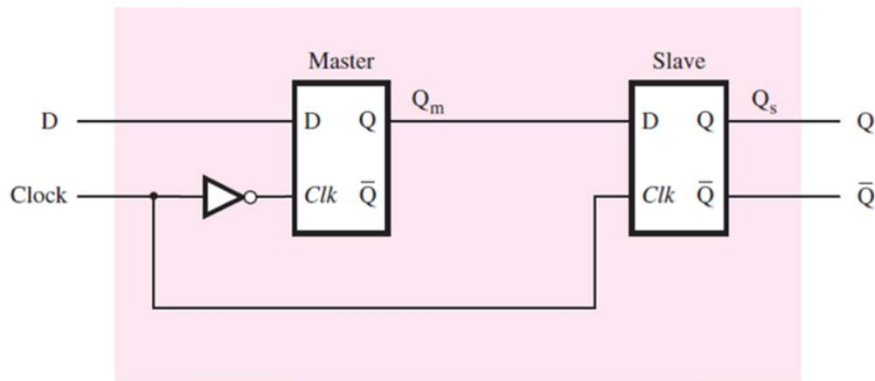
•As Q=Qs, from outside, it seems that Q follows D only at negative edge of Clk

•So this D flip-flop is **negative edge-triggered**

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26

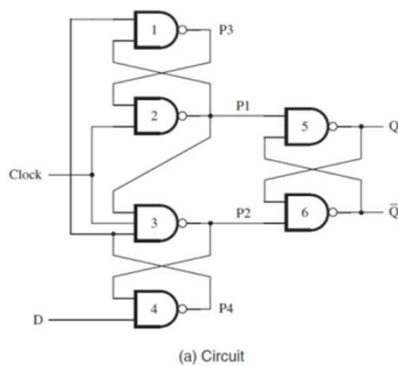
Master-Slave D Flip-Flop (Positive Edge-triggered)



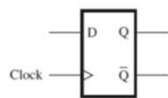
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27

Edge-Triggered Flip-Flop (Positive Edge-triggered)



(a) Circuit



(b) Graphical symbol

•It is typically built with 6 NAND gates (instead of 8)

•When Clk=0, P1=1 P2=1, Q ~Q maintained in present state

•As P2=1, P4=~D, as P1=1, P3=D
When Clk=1,
as P3=D P1=~D, as P4=~D P2=D
It sets Q=D ~Q=~D

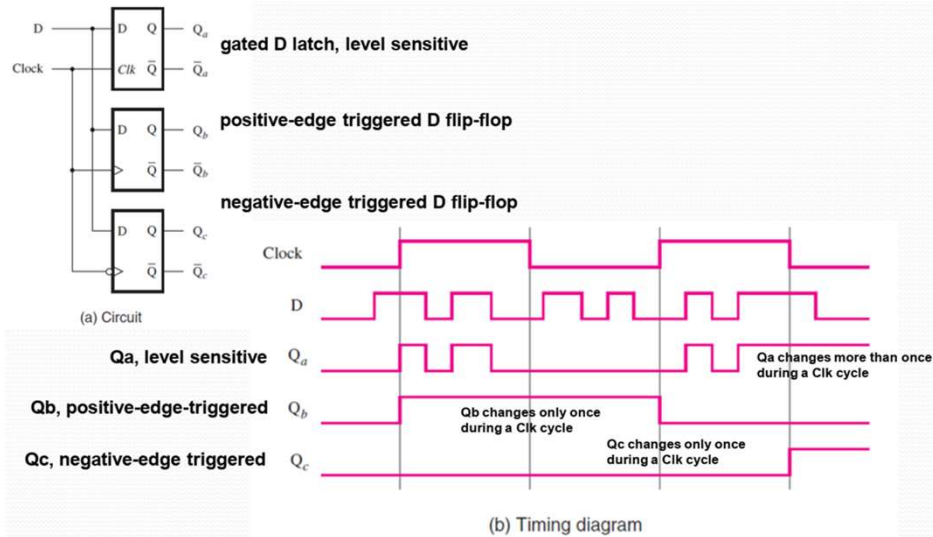
•Output changes only once at positive edge of Clk

•So this D flip-flop is **positive edge-triggered**

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28

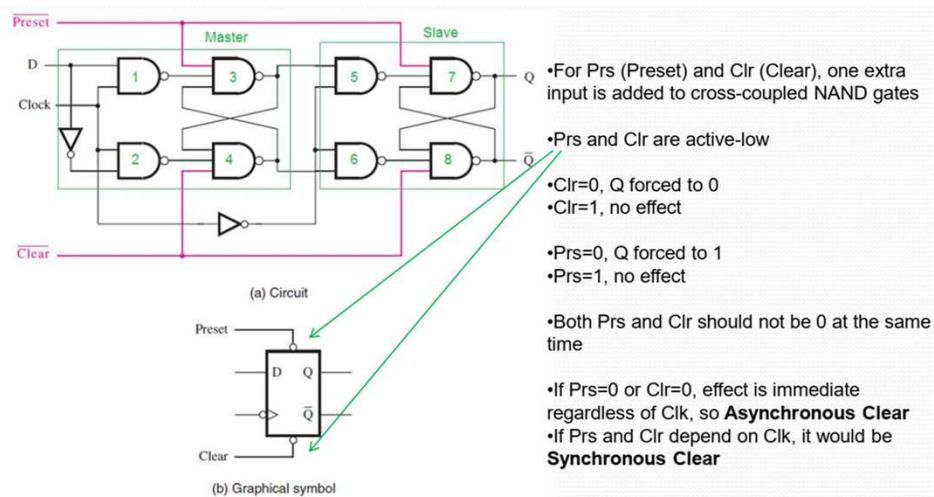
Latch vs Flip-Flop



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29

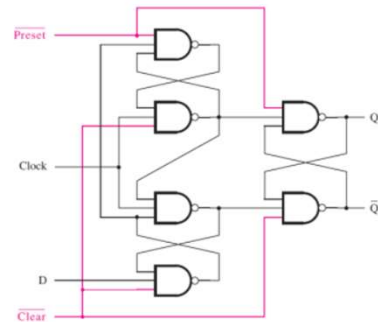
Master-slave Flip-flop with Clear and Preset



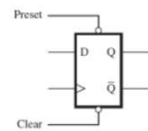
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30

Edge-triggered Flip-flop with Clear and Preset



(a) Circuit



(b) Graphical symbol

Truth Table
(Positive-edge-triggered D flip-flop)

Prs	Clr	Clk	D	Q
0	0	x	x	* (invalid condition)
0	1	x	x	1 (Set)
1	0	x	x	0 (Reset)
1	1	0	x	No Change
1	1	1	x	No Change
1	1	↓	x	No Change
1	1	↑	0	0
1	1	↑	1	1

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31

Synchronous vs Asynchronous Reset

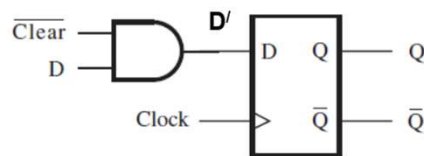


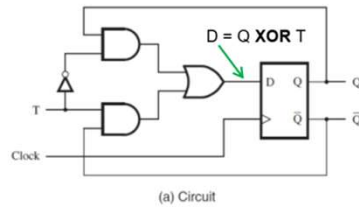
Figure 7.15 Synchronous reset for a D flip-flop.

- The previous two flip-flops used **Asynchronous Clear**
- Add an **AND** gate to combine the Clr signal with the D input to achieve **Synchronous Clear**
- If $\text{Clr}=1$, $D/=D$, usual flip-flop operation
- If $\text{Clr}=0$, $D/=0$, flip-flop output (Q) will be zero on next Clk edge
- As Clr depend on Clk, it is an example of **Synchronous Clear**

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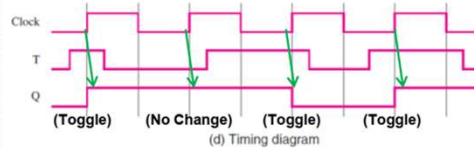
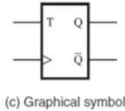
32

T Flip-Flop



T	$Q(t+1)$
0	$Q(t)$
1	$\bar{Q}(t)$

(b) Truth table



•T stands for **toggle**

•An **XOR** gate with an **extra input T** are added at the input of a D flip-flop so that
 $D = Q \text{ XOR } T$

•If $T=0$, $D=Q$, $Q(t+1)=Q(t)$, Q retains its state

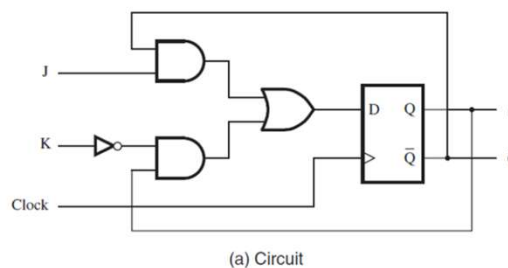
•If $T=1$, $D=\bar{Q}$, $Q(t+1)=\bar{Q}(t)$, Q toggles its state

•Useful for counters

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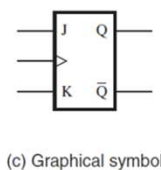
33

JK Flip-Flop



J	K	$Q(t+1)$
0	0	$Q(t)$ (No Change)
0	1	0 (Reset)
1	0	1 (Set)
1	1	$\bar{Q}(t)$ (Toggle)

(b) Truth table



•It has two inputs (J and K)

$$D = J \cdot \bar{Q} + \bar{K} \cdot Q$$

•If J and K are tied together, it works as a T flip-flop

•It combines behavior of SR flip-flop and T flip-flop

•For $JK=00, 01, 10$, it behaves like a SR flip-flop

•For $JK=11$, it behaves like a T flip-flop

Clk	J	K	Q
0	x	x	No Change
1	x	x	No Change
↓	x	x	No Change
↑	0	0	No Change
↑	0	1	0 (Reset)
↑	1	0	1 (Set)
↑	1	1	Toggle

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34

Registers

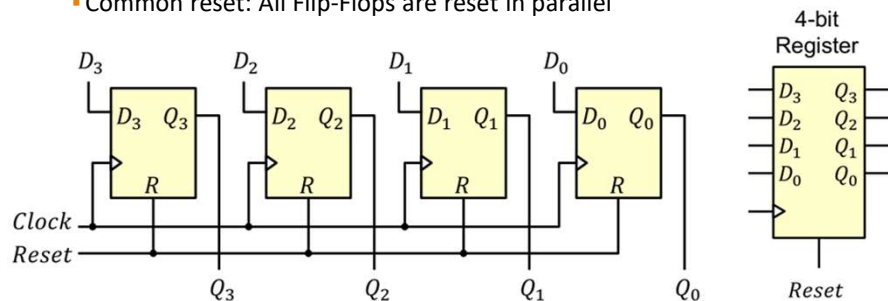
- A **flip-flop** stores one bit of information.
- When a set of n flip-flops is used to store n bits of information, such as an n -bit number, we refer to these flip-flops as a **register**.
- A **common clock** is used for each flip-flop in a register

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35

4-bit Register

- A register is a circuit capable of storing data
- An n -bit register consists of n Flip-Flops and stores n bits
- Common clock: data is loaded in parallel at the same clock edge
- Common reset: All Flip-Flops are reset in parallel



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36

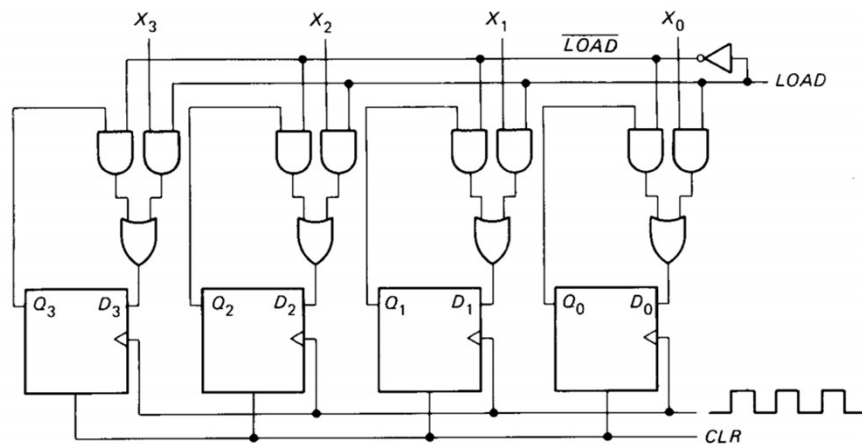
Register Load (or Enable)

- **Question:** How to control the loading of data into a register?
- **Solution:** Introduce a register Load (or Enable) signal
- If the register is enabled, load the data into the register
- Otherwise, do not change the value of the register
- **Question:** How to implement register Load?

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37

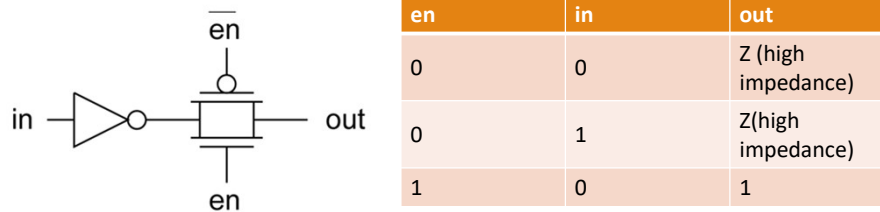
Register with Parallel Load



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38

Tri-state Output



The main application of three-state switches is to convert the two-state output of a register to a three-state output. For instance, Fig. 8-24 shows a three-state buffer register, so called because of the three-state switches on the output lines. When *ENABLE* is low, the *Y* outputs float. But when *ENABLE* is high, the *Y* outputs equal the *Q* outputs; therefore,

$$Y = Q$$

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41

Tri-state Buffer Register

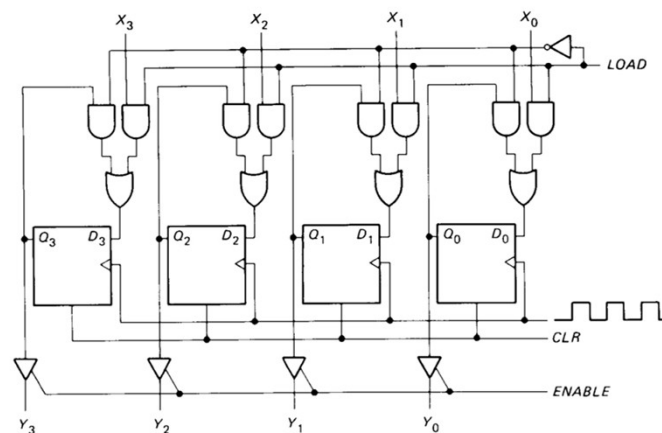


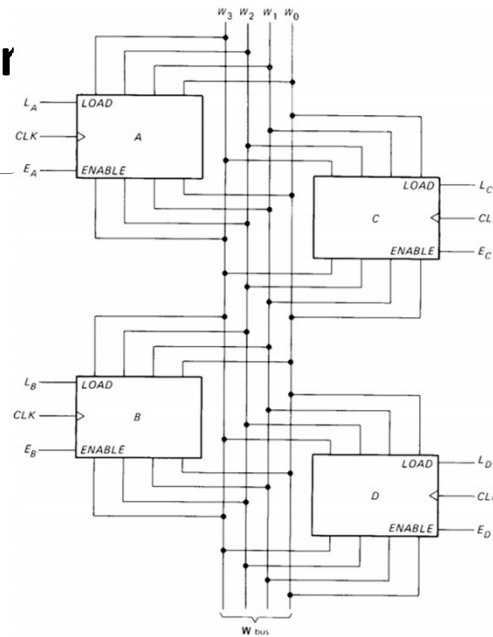
Fig. 8-24 Three-state buffer register.

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42

Bus - Organization

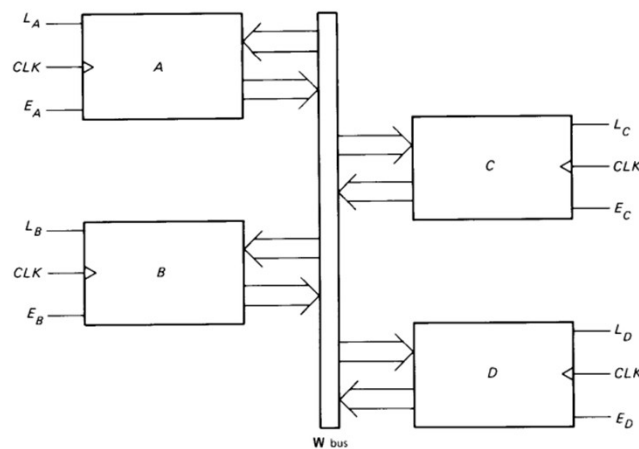
- A bus is a group of wires that transmit a binary word. In the Figure, vertical wires W_3 , W_2 , W_1 , and W_0 are a bus.
- These wires are a common transmission path between the three state registers.



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43

Simplified Drawing

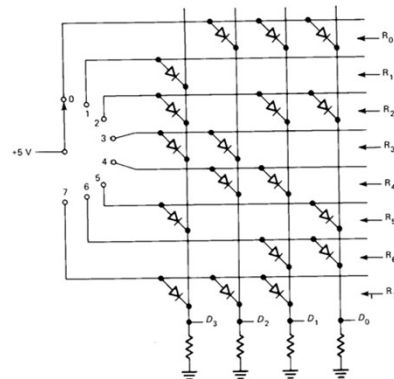


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44

Memory

- Read-only memory (ROM) is a type of non-volatile memory that permanently stores data and programs needed for a device to function.



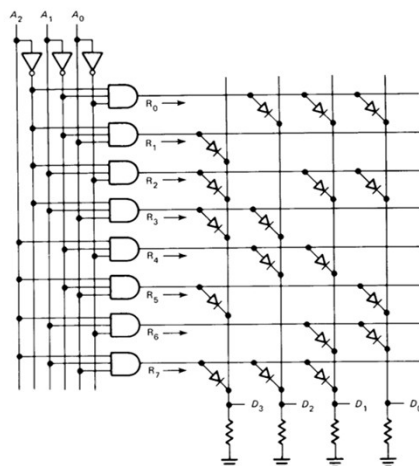
Register	Address	Word
R ₀	0	0111
R ₁	1	1000
R ₂	2	1011
R ₃	3	1100
R ₄	4	0110
R ₅	5	1001
R ₆	6	0011
R ₇	7	1110

Fig. 9-1 Simple diode ROM.

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45

ROM with On-Chip Decoding



1-of-8 decoder produces a high output to one of the registers.
For instance, if

$$\text{ADDRESS} = A_2A_1A_0 = 100$$

the 1-of-8 decoder applies a high voltage to the R₄ register, and the ROM output is

$$D = 0110$$

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46

RAM – Random Access Memory

Memory	ROM	RAM
Type	Non-volatile	Volatile
Read-write	Slow	Fast
Cost	Low	High

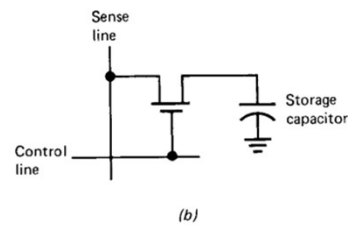
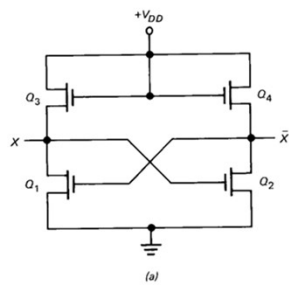


Fig. 9-4 (a) Static cell; (b) dynamic cell.

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47

Semiconductor RAMs

Semiconductor RAMs may be *static* or *dynamic*. The static RAM uses bipolar or MOS flip-flops; data is retained indefinitely as long as power is applied to the flip-flops. On the other hand, a dynamic RAM uses MOSFETs and capacitors that store data. Because the capacitor charge leaks off, the stored data must be *refreshed* (recharged) every few milliseconds. In either case, the RAMs are volatile; turn off the power and you lose the stored data.

DR. S. A. MAHMOOD

48