Practical-1

Aim :- To study Verilog HDL to understand use of Hardware Description Language.

Hardware description language (HDL) is a specialized computer language used to program electronic and digital logic circuits. The structure, operation and design of the circuits are programmable using HDL. HDL includes a textual description consisting of operators, expressions, statements, inputs and outputs. Instead of generating a computer executable file, the HDL compilers provide a gate map. The gate map obtained is then downloaded to the programming device to check the operations of the desired circuit. The language helps to describe any digital circuit in the form of structural, behavioral and gate level and it is found to be an excellent programming language for FPGAs and CPLDs.

Three common HDL are-

- Verilog
- VHDL
- System-C

The three common HDLs are Verilog, VHDL, and SystemC. Of these, SystemC is the newest. The HDLs will allow fast design and better verification. In most of the industries, Verilog and VHDL are common. Verilog, one of the main Hardware Description Language standardized as IEEE 1364 is used for designing all types of circuits. It consists of modules and the language allows Behavioral, Dataflow and Structural Description. VHDL (Very High Speed Integrated Circuit Hardware Description Language) is standardized by IEEE1164. The design is composed of entities consisting of multiple architectures. SystemC is a language that consist a set of C++classes and macros. It allows electronic system level and transaction modeling.

VERILOG

Verilog is a HARDWARE DESCRIPTION LANGUAGE (HDL). It is a language used for describing a digital system like a network switch or a microprocessor or a memory or a flip-flop. It means, by using a HDL we can describe any digital hardware at any level. Designs, which are described in HDL are independent of technology, very easy

for designing and debugging, and are normally more useful than schematics, particularly for large circuits.

Verilog supports a design at many levels of abstraction. The major three are –

- Behavioural level Modelling
- Structural level Modelling
- Gate level Modelling

A Verilog design consists of a <u>hierarchy of modules</u>. Modules encapsulate design hierarchy, and communicate with other modules through a set of declared input, output, and <u>bidirectional ports</u>. Internally, a module can contain any combination of the following: net/variable declarations (wire, reg, integer, etc.), <u>concurrent</u> and sequential <u>statement blocks</u>, and instances of other modules (sub-hierarchies). Sequential statements are placed inside a begin/end block and executed in sequential order within the block. However, the blocks themselves are executed concurrently, making Verilog a dataflow language.

Benefits of HDL

The major benefit of the language is fast design and better verification. The Top-down design and hierarchical design method allows the design time; design cost and design errors to be reduced. Another major advantage is related to complex designs, which can be managed and verified easily. HDL provides the timing information and allows the design to be described in gate level and register transfer level. Reusability of resources is one of the other advantage.

1) Behavioural level Modeling:

This level describes a system by concurrent algorithms (Behavioural). Every algorithm is sequential, which means it consists of a set of instructions that are executed one by one. Functions, tasks and blocks are the main elements. There is no regard to the structural realization of the design.

```
Ex. AND gate module andgate(a,b); input [1:0] a; output reg b; always@(a) begin case(a)
```

```
2'b11:b=1'b1;
default:b=1'b0;
endcase
end
```

2) Register–Transfer or Structural Level Modeling

Designs using the Register-Transfer Level specify the characteristics of a circuit using operations and the transfer of data between the registers. Modern definition of an RTL code is "Any code that is synthesizable is called RTL code".

```
Ex. AND gate

module and structurel(a,b,c);
input a;
input b;
output c;

and gate a1(a,b,c);
end module
```

3) Gate Level Modelling

Within the logical level, the characteristics of a system are described by logical links and their timing properties. All signals are discrete signals. They can only have definite logical values ('0', '1', 'X', 'Z'). The usable operations are predefined logic primitives (basic gates). Gate level modelling may not be a right idea for logic design. Gate level code is generated using tools like synthesis tools and his netlist is used for gate level simulation and for backend.

```
Ex. AND gate module andgate(a,b,y); input a,b; output y; assign y=(a&b); endmodule
```

Practical-2

Aim :- Write the working of 8085 simulator and study basic architecture of 8085 along with 8085 instruction set.

8085 is pronounced as "eighty-eighty-five" microprocessor. It is an 8-bit microprocessor designed by Intel in 1977 using NMOS technology.

It has the following configuration –

- 8-bit data bus
- 16-bit address bus, which can address upto 64KB
- A 16-bit program counter
- A 16-bit stack pointer
- Six 8-bit registers arranged in pairs: BC, DE, HL
- Requires +5V supply to operate at 3.2 MHZ single phase clock It is used in washing machines, microwave ovens, mobile phones, etc.

8085 Microprocessor – Functional Units:

8085 consists of the following functional units –

1) Accumulator

It is an 8-bit register used to perform arithmetic, logical, I/O & LOAD/STORE operations. It is connected to internal data bus & ALU.

2) Arithmetic and logic unit

As the name suggests, it performs arithmetic and logical operations like Addition, Subtraction, AND, OR, etc. on 8-bit data.

3) General purpose register

There are 6 general purpose registers in 8085 processor, i.e. B, C, D, E, H & L. Each register can hold 8-bit data.

4) Program counter

It is a 16-bit register used to store the memory address location of the next instruction to be executed. Microprocessor increments the program whenever an instruction is being executed, so that the program counter points to the memory address of the next instruction that is going to be executed.

5) Stack pointer

It is also a 16-bit register works like stack, which is always incremented/decremented by 2 during push & pop operations.

6) Temporary register

It is an 8-bit register, which holds the temporary data of arithmetic and logical operations.

7) Flag register

It is an 8-bit register having five 1-bit flip-flops, which holds either 0 or 1 depending upon the result stored in the accumulator.

8) Instruction register and decoder

It is an 8-bit register. When an instruction is fetched from memory then it is stored in the Instruction register. Instruction decoder decodes the information present in the Instruction register.

9) Timing and control unit

It provides timing and control signal to the microprocessor to perform operations. the timing and control signals, which control external and internal circuits.

10) Interrupt control

As the name suggests it controls the interrupts during a process. When a microprocessor is executing a main program and whenever an interrupt occurs, the microprocessor shifts the control from the main program to process the incoming request. After the request is completed, the control goes back to the main program.

11) Serial Input/output control

It controls the serial data communication by using these two instructions: SID (Serial input data) and SOD (Serial output data).

12) Address buffer and address-data buffer

The content stored in the stack pointer and program counter is loaded into the address buffer and address-data buffer to communicate with the CPU. The memory and I/O chips are connected to these buses; the CPU can exchange the desired data with the memory and I/O chips.

13) Address bus and data bus

Data bus carries the data to be stored. It is bidirectional, whereas address bus carries the location to where it should be stored and it is unidirectional. It is used to transfer the data & Address I/O devices.

8085 Architecture:

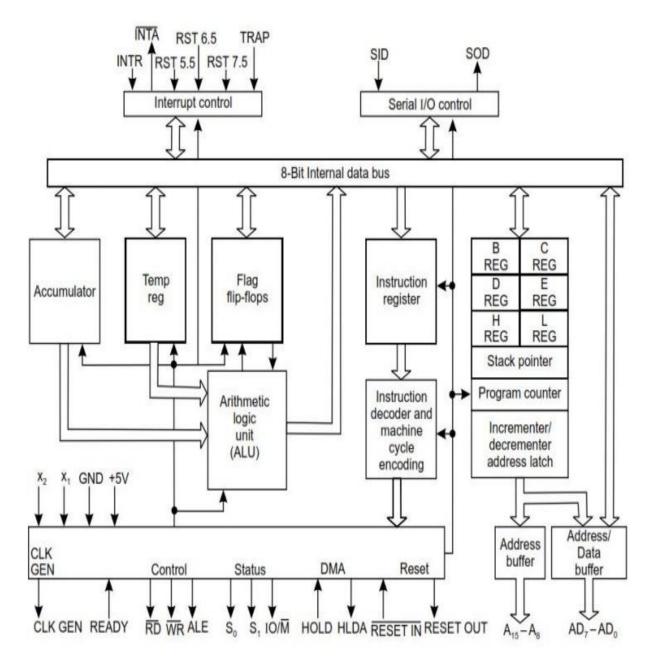
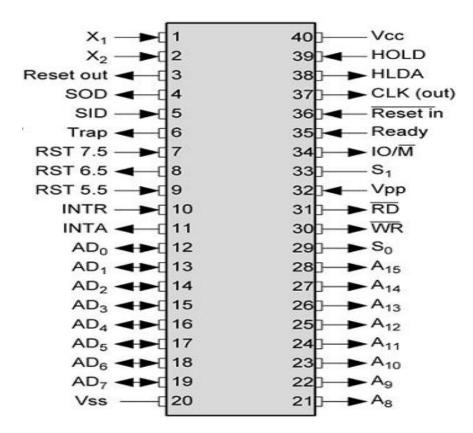


Fig 1.1 Hardware Architecture of 8085

8085 Pin Diagram:



The pins of a 8085 microprocessor can be classified into seven groups –

1) Address bus

A15-A8, it carries the most significant 8-bits of memory/IO address.

2) Data bus

AD7-AD0, it carries the least significant 8-bit address and data bus.

3) Control and status signals

These signals are used to identify the nature of operation. There are 3 control signal and 3 status signals.

Three control signals are RD, WR & ALE.

- RD This signal indicates that the selected IO or memory device is to be read and is ready for accepting data available on the data bus.
- WR This signal indicates that the data on the data bus is to be written into a selected memory or IO location.
- ALE It is a positive going pulse generated when a new operation is started by the microprocessor. When the pulse goes high, it indicates address. When the pulse goes down it indicates data.

Three status signals are IO/M, S0 & S1.

- IO/M This signal is used to differentiate between IO and Memory operations, i.e. when it is high indicates IO operation and when it is low then it indicates memory operation.
- S1 & S0 These signals are used to identify the type of current operation.

4) Power supply

There are 2 power supply signals – VCC & VSS. VCC indicates +5v power supply and VSS indicates ground signal.

5) Clock signals

There are 3 clock signals, i.e. X1, X2, CLK OUT.

- X1, X2 A crystal (RC, LC N/W) is connected at these two pins and is used to set frequency of the internal clock generator. This frequency is internally divided by 2.
- CLK OUT This signal is used as the system clock for devices connected with the microprocessor.

6) Interrupts & externally initiated signals

Interrupts are the signals generated by external devices to request the microprocessor to perform a task. There are 5 interrupt signals, i.e. TRAP, RST 7.5, RST 6.5, RST 5.5, and INTR. We will discuss interrupts in detail in interrupts section.

- INTA It is an interrupt acknowledgment signal.
- RESET IN This signal is used to reset the microprocessor by setting the program counter to zero.
- RESET OUT This signal is used to reset all the connected devices when the microprocessor is reset.
- READY This signal indicates that the device is ready to send or receive data. If READY is low, then the CPU has to wait for READY to go high.
- HOLD This signal indicates that another master is requesting the use of the address and data buses.
- HLDA (HOLD Acknowledge) It indicates that the CPU has received the HOLD request and it
 will relinquish the bus in the next clock cycle. HLDA is set to low after the HOLD signal is
 removed.

7) Serial I/O signals

There are 2 serial signals, i.e. SID and SOD and these signals are used for serial communication.

- SOD (Serial output data line) The output SOD is set/reset as specified by the SIM instruction.
- SID (Serial input data line) The data on this line is loaded into accumulator whenever a RIM instruction is executed.

8085 INSTRUCTIONS SET:

1) Logical Instructions:

OPCODE	OPERAND	DESTINATION	EXAMPLE
ANA	R	A = A AND R	ANA B
ANA	М	A = A AND Mc	ANA 2050
ANI	8-bit data	A = A AND 8-bit data	ANI 50
ORA	R	A = A OR R	ORA B
ORA	М	A = A OR Mc	ORA 2050
ORI	8-bit data	A = A OR 8-bit data	ORI 50
XRA	R	A = A XOR R	XRA B
XRA	М	A = A XOR Mc	XRA 2050
XRI	8-bit data	A = A XOR 8-bit data	XRI 50
CMA	none	A = 1's compliment of A	CMA
CMP	R	Compares R with A and triggers the flag register	CMP B
CMP	М	Compares Mc with A and triggers the flag register	CMP 2050
CPI	8-bit data	Compares 8-bit data with A and triggers the flag register	CPI 50
RRC	none	Rotate accumulator right without carry	RRC
RLC	none	Rotate accumulator left without carry	RLC
RAR	none	Rotate accumulator right with carry	RAR
RAL	none	Rotate accumulator left with carry	RAR
CMC	none	Compliments the carry flag	CMC
STC	none	Sets the carry flag	STC

2) **Branching Instructions:**

OPCODE	OPERAND	EXPLANATION	EXAMPLE
JC	address	Jumps to the address if carry flag is 1	JC 2050
JNC	address	Jumps to the address if carry flag is 0	JNC 2050
JZ	address	Jumps to the address if zero flag is 1	JZ 2050
JNZ	address	Jumps to the address if zero flag is 0	JNZ 2050
JPE	address	Jumps to the address if parity flag is 1	JPE 2050
JPO	address	Jumps to the address if parity flag is 0	JPO 2050
JM	address	Jumps to the address if sign flag is 1	JM 2050
JP	address	Jumps to the address if sign flag 0	JP 2050
CC	address	Call if carry flag is 1	CC 2050
CNC	address	Call if carry flag is 0	CNC 2050
CZ	address	Calls if zero flag is 1	CZ 2050
CNZ	address	Calls if zero flag is 0	CNZ 2050
CPE	address	Calls if parity flag is 1	CPE 2050
CPO	address	Calls if parity flag is 0	CPO 2050
CM	address	Calls if sign flag is 1	CM 2050
CP	address	Calls if sign flag is 0	CP 2050
RC	none	Return from the subroutine if carry flag is 1	RC
RNC	none	Return from the subroutine if carry flag is 0	RNC
RZ	none	Return from the subroutine if zero flag is 1	RZ
RNZ	none	Return from the subroutine if zero flag is 0	RNZ
RPE	none	Return from the subroutine if parity flag is 1	RPE
RPO	none	Return from the subroutine if parity flag is 0	RPO
RM	none	Returns from the subroutine if sign flag is 1	RM
RP	none	Returns from the subroutine if sign flag is 0	RP

3) <u>Arithmetic Instructions:</u>

OPCODE	OPERAND	EXPLANATION	EXAMPLE
ADD	R	A = A + R	ADD B
ADD	М	A = A + Mc	ADD 2050
ADI	8-bit data	A = A + 8-bit data	ADD 50
ADC	R	A = A + R + prev. carry	ADC B
ADC	М	A = A + Mc + prev. carry	ADC 2050
ACI	8-bit data	A = A + 8-bit data + prev. carry	ACI 50
SUB	R	A = A - R	SUB B
SUB	М	A = A - Mc	SUB 2050
SUI	8-bit data	A = A - 8-bit data	SUI 50
SBB	R	A = A - R - prev. carry	SBB B
SBB	М	A = A - Mc -prev. carry	SBB 2050
SBI	8-bit data	A = A - 8-bit data - prev. carry	SBI 50
INR	R	R = R + 1	INR B
INR	М	M = Mc + 1	INR 2050
INX	r.p.	r.p. = r.p. + 1	INX H
DCR	R	R = R - 1	DCR B
DCR	М	M = Mc - 1	DCR 2050
DCX	r.p.	r.p. = r.p 1	DCX H
DAD	r.p.	HL = HL + r.p.	DAD H

4) <u>Data Transfer Instructions</u>:

OPCODE	OPERAND	EXPLANATION	EXAMPLE
MOV	Rd, Rs	Rd = Rs	MOV A, B
MOV	Rd, M	Rd = Mc	MOV A, 2050
MOV	M, Rs	M = Rs	MOV 2050, A
MVI	Rd, 8-bit data	Rd = 8-bit data	MVI A, 50
MVI	M, 8-bit data	M = 8-bit data	MVI 2050, 50
LDA	16-bit address	A = contents at address	LDA 2050
STA	16-bit address	contents at address = A	STA 2050
LHLD	16-bit address	directly loads at H & L registers	LHLD 2050
SHLD	16-bit address	directly stores from H & L registers	SHLD 2050
LXI	r.p., 16-bit data	loads the specified register pair with data	LXI H, 3050
LDAX	r.p.	indirectly loads at the accumulator A	LDAX H
STAX	16-bit address	indirectly stores from the accumulator A	STAX 2050
XCHG	none	exchanges H with D, and L with E	XCHG
PUSH	r.p.	pushes r.p. to the stack	PUSH H

LDA	16-bit address	A = contents at address	LDA 2050
STA	16-bit address	contents at address = A	STA 2050
LHLD	16-bit address	directly loads at H & L registers	LHLD 2050
SHLD	16-bit address	directly stores from H & L registers	SHLD 2050
LXI	r.p., 16-bit data	loads the specified register pair with data	LXI H, 3050
LDAX	r.p.	indirectly loads at the accumulator A	LDAX H
STAX	16-bit address	indirectly stores from the accumulator A	STAX 2050
XCHG	none	exchanges H with D, and L with E	XCHG
PUSH	r.p.	pushes r.p. to the stack	PUSH H
POP	r.p.	pops the stack to r.p.	POP H
IN	8-bit port address	inputs contents of the specified port to A	IN 15
OUT	8-bit port address	outputs contents of A to the specified port	OUT 15

5) <u>Control Instructions</u>:

Opcode	Operand	Meaning	Explanation
NOP	None	No operation	No operation is performed, i.e., the instruction is fetched and decoded.
HLT	None	Halt and enter wait state	The CPU finishes executing the current instruction and stops further execution. An interrupt or reset is necessary to exit from the halt state.
DI	None	Disable interrupts	The interrupt enable flip-flop is reset and all the interrupts are disabled except TRAP.
EI	None	Enable interrupts	The interrupt enable flip-flop is set and all the interrupts are enabled.
RIM	None	Read interrupt mask	This instruction is used to read the status of interrupts 7.5, 6.5, 5.5 and read serial data input bit.
SIM	None	Set interrupt mask	This instruction is used to implement the interrupts 7.5, 6.5, 5.5, and serial data output.

PRACTICAL 3

Aim: Write an assembly language code in 8085 simulator to implement arithmetic, logical and shift instructions.

1) ARITHMETIC INSTRUCTION:

LXIH, C050

MOV A, M

INX H

ADD M

STA C052

INX H

ACI 10

STA C053

INX H

ADI 10

STA C054

DAD H

INX H

SUI 33

STA C055

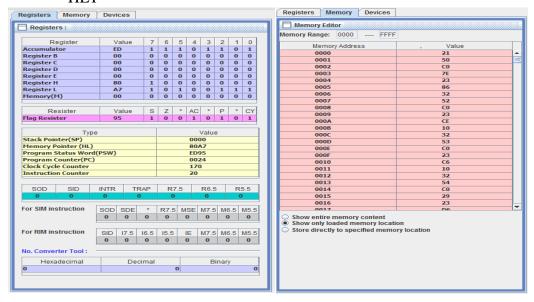
INR A

STA C056

DCR A

STA C057

HLT



2) LOGICAL INSTRUCTION:

LXI H, C050

MOV A, M

CMA // COMPLEMENT ACC

STA C051

CMC// COMPLEMENT CARRY

STA C052

STC // SET CARRY TO 1

STA C053

ANI 86 // LOGICAL AND WITH ACC

STA C054

ORI 08 // LOGICAL OR WITH ACC

STA C055

XRI 10 // LOGICAL XOR WITH ACC

STA C056

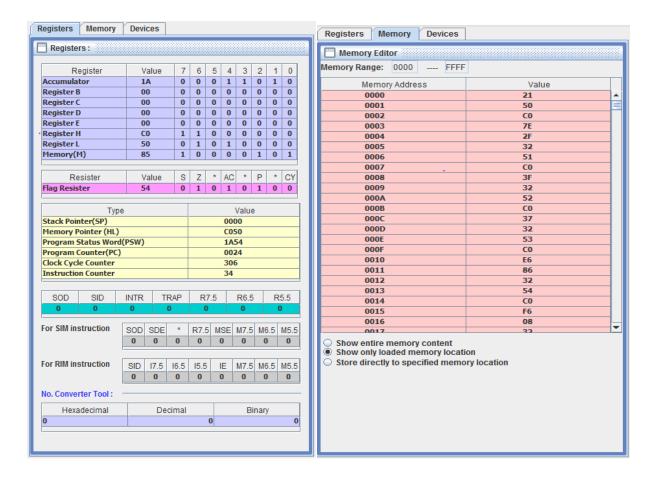
CPI 1A // COMPARE ACC WITH 7AH

STA C057

HLT

ORG C050

DB 85H



3)SHIFT INSTRUCTIONS:

LXI H,C050

MOV A,M

RLC // LEFT ROTATE ACC

STA C051

RAL // LEFT ROTATE ACC WITH CARRY

STA C052

RRC // RIGHT ROTATE ACC

STA C053

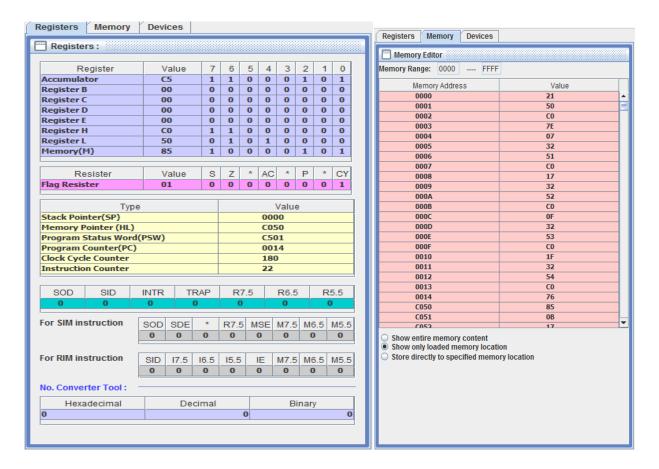
RAR // RIGHT ROTATE ACC WITH CARRY

STA C054

HLT

ORG C050

DB 85H



Practical-4

Aim :- Write an Assembly language code in 8085 simulator to find the Factorial of a number.

LXI H,C050 MOV B,M MVI D,01H

FACT: CALL MULTIPLY

DCR B JNZ FACT INX H MOV M,D HLT

MULTIPLY: MOV E,B

MVI A,00H

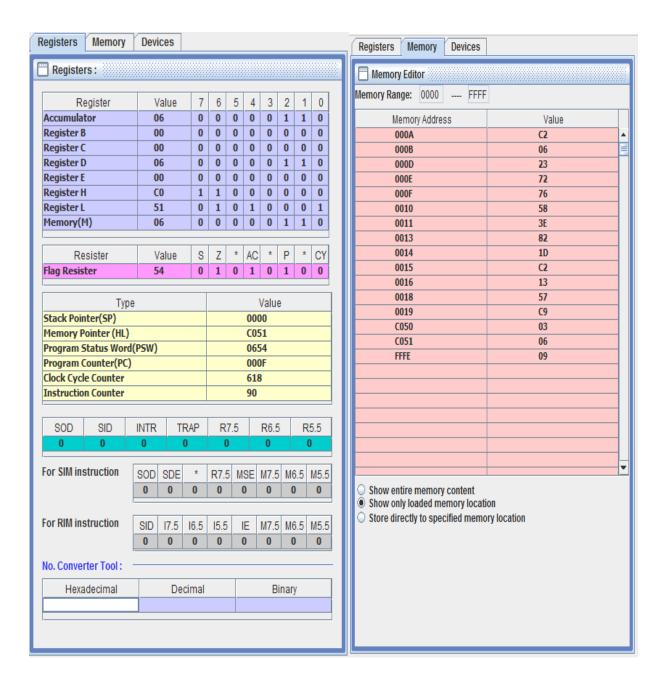
MULTIPLYLOOP: ADD D

DCR E

JNZ MULTIPLYLOOP

MOV D,A RET

ORG C050 # DB 03H



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Practical-5

Aim: Write an assembly language code to arrange an array of data in ascending order and find the largest number in an array.

```
STEP 1: Storing Data into Memory
```

```
MVI A,54

MVI B,10

MVI C,20

MVI D,30

STA 8000 // 54 @ 8000

INR A

ADD B

STA 8001 // 65 @ 8001

ADD C

STA 8002 // 85 @ 8002

SUB D

STA 8003 // 55 @ 8003
```

STEP-2: Arranging an array of data in ascending order and finding the largest number in an array

```
MVI B,03 // B=03
START: LXI H,8000 //H=80, L=00
MVI C,03 // C=03
```

CMP M // A-M

BACK: MOV A,M // Move data (located at memory address that HL refers) to Accumulator).

```
JC SKIP // if carry is generated, jump to SKIP
JZ SKIP // if z=0, jump to SKIP
MOV D,M
MOV M,A
DCX H
MOV M,D
```

INX H SKIP: DCR C

JNZ BACK // if z!=0, jump to BACK

DCR B

INX H

JNZ START // if z!=0 jump to START

JZ MAX // if z=0 jump to MAX

MAX: MVI C,03 // C=03

LXI H,8000 // H=80,L=00 MOV A,M

AGAIN: INX H

CMP M //A-M

JNC GO // if carry is not generated, jump to GO

MOV A,M

GO: DCR C

JNZ AGAIN

STA 8050 // Store Result at 8050 memory address from Accumulator

HLT //Terminate task

Before Arranging an array:

8000	54
8001	65
8002	85
8003	55

After Arranging an array:

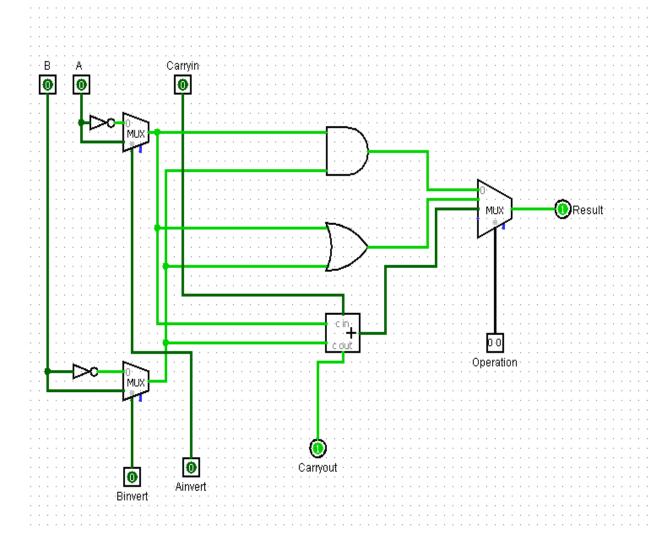
54
55
65
85

Max Number:

		_
8050	85	

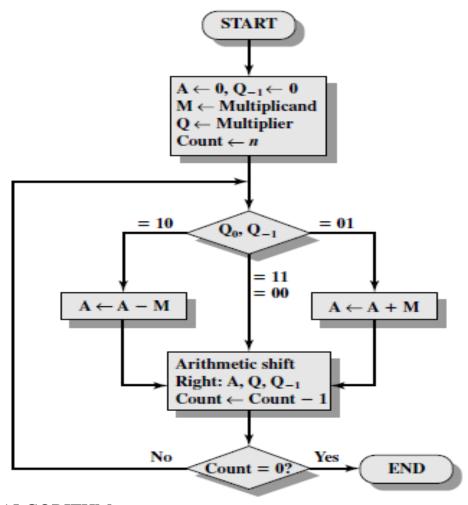
Practical-6

Aim: Design ALU using LOGISIM



Practical-7

Aim: Implement Booth's Algorithm FLOWCHART



ALGORITHM

STEP 1: Load A=0,Q₋₁=0

M=Multiplicand

Q=Multiplier

Count=n

STEP 2: Check the status of Q_0Q_{-1}

if $Q_0Q_{-1}=10$ perform A \leftarrow A-M

if Q_0Q_{-1} =01 perform A \leftarrow A+M

STEP 3: Arithmetic shift right: A, Q, Q-1

```
STEP 4: Decrement count if not zero, repeat step 2 through 4 STEP 5: Stop
```

C PROGRAM OF BOOTH'S MULTIPLICATION

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <conio.h>
#include <math.h>
int a=0,b=0,c=0,a1=0,b1=0,com[5]=\{1,0,0,0,0,0\};
int anum[5]=\{0\},anumcp[5]=\{0\},bnum[5]=\{0\};
int acomp[5]=\{0\},bcomp[5]=\{0\},pro[5]=\{0\},res[5]=\{0\};
void binary(){
   a1 = fabs(a);
   b1 = fabs(b);
   int r, r2, i, temp;
   for(i = 0; i < 5; i++){
      r = a1 \% 2;
      a1 = a1 / 2;
      r2 = b1 \% 2;
      b1 = b1 / 2;
       anum[i] = r;
       anumcp[i] = r;
      bnum[i] = r2;
      if(r2 == 0){
          bcomp[i] = 1;
      if(r == 0){
          acomp[i] = 1;
       }
 //part for two's complementing
 c = 0;
 for(i = 0; i < 5; i++){
      res[i] = com[i] + bcomp[i] + c;
       if(res[i]>=2)
          c = 1;
```

```
else
          c = 0;
       res[i] = res[i]\%2;
  for(i = 4; i >= 0; i --){
   bcomp[i] = res[i];
  //in case of negative inputs
  if(a < 0){
   c = 0;
   for(i = 4; i >= 0; i --){
       res[i] = 0;
   for(i = 0; i < 5; i++){
       res[i] = com[i] + acomp[i] + c;
       if(res[i]>=2){
          c = 1;
       }
       else
          c = 0;
       res[i] = res[i]\%2;
   for(i = 4; i >= 0; i --){
       anum[i] = res[i];
       anumcp[i] = res[i];
   }
  if(b<0){
   for(i=0;i<5;i++){
       temp = bnum[i];
       bnum[i] = bcomp[i];
       bcomp[i] = temp;
   }
void add(int num[]){
   int i;
  c = 0;
```

```
for(i = 0; i < 5; i++){
       res[i] = pro[i] + num[i] + c;
       if(res[i]>=2){
          c = 1;
       else
          c = 0;
       res[i] = res[i]\%2;
   for(i = 4; i >= 0; i --){
   pro[i] = res[i];
       printf("%d",pro[i]);
 printf(":");
 for(i = 4; i >= 0; i --)
       printf("%d",anumcp[i]);
   }
void arshift(){//for arithmetic shift right
   int temp = pro[4], temp2 = pro[0],i;
   for(i = 1; i < 5; i++){//shift the MSB of product
       pro[i-1] = pro[i];
   pro[4] = temp;
 for(i = 1; i < 5; i++){//shift the LSB of product
       anumcp[i-1] = anumcp[i];
 anumcp[4] = temp2;
   printf("\nAR-SHIFT: ");//display together
 for(i = 4; i >= 0; i --){
       printf("%d",pro[i]);
 printf(":");
 for(i = 4; i >= 0; i --)
       printf("%d",anumcp[i]);
void main(){
```

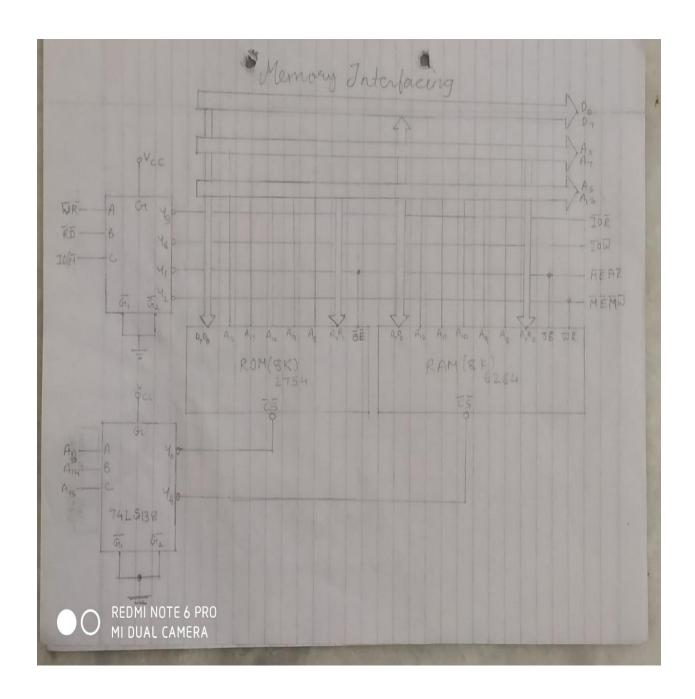
```
int i, q=0;
 printf("\t\tBOOTH'S MULTIPLICATION ALGORITHM");
 printf("\nEnter two numbers to multiply: ");
 printf("\nBoth must be less than 16");
//simulating for two numbers each below 16
 do{
     printf("\nEnter A: ");
     scanf("%d",&a);
     printf("Enter B: ");
     scanf("%d",&b);
 while(a>=16 || b>=16);
 printf("\nExpected product = \%d", a*b);
 binary();
 printf("\n\nBinary Equivalents are: ");
 printf("\nA = ");
 for(i = 4; i >= 0; i --){
     printf("%d",anum[i]);
 }
 printf("\nB = ");
 for(i = 4; i >= 0; i --){
     printf("%d",bnum[i]);
printf("\nB'+1=");
for(i = 4; i >= 0; i --){
     printf("%d",bcomp[i]);
 printf("\langle n \rangle n");
 for(i=0;i<5;i++){
     if(anum[i] == q){//just shift for 00 or 11}
     printf("\n-->");
        arshift();
   q = anum[i];
     else if(anum[i] == 1 && q == 0){//subtract and shift for 10
     printf("\n-->");
   printf("\nSUB B: ");
```

```
add(bcomp);//add two's complement to implement subtraction
          arshift();
     q = anum[i];
      else{//add ans shift for 01
      printf("\n-->");
     printf("\nADD B: ");
          add(bnum);
          arshift();
     q = anum[i];
   }
   printf("\nProduct is = ");
   for(i = 4; i >= 0; i --){
      printf("%d",pro[i]);
 for(i = 4; i >= 0; i --){
      printf("%d",anumcp[i]);
getch();
```

```
BOOTH'S MULTIPLICATION ALGORITHM
Enter two numbers to multiply:
Both must be less than 16
Enter A: 5
Enter B: 4
Expected product = 20
Binary Equivalents are:
A = 00101
B = 00100
B' + 1 = 11100
SUB B: 11100:00101
AR-SHIFT: 11110:00010
ADD B: 00010:00010
AR-SHIFT: 00001:00001
SUB B: 11101:00001
AR-SHIFT: 11110:10000
ADD B: 00010:10000
AR-SHIFT: 00001:01000
AR-SHIFT: 00000:10100
Product is = 0000010100
```

Practical-8

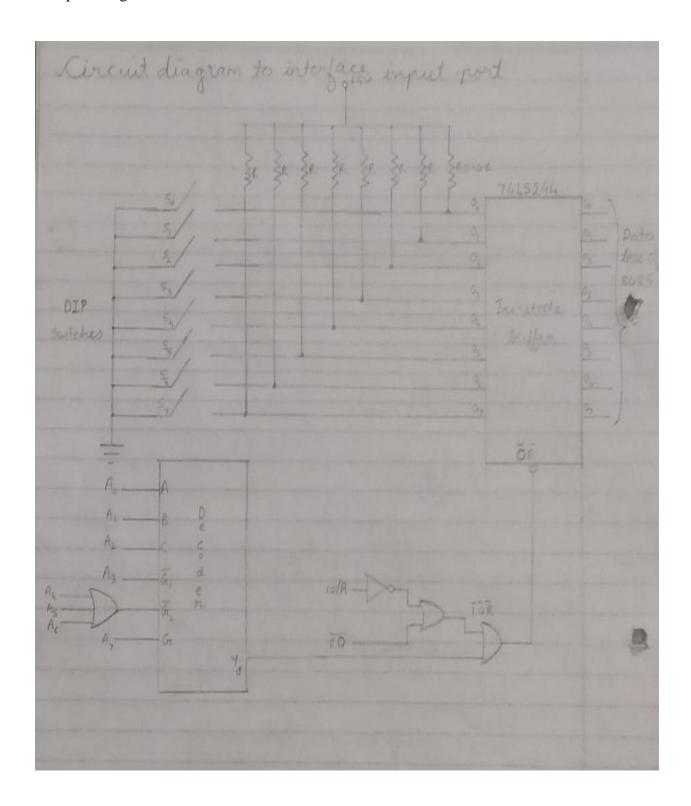
Aim: Design circuit for interfacing memory with processor.



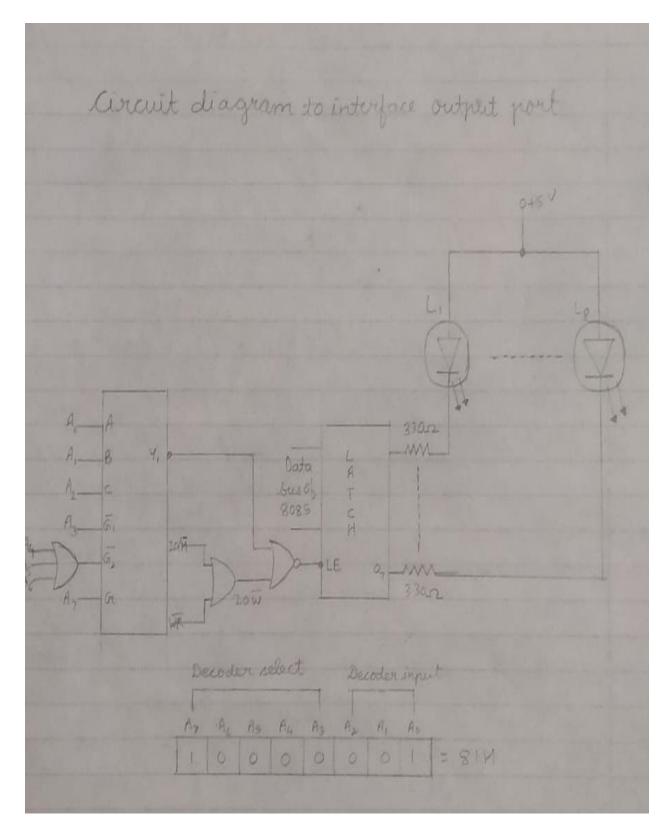
Practical-9

Design circuit for

1) Interfacing Input Port with processor



2) Interfacing Output Port with processor



Practical-10

1) Differentiate between RISC and CISC.

No	Characteristics	CISC	RISC
1	Instruction size	Varies	Fixed
2	Instruction length	1,2,3 or 4 bytes	4 bytes
3	No of Instruction	More	Less
4	Instruction decoding	Serial to decode	Easy to decode
5	Instruction semanctics	Varies from simple to	Almost always one
		complex	simple operation
6	Addressing mode	Supports complex	Complex addressing
		Addressing modes	modes are systhesized in
			software
7	Instruction execution	Slow	Medium
	speed		
8	Registers	Few	Many
9	Hardware	Complicated	Simple
10	Memory access	Frequently	Rarely

2) Case study of different RISC and CISC processors.

2.1. ARM Cortex-M

The ARM Cortex®-M processor family is an upwards compatible range of energy-efficient, It delivers more features at a lower cost, increasing connectivity, better code reuse and improved energy efficiency.

The Cortex-M family is optimized for cost and power sensitive MCU and mixed-signal devices for end applications such as smart metering, human interface devices, automotive and industrial control systems, white goods, consumer products and medical instrumentation.

More information on ARM embedded products and resources is available in the Embedded Group on ARM Connected Community.

Industry standard

ARM Cortex-M processors is a global microcontroller standard, having been licensed to over 40 ARM partners including leading vendors such as Freescale, NXP Semiconductors, STMicroelectronics, Texas Instruments, and Toshiba. Using a standard processor allows ARM partners to create devices with a consistent architecture while enabling them to focus on creating superior device implementations.

Energy efficiency

Lower energy costs, longer battery life

- Run at lower MHz or with shorter activity periods
- Architected support for sleep modes

• Work smarter, sleep longer than 8/16-bit

Smaller code

Lower silicon costs

- High density instruction set
- Achieve more per byte than 8/16-bit devices
- Smaller RAM, ROM or Flash requirement

Ease of use

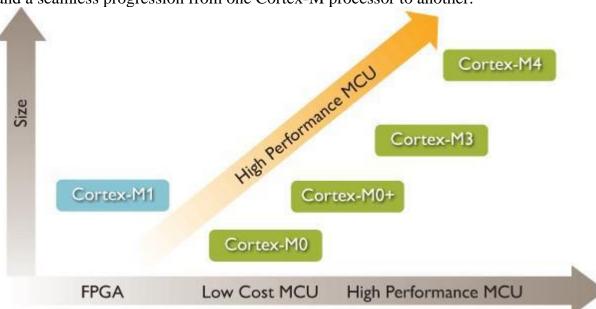
Faster software development and reuse

- Global standard across multiple vendors
- Code compatibility
- Unified tools and OS support

Comparing Cortex-M processors

ARM Cortex-M0	ARM Cortex-	ARM Cortex-M3	ARM Cortex-M4
	M0+		
"8/16-bit"	"8/16-bit"	"16/32-bit"	"32-bit/DSC"
applications	applications	applications	applications
Low cost and	Low cost, best	Performance,	Efficient digital signal
simplicity	energyefficiency	general purpose	control

Cortex-M family processors are all binary upwards compatible, enabling software reuse and a seamless progression from one Cortex-M processor to another.



2.2. Intel-i7 Processor

1. INTRODUCTION

The Intel core i7-900 desktop processor extreme edition series and Intel core i7-900 desktop processor series are intended for high performance high –end desktop, uniprocessor server and workstation systems. Core i7 is the processor using Nehalem microarchitecture. With faster, intelligent multi-core technology that applies processing power where it is needed the most the processor implements key new technologies: A. Integrated memory controller B. Point to point link interface based on C. Intel quick path interconnection.

Nehalem is the code name for the Intel processor microarchitecture, successor to core microarchitecture, the first processor released with the Nehalem architecture is the desktop core i7.

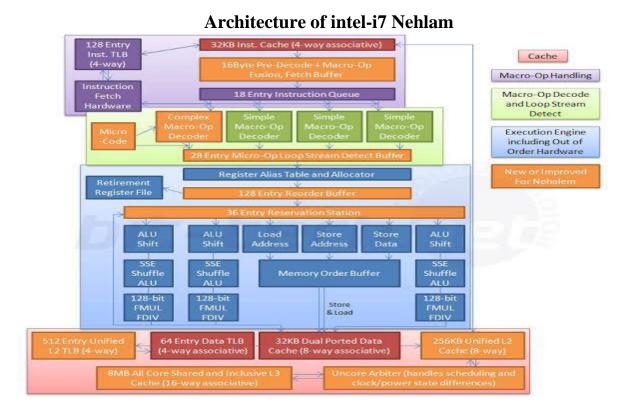
The processor is optimized for performance with the power efficiencies of a low-power micro architecture to enable smaller, quieter systems.

The Intel core i7 desktop processor extreme edition series are multi-core processors based on 45nm process technology. The processors supports all the existing streaming SIMD extensions 2(SSE2), streaming SIMD extensions 3 (SSE3) and streaming SIMD extensions 4(SSE4). The processor supports several advanced technologies: execute disable bit, Intel 64 technology, enhanced Intel speed step technology, Intel virtualization technology, Intel turbo boost technology and hyper- threading technology.

2. FEATURES

- 1) Modular design: The core i7 processors have been designed to help Intel create different versions this means 8-core processors, 6-channel memory and larger cache processors.
- 2) Hyper threading returns: hyper threading is a technology that allows a single core to emulate two cores by using unused core hardware to run a separate thread.
- 3) Integrated memory controller: Intel has placed all memory controlling hardware directly into the processor this means more bandwidth and lower latencies by passing the FSB. More memory is supported due to the triple channel.
- 4) Quick path interconnect: the QPI is connection interface between processor and rest of the system. It runs independent of other modules in the processor it also transmits and receives per clocks so hence this module is rated in transfers per second instead of frequency.
- 5) Turbo modes: The processor is able to self- overclock by changing the multiplier by two speed bins. It will self-overclock if the processor senses that there is enough thermal and power headroom to overclock without straining itself. Usually this happens when there are cores in sleep state due to lack of multiple threads. The PCU (power control unit) is advanced enough to know all this and will be very self-aware.

- 6) Overclocking: Overclocking is the process of forcing the computer component to run at higher clock rate it was designed in order to increase the performance of the computers.
- 7) Support for SSE4.2 and SSE4.1 instruction sets: SSE4 is an instruction set used in intel core microarchitecture it consists of 54 instructions referred to as SSE4.1 additionally SSE4.2 a subset consisting of 7 remaining instructions will first be available in core i7.



3) Describe various physical forms of Interconnection structures.

Interconnection Structures

- Time-shared common bus
- Multiport Memory
- Crossbar Switch
- Multistage Switching Network
- Hypercube system Time-shared common bus

3.1 Time-shared common bus

A common-bus multiprocessor system consists of a number of processors connected through a common path to a memory unit. A time-shared common bus for five processors is shown in Fig. 1. Only one processor can communicate with the memory or another processor at any given time.

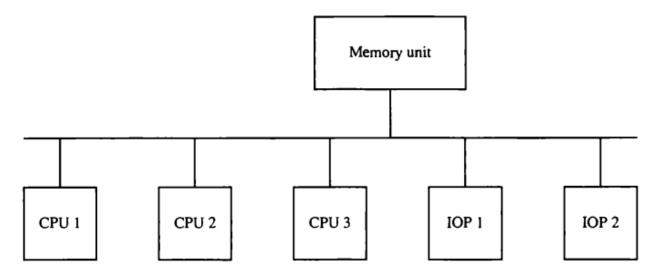


Figure 1 Time-shared common bus organization.

Transfer operations are conducted by the processor that is in control of the bus at the time.

Any other processor wishing to initiate a transfer must first determine the availability status of the bus, and only after the bus becomes available can the processor address the destination unit to initiate the transfer.

A command is issued to inform the destination unit what operation is to be performed. The receiving unit recognizes its address in the bus and responds to the control signals from the sender, after which the transfer is initiated.

The system may exhibit transfer conflicts since one common bus is shared by all processors. These conflicts must be resolved by incorporating a bus controller that establishes priorities among the requesting units.

A single common-bus system is restricted to one transfer at a time.

This means that when one processor is communicating with the memory, all other processors are either busy with internal operations or must be idle waiting for the bus. As a consequence, the total overall transfer rate within the system is limited by the speed of the single path.

The processors in the system can be kept busy more often through the implementation of two or more independent buses to permit multiple simultaneous bus transfers. However, this increases the system cost and complexity.

A more economical implementation of a dual bus structure is depicted in Fig. 2.

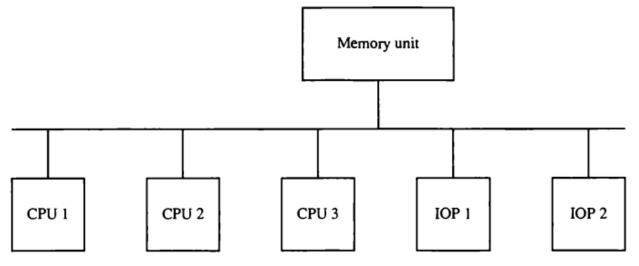


Figure 1 Time-shared common bus organization.

3.2 Multiport Memory

A multiport memory system employs separate buses between each memory module and each CPU.

This is shown in Fig. 3 for four CPUs and four memory modules (MMs).

Each processor busis Connected to each memory module.

A processor bus consists of the address, data, and control lines required to communicate with memory.

The memory module is said to have four ports and each port accommodates one of the buses. The module must have internal control logic to determine which port will have access to memory at any given time. Memory access conflicts are resolved by assigning fixed priorities to each memory port.

The priority for memory acoess associated with each processor may be established by the physical port position that its bus occupies in each module.

Thus CPU 1 will have priority over CPU 2, CPU 2 will have priority over CPU 3, and CPU 4 will have the lowest priority.

The advantage of the multi port memory organization is the high transfer rate that can be achieved because of the multiple paths between processors and memory.

The disadvantage is that it requires expensive memory control logic and a large number of cables and connectors. As a consequence, this interconnection structure is usually appropriate for systems with a small number of processors.

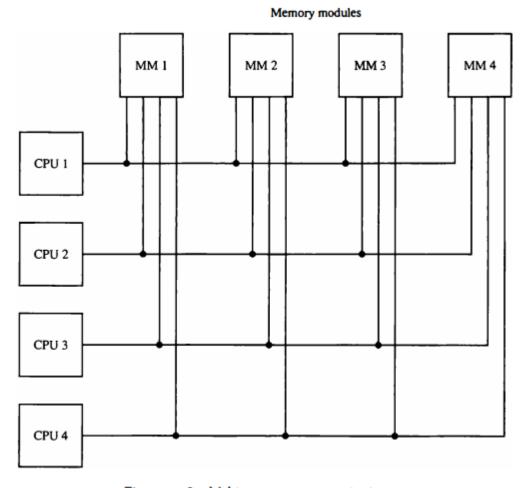


Figure 3 Multiport memory organization.

3.3 Crossbar Switches

The Crossbar exchanges were developed during 1940s. They achieve full access and non-blocking capabilities with the Crossbar switches and common control equipment, used in the Crossbar exchanges. The active elements called Crosspoints are placed between the input and the output lines. In the common control switching systems, the separation between switching and control operations allows the usage of switching networks by a group of common control switches to establish many calls at the same time on a shared basis.

The Features of Crossbar Switches

The features are described in brief below –

While processing a call, the common control system helps in the sharing of resources. The specific route functions of call processing are hardwired because of the Wire logic computers.

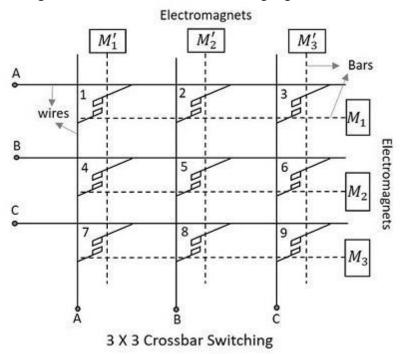
The flexible system design helps in the appropriate ratio selection is allowed for a specific switch.

Fewer moving parts ease the maintenance of Crossbar switching systems.

The Crossbar switching system uses the common control networks which enable the switching network to perform event monitoring, call processing, charging, operation and maintenance as discussed previously. The common control also provides uniform numbering of subscribers in a multi-exchange area like big cities and routing of calls from one exchange to another using the same intermediate exchanges. This method helps to avoid the disadvantages associated with the step-by-step switching method through its unique process of receiving and storing the complete number to establish a call connection.

Crossbar Switching Matrix

The Crossbar arrangement is a matrix which is formed by the M X N sets of contacts arranged as vertical and horizontal bars with contact points where they meet. They need nearly M + N number of activators to select one of the contacts. The Crossbar matrix arrangement is shown in the following figure.



3.4 Multistage Switching Network

The general concept of the multi-stage interconnection network, together with its routing properties, have been used in the preceding chapter to describe the operation of various designs of fast packet switch. In this chapter those networks that bear particular relevance to applications within the eld of fast packet switching will be described in some detail within the context of interconnection networks in general.

3.5 Hypercube system Time-shared common bus

Hypercube networks are a type of network topology used to connect multiple processors with memory modules and accurately route data. Hypercube networks consist of 2m nodes. These nodes form the vertices of squares to create an internetwork connection. A hypercube is basically a multidimensional mesh network with two nodes in each dimension. Due to similarity, such topologies are usually grouped into a k-ary d-dimensional mesh topology family where d represents the number of dimensions and k represents the number of nodes in each dimension.

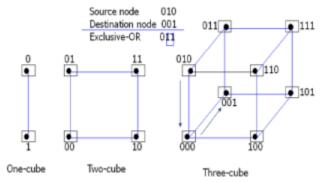


Fig: Hypercube structures for n=1,2,3