

Topic 1

Introduction to Digital Electronic Systems

Department of Electronics

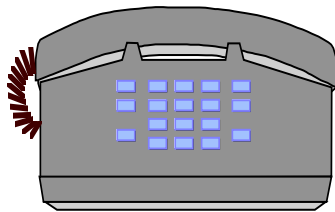
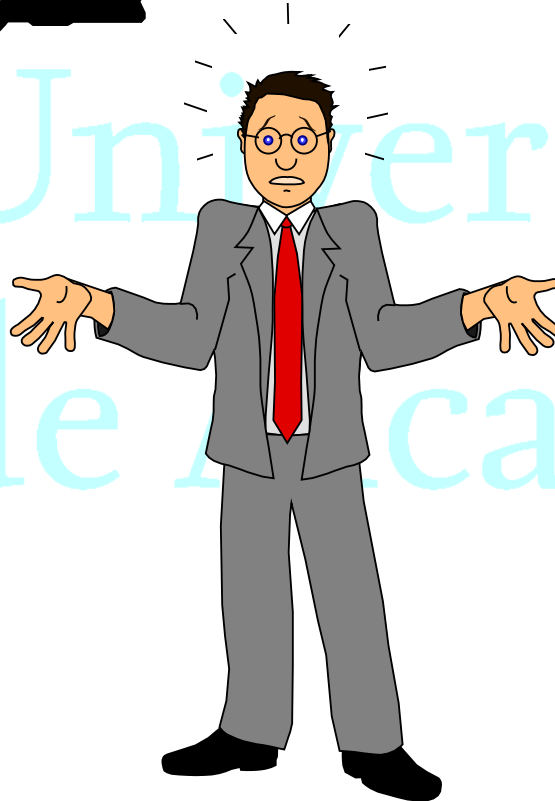
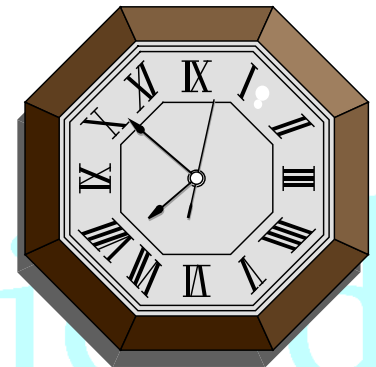
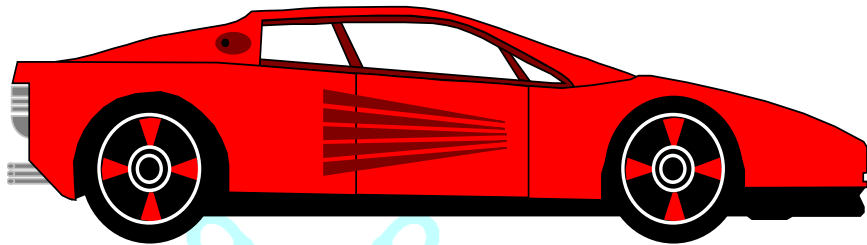
Academic Year 13/14

(ver 10-07-2013)

Index

- 1.1. Introduction
- 1.2. Embedded Systems
- 1.3. Design of Digital Systems
- 1.4. The Microprocessor
- 1.5. Input / Output
- 1.6. Microprocessor Evolution
- 1.7. Developing Tools

1.1. Introduction: What is a system?



1.1. Introduction

- ◆ Interacts with the environment
- ◆ Is divided into three stages:
 1. Input
 2. Processing
 3. Output
- ◆ The processing is based on:
 - ◆ Combinational logic and sequential circuits
 - ◆ Microprocessors
 - ◆ Microcontrollers
 - ◆ Digital Signal Processor (DSP)
 - ◆ Programmable logic circuits
 - ◆ Programmable Logic Controllers (PLC's)

1.1. Introduction: processing system classification

	DO NOT CONTROL	DO CONTROL / REAL TIME
NOT EMBEDDED	<p>Supercomputers Servers Workstations Personal computers Calculator</p> <p><i>Scientific calculation Management (accounting, etc.) Databases</i></p>	<p>Specific computers Personal Computers+ I/O boards PLCs Digital regulators</p> <p><i>Industrial Control Flight simulators Robotics</i></p>
EMBEDDED		<p>Microprocessors-based boards + I/O boards + VME bus PC's + I/O boards + ISA bus Microcontrollers</p> <p><i>Appliances Aeronautics Mobile robotics Mobile phones</i></p>

1.2. Embedded Systems

- ◆ Based on programmable devices
(e.g. microcontrollers, DSPs....)
- ◆ In general, they are real-time reactive systems:
 - ◆ They react to external events
 - ◆ They keep continuous interaction
 - ◆ They are continuously running
 - ◆ Their work is subjected to external time constraints
- ◆ They do concurrently several tasks

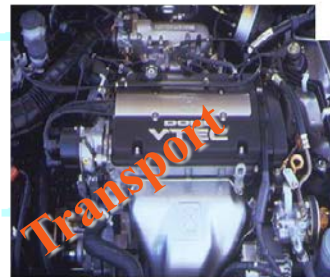
1.2. Embedded Systems

◆ Embedded system examples

- ◆ Consumer electronics
 - ◆ CD players, HIFI, television, ...
 - ◆ Washer machines, fridges, dishwashers, ...
- ◆ Automotive
 - ◆ Speed control, air conditioning, etc.
 - ◆ ABS, ASR, Electronic fuel injection
- ◆ Telecommunications
 - ◆ Mobile phone
- ◆ Avionics, Space
 - ◆ Flying computers
 - ◆ Path-finder
- ◆ Defense
 - ◆ Bombs and intelligent missiles
 - ◆ Vehicles, ...
- ◆ Instrumentation



Communications



Transport



Industry



Entertainment

1.2. Embedded Systems: Features

◆ Concurrency

- ◆ All the tasks carried out by the system under control work simultaneously
- ◆ The control system has to generate simultaneously the control actions
- ◆ If there is only one processing unit: multiprocessing techniques are required, by using real time operating systems
- ◆ If there are several processing units, we are speaking about a multiprocessor solution

◆ Reliability and safety

- ◆ A fault in a control system can drive the controlled system to behave dangerously or uneconomical
- ◆ It is important to guarantee that if the control system fails, the system remains in a safe controlled state: to anticipate potential design errors and exceptions

1.2. Embedded Systems: Features

◆ Low power

- ◆ Many of these systems are powered by batteries.
- ◆ Less consumption => greater autonomy
- ◆ In many cases low voltage (3V) is needed

◆ Low weight

- ◆ Desirable feature in portable systems
- ◆ It not only depends on the onboard computer and its periphery but also on the sup

◆ Low prices

- ◆ Related to consumer electronics and other devices with very competitive markets

◆ Small size

- ◆ The dimensions of an embedded system depend not only on itself but also on the space available on the system that controls and / or monitors

1.3. Design of Digital Systems

◆ Combinational/Sequential integrated circuits

- ◆ Big space, delays, difficult redesign.

◆ Full-custom circuits

- ◆ Very expensive design, slow process of debugging

◆ Semi-custom circuits

- ◆ ASIC (Application Specific Integrated Circuit)
- ◆ Created from standard cells from the library, for a specific application.
- ◆ Easy design modification.

1.3. Design of Digital Systems

◆ Standard circuits

- ◆ ASSP circuits (Application Specific Standard Part).
- ◆ Originally designed for a client and then offered to the general public
- ◆ Microcontrollers and Microprocessors
 - ◆ Generic processor with embedded devices for specific applications...
- ◆ DSPs
 - ◆ Device for Digital Signal Processing
 - ◆ It has been designed for carrying out a small set of operations with a large amount of data.

1.4. The Microprocessor

◆ From the wired machine to the programmed one

◆ WIRED:

- ◆ Mainly simple logic gates
- ◆ According to the inputs it is deterministic, very rigid with constant output
- ◆ The technology was introducing more complex logic functions
 - ◆ Hard its implementation
 - ◆ A huge amount of integrated circuits is needed (multiplication, division, n order roots)

✂ At the early 70 the PROGRAMMED MACHINE became only one electronic circuit:
the **MICROPROCESSOR**

1.4. The Microprocessor

◆ General purpose circuit

- ◆ It is a very versatile chip, easy to adapt a multiple applications, limited by the designer:

- ◆ Logic functions (AND, OR,...)

- ◆ If a specific function is not implemented, it can be obtained by the combination of the existing ones

◆ Programmable: it works by means of a set of basic steps

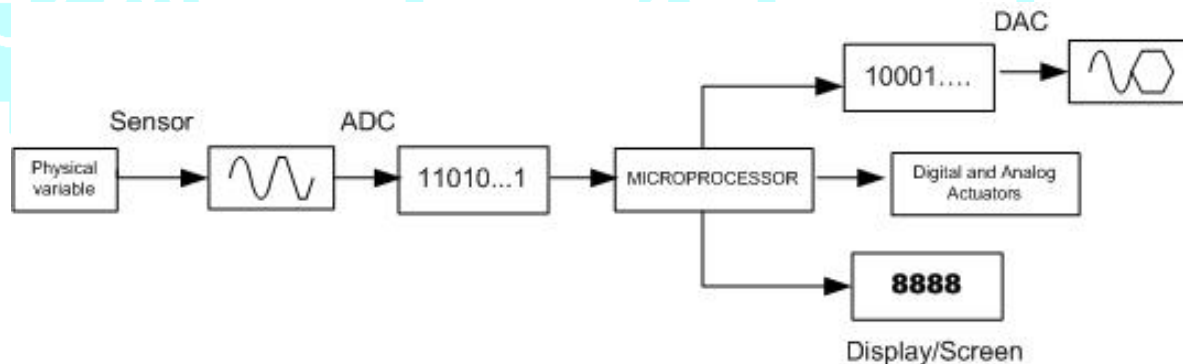
- ◆ Each step is called **instruction**
- ◆ Each information element is called **data**
- ◆ Program: it is a structured set of instructions

If the program is changed, the functionality changes accordingly

1.4. The Microprocessor

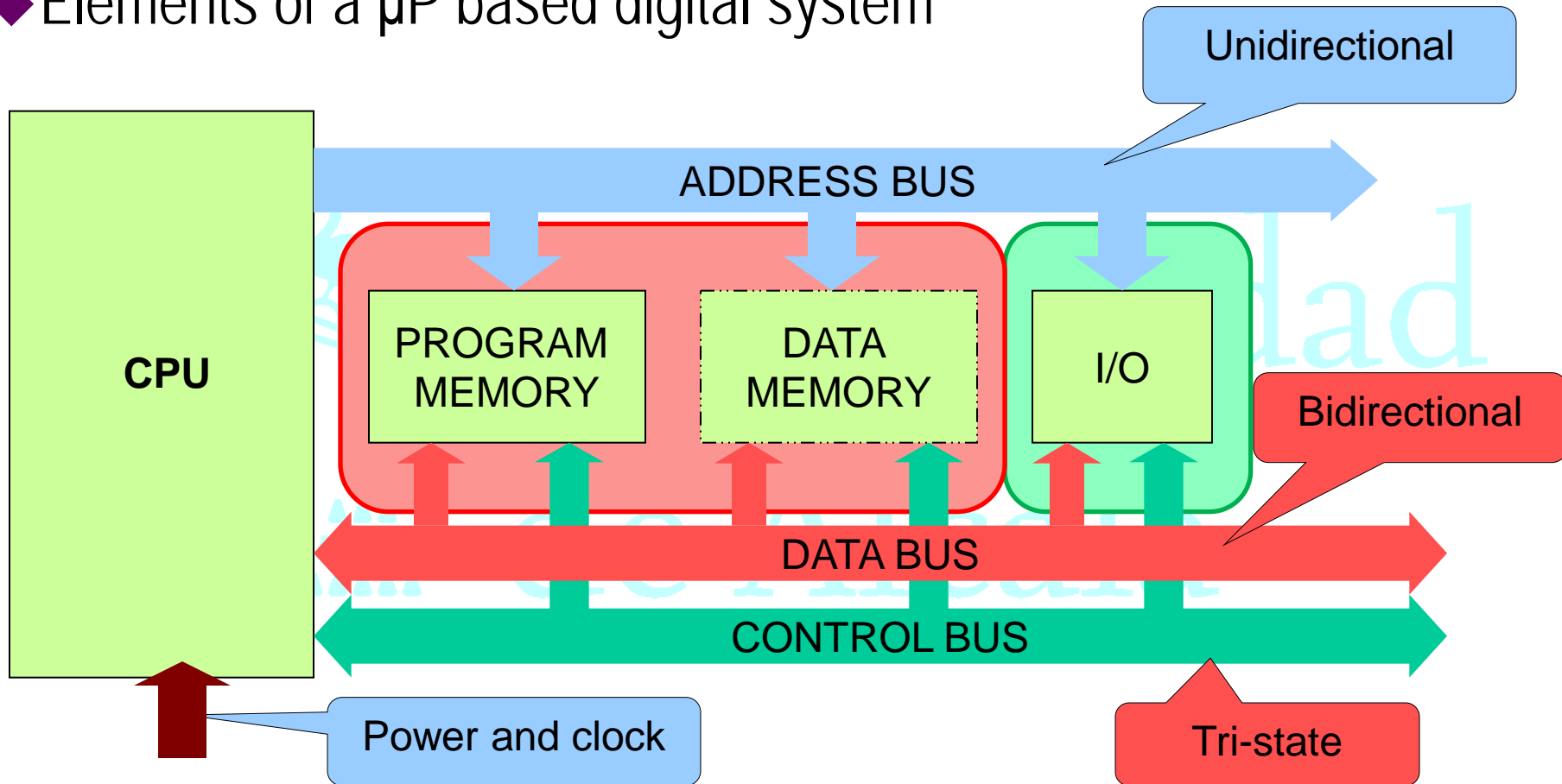
◆ Advantages of the microprocessor (uP)

- ◆ By changing the program a new function is obtained. In wired systems it is required to change the design, and some electronic circuits
 - ◆ Much easier to debug and to optimize applications
 - ◆ Easy to update versions
 - ◆ Easy to adapt the design to a different application
 - ◆ Easy to design digital electronic circuits
- ◆ It is possible to work with analog signals by using A/D and D/A converters



1.4. The Microprocessor

◆ Elements of a μ P based digital system



1.4. The Microprocessor

- ◆ The μ P needs memory enough to store both **instructions** and **data** (variables and constants) of a program
 - ◆ **Instructions and constant data are stored in non-volatile memories** (their contents are preserved without power). Called **program memory**, it can only be read or programmed (not written)
 - ◆ **Variable data are stored in volatile memories** (their contents are lost with power down). Called **data memory**, it can be read and written

1.4. The Microprocessor: Differences with the Microcontroller

◆ A microcontroller (μC) is a chip that includes:

- ◆ the processor (μP , CPU)
- ◆ different types and amounts of memory and
- ◆ various input/output interfaces and peripherals
- ◆ All of them interconnected by uni/bidirectional busses

◆ The main difference between μP and μC :

- ◆ The μC includes in a single chip all elements needed in a digital system, therefore achieving more integration and lower price.

1.4. The Microprocessor: Differences with the Microcontroller

◆ More differences between μP and μC :

- ◆ Lower time to market when implementing a project in a μC
- ◆ In former μC all operations in the ALU were developed using an accumulator
 - ◆ The accumulator output is connected to one of the ALU's inputs, being always therefore one of the operands
 - ◆ Instructions with a single operand (clear, increment, decrement, invert) operate with the accumulator

1.5. Inputs / Outputs

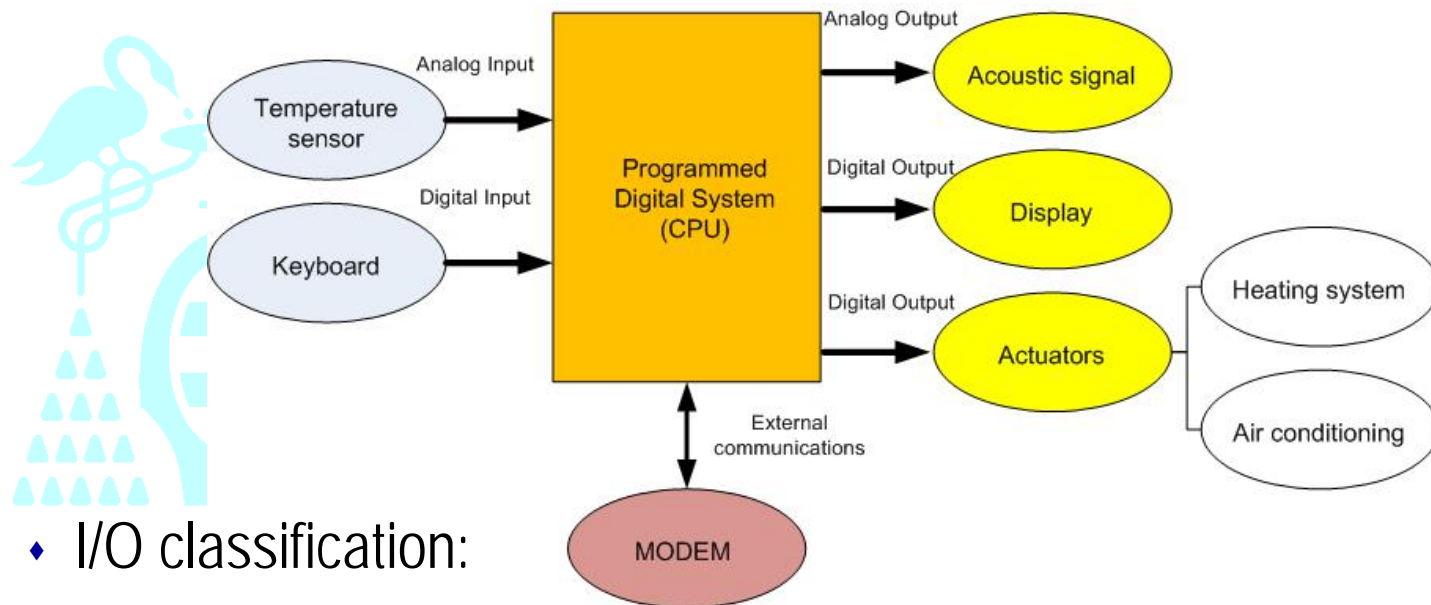
◆ Inputs / Outputs(I/O)

- ◆ The reference for the interchange of information is the CPU.
 - ◆ I/O: the data or information that is passed into or out of a CPU
 - ◆ CPU takes an external data from the external system *Input operation*
 - ◆ CPU gives the data to the external system *Output operation*
- ◆ μ P external access are carried out through the buses
 - ◆ I/O devices can be connected to the main system buses
 - ◆ Or can be a special subsystem depending on the main system.

1.5. Inputs / Outputs

◆ Example: domestic heating system

- ◆ μ P external access are carried out through the buses



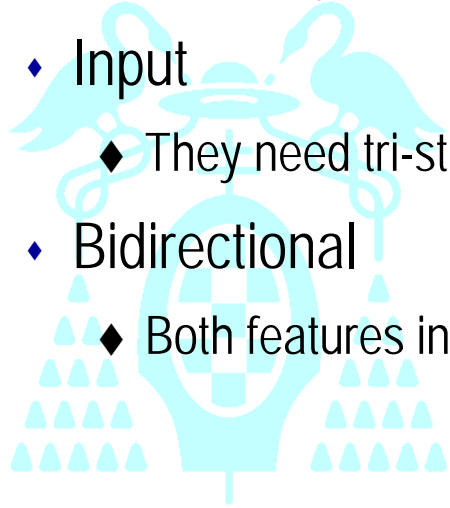
- ◆ I/O classification:

- ◆ *Directly with the environment under control (analog or digital I/O)*
- ◆ *With the user (analog or digital I/O)*
- ◆ *With other digital systems (this improves the capabilities of the whole system)*

1.5. Inputs / Outputs

◆ Devices classification

- ◆ Output
 - ◆ Capability of holding data. Example: Latch
- ◆ Input
 - ◆ They need tri-state outputs
- ◆ Bidirectional
 - ◆ Both features in the same device



Universidad
de Alcalá

1.5. Inputs / Outputs. Interface structure

◆ Interface circuits

- ◆ They make possible transition between two different systems

◆ Interface structure

- ◆ In general, there are two options for the design.
 - ◆ General purpose circuits (standard circuits such as logic gates, latches, ...)
 - ◆ Special circuits designed for a specific function (e.g. USB adapter)
- ◆ The CPU "sees" the interface circuits as a group of registers located (mapped) in specific addresses.

1.5. Inputs / Outputs. Interface structure

◆ Digital Interfaces

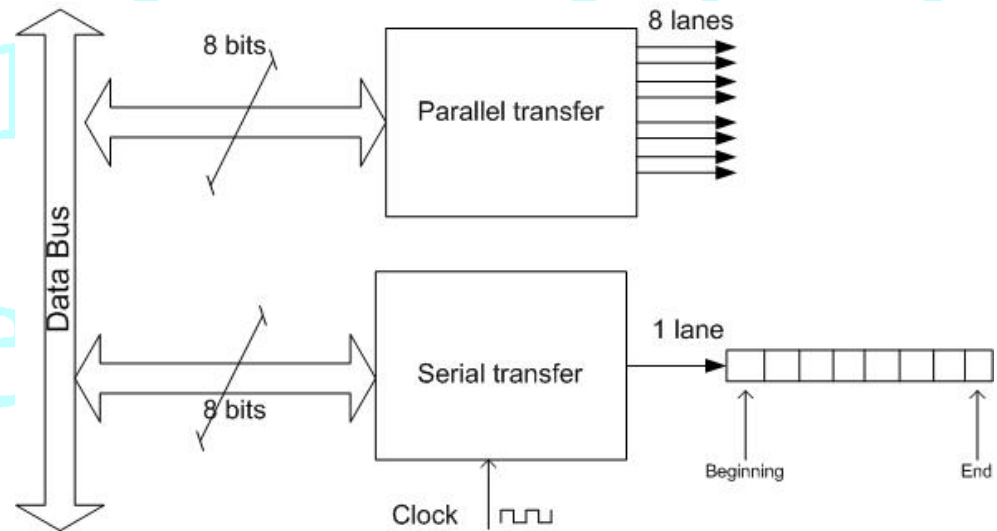
- ◆ They only manage digital information.
- ◆ In general, there are two kinds for transferring information:

- ◆ **Parallel data transfer:**

A group of n bits are transferred simultaneously.

- ◆ **Serial data transfer:**

The bits are transferred one by one. It is needed time or synchronism information for understanding the data without errors..

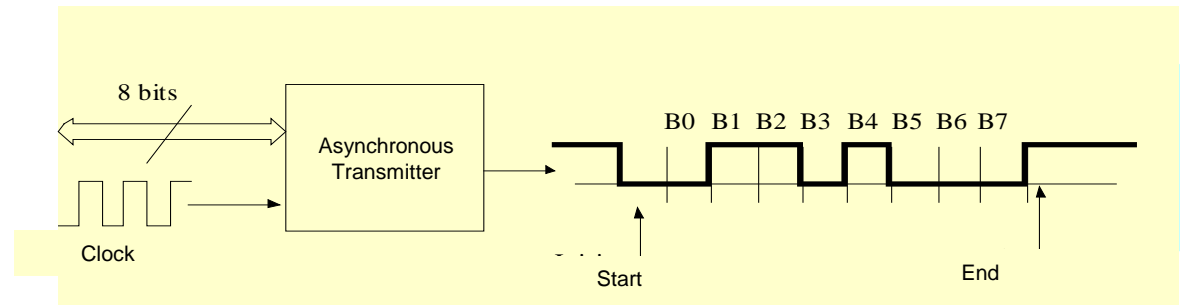


Advantages and disadvantages?

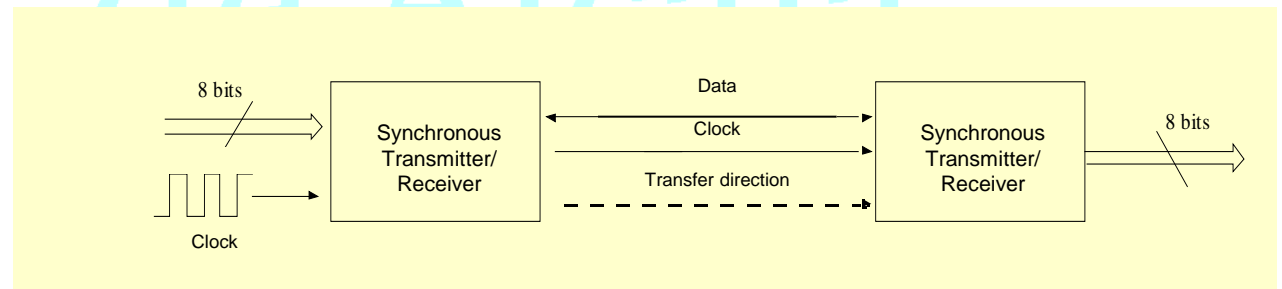
1.5. Inputs / Outputs. Interface structure

◆ Digital interfaces

◆ Asynchronous serial:



◆ Synchronous serial:



1.5. Inputs / Outputs. Interface structure

◆ Analog interfaces

- ◆ They are circuits that facilitate the conversion between numerical codes (related to the digital system) and the multiplicity of instant values of the analog signals
 - ◆ Circuits: Digital/Analog Converter (DAC, D/A) and Analog/Digital Converter (ADC, A/D)
- ◆ An important parameter related to A/D and D/A is the number of bits of resolution and the sample frequency

1.5. Inputs / Outputs. Interface structure

◆ I/O Interface and peripherals addressing

- ◆ For the microprocessor the interface is a group of “registers”
- ◆ For working with the interface, it is needed to read or write the registers
- ◆ Depending on the microprocessor, Inputs and Outputs can be:
 - ◆ mapped in memory (standard accesses to the registers)
 - ◆ Out of the memory map (special instructions for accessing)

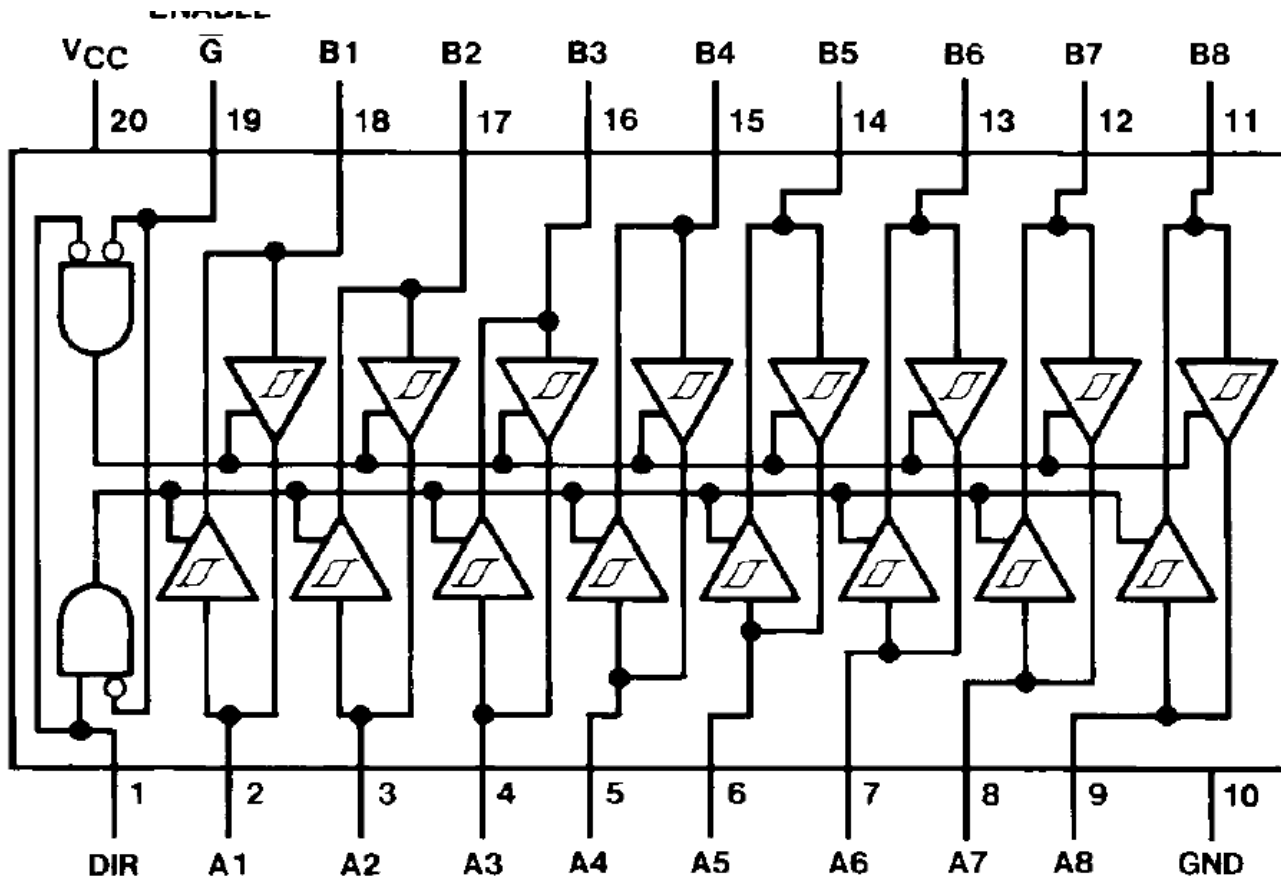
1.5. Inputs / Outputs. Interface structure

◆ Buses accessing

- ◆ Interconnection electrical problems
 - ◆ Unidirectional Buses. (fan-out, fan-in)
 - ◆ Bidirectional Buses. It is needed arbitrations techniques to prevent conflicts (who is using the bus and when).
- ◆ Two or more devices connected to the same bus never can transfer simultaneously information through the bus. Solutions:
 - ◆ Integrated circuits with high impedance controlled by the selection of the chip (CS, *chip select signal*) or output enable (OE = *Output Enable Signal*).
 - ◆ Devices without high impedance outputs can use additional tri-state buffers with enable logic.

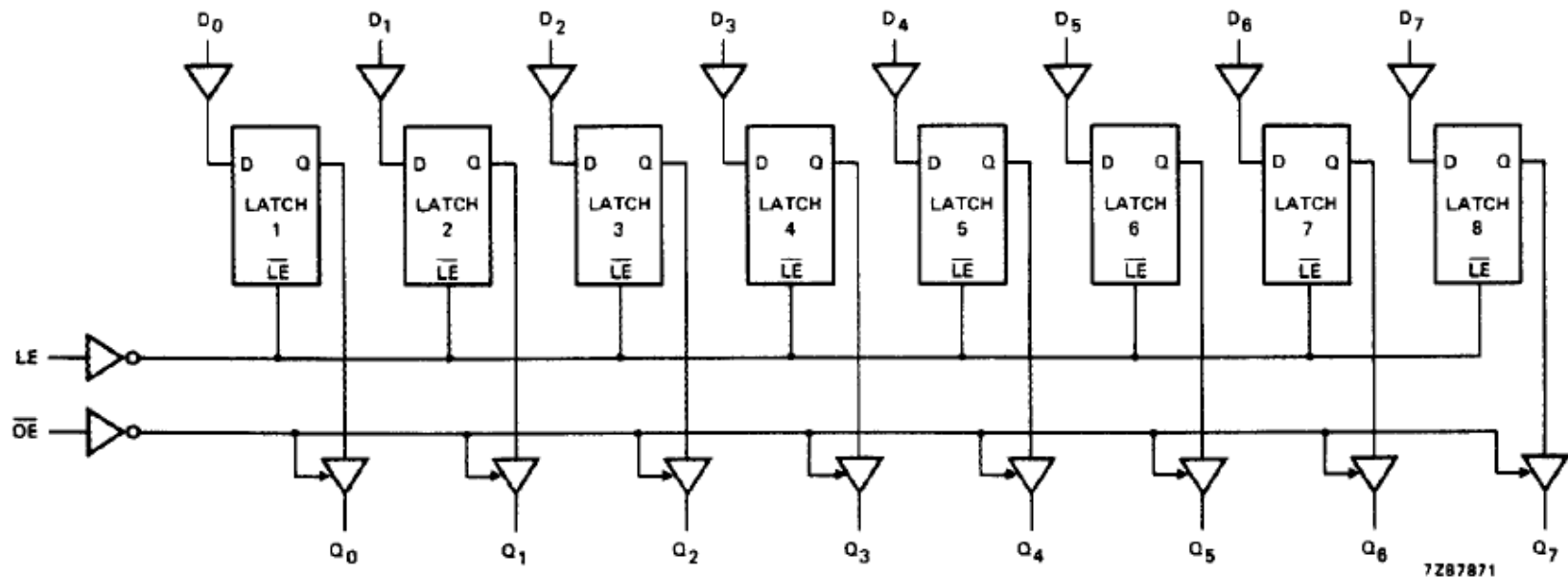
1.5. Inputs / Outputs. Interface structure

◆ Circuits



1.5. Inputs / Outputs. Interface structure

◆ Circuits



1.6. Microprocessor Evolution

- ◆ Evolution based on ideas, and not only on the technology
 - ◆ At the beginning the evolution depended only on the technology
 - ◆ Goal: to increase the clock frequency
 - ◆ Efficiency is affected for more parameters:
 - ◆ Memory accesses (bottleneck)
 - ◆ Input/Output operations
 - ◆ Compilation
 - ◆ Operating System Overload
 - ◆ CPU

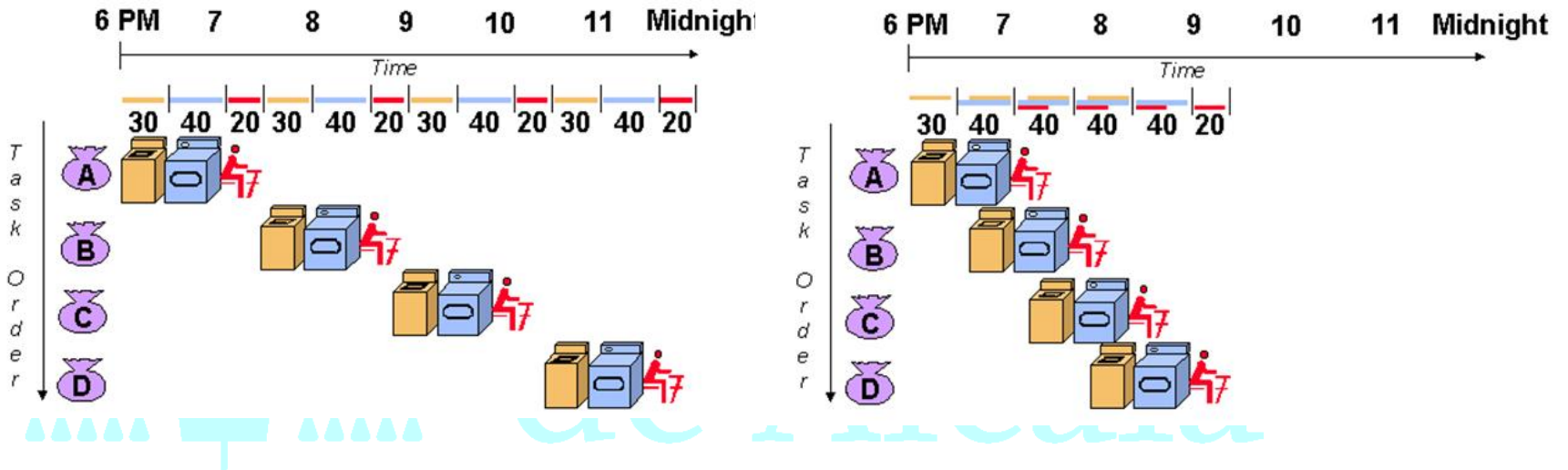
1.6. Microprocessor Evolution

- ◆ Von Neumann's machine had a single functional unit
- ◆ CISC processors:
 - ◆ Complex Instruction Set Computer
 - ◆ Short programs with complex instructions (each instruction does many things)
 - ◆ Very sophisticated operations:
It reduces the gap between "High level" and ASM programming
 - ◆ A few number of instructions, but a lot of machine cycles
 - ◆ More complex functional units, based on microcode
 - ◆ Memory Operations (LOAD/STORE): Few internal registers
 - ◆ Simple compilers

1.6. Microprocessor Evolution

◆ Segmentation

- ◆ Without finishing one instruction, another starts to be processed



1.6. Microprocessor Evolution

◆ New philosophy

- ◆ New compilers
- ◆ Machine cycles as fast as technology permits
- ◆ More operations in one machine cycle
- ◆ The simple decoding and the segmented execution are more important than the code size (only one instruction format)
- ◆ New words appear in the processor design:
 - ◆ **Super-segmentation** and **superscalar** architectures
 - ◆ **Goal: to increase the number of simultaneous operation (PARALELISM)**

1.6. Microprocessor Evolution

◆ RISC processors:

- ◆ Reduced Instruction Set Computer
- ◆ Long programs
- ◆ Simple CPU
- ◆ Small execution time of the instructions
- ◆ Easily Pipelining / Segmenting (PARALELISM)

1.7. Developing Tools

◆ Simulator

- ◆ It is a software that permits to simulate the behavior of a program. It imitates the behavior of a microprocessor or a microcontroller.
- ◆ It permits to visualize and modify the registers and the memory content
- ◆ Real-time functionalities are not available
- ◆ In general, physical and time aspects are not considered
- ◆ The running speed is lower than the one with the real device

1.7. Developing Tools

◆ On-chip debugging

- ◆ It is needed a special software running in the device, and a communication port for connecting with a computer.
- ◆ Specific ports for this task:
 - ◆ JTAG (Joint Test Action Group) is a method of accessing memory and CPU resources without having an application running on the target
 - ◆ BDM or background debugging mode also achieves this objective
- ◆ The debugging application slows down the program
- ◆ It is easy to visualize the real content of the memory, registers, etc.
- ◆ Other features: step-by-step execution, break points, etc.