

# 16.480/552 Micro II and Embedded Systems Design: Introduction

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## Lecture 1: Introduction to Embedded System Design

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*Revised based on “Embedded Systems Design: A Unified Hardware/Software” by Vahid/Givargis  
And “The 8088 and 8086 Microprocessors” by Triebel and Singh*



# Outline

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- Embedded systems overview
  - What are they?
- Design challenge – optimizing design metrics
- Technologies
  - Processor technologies
  - IC technologies
  - Design technologies
- Introduction to 8088/8086

# Embedded systems overview

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- Computing systems are everywhere
- Most of us think of “desktop” computers
  - PC’s 
  - Laptops 
  - Mainframes
  - Servers
- But there’s another type of computing system
  - Far more common...

# Embedded systems overview

- Embedded computing systems
  - Computing systems embedded within electronic devices
  - Hard to define. Nearly any computing system other than a desktop computer
  - Billions of units produced yearly, versus millions of desktop units
  - Perhaps 50 per household and per automobile

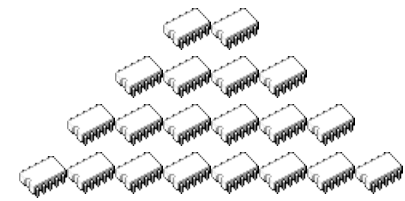
Computers are in here...



and here...



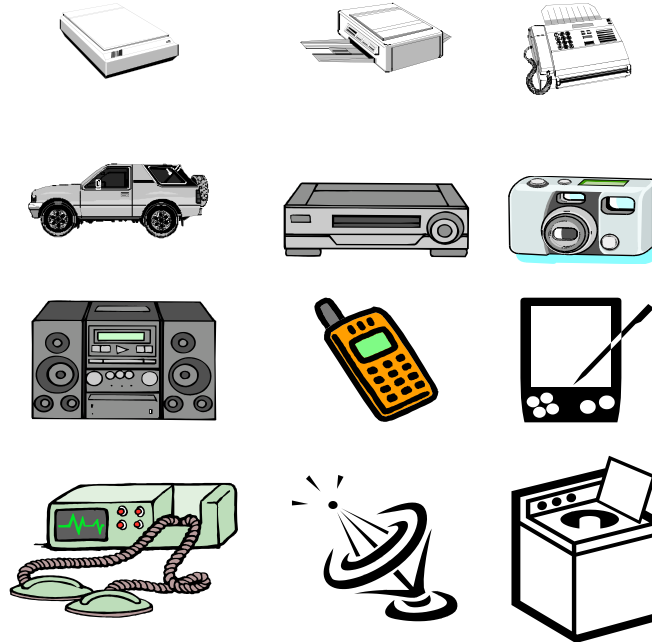
and even here...



Lots more of these,  
though they cost a lot  
less each.

# A “short list” of embedded systems

Anti-lock brakes	Modems
Auto-focus cameras	MPEG decoders
Automatic teller machines	Network cards
Automatic toll systems	Network switches/routers
Automatic transmission	On-board navigation
Avionic systems	Pagers
Battery chargers	Photocopiers
Camcorders	Point-of-sale systems
Cell phones	Portable video games
Cell-phone base stations	Printers
Cordless phones	Satellite phones
Cruise control	Scanners
Curbside check-in systems	Smart ovens/dishwashers
Digital cameras	Speech recognizers
Disk drives	Stereo systems
Electronic card readers	Teleconferencing systems
Electronic instruments	Televisions
Electronic toys/games	Temperature controllers
Factory control	Theft tracking systems
Fax machines	TV set-top boxes
Fingerprint identifiers	VCR's, DVD players
Home security systems	Video game consoles
Life-support systems	Video phones
Medical testing systems	Washers and dryers



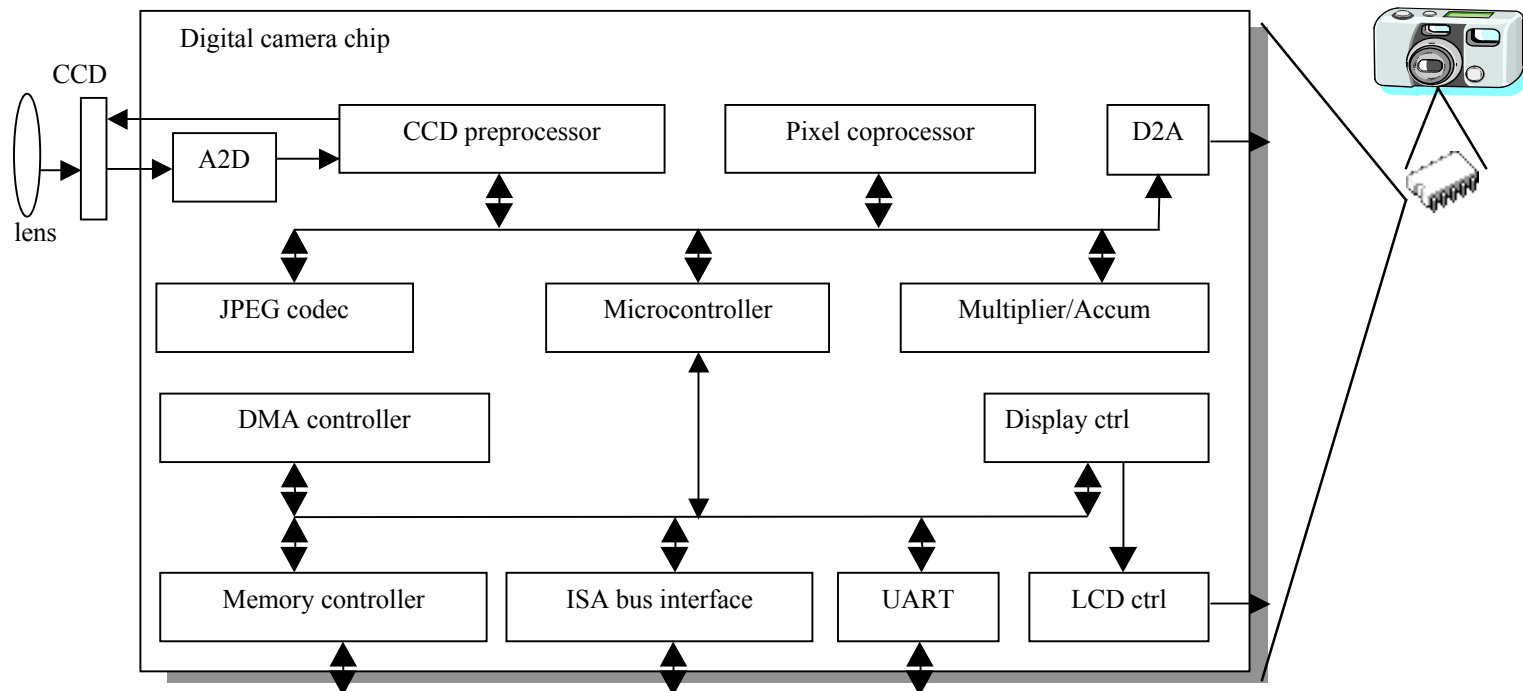
And the list goes on and on

# Some common characteristics of embedded systems

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- Single-functioned
  - Executes a single program, repeatedly
- Tightly-constrained
  - Low cost, low power, small, fast, etc.
- Reactive and real-time
  - Continually reacts to changes in the system's environment
  - Must compute certain results in real-time without delay

# An embedded system example -- a digital camera



- Single-functioned -- always a digital camera
- Tightly-constrained -- Low cost, low power, small, fast
- Reactive and real-time -- only to a small extent

# Design challenge – optimizing design metrics

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- Obvious design goal:
  - Construct an implementation with desired functionality
- Key design challenge:
  - Simultaneously optimize numerous design metrics
- Design metric
  - A measurable feature of a system's implementation
  - Optimizing design metrics is a key challenge



# Design challenge – optimizing design metrics

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- Common metrics

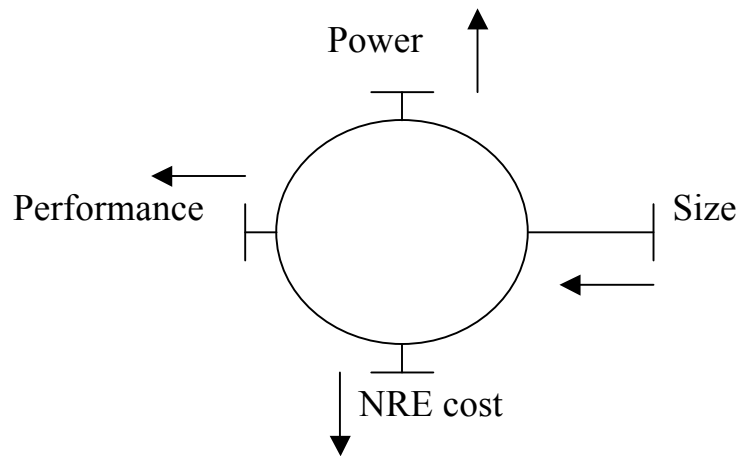
- **Unit cost:** the monetary cost of manufacturing each copy of the system, excluding NRE cost
- **NRE cost (Non-Recurring Engineering cost):** The one-time monetary cost of designing the system
- **Size:** the physical space required by the system
- **Performance:** the execution time or throughput of the system
- **Power:** the amount of power consumed by the system
- **Flexibility:** the ability to change the functionality of the system without incurring heavy NRE cost

# Design challenge – optimizing design metrics

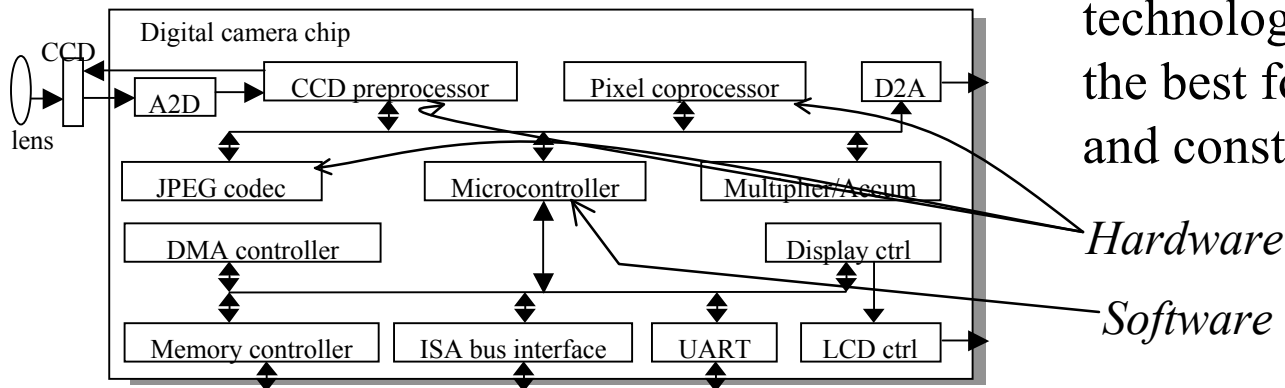
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- Common metrics (continued)
  - **Time-to-prototype:** the time needed to build a working version of the system
  - **Time-to-market:** the time required to develop a system to the point that it can be released and sold to customers
  - **Maintainability:** the ability to modify the system after its initial release
  - **Correctness, safety, many more**

# Design metric competition -- improving one may worsen others

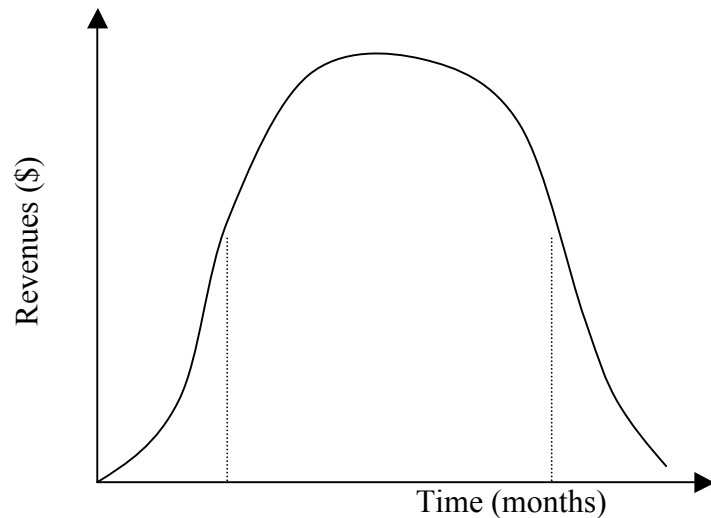


- Expertise with both **software and hardware** is needed to optimize design metrics
  - Not just a hardware or software expert, as is common
  - A designer must be comfortable with various technologies in order to choose the best for a given application and constraints



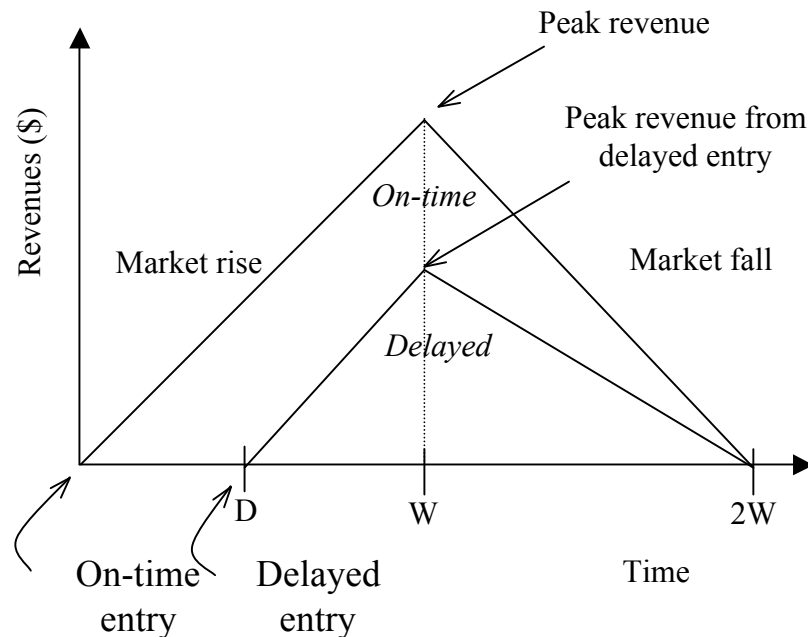
# Time-to-market: a demanding design metric

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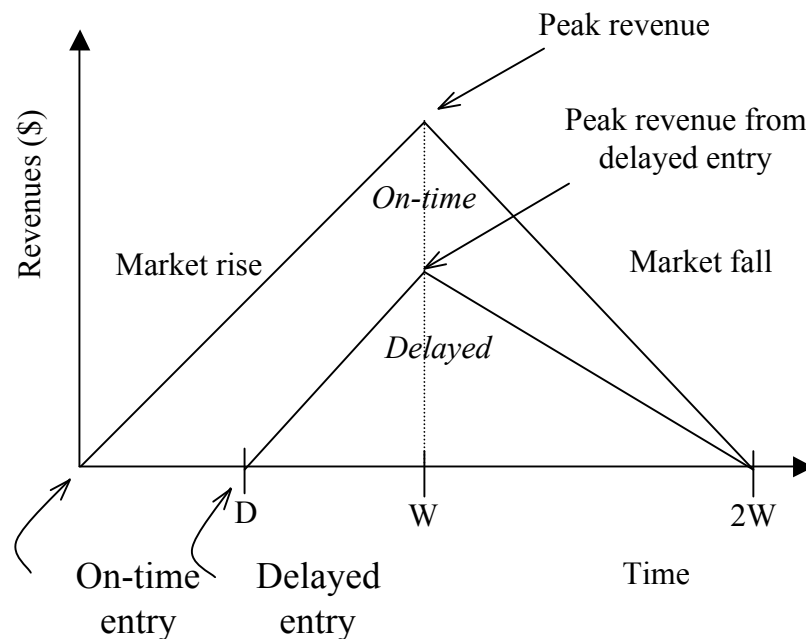
- Time required to develop a product to the point it can be sold to customers
- Market window
  - Period during which the product would have highest sales
- Average time-to-market constraint is about 8 months
- Delays can be costly

# Losses due to delayed market entry



- Simplified revenue model
  - Product life =  $2W$ , peak at  $W$
  - Time of market entry defines a triangle, representing market penetration
  - Triangle area equals revenue
- Loss
  - The difference between the on-time and delayed triangle areas

# Losses due to delayed market entry (cont.)



- Area =  $1/2 * \text{base} * \text{height}$ 
  - On-time =  $1/2 * 2W * W$
  - Delayed =  $1/2 * (W-D+W)*(W-D)$
- Percentage revenue loss =  $(D(3W-D)/2W^2)*100\%$
- Try some examples
  - Lifetime  $2W=52$  wks, delay  $D=4$  wks
  - $(4*(3*26 - 4)/2*26^2) = 22\%$
  - Lifetime  $2W=52$  wks, delay  $D=10$  wks
  - $(10*(3*26 - 10)/2*26^2) = 50\%$
  - Delays are costly!

# NRE and unit cost metrics

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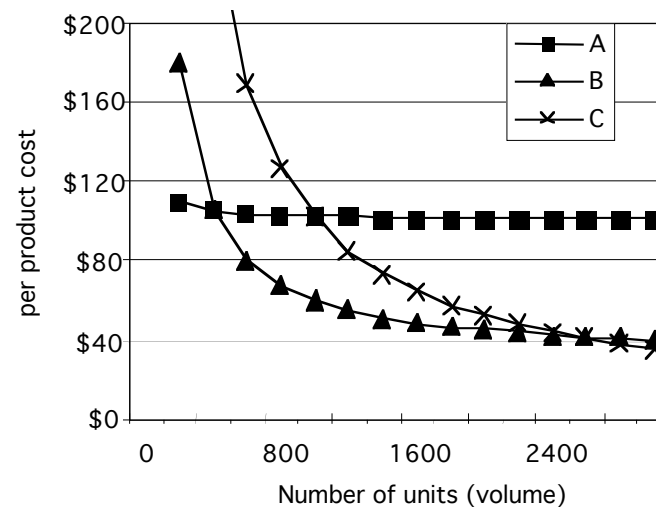
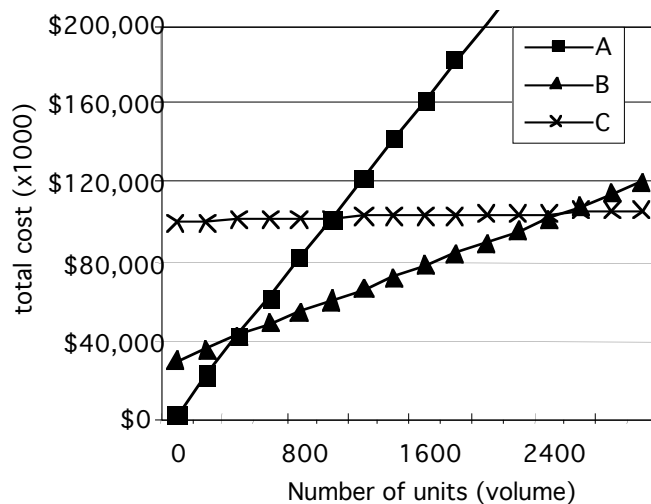
- Costs:
  - Unit cost: the monetary cost of manufacturing each copy of the system, excluding NRE cost
  - NRE cost (Non-Recurring Engineering cost): The one-time monetary cost of designing the system
  - $total\ cost = NRE\ cost + unit\ cost * \#\ of\ units$
  - $per-product\ cost = total\ cost / \#\ of\ units$   
 $= (NRE\ cost / \#\ of\ units) + unit\ cost$

- Example
  - NRE=\$2000, unit=\$100
  - For 10 units
    - $total\ cost = \$2000 + 10 * \$100 = \$3000$
    - $per-product\ cost = \underbrace{\$2000/10} + \$100 = \$300$

*Amortizing NRE cost over the units results in an additional \$200 per unit*

# NRE and unit cost metrics

- Compare technologies by costs -- best depends on quantity
  - Technology A: NRE=\$2,000, unit=\$100
  - Technology B: NRE=\$30,000, unit=\$30
  - Technology C: NRE=\$100,000, unit=\$2



- But, must also consider time-to-market



# The performance design metric

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- Widely-used measure of system, widely-abused
  - Clock frequency, instructions per second – not good measures
  - Digital camera example – a user cares about how fast it processes images, not clock speed or instructions per second
- Latency (response time)
  - Time between task start and end
  - e.g., Camera's A and B process images in 0.25 seconds
- Throughput
  - Tasks per second, e.g. Camera A processes 4 images per second
  - Throughput can be more than latency seems to imply due to concurrency, e.g. Camera B may process 8 images per second (by capturing a new image while previous image is being stored).
- *Speedup* of B over S = B's performance / A's performance
  - Throughput speedup =  $8/4 = 2$

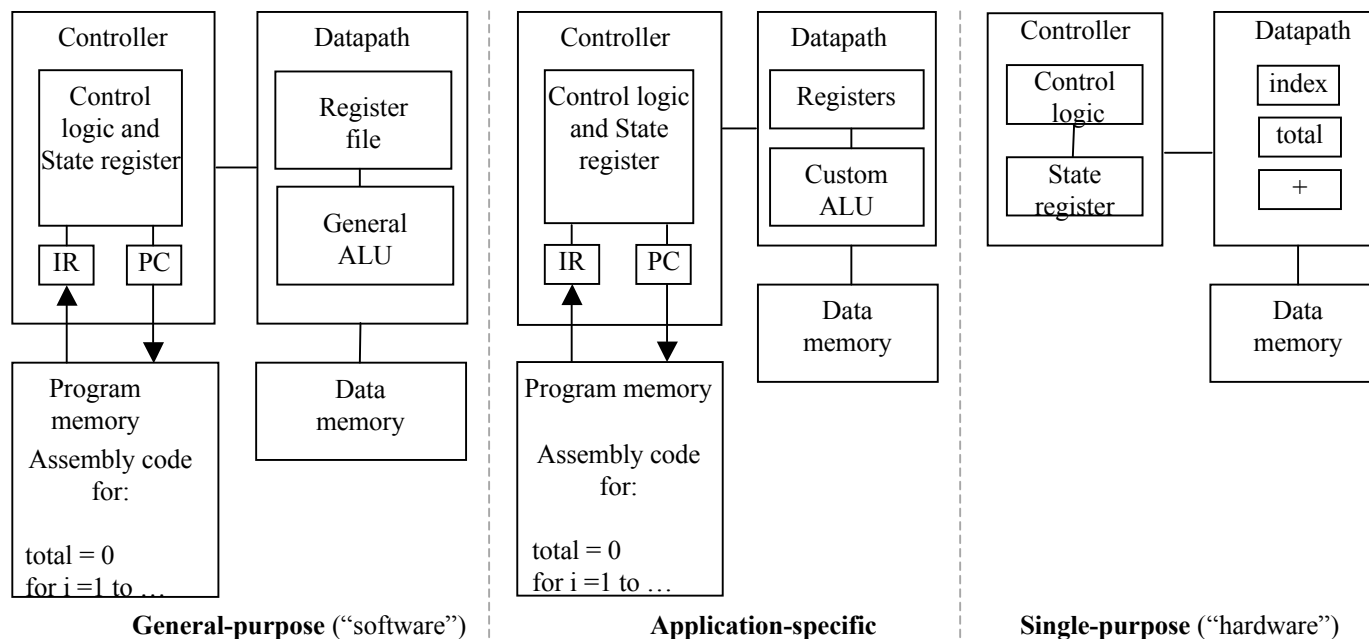
# Three key embedded system technologies

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- Technology
  - A manner of accomplishing a task, especially using technical processes, methods, or knowledge
- Three key technologies for embedded systems
  - Processor technology
  - IC technology
  - Design technology

# Processor technology

- The architecture of the computation engine used to implement a system's desired functionality
- Processor does not have to be programmable
  - “Processor” *not* equal to general-purpose processor



# Processor technology

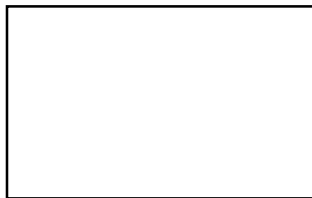
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- Processors vary in their customization for the problem at hand

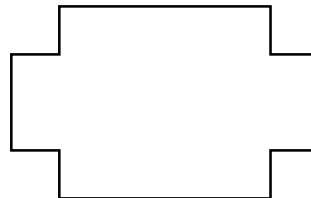


Desired  
functionality

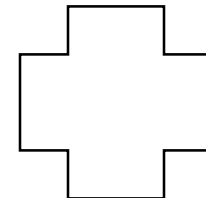
```
total = 0
for i = 1 to N loop
  total += M[i]
end loop
```



General-purpose  
processor



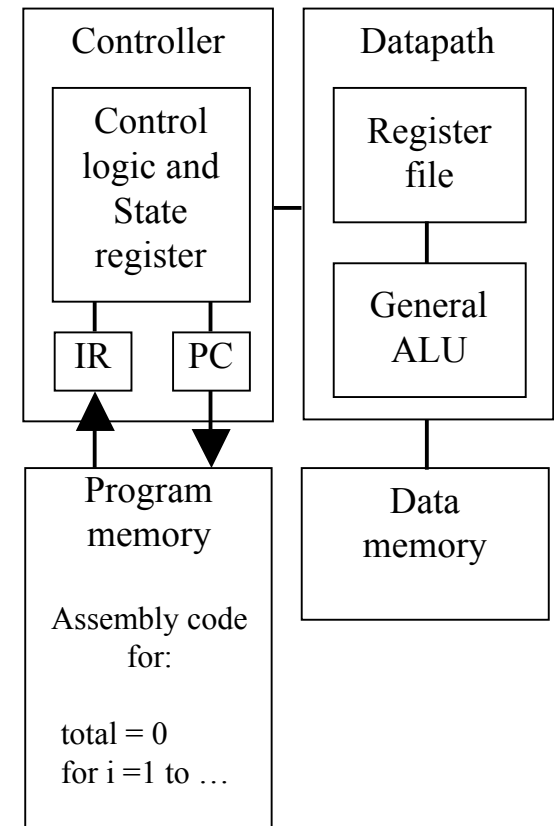
Application-specific  
processor



Single-purpose  
processor

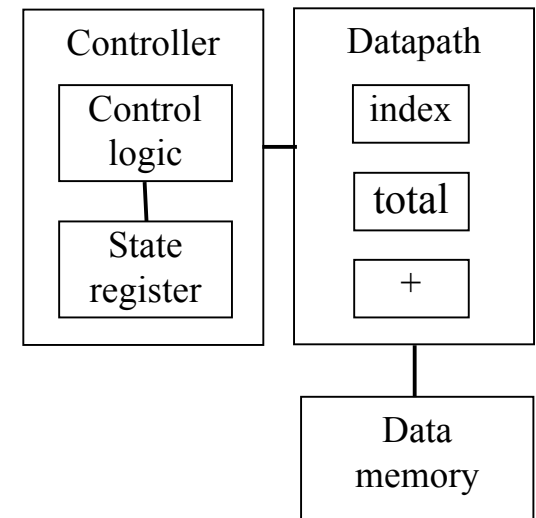
# General-purpose processors

- Programmable device used in a variety of applications
  - Also known as “microprocessor”
- Features
  - Program memory
  - General datapath with large register file and general ALU
- User benefits
  - Low time-to-market and NRE costs
  - High flexibility
- “Pentium” the most well-known, but there are hundreds of others



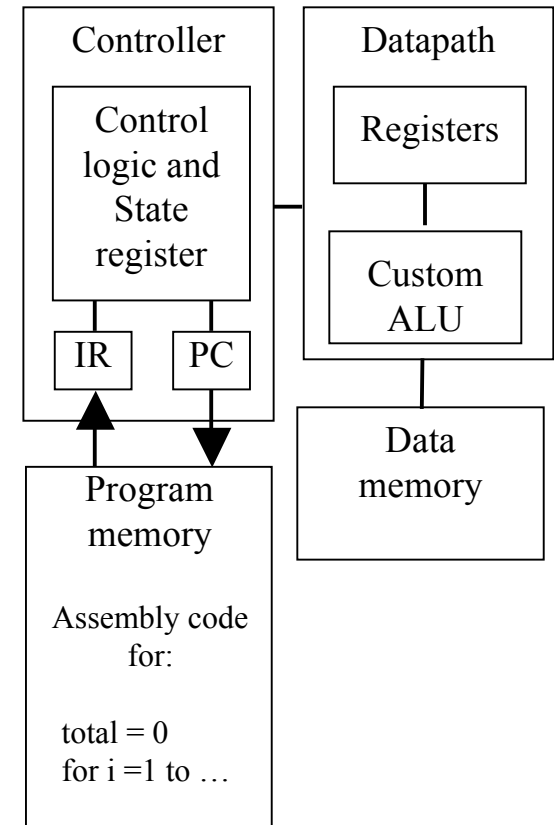
# Single-purpose processors

- Digital circuit designed to execute exactly one program
  - a.k.a. coprocessor, accelerator or peripheral
- Features
  - Contains only the components needed to execute a single program
  - No program memory
- Benefits
  - Fast
  - Low power
  - Small size



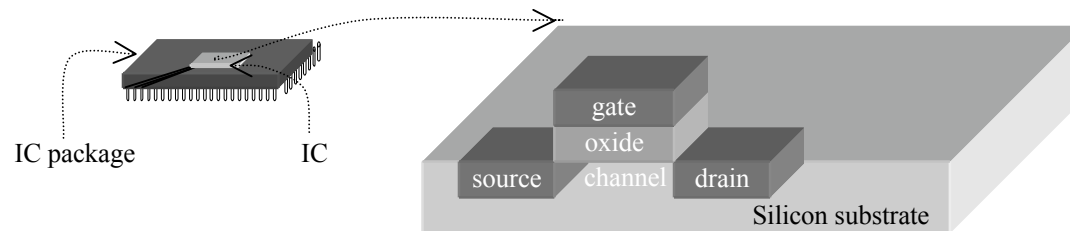
# Application-specific processors

- Programmable processor optimized for a particular class of applications having common characteristics
  - Compromise between general-purpose and single-purpose processors
- Features
  - Program memory
  - Optimized datapath
  - Special functional units
- Benefits
  - Some flexibility, good performance, size and power



# IC technology

- The manner in which a digital (gate-level) implementation is mapped onto an IC
  - IC: Integrated circuit, or “chip”
  - IC technologies differ in their customization to a design
  - IC’s consist of numerous layers (perhaps 10 or more)
    - IC technologies differ with respect to who builds each layer and when





# IC technology

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- Three types of IC technologies
  - Full-custom/VLSI
  - Semi-custom ASIC (gate array and standard cell)
  - PLD (Programmable Logic Device)

# Full-custom/VLSI

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- All layers are optimized for an embedded system's particular digital implementation
  - Placing transistors
  - Sizing transistors
  - Routing wires
- Benefits
  - Excellent performance, small size, low power
- Drawbacks
  - High NRE cost (e.g., \$300k), long time-to-market

# Semi-custom

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- Lower layers are fully or partially built
  - Designers are left with routing of wires and maybe placing some blocks
- Benefits
  - Good performance, good size, less NRE cost than a full-custom implementation (perhaps \$10k to \$100k)
- Drawbacks
  - Still require weeks to months to develop

# PLD (Programmable Logic Device)

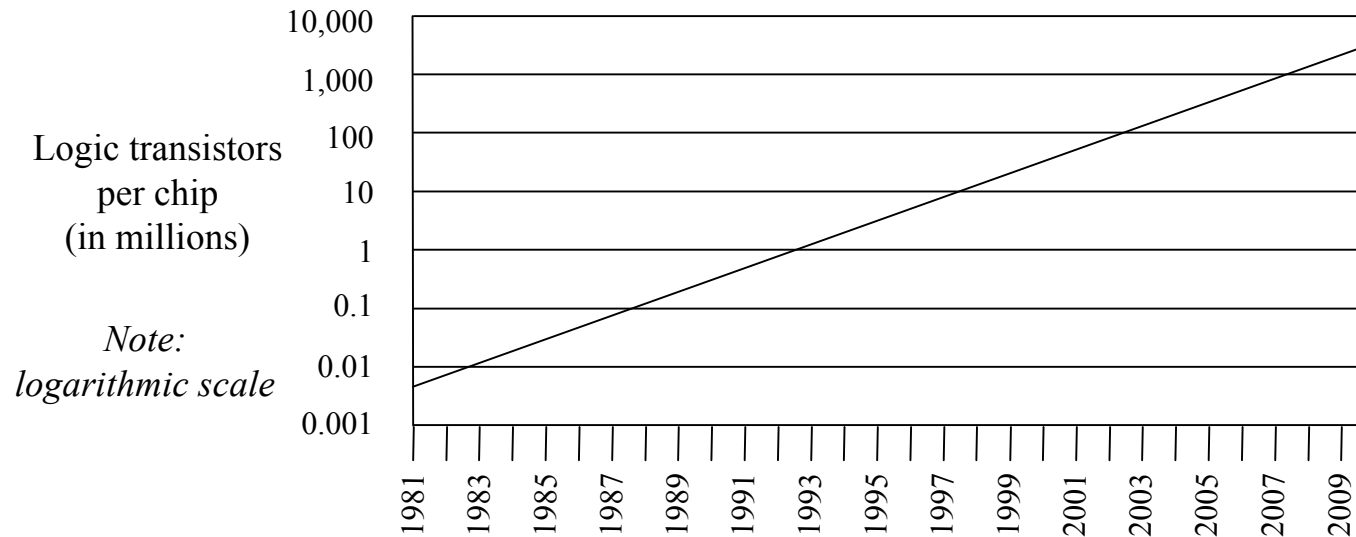
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- All layers already exist
  - Designers can purchase an IC
  - Connections on the IC are either created or destroyed to implement desired functionality
  - Field-Programmable Gate Array (FPGA) very popular
- Benefits
  - Low NRE costs, almost instant IC availability
- Drawbacks
  - Bigger, expensive (perhaps \$30 per unit), power hungry, slower

# Moore's law

- The most important trend in embedded systems
  - Predicted in 1965 by Intel co-founder Gordon Moore

***IC transistor capacity has doubled roughly every 18 months for the past several decades***



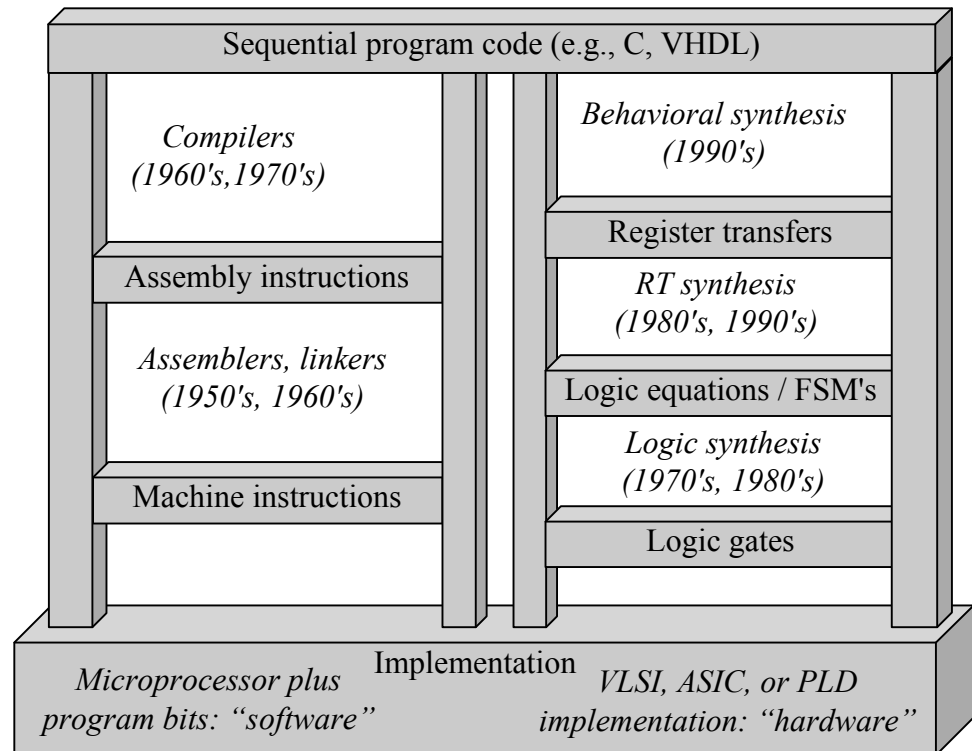
# The Future of Moore's law

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- Does Moore's Law still hold?
  - This growth rate has been steady until ~2005
  - Factors limiting transistor counts
    - *Power consumption (leakage power)*
    - *Temperature*
    - *Development of new technology (65nm, 45nm, 30nm...)*
- New Trend
  - Multiple computing cores
  - Not significant higher frequency
  - Nanotechnology
- “The law has often met obstacles that appeared insurmountable, before soon surmounting them.” - Wikipedia.

# The co-design ladder

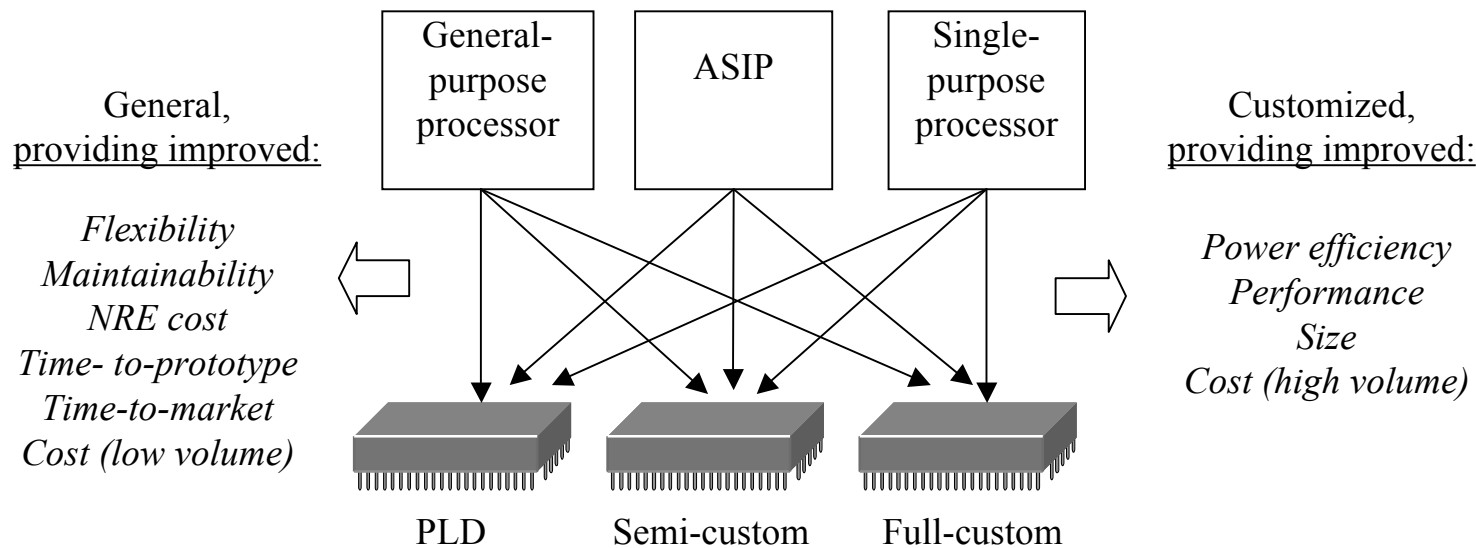
- In the past:
  - Hardware and software design technologies were very different
  - Recent maturation of synthesis enables a unified view of hardware and software
- Hardware/software “codesign”



***The choice of hardware versus software for a particular function is simply a tradeoff among various design metrics, like performance, power, size, NRE cost, and especially flexibility; there is no fundamental difference between what hardware or software can implement.***

# Independence of processor and IC technologies

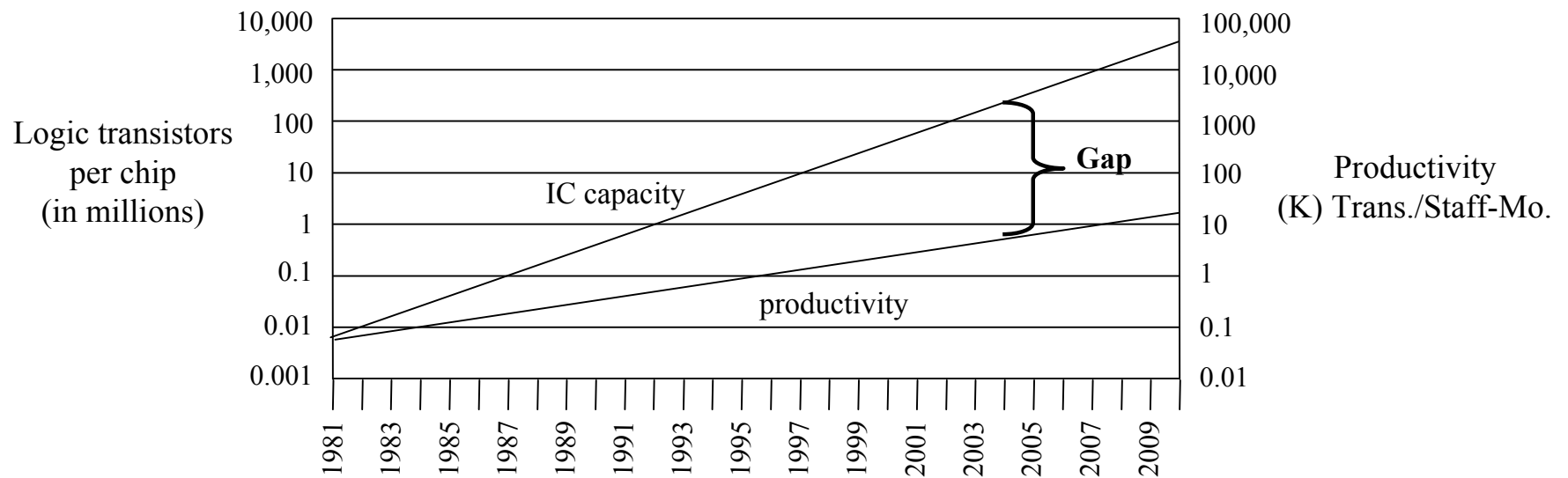
- Basic tradeoff
  - General vs. custom
  - With respect to processor technology or IC technology
  - The two technologies are independent





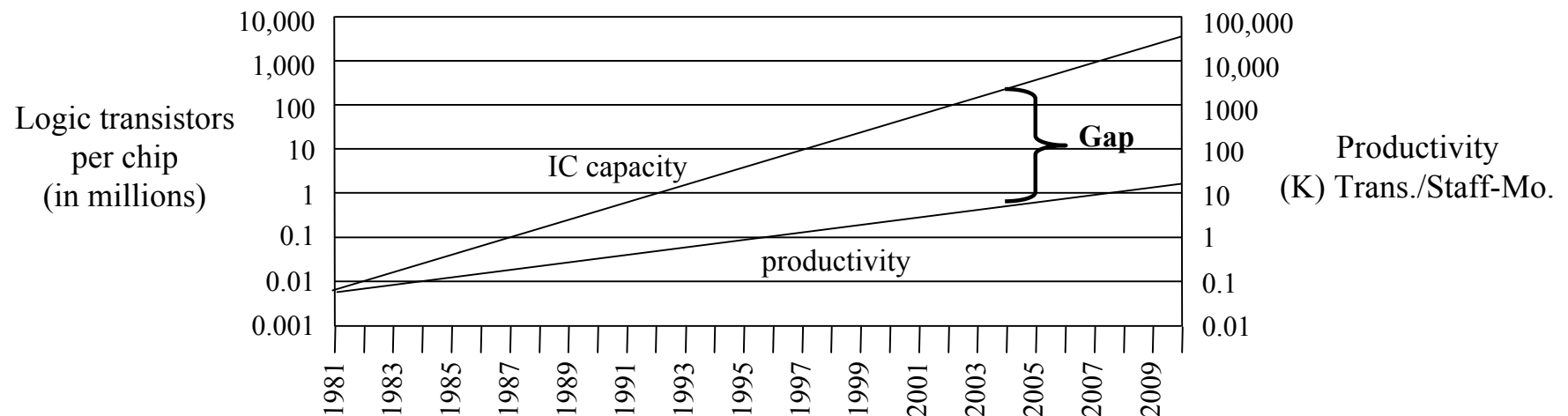
# Design productivity gap

- While designer productivity has grown at an impressive rate over the past decades, the rate of improvement has not kept pace with chip capacity



# Design productivity gap

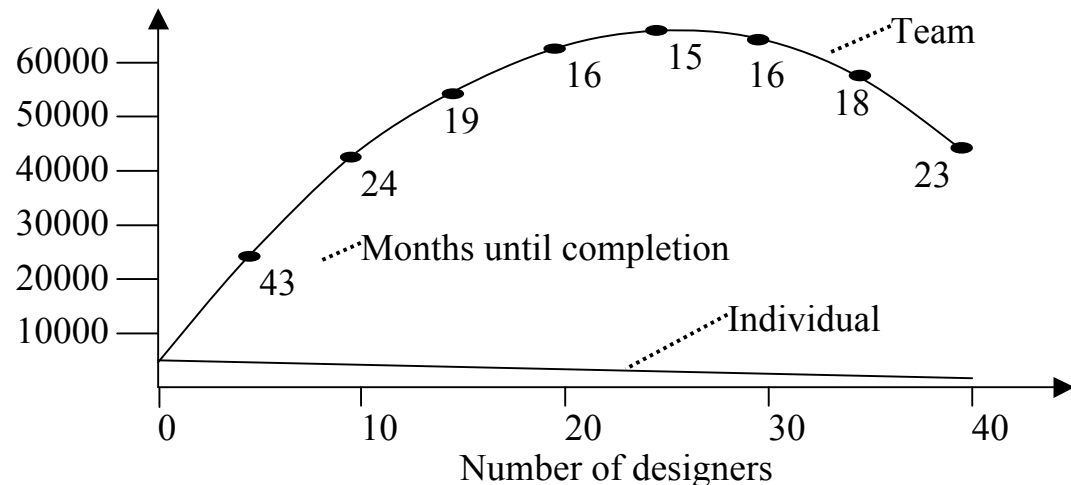
- 1981 leading edge chip required 100 designer months
  - 10,000 transistors / 100 transistors/month
- 2002 leading edge chip requires 30,000 designer months
  - 150,000,000 / 5000 transistors/month
- Designer cost increase from \$1M to \$300M



# The mythical man-month

- The situation is even worse than the productivity gap indicates
- In theory, adding designers to team reduces project completion time
- In reality, productivity per designer decreases due to complexities of team management and communication
- In the software community, known as “the mythical man-month” (Brooks 1975)
- At some point, can actually lengthen project completion time! (“Too many cooks”)

- 1M transistors, 1 designer=5000 trans/month
- Each additional designer reduces for 100 trans/month
- So 2 designers produce 4900 trans/month each



# Summary

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- Embedded systems are everywhere
- Key challenge: optimization of design metrics
  - Design metrics compete with one another
- A unified view of hardware and software is necessary to improve productivity
- Three key technologies
  - Processor: general-purpose, application-specific, single-purpose
  - IC: Full-custom, semi-custom, PLD, Moore's Law
  - Design: hw/sw co-design, design productivity

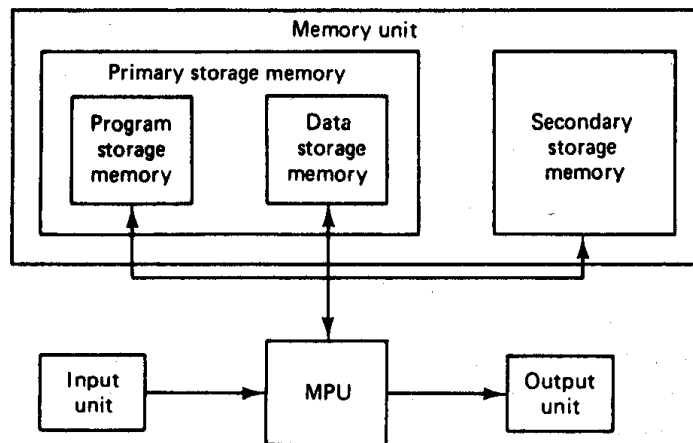
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## Introduction to Microprocessors and Microcomputers

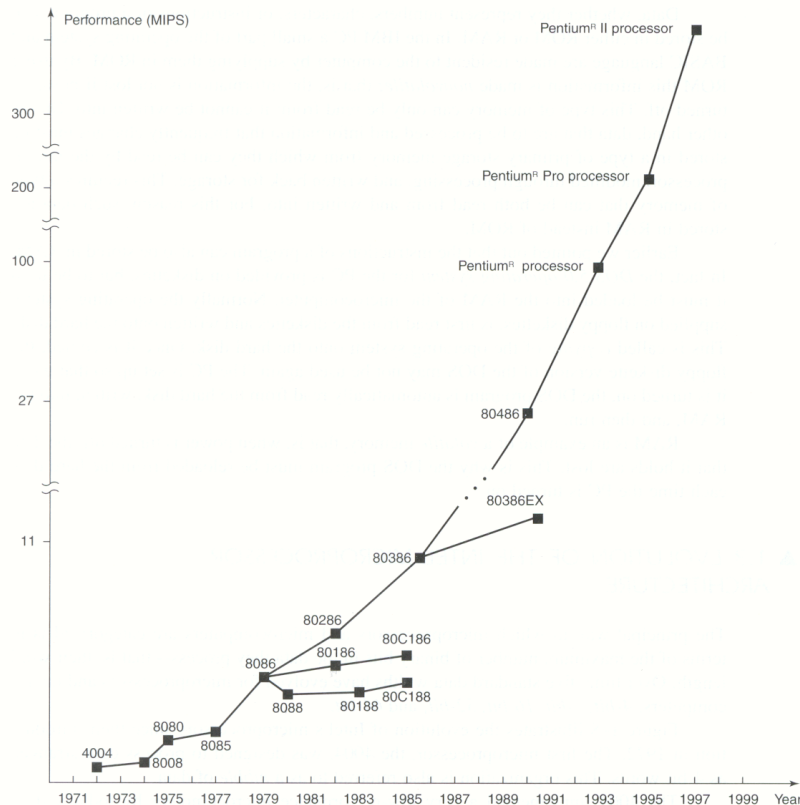
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# Elements of a Microcomputer



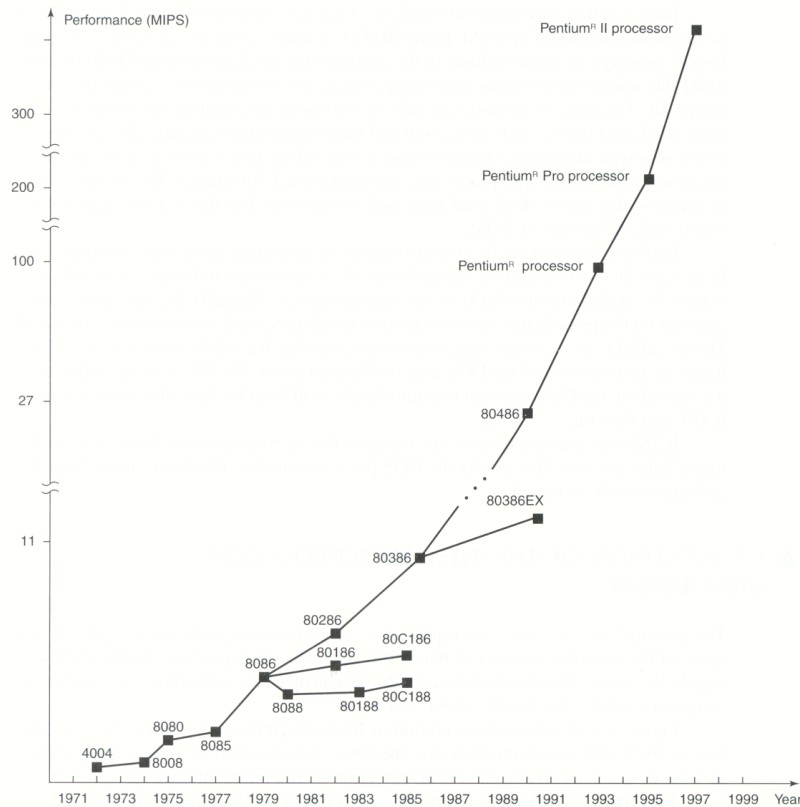
- Hardware of a microcomputer is divided into 4 functions sections
  - Input unit
  - Microprocessing unit
  - Memory unit
  - Output unit
- Microprocessing unit—MPU
  - 8088, ARM, Xscale, 68K, MSP430,
- Memory unit
  - Used to store information such as numbers and characters
  - Memory subsystem is partitioned into
    - Primary storage memory— internal storage
    - Secondary storage memory—external storage

## 1.3 Evolution of the Intel Microprocessor Architecture— Size and Performance



- Standard Sizes of Microprocessors
  - Organized by the maximum size data they can process—4-bit through 64-bit
  - Evolved over time as semiconductor processor technology advanced
- 4-bit Microprocessor: 4004—1972
  - Processes 4-bit data (nibble)
  - Used in calculators
- 8-bit microprocessors: 8080/8085/Z80--1974
  - Processes 8-bit data (byte)
  - Used in instruments, cash registers, and small personal computers
  - Birth of the multi-chip microcomputer—MPU plus special purpose peripheral chips for I/O

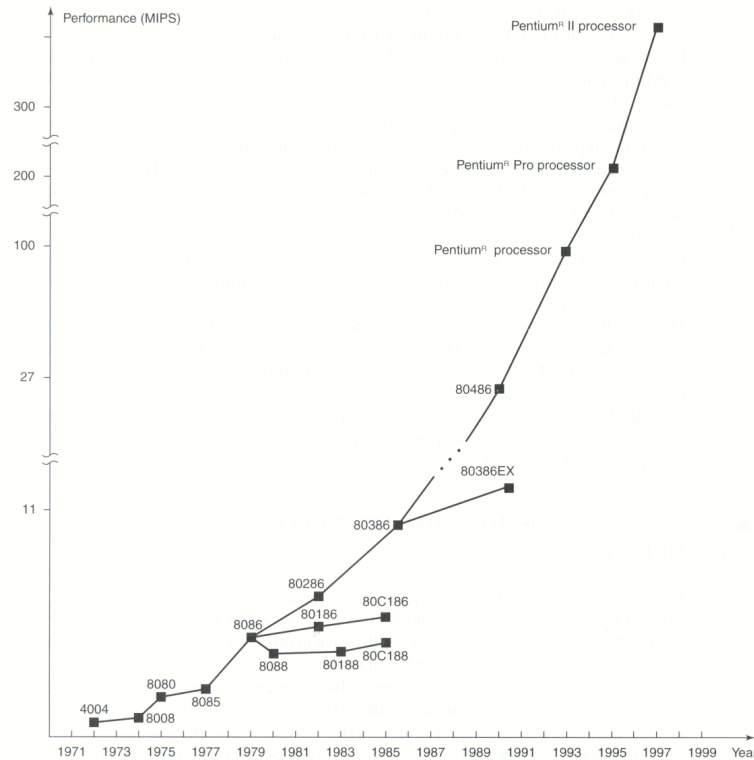
# Size and Performance



- 16-bit Microprocessor: 8088/8086—1979
  - Processes 16-bit data (word)
  - Wide spread use; birth of the personal computer industry
  - High integration solutions—80188/80186
  - Led to more rapid advances in memory and I/O peripheral technology
- 32-bit microprocessors: 80386, 80486, Pentium—1985-today
  - Processes 32-bit data (double-word)
  - Initiated drive to high performance
  - Advanced architecture taking into account needs of operating systems
- 64-bit microprocessors: Itanium, Athlon64,

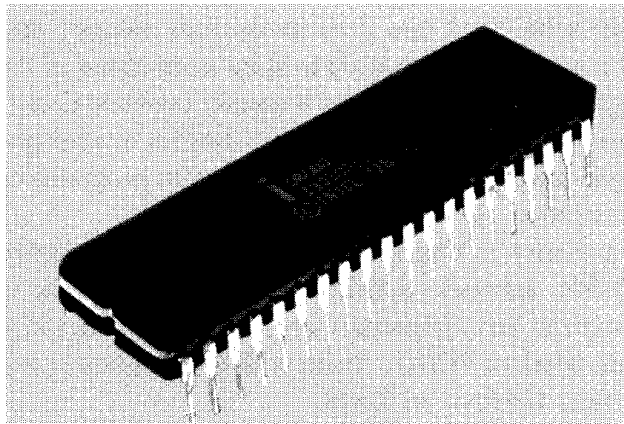


### 1.3 Evolution of the Intel Microprocessor Architecture— Size and Performance



- 64-bit Microprocessor: Itanium—2001
  - Processes 64-bit data (quad word)
  - Applies parallel processing to achieve higher performance at lower clock rate
  - Targeted at multi-processor computer applications—workstations and file servers

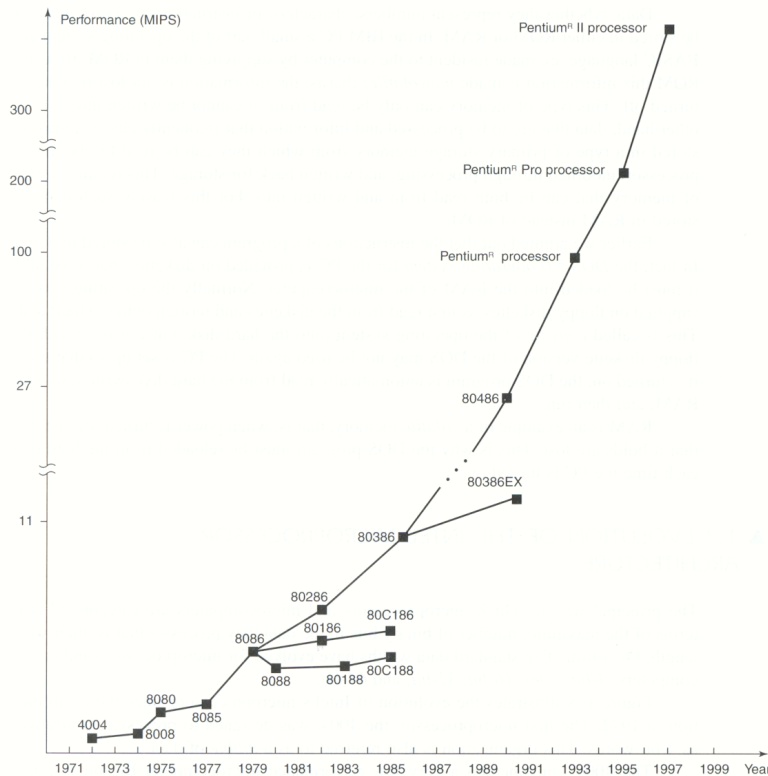
## 1.3 Evolution of the Intel Microprocessor Architecture— 8088/8086 Microprocessors



- First generation 16-bit microprocessor from Intel Corporation
  - 8086 Microprocessor—1979
    - Full 16-bit architecture
    - Internally processed 16-bit data
    - Externally accessed 16-bit wide data memory
  - 8088 Microprocessor—1980
    - Processed 16-bit data internally
    - Accessed 8-bit wide data memory externally
    - Permitted lower cost system solution
    - Resulted in lower performance
    - Selected as the processor for the original IBM PC
- Replaced by 80286 Microprocessor—1982

# Size and Performance

- Performance did not become a driving issue until late 1980s– 386 to 486 transition
- Measure of performance
  - MIPS—How many millions of instructions a processor could execute per second
    - MIPS at least doubled with each new generation of processor
      - 80386  $\approx$  11MIPS
      - 80486  $\approx$  27 MIPS
      - Pentium  $\approx$  100 MIPS
    - Processor performance of a family first improved by internal architectural advances
    - Additional improvement achieved by increasing clock rate
    - Today the architectural feature driving performance is parallel execution



# Measuring Performance

- Methods
  - MIPS—Processor performance
  - Drystone V1.1— System level performance (compared to performance of VAX 1.1 computer )
  - iCOMP—Intel introduced method of comparing system level performance of 32-bit 80x86 processor based PCs
- iCOMP
  - Rating based on result of a suite of performance components weighted by their normal occurrence in widely used applications
    - **Integer mathematics**
    - **Floating-point mathematics**
    - **Graphics**
    - **Video**
    - **Etc.**
- **SPB Benchmark for Pocket PCs (Homework)**

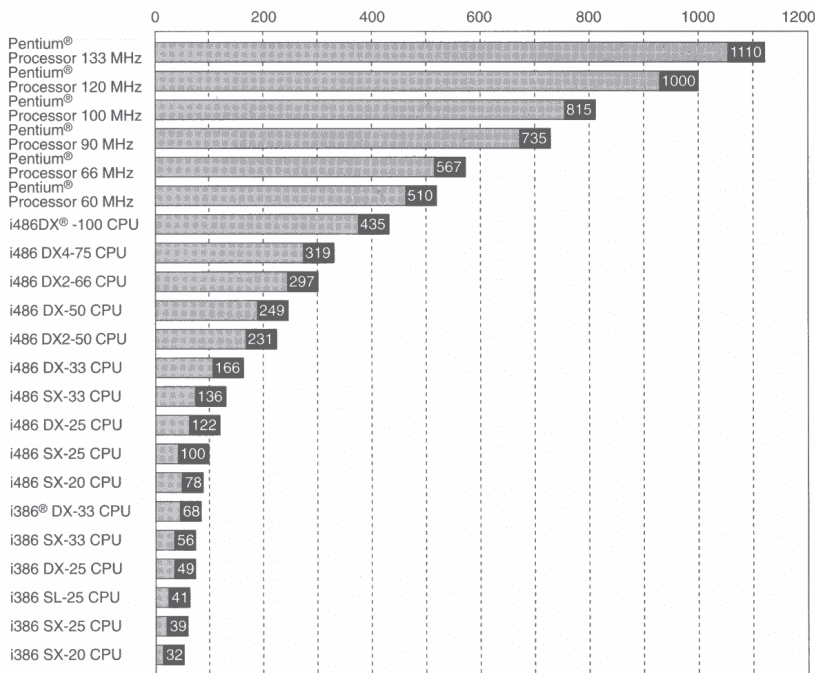
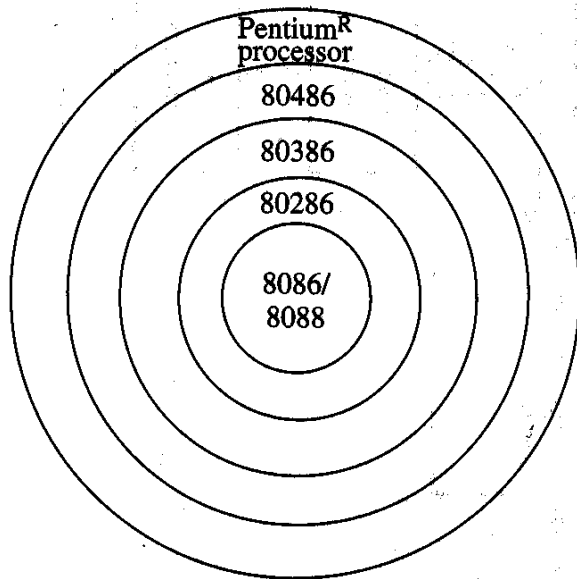


Figure 1-9 iCOMP index rating chart. (Reprinted by permission of Intel Corp. Copyright/Intel Corp. 1993.)

# Software Compatibility



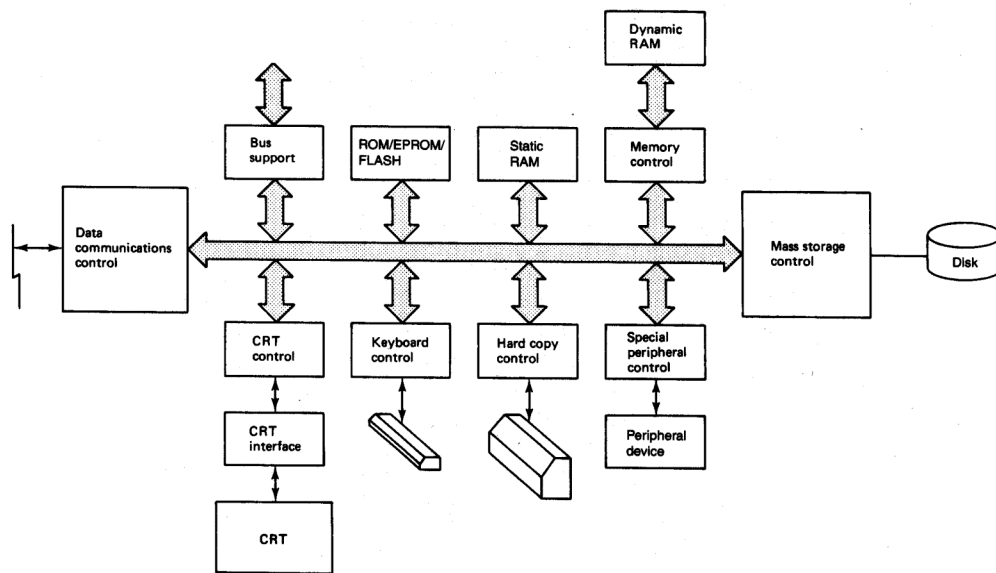
- Compatibility is a critical need of microprocessors designed for reprogrammable applications
  - New family members must be a superset of the earlier
  - Permits application programs and OS written for the earlier members to run unchanged on the new member
- Application Instruction set of 8088/8086 is known as “base instruction set”
  - Significant enhancements in 80286 and 80386
  - Limited changes in 80486 and Pentium
  - Programs written with base instruction set run on all processor families
  - Referred to as “upward compatibility”

# Real and Protected Modes

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- Real- and protected mode system software architecture introduced with 80286
  - Real-mode— operates like a high-performance 8088/8086
  - Protected mode—implements advanced system architecture for OS
    - System control instruction set introduced with 80286 and enhanced in future generations
    - Much larger memory address space— 1Gbyte for 80286 and 64Tbytes for 80386
    - Memory management
    - Protection
    - Multitasking
    - Virtual 8086 mode

# Peripheral Support



- A reprogrammable microcomputer is implemented as a multi-chip microcomputer

Requires a wide variety of interfaces

- ROM/RAM memory
- Keyboard connection
- Floppy disk drive
- Hard disk drive
- Serial communication connections
- Local area network connection

Special purpose VLSI devices called “peripherals ICs” have been developed as highly integrated solutions for most of these application

# Number Systems— Decimal Number Representation

	MSD					LSD		
0	$10^{+3}$	$10^{+2}$	$10^{+1}$	$10^0$	.	$10^{-1}$	$10^{-2}$	$10^{-3}$
1								
2								
3								
4								
5								
6								
7								
8								
9								

Weights

Reference digit

- Numbers we use everyday are express using the decimal number system
- Characteristics of the decimal number system
  - Base or radix—number of symbols used—10
  - Coefficients—set of symbols used to represent numerical quantities—0, 1,.....9
  - Positional notation—digit
    - Positional notation that determines the value a symbol represents
      - Units digit, Hundreds digit, Tenths digit,.....
  - Radix point—marks boundary between whole part of number (integer) and fractional part of number—decimal point(.)
  - Weight—positional value of a digit—powers of 10
    - Units =  $10^0 = 1$
    - Hundreds =  $10^{+2} = 100$
    - Tenths =  $10^{-1} = 1/10 = 0.1$



# Decimal Number Representation

- **Example:**

735.23

- **Most significant digit (MSD)**

- Value = 7
- Digit = Hundreds
- Weight =  $10^{+2} = 100$

- **Least significant digit (LSD)**

- Value = 3
- Digit = hundredths
- Weight =  $10^{-2} = 1/100 = .01$

- **Computing the value of a number from its digit values and weights**

$$\begin{aligned} 735.23 &= 7 \times 10^{+2} + 3 \times 10^{+1} + 5 \times 10^0 + 2 \times 10^{-1} + 3 \times 10^{-2} \\ &= 7(100) + 3(10) + 5(1) + 2(.1) + 3(.01) \\ &= 700 + 30 + 5 + .2 + .03 \end{aligned}$$

$$735.23 = 735.23$$

	MSD						LSD	
Weights	$10^{+3}$	$10^{+2}$	$10^{+1}$	$10^0$	.	$10^{-1}$	$10^{-2}$	$10^{-3}$
	1000	100	10	1	.	1/10	1/100	1/1000

Reference digit

0  
1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9



# Range of Binary Integer Numbers

n	2 <sup>n</sup>	n	2 <sup>n</sup>	n	2 <sup>n</sup>
0	1	8	256	16	65,536
1	2	9	512	17	131,072
2	4	10	1,024	18	262,144
3	8	11	2,048	19	524,288
4	16	12	4,096	20	1,048,576
5	32	13	8,192	21	2,097,152
6	64	14	16,384	22	4,194,304
7	128	15	32,768	23	8,388,608

- In microcomputer systems, binary numbers that are used to express address and data have a fixed number of bits
  - Address = 20-bits
  - Data:
    - 8-bit = byte
    - 16-bit = word
    - 32-bit = double-word
- The number of unique binary integers that can be formed with a specific number of bits (n) equals 2<sup>n</sup>
  - 8-bit (byte) = 2<sup>8</sup> = 256
  - 16-bit (word) = 2<sup>16</sup> = 65,536 (64K)
- Range of possible unsigned integer numbers is given in general as
$$2^n - 1 \geq \text{Range} \geq 0$$
  - EX: 2<sup>8</sup>-1 ≥ 8-bit (byte) ≥ 0  
(256-1) ≥ 8-bit (byte) ≥ 0  
255 ≥ 8-bit (byte) ≥ 0

# Decimal Equivalent of a Binary Number

Decimal number	Binary number
0	0
1	1
2	10
3	11
4	100
5	101
6	110
7	111
8	1000
9	1001
10	1010
11	1011
12	1100
13	1101
14	1110
15	1111

- All values may be expressed as both decimal and binary numbers
- Number system of a value is identified by a subscript equal to the weight placed to the left of the LSB (if not show base-10 understood)
  - Examples:  
 $0_{10} = 0_2$   
 $1_{10} = 1_2$   
 $3_{10} = 11_2$   
 $10_{10} = 1010_2$
- In the study of microcomputer circuits and software operation, it is frequently necessary to convert numbers between binary and decimal forms.

# Decimal Equivalent of a Binary Number

- Finding the decimal equivalent of a binary number
  - Multiply the value in each bit by its weight
  - Add the results of the individual products for each bit

$$\begin{aligned}1100_2 &= 1(2^3) + 1(2^2) + 0(2^1) + 0(2^0) \\ &= 1(8) + 1(4) + 0(2) + 0(1) \\ &= 8 + 4\end{aligned}$$

$$1100_2 = 12_{10}$$

**Example 1:  $1100_2 = ?_{10}$**

	product
Most significant bit	$1 \times 2^3 = 1(8) = 8$
	$1 \times 2^2 = 1(4) = 4$
	$0 \times 2^1 = 0(2) = 0$
Least significant bit	$0 \times 2^0 = 0(1) = \underline{0}$
	sum 12

$$1100_2 = 12_{10}$$

# Decimal Equivalent of a Binary Number

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- Example 2:  $101.01_2 = ?_{10}$

$$\begin{aligned}101.01 &= 1(2^{+2}) + 0(2^{+1}) + 1(2^0) + 0(2^{-1}) + 1(2^{-2}) \\ &= 1(4) + 0(2) + 1(1) + 0(\frac{1}{2}) + 1(\frac{1}{4}) \\ &= 4 + 1 + .25 \\ 101.01 &= 5.25_{10}\end{aligned}$$

	product
Most significant bit	$1 \times 2^{+2} = 1(4) = 4$
	$0 \times 2^{+1} = 0(2) = 0$
	$1 \times 2^0 = 1(1) = 1$
	$0 \times 2^{-1} = 0(1/2) = 0$
Least significant bit	$1 \times 2^{-2} = 1(1/4) = \underline{0.25}$
	sum 5.25

$$101.01_2 = 5.25_{10}$$

# Binary Equivalent of an Integer Decimal Number

Finding the binary equivalent of an integer decimal number—successive division process

1. Divide the decimal number by 2; bring out the remainder to the right as the coefficient for the corresponding binary bit
2. Repeat this division operation on each result until the quotient is 0; each time using the remainder as the coefficient of the binary bit
3. Collect the coefficients to form the binary number
  - First remainder is the least significant bit
  - Last remainder is the most significant bit

2	12	→	0	LSB
2	6	→	0	
2	3	→	1	
2	1	→	1	MSB
	0			

$$12_{10} = 1100_2$$

Example 1:  $12_{10} = ?_2$

	quotient	remainder
$12 \div 2 = 6$		→ 0 LSB
$6 \div 2 = 3$		→ 0
$3 \div 2 = 1$		→ 1
$1 \div 2 = 0$		→ 1 MSB

# Binary Equivalent of an Integer Decimal Number

- **Example 2:  $31_{10} = ?$**

2		31	→	1	LSB
2		15	→	1	
2		7	→	1	
2		3	→	1	
2		1	→	1	MSB
		0			

$$31_{10} = 11111_2$$

quotient	remainder
$31 \div 2 = 15$	→ 1 LSB
$15 \div 2 = 7$	→ 1
$7 \div 2 = 3$	→ 1
$3 \div 2 = 1$	→ 1
$1 \div 2 = 0$	→ 1 MSB

$$31_{10} = 11111_2$$



# Hexadecimal Number Representation

0  
1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
A  
B  
C  
D  
E  
F

	MSD					LSD	
Weights	$16^{+3}$	$16^{+2}$	$16^{+1}$	$16^0$	.	$16^{-1}$	$16^{-2}$
	4096	256	16	1	.	1/16	1/256

Reference digit

- Inputs and outputs of logic and microcomputer circuitry that involve many bits are frequently expressed as hexadecimal numbers instead of binary numbers for compactness

- Addresses
- Data
- Instruction code

## Characteristics of the hexadecimal number system

- Base (radix)—16
- Coefficients (set of symbols)—0 through 9 and A through F
- Positional notation—hexadecimal digit
- Radix point—hexadecimal point (.)
- Weight (powers of 16)
  - $16^0 = 1$
  - $16^{+2} = 256$
  - $16^{-1} = 1/16 = 0.0625$

# Equivalent Decimal, Binary and Hexadecimal Numbers

Decimal number	Binary number	Hexadecimal number
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
10	1010	A
11	1011	B
12	1100	C
13	1101	D
14	1110	E
15	1111	F

- All values may be expressed as decimal, binary, and hexadecimal numbers
- Binary equivalent of hexadecimal numbers are expressed 4-bits wide
- Examples:

$$1_{16} = 0001_2$$

$$7_{16} = 0111_2$$

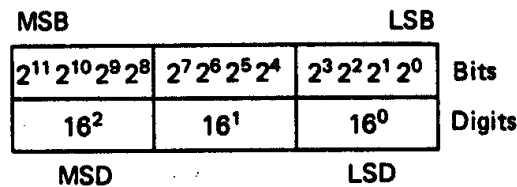
$$9_{16} = 1001_2$$

$$A_{16} = 1010_2$$

$$F_{16} = 1111_2$$

# Equivalent Decimal, Binary and Hexadecimal Numbers

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



$$\begin{array}{r}
 1001:0000:1110 \\
 \quad \vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots \\
 \quad 9 \quad : \quad 0 \quad : \quad E \\
 100100001110_2 = 90E_{16}
 \end{array}$$

- Hexadecimal equivalent of a binary number—grouping of bits

- Starting from the binary point, separate bits into groups of four

- Replace each group of four binary bits by its equivalent hexadecimal number

- Most significant 0s may be ignored

- Example 1:

$$100100001110_2 = ?_{16}$$

Solution:

# Equivalent Decimal, Binary and Hexadecimal Numbers

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- **Example 2:**

$$0000011011110001_2 = ?_{16}$$

**Solution:**

$$\begin{array}{cccc} 0000 & : & 0110 & : & 1111 & : & 0001 \\ & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ & & 0 & : & 6 & : & F & : & 1 \\ 0000011011110001_2 & = & 6F1_{16} \end{array}$$

# Equivalent Decimal, Binary and Hexadecimal Numbers

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

MSB				LSB								
$2^{11}$	$2^{10}$	$2^9$	$2^8$	$2^7$	$2^6$	$2^5$	$2^4$	$2^3$	$2^2$	$2^1$	$2^0$	Bits
$16^2$				$16^1$				$16^0$				Digits
MSD				LSD								

- **Binary equivalent of a hexadecimal number**

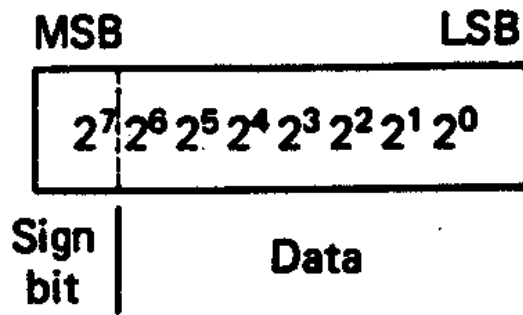
1. Replace the value in each hexadecimal digit with its 4-bit binary equivalent
2. Most significant 0s may be ignored

**Example 1:  $A5_{16} = ?_2$**

$$\begin{array}{r}
 A : 5 \\
 1010 : 0101 \\
 A5_{16} = 10100101_2
 \end{array}$$

# Signed Integer Numbers

- Data processed by a microcomputer can also represent signed integer numbers
- Signed-magnitude format of a signed integer
  - The most significant bit of the element of data is called the sign bit
    - Sign bit = 0 → + integer number
    - Sign bit = 1 → - integer number



- Byte-wide signed integer
  - MSB = sign
  - 7 less significant bits = magnitude of the number
  - Range of value for a byte-wide signed integer
$$+(2^{n-1}-1) \geq \text{Range} \geq -(2^{n-1}-1)$$

Ex. N=8

$$+(2^7-1) \geq \text{Range} \geq -(2^7-1)$$

$$+127 \geq \text{Range} \geq -127$$

- Word-wide signed integer—MSB = Sign and 15-bit magnitude
- Double word-wide signed integer—MSB = Sign and 31-bit magnitude

# Signed Integer Numbers

---

- **Example:**

Find the value of the byte-wide signed number

$01110000_2$

**Solution:**

$$\begin{array}{r} 0:1110000 \\ +:1(2^6) + 1(2^5) + 1(2^4) + 0(2^3) + 0(2^2) + 0(2^1) + 0(2^0) \\ +:64 + 32 + 16 \\ 01110000 = +112 \end{array}$$

# Binary Encoded Decimal Code

- **Binary coded decimal (BCD) code**
  - BCD coded numbers directly added and subtracted by microcomputer
  - Unique 4-bit code  $A_3A_2A_1A_0$  represents the ten decimal numbers—0 through 9
    - 0 through 9 are simply coded with their equivalent 4-bit binary values
      - $0_{10} = 0000_2$
      - $1_{10} = 0001_2$
      - $9_{10} = 1001_2$
  - Called “weighted code”
    - Each bit is assigned a “weight”— $2^0$  through  $2^3$
    - Each binary combination is numerically equivalent to the decimal number it represents

Decimal	BCD
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111
8	1000
9	1001

(a)

Bits	$A_3$	$A_2$	$A_1$	$A_0$
Weights	$2^3$	$2^2$	$2^1$	$2^0$
	8	4	2	1

(b)



# Binary Encoded Decimal Code

Decimal	BCD
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111
8	1000
9	1001

(a)

Bits	A <sub>3</sub>	A <sub>2</sub>	A <sub>1</sub>	A <sub>0</sub>
Weights	2 <sup>3</sup>	2 <sup>2</sup>	2 <sup>1</sup>	2 <sup>0</sup>
	8	4	2	1

(b)

- **Example 1:**

**Show how the decimal number 84 is coded as a byte-wide BCD coded number.**

**Solution:**  $8 = 1000_{\text{BCD}}$   
 $4 = 0100_{\text{BCD}}$   
 $84_{10} = 10000100_{\text{BCD}}$

- **Example 2:**

**Find the decimal value of the BCD coded number**

$$00010010_{\text{BCD}}$$

**Solution:**

$$0001_{\text{BCD}} 0010_{\text{BCD}} = 12_{10}$$

# ASCII Code

				b <sub>7</sub>	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
				b <sub>6</sub>	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
				b <sub>5</sub>	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
b <sub>4</sub>	b <sub>3</sub>	b <sub>2</sub>	b <sub>1</sub>	H <sub>1</sub>	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
				H <sub>0</sub>	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	0	0	0	NUL	DLE	SP	0	@	P	'	p
0	0	0	1	1	SOH	DC1	!	1	A	Q	a	q
0	0	1	0	2	STX	DC2	"	2	B	R	b	r
0	0	1	1	3	ETX	DC3	#	3	C	S	c	s
0	1	0	0	4	EOT	DC4	\$	4	D	T	d	t
0	1	0	1	5	ENQ	NAK	%	5	E	U	e	u
0	1	1	0	6	ACK	SYN	&	6	F	V	f	v
0	1	1	1	7	BEL	ETB	'	7	G	W	g	w
1	0	0	0	8	BS	CAN	(	8	H	X	h	x
1	0	0	1	9	HT	EM	)	9	I	Y	i	y
1	0	1	0	A	LF	SUB	*	:	J	Z	j	z
1	0	1	1	B	VT	ESC	+	;	K	[	k	{
1	1	0	0	C	FF	FS	,	<	L	\	l	
1	1	0	1	D	CR	GS	-	=	M	]	m	}
1	1	1	0	E	SO	RS	.	>	N	^	n	~
1	1	1	1	F	SI	US	/	?	O	-	o	DEL

- **Alphanumeric character codes**—a code used to express a complete set of alphanumeric characters
  - Numbers 0-9
  - Lower case (a-z) and upper case (A- Z) letters
  - Special symbols (+,-, @,etc.)
  - Control characters (DEL=delete, BS=backspace, ESC=escape, etc.)
  - As many as 128 unique symbols
- **Alphanumeric character code**—requires 7-bit code
  - $2^k \geq 128$
  - $2^7 = 128$
  - $k = 7$
  - Gives 128 unique combinations

# 1.4 Alphanumeric Codes—ASCII Code

				b <sub>7</sub>	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
				b <sub>6</sub>	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
				b <sub>5</sub>	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
b <sub>4</sub>	b <sub>3</sub>	b <sub>2</sub>	b <sub>1</sub>	H <sub>1</sub>								
				H <sub>0</sub>	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	0	0	0	NUL	DLE	SP	0	@	P	'	p
0	0	0	1	1	SOH	DC1	!	1	A	Q	a	q
0	0	1	0	2	STX	DC2	"	2	B	R	b	r
0	0	1	1	3	ETX	DC3	#	3	C	S	c	s
0	1	0	0	4	EOT	DC4	\$	4	D	T	d	t
0	1	0	1	5	ENQ	NAK	%	5	E	U	e	u
0	1	1	0	6	ACK	SYN	&	6	F	V	f	v
0	1	1	1	7	BEL	ETB	'	7	G	W	g	w
1	0	0	0	8	BS	CAN	(	8	H	X	h	x
1	0	0	1	9	HT	EM	)	9	I	Y	i	y
1	0	1	0	A	LF	SUB	*	:	J	Z	j	z
1	0	1	1	B	VT	ESC	+	;	K	[	k	{
1	1	0	0	C	FF	FS	,	<	L	\	l	
1	1	0	1	D	CR	GS	-	=	M	]	m	}
1	1	1	0	E	SO	RS	.	>	N	^	n	~
1	1	1	1	F	SI	US	/	?	O	-	o	DEL

- American Standard Code for Information Interchange (ASCII)
  - Most widely used alphanumeric code
    - Databases are mostly character data and normally coded in ASCII
      - Person's name
      - Address
      - Phone number
      - Email address
    - Widely used for coding of information for transfer over a communication line
  - Some microprocessors can process data directly in ASCII coded form

# ASCII Code

- Expressing character information in ASCII

- Seven bits of an ASCII character are denoted

$$b_7b_6b_5b_4b_3b_2b_1$$

- Finding the ASCII code for a character

- Locate the character in the table
- Determine the three MSBs ( $b_7b_6b_5$ ) from the code for the column at the top edge
- Determine the four LSBs ( $b_4b_3b_2b_1$ ) from the code for that row at the left edge
- Combine the column and row codes to form the 7-bit ASCII code

- Example 1: How is CR coded in ASCII? Express as a hexadecimal number.

$$b_7b_6b_5 = 000 \rightarrow \text{Column}$$

$$b_4b_3b_2b_1 = 1101 \rightarrow \text{Row}$$

$$b_7b_6b_5b_4b_3b_2b_1 = 0001101 = 0D_{16}$$

		$b_7$	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1		
		$b_6$	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1		
		$b_5$	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1		
$b_4$	$b_3$	$b_2$	$b_1$	$H_1$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
				$H_0$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	0	0	0	NUL	DLE	SP	0	@	P	'	p
0	0	0	1	1	SOH	DC1	!	1	A	Q	a	q
0	0	1	0	2	STX	DC2	"	2	B	R	b	r
0	0	1	1	3	ETX	DC3	#	3	C	S	c	s
0	1	0	0	4	EOT	DC4	\$	4	D	T	d	t
0	1	0	1	5	ENQ	NAK	%	5	E	U	e	u
0	1	1	0	6	ACK	SYN	&	6	F	V	f	v
0	1	1	1	7	BEL	ETB	'	7	G	W	g	w
1	0	0	0	8	BS	CAN	(	8	H	X	h	x
1	0	0	1	9	HT	EM	)	9	I	Y	i	y
1	0	1	0	A	LF	SUB	*	:	J	Z	j	z
1	0	1	1	B	VT	ESC	+	;	K	[	k	{
1	1	0	0	C	FF	FS	,	<	L	\	l	
1	1	0	1	D	CR	GS	-	=	M	]	m	}
1	1	1	0	E	SO	RS	.	>	N	^	n	~
1	1	1	1	F	SI	US	/	?	O	-	o	DEL

# ASCII Code

- **Example:**  
How is the computer statement that follows coded in ASCII?

**LET Y=X+1**

**Solution:**

$$L = 1001100_2 = 4C_{16}$$

$$E = 1000101_2 = 45_{16}$$

$$T = 1010100_2 = 54_{16}$$

$$SP = 0100000_2 = 20_{16}$$

$$Y = 1011001_2 = 59_{16}$$

$$= = 0111101_2 = 3D_{16}$$

$$X = 1011000_2 = 58_{16}$$

$$+ = 0101011_2 = 2B_{16}$$

$$1 = 0110001_2 = 31_{16}$$

				b <sub>7</sub>	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
				b <sub>6</sub>	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
				b <sub>5</sub>	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
				H <sub>1</sub>	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b <sub>4</sub>	b <sub>3</sub>	b <sub>2</sub>	b <sub>1</sub>	H <sub>0</sub>								
0	0	0	0	0	NUL	DLE	SP	0	@	P	'	p
0	0	0	1	1	SOH	DC1	!	1	A	Q	a	q
0	0	1	0	2	STX	DC2	"	2	B	R	b	r
0	0	1	1	3	ETX	DC3	#	3	C	S	c	s
0	1	0	0	4	EOT	DC4	\$	4	D	T	d	t
0	1	0	1	5	ENQ	NAK	%	5	E	U	e	u
0	1	1	0	6	ACK	SYN	&	6	F	V	f	v
0	1	1	1	7	BEL	ETB	'	7	G	W	g	w
1	0	0	0	8	BS	CAN	(	8	H	X	h	x
1	0	0	1	9	HT	EM	)	9	I	Y	i	y
1	0	1	0	A	LF	SUB	*	:	J	Z	j	z
1	0	1	1	B	VT	ESC	+	;	K	[	k	{
1	1	0	0	C	FF	FS	,	<	L	\	l	
1	1	0	1	D	CR	GS	-	=	M	]	m	}
1	1	1	0	E	SO	RS	.	>	N	^	n	~
1	1	1	1	F	SI	US	/	?	O	-	o	DEL