

# INTRODUCTION TO TMS320F28335\*

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## Abstract

A basic overview of the TMS320F28335 microcontroller, its capabilities, and its functions.

## Welcome to the F2833x - Tutorial

Welcome to the Texas Instruments TMS320F28335 Tutorial. This material is intended to be used as a student guide for a series of lessons and lab exercises dedicated to the TMS320F28335 Digital Signal Controller. The series of modules will guide you through the various elements of this device and train you in using Texas Instruments development tools as well as additional Internet resources.

The material should be used for undergraduate classes at university. A basic knowledge of microprocessor architecture and programming microprocessors in language C is necessary. The material in Modules 1 to 10 shall be used in one semester, accompanied by lab exercises in parallel. Each module includes a detailed lab procedure for self study and guidance during the lab sessions.

The experimental lab sessions are based on the Texas Instruments “Peripheral Explorer Board” (TI part number: TMDSPREX28335). A 32K code-size limited version of the software design suite “Code Composer Studio” is bundled with the Peripheral Explorer Board and will be used for the development of code examples.

Modules 11 to 19 of the series go deeper into details of the TMS320F28335. They cover more advanced subjects and can be viewed as an optional series of lessons.

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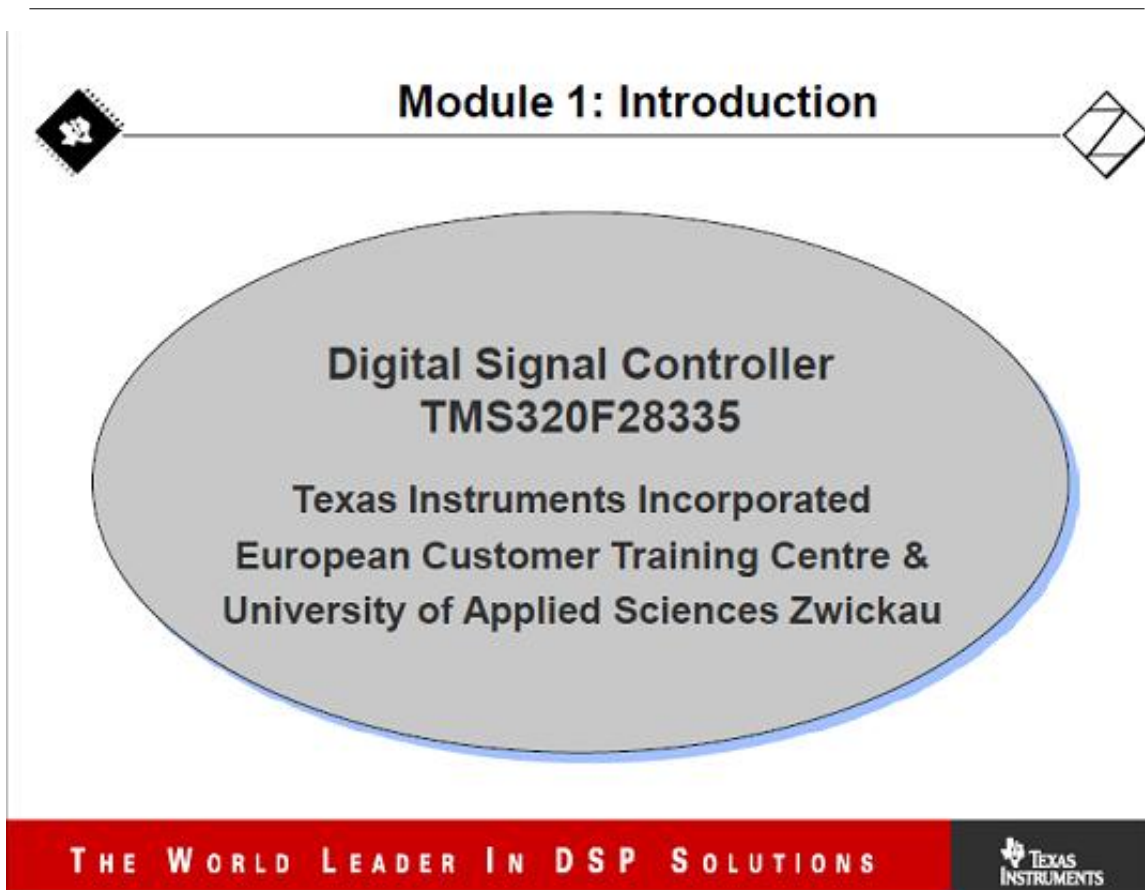


Figure 1

### Course Structure

- Chapter 1: Introduction to Microprocessor, MCU and DSP
- Chapter 2: TMS320F28335 Architecture
- Chapter 3: Software Development Tools
- Chapter 4: Fixed Point, Floating Point or both?
- Chapter 5: Digital Input/Output
- Chapter 6: Understanding the F28335 Interrupt System
- Chapter 7: Control Actuators and Power Electronics
- Chapter 8: Sensor Interface - Analogue to Digital Converter
- Chapter 9: Communication I: Serial Communication Interface
- Chapter 10: Communication II: Serial Peripheral Interface
- Chapter 11: Communication III: Controller Area Network (CAN)
- Chapter 12: Communication IV: Inter Integrated Circuit®
- Chapter 13: Communication V: Multi Channel Buffered SerialPort
- Chapter 14: Internal FLASH Memory and stand alone control
- Chapter 15: Boot – loader and Field update

Chapter 16: FLASH – Application Program Interface (API)

Chapter 17: IQ-Math and floating point hardware

Chapter 18: Digital Motor Control

Chapter 19: Digital Power Supply

### Installation and Laboratory Preparation

This paragraph is for teachers / instructors only. If you read this textbook as a student, please continue at Page 1-8.

The following preparations are necessary to use and run the laboratory exercises of this tutorial:

1. A valid and working version of Code Composer Studio, Version 4.1 should be installed. The default folder is “C:\Program Files\Texas Instruments\ccsv4”. Some of the examples will refer to the subfolder “C:\Program Files\Texas Instruments\ccsv4\C2000” to access C run-time support libraries and linker command files. All laboratory procedures will reference this location. Please inform your students if your installation was made to a different directory.

If you do not have a valid CCS4.1 installation, please use the CCS4.1 - DVD, which comes with the Peripheral Explorer Board. To install and setup CCS4.1, please follow the guidelines from the Texas Instruments wiki-page ([http://processors.wiki.ti.com/index.php/C2000\\_Getting\\_Started\\_with\\_Code\\_Composer\\_Studio\\_v4](http://processors.wiki.ti.com/index.php/C2000_Getting_Started_with_Code_Composer_Studio_v4)).

2. The Peripheral Explorer Board “Quick Start Guide” (sprugm2.pdf) describes the hardware environment in detail. The file “sprugm2.pdf” can be found in folder “C2833x\_CCS4/hardware” of the C2000 teaching CD-ROM.

3. Install the Peripheral Register Header File support package. All laboratory exercises expect to find the Header File package version 1.31 (sprc530.zip) installed in folder “C:\tidcs\c28\DSP2833x\v131”. If it is not yet installed, you can find the zip-file at the teaching CD-ROM under “C2833x\_CCS4/libraries”.

4. For IQ-Math based exercises you must have the IQ-Math library (sprc087.zip). The default location is “C:\tidcs\c28\IQmath\v15a”. If this library is not yet installed, you can find the zip-file at the teaching CD-ROM under “C2833x\_CCS4/libraries”.

#### Piccolo F28027-USB stick

This teaching CD-ROM and all Laboratory exercises are based on the TMS320F28335 processor and the Peripheral Explorer Board. For the TMS320F28027 Texas Instruments offers an ultra low cost evaluation kit (TMDX28027USB):

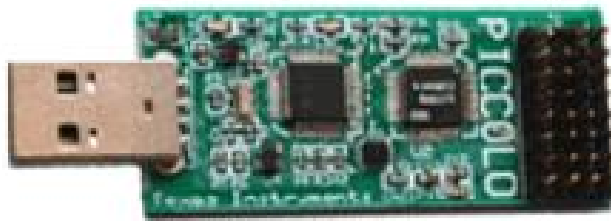


Figure 2

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The teaching CD-ROM dedicates an entire chapter (Module 7A) for the most important peripheral unit, the Pulse Width Modulation Unit (PWM), which describes the laboratory procedures and provides the laboratory templates and solutions for more than 10 exercises. These documents can be found in folder “C2833x\_CCS4/Modules/Module7” of the teaching CD-ROM (files “Module\_07\_A.pdf” and “Solution\_07\_A.zip”).

For peripheral units of the F28027, you can simply modify the source code of the F28335 examples on this CD-ROM and run the examples with a F28027. Of course, the USB-stick does not have all the additional external devices of the Peripheral Explorer Board, which must be added manually to the USB stick. For convenience, the corresponding Header File support package (sprc832.zip) for the F28027 is also part of the teaching CD-ROM, as well as some additional support files (sprc835.zip). Both files can be found in folder “C2833x\_CCS3/libraries” of the teaching CD-ROM.

### Template Files for Laboratory Exercises

All modules after module two are accompanied by laboratory exercises. For some of the modules, template files are provided with the CD (“lab template files”), for other modules, the students are expected to develop their own project files out of previous laboratory sessions. In these cases, the lab description in the textbook chapter explains the procedure. A 2nd group of project files (“solution files”) provides a full solution directory for all laboratory exercises. This group is intended to be used by teachers only. Instead of a single zip-file for the whole CD-ROM we decided to use separate archive files for the individual modules. This gives the teacher the opportunity to select parts of the CD to be used in his classes.

The zip-files may be extracted to a working directory of your choice. **However, the textbook assumes that the files are located in: “C:\DSP2833x\Labs” for group #1 and “C:\DSP2833x\solution” for group #2.** When extracted, a subfolder named as the exercise number will be added.

The laboratory exercises are:

- Lab3: “Beginner’s project” - basic features of Code Composer Studio
- Lab4\_1: “Numbering Systems” - fixed-point multiply operation
- Lab4\_2: “Numbering Systems” - floating-point multiply (hardware and software)
- Lab5\_1: “Digital Output” - 4 LEDs binary counter-sequence
- Lab5\_2: “Digital Output” - 4 LEDs blinking “knight-rider”
- Lab5\_3: “Digital Input” - read 4 bit hexadecimal encoder and display value
- Lab5\_4: “Digital Input / Output” - speed control of binary counter by hex-encoder
- Lab5\_5: “Digital Input / Output” - additional start/stop push-buttons
- Lab6: “CPU-Timer 0 and Interrupts” - add a hardware timer to Lab5\_1 and use an interrupt service routine (hardware time base framework)
- Lab7\_1: “Pulse Width Modulation” - generate a single ePWM ( e = “enhanced”) output signal
- Lab7\_2: “3 – Phase PWM” - generate a phase shifted set of 3 ePWM – signals
- Lab7\_3: “variable Pulse Width” - generate a 1 kHz – signal with variable pulse width
- Lab7\_4: “dual complementary PWM” - generate a pair of complementary PWM signals
- Lab7\_5: “dual channel modulation” - independent modulation of pulse width at ePWMA and ePWMB
- Lab7\_6: “Dead Band Generator” - generate a dead band delay at ePWMA and ePWMB
- Lab7\_7: “Chopper Mode Unit” - split the active pulse phases in a series of high frequency pulses
- Lab7\_8: “Trip Zone Protection” - switch off power lines in case of an over – current
- Lab7\_9: “Sinusoidal Signal” - use ePWM to generate sinusoidal signals (class D audio amplifiers)
- Lab7\_10: “Capture Unit” - use a capture unit to measure a 1 kHz - signal
- Lab7\_11: “Radio Remote Control Unit” - use a capture unit to receive and decode an infrared radio remote control unit (RC5-code)
- Lab8\_1: “ADC dual conversion” - convert two analogue input voltages
- Lab8\_2: “ADC and control” - speed control of binary counter by ADCINA0
- Lab9\_1: “SCI - transmission” - send text message “F28335 UART is fine!”
- Lab9\_2: “SCI – transmit interrupts” - use of SCI – transmit interrupt services
- Lab9\_3: “SCI – transmit FIFO” - use of SCI – FIFO for transmission
- Lab9\_4: “SCI – receive and transmit” - wait for message “Texas” and answer with “Instruments”
- Lab9\_5: “SCI – remote control” - control speed of binary counter by SCI – message
- Lab11\_1: “CAN – Transmission” - periodic transmission of a binary counter at 100 kbit/s and Identifier 0x1000 0000
- Lab11\_2: “CAN - Reception” - Receive Identifier 0x1000 0000 at 100 kbit/s and display the message at 2 LED’s.

- Lab11\_3: "CAN – Transmit & Receive" - merger of Lab11\_1 and Lab11\_2
- Lab11\_4: "CAN – Interrupt" - use of CAN – interrupts to receive messages
- Lab11\_5: "CAN – Error – Handling" - use of CAN – error interrupts
- Lab11\_6: "CAN – Remote Transmit Request" – use of CAN transmit requests
- Lab12\_1: "I2C – Temperature Sensor" - use of TMP101 in 9 bit resolution mode
- Lab12\_2: "I2C – Temperature Sensor" - use of TMP101 in 12 bit resolution mode
- Lab12\_3: "I2C – Temperature Sensor" - use of I2C –FIFO – registers for TMP101
- Lab12\_4: "I2C – Temperature Sensor" - use of I2C – Interrupt System
- Lab13\_1: "McBSP and SPI" - use of audio codec AIC23B to generate a single sinusoidal tone
- Lab13\_2: "McBSP and SPI" - use of audio codec AIC23B to generate a stereo sinusoidal tone
- Lab13\_3: "McBSP - Interrupts" - Lab13\_2 plus McBSP – interrupt system
- Lab13\_4: "McBSP – SPI – Emulation" - Write and Read to an SPI – EEPROM AT25256
- Lab 14\_1: "Standalone FLASH" - change Lab6 to run directly from FLASH after power ON.
- Lab 15\_1: "SCI - Boot loader - download control code before start
- Lab16\_1: "FLASH – APT" - update FLASH while the control code is running
- Lab17: "IQ-MATH" - use of a digital low-pass filter in IQ-Math, generate a 2 KHz square wave signal, sample the signal with the Analogue to Digital Converter and calculate the low-pass filter.
- Lab18: "Digital Motor Control" - Labs are based on Texas Instruments "Digital Motor Control Kit" (part number: TMD52MTRPFCKIT); see laboratory descriptions, which are included in the software part of this kit.
- Lab19: "Digital Power Supply" - Labs are based on Texas Instruments "Digital Power Experimenter's Kit" (part number "TMDSDCDC2KIT"); see laboratory descriptions, which are included in the software part of this kit.


### What is a Digital Signal Controller?

First we have to discuss some keywords that are quite often used when we speak about digital control or computing in general. The TMS320F28335 belongs to a group of devices that are called "Digital Signal Controllers" (DSC). In computing, we use words like "Microprocessor", "Microcomputer" or "Microcontroller" to specify a given sort of electronic device. When it comes to digital signal processing, the preferred name is "Digital Signal Processor" (DSP).


To begin with, let us introduce some terms:

- Microprocessor ( $\mu P$ )
- Micro Computer
- Microcontroller ( $\mu C$ )
- Digital Signal Processor (DSP)
- Digital Signal Controller (DSC)

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## 1. what is a microprocessor?



**microprocessor ( $\mu$ P, mp):**

- Central Device of a multi chip Micro Computer System
- Two basic architectures:
  - » "von Neumann"- Architecture
  - » "Harvard" – Architecture
- "von Neumann" - Architecture:
  - » Shared memory space between code and data
  - » Shared memory busses between code and data
  - » Example: Intel's x86 Pentium Processor family
- "Harvard" – Architecture:
  - » Two independent memory spaces for code and data
  - » Two memory bus systems for code and data
- A  $\mu$ P needs additional external devices to operate properly

1-2

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Figure 3

Microprocessors are based on a simple sequential procedural approach: 1) read next machine code instruction from code memory, 2) decode instruction, 3) read optional operands from data memory, 4) execute instruction, and 5) write back result. This series of events runs in an endless manner. To use a  $\mu$ P one has to add memory and additional external devices to the Microprocessor.

**A typical microprocessor block diagram**

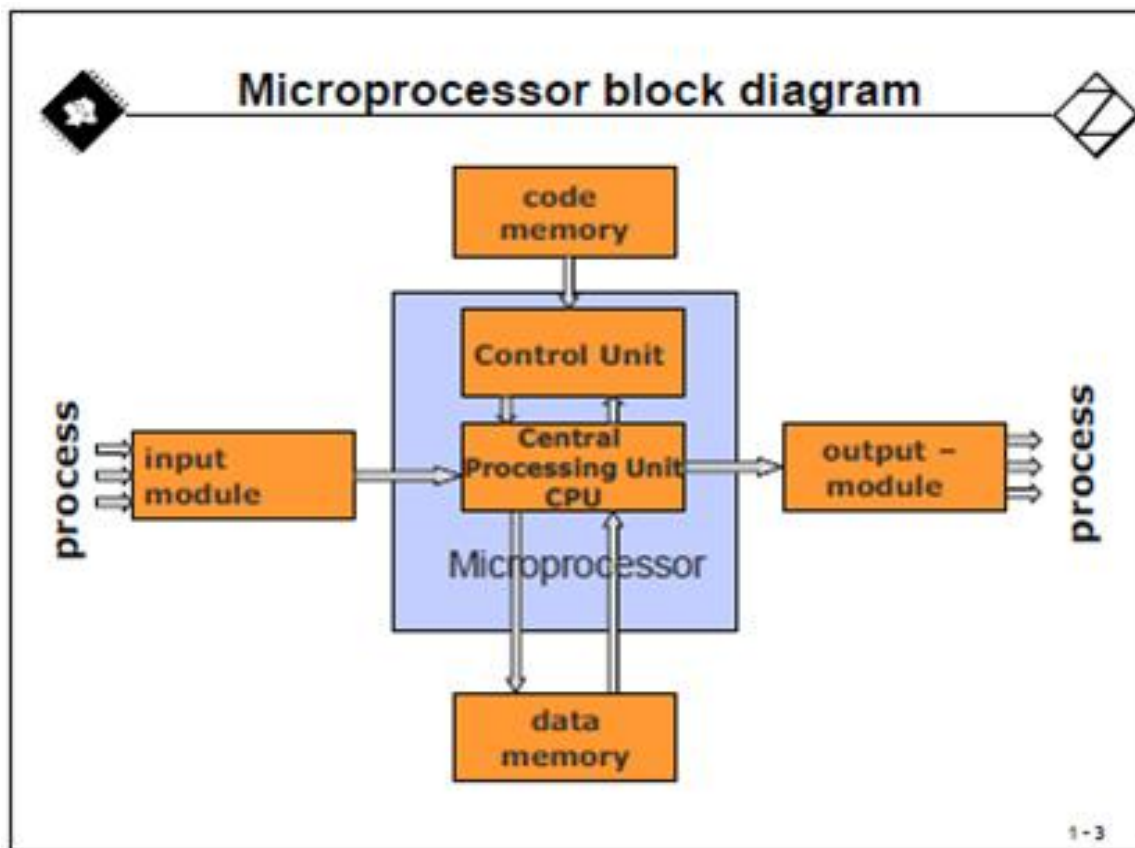


Figure 4

A typical microprocessor block diagram is shown above. As can be seen from Figure 4, the microprocessor consists of two parts – the control unit and the central processing unit (CPU). It operates on input signals, reads operands from data memory, writes results back in data memory, and updates output modules. All computing is based on machine code instructions, which are sequentially stored in code memory. The microprocessor reads these instructions one after another into its control logic.

The execution flow of a piece of machine code instructions follows a certain sequence, shown in the following slide. The life of a microprocessor is quite boring; it never goes off the beaten track unless it loses its power supply. The sequence is always:

1. Address the next entry in code memory
2. Read (or “fetch”) the next machine instruction from this address
3. “Decode” that instruction and prepare next activities
4. Select one of five next steps:
  - Read an input and compute it
  - Read an entry from data memory and compute it
  - Do an internal operation, which does not require an information exchange
  - Write a result back in data memory
  - Update an output channel with a result of a previous computation.

Note: Some processors are able to perform more than 1 step in parallel.

5. Calculate the next code memory address and return to step #1.

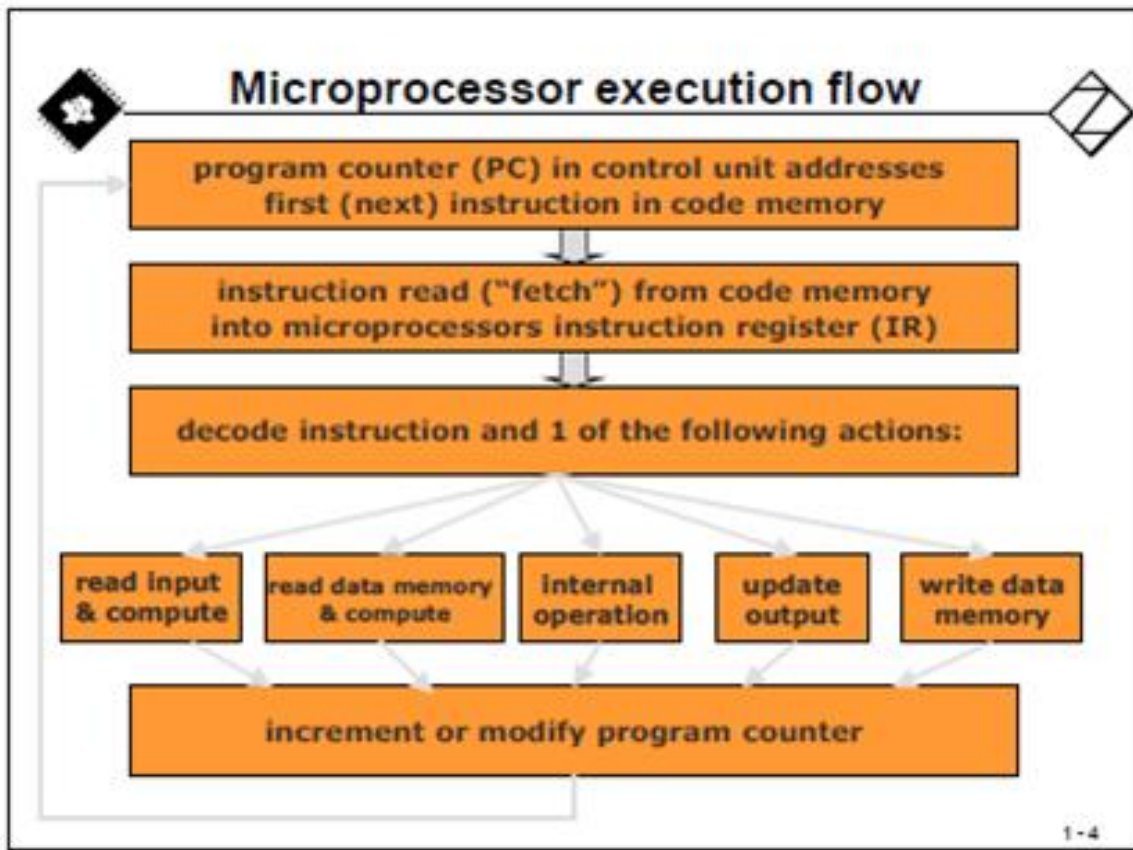



Figure 5


The heart of a microprocessor is its Central Processing Unit (CPU). To keep it simple, we just look at a very basic structure of a CPU. Today, a microprocessor is really one of the most complex integrated circuits.



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## CPU of a microprocessor



**CPU = Central Processing Unit**

- **Consists of:**
  - few internal memory cells ("Register") for operands
  - calculation unit: "Arithmetic Logic Unit" (ALU)
  - instruction register (IR) and instruction decoder
  - address unit
- **Address unit:**
  - read data and instruction from memory
  - write data into memory
- **Instruction decoder:**
  - analyses current instruction and controls subsequent actions of other modules
- **Register:**
  - store data for instantaneous instruction and computation


Note: today's microprocessors have a much finer granularity and sometimes parallel units. However, the basics are still the very same.

1-5


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Figure 6

Arithmetic Logic Unit ("ALU") of a microprocessor



## ALU (Arithmetic Logic Unit) of a microprocessor



calculates arithmetical and / or logical functions:

**At least:**

arithmetical :	Addition (ADD)
logical:	Negation (NEG)
	Conjunction (AND)

**typical:**

arithmetical:	Subtraction (SUB)
	Multiplication (MUL)
logical:	Comparison (CMP)
	Disjunction (OR)
	Antivalence (EXOR)
miscellaneous:	Right- and Left Shift (ASR, ASL)
	Rotation (ROL, ROR)
	Register-Bit-Manipulation (set, clear, toggle, test)

- a **ALU** is able to process two binary values with equal length (N)  
→ N-Bit ALU with N = 4,8,16,32 or 64
- most ALU's process **Fixed Point Numbers**
- A few ALU's, used especially in Digital Signal Processors and desktop processors, are capable to operate on **Floating Point Numbers** or on both formats.

1-6

Figure 7

An ALU performs the arithmetic and logic operations of which the microprocessor is capable. A minimal requirement for an ALU is to perform ADD, NEG and AND. Other operations shown in the slide above, improve the performance of a specific microprocessor. A virtual ALU could look like this:

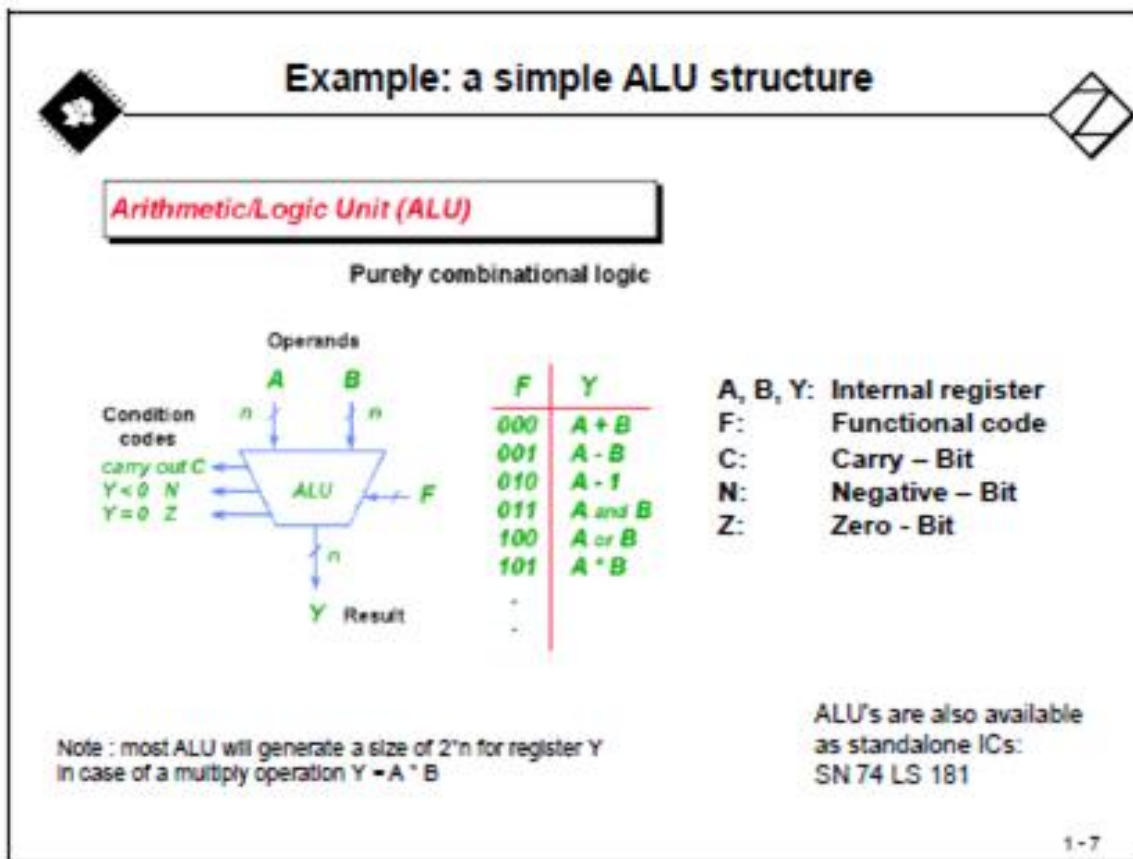


Figure 8

The Intel 80x86: the legacy microprocessor

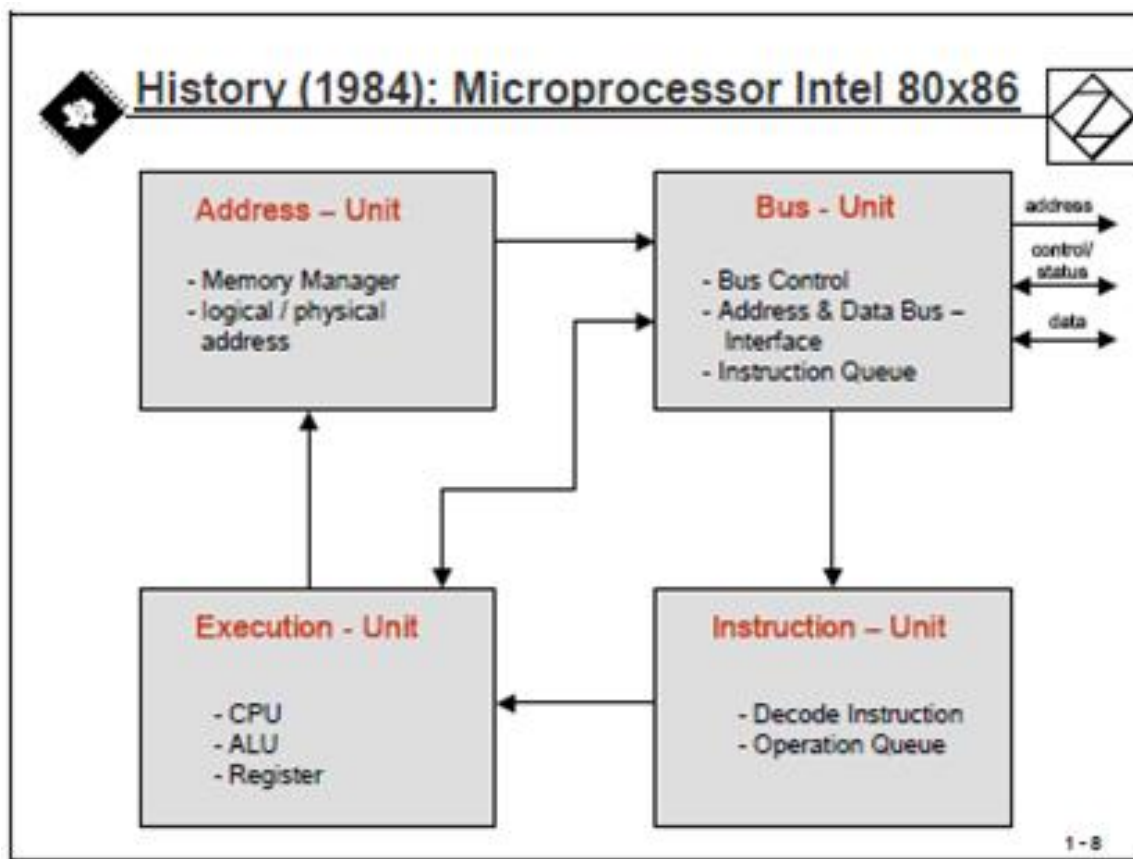


Figure 9

The Intel 8086 can be considered to be the veteran of all 16-bit microprocessors. Inside this processor four units manage the sequence of states. The bus-unit is responsible for addressing the external memory resources using a group of unidirectional digital address signals, bi-directional data lines, and control and status signals. Its purpose is to fill a first pipeline, called the “Instruction queue” with the next machine instructions to be processed. It is controlled by the Execution Unit and the Address-Unit.

The Instruction Unit reads the next instruction out of the Instruction queue, decodes it, and fills a second queue, the “Operation queue”, with the next internal operations that must be performed by the Execution Unit.

The Execution Unit does the ‘real’ work; it executes operations or calls the Bus Unit to read an optional operand from memory.

Once an instruction is completed, the Execution Unit forces the Address Unit to generate the address of the next instruction. If this instruction was already loaded into the Instruction queue, the operational speed is increased. This principle is called a “cache”.

We could go much deeper into the workings of a Microprocessor; eventually you can book another class at your university that deals with this subject much more in detail, especially into the pros and cons of Harvard versus Von-Neumann Machines, into RISC versus CISC, versions of memory accesses etc.

For now, let us just keep in mind the basic operation of this type of device.

**The Desktop - PC: a Microcomputer**

When we add external devices to a microprocessor, we end up with the set-up for a computer system. We need to add external memory both for instructions (“code”) and data to be computed. We also have to use some sort of connections to the outside world to our system. In general, they are grouped into digital input/outputs and analog input/outputs.

The following Slide (Figure 10) is a simplified block diagram of a typical microcomputer. As you can imagine, the latest designs of microcomputers are much more complex and are equipped with a lot more hierarchical levels. To keep it simple, let us focus on such a simplified architecture first.

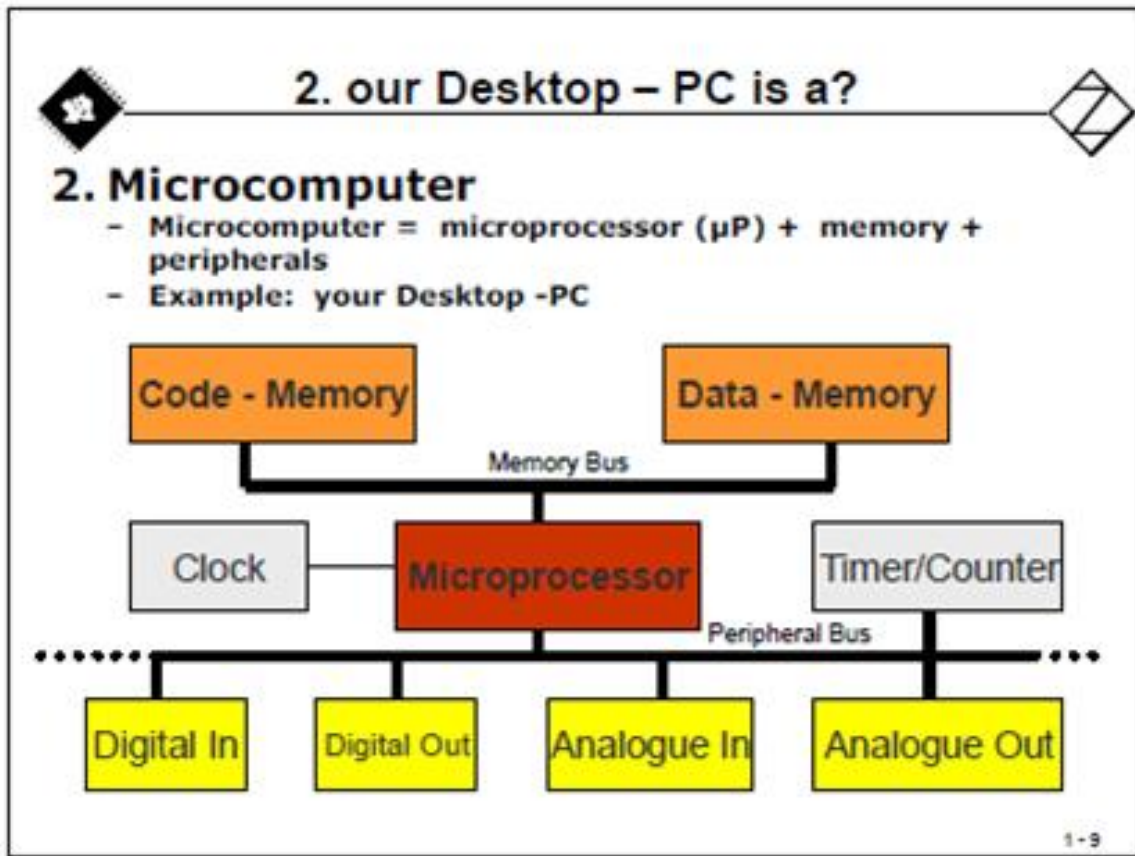


Figure 10

In general, the microprocessor in a microcomputer is connected to the memory system via a “memory” bus. In “von -Neumann” – microprocessor architectures this bus is shared between code and program memory, whereas in “Harvard” – microprocessor architectures, this bus system is separated into two independent, parallel bus systems.

The “Peripheral” bus in the slide above connects the microprocessor to units, which allow the processor to communicate with its environment (sensors, actuators, communication lines etc.). Some microcomputers

use a dedicated “Peripheral” bus, as shown in Slide 1-9, whereas other devices integrate these peripheral functions into their data memory and call them “Data Memory Mapped Peripherals”.

### Microcomputer Peripherals

The following slide (Figure 11) is a non-exclusive list of some of the peripheral functions of a microcomputer. Peripherals are the interface of a microcomputer to the “real world”. These units allow a microcomputer to communicate with sensors and actuators to exchange data and information with other nodes through network interface units.

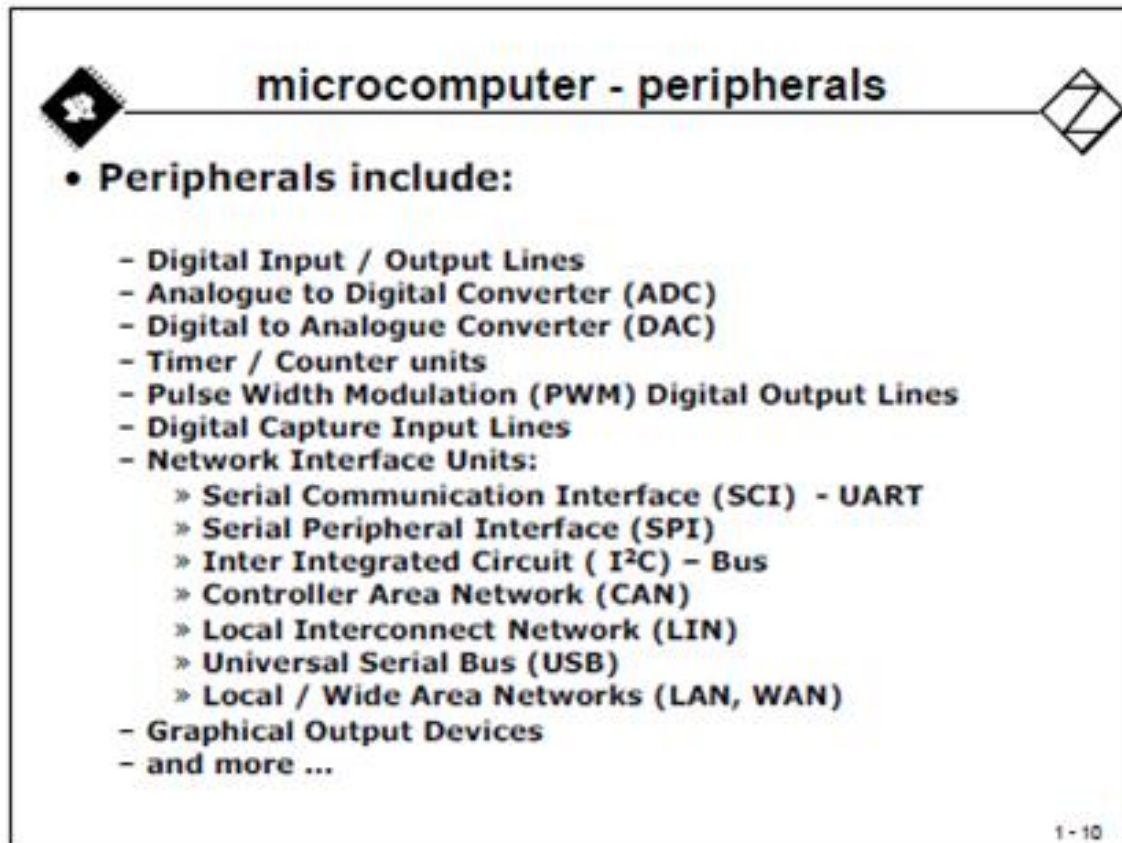


Figure 11

Modern microcomputers are equipped with a lot of enhanced peripheral units. To keep it simple, let us focus on basic peripheral units here. If you are familiar with microcomputers and you like to work with such hardware units, you can easily inspect all those fascinating peripheral units on a state of the art microcomputer.

### The Microcontroller: a single chip computer


As technology advances, we want the silicon industry to build everything that is necessary for a microcomputer into a single piece of silicon, and we would end up with a microcontroller (“ $\mu C$ ”). Of course nobody will try to include every single peripheral that is available or thinkable into a single chip – because nobody can afford to buy this “monster”-chip. On the contrary, engineers demand a microcontroller that suits their

applications best but costs the least. This leads to a huge number of dedicated microcontroller families with totally different internal units, instruction sets, number of peripherals, and internal memory spaces. No customer will ask for a microcontroller with an internal code memory size of 16 megabytes, if the application fits easily into 64 kilobytes.


Today, microcontrollers are built into almost every industrial product that is available on the market. Try to guess how many microcontrollers you possess at home! The problem is you cannot see them from outside the product. That is the reason why they are also called “embedded” computers or “embedded” controllers. A sophisticated product such as the modern car is equipped with up to 80 microcontrollers to execute all the new electronic functions like antilock braking system (ABS), electronic stability program (ESP), adaptive cruise control (ACC), central locking, electrical mirror and seat adjustments, etc. On the other hand, a simple device such as a vacuum cleaner is equipped with a microcontroller to control the speed of the motor and the filling state of the cleaner. Not to speak of the latest developments in vacuum cleaner electronics: the cleaning robot with lots of control and sensor units to do the housework – with a much more powerful  $\mu\text{C}$  of course.

Microcontrollers are available as 4, 8, 16, 32 or even 64-bit devices, with each number showing the number of bits of an operand can process in parallel. If a microcontroller is a 32-bit type, the internal data memory is connected to the core unit with 32 internal signal lines.

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## 3. System on Chip



### 3. Microcontroller ( $\mu$ C, MCU)

- **Nothing more than a Microcomputer as a single silicon chip!**
- **All computing power and input/output channels that are required to design a real time control system are "on chip"**
- **Guarantee cost efficient and powerful solutions for embedded control applications**
- **Backbone for almost every type of modern product**
  
- **Over 200 independent families of  $\mu$ C**
- **Both  $\mu$ P - Architectures ("Von Neumann" and "Harvard") are used inside Microcontrollers**

1 - 11

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Figure 12

The MSP430 - a typical microcontroller



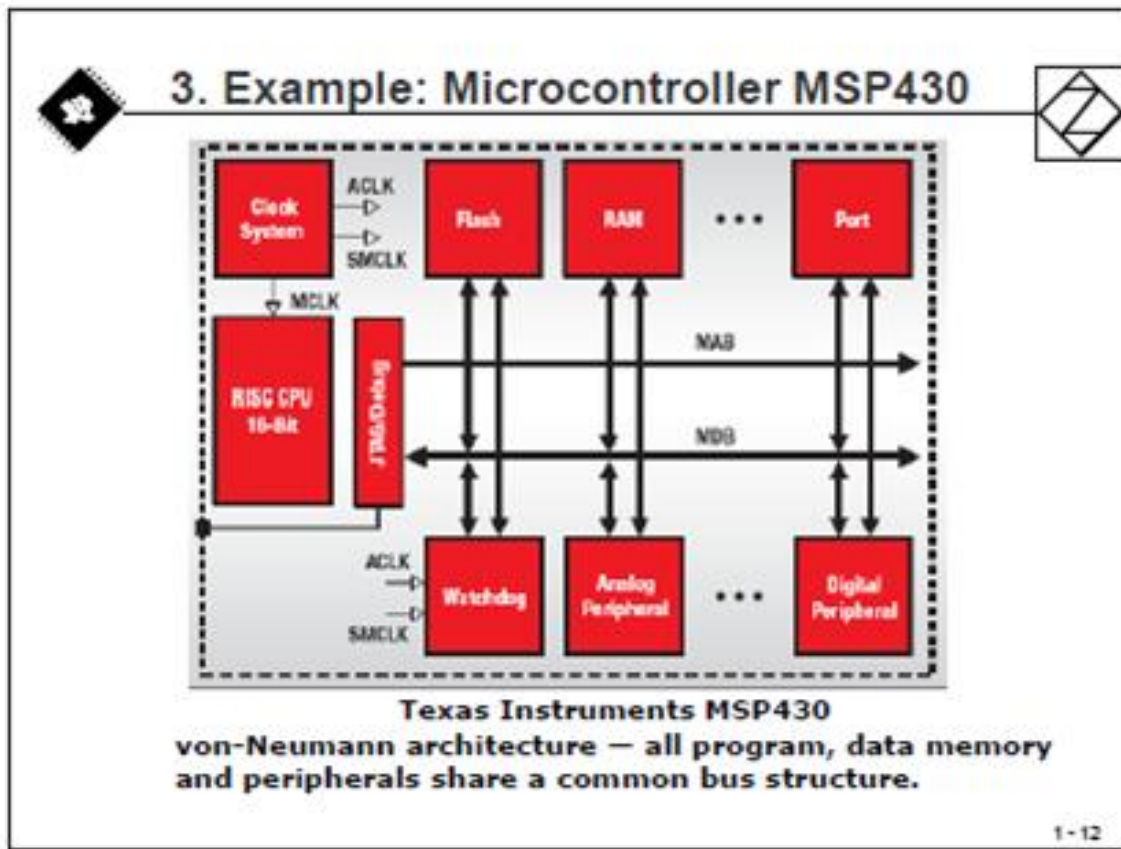


Figure 13


There are hundreds of types of micro controllers in the highly competitive market of embedded systems. They all have their pros and cons. Depending on the application area, budget limitations, and project requirements, one has to decide which one is best suited to fulfill the need. The slide above shows a block diagram of one of the most power effective micro controllers in the market – the MSP430. It comes with integrated memory blocks – FLASH for non - volatile storage of code sequences and RAM to store variables and results. It is equipped with internal analog and digital peripherals as well as communication channels.

The MSP430 family contains much more enhanced versions as shown in the block diagram in Figure 13. Some members of this family have integrated LCD display drivers, hardware multipliers or direct memory access (DMA) units, just to name a few. If you are more interested in that family, please use the corresponding Texas Instruments Teaching CD-ROM for that family.


**A Digital Signal Processor**

A Digital Signal Processor is a specific device that is designed around the typical mathematical operations to manipulate digital data that are measured by signal sensors. The objective is to process the data as quickly as possible to be able to generate an output stream of ‘new’ data in “real time”.

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## 4. Digital Signal Processor



**A Digital Signal Processor ("DSP") is:**

- **Similar to a microprocessor ( $\mu\text{P}$ ), e.g. core of a computing system**
- **Additional Hardware Units to speed up computing of sophisticated mathematical operations:**
  - » **Additional Hardware Multiply Unit(s)**
  - » **Additional Pointer Arithmetic Unit(s)**
  - » **Additional Bus Systems for parallel access**
  - » **Additional Hardware Shifter for scaling and/or multiply/divide by  $2^n$**

1-13

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Figure 14

## What are typical DSP algorithms?

An equation, called "Sum of Products" (SOP) is the key element in most DSP algorithms:

Algorithm	Equation
Finite Impulse Response Filter	$y(n) = \sum_{k=0}^M a_k x(n-k)$
Infinite Impulse Response Filter	$y(n) = \sum_{k=0}^M a_k x(n-k) + \sum_{k=1}^N b_k y(n-k)$
Convolution	$y(n) = \sum_{k=0}^N x(k)h(n-k)$
Discrete Fourier Transform	$X(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) \exp[-j(2\pi/N)nk]$
Discrete Cosine Transform	$F(u) = \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} c(x) f(x) \cos\left[\frac{\pi}{2N}u(2x+1)\right]$

1-14

Figure 15

### The "Sum of Product" - Equation

We won't go into the details of the theory of Digital Signal Processing now. Again, look out for additional classes at your university to learn more about the math behind this amazing part of modern technology. I highly recommend it. It is not the easiest topic, but it is worth it. Consider a future world without anybody who understands how a mobile phone or an autopilot of an airplane works internally –it's a terrible thought.

To begin with, let us scale down all the math into one basic equation that is behind almost all approaches of Digital Signal Processing. It is the "Sum of Products" formula. A new value "y" is calculated as a sum of partial products. Two arrays "data" and "coeff" are multiplied as pairs and the products are added together. Depending on the data type of the input arrays we could solve this equation in floating point or integer mathematics. Integer is most often also called "fixed - point" math (see Chapter 2).

In contrast to its predecessor, the TMS320F28335 is both a floating-point and also fixed-point device, so we can use the best of both worlds. To keep it simple for now, let's stay with fixed - point mathematics first. In chapter 2 we will discuss the pros and cons of fixed point versus floating point DSPs in a little bit more depth.

In a standard ANSI-C we can easily define two arrays of integer input data and the code lines that are needed to calculate the output value "y":

## Doing a SOP with a $\mu$ P

$$y = \sum_{i=0}^3 data[i] * coeff[i]$$

- **Task : use a Desktop - PC and code the equation into any common C-compiler system, e.g. Microsoft Visual Studio 2008**
- **A C-Code Solution would probably look like:**

```
#include <stdio.h>
int data[4]={1,2,3,4};
int coeff[4]={8,6,4,2};
int main(void)
{
    int i;
    int result =0;
    for (i=0;i<4;i++)
        result += data[i]*coeff[i];
    printf("%i",result);
    return 0;
}
```

1 - 15

Figure 16

If we look a little bit more in detail into the tasks that needs to be solved by a standard processor we can distinguish 10 steps. Due to the sequential nature of this type of processor, it can do only one of these 10 steps at a time. This will consume a considerable amount of the computing power of this processor. For our tiny example, the processor must loop between step 3 and step 10 a total of four times. For real Digital Signal Processing the SOP – procedure is going to much higher loop repetitions – forcing the standard processor to use even more computing power.

## 6 Basic Operations of a SOP

$$y = \sum_{i=0}^3 data[i] * coeff[i]$$

- **What will a Pentium be forced to do?**
  1. Set a Pointer1 to point to data[0]
  2. Set a second Pointer2 to point to coeff[0]
  3. Read data[i] into core
  4. Read coeff[i] into core
  5. Multiply data[i]\*coeff[i]
  6. Add the latest product to the previous ones
  7. Modify Pointer1
  8. Modify Pointer2
  9. Increment i;
  10. If i<4 , then go back to step 3 and continue
  
- Steps 3 to 8 are called "6 Basic Operations of a DSP"
- A DSP is able to execute **all 6 steps in one single machine cycle!**

1 - 16

Figure 17


<b>SOP machine code of a <math>\mu</math>P</b>		
<b>Address</b>	<b>M-Code</b>	<b>Assembly - Instruction</b>
<b>10:</b>		
00411960	C7 45 FC 00 00 00 00	mov dword ptr [i],0
00411967	EB 09	jmp main+22h (411972h)
00411969	8B 45 FC	mov eax,dword ptr [i]
0041196C	83 C0 01	add eax,1
0041196F	89 45 FC	mov dword ptr [i],eax
00411972	83 7D FC 04	cmp dword ptr [i],4
00411976	7D 1F	jge main+47h (411997h)
<b>11:</b>		
<b>result += data[i]*coeff[i];</b>		
00411978	8B 45 FC	mov eax,dword ptr [i]
0041197B	8B 4D FC	mov ecx,dword ptr [i]
0041197E	8B 14 85 40 5B 42 00	mov edx,dword ptr[eax*4+425B40h]
00411985	0F AF 14 8D 50 5B 42 00	imul edx,dword ptr[ecx*4+425B50h]
0041198D	8B 45 F8	mov eax,dword ptr [result]
00411990	03 C2	add eax,edx
00411992	89 45 F8	mov dword ptr [result],eax
00411995	EB D2	jmp main+19h (411969h)
<p><small>Note: The C-Compiler was used in basic setup mode using optimization level zero.</small></p>		

Figure 18


**A SOP executed by a DSP**

If we apply the SOP-task to a Digital Signal Processor of fixed-point type the ANSI-C code looks identical to the standard processor one. The difference is the output of the compilation! When you compare Figure 20 with Figure 18 you will notice the dramatic reduction in the consumption of the memory space and number of execution cycles. A DSP is much more appropriate to calculate a SOP in real time! Ask your professor about the details of the two slides.

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## Doing a SOP with a DSP



$$y = \sum_{i=0}^3 data[i] * coeff[i]$$

- **Now: use a DSP-Development System and code the equation into a DSP C-compiler system, e.g. Texas Instruments Code Composer Studio**
- **C-Code Solution is identical:**

```
int data[4]={1,2,3,4};
int coeff[4]={8,6,4,2};
int main(void)
{
    int i;
    int result =0;
    for (i=0;i<4;i++)
        result += data[i]*coeff[i];
    printf("%i",result);
    return 0;
}
```

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---

Figure 19

<b>DSP-Translation into machine code</b>		
Address	M-Code	Assembly Instruction
0x8000	FF69	SPM 0
0x8001	8D04 0000R	MOVL XAR1,#data
0x8003	76C0 0000R	MOVL XAR7,#coeff
0x8005	5633	ZAPA
0x8006	F601	RPT #1
0x8007	564B 8781	DMAC ACC:P,*XAR1++,*XAR7++
0x8009	10AC	ADDL ACC,P<<PM
0x800A	8D04 0000R	MOVL XAR1,#y
0x800B	1E81	MOVL *XAR1,ACC

**Example: Texas Instruments TMS320F28335**  
 Space : 12 Code Memory ; 9 Data Memory  
 Execution Cycles : 10 @ 150MHz = 66 ns

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Figure 20

### A Digital Signal Controller

Finally, a Digital Signal Controller (DSC) is a new type of microcontroller, where the processing power is delivered by a DSP – a single chip device combining both the computing power of a Digital Signal Processor and the embedded peripherals of a single chip computing system.


For advanced real time control systems with a high amount of mathematical calculations, a DSC is the best choice.

Today there are only a few manufacturers offering DSC's. Due to the advantages of DSC's for many projects, a number of silicon manufacturers are developing this type of controller.


This tutorial is based on the Texas Instruments TMS320F28335, a 32-bit floating point Digital Signal Controller (DSC).



---



## 5. Digital Signal Controller (DSC)



**Digital Signal Controller (DSC)**

- **recall: a Microcontroller(MCU) is a single chip Microcomputer with a Microprocessor( $\mu$ P) as core unit.**
- **Now: a Digital Signal Controller(DSC) is a single chip Microcomputer with a Digital Signal Processor(DSP) as core unit.**
- **By combining the computing power of a DSP with memory and peripherals in one single device we derive the most effective solution for embedded real time control solutions that require lots of math operations.**
- **DSC –Example: Texas Instruments C2000 DSC - family.**

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---

Figure 21

**Note:** Some manufacturers, like Infineon and Renesas, still call their DSCs microcontrollers. This is because most target applications are typically regarded as “microcontroller sockets” and many engineers are unfamiliar with the term DSC.

TI also recently changed the naming of the C2000 line from DSC to microcontroller.

### **DSP Competition**

There are only a few global players in the area of DSP and DSC. As you can see from Figure 22 (for more details, go to: [www.fwdconcepts.com](http://www.fwdconcepts.com)), Texas Instruments is the absolute leader in this area. A working knowledge of TI-DSP will help you to master your professional career.



Figure 22

With such expertise in DSPs, it is only natural that the lessons TI has learned and technologies developed for DSPs trickle down also to TI's microcontrollers. As the leader in DSP, Texas Instruments microcontrollers will also challenge the market!

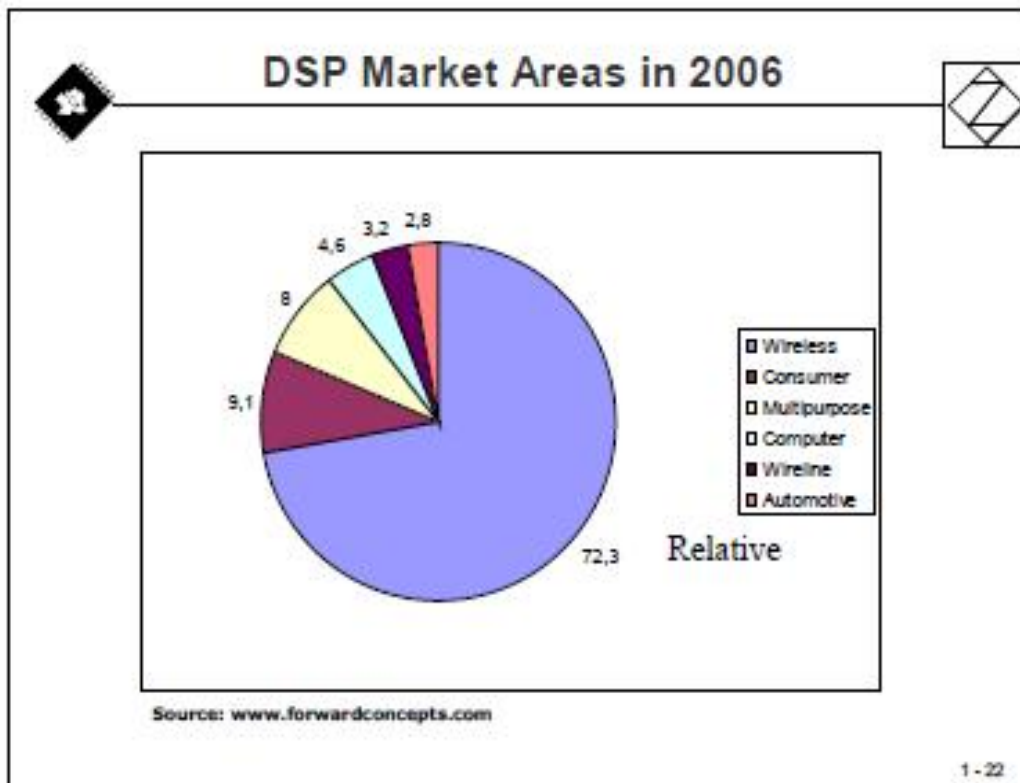


Figure 23

Texas Instruments DSP/DSC - Portfolio

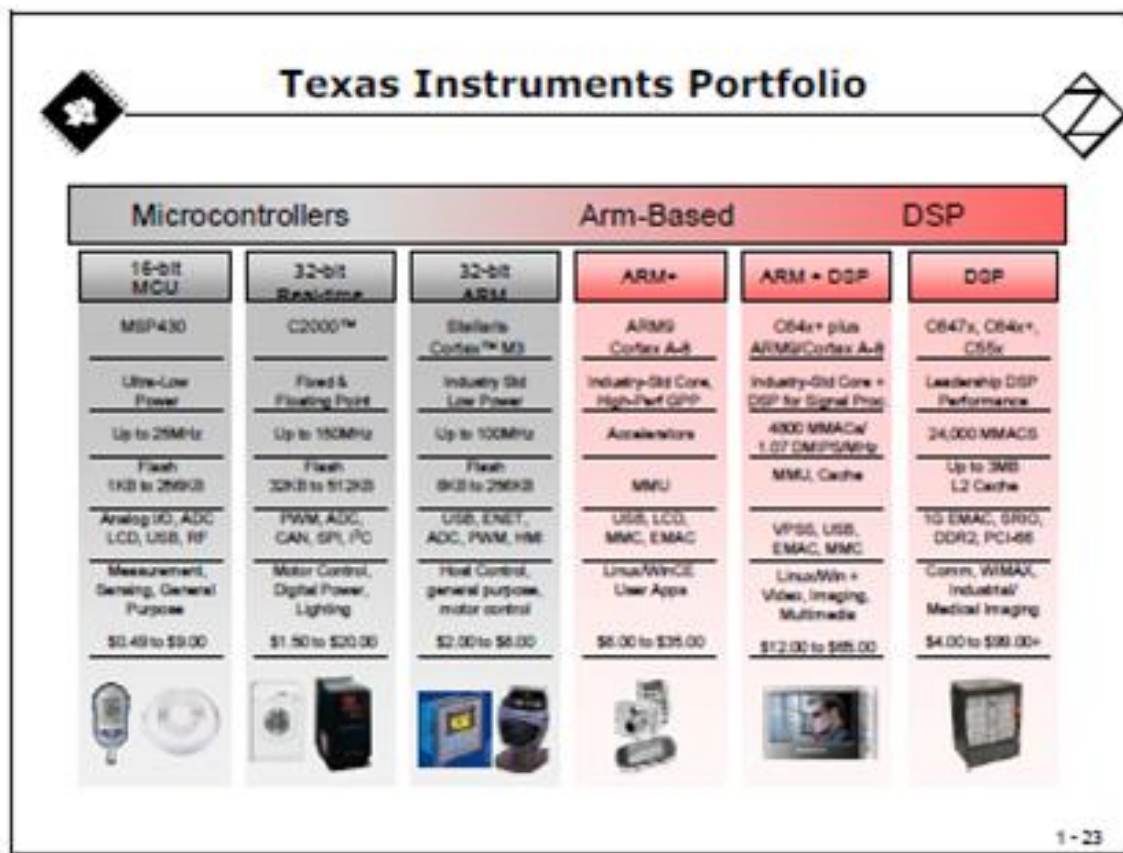


Figure 24

The DSP / DSC – portfolio of Texas instruments is split into three major device families, called Micro-controllers, ARM-based, and DSP.

The C64x branch is the most powerful series of DSP in computing power. There are floating – point as well as fixed – point devices in this family. The application fields are image processing, audio, multimedia server, base stations for wireless communication etc.

The C55x family is focused on mobile systems with very efficient power consumption per MIPS. Its main application area is in cell phone technology.

The C2000 – group is dedicated to Digital Signal Control (DSC), as you have learned from the first slides, and is a very powerful solution for real time control applications. This group is accompanied at the two ends by a 16-bit Microcontroller group (MSP430), and a 32-bit series of ARM-core based microcontrollers (Cortex M3, Cortex A-8 or ARM9).

Figure 25 summarizes the main application areas for the 3 Texas Instruments families of DSP.

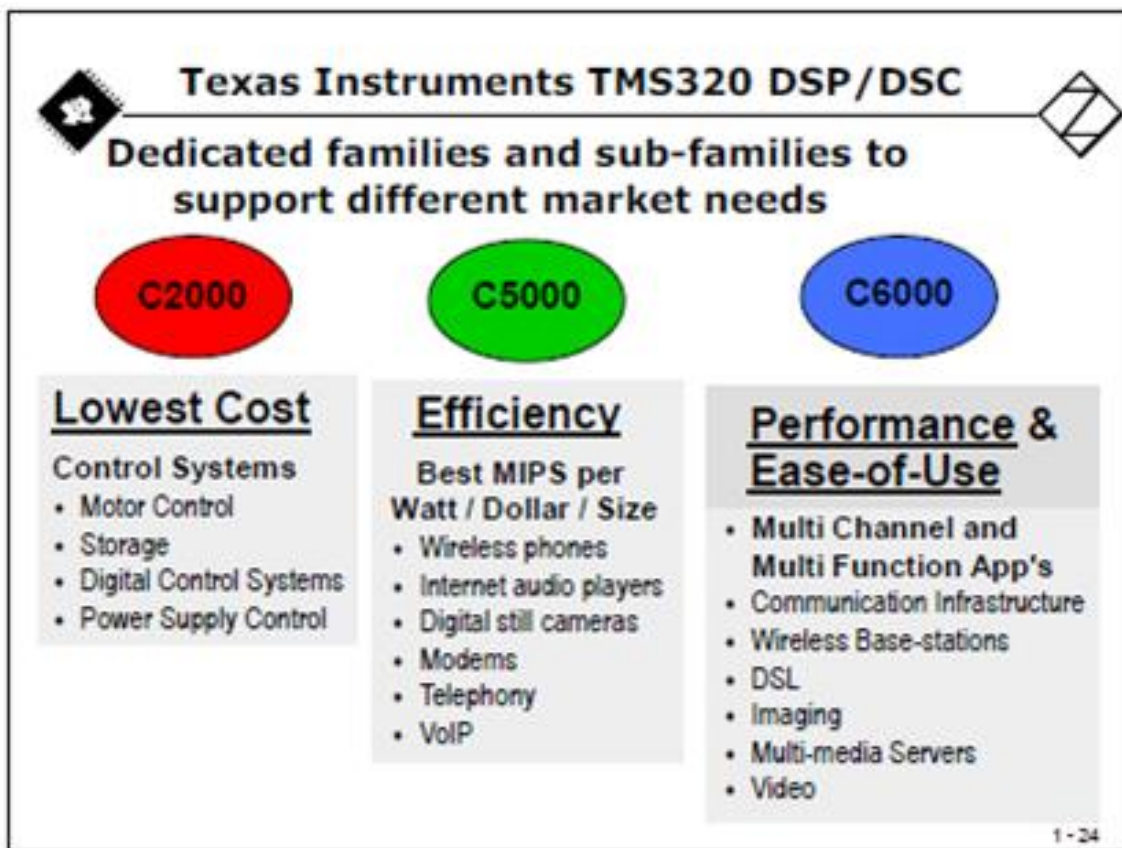


Figure 25

**TMS320F28x Roadmap**

For the C2000 –family, we can distinguish between two groups of devices: a 16-bit group called TMS320C24x, and a 32-bit group called TMS320C28x.

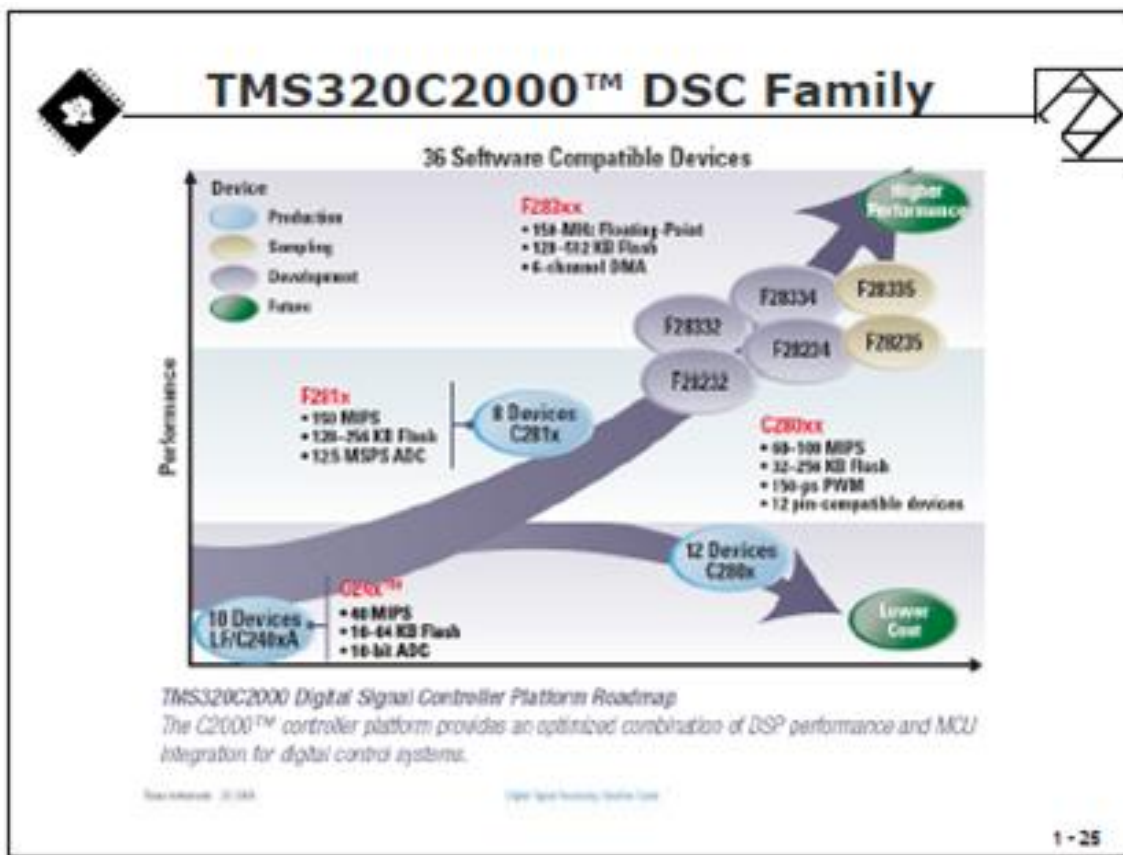


Figure 26

Figure 27 illustrates the latest developments in the 32-bit real-time controller family C28x:

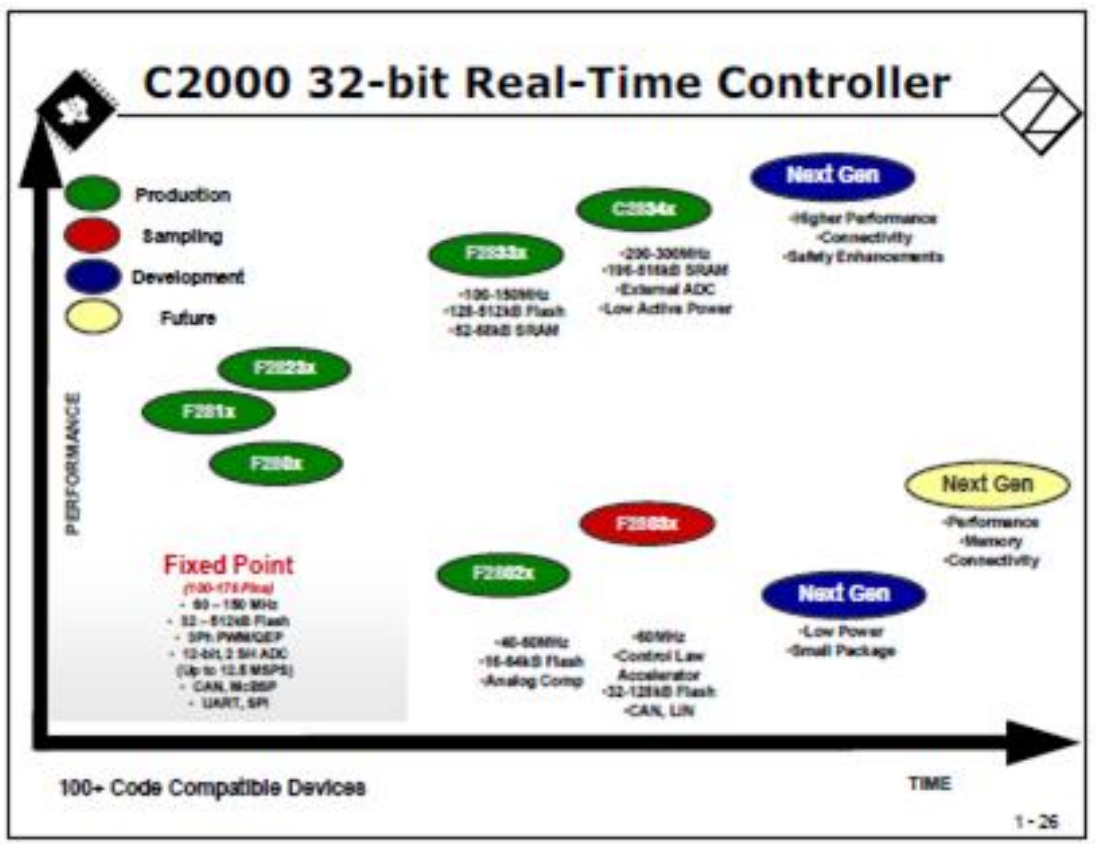


Figure 27

### TMS320F28x Application Areas



Figure 28



### TMS320F28x Block Diagram

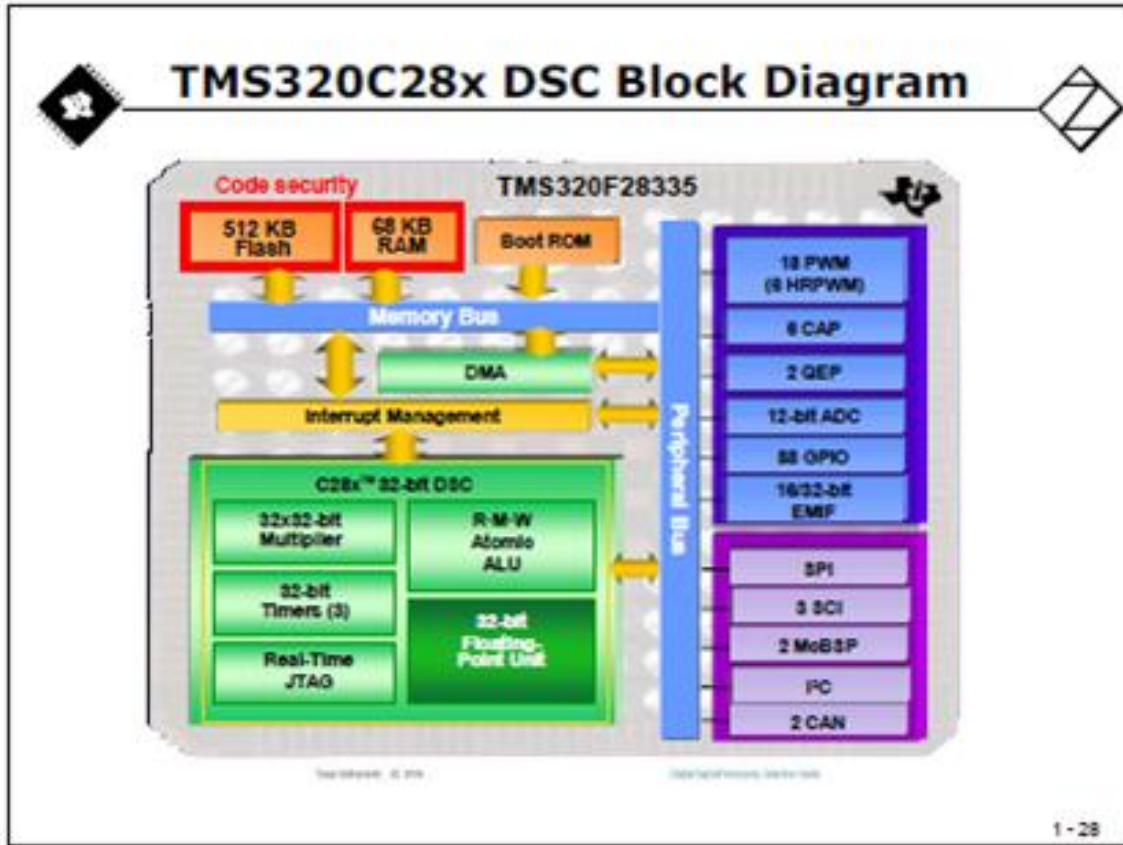


Figure 29