# Computer Organization Architecture



#### SIMPLE DIGITAL SYSTEMS

- Combinational and sequential circuits (learned in Chapters 1 and 2)
   can be used to create simple digital systems.
- These are the low-level building blocks of a digital computer.
- Simple digital systems are frequently characterized in terms of
  - the registers they contain, and
  - the operations that they perform.
- Typically,
  - What operations are performed on the data in the registers
  - What information is passed between registers

#### REGISTER TRANSFER AND MICROOPERATIONS

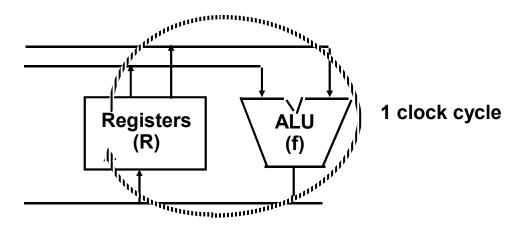
- Register Transfer Language
- Register Transfer
- Bus and Memory Transfers
- Arithmetic Microoperations
- Logic Microoperations
- Shift Microoperations
- Arithmetic Logic Shift Unit

# **MICROOPERATIONS (1)**

- The operations on the data in registers are called microoperations.
- The functions built into registers are examples of microoperations
  - Shift
  - Load
  - Clear
  - Increment
  - ...

# **MICROOPERATION (2)**

An elementary operation performed (during one clock pulse), on the information stored in one or more registers



 $R \leftarrow f(R, R)$ 

f: shift, load, clear, increment, add, subtract, complement, and, or, xor, ...

#### ORGANIZATION OF A DIGITAL SYSTEM

- Definition of the (internal) organization of a computer
  - Set of registers and their functions
  - Microoperations set

Set of allowable microoperations provided by the organization of the computer

- Control signals that initiate the sequence of microoperations (to perform the functions)

#### REGISTER TRANSFER LEVEL

- Viewing a computer, or any digital system, in this way is called the register transfer level
- This is because we're focusing on
  - The system's registers
  - The data transformations in them, and
  - The data transfers between them.

#### REGISTER TRANSFER LANGUAGE

- Rather than specifying a digital system in words, a specific notation is used, register transfer language
- For any function of the computer, the register transfer language can be used to describe the (sequence of) microoperations
- Register transfer language
  - A symbolic language
  - A convenient tool for describing the internal organization of digital computers
  - Can also be used to facilitate the design process of digital systems.

#### **DESIGNATION OF REGISTERS**

- Registers are designated by capital letters, sometimes followed by numbers (e.g., A, R13, IR)
- Often the names indicate function:
  - MAR memory address register
  - PC program counter
  - IR instruction register
- Registers and their contents can be viewed and represented in various ways
  - A register can be viewed as a single entity:

Registers may also be represented showing the bits of data they contain

#### **DESIGNATION OF REGISTERS**

- Designation of a register
  - a register
  - portion of a register
  - a bit of a register
- Common ways of drawing the block diagram of a register

Register

R1

15

R2

Numbering of bits

 Showing individual bits

 7
 6
 5
 4
 3
 2
 1
 0

 15
 8
 7
 0

 PC(H)
 PC(L)

Subfields

#### **REGISTER TRANSFER**

- Copying the contents of one register to another is a register transfer
- A register transfer is indicated as

#### **R2** ← **R1**

- In this case the contents of register R1 are copied (loaded) into register R2
- A simultaneous transfer of all bits from the source R1 to the destination register R2, during one clock pulse
- Note that this is a non-destructive; i.e. the contents of R1 are not altered by copying (loading) them to R2

## **REGISTER TRANSFER**

A register transfer such as

R3 ← R5

Implies that the digital system has

- the data lines from the source register (R5) to the destination register (R3)
- Parallel load in the destination register (R3)
- Control lines to perform the action

#### **CONTROL FUNCTIONS**

- Often actions need to only occur if a certain condition is true
- This is similar to an "if" statement in a programming language
- In digital systems, this is often done via a control signal, called a control function
  - If the signal is 1, the action takes place
- This is represented as:

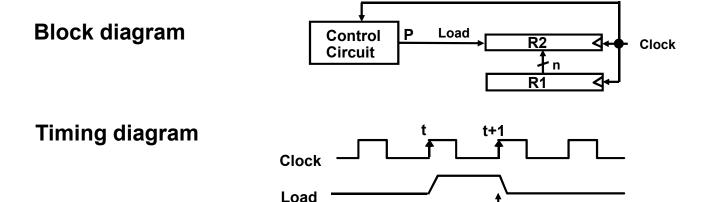
```
P: R2 ← R1
```

Which means "if P = 1, then load the contents of register R1 into register R2", i.e., if (P = 1) then  $(R2 \leftarrow R1)$ 

#### HARDWARE IMPLEMENTATION OF CONTROLLED TRANSFERS

#### Implementation of controlled transfer

P: R2 ← R1



- The same clock controls the circuits that generate the control function and the destination register
- Registers are assumed to use positive-edge-triggered flip-flops

Transfer occurs here

#### **SIMULTANEOUS OPERATIONS**

• If two or more operations are to occur simultaneously, they are separated with commas

**P**: **R**3 ← **R**5, **M**AR ← **I**R

 Here, if the control function P = 1, load the contents of R5 into R3, and at the same time (clock), load the contents of register IR into register MAR

## **BASIC SYMBOLS FOR REGISTER TRANSFERS**

| Symbols         | Description                             | Examples                         |
|-----------------|---|----------------------------------|
| Capital letters | Denotes a register                      | MAR, R2                          |
| & numerals      |   |                                  |
| Parentheses ()  | Denotes a part of a register            | R2(0-7), R2(L)                   |
| Arrow ←         | Denotes transfer of information         | R2 ← R1                          |
| Colon :         | Denotes termination of control function | P:                               |
| Comma ,         | Separates two micro-operations          | $A \leftarrow B, B \leftarrow A$ |

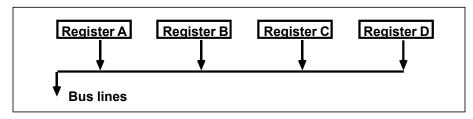
#### **CONNECTING REGISTRS**

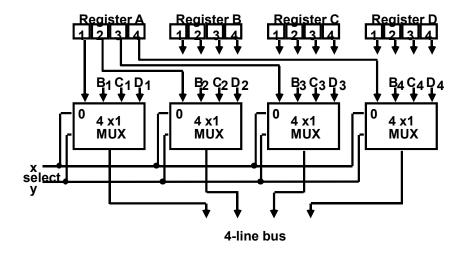
- In a digital system with many registers, it is impractical to have data and control lines to directly allow each register to be loaded with the contents of every possible other registers
- To completely connect n registers → n(n-1) lines
- O(n²) cost
  - This is not a realistic approach to use in a large digital system
- Instead, take a different approach
- Have one centralized set of circuits for data transfer the bus
- Have control circuits to select which register is the source, and which is the destination

#### **BUS AND BUS TRANSFER**

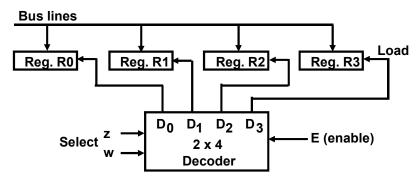
Bus is a path(of a group of wires) over which information is transferred, from any of several sources to any of several destinations.

From a register to bus: BUS  $\leftarrow$  R





#### TRANSFER FROM BUS TO A DESTINATION REGISTER



#### **Three-State Bus Buffers**

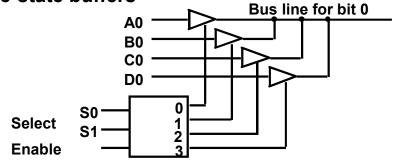
Normal input A

Control input C

Output Y=A if C=1

High-impedence if C=0

#### Bus line with three-state buffers



#### **BUS TRANSFER IN RTL**

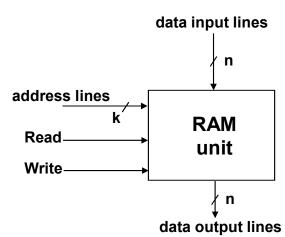
 Depending on whether the bus is to be mentioned explicitly or not, register transfer can be indicated as either

or

 In the former case the bus is implicit, but in the latter, it is explicitly indicated

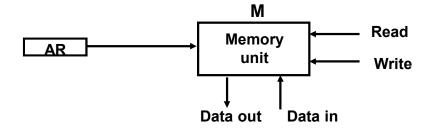
## **MEMORY (RAM)**

- Memory (RAM) can be thought as a sequential circuits containing some number of registers
- These registers hold the words of memory
- Each of the r registers is indicated by an address
- These addresses range from 0 to r-1
- Each register (word) can hold n bits of data
- Assume the RAM contains r = 2<sup>k</sup> words. It needs the following
  - n data input lines
  - n data output lines
  - k address lines
  - A Read control line
  - A Write control line



#### **MEMORY TRANSFER**

- Collectively, the memory is viewed at the register level as a device, M.
- Since it contains multiple locations, we must specify which address in memory we will be using
- This is done by indexing memory references
- Memory is usually accessed in computer systems by putting the desired address in a special register, the Memory Address Register (MAR, or AR)
- When memory is accessed, the contents of the MAR get sent to the memory unit's address lines



#### **MEMORY READ**

 To read a value from a location in memory and load it into a register, the register transfer language notation looks like this:

 $R1 \leftarrow M[MAR]$ 

- This causes the following to occur
  - The contents of the MAR get sent to the memory address lines
  - A Read (= 1) gets sent to the memory unit
  - The contents of the specified address are put on the memory's output data lines
  - These get sent over the bus to be loaded into register R1

#### **MEMORY WRITE**

 To write a value from a register to a location in memory looks like this in register transfer language:

$$M[MAR] \leftarrow R1$$

- This causes the following to occur
  - The contents of the MAR get sent to the memory address lines
  - A Write (= 1) gets sent to the memory unit
  - The values in register R1 get sent over the bus to the data input lines of the memory
  - The values get loaded into the specified address in the memory

# **SUMMARY OF R. TRANSFER MICROOPERATIONS**

| A ← B                              | Transfer content of reg. B into reg. A   |
|------------------------------------|--|
| $AR \leftarrow DR(AD)$             | Transfer content of AD portion of reg. DR into reg. AR   |
| A ← constant                       | Transfer a binary constant into reg. A   |
| ABUS ← R1,                         | Transfer content of R1 into bus A and, at the same time,   |
| R2 ← ABUS<br>AR<br>DR<br>M[R]<br>M | transfer content of bus A into R2 Address register Data register Memory word specified by reg. R Equivalent to M[AR] |
| DR← M                              | Memory <i>read</i> operation: transfers content of memory word specified by AR into DR                               |
| M← DR                              | Memory <i>write</i> operation: transfers content of DR into memory word specified by AR                              |

#### **MICROOPERATIONS**

- Computer system microoperations are of four types:
  - Register transfer microoperations
  - Arithmetic microoperations
  - Logic microoperations
  - Shift microoperations

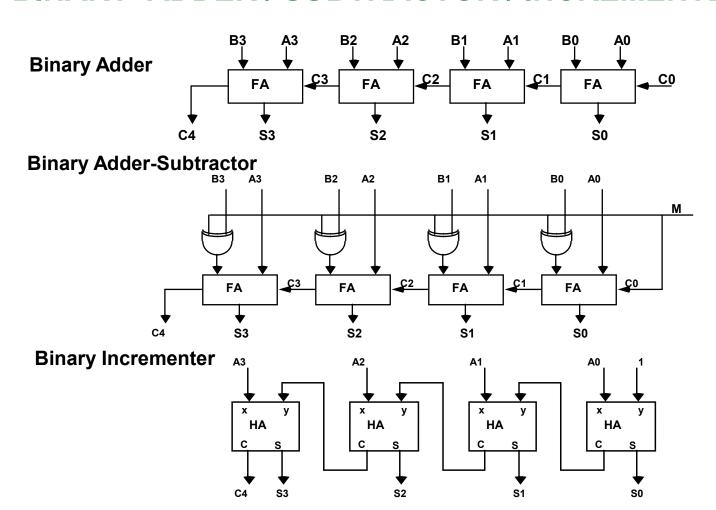
#### **ARITHMETIC MICROOPERATIONS**

- The basic arithmetic microoperations are
  - Addition
  - Subtraction
  - Increment
  - Decrement
- The additional arithmetic microoperations are
  - Add with carry
  - Subtract with borrow
  - Transfer/Load
  - etc. ...

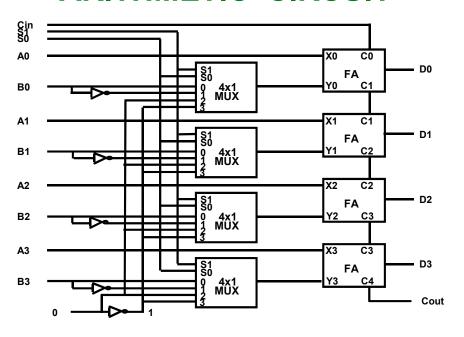
#### **Summary of Typical Arithmetic Micro-Operations**

| R3 ← R1 + R2     | Contents of R1 plus R2 transferred to R3   |
|------------------|--|
| R3 ← R1 - R2     | Contents of R1 minus R2 transferred to R3  |
| R2 ← R2'         | Complement the contents of R2              |
| R2 ← R2'+ 1      | 2's complement the contents of R2 (negate) |
| R3 ← R1 + R2'+ 1 | subtraction                                |
| R1 ← R1 + 1      | Increment                                  |
| R1 ← R1 - 1      | Decrement                                  |

## BINARY ADDER / SUBTRACTOR / INCREMENTER



# **ARITHMETIC CIRCUIT**



| <b>S1</b> | S0 | Cin | Υ  | Output         | Microoperation       |
|-----------|----|-----|----|----------------|----------------------|
| 0         | 0  | 0   | В  | D = A + B      | Add                  |
| 0         | 0  | 1   | В  | D = A + B + 1  | Add with carry       |
| 0         | 1  | 0   | B' | D = A + B'     | Subtract with borrow |
| 0         | 1  | 1   | B' | D = A + B' + 1 | Subtract             |
| 1         | 0  | 0   | 0  | D = A          | Transfer A           |
| 1         | 0  | 1   | 0  | D = A + 1      | Increment A          |
| 1         | 1  | 0   | 1  | D = A - 1      | Decrement A          |
| 1         | 1  | 1   | 1  | D = A          | Transfer A           |

#### LOGIC MICROOPERATIONS

- Specify binary operations on the strings of bits in registers
  - Logic microoperations are bit-wise operations, i.e., they work on the individual bits of data
  - useful for bit manipulations on binary data
  - useful for making logical decisions based on the bit value
- There are, in principle, 16 different logic functions that can be defined over two binary input variables

| Α | В | F <sub>0</sub> | F <sub>1</sub> | F <sub>2</sub> F <sub>13</sub> F <sub>14</sub> | F <sub>15</sub> |
|---|---|----------------|----------------|--|-----------------|
| 0 | 0 | 0              | 0              | 0 1 1  | 1               |
| 0 | 1 | 0              | 0              | 0 1 1<br>0 1 1                                 | 1               |
| 1 | 0 | 0              | 0              | 1 0 1  | 1               |
| 1 | 1 | 0              | 1              | 0 1 0  | 1               |

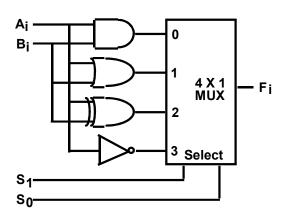
- However, most systems only implement four of these
  - AND (∧), OR (∨), XOR (⊕), Complement/NOT
- The others can be created from combination of these

## LIST OF LOGIC MICROOPERATIONS

• Truth tables for 16 functions of 2 variables and the corresponding 16 logic micro-operations

| х<br>у |      | Boolean<br>Function  | Micro-<br>Operations        | Name           |
|--------|------|----------------------|-----------------------------|----------------|
|        | 0000 | F0 = 0               | F ← 0                       | Clear          |
|        | 0001 | F1 = xy              | $F \leftarrow A \wedge B$   | AND            |
|        | 0010 | F2 = xy'             | $F \leftarrow A \wedge B'$  |                |
|        | 0011 | F3 = x               | F←A                         | Transfer A     |
|        | 0100 | F4 = x'y             | F ← A'∧ B                   |                |
|        | 0101 | F5 = y               | F ← B                       | Transfer B     |
|        | 0110 | F6 = x ⊕ y           | $F \leftarrow A \oplus B$   | Exclusive-OR   |
|        | 0111 | F7 = x + y           | $F \leftarrow A \lor B$     | OR             |
|        | 1000 | F8 = (x + y)'        | $F \leftarrow (A \lor B)'$  | NOR            |
|        | 1001 | $F9 = (x \oplus y)'$ | F ← (A ⊕ B)'                | Exclusive-NOR  |
|        | 1010 | F10 = y'             | F ← B'                      | Complement B   |
|        | 1011 | F11 = x + y'         | $F \leftarrow A \lor B$     |                |
|        | 1100 | F12 = x'             | <b>F</b> ← <b>A</b> '       | Complement A   |
|        | 1101 | F13 = x' + y         | F ← A'∨ B                   |                |
|        | 1110 | F14 = (xy)'          | $F \leftarrow (A \land B)'$ | NAND           |
|        | 1111 | F15 = 1              | F ← all 1's                 | Set to all 1's |

#### HARDWARE IMPLEMENTATION OF LOGIC MICROOPERATIONS



#### **Function table**

| S <sub>1</sub> | S <sub>0</sub> | Output           | μ-operation |
|----------------|----------------|------------------|-------------|
| 0              | 0              | $F = A \wedge B$ | AND         |
| 0              | 1              | $F = A \vee B$   | OR          |
| 1              | 0              | $F = A \oplus B$ | XOR         |
| 1              | 1              | F = A'           | Complement  |

# **Special Symbols**

Special symbols will be adopted for the logic microoperations OR, AND, and complement, to distinguish them from the corresponding symbols used to express Boolean functions. The symbol \( \) will be used to denote an OR microoperation and the symbol \( \) to denote an AND microoperation. The complement microoperation is the same as the 1's complement and uses a bar on top of the symbol that denotes the register name. By using different symbols, it will be possible to differentiate between a logic microoperation and a control (or Boolean) function. Another reason for adopting two sets of symbols is to be able to distinguish the symbol + , when used to symbolize an arithmetic plus, from a logic OR operation. Although the + symbol has two meanings, it will be possible to distinguish between them by noting where the symbol occurs. When the symbol + occurs in a microoperation, it will denote an arithmetic plus. When it occurs in a control (or Boolean) function, it will denote an OR operation. We will never use it to symbolize an OR microoperation. For example, in the statement

$$P+Q$$
:  $R1 \leftarrow R2 + R3$ ,  $R4 \leftarrow R5 \lor R6$ 

the + between P and Q is an OR operation between two binary variables of a control function. The + between R2 and R3 specifies an add microoperation. The OR microoperation is designated by the symbol  $\bigvee$  between registers R5 and R6.

#### **APPLICATIONS OF LOGIC MICROOPERATIONS**

- Logic microoperations can be used to manipulate individual bits or a portions of a word in a register
- Consider the data in a register A. In another register, B, is bit data that will be used to modify the contents of A

- Selective-set  $A \leftarrow A + B$ 

- Selective-complement  $A \leftarrow A \oplus B$ 

- Selective-clear  $A \leftarrow A \cdot B'$ 

- Mask (Delete) A ← A • B

- Clear  $A \leftarrow A \oplus B$ 

- Insert  $A \leftarrow (A \cdot B) + C$ 

- Compare  $A \leftarrow A \oplus B$ 

- . . .

#### **SELECTIVE SET**

 In a selective set operation, the bit pattern in B is used to set certain bits in A

 If a bit in B is set to 1, that same position in A gets set to 1, otherwise that bit in A keeps its previous value

#### **SELECTIVE COMPLEMENT**

 In a selective complement operation, the bit pattern in B is used to complement certain bits in A

 If a bit in B is set to 1, that same position in A gets complemented from its original value, otherwise it is unchanged

# **SELECTIVE CLEAR**

 In a selective clear operation, the bit pattern in B is used to clear certain bits in A

 If a bit in B is set to 1, that same position in A gets set to 0, otherwise it is unchanged

# **MASK OPERATION**

 In a mask operation, the bit pattern in B is used to clear certain bits in A

 If a bit in B is set to 0, that same position in A gets set to 0, otherwise it is unchanged

# **CLEAR OPERATION**

 In a clear operation, if the bits in the same position in A and B are the same, they are cleared in A, otherwise they are set in A

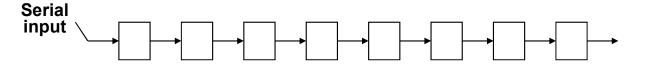
### **INSERT OPERATION**

- An insert operation is used to introduce a specific bit pattern into A register, leaving the other bit positions unchanged
- This is done as
  - A mask operation to clear the desired bit positions, followed by
  - An OR operation to introduce the new bits into the desired positions
  - Example
    - Suppose you wanted to introduce 1010 into the low order four bits of A: 1101 1000 1011 0001 A (Original) 1101 1000 1011 1010 A (Desired)

| <b>&gt;&gt;</b> | 1101 | 1000 | 1011 | 0001 | A (Original)     |
|-----------------|------|------|------|------|------------------|
|                 | 1111 | 1111 | 1111 | 0000 | Mask             |
|                 | 1101 | 1000 | 1011 | 0000 | A (Intermediate) |
|                 | 0000 | 0000 | 0000 | 1010 | Added bits       |
|                 | 1101 | 1000 | 1011 | 1010 | A (Desired)      |

# SHIFT MICROOPERATIONS

- There are three types of shifts
  - Logical shift
  - Circular shift
  - Arithmetic shift
- What differentiates them is the information that goes into the serial input
- A right shift operation

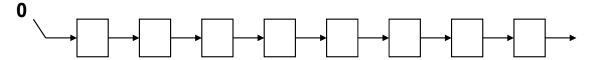


• A left shift operation

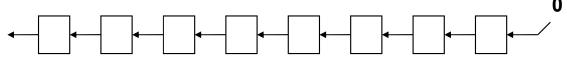
Serial input

### **LOGICAL SHIFT**

- In a logical shift the serial input to the shift is a 0.
- A right logical shift operation:



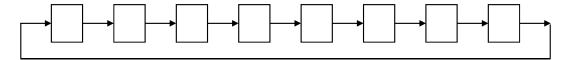
• A left logical shift operation:



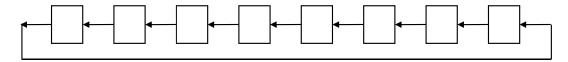
- In a Register Transfer Language, the following notation is used
  - shl for a logical shift left
  - shr for a logical shift right
  - Examples:
    - » R2 ← *shr* R2
    - » R3 ← *shl* R3

### **CIRCULAR SHIFT**

- In a circular shift the serial input is the bit that is shifted out of the other end of the register.
- A right circular shift operation:



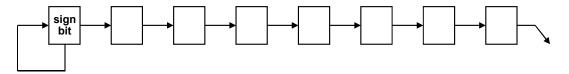
• A left circular shift operation:



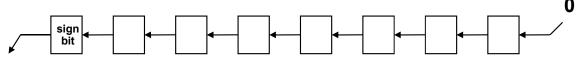
- In a RTL, the following notation is used
  - cil for a circular shift left
  - cir for a circular shift right
  - Examples:
    - » R2 ← *cir* R2
    - » R3 ← *cil* R3

### **ARITHMETIC SHIFT**

- An arithmetic shift is meant for signed binary numbers (integer)
- An arithmetic left shift multiplies a signed number by two
- An arithmetic right shift divides a signed number by two
- The main distinction of an arithmetic shift is that it must keep the sign of the number the same as it performs the multiplication or division
- A right arithmetic shift operation:

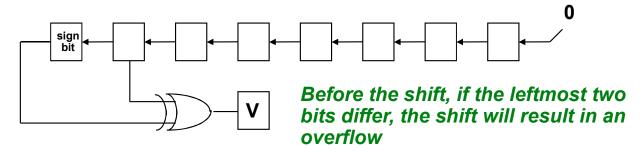


• A left arithmetic shift operation:



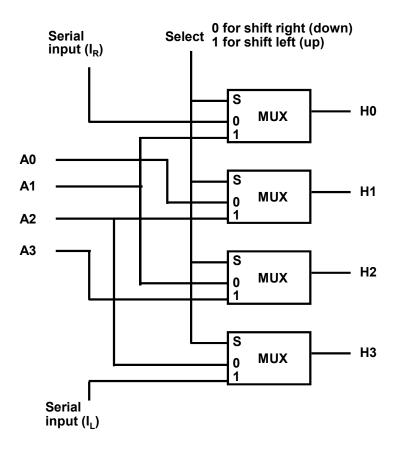
### **ARITHMETIC SHIFT**

An left arithmetic shift operation must be checked for the overflow

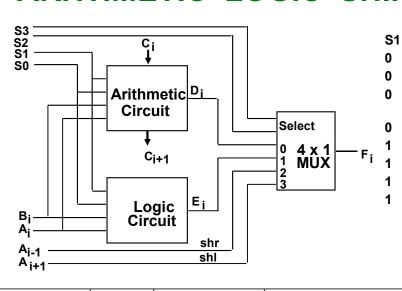


- In a RTL, the following notation is used
  - ashl for an arithmetic shift left
  - ashr for an arithmetic shift right
  - Examples:
    - » R2 ← ashr R2
    - » R3 ← ashl R3

#### HARDWARE IMPLEMENTATION OF SHIFT MICROOPERATIONS



# ARITHMETIC LOGIC SHIFT UNIT



Truth Table of
Arithmtic Logic Shift
Unit

|    | S3 | S2 | S1 | S0 | Cin | Operation     | Function             |
|----|----|----|----|----|-----|---------------|----------------------|
|    | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0   | F = A         | Transfer A           |
|    | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 1   | F = A + 1     | Increment A          |
| ft | 0  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 0   | F = A + B     | Addition             |
| ΙL | 0  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1   | F = A + B + 1 | Add with carry       |
|    | 0  | 0  | 1  | 0  | 0   | F = A + B'    | Subtract with borrow |
|    | 0  | 0  | 1  | 0  | 1   | F = A + B'+ 1 | Subtraction          |
|    | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 0   | F = A - 1     | Decrement A          |
|    | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 1   | F = A         | TransferA            |
|    | 0  | 1  | 0  | 0  | X   | F = A ∧ B     | AND                  |
|    | 0  | 1  | 0  | 1  | X   | F = A ∨ B     | OR                   |
|    | 0  | 1  | 1  | 0  | X   | F = A ⊕ B     | XOR                  |
|    | 0  | 1  | 1  | 1  | X   | F = A'        | Complement A         |
|    | 1  | 0  | X  | Χ  | X   | F = shr A     | Shift right A into F |
|    | 1  | 1  | X  | X  | X   | F = shl A     | Shift left A into F  |

#### **Truth Table of Arithmatic Circuit**

| ı | S0 | Cin | Υ  | Output         | Microoperation       |
|---|----|-----|----|----------------|----------------------|
|   | 0  | 0   | В  | D = A + B      | Add                  |
|   | 0  | 1   | В  | D = A + B + 1  | Add with carry       |
|   | 1  | 0   | B' | D = A + B'     | Subtract with borrow |
|   | 1  | 1   | B' | D = A + B' + 1 | Subtract             |
|   | 0  | 0   | 0  | D = A          | Transfer A           |
|   | 0  | 1   | 0  | D = A + 1      | Increment A          |
|   | 1  | 0   | 1  | D = A - 1      | <b>Decrement A</b>   |
|   | 1  | 1   | 1  | D = A          | Transfer A           |
|   |    | _   | 4. |                |                      |

#### **Truth Table of Logic Circuit**

| S₁ | S <sub>0</sub> | Output           | μ-operation |
|----|----------------|------------------|-------------|
| 0  | 0              | $F = A \wedge B$ | AND         |
| 0  | 1              | $F = A \vee B$   | OR          |
| 1  | 0              | $F = A \oplus B$ | XOR         |
| 1  | 1              | F = A'           | Complement  |

# **Previous GTU Questions**

- Explain how complement number system is useful in computer system.
   Discuss any one complement number system with example. 07
- Define RTL. Explain how register transfer takes place in basic computer system 07
- What is a micro operation? List and explain its categories. 07
- What do you mean by register transfer? Explain in detail. Also discuss threestate bus buffer.

- Represent the following conditional control statement(s) by two register transfer statements with control function. If (P = 1) then (R1<= R2) else if (Q=1) then (R1<=R3)</li>
- Which information is stored by Program Counter (PC)?
- State true or false: With floating point numbers, the divide overflow imposes no problem(s).
- State true or false: In binary number system, B A is equivalent to B +  $\bar{A}$  + 1.
- Design a digital circuit for 4-bit binary adder. 03
- Explain hardware implementation of common bus system using three- 04 2 state buffers. Mention assumptions if required
- Draw and explain flowchart for addition and subtraction operations with signmagnitude data.

- Define term RTL.
- What is PSW (flag)
- What is computer organization?
- Explain Accumulator.
- Explain Micro operation.
- Explain Gray Code. 03
- Explain BCD Adder with its block diagram 07
- Write down RTL statements for the fetch and decode operation of basic computer. 03
- Explain how (r-1)'s complement is calculated. Calculate 9's complement of 546700.
- Define RTL. Give block diagram and timing diagram of transfer of R1 to R2 when P=1.
- Explain BCD adder with diagram. 07
- Define RTL. Give an example of register transfer of data through accumulator. 04
- Explain the role if tri-state buffer with example. 03
- What is multiplexing? Explain the multiplexing of control signals in ALU. 07
- List and explain types of shift operations on accumulator. 07
- What is PSW? Explain each bit of it. 03

- 1. How negative integer number represented in memory? Explain with suitable example
- 2. Explain floating point representation. 04
- 3. Explain shift micro operations and Draw neat and clean diagram for 4- bit combinational circuit shifter
- 4. Explain the significance of every bit of Program Status Word (PSW). 04
- 5. Represent (8620)10 in (1) binary (2) Excess-3 code and (3) 2421 code. 03
- 6. Explain 4-bit adder-subtractor with diagram. 04
- 7. Explain selective set, selective complement and selective clear. 03
- 8. Draw the block diagram of 4-bit arithmetic circuit and explain it in detail. 07
- 9. Explain logical shift, circular shift and arithmetic shift micro operations. 03
- 10. Explain Three-state bus buffer. 03
- 11. Explain BCD adder in brief. 04

- 1. What is Tri-State buffer? Why it is useful to form a bus system?
- 2. Explain arithmetic shift left operation. Describe how overflow is handled
- 3. Explain BCD adder with diagram. 07

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- 1. What is combinational circuit? Explain multiplexer in detail. How many NAND gates are needed to implement 4 x 1 MUX
- 2. What is RAM and ROM? 03

- 1. What is PSW? Explain each bit of it 03
- 2. Design a digital circuit for 4-bit binary adder 03
- 3. Explain 4 bit arithmetic circuit with suitable diagram. 04
- 4. Explain BCD adder in brief 04
- 5. Explain hardware implementation of common bus system using threeState buffers. Mention assumptions if required. 04

- 1. Explain three state buffers. 03
- 2. Construct a 4-bit adder-subtractor circuit. 04