Chapter 7 Memory and Programmable Logic

Outline

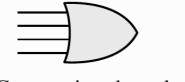
- Random-Access Memory
- Memory Decoding
- Error Detecting and Correction
- Read-Only Memory
- Programmable Logic Array
- Programmable Array Logic
- Sequential Programmable Devices

Introduction

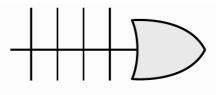
- A memory unit
 - is a storage to provide and to receive binary information.
 - is a collection of cells stores binary information
- RAM Random-Access Memory
 - To accept new information for storage to be available later for use
 - Memory read operation
 - Memory write operation
- ROM Read-Only Memory
 - The information inside can not be altered by writing.
 - A programmable logic device specified by some hardware procedure.

Introduction

- Programmable Logic Device (PLD)
 - ROM- data is written in when memory is fabricated.
 - PLA— programmable logic array: data is written in through burning machine.
 - PAL— programmable array logic: data is written in through burning machine.
 - FPGA— field-programmable gate array: data is written in through download port from external system.
 - programmable logic blocks
 - programmable interconnects



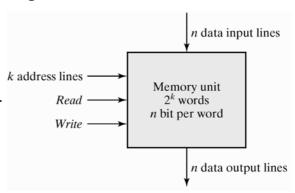
(a) Conventional symbol



(b) Array logic symbol

Random-Access Memory

- Characteristics
 - The time it takes to transfer data to or from any desired location is always the same.
 - The communication between a memory and its environment is achieved through
 - Data input lines,
 - Data output lines,
 - Address selection lines, and
 - Control lines (read and write).
- A memory unit (width)
 - stores binary information in groups of bits (words)
 - 8 bits (a byte), 2 bytes, 4 bytes

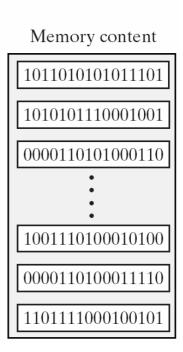


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Memory Content Array

- A memory with k-bit address has 2^k data.
 (depth)
- (depth) x (width) memory
 - Ex. An 1k*16 Memory

Memory a	address
Binary	Decimal
0000000000	0
0000000001	1
0000000010	2
	•
	•
1111111101	1021
1111111110	1022
1111111111	1023



Write and Read Operations

- Write operation
 - Apply the binary address to the address lines
 - Apply the data bits to the data input lines
 - Activate the write input
- Read operation
 - Apply the binary address to the address lines
 - Activate the read input

Control Inputs to Memory Chip

Memory Enable	Read/Write	Memory Operation
0	X	None
1	0	Write to selected word
1	1	Read from selected word

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Memory Description in HDL

■ Declaration: **reg** [width-:0] memword [0:depth-1]

```
// Read and write operations of memory
// Memory size is 64 words of 4 bits each
module memory(Enable, ReadWrite, Address, DataIn, DataOut);
 input Enable, ReadWrite;
 input [3:0] DataIn;
 input [5:0] Address;
 output [3:0] DataOut;
 reg
        [3:0] DataOut;
        [3:0] Mem [0:63];
 always @ (Enable or ReadWrite)
  if (Enable)
   if (ReadWrite) DataOut = Mem[Address]; // Read
   else Mem[Address] = DataIn;
                                            // Write
  else DataOut = 4'bz;
                                            // High impedance state
endmodule
```

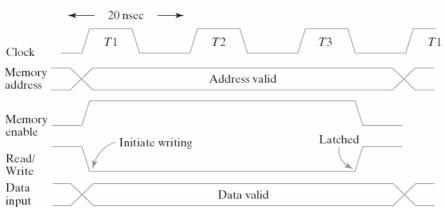
Timing Waveforms

- The operation of the memory unit is controlled by an external device such as CPU
- The *access time* is the time required to select a word and read it
- The *cycle time* is the time required to complete a write operation
- Read and write operations must be controlled by CPU and be synchronized with an external clock.

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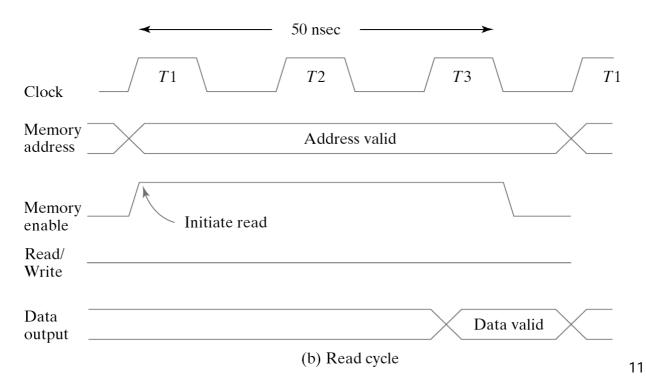
Memory Cycle Timing Waveforms

- CPU clock 50 MHz (20ns period)
- A write cycle
 - T1: Providing the address and input data to the memory, and the read/write control signal
 - Address bus and read/write control must stay active for 50ns
 - The address and data signal must remain stable for a short time after control signal is deactivated.



Memory Cycle Timing Waveforms

A Read Cycle



Types of Memories

- Sequential access memory
 - The information stored in the medium is available only at certain interval of time.
 - The access time depends on the location of the accessed word. The access time is variable.
 - A magnetic disk or tape is this type.
- Random access memory
 - The access time is always the same regardless of the particular location of the word.
 - Integrated circuit memory is this type

Static and Dynamic Memory

Static memory

- Information are stored in latches.
- Data remains valid as long as power is applied.
- Read/write cycle is shorter.
- Control is easier

Dynamic memory

- Information are stored in the form of charges on capacitors.
- Refreshing: The stored charge tends to discharge with time and need be refreshed (read and write back) due to leakage current.
- Power consumption is reduced.
- Memory capacity is larger.

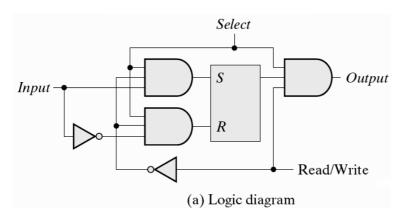
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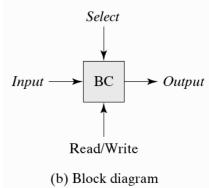
Volatile and Non-Volatile Memory

- Volatile Memory
 - Stored information is lost when power is turned off.
 - SRAM, DRAM
- Non-volatile Memory
 - Stored information is retained after the removal of power.
 - Magnetic disk or tape
 - ROM
 - EPROM, EEPROM
 - Flash memory
 - Ex. The startup of the computer must use the program in the *non-volatile* memory (ROM).

Memory Decoding

- A memory unit has two parts
 - the storage components
 - the decoding circuits to select the memory word
- A basic memory cell model (Virtual, not practical)
 - Actually, the cell is an electronic circuit with four to six transistors.



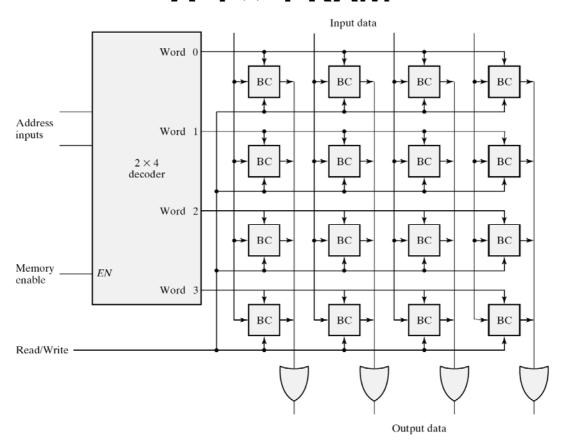


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Internal Construction

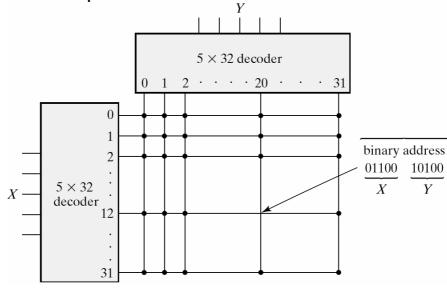
- A RAM of *m* (*depth*) words and *n* (*width*) bits per word
 - m*n binary storage cells
 - Decoding circuits to select individual words
 - k-to-2k decoder : address input to word line
 - Read/Write control
 - Input data/Output data

$A 4 \times 4 RAM$



Coincident Decoding

- A two-dimensional selection scheme
 - To reduce the complexity of the decoding circuits
 - To arrange the memory cells in an array that is close as possible to square



Example

- A 10-to-1024 decoder
 - 1024 AND gates with 10 inputs per gates
- Two 5-to-32 decoders
 - 2 * (32 AND gates with 5 inputs per gates)
- Each word in the memory is selected by the coincidence between 1 of 32 rows and 1 of 32 columns for a total 1,024 words.
- Two dimensional decoding structure reduces the circuit complexity and the cycle time of the memory.

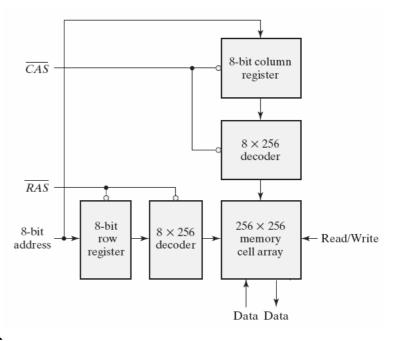
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Address Multiplexing

- Address multiplexing reduces the number of pins in the IC package (especially DRAM)
 - DRAM is about four times the density of SRAM, thus has larger capacity than SRAM and more address bits.
 - Ex. a 64M*1 DRAM
 - 26-bit address lines
 - In order to reduce the pins in IC package, multiplexing the address lines (espcially in DRAM) is utilized in one set of address input pins.

Address Multiplexing

- An examples
 - RAS row address strobe
 - CAS column address strobe
- 8-bit MSB and 8-bit
 LSB addresses are
 multiplexed into
 column register
 through 8 input pins

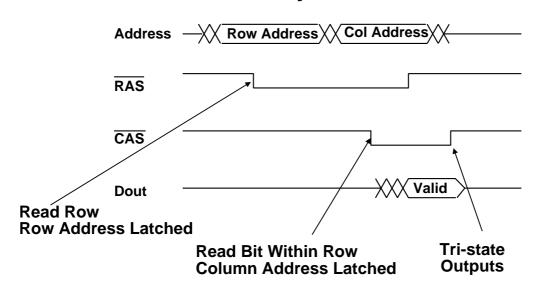


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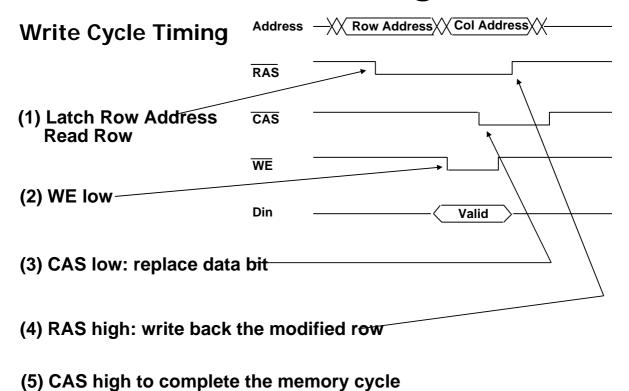
RAS, CAS Addressing - Read

- Even to read 1 bit, an entire 64-bit row is read!
- Separate addressing into two cycles: Row Address, Column Address
- Saves on package pins, speeds RAM access for sequential bits!

Read Cycle



RAS, CAS Addressing - Write



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Error Detection And Correction

- Error detection and correction improve the reliability of a memory unit.
- A simple error detection scheme
 - A parity bit (Sec. 3-8) is stored with the data and checked after reading out from the memory.
 - A single bit error can be detected, but cannot be corrected.
- An error-correction code
 - To generates multiple parity check bits and be stored with the memory
 - To read out and check a unique pattern, called a syndrome.
 - The specific bit in error can be identified and corrected by implementing erroneous bits.

Hamming Code

- k parity bits are added to an n-bit data word
 - $(2^k 1 \ge n + k)$
 - The bit positions are numbered in sequence from 1 to
 n + k
 - Those positions numbered as a power of 2 are reserved for the parity bits
 - The remaining bits are the data bits

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Hamming Code – Encoding

- Example: 8-bit data word 11000100
 - Include 4 parity bits and the 8-bit word \Rightarrow 12 bits

$$2^k-1\geq n+k,\ n=8\Rightarrow k=4$$

Bit position: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

Calculate the parity bits: even parity – assumption

$$P_1$$
 = XOR of bits (3, 5, 7, 9, 11) = 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 = 0

$$P_2 = XOR \text{ of bits } (3, 6, 7, 10, 11) = 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 = 0$$

$$P_4 = XOR \text{ of bits } (5, 6, 7, 12) = 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 = 1$$

$$P_8$$
 = XOR of bits (9, 10, 11, 12) = 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 = 1

- Store the 12-bit composite word in memory.

Hamming Code – Decoding

- When the 12 bits are read from the memory
 - Check bits are calculated using XOR operation for oddparity

```
C_1 = XOR \text{ of bits } (1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11)
```

$$C_2 = XOR \text{ of bits } (2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 11)$$

$$C_4 = XOR \text{ of bits } (4, 5, 6, 7, 12)$$

$$C_8 = XOR \text{ of bits } (8, 9, 10, 11, 12)$$

If no error has occurred

Bit position: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
0 0 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{C} = C_8 C_4 C_2 C_1 = 0000$$

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Hamming Code – Decoding

- One-bit error
 - error in bit 1

$$\blacksquare$$
 C₁ = XOR of bits (1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11) = 1

$$C_2 = XOR of bits (2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 11) = 0$$

$$C_4 = XOR \text{ of bits } (4, 5, 6, 7, 12) = 0$$

$$C_8 = XOR of bits (8, 9, 10, 11, 12) = 0$$

$$C_8 C_4 C_2 C_1 = 0001$$

- error in bit 5
 - $C_8C_4C_2C_1 = 0101$
- Two-bit error can not be identified.
 - errors in bits 1 and 5
 - errors in bit 4

$$C_8C_4C_2C_1 = 0100$$

Hamming Code

- The Hamming code can be used for data of nay length
 - k check bits
 - $-2^{k}-1 \ge n + k$

Table 7.2

Range of Data Bits for k Check Bits

Number of Check Bits, k	Range of Data Bits, n
3	2–4
4	5–11
5	12–26
6	27–57
7	58–120

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Single-Error Correction, Double-Error Detection

- Hamming code
 - It can detect and correct only a single error
 - Multiple errors may not be detected.
- Hamming code + a parity bit
 - It can detect double errors and correct a single error.
 - The additional parity bit is the XOR of all the other bits.

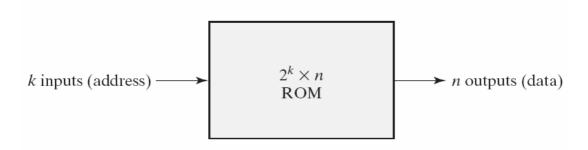
Single-Error Correction, Double-Error Detection

- When the word is read from memory
 - If P = 0, the parity is correct; P = 1, incorrect
 - Four cases
 - 1. If C = 0, P = 0, no error
 - 2. If $C \neq 0$, P = 1, a single error that can be corrected
 - 3. If $C \neq 0$, P = 0, a double error that is detected but cannot be corrected
 - 4. If C = 0, P = 1, an error occurred in the P_{13} bit

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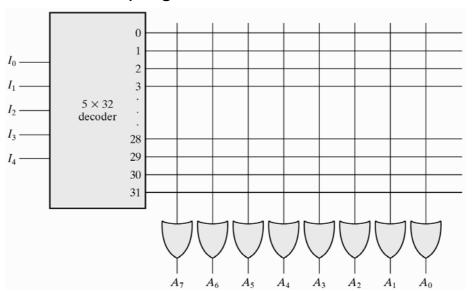
Read-Only Memory

- ROM stores permanent binary information
 - Once the pattern is established in the ROM, it stays within the unit when power is on or off.
- \blacksquare 2^k x n ROM
 - k address input lines
 - enable input(s)
 - three-state outputs



Example

- 32 x 8 ROM
 - $-5 (k) to 32 (2^{k})$ decoder
 - 32 (2^k) outputs of the decoder are connected to each of the eight OR gates, which have 32(2^k) inputs
 - 32 x 8 internal programmable connections



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ROM Programming

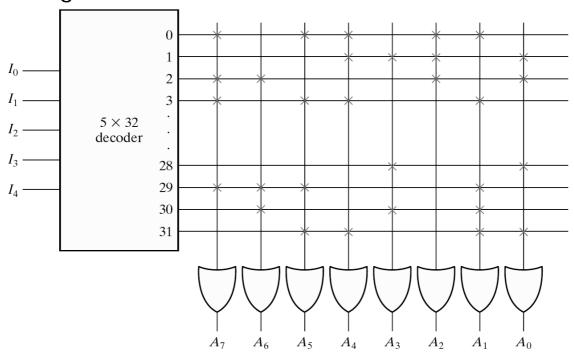
- Programmable interconnections
 - close [1]: connected to high voltage
 - open [0]: ground left
 - A fuse that can be blown by applying a high voltage pulse
 Example

ROM Truth Table (Partial)

	Inputs				Inputs Outputs									
I ₄	I ₃	I ₂	<i>I</i> ₁	10	A ₇	<i>A</i> ₆	A ₅	A_4	A ₃	A ₂	<i>A</i> ₁	A_0		
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0		
0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1		
0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1		
0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0		
		ŧ							:					
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1		
1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	O	0	0	1	0		
1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0		
1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1		

Programmable Interconnections

ROM programming according to ROM table using fusing.



Combinational Circuit Implementation

- The internal operation of ROM can be interpreted in two ways.
 - A memory contains a fixed pattern of stored words.
 - A unit that implements a combination circuit as sum of minterns in Section 4-8.
- ROM: a decoder + OR gates
 - a Boolean function = sum of minterms
 - Example: $A_7 = (I_4, I_3, I_2, I_1, I_0) = \Sigma(0, 2, 3, ..., 29)$
 - For an n-input, m-output combinational circuit $\Rightarrow 2^n \times m$ ROM
- Design procedure:
 - 1. Determine the size of ROM
 - 2. Obtain the programming truth table of the ROM
 - 3. The truth table = the fuse pattern

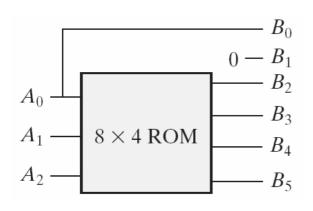
Example

- A combination circuit has 3 inputs, 6 outputs
- $\blacksquare B_1 = 0, B_0 = A_0$
- 8 x 4 ROM is used.

	Outputs							nput	
Decimal	Bo	<i>B</i> ₁	B ₂	B ₃	B ₄	B ₅	A ₀	A ₁	A ₂
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
4	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
9	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
16	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
25	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1
36	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
49	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1

ROM Implementation

Truth Table



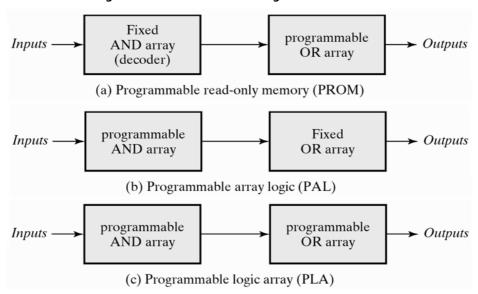
A_2	A_1	A_0	B_5	B_4	B_3	B_2
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	1
0	1	1	0	0	1	0
1	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1	0	0

Types of ROM

- Mask programming ROM
 - Data is programmed by IC manufacturers
 - It is economical if a large quantity of the same ROM
- PROM: Programmable ROM
 - Fuses in the ROM are blown by high-voltage pulse
 - Universal programmer can program PROM one time.
- EPROM: erasable PROM
 - Floating gate
 - The data in the ROM can be erased by ultraviolet light.
- EEPROM: electrically erasable PROM
 - Longer time is needed to write
 - Flash ROM
 - Limited times of write operations

Combinational PLDs

- PLD : Programmable logic device
- Programmable two-level logic
 - Sum of products
 - an AND array and an OR array

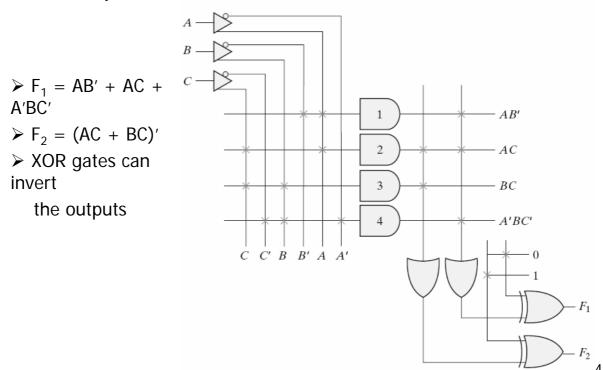


Programmable Logic Array

- PLA has two main parts
 - An array of programmable AND gates
 - can generate any product terms of the inputs
 - An array of programmable OR gates
 - can generate the sums of the products
- PLA is more flexible than programmable ROM
 - PLA uses any combination of products while programmable ROM uses sum of minterms
- PLA uses less circuits than programmable ROM
 - Only the needed product terms are generated in PLA while all the minterms must be generated in programmable ROM.

Programmable Logic Array

■ An example:



PLA Programming Table

- PLA programming table
 - specify the fuse map
 - 1st column: List the product terms numerically
 - 2nd column: Specify the required paths between inputs and AND gates.
 - 3rd column: Specify the required paths between the AND gates and OR gates.
 - (T)(C) stands for true or complement for programming XOR gate.

		1	nput	s	Out (T)	puts (C)
	Product Term	Α	В	C	F ₁	F ₂
AB'	1	1	0	_	1	_
AC	2	1	_	1	1	1
BC	3	_	1	1		1
A'BC'	4	0	1	0	1	_

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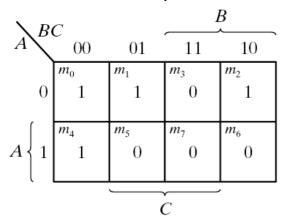
Characteristics of PLA

- The size of a PLA is determined by
 - The number of inputs
 - The number of product terms (AND gates)
 - The number of outputs (OR gates)
- When implementing with a PLA
 - One must reduce the number of distinct product terms before implementation.
 - The number of terms in a product is not important.
- Mask programmable and field programmable

Example

■ Example

- $F_1(A, B, C) = \sum (0, 1, 2, 4); F_2(A, B, C) = \sum (0, 5, 6, 7)$
- both the true value and the complement of the function should be simplified to check



$$F_1 = A'B' + A'C' + B'C'$$

= $(AB + AC + BC)'$

$$F_2 = AB + AC + A'B'C'$$

= $(A'B + A'C + AB'C')'$

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PLA Programming Table

$$\bullet F_1 = (AB + AC + BC)'$$

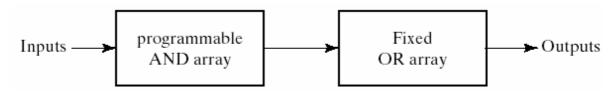
$$\bullet F_2 = AB + AC + A'B'C'$$

PLA programming table

					Out	tputs
	Product	Iı	ıpu'	ts	(C)	(T)
	term	A	В	C	F_1	F_2
\overline{AB}	1	1	1	_	1	1
AC	2	1	_	1	1	1
BC	3	_	1	1	1	_
A'B'	C' 4	0	0	0	_	1

Programmable Array Logic

- A programmable AND array and a fixed OR array
 - The PAL is easier to program, but is not as flexible as the PLA

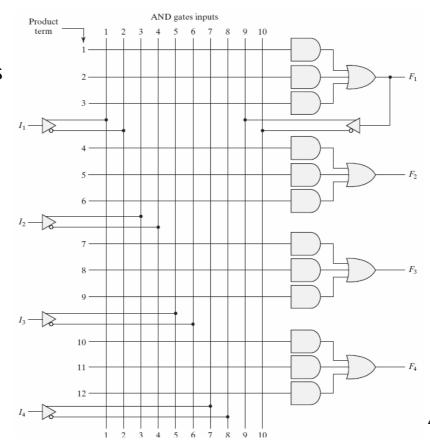


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PAL Structure

An example PAL

product terms cannot be shared.



An Example Implementation

$$w(A,B,C,D) = \sum (2, 12, 13)$$

$$x(A,B,C,D) = \sum (7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14)$$

$$y(A,B,C,D) = \sum (0, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 15)$$

$$z(A,B,C,D) = \sum (1, 2, 8, 12, 13)$$

Simplify the functions

$$w = ABC' + A'B'CD'$$

$$x = A + BCD$$

$$y = A'B + CD + B'D'$$

$$z = ABC' + A'B'CD' + AC'D' + A'B'C'D$$

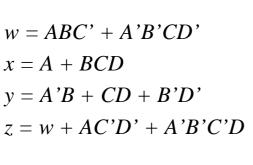
$$= w + AC'D' + A'B'C'D$$

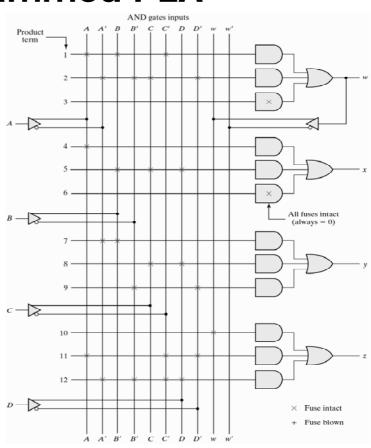
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PAL Programming Table

		AN	D Inp	outs				
Product Term	A	В	C	D	w	Outputs		
1	1	1	0	_	_	w = ABC' + A'B'CD'		
2	0	0	1	0	_			
3	_	_	_	_	-			
4	1			-	_	x = A + BCD		
5		1	1	1	_			
6		_	_	_	_			
7	0	1	_	_	;	y = A'B + CD + B'D'		
8	_	—	1	1	_			
9		0	_	0	-			
10		_	_	_	1	z = w + AC'D' + A'B'C'D		
11	1	_	0	0	_			
12	0	0	0	1				

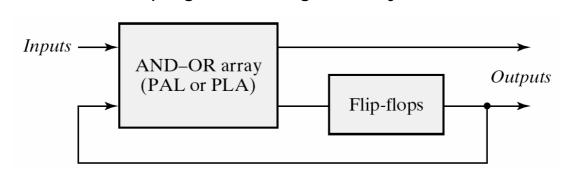
Programmed PLA





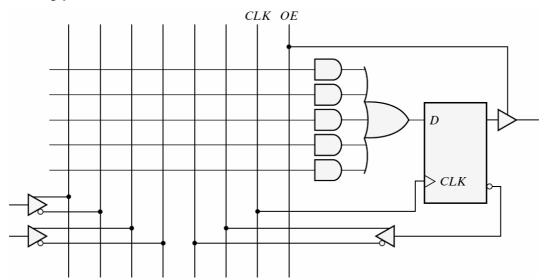
Sequential Programmable Devices

- Sequential programmable devices include both programmable gates and flip-flop.
- Three major types of sequential programmable devices
 - SPLD : Sequential programmable logic device
 - CPLD : Complex programmable logic device
 - FPGA: Field programmable gate array



Sequential PLD

- A PAL or PLA is modified by including a number of flip-flops
 - Sequential PLD macrocell
 - A typical SPLD contains 8-10 macrocells



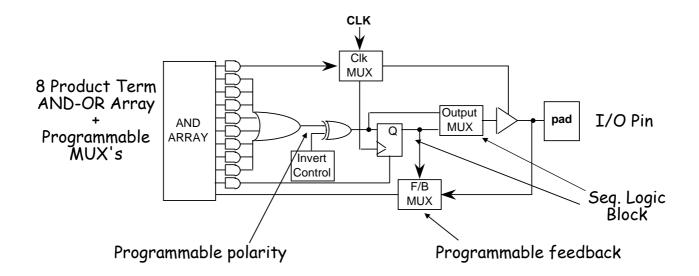
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Sequential PLD

- Programming features:
 - AND array
 - use or bypass the flip-flop
 - select clock edge polarity
 - preset or clear for the register
 - complement an output
 - programmable input/output pins

Example

Altera macrocell

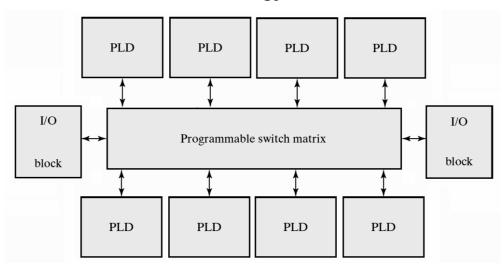


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CPLD

■ Complex PLD

- Puts a lot of PLDs on a chip
- Adds wires between them whose connections can be programmed
- Uses fuse/EEPROM technology

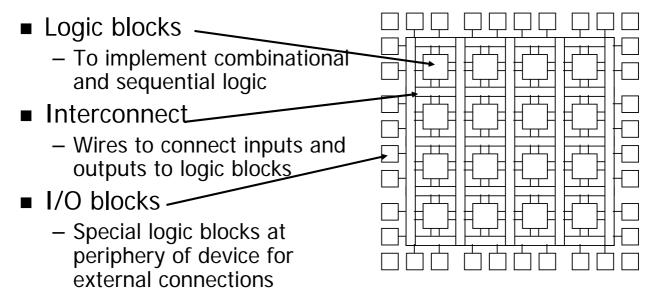


FPGA

- Field-Programmable Gate Array
 - Emulate gate array technology
 - Hence Field Programmable Gate Array
 - You need:
 - A way to implement logic gates
 - A way to connect them together
 - SRAM is often used to configure the combinational circuit function. (Volatile)
- PALs, PLAs = 10 100 Gate Equivalents
- Field Programmable Gate Arrays = FPGAs
 - 100 1000(s) of Gate Equivalents

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Field-Programmable Gate Arrays



- Key questions:
 - How to make logic blocks programmable?
 - How to connect the wires?

Basic Xilinx Architecture

