

3 Sequential Logic [p41]

3.1 Background [p42]

3.1.1 Sequential VS. Combinational Logic

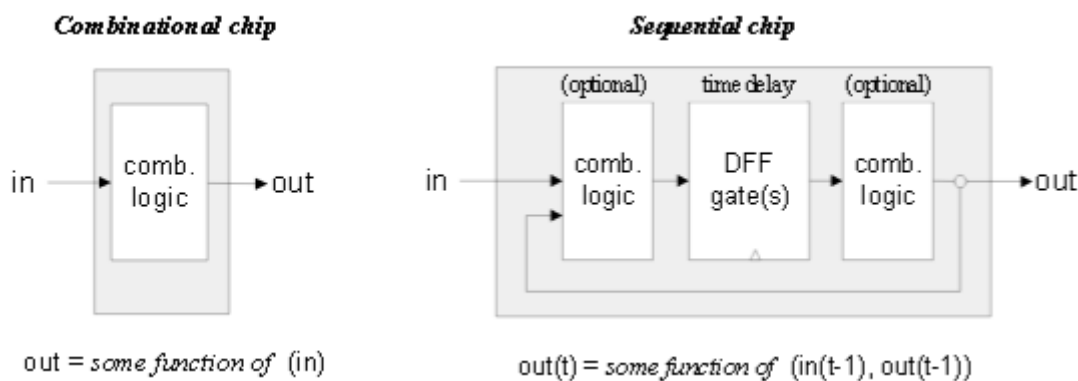
All the chips discussed and built so far are combinational chips:

Combinational devices operate on data only; compute functions that depend solely on *combinations of their values*. This type of chip cannot store and recall values.

Sequential devices operate on data and a clock signal; can be *state-aware* and provide storage and synchronisation services.

The low-level behaviour of sequential gates is **tricky**; although

Theorem 3.1. *Every sequential chip can be based upon the “data flip flop” or DFF sequential gate.*



3.1.2 Memory [p42]

The act of “remembering something” is *time-dependent* (you remember now what has been committed to memory before). So for chip to “remember”, we require s means for representing the progression of time.

Hierarchy of memory chips:

- Flip-flop gates.
- Binary cells.
- Registers.
- RAM.

The Clock Most computers have a master clock that delivers a continuous train of alternating signals between two phases labelled “0” and “1”. The elapsed time between “0” and “1” is the *cycle*, and each clock cycle represent on discrete time unit.

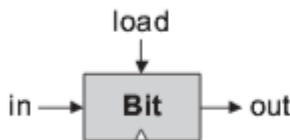
Flip-Flops We consider a variant of a flip-flop called the *data flip-flop*, whose interface consists of a single-bit data input/output, and a *clock* (continuously changing) according to the master clock’s signal: $out(t) = in(t-1)$ where in/out are the input/output values and t is the current clock cycle.



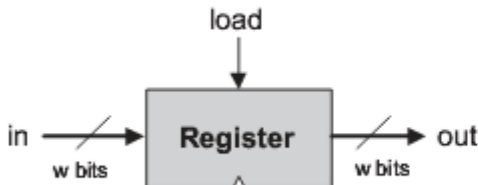
Chip name: DFF
Inputs: in
Outputs: out
Function: $out(t) = in(t-1)$
Comment: This clocked gate has a built-in implementation and thus there is no need to implement it.

Figure 3.1: API for a *data flip-flop* gate; c.f. Nand gate regarding primitive nature.

Registers a storage device that can “remember” a value over time: $out(t) = out(t-1)$; note, a DFF can only output its previous input (i.e. $out(t) = in(t-1)$).



Chip name: Bit
Inputs: in, load
Outputs: out
Function: If $load(t-1)$ then $out(t) = in(t-1)$
 else $out(t) = out(t-1)$

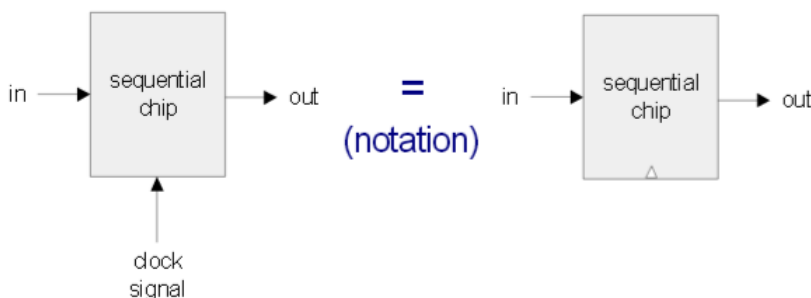


Chip name: Register
Inputs: in[16], load
Outputs: out[16]
Function: If $load(t-1)$ then $out(t) = in(t-1)$
 else $out(t) = out(t-1)$
Comment: “=” is a 16-bit operation.

Figure 3.2: Top: API for a single-bit register (a *Bit*, or *binary cell*) chip.

Bottom: API for a 16-bit register: to **read**, we identify the output; to **write**, we write a new data value $in = d$ into the register and assert (set to 1) the *load* input, and in the next clock cycle the register commits to the new data (outputting d).

Notation 3.2. Represent the clock signal of a sequential chip:



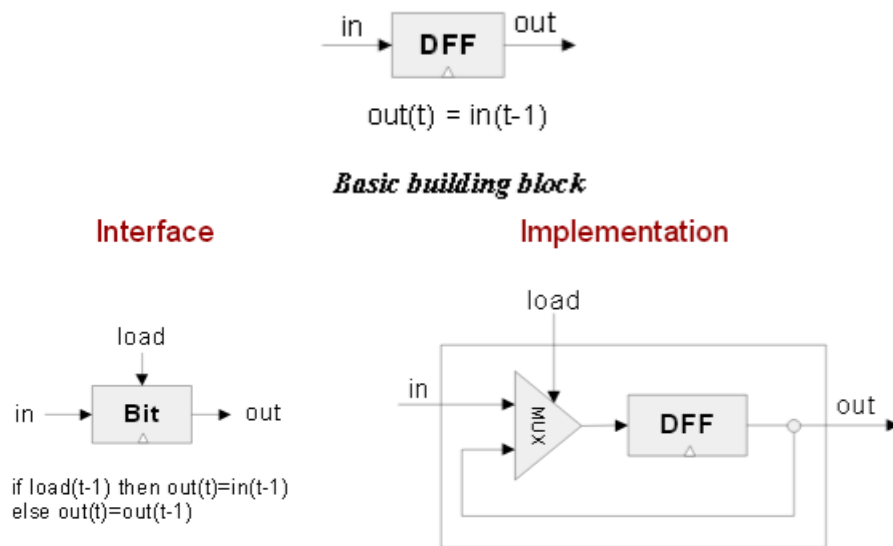
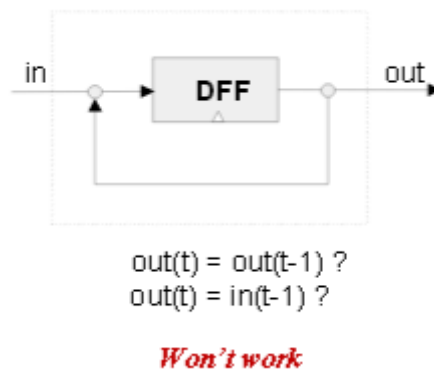


Figure 3.3: From a DFF to a single-bit register: to start storing a new value, set $load = 1$, and keep storing until $load = 0$.

Remark (WARNING:). The following 1-bit register description from a DFF is invalid:



It is not clear how we'll never load new data into this because should we draw input from the *in* or *out* wire? More generally, chips design dictates that *internal pins must have a fan-in of 1*.

Once we have the mechanism for remembering a single bit with time, we construct n -bit wide registers by forming an array of as many single-bit registers as needed.

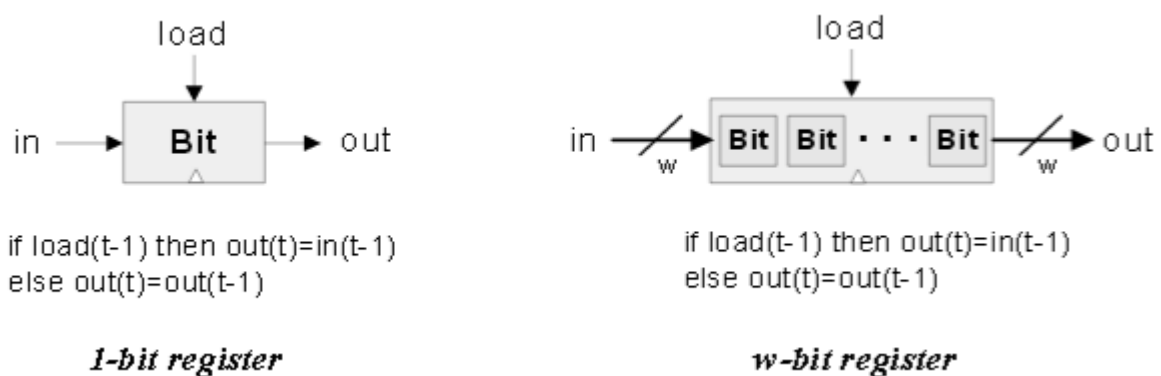


Figure 3.4: From single-bit to multi-bit registers.

The *width* of a register is the number of bits it holds (e.g. 16,32,64, ...). The multi-bit contents of a register are the *words*.

Memories Stacking many register form a *Random Access Memory (RAM)* unit; this name is derived from the requirement that read/write operations of any randomly chosen word on RAM should be accessed directly (in equal speed, irrespective of it physical location). Hence, a classical RAM device accepts three inputs: *data*, *address*, and *load*. *Address* specifies which RAM register to access in the current time unit. If *load* = 0 (a read operation) the RAM's *out* = *value of selected register*; otherwise (a write operation, *load* = 1) the selected memory register commits to the input value.

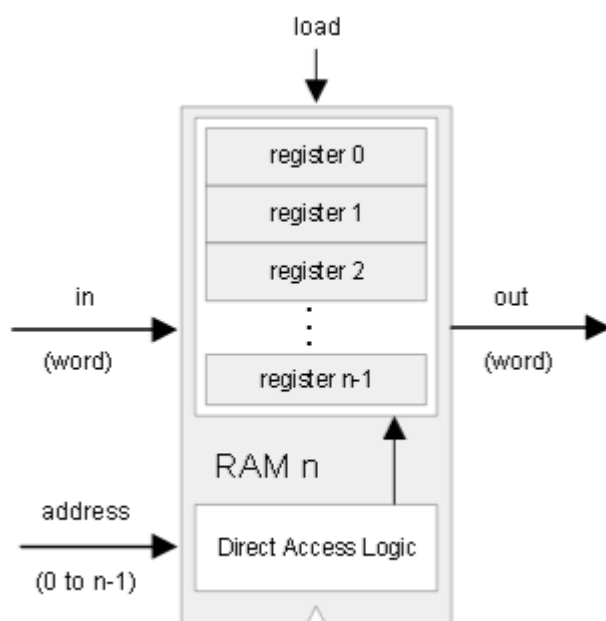
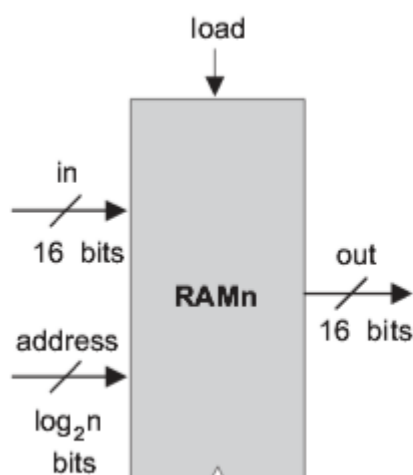


Figure 3.5: RAM.

The *width* of RAM of one of its registers (32- or 64-bit wide RAM).
 The *size* of RAM is the number of registers in the RAM.



Chip name: RAMn // n and k are listed below

Inputs: in[16], address[k], load

Outputs: out[16]

Function: out(t)=RAM[address(t)](t)

If load(t-1) then

RAM[address(t-1)](t)=in(t-1)

Comment: "=" is a 16-bit operation.

The specific RAM chips needed for the Hack platform are:

Chip name	n	k
RAM8	8	3
RAM64	64	6
RAM512	512	9
RAM4K	4096	12
RAM16K	16384	14

Figure 3.6: API for 16-bits wide RAM with various sizes (RAM8, RAM64, RAM512, RAM4K and RAM16”).

Read: to read register number m , input $address = m$ outputting the value of this register (combinational operation independent of the clock).

Write: to write new data d to register number m , input $address = m, in = d$ and assert the $load$ input. In the next clock cycle, the selected register commits the new value d , as well as the RAM outputting this.

Counters a sequential chip whose state is $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ (typically 1) that increments every time unit, effecting $out(t) = out(t-1) + c$. Use for tasks that require such a measure.

3.2 Specification [p47]

Hierarchy of sequential chips:

- Data Flip-flops (DFFs).
- Registers (based on DFFs).
- Memory banks (based on registers).
- Counter chips (based on registers).

3.3 Implementation [p50]

3.4 Perspective [p52]

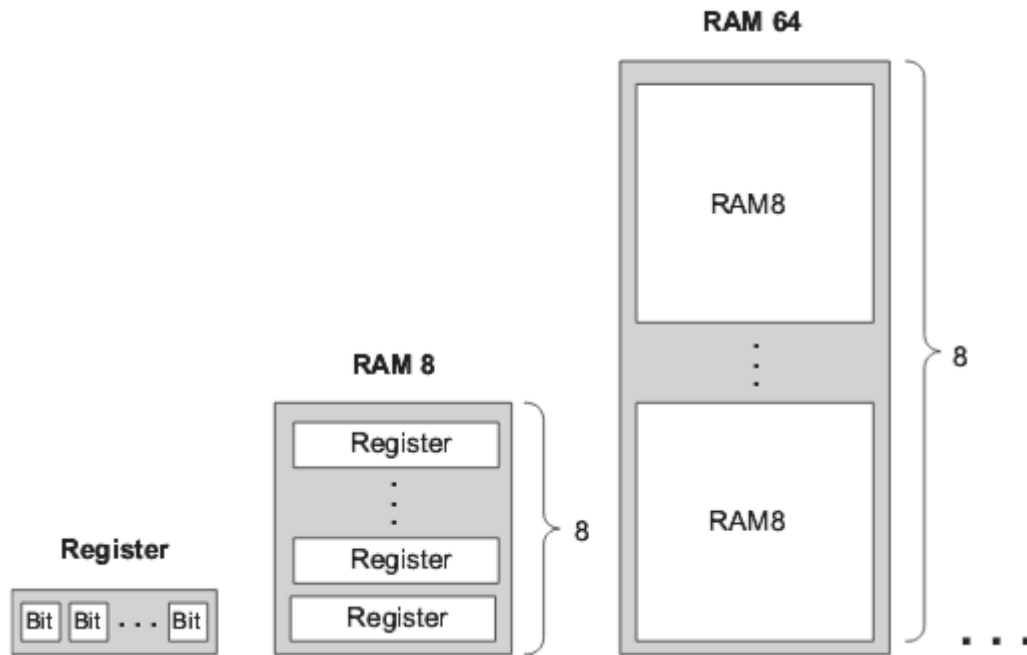


Figure 3.8: Construction of memory banks by recursive ascent.