

Registers and RTL

REGISTER TRANSFER AND MICROOPERATIONS

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

SIMPLE DIGITAL SYSTEMS

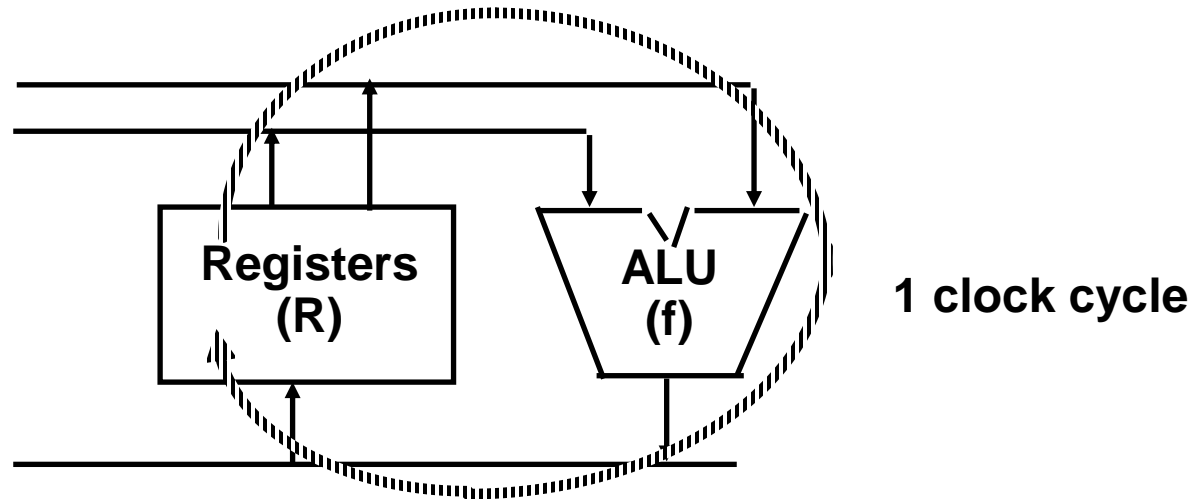
- **Combinational and sequential circuits can be used to create simple digital systems.**
- **These are the low-level building blocks of a digital computer.**
- **Simple digital systems are frequently characterized in terms of**
 - the registers they contain, and
 - the operations that they perform.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

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



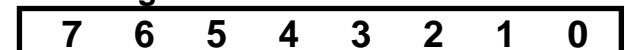
15

0



Numbering of bits

Showing individual bits



15

8 7

0



Subfields

REGISTER TRANSFER

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

$R2 \leftarrow R1$

- 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

$R3 \leftarrow R5$

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: $R2 \leftarrow R1$

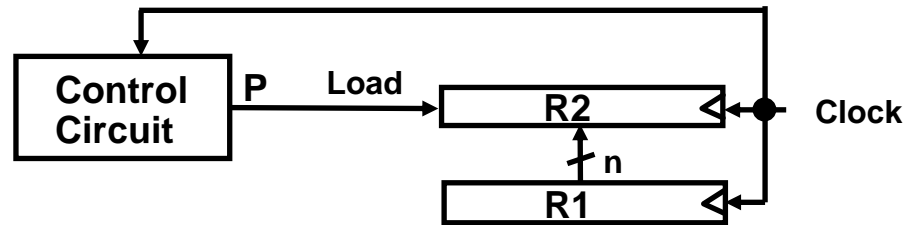
Which means “if $P = 1$, then load the contents of register R1 into register R2”, i.e., if $(P = 1)$ then $(R2 \leftarrow R1)$

HARDWARE IMPLEMENTATION OF CONTROLLED TRANSFERS

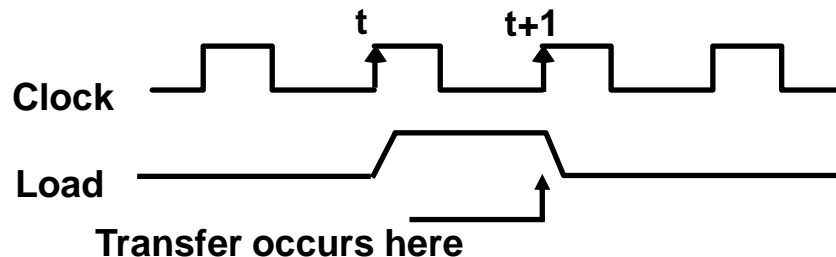
Implementation of controlled transfer

P: $R2 \leftarrow R1$

Block diagram



Timing diagram



- 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

SIMULTANEOUS OPERATIONS

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

P: $R3 \leftarrow R5$, $MAR \leftarrow IR$

- 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 & numerals	Denotes a register	MAR, R2
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 ← B, B ← A

CONNECTING REGISTERS

- 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 $\rightarrow n(n-1)$ lines
- $O(n^2)$ 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: $BUS \leftarrow R$

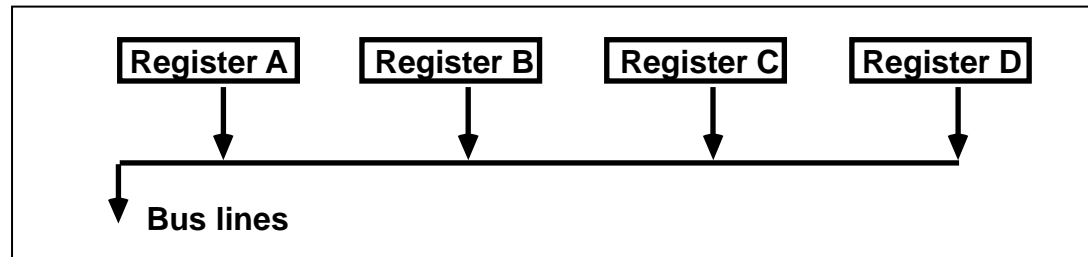


Figure 4-3 Bus system for four registers.

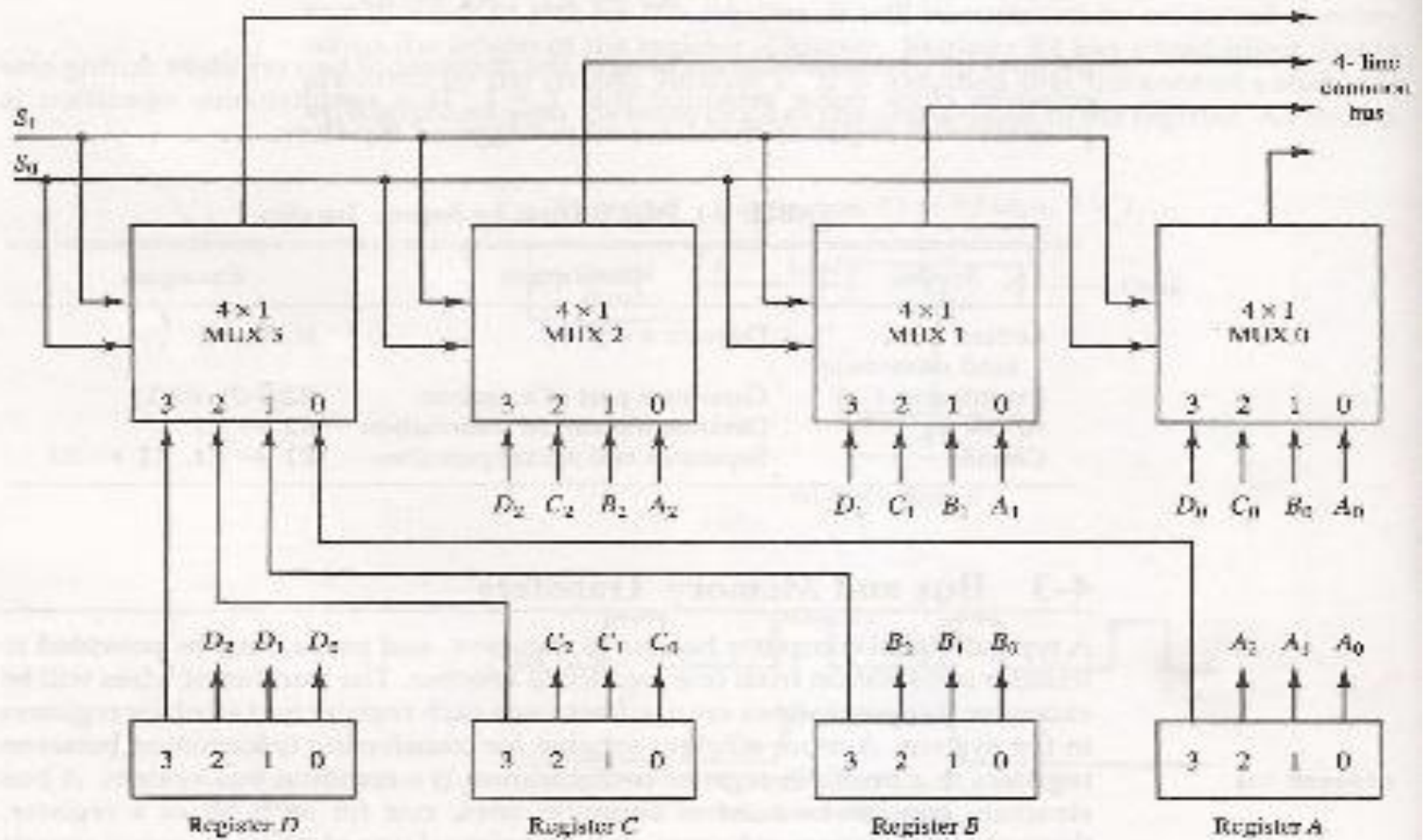


TABLE 4-2 Function Table for Bus of Fig. 4-3

S_1	S_0	Register selected
0	0	A
0	1	B
1	0	C
1	1	D

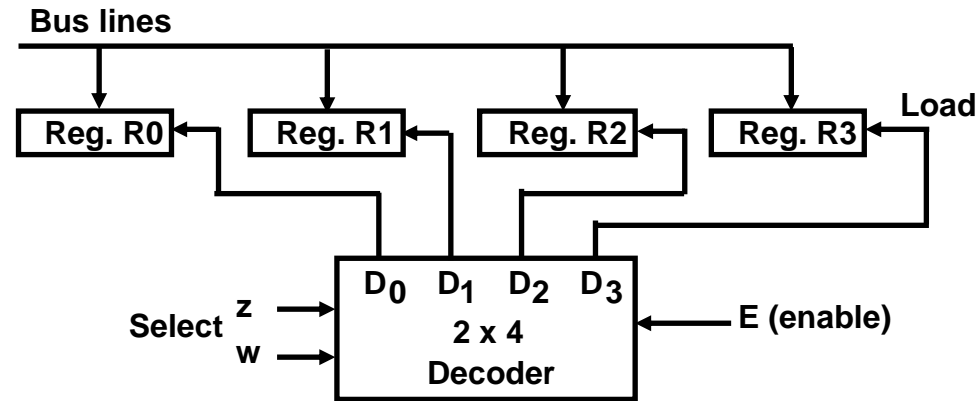
$BUS \leftarrow C, \quad R1 \leftarrow BUS$

$R1 \leftarrow C$

In general, a bus system will multiplex k registers of n bits each to produce an n -line common bus. The number of multiplexers needed to construct the bus is equal to n , the number of bits in each register. The size of each multiplexer must be $k \times 1$ since it multiplexes k data lines.

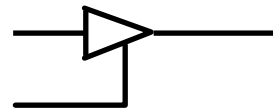
For example, a common bus for eight registers of 16 bits each requires 16 multiplexers, one for each line in the bus. Each multiplexer must have eight data input lines and three selection lines to multiplex one significant bit in the eight registers.

TRANSFER FROM BUS TO A DESTINATION REGISTER



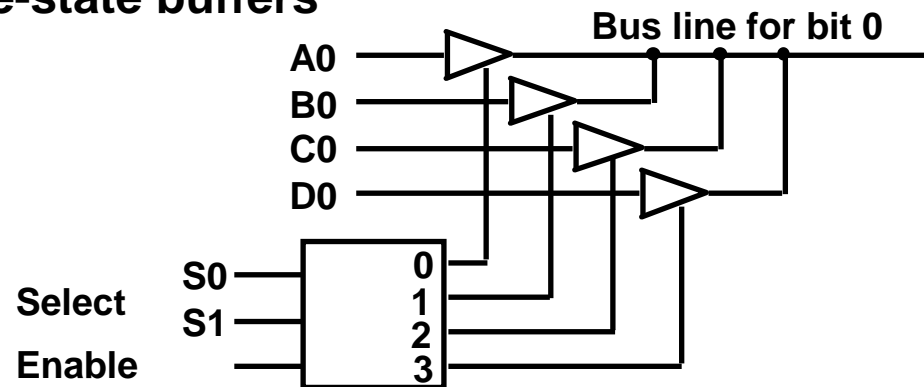
Three-State Bus Buffers

Normal input A
Control input C



Output $Y=A$ if $C=1$
High-impedance 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

$R2 \leftarrow R1$

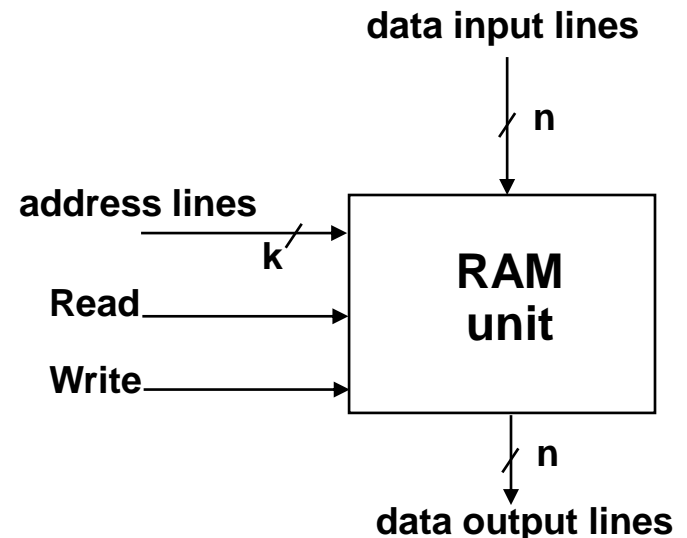
or

$BUS \leftarrow R1, R2 \leftarrow BUS$

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

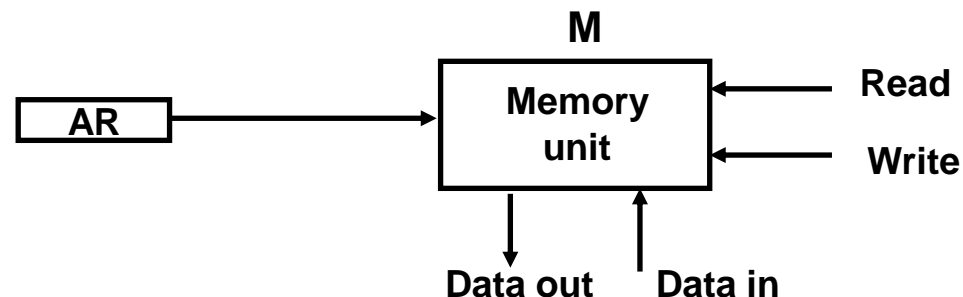
MEMORY (RAM)

- Memory (RAM) can be thought as a sequential circuits that hold the *words* of memory
- Each of the words is indicated by an *address*
- These addresses range from 0 to $r-1$
- Each word can hold n bits of data
- Assume the RAM contains $r = 2^k$ 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 represented by 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:

$$\text{DR} \leftarrow \text{M}[\text{AR}]$$

- This causes the following to occur
 - The contents of the MAR get sent to the memory address lines
 - A Read (= 1) will be enabled for 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 Data register DR

MEMORY WRITE

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

$$M[AR] \leftarrow R1$$

- This causes the following to occur
 - The contents of the MAR get sent to the memory address lines
 - A Write (= 1) will be enabled for 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

$A \leftarrow B$	Transfer content of reg. B into reg. A
$A \leftarrow \text{constant}$	Transfer a binary constant into reg. A
$ABUS \leftarrow R1$	Transfer content of R1 into bus line A
$R2 \leftarrow ABUS$	Transfer content of bus line A into R2
AR	Address register
DR	Data register
$M[R]$	Memory word specified by reg. R
M	Equivalent to $M[AR]$
$DR \leftarrow M$	Memory <i>read</i> operation: transfers content of memory word specified by AR into DR
$M \leftarrow DR$	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. ...

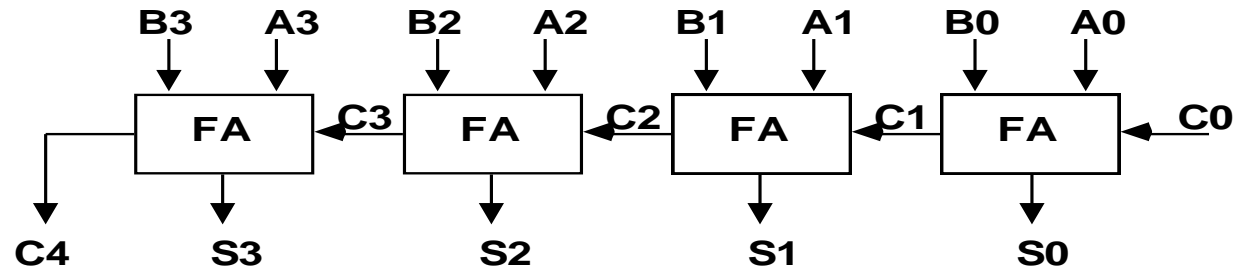
Summary of Typical Arithmetic Micro-Operations

TABLE 4-3 Arithmetic Microoperations

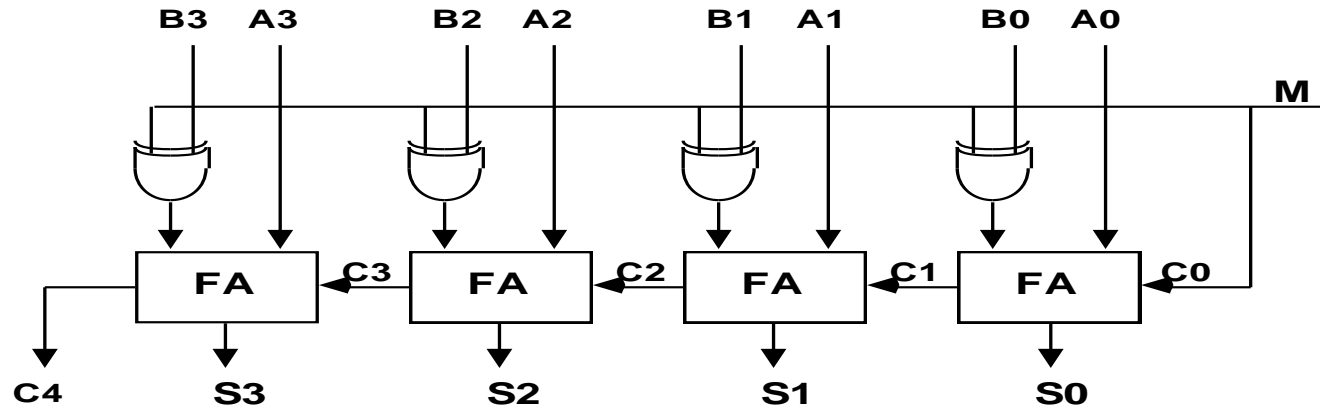
Symbolic designation	Description
$R3 \leftarrow R1 + R2$	Contents of $R1$ plus $R2$ transferred to $R3$
$R3 \leftarrow R1 - R2$	Contents of $R1$ minus $R2$ transferred to $R3$
$R2 \leftarrow \overline{R2}$	Complement the contents of $R2$ (1's complement)
$R2 \leftarrow \overline{R2} + 1$	2's complement the contents of $R2$ (negate)
$R3 \leftarrow R1 + \overline{R2} + 1$	$R1$ plus the 2's complement of $R2$ (subtraction)
$R1 \leftarrow R1 + 1$	Increment the contents of $R1$ by one
$R1 \leftarrow R1 - 1$	Decrement the contents of $R1$ by one

BINARY ADDER / SUBTRACTOR / INCREMENTER

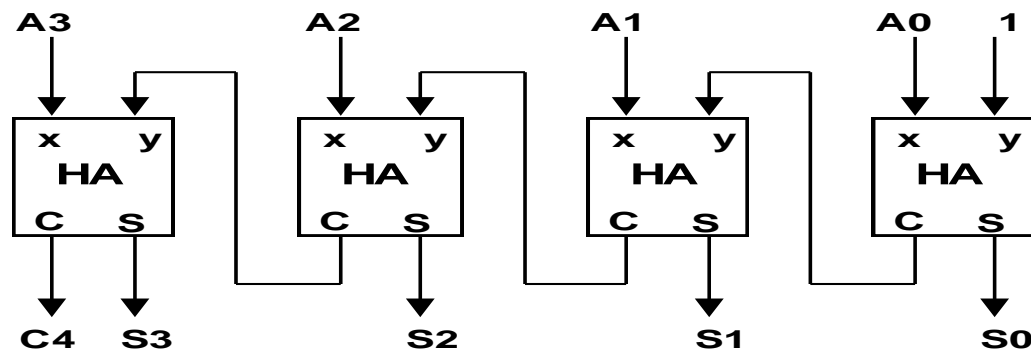
Binary Adder



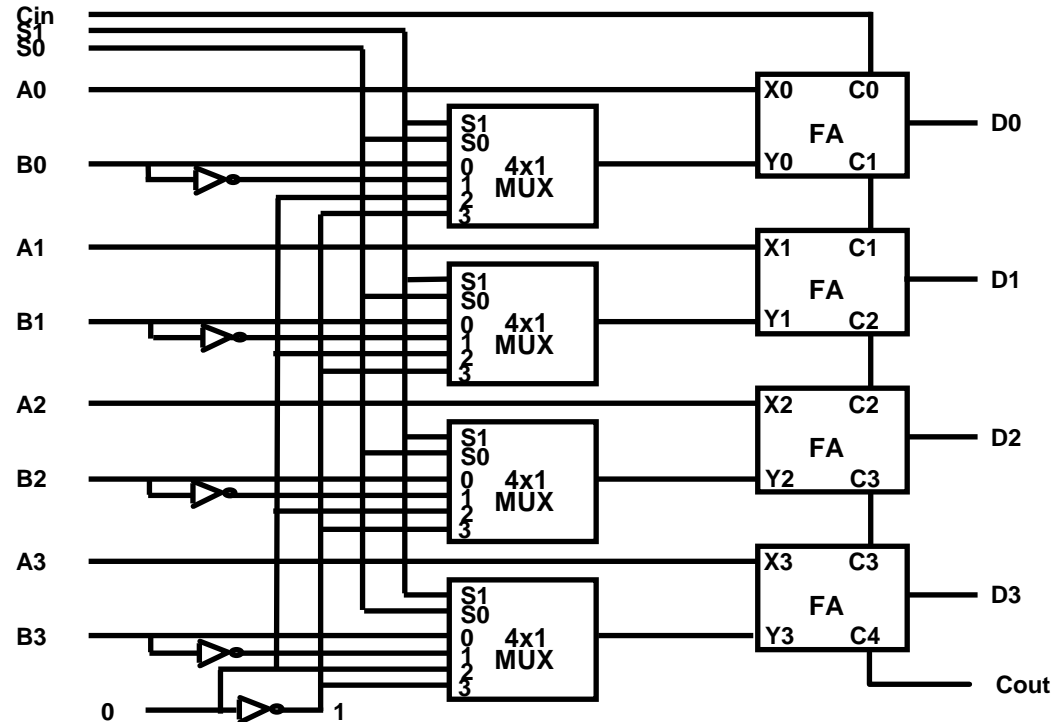
Binary Adder-Subtractor



Binary Incrementer



ARITHMETIC CIRCUIT



S1	S0	Cin	Y	Output	Microoperation
0	0	0	B	$D = A + B$	Add
0	0	1	B	$D = A + B + 1$	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**

A	B	F ₀	F ₁	F ₂ ... F ₁₃	F ₁₄	F ₁₅
0	0	0	0	0 ... 1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0 ... 1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1 ... 0	1	1
1	1	0	1	0 ... 1	0	1

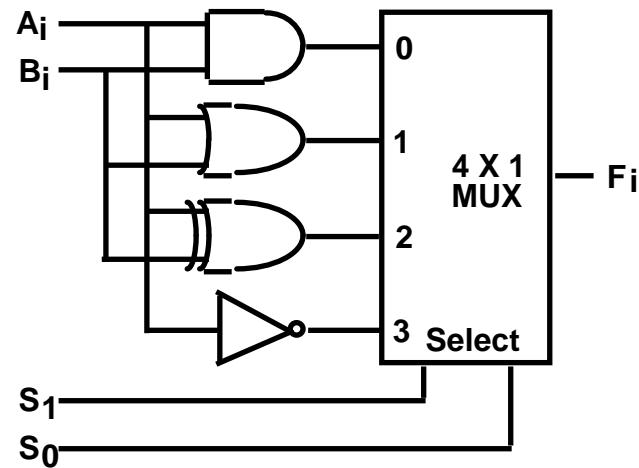
- **However, most systems only implement four of these**
 - AND (\wedge), OR (\vee), XOR (\oplus), Complement/NOT
- **The others can be created from combination of these**

LIST OF LOGIC MICROOPERATIONS

- List of Logic Microoperations
 - 16 different logic operations with 2 binary vars.
 - n binary vars $\rightarrow 2^{2^n}$ functions
- Truth tables for 16 functions of 2 variables and the corresponding 16 logic micro-operations

x	0 0 1 1	<i>Boolean Function</i>	<i>Micro-Operations</i>	<i>Name</i>
y	0 1 0 1			
	0 0 0 0	$F_0 = 0$	$F \leftarrow 0$	Clear
	0 0 0 1	$F_1 = xy$	$F \leftarrow A \wedge B$	AND
	0 0 1 0	$F_2 = xy'$	$F \leftarrow A \wedge B'$	
	0 0 1 1	$F_3 = x$	$F \leftarrow A$	Transfer A
	0 1 0 0	$F_4 = x'y$	$F \leftarrow A' \wedge B$	
	0 1 0 1	$F_5 = y$	$F \leftarrow B$	Transfer B
	0 1 1 0	$F_6 = x \oplus y$	$F \leftarrow A \oplus B$	Exclusive-OR
	0 1 1 1	$F_7 = x + y$	$F \leftarrow A \vee B$	OR
	1 0 0 0	$F_8 = (x + y)'$	$F \leftarrow (A \vee B)'$	NOR
	1 0 0 1	$F_9 = (x \oplus y)'$	$F \leftarrow (A \oplus B)'$	Exclusive-NOR
	1 0 1 0	$F_{10} = y'$	$F \leftarrow B'$	Complement B
	1 0 1 1	$F_{11} = x + y'$	$F \leftarrow A \vee B$	
	1 1 0 0	$F_{12} = x'$	$F \leftarrow A'$	Complement A
	1 1 0 1	$F_{13} = x' + y$	$F \leftarrow A' \vee B$	
	1 1 1 0	$F_{14} = (xy)'$	$F \leftarrow (A \wedge B)'$	NAND
	1 1 1 1	$F_{15} = 1$	$F \leftarrow \text{all 1's}$	Set to all 1's

HARDWARE IMPLEMENTATION OF LOGIC MICROOPERATIONS



Function table

S_1	S_0	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

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) | $A \leftarrow A \cdot B$ |
| – 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

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 1\ 1\ 0\ 0 & A_t & \\
 1\ 0\ 1\ 0 & B & \\
 \hline
 1\ 1\ 1\ 0 & A_{t+1} & (A \leftarrow A + B)
 \end{array}$$

- 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

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 1\ 1\ 0\ 0 & A_t & \\
 1\ 0\ 1\ 0 & B & \\
 \hline
 0\ 1\ 1\ 0 & A_{t+1} & (A \leftarrow A \oplus B)
 \end{array}$$

- 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

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 1\ 1\ 0\ 0 & A_t & \\
 1\ 0\ 1\ 0 & B & \\
 \hline
 0\ 1\ 0\ 0 & A_{t+1} & (A \leftarrow A \cdot B')
 \end{array}$$

- 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

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 1\ 1\ 0\ 0 & A_t & \\
 1\ 0\ 1\ 0 & B & \\
 \hline
 1\ 0\ 0\ 0 & A_{t+1} & (A \leftarrow A \cdot B)
 \end{array}$$

- 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

1 1 0 0	A_t	
1 0 1 0	B	
<hr/>		
0 1 1 0	A_{t+1}	$(A \leftarrow A \oplus B)$

INSERT OPERATION

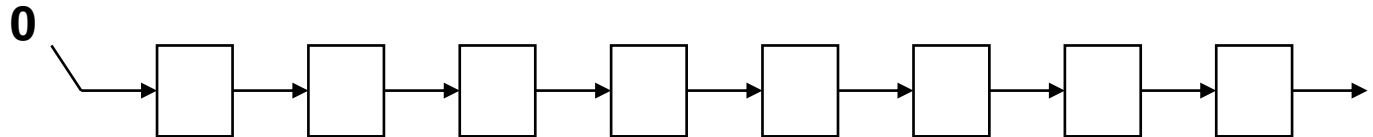
- An insert operation is used to introduce a specific bit pattern into A register, leaving the other bit positions unchanged
- This is done as
 - A mask operation to clear the desired bit positions, followed by
 - An OR operation to introduce the new bits into the desired positions
 - Example
 - » Suppose 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)

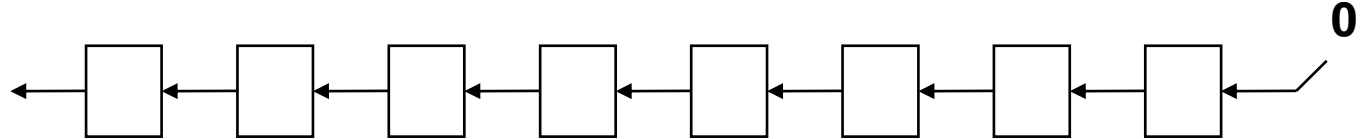
» 1101 1000 1011 0001	A (Original)
1111 1111 1111 0000	Mask
<hr/>	
1101 1000 1011 0000	A (Intermediate)
0000 0000 0000 1010	Added bits
<hr/>	
1101 1000 1011 1010	A (Desired)

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:

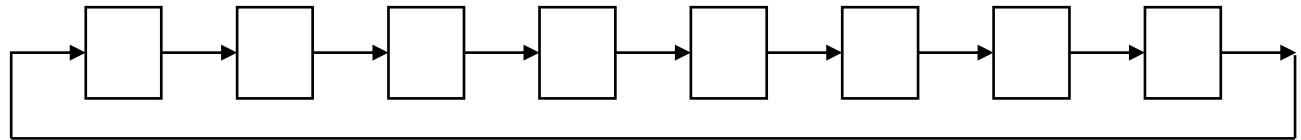


- In a Register Transfer Language, the following notation is used
 - *shl* for a logical shift left
 - *shr* for a logical shift right
 - Examples:
 - » $R2 \leftarrow shr\ R2$
 - » $R3 \leftarrow shl\ R3$

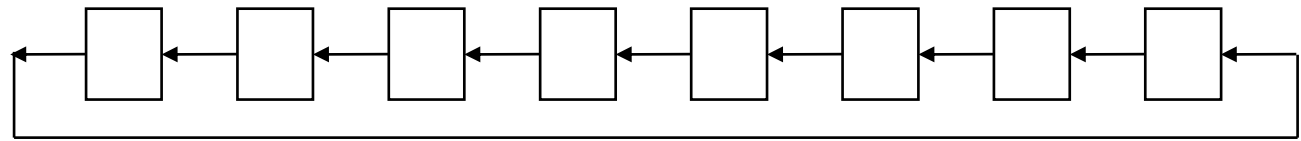
CIRCULAR SHIFT

- 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:



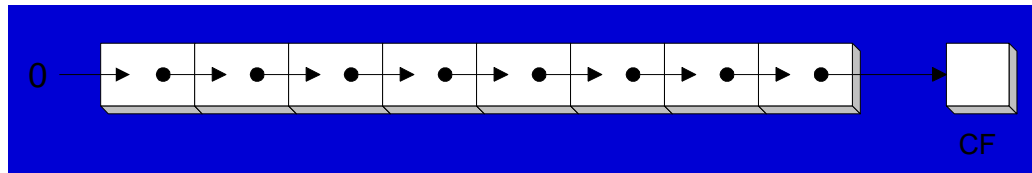
- A left circular shift operation:



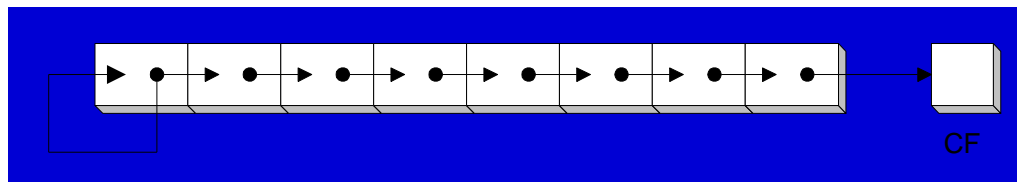
- In a RTL, the following notation is used
 - *cil* for a circular shift left
 - *cir* for a circular shift right
 - Examples:
 - » $R2 \leftarrow cir\ R2$
 - » $R3 \leftarrow cil\ R3$

Logical versus Arithmetic Shift

- A logical shift fills the newly created bit position with zero:

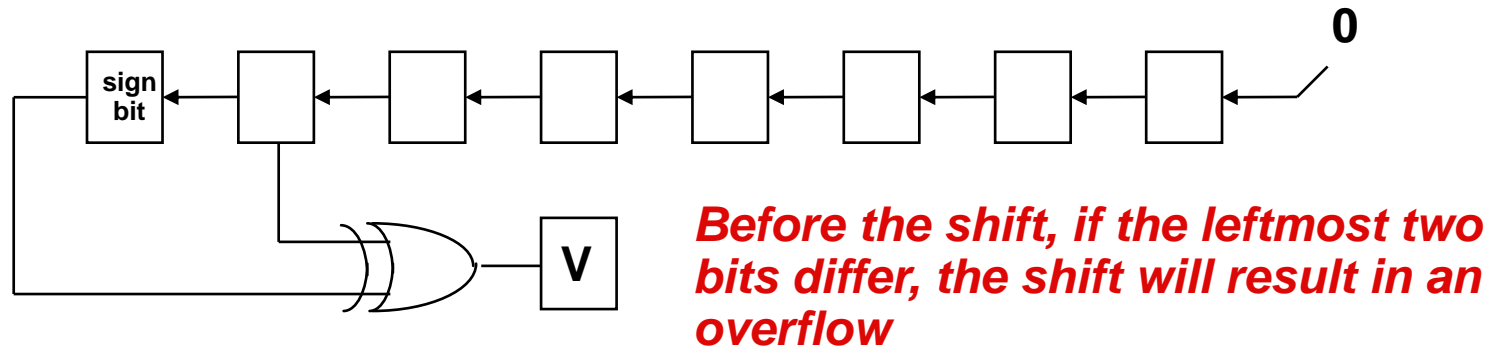


- An arithmetic shift fills the newly created bit position with a copy of the number's sign bit:



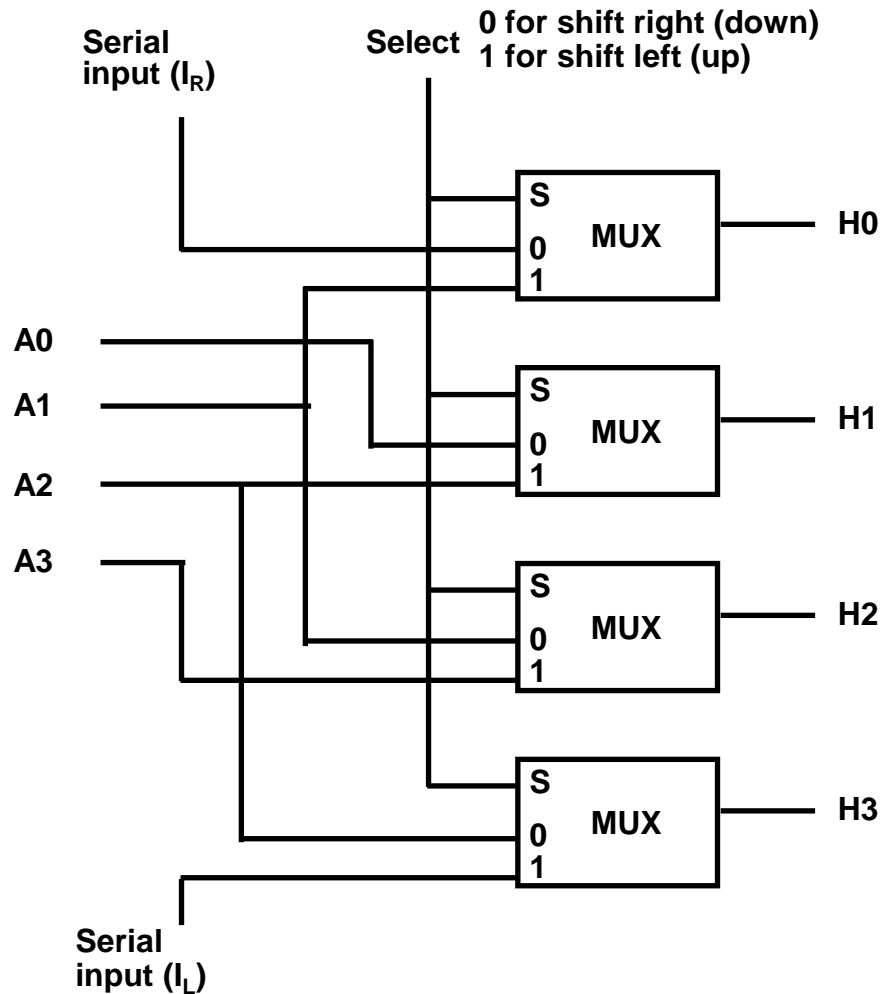
ARITHMETIC SHIFT

- An left arithmetic shift operation must be checked for the **overflow**

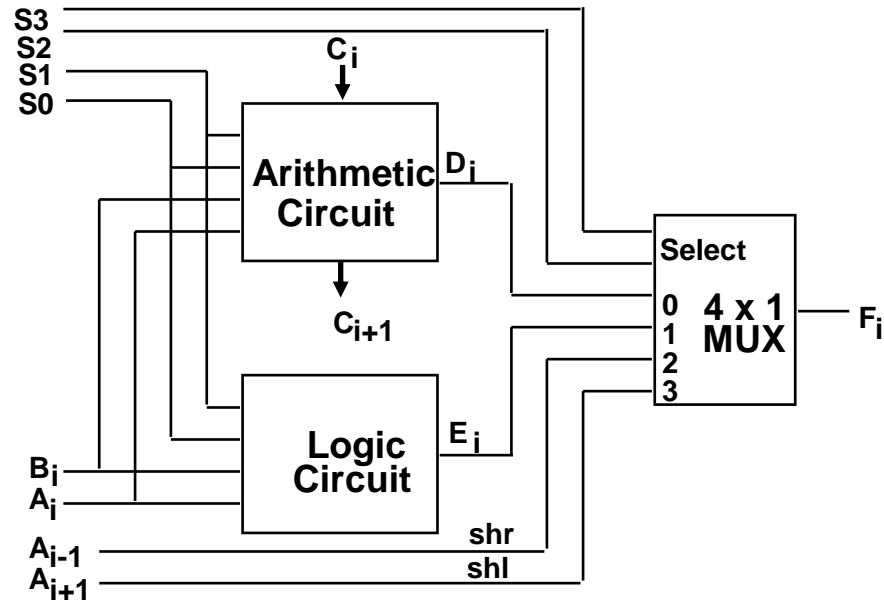


- In a RTL, the following notation is used
 - *ashl* for an arithmetic shift left
 - *ashr* for an arithmetic shift right
 - Examples:
 - » $R2 \leftarrow ashr R2$
 - » $R3 \leftarrow ashl R3$

HARDWARE IMPLEMENTATION OF SHIFT MICROOPERATIONS



ARITHMETIC 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
0	0	0	1	0	$F = A + B$	Addition
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	$F = A$	Transfer A
0	1	0	0	X	$F = A \wedge B$	AND
0	1	0	1	X	$F = A \vee B$	OR
0	1	1	0	X	$F = A \oplus B$	XOR
0	1	1	1	X	$F = A'$	Complement A
1	0	X	X	X	$F = \text{shr } A$	Shift right A into F
1	1	X	X	X	$F = \text{shl } A$	Shift left A into F

HW 7

1. Use D-type flip flops and gates to design a counter with the following repeated binary sequence: 0, 1, 3, 2, 4, 6.