CSE211

Computer Organization and Design

Lecture: 3 Tutorial: 1 Practical: 0 Credit: 4

Unit 1: Basics of Digital Electronics

- Introduction
- Logic Gates
- Flip Flops
- Decoder
- Encoder
- Multiplexers
- Demultiplexer

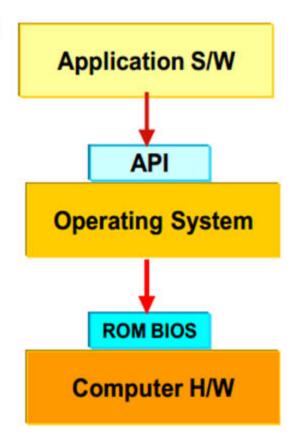


Basic Terms

- Digital
- Digital Computers
- Storage?
- Base- Decimal, Binary
- Instruction
- Program

1-1 Digital Computers

- Digital A limited number of discrete value
- Bit A Binary Digit
- Program A Sequence of instructions
- Computer = H/W + S/W
- Program(S/W)
 - A sequence of instruction
 - ♦S/W = Program + Data
 - The data that are manipulated by the program constitute the <u>data base</u>
 - Application S/W
 - DB, word processor, Spread Sheet
 - System S/W
 - OS, Firmware, Compiler, Device Driver

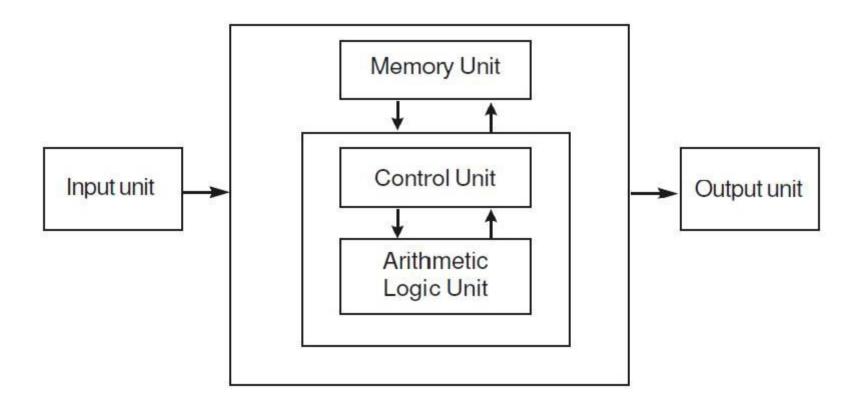




What are the components of Computers?



Basic Organization of a Computer



1-1 Digital Computers

- Computer Hardware
 - CPU
 - Memory
 - Program Memory(ROM)
 - Data Memory(RAM)
 - I/O Device
 - Interface
 - Input Device: Keyboard, Mouse, Scanner
 - Output Device: Printer, Plotter, Display
 - Storage Device(I/O): FDD, HDD, MOD

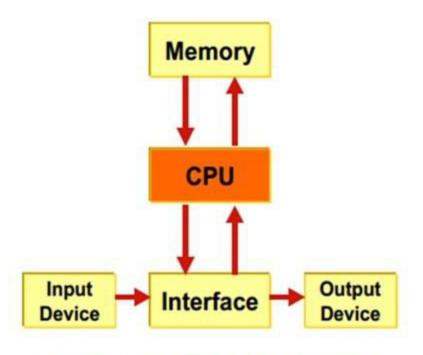


Figure Block Diagram of a digital Computer

1-1 Digital Computers

- 3 different point of view(Computer Hardware)
 - Computer Organization
 - H/W components operation/connection
 - Computer Design
 - H/W Design/Implementation
 - Computer Architecture
 - Structure and behavior of the computer as seen by the user
 - Information format, Instruction set, memory addressing, CPU, I/O, Memory
- ISA(Instruction Set Architecture)
 - the attributes of a system as seen by the programmer, i.e., the conceptual structure and functional behavior, as distinct from the organization of the data flows and controls, the logic design, and the physical implementation.
 - Amdahl, Blaaw, and Brooks(1964)



Computer Organization and Architecture lets you know how exactly each instruction is executed at the micro level. The data flow, timing analysis, memory hierarchy, trade offs between execution cycles, hardware requirements/costs, software-hardware tradeoffs can be known.



Computer Organization and Architecture

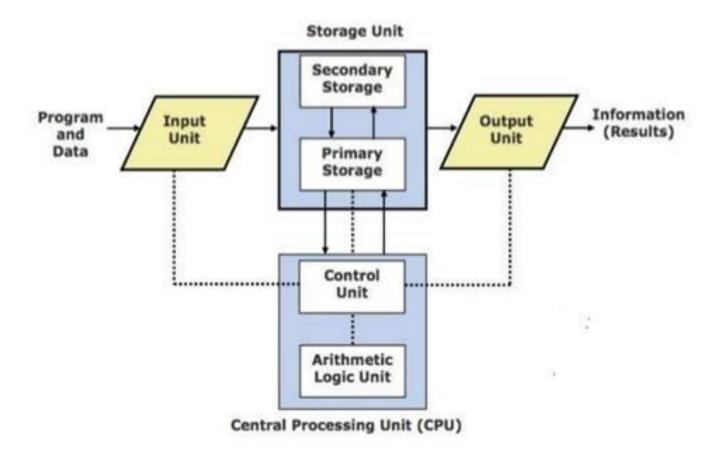
Computer Organization - the internal arrangements of a computer, which includes the design of the processor, memory and input/output circuits.

Computer Architecture describes features of a computer family (notably the instructions) and not the specific implementation, just like architecture of a house might be described as Victorian.

- Computer Organization: It is concerned with the way hardware components operate and the way they are connected together to form a computer system.
- Computer Architecture: It is concerned with the structure and behavior of the computer as seen by the user. It includes the information, formats, the instruction set, and techniques for addressing memory.
- Computer Design: It is concerned with the hardware design of the computer. Computer design is concerned with the determination of what hardware should be used and how the parts should be connected.



Computer Organization



Instruction set architecture

 the instruction set architecture refers to what the programmer sees as the machine's instruction set. The instruction set is the boundary between the hardware and the software, and most of the decisions concerning the instruction set affect the hardware, and the converse is also true, many hardware decisions may beneficially/adversely affect the instruction set.

Structure & Function

- Structure is the way in which components relate to each other
- Function is the operation of individual components as part of the structure

1-2 Logic Gates

ADC(Analog to Digital Conversion)

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◆ Signal — Physical Quantity — Binary Information Discrete Value { 0:0.5 ↓ 1:3 ↑
```

- Gate
 - The manipulation of binary information is done by logic circuit called "gate".
- Fig. Digital Logic Gates
 - AND, OR, INVERTER, BUFFER, NAND, NOR, XOR, XNOR

1-2 Logic Gates

Name	Symbol	Function	Truth Table
AND	A	X = A • B or X = AB	A B X 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0
OR	A B	X = A + B	A B X 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1
I	A ——X	X = A'	1 A 1 X 0 1 1 0
Buffer	A —X	X = A	A X 0 0 1 1

1-2 Logic Gates

Name	Symbol	Function	Truth Table
NAND	X A B	X = (AB)'	A B X 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0
NOR	A B	X = (A + B)'	A B X 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0
XOR Exclusive OR	A B	X = A ⊕ B or X = A'B + AB'	A B X 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0
XNOR Exclusive NOR or Equivalence	A B	X = (A ⊕ B)' or X = A'B'+ AB	A B X 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 1

Question

- The output X of X-OR gate is high when
- 1. A=1, B=1
- 2. A=0, B=1
- 3. A=0, B=0
- 4. A=1, B=0
- 5. 2nd and 4th both
- 6. None of these

Integrated Circuits

An IC is a small silicon semiconductors crystal called chip containing the electronic components for digital gates.

- Various gates are interconnected inside chip to form required circuit.
- Chip is mounted in ceramic/plastic container connected to external pin

Small scale Integration (SSI): less than 10 gates

Medium Scale Integration(MSI): between 10 to 200 gates (decoders, adders, registers)

Large Scale Integration(LSI): between 200 and few thousands gates (Processors, Memory Chips)

Very Large Scale Integration (VLSI): Thousands of gate within single package (Large Memory Arrays, Complex Microcomputer Chips)

Combinational Circuits

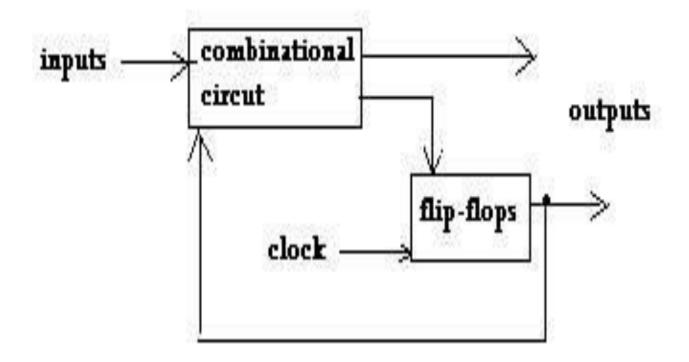
- No feedback paths
- No memory
- Combinational circuit is a connected arrangement of logic gates with set of inputs and outputs.
- Binary values of outputs are a function of binary combination of inputs.
- Output is independent of time and depends only on the present input.
- Examples are half Adder, Full adder, Encoder, Decoder, Multiplexer, Demultiplexer.



Sequential Circuits

- Feedback paths exist
- Memory present
- 2 Types- Synchronous and Asynchronous
- Synchronous sequential circuits employ signals that effect storage elements only at discrete instants of time.
- Synchronization is achieved with help of device called clock.
- Output depends not only on present input but also on the past output.
- Examples are Flip-flop, register, counter.

Sequential Circuits



Question

- Sequential circuits have which of the following signal?
 - Inputs
 - Outputs
 - Feedback
 - All of above

Question

- Combinational circuits don't have which of the following signal?
 - Inputs
 - Outputs
 - Feedback
 - All of above

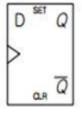
Flip-Flop

- Combinational Circuit = Gate Sequential Circuit = Gate + F/F
- The storage elements employed in clocked sequential circuit
- A binary cell capable of storing one bit of information
- SR(Set/Reset) F/F

S	SET	Q
R	CLR	Q

S	R		Q(t+1)
0	0	Q(t)	no change
0	1	0	clear to 0
1	0	1	set to 1
1	1	?	Indeterminate

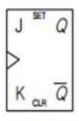
D(Data) F/F



D		Q(t+1)
0	0	clear to 0
1	1	set to 1

- "no change" condition
 - 1) Disable Clock
 - 2) Feedback output into input

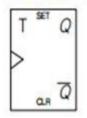
JK(Jack/King) F/F



J	K		Q(t+1)
0	0	Q(t)	no change
0	1	0	clear to 0
1	0	1	set to 1
1	1	Q(t)	Complement

- JK F/F is a refinement of the SR F/F
- The indeterminate condition of the SR type is defined in complement

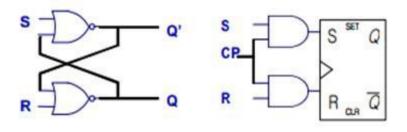
T(Toggle) F/F



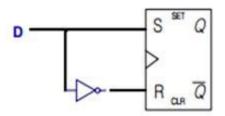
T	Q(t+1)
0	Q(t) no change
1	Q'(t) Complement

T=1(J=K=1), T=0(J=K=0)

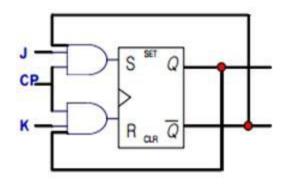
■ SR(Set/Reset) F/F



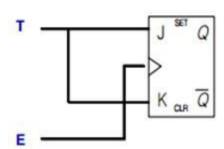
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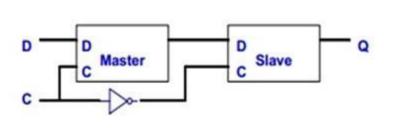
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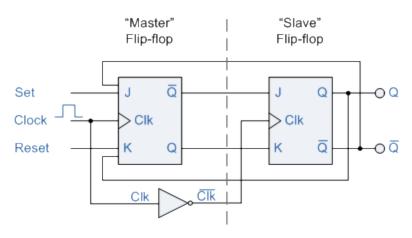


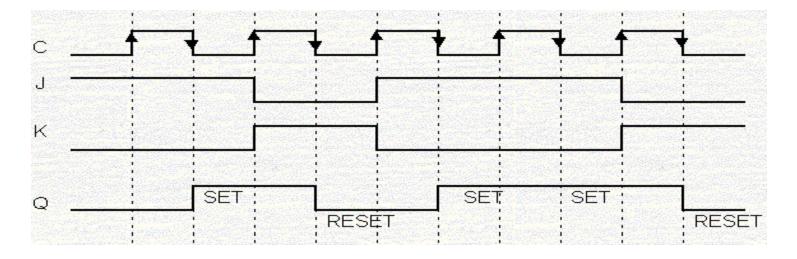
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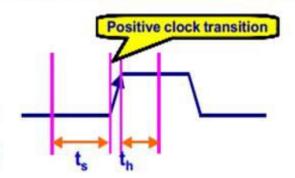
Master – Slave D(Data) F/F







- Edge-Triggered F/F
 - State Change : Clock Pulse
 - Rising Edge(positive-edge transition)
 - Falling Edge(negative-edge transition)



- Setup time(20ns)
 - minimum time that D input must remain at constant value before the transition.
- Hold time(5ns)
 - minimum time that D input must not change after the positive transition.
- Propagation delay(max 50ns)
 - time between the clock input and the response in Q
- Master-Slave F/F

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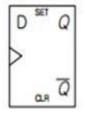
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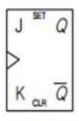
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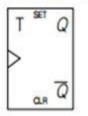
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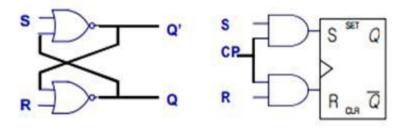
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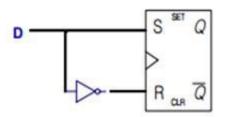
Table 1: Basic Flip-flops

Name	Graphical Symbol	1	Feature Table		
	S Q	S	R	Q_{n+1}	
S-R	Clock	0	0	Q _n	
	$R \qquad \overline{Q}$	0	1	0	
	T Q	1	0	1	
		1	1	-	
		J	K	Q_{n+1}	
J-K	J Q	0	0	Q _n	
	Clock	0	1	0	
	K Q	1	0	1	
		1	1	Change condition	
D	D Q Clock	D		Q_{n+1}	
		0		0	
	<u> </u>	1		1	

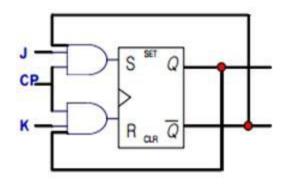
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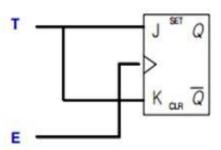
D(Data) F/F



JK(Jack/King) F/F



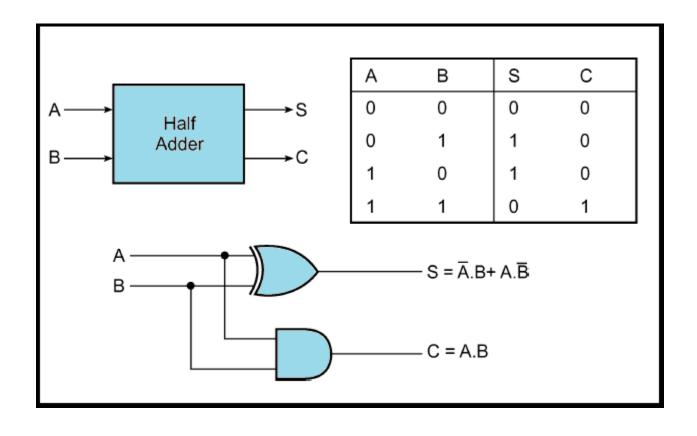
■ T(Toggle) F/F



Half Adder

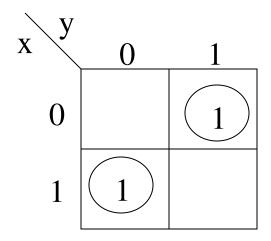
- A combinational circuit that performs the arithmetic addition of two bits is called a half-adder.
- Two input variables used.
- The output variables are Sum and Carry.
- The variable S represents the least significant bit of the sum.
- The C output is 0 unless both the inputs are 1.

Half Adder



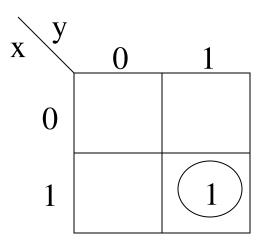
The expressions for s and c using Karnaugh Map

For s



$$s = x y + x y$$
$$= x \oplus y$$

For c

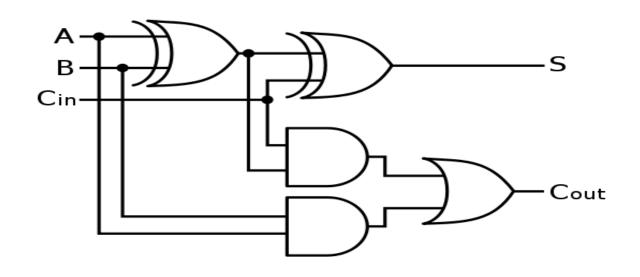


$$c = x y$$

Full Adder

- A combinational circuit that performs the arithmetic addition of three bits is called a full-adder.
- Two half-adders are needed to implement a full-adder.
- Three input variables used.
- The output variables are Sum and Carry.
- The variable S represents the least significant bit of the sum.
- The binary variable C gives the output carry.

Full Adder



Ci	Α	В	S	Сапту
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

$$S = A \oplus B \oplus Ci$$

Carry = AB + (A \oplus B)Ci

2-2 Decoder/Encoder

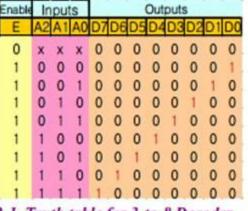
Decoder

- A combinational circuit that converts binary information from the n coded inputs to a maximum of 2ⁿ unique outputs
- n-to-m line decoder = n x m decoder
 - n inputs, m outputs
- If the n-bit coded information has unused bit combinations, the decoder may have less than 2ⁿ outputs
 Fig. 2-1 3-to-8 Decoder
 - m ≤ 2ⁿ

3-to-8 Decoder

A Binary-to-octal conversion Enable

- Logic Diagram : Fig. 2-1
- Truth Table : Tab. 2-1
- Commercial decoders include one or more Enable Input(E)



Tab. 2-1 Truth table for 3-to-8 Decoder

A2

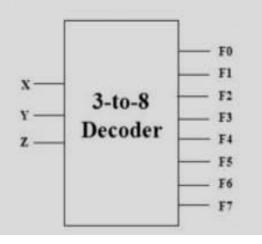
A1

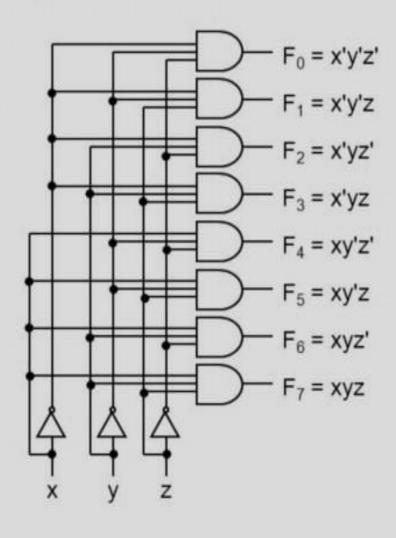
AO

3-to-8 Binary Decoder

Truth Table:

x	y	Z	Fo	$\mathbf{F_1}$	F2	\mathbf{F}_3	\mathbf{F}_4	F5	\mathbf{F}_{6}	\mathbf{F}_{7}
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1





2-2 Decoder/Encoder

NAND Gate Decoder

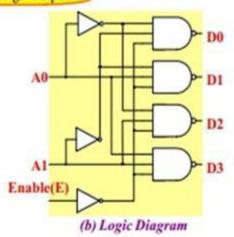
- * Active Low Output

 * Fig. 2-1 3-to-8 Decoder

 Active High Output
- Constructed with NAND instead of AND gates
- Logic Diagram/Truth Table: Fig. 2-2

Fig. 2-2 2-to-4 Decoder with NAND gates

Enable	inp	ut	Output			
Ε	A1	A0	D0	D1	D2	D3
0	0	0	0	1	1	1
0	0	1	1	0	1	1
0	1	0	1	1	0	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	0
1	X	×	1	1	1	1
(a) Truth Table						

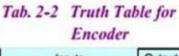


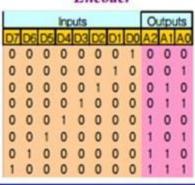
Decoder Expansion

- Constructed decoder: Fig. 2-3
- 3 X 8 Decoder constructed with two 2 X 4 Decoder

Encoder

- Inverse Operation of a decoder
- 2ⁿ input, n output
- Truth Table : Tab. 2-2
 - 3 OR Gates Implementation
 - » A0 = D1 + D3 + D5 + D7
 - » A1 = D2 + D3 + D6 + D7
 - » A2 = D4 + D5 + D6 + D7





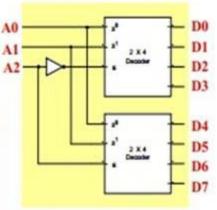
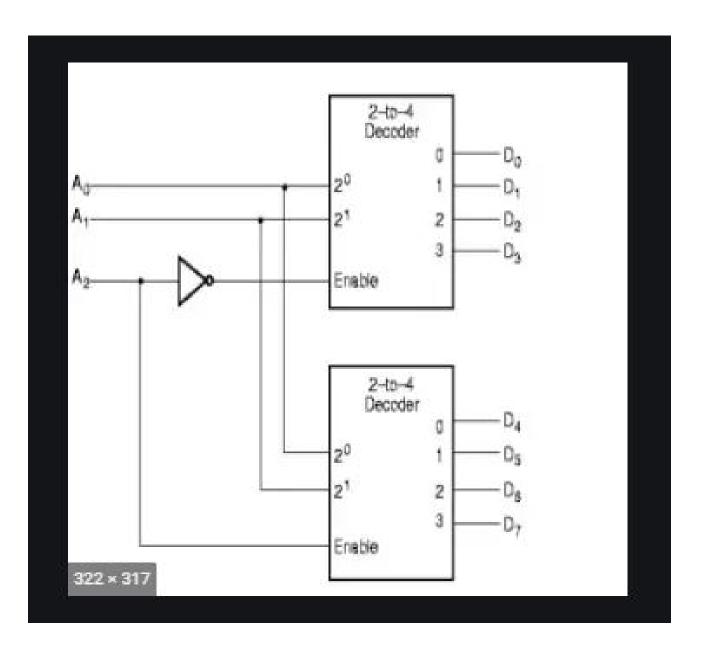


Fig. 2-3 A 3-to-8 Decoder constructed with two with 2-to-4 Decoder



2-3 Multiplexers

Multiplexer(Mux)

A combinational circuit that receives binary information from one of 2ⁿ input data lines and directs it to a single output line

A 2ⁿ -to 1 multiplexer has 2ⁿ input data lines and I_n input selection lines (Data Selector)

- 4-to-1 multiplexer Diagram : Fig. 2-4
- 4-to-1 multiplexer Function Table : Tab. 2-3

Tab. 2-3 Function Table for 4-to-1 line Multiplexter

Sel	ect	Output
SI	SO	Y
0	0	lo
0	1	I ₁
1	0	12
1	1	1.

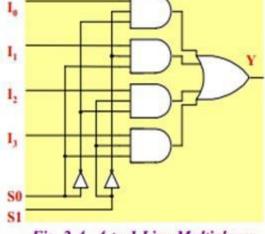


Fig. 2-4 4-to-1 Line Multiplexer

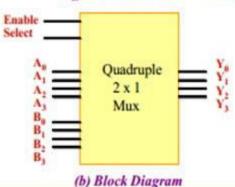
Quadruple 2-to-1 Multiplexer

Quadruple 2-to-1 Multiplexer: Fig. 2-5

Fig. 2-5 Quadruple 2-to-1 line Multiplexter

ect	Output	
S	Y	
0	All 0's	
0	A	
1	В	
	0	

(a) Function Table



Applications of multiplexer

- Data Routing
- Parallel to Serial Conversion
- Logic Function Generation

2-3 Multiplexers

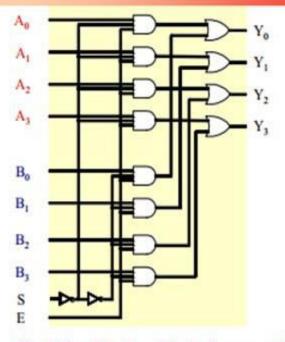


Fig A. Combinational logic diagram with four 2×1 multiplexer

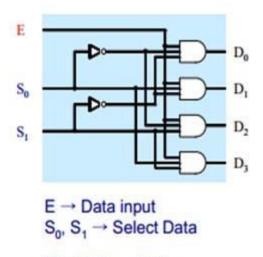


Fig B. Demultiplexer

A **Demultiplexer**, sometimes abbreviated **DMUX** is a circuit that has one input and more than one output. It is used when a circuit wishes to send a signal to one of many devices

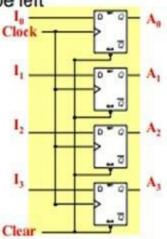
2-4 Registers

Register

- A group of flip-flops with each flip-flop capable of storing one bit of information
- An n-bit register has a group of n flip-flops and is capable of storing any binary information of n bits
- The simplest register consists only of flip-flops, with no external gate :
 Fig. 2-6
- A clock input C will load all four inputs in parallel
 - The clock must be inhibited if the content of the register must be left unchanged

Register with Parallel Load

- A 4-bit register with a load control input: Fig. 2-7
- The clock inputs receive clock pulses at all times
- The buffer gate in the clock input will increase "fan-out"
- Load Input
 - 1 : Four input transfer
 - 0 : Input inhibited, Feedback from output to input(no change) Fig. 2-6 4-bit register



2-4 Registers

■ When the load input is 1, the data in the four inputs are transferred into the register with the next positive transition of a clock pulse

■ When the load input is 0, the data inputs are inhibited and the Doutput of flip flop are connected to their inputs.

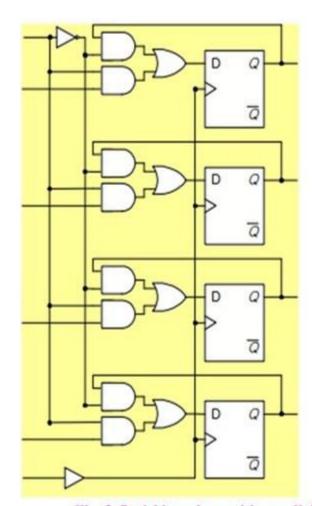
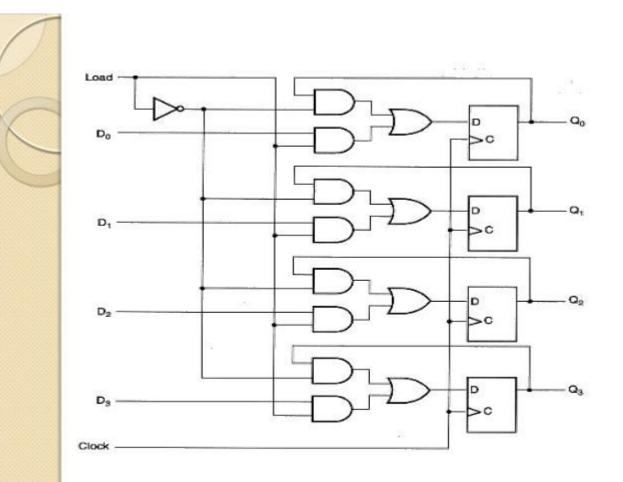


Fig. 2-7 4-bit register with parallel load



4- bit register with parallel load

2-5 Shift Registers

Shift Register

- A register capable of shifting its binary information in one or both directions
- The logical configuration of a shift register consists of a chain of flip-flops in cascade
- The simplest possible shift register uses only flip-flops: Fig. 2-8
- The serial input determines what goes into the leftmost position during the shift
- The serial output is taken from the output of the rightmost flip-flop

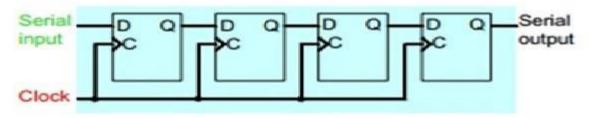


Fig. 2-8 4-bit shift register

2-5 Shift Registers

- Bidirectional Shift Register with Parallel Load
 - A register capable of shifting in one direction only is called a unidirectional shift register
 - A register that can shift in both directions is called a bidirectional shift register
 - The most general shift register has all the capabilities listed below:
 - An input clock pulse to synchronize all operations
 - A shift-right /left (serial output/input)
 - A parallel load, n parallel output lines
 - The register unchanged even though clock pulses are applied continuously
 - 4-bit bidirectional shift register with parallel load :
 Fig. 2-9
 - 4 X 1 Mux = 4 D F/F = 4

Tab. 2-4 Function Table for Register of Fig. 2-9

Mo	de	Operation
S1	S0	
0	0	No chage
0	1	Shiftright(down)
1	0	shift left(up)
1	1	Parallel load

2-5 Shift Registers

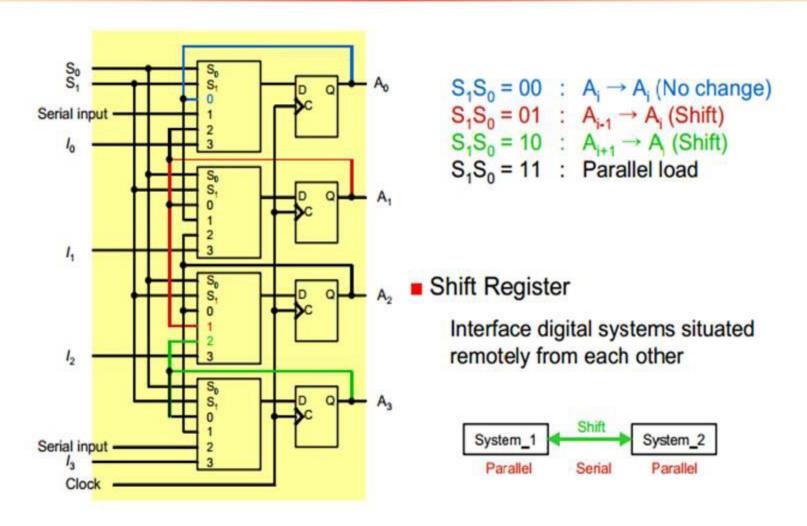


Fig. 2-9 Bidirectional shift register

Overview

- Register Transfer Language
- > Register Transfer
- Bus and Memory Transfers
- Logic Micro-operations
- Shift Micro-operations
- > Arithmetic Logic Shift Unit

- 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 are performed on data stored in them
- The operations executed on the data in registers are called <u>micro-operations</u> e.g. shift, count, clear and load

Internal hardware organization of a digital computer:

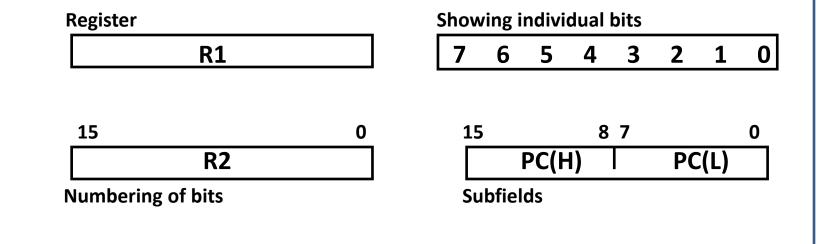
- **➤**Set of registers and their functions
- > Sequence of microoperations performed on binary information stored in registers
- ➤ Control signals that initiate the sequence of microoperations (to perform the functions)

- Rather than specifying a digital system in words, a specific notation is used, Register Transfer Language
- ➤ The symbolic notation used to describe the micro operation transfer among register is called a register transfer language
- For any function of the computer, the register transfer language can be used to describe the (sequence of) micro-operations
- Register transfer language
 - > A symbolic language
 - ➤ A convenient tool for describing the internal organization of digital computers in concise/precise manner.

- ➤ 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:

MAR

- 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



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

- ➤ 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

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
```

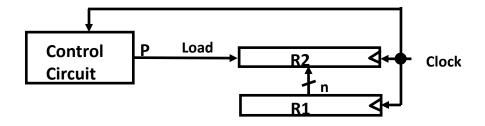
Which means "if P = 1, then load the contents of register R1 into register R2", i.e., if (P = 1) then $(R2 \leftarrow R1)$

Hardware Implementation of Controlled Transfers

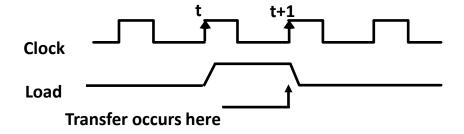
Implementation of controlled transfer

P: $R2 \leftarrow R1$

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

Basic Symbols in Register Transfer

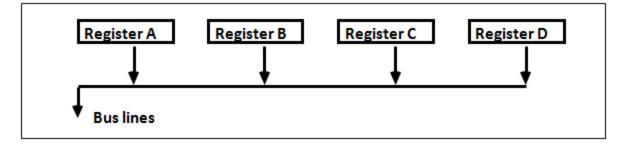
Symbols	Description	Examples
Capital letters & Numerals	Denotes a register	MAR, R2
Parentheses ()	Denotes a part of a register	R2(0-7), R2(L)
Arrow ←	Denotes transfer of information	R2 ← R1
Colon:	Denotes termination of control function	P:
Comma ,	Separates two micro-operations	$A \leftarrow B, B \leftarrow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

Overview

- Register Transfer Language
- Register Transfer
- > Bus and Memory Transfers
- Logic Micro-operations
- Shift Micro-operations
- > Arithmetic Logic Shift Unit

- ➤ 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
- \rightarrow To completely connect n registers \rightarrow n(n-1) lines
- \rightarrow 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 <u>bus</u>
- > BUS STRUCTURE CONSISTS OF SET OF COMMON LINES, ONE FOR EACH BIT OF A REGISTER THROUGH WHICH BINARY INFORMATION IS TRANSFERRED ONE AT A TIME
- Have control circuits to select which register is the source, and which is the destination

From a register to bus: BUS \leftarrow R

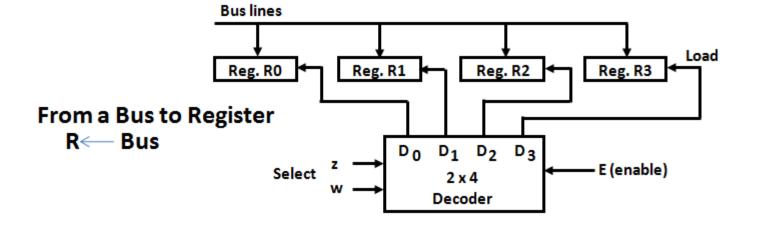


- One way of constructing common bus system is with multiplexers
- Multiplexer selects the source register whose binary information is kept on the bus.
 - Construction of bus system for 4 register (Next Fig)
 - > 4 bit register X 4
 - four 4X1 multiplexer
 - Bus selection S0, S1

- For a bus system to multiplex k registers of n bits each
 - \triangleright No. of multiplexer = n = No. of bits
 - ➤ Size of each multiplexer = k x 1, k data lines in each

MUX

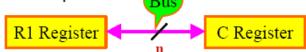
- Construction of bus system for 8 register with 16 bits
 - 16 bit register X 8
 - > Sixteen 8X1 multiplexer
 - Bus selection S0, S1, S2



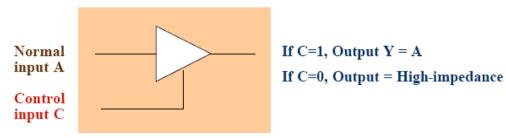
Bus Transfer

 The content of register C is placed on the bus, and the content of the bus is loaded into register R1 by activating its load control input

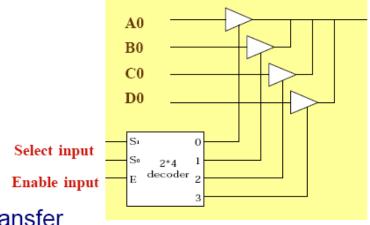
$$\left. \begin{array}{l} Bus \leftarrow C, \ R1 \leftarrow Bus \\ R1 \leftarrow C \end{array} \right\} =$$



- Three-State Bus Buffers
 - A bus system can be constructed with three-state gates instead of multiplexers
 - Tri-State: 0, 1, High-impedance(Open circuit)
 - Buffer
 - » A device designed to be inserted between other devices to match impedance, to prevent mixed interactions, and to supply additional drive or relay capability
 - » Buffer types are classified as inverting or noninverting
 - Tri-state buffer gate : Fig. 4-4
 - » When control input =1 : The output is enabled(output Y = input A)
 - » When control input =0 : The output is disabled(output Y = high-impedance)



- The construction of a bus system with tri-state buffer : Fig.
 - The outputs of four buffer are connected together to form a single bus line(Tristate buffer
 - No more than one buffer may be in the active state at any given time(2 X 4
 Decoder
 - To construct a common bus for 4 register with 4 bit : Fig.



AR: Address Reg.

DR: Data Reg.

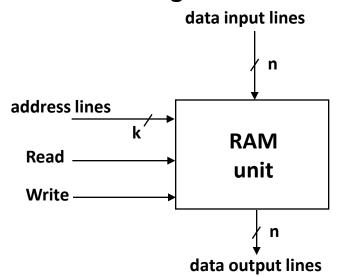
M : Memory Word(Data)

 $READ: DR \leftarrow M[AR]$ $WRITE: M[AR] \leftarrow R1$

- Memory Transfer
 - Memory read : A transfer information into DR from the memory word M selected by the address in AR
 - Memory Write: A transfer information from R1 into the memory word M selected by the address in AR

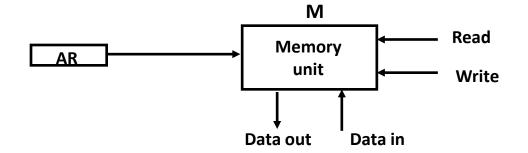
Memory - RAM

- Memory (RAM) can be thought as a sequential circuits containing some number of registers
- Memory stores binary information in groups of bits called words
- 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
- \triangleright Assume the RAM contains $r = 2^k$ words. It needs the following
 - 1. n data input lines
 - 2. n data output lines
 - 3. k address lines
 - 4. A Read control line
 - 5. A Write control line



Memory Transfer

Memory is usually accessed in computer systems by putting the desired address in a special register, the Memory Address Register (MAR, or AR)



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
 - 1. The contents of the MAR get sent to the memory address lines
 - 2. A Read (= 1) gets sent to the memory unit
 - 3. The contents of the specified address are put on the memory's output data lines
 - 4. 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
 - 1. The contents of the MAR get sent to the memory address lines
 - 2. A Write (= 1) gets sent to the memory unit
 - 3. The values in register R1 get sent over the bus to the data input lines of the memory
 - 4. The values get loaded into the specified address in the memory

MICROOPERATIONS

Computer system microoperations are of four types:

- Register transfer microoperations
- > Arithmetic microoperations
- Logic microoperations
- Shift microoperations

SUMMARY OF R. TRANSFER MICROOPERATIONS

 $A \leftarrow B$

A ← constant

ABUS \leftarrow R1, R2 \leftarrow ABUS

AR

DR

M[R]

M

 $DR \leftarrow M$

 $M \leftarrow DR$

1.Transfer content of reg. B into reg. A

3. Transfer a binary constant into reg. A

4.Transfer content of R1 into bus A and, at the same time,

transfer content of bus A into R2

5.Address register

6.Data register

7. Memory word specified by reg. R

8. Equivalent to M[AR]

9. Memory *read* operation: transfers content of

memory word specified by AR into DR

10. Memory write operation: transfers content of

DR into memory word specified by AR

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

Overview

- Register Transfer Language
- Register Transfer
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- > Arithmetic Micro-operations
- Logic Micro-operations
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MICROOPERATIONS

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- > Arithmetic microoperations
- Logic microoperations
- > Shift microoperations

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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

- ◆ 4-bit Binary Adder : Fig. 4-6
 - Full adder = 2-bits sum + previous carry
 - Binary adder = the arithmetic sum of two binary numbers of any length
 - c₀(input carry), c₄(output carry)

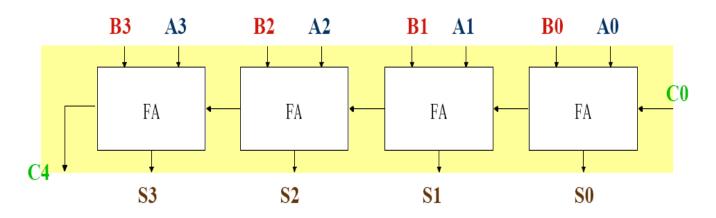
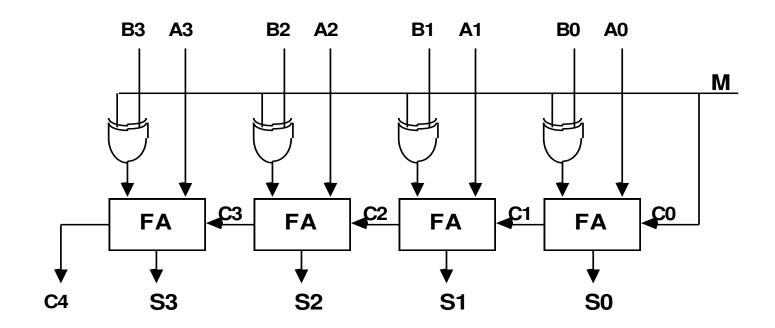


Figure 4-6. 4-bit binary adder

Binary Adder-Subtractor

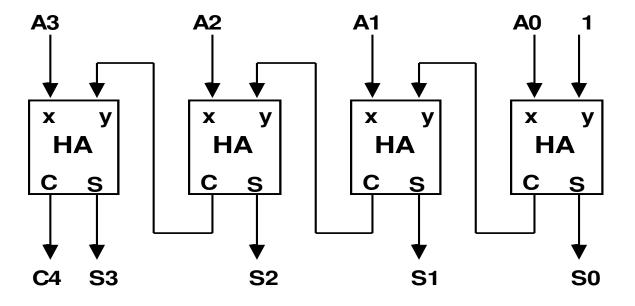
Binary Adder-Subtractor



- ➤ Mode input M controls the operation
 - ➤ M=0 ---- adder
 - ➤ M=1 ---- subtractor

Binary Incrementer

Binary Incrementer



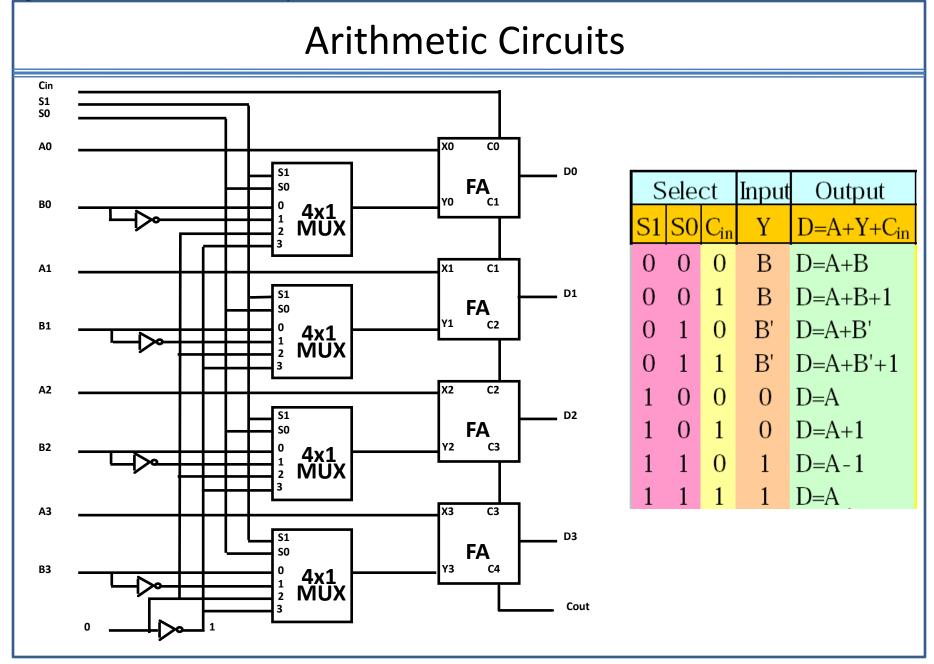


TABLE Arithmetic Circuit Function Table

Select		Input			
S_1	So	C_{in}	Y	$D = A + Y + C_{in}$	Microoperation
0	0	0	В	D = A + B	Add
0	0	1	B	D = A + B + 1	Add with carry
0	1	0	\overline{B}	$D = A + \overline{B}$	Subtract with borrow
0	1	1	\overline{B}	$D = A + \overline{B} + 1$	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

Overview

- Register Transfer Language
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- Logic Micro-operations
- > Shift Micro-operations
- Arithmetic Logic Shift Unit

Logic Micro operations

- Logic microoperation
 - Logic microoperations consider each bit of the register separately and treat them as binary variables

```
» exam)
P: R1 \leftarrow R1 \oplus R2
1010 \text{ Content of R1}
+ 1100 \text{ Content of R2}
0110 \text{ Content of R1 after P=1}
```

- Special Symbols
 - » Special symbols will be adopted for the logic microoperations OR(v), AND(A), and complement(a bar on top), to distinguish them from the corresponding symbols used to express Boolean functions
 - » exam)

$$P + Q : R1 \leftarrow R2 + R3, R4 \leftarrow R5 \lor R6$$
Logic OR Arithmetic ADD

- ◆ List of Logic Microoperation
 - Truth Table for 16 functions for 2 variables: Tab. 4-5
 - 16 Logic Microoperation : Tab. 4-6

: All other Operation can be derived

Hardware Implementation

16 microoperation → Use only 4(AND, OR, XOR, Complement)

One stage of logic circuit

Logic Microoperations

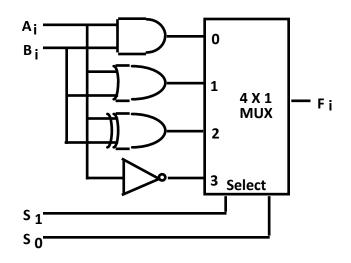
X	Υ	F_0	F ₁	F ₂	F_3	F_4	F ₅	F_6	F ₇	F ₈	F ₉	F ₁₀	F ₁₁	F ₁₂	F ₁₃	F ₁₄	F ₁₅
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1

TABLE 4-5. Truth Table for 16 Functions of Two Variables

Boolean function	Microopera	tion Name	Boolean function	Microoperat	ion Name
$\mathbf{F}_0 = 0$	F ← 0	Clear	$F_8 = (x+y)^*$	$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \overline{\mathbf{A} \vee \mathbf{B}}$	NOR
$\mathbf{F}_{1} = \mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}$	$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \mathbf{A} \wedge \mathbf{B}$	AND	$\mathbf{F}_{0} = (\mathbf{x} \oplus \mathbf{y})'$		Ex-NOR
$\mathbf{F}_2 = \mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}'$	$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \mathbf{A} \wedge \overline{\mathbf{B}}$			$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \overline{\mathbf{B}}$	Compl-B
$\mathbf{F}_3 = \mathbf{x}$	$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \mathbf{A}$	Transfer A	$\mathbf{F}_{11} = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}'$	$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \mathbf{A} \vee \mathbf{B}$	Î
$\mathbf{F}_4 = \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{y}$	$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \overline{\mathbf{A}} \wedge \mathbf{B}$			$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \overline{\mathbf{A}}$	Compl-A
$\mathbf{F}_5 = \mathbf{y}$	$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \mathbf{B}$	Transfer B	12	$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \overline{\mathbf{A}} \vee \mathbf{B}$	
$\mathbf{F}_6 = \mathbf{x} \oplus \mathbf{y}$	$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \mathbf{A} \oplus \mathbf{B}$	Ex-OR	15	$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \overline{\mathbf{A} \wedge \mathbf{B}}$	NAND
$\mathbf{F}_7 = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}$	$\mathbf{F} \leftarrow \mathbf{A} \vee \mathbf{B}$	OR	$F_{15}^{14} = 1$	F ← all 1's	set to all 1's

TABLE 4-6. Sixteen Logic Microoperations

Hardware Implementation



Function table

$S_1 S_0$	Output	μ-operation
0 0	$F = A \wedge B$	AND
0 1	F = A ∨ B	OR
1 0	F = A ⊕ B	XOR
1 1	F = A'	Complement

- ➤ Logic micro operations can be used to manipulate individual bits or a portions of a word in a register. They can be used to change bit values, delete a group of bits, or insert new bit values into 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

$$A \leftarrow A + B$$

$$A \leftarrow A \oplus B$$

$$A \leftarrow A \bullet B'$$

$$A \leftarrow A \bullet B$$

$$A \leftarrow A \oplus B$$

$$A \leftarrow (A \bullet B) + C$$

$$A \leftarrow A \oplus B$$

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

1100
$$A_t$$

1010 B
1110 A_{t+1} (A \leftarrow A + B)

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

2. In a <u>selective complement</u> operation, the bit pattern in B is used to complement certain bits in A

$$0110 A_{t+1} (A \leftarrow A \oplus B)$$

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

3. In a <u>selective clear</u> operation, the bit pattern in B is used to *clear* certain bits in A

$$0\,1\,0\,0$$
 A_{t+1} $(A \leftarrow A \cdot B')$

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

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

1000
$$A_{t+1}$$
 $(A \leftarrow A \cdot B)$

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

5. In a <u>clear</u> 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

1100 A_t

1010 B

 $0 1 1 0 \quad A_{t+1} \qquad (A \leftarrow A \oplus B)$

6. 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)
```

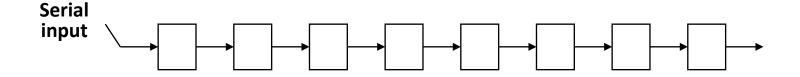
```
    1101 1000 1011 0001 A (Original)
    1111 1111 1111 0000 Mask
    1101 1000 1011 0000 A (Intermediate)
    0000 0000 0000 1010 Added bits
    1101 1000 1011 1010 A (Desired)
```

Question

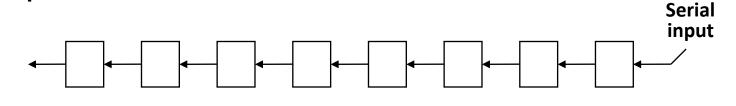
- Register A:1100 Register B:1010 After applying Selective-Complement on the given data, value of register A is:
 - -1001
 - -0111
 - -1000
 - -0110

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

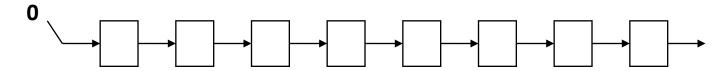


• A left shift operation

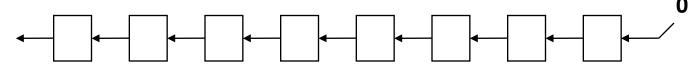


Logical Shift

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



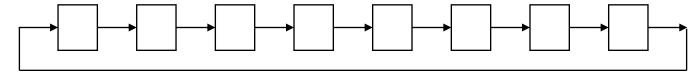
A left logical shift operation:



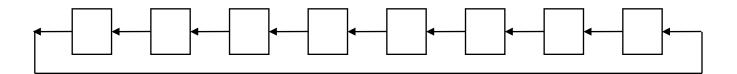
- In a Register Transfer Language, the following notation is used
 - shl for a logical shift left
 - shr for a logical shift right
 - Examples:
 - R2 ← shr R2
 - R3 ← shl R3

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:



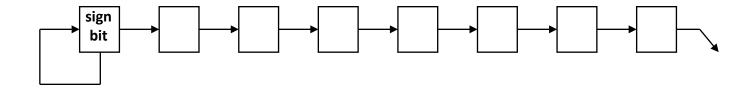
A left circular shift operation:



- 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

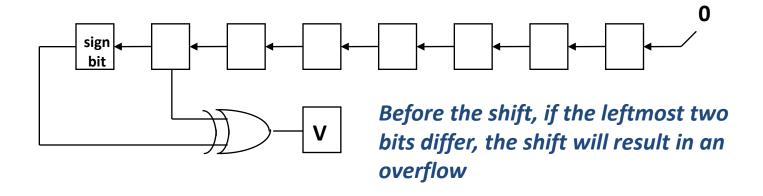
- An arithmetic shift is meant for signed binary numbers (integer)
- An arithmetic left shift multiplies a signed number by two
- An arithmetic right shift divides a signed number by two
- Sign bit: 0 for positive and 1 for negative
- The main distinction of an arithmetic shift is that it must keep the 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 <u>overflow</u>



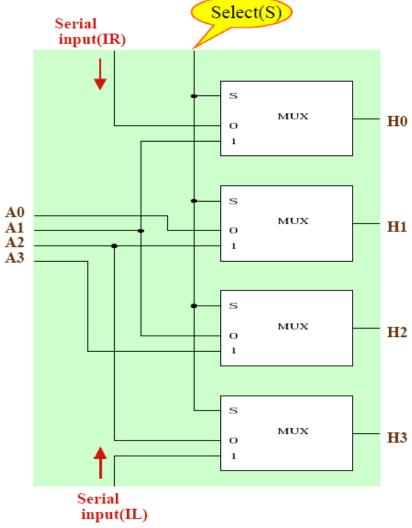
- In a RTL, the following notation is used
 - ashl for an arithmetic shift left
 - ashr for an arithmetic shift right
 - Examples:
 - » $R2 \leftarrow ashr R2$
 - » R3 ← ashl R3

Question

- What is the effect on the output if ashr operation is performed?
 - Subtraction by 2
 - Multiplication by 2
 - Division by 2
 - Addition by 2

Hardware Implementation of Shift Microoperation





Function Table

Select		output							
S	H0	H1	H2	НЗ					
0	IR	A0	A1	A2					
1	A1	A2	A3	IL					

Arithmetic Logic and Shift Unit

