
Computer Logic Design Fundamentals

Chapter 6 – Registers and Register Transfers

Part 1 – Registers, Microoperations and Implementations

Prof. Yueming Wang
ymingwang@zju.edu.cn

College of Computer Science and Technology, Zhejiang University

Overview

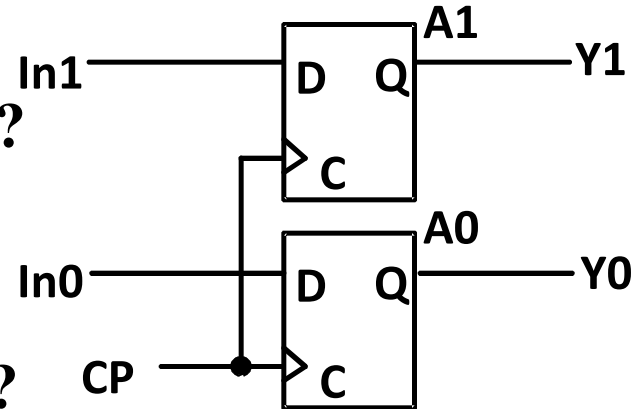
- **Part 1 - Registers, Microoperations and Implementations**
 - Registers and load enable
 - Register transfer operations
 - Microoperations - arithmetic, logic, and shift
 - Microoperations on a single register
 - Multiplexer-based transfers
 - Shift registers
- **Part 2 - Counters, Register Cells, Buses, & Serial Operations**
- **Part 3 – Control of Register Transfers**

Registers

- **Register – a collection of binary storage elements**
- **In theory, a register is a sequential logic which can be defined by a state table**
- **More often, think of a register as storing a vector of binary values**
- **Frequently used to perform simple data storage and data movement and processing operations**

Example: 2-bit Register

- How many states are there?
- How many input combinations?
Output combinations?
- What is the output function?
- What is the next state function?
- Moore or Mealy?



State Table:

Current State	Next State A1(t+1) A0(t+1) For In1 In0 =	Output (=A1 A0)
A1 A0	00 01 10 11	Y1 Y0
0 0	00 01 10 11	0 0
0 1	00 01 10 11	0 1
1 0	00 01 10 11	1 0
1 1	00 01 10 11	1 1

- What are the quantities above for an n -bit register?

Register Design Models

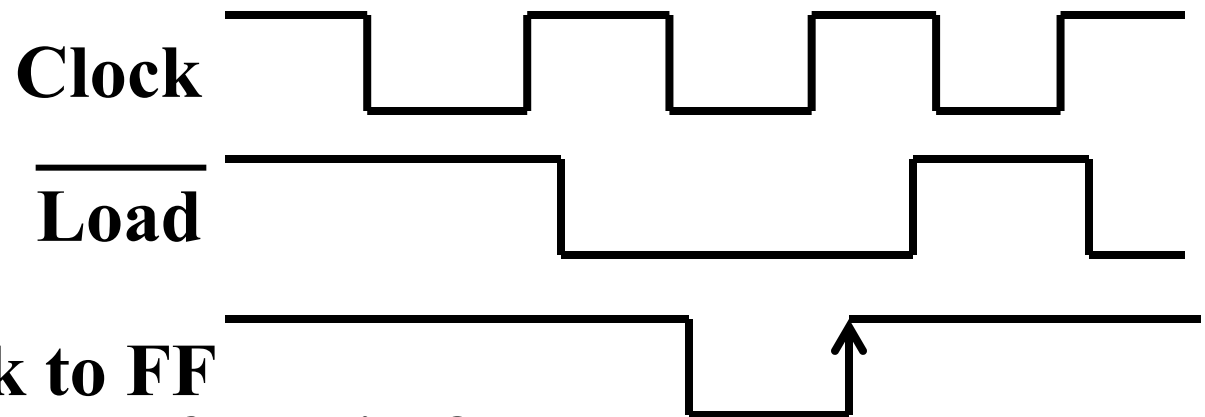
- Due to the large numbers of states and input combinations as n becomes large, the state diagram/state table model is not feasible!
- What are methods we can use to design registers?
 - Add predefined combinational circuits to registers
 - Example: To count up, connect the register flip-flops to an incrementer
 - Design individual cells using the state diagram/state table model and combine them into a register
 - A 1-bit cell has just two states
 - Output is usually the state variable

Register Storage and Load Enable

- **Expectations:**
 - A register can store information for multiple clock cycles
 - To “store” or “load” information should be controlled by a signal
- **Reality:**
 - A D flip-flop register loads information on every clock cycle
- **Realizing expectations:**
 - Use a signal to block the clock to the register,
 - Use a signal to control feedback of the output of the register back to its inputs, or
 - Use other SR or JK flip-flops, that for (0,0) applied, store their state
- **Load is a frequent name for the signal that controls register storage and loading**
 - Load = 1: Load the values on the data inputs
 - Load = 0: Store the values in the register

Registers with Clock Gating

- The \overline{Load} signal enables the clock signal to pass through if 0 and prevents the clock signal from passing through if 1.
- Example: For Positive Edge-Triggered or Negative Pulse Master-Slave Flip-flop:



- What logic is needed for gating?
- What is the problem?

$$\text{Gated Clock} = \text{Clock} + \overline{Load}$$

Clock Skew of gated clocks with respect to clock or each other

Registers with Load-Controlled Feedback

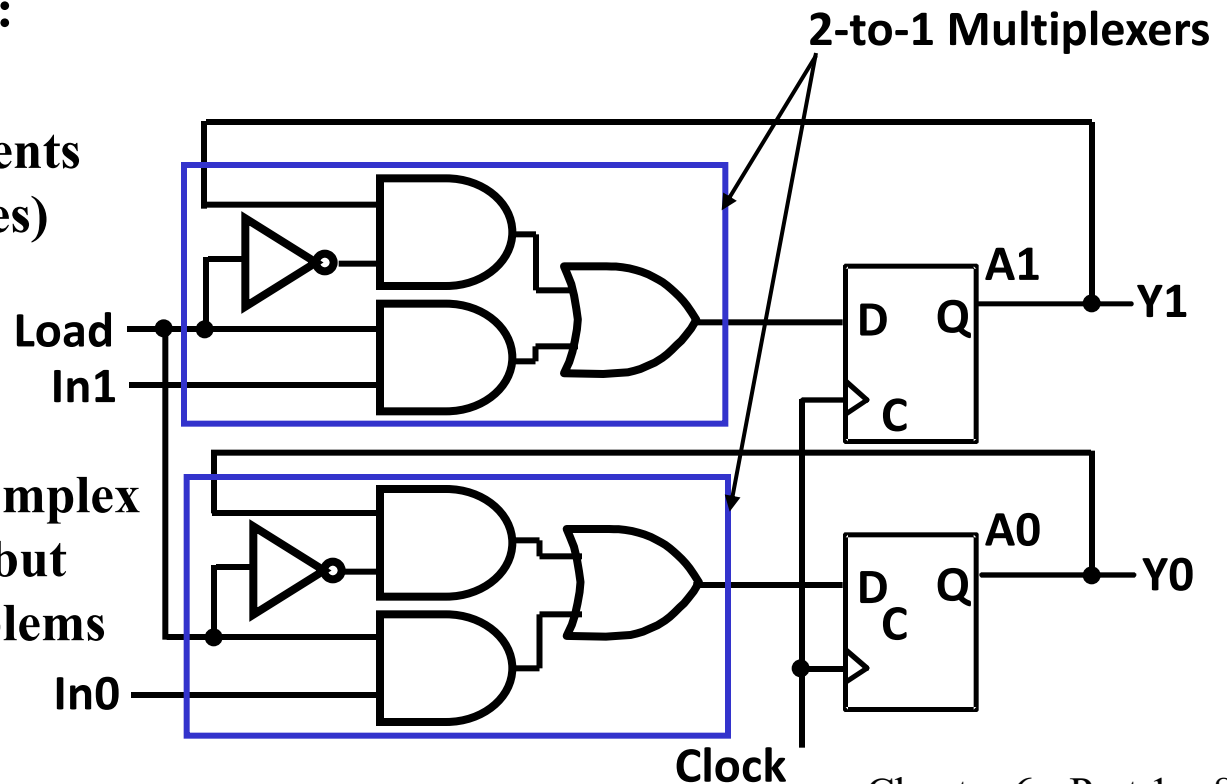
- A more reliable way to selectively load a register:
 - Run the clock continuously, and
 - Selectively use a load control to change the register contents.

- Example: 2-bit register with Load Control:

- For Load = 0, loads register contents (hold current values)

- For Load = 1, loads input values (load new values)

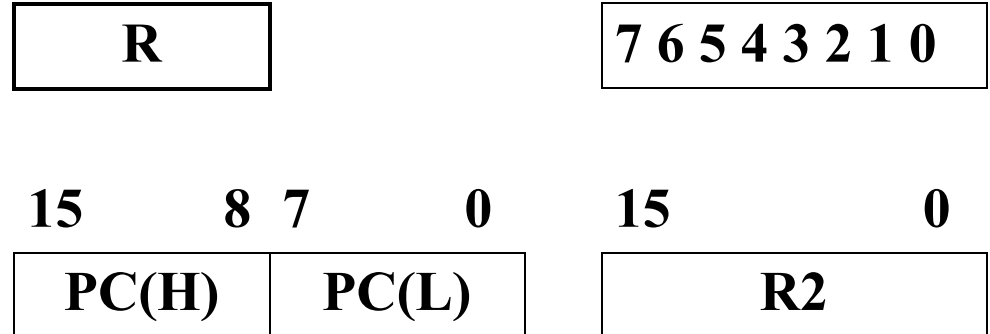
- Hardware more complex than clock gating, but free of timing problems



Register Transfer Operations

- Register Transfer Operations – The movement and processing of data stored in registers
- Three basic components:
 - set of registers
 - operations
 - control of operations
- **Elementary Operations** -- load, count, shift, add, bitwise "OR", etc.
 - Elementary operations called *microoperations*

Register Notation



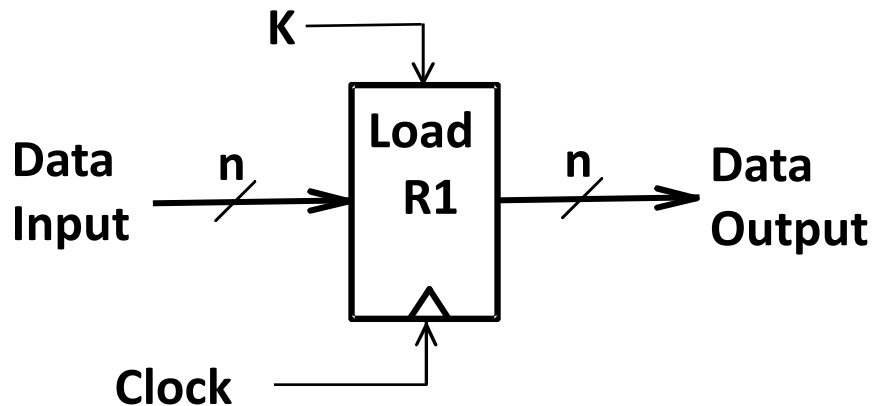
- **Letters and numbers** – denotes a register (ex. R2, PC, IR)
- **Parentheses ()** – denotes a range of register bits (ex. R1(1), PC(7:0), PC(L))
- **Arrow (←)** – denotes data transfer (ex. R1 ← R2, PC(L) ← R0)
- **Comma** – separates parallel operations
- **Brackets []** – Specifies a memory address (ex. R0 ← M[AR], R3 ← M[PC])

Conditional Transfer

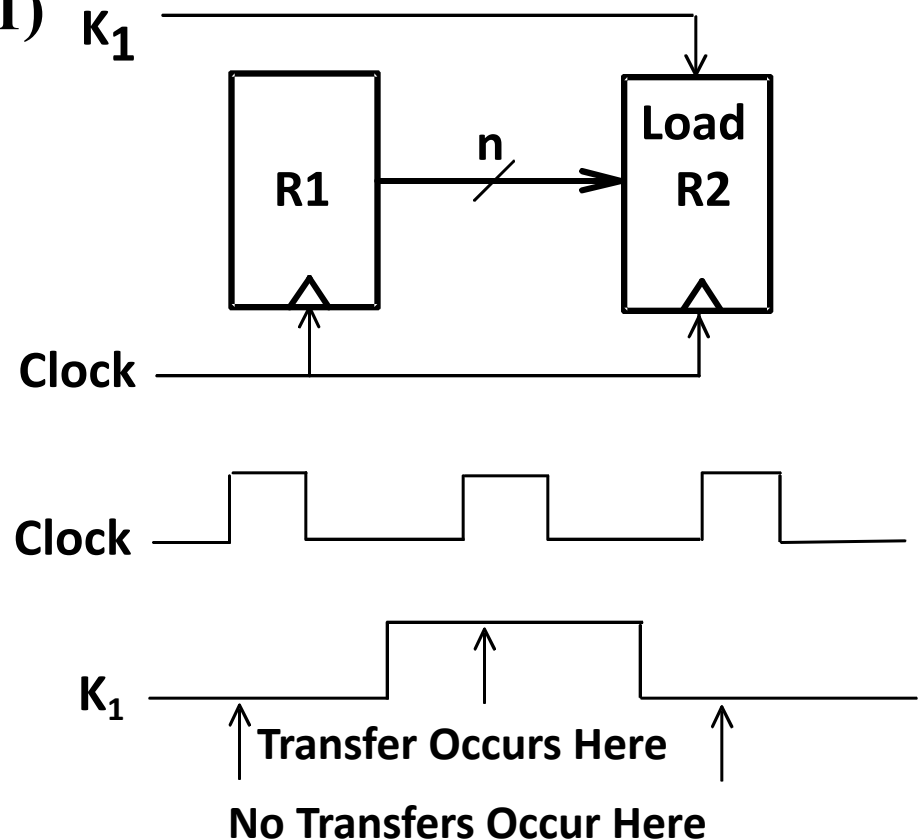
- If $(K1 = 1)$ then $(R2 \leftarrow R1)$ is shortened to

$K1: (R2 \leftarrow R1)$

where **K1** is a control variable specifying a conditional execution of the microoperation.



Register Denote



Control Expressions

- The control expression for an operation appears to the left of the operation and is separated from it by a colon
 - Control expressions specify the logical condition for the operation to occur
 - Control expression values of:
 - Logic "1" -- the operation occurs.
 - Logic "0" -- the operation is does not occur.
- Example:
 $\overline{X} \text{ K1} : R1 \leftarrow R1 + R2$
 $X \text{ K1} : R1 \leftarrow R1 + \overline{R2} + 1$
 - Variable K1 enables the add or subtract operation.
 - If $X = 0$, then $\overline{X} = 1$ so $\overline{X} \text{ K1} = 1$, activating the addition of R1 and R2.
 - If $X = 1$, then $X \text{ K1} = 1$, activating the addition of R1 and the two's complement of R2 (subtract).

Microoperations

■ Logical Groupings:

- **Transfer** - move data from one register to another
- **Arithmetic** - perform arithmetic on data in registers
- **Logic** - manipulate data or use bitwise logical operations
- **Shift** - shift data in registers

Arithmetic operations

+ Addition

– Subtraction

*** Multiplication**

/ Division

Logical operations

∨ Logical OR

∧ Logical AND

⊕ Logical Exclusive OR

– Not

Example Microoperations

- Add the content of R1 to the content of R2 and place the result in PC.

$$PC \leftarrow R1 + R2$$

- Multiply the content of R1 by the content of R6 and place the result in R1.

$$R1 \leftarrow R1 * R6$$

- Exclusive OR the content of R1 with the content of R2 and place the result in R1.

$$R1 \leftarrow R1 \oplus R2$$

Example Microoperations (Continued)

- Take the 1's Complement of the contents of R2 and place it in the PC.
- $PC \leftarrow \overline{R2}$
- On condition K1 OR K2, the content of R1 is Logic bitwise Ored with the content of R3 and the result placed in R1.
- (K1 + K2): $R1 \leftarrow R1 \vee R3$
- NOTE: "+" (as in $K_1 + K_2$) and means "OR." In $R1 \leftarrow R1 + R3$, + means "plus."

Arithmetic Microoperations

- **From Table 6-3:**

Symbolic Designation	Description
$R0 \leftarrow R1 + R2$	Addition
$R0 \leftarrow \overline{R1}$	One's Complement
$R0 \leftarrow \overline{R1} + 1$	Two's Complement
$R0 \leftarrow R2 + \overline{R1} + 1$	R2 minus R1 (2's Comp.)
$R1 \leftarrow R1 + 1$	Increment (count up)
$R1 \leftarrow R1 - 1$	Decrement (count down)
- Note that any register may be specified for source 1, source 2, or destination.
- These simple microoperations operate on the whole word

Logical Microoperations

- From Table 6-4:

Symbolic Designation	Description
$R0 \leftarrow \overline{R1}$	Bitwise NOT
$R0 \leftarrow R1 \vee R2$	Bitwise OR (sets bits)
$R0 \leftarrow R1 \wedge R2$	Bitwise AND (clears bits)
$R0 \leftarrow R1 \oplus R2$	Bitwise EXOR (complements bits)

Logical Microoperations (continued)

- Let $R1 = 10101010$,
and $R2 = 11110000$
- Then after the operation, $R0$ becomes:

R0	Operation
01010101	$R0 \leftarrow \overline{R1}$
11111010	$R0 \leftarrow R1 \vee R2$
10100000	$R0 \leftarrow R1 \wedge R2$
01011010	$R0 \leftarrow R1 \oplus R2$

Shift Microoperations

- From Table 7-5:
- Let R2 = 11001001
- Then after the operation, R1 becomes:

Symbolic Designation	Description
$R1 \leftarrow sl\ R2$	Shift Left
$R1 \leftarrow sr\ R2$	Shift Right

R1	Operation
10010010	$R1 \leftarrow sl\ R2$
01100100	$R1 \leftarrow sr\ R2$

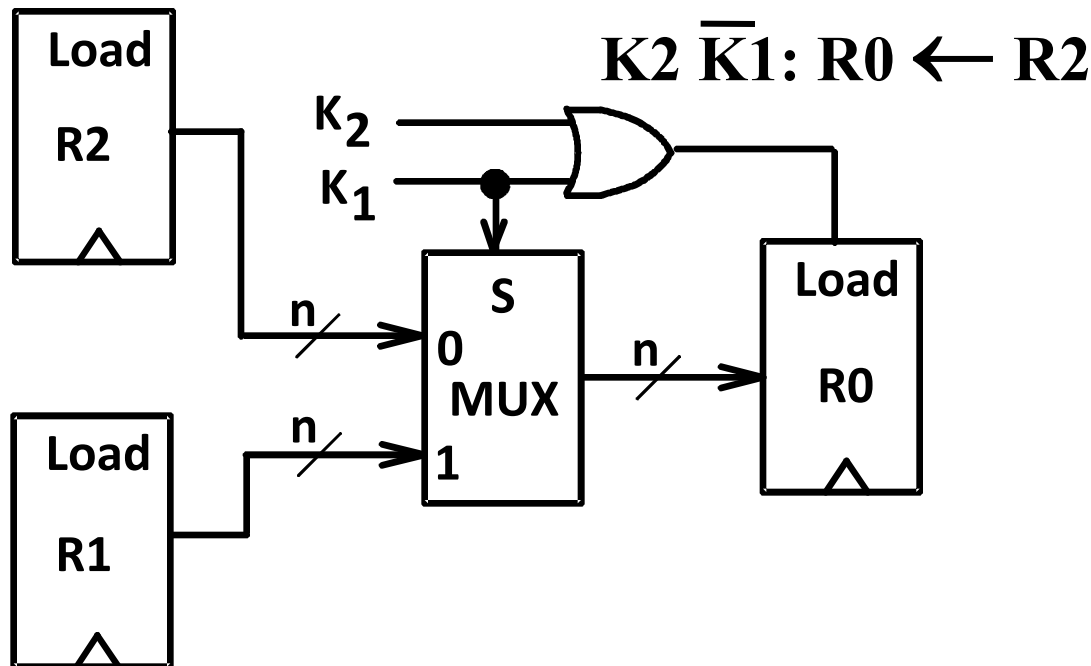
- Note: These shifts "zero fill". Sometimes a separate flip-flop is used to provide the data shifted in, or to "catch" the data shifted out.
- Other shifts are possible (rotates, arithmetic).

Register Transfer Structures

- **Multiplexer-Based Transfers** - Multiple inputs are selected by a multiplexer dedicated to the register
- **Bus-Based Transfers** - Multiple inputs are selected by a shared multiplexer driving a bus that feeds inputs to multiple registers
- **Three-State Bus** - Multiple inputs are selected by 3-state drivers with outputs connected to a bus that feeds multiple registers
- **Other Transfer Structures** - Use multiple multiplexers, multiple buses, and combinations of all the above

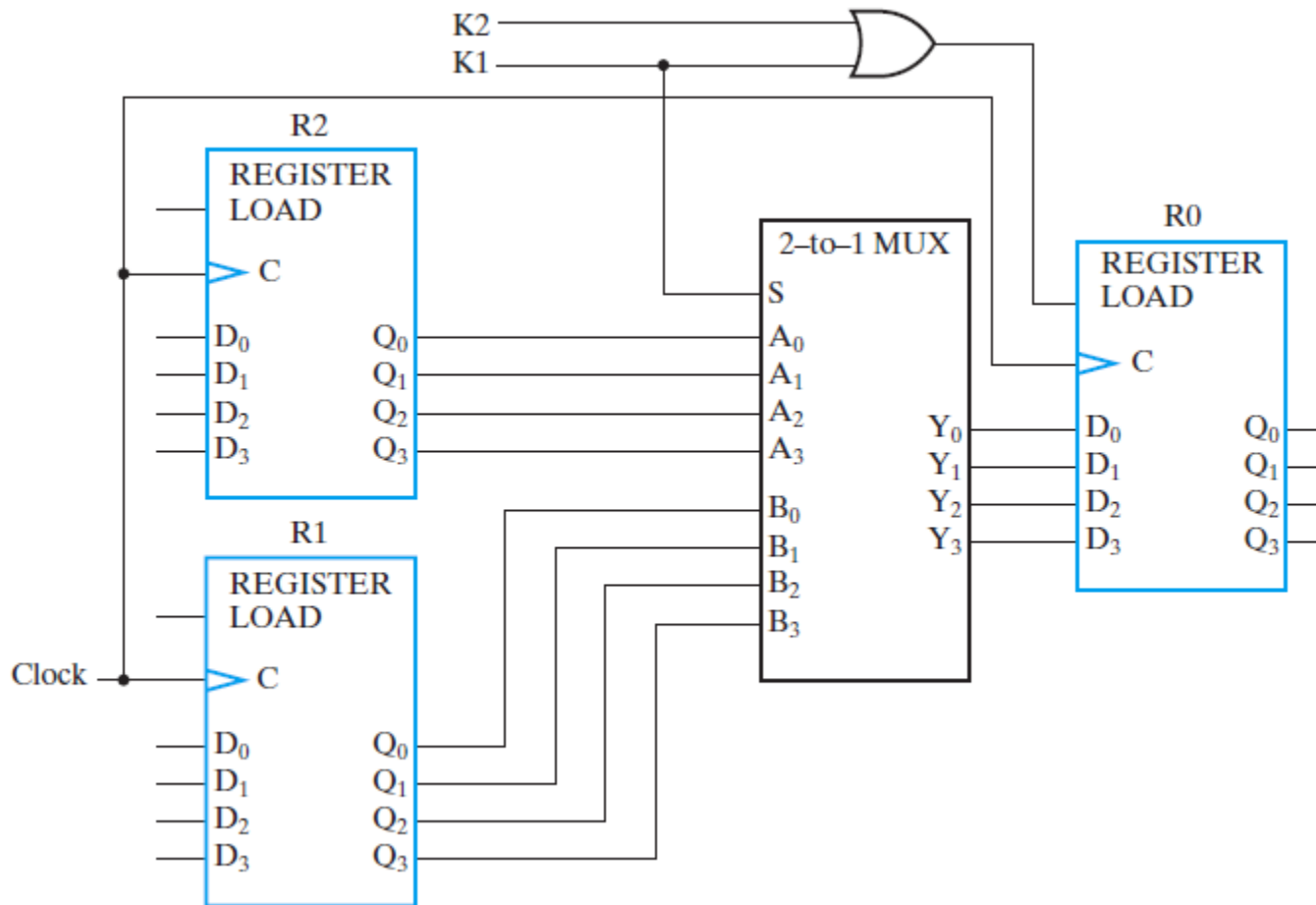
Multiplexer-Based Transfers

- Multiplexers connected to register inputs produce flexible transfer structures (Note: Clocks are omitted for clarity)
- The transfers are: $K1: R0 \leftarrow R1$



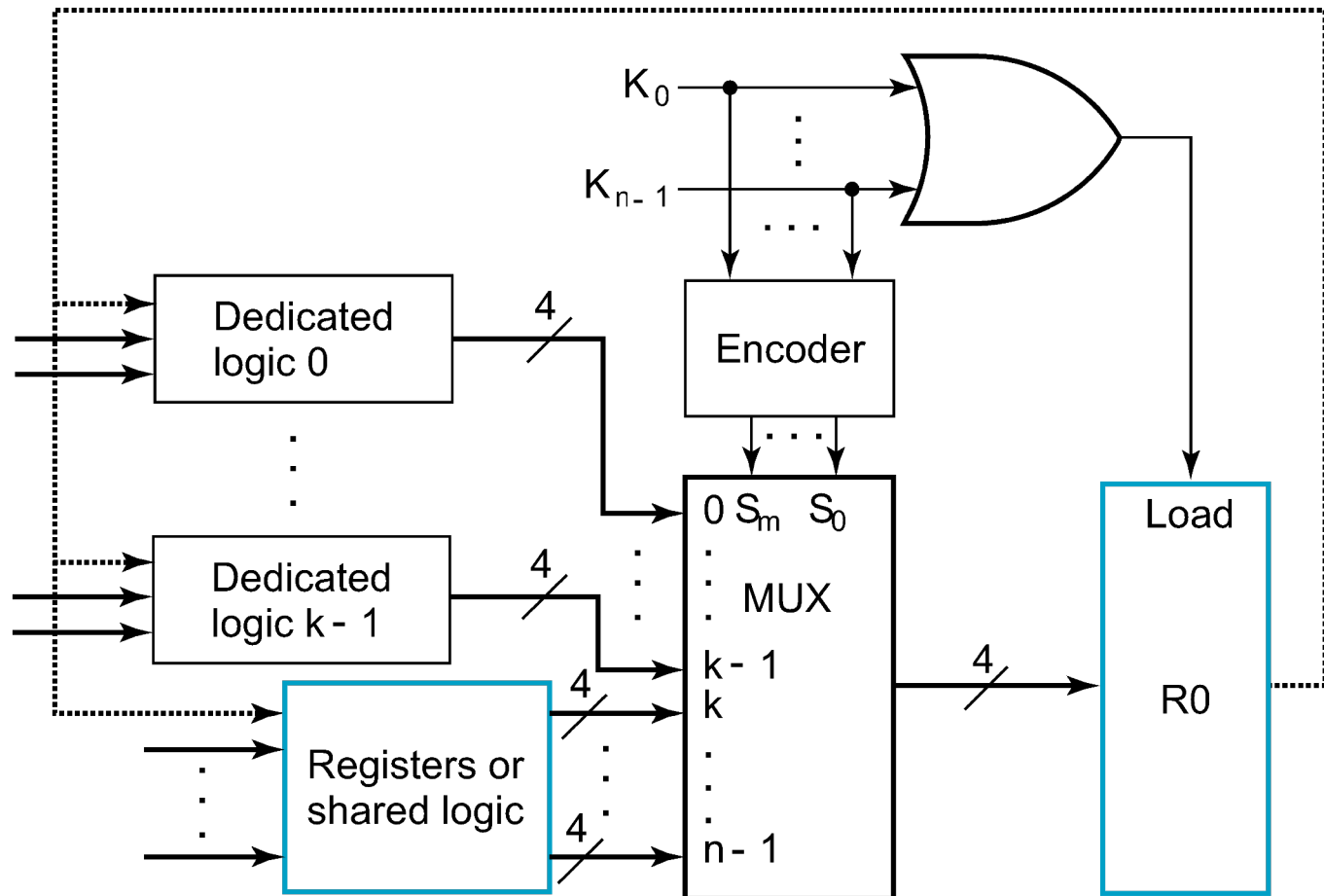
Multiplexer-Based Transfers

- Detailed logic



Multiplexer Approach

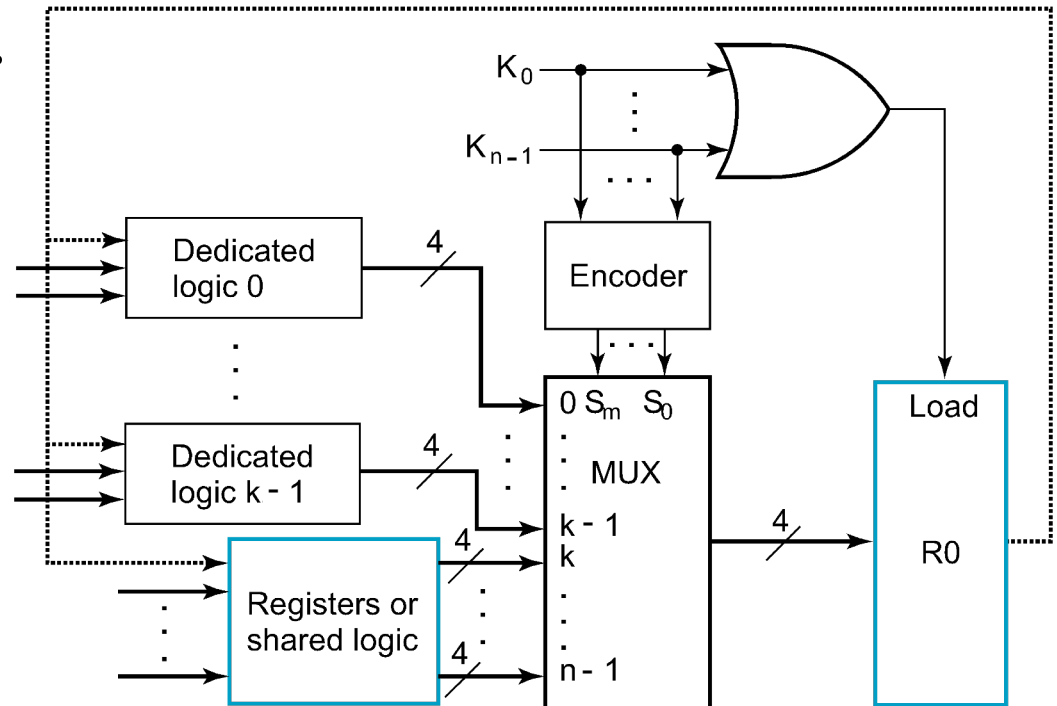
- **Uses an n-input multiplexer with a variety of transfer sources and functions**



Multiplexer Approach

- Load enable by OR of control signals K_0, K_1, \dots, K_{n-1}
 - assumes no load for 00...0
- Use:
 - Encoder + Multiplexer (shown) or
 - $n \times 2$ AND-OR

to select sources and/or
transfer functions



Register Cell Design

- Assume that a register consists of identical cells
- Then register design can be approached as follows:
 - Design representative cell for the register
 - Connect copies of the cell together to form the register
 - Applying appropriate “boundary conditions” to cells that need to be different and contract if appropriate
- Register cell design is the first step of the above process

Register Cell Specifications

- **A register**
- **Data inputs to the register**
- **Control input combinations to the register**
 - **Example 1: Not encoded**
 - **Control inputs: Load, Shift, Add**
 - **At most, one of Load, Shift, Add is 1 for any clock cycle**
(0,0,0), (1,0,0), (0,1,0), (0,0,1)
 - **Example 2: Encoded**
 - **Control inputs: S1, S0**
 - **All possible binary combinations on S1, S0**
(0,0), (0,1), (1,0), (1,1)

Register Cell Specifications

- A set of register functions (typically specified as register transfers)
 - Example:
 - Load: $A \leftarrow B$
 - Shift: $A \leftarrow \text{sr } B$
 - Add: $A \leftarrow A + B$
- A hold state specification
 - Example:
 - Control inputs: Load, Shift, Add
 - If all control inputs are 0, hold the current register state

Example 1: Register Cell Design

- **Register A (m-bits) Specification:**
 - **Data input: B**
 - **Control inputs (CX, CY)**
 - **Control input combinations (0,0), (0,1) (1,0)**
 - **Register transfers:**
 - **CX: $A \leftarrow B \vee A$**
 - **CY : $A \leftarrow B \oplus A$**
 - **Hold state: (0,0)**

Example 1: Register Cell Design (continued)

- **Load Control**

$$\text{Load} = \text{CX} + \text{CY}$$

- **Since all control combinations appear as if encoded (0,0), (0,1), (1,0) can use multiplexer without encoder:**

$$\text{S1} = \text{CX}$$

$$\text{S0} = \text{CY}$$

$$\text{D0} = \text{A}_i$$

Hold A

$$\text{D1} = \text{A}_i \leftarrow \text{B}_i \oplus \text{A}_i$$

$$\text{CY} = 1$$

$$\text{D2} = \text{A}_i \leftarrow \text{B}_i \vee \text{A}_i$$

$$\text{CX} = 1$$

- **Note that the decoder part of the 3-input multiplexer can be shared between bits if desired**

Sequential Circuit Design Approach

- **Find a state diagram or state table**
 - **Note that there are only two states with the state assignment equal to the register cell output value**
- **Use the design procedure in Chapter 4 to complete the cell design**
- **For optimization:**
 - **Use K-maps for up to 4 to 6 variables**
 - **Otherwise, use computer-aided or manual optimization**

Example 1 Again

■ State Table:

	Hold	$A_i \vee B_i$		$A_i \oplus B_i$	
A_i	$CX = 0$	$CX = 1$	$CX = 1$	$CX = 0$	$CX = 0$
	$CY = 0$	$CY = 0$	$CY = 0$	$CY = 1$	$CY = 1$
	$B_i = x$	$B_i = 0$	$B_i = 1$	$B_i = 0$	$B_i = 1$
0	0	0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1	1	0

- Four variables give a total of 16 state table entries

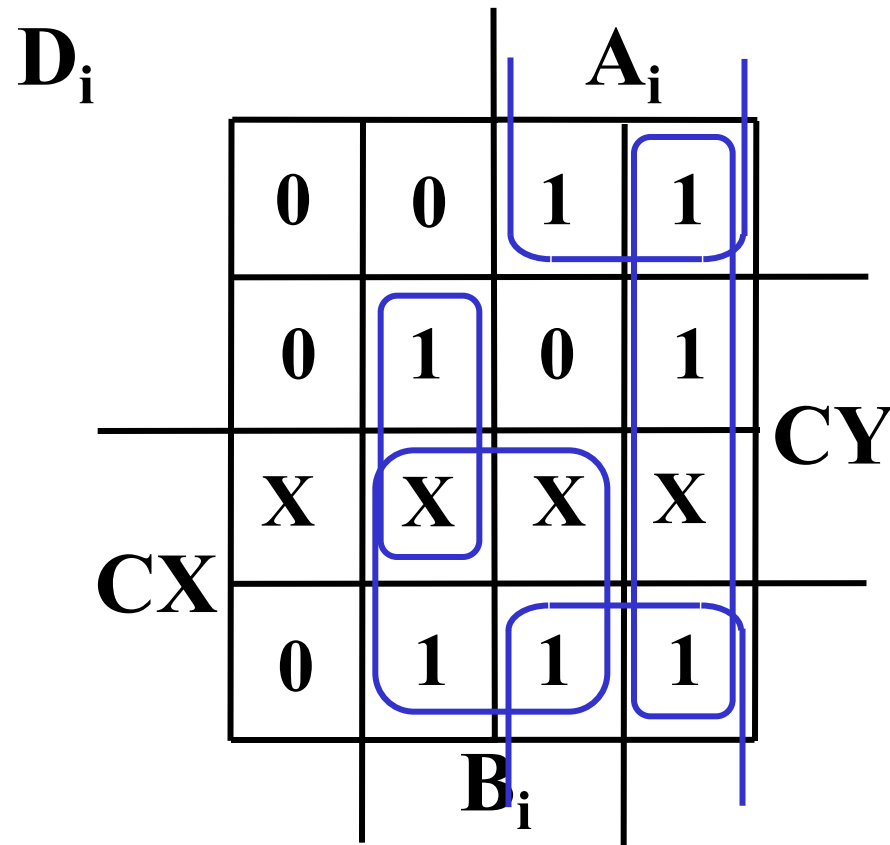
- By using:

- Combinations of variable names and values
- Don't care conditions (for $CX = CY = 1$)

only 10 entries are required to represent the 16 entries

Example 1 Again (continued)

- K-map - Use variable ordering CX , CY , A_i , B_i and assume a D flip-flop



Example 1 Again (continued)

- The resulting SOP equation:

$$D_i = CX B_i + CY \bar{A}_i B_i + A_i \bar{B}_i + \bar{C}\bar{Y} A_i$$

- Using factoring and DeMorgan's law:

$$D_i = CX B_i + \bar{A}_i (CY B_i) + A_i (\overline{CY B_i})$$

$$D_i = CX B_i + A_i \oplus (CY B_i)$$

The gate input cost per cell = $2 + 8 + 2 + 2 = 14$

- The gate input cost per cell for the previous version is:

Per cell: 19 (3 to 1 MUX is $3*2+3=9$, XOR 8, OR 2, totally 19)

Shared decoder logic: 8

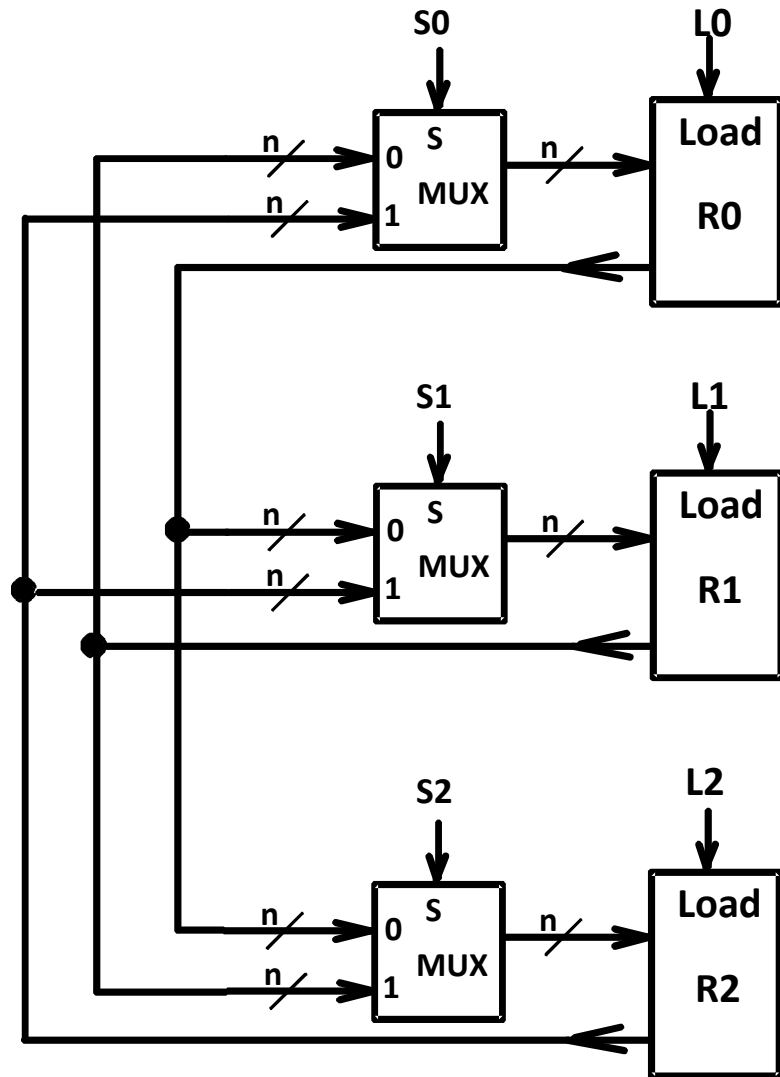
- Cost gain by sequential design > 5 per cell
- Also, no Enable on the flip-flop makes it cost less

Multiplexer and Bus-Based Transfers for Multiple Registers

- Multiplexer dedicated to each register
- Shared transfer paths for registers
 - A shared transfer object is called a *bus* (Plural: *buses*)
- Bus implementation using:
 - multiplexers
 - three-state nodes and drivers
- In most cases, the number of bits is the length of the receiving register

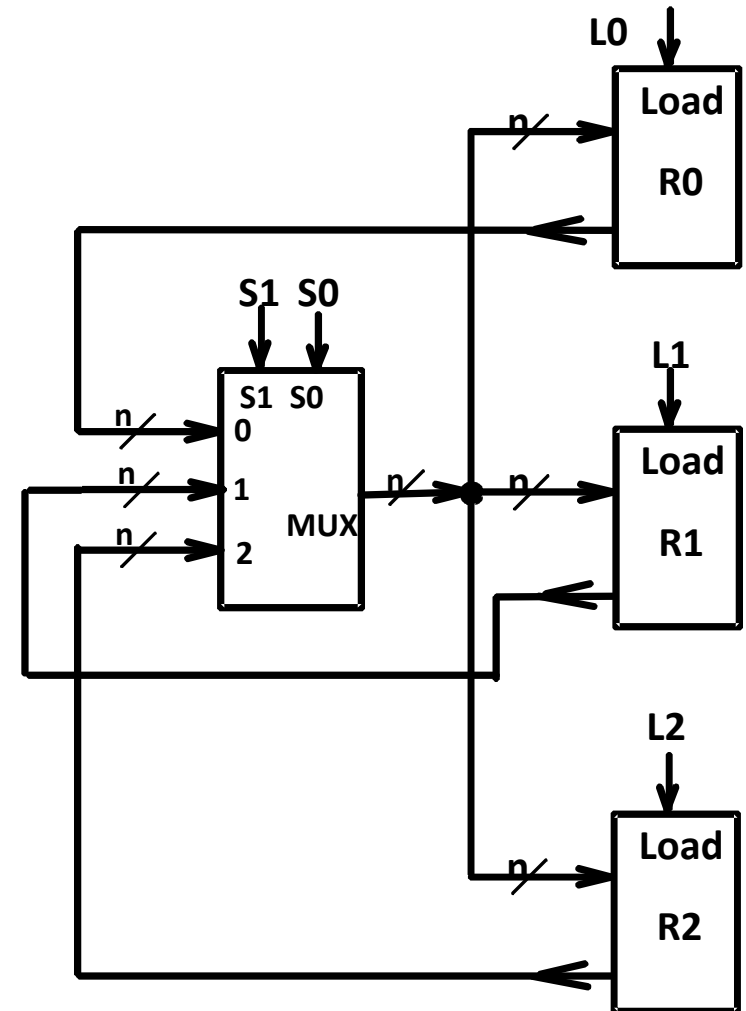
Dedicated MUX-Based Transfers

- Multiplexer connected to each register input produces a very flexible transfer structure =>
- Characterize the simultaneous transfers possible with this structure.
- 18 gate inputs per bit plus 3 shared inverters with total of 3 inputs



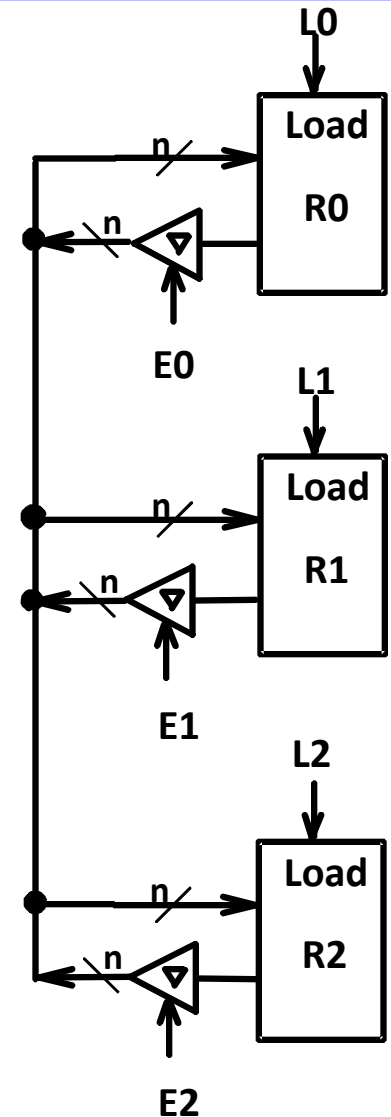
Multiplexer Bus

- A single bus driven by a multiplexer lowers cost, but limits the available transfers
=>
- Characterize the simultaneous transfers possible with this structure.
- Characterize the cost savings compared to dedicated multiplexers
- 9 gate inputs per bit + shared decoder with 8 inputs



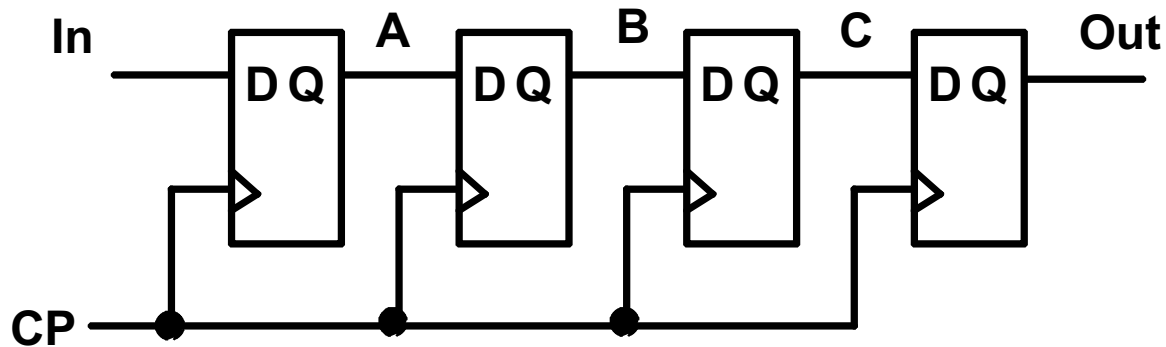
Three-State Bus

- The 3-input MUX can be replaced by a 3-state node (bus) and 3-state buffers.
- Cost is further reduced, but transfers are limited
- Characterize the simultaneous transfers possible with this structure.
- Characterize the cost savings and compare
- 3 gate inputs per three state driver = 9 gate inputs
- Other advantages?



Shift Registers

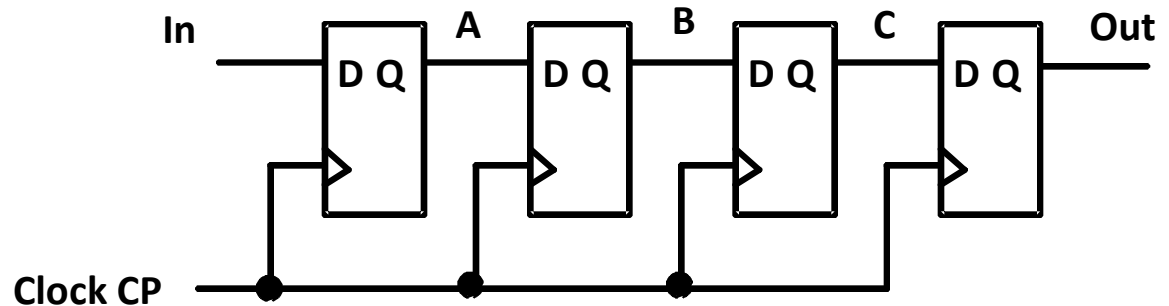
- Shift Registers move data laterally within the register toward its MSB or LSB position
- In the simplest case, the shift register is simply a set of D flip-flops connected in a row like this:



- Data input, In, is called a *serial input* or the *shift right input*.
- Data output, Out, is often called the *serial output*.
- The vector (A, B, C, Out) is called the *parallel output*.

Shift Registers (continued)

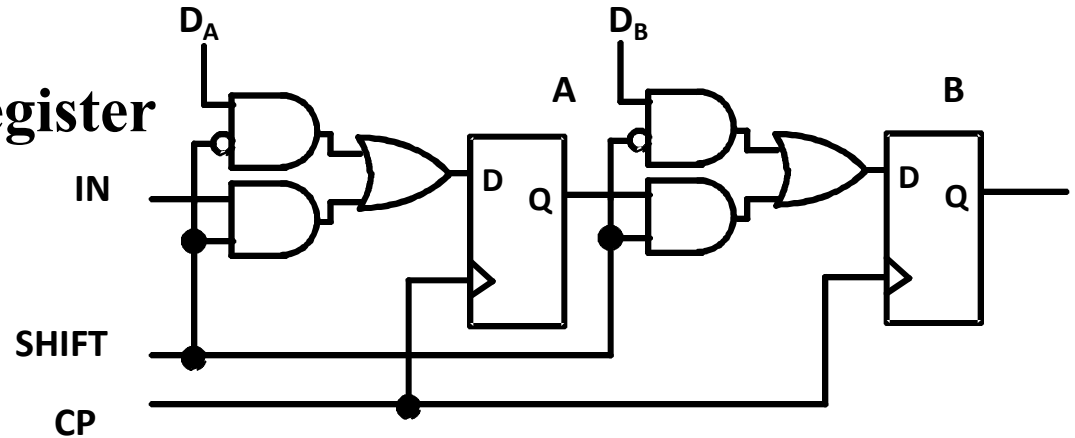
- The behavior of the serial shift register is given in the listing on the lower right
- T0 is the register state just before the first clock pulse occurs
- T1 is after the first pulse and before the second.
- Initially unknown states are denoted by “?”
- Complete the last three rows of the table



CP	In	A	B	C	Out
T0	0	?	?	?	?
T1	1	0	?	?	?
T2	1	1	0	?	?
T3	0	1	1	0	?
T4	1				
T5	1				
T6	1				

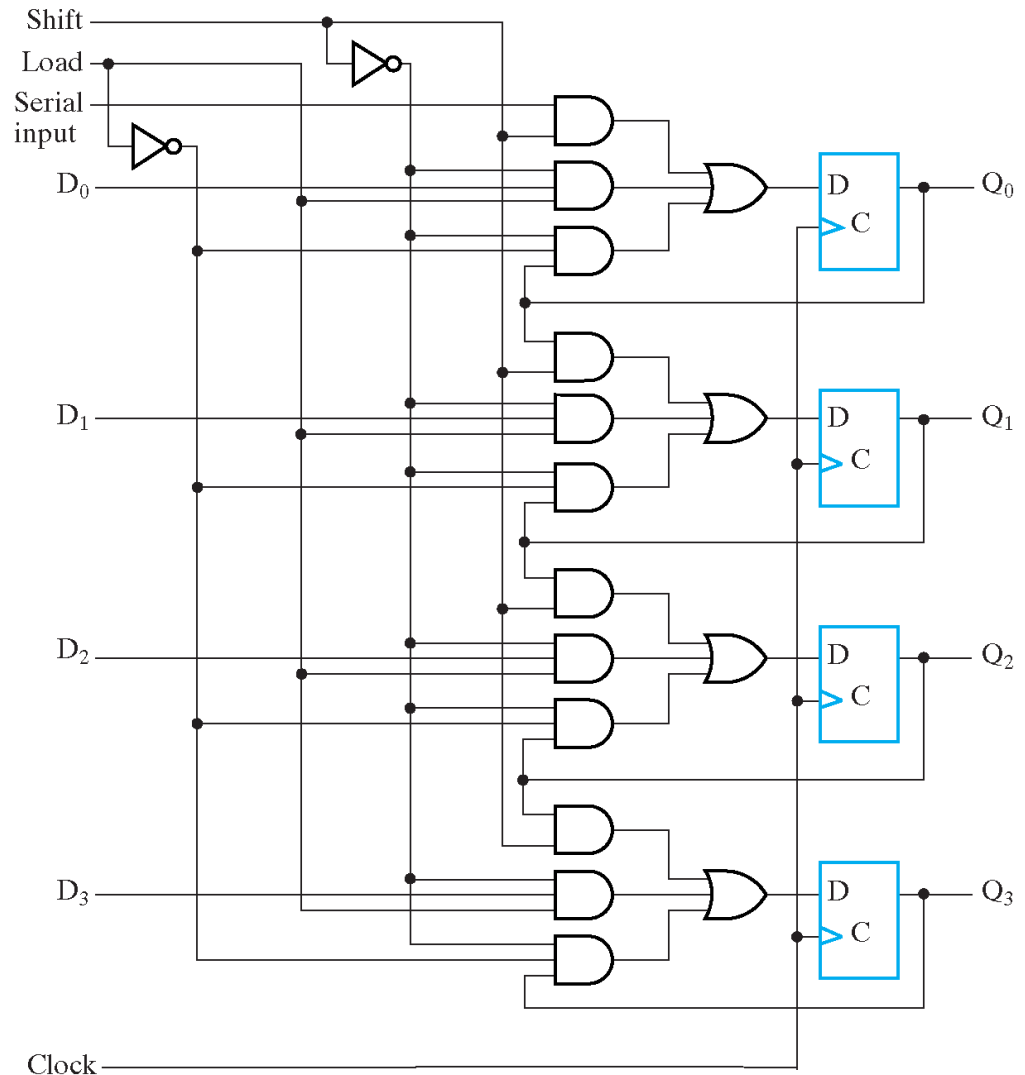
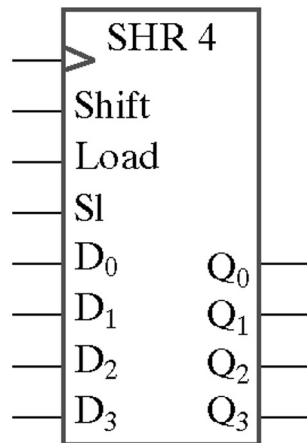
Parallel Load Shift Registers

- By adding a mux between each shift register stage, data can be shifted or loaded
- If SHIFT is low, A and B are replaced by the data on D_A and D_B lines, else data shifts right on each clock.
- By adding more bits, we can make n -bit parallel load shift registers.



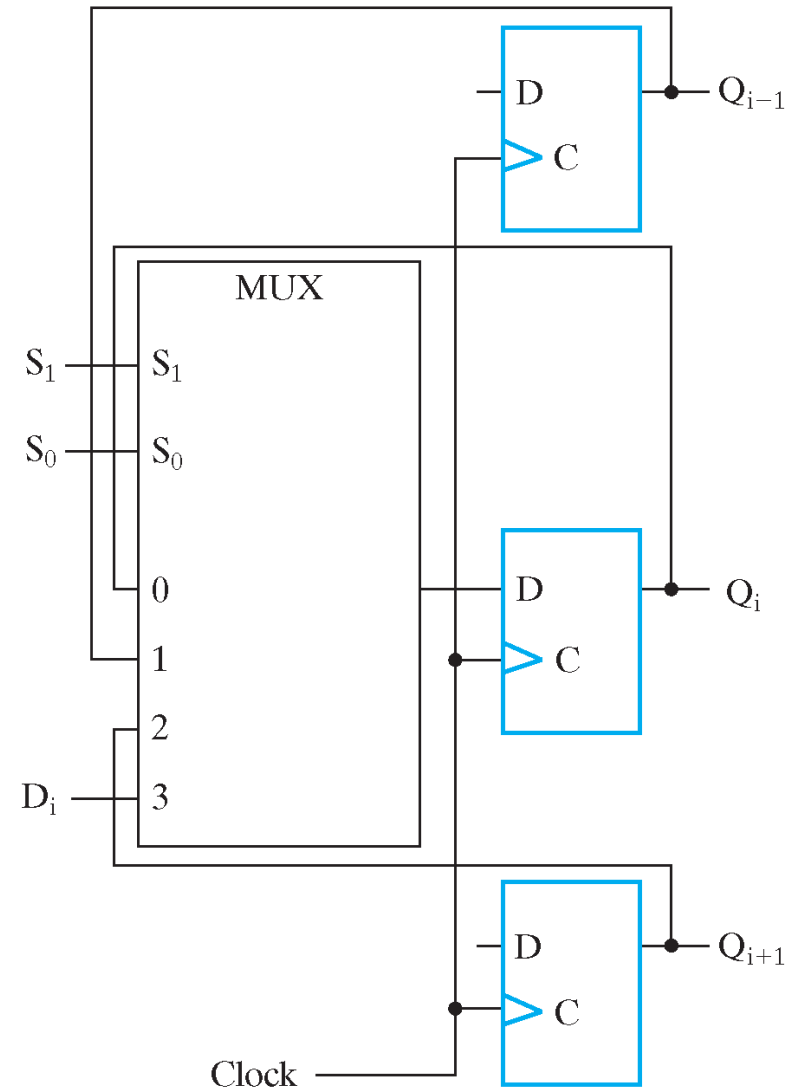
Parallel Load Shift Registers

- A parallel load shift register with an added “hold” operation that stores data:



Shift Registers with Additional Functions

- By placing a 4-input multiplexer in front of each D flip-flop in a shift register, we can implement a circuit with shifts right, shifts left, parallel load, hold.
- Shift registers can also be designed to shift more than a single bit position right or left
- Shift registers can be designed to shift a variable number of bit positions specified by a variable called a *shift amount*.



Overview

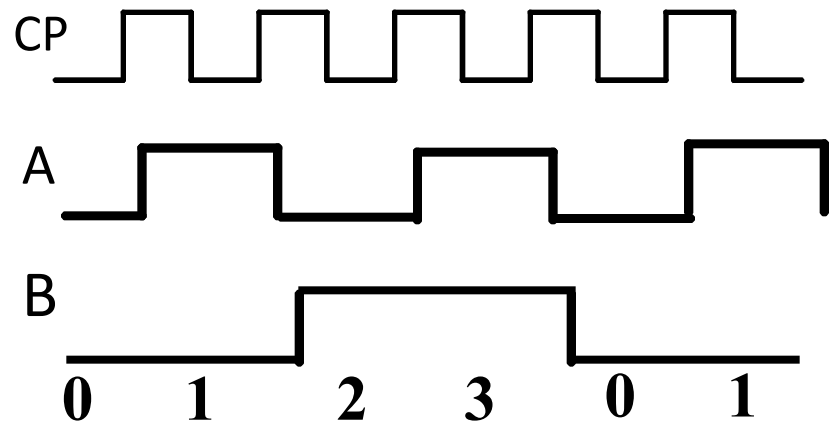
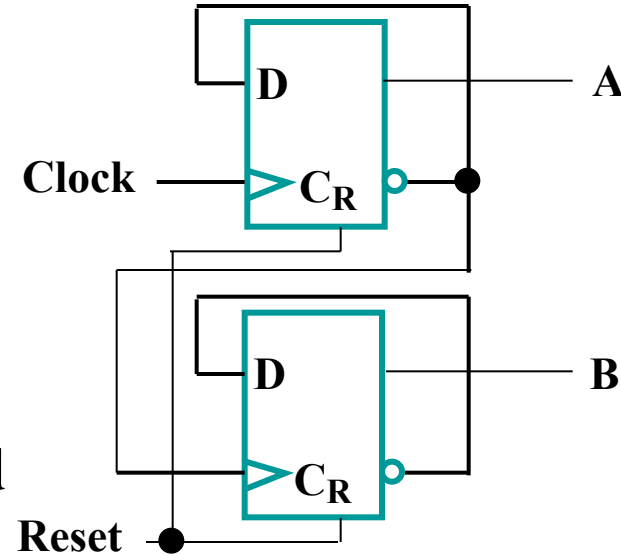
- **Part 1 – Registers, Microoperations and Implementations**
- **Part 2 – Counters, register cells, buses, & serial operations**
 - **Microoperations on single register (continued)**
 - **Counters**
 - **Register cell design**
 - **Serial transfers and microoperations**
- **Part 3 – Control of Register Transfers**

Counters

- **Counters** are sequential circuits which "count" through a specific state sequence. They can count up, count down, or count through other fixed sequences. Two distinct types are in common usage:
- **Ripple Counters**
 - Clock connected to the flip-flop clock input on the LSB bit flip-flop
 - For all other bits, a flip-flop output is connected to the clock input, thus circuit is not truly synchronous!
 - Output change is delayed more for each bit toward the MSB.
 - Resurgent because of low power consumption
- **Synchronous Counters**
 - Clock is directly connected to the flip-flop clock inputs
 - Logic is used to implement the desired state sequencing

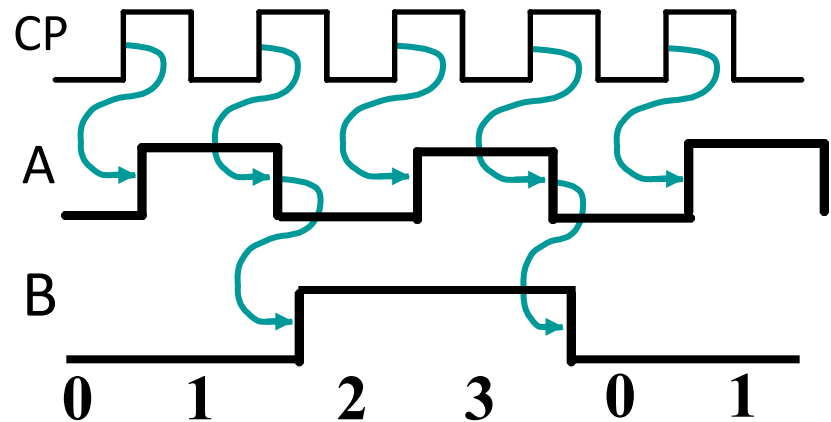
Ripple Counter

- **How does it work?**
 - When there is a positive edge on the clock input of A, A complements
 - The clock input for flip-flop B is the complemented output of flip-flop A
 - When flip A changes from 1 to 0, there is a positive edge on the clock input of B causing B to complement



Ripple Counter (continued)

- The arrows show the cause-effect relationship from the prior slide =>



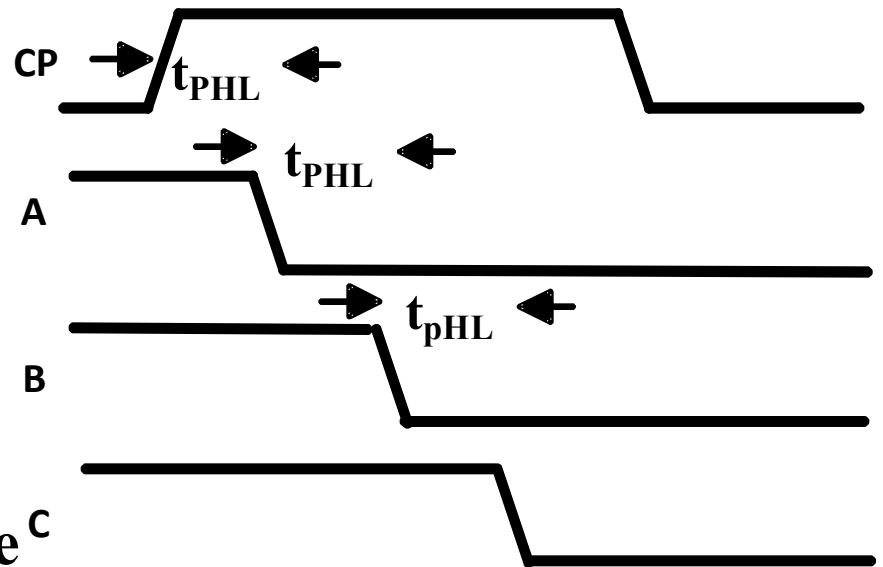
- The corresponding sequence of states => $(B,A) = (0,0), (0,1), (1,0), (1,1), (0,0), (0,1), \dots$
- Each additional bit, C, D, ...behaves like bit B, changing half as frequently as the bit before it.
- For 3 bits: $(C,B,A) = (0,0,0), (0,0,1), (0,1,0), (0,1,1), (1,0,0), (1,0,1), (1,1,0), (1,1,1), (0,0,0), \dots$

Ripple Counter (continued)

- These circuits are called *ripple counters* because each edge sensitive transition (positive in the example) causes a change in the next flip-flop's state.
- The changes “ripple” upward through the chain of flip-flops, i. e., each transition occurs after a clock-to-output delay from the stage before.
- To see this effect in detail look at the waveforms on the next slide.

Ripple Counter (continued)

- Starting with $C = B = A = 1$, equivalent to $(C,B,A) = 7$ base 10, the next clock increments the count to $(C,B,A) = 0$ base 10. In fine timing detail:
 - The clock to output delay t_{PHL} causes an increasing delay from clock edge for each stage transition.
 - Thus, the count “ripples” from least to most significant bit.
 - For n bits, total worst case^C delay is $n t_{\text{PHL}}$.



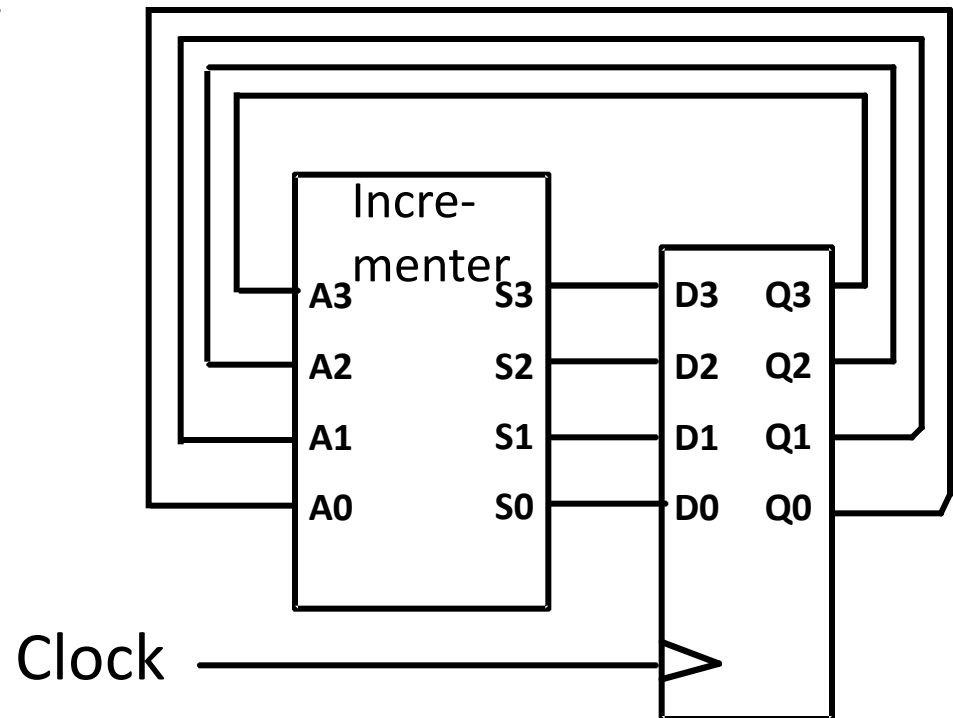
Synchronous Counters

- To eliminate the "ripple" effects, use a common clock for each flip-flop and a combinational circuit to generate the next state.

Upward Counting Sequence

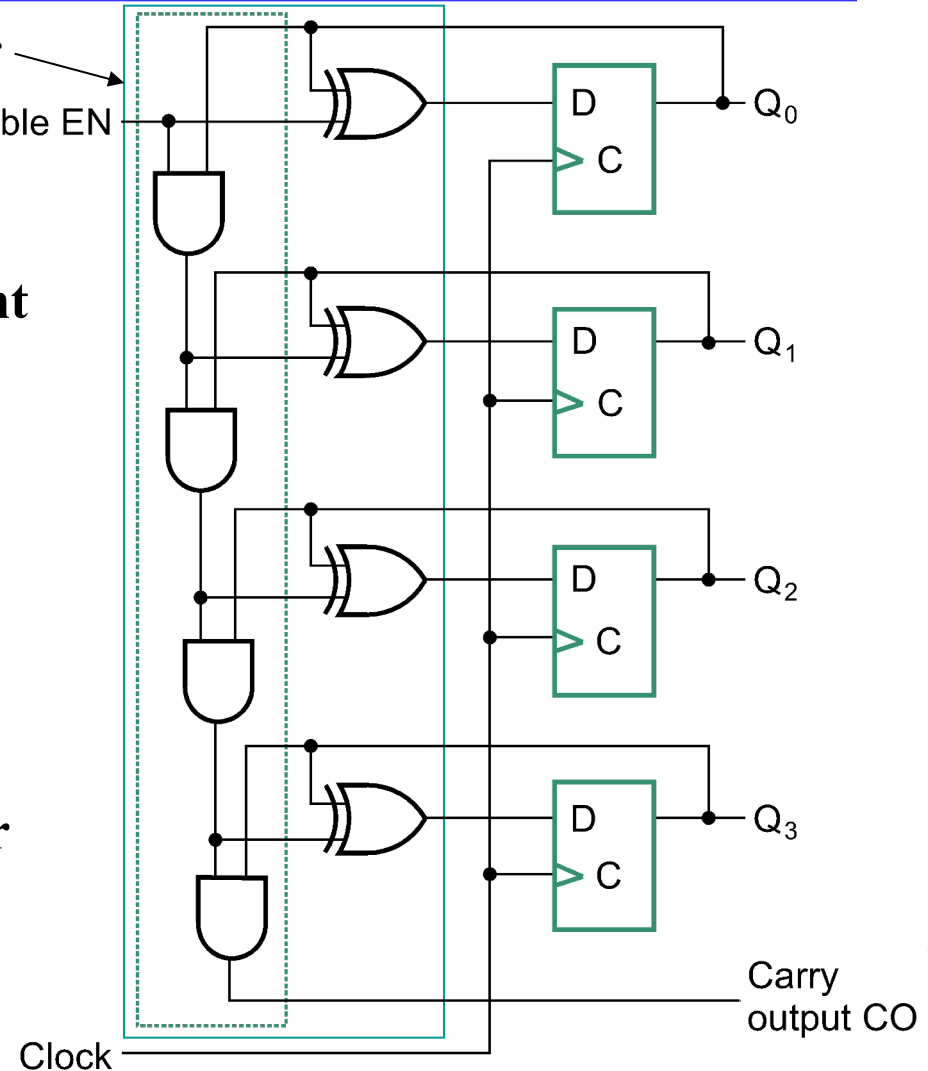
Q_3	Q_2	Q_1	Q_0
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1
0	0	1	0
0	0	1	1
0	1	0	0
0	1	0	1
0	1	1	0
0	1	1	1
1	0	0	0
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	0	1	1
1	1	0	0
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	0
1	1	1	1

=>



Synchronous Counters (continued)

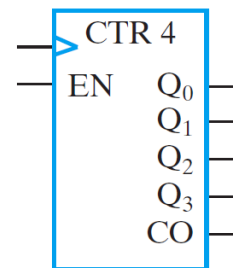
- **Internal details => Incrementer**
- **Internal Logic**
 - XOR complements each bit
 - AND chain causes complement of a bit if all bits toward LSB from it equal 1
- **Count Enable**
 - Forces all outputs of AND chain to 0 to “hold” the state
- **Carry Out**
 - Added as part of incrementer
 - Connect to Count Enable of additional 4-bit counters to form larger counters



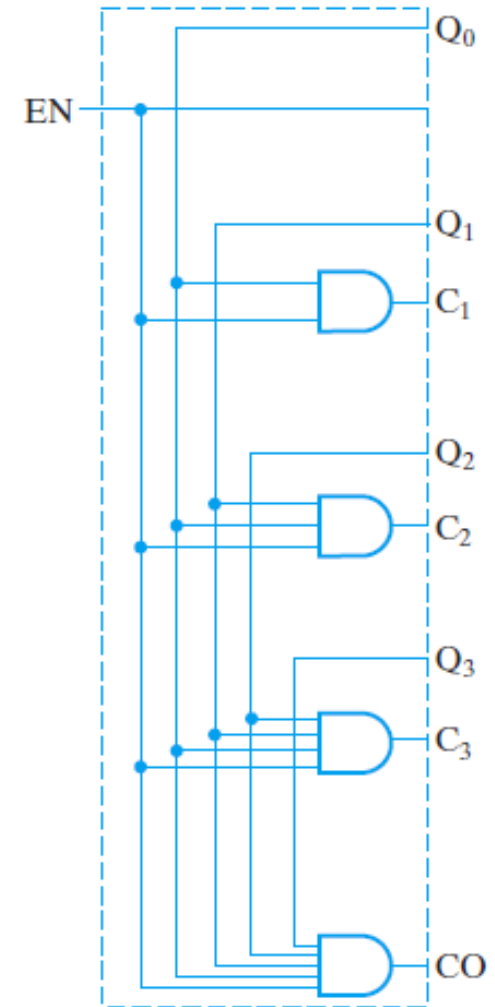
(a) Logic Diagram-Serial Gating

Synchronous Counters (continued)

- **Carry chain**
 - series of AND gates through which the carry “ripples”
 - Yields long path delays
 - Called *serial gating*
- **Replace AND carry chain with ANDs => in parallel**
 - Reduces path delays
 - Called *parallel gating*
 - Like carry lookahead
 - Lookahead can be used on COs and ENs to prevent long paths in large counters
- **Symbol for Synchronous Counter**



(c) Symbol



(b) Logic diagram—parallel gating

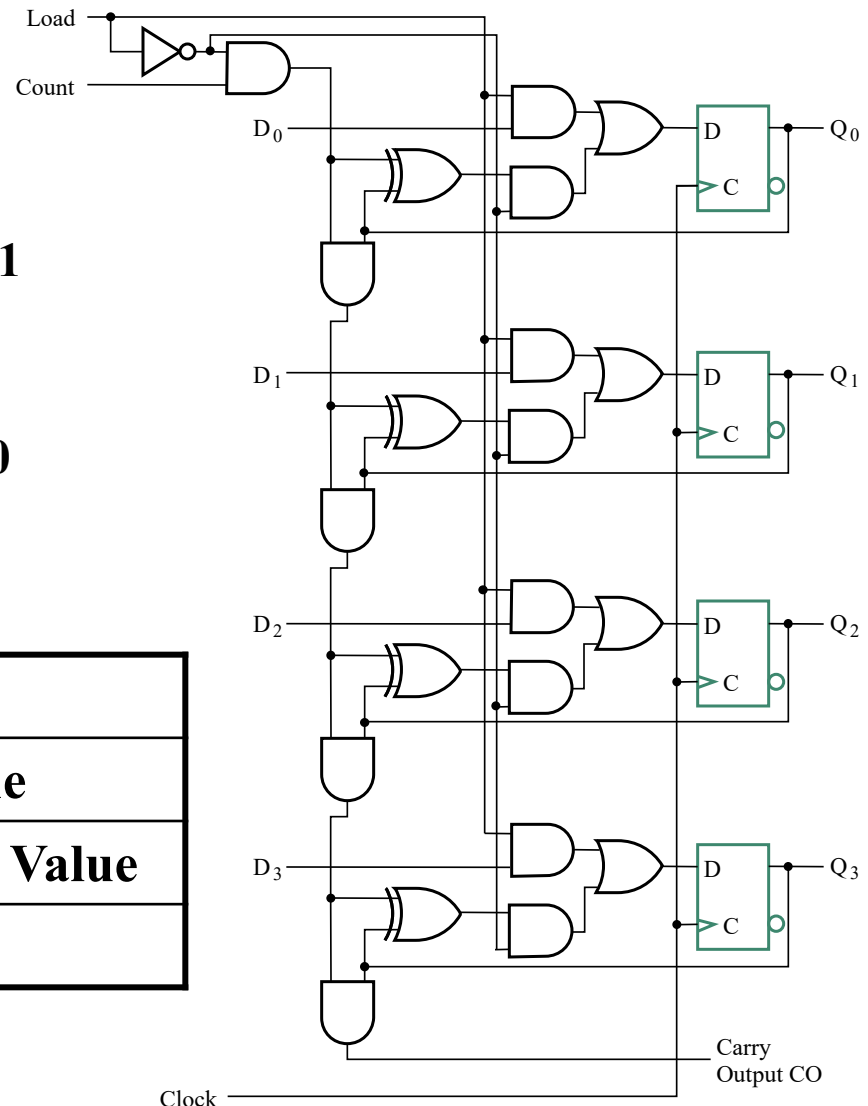
Other Counters

- See text for:
 - *Down Counter* - counts downward instead of upward
 - *Up-Down Counter* - counts up or down depending on value a control input such as Up/Down
 - *Parallel Load Counter* - Has parallel load of values available depending on control input such as Load
- *Divide-by- n (Modulo n) Counter*
 - Count is remainder of division by n ; n may not be a power of 2 or
 - Count is arbitrary sequence of n states specifically designed state-by-state
 - Includes modulo 10 which is the *BCD counter*

Counter with Parallel Load

- **Add path for input data**
 - enabled for Load = 1
- **Add logic to:**
 - disable count logic for Load = 1
 - disable feedback from outputs for Load = 1
 - enable count logic for Load = 0 and Count = 1
- **The resulting function table:**

Load	Count	Action
0	0	Hold Stored Value
0	1	Count Up Stored Value
1	X	Load D



Design Example: Synchronous BCD

- Use the sequential logic model to design a synchronous BCD counter with D flip-flops
- State Table =>
- Input combinations 1010 through 1111 are don't cares

Current State				Next State			
Q8	Q4	Q2	Q1	Q8	Q4	Q2	Q1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0
0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0

Synchronous BCD (continued)

- Use K-Maps to two-level optimize the next state equations and manipulate into forms containing XOR gates:

$$D1 = \overline{Q1}$$

$$D2 = Q2 \oplus Q1 \overline{Q8}$$

$$D4 = Q4 \oplus Q1 Q2$$

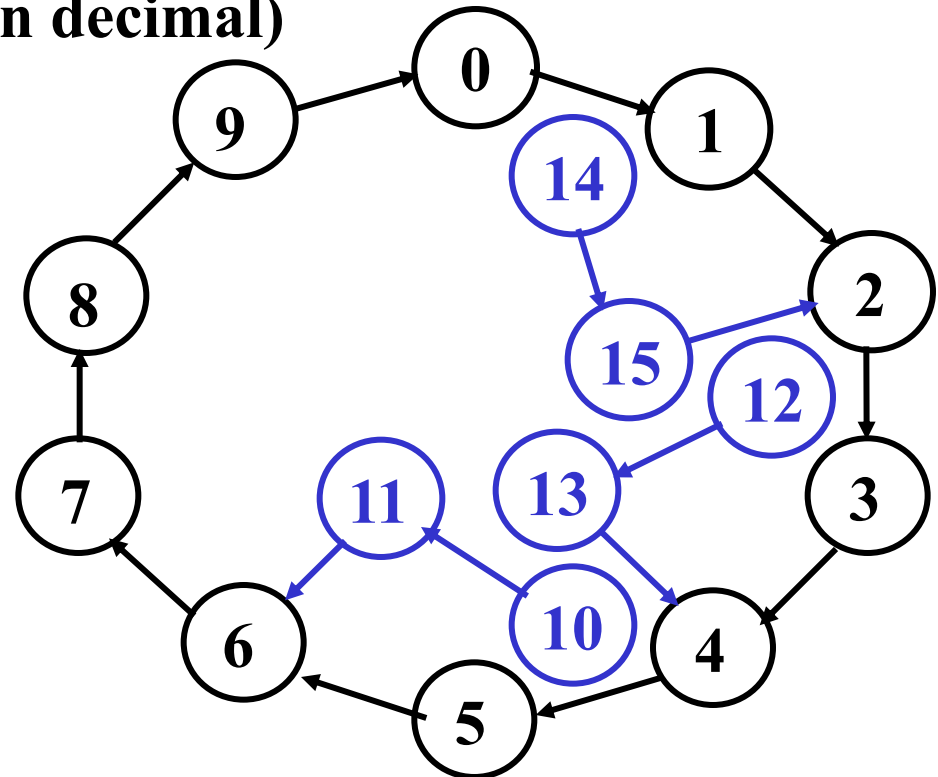
$$D8 = Q8 \oplus (Q1 Q8 + Q1 Q2 Q4)$$

- The logic diagram can be draw from these equations
 - An asynchronous or synchronous reset should be added
- What happens if the counter is perturbed by a power disturbance or other interference and it enters a state other than 0000 through 1001?

Synchronous BCD (continued)

- Find the actual values of the six next states for the don't care combinations from the equations
- Find the overall state diagram to assess behavior for the don't care states (states in decimal)

Present State				Next State			
Q8	Q4	Q2	Q1	Q8	Q4	Q2	Q1
1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1
1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0



Synchronous BCD (continued)

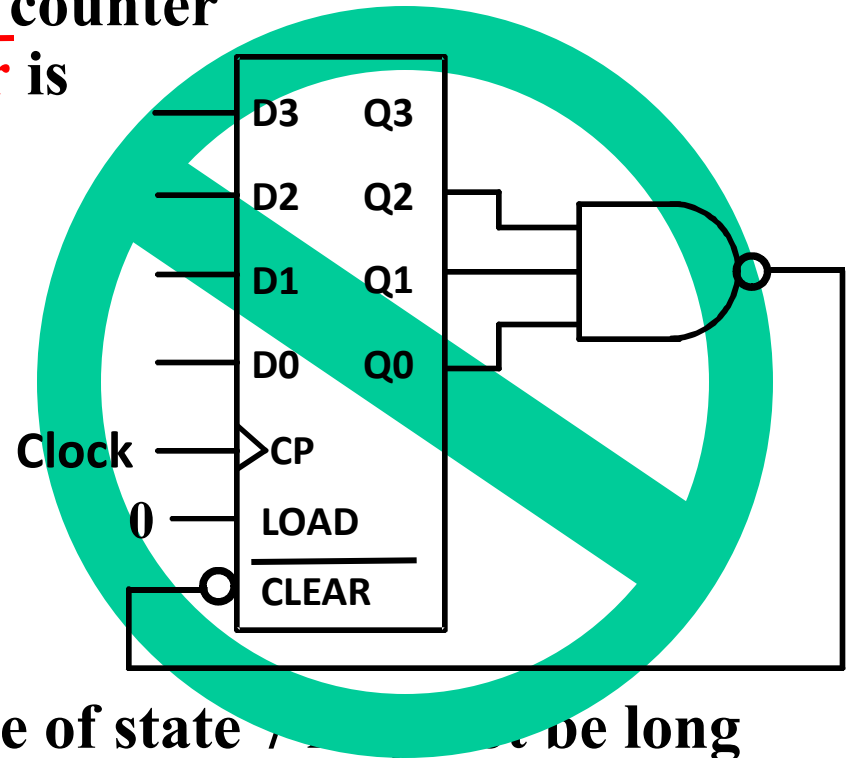
- **For the BCD counter design, if an invalid state is entered, return to a valid state occurs within two clock cycles**
- **Is this adequate? If not:**
 - **Is a signal needed that indicates that an invalid state has been entered? What is the equation for such a signal?**
 - **Does the design need to be modified to return from an invalid state to a valid state in one clock cycle?**
 - **Does the design need to be modified to return from a invalid state to a specific state (such as 0)?**
- **The action to be taken depends on:**
 - **the application of the circuit**
 - **design group policy**

Counting Modulo N

- **The following techniques use an n -bit binary counter with asynchronous or synchronous clear and/or parallel load:**
 - Detect a *terminal count* of N in a Modulo-N count sequence to asynchronously Clear the count to 0 or asynchronously Load in value 0 (These lead to counts which are present for only a very short time and can fail to work for some timing conditions!)
 - Detect a terminal count of N - 1 in a Modulo-N count sequence to Clear the count synchronously to 0
 - Detect a terminal count of N - 1 in a Modulo-N count sequence to synchronously Load in value 0
 - Detect a terminal count and use Load to preset a count of the terminal count value minus (N - 1)
- **Alternatively, custom design a modulo N counter as done for BCD**

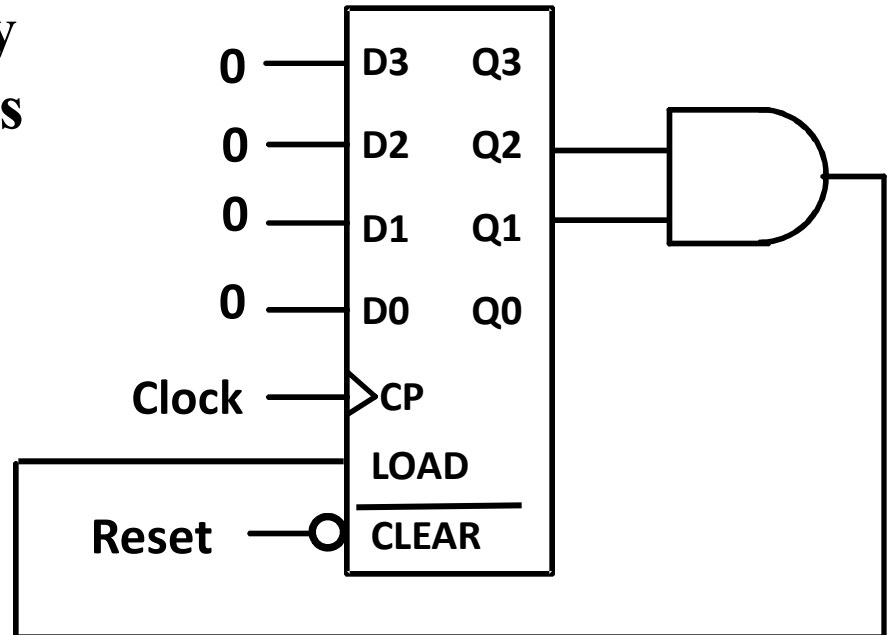
Counting Modulo 7: Detect 7 and Asynchronously Clear

- A synchronous 4-bit binary counter with an **asynchronous Clear** is used to make a Modulo 7 counter.
- Use the Clear feature to detect the count 7 and clear the count to 0. This gives a count of 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7(short)0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7(short)0, etc.
- **DON'T DO THIS!** Existence of state 7 may not be long enough to reliably reset all flip-flops to 0. Referred to as a “suicide” counter! (Count “7” is “killed,” but the designer’s job may be dead as well!)



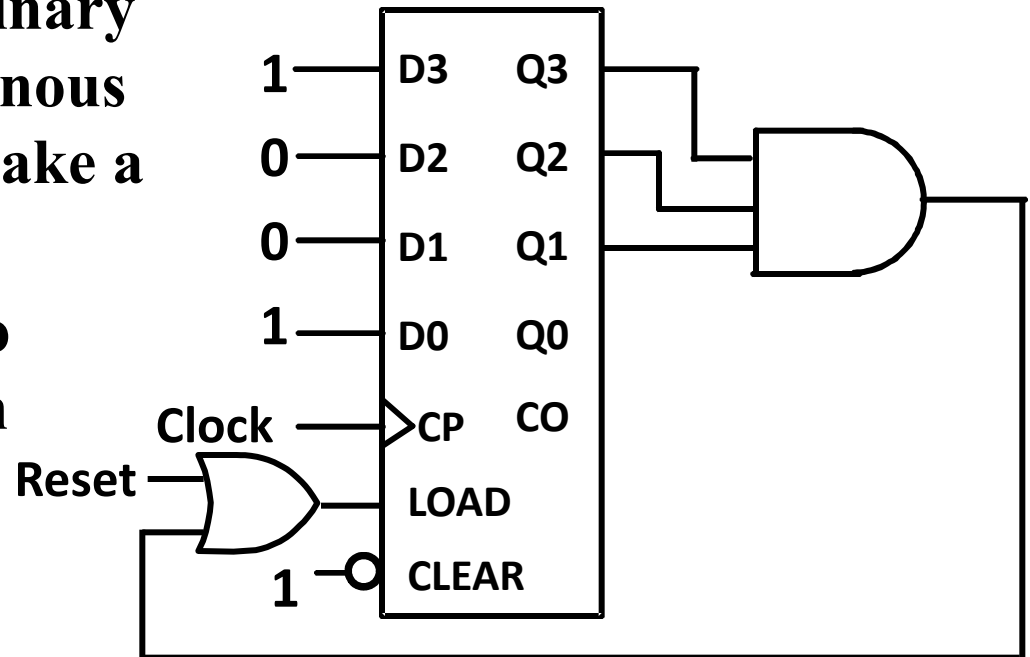
Counting Modulo 7: Synchronously Load on Terminal Count of 6

- A synchronous 4-bit binary counter with a synchronous load and an asynchronous clear is used to make a Modulo 7 counter
- Use the Load feature to detect the count "6" and load in "zero". This gives a count of 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 0, ...
- Using don't cares for states above 0110, detection of 6 can be done with $\text{Load} = Q_2 Q_1$



Counting Modulo 6: Synchronously Preset 9 on Reset and Load 9 on Terminal Count 14

- A synchronous, 4-bit binary counter with a synchronous Load is to be used to make a Modulo 6 counter.
- Use the Load feature to preset the count to 9 on Reset and detection of count 14.



- This gives a count of 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 9, ...
- If the terminal count is 15 detection is usually built in as Carry Out (CO)

Serial Transfers and Microoperations

■ Serial Transfers

- Used for “narrow” transfer paths
- Example 1: Telephone or cable line
 - Parallel-to-Serial conversion at source
 - Serial-to-Parallel conversion at destination
- Example 2: Initialization and Capture of the contents of many flip-flops for test purposes
 - Add shift function to all flip-flops and form large shift register
 - Use shifting for simultaneous Initialization and Capture operations

■ Serial microoperations

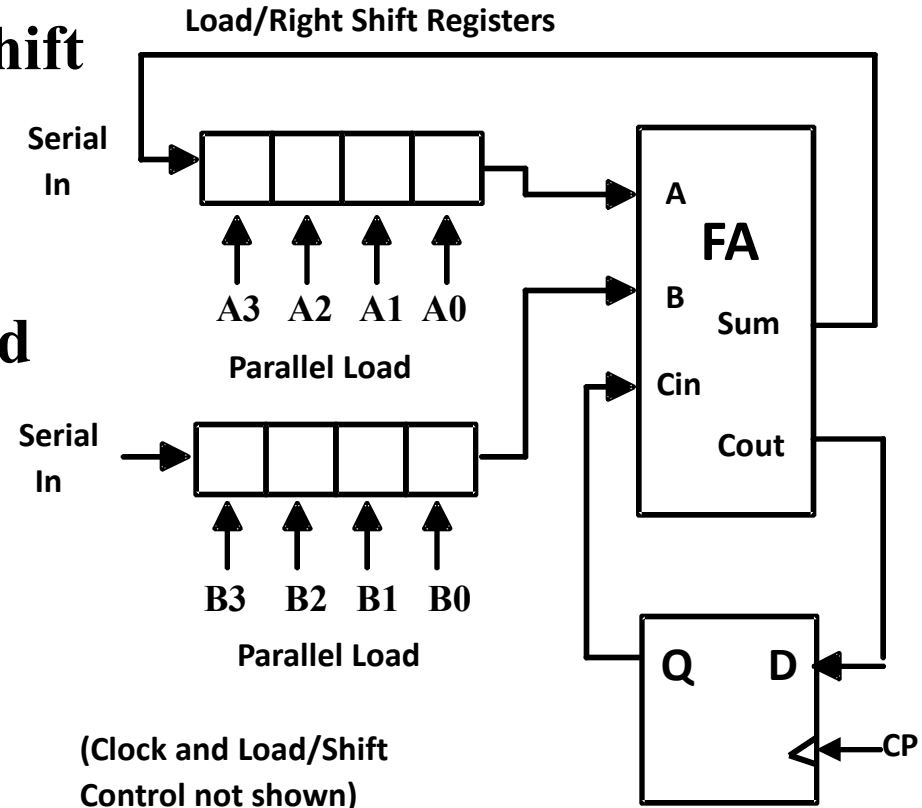
- Example 1: Addition
- Example 2: Error-Correction for CDs

Serial Microoperations

- By using two shift registers for operands, a full adder, and a flip flop (for the carry), we can add two numbers serially, starting at the least significant bit.
- Serial addition is a low cost way to add large numbers of operands, since a “tree” of full adder cells can be made to any depth, and each new level doubles the number of operands.
- Other operations can be performed serially as well, such as parity generation/checking or more complex error-check codes.
- Shifting a binary number left is equivalent to multiplying by 2.
- Shifting a binary number right is equivalent to dividing by 2.

Serial Adder

- The circuit shown uses two shift registers for operands A(3:0) and B(3:0).
- A full adder, and one more flip flop (for the carry) is used to compute the sum.
- The result is stored in the A register and the final carry in the flip-flop
- With the operands and the result in shift registers, a tree of full adders can be used to add a large number of operands. Used as a common digital signal processing technique.



Assignments

- 6-6、 6-13、 6-16、 6-17、 6-19、 6-23、 6-27、 6-34