

Glossary of Common Terms • RADIX – a commonly-used signed number notation (also called 2's complement)

- OPERAND a binary number involved in an arithmetic or logical operation
- HALF ADDER logic circuit that adds two binary bits to produce carry and sum outputs
- FULL ADDER logic circuit that adds three binary bits to produce carry and sum outputs
- ADDER/SUBTRACTOR logic circuit that adds and subtracts pairs of binary operands
- MAGNITUDE COMPARATOR logic circuit that determines which binary operand is greater/less than a second binary operand

Glossary of Common Terms

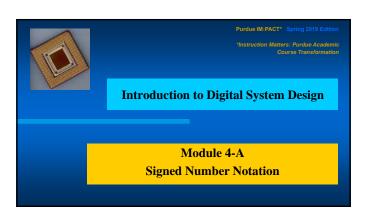
- CARRY LOOK-AHEAD a means of generating the carry functions needed for addition in parallel
- MULTIPLIER logic circuit that multiplies pairs of binary operands
- COMPUTER device that sequentially executes a stored program
- PROGRAM a series of instructions that direct the processing activity of a computer
- INSTRUCTION a unit of processing activity ("line of code") executed by a computer
- OPCODE the "operation code" field of an instruction

Glossary of Common Terms

- MEMORY array of D latches used to store instructions, operands, and results
- PROGRAM COUNTER register that points to the next instruction to execute
- INSTRUCTION REGISTER register used to "stage" the instruction fetched from memory
- ALU arithmetic logic unit, performs arithmetic and logic operations on binary operands
- INSTRUCTION DECODER & MICROSEQUENCER state machine that orchestrates the activities of a computer's functional blocks

Glossary of Common Terms

- MICROSEQUENCE the "minute" phases of instruction processing by a computer
- TRANSFER OF CONTROL continue execution of program at a location different than the next consecutive instruction
- I/O data input and output operations performed by a computer
- STACK last in, first out data structure used to support expression evaluation and subroutine linkage
- STACK POINTER register used to point to the top stack item (or next available location)



Reading Assignment:

DDPP 4th Ed. pp. 34-39, 5th Ed. pp. 44-48

Learning Objectives:

- Compare and contrast three different signed number notations: sign and magnitude, diminished radix, and radix
- Convert a number from one signed notation to another
- Describe how to perform sign extension of a number represented using any of the three notation schemes

Outline

Overview

- Signed number notation
 - Sign and magnitude
- Diminished radix
- Radix
- Comparison chart
- Simplifications for binary numbers
- Sign extension

Overview

- In order to represent positive and negative numbers as a series of digits without "+" and "-" signs, various signed number notations have been devised
- We will discuss the three most commonly used signed number notations:
 - sign and magnitude (SM)
 - diminished radix (DR)
 - radix (R)

Sign and Magnitude

- The original signed number convention employed by "vacuum tube vintage digijocks" was sign and magnitude notation
- Here the *left-most digit* (or "sign bit") indicates whether the number is positive or negative:
 - − "0" → positive
- "R-1" → negative (where R is the radix or base of the number)

Sign and Magnitude

- Examples:
 - $(+123)_{10} = SM(0123)_{10}$ $(-123)_{10} = SM(9123)_{10}$ $(+144)_5 = SM(0144)_5$ $(-144)_5 = SM(4144)_5$

 $SM(0123)_{10}$ and $SM(9123)_{10}$ are referred to as the sign and magnitude complements of one another

Sign and Magnitude

- <u>Negation Method</u>: If N is a number in base R with sign digit n_s, such that
 - $(N)_{R} = n_{S}n_{3}n_{2}n_{1}n_{0}$
 - then
 - $-(N)_{R} = (R-1-n_{S})n_{3}n_{2}n_{1}n_{0}$
- Examples: (+1101)₂ = SM(01101)₂ (-1101)₂ = SM(11101)₂

Diminished Radix

- The negation (or complement) of a number represented in *diminished radix* (DR) notation can be found by subtracting each digit (including the sign digit) from (R-1), i.e., the "radix minus one" or the "radix diminished by one"
- Examples: (+123)₁₀ = DR(0123)₁₀ (-123)₁₀ = (9999 - 0123)₁₀ = DR(9876)₁₀

DR(0123)₁₀ and DR(9876)₁₀ are referred to as the diminished radix complements of one another.

Diminished Radix

- <u>Negation Method</u>: If N is a number in base R, $-(N)_R = (R^n - 1)_R - (N)_R$
- Examples: (+1101)₂ = DR(01101)₂ (-1101)₂ = DR(10010)₂

Note that *positive* DR numbers have the <u>same</u> representation as *positive* SM numbers; *negative* DR and SM numbers, however, have <u>different</u> representations

Radix

- The negation (or complement) of a number represented in *radix* (R) notation can be found by *adding one* to the least significant position of the *diminished radix negation* of that number
- <u>Examples</u>: (+123)₁₀ = R(0123)₁₀
 - $(-123)_{10} = (9999 0123 + 1)_{10} = R(9877)_{10}$

 $R(0123)_{10}$ and $R(9877)_{10}$ are referred to as the radix complements of one another

Radix

- <u>Negation Method</u>: If N is a number in base R, $-(N)_{R} = (R^{n})_{R} - (N)_{R}$
- Examples: (+1101)₂ = R(01101)₂ (-1101)₂ = R(10011)₂

Note that *positive* R, DR, and SM numbers all have the <u>same</u> representation; *negative* R, DR, and SM numbers, however, all have <u>different</u> representations

Compa	rison	of Sigr	ied Nu	mber N	Votations
	N ₁₀	SM	DR	R	
	+3	011	011		
	+2	010	010		
	+1	001	001		
	+0	000	000		
	-0	100	111		
	<u>-1</u>	101	110		
	-2	110	101		
	-3	111	100		
	-4				

3		DR	R	
5	011	011		
2	010	010		
1	001	001		
0	000	000	000	
0	100	111		
1	101	110		
2	110	101		
3	111	100		
	1 0 0 1	1 001 0 000 0 100 1 101	1 001 001 0 000 000 0 100 111 1 101 110	1 001 001 0 000 000 000 0 100 111 — 1 101 110

N ₁₀	SM	DR	R	
+3	011	011	011	All positive number
+2	010	010	010	representations are
+1	001	001	001	identical
+0	000	000	000	Radix has no
-0	100	111		"negative zero"
-1	101	110		
-2	110	101		
-3	111	100		
-4				

Com	pariso	n of Sig	gned N	umber	Notations
	N ₁₀	SM	DR	R	
	+3	011	011	011	All positive number
	+2	010	010	010	representations are
	+1	001	001	001	identical
	+0	000	000	000	Radix has no
	-0	100	111		"negative zero"
	<u>-1</u>	101	110	111	All negative number
	-2	110	101	110	representations are
	-3	111	100	101	different
	<u>–4</u>			100	20

N ₁₀	SM	DR	R		Simplifications for Binary
					 When finding the negations (complements) of bina (base 2) numbers, the methods simplify as follows
+3				All positive number	– SM: complement the sign position
+2	010	010	010	representations are identical	
+1	001	001	001	(Centreal)	 DR (also called 1's complement): complement e
+0	000	000	000	Radix has no	position
-0	100	111		"negative zero"	– R (also called 2's complement):
_1	101	110	111	All negative number	 add 1 to the DR complement -or-
-2	110	101	110	representations are	 scan number from right to left; complement et
-3	111	100	101	different	position to the <i>left</i> of the first "1" encountered
_4		100	100	Radix has an extra	

Practice	
• If (N) ₂ = SM(01100) ₂ , find –(N) ₂	SM(11100) ₂
• If (N) ₂ = DR(01100) ₂ , find –(N) ₂	DR(10011) ₂
• If (N) ₂ = R(01100) ₂ , find –(N) ₂	R(10100) ₂

S	ign Extension
•	Sometimes signed numbers of different length (number of bits) need to be added together – here, the "shorter" number needs to be "padded" with <i>leading digits</i> to make it the two numbers the same length
•	 The rules for padding signed numbers with leading digits are as follows:
	 SM: insert as many zeroes as needed to the right of the sign position
	 DR & R: replicate the sign digit as many times as needed

Practice

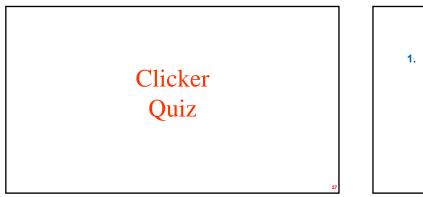
- Extend SM(09345)₁₀ to 8 digits
- Extend DR(76500)₈ to 8 digits
- Extend R(01100)₂ to 8 digits
- Extend R(11100)₂ to 8 digits

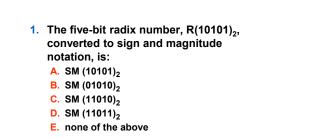
DR(77776500) ₈
P(00001100)
R(00001100) ₂
R(11111100)₂

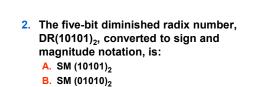
SM(00009345)₁₀

Comparison/Observations

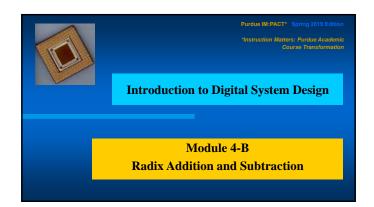
- SM and DR notation have a balanced set of positive and negative numbers, and have two representations for zero
- R notation has an unbalanced set of positive and negative numbers (there is an "extra negative number"), and has a single representation for zero
- 99% of all computers use radix notation; our discussion on addition and subtraction will therefore focus on radix arithmetic (we will assume a prefix of "R" on all numbers subsequently used)







- C. SM (11010)₂
- D. SM (11011)₂
- E. none of the above



Reading Assignment: <u>DDPP</u> 4th Ed. pp. 39-43, 5th Ed. pp. 48-52

Learning Objectives:

- perform radix addition and subtraction
- describe the various conditions of interest following an arithmetic operation: overflow, carry, negative, zero

Outline

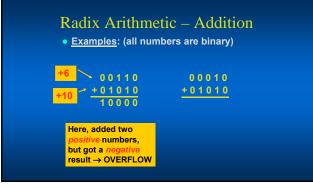
- Radix AdditionOverflow Detection
- Radix Subtraction

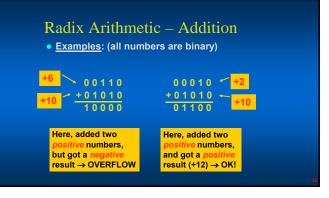
Radix Arithmetic - Addition

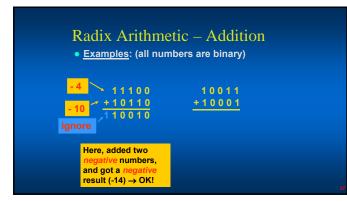
- <u>Method</u>: Add all digits, including the sign digits; *ignore* any carry out of the sign position
- <u>Problem</u>: Since we are working with numbers of fixed length, the result of an addition can yield a number which is too large to represent in the same number of digits – this error condition is called overflow
- Important: When overflow occurs, there is no valid numeric result

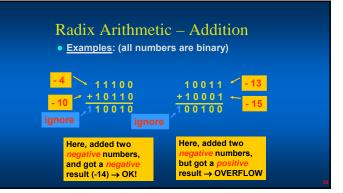
Overflow Detection

- <u>Summarization</u>: Overflow occurs if two positive numbers are added and a negative result is obtained, or if two negative numbers are added and a positive result is obtained (or, if numbers of *like sign* are added and a result with the opposite sign is obtained)
- Overflow cannot occur when adding numbers of the opposite sign
- <u>Another way to detect overflow</u>: If the carry in to the sign position is different than the carry out of the sign position, then overflow has occurred

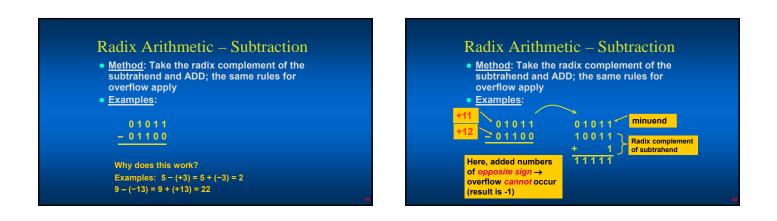


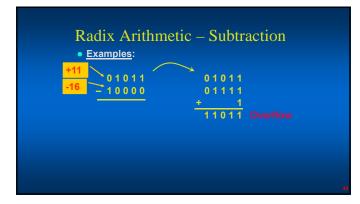


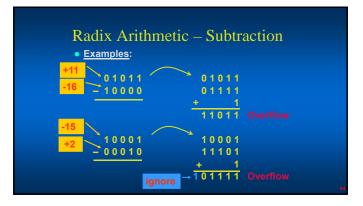


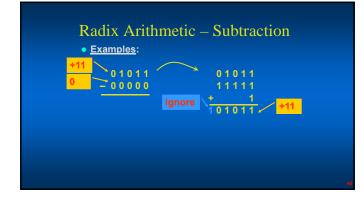


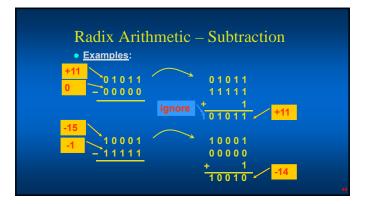


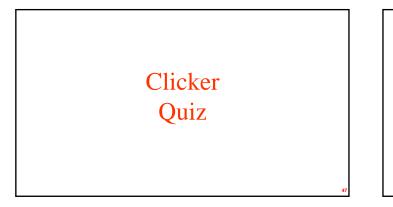


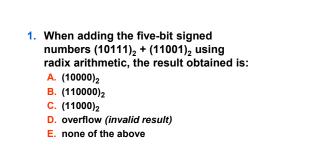




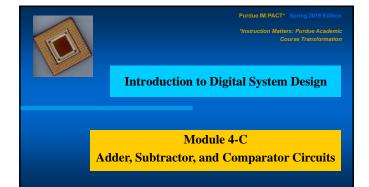








- 2. When subtracting the five-bit signed numbers $(10111)_2 (11001)_2$ using radix arithmetic, the result obtained is:
 - A. (10000)₂
 - B. (11000)₂
 - C. (11110)₂
 - D. overflow (invalid result)
 - E. none of the above



Reading Assignment:

DDPP 4th Ed. pp. 458-466, 469-478; 5th Ed. pp. 331-339, 341-345, 372-375

Learning Objectives:

- Describe the operation of a half-adder and write equations for its sum (S) and carry (C) outputs
- Describe the operation of a full adder and write equations for its sum (S) and carry (C) outputs
- Design a "population counting" or "vote counting" circuit using an array of half-adders and/or full-adders
- Design an N-digit radix adder/subtractor circuit with condition codes
- Design a (signed or unsigned) magnitude comparator circuit that determines if A=B, A<B, or A>B

Outline

- Overview
- Half Adders
- Full Adders
- Radix Adder/Subtractors
- Comparators

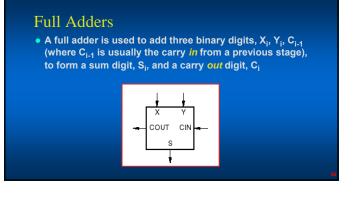
Overview

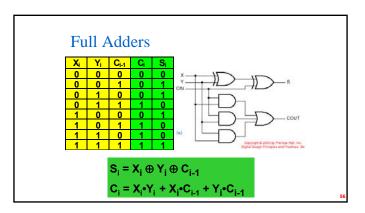
- Addition is the most commonly performed arithmetic operation in digital systems
- An adder combines two arithmetic operands using the addition rules described previously
- The same addition rules (and circuits) are used for both signed (two's complement) and unsigned numbers
- Subtraction can be performed by taking the complement of the subtrahend and adding it to the minuend

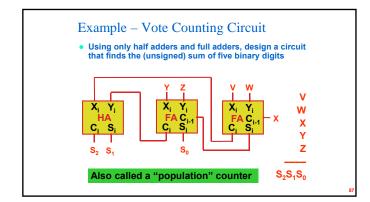
Half Adders

 A half adder is used to add two binary digits, X_i and Y_i, to form a sum digit, S_i, and a carry digit, C_i

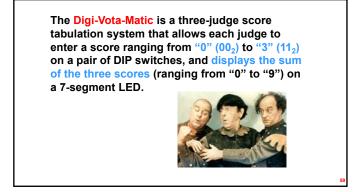
ÐΥ_i

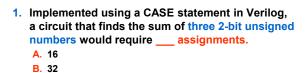












- C. 64
- D. 128
- E. none of the above

 Implemented using a 22V10 PLD, a circuit that finds the sum of three 2-bit unsigned numbers would require no more than ____ macrocells.
 A. 2

- **B**. 4
- **C**. 8
- D. 16
- E. none of the above

Multi-Digit Adder/Subtractor Circuits

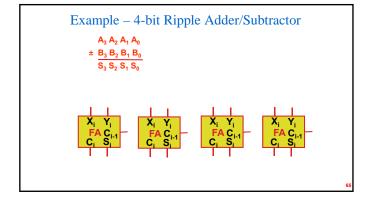
- Two binary words, each with n bits, can be added using a ripple adder – a cascade of n full-adder stages, each of which handles one bit (also called an iterative circuit)
- The word ripple describes the flow of the carries from one full adder cell to the next
- Subtraction is performed by taking the diminished radix complement of the subtrahend (using XOR gates) and setting the least significant bit carry-in (LSB C_{in}) to "1" (effectively forming the radix complement of the subtrahend)

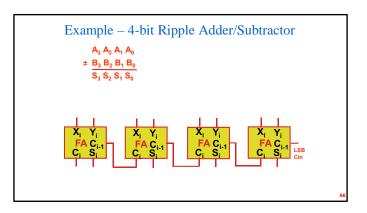
Review of Radix Addition

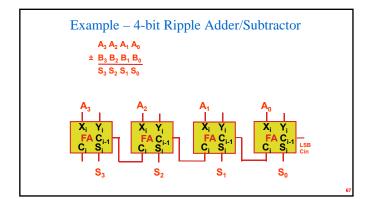
- <u>Method</u>: Add all digits, including the sign digits; ignore any carry out of the sign position
- <u>Problem</u>: Since we are working with numbers of fixed length, the result of an addition can yield a number which is too large to represent in the same number of digits – this error condition is called overflow
- Important: When overflow occurs, there is no valid numeric result

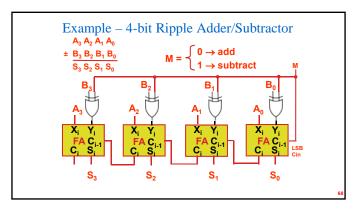
Overflow Detection

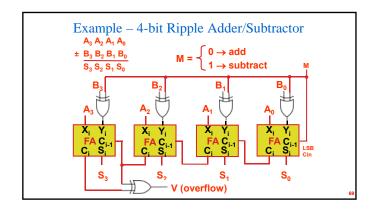
- <u>Summarization</u>: Overflow occurs if two positive numbers are added and a negative result is obtained, or if two negative numbers are added and a positive result is obtained (or, if numbers of *like sign* are added and a result with the opposite sign is obtained)
- Overflow cannot occur when adding numbers of the opposite sign
- <u>Another way to detect overflow</u>: If the *carry in* to the sign position is *different* than the *carry out* of the sign position, then overflow has occurred

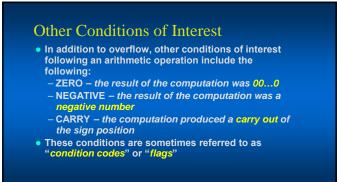


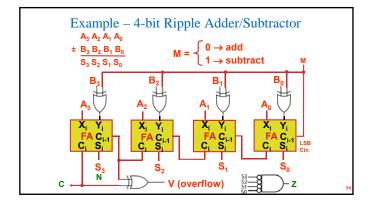






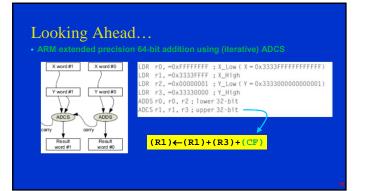


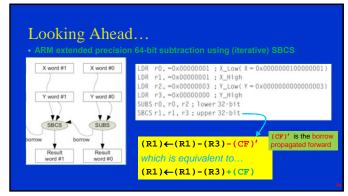


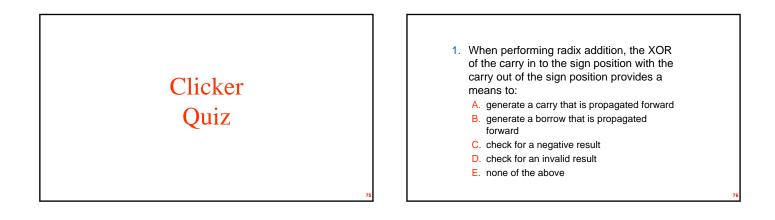


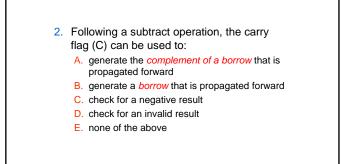
Looking Ahead...

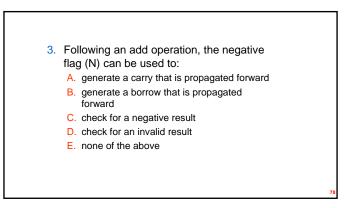
- The "C" (carry) flag serves multiple purposes
- Extended precision add/subtract ("extended" = integer multiples of 32 bits, if using a 32-bit processor)
- Add "C" bit (being set) represents the presence of a carry propagated forward (from least significant word to most significant word of extended number)
 Subtract – "C" bit (being set) represents the absence of a borrow propagated forward (i.e., the complement of a borrow propagated forward, which means that C=1 indicates that no borrow is propagated forward)
- C=1 indicates that no borrow is propagated forward) • So...regardless of whether an add or subtract is performed, the "C" bit is simply set to the carry out of the sign position
- Conditional execution (change of flow)
- Flags set based on subtract of operands being compared (e.g. CMP instruction)











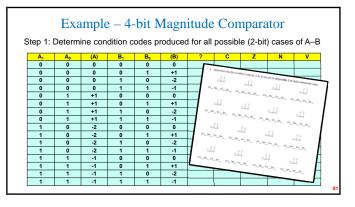
Comparators

- Comparing two binary words for equality is a commonly used operation in computer systems – a circuit that does this is called a *comparator*
- XOR and XNOR gates may be viewed as one-bit comparators (from which larger comparators can be built)
- Circuits that determine an arithmetic relationship between two operands (greater or less than) are called *magnitude comparators*

Example – 4-bit Magnitude Comparator

- Design a 4-bit (signed) magnitude comparator that determines if A=B, A<B, or A>B
- <u>Solution</u>: Calculate (A–B) and examine the condition codes produced for each case
 - ZERO ("Z" for zero flag)
 - NEGATIVE ("N" for negative flag)
 - CARRY ("C" for carry/borrow flag)
 - OVERFLOW ("V" for overflow flag)

Need to know how the condition codes are affected for all possible results generated



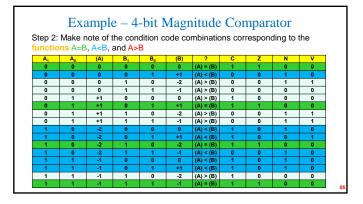
Example – 4-bit Magnitude Comparator

Step 1: Determine condition codes produced for all possible (2-bit) cases of A-B

A ₁	A ₀	(A)	B ₁	Bo	(B)	?	С	z	N	V
0	0	0	0	0	0		1	1	0	0
0	0	0	0	1	+1		0	0	1	0
0	0	0	1	0	-2		0	0	1	1
0	0	0	1	1	-1		0	0	0	0
0	1	+1	0	0	0		1	0	0	0
0	1	+1	0	1	+1		1	1	0	0
0	1	+1	1	0	-2		0	0	1	1
0	1	+1	1	1	-1		0	0	1	1
1	0	-2	0	0	0		1	0	1	0
1	0	-2	0	1	+1		1	0	0	1
1	0	-2	1	0	-2		1	1	0	0
1	0	-2	1	1	-1		0	0	1	0
1	1	-1	0	0	0		1	0	1	0
1	1	-1	0	1	+1		1	0	1	0
1	1	-1	1	0	-2		1	0	0	0
1	1	-1	1	1	-1		1	1	0	0

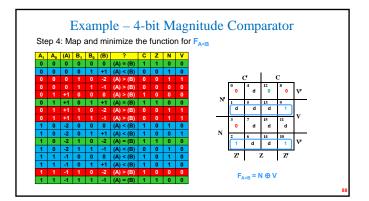
	LAC	impix	- +-	-on n	lagi	itude	COL	npara	lioi	
Step 1:	Determ	ine con	dition c	odes pi	roduce	d for all p	possibl	le (2-bit) cases	of A-E
A ₁	A ₀	(A)	B ₁	B ₀	(B)	?	С	Z	N	v
0	0	0	0	0	0	(A) = (B)	1	1	0	0
0	0	0	0	1	+1	(A) < (B)	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	1	0	-2	(A) > (B)	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	1	1	-1	(A) > (B)	0	0	0	0
0	1	+1	0	0	0	(A) > (B)	1	0	0	0
0	1	+1	0	1	+1	(A) = (B)	1	1	0	0
0	1	+1	1	0	-2	(A) > (B)	0	0	1	1
0	1	+1	1	1	-1	(A) > (B)	0	0	1	1
1	0	-2	0	0	0	(A) < (B)	1	0	1	0
1	0	-2	0	1	+1	(A) < (B)	1	0	0	1
1	0	-2	1	0	-2	(A) = (B)	1	1	0	0
1	0	-2	1	1	-1	(A) < (B)	0	0	1	0
1	1	-1	0	0	0	(A) < (B)	1	0	1	0
1	1	-1	0	1	+1	(A) < (B)	1	0	1	0
1	1	-1	1	0	-2	(A) > (B)	1	0	0	0
1	1	-1	1	1	-1	(A) = (B)	1	1	0	0

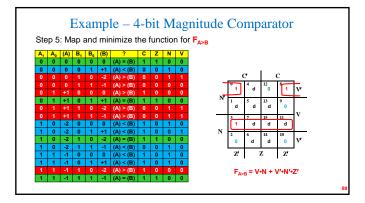
		note of								
			me con	dition c	ode co	mbinatic	ons cor	respon	dina to	the
	ns A=P		and A>							
A1	A	(A)	B ₁	B	(B)	2	С	Z	N	v
0	~	0	0	0	0	(A) = (B)	1	1	0	0
0	0	0	0	1	+1	(A) < (B)	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	1	0	-2	(A) > (B)	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	1	1	-1	(A) > (B)	0	0	0	0
0	1	+1	0	0	0	(A) > (B)	1	0	0	0
0	1	+1	0	1	+1	(A) = (B)	1	1	0	0
0	1	+1	1	0	-2	(A) > (B)	0	0	1	1
0	1	+1	1	1	-1	(A) > (B)	0	0	1	1
1	0	-2	0	0	0	(A) < (B)	1	0	1	0
1	0	-2	0	1	+1	(A) < (B)	1	0	0	1
1	0	-2	1	0	-2	(A) = (B)	1	1	0	0
1	0	-2	1	1	-1	(A) < (B)	0	0	1	0
1	1	-1	0	0	0	(A) < (B)	1	0	1	0
	1	-1	0	1	+1	(A) < (B)	1	0	1	0
1	1	-1	1	0	-2	(A) > (B)	1	0		0

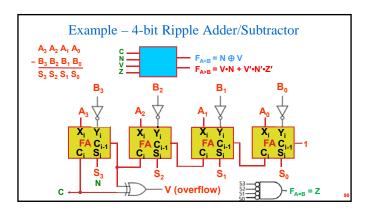


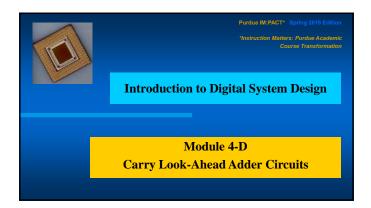
ι σ μ Ζ.		noto of	the con	dition o	odo co	mbinatio	ne cor	rocnon	ding to	tho
Inctio	ns A=E				oue cu	momatio	115 001	respon	ung to	uie
	A,	(A)	B,	B,	(B)	2	С	Z	N	v
A ₁ 0	- M ₀	0	0	0	(B)	(A) = (B)	1	1	0	0
0	0	0	0	1	+1	(A) = (B) (A) < (B)	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	1	0	-2	(A) < (B) (A) > (B)	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	1	1	-2	(A) > (B) (A) > (B)	0	0	0	0
	1	+1	0	0	-1		1	0	0	0
0	1	+1	0	1	+1	(A) > (B)	1	1	0	0
0	1	+1	1	0	-2	(A) = (B) (A) > (B)	0	0	1	1
0	1	+1	1	1	-1	(A) > (B) (A) > (B)	0	0	1	1
1	0	-2	0	0	-	(A) < (B)	1	0	1	0
1	0	-2	0	1	+1	(A) < (B)	1	0	0	1
1	0	-2	1	0	-2	(A) < (B) (A) = (B)	1	1	0	0
-	0	-2	1	1	-2	(A) < (B)	0	0	1	0
1	1	-1	0	0	0	(A) < (B)	1	0	1	0
-	1	- 4	0	1	+1	(A) < (B)	1	0	1	0
1	1	-1	1					-		-
1	1	-1	1	0	-2	(A) > (B) (A) = (B)	1	0	0	0

Step 3:		-			Magı	nitude	e Cor	npara	ator		
A,	A ₀	(A)	B ₁	B	(B)	?	С	Z	N	V	
0	Ő	0	0	Ő	0	(A) = (B)	1	1	0	0	
0	0	0	0	1	+1	(A) < (B)	0	0	1	0	
0	0	0	1	0	-2	(A) > (B)	0	0	1	1	
0	0	0	1	1	-1	(A) > (B)	0	0	0	0	
0	1	+1	0	0	0	(A) > (B)	1	0	0	0	
0	1	+1	0	1	+1	(A) = (B)	1	1	0	0	
0		+1		0	-2	(A) > (B)	0	0			
0	1	+1	1	1	-1	(A) > (B)	0	0	1	1	
1	0	-2	0	0	0	(A) < (B)	1	0	1	0	
1	0	-2	0	1	+1	(A) < (B)	1	0	0	1	
1	0	-2	1	0	-2	(A) = (B)	1	1	0	0	
1	0	-2	1	1	-1	(A) < (B)	0	0	1	0	
1	1	-1	0	0	0	(A) < (B)	1	0	1	0	
1	1	-1	0	1	+1	(A) < (B)	1	0	1	0	
1	1	-1	1	0	-2	(A) > (B)	1	0	0	0	
1	1	-1	1	1	-1	(A) = (B)	1	1	0	0	









Reading Assignment:

DDPP 4th Ed. pp. 478-482, 484-487, 490-491; 5th Ed. pp. 376-383, 384-386

Instructional Objectives:

- Describe the operation of a carry look-ahead (CLA) adder circuit, and compare its performance to that of a ripple adder circuit
- Define the CLA propagate (P) and generate (G) functions, and show how they can be realized using a half-adder
- Write the equation for the carry out function of an arbitrary CLA bit
 position
- Draw a diagram depicting the overall organization of a CLA
 - Determine the worst case propagation delay incurred by a practical (PLD-based) realization of a CLA
- Describe how a "group ripple" adder can be constructed using N-bit CLA blocks

Outline

- Overview
- CLA derivation
- CLA organization
- Sample CLA realization in Verilog
- Observations

Overview

- Previously we looked at one method of constructing an n-digit binary adder from *n* full adders: connecting the carry out from one stage to the carry in of the next in a ripple fashion
- For large values of *n*, the propagation delay of a ripple adder can be excessive
- A significant speed-up could be obtained by calculating the carries *in parallel*, rather than *iteratively* – a design that accomplishes this goal is the *carry look-ahead* (CLA) adder circuit (*look-ahead* → *anticipated*)

CLA Derivation

Consider the 4-bit binary adder:

Stage:	3	2	Ŧ	0	
Augend: Addend:	x3 Y3	X2 Y2	X1 Y1	X0 Y0	
Sum:	s 3	S2	S1	S 0	

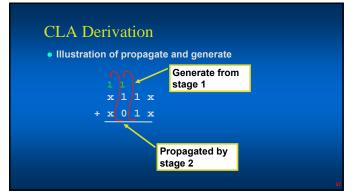
CLA Derivation

 <u>Definition</u>: The generate function G_i = 1 if there is a carry out of stage i regardless of whether or not there is a carry in to stage i (i.e., both X_i and Y_i are 1)

$G_i = X_i \cdot Y_i$

<u>Definition</u>: The propagate function P_i = 1 if a carry in to stage i will cause a carry out of stage i (i.e., either X_i = 0 and Y_i = 1 or X_i = 1 and Y_i = 0)
 P_i = X_i ⊕ Y_i

NOTE: Another valid definition of P_i is $X_i+Y_i -$ the "XOR" definition leads to some CLA circuit simplifications, however

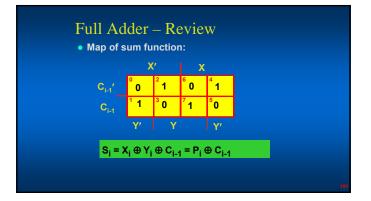


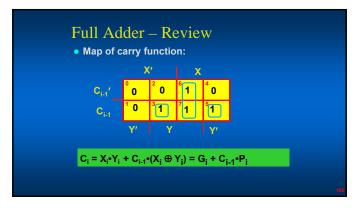
Note th using a			l G _i fur	nctions can be generated
Xi	Yi	Ci	Si	
0	0	0	0	P: = S: = X: ⊕ Y:
0	1	0	1	$P_i = S_i = X_i \oplus Y_i$ $G_i = C_i = X_i \cdot Y_i$
1	0	0	1	$G_i = C_i = X_i \cdot Y_i$
1	1	1	0	

CLA Derivation

- Next we would like to write our basic full adder equations in terms of propagate and generate functions
- To do this, we will need to reexamine the K-maps for the sum and carry equations of the full adder

Full	Ad	der	– R	evie	ew
Xi	Yi	C _{i-1}	Ci	Si	full adder
0	0	0	0	0	_ × _ s_
0	0	1	0	1	
0	1	0	0	1	
0	1	1	1	0	1 1
1	0	0	0	1	XY
1	0	1	1	0	- COUT CIN-
1	1	0	1	0	S
1	1	1	1	1	





CLA Derivation

 Rewriting the equations for our 4-bit binary adder, we obtain the following:
 C₋₁ = C_{in}
 C₀ = G₀ + C_{in}•P₀

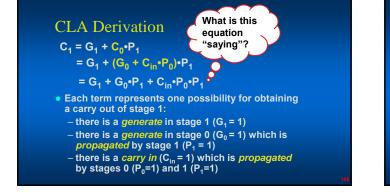
 $C_1 = G_1 + C_0 \cdot P_1$

- $C_2 = G_2 + C_1 \cdot P_2$
- $C_3 = C_{out} = G_3 + C_2 \cdot P_3$

CLA Derivation

 We would like to write these equations in terms of available inputs (P's, G's, and C_{in}) rather than the intermediate carries (C₀, C₁, etc.) – the key to doing this is successive expansion of the previous equations in terms of the equation for C₀: C₁ = G₁ + C₀•P₁

$$= G_1 + (G_0 + C_{in} \cdot P_0) \cdot P$$



CLA Derivation – Exercise • Write the remaining 4-bit CLA adder carry equations: C₂ = C₃ =

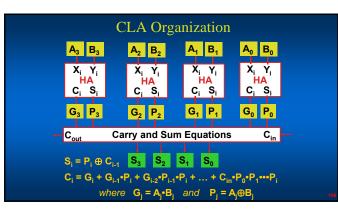
CLA Derivation - Exercise

• Write the remaining 4-bit CLA adder carry equations: $C_2 = G_2 + G_1 \cdot P_2 + G_0 \cdot P_1 \cdot P_2 + C_{IN} \cdot P_0 \cdot P_1 \cdot P_2$

C₃ =

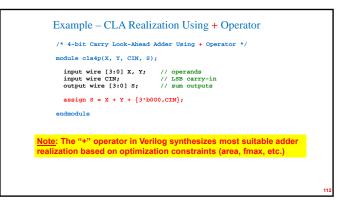
CLA Derivation - Exercise

- Write the remaining 4-bit CLA adder carry equations: $C_2 = G_2 + G_1 \cdot P_2 + G_0 \cdot P_1 \cdot P_2 + C_{IN} \cdot P_0 \cdot P_1 \cdot P_2$
 - $$\begin{split} \mathbf{C}_3 &= \mathbf{G}_3 + \mathbf{G}_2 \bullet \mathbf{P}_3 + \mathbf{G}_1 \bullet \mathbf{P}_2 \bullet \mathbf{P}_3 + \mathbf{G}_0 \bullet \mathbf{P}_1 \bullet \mathbf{P}_2 \bullet \mathbf{P}_3 \\ &\quad + \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{IN}} \bullet \mathbf{P}_0 \bullet \mathbf{P}_1 \bullet \mathbf{P}_2 \bullet \mathbf{P}_3 \end{split}$$



/* 4-bit Carry Look-Ahe	ad Adder */
module cla4(X, Y, CIN,	5);
input wire [3:0] X, Y;	// Operands
input wire CIN;	// Carry in
output wire [3:0] S;	// Sum outputs
wire [3:0] C;	<pre>// Carry equations (C[3] is Cout)</pre>
wire [3:0] P, G;	
assign G = X & Y;	<pre>// Generate functions G[0] = X[0]&Y[0]; G[1] = so on</pre>
assign P = X ^ Y;	// Propagate functions $P[0] = X[0]^{Y}[0]$; $P[1] =$ so on
// Carry function defin	nitions
assign C[0] = G[0] C	IN & P[0];
assign C[1] = G[1] G	[0] & P[1] CIN & P[0] & P[1];
assign C[2] = G[2] G	[1] & P[2] G[0] & P[1] & P[2] CIN & P[0] & P[1] & P[2];
assign C[3] = G[3] G	[2] & P[3] G[1] & P[2] & P[3] G[0] & P[1] & P[2] & P[3]
	CIN & P[0] & P[1] & P[2] & P[3];
assign S[0] = CIN ^ P[0];
assign S[3:1] = C[2:0]	^ P[3:1];

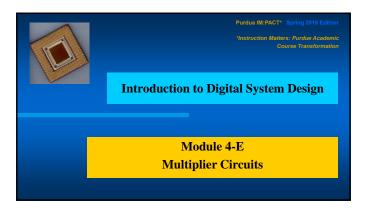
	alvsis for	ispMACH 425	6ZE 5.8 ns CPLD	
· · · · · · · ·	u1/010 101	in the second second		
Delay	Level	Source	Destination	
6.40	1	CIN	\$3	
6.40	1	X0	\$3	
6.40	1	¥0	\$3	
6.35	1	X1	\$3	
6.35	1	¥1	s3	
6.30	1	X2	s3	
6.30	1	¥2	s3	
6.25	1	¥3	\$3	
5.95	1	CIN	50	
5.95	1	CIN	s1	
5.95	1	CIN	52	
5.95	1	X0	50	
5.95	1	X0	s1	
5.95	1	X0	52	
5.95	1	¥0	S0	
5.95	1	YO	S1	
5.95	1	YO	S2	



Е	xample –	CLA Re	alization	Using + Operator	
	Timing An	alysis for	ispMACH 425	6ZE 5.8 ns CPLD	
	Delay	Level	Source	Destination	
	=====	=====			
	6.40	1	CIN	S 3	
	6.40	1	X0	83	
	6.40	1	¥0	53	
	6.35	1	X1	s3	
	6.35	1	¥1	s3	
			ming rea		
	"hand o	coded"	CLA equ	lations!	
	5.95	1	CIN	S1	
	5.95	1	CIN	82	
	5.95	1	X0	S0	
	5.95	1	X0	S1	
	5.95	1	X0	52	
	5.95	1	YO	50	
	5.95	1	YO	S1	
	5.95	1	YO	S2	

Observations

- Note that regardless of the adder length (n), the time required to produce any sum digit is the same – i.e., all sum digits are produced in parallel
- Large CLA adders are difficult to build in practice because of the "product term explosion" that occurs as the carry equations are expanded
- A reasonable compromise is to make a group ripple adder by cascading m-bit CLA blocks together to make a kxm-bit adder (where k is the number of CLA blocks)
- The "•" operator in Verilog synthesizes most suitable adder realization based on optimization constraints (area, fmax, etc.)



Reading Assignment: DDPP 4th Ed. pp. 45-47, 494-496, 503; 5th Ed. pp. 54-56, 416-419

Learning Objectives:

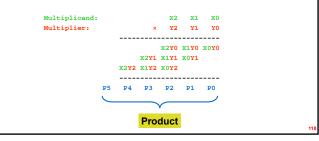
- Describe the operation of an unsigned multiplier array constructed using full adders
- Determine the full adder arrangement and organization (rows/diagonals) needed to construct an NxM-bit unsigned multiplier array
- Determine the worst case propagation delay incurred by a practical (PLD-based) realization of an NxM-bit unsigned multiplier array

Outline

- Overview
- Product components
- Example circuit
- Critical path analysis
- Generalizations
- Realizations in Verilog

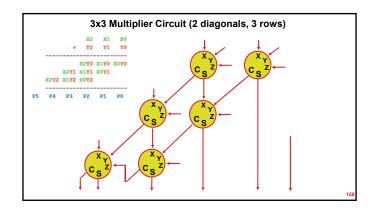
Overview

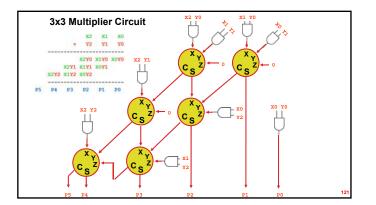
Consider a 3x3 unsigned binary multiplication:

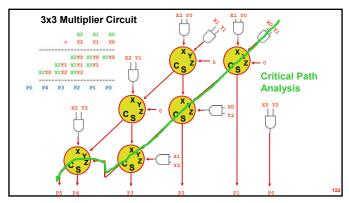


Product Components

- Most approaches to (unsigned) combinational binary multiplication are based on the "paper-and-pencil" shift and add algorithm
- Each row is called a *product component* a shifted multiplicand that is multiplied by 0 or 1 depending on the corresponding multiplier bit
- Each x y term represents a product component bit (the logical AND of multiplicand bit x with multiplier bit y)
- The product P = p₅p₄p₃p₂p₁p₀ is obtained by adding together all the product components





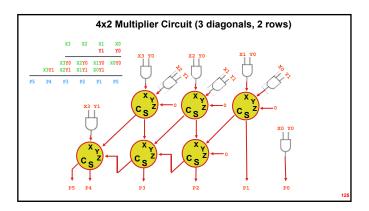


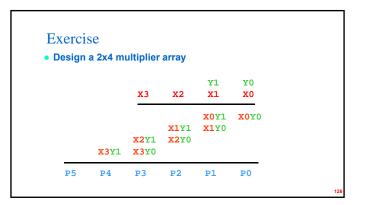
Generalizations

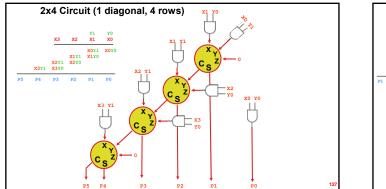
- Generalizations for an NxM multiplier N = number of bits in multiplicand (top)
 - M = number of bits in multiplier (bottom)
 - produces an N+M digit result
 - requires NxM AND gates to generate the product components requires N-1 *diagonals* of full adders

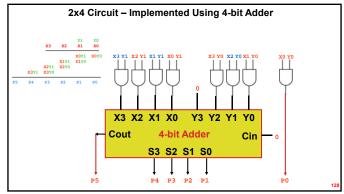
 - requires M rows of full adders

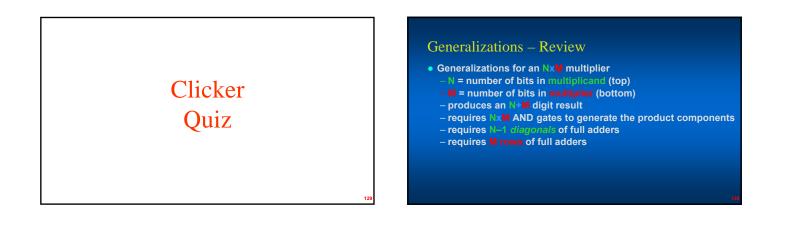
		Х3	X2	X1 Y1	0X 20		
	x3¥1	X3Y0 X2Y1	X2Y0 X1Y1	X1Y0 X0Y1	X0Y0	l	
Р5	P4	Р3	P2	P1	P0	-	

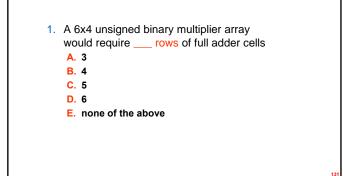


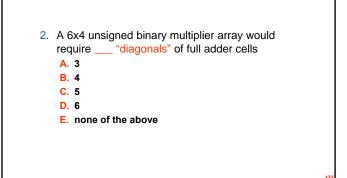


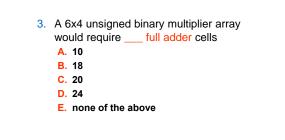


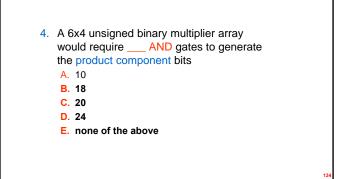




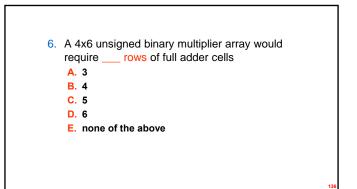




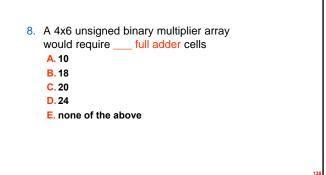




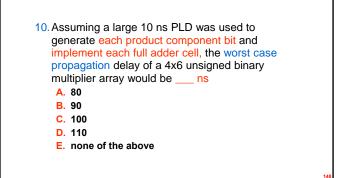
5. Assuming a large 10 ns PLD was used to generate each product component bit and implement each full adder cell, the worst case propagation delay of a 6x4 unsigned binary multiplier array would be ____ ns
A. 80
B. 90
C. 100
D. 110
E. none of the above



7. A 4x6 unsigned binary multiplier array would require _____ "diagonals" of full adder cells
A. 3
B. 4
C. 5
D. 6
E. none of the above



9. A 4x6 unsigned binary multiplier array would require ____ AND gates to generate the product component bits
A. 10
B. 18
C. 20
D. 24
E. none of the above



Realizations in Verilog

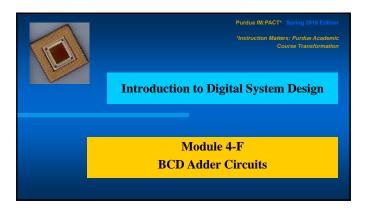
Keys

- use expressions to define product components
 use the addition operator () to form unsigned sum of product components
- Example: 4x4 multiplier realization

input wire [3:0] X. Y:	// multiplicand, multiplier
output wire [7:0] P;	
wire [7:0] PC[3:0];	// four 8-bit variables
assign PC[0] = {8{1[0]}}	& {4'b0, X}; // 0000X3X2X1X0
assign PC[1] = $\{8[1[1]]\}$	& {3'b0, X, 1'b0}; // 000X3X2X1X00
assign $PC[2] = \{8\{Y[2]\}\}$	& {2'b0, X, 2'b0}; // 00X3X2X1×000
assign PC[3] = $\{8[T[3]]\}$	& {1'b0, X, 3'b0}; // 0X3X2X1×0000
assign $P = PC[0] + PC[1]$	+ PC[2] + PC[3];

		_	
Delay	Level	Source	Destination
	=====		
6.50	1	X 0	P4
6.50	1	X0	P5
6.50	1	X1	P4
6.50	1	X1	P5
6.50	1	X2	P4
6.50	1 1	X2	P5
6.50	1 1 1	YO	P4
6.50	1	YO	P5
6.50	1	¥1	P4
6.50	1	¥1	P5
6.50	1	¥2	P4
6.50	1	¥2	P5
6.45	1	X3	P4
6.45	1	X3	P5
6.45	ī	¥3	P4
6.45	ī	¥3	P5
6.05	1	xo	PO
6.05	1 1	XO	P1
6.05	1	X0	P2
6.05	1	X0	P2 P3

	Total	Used	Not Us	ed t	Jtilization	
Dedicated Pins						
Clock/Input Pins	4	4	0 2 2	>	100	
Input-Only Pins	6	4	2	>	66	
I/O / Enable Pins	2	0	2	>	0	
I/O Pins	62	8	54	>	12	
Logic Functions	256	8	248	>	3	
Input Registers	64	0	64	>	0	
GLB Inputs	576	46	530	>	7	
Logical Product Terms	1280	124	1156	>	9	
Occupied GLBs	16	6	10	>	37	
Macrocells	256	8	248	>	3	
Control Product Terms:						
GLB Clock/Clock Enables	16	0	16	>	0	
GLB Reset/Presets	16		16	>	0	
Macrocell Clocks	256	0	256	>	0	
Macrocell Clock Enables	256	0	256	>	0	
Macrocell Enables	256			>	0	
Macrocell Resets	256			>	0	
Macrocell Presets	256			>	o	
Global Routing Pool	324	8	316	>	2	
GRP from IFB		4		>		
(from input signals)		4		>		
(from output signals)		0				
(from bidir signals)		ō				
GRP from MFB		4				



Reading Assignment: <u>DDPP</u> 4th Ed. pp. 48-51; 5th Ed. pp. 58-60

Learning Objectives:

- Describe the operation of a binary coded decimal
 (BCD) "correction circuit"
- Design a BCD full adder circuit
- Design a BCD N-digit radix (base 10) adder/subtractor circuit

Outline

- Overview
- General BCD adder circuit model
- Decimal addition and correction
- Decimal adder circuits
- Nine's complement circuit

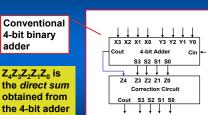
Overview

- Even though binary numbers are the most appropriate for the internal computations of a digital system, most people still prefer to deal with decimal numbers
- External interfaces of a digital system may need to read or display decimal numbers, and therefore need to perform arithmetic on decimal numbers directly
- The most commonly used decimal code is *binary-coded* decimal (BCD)
- Some computers place two BCD digits in an 8-bit byte ("packed-BCD format")

Overview

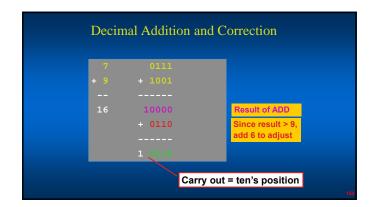
- Consider the problem of adding a pair of BCD digits the objective is to design a circuit that adds the two 4bit codes along with a carry in to produce a 4-bit coded sum digit plus a carry out
- We would like to use standard 4-bit binary adder modules (with which we are already familiar) as basic building blocks
- Note that because there are six "unused combinations" in BCD, a correction must be performed if the direct sum of the two 4-bit codes exceeds 1001

General BCD Adder Circuit Model



Decim	nal Addition a	nd Correction
3	0011	
+ 4		
7	0111	Result of ADD
	he correct 4-bit l	the 4-bit BCD codes 3CD code for the

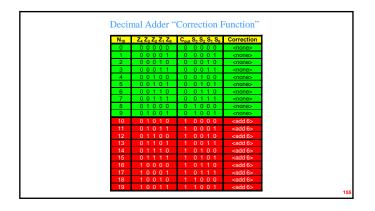
Decima	ul Additi	ion and C	Correction	
7 + 8 	0111 + 1000			
15	1111 + 0110 1 0101		Result of ADD Since result > 9, add 6 to adjust	
		Carry out	= ten's position	152

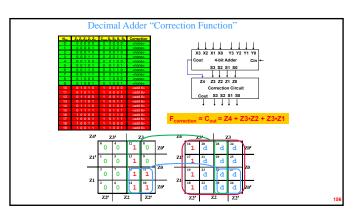


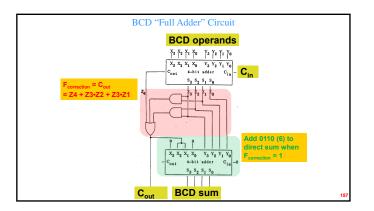
Decimal Adder Circuits

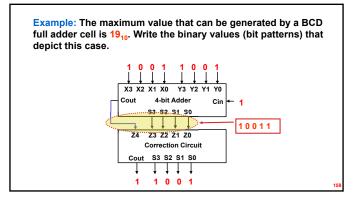
Summary of rules

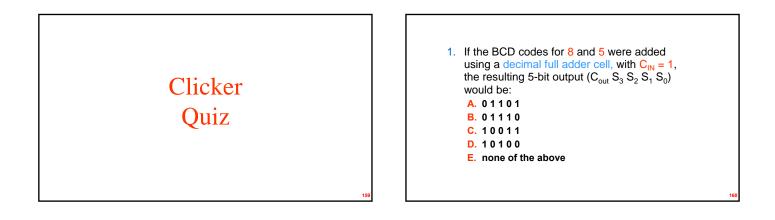
- If the sum of the two BCD digits is less than or equal to nine (1001), no correction is needed
- If the sum is greater than nine, the result obtained directly from the 4-bit adder must be corrected in order to represent the proper BCD digit
- Some microprocessors include a "decimal adjust" (DAA) instruction for performing this correction following the addition of BCD operands

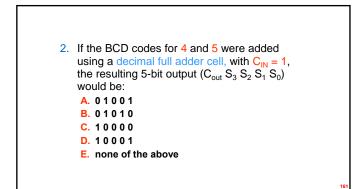










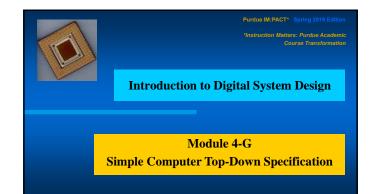




- Thought questions:
 - How could an *n-digit* BCD adder be constructed using the "decimal full adder" circuit just designed?
 How could this n-digit BCD adder be made into an
 - n-digit BCD adder/subtractor?

<u>Hint</u>: How could the *radix complement* of a BCD digit (where the radix or base is 10) be generated?

	Example: Verilog program that generates the <i>diminished radix</i> (or 9's) complement of a BCD digit	
	<pre>module ninescmp(X, Y); // Nine's Complement Box</pre>	
	<pre>input wire [3:0] X; // input code output reg [3:0] Y; // output code</pre>	
	always @ (X) begin case (X)	
	4'b0000: Y = 4'b1001; 4'b0001: Y = 4'b1000;	
	4'b0010: Y = 4'b0111; 4'b0011: Y = 4'b0110; 4'b0100: Y = 4'b0101;	
	4'b010; Y = 4'b010; 4'b0110; Y = 4'b0011;	
	4'b011: Y = 4'b0010; 4'b1000: Y = 4'b0001;	
	4'b1001: Y = 4'b0000; default: Y = 4'b0000; // used for inputs > 9 endcase	
	end end for the second	3
_		2



Reading Assignment: Meyer Supplemental Text, pp. 1-18

Learning Objectives:

- Define computer architecture, programming model, and instruction set Describe the top-down specification, bottom-up implementation strategy as it pertains to the design of a computer
- Describe the characteristics of a "two address machine"
- Describe the contents of memory: program, operands, results of calculations
- Describe the format and fields of a basic machine instruction (opcode and address)
- Describe the purpose/function of each basic machine instruction (LDA, STA, ADD, SUB, AND, HLT)
- Define what is meant by "assembly-level" instruction mnemonics Draw a diagram of a simple computer, showing the arrangement and interconnection of each functional block

Outline

- Introduction
- Top-Down, Bottom-Up Design Methodology
- Simple Computer "Big Picture"
- A Simple Instruction Set
- A Simple Programming Example
- System Block Diagram

Introduction

- The focus thus far has been on a number of digital system "building blocks"
 - state machines
 - latches and flip-flops
 - arithmetic logic circuits
 - decoders, encoders, multiplexers
 - basic gates (NAND, NOR, XOR, etc.)
- Question: What is the primary utility of these building blocks?

Building a computer or interfacing to an existing one

Introduction

- <u>Question</u>: What is a computer?
- A device that sequentially executes a stored program
- (or, a device that stores and manipulates state)
- Question: What is a microprocessor?
- A single-chip embodiment of the major functional blocks of
- a computer
- **Question: What is a microcontroller?**
- A microprocessor with a number of integrated peripherals typically used in control-oriented applications

Introduction

- <u>Question</u>: How can we apply what we know about various digital system building blocks to design a simple computer?
- We need a *structured approach* that enables us to transform a "word" description of what a computer does into a block diagram
- <u>Definition</u>: The architecture of a computer is the arrangement and interconnection of its functional blocks



Introduction

• <u>Analogy</u>: Designing and building a house - 2 – then develop a "floor plan"...



Introduction

 <u>Analogy</u>: Designing and building a house - 3

 then embellish the floor plan with details (outlets, lights, plumbing, HVAC, etc.)



Introduction

<u>Analogy</u>: Designing and building a house - 4

 When you're ready to build, how do you proceed?

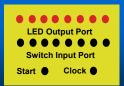
From the ground-up – start with the foundation, create basic structure, embellish with finishing details

Question: What would you call the basic procedure we have just described?

Top-down specification of functionality, bottom-up implementation of basic blocks

Simple Computer "Big Picture"

- We wish to apply this "top-down, bottom-up" methodology to the design of a simple 8-bit computer (or, microprocessor")
- First step: Draw the big picture



Simple Computer "Floor Plan"

• <u>Question</u>: In the design of a computer, what is analogous to the *floor plan* of a house?

The computer's programming model and instruction set

- <u>Definition</u>: The programming model of a computer is the set of "user" registers available to the programmer
- <u>Definition</u>: A collection of two or more flip-flops with a common clock (and generally a common purpose) is called a *register*

In the simple computer designed here, the programming model will contain a single *data register* "where the result accumulates" (the *accumulator*, or "A register" for short), plus *condition codes* or *flags* (c, V, N, Z)

Simple Computer "Floor Plan"

- <u>Definition</u>: The *instruction set* of a computer is the set of operations the computer can be programmed to perform on data
- Instructions typically consist of several fields that indicate the operation to be performed ("operation code", or opcode) and the data on which the operation is to be performed (specified using an addressing mode)
- Our 8-bit computer will utilize a 3-bit opcode field (thus allowing 8 different kinds of instructions to be implemented) and a 5-bit address field (thus allowing 32 locations)

Simple Computer "Floor Plan"

Instruction format:

ΧΧΧΥΥΥΥΥ

XXX – indicates operation to perform ("opcode")

YYYYY – indicates location of operand ("address")

Called a "<u>two address machine</u>" since one operand will be the accumulator ("A") register and the other operand will be obtained from the specified location in memory

Simple Computer "Floor Plan"

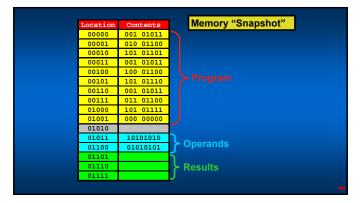
Instruction set:

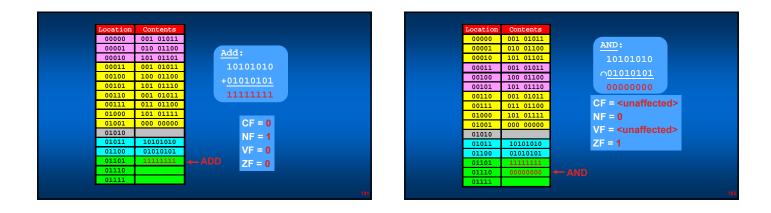
"the contents of A"

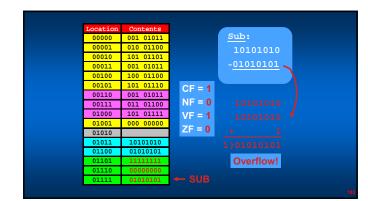
	Mnemonic	code	Орс
, discontinue execution	HLT	00	0 (
h contents of location addr	LDA addr	01	0 (
nts of addr to contents of A	ADD addr	10	0 '
ontents of <i>addr</i> from contents of A	SUB addr	11	0
ents of addr with contents of A	AND addr	00	1 (
ents of A at location addr	STA addr	01	1 (

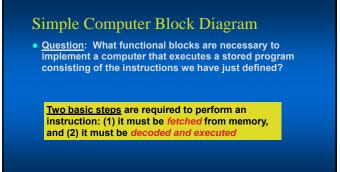
Simple Programming Example

Addr	Instruction	Comments
00000	LDA 01011	Load A with contents of location 01011
00001	ADD 01100	Add contents of location 01100 to A
00010	STA 01101	Store contents of A at location 01101
00011	LDA 01011	Load A with contents of location 01011
00100	AND 01100	AND contents of 01100 with contents of A
00101	STA 01110	Store contents of A at location 01110
00110	LDA 01011	Load A with contents of location 01011
00111	SUB 01100	Subtract contents of location 01100 from A
01000	STA 01111	Store contents of A at location 01111
01001	HLT	Stop – discontinue execution



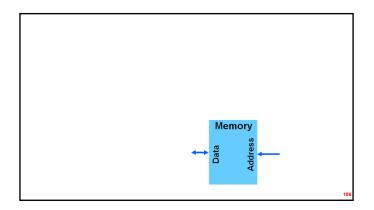


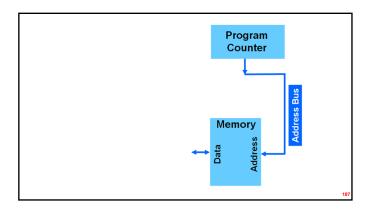


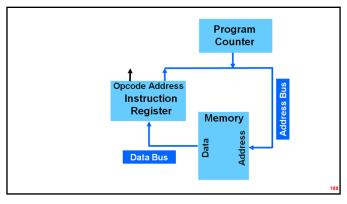


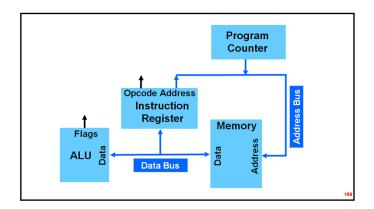
Simple Computer Block Diagram

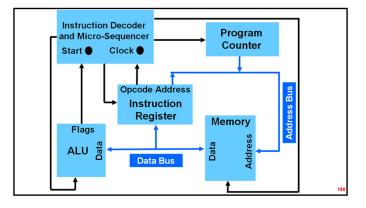
- Functional blocks required:
 - a place to store the program, operands, and computation results - memory
 - a way to keep track of which instruction is to be executed
 - next program counter (PC)
 a place to temporarily "stage" an instruction while it is being executed instruction register (IR)
 - a way to perform arithmetic and logic operations arithmetic logic unit (ALU)
 - a way to coordinate and sequence the functions of the machine - instruction decoder and micro-sequencer (IDMS)





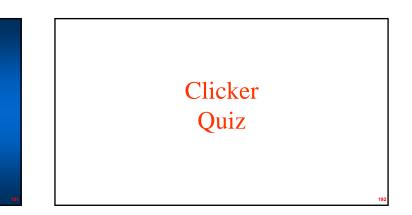


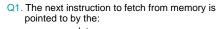






- Each functional block is "self-contained" (which means each block can be designed and tested *independently*)
- Additional instructions can be added by increasing the number of opcode bits
- Additional memory can be added by increasing the number of address bits
- The numeric range can be expanded by increasing the number of *data* bits





- A. accumulator
- B. program counter
- c. instruction register
- D. microsequencer
- E. none of the above

Q2. The place where an instruction fetched from memory is "staged" while it is being decoded and executed is the:

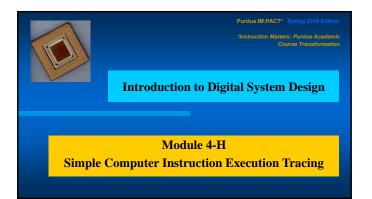
- A. accumulator
- B. program counterC. instruction register
- D. microsequencer
- E. none of the above

Q3. If two additional address bits were added to the Simple Computer, the *number of memory locations* the machine could access would increase:

- A. by two locations
- B. by four locations
- c. by two times the original number of locations
- D. by four times the original number of locations
- E. none of the above

Q4. The expression $(10110) \leftarrow (A) + (10110)$ means:

- A. replace the contents of the accumulator with the sum of its current contents plus the contents of memory location 10110
- B. replace the contents of the accumulator with the sum of its current contents plus the constant 10110
- C. replace the contents of memory location 10110 with the sum of its current contents plus the contents of the accumulator
- ${\tt D}.$ add the constant 10110 to the contents of the accumulator and store the result in memory location 10110
- E. none of the above



Reading Assignment: Meyer Supplemental Text, pp. 18-24

Learning Objectives:

- Trace the execution of a computer program, identifying each step of an instruction's microsequence (fetch and execute cycles)
- Distinguish between synchronous and combinational system control signals

Outline

- Review of top-down specification phase of design process
 - Big picture
 - Floor plan (instruction set)
- Block diagram
- Instruction execution tracing

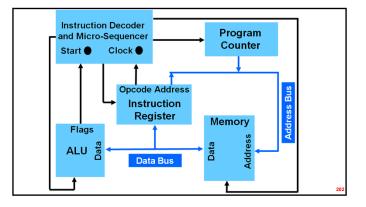
Simple Computer "Floor Plan"

Instruction set:

Opcode	Mnemonic	Function Performed
000	HLT	Halt – stop, discontinue execution
001	LDA addr	Load A with contents of location addr
010	ADD addr	Add contents of addr to contents of A
011	SUB addr	Subtract contents of addr from contents of A
100	AND addr	AND contents of addr with contents of A
101	STA addr	Store contents of A at location addr

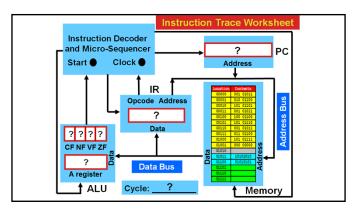
Simple Computer Block Diagram

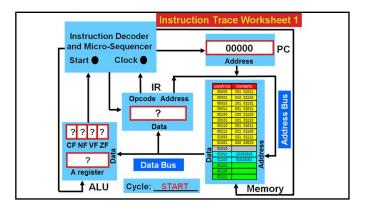
- Functional blocks required: – a place to store the program, operands, and computation
 - results memory – a way to keep track of which instruction is to be executed next – program counter (PC)
 - a place to temporarily "stage" an instruction while it is being executed – instruction register (IR)
 - a way to perform arithmetic and logic operations arithmetic logic unit (ALU)
 - a way to coordinate and sequence the functions of the machine – instruction decoder and micro-sequencer (IDMS)



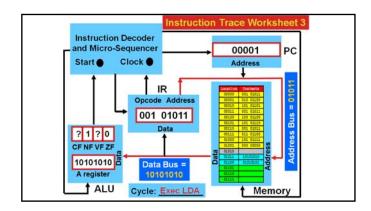
Simple Programming Example

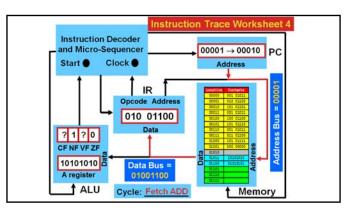
.1
_
.1
of A
.1
rom A
-

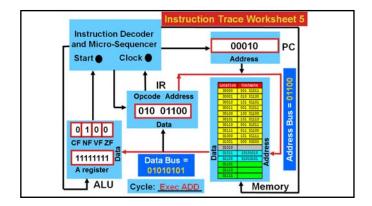


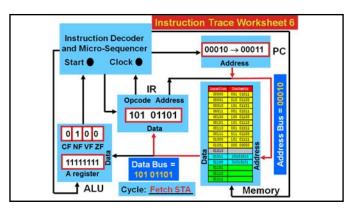


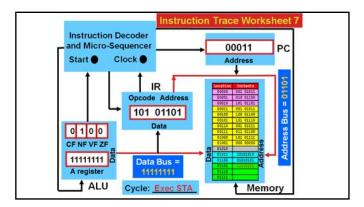
Instruction Decoder	Instruction Trace	Worksheet 2
and Micro-Sequencer Start Clock	- 00000 -	
CF NF VF ZF ? A register	Address 0000 0 0000 000000	Memory





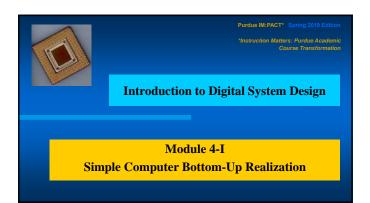






Notes About Instruction Tracing

- The clock edges drive the synchronous functions of the computer (e.g., increment program counter, load instruction register)
- The decoded states (here, fetch and execute) enable the combinational functions of the computer (e.g., turn on tristate buffers)



Reading Assignment:

Meyer Supplemental Text, pp. 24-42

- Learning Objectives: Describe the operation of memory and the function of its control signals: MSL, MOE, and MWE
- Describe the operation of the program counter (PC) and the function of its control signals: ARS, PCC, and POA
- Describe the operation of the instruction register (IR) and the function of its control signals: IRL and IRA
- Describe the operation of the ALU and the function of its control signals: ALE, ALX, ALY, and AOE
- Describe the operation of the instruction decoder/microsequencer and derive the system control table
- Describe the basic hardware-imposed system timing constraints
- Discuss how the instruction register can be loaded with the contents of the memory location pointed to be the program counter *and* the program counter can be incremented on the same clock edge

Outline

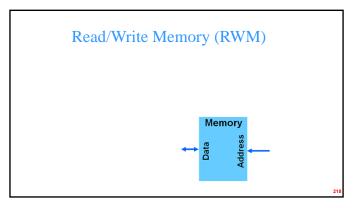
- Bottom-up Realization Phase of Design Process
 - Memory
 - Program Counter
 - Instruction Register
 - Arithmetic Logic Unit
 - Instruction Decoder and Microsequencer
- System Data Flow and Timing Analysis

Bottom-Up Implementation

- Having finished the "top-down" specification phase of the design process, we are now ready to implement each block identified from the "bottom-up"
- Note that, in practice, an important aspect of this process is to independently test (and debug) each block (or module) of the system as it is implemented
- If each module is independently tested and verified as it is implemented, then - when the modules are assembled together into a system - there is a much higher probability that it will "work the first time"!

Simple Computer Block Diagram Functional blocks required:

- a place to store the program, operands, and computation results - memory
- a way to keep track of which instruction is to be executed next - program counter (PC)
- a place to temporarily "stage" an instruction while it is being executed – *instruction register (IR)* a way to perform arithmetic and logic operations –
- arithmetic logic unit (ALU)
- a way to coordinate and sequence the functions of the machine - instruction decoder and micro-sequencer (IDMS)



Read/Write Memory (RWM)

- The name read/write memory (RWM) is given to memory arrays in which we can store and retrieve information at any time
- Most of the RWMs used in digital systems are randomaccess memories (RAMs), which means that the time it takes to read or write a bit of memory is independent of the bit's location in the RAM
- In a static RAM (SRAM), once data is written to a given location, it remains stored as long as power is applied to the chip
- If power is removed, data is lost this is referred to as a volatile memory

Read/Write Memory (RWM)

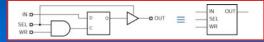
- An SRAM has three (typically *active low*) control inputs: - a chip select (CS) signal that serves as the overall enable for the memory chip
 - an output enable (OE) signal that tells the memory chip to drive the data output lines with the contents of the memory location specified on its address lines
 - a write enable (WE) signal that tells the memory chip to write the data supplied on its data input lines at the memory location specified on its address lines

Read/Write Memory (RWM)

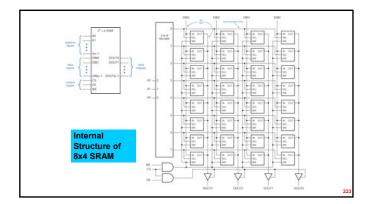
- SRAM normally has two access operations:
 - READ: An address is placed on the address lines while CS and OE are asserted; the latch outputs for the selected location are output on the data lines
 - WRITE: An address is placed on the address lines data is placed on the data lines, then CS and WE are asserted; the latches of the selected location open, and the data is stored

Read/Write Memory (RWM)

 Each bit of memory (or SRAM cell) in a static RAM behaves as the circuit depicted below



- When the SEL input is asserted, the stored data is placed on the cell's output
- When both SEL and WR are asserted, the latch is open and a new data bit is stored
- SRAM cells are combined in an array with additional control logic to form a complete static RAM



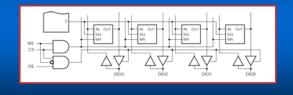
Read/Write Memory (RWM) Some things to note: during *read* operations, the output data is a combinational function of the address inputs, so no "harm" is done by changing the address while CS and OE are asserted

 during write operations, data is stored in latches – this means that data must meet certain setup and hold times with respect to the negation of the WE signal

 also during write operations, the address lines must be stable for a certain setup time before WR is asserted internally and for a hold time after WR is negated

Read/Write Memory (RWM)

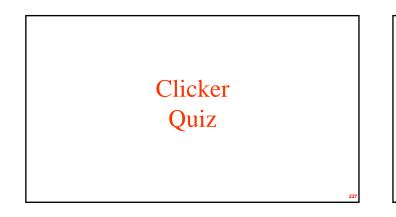
• Most SRAMs utilize a *bi-directional data bus* (i.e., the same data pins are used for reading and writing data)



Simple Computer Memory

- The memory for our simple computer will contain 32 locations (5-bit address), each 8 bits wide (i.e., a "32x8" memory)
- The memory subsystem will have three control signals: - MSL: Memory SeLect
 - MOE: Memory Output Enable
 - MWE: Memory Write Enable

NOTE: For simplicity (and clarity) all system control signals as well as address and data bus signals will be assumed to be ACTIVE HIGH



Q1. When a set of control signals are said to be mutually exclusive, it means that:

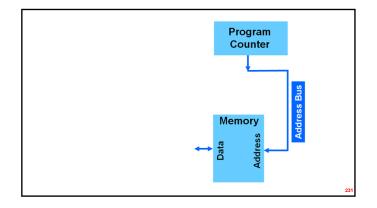
- A. all the control signals may be asserted simultaneously
- B. only one control signal may be asserted at a given instant
- C. each control signal is dependent on the others
- D. any combination of control signals may be asserted at a given instant
- E. none of the above

Q2. For the memory subsystem, the set of signals that are mutually exclusive is: A. MSL and MOE B. MSL and MWE

- C. MOE and MWE
- D. MSL, MOE, and MWE
- E. none of the above

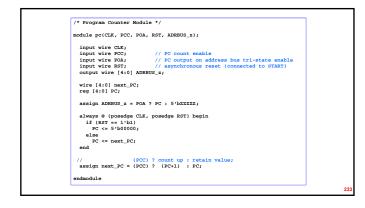
Simple Computer Block Diagram

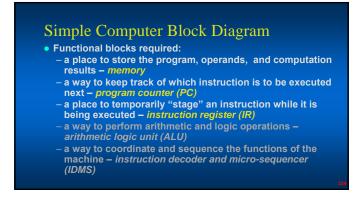
- Functional blocks required: a place to store the program, operands, and computation results - memory
 - a way to keep track of which instruction is to be executed next - program counter (PC)
 - being executed *instruction register* (*IR*) a way to perform arithmetic and logic operations –
 - arithmetic logic unit (ALU)
 - a way to coordinate and sequence the functions of the machine - instruction decoder and micro-sequencer (IDMS)

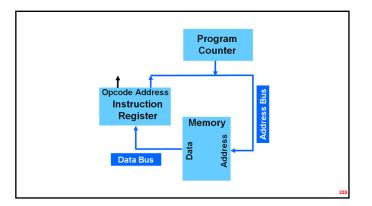


Program Counter

- The program counter (PC) is basically a binary "up" counter with tri-state outputs
- The functions and corresponding control signals required are as follows:
 - ARS: Asynchronous ReSet
 - PCC: Program Counter Count enable
 - POA: Program counter Output on Address bus tri-state buffer enable

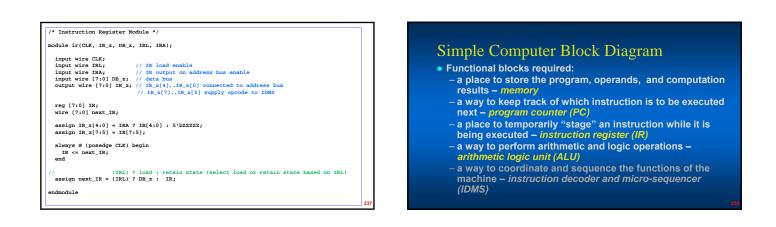


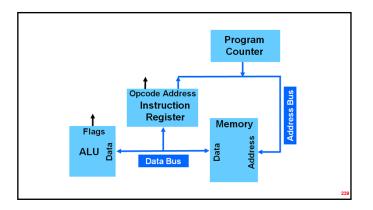


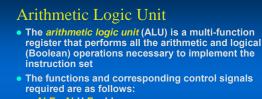


Instruction Register

- The *instruction register* (IR) is basically an 8-bit data register, with tri-state outputs on the lower 5 bits
- Note that the upper 3 bits (opcode field) are output directly to the instruction decoder and microsequencer
- The functions and corresponding control signals required are as follows:
- IRL: Instruction Register Load enable
- IRA: Instruction Register Address field tri-state output enable

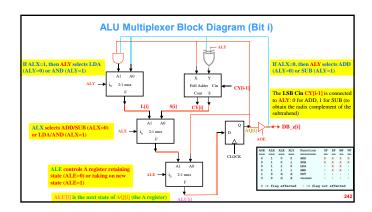


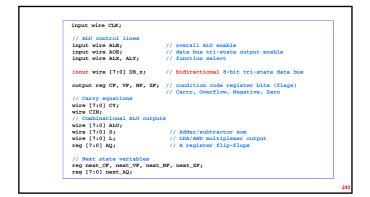


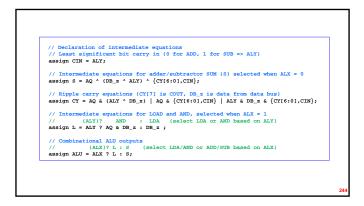


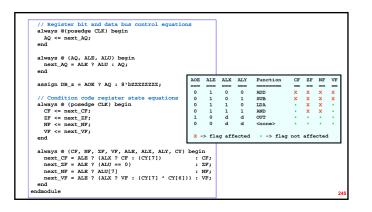
- ALE: ALU Enable
- ALX: ALU "X" function select
- ALY: ALU "Y" function select
- AOE: A register tri-state Output Enable

module	alu(C	LK, AI	E, AC	E, ALX, ALY,	DB_2	, CE	, ve	, NF,	ZF);	
/* 8-	bit, 4	-funct	ion A	LU with bi-d	lirect	iona	il da	ta bu	8	
Ac	cumula	tor re	giste	r is AQ, tri	-stat	e da	ata b	ous is	DB_z	
AD	D: (#	Q[7:0]) <-	(AQ[7:0]) +	DB_z[7:0]				
SU	B: (#	Q[7:0]) <-	(AQ[7:0]) -	DB_z[7:0]				
LD	A: (#	Q[7:0]) <-	DB_z[7:0]						
AN	D: (#	Q[7:0]) <-	(AQ[7:0]) &	DB_z[7:0]				
ou	r: Va	lue in	AQ[7	:0] output o	n dat	a bu	1S DE	3_z[7:	0]	
AO	E ALE	ALX	ALY	Function	CF	ZF	NF	VF		
					==	==	==			
0				ADD			х			
0			1					х		
0				LDA		х		•		
0					•	х	х	•		
1	-	-		OUT	•	•	•	•		
0	0	d	d	<none></none>	•	•	•	•		
	-> f1	ag afi	ected	• -> flag	not	affe	octed			

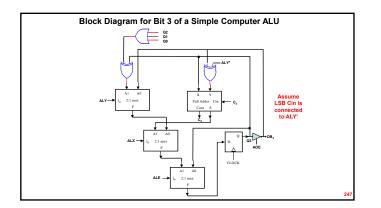


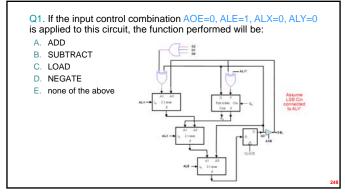


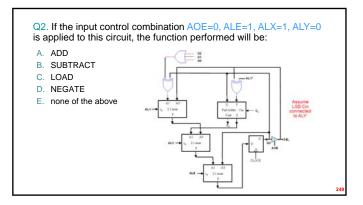


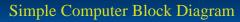






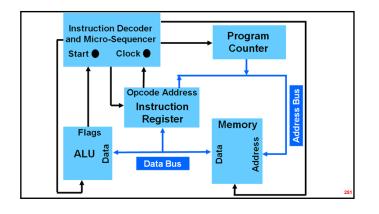






- Functional blocks required:

 a place to store the program, operands, and computation results memory
 - a way to keep track of which instruction is to be executed next - program counter (PC)
 - a place to temporarily "stage" an instruction while it is being executed – instruction register (IR)
 - a way to perform arithmetic and logic operations arithmetic logic unit (ALU)
 - a way to coordinate and sequence the functions of the machine – instruction decoder and micro-sequencer (IDMS)



Instruction Decoder and Microsequencer

- The *instruction decoder and microsequencer* (IDMS) is a state machine that orchestrates the activity of all the other functional blocks
- There are two basic steps involved in "processing" each instruction of a program (called a *micro-sequence*):
 - fetching the instruction from memory (at the location pointed to by the PC), loading it into the IR, and incrementing the PC
 - executing the instruction staged in the IR based on the opcode field and the operand address field

Instruction Decoder and Microsequencer

- Since there are only *two states* (fetch and execute), a single flip-flop can be used to implement the *state counter* ("SQ")
- The control signals that need to be asserted during the fetch cycle include:
 - POA: turn on PC output buffers
 - MSL: select memory
 - MOE: turn on memory output buffers
 - IRL: enable IR load
 - PCC: enable PC count

NOTE: The sync chronous functions (IRL and PCC) will take place on the clock edge that causes the state counter to transition from the FETCH state to the EXECUTE state

Instruction Decoder and Microsequencer

- The control signals that need to be asserted during an execute cycle for the synchronous ALU functions (ADD, SUB, LDA, AND) are:
 - IRA: turn on operand address output buffers
 MSL: select memory

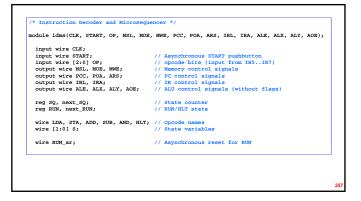
 - MOE: turn on memory data output buffers
 - ALE: enable ALU operation
 - Y: select ALU function
- The control signals that need to be asserted during an execute cycle for STA are:
 - IRA: turn on operand address output buffers
 - MSL: select memory
 MWE: enable memory write

 - AOE: turn on A register output buffers

			Syste	m	Co	ont	ro	1 S	ig	na	ls						
		Decoded State	Instruction Mnemonic	MSL	MOE	MWE	PCC	POA	IRL	IRA	AOE	ALE	ALX	ALY			
		S0	-	н	н		н	н	н								
		S1	HLT	L			L		L			L					
		S1	LDA addr	н	н					н		н	н				
		S1	ADD addr	н	н					н		н					
		S1	SUB addr	н	н					н		н		н			
		S1	AND addr	н	н					н		н	н	н			
		S1	STA addr	н		н				н	н						
	-																
Opcode	Mnemonic	Function	Performed					AOI	E ALE		ALY	Fu	nction		F ZF	NF	VF
000	HLT	Halt - stop	o, discontinue ex	ecuti	on			0	1	0		AD.	D		. x	×	x
001	LDA addr	Load A wit	th contents of loc	ation	addr			0	1	0	1	SU		x	x	x	х
010	ADD addr	Add conte	nts of addr to co	ntent	s of A			0	1 1 0	1	0	LD AN			×	×	1
011	SUB addr	Subtract of	ontents of addr f	rom o	conte	nts of	A	1	ō	å	à	00			•	÷.	4
100	AND addr	AND cont	ents of addr with	conte	ents d	of A		0	0	đ	d	<n< td=""><td>one></td><td></td><td>•</td><td></td><td></td></n<>	one>		•		
101	STA addr	Store cont	tents of A at loca	tion /	ddr						fecte		-> f3				

Instruction Decoder and Microsequencer

- In order to stop execution (i.e., disable all the functional blocks) when a HLT instruction is executed, an additional flip-flop will be used (called "RUN") , as follows:
 - when the START pushbutton is pressed, the RUN flipflop will be asynchronously set
 - when a HLT instruction is executed, the RUN flip-flop will be asynchronously cleared
 - the RUN signal will be ANDed with the synchronous system enable signals, thus effectively halting execution when a HLT instruction is executed



assign HLT = ~OP[2] & ~OP[1] & ~OP[0]; // HLT o	pcode = 000	
assign LDA = ~OP[2] & ~OP[1] & OP[0]; // LDA o	pcode = 001	
assign ADD = ~OP[2] & OP[1] & ~OP[0]; // ADD o	pcode = 010	
	pcode = 011	
assign AND = OP[2] & ~OP[1] & ~OP[0]; // AND o		
assign STA = OP[2] & ~OP[1] & OP[0]; // STA o	pcode = 101	
// Decoded state definitions	Opcode Mnemonic F	Function Performed
assign S[0] = ~SO; // fetch	000 HLT H	Halt – stop, discontinue execution
assign S[1] = SO; // execute	001 LDA addr L	oad A with contents of location addr
	0 1 0 ADD addr A	Add contents of addr to contents of A
// State counter		Subtract contents of addr from contents of A
always @ (posedge CLK, posedge START) begin		AND contents of addr with contents of A
if(START == 1'b1) // start in fetch state	101 STA addr S	Store contents of A at location addr
SQ <= 1'b0; else // if RUN pegated, resets		
	sQ	
SQ <= next_SQ; end		
always @ (SQ, RUN) begin next_SQ = RUN & ~SQ; end		
// Run/stop		
assign RUN_ar = S[1] & HLT;		
always @ (posedge CLK, posedge RUN_ar, posedge ST	ART) begin	A D flip-flop synthesized
<pre>if(START == 1'b1) // RUN set to 1 w RUN <= 1'b1;</pre>	then START asserted	by an always block will
	when HLT is execut	retain its value by default
RUN <= 1'b0;	when her is execut	unless otherwise specified
end		a mate specified

	& (LDA	STA ADI		SU	в	ANI));					
assign MOE = S[0] S[1] & (LDA	ADD	SUB AND	; (
assign MWE = S[1] & STA;												
assign ARS = START;												
assign PCC = RUN & S[0];												
assign POA = S[0];												
assign IRL = RUN & S[0];												
assign IRA = S[1] & (LDA STA	ADD SI	JB AND)	;									
assign AOE = S[1] & STA;												
assign ADE = S[1] & STA; assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA	ADD SI	UB AND)	;									
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND)	,				w	_	_		_	_		_
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA	,		MSL	MOE	MWE	PCC	RI I	IRA	AOE	ALE	ALX	ALY
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND) assign ALY = S[1] & (SUB AND)	Decoded			I MOE	MWE	_	H POA	_	AOE	ALE	ALX	ALY
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND) assign ALY = S[1] & (SUB AND)	Decoded State	Instruction Mnemonic	MSL		MWE	_	_	_	AOE	ALE	ALX	ALY
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND) assign ALY = S[1] & (SUB AND)	Decoded State S0	Instruction Mnemonic	- I MSL	н	MWE	_	H H	_	AOE		E ALX	ALY
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND)	; Decoded State S0 S1	Instruction Mnemonic – HLT	H H MSL	H H	MWE	_	H H		AOE	ι		ALY
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND) assign ALY = S[1] & (SUB AND)	; Decoded State S0 S1 S1	Instruction Mnemonic HLT LDA addr	<mark>н н</mark> н MSL	H H H	MWE	_	H H	н	AOE	L		E ALY

System Data Flow and Timing Analysis

• General procedure

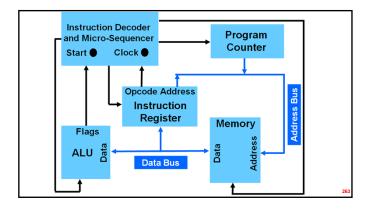
- Understand operation of individual functional units
- Memory
- Program counter
- Instruction register
- Arithmetic logic unit
- Instruction decoder and microsequencer
- (New functional blocks to be added)

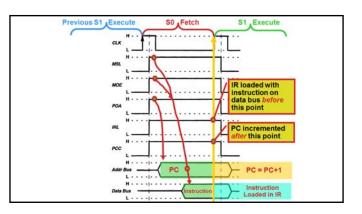
System Data Flow and Timing Analysis

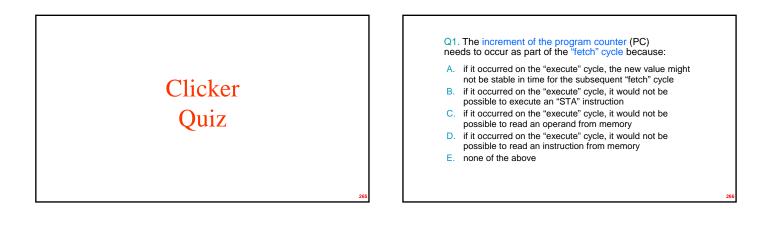
- General procedure
 - Understand function ("data processing") performed by each instruction
 - Identify address and data flow required to execute each instruction
 - Identify micro-operations required to execute each instruction
 - Identify control signals that need to be asserted to generate the required sequence of micro-operations for each instruction
 - Examine timing relationship of control signals

System Data Flow and Timing Analysis

- Basic hardware-imposed constraints
- Only one device is allowed to drive a bus during any machine cycle (i.e., "bus fighting" must be avoided)
- Data cannot pass through more than one (edge-triggered) flip-flop or latch per cycle





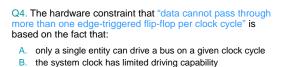


Q2. The program counter (PC) can be incremented on the same cycle that its value is used to fetch an instruction from memory because:

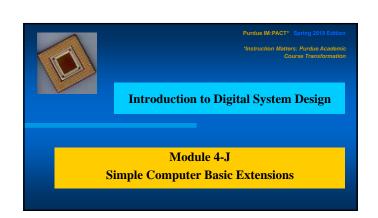
- the synchronous actions associated with the IRL and PCC Α. control signals occur on different fetch cycle phases
- the IRL and PCC control signals are not asserted Β. simultaneously by the IDMS
- the load of the instruction register is based on the data bus C. value prior to the system CLOCK edge, while the increment of the PC occurs after the CLOCK edge
- the load of the instruction register occurs on the negative CLOCK edge, while the increment of the PC occurs on the positive CLOCK edge
- E. none of the above

Q3. Incrementing the program counter (PC) on the same clock edge that loads the instruction register (IR) does not cause a problem because: A. the memory will ignore the new address the PC

- places on the address bus B. the output buffers in the PC will not allow the new PC value to affect the address bus until the next fetch
- cycle C. the IR will be loaded with the value on the data bus prior to the clock edge while the contents of the PC will increment after the clock edge
- D. the value in the PC will change in time for the correct value to be output on the address bus (and fetch the correct instruction), before the IR load occurs
- E. none of the above



- the flip-flops that comprise a register do not change state С. simultaneously, so additional time must be provided before the register's output can be used
- D. for a D flip-flop with clocking period Δ , Q(t+ Δ)=D(t)
- E. none of the above



Reading Assignment: Meyer Supplemental Text, pp. 42-50

- Learning Objectives:
 Modify a reference ALU design to perform different functions (e.g., shift and rotate)
- Describe how input/output (IN/OUT) instructions can be added to the base machine architecture Describe the operation of the I/O block and the function of its control
- signals: IOR and IOW
- Compare and contrast the operation of OUT instructions with and without a transparent latch as an integral part of the I/O block
- Compare and contrast "jump" and "branch" transfer-of-control instructions along with the architectural features needed to support them
- Distinguish between conditional and unconditional branches
- Describe the basis for which a conditional branch is "taken" or "not taken"

Outline

- Overview
- Adding shift instructions
- Adding input/output (I/O) instructions
- Adding transfer of control instructions

Overview

 We will use the two available opcodes (110 and 111) to add new instructions to the basic machine, a pair at a time

Opcode	Mnemonic	Function Performed
000	HLT	Halt – stop, discontinue execution
001	LDA addr	Load A with contents of location addr
010	ADD addr	Add contents of addr to contents of A
011	SUB addr	Subtract contents of addr from contents of A
100	AND addr	AND contents of addr with contents of A
101	STA addr	Store contents of A at location addr
110		
111		

Overview

 We will add rows to the system control table to add the new instructions and add columns to add new control signals

Decoded State	Instruction Mnemonic	WSL	MOE	MWE	PCC	POA	Ъ	IRA	AOE	ALE	ALX	ALY	
SO	-	н	н		н	н	н						
\$1	HLT	L			L								
S1	LDA addr	н	н					н		н	н		
S1	ADD addr	н	н					н		н			
S1	SUB addr	н	н					н		н		н	
S1	AND addr	н	н					н		н	н	н	
\$1	STA addr	н		н				н	н				
\$1													
\$1													

Adding Shift Instructions

- Definition: A shift instruction translates the bits in a register (here, the "A" register) one place to the left or to the right
- Definition: An end off shift discards the bit that gets shifted out
- Definition: A preserving shift retains the bit shifted out (typically in the CF condition code bit)
- Definition: A logical shift is a "zero fill" shift
- <u>Definition</u>: An arithmetic shift is a "sign preserving" shift (i.e., the sign bit gets replicated as the data is shifted right)

Shift Instruction Examples

- Given: (A) = 10011010
- After logical shift left: 00110100 CF=1
- After logical shift right: 01001101 CF=0
- After arithmetic shift left: 00110100 CF=1
- After arithmetic shift right: 11001101 CF=0

Note: An arithmetic left shift is identical to a logical left shift

	<u> </u>	nift Instructions
ALX	ALY	Function Performed
		Load
		Logical Shift Right
1	0	Arithmetic/Logical Shift Left
		Arithmetic Shift Right

the bit that gets shifted out

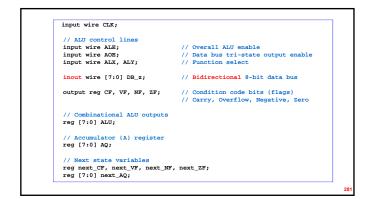
Modified	Instruc	tion	Se

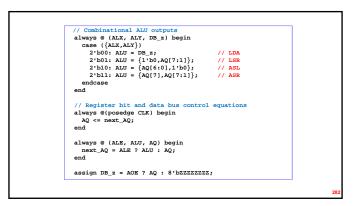
Opcode	Mnemonic	Function Performed
000	HLT	Halt – stop, discontinue execution
001	LDA addr	Load A with contents of location addr
010	LSR	Logically shift contents of A right
011	ASL	Arithmetically/Logically shift contents of A left
100	ASR	Arithmetically shift contents of A right
101	STA addr	Store contents of A at location addr
110		
111		

Modified System Control Table

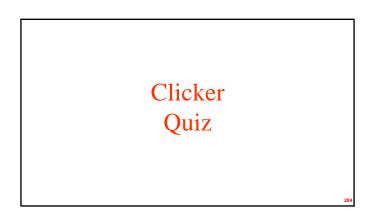
Decoded State	Instruction Mnemonic	MSL	MOE	MWE	ы	POA	ВL	IRA	AOE	ALE	ALX	ALY	
S0	-	н	н		н	н	н						
S1	HLT	L.			L		L			L			
S1	LDA addr	н	н					н		н			
S1	LSR									н		н	
S1	ASL									н	н		
S1	ASR									н	н	н	
\$1	STA addr	н		н				н	н				
\$1													
\$1													

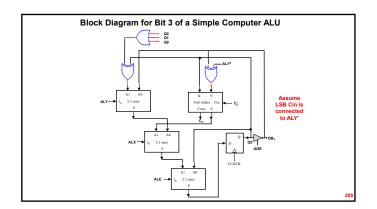
/*	8-bi	t, 4-	funct	ion Al	LU with bi-d	lirect	iona	l da	ta bus			
	LDA:	(AQ	[7:0]) <- 1	DB_z[7:0]							
	LSR:	(AQ	[7:0]) <-	0 AQ7 AQ6	AQ5 A	Q4 /	Q3 A	Q2 AQ1	, CF	<-	AQ0
	ASL:	(AQ	[7:0]) <- 2	AQ6 AQ5 AQ4	AQ3 A	Q2 1	Q1 A	Q0 0	, CF	<-	AQ7
	ASR:	(AQ	[7:0]) <- 2	AQ7 AQ7 AQ6	AQ5 A	Q4 1	Q3 A	Q2 AQ1	, CF	<-	AQ0
	OUT:	Val	ue in	AQ[7	:0] output c	on dat	a bu	IS DB	_z[7:0	1		
	AOE	ALE	ALX	ALY	Function	CF	ZF	NF	VF			
						==	==	==	==			
	0	1	0	0	LDA	•	х	х				
	0	1	0	1	LSR	х	х	х	•			
	0	1	1	0	ASL	х	х	х	•			
	0	1	1	1	ASR	х	х	х				
	1	0	d	d	OUT	•	•	•				
	0	0	d	d	<none></none>	•	•	•	•			
					• -> flag							

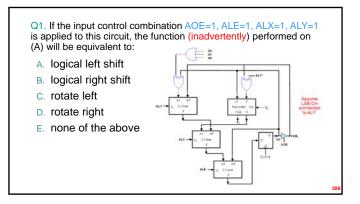


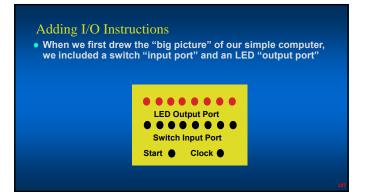


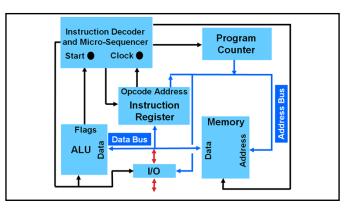
<pre>// Flag register state equations</pre>	
always @ (posedge CLK) begin	
CF <= next_CF;	
<pre>ZF <= next_ZF;</pre>	
NF <= next_NF;	
<pre>VF <= next_VF;</pre>	
end	
always @ (ALE, ALX, ALY, CF, ZF, NF, VF, ALU, AQ) be	agin
<pre>casez ({ALE,ALX,ALY})</pre>	
3'b0??: next_CF = 1'b0;	
3'b100: next_CF = CF; // LDA (not affected	ı)
3'b101: next_CF = AQ[0]; // LSR	
3'b110: next_CF = AQ[7]; // ASL	
3'b111: next_CF = AQ[0]; // ASR	
endcase	
<pre>next_ZF = ALE ? (ALU == 0) : ZF;</pre>	
<pre>next_NF = ALE ? ALU[7] : NF;</pre>	
<pre>next_VF = VF; // NOTE: NOT AFFECTE</pre>	Ð
end	

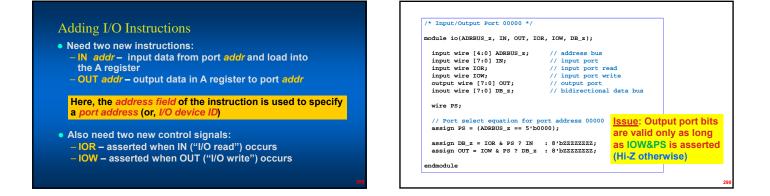






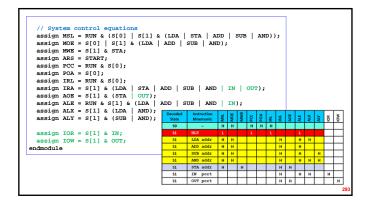


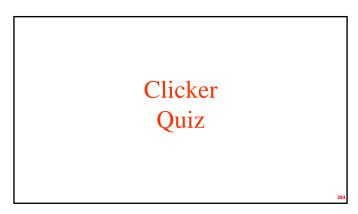




/* Input/Output Port 00000 - V	with Output Latch */	
module io(ADRBUS_z, IN, OUT, I	IOR, IOW, DB_z);	
input wire [4:0] ADRBUS_z;	// address bus	
input wire [7:0] IN;	// input port	
	<pre>// input port read</pre>	
input wire IOW;	<pre>// input port write</pre>	
output reg [7:0] OUT;	// output port	
inout wire [7:0] DB_z;	<pre>// bidirectional data bus</pre>	
wire PS;		
assign PS = (ADRBUS_z == 5'h assign DB_z = IOR & PS ? IN		
// Transparent latch for out	tput port	
always @ (IOW, PS, DB_z) beg		_
if((IOW & PS) == 1'b1)	The if construct without a	n else
OUT = DB_z;	creates an inferred latch	
end	creates an interreu laten	

Modifi	ied systen	n co	ont	rol	tab	le:								
Decoded State	Instruction Mnemonic	MSL	MOE	MWE	Ŋ	РОА	IRL	IRA	AOE	ALE	ALX	ALY	IOR	NO
S0	-	н	н		н	н	н							
S1	HLT	L			L.		L			L				
S1	LDA addr	н	н					н		н	н			
S1	ADD addr	н	н					н		н				
S1	SUB addr	н	н					н		н		н		
S1	AND addr	н	н					н		н	н	н		
S1	STA addr	н		н				н	н					
\$1	IN port							н		н	н		н	
S1	OUT port							н	н					н





Q1. If the output port pins <u>are latched</u>, data written to the port will remain on its pins:

- A. only during the execute cycle of the OUT instruction
- B. only when the clock signal is high
- C. until another OUT instruction writes different data to the port
- D. until the next instruction is executed
- E. none of the above

Q2. If the output port pins are <u>not</u> latched, data written to the port will remain on its pins:

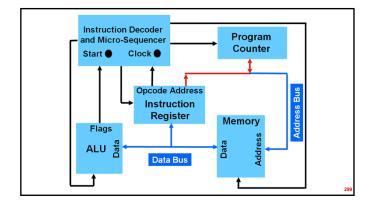
- A. only during the execute cycle of the OUT instruction
- B. only when the clock signal is high
- C. until another OUT instruction writes different data to the port
- D. until the next instruction is executed
- E. none of the above

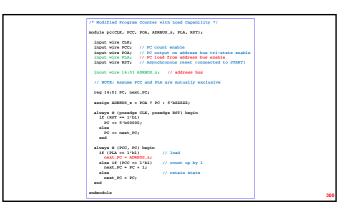
Adding Transfer of Control Instructions

- There are two basic types of *transfer-of-control* instructions:
 - absolute: the operand field contains the address in memory at which execution should continue ("jump")
 - relative: the operand field contains the signed offset that should be added to the PC to determine the location at which execution should continue ("branch")
- Jumps or branches can be unconditional ("always happen") or conditional ("happen only when a specified condition is met" – which is usually a function of the condition codes)

Adding Transfer of Control Instructions

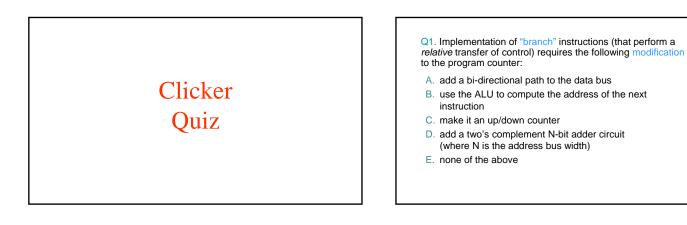
- For the purpose of illustration, we will add an unconditional jump ("JMP") instruction to our simple computer along with a single conditional jump ("Jcond")
- The conditional jump illustrated will be a *jump if ZF set* ("JZF") instruction
- To execute a jump instruction, the operand field (from the IR) will be loaded into the PC via the address bus when PLA is asserted
- Note that, for the conditional jump instruction, that if the condition is not met, the execute cycle will be a "no-operation" (or, "NOP") cycle





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Decoded State	Instruction Mnemonic	MSL	MOE	MWE	S	POA	В	RA	AOE	ALE	ALX	ALY	PLA
S0	-	н	н		н	н	н						
\$1	HLT	L			L		L			L.			
S1	LDA addr	н	н					н		н	н		
S1	ADD addr	н	н					н		н			
S1	SUB addr	н	н					н		н		н	
S1	AND addr	н	н					н		н	н	н	
S1	STA addr	н		н				н	н				
S1	JMP addr							н					н
\$1	JZF addr							ZF					ZF

// System control equations	1	1 3 5 5 1		-									
assign MSL = RUN & (S[0] S[1] & (LDA			su	в		((שו	,						
assign MOE = $S[0] S[1] \& (LDA ADD$	SOB	AND);											
assign MWE = S[1] & STA;													
assign ARS = START;													
assign PCC = RUN & S[0];													
assign POA = S[0];													
assign IRL = RUN & S[0];													
assign IRA = S[1] & (LDA STA ADD	SUB	AND J	MP	14	JZF	ZF)	;						
assign AOE = S[1] & STA;													
	SUB	AND);											
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA ADD assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND);						_		_					
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA ADD	SUB Decoded State	AND);	NSL	NOE	AWE		ı	RA	TOE	ALE	X	ALY	ſ
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA ADD assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND);	Decoded	Instruction	I MSL	± MOE		I PCC	HL IRL	IRA	AOE	ALE	ALX	ALY	
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA ADD assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND); assign ALY = S[1] & (SUB AND);	Decoded State S0	Instruction Mnemonic		Ξ MOE	-			IRA	AOE	ALE	ALX	ALY	
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA ADD assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND);	Decoded State S0	Instruction Mnemonic –	н	T MOE	-	нн	н	E IRA	AOE	L	<mark>т</mark> ALX	ALY	
<pre>assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA ADD assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND); assign ALY = S[1] & (SUB AND); assign PLA = S[1] & (JMP JZF & ZF);</pre>	Decoded State S0 S1	Instruction Mnemonic – HLT	H L H H		-	нн	н	E E IRA	AOE	L		ALY	
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA ADD assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND); assign ALY = S[1] & (SUB AND); assign ALY = S[1] & (JMP JZF & ZF);	Decoded State S0 S1 S1 S1	Instruction Mnemonic BLT LDA addr ADD addr SUB addr	H H H H	H H H	-	нн	н		AOE	L		ж ALY	
<pre>assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA ADD assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND); assign ALY = S[1] & (SUB AND); assign PLA = S[1] & (JMP JZF & ZF);</pre>	Decoded State S0 S1 S1 S1 S1	Instruction Mnemonic ELLT LDA addr ADD addr SUB addr AND addr	H H H H H	H H	-	нн	н	н	AOE	L H H		E E ALY	
<pre>assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA ADD assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND); assign ALY = S[1] & (SUB AND); assign PLA = S[1] & (JMP JZF & ZF);</pre>	Decoded State S0 S1 S1 S1 S1 S1 S1 S1 S1	Instruction Mnemonic – HLT LDA addr ADD addr SUB addr AND addr STA addr	H H H H	H H H	-	нн	н	H H	ж AOE	L H H	н		
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA ADD assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND); assign ALY = S[1] & (SUB AND);	Decoded State 50 51 51 51 51 51	Instruction Mnemonic ELLT LDA addr ADD addr SUB addr AND addr	H H H H H	H H H		нн	н	H H H		L H H	н		



Q2. Whether or not a conditional branch is *taken* or *not taken* depends on:

- A. the value of the program counter
- B. the state of the condition code bits
- C. the cycle of the state counter
- D. the value in the accumulator
- E. none of the above

Thought Questions

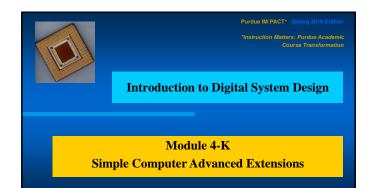
 What would be required to add a jump if less than ("JLT") or a jump if greater than or equal to ("JGE") instruction?



Thought Questions

How could a compare ("CMP") instruction be implemented? How is this different than a subtract ("SUB")?

A "CMP" works the same as "SUB" except that the result of (A) - (addr) is not stored in the A register (i.e., only the flags are affected)



Reading Assignment:

Meyer Supplemental Text, pp. 50-64

Learning Objectives:

- describe the changes needed to the instruction decoder/microsequencer in order to dynamically change the number of instruction execute cycles based on the opcode
- compare and contrast the machine's asynchronous reset ("START") with the synchronous state counter reset ("RST")
- describe the operation of a stack mechanism (LIFO queue)
- describe the operation of the stack pointer (SP) register and the function of its control signals: ARS, SPI, SPD, SPA
- compare and contrast the two possible stack conventions: SP pointing to the top stack item vs. SP pointing to the top stack item
- describe how stack manipulation instructions (PSH/POP) can be added to the base machine architecture
- discuss the consequences of having an unbalanced set of PSH and POP instructions in a given program

Reading Assignment: Meyer Supplemental Text, pp. 50-64

Learning Objectives, continued:

- discuss the reasons for using a stack as a subroutine linkage mechanism: arbitrary nesting of subroutine calls, passing parameters to subroutines, recursion, and reentrancy
- $\underline{\text{describe}}$ how subroutine linkage instructions (JSR/RTS) can be added to the base machine architecture
- analyze the effect of changing the stack convention utilized (SP points to top stack item vs. next available location) on instruction cycle counts

Outline

- Modifications to state counter and instruction decoder to accommodate instructions with multiple execute cycles
- Introduction of a stack mechanism
- Use of a stack to implement "push" (PSH) and "pop" (POP) instructions
- Identification of micro-operations that can be overlapped
- Modifications to the system architecture necessary to implement subroutine linkage instructions
- Implementation of subroutine "call" (JSR) and "return" (RTS) instructions

State Counter Modifications

- All of the "simple computer" instructions discussed thus far have required only two states: a fetch cycle followed by a *single* execute cycle
- Many "real world" instructions require more than a single execute state to achieve their desired functionality
- We wish to extend the state counter (and the instruction decoder) to accommodate instructions that require multiple execute cycles (here, up to three)

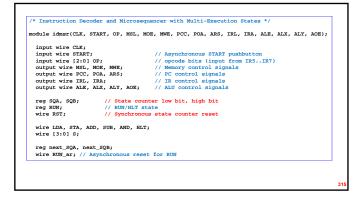
State Counter Modifications

- In the process of adding this capability, we want to make sure our original "shorter" instructions do not incur a "penalty" (i.e., execute *slower*)
- To accomplish this, we need to design the state counter so that the number of execute cycles can be *dynamically changed* based on the opcode of the instruction being executed
- To provide up to three execute cycles, we will replace the state counter flip-flop with a *two-bit binary counter* that has a *synchronous reset* input (in addition to an asynchronous clear)

State Counter Modifications

• The "state names" will now be:

- S0 (fetch)
- S1 (first execute)
- S2 (second execute)
- S3 (third execute)
- We will also add a new system control signal "RST" (connected to the synchronous reset of the binary counter) that will be asserted on the *last execute state* of each instruction, thereby *synchronously resetting* the state counter to zero (so that the next cycle will be a "fetch")



// Decoded opcode definitions
assign HLT = -OP[2] & -OP[1] & -OP[0]; // HLT opcode = 000
assign LDA = -OP[2] & -OP[1] & OP[0]; // LDA opcode = 001
assign ADD = -OP[2] & OP[1] & -OP[0]; // ADD opcode = 010
assign SUB = ~OP[2] & OP[1] & OP[0]; // SUB opcode = 011
assign AND = OP[2] & ~OP[1] & ~OP[0]; // AND opcode = 100
assign STA = OP[2] & -OP[1] & OP[0]; // STA opcode = 101
// Decoded state definitions
assign S[0] = -SQB & -SQA; // fetch state
assign S[1] = -SQB & SQA; // first execute state
assign S[2] = SQB & ~SQA; // second execute state
assign S[3] = SQB & SQA; // third execute state
// State counter
always @ (posedge CLK, posedge START) begin
if(START == 1'bl) begin // start in fetch state
SQA <= 1'b0;
SQB <= 1'b0;
end else begin
SQA <= next_SQA;
SQB <= next_SQB;
end
end
always @ (RST, RUN, SQA, SQB) begin
<pre>next_SQA = -RST & RUN & -SQA; // if RUN negated or RST asserted,</pre>
<pre>next_SQB = ~RST & RUN & (SQA ^ SQB); // state counter is reset</pre>

assign RUN ar = S[1] & HLT;	
assign kow_ar = s[1] & hbi;	
// Run/stop	
always @ (posedge CLK, posedge RUN ar, posedge START) begin	
if(START == 1'b1) // start with RUN set to 1	
RUN <= 1'b1;	
else if(RUN ar == 1'b1) // RUN is cleared when HLT is executed	
RUN <= 1'b0;	
RUN <= 1'DU; end	
ena	
// System control equations	
assign MSL = RUN & (S[0] S[1] & (LDA STA ADD SUB AND));	
assign MOE = $S[0] S[1] \& (LDA ADD SUB AND);$	
assign MWE = $S[1] \& STA;$	
assign ARS = START;	
assign PCC = RUN & S[0];	
assign POA = S[0];	
assign IRL = RUN & S[0];	
assign IRA = S[1] & (LDA STA ADD SUB AND);	
assign AOE = S[1] & STA;	
assign ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA ADD SUB AND);	
assign ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND);	
assign ALY = S[1] & (SUB AND);	
assign RST = S[1] & (LDA STA ADD SUB AND);	
endmodule	



Q1. The state counter in the "extended" machine's instruction decoder and micro-sequencer needs <u>both</u> a synchronous reset (RST) and an asynchronous reset (ARS) because:

- A. we want to make sure the state counter gets reset
- B. the ARS signal allows the state counter to be reset to the "fetch" state when START is pressed, while the RST allows the state counter to be reset when the last execute cycle of an instruction is reached
- C. the RST signal allows the state counter to be reset to the "fetch" state when START is pressed, while ARS allows the state counter to be reset when the last execute cycle of an instruction is reached
- D. the state counter is not always clocked
- E. none of the above

Q2. Adding a **third bit** to the state counter would allow up to _____ execute states:

- A. 3
- B. 5
- C. 7
- D. 8
- E. none of the above

Stack Mechanism

- Definition: A stack is a last-in, first-out (LIFO) data structure
- Primary uses of stacks in computers:
 - subroutine linkage
 - saving return address
 - parameter passing
 - saving machine context (or state) especially when processing interrupts or exceptions
 - expression evaluation

Stack Mechanism

- Conventions:
 - the stack area is generally placed at the "top" of memory (i.e., starting at the *highest address* in memory)
 - a stack pointer (SP) register is used to indicate the address of the top stack item
 - stack growth is toward decreasing addresses (note that this is in contrast to program growth, which is toward increasing addresses)
 - <u>Note</u>: An alternate convention for the stack could also be used, namely, to have the SP register point to the next available location

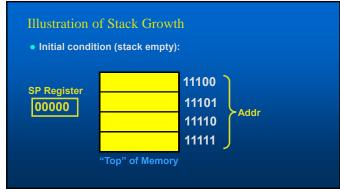
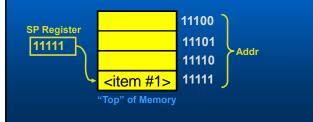
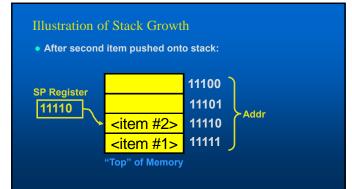
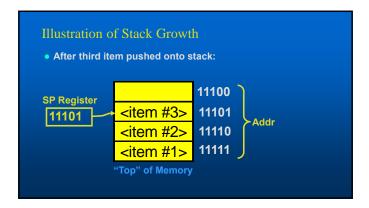


Illustration of Stack Growth

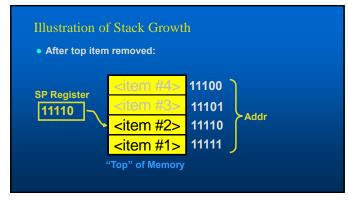
• After first item pushed onto stack:

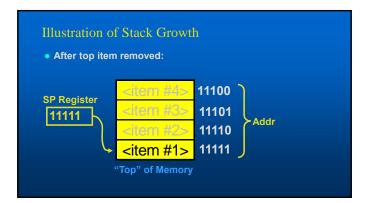


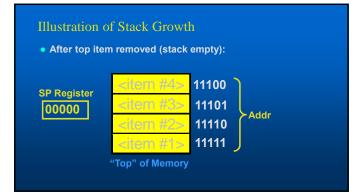




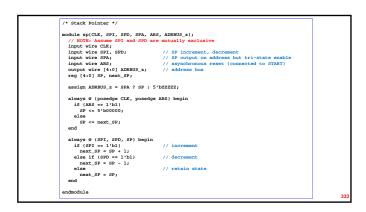


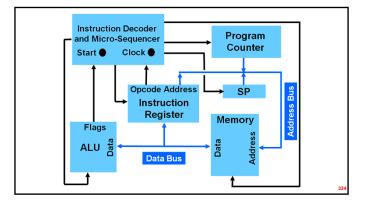






need a Stack	k mechanism to our simple computer, we Pointer (SP) register connected to the hat has the following control signals:
- SPI: Stack	Pointer Increment
- SPD: Stack	Pointer Decrement
- SPA: Stack	Pointer output on Address bus
– ARS: Asyno	chronous ReSet





Adding Stack Manipulation Instructions

- The most common stack operations are "push" and "pop" here, the value that will be *pushed* and *popped* is the A register
 - PSH save value in A register on stack
 - Step 1: Decrement SP register
 - Step 2: Store value in A register at the location pointed to by SP register
 - POP load A with value on stack
 - Step 1: Load A register from memory location pointed to by SP register
 - Step 2: Increment SP register

Note: The PSH and POP instructions can be used to implement *expression evaluation*

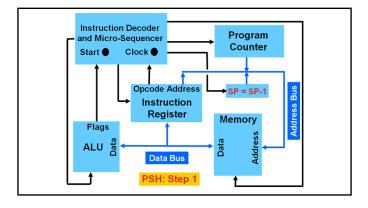
Adding Stack Manipulation Instructions

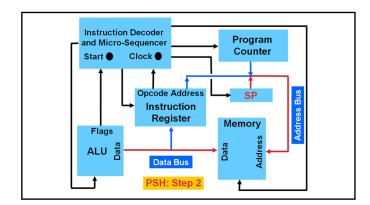
• The opcodes that will be used for PSH and POP are as follows:

Opcode	Mnemonic	Function Performed
000	HLT	Halt – stop, discontinue execution
001	LDA addr	Load A with contents of location addr
010	ADD addr	Add contents of addr to contents of A
011	SUB addr	Subtract contents of addr from contents of A
100	AND addr	AND contents of addr with contents of A
101	STA addr	Store contents of A at location addr
110	PSH	Save (A) on stack
111	POP	Restore (A) from stack

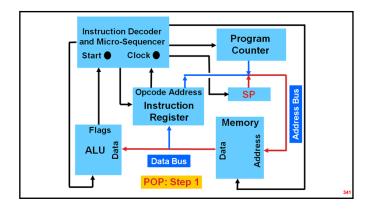
Adding Stack Manipulation Instructions

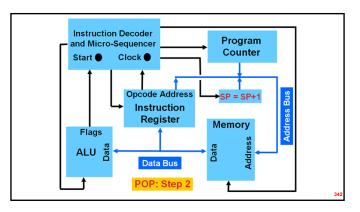
- At first glance, it would appear that two execute cycles are required to implement both the PSH and POP instructions
- As astute computer engineers, however, we always need to be on the lookout for operations that can be overlapped (subject, of course, to the "rules" we learned earlier):
 - Only one device is allowed to drive a bus during any machine cycle (i.e., "bus fighting" must be avoided) Data cannot pass through more than one (edge-triggered) flip-flop or latch per cycle





Adding Stack Manipulation Instructions • Implementation of PSH requires two execute cycles: – first execute cycle: decrement SP register* (S - second execute cycle: output "new" value of SP on address bus (SPA), enable a memory write operation (MSL and MWE), and tell the ALU to output value in the A register on the data bus (AOE) Note: The "new" value of SP must be available (and stable) before it can be used to address memory





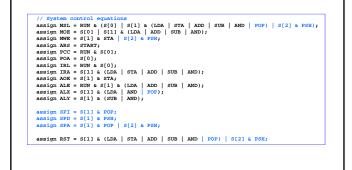
Adding Stack Manipulation Instructions

Implementation of POP requires only one execute cycle:

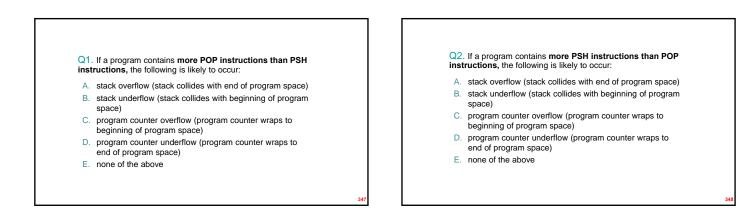
 first execute cycle: output value of SP on address bus (SPA), enable a memory read operation (MSL and MOE), tell the ALU to load the A register with the value on the data bus (ALE and ALX), and tell the SP register to increment (SPI)

*<u>Note</u>: The SP register will be incremented *after* the A register is loaded with the contents of the location pointed to by the SP register, i.e., the SP increment is *overlapped* with the fetch of the next instruction

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Decoded State	Instruction Mnemonic	MSL	MOE	MWE	ğ	POA	峀	IRA	AOE	ALE	ALX	ALY	PI	SPD	SPA	RST
S0	-	н	н		н	н	н									
S1	HLT	L								L						
S1	LDA addr	н	н					н		н	н					н
S1	ADD addr	н	н					н		н						н
S1	SUB addr	н	н					н		н		н				н
S1	AND addr	н	н					н		н	н	н				н
S1	STA addr	н		н				н	н							н
S1	PSH													н		
S1	POP	н	н							н	н		н		н	н
S2	PSH	н		н					н						н	н







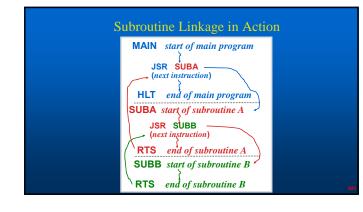
Adding Subroutine Linkage Instructions

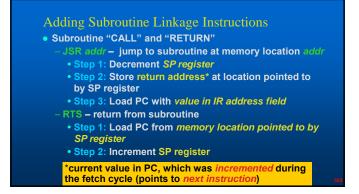
- Why use a stack as a subroutine linkage mechanism? There are several important capabilities that a stack affords:
- arbitrary nesting of subroutine calls
- passing parameters to subroutines
- recursion (the ability of a subroutine to call itself) -
- made possible by passing parameters via the stack – reentrancy (the ability of a code module to be shared among quasi-simultaneously executing tasks) – made possible by storing temporary local variables on the stack

Adding Subroutine Linkage Instructions

 The opcodes that will be used for JSR ("jump to subroutine") and RTS ("return from subroutine") are as follows:

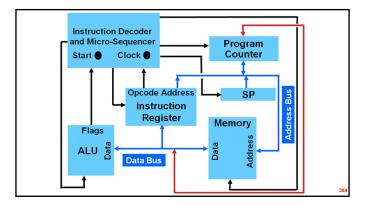
Opcode	Mnemonic	Function Performed
000	HLT	Halt – stop, discontinue execution
001	LDA addr	Load A with contents of location addr
010	ADD addr	Add contents of addr to contents of A
011	SUB addr	Subtract contents of addr from contents of A
100	AND addr	AND contents of addr with contents of A
101	STA addr	Store contents of A at location addr
1 1 0	JSR addr	Jump to subroutine at location addr
111	RTS	Return from subroutine





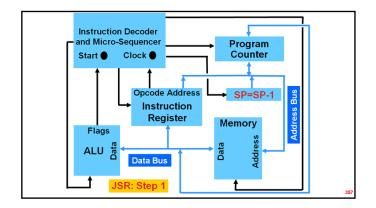
Adding Subroutine Linkage Instructions

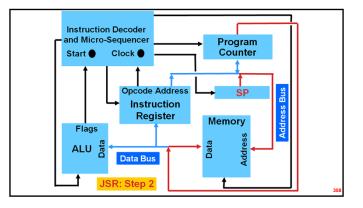
- The astute student will realize at this point that the program counter needs to be modified – a way to save its value on the stack, and subsequently restore it, must be provided
- Two new PC control signals need to be implemented:
 POD: output value of PC on data bus
 PLD: load PC with value on data bus

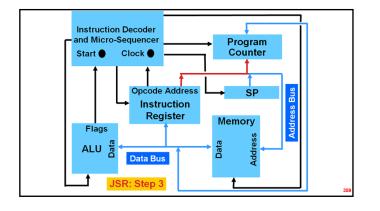


module pc(CLK, PCC, PLA, POA	, RST, ADRBUS_z, DB_z, PLD, POD, PC);
input wire CLK;	
input wire PCC;	// PC count enable
input wire PLA;	// PC load from address bus enable
input wire POA;	// PC output on address bus tri-state enable
input wire RST;	// Asynchronous reset (connected to START)
input wire PLD;	// PC load from data bus enable
input wire POD;	<pre>// PC output on data bus tri-state enable</pre>
inout wire [4:0] ADRBUS_z;	<pre>// address bus (5-bits wide)</pre>
inout wire [7:0] DB_z;	// data bus (8-bits wide)
output reg [4:0] PC;	
<pre>reg [4:0] next_PC;</pre>	
always @ (posedge CLK, pos if (RST == 1'b1) PC <= 5'b00000;	edge RST) begin
else	
PC <= next PC;	
end	

<pre>next_PC = ADRBUS_z; else if (PLD == 1'b1) next_PC = DB_z; else if (PCC == 1'b1)</pre>	
<pre>else if (PLD == 1'b1) next_PC = DB_z; else if (PCC == 1'b1)</pre>	
<pre>next_PC = PC + 1;</pre>	// increment PC
else next_PC = PC;	// retain state
end	
assign ADRBUS_z = POA ? PC[4 assign DB_z = POD ? {3'b000, dmodule	0] : 5'bZZZZZ; PC[4:0]} : 8'bZZZZZZZ; // pad upper 3 bits of DB w/ 0

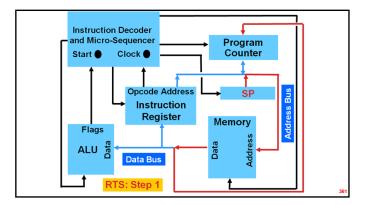


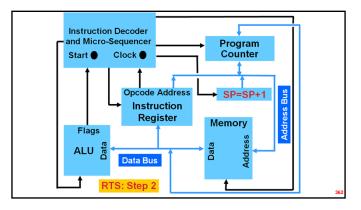




Adding Subroutine Linkage Instructions

- Implementation of JSR requires three execute cycles:
 - first execute cycle: decrement SP register (SPD)
 - second execute cycle: output "new" value of SP on address bus (SPA), enable a memory write operation (MSL and MWE), and tell the PC register to output its value on the data bus (POD)
 - third execute cycle: tell IR register to output its operand field on the address bus (IRA), and tell the PC register to load the value on the address bus (PLA)





Adding Subroutine Linkage Instructions

- At first glance, it would appear that two execute cycles are required to implement the RTS instruction
- As astute students, however, we always need to be on the lookout for operations that can be overlapped (subject, of course, to the "rules" we learned earlier):
- Only one device is allowed to drive a bus during any machine cycle (i.e., "bus fighting" must be avoided)
- Data cannot pass through more than one (edgetriggered) flip-flop or latch per cycle



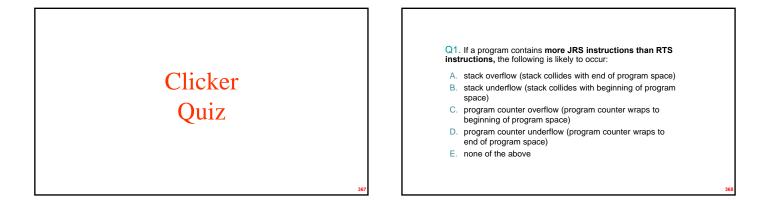
Implementation of RTS requires only one execute cycle:

 first execute cycle: output value of SP on address bus (SPA), enable a memory read operation (MSL and MOE), tell the PC to load the value on the data bus (PLD), and tell the SP register to increment* (SPI)

*<u>Note</u>: The SP register will be incremented *after* the PC register is loaded with the contents of the location pointed to by the SP register, i.e., the SP increment is *overlapped* with the fetch of the next instruction

Decoded State	Instruction Mnemonic	MSL	MOE	MWE	S	POA	PLA	Bo	DLD	Ш	IRA	AOE	ALE	ALX	ALΥ	SPI	SPD	SPA	RST
S0	-	н	н		н	н				н									
S1	HLT	L			L					L			L						
S1	LDA addr	н	н								н		н	н					Н
S1	ADD addr	н	н								н		н						Н
S1	SUB addr	н	н								н		н		н				Н
S1	AND addr	н	н								н		н	н	н				Н
\$1	STA addr	н		н							н	н							Н
S1	JSR addr																н		
S1	RTS	н	н						н							н		н	н
S2	JSR addr	н		н				н										н	
S3	JSR addr						н				н								н

assi	gn MSL = RUN & (S[0] S[1] & (LDA STA ADD SUB AND RTS) S[2] & JSR);
	gn MOE = S[0] S[1] & (LDA ADD SUB AND RTS);
assi	gn MWE = $S[1] \& STA S[2] \& JSR;$
assi	gn ARS = START;
	gn PCC = RUN & S[0];
assi	gn POA = S[0];
assi	gn PLA = S[3] & JSR;
	gn POD = S[2] & JSR;
assi	gn PLD = S[1] & RTS;
assi	gn IRL = RUN & S[0];
	gn IRA = S[1] & (LDA STA ADD SUB AND);
	gn AOE = S[1] & STA;
	gn ALE = RUN & S[1] & (LDA ADD SUB AND);
	gn ALX = S[1] & (LDA AND);
assi	gn ALY = S[1] & (SUB AND);
	gn SPI = S[1] & RTS;
	gn SPD = S[1] & JSR;
assi	gn SPA = S[1] & RTS S[2] & JSR;
assi	gn RST = S[1] & (LDA STA ADD SUB AND RTS) S[3] & JSR;



Q2. If a program contains more RTS instructions than JSR instructions, the following is likely to occur:

- A. stack overflow (stack collides with end of program space)B. stack underflow (stack collides with beginning of program
- space) C. program counter overflow (program counter wraps to
- beginning of program space)
- D. program counter underflow (program counter wraps to end of program space)
- E. none of the above

Fun Things to Think About...

- What kinds of new instructions would be useful in writing "real" programs?
- What new kinds of registers would be good to add to the machine?
- What new kinds of addressing modes would be nice to have?
- What would we have to change if we wanted "branch" transfer-of-control instructions instead of "jump" instructions?

These are all good reasons to "continue your 'digital life' beyond this course"!