

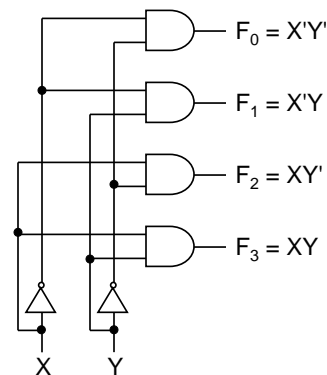
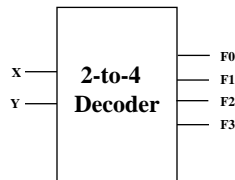
Decoders

- A *decoder* is a combinational circuit that converts binary information from n inputs to a maximum of 2^n outputs.
- A decoder is called n -to- m decoder, where $m \leq 2^n$
- Consider 3-8 decoder, truth table with 3 inputs x,y,z and 8 outputs $D_7 .. D_0$ the circuit is shown in Figure 4-18

Decoders

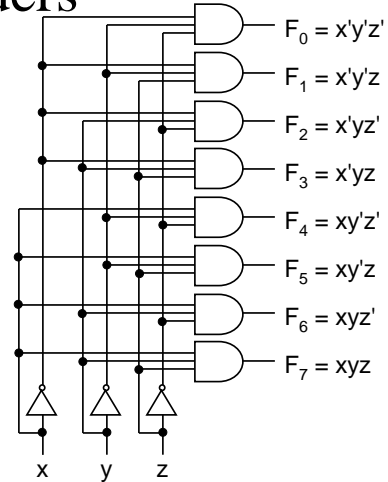
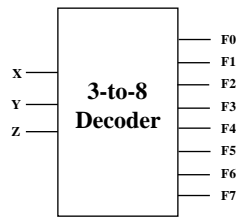
X	Y	F ₀	F ₁	F ₂	F ₃
0	0	1	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	0
1	0	0	0	1	0
1	1	0	0	0	1

- From truth table, circuit for 2x4 decoder is:
- Note: Each output is a 2-variable minterm ($X'Y'$, $X'Y$, XY' or XY)



Decoders

x	y	z	F ₀	F ₁	F ₂	F ₃	F ₄	F ₅	F ₆	F ₇
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1



Decoders

- Some decoders are implemented using NAND gates, in this case it will be more economical to produce the output in their complemented form.
- 2-4 decoder
- Circuit 4-19
- When E is 1, non
Of the outputs I 0
- Decoder may be
Activated With E=0 or 1

E	A	B	D ₀	D ₁	D ₂	D ₃
1	X	X	1	1	1	1
0	0	0	0	1	1	1
0	0	1	1	0	1	1
0	1	0	1	1	0	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	0



Fig. 7-1 Conventional and Array Logic Diagrams for OR Gate

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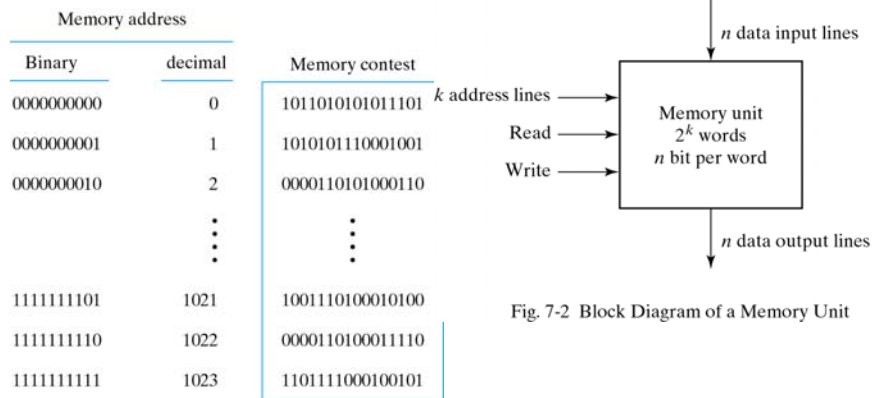


Fig. 7-2 Block Diagram of a Memory Unit

Fig. 7-3 Content of a 1024 × 16 Memory

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```

//Read and write operation of memory
Module memory (Enable, ReadWrite, Address, DataIn, Dataout);
input Enable, ReadWrite;
input [3:0] DataIn;
input [5:0] Address;
Output [3:0] Dataout;
reg [3:0] Dataout;
reg [3:0] Mem[0:63];
always @(Enable or ReadWrite)
    if(Enable)
        if(ReadWrite)
            Dataout=Mem[Address];
        else
            Mem[Address]=DataIn;
    else
        Dataout=4'bz;
endmodule

```

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Memory enable and the read/write signal must be activated after the address lines have stabilized, otherwise we may destroy the contents of other memory locations.

Address and data signal must remain stable for a short time after the control signals are activated.

The 2 control signals must stay active for 50µsec (in this example).

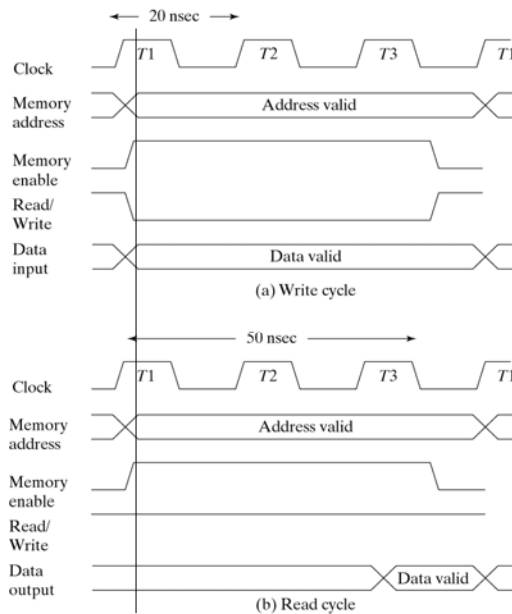


Fig. 7-4 Memory Cycle Timing Waveforms

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Types of Memory

- ROM, PROM, EPROM, EEPROM
- RAM (SRAM, DRAM)
- SRAM store information in latches, while DRAM stores information as electric charges on capacitors (needs refreshing).

Figure 10-14

ROM Access

- t_{AA} Access time from address: delay from stable address input to stable data output.
- t_{ACS} Access time from chip select: delay from CS being asserted until data output are valid.
- t_{OE} Output enable time: propagation delay from OE and CS both asserted until the three state output drives have left the Hi-Z state.
- t_{OZ} Output-hold time: propagation delay from the time OE and CS is negated until the three-state output drives have entered the Hi-Z state
- t_{OH} hold output time: The length of time that the outputs remain valid after a change in the address inputs (or after OE of CS are negated).

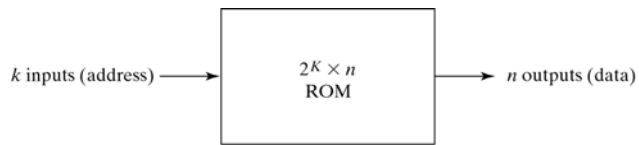


Fig. 7-9 ROM Block Diagram

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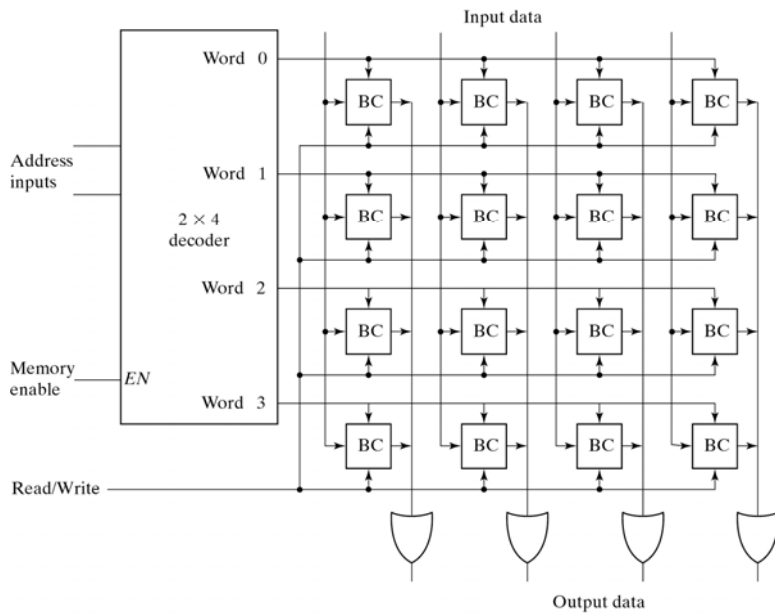


Fig. 7-6 Diagram of a 4×4 RAM

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Coincident decoding, notice that we need $2(2^5)$ AND gate instead of 2^{10} AND gates

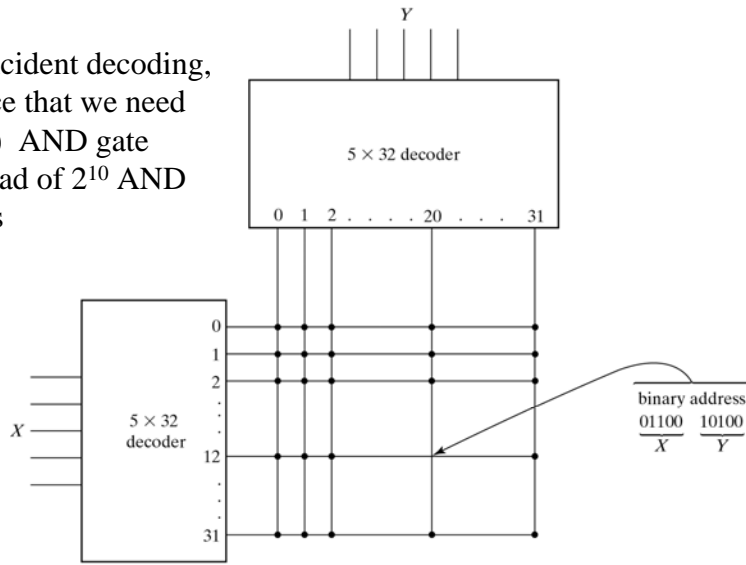


Fig. 7-7 Two-Dimensional Decoding Structure for a 1K-Word Memory

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To reduce the number of pins in an IC

The 8 bits row address is applied to the input, and RAS changed to 0. The column address is applied, and CAS set to 0

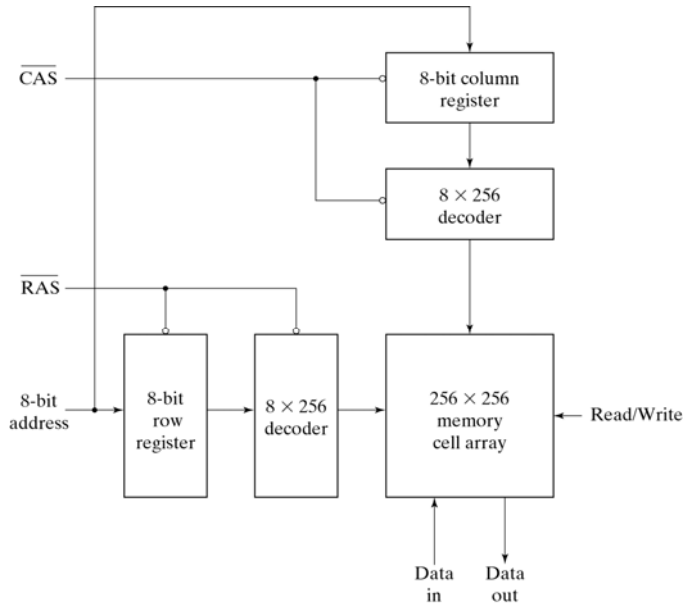


Fig. 7-8 Address Multiplexing for a 64K DRAM

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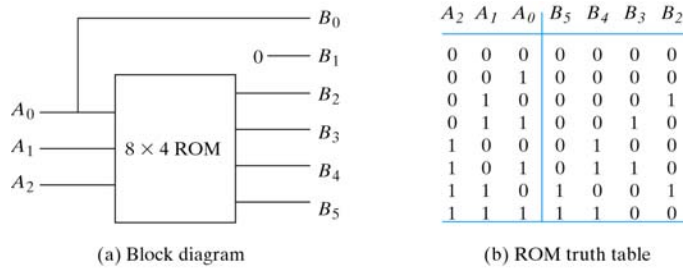


Fig. 7-12 ROM Implementation of Example 7-1

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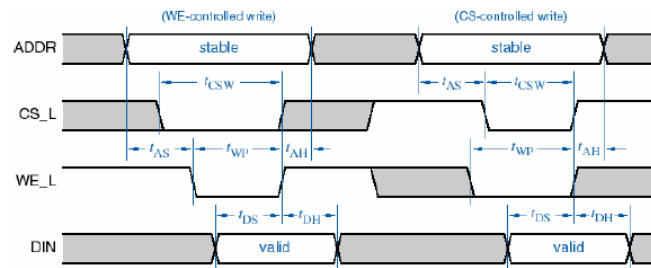
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RAM (Write)

- t_{AS} Address setup time before write: (address inputs must be stable before CS and WE are asserted)
- t_{AH} Address hold time after write: Address hold time after write
- t_{CSW} CS setup before end of write: CS must be asserted that long.
- t_{WP} Write cycle width: W-enable must be asserted that long
- t_{DS} Data setup time before end of write: Data must be stable that long before end of write cycle
- t_{DH} Data hold time after end of write:

SRAM write timing

Digital Logic Design
Read/Write Memory



- Address must be stable before and after write-enable is asserted.
- Data is latched on trailing edge of (WE & CS).

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Synchronous SRAM

- SSRAM
- An operation that is setup before the rising edge of the clock is performed internally during a subsequent clock period.
- INREG captures the input data for write operation.
- Depending on whether the device is *pipelined* or *flow-through* OUTREG may or may not be present.
- Supports *burst* mode, in which data in a sequence of addresses are read, in this case AREG behaves like a counter.

Digital Logic Design
Read/Write Memory

Synchronous SRAMs

- Use latch-type SRAM cells internally
- Put registers in front of address and control (and maybe data) for easier interfacing with synchronous systems at high speeds
- E.g., Pentium cache RAMs

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2003 14 of 18 7.5 x 10 in

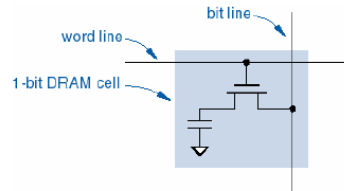
Dynamic RAM

- The basic cell in SRAM is the D latch, 4-6 transistor per bit.
- DRAM stores information in a 1 transistor per bit

DRAM (Dynamic RAMs)

Digital Logic Design
Read/Write Memory

- SRAMs typically use six transistors per bit of storage.
- DRAMs use only one transistor per bit.
- 1/0 = capacitor charged/discharged

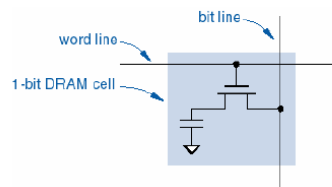


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DRAM read operations

Digital Logic Design
Read/Write Memory



- Precharge bit line to $V_{DD}/2$.
- Take the word line HIGH.
- Detect whether current flows into or out of the cell.
- Note: cell contents are destroyed by the read!
- Must write the bit value back after reading.

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Digital Logic Design
Read/Write Memory

DRAM write operations

word line
bit line
1-bit DRAM cell

- Take the word line HIGH.
- Set the bit line LOW or HIGH to store 0 or 1.
- Take the word line LOW.

- Note: The stored charge for a 1 will eventually leak off.

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Digital Logic Design
Read/Write Memory

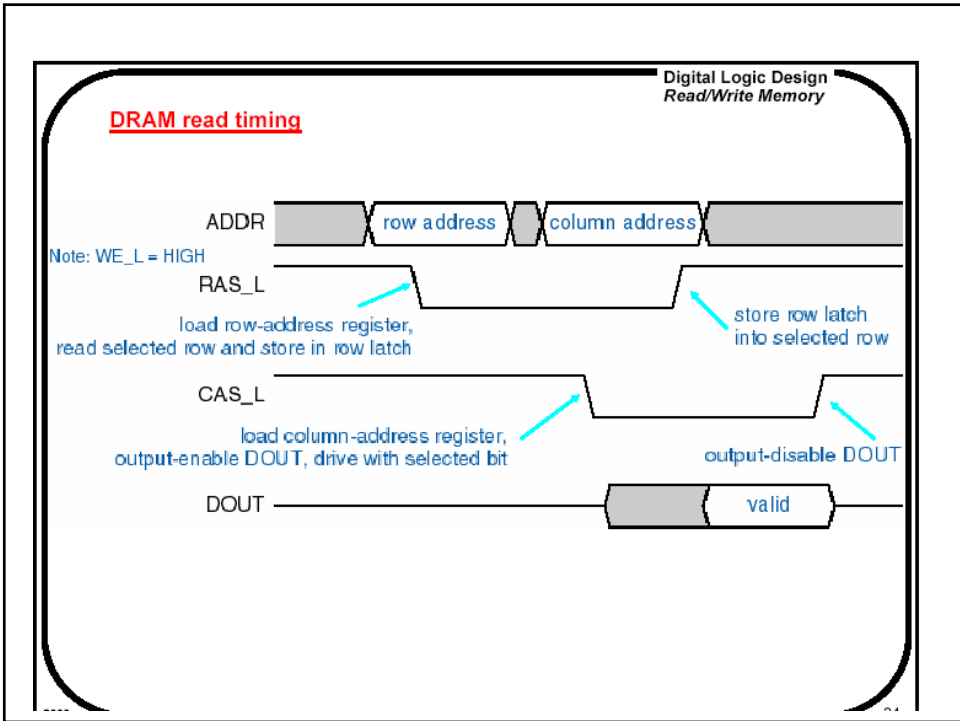
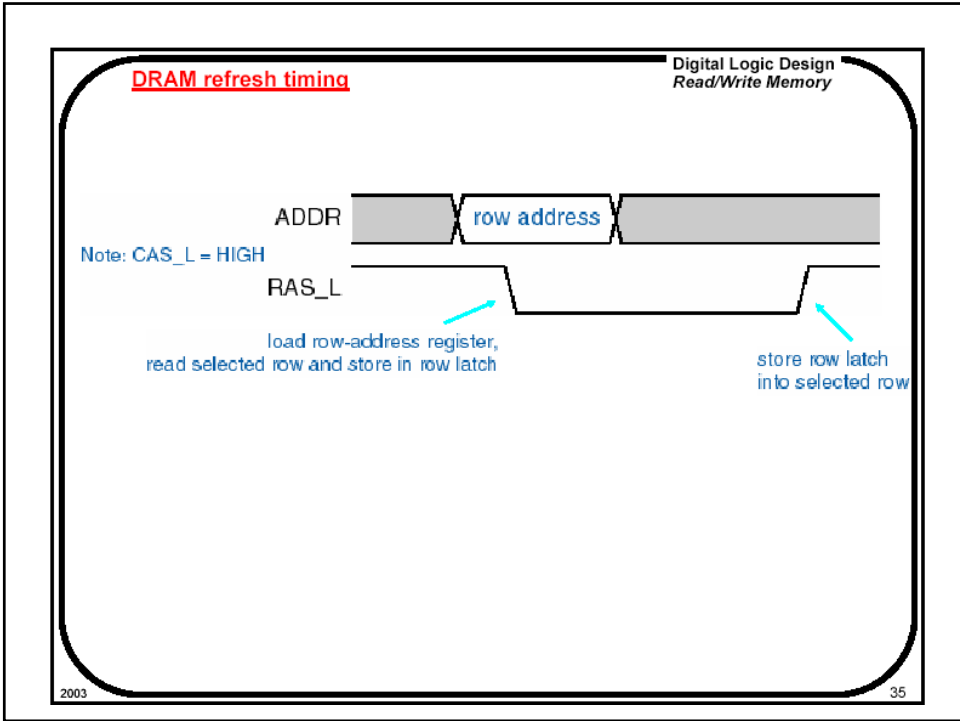
DRAM charge leakage

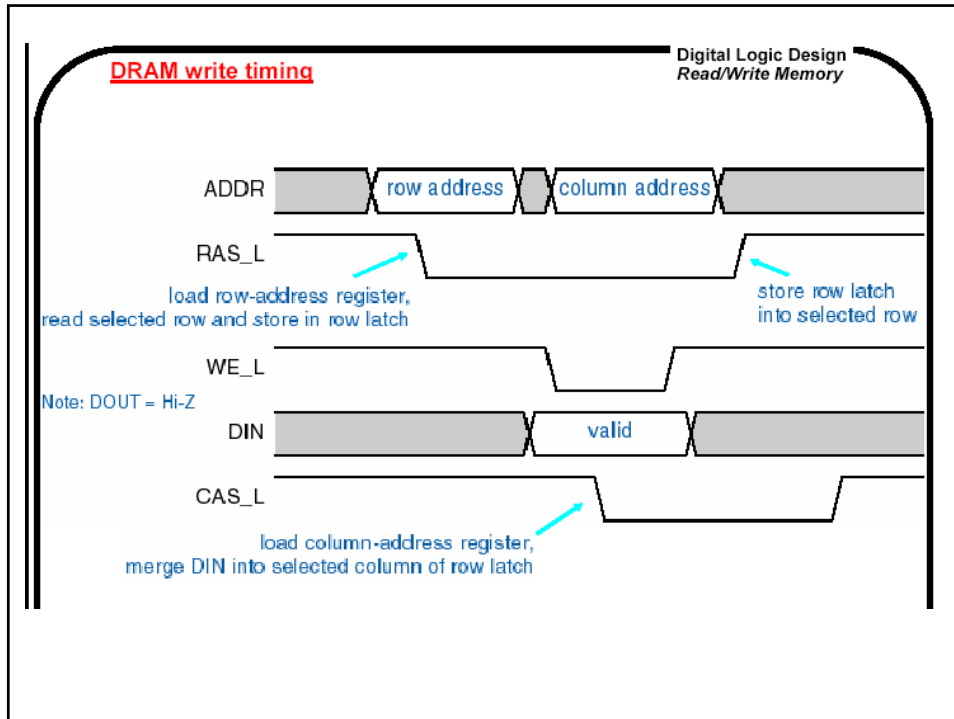
V_{cap}
 V_{cc}
HIGH
LOW
0 V

time

- Typical devices require each cell to be “refreshed” once every 4 to 64 mS.
- During “suspended” operation, notebook computers use power mainly for DRAM refresh.

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Error Detection and Correction

- Used to improve the reliability of the memory unit.
- Parity could be used for a single error detection, multiple parity bits could be used for error correction.
- **Hamming Code:** k parity bits are added to n data bits to form $n+k$ bit word.
- The bit positions are numbered from 1 to $n+k$. The positions numbered as power of 2 are reserved for the parity bits (remaining bits are data bits).

Error Detection and Correction

- **Example:**

Position	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	p_1	p_2	b_0	p_4	b_1	b_2	b_3	p_8	b_4	b_5	b_6	b_7
			1		1	0	0		0	1	0	0
	0	0		1				1				

$P_1 = \text{XOR of bits (3,5,7,9,11)}$

$P_2 = \text{XOR of bits (3,6,7,10,11)}$

$P_4 = \text{XOR of bits (5,6,7,12)}$

$P_8 = \text{XOR of bits (9,10,11,12)}$

Error Detection and Correction

- We read the word, and calculate
- $C_1 = \text{XOR of bits (1,3,5,7,9,11)}$
- $C_2 = \text{XOR of bits (2,3,6,7,10,11)}$
- $C_4 = \text{XOR of bits (4,5,6,7,12)}$
- $C_8 = \text{XOR of bits (8,9,10,11,12)}$
- The number $C = C_8 C_4 C_2 C_1$ is the location of the error, if 0 no error

Error Detection and Correction

- | | C_8 | C_4 | C_2 | C_1 |
|----------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| No error | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Error in bit 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Error in bit 5 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |

C is called the syndrome. It has values in the range of 0 to 2^k-1 . 0 means no error, any other value indicates the error position. Which means that $2^{k-1} \geq n+k$

Error Detection and Correction

- How to arrange the xored bits, for example bit three must be present in P_1 and P_2 , bit 5 must be present in P_4 and P_1 .
- **Single-Error Correction, Double-Error Detection** If we add P_{13} as an extra bit, to be the XOR of the 12 other bits, After reading the word from the memory, the parity bit over the 13 bits are calculated.

Error Detection and Correction

- For even parity

$C=0$ and $P=0$	No error
$C \neq 0$ and $P=1$	A single error can be corrected
$C \neq 0$ and $P=0$	A double error can not be corrected
$C=0$ and $P=1$	Error in the P_{13} bit.

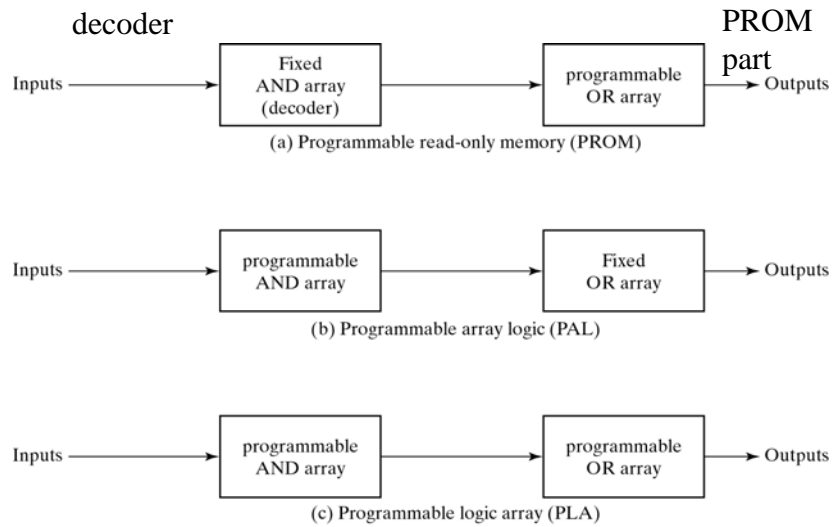
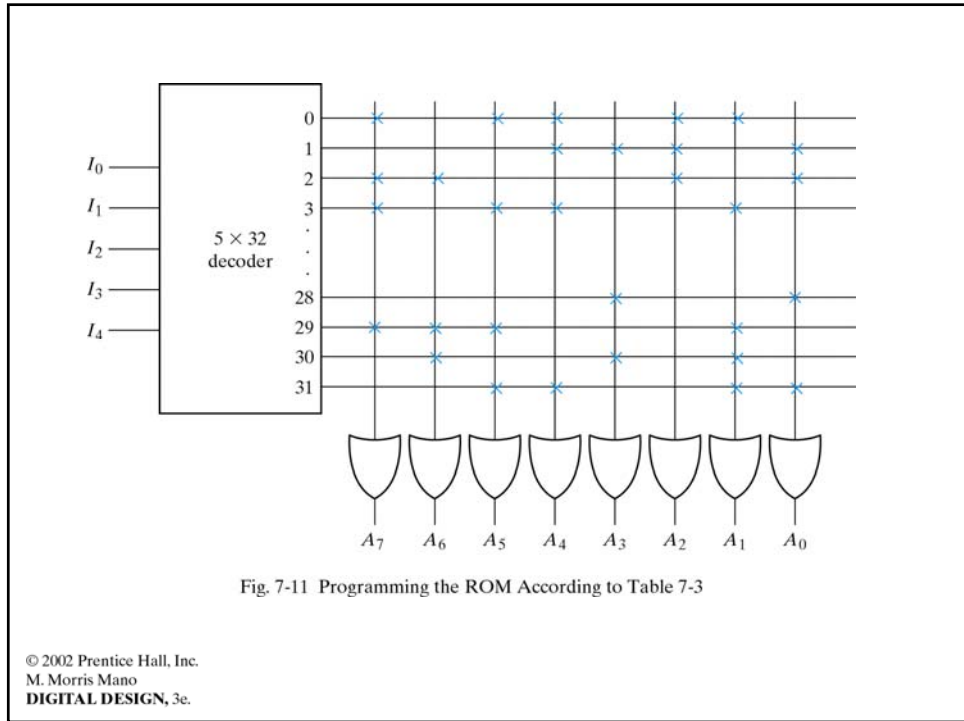
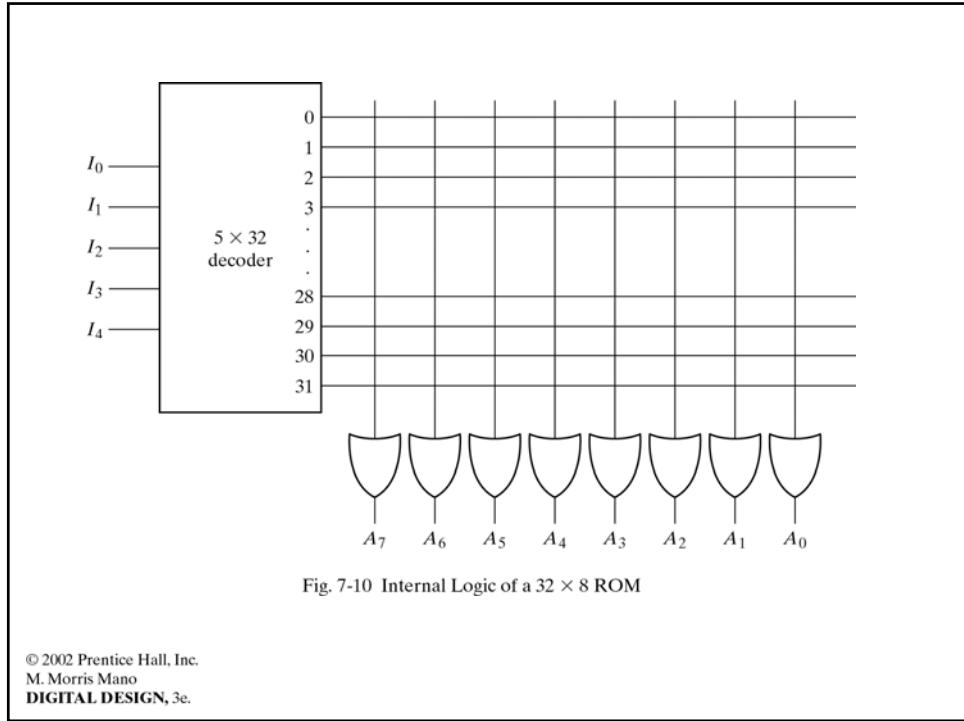


Fig. 7-13 Basic Configuration of Three PLDs



Programmable Logic Arrays

- Similar to PROM except it does not have the full decoding capabilities and does not produce all the minterms.
- The decoder is replaced by an array of AND's that could be programmed to generate any product term of the input var.
- The product terms are connected to OR's to produce the SoP

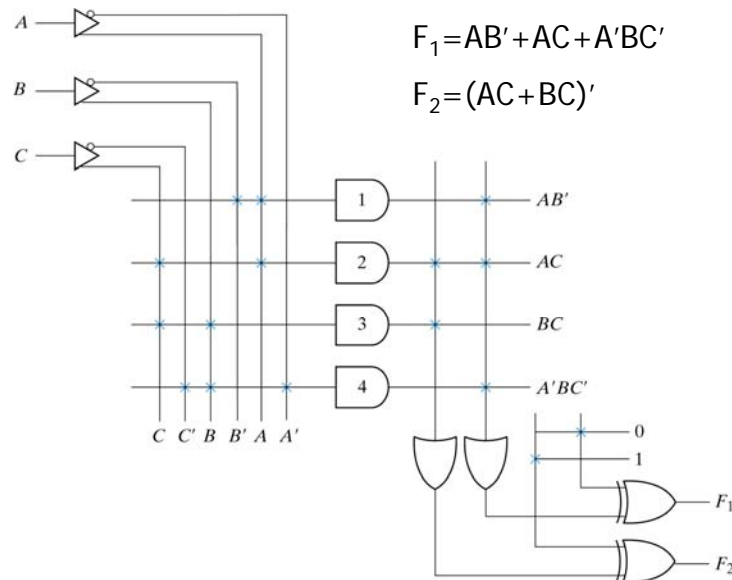


Fig. 7-14 PLA with 3 Inputs, 4 Product Terms, and 2 Outputs

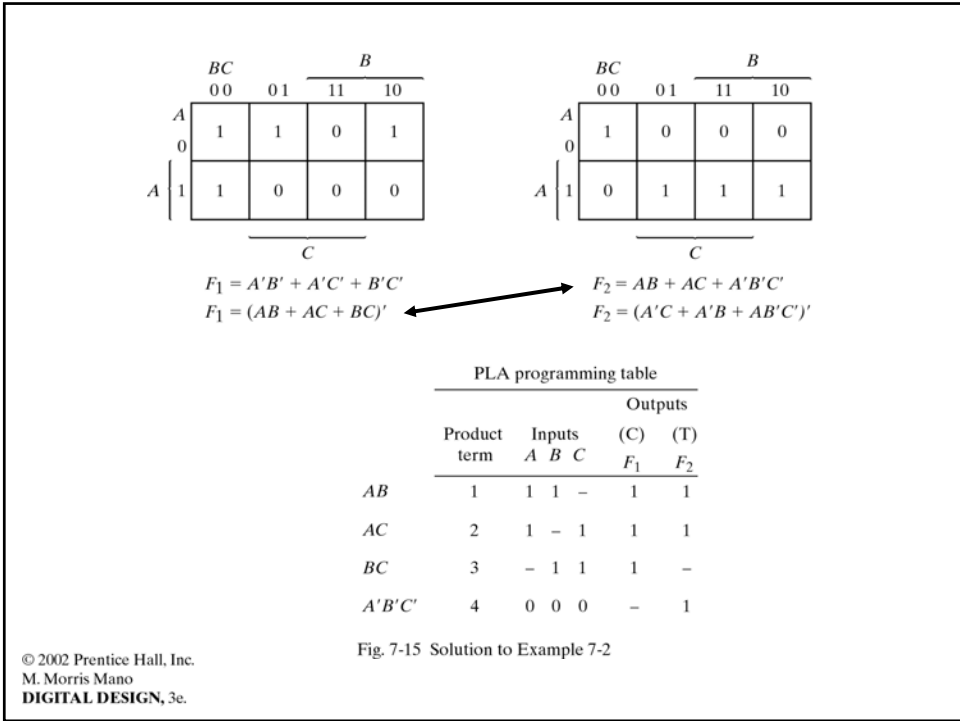


Fig. 7-15 Solution to Example 7-2

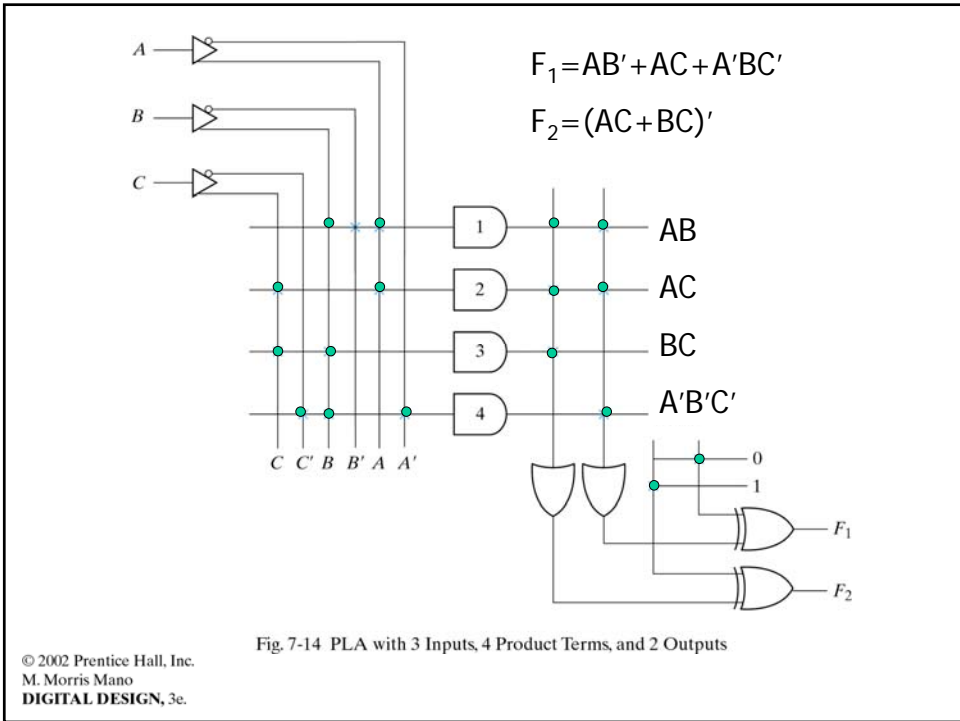


Fig. 7-14 PLA with 3 Inputs, 4 Product Terms, and 2 Outputs

Programmable Array Logic

- Only the AND gates are programmable, easier to program but not as flexible.
- Figure shows 4 inputs (each input has a buffer inverter gate) and 4 outputs.
- Each output is generated by a fixed OR gate.

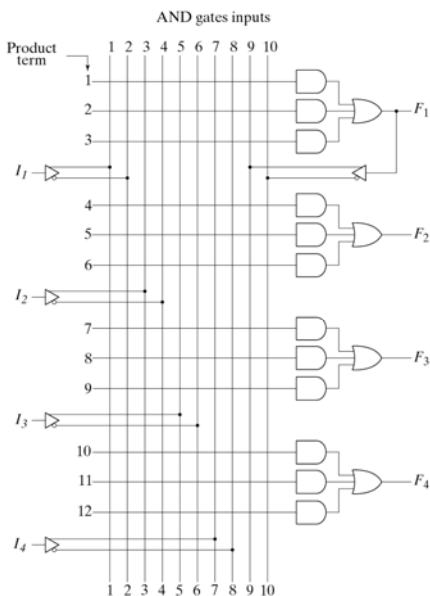


Fig. 7-16 PAL with Four Inputs, Four Outputs, and Three-Wide AND-OR Structure

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PAL Example

- After minimization

$$W = ABC' + A'B'CD'$$

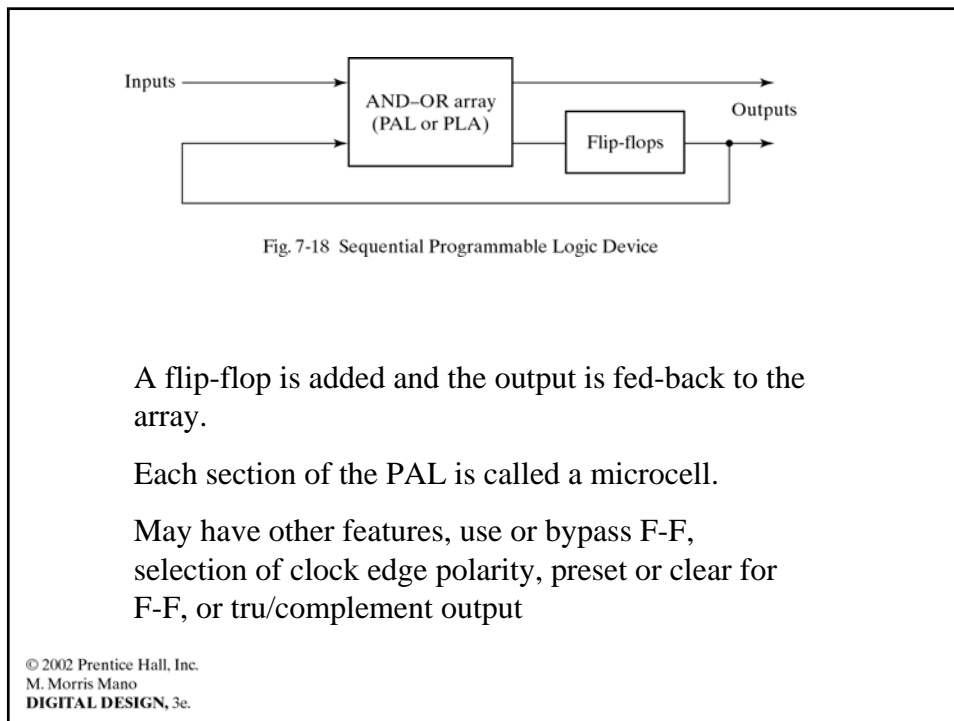
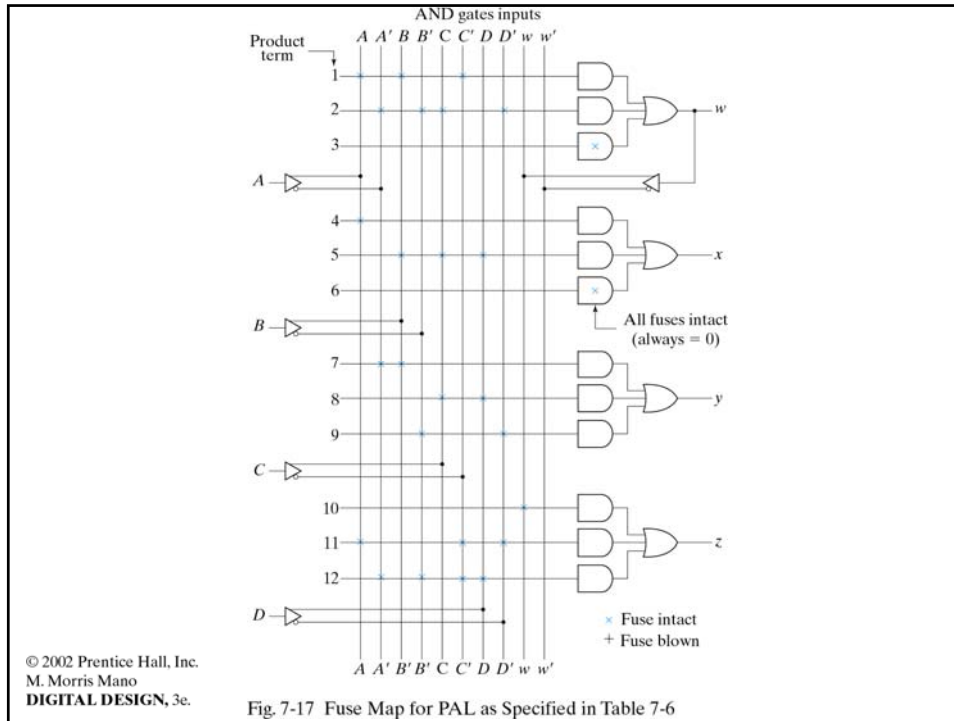
$$X = A + BCD$$

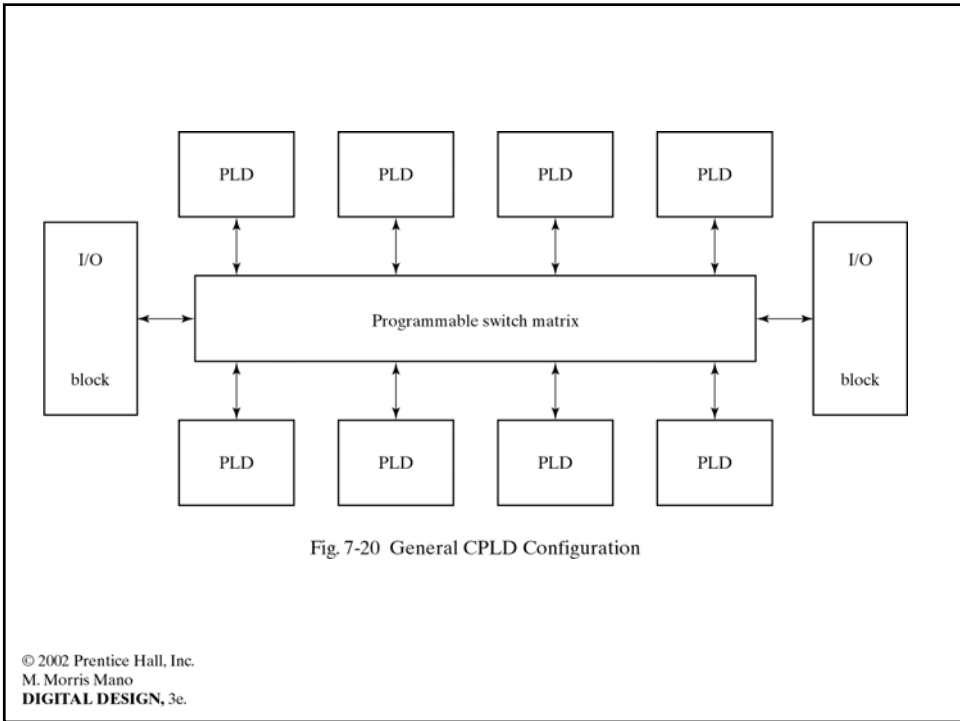
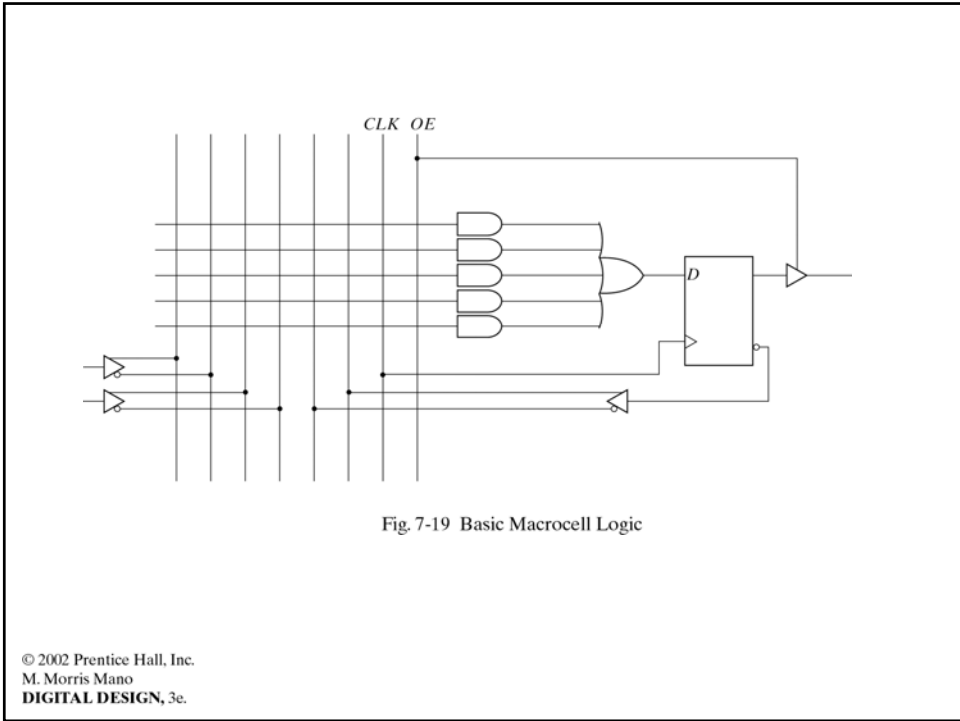
$$Y = A'B + CD + B'D'$$

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= ABC' + A'B'CD' + AC'D' + A'B'C'D \\ &= W + AC'D' + A'B'C'D \end{aligned}$$

PAL Example

Product Term	AND inputs				Output
	A	B	C	D	
1	1	1	0	-	w = ABC'
2	0	0	1	0	+ A'B'CD'
3	-	-	-	-	
4	1	-	-	-	x = A
5	-	1	1	1	+ BCD
6	-	-	-	-	
7	0	1	-	-	y = A'B
8	-	-	1	1	+ CD
9	-	0	-	0	+ B'D'
10	-	-	-	1	z = w
11	1	-	0	0	+ AC'D'
12	0	0	0	1	+ A'B'C'D





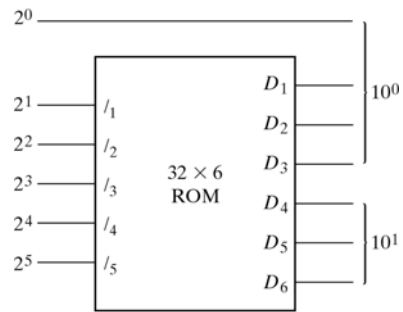


Fig. P7-17

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