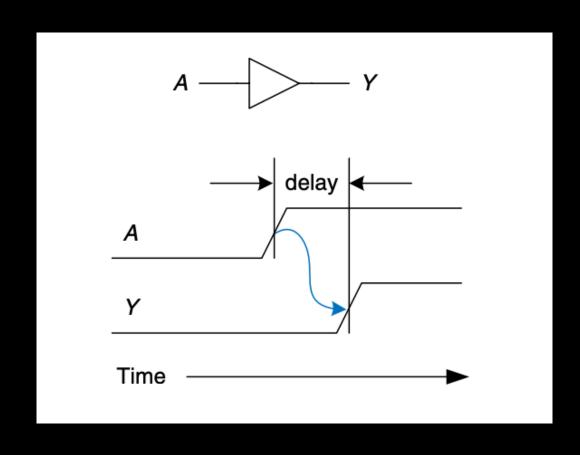
CSC258 Week 6

Circuit Timing

Timing

- So far we have been worrying whether a circuit is correct.
- Now let's think about how to make a circuit fast.
- Key concept: latency
 - propagation delay
 - contamination delay

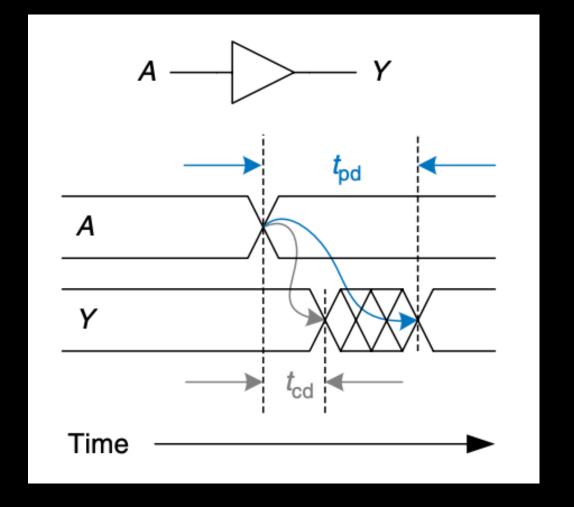
Delay Example



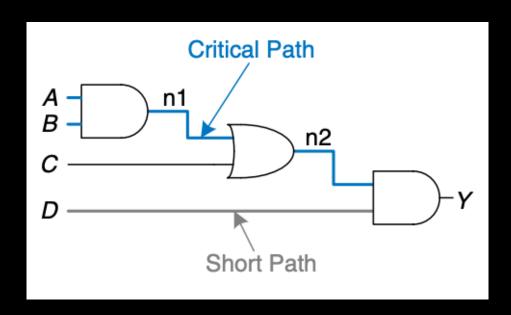
• We measure the interval between the two "50% points" of the changing signals

Propagation & Contamination Delay

- Propagation delay: the maximum time from when an input changes until the output or outputs reach their final value.
- Contamination delay: the minimum time from when an input changes until any output starts to change its value.



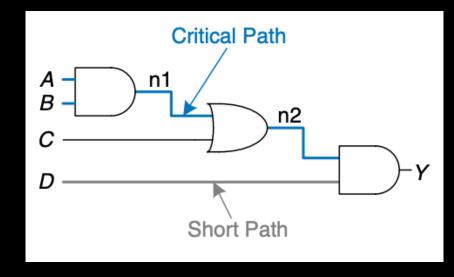
Given a circuit diagram, calculate its propagation delay and contamination delay



Need to know

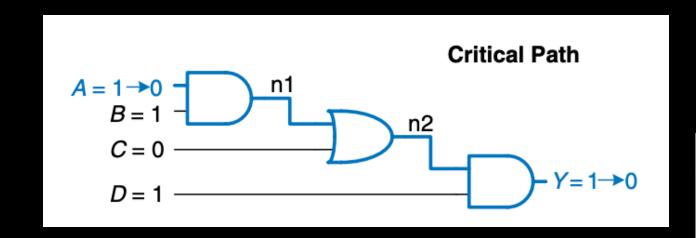
 The propagation and contamination delay of each logic gate used

Gate	t_pd (propagation)	t_cd (contamination)
2-input AND	100 picoseconds	6o picoseconds
2-input OR	120 picoseconds	40 picoseconds



Calculate Propagation Delay

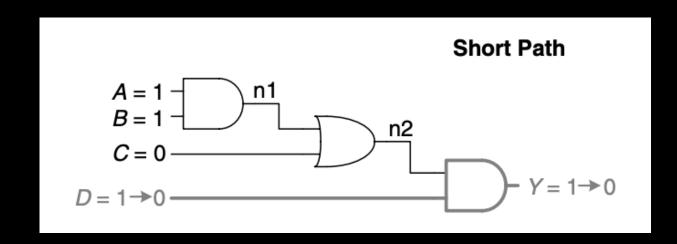
- Find the critical path (path with the largest number of gates)
- then sum up the propagation delay of all the gates on the critical path
- 100 + 120 + 100 = 320 picose conds



Gate	t_pd	t_cd
2-input AND	100 ps	60 ps
2-input OR	120 ps	40 ps

Calculate Contamination Delay

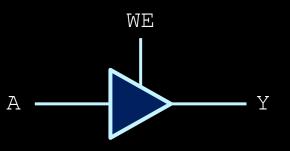
- Find the short path (path with the smallest number of gates)
- then sum up the contamination delay of all the gates on the short path
- 60 seconds



Gate	t_pd	t_cd
2-input AND	100 ps	6o ps
2-input OR	120 ps	40 ps

Knowing how to calculate delays allows us to design circuits that are fast.

Quick intro: Tri-state buffer

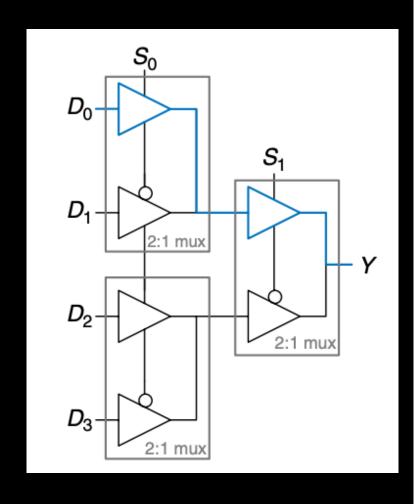


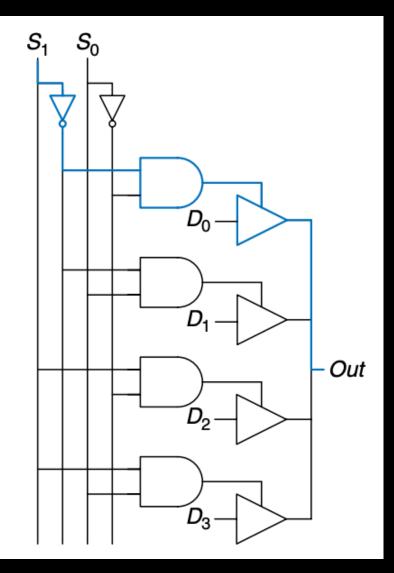
WE	Α	Υ
0	x	Z
1	0	0
1	1	1

$$WE = 1$$

$$WE = o$$

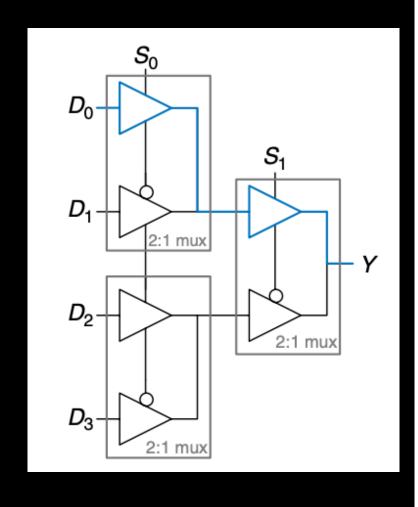
Example: design fast circuit

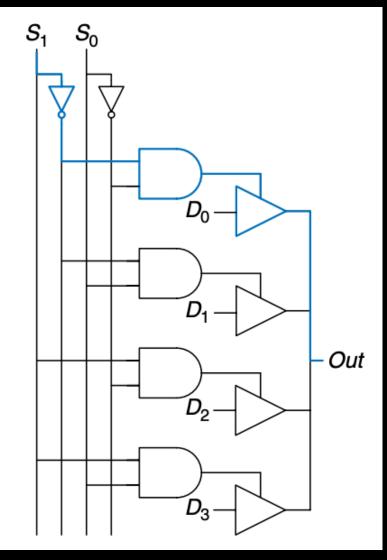




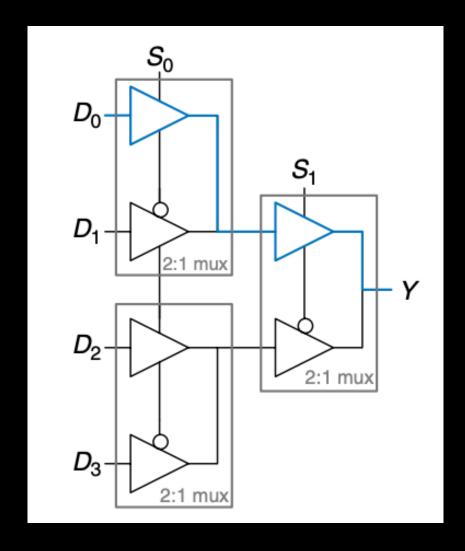
4-1 muxes

Example: design fast circuit





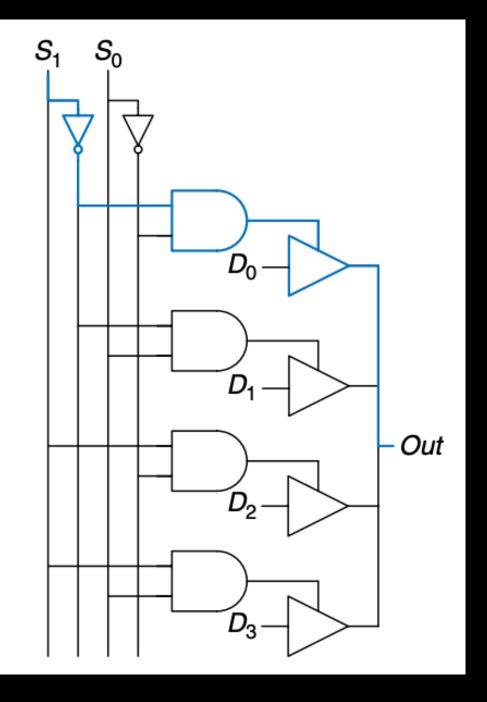
- We care about the propagation delays of the two circuits.
 - it tells us "how soon I can get the answer"
- More specifically, we care about the D-to-Y delay and S-to-Y delay because D and S may arrive at different time.



Gate	t _{pd} (ps)
NOT	30
2-input AND	60
3-input AND	80
4-input OR	90
tristate (A to Y)	50
tristate (enable to Y)	35

- D-to-Y propagation delay:
- 2 x TRISTATE AY = 100

- S-to-Y propagation delay
- TRISTATE_ENY + TRISTATE_AY
- **■** = 35 + 50 = 85



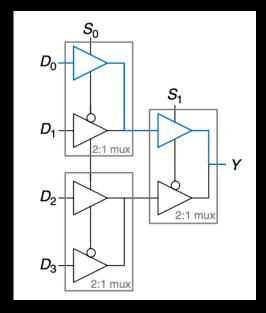
Gate	t _{pd} (ps)
NOT	30
2-input AND	60
3-input AND	80
4-input OR	90
tristate (A to Y)	50
tristate (enable to Y)	35

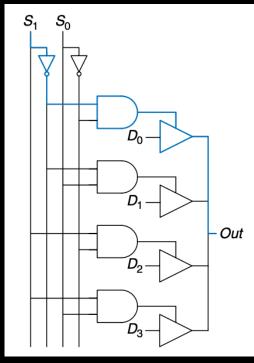
- D-to-Y propagation delay:
- TRISTATE AY = 50

- S-to-Y propagation delay
- NOT + AND2 + TRISTATE_ENY
- \blacksquare = 30 + 60 + 35 = 125

Analysis result

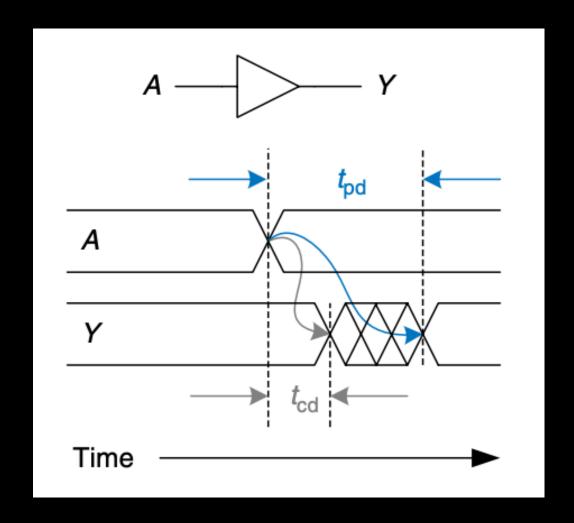
- Circuit 1 propagation:
 - D-to-Y: 100 ps
 - S-to-Y: 85 ps
- Circuit 2 propagation
 - D-to-Y: 50 ps
 - S-to-Y: 125 ps
- Which circuit is faster?
 - What if D and S arrive at the same time?
 - What if D arrives earlier than S?
 - What if S arrives earlier than D?





Delays: the lower/higher, the better?

- Propagation delay, typically, should be upper-bounded.
 - shorter propagation means getting answer faster
 - How to make it lower?
 - shorten the critical path
- Contamination delay, typically, should be lower-bounded
 - want to reliably sample the value before change.
 - How to make it longer?
 - add buffers to the short path











New Topic:

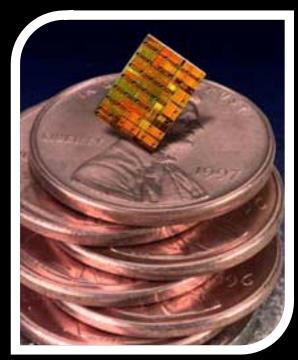
Processor Components



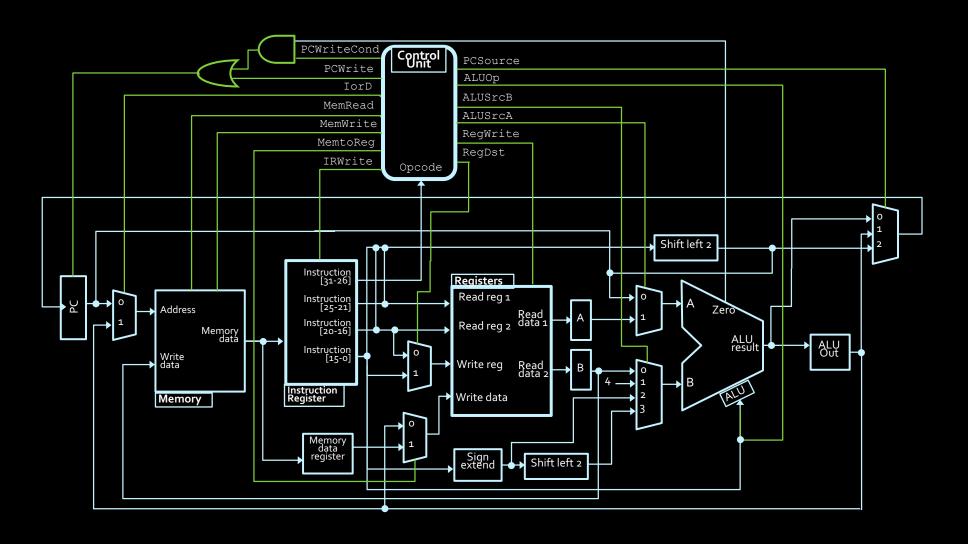
Using what we have learned so far (combinational logic, devices, sequential circuits, FSMs), how do we build a processor?

Microprocessors

- So far, we've been talking about making devices, such as adders, counters and registers.
- The ultimate goal is to make a microprocessor, which is a digital device that processes input, can store values and produces output, according to a set of on-board instructions.

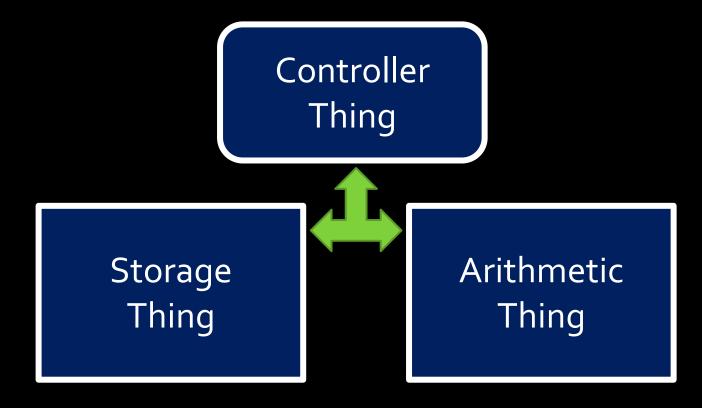


The Final Destination



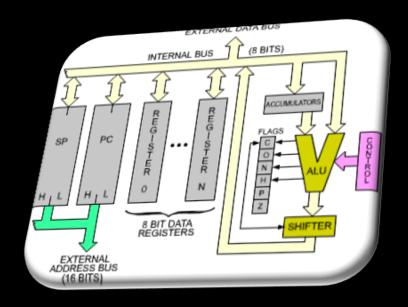
Deconstructing processors

 Processors aren't so bad when you consider them piece by piece:



Microprocessors

- These devices are a combination of the units that we've discussed so far:
 - Registers to store values.
 - Adders and shifters to process data.
 - Finite state machines to control the process.
- Microprocessors are the basis of all computing since the 1970's, and can be found in nearly every sort of electronics.

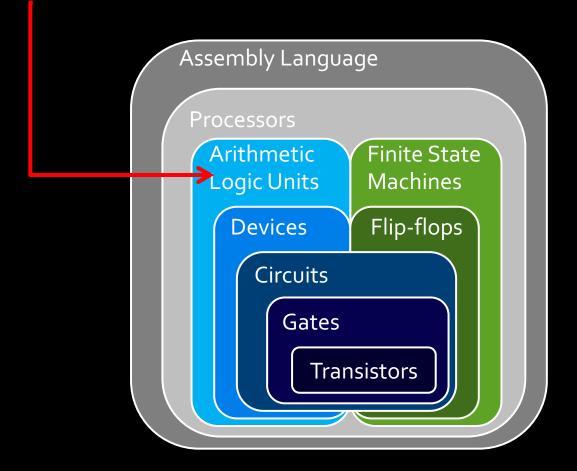


The "Arithmetic Thing"

aka: the Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

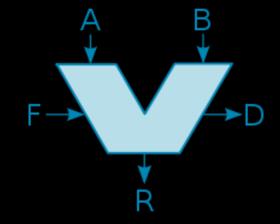


We are here



Arithmetic Logic Unit

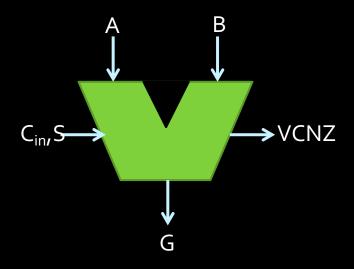
- The first microprocessor applications were calculators.
 - Recall the unit on adders and subtractors.
 - These are part of a larger structure called the arithmetic logic unit (ALU).



 This larger structure is responsible for the processing of all data values in a basic CPU.

ALU inputs

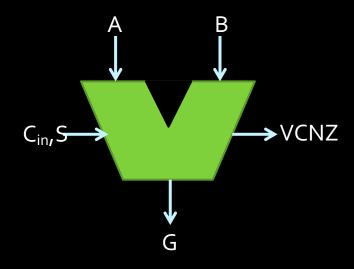
The ALU performs all of the arithmetic operations covered in this course so far, and logical operations as well (AND, OR, NOT, etc.)



- A and B are the oprands
- The select bits (S) indicate which operation is being performed (S2 is a mode select bit, indicating whether the ALU is in arithmetic or logic mode).
- The carry bit C_{in} is used in operations such as incrementing an input value or the overall result.

ALU outputs

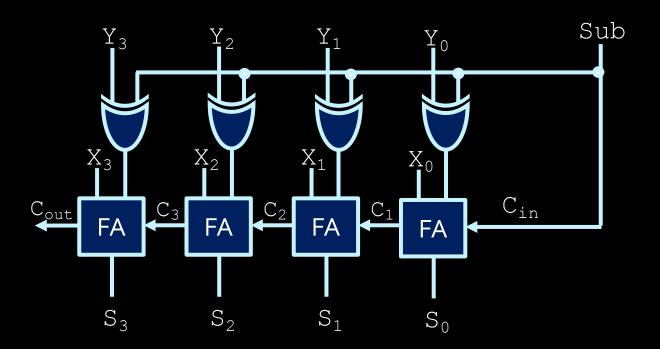
• In addition to the input signals, there are output signals V, C, N & Z which indicate special conditions in the arithmetic result:



- V: overflow condition
 - The result of the operation could not be stored in the n bits of G, meaning that the result is incorrect.
- C: carry-out bit
- N: Negative indicator
- Z: Zero-condition indicator

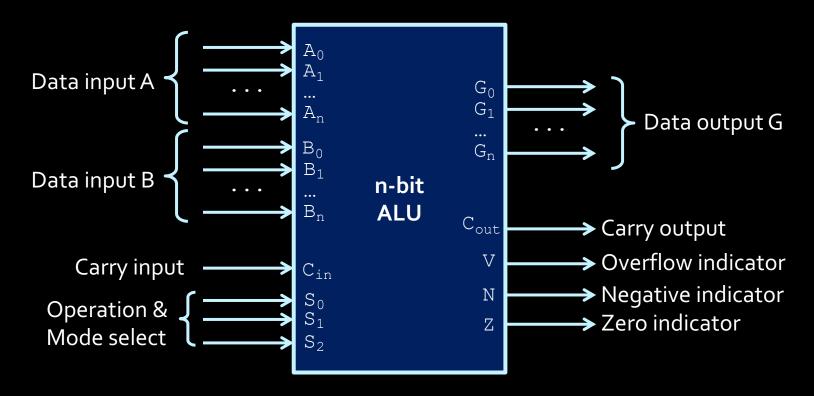
The "A" of ALU

- To understand how the ALU does all of these operations, let's start with the arithmetic side.
- Fundamentally, this side is made of an adder / subtractor unit, which we've seen already:

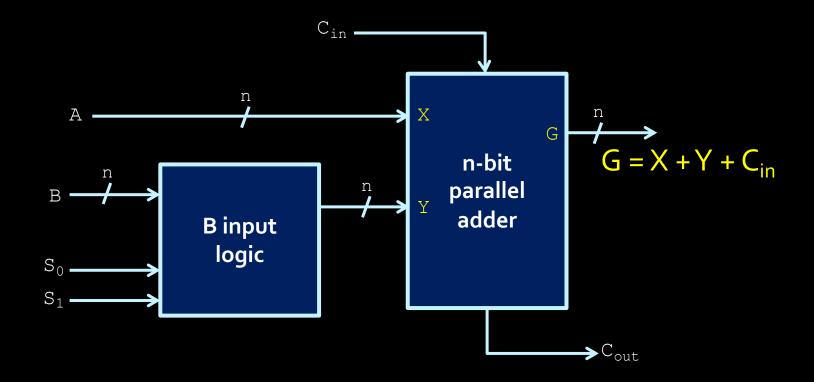


ALU block diagram

- In addition to data inputs and outputs, this circuit also has:
 - outputs indicating the different conditions,
 - inputs specifying the operation to perform (similar to Sub).

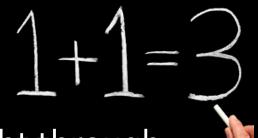


Arithmetic components



■ In addition to addition and subtraction, many more operations can be performed by manipulating what is added to input B, as shown in the diagram above.

Arithmetic operations



- If the input logic circuit on the left sends B straight through to the adder, result is G = A+B
- What if B was replaced by all ones instead?
 - Result of addition operation: G = A 1
- What if B was replaced by \overline{B} ?
 - Result of addition operation: G = A B 1
- And what if B was replaced by all zeroes?
 - Result is: G = A. (Not interesting, but useful!)
- \rightarrow Instead of a Sub signal, the operation you want is signaled using the select bits S₀ & S₁.

Operation selection

Select bits		Y .	Result	Operation
S ₁	S ₀	input		
0	0	All 0s	G = A	Transfer
0	1	В	G = A+B	Addition
1	0	В	$G = A + \overline{B}$	Subtraction - 1
1	1	All 1s	G = A-1	Decrement

- This is a good start! But something is missing...
- What about the carry bit?

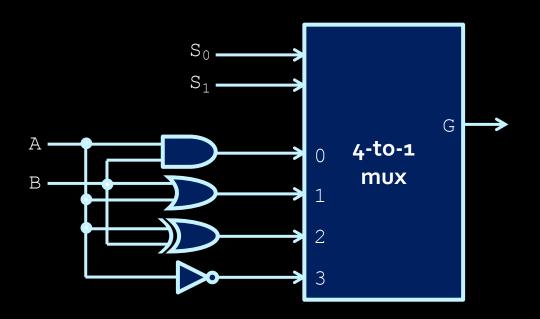
Full operation selection

Sel	ect	Input	Operation	
S ₁	S ₀	Y	C _{in} =0	C _{in} =1
0	0	All 0s	G = A (transfer)	G = A+1 (increment)
0	1	В	G = A + B (add)	G = A+B+1
1	0	B	$G = A + \overline{B}$	$G = A + \overline{B} + 1$ (subtract)
1	1	All 1s	G = A-1 (decrement)	G = A (transfer)

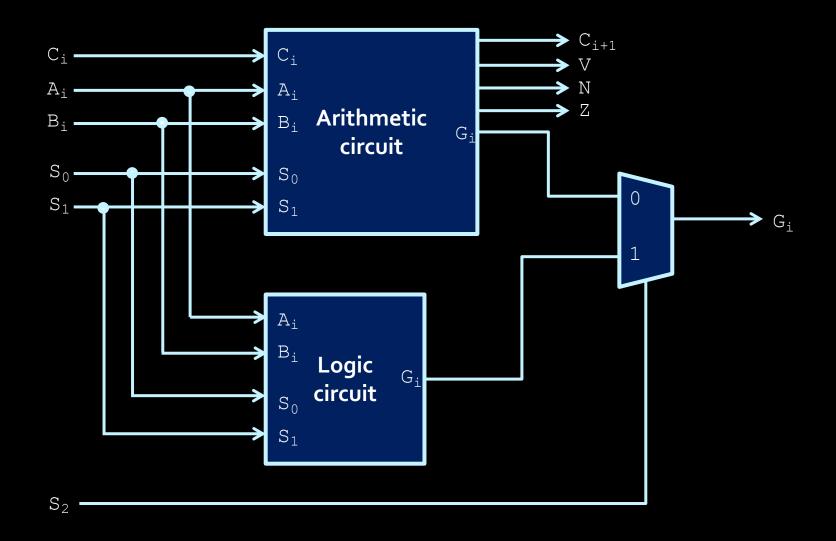
■ Based on the values on the select bits and the carry bit, we can perform any number of basic arithmetic operations by manipulating what value is added to A.

The "L" of ALU

- We also want a circuit that can perform logical operations, in addition to arithmetic ones.
- How do we tell which operation to perform?
 - Another select bit!
- If $S_2 = 1$, then logic circuit block is activated.
- Multiplexer is used to determine which block (logical or arithmetic) goes to the output.



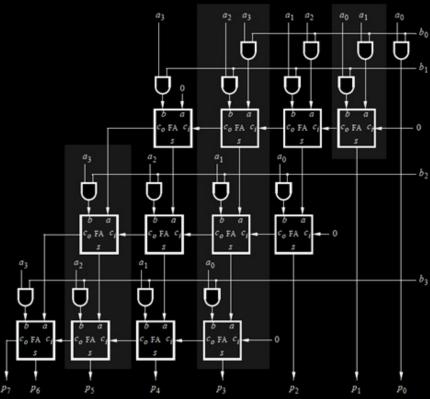
Single ALU Stage



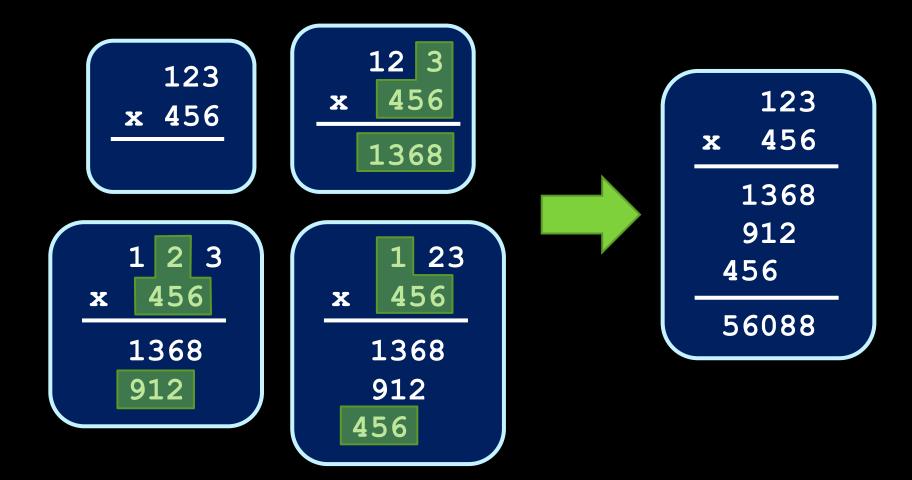
What about multiplication?

- Multiplication (and division) operations are always more complicated than other arithmetic (addition, subtraction) or logical (AND, OR) operations.
- Three major ways that multiplication can be implemented in circuitry:
 - Layered rows of adder units.
 - An adder/shifter circuit
 - Booth's Algorithm

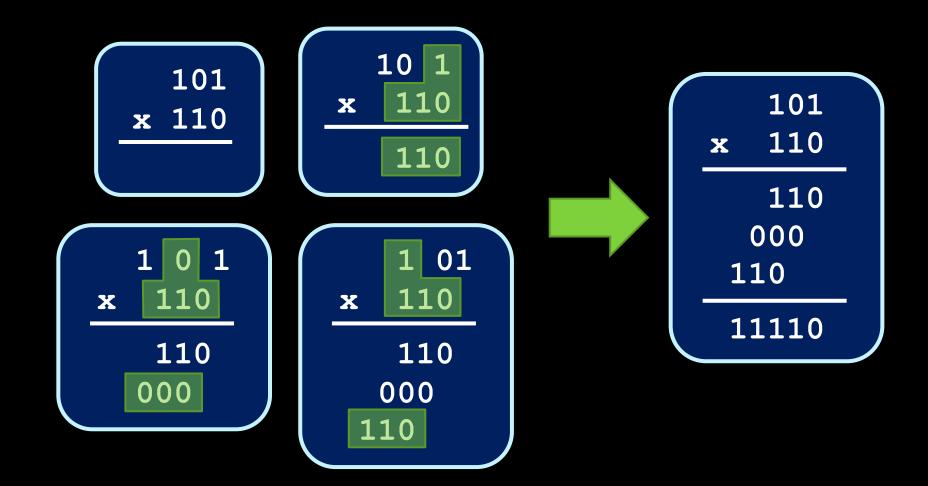
- Multiplier circuits can be constructed as an array of adder circuits.
- This can get a little
 expensive as the size of the operands grows.
- Is there an alternative to this circuit?



Revisiting grade 3 math...

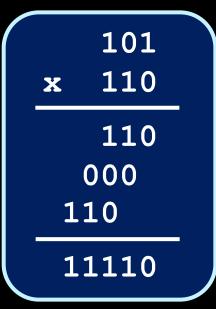


And now, in binary....



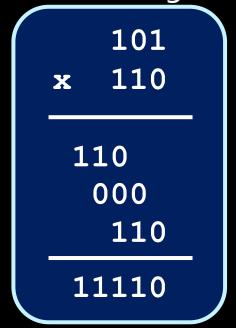
Observations

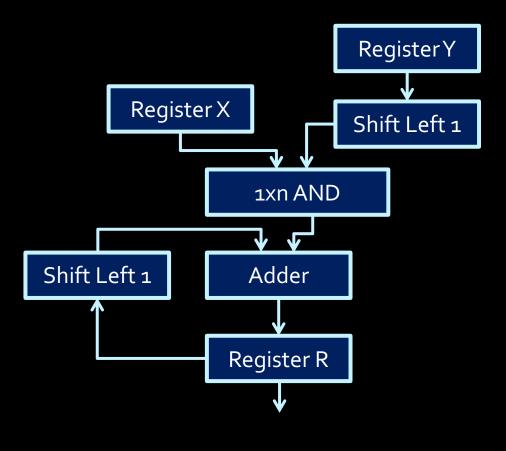
- Calculation flow
 - Multiply by 1 bit of multiplier
 - Add to sum and shift sum
 - Shift multiplier by 1 bit
 - Repeat the above
- What is "multiply by 1 bit of binary"?
 - □ 10101 x 1 ?
 - □ 10101 x 0 ?
 - It's an AND!



Accumulator circuits

- What if you could perform each stage of the multiplication operation, one after the other?
 - This circuit would only need a single row of adders and a couple of shift registers.





Make it more efficient

Think about 258 x 9999

 Multiply by 9, add to sum, shift, multiply by 9, add to sum, shift, multiple by 9, add to sum, shift, multiply by 9, add to sum.

- \blacksquare 258 x 9999 = 258 x (10000 1) = 258 x 10000 258
- Just shift 258, becomes 2580000, then do 2580000 258
- More efficient!

Efficient Multiplication: Booth's Algorithm

- Take advantage of circuits where shifting is cheaper than adding, or where space is at a premium.
 - when multiplying by certain values (e.g. 99), it can be easier to think of this operation as a difference between two products.
- Consider the shortcut method when multiplying a given decimal value X by 9999:
- Now consider the equivalent problem in binary:
- More details: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Booth%27s_multiplication_algorithm

Reflections on multiplication

- Multiplication isn't as common an operation as addition or subtraction, but occurs enough that its implementation is handled in the hardware.
- Most common multiplication and division operations are powers of 2. For this, we do shifting instead of using the multiplier circuit.
 - e.g., in your code, do x << 3, instead of x * 8

