

**University of California at Berkeley**  
**College of Engineering**  
**Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Sciences**

EECS150  
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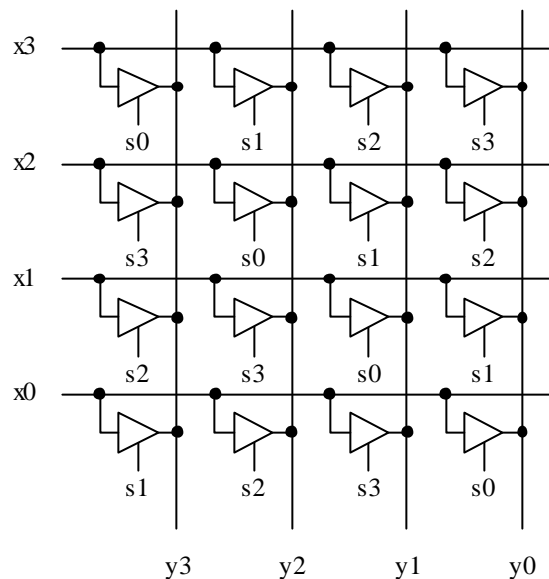
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Homework #4 – Solution

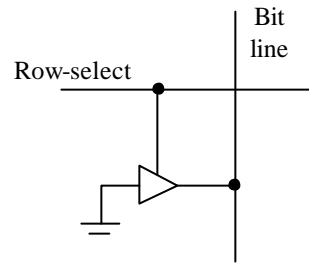
1. We implement a rightward *bit rotator* using tri-states. Given a 4-bit input  $\{x_3 \ x_2 \ x_1 \ x_0\}$  and a one-hot-encoded rotation amount  $\{s_3 \ s_2 \ s_1 \ s_0\}$ , the bit rotator produces output  $\{y_3 \ y_2 \ y_1 \ y_0\}$  as follows:

Rotation $\{s_3 \ s_2 \ s_1 \ s_0\}$	Output $\{y_3 \ y_2 \ y_1 \ y_0\}$
0 0 0 1	$\{x_3 \ x_2 \ x_1 \ x_0\}$
0 0 1 0	$\{x_0 \ x_3 \ x_2 \ x_1\}$
0 1 0 0	$\{x_1 \ x_0 \ x_3 \ x_2\}$
1 0 0 0	$\{x_2 \ x_1 \ x_0 \ x_3\}$

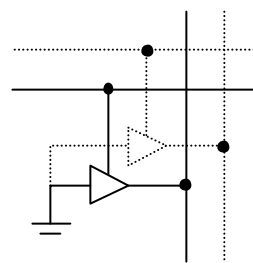
Tri-state buffers are useful for implementing a *shared bus*, *i.e.* a line with many writers, only one of which may write at any given time. For the bit rotator, we create a shared bus for each output, with the writers being tri-stated copies of the inputs. The rotation amount  $\{s_3 \ s_2 \ s_1 \ s_0\}$  controls the tri-states to determine which input writes to which output.



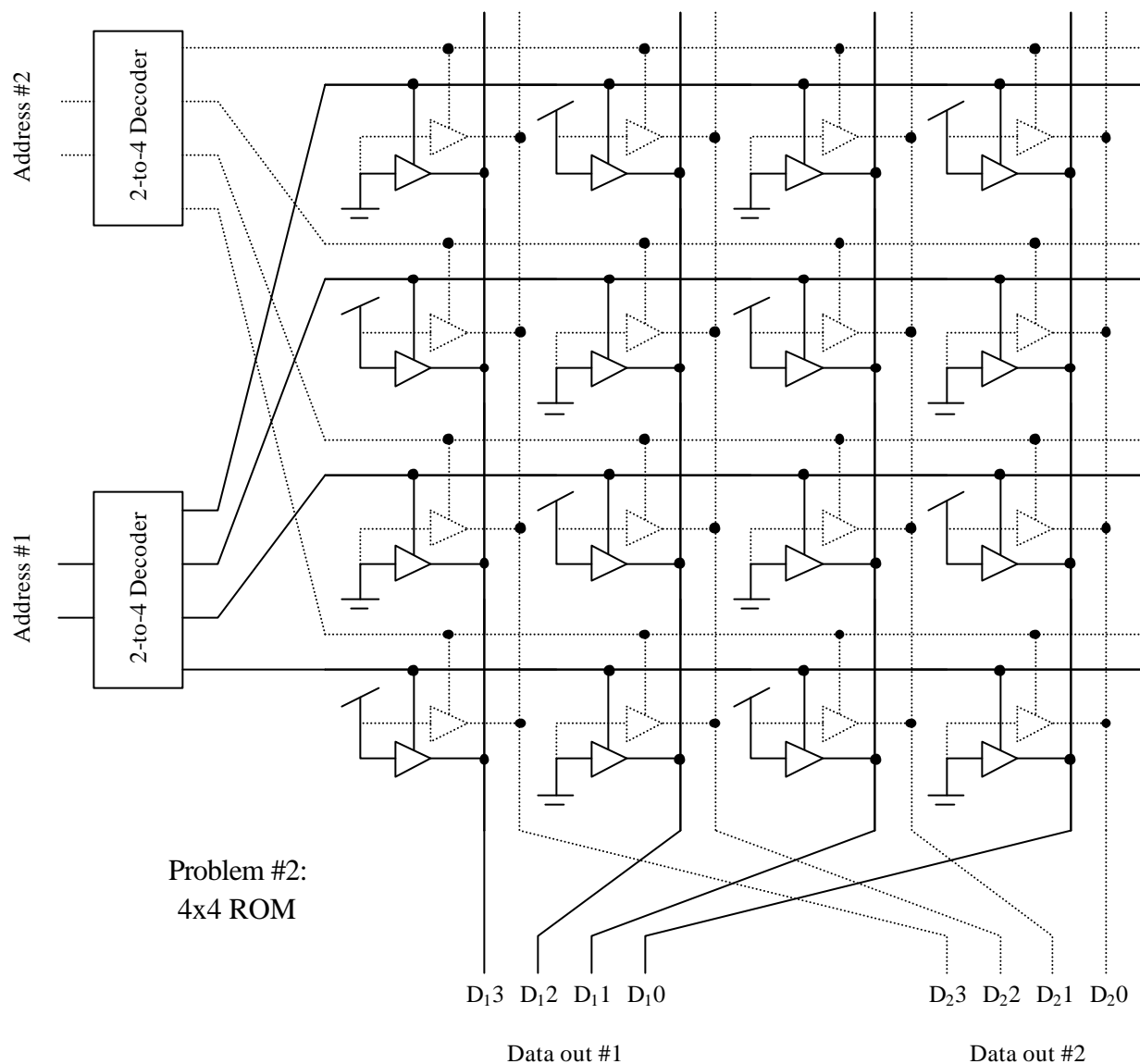
2. A basic 4x4 memory structure needs 4 rows (1 row per address) and 4 columns (1 per bit of output). The address input is decoded into a one-hot collection of “row-select” bits used to activate whichever row corresponds to the address. The cells of the active row then write onto vertical bit lines to produce the output data. To make this structure dual ported, we duplicate the address input, row-select lines, and bit lines. Each cell must now have two separate tri-states for output.



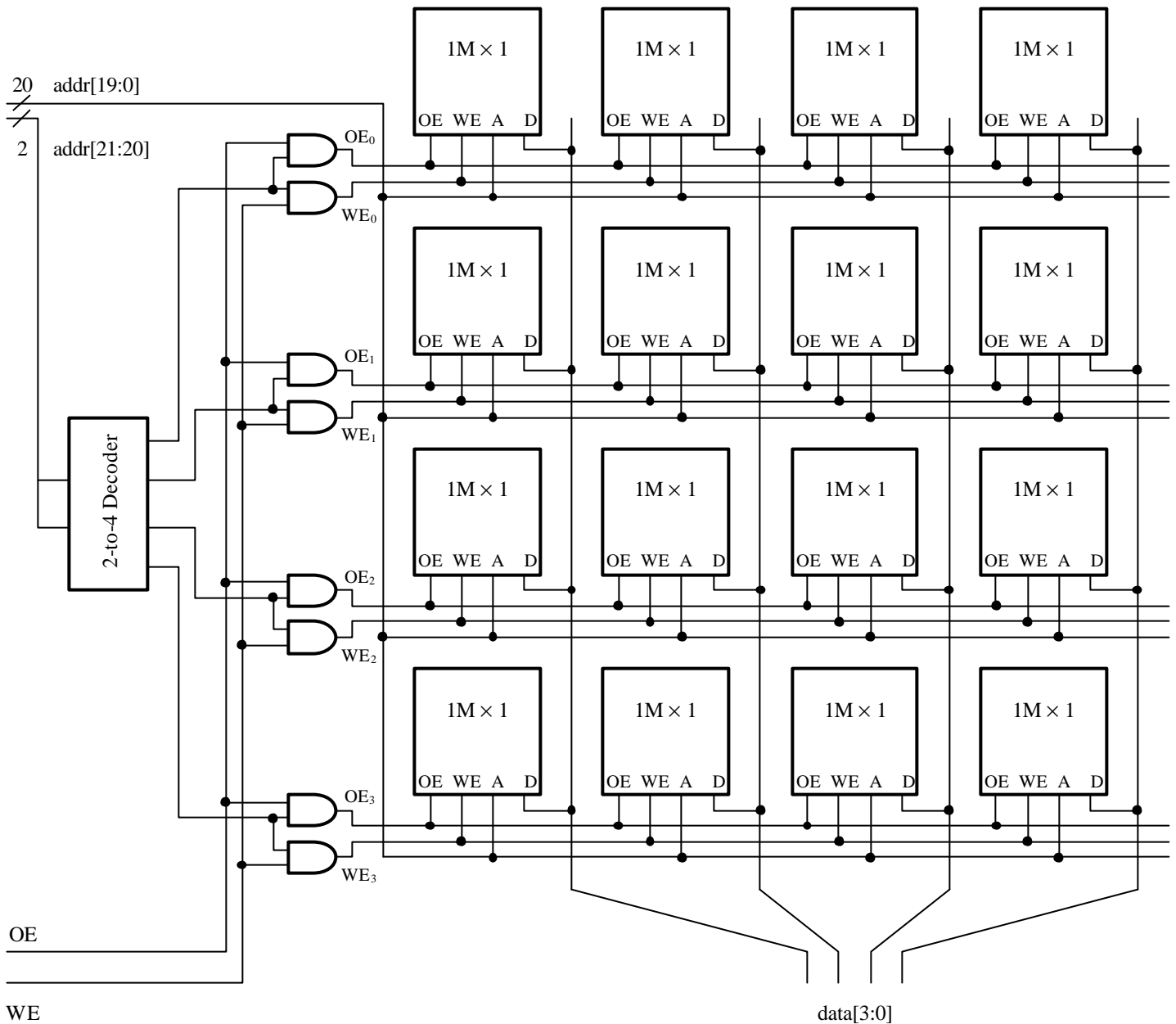
Single-port ROM cell



Dual-port ROM cell



- The process of creating a large memory from smaller ones is an extension of the process of creating a basic memory from bit cells. We create one row per multiplicative increase in the number of addresses, and one column per multiplicative increase in the number of data bits. To create a  $4\text{Mbit} \times 4$  RAM from  $1\text{Mbit} \times 1$  components, we need 4 rows (to quadruple the address space) and 4 columns (to quadruple the data width). We give the  $4\text{Mbit} \times 4$  RAM an interface analogous to that of the  $1\text{Mbit} \times 1$  component: 22 address bits, 4 data bits, WE, and OE. For each row of  $1\text{Mbit} \times 1$  components, we generate  $\text{WE}_{\text{row}}$  and  $\text{OE}_{\text{row}}$  by AND-ing the global signals WE and OE with a row-specific “row-select” signal generated by decoding the top two address bits.



It is possible to simplify the interface for the  $4\text{Mbit} \times 4$  RAM by removing the global OE signal. In such a configuration, the global WE alone determines the read/write mode: high for a write, low for a read. Each row gets:  $\text{WE}_{\text{row}} = \text{WE AND row-select}$ , and  $\text{OE}_{\text{row}} = (\text{WE})' \text{ AND row-select}$ . Note that a memory in this configuration can no longer be easily composed into yet larger memories.

4. We have seen in lecture that the delay of a transmission line increases with the square of its length:  $t = kL^2$  (for some constant  $k$ ). Introducing a buffer in the middle of a transmission line splits it into two halves, each with delay:  $t_{1/2} = k(L/2)^2$ . The total delay through both halves plus the buffer is:

$$\begin{aligned} t_{\text{buffered}} &= 2t_{1/2} + t_{\text{buffer}} \\ &= 2k(L/2)^2 + t_{\text{buffer}} \\ &= (1/2)kL^2 + t_{\text{buffer}} \\ &= (1/2)t + t_{\text{buffer}} \end{aligned}$$

When a wire is long enough to be treated as a transmission line, its parasitic effects are more significant than a single buffer delay (*i.e.*:  $t \gg t_{\text{buffer}}$ ). Thus we can ignore the buffer delay and approximate:  $t_{\text{buffered}} = (1/2)t$ .

The so-called *time constant*  $t$  of a circuit is the time it takes for a signal transition to complete  $(1 - 1/e) \approx 63\%$  of its level change. This time constant is often used as a measure of characteristic delay. For a transmission line dominated by resistive and capacitive effects – assuming a length  $L$ , resistance  $R/L$  Ohms per unit length, and capacitance  $C/L$  Farads per unit length – the time constant is:  $t = (RL)(C/L)L^2/2$ , or more simply:  $t = kL^2$ , with constant  $k = (RL)(C/L)/2$ . Thus the time constant of a transmission line increases with the square of its length.