Logic Design

Number Representation and Arithmetic Circuits



- Numbers that are positive only are called unsigned and numbers that can be positive or negative are called signed
- Numbers could be integer or real
- Simplest: unsigned integer
- A decimal integer:

 $D = d_{n-1}d_{n-2}...d_1d_0$ $V(D) = d_{n-1} \times 10^{n-1} + d_{n-2} \times 10^{n-2} + ... + d_1 \times 10^1 + d_0 \times 10^0$



• Binary numbers:

$$B = b_{n-1}b_{n-2}..b_{1}b_{0}$$

$$V(B) = b_{n-1} \times 2^{n-1} + b_{n-2} \times 2^{n-2} + ..+ b_{1} \times 2^{1} + b_{0} \times 2^{0}$$

1101

$$V = 1 \times 2^{3} + 1 \times 2^{2} + 0 \times 2^{1} + 1 \times 2^{0} = 13$$

$$(1101)_{2} = (13)_{10}$$



- In a binary number the right-most bit is called the leastsignificant bit (LSB) and the left-most bit is called the most significant bit (MSB)
- A group of 4 bits is called a nibble
- A group of 8 bits is called a byte



- Conversion from decimal to binary: successively divide by 2
- In each step the remainder is the next binary digit
- The process continue until the quotient becomes zero

$$V = b_{n-1} \times 2^{n-1} + b_{n-2} \times 2^{n-2} + \dots + b_1 \times 2^1 + b_0 \times 2^0$$
$$\frac{V}{2} = b_{n-1} \times 2^{n-2} + b_{n-2} \times 2^{n-3} + \dots + b_1 \times 2^0 + \frac{b_0}{2}$$



Convert $(857)_{10}$

			Remainder	
$857 \div 2$	=	428	1	LSB
$428 \div 2$	=	214	0	
$214 \div 2$	=	107	0	
$107 \div 2$	=	53	1	
$53 \div 2$	=	26	1	
$26 \div 2$	=	13	0	
$13 \div 2$	=	6	1	
$6\div 2$	=	3	0	
$3 \div 2$	=	1	1	
$1\div 2$	=	0	1	MSB

Result is $(1101011001)_2$



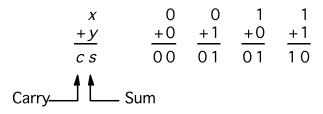
- The most common bases in addition to decimal are:
- base 2 (binary) { 0, 1 }
- base 8 (octal) $\{0, 1, ..., 7\}$
- base 16 (hexadecimal) { 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F }
- Reason for using octal and hexadecimal systems: useful shorthand notation for binary numbers



- One octal digit represents three bits
- Conversion from binary to octal: starting from the LSB replace every group of three digits with their corresponding octal digit
- Conversion from binary to hexadecimal: starting from the LSB replace every group of four digits with their corresponding hexadecimal digit
- Conversion from octal to binary: substitute each octal digit by corresponding three bits
- Conversion from hexadecimal to binary: substitute each hex digit by four bits



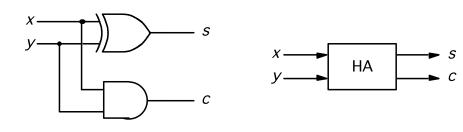
Addition of Unsigned Numbers



(a) The four possible cases

x	y	Carry <i>c</i>	Sum
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0

(b) Truth table



(d) Graphical symbol

(c) Circuit



Addition of Unsigned Numbers

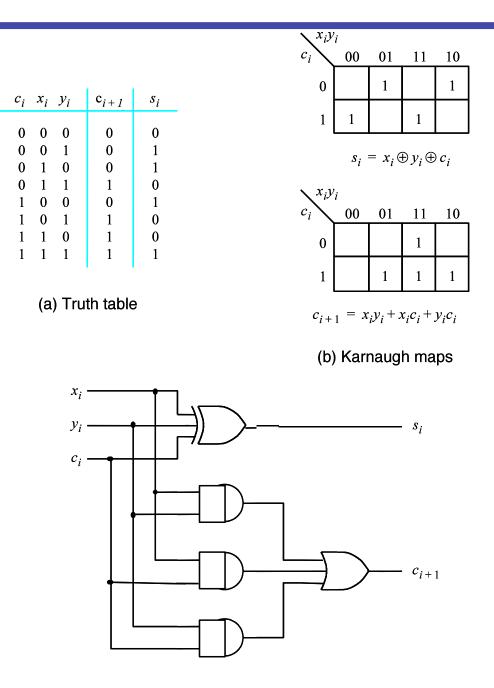
$$X = x_4 x_3 x_2 x_1 x_0 \qquad 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \qquad (15)_{10}$$

+ Y = y_4 y_3 y_2 y_1 y_0
$$0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ (10)_{10}$$

$$\boxed{1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0} \qquad \boxed{Generated can}$$

$$S = s_4 s_3 s_2 s_1 s_0 \qquad 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ (25)_{10}$$



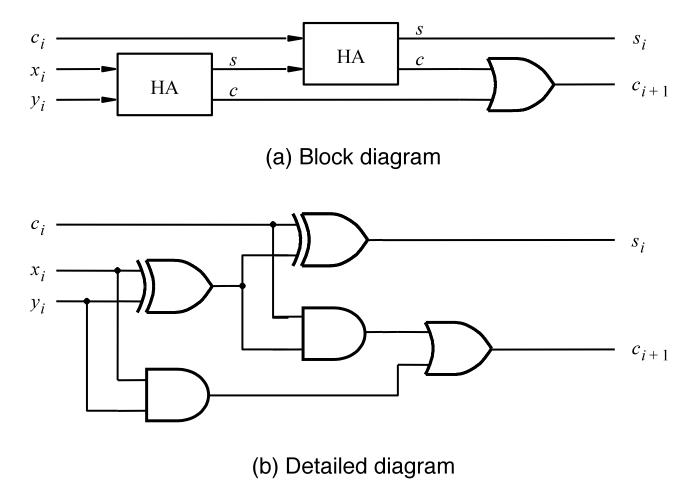


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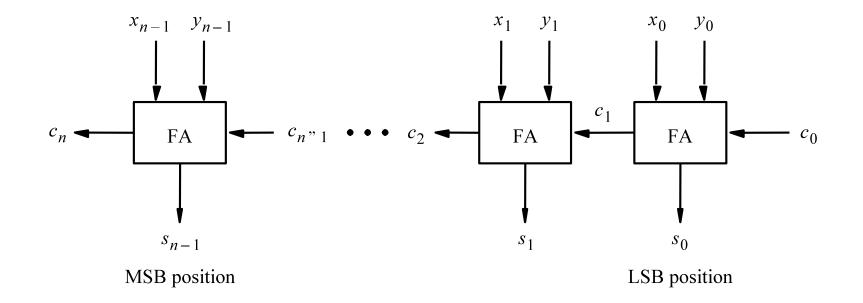
(c) Circuit

Decomposed Full Adder





Ripple Carry Adder



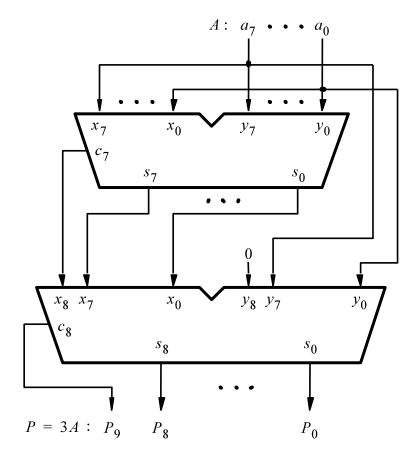


Ripple Carry Adder

- When operands X and Y are applied as inputs to the adder, it takes some time before its s_i and c_{i+1} are valid
- If this delay is Δt the complete sum will be valid after a delay of $n\Delta t$
- Because of the way the carry signal "ripple" through the fulladder, this circuit is called a ripple-carry adder



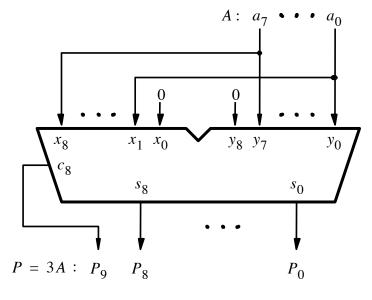
Example



(a) Naive approach



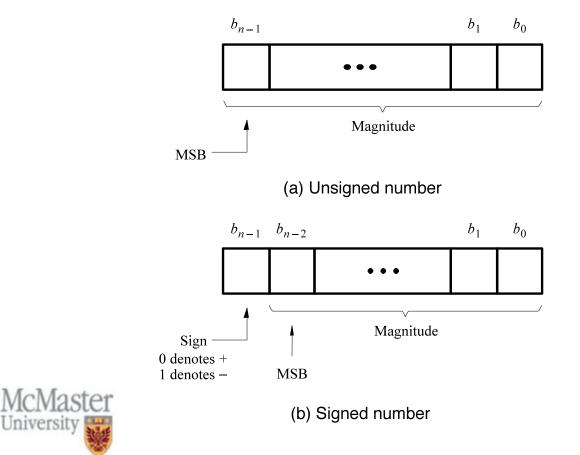
Example



(b) Efficient design



- One of the bits (usually the left-most bit) is reserved for the sign of the number.
- Usually a 1 indicates *negative* and 0 indicates *positive*.



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- Extending the 'natural' binary representation of positive integers to negative integers can be done in at least 3 different schemes: sign-magnitude, one's complement and two's complement.
- Sign-and-magnitude: The most significant bit (MSB) is reserved to the sign, 0 is positive, 1 is negative. All other bits are used to store the magnitude in the natural representation.
- Addition and subtraction are complicated.
- There are two representations for zero!



- <u>One's complement</u> Positive integers are like in the natural representation, negative numbers are obtained by complementing each bit of the corresponding positive number (i.e. the absolute value).
- There are two representations for zero! Bitwise addition of N and -N gives -0.
- Positive integers still have MSB = 0, and negative integers have MSB=1.
- 1's complement of an n-bit negative number K is obtained by subtracting its equivalent positive number P from 2ⁿ-1
- $K_1 = (2^n 1) P$



- <u>Two's complement</u> Like one's complement, but negative numbers are having 1 added after complementation.
- Bitwise addition of N and -N gives 0 if you ignore the carry out of the MSB.
- Positive integers still have MSB = 0, and negative integers have MSB=1. <u>Only one representation for zero!</u>
- 2's complement of an n-bit negative number K is obtained by subtracting its equivalent positive number P from 2ⁿ
- $K_2 = 2^n P$



- Relationship between 2's complement and 1's complement
- $K_2 = K_1 + 1$
- A simple way of finding the 2's complement is to find 1's complement and add 1
- Rule for finding 2's complement:
 - Given signed number $B=b_{n-1}b_{n-2}...b_1b_0$
 - 2's complement: $K = k_{n-1}k_{n-2}...k_1k_0$
 - Examine bits of B from right to left, copy all bits of B that are 0 and the first bit that is 1, then complement the rest of the bits



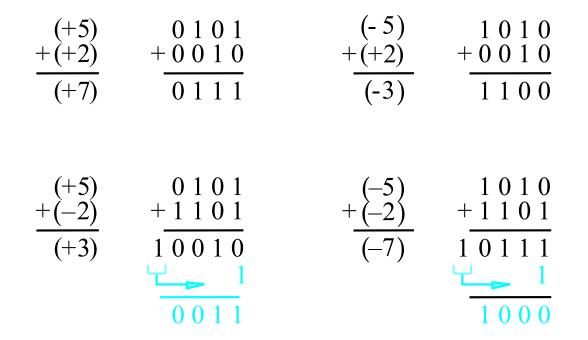
2's complement signed numbers $B=b_{n-1}b_{n-2}...b_{1}b_{0}$ $V = (-b_{n-1} \times 2^{n-1}) + b_{n-2} \times 2^{n-2} + ... + b_{1} \times 2^{1} + b_{0} \times 2^{0}$

Largest negative number: -2ⁿ⁻¹

Largest positive number: 2ⁿ⁻¹ -1



1's complement addition



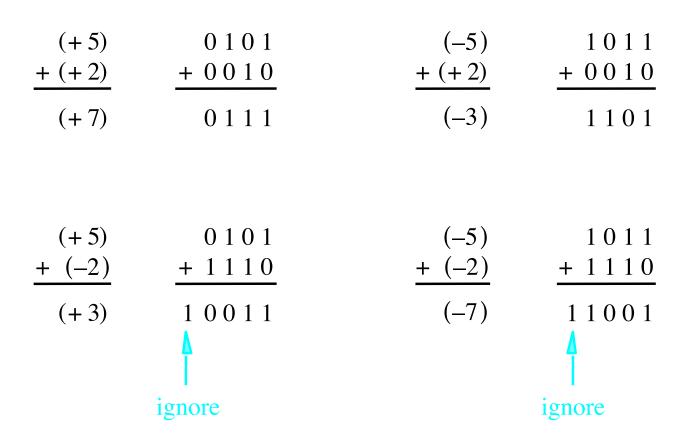


Addition and Subtraction

- Addition of 1's complement numbers might need a correction
- Time needed to add two 1's complement numbers may be twice as long as time needed to add two unsigned numbers



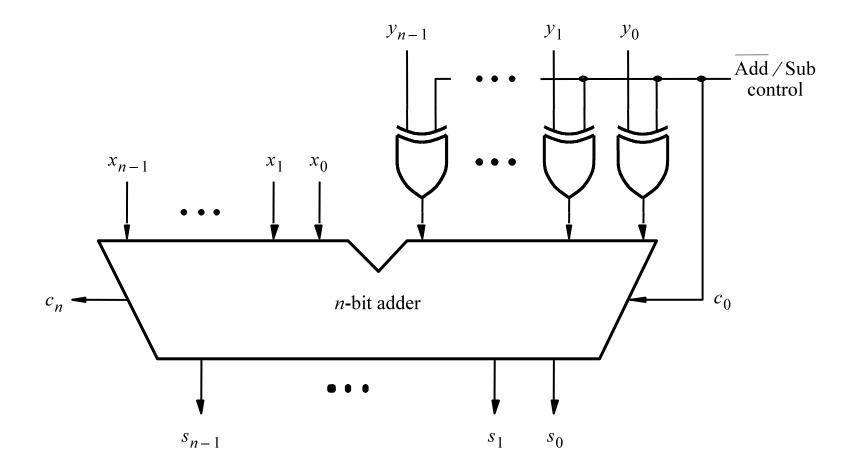
2's complement addition





	2':	s compl	emen	t subtra	ction
	(+ 5) - (+ 2)	0101 - 0010	\Rightarrow	$0\ 1\ 0\ 1 \\ +\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 0$	
	(+3)			10011 ignore	
	(-5) - (+ 2) (-7)	1011 - 0010	\Rightarrow	$ \begin{array}{r} 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \\ + \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \\ \hline 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \end{array} $	
	(+5) - (-2) (+7)	0101 - 1110	\Rightarrow	ignore 0 1 0 1 + 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 1	
McMaster University	(-5) - (-2) (-3)	1011 - 1110	\Rightarrow	$ \begin{array}{r} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ + & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} $	Copyright S. Shirani

Adder and Subtractor Unit





Radix-complement schemes

- <u>Complements general theory</u>
- The r's complement of an n-digit number N in base r is: $K_r = r^n - N$ for N $\neq 0$ (0 for N=0)
- The (r-1)'s complement, K_{r-1} is defined as: $K_r = (r^n-1) - N$
- The concept of subtracting a number by adding its radixcomplement is general



Arithmetic Overflow

- If n bits are used to represent signed numbers, result must be in the range -2ⁿ⁻¹ to 2ⁿ⁻¹-1
- If the result does not fit in this range, we say that arithmetic overflow has happened
- We should be able to detect overflow
- The key to determining the overflow is carry-out from MSB position and carry-out from the sign bit
- If they are the same no overflow has happened.

$$overf \ low = c_{n-1} \oplus c_n$$



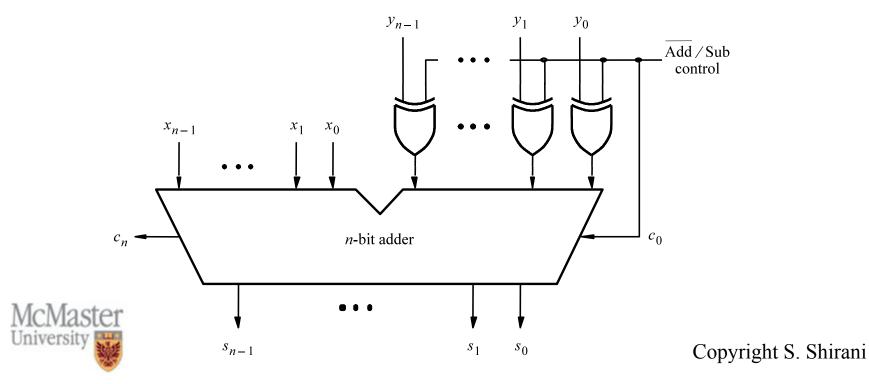
Arithmetic Overflow

$\begin{array}{c} 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \\ + \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \end{array}$	(-7) + (+ 2)	1001 + 0010
1001	(-5)	1011
$c_4 = 0$ $c_3 = 1$		$c_4 = 0$ $c_3 = 0$
0 1 1 1		1001
+ 1110	(-7) + (-2)	1001 + 1110
10101	(-9)	10111
$c_4 = 1$		$c_4 = 1$ $c_3 = 0$
	$\frac{+\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0}{1\ 0\ 0\ 1}$ $c_{4} = 0$ $c_{3} = 1$ $0\ 1\ 1\ 1$ $+\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 0$ $1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1$	$\frac{+0010}{1001} + (+2) \\ \frac{+(+2)}{(-5)} \\ c_4 = 0 \\ c_3 = 1 \\ \frac{0111}{+1110} + (-7) \\ \frac{+(-2)}{+(-2)} \\ 10101 \\ c_4 = 1 \\ -9)$

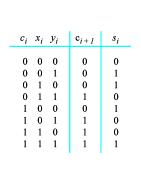


Performance Issue

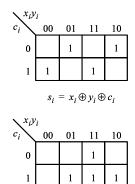
- Speed of any circuit is limited by the longest delay along the paths through the circuit
- This is called the critical path delay
- Critical path for the ripple adder is from input y, through the XOR gate and through the carry circuit of each stage.

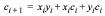


Fast Adders

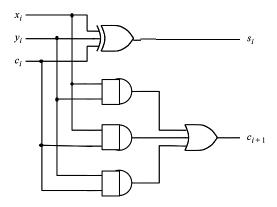


(a) Truth table





(b) Karnaugh maps



(c) Circuit



Fast Adders

$$c_{i+1} = x_i y_i + x_i c_i + y_i c_i$$

$$c_{i+1} = x_i y_i + (x_i + y_i) c_i$$

$$c_{i+1} = g_i + p_i c_i$$

$$g_i = x_i y_i$$

$$p_i = x_i + y_i$$

 $c_{i+1} = g_i + p_i g_{i-1} + p_i p_{i-1} g_{i-2} + \dots + p_i p_{i-1} \dots p_2 p_1 g_0 + p_i p_{i-1} \dots p_1 p_0 c_0$





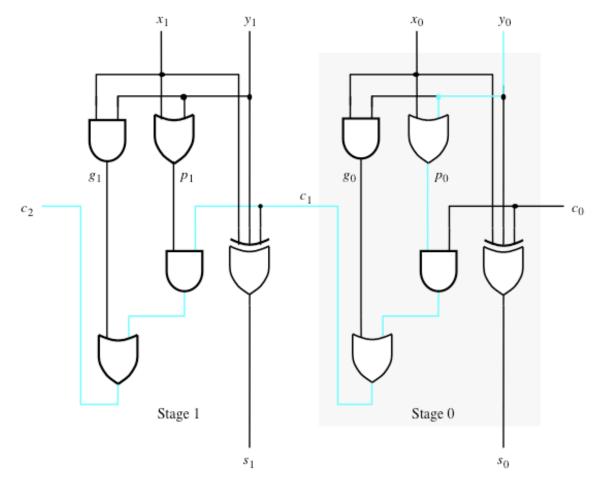
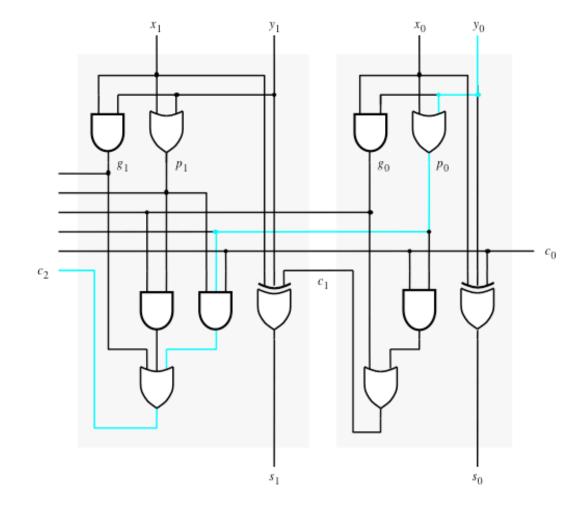


Figure 5.15. A ripple-carry adder based on expression 5.3.



Fast Adders



McMa Figure 5.16. The first two stages of a carry-lookahead adder.



Fast Adders

- In an n-bit carry-look ahead adder the final carry-out signal would be produced after three gate delays
- The total delay in an n-bit carry-look ahead adder is four gate delays.
- Complexity of an n-bit carry look ahead adder increases rapidly as n becomes larger
- We can use a hierarchical approach in designing large adders.



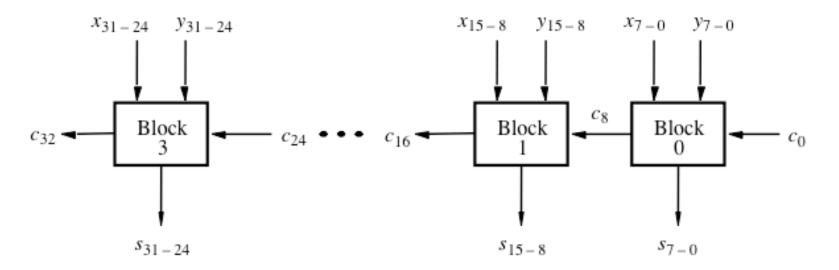


Figure 5.17. A hierarchical carry-lookahead adder with ripple-carry between blocks.



- A faster circuit can be designed in which a second-level carrylook-ahead is performed to produce quickly the carry signals between blocks.
- Instead of producing a carry-out signal from the most significant bit of the block, each block produces generate and propagate signals for the entire block



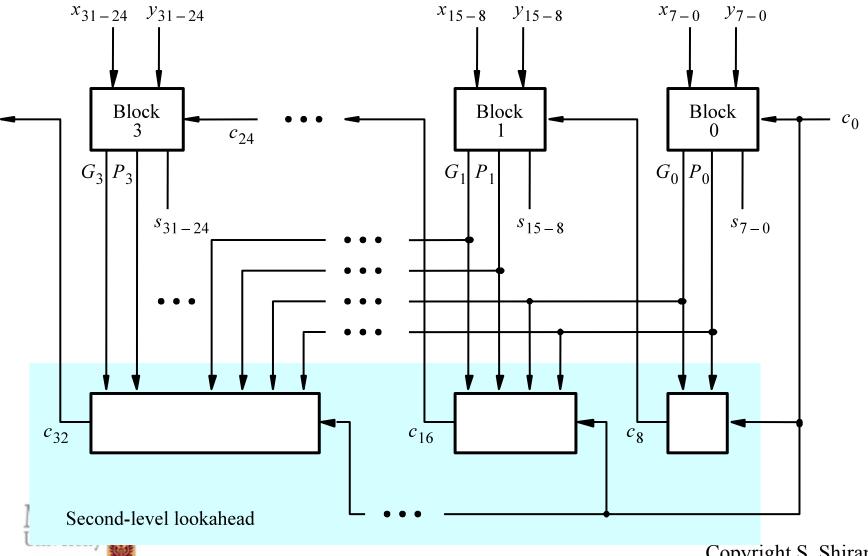
 $c_8 = g_7 + p_7 g_6 + p_7 p_6 g_5 + p_7 p_6 p_5 g_4 + p_7 p_6 p_5 p_4 g_3 + p_7 p_6 p_5 p_4 p_3 g_2 + p_7 p_6 p_5 p_4 p_3 p_2 g_1 + p_7 p_6 p_5 p_4 p_3 p_2 p_1 g_0 + p_7 p_6 p_5 p_4 p_3 p_2 p_1 p_0 c_0$

 $P_{0} = p_{7}p_{6}p_{5}p_{4}p_{3}p_{2}p_{1}p_{0}$ $G_{0} = g_{7} + p_{7}g_{6} + p_{7}p_{6}g_{5} + p_{7}p_{6}p_{5}g_{4} + p_{7}p_{6}p_{5}p_{4}g_{3} + p_{7}p_{6}p_{5}p_{4}p_{3}g_{2} + p_{7}p_{6}p_{5}p_{4}p_{3}p_{2}g_{1} + p_{7}p_{6}p_{5}p_{4}p_{3}p_{2}p_{1}g_{0}$

$$c_8 = G_0 + P_0 c_0$$

$$c_{16} = G_1 + P_1 c_8 = G_1 + P_1 G_0 + P_1 P_0 c_0$$





Technology Considerations

- So far we assumed gates with any number of inputs can be used
- Fan-in is limited to a small number
- More gates should be used to implement the logic
- Example: max fan-in is four

 $c_8 = g_7 + p_7 g_6 + p_7 p_6 g_5 + p_7 p_6 p_5 g_4 + p_7 p_6 p_5 p_4 g_3 + p_7 p_6 p_5 p_4 p_3 g_2 + p_7 p_6 p_5 p_4 p_3 p_2 g_1 + p_7 p_6 p_5 p_4 p_3 p_2 p_1 g_0 + p_7 p_6 p_5 p_4 p_3 p_2 p_1 p_0 c_0$

$$c_{8} = (g_{7} + p_{7}g_{6} + p_{7}p_{6}g_{5} + p_{7}p_{6}p_{5}g_{4}) + [p_{7}p_{6}p_{5}p_{4}(g_{3} + p_{3}g_{2} + p_{3}p_{2}g_{1} + p_{3}p_{2}p_{1}g_{0})] + (p_{7}p_{6}p_{5}p_{4})(p_{3}p_{2}p_{1}p_{0})c_{0}$$



- Because fan-in limitation reduces the speed of carry-lookahead adder, some devices with low fan-in include dedicated circuit for implementing fast adders
- Example: FPGA



Multiplication

- A number is multiplied by 2^k by shifting it left by k bit positions
- This is true both for unsigned and signed numbers
- Shifting to the right by k bit, is equivalent to dividing by 2^k
- For unsigned numbers the empty bit positions are filled with zero
- For signed numbers, in order to preserve the sign, the empty bit positions are filled with the sign bit



- B=011000=24
- B/2=001100=12
- B/4=000110=6
- B=101000=-24
- B/2=110100=-12
- B/4=111010=-6



Multiplication of unsigned numbers

Each multiplier bit is examined: if 1, a shifted version of the multiplicand is added to form the partial product; if zero nothing is added

Multiplicand M	(14)	1110
Multiplier Q	(11)	× 1011
		1110
		1110
		0000
		1110
Product P	(154)	10011010



(a) Multiplication by hand

Multiplication of unsigned numbers

Multiplicand M Multiplier Q	(11) (14)	1 1 1 0 × 1 0 1 1
Partial product 0		$\begin{array}{c} 1 1 1 0 \\ + 1 1 1 0 \end{array}$
Partial product 1		$ \begin{array}{c c} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ + & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} $
Partial product 2		$ \begin{array}{c} \hline 0 1 0 1 0 \\ + 1 1 1 0 \end{array} $
Product P	(154)	10011010

(b) Multiplication for implementation in hardware



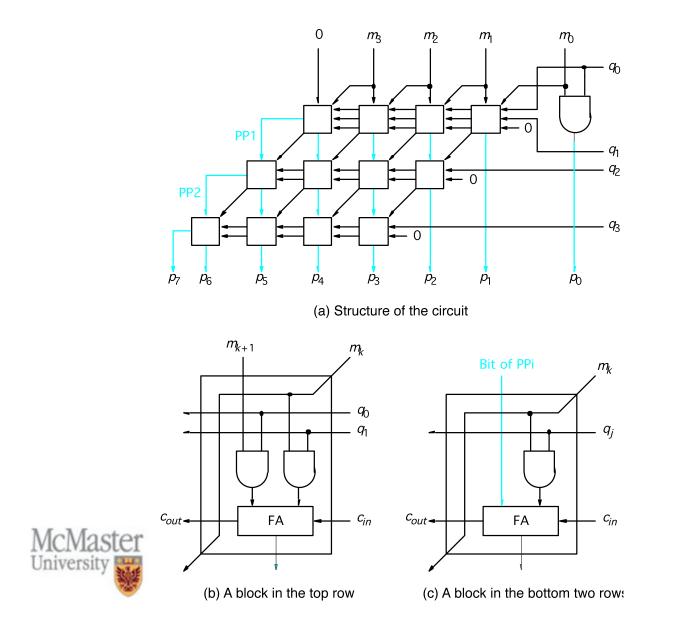
$$M = m_3 m_2 m_1 m_0$$
$$Q = q_3 q_2 q_1 q_0$$

 $PP0 = pp0_{3}pp0_{2}pp0_{1}pp0_{0}$

 $PP0 \qquad 0 \quad pp0_3 \quad pp0_2 \quad pp0_1 \quad pp0_0 \\ + \qquad m_3q_1 \quad m_2q_1 \quad m_1q_1 \quad m_0q_1 \quad 0$

 $PP1 \qquad ppl_4 \quad ppl_3 \quad ppl_2 \quad ppl_1 \quad ppl_0$





Multiplication of Signed Numbers

- If multiplier is positive essentially the same scheme as unsigned numbers can be used
- Since shifting the multiplicand to the left results in one of the operands having n+1 bits, the addition has to be performed using the second operand represented in n+1 bits
- An n bit signed number is represented as an n+1 bit number by replicating the sign bit
- Replication of the sign bit is called sign extension



Multiplicand M Multiplier Q	(+14) (+11)	01110 × 01011
Partial product 0		$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
Partial product 1		$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
Partial product 2		$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
Partial product 3		
Product P	(+154)	0010011010

(a) Positive multiplicand



Multiplicand M Multiplier Q	(-14) (+11)	$ \begin{array}{r} 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \\ \times \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \end{array} $
Partial product 0		$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
Partial product 1		$ \begin{array}{r} 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 \\ $
Partial product 2		$ \begin{array}{r} 1 1 1 0 1 0 1 \\ + 1 1 0 0 1 0 \end{array} $
Partial product 3		$ \begin{array}{r} 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 \\ $
Product P	(-154)	1101100110

(b) Negative multiplicand



Fixed point

- A fixed point number consists of integer and fraction parts.
- The position of radix point is fixed

$$B = b_{n-1}b_{n-2}\dots b_1b_0 b_{-1}b_{-2}\dots b_{-k}$$

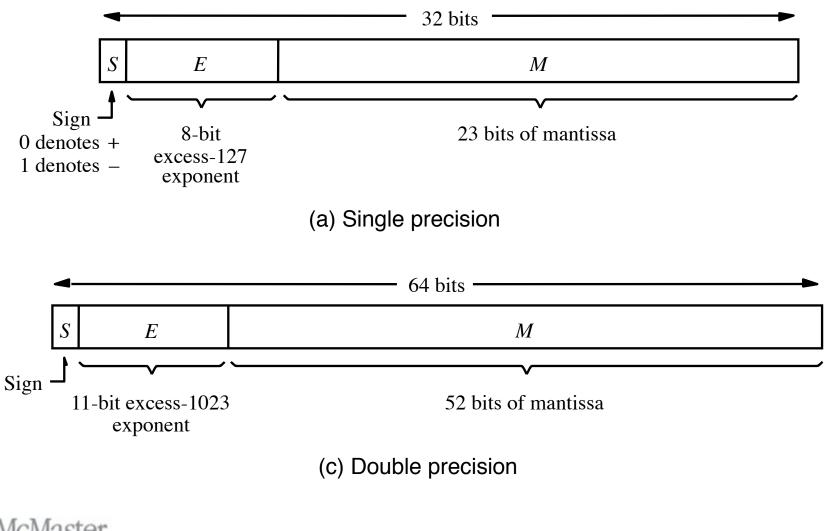
$$V(B) = \sum_{i=-k}^{n-1} b_i \times 2^i$$



Floating point

- Fixed point numbers: limited range
- Floating point: numbers are represented by a mantissa and an exponent: Mantissa x R^{Exponent}
- Normalized: radix point is the right of fist nonzero digit
- Example: 5.234 x 10⁴³
- For binary R=2
- How mantissa and exponent are represented has been standardized by IEEE
- Single precision (32 bits) and double precision (64 bits)







- Single precision
 - Exponent=E-127
 - Value=(+ or -)1.M $x2^{E-127}$
- Double precision
 - Exponent=E-1023
 - Value=(+ or -)1.M $x2^{E-1023}$



Binary coded decimal (BCD)

- Each digit in a decimal number is represented by its binary form
- Since there are 10 digits we need 4 bits per digit

Decimal digit	BCD code
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111
8	1000
9	1001



BCD

- BCD representation was used in some early computers
- Drawback: complexity of circuits that perform arithmetic operations
- BCD addition:
- X and Y two BCD digits (each four bits)
- **S**=X+Y
- If $X + Y \le 9$ the addition is the same as the addition of 2 unsigned binary numbers
- If X+Y > 9 the result requires two BDC digits and the fourbit sum may be incorrect.

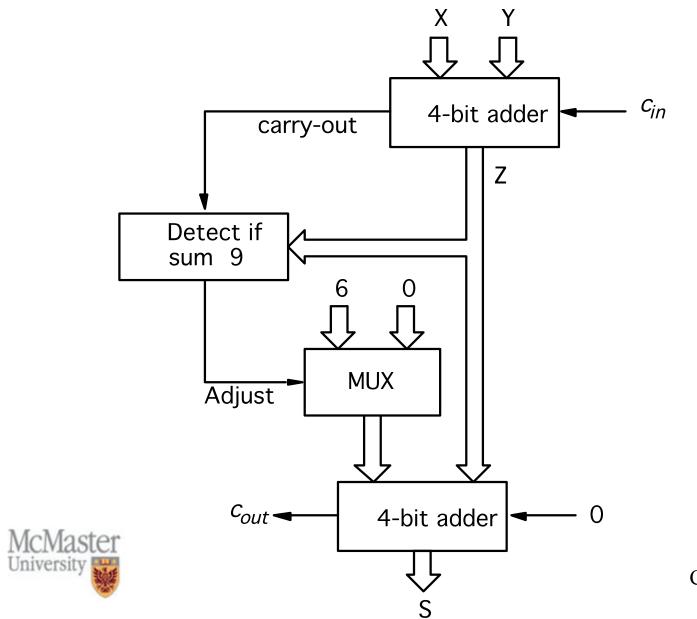


+ 0110

S = 7

carry — 1 0 1 1 1





ASCII code

- ASCII code: the most popular code for representing information in digital systems used for letters numbers and some control characters.
- Control characters: those needed in computer systems to handle and transfer data, e.g., return character
- ACII representation of numbers is not convenient for arithmetic operations
- It is best to covert ASCII numbers to binary for arithmetic operations



$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	Bit positions		Bit positions 654							
1SOHDC1!1AQaq0STXDC2"2BRbr1ETXDC3#3CScs0EOTDC4\$4DTdt1ENQNAK%5EUeu0ACKSYN&6FVfv1BELETB'7GWgw0BSCAN(8HXhx1HTEM)9IYiy0LFSUB<*:JZjz1VTESC+;K[k{0FFFS,<L\1 1CRGS-=M]m}0SORS.>Nn^1SIUS/?O-oDELLNull/IdleSIShift inHSoneSoneEDDataInk escapeKStart of headerDLEDataDataInk escapeSoneSoneEDevice controlXEnd of textNAKNegative acknowledgementCANCancel (error in data)LQAcknowledgementCANCancel (error in d	3210	000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111	
0STXDC2"2BRbr1ETXDC3#3CScs0EOTDC4\$4DTdt1ENQNAK%5EUeu0ACKSYN&6FVfv1BELETB'7GWgw0BSCAN(8HXhx1HTEM)9IYiy0LFSUB*:JZjz1VTESC+;K[k{0FFFS,<	0000	NUL	DLE	SPACE	0	0	Р	,	р	
O $OC3$ # 3 C S c s I ETX $DC3$ # 3 C S c s I EOT $DC4$ $\$$ 4 D T d t I ENQ NAK $\%$ 5 E U e u 0 ACK SYN $\&$ 6 F V f v 1 BEL ETB '7 G W g w 0 BS CAN (8 H X h x 1 HT EM) 9 I Y i y 0 BS CAN (8 H X h x 1 HT EM) 9 I Y i y 0 LF SUB ': J Z j z 1 VT ESC +; K $\{$ $\{$ 0 FF FS ,<	0001	SOH	DC1	!	1	Α	Q	a	q	
0EOTDC4\$4DTdt1ENQNAK%5EUeu0ACKSYN&6FVfv1BELETB'7GWgw0BSCAN(8HXhx1HTEM)9IYiy0LFSUB*:JZjz1VTESC+;K[k{0FFFS,<	0010	STX	DC2	33	2	в	\mathbf{R}	b	r	
	0011	ETX	DC3	#	3	С	s	с	5	
0ACK SYN&6FVfv1BELETB'7GWgw0BSCAN(8HXhx1HTEM)9IYiy0LFSUB*:JZjz1VTESC+;K[k{0FFFS,<	0100	EOT	DC4		4	D	т	d	t	
1BELETB?7GWgw0BSCAN(8HXhx1HTEM)9IYiy0LFSUB*:JZjz1VTESC+;K[k{0FFFS,<	0101	ENQ	NAK	%	5	\mathbf{E}	U	е	u	
	0110	ACK	SYN	8z	6	\mathbf{F}	v	f	v	
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ASCII code

- ASCII uses 7-bit, natural size in computer systems in onebyte (8-bits)
- Two common ways on going to 8-bits
 - Set the eight bit to 0
 - Use the eight-bit to indicate the parity of the other bits
- Even parity: the parity bit is given a value such that total number of 1's is even
- Odd parity: the parity bit is given a value such that total number of 1's is odd
- Even parity generator: $p = x_6 \oplus x_5 \oplus ... \oplus x_0$
- Parity checker: $c = p \oplus x_6 \oplus x_5 \oplus ... \oplus x_0$

