

# Course Information

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- **Instructors:**
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- **Office hours:**
  - Available Before & After Class on Mondays & Wednesdays
  - By appointments
  
- **Course Prerequisites:** E&C-ENGR 226 and E&C-ENGR 227
  
- **Textbook:** *Logic and Computer Design Fundamentals*, by M. Mano and C. Kime

# Course Information

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Evaluations	Point Value
Quizzes	Quiz: 10 points,
In class activities	Classwork: 20 points
Assignments	20 points
2 Mid Term Exam	15+15 = 30 points
Final Project	20 points
<b>Total points</b>	<b>100 points</b>

- Class participation is a must. You need to have hardware/software resources to participate/lead discussions
- Class activities are due within 30minutes of class end time
- No extra credit activities, late submissions without prior notice

# Grading Policy

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- Cluster grading scheme will be applied. Starting with the highest scores, students will be clustered within 3-5 points margin. A typical clustering is as follows:
- >90 = A  
87-90 = A-  
83-86 = B+  
78-82 = B  
73-77 = B-  
67-72 = C+  
62-66 = C  
56 - 61 = C-  
51 - 55 = D+  
46 - 50 = D  
41 - 45 = D-  
40 or lower F

# Course Objectives

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- **Understand Computer Architecture and Organizations**
  - CPU
  - Memory/Cache
  - Instruction Set Architecture
  - Cache Hierarchy
  - Input & Output
  - CPU Pipelining
- **Learn Verilog and How to use it**

# Zooming into a Chip

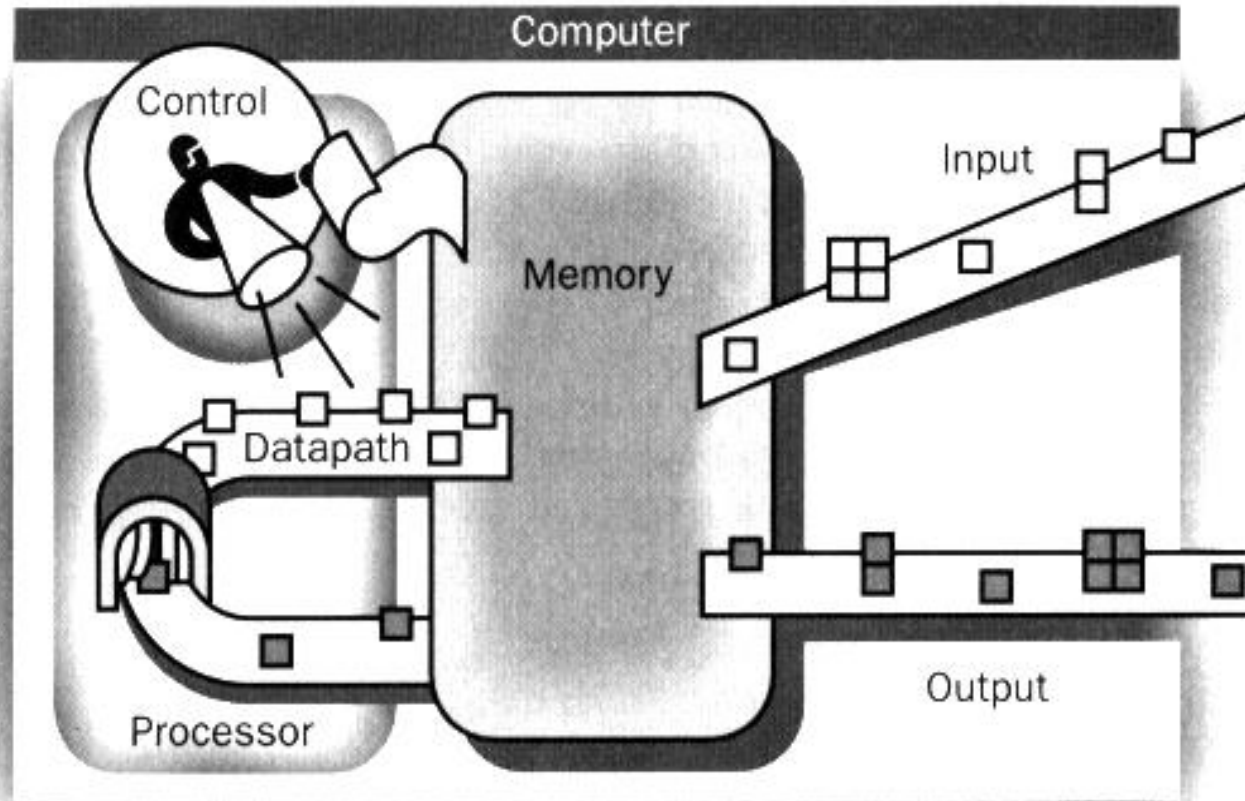
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All of these pathways lead to transistors,

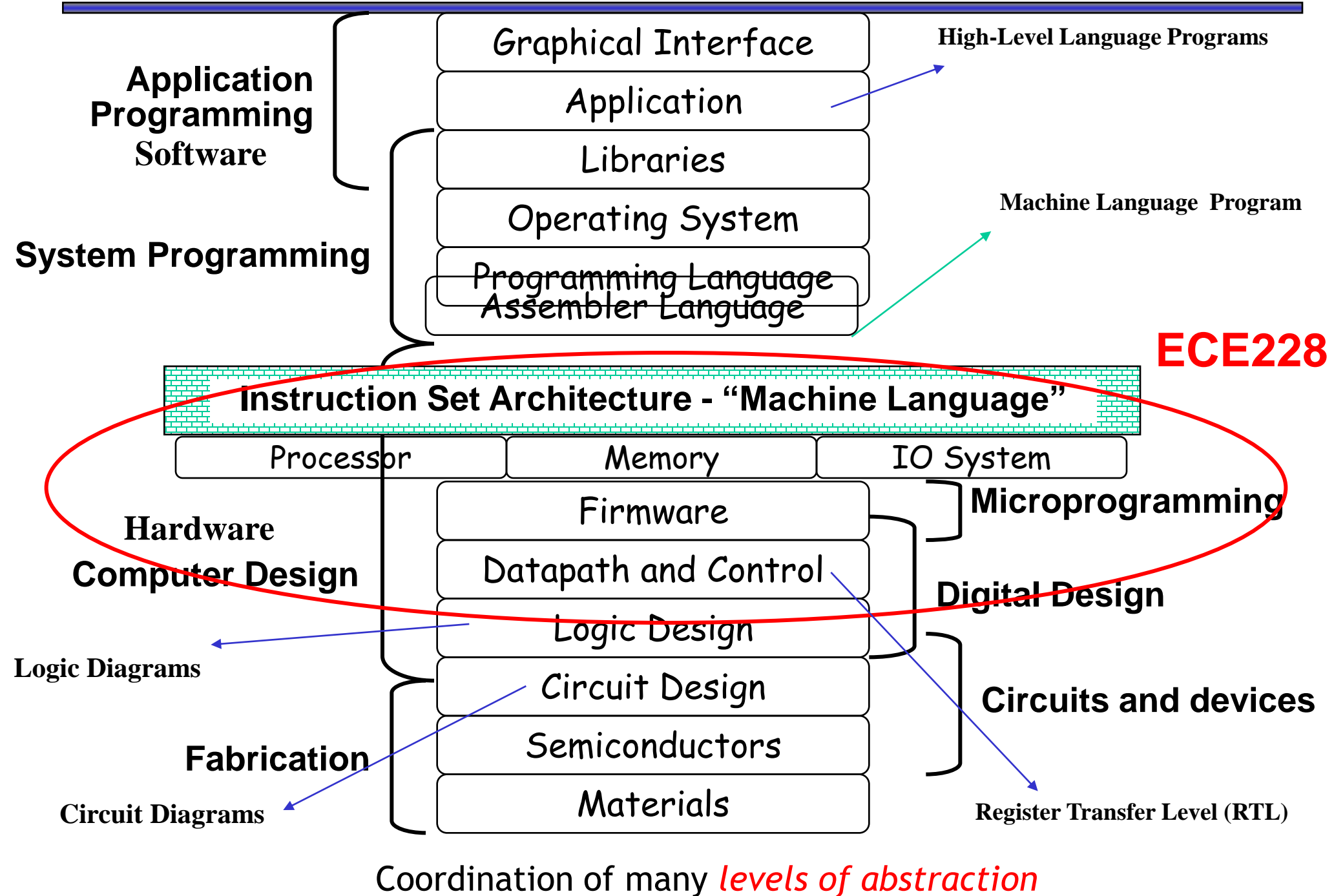
# Computer System - Five Classic Components

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- Partitioning of the computing engine into components:
  - Central Processing Unit (CPU): **Control Unit** (instruction decode, sequencing of operations), **Datapath** (registers, arithmetic and logic unit, buses)
  - **Memory:** Instruction and operand storage.
  - **Input/Output (I/O)**

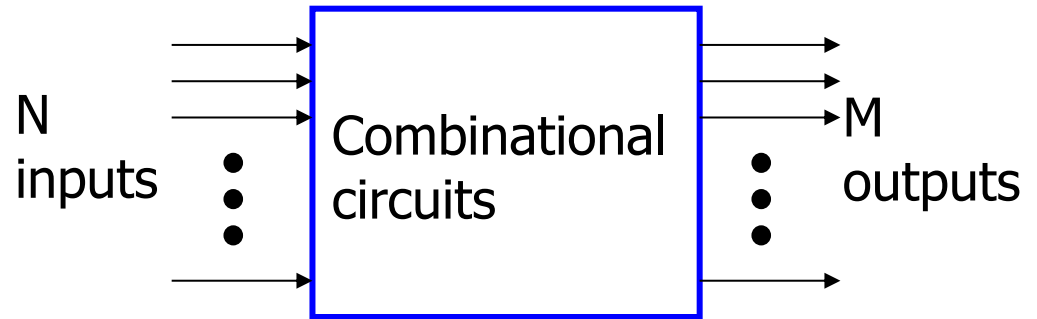
# Computing System - Levels of Abstraction



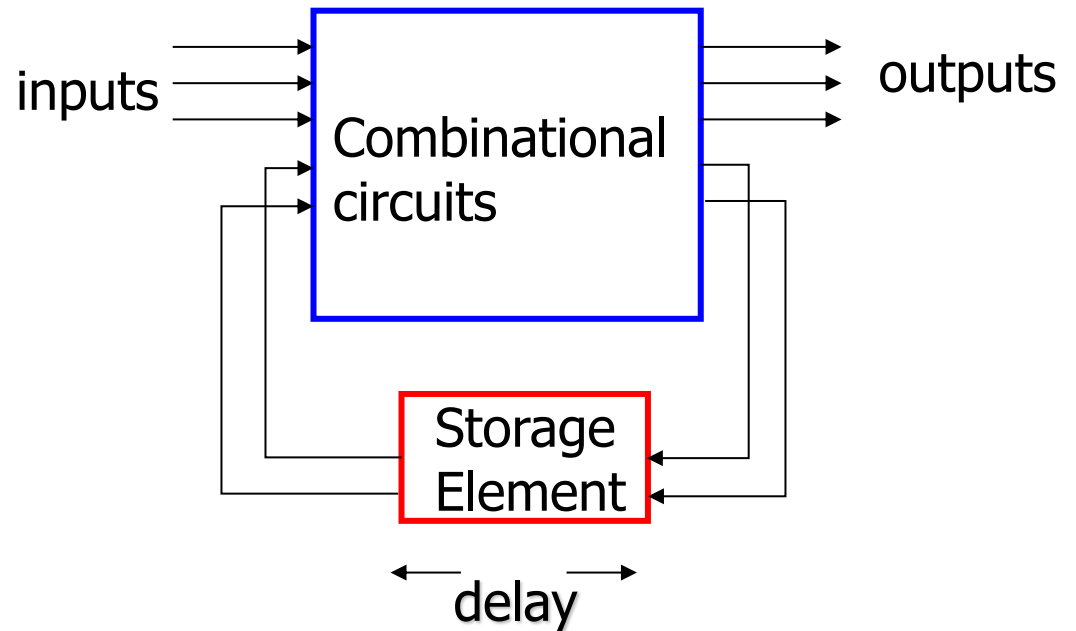
# Logic Design - Brief Review

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- Logic circuits
  - Combinational



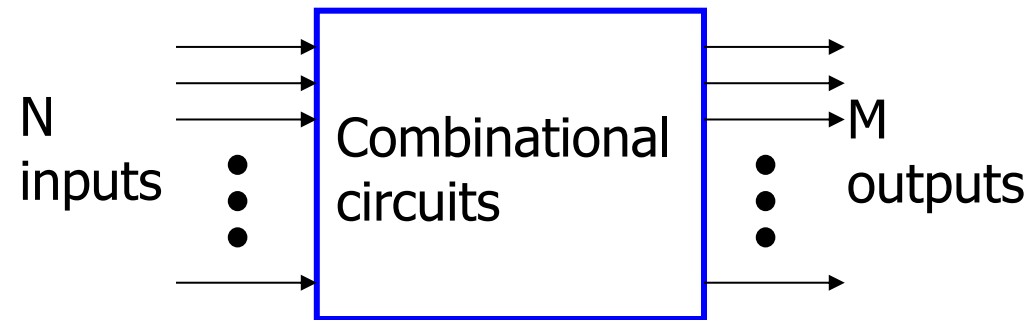
- Sequential





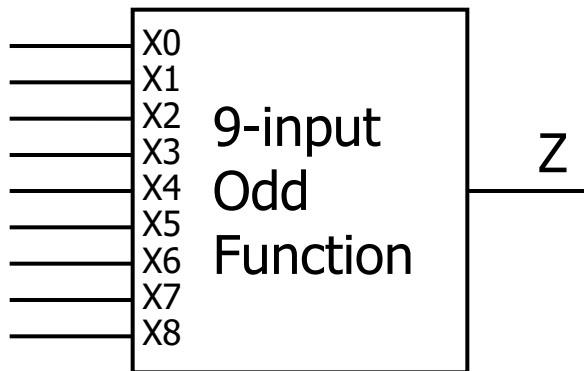
# Combinational Logic

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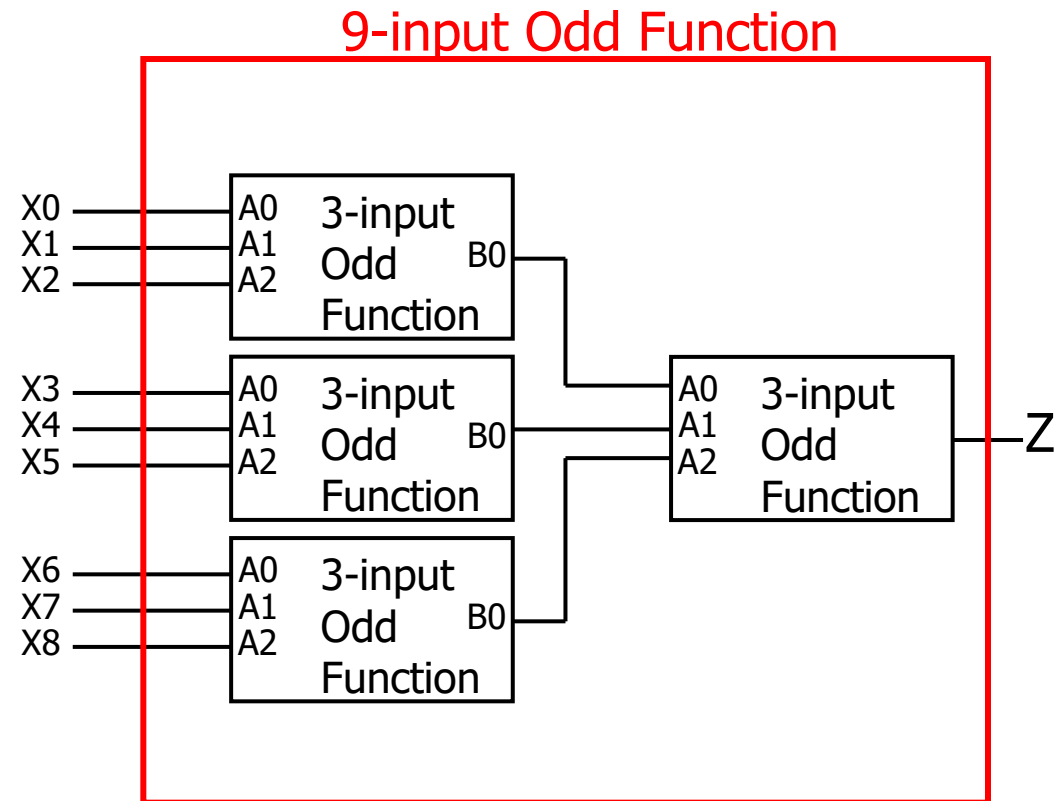


- Outputs, “at any time”, are determined by the input combination
- When input changed, output changed immediately
  - Note that real circuits are imperfect and have “propagation delay”
- A combinational circuit
  - Performs logic operations that can be specified by a set of Boolean expressions
  - Can be built hierarchically
- Basic combinatorial circuits
  - Multiplexers
  - Demultiplexers
  - Decoders
  - Comparators

# Design Hierarchy Example



Function Specification:  
To detect odd number of "1" inputs, i.e.  
Z=1 when there is an odd number of "1" present in the inputs



How to design a 3-input Odd Function?

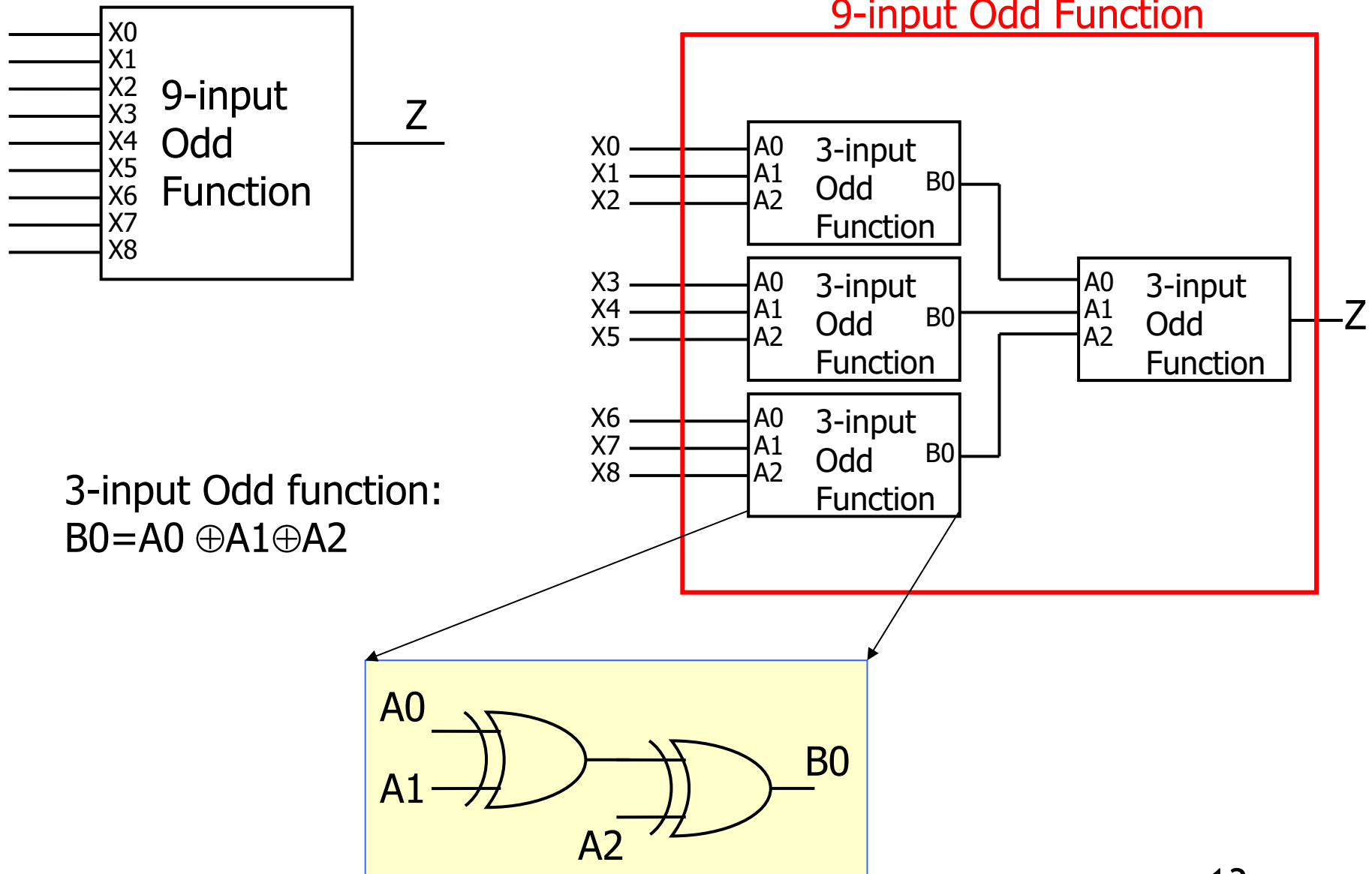
# Derive Truth Table for Desired Functionality

A	B	C	F
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1
0	1	0	1
0	1	1	0
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0
1	1	1	1

		BC			
		00	01	11	10
A	0	0	1	0	1
	1	1	0	1	0

$$\begin{aligned}F &= \overline{A}\overline{B}C + \overline{A}B\overline{C} + A\overline{B}\overline{C} + ABC \\&= \overline{A}(\overline{B}C + B\overline{C}) + A(\overline{B}\overline{C} + BC) \\&= \overline{A}(B \oplus C) + A(\overline{B \oplus C}) \\&= A \oplus (B \oplus C) \\&= A \oplus B \oplus C\end{aligned}$$

# Design Hierarchy Example



# What a decoder does

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- A **n-to- $2^n$  decoder** takes an n-bit input and produces  $2^n$  outputs. The n inputs represent a binary number that determines which of the  $2^n$  outputs is *uniquely* true.
- A 2-to-4 decoder operates according to the following truth table.
  - The 2-bit input is called S1S0, and the four outputs are Q0-Q3.
  - If the input is the binary number i, then output Qi is uniquely true.

S1	S0	Q0	Q1	Q2	Q3
0	0	1	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	0
1	0	0	0	1	0
1	1	0	0	0	1

- For instance, if the input S1 S0 = 10 (decimal 2), then output Q2 is true, and Q0, Q1, Q3 are all false.
- This circuit “decodes” a binary number into a “one-of-four” code.

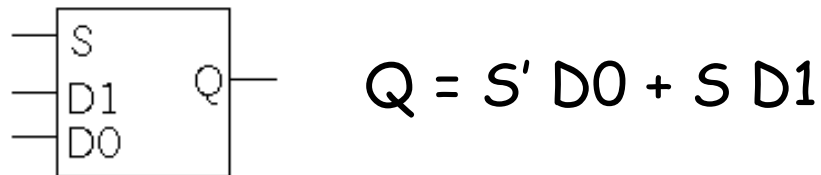
# Enable inputs

- Many devices have an additional **enable input**, which is used to “activate” or “deactivate” the device.
- For a decoder,
  - EN=1 activates the decoder, so it behaves as specified earlier. Exactly one of the outputs will be 1.
  - EN=0 “deactivates” the decoder. By convention, that means *all* of the decoder’s outputs are 0.
- We can include this additional input in the decoder’s truth table:

EN	S1	S0	Q0	Q1	Q2	Q3
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	1	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	1

# Multiplexers

- A  $2^n$ -to-1 multiplexer sends one of  $2^n$  input lines to a single output line.
  - A multiplexer has two sets of *inputs*:
    - $2^n$  data input lines
    - $n$  select lines, to pick one of the  $2^n$  data inputs
  - The mux *output* is a single bit, which is one of the  $2^n$  data inputs.
- The simplest example is a 2-to-1 mux:

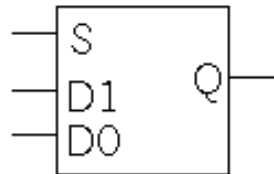


- The select bit S controls which of the data bits D0-D1 is chosen:
  - If  $S=0$ , then D0 is the output ( $Q=D0$ ).
  - If  $S=1$ , then D1 is the output ( $Q=D1$ ).

# Truth table abbreviations

- Here is a full truth table for this 2-to-1 mux, based on the equation:

$$Q = S' D0 + S D1$$



S	D1	D0	Q
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1
0	1	0	0
0	1	1	1
1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	1

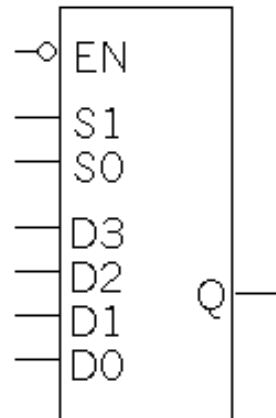
- Here is another kind of abbreviated truth table.
  - Input variables appear in the output column.
  - This table implies that when  $S=0$ , the output  $Q=D0$ , and when  $S=1$  the output  $Q=D1$ .

S	Q
0	D0
1	D1



## A 4-to-1 multiplexer

- Here is a block diagram and abbreviated truth table for a 4-to-1 mux.



EN'	S1	S0	Q
0	0	0	D0
0	0	1	D1
0	1	0	D2
0	1	1	D3
1	x	x	1

$$Q = S1' S0' D0 + S1' S0 D1 + S1 S0' D2 + S1 S0 D3$$

There are two logic blocks: odd function and even function generators. And there is a clock input. When the clock is high, odd function generator displays its output and when the clock is low, even function generator displays its output. Can you picture it?

# Computer Arithmetic

## Adding two bits

- We start with a **half adder**, which adds two bits and produces a two-bit result: a **sum** (the right bit) and a **carry out** (the left bit).
- Here are truth tables, equations, circuit and block symbol.

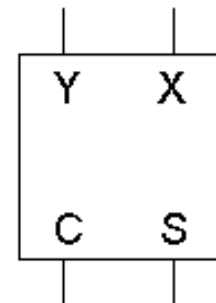
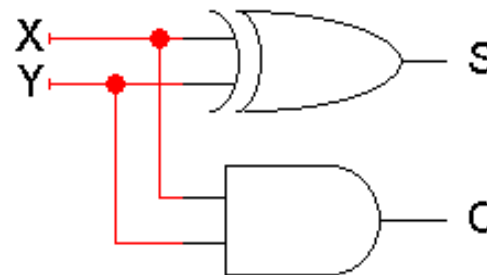
X	Y	C	S
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0

$$0 + 0 = 0$$

$$0 + 1 = 1$$

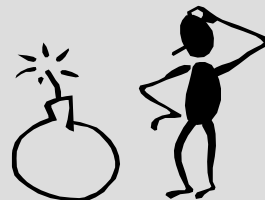
$$1 + 0 = 1$$

$$1 + 1 = 10$$



$$C = XY$$

$$S = X'Y + XY'$$
$$= X \oplus Y$$



Be careful! Now we're using **+** for both arithmetic addition and the logical OR operation.

# Full adder equations

- A **full adder** circuit takes three bits of input, and produces a two-bit output consisting of a sum and a carry out.
- Using Boolean algebra, we get the equations shown here.
  - XOR operations simplify the equations a bit.

X	Y	C <sub>in</sub>	C <sub>out</sub>	S
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	0	1
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	1	1

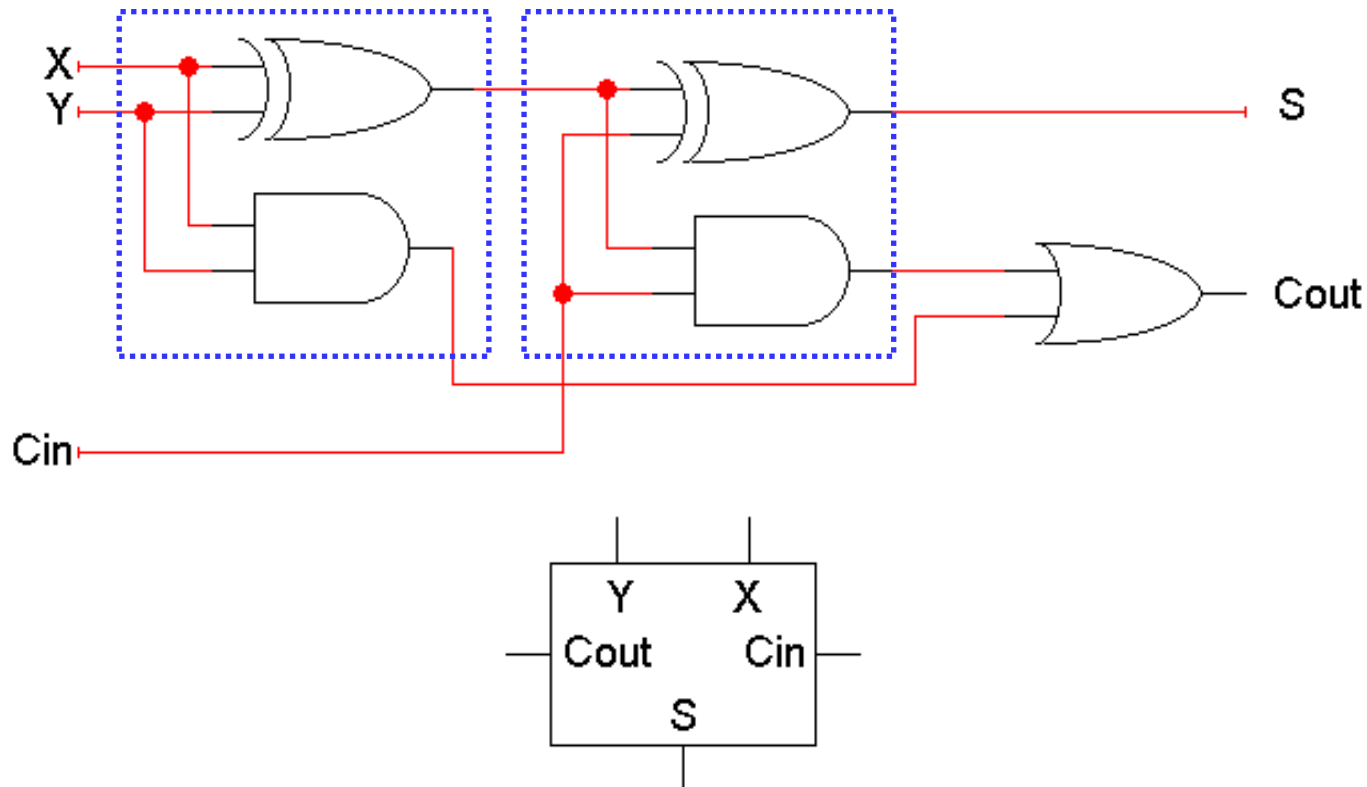
$$\begin{aligned}
 S &= \Sigma m(1,2,4,7) \\
 &= X' Y' C_{in} + X' Y C_{in}' + X Y' C_{in}' + X Y C_{in} \\
 &= X' (Y' C_{in} + Y C_{in}') + X (Y' C_{in}' + Y C_{in}) \\
 &= X' (Y \oplus C_{in}) + X (Y \oplus C_{in})' \\
 &= X \oplus Y \oplus C_{in}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 C_{out} &= \Sigma m(3,5,6,7) \\
 &= X' Y C_{in} + X Y' C_{in} + X Y C_{in}' + X Y C_{in} \\
 &= (X' Y + X Y') C_{in} + X Y (C_{in}' + C_{in}) \\
 &= (X \oplus Y) C_{in} + X Y
 \end{aligned}$$

# Full adder circuit

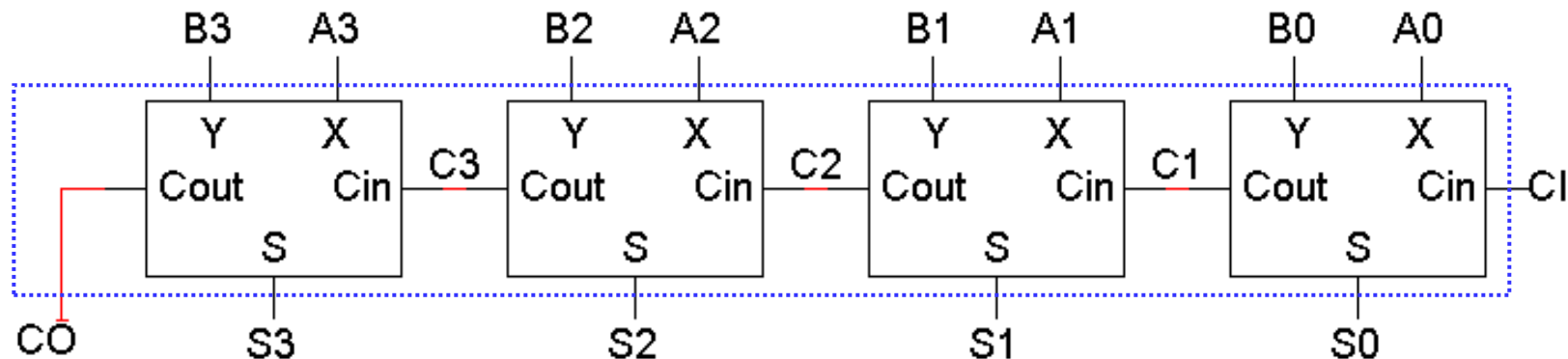
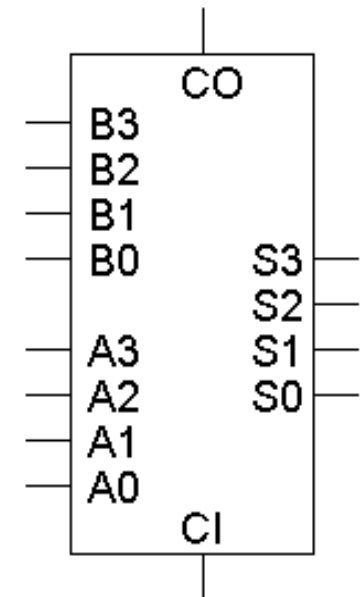
- These things are called half adders and full adders because you can build a full adder by putting together two half adders!

$$S = X \oplus Y \oplus C_{in}$$
$$C_{out} = (X \oplus Y) C_{in} + XY$$



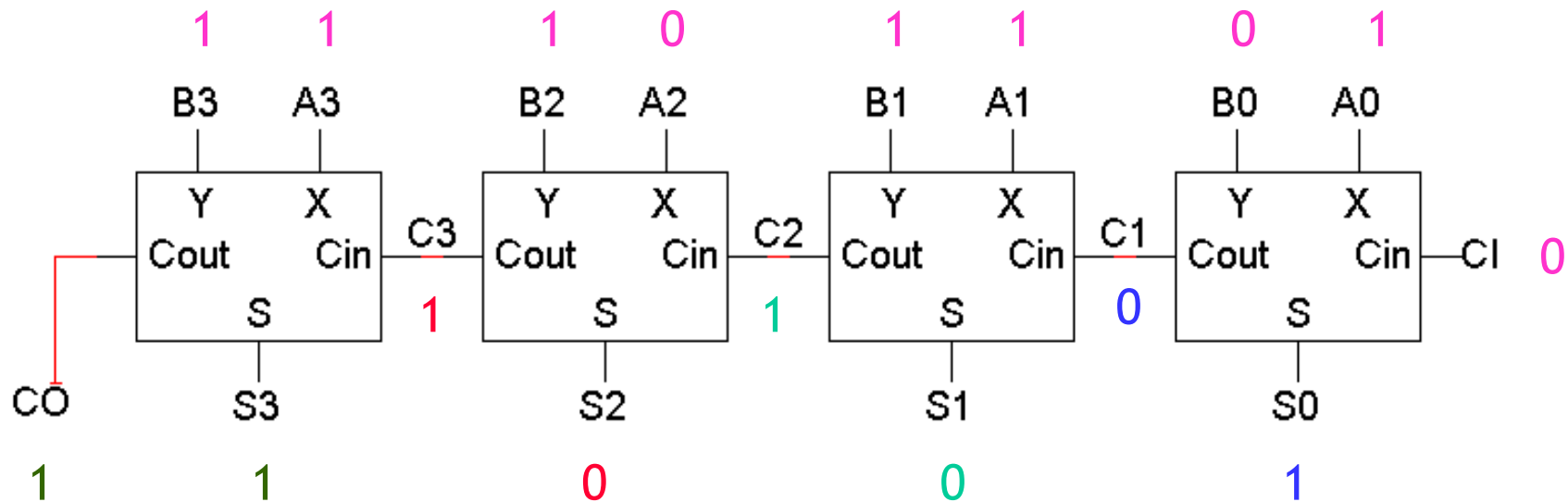
# A 4-bit adder

- Four full adders together make a 4-bit adder.
- There are nine total inputs:
  - Two 4-bit numbers, A3 A2 A1 A0 and B3 B2 B1 B0
  - An initial carry in, CI
- The five outputs are:
  - A 4-bit sum, S3 S2 S1 S0
  - A carry out, CO
- Imagine designing a nine-input adder without this hierarchical structure—you'd have a 512-row truth table with five outputs!



# An example of 4-bit addition

- Let's try our initial example: A=1011 (eleven), B=1110 (fourteen).



1. Fill in all the inputs, including  $C_i=0$
2. The circuit produces  $C_1$  and  $S_0$  ( $1 + 0 + 0 = 01$ )
3. Use  $C_1$  to find  $C_2$  and  $S_1$  ( $1 + 1 + 0 = 10$ )
4. Use  $C_2$  to compute  $C_3$  and  $S_2$  ( $0 + 1 + 1 = 10$ )
5. Use  $C_3$  to compute  $C_0$  and  $S_3$  ( $1 + 1 + 1 = 11$ )

The final answer is 11001 (twenty-five).

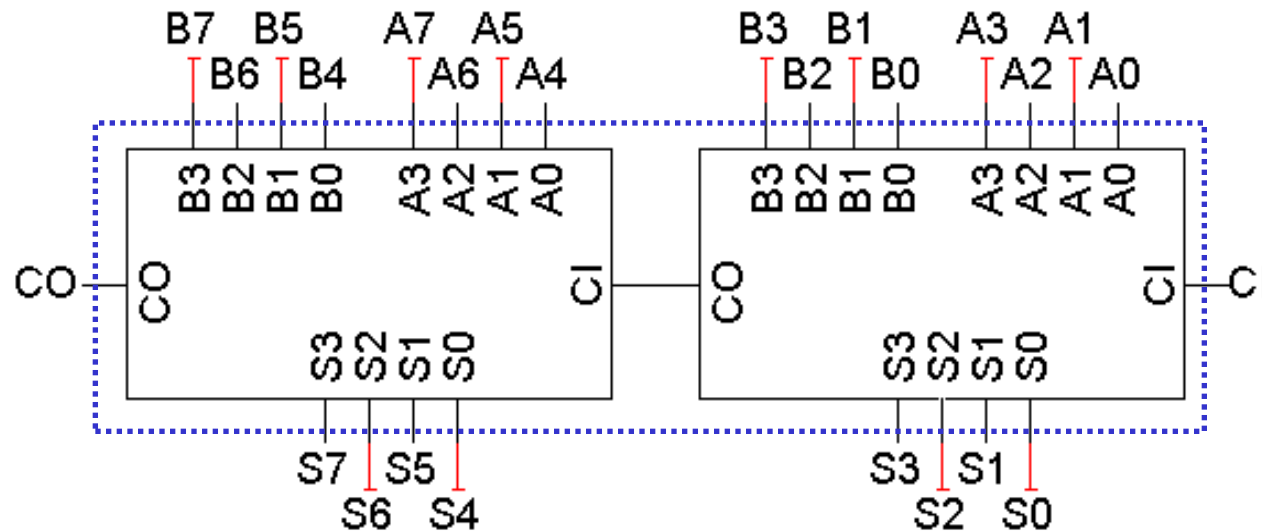
# Question

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When you add two 4-bit numbers the carry in is always 0, so why does the 4-bit adder have a CI input?

# Hierarchical adder design

- Here is an 8-bit adder, for example.





# Negative Numbers and Subtraction

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- The adders we designed can add only non-negative numbers
  - If we can represent negative numbers, then subtraction is “just” the ability to add two numbers (one of which may be negative).
- We’ll look at three different ways of representing **signed numbers**.
- How can we decide which representation is better?
  - The best one should result in the simplest and fastest operations.
- We’re mostly concerned with two particular operations:
  - Negating a signed number, or converting  $x$  into  $-x$ .
  - Adding two signed numbers, or computing  $x + y$ .
  - So, we will compare the representation on how fast (and how easily) these operations can be done on them

# Signed magnitude representation

- Humans use a **signed-magnitude** system: we add **+** or **-** in front of a magnitude to indicate the sign.
- We could do this in binary as well, by adding an extra **sign bit** to the front of our numbers. By convention:
  - A **0** sign bit represents a positive number.
  - A **1** sign bit represents a negative number.
- Examples:

$1101_2 = 13_{10}$  (a 4-bit unsigned number)  
**0** 1101 =  $+13_{10}$  (a positive number in 5-bit signed magnitude)  
**1** 1101 =  $-13_{10}$  (a negative number in 5-bit signed magnitude)

$0100_2 = 4_{10}$  (a 4-bit unsigned number)  
**0** 0100 =  $+4_{10}$  (a positive number in 5-bit signed magnitude)  
**1** 0100 =  $-4_{10}$  (a negative number in 5-bit signed magnitude)

# One's complement representation

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- A different approach, **one's complement**, negates numbers by complementing each bit of the number.
- We keep the sign bits: 0 for positive numbers, and 1 for negative. The sign bit is complemented along with the rest of the bits.
- Examples:

$1101_2 = 13_{10}$  (a 4-bit unsigned number)

**0** 1101 =  $+13_{10}$  (a positive number in 5-bit one's complement)

**1** 0010 =  $-13_{10}$  (a negative number in 5-bit one's complement)

$0100_2 = 4_{10}$  (a 4-bit unsigned number)

**0** 0100 =  $+4_{10}$  (a positive number in 5-bit one's complement)

**1** 1011 =  $-4_{10}$  (a negative number in 5-bit one's complement)

# Two's complement

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- Our final idea is **two's complement**. To negate a number, complement each bit (just as for ones' complement) and then add 1.
- Examples:

$$1101_2 = 13_{10} \quad (\text{a 4-bit unsigned number})$$

$$0\ 1101 = +13_{10} \quad (\text{a positive number in 5-bit two's complement})$$

$$1\ 0010 = -13_{10} \quad (\text{a negative number in 5-bit ones' complement})$$

$$1\ 0011 = -13_{10} \quad (\text{a negative number in 5-bit two's complement})$$

$$0100_2 = 4_{10} \quad (\text{a 4-bit unsigned number})$$

$$0\ 0100 = +4_{10} \quad (\text{a positive number in 5-bit two's complement})$$

$$1\ 1011 = -4_{10} \quad (\text{a negative number in 5-bit ones' complement})$$

$$1\ 1100 = -4_{10} \quad (\text{a negative number in 5-bit two's complement})$$

# Ranges of the signed number systems

- How many negative and positive numbers can be represented in each of the different systems on the previous page?

	Unsigned	Signed Magnitude	One's complement	Two's complement
Smallest	0000 (0)	1111 (-7)	1000 (-7)	1000 (-8)
Largest	1111 (15)	0111 (+7)	0111 (+7)	0111 (+7)

- In general, with n-bit numbers including the sign, the ranges are:

	Unsigned	Signed Magnitude	One's complement	Two's complement
Smallest	0	$-(2^{n-1}-1)$	$-(2^{n-1}-1)$	$-2^{n-1}$
Largest	$2^n-1$	$+(2^{n-1}-1)$	$+(2^{n-1}-1)$	$+(2^{n-1}-1)$

# Making a subtraction circuit

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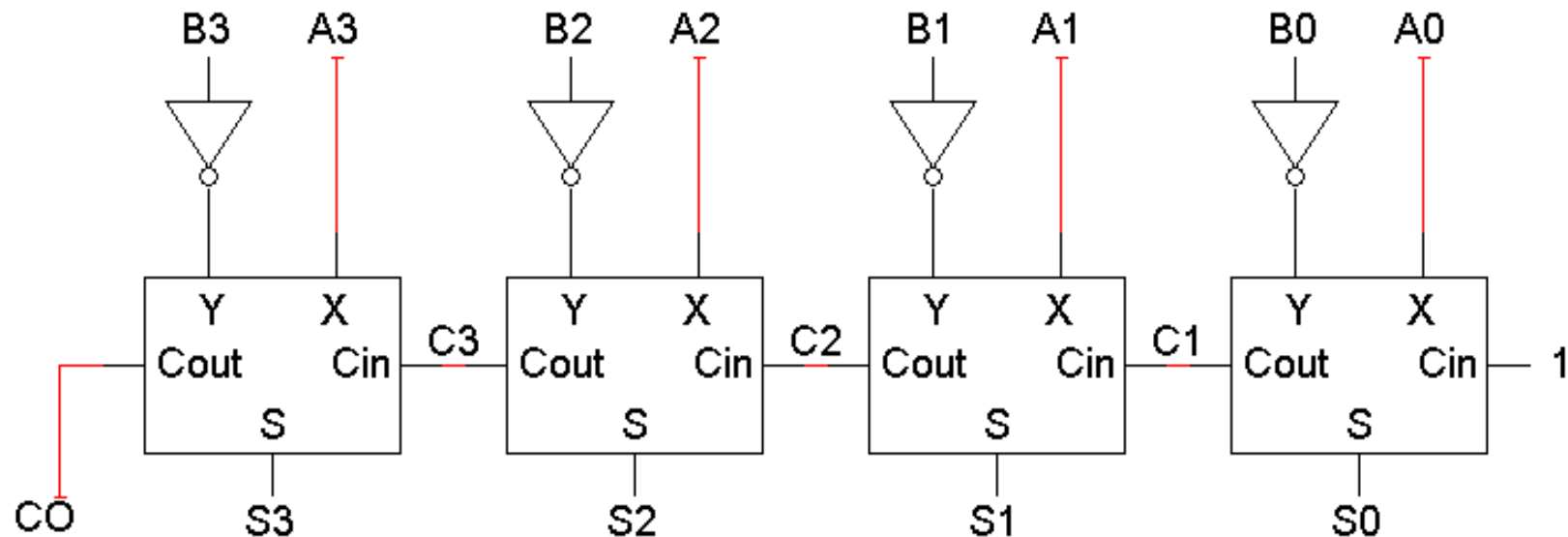
- We could build a subtraction circuit directly, similar to the way we made unsigned adders.
- However, by using two's complement we can convert any subtraction problem into an addition problem. Algebraically,

$$A - B = A + (-B)$$

- So to subtract B from A, we can instead *add* the negation of B to A.
- This way we can re-use the unsigned adder hardware.

# A two's complement subtraction circuit

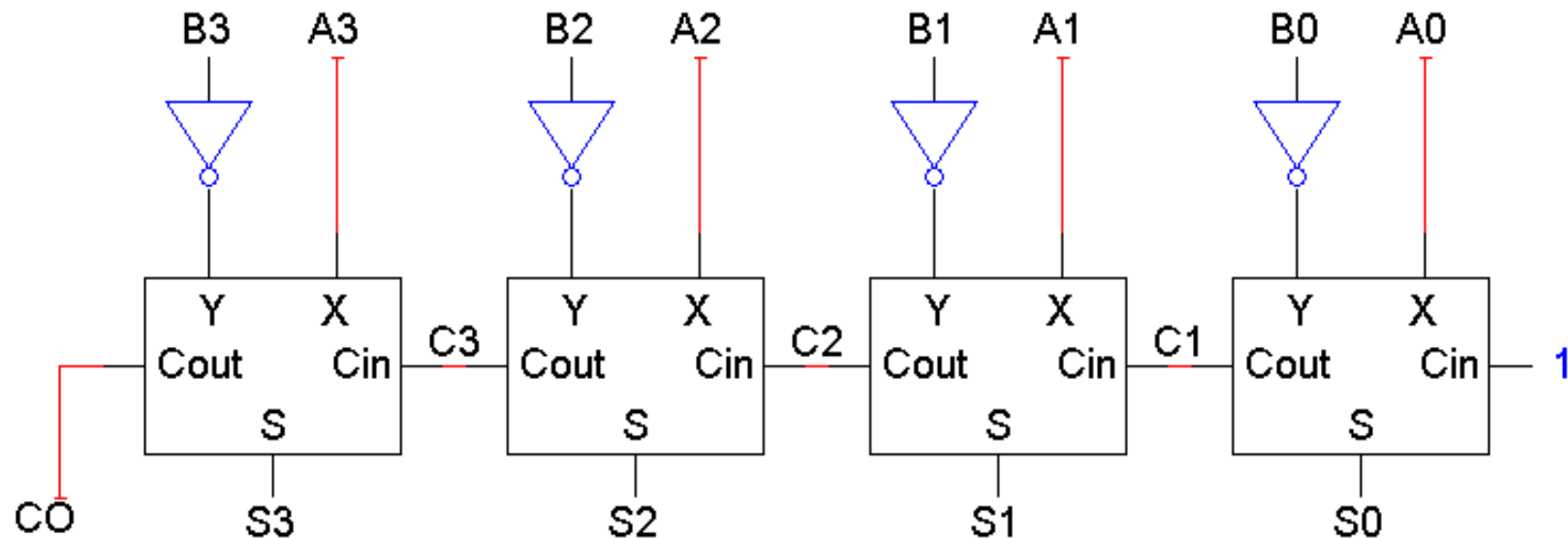
- To find  $A - B$  with an adder, we'll need to:
  - Complement each bit of  $B$ .
  - Set the adder's carry in to 1.
- The net result is  $A + B' + 1$ , where  $B' + 1$  is the two's complement negation of  $B$ .



- Remember that  $A_3, B_3$  and  $S_3$  here are actually sign bits.

# Small differences

- The only differences between the adder and subtractor circuits are:
  - The subtractor has to negate B3 B2 B1 B0.
  - The subtractor sets the initial carry in to 1, instead of 0.



- It's not too hard to make one circuit that does *both* addition and subtraction.



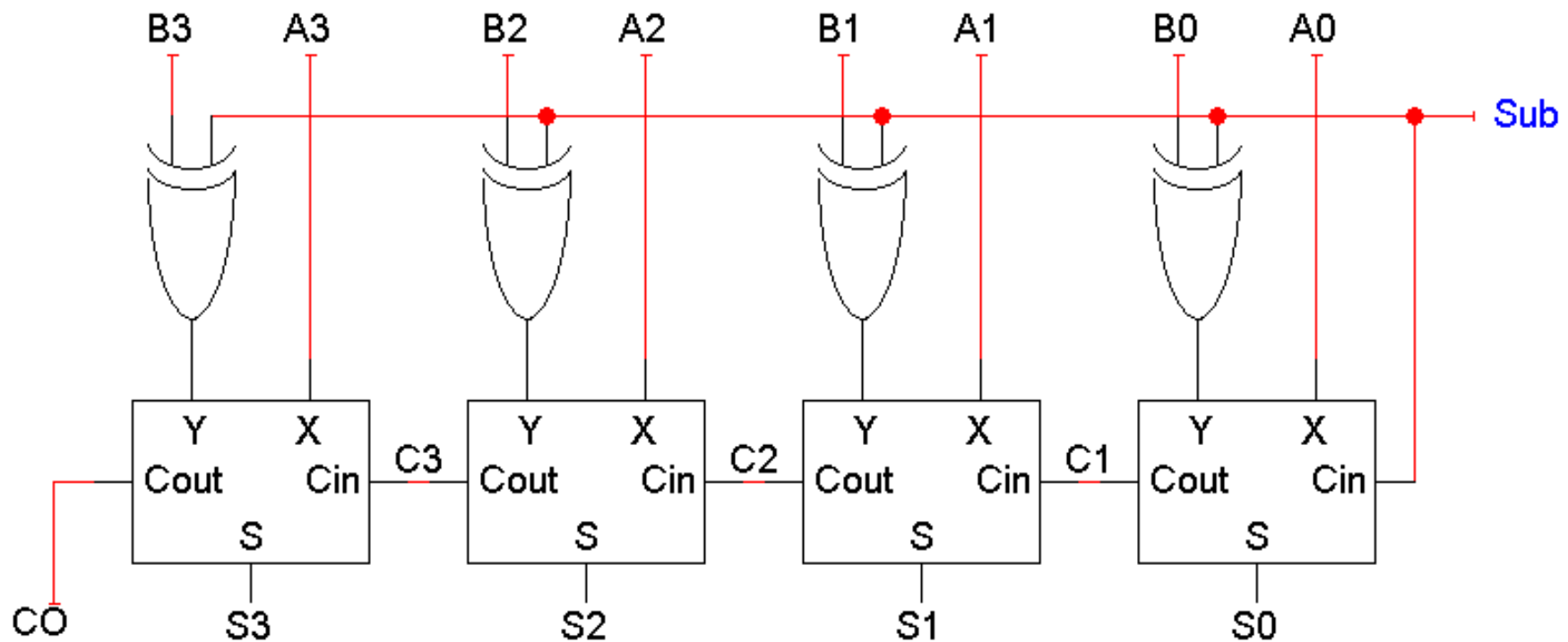
# An adder-subtractor circuit

- XOR gates let us selectively complement the B input.

$$X \oplus 0 = X$$

$$X \oplus 1 = X'$$

- When **Sub** = 0, the XOR gates output B3 B2 B1 B0 and the carry in is 0. The adder output will be  $A + B + 0$ , or just  $A + B$ .
- When **Sub** = 1, the XOR gates output B3' B2' B1' B0' and the carry in is 1. Thus, the adder output will be a two's complement subtraction,  $A - B$ .



## Signed overflow

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- With two's complement and a 4-bit adder, for example, the largest representable decimal number is +7, and the smallest is -8.
- What if you try to compute  $4 + 5$ , or  $(-4) + (-5)$ ?

$$\begin{array}{rcl} & 0100 & (+4) \\ + & 0101 & (+5) \\ \hline & 01001 & (-7) \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} & 1100 & (-4) \\ + & 1011 & (-5) \\ \hline & 10111 & (+7) \end{array}$$

- We cannot just include the carry out to produce a five-digit result, as for unsigned addition. If we did,  $(-4) + (-5)$  would result in +23!
- Also, unlike the case with unsigned numbers, the carry out *cannot* be used to detect overflow.
  - In the example on the left, the carry out is 0 but there *is* overflow.
  - Conversely, there are situations where the carry out is 1 but there is *no* overflow.

## Detecting signed overflow

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- The easiest way to detect signed overflow is to look at all the sign bits.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} & \boxed{0}100 & (+4) \\ + & 0101 & (+5) \\ \hline 0 & 1001 & (-7) \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} & \boxed{1}100 & (-4) \\ + & 1011 & (-5) \\ \hline 1 & 0111 & (+7) \end{array}$$

- Overflow occurs only in the two situations above:
  - If you add two *positive* numbers and get a *negative* result.
  - If you add two *negative* numbers and get a *positive* result.
- Overflow cannot occur if you add a positive number to a negative number. Do you see why?

# Sign extension

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- In everyday life, decimal numbers are assumed to have an infinite number of 0s in front of them. This helps in “lining up” numbers.
- To subtract 231 and 3, for instance, you can imagine:

$$\begin{array}{r} 231 \\ - 003 \\ \hline 228 \end{array}$$

- You need to be careful in extending signed binary numbers, because the leftmost bit is the *sign* and not part of the magnitude.
- If you just add 0s in front, you might accidentally change a negative number into a positive one!
- For example, going from 4-bit to 8-bit numbers:
  - 0101 (+5) should become 0000 0101 (+5).
  - But 1100 (-4) should become 1111 1100 (-4).
- The proper way to extend a signed binary number is to replicate the sign bit, so the sign is preserved.