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# ECE380 Digital Logic

## Number Representation and Arithmetic Circuits: Number Representation and Unsigned Addition

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## Positional representation

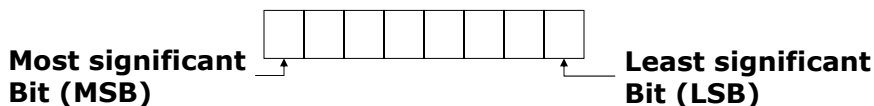
- First consider integers
  - Begin with positive only descriptions and expand to include negative numbers
  - Numbers that are positive only are **unsigned** and numbers that can also assume negative values are **signed**
- For the decimal system:
  - A number consists of digits having ten possible values (0-9)
  - Each digit represents a multiple of a power of 10
$$(123)_{10} = 1 \times 10^2 + 2 \times 10^1 + 3 \times 10^0$$
- In general, an integer is represented by  $n$  decimal digits
$$D = d_{n-1}d_{n-2} \dots d_1d_0$$
- Representing the value
$$V(D) = d_{n-1} \times 10^{n-1} + d_{n-2} \times 10^{n-2} + \dots + d_1 \times 10^1 + d_0 \times 10^0$$

# Positional representation

- Because the digits have 10 possible values and each digit is weighted as a power of 10, we say that decimal numbers are *base-10* or *radix-10* numbers
- In digital systems we commonly use the **binary**, or *base-2*, number system in which digits can be 0 or 1
  - Each digit is called a **bit**
- The positional representation is
$$B = b_{n-1}b_{n-2} \dots b_1b_0$$
- Representing a integer with the value
$$V(B) = b_{n-1} \times 2^{n-1} + b_{n-2} \times 2^{n-2} + \dots + b_1 \times 2^1 + b_0 \times 2^0$$

# Positional representation

- The binary number 1101 represents the value
$$V = 1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0$$
$$V = 8 + 4 + 1 = 13$$
- So
$$(1101)_2 = (13)_{10}$$
- The range of numbers that can be represented by a binary number depends of the number of bits used
- In general, using  $n$  bits allows a representation of positive integers in the range 0 to  $2^n - 1$



## Decimal/Binary conversion

- A binary number can be converted to a decimal number directly by evaluating the expression
$$V(B) = b_{n-1} \times 2^{n-1} + b_{n-2} \times 2^{n-2} + \dots + b_1 \times 2^1 + b_0 \times 2^0$$
- using decimal arithmetic (by expansion)
- Converting from a decimal to a binary number can be performed by successively dividing the decimal number by 2 as follows
  - Divide the decimal number (D) by 2 producing a quotient  $D/2$  and a remainder. The remainder will be 0 or 1 (since we divide by 2) and will represent a single bit (the LSB) of the binary equivalent
  - Repeatedly divide the generated quotient by 2 until the quotient=0. For each divide, the remainder represents one of the binary digits (bits) of the binary equivalent

## Decimal/Binary conversion

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  $(1101011001)_2$

## Octal and hexadecimal numbers

- Positional notation can be used for any radix (base). If the radix is  $r$ , then the number  $K = k_{n-1}k_{n-2} \dots k_1k_0$  has the value

$$V(K) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} k_i \times r^i$$

- Numbers with radix-8 are called **octal** and numbers with radix-16 are called **hexadecimal** (or hex)
  - For octal, digit values range from 0 to 7
  - For hex, digital values range from 0-9 and A-F

## Numbers in different systems

Decimal	Binary	Octal	Hex
0	0000	0	0
1	0001	1	1
2	0010	2	2
3	0011	3	3
4	0100	4	4
5	0101	5	5
6	0110	6	6
7	0111	7	7

Decimal	Binary	Octal	Hex
8	1000	10	8
9	1001	11	9
10	1010	12	A
11	1011	13	B
12	1100	14	C
13	1101	15	D
14	1110	16	E
15	1111	17	F

# Binary to hex or octal conversion

- Group binary digits into groups of four and assign each group a hexadecimal digit.

0110    1011    0111  
6        B        7

- Binary-to-octal:

011    010    110    111  
3        2        6        7

- Hexadecimal-to-binary:

A        1        9  
1010    0001    1001

- Octal-to-binary:

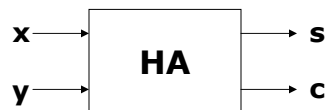
5        0        3        1  
101    000    011    001

# Unsigned number addition

- Additional of two 1-bit numbers gives four possible combinations

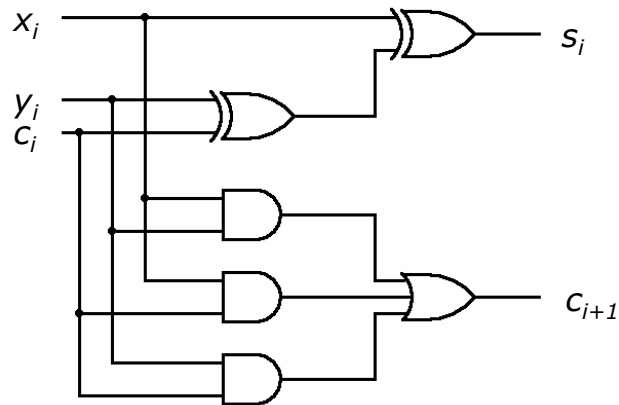
x	0	0	1	1	x	y	c	s
					0	0	0	0
					0	1	0	1
					1	0	0	1
					1	1	1	0

$$\begin{array}{r} x \\ + y \\ \hline c \quad s \end{array}$$
 carry      sum

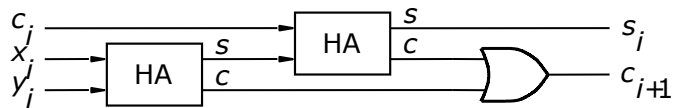




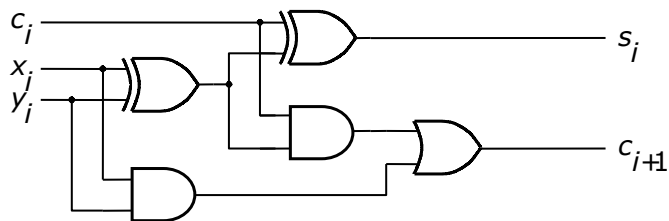
## Full adder circuit



## Full adder circuit (decomposed)



Block diagram

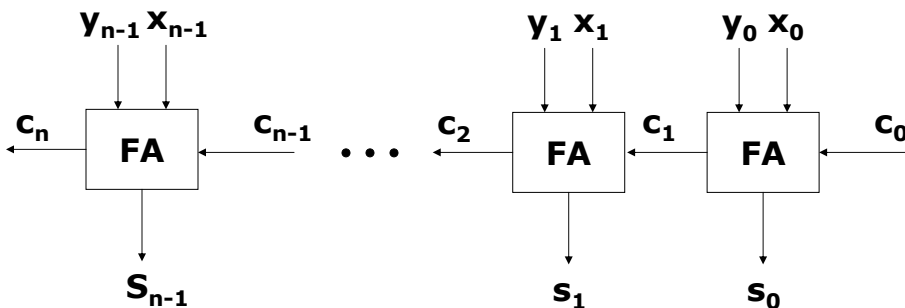


Detailed diagram

## Ripple-carry adder

- In performing addition, we start from the least significant digit and add pairs of digits progressing to the most significant digit
- If a carry is produced in position  $i$ , it is added to operands (digits) in position  $i+1$
- A chain of full adders, connected in sequence, can perform this operation
- Such a configuration is called a ***ripple-carry adder*** because of the way the carry signal 'ripple' through from stage to stage

## Ripple-carry adder





# Ripple-carry adder

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- Each full adder introduces a certain delay before its  $s_i$  and  $c_{i+1}$  outputs are valid
  - The propagation delay through the full adder
- Let this delay be  $\Delta t$
- The carry out of the first stage  $c_1$  arrives at the second stage  $\Delta t$  after the application of the  $x_0$  and  $y_0$  inputs
- The carry out of the second stage  $c_2$  arrives at the third stage with a delay of  $2\Delta t$ , and so on
- The signal  $c_{n-1}$  is valid after  $(n-1)\Delta t$ , and the complete sum is available after a delay of  $(n)\Delta t$
- The delay obviously depends on the size of the numbers (*i.e.* the number of bits)