

# CMSC 411

# Computer Architecture

## Lecture 10

## **Arithmetic Logic Unit**

Ergun Simsek


*How can we design/build an adder?  
How can we determine whether  $a < b$ ?*

# Overview

- Logic gates and operations
- Constructing an Arithmetic Logic Unit
- Scaling bit operations to word sizes
- Optimization for carry generation

# Single-Input Logic Gates


**NOT**



$Y = \overline{A}$

A	Y
0	1
1	0

**BUF**

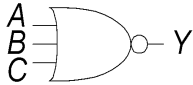


$Y = A$

A	Y
0	0
1	1

# Multiple-Input Logic Gates

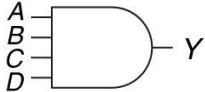
**NOR3**



$Y = \overline{A+B+C}$

A	B	C	Y
0	0	0	1
0	0	1	0
0	1	0	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0
1	1	1	0

**AND4**

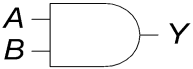


$Y = ABCD$

A	C	B	D	Y
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	0
0	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	1

# Two-Input Logic Gates

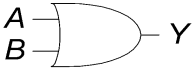
**AND**



$Y = AB$

A	B	Y
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

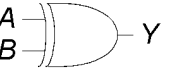
**OR**



$Y = A + B$

A	B	Y
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

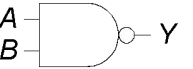
**XOR**



$Y = A \oplus B$

A	B	Y
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

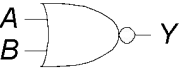
**NAND**



$Y = \overline{AB}$

A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

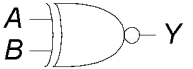
**NOR**



$Y = \overline{A + B}$

A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

**XNOR**

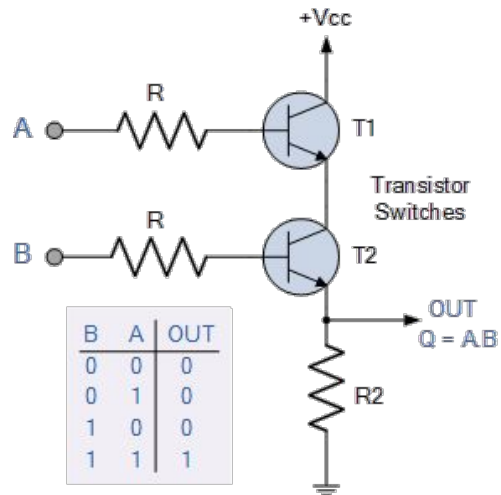


$Y = \overline{A \oplus B}$

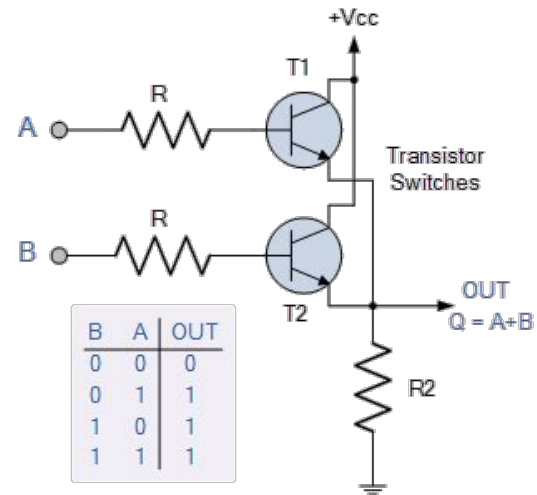
A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

# Building Gates with Transistors

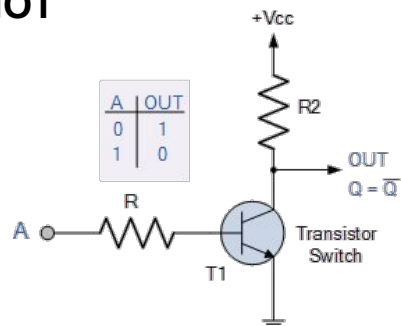
AND



OR



NOT



If you put two NOTs back to back, what do you get?

# Boolean Algebra

## Basic Identities of Boolean Algebra

1.	$X + 0 = X$	2.	$X \cdot 1 = X$	
3.	$X + 1 = 1$	4.	$X \cdot 0 = 0$	
5.	$X + X = X$	6.	$X \cdot X = X$	
7.	$X + \bar{X} = 1$	8.	$X \cdot \bar{X} = 0$	
9.	$\bar{\bar{X}} = X$			
10.	$X + Y = Y + X$	11.	$XY = YX$	Commutative
12.	$X + (Y + Z) = (X + Y) + Z$	13.	$X(YZ) = (XY)Z$	Associative
14.	$X(Y + Z) = XY + XZ$	15.	$X + YZ = (X + Y)(X + Z)$	Distributive
16.	$\overline{X + Y} = \bar{X} \cdot \bar{Y}$	17.	$\overline{X \cdot Y} = \bar{X} + \bar{Y}$	DeMorgan's

NOR = invert, then AND

NAND = invert, then OR

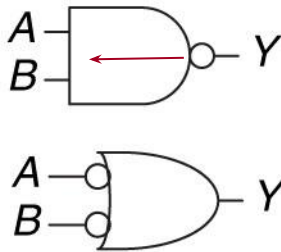
Left and right columns are *duals*  
Replace ANDs and ORs, 0s and 1s

# DeMorgan's Theorem: Bubble Pushing

Bubble pushing: imagine the bubble at the output is being pushed towards the inputs

1. it becomes a bubble at every input, and
2. the shape of the gate changes from AND to OR, and vice versa

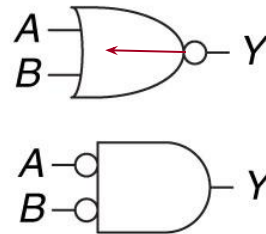
## NAND



$$Y = \overline{AB} = \overline{A} + \overline{B}$$

A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

## NOR



$$Y = \overline{A+B} = \overline{A} \overline{B}$$

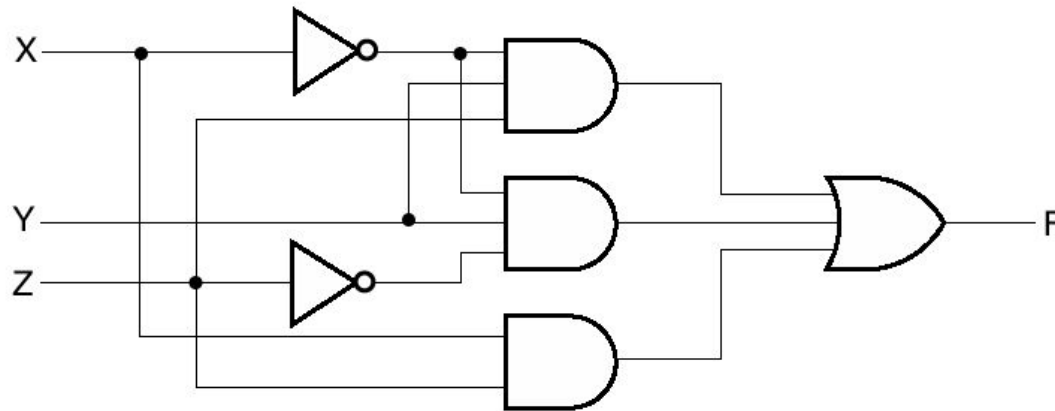
A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

# Algebraic/Boolean Manipulation

Apply algebraic and Boolean identities to simplify expression

Example:

$$F = \bar{X}YZ + \bar{X}Y\bar{Z} + XZ$$



(a)  $F = \bar{X}YZ + \bar{X}Y\bar{Z} + XZ$

# Simplification Example

$$F = \bar{X}YZ + \bar{X}Y\bar{Z} + XZ$$

$$F = \bar{X}Y(Z + \bar{Z}) + XZ$$

$$F = \bar{X}Y \cdot 1 + XZ$$

$$F = \bar{X}Y + XZ$$

Apply

$$14. \quad X(Y + Z) = XY + XZ$$

$$7. \quad X + \bar{X} = 1$$

$$2. \quad X \cdot 1 = X$$

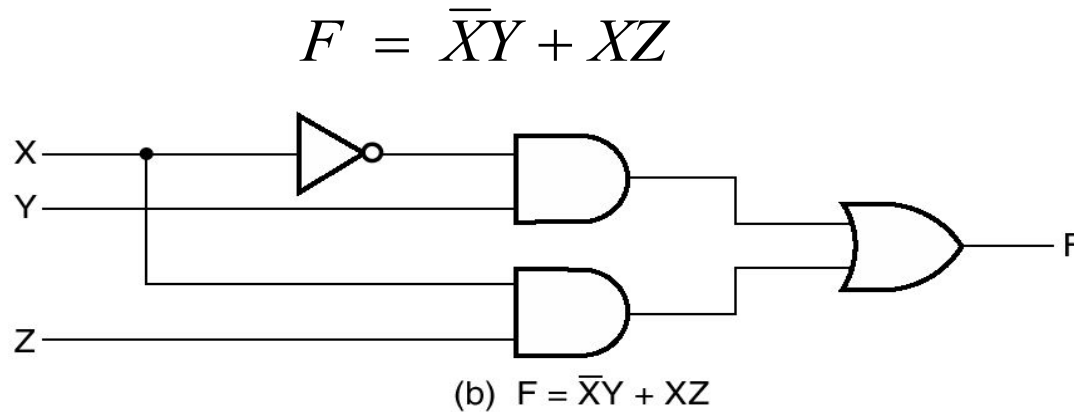


Fig. 2-4 Implementation of Boolean Function with Gates

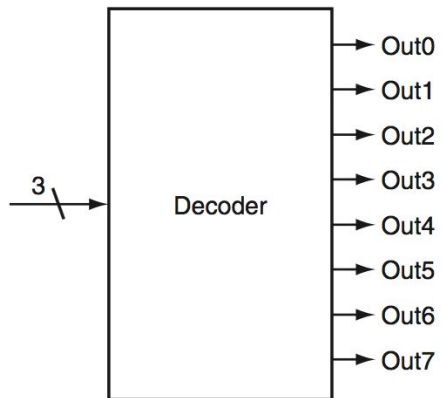
Fewer Gates



# Combinational logic

A logic system whose blocks do not contain memory and hence compute the same output given the same input.

## Example: Decoders

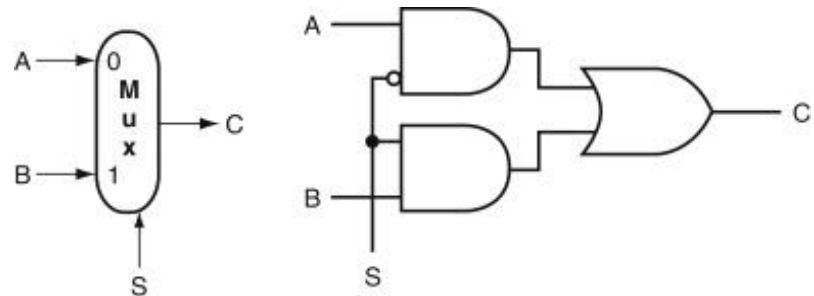


a. A 3-bit decoder

Inputs			Outputs							
12	11	10	Out7	Out6	Out5	Out4	Out3	Out2	Out1	Out0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

b. The truth table for a 3-bit decoder

## Example: Multiplexor



# Combinational logic

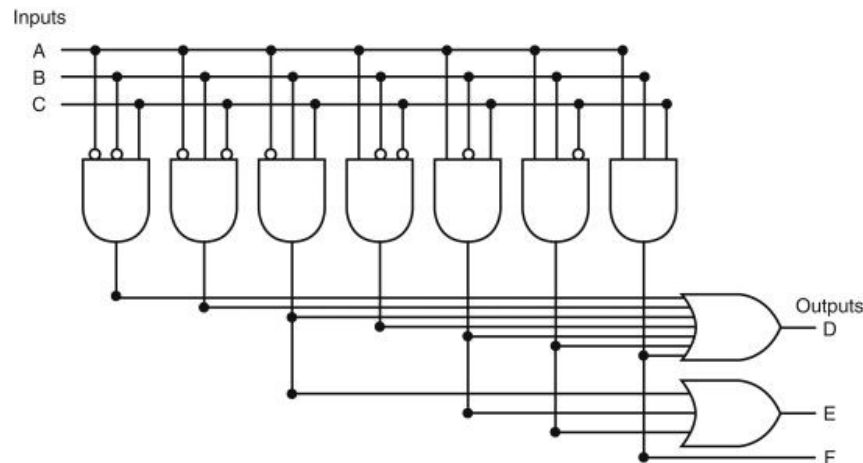
## Example: Programmable logic array (PLA)

Two stage logic elements functioning as a sum of products

Inputs			Outputs		
A	B	C	D	E	F
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	1	0
1	1	0	1	1	0
1	1	1	1	0	1

e.g.,

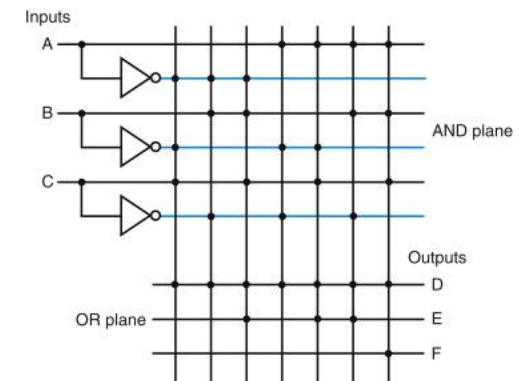
D = “A not” and “B not” and “C” or  
 “A not” and “B” and “C not” or  
 ....



Products

Sums

=

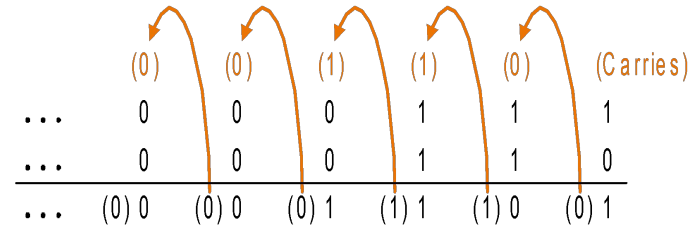


# Addition and Subtraction

Digits are added bit by bit from right to left, with carries passed to the next digit to the left

Example:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0111 = 7 \\
 +\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0110 = 6 \\
 \hline
 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 1101 = 13
 \end{array}$$



Subtraction uses addition: the appropriate operand is simply negated

Example:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0111 = 7 \\
 -\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0110 = 6 \\
 \hline
 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0001 = 1
 \end{array}$$

Or using two's complement arithmetic

$$\begin{array}{r}
 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0111 = 7 \\
 +\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1010 = -6 \\
 \hline
 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0001 = 1
 \end{array}$$

# Arithmetic Overflow

Overflow occurs when the result of an operation cannot be represented with the available hardware

Most hardware detects and signals overflow via an exception

Some high level languages ignore overflow (e.g. C and Java) and some check for and handle it (e.g. Ada and Fortran)

addu/addiu doesn't check for overflow

Try this in MARS or in SPIM (then replace addi with addiu!)

```
.text  
li $t0, 0x7fffffff  
addi $t0, $t0, 1
```

```
Runtime exception at 0x00400008: arithmetic overflow
```

# Arithmetic Overflow

How can MIPS detect an overflow?

Look at these examples (using two's complement)

$0110 + 0101 = 1\ 011$ ,  
pos. no + pos no = neg. no!

$1010 + 1001 = 10011$   
4 bit + 4 bit = 5 bit!

This is exactly how MIPS detect overflows

carry-out of the last full adder is equal to 1!

or

$\text{sign}(a) = \text{sign}(b) \neq \text{sign}(\text{sum})$

Operations	Operand A	Operand B	Result
A + B	$\geq 0$	$\geq 0$	$< 0$
A + B	$< 0$	$< 0$	$\geq 0$
A - B	$\geq 0$	$< 0$	$< 0$
A - B	$< 0$	$\geq 0$	$\geq 0$

# Overflow or No Overflow?

$$\begin{array}{r} 0\ 1\ 1\ 0 \\ +\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 1\ 0\ 1 \end{array}$$

OVERFLOW

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 1\ 0\ 0 \\ +\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 0\ 1 \end{array}$$

NO OVERFLOW

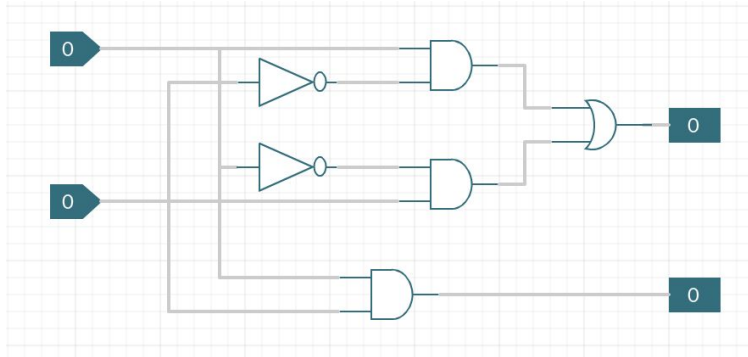
$$\begin{array}{r} 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ +\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1 \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 1\ 0 \end{array}$$

NO OVERFLOW

If an overflow is detected,

- PC will be changed to a predefined address in memory for exception
- Interrupted address is saved for resumption

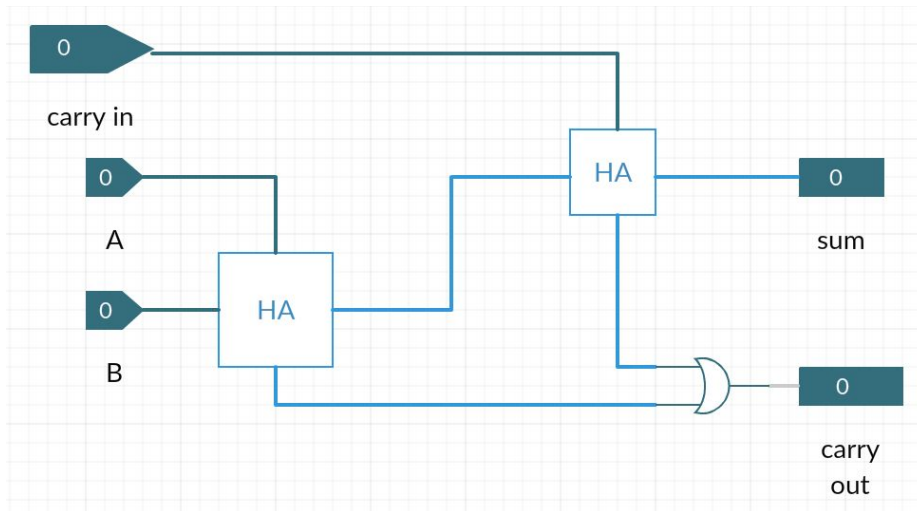
## One-Bit Addition (a.k.a Half Adder)



$$\text{sum} = A \text{ XOR } B$$

$$\text{carry} = A \text{ AND } B$$

## One-Bit Addition with Carry-in (a.k.a Full Adder)



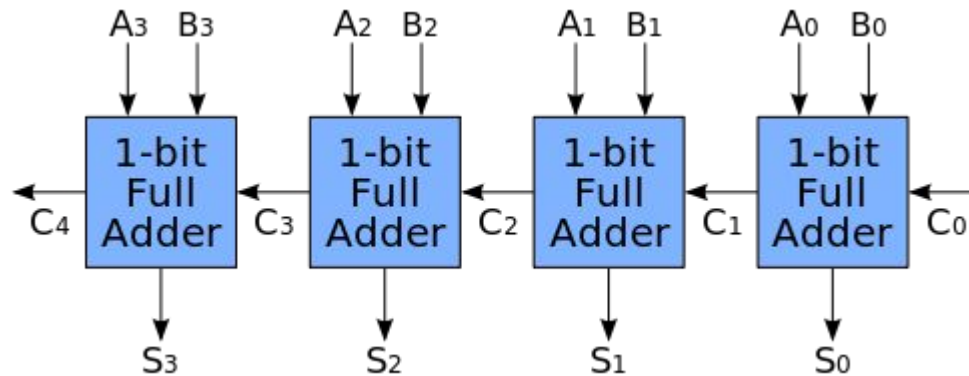
$$\text{sum}_{\text{full}} = \text{carry}_{\text{in}} \text{ XOR } \text{sum}_{\text{h1}}$$

$$\text{carry}_{\text{out}} = \text{carry}_{\text{h1}} \text{ OR } \text{carry}_{\text{h2}}$$

## 4-Bit Adder

Full Adder has 3 inputs (two operands and a carry-in) and it generates a sum bit and a carry-out to be passed to the next 1-bit adder.

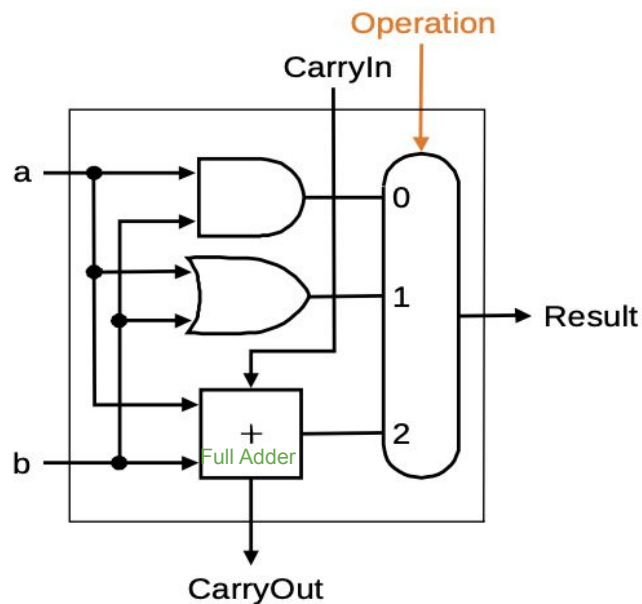
By using  $N$ -full adders in series, we can obtain  $N$ -bit adders.





# Simple Arithmetic Logic Unit: One-Bit ALU

Handles AND, OR, and binary addition. The two **Operation** control bits determine which result is passed through the MUX (AND, OR, or sum).



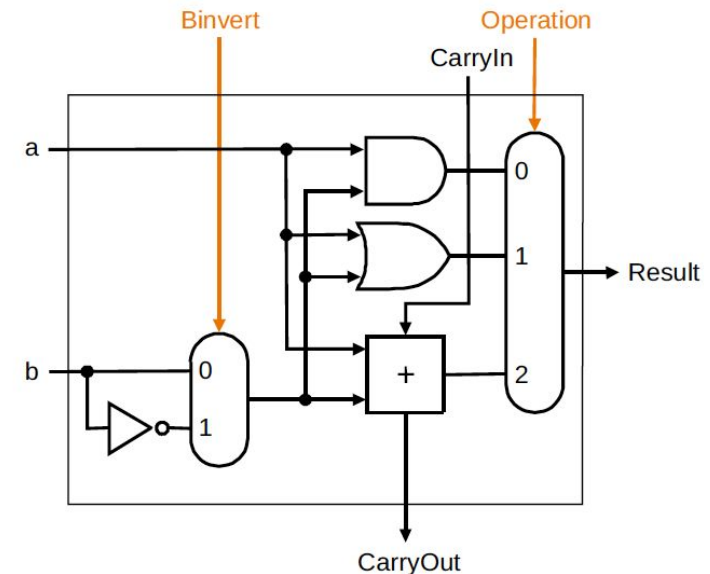
# What about subtraction?

Subtraction can be performed by inverting the operand and setting the “CarryIn” input for the adder to 1 (i.e. using two’s complement)

By adding a multiplexor to the second operand, we can select either b or b

The Binvert line indicates a subtraction operation and causes the two’s complement of b to be used as an input

$$a + \bar{b} + 1 = a + (\bar{b} + 1) = a + (-b) = a - b$$



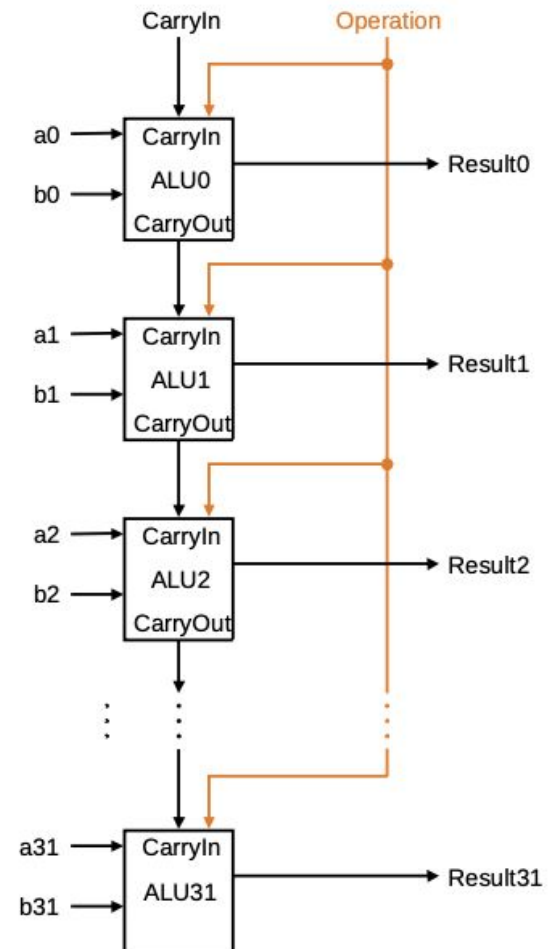
# A 32-Bit ALU

A full 32-bit ALU can be created by connecting adjacent Carry-in and carry-out lines

The carry out of the least significant bit can ripple all the way to the most significant bit (ripple carry adder)

Ripple carry adders are slow since the carry propagates sequentially

Subtraction can be performed by inverting the operand input for the whole adder to 1 (i.e. using two's complement)



# MIPS “slt” instruction

Each 1-bit ALU has an additional input called “Less”, which provides results for slt function. This input has value 0 for all but 1-bit ALU for the least significant bit.

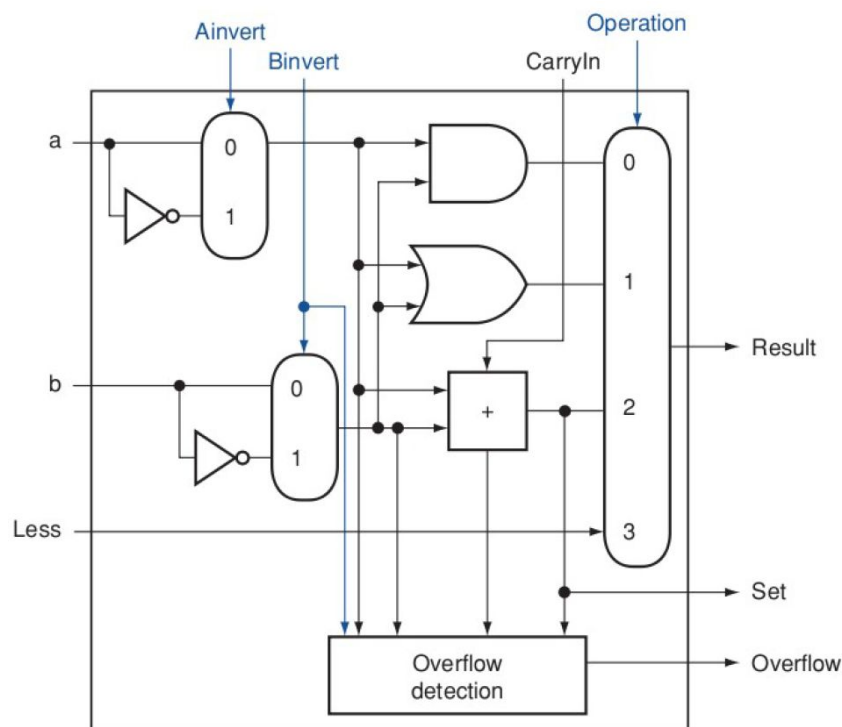
Note that  $a < b$  if and only if  $(a-b) < 0$ , which requires “bit 31” to be 1.

Sets the least significant bit to the value of sign bit

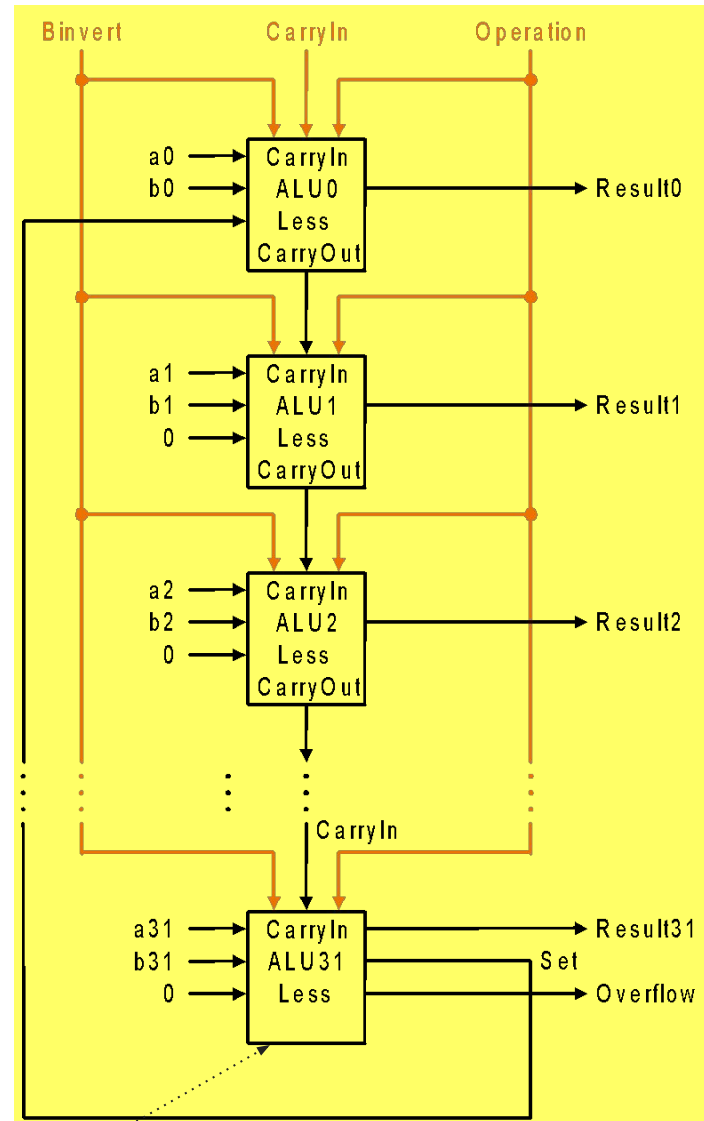
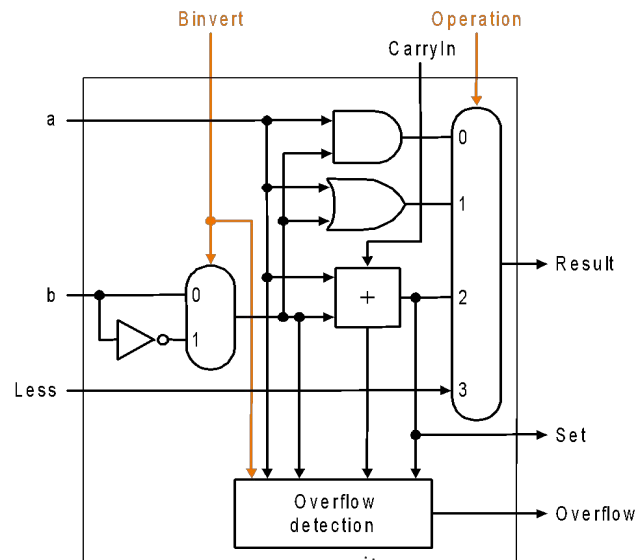
So, it returns

- 1 when  $a < b$ , because bit-31 is 1
- 0 otherwise, because bit-31 is 0

Pay attention to the inputs to the overflow detection unit



# 32-Bit ALU



Most Significant Bit

**32-Bit Basic MIPS ALU**

# How can we do conditional branching?

## Conditional Branching

“bne” and “beq” instruction compares two operands for equality


$a = b$  if and only if  $(a-b) = 0$

Then why don't we

- subtract  $b$  from  $a$  for all the bits
- “or” all of them

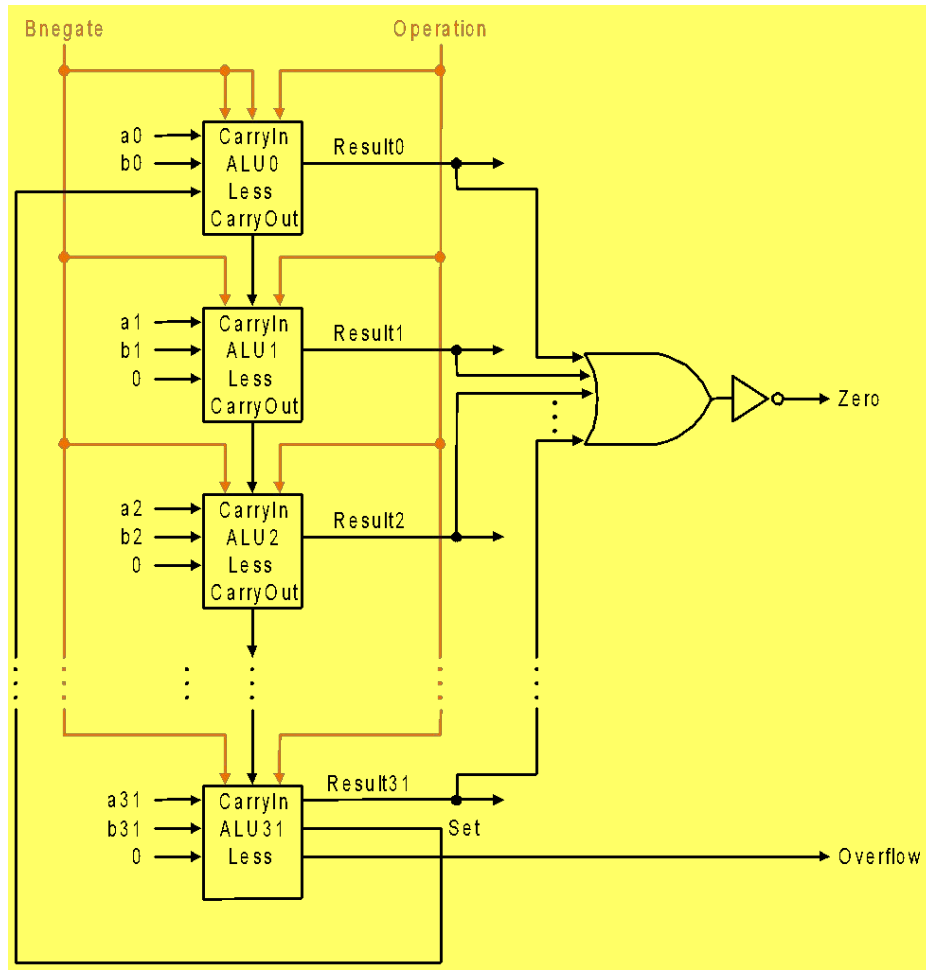
if they are all 0, then the output will be 0 (iow,  $a=b$ )

otherwise, output will be 1

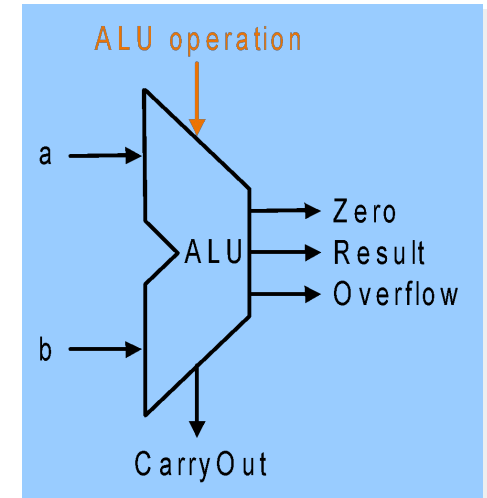


This is exact  
opposite of what  
we want!

# How can we do conditional branching?



**MIPS' ALU Circuits**



**ALU Symbol**

# Optimizing Adder's Design

## Problem with Ripple Carry Adders

- The CarryIn input depends on the operation in the adjacent 1-bit adder
- The result of adding most significant bits is only available after all other bits, i.e. after  $n-1$  single-bit additions
- The sequential chain reaction is too slow to be used in time-critical hardware

**Approach-1:** Assume we have infinite hardware!

We know that  $c1 = (b0 \cdot c0) + (a0 \cdot c0) + (a0 \cdot b0)$

Similarly,  $c2 = (b1 \cdot c1) + (a1 \cdot c1) + (a1 \cdot b1)$

Then 
$$c2 = (a1 \cdot a0 \cdot b0) + (a1 \cdot a0 \cdot c0) + (a1 \cdot b0 \cdot c0) + (b1 \cdot a0 \cdot b0) + (b1 \cdot a0 \cdot c0) + (b1 \cdot b0 \cdot c0) + (a1 \cdot b1)$$

We can build a fast adder in the expense of exponentially growing gate number



# Optimizing Adder's Design

**Approach-2:** Divide N-bits into M groups (e.g. 1011 1001 0110 1001), work on these small groups, propagate group's "CarryOut"s

We know that

- if  $a = 0, b = 0$ , we won't have a CarryOut
- if  $a = 1, b = 1$ , we will always have a CarryOut
- Otherwise, CarryOut = CarryIn

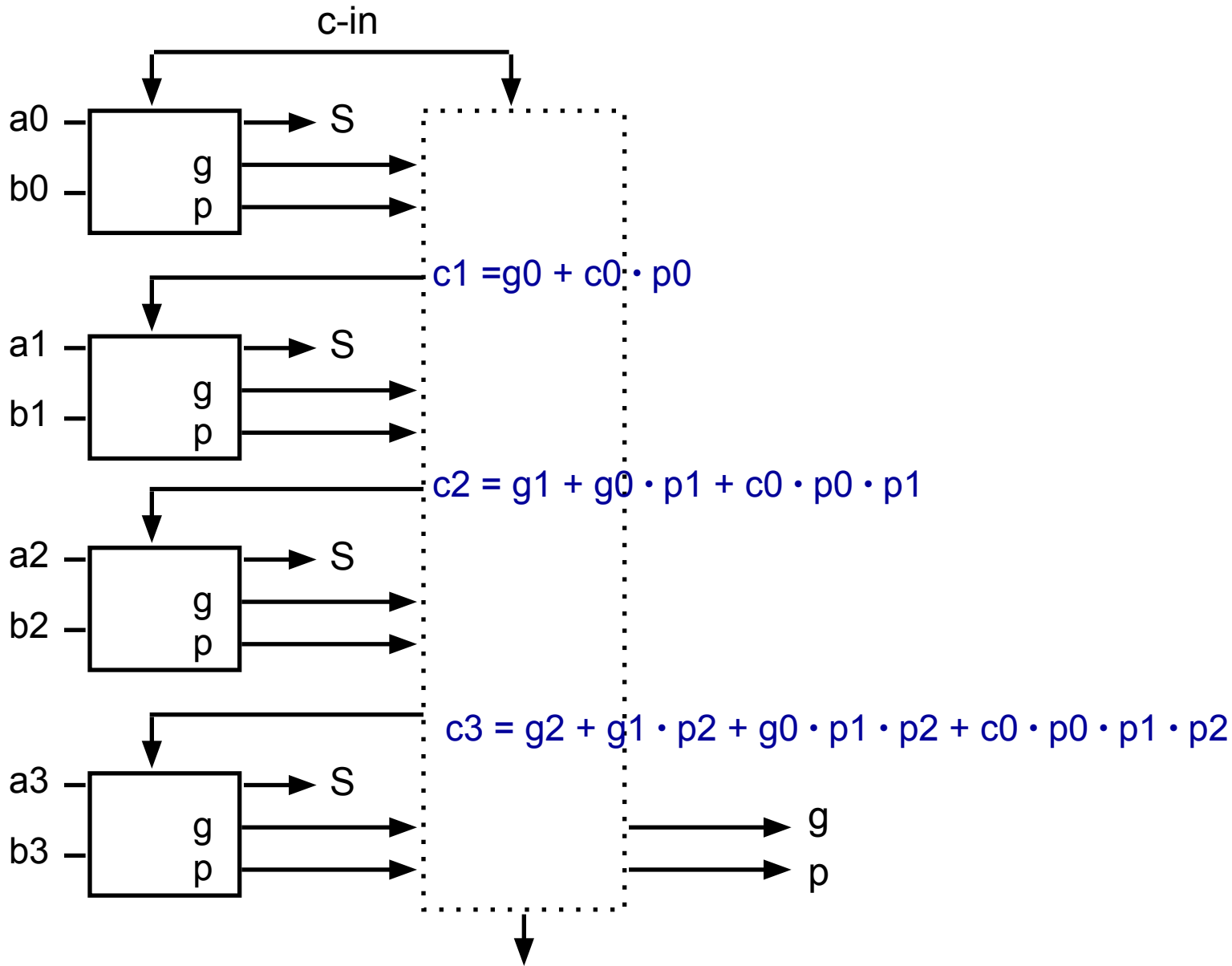
$p = a \text{ or } b$

$g = a \text{ and } b$

$$\begin{aligned}c_{i+1} &= (b_i \cdot c_i) + (a_i \cdot c_i) + (a_i \cdot b_i) \\&= (a_i \cdot b_i) + c_i \cdot (a_i + b_i) \\&= g_i + c_i \cdot p_i\end{aligned}$$

a	b	c-out
0	0	0 "kill"
0	1	c-in "propagate"
1	0	c-in "propagate"
1	1	1 "generate"

# Carry Lookahead (propagate & generate)



# An Example

Determine  $g_i$ ,  $p_i$ ,  $P_i$ ,  $G_i$  and carry out ( $C_4$ ) values for these two 16-bit numbers:

a: 0001 1010 0011 0011

b: 1110 0101 1110 1011

**Answer:** Using the formula  $g_i = (a_i \cdot b_i)$  and  $p_i = (a_i + b_i)$

$g_i$  : 0000 0000 0010 0011

$p_i$  : 1111 1111 1111 1011

The “super” propagates ( $P_0, P_1, P_2, P_3$ ) are calculated as follows:

$$P_0 = p_3 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_1 \cdot p_0 = 0 \qquad P_1 = p_7 \cdot p_6 \cdot p_5 \cdot p_4 = 1$$

$$P_2 = p_{11} \cdot p_{10} \cdot p_9 \cdot p_8 = 1 \qquad P_3 = p_{15} \cdot p_{14} \cdot p_{13} \cdot p_{12} = 1$$

The “super” generates ( $G_0, G_1, G_2, G_3$ ) are calculated as follows:

$$G_0 = g_3 + (p_3 \cdot g_2) + (p_3 \cdot p_2 \cdot g_1) + (p_3 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_1 \cdot g_0) = 0$$

$$G_1 = g_7 + (p_7 \cdot g_6) + (p_7 \cdot p_6 \cdot g_5) + (p_7 \cdot p_6 \cdot p_5 \cdot g_4) = 1$$

$$G_2 = g_{11} + (p_{11} \cdot g_{10}) + (p_{11} \cdot p_{10} \cdot g_9) + (p_{11} \cdot p_{10} \cdot p_9 \cdot g_8) = 0$$

$$G_3 = g_{15} + (p_{15} \cdot g_{14}) + (p_{15} \cdot p_{14} \cdot g_{13}) + (p_{15} \cdot p_{14} \cdot p_{13} \cdot g_{12}) = 0$$

Finally carry-out ( $C_4$ ) is:

$$C_4 = G_3 + (P_3 \cdot G_2) + (P_3 \cdot P_2 \cdot G_1) + (P_3 \cdot P_2 \cdot P_1 \cdot G_0) + (P_3 \cdot P_2 \cdot P_1 \cdot P_0 \cdot C_0) = 1$$