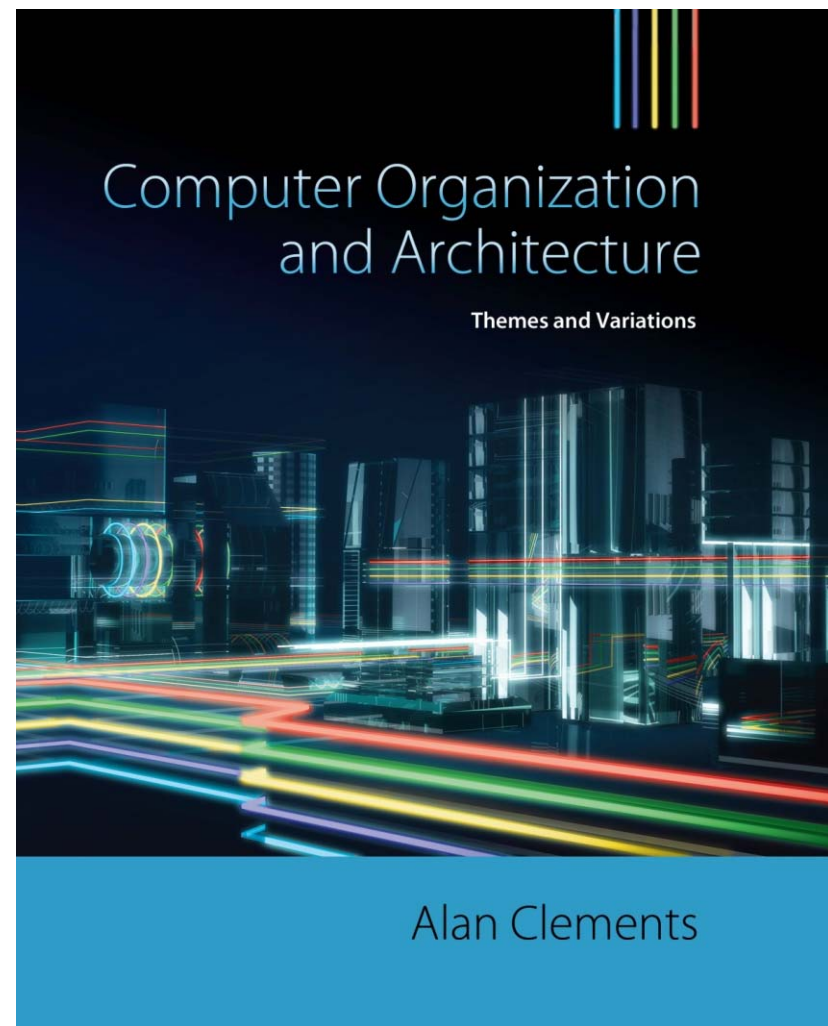


# Part 1

## CHAPTER 2

### Computer Arithmetic and Digital Logic

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# Bits and Bytes

- ❑ In digital computers, data is represented using *Bits* (*Binary digiT*)s.
- ❑ A *bit* has *two values* that we call 0 and 1, *low* and *high*, *false* and *true*, *clear* and *set*, and so on.
- ❑ Using bits, it is easy to represent real-world quantities.
  - Sound and images can easily be converted to bits.
  - Strings of bits can be converted back to sound or images.
- ❑ We call a *unit of 8 bits* a *byte*. This is a *convention*.

# Bit Patterns

- ❑ One bit can have two values, 0 or 1.
- ❑ Two bits can have four values, 00, 01, 10, 11.
- ❑ Each time you introduce a bit, you double the number of possible combinations, as Figure 2.1 demonstrates.

- ❑ 3 bits can have  $(2^3)$  8 values
- ❑ 4 bits can have  $(2^4)$  16 values
- ❑ 5 bits can have  $(2^5)$  32 values
- ❑ 6 bits can have  $(2^6)$  64 values
- ❑ 7 bits can have  $(2^7)$  128 values
- ❑ 8 bits can have  $(2^8)$  256 values
- ❑ 9 bits can have  $(2^9)$  512 values
- ❑ 10 bits can have  $(2^{10})$  1 K values
- ❑ 11 bits can have  $(2^{11})$  2 K values
- ❑ 12 bits can have  $(2^{12})$  4 K values

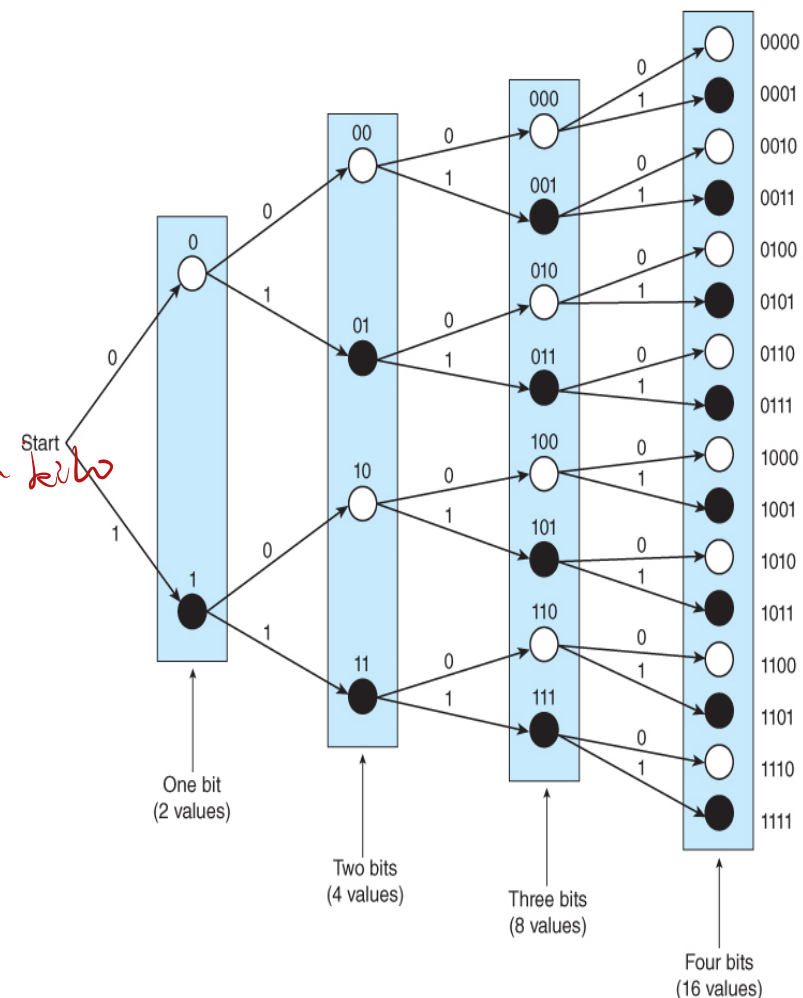
k here is not a kilo

- ❑ 20 bits can have  $(2^{20})$  1 Mega values
- ❑ 23 bits can have  $(2^{23})$  8 Mega values

- ❑ 30 bits can have  $(2^{30})$  1 Giga values
- ❑ 34 bits can have  $(2^{34})$  16 Giga values

FIGURE 2.1

The binary tree



# Bit Patterns

- ❑ One of the **first** quantities **to be represented** in digital form was the **character** (*letters*, *numbers*, and *symbols*).
  - This was necessary in order to transmit text across the networks that were developed as a result of the invention of the telegraph.
- ❑ This led to a **standard code** for characters called **ASCII** (*American Standard Code for Information Interchange*)
  - 7 bit code *← the extended version is 8 bit.*
  - representing up to  $2^7 = 128$  characters of **Latin alphabet**.
- ❑ Today, the **16-bit unicode** has been devised to represent a much greater range of characters including *non-Latin alphabets*.

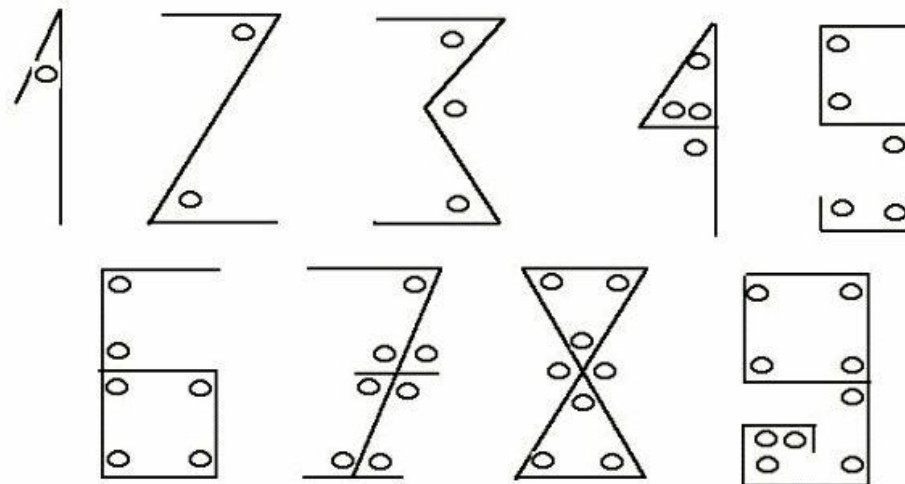
# ASCII Code

*Capital + 32*  
*=> Smaller*

0	NUL	1	SOH	2	STX	3	ETX	4	EOT	5	ENQ	6	ACK	7	BEL
8	BS	9	HT	10	NL	11	VT	12	NP	13	CR	14	SO	15	SI
16	DLE	17	DC1	18	DC2	19	DC3	20	DC4	21	NAK	22	SYN	23	ETB
24	CAN	25	EM	26	SUB	27	ESC	28	FS	29	GS	30	RS	31	US
32	SP	33	!	34	"	35	#	36	\$	37	%	38	&	39	'
40	(	41	)	42	*	43	+	44	,	45	-	46	.	47	/
48	0	49	1	50	2	51	3	52	4	53	5	54	6	55	7
56	8	57	9	58	:	59	;	60	<	61	=	62	>	63	?
64	@	65	A	66	B	67	C	68	D	69	E	70	F	71	G
72	H	73	I	74	J	75	K	76	L	77	M	78	N	79	O
80	P	81	Q	82	R	83	S	84	T	85	U	86	V	87	W
88	X	89	Y	90	Z	91	[	92	\	93	]	94	^	95	_
96	`	97	a	98	b	99	c	100	d	101	e	102	f	103	g
104	h	105	i	106	j	107	k	108	l	109	m	110	n	111	o
112	p	113	q	114	r	115	s	116	t	117	u	118	v	119	w
120	x	121	y	122	z	123	{	124		125	}	126	~	127	DEL

# Numbers and Binary Arithmetic

- ❑ One of the great advances in history was the **move away from Roman numerals** (I, II, III, IV, V, VI, VII, VIII, IX, X, ..., L, ..., C, ..., D, ..., M, ... where **I=1**, **V=5**, **X=10**, **L=50**, **C=100**, **D=500**, and **M=1000**) to the **Hindu-Arabic** notation (0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9) that we use today.
- ❑ Invented by **Muhammad Musa Al-Khwarizmi** (Born 780—Died 850)
- ❑ Numerals represent the number of angles in a digit



# Numbers and Binary Arithmetic

- ❑ Arithmetic calculations are remarkably difficult using Roman numerals, but they are far simpler using Hindu-Arabic positional notation system.
- ❑ In positional notation, the  $n$ -digit integer  $N$  is written as a sequence of digits in the form

$$a_{n-1} a_{n-2} \dots a_i \dots a_1 a_0$$

- For example, when  $N$  is 278, then  $a_2 = 2$ ,  $a_1 = 7$ , and  $a_0 = 8$ .
- ❑ The value of this number expressed in positional notation in the base  $b$  is defined as

$$N = a_{n-1} \times b^{n-1} \dots + a_1 \times b^1 + a_0 \times b^0$$

i.e.,

$$N = 2 \times 10^2 + 7 \times 10^1 + 8 \times 10^0 = 200 + 70 + 8 = 278$$

# Numbers and Binary Arithmetic

- ❑ Positional notation can be extended to express real values by using a radix point to separate the integer and fractional part, e.g.,
  - decimal point in base ten arithmetic or
  - binary point in base two arithmetic.
- ❑ A real value in decimal arithmetic is written in the form 1234.567.
- ❑ To generalize, if we have
  - $n$  digits to the left of the radix point and
  - $m$  digits to the right of the radix point,
 we can write the number as  $a_{n-1} a_{n-2} \dots a_i \dots a_1 a_0 . a_{-1} a_{-2} \dots a_{-m}$
- ❑ The value of this number expressed in positional notation in the base  $b$  is defined as

$$N = a_{n-1} \times b^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 \times b^1 + a_0 \times b^0 + a_{-1} \times b^{-1} + a_{-2} \times b^{-2} + \dots + a_{-m} \times b^{-m}$$

$$= \sum_{i=-m}^{n-1} a_i b^i$$



## Warning!

- ❑ Any integer number can be *accurately* converted from a base to the other without any error.
- ❑ Some fractions that can be represented in base cannot be represented in another base
  - for example  $0.1_{10}$  cannot be *accurately* converted into binary form.

# Binary Arithmetic

□ These tables cover the fundamental arithmetic operations.

Produces  
sum & carry

## Addition

$$0 + 0 = 0$$

$$0 + 1 = 1$$

$$1 + 0 = 1$$

$$1 + 1 = 0 \text{ (carry 1)}$$

Produces  
difference & borrow

## Subtraction

$$0 - 0 = 0$$

$$0 - 1 = 1 \text{ (borrow 1)}$$

$$1 - 0 = 1$$

$$1 - 1 = 0$$

## Multiplication

$$0 \times 0 = 0$$

$$0 \times 1 = 0$$

$$1 \times 0 = 0$$

$$1 \times 1 = 1$$

$$\underline{10} - 01 = 01.$$

# Binary Arithmetic

□ These tables cover the fundamental arithmetic operations.

Produces  
sum & carry

## Addition

$$0 + 0 = 0 \text{ (carry 0)}$$

$$0 + 1 = 1 \text{ (carry 0)}$$

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Produces  
difference & borrow

## Subtraction

$$0 - 0 = 0 \text{ (borrow 0)}$$

$$0 - 1 = 1 \text{ (borrow 1)}$$

$$1 - 0 = 1 \text{ (borrow 0)}$$

$$1 - 1 = 0 \text{ (borrow 0)}$$

## Multiplication

$$0 \times 0 = 0$$

$$0 \times 1 = 0$$

$$1 \times 0 = 0$$

$$1 \times 1 = 1$$

## Addition (three bits)

$$0 + 0 + 0 = 0 \text{ (carry 0)}$$

$$0 + 0 + 1 = 1 \text{ (carry 0)}$$

$$0 + 1 + 0 = 1 \text{ (carry 0)}$$

$$0 + 1 + 1 = 0 \text{ (carry 1)}$$

$$1 + 0 + 0 = 1 \text{ (carry 0)}$$

$$1 + 0 + 1 = 0 \text{ (carry 1)}$$

$$1 + 1 + 0 = 0 \text{ (carry 1)}$$

$$1 + 1 + 1 = 1 \text{ (carry 1)}$$

## Subtraction (three bits)

$$0 - 0 - 0 = 0 \text{ (borrow 0)}$$

$$0 - 0 - 1 = 1 \text{ (borrow 1)}$$

$$0 - 1 - 0 = 1 \text{ (borrow 1)}$$

$$0 - 1 - 1 = 0 \text{ (borrow 1)}$$

$$1 - 0 - 0 = 1 \text{ (borrow 0)}$$

$$1 - 0 - 1 = 0 \text{ (borrow 0)}$$

$$1 - 1 - 0 = 0 \text{ (borrow 0)}$$

$$1 - 1 - 1 = 1 \text{ (borrow 1)}$$

□ The digital logic necessary to implement bit-level arithmetic operations is trivial.

# Binary Arithmetic

- ❑ When you add two binary numbers, you add same position bits together, one column at a time, starting with the least-significant bit.
- ❑ Any carry-out is added to the next column on the left.

Example 1

carry → 1  

$$\begin{array}{r} 00101010 \\ + 01001101 \\ \hline 01110111 \end{array}$$

Example 2

$$\begin{array}{r} 11111 \\ 10011111 \\ + 00000001 \\ \hline 10100000 \end{array}$$

Example 3

$$\begin{array}{r} 00110011 \\ + 11001100 \\ \hline 11111111 \end{array}$$

Example 4

$$\begin{array}{r} 111 \quad 11 \\ 01110011 \\ + 01110011 \\ \hline 11100110 \end{array}$$

## Addition

$0 + 0 = 0$  (carry 0)  
 $0 + 1 = 1$  (carry 0)  
 $1 + 0 = 1$  (carry 0)  
 $1 + 1 = 0$  (carry 1)

## Addition (three bits)

$0 + 0 + 0 = 0$  (carry 0)  
 $0 + 0 + 1 = 1$  (carry 0)  
 $0 + 1 + 0 = 1$  (carry 0)  
 $0 + 1 + 1 = 0$  (carry 1)  
 $1 + 0 + 0 = 1$  (carry 0)  
 $1 + 0 + 1 = 0$  (carry 1)  
 $1 + 1 + 0 = 0$  (carry 1)  
 $1 + 1 + 1 = 1$  (carry 1)

# Binary Arithmetic

- ❑ When subtracting binary numbers, you have to remember that *0 – 1 results in a difference 1 and a borrow from the column on the left.*

The borrow is not correct in the book.

Example 1    Example 2    Example 3    Example 4    Example 5

*borrow* ↘

01101001	<sup>-1</sup> 10011111	<sup>1</sup> 10111011	<sup>1</sup> 10110000	01100011
<u>-01001001</u>	<u>-01000001</u>	<u>-10000100</u>	<u>-01100011</u>	<u>-10110000</u>
00100000	01011110	00110111	01001101	

## Subtraction (three bits)

0 – 0 – 0 = 0 (borrow 0)

0 – 0 – 1 = 1 (borrow 1)

0 – 1 – 0 = 1 (borrow 1)

0 – 1 – 1 = 0 (borrow 1)

1 – 0 – 0 = 1 (borrow 0)

1 – 0 – 1 = 0 (borrow 0)

1 – 1 – 0 = 0 (borrow 0)

1 – 1 – 1 = 1 (borrow 1)

## Subtraction

0 – 0 = 0 (borrow 0)

0 – 1 = 1 (borrow 1)

1 – 0 = 1 (borrow 0)

1 – 1 = 0 (borrow 0)

<sup>1</sup> 1111  
10110000  
-01100011  
01001101

*flip it and make it negative.*

01100011  
-10110000  
-01001101

We have reversed the subtraction (smaller from larger) as we do in conventional mathematic.

Computers do not operate in this way!!

## Binary Arithmetic

- ❑ In multiplication, **Multiplicand** × **Multiplier** = **Product**
- ❑ The following demonstrates the multiplication of  $01101001_2$  (the **multiplicand**) by  $01001001_2$  (the **multiplier**).
- ❑ You start with the least-significant bit of the **multiplier** and test whether it is a **0** or a **1**. If it is a **0**, you write down *n zeros*; if it is a **1**, you write down the **multiplicand** (this value is called a partial product).
- ❑ You then test the next bit of the **multiplier** to the left and carry out the same operation—in this case you write either *n zeros* or the **multiplicand** one place to the left (i.e., the partial product is shifted left).
- ❑ The process is continued until you have examined each bit of the **multiplier** in turn.
- ❑ Finally you add together the *n* partial products to generate the **product** of the **multiplicand** times the **multiplier**.

Multiplicand	Multiplier	Step	Partial products
01101001	01001001 <b>1</b>	1	computer add each layers separately
01101001	0100100 <b>1</b>	2	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
01101001	01001 <b>0</b> 01	3	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
01101001	0100 <b>1</b> 001	4	rather than store these values
01101001	010 <b>0</b> 1001	5	0 1 1 0 1 0 0 1
01101001	01 <b>0</b> 01001	6	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
01101001	01 <b>0</b> 01001	7	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
01101001	0 <b>1</b> 001001	8	0 1 1 0 1 0 0 1
01101001	<b>0</b> 1001001		0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
Result			0 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1

# Binary Arithmetic

□ Note that,

- A computer does not perform multiplication operations in this way, as this would require *storing* the *n* partial products, followed by the simultaneous addition of *n* words.
- A better technique is to add up the partial products as they are formed.

Multiplicand	Multiplier	Step	Partial products															
01101001	0100100 <b>1</b>	1									0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
01101001	0100100 <b>0</b> 1	2							0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
01101001	01001 <b>0</b> 01	3						0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
01101001	0100 <b>1</b> 001	4				0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1			
01101001	010 <b>0</b> 1001	5			0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
01101001	01 <b>0</b> 01001	6		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0					
01101001	0 <b>1</b> 001001	7		0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1							
01101001	<b>0</b> 1001001	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0								
		Result	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	

# Range, Precision, Accuracy and Errors

## Range:

❑ The variation between the largest and smallest values that can be represented in a given memory location

- An  $n$  bits binary number has a range from 0 to  $2^n - 1$ .

For example, a 1 byte has a range from 0 to 255.

$2^n$  values

❑ Note that: the number of possible values that can be encoded in an  $n$  bits binary number is  $2^n$



# Range, Precision, Accuracy and Errors

## Precision:

- The precision of a number is a measure of *how well (precise) we can represent the number*;
  - $\pi$  cannot be exactly represented by a binary or a decimal real number – no matter how many bits we take.
    - If we use **5 decimal digits** to represent  $\pi$  (i.e., 3.1415), we say that its **precision is 1 in  $10^5$** , or you can say **5 significant figures**
    - If we use **10 decimal digits** to represent  $\pi$  (i.e., 3.141592653), we say that its **precision is 1 in  $10^{10}$** , or you can say **10 significant figures**

# Range, Precision, Accuracy and Errors

## Accuracy:

- ❑ The difference between a representation and its actual value
  - If we measure the temperature of a liquid as 51.32° and its actual temperature is 51.34°, the **error** is 0.02°.
  - The **error** (*true value – actual value*) is a one way to measure the **accuracy**.
- ❑ It is tempting to mix **accuracy** and **precision**.
- ❑ Be careful, they are not the same.
  - The temperature of the liquid may be measured as 51.320001° which has a **precision** of 8 significant figures, but if its actual temperature is 51.34° the **error** will be 0.019999°.
- ❑ What matters to us as computer designers, programmers, and users is
  - how errors arise,
  - how they are controlled, and
  - how their effects are minimized.

*the value is accurate only when there is no error!*