ITI1100/section A Winter 2013

DIGITAL SYSTEM I

Lectures:

Tuesday, 13:00 – 14:30 room: *STE-G0103*
Thursday, 11: 30 –13:00 room: *STE-G0103*

Tutorial 1-Thursday 17:30 - 19:00 DMS 1130
Tutorial 2- Wednesday 11:30 - 13:00 LEE A131

LAB 1 Thursday 19:00 - 22:00 CBY B302
LAB 2 Wednesday 14:30 - 17:30 CBY B302
LAB 3 Friday 17:30 - 20:30 CBY B302

Professor : Dr. A. Karmouch, office CBY A508

Mid-term exam: Saturday March 2, 2013(10:00-11:30)

- **Course website:**

- http://www.site.uottawa.ca/~karmouch/teaching/

Password: “elg1100b”

Course Outline

Digital Design

1. **Binary Systems.**
   Digital Systems. Binary Numbers. Number Base Conversions. Octal and Hexadecimal Numbers. Complements. Signed Binary Numbers. Binary Codes. Binary Storage and Registers. Binary arithmetic

2. **Boolean Algebra and Logic Gates.**
   Basic Definitions. Basic Theorems and Properties of Boolean Algebra. Boolean Functions. Canonical and Standard Forms. Other Logic Operations. Digital Logic Gates.

Course Outline

Digital Design [2]

3. Gate Level Minimization

The Map Method. Four Variable Map. Product of Sums Simplification. Don't Care Conditions. NAND and NOR, Implementation. Other Two Level Implementations. Exclusive OR Function.

4. Combinational Logic

Combinational Circuits. Analysis Procedure. Design Procedure. Binary Adder Subtractor. Magnitude Comparator. Decoders. Encoders. Multiplexers.

Course Outline

Digital Design [3]

5. **Synchronous Sequential Logic.**
   Sequential Circuits. Latches. Flip Flops. Analysis of Clocked Sequential Circuits. Design Procedure.

6. **Registers ad Counters.**
   Registers. Shift Registers. Ripple Counters. Synchronous Counters. Other Counters.

Textbook

Available at the University of Ottawa bookstore/AGORA.

REQUIRED!

Book Title: Digital Design

Authors: M Morris Mano & Michael D. Ciletti

Edition: Fifth Edition

Publisher: Pearson-Prentice Hall

Course Format

- 7.5 Hours of scheduled instruction per week
  - 3 hours of Lecture
  - 1.5 hour of Group Discussions. (starting date: to be announced in the class)
  - 3 hours of Laboratory (starting date: to be announced in the class)

Laboratory

→Each student will have a laboratory session every week. There are six experiments to be performed, each requiring a group preparation and completion report.

→ Laboratory groups will consist of **two** students only.

→ Students are required to stay in the same group and with the same TA for the whole semester.

Laboratory

→Every group performing the experiment is required to record their data on paper and this should be seen and signed by the TA.

→The data should be attached to the submitted report. One lab report is expected from each group after each lab.

→The lab report should be prepared according to the guidelines specified in the lab manual.

→ Lab report s are due one week after experiment.

→ Lab reports must be submitted to the TAs during the lab sessions.

Grading Scheme

Assignments	10%
Laboratories	15%
Mid term exam	25%
Final Exam	50%

Cheating and plagiarism

- Cheating is any act that gives you unfair advantage at the expense of another classmate.
- Examples:
  - –copying on exams, homework

- **Plagiarism** see the following URL: **http://www.uottawa.ca/plagiarism.pdf**
- If we detect you are involved in cheating or plagiarism you will be turned over to the Faculty, for investigation and sanctions

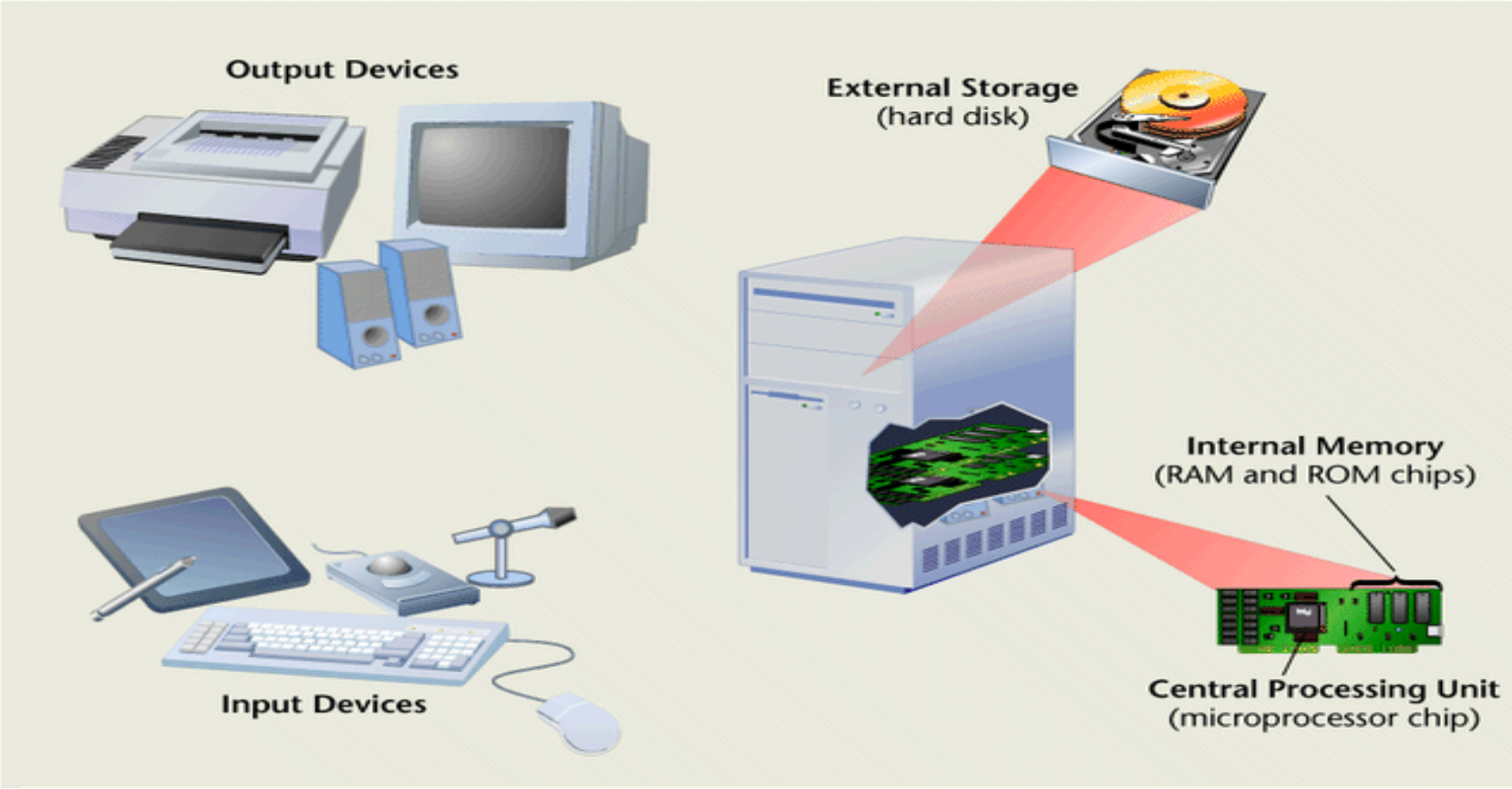
Chapter 1

BINARY SYSTEMS

“Digital Age”

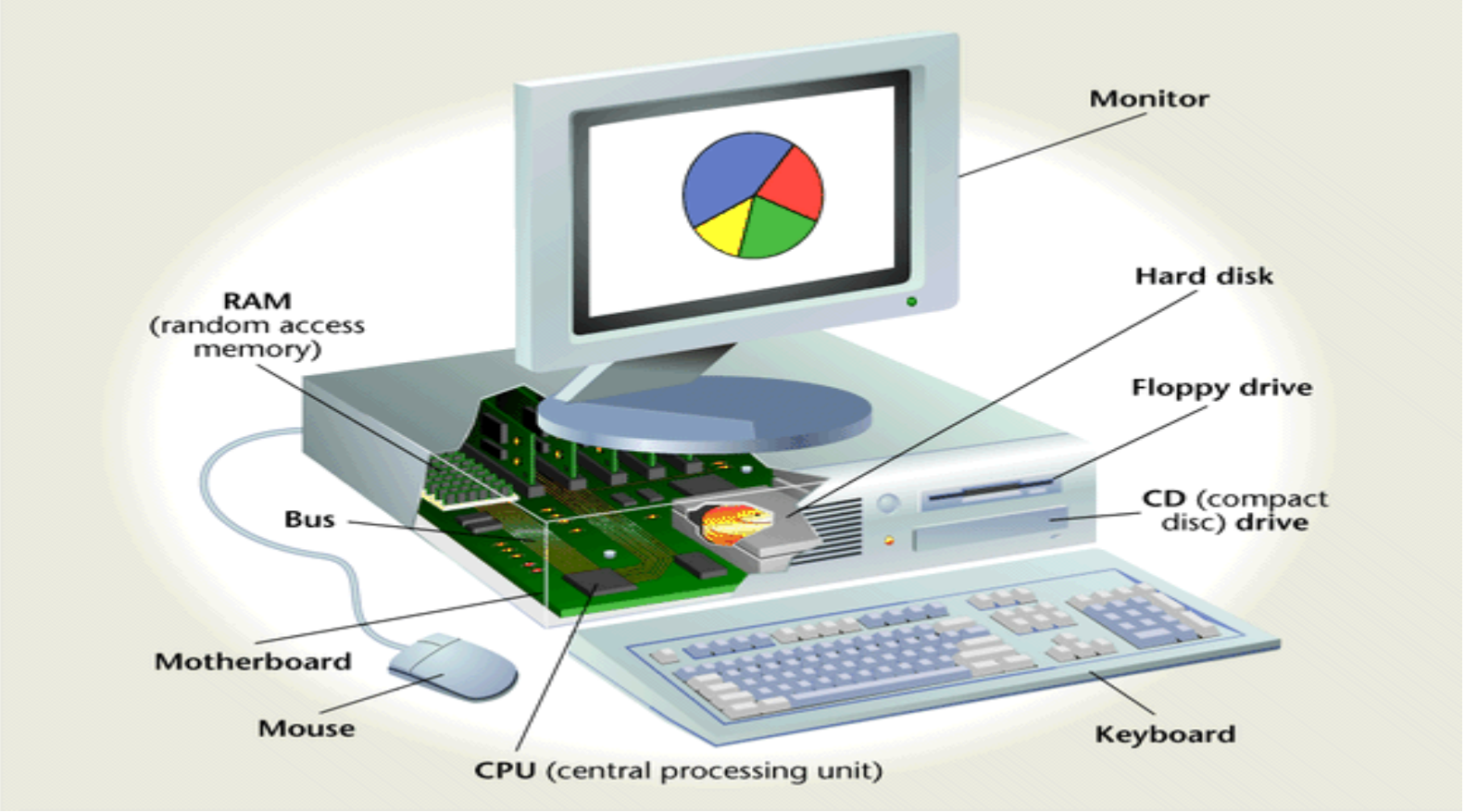

Gaming Console
PDA
Home Computer
Business Mobile
Home Office Phone
Office Phone
Office Computer
TV / PVR

The Central Tool of Modern Information Systems



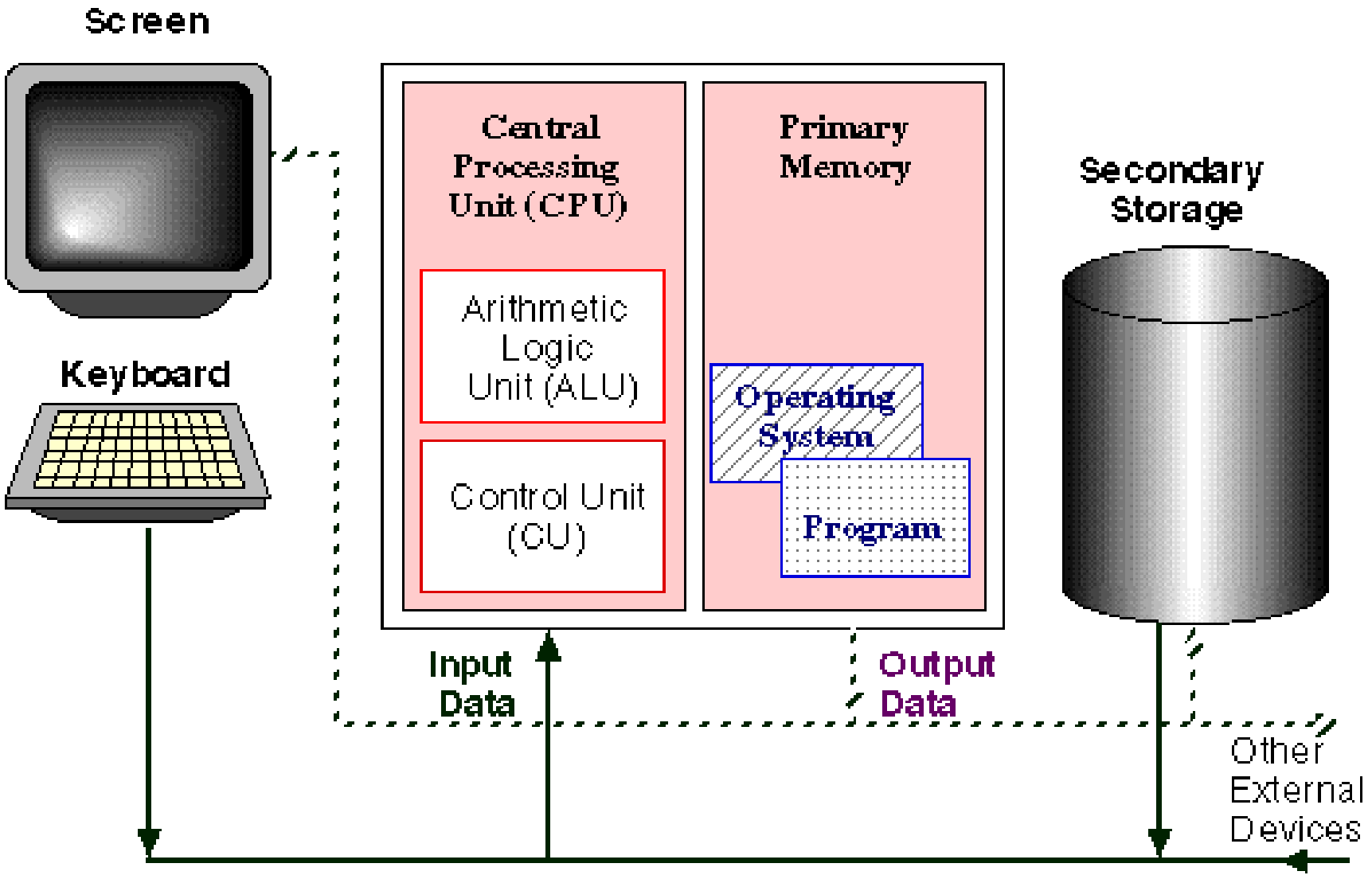
All computers have the same basic components.

Inside the computer

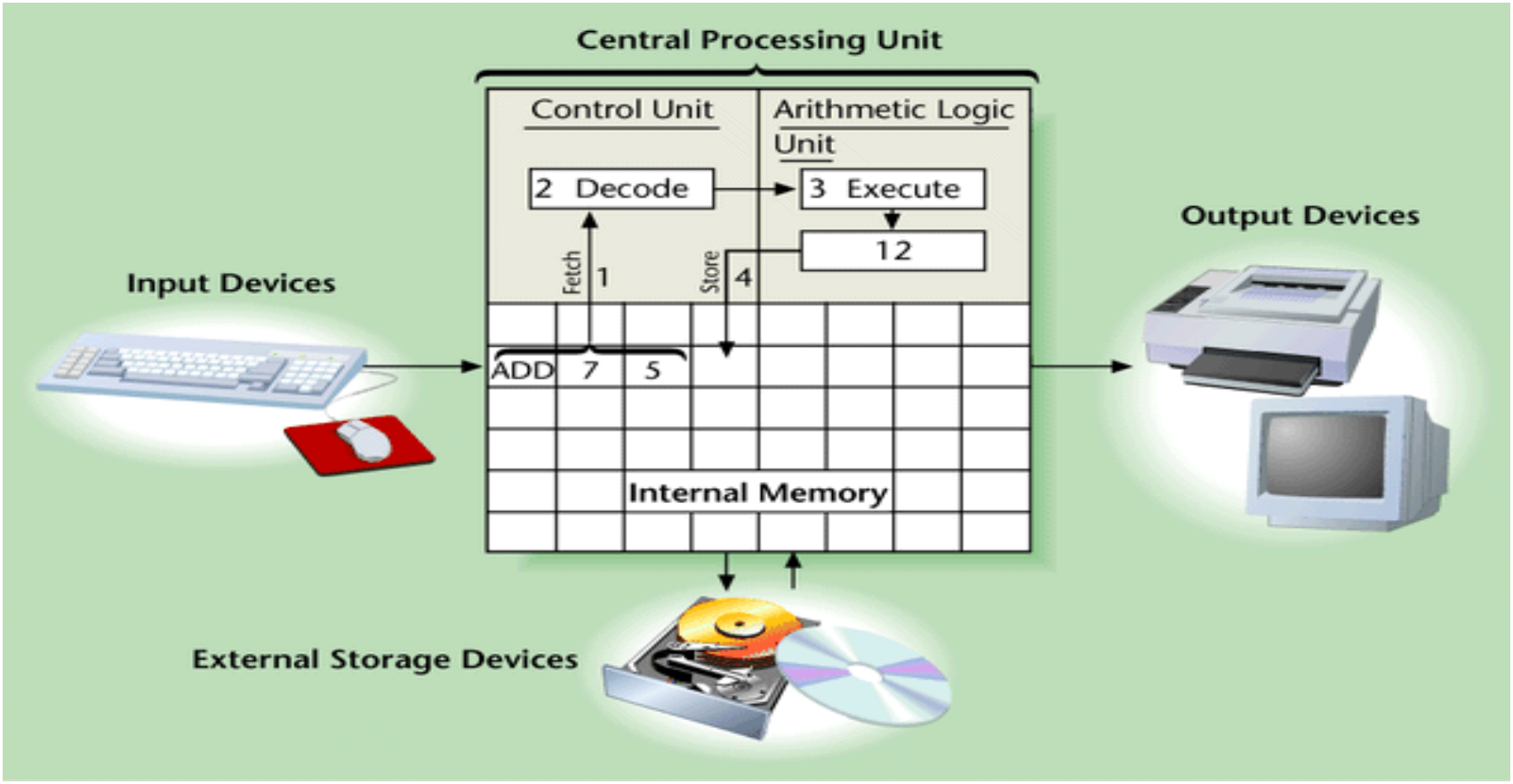


A look inside a computer

Block Diagram of a Digital Computer



Arithmetic Operations



What happens inside the CPU in one machine cycle executing the operation 7 + 5

Digital Systems

→ Early computers were designed to perform numeric computations

→ They used ***discrete*** elements of information named digits (finite sets)

→DIGITAL SYSTEMS: manipulate ***discrete*** elements of information

such as the 10 decimal digits or the 26 letters of the alphabet

we live in the "Digital Age"!

Binary System and Logic Circuits

- What kind of data do computers work with?
  - Deep down inside, it's all 1s and 0s
- What can you do with 1s and 0s?
  - Boolean algebra operations
  - These operations map directly to hardware circuits (logic circuits)

Different Numbering Systems

- Decimal (Arabic): (0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9):
  Example: **$(452968)_{10}$**
- Octal: (0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7):
  Example **$(4073)_{8}$**
- Hexadecimal(0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,A,B,C,D,E,F)
  Example: $(2BF3)_{16}$
- Binary: (0,1):
  Example: $(100111000101 1)_{2}$

Base in Numbering systems

- The decimal numbering system uses **base 10**. The values of the positions are calculated by taking 10 to some power.

1	6	2	.	3	7	5	Digits
100	10	1		1/10	1/100	1/1000	Weights

1	6	2	.	3	7	5	Digits
10^2	10^1	10^0		10^{-1}	10^{-2}	10^{-3}	Weights

- Base 10 for decimal numbers?

  It uses 10 digits: The digits 0 through 9.

Base in Numbering systems [2]

- The binary numbering system is called binary because it uses **base 2**. The values of the positions are calculated by taking 2 to some power.
- Base 2 for binary numbers :

  It uses 2 digits. The digits 0 and 1.

Representation of Numbers

→ ***There are two possible ways of writing a number in a given system:***

1- Positional Notation

2- Polynomial Representation

Positional Notation

$$N = (a_{n-1}a_{n-2} \ldots a_1a_0 \,.\, a_{-1}a_{-2} \ldots a_{-m})_r$$

Where

. = radix point

r = radix or base

n = number of integer digits to the left of the radix point

m = number of fractional digits to the right of the radix point

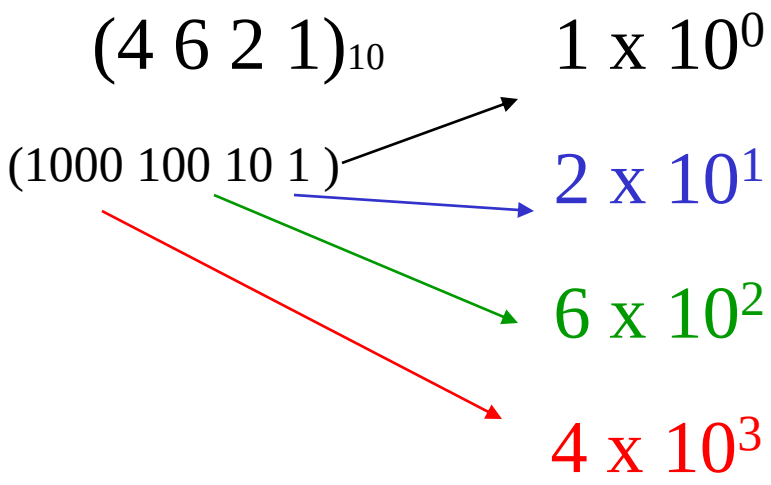
a_{n-1} = most significant digit (MSD)

a_{-m} = least significant digit (LSD)

Positional Notation

The Decimal Numbering System

- The decimal numbering system is a positional number system.
- Example:



Positional Notation

Binary Numbering System

- The Binary Numbering System is also a positional numbering system.
- Instead of using ten digits, 0 - 9, the binary system uses only two digits, the 0 and the 1.

→Example of a binary number & the values of the positions.

		1	0	1	0	1	0	1
		2^6	2^5	2^4	2^3	2^2	2^1	2^0
1	1	0	1	.	0	1	Binary digits, or bits
2^3	2^2	2^1	2^0		2^{-1}	2^{-2}	Weights (in base 10)

Polynomial Notation

$$N = a_{n-1} \times r^{n-1} + a_{n-2} \times r^{n-2} + \ldots + a_0 \times r^0 + a_{-1} \times r^{-1} \ldots + a_{-m} \times r^{-m}$$

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

Example:

Positional (N) ***Polynomial (N)***

$$N = (651.45)_{10} = 6 \times 10^2 + 5 \times 10^1 + 1 \times 10^0$$

$$+ 4 \times 10^{-1} + 5 \times 10^{-2}$$

Important number systems

→ There are three important number systems

- Binary Number System
- Octal Number System
- Hexadecimal Number System

Binary numbers

Digits = {0, 1}

Positional Polynomial

$(11010.11)_2 = 1 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0 + 1 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2}$

- **1 K (kilo) = 2^{10} = 1,024**
- **1M (mega) = 2^{20} = 1,048,576**
- **1G (giga) = 2^{30} = 1,073,741,824**

Converting Decimal to Binary

$$N = (a_{n-1}a_{n-2} \ldots a_1a_0 . a_{-1}a_{-2} \ldots a_{-m})_r$$

Integer ← → . ← *Fractional* →

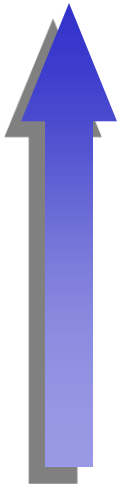
Radix point

→ **Integer** part and **Fractional** part are **converted differently**

Converting the Integer Part

- keep dividing by 2 until the quotient is 0. Collect the remainders *in reverse order*.
- Example: $(162)_{10}$.

```
162 / 2  = 81   rem 0
 81 / 2  = 40   rem 1
 40 / 2  = 20   rem 0
 20 / 2  = 10   rem 0
 10 / 2  = 5    rem 0
  5 / 2  = 2    rem 1
  2 / 2  = 1    rem 0
  1 / 2  = 0    rem 1
```



- Then $(162)_{10} = (10100010)_2$

Converting the Fraction Part

→ keep multiplying the *fractional part* by 2 until it becomes 0. Collect the integer parts (in forward order).

– However this may not terminate!

–Example: $(0.375)_{10}$

0.375 x 2 = 0.750
0.750 x 2 = 1.500
0.500 x 2 = 1.000

→ So, $(.375)_{10} = (.011)_2$

And $(162.375)_{10} = (10100010.011)_2$

Why does this work?

- This method can be applied to convert from decimal to *any* base
- Try converting 162.375 from decimal to decimal.

```
162 / 10  = 16 rem 2
 16 / 10  = 1  rem 6
  1 / 10  = 0  rem 1
```

- Each division "strips off" the rightmost digit (the remainder). The quotient represents the remaining digits in the number.

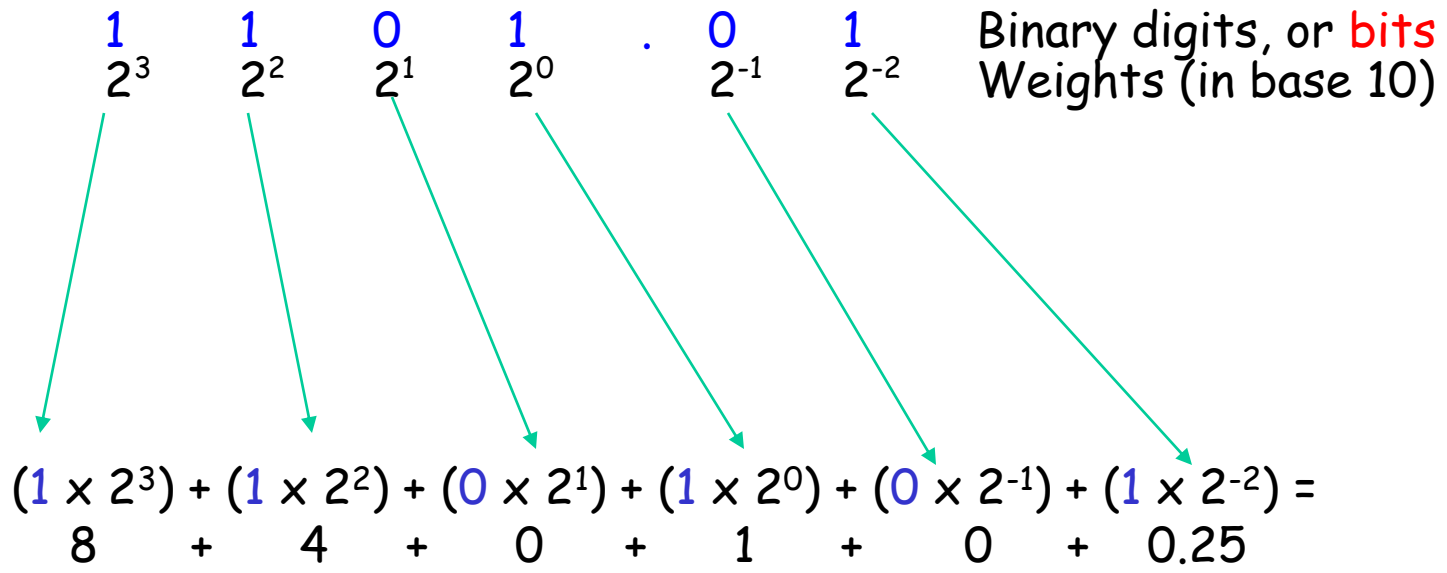
Why does this work? [2]

$0.375 \times 10 = 3.750$
$0.750 \times 10 = 7.500$
$0.500 \times 10 = 5.000$

- Each multiplication "strips off" the leftmost digit (the integer part). The fraction represents the remaining digits.

Converting binary to decimal

- To convert binary, or base 2, numbers to decimal we first obtain the polynomial representation of the number, then sum the products.
  - Example: $(1101.01)_2$



→ The decimal value is: $(13.25)_{10}$

Octal number system

–Digits = {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7}

Positional = Polynomial

$(127.4)_8 = 1 \times 8^2 + 2 \times 8^1 + 7 \times 8^0 + 4 \times 8^{-1}$

- **Octal (base 8) digits range from 0 to 7.**

Since $8 = 2^3$, one octal digit is equivalent to 3 binary digits.

Converting Decimal to Octal

→ Integer part: keep dividing by 8 until the quotient is 0. Collect the remainders *in reverse order*.

→ Fractional Part: keep multiplying the *fractional part* by 8 until it becomes 0. Collect the integer parts (in forward order).

Same method as for the decimal to binary

Converting Octal to Decimal

- To convert Octal, or base 8, numbers to decimal we first obtain the polynomial representation of the number, then sum the products.

Example

$$(127.4)_8 = 1 \times 8^2 + 2 \times 8^1 + 7 \times 8^0 + 4 \times 8^{-1} = (87.5)_{10}$$

Converting Binary to Octal

•To convert from binary to octal, make groups of 3 bits, starting from the binary point. Add 0s to the ends of the number if needed. Then convert each group of bits to its corresponding octal digit.

Example

$(10110100.001011)_2$ $=(010\ 110\ 100\ .\ 001\ 011\ )_2$

$= (\ 2\ \ 6\ \ 4\ .\ \ 1\ \ \ \ 3\ )_8$

Converting Octal to Binary

- To convert from octal to binary, replace each Octal digit with its equivalent 3-bit binary sequence.
- Example

$$(261.35)_8 = (2\ 6\ 1\ .\ 3\ 5)_8$$
$$= (010\ 110\ 001\ .\ 011\ 101)_2$$

Hexadecimal numbers

-Digits = {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F}

Positional Polynomial

- $(B65F)_{16} = 11 \times 16^3 + 6 \times 16^2 + 5 \times 16^1 + 15 \times 16^0$

• *Hexadecimal* (base 16) digits are 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, and F. Since $16 = 2^4$, one hexa digit is equivalent to 4 binary digits.

– It's often easier to work with a number like B5 instead of 10110101.

Converting Decimal to Hexadecimal

→ **Integer part**: keep dividing by 16 until the quotient is 0. Collect the remainders *in reverse order*.

→ **Fractional Part**: keep multiplying the *fractional part* by 16 until it becomes 0. Collect the integer parts (in forward order).

Same method as for the decimal to binary conversion

Converting Hexadecimal to Decimal

• To convert Hexadecimal, or base 16, numbers to decimal, first obtain the polynomial representation of the number, then sum the products.

Example

$$(B65F)_{16} = 11 \times 16^3 + 6 \times 16^2 + 5 \times 16^1 + 15 \times 16^0$$
$$= (46{,}687)_{10}$$

Converting Hexadecimal to Binary

- To convert from hexadecimal to binary, replace each hex digit with its equivalent 4-bit binary sequence.
- Example

261.35_{16} = (2 6 1 . 3 5)$_{16}$

= (0010 0110 0001 . 0011 0101)$_2$

Converting Binary to Hexadecimal

- To convert from binary to hex, make groups of 4 bits, starting from the binary point. Add 0s to the ends of the number if needed. Then convert each group of bits to its corresponding hex digit.
- Example

$(10110100.001011)_2 = (1011\ 0100.\ 0010\ 1100)_2$

$= (B\ 4\ .\ 2\ C)_{16}$

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
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

ARITHMETIC OPERATIONS IN A BINARY SYSTEM

Binary Addition

	0	0	1	1
	+0	+ 1	+0	+1
	--	--	--	--
sum	0	1	1	10

(sum of 0 and carryover of 1)

Examples:

1 0 0 1	0 0 0 1	1 1 0 0
+ 0 1 1 0	+ 1 0 0 1	+ 0 1 0 1
1 1 1 1	1 0 1 0	1 0 0 0 1

carryover

Binary Addition-Examples

Carry 1 1 1 1 0 1

1 0 1 1 0 1

\+ 0 1 1 1 0 1

Sum 1 0 0 1 0 1 0

Check your work

$(45)_{10}$

\+ $(29)_{10}$

= 74

$1 \times 2^5 + 0 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0$

$= 32 + 0 + 8 + 4 + 1 = 45$

Binary Addition- Examples

Addition of three Binary Digits

x	y	CarryIn	Sum	CarryOut
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

Addition of Large Binary Numbers

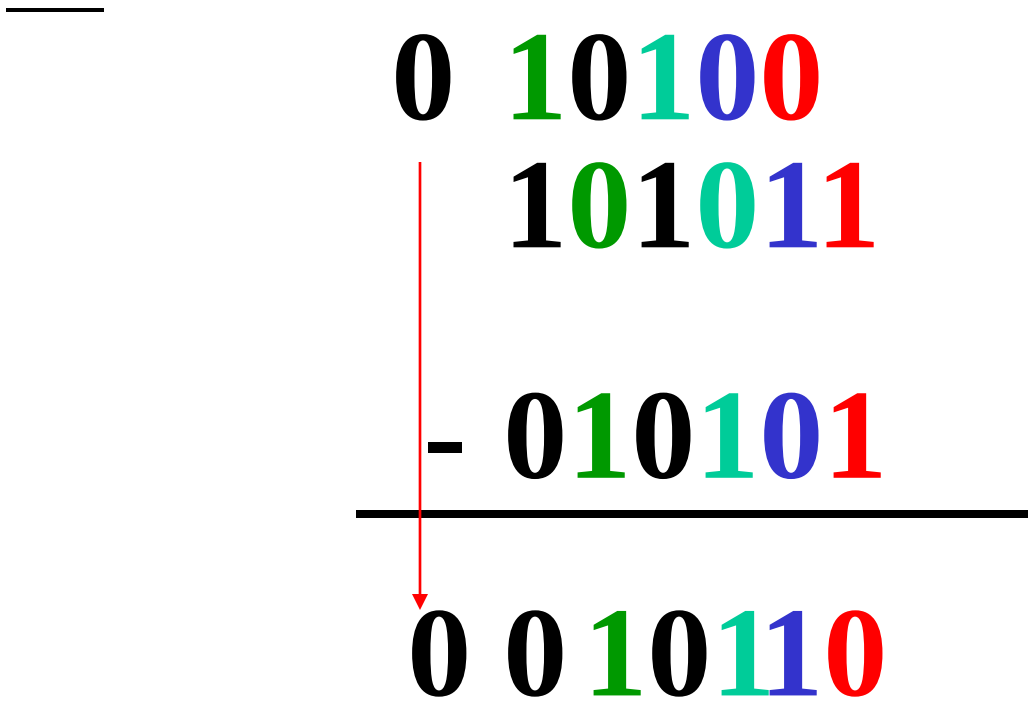
- Example showing larger numbers:

```
  1 0 1 0   0 0 1 1   1 0 1 1   0 0 0 1
+ 0 1 1 1   0 1 0 0   0 0 0 1   1 0 0 1
-----------------------------------------
1 0 0 0 1   0 1 1 1   1 1 0 0   1 0 1 0
```

Binary Subtraction

	0	0	1	1
	- 0	- 1	- 0	- 1
	--	--	--	--
difference	0	11	1	0

(Diff. of 1 and carryover of 1)



Binary Multiplication

0	0	1	1
x 0	x 1	x 0	x 1
--	--	--	--
Product 0	0	0	1

A 0 010000.010

x B 0 001000.010

0000000000
0010000010
0000000000
0000000000
0000000000
0000000000
0010000010

1000110.000100

Binary Division

	0		**1**	
	÷ 1		**÷ 1**	
=	**0**		**1**	

Complements in Numbering Systems

- Complements are used in digital systems (computers) for simplifying the Subtraction operation and for logical manipulation
- There are to type of complements for each ***base 'r' system:***

1- Radix complement → r's complement

Ex. ***base 10- → 10's complement***

base 2 → 2's complement

2- Diminished radix complement → (r-1) complement

Ex. ***base 10 → 9's complement***

Base 2 → 1's complement

Radix complement (r's complement)

$$[N]_r = r^n - (N)_r$$

where n is the number of digits in $(N)_r$.

Example

- **2's complement of $(N)_2 = (101001)_2$**

$$[N]_2 = 2^6 - (101001)_2 = (1000000)_2 - (101001)_2 = (010111)_2$$

- **10's complement of $(N)_{10} = (72092)_{10}$**

$$[N]_{10} = (100000)_{10} - (72092)_{10} = (27908)_{10}.$$

Obtaining 2's complement

- **Can be obtained directly from the given number by**
  1-copying each bit of the number starting at the least significant bit and proceeding forward the most significant bit until the first 1 has been copied.

2- After the first 1 has been copied replace each of the remaining 0s and 1s by 1s and 0s respectively

(a) $[1010100]_2 = 2^7 - (1010100)_2 = (10000000)_2 - (1010100)_2 = (\mathbf{0101100})_2$

(b) $[101001]_2 = 2^6 - (101001)_2 = (1000000)_2 - (101001)_2 = (\mathbf{010111})_2$

(a) **1 0 1 0 1 0 0** (b) **1 0 1 0 0 1**

2 's → **0 1 0 1 1 0 0** **0 1 0 1 1 1**

Diminished radix complement (*r-1*'s complement)

$$[N]_{r-1} = (r^n - 1)r - (N)_r$$

-9's complement of $[546700]_9$

$$= 999999 - 546700 = 453299$$

-1's complement of [1011000]

$$= (10000000 - 1)_2 - (1011000)_2 = (0100111)_2$$

Obtaining 1's complement

- *1 's complement can be obtained directly from the given number by replacing each of 0s and 1s by 1s and 0s of the number (i.e. complement each bit)*

$$\mathbf{[1011000]} = (10000000 - 1)_2 - (1011000)_2$$

$$= \mathbf{(0100111)_2}$$

1 0 1 1 0 0 0

1 's complement → **0 1 0 0 1 1 1**

Subtraction with 2's Complement

- **2's complement are used to convert subtraction to addition, which reduces hardware requirements (only adders are needed).**

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

(add *2*'s complement of *B* to *A*)

- 2's Complement has the properties of the minus sign

A + (-A) = 0 **A + 2's{A} = 0**

- (- A) = A **2's{ 2's{A}} = A**

A - B = A + (-B) **A - B = A + 2's{B}**

Subtraction with 2's Complement [2]

Examples:

A= 1010100 B= 1000011

- 2's complement

A - B = A + (-B)= A+ [B]

= (1010100) + (0111101) = (0010001)

```
          1010100
+         0111101
-------------------
1 0010001
```

Discard end carry

Subtraction with 1's Complement

Examples: note: same proprieties minus sign as 2's complement.

A= 1010100 B= 1000011

- 1's complement

A - B = A+ [B]= (1010100) + (0111100) = (0010001)

```
                 1010100
        +        0111100
            ---------------
Add end carry 1  0010000
              |
              └------> + 1
            ---------------
                 0010001
```

Subtraction with 10s/9'sComplements

$(72)_{10}$ - $\mathbf{(32)_{10}}$ = $\mathbf{(40)_{10}}$

10's Complement

[32]= 10^2 **– (32)$_{10}$ = (68)$_{10}$**

(72)$_{10}$ + (68)$_{10}$ = ~~**1**~~ **(40)$_{10}$**

9's Complement

[32]= (10^2 -1**) – (32)$_{10}$ = (67)$_{10}$**

$(72)_{10}$ + **(67)$_{10}$ = (1 + 39)$_{10}$ = (40)$_{10}$**

Signed Binary numbers

• Recall that digital Systems are made with devices that take on exactly two states : 0 and 1.

•**The only states are “1” and “0”. There is no “-” state!**

→because of hardware limitations computers represent negative numbers by using the leftmost bit for the sign bit.

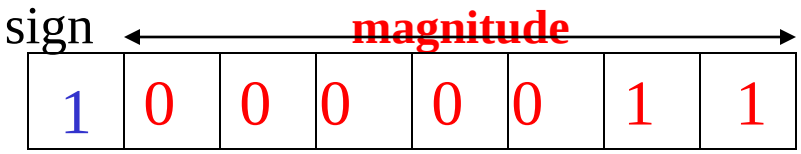
-- “0” indicates a positive number,

-- while a “1” indicates a negative number

Signed Magnitude

•The leftmost bit indicates the sign of the number. The remaining bits give the magnitude of the number

→Using 8 bits to represent binary number the value in the example is:

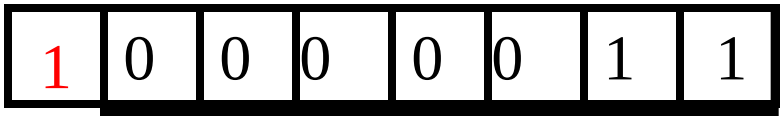


-3 = 10000011 = 1/ (sign bit) 0000011

→ Sign Magnitude representation is good for having the ability for a human to read and understand what number is represented

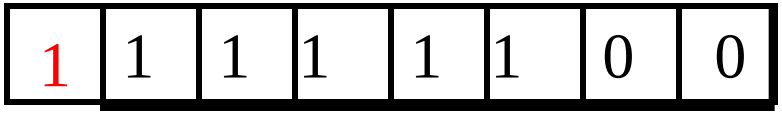
Signed Complement

(a) Signed Magnitude representation



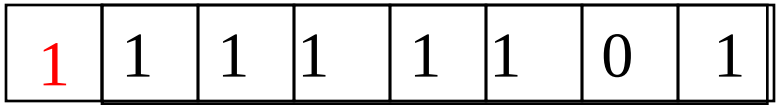
-3 = 10000011 = 1/ (sign bit) 0000011

(b) Signed 1's representation



-3 = 10000011 = 1/ (sign bit) 1111100

(c) Signed 2's representation



-3 = 10000011 = 1/ (sign bit) 1111101

Fixed-Length Registers

- All practical digital devices have fixed-length registers
- This means that numbers in a computer are represented by a fixed number of bits
  - The earliest microprocessors were 4-bit devices
  - Intel 8080 and the 6502 (Apple II) chips were 8-bit
  - Intel 8088 (IBM PC) and Motorola 68000 (Mac) are 16-bit devices
  - Pentium chips and PowerPC chips are 32-bit

Range of a number Overflow during addition

- A fixed-length register can only hold a ***Range*** of numbers

→For a 4-bit device, the *range* of positive integers is 0 - 15

→For an 8-bit device the *range* of positive integers is 0 – 255

→ When adding positive integers, ***Overflow*** occurs when the sum falls outside the range of the register

Overflow in Signed Complements

•when numbers are treated as signed complement, a "carry" of 1 from the addition of the most significant bits **DOES NOT** indicate an overflow,

```
    3   00011
+ (-3)+11101
```

= 00000, with a carry of "1" (2'complement) : We know that addion operation in 2's complement the end-carry is discarded !

the over flow has nothing to do with the carry

•For signed complement, overflow occurs when:

→***The addition of two positive numbers results in a negative number***

OR → ***The addition of two negative numbers results in a positive number***

Overflow Examples

- In a 6-bit register with signed 2's complement

+ 17 = 010001

+ 16 = +010000

= 100001

100001 = - (11111) = -$(31)_{10}$ instead of **+ $(33)_{10}$**

- Same with a 7-bit register

+ 17 = 0 010001

+ 16 = +0 010000

= 0100001

0100001 = + 33 No Overflow

Binary codes: *BCD* (1)

- To represent information as strings of alpha-numeric characters.
- ***Binary Coded Decimal (BCD)***
  - Used to represent the decimal digits 0 - 9.
  - 4 bits are used.
  - Each bit position has a weight associated with it (***weighted code***).
  - Weights are: 8, 4, 2, and 1 from MSB to LSB (called 8-4-2-1 code).

Binary codes: *BCD* (2)

– BCD Codes:

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

– Used to encode numbers for output to numerical displays

–***Example***: $(9750)_{10} = (1001011101010000)_{BCD}$

Binary codes: *ASCII* [2]

- ***ASCII*** (American Standard Code for Information Interchange) (see table 1.7 of textbook)
  - Most widely used character code.
  - ***Example***: ASCII code representation of the word ‘***Digital’***

Character	Binary Code	Hexadecimal Code
D	1000100	44
i	1101001	69
g	1100111	67
i	1101001	69
t	1110100	74
a	1100001	61
l	1101100	6C

Practice Problems Solved in the Class

Examples: Signed Complements 2's

	Sign-bit	
$(9)_{10}$	*0*	*1001*
$+(6)_{10}$	0	0110
	0	1111

$(9)_{10}$	*0*	*1001*
$-(6)_{10}$	1	1010
	0	0011

$(6)_{10}$	0	0110
$-(9)_{10}$	1	0111
	1	1101

Examples: Signed Complements 1's

	Sign-bit	
$(9)_{10}$	0	1001
$+(6)_{10}$	0	0110
	0	1111

$(9)_{10}$	0	1001
$-(6)_{10}$	1	1001
1	0	0010 = (0010) + (0001) = (0011)

$(6)_{10}$	0	0110
$-(9)_{10}$	1	0110
	1	1 1 0 0

Problems

Question

(a) Convert le following binary number into (i) Octal, (ii) Decimal, (iii) hexadecimal

10101101.10110

(b) Convert A= 16.25 and B = 8.25 into binary, use 7 bits to represent the integer part and 3 bits to represent the fractional part, then perform the following operations

I) C= A + B
ii) D = A – B
iii) E= A x B
vi) F = A B

Note: Compute C and D
(a) using non-signed binary numbers and without complements
(b) using signed 2's complement

(c) Convert le following number into (i)Decimal, (ii) Octal, (iii) binary

$$(FD8.C2B)_{16}$$

Problems

Answers: **10101101.10110**

i) Octal→ **(010 101 101.101 100)**

(2 5 5 . 5 4)$_8$

iii) Hexa → **(1010 1101.1011 0000)2**

(A D . B 0)16

ii) Decimal

(10101101.10110)$_2$ = $1 \times 2^7 + 0 \times 2^6 + 1 \times 2^5 + 0 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 + 1 \times 2^{-1} + 0 \times 2^{-2}\ 1 \times 2^{-3} + 1 \times 2^{-4} + 0 \times 2^{-5}$

= (173.6875)$_{10}$

Problems

Integer part

- Conversion de $(16)_{10}$.

```
16 / 2   = 8    remainder 0
 8 / 2   = 4    remainder 0
 4 / 2   = 2    remainder 0
 2 / 2   = 1    remainder 0
 1 / 2   = 0    remainder 1
```

- Then $(16)_{10} = (10000)_2$

Problems

Fractional part

– Converting: $(0.25)_{10}$

$0.25 \times 2 = 0.50$
$0.50 \times 2 = 1.00$ ↓

- then, $(.25)_{10} = (.01)_2$

and $(16.25)_{10} = (10000.01)_2$

Same as for A

→ B = 8.25: $(8.25)_{10} = (1000.01)_2$

→ Representation using 7 bits and 3 bits

A= $(16.25)_{10}$ = $(0010000.010)_2$

B= $(8.25)_{10}$ = $(0001000.010)_2$

Problems

	Non Signed Binary
A	0010000.010
+ B	0001000.010
	0 011000.100

A	0010000.010
- B	0001000.010
	0001000.000

Problems

Signed 2’ complement

A	0 010000.010
+ B	0 001000.010
	0 011000.100

A	0 010000.010
+ (-B)	1 110111.110
	0 001000.000

Problems

A 0 010000.010

x B 0 001000.010

0000000000

0010000010

0000000000

0000000000

0000000000

0000000000

0010000010

1000110.000100

Problems

A ÷ B

Dividend

10000.010

1000010

01000 0000

1000010

Divider

1000 .010

1.1..

Quotient

Question 1: (20 points)

Convert A = (00010010.0101)BCD and B= $(2.25)_{10}$ into pure binary format employing 8 bits for the integer part and 3 for the fractional part, including the sign bit. Perform the following operations in specific signed complement as indicated for each operation.

(i) C = -A - B using signed 2's complement
(ii) D = – A + B using signed 1's complement
(iii) E= A – B using 9's complement (show all intermediate steps)

A= $(12.50)_{10}$ B= $(2.25)_{10}$

$(12.50)_{10}$ - $(2.25)_{10}$ using 9's complement

9's complement of (2.25)

First step use the same number of position to represent the two numbers (02.25) then obtain the 9's complement

$[02.25]_9 = (104 - 1)_{10} - (02.25)_{10} = (99.99 - 02.25) = (97.74)_{10}$

E = A- B = A+ [B] 9 =

$$\begin{array}{rr} & 12.50 \\ + & 97.74 \\ \hline \text{(end carry) } 1 & 10.24 \\ & \quad + 1 \\ \hline & 10.25 \end{array}$$

Binary Logic

- Binary logic deals with

1 - **Variables** that can take on **two** discrete **values**

→*Values can be called **True**, **False**, **yes**, **no**, etc.*

2 - **Operations** that assume **LOGICAL** Meaning

→ *Binary logic is equivalent to **Boolean algebra***

Boolean Algebra

•Basic mathematics required for the description of digital circuits

• used to describe the different interconnections of digital circuits

• the variable used in the Boolean algebra are called Boolean variables

→ We will study two-valued Boolean algebra and functions with simplifications using basic Boolean Identities

Two-valued Boolean Algebra

- It consists of

1- Boolean Variables

- Designated by letters of the alphabet such as A, B, C, x, y, z etc.

- Each variable can have two and only two distinct values: 1 and 0 (True, False)

- Can be a Function of some other Boolean variables (F=ABC)

2- Boolean Operations

-There are three Basic logical operations:

AND, OR, and NOT

Basic Boolean Operations- *AND operation*

- Represented by a dot or by the absence of an operator

Example: $x.y = or \quad xy=z$

read: *x AND y is equal to z*

Interpretation: Z = 1 if and only if x= 1 AND y= 1

Otherwise z = 0

Truth table:

x	y	xy
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Don't confuse this with binary multiplication operation

Truth table gives the value of z for all possible values of x and y

Basic Boolean Operations- *OR operation*

- *Represented by a plus sign (+)*

Example: $x + y = z$

read: *x OR y is equal to z*

Interpretation: z = 1 if x= 1 or if y= 1 or if both x =1 and y =1. z = 0 if x = 0 and y=1

Don't confuse this with binary addition operation

Truth table:

x	y	x+y
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

Truth table gives the value of z for all possible values for x and y

Basic Boolean Operations- *NOT operation*

- *Represented by a prime or an overbar (also called complement)*

Example: $x' = z$ *(or* $\bar{x} = z$*)*

read: *Not x is equal to z*

Interpretation: *z = "what x is not"*

x= 1 then z=0; x= 0 then z=1

Truth table:

x	x'
0	1
1	0

Truth table gives the value of z for all possible values for x

Binary Logic and Binary Signals

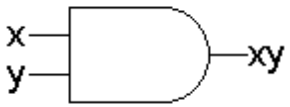
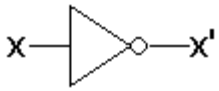
• For simplicity, we often still write digits instead:

  – 1 is true
  – 0 is false

• We will use this interpretation along with special operations to *design functions* and *logic circuits* for doing arbitrary computations.

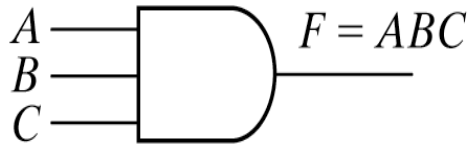
Logic Gates

- **Logic gates are electronic circuits that operate on one or more input signal to produce an output signal**
- Basic operations can be implemented in hardware using a Basic logic gate.
  - Symbols for each of the logic gates are shown below.
  - These gates output the product, sum or complement of their inputs

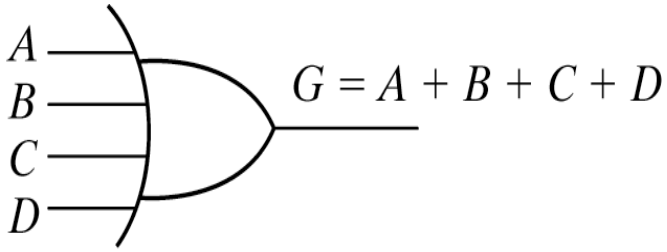
Logic Operation:	AND (product) of two inputs	OR (sum) of two inputs	NOT (complement) With one input
Representation:	x.y, or xy	x + y	x’
Logic gate:			

Gates with Multiple Inputs

- AND and OR Gates may have more than 2 input signals



(a) Three-input AND gate



(b) Four-input OR gate

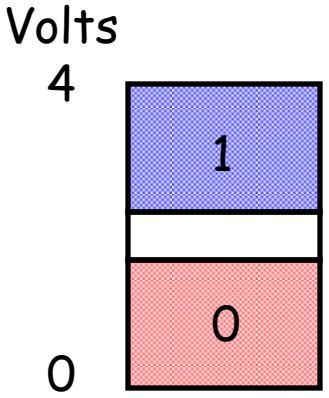
Binary Signals

- Computers use voltages to represent information.
- Two voltage levels are used to represent a binary value

  “1” and “0”

- Some digital systems for example may define that:
  - Binary ‘0” is equal to 0 Volt
  - Binary “1” is equal to 4 Volt

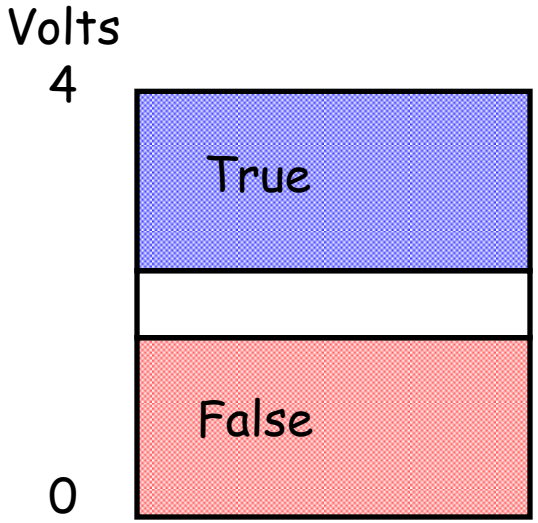
→ *It’s convenient for us to translate these voltages into values 1 and 0.*



Binary Logic and Binary Signals

•It's also possible to think of voltages as representing two *logical* values, ***true*** and ***false***.

→ These logical values are called Boolean values



Logic Gates - Signals

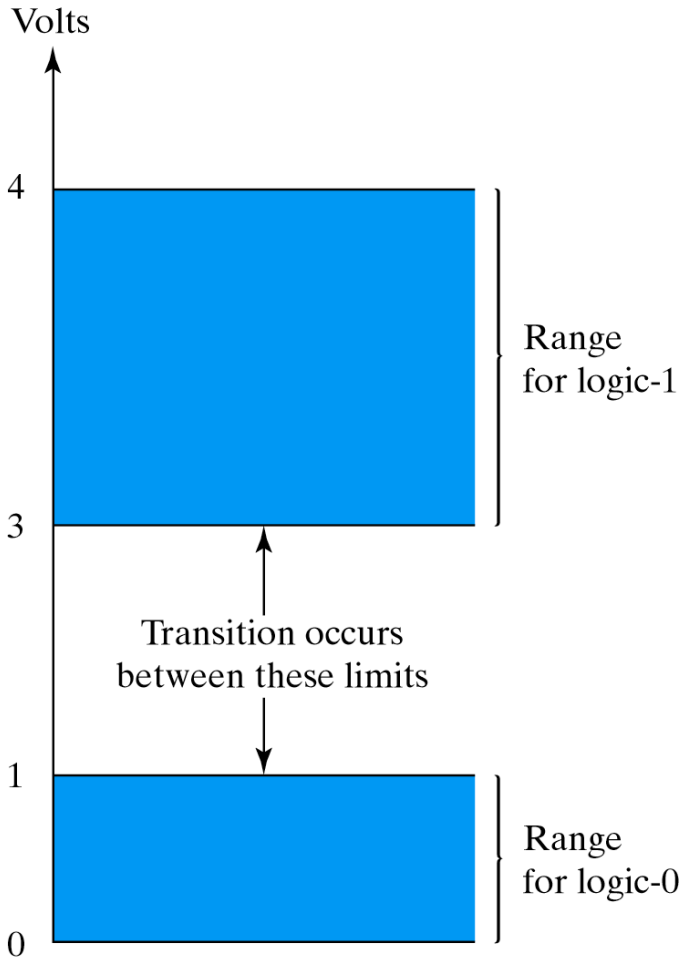
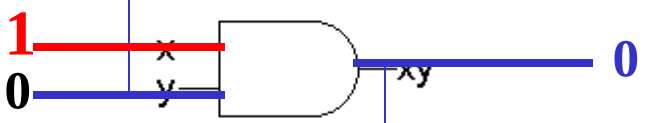


Fig. 1-3 Example of binary signals

Example

two input signals



one output signal

Logic Gates - Signals

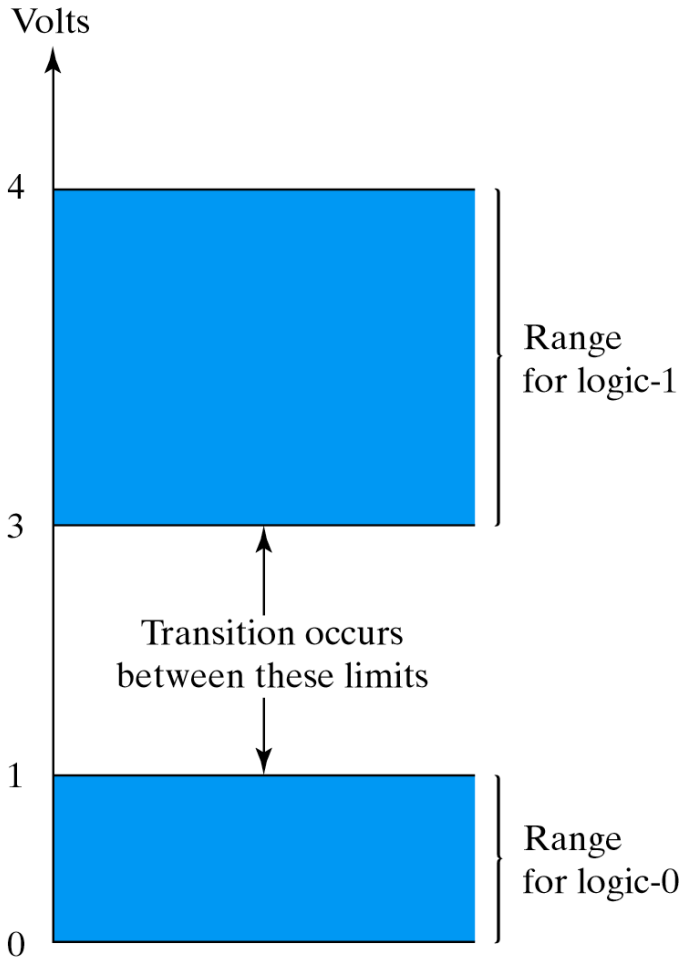
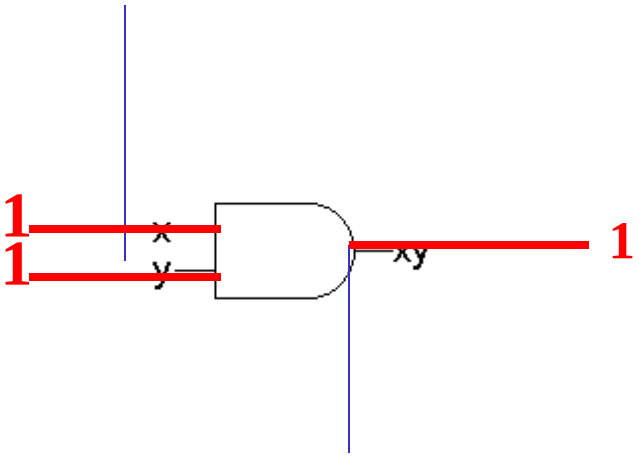


Fig. 1-3 Example of binary signals

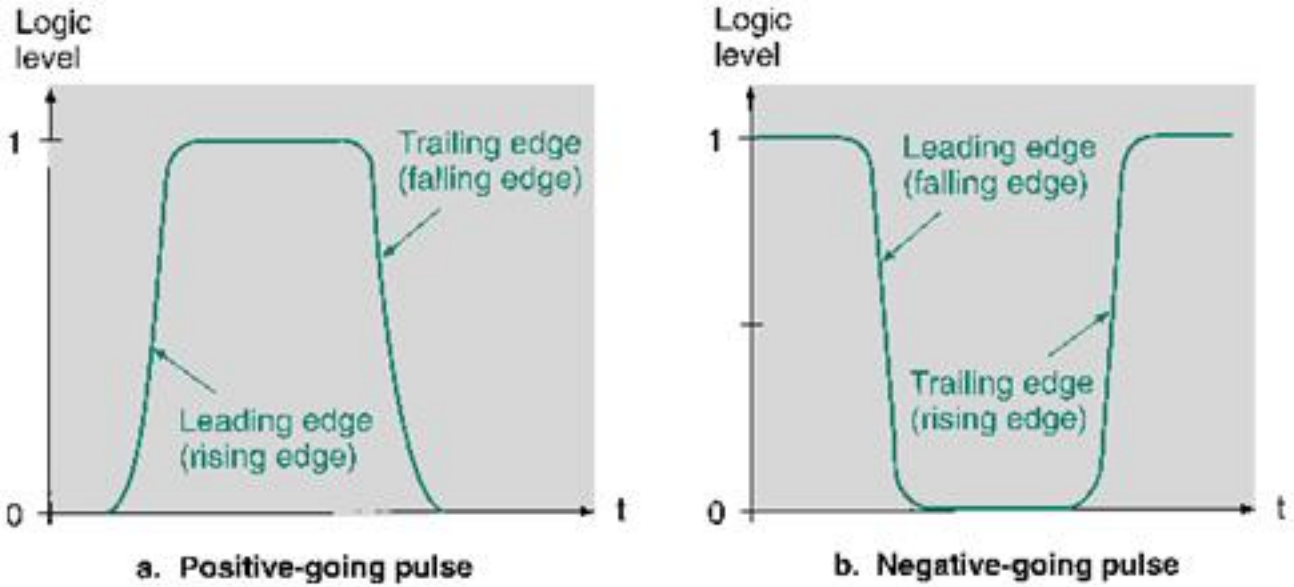
Example

2 input signals



1 output signal

Timing Diagram –Input and output signals



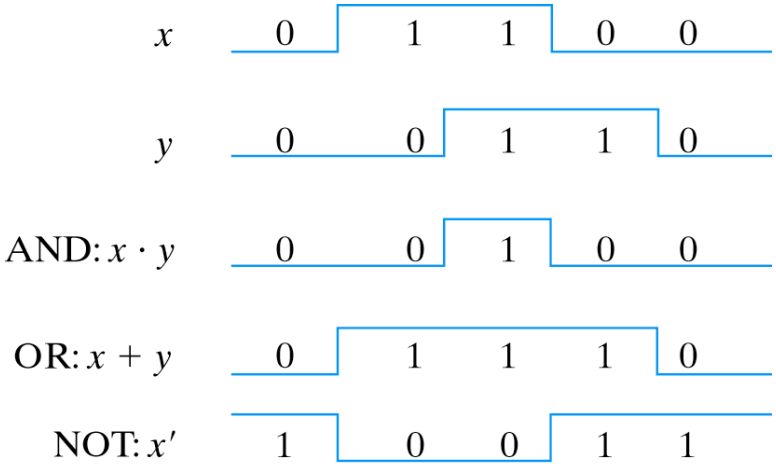


Fig. 1-5 Input-output signals for gates

Basic and Other Logic gates

- **Basic Logic gate**

  - AND
  - OR
  - NOT

  These are called “fundamental logic gates” as all other gates and digital Circuits can be created from these gates.

- **Other Logic gates**

  - NAND
  - NOR

  These are called “Universal logic gates” as any digital circuit can be designed by just using these gates

  - XOR
  - XNOR

The NAND & NOR Gates

• We can use a NAND and NOR gates to implement all three of the *basic operations* (AND,OR,NOT).

→ They are said to be **functionally complete**

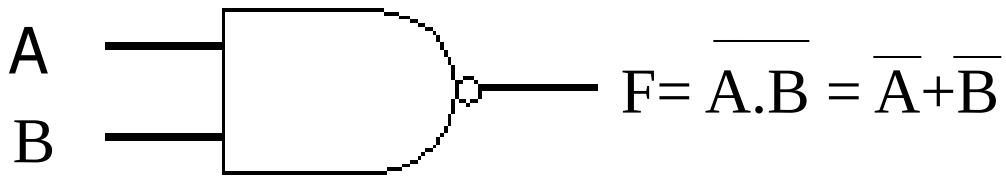
→ Both NAND and NOR gates are very valuable as any design can be realized using either one.

•It is easier to build digital circuits using all NAND or NOR gates than to combine AND,OR, and NOT gates.

•NAND/NOR gates are typically faster and cheaper to produce.

The NAND Gate

- The NAND gate is a combination of an AND gate followed by an inverter (NOT gate).
- We can use a NAND gate to implement all three of the *basic operations* (AND,OR,NOT).
- Such a gate is said to be **functionally complete**.

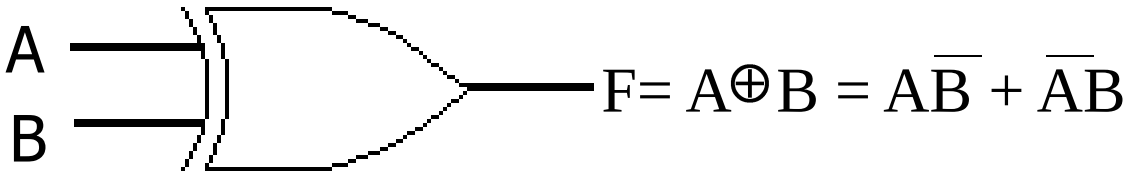


A	**B**	**F**
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

The XOR Gate (Exclusive-OR)

- This is a XOR gate.
- XOR gates assert their output when exactly one of the inputs is asserted, hence the name.
- The operator symbol for this operation is $\oplus$

  $1 \oplus 1 = 0$ and $1 \oplus 0 = 1$.

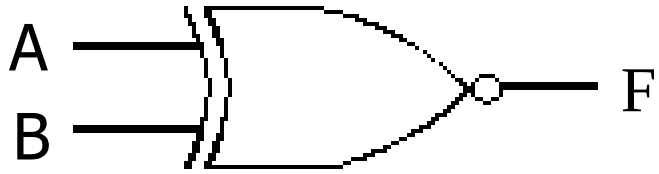


A	B	F
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

The XNOR Gate

- This functions as an exclusive-NOR gate, or simply the complement of the XOR gate.
- The symbol for this operation is ⊙

  $1 \odot 1 = 1$ and $1 \odot 0 = 0$.



$$F = \overline{A \oplus B} = (AB) + (\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}) = AB + A'B'$$

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