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# Memory Design Using Logical Gates

Mandisha Sharma<sup>1</sup>, Mansi Kakkar<sup>2</sup>, Manish Sharma<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1, 2, 3</sup>B.Tech (Student)

Department Of Computer Science, Dronacharya College Of Engineering, Gurgaon

**Abstract:** This research is about designing memory using logical gates. A memory unit is a collection of storage cells together with associated circuits needed to transform information in and out of the device. Memory cells which can be accessed for information transfer to or from any desired random location is called random access memory(RAM). The internal construction of a random-access memory of  $m$  words with  $n$  bits per word consists of  $m*n$  binary storage cells and associated decoding circuits for selecting individual words. A basic RAM cell has been provided here as a component which can be used to design larger memory units. An IC memory consisting of 4 words each having 3 bits has been also provided. In this research we will discuss about the designing of a RAM Cell and designing of 4\*4 RAM.

**Keywords:** Flip-flops, Garbage Output, Random Access Memory, Reversible Logic, Quantum Cost, dynamic RAM array, reversible combinational circuits, reversible decoder.

### I. INTRODUCTION

In recent year reversible computing has emerged as a promising technology. The primary reason for this is the increasing demands for low power devices. R. Landauer [1] proved that losing information causes loss of energy. Information is lost when an input cannot be recovered from its output. He showed that each bit of information loss generates  $kT \ln 2$  joules of heat energy; where  $k$  is Boltzmann's constant and  $T$  is the absolute temperature at which computation is performed. C. H. Bennett [2] showed that energy dissipation problem can be avoided if circuits are built using reversible logic gates. One of the more interesting things that you can do with Boolean gates is to create memory with them. If you arrange the gates correctly, they will remember an input value. This simple concept is the basis of RAM (random access memory) in computers, and also makes it possible to create a wide variety of other useful circuits. Memory relies on a concept called feedback. That is, the output of a gate is fed back into the input.

Reversible logic is an emerging nanotechnology used in the design and implementation of nanotechnology and quantum computing with the main goal of reducing physical entropy gain. Significant work have been produced in the design of fundamental reversible logic structures and arithmetic units, and

recent developments in sequential design of reversible circuits has opened new avenues in the implementation of reversible combinational circuits, such as the design and implementation of random access memory. In this paper, a novel 4\*4 MLMR gate is presented which is used for controlling the read/write logic of a SRAM cell. Next, a reversible SRAM cell is designed and verified. Then, a novel 4\*4 Reversible Decoder (RD) gate, implemented as a 2-to-4 decoder with low delay and cost is presented and verified, and its implementation shown in the construction of a 4x2 reversible SRAM array. Next, a dual-port SRAM cell is presented and verified, and its implementation in a synchronous  $n$ -bit reversible dual-port SRAM array is shown. Then, a reversible DRAM cell is presented and verified. The control logic for writing to the DRAM based on Peres gates is shown. The control logic and the DRAM cell are then implemented in a reversible 4x4 DRAM array.

### II. BASIC DEFINATIONS

In this section, some basic definitions related to reversible logic are presented. We formally define reversible gate, garbage output, delay and quantum cost in reversible circuits.

#### 2.1 Reversible Gate

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A Reversible Gate is a  $k$ -input,  $k$ -output (denoted by  $k \times k$ ) circuit that produces a unique output pattern for each possible input pattern [3]. Reversible Gates are circuits in which the number of outputs and inputs are equal and there is a one to one mapping between the vector of inputs and outputs. If the input vector is  $I_v$  where  $I_v = (I_{1,j}, I_{2,j}, I_{3,j}, \dots, I_{k-1,j}, I_{k,j})$  and the output vector is  $O_v$  where  $O_v = (O_{1,j}, O_{2,j}, O_{3,j}, \dots, O_{k-1,j}, O_{k,j})$ , then according to the definition, for each particular vector  $j$ ,  $I_v \ll O_v$ .

### 2.2 Garbage Output

Outputs that are not primary outputs or outputs that are not used as input to other gates to produce primary outputs are garbage. Unwanted or unused outputs which are needed to maintain reversibility of a reversible gate (or circuit) are known as Garbage Outputs. The garbage output of Feynman gate [7] is shown Figure 1 with \*.

### 2.3 Delay

The delay of a logic circuit is the maximum number of gates in a path from any input line to any output line. The definition is based on two assumptions: (i) Every gate computation takes one unit of time and (ii) All inputs to the circuit are available before the computation. In this paper, we used the logical depth as measure of the delay proposed by Mohammadi and Eshghi [8]. The delay of each  $1 \times 1$  gate and  $2 \times 2$  reversible gate is taken as unit delay 1. Any  $3 \times 3$  reversible gate can be designed from  $1 \times 1$  reversible gates and  $2 \times 2$  reversible gates, such as CNOT gate, Controlled-V and Controlled- $V^+$  gates ( $V$  is a square-root-of NOT gate and  $V^+$  is its hermitian). Thus, the delay of a  $3 \times 3$  reversible gate can be computed by calculating its logical depth when it is designed from smaller  $1 \times 1$  and  $2 \times 2$  reversible gates.

### 2.4 Quantum Cost

The quantum cost of a reversible gate is defined as the number of  $1 \times 1$  and  $2 \times 2$  reversible gates or quantum gates needed to realize the design. The quantum costs of all reversible  $1 \times 1$  and  $2 \times 2$  gates are taken as unity [9]. Since every reversible gate is a combination of  $1 \times 1$  or  $2 \times 2$  quantum gate, the quantum cost of any reversible gate can be calculated by counting the numbers of NOT, Controlled-V, Controlled $V^+$  and CNOT gates used in the design.

## III. QUANTUM ANALYSIS OF POPULAR REVERSIBLE GATES

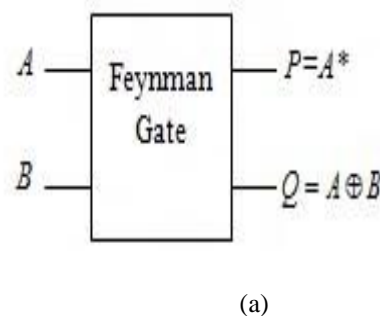
Every reversible gate can be realized by the quantum gates. Thus the cost of reversible circuit can be measured in terms of quantum cost. Reducing the quantum cost of a reversible circuit is always a challenging one and works are still going on in this area. This section describes some popular reversible gates and presents quantum equivalent diagram of each of the reversible gate.

### 3.1 Reversible computation

- Landauer/Bennett: all operations required in computation could be performed in a reversible manner, thus dissipating no heat!
- The first condition for any deterministic device to be reversible is that its input and output be uniquely retrievable from each other - then it is called logically reversible.
- The second condition: a device can actually run backwards - then it is called physically reversible.

### 3.2 Feynman Gate

The input vector,  $I_v$  and output vector,  $O_v$  for  $2 \times 2$  Feynman Gate (FG) is defined as follows:  $I_v = (A, B)$  and  $O_v = (P = A, Q = A \oplus B)$ . The quantum cost of Feynman gate is 1. The block diagram and equivalent quantum representation for  $2 \times 2$  Feynman gate are shown in Fig 1.



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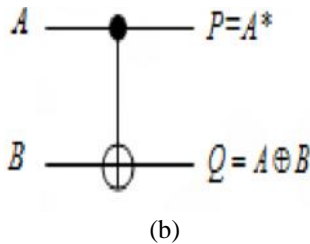


Figure 1. (a) Block diagram of 2x2 Feynman gate and (b) equivalent circuit

## 3.3 Reversible fredkin gate

Reversible gate is a logical gate with one-to-one mapping i.e., for each input vector, there is a unique output vector and vice versa. Also known as reversible conservative logic. Fanout at the output is not allowed. The designs presented in this paper are based on conservative reversible (three inputs: three outputs) Fredkin gate shown it can be described as mapping (A,B, and C) to (P = A, Q = AB + AC, and R = AB + AC), where A,B, and C are the inputs, and P,Q, and R are the outputs, respectively. The operation involves: Whenever the first input (say A) is 1, the swapping of inputs B and C is done at the output. Otherwise, output is same as input. Table I shows the truth table of Fredkin Gate, and it can be seen that Fredkin gate produces the same number of 1's in the outputs as on the inputs, in addition to the one-to-one mapping feature of reversibility.

– Fredkin Gate is a fundamental concept in reversible and quantum computing.

– Every Boolean function can be built from 3 \* 3 Fredkin gates:

$$P = A,$$

$$Q = \text{if } A \text{ then } C \text{ else } B,$$

$$R = \text{if } A \text{ then } B \text{ else } C.$$

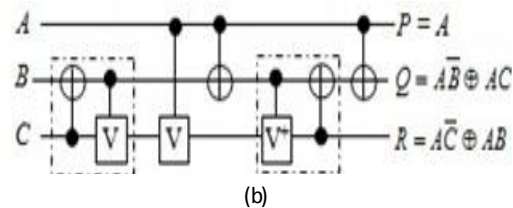
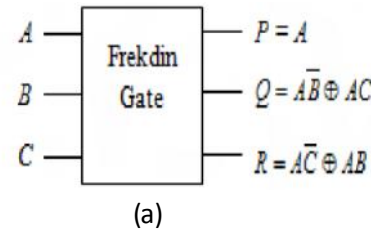


Figure 3. (a) Block diagram of 3x3 Fredkin gate and (b) Equivalent quantum circuit

## 3.4 Peres Gate

The input vector,  $I_v$  and output vector,  $O_v$  for 3\*3 Peres gate (PG)[9] is defined as follows:  $I_v = (A, B, C)$  and  $O_v =$

$(P = A, Q = A \oplus B, R = AB \oplus C)$ . The quantum cost of Peres gate is 4. The block diagram and equivalent quantum representation for 3\*3 Peres gate are shown in Figure 4.

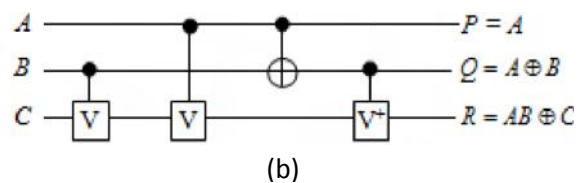
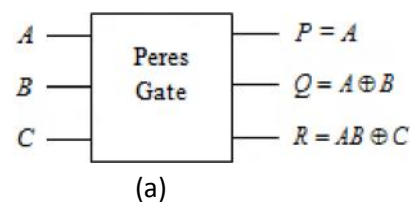


Figure 4. (a) Block diagram of 3x3 Peres and (b) Equivalent quantum representation.



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### 4. PROPOSED MODIFICATION ON FREK DIN GATE

#### 4.1 Modified FRG 1 gate

The input vector,  $I_v$  and output vector,  $O_v$  for 3\*3 modified Fredkin Gate (MFRG 1) is defined as follows:  $I_v = (A, B, C)$  and  $O_v = (P=A, Q = \overline{AB} \overline{AC}, R = \overline{AC} AB)$ . The quantum cost of MFRG1 gate is 4.

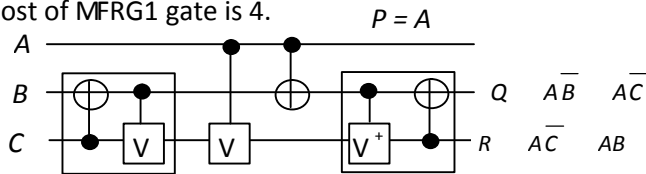


Fig. 6. Quantum representation of MFRG 1 gate

#### 4.2 Modified FRG 2 gate

The input vector  $I_v$  and output vector  $O_v$  of 3\*3 modified Fredkin Gate (MFRG 2) is defined as  $I_v = (A, B, C)$  and  $O_v = (P = \overline{A}, Q = \overline{AB} \overline{AC}, R = \overline{AC} AB)$ . The quantum cost of MFRG2 gate is 5.

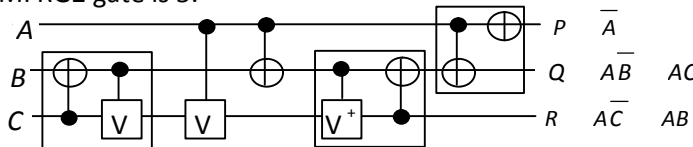


Fig. 7. Quantum representation of MFRG2 gate

### 5. DESIGN OF RANDOM ACCESS MEMORY

In this section we first presented proposed design for all the components of RRAM. Then we presented our proposed novel design of RRAM that is optimized in terms of quantum cost, delay and garbage outputs.

#### 5.1 Proposed Reversible $n$ to $2^n$ Decoder

A single Feynman gate can be used to design the basic  $1$  to  $2^1$  decoder. Using this decoder we can systematically add  $2^{n-1}$  number of MFRG1 gates to the design to achieve  $n$  to  $2^n$  decoder. The design of  $1$  to  $2^1$  decoder is shown in Figure. 8.

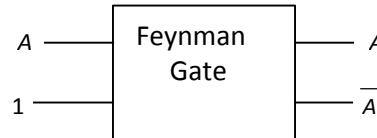


Fig. 8. Proposed  $1$  to  $2^1$  decoder

The design of decoder has 1 quantum cost, 1 delay and no garbage output.

Our proposed  $2$  to  $2^2$  decoder using MFRG1 gates are shown in Figure 9.

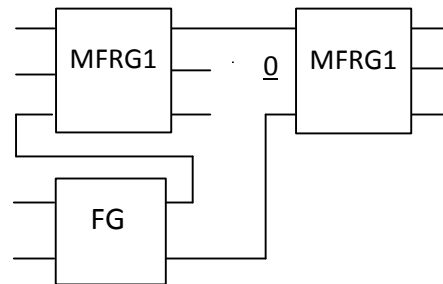


Fig. 9. Proposed  $2$  to  $2^2$  decoder

The proposed  $2$  to  $2^2$  decoder has quantum cost 9, delay 9 and bare minimum of 1 garbage bit. The proposed design of  $2$  to  $2^2$  decoder achieves improvement ratios of 18%, 18% and 50% in terms of quantum cost, delay and garbage outputs compared to the design presented in N.M.Nayem et al. [14]. The improvement ratios compared to the design M. Morrison et al. presented in [19] are 10% and 10% in terms of quantum cost and delay. The comparison of proposed  $2$  to  $2^2$  decoder with the existing ones shown in table I.

Table I. Comparison of different types of  $2$  to  $2^2$  decoders.

2 to $2^2$ decoder design	Cost Comparisons		
	Quantum Cost	Delay	Garbage Outputs
Proposed	9	9	1
Existing[14]	11	11	2
Existing[19]	10	10	-
Improvement(%)	18	18	50

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w.r.t. [14]			
Improvement(%)	10	10	-
w.r.t. [19]			

**Theorem 1:** To construct  $n$  to  $2^n$  decoder, if  $g$  is the total number of gates required to design the decoder producing  $b$  number of garbage outputs then  $g = 2^n - 1$  and  $b = n - 1$ .

**Proof:** For  $1$  to  $2^1$  decoder only one Feynman gate needed that doesn't produce any garbage bit. So number of gate = 1 and garbage output = 0.

Now for  $n > 1$ ,  $n$  to  $2^n$  decoder design requires that each of the output of the  $(n-1)$  to  $2^{(n-1)}$  decoders together with  $(n-1)$  selection bits are employed in separate MRFG1 gate to produce selections for  $n$  to  $2^n$  decoder. In that case overall number of gates becomes  $2^n - 1$ , because for  $n=1$  we were required only 1 gate. This design has  $n-1$  garbage bits as the  $1$  to  $2^1$  decoder produces zero garbage.

**Theorem 2:** The quantum cost of an  $n$  to  $2^n$  decoder is  $Q_c = 4.2^n - 7$ .

**Proof:** From theorem 1, at least  $2^n - 1$  gates are required to design  $n$  to  $2^n$  decoder. For  $n = 1$  only one  $2 \times 2$  Feynman gate is required which has quantum cost 1. Then  $2^n - 2$  MRFG1 gates are required and each MRF1 gate's quantum cost is 4. So total quantum cost  $Q_c$  is  $= (2^n - 2)4 + 1 = 4.2^n - 7$ .

### 5.2 Proposed Single bit Memory Cell

The heart of our proposed memory block is D flip-flop. The characteristic equation of gated D flip-flop is  $Q^+ = CLK.D + \overline{CLK}.Q$ . The D flip-flop can be realized by one MRFG2 gate and one FG. It can be mapped with MRFG2 by giving  $CLK$ ,  $D$  and  $Q$  respectively in 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> inputs of MRFG2 gate. The Figure 10 shows our proposed D flip-flop with  $Q$  and  $\overline{Q}$  outputs.

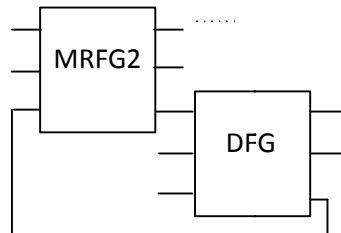


Fig. 10: Proposed design of D flip-flop with  $Q$  and  $\overline{Q}$  outputs.

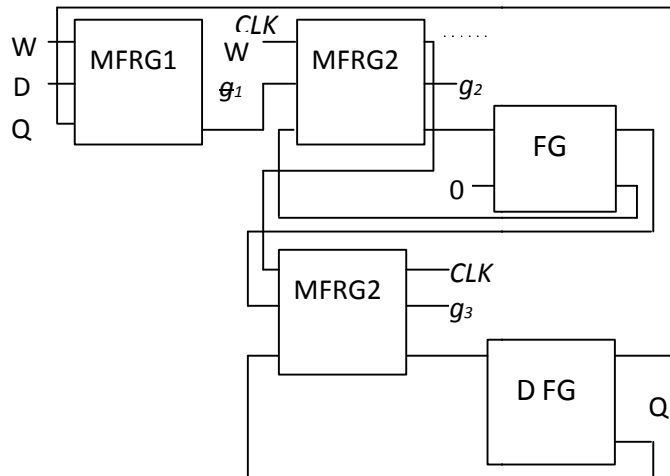
The proposed D flip-flop with  $Q$  and  $\overline{Q}$  outputs has quantum cost 7, delay 7 and has the bare minimum of 1 garbage bit. The proposed design of gated D flip-flop achieves improvement ratios of 50% in terms of garbage outputs compared to the design presented in Thapliyal et al. 2010[15] and L. Jamal et al. 2012[16]. The comparisons of our D flipflop (with  $Q$  and  $\overline{Q}$  outputs) design with existing designs in literature are summarized in Table II.

Table II. Comparison of different types of D flip-flops with  $Q$  and  $\overline{Q}$  outputs.

D flip-flop design	Cost Comparisons		
	Quantum Cost	Delay	Garbage Outputs
Proposed	7	7	1
Existing[15]	7	7	2
Existing[16]	7	7	2
Improvement(%) w.r.t. [15]	0	0	50
Improvement(%) w.r.t. [16]	0	0	50

We need Write Enable Master Slave D FFs to design a Reversible Random Access Memory (RRAM). Our proposed write enable master slave flip-flop is shown in Figure 11.

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**Fig. 11: Proposed write enable master slave D flip-flop.**

As data are both read from and written into RAM, each FlipFlop should work on two modes- read and write. A MFRG1 gate is used to multiplex between flip-flop's  $D$  input and stored bit  $Q$  in the flip-flop. When 'write' is high, input  $D$  of the MFRG1 gate is carried to the first  $D$  flip-flop and if 'write' is low, output of the  $D$  flip-flop is fed back to the second input of the MFRG1 gate so that state of the flip-flop remains same.

The proposed write enable master slave  $D$  flip-flop has quantum cost 17, delay 17 and 3 garbage bits. The proposed design of single bit memory cell achieves improvement ratios of 19% and 11% in terms of quantum cost and delay compared to the design

Let  $g$  be the number of gates required to realize a  $2^n \times m$  Reversible RAM where  $n$  be the number of bits and  $m$  be the selection bits in the RRAM, then  $g = 2^n \times (6m+2) + m - 1$ . **Proof:** A  $2^n \times m$  RRAM requires  $n$  to  $2^n$  decoder that consists of  $(2^n - 1)$  gates.  $2^n$  Toffoli gates are required to perform AND operations in RRAM.  $m \times 2^n$   $D$  flip-flops are required inside the  $m \times 2^n$  RRAM whereas each  $D$  flip-flop requires 5 gates.  $2^n \times m$  Feynman gates are required to perform the copy operation. There are  $m$  number of  $2^n$  bit Feynman gate at the bottom last row. If  $g$  be the minimum number of gates to realize the RRAM, then  $g = (2^n - 1) + 2^n + 5 \times 2^n \times m + 2^n \times m + m$  Hence  $g = 2^n \times (6m+2) + m - 1$ .

### Theorem 4

presented in M. Morrison [19]. The comparisons are summarized in table III.

Table III. Comparisons of different types of Write Enable Master Slave  $D$  flip-flops with  $Q$  and  $\bar{Q}$  outputs.

Single bit Memory Cell	Cost Comparisons		
	Quantum Cost	Delay	Garbage Outputs
Proposed	17	17	3
Existing[19]	21	19	-
Improvement in (%)	19	11	-

### 5.3 Proposed Reversible Random Access Memory (RRAM)

A RAM is a two dimensional array of flip-flops. There are  $2^n$  rows where each row contains  $m$  flip-flops. Each time only one of the  $2^n$  output lines of the decoder is active which selects one row of flip-flops of the RAM. Whether a read or a write operation is performed depends on the  $W$  input. When  $W$  is high,  $m$  flip-flops of the selected row of the RAM are written with the inputs  $D_1$  to  $D_m$ . When  $W$  is low,  $Q_1$  to  $Q_m$  contains stored bits in the flip-flops of the selected row and simultaneously the flip-flops are refreshed with the stored bits. The proposed design of  $2^n \times m$  bit RRAM is shown in Figure.12.

### Theorem 3

Let  $n$  be the number of bits,  $m$  be the selection bits in the RRAM and  $b$  be the number of garbage outputs generated from the RRAM, then  $b = m \times (4 \times 2^n - 1) + n$ .

**Proof:** A  $2^n \times m$  RRAM requires  $n$  to  $2^n$  decoder which produces  $(n-1)$  garbage bits. 1 garbage bit is generated from the  $m^{\text{th}}$  Toffoli gate in the RRAM. Inside RRAM there are  $2^n \times m$   $D$  flip-flops and each  $D$  flip-flop produces 3 garbage bits. The last row contains  $m$  number of  $2^n$  bit Feynman gate and each of them produces  $2^n - 1$  garbage bits. If  $b$  be the number of garbage outputs then  $b \geq (n-1) + 1 + 3 \times 2^n \times m + m \times (2^n - 1)$ . Hence  $b = m \times (4 \times 2^n - 1) + n$ .

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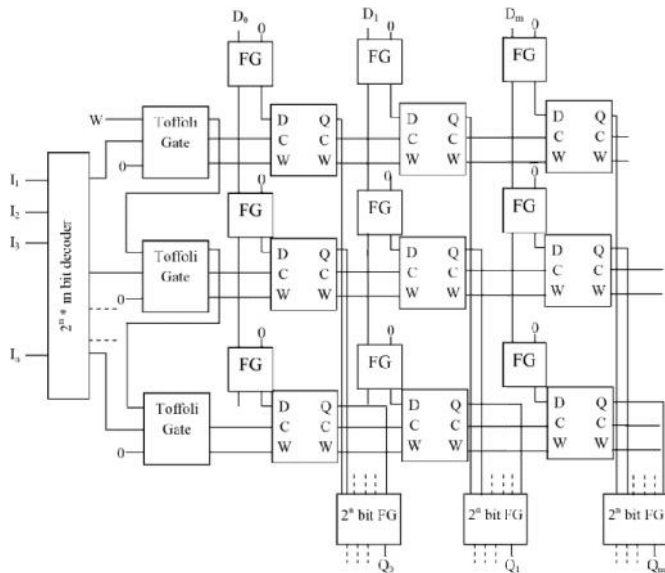


Fig.12. Proposed design of  $2^n * m$  bit RRAM

## Theorem 5

Let  $n$  be the number of bits,  $m$  be the selection bits in the RRAM and  $Q_c$  be the quantum cost of the RRAM, then  $Q_c \leq 2^n (19m+9)-7$ .

**Proof:** A  $2^n * m$  RRAM requires an  $n$  to  $2^n$  decoders that has quantum cost  $4.2^n-7$ .  $2^n$  Toffoli gates are used to perform AND operations in RRAM where each of the gates has quantum cost 5,  $m*2^n$  DFFs are required inside the  $m * 2^n$  RRAM whereas each DFF has quantum cost 17.  $2^n * m$  Feynman gates are required to perform the copy operation where each of them has quantum cost 1. There are  $m$  number of  $2^n$  bit Feynman gate in last row where each of them has quantum cost  $2^n$ . If  $Q_c$  be the quantum cost of RRAM then  $Q_c \leq 4.2^n-7 + 5.2^n + m*2^n + 17*m*2^n + m*2^n$ .

Hence  $Q_c \leq 2^n(19m+9)-7$

## 6. CONCLUSION

Reversible Random Access Memory (RRAM) is going to take the place of existing main memory in the forthcoming quantum devices. In this paper we proposed optimized RRAM with the help of proposed MRFG1 and MRFG2 gates along with some basic reversible logic gates. Appropriate algorithms and theorems are presented here to clarify the proposed design and to establish its efficiency. We compare

our design with existing ones in literature which claims our success in terms of quantum cost, number of garbage outputs and delay. We believe this optimization can contribute significantly in reversible logic community.

## 7. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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