

ENGG2020 DIGITAL LOGIC AND SYSTEMS

CHAPTER 1: DIGITAL SYSTEMS AND BINARY NUMBERS

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1

CONTENTS

- Analog vs. Digital
- Number Systems and their conversions
- Binary Addition and Subtraction
- Floating Point Representation
- BCD and Gray Codes
- Error Detection and Correction

2

3

ANALOG VS DIGITAL



ANALOG VS. DIGITAL

- Anything seems become “**digital**” nowadays, why is that?
- Is it **good**? Or **bad**?
- If it is not, why not stay with “**analog**”?
- What is “**analog**”?



4

INTRODUCTION TO ANALOG WORLD

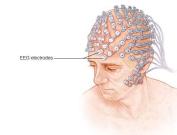
- Nearly everything we can **feel, hear, touch, and sense** is analog signals
 - We hear voice or **sound waves**
 - We feel heat or **temperature**
 - We see image or **light waves**

- These signals are **analog** and are **continuous functions** of time
 - They have value at any point in time

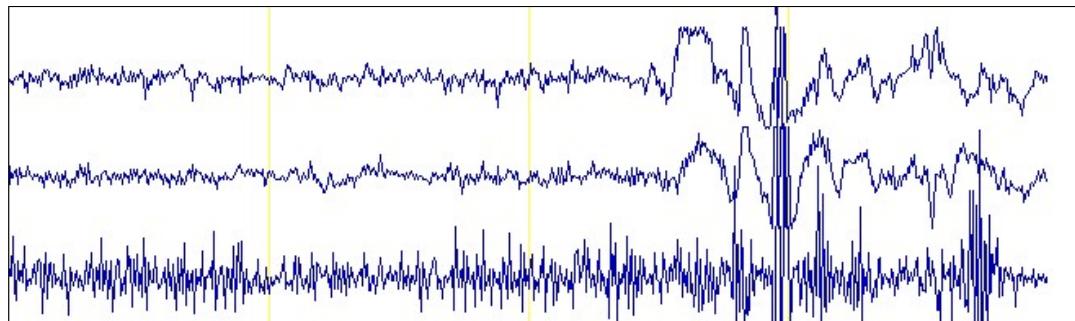


5

ANALOG SIGNAL



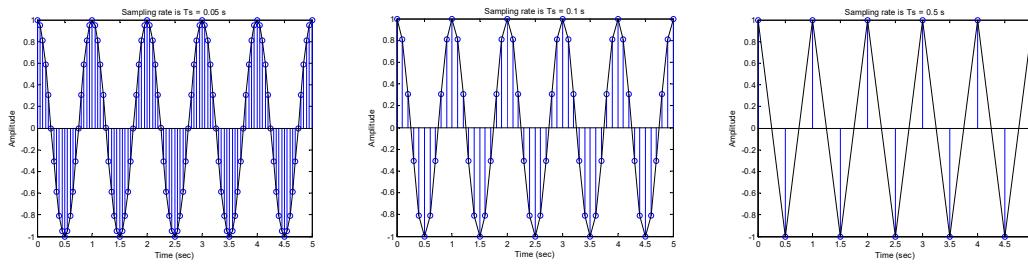
- For example, the electroencephalography (**EEG**) signal produced by the brain



6

DISCRETE TIME SAMPLES

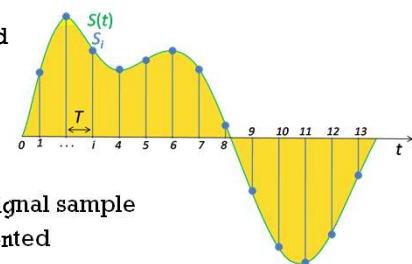
- Unlike analog signals, digital signals are actually **discrete samples**
 - They are **not continuous**
 - They are only available at a certain period of time, known as **sampling period**, T_s



7

RESOLUTION

- Number of Samples**
 - The original signal can be reconstructed by **interpolation** between consecutive discrete samples
 - The **more samples we have, the better** signal can be restored

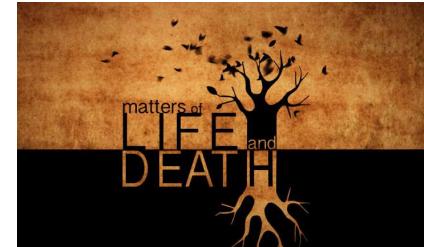


- Resolution**
 - Resolution refers to the **number of bits** used to represent a signal sample
 - The **higher** resolution, the **more accurate** value can be presented

8

FIDELITY

- For example, if a medical device can display only **0.2mV** difference in a vital signal, and gives a reading of **0mV**...
- Does it really mean **0mV**? OR anything between **-0.2mV to 0.2mV**?
- It could distinguish between **life** and **death** of a patient
- Should we go for digital then...?
- Should I drop the course...?



9

THE BRIGHT SIDE OF DIGITAL WORLD

- Digital circuits are relatively **easy to design**
- Digital circuits have **higher accuracy**, and **programmability**
- Digital signals can be **stored easily**
- Digital circuit is comparatively more immune to error and noise, **error detection** and **error correction** can be implemented
- Digital signal **transmission** will not be degraded over a long distance
- Digital signal is either high or low, hence there is **less chance** of **confusion**
- Digital circuits have higher **flexibility**, we can change the functionality by software
- Digital circuits are more **reliable**, analog signal can be distorted by thermal noise



10

11

NUMBER SYSTEMS AND BASE CONVERSIONS

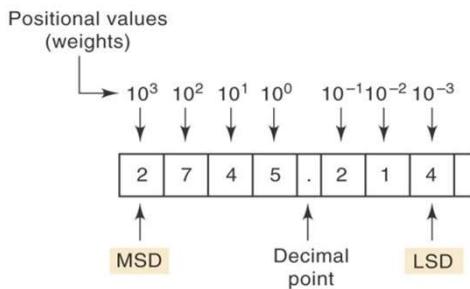
COMMON NUMBER SYSTEMS

- Decimal in base 10
- Binary in base 2
- Hexadecimal in base 16
- Octal in base 8

12

DECIMAL

- Decimal digits: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9
- Most Significant Digit (MSD)
- Least Significant Digit (LSD)



13

DECIMAL NUMBERS

- Decimal digits: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9
- What does a decimal number 1234_{10} means?
- $1234_{10} = 1 \times 10^3 + 2 \times 10^2 + 3 \times 10^1 + 4 \times 10^0$
- What is 56.78_{10} ?
- $56.78_{10} = 5 \times 10^1 + 6 \times 10^0 + 7 \times 10^{-1} + 8 \times 10^{-2}$

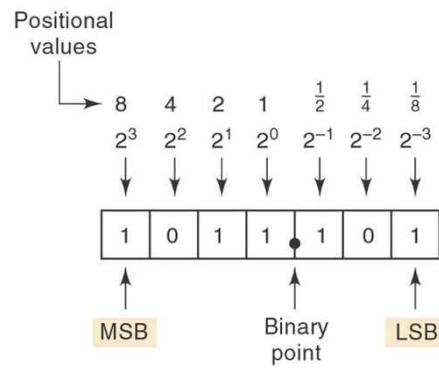
14

BINARY NUMBERS

- Binary digits: 0, 1
- Most Significant Bit (MSB)
- Least Significant Bit (LSB)

- Binary to Decimal:

- $1011_2 = 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0$
- $1.01_2 = 1 \times 2^0 + 0 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2}$



15

DECIMAL TO BINARY

- By reversing the process...

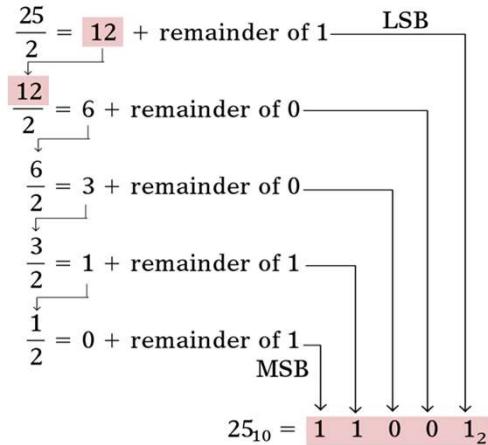
$$45_{10} = 32 + 8 + 4 + 1 = 2^5 + 0 + 2^3 + 2^2 + 0 + 2^0 \\ = 1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 1_2$$

$$76_{10} = 64 + 8 + 4 = 2^6 + 0 + 0 + 2^3 + 2^2 + 0 + 0 \\ = 1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 0_2$$

16

DECIMAL TO BINARY

- By repeated divisions...
 - Divide the decimal number by 2
 - Write down the remainder after each division
 - Until a quotient of zero is obtained
- The first remainder is the LSB
- The last remainder is the MSB
- For example, $25_{10} = 11001_2$



17

DECIMAL TO BINARY

- For example, $37_{10} = 100101_2$

$$\begin{array}{r} 37 \\ \hline 2) 18.5 \rightarrow \text{remainder of } 1 \text{ (LSB)} \\ \downarrow \\ 18 \\ \hline 2) 9.0 \rightarrow \quad 0 \\ \downarrow \\ 9 \\ \hline 2) 4.5 \rightarrow \quad 1 \\ \downarrow \\ 4 \\ \hline 2) 2.0 \rightarrow \quad 0 \\ \downarrow \\ 2 \\ \hline 2) 1.0 \rightarrow \quad 0 \\ \downarrow \\ 1 \\ \hline 2) 0.5 \rightarrow \quad 1 \text{ (MSB)} \end{array}$$

18

HEXADECIMAL

- Hexadecimal digits: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F

- Useful in handling long binary strings
- By dividing them into 4-bit groups

Hexadecimal	Decimal	Binary
0	0	0000
1	1	0001
2	2	0010
3	3	0011
4	4	0100
5	5	0101
6	6	0110
7	7	0111
8	8	1000
9	9	1001
A	10	1010
B	11	1011
C	12	1100
D	13	1101
E	14	1110
F	15	1111

Additional to Decimal

4 bits

19

HEXADECIMAL TO DECIMAL

- Convert 356_{16} to Decimal

$$\begin{aligned}
 356_{16} &= 3 \times 16^2 + 5 \times 16^1 + 6 \times 16^0 \\
 &= 768 + 80 + 6 \\
 &= 854_{10}
 \end{aligned}$$

- Convert $2AF_{16}$ to Decimal, where A=10, and F=15

$$\begin{aligned}
 2AF_{16} &= 2 \times 16^2 + 10 \times 16^1 + 15 \times 16^0 \\
 &= 512 + 160 + 15 \\
 &= 687_{10}
 \end{aligned}$$

20

DECIMAL TO HEXADECIMAL

- Convert 423_{16} to Hexadecimal

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \frac{423}{16} = 26 + \text{remainder of } 7 \\
 \downarrow \\
 \frac{26}{16} = 1 + \text{remainder of } 10 \\
 \downarrow \\
 \frac{1}{16} = 0 + \text{remainder of } 1
 \end{array}$$

$423_{10} = 1A7_{16}$

21

DECIMAL TO HEXADECIMAL

- Convert 214_{10} to HEX

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \frac{214}{16} = 13 + \text{remainder of } 6 \\
 \downarrow \\
 \frac{13}{16} = 0 + \text{remainder of } 13
 \end{array}$$

$214_{10} = D6_{16}$

22

HEXADECIMAL TO BINARY

- Convert $9F2_{16}$ to Binary
- Each HEX digit gives 4 Binary bits
- Therefore, $9F2_{16} = 1001\ 1111\ 0010_2$

Hex	Binary
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111
8	1000
9	1001
A	1010
B	1011
C	1100
D	1101
E	1110
F	1111

23

BINARY TO HEXADECIMAL

- Convert 1110100110_2 to HEX
- Group the binary number into 4-bit groups from LSB
- Leading 0 can be added to the left of the MSB

$$\begin{aligned} 1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0_2 &= \underbrace{0\ 0\ 1\ 1}_3\ \underbrace{1\ 0\ 1\ 0}_A\ \underbrace{0\ 1\ 1\ 0}_6 \\ &= 3A6_{16} \end{aligned}$$

Hex	Binary
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111
8	1000
9	1001
A	1010
B	1011
C	1100
D	1101
E	1110
F	1111

24

OCTAL

- Octal digits: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7
- Octal to/from DEC/HEX
 - $173_8 = 123_{10} = 78_{16}$
- Octal to Binary
 - Each Octal digit gives 3 Binary bits
 - $173_8 = 001 \ 111 \ 011_2$

Octal Symbol	Binary equivalent
0	000
1	001
2	010
3	011
4	100
5	101
6	110
7	111

25

26

BINARY ADDITION AND SUBTRACTION

BINARY ADDITION

- Bitwise addition from right to left
- Example: $0110_2 + 1001_2 = 01111_2$ with Carry bit = 0
- Example: $0110_2 + 1101_2 = 10011_2$ with Carry bit = 1

What will happen if the system can only support 4-bit number?

$$\begin{array}{r}
 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
 + & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 \hline
 \text{Carry} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 \text{Sum} & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
 + & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
 \hline
 \text{Carry} & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
 \text{Sum} & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1
 \end{array}$$

27

BINARY SUBTRACTION

- Bitwise subtraction from right to left
- Example ($13 - 1 = 12$): $1110 - 0001 = 1101$
- Example ($6 - 9 = -3$) : $0110 - 1001 = 1101$

For a 4-bit system, are they correct?

$$\begin{array}{r}
 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
 - & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 \hline
 \text{Borrow} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 \text{Ans} & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
 - & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 \hline
 \text{Borrow} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 \text{Ans} & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1
 \end{array}$$

28

SUBTRACTION WITH COMPLEMENTS

- In digital hardware, the borrow concept in subtraction is **less efficient** in implementation
- Therefore, the subtraction of two binary **unsigned** number (e.g. $M - N$) can be done by addition of M and the **2's complement** of N
- If $M \geq N$, the sum will produce an end Carry, which can be discarded
- If $M < N$, the sum does not produce an end Carry. Take the 2's complement of the sum and place a negative sign in front.

29

1'S AND 2'S COMPLEMENTS

- A binary number X = 1001
- 1's complement of X = 0110 (by changing 0 to 1, and 1 to 0)
- 2's complement of X = 0111 (by adding 1 to the 1's complement)

30

EXAMPLE

- For a 4-bit **unsigned** system, calculate $1011 - 0011$ (i.e. $11 - 3 = 8$)
- 1's complement of $0011 = 1100$
- 2's complement of $0011 = 1101$
- Adding 1011 with the 2's complement of 0011
 - $= 1011 + 1101$
 - $= 11000$ with Carry bit = 1
- Since **M>N**, the Carry bit can be discarded, and the answer is 1000

31

EXAMPLE

- For a 4-bit **unsigned** system, calculate $0011 - 1011$ (i.e. $3 - 11 = -8$)
- 1's complement of $1011 = 0100$
- 2's complement of $1011 = 0101$
- Adding 0011 with the 2's complement of 1011
 - $= 0011 + 0101$
 - $= 1000$ with Carry bit = 0
- Since **M<N**, the answer is the **negative 2's complement of the sum** $1000 = -1000$

32

SIGNED AND UNSIGNED BINARY NUMBERS

Unsigned Binary	Unsigned Decimal	Signed 1's Complement	Signed Decimal	Signed 2's Complement	Signed Decimal
000	0	111	-0	000	0
001	1	110	-1	111	-1
010	2	101	-2	110	-2
011	3	100	-3	101	-3
100	4	011	+3	100	-4
101	5	010	+2	011	+3
110	6	001	+1	010	+2
111	7	000	+0	001	+1

- Ranges of different n bits binary representations:
- Unsigned number, from 0 to $+(2^{n-1}-1)$
- Signed 1's complement, from $-(2^{(n-1)-1})$ to $+(2^{(n-1)-1})$, with 2 zeros
- Signed 2's complement, from $-(2^{(n-1)})$ to $+(2^{(n-1)-1})$

33

EXAMPLE

- For a 3-bit **signed 2's complement** system, calculate $011 - 100$ (i.e. $3 - 4 = -1$)
- 1's complement of $100 = 011$
- 2's complement of $100 = 100$
- Adding 011 with the 2's complement of 100
- $= 011 + 100$
- $= 111_2 (-1_{10})$

34

OVERFLOW

- Overflow can occur only when two positive or two negative numbers are being added
 - If two 2's complement numbers are added, and they both have the **same sign**,
 - Then overflow occurs if and only if the result has the **opposite sign**
- Overflow never occurs when adding operands with different signs

35

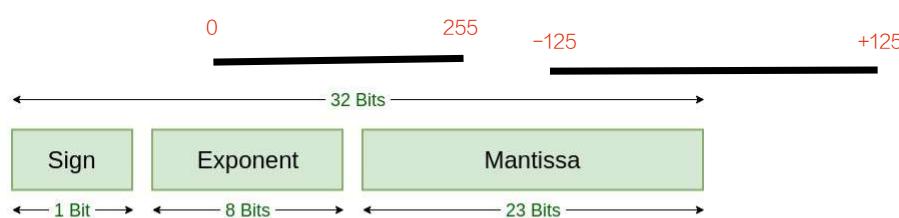
36

FLOATING POINT REPRESENTATION

FLOATING POINT TO DECIMAL

- There are 3 elements in a 32-bit floating point representation

- Sign
- Exponent
- Mantissa



Single Precision
IEEE 754 Floating-Point Standard

37

FLOATING POINT REPRESENTATION

- Sign bit = 0 for positive number, sign bit = 1 for negative number
- Exponent part is an exponent with a bias of 127
 - For an exponent = 3, the biased exponent = $127+3 = 130$ because range:-127 to +125
127 out bound
 - For an exponent = -2, the biased exponent = $127-2 = 125$
- Mantissa part is the rest of digits after the decimal point of the normalized binary number
 - For normalized number = 1.101, the mantissa is 10100000 00000000 00000000

Decimal	Binary	Normalized	Sign	Biased Exponent	Mantissa
+12	1100	1.1×2^3	0	1000010	10000000 00000000 00000000
-12	1100	1.1×2^3	1	1000010	10000000 00000000 00000000
+100	1100100	1.1001×2^6	0	10000101	10010000 00000000 00000000
-1.75	1.11	1.11×2^0	1	01111111	11000000 00000000 00000000
+0.25	0.01	1.0×2^{-2}	0	01111101	00000000 00000000 00000000
+0.0	0	0	0	00000000	00000000 00000000 00000000

38

39

OTHER USEFUL CODES

OTHER USEFUL CODES

- Binary Coded Decimal (BCD)
- Gray Code
- ASCII Code

40

BINARY CODED DECIMAL

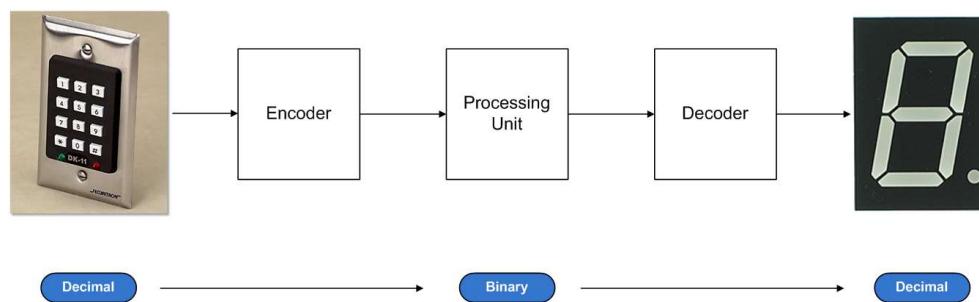
- Binary Coded Decimal (BCD) is a coding system that assigns a four-digit binary code to each decimal digit (i.e. 0 ~ 9)

DECIMAL	BINARY	BINARY CODE DECIMAL 8 4 2 1
0	0000	0000
1	0001	0001
2	0010	0010
3	0011	0011
4	0100	0100
5	0101	0101
6	0110	0110
7	0111	0111
8	1000	1000
9	1001	1001
10	1010	0001 0000
11	1011	0001 0001
12	1100	0001 0010
13	1101	0001 0011
14	1110	0001 0100
15	1111	0001 0101

41

APPLICATION OF BCD

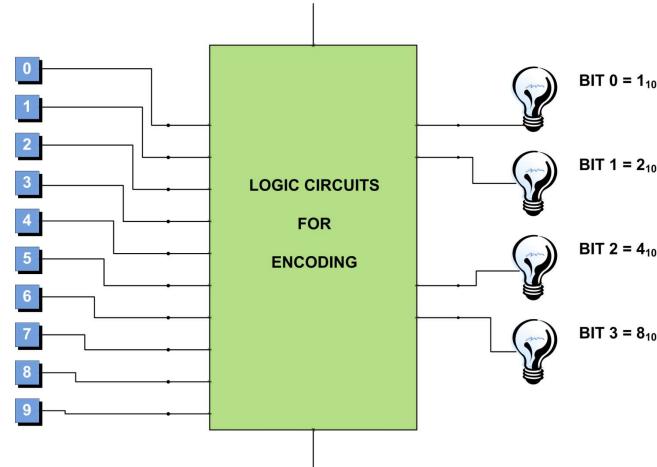
- BCD are commonly used in number display systems
- When you press a number on the keypad, the corresponding number is showed on a 7-segment LED display



42

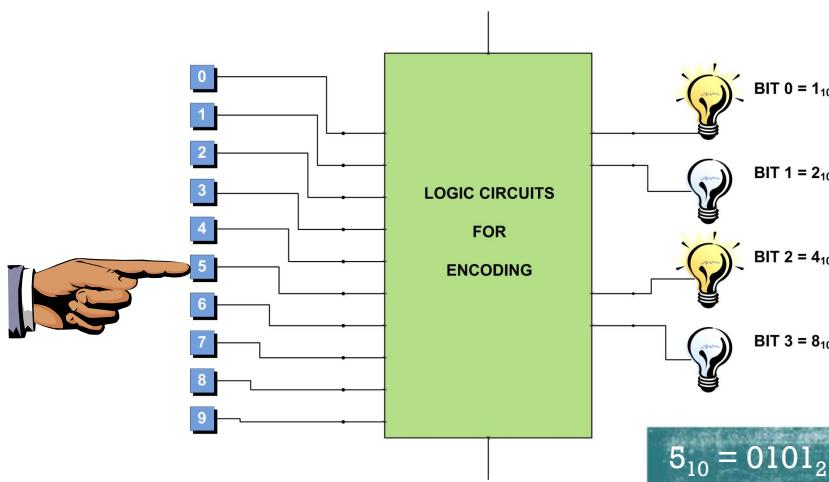
APPLICATION OF BCD

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



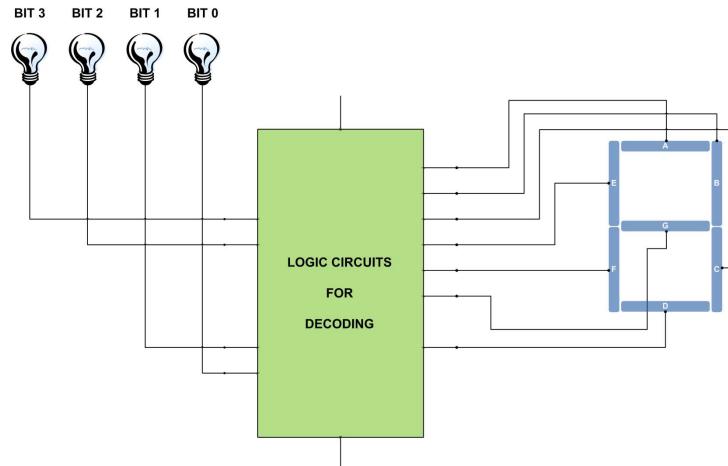
43

APPLICATION OF BCD



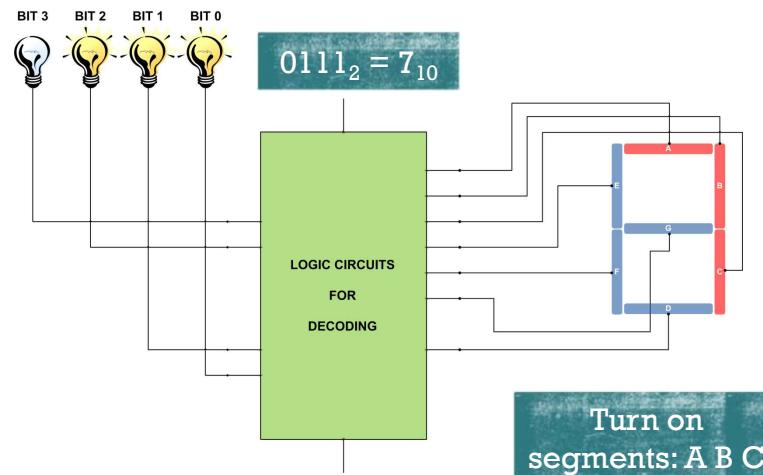
44

APPLICATION OF BCD



45

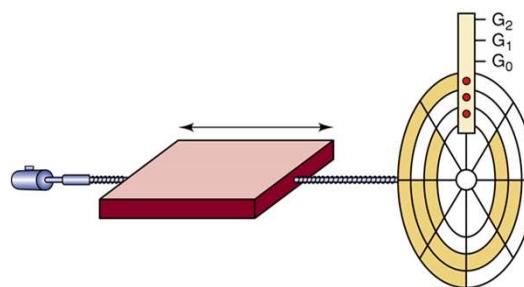
APPLICATION OF BCD



46

GRAY CODE

- Gray code is used in the applications which numbers change rapidly
- Only **one bit changes** from each value to the next
- 3-bit encoder for 8 different codes

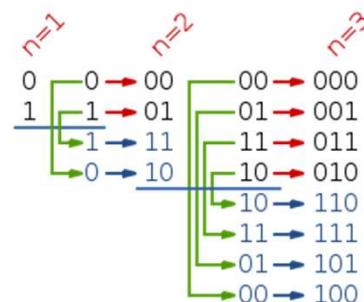


47

GRAY CODE

- Gray code is also called reflected binary number
- A binary numbering system which two successive values differ in only one bit

Decimal	Binary	Gray Code
0	000	000
1	001	001
2	010	011
3	011	010
4	100	110
5	101	111
6	110	101
7	111	100



48

ASCII CODE

- ASCII is an abbreviation of American Standard Code for Information Interchange
- A 7-bit code is used to represent all the alphanumeric data used in computer

Dec	Hex	Code	Dec	Hex	Code	Dec	Hex	Code	Dec	Hex	Code
0	00	NUL	32	20	space	64	40	@	96	60	`
1	01	SOH	33	21	!	65	41	A	97	61	a
2	02	STX	34	22	"	66	42	B	98	62	b
3	03	ETX	35	23	#	67	43	C	99	63	c
4	04	ETC	36	24	&	68	44	D	100	64	d
5	05	ENQ	37	25	%	69	45	E	101	65	e
6	06	ACK	38	26	\$	70	46	F	102	66	f
7	07	BEL	39	27	,	71	47	G	103	67	g
8	08	BS	40	28	(72	48	H	104	68	h
9	09	HT	41	29)	73	49	I	105	69	i
10	0A	LF	42	2A	*	74	4A	J	106	6A	j
11	0B	VT	43	2B	+	75	4B	K	107	6B	k
12	0C	FF	44	2C	,	76	4C	L	108	6C	l
13	0D	CR	45	2D	-	77	4D	M	109	6D	m
14	0E	SO	46	2E	.	78	4E	N	110	6E	n
15	0F	SI	47	2F	/	79	4F	O	111	6F	o
16	10	DLE	48	30	0	80	50	P	112	70	p
17	11	DC1	49	31	1	81	51	Q	113	71	q
18	12	DC2	50	32	2	82	52	R	114	72	r
19	13	DC3	51	33	3	83	53	S	115	73	s
20	14	DC4	52	34	4	84	54	T	116	74	t
21	15	NAA	53	35	5	85	55	U	117	75	u
22	16	SYN	54	36	6	86	56	V	118	76	v
23	17	ETB	55	37	7	87	57	W	119	77	w
24	18	CAN	56	38	8	88	58	X	140	78	x
25	19	EM	57	39	9	89	59	Y	121	79	y
26	1A	SUB	58	3A	:	90	5A	Z	122	7A	z
27	1B	ESC	59	3B	,	91	5B	[123	7B	{
28	1C	FS	60	3C	<	92	5C	\	124	7C	
29	1D	GS	61	3D	=	93	5D]	125	7D	}
30	1E	RS	62	3E	>	94	5E	^	126	7E	~
31	1F	US	63	3F	?	95	5F	_	127	7F	DEL

49

UNICODE

- ASCII is not sufficient for global intercommunication
- A character set including all languages is needed
- At most 4 bytes are required for a character
- UTF8 and UTF16 are different encodings of Unicode

Emoticons ^{[1][2]}																
Official Unicode Consortium code chart  (PDF)																
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
U+1F60x	😊	🙁	😅	😂	😃	😆	😅	😆	😅	😆	😅	😆	😅	😆	😅	😆
U+1F61x	😁	😆	😅	🤣	😅	😆	😅	😆	😅	😆	😅	😆	😅	😆	😅	😆
U+1F62x	😆	😅	😆	😅	😆	😅	😆	😅	😆	😅	😆	😅	😆	😅	😆	😅
U+1F63x	😱	🙀	😿	😾	😾	😾	😾	😾	😾	😾	😾	😾	😾	😾	😾	😾
U+1F64x	🦉	▢	▢	▢	▢	▢	▢	▢	▢	▢	▢	▢	▢	▢	▢	▢

Notes

1.^ As of Unicode version 7.0
2.^ Grey areas indicate non-assigned code points

50

51

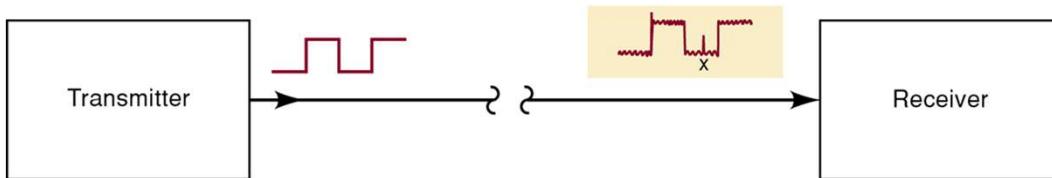
ERROR DETECTION AND CORRECTION

parallel and serial transmission :

Parallel connections have multiple wires running parallel to each other (hence the name), and can transmit data on all the wires simultaneously. Serial, on the other hand, uses a single wire to transfer the data bits one at a time.

ERROR DETECTION

- Electrical noise can cause errors during data transmission
- Fluctuations in voltage or current present in all electronic systems
- Error detection and correction is important



52

PARITY CHECK

one error bit detection

- Parity check is a simple error detection method which requires one extra bit to a set of codes
- The extra bit is called the **parity bit**
- There are two parity options, either **even** or **odd**
- For even/odd parity, the **number of 1s** in a data group must be a even/odd number respectively
- If the receiver find that the number of 1s is not matched the pre-set even/odd parity protocol, an error is detected

53

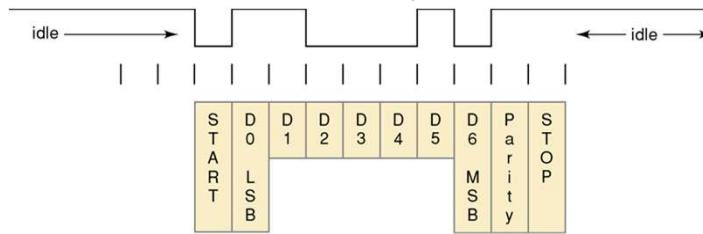
PARITY CHECK

- Assume we have a 8-bit original data 10111001
- For even parity, the transmitting data will become **1**10111001
- For odd parity, the transmitting data will become **0**10111001

54

USE OF PARITY IN ASCII

- An ASCII character must be framed, so that the receiver knows where the data begins and ends
- The first bit is a **start bit** which is logic **0**
- Followed by 7-bit **ASCII code D0 to D6**
- Followed by a **parity bit**
- Ended with **one/two stop bits** which is/are logic **1**



55

HAMMING CODE

- An encoding scheme that can **correct** any single bit error
- Contains many parity bits that are placed in between the data bits strategically
- When the position number of the encoded bit stream is a power of 2, that bit will be used as check bits
- Each check bit has a corresponding check equation that covers a portion of the original data

56

ENCODING USING HAMMING CODE

- 8-bit original data: 0100 1011 (D8~D1)
- 4 parity bits: P4, P3, P2, P1
- For even parity, we have the encoded data: 0100 1101 0110

12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D8	D7	D6	D5	P4	D4	D3	D2	P3	D1	P2	P1
0	1	0	0	?	1	0	1	?	1	?	?
0	1	0	0	?	1	0	1	?	1	?	0
0	1	0	0	?	1	0	1	?	1	1	
0	1	0	0	?	1	0	1	0	1		
0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1		1		
0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1		1		
0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0

57

ERROR DETECTION AND CORRECTION

- 8-bit original data: 0100 1011 (D8~D1)
- 8-bit original data with error: 0101 1011 (D8~D1)
- 4 parity bits: P4, P3, P2, P1 = 1, 0, 1, 0
- For even parity, we have the received data: 0101 1101 0110 D5 is 0, but face error->1 now

12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D8	D7	D6	D5	P4	D4	D3	D2	P3	D1	P2	P1
0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0X
0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1T	
0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0T	1		
0	1	0	1	1X	1	0	1		1		
0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0

green=parity bits
check parity of original code (w/o error) to output the correct one
check yellowed even parity:
4 '1' s-> parity bit(p1)=0
check yellowed again, parity=3, p2=1
check again, 2, p3=0
check again=1, p4=1

By checking the data(X/T) we can locate the wrong data and correct it

combine p4p3p2p1, if error then report 1
Error code= error(p4p3p2p1=1001(2)=9
So position 9 is error

ANY QUESTIONS ?

59