

Positional number systems

- Decimal: base 10
- Binary: base 2
- Hexadecimal: base 16

Decimal

- Ten symbols: 0, 1, 2, ..., 9
- Weights change by a factor of 10 from one position to the next.
- Shifting the decimal point changes the value by a factor of 10 for each position shifted.
- Each symbol is called a “digit”

25.4 decimal

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 2 & 5 & \cdot & 4 \\ \hline 10 & 1 & & \frac{1}{10} \end{array} \quad \text{weights}$$

$$2 \times 10 + 5 \times 1 + 4 \times \frac{1}{10}$$

Binary

- Two symbols: 0 and 1
- Weights change by a factor of 2 from one position to the next.
- Shifting the binary point changes the value by a factor of 2 for each position shifted.
- Each symbol is called a “bit”.

1011.1 binary

1	0	1	1	.	1
8	4	2	1		$\frac{1}{2}$

weights (in decimal)

and its value in decimal is

$$1 \times 8 + 0 \times 4 + 1 \times 2 + 1 \times 1 + 1 \times \frac{1}{2} = 11.5$$

Most and least significant bits

0111010110010111

↑
MSB

↑
LSB

Hexadecimal

- Sixteen symbols: 0, 1, 2, ..., 9, A, B, C, D, E, F
- Weights change by a factor of 16 from one position to the next.
- Shifting the hexadecimal point changes the value by a factor of 16 for each position shifted.
- Each symbol is called a “hex digit”
- A = 10 decimal B = 11 decimal
- C = 12 decimal D = 13 decimal
- E = 14 decimal F = 15 decimal

1CB.8 hex

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 1 & C & B & \cdot & 8 & & \\ \hline 256 & 16 & 1 & & \frac{1}{16} & & \end{array} \quad \text{weights (in decimal)}$$

and its value is

$$1 \times 256 + C \times 16 + B \times 1 + 8 \times \frac{1}{16}$$

Substituting the decimal equivalents for the symbols B (11 decimal) and C (12 decimal), we get an all-decimal expression from which we can compute its decimal value:

$$1 \times 256 + 12 \times 16 + 11 \times 1 + 8 \times \frac{1}{16} = 459.5$$

Memorize this table

FIGURE 1.1

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

Byte

- Sequence of 8 bits
- Each bit has two possibilities: 0 or 1
- Thus, there are $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 = 2^8$ distinct patterns

FIGURE 1.2**Distinct Binary Numbers**

Number of Bits	Decimal	Hex
4	$2^4 = 16$	10
7	$2^7 = 128$	80
8	$2^8 = 256$	100
10	$2^{10} = 1K = 1,024$	400
12	$2^{12} = 4K = 4,096$	1000
15	$2^{15} = 32K = 32,768$	8000
16	$2^{16} = 64K = 65,536$	10,000
20	$2^{20} = 1M = 1,048,576$	100,000
30	$2^{30} = 1G = 1,073,741,824$	40,000,000

Arithmetic in decimal

- In addition, whenever a column sum is greater than or equal to the number base, a carry is added to the next column. The column result is the rightmost symbol of the column sum; the carry is the left symbol(s) of the column sum. For example, in the decimal addition,

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1 \leftarrow \text{carry} \\
 28 \\
 + 39 \\
 \hline
 67
 \end{array}$$

the right column sum is 17. Thus, the result digit in the right column is 7 with a carry of 1 into the next column.

- In subtraction, a borrow into a column is equal to the number base. For example, in the decimal subtraction

$$\begin{array}{r}
 34 \\
 - 8 \\
 \hline
 26
 \end{array}$$

we borrow 1 from the 3 in the left column. This borrow is worth 10 in the right column. Thus, we subtract 8 from the sum of 10 (the borrow) and 4 to get 6. We borrow whenever the bottom symbol in a column is greater than the effective top symbol (the top symbol less any borrows from it).

- A borrow from 0 propagates to the left. For example, in the subtraction

$$\begin{array}{r}
 3000 \\
 - 2 \\
 \hline
 2998
 \end{array}$$

Adding in binary

$$\begin{array}{r} 111 \quad \leftarrow \text{carries} \\ 01100 \\ + 11110 \\ \hline 101010 \end{array}$$

Subtraction in binary

$$\begin{array}{r} 2 \text{ decimal} \leftarrow \text{borrow into second column} \\ 101 \\ - 011 \\ \hline 010 \end{array}$$

Addition in hex

$$\begin{array}{r} 1 \quad \leftarrow \text{carry} \\ A9 \\ + 19 \\ \hline C2 \end{array}$$

Subtraction in hex

$$\begin{array}{r} 16 \text{ decimal} \leftarrow \text{borrow into right column} \\ \boxed{-} A5 \\ \quad 2B \\ \hline 7A \end{array}$$

Converting to base n

- Integer part: Repeatedly divide by n. Remainders are the digits of the base n number.
- Fractional part: Repeatedly multiply by n. Whole parts are the digits of the base n number.

Each remainder is a digit

	remainders	
$\begin{array}{r} 0 \\ 10 \overline{) 9} \\ 10 \overline{) 90} \\ 10 \overline{) 905} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 9 \\ 0 \\ 5 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \uparrow \\ \leftarrow \text{start with this division and work up} \end{array}$

Convert 11 decimal to binary

	remainders	
0	1	
2) $\overline{1}$	0	
2) $\overline{2}$	1	
2) $\overline{5}$	1	
2) $\overline{11}$		← start with this division and work up

11 decimal = 1011 binary

Convert 30 decimal to hex

	remainders	
0	1	
16) $\overline{1}$	14 = E	
16) $\overline{30}$		← start with this division and work up

30 decimal = 1E hex

Each whole part is a digit (strip whole part of product after each multiplication by 10)

$$\begin{array}{r}
 .43 \\
 \times 10 \\
 \hline
 1^{\text{st}} \text{ digit} \longrightarrow 4.3 \\
 \\
 \times 10 \\
 \hline
 2^{\text{nd}} \text{ digit} \longrightarrow 3.0
 \end{array}$$

Convert .6875 decimal to binary

whole
parts

$$\begin{array}{r}
 .6875 \quad \longleftarrow \text{start with this multiplication and work down} \\
 \times 2 \\
 \hline
 1 \quad .3750 \\
 \times 2 \\
 \hline
 0 \quad .7500 \\
 \times 2 \\
 \hline
 1 \quad .5000 \\
 \times 2 \\
 \hline
 1 \quad .0000
 \end{array}$$

.6875 decimal = .1011 binary

Converting between binary and hex

- Very easy to do
- The ease of conversion is the reason why hex is often used as a shorthand representation of binary.
- To do conversion, you need to know the binary-hex equivalents for the numbers 0 to 15.

Binary to hex

0111 1010 1100 · 1110

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
7 A C · E

Hex to binary

2 A D · B E

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
0010 1010 1101 · 1011 1110

Two's complement

The two's complement of the number M is the number which yields 0 when added to M.

Note this behavior

Diagram illustrating the behavior of two's complement addition:

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{carry} \\ \text{discarded} \leftarrow \\ 1111111111111111 \\ + \quad \quad \quad 1 \\ \hline 0000000000000000 \end{array}$$

16 bit number containing all 1's
add 1
get all zeros

Simply flipping the bits does not yield the two's complement.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 0000000000000101 & = & +5 \\ + 111111111111010 & = & +5 \text{ flipped} \\ \hline 111111111111111 & & \text{should be zero} \end{array}$$

Getting the two's complement

- Simply flipping the bits does not yield the two's complement—it yields all 1's.
- But adding 1 to all 1's yields all 0's.
- So flipping the bits **and** adding 1 should yield the two's complement.

Flip bits and add 1

$$\begin{array}{r}
 111111111111010 = +5 \text{ flipped} \\
 + \quad \quad \quad 1 \\
 \hline
 111111111111011 = +5 \text{ flipped} + 1
 \end{array}$$

Now let's see if this new value, +5 flipped + 1, yields zero when added to +5:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \text{carry} \quad \leftarrow \\
 000000000000101 = +5 \\
 + 111111111111011 = +5 \text{ flipped} + 1 \\
 \hline
 000000000000000
 \end{array}$$

Two's complement of 1

We can find the two's complement of any number using the procedure that we used on +5: Flip all the bits and then add one. For example, the computation of the two's complement of

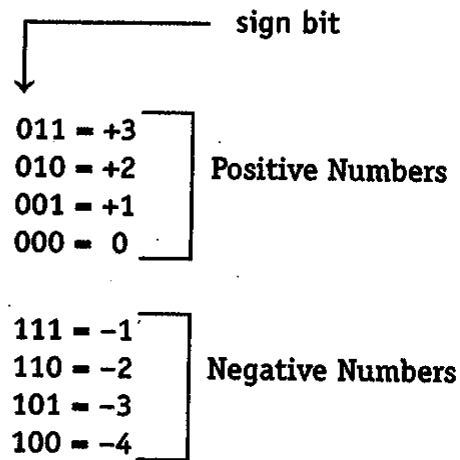
$$000000000000001 = +1$$

is:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 111111111111110 = +1 \text{ flipped} \\
 + \quad \quad \quad 1 \\
 \hline
 111111111111111 = -1
 \end{array}$$

3-bit two's complement numbers

FIGURE 1.3



Terminology

1. To *complement a bit* means to flip the bit.
2. To *complement a number* means to take its two's complement (i.e., flip its bits and add one).
3. To *bitwise complement a number* means to flip each of its bits but *not* add one. The bitwise complement of a number is sometimes called the *one's complement* of the number (see the next section).