

UM EECS 270 F22 Introduction to Logic Design

6. Binary Representation of Positive Numbers



- So far we've been looking at binary signals, yet most concepts in the real world are represented as base-10 (decimal) numbers. How can we represent these concepts on a computer? First let's fully understand our "normal" number system...
- We use a positional number system; one where a number is represented by a string of digits and each digit position has an associated weight

- Example:
$$836.24 = 8*100 + 3*10 + 6*1 + 2*.1 + 4*.01$$

= $8*10^2 + 3*10^1 + 6*10^0 + 2*10^{-1} + 4*10^{-2}$

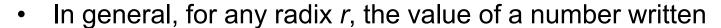
10 is called the radix or base

The "decimal point" is more generally referred to as the **radix point**

What is an example of a non-positional number system?

Example: In radix 3 with digits {0, 1, 2}:

$$1021_3 = 1*3^3 + 0*3^2 + 2*3^1 + 1*3^0 = 34_{10}$$



$$d_{p-1}d_{p-2}...d_0.d_{-1}d_{-2}...d_{-n}$$

can be expressed as the weighted sum:

$$\sum_{i=-n}^{p-1} d_i \cdot r^i$$

where d_i is a member of a set of digits

- In general, the lower the radix, the more digits are needed to represent a number
- Useful radices:
 - 10/decimal (10 fingers!)
 - 2/binary (0/1 high/low voltage)
 - 8/octal and 16/hexadecimal (compact representation of binary)

- **Binary** (base-2): digits {0, 1} $1011.101_2 = 1*2^3 + 0*2^2 + 1*2^1 + 1*2^0 + 1*2^{-1} + 0*2^{-2} * 1*2^{-3}$ $= 8 + 2 + 1 + .5 + .125 = 11.625_{10}$
- Large numbers require lots of digits!
 27825₁₀ = 110110010110001₂
- Often convenient to use octal or hexadecimal as a shorthand for binary
- Octal (base-8): digits {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7} 321₈ = 3*8² + 2*8¹ + 1*8⁰ = 209₁₀
- Because 8 is a power of 2 (2³), conversion from binary to octal and vice-versa is easy! Each octal digit represents exactly 3 binary digits.

Octal to binary:

110 010 001₂

Make sure to pad with 0s when necessary!

Binary to octal:

1 3 . 6 4₈

Hexadecimal (base-16):
 digits {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F}
 (can't borrow digits for 10-15 from base-10, so use A-F)

$$8B7_{16} = 8*16^2 + 11*16^1 + 7*16^0 = 2231_{10}$$

Because 16 is a power of 2 (2⁴), each hexadecimal digit represents
 4 binary digits

Hexadecimal to binary: A
$$8_{16}$$
 = $1010 \ 1000_2$

Binary to hexadecimal:
$$\mathbf{0}110 \ 1110_2 = 6 \ E_{16}$$

- Often hex numbers are denoted with the prefix "0x" instead of a subscript 16 (0x3B8 ≡ 3B8₁₆)
- How to convert from hex to octal and octal to hex??
 - Go through binary!
- Why hex? $27825_{10} = 110110010110001_2 = 6CB1_{16}$

- So far we know the following base conversions:
 - binary, octal, hex → decimal
 - binary ↔ octal ↔ hex
- What about decimal → binary, octal, or hex?



Use repeated division by radix:

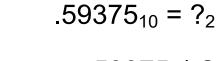
Why does repeated division work?

$$N_r = (d_3 r^3 + d_2 r^2 + d_1 r^1 + d_0 r^0)_{10}$$

(remember that $d_i < r$)

$$N_r$$
 $d_3^*r^3 + d_2^*r^2 + d_1^*r^1 + d_0^r0$
Divide by r : $d_3^*r^2 + d_2^*r^1 + d_1^r0$ remainder d_0
Divide again by r : $d_3^*r^1 + d_2^r0$ remainder d_1
Divide again by r : d_3^r0 remainder d_2
Divide again by r : 0 remainder d_3^r0

Fraction conversion: use repeated multiplication by radix



$$.59375_{10} = .10011_2$$
 $.7_{10} = .1\overline{0110}_2$

Watch for repeating digits...

 $.7_{10} = ?_{2}$

$$.7_{10} = .1\overline{0110}_{2}$$

Sometimes conversion won't be exact...

$$.73_{10} = ?_2$$

$$.73_{10} \approx .1011101_2$$

In Class Exercise



 $101.45_{10} = ?_2, ?_{16}$

In Class Exercise

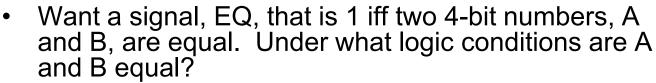


$$101.45_{10} = ?_2, ?_{16}$$

 $101.45_{10} = 1100101.01\overline{1100}_{2}$

$$0110\ 0101.0111\ \overline{0011}_{2}$$
= 6 5 . 7 3₁₆
= 65.7 $\overline{3}_{16}$

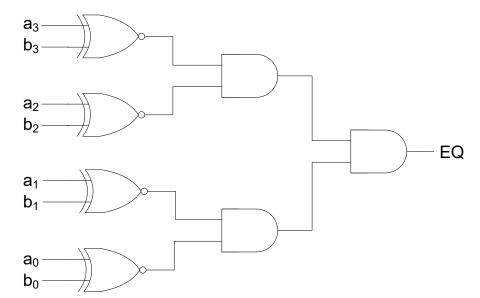




- Equal if
$$a_3 = b_3$$
 AND $a_2 = b_2$ AND $a_1 = b_1$ AND $a_0 = b_0$

- Which gate performs an equality comparison?
 - XNOR!

$$EQ = (a_3 \circ b_3) \cdot (a_2 \circ b_2) \cdot (a_1 \circ b_1) \cdot (a_0 \circ b_0)$$



How many gates are required to implement an *n*-bit "parallel" comparator?

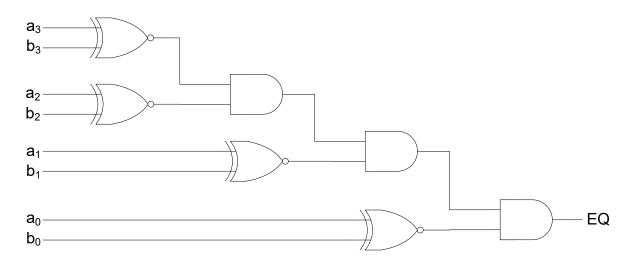
A B

A⊙B

Assume
$$n = 2^k$$

#gates = $2^k + 2^{k-1} + 2^{k-2} + \dots 2^0$
= $2^{k+1} - 1$
= $2n - 1$

A "Series" Comparator Implementation



How many gates are required to implement an *n*-bit "series" comparator?

- Comparing first two bits: 3 gates
- Comparing each additional bit: 2 gates
- After comparing the first 2 bits, there are n-2 bits left to compare for a total of 2*(n-2) gates
- -Total number of gates required: 2(n-2) + 3 = 2n 1
- "Series" and "parallel" implementations require the same number of gates! Is there a reason to prefer one implementation over the other?





- Want to design a signal, AgrB, that is 1 iff A > B (A and B are 4-bit numbers). Under what logic conditions is A > B?
 - $A > B \text{ if } a_3 = 1 \text{ and } b_3 = 0$
 - $A > B \text{ if } a_2 = 1 \text{ and } b_2 = 0 \text{ and } a_3 = b_3$
 - $A > B \text{ if } a_1 = 1 \text{ and } b_1 = 0 \text{ and } a_2 = b_2 \text{ and } a_3 = b_3$
 - $A > B \text{ if } a_0 = 1 \text{ and } b_0 = 0 \text{ and } a_1 = b_1 \text{ and } a_2 = b_2 \text{ and } a_3 = b_3$

$$AgrB = a_3 \cdot \overline{b_3} +$$

$$(a_3 \circ b_3) \cdot a_2 \cdot \overline{b_2} +$$

$$(a_3 \circ b_3) \cdot (a_2 \circ b_2) \cdot a_1 \cdot \overline{b_1} +$$

$$(a_3 \circ b_3) \cdot (a_2 \circ b_2) \cdot (a_1 \circ b_1) \cdot a_0 \cdot \overline{b_0}$$