

SCC131: Digital Systems

Topic 3: information coding 2

From decimal to binary...

- Decimal-oriented circuitry is too complex to implement in hardware
 - Can we find a better **radix** than 10?
- It's “easy” (according to Alan Turing!) to design circuitry with **two** states, **on** and **off**
 - Using a radix of 2 is called **binary** (or base 2)
 - Only two digits: 0 and 1

<i>Most Significant</i>					<i>Least Significant</i>				
<i>Bit</i>	n x 128	n x 64	n x 32	n x 16	n x 8	n x 4	n x 2	n x 1	<i>Bit</i>
	n x 2⁷	n x 2⁶	n x 2⁵	n x 2⁴	n x 2³	n x 2²	n x 2¹	n x 2⁰	

We call a binary digit a **bit**, and 8 bits a **byte**

What changes with binary?

- Everything works exactly as we saw earlier, except that we use multiples of 2 rather than multiples of 10
- Remember, each column can contain a number between 0 and *radix*−1 (inclusive)
 - So, in binary each column can only contain either a 0 or a 1 (for decimal: 0 or 1 or 2 or 3 or 4 or 5 or 6 or 7 or 8 or 9)

128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1

$$32 + 8 + 1 = 41_{\text{decimal}}$$

Worked example of decimal to binary number conversion

- Convert 35_{decimal} to binary
 - Write out the powers of 2:
... 64 32 16 8 4 2 1
 - Highlight the column with the largest number that is smaller than the number we are converting:
64 **32** 16 8 4 2 1
 - Subtract this number from the number we are converting:
 $35 - 32 = 3$
 - Iterate the above two steps until the subtraction results in 0:
64 **32** 16 8 4 **2** 1
64 **32** 16 8 4 **2** **1**
 - Map each highlighted column to a 1, the rest to a 0:
64 **32** 16 8 4 **2** **1** \rightarrow 100011 (6-bit binary)
 - So $35_{\text{decimal}} = 100011_{\text{binary}}$

Worked example of decimal to binary number conversion

- Convert 189_{decimal} to binary
 - Write out the powers of 2:
... 128 64 32 16 8 4 2 1
 - Highlight the column with the largest number that is smaller than the number we are converting:
128 64 32 16 8 4 2 1
 - Subtract this number from the number we are converting:
 $189 - 128 = 61$
 - Iterate the above two steps until the subtraction results in 0:
128 64 32 16 8 4 2 1
128 64 **32** 16 8 4 2 1 (32: $61 - 32 = 29$)
128 64 **32** **16** 8 4 2 1 (16: $29 - 16 = 13$)
128 64 **32** **16** **8** 4 2 1 (8: $13 - 8 = 5$)
128 64 **32** **16** **8** **4** 2 1 (4: $5 - 4 = 1$)
128 64 **32** **16** **8** **4** **2** **1** (1: $1 - 1 = 0$)
 - Map each highlighted column to a 1, the rest to a 0:
128 64 **32** **16** **8** **4** **2** **1** \rightarrow 10111101 (8-bit binary)
 - So $189_{\text{decimal}} = 10111101_{\text{binary}}$

Worked example of binary to decimal number conversion

- Convert 100011_{binary} to decimal
 - Write out the powers of two, as many as we have digits in our source number:
32 16 8 4 2 1
 - Highlight the columns where there is a 1 in our source number:
32 16 8 4 **2** **1**
 - Add up the highlighted numbers:
 $32+2+1 = 35$
 - So $100011_{\text{binary}} = 35_{\text{decimal}}$

Worked examples of binary to decimal number conversion

- Convert 10111101_{binary} to decimal
 - Write out the powers of two, as many as we have digits in our source number:
128 64 32 16 8 4 2 1
 - Highlight the columns where there is a 1 in our source number:
128 64 32 16 8 4 2 1
 - Add up the highlighted numbers:
 $128+32+16+8+4+1 = 189$
 - So $10111101_{\text{binary}} = 189_{\text{decimal}}$

Worked example of binary addition

- Add 100011_{binary} to 101011_{binary}

```
100011
101011 +
-----
??????
```

- Start at rightmost end: $1 + 1 = 2_{\text{decimal}} = 10_{\text{binary}}$
 - So, “carry the 1” and put a 0 in the rightmost result column
- Now do next-right column: $1 + 1 + 1_{\text{carry}} = 3_{\text{decimal}} = 11_{\text{binary}}$
 - So, “carry the 1” and put a 1 in the next-right result column
- Now the next column: $0 + 0 + 1_{\text{carry}} = 1_{\text{decimal}} = 1_{\text{binary}}$
 - So, no carry, and put a 1 in the result column
- And so on...

Worked example: fixed point decimal to fixed point binary

Lets convert 11.375_{10} to binary.

11 . 375

$2^3=8$ $2^2=4$ $2^1=2$ $2^0=1$

$11 = 8 + 0 + 2 + 1$

1 0 1 1

$\frac{1}{2} = 0.5$ $\frac{1}{4} = 0.25$ $\frac{1}{8} = 0.125$ $\frac{1}{16} = 0.0625$

- Can we remove 0.5 from 0.375? No $\Rightarrow 0$
- Can we remove 0.25 from 0.375? Yes we get 0.125 $\Rightarrow 1$
- Can we remove 0.125 from 0.125? Yes $\Rightarrow 1$

And we are left with $0.125 - 0.125 = 0$

0 1 1 0

Final answer : 1011.0110_2 .

Let's try some more radices...

Binary (base 2)

$n \times 128$	$n \times 64$	$n \times 32$	$n \times 16$	$n \times 8$	$n \times 4$	$n \times 2$	$n \times 1$
$n \times 2^7$	$n \times 2^6$	$n \times 2^5$	$n \times 2^4$	$n \times 2^3$	$n \times 2^2$	$n \times 2^1$	$n \times 2^0$

Octal (base 8)

$n \times 32768$	$n \times 4096$	$n \times 512$	$n \times 64$	$n \times 8$	$n \times 1$
$n \times 8^5$	$n \times 8^4$	$n \times 8^3$	$n \times 8^2$	$n \times 8^1$	$n \times 8^0$
$= n \times 2^{15}$	$= n \times 2^{12}$	$= n \times 2^9$	$= n \times 2^6$	$= n \times 2^3$	$= n \times 2^0$

Hexadecimal (base 16)

$n \times 65536$	$n \times 4096$	$n \times 256$	$n \times 16$	$n \times 1$
$n \times 16^4$	$n \times 16^3$	$n \times 16^2$	$n \times 16^1$	$n \times 16^0$
$= n \times 2^{16}$	$= n \times 2^{12}$	$= n \times 2^8$	$= n \times 2^4$	$= n \times 2^0$

Notice the nice, regular, binary (2^n) multipliers for octal and hex

Decimal to octal (via binary)

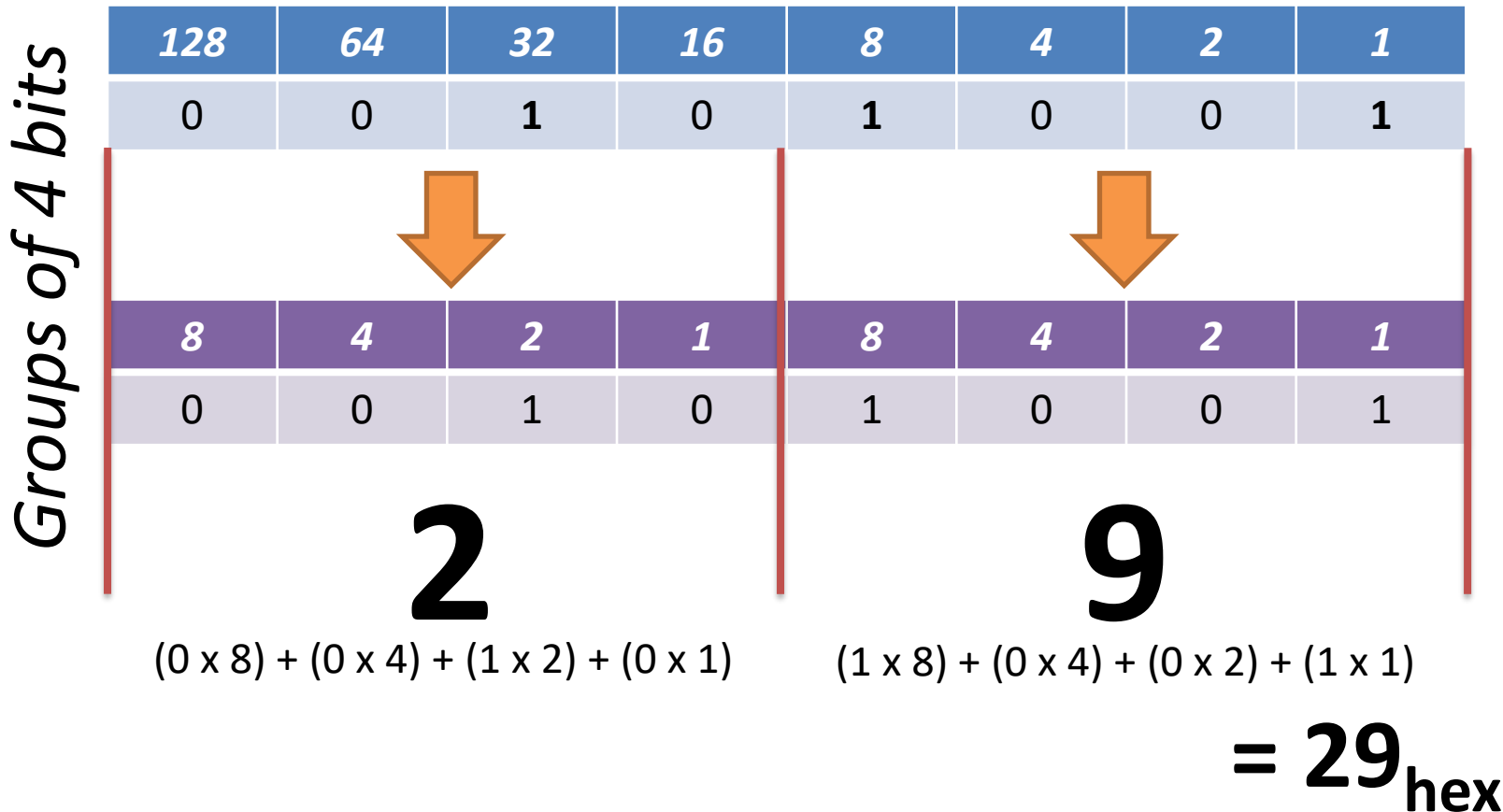
$$41_{\text{decimal}} = 32_{\text{decimal}} + 8_{\text{decimal}} + 1_{\text{decimal}}$$

Groups of 3 bits

256	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1
↓			↓			↓		
4	2	1	4	2	1	4	2	1
0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1
0			5			1		
$(0 \times 4) + (0 \times 2) + (0 \times 1)$			$(1 \times 4) + (0 \times 2) + (1 \times 1)$			$(0 \times 4) + (0 \times 2) + (1 \times 1)$		
= 051_{octal}								

Decimal to hexadecimal (via binary)

$$41_{\text{decimal}} = 32_{\text{decimal}} + 8_{\text{decimal}} + 1_{\text{decimal}}$$



Hexadecimal digits beyond 0..9

- We can hold numbers bigger than 9 in four binary digits (bits)
 - So we need more digit symbols for hex!

0 .. 9 as decimal, then...

$10_{\text{decimal}} \rightarrow A_{\text{hex}}$

$11_{\text{decimal}} \rightarrow B_{\text{hex}}$

$12_{\text{decimal}} \rightarrow C_{\text{hex}}$

$13_{\text{decimal}} \rightarrow D_{\text{hex}}$

$14_{\text{decimal}} \rightarrow E_{\text{hex}}$

$15_{\text{decimal}} \rightarrow F_{\text{hex}}$

Radix - 1

8's	4's	2's	1's
1	0	1	1

= B

$$(1 \times 8) + (0 \times 4) + (1 \times 2) + (1 \times 1) = 11_{\text{decimal}}$$


We could have chosen any symbols for the extra digits, but A to F are “convenient”

Why octal and hexadecimal?

- You may be wondering what is the *point* of octal and hex!
- Octal and hex, especially hex, are used very widely as a human-friendly way of dealing with binary bit patterns.
- You'll soon get to thinking of unwieldy things like: **1111111111111111(base 2)**,
as more straightforward things like: **FFFF(base 16)**
 - (This is a 16-bit pattern; recall that one hex digit corresponds to a group of 4 bits; so 4 hex digits)

Negative numbers in binary

- Approaches seen so far:

1. Sign and magnitude → 

2. Excess n

- Same approach as seen previously:
we code as number + excess

16	8	4	2	1
2^4	2^3	2^2	2^1	2^0

- E.g. excess 16 for 5 columns (base 2)

[for b columns, excess $2^b/2 = 2^{b-1}$ works well (as seen previously)
so for $b=5$ columns, use excess $2^4 =$ excess 16]


Arithmetic in binary

- Everything seems to work as expected...

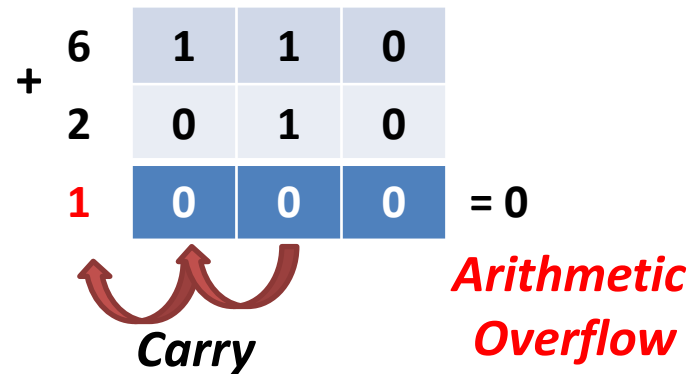
<i>Dec</i>	<i>Binary</i>
0	000
1	001
2	010
3	011
4	100
5	101
6	110
7	111

$$\begin{array}{r} + \begin{array}{l} 2_{\text{dec}} \\ 1_{\text{dec}} \end{array} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} = 3 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} + \begin{array}{l} 2_{\text{dec}} \\ 2_{\text{dec}} \end{array} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} = 4 \end{array}$$

 **Carry**

...But we have to be wary of our old friend *overflow*



... ***And*** here's a problem with excess n

- We already saw a couple of problems with sign and magnitude
 - We sacrifice a digit column for the sign indicator
 - We have two representations for zero
- Well, here's more bad news: there's a problem with excess n when it comes to arithmetic

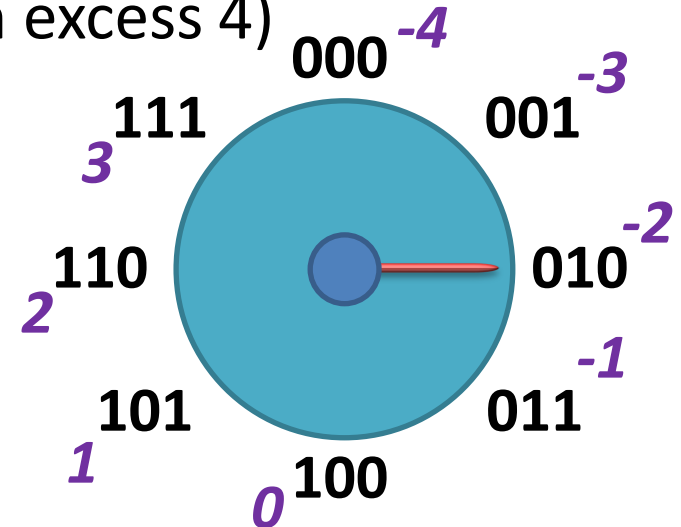
$$x - y \neq x + (-y) \quad !!??$$

The problem with excess n , *contd.*

- Let's see if $(0 + -1)$ is as expected (in excess 4)

$$\begin{aligned} &= 0_{\text{decimal}} + -1_{\text{decimal}} \\ &= 100_{\text{excess4}} + 011_{\text{excess4}} \\ &= 111_{\text{excess4}} \quad [\text{no overflow...}] \\ &= 3_{\text{decimal}} \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow 0 + -1 = 3$!? **X** *wrong!*



“to code m using excess 4
we store $m + 4$ ”

- This is very unfortunate: if we can't treat $x - y$ as $x + -y$ we will need extra hardware (i.e. hardware for subtraction as well as for addition)!

Introducing 2's complement

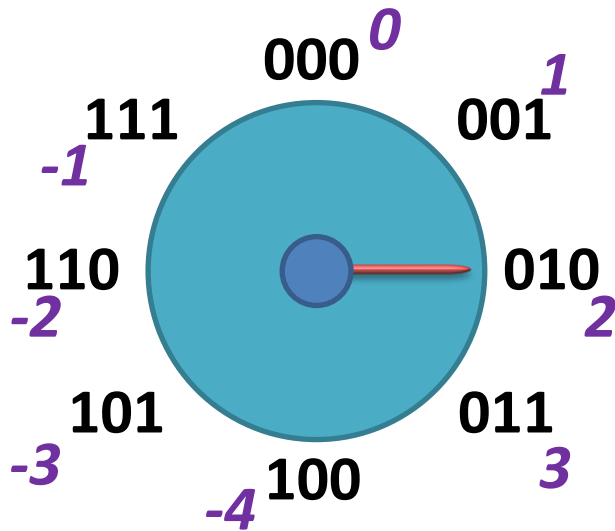
- Two's complement is achieved by (for negative number):

Step 1: starting with the equivalent positive number.

Step 2: inverting (or **flipping**) all bits – changing every 0 to 1, and every 1 to 0;

Step 3: **adding 1** to the entire inverted number, **ignoring any overflow**.

Calculate 2's complement



2's complement

Negative Number	Corresponding Positive binary	Invert bits	Add 1
-1	001	110	111
-2	010	101	110
-3	011	100	101
-4	100	011	100

A positive number's 2's complement is itself

2's complement *contd.*

- So, let's try...

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

= -1

+ 3	0	1	1
-4	1	0	0
	1	1	1

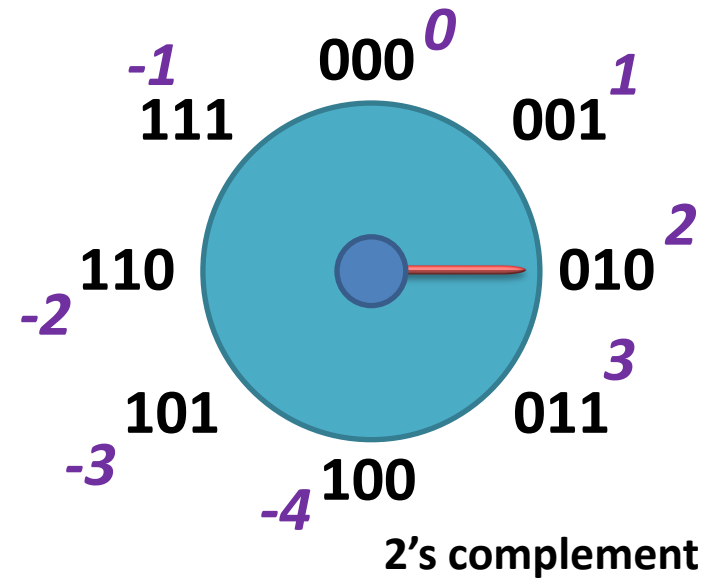
= -1

Ignoring the + carry here

2	0	1	0
-2	1	1	0
1	0	0	0


= 0

Carry

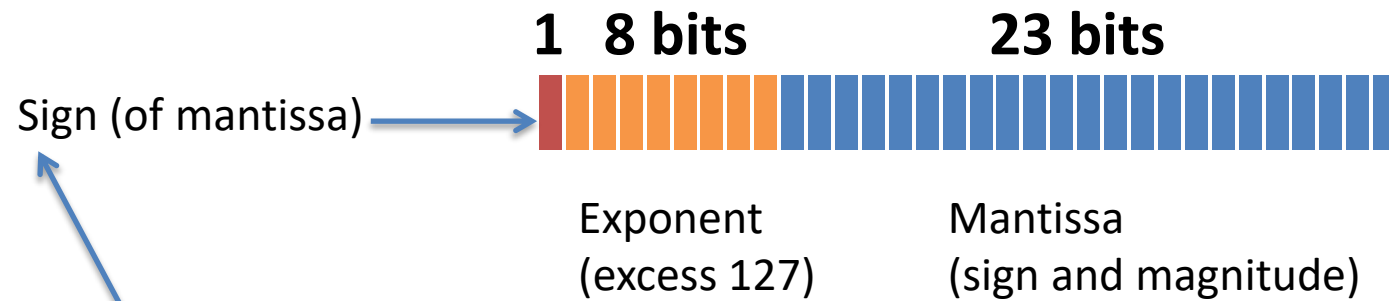


So, $x + -y$ seems to be same as $x - y$
 ...so, adder hardware can handle
 both addition and subtraction

IEEE 754 Floating Point

- This is the standard floating point representation that is used by almost all modern computers
- The mantissa is coded using **sign and magnitude**
 - Although we don't store the most significant bit (*see later*)
- The exponent is coded in **excess n**
 - For an exponent held in b bits, $n = (2^b - 1) - 1$  *Different from what we've used so far*
 - So, use excess 127 for an 8-bit exponent...
$$[(2^8 - 1) - 1 = 2^7 - 1 = 127]$$
- There are multiple formats available for different “precisions”: half, **single**, double, quadruple

The “single precision” format (32 bits)



$$= (-1)^{\text{sign}} \times 2^{(\text{exponent} - 127)} \times (1 + \text{mantissa})$$

$-1^1 = -1$, or
 $-1^0 = 1$

Because we use excess 127

Why 1+ ? See next slide

Normalising the mantissa: a space saving optimisation (saves 1 bit)

- IEEE 754 always *normalises* the mantissa to **1.xxx...** and just stores the fractional part
 - Leaves the “1.” part as implicit: there’s actually no need to store it explicitly!
- (It is *always possible* to normalise such that the most significant [first] bit is a 1)

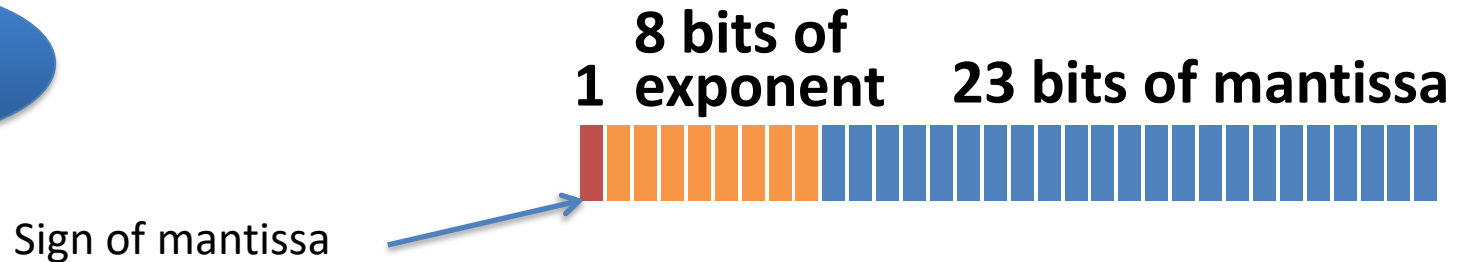


Assumed bit, not
explicitly
represented

$$= (-1)^{\text{sign}} \times 2^{(\text{exponent} - 127)} \times (1 + \text{mantissa})$$

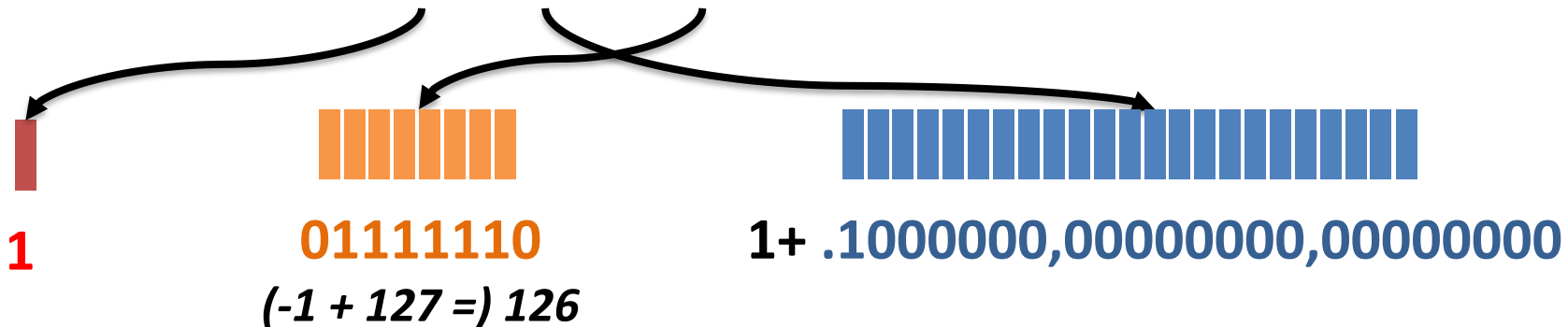
Convert decimal → IEEE 754

-0.75



decimal → binary (i.e. $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4}$) → normalised

-0.75 = -0.11 = -1.1 × 2⁻¹



10111111, 01000000, 00000000, 00000000

(Just for fun, let's look at that result from a different perspective...)

$$8 + 2 + 1 = 11 \rightarrow \underline{\text{B}}$$

$$8 + 4 + 2 + 1 = 15 \rightarrow \underline{\text{F}}$$

$$= \underline{4}$$

$$= \underline{0}$$

$$= \underline{0}$$

$$= \underline{0}$$

$$= \underline{0}$$

$$= \underline{0}$$

1011, 1111, 0100, 0000, 0000, 0000, 0000, 0000

10111111, 01000000, 00000000, 00000000

So, in hexadecimal...

Result is: **BF40 0000**₁₆

Convert IEEE 754 → decimal


01000010, 10101010, 00000000, 00000000

+ve **10000101** *Assume 1.xxx* 1 + .0101010, 00000000, 00000000

$128 + 4 + 1 = 133$
 $133 - 127 = 6$

$1 + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{64}$
 $= 1 + 0.25 + 0.0625 + 0.015625$
 $= 1.328125$

8 bits of
1 exponent 23 bits of mantissa



$$= (-1)^{\text{sign}} \times 2^{(\text{exponent} - 127)} \times (1 + \text{mantissa})$$

$$\begin{aligned} &+1.328125 \times 2^6 \\ &= +1.328125 \times 64 \\ &= 85_{\text{decimal}} \end{aligned}$$

“Special” values in IEEE 754

- In practice, some bit patterns never appear...
 - So we can use them to indicate *special cases*, such as:

Meaning	Exponent	Mantissa
Zero	0	0
Infinity (∞)	2^8-1 (all 8 bits set)	0
Not a Number (NaN)	2^8-1 (all 8 bits set)	Non zero

(“NaN” is used to indicate results for which there is no valid outcome, such as division by zero)

Equality testing with floating point numbers

- With numbers coded as floating point, we must never write code like this :

```
if (x == y) {...}
```

```
or, if (0.1 + 0.2 == 0.3) {...}
```

- *Why not?*
 - A possible **rounding error** resulting from lack of precision means that *we can never be confident that two numbers that “should be” equal are actually coded as equal...*
- Instead, we should take a cautious approach:

```
if (abs(x-y) < error_tolerance) {...}
```

Don't believe me?

- $0.1 + 0.2 = 0.3$??

```
$ more check.c

#include <stdio.h>

main ( ) {
    if ( ( 0.1 + 0.2 ) == 0.3)
        printf ("ok");
    else   printf ("oops!");
}

$ cc check.c -o check
$
$ ./check
oops!
```

Maybe Java is cleverer?

- $0.1 + 0.2 = 0.3$??

```
C:\> more check.java
class check {
    public static void main ( String[ ] args ) {
        if ( ( 0.1 + 0.2 ) == 0.3)
            System.out.println ("ok");
        else  System.out.println ("oops");
    }
}
C:\> javac check.java

C:\> java check
oops
```


Summary

- When switching consideration from decimal to non-decimal number systems, it's “just” a matter of working with a different radix
- Octal and hex are useful mental tools for people
- We have discovered a problem with addition/subtraction in excess n : can't treat subtraction as addition of a negative
 - Two's complement is the fix for this
- We understand the IEEE 754 standard for representing floating point numbers
 - and, incidentally, we have seen in this a direct application of the excess n and sign-and-magnitude coding techniques
- Care is needed in using floating point numbers