

# Fundamentals of digital systems

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# Chapter 1

## Number Systems

### 1.1 Digital Representations

In a digital representation, a number is represented by an ordered n-tuple:

The n-tuple is called a **digit vector**, each element is a **digit**

The number of digits  $n$  is called the precision of the representation. (careful! leftward indexing)

$$X = (X_{n-1}, X_{n-1}, \dots, X_0)$$

Each digit is given a **set of values**  $D_i$  (eg. For base 10 representation of numbers,  $D_i = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 9\}$ )

The **set size**, the maximum number of representable digit vectors is:  $K = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} |D_i|$

#### 1.1.1 (Non)Redundant Number Systems

A number system is nonredundant if each digit-vector represents a different integer

#### 1.1.2 Weighted Number Systems

The rule of representation if a Weighted (Positional) Number Systems is as follows :

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i W_i$$

where

$$W = (W_{n-1}, W_{n-2}, \dots, W_0)$$

#### 1.1.3 Radix Systems

When weights are in this format :

$$\begin{cases} W_0 = 1 \\ W_{i+1} = W_i R_i \text{ with } 1 \leq i \leq n-1 \end{cases}$$

Also written :  $W_0 = 1, \prod_{j=0}^{i-1} R_j$

### 1.1.4 Fixed and Mixed-Radix Number Systems

In a **fixed-radix system**, all elements of the radix-vector have the same value  $r$  (*the radix*)

The weight vector in a fixed-radix system is given by:

$$W = (r^{n-1}, r^{n-2}, \dots, r^2, r, 1)$$

and the integer  $x$  becomes:

$$x = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i \times r^i$$

In a **mixed-radix system**, the elements of the radix-vector differ

#### Example: Decimal Number System

The decimal number system has the following characteristics:

- Radix  $r = 10$ , it's a fixed-radix system.

The weight vector  $W$  is defined as:

$$W = (10^{n-1}, 10^{n-2}, \dots, 10^2, 10, 1)$$

An integer  $x$  in this system is represented by:

$$x = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i \times 10^i$$

For example:

$$854703 = 8 \times 10^5 + 5 \times 10^4 + 4 \times 10^3 + 7 \times 10^2 + 0 \times 10^1 + 3 \times 10^0$$

#### Examples of Fixed and Mixed radix systems

**Fixed:** The base of number systems.

- Decimal – radix 10
- Binary – radix 2
- Octal – radix 8
- Hexadecimal – radix 16

**Mixed:** An example of a mixed radix representation, such as time:

- Radix-vector  $R = (24, 60, 60)$
- Weight-vector  $W = (3600, 60, 1)$

### 1.1.5 Canonical Number Systems

In a **canonical number system**, the set of values for a digit  $D_i$  is with  $|D_i| = R_i$ , the corresponding element of the radix vector

$$D_i = \{0, 1, \dots, R_i - 1\}$$

Canonical digit sets with fixed radix:

- Decimal:  $\{0, 1, \dots, 9\}$
- Binary:  $\{0, 1\}$
- Hexadecimal:  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, 15\}$

Range of values of  $x$  represented with  $n$  fixed-radix- $r$  digits:

$$0 \leq x \leq r^n - 1$$

A system with fixed positive radix  $r$  and a canonical set of digit values is called a radix- $r$  conventional number system.

## 1.2 Binary/Octal/Hexadecimal to/from Decimal

### Conversion Table

The hexadecimal system supplements 0-9 digits with the letters A-F.

*Remark.* Programming languages often use the prefix 0x to denote a hexadecimal number.

Table 1.1: Conversion table up to 15.

| Decimal | Binary | Octal | Hexadecimal |
|---------|--------|-------|-------------|
| 0       | 0000   | 00    | 0           |
| 1       | 0001   | 01    | 1           |
| 2       | 0010   | 02    | 2           |
| 3       | 0011   | 03    | 3           |
| 4       | 0100   | 04    | 4           |
| 5       | 0101   | 05    | 5           |
| 6       | 0110   | 06    | 6           |
| 7       | 0111   | 07    | 7           |
| 8       | 1000   | 10    | 8           |
| 9       | 1001   | 11    | 9           |
| 10      | 1010   | 12    | A           |
| 11      | 1011   | 13    | B           |
| 12      | 1100   | 14    | C           |
| 13      | 1101   | 15    | D           |
| 14      | 1110   | 16    | E           |
| 15      | 1111   | 17    | F           |

### 1.2.1 Conversion examples

#### Binary to Decimal:

To convert a binary number to decimal, multiply each bit by two raised to the power of its position number, starting from zero on the right.

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{Binary:} & & \underline{1011} \\ \text{Decimal:} & 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 = 8 + 0 + 2 + 1 = & 11 \end{array}$$



### Decimal to Binary:

Let's convert the decimal number  $25_{10}$  to binary.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 25 \div 2 & = & 12 \quad \text{remainder } 1 \text{ (LSB)} \\ 12 \div 2 & = & 6 \quad \text{remainder } 0 \\ 6 \div 2 & = & 3 \quad \text{remainder } 0 \\ 3 \div 2 & = & 1 \quad \text{remainder } 1 \\ 1 \div 2 & = & 0 \quad \text{remainder } 1 \text{ (MSB)} \end{array}$$

Thus, the binary representation of  $25_{10}$  is  $11001_2$  (reading the remainders in reverse).

*Personal Remark* The trick is always to try to answer the question, what's the biggest power of 2 I need to form the number?. For 157, the biggest power would be  $2^7 = 128$ , then  $128+64$  is greater than 157,  $128+32$  is still greater than 157,  $128+16 = 144$ , and so on to obtain :  $128+16+8+4+1 = 157$  which can be written as  $2^7+2^4+2^3+2^2+2^0 = 157$ . Written in binary as  $10011101_2$

### Octal to Decimal:

Each octal digit is converted to decimal by multiplying it by eight raised to the power of its position number, starting from zero on the right.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Octal:} & \underline{257} \\ \text{Decimal:} & 2 \times 8^2 + 5 \times 8^1 + 7 \times 8^0 = 128 + 40 + 7 = 175 \end{array}$$

### Decimal to Octal:

To convert the decimal number  $93_{10}$  to octal.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 93 \div 8 & = & 11 \quad \text{remainder } 5 \\ 11 \div 8 & = & 1 \quad \text{remainder } 3 \\ 1 \div 8 & = & 0 \quad \text{remainder } 1 \end{array}$$

Thus, the octal representation of  $93_{10}$  is  $135_8$  (reading the remainders in reverse).

### Hexadecimal to Decimal:

To convert the hexadecimal number  $1A3_{16}$  to decimal.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Hexadecimal:} & \underline{1A3} \\ \text{Decimal:} & 1 \times 16^2 + A \times 16^1 + 3 \times 16^0 \\ & 1 \times 256 + 10 \times 16 + 3 \times 1 \\ & 256 + 160 + 3 \\ & 419 \end{array}$$

Here, A in hexadecimal corresponds to 10 in decimal.

### Decimal to Hexadecimal:

To convert the decimal number  $291_{10}$  to hexadecimal.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 291 \div 16 & = & 18 \text{ remainder } 3 \\ 18 \div 16 & = & 1 \text{ remainder } 2 \\ 1 \div 16 & = & 0 \text{ remainder } 1 \end{array}$$

Thus, the hexadecimal representation of  $291_{10}$  is  $123_{16}$  (reading the remainders in reverse).

## 1.3 Octal/Hexadecimal to/from Binary

### Bit-Vector Representation Summary

- Digit-vectors for binary, octal, and hexadecimal systems are represented using bit-vectors. In binary, 0 and 1 are directly represented as 0 and 1.
- In systems like octal or hexadecimal, a digit is a bit-vector of length  $k$ , where  $k$  is the number of bits needed to represent the base.

$$k = \log_2(r)$$

with  $r$  the radix of the system (eg. 8 for octal conversion).

- For example, the hexadecimal digit  $B$  is represented as the bit-vector 1101 in binary. *We obtain a length 4 bit-vector because the base is 16 and  $\log_2(16) = 4$*

### Binary to Octal:

To convert a binary number to octal, group every three binary digits into a single octal digit, because  $k = \log_2 8 = 3$ .

|         |   |
|---------|---|
| Binary: | <u>010</u> <u>000</u> <u>100</u> <u>110</u>                 |
| Octal:  | 2 <sub>8</sub> 0 <sub>8</sub> 4 <sub>8</sub> 6 <sub>8</sub> |

### Binary to Hexadecimal:

To convert a binary number to hexadecimal, group every four binary digits into a single hexadecimal digit, because  $k = \log_2 16 = 4$ .

|              |   |
|--------------|---|
| Binary:      | <u>1011</u> <u>1110</u> <u>1010</u> <u>1101</u>                 |
| Hexadecimal: | B <sub>16</sub> E <sub>16</sub> A <sub>16</sub> D <sub>16</sub> |

### Octal to Hexadecimal:

Convert the octal number to binary, then group the binary digits in sets of four and convert each group to its hexadecimal equivalent.

|                 |                               |
|-----------------|-------------------------------|
| Octal:          | <u>257</u>                    |
| Binary:         | 010 101 111 (Octal to binary) |
| Binary grouped: | <u>0101</u> <u>0111</u>       |
| Hexadecimal:    | 5 7 (Binary to hexadecimal)   |

## 1.4 Representation of Signed Integers

### 1.4.1 Sign-Magnitude Representation (SM)

A signed integer  $x$  is represented by a pair  $(x_s, x_m)$ , where  $x_s$  is the *sign* and  $x_m$  is the *magnitude* (positive integer).

The sign (positive, negative) is represented by the most significant bit (MSB) of the digit vector:

0  $\rightarrow$  positive

1  $\rightarrow$  negative

The magnitude can be represented as any positive integer. In a conventional radix- $r$  system, the range of  $n$ -digit magnitude is:

$$0 \leq x_m \leq r^n - 1$$

- Examples:

$$01010101_2 = +85_{10}$$

$$01111111_2 = +127_{10}$$

$$00000000_2 = +0_{10}$$

$$11010101_2 = -85_{10}$$

$$11111111_2 = -127_{10}$$

$$10000000_2 = -0_{10}$$

Note: The Sign-and-Magnitude representation is considered a redundant system because both  $00000000_2$  and  $10000000_2$  represent zero.

$SM$  consists of an equal number of positive and negative integers.

An  $n$ -bit integer in sign-and-magnitude lies within the range (*because of 0's double representation and that MSB is used for the sign*):

$$[-(2^{n-1} - 1), +(2^{n-1} - 1)]$$

Main disadvantage of SM: complex digital circuits for arithmetic operations (addition, subtraction, etc.).

## 1.5 True-and-Complement (TC)

### 1.5.1 Mapping

A signed integer  $x$  is represented by a positive integer  $x_R$ ,  $C$  is a positive integer called the *complementation constant*.

$$x_R \equiv x \pmod{C}$$

For  $|x| < C$ , by the definition of the modulo function, we have:

$$x_R = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \quad (\text{True form}) \\ C - |x| = C + x & \text{if } x < 0 \quad (\text{Complement form}) \end{cases}$$

### 1.5.2 Unambiguous Representation

To have an unambiguous representation, the two regions should not overlap, translating to the condition:

$$\max |x| < \frac{C}{2}$$

### 1.5.3 Converse Mapping

Converse mapping:

$$x = \begin{cases} x_R & \text{if } x_R < \frac{C}{2} \quad (\text{Positive values}) \\ x_R - C & \text{if } x_R > \frac{C}{2} \quad (\text{Negative values}) \end{cases}$$

When  $x_R = \frac{C}{2}$ , it is usually assigned to  $x = -\frac{C}{2}$ .

Asymmetrical representation simplifies sign detection.

## 1.6 Two's Complement System

This is the True-and-Complement system with  $C = 2^n$ , where  $n$  is the number of bits used to represent the integer.

Range is asymmetrical:

$$-2^{n-1} \leq x \leq 2^{n-1} - 1$$

The representation of zero is unique.

### 1.6.1 Sign Detection in Two's Complement System

Since  $|x| < C/2$  and assuming the sign is 0 for positive and 1 for negative numbers:

$$\text{sign}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x_R < C/2 \\ 1 & \text{if } x_R \geq C/2 \end{cases}$$

Therefore, the sign is determined from the most-significant bit:

$$\text{sign}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x_{n-1} = 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x_{n-1} = 1 \end{cases} \quad \text{equivalent to} \quad \text{sign}(x) = x_{n-1}$$

### 1.6.2 Mapping from Bit-Vectors to Values

The value of an integer represented by a bit-vector  $b_{n-1}b_{n-2} \dots b_1b_0$  can be universally expressed as:

$$\text{Value} = (-2^{n-1} \cdot b_{n-1}) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} b_i \cdot 2^i$$

where  $b_{n-1}$  is the MSB (sign bit) and is 0 for non-negative numbers and 1 for negative numbers.