

Digital Systems

Section 2

Chapter (1)

Analog vs. Digital

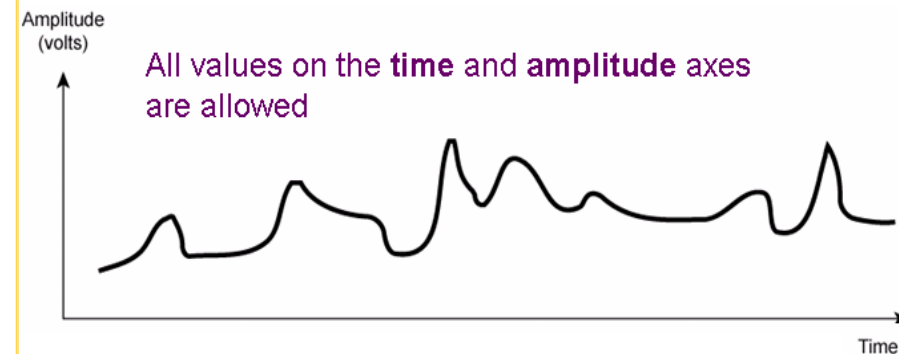
- World around us is predominantly **Analog**

Analog = Continuous

Change smoothly and gradually over **time**.

Assume a continuous (infinite) range of **amplitudes**.

- *Earth's movement*
- *Speech signal*
- *Body temperature*



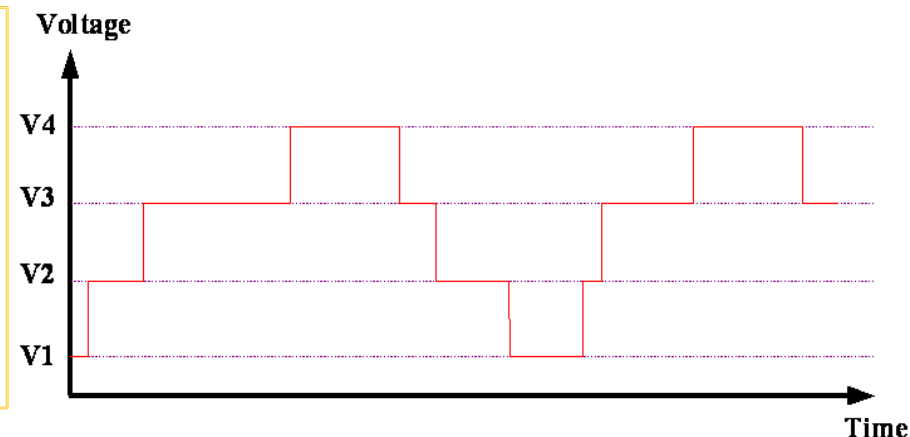
- Binary is a special case of **Digital**

Digital = Discrete

Takes only a limited (finite) set of "**Discrete**" values.

Changes abruptly in **time** by "Jumping" between levels.

- *Position of a switch*
- *The Alphabet*
- *DNA sequence*





Digital over Analog

- ✓ **Easier to Design:** Digital circuits are simpler because they handle a **limited set** of values (e.g. binary), making design more straightforward compared to analog systems.
- ✓ **Error Tolerance:** Digital circuits are more resilient to noise and drift, leading to **lower** error rates and higher reliability.
- ✓ **Commercial Advantage:** In VLSI (Very Large Scale Integration), digital circuits are more **cost-effective** and widely available.
- ✓ **Digital Superiority:** Storing, encrypting, compressing, and communicating data is far **more efficient** with digital systems.

“But the natural world is analog... So, we need to convert!”

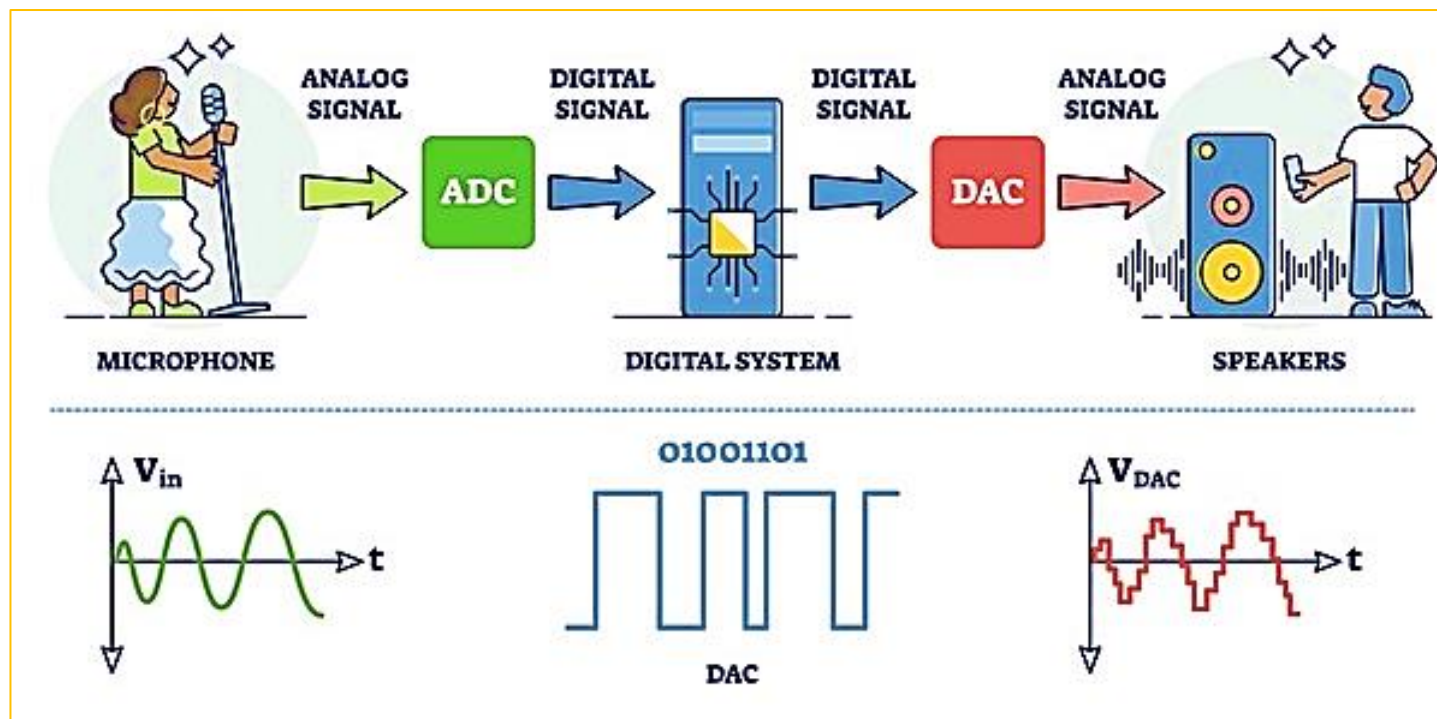
"ADC and DAC: Bridging the gap between continuous analog signals and discrete digital data."

❑ Analog-to-Digital Converters (ADC):

Used to transform raw analog signals into digital form for processing.

❑ Digital-to-Analog Converters (DAC):

Used to regenerate analog signals from digital data.



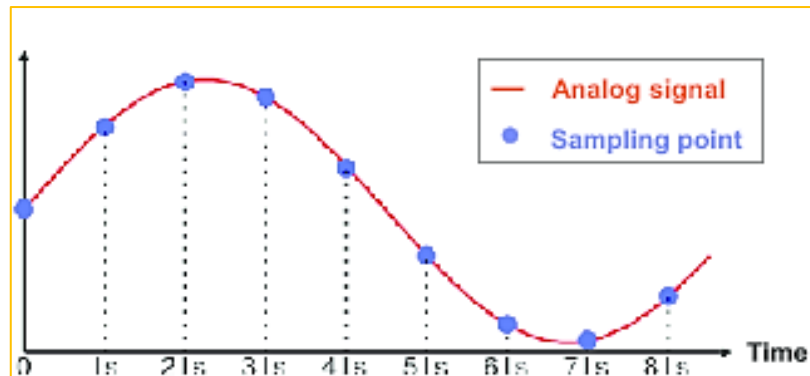
Convert Analog Signals to Digital Samples

1. Sampling in Time:

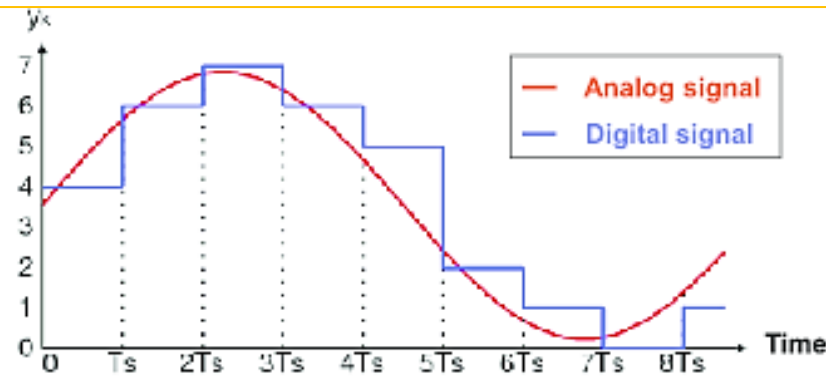
Impossible to manage infinite signal values on the **time** axis, so we ignore the signal between samples.

2. Quantization in Amplitude:

Impossible to handle infinite **amplitude** values, so we approximate the sample to the nearest value from a finite set of levels.



(a)



(b)



Abstract Representations

- Arithmetic Values: **0, 1**
- Logic Levels: **True, False**
- States: **ON, OFF**

Physical Representations

- In an IC (e.g. in a microprocessor): **Voltage**
- In a Dynamic memory (DRAM): **Electric Charge**
- On a Hard Disk: **Magnetization Direction**
- On a CD: **Surface pits for laser interference**



Number Systems



4692



4692.89

$$\begin{aligned}
4692.89 &= 4000 + 600 + 90 + 2 + 0.8 + 0.09 \\
&= 4 \times 1000 + 6 \times 100 + 9 \times 10 + 2 \times 1 + 8 \times 0.1 + 9 \times 0.01 \\
&= \underbrace{4}_{a_3} \times 10^3 + \underbrace{6}_{a_2} \times 10^2 + \underbrace{9}_{a_1} \times 10^1 + \underbrace{2}_{a_0} \times 10^0 + \underbrace{8}_{a_{-1}} \times 10^{-1} + \underbrace{9}_{a_{-2}} \times 10^{-2} \\
&= a_3 \times r^3 + a_2 \times r^2 + a_1 \times r^1 + a_0 \times r^0 + a_{-1} \times r^{-1} + a_{-2} \times r^{-2}
\end{aligned}$$

where a_n 's are the coefficients of units, tens, hundreds, thousands, etc.

$$\begin{aligned}
a_3 &= 4, a_2 = 6, a_1 = 9, a_0 = 2, a_{-1} = 8, a_{-2} = 9, \text{ and} \\
r &= 10
\end{aligned}$$

In general, a number can be written as:

$$\dots + a_3 \times r^3 + a_2 \times r^2 + a_1 \times r^1 + a_0 \times r^0 + a_{-1} \times r^{-1} + a_{-2} \times r^{-2} + \dots$$

- r is called the *radix* or *base*
- a_n 's are called the coefficients
- a_n 's range from 0 to $r - 1$
- In decimal number system, $r = 10$ and a_n 's range from 0 to 9



- ⊖ How do we count in a decimal number system?
0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9

- ⊖ What comes after 9?
We have run out of numbers...

- ⊖ Remember units, tens, hundreds, thousands, etc.?
 - i. We write **1** at the position of **tens** and a **0** at the position of **units** i.e., **10** and then we continue by increasing the **units** position one-by-one until we reach **19**

 - ii. Once at **19** we change the number at **tens** position and then start changing the number at **units** position

 - iii. When we reach at **99**, we have to put a **1** at **hundreds** position and then continue in the manner described above and **the counting goes on...**



- ⊖ If the radix ($r = 8$) \rightarrow we get the **Octal number system**
- ⊖ Since $r = 8$, the coefficients a_n 's will range from 0 to $(8-1) \rightarrow$ **0 to 7**
 - ★ 470, 7501, 2636, 777 (**Valid**)
 - ★ 870, 7901, 2838, 779 (**Invalid**)
- ⊖ We can count in Octal number system just like we do in decimal number system:
0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 20, 21, 22, 23, \dots , 65, 66, 67, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, \dots , 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 110, \dots



⊖ If we have an octal number, is it possible to find its equivalent decimal number?

★ **Example:** Let's say we have an octal number **107**, we may represent it as:

$$a_2 \times r^2 + a_1 \times r^1 + a_0 \times r^0$$
$$1 \times 8^2 + 0 \times 8^1 + 7 \times 8^0 = 71$$

★ 107 (octal) = 71 (decimal)

⊖ To avoid confusion, we use the radix/base along with the numbers → **(107)₈ = (71)₁₀**

⊖ What about **(1000)₈** and **(999)₈** ? **(1000)₈ = (512)₈**, **(999)** is an **Invalid** Octal Number.

⊖ Decimal equivalent of Octal numbers with radix points will have a general form:

$$\longrightarrow \dots + a_3 \times r^3 + a_2 \times r^2 + a_1 \times r^1 + a_0 \times r^0 + a_{-1} \times r^{-1} + a_{-2} \times r^{-2} + \dots$$

$$\longrightarrow \dots + a_3 \times 8^3 + a_2 \times 8^2 + a_1 \times 8^1 + a_0 \times 8^0 + a_{-1} \times 8^{-1} + a_{-2} \times 8^{-2} + \dots$$

$$\longrightarrow \dots + a_2 \times 512 + a_2 \times 64 + a_1 \times 8 + a_0 \times 1 + a_{-1} \times 0.125 + a_{-2} \times 0.015625 + \dots$$

$$(107.73)_8 = (????)_{10}$$



$$(107.73)_8 = (????)_{10}$$

$$\longrightarrow 1 \times 8^2 + 0 \times 8^1 + 7 \times 8^0 + 7 \times 8^{-1} + 3 \times 8^{-2}$$

$$\longrightarrow 1 \times 64 + 0 \times 8 + 7 \times 1 + 7 \times 0.125 + 3 \times 0.015625$$

$$\longrightarrow 64 + 0 + 7 + 0.875 + 0.046875$$

$$= (71.921875)_{10}$$

- ⊖ If the radix ($r = 2$) \rightarrow we have the **binary number system**
- ⊖ Since $r = 2$, the coefficients a_n 's will be either 0 or (2-1) \rightarrow **0 or 1**.
 - ★ **0, 1** : called **binary digits** or **bits**
 - ★ 101, 1111, 1010, 110 (**Valid**)
 - ★ 201, 1311, 1212, 115 (**Invalid**)

$$\dots + a_3 \times r^3 + a_2 \times r^2 + a_1 \times r^1 + a_0 \times r^0$$

$$\dots + a_3 \times 2^3 + a_2 \times 2^2 + a_1 \times 2^1 + a_0 \times 2^0$$

$$\dots + a_3 \times 8 + a_2 \times 4 + a_1 \times 2 + a_0 \times 1$$

- ⊖ Decimal equivalent of a binary number will have a general form \rightarrow

- ⊖ Since a_n 's could be either 0 or 1, the decimal equivalent of a binary number is simply a **sum of powers of 2**.

Powers of Two

n	2^n	n	2^n	n	2^n
0	1	8	256	16	65,536
1	2	9	512	17	131,072
2	4	10	1,024 (1K)	18	262,144
3	8	11	2,048	19	524,288
4	16	12	4,096 (4K)	20	1,048,576 (1M)
5	32	13	8,192	21	2,097,152
6	64	14	16,384	22	4,194,304
7	128	15	32,768	23	8,388,608

⊖ Let's see some **Examples:**

➔ What is the decimal equivalent of binary number 11?

$$\begin{aligned}(11)_2 &= 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 \\ &= 1 \times 2 + 1 \times 1 \\ &= 2 + 1\end{aligned}$$

$$(11)_2 = (3)_{10}$$

➔ What is the decimal equivalent of $(101)_2$?

$$\begin{aligned}(101)_2 &= 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 \\ &= 1 \times 4 + 0 \times 1 + 1 \times 1 \\ &= 4 + 1\end{aligned}$$

$$(101)_2 = (5)_{10}$$

- ⊖ What if we have a binary number with radix point such as: **(1011.11)₂**
- ⊖ Remember, the general form of decimal equivalent of a binary number can be written as:

$$\longrightarrow \dots + a_3 \times r^3 + a_2 \times r^2 + a_1 \times r^1 + a_0 \times r^0 + a_{-1} \times r^{-1} + a_{-2} \times r^{-2} + \dots$$

$$\longrightarrow \dots + a_3 \times 2^3 + a_2 \times 2^2 + a_1 \times 2^1 + a_0 \times 2^0 + a_{-1} \times 2^{-1} + a_{-2} \times 2^{-2} + \dots$$

- ⊖ Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}(1011.11)_2 &= 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 + 1 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2} \\ &= 1 \times 8 + 0 \times 4 + 1 \times 2 + 1 \times 1 + 1 \times 0.5 + 1 \times 0.25 \\ &= 8 + 2 + 1 + 0.5 + 0.25 \\ &= (11.75)_{10}\end{aligned}$$



- ⊖ So far, we have seen three different number systems:
 - ★ Binary: $r = 2$ with binary digits (bits) 0, 1
 - ★ Octal: $r = 8$ with octal digits 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7
 - ★ Decimal: $r = 10$ with digits 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9

- ⊖ We can have more number systems. In fact, we can have **infinite** number of number systems as there are infinite possibilities for **r**.

- ⊖ There is another system that is commonly used: **r = 16**



- ⊖ If the radix ($r = \mathbf{16}$) \rightarrow we have the **Hexadecimal number system**

- ⊖ Since $r = 16$, it requires **16** coefficients (digits):
 - ★ 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9... now what?
 - ★ It seems we are short of numbers!!! what should we do now?
 - ★ We will use **A, B, C, D, E, F** as the remaining **6** digits

- ⊖ Counting in hexadecimal number system:
0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F

- ⊖ Some Examples:
1E43, 1018, 2AB5D, FCF, 0044, 5A4B3CDEF

What is the decimal equivalent of $(A30C)_{16}$?



$$(A30C)_{16} = (????)_{10}$$

$$\begin{aligned}(A30C)_{16} &= A \times 16^3 + 3 \times 16^2 + 0 \times 16^1 + C \times 16^0 \\ &= A \times 4096 + 3 \times 256 + 0 \times 16 + C \times 1 \\ &= 10 \times 4096 + 3 \times 256 + 0 \times 16 + 12 \times 1 \\ &= 41740\end{aligned}$$

$$(A30C)_{16} = (41740)_{10}$$



Decimal (base 10)	Binary (base 2)	Octal (base 8)	Hexadecimal (base 16)
00	0000	00	0
01	0001	01	1
02	0010	02	2
03	0011	03	3
04	0100	04	4
05	0101	05	5
06	0110	06	6
07	0111	07	7
08	1000	10	8
09	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

System	General	Decimal	Binary	Octal	Hexadecimal
Radix (Base)	r	10	2	8	16
Digit Values	0, 1, ..., (r - 1)	0, 1, ..., 9	0, 1	0, ..., 7	0, ..., 15
5	r^5	100,000	32	32,768	1,048,576
4	r^4	10,000	16	4,096	65,536
3	r^3	1,000	8	512	4,096
2	r^2	100	4	64	256
1	r^1	10	2	8	16
0	r^0	1	1	1	1
-1	r^{-1}	0.1	0.5	0.125	0.0625
-2	r^{-2}	0.01	0.25		
-3	r^{-3}	0.001	0.125		
-4	r^{-4}	0.0001	0.0625		
-5	r^{-5}	0.00001	0.03125	8^{-5}	16^{-5}

The three bases are Power of 2

For any number system with radix **r**

e.g. $r=7$

⊖ The number of possible digits equals **r**.

7

⊖ The general form is:

Number A of n integral digits and m fractional

$$MSD \rightarrow \underbrace{a_{n-1}a_{n-2}\dots a_2a_1a_0}_{\text{integral}} \cdot \underbrace{a_{-1}a_{-2}\dots a_{-m}}_{\text{fractional}} \leftarrow LSD$$

MSD → Most Significant Digit
LSD → Least Significant Digit

$$a_{n-1} \cdot r^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 \cdot r^1 + a_0 \cdot r^0 + a_{-1} \cdot r^{-1} + \dots + a_{-m} \cdot r^{-m}$$

⊖ The smallest digit is **0** and the largest possible digit has a value of **(r-1)**

0,1,,,,,5,6

⊖ The **Largest** value that can be expressed in **n** integral digits is **(rⁿ - 1)**

e.g. $n=3, 7^3-1 = (666)_7$

⊖ The **Largest** value that can be expressed in **m** fractional digits is **(1 - r^{-m})**

e.g. $m=3, (1-7^{-3}) = (0.666)_7$

⊖ The **Largest** value that can be expressed in **n** integral digits and **m** fractional digits is **(rⁿ - r^{-m})**

$(666.666)_7$

⊖ **Total** number of values representable in **n** digits is **rⁿ**

$7^3 : 000 \rightarrow 666$



$$(12x4)_r = (52)_r$$

r = +1 Mark



Number-Base Conversion



General Case:

Bases are not powers of a common number.

Go through **decimal** as an intermediate step

e.g. $(231)_5 \rightarrow (??)_8$: $(231)_5 \rightarrow (??)_{10} \rightarrow (??)_8$

Special Case:

Bases are powers of a common number (e.g. **2**)

Use the **common number** (here is the **Binary**) as an intermediate step

e.g. $(635)_8 \rightarrow (??)_{16}$: $(635)_8 \rightarrow (??)_2 \rightarrow (??)_{16}$

Octal, Hexadecimal, & Binary

Remember:

$8 = 2^3 \rightarrow$ Base 8 (OCTAL System)

$16 = 2^4 \rightarrow$ Base 16 (HEXADECIMAL System)

This means:

★ In OCT: each **3 binary** bits can be represented with a **single octal** digit

★ In HEX: each **4 binary** bits can be represented with a **single hexadecimal** digit

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

$$(b_n \dots b_5 b_4 b_3 b_2 b_1 b_0 \bullet b_{-1} b_{-2} b_{-3} b_{-4} \dots)_2 \Rightarrow (?)_8$$

Starting from the radix point and in both directions, group every 3 Binary Bits.

Replace the 3-Bit groups with equivalent Octal digits.

$$(b_n \dots \underbrace{b_4 b_3 b_2}_{3\text{-Bit}} \underbrace{b_1 b_0}_{3\text{-Bit}} \bullet \underbrace{b_{-1} b_{-2} b_{-3}}_{3\text{-Bit}} \underbrace{b_{-4} \dots}_{3\text{-Bit}})_2$$

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

$$(b_n \dots b_5 b_4 b_3 b_2 b_1 b_0 \bullet b_{-1} b_{-2} b_{-3} b_{-4} \dots)_2 \Rightarrow (?)_{16}$$

Starting from the radix point and in both directions, group every 4 Binary Bits.

Replace the 4-Bit groups with equivalent Hexadecimal digits.

$$(b_n \dots \underbrace{b_5 b_4}_{4\text{-Bit}} \underbrace{B_3 b_2 b_1 b_0}_{4\text{-Bit}} \bullet \underbrace{b_{-1} b_{-2} b_{-3} B_{-4}}_{4\text{-Bit}} \underbrace{b_{-5} b_{-6} \dots}_{4\text{-Bit}})_2$$

Octal ↔ Binary

$$(1110010101.1011011)_2 \Rightarrow (?)_8$$

$$\left(\underbrace{001}_1 \underbrace{110}_6 \underbrace{010}_2 \underbrace{101}_5 \cdot \underbrace{101}_5 \underbrace{101}_5 \underbrace{100}_4 \right)_2 = (1625.554)_8$$

$$(37.2)_8 \Rightarrow (?)_2$$

$$\left(\underbrace{3}_{011} \underbrace{7}_{111} \cdot \underbrace{2}_{010} \right)_8 = (\cancel{0}11111.01\cancel{0})_2$$

Hexa ↔ Binary

$$(1110010101.1011011)_2 \Rightarrow (?)_{16}$$

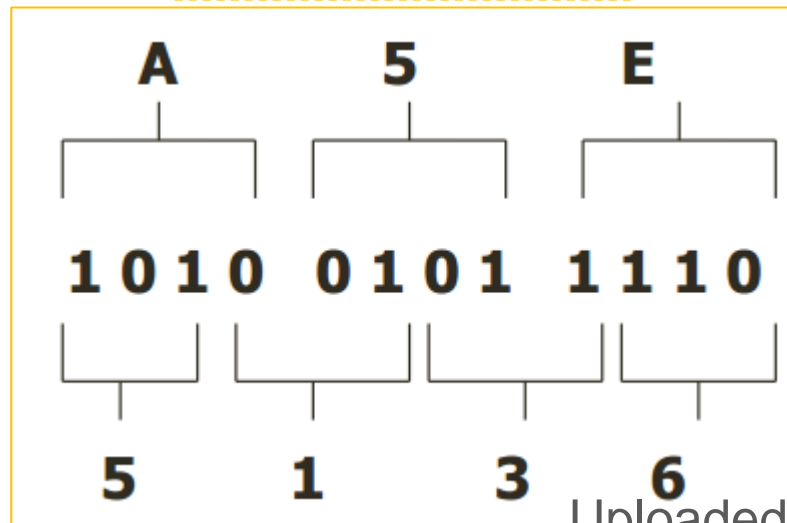
$$\left(\underbrace{0011}_3 \underbrace{1001}_9 \underbrace{0101}_5 \cdot \underbrace{1011}_B \underbrace{0110}_6 \right)_2 = (395.B6)_{16}$$

$$(37.2)_{16} \Rightarrow (?)_2$$

$$\left(\underbrace{3}_{0011} \underbrace{7}_{0111} \cdot \underbrace{2}_{0010} \right)_{16} = (\cancel{00}110111.001\cancel{0})_2$$

Octal ↔ Hexa

Binary as an intermediate step



⊖ Conversion From Base r To Decimal:

- ✓ Expanding the number in a **power series** and adding all the terms as shown previously.

$$\begin{aligned}(1011.11)_2 &= 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 + 1 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2} \\ &= 1 \times 8 + 0 \times 4 + 1 \times 2 + 1 \times 1 + 1 \times 0.5 + 1 \times 0.25 \\ &= 8 + 2 + 1 + 0.5 + 0.25 \\ &= (11.75)_{10}\end{aligned}$$

⊖ Conversion From Decimal To Base r :

- ★ The number is separated into **integer** part and a **fraction**.
- ★ The **integer** is successively **divided** by the **new base**, keeping track of the **remainder**, until the **quotient is zero**.
- ★ The **fraction** is **multiplied** by the **new base**, keeping track of the **generated integer** part, until the required **accuracy** is reached.
- ★ **Join** the **two** parts with the target radix **point**

⊖ Conversion From Decimal to Binary:

- ★ Divide the decimal number by **2**. Note down the **quotient** and the **remainder**.
- ★ The remainder will be either 0 or 1. Label it as **a_0** .
- ★ If the quotient **is not 0**, divide it by 2 and note down the quotient and remainder.
- ★ The remainder will be either 0 or 1. Label it as **a_1** .
- ★ **Repeat** the same process until the **quotient becomes 0**.

$$(39)_{10} \rightarrow (????)_2$$

Divide by	Quotient	Remainder	Coefficient
2	39		
2	19	1	$a_0 = 1$
2	9	1	$a_1 = 1$
2	4	1	$a_2 = 1$
2	2	0	$a_3 = 0$
2	1	0	$a_4 = 0$
2	0	1	$a_5 = 1$

$$(39)_{10} \rightarrow (100111)_2$$

More Examples:

$$(53)_{10} \Rightarrow (?)_2$$

\div Radix	Quotient	Rem.
53 \div 2	26	1
26 \div 2	13	0
13 \div 2	6	1
6 \div 2	3	0
3 \div 2	1	1
1 \div 2	END \leftarrow 0	1

$$(53)_{10} \Rightarrow (110101)_2$$

$$(51)_{10} \Rightarrow (?)_2$$

51	● \leftarrow Radix point
25	1 \leftarrow LSB
12	1
6	0
3	0
1	1
0	1 \leftarrow MSB

$$(51)_{10} \Rightarrow (110011.)_2$$

- ⊖ The conversion is just like the one we discussed on the Binary case.
- ⊖ The only difference is that we now divide by **8** instead of 2.

$$(39)_{10} \rightarrow (????)_8$$

Divide by	Quotient	Remainder	Coefficient
8	39		
8	4	7	$a_0 = 7$
8	0	4	$a_1 = 4$

$$(39)_{10} \rightarrow (47)_8$$

Example:

$$(755)_{10} \Rightarrow (?)_8$$

$$\begin{array}{r|l} 755 & \bullet \\ 94 & 3 \\ 11 & 6 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}$$

$$(755)_{10} \Rightarrow (1363.)_8$$

- ⊖ The conversion is just like the one we discussed on the Binary case.
- ⊖ The only difference is that we now divide by r instead of 2.

$$(1738)_{10} \rightarrow (????)_{16}$$

Divide by	Quotient	Remainder	Coefficient
16	1738		
16	108	10	$a_0 = A$
16	6	12	$a_1 = C$
16	0	6	$a_2 = 6$

$$(1738)_{10} \rightarrow (6CA)_{16}$$

Example (r = 12):

$$(1606)_{10} \Rightarrow (?)_{12}$$

$$\begin{array}{r|l}
 1606 & \bullet \\
 133 & 10=A \\
 11 & 1 \\
 0 & 11=B
 \end{array}$$

$$(1606)_{10} \Rightarrow (B1A.)_{12}$$

- ⊖ Repeatedly **multiply** by the target base **r** and save the **integer** part of the result (always $< r$) until you get **0** fraction or **enough digits**
- ⊖ The digits for the **new base** are those integers with the **first** being the **MSD**

$$(0.6875)_{10} = (??)_2$$

Multiply By	Fraction	Result	Integer Part
2	0.6875	1.375	1
2	0.375	0.75	0
2	0.75	1.5	1
2	0.5	1.0	1

$$(0.6875)_{10} = (0.1011)_2$$

★ In the above example the fractional part **reached 0 exactly** as a result of the repeated multiplications
→ exact conversion was achieved: **Machine Number**

★ In general it may take **many digits** in the target system to get this or it may **never** happen!

Example: Convert 0.65_{10} to $()_2 \rightarrow (0.65)_{10} = (0.10100110011001 \dots)_2$

The fractional part **repeating** every 4 steps, \rightarrow 1001 repeats forever! $\rightarrow 0.101001$

Solution: Specify **required #** of digits to the **right** of radix point and **chop** or **round** to this number of bits

More Examples:

$$(0.731)_{10} \Rightarrow (?)_2$$

r point → ●

$$0.731 \times 2 = 1.462$$

$$0.462 \times 2 = 0.924$$

$$0.924 \times 2 = 1.848$$

$$0.848 \times 2 = 1.696$$

$$0.696 \times 2 = 1.392$$

$$(0.731)_{10} \Rightarrow (0.10111)_2$$

Chop @ 5 Digits

$$(0.731)_{10} \Rightarrow (?)_8$$

r point → ●

$$0.731 \times 8 = 5.848$$

$$0.848 \times 8 = 6.784$$

$$0.784 \times 8 = 6.272$$

$$0.272 \times 8 = 2.176$$

$$0.176 \times 8 = 1.408$$

$$(0.731)_{10} \Rightarrow (0.56621)_8$$

$$(0.357)_{10} \Rightarrow (?)_{12}$$

r point → ●

$$0.357 \times 12 = 4.284$$

$$0.284 \times 12 = 3.408$$

$$0.408 \times 12 = 4.896$$

$$0.896 \times 12 = 10.752 \rightarrow A$$

$$(0.357)_{10} \Rightarrow (0.434A)_{12}$$

Chop @ 4 Digits

Convert $(153.513)_{10}$ to Base **8**, **rounding** the resulting fraction to **3 octal** digits

Integer Part: 153

Divide By	Quotient	Remainder
8	153	
8	19	1
8	2	3
8	0	2

$(231)_8$

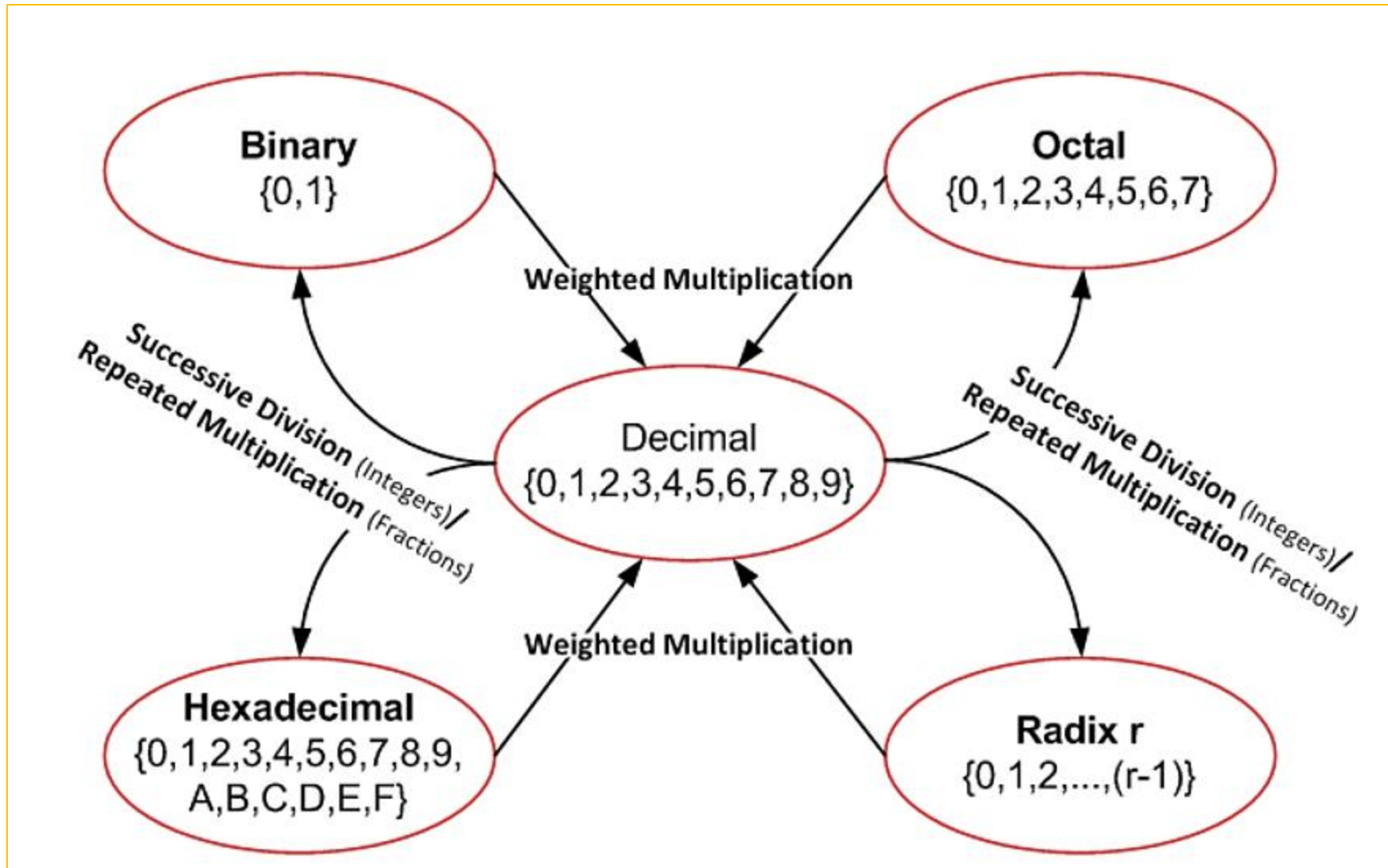
Fraction Part: 0.513

Multiply By	Fraction	Result	Integer Part
8	0.513	4.104	4
8	0.104	0.832	0
8	0.832	6.656	6
8	0.656	5.248	5

$(0.4065)_8$

$(0.513)_{10} = (0.4065)_8 \rightarrow (0.407)_8$ after rounding, since $5 > 4$, we **add 1 to fraction**

$$\mathbf{(153.513)_{10} = (231.407)_8}$$



- ⊖ The rules used in decimal arithmetic operations are applied in any other number system.
 - ★ Digit **carry** to the higher order position in **addition**.
 - ★ Digit **borrow** from higher order position in **subtraction**.

Binary Addition

$$0 + 0 = 0$$

$$0 + 1 = 1$$

$$1 + 0 = 1$$

$$1 + 1 = 0 \text{ and carry } 1 \text{ to the next column}$$

Add 45_{10} and 44_{10} in binary

	1	1 1	←	Carries			
$45_{10} =$	1	0	1	1	0	1	
$44_{10} =$	1	0	1	1	0	0	
	1	0	1	1	0	0	1
							= 89_{10}

Binary Subtraction

$$0 - 0 = 0$$

$$0 - 1 = 1 \text{ and borrow } 1 \text{ from the next column}$$

$$1 - 0 = 1$$

$$1 - 1 = 0$$

Subtract 108_{10} from 218_{10} in binary

	0	10	10	0	10	10	←	Borrows
$218_{10} =$	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0
$108_{10} =$	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	
	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	= 110_{10}

Binary Multiplication

Multiply 110110_2 times 101101_2 in binary

$$\begin{array}{r}
 110110 \\
 \times 101101 \\
 \hline
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 54 \\
 \times 45 \\
 \hline
 \end{array}$$

1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0
					0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
			1	1	0	1	1	0				
		0	0	0	0	0	0					
	1	1	0	1	1	0						
1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0

$$= 2430$$

- ⊖ **Complements** are used to simplify **subtraction** operation in digital computers
- ⊖ Simplification of operation has multiple advantages:
 - ★ It results in simpler circuits (convenience in designing process)
 - ★ It results in low cost (simpler circuit means fewer and simpler hardware components)

⊖ For each base (r), there are **two** complements:

- 1) **Diminished Radix:** **(r-1)'s** Complement
- 2) **Radix:** **(r's)** Complement

Binary	Decimal	Octal
1's	9's	7's
2's	10's	8's

⊖ For a number **N** that is represented by **n** digits in radix **r**:

- ⊖ (r-1)'s complement of N is $[(r^n - 1) - N]$
- ⊖ r's complement of N is $[r^n - N] \rightarrow$ (r-1)'s complement **+1**

n=3			
	Binary	Decimal	Octal
(r-1)'s	7 - N	999 - N	511 - N
r's	8 - N	1000 - N	512 - N



⊖ **9's** complement of the decimal number $N = (10^n - 1) - N$

Subtract each digit from 9

Example: Find the 9's comp. of $(134795)_{10}$ **[n=6]**

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= (10^6 - 1) - (134795) \\
 &= (999999) - (134795) \\
 &= (865204)_{10}
 \end{aligned}$$

⊖ **10's** complement of the decimal number $N = (10^n - N)$

9's complement + 1

Quick Method: To find the 10's complement of a decimal number

- 1) Leave all **least-significant** zeros **unchanged** (Rightmost Zeros)
- 2) **Subtract** the **first** non-zero digit from **10** and all the **remaining** digits from **9's**

Example: Find the 10's comp. of $(134795)_{10}$ **[n=6]**

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= (10^6 - 134795) \\
 &= (1000000 - 134795) \\
 &= (865205)_{10}
 \end{aligned}$$

= (865204) + 1

Note: A green arrow points from the '5' in the final result of the previous step to the '4' in the final result of this step.



⊖ **1's** complement of the decimal number $N = (2^n - 1) - N$

Subtract each digit from 1

Two Possibilities:

- 1) If the bit is 0 then its 1's complement is $1 - 0 = 1$
- 2) If the bit is 1 then its 1's complement is $1 - 1 = 0$

Simply Flip each bit

⊖ **2's** complement of the decimal number $N = (2^n - N)$

1's complement + 1

Quick Method: To find the 2's complement of a decimal number

- 1) Leave all **least-significant 0's** and the **first 1 unchanged** (Rightmost Zeros)
- 2) **Flip** all the **remaining** bits

The complement of the complement restores the number to its original value
 $N = \text{Complement}(\text{Complement}(N))$

**Example:**

Consider a binary number: 1011001
The 1's complement is: 0100110
The 2's complement is: 0110111

Consider a binary number: 00100100
The 1's complement is: 11011011
The 2's complement is

$$\text{A) } (11011011) + 1 = (11011100)$$

B)

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc} & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ & & & & & & \color{red}{\updownarrow} & & \\ \Rightarrow & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & \color{red}{1} & 0 & 0 \\ & \underbrace{\hspace{2cm}} & & \underbrace{\hspace{2cm}} & & & & & \\ & \text{Flip} & & \text{Same} & & & & & \end{array}$$



- ⊖ Assume, we need to subtract Y from $X \rightarrow (X - Y)$
 - ★ There are 2 Cases: 1) $X \geq Y$ 2) $X < Y$
 - ★ We can Use 1's or 2's to perform the subtraction

Case 1: $X \geq Y$

Using 1's

- 1) Add X and the **1's complement** of Y
- 2) If an **end carry** occurs, we **add 1** to the result to get the final answer

Consider $X = 11101$ and $Y = 10111$

X	=	1	1	1	0	1
1's complement of Y	= +	0	1	0	0	0
Sum	=	1	0	0	1	0
End carry	= +					1
$X - Y$	=	0	0	1	1	0

↓
end carry

Using 2's

- 1) Add X and the **2's complement** of Y
- 2) If an **end carry** occurs, **discard** it to get the final answer

Consider $X = 11101$ and $Y = 10111$

X	=	1	1	1	0	1
2's complement of Y	= +	0	1	0	0	1
Sum	=	1	0	0	1	1
Discard End carry	=	1				
$X - Y$	=	0	0	1	1	0

↓
end carry

Case 2: $X < Y$

- ⊖ When $(X < Y) \rightarrow (X - Y)$ will be a **negative** number.
- ⊖ Therefore, the result we will get using the previous method will be the 1's or 2's complement.
- ⊖ So, to get the final result:
 - 1) Find the complement once again
 - 2) Append a negative sign to it

Using 1'sConsider $X = 10111$ and $Y = 11101$

X	=		1	0	1	1	1
1's complement of Y	= +		0	0	0	1	0
Sum	=		1	1	0	0	1
1's complement of the sum	=		0	0	1	1	0
$X - Y$	=	-	0	0	1	1	0

Using 2'sConsider $X = 10111$ and $Y = 11101$

X	=		1	0	1	1	1
2's complement of Y	= +		0	0	0	1	1
Sum	=		1	1	0	1	0
2's complement of the sum	=		0	0	1	1	0
$X - Y$	=	-	0	0	1	1	0

Remember: No end carry is generated \rightarrow The answer is **negative**



What About Decimal Numbers?

Case 1: $X \geq Y$

Subtract (76425 – 28321) using 9's complements.

The 9's complement of 28321 is 71678.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 76425 \\
 + \underline{71678} \\
 \hline
 \text{End carry} \rightarrow 1 \mid 48103 \\
 \underline{1} \\
 48104
 \end{array}$$

Subtract (76425 – 28321) using 10's complements.

The 10's complement of 28321 is 71679.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 76425 \\
 + \underline{71679} \\
 \hline
 \cancel{1}48104
 \end{array}$$

Case 2: $X < Y$

Subtract (285.31 – 3459.20) using 9's complements.

The 9's complement of 3459.20 is 6540.79.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 285.31 \\
 + \underline{6540.79} \\
 \hline
 \text{No end carry} \rightarrow 6826.10
 \end{array}$$

Therefore the difference is negative and is equal to the 9's complement of the answer, $-(6826.10)' = -3173.89$

Subtract (28531 – 345920) using 10's complements.

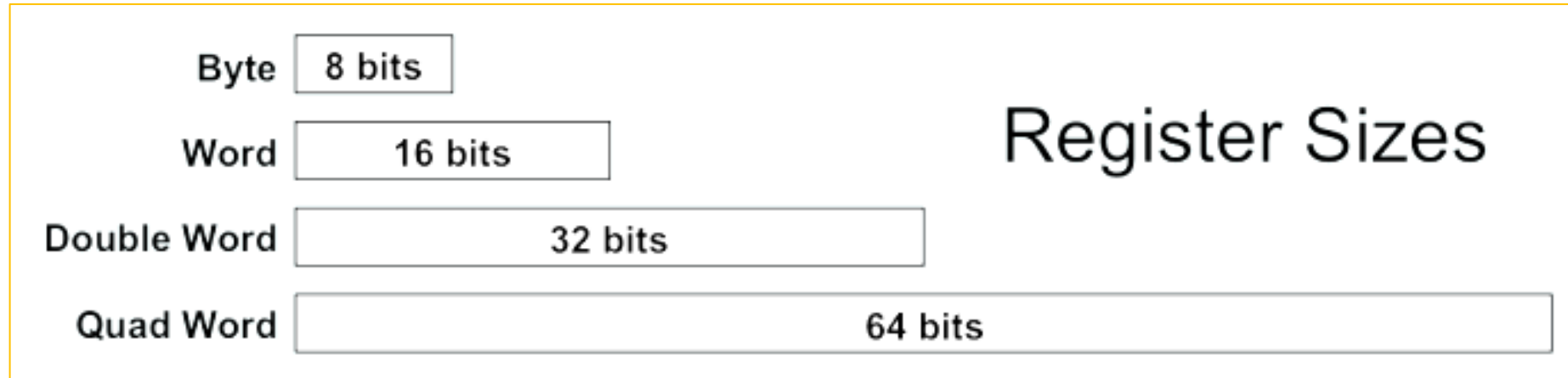
The 10's complement of 345920 is 654080.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 28531 \\
 + \underline{654080} \\
 \hline
 \text{No end carry} \rightarrow 682611
 \end{array}$$

Therefore the difference is negative and is equal to the 10's complement of the answer, $-(682611)' = -317389$



- ⊖ Digital computers store numbers in special digital electronic devices called **Registers**.
- ⊖ Registers consist of an **n** fixed number of storage elements that is typically a power of **2** (Bits).
- ⊖ An **n-bit** register can store maximum of **2^n** Distinct Values.
- ⊖ Values stored in registers may be either **unsigned** or **signed** numbers.



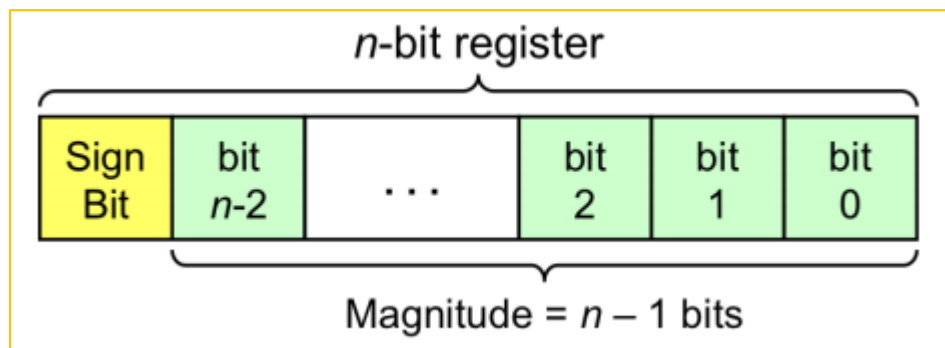


Unsigned Numbers

- ⊖ An n-bit register can store any **unsigned** number that has **n-bits** or less.
- ⊖ When representing an **integer** number, this n-bit register can hold values from **0** up to **(2ⁿ-1)**.
- ⊖ No sign information needs to be represented.

Signed Numbers

- ⊖ An n bits of the register should represent the **magnitude** of the number and its **sign** as well.
- ⊖ Two major techniques are used to represent **signed** numbers:
 - 1) Signed Magnitude Representation.
 - 2) Complement method:
 - ★ 1's Complement.
 - ★ 2's Complement



- ⊖ Independent representation of the **sign** and **magnitude**.
- ⊖ Leftmost bit is the sign bit: **0** is positive and **1** is negative.
- ⊖ Using n bits, **largest** represented magnitude = $2^{(n-1)} - 1$
- ⊖ Symmetric range of represented values for n -bit register; from $-(2^{(n-1)} - 1)$ to $+(2^{(n-1)} - 1)$.
- ⊖ For 8-bit register ($n=8$) \rightarrow -127 to +127

Examples:

- ✓ $X = 1001$ (-1, 4-bit)
- ✓ $X = 0110$ (+6, 4-bit)
- ✓ $X = 00001111$ (+15, 8-bit)
- ✓ $X = 10000011$ (-3, 8-bit)
- ✓ $X = 11001111$ (-79, 8-bit)
- ✓ $X = 110111$ (-23, 6-bit)

5-bit signed-magnitude binary numbers

+15	01111
+14	01110
+13	01101
+12	01100
+11	01011
+10	01010
+9	01001
+8	01000
+7	00111
+6	00110
+5	00101
+4	00100
+3	00011
+2	00010
+1	00001
+0	00000

-0	10000
-1	10001
-2	10010
-3	10011
-4	10100
-5	10101
-6	10110
-7	10111
-8	11000
-9	11001
-10	11010
-11	11011
-12	11100
-13	11101
-14	11110
-15	11111

- ⊖ 1's and 2's complement can also be used to represent signed numbers
- ⊖ Since usage of 2's complement simplifies computations, we almost always use it to represent negative numbers
- ⊖ 2's Complement
 - ★ Only **one** representations for zero.
 - ★ **Asymmetric** range of represented values for n-bit register;
From $-(2^n - 1)$ to $+(2^{n-1} - 1)$.
For 8-bit register (n=8) \rightarrow -128 to +127

Decimal	Signed Magnitude	Signed 2's Complement	Signed 1's Complement
+ 7	0111	0111	0111
+ 6	0110	0110	0110
+ 5	0101	0101	0101
+ 4	0100	0100	0100
+ 3	0011	0011	0011
+ 2	0010	0010	0010
+ 1	0001	0001	0001
+ 0	0000	0000	0000
- 0	1000	—	1111
- 1	1001	1111	1110
- 2	1010	1110	1101
- 3	1011	1101	1100
- 4	1100	1100	1011
- 5	1101	1011	1010
- 6	1110	1010	1001
- 7	1111	1001	1000
- 8	—	1000	—

Examples:

Binary	Unsigned	Signed-magnitude	1's complement signed	2's complement signed
10111000	184	-56	-71	-72
01101001	105	+105	+105	+105
10000111	135	-7	-120	-121
11000111	199	-71	-56	-57

Sign Extension

- ⊖ Before we can add / subtract two **signed** numbers, they must have the **same** number of bits
- ⊖ Also we may need to move a **signed** number from a small register to a larger register

- 5	in 4 bits	in 8 bits	
Signed-Magnitude	1101	10000101	(sign-magnitude)
Signed 1's Complement	1010	11111010	(sign extension)
Signed 2's Complement	1011	11111011	(sign extension)

Examples:

$(10110011)_2$ is in 2's complement, put it in a 16 bits.

$$(10110011)_2 = -77 \Rightarrow (11111111 \ 10110011)_2 = -77$$

$(01100010)_2$ is in 2's complement, but it in a 16 bits.

$$(01100010)_2 = +98 \Rightarrow (00000000 \ 01100010)_2 = +98$$



- ⊖ In signed magnitude representation:
 - 1) If the signs are the **same**, **add** the magnitudes and give the sum the same sign.
 - 2) If **different signs**, **subtract** and give the result the sign of the big number.

- ⊖ In complement representation:
 - 1) Add the two numbers including the sign bit.
 - 2) Any carry out from the sign bit is **ignored**.
 - 3) No comparison or subtraction is needed.

Examples:

Add $(-6) + (+13)$ using signed 2's complement form with 8 bits. Repeat for $(+6) + (-13)$.



Examples:

Add $(-6) + (+13)$ using signed 2's complement form with 8 bits. Repeat for $(+6) + (-13)$.

$(+6) \equiv 00000110$ and $(+13) \equiv 00001101$

$(-6) \equiv 11111010$ and $(-13) \equiv 11110011$

$$\begin{array}{r} +6 \rightarrow 00000110 \\ -13 \rightarrow \underline{11110011} \\ \hline 11111001 \rightarrow -7 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} -6 \rightarrow 11111010 \\ +13 \rightarrow \underline{00001101} \\ \hline \cancel{1}00000111 \rightarrow +7 \end{array}$$



- ⊖ **Carry** is important when adding/subtracting **unsigned** integers to indicates that the unsigned sum is **out of range**. (SUM < 0 or SUM > maximum unsigned n-bit value).
- ⊖ **Overflow** is important when adding/subtracting **signed** integers to indicates that the signed sum is **out of range**.
- ⊖ Overflow occurs when:
 - 1) Adding two **positive** numbers and the sum is **negative**.
 - 2) Adding two **negative** numbers and the sum is **positive**.
- ⊖ **We can have carry without overflow and vice-versa**

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0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	79																																																																																																					
+	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	64																																																																																																					
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	143 (-113)																																																																																																					
Carry = 0 Overflow = 1																																																																																																													
1	1	1																																																																																																											
1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	218 (-38)																																																																																																					
+	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	157 (-99)																																																																																																					
0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	119																																																																																																					
Carry = 1 Overflow = 1																																																																																																													

Indicators of the occurrence of Overflow:

- 1) The two added binary numbers have the same sign and the result has the opposite sign
- 2) Carries from the last 2 bits in the binary addition operation are different (1,0 or 0,1)
- 3) Also the result will be wrong



- ⊖ Digital systems and circuits can only store one of **two** states, "0" and "1".
- ⊖ **One** bit can represent **two** elements only!
- ⊖ With **n** bits, we can produce **2ⁿ** different combinations.
- ⊖ To represent **m** elements, we need **n** bits, where **2ⁿ ≥ m**.
- ⊖ $n = \mathbf{Ceiling}(\log_2 m)$
- ⊖ To code the decimal digits [0-9], we need at least **four** bits [$\log_2 10 = 3.322$]
- ⊖ We call this binary-coded decimal (**BCD**)

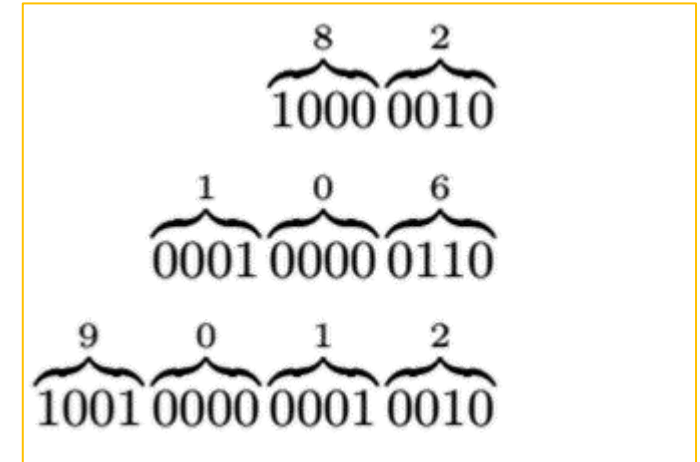
- ⊖ **BCD** is a way to express each **decimal** digit with a binary code
- ⊖ It is very easy to convert between **decimal** and **BCD**

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

- ⊖ Four bits can be used to represent 16 numbers
- ⊖ In BCD we utilize only **10**. The remaining **6** code combinations are not used – **invalid codes**
- ⊖ The invalid codes are: 1010, 1011, 1100, 1101, 1110, 1111

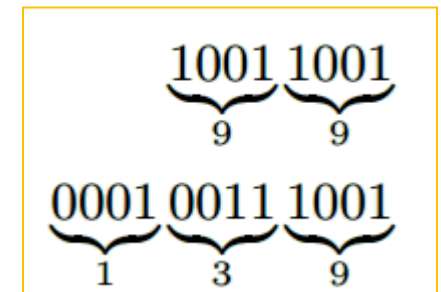
How to Express a Decimal Number in BCD??

Simply replace each decimal digit with the appropriate 4-bit code



How to Determine a Decimal Number From a BCD??

- 1) Start from the right-most bit and break the code into group of four bits
- 2) Write the decimal digit represented by each 4-bits group



- ⊖ The addition of two BCD digits with a possible carry from the previous less significant pair of digits results in a sum in the range (**0 to 19**). There is a difference in the representation of the sum in binary and in BCD code.
- ⊖ If $0 \leq \mathbf{Sum} \leq 9 \rightarrow$ sum in BCD = sum in binary. (Done)
- ⊖ If $10 \leq \mathbf{Sum} \leq 19$ then, sum in BCD consists of **8 bits** which is not equal to the sum in binary. Corrected by **adding 0110** to the binary sum.

Examples:

	0001	0011		13
+	0010	0110	+	26
<hr/>				
	0011	1001		39
<hr/>				

4 \rightarrow	0100		4 \rightarrow	0100
+5 \rightarrow	<u>0101</u>		+8 \rightarrow	<u>1000</u>
9 \rightarrow	1001		12 \rightarrow	1100
				+ <u>0110</u>
				0001 0010

More Examples:

		1001		9
	+	1001		+
		-----		-----
		0010	Invalid because of carry	18
		0110	Add 6	
	+	-----		
		0001	Valid BCD number	

		1000		

		1		
		8		

Solve this in BCD : (+375)+(-240).
the 10's complement of (-)240 is (9)760.

1	1	1	11	11	11
0	375	0000	0011	0111	0101
+9	760	+1001	0111	0110	0000
10	135	1010	1011	1101	0101
		0110	0110	0110	↓
		10000	0001	0011	0101

	0001	0110		16
	+	0001		+
		-----		-----
		0010	1011	31
			Right group is invalid (> 9), left is valid	
			Add 6 to invalid code, add carry to next group	
	+	0001		

		0011	0001	

		3	1	

- ⊖ 8421, 2421, and (8,4,-2,-1) are **weighted** codes
- ⊖ Excess-3 is an **unweighted code**
- ⊖ 2421 and Excess-3 codes exhibit self-complementing property
- ⊖ **Self-complementing:** 9's complement of a decimal number is obtained directly by **flipping** the bits of the code of that decimal number

- Using Excess-3 code the decimal number **428** is represented as: **0111 0101 1011**
- 9's complement of 428 is: $999 - 428 = \mathbf{571}$
- 9's complement of 428 in encoded form (Excess-3 form) is: **1000 1010 0100** (flip each bit)
- This corresponds to the 1's complement of a binary number

Decimal Digit	BCD 8421	2421	Excess-3	8, 4, -2, -1
0	0000	0000	0011	0000
1	0001	0001	0100	0111
2	0010	0010	0101	0110
3	0011	0011	0110	0101
4	0100	0100	0111	0100
5	0101	1011	1000	1011
6	0110	1100	1001	1010
7	0111	1101	1010	1001
8	1000	1110	1011	1000
9	1001	1111	1100	1111
	1010	0101	0000	0001
Unused bit combinations	1011	0110	0001	0010
	1100	0111	0010	0011
	1101	1000	1101	1100
	1110	1001	1110	1101
	1111	1010	1111	1110



- ⊖ **Unweighted** code, Non-numeric code
- ⊖ Only a **single** bit **changes** from one code word to the next in sequence
- ⊖ **No** two codes are **identical**, Gray codes can have any number of bits

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

- ⊖ Standard code for alphanumeric characters
- ⊖ 7-bit code (a byte is usually used, additional codes used to represent Greek or italic type fonts)

$b_4b_3b_2b_1$	$b_7b_6b_5$							
	000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
0000	NUL	DLE	SP	0	@	P	‘	p
0001	SOH	DC1	!	1	A	Q	a	q
0010	STX	DC2	“	2	B	R	b	r
0011	ETX	DC3	#	3	C	S	c	s
0100	EOT	DC4	\$	4	D	T	d	t
0101	ENQ	NAK	%	5	E	U	e	u
0110	ACK	SYN	&	6	F	V	f	v
0111	BEL	ETB	·	7	G	W	g	w
1000	BS	CAN	(8	H	X	h	x
1001	HT	EM)	9	I	Y	i	y
1010	LF	SUB	*	:	J	Z	j	z
1011	VT	ESC	+	;	K	[k	{
1100	FF	FS	,	<	L		l	
1101	CR	GS	-	=	M]	m	}
1110	SO	RS	.	>	N	^	n	~
1111	SI	US	/	?	O	-	o	DEL



- ⊖ A parity bit is added to the ASCII codes to **detect** errors
- ⊖ A parity bit is an extra bit to make the total number of 1's either **even** or **odd**
- ⊖ The code for A is 1000001 → number of 1's is 2
- ⊖ Insert a parity bit on the left side to make the total number of 1's either even or odd
 - ★ The code for A with **even parity** is 01000001
 - ★ The code for A with **odd parity** is 11000001

Example:**75.8**

Considering the number above (including the decimal point) as **four characters**. Represent each character as a **7-bit ASCII** binary codes + an additional **odd parity bit** appended as the **MSB** (i.e. to the left of the ASCII code). Express the number as a sequence of 8 hexadecimal digits.

75.8			
	7-bit ASCII	+ Parity bit	Hex
7	0110111	00110111	37
5	0110101	10110101	B5
.	0101110	10101110	AE
8	0111000	00111000	38

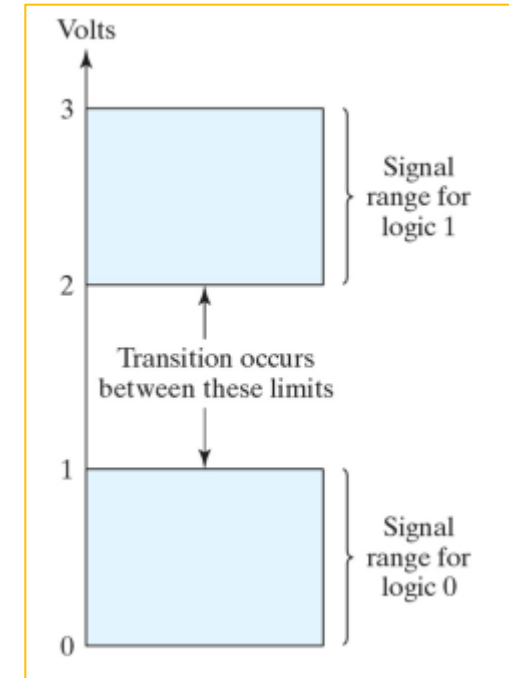
37 B5 AE 38

- ⊖ Binary **logic** deals with binary quantities which can take one of two values (0 & 1, True & False, ... etc).
- ⊖ A binary number can be represented by a **variable** (x, y, z, A, B, C ... etc).
- ⊖ Binary **variables** take on one of **two** values.
- ⊖ Logical **operators** operate on binary values and binary variables
- ⊖ Three basic logical operations; AND (\cdot), OR ($+$), NOT ($'$).

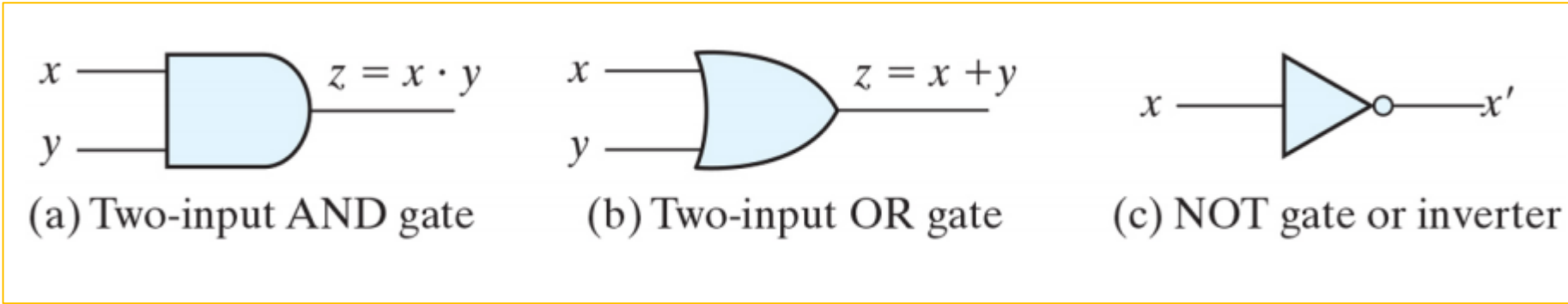
Truth Table

AND			OR			NOT	
x	y	$x \cdot y$	x	y	$x + y$	x	x'
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	1	0	1		
1	1	1	1	1	1		

- ⊖ Logic gates are electronic circuits that operate on one or more physical input signals to produce an output signal
- ⊖ These input signals could be current or voltage signals.
 - For example: voltage signals varying from 0 V to 3 V
- ⊖ Digital systems work on two states only.
 - Therefore, we may assign 0 V as a 0 state (OFF) and assign 3 V as a 1 state (ON)
- ⊖ In practice, 0 (OFF) will have a range of 0-1.5 V and 1 (ON) will have a range of 1.5-3 V



Logic Gates



**Signal
Waveform**

