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Number Systems

- Decimal (Base 10)
 - 10 digits (0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9)
- Binary (Base 2)
 - 2 digits (0,1)

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- Digits are often called bits (<u>binary digits</u>)
- Hexadecimal (Base 16)
 - 16 digits (0-9,A,B,C,D,E,F)
 - Often referred to as Hex

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Number Systems



Positional Notation

- Each digit is weighted by the base(r) to the positional power
- $N = d_{n-1}d_{n-2} \dots d_0 \dots d_1 d_2 \dots d_m$ = $(d_{n-1}x r^{n-1}) + (d_{n-2}x r^{n-1}) + \dots + (d_{0-1}x r^0) + (d_1x r^1) + (d_2x r^2) + \dots (d_m x r^m)$
- Example : 872.64₁₀
 (8 x 10²) + (7 x 10¹) + (2 x 10⁰)
 + (6 x 10⁻¹) + (4 x 10⁻²)
- Example: 1011.1₂ = ?
- Example :12A₁₆ = ?

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• $872.64_{10} = 8x10^2 + 7x10^1 + 2x10^0 + 6x10^{-1} + 4x10^{-2}$ 800 + 70 + 2 + .6 + .04

Positional Notation (Solutions to Example Problems)



• 1011.1₂ $= 1x2^3 + 0x2^2 + 1x2^1 + 1x2^0 + 1x2^{-1}$ = 8 + 0 + 2 + 1 + .5 $= 11.5_{10}$

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Positional	Notation
(Solutions to	Example Problems)

• $12A_{16} = 1x16^2 + 2x16^1 + Ax16^0$

- = 256 + 32 + 10 $= 298_{10}$

1	
	••••
	••••

Powers of E	lases
2-3= .125	
2-2= .25	
2-1=.5	16 ⁰ = 1
2 ⁰ = 1	$16^1 = 16 = 2^4$
2 ¹ = 2	16 ² = 256 = 2 ⁸
$2^2 = 4$	$16^3 = 4096 = 2^{12}$

2³ = 8 2⁴ = 16

 $2^{5} = 32$ $2^{6} = 64$ $2^{7} = 128$

2⁸ = 256

2⁹ = 512

 $2^{10} = 1024$ $2^{11} = 2048$

2¹² = 4096



2¹⁰ = 1024 = 1Kb 2²⁰ = 1,048,576 = 1Mb 2³⁰ = 1,073,741,824 = 1Gb

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Determining What Base is being Used



- Subscripts
 - 874₁₀ 1011₂ AB9₁₆
 - AB9₍₁₆₎
- Prefix Symbols
- (None) 874 %1011 \$AB9
- Postfix Symbols
 - AB9H
- If I am only working with one base there is no need to add a symbol.

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Conversion from Base R to Decimal



- Use Positional Notation
- %11011011 = ?₁₀
- \$3A94 = ?₁₀

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- Use Positional Notation
- %11011011 = ?₁₀
- %11011011

 $= 1x2^{7} + 1x2^{6} + 1x2^{4} + 1x2^{3} + 1x2^{1} + 1x2^{0}$ = 128 + 64 + 16 + 8 + 2 + 1 = 219_{10} Conversion from Hexadecimal to Decimal • $3A94 = ?_{10}$ • $3A94 = 3x16^3 + Ax16^2 + 9x16^1 + 4x16^0$ = 12288 + 2560 + 144 + 4 = 15996

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Conversion from Decimal to Base R

- Use Successive Division
 - Repeatedly divide by the desired base until 0 is reached
 - · Save the remainders as the final answer
 - The first remainder is the LSB (least significant bit); the last remainder is the MSB (Most significant bit)
- $437_{10} = ?_2$

$$= 110110101_{2}$$

•
$$437_{10} = ?_{16}$$

= 1B5₁₆

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Conversion from Decimal to Binary

- Use Successive Division
 Repeatedly divide by the desired base until 0 is reached
 - Save the remainders as the final answer
 - The first remainder is the LSB (least significant bit); the last remainder is the MSB (Most significant bit)

• 437₁₀ = ?₂

- 437 / 2 = 218 remainder 1 218 / 2 = 109 remainder 0
- 109 / 2 = 54 remainder 1
- 54 / 2 = 27 remainder 0
- 27 / 2 = 13 remainder 1
- 13 / 2 = 6 remainder 1
- 6 / 2 = 3 remainder 0
- 3 / 2 = 1 remainder 1 1 / 2 = 0 remainder 1

 $= 110110101_2$ CSE, Rajshahi University 8/5/2019

Conversion from Decimal to Hexadecimal

• 437₁₀ = ?₁₆

437 / 16 = 27 remainder 5

27 / 16 = 1 remainder 11 (11=B)

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1/16 = 0 remainder 1

•
$$427_{10} = 1B5_{16}$$

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Conversion from Binary to Hex • Starting at the LSB working left, group the bits by 4s. Padding of 0s can occur on the most significant group.

· Convert each group of 4 into the equivalent HEX value.

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Conversion from Hex to Binary

- Convert each HEX digit to the equivalent 4bit binary grouping.
- \$A73 = %?
 - = %101001110011

Conversion of Fractions



- Conversion from decimal to binary requires multiplying by the desired base (2)
- $0.625_{10} = ?_2$
- = 0.101₂

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Binary, Octal, and Hexadecimal

- Binary, Octal, and Hexadecimal are related:
 Radix 16 = 2⁴ and Radix 8 = 2³
- Hexadecimal digit = 4 bits and Octal digit = 3 bits
- Starting from least-significant bit, group each 4 bits into a hex digit or each 3 bits into an octal digit
- Example: Convert 32-bit number into octal and hex



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Important Properties - cont'd

♦ How many possible values can be represented ... Using *n* binary digits?

 n values: 0 to $2^n - 1$

 Using *n* octal digits
 8^n values: 0 to $8^n - 1$

 Using *n* decimal digits?
 10^n values: 0 to $10^n - 1$

 Using *n* hexadecimal digits
 16^n values: 0 to $16^n - 1$

 Using *n* digits in Radix *r*?
 r^n values: 0 to $r^n - 1$

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Addition/Subtraction of Binary Numbers

101011 + 1 101100



• The carry out has a weight equal to the base (in this case 16). The digit that left is the excess (Base – sum).

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Addition/Subtraction of Hex Numbers



- \$3A <u>+\$28</u> \$62
- The carry out has a weight equal to the base (in this case 16). The digit that left is the excess (Base sum).

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Signed Number Representation



- Sign-Magnitude
- 1s Complement
- 2s Complement

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Sign-Magnitude



- For an N-bit word, the most significant bit is the sign bit; the remaining bits represent the magnitude
- 0110 = +6
- 1110 = -6
- Addition/subtraction of numbers can result in overflow (errors) – (Due to fixed number of bits); two values for zero
- Range for n bits: $-(2^{n-1}-1)$ through $(2^{n-1}-1)$

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1s Complement



- Negative numbers = $N' = (2^{n-1}-1) P$ (where P is the magnitude of the number)
 - For a 5-bit system, -7 = 11111
 -001111
 - <u>-00111</u> 11000
- Range for n bits:-(2ⁿ⁻¹-1) through (2ⁿ⁻¹-1)

2s Complement



 Negative Numbers = N* = 2ⁿ - P (where P is the magnitude of the number)
 For a 5-bit system, -7 = 100000

- Another way to form 2s complement representation is to complement P and add 1
- Range for n bits: -(2ⁿ⁻¹) through (2ⁿ⁻¹-1)

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Numbers Represented	with	4-bit	Fixed
Digit Representation			

Decimal	Sign Magnitude	1s Complement	2s Complement
+8			
+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	0000
-1	1001	1110	1111
-2	1010	1101	1110
-3	1011	1100	1101
-4	1100	1011	1100
-5	1101	1010	1011
-6	1110	1001	1010
-7	1111	1000	1001
-8			1000

Summary of Signed Number Representations



- Sign Magnitude has two values for 0
- errors in addition of negative and positive numbers
- 1s complement two values for 0
- additional hardware needed to compensate for this
- 2s Complement representation of choice

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Unsigned/Signed Overflow

- You can detect unsigned overflow if there is a carryout of the MSB.
- You can detect signed overflow if the sum of two positive numbers is a negative number or if the sum of two negative numbers is a positive number. An overflow never occurs in an addition of a negative and a positive number.

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Codes

- Decimal Codes
 - BCD (Binary Coded Decimal)
 - Weighted Codes (8421, 2421, etc...)
- ASCII Codes
 - ASCII (American Standard Code for Information Interchange)
- Unicode Standard
- Unit Distance Codes
- GrayError Detection Codes
- Parity Bit
- Error Correction Codes
 Hamming Code

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BCD Codes (Decimal Codes)

- Coded Representations for the the 10 decimal digits
- Requires 4 bits (2³ < 10 < 2⁴)

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• Only use 10 combinations of 16 possible combinations



The weights associated with the bits in each code group are given by the name of the code

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BCD Codes (Decimal Codes)



Nonweighted Codes

• 2-out-of-5

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- Actually weighted 74210 except for the digit 0
- Used by the post office for scanning bar codes for zip codes
- Has error detection properties

BCD Codes (Decimal Codes)

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U.S. Postal Service bar code corresponding to the ZIP code 14263-1045.

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Unit Distance Codes



- Important when converting analog to digital
- Only one bit changes between successive integers

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• Gray Code is most popular example



a) Conventional binary encoder. (*b*) Gray code encoder.



Angular position encoders with misaligned photosensing devices. (a) Conventional binary encoder. (b) Gray code encoder.

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Mirror Image Conversion



From Binary to a Gray-code

1. Copy MSB

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- 2. Add this bit to the next position
 - 1. Record Sum
 - 2. Ignore Carry (if any)
- 3. Record successive sum until completed

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From Binary to Gray code







From a Gray-code to Binary

1. Copy MSB

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- 2. Add the Binary MSB to next Significant bit of Gray code
 - 1. Record Sum
 - 2. Ignore Carry (if any)
- 3. Continue process until LSB is reached



From a Gray-code to Binary





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Digital Circuit











Decim	Binar	Decim	Binar	Decim	Binar	Decim	Binar	
-3	0000	. 1	0100	໌ 5	i 10	000	9	1100
-2	0001	2	0101	6	10	001	10	1101
-1	0010	3	0110	7	10	010	11	1110
0	0011	4	0111	8	10	011	12	1111

Within the range when 1's complemented, apart from BCD

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Character Codes

Character sets

- Standard ASCII: 7-bit character codes (0 127)
- Extended ASCII: 8-bit character codes (0 255)
- ♦ Unicode: 16-bit character codes (0 65,535)
- Unicode standard represents a universal character set · Defines codes for characters used in all major languages · Used in Windows-XP: each character is encoded as 16 bits
- UTF-8: variable-length encoding used in HTML · Encodes all Unicode characters

 - · Uses 1 byte for ASCII, but multiple bytes for other characters

Null-terminated String

Array of characters followed by a NULL character

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ASCII Codes



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ASCII code for space character = 20 (hex) = 32 (decimal) ASCII code for 'L' = 4C (hex) = 76 (decimal)

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ASCII code for 'a' = 61 (hex) = 97 (decimal)

Control Characters

- The first 32 characters of ASCII table are used for control
- Control character codes = 00 to 1F (hexadecimal) Not shown in previous slide
- Examples of Control Characters
 - ♦ Character 0 is the NULL character ⇒ used to terminate a string
 - Character 9 is the Horizontal Tab (HT) character
 - Character 0A (hex) = 10 (decimal) is the Line Feed (LF)
 - Character 0D (hex) = 13 (decimal) is the Carriage Return (CR)
 - The LF and CR characters are used together
 - · They advance the cursor to the beginning of next line
- One control character appears at end of ASCII table Character 7F (hex) is the Delete (DEL) character

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Unicode (Arabic)



~ *					~	~	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	~	-														-			a
EO	3	۵	y	η	ט	٣	2	P	٦	w	л						n	η	**	۰.	"												ľ
00																												+				ç	
20		ç	1	Î	3	Ţ	ы	Т	Ļ	6	Ć	ப்	ē	τ	έ	د	à	J	j	س	ځل	ص	ض	1	j,	٤	٤		۵		۵		
40	-	ف	ڧ	ك	δ	ĉ.	Ð	۰	و	ى	Ģ	*	-	5	1	1		•	•		1		۵			۵	۵						
60	٠	٦	٢	٣	٤	٥	٦	٧	٨	٩	χ		4	×	u	o	1	î	1	1	•	۴	ŝ	3	ŝ	۵	ù	ų	φ	Ċ	ų	ú	
80	ų	ź	È	ē	ε	ż	ē	ē	ŝ	J.	3	\$	ذ	,	à	ŝ	3	ŝ	Ĵ	ч	э.	2	J,	j	3	j	ŵ	сn	Ò	ص	ض	å	
A0	έ	u	ب	ف	ف	ڢ	ú	ق	ې	ک	ڪ	گ	ڭ	ڬ	أبً	گ	فى	گ	ڲؚ	ڳ	ػ	ð	ð	ð	ş	Ų	υ	ð	Q	ð	۵	ė	
C0	å	۰	ô	6	ړ	د	ě	ŝ	ł	3	ف	٤	ى	ъ	ŭ	و	Ģ	Ģ	۷	٤		۰	*	2	1	х	٤	•		0	٢		
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Unicode (Bengali)



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Binary data are typically transmitted between computers
Because of noise, a corrupted bit will change value

To detect errors, extra bits are added to each data value

Parity bit: is used to make the number of 1's odd or even

Even parity: number of 1's in the transmitted data is even

Odd parity: number of 1's in the transmitted data is odd

7-bit ASCII Character	With Even Parity	With Odd Parity
'A' = 1000001	0 1000001	1 1000001
'T' = 1010100	1 1010100	0 1010100

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		1 :::
	Detecting Errors	
Sender	7-bit ASCII character + 1 Parity bit Sent 'A' = 01000001, Received 'A' = 01000101	
Suppos	e we are transmitting 7-bit ASCII characters	
A parity	bit is added to each character to make it 8 bits	
 Parity c 	an detect all single-bit errors	
♦ If ever parity	en parity is used and a single bit changes, it will change the to odd, which will be detected at the receiver end	
♦ The n beca	eceiver end can detect the error, but cannot correct it use it does not know which bit is erroneous	

Can also detect some multiple-bit errors

♦ Error in an odd number of bits

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Hamming Code



1. Number the bits starting from 1: bit 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, etc.

- 2. Write the bit numbers in binary. 1, 10, 11, 100, 101, etc.
- 3. All bit positions that are powers of two (have only one 1 bit in the binary form of their position) are parity bits.
- All other bit positions, with two or more 1 bits in the binary form of their position, are data bits.
- Each data bit is included in a unique set of 2 or more parity bits, as determined by the binary form of its bit position.
- In general each parity bit covers all bits where the binary AND of the parity position and the bit position is non-zero.

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Hamming Code



- Parity bit 2 covers all bit positions which have the second least significant bit set: bit 2 (the parity bit itself), 3, 6, 7, 10, 11, etc.
- 3. Parity bit 4 covers all bit positions which have the third least significant bit set: bits 4–7, 12–15, 20–23, etc.
- Parity bit 8 covers all bit positions which have the fourth least significant bit set: bits 8–15, 24–31, 40– 47, etc.

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Example



Bittposi	Lion	1	2	з	4	5	6	7	6	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	16	19	20
Encod dete b	ed Ìts	e l	2 2	d1	Rd	d2	dð	da	26	dS	dē	47	dE	dR	d1 0	d 11	216	d12	d13	d14	d15
	RI.	x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x	
	r?		x	x			x	x			x	x			x	x			x	x	
Perity bit worage	Rđ				x	x	x	x					x	x	x	x					x
-	<u>8</u> 9								x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x					
	e16																x	x	x	х	x

Example											
	p ₁	p ₂	d ₁	p ₃	d ₂	d ₃	d ₄	p ₄	d ₅	d ₆	d ₇
Data word (without parity):			0		1	1	0		1	0	1
P ₁	1		0		1		0		1		1
P ₂		0	0			1	0			0	1
p ₃				0	1	1	0				
p ₄								0	1	0	1
Data word (with parity):	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1
Calculati	ion o	f Hai	mmir	ng co	ode p	arity	bits				
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Example

....



□We now assume the **final bit gets corrupted** and turned from **1 to 0**.

□Our new data word is "10001100100";

□How the Hamming codes were created we flag each parity bit as 1 when the even parity check fails.

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Examp	ole												
	p ₁	p ₂	d ₁	p ₃	d ₂	d ₃	d ₄	p4	d ₅	d ₆	d ₇	Parity check	Parity bit
Received data word:	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0		
p ₁	1		0		1		0		1		0	Fail	1
p ₂		0	0			1	0			0	0	Fail	1
p ₃				0	1	1	0					Pass	0
p ₄								0	1	0	0	Fail	1
	. (Chec	king	of pa	rity t	bits (s	witcl	hed t	it hig	hligh	nted)		

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Example



 $\succ \mbox{The final step is to evaluate the value of the parity bits}$

≻It goes furthest to the right

≻The integer value of the parity **bits is 11**, signifying that the **11th bit** in the data word (including parity bits) is **wrong** and needs to be **flipped**.

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Example

	p4	p ₃	p ₂	p ₁	
Binary	1	0	1	1	
Decimal	8		2	1	Σ = 11

Flipping the 11th bit changes 10001100100 back into 10001100101. Removing the Hamming codes gives the original data word of 0110101.

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Warning: Conv	version or Coding?	•••
Do NOT mix up conversion number with coding a deep number with coding a deep	on of a decimal number to a binar cimal number with a binary code	у
✤ 13 ₁₀ = (1101) ₂	This is conversion	
♦ 13 ⇔ (0001 0011) _{BCD}	This is coding	
In general, coding require	es more bits than conversion	
A number with <i>n</i> decimal	digits is coded with 4n bits in BCI	D

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How Much Memory?



- Memory is purchased in bits -
 - How many bits do I need if I want to distinguish between 8 colors?
 - How many bits do I need if I want to represent 16 million different colors?

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How Much Memory?



How many bits do I need if I want to distinguish between 8 colors?

 $2^{x-1} < 8 \le 2^{x}$ x = 3 (3 bits are needed)

How many bits do I need if I want to represent 16 million different colors?

 $2^{x-1} < 16$ million $<= 2^{x}$ $16M = 1Mx16 = 2^{20}x2^{4} = 2^{24}$ x = 24 (24 bits are needed)

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