

# Systems I: Computer Organization and Architecture

## Lecture 2: Number Systems and Arithmetic

### Number Systems - Base 10

The number system that we use is base 10:

$$\begin{aligned}1734 &= 1000 + 700 + 30 + 4 \\ &= 1 \times 1000 + 7 \times 100 + 3 \times 10 + 4 \times 1 \\ &= 1 \times 10^3 + 7 \times 10^2 + 3 \times 10^1 + 4 \times 10^0\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}724.5 &= 7 \times 100 + 2 \times 10 + 4 \times 1 + 5 \times 0.1 \\ &= 7 \times 10^2 + 2 \times 10^1 + 4 \times 10^0 + 5 \times 10^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

Why use base 10?

## Number Systems - Base 2

For computers, base 2 is more convenient (why?)

$$10011_2 = 1 \times 16 + 0 \times 8 + 0 \times 4 + 1 \times 2 + 1 \times 1 = 19_{10}$$

$$100010_2 = 1 \times 32 + 0 \times 16 + 0 \times 8 + 0 \times 4 + 1 \times 2 + 0 \times 1 = 34_{10}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 101.001_2 &= 1 \times 4 + 0 \times 2 + 1 \times 1 + 0 \times 0.5 + 0 \times 0.25 + 1 \times 0.125 \\ &= 5.125_{10} \end{aligned}$$

Example -  $1101011_2 = ?$

$$10110111_2 = ?$$

$$10100.1101_2 = ?$$

## Number Systems - Base 16

Hexadecimal (base 16) numbers are commonly used because it is convert them into binary (base 2) and vice versa.

$$\begin{aligned} 8CE_{16} &= 8 \times 256 + 12 \times 16 + 14 \times 1 \\ &= 2048 + 192 + 14 \\ &= 2254 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 3F9 &= 3 \times 256 + 15 \times 16 + 9 \times 1 \\ &= 768 + 240 + 9 = 1017 \end{aligned}$$

## Number Systems - Base 16 (continued)

Base 2 is easily converted into base 16:

$$100011001110_2 = 1000 \ 1100 \ 1110 = 8 \ C \ E_{16}$$

$$11101101110101001_2 = 1 \ 1101 \ 1011 \ 1010 \ 1001 = 1 \ D \ B \ A \ 9_{16}$$

$$10110001010000010111_2 = ?_{16}$$

$$101101010010111011_2 = ?_{16}$$

## Number Systems - Base 16 (continued)

Converting base 16 into base 2 works the same way:

$$F3A5_{16} = 1111 \ 0011 \ 1010 \ 0101_2$$

$$76EF_{16} = 0111 \ 0110 \ 1110 \ 1111_2$$

$$AB3D_{16} = ?_2$$

$$15C.38_{16} = ?_2$$

## Number Systems – Base 8

Octal (base 8) numbers used to be commonly used because it is convert them into binary (base 2) and vice versa.

However, the absence of 8 and 9 is not obvious enough and they were frequently mistaken for decimal values.

$$\begin{aligned}4316_8 &= 4 \times 8^3 + 3 \times 8^2 + 1 \times 8^1 + 6 \times 8^0 \\ &= 4 \times 512 + 3 \times 64 + 1 \times 8 + 6 \times 1 \\ &= 2048 + 192 + 8 + 6 \\ &= 2254_{10}\end{aligned}$$

## Number Systems - Base 8 (continued)

Base 2 is easily converted into base 8:

$$100011001110_2 = 100\ 011\ 001\ 110 = 4\ 3\ 1\ 6_8$$

$$11101101110101001_2 = 11\ 101\ 101\ 110\ 101\ 001 = 355651_8$$

$$10110001010000010111_2 = ?_8$$

$$101101010010111011_2 = ?_8$$

## Number Systems - Base 8 (continued)

Converting base 8 into base 2 works the same way:

$$36351_8 = 11\ 110\ 011\ 101\ 001\ 01_2$$

$$73357_8 = 111\ 011\ 011\ 101\ 111_2$$

$$2436_8 = ?_2$$

$$1573_8 = ?_2$$

## Converting From Decimal to Binary

		19				
		9	R	1		
		4	R	1		
		2	R	0		
		1	R	0		
		0	R	1		

$10011_2$

↑

### Converting From Decimal to Hexadecimal

$$\begin{array}{r} 16 \overline{) 237} \\ \underline{14 \text{ R } 13} \\ 0 \text{ R } 14 \end{array} \quad \xrightarrow{\text{ED}_{16}}$$

### Converting From Decimal to Octal

$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \overline{) 237} \\ \underline{29 \text{ R } 5} \\ \underline{3 \text{ R } 5} \\ 0 \text{ R } 3 \end{array} \quad \xrightarrow{355_8}$$

## Binary, Octal, Decimal and Hexadecimal Equivalents

Binary	Decimal	Octal	Hex.	Binary	Decimal	Octal	Hex.
0000	0	0	0	1000	8	10	8
0001	1	1	1	1001	9	11	9
0010	2	2	2	1010	10	12	A
0011	3	3	3	1011	11	13	B
0100	4	4	4	1100	12	14	C
0101	5	5	5	1101	13	15	D
0110	6	6	6	1110	14	16	E
0111	7	7	7	1111	15	17	F

## Addition of Binary Numbers

$$\begin{array}{r}
 C \\
 X \quad 190 \\
 \underline{Y \quad + 141} \\
 X+Y \quad 331
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 101111000 \\
 101111110 \\
 + 10001101 \\
 \hline
 101001011
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 C \\
 X \quad 127 \\
 \underline{Y \quad + 63} \\
 X+Y \quad 190
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 011111110 \\
 011111111 \\
 + 001111111 \\
 \hline
 101111110
 \end{array}$$

## Addition of Binary Numbers (continued)

<i>C</i>		<i>001011000</i>
X	174	10101101
<u>Y</u>	+ 44	+ 00101100
X+Y	217	<u>11011001</u>

<i>C</i>		<i>000000000</i>
X	170	10101010
<u>Y</u>	+ 85	+ 01010101
X+Y	255	<u>11111111</u>

## Addition of Hexadecimal Numbers

<i>C</i>	<i>1100</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>
X	19B9 <sub>16</sub>	1	9	11	9
<u>Y</u>	C7E6 <sub>16</sub>	12	7	14	6
X+Y	E19F <sub>16</sub>	14	17	25	15
		14	16+1	16+9	15
		E	1	9	F



# Complements

There are several different ways in which we can represent negative numbers:

- Signed-Magnitude Representation
- 1s Complement Representation
- 2s Complement Representation

## Signed-Magnitude Representation

- In signed-magnitude representation, the sign bit is set to '1' if negative and cleared to '0' if positive:

$$\begin{array}{r} 6 \\ +13 \\ \hline 19 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} 00000110 \\ 00001101 \\ \hline 00010011 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} -6 \\ + +13 \\ + 7 \\ \hline \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{r} 10000110 \\ 00001101 \\ \hline 10010011 \quad (= -19) \end{array}$$

## 1s Complement Representation

- In signed-magnitude representation, the sign bit is set to '1' if negative and the other bits are also reversed.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 6 \\
 +13 \\
 \hline
 19
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 00000110 \\
 \underline{00001101} \\
 00010011
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 -6 \\
 + +13 \\
 \hline
 +7
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 11111001 \\
 \underline{00001101} \\
 00000110 \quad (= +6)
 \end{array}$$

overflow bit  $\nearrow$  1

## 2s Complement Representation

- In 2s complement representation, we subtract the absolute value from  $2^n$ :

$$\begin{array}{r}
 10000000 \\
 \underline{00000110} \\
 11111010
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 -6 \\
 + +13 \\
 \hline
 +7
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 11111010 \\
 \underline{00001101} \\
 00000111 \quad (= +7)
 \end{array}$$

1

## 2s Complement Representation (continued)

- The 2s complement representation can also be found by reversing the bits (into 1s complement) and then adding 1:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 6 \Rightarrow 00000110 \Rightarrow 11111001 \\
 + \quad \quad \quad 1 \\
 \hline
 11111010
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 43 \Rightarrow 00101011 \Rightarrow 11010100 \\
 + \quad \quad \quad 1 \\
 \hline
 11010101
 \end{array}$$

## Overflow

- If an addition operation produces a result that exceeds our number system's range, **overflow** has occurred.
- Addition of two numbers of the same sign produces overflow; addition two numbers of opposite sign cannot cause overflow.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 -3 \quad 1101 \\
 +6 \quad \underline{0110} \\
 +3 \quad 1\ 0011 = +3
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 +5 \quad 0101 \\
 +6 \quad \underline{0110} \\
 +11 \quad 1011 = -5
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 -8 \quad 1000 \\
 -8 \quad \underline{1000} \\
 -16 \quad 1\ 0000 = 0
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 +7 \quad 0111 \\
 +7 \quad \underline{0111} \\
 +14 \quad 1110 = -2
 \end{array}$$

## Subtraction

- Subtraction works in a similar fashion, but the borrow (an initial carry bit) is a '1':

$$\begin{array}{r}
 +4 \quad 0100 \\
 - +3 \quad - \quad 0011 \\
 \hline
 +1
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 \phantom{+4} \quad 0100 \\
 \phantom{- +3} \quad - \quad 0011 \\
 \hline
 +1100 \\
 \hline
 1 \ 0001
 \end{array}$$

*I* ← *initial carry*

$$\begin{array}{r}
 +3 \quad 0011 \\
 - +4 \quad - \quad 0100 \\
 \hline
 -1
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 \phantom{+3} \quad 0011 \\
 \phantom{- +4} \quad - \quad 0100 \\
 \hline
 +1011 \\
 \hline
 1 \ 0001
 \end{array}$$

*I*

## Subtraction (continued)

$$\begin{array}{r}
 +3 \quad 0011 \\
 - -4 \quad - \quad 1100 \\
 \hline
 -7
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 \phantom{+3} \quad 0011 \\
 \phantom{- -4} \quad - \quad 1100 \\
 \hline
 +0011 \\
 \hline
 0111
 \end{array}$$

*I*

$$\begin{array}{r}
 -3 \quad 1011 \\
 - -4 \quad - \quad 1100 \\
 \hline
 -1
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 \phantom{-3} \quad 1011 \\
 \phantom{- -4} \quad - \quad 1100 \\
 \hline
 +0011 \\
 \hline
 1111
 \end{array}$$

*I*

## Binary Multiplication

- Multiplication is repeated addition of the multiplicand, where the number of additions depends on the multiplier:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 11 \\
 \times 13 \\
 \hline
 33 \\
 11 \\
 \hline
 143
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 1011 \leftarrow \text{multiplicand} \\
 1101 \leftarrow \text{multiplier} \\
 1011 \\
 0000 \\
 1011 \\
 1011 \\
 \hline
 10001111 \leftarrow \text{product}
 \end{array}$$

*shifted multiplicands*

## Partial Product Method

- It is more convenient to add each shifted multiplicand as it is created to a ***partial product***:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1011 \qquad 11 \\
 \times 1101 \qquad \times 13 \\
 \hline
 \text{partial} \rightarrow 0000 \\
 \text{products} \rightarrow 1011 \\
 \qquad \rightarrow 01011 \\
 \qquad \rightarrow 0000 \\
 \qquad \rightarrow 001011 \\
 \qquad \rightarrow 1011 \\
 \qquad \rightarrow 0110111 \\
 \qquad \rightarrow 1011 \\
 \hline
 \mathbf{10001111}
 \end{array}$$

*shifted multiplicands*

### Partial Product Method – Another Example

$$\begin{array}{r}
 -5 \qquad 1011 \\
 \times -3 \quad \underline{1101} \\
 \qquad 00000 \\
 \qquad 11011 \\
 \qquad \underline{111011} \\
 \qquad 00000 \\
 \qquad \underline{1111011} \\
 \qquad 11011 \\
 \qquad \underline{11100111} \\
 \qquad 00101 \\
 \qquad \underline{\mathbf{00001111}}
 \end{array}$$

*shifted multiplicand*  
*shifted and negated multiplicand*

### Binary Division

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \qquad 10011 \\
 1011 \overline{) 11011001} \\
 \underline{1011} \\
 0101 \\
 \underline{0000} \\
 1010 \\
 \underline{0000} \\
 10100 \\
 \underline{1011} \\
 10011 \\
 \underline{1011} \\
 1000 \\
 \underline{\qquad 0000} \\
 1000
 \end{array}$$

*reduced divisor*      *shifted divisor*      *remainder*

## Binary Representation of Decimal Numbers

<u>Decimal Digit</u>	<u>BCD (8421)</u>	<u>2421</u>	<u>Excess-3</u>
0	0000	0000	0011
1	0001	0001	0100
2	0010	0010	0101
3	0011	0011	0110
4	0100	0100	0111
5	0101	1011	1000
6	0110	1100	1001
7	0111	1101	1010
8	1000	1110	1011
9	1001	1111	1100

## Floating Point Representations

- The floating point representation of a number has two part: fraction and an exponent:  
 $+6132.789 = +0.6132789 \times 10^4$
- In general, a number can be expressed as  
 $m \times r^e$   
where m is the mantissa, r is the radix and e is the exponent.
- Because we know that computer always use binary numbers (radix = 2), only m and e need to be represented.
- Therefore, we can represent 1001.11 using m = 01001110 and e = 000100 (because  $1011.11 = +0.101111 \times 2^4$ )

## Floating Point Representations (continued)

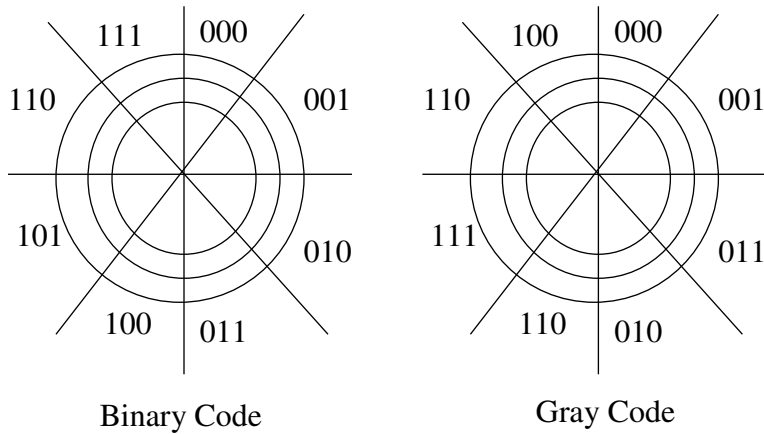
- A floating-point number is ***normalized*** if the most significant place in the mantissa is nonzero.
  - 350 is normalized
  - 00035 is not normalized.
  - 00011010 is not normalized, but 11010000 is normalized; this requires changing the exponent to 4.
- The standard method of storing exponent is excess-64, where
  - an exponent of 1000000 is zero
  - an exponent of 1000011 is positive
  - an exponent of 0110100 is negative.

## Gray Codes

- Sometimes electromechanical applications of digital systems (machine tools, automotive brake systems and copiers) require a digital value that indicates a mechanical position.
- A standard binary code may see more than one bit change from one position to another, which could lead to an incorrect reading if mechanical assembly is imperfect.



## Binary Code vs. Gray Code



## ASCII representation of characters

- ASCII (*American Standard Code for Information Interchange*) is a numeric code used to represent characters.
- All characters are represented this way including:
  - words (character strings)
  - numbers
  - punctuation
  - control characters
- There are separate values for upper case and lower case characters:

A	65	z	122
B	66	<i>blank</i>	32
Z	90	\$	52
a	97	0	48
b	98	9	57

## Control Codes

- ASCII (a 7-bit code) has  $2^7 = 128$  values.
- We only need 62 for alphanumeric characters. Even after accounting for common punctuation, there are far more available code values than we need. What do we use them for?
- Control codes include DEL (for delete), NUL (for null), STX (Start of Text), CR (for carriage return), etc.

## Error Detection Codes

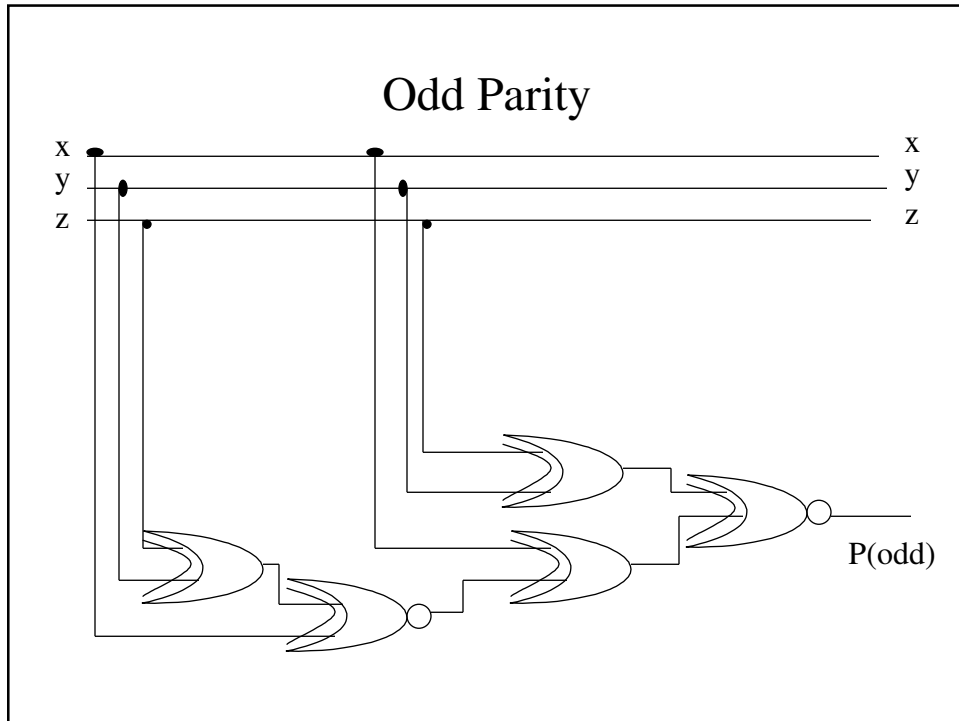
- An error is a corruption of the data from its correct state.
- There are several codes that allow use to detect an error. These include:
  - Parity
  - CRC
  - Checksum

## Parity

- Parity is an extra bit appended to our data which indicates whether the data bits add up to an even (for even parity) or odd (for odd parity) value.

## Parity Generation

<u>Message (xyz)</u>	<u>P(odd)</u>	<u>P(even)</u>
000	1	0
001	0	1
010	1	0
011	0	1
100	1	0
101	0	1
110	1	0
111	0	1



## CRC

- CRC (*Cyclic Redundancy Check*) – is an error detecting code.
- CRC can spot single-bit errors as well as clustered error.

## Checksum

- Checksum codes involve adding bytes modulo 256.
- This allows checksums to spot one-byte errors.
- Checksums can use other modulus which would allow for spotting different errors as well.