

Unit 2. Digital encoding

Digital Electronic Circuits
E.T.S.I. Informática
Universidad de Sevilla

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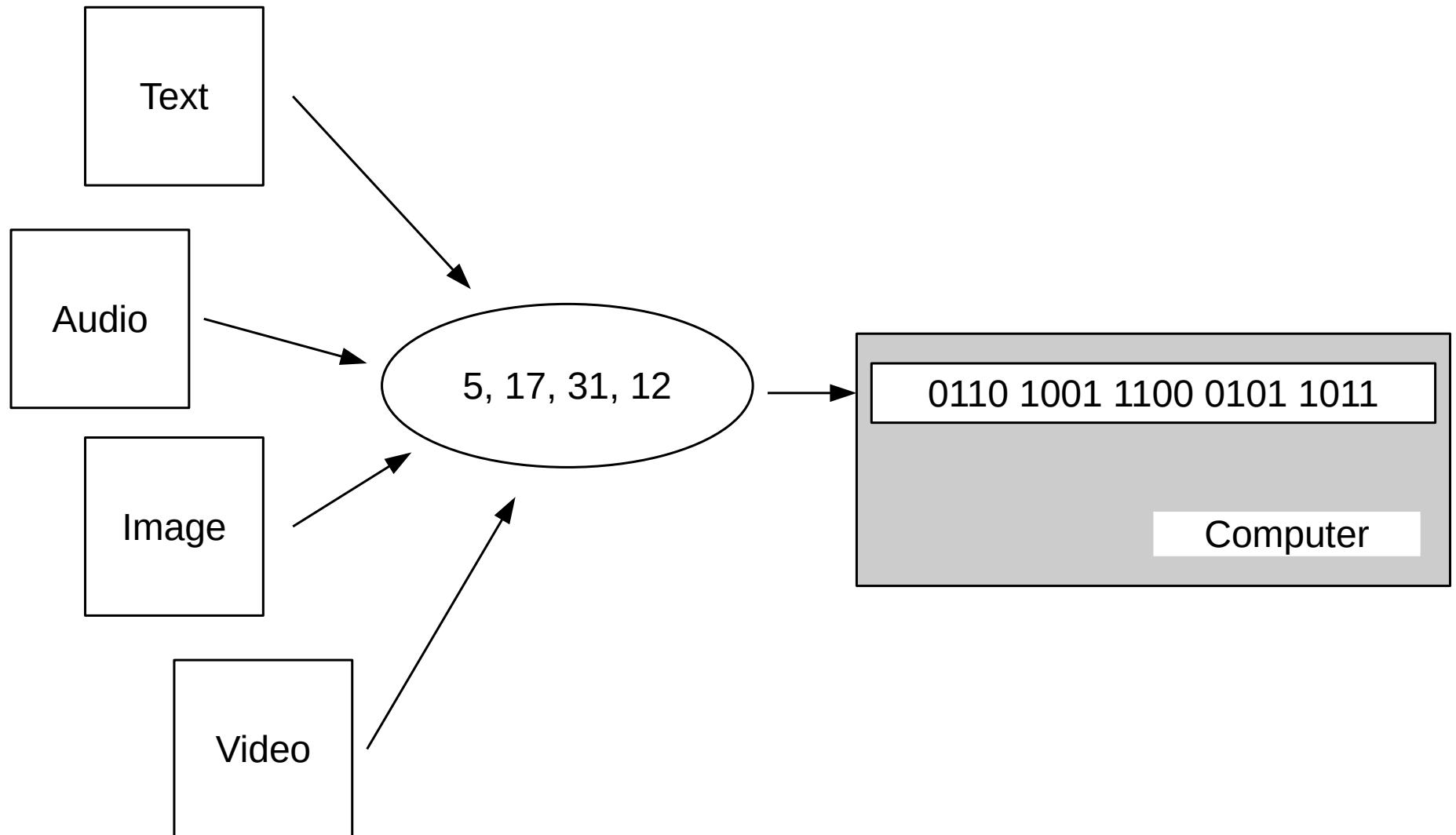
Skills

- Express byte quantities using standards.
- Represent any integer or fractional number in any base.
- Directly transform number representation between base 2 and bases 8 and 16.
- Represent decimal number in BCD encoding and vice-versa.
- Calculate the parity of a binary word and calculate the parity bit to make a define parity.
- Build the Gray code table of any number of bits.
- Calculate the raw size of image and audio data for a known set of codification parameters.

Recommended readings and exercises

- Recommended
 - LaMeres 2.1 and 2.2: Positional number systems and base conversion.
- Reference (to know more)
 - Parity bit ([wikipedia](#))
 - Character encoding ([wikipedia](#))
 - ASCII ([wikipedia](#))
 - Unicode ([wikipedia](#))
 - Raster graphics (Bitmaps) ([wikipedia](#))
 - Pulse-code modulation –PCM– ([wikipedia](#))
- Extra exercises from the course's collection (in Spanish)
 - Unit 1, 1 to 6

Digital encoding



Digital units

- BIT (b) (BInary digiT)
 - Symbol in the set {0,1}.
 - Minimum information unit.
- Word
 - Set of 'n' bits, typically 8, 16, 32 or 64.
 - Computers work with a whole word at a time.
- Nibble (who cares?)
 - 4 bit word.
- Byte (B)
 - 8 bit word.
 - Basic practical information unit in Information Technology (IT).

Digital units

- Tradition: IS units with slightly changed meaning (powers of 2 instead of 10)
- Non-uniform use of digital units:
 - Diskette: $1.44\text{MB} = 1000 \text{ KB} = 1000 \times 1024 \text{B}$
 - Disc $160\text{GB} = 160000 \text{ MB} = 160 \times 1000 \times 1024 \times 1024 \text{B}$
 - DVD $4.7\text{GB} = 4700\text{MB} = 4.7 \times 1000 \times 1024 \times 1024 \text{B}$
- There is a (not very used) standard for binary units:
 - IEC, IEEE-1541-2002

SI		Binary	IEC	
kilo	k	10^3	2^{10}	kibi
mega	M	10^6	2^{20}	mebi
giga	G	10^9	2^{30}	gibi
tera	T	10^{12}	2^{40}	tebi
peta	P	10^{15}	2^{50}	pebi
exa	E	10^{18}	2^{60}	exbi
zetta	Z	10^{21}	2^{70}	zebi

Positional number system and binary numbers

- Decimal system:
 - 10 symbols {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9}
 - Base 10

$$1327 = 1 \times 10^3 + 3 \times 10^2 + 2 \times 10^1 + 7 \times 10^0$$

Weight:	1000	100	10	1	
Symbol:	1	3	2	7	
Value:	1000	300	20	7	

→ 1327

Positional number system and binary numbers

- Binary system:
 - 2 symbols {0,1}
 - Base 2

$$1101 = 1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0$$

Weight:	8	4	2	1	
Symbol:	1	1	0	1	
Value:	8	4	0	1	→ 13

Positional number system and binary numbers

- In general
 - Magnitude x
 - Base b
 - n figures: $\{x_i\}$

$$x = x_{n-1} \times b^{n-1} + \dots + x_1 \times b^1 + x_0 \times b^0$$

Maximum representable number: $b^n - 1$

Base 'b' to base '10' conversion

- Simply by applying the formula
 - Ej: $234_{(7)}$

$$x = x_{n-1} \times b^{n-1} + \dots + x_1 \times b^1 + x_0 \times b^0$$

Base '10' to base 'b' conversion

- Successive division by the target base
 - Successive reminders are the base-n figures from less significant to most significant

$$123_{(10)} \rightarrow 234_{(7)}$$

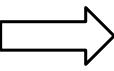
$$\begin{array}{r} 1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad | \quad 7 \\ \hline 5 \quad 3 \quad 1 \quad 7 \quad | \quad 7 \\ \hline \boxed{4} \quad \boxed{3} \quad \boxed{2} \end{array}$$

Fast conversion using a weights chart

8-bit base 2 example

Starting at 128,
place 1's to sum up
the desired number.

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

 $165_{(10)}$ 

1 0 1 0 0 1 0 1

Copy the bits.

 $10100101_{(2)}$

Move the bits
under the chart.

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

 $01001110_{(2)}$ 

0 1 0 0 1 1 1 0

Sum up the
weights with 1's.

 $78_{(10)}$

Octal and hexadecimal

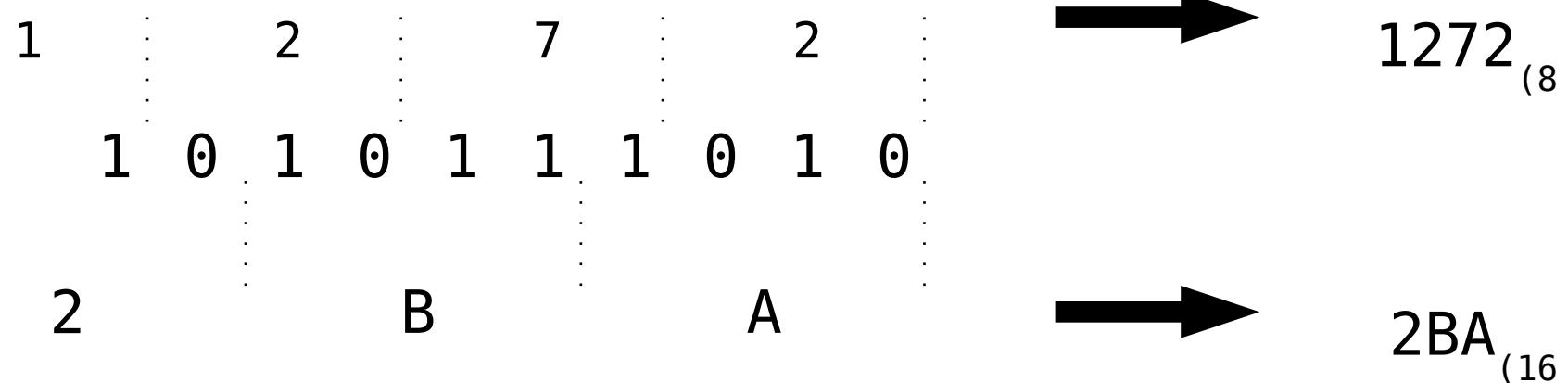
- Base 8 (octal):
 - {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7}
- Base 16 (hexadecimal):
 - {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F}
- Compact way to represent binary numbers
 - 1 octal figure = 3 binary figures
 - 1 hexadecimal figure = 4 binary figures

Octal and hexadecimal

B-8	B-2
0	000
1	001
2	010
3	011
4	100
5	101
6	110
7	111

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

Octal and hexadecimal



$$2BA_{(16)} = 2BA_h = 2BA_{\text{hex}} = \#2BA = \$2BA = 0x2BA = 10'h2BA$$

Hexadecimal is very compact and converting to binary is straightforward. That's why you will nor normally see computers printing binary numbers even in low-level routines. E.g. try 'dmesg | less' in a Linux terminal.

Example: Working with number bases in Python

```
$ python3

>>> x = 215
>>> hex(x)          # hexadecimal rep.
'0xd7'
>>> bin(x)          # base 2 rep.
'0b11010111'

>>> y = 0b1011      # binary value
>>> y
11
>>> z = 0x2c        # hexadecimal value
>>> z
44

>>> x + y
226
>>> hex(x+y)
'0xe2'
>>> bin(x+y)
'0b11100010'

>>> x - z
171
>>> hex(x-z)
'0xab'
>>> bin(x-z)
'0b10101011'
```

```
>>> int('321',7)      # base 7
162

# 321(7 + 121(3
>>> x = int('321',7) + int('212',3)

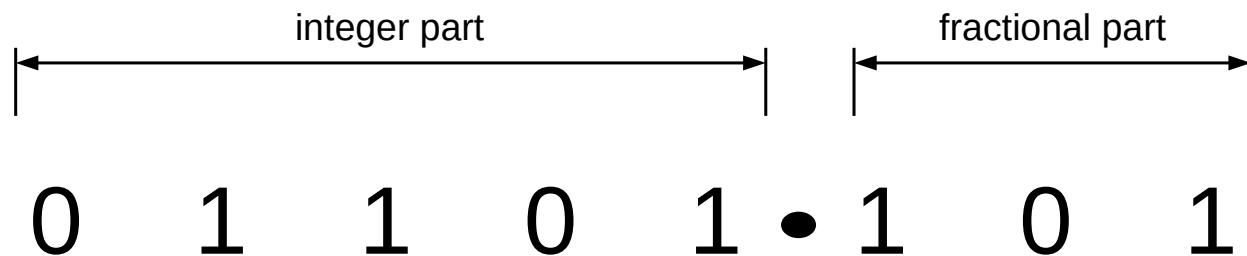
>>> x
185
>>> hex(x)
'0xb9'
>>> bin(x)
'0b10111001'

# base n representation?

>>> from numpy import base_repr
>>> x = 52
>>> base_repr(x, 2)
'110100'
>>> base_repr(x, 3)
'1221'
>>> base_repr(x, 4)
'310'
>>> base_repr(x, 5)
'202'
>>> base_repr(x, 6)
'124'
>>> base_repr(x, 7)
'103'
```

“Real” numbers

$$x = x_{n-1} \times b^{n-1} + \dots + x_0 \times b^0 + x_{-1} \times b^{-1} + \dots + x_{-m} \times b^{-m}$$



“Real” numbers base conversion

- Base b to base 10 conversion
 - Directly: just operate in base 10.

$$10,101_2 = 1 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0 + 1 \times 2^{-1} + 0 \times 2^{-2} + 1 \times 2^{-3}$$
$$2 + 1/2 + 1/8 = 2,625_{10}$$

- Base 10 to base b:
 - Integer part: like integer numbers
 - Fractional part: successive multiplication by the target base. Take the integer part of the result.

“Real” numbers base conversion

- Example: $12,3_{(10)}$
 - $12_{(10)} = 1100_{(2)}$
 - $0,3 \times 2 = 0,6 \rightarrow "0"$
 - $0,6 \times 2 = 1,2 \rightarrow "1"$
 - $0,2 \times 2 = 0,4 \rightarrow "0"$
 - $0,4 \times 2 = 0,8 \rightarrow "0"$
 - $0,8 \times 2 = 1,6 \rightarrow "1"$
 - $0,6 \times 2 = 1,2 \rightarrow "1"$ (first repeated bit)
- $12,3_{(10)} = 1100,0100110011001\dots_{(2)} = 1100,0\overline{1001}_{(2)}$

A number with finite decimal digits in one base may have infinite decimal digits in another base!

“Real” numbers. Some interesting questions (a bit advanced)

- When you get infinite decimals after a conversion, will decimals always repeat periodically?
 - Clue: can a “rational” number become “irrational” after a conversion?
- How do you convert a number with infinite (but periodic) decimals?
 - Clue: starting with an equivalent fraction may be useful here.
- Can you tell in advance if a number will have a finite or infinite number of decimals in a base before converting to it?
 - Clue: equivalent fraction are also useful here.

Fixed point and floating point

- Fixed point real number
 - The number of bits used for the fractional part is fixed.
 - Not good for very big and very small numbers.
- Floating point real numbers
 - The position of the decimal point is determined by an exponent and a significand.
 - Very similar to the scientific notation for numbers.
 - The significand and exponent are stored with a fixed number of bits.
- Most computers use the IEEE 754 standard for floating point
 - 16 to 128 bit formats
 - Can use base 2 or base 10
 - Can represent “infinite” and “zero with sign”.

[Wikipedia](#)

$$\text{number} = \text{significand} \times \text{base}^{\text{exponent}}$$

“Real” numbers and digital systems

- In a digital system the number of available bits is always limited, so there are many numbers that cannot be exactly represented in base 2 even if they can be represented in base 10.
- It is a potential source of severe errors even at the software level.
- E.g.: representing 12,3 with an 8-bit limit:

$$12,3_{10} = 1100,0\widehat{1001}_2 \approx 1100,0100_2 = 12,25_{10}$$

In fact, a binary digital system can only store a subset of real numbers using base 2 representation: rational numbers that can be represented with finite digits in base 2.

“Real” numbers and digital systems

```
$ python3

>>> x = 12.3      # this value is internally stored in b. 2
>>> y = 3 * x    # operations take place in b. 2
>>> z = y / 3

>>> x == z        # !?
False

>>> z - x
1.7763568394002505e-15

>>> from decimal import Decimal

>>> Decimal(x)    # b.10 representation of the value in x
Decimal('12.3000000000000710542735760100185871124267578125')
>>> Decimal(z)
Decimal('12.30000000000024868995751603506505489349365234375')

>>> if x != z:    # kabooooom!
...     print("Destroy the world!!!")
...
Destroy the world!!!
```

Never check if a real number is exactly the same as another real number: they are probably not even if you think they should.

Binary codes

- Assignment of binary values to a set of symbols
 - Numbers, characters, colors, etc.
- Usually, fixed width words (e.g. 8 bits) but not always.
- Code assignment seeks good properties
 - Similar codes for adjacent numbers.
 - Similar codes for similar colors.
 - Similar codes for lower and upper-case letters.
 - Etc.
- Not all binary words need to have a corresponding symbol assigned.

Natural binary code

- Natural integer coding using base-2 binary numbers

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

Gray code

Number	1 bit	2 bits	3 bits	4 bits
0	0	00	000	0000
1	1	01	001	0001
2		11	011	0011
3		10	010	0010
4			110	0110
5			111	0111
6			101	0101
7			100	0100
8				1100
9				1101
10				1111
11				1110
...				...

- Code positive integers.
- Consecutive symbols only differ in one bit (distance 1).
- The n-bit code is built by reflecting the n-1-bit code

One-hot code

Number	Código
0	00000001
1	00000010
2	00000100
3	00001000
4	00010000
5	00100000
6	01000000
7	10000000

- Code words with only one bit set to '1'
- Pros:
 - Easy to decode.
 - Allow for error detection.
- Cons:
 - Number of bits = number of symbols to code.
 - May use too many bits.

BCD codes (*Binary Coding Decimal*)

- Binary coding of base-10 digits

Digit	natural	excess-3	2-4-2-1	2-out-of-5	7 segm. abcdefg	a	b	c	d	e	f
0	0000	0011	0000	00011	1111110						
1	0001	0100	0001	00101	0110000						
2	0010	0101	0010	00110	1101101						
3	0011	0110	0011	01001	1111001						
4	0100	0111	0100	01010	0110011						
5	0101	1000	1011	01100	1011011						
6	0110	1001	1100	10001	1011111						
7	0111	1010	1101	10010	1110000						
8	1000	1011	1110	10100	1111111						
9	1001	1100	1111	11000	1110011						

Parity bit

- The parity of a binary word is “even”/“odd” if the number of bits set to “1” is even/odd.
- Parity bit: additional bit added to a code to achieve a determined parity, even or odd

E.g. natural binary code with
“even” leading parity bit.

Number	Code
0	0000
1	1001
2	1010
3	0011
4	1100
5	0101
6	0110
7	1111

Text encoding

- Binary encoding of text symbols or 'characters'.
- Include graphical and control symbols:
 - new line, tab, end of file, etc.
- There are many text “encodings” around for historical and technical reasons.
- Evolution
 - ASCII (1967)
 - One of the first standards. Used in teletypes, etc.
 - ISO/IEC 8859-X (1987-2000)
 - 8-bit extensions to ASCII (compatibility).
 - Different encodings for different language families.
 - Unicode –ISO/IEC 10646– (1991)
 - Universal encoding for all languages

ASCII

0 00 NUL	32 20 SPC	64 40 @	96 60 `
1 01 SOH	33 21 !	65 41 A	97 61 a
2 02 STX	34 22 "	66 42 B	98 62 b
3 03 ETX	35 23 #	67 43 C	99 63 c
4 04 EOT	36 24 \$	68 44 D	100 64 d
5 05 ENQ	37 25 %	69 45 E	101 65 e
6 06 ACK	38 26 &	70 46 F	102 66 f
7 07 BEL	39 27 '	71 47 G	103 67 g
8 08 BS	40 28 (72 48 H	104 68 h
9 09 HT	41 29)	73 49 I	105 69 i
10 0A LF	42 2A *	74 4A J	106 6A j
11 0B VT	43 2B +	75 4B K	107 6B k
12 0C FF	44 2C ,	76 4C L	108 6C l
13 0D CR	45 2D -	77 4D M	109 6D m
14 0E SO	46 2E .	78 4E N	110 6E n
15 0F SI	47 2F /	79 4F O	111 6F o
16 10 DLE	48 30 0	80 50 P	112 70 p
17 11 DC1	49 31 1	81 51 Q	113 71 q
18 12 DC2	50 32 2	82 52 R	114 72 r
19 13 DC3	51 33 3	83 53 S	115 73 s
20 14 DC4	52 34 4	84 54 T	116 74 t
21 15 NAK	53 35 5	85 55 U	117 75 u
22 16 SYN	54 36 6	86 56 V	118 76 v
23 17 ETB	55 37 7	87 57 W	119 77 w
24 18 CAN	56 38 8	88 58 X	120 78 x
25 19 EM	57 39 9	89 59 Y	121 79 y
26 1A SUB	58 3A :	90 5A Z	122 7A z
27 1B ESC	59 3B ;	91 5B [123 7B {
28 1C FS	60 3C <	92 5C \	124 7C
29 1D GS	61 3D =	93 5D]	125 7D }
30 1E RS	62 3E >	94 5E ^	126 7E ~
31 1F US	63 3F ?	95 5F _	127 7F DEL

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ASCII>

ISO/IEC-8859-15

ISO-8859-15																
	x0	x1	x2	x3	x4	x5	x6	x7	x8	x9	xA	xB	xC	xD	xE	xF
0x	NUL	SOH	STX	ETX	EOT	ENQ	ACK	BEL	BS	HT	LF	VT	FF	CR	SO	SI
1x	DLE	DC1	DC2	DC3	DC4	NAK	SYN	ETB	CAN	EM	SUB	ESC	FS	GS	RS	US
2x	SP	!	"	#	\$	%	&	'	()	*	+	,	-	.	/	
3x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	:	;	<	=	>	?
4x	@	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O
5x	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	[\	^	_	
6x	'	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o
7x	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z	{		}	~	DEL
8x	PAD	HOP	BPH	NBH	IND	NEL	SSA	ESA	HTS	HTI	VTS	PLD	PLU	RI	SS2	SS3
9x	DCS	PU1	PU2	STS	CCH	MW	SPA	EPA	SOS	SGCI	SCI	CSI	ST	OSC	PM	APC
Ax	NBSP	i	¢	£	€	¥	Š	§	š	©	¤	«	¬	SHY	®	-
Bx	º	±	²	³	Ž	µ	¶	·	ž	¹	º	»	Œ	œ	Ÿ	¿
Cx	À	Á	Â	Ã	Ä	Å	Æ	Ç	È	É	Ê	Ë	Ì	Í	Î	Ï
Dx	Đ	Ñ	Ò	Ó	Ô	Ö	Ö	×	Ø	Ù	Ú	Û	Ü	Ý	Þ	ß
Ex	à	á	â	ã	ä	å	æ	ç	è	é	ê	ë	ì	í	î	ï
Fx	ð	ñ	ò	ó	ô	õ	ö	÷	ø	ù	ú	û	ü	ý	þ	ÿ

ASCII control codes

- Initially used in teletypes (many of them are not in use anymore).
- Used for:
 - Format: space, tab, end of line, etc.
 - Control: end of transmission, end of text, etc.
- Present in (raw) text documents and in terminals.
 - Terminal: introduced with $\text{Ctrl}+\langle\text{letter}\rangle$ ($^{\wedge}\langle\text{letter}\rangle$)
- Examples
 - ETX ($^{\wedge}\text{C}$): end of text
 - EOT ($^{\wedge}\text{D}$): end of transmission
 - BEL ($^{\wedge}\text{G}$): bel
 - BS ($^{\wedge}\text{H}$): back space
 - HT ($^{\wedge}\text{I}$): horizontal tab
 - LF ($^{\wedge}\text{J}$): line feed
 - CR ($^{\wedge}\text{M}$): carriage return
 - DEL ($^{\wedge}\text{?}$): delete

ISO/IEC 10646 (Unicode)

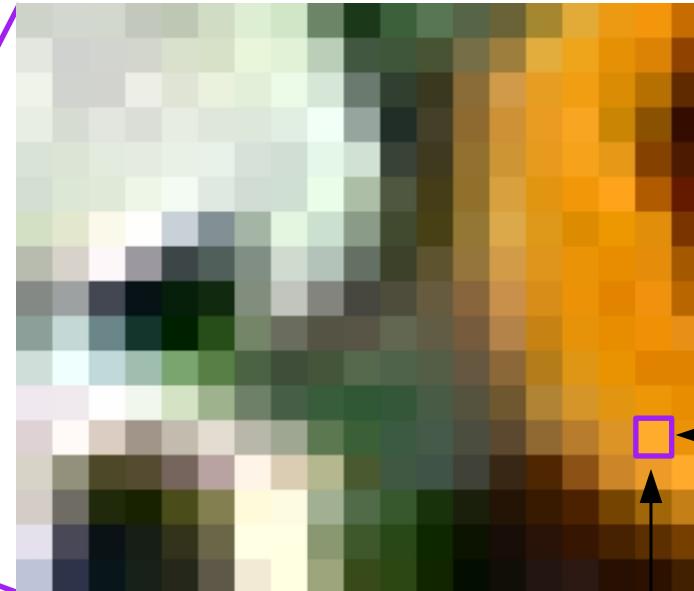
- Universal encoding for all languages
- Around 144000 characters as of 2020
- Can use different encoding formats
- UTF-8
 - Most popular encoding format for Unicode
 - Use 1 to 4 bytes
 - Compatible with 8-bit ASCII

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unicode>

Text encoding. Example

```
$ echo "Muñoz Pérez 5€ debe" > texto.txt  
  
$ cat text.txt  
Muñoz Pérez 5€ debe  
  
$ hd text.txt  
00000000  4d 75 c3 b1 6f 7a 20 50  c3 a9 72 65 7a 20 35 e2  |Mu..oz P..rez 5.|  
00000010  82 ac 20 64 65 62 65 0a                         |.. debe.|  
  
$ iconv -f utf8 -t latin1 text.txt > text_l1.txt  
iconv: illegal input sequence at position 15  
  
$ iconv -f utf8 -t latin9 text.txt > text_l9.txt  
$ cat text_l9.txt  
Muñoz Pérez 5€ debe  
  
$ hd text_l9.txt  
00000000  4d 75 f1 6f 7a 20 50 e9  72 65 7a 20 35 a4 20 64  |Mu.oz P.rez 5. d|  
00000010  65 62 65 0a                           |ebe.|  
  
$ file text.txt text_l9.txt  
text.txt:      UTF-8 Unicode text  
text_l9.txt:   ISO-8859 text  
  
$ ls -l text.txt text_l9.txt  
-rw-rw-r-- 1 jjchico jjchico 20 oct  1 16:27 text_l9.txt  
-rw-rw-r-- 1 jjchico jjchico 24 oct  1 16:23 text.txt
```

Graphics (image)



pixel

Red	255
Green	172
Blue	44

Red	255
Green	172
Blue	44

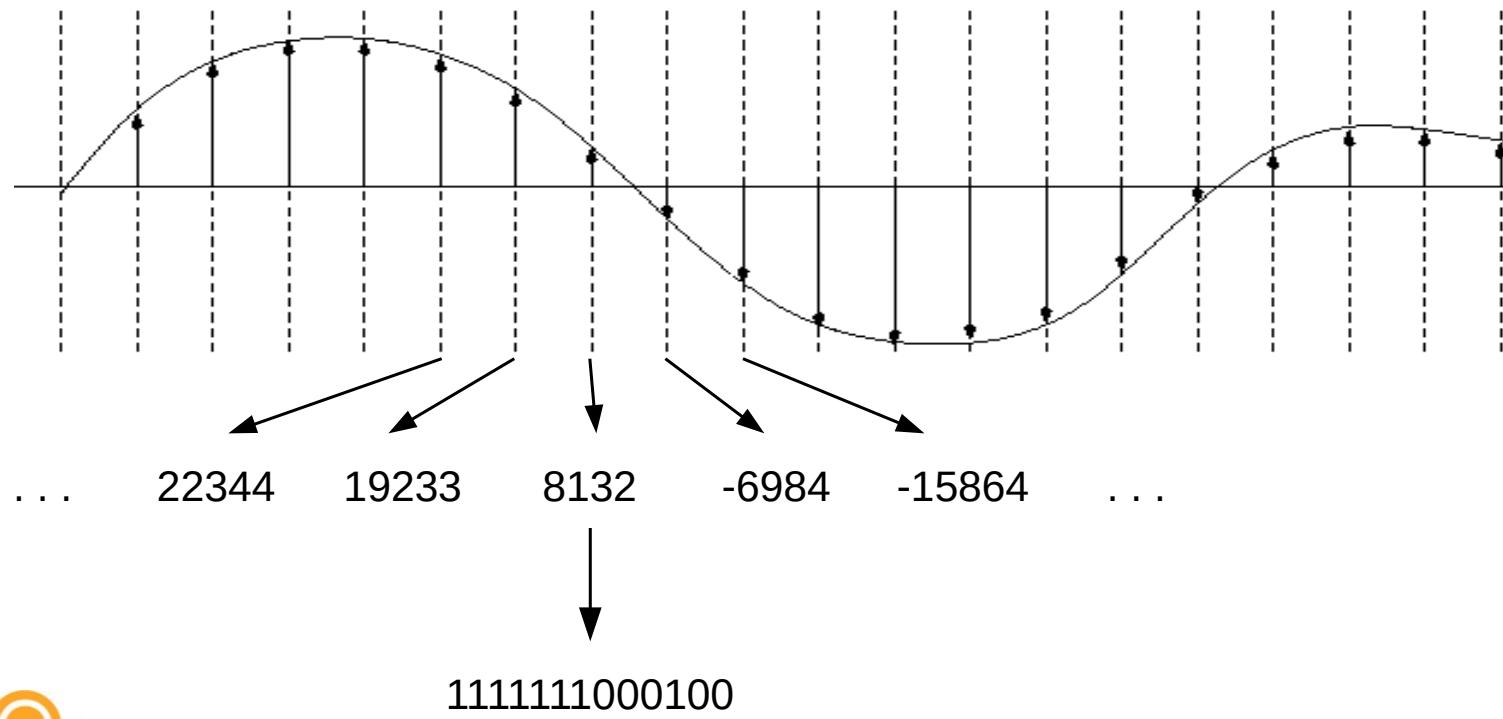
255,172,44

Graphics. Raw calculations

- Color depth (color_depth)
 - Number of bits used to encode the color of each pixel.
- Number of pixels (n_pixel)
 - $n_{pixel} = pixel_width \times pixel_height$
- Raw size –without compression– (size)
 - $size = n_{pixel} \times color_depth$
- Image resolution (res)
 - Can be horizontal or vertical (normally the same)
 - Pixel width or height divided by real distance.

Sonido

- Raw encoding parameters (determine quality)
 - Sampling rate: number of samples per unit time (e.g. 44100Hz)
 - Data resolution: size of data (bits) per sample (e.g. 16 bits)
 - Number of channels (N): number of encoded waves (e.g. 2 -stereo-)



Encoded sound calculation

- Data size (L)
 - Size of encoded data.
- Encoded time (T)
 - Duration of encoded fragment.
- Data rate (R)
 - Encoded data per time unit.
 - Also “bit rate” when in bits per second.
 - $L = R \times T$
- R calculation without compression
 - $R = \text{sampling_rate} \times \text{data_resolution} \times N$
- Compression
 - Lossless: lower R but keeping quality parameters ($\sim 1/2$)
 - Lossy: even lower R by assuming some quality penalty ($\sim 1/10$)