

# Number Systems

## Integers, Bin/Oct/Hex, Codes

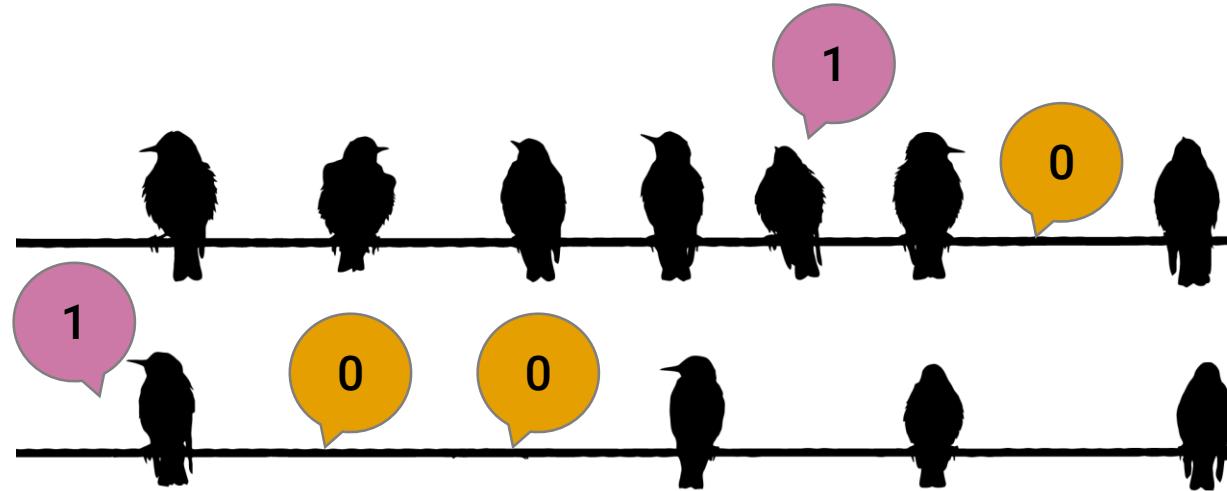
CS-173 Fundamentals of Digital Systems

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# A (Little) Bit of Information

- **A bit** is the most basic unit of information in digital computing and communication
- A logical state with one of two possible values (**binary**)
- In modern devices, a bit typically corresponds to an electrical state ON or OFF (charged or discharged, voltage high or low, etc.)
- Bits are small → so we group them into vectors or strings



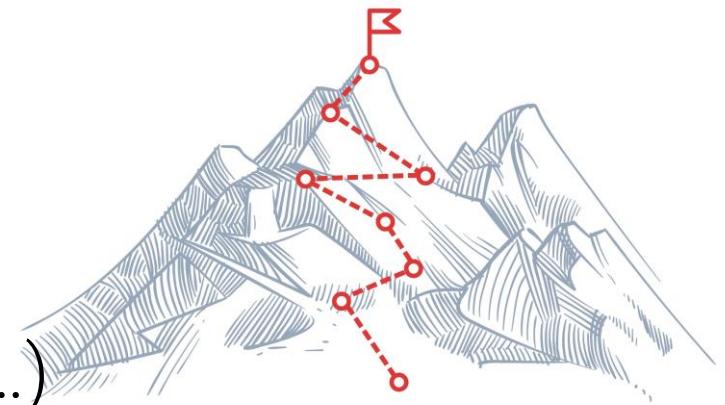
# Let's Talk About...

...Number systems and codes



# Learning Outcomes

- Familiarize with the general characteristics of number systems (radix, weights, digit vectors...)
- Learn to represent decimal numbers as binary numbers
- Discover octal/hex systems and their relation to binary
- Master representations of nonnegative and signed binary numbers
- Perform sign extension and arithmetic shifts
- Discover some alternative number codes



# Quick Outline

- Representations of nonnegative integers
- Transformations binary/octal/hex to/from decimal
- Transformations octal/hex to/from binary
- Representations of signed integers
  - Sign-and-magnitude
  - Two's complement
- Range extension and arithmetic shifts
- Hamming, BCD, Gray codes

# Digital Representations

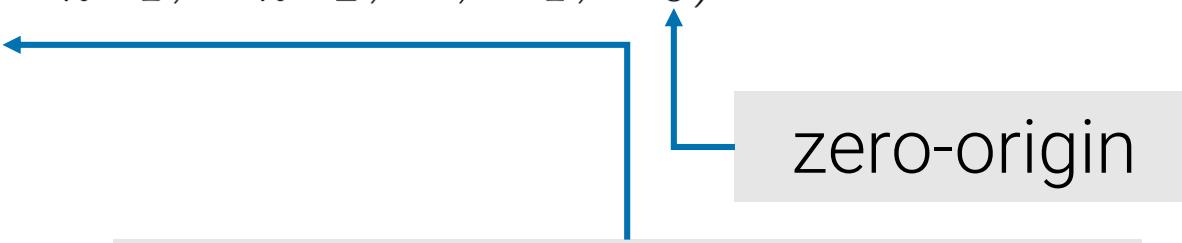
- In mathematics, a **tuple** is a finite ordered sequence of elements
  - An **n-tuple** is a tuple of  $n$  elements, where  $n$  is a nonnegative integer
- In a **digital representation**, a number is represented by an **ordered n-tuple**
  - Each element of the n-tuple is called a **digit**
  - The n-tuple is called a **digit vector (or string of digits)**
  - The number of digits  $n$  is called the **precision** of the representation

# Representation of Nonnegative Integers



# Integer Digit-Vector

- **Digit-vector (string)** representing the integer  $x$  is denoted by

$$X = (X_{n-1}, X_{n-2}, \dots, X_1, X_0)$$


Leftward-increasing indexing

zero-origin

- **Least-significant** digit (also called low-order digit):  $X_0$
- **Most-significant** digit (also called high-order digit):  $X_{n-1}$

# Elements of a Number System

$$X = (X_{n-1}, X_{n-2}, \dots, X_1, X_0)$$

- The number system to represent the integer  $x$  consists of
  - The number of **digits**  $n$
  - A set of numerical **values** for the digits
    - If a **set of values for a digit**  $X_i$  is  $D_i$ , the cardinality of  $D_i$  is  $|D_i|$
  - A rule of **interpretation**
    - Mapping between the set of digit-vector values and the set of integers
- **Set size**
  - The set of integers is a finite set of at most  $K$  elements

$$K = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} |D_i|$$

# Elements of a Number System

## Example: Decimal Number System

$$X = (X_{n-1}, X_{n-2}, \dots, X_1, X_0)$$

- Number of digits  $n$ 
  - Can be any, but let us consider  $n = 6$  (e.g., 17, 9899, 676799, ...)
  - Leading zeros are irrelevant
- Digit set in decimal number system
  - $D_i = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 9\}$  of cardinality 10
- The corresponding set size  $K$  is one million values, from 0 to  $K - 1$ 
  - $K = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} 10 = 10^6$

# (Non)Redundant Number Systems

- A number system is **nonredundant** if...
  - ...each digit-vector represents a **different** integer
  - E.g., the decimal system is nonredundant as every number is unique
- Alternatively, a number system is **redundant** if...
  - ...there are integers represented by **more than one** digit-vector

# Weighted (Positional) Number Systems

- Most frequently used number systems are **weighted systems**
- The rule of representation:

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

where  $W = (W_{n-1}, W_{n-2}, \dots, W_1, W_0)$  is the **weight-vector** of size  $n$

- Equivalent formulation

$$x = X_{n-1}W_{n-1} + X_{n-2}W_{n-2} + \dots + X_1W_1 + X_0W_0$$

# Weighted (Positional) Number Systems

## Example: Decimal Number System

- Weights are a power of 10. Example:

- Digit vector  $X = (8, 5, 4, 7, 0, 3)$
- Weight vector  $W = (10^5, 10^4, 10^3, 10^2, 10^1, 10^0)$

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

- When weights are of the format
  - $W_0 = 1$  and
  - $W_i = W_{i-1}R_{i-1}$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n - 1$

$$W_0 = 1$$
$$W_i = W_{i-1} \times R_{i-1}$$

we have a **radix number system**

# Radix Number Systems

- ...are weighted number system in which the weight vector is related to the **radix vector**  $R = (R_{n-1}, R_{n-2}, \dots, R_1, R_0)$  as follows

$$W_0 = 1; \quad W_i = W_{i-1}R_{i-1}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n - 1$$

- Equivalent to

$$W_0 = 1; \quad W_i = \prod_{j=0}^{i-1} R_j$$

- E.g., in the decimal number system  $W_0 = 1; W_i = \prod_{j=0}^{i-1} 10$

# 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

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

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

# Radix Number Systems

## Example: Decimal Number System

- Characteristics of the decimal number system

- Radix  $r = 10$
- **Fixed-radix** system

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

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

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



# Number Systems

What fixed- and mixed-radix systems are most interesting to us?

## Fixed

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

## Mixed

- E.g., time representation in terms of hours/minutes/seconds
  - Radix-vector  
 $R = (24, 60, 60)$
  - Weight-vector  
 $W = (3600, 60, 1)$

# Canonical Number Systems

- In a **canonical** number system, the set of values for a digit  $D_i$  is

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

with  $|D_i| = R_i$ , the corresponding element of the radix vector

- 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**:

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

# Conventional Number Systems

- A system with
  - fixed positive radix  $r$  and
  - a canonical set of digit values is called  
*a radix- $r$  conventional number system*
- These are by far the most commonly used number systems

# Binary/Octal/Hexadecimal to/from Decimal

Transformations of nonnegative numbers



# Conversion Table

Up to 15

- The hexadecimal system supplements 0-9 digits with the letters A-F
- Programming languages often use the prefix **0x** to denote a hexadecimal number

Decimal	Binary 4-digit vector	Octal 2-digit vector	Hexadecimal 1-digit vector
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

# Transformations

## Example: Binary/Decimal

- Converting from binary to decimal

$$10011_2 = 1 \cdot 2^4 + 0 \cdot 2^3 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 = 16 + 2 + 1 = 19_{10}$$

- Converting from decimal to binary

- Digits can be computed as remainders of the long division by 2

$$179/2 = 89 \text{ remainder } 1$$

Least-significant binary digit

$$89/2 = 44 \text{ remainder } 1$$

$$44/2 = 22 \text{ remainder } 0$$

$$22/2 = 11 \text{ remainder } 0$$

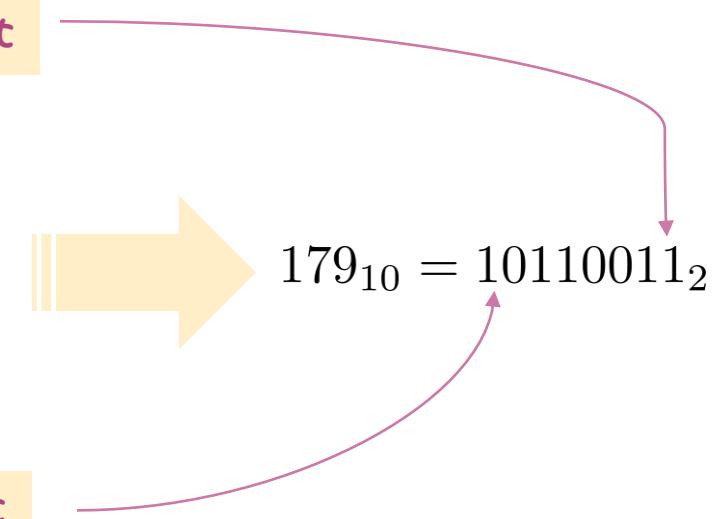
$$11/2 = 5 \text{ remainder } 1$$

$$5/2 = 2 \text{ remainder } 1$$

$$2/2 = 1 \text{ remainder } 0$$

$$1/2 = 0 \text{ remainder } 1$$

Stop once zero



# Transformations

## Example: Octal/Decimal

- Converting from octal to decimal

$$1357_8 = 1 \cdot 8^3 + 3 \cdot 8^2 + 5 \cdot 8^1 + 7 \cdot 8^0 = 512 + 192 + 40 + 7 = 751_{10}$$

- Converting from decimal to octal

- Digits can be computed as remainders of the long division by 8

$$751/8 = 93 \text{ remainder } 7 \quad \text{Least-significant octal digit}$$

$$93/8 = 11 \text{ remainder } 5$$

$$11/8 = 1 \text{ remainder } 3$$

$$1/8 = 0 \text{ remainder } 1$$

Stop once zero



$$751_{10} = 1357_8$$

Most-significant octal digit

# Transformations

## Example: Hexadecimal/Decimal

- Converting from hexadecimal to decimal

$$\begin{aligned}A0F52_{16} &= 10 \cdot 16^4 + 0 \cdot 16^3 + 15 \cdot 16^2 + 5 \cdot 16^1 + 2 \cdot 16^0 \\&= 655360 + 3840 + 80 + 2 = 659282_{10}\end{aligned}$$

- Converting from decimal to hexadecimal
  - Digits can be computed as remainders of the long division by 16

$$659282/16 = 41205 \text{ remainder } 2$$

Least-significant hexadecimal digit

$$41205/16 = 2575 \text{ remainder } 5$$

$$2575/16 = 160 \text{ remainder } 15$$

$$160/16 = 10 \text{ remainder } 0$$

$$10/16 = 0 \text{ remainder } 10$$

Stop once zero



$$659282_{10} = A0F52_{16}$$

Most-significant hexadecimal digit

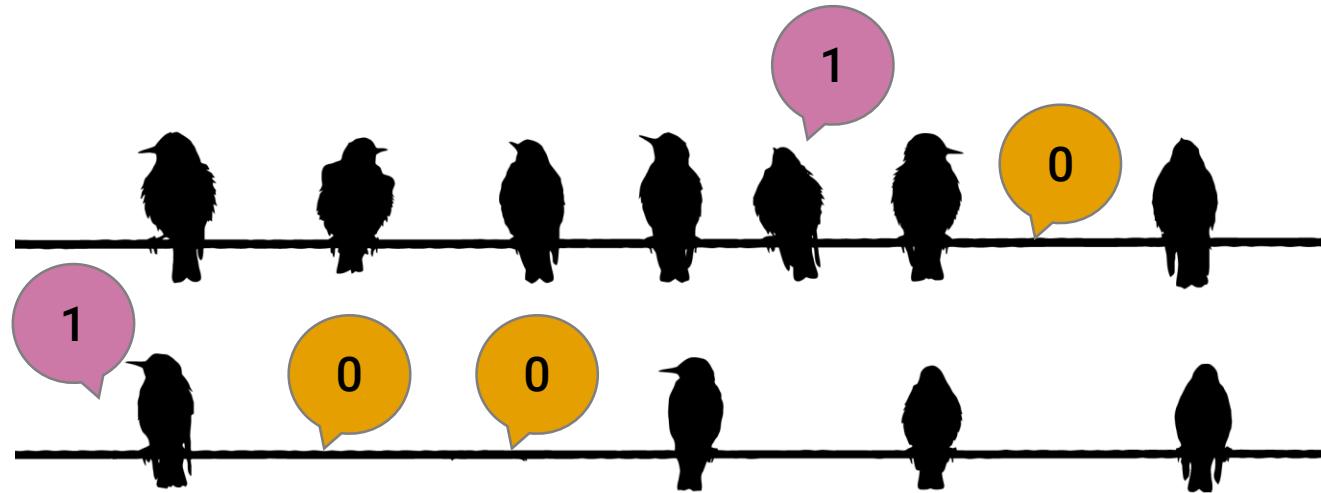
# Octal/Hexadecimal to/from Binary

Transformations of nonnegative numbers



# Bit-Vector Representation

- For arithmetic operations in radix-2/8/16 digital systems, digit-vectors are represented by bit-vectors
- Methodology
  - A **code** for mapping **a digit to a bit-vector** is defined
  - Digit-vector is obtained by mapping each of its digits following the code



# Codes

## Bit-Vector Representation

- Binary
  - Digits 0 and 1 are represented by values 0 and 1, resp.
- Power-of-two radix  $r$  (octal, hex)
  - Digit  $d$  is represented by a bit-vector  $(d_{k-1}, \dots, d_0)$  where  $k = \log_2 r$  bits,  
such that

$$d = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} d_i 2^i$$

- E.g., digit  $D_{16}$  in the hexadecimal (radix-16) format is represented by a 4-bit binary vector/string  $1101_2$

# Transformations

## Example: Binary/Octal

- Converting from binary to octal,  $k = \log_2 8 = 3$ 
  - Group every three binary digits into a single octal digit

$$010000100110_2 = \boxed{010} \boxed{000} \boxed{100} \boxed{110}_2 = \boxed{2} \boxed{0} \boxed{4} \boxed{6}_8$$

- Converting from octal to binary
  - Exactly the reverse, expand each octal digit into three binary digits

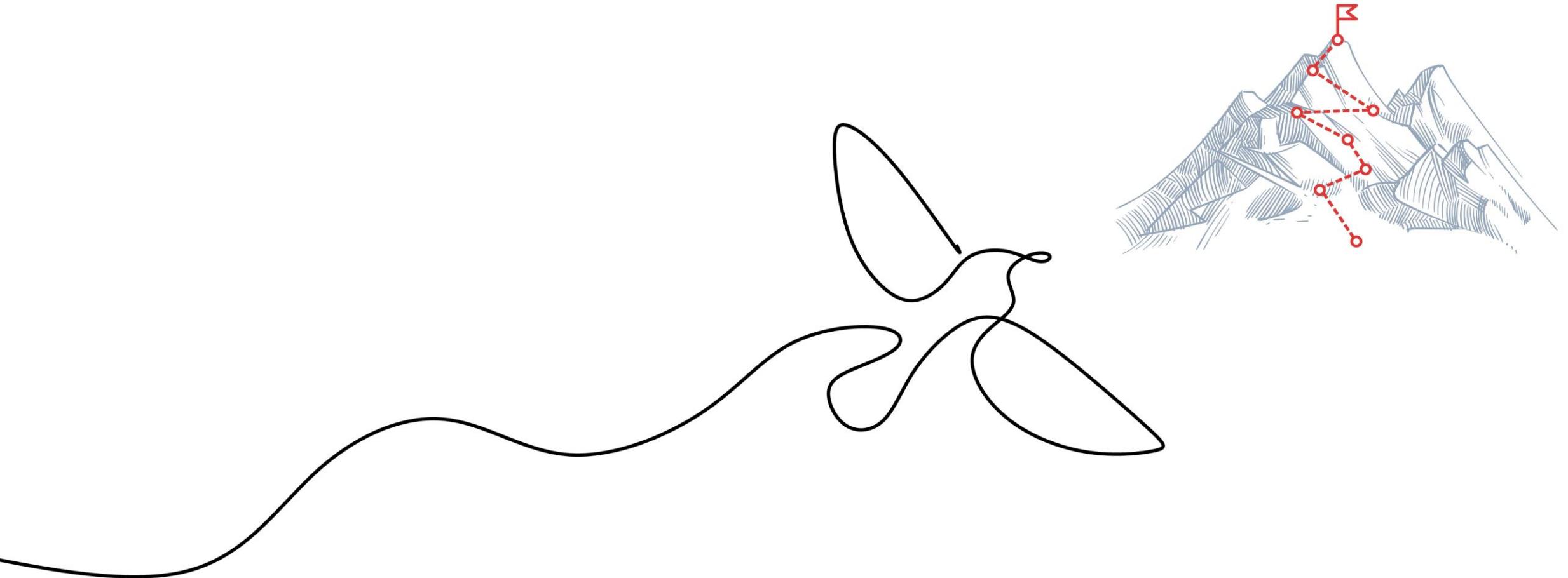
# Transformations

## Example: Binary/Hexadecimal

- Converting from binary to hexadecimal,  $k = \log_2 16 = 4$ 
  - Group every four binary digits into a single hexadecimal digit

$$1011111010101101_2 = \boxed{1011} \ \boxed{1110} \ \boxed{1010} \ \boxed{1101}_2 = \boxed{\text{B}} \ \boxed{\text{E}} \ \boxed{\text{A}} \ \boxed{\text{D}}_{16}$$

- Converting from hexadecimal to binary
  - Exactly the reverse, expand each hex digit into four binary digits



# Representation of Signed Integers

Signed ~ Positive and Negative

- Sign and magnitude
- True and complement



# Sign-and-Magnitude

# Sign-and-Magnitude (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)

- Sign (positive, negative) is represented by a binary variable
  - 0 → positive; 1 → negative
- Magnitude can be represented as any positive integer
  - In a conventional radix- $r$  system, the **range of n-digit magnitude** is

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



# How is Zero Represented in SM?

- Two representations

- Positive zero

$$x_s = 0, x_m = 0$$

- Negative zero

$$x_s = 1, x_m = 0$$

- Is SM a redundant or nonredundant number system?

# Sign-and-Magnitude

## Examples

- Traditionally, the most-significant bit of a binary bit string is used as the sign bit
- Examples:

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

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

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

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

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

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

# Sign-and-Magnitude

## Range

- Symmetrical number system
  - Equal number of positive and negative integers
- An n-bit integer in sign-and-magnitude lies within the range

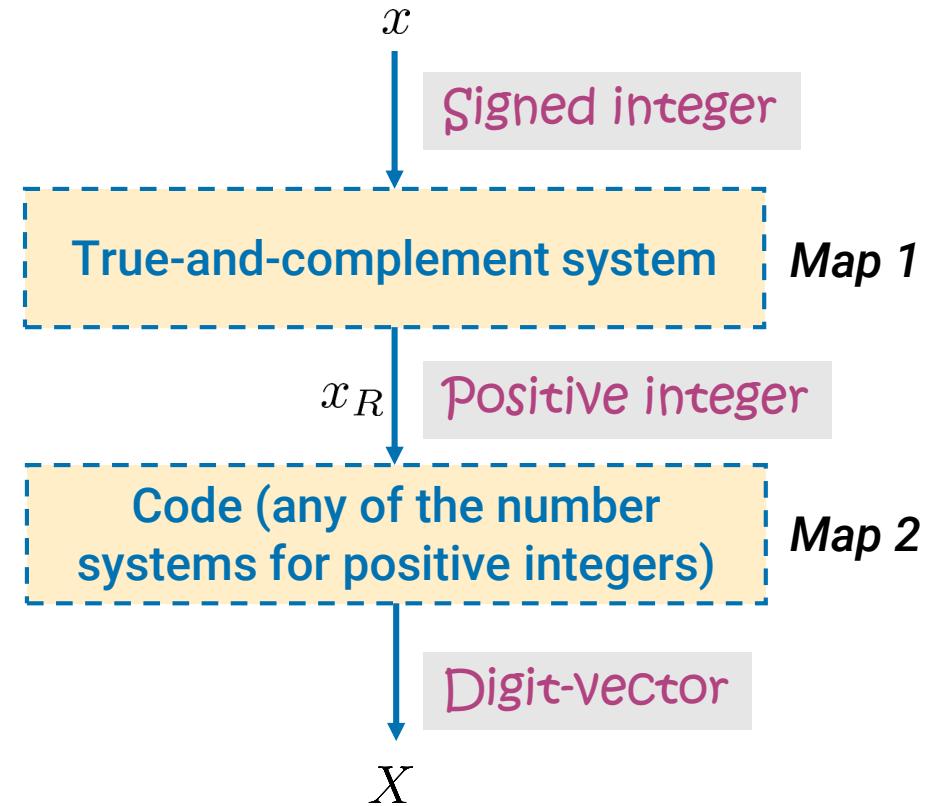
$$-(2^{n-1} - 1), +(2^{n-1} - 1)$$

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

# True-and-Complement

# True-and-Complement (TC)

- No separation between the representation of the sign and the representation of the magnitude
  - **Signed** integer is represented by a **positive** integer



# True-and-Complement

## Mapping

- A signed integer  $x$  is represented by a positive integer  $x_R$  :

$$x_R = x \bmod C$$

$C$  is a positive integer called the **complementation constant**

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

$$x_R = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ C - |x| = C + x & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

True form  
Complement form

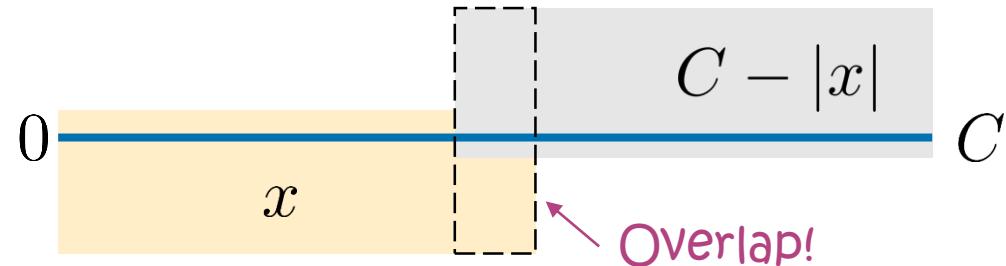
# True-and-Complement

## Unambiguous Representation

- Recall:

$$x_R = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ C - |x| = C + x & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

True form  
Complement form



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

$$\max |x| < C/2$$

# True-and-Complement

## Converse Mapping

- Converse mapping:

$$x = \begin{cases} x_R & \text{if } x_R < C/2 \\ x_R - C & \text{if } x_R > C/2 \end{cases}$$

Positive values  
Negative values

- When  $x_R = C/2$ , it is usually assigned to  $x = -C/2$ 
  - Asymmetrical representation, but simplifies sign detection
- The choice of  $C = 2^n$  defines a **two's complement** system

# Two's Complement System

- Complementation constant

$$C = 2^n$$

- Range is **asymmetrical**:

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

- The representation of zero is unique

$x$	$x_R$	
0	0	
1	1	
2	2	
...	...	
$2^{n-1} - 1$	$2^{n-1} - 1$	$x_R = x$
<hr/>		
$-2^{n-1}$	$2^{n-1}$	
$-(2^{n-1} - 1)$	$2^{n-1} + 1$	Complement forms (negative)
...	...	
-2	$2^n - 2$	$x_R = 2^n -  x $
-1	$2^n - 1$	

# 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:

$$\text{sign}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } X_{n-1} = 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } X_{n-1} = 1 \end{cases}$$

; equivalent to sign( $x$ ) =  $X_{n-1}$

# Mapping from Bit-Vectors to Values

in Two's Complement System

- Positive  $x$  :

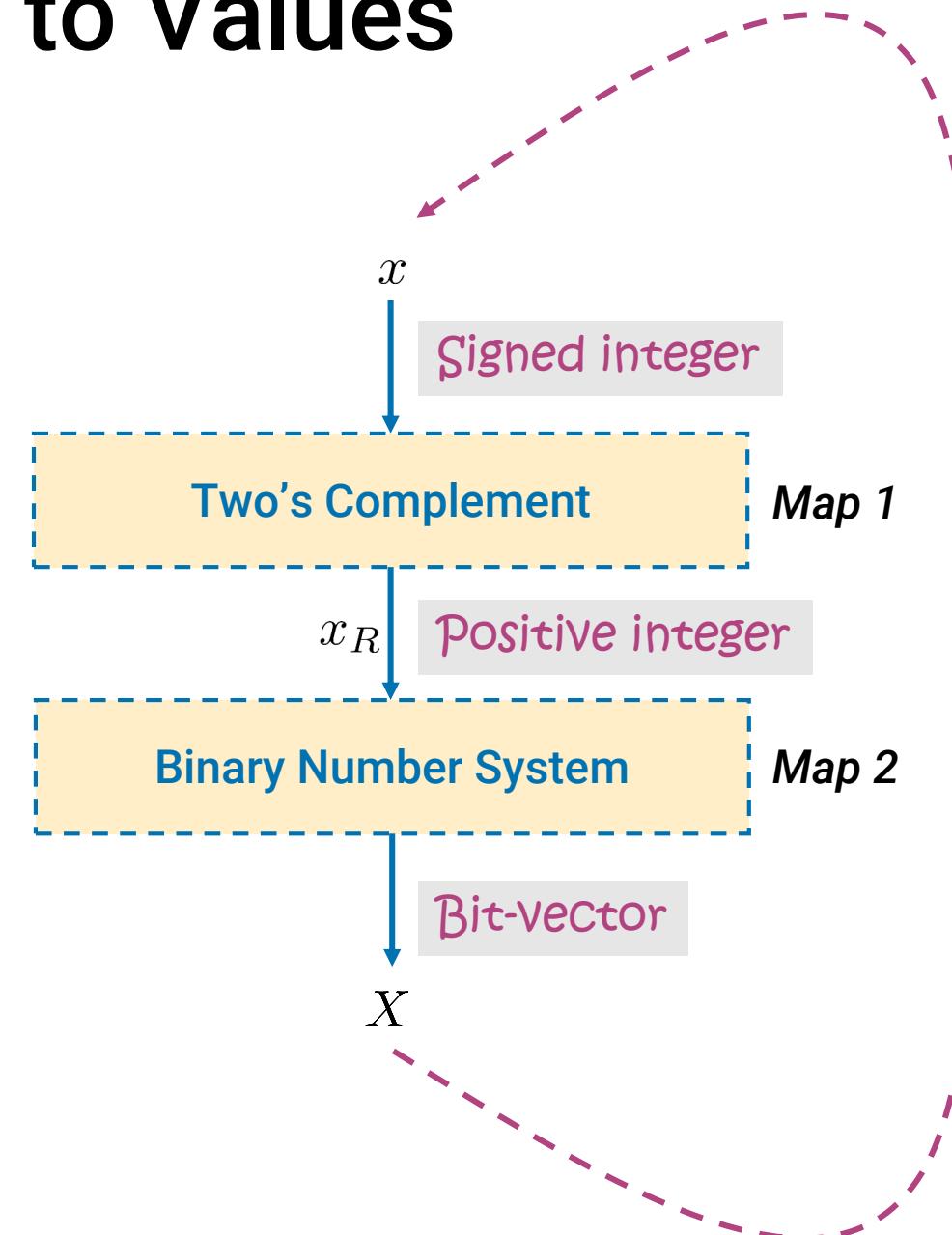
$$x = x_R$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i 2^i$$

$$= X_{n-1} 2^{n-1} + \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} X_i 2^i$$

ZERO

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} X_i 2^i$$



# Mapping from Bit-Vectors to Values

in Two's Complement System

▪ **Negative**  $x$  :

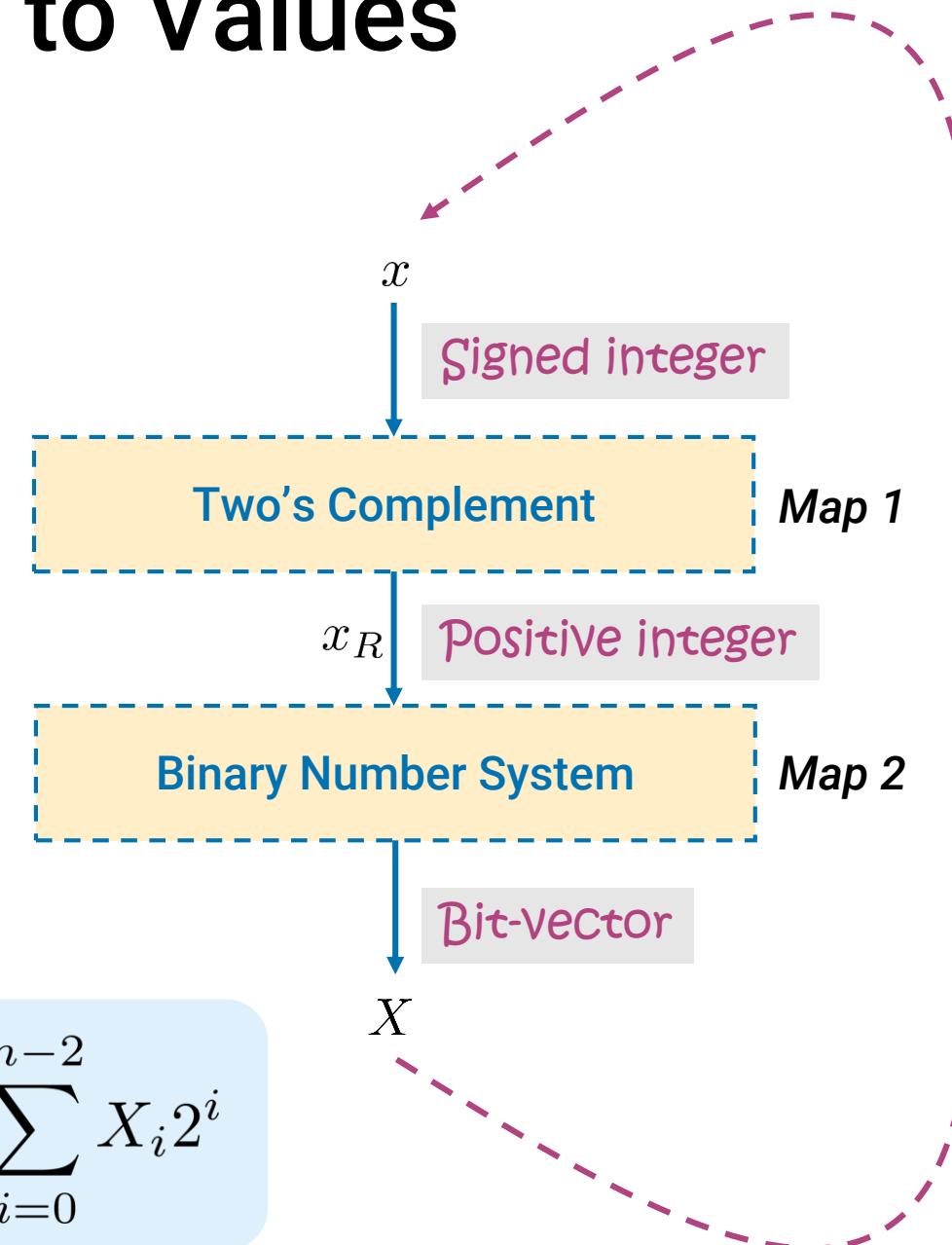
$$x = x_R - C = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} X_i 2^i - 2^n$$

$$= X_{n-1} 2^{n-1} + \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} X_i 2^i - 2^n$$

ONE

$$= 2^{n-1} + \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} X_i 2^i - 2^n$$

$$= -2^{n-1} + \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} X_i 2^i = -X_{n-1} 2^{n-1} + \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} X_i 2^i$$



# Mapping from Bit-Vectors to Values

## Example: Two's Complement System

- Examples

$$X = 011011_2 = 0 \cdot 2^5 + 1 \cdot 2^4 + 1 \cdot 2^3 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 = 16 + 8 + 2 + 1 = 27_{10}$$

$$X = 11011_2 = -1 \cdot 2^4 + 1 \cdot 2^3 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 = -16 + 8 + 2 + 1 = -5_{10}$$

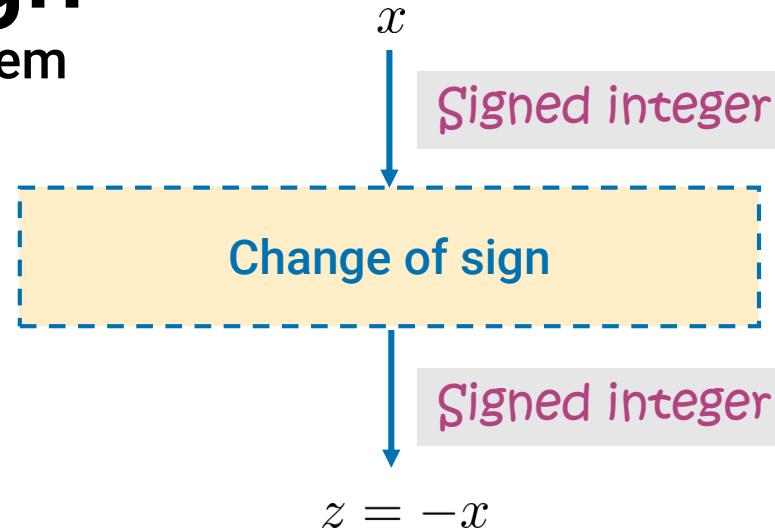
$$X = 10000000_2 = -1 \cdot 2^7 = -128_{10}$$

$$X = 10000011_2 = -1 \cdot 2^7 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 = -128 + 2 + 1 = -125_{10}$$

# Change of Sign

in Two's Complement System

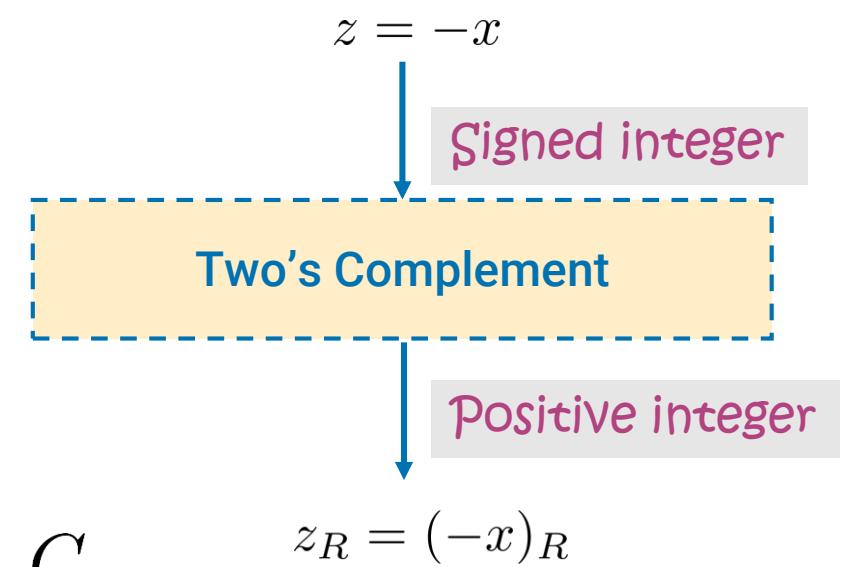
- Find  $z = -x$



- As  $x$  and  $z$  are represented as  $x_R$  and  $z_R$ :

$$\begin{aligned} z_R &= (-x)_R = (-x) \bmod C \\ &= C - (x \bmod C) \\ &= C - x_R \end{aligned}$$

- Therefore, the change of sign operation consists of **subtracting  $x_R$  from the complementation constant  $C$**



# Change of Sign Algorithm

## in Two's Complement System

- Recall: In a two's complement system, the complement of an  $n$ -bit number is obtained by subtracting it from  $2^n$ 
  - Equivalent to **complementing** each of the  $n$  bits and summing with **+1** (proof in literature)

$$17_{10} = 00010001_2$$

Change of polarity

Complement

$$\begin{array}{r} 11101110 \\ +1 \\ \hline 11101111_2 \end{array}$$

Add +1

$$= -17_{10}$$

$$-99_{10} = 10011101_2$$

Change of polarity

Complement

$$\begin{array}{r} 01100010 \\ +1 \\ \hline 01100011_2 \end{array}$$

Add +1

$$= +99_{10}$$

# Range Extension and Arithmetic Shifts

# Range Extension

- Performed when a value  $x$  represented by a digit-vector of  $n$  bits needs to be represented by a digit-vector of  $m$  bits,  $m > n$

$$x = z$$

$$X = (X_{n-1}, X_{n-2}, \dots, X_1, X_0)$$

$$Z = (Z_{m-1}, Z_{m-2}, \dots, Z_1, Z_0)$$

$$m > n$$

- Range extension is often performed in arithmetic operations

# Range Extension Algorithm

in Sign-and-Magnitude System

- In sign-and-magnitude system, the range-extension algorithm becomes

$$z_s = x_s \quad \text{Sign}$$

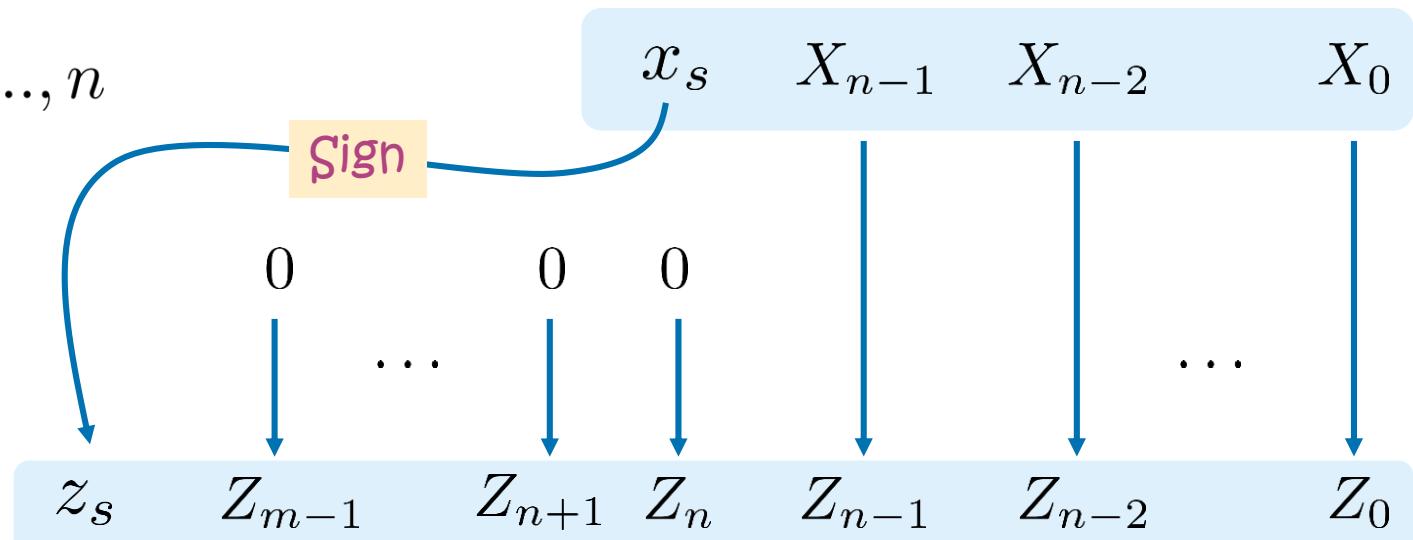
$$Z_i = 0, \quad i = m - 1, m - 2, \dots, n$$

$$Z_i = X_i, \quad i = n - 1, \dots, 0$$

- Example:

$$X = 1101101_2 = -45_{10}$$

$$X = 100101101_2 = -45_{10}$$



# Range Extension Algorithm

in Two's Complement System

- In two's complement system, the range-extension algorithm becomes

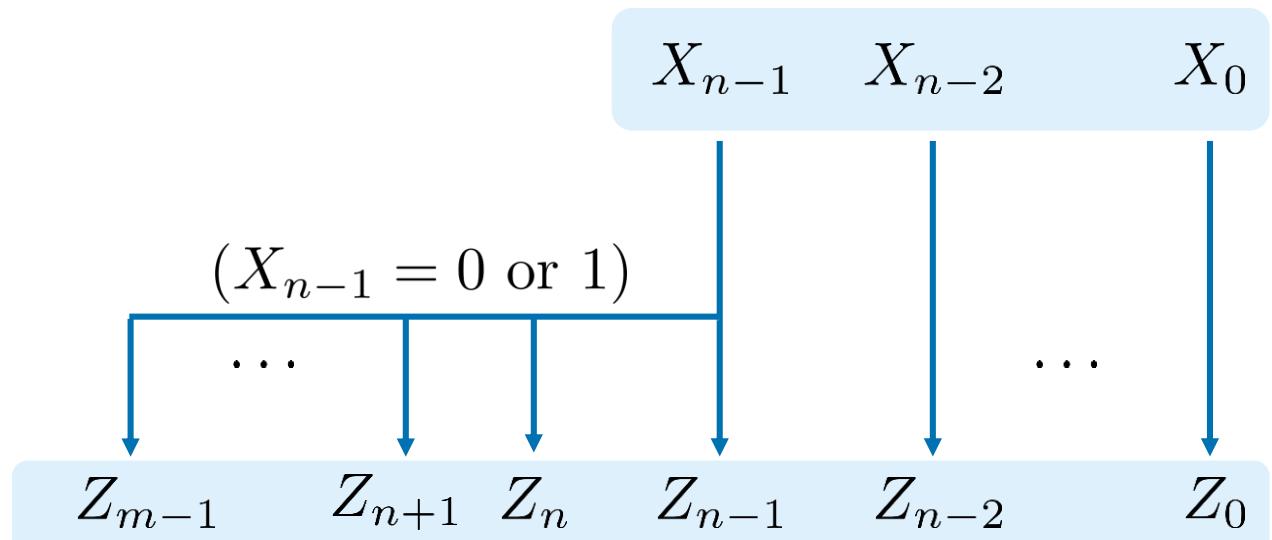
$$Z_i = X_{n-1}, \quad i = m-1, m-2, \dots, n$$

$$Z_i = X_i, \quad i = n-1, \dots, 0$$

- Example:

$$X = 10101_2 = -11_{10}$$

$$X = 11110101_2 = -11_{10}$$



# Arithmetic Shifts

- Two elementary transformations often used in arithmetic operations are scaling (multiplying and dividing) by the radix
- Conventional radix-2 number system for integers:
  - **Left** arithmetic shift: **multiplication** by 2

$$z = 2x$$

- **Right** arithmetic shift: **division** by 2

$$z = 2^{-1}x - \epsilon, \quad |\epsilon| < 1$$

where the value of  $\epsilon$  is such that it makes  $z$  an integer

# Left Arithmetic Shift

in Sign-and-Magnitude System

- Algorithm (assuming the overflow does not occur)

$$z_s = x_s \text{ Sign}$$

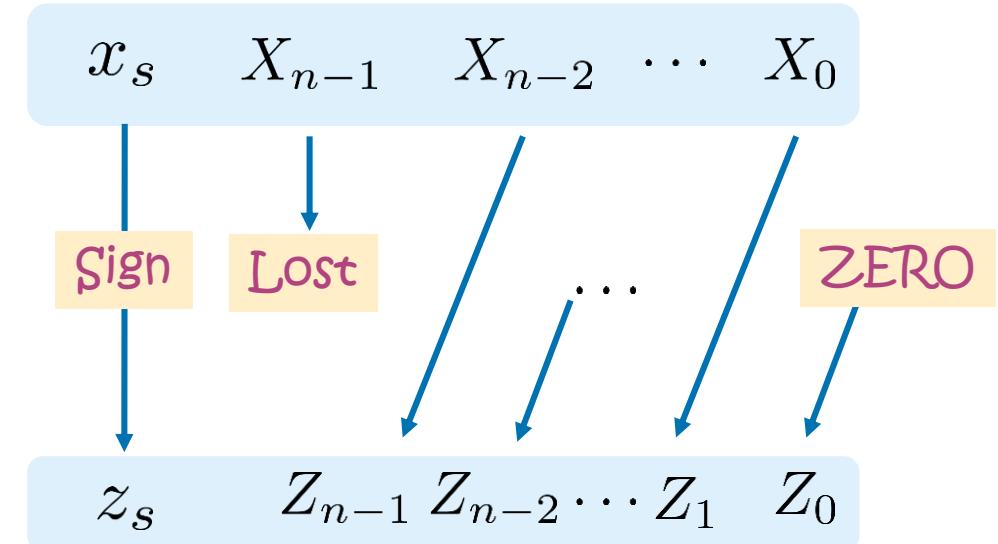
$$Z_{i+1} = X_i, \quad i = 0, \dots, n-2$$

$$Z_0 = 0$$

- Example:

$$X = 100101101_2 = -45_{10}$$

$$\text{SL}(X) = 101011010_2 = -90_{10}$$



# Right Arithmetic Shift

in Sign-and-Magnitude System

- Algorithm

$$z_s = x_s \text{ Sign}$$

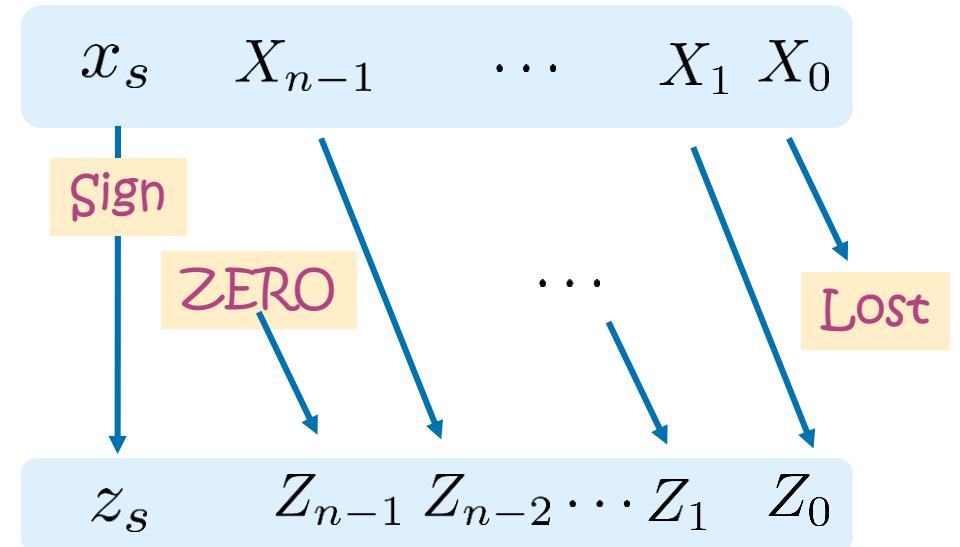
$$Z_{i-1} = X_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n-1$$

$$Z_{n-1} = 0$$

- Example

$$X = 100101101_2 = -45_{10}$$

$$\text{SR}(X) = 100010110_2 = -22_{10}$$



# Left Arithmetic Shift

in Two's Complement System

- Algorithm (assuming the overflow does not occur)

$$Z_{i+1} = X_i, \quad i = 0, \dots, n-2$$

$$Z_0 = 0$$

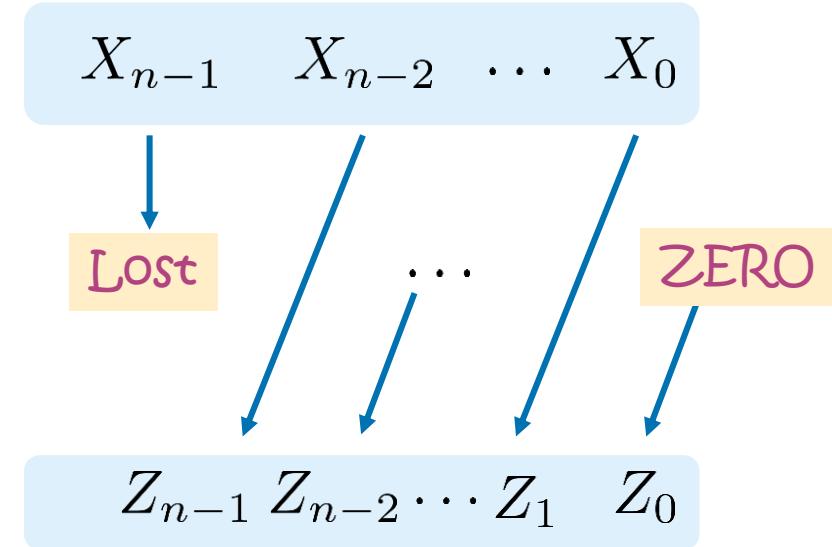
- Examples:

$$X = 001101_2 = 13_{10}$$

$$\text{SL}(X) = 011010_2 = 26_{10}$$

$$Y = 110101_2 = -11_{10}$$

$$\text{SL}(Y) = 101010_2 = -22_{10}$$



# Right Arithmetic Shift

in Two's Complement System

- Algorithm

$$Z_{n-1} = X_{n-1}$$

$$Z_{i-1} = X_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n-1$$

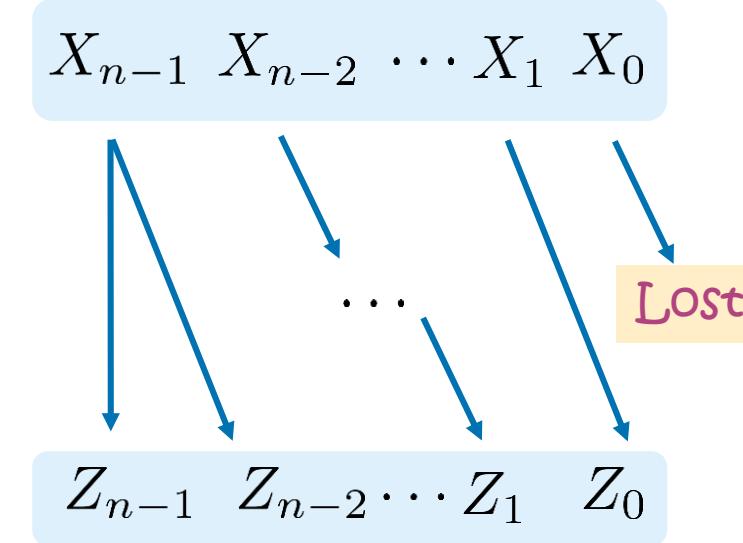
- Examples:

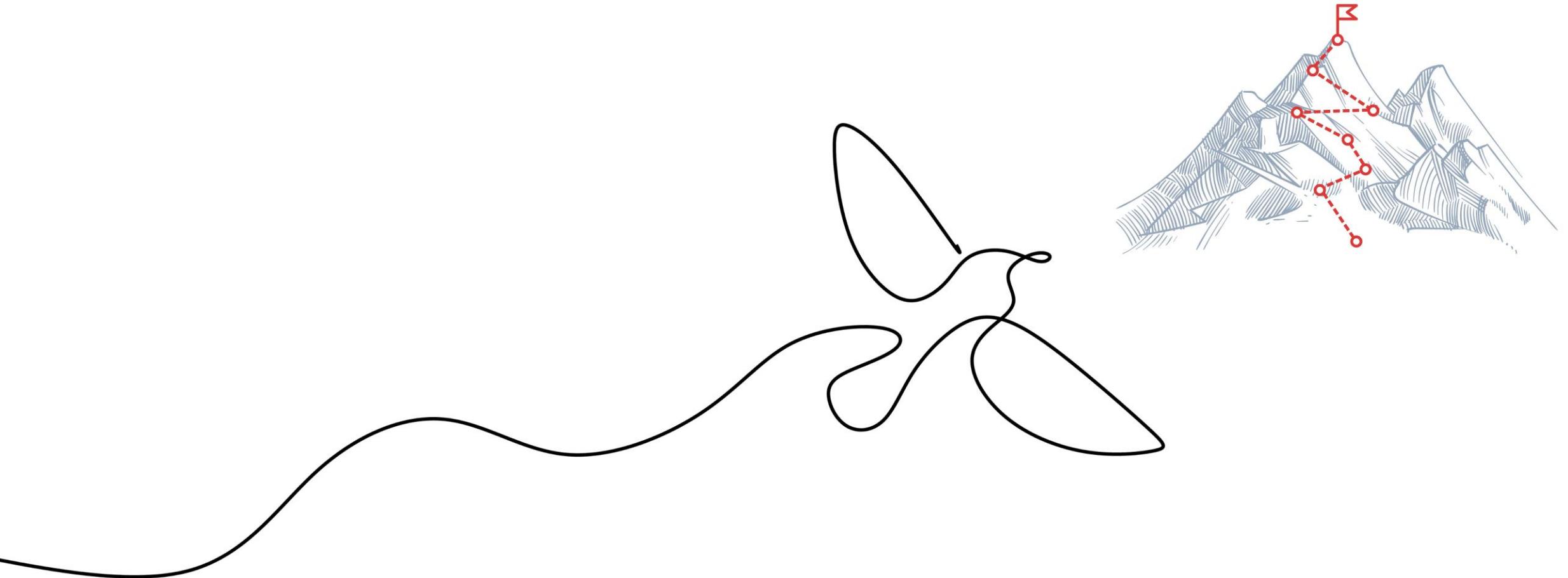
$$X = 001101_2 = 13_{10}$$

$$\text{SR}(X) = 000110_2 = 6_{10}$$

$$Y = 110101_2 = -11_{10}$$

$$\text{SR}(Y) = 111010_2 = -6_{10}$$





# Codes

Alternative Codes

# Hamming Weight and Distance



- Named by [Richard Hamming](#), *inventor of error-correcting codes which bear his name, and of the aphorism "The Purpose of computing is insight, not numbers," and many others.*
- Hamming weight
  - The number of binary ones (1) in a bit vector
  - E.g.,  $\text{HW}(11010101) = 5$
- Hamming distance between two equal-length bit vectors
  - The number of positions in which they differ
  - E.g.,  $\text{HD}(11010101, 01000111) = 3$

# Binary Code for Decimal Numbers (BCD)

## Conversion Algorithms

- BCD encodes decimal digits 0 through 9 by their 4-bit unsigned binary representations, 0000 through 1001; the code words 1010 through 1111 are not used
- Conversion algorithms:

Given  $n$  BCD digits  $d_i$ , compute the corresponding binary value  $D$

```
1: i = n-1; D = 0
2: Multiply D by 10
3: add  $d_i$  to D
4: i = i - 1
5: Go back to line 2 if  $i >= 0$ 
```

Given a binary value  $D$ , convert it into the corresponding set of BCD digits

```
1: i = 0;
2: Divide D by 10; D = the quotient
3:  $d_i$  = the remainder
4: i = i + 1
5: Go back to line 2 if  $i <= n-1$ 
```

# Gray Code



- Invented by [Frank Gray](#), a physicist and researcher at [Bell Labs](#) who made numerous innovations in television, both mechanical and electronic, and is remembered for the [Gray code](#).
- Gray code is an ordering of the binary numbers such that **two successive values differ in only one bit**
- Gray codes are widely used to prevent spurious output from [electromechanical switches](#) and to facilitate [error correction](#) in digital communications

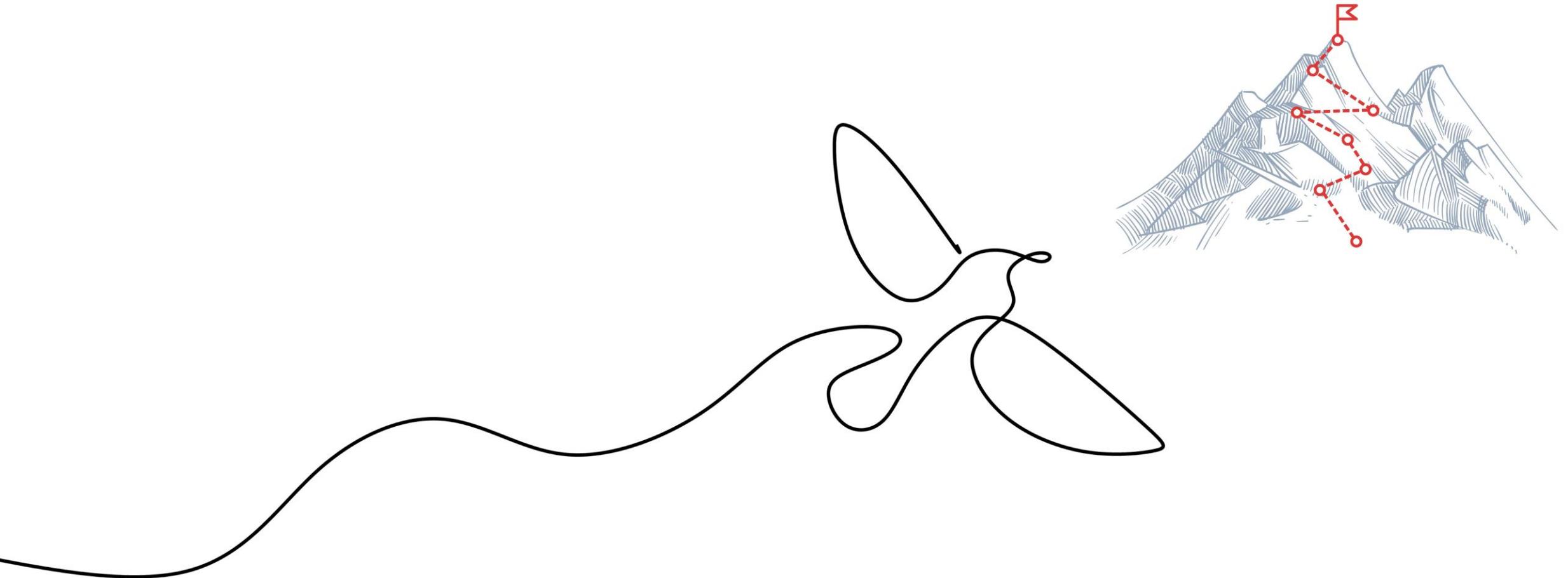
# Gray Code

## Conversion Algorithm

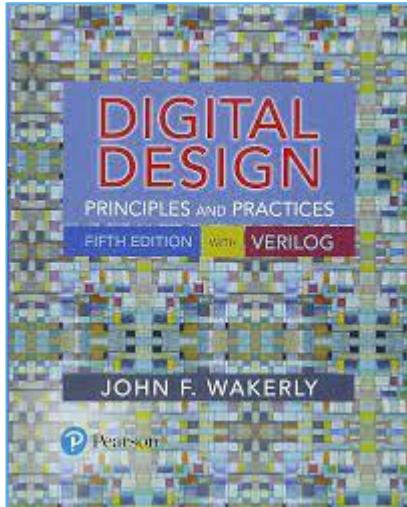
- Deriving a code word in an n-bit Gray-code from the corresponding n-bit binary code
  - The bits of an n-bit binary or Gray code are numbered from right to left, from 0 to n-1
  - Bit  $i$  of a Gray-code vector is 0 if bits  $i$  and  $i+1$  of the binary vector are the same; else, bit  $i$  is 1;
    - when  $i+1 = n$ , bit  $n$  of the binary vector is considered to be zero

- Comparison of 3-bit binary and Gray codes

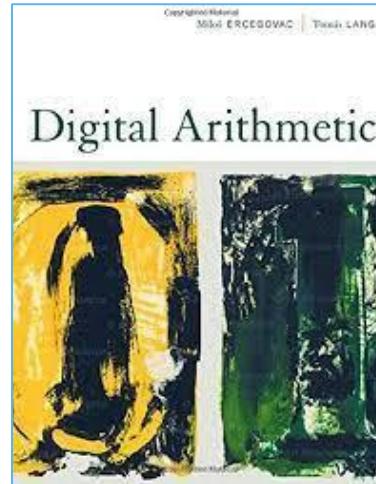
Decimal	Binary	Gray
0	000	000
1	001	001
2	010	011
3	011	010
4	100	110
5	101	111
6	110	101
7	111	100



# Literature



- Chapter 2: Number Systems and Codes
  - 2.1–2.3
  - 2.5
  - 2.10
  - 2.11



- Chapter 1: Preview of Basic Number Representations and Arithmetic Algorithms
  - 1.1
  - 1.2
  - 1.4

# Glossary

- [Precision](#)
- [Digit-vector](#)
- [Least-significant/most-significant bit](#)
- [\(Non\)Redundant](#)
- [Weighted](#)
- [Radix](#)
- [Canonical](#)
- [Conventional](#)
- [Sign-and-magnitude](#)
- [True-and-complement](#)
- [Two's complement](#)
- [Range extension](#)
- [Arithmetic shifts](#)
- [Hamming weight](#)
- [Hamming distance](#)
- [Binary Code for Decimal \(BCD\)](#)
- [Gray code](#)