

Chapter – 2

Number Systems

2.1 Introduction.

This chapter is dedicated to explain computer arithmetic. Our goal is to introduce the fundamental issues related to the arithmetic operations and number conversion used to support computation in computers. Our coverage starts with an introduction to number systems. In particular, we introduce issues such as number representations and base conversion. This is followed by a discussion on integer arithmetic. In this regard, we are performing Different number systems addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, and then we find the complements of number systems for negative representation, and convert decimal code in to different binary Weighted and non-weighted codes. Finally we discussed error detecting and error correcting code for finding and correct the error of transmitted data in to the network.

2.1 Number System: A number system uses a specific radix (base). Radices that are power of 10 are widely used in general mathematical and statistical calculation, while 2 are widely used in digital systems. These radices include binary (base 2), quaternary (base 4), octagonal (base 8), and hexagonal (base 16). The base 2 binary system is dominant in computer systems. For each number representation it has important objectives.

- Any number system position of symbols, base, and radix of a number system is presented.
- Each radix is indicating the representation of the number of symbols.
- In binary number system negative number are represented by sign bit, while in decimal system it represented by ‘-’ sign.
- The decimal number use bi-stable devices coded with BCD system.
- Any number always read from left to right digit, where left most beat is MSB (Most significant Bit) and right most beat is (Least Significant Bit).

2.2 Decimal number System

Any number can be represented with the base so, it identify that the radix of that digit, as we know that radix is represented the number of symbols to interprets that digits, i.e. when we write 196 in decimal system we should write it in 196_{10} but gradually we use decimal number so no need to write base 10 with the digit.

In Decimal number system, we use 10 symbols are use to represent any number (0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9) .which are call a Arabic numerals. If we use roman number system we use I, II , V ,X etc. for number 10 we use X and for 13 we use XIII now when we multiply this $X * XIII$ it is very small digit still it is difficult to interpretation of other number system.

Here the important of decimal number system is 10 symbols and the positional notational system for count any desired figure. If we multiply 15 by 13, result is 195. Here it can be seen very clear that, it is spoken as “One Hundred Ninety Five “this number is contradiction of $1*100 + 9*10 + 5*1$. The general rules for representing numbering decimal system by using positional notation (n) is as follows:

$$A_{n-1} * 10^{n-1} + A_{n-2} * 10^{n-2} + A_{n-3} * 10^{n-3} \dots\dots\dots + A_1 * 10^1 + A_0 * 10^0$$

Examples 2.1 Here some Decimal numbers are represented in polynomial form with base (10)

1. $9763_{10} = 9 * 10^3 + 7 * 10^2 + 6 * 10^1 + 3 * 10^0 = 9000 + 700 + 60 + 3$
2. $635.25_{10} = 6 * 10^2 + 3 * 10^1 + 5 * 10^0 + 2 * 10^{-1} + 5 * 10^{-2} = 600 + 30 + 5 + 0.20 + 0.05$
3. $-56.75_{10} = -(5 * 10^1 + 6 * 10^0 + 7 * 10^{-1} + 5 * 10^{-2}) = -(50 + 6 + 0.70 + 0.05)$
4. $1010_{10} = 1 * 10^3 + 0 * 10^2 + 1 * 10^1 + 0 * 10^0 = 1000 + 000 + 10 + 0$

Here, $\log_{10} 5 = 10000$

2.3 Bi-stable Devices

The basic element in computer or in any electronics devices which has two stages either it is on or it is off i.e. switches and relays, operation of switches and relays are defines they are bi-stable devices. The switch is either on or off (1) or (0). The principal circuit elements in more modern computers are transistor, which also has on or off state. The electric bulb has also two states on or off. So electronics circuit has also manufacturing number of bi-stable devices which has two possible states.

Computer devices (Machine) can understand two state 0 or 1, this binary language is also known as a machine language, and the 0 and 1 known as bit. Computer can perform operation on binary data so It accept binary data and output in binary format, it store data on disk or in chips also in binary so we can say that computer is a bi-stable device. Binary information in digital computer is represented by physical quantity called *signals*.

2.4 Binary, Octal and Hexadecimal numbers.

1 0 1

Decimal r=10	Binary r=2	Octal r=8	Hexadecimal r=16
1	1	1	1
2	10	2	2
3	11	3	3
4	100	4	4
5	101	5	5
6	110	6	6
7	111	7	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

Decimal r=10	Binary r=2	Octal r=8	Hexadecimal r=16
16	10000	20	10
17	10001	21	11
18	10010	22	12
19	10011	23	13
20	10100	24	14
21	10101	25	15
22	10110	26	16
23	10111	27	17
24	11000	30	18
25	11001	31	19
26	11010	32	1A
27	11011	33	1B
28	11100	34	1C
29	11101	35	1D
30	11110	36	1E
31	11111	37	1F

The polynomial representation of the earlier number is:

$$N = \sum_{i=-m}^n a_i * r^i$$

Consider an integer with n digits. A finite range of values can be represented by this integer. The smallest value in this range is 0 and corresponds to each digit of the n-digit integer being equal to 0. When each digit corresponds in value to r-1, the highest digit in the number system, the n-digit number attains the highest value in the

range. This value is equal to $r^n - 1$. *Table 2.1* lists the first few numbers in various systems. We will discuss binary, octal, and hexadecimal systems next.

Binary Number: In this number system, the radix is 2 and the two allowed digits are 0 and 1. **Binary digit** is abbreviated as BIT. A typical binary number is shown in the positional notation are as below.

Example 2.2

$$N = (1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ .\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1)_2$$

$$2^4\ 2^3\ 2^2\ 2^1\ 2^0\ .\ 2^{-1}\ 2^{-2}\ 2^{-3}\ 2^{-4} \quad \text{-Weight}$$

$$16\ 8\ 4\ 2\ 1\ .\ 1/2\ 1/4\ 1/8\ 1/16 \quad \text{-Weight in Decimal}$$

Notes:

- Weights double for each move to left from the binary point
- Weights are halved for each move to right from the binary point

The polynomial form of given number is:

$$N = 1 * 2^4 + 1 * 2^3 + 0 * 2^2 + 1 * 2^1 + 0 * 2^0 + 1 * 2^{-1} + 1 * 2^{-2} + 0 * 2^{-3} + 1 * 2^{-4}$$

$$= 16 + 8 + 0 + 2 + 0 + 1/2 + 1/4 + 0 + 1/16$$

$$= 26 + 1/2 + 1/4 + 1/16 = (26\ 13/26)_10$$

Octal Number system : In this number system, the radix is 8 and the eight allowed digits are 0,1,2,3,4,5,6,and 7. We show the first eight octal numbers are equal to decimal number but eight numbers for octal is representing 10. Octal number has base of 8, octal number is shown in the positional notation are as below.

Example 2.3

$$N = (1\ 6\ 5\ .\ 5\ 3)_8$$

$$8^2\ 8^1\ 2^0\ .\ 8^{-1}\ 8^{-2} \quad \text{-Weight}$$

$$64\ 8\ 1\ .\ 1/8\ 1/64 \quad \text{-Weight in Decimal}$$

Notes:

- Weights double for each move to left from the binary point
- Weights are halved for each move to right from the binary point

$$N = 1 * 8^2 + 6 * 8^1 + 5 * 8^0 + 5 * 8^{-1} + 3 * 8^{-2} + 0 * 2^{-3} + 1 * 2^{-4}$$

$$= 64 + 48 + 5 + 5/8 + 3/64 = (117\ 43/64)_10$$

Hexadecimal Number system: In this number system, the radix is 16 and the 16 allowed digits are 0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,A,B,C,D,E,and F. We show the first 16 hexadecimal numbers in table there other A to F is used to represent 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15 numbers respectively. Hexadecimal number is shown in the positional notation are as below.

Example 2.4

$$N = (3\ A\ 8)_{16}$$

$$16^2\ 16^1\ 16^0 \quad \text{-Weight}$$

$$256\ 16\ 1 \quad \text{-Weight in Decimal}$$

Notes:

- Weights double for each move to left from the hexadecimal point
- Weights are halved for each move to right from the hexadecimal point

2.5 Number base conversions

Any number in base-n, the least significant digit holds the units (i.e. n^0 the next the number of n's (i.e. n^1) and the next the number of n^2 . So in general the value of the three-digit number abc in base n, i.e. abc_n, is given by

$$abc = (a \times n^2) + (b \times n^1) + (c \times n^0)$$

To convert numbers from a non-decimal system to decimal, we simply expand the given n number as a polynomial and evaluate the polynomial using decimal arithmetic, as shown in Examples 2.1 through 2.4. When a decimal number is converted to any other system, the integer and fraction portions of the number are handled separately. The radix divide technique is used to convert the integer portion, and the radix multiply technique is used for the fraction portion.

2.5.1 Conversion from Decimal to n-base.

In binary code this means that successive digits hold the number of 1's, 2's, 4's, 8's etc., that is quantities represented by 2 raised to successively higher powers. In the above text and examples where it was necessary to use numeric representation (e.g. of $10^2 = 100$ and $2^3 = 8$) then base-10 was used. It should be appreciated that any base could have been chosen, with base-10 selected simply because it is the one we are most familiar with. Remember that any written number is basically a shorthand way of recording the total number of units with successive single digits representing larger and larger quantities (i.e. 1's, 10's, 100's etc., for base-10).

- **Radix Divide Technique**

1. Divide the given integer successively by the required radix, noting the remainder at each step. The quotient at each step becomes the new dividend for subsequent division. Stop the division process when the quotient becomes zero.

2. Collect the remainders from each step (last to first) and place them left to right to form the required number. The following examples illustrate the procedure.

Examples 2.5 Convert Decimal Number to Binary, Octal and Hexadecimal

1). 245_{10} to binary

Base convert	Number in Decial	Reminder
2	245	↑ 1
2	122	0
2	61	1
2	30	0
2	15	1
2	7	1
2	3	1
2	1	1
Binary digit's of 245 is 11110101		

2). 245_{10} to Octal

Base convert	Number in Decial	Reminder
8	245	↑ 5
8	30	6
8	3	3
octal digit's of 245 is 365		

3) 245_{10} to Hexadecimal

Base convert	Number in Decial	Reminder
16	245	↑ 5 5
16	15	15 F
octal digit's of 245 is F5		

- **Radix Multiply Technique**

As we move each position to the right of the radix point, the weight corresponding to each bit in the binary fraction is halved. The radix multiply technique uses this fact and multiplies the given decimal number by 2 (i.e., divides the given number by half) to obtain each fraction bit. The technique consists of the following steps:

1. Successively multiply the given fraction by the required base, noting the integer portion of the product at each step. Use the fractional part of the product as the multiplicand for subsequent steps. Stop when the fraction either reaches 0 or recurs.
2. Collect the integer digits at each step from first to last and arrange them left to right.

If the radix multiplication process does not converge to 0, it is not possible to represent a decimal fraction in binary exactly, and then depends on the number of bits used to represent the fraction. Some examples follow.

Examples 2.6 Convert Floating Decimal Number to Binary, Octal and Hexadecimal.

1). 0.675_{10} to binary

Base convert	Number in Decial	Integer
2	0.675	1
2	0.3500	0
2	0.7000	1
2	0.4000	0
2	0.8000	1
2	0.6000	1
2	0.2000	0
2		
Binary digit's of 0.675 is (0.1010110)		

2). 0.545_{10} to Octal

Base convert	Number in Decial	Integer
8	0.5450	4
8	0.3600	2
8	0.8800	7
8	0.0400	0
8	0.3200	2
8	0.5600	4
8	0.4800	3
Binary digit's of 0.545 is (0.427024..)		

3) 0.480_{10} to Hexadecimal

Base convert	Number in Decial	Integer	
16	0.4800	7	
16	0.6800	10	A
16	0.8800	14	E
16	0.0800	1	
16	0.2800	4	
16	0.4800	7	
16	0.6800	10	A
Binary digit's of 0.48 is (0.7AE14....)			

When a number is converted from base x to base y , the number in base x is divided (or multiplied) by y in base x arithmetic. Because of our familiarity with decimal arithmetic, these methods are convenient when $x = 10$. In general, it is easier to convert a base x number to base y ($x \neq 10, y \neq 10$) by first converting the number to decimal from base x and then converting that decimal number to base y (i.e., $(N)_x \rightarrow (?)_{10} \rightarrow (?)_y$), as shown by the following example.

Examples 2.7 Convert (48.75)₈ Digit in to Decimal and convert in Binary and hexadecimal.

$$N_8 = (4 \ 8 \ . \ 7 \ 5)_8$$

-Weight

$$N_{10} = 4 * 8^1 + 8 * 8^0 + 7 * 8^{-1} + 5 * 8^{-2}$$

$$= 32 + 8 + 5 + 7/8 + 5/64 = (45 \frac{61}{64})_{10} = 45.9531_{10}$$

$$N_2 = (101101.1111001)_2$$

Integer Part			Fractional Part		
Base convert	Number in Decial	Reminder	Base convert	Number in Decial	Integer
2	45	↑ 1	2	0.9531	1
2	22	0	2	0.9062	1
2	11	1	2	0.8124	1
2	5	1	2	0.6248	1
2	2	0	2	0.2496	0
2	1	1	2	0.4992	0
			2	0.9984	↓ 1
Binary digit's of 45 is 101101			Binary digit's of 0.9531 is (0.1111001)		
Binary digit of 45.9531 decimal number is (101101.1111001)					

$$N_{16} = (101101.1111001)_2$$

Integer Part			Fractional Part		
Base convert	Number in Decial	Reminder	Base convert	Number in Decial	Integer
16	45	↑ 13 D	16	0.9531	15 F
16	2	2	16	0.2496	3
			16	0.9936	15 F
			16	0.8976	14 E
			16	0.3616	5
			16	0.7856	12 C
			16	0.5696	↓ 9
Hex digit's of 45 is 2D in Hex			Hex digit's of 0.9531 is (0.F3FE5C..)		
Hex digit's of 45.9531 decimal is 2D.F3FE5C					

2.5.2 Radix 2k Conversion

Each of the eight octal digits can be represented by a 3-bit binary number. Similarly, each of the 16 hexadecimal digits can be represented by a 4-bit binary number. In general, each digit of the base x number system, where x is an integral power k of 2, can be represented by a k-bit binary number.

In converting a base x number to base y, if x and y are both integral powers of 2, the base x number can first be converted to binary, and this can in turn be converted to base y by inspection. This conversion procedure is called the base 2k conversion.

Examples 2.8 Convert (32A5F.6A)₁₆ Digit in to octal and Binary digit.

$$N = (3\ 2\ A\ 5\ F\ .\ 6\ A)_{16}$$

Convert all digits in to binary 2^4

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc} 3 & 2 & A & 5 & F & . & 6 & A \\ 0011 & 0010 & 1011 & 0101 & 1111 & . & 0110 & 1010 \end{array}$$

So the binary of $32A5F.6A_{16}$ is $00110010101101011111.01101010$

Now, convert this binary digit in Octal make all bits in group of 3-bits from the radix so Integer and Decimal both make different pairs if require then add 0 to MSB or LSB i.e. here fractional part of eight bit so add 0 in to the LSB and integer part of 20 bits so add 0 to MSB fractional part.

$$\begin{array}{cccccccccccc} N_8 = & \underline{000} & \underline{110} & \underline{010} & \underline{101} & \underline{101} & \underline{011} & \underline{111} & \underline{.011} & \underline{010} & \underline{100} \\ = & 0 & 6 & 2 & 5 & 5 & 3 & 7 & .3 & 2 & 4 \end{array}$$

$$N_8 = 625537.324$$

2.6 Binary Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication and Division

Arithmetic in all other number systems follows the same general rules as in decimal. Binary arithmetic is simpler than decimal arithmetic since only two digits (0 and 1) are involved. In this section, we will describe binary arithmetic in detail.

In the so-called fixed-point representation of binary numbers in digital systems, the radix point is assumed to be either at the right end or the left end of the field in which the number is represented. In the first case, the number is an integer, and in the second it is a fraction.

2.6.1 Binary Arithmetic:

Addition

In Table 2.2, note that $0 + 0 = 0$, $0 + 1 = 1$, $1 + 0 = 1$, and $1 + 1 = 10$. Thus, the addition of two 1s results in a SUM of 0 and a CARRY of 1. When two binary numbers are added, the carry from any position is included in the addition of bits in the next most significant position, as in decimal arithmetic. Example 2.9 illustrates this.

A+B		A	
		0	1
B	0	0	1
	1	1	10

Carry
Sum

Table 2.2 Binary Addition

Examples 2.9 Add two Binary digit 1111 (15)₁₀ and 10100 (20)₁₀

For the purposes of illustration, this procedure assumed the division of integers. If the divisor is greater than the dividend, the quotient is 0, and if the divisor is 0, the procedure should be stopped since dividing by 0 results in an error.

Shifting

Generally, shifting a base r number left by one position (and inserting a 0 into the vacant LSD position) is equivalent to multiplying the number by r . Shifting the number right by one position (inserting a 0 into the vacant MSD position) generally is equivalent to dividing the number by r . In binary system, each left shift multiplies the number by 2, and each right shift divides the number by 2, as shown in Example 2.21.

Example 2.11 Shift left and right of $(011001.11)_2$.

	Binary	Decimal
N	011001.11	25.75
2* N	110011.10	51.50
N÷2	001100.111	12.875

If the MSB of an n -bit number is not 0, shifting it left would result in a number larger than the magnitude that can be accommodated in n bits and the 1 shifted out of the MSB position cannot be discarded. If nonzero bits shifted out of the LSB position during a right shift are discarded, the accuracy is lost. Later in this chapter, we will discuss shifting in further detail.

Negative number

All numbers have two magnitudes either it is negative or it may be positive. Standard and conventional method for a negative number is representing by placing sign symbol before the number, i.e. negative decimal number 27 is written as -27, if -27 is to be added to + 53, we write $+ 53 + (-27) = 26$, and negative number is subtracted from positive number is $+53 - (- 27) = +53 +27= 80$.

The technique use to representing a negative number in digital system, in binary code bi-stable devices can store binary digit, i.e. set of five switches can store the value of 00000 to 11111, now if we desire to increase the total range of numbers in negative from 00000 to -11111 one more bit required, which bit indicate the sign of number. Generally when sign bit is 0 it indicate number is positive and sign bit is 1 indicate the negative number representation.

If any binary number is in unsigned number in this situation this number always indicate only positive magnitude, so the range of this number is doubled comparing with sign number,

Example 2.12

Unsigned N = 10101010 so, N10= 170 (Range is 0 to 255)

While, Sign N = **1**0101010 so, $N_{10} = -42$ (Range is +127 to -128)

Sign N = **0**0101010, $N_{10} = +42$

The Bold and Gray bit represent the sign of the bit each binary bit is simply store in a individual bi-stable device. So here each number have separator to indicate the sign bit of the number, i.e. -, *, .(dot) , which indicate digit 1-1010, 1*1010, 1.1010 indicate the -10 number.

2.7 Complements

Complements are used in digital computer system for simplifying the subtraction operation and for logical manipulation. There are two types of complements for each base-r system. There are r's complement and (r-1)'s complement. For binary number referred as a 2's complement and 1's complement., For decimal number referred as 10's complement and 9's complement, For Octal number referred as a 8's complement and 7's complement and, for Hexadecimal number referred as a 16's complement and 15's complement respectively.

(r-1)'s Complement

Given a number N in base r having n digits, the(r-1)'s complement of N is defined as $(r^n - 1) - N$ for decimal number $r=10$, $r-1=9$ so the 9's complement of N is $(10^n - 1) - N$. For example $n=4$ we have $10^4 - 1 = 9999$. Which follows the 9's complement of the following decimal number is obtained by subtracting each digit from 9.

Example 2.13 Find 9's complement of following digits.

$$\begin{array}{l} (1) \quad 67896 \quad : \quad 99999 - 67896 \quad = \quad 32103 \\ (2) \quad 1658.39 \quad : \quad 9999.99 - 1658.39 \quad = \quad 8341.60 \end{array}$$

For binary number, $r=2$ and $r-1=1$, so the 1's complement of N is $(2^n - 1) - N$. Again, 2^n is represented by a binary number that consist of a 1 followed by n 0's. $2^n - 1$ is a binary number represented by n 1's.

For example, with $n = 4$, we have $2^4 = (10000)_2 - 1 = (1111)_2$ thus 1's complement of binary number is obtain by subtracting of a binary digit from 1 cause the bit to change from 0 to 1 or from 1 to 0.

Example 2.14 Find 1's complement of following digits

$$\begin{array}{l} (3) \quad 10111010 \quad : \quad 11111111 - 10111010 = 01000101 \\ (4) \quad 1101.01 \quad : \quad 1111.11 - 1101.01 \quad = \quad 0010.10 \end{array}$$

The (r-1)'s complement of octal and hexadecimal numbers are obtained by subtracting each digit from 7 and F (15) respectively.

r's Complement

r's complement is obtain by adding 1 to (r-1)'s complement, so the $r^n - N = [(r^n - 1) - N] + 1$ thus 10's complement of the decimal number,

$$\begin{array}{l} (1) \quad 67896 \quad : \quad 32103 + 1 \quad = \quad 32104 \\ (2) \quad 1658.39 \quad : \quad 1658.39 + .01 \quad = \quad 1658.40 \end{array}$$

2's complement of Binary

$$\begin{array}{l} (3) \quad 10111010 \quad : \quad 01000101 + 1 \quad = \quad 01000110 \\ (4) \quad 1101.01 \quad : \quad 0010.10 + .01 \quad = \quad 0010.11 \end{array}$$

The r's complement of octal and hexadecimal numbers are obtained by adding 1 to (r-1)'s complement.

2.7.1 Use of complements to represent Negative Numbers

There are two basic type of complements which are useful in the binary and decimal number systems. For decimal number system two types are referred as 10's and 9's complement.

1) Decimal Subtraction using complement method.

Using 10's complement

- For subtract the one positive number (the minuend) from another (the subtrahend), first the 10's complement of subtrahend is formed, and then this 10's complement is added to this minuend.
- If there is a carry from the addition of the most significant digits then it is discarded, the difference is positive, and the result is correct.
- If the there is no carry the difference is negative the 10's complement of this number is formed, and a minus sign is placed before the result.

Using 9's complement

- For subtract the one positive number (the minuend) from another (the subtrahend), first the 9's complement of subtrahend is formed, and then added to this minuend.
- If there is a carry from the addition of the most significant digits then it is discarded from number and added to LSB of digit. It is your answer.
- If the there is no carry the difference is negative the 9's complement of the addition is formed, and a minus sign is placed before the result. It is your answer.

Example 2.15 Find result using 10's and 9's complement.

• **Subtraction using 10's complement.**

(1) **Subtract 75 - 21**

$$\begin{array}{r} 75 \text{ Minuend} \\ - 21 \text{ Subtrahend} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

54 Difference

9's complement of 21 is $99-21=78$

10's complement of 78 is $78+1=79$

Now, add 10's complement in to minuend $75+79=154$

Here 1 carry generate so ignore it, and place '+' before result + **54** is answer.

(2) **Subtract 45 - 54**

$$\begin{array}{r} 45 \text{ Minuend} \\ - 54 \text{ Subtrahend} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

-11 Difference

9's complement of 54 is $99-54=45$

10's complement of 45 is $45+1=46$

Now, add 10's complement in to minuend $45+46=91$

Here No carry so, Find 10's complement of 91 .

Find 9's complement of 91 is $99-91=8$, 10's complement of 8 is $8+1=9$.

Here no carry generate place '-' before result - 9 is answer

• **Subtraction using 9's complement.**

(3) **Subtract 75 - 21**

$$\begin{array}{r} 75 \text{ Minuend} \\ - 21 \text{ Subtrahend} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

54 Difference

9's complement of 21 is $99-21=78$

Now, add 9's complement in to minuend $75+78=153$

Here 1 carry generate so add it in your result of two digits is $53+1=54$ answer.

(4) **Subtract 45 - 54**

$$\begin{array}{r} 45 \text{ Minuend} \\ - 54 \text{ Subtrahend} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

-11 Difference

9's complement of 54 is $99-54=45$

Now, add 9's complement in to minuend $45+45=90$

Here No carry so, Find 10's complement of 91.

Find 9's complement of 99 is $99-90=9$,

Here no carry generate place '-' before result - 9 is answer.

2.7.2 Binary number complement

❖ Binary subtraction using complement method.

Using 2's complement

- 2's complement of binary number is formed by simply subtracting each digit (bit) of the number the radix minus 1 and adding 1 to least significant bit.
- The rules for application are every 1 in the number is changed to a 0 and every 0 to 1. Then 1 is added to the least significant bit of the number formed.
- For instance, 2's complement of the number 10110 is 01001 add 1 to this number, and then the number formed is 01010.

Using 1's complement

- 1's complement system is actually the complement of the binary number.
- For instance, 1's complement of 11101 is 00010. When subtraction is performed in the 1's complement system, any end-around carry is added to the least significant bit.

Example 2.16 Find result using 2s or 1s complement.

- **Subtraction using 1's complement. (Minuend > Subtrahend).**

1. 10101 - 1010 using 1s

$$\begin{array}{r} 10101 \quad \text{Minuend} \\ - 01010 \quad \text{Subtrahend} \\ \hline 01011 \quad \text{Difference} \end{array}$$

1's complement of 01010 is 10101

Now add , 10101 (Minuend)
 + 10101(1s Subtrahend)

(Avoid Carry 1) 01010 (1' complement make it 2's complement)

Add 1 in LSB 01011(Difference)

In **01011** Answer. 1 carry generated and ignore it, so that it is a '+' number.

- **Subtraction using 2's complement. (Minuend < Subtrahend).**

1. 1010 - 10101 using 1s

$$\begin{array}{r} 01010 \quad \text{Minuend} \\ - 10101 \quad \text{Subtrahend} \\ \hline 10101 \quad \text{Difference (first 1 indicate negative number)} \end{array}$$

1's complement of 10101 is 01010 and make 2s complement of it is '01011'

Now add , 01010 (Minuend)
 + 01011(2s of Subtrahend)

(No carry '-') **10101(Difference)**

In **10101** Answer. No carry generated, First bit 1 indicate it is a '-' number.

2.8 Binary codes

We are very comfortable with decimal code, but Digital system forced to use a binary number system. Although the binary number system has many practical advantages and is widely used in digital computer, Numeric decimal codes used to represent decimal digits are called **Binary Coded Decimal (BCD)** codes.

Binary code is representing numeric and various other symbols such as alphabetic characters and special characters (e.g. /, +, -, =) to represent information data in binary form. A digital system requires that all information be in binary form. These human friendly symbols have a unique pattern of 0s and 1s are assigned to represent each symbol. This pattern is the code word corresponding to that symbol. It is possible to represent 2^n elements with a binary string containing n bits. That is, if n symbols are to be represented in binary form, the minimum number of bits n required in the code word is given by $2^{n-1} < n \leq 2^n$.

The code word might be containing more than n bits to accommodate error detection and correction. Once the number of bits in the code word is set, the assignment of the code words to the symbols of information to be represented could be random (in which case a table associating each element with its code word is needed) or might follow some general rule.

For example, if the code word is required to represent four symbols—say, A, B, C, D we can use the four combinations of 2 bits (00, 01, 10, and 11). Assignments of these combinations to the four symbols can be random, but after assignment it will no changed.

To represent the 9 digits of decimal system we would need 4 bit, to generate 16 possible combinations of 0s and 1s. and each code assign to each digit and still some codes are non used code, or we can say that it is non valid code.

The codes designed to represent only numeric data (i.e., decimal digits 0 through 9) can be classified into two categories:

- 1). Weighted
- 2). Non-weighted.

The alphanumeric codes can represent both alphabetic and numeric data. A third class of codes is designed for error-detection and -correction purposes.

2.8.1 Weighted codes (BCD)

A BCD code is one, in which the decimal digits are encoded –one at a time into group of four binary digits. As stated, we require at least 4 bits to represent the 10 decimal digits. But with 4 bits only 10 of the 16 possible combinations are used, numerous different codes are possible. *Table 2.5* shows some of these possibilities.

There are several weighted codes. The weighted codes are either *positively weighted* or *negatively weighted*.

Positively weighted codes are those in which all the weighs assign to the binary digits are positive. There are only 17 positively weighted codes. In these code first must be 1, second must be either 1 or 2, and the sum of all weighs must be equals to or grater than 9. The code 8421, 2421, 5211, 3321, 4311 are some of positively-weighted codes.

Negatively weighted codes some of the assign to the binary digits must be negative. The code 642-3, 631-1, 84-2-1, and 74-2-1 are some of negatively-weighted codes.

All of these codes given in tables are weighted codes, since each bit position in the code has a weight associated with it. The sum of weights corresponding to each nonzero bit in the code is the decimal digit represented by it.

Weights	8421	2421	5211	5421	642-3	84-2-1
Digits	Code	Code	Code	Code	Code	Code
0	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000
1	0001	0001	0001	0001	0101	0111
2	0010	0010	0011	0010	0010	0110
3	0011	0011	0101	0011	1001	0101
4	0100	0100	0111	0100	0100	0100
5	0101	0101	1000	1000	1011	1011
6	0110	0110	1010	1001	0110	1010
7	0111	0111	1100	1010	1101	1001
8	1000	1110	1110	1011	1010	1000
9	1001	1111	1111	1100	1111	1111

Table 2.5 Weighted Code

Sequential Codes

Some weighted codes are one binary number greater than its preceding code word. Such as 8421 and XS-3 (see later) are sequential code.

Self-complementing codes

If the code word N of 9's complementing 9-N, can be obtain from the code word of the N by interchanging all 0s and 1s. Thus the code which has sum of numbers is 9 are self complementing code. Here, 8421, 5421 codes are not self complementing code, while 2421, 5211, 642-3, 84-2-1 are self complementing codes.

I.e. code 5211= 5+2+1+1 =9 so, it is self-complementing code.

Cyclic code

Each successive code word differs from the preceding one in only one bit position that is known as a cyclic code. They also called *unit distance codes*. Gray code is a cyclic code.

1. BCD Codes

- **The 8421 BCD code:** In this code every decimal digit coded in their own binary code, as per *table 2.5*. It is also called *natural binary* code. It is useful for mathematical operations. Main advantage of this code is it's easy to conversion to and from decimal. It is less efficient than the pure binary. The decimal number 11 represent in pure binary as a 1011 but in 8421 BCD code it

2.8.2 Non-Weighted codes (BCD)

Table 2.6 shows two popular codes. They do not have any weight associated with each bit of the code word.

Gray Code				Decimal	4-bit binary	XS-3 Code	XS-3 GrayCod
1-bit	2-bit	3-bit	4-bit				
0	0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0	0 0 0 0	0011	0010
1	0 1	0 0 1	0 0 0 1	1	0 0 0 1	0100	0110
	1 1	0 1 1	0 0 1 1	2	0 0 1 0	0101	0111
	1 0	0 1 0	0 0 1 0	3	0 0 1 1	0110	0101
		1 1 0	0 1 1 0	4	0 1 0 0	0111	0100
		1 1 1	0 1 1 1	5	0 1 0 1	1000	1100
		1 0 1	0 1 0 1	6	0 1 1 0	1001	1101
		1 0 0	0 1 0 0	7	0 1 1 1	1010	1111
			1 1 0 0	8	1 0 0 0	1011	1110
			1 1 0 1	9	1 0 0 1	1100	1010
			1 1 1 1	10	1 0 1 0	Not define	Not define
			1 1 1 0	11	1 0 1 1	Not define	Not define
			1 0 1 0	12	1 1 0 0	Not define	Not define
			1 0 1 1	13	1 1 0 1	Not define	Not define
			1 0 0 1	14	1 1 1 0	Not define	Not define
			1 0 0 0	15	1 1 1 1	Not define	Not define

Table 2.6 Non-Weighted Codes and reflection of gray code

1. Excess Three (XS-3) Codes: Excess-3 is a 4-bit self-complementing code. It can be written as XS-3 code. The code for each decimal digit is obtained by adding 3 to the corresponding BCD code word. It is sequential code so it can be useful for arithmetic operations. Excess-3 code has been used in some older computer systems. In addition to being self-complementing, thereby making subtraction easier, this code enables simpler arithmetic hardware. This code is included here for completeness and is no longer commonly used. It has six invalid states those are 0000, 0001, 0010, 1101, 1110 and 1111. Those are not indicated in *table 2.6*.

In XS-3 Gray code each decimal digit is encoded with the Gray code pattern of the decimal digit that is greater by 3. it has a unit distance between the pattern for 0 to 9. *table 2.6* XS-3 Gray code for decimal digits 0 through 9.

XS-3 Arithmetic:

XS-3 code has very important properties for performing arithmetic operation:

- **Addition:**

- ❑ To add in XS-3 number by adding the 4-bit group in each column starting from LSD.
- ❑ If there is no carry out from the addition of any of the 4 bit groups, subtract 0011 from the sum term of those groups. (*Two decimal are added in XS-3 and no carry the result is in XS-6*).

- ❑ If there is a carry out, add 0011 to the sum term of those groups (because when there is a carry, the invalid states are skipped and the result is in normal binary).

▪ **Subtraction:**

- ❑ To subtract in XS-3 number by subtracting 4-bit group of the subtrahend from the corresponding 4-bit group of minuend starting from LSD.
- ❑ If there is no borrow from the next 4-bit group, add 0011 to the difference term of such group (because when decimal digits are subtracted in XS-3 and there is no borrow, the result is in normal binary).
- ❑ If there is a borrow, subtract 0011 from the difference term (because taking a borrow is equivalent to adding six invalid states, so the result is in XS-6).
- ❑ Generally subtraction is performed by the 9's complement or 10's complement method.

Example 2.20 Perform the following addition in XS-3 code.

A) 5 + 3 B) 27 + 18 C) 217.8 + 518.7

a)

5	1000	5-in XS-3
+ 3	→ 0110	3-in XS-3
8	1110	No Carry But Invalid code
-	0011	Subtract 0011 to add carry
	0111	Correct sum in XS-3

b)

27	0101	1010	27-in XS-3	
+ 18	→ 0100	1011	18-in XS-3	
45	1001	1	0101	Carry
+	1	↓		Propagate
	1010	0101		Add 0011 to correct
-	0011	+	0011	Subtract 0011 to add carry
	0111	1000		Correct sum in XS-3

c)

217.8	0101	0100	1010	. 1011	217.18-in XS-3		
+ 518.7	→ 1000	0100	1011	. 1010	718.17-in XS-3		
736.5	1101	1000	1	0101	. 1 0101	Carry	
-		1	↓	1	↓	Propagate	
Not Valid	1101	1001	0110	. 0101		Add 0011 to correct	
-	0011	-	0011	+	0011	+ 0011	Subtract 0011 to add carry
	1010	0110	1001	. 1000		Correct sum in XS-3	

Example 2.21 Perform the following subtraction in XS-3 code using 9's complement.

(A) 267-175 (B) 57.6-27.8 (C) 687-348 (9's com) (D) 246-592(9's com)

(a) 267-175

	Borrow	↑			
267	0101		1001	1010	267-in XS-3
175	0100		1010	1000	175-in XS-3
442	0000	1	1111	0010	subtract 0011 to borrow
+	0011	-	0011	+	0011 Add 0011 to other term
	0011		1100	0101	

(b) 57.6-27.8

57.6	1000	1010	.	1001	57.6-in XS-3
27.8	0101	1010	.	1011	27.8-in XS-3
29.8	0010	1	1111	1	1110 subtract 0011 to borrow
+	0011	-	0011	-	0011 Add 0011 to other term
	0101	1100	1011		

(c) 687-348

687	Minuend	1001	1011	1010	687-in XS-3
348	Subtrahend	1001	1000	0100	651-in XS-3
339		1	0011	1	0011 1110 subtract 0011 to borrow
		+		1	Add 0011 to other term
	Using 9's complement	0011	0011	1111	Invalid value
	(999-348)=651 add to Minuend	+	0011	+	0011 - 0011 add 0011 to subtract 0011
	687	0110	0110	1100	
	651				
1	338				

Note: Here ignore 1 and make 10s =338+1=339 carry generate so result must be positive.

(d) 246-592

246	Minuend	0101	0111	1001	246-in XS-3
592	Subtrahend	0111	0011	1010	408-in XS-3
-346		1100	1011	1	0011 subtract 0011 to borrow
		-	0011	-	0011 + 0011 Add 0011 to other term
	Using 9's complement	1001	1000	0110	No carry so negative number
	(999-592)=407 add to Minuend	Complement of this number, is negative number			
	246	0110	0111	1001	
	407				
	653				

Note : Here, No carry generate so answer is negative 9's of 653 is 346 for which has a negative sign so answer is -346

2. Gray Code: The gray code is not suitable for arithmetic operation it is cyclic unit distance and reflective code. It is a 4-bit code in which the 16 code words are selected such that there is a change in only 1-bit position as we move from one code word to the adjacent code word. Because only 1-bit changes from code word to code word, it is easier to detect an error if there is a change in more than 1 bit.

For example, consider the case of a shaft position indicator. Assume that the shaft position is divided into 16 sectors indicated by the gray code. As the shaft rotates, the code words change. If at any time there is a change in 2 bits of the code word compared with the previous one, there is an error. Several cyclic codes have been devised and are commonly used.

Another property of gray code is its corresponding to an decimal number 2^{n-1} for any n differs from gray coded 0 in one bit position only. This property places the gray code for the largest N -bit binary number at unit distance from 0. it is easier to determine the pattern assignment corresponding to an random number, or decode an random number gray code pattern using the conversions to and from binary. Gray codes are used in instrumentation and data acquisition systems where linear or angular displacement is measured. They are also used in shaft encoder, I/O devices, A/D converters and other peripheral equipments.

Consider a rotating disk that provides an output of its position in 3-bit binary (*Fig2.1*). When the brushes are on the black part, they output a 1, and when they are on a white sector they output a 0. Still some errors are there, i.e. if the brushes are on the sector 010 and almost ready to enter 110 sectors and if the 4's brushes are slightly ahead, the position would be indicate by 110 instead of 010 resulting in a very small error. *Fig 2.1* illustrate this operation

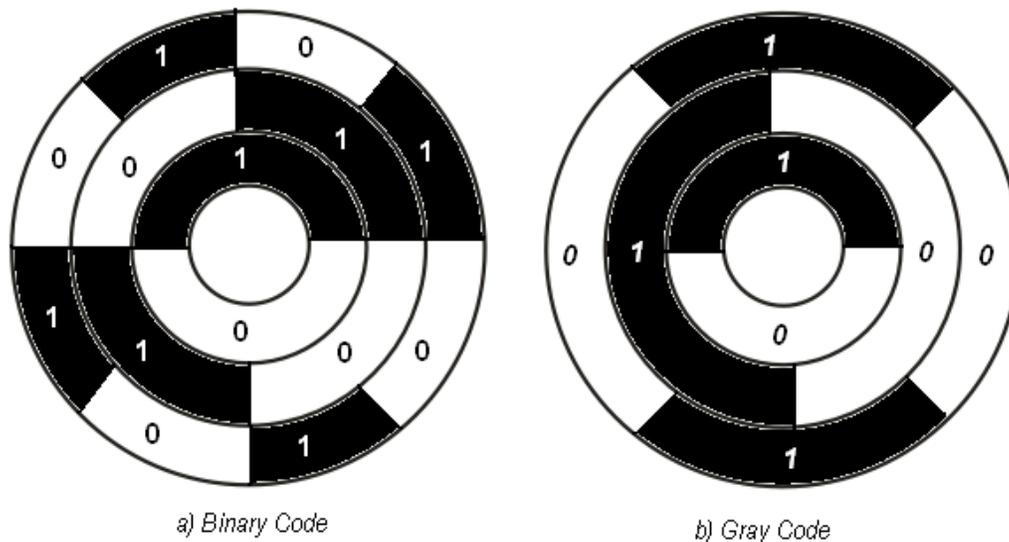


Figure 2.1 Code indication

➤ **Binary to Gray & Gray to Binary**

Binary code to Gray code

In n-bit binary number represented by $B_n B_{n-1} B_{n-2} \dots B_1$ and its gray code equivalent by $G_n G_{n-1} G_{n-2} \dots G_2 G_1$. Where B_n and G_n are MSB then gray code bits are obtained from the binary code as follows

- Term . 1 $G_n = B_n$ (**MSB**)
- Term . 2 $G_n = B_n \oplus B_{n-1}$
- Term . 3 $G_n = B_{n-1} \oplus B_{n-2}$
- Term . .
- Term . .
- Term . .
- Term . .
- Term . n $G_1 = B_2 \oplus B_1$ (**LSB**)

a	b	a X-OR b
		$a \oplus b$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

Table 2.7 X-OR ($a \oplus b$) output

When \oplus stands for Exclusive Or (X-OR). Truth table for output XOR is as per table 2.7.

- Record the MSB of the Binary as the Gray code.
- Add the MSB of the Binary to the next bit in Binary, recording the sum and ignoring the carry if any, i.e. X-Or the bit. This sum is the next bit of the Gray code.
- Add the 2nd bit of the Binary to the 3rd bit of the Binary, the 3rd bit to the 4th bit and so on....
- Record the successive sums as the successive bits of the Gray code until all the bits of the Binary number are exhausted.

Example 2.22 Convert the binary code 1001 to gray code.

1st Method -Using XOR

Binary code - 1 → 0 → 0 → 1
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 Gray code - 1 → 1 → 0 → 1 = 1101. Gray code of 1001 Binary code

2nd Method –Shifted Binary

Binary code - 1 0 0 1
 Shifted binary - + 1 0 0 1 → Ignore This bit.
 1 1 0 1 Gray code of 1001 Binary code

1st Method: 8,4,2,1 bit binary code are represented like 8 bit gray code represented as 8 bit of binary bit, 4 bit of gray code represented as (8bit binary \oplus 4-bit binary), 2 bit of gray code represented as (4-bit binary \oplus 2-bit binary), 1 bit of gray code represented as (2-bit binary \oplus 1-bit binary), and o this gray code as a **1101** as a result.

2nd Method: 8,4,2,1 bit binary code using shifted method as add binary code in to 1 bit right shifted binary code and exhausted last bit of code, so add 100(right shifted binary code) to 1001 and you find the gray code as a **1101** as a result.

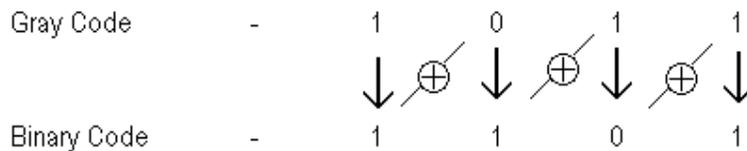
Gray code to Binary code

In n-bit Gray number represented by $G_n G_{n-1} G_{n-2} \dots G_2 G_1$ and it's Binary equivalent number by $B_n B_{n-1} B_{n-2} \dots B_1$. Where B_n and G_n are MSB then gray code bits are obtained from the Gray code as follows,

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 \text{Term . 1} & B_n = G_n \quad (\mathbf{MSB}) \\
 \text{Term . 2} & B_{n-1} = B_n \oplus G_{n-1} \\
 \text{Term . 3} & B_{n-2} = B_{n-1} \oplus G_{n-2} \\
 \text{Term . .} & \\
 \text{Term . .} & \\
 \text{Term . .} & \\
 \text{Term . n} & B_1 = B_2 \oplus G_1 \quad (\mathbf{LSB})
 \end{array}$$

1. Record the MSB of the Gray code as the Binary code.
2. Add the MSB of the binary to the next significant bit of the Gray code, recording the sum and ignoring the carry if any, i.e. XOR the bit. This sum is the next bit of the gray code.
3. XOR the 2nd bit of the Binary to the 3rd bit of the Gray code, the 3rd bit of the Binary to 4th bit of the Gray code and so on....
4. Continue till all the gray bits are exhausted. The sequence of bit written down is the binary equivalent of the Gray code number.

Example 2.23 Convert the Gray code 1011 to Binary code.



Record the 8 bit MSB of the Gray code as the 8 bit of Binary code. XOR 8-bit of Binary to 4 bit of Gray code ($1 \oplus 0$), 4 bit of Binary to 2 Bit of Gray code ($1 \oplus 1$), 2-bit of Binary to 1-bit of gray code ($0 \oplus 1$) where Gray code is exhausted and record your Binary code **1101** as a result.

2.8.3 Error detecting code and Error correcting codes

Network must be transfer data from inter communication of network devices, during the transmission of data accuracy must be acceptable to other device. A system must be guarantee to received data Identical to the data transmitted. In any condition data must be transmitted but not received, they can be corrupted in passage. Many factors can be altering one or more bits of message. Some applications require a mechanism for detecting and correcting errors.

Types of Errors

Whenever bits flow from one point to another, they are subject to unpredictable changes because of interference. This interference can change the shape of signal. In a single bit error a 0 is changed to 1 or 1 to a 0. in a burst error, multiple bits are changed.

Error Detecting Code

1. Parity-check code:

Parity check code is most familiar code for error-detecting for your datawords. k-bit datawords can be changed to an n-bit codeword where $n=k+1$. The extra bit, called the parity bit, is selected to make the total number of 1s in the codeword even. Although some implementations specify an odd number of 1s, parity check code is error detecting code in *fig 2.2* it can't be correct any error.

Single bit error:

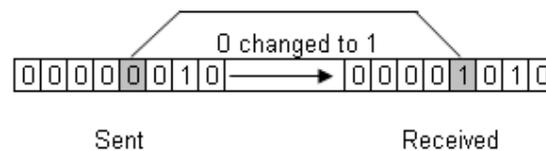


Figure 2.2 Single bit error

The encoder uses a generator that takes a copy of a 4-bit dataword (a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3) and generates a parity bit r_0 . The dataword bit and parity bits generate 5-bit of codeword as per *fig 2.3* there are two types of parity generated either it is even parity or odd parity.

$$r_0 = a_3 + a_2 + a_1 + a_0$$

The sender sends the codeword which may be corrupted during transmission. The receiver receives a 5-bit word. The checker at the receiver does the same thing as the generator in the sender with one exception: the addition will be done over all 5 bits. The result, which is called syndrome, is just 1 bit. The syndrome is 0 when the number of 1s in the received codeword is even; otherwise, it is 1.

$$s_0 = b_3 + b_2 + b_1 + b_0 + q_0$$

The syndrome is passed to the decision logic analyzer. If the syndrome is 0, there is no error in the received codeword; the data portion of the received codeword is accepted as the dataword; if the syndrome is 1, the data portion of the received codeword is discarded. The dataword is not created.

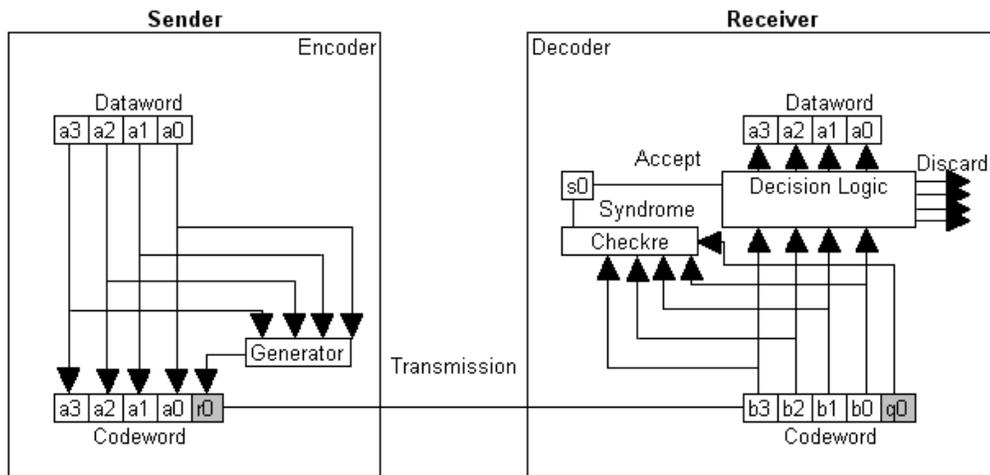


Figure 2.3 Encoder and Decoder for simple parity check

Decimal	8421 BCD	Even parity		Odd Parity	
	Datawords	P	Codewords	P	Codeword
0	0000	1	00001	0	00000
1	0001	0	00010	1	00011
2	0010	0	00100	1	00101
3	0011	1	00111	0	00110
4	0100	0	01000	1	01001
5	0101	1	01011	0	01010
6	0110	1	01101	0	01100
7	0111	0	01110	1	01111
8	1000	0	10000	1	10001
9	1001	1	10011	0	10010

Table 2.8 Even Odd Parity In 8421 BCD code

Example 2.23 Let us look at some transmission of dataword 1101. Code word created form dataword which is set odd parity and the codeword sent to receiver. We examine different cases.

- Case 1 No error occur: The received codeword is 11011. The syndrome is 0. The dataword 1011 is created.
- Case 2 Single bit error change dataword: The received codeword is 10011. The syndrome is 1. No dataword is created.
- Case 3 Single-bit error change parity: The received codeword is 11010. The syndrome is 1. No dataword is created.

- Case 4 Multiple-bit error (more than one error): If there is two bit error, the received codeword is 00110. The syndrome is 0. Dataword 0011 is created at the receiver. If there is three bit error in codeword is 00111. The syndrome is 1, no dataword is created.

Example 2.24 In Even Parity scheme which word contain an error:

No	Dataword	Even Parity	Error Status
1	10101010	1	No Error
2	11110100	0	No Error (ODD)
3	10111001	1	Error (ODD)

2. Check Sum:

Simple Parity can not detect the two error within the same word so difficulty is sort of two dimensional parity. As each word is transmitted, it is added to the sum of previously transmitted words, and sum retained at the transmitter end at the end of transmission, the sum (check sum) up to that time is sent to the receiver. The receiver can check its sum with the transmitted sum. If the two sums are the same then no error were detected at the receiver end. If there is an error the receiving location can ask for retransmission of the entire data. This is the type of transmission used in teleprocessing systems.

3. Block Parity:

When several binary words are transmitted or store in succession the result collection of bits can be regarded as a block of data, having rows and columns parity bits can then be assign to both rows and columns.

I.e. 8-bit word in succession can be formed in to 6 x 8 block for transmission. Parity bits are added both rows and columns and the block is transmitted as a 7 x 9 block as shown in Fig 2.9 (Table A) at receiving end parity is checked both row and column wise, suppose errors are detect and corrected by complementing the error bit, in Fig 2.9 (Table-B) 3rd row 5th column, it can be corrected by complementing it. Two error as shown in table C can only detected but not corrected, parity error observed in both columns 2 and 4. It indicate that in one row there are two error.

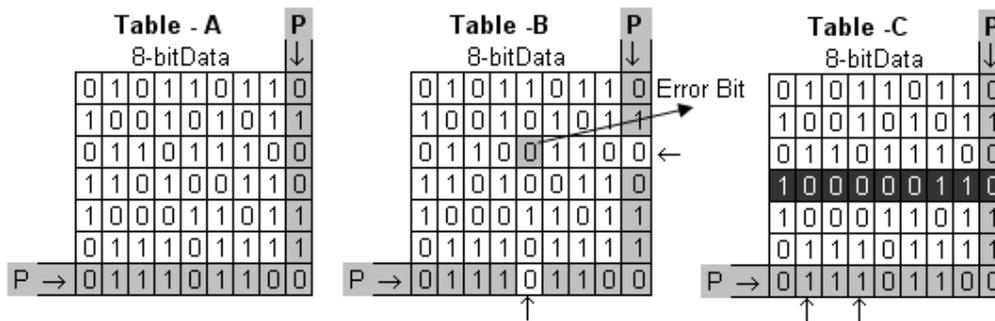


Figure 2.4 Block Parity

4. Five bit Codes:

Some 5-bits BCD code that have parity contained within each code for ease of error detection are shown in (table 2.9) the following 6310 is a weighted code (Except 0). It has the useful error detecting property that there are exactly two 1's in each code group. This code is used for storing data on magnetic tapes.

The two out of five is non weighted code it also has 1's in each code group this code is useful in telephone and communication industries at the receiving end, the receiver can check the number of 1's in each character received.

Shift counter code also called Johnson code has bit pattern produce by 5- bi Johnson counter. The 51111 code is similar to Johnson code but it is weighted code.

Decimal	63210	2-out of-5	Shift Counter	51111
0	00110	00011	00000	00000
1	00011	00101	00001	00001
2	00101	00110	00011	00011
3	01001	01001	00111	00111
4	01010	01010	01111	01111
5	01100	01100	11111	10000
6	10001	10001	11110	11000
7	10010	10010	11100	11100
8	10100	10100	11000	11110
9	11000	11000	10000	11111

Table 2.9 Five Bit BCD Code

5. The Bi-quinary code:

It is 7-bit BCD code It's a parity data code each code group regarded as consisting 2-bit subgroup and a 5-bit subgroup, and each of this subgroup contain a single 1. So, it has error checking feature. for each code group ha exactly two a's and each subgroup has exactly one 1.the weight of the bit position are as table 2.10.

Decimal			4	3	2	1	0
	5	0					
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
2	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
3	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
4	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
5	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
6	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
7	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
8	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
9	1	0	1	0	0	0	0

Table 2.10 Bi-Quinary Code

6. The Ring counters code:

10-bit ring counter code produce a sequence of 10-bit group having the property that each group has a single 1. It is weighted code because each bit weight equals to 1 of the 10 decimal digits although this code is inefficient (for 1024 encode in pure binary), it is excellent error detecting properties to implement ring counter.

Decimal	Ring Counter	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
1		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
2		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
3		0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
4		0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
5		0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
6		0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
7		0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8		0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9		1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 2.11 The Ring Counter

Error correcting codes

7-bit Hamming code: If the correct codeword is deduced from error word the minimum distance of that must be three the code. The key to error correction is that it must be possible to detect and locate erroneous digits. if location of error has been determined then by complementing the erroneous digit the message can be corrected. One type of error correcting code is hamming code.

Hamming code was detecting up to two errors and corrects one error; our focus is single bit correcting hamming code. Hamming code choose an integer $m \geq 3$. The value of n and k are then calculated from m as $n = 2^m - 1$ and $k = n - m$. The number of check bits $r = m$.

In simple, to transmit 4 data bit three parity bits located at 2^0 , 2^1 and 2^2 are added to make a 7- bit codeword which is then transmitted, the word format would be as shown below:

D3	D2	D1	D0	P2	P1	P0
----	----	----	----	----	----	----

Here the D are data bits and the P are parity bits, P0 set to 0 or 1 so it establishes even parity over D0,D1,D2. P1 set 0 or 1 to establish even parity over bits D1, D2, D3. P3 set to a 0 or 1 to establish even parity over D2, D3, D0, The bit hamming code for the decimal digits coded the BCD is shown in *table 2.12*,

Decimal Digits	D3	D2	D1	D0	P3	P2	P1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
2	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
3	0	0	1	1	1	1	0
4	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
5	0	1	0	1	1	0	1
6	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
7	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
8	1	0	0	0	1	1	1
9	1	0	0	1	1	0	0

Table 2.12 The 7-bit Hamming code- Even parity

The receiving end the message received hamming code is decoded to receiving side generator creates three parity checks P0, P1 and P2 as shown below:

The checker is the decoder creates a 3-bit syndrome (s2, s1, s0) in which each bit is the parity check for 4 out of 7 bits in received codeword:

$$s_0 = d_0 + d_1 + d_2 + p_0;$$

$$s_1 = d_1 + d_2 + d_3 + p_1;$$

$$s_2 = d_2 + d_3 + d_0 + p_2;$$

three parity-checks can generate eight different combinations are

Syndrome	000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
Error	None	p0	p1	d2	p2	d0	d3	d1

Example: 2.25 Let us trace some path sending dataword and receiving.

- The dataword 0100 become the codeword 0100011. The codeword 0100011 is received the syndrome is 000 the final dataword is 0100.
- The dataword 0111 become the codeword 0111001. The codeword 0111001 is received. The syndrome is 011. According to table d2 is in error after complementing d2 final dataword is 0111.
- The dataword 1101 become the codeword 1101000. The codeword 1101000 is received. The syndrome is 101, which means that d0 is in error. After complementing d0 we get 0000, the wrong dataword. This shows that our code cannot correct two errors.

Example: 2.26 Encode data bits 0011 in to 7-bit even parity hamming code:

0	0	1	1	P2	P1	P0
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$$110 + p_0 = 1100$$

$$100 + p_1 = 1001$$

$$100 + p_2 = 0011$$

Let us trace some path sending dataword and receiving.

- ❖ The dataword 0011 become the codeword 0011110. The codeword 0011110 is received ,
 - s0=1100=0
 - s1=1001=0
 - s2=0011=0
 Syndrome is 000 so final Dataword is 0011.
- ❖ The codeword 1011110 is received ,
 - s0=1100=0
 - s1=1011=1
 - s2=1011=1
 Syndrome is 110 so final Dataword is D3 having an error replace by complementing it and code is 0011110.

Summary

Except these are the number systems are use for computer and decimal system is use in general sense general but some other number system are also use i.e. the quinary system, which has 5 for base, was prevalent among Eskimos and north American Indians. The other system is duodecimal system (base 12) may be seen in clock, inches and feet, dozens and grosses.