

# ***Representation of Information in Digital Systems***

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# Introduction to computers

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- Computer: Machine that processes information



# Analog and Digital Systems

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- **Analog Systems:** Systems where variables have continuous values
  - Physical magnitudes are usually analog
- **Digital systems:** Systems where variables have discrete values
  - Discrete values are called digits
  - Limited precision
  - Digital magnitudes are easier to handle
  - Analog magnitudes can be converted to digital using sampling

# Analog and Digital Systems

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- Analog System



- Digital System



# Binary Systems

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- Binary Systems: Digital systems that use only two possible values
  - Binary digits are named bits (Binary Digit)
  - They are represented with symbols 0 and 1, or L and H
  - Binary Systems are almost the only digital systems used. By extension, the term digital is used as a synonym of binary
- ¿Why binary?
  - More reliability: more immunity to noise
  - Easier to build: only two values to distinguish

# Outline

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- Number Systems
- Number Systems Conversions
- Binary Codes:
  - BCD Codes
  - Progressive and cyclic codes
  - Alphanumeric codes
  - Error detection and error correction codes
  - Real and integer numbers representation

# Number Systems

- Numbers are represented using digits
- The system we commonly use is decimal:
  - $N = a_n 10^n + a_{n-1} 10^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 10 + a_0$
  - Example:  $272_{10} = 2 \cdot 10^2 + 7 \cdot 10 + 2$
- The same representation can be used with different bases:

- $$N = a_n b^n + \underbrace{a_{n-1}}_{\text{Digit}} \underbrace{b^{n-1}}_{\text{Weight}} + \dots + a_1 b + a_0$$

Base

# Number Systems

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- In a system using base  $b$ , possible digits are:
  - $0, 1, \dots, b-1$
- Using  $n$  digits,  $b^n$  different possible numbers can be represented, from  $0$  to  $b^n-1$
- This representation can be used for not natural numbers as well:
  - Example:  $727,23_{10} = 7 \cdot 10^2 + 2 \cdot 10 + 7 + 2 \cdot 10^{-1} + 2 \cdot 10^{-2}$
- The numeral systems used in digital systems are: binary ( $b=2$ ), octal ( $b=8$ ) and hexadecimal ( $b=16$ )



# Binary System

- In this system the base is 2.
  - Possible digits are 0 and 1. A digit in binary system is named “bit”.
  - $2^n$  different numbers can be represented using n bits.
- The bit with highest weight is called **MSB** (“Most Significant Bit”), and the lowest weighted bit is called **LSB** (“Least Significant Bit”).

Usually the most significant bit is written to the left, and the least significant bit is written at the right

MSB
LSB

$$1001010_2 = 1 \cdot 2^6 + 1 \cdot 2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^1 = 74_{10}$$

# Octal Number System

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- In this system the base is 8
  - Digits are 0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7
  - $8^n$  different numbers can be represented with n digits
- It is related to the binary system (8 is a power of 2,  $2^3=8$ )
  - This relationship allows to convert easily from octal to binary and from binary to octal.

- Example:

$$137_8 = 1 \cdot 8^2 + 3 \cdot 8^1 + 7 \cdot 8^0 = 95_{10}$$

# Hexadecimal Number System

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- In this system the base is 16.
  - Digits are 0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,A,B,C,D,E,F.
  - It is related to binary system as well ( $2^4=16$ )
  - A hexadecimal digit allows to represent the same as 4 bits (because  $2^4=16$ ). An hexadecimal digit can be named as “**nibble**”.
  - Two hexadecimal digits are equivalent to 8 bits. A set of 8 bits, or equivalently 2 hexadecimal digits, are called “**byte**”.
- Notations:  $23AF_{16} = 23AF_{\text{hex}} = 23AFh = 0x23AF = 0x23\ 0xAF$ .
- Example:  $23AFh = 2 \cdot 16^3 + 3 \cdot 16^2 + 10 \cdot 16 + 15 = 9135_{10}$

# Number Systems Conversions

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- Conversion from any system to decimal:
  - $N = a_n b^n + a_{n-1} b^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 b + a_0$
  - Examples:
    - $1001010_2 = 1 \cdot 2^6 + 1 \cdot 2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^1 = 74_{10}$
    - $137_8 = 1 \cdot 8^2 + 3 \cdot 8^1 + 7 \cdot 8^0 = 95_{10}$
    - $23AFh = 2 \cdot 16^3 + 3 \cdot 16^2 + 10 \cdot 16 + 15 = 9135_{10}$
- Conversion from decimal to any other system:
  - Weight decomposition
  - Repeated division

# Weight Decomposition

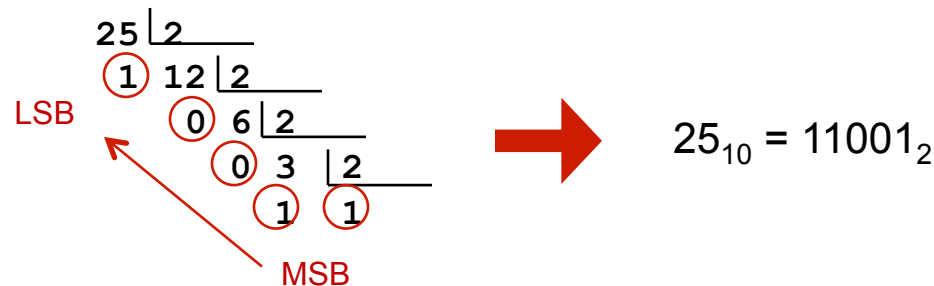
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- The number is decomposed in powers of the base.
  - The nearest power of the base (lower) is searched.
  - Iteratively, powers of the base are been searched so that the sum of all of them is the decimal number to convert
  - Finally, the weights are used to represent the number in the desired base.
- This method is only useful for systems with well known powers. For example, for binary system: 1, 2, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256, ...
- Example:
  - $25_{10} = 16 + 8 + 1 = 2^4 + 2^3 + 2^0 = 11001_2$

# Repeated Division

- The number and the quotients in previous divisions are divided repeatedly by the destination base
  - The last quotient obtained is the MSB
  - The remainders are the other bits, the first one corresponding to the LSB.

- Example:



- This method is more general than the previous one. It can be used for any base conversion

# Real numbers conversion

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- Conversion from binary to decimal can be obtained using the same method as for integer numbers (just using negative weights for the decimal part) :

$$\begin{aligned}101,011_2 &= 1*2^2 + 0*2^1 + 1*2^0 + 0*2^{-1} + 1*2^{-2} + 1*2^{-3} = \\ &= 4 + 1 + 0,25 + 0,125 = 5,375_{10}\end{aligned}$$

- Conversion from decimal to binary is obtained in two steps:
  - Convert first the integer part, using repeated division or weight decomposition.
  - Then convert the decimal part, using an analogous method: repeated multiplication by the base.

# Repeated multiplication method (decimal part)

- The decimal part of the number is multiplied repeatedly by the base:
  - The decimal part is multiplied by 2. Then the integer part of the result is the first bit (MSB of the decimal part) of the conversion.
  - The obtained decimal part is multiplied by 2, and again, the integer part is the next digit of the conversion.
  - Iterate this procedure several times, depending on the desired precision for the conversion.

- Examples:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \mathbf{0,3125}_{10} = \mathbf{0,0101}_2 \\
 & 0,3125 \times 2 = 0,625 \Rightarrow 0 \\
 & 0,625 \times 2 = 1,25 \Rightarrow 1 \\
 & 0,25 \times 2 = 0,5 \Rightarrow 0 \\
 & 0,5 \times 2 = 1 \Rightarrow 1
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{0,1}_{10} = \mathbf{0,0\ 0011\ 0011\ \dots}_2$$

$$0,1 \times 2 = 0,2 \Rightarrow 0$$

$$0,2 \times 2 = 0,4 \Rightarrow 0$$

$$0,4 \times 2 = 0,8 \Rightarrow 0$$

$$0,8 \times 2 = 1,6 \Rightarrow 1$$

$$0,6 \times 2 = 1,2 \Rightarrow 1$$

$$0,2 \times 2 = 0,4 \Rightarrow 0 \leftarrow \text{the last four digits will repeat periodically}$$

$$0,4 \times 2 = 0,8 \Rightarrow 0$$

$$0,8 \times 2 = 1,6 \Rightarrow 1$$

...



# Other conversion methods

- Octal and Hexadecimal number systems are related with binary because their bases are exact powers of the binary base. This makes very easy the conversion between these systems and binary.
  - **OCTAL to BINARY:** Convert each digit into binary (3 bits each digit)
    - Example:  $735_8 = \underbrace{111}_2 \underbrace{011}_2 \underbrace{101}_2$
  - **BINARY to OCTAL:** Group
    - Example:  $\underbrace{1}_2 \underbrace{011}_2 \underbrace{100}_2 \underbrace{011}_2 = 1343_8$
  - **HEXADECIMAL to BINARY:** Convert each digit into binary (4 bits each digit)
    - Example:  $3B2h = \underbrace{0011}_2 \underbrace{1011}_2 \underbrace{0010}_2$
  - **BINARY to HEXADECIMAL:** Agrupar en grupos de 4 bits y convertirlos de forma independiente a octal
    - Example:  $\underbrace{10}_2 \underbrace{1110}_2 \underbrace{0011}_2 = 2E3h$

# Binary Codes

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- Binary codes are codes that use only 0s and 1s to represent information
- Information that can be represented with binary codes can be of several types:
  - Natural Numbers
  - Integer Numbers
  - Real Numbers
  - Alphanumeric characters and other symbols
- The same information (a natural number for example) can be represented using different codes
  - It is important to specify which encoding is been used when some information is represented with a binary code

# Natural Binary Code

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- It is a binary code where a natural number is represented using its binary number representation
  - It is the simplest binary code
  - This can be done because the binary number system for natural numbers needs only 0s and 1s (no extra symbols for decimal point or sign)
- Notation: The “BIN” subindex is used to specify that a binary code corresponds to the natural binary code.
  - $1001_{\text{BIN}} = 1001_2$

# BCD Codes (“Binary-Coded Decimal”)

- They are an alternative to the natural binary code for representation of natural numbers
- A 4-bit encoding is assigned to each decimal digit. A decimal number is encoded in BCD code digit to digit.
- The most common BCD code is natural BCD (there are other BCD codes). 
- Example:
  - $78_{10} = 0111\ 1000_{\text{BCD}}$
- The BCD encoding of a number may be different to the natural binary encoding
  - $78_{10} = 1001110_{\text{BIN}}$
- CONS: No all encodings correspond to a binary BCD encoding. For example,  $1110_{\text{BCD}}$  does not exist.
- PRO: It is easy to convert natural numbers to BCD.

Decimal digit	BCD code
0	0 0 0 0
1	0 0 0 1
2	0 0 1 0
3	0 0 1 1
4	0 1 0 0
5	0 1 0 1
6	0 1 1 0
7	0 1 1 1
8	1 0 0 0
9	1 0 0 1

# Progressive and Cyclic Codes

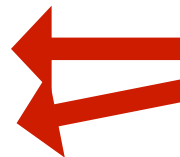
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- Two binary encodings are **adjacent** if there is only 1 different bit between them.
  - **0000** y **0001** are adjacent, as they differ only in the last bit
  - **0001** y **0010** are not, because the last two bits are different
- A code is progressive if all consecutive encodings are **adjacent**.
  - Natural binary code is not progressive, as 0001 y 0010 are not adjacent.
- A code is **cyclic** if the first and the last encodings are adjacent.
- The most used progressive and cyclic codes are:
  - Gray code
  - Johnson code

# Gray Code

- Gray codes are progressive and cyclic
- Example: 3-bit Gray Code

Decimal	Gray Code
0	0 0 0
1	0 0 1
2	0 1 1
3	0 1 0
4	1 1 0
5	1 1 1
6	1 0 1
7	1 0 0



All consecutive encodings are adjacent

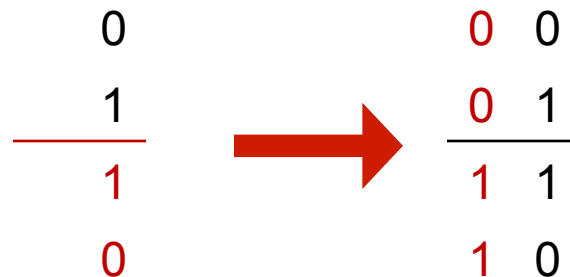
# Gray Code

- Construction of n-bit Gray codes:
  - First the n-1 bit code is copied. Then it is copied again in inverse order
  - Then a 0 is added in the first part of the table, and a 1 in the second part

- 1-bit code:

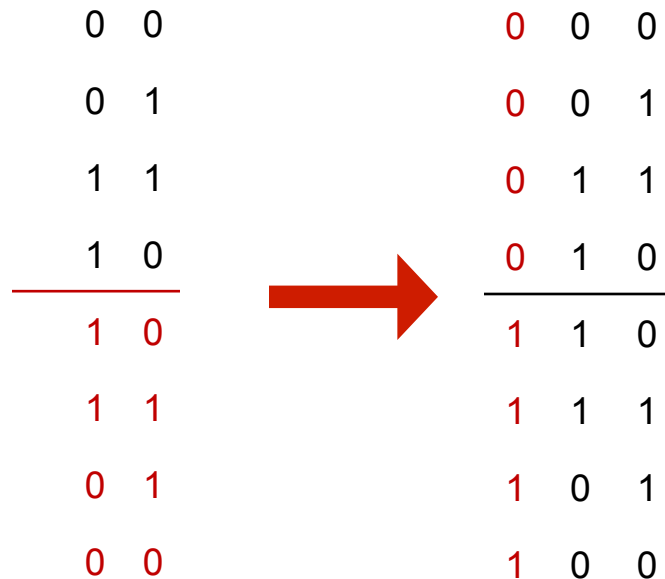
0  
1

- 2-bits code:



# Código Gray

- 3-bits code:



- n-bit Gray codes can be obtained by iteration



# Binary-Gray and Gray-Binary conversions

It is possible to convert directly from Gray to Binary and from Binary to Gray, there is no need to build the whole table

## BINARY TO GRAY:

$$(A_0 A_1 A_2 \dots A_n)_{\text{BIN}} \rightarrow (B_0 B_1 B_2 \dots B_n)_{\text{GRAY}}$$

- $B_0 = A_0$
- $B_1 = A_0 + A_1$
- $B_2 = A_1 + A_2$
- ...
- $B_n = A_{n-1} + A_n$



Example:

$$1011_{\text{BIN}} \rightarrow 1110_{\text{GRAY}}$$

## GRAY TO BINARY:

$$(A_0 A_1 A_2 \dots A_n)_{\text{GRAY}} \rightarrow (B_0 B_1 B_2 \dots B_n)_{\text{BIN}}$$

- $B_0 = A_0$
- $B_1 = A_1 + B_0$
- $B_2 = A_2 + B_1$
- ...
- $B_n = A_n + B_{n-1}$



Example:

$$1011_{\text{GRAY}} \rightarrow 1101_{\text{BIN}}$$

BIN	GRAY
0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
0 0 0 1	0 0 0 1
0 0 1 0	0 0 1 1
0 0 1 1	0 0 1 0
0 1 0 0	0 1 1 0
0 1 0 1	0 1 1 1
0 1 1 0	0 1 0 1
0 1 1 1	0 1 0 0
1 0 0 0	1 1 0 0
1 0 0 1	1 1 0 1
1 0 1 0	1 1 1 1
1 0 1 1	1 1 1 0
1 1 0 0	1 0 1 0
1 1 0 1	1 0 1 1
1 1 1 0	1 0 0 1
1 1 1 1	1 0 0 0

# Johnson Codes

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- It is another progressive and cyclic code
- In each encoding, zeros are grouped to the left and ones to the right, or vice versa.
- Example: 3 bits Johnson code

Decimal	Johnson
0	0 0 0
1	0 0 1
2	0 1 1
3	1 1 1
4	1 1 0
5	1 0 0

# Alphanumeric Codes

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- They can represent different symbols:
  - Number Digits
  - Uppercase and lowercase letters
  - Punctuation marks
  - Control characters (espace, carriage return, line feed, etc.)
  - Other graphical symbols (mathematical operators, etc.)
- An alphanumeric code to represent at least 10 digits and 52 alphabet letters (26 lowercase and 26 uppercase) needs at least 6 bits.
- The most used alphanumeric codes are:
  - ASCII code (7 bits)
  - Extended ASCII codes (8 bits)
  - Unicode (8-32 bits)

# ASCII codes and extended ASCII codes

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- ASCII code (“American Standard Code for Information Interchange”) was published for the first time in 1963.
- It is a standard 7-bit code (128 encodings) which contains:
  - Digits
  - Uppercase and lower case letters (international English alphabet)
  - Punctuation marks
  - Basic control characters
- Extended ASCII codes are used to complement with additional characters:
  - Not standard, they change from a regional zone to another
  - The first 128 encodings are the same as in ASCII code for compatibility

# Standard ASCII Code

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>0</b>	NUL	DLE	space	0	@	P	`	p
<b>1</b>	SOH	DC1 XON	!	1	A	Q	a	q
<b>2</b>	STX	DC2	"	2	B	R	b	r
<b>3</b>	ETX	DC3 XOFF	#	3	C	S	c	s
<b>4</b>	EOT	DC4	\$	4	D	T	d	t
<b>5</b>	ENQ	NAK	%	5	E	U	e	u
<b>6</b>	ACK	SYN	&	6	F	V	f	v
<b>7</b>	BEL	ETB	'	7	G	W	g	w
<b>8</b>	BS	CAN	(	8	H	X	h	x
<b>9</b>	HT	EM	)	9	I	Y	i	y
<b>A</b>	LF	SUB	*	:	J	Z	j	z
<b>B</b>	VT	ESC	+	;	K	[	k	{
<b>C</b>	FF	FS	,	<	L	\	l	
<b>D</b>	CR	GS	-	=	M	]	m	}
<b>E</b>	SO	RS	.	>	N	^	n	~
<b>F</b>	SI	US	/	?	O	_	o	del

# Extended ASCII Codes

## EXAMPLE:

LATIN-1 extended ASCII  
(ISO 8859-1)

	-0	-1	-2	-3	-4	-5	-6	-7	-8	-9	-A	-B	-C	-D	-E	-F	
0-		0001	0002	0003	0004	0005	0006	0007	0008	0009	000A	000B	000C	000D	000E	000F	
1-		0010	0011	0012	0013	0014	0015	0016	0017	0018	0019	001A	001B	001C	001D	001E	001F
2-		!	"	#	\$	%	&	'	(	)	*	+	,	-	.	/	
3-		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	:	;	<	=	>	?
4-		@	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O
5-		P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	[	\	]	^	_
6-		`	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o
7-		p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z	{		}	~	
8-																	
9-																	
A-		¡	¢	£	¤	¥	¦	§	¨	©	ª	«	¬	-	®	¯	
B-		°	±	²	³	´	µ	¶	·	¸	¹	º	»	¼	½	¾	¿
C-		À	Á	Â	Ã	Ä	Å	Æ	Ç	È	É	Ê	Ë	Ì	Í	Î	Ï
D-		Ð	Ñ	Ò	Ó	Ô	Õ	Ö	×	Ø	Ù	Ú	Û	Ü	Ý	Þ	ß
E-		à	á	â	ã	ä	å	æ	ç	è	é	ê	ë	ì	í	î	ï
F-		ð	ñ	ò	ó	ô	õ	ö	÷	ø	ù	ú	û	ü	ý	þ	ÿ

# Extended ASCII Codes

**Example:**  
Cyrillic extended ASCII  
ISO 8859-5

	-0	-1	-2	-3	-4	-5	-6	-7	-8	-9	-A	-B	-C	-D	-E	-F
0-		0001	0002	0003	0004	0005	0006	0007	0008	0009	000A	000B	000C	000D	000E	000F
1-	0010	0011	0012	0013	0014	0015	0016	0017	0018	0019	001A	001B	001C	001D	001E	001F
2-	0020	!	"	#	\$	%	&	'	(	)	*	+	,	-	.	/
3-	0030	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	:	;	<	=	>
4-	0040	@	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N
5-	0050	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	[	\	]	^
6-	0060	`	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n
7-	0070	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z	{		}	~
8-	0080															
9-	0090															
A-	00A0	Ë	Ђ	Ѓ	Є	Ѕ	І	Ї	Ј	Љ	Њ	Ћ	Ќ	-	Ў	Џ
B-	0410	А	Б	В	Г	Д	Е	Ж	З	И	Й	К	Л	М	Н	О
C-	0420	Р	С	Т	У	Ф	Х	Ц	Ч	Ш	Щ	Ъ	Ы	Ь	Э	Ю
D-	0430	а	б	в	г	д	е	ж	з	и	й	к	л	м	н	о
E-	0440	р	с	т	у	ф	х	ц	ч	ш	щ	ъ	ы	ь	э	ю
F-	2116	№	ë	ђ	ѓ	є	ѕ	і	ї	ј	љ	њ	ћ	ќ	ѕ	ў

# Unicode

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- Unicode codes (“Universal Codes”) were created in 1991 to introduce an standard alphanumeric code for all regions
  - The same code for languages like Chinese, Arabic, etc.
- Maximum 32 bits
  - First 7 bits allow compatibility with ASCII
  - Using 1 byte the US-ASCII can be represented
  - Using 2 bytes: latin, arabic, greek, cyrillic, armenian, hebrew, syriac and thaana alphabets
  - Using 3 bytes: rest of characters in remaining languages
  - Using 4 bytes: graphic characters and uncommon symbols
- Different versions of the representation. The most common are:
  - **UTF-8**: 1-byte codes, variable length (4 groups of 1 byte can be used to represent 1 symbol)
  - **UCS-2**: 1-byte codes, fixed length
  - **UTF-16**: 2-byte codes, variable length (2 groups of 2 bytes can be used to represent 1 symbol)
  - **UTF-32**: 4-byte codes



# Unicode

## Example:

- Unicode fragment, corresponding to Cyrillic alphabet
  - A second byte is needed for the representation
- Full tables can be found at:
  - <http://www.unicode.org/charts>

	Cyrillic															
	0400	0401	0402	0403	0404	0405	0406	0407	0408	0409	040A	040B	040C	040D	040E	040F
0	È	А	Р	а	р	è	Ѡ	Ѳ	С	Г	К	У	І	Ă	З	Ÿ
1	Ë	Б	С	б	с	ë	ѡ	ѳ	с	г	к	у	Ѱ	ă	з	ÿ
2	Ъ	В	Т	в	т	ђ	Ѣ	Ѵ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ	Ă	Й	Ÿ	
3	Ѓ	Г	У	г	у	ѓ	ѣ	ѵ	ѧ	ѩ	ѭ	ă	й	ÿ		
4	Є	Д	Ф	д	ф	є	Є	Ѳ	Ѵ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ	Æ	Й	Ї
5	Є	Д	Ф	д	ф	є	Є	Ѳ	Ѵ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ	Æ	Й	Ї
6	І	Ж	Ц	ж	ц	і	А	Ѳ	Ѵ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ	Æ	Й	Ї
7	Ї	З	Ч	з	ч	ї	А	Ѳ	Ѵ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ	Æ	Й	Ї
8	Ј	И	Ш	и	ш	ј	Ѧ	Ѵ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ
9	Љ	Й	Щ	й	щ	љ	Ѧ	Ѵ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ
A	Њ	К	Ъ	к	ъ	њ	Ѧ	Ѵ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ
B	Ѣ	Л	Ы	л	ы	ђ	Ѧ	Ѵ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ
C	Ќ	М	Ь	м	ь	ќ	Ѧ	Ѵ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ
D	Ў	Н	Э	н	э	ў	Ѧ	Ѵ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ
E	Ў	О	Ю	о	ю	ў	Ѧ	Ѵ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ
F	Ѧ	П	Я	п	я	Ѧ	Ѵ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ	Ѥ	Ѧ	Ѩ	Ѭ	Ѭ

# Error detector and Error corrector codes

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- Errors may appear in digital systems
  - Physical errors in the circuits
  - Electromagnetic interferences (EMI)
  - Power supply errors
  - Etc.
- Error detector codes:
  - They can detect an error in an encoding
- Error corrector codes:
  - They can detect an error and even correct it
- Error detector and error corrector codes don't use all  $2^n$  possible n-bit encodings of the n-bit code

# Error detector codes

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- Parity codes:
  - An additional bit is added (parity) which allow to detect simple errors in the encoding
  - The considered parity is the sum of the encoding n-bits
    - **NOTE:** parity does not mean if a number is even or odd (a binary number is even if the last bit is 0 and odd if it is 1). In our case parity is related to the addition of all the bits in the encoding.
  - Two possible conventions:
    - Add 0 when parity is even and 1 if it is odd. In this case the parity code is named even parity code (as the addition of n bits + parity bit is always even)
    - Add 1 when parity is even and 0 if it is odd. In this case the parity code is named odd parity code (as the addition of n bits + parity bit is always odd)

# Error detector codes

- Parity example:

Error detector code (odd-parity code) obtained from a 2-bit natural binary code:



0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

- Application example:

If we use this code in a communication between two digital systems, the receiver may detect if there is an error in the transmitted encoding (checking the parity bit).

**Example:** 001 is transmitted but the receiver receives 000 (there is an error in the last bit)

Parity of 001: odd  
Parity of 000: even



**Different:  
Error detected**

# Error detector codes

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- There are more error detector codes:
  - Number of ones:
    - The sum of the ones in the encoding is added (not only the parity, but de full addition)
  - Number of transitions:
    - The number of transitions from 0 to 1 and 1 to 0 is added to the encoding
  - CRC codes (Cyclic Redundancy Checking):
    - They try to add the least possible number of bits to detect the maximum possible number or errors
    - Some CRC codes may also correct some errors
- The most used codes are parity (for simplicity) and CRC (for effectiveness)

# Error corrector codes

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- These codes allow not only to detect errors, they can correct them as well.
- The minimum distance (minimum number of different bits between two encodings) must be greater than 2 so that a code can correct errors.
  - The encoding can be corrected by looking for the closest encoding belonging to the code.
- Hamming showed a general method to obtain codes with minimum distance equal to 3, which are known as **Hamming codes**.
- These codes are important, many of the currently codes used in communications are obtained from them (for example Reed-Solomon codes)

# Integer and real number codes

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- There are more codes to represent integer and real numbers:
  - Integer numbers: Sign and magnitude, 1s-complement, 2s-complement
  - Real numbers: Fixed point and floating point
- We will see these codes in detail in unit 4 (Arithmetic combinational circuits)

## References

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- Digital Systems Fundamentals. Thomas L. Floyd. Pearson Prentice Hall
- Introduction to Digital Logic Design. John P. Hayes. Addison-Wesley
- Digital Design. John F. Wakerly. Pearson Prentice Hall