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The Gray Code

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Abstract

This report is a self-contained summary of properties and algorithms concerning the Gray code. Descriptions are given of the Gray code definition, algorithms and circuits for generating the code and for conversion between binary and Gray code, for incrementing, counting, and adding Gray code words. Some interesting applications of the code are also treated.

1. Introduction

What we now call “Gray code” was invented by Frank Gray. It was described in a patent that was awarded in 1953; however, the work was performed much earlier, the patent being applied for in 1947. Gray was a researcher at Bell Telephone Laboratories; during the 1930s and 1940s he was awarded numerous patents for work related to television. According to Heath [Hea72] the code was first, in fact, used by Baudot for telegraphy in the 1870s, though it is only since the advent of computers that the code has become widely known.

The term “Gray code” is sometimes used to refer to any *single-distance* code, that is, one in which adjacent code words (perhaps representing integers differing by 1) differ by 1 in one digit position only. Gray introduced what we would now call the *canonical* binary single-distance code, though he mentioned that other binary single-distance codes could be obtained by permuting the columns and rotating the rows of the code table. The codes of Gray, and natural extensions to bases other than binary, are only a very small subset of all single-distance codes. In this report we will use the term "the Gray code" to refer to the code of Gray and "single-distance" to refer to the more general case; we will be concerned mainly with properties of the Gray code.

The original purpose of this report was to consider algorithms for parallel arithmetic using Gray codes (the Gray representation is particularly suited to serial arithmetic; more ingenuity is required to operate in parallel). In surveying the literature it became clear that there had been much discovered and written about the Gray code; it is associated with many elegant algorithms and circuits. However, this wealth of technical material had never been gathered together and treated in a consistent form, hence, a self-contained survey of the code’s properties, algorithms and circuits, has become the main topic, though parallel operations are included.

2. Definition of the Gray Code

Origin of the code

The Gray code arises naturally in many situations. Gray’s interest in the code was related to what we would now call analog to digital conversion. The goal was to convert an integer value, represented as a voltage, into a series of pulses representing the same number in digital form. The technique, as described in Gray’s patent, was to use the voltage being converted to displace vertically an electron beam that is being swept horizontally across the screen of a cathode ray tube. The screen has a mask etched on it that only allows the passage of the beam in certain places; a current is generated only when the beam passes through the mask. The passage of the beam will then give rise to a series of on/off conditions corresponding to the pattern of mask holes that it passes.

The original scheme was to use a mask representing a standard binary encoding. However, this has the problem that, if the beam is close to the boundary between two values, a slight distortion in the beam can give an output that is neither of the two adjacent values but a combination of each (in the example below, in the transition from 011011 (27) to 011100 (28), the device could produce these

The manner in which the primary reflected binary number system is built up will now be explained.

First: write down the first two numbers in the 1-digit orthodox number system, thus:

```
Zero         0
One          1
```

Note that the symbols differ in only one digit.

Second: below this array write its "reflection" in a transverse axis:

```
Zero         0
One          1
-----------
             1
             0
```

The symbols still differ in not more than one digit. However, the first is identical with the fourth and the second with the third.

Third: to remove this ambiguity, add a second digit to the left of each symbol, 0 for the first two symbols and 1 for the last two, thus:

```
Zero         00
One          01
Two          11
Three        10
```

and identify the last two symbols with the numbers "two" and "three." Each symbol is now unique and differs from those above and below in not more than one digit. The array is a representation of the first four numbers in the primary 2-digit reflected binary number system.

The process is next repeated giving -

First:

```
Zero         00
One          01
Two          11
Three        10
```

Second:

```
Zero         00
One          01
Two          11
Three        10
------------
             10
             11
             01
             00
```

Third:

```
Zero         000
One          001
Two          011
Three        010
-------------
 Four        110
 Five        111
 Six         101
 Seven       100
```

Figure 2. Gray's Definition of his Reflected Binary Code

two values but also 011111 (31) or 011000 (24) and others. To deal with this problem Gray proposed using a mask corresponding to a code in which adjacent code words differed in one bit position only. In that case, a slight beam displacement would give only a small change to the encoding. Figure 1 is an adaptation of the figure in the patent**.**

Gray's definition of the Code

Figure 2 is a word-for-word reproduction of the definition given by Gray in the patent [Gra53] - it has never been explained better.

Gray's definition is a procedure for generating, what we now call, the Gray code of width n. As well as discussing the process, he has shown, by construction that:

Property P1: Adjacent words in the Gray code sequence differ in one bit position only.

Direct application of the code

Because, apart from the leading bit, the second half of the code is the same as the first, but reversed, it follows that the first and last words of the code sequence differ in only the leading bit. In other words:

Property P2: The Gray code is cyclic.

These first two properties underlie the most common practical use found for the code which was for locating the rotational position of a shaft (see, for example, [Fos54]). A pattern representing the Gray code was printed on a shaft, or on a disk, and the pattern sensed by an optical or electrical detector (see figure 3). Note that the least significant end of the code has fewer transitions than does normal binary so the Gray code has another apparent advantage that the pattern may be printed to another bit of precision with the same printing resolution [Wal70]. Note that the read-out of the shaft's rotational position is a completely parallel operation.

Generation of the code sequence by means related to its definition

Let us say that going through the Gray code sequence normally, is going *up*, or *ascending* and the opposite direction *down*, or *descending*. Generating a sequence going down is the same as reflecting it, in Gray's sense. The sequence of width n comprises, by definition:

> 0 preceding each member of the width n-1 sequence
> 1 preceding each member of the width n-1 sequence reflected

To generate going down, this is reflected to give:

Figure 3. Gray code as used on a shaft encode for determining angle of rotation

> 1 preceding each member of the width n-1 sequence reflected reflected
> 0 preceding each member of the width n-1 sequence reflected

But reflecting a sequence twice gives back the original sequence, so the width n sequence reflected is:

> 1 preceding each member of the width n-1 sequence
> 0 preceding each member of the width n-1 sequence reflected

This gives us the property:

Property P3: A descending Gray code sequence of width n is the same as an ascending sequence except that the leading bit is inverted.

For example, the width 3 sequence:

up	down
000	100
001	101
011	111
010	110
110	010
111	011
101	001
100	000

Let's use the following notation. The Gray code word **G**, of width n, is a vector of n bits, ($\mathbf{G}_{n-1}$,$\mathbf{G}_{n-2}$,......$\mathbf{G}_0$) and represents a number G. Likewise, a number B has the standard representation **B**, as a vector of n bits, ($\mathbf{B}_{n-1}$,$\mathbf{B}_{n-2}$,......$\mathbf{B}_0$). We will most usually be interested in the situation when B=G.

In expressing algorithms we will use a data type *bit* that is the union of Boolean and integer, and also *word* that is an array of bits.

Gray's definition of his code sequence of width n is captured by the following algorithm:

```
procedure generate (n:integer, d:bit);
    {generate width-n sequence in d(irection) up = 0, down = 1}
    var G:word;
    procedure generate1 (m:integer; d:bit);
    begin
    if d = 0 then begin
        G[m-1] := 0; generate1(m-1,0);{up}
        G[m-1] := 1; generate1(m-1,1);{down}
        end;
    if d = 1 then begin
        G[m-1] := 1; generate1(m-1,0);{up}
        G[m-1] := 0; generate1(m-1,1);{down}
        end
    end;
begin
generate1(n,0);
end;
```

Dealing with the termination of recursion, and simplifying, we end up with the elegantly simple algorithm:

```
{ALGORITHM A1: GENERATE WIDTH N GRAY CODE SEQUENCE}
procedure generate (n:integer, d:bit);
    {d(irection) up = 0, down = 1}
    var G:word;
    procedure generate1 (m:integer; d:bit);
    begin
    if m = 0 then display(G) else
        begin
        G[m-1] := d;        generate1(m-1,0);{up}
        G[m-1] := not d;    generate1(m-1,1);{down}
        end;
    end;
begin
generate1(n,0);
end;
```

3. Relationship between binary code and Gray code

Generating the Gray code from binary

The above algorithm, with two calls per recursion, has a binary tree of possible procedure calls. We can label the nodes of the tree, and thus give each Gray code word a binary equivalent, by setting a bit prior to each recursive call. Lets concentrate on the ascending sequence:

```
procedure generate (n:integer);
    {direction up}
    var B,G:word;
    procedure generate1 (m:integer; d:bit);
    begin
    if m = 0 then display(B,G) else
        begin
        G[m-1] := d;    B[m-1] := 0; generate1(m-1,0);{up}
        G[m-1] := not d;B[m-1] := 1; generate1(m-1,1);{down}
        end;
begin
generate1(n,0);
end;
```

The algorithm will now generate the integers B along with the associated Gray codes. The inner compound statement is equivalent to:

```
        begin
        G[m-1] := d;    B[m-1] := 0;generate1(m-1,B[m-1]);{up}
        G[m-1] := not d;B[m-1] := 1;generate1(m-1,B[m-1]);{down}
        end;
```

i.e. (if we set B[n] appropriately):

```
        begin
        G[m-1] := B[m];      B[m-1] := 0;generate1(m-1);
        G[m-1] := not B[m];  B[m-1] := 1;generate1(m-1);
        end;
```

i.e.

```
        begin
        B[m-1] := 0;G[m-1] := B[m][illegible][illegible]B[m-1]; generate1(m-1);
        B[m-1] := 1;G[m-1] := B[m][illegible][illegible]B[m-1]; generate1(m-1);
        end;
```

i.e.

```
        for B[m-1] := 0 to 1 do begin
                G[m-1] := B[m]⊠⊠B[m-1]; generate1(m-1);
                end;
```

Now, as G is not used except in "display", the generation of its elements may be done in any order following the generation of the necessary bits of B - it can thus be generated at "display time". Giving:

{ALGORITHM A2: GENERATE WIDTH N GRAY CODE SEQUENCE FROM BINARY SEQUENCE}

```
procedure generate (n:integer); {generate width-n sequence}
    var G:word; i:integer;
    procedure generate1 (m:integer; d:bit);
        {d(irection) up = 0, down = 1}
    begin
    if m>0 then for B[m-1] := 0 to 1 do generate1(m-1)
        else begin
            for i := n-1 downto 0 do G[i-1] := B[i]⊠⊠B[i-1];
            display(B,G);
            end
    end;
begin
B[n] := 0;
generate1(n);
end;
```

Conversion from binary to Gray

The above generation algorithm gives us immediately the property (specified by Gray):

Property P4: ($\mathbf{G}_{i-1} = \mathbf{B}_i$⊠⊠$\mathbf{B}_{i-1}$), i = n .... 0, where $\mathbf{B}_n$ is taken as 0

This gives a parallel algorithm or circuit for generating **G** from **B**, because the expressions are independent. Alternatively, if a computer has a bitwise xor between words then we can calculate **G** using a right shift:

G = **B**⊠⊠(**B**/2)

Another way of thinking of this is:

Property P5: ⊠$\mathbf{G}_{i-1}$ = 1 where $\mathbf{B}_i$ ⊠ $\mathbf{B}_{i-1}$, i = n .... 0 (where $\mathbf{B}_n$ is taken as 0)

i.e. the Gray code word is a record of the *transitions* within the corresponding binary word.

Example.

Binary word	00111100110011101001101111101101
Gray code word	00100010101010011101011000011011

Conversion of Gray to binary

Conversion of Gray to Binary is not as simple as the other direction. We have from property P4:

⌧i ($\mathbf{B}_i$⌧$\mathbf{G}_{i-1}$ = $\mathbf{B}_i$⌧$\mathbf{B}_i$⌧ $\mathbf{B}_{i-1}$) where $\mathbf{B}_n$ is taken as 0, i.e.

Property P6: $\mathbf{B}_{i-1}$ = $\mathbf{B}_i$⌧ $\mathbf{G}_{i-1}$, i = n .... 0, where $\mathbf{B}_n$ is taken as 0

but unfortunately these are not independent and individual equations. They do give rise naturally to a nice sequential algorithm but the parallel version involves a prefix accumulation of xor:

Property P7: $\mathbf{B}_{i-1}$ = $\mathbf{G}_{n-1}$⌧ $\mathbf{G}_{n-2}$⌧ ..... ⌧ $\mathbf{G}_{i-1}$

This can be generated by a parallel prefix circuit as in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Parallel Gray to Binary Conversion Circuit

Alternatively [Wan66], if a computer has a bitwise xor between words and fast parallel shifts then the binary code may be generated by a succession of xors and shifts that implement the work of figure 4, level by level:

B = **G**⌧⌧(**G**/2); **B** = **B**⌧⌧(**B**/4); **B** = **B**⌧⌧(**B**/16); etc

However, there are conversion techniques that are more suited to software. Lets concentrate on the bits of the Gray code word that are 1. Define for each **G** another vector **I** of length z. **I** = ($\mathbf{I}_{z-1}$,$\mathbf{I}_{z-2}$, ... ,$\mathbf{I}_0$) which is the set of subscripts for which the Gray code is not zero. Recalling property P5, that the Gray code word is a record of the transitions within the corresponding binary word, $\mathbf{I}_{z-1}$ is the position of the first 1 in the binary code and $\mathbf{I}_{z-2}$ is the next 0, etc. Now, we have:

$$B = \mathbf{B}_{n-1}2^{n-1}+\mathbf{B}_{n-2}2^{n-2}+\ldots\ +\mathbf{B}_0 2^0$$

Listing only the bits of **B** that are non-zero:

$$B = [2^{\mathbf{I}_{z-1}}+\ldots +\mathbf{2}^{(\mathbf{I}_{z-2}+1)}\ ] + [2^{\mathbf{I}_{z-3}}+\ldots +\mathbf{2}^{(\mathbf{I}_{z-4}+1)}\ ] + \ldots$$

Applying a Booth recoding:

$$B = \ [2^{(\mathbf{I}_{z-1}+1)} - \mathbf{2}^{(\mathbf{I}_{z-2}+1)}] + \ [2^{(\mathbf{I}_{z-3}+1)} - \mathbf{2}^{(\mathbf{I}_{z-4}+1)}] + \ldots$$

(-1 if the number of 1 bits in **G** is odd)

Let’s write P(**X**,a,b) for the parity of ($\mathbf{X}_a$ ⌧⌧⌧⌧$\mathbf{X}_b$), which can be defined as $\mathbf{X}_a$ ⌧⌧⌧⌧⌧⌧$\mathbf{X}_b$, or ($\mathbf{X}_a$+⌧⌧⌧⌧$\mathbf{X}_b$)mod 2, or whether the number of bits 1 in ($\mathbf{X}_a$ ⌧⌧⌧⌧$\mathbf{X}_b$) is odd (1) or even (0). Also write P(**X**,i) for P(**X**,n-1,i) and P(**X**) for P(**X**,n-1,0).

We may write the above:

Property P7: $B = (-1)^{P(\mathbf{G},\mathbf{I}_{z-1})}.2^{(\mathbf{I}_{z-1}+1)} + \ldots. + (-1)^{P(\mathbf{G},\mathbf{I}_0)}.2^{(\mathbf{I}_0+1)} - P(\mathbf{G})$;

This property my be used to convert from Gray to binary by adding the shifted bits of the Gray code with appropriate sign.

Example:

```
Binary word          0011100111
Gray code word       0010010100

B = 0100000000 - 0000100000 + 0000001000  -  0000000001
```

This property also explains the origin of difficulty with doing arithmetic on Gray code words. In a conventional binary word, if bit i is one it means 2^i, but bit i in a Gray code word could represent $+2^{i+1}$ or -2^{i+1} - the sense can only be resolved if the parity of the leading part of the word up to the bit is determined. In a sense, Gray code is a signed-bit ternary representation [Wal70], where each bit can be 1, 0, or -1 (but with the restriction that non-zero bits must alternate in sign).

Although the property P7 could be used to convert from Gray to Binary, it is not a good approach, because the subtractions involve propagation of carry. A better approach, ([Irs87], also noted by Gray himself), is to replace each power 2^i in the above by $(2^i-1)+1$. We get:

$$B = (-1)^{P(\mathbf{G},\mathbf{I}_{z-1})}. [2^{(\mathbf{I}_{z-1}+1)}-1] + .. + (-1)^{P(\mathbf{G},\mathbf{I}_0)}. [2^{(\mathbf{I}_0+1)}-1]$$
$$+ (-1)^{P(\mathbf{G},\mathbf{I}_{z-1})} +(-1)^{P(\mathbf{G},\mathbf{I}_{z-2})}+...+(-1)^{P(\mathbf{G},\mathbf{I}_0)} \;-\; P(\mathbf{G})$$

The second line is zero. So we have:

Property P8: $B = (-1)^{P(\mathbf{G},\mathbf{I}_{z-1})}. [2^{(\mathbf{I}_{z-1}+1)}-1] + .. + (-1)^{P(\mathbf{G},\mathbf{I}_0)}. [2^{(\mathbf{I}_0+1)}-1]$

The reason that this is useful is that the successive additions and subtractions can now be performed to construct the binary equivalent with no carry being required at any stage (in fact, addition and subtraction may be replaced by xor).

Example:

```
Binary word          0011100110
Gray code word       0010010101

B = 0011111111 - 0000011111 + 0000000111 - 0000000001
  =        0011100000       +        0000000110
```

Parity of Gray code word

Property P8 shows that knowledge of the parity of a Gray code word can useful. We will see other examples of its use later.

Recall that in going up from B to B+1 exactly one bit of **G** changes. It follows that exactly two bits change in going from B to B+2 . Thus the nunber of bits that are 1 remains the same or changes by 2, i.e. the parity remains the same. This gives us:

Property P9: The parity of a Gray code word is 0 iff it represents an even number, i.e. $P(\mathbf{G},n-1,0) = \mathbf{B}_0$

One of the drawbacks of the convential binary representation is that the parity of the result of an arithmetic operation is not easy to predict from the parities of its operands. However, the sum or difference of two numbers is even if, and only if, the inputs are both even or both odd, and the product is even if either operand is even. This allows the parity of Gray-code results to be predicted:

Property P10: If the parities of two Gray code operands are P_a and P_b, then the parity of the Gray code result is:

+	$P_a \boxtimes P_b$
*	P_a and P_b

Gray codes arising in binary counters

In [Bur70] it was noted that Gray codes arise naturally if one constructs a binary counter from master-slave (i.e. race-free or edge triggered) toggle flip-flops. In a master-slave flip-flop the "second" flip-flops, represent the value. However, if we concentrate on the "first" flip-flops they are seen to be following a different pattern.

Figure 5. Binary counter with master/slave flip/flops

S_4	F_3	S_3	F_2	S_2	F_1	S_1	F_0	S_0	S	F
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	00000	0000
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	00001	0001
0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	00010	0011
0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	00011	0010
0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	00100	0110
0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	00101	0111
0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	00110	0101
0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	00111	0100
0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	01000	1100
0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	01001	1101
0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	01010	1111
0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	01011	1110
0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	01100	1010

....

So, as the input and second flip-flops run through the ordinary binary integers, the first flip-flops run through the Gray code. The behaviour of F_i and S_{i+1} are entirely governed by the changes that occur in S_i. Assuming that the counter is initially cleared, the following sequence of events will repeat itself:

S_{i+1}	F_i	S_i
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	1	0
1	0	1
0	0	0

It can be seen that at all times $F_i = S_{i+1} \boxtimes S_i$, so that F indeed is the Gray code. Because S_{i+1} is always set to F_i, but delayed, we see another interesting fact:

Property P11: Column i of a listing of the Gray code is the same as column i+1 of binary, rotated up by 2^i.

4. Properties related to the transition bit index

Generation by minimal change

The Algorithms A1 and A2 generate a full Gray Code word at each step. However, because only one bit changes it is possible to generate each word from the previous by changing just that bit. But which bit?

Follow the execution of a certain level of recursion i in Algorithm A1that is called from level i+1 and passes control to level i-1. Successive calls to level i will be with direction:

up (d=0); down (d=1); up (d=0); down (d=1); etc.

The action of level i is then:

G[i-1] := 0,	call level i-1,	G[i-1] := 1,	call level i-1;	return;
G[i-1] := 1,	call level i-1,	G[i-1] := 0,	call level i-1;	return; etc

Assuming that the Gray code word is initialised to 0, it can be seen that the above sequence is equivalent to:

call level i-1,	G[i-1] := 1,	call level i-1;
call level i-1,	G[i-1] := 0,	call level i-1; etc

That is, level i *switches* bit i-1 between successive calls to level i-1. So we get [Er85]:

```
{ALGORITHM A3.1: GENERATE WIDTH N GRAY CODE SEQUENCE, BY
SWITCHING}
procedure generate (n: integer);
    var G: word;
        i: integer;
    procedure generate1 (m: integer);
        begin
        if m >= 0 then
            begin
            generate1(m - 1);
            G[m-1] := not G[m-1];
            display(G);
            generate1(m - 1);
            end;
        end;
begin
for i := n-1 downto 0 do G[i] := 0;
display(G);
generate1(n);
end;
```

The sequence of transition indices

The algorithm A3.1 identifies the location of each element as it is switched. It is straightforward to modify the algorithm so that it produces the sequence in which indices change:

{ALGORITHM A3.2: GENERATE SEQUENCE OF GRAY CODE TRANSITION INDICES

```
FOR WIDTH N}
procedure generate (n: integer);
    var G: word;
begin
   if n >= 0 then
    begin
    generate(n - 1);
    display(n-1);
    generate(n - 1);
    end;
end;
```

We see that the sequence of transitions has an even simpler structure than the original definition of the Gray code [BER76]:

> sequence for width n = sequence for width n-1, n-1, sequence for width n-1

5. Gray Code Incrementers

The task of an incrementer is, given a Gray code word, find the next in ascending order (likewise decrementers and descending). Incrementers are related to counters, which may save some auxilliary information to simplify the task, and to generating algorithms based on incrementing.

There are many papers, disclosures, and patents on this topic [Fis57, Maj71, CoSh69]. They all seem to have as a common concept the condition that is satisfied for a count up to occur. Consider algorithm A3.1. When the algorithm switches G[m-1] at level m, then, if m>1, level m-1 has been entered an odd number of times and level m-2, and below, an even number of times. Thus, when G[m-1] is switched, G[m-2]=1 and G[m-3] and below are all zero. Conversely, when this condition occurs then G[m-1] must be the next to be switched.

If m=1 then level 0 does not exist so we need another condition to look at. From the construction of the code we see that every second switch is of G[0]. Every switch changes the parity, thus, when counting up, G[0] will be switched next if P(G) is 0. When counting down, G[0] will be switched next if P(G) is 1.

Property P12: When counting an n-bit Gray Code in direction d (=0 for up, =1 for down), the next bit s to be switched is given by:

P(**G**) = d	then s = 0
P(**G**) = not d	then s is such that $\mathbf{G}_{s-1}$=1 and $\mathbf{G}_i$=0, i>s-1

This converts readily into a circuit if P(**G**) is known. In making a free-running counter the approach taken seems to be to provide an extra flip/flop that is by driven the clock and is used to select between the two alternatives. So, if flip/flop P is the parity flip-flop then the signals to toggle or switch the counter flip/flops are as in the example in Figure 6.

Figure 6. Gray code up counter

In terms of an algorithm for generating the code, Boothroyd [Boo64] calculates the parity and finds the last set bit by a scan from left to right.

```
{ALGORITHM A4: INCREMENT/DECREMENT A GRAY CODE WORD G OF WIDTH N}
```

```
procedure increment (var G: word; n: integer, d:bit);
    {d is direction, 0 up, 1 down}
    var p:bit;{parity}
        i, last1, switch: integer;
begin
p := 0;
last1 := n;
for i := n-1 downto 0 do
    if G[i] then begin
            p := not p;
            last1 := i;
            end;
if p [illegible] d
    then switch := 0
    else if last1 < n-1 then switch := last1+1
                       else switch := n-1;
G[switch] := not G[switch];
end;
```

Misra [Mis75] gives a generation algorithm based on the concept of incrementing. However, he keeps track of the parity separately and maintains a stack of indices of bits that are 1, which gives an algorithm that is very fast. [Er85] gives a coding of Misra's algorithm and incorporates some improvements.

6. Serial Addition

We have seen that the sign of the weight assigned to a bit in a Gray code word depends on the parity of the word at that bit, starting at the *high-order* end. However, most serial arithmetic operations must commence with the *low-order* end. If we know the entire parity of the word then it possible to commence serial operation from the low-order bits, because of the following property:

Property P13:

$P(\mathbf{G},n\text{-}1,k) = P(\mathbf{G},k\text{-}1,0)$ [illegible] $P(\mathbf{G})$

We have already seen one example, the Gray code counter, where knowledge of the parity overall is maintained in an auxilliary flip-flop. In [Luc59], Harold Lucal proposed using a modified Gray Code where the parity is maintained as the least significant bit. Lucal showed how serial arithmetic could then be implemented.

It is clear that addition of Gray codes can be performed serially if we commence at the least significant end and know the parity of the two operands. We can work out the high-order parities at each bit as we go using property P12. From property P10 we can find the parity of the sum and maintain the parity of each bit, and we can propagate a carry. This is straightforward but involves carrying a large amount of information between bits. Lucal, however, showed that addition could be performed by carrying only two bits between each stage as follows:

```
{ALGORITHM A5: SERIAL ADDITION OF GRAY CODE WORDS}
procedure add (n: integer; A,B:word; PA,PB:bit;
                var S:word; var PS:bit; var CE, CF:bit);
var i: integer; E, F, T: bit;
```

```
{This adds the Gray code words A and B to form the Gray code word
S. The operand parities are PA and PB, the sum parity is PS. This
propagates two carry bits internally, E and F, and produces two
external carry bits CE and CF}
begin
    E := PA; F := PB;
    for i:= 0 to n-1 do begin {in parallel, using previous inputs}
        S[i] := (E and F) ⊠⊠A[i] ⊠⊠B[i];
        E    := (E and (not F)) ⊠⊠A[i];
        F    := ((not E) and F) ⊠⊠B[i];
        end;
    CE := E; CF := F;
end;
```

This surprising algorithm is based on the observation that it it not necessary to know the exact parity of A[i] and B[i] but to know whether they have different parities or the same parity. The interpretation of the bits E and F is:

EF = 00 - parity of A and B the same, no change in binary carry
EF = 01 - parity different and B had the last 1
EF = 10 - parity different and A had the last 1
EF = 11 - parity of A and B the same, change in binary carry

CE and CF must both be 0 on completion, otherwise there is an overflow. Refer to [Luc59] for details and a proof that this algorithm is correct. Note the expression for the sum bit which represents a change in binary code of the binary sum as occuring when one of the inputs change (indicated by A[i] and by B[i]) or the carry changes (indicated by (E and F)) - this is the same equation as for binary addition.

7. Extensions to Gray codes

Bases other than binary

The original definition of Gray code applied to binary digits. However, it is very straightforward to extend the concept of a distance-1 transition to numbers of other bases, or even mixed-base numbers. A distance-1 transition is extended to mean a change by 1 in one digit only. The algorithms for generation and conversion are straightforward extensions of those for the binary case.

For example, to generate the code sequence, for each increment at a given digit, the lower order code is generated once, alternately up and down. Suppose, for example, a code is desired for numbers that have a base 5 digit followed by a base 3 digit.

Natural sequence	Gray sequence	Binary code
0,0	0,0	000,00
0,1	0,1	000,01
0,2	0,2	000,11
1,0	1,2	001,11
1,1	1,1	001,01
1,2	1,0	001,00
2,0	2,0	011,00
2,1	2,1	011,01

```
        2,2                 2,2                 011,11
        3,0                 3,2                 010,11
        3,1                 3,1                 010,01
        3,2                 3,0                 010,00
        4,0                 4,0                 110,00
        4,1                 4,1                 110,01
        4,2                 4,2                 110,11
```

If the digits are encoded in canonical binary Gray code then the encoding is itself a binary Gray code. Note that the Gray code will not be cyclic unless we are willing to regard a transition from the maximum digit to 0 as being single distance. In that case the code will be cyclic only if the base of the leading digit is even.

The rules for conversion and counting are also natural extensions of the binary case. In binary we invert a digit if the immediately higher order digit is 1, signifying that the low order sequence has been repeated an odd number of times and is thus descending. The extension is that a digit is base-1 complemented if its sequence has been repeated completely an odd number of times. This latter fact is easy to test for if the immediately higher digit is of an even base in which case the condition is that the digit is odd. However, if odd bases are involved then a digit is complemented when the sum of odd-based, immediately-adjacent, higher-order digits is odd.

For example, a number system with bases 4,7,5,2,6:

```
Original            Gray
code word           code word

3,2,2,1,4           3,4,2,1,1
0,1,0,1,0           0,1,4,0,5
```

There have been many papers exploring the generation of Gray codes in bases other than binary [ER84], [Dar72], [Bar81]. [ThMu93] introduces a parallel algorithm for generation, but using the power of a reconfigurable bus for fast carry propoagation.

Related concepts

The concept of adjacent symbols differing at one bit position only has been extended in many way. A shift of concept usually involves refiguring the algorithms that apply to bit strings to apply to the new domain.

Finding the order of selection of + or - in the set of expressions +/- f(+/- f(+/- ....)) where f is monotone, so that the results are in order, is found to be the Gray code sequence iteslf [Sal72], [Sal73].

Algorithms have been developed for the single change set partition sequences [Kay76], e.g. (1 2 3); (1 2) (3); (1) (2) (3); (1) (2 3); (1 3) (2). Similarly for the partitions of an integer [Sav89]. P(5,3): 1+1+1+1+1 = !+1+1+2 = 1+2+2 = 1+1+3 = 2+3. Also for compositions, split of n into k parts[Kli82] L(6,3): 2+2+2 = 3 + 2 + 1 = 4 + 1 +1. Others analogous transition sequences are covered in [KoRu93] and [Pro85]

Another path of generalization remains within weighted number systems but seeks variations to its properties. One direction is to look for uniformly weighted codes (those with the same number of 1 bits) [BER76] and another is for distance-1 codes with the “snake in the box” property that words distance k apart in the counting sequence differ by k bits [Kau70]. There are legions of other codes with similar and realted properties studied in the literature.

Paths on the n-cube

In the binary case, code words of length n can be regarded as the vertices of an n-cube and a complete Gray code sequence represents one of the Hamiltonian paths. This can have an application in hypercube computer networks. If the nodes are assigned binary numbers then the Gray code defines a path that allows a message to be sent ot all processors, once only.

As mentioned earlier the Gray codes are just a small subset of the distance-1 codes and Hamiltonian paths. The number of such paths as a function of n is not known, however paths that have additional properties have been enumerated [Gil58].

The n-cube can be generalized to a more-complex graph in the case of bases other than binary. Paths of special interest have also been studied in this case [ShRa78], [Coh63].

8. Applications of Gray codes

Gray codes continually turn out to have new applications. Two of the more-interesting applications are considered here.

Gray codes and Walsh functions

Yuen has shown that there is a nice relationship between width n Gray code sequence and the set of Walsh functions of length 2^n. A set of Walsh functions of length 2^n is usually defined as a set of discrete-valued functions in an interval with values that are orthogonal [Bea75]. However, they may also be regarded as set of 2^n binary code words of length that are maximally distant, i.e. each word is distance 2^{n-1} from all others. For example, n=3, a set of 8 length-8 Walsh functions, each distance 4 from all others, is:

		Gray	Gray	Walsh
		rank	code	code
0	000	0	000	00000000
1	001	1	001	00001111
2	010	3	011	00110011
3	011	2	010	00111100
4	100	7	111	01010101
5	101	6	110	01011010
6	110	4	100	01100110
7	111	5	101	01101001

The contrast with Gray code is striking. Walsh are maximally distant, there is no natural sequence to the code words. Gray words are minimally distant with a well-defined sequence. It is surprising that there is a relationship between the two concepts.

The algorithm to generate each member of a set of Walsh functions is also delightfully simple:

```
{ALGORITHM A6: GENERATE WIDTH 2^N WALSH FUNCTION CODE WORD I}
(0≤I≤2^N-1}
procedure generatew (n, i,: integer);
    procedure generatew1 (n, i,: integer; d:bit);
        {d represents an inversion of all bits}
        if n = 0 then output d
        else begin
            generatew(n-1,i div 2,d);
            generatew(n-1,i div 2,d[illegible](i mod 2));
            end;
```

```
begin
generatew1(n.i,0)
end;
```

The similarity of this algorithm to algorithm A3.1 is striking. As pointed out by Yuen, the number of transitions in the Walsh code word is the rank of the binary pattern of i in the Gray code sequence, and there must be one word for each possible number of transitions. Furthermore, the bits of the corresponding Gray code word may be used to specify the transition points in the Walsh word, in the same sequence as the sequence of index changes when generating the Gray sequence. So, if I has Gray-rank G with bits $\mathbf{G_2},\mathbf{G_1},\mathbf{G_0}$ then the sequence of changes in Walsh word number i is $0,\mathbf{G_2},\mathbf{G_1},\mathbf{G_2},\mathbf{G_0},\mathbf{G_2},\mathbf{G_1},\mathbf{G_2}$.

Although there is no natural order as such, one which has reason is where the code words are listed in order of number of transitions. This can be generated by replacing `d[illegible](i mod 2)` by `d[illegible](i mod 2)[illegible][illegible][illegible](i div 2)mod 2))` in the above algorithm, effectively converting from binary to Gray *en passent*.

Analog to digital conversion

The original application of Gray code was in A to D conversion. It is interesting that even with fully electronic A-D it appears to be somwhat faster and simpler to convert an analog signal V to a Gray code than to convert it to binary. The standard approach, if V is in the range 0 to 2^n-1, is to determine the first bit by subtracting 2^{n-1} - if the result is positive then the first bit is 1, if negative, the first bit is 0. The process continues with the reduced signal in the first case but with the original signal in the second case. There is thereby a decision to be made at each stage that slows the process down.

```
V1 := V;
for i from n-1 downto 0 do begin
    V2 := V1- $2^{i-1}$;
    B[i] := (V2≥0);
    if V2≥0 then V1:= V2;
    end;
```

However, it is possible to produce the Gray code version of the signal without making decisions, though it requires the determination of the absolute value of a voltage (which is realised as a rectifier).

```
{ALGORITHM A7: CONVERSION OF ANALOG SIGNAL V TO GRAY CODE}
V2 := V- $2^{n-1}$;
G[n-1] := (V2≥0);
V1 := |V2|;
for i from n-2 downto 0 do begin
    V2 := (V1- $2^i$);
    G[i] := (V2≤0);
    V1 := |V2|;
    end;
```

The fact that the Gray code is produced can be shown by noting that the V1 in the second algorithm is the same as the first where B[i] = 1 but is the 2^{i-1} complement elsewhere. The second algorithm treats the first bit in the opposite fashion to the others.

This algorithm has difficulty in dealing with the integer boundary values. For example, in two bit codes for signals in the range [0,4) the ranges mapping to 0, 1, 2, 3 are [0,1),[1,2),[2,3], (3,4). This is finessed, as is the issue of rounding, by incrementing V by 0.5 before commencing the algorithm.

The algorithm was expounded by Yuen [Yue77], [Yue78]. Lippel [Lip78] pointed out that the idea was in [Smi56] and attributed there to a 1949 thesis by R. P. Sallen.

The algorithm above is related to non-restoring division. Yuen [Yue88] showed how it could be extended to division and square rooting.

9. Parallel Arithmetic

The Gray code is a non-redundant representation of integers that appears to be far more suited to computers than to humans. However, Gray code could only be considered for use in a computer if it offered better or comparable cost and performance compared to the standard representation. A brief survey of parallel operations on Gray code is thus in order.

We have seen that binary to Gray conversion is simple and local whereas conversion the other way involves calculation of xor at every bit in a word by use of a parallel prefix tree. Apart from this, little has been written on parallel operations. We will have to look at more complex operations ourselves.

This a practical rather than a theoretical matter. We know that Gray code can be converted to binary in O(log n) time and converted back in constant time. Hence any operation that can be done in O (log n) time with standard representation can be done in O(log n) time in Gray code. What we really want to discover is whether the cost and speed working within Gray is comparable to the cost/speed of conversion and doing the work in binary. This is a technology-dependent question. There are many traps to avoid. There is little point, for example, in a new algorithm that adds an xor delay to each level in the binary circuit as this will be similar to making the conversion first.

Because the interpretation of the weights of Gray-code bits depends on the word's parity, arithmetic is much faster if the parity is known in advance. In many computers, where parity is used for error checking in memory, it is possible to maintain the parity at very little extra cost, so it is reasonable to assume that the parity is known, but we will consider the situation where the parity is known and when it is not known.

Incrementing

Lets deal with counting up, only.

When counting up an n-bit Gray Code the next bit s to be switched is given by:

$\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{G}) = 0$ then $s = 0$
$P(\mathbf{G}) = 1$ then s is such that $\mathbf{G}_{s-1}=1$ and $\mathbf{G}_i=0, i>s-1$

If we calculate the terms: and

$\mathbf{C}_i = \mathbf{G}_{i-1}$ and (not $\mathbf{G}_{i-2}$) and ..... and (not $\mathbf{G}_0$) $(i>0)$

Writing P(**G**) as P. Then we have the result of incrementing G to give S as:

$\mathbf{S}_i$ = P ⊠⊠$\mathbf{C}_i$ ⊠⊠$\mathbf{G}_i$ (i>0)
$\mathbf{S}_0$ = (not P) ⊠⊠$\mathbf{G}_0$

Compare this with incrementing in binary:

$\mathbf{D}_i$ = $\mathbf{B}_{i-1}$ and $\mathbf{B}_{i-2}$ and ..... and $\mathbf{B}_0$ (i>0)
$\mathbf{S}_i$ = $\mathbf{D}_i$ ⊠⊠$\mathbf{B}_i$ (i>0)
$\mathbf{S}_0$ = not⊠$\mathbf{B}_0$

There is little significant difference between calculating in parallel the terms $\mathbf{C}_i$ and the terms $\mathbf{D}_i$. The main complication is the extra xor in the calculation of the output terms $\mathbf{S}_i$. However, if P is known in advance and propagated in parallel with the generation of the terms $\mathbf{C}_i$ then the extra term in the xor amounts to wider and-gates and increased cost, but little performance loss.

If P is not known in advance then it can be evaluated and propagated in parallel to determining the terms $\mathbf{C}_i$ then much of the time taken in forming P will be overlapped. However, it will still dominate performance, and need to be followed by the last xor which will cause an additional delay. However, the total time should be well within that taken for most computer clock cycles.

Addition

This is interesting. Comparing Lucal's algorithm with the standard serial addition we can see that the main difference is the propagation of two carries rather than one.

Lucal:
```
    E := PA; F := PB;
    for i:= 0 to n-1 do begin {in parallel}
        S[i] := (E and F) ⊠⊠A[i] ⊠⊠B[i];
        E    := (E and (not F)) ⊠⊠A[i];
        F    := ((not E) and F) ⊠⊠B[i];
        end;
    CE := E; CF := F;
end;
```

Binary:
```
    C := 0;
    for i:= 0 to n-1 do begin {in parallel}
        S[i] := C ⊠⊠A[i] ⊠⊠B[i];
        C    := (⊠A[i] and B[i]) or (B[i] and C) or (C and ⊠A
[i]);
        end;
    CO := C;
end;
```

The sum equations are similar and each carry term in the Lucal form is of comparable complexity, when expanded, to the binary carry, though there are some 3-input terms.

```
        E    := (E and (not F) and (not A[i])) or
```

```
                ((not E) and A[i]) or  (F and A[i]);
        F    := (F and (not E) and (not A[i])) or
                ((not F) and A[i]) or (E and A[i]);
```

We can apply the carry lookahead technique to the Gray code, just as to the binary case. However, whereas in binary there are only 2 possible carry conditions (C= 0, C=1) there are 4 conditions for Gray code (EF = 00, 01, 10, 11).

In the binary case the basic recursion step involves two equations (to find the carry out, assuming carry-in of 0 and 1), each being the or of two terms each of which is a two input and. Assuming that cost is proportional to gate inputs, this is a cost of 2*6 = 12 per recursion step.

For the Lucal equations, to generate the carry we will need 4 equations, each a 4-input sum of 3-input terms for a cost of 4 * (4*3+4) = 64. A rough estimate would put the cost of the parallel Gray carry look-ahead as 5.3 times that of binary (it is not that bad because the initial terms are simpler). However, the speed would be of the same order, involving the same number of levels of logic. Of course, the standard carry look-ahead is made faster by a factor of about 2 by combining two levels of recursion and using 4-input gates. This would be harder with the Gray case as it would involve gates of 6 inputs.

The bottom line is that a carry-lookahead Gray adder is feasible but at a considerable cost, and, whatever way you look at it, a significant performance penalty as well. Not the note we would like to end on.

10. Summary

The algorithms and circuits involving Gray-codes are of particular interest because they are so simple and surprising. The simple Gray code offers a dense counting sequence that is not very useful for humans but has the potential of being more “natural” for machines.

However, when it comes to practical and long-lasting use of the codes it does turn out Gray code does not offer significant advantage over conventional representation. Indeed, Gray encoding usually gives rise to more complexity.

Be that as it may, Gray code continues to turn up in diverse areas, some of which are listed in the bibliography that follows.

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