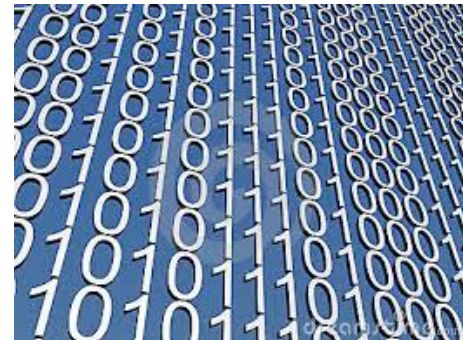




Number Systems and Number Representation

Q: Why do computer programmers
confuse Christmas and Halloween?

A: Because $25 \text{ Dec} = 31 \text{ Oct}$





Goals of this Lecture

Help you learn (or refresh your memory) about:

- The binary, hexadecimal, and octal number systems
- Finite representation of unsigned integers
- Finite representation of signed integers
- Finite representation of rational numbers (if time)

Why?

- A power programmer must know number systems and data representation to fully understand C's **primitive data types**

Primitive values and
the operations on them

Agenda



Number Systems

Finite representation of unsigned integers

Finite representation of signed integers

Finite representation of rational numbers (if time)



The Decimal Number System

Name

- “decem” (Latin) \Rightarrow ten

Characteristics

- Ten symbols
 - 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
- Positional
 - $2945 \neq 2495$
 - $2945 = (2 \cdot 10^3) + (9 \cdot 10^2) + (4 \cdot 10^1) + (5 \cdot 10^0)$

(Most) people use the decimal number system

Why?

The Binary Number System



binary

adjective: being in a state of one of two mutually exclusive conditions such as on or off, true or false, molten or frozen, presence or absence of a signal. From Late Latin *bīnārius* (“consisting of two”).

Characteristics

- Two symbols
 - 0 1
- Positional
 - $1010_B \neq 1100_B$

Most (digital) computers use the binary number system

Terminology

- **Bit**: a binary digit
- **Byte**: (typically) 8 bits





Decimal-Binary Equivalence

<u>Decimal</u>	<u>Binary</u>
0	0
1	1
2	10
3	11
4	100
5	101
6	110
7	111
8	1000
9	1001
10	1010
11	1011
12	1100
13	1101
14	1110
15	1111

<u>Decimal</u>	<u>Binary</u>
16	10000
17	10001
18	10010
19	10011
20	10100
21	10101
22	10110
23	10111
24	11000
25	11001
26	11010
27	11011
28	11100
29	11101
30	11110
31	11111
...	...

Decimal-Binary Conversion



Binary to decimal: expand using positional notation

$$\begin{aligned} 100101_B &= (1 \cdot 2^5) + (0 \cdot 2^4) + (0 \cdot 2^3) + (1 \cdot 2^2) + (0 \cdot 2^1) + (1 \cdot 2^0) \\ &= 32 + 0 + 0 + 4 + 0 + 1 \\ &= 37 \end{aligned}$$

~~Integer~~ Decimal-Binary Conversion



~~Integer~~

Binary to ~~decimal~~: expand using positional notation

$$\begin{aligned} 100101_B &= (1 \cdot 2^5) + (0 \cdot 2^4) + (0 \cdot 2^3) + (1 \cdot 2^2) + (0 \cdot 2^1) + (1 \cdot 2^0) \\ &= 32 + 0 + 0 + 4 + 0 + 1 \\ &= 37 \end{aligned}$$

These are integers

They exist as their pure selves
no matter how we might choose
to *represent* them with our
fingers or toes



Integer-Binary Conversion

Integer to binary: do the reverse

- Determine largest power of $2 \leq \text{number}$; write template

$$37 = (? * 2^5) + (? * 2^4) + (? * 2^3) + (? * 2^2) + (? * 2^1) + (? * 2^0)$$

- Fill in template

$$\begin{array}{r} 37 = (1 * 2^5) + (0 * 2^4) + (0 * 2^3) + (1 * 2^2) + (0 * 2^1) + (1 * 2^0) \\ \underline{-32} \\ 5 \\ \underline{-4} \\ 1 \\ \underline{-1} \\ 0 \end{array} \qquad 100101_B$$



Integer-Binary Conversion

Integer to binary shortcut

- Repeatedly divide by 2, consider remainder

37	/	2	=	18	R	1
18	/	2	=	9	R	0
9	/	2	=	4	R	1
4	/	2	=	2	R	0
2	/	2	=	1	R	0
1	/	2	=	0	R	1



Read from bottom
to top: 100101_B

The Hexadecimal Number System



Name

- “hexa” (Greek) \Rightarrow six
- “decem” (Latin) \Rightarrow ten

Characteristics

- Sixteen symbols
 - 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A B C D E F
- Positional
 - $A13D_H \neq 3DA1_H$

Computer programmers often use the hexadecimal number system

Why?

Decimal-Hexadecimal Equivalence



<u>Decimal</u>	<u>Hex</u>
0	0
1	1
2	2
3	3
4	4
5	5
6	6
7	7
8	8
9	9
10	A
11	B
12	C
13	D
14	E
15	F

<u>Decimal</u>	<u>Hex</u>
16	10
17	11
18	12
19	13
20	14
21	15
22	16
23	17
24	18
25	19
26	1A
27	1B
28	1C
29	1D
30	1E
31	1F

<u>Decimal</u>	<u>Hex</u>
32	20
33	21
34	22
35	23
36	24
37	25
38	26
39	27
40	28
41	29
42	2A
43	2B
44	2C
45	2D
46	2E
47	2F
...	...

Integer-Hexadecimal Conversion



Hexadecimal to integer: expand using positional notation

$$\begin{aligned} 25_{\text{H}} &= (2 \cdot 16^1) + (5 \cdot 16^0) \\ &= 32 + 5 \\ &= 37 \end{aligned}$$

Integer to hexadecimal: use the shortcut

$$\begin{aligned} 37 / 16 &= 2 \text{ R } 5 \\ 2 / 16 &= 0 \text{ R } 2 \end{aligned}$$



Read from bottom
to top: 25_{H}



Binary-Hexadecimal Conversion

Observation: $16^1 = 2^4$

- Every 1 hexadecimal digit corresponds to 4 binary digits

Binary to hexadecimal

1010000100111101 _B
A 1 3 D _H

Digit count in binary number
not a multiple of 4 \Rightarrow
pad with zeros on left

Hexadecimal to binary

A 1 3 D _H
1010000100111101 _B

Discard leading zeros
from binary number if
appropriate

Is it clear why programmers
often use hexadecimal?

The Octal Number System



Name

- “octo” (Latin) \Rightarrow eight

Characteristics

- Eight symbols
 - 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- Positional
 - $1743_8 \neq 7314_8$



Computer programmers often use the octal number system



(So does Mickey Mouse!)

Agenda



Number Systems

Finite representation of unsigned integers

Finite representation of signed integers

Finite representation of rational numbers (if time)

Unsigned Data Types: Java vs. C



Java has type:

- `int`
 - Can represent signed integers

C has type:

- `signed int`
 - Can represent signed integers
- `int`
 - Same as `signed int`
- `unsigned int`
 - Can represent only unsigned integers

To understand C, must consider representation of both unsigned and signed integers

Representing Unsigned Integers



Mathematics

- Range is 0 to ∞

Computer programming

- Range limited by computer's **word** size
- Word size is n bits \Rightarrow range is 0 to $2^n - 1$
- Exceed range \Rightarrow **overflow**

CourseLab computers

- $n = 64$, so range is 0 to $2^{64} - 1$ (huge!)

Pretend computer

- $n = 4$, so range is 0 to $2^4 - 1$ (15)

Hereafter, assume word size = 4

- All points generalize to word size = 64, word size = n

Representing Unsigned Integers



On pretend computer

<u>Unsigned Integer</u>	<u>Rep</u>
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111
8	1000
9	1001
10	1010
11	1011
12	1100
13	1101
14	1110
15	1111

Adding/subtracting binary numbers



Addition

$$\begin{array}{r} 0011 \\ \underline{1010} \end{array}$$

Subtraction

$$\begin{array}{r} 1010 \\ \underline{0111} \end{array}$$

Subtraction

$$\begin{array}{r} 0011 \\ \underline{1010} \end{array}$$



Adding Unsigned Integers

Addition

			1
	3		0011 _B
+	10	+	1010 _B
--		--	----
	13		1101 _B

			1
	7		0111 _B
+	10	+	1010 _B
--		--	----
	1		0001 _B

Start at right column
Proceed leftward
Carry 1 when necessary

Beware of overflow

Results are mod 2^4

How would you
detect overflow
programmatically?



Subtracting Unsigned Integers

Subtraction

			111
10		1010 _B	
- 7	-	0111 _B	
--		----	
3		0011 _B	

			1
3		0011 _B	
- 10	-	1010 _B	
--		----	
9		1001 _B	

Results are mod 2^4

Start at right column
Proceed leftward
Borrow when necessary

Beware of overflow

How would you detect overflow programmatically?



Shifting Unsigned Integers

Bitwise right shift (\gg in C): fill on left with zeros

$10 \gg 1 \Rightarrow 5$
 $1010_B \quad 0101_B$

$10 \gg 2 \Rightarrow 2$
 $1010_B \quad 0010_B$

What is the effect arithmetically?
(No fair looking ahead)

Bitwise left shift (\ll in C): fill on right with zeros

$5 \ll 1 \Rightarrow 10$
 $0101_B \quad 1010_B$

$3 \ll 2 \Rightarrow 12$
 $0011_B \quad 1100_B$

What is the effect arithmetically?
(No fair looking ahead)

Results are mod 2^4

Other Operations on Unsigned Ints



Bitwise NOT (~ in C)

- Flip each bit

$\sim 10 \Rightarrow 5$

1010_{B} 0101_{B}

Bitwise AND (& in C)

- Logical AND corresponding bits

10	1010_{B}
& 7	$\& 0111_{\text{B}}$
--	----
2	0010_{B}

Useful for setting
selected bits to 0

Other Operations on Unsigned Ints



Bitwise OR: (| in C)

- Logical OR corresponding bits

10	1010 _B
1	0001 _B
--	----
11	1011 _B

Useful for setting
selected bits to 1

Bitwise exclusive OR (^ in C)

- Logical exclusive OR corresponding bits

10	1010 _B
^ 10	^ 1010 _B
--	----
0	0000 _B

$x \wedge x$ sets
all bits to 0

Aside: Using Bitwise Ops for Arith



Can use \ll , \gg , and $\&$ to do some arithmetic efficiently

$$x * 2^y == x \ll y$$

$$\bullet 3 * 4 = 3 * 2^2 = 3 \ll 2 \Rightarrow 12$$

$$x / 2^y == x \gg y$$

$$\bullet 13 / 4 = 13 / 2^2 = 13 \gg 2 \Rightarrow 3$$

$$x \% 2^y == x \& (2^y - 1)$$

$$\bullet 13 \% 4 = 13 \% 2^2 = 13 \& (2^2 - 1) \\ = 13 \& 3 \Rightarrow 1$$

Fast way to **multiply**
by a power of 2

Fast way to **divide**
unsigned by power of 2

Fast way to **mod**
by a power of 2

13	1101 _B
& 3	& 0011 _B
--	----
1	0001 _B



Aside: Example C Program

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
int main(void)
{
    unsigned int n;
    unsigned int count;
    printf("Enter an unsigned integer: ");
    if (scanf("%u", &n) != 1)
    {
        fprintf(stderr, "Error: Expect unsigned int.\n");
        exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
    }
    for (count = 0; n > 0; n = n >> 1)
        count += (n & 1);
    printf("%u\n", count);
    return 0;
}
```

What does it write?

How could this be expressed more succinctly?



Aside from the aside...

Personally, I wouldn't put the `(count=0)` in the `for(;;)` initializer,

```
for (count = 0; n > 0; n = n >> 1)
    count += (n & 1);
```

because it's not really part of the loop iterator. In this case, the iterator is `n`, which (in this case) happens to be already initialized.

So it's perhaps more straightforward to write,

```
count = 0;
for ( ; n > 0; n = n >> 1)
    count += (n & 1);
```

Agenda



Number Systems

Finite representation of unsigned integers

Finite representation of signed integers

Finite representation of rational numbers (if time)



Signed Magnitude

<u>Integer</u>	<u>Rep</u>
-7	1111
-6	1110
-5	1101
-4	1100
-3	1011
-2	1010
-1	1001
-0	1000
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111

Definition

High-order bit indicates sign

0 \Rightarrow positive

1 \Rightarrow negative

Remaining bits indicate magnitude

$$1101_B = -101_B = -5$$

$$0101_B = 101_B = 5$$



Signed Magnitude (cont.)

<u>Integer</u>	<u>Rep</u>
-7	1111
-6	1110
-5	1101
-4	1100
-3	1011
-2	1010
-1	1001
-0	1000
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111

Computing negative

$\text{neg}(x) = \text{flip high order bit of } x$

$$\text{neg}(0101_B) = 1101_B$$

$$\text{neg}(1101_B) = 0101_B$$

Pros and cons

- + easy for people to understand
- + symmetric
- two representations of zero
- can't use the same "add" algorithm for both signed and unsigned numbers



Ones' Complement

<u>Integer</u>	<u>Rep</u>
-7	1000
-6	1001
-5	1010
-4	1011
-3	1100
-2	1101
-1	1110
-0	1111
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111

Definition

High-order bit has weight -7

$$\begin{aligned}1010_B &= (1 * -7) + (0 * 4) + (1 * 2) + (0 * 1) \\ &= -5\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}0010_B &= (0 * -7) + (0 * 4) + (1 * 2) + (0 * 1) \\ &= 2\end{aligned}$$



Ones' Complement (cont.)

<u>Integer</u>	<u>Rep</u>
-7	1000
-6	1001
-5	1010
-4	1011
-3	1100
-2	1101
-1	1110
-0	1111
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111

Computing negative

$$\text{neg}(x) = \sim x$$

$$\text{neg}(0101_{\text{B}}) = 1010_{\text{B}}$$

$$\text{neg}(1010_{\text{B}}) = 0101_{\text{B}}$$

Computing negative (alternative)

$$\text{neg}(x) = 1111_{\text{B}} - x$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{neg}(0101_{\text{B}}) &= 1111_{\text{B}} - 0101_{\text{B}} \\ &= 1010_{\text{B}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{neg}(1010_{\text{B}}) &= 1111_{\text{B}} - 1010_{\text{B}} \\ &= 0101_{\text{B}} \end{aligned}$$

Pros and cons

- + symmetric
- two reps of zero
- can't use the same "add" algorithm for both signed and unsigned numbers

Two's Complement



<u>Integer</u>	<u>Rep</u>
-8	1000
-7	1001
-6	1010
-5	1011
-4	1100
-3	1101
-2	1110
-1	1111
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111

Definition

High-order bit has weight -8

$$\begin{aligned}1010_B &= (1 * -8) + (0 * 4) + (1 * 2) + (0 * 1) \\ &= -6\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}0010_B &= (0 * -8) + (0 * 4) + (1 * 2) + (0 * 1) \\ &= 2\end{aligned}$$



Two's Complement (cont.)

<u>Integer</u>	<u>Rep</u>
-8	1000
-7	1001
-6	1010
-5	1011
-4	1100
-3	1101
-2	1110
-1	1111
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111

Computing negative

$$\text{neg}(x) = \sim x + 1$$

$$\text{neg}(x) = \text{onescomp}(x) + 1$$

$$\text{neg}(0101_{\text{B}}) = 1010_{\text{B}} + 1 = 1011_{\text{B}}$$

$$\text{neg}(1011_{\text{B}}) = 0100_{\text{B}} + 1 = 0101_{\text{B}}$$

Pros and cons

- not symmetric

+ one representation of zero

+ same algorithm adds unsigned numbers
or signed numbers

Two's Complement (cont.)



Almost all computers use two's complement to represent signed integers

Why?

- Arithmetic is easy
 - Will become clear soon

Hereafter, assume two's complement representation of signed integers



Adding Signed Integers

pos + pos

		11
3		0011 _B
+ 3	+	0011 _B
--		----
6		0110 _B

pos + pos (overflow)

		111
7		0111 _B
+ 1	+	0001 _B
--		----
-8		1000 _B

pos + neg

		1111
3		0011 _B
+ -1	+	1111 _B
--		----
2		10010 _B

How would you detect overflow programmatically?

neg + neg

		11
-3		1101 _B
+ -2	+	1110 _B
--		----
-5		11011 _B

neg + neg (overflow)

		1 1
-6		1010 _B
+ -5	+	1011 _B
--		----
5		10101 _B

Subtracting Signed Integers



Perform subtraction
with borrows

or

Compute two's comp
and add

		1
		22
3	0011 _B	
- 4	- 0100 _B	
--	----	
-1	1111 _B	



3	0011 _B
+ -4	+ 1100 _B
--	----
-1	1111 _B

-5	1011 _B
- 2	- 0010 _B
--	----
-7	1001 _B



	111
-5	1011
+ -2	+ 1110
--	----
-7	11001



Negating Signed Ints: Math

Question: Why does two's comp arithmetic work?

Answer: $[-b] \bmod 2^4 = [\text{twoscomp}(b)] \bmod 2^4$

$$\begin{aligned} & [-b] \bmod 2^4 \\ &= [2^4 - b] \bmod 2^4 \\ &= [2^4 - 1 - b + 1] \bmod 2^4 \\ &= [(2^4 - 1 - b) + 1] \bmod 2^4 \\ &= [\text{onescomp}(b) + 1] \bmod 2^4 \\ &= [\text{twoscomp}(b)] \bmod 2^4 \end{aligned}$$

See Bryant & O' Hallaron book for much more info

Subtracting Signed Ints: Math



And so:

$$[a - b] \bmod 2^4 = [a + \text{twoscomp}(b)] \bmod 2^4$$

$$\begin{aligned} & [a - b] \bmod 2^4 \\ &= [a + 2^4 - b] \bmod 2^4 \\ &= [a + 2^4 - 1 - b + 1] \bmod 2^4 \\ &= [a + (2^4 - 1 - b) + 1] \bmod 2^4 \\ &= [a + \text{onescomp}(b) + 1] \bmod 2^4 \\ &= [a + \text{twoscomp}(b)] \bmod 2^4 \end{aligned}$$

See Bryant & O' Hallaron book for much more info



Shifting Signed Integers

Bitwise left shift (<< in C): fill on right with zeros

$$\begin{array}{l} 3 \ll 1 \Rightarrow 6 \\ 0011_{\text{B}} \quad 0110_{\text{B}} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} -3 \ll 1 \Rightarrow -6 \\ 1101_{\text{B}} \quad -1010_{\text{B}} \end{array}$$

What is the effect arithmetically?

Bitwise **arithmetic** right shift: fill on left **with sign bit**

$$\begin{array}{l} 6 \gg 1 \Rightarrow 3 \\ 0110_{\text{B}} \quad 0011_{\text{B}} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} -6 \gg 1 \Rightarrow -3 \\ 1010_{\text{B}} \quad 1101_{\text{B}} \end{array}$$

What is the effect arithmetically?

Results are mod 2^4



Shifting Signed Integers (cont.)

Bitwise **logical** right shift: fill on left **with zeros**

6 >> 1 ⇒ 3
0110_B 0011_B

-6 >> 1 ⇒ 5
1010_B 0101_B

What is the effect arithmetically???

In C, right shift (>>) could be logical or arithmetic

- Not specified by C90 standard
- Compiler designer decides

Best to avoid shifting signed integers

(if you must shift signed integers, make sure you're on a 2's complement machine, and do a bitwise-and after shifting)

(Java does this better, with two operators: >> >>>)

Shifting Signed Integers (cont.)



Is it after 1980?
OK, then we're surely
two's complement



(if you must shift signed integers, make sure you're on a 2's complement machine, and do a bitwise-and after shifting)



Other Operations on Signed Ints

Bitwise NOT (~ in C)

- Same as with unsigned ints

Bitwise AND (& in C)

- Same as with unsigned ints

Bitwise OR: (| in C)

- Same as with unsigned ints

Bitwise exclusive OR (^ in C)

- Same as with unsigned ints

Best to avoid with signed integers

Agenda



Number Systems

Finite representation of unsigned integers

Finite representation of signed integers

Finite representation of rational numbers (if time)

Rational Numbers



Mathematics

- A **rational** number is one that can be expressed as the **ratio** of two integers
- Unbounded range and precision

Computer science

- Finite range and precision
- Approximate using **floating point** number
 - Binary point “floats” across bits

IEEE Floating Point Representation



Common finite representation: **IEEE floating point**

- More precisely: ISO/IEEE 754 standard

Using 32 bits (type float in C):

- 1 bit: sign (0⇒positive, 1⇒negative)
- 8 bits: exponent + 127
- 23 bits: binary fraction of the form $1.d\text{xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx}$

Using 64 bits (type double in C):

- 1 bit: sign (0⇒positive, 1⇒negative)
- 11 bits: exponent + 1023
- 52 bits: binary fraction of the form $1.d\text{xx}$



Floating Point Example

Sign (1 bit):

- 1 \Rightarrow negative

11000001110110110000000000000000

32-bit representation

Exponent (8 bits):

- $10000011_B = 131$
- $131 - 127 = 4$

Fraction (23 bits): also called “mantissa”

- $1.10110110000000000000000_B$
- $1 + (1*2^{-1}) + (0*2^{-2}) + (1*2^{-3}) + (1*2^{-4}) + (0*2^{-5}) + (1*2^{-6}) + (1*2^{-7}) = 1.7109375$

Number:

- $-1.7109375 * 2^4 = -27.375$

When was floating-point invented?



Answer: long before computers!

mantissa

noun

decimal part of a logarithm, 1865, from Latin *mantisa* "a worthless addition, makeweight," perhaps a Gaulish word introduced into Latin via Etruscan (cf. Old Irish *meit*, Welsh *maint* "size").

COMMON LOGARITHMS $\log_{10} x$

x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Δ_m	1	2	3
											+			
50	.6990	6998	7007	7016	7024	7033	7042	7050	7059	7067	9	1	2	3
51	.7076	7084	7093	7101	7110	7118	7126	7135	7143	7152	8	1	2	2
52	.7160	7168	7177	7185	7193	7202	7210	7218	7226	7235	8	1	2	2
53	.7243	7251	<u>7259</u>	7267	7275	7284	7292	7300	7308	7316	8	1	2	2
54	.7324	7332	7340	7348	7356	7364	7372	7380	7388	7396	8	1	2	2
55	.7404	7412	7419	7427	7435	7443	7451	7459	7466	7474	8	1	2	2
56	.7482	7490	7497	<u>7505</u>	7513	7520	7528	7536	7543	7551	8	1	2	2
57	.7559	7566	7574	<u>7582</u>	7589	7597	7604	7612	7619	7627	8	1	2	2
58	.7634	7642	7649	<u>7657</u>	7664	7672	7679	7686	<u>7694</u>	7701	8	1	2	2
59	.7709	7716	7723	7731	7738	7745	7752	7760	7767	7774	7	1	1	2



Floating Point Warning

Decimal number system can represent only some rational numbers with finite digit count

- Example: $1/3$

<u>Decimal</u> <u>Approx</u>	<u>Rational</u> <u>Value</u>
.3	$3/10$
.33	$33/100$
.333	$333/1000$
...	

Binary number system can represent only some rational numbers with finite digit count

- Example: $1/5$

<u>Binary</u> <u>Approx</u>	<u>Rational</u> <u>Value</u>
0.0	$0/2$
0.01	$1/4$
0.010	$2/8$
0.0011	$3/16$
0.00110	$6/32$
0.001101	$13/64$
0.0011010	$26/128$
0.00110011	$51/256$
...	

Beware of **roundoff error**

- Error resulting from inexact representation
- Can accumulate

Summary



The binary, hexadecimal, and octal number systems

Finite representation of unsigned integers

Finite representation of signed integers

Finite representation of rational numbers

Essential for proper understanding of

- C primitive data types
- Assembly language
- Machine language