

COS 217: Introduction to Programming Systems

Numbers (in C and otherwise)

Q: Why do computer programmers confuse Christmas and Halloween?

A: Because `25 Dec == 31 Oct`





The Decimal Number System

Name

- “decem” (Latin) ⇒ ten

Characteristics

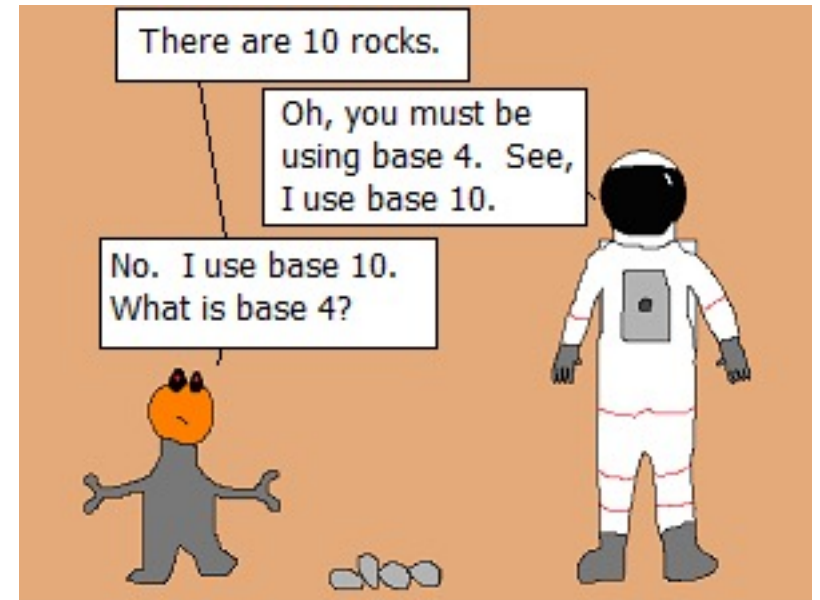
- For us, these symbols (Not universal ...)
- 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

<https://bit.ly/3ifUw1b>

European (descended from the West Arabic)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Arabic-Indic	•	١	٢	٣	٤	٥	٦	٧	٨	٩
Eastern Arabic-Indic (Persian and Urdu)	•	١	٢	٣	٤	٥	٦	٧	٨	٩
Devanagari (Hindi)	०	१	२	३	४	५	६	७	८	९
Tamil		௦	௧	௨	௩	௪	௫	௬	௭	௮

- Positional
 - 2945 ≠ 2495
 - 2945 = (2*10³) + (9*10²) + (4*10¹) + (5*10⁰)

2 (Most) people use the decimal number system



Every base is base 10.





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 single binary symbol (“binary digit”)
- **Byte:** (typically) 8 bits
- **Nibble / Nybble:** 4 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

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

Most-significant
bit (msb)

Least-significant
bit (lsb)



Integer-Binary Conversion

(Decimal) Integer to binary: do the reverse

- Determine largest power of 2 that's \leq 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 division method

- 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-” (Ancient Greek ἕξα-) \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
 - A13DH \neq 3DA1H

Computer programmers often use hexadecimal or “hex”

- In C: 0x prefix (0xA13D, etc.)

Why?



Binary-Hexadecimal Conversion

Observation:

- $16^1 = 2^4$, so every 1 hexit corresponds to 4 bits

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



Base Conversion Quick Quiz



Convert binary 101010 into decimal and hex

- A. 21 decimal, 1A hex
- B. 42 decimal, 2A hex
- C. 48 decimal, 32 hex
- D. 55 decimal, 4G hex

hint: convert to hex first



The Octal Number System

Name

- “octo” (Latin) \Rightarrow eight

Characteristics

- Eight symbols
 - 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- Positional
 - $17430 \neq 73140$



Computer programmers sometimes use octal (so does Mickey!)

- In C: 0 prefix (01743, etc.)

```
[cmoretti@tars:tmp]$ ls -l myFile
-rw-r--r-- 1 cmoretti wheel 0 Sep  7 10:58 myFile
[cmoretti@tars:tmp]$ chmod 755 myFile
[cmoretti@tars:tmp]$ ls -l myFile
-rwxr-xr-x 1 cmoretti wheel 0 Sep  7 10:58 myFile
```





INTEGERS





Representing Unsigned (Non-Negative) Integers

Mathematics

- Non-negative integers' range is 0 to ∞

Computers

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

Typical computers today

- $n = 32$ or 64 , so range is 0 to $2^{32} - 1$ (~4 billion) or $2^{64} - 1$ (huge ... ~ $1.8e19$)

Pretend computer

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

Hereafter, assume word size = 4

- All points generalize to word size = n (armlab: 64)



Representing Unsigned Integers

On 4-bit 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 Unsigned Integers

Addition

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

		111
7		0111 _B
+ 10	+	1010 _B
--		----
1		0001 _B

Start at right column
Proceed leftward
Carry 1 when necessary

Beware of overflow

How would you detect overflow programmatically?

Results are mod 2^4



Subtracting Unsigned Integers

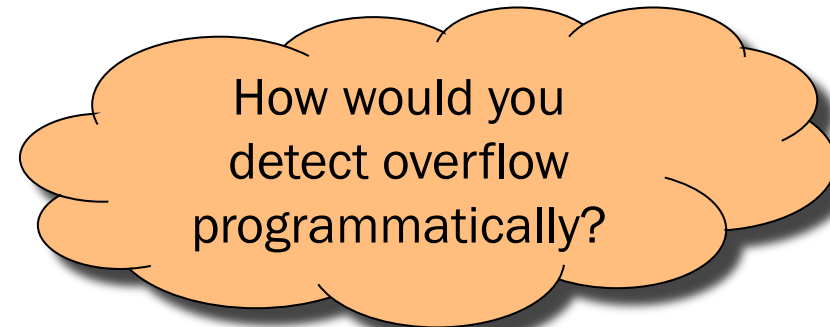
Subtraction

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

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

Start at right column
 Proceed leftward
 Borrow when necessary

Beware of overflow



Results are mod 2⁴

Unfortunate reminder: negative numbers exist





Obsolete Attempt #1: Sign-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

$$0101_B = 101_B = 5$$

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

Pros and cons

- + easy to understand, easy to negate
- + symmetric
- two representations of zero
- need different algorithms to add signed and unsigned numbers

Not used for integers today



Obsolete Attempt #2: 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 $-(2^{b-1}-1)$

$$1010_B = (1 * -7) + (0 * 4) + (1 * 2) + (0 * 1) \\ = -5$$

$$0010_B = (0 * -7) + (0 * 4) + (1 * 2) + (0 * 1) \\ = 2$$

Computing negative = flipping all bits

Similar pros and cons to sign-magnitude



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 $-(2^{b-1})$

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

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



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

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

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

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

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

Pros and cons

- not symmetric

 ("extra" negative number)

+ one representation of zero

+ same algorithm adds

 signed and unsigned 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	0010 _B	

How would you detect overflow programmatically?

neg + neg

		11
-3	1101 _B	
+ -2	+ 1110 _B	
--	----	
-5	1011 _B	

neg + neg (overflow)

		1 1
-6	1010 _B	
+ -5	+ 1011 _B	
--	----	
5	0101 _B	



Subtracting Signed Integers

How would you compute $3 - 4$?

3	0011 _B
- 4	- 0100 _B
--	----
?	???? _B



Subtracting Signed Integers

Perform subtraction
with borrows

or

Compute two's comp
and add

		11
3		0011 _B
- 4	-	0100 _B
--		----
-1		1111 _B



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

		11
-5		1011 _B
--2	-	1110 _B
--		----
-3		1101 _B



		1
-5		1011 _B
+ 2	+	0010 _B
--		----
-3		1101 _B



Negating Signed Ints: Math

Question: Why does two's comp arithmetic work?

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

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

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

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



Integer Data Types in C

Integer types of various sizes: {signed, unsigned} {char, short, int, long}

- Shortcuts: “signed” assumed for short/int/long; “unsigned” means unsigned int
- char is 1 byte
 - Number of bits per byte is unspecified (but in the 21st century, safe to assume it’s 8)
- Sizes of other integer types not fully specified but constrained:
 - int was intended to be “natural word size” of hardware
 - $2 \leq \text{sizeof}(\text{short}) \leq \text{sizeof}(\text{int}) \leq \text{sizeof}(\text{long})$

On ArmLab:

- Natural word size: 8 bytes (“64-bit machine”)
- char: 1 byte
- short: 2 bytes
- int: 4 bytes (compatibility with widespread 32-bit code)
- long: 8 bytes

What decisions did the designers of Java make?



Integer Types in Java vs. C

	Java	C
Unsigned types	<code>char // 16 bits</code>	<code>unsigned char /* Note 2 */</code> <code>unsigned short</code> <code>unsigned (int)</code> <code>unsigned long</code>
Signed types	<code>byte // 8 bits</code> <code>short // 16 bits</code> <code>int // 32 bits</code> <code>long // 64 bits</code>	<code>signed char /* Note 2 */</code> <code>(signed) short</code> <code>(signed) int</code> <code>(signed) long</code>

1. Not guaranteed by C, but on **armlab**, `char` = 8 bits, `short` = 16 bits, `int` = 32 bits, `long` = 64 bits
2. Not guaranteed by C, but on **armlab**, `char` is unsigned



sizeof Operator

- Applied at compile-time
- Operand can be a data type
- Operand can be an expression, from which the compiler infers a data type

Examples, on armlab using gcc217

- `sizeof(int)` evaluates to 4
- `sizeof(i)` – where `i` is a variable of type `int` – evaluates to 4



Integer Literals in C

- Decimal int: 123
- Octal int: 0173 = 123
- Hexadecimal int: 0x7B = 123
- Use "L" suffix to indicate long literal
- No suffix to indicate char-sized or short integer literals; instead, cast
- Use "U" suffix to indicate unsigned literal

Examples

- int: 123, 0173, 0x7B
- long: 123L, 0173L, 0x7BL
- short: (short)123, (short)0173, (short)0x7B
- unsigned: 123U, 0173U, 0x7BU
- unsigned long: 123UL, 0173UL, 0x7BUL
- unsigned short: (unsigned short)123, (unsigned short)0173, (unsigned short)0x7B



sizeof expressions



Q: What is the value of the following sizeof expression on the armlab machines?

```
int i = 1;  
sizeof(i + 2L)
```

- A. 3
- B. 4
- C. 8
- D. 12
- E. error



OPERATIONS ON NUMBERS



Reading / Writing Numbers

Motivation

- Must convert between external form (sequence of character codes) and internal form
- Could provide `getchar()`, `putshort()`, `getint()`, `putfloat()`, etc.
- Alternative implemented in C: parameterized functions

`scanf()` and `printf()`

- Can read/write any primitive type of data
- First parameter is a format string containing conversion specs: size, base, field width
- Can read/write multiple variables with one call

See King book for details



Operators in C

- Typical arithmetic operators: + - * / %
- Typical relational operators: == != < <= > >=
 - Each evaluates to FALSE \Rightarrow 0, TRUE \Rightarrow 1
- Typical logical operators: ! && ||
 - Each interprets 0 \Rightarrow FALSE, non-0 \Rightarrow TRUE
 - Each evaluates to FALSE \Rightarrow 0, TRUE \Rightarrow 1
- Cast operator: (type)
- Bitwise operators: ~ & | ^ >> <<

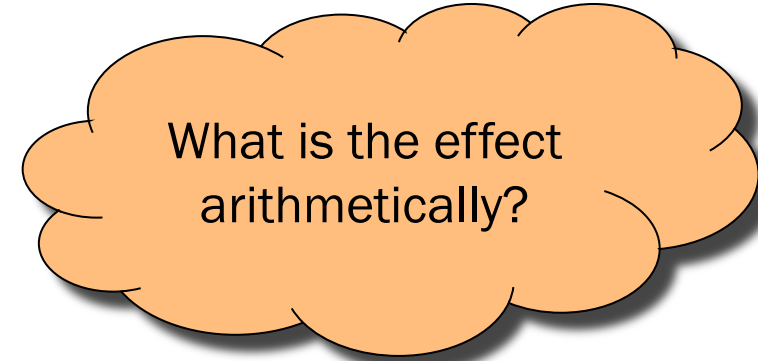


Shifting Unsigned Integers

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

```
10 >> 1 ⇒ 5  
1010B 0101B
```

```
10 >> 2 ⇒ 2  
1010B 0010B
```

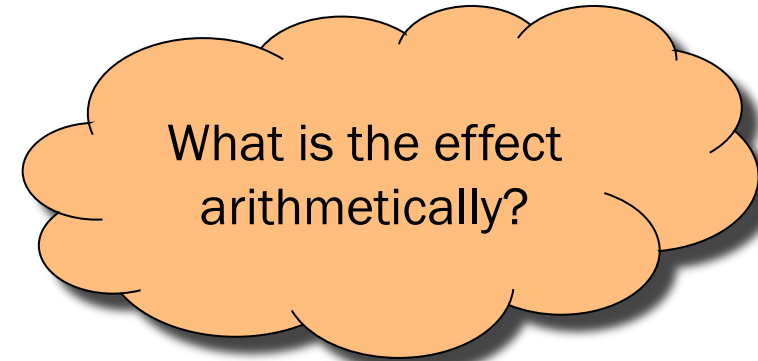


Bitwise left shift (\ll in C): fill on right with zeros

```
5 << 1 ⇒ 10  
0101B 1010B
```

```
3 << 2 ⇒ 12  
0011B 1100B
```

```
3 << 3 ⇒ 8  
0011B 1000B
```



← Results are mod 2^4



Other Bitwise Operations on Unsigned Integers

Bitwise NOT (~ in C)

- Flip each bit

$$\sim 10 \Rightarrow 5$$

$$1010_B \quad 0101_B$$

$$\sim 5 \Rightarrow 10$$

$$0101_B \quad 1010_B$$

Bitwise AND (& in C)

- AND (1=True, 0=False) corresponding bits

10	1010 _B
& 7	& 0111 _B
--	----
2	0010 _B

10	1010 _B
& 2	& 0010 _B
--	----
2	0010 _B

Useful for “masking” bits to 0



Other Bitwise Operations on Unsigned Ints

Bitwise OR: (| in C)

- Logical OR corresponding bits

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

Useful for “masking” 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



Logical vs. Bitwise Ops

Logical AND (&&) vs. bitwise AND (&)

- `2 (TRUE) && 1 (TRUE) ==> 1 (TRUE)`

Decimal	Binary
2	00000000 00000000 00000000 00000010
<code>&& 1</code>	00000000 00000000 00000000 00000001
----	-----
1	00000000 00000000 00000000 00000001

- `2 (TRUE) & 1 (TRUE) ==> 0 (FALSE)`

Decimal	Binary
2	00000000 00000000 00000000 00000010
<code>& 1</code>	00000000 00000000 00000000 00000001
----	-----
0	00000000 00000000 00000000 00000000

Implication:

- Use **logical** AND to control flow of logic
- Use **bitwise** AND only when doing bit-level manipulation
- Same for OR and NOT



A Bit Complicated



How do you set bit k (where the least significant bit is bit 0) of unsigned variable u to zero (leaving everything else in u unchanged)?

- A. $u \&= (0 \ll k);$
- B. $u |= (1 \ll k);$
- C. $u |= \sim(1 \ll k);$
- D. $u \&= \sim(1 \ll k);$
- E. $u = \sim u \wedge (1 \ll k);$



Aside: Using Bitwise Ops for Arithmetic

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

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

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

Fast way to multiply
by a power of 2

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

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

Fast way to divide
unsigned by power of 2

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

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

Fast way to mod
by a power of 2

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

Many compilers will
do these transformations
automatically!



Shifting Signed Integers

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

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

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

$$\begin{array}{l} -3 \ll 2 \Rightarrow 4 \\ 1101_{\text{B}} \quad 0100_{\text{B}} \end{array}$$

What is the effect arithmetically?

Results are mod 2^4

Bitwise right shift: fill on left with ???



Shifting Signed Integers (cont.)

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

6 >> 1 ⇒ 3
0110_B 0011_B

-6 >> 1 ⇒ -3
1010_B 1101_B

What is the effect arithmetically?

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 standard (happens to be arithmetic on armlab)
- Best to avoid shifting signed integers



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



Assignment Operator

Many high-level languages provide an assignment statement

C provides an assignment **operator**

- Performs assignment, and then *evaluates to the assigned value*
- Allows assignment to appear within larger expressions



Assignment Operator Examples

Examples

```
i = 0;
    /* Side effect: assign 0 to i.
       Evaluate to 0.

j = i = 0; /* Assignment op has R to L associativity */
    /* Side effect: assign 0 to i.
       Evaluate to 0.
       Side effect: assign 0 to j.
       Evaluate to 0. */

while ((i = getchar()) != EOF) ...
    /* Read a character.
       Side effect: assign that character to i.
       Evaluate to that character.
       Compare that character to EOF.
       Evaluate to 0 (FALSE) or 1 (TRUE). */
```



Special-Purpose Assignment in C

Motivation

- The construct $a = b + c$ is flexible
- The construct $i = i + c$ is somewhat common
- The construct $i = i + 1$ is very common

Assignment in C

- Introduce $+=$ operator to do things like $i += c$
- Extend to $-=$ $*=$ $/=$ $\sim=$ $\&=$ $|=$ $\wedge=$ $\ll=$ $\gg=$
- All evaluate to whatever was assigned
- Pre-increment and pre-decrement: $++i$ $--i$
- Post-increment and post-decrement (evaluate to *old* value): $i++$ $i--$



Plusplus Playfulness



Q: What are i and j set to in the following code?

```
i = 5;  
j = i++;  
j += ++i;
```

- A. 5, 7
- B. 7, 5
- C. 7, 11
- D. 7, 12
- E. 7, 13



Incremental Iffiness



Q: What does the following code print?

```
int i = 1;
switch (i++) {
    case 1: printf("%d", ++i);
    case 2: printf("%d", i++);
}
```

- A. 1
- B. 2
- C. 3
- D. 22
- E. 33



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



Floating Point Numbers

Like scientific notation: e.g., c is

$$2.99792458 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

This has the form

$$(\text{multiplier}) \times (\text{base})^{(\text{power})}$$

In the computer,

- **Multiplier** is called **mantissa**
- Base is almost always 2
- **Power** is called **exponent**



Floating-Point Data Types

C specifies:

- Three floating-point data types:
float, double, and long double
- Sizes unspecified, but constrained:
- $\text{sizeof(float)} \leq \text{sizeof(double)} \leq \text{sizeof(long double)}$

On ArmLab (and on pretty much any 21st-century computer using the IEEE standard)

- float: 4 bytes
- double: 8 bytes

On ArmLab (but varying across architectures)

- long double: 16 bytes



Floating-Point Literals

How to write a floating-point number?

- Either fixed-point or “scientific” notation
- Any literal that contains decimal point or "E" is floating-point
- The default floating-point type is double
- Append "F" to indicate float
- Append "L" to indicate long double

Examples

- double: 123.456, 1E-2, -1.23456E4
- float: 123.456F, 1E-2F, -1.23456E4F
- long double: 123.456L, 1E-2L, -1.23456E4L



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.bbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbb

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.bbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbbb



When was floating-point invented?

mantissa (noun): decimal part of a logarithm, 1865, ← Answer: long before computers!
from Latin mantisa “a worthless addition, makeweight”

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



Floating Point Example

Sign (1 bit):

- 1 ⇒ negative

11000001110110110000000000000000

32-bit representation

Exponent (8 bits):

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

Mantissa (23 bits):

- $1.101101100000000000000000_B$
- $1 + (1*2^{-1}) + (0*2^{-2}) + (1*2^{-3}) + (1*2^{-4}) + (0*2^{-5}) + (1*2^{-6}) + (1*2^{-7}) + (0*2^{-\dots}) = 1.7109375$

Number:

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



Floating Point Consequences

“Machine epsilon”: smallest positive number you can add to 1.0 and get something other than 1.0

For float: $\varepsilon \approx 10^{-7}$

- No such number as 1.000000001
- Rule of thumb: “almost 7 digits of precision”

For double: $\varepsilon \approx 2 \times 10^{-16}$

- Rule of thumb: “not quite 16 digits of precision”

These are all relative numbers



Floating Point Consequences, cont

Just as decimal number system can represent only some rational numbers with finite digit count...

- Example: $1/3$ cannot be represented

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

- Example: $1/5$ cannot be represented

Beware of round-off error

- Error resulting from inexact representation
- Can accumulate
- Be careful when comparing two floating-point numbers for equality

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

<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	$51/256$
...	



Floating away ...



What does the following code print?

```
double sum = 0.0;
double i;
for (i = 0.0; i != 10.0; i++)
    sum += 0.1;
if (sum == 1.0)
    printf("All good!\n");
else
    printf("Yikes!\n");
```

- A. All good!
- B. Yikes!
- C. (Infinite loop)
- D. (Compilation error)

B: Yikes!

... loop terminates, because we can represent 10.0 exactly by adding 1.0 at a time.

... but sum isn't 1.0 because we can't represent 1.0 exactly by adding 0.1 at a time.