



The Design of C: A Rational Reconstruction

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Goals of this Lecture

- Number systems
 - Binary numbers
 - Finite precision
 - Binary arithmetic
 - Logical operators
- Design rationale for C
 - Decisions **available to** the designers of C
 - Decisions **made by** the designers of C



Number Systems



Why Bits (Binary Digits)?

- **Computers are built using digital circuits**
 - Inputs and outputs can have only two values
 - True (high voltage) or false (low voltage)
 - Represented as 1 and 0
- **Can represent many kinds of information**
 - Boolean (true or false)
 - Numbers (23, 79, ...)
 - Characters ('a', 'z', ...)
 - Pixels, sounds
 - Internet addresses
- **Can manipulate in many ways**
 - Read and write
 - Logical operations
 - Arithmetic



Base 10 and Base 2

- **Decimal (base 10)**

- Each digit represents a power of 10
- **$4173 = 4 \times 10^3 + 1 \times 10^2 + 7 \times 10^1 + 3 \times 10^0$**

- **Binary (base 2)**

- Each bit represents a power of 2
- **$10110 = 1 \times 2^4 + 0 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0 = 22$**

Convert decimal to binary: divide by 2, keep remainders

$$12 / 2 = 6 \quad R = 0$$

$$6 / 2 = 3 \quad R = 0$$

$$3 / 2 = 1 \quad R = 1$$

$$1 / 2 = 0 \quad R = 1$$

$$\text{Result} = 1100$$



Writing Bits is Tedious for People

- Octal (base 8)
 - Digits 0, 1, ..., 7
- Hexadecimal (base 16)
 - Digits 0, 1, ..., 9, A, B, C, D, E, F

0000 = 0

0001 = 1

0010 = 2

0011 = 3

0100 = 4

0101 = 5

0110 = 6

0111 = 7

1000 = 8

1001 = 9

1010 = A

1011 = B

1100 = C

1101 = D

1110 = E

1111 = F

Thus the 16-bit binary number

1011 0010 1010 1001

converted to hex is

B2A9



Representing Colors: RGB

- Three primary colors
 - Red
 - Green
 - Blue
- Strength
 - 8-bit number for each color (e.g., two hex digits)
 - So, 24 bits to specify a color
- In HTML, e.g. course “Schedule” Web page
 - Red: `De-Comment Assignment Due`
 - Blue: `Reading Period`
- Same thing in digital cameras
 - Each pixel is a mixture of red, green, and blue



Finite Representation of Integers

- **Fixed number of bits in memory**
 - Usually 8, 16, or 32 bits
 - (1, 2, or 4 bytes)
- **Unsigned integer**
 - No sign bit
 - Always 0 or a positive number
 - All arithmetic is modulo 2^n
- **Examples of unsigned integers**
 - 00000001 → 1
 - 00001111 → 15
 - 00010000 → 16
 - 00100001 → 33
 - 11111111 → 255



Adding Two Integers

- From right to left, we add each pair of digits
- We write the sum, and add the carry to the next column

Base 10

	1	9	8
+	2	6	4
<hr/>			
Sum	4	6	2
Carry	0	1	1

Diagram illustrating the addition of two integers in Base 10. The numbers 198 and 264 are added. The sum is 462, and the carry is 0, 1, and 1 from right to left. Arrows indicate the carry flow from the units column to the tens column, and from the tens column to the hundreds column. The carry values 1 and 1 are circled.

Base 2

	0	1	1
+	0	0	1
<hr/>			
Sum	1	0	0
Carry	0	1	1

Diagram illustrating the addition of two integers in Base 2. The numbers 011 and 001 are added. The sum is 100, and the carry is 0, 1, and 1 from right to left. Arrows indicate the carry flow from the units column to the twos column, and from the twos column to the fours column. The carry values 1 and 1 are circled.



Binary Sums and Carries

a	b	Sum
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

XOR
("exclusive OR")

a	b	Carry
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

AND

$$\begin{array}{r} 0100\ 0101 \leftarrow 69 \\ +0110\ 0111 \leftarrow 103 \\ \hline 1010\ 1100 \leftarrow 172 \end{array}$$



Modulo Arithmetic

- Consider only numbers in a range
 - E.g., five-digit car odometer: 0, 1, ..., 99999
 - E.g., eight-bit numbers 0, 1, ..., 255
- Roll-over when you run out of space
 - E.g., car odometer goes from 99999 to 0, 1, ...
 - E.g., eight-bit number goes from 255 to 0, 1, ...
- Adding 2^n doesn't change the answer
 - For eight-bit number, $n=8$ and $2^n=256$
 - E.g., $(37 + 256) \bmod 256$ is simply 37
- This can help us do subtraction...
 - $a - b$: equals $a + (256 - 1 - b) + 1$



One's and Two's Complement

- One's complement: flip every bit
 - E.g., b is 01000101 (i.e., 69 in decimal)
 - One's complement is 10111010
 - That's simply 255-69
- Subtracting from 11111111 is easy (no carry needed!)

$$\begin{array}{r} 1111 \ 1111 \\ - 0100 \ 0101 \\ \hline 1011 \ 1010 \end{array} \begin{array}{l} \leftarrow b \\ \leftarrow \text{one's complement} \end{array}$$

- Two's complement
 - Add 1 to the one's complement
 - E.g., $(255 - 69) + 1 \rightarrow 1011 \ 1011$



Putting it All Together

- Computing “a – b”
 - Same as “a + 256 – b”
 - Same as “a + (255 – b) + 1”
 - Same as “a + onesComplement(b) + 1”
 - Same as “a + twosComplement(b)”

- Example: 172 – 69

- The original number 69: 0100 0101
- One’s complement of 69: 1011 1010
- Two’s complement of 69: 1011 1011
- Add to the number 172: 1010 1100
- The sum comes to: 0110 0111
- Equals: **103** in decimal

$$\begin{array}{r} 1011\ 1011 \\ + 1010\ 1100 \\ \hline 10110\ 0111 \end{array}$$



Signed Integers

- **Sign-magnitude representation**
 - Use one bit to store the sign
 - Zero for positive number
 - One for negative number
 - Examples
 - E.g., 0010 1100 → 44
 - E.g., 1010 1100 → -44
 - Hard to do arithmetic this way, so it is rarely used
- **Complement representation**
 - One's complement
 - Flip every bit
 - E.g., 1101 0011 → -44
 - Two's complement
 - Flip every bit, then add 1
 - E.g., 1101 0100 → -44



Overflow: Running Out of Room

- Adding two large integers together
 - Sum might be too big for the number of bits available
 - What happens?
- Unsigned integers
 - All arithmetic is “modulo” arithmetic
 - Sum would just wrap around
- Signed integers
 - Can get nonsense values
 - Example with 16-bit integers
 - Sum: $10000 + 20000 + 30000$
 - Result: -5536



Bitwise Operators: AND and OR

- Bitwise AND (&)

&	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

- Mod on the cheap!
 - E.g., $53 \% 16$
 - ... is same as $53 \& 15$;

53

0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

& 15

0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

5

0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

- Bitwise OR (|)

	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	1



Bitwise Operators: Not and XOR

- One's complement (\sim)
 - Turns 0 to 1, and 1 to 0
 - E.g., set last three bits to 0
 - $x = x \& \sim 7$;
- XOR (\wedge)
 - 0 if both bits are the same
 - 1 if the two bits are different

\wedge	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

Bitwise Operators: Shift Left/Right



- Shift left (<<): Multiply by powers of 2
 - Shift some # of bits to the left, filling the blanks with 0

53 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1

53<<2 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0

- Shift right (>>): Divide by powers of 2
 - Shift some # of bits to the right
 - For unsigned integer, fill in blanks with 0
 - What about signed negative integers?
 - Can vary from one machine to another!

53 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1

53>>2 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 1



Example: Counting the 1's

- How many 1 bits in a number?
 - E.g., how many 1 bits in the binary representation of 53?

0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

- Four 1 bits
- How to count them?
 - Look at one bit at a time
 - Check if that bit is a 1
 - Increment counter
- How to look at one bit at a time?
 - Look at the last bit: $n \& 1$
 - Check if it is a 1: $(n \& 1) == 1$, or simply $(n \& 1)$



Counting the Number of '1' Bits

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



Summary

- **Computer represents everything in binary**
 - Integers, floating-point numbers, characters, addresses, ...
 - Pixels, sounds, colors, etc.
- **Binary arithmetic through logic operations**
 - Sum (XOR) and Carry (AND)
 - Two's complement for subtraction
- **Bitwise operators**
 - AND, OR, NOT, and XOR
 - Shift left and shift right
 - Useful for efficient and concise code, though sometimes cryptic



The Design of C



Goals of C

Designers wanted C to support:

- **Systems programming**
 - Development of Unix OS
 - Development of Unix programming tools

But also:

- **Applications programming**
 - Development of financial, scientific, etc. applications

Systems programming was the primary intended use



The Goals of C (cont.)

The designers of wanted C to be:

- Low-level
 - Close to assembly/machine language
 - Close to hardware

But also:

- Portable
 - Yield systems software that is easy to port to differing hardware



The Goals of C (cont.)

The designers wanted C to be:

- Easy for **people** to handle
 - Easy to understand
 - **Expressive**
 - High (functionality/sourceCodeSize) ratio

But also:

- Easy for **computers** to handle
 - Easy/fast to compile
 - Yield efficient machine language code

Commonality:

- Small/simple



Design Decisions

In light of those goals...

- What design decisions did the designers of C **have**?
- What design decisions did they **make**?

Consider programming language features,
from simple to complex...



Feature 1: Data Types

- Previously in this lecture:
 - Bits can be combined into bytes
 - Our interpretation of a collection of bytes gives it meaning
 - A signed integer, an unsigned integer, a RGB color, etc.
- **Data type:** well-defined interpretation of collection of bytes
- A high-level language should provide primitive data types
 - Facilitates abstraction
 - Facilitates manipulation via associated well-defined operators
 - Enables compiler to check for mixed types, inappropriate use of types, etc.



Primitive Data Types

- Thought process
 - C should handle:
 - **Integers**
 - **Characters**
 - Character **strings**
 - **Logical** (alias **Boolean**) data
 - **Floating-point** numbers
 - C should be small/simple
- **Decisions**
 - Provide **integer**, **character**, and **floating-point** data types
 - **Do not** provide a character **string** data type (More on that later)
 - **Do not** provide a **logical** data type (More on that later)



Integer Data Types

- Thought process

- For flexibility, should provide integer data types of various sizes
- For portability at **application** level, should specify size of each data type
- For portability at **systems** level, should define integral data types in terms of **natural word size** of computer
- Primary use will be **systems** programming





Integer Data Types (cont.)

- **Decisions**

- Provide three integer data types: `short`, `int`, and `long`
- Do *not* specify sizes; instead:
 - `int` is natural word size
 - $2 \leq \text{bytes in } \text{short} \leq \text{bytes in } \text{int} \leq \text{bytes in } \text{long}$

- **Incidentally, on hats using gcc217**

- Natural word size: 4 bytes
- `short`: 2 bytes
- `int`: 4 bytes
- `long`: 4 bytes



Integer Constants

- Thought process
 - People naturally use decimal
 - Systems programmers often use binary, octal, hexadecimal
- Decisions
 - Use decimal notation as default
 - Use "0" prefix to indicate octal notation
 - Use "0x" prefix to indicate hexadecimal notation
 - Do not allow binary notation; too verbose, error prone
 - Use "L" suffix to indicate `long` constant
 - Do not use a suffix to indicate `short` constant; instead must use cast
- Examples
 - `int`: `123`, `-123`, `0173`, `0x7B`
 - `long`: `123L`, `-123L`, `0173L`, `0x7BL`
 - `short`: `(short)123`, `(short)-123`, `(short)0173`, `(short)0x7B`

Was that a good decision?

Why?



Unsigned Integer Data Types

- Thought process
 - Must represent positive and negative integers
 - Signed types are essential
 - Unsigned data can be twice as large as signed data
 - Unsigned data could be useful
 - Unsigned data are good for bit-level operations
 - Bit-level operations are common in systems programming
 - Implementing both signed and unsigned data types is complex
 - Must define behavior when an expression involves both

Unsigned Integer Data Types (cont.)



- **Decisions**

- Provide unsigned integer types: **unsigned short**, **unsigned int**, and **unsigned long**
- Conversion rules in mixed-type expressions are complex
 - Generally, mixing signed and unsigned converts signed to unsigned
 - See King book Section 7.4 for details

Was providing unsigned types a good decision?

Do you see any potential problems?

What decision did the designers of Java make?



Unsigned Integer Constants

- **Thought process**
 - “L” suffix distinguishes `long` from `int`; also could use a suffix to distinguish signed from unsigned
 - Octal or hexadecimal probably are used with bit-level operators
- **Decisions**
 - Default is signed
 - Use "U" suffix to indicate unsigned
 - Integers expressed in octal or hexadecimal automatically are unsigned
- **Examples**
 - `unsigned int: 123U, 0173, 0x7B`
 - `unsigned long: 123UL, 0173L, 0x7BL`
 - `unsigned short: (short)123U, (short)0173, (short)0x7B`



There's More!

To be continued next lecture!