

# Integers and Integer Representation

CSE 220: Systems Programming

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# Integers

Recall what an integer represents:

**Whole numbers** (positive and negative) and zero.

This is true in **any numeric base**.

What does 1038 mean in base 10 (decimal)?

$$1 \cdot 10^3 + 0 \cdot 10^2 + 3 \cdot 10^1 + 8 \cdot 10^0$$

Shifting left one place **multiplies by the base**.

# Integer Complications

It seems like integers should be simple.

However, **there are complications**.

- Different machines use **different size** integers
- There are **multiple possible representations**
- *etc.*

In this lecture, we will explore some of these issues in C.

# Effective Questions

Asking follow-up questions **is also a skill**.

When you get an answer, **set a timer**.

(Maybe 5 or 10 minutes, this time!)

**Think about the answer** during that time.

When the timer goes off:

- Can you make progress now?
- If not, **why not?**
- Do you need to ask a clarifying question?

# Hexadecimal

A brief aside: we will be using **hexadecimal** (“hex”) a *lot*.

Hex is the **base 16** numbering system.

**One hex digit** ranges from 0 to 15.

Contrast this to **decimal**, or **base 10** —

**one decimal digit** ranges from 0 to 9.

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**one decimal digit** ranges from 0 to 9.

In computing, hex digits are represented by 0-9 and then **A-F**.

A = 10      D = 13

B = 11      E = 14

C = 12      F = 15

# Why Hex?

Hexadecimal is used because **one hex digit is four bits**.

This means that **two hex digits** represents **one 8-bit byte**.

On machines with 8-bit-divisible words, this is *very convenient*.

| Hex | Bin  | Hex | Bin  |
|-----|------|-----|------|
| 0   | 0000 | 8   | 1000 |
| 1   | 0001 | 9   | 1001 |
| 2   | 0010 | A   | 1010 |
| 3   | 0011 | B   | 1011 |
| 4   | 0100 | C   | 1100 |
| 5   | 0101 | D   | 1101 |
| 6   | 0110 | E   | 1110 |
| 7   | 0111 | F   | 1111 |

# Integer Types

Platform-specific integer types you should know:

- `char`: One character.
- `short`: A short (small) integer
- `int`: An “optimally sized” integer
- `long`: A longer (bigger) integer
- `long long`: An *even longer* integer

Their sizes are:  $8 \text{ bits} \leq \text{char} \leq \text{short} \leq \text{int} \leq \text{long} \leq \text{long long}$

Furthermore:

$\text{short}, \text{int} \geq 16 \text{ bits}$ ,  $\text{long} \geq 32 \text{ bits}$ ,  $\text{long long} \geq 64 \text{ bits}$

*Whew!*



# Integer Modifiers

Every integer type may have **modifiers**.

Those modifiers include **signed** and **unsigned**.

All unmodified integer types *except* **char** are **signed**.  
**char** may be signed or unsigned!

The keyword **int** may be elided for any type except **int**.  
These two declarations are equivalent:

```
long long nanoseconds;  
signed long long int nanoseconds;
```

# Integers of Explicit Size

The **confusion of sizes** has led to **explicitly sized** integers.

They live in `<stdint.h>`

**Exact-width** types are of the form `intN_t`.

They are exactly ***N* bits wide**; e.g.: `int32_t`.

**Minimum-width** types are of the form `int_leastN_t`.

They are **at least *N* bits wide**.

There are also **unsigned** equivalent types, which start with `u`:  
`uint32_t`, `uint_least8_t`

*N* may be: 8, 16, 32, 64.

# dump\_mem()

In the following slides, we will use the function `dump_mem()`.

We will examine it in detail at some point, but for now:

- `dump_mem()` receives a **memory address** and **number of bytes**
- It then **prints the hex values** of the bytes at that address

Don't worry too much about its details for now.

# A Simple Integer

First, a simple integer:

```
int x = 98303; // 0x17fff
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Output:

```
ff 7f 01 00
```

Let's pull this apart.

# Byte Ordering

Why is 98303, which is  $0x17fff$ , represented by `ff 7f 01 00`?

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The answer is **endianness**.

**Words** are organized into **bytes** in memory — but in what order?

- **Big Endian**: The “big end” comes first.  
This is how we **write numbers**.
- **Little Endian**: The “little end” comes first.  
This is how x86 processors (and others) represent integers.

You **cannot assume anything about byte order** in C!

# Sign Extension

```
char c = 0x80;  
int i = c;  
  
dump_mem(&i, sizeof(i));
```



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```
char c = 0x80;  
int i = c;  
  
dump_mem(&i, sizeof(i));
```

Output:

80 ff ff ff

0xffffffff80? Where did all those one bits come from?!

# Positive Integers

A formal definition of a positive integer on a modern machine is:

Consider an integer of width  $w$  as a vector of bits,  $\vec{x}$ :

$$\vec{x} = x_{w-1}, x_{w-2}, \dots, x_0$$

This vector  $\vec{x}$  has the **decimal value**:

$$\vec{x} \doteq \sum_{i=0}^{w-1} x_i 2^i$$

# Calculating Integer Values

Consider the 8-bit binary integer 0010 1011:

$$\begin{aligned}0010\ 1011b &= 0 \cdot 2^7 + 0 \cdot 2^6 + 1 \cdot 2^5 + 0 \cdot 2^4 + 1 \cdot 2^3 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 \\ &= 0 \cdot 128 + 0 \cdot 64 + 1 \cdot 32 + 0 \cdot 16 + 1 \cdot 8 + 0 \cdot 4 + 1 \cdot 2 + 1 \cdot 1 \\ &= 32 + 8 + 2 + 1 \\ &= 43\end{aligned}$$

# Negative Integers

Previously, the variable `c` was **sign extended** into `i`.

As previously discussed, integers may be **signed** or **unsigned**.

Since **integers are just bits**, the **negative numbers** must have **different bits set** than their positive counterparts.

There are several typical ways to represent this, the most common being:

- Ones' complement
- Two's complement

# Ones' Complement

Ones' complement integers represent a negative by **inverting the bit pattern**.

Thus, a 32-bit 1:

00000000 00000000 00000000 00000001

And a 32-bit -1:

11111111 11111111 11111111 11111110

Formally, this is **like a positive integer**, except:

$$x_{w-1} \doteq -2^{w-1} + 1$$

# Decoding Negative Ones' Complement

Therefore, 4-bit -1: 1110

$$\begin{aligned} 1110b &= 1 \cdot (-2^3 + 1) + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 0 \cdot 2^0 \\ &= 1 \cdot -7 + 1 \cdot 4 + 1 \cdot 2 + 0 \cdot 1 \\ &= -7 + 4 + 2 \\ &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

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This is fine, except **there are two zeroes!**:

$$\begin{aligned}0000b &= 0 \cdot (-2^3 + 1) + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 0 \cdot 2^0 \\ 1111b &= 1 \cdot -2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 \\ &= -7 + 4 + 2 + 1\end{aligned}$$

# Two's Complement

Most (modern) machines use **two's complement**.

Two's complement differs *slightly* from ones' complement.  
Its  $w - 1$ th bit is defined as:

$$x_{w-1} \doteq -2^{w-1}$$

(Recall that ones' complement added 1 to this!)

This means there is **only one zero** — all 1s is -1!



# Decoding Two's Complement

Consider 1110 in two's complement:

$$\begin{aligned} 1110b &= 1 \cdot -2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 0 \cdot 2^0 \\ &= -8 + 4 + 2 + 0 \\ &= -2 \end{aligned}$$

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$w$ -bit Two's complement integers run from  $-2^{w-1}$  to  $2^{w-1} - 1$ .

# Negative Integer Bit Patterns

*In general, the high-order bit of a negative integer is 1.*

In our previous example:

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char c = 0x80;  
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c is **signed**, and thus equivalent to -128.

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In our previous example:

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char c = 0x80;  
int  i = c;
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c is **signed**, and thus equivalent to -128.

It is then **sign extended** into i by **duplicating the high bit to the left**.

This results in an i that **also equals -128**.

Why?

# Computing c and i

```
char c = 0x80;
```

Here, c is -128 plus **no other bits set**.

```
int i = c;
```

What is i if we sign extend?

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```
int i = c;
```

What is i if we sign extend?

```
11111111 11111111 11111111 10000000
```

What is the value of that two's complement integer?

# Computing Sign Extension

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Remember that the high 1 bit indicates  $-2^{w-1}$ , or  $-2^{31}$ , here.

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We then add in each of the other bits as **positive** values.

Every bit from  $2^7$  through  $2^{30}$  is set, and  $2^0$  through  $2^6$  are unset:

$$-2^{31} + 2^{30} + 2^{29} + \dots + 2^8 + 2^7$$



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...this sums to -128!

# Summary

- The CPU and memory deal **only in words**
- Buses and registers have **native word widths**
- Integers have different:
  - Bit widths
  - **Endianness**
  - Sign representation
- **Ones' and two's complement** representation

# Next Time ...

- Scalar vs. aggregate types
- C structures
- Memory alignment

# References I

## Required Readings

- [1] Randal E. Bryant and David R. O'Hallaron. *Computer Science: A Programmer's Perspective*. Third Edition. Chapter 2: Intro, 2.1 through 2.1.3, 2.2. Pearson, 2016.

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