# <span id="page-0-0"></span>Integers and Integer Representation

CSE 220: Systems Programming

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#### 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 by one place multiplies by the base.

# Integer Complications

It seems like integers should be simple.

However, there are complications.

- Computers are finite
- Different machines use different size integers
- There are multiple possible representations

*etc.*

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

## Non-Integers

Non-integer numbers are even more complicated.

How do you represent a fraction, using a 1 or a 0?

Different bases express different rational numbers.

Real numbers are infinite, but computers are finite.

We will only touch on non-integers this semester.

### <span id="page-4-0"></span>**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.

#### **Hexadecimal**

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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.

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





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*.



# <span id="page-7-0"></span>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 bits  $\le$  char  $\le$  short  $\le$  int  $\le$  long  $\le$  long long

Furthermore:

short,  $int \ge 16$  bits,  $long > 32$  bits,  $long long > 64$  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.
```
<span id="page-10-0"></span>In the following slides, we will use the function dump  $\text{mem}()$ .

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.

# <span id="page-11-0"></span>A Simple Integer

First, a simple integer:

int  $x = 98303$ ; // hex  $0 \times 17$  fff  $dump_mean(8x, sizeof(x));$ 

# A Simple Integer

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int x = 98303; // hex 0 \times 17 fff
dump_mean(8x, sizeof(x));
```
Output: ff 7f  $01$  00

Let's pull this apart.

Byte Ordering

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



# Byte Ordering

Why is 98303, which is  $0x17$  fff, represented by ff 7f 01 00?

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.

 $\blacksquare$  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

 $char c = 0 x 80;$ int  $i = c$ ;

```
dump_mean (&i, sizeof(i));
```
### Sign Extension

```
char c = 0 \times 80:
int i = c;
dump_mean(8i, sizeof(i));Output:
80 ff ff ff
```
#### 0xffffff80? 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,  $\vec{x}$ :

$$
\vec{x} = x_{W-1}, x_{W-2}, \ldots, x_0
$$

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

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

### Calculating Integer Values

#### Consider the 8-bit binary integer 0010 1011:

$$
00101011\mathbf{b} = 0 \cdot 2^7 + 0 \cdot 2^6 + 1 \cdot 2^5 + 0 \cdot 2^4 + 1 \cdot 2^3 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0
$$
  
= 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

## 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:

$$
x_{\mathsf{W}-1} \doteq -2^{\mathsf{W}-1}+1
$$

## Decoding Negative Ones' Complement

Therefore, 4-bit -1: 1110

$$
1110\mathbf{b} = 1 \cdot (-2^3 + 1) + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 0 \cdot 2^0
$$
  
= 1 \cdot -7 + 1 \cdot 4 + 1 \cdot 2 + 0 \cdot 1  
= -7 + 4 + 2  
= -1

## Decoding Negative Ones' Complement

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$$
  
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= -7 + 4 + 2  
= -1

This is fine, except there are two zeroes!

$$
0000\mathbf{b} = 0 \cdot (-2^3 + 1) + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 0 \cdot 2^0
$$
  

$$
1111\mathbf{b} = 1 \cdot -2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0
$$
  

$$
= -7 + 4 + 2 + 1
$$

## Two's Complement

Most (modern) machines use two's complement.

Two's complement differs *slightly* from ones' complement. Its *w* – 1th 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!

4-bit Wide Two's Complement



## Decoding Two's Complement

Consider 1110 in two's complement:

$$
1110\mathbf{b} = 1 \cdot -2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 0 \cdot 2^0
$$
  
= -8 + 4 + 2 + 0  
= -2



# Decoding Two's Complement

Consider 1110 in two's complement:

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1110\mathbf{b} = 1 \cdot -2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 0 \cdot 2^0
$$
  
= -8 + 4 + 2 + 0  
= -2

*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:

```
char c = 0 \times 80:
int i = c;
```
c is signed, and thus equivalent to -128.

# Negative Integer Bit Patterns

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

In our previous example:

```
char c = 0 \times 80:
int i = c;
```
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  $c = 0 \times 80$ ; Here, c is -128 plus no other bits set. int  $i = c$ ; What is i if we sign extend?

## Computing c and i

```
char c = 0 \times 80;
Here, c is -128 plus no other bits set.
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

#### 11111111 11111111 11111111 10000000

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



# Computing Sign Extension

#### 11111111 11111111 11111111 10000000

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

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:

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

# Computing Sign Extension

#### 11111111 11111111 11111111 10000000

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$$
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$$

#### …this sums to -128!

# <span id="page-34-0"></span>Representing Fractional Values

What if we want to represent non-integers?

We can assign certain bits to  $2^{-1},\,2^{-2},$  *etc.* 

This is called fixed point.

Fixed point assigns a specific number of bits to:

- $\blacksquare$  fractions
- whole numbers

This works well for numbers of moderate size and precision.

# Floating Point

What if you want more range?

You can move the (binary) point, like scientific notation:

 $x \times 2^y$ 

... but how do you encode the point?

There is no . in 0 or 1!

We use special patterns of bits called floating point.<sup>1</sup>

You'll learn more in CSE 341.

<sup>1</sup>Remember that there's also no -.

# <span id="page-36-0"></span>**Summary**

- $\blacksquare$  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
- Bits also have to represent fractional values.

### Next Time …

- Scalar vs. aggregate types  $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}$
- C structures
- Memory alignment  $\mathcal{O}(\mathbb{R}^d)$

### <span id="page-38-0"></span>References I

#### **Required Readings**

[2] Ian Weinand. *Computer Science from the Bottom Up*. Chapter 2, part 1 through 1.1.3, part 1 1.2, part 2 except 2.3.2. URL: <https://www.bottomupcs.com/index.html>.

#### **Optional 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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