

Programming language C



- numbers can be elements from various sets. e.g. $x \in \mathbb{Z}$, $x \in \mathbb{N}$.
- each number has various representations. e.g.
 - 17
 - XVII
 - IIIII IIIII IIIII II
- usually, we encode numbers with the help of base-10 digits, i.e. the alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$.
A string $s = (a_{n-1}a_{n-2}\dots a_1a_0) \in \Sigma^n$, is then interpreted as
$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i \cdot 10^i$$
 Example: $17 = 1 \cdot 10^1 + 7 \cdot 10^0$
- What happens, if we use another base, another alphabet?
with bits:
$$\Sigma_2 = \{0, 1\} \quad 17_{10} = 1 \cdot 2^4 + 0 \cdot 2^3 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 = 10001_2$$
$$\Sigma_{16} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, a, b, c, d, e, f\}$$
$$17_{10} = 1 \cdot 16^1 + 1 \cdot 16^0 = 11_{16} = 0x11 \quad \text{hex numbers}$$

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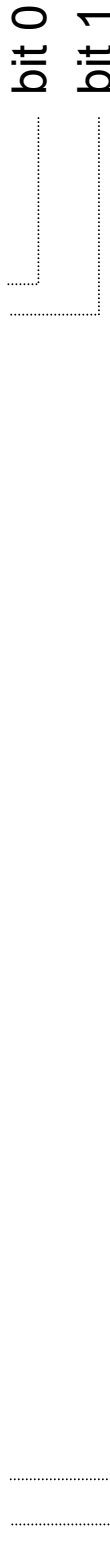
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Integers II

integer variables of **fixed length** are the most natural and mostly used kind of variables

Bitstrings are interpreted as numbers in the dual number system.

0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1



The value then is $\text{bit}_{31} \cdot 2^{31} + \text{bit}_{30} \cdot 2^{30} \dots \text{bit}_0 \cdot 2^0$.

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Integers II

Computing with binary numbers

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{sum:} \quad 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \\ + \quad \quad 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \\ \hline 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{product:} \quad 1011 \cdot 101 \\ \hline 1011 \\ 0000 \\ \hline 1011 \\ \hline 110111 \end{array}$$

base-10

$$\begin{array}{r} 9 \ 9 \\ + \quad 1 \ 1 \ 3 \\ \hline 1 \ 0 \ 2 \end{array}$$

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Integers II

Computing with binary numbers of fixed length

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{sum:} \quad 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \\ + 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \\ \hline 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \end{array}$$

sum with ignored overflow:

$$\begin{array}{r} 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \\ + 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \\ \hline (1) \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} (11_{10} + 11_{10}) \bmod 16_{10} = \\ 22_{10} \bmod 16_{10} = 6_{10} \end{array}$$

n bits $\rightarrow 2^n$ values \rightarrow can be interpreted as a ring of equivalence classes.
Any bit combination, representing the number $0 \leq j < 2^n$, also represents the integers modulo 2^n , i.e. the set $\{j + k \cdot 2^n \text{ with } k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. Sums and products are well defined.

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What about negative numbers?

Idea 1: take 1 bit for the sign, the rest is left as it is.

Idea 2: use the so called two's-complement for representation of integers in the range of -2^{N-1} to $+2^{N-1}-1$, N being the number of bits.

Example: 8-bit twos-complement integers

```
0 1111111 = 127
0 1111110 = 126
0 0000001 = 1
0 0000000 = 0
1 1111111 = -1
1 1111110 = -2
1 0000000 = -128
```

How to build a negative number:

- build the bit inverse
- add 1

Example: $2_{10} = 00000010_2$
 $\sim 00000010 = 11111101$
11111101
+ 00000001

11111110 = -2

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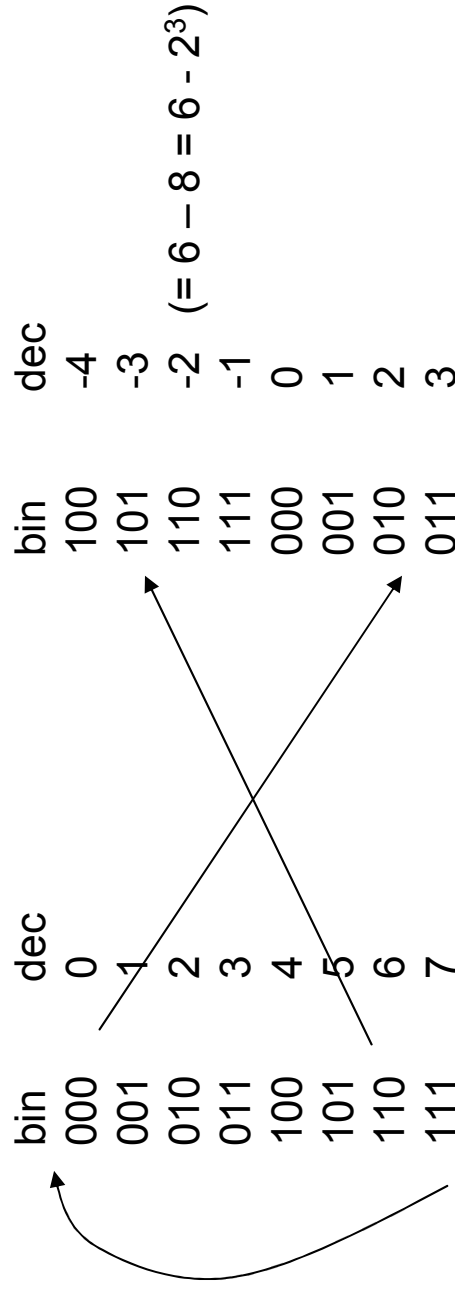


Integers II

Why does the two's complement work?

Simple idea: subtract 2^n from the upper half of the numbers, i.e.

rotate the order of the bitstrings and re-interpret the bitstrings with MSB 1



two's complement(x) = bit-complement(x) + 1 = $((2^n - 1) - x) + 1 = 2^n - x$

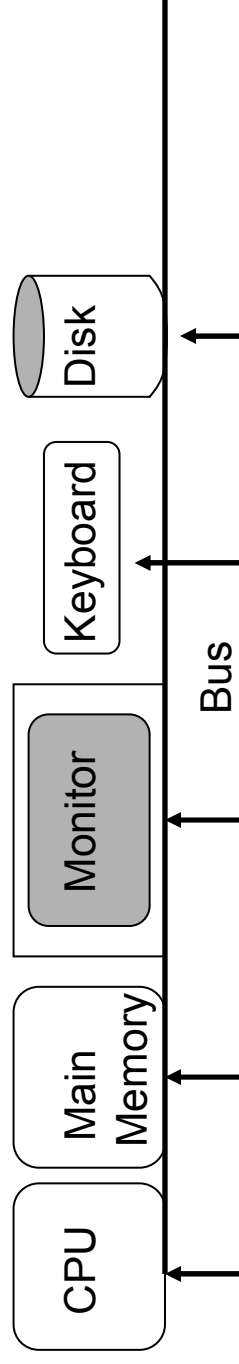
und $(2^n - x) \bmod 2^n = (2^n - 2^n - x) \bmod 2^n$

Example: two's complement(3_{10}) = bit-complement(11_2) + $1_2 = 111 - 011 + 001 = [1]000 - 011 = -11_2 = -3_{10}$

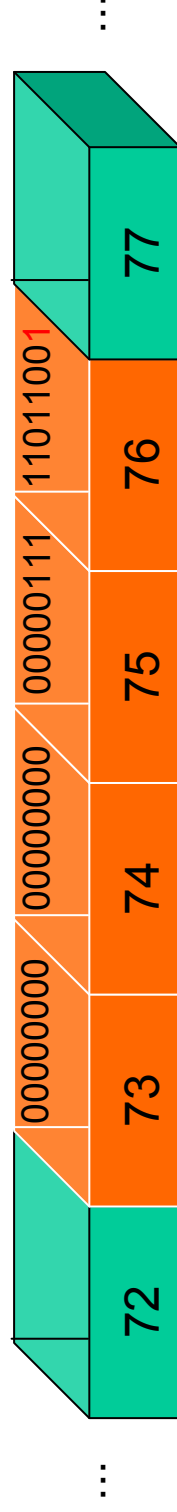
My idealized computer



- For our programming course, a computer mainly consists of



Memory:



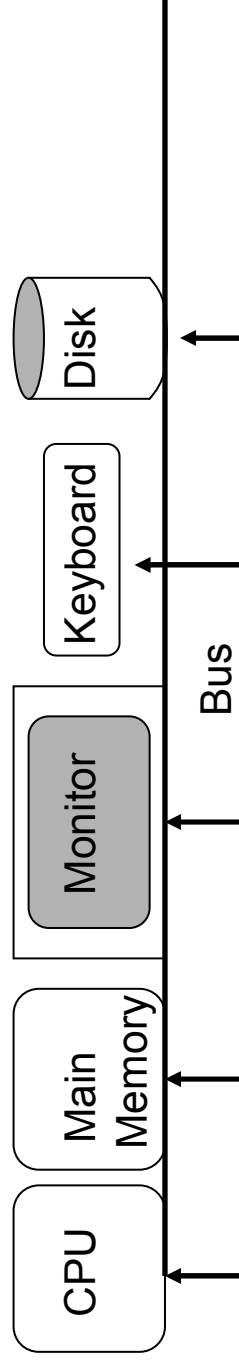
CPU:

- picks a number from a memory cell
- computes an operation from that number and from another cell
- writes back the result to one of the memory cells

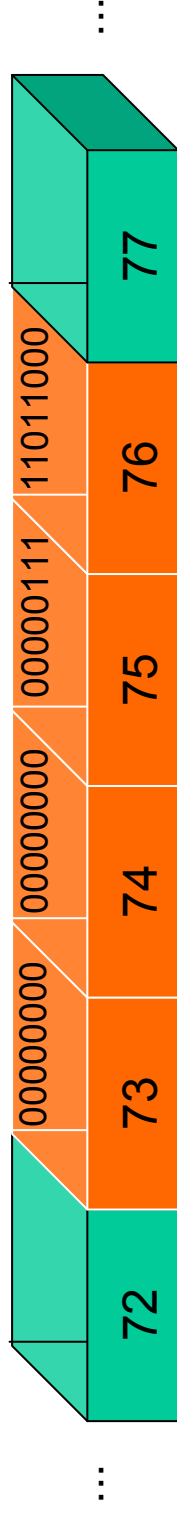
My idealized computer



- For our programming course, a computer mainly consists of



Memory:

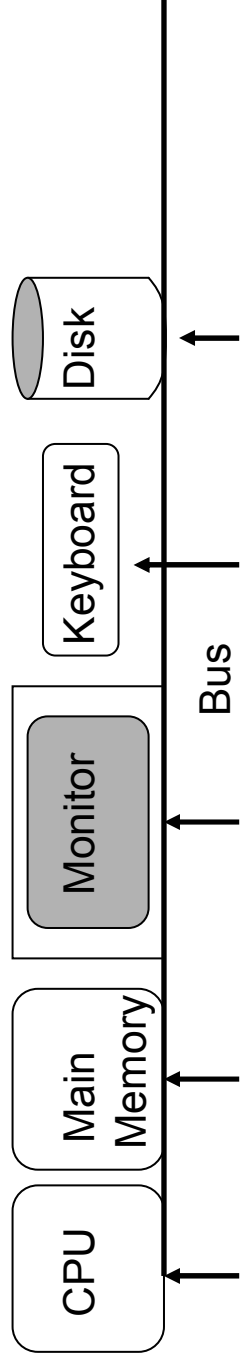


```
int a = 2008;  
a = a + 1;
```

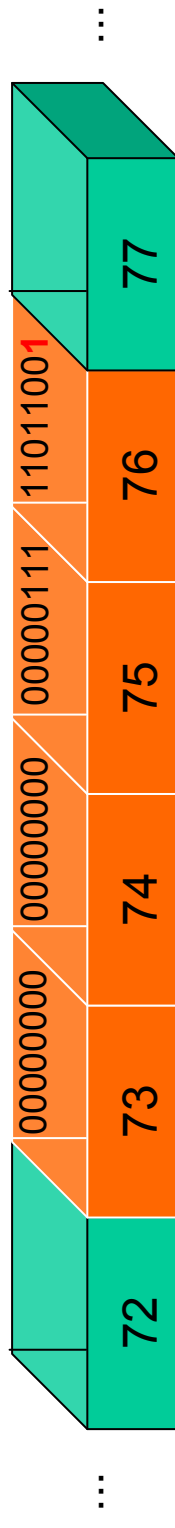

My idealized computer



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Memory:





The real computer

- A real CPU
 - is quite a complex device
 - contains a few memory cells, so called registers
 - interpretes sequences of 0s and 1s as sequences of instructions, like “set a register to 0”, or “add the content of a register to a memory cell”
 - ...
- real main memory
 - Consists of many so called bits with value 0 or 1. Typically, bits are grouped to so-called bytes (8 bits) or words (32 or 64 bits) and the main memory size is expressed with the help of its number of bytes. Typically, a personal computer has between 512 Mbyte and 32 Gigabyte RAM (random access memory) and 1TByte Diskspace.
- quite a complicated circuit manages data transfer between CPU, memory and other components.

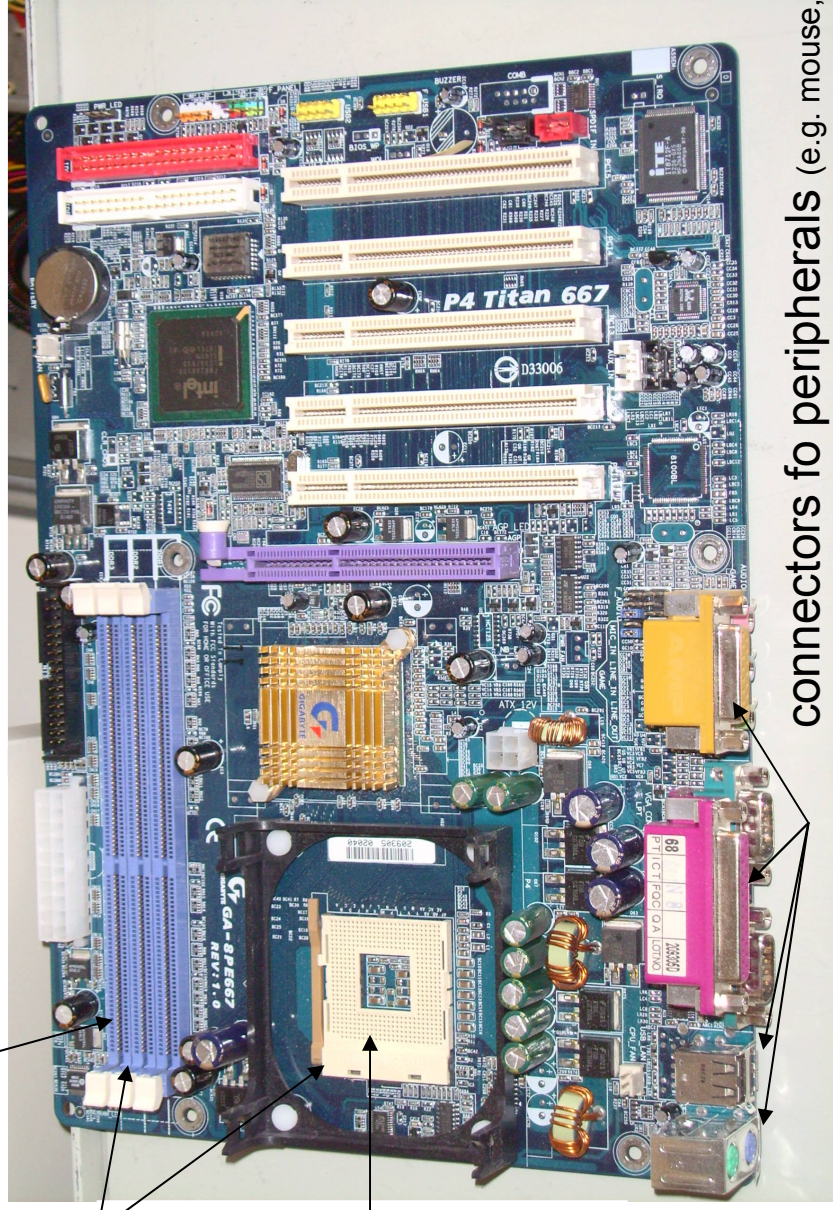
RAM memory module



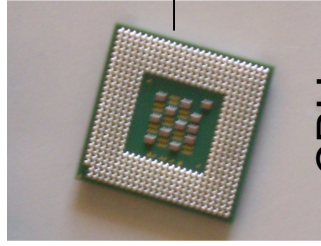
disk



sockets



CPU



connectors for peripherals (e.g. mouse, USB, ethernet ...)

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Generalized binary fixed-point and floating-point numbers

0.75

$$0.75 = 1 * 1/2 + 1 * 1/4 = 0.11_2$$

0.7

$$0.7 = 1 * 1/2 + 0 * 1/4 + 1 * 1/8 + 1/16 + \dots$$

the first 64 bits:

0.1011001100110011001100110011001100110011001100110011001100110011

0.7 is a periodic number in the binary system.

-> representation errors in IEEE format is not avoidable

-> $x = 0.7$; $x = 11.0 \cdot x - 7.0$; increases the error by a factor of 10

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Interpretation of the type float

floating point variables

0/1 sequences are interpreted as sign (s), mantissa (m) and exponent (p)

0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1

s p m

the resulting number then is $s \cdot m \cdot 2^p$

In the IEEE-754 standard, 127 is added to the exponent, and the leading 1 of the mantissa is not stored. The exponent has 8 bits and the mantissa 23 explicit bits, thus 24 implicit bits.

0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1

s p' m'

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The type of a variable determines how much memory is reserved.

	sign	smallest value	largest value	size in bits
char	yes	-128	127	8
unsigned char	no	0	255	8
short	yes	-32768	32767	16
unsigned short	no	0	65535	16
long	yes	-2147483648	2147483647	32
unsigned long	no	0	4294967295	32
float	yes	$1.2 * 10^{-28}$	$3.4 * 10^{38}$	32
double	yes	$2.32 * 10^{-308}$	$1.8 * 10^{308}$	64
int	yes			
unsigned int	no			
size_t	no			
ssize_t	yes			
off_t	no			
long long	yes	-2^{63}	$2^{63} - 1$	64
unsigned long long	no	0	$2^{64} - 1$	64
long double	yes	$3.4 * 10^{-4932}$	$1.2 * 10^{4932}$	96

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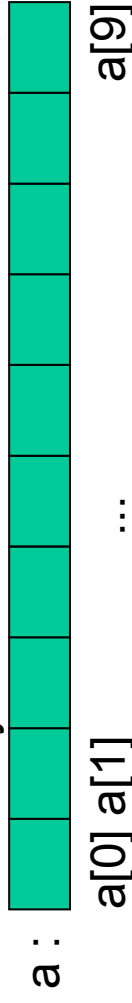
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Memory II: Pointers and arrays

The statement

```
int a[10];
```

defines an array with name 'a' with 10 elements, somewhere in memory:



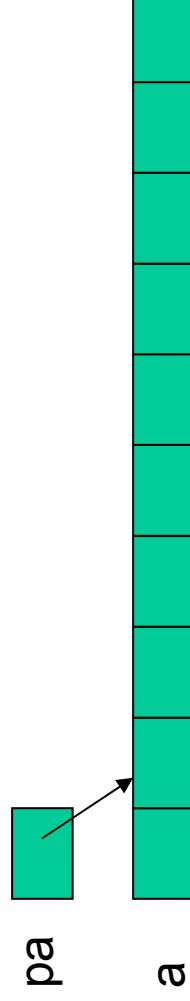
a[i] is the i-th element of the array, counting from 0.

```
int *pa;     defines a 'pointer' to an integer variable.
```

We can initialize it e.g. with

```
pa = &a[1];
```

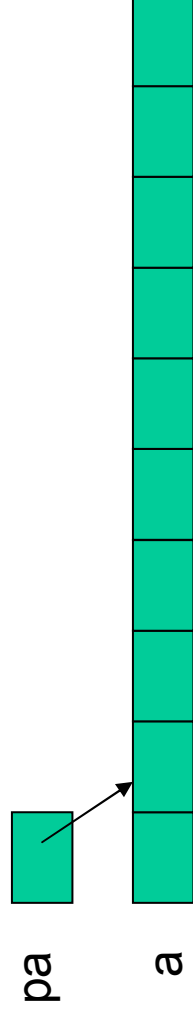
This means, pa holds the memory address of a[1].



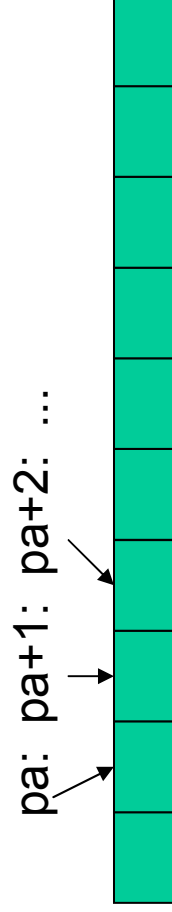
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$x = *pa$; dereferences pa and assigns $a[1]$ to x .

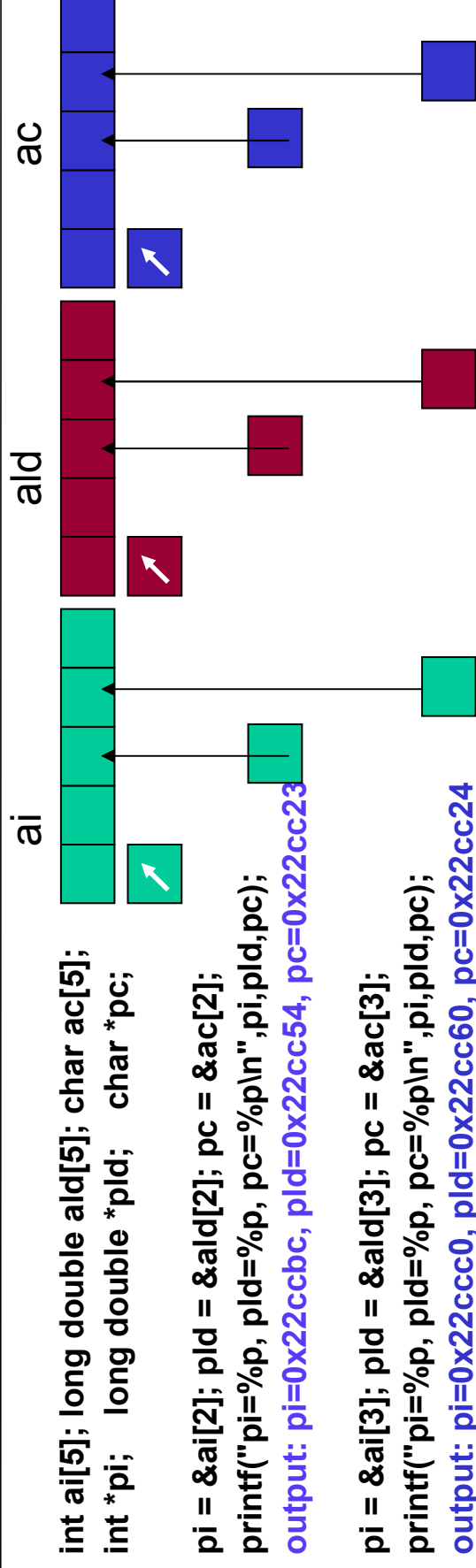


This works independently of the array's / pointer's data type:

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```
printf("#bytes: int:%d, long double:%d, char:%d\n",
(unsigned int)(pi+1)-(unsigned int)pi,
(unsigned int)(ald+1)-(unsigned int)ald,
(int)(pc+1)-(int)pc);
output: #bytes: int:4, long double:12, char:1
```

- “&” is the address operator. It returns the numerical value of the storage location where the value of a certain variable is stored in memory.
- “(type) variable” casts (= transforms) a variable of one type to another type