

Many of the slides in this lecture are either from or adapted from slides provided by the authors of the textbook "Computer Systems: A Programmer's Perspective." 2nd Edition and are provided from the website of Carnegie-Mellon University, course 15-213, taught by Randy Bryant and David O'Hallaron in Fall 2010. These slides are indicated "Supplied by CMU" in the notes section of the slides.



Why the signed integer types use the arithmetic right shift will be clear by the end of the next lecture.

Numeric Ranges							
• Unsigned Value - UMin = 0000 - UMax = 1111	s 0 2 ^w - 1		• Two's Complement - <i>TMin</i> = 1000 - <i>TMax</i> = 0111 • Other Values - Minus 1 1111	nt Values -2^{w-1} $2^{w-1} - 1$			
	Decimal	Hoy	Binary	1			
UMax	65535	FF FF	111111111 11111111				
TMax	32767	7F FF	01111111 11111111				
TMin	-32768	80 00	1000000 0000000				
-1	-1	FF FF	11111111 11111111				
0	0	00 00	0000000 00000000				
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Unsigned computer arithmetic is performed modulo 2 to the power of the computer's word size. The outer ring of the figure demonstrates arithmetic modulo 2^4 . To see the result, for example, of adding 3 to 2, start at 2 and go around the ring three units in the clockwise direction. If we add 5 to 14, we start at 14 and move 5 units clockwise, to 3. Similarly, to subtract 3 from 1, we start at one and move three units counterclockwise to 14.

What about two's-complement computer arithmetic? We know that the values encoded in a 4-bit computer word range from -8 to 7. How do we arrange them in the ring? As shown in the second ring, it makes sense for the non-negative numbers to be in the same positions as the corresponding unsigned values. It clearly makes sense for the integer coming just before 0 to be -1, the integer just before -1 to be -2, etc. Thus, since we have a ring, the integer following 7 is -8. Now we can see how arithmetic works for two's-complement numbers. Adding 3 to 2 works just as it does for unsigned numbers. Subtracting 3 from 1 results in -2. But adding 3 to 6 results in -7; and adding 5 to -2 results in 3.

The innermost ring shows the bit encodings for the unsigned and two's-complement values. The point of all this is that, with only one implementation of arithmetic, we can handle both unsigned and two's-complement values. Thus, adding unsigned 5 and 9 is equivalent to adding two's-complement 5 and -7. The result will 1110, which, if interpreted as an unsigned value is 14, but if interpreted as a two's-complement value is -2.



Note that the kind of casting done here is what we called "intimidation" in the previous lecture: no actual conversion takes place, but the value is reinterpreted according to the cast.

E>	pression evalu	lation		
-	if there is a mix signed values i	of unsigned and si mplicitly cast to un	gned in singl signed	e expression,
-	 including comp 	oarison operations <	<, >, ==, <=, >=	=
-	– examples for И	/= 32: TMIN = -2,1	47,483,648 ,	TMAX = 2,147,483,64
	Constant₁	Constant ₂	Relation	Evaluation
	0	0U	==	unsigned
	-1	0	<	signed
	-1	0U	>	unsigned
	2147483647	-2147483647-1	>	signed
	2147483647U	-2147483647-1	<	unsigned
	-1	-2	>	signed
	(unsigned)-1	-2	>	unsigned
	2147483647	2147483648U	<	unsigned
	2147483647	(int)2147483648U	>	signed

THIS APPLIES TO COMPARISONS ONLY, NOT TO ASSIGNMENTS!!!!!!!!

Note that, for the last pair of constants, the second is one greater than TMAX. Thus, when it's treated as a signed value, it's actually negative.





Sign Extension Example

short int >	= 1	5213;
int is	= (i	nt) x;
short int	= -1	5213;
int iy	= (i	nt) y;

	Decimal	Hex	Binary				
x	15213	3B 6D	00111011 01101101				
ix	15213	00 00 3B 6D	00000000 00000000 00111011 01101101				
У	-15213	C4 93	11000100 10010011				
iy	-15213	FF FF C4 93	11111111 1111111 11000100 10010011				

• Converting from smaller to larger integer data type – C automatically performs sign extension

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Sign extension clearly works for positive and zero values (where the sign bit is zero). But does it work for negative values? The first line of the slide shows the computation of the value of a w-bit item with a sign bit of one (i.e., it's negative). The next two lines show what happens if we extend this to a w+1-bit item, extending the sign bit. What had been the sign bit becomes one of the value bits, and its contribution to the value is now positive rather than negative. But this is compensated by the new sign bit, whose contribution is a negative value, twice as large as the original sign bit. Thus, the net effect is for there to be no change in the value.

We do this again, extending to a w+2-bit item, and again, the resulting value is the same as what we started with.

Unsigned M	ultiplication
Operands: <i>w</i> bits	<i>u</i> ••• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
True Product: 2*w bits	<i>u</i> * <i>v</i> • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Discard w bits: w bits	$UMult_w(u, v)$ •••
 Standard mult – ignores high 	tiplication function order <i>w</i> bits
 Implements m 	odular arithmetic
UMult _w (<i>u</i> , <i>v</i>)	$= u \cdot v \mod 2^w$
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Note that to represent the true product of two arbitrary w-bit values, we need 2w bits.

Signed Mult	iplication
Operands: <i>w</i> bits	<i>u</i> ••• · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
True Product: 2*w bits	<i>u</i> * <i>v</i>
Discard w bits: w bits	$\mathrm{TMult}_{w}(u, v)$ •••
 Standard mult ignores high some of which unsigned muther lower bits are but most-state 	tiplication function order w bits th are different from those of ltiplication the same significant bit of TMULT s sign
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Why is it that the "true product" is different from that of unsigned multiplication? Consider what the true product should be if the multiplier is -1 and the multiplicand is 1. The multiplier is a w-bit word of all ones; the multiplicand is a w-bit word of all zeroes except for the least-significant bit, which is 1. The high-order w bits of the true product should be all ones (since it's negative), but with unsigned multiplication they'd be all zeroes. However, since we're ignoring the high-order w bits, this doesn't matter.

Note that the sign of the result depends on the most-significant bit of the w-bit result, which could have no relation to the signs of the multiplier or the multiplicand.

It may be particularly important to have 64-bit results when multiplying arbitrary 32-bit signed integers.







Recall that with two's-complement, all the bits other than the most-significant represent positive values. Thus, we are shifting off (to the right) bits that should be adding a positive value to the number, but now are lost. Thus, if any of these bits are one, after shifting the resulting value will be less than it should be (i.e., more negative).



If the least-significant k bits are all zeroes, then adding in the bias and shifting right by k bits eliminates any effect of adding the bias.



If any of the least-significant k bits are one, then adding the bias to them causes a carry of one to the bits to their left. Thus, after shifting, the number that's represented by the remaining bits is one greater (less negative) than it would have been if the bias had not been added.



Note that "sizeof" returns an unsigned value. (Recall that, when mixing signed and unsigned items in an expression, the result will be unsigned.)





Read "Gulliver's Travels" by Jonathan Swift for an explanation of the egg.



Here we have a four-byte integer one. In the big-endian representation, the address of the integer is the address of the byte containing its most-significant bits (the big end), while in the little-endian representation, the address of the integer is the address of the byte containing its least-significant bits (the little end). Suppose we pass a pointer to this integer to some function. However, in a type-mismatch, the function assumes that what is passed it is a two-byte integer. On a big-endian system, it would think it was passed a zero, but on a little-endian system, it would think it was passed a one.

This is not an argument in favor of either approach, but simply an observation that behaviors could be different.

Quiz 3

What value is printed int main() { on a big-endian 64-bit long x=1; computer? func((int *)&x); a) 1 return 0; b) 0 } c) 2³² d) 2³²-1 void func(int *arg) { printf("%d\n", *arg); } CS33 Intro to Computer Systems VIII–24 Copyright © 2024 Thomas W. Doeppner. All rights reserved.



This code prints out the value of x, one byte at a time, starting with the byte at the lowest address (little end). On x86-based and m1-based (and presumably m2-based) computers, it will print:

00010203

which means that the address of an int is the address of the byte containing its least significant digits (little endian).

How does **printf** know that **xarray[i]** is an **unsigned char** (and thus one byte long) rather than an **int**? It turns out that **printf** is actually a macro (created using **#define**) that creates additional arguments that give the size (using **sizeof**) of its second and subsequent arguments. Thus, in this example, **printf** calls another function, passing it **"%02x"**, **xarray[i]**, and **sizeof(xarray[i])**. The **"%**02x" format code says to convert the argument to hexadecimal notation, print it in a field that's two characters wide, and include leading 0s.









IEEE is the Institute for Electrical and Electronics Engineers (pronounced "eye triple e").

Floating-Point Representation						
 Numerical Form: (–1)^s M 2^E 						
 sign bit s determines whether number is negative or positive 						
 - significand M normally a fractional value in range [1.0,2.0) 						
 exponent E weights value by power of two 						
 Encoding MSB s is sign bit s 						
 exp field encodes E (but is not equal to E) 						
 – frac field encodes M (but is not equal to M) 						
s exp frac						
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Pre	Precision options							
• 	Single precision: 32 bits							
1	8-bits	23-bits						
•	 Double precision: 64 bits 							
s	ехр	frac						
1	11-bits	52-bits						
•	 Extended precision: 80 bits (Intel only) 							
s	ехр	frac						
1	15-bits	64-bits						
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On x86 hardware, all floating-point arithmetic is done with 80 bits, then reduced to either 32 or 64 as required.



Normalized Encoding Example					
• Value: float F = 15213.0; - $15213_{10} = 11101101101_2$ = $1.11011011011_2 \times 2^{13}$					
• Significand $M = 1.1101101101_2$ frac = 1101101101101_00000000002					
• Exponent					
• Result:					
s exp frac CS33 Intro to Computer Systems VIII–33					







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Dynamic Range (Positive Only)

	s	exp	frac	E	Value			
	0	0000	000	-6	0			
	0	0000	001	-6	1/8*1/64	=	1/512	closest to zero
Denormalized	0	0000	010	-6	2/8*1/64	=	2/512	
numbers								
	0	0000	110	-6	6/8*1/64	=	6/512	
	0	0000	111	-6	7/8*1/64	=	7/512	largest denorm
	0	0001	000	-6	8/8*1/64	=	8/512	smallest norm
	0	0001	001	-6	9/8*1/64	=	9/512	
	0	0110	110	-1	14/8*1/2	=	14/16	
	0	0110	111	-1	15/8*1/2	=	15/16	closest to 1 below
Normalized	0	0111	000	0	8/8*1	=	1	
numbers	0	0111	001	0	9/8*1	=	9/8	closest to 1 above
	0	0111	010	0	10/8*1	=	10/8	
	0	1110	110	7	14/8*128	=	224	
	0	1110	111	7	15/8*128	=	240	largest norm
	0	1111	000	n/a	inf			a goot norm
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We're assuming here the six-bit floating-point format.





Note that we still have to discuss rounding so as to accommodate values that are equidistant from A and B or from B and C.

A special case is 0. Positive 0 represents a range of values that are greater than or equal to 0. Negative 0 represents a range of values that are less than or equal to zero.





Recall that the bias for the exponent of 8-bit IEEE FP is 7, thus for unnormalized numbers the actual exponent is -6 (-bias+1). The significand has an implied leading 0, thus 0 0000 001 represents $2^{-6} * 2^{-3}$.

With 8-bit IEEE FP. the value 0 0000 01 is interpreted as 2-9, But the number represented could be 50% or 50% more.



It's important to remember that a floating-point value is not a single number, but a range of numbers.