CS107 Spring 2019, Lecture 2
Bits and Bytes; Integer Representations

reading:
Bryant & O’Hallaron, Ch. 2.2-2.3
CS107 Topic 1: How can a computer represent integer numbers?
Demo: Unexpected Behavior

cp -r /afs/ir/class/cs107/samples/lectures/lect2 .
Plan For Today

• Bits and Bytes
• Hexadecimal
• Integer Representations
• Unsigned Integers
• Break: Announcements
• Signed Integers
• Casting and Combining Types
Plan For Today

• Bits and Bytes
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• Computers are built around the idea of two states: “on” and “off”. Transistors represent this in hardware, and bits represent this in software!
• We can combine bits, like with base-10 numbers, to represent more data. \(8\text{ bits} = 1\text{ byte}\).

• Computer memory is just a large array of bytes! It is byte-addressable; you can’t address (store location of) a bit; only a byte.

• Computers still fundamentally operate on bits; we have just gotten more creative about how to represent different data as bits!
  • Images
  • Audio
  • Video
  • Text
  • And more…
Base 10

5 9 3 4

Digits 0-9 (0 to base-1)
Base 10

5 9 3 4

thousands
hundreds
tens
ones
Base 10

\[5934 = 5 \times 1000 + 9 \times 100 + 3 \times 10 + 4 \times 1\]
Base 10

5 9 3 4

10^3 10^2 10^1 10^0
Base 10

5 9 3 4

10^x:  3  2  1  0
Base 2

$1011_2$

$2^x$: 3 2 1 0

Digits 0-1 (0 to base-1)
Base 2

1 0 1 1

$2^3$ $2^2$ $2^1$ $2^0$
Base 2

$1011_{2}$

eights  fours  twos  ones

$= 1 \times 8 + 0 \times 4 + 1 \times 2 + 1 \times 1 = 11_{10}$
Base 2

Most significant bit (MSB)  Least significant bit (LSB)

1 0 1 1

eights  fours  twos  ones

= 1\times8 + 0\times4 + 1\times2 + 1\times1 = 11_{10}
**Question:** What is 6 in base 2?

- **Strategy:**
  - What is the largest power of 2 ≤ 6?
**Question:** What is 6 in base 2?

- **Strategy:**
  - What is the largest power of 2 ≤ 6? $2^2=4$
**Question:** What is 6 in base 2?

**Strategy:**

- What is the largest power of 2 ≤ 6? \(2^2 = 4\)
- Now, what is the largest power of 2 ≤ 6 – 2^2?
Question: What is 6 in base 2?

• Strategy:
  • What is the largest power of 2 ≤ 6? $2^2=4$
  • Now, what is the largest power of $2 ≤ 6 – 2^2$? $2^1=2$
**Question:** What is 6 in base 2?

**Strategy:**
- What is the largest power of 2 ≤ 6? \(2^2 = 4\)
- Now, what is the largest power of 2 ≤ 6 – 2^2? \(2^1 = 2\)
- \(6 – 2^2 – 2^1 = 0!\)
**Base 10 to Base 2**

**Question:** What is 6 in base 2?

**Strategy:**
- What is the largest power of 2 ≤ 6? $2^2 = 4$
- Now, what is the largest power of 2 ≤ 6 − $2^2$? $2^1 = 2$
- $6 − 2^2 − 2^1 = 0!$

```
  0  1  1  0
 2^3 2^2 2^1 2^0
```
Question: What is 6 in base 2?

• Strategy:
  • What is the largest power of 2 ≤ 6? \(2^2 = 4\)
  • Now, what is the largest power of 2 ≤ 6 – 2^2? \(2^1 = 2\)
  • 6 – 2^2 – 2^1 = 0!

\[
\begin{align*}
&0 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 0 \\
&2^3 \quad 2^2 \quad 2^1 \quad 2^0 \\
&= 0 \times 8 + 1 \times 4 + 1 \times 2 + 0 \times 1 = 6
\end{align*}
\]
Practice: Base 2 to Base 10

What is the base-2 value 1010 in base-10?

a) 20  (text code: 641180)
b) 101  (text code: 642224)
c) 10   (text code: 642225)
d) 5    (text code: 642226)
e) Other (text code: 642227)

Respond at pollev.com/nicktroccoli901 or text a code above to 22333.
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Practice: Base 10 to Base 2

What is the base-10 value 14 in base 2?

a) 1111 (text code: 642232)
b) 1110 (text code: 642233)
c) 1010 (text code: 642235)
d) Other (text code: 642236)

Respond at pollev.com/nicktroccoli901 or text a code above to 22333.
To show this poll

1. Install the app from pollev.com/app
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Still not working? Get help at pollev.com/app/help
or
Open poll in your web browser
• What is the minimum and maximum base-10 value a single byte (8 bits) can store?
• What is the minimum and maximum base-10 value a single byte (8 bits) can store?  
  \[ \text{minimum} = 0 \quad \text{maximum} = ? \]
Byte Values

- What is the minimum and maximum base-10 value a single byte (8 bits) can store?  
  \[ \text{minimum} = 0 \]  
  \[ \text{maximum} = ? \]

\[ 11111111 \]

2\(^x\): 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0
Byte Values

• What is the minimum and maximum base-10 value a single byte (8 bits) can store?  
  \[ \text{minimum} = 0 \quad \text{maximum} = ? \]

• Strategy 1:  
  \[ 2^7 + 2^6 + 2^5 + 2^4 + 2^3 + 2^2 + 2^1 + 2^0 = 255 \]
• What is the minimum and maximum base-10 value a single byte (8 bits) can store?  
  minimum = 0  
  maximum = 255

• Strategy 1: $1 \times 2^7 + 1 \times 2^6 + 1 \times 2^5 + 1 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 = 255$

• Strategy 2: $2^8 - 1 = 255$
Multiplying by Base

1453 \times 10 = 14530

1101_2 \times 2 = 11010

Key Idea: inserting 0 at the end multiplies by the base!
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Hexadecimal

• When working with bits, oftentimes we have large numbers with 32 or 64 bits.
• Instead, we’ll represent bits in *base-16 instead*; this is called **hexadecimal**.

0110 1010 0011
• When working with bits, oftentimes we have large numbers with 32 or 64 bits.
• Instead, we’ll represent bits in base-16 instead; this is called hexadecimal.
Hexadecimal

• When working with bits, oftentimes we have large numbers with 32 or 64 bits.
• Instead, we’ll represent bits in *base-16 instead*; this is called **hexadecimal**.

Each is a base-16 digit!
Hexadecimal

- Hexadecimal is base-16, so we need digits for 1-15. How do we do this?
# Hexadecimal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hex digit</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Decimal value</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binary value</td>
<td>0000</td>
<td>0001</td>
<td>0010</td>
<td>0011</td>
<td>0100</td>
<td>0101</td>
<td>0110</td>
<td>0111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hex digit</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decimal value</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binary value</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1001</td>
<td>1010</td>
<td>1011</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>1101</td>
<td>1110</td>
<td>1111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hexadecimal

- We distinguish hexadecimal numbers by prefixing them with \( \texttt{0x} \), and binary numbers with \( \texttt{0b} \).
- E.g. \( \texttt{0xf5} \) is \( \texttt{0b11110101} \)
Practice: Hexadecimal to Binary

What is $0x173A$ in binary?
What is $0x173A$ in binary?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hexadecimal</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Binary</td>
<td>0001</td>
<td>0111</td>
<td>0011</td>
<td>1010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Practice: Hexadecimal to Binary

What is $\text{0b111001010110110110011}$ in hexadecimal? (Hint: start from the right)
What is \( 0b11110010101101110110011 \) in hexadecimal? *(Hint: start from the right)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Binary</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>1100</th>
<th>1010</th>
<th>1101</th>
<th>1011</th>
<th>0011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hexadecimal</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Plan For Today

• Bits and Bytes
• Hexadecimal
• **Integer Representations**
  • Unsigned Integers
  • **Break:** Announcements
  • Signed Integers
  • Casting and Combining Types
Number Representations

- **Unsigned Integers**: positive and 0 integers. (e.g. 0, 1, 2, ... 99999...)
- **Signed Integers**: negative, positive and 0 integers. (e.g. ...-2, -1, 0, 1,... 9999...)
- **Floating Point Numbers**: real numbers. (e.g. 0.1, -12.2, 1.5x10^{12})
Number Representations

• **Unsigned Integers**: positive and 0 integers. (e.g. 0, 1, 2, ... 99999...)

• **Signed Integers**: negative, positive and 0 integers. (e.g. ...-2, -1, 0, 1,... 9999...)

• **Floating Point Numbers**: real numbers. (e.g. 0.1, -12.2, 1.5x10^{12})

Stay tuned until week 5!
In the early 2000’s, most computers were 32-bit. This means that pointers in programs were 32 bits.

32-bit pointers could store a memory address from 0 to $2^{32}-1$, for a total of $2^{32}$ bytes of addressable memory. This equals 4 Gigabytes, meaning that 32-bit computers could have at most 4GB of memory (RAM)!

Because of this, computers transitioned to 64-bit. This means that pointers in programs were 64 bits.

64-bit pointers could store a memory address from 0 to $2^{64}-1$, for a total of $2^{64}$ bytes of addressable memory. This equals 16 Exabytes, meaning that 64-bit computers could have at most $1024^3$ GB of memory (RAM)!
# Number Representations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C declaration</th>
<th>Signed</th>
<th>Unsigned</th>
<th>32-bit</th>
<th>64-bit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[signed] char</td>
<td>char</td>
<td>unsigned char</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>short</td>
<td>unsigned short</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
<td>int</td>
<td>unsigned</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>long</td>
<td>unsigned long</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int32_t</td>
<td>int32_t</td>
<td>uint32_t</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int64_t</td>
<td>int64_t</td>
<td>uint64_t</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char *</td>
<td>char *</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>float</td>
<td>float</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>double</td>
<td>double</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Number Representations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C declaration</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Signed</td>
<td>32-bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[signed] char</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
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<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char *</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>float</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>double</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Myth

- Signed and Unsigned have different numbers of bytes for 32-bit and 64-bit systems.
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• **Unsigned Integers**
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Unsigned Integers

• An **unsigned** integer is 0 or a positive integer (no negatives).

• We have already discussed converting between decimal and binary, which is a nice 1:1 relationship. Examples:

  0b0001 = 1  
  0b0101 = 5  
  0b1011 = 11  
  0b1111 = 15

• The range of an unsigned number is $0 \rightarrow 2^w - 1$, where $w$ is the number of bits. E.g. a 32-bit integer can represent 0 to $2^{32} - 1$ (4,294,967,295).
Unsigned Integers

4-bit unsigned integer representation

- 0000 represents 0
- 0001 represents 1
- 0010 represents 2
- 0011 represents 3
- 0100 represents 4
- 0101 represents 5
- 0110 represents 6
- 0111 represents 7
- 1000 represents 8
- 1001 represents 9
- 1010 represents 10
- 1011 represents 11
- 1100 represents 12
- 1101 represents 13
- 1110 represents 14
- 1111 represents 15
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Announcements

• Sign up for Piazza on the Help page if you haven’t already!
• Lab signups opened earlier this week, start next week.
  • Labs posted on the course website at the start of each week
• Office Hours started earlier this week
  • You must fill out signup questions completely when signing up
• Please send course staff OAE letters for accommodations!
A unsigned integer is a negative, 0, or positive integer. How can we represent both negative and positive numbers in binary?
Plan For Today

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• **Break**: Announcements
• **Signed Integers**
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• A **signed** integer is a negative integer, 0, or a positive integer.

• *Problem*: How can we represent negative *and* positive numbers in binary?
Signed Integers

• A **signed** integer is a negative integer, 0, or a positive integer.
• *Problem*: How can we represent negative *and* positive numbers in binary?

**Idea**: let’s reserve the *most significant bit* to store the sign.
Sign Magnitude Representation

0110
positive  6

1011
negative  3
Sign Magnitude Representation

0000
positive  0

1000
negative  0
Sign Magnitude Representation

1 000 = -0 0 000 = 0
1 001 = -1 0 001 = 1
1 010 = -2 0 010 = 2
1 011 = -3 0 011 = 3
1 100 = -4 0 100 = 4
1 101 = -5 0 101 = 5
1 110 = -6 0 110 = 6
1 111 = -7 0 111 = 7

• We’ve only represented 15 of our 16 available numbers!
Sign Magnitude Representation

- **Pro:** easy to represent, and easy to convert to/from decimal.
- **Con:** +-0 is not intuitive
- **Con:** we lose a bit that could be used to store more numbers
- **Con:** arithmetic is tricky: we need to find the sign, then maybe subtract (borrow and carry, etc.), then maybe change the sign...this might get ugly!

Can we do better?
• Ideally, binary addition would *just work regardless* of whether the number is positive or negative.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
0101 \\
+ \text{??????} \\
\hline
00000
\end{array}
\]
• Ideally, binary addition would *just work regardless* of whether the number is positive or negative.

```
  01011
+1011
---
 00000
```
• Ideally, binary addition would *just work regardless* of whether the number is positive or negative.

```
  0011
+ ????
  ----
  0000
```
A Better Idea

- Ideally, binary addition would *just work* *regardless* of whether the number is positive or negative.

```
0011
+1101
```

\[ \text{0000} \]
A Better Idea

• Ideally, binary addition would *just work regardless* of whether the number is positive or negative.
• Ideally, binary addition would *just work regardless* of whether the number is positive or negative.
# A Better Idea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decimal</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0000</td>
<td>0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0001</td>
<td>1111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0010</td>
<td>1110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0011</td>
<td>1101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0100</td>
<td>1100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0101</td>
<td>1011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0110</td>
<td>1010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0111</td>
<td>1001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decimal</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1001 (same as -7!)</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1010 (same as -6!)</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>1011 (same as -5!)</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1100 (same as -4!)</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1101 (same as -3!)</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>1110 (same as -2!)</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>1111 (same as -1!)</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There Seems Like a Pattern Here...

- The negative number is the positive number inverted, plus one!
A binary number plus its inverse is all 1s.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
0101 \\
+1010 \\
\hline
1111
\end{array}
\]

Add 1 to this to carry over all 1s and get 0!

\[
\begin{array}{c}
1111 \\
+0001 \\
\hline
0000
\end{array}
\]
Another Trick

• To find the negative equivalent of a number, work right-to-left and write down all digits *through* when you reach a 1. Then, invert the rest of the digits.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
100100 \\
+ \text{??????} \\
\hline
0000000
\end{array}
\]
Another Trick

• To find the negative equivalent of a number, work right-to-left and write down all digits *through* when you reach a 1. Then, invert the rest of the digits.

```
100100
+0000000
```

```
0000000
```
Another Trick

- To find the negative equivalent of a number, work right-to-left and write down all digits *through* when you reach a 1. Then, invert the rest of the digits.

```
100100
+ 011100
```

```
0000000
```
Two’s Complement

4-bit two's complement signed integer representation
• In **two’s complement**, we represent a positive number as *itself*, and its negative equivalent as the **two’s complement** of itself.

• The **two’s complement** of a number is the binary digits inverted, plus 1.

• This works to convert from positive to negative, and back from negative to positive!
Two’s Complement

- **Con:** more difficult to represent, and difficult to convert to/from decimal and between positive and negative.
- **Pro:** only 1 representation for 0!
- **Pro:** all bits are used to represent as many numbers as possible
- **Pro:** it turns out that the most significant bit **still indicates the sign** of a number.
- **Pro:** arithmetic is easy: we just add!
Two’s Complement

- Adding two numbers is just...adding! There is no special case needed for negatives. E.g. what is 2 + -5?

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\begin{array}{c}
0010 \\
+1011 \\
\hline
1101 \\
\end{array}
\end{array}
\]

2 + (-5) = -3
Subtracting two numbers is just performing the two’s complement on one of them and then adding. E.g. $4 - 5 = -1$. 

\[
\begin{array}{c}
0100 \\
-0101
\end{array}
\quad
4
\quad
5
\quad
0100
\quad
4
\quad
1011
\quad
-5
\quad
1111
\quad
-1
While you don’t need to worry about multiplication, it turns out that with two’s complement, multiplying two numbers is just multiplying, and discarding overflow digits! E.g. \(-2 \times -3 = 6\).

\[
\begin{array}{c}
1110 \text{ (-2)} \\
\times1101 \text{ (-3)} \\
1110 \\
0000 \\
1110 \\
+1110 \\
\hline 10110110 \text{ (6)}
\end{array}
\]
Practice: Two’s Complement

What are the negative or positive equivalents of the numbers below?

a) -4 (1100)
b) 7 (0111)
c) 3 (0011)
d) -8 (1000)
Practice: Two’s Complement

What are the negative or positive equivalents of the numbers below?

a) -4 (1100)
b) 7 (0111)
c) 3 (0011)
d) -8 (1000)
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Overflow and Underflow

• If you exceed the **maximum** value of your bit representation, you *wrap around* or *overflow* back to the **smallest** bit representation.

\[ 0b1111 + 0b1 = 0b0000 \]

• If you go below the **minimum** value of your bit representation, you *wrap around* or *underflow* back to the **largest** bit representation.

\[ 0b0000 - 0b1 = 0b1111 \]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Width (bytes)</th>
<th>Width (bits)</th>
<th>Min in hex (name)</th>
<th>Max in hex (name)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>char</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80 (CHAR_MIN)</td>
<td>7F (CHAR_MAX)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned char</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>FF (UCHAR_MAX)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8000 (SHRT_MIN)</td>
<td>7FFF (SHRT_MAX)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned short</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>FFFF (USHRT_MAX)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>80000000 (INT_MIN)</td>
<td>7FFFFFFF (INT_MAX)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned int</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>FFFFFFFF (UINT_MAX)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>800000000000000000000000 (LONG_MIN)</td>
<td>7FFFFFFFFFFFFFFFF (LONG_MAX)</td>
</tr>
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<td>0</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overflow and Underflow
At which points can overflow occur for signed and unsigned int? *(assume binary values shown are all 32 bits)*

A. Signed and unsigned can both overflow at points X and Y
B. Signed can overflow only at X, unsigned only at Y
C. Signed can overflow only at Y, unsigned only at X
D. Signed can overflow at X and Y, unsigned only at X
E. Other
Unsigned Integers

\[ \approx +4 \text{billion} \]

0

Discontinuity means overflow possible here

Increasing positive numbers

More increasing positive numbers
Signed Numbers

Signed numbers and discontinuity

Increasing positive numbers

≈+2 billion

Increasing negative numbers (i.e., becoming less negative)

≈-2 billion

Discontinuity means overflow possible here

Negative numbers becoming less negative (i.e. increasing)
Overflow In Practice: PSY

YouTube: “We never thought a video would be watched in numbers greater than a 32-bit integer (=2,147,483,647 views), but that was before we met PSY. "Gangnam Style" has been viewed so many times we had to upgrade to a 64-bit integer (9,223,372,036,854,775,808)!”
Overflow In Practice: Timestamps

• Many systems store timestamps as the number of seconds since Jan. 1, 1970 in a signed 32-bit integer.

• Problem: the latest timestamp that can be represented this way is 3:14:07 UTC on Jan. 13 2038!
In the game “Civilization”, each civilization leader had an “aggression” rating. Gandhi was meant to be peaceful, and had a score of 1.

If you adopted “democracy”, all players’ aggression reduced by 2. Gandhi’s went from 1 to 255!

Gandhi then became a big fan of nuclear weapons.

https://kotaku.com/why-gandhi-is-such-an-asshole-in-civilization-1653818245
Recap

• Bits and Bytes
• Hexadecimal
• Integer Representations
• Unsigned Integers
• Break: Announcements
• Signed Integers
• Casting and Combining Types

Next time: How can we manipulate individual bits and bytes?
• There are 3 placeholders for 32-bit integers that we can use:
  • %d: signed 32-bit int
  • %u: unsigned 32-bit int
  • %x: hex 32-bit int

• As long as the value is a 32-bit type, printf will treat it according to the placeholder!
What happens at the byte level when we cast between variable types? **The bytes remain the same!** This means they may be interpreted differently depending on the type.

```c
int v = -12345;
unsigned int uv = v;
printf("v = %d, uv = %u\n", v, uv);
```

This prints out: "v = -12345, uv = 4294954951". **Why?**
What happens at the byte level when we cast between variable types? The bytes remain the same! This means they may be interpreted differently depending on the type.

```c
int v = -12345;
unsigned int uv = v;
printf("v = %d, uv = %u\n", v, uv);
```

The bit representation for -12345 is `\x0b11000000111001`. If we treat this binary representation as a positive number, it’s huge!
Casting

4-bit two's complement signed integer representation

4-bit unsigned integer representation
Comparisons Between Different Types

- **Be careful** when comparing signed and unsigned integers. **C will implicitly cast** the signed argument to unsigned, and then performs the operation assuming both numbers are non-negative.

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<th>Expression</th>
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<td>0 == 0U</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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Comparisons Between Different Types

Which many of the following statements are true? (assume that variables are set to values that place them in the spots shown)

- $s_3 > u_3$
- $u_2 > u_4$
- $s_2 > s_4$
- $s_1 > s_2$
- $u_1 > u_2$
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- $s_1 > u_3$
Comparisons Between Different Types

Which many of the following statements are true? (assume that variables are set to values that place them in the spots shown)

s3 > u3  - true
u2 > u4  - true
s2 > s4  - false
s1 > s2  - true
u1 > u2  - true
s1 > u3  - true
Expanding Bit Representations

- Sometimes, we want to convert between two integers of different sizes (e.g. short to int, or int to long).

- We might not be able to convert from a bigger data type to a smaller data type, but we do want to always be able to convert from a smaller data type to a bigger data type.

- For unsigned values, we can add leading zeros to the representation (“zero extension”)

- For signed values, we can repeat the sign of the value for new digits (“sign extension”)

- Note: when doing <, >, <=, >= comparison between different size types, it will promote to the larger type.
unsigned short s = 4;
// short is a 16-bit format, so  
s = 0000 0000 0000 0100b

unsigned int i = s;
// conversion to 32-bit int, so i = 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0100b
short s = 4;
// short is a 16-bit format, so
s = 0000 0000 0000 0100b

int i = s;
// conversion to 32-bit int, so i = 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0100b

— or —

short s = -4;
// short is a 16-bit format, so
s = 1111 1111 1111 1100b

int i = s;
// conversion to 32-bit int, so i = 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1100b
If we want to **reduce** the bit size of a number, C **truncates** the representation and discards the *more significant bits*.

```c
int x = 53191;
short sx = x;
int y = sx;
```

What happens here? Let's look at the bits in `x` (a 32-bit `int`), 53191:

```
0000 0000 0000 0000 1100 1111 1100 0111
```

When we cast `x` to a short, it only has 16-bits, and C **truncates** the number:

```
1100 1111 1100 0111
```

This is -12345! And when we cast `sx` back an `int`, we sign-extend the number.

```
1111 1111 1111 1111 1100 1111 1100 0111  // still -12345
```
If we want to **reduce** the bit size of a number, C **truncates** the representation and discards the *more significant bits*.

```c
int x = -3;
short sx = x;
int y = sx;
```

What happens here? Let's look at the bits in `x` (a 32-bit int), -3:

```
1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1101
```

When we cast `x` to a short, it only has 16-bits, and C **truncates** the number:

```
1111 1111 1111 1101
```

This is -3! **If the number does fit, it will convert fine.** `y` looks like this:

```
1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1101  // still -3
```
If we want to **reduce** the bit size of a number, C **truncates** the representation and discards the *more significant bits*.

```c
unsigned int x = 128000;
unsigned short sx = x;
unsigned int y = sx;
```

What happens here? Let's look at the bits in `x` (a 32-bit unsigned int), 128000:

```
0000 0000 0000 0001 1111 0100 0000 0000
```

When we cast `x` to a short, it only has 16-bits, and C **truncates** the number:

```
1111 0100 0000 0000
```

This is 62464! **Unsigned numbers can lose info too.** Here is what `y` looks like:

```
0000 0000 0000 0000 1111 0100 0000 0000 // still 62464
```
The sizeof Operator

- **sizeof** takes a variable type as a parameter and returns the number of bytes that type uses.

```c
printf("sizeof(char): %d\n", (int) sizeof(char));
printf("sizeof(short): %d\n", (int) sizeof(short));
printf("sizeof(int): %d\n", (int) sizeof(int));
printf("sizeof(unsigned int): %d\n", (int) sizeof(unsigned int));
printf("sizeof(long): %d\n", (int) sizeof(long));
printf("sizeof(long long): %d\n", (int) sizeof(long long));
printf("sizeof(size_t): %d\n", (int) sizeof(size_t));
printf("sizeof(void *): %d\n", (int) sizeof(void *));
```

```
$ ./sizeof
sizeof(char): 1
sizeof(short): 2
sizeof(int): 4
sizeof(unsigned int): 4
sizeof(long): 8
sizeof(long long): 8
sizeof(size_t): 8
sizeof(void *): 8
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Width in bytes</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>char</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>2</td>
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