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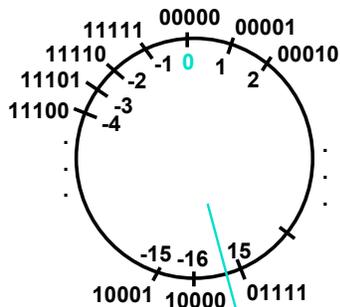


2's Complement Properties

- As with sign and magnitude, leading 0s \Rightarrow positive, leading 1s \Rightarrow negative
 - 000000...xxx is ≥ 0 , 111111...xxx is < 0
 - except 1...1111 is -1, not -0 (as in sign & mag.)
- Only 1 Zero!



2's Complement Number "line": N = 5



- 2^{N-1} non-negatives
- 2^{N-1} negatives
- one zero
- how many positives?



Two's Complement Formula

- Can represent positive **and negative** numbers in terms of the bit value times a power of 2:

$$d_{31}x^{-(2^{31})} + d_{30}x^{2^{30}} + \dots + d_2x^{2^2} + d_1x^{2^1} + d_0x^{2^0}$$

- Example: 1101_{two}

$$= 1x^{-(2^3)} + 1x^{2^2} + 0x^{2^1} + 1x^{2^0}$$

$$= -2^3 + 2^2 + 0 + 2^0$$

$$= -8 + 4 + 0 + 1$$

$$= -8 + 5$$

$$= -3_{\text{ten}}$$



Two's Complement shortcut: Negation

- Change every 0 to 1 and 1 to 0 (invert or complement), then add 1 to the result
- Proof*: Sum of number and its (one's) complement must be $111\dots111_{\text{two}}$
 However, $111\dots111_{\text{two}} = -1_{\text{ten}}$
 Let x' \Rightarrow one's complement representation of x
 Then $x + x' = -1 \Rightarrow x + x' + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow x' + 1 = -x$
- Example: -3 to +3 to -3

x :	1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1101	<small>two</small>
x' :	0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0010	<small>two</small>
+1:	0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0011	<small>two</small>
(x'):	1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1100	<small>two</small>
+1:	1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1101	<small>two</small>



Two's comp. shortcut: Sign extension

- Convert 2's complement number rep. using n bits to more than n bits
- Simply replicate the most significant bit (sign bit) of smaller to fill new bits
 - 2's comp. positive number has infinite 0s
 - 2's comp. negative number has infinite 1s
- Binary representation hides leading bits; sign extension restores some of them
- 16-bit -4_{ten} to 32-bit:

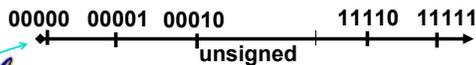
$$1111 1111 1111 1100_{\text{two}}$$

$$1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1100_{\text{two}}$$



What if too big?

- Binary bit patterns above are simply **representatives** of numbers. Strictly speaking they are called “numerals”.
- Numbers really have an ∞ number of digits
 - with almost all being same (00...0 or 11...1) except for a few of the rightmost digits
 - Just don't normally show leading digits
- If result of add (or -, *, /) cannot be represented by these rightmost HW bits, **overflow** is said to have occurred.

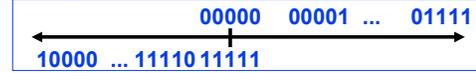


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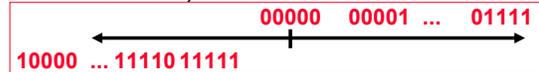
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Number Summary

- We represent “things” in computers as particular bit patterns: N bits $\Rightarrow 2^N$
- Decimal for human calculations, binary for computers, hex to write binary more easily
- 1's complement - mostly abandoned



- 2's complement universal in computing: cannot avoid, so learn



Overflow: numbers ∞ ; computers finite, errors!

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Preview: Signed vs. Unsigned Variables

- Java just declares integers `int`
 - Uses two's complement
- C has declaration `int` also
 - Declares variable as a signed integer
 - Uses two's complement
- Also, C declaration `unsigned int`
 - Declares a unsigned integer
 - Treats 32-bit number as unsigned integer, so most significant bit is part of the number, not a sign bit



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BIG IDEA: Bits can represent anything!!

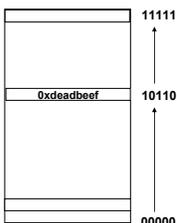
- **REMEMBER:** N digits in base $B \Rightarrow B^N$ values
 - For binary in particular: N bits $\rightarrow 2^N$ values
- Characters?
 - 26 letters $\Rightarrow 5$ bits ($2^5 = 32$)
 - upper/lower case + punctuation $\Rightarrow 7$ bits (in 8) (“ASCII”)
 - standard code to cover all the world languages $\Rightarrow 16$ bits (“Unicode”) 
- Logical values?
 - 0 \Rightarrow False, 1 \Rightarrow True
- colors ? Ex: Red (00) Green (01) Blue (11)
- locations / addresses? commands?



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Example: Numbers represented in memory



- Memory is a place to store bits
- A *word* is a fixed number of bits (eg, 32) at an address
- **Addresses** are naturally represented as unsigned numbers in C



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Disclaimer

- **Important:** You will not learn how to fully code in C in these lectures! You'll still need your C reference for this course.
 - K&R is a great reference.
 - But... check online for more sources.
 - “JAVA in a Nutshell,” O'Reilly.
 - Chapter 2, “How Java Differs from C”.



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Compilation : Overview

C **compilers** take C and convert it into an **architecture specific** machine code (string of 1s and 0s).

- Unlike Java which converts to **architecture independent** bytecode.
- Unlike most Scheme environments which interpret the code.
- Generally a 2 part process of **compiling** .c files to .o files, then **linking** the .o files into executables



Compilation : Advantages

- **Great run-time performance**: generally much faster than Scheme or Java for comparable code (because it optimizes for a given architecture)
- **OK compilation time**: enhancements in compilation procedure (Makefiles) allow only modified files to be recompiled



Compilation : Disadvantages

- All compiled files (including the executable) are **architecture specific**, depending on *both* the CPU type and the operating system.
- Executable must be **rebuilt** on each new system.
 - Called "**porting your code**" to a new architecture.
- The "change→compile→run [repeat]" iteration cycle is slow



C vs. Java™ Overview (1/2)

Java	C
• Object-oriented (OOP)	• No built-in object abstraction. Data separate from methods.
• "Methods"	• "Functions"
• Class libraries of data structures	• C libraries are lower-level
• Automatic memory management	• Manual memory management
	• Pointers



C vs. Java™ Overview (2/2)

Java	C
• High memory overhead from class libraries	• Low memory overhead
• Relatively Slow	• Relatively Fast
• Arrays initialize to zero	• Arrays initialize to garbage
• Syntax: <pre>/* comment */ // comment System.out.print</pre>	• Syntax: <pre>/* comment */ printf</pre>



C Syntax: Variable Declarations

- **Very similar to Java**, but with a few minor but important differences
- All variable declarations must go before they are used (at the beginning of the block).
- A variable may be initialized in its declaration.
- Examples of declarations:
 - correct:

```
{  
    int a = 0, b = 10;  
    ...  
}
```
 - **incorrect**:

```
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
```



Pointers

- How to create a pointer:

& operator: get address of a variable

```
int *p, x;  p [?] x [?]
```

Note the "" gets used 2 different ways in this example. In the declaration to indicate that p is going to be a pointer, and in the printf to get the value pointed to by p.*

```
x = 3;      p [?] x [3]
```

```
p = &x;    p [ ] x [3]
```

- How get a value pointed to?

* "dereference operator": get value pointed to

```
printf("p points to %d\n", *p);
```



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Pointers

- How to change a variable pointed to?

• Use dereference * operator on left of =

```
p [ ] x [3]
```

```
*p = 5;  p [ ] x [5]
```



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Pointers and Parameter Passing

- Java and C pass a parameter "by value"

• procedure/function gets a copy of the parameter, so changing the copy cannot change the original

```
void addOne (int x) {  
    x = x + 1;  
}  
  
int y = 3;  
addOne(y);
```

• y is still = 3



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Pointers and Parameter Passing

- How to get a function to change a value?

```
void addOne (int *p) {  
    *p = *p + 1;  
}  
  
int y = 3;  
  
addOne(&y);
```

• y is now = 4



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Pointers

- Normally a pointer can only point to one type (int, char, a struct, etc.).

- void * is a type that can point to anything (generic pointer)
- Use sparingly to help avoid program bugs... and security issues... and a lot of other bad things!



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And in conclusion...

- All declarations go at the beginning of each function.
- Only 0 and NULL evaluate to FALSE.
- All data is in memory. Each memory location has an address to use to refer to it and a value stored in it.
- A **pointer** is a C version of the address.
 - * "follows" a pointer to its value
 - & gets the address of a value



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