# CSE 351

Number Representation & Operators Section 2 October 8, 2015

### Number Bases

Any numerical value can be represented as a linear combination of powers of n, where n is an integer greater than 1
Example: decimal (n=10)

•Decimal numbers are just linear combinations of 1, 10, 100, 1000, etc

 $\bullet 1234 = 1^*1000 + 2^*100 + 3^*10 + 4^*1$ 

•We can also use the base n=2 (binary) or n=16 (hexadecimal)

# **Binary Numbers**

- •Each digit is either a 1 or a 0
- •Each digit corresponds to a power of 2
- •Why use binary?
  - •Easy to physically represent two states in memory, registers, across wires, etc
  - •High/Low voltage levels

•This can scale to much larger numbers by using more hardware to store more bits

# Converting Binary Numbers

•To convert the decimal number *d* to binary, do the following:

•Compute (d % 2). This will give you the lowest-order bit

•Continue to divide *d* by 2, round down to the nearest integer, and compute (*d % 2*) for successive bits

•Example: Convert 25 to binary

```
•First bit: (25 % 2) = 1
```

- •Second bit: (12 % 2) = 0
- •Third bit: 6 % 2 = 0
- •Fourth bit: 3 % 2 = 1
- •Fifth bit: 1 % 2 = 1
- •Stop because we reached zero

### Hexadecimal Numbers

Same concept as decimal and binary, but the base is 16Why use hexadecimal?

•Easy to convert between hex and binary

•Much more compact than binary

# Converting Hexadecimal Numbers

•To convert a decimal number to hexadecimal, use the same technique we used for binary, but divide/mod by 16 instead of 2

Hexadecimal numbers have a prefix of "0x"

•Example: Convert 1234 to hexadecimal

```
•First digit: (1234 % 16) = 2
```

- •Second digit: (77 % 16) = 13 = D
- •77 / 16 = 4
- •Third digit: 4 % 16 = 4
- •4 / 16 = 0
- •Stop because we reached zero
- •Result: 0x4D2

# Representing Signed Integers

- •There are several ways to represent signed integers
- •Sign & Magnitude
  - •Use 1 bit for the sign, remaining bits for magnitude
  - •Works OK, but there are 2 ways to represent zero (-0 and 0)
  - •Also, arithmetic is tricky
- •Two's Complement
  - •Similar to regular binary representation
  - •Highest bit has negative weight rather than positive
  - •Works well with arithmetic, only one way to represent zero

# Two's Complement

This is an example of the range of numbers that can be represented by a 4-bit two's complement number
An *n* bit, two's complement number can represent the range [-2^(n-1), 2^(n-1)-1]
Note the asymmetry of this range about 0
Note what happens when you overflow
If you still don't understand it, speak up!

Very confusing concept



# **Bitwise Operators**

•NOT: ~

•This will flip all bits in the operand

•AND: &

•This will perform a bitwise AND on every pair of bits

•OR: |

•This will perform a bitwise OR on every pair of bits •XOR: ^

This will perform a bitwise XOR on every pair of bits

•SHIFT: <<,>>

•This will shift the bits right or left

# Logical Operators

•NOT: !

•Evaluates the entire operand, rather than each bit

•Produces a 1 if == 0, produces 0 otherwise

•AND: &&

•Produces 1 if both operands are nonzero

•OR: ||

•Produces 1 if either operand is nonzero

### Common Operator Uses

•A double bang (!!) is useful when normalizing values to 0 or 1 •Imitates Boolean types

•Shifts are useful for multiplying/dividing quickly

•Most multiplications are reduced to shifts when possible by GCC already

•When writing assembly routines, shifts will be more useful

Shifts are also consistent for negative numbers (thanks to sign extension)
DeMorgan's Laws:

•~(A | B) == (~A & ~B) •~(A&B) == (~A | ~B)

# Masks

•These are usually strings of 1s that are used to isolate a subset of bits in an operand

•Example: the mask 0xFF will "mask" the first byte of an integer

•Once you have created a mask, you can shift it left or right

•Example: the mask 0xFF << 8 will "mask" the second byte of an integer

•You can apply a mask in different ways

•To set bits in x, you can do  $x = x \mid MASK$ 

•To invert bits in *x*, you can do *x* = *x* ^ MASK

•To erase everything but the desired bits in x, do x = x & MASK

# Application: Symmetric Encryption

•This is an example that shows how XOR can be used to encrypt data

•Say Alice wishes to communicate message *M* to Bob

•Let *M* be the bit string: 0b11011010

•Both Alice and Bob have a secret cipher key C

•Let *C* be the bit string: 0b01100010

•Alice sends Bob the encrypted message  $M' = M \wedge C$ 

•*M*′ = 0b10111000

•Bob applies C to M' to retrieve M

•*M'* ^ *C* = 0b11011010

•XOR ciphers are not very secure by themselves, but the XOR operation is used in some modes of AES encryption

# Application: Gray Codes

•Gray Codes encode numbers such that consecutive numbers only differ in their representations by 1 bit

•Useful when trying to transfer counter values across different clock domains (common in FIFOs)

•If each wire represents one binary digit, we want to ensure that when the counter increments, the voltage level changes only on one wire

#### •Let *n* be our counter output

•(*n* >> 1) ^ *n* will produce a gray coded version of *n* 

•If we receive the gray code *g*, we need to convert it to *n* :

```
for (int mask = g >> 1; mask != 0; mask >> 1) {
    g = g ^ mask;
```

•For an example, compile and run gray code.c

# Lab 1

- •Worksheet in class
- •Tips

•Work on 8-bit versions first, then scale your solution to work for 32-bit inputs
•Save intermediate results in variables for clarity
•SHIFTING BY MORE THAN 31 BITS IS UNDEFINED! It will not yield 0

# Example Problems

#### 

- •Limited to constants from 0x00 -> 0xFF
- •Naïve approach: 0xFF + (0xFF << 8) + (0xFF << 16) ...
- •Smart approach: ~0x00 = 0xFFFFFFF

# Example Problems

•Replace the leftmost byte of a 32-bit integer with 0xAB

- •Let our integer be x
- •First, we want to create a mask for the lower 24 bits of the image
  - •~(0xFF << 24) will do that using just two operations
- •(x & mask) will zero out the leftmost 8 bits
- •Now, we want to OR in 0xAB to those zeroed-out bits
- •(x & mask) | (0xAB << 24) will accomplish this
- •Total operators: 5