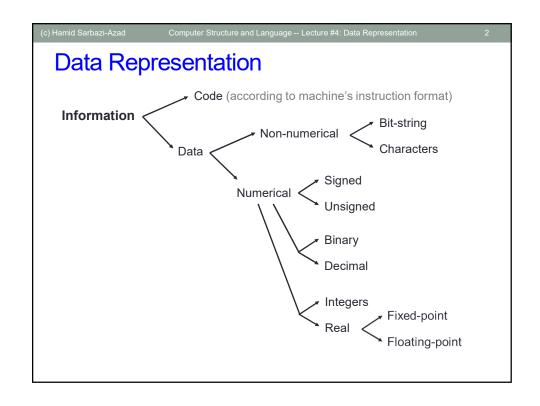
Computer Structure and Language

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Binary Number Systems

- Data are represented in computers as a sequence of bits (binary digits).
- Other units
 - Byte: 8 bits
 - Nibble: 4 bits (rarely used now)
 - Word: Multiple of bytes (e.g. 2 bytes, 4 bytes, etc.) depending on the computer architecture
- In Binary system n bits can represent up to 2n values
 - 2 bits can represent up to 4 values (00, 01, 10, 11)
 - 4 bits can represent up to 16 values (0000, 0001, 0010,, 1111)
- To represent M values, log₂M bits required
 - 32 values require 5 bits; 1000 values require 10 bits

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Decimal (base-10) Number System

- A weighted-positional number system
- Base (also called radix) is 10
- Symbols/digits = { 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 }
- Each position has a weight of power of 10

Example:

$$(7594.36)_{10} = (7 \times 10^{3}) + (5 \times 10^{2}) + (9 \times 10^{1}) + (4 \times 10^{0}) + (3 \times 10^{-1}) + (6 \times 10^{-2})$$

For a decimal number with (n+m) digits (n digits for integer part and m digits for fractional part), we can write:

$$(a_{n-1}a_{n-2}...a_0.f_1f_2...f_m)_{10} =$$

 $(a_{n-1} \times 10^{n-1}) + (a_{n-2} \times 10^{n-2}) + ... + (a_0 \times 10^0) +$
 $(f_1 \times 10^{-1}) + (f_2 \times 10^{-2}) + ... + (f_m \times 10^{-m})$

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Other Number Systems

Octal (base 8)

Weights in powers of 8; Octal digits: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7.

Hexadecimal (base 16)

Weights in powers of 16; Hexadecimal digits: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F.

■ Base/radix R

Weights in powers of R; R-base digits: 0, 1, 2, ..., R-2, R-1

- In some languages/software, special notations are used to represent numbers in certain bases. For example:
 - C language: prefix 0x for hexadecimal (e.g.: 0xF2 represents hexadecimal number (F2)₁₆.
 - Verilog: 8'b11110000, 8'hF0, 8'd240, all represent a an 8-bit binary value 11110000.

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Base-R to Decimal Conversion

Easy! For number Base-R number $\mathbf{a}_{\mathsf{n-1}}$... $\mathbf{a}_1\mathbf{a}_0.\mathbf{a}_{-1}\mathbf{a}_{-2}$... $\mathbf{a}_{-\mathsf{m}}$ just calculate $\sum_{k=-m}^{n-1} R^k a_k$.

Examples:

$$\square$$
 1101.101₂ = 1×2³ + 1×2² + 0×2¹ + 1×2⁰ + 1×2⁻¹ + 0×2⁻² + 1×2⁻³ = 13.625₁₀

$$\square$$
 572.6₈ = 5×8² + 7×8¹ + 2×8⁰ + 6×8⁻¹ = 378.75

$$\square$$
 2A.8₁₆ = 2×16¹ + 10×16⁰ + 8×16⁻¹ = 42.5

$$\square$$
 341.24₅ = 3×5² + 4×5¹ + 1×5⁰ + 2×5⁻¹ + 4×5⁻² = 96.56

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Decimal to Base-R Conversion

- For whole numbers
 - Repeated Division-by-R Method
- For fractions
 - Repeated Multiplication-by-R Method

Repeated Divison-by-2

To convert a non-fractional number to binary, use successive division by 2 until the quotient is 0. The remainders form the answer, with the first remainder as the least significant bit (LSB) and the last as the most significant bit (MSB).

(43)₁₀ = (101011+)₂ 2 43
2 21 rem 1 ← LSB
2 10 rem 1
2 5 rem 0
2 2 rem 1
2 1 rem 0
0 rem 1 ← MSB

Repeated Multiplication-by-2

To convert a fractional number to binary, repeated multiplication by 2 is used, until the fractional product is 0 (or until the desired number of decimal places). The carried digits, or *carries*, produce the answer, with the first carry as the MSB, and the last as the LSB.

$$(0.3125)_{10} = (0.0101)_{2}$$
 Carry
$$0.3125 \times 2 = 0.625 \qquad 0 \qquad \leftarrow MSB$$

$$0.625 \times 2 = 1.25 \qquad 0$$

$$0.25 \times 2 = 0.50 \qquad 0$$

$$0.5 \times 2 = 1.00 \qquad 1 \qquad \leftarrow LSB$$

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Conversion Between Bases

In general, conversion between bases can be done as: Base-i → Decimal → Base-j

Shortcuts for conversion between bases of powers of 2 (e.g. 2, 4, 8, 16): Base-2^j → Base-2^j

Step 1. Write down digits of the input number each in i bits.

Step 2. From right side, partition the bits in groups of *j* bits.

Step 3. Write down the equivalent of each group in Base-j notation.

Example: Convert (7452)₈ to hexadecimal.

$$7452_8 \rightarrow 111\ 100\ 101\ 010 \rightarrow 111\ 100\ 101\ 010 \rightarrow 111\ 100\ 101\ 010 \rightarrow 111\ 100\ 101\ 010$$

F2A₁₆

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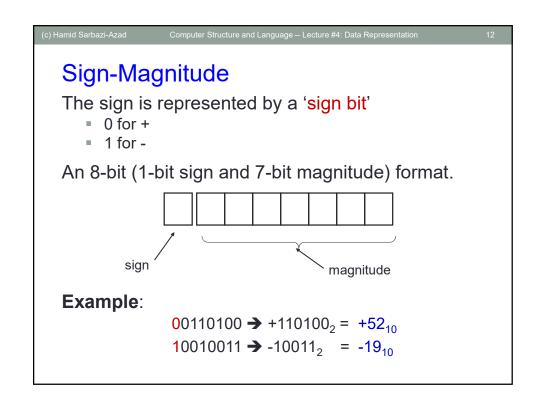
Negative Numbers

Unsigned numbers: only non-negative values

Signed numbers: include all values (positive and negative)

There are 4 representations for signed binary numbers:

- Sign-Magnitude
- 1s-Complement
- 2s-Complement
- Excess-Number (not much popular but used for some cases)



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Sign-Magnitude

Largest value (8 bits): 01111111 = +127₁₀

Smallest value (8 bits): 11111111 = -127₁₀

Zeros (8 bits):
00000000 = +0₁₀

 $10000000 = -0_{10}$

Range (8-bit): -127₁₀ to +127₁₀

Question: For an *n*-bit sign-magnitude representation, what is the range of values that can be represented?

Answer: $-(2^{n-1}-1)$ to $2^{n-1}-1$

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Sign-Magnitude

To negate a number, just invert the sign bit.

Examples:

- How to negate 00100001_{sm} (decimal 33)?
 Answer: 10100001_{sm} (decimal -33)
- How to negate 10000101_{sm} (decimal -5)? Answer: 00000101_{sm} (decimal +5)

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Sign-Magnitude Computation

Addition: To compute S = A + B where $A (A_s | A_m)$ and $B (B_s | B_m)$, represented in sign-magnitude format, we need to consider different conditions:

if $A_s=B_s$ then return S $(A_s | A_m+B_m)$ else

if $A_s=1$ & $A_m < B_m$ then return S (0 | $B_m - A_m$)

if $A_s=1$ & $A_m>B_m$ then return S (1 | A_m-B_m)

if $A_s=0$ & $A_m < B_m$ then return S (1 | $B_m - A_m$)

if $A_s=0$ & $A_m>B_m$ then return S (0 | A_m-B_m)

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Sign-Magnitude Computation

Subtraction: To compute S = A - B where $A (A_s | A_m)$ and $B (B_s | B_m)$, represented in sign-magnitude format, we need to consider different conditions:

if $A_s \neq B_s$ then return S $(A_s \mid A_m + B_m)$ else

if $A_s=1$ & $A_m < B_m$ then return S (0 | B_m-A_m)

if $A_s=1$ & $A_m>B_m$ then return S (1 | A_m-B_m)

if $A_s=0$ & $A_m < B_m$ then return S (1 | $B_m - A_m$)

if $A_s=0$ & $A_m>B_m$ then return S (0 | A_m-B_m)

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Sign-Magnitude Computation

Multiplication: To compute S = A * B where $A (A_s | A_m)$ and $B (B_s | B_m)$, represented in sign-magnitude format, we have:

$$S(A_s \times B_s | A_m B_m)$$

Division: To compute S = A / B where $A (A_s | A_m)$ and $B (B_s | B_m)$, represented in sign-magnitude format, we have:

$$S(A_s \times B_s \mid A_m/B_m)$$

Sign-magnitude computation (specifically addition/ subtraction) is complex and requires more hardware with respect to others (1s- and 2s-complement)!

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1s-Complement

Given a number **x** which can be expressed as an *n*-bit binary number, its <u>negated value</u> can be obtained in **1s-Complement** representation as:

$$-x = 2^n - x - 1$$

Example: With an 8-bit number 00001100 (or 12₁₀), its negated value expressed in 1s-complement is:

$$-00001100_2 = 2^8 - 12 - 1$$
 (calculation done in decimal)
= 243
= 11110011₂

This means that -12_{10} is written as 11110011 in 8-bit 1s-complement representation.

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1s-Complement

- Technique to negate a value: invert all the bits.
- Largest value (8 bits): 01111111 = +127₁₀
- Smallest value(8 bits): 10000000 = -127₁₀
- Zeros (8 bits): $00000000 = +0_{10}$
 - $111111111 = -0_{10}$
- Range (8 bits): -127₁₀ to +127₁₀
- Range (*n* bits): $-(2^{n-1}-1)$ to $2^{n-1}-1$

The most significant bit (MSB) still represents the sign, i.e. 0 for +, 1 for -.

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1s-Complement for Addition/Subtraction

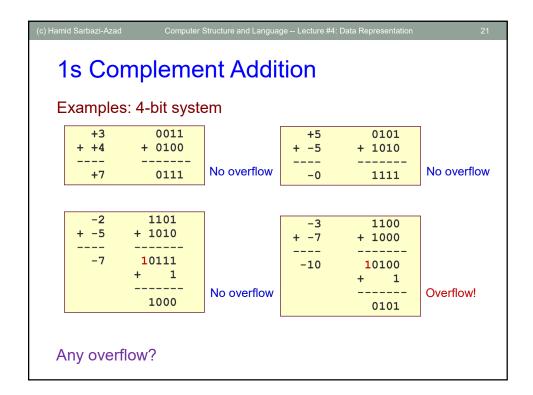
Algorithm for addition of integers, A + B:

- 1. Perform binary addition on the two numbers.
- 2. Add the carry out of the MSB to the result.
- Check for overflow. Overflow occurs if result is opposite sign of A and B.
- If the result of addition/subtraction goes beyond this range, an overflow occurs.
- Overflow can be easily detected:
 - positive + positive → negative
 - negative + negative → positive

Algorithm for subtraction of integers, A - B:

$$A - B = A + (-B) = A + 1s$$
-Complement (B)

- 1. Take 1s-complement of B.
- 2. Add the 1s-complement of B to A.



2s-Complement

Given a number **x** which can be expressed as an *n*-bit binary number, its <u>negated value</u> can be obtained in **2s**-**complement** representation using:

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

Example: With an 8-bit number 00001100 (or 12_{10}), its negated value expressed in 2s-complement is:

$$-00001100_2 = 2^8 - 12$$
 (calculation done in decimal)
= 244
= 11110100

This means that -12_{10} is written as 11110100 in 8-bit 2s-complement representation.

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2:

2s-Complement

Technique to negate a value: invert all the bits, then add 1. Alternatively, from right to left, write down the bits until the first 1 bit, then invert the remaining bits.

Largest value (8 bits): 01111111 = +127₁₀

Smallest value (8 bits): 10000000 = -128₁₀

• Zero (8 bits): $00000000 = +0_{10}$

Range (8 bits): -128₁₀ to +127₁₀

• Range (*n* bits): -2^{n-1} to $2^{n-1} - 1$

The most significant bit (MSB) still represents the sign: 0 for +, 1 for -.

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2s-Complement for Addition/Subtraction

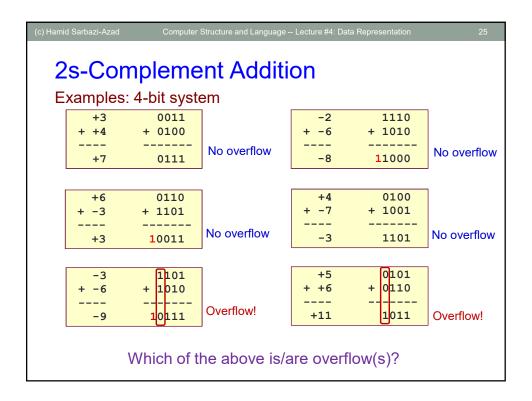
Algorithm for addition, A + B:

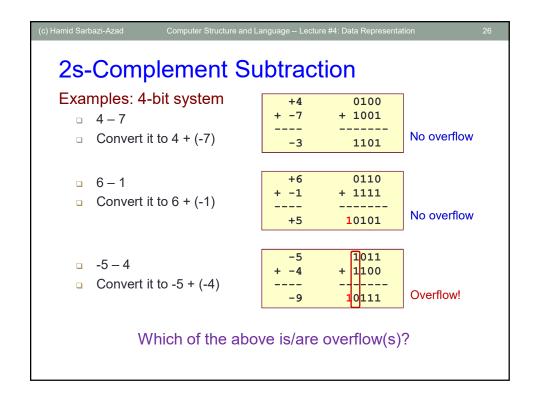
- 1. Perform binary addition on the two numbers.
- 2. Ignore the final carry out of the MSB.
- Check for overflow. Overflow occurs if the 'carry in' and 'carry out' of the MSB are different, or if result has the opposite sign of both A and B.

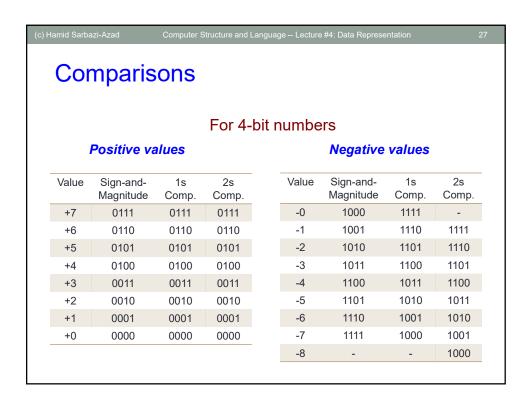
Algorithm for subtraction, A - B:

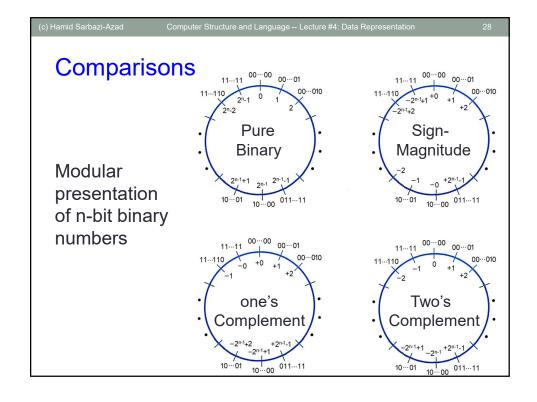
$$A - B = A + (-B) = A + 2s$$
-Complement (B)

- 1. Take 2s-complement of B.
- 2. Add the result to A.









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Homework

1. Prove that adding two A and B in 1s-complement system using a binary adder and then adding the generated carry (round around carry) to the result, will produce A+B in 1s-complement system.

Note: Consider all possible combinations of A and B and then show that the result is correct.

Example: A<0, B<0 \Rightarrow 2ⁿ-|A|-1 + 2ⁿ-|B|-1 = 2ⁿ+2ⁿ-(|A|+|B|)-2.

Now, by adding the round around carry (2^n) to the result we have $2^n-(|A|+|B|)-2+1=2^n-(|A|+|B|)-1$ which is OK.

2. Prove that adding two A and B in 2s-complement system using a binary adder will produce A+B in 2s-complement system.

Note: Consider all possible combinations of A and B and then show that the result is correct.

Example: A<0, B<0 \Rightarrow 2ⁿ-|A| + 2ⁿ-|B| = 2ⁿ+2ⁿ-(|A|+|B|) which is OK.

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Complement on Fractions

We can extend the idea of complement on fraction part too.

Examples:

Negate 01011.011 in Sign-Magnitude

Answer: 11011.011

Negate 11000.010 in 1s-complement

Answer: 00111.101

Negate 01001.011 in 2s-complement

Answer: 10110.101

Excess Representation

Beside sign-magnitude and complement schemes, the excess representation is another scheme.

It allows the range of values to be distributed evenly between the positive and negative values, by a simple level transition (addition or subtraction).

Excess-4 Representation	Value
000	-4
001	-3
010	-2
011	-1
100	0
101	1
110	2
111	3

-7

-6

-5

-4

-3

-2

-1

1

2

3

4

5

6 7

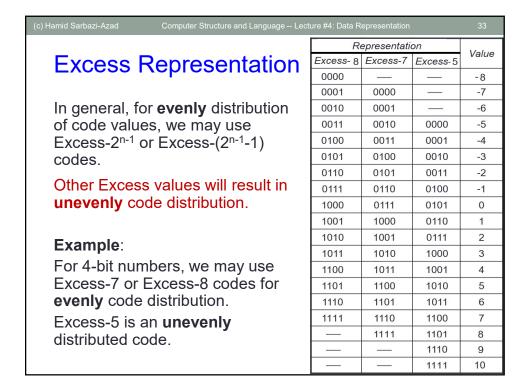
1101

1110 1111

Example:

Excess-4 representation on 3-bit numbers.

Excess Representation Excess-Y Value Representation 0000 In general, for evenly distribution 0001 of code values, we may use 0010 Excess- 2^{n-1} or Excess- $(2^{n-1}-1)$ 0011 codes. 0100 0101 0110 Example: .111 1000 For 4-bit numbers, we may use 1001 Excess-7 or Excess-8 codes. 1010 1011 Excess-\(^{\text{\text{}}}\) is shown here. 1100



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Real Numbers

- Many applications involve computations not only on integers but also on real numbers.
- How are real numbers represented in a computer system?

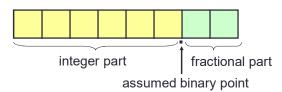
Due to the finite number of bits, real number are often represented in their approximate values.

- Real numbers can be represented in two forms:
 - Fixed-point
 - Floating-point

Fixed-Point Representation

In fixed-point representation, the number of bits allocated for the integer part and fractional part are fixed.

Example: Given an 8-bit representation (6 bits for integer part and 2 bits for fractional part), we have:



If 2s-complement is used, we can represent values like:

$$011010.11 = 26.75_{10}$$

 $111110.11 = -000001.01_2 = -1.25_{10}$

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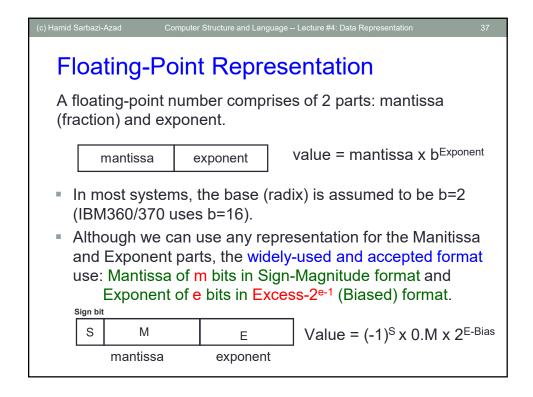
Floating-Point Representation

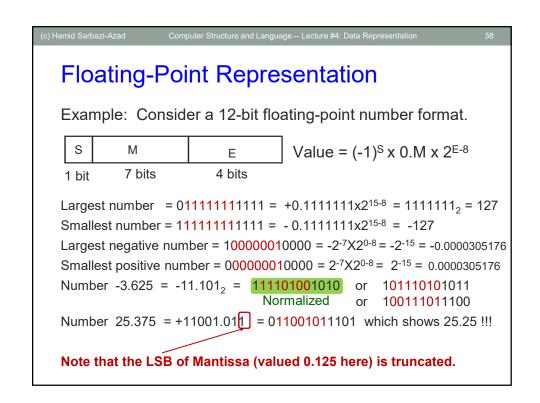
Fixed-point representation has limited range.

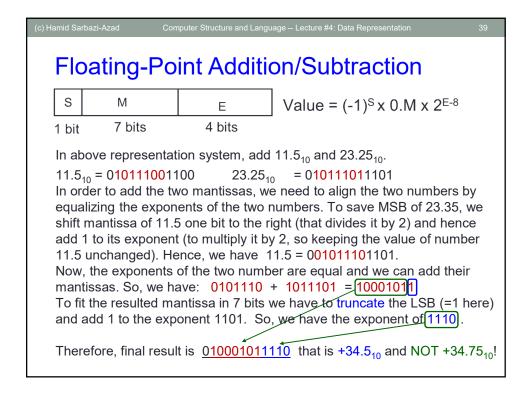
Alternative: Floating-point numbers allow us to represent very large and very small numbers.

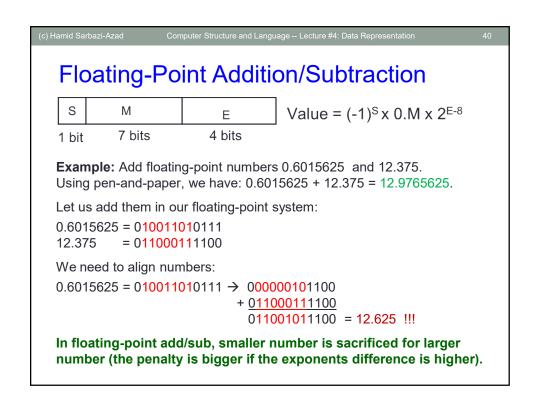
Examples:

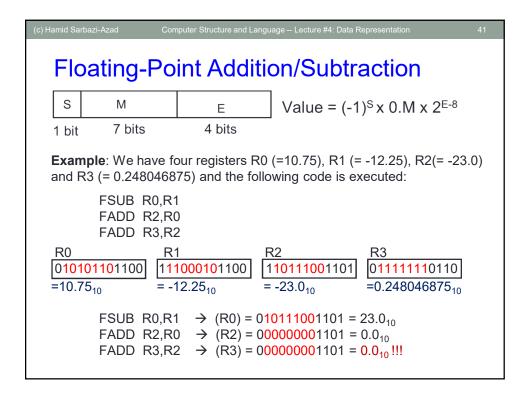
- + 0.23×10^{23} (very large positive number)
- + 0.5×10^{-37} (very small positive number)
- 0.2397 × 10⁻¹⁸ (very small negative number)

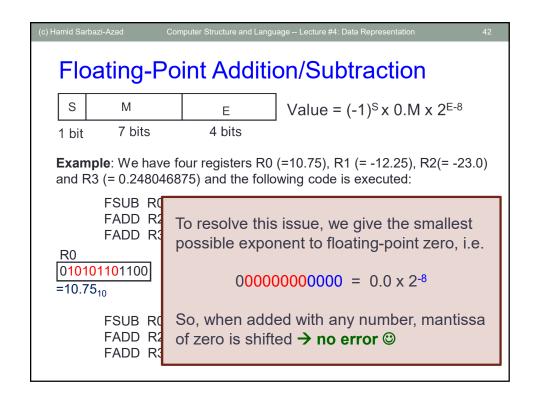












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Floating-Point Representation

Question 1: Normalization

What are the benefits of normalizing floating-point numbers?

- 1. Best using the allocated bits for mantissa
- 2. Making the representation of each number unique.

Question 2: Smallest exponent for 0.0

Why should we consider the smallest possible exponent for floating-point zero?

To minimize computations error.

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Floating-Point Representation

Question 3: Biased exponent

What are the benefits of having biased exponent?

- 1. Having a pattern of zero bits to represent float-point number 0.0
- 2. Exponents comparison will be simpler (less complexity)
- 3. Checking for a floating-point number being zero/non-zero can be done by the circuit used for integer numbers
- 4. No need to have additional opcodes for conditional jump on zero/not-zero instructions for floating-point numbers

What are the negative points of biased exponent?

- 1. Additional bias in floating-point multiplication
- 2. Removed bias in floating-point division

IEEE 754 Floating-Point Representation

a fields: sign, exponent and fraction (mantissa's magnitude)

S E F Value = (-1)^S x 1.F x 2^{E-Bias}

Two formats:

Single-precision (32 bits)
1-bit sign, 8-bit exponent (bias=127) and 23-bit fraction

Double-precision (64 bits)
1-bit sign, 11-bit exponent (bias= 1023) and 52-bit fraction

Mantissa is normalized with an implicit leading bit 1.

110.1₂ → normalized → 1.101₂ × 2² → only 101 is stored in the fraction field

0.00101101₂ → normalized → 1.01101₂ × 2-3 → only 01101 is stored in the fraction field

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IEEE 754 Floating-Point Representation

Floating Point Range

	Denormalized	Normalized	Approximate Decimal
Single Precision	$\pm 2^{-149}$ to $(1-2^{-23}) \times 2^{-126}$	± 2 ⁻¹²⁶ to (2-2 ⁻²³)×2 ¹²⁷	± ≈10 ^{-44.85} to ≈10 ^{38.53}
Double Precision	$\pm 2^{-1074}$ to $(1-2^{-52})\times 2^{-1022}$	± 2 ⁻¹⁰²² to (2-2 ⁻⁵²)×2 ¹⁰²³	$\pm \approx 10^{-323.3}$ to $\approx 10^{308.3}$

Special values: when exponent field's bits are all 0s or all 1s.

- 1. **Denormalized number**. When the exponent is all 0s, then the value is denormalized, and the value of the FP number is: (-1)^sx 0.f x 2⁻¹²⁶ in single precision format and (-1)^sx 0.f x 2⁻¹⁰²² in double precision format.
- **2. Zero**. A denormalized number where f is all 0s. We have +0 and -0 which compare equal.

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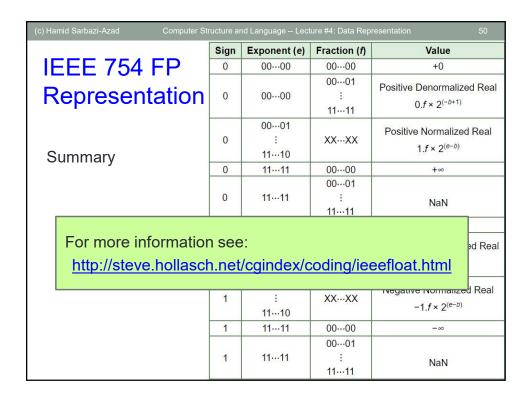
IEEE 754 Floating-Point Representation

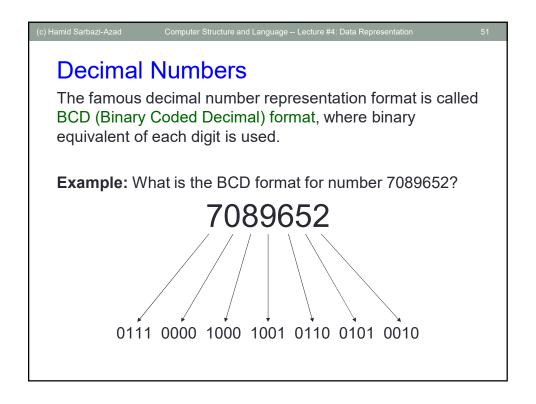
Special values: when exponent field's bits are all 0s or all 1s.

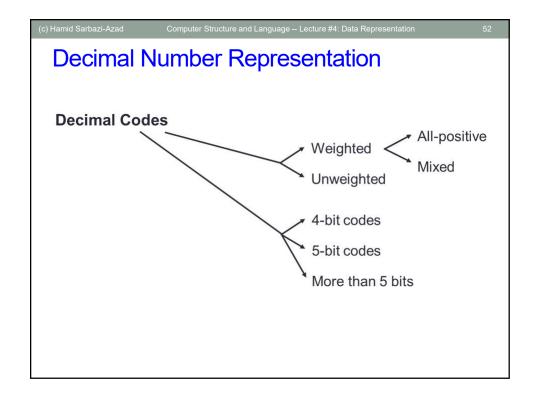
- Denormalized number. When the exponent is all 0s, then the value is denormalized, and the value of the FP number is:

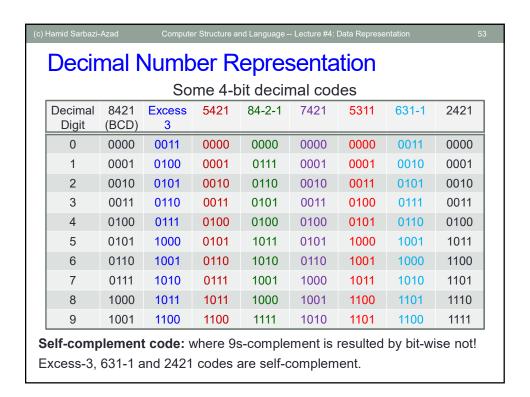
 (-1)^sx 0.f x 2⁻¹²⁶ in single precision format and
 (-1)^sx 0.f x 2⁻¹⁰²² in double precision format.
- **2. Zero**. A denormalized number where fraction is all 0s. We have +0 and -0 which compare equal.
- Infinity. The values +∞ and -∞ are denoted with an exponent of all 1s and a fraction of all 0s.
- 4. Not A Number (NaN). The value NaN is used to represent a value that does not represent a real number. NaN's are represented by a bit pattern with an exponent of all 1s and a non-zero fraction.

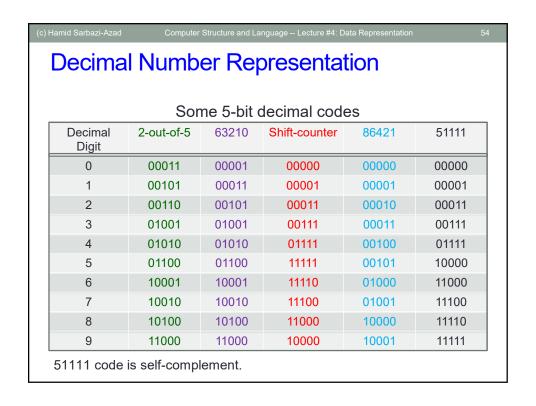
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IEEE 754 FP	Operation	Result	
Representation	n ÷ ±∞	0	
	±∞ × ±∞	±∞	
	±nonZero ÷ ±0	±∞	
	±finite × ±∞	±∞	
	∞ + ∞	+∞	
Arithmetic operations	∞∞		
with special values	-∞ - ∞		
	-∞ + -∞		
	∞ − ∞	NaN	
	-∞ + ∞		
	±0 ÷ ±0	NaN	
	±∞ ÷ ±∞	NaN	
	±∞ × 0	NaN	
	NaN == NaN	false	

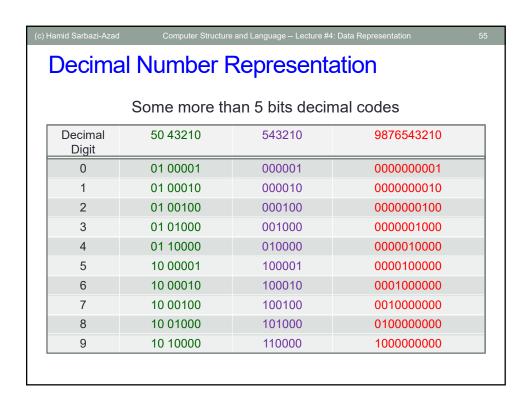


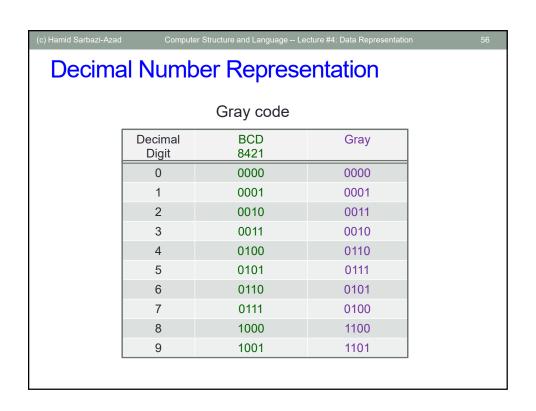


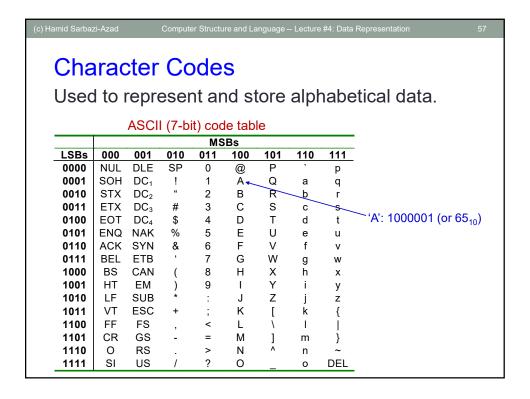












Character Codes
Famous character codes:

ASCII (American Standard Code for Information Interchange): 8-bit code (7 bits + 1 bit parity) that is popular in personal computers

EBCDIC (Extended Binary Coded Decimal Interchange Code): 8-bit IBM standard character code

Unicode (Universal code): uses 8 bits (UFT-8), 16 bits (UFT-16) or 32 bits (UFT-32) to show all characters in all languages. See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unicode.

END OF SLIDES