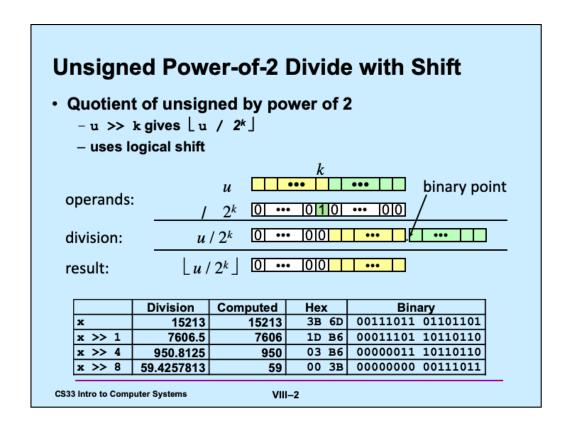
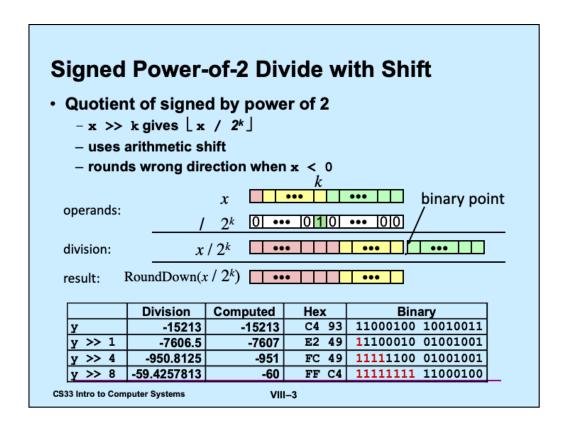
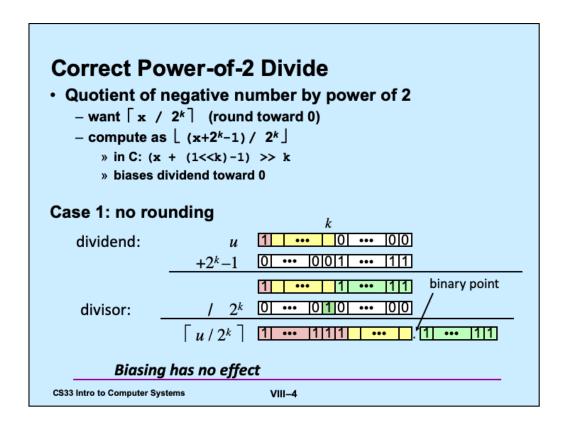
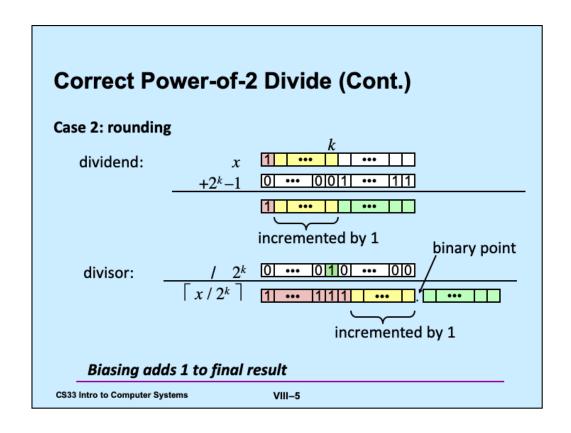


Many of the slides in this lecture are either from or adapted from slides provided by the authors of the textbook "Computer Systems: A Programmer's Perspective." 2nd Edition and are provided from the website of Carnegie-Mellon University, course 15-213, taught by Randy Bryant and David O'Hallaron in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









Why Should I Use Unsigned?

- · Don't use just because number nonnegative
 - easy to make mistakes

```
unsigned i;
for (i = cnt-2; i >= 0; i--)
    a[i] += a[i+1];
- can be very subtle
    #define DELTA sizeof(int)
int i;
```

for (i = CNT; i-DELTA >= 0; i-= DELTA)

- · Do use when using bits to represent sets
 - logical right shift, no sign extension

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

Combining Bytes

- Data items of multiple sizes, usually powers of two
 - one-byte, two-byte, four-byte, eight-byte integers
 - four-byte and eight-byte floating-point numbers
- For example: four consecutive bytes interpreted as storing an integer (or a float)
 - for best performance, address of lowest byte should be a multiple of the size of the item (four in this case)

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The reason for the performance issue has to do with how the memory subsystem works, somethings that will be explained in a few weeks.

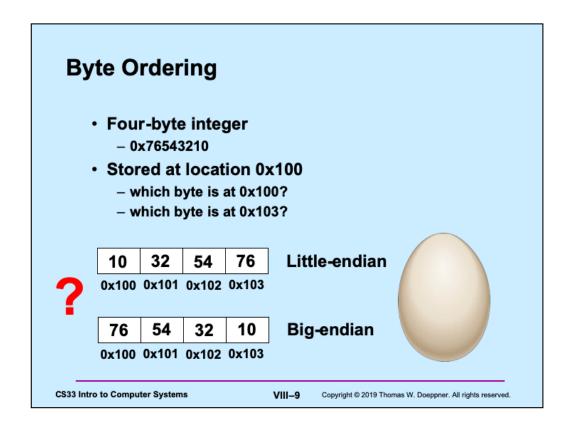
Word Size

- · (Mostly) obsolete term
 - old computers had items of one size: the word size
- Now used to express the number of bits necessary to hold an address
 - 16 bits (really old computers)
 - 32 bits (old computers)
 - 64 bits (most current computers)

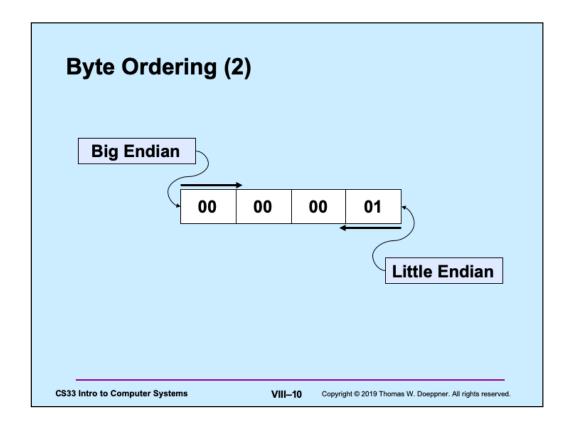
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Read "Gulliver's Travels" for an explanation of the egg.



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 procedure. However, in a type-mismatch, the procedure 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 1

```
int main() {
  long x=1;
 func((int *)&x);
 return 0;
void func(int *arg) {
 printf("%d\n", *arg);
```

What value is printed on a big-endian 64-bit computer?

- a) 0
- b) 1
- c) 2³²
- d) 2³²-1

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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 computers, it will print:

00010203

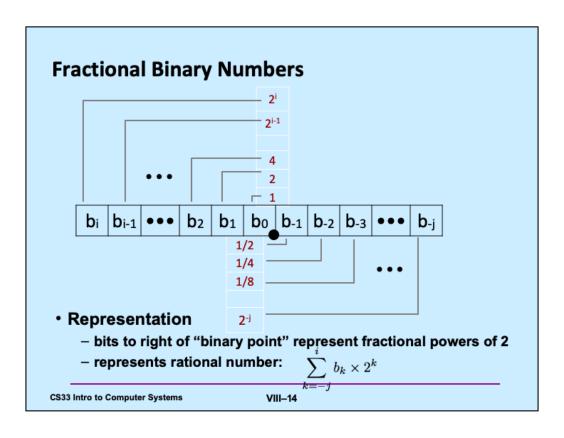
which means that the address of an int is the address of the byte containing its least significant digits (little endian).

Fractional binary numbers

• What is 1011.101₂?

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Representable Numbers

- Limitation #1
 - can exactly represent only numbers of the form n/2k
 - » other rational numbers have repeating bit representations
 - value representation
 - » 1/3 0.01010101[01]...2
 - » 1/5 0.001100110011[0011]...2
 - » 1/10 0.0001100110011[0011]...2
- Limitation #2
 - just one setting of decimal point within the w bits
 - » limited range of numbers (very small values? very large?)

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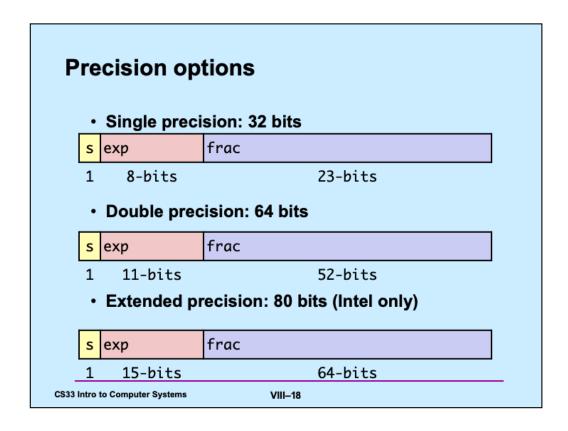
IEEE Floating Point

- IEEE Standard 754
 - established in 1985 as uniform standard for floating point arithmetic
 - » before that, many idiosyncratic formats
 - supported on all major CPUs
- · Driven by numerical concerns
 - nice standards for rounding, overflow, underflow
 - hard to make fast in hardware
 - » numerical analysts predominated over hardware designers in defining standard

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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



On x86 hardware, all floating-point arithmetic is done with 80 bits, then reduced to either 32 or 64 as required.

"Normalized" Values

- When: exp ≠ 000...0 and exp ≠ 111...1
- Exponent coded as biased value: E = Exp Bias
 - exp: unsigned value exp
 - bias = 2k-1 1, where k is number of exponent bits
 - » single precision: 127 (Exp: 1...254, E: -126...127)
 - » double precision: 1023 (Exp: 1...2046, E: -1022...1023)
- Significand coded with implied leading 1: M = 1.xxx...x2
 - xxx...x: bits of frac
 - minimum when frac=000...0 (M = 1.0)
 - maximum when frac=111...1 (M = 2.0ϵ)
 - get extra leading bit for "free"

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Normalized Encoding Example • Value: float F = 15213.0; $-15213_{10} = 11101101101101_2$ $= 1.1101101101101_2 \times 2^{13}$ Significand $M = 1.101101101101_2$ frac = Exponent E = 13 bias = 127 exp = 140 = 10001100₂ Result: frac exp **CS33 Intro to Computer Systems** VIII-20

Denormalized Values

- Condition: exp = 000...0
- Exponent value: E = -Bias + 1 (instead of E = 0 Bias)
- Significand coded with implied leading 0:

 $M = 0.xxx...x_2$

- xxx...x: bits of frac
- Cases
 - $\exp = 000...0$, frac = 000...0
 - » represents zero value
 - » note distinct values: +0 and -0 (why?)
 - $-\exp = 000...0$, frac $\neq 000...0$
 - » numbers closest to 0.0
 - » equispaced

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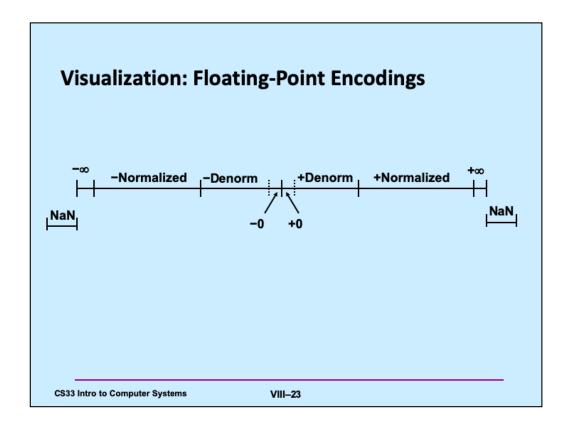
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Special Values

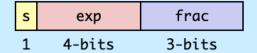
- Condition: exp = 111...1
- Case: exp = 111...1, frac = 000...0
 - represents value ∞ (infinity)
 - operation that overflows
 - both positive and negative
 - $e.g., 1.0/0.0 = -1.0/-0.0 = +\infty, 1.0/-0.0 = -\infty$
- Case: exp = 111...1, $frac \neq 000...0$
 - not-a-number (NaN)
 - represents case when no numeric value can be determined
 - e.g., sqrt(-1), ∞ ∞ , $\infty \times 0$

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Tiny Floating-Point Example

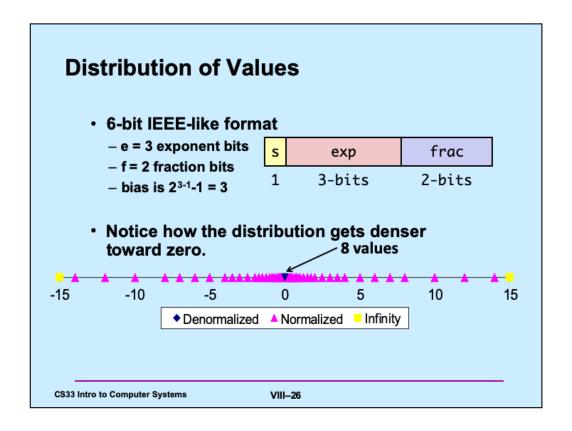


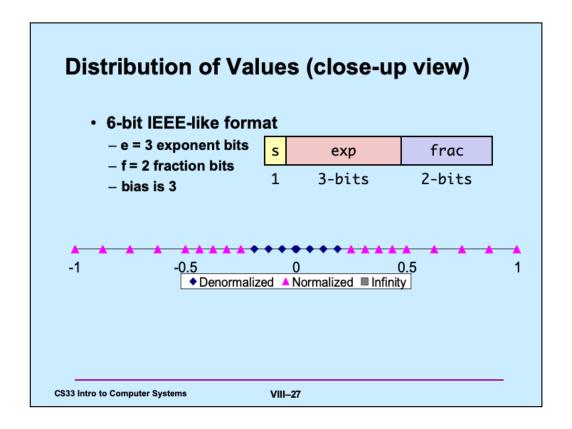
- · 8-bit Floating Point Representation
 - the sign bit is in the most significant bit
 - the next four bits are the exponent, with a bias of 7
 - the last three bits are the frac
- · Same general form as IEEE Format
 - normalized, denormalized
 - representation of 0, NaN, infinity

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Dynamic Range (Positive Only)						
	s exp f	frac E	Value			
	0 0000 0	000 -6	0			
	0 0000 0	001 -6	1/8*1/64 = 1/512	closest to zero		
Denormalized	0 0000 0	010 -6	2/8*1/64 = 2/512	Closest to Zelo		
numbers						
	0 0000 1	L10 -6	6/8*1/64 = 6/512			
	0 0000 1	L11 -6	7/8*1/64 = 7/512	largest denorm		
	0 0001 0	000 -6	8/8*1/64 = 8/512	smallest norm		
	0 0001 0	001 -6	9/8*1/64 = 9/512			
	0 0110 1		,,-			
	0 0110 1		,,-	closest to 1 below		
Normalized	0 0111 0		8/8*1 = 1			
numbers	0 0111 0		9/8*1 = 9/8	closest to 1 above		
	0 0111 0	010 0	10/8*1 = 10/8			
			14/0+100 - 004			
	0 1110 1		14/8*128 = 224			
	0 1110 1		15/8*128 = 240	largest norm		
	0 1111 0	000 n/a	inf			
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- · 6-bit IEEE-like format
 - e = 3 exponent bits
 - f = 2 fraction bits
 - bias is 3

s	exp	frac	
1	3-bits	2-bits	

- What number is represented by 0 011 10? a) 12
 - b) 1.5
 - c) .5
 - d) none of the above

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Floating-Point Operations: Basic Idea

- $x +_f y = Round(x + y)$
- $x \times_f y = Round(x \times y)$
- · Basic idea
 - first compute exact result
 - make it fit into desired precision
 - » possibly overflow if exponent too large
 - » possibly round to fit into frac

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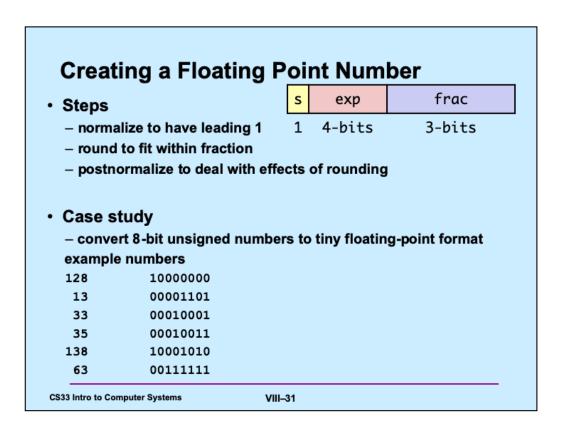
Rounding

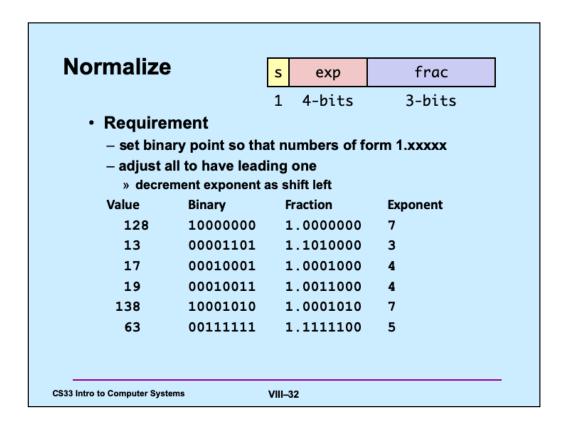
· Rounding modes (illustrated with \$ rounding)

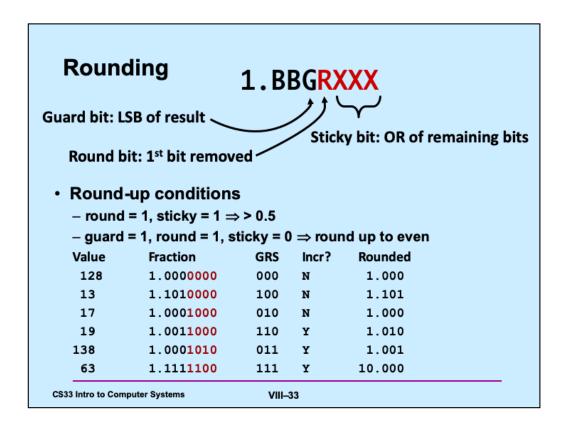
	\$1.40	\$1.60	\$1.50	\$2.50	-\$1.50
towards zero	\$1	\$1	\$1	\$2	- \$1
round down (−∞)	\$1	\$1	\$1	\$2	-\$2
round up (+∞)	\$2	\$2	\$2	\$3	- \$1
nearest integer	\$1	\$2	?	?	?
nearest even (default)	\$1	\$2	\$2	\$2	-\$2

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Postnormalize

- Issue
 - rounding may have caused overflow
 - handle by shifting right once & incrementing exponent

Value	Rounded	Exp	Adjusted	Result
128	1.000	7		128
13	1.101	3		13
17	1.000	4		16
19	1.010	4		20
138	1.001	7		134
63	10.000	5	1.000*26	64

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Floating-Point Multiplication

- (-1)^{s1} M1 2^{E1} x (-1)^{s2} M2 2^{E2}
- Exact result: (-1)s M 2E

sign s: s1 ^ s2
significand M: M1 x M2
exponent E: E1 + E2

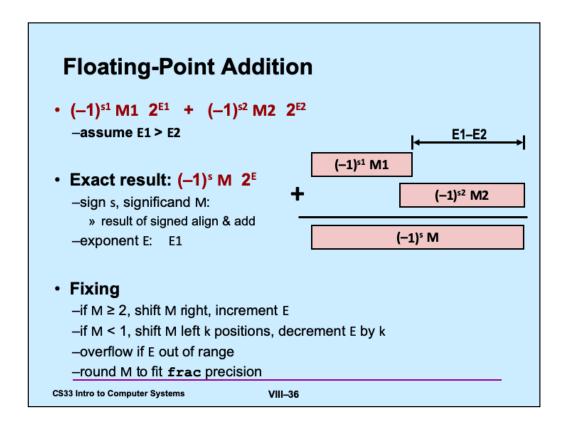
- Fixing
 - if M ≥ 2, shift M right, increment E
 - if E out of range, overflow (or underflow)
 - round M to fit frac precision
- Implementation
 - biggest chore is multiplying significands

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Note that to compute E, one must first convert \exp_1 and \exp_2 to E_1 and E_2 , then add them them together and check for underflow or overflow (corresponding to $-\infty$ and $+\infty$), and then convert to \exp .



Note that, by default, overflow results in either $+\infty$ or $-\infty$.