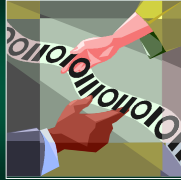


# Set Theory in Computer Science

Part 3

1




# Binary Numbers

Bit of This and a Bit of That

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## What is a Number?

- We use the Hindu-Arabic Number System
  - positional grouping system
  - each position is a power of 10
- Binary numbers
  - based on the same system
  - powers of **2** rather than 10
  - each digit is in the set  $\{0, 1\}$



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## Base 10 Number

The number **1783** is ...

$10^4$	$10^3$	$10^2$	$10^1$	$10^0$
10000	1000	100	10	1
<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>3</b>

$1000 + 700 + 80 + 3 = 1783$

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## Binary Number Example

The number **0100 1010** is ...

$2^7$	$2^6$	$2^5$	$2^4$	$2^3$	$2^2$	$2^1$	$2^0$
128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>

$64 + 8 + 2 = 74$

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## Binary Number Example

The number **1101 1011** is ...

$2^7$	$2^6$	$2^5$	$2^4$	$2^3$	$2^2$	$2^1$	$2^0$
128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>

$128 + 64 + 16 + 8 + 2 + 1 = 219$

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## Numbers are Tuples

- In Hindu-Arabic system, the order of the symbols is important – **so they are tuples**
- e.g.  $123 \neq 321$
- Other number styles use sets – i.e. the ancient Egyptian system



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## Looking at Numbers

- Numbers are tuples  $1947 \neq 1974$
- Members of the decimal number are also members of the set  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, 9\}$

$1947 \rightarrow (1, 9, 4, 7)$

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## Looking at Binary Numbers

- Binary numbers are tuples  $10010100 \neq 11100000$
- Members of the binary number are also members of the set  $\{0, 1\}$

$10100111 \rightarrow (1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1)$

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## Looking at Binary Numbers

- So, for a binary number  $B$ , all  $x \in B$  holds the following:  $x \in \{0, 1\}$

$10100111 \rightarrow (1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1)$

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## So....

$\{1776, 1846, 1947\} \rightarrow$   
 $\{ (1, 7, 7, 6), (1, 8, 4, 6), (1, 9, 4, 7) \}$

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## Let's Make a Set-Based System

- We are mostly used to tuple-based number systems
- But, for most of history, people used sets
- Let's create one

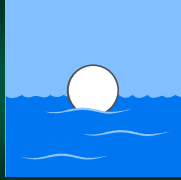


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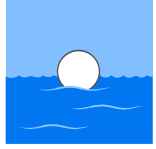
## Floating Point Numbers

Real numbers are *real* complex

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## Floating Point Numbers


- Often, programs need to perform mathematics on *real* numbers
- Floating point numbers* are used to represent quantities that cannot be represented by integers



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## Why use them?



- Regular binary numbers can only store whole positive and negative values
- Many numbers outside the range representable within the system's bit width (too large/small)

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## IEEE 754

- Practically modern computers use the *IEEE 754 Standard* to store floating-point numbers
- Represent by a mantissa and an exponent
  - similar to scientific notation
  - the value of a number is:  $\text{mantissa} \times 2^{\text{exponent}}$
  - uses signed magnitude

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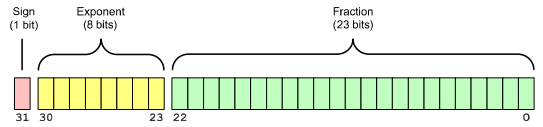
## IEEE 754

- Comes in three forms:
  - single-precision: 32-bit
  - double-precision: 64-bit
  - quad-precision: 128-bit
- Also supports special values:
  - negative and positive *infinity*
  - and "not a number" for errors (e.g. 1/0)

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## IEEE 754 Single Precision (32 bit)



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## Fractional Field

- The fraction field number that represents part of the mantissa
- If a number is in proper scientific notation...
  - it always has a single digit before the decimal place
  - for decimal numbers, this is 1..9 (never zero)
  - for base-2 numbers, it is always 1

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## Fractional Field

- So, do we need to store the leading 1? It will always be a 1
- The fraction field, therefore...
  - only represents the fractional portion of a binary number
  - the integer portion is assumed to be 1
  - this increases the number of significant digits that can be represented (by not wasting a bit)

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## Exponent Field

- The exponent field supports negative and positive values but does not use sign-magnitude or 2's complement
- Uses a "biased" integer representation
  - fixed value is added to the exponent before storing it
  - when interpreting the stored data, this fixed value is then subtracted

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## Exponent Field

- Bias is different depending on precision
  - single precision: 127
  - double precision: 1023
  - quad precision: 16383
- For example, for single precision...
  - exponent of 12 stored as  $(+12 + 127) \rightarrow 139$
  - exponent of -56 stored as  $(-56 + 127) \rightarrow 71$

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## Interpretation: Normal Case

- Exponent Field: not all 0's or all 1's
- Fraction Field: Any

$$\pm (1.\text{fraction}) \times 2^{(\text{exponent} - \text{bias})}$$

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## Interpretation: Zero

- Exponent Field: all 0's
- Fraction Field: all 0's

0

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## Interpretation: Tiny Numbers

- Exponent Field: all 0's
- Fraction Field: Any

$$\pm (0.\textit{fraction}) \times 2^{(1 - \textit{bias})}$$

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## Interpretation: Infinity

- Exponent Field: **All** 1's
- Fraction Field: 0

$$\pm \textit{infinity}$$

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## Interpretation: Invalid Numbers

- Exponent Field: **All** 1's
- Fraction Field: Not 0

*Not a number (NaN)*

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## Interpretation: Invalid Numbers

*NaN* → 1 / 0

*Naan* → 

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## More Single-Precision Examples

Zero:

0 00000000 000000000000000000000000

Positive Infinity:

0 11111111 000000000000000000000000

Negative Infinity:

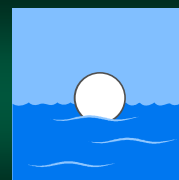
1 11111111 000000000000000000000000

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Let's Encode  
Some  
Numbers!

This is actually fun!

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## Something Else About Numbers...

The number **36.74** is ...

$10^2$	$10^1$	$10^0$	$10^{-1}$	$10^{-2}$
100	10	1	1/10	1/100
<b>0</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>4</b>

$$= (3 \times 10) + (6 \times 1) + 7/10 + 4/100$$

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## Binary Fractions!

The number **101.011** is ...

$2^4$	$2^3$	$2^2$	$2^1$	$2^0$	$2^{-1}$	$2^{-2}$	$2^{-3}$
16	8	4	2	1	1/2	1/4	1/8
<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>

$$= 4 + 1 + 1/4 + 1/8 = 5.375$$

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## Let's Encode 14.25 (32 bit)

- First, we need to convert 14.25 to its binary equivalent
- So, we need to calculate the integer part and fraction part of the number
- Everything after the decimal is a fraction
  - 0.25 is actually 25 / 100
  - we need to find the base 2 equivalent (1/4)

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## Step 1: Convert to binary

$$14 \rightarrow 1110$$

$$0.25 \rightarrow 1/4 \rightarrow 0.01$$

binary 01 / 100

Hence:

$$14.25 \rightarrow 1110.01$$

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## Step 2: Scientific Notation

- IEEE stores the data in scientific notation
- So we move the "binary point" over

$$1110.01 \rightarrow 1.11001 \times 2^3$$

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## Step 2: Scientific Notation

- In binary scientific notation, the leading digit is always going to be 1
- Why store it? IEEE doesn't.
- Only data after the point is encoded

$$1.11001 \times 2^3 \rightarrow (1 + .11001) \times 2^3$$

Fraction

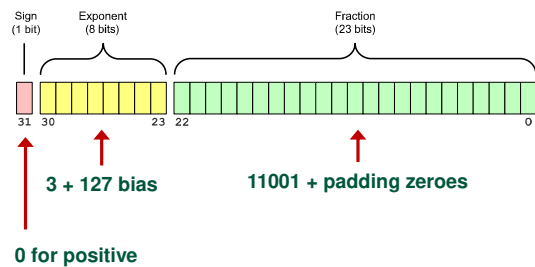
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### Step 3: Encode



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### Result: 14.25 (32 bit)

- The following is the encoded version of 14.25
- The rules are similar for double-precision

```
0 10000010 11001000000000000000000
```

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### Result: 14.25 (32 bit)

- We can also convert this into bytes
- Note: the floating point fields don't really "fit" cleanly into actual bytes

```
01000001 01100100 00000000 00000000
 41      64      00      00
```

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### Example 2: Encode 13.75 (32 bit)

- First, we need to convert 13.75 to its binary equivalent
- So, we need to calculate the integer part and fraction part of the number
- Everything after the decimal is a fraction
  - 0.75 is actually 75 / 100
  - we need to find the base 2 equivalent (3/4)

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### Step 1: Convert to binary

```
13 → 1101
0.75 → 3/4 → 0.11
Hence :
13.75 → 1101.11
```

binary 11 / 100

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### Step 2: Scientific Notation

- IEEE stores the data in scientific notation
- So we move the "binary point" over

```
1101.11 → 1.10111 × 23
```

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## Step 2: Scientific Notation

- In binary scientific notation, the leading digit is always going to be 1
- Why store it? IEEE doesn't.
- Only data after the point is encoded

$$1.10111 \times 2^3 \rightarrow (1 + \text{Fraction}) \times 2^3$$

Fraction

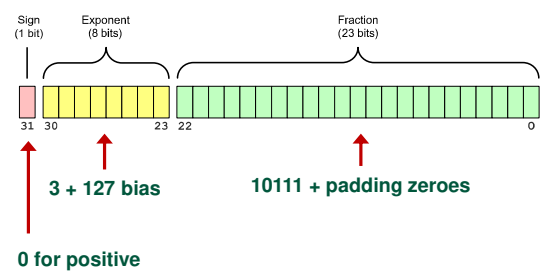
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## Step 3: Encode



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## Result: 13.75 (32 bit)

- The following is the encoded version of 13.75
- The rules are similar for double-precision

0 10000010 101110000000000000000000

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## Result: 13.75 (32 bit)

- We can also convert this into bytes
- Note: the floating point fields don't really "fit" cleanly into actual bytes

01000001 01011100 00000000 00000000

41 5C 00 00

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## Tuples and Floats

Its all set theory, folks!

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## Floats Are Tuples

- Just like regular binary numbers, floating-point numbers of tuples
- They consist of three fields making them 3-tuples

(sign, exponent, fraction)

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## Encoding of 14.25

- Sign is a 1-tuple
- Exponent is a 8-tuple
- Fraction is a 23-tuple

0 10000010 110010000000000000000000

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## Set Notation of 14.25

( (0),  
 (1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0),  
 (1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0,  
 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0,  
 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0) )

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## Bit Vectors

Sets and Bits

## Bit Vectors

- A *bit vector* is a way to store countable sets using bits
- Also known as a *bit array*, *bit set*, and *bit map*
- Compact format that can perform a set operations with a single operation (*fast!*)

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## Bit Vectors

- Each object in the universe is given a single bit in the bit array
- If the  $x \in A$ , then the bit is 1, otherwise 0
- Order is important, so this is a tuple approach

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## Example 1

- $U = \{ \text{fry, bender, farnsworth, leela, zoidberg} \}$
- $A = \{ \text{fry, bender, leela} \}$

U = 11111  
 A = 11010

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## Example 2

- $U = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19\}$
- $A = \{3, 5, 11, 19\}$

$U = 11111111$   
 $A = 01101001$

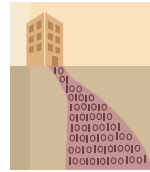
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## Why this is useful



- Computers can easily perform **and** & **or** operations on bytes (or multiple bytes)
- This means set operations can be performed amazingly fast

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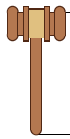
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## Let's look at the definitions again...

- The definitions of union and intersection are nearly identical
- The relationship between the elements is defined using an **and** or **or**



$A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$   
 $A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$

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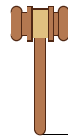
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## Let's look at the definitions again...

- We can apply a **bit-wise-and** & a **bit-wise-or** to our bit array
- It will apply the operation to each of the bits in matching columns



$A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$   
 $A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$

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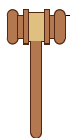
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## Let's look at the definitions again...

- So, each bit in **A** will be compared to its matching bit in **B**
- Bit match can do sets!



$A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$   
 $A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$

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## Example: Union (using or)

$U = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g\}$   
 $A = \{b, c, d\} = 0111000$   
 $B = \{d, e, f\} = 0001110$

0111000  
 or 0001110  
 0111110 =  $\{b, c, d, e, f\}$

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## Example: Intersection (using and)

$U = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g\}$   
 $A = \{b, c, d\} = 0111000$   
 $B = \{d, e, f\} = 0001110$

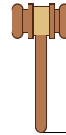
$$\begin{array}{r} 0111000 \\ \text{and } 0001110 \\ \hline 0001000 = \{d\} \end{array}$$

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## Complement

- How do we do a complement of a set  $A$ ?
- We must flip all the bits from 1 to 0, and 0 to 1
- We can use a *binary-not* or the *XOR* operation



$$A' = \{x \mid x \notin A\}$$

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## Java/C Code

**Intersection :**  $a \ \& \ b$   
**Union :**  $a \ | \ b$   
**Complement :**  $\sim a$

$\&\&$  and  $||$  are Boolean.  
These are bit-wise.

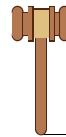
The tilde  $\sim$  is a bitwise not.

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## Exclusion

- Finally, how do we do set difference?
- The "subtract" operator will *not* work
- Let's look at the definition a bit more closely



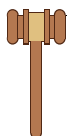
$$A \setminus B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$$

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## Exclusion

- It's essentially the definition of *intersection*
- Except, the second operand is the definition of *complement*.



$$A \setminus B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$$

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## Java/C Code

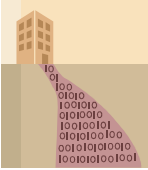
**Exclusion :**  $a \ \& \ \sim b$

Just complement the second operand

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## Limits of Bit Vectors



- Bit vectors, while useful, do have some notable limitations
- They only work on finite, countable sets
- For all other cases, you will have to work use a more advanced ADT

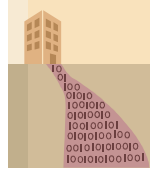
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## CSC 130 is waiting for you!



- For most cases, a very sophisticated list or tree can be used
- You will need to know:
  - lists / trees
  - sorting
  - binary-searches
  - Big-O

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