

**School of Computing Science
Simon Fraser University**

CMPT 120 - Introduction to Computing Science and Programming

Term: Fall 2012-3

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NOTE: section numbers ("§") refer to the CMPT-120 Study Guide.

Notes 9: Binary Arithmetic

1. (§2.6) Binary Number Representation

- Modern computers are "binary digital computers" meaning that they compute using binary numbers.
- What are binary numbers?
- Definition: a **binary number** is a number composed of only the digits 0 and 1 using a positional number representation.

- Examples:

0, 111, 011011001

- Number systems are characterized by the number of digits used to represent values, called the **base** of the number system.
- Binary number are base-2
- While ordinary numbers using 10-digits ("0", "1", ..., "9") are base-10.
- Examples:

0, 128, 99999

- Note the difference between a number and its representation in some base.
- Every number can be represented in any base
- Examples:

$$0_{10} = 0_2$$

$$129_{10} = 10000001_2$$

$$99999_{10} = 11000011010011111_2$$

where we use the subscripts following the numbers to indicate in which base they are represented.

- Other popular bases include:
 - base-16 (called "hexadecimal" and pioneered by IBM)
digits = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F
 - base-8 (called "octal" and pioneered by Digital Equipment Corp - nay Oracle)
digits = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7

- Note that these bases are really binary "under the hood"
- Definition: a **positional number representation** represents arbitrarily large numbers using a fixed alphabet of digits organized such that digits (read right-to-left) represent successively higher orders of magnitude (of the base).

- Example: base-10

$$\begin{aligned} 129 &= 1 \cdot 10^2 + 2 \cdot 10^1 + 9 \cdot 10^0 \\ &= 100 + 20 + 9 \\ &= 129 \end{aligned}$$

- Example: base-2

$$\begin{aligned} 10000001 &= 1 \cdot 2^7 + 0 \cdot 2^6 + 0 \cdot 2^5 + 0 \cdot 2^4 + 0 \cdot 2^3 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 \\ &= 128 + 0 + 0 + 0 + 0 + 0 + 0 + 1 \\ &= 129 \end{aligned}$$

- Why do computers use binary arithmetic?
- Early computers used decimal arithmetic instead
- More natural for people (why?)
- How many digits do you have?
- Decimal computers used a number representation called "binary coded decimal" (BCD)
- BCD representation (using 4 binary digits)

$$0000 = 0$$

$$0001 = 1$$

$$0010 = 2$$

$$0011 = 3$$

$$0100 = 4$$

$$0101 = 5$$

$$0110 = 6$$

$$0111 = 7$$

$$1000 = 8$$

$$1001 = 9$$

$$1010 = \text{error}$$

$$1011 = \text{error}$$

$$1100 = \text{error}$$

$$1101 = \text{error}$$

$$1110 = \text{error}$$

$$1111 = \text{error}$$

- So the BCD representation wasted a lot of memory for illegal values
- Modern computers ALL use binary number representation
- Conversion from decimal to binary and back to decimal implemented as I/O functions

- See today's laboratory assignment
- BCD still popular in business/financial software
- Bad ideas never die!
- See: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binary-coded_decimal

2. Bits and Bytes

- Each piece of binary data is called a **bit** (smallest possible piece)
- In modern machines, bits are grouped into 8-bit pieces called **bytes** (for convenience)
- Computer arithmetic performed in 16-bit, 32-bit or now 64-bit chunks called **words**.
- First personal computer (Altair homebrew kit) used an 8-bit Intel 8080 chip.
- Memory sizes also expressed in bytes
- All sizes as powers of 2
- Examples:
 - kilobyte = 2^{10} bytes = 1024
 - megabyte = 2^{20} = 1048576
 - gigabyte = 2^{30} = 1073741824
- Why represent information in computers using binary data? Why not natural base-10?
- (1) Because binary data is robust in memory
 - magnetic polarity in hard disks
 - electrical charge in flash memory
 - electrical voltage in RAM memory
 - electrical voltage in CPU chips
 - pulses of light in optical fibers
- (2) Boolean logic is simple for implementation in hardware
 - arithmetic for boolean number is much simpler than base-10 arithmetic
 - can be implemented using simple boolean logic gates
 - examples: AND, OR, XOR, NOT, ...
 - logic gates are easy to make on integrated circuit chips (and cheap!)
 - we shall see how to perform binary arithmetic later . . .

3. Binary Arithmetic

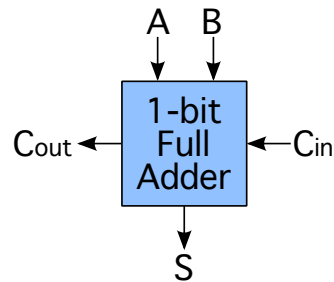
- Lets practice with binary addition
- Consider the following example:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1010 \\
 +0100 \\
 \hline
 1110
 \end{array}$$

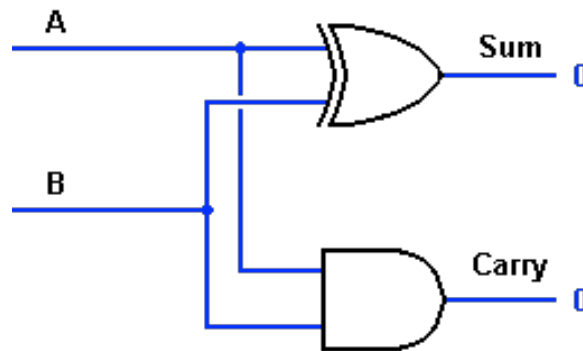
- Now an example with carries

$$\begin{array}{r} 1101 \\ +0101 \\ \hline 10010 \end{array}$$

- Exactly the same as decimal arithmetic (grade 3?)
- How does the computer CPU chip implement binary addition?



- Using boolean logic circuits (note the transition from arithmetic to logic)
- Here is the logic circuit for a 1-bit adder
- see: <http://www.circuitstoday.com/half-adder-and-full-adder>

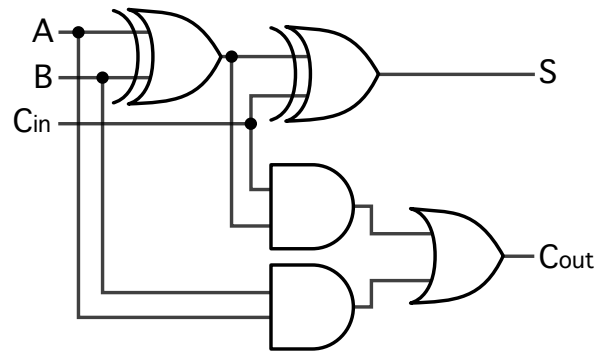


- Logic:

Carry = AND(A, B)

Sum = ExclusiveOR(A, B)

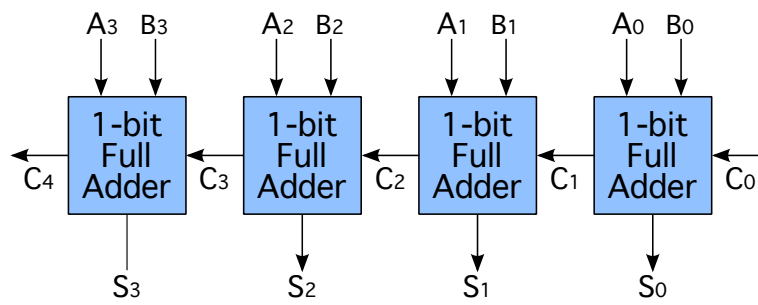
- Example: show sum and carry logic for binary addition
- Above is actually called a "half-adder" because it has no input for the carry bit. Need to use two half-adders to make a "full-adder" for each bit in the binary number.
- Here is a full-adder circuit (for curiosity sake only):



- These details are not important for our purposes

CPU_s

- We could "glue" 8 or 16 or more of these things (full adders) together to add larger numbers.



- This is how the CPU implements arithmetic
- *Observation:* building a modern computer CPU using boolean logic is straightforward

Simulation

- Lets simulate the logic of the full-adder in software.
- Full 8bit adder coded in Python

```

# full adder for 8bit binary arithmetic
# arguments are all 8-bit lists with high-order bit leftmost

def adder8bit(x, y, sum):
    carry = 0
    for i in range(7,-1,-1):
        sum[i] = (x[i] + y[i] + carry) % 2      # XOR gate
        carry = (x[i] + y[i] + carry) / 2      # AND gate
    return carry                                # overflow
  
```

- Simulates XOR and NAND gates using modulus arithmetic and integer division
- Examples: show addition of lists of binary numbers as registers

```
x = [00000011]      # 3 (base10)
y = [00000010]      # 2 (base10)
z = [00000000]      # 0 (base10)
adder8bit(x, y, z)
```

4. Signed vs Unsigned Numbers

- Above we considered **unsigned** arithmetic only (all positive)
- Java, C, C++ all provide operations for unsigned arithmetic
- How can we represent positive AND negative numbers?
- Called **signed arithmetic**
- How can we do subtraction, multiplication and division?
- Similar boolean logic circuits do it all!
- Handling negative numbers is particularly interesting
- Two approaches:
- (1) attach a **sign bit** to each number to indicate whether positive or negative

‣ Example

```
+0100
-0010
-----
+0010
```

- Sign bit is just the left-most (high-order) bit in the binary number
- But this approach is awkward
- Logic is complicated to implement
- (2) use a clever scheme called **2's-complement arithmetic**
- note that for n-bits there are 2^n possible patterns (permutations)
- for 8-bits there are $2^8 = 256$ possible numbers to represent
- in unsigned arithmetic the numbers are 0, 1, ..., 255
- BUT we could allocate half for positive and half for negative as follows:
- possible values are:

$$-2^{n-1}, \dots, -1, 0, +1, \dots, +2^{n-1}-1$$

- for 8bits this scale is:

$$-128, \dots, -1, 0, +1, \dots, +127$$

- note that zero is considered positive

- But those hardware engineers are even more clever!
- Negative values above are encoded different than positive values (called 2's complement)
- Negative values are coded as follows:
 - all the bits of the number are negated (flipped) from their positive version
 - 1 is added to the result

- Example:

```

0101      = +5
1010      = all bits flipped
1011      = -5 by adding one

```

- Advantages

- testing for negative value is easy (high order bit = 1)
- for positive numbers, the signed and unsigned versions are the same
- only one representation for zero
- addition and subtraction work the same (without testing the sign bit)

- Example: signed addition

```

1011      = -5
0100      = +4
-----
1111      = -1

```

- which can be seen by converting back to unsigned

```

1111
-1      # subtract 1
-----
1110      # now flip bits
0001      = 1

```

5. Conversions to/from Binary

- Already seen how to convert binary to a decimal above
- But as an algorithm for any base its similar

given a binary number x

let sum = 0

for the binary digit d scanning x from left to right:

sum = sum * 2 + d

return sum

- Example: convert 0101 to decimal

```
sum = 0
sum = sum * 2 + 0 = 0
sum = sum * 2 + 1 = 1
sum = sum * 2 + 0 = 2
sum = sum * 2 + 1 = 5
sum = 5
```

- Converting from a decimal value to binary
- Need to repeatedly find the lowest order bit and shift the remainder
- Similar to the 8-bit adder above
- Algorithm:

```
given a decimal number x
repeat:
    next digit = x % 2          # find low order bit
    x = x / 2                  # shift number to the right
until x = 0
```

- Example: convert decimal 3 to binary

```
x = 3
next digit = 3 % 2 = 1        # next binary digit = 1
x = x / 2 = 3 / 2 = 1
next digit = 1 % 2 = 1        # next binary digit = 1
x = x / 2 = 1/2 = 0
halt
```

6. Floating-Point Numbers

- Floating point numbers are a different "kettle of fish"
- What are they for?
- Compare: counting versus distance
- Counting uses integers
- Distance measure is a real value (arbitrarily small or large)
- Approximated in computer arithmetic using floating point representation
- Basic Idea: Use **scientific notation** to extend dynamic range
- Examples in decimal:

```
0.67788 * 1028          # large number
0.1 * 10-200             # very small number
```


- Scientific notation represents real numbers as:
 (<exp>, <fraction>)
 where <exp> is a signed integer
 and <fraction> is a signed integer fraction with the radix
 point at the far left

7. Characters and Strings

- Characters are stored in memory as binary patterns.
- Each character has a unique (assigned) bit pattern.
- Called a **character code**
- Patterns are organized to facilitate sorting
- Various character codes are defined.
- Examples: EBCDIC, ASCII, Unicode
- EBCDIC
 - defined by IBM for their IBM-360 series computers
 - circa 1963
 - very complicated extension of BCD numbering
 - see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Extended_Binary_Coded_Decimal_Interchange_Code
- ASCII = American Standard Code for Information Interchange
 - circa 1963
 - popular standard for many years
 - 7-bit code
- ASCII table:

Dec	Hex	Char	Dec	Hex	Char	Dec	Hex	Char	Dec	Hex	Char
0	00	Null	32	20	Space	64	40	@	96	60	`
1	01	Start of heading	33	21	!	65	41	A	97	61	a
2	02	Start of text	34	22	"	66	42	B	98	62	b
3	03	End of text	35	23	#	67	43	C	99	63	c
4	04	End of transmit	36	24	\$	68	44	D	100	64	d
5	05	Enquiry	37	25	%	69	45	E	101	65	e
6	06	Acknowledge	38	26	&	70	46	F	102	66	f
7	07	Audible bell	39	27	'	71	47	G	103	67	g
8	08	Backspace	40	28	(72	48	H	104	68	h
9	09	Horizontal tab	41	29)	73	49	I	105	69	i
10	0A	Line feed	42	2A	*	74	4A	J	106	6A	j
11	0B	Vertical tab	43	2B	+	75	4B	K	107	6B	k
12	0C	Form feed	44	2C	,	76	4C	L	108	6C	l
13	0D	Carriage return	45	2D	-	77	4D	M	109	6D	m
14	0E	Shift out	46	2E	.	78	4E	N	110	6E	n
15	0F	Shift in	47	2F	/	79	4F	O	111	6F	o
16	10	Data link escape	48	30	0	80	50	P	112	70	p
17	11	Device control 1	49	31	1	81	51	Q	113	71	q
18	12	Device control 2	50	32	2	82	52	R	114	72	r
19	13	Device control 3	51	33	3	83	53	S	115	73	s
20	14	Device control 4	52	34	4	84	54	T	116	74	t
21	15	Neg. acknowledge	53	35	5	85	55	U	117	75	u
22	16	Synchronous idle	54	36	6	86	56	V	118	76	v
23	17	End trans. block	55	37	7	87	57	W	119	77	w
24	18	Cancel	56	38	8	88	58	X	120	78	x
25	19	End of medium	57	39	9	89	59	Y	121	79	y
26	1A	Substitution	58	3A	:	90	5A	Z	122	7A	z
27	1B	Escape	59	3B	;	91	5B	[123	7B	{
28	1C	File separator	60	3C	<	92	5C	\	124	7C	
29	1D	Group separator	61	3D	=	93	5D]	125	7D	}
30	1E	Record separator	62	3E	>	94	5E	^	126	7E	~
31	1F	Unit separator	63	3F	?	95	5F	_	127	7F	□

- Unicode
 - Successor to ASCII
 - contains as a subset
 - used by Java exclusively
 - 16-bit code
 - supports many languages / character sets