

## 2. Information Representation

### Informática

*Ingeniería en Electrónica y Automática Industrial*

RAÚL DURÁN DÍAZ    JUAN IGNACIO PÉREZ SANZ  
ÁLVARO PERALES ECEIZA

Departamento de Automática  
*Escuela Politécnica Superior*

Course 2014–2015

Rev: 1.12

## Contents

- 1 Numbers Representation
- 2 Bynary codification
- 3 Real numbers representation
- 4 Alphanumeric Information Representation

Rev: 1.12

## Positional Representation

- Positional representation is based on the next theorem:

### Theorem

Let  $b > 1$  be a positive integer. Any positive integer  $n$  can be written in a unique way as

$$n = \sum_{j=0}^k a_j b^j = a_k b^k + a_{k-1} b^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 b + a_0,$$

with  $0 \leq a_j \leq b - 1$  for  $j = 0, \dots, k$ , y  $a_k \neq 0$ .

- So we can write the positional representation of  $n$  as

$$n = (a_k, a_{k-1}, \dots, a_0),$$

or just  $a_k a_{k-1} \dots a_0$ .

Rev: 1.12

## Representation Bases

- As the theorem states, we can use any integer  $b$  as base to represent all integer numbers.
- Traditionally we use base  $b = 10$ , or *decimal*.
- However computers use base  $b = 2$  or *binary* to make information process more efficient inside them.
- It is very common to use base  $b = 16$  or *hexadecimal* as an easier and more compact way for humans to represent binary information

Rev: 1.12

## Rational numbers representation

- Rational numbers are always a ratio of two integers.
- To include the fractional part of a rational number, we can extend the positional system using the negative powers of the base:

$$n = \sum_{j=\ell}^k a_j b^j = a_k b^k + \dots + a_1 b + a_0 + a_{-1} b^{-1} + \dots + a_{\ell} b^{\ell},$$

with  $\ell \leq 0 \leq k$ .

- We can't represent exactly irrational numbers, (e.g.  $\sqrt{2}$ ,  $\pi$ ,  $e$ ), so we take as an approximation the closest rational number that we can represent.

## Rational numbers representation

- Let  $r$  be a rational number  $r = \left[ \frac{p}{q} \right]$  with  $q = b^s$  where  $b$  is the base and  $s$  any positive integer. Then  $r$  can be expressed as:

$$r = \frac{p}{q} = \frac{\sum_{j=0}^k p_j b^j}{b^s} = \sum_{j=0}^k p_j b^{j-s}.$$

- If  $k > s$ , then  $r$  can be expressed as

$$r = (p_k p_{k-1} \dots p_s, p_{s-1} \dots p_0),$$

where  $p_{s-1}, \dots, p_0$  are the coefficients of the negative powers of  $b$ .

## Base Change

- Let  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  be two different bases. Let  $(u, v)$  be a real number where  $u$  is the integer part and  $v$  is the fractional part.
- Then  $(u, v)$  can be represented with both bases:
  - With base  $b_1$ :  
 $u = (p_{k-1}p_{k-2} \cdots p_0)_{b_1}$ ,  $v = (, p_{-1}p_{-2} \cdots p_{-l})_{b_1}$ ,  
 with  $k, l > 0$ .
  - With base  $b_2$ :  
 $u = (q_{K-1}q_{K-2} \cdots q_0)_{b_2}$ ,  $v = (, q_{-1}q_{-2} \cdots q_{-L})_{b_2}$ ,  
 with  $K, L > 0$ .
- A very common task for computers is to pass from the representation in one base to the other (e.g. represent the decimal number 17 in binary).

Rev: 1.12

## Base Change

### To obtain the integer part:

Divide successively  $(u)_{b_1}$  by  $(b_2)_{b_1}$ . The remainders  $q_i$  are the digits of  $(u)_{b_2}$  starting with  $q_0$  until  $q_{K-1}$ .

### To obtain the fractional part:

Multiply successively  $(v)_{b_1}$  by  $(b_2)_{b_1}$ . After each multiplication, the integer parts  $q_i$  will form the digits of  $(v)_{b_2}$  (from  $q_{-1}$  to  $q_{-L}$ ). Before the next multiplication the previous integer part must be removed.

Rev: 1.12

## Example: Represent the decimal number 22.375 in binary (i.e. change from base 10 to base 2)

- Integer part:  $u = 22$

| dividend | quotient | remainder |
|----------|----------|-----------|
| 22       | 11       | 0         |
| 11       | 5        | 1         |
| 5        | 2        | 1         |
| 2        | 1        | 0         |
| 1        | 0        | 1         |

- Fractional part:  $v = ,375$

| multiplicand | product | integer part |
|--------------|---------|--------------|
| 0,375        | 0,75    | 0            |
| 0,75         | 1,5     | 1            |
| 0,5          | 2       | 1            |

- Therefore the result is 10110.011

Rev: 1.12

## Inverse Base Change

- Just apply the opposite procedure or the positional formula

Example: Express the binary number 10110.011 in decimal

- Integer part:  $u = 10110$

$$1 \times 2^4 + 0 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0 = 22.$$

- Fractional part:  $v = ,011$

$$0 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2} + 1 \times 2^{-3} = 0.375.$$

Therefore the result is 22.375.

Rev: 1.12

## What is a *codification*?

- From chapter 1:

### Definition

**Codification:** is a biunivocal correspondence among the elements of two sets

### Observation

As it is biunivocal (i.e. one-to-one) we can identify the elements of the first set using the ones of the second set.

## More formally . . .

- Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two sets and let  $f: A \rightarrow B$  be a function.

### Definition

We can say that  $B$  *codifies*  $A$  by  $f$  if  $f$  is *biunivocal*

- If the sets are provided with an inner operation  $(A, +)$ ,  $(B, \oplus)$ :

### Definition

If  $f(a + b) = f(a) \oplus f(b)$  for any  $a, b \in A$ , then we have a *faithful representation* (or *codification*)

- Example: We obtain the same result adding two numbers in decimal or binary representations:  
 $2 + 4 = 6$ ,  $0010 + 0100 = 0110$ , and  $6_{10} = 0110_2$

## Modulo Operation

### Definition

Let  $m > 0$ . Then the modulo operation with two integer numbers,  $b = a \pmod{m}$ , is the remainder of  $a$  divided by  $m$ .  
 (therefore  $a = q \cdot m + b$ , for some integer  $q$ )

### Example

- $7 \pmod{2} = 1$ , as  $7 = 3 \times 2 + 1$
- Clocks work modulo 12 or 24 hours.

## Operations in $\mathbb{Z}$ and $B$

- The set of all integers is  $\mathbb{Z}$
- $B_w$  is the set of all binary numbers with  $w$  digits  
 There are  $2^w$  binary numbers with  $w$  digits (e.g. for  $w = 2$  there are  $2^2$  binary numbers  $\{00, 01, 10, 11\}$ )
- Codification of integers is a biunivocal correspondence  $R \rightarrow B$  where  $R$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{Z}$
- We want also a faithful representation, that is, that operations in  $R$  correspond to operations in  $B$  obtaining the same result (e.g.  $2 + 4 = 6$ ,  $0010 + 0100 = 0110$ ).

# Integer Representation

- The number of bits that a computer uses to store binary numbers is the *width* or *size* of a *word*,
- Usually is 8, 16, 32, or 64 bits.
- In programming languages, each size receives a name, for instance in C language:

```

char    ⇒ 8 bits.
short int ⇒ 16 bits.
int     ⇒ 32 bits.
long int ⇒ 64 bits.
  
```

# Summary of different binary representations

|                |   |   |
|----------------|---|---|
| Fixed point    | Unsigned binary   |   |
|                | Signed binary   | <hr/> With sign bit<br><hr/> One's complement<br><hr/> Two's complement<br><hr/> Excess-Z |
| Floating point | <hr/> Integer significand<br><hr/> Fractional significand |   |

## Unsigned binary

- Corresponding function is simply the formula to change to base 2:

$$f: R \rightarrow B$$

$$n \mapsto (x_{w-1}, \dots, x_0)_2$$

such as  $n = \sum_{i=0}^{w-1} x_i 2^i$ .

- For  $w$  bits, the set  $R = \{0, 1, \dots, 2^w - 1\}$  is codified as  $0 \mapsto (0 \dots 0), \dots, 2^w - 1 \mapsto (1 \dots 1)$  (positives and 0)
- Example: for  $w = 3$ ,  $\{0, \dots, 2^3 - 1\} \mapsto \{000, \dots, 111\}$
- It is a faithful representation

## Signed binary

- Add an extra bit at the left to express the sign (0 for positive, 1 for negative)
- Therefore for  $w$  bits we can represent the set  $R = \{-2^{w-1} + 1, \dots, 2^{w-1} - 1\}$ .
- Example:  $-3_{10} = 1011_2$
- It is NOT a faithful representation as 0 can be represented in two ways ( $+0, -0$ ), and therefore is not biunivocal.

## Excess- $Z$ binary representation

- Simply add a positive integer  $Z > 0$ :  $n \mapsto n + Z$ ,  $n \in R$ .  
 Assuming that  $n + Z \geq 0$ , we can represent  
 $R = \{-Z, \dots, Z - 1\}$ .
- Use unsigned binary representation to express the result

$$n + Z = \sum_{i=0}^{w-1} x_i 2^i.$$

- Typically for  $w$  bits we choose  $Z = 2^{w-1}$
- It is used to represent the exponential in floating point representation (see below)

## Excess- $Z$ binary representation

- It is NOT a faithful representation:  
 Let  $n, m \in R$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} n & \mapsto & n + Z \\ + & & + \\ m & \mapsto & m + Z \\ \hline n + m & \mapsto & n + m + 2Z, \end{array}$$

i.e. it is necessary to subtract  $Z$  to get the correct result in  $R$

## One's Complement -1C- binary representation

- Positive 1C numbers are the same than in signed binary (*SB*)  
 $+5_{10} = 0101_{SB} = 0101_{1C}$
- To get 1C representation of a negative number swap all bits ( $0 \rightarrow 1, 1 \rightarrow 0$ ) of the corresponding positive signed binary:  
 $-5_{10} = 1101_{SB} = 1010_{1C}$
- Range of representation  $R_{1C} = \{-2^{w-1} - 1, \dots, 2^{w-1} - 1\}$
- It is NOT a faithful representation as it is not biunivocal because the number 0 can be represented in two ways ( $+0, -0$ )
- Much less used than 2C

Rev: 1.12

## Two's Complement -2C- binary representation

- Positive 2C numbers are the same than in SB  
 $+5_{10} = 0101_{SB} = 0101_{1C} = 0101_{2C}$
- To get the 2C representation of a negative number
  - Obtain 1C
  - Add +1
  - $-5_{10} = 1101_{SB} = 1010_{1C} = 1011_{2C}$
- To know the magnitude of a negative 2C number, compute its 2C again to obtain the corresponding positive

Rev: 1.12

## Two's Complement -2C- binary representation

- Range of 2C representation  $R_{2C} = \{-2^{w-1}, \dots, 2^{w-1} - 1\}$ .

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 -2^{w-1} & \mapsto & (1, 0, \dots, 0), \\
 & \dots & \\
 -1 & \mapsto & (1, 1, \dots, 1), \\
 0 & \mapsto & (0, 0, \dots, 0), \\
 1 & \mapsto & (0, 0, \dots, 1), \\
 & \dots & \\
 2^{w-1} - 1 & \mapsto & (0, 1, \dots, 1).
 \end{array}$$

- It is **UNIVERSALLY USED** by computers:
  - It is biunivocal and faithful with  $\{+, -, \times, \div\}$  operations
  - To subtract is very easy: just add the 2C of the number

## Floating point representation

- The idea is to save space without losing accuracy by means of moving the coma and changing the exponent:  
 (decimal example:  $0.00027 \times 10^{-2} = 2.7 \times 10^{-6}$ )
- Each number  $x$  is represented as  $x = \pm m \times b^e$ , where
  - $m$  significand or mantissa
  - $b$  base
  - $e$  exponent

### Example

$$\begin{array}{l}
 a = (1.001)_2 \times 2^{-5} \\
 b = (1.001)_2 \times 2^7
 \end{array}$$

## Floating point format

- The typical format to represent a floating point number is:



- Sign* 0 → positive, 1 → negative.
- Exponent*: Integer expressed in Z-excess with  $Z = 2^{w_e-1}$ , where  $w_e$  is the number of bits to store it.
- Significand or mantissa*:
  - Integer*: not used
  - Fractional*: It is generally *normalized* such as the integer part is just one significant bit ( $\neq 0$ )

## Floating point examples

### Example

- $a = 1.001 \times 2^{-5}$ . Exponent is  $e = -5$  and the mantissa  $m = 1.001$  is already normalized (1 in the integer part)
- $a = 10.01 \times 2^{-6}$ . Exponent is  $e = -6$  and  $m = 10.01$  is not normalized (two bits in the integer part)
- $a = 0.1001 \times 2^{-4}$ . Exponent is  $e = -4$  and  $m = 0.1001$  is not normalized (the integer part is 0)

By the way:  $a = \frac{(1001)_2}{2^3} \times \frac{1}{2^5} = \frac{9}{2^8} = 0.03515625$ .

## ANSI/IEEE 754 Standard representation

- MOST EXTENDED standard to represent floating point numbers in computations.
- Defines the size in bits of each field.
- Normalized mantissa → just one integer bit always = 1. Therefore is never stored (*implicit bit*)
- There are two sizes:
  - Simple precision floating point, `float`, total size = 32 bits.
  - Double precision floating point, `double`, total size = 64 bits.

## ANSI/IEEE 754 Standard. Special values

- **Zero** cannot be represented, so it is chosen by convention to be the number with all bits = 0 (otherwise would be  $1.0 \times 2^{-127}$  for `float` and  $1.0 \times 2^{-1023}$  for `double`).
- **Infinity**. By convention two different codes are chosen to represent  $\pm\infty$  (0/1 for sign, exponent all 1's, mantissa all 0's).
- **NaN**. Not a Number. Undefined result after some operation (for instance 0/0). Represented as well by a particular code.

## ANSI/IEEE 754 Standard

|            | simple   | doble   |
|------------|--|---|
| Total Size | 32 bits  | 64 bits   |
| Mantissa   | 23 + 1 bits                                    | 52 + 1 bits                                       |
| Exponent   | 8 bits   | 11 bits   |
| Excess     | $2^7 - 1$                                      | $2^{10} - 1$                                      |
| Minimum    | $2^{-126} \simeq 1.2 \times 10^{-38}$          | $2^{-1022} \simeq 2.2 \times 10^{-308}$           |
| Maximum    | $2^{128} - 2^{-127} \simeq 3.4 \times 10^{38}$ | $2^{1024} - 2^{-1023} \simeq 1.8 \times 10^{308}$ |
| Zero       | $e + exc = 0, m = 0$                           | $e + exc = 0, m = 0$                              |
| Infinity   | $e + exc = 255, m = 0$                         | $e + exc = 2047, m = 0$                           |
| NaN        | $e + exc = 255, m \neq 0$                      | $e + exc = 2047, m \neq 0$                        |

## Alphanumeric Information Representation

- Alphanumeric Information is codified with character tables.
- Each element is represented by a binary code
- Each table defines the number of bits to represent each character.
- There are different standards:
  - ANSI/ASCII.
  - ISO8859-XX.
  - Unicode, UTF-8, UTF-16.
  - BM/EBCDIC.

## ANSI/ASCII-7 table

- 7 bits are used to codify 128 alphanumeric characters.

Examples:

|                     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
|---------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| <b>Character</b>    | "0" | "1" | ... | "9" | "A" | ... | "Z" |
| <b>ASCII-7 code</b> | 48  | 49  | ... | 57  | 65  | ... | 90  |

## ISO8859-15 table

- 8 bits to codify 256 alphanumeric characters
  - First 128 are the same than in ASCII-7
  - Last 128 are Western language characters

Examples:

|                        |     |     |     |     |     |     |
|------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| <b>Character</b>       | "é" | ... | "è" | ... | "û" | ... |
| <b>ISO8859-15 code</b> | 130 | ... | 138 | ... | 150 | ... |

## UTF-8 table

- It uses variable length codes, from 8 to 16 bits.
- For codes smaller than 128 is fully compatible with ASCII-7
- It allows to codify character of many languages, including Easter ones

|                   |        |     |        |     |        |     |
|-------------------|--------|-----|--------|-----|--------|-----|
| <b>Character</b>  | “é”    | ... | “è”    | ... | “û”    | ... |
| <b>UTF-8 code</b> | 0xC3A9 | ... | 0xC3A8 | ... | 0xC3BB | ... |

## Character Chains

To store character chains in memory another aspect must be considered:

- How to codify the chain length. Three main methods
  - Terminator method
  - Length indicator method
  - Descriptor method

## Terminator method

- A special character is used to indicate the end of the chain. Typically 0 is used.
- To access the chain it is only necessary to know the address of the first character.

### Example

To represent the string "Ho1a" with ISO8859-15 table we use five bytes:

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| H | o | l | a | 0 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

## Length indicator method

- The first (or first and second) byte(s) of the chain indicate(s) its length.
- To access the chain it is only necessary to know the address of the first character.
- This method limits the maximum length of the chain.

### Example

To represent the string "Ho1a" with ISO8859-15 table we use five bytes:

|   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 4 | H | o | l | a |
|---|---|---|---|---|

## Descriptor method

- Chain characters are written alone from a memory position onwards
- To access the chain it is necessary to know the address of the first character AND its length. These two data together form the *descriptor*

### Example

To represent the string "Hola" with ISO8859-15 table we use four bytes:

|   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|
| H | o | l | a |
|---|---|---|---|