Lecture 2: Data representation, addresses

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601.229 Computer Systems Fundamentals



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- ► Today:
 - Data representation
 - Addresses
 - Bitwise operations

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Data representation

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There are only thinds of people. Those who understand binary and those who don't.

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Let's consider ways of representing numbers...

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I V X L C D M 1 5 10 50 100 500 1000

I V X L C D M 1 5 10 50 100 500 1000

Additive combination of units II III VI XVI XXXIII MDCLXVI MMXVI

I V X L C D M 1 5 10 50 100 500 1000

Additive combination of units II III VI XVI XXXIII MDCLXVI MMXVI 2 3 6 16 33 1666 2016

I V X L C D M 1 5 10 50 100 500 1000

Additive combination of units
 II III VI XVI XXXIII MDCLXVI MMXVI
 2 3 6 16 33 1666 2016

Subtractive combination of units
 IV IX XL XC CD CM MCMLXXI

I V X L C D M 1 5 10 50 100 500 1000

Additive combination of units II III VI XVI XXXIII MDCLXVI MMXVI 2 3 6 16 33 1666 2016

Subtractive combination of units

IV IX XL XC CD CM MCMLXXI 4 9 40 90 400 900 1971 Developed in India and Arabic world during the European Dark Age
 Decisive step: invention of zero by Brahmagupta in AD 628
 Basic units
 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

01234507

Positional system

1 10 100 1000 10000 100000 1000000

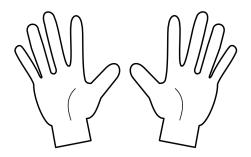
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Why Base 10?

dig∙it /ˈdijit/ •0

noun

- any of the numerals from 0 to 9, especially when forming part of a number. synonyms: numeral, number, figure, Integer "the door code has ten digits"
- a finger (including the thumb) or toe. synonyms: finger, thumb, toe; extremity "we wanted to warm our frozen digits"







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Computer hardware is based on digital logic

▶ where *digital voltages* (high and low) represent 1 and 0

Binary number 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1



Binary number	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
Position	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

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Binary number	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
Position	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Value	2^{7}	2 ⁶	0	2^{4}	0	2 ²	0	2 ⁰

Binary number	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	
Position	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	
Value	2 ⁷	2 ⁶	0	2^{4}	0	2 ²	0	2 ⁰	
	128	64	0	16	0	4	0	1	= 213

Clicker quiz omitted from public slides



Numbers like 11010101 are very hard to read

$\Rightarrow \ \mathsf{Octal} \ \mathsf{numbers}$

Binary number 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 Octal number 3 2 5

► Numbers like 11010101 are very hard to read

$\Rightarrow \ \mathsf{Octal} \ \mathsf{numbers}$

Binary number	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
	_		_			_		_
Octal number		3		2			5	
Position		2		1			0	

Numbers like 11010101 are very hard to read

$\Rightarrow \ \mathsf{Octal} \ \mathsf{numbers}$

Binary number	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1		
			_		_			_		
Octal number		3		2			5			
Position	2		2		1			0		
Value	$3 imes 8^2$		2×8^1		3^1	$5 imes 8^0$		30		

Numbers like 11010101 are very hard to read

$\Rightarrow \ \mathsf{Octal} \ \mathsf{numbers}$

Binary number11010101Octal number325Position210Value 3×8^2 2×8^1 5×8^0 192165= 213

... but grouping three binary digits is a bit odd

• Grouping 4 binary digits \rightarrow base $2^4 = 16$

"Hexadecimal" (hex = Greek for six, decimus = Latin for tenth)

- ▶ Grouping 4 binary digits \rightarrow base $2^4 = 16$
- "Hexadecimal" (hex = Greek for six, decimus = Latin for tenth)

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► Need characters for 10-15:

 ▶ Grouping 4 binary digits → base 2⁴ = 16
 ▶ "Hexadecimal" (hex = Greek for six, decimus = Latin for tenth)
 ▶ Need characters for 10-15: use letters a-f Binary number 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1
 Hexadecimal number d 5 Grouping 4 binary digits → base 2⁴ = 16
 "Hexadecimal" (hex = Greek for six, decimus = Latin for tenth)
 Need characters for 10-15: use letters a-f Binary number
 Hexadecimal number
 d
 5 Position
 0

 ▶ Grouping 4 binary digits → base 2⁴ = 16 ▶ "Hexadecimal" (hex = Greek for six, decimus = Latin for tenth) 							
Need characters for 10-15: use letters a-f							
Binary number	$1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1$	$0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1$					
Hexadecimal number	d	5					
Position	1	0					
Value	$13 imes 16^1$	$5 imes 16^{0}$					
	208	5	= 213				

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Examples

Decimal	Binary	Octal	Hexademical		
0					
1					
2					
3					
8					
15					
16					
20					
23					
24					
30					
50					
100					
255					
256					
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Examples

Decimal	Binary	Octal	Hexademical		
0	0	0	0	-	
1	1	1	1		
2	10	2	2		
3	11	3	3		
8	1000	10	8		
15	1111	17	f		
16	10000	20	10		
20	10100	24	14		
23	10111	27	17		
24	11000	30	18		
30	11110	36	1e		
50	110010	62	32		
100	1100100	144	64		
255	11111111	377	ff		
256	100000000	400	100	@ → < ≧ → < ≧ →	E nac

- On all modern computers data is accessed in chunks of 8 bits: 1 byte
- ► Larger chunks of data ("words") are formed from multiple bytes:
 - \blacktriangleright 2 bytes = 16 bits
 - 4 bytes = 32 bits
 - \blacktriangleright 8 bytes = 64 bits
- Modern CPUs have instructions for doing operations on word-sized data values

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► The "primitive" C data types typically map onto machine word sizes

- ... but unfortunately, not in a way that's completely consistent across different machines and compilers
- "Typical" representations of C data types:

	Bytes used on					
Data type	32-bit systems	64-bit systems				
char	1	1				
short	2	2				
int	4	4				
long	4	8				

(Note inconsistency in last row)

- The stdint.h header file provides portable integer types providing an exact number of bits: int32_t, uint32_t, int64_t, uint64_t, etc.
- Note that constant values are still a problem!
 - ▶ For example, 0x10000000UL (2³²) is likely to be a valid on a 64-bit system but not on a 32-bit system

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The "UL" suffix means "unsigned long"

Addresses

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- Conceptually, memory (RAM) is a sequence of byte-sized storage locations
- Each byte storage location has an integer address
 - 0 is the lowest address
 - Highest address determined by number of address bits processor uses:

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- ▶ 32-bit processors \Rightarrow addresses have 32 bits
- 64-bit processors \Rightarrow addresses have 64 bits

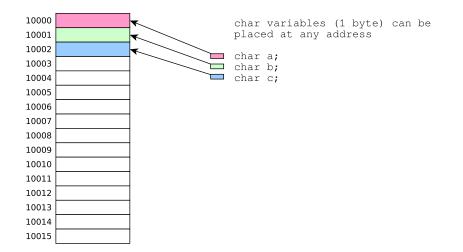
▶ 1 GB = 2^{30} , 1 TB = 2^{40}

- ► A 32-bit system can directly address 2³² bytes (4 GB)
 - Not that much memory by today's standards!
- A 64-bit system can (in theory) directly access 2⁶⁴ = 17,179,869,184 GB = 16,777,216 TB
 - This is a *huge* address space
 - Note that actual systems don't support that much physical memory
 - ► However, tens or hundreds of GB of physical memory is not uncommon

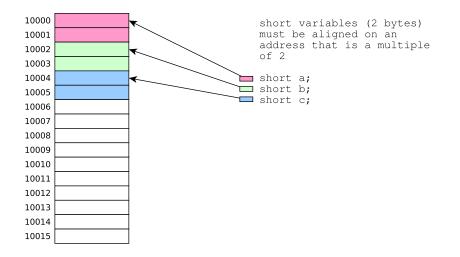
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- To store the value of an n-bit word in memory, n/8 contiguous bytes are used
- ► The address of the first byte is the address of the overall word
- Typically, an n-byte word must have an address that is an exact multiple of n ("natural" alignment)
 - For example, the first byte allocated for an 8-byte word must have an address that is an exact multiple of 8
- Attempt to load or store an *n*-byte word at an address that is not a multiple of *n* is an *unaligned access*
 - ▶ Best case: access works, reduced performance
 - Worst case: runtime exception that kills the program

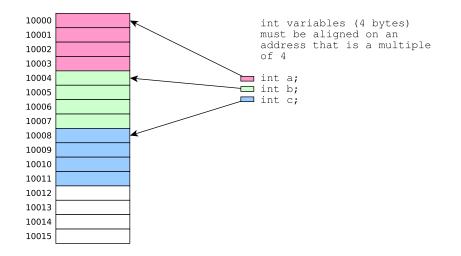
10000	
10001	
10002	
10003	
10004	
10005	
10006	
10007	
10008	
10009	
10010	
10011	
10012	
10013	
10014	
10015	



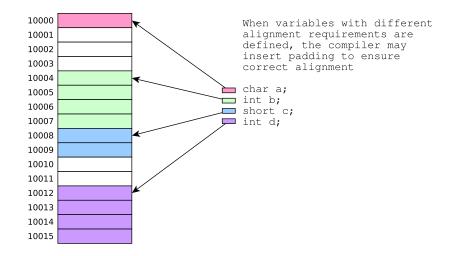
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- Pointers in C are just memory addresses!
- The address-of operator (&), when applied to a variable, yields a pointer to the variable (i.e., the address of the first memory byte that is part of the variable's storage)
- The dereference operator (*), when applied to a pointer value (address), refers to the variable whose storage location is indicated by the address

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Example C program

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
long g;
int main(void) {
 long* p = malloc(sizeof(long));
 long x;
 int a, b;
 short c, d, e, f;
 scanf("%ld %ld %ld %d %hd %hd %hd %hd %hd",
       p, &g, &x, &a, &b, &c, &d, &e, &f);
 long sum = *p + g + x + a + b + c + d + e + f;
 printf("%ld\n", sum);
 p, &g, &x, &a, &b, &c, &d, &e, &f);
 return 0;
}
```

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```
$ gcc address.c
$ ./a.out
123456789
45
0x56142dfba260
0x56142c265018
0x7ffc7e6b2fd0
0x7ffc7e6b2fc8
0x7ffc7e6b2fcc
0x7ffc7e6b2fc0
0x7ffc7e6b2fc2
0x7ffc7e6b2fc4
0x7ffc7e6b2fc6
```

```
$ gcc address.c
$ ./a.out
123456789
45
0x56142dfba260
                  <-- address of malloc'ed buffer
0x56142c265018
0x7ffc7e6b2fd0
0x7ffc7e6b2fc8
0x7ffc7e6b2fcc
0x7ffc7e6b2fc0
0x7ffc7e6b2fc2
0x7ffc7e6b2fc4
0x7ffc7e6b2fc6
```

```
$ gcc address.c
$ ./a.out
123456789
45
0x56142dfba260
0x56142c265018
                  <-- address of global variable
0x7ffc7e6b2fd0
0x7ffc7e6b2fc8
0x7ffc7e6b2fcc
0x7ffc7e6b2fc0
0x7ffc7e6b2fc2
0x7ffc7e6b2fc4
0x7ffc7e6b2fc6
```

```
$ gcc address.c
$ ./a.out
123456789
45
0x56142dfba260
0x56142c265018
0x7ffc7e6b2fd0
                  <-- address of long variable on stack
0x7ffc7e6b2fc8
0x7ffc7e6b2fcc
0x7ffc7e6b2fc0
0x7ffc7e6b2fc2
0x7ffc7e6b2fc4
0x7ffc7e6b2fc6
```

```
$ gcc address.c
$ ./a.out
123456789
45
0x56142dfba260
0x56142c265018
0x7ffc7e6b2fd0
0x7ffc7e6b2fc8
0x7ffc7e6b2fcc
0x7ffc7e6b2fc0
0x7ffc7e6b2fc2
0x7ffc7e6b2fc4
0x7ffc7e6b2fc6
```

<-- address of int variable on stack <-- address of int variable on stack

(note addresses differ by 4)

```
$ gcc address.c
$ ./a.out
123456789
45
0x56142dfba260
0x56142c265018
0x7ffc7e6b2fd0
0x7ffc7e6b2fc8
0x7ffc7e6b2fcc
0x7ffc7e6b2fc0
0x7ffc7e6b2fc2
                    <-- addresses of short variables on stack</pre>
0x7ffc7e6b2fc4
                              (note addresses differ by 2)
0x7ffc7e6b2fc6
```

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Bitwise operations

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 Bitwise operations operate on the binary (bit-level) representation of an integer data value

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- Logical operations: and, or, exclusive or, complement
- ► Shifts: left shift, right shift

We can think of bit values (1 or 0) as being *Boolean* values (true or false)

Logical operations on bits **a** and **b**:

		and	or	xor	on a single bit a:	
а	b	a&b	a b	a^b	a	~a
0	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	1	1	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
1	1	1	1	0		

Logical negation ("complement") on a single bit **a**:

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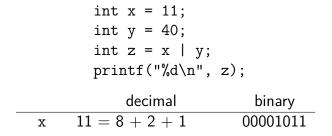
- The C bitwise operators perform logical operations (and, or, xor, negation) on the bits of the binary representation(s) of integer values
 - For example, x | y computes a result whose bits are formed by applying the bitwise or operator (|) to each pair of bits in x and y
- Example code (bitwise *or*):

```
int x = 11;
int y = 40;
int z = x | y;
printf("%d\n", z);
```

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What does this code do?

<pre>int x = 11; int y = 40; int z = x y; printf("%d\n", z);</pre>	
decimal	binary



	int $x = 11;$	
	int $y = 40;$	
	int z = x y;	
	printf("%d\n",	z);
	decimal	binary
х	11 = 8 + 2 + 1	00001011
У	40 = 32 + 8	00101000

	int $x = 11;$	
	int $y = 40;$	
	int z = x y;	
	printf("%d\n", z);
	decimal	binary
x	decimal $11 = 8 + 2 + 1$	binary 00001011
x y		<u>,</u>

int x = 11; int y = 40; int z = x | y; printf("%d\n", z); decimal binary x 11 = 8 + 2 + 1 00001011 y 40 = 32 + 8 00101000 x | y 43 = 32 + 8 + 2 + 1 00101011

Bit is 1 in result if corresponding bit is 1 in either operand value

Shifts move bits to the left or right in the binary representation of a data value

Example code (left shift):

```
int x = 21;
int y = x << 3;
printf("%d\n", y);
```

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What does this code do?

Explanation of left shift example

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	int $x = 21;$	
	int y = x << 3;	
	printf("%d\n", y	·);
	decimal	binary
x	21 = 16 + 4 + 1	00010101

int x = 21; int y = x << 3; printf("%d\n", y); decimal binary x 21 = 16 + 4 + 1 00010101 x << 3 168 = 128 + 32 + 8 10101000</pre>

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int x = 21; int y = x << 3; printf("%d\n", y); decimal binary x 21 = 16 + 4 + 1 00010101 x << 3 168 = 128 + 32 + 8 10101000</pre>

Each bit in original value is shifted 3 places to the left; the lowest 3 bits of result become 0

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Bitwise operations (logical operations and shifts) are useful because they allow precise manipulations of data values at the level of individual bits:

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- Selecting arbitrary bits
- Clearing or setting arbitrary bits

Set bit n of variable x to 1 x |= (1 << n);

Set bit n of variable x to 0 x &= $(1 \ll n)$;

Get just the lowest n bits of variable x x & $\sim(\sim 0U \ll n)$