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Computer Systems / Rekenaarstelsels 245 - 2020

Lecture 2

# Review – Background & Number Representation

## Hersiening – Agtergrond & Getalle Voorstelling

Dr Rensu Theart & Dr Lourens Visagie

# Lecture Overview

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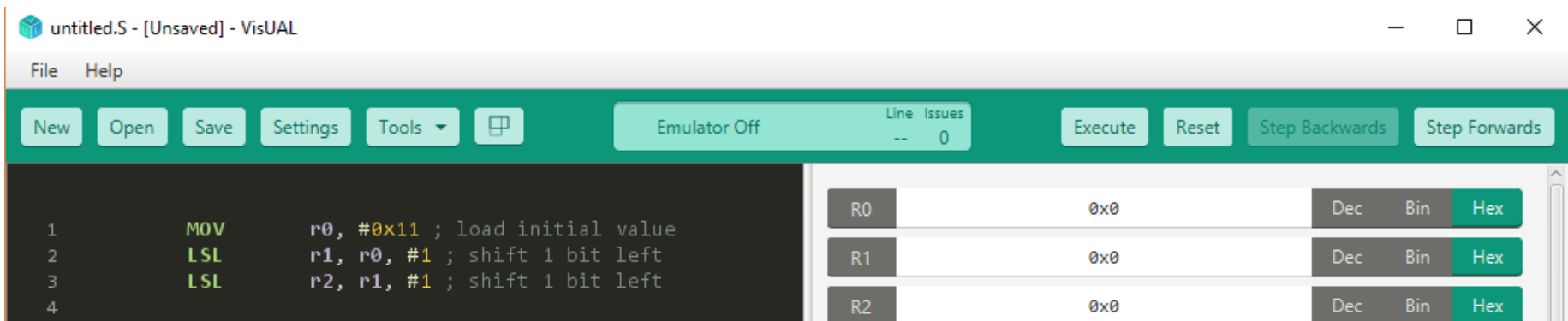
- The software we will use in this module
- Executing instructions on a CPU
- Number representation / Getalle voorstelling
  - Number systems (binary, hexadecimal)
  - Integer & Signed integer (2's complement)
  - Floating point
  - Boolean type
- Data types
- Characters and strings



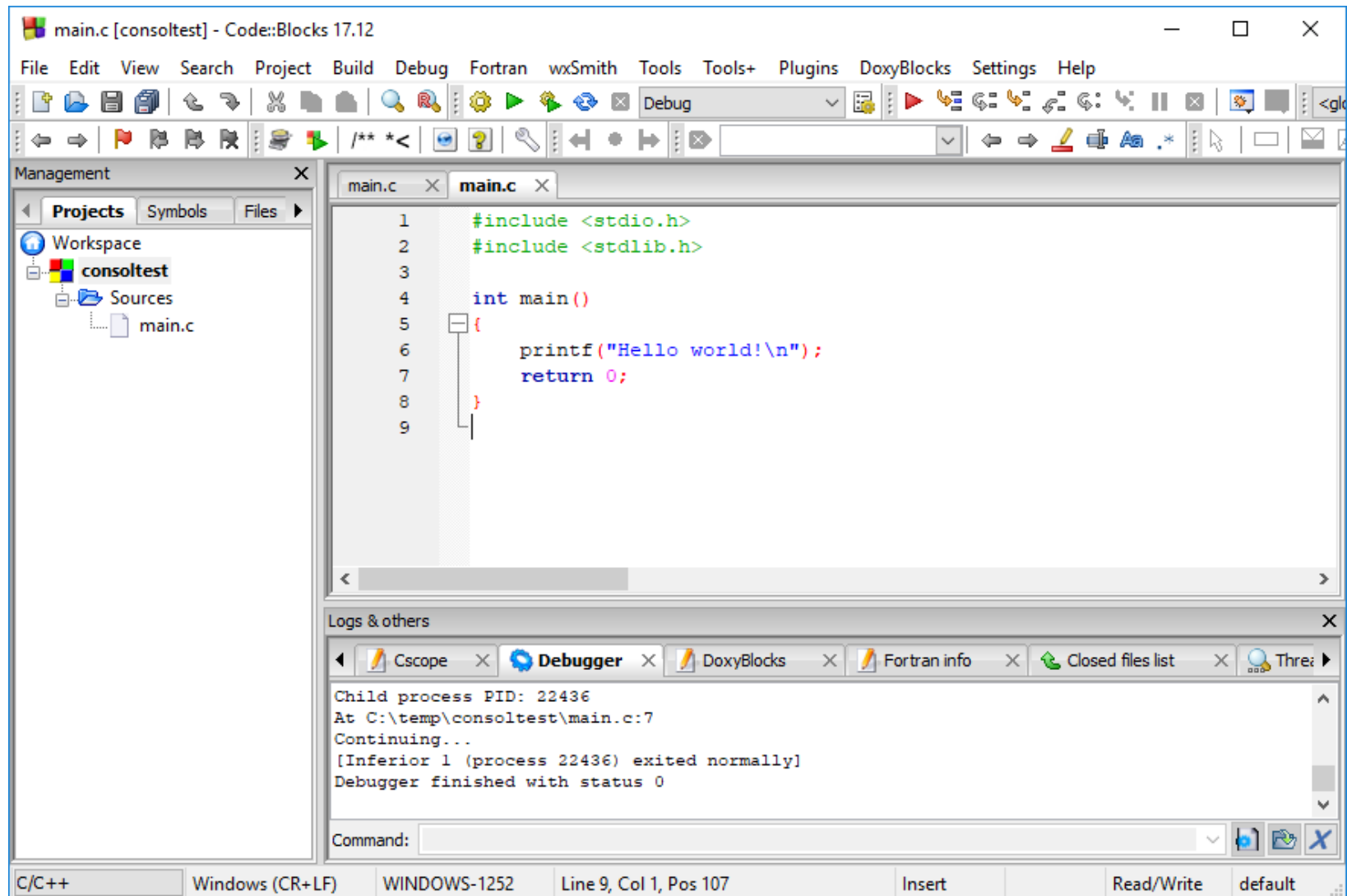
# VisUAL

## ARM emulator

- Developed by Imperial College London (<https://salmanarif.bitbucket.io/visual/>)
- Supports UAL instructions (not all op-codes supported – see website for documentation)
- Press CTRL+Space in a line for help on that instruction

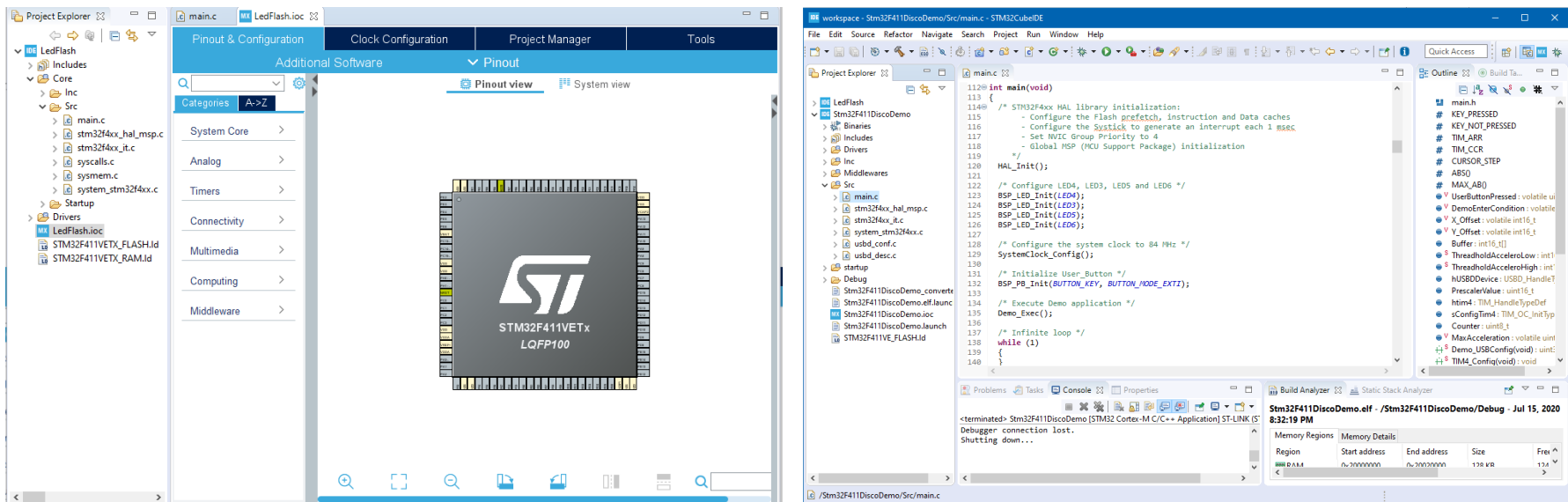


# Code::Blocks C IDE



# STM32CubeIDE

- STM32CubeIDE is an advanced C/C++ development platform with peripheral configuration, code generation, code compilation, and debug features for STM32 microcontrollers and microprocessors.
- It is based on the ECLIPSE™ framework and GCC toolchain for the development, and GDB for the debugging.



# Development board

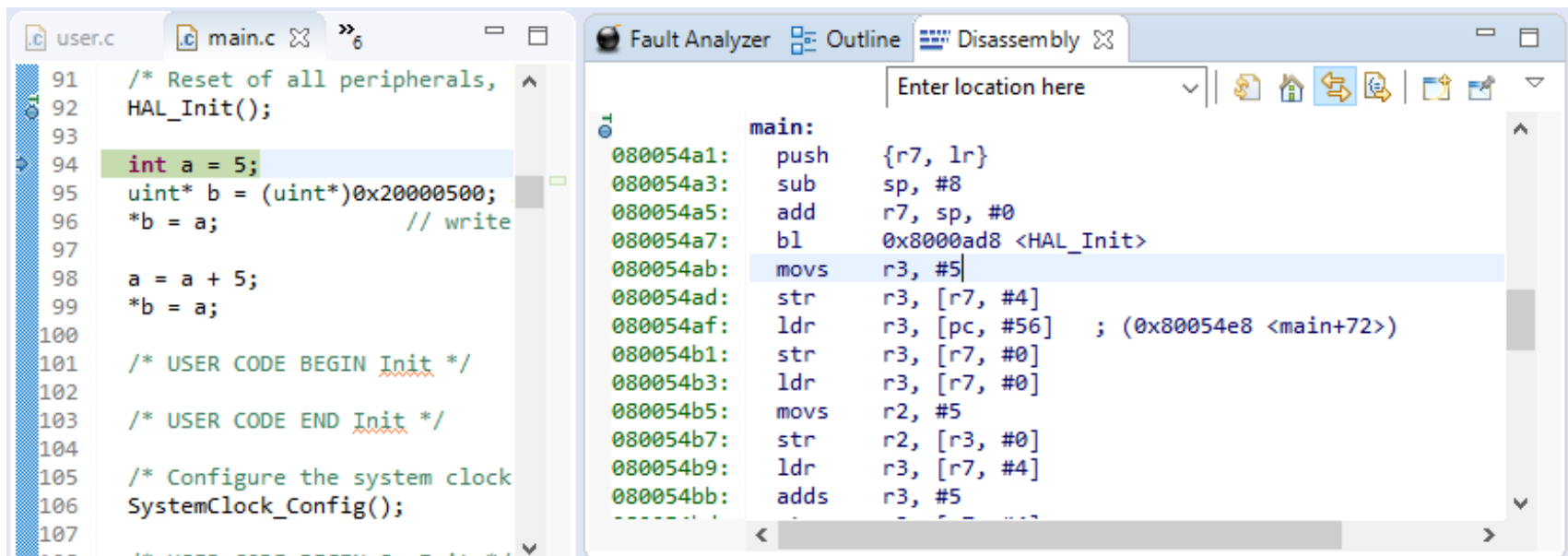
- Development board for the **STM32F411VET6** microcontroller (STM32F411 Discovery Kit)
- Board and microcontroller manufactured by ST Microelectronics
- In the microcontroller:
  - **ARM Cortex-M4** with floating point unit
  - 512 kb flash memory (program memory)
  - 128 kb SRAM
- Other stuff on the board:
  - 3D MEMS gyroscope, linear accelerometer, magnetic field sensor
  - MEMS microphone, audio digital-to-analog converter (DAC) and amplifier
  - LEDs, pushbuttons



Can be ordered from [HERE](#) or [HERE](#) or [HERE](#)

# C vs Assembly

- Higher level programs (C, Java etc) will eventually translate into many simple machine instructions



The screenshot displays a development environment with two main panes. The left pane shows a C source file named 'main.c' with the following code:

```
91 /* Reset of all peripherals,  
92 HAL_Init();  
93  
94 int a = 5;  
95 uint* b = (uint*)0x20000500;  
96 *b = a; // write  
97  
98 a = a + 5;  
99 *b = a;  
100  
101 /* USER CODE BEGIN Init */  
102  
103 /* USER CODE END Init */  
104  
105 /* Configure the system clock  
106 SystemClock_Config();  
107  
108 /* USER CODE BEGIN SysInit */
```

The right pane shows the 'Disassembly' view of the same code, generated backwards from compiled machine instructions. It lists memory addresses and the corresponding assembly instructions:

```
main:  
080054a1: push    {r7, lr}  
080054a3: sub     sp, #8  
080054a5: add     r7, sp, #0  
080054a7: bl      0x8000ad8 <HAL_Init>  
080054ab: movs    r3, #5  
080054ad: str     r3, [r7, #4]  
080054af: ldr     r3, [pc, #56] ; (0x80054e8 <main+72>)  
080054b1: str     r3, [r7, #0]  
080054b3: ldr     r3, [r7, #0]  
080054b5: movs    r2, #5  
080054b7: str     r2, [r3, #0]  
080054b9: ldr     r3, [r7, #4]  
080054bb: adds    r3, #5
```

C-code

Equivalent assembly  
(generated backwards from  
compiled machine instructions)



# Architecture / Argitektuur

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- The **architecture** is the programmer's view of a computer.
- It is defined by the **instruction set** (language) and **operand locations** (registers and memory).
- Many different architectures exist, such as ARM, x86, MIPS, SPARC...
- We will specifically look at the ARM instruction set, although the concepts of assembly programming apply generally between the different instruction sets.
- ARM is a family of CPUs based on the **RISC** (reduced instruction set computer) architecture.
- ARM (prior to ARMv8) is called a 32-bit architecture because it operates on 32-bit data.





# Instructions and operands / Instrukties en operanden

- The first step in understanding any computer architecture is to learn its language.
- The words in a computer's language are called **instructions**.
- The computer's vocabulary is called the **instruction set**.
- All programs running on a computer use the same basic instruction set, which are instructions such as *add*, *subtract*, and *branch*.
- Computer instructions indicate both the **operation** to perform and the **operands** to use.
- The operands may come from memory, from registers, or from the instruction itself.

ADD R0, R1, #5

Operation      Operands



# Machine language and assembly language

- Computer hardware only understand 1's and 0's, so instructions are encoded as binary numbers in a format called **machine language**.
- The ARM architecture represent each instruction as a **32-bit word**.
- Microprocessors are digital systems that read and execute machine language instructions.
  - These instructions are directly implemented in logic circuits.
- Machine language is hard to read for humans, so we prefer to represent the instructions in a symbolic format called **assembly language**.

For example:

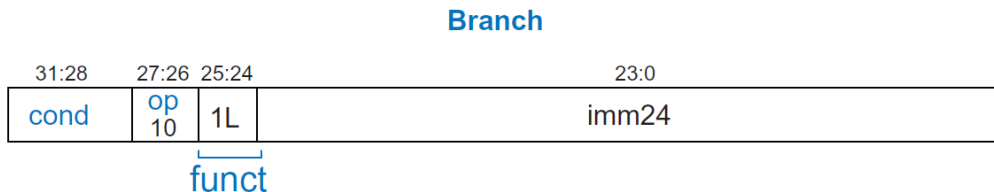
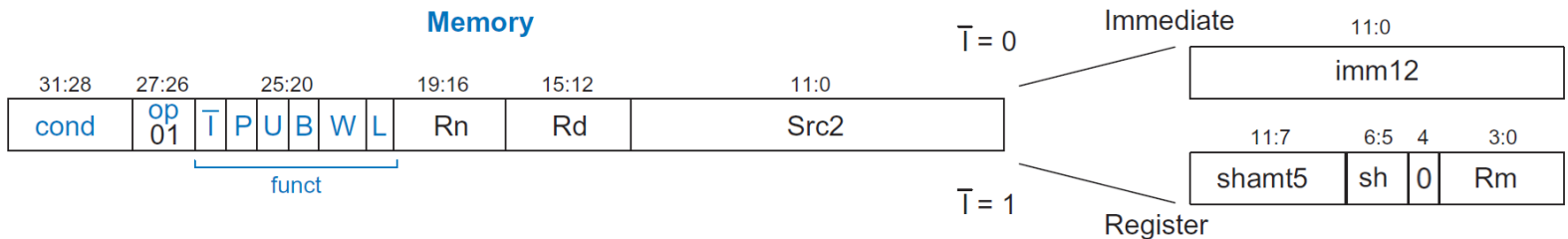
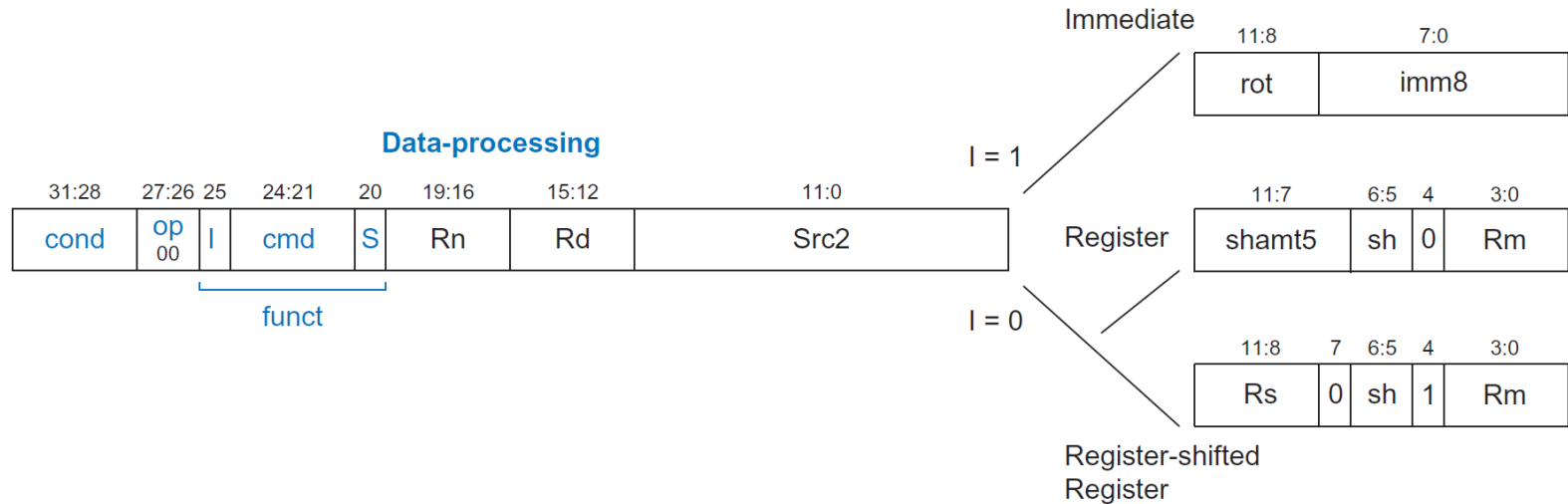
MOV R1, R2 ;move data from one place to another

This same instruction translates into machine language as:

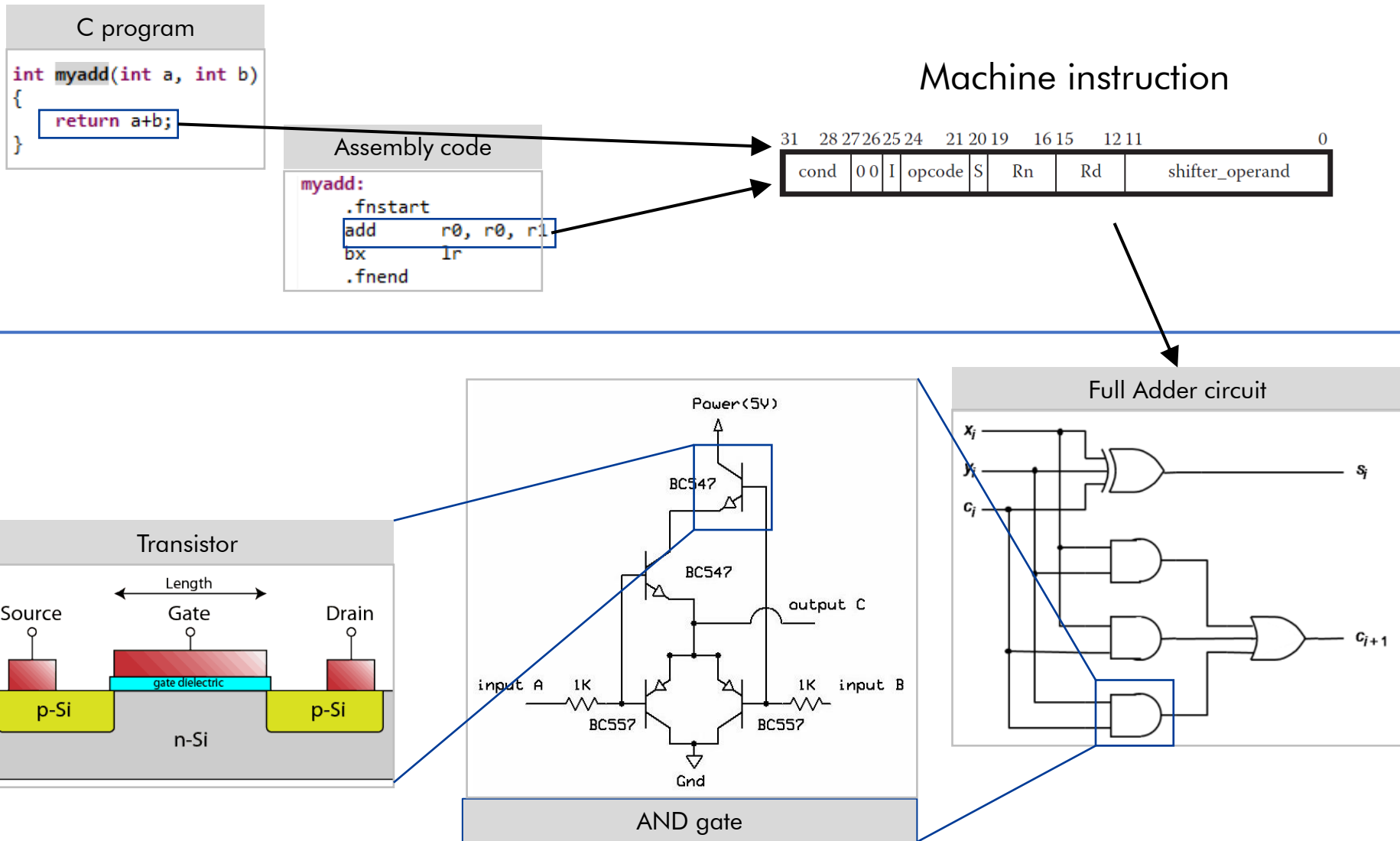
$$(11100001101000000001000000000010)_2 = (E1A01002)_{16}$$



# Machine code / Masjien kode

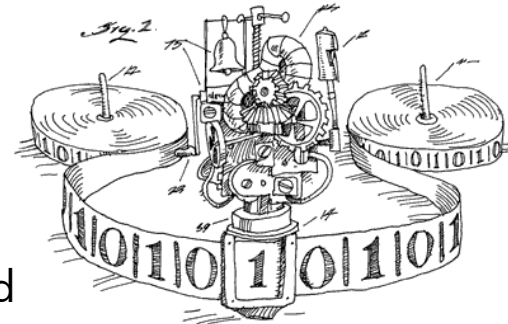


# Machine language and Integrated Circuits



# Instruction loading

- We have to give the CPU the “sequence-of-CPU-machine-instructions” to make it work.
  - This is called the **binary program**. Or compiled program. (sometimes the words “firmware” or “image” are also used).
- Think of the program instructions as a sequence on a tape.
- Think of the CPU as a sequential processing machine with a single-instruction view.
- The “thing” inside the CPU that holds the position of the current “viewed” instruction is the **Program Counter (PC)**, which is stored in a register.
- High-performance CPUs will have a processing **pipeline** – start pre-processing following instructions.



```
user.c  main.c  »6
91  /* Reset of all peripherals,
92  HAL_Init();
93
94  int a = 5;
95  uint* b = (uint*)0x20000500;
96  *b = a;          // write
97
98  a = a + 5;
99  *b = a;
100
101  /* USER CODE BEGIN Init */
102
103  /* USER CODE END Init */
104
105  /* Configure the system clock
106  SystemClock_Config();
107
108  /* USER CODE BEGIN SysInit */
```

```
Fault Analyzer  Outline  Disassembly
Enter location here
01
main:
080054a1:  push    {r7, lr}
080054a3:  sub     sp, #8
080054a5:  add     r7, sp, #0
080054a7:  bl      0x8000ad8 <HAL_Init>
080054ab:  movs    r3, #5
080054ad:  str     r3, [r7, #4]
080054af:  ldr     r3, [pc, #56] ; (0x80054e8 <main+72>)
080054b1:  str     r3, [r7, #0]
080054b3:  ldr     r3, [r7, #0]
080054b5:  movs    r2, #5
080054b7:  str     r2, [r3, #0]
080054b9:  ldr     r3, [r7, #4]
080054bb:  adds    r3, #5
```

Program Counter

Pipelined instructions

# Instruction loading - Memory

- The CPU will execute (run) a binary program after the program has been placed into memory
  - Remember CPU does not have its own memory.
  - Microcontrollers (=CPU + other stuff in the same integrated device) might have integrated memory, but it is still outside of the CPU.
  - Lots of types (RAM, ROM, Flash etc.). More on this later.
- For now: memory = a matrix of storage elements that allows data to be written and read at specific addresses, and each address refers to a **byte** (8 bits) of data.
- Even though data is byte addressed, CPUs can sometimes read/write more than 8-bits at a time – often referred to as a **word**.

| Byte Address | Data |
|--------------|------|
| 0            | 0xAA |
| 1            | 0xBB |
| 2            | 0xCC |
| 3            | 0xDD |
| 4            | 0xEE |
| 5            | 0xFF |
| 6            | 0x11 |
| 7            | 0x22 |
| ...          | ...  |

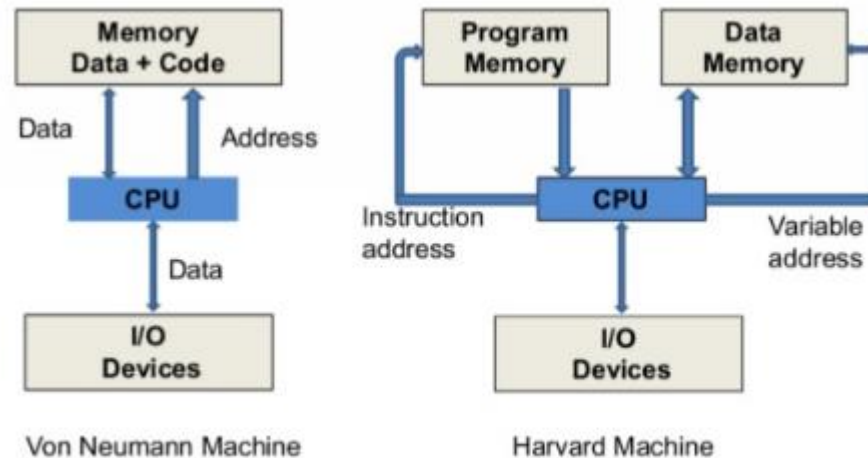
| Word Address | 32-bit data |
|--------------|-------------|
| 0            | 0xDDCCBBAA  |
| 4            | 0x2211FFEE  |
| ...          | ...         |

Little-Endian



# Memory / Geheue

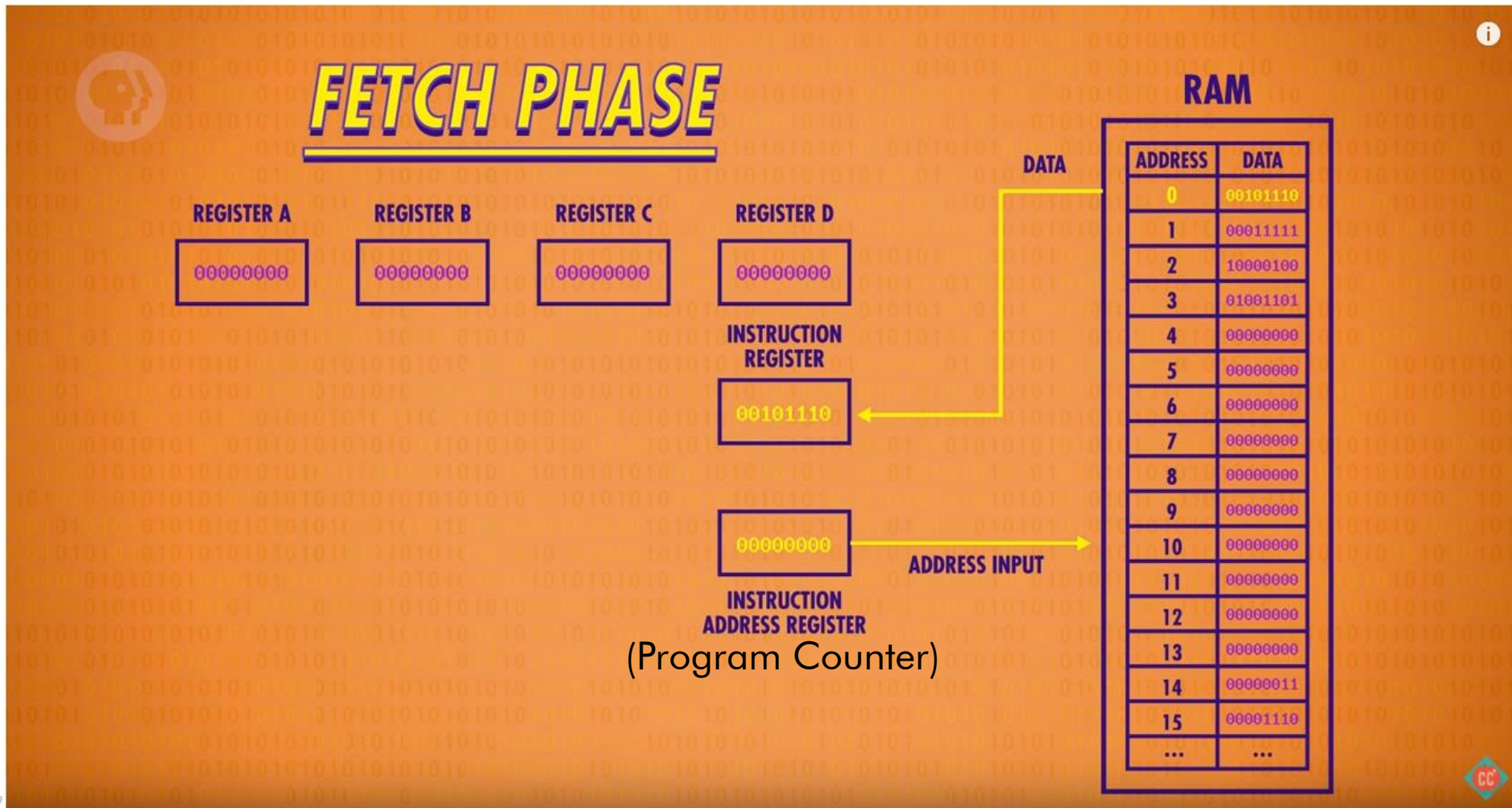
- **Program memory** is normally only read not written to.
- **Data memory**, memory that the program alters as a result of instructions being executed, is used for variables.
- Program and data memory can be physically different memory chips (Harvard Machine) or the same (Von Neumann Machine).





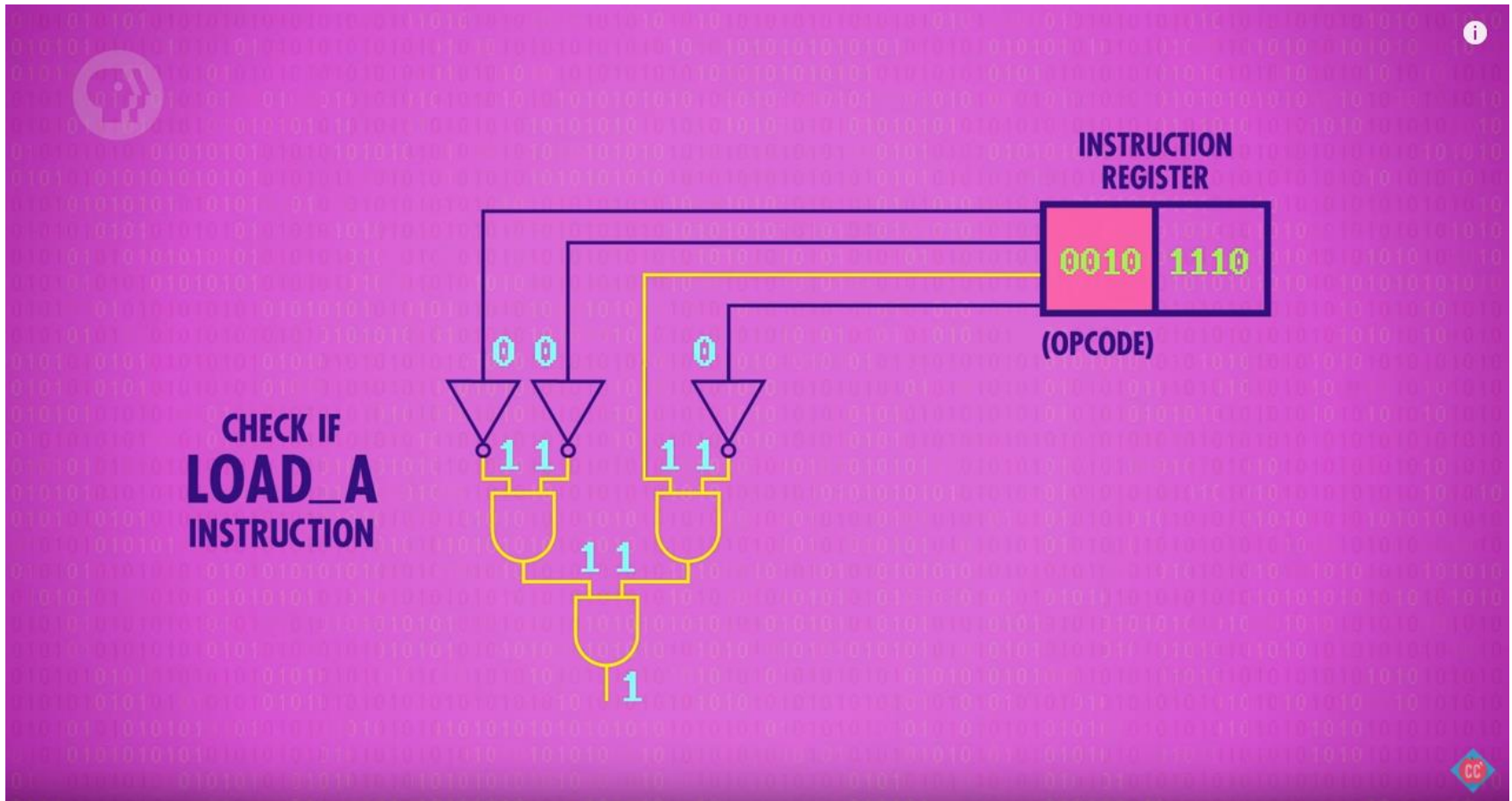
# Fetching instructions

Instructions are *fetch*ed from memory at the current program counter



# Decoding instructions

- Logic circuits in the CPU will *Decode* the instruction (check if the instruction bit pattern matches)



# Executing instructions

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- The relevant logic gates will then *Execute* the instruction.
- Depending on the instruction, this might have various effects:
  - Some instructions will alter the memory contents (write to memory at specific addresses)
  - Some instructions may change the Program Counter (will cause the CPU to fetch instructions from somewhere else, i.e. a function)
  - (Normally the PC is simply incremented so that instructions are executed in the order they are stored in memory)

# Simplified pipelined processor

Note that the ARM Cortex-M4 **only** has the Fetch, Decode and Execute states

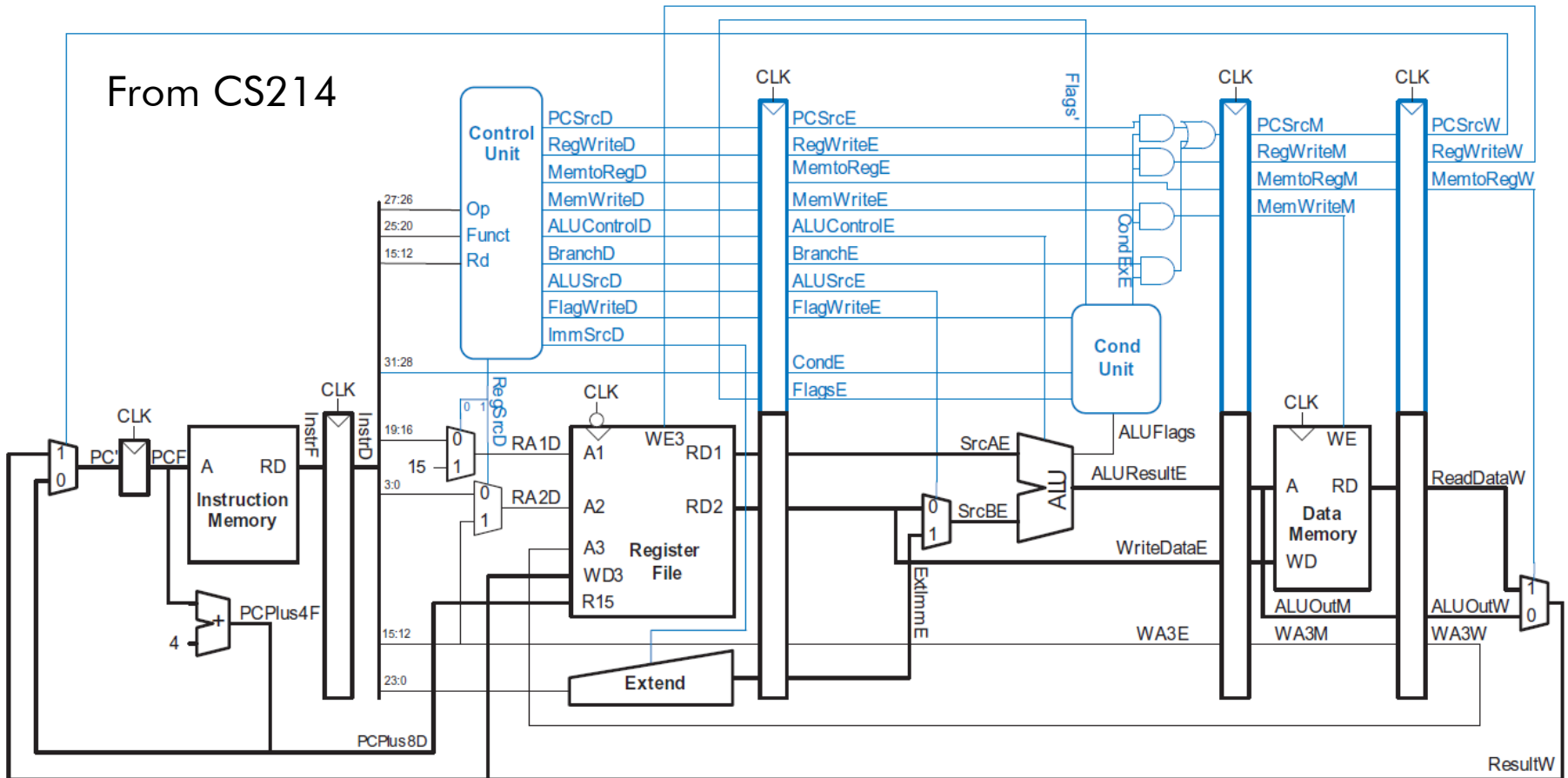


Figure 7.47 Pipelined processor with control

Fetch

Decode

Execute

Memory

Write  
Back

# Processor Cycles per instruction


Even though ARM is a RISC architecture, not all instructions execute in a single processor cycle (since no Memory and Writeback pipeline stages).

## Cortex-M series processors

**Table 3-1 Processor instruction set summary**

| Operation | Description        | Assembler         | Cycles | Notes |
|-----------|--------------------|-------------------|--------|-------|
| Move      | Register           | MOV Rd, <op2>     | 1      |       |
|           | 16-bit immediate   | MOVW Rd, # <imm>  | 1      |       |
|           | Immediate into top | MOVT Rd, # <imm>  | 1      |       |
|           | To PC              | MOV PC, Rm        | 1 + P  |       |
| Add       | Add                | ADD Rd, Rn, <op2> | 1      |       |
|           | Add to PC          | ADD PC, PC, Rm    | 1 + P  |       |
|           | Add with carry     | ADC Rd, Rn, <op2> | 1      |       |
|           | Form address       | ADR Rd, <label>   | 1      |       |

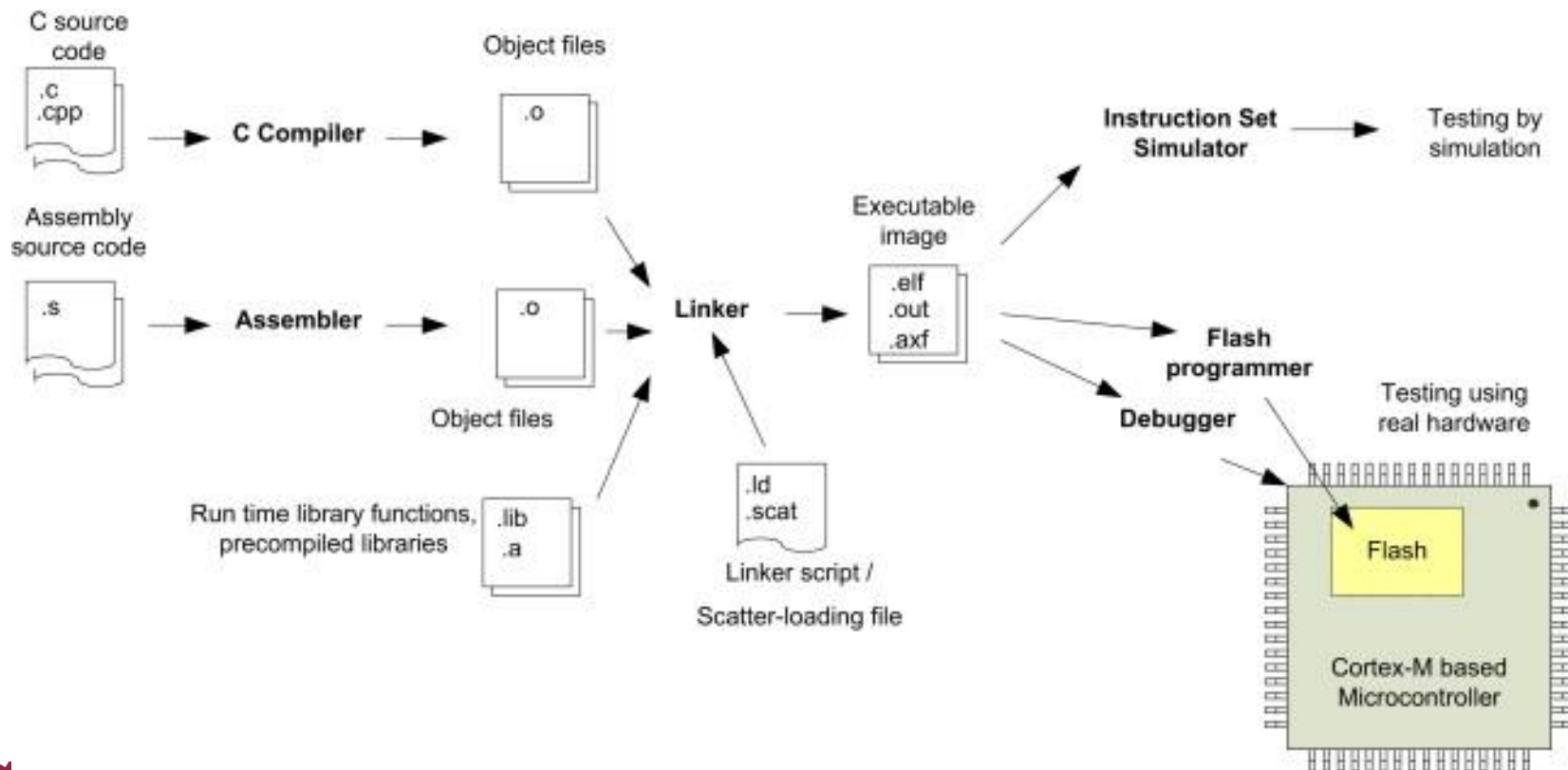
|      |                 |                       |       |
|------|-----------------|-----------------------|-------|
| Load | Word            | LDR Rd, [Rn, <op2>]   | 2     |
|      | To PC           | LDR PC, [Rn, <op2>]   | 2 + P |
|      | Halfword        | LDRH Rd, [Rn, <op2>]  | 2     |
|      | Byte            | LDRB Rd, [Rn, <op2>]  | 2     |
|      | Signed halfword | LDRSH Rd, [Rn, <op2>] | 2     |
|      | Signed byte     | LDRSB Rd, [Rn, <op2>] | 2     |

 Instructions that alter the PC results in performance hit because the processing pipeline must be “flushed”

# ARM vs C – Simple program instruction

Program instructions for the microcontroller (**machine instructions**) is also just a pattern of bits, with specific interpretation

Masjien instruksies is ook net 'n patroon van bisse met spesifieke interpretasie

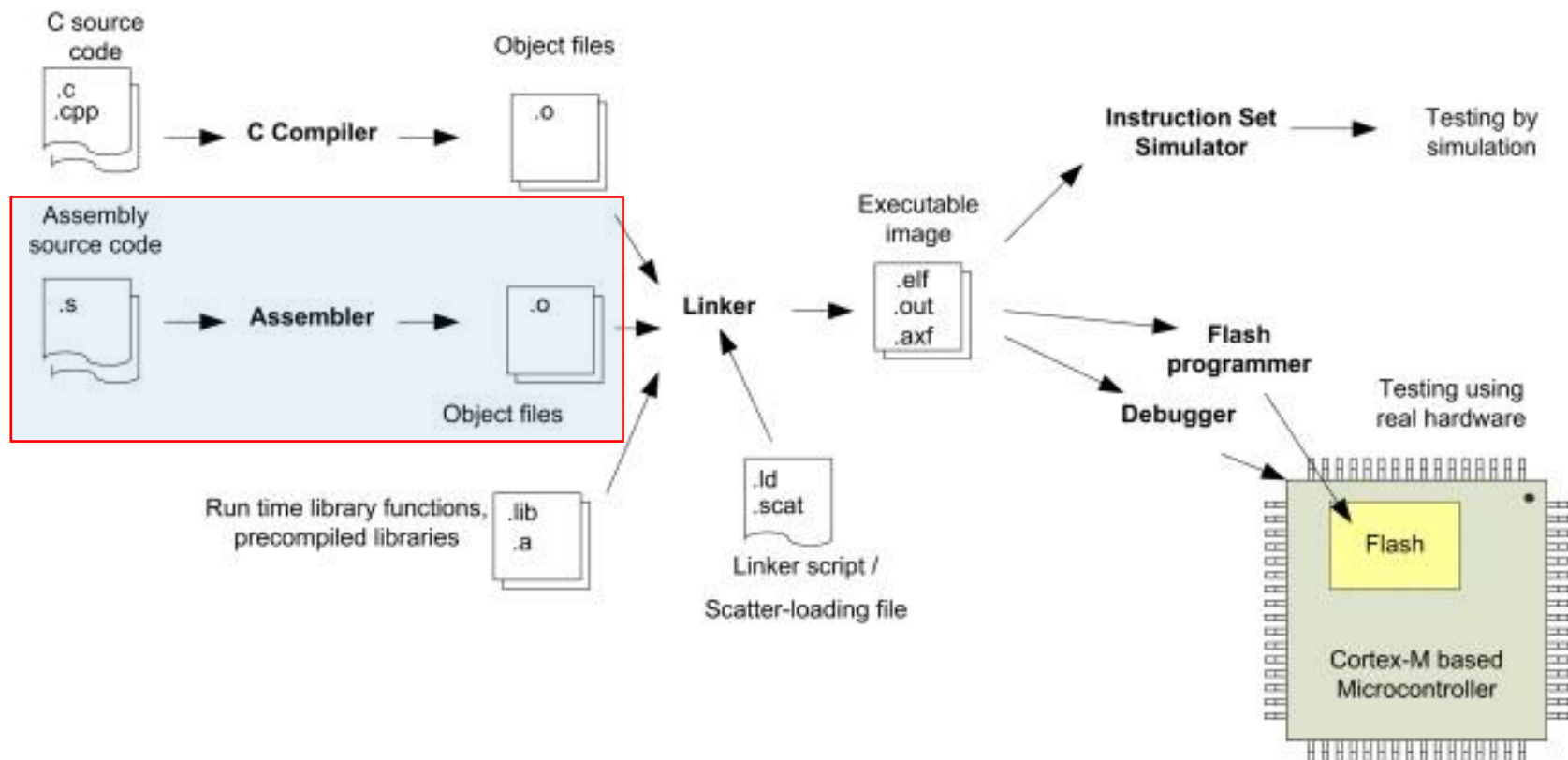




# ARM vs C – Simple program instruction

The **Assembler** translates assembly programs into machine code

Die **saamsteller** verander saamsteltaal programme na masjien kode



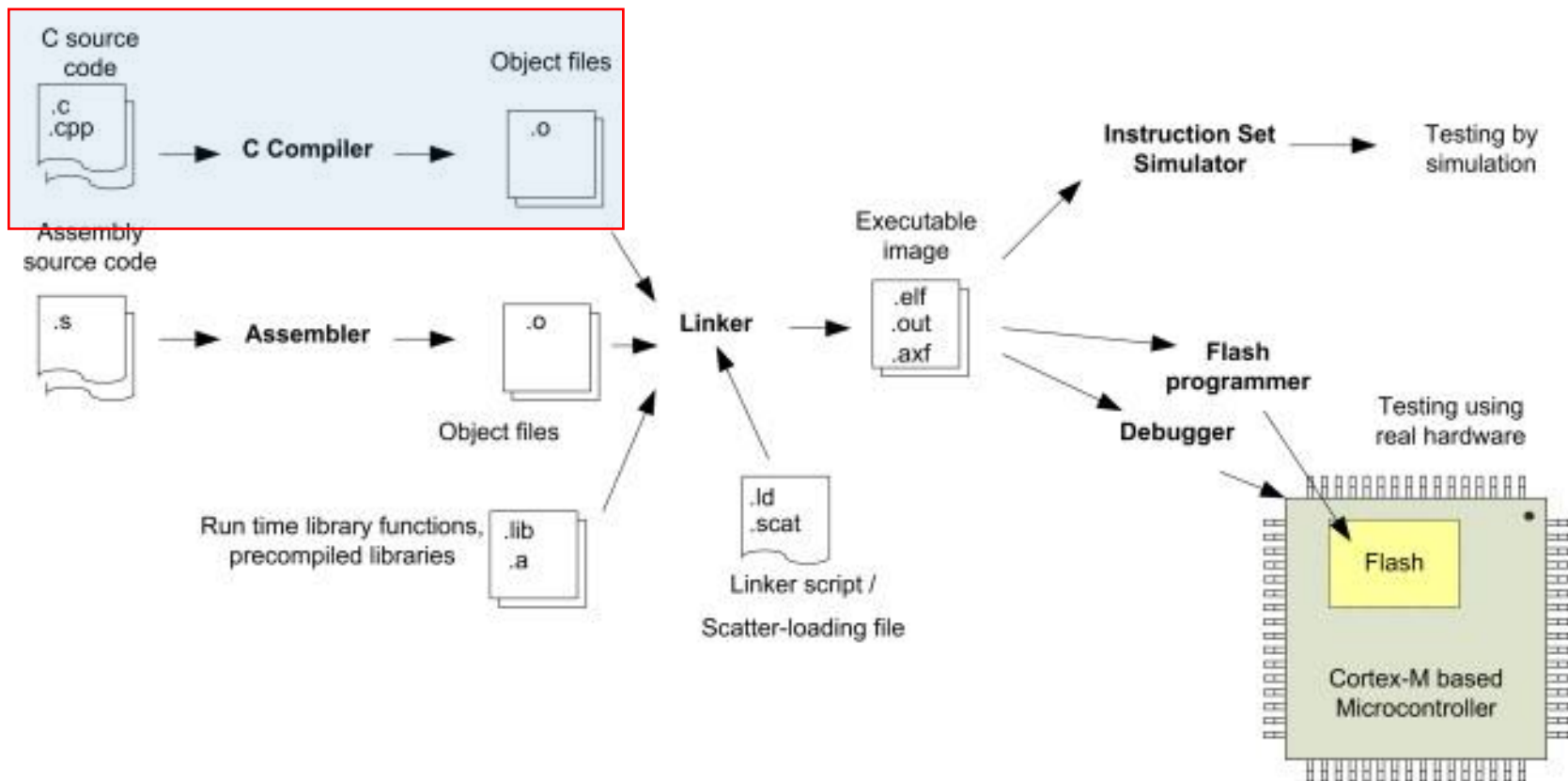
<https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/engineering/memory-layout>



# ARM vs C – Simple program instruction

The **Compiler** translates C or C++ code into machine code

Die **kompileerder(?)** verander C or C++ kode na masjien kode

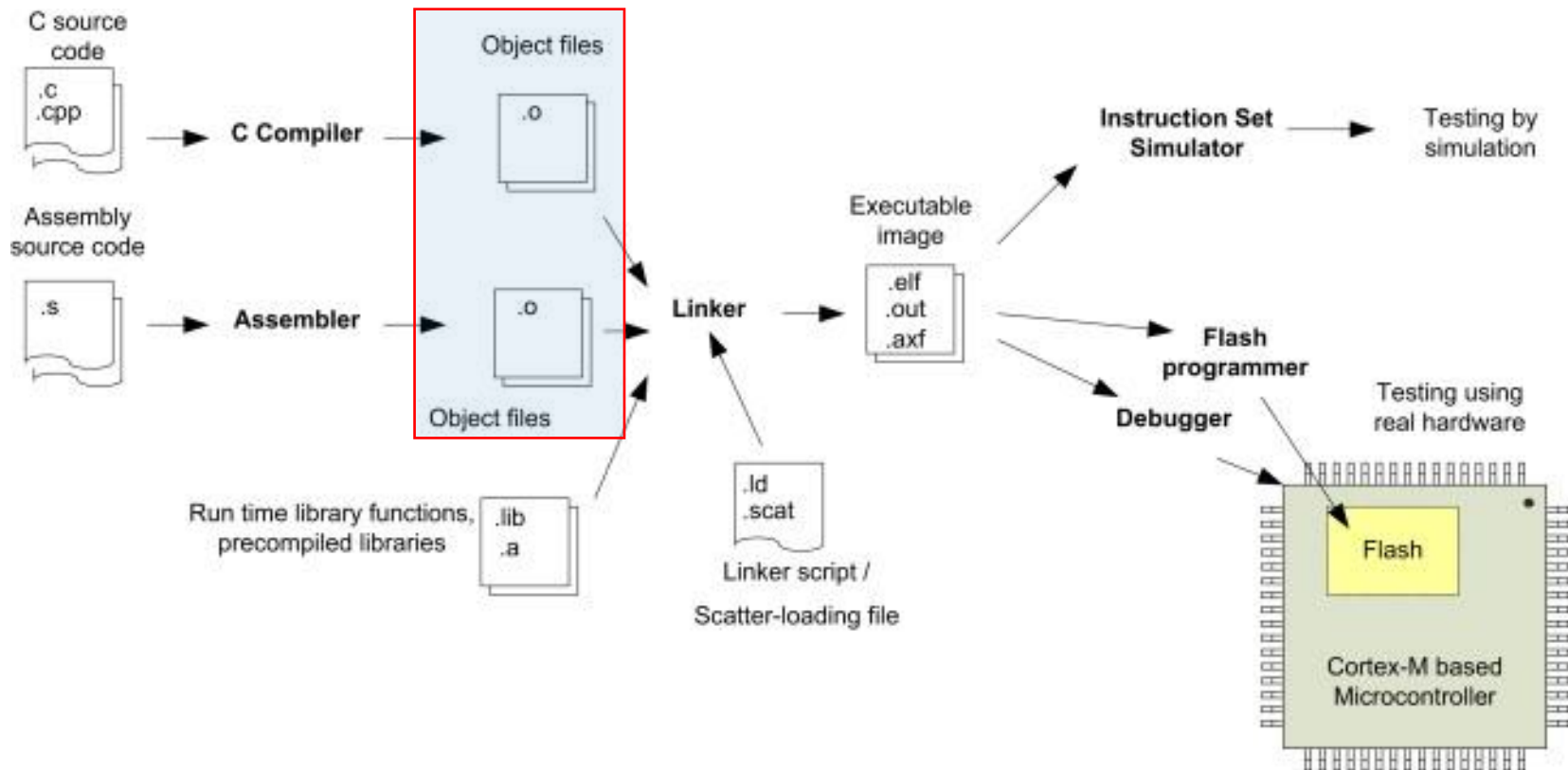


<https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/engineering/memory-layout>

# ARM vs C – Simple program instruction

- **Object files** contain machine code, debug information and symbols, relocation and linker information

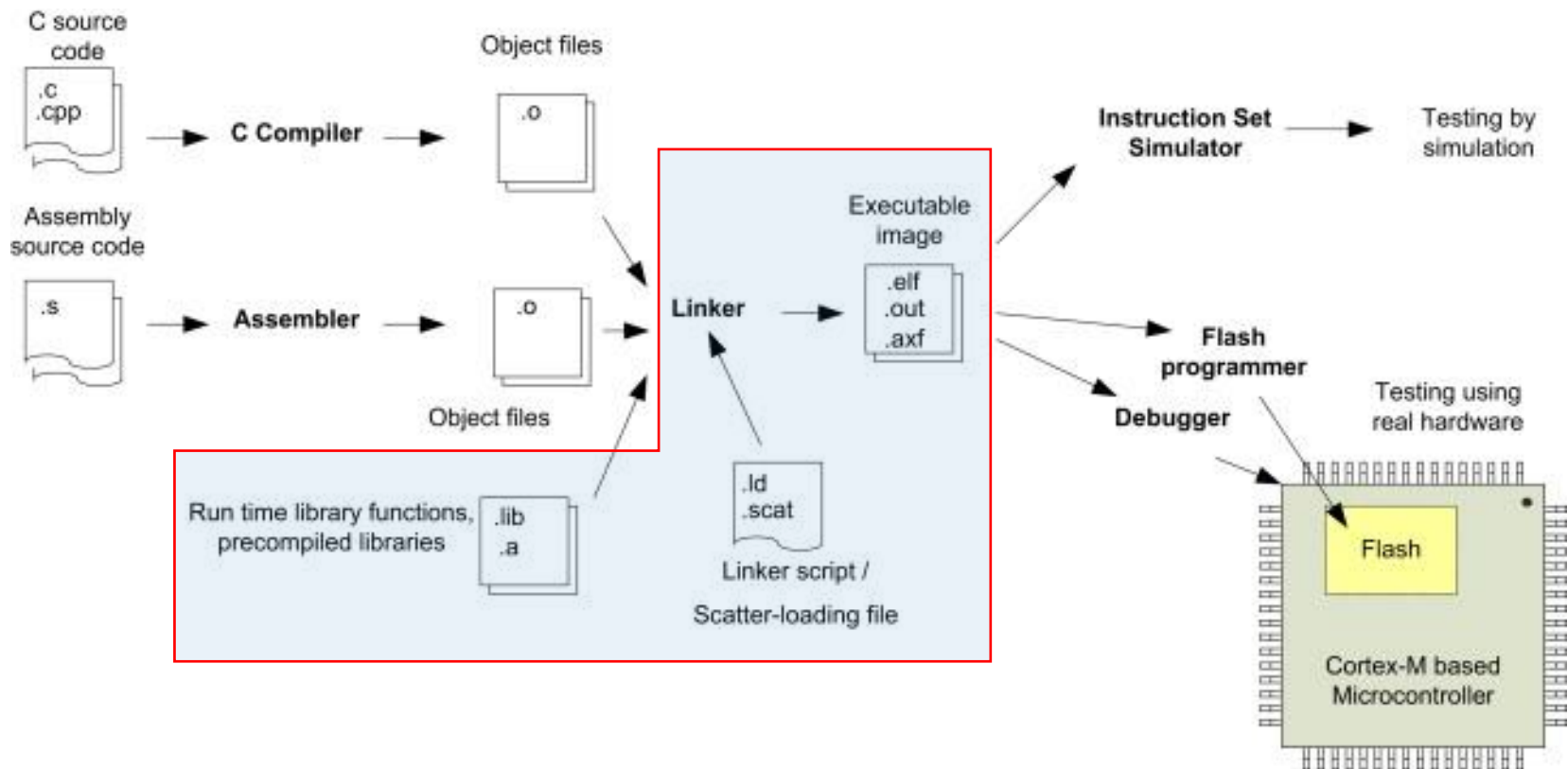
Objek lêers bevat masjien kode, simbole en fout-opsporing-, herposisionerings en koppel-inligting.



# ARM vs. C – Simple program instruction

The **Linker** combines object files with library files into an executable file

Die koppelaar(?) komineer objek lêers en biblioteek lêers om uitvoerbare program kode te lewer



# ARM vs. C - Simple program instructions

- The C-code can be translated to machine code as follows:

|            |                            |
|------------|----------------------------|
| int i;     | 080054ae: ldr r3, [r7, #4] |
| i = i + 1; | 080054b0: adds r3, #1      |
|            | 080054b2: str r3, [r7, #4] |

Addresses of  
instructions

Equivalent assembly from machine  
instructions

ldr r3, [r7, #4]  
adds r3, #1  
str r3, [r7, #4]

LDR = load. Load current value  
of *i* from memory (R7 + 4)

Add 1 to the current value of *i*

STR = Store. Store new  
value for *i* back to memory



# ARM Assembly program – Populate array

- Simple loop that stores incrementing numbers to memory

```
uint8_t data1[100];
int i;
for (i = 0; i < 100; i++)
{
    data1[i] = (uint8_t)i;
}
```

```
1 data1      FILL      100           ;Allocate 100 bytes of data memory
2
3          LDR        R1,=data1
4          MOV        R2, #0
5 loop
6          CMP        R2, #100
7          BGE        the_end
8          STRB       R2, [R1]
9          ADD        R1, R1, #1
10         ADD        R2, R2, #1
11         B          loop
12 the_end
```

Start address:  End address:

| Word Address | Byte 3 | Byte 2 | Byte 1 | Byte 0 | Word Value |
|--------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|------------|
| 0x100        | 0x3    | 0x2    | 0x1    | 0x0    | 0x3020100  |
| 0x104        | 0x7    | 0x6    | 0x5    | 0x4    | 0x7060504  |
| 0x108        | 0xB    | 0xA    | 0x9    | 0x8    | 0xB0A0908  |
| 0x10C        | 0xF    | 0xE    | 0xD    | 0xC    | 0xF0E0D0C  |
| 0x110        | 0x13   | 0x12   | 0x11   | 0x10   | 0x13121110 |
| 0x114        | 0x17   | 0x16   | 0x15   | 0x14   | 0x17161514 |
| 0x118        | 0x1B   | 0x1A   | 0x19   | 0x18   | 0x1B1A1918 |
| 0x11C        | 0x1F   | 0x1E   | 0x1D   | 0x1C   | 0x1F1E1D1C |
| 0x120        | 0x23   | 0x22   | 0x21   | 0x20   | 0x23222120 |
| 0x124        | 0x27   | 0x26   | 0x25   | 0x24   | 0x27262524 |



# ARM Assembly program – Populate array

- Some notes:
  - We used R2 for the variable i. i is not stored in memory.
  - Should a variable always be stored in memory?
  - If the C compiler (translated C code into machine instructions) is used to compile the code below, how will it differ from ASM code?
  - Answer: Compiler optimization settings
- We used R2 to temporarily contain an address – the address that we are writing to.

```
1 data1      FILL      100
2
3      LDR      R1,=data1
4      MOV      R2, #0
5 loop
6      CMP      R2, #100
7      BGE      the_end
8      STRB     R2, [R1]
9      ADD      R1, R1, #1
10     ADD      R2, R2, #1
11     B        loop
12 the_end
```

```
uint8_t data1[100];
int i;
for (i = 0; i < 100; i++)
{
    data1[i] = (uint8_t)i;
}
```



# Number systems intro / Getalstelsels intro

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- Refers to the numerical representation of a value.
  - In digital logic we only work with two states – HIGH and LOW.
  - It is clumsy to work with numbers between 0 – 9 (decimal) to perform mathematics with a two state (binary) system.
  - We use different number systems to make life easier when working with and designing digital systems.
- 
- Rekenaars gebruik binêre voorstelling vir alles. Heksadesimaal word gebruik vir leesbaarheid en gerief





# Decimal numbers / Desimale getalle

- Just as you (probably) have ten fingers, there are ten decimal digits from 0 to 9. [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
- Each digit (right to left) represents a multiple of a power of 10.
- Decimal numbers are also called **base-10** (or radix-10) numbers.

Indicating the **base**  
of the number

| 1000's | 100's | 10's | 1's |
|--------|-------|------|-----|
| 9      | 7     | 4    | 2   |

$9742_{10} = 9 \times 10^3 + 7 \times 10^2 + 4 \times 10^1 + 2 \times 10^0$

                    nine                      seven                      four                      two  
                    thousands              hundreds              tens                      ones

- An  $N$ -digit decimal number represents one of  $10^N$  possibilities. This is called the **range** of the number.
  - Three-digit decimal number represents one of 1000 possibilities in the range of 0 to 999.



# Binary numbers / Binêre getalle

- Binary digits or “bits” represent one of two values, 0 or 1.
- Each bit (right to left) represent a multiple of a power of 2.
- Binary numbers are **base-2**.

| 16's | 8's | 4's | 2's | 1's |
|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 1    | 0   | 1   | 1   | 0   |

$$10110_2 = 1 \times 2^4 + 0 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0 = 22_{10}$$

one  
sixteenno  
eightone  
fourone  
twono  
one

- An  $N$ -bit binary number represents one of  $2^N$  possibilities.
  - A four-bit binary number represents one of 16 possibilities. For positive numbers, this is the range of 0 to 15.
- Binary numbers are convenient for logic circuits in computers, since they can represent 2 states, i.e. low and high voltages.



# Hexadecimal numbers / Heksadesimale getalle

- Decimal numbers are useful, because they are used by people.
- Binary numbers are useful, because they are used by computers.
- Hexadecimal (**base-16**) numbers are useful, because they provide a shorthand notation for binary numbers.
- Each hexadecimal digit represents a group of four bits (a nibble).
- Hexadecimal numbers use the **digits 0 to 9** along with the **letters A to F**, to represent a total of 16 possible values (from 0 to 15).
- Each digit (right to left) represents a multiple of a power of 16.

| 256's | 16's | 1's |
|-------|------|-----|
| 2     | E    | D   |

$$2ED_{16} = 2 \times 16^2 + E \times 16^1 + D \times 16^0 = 749_{10}$$

two  
two hundred  
fifty six'sfourteen  
sixteensthirteen  
ones



# Conversion table / Omskakelings tabel

Table 1.2 Hexadecimal number system

| Hexadecimal Digit | Decimal Equivalent | Binary Equivalent |
|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| 0                 | 0                  | 0000              |
| 1                 | 1                  | 0001              |
| 2                 | 2                  | 0010              |
| 3                 | 3                  | 0011              |
| 4                 | 4                  | 0100              |
| 5                 | 5                  | 0101              |
| 6                 | 6                  | 0110              |
| 7                 | 7                  | 0111              |
| 8                 | 8                  | 1000              |
| 9                 | 9                  | 1001              |
| A                 | 10                 | 1010              |
| B                 | 11                 | 1011              |
| C                 | 12                 | 1100              |
| D                 | 13                 | 1101              |
| E                 | 14                 | 1110              |
| F                 | 15                 | 1111              |

Remember:

In C-code, prepend hexadecimal literals with '0x'

$$0xFF = FF_{16} = 1111\ 1111_2$$

$$0xA5 = A5_{16} = 1010\ 0101_2$$

In C-kode word heksadesimale konstantes voorafgegaan deur '0x'



# Binary representation / Binêre voorstelling

- In memory (SRAM, registers, etc) all we have is a pattern of bits.

|    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 31 | 30 | 29 | 28 | 27 | 26 | 25 | 24 | 23 | 22 | 21 | 20 | 19 | 18 | 17 | 16 | 15 | 14 | 13 | 12 | 11 | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 0  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0  |    |    |    | 0  |    |    |    | E  |    |    |    | 8  |    |    |    | 9  |    |    |    | 0  |    |   |   | 0 |   |   |   | 0 |   |   |   |

- Is it
  - A number? (signed, unsigned, floating point)
  - Character?
  - Machine instruction?
- The computer does not know what it is! To the computer this is simply a bit pattern.
- How the data in memory (SRAM, register, etc.) is interpreted depends on the current state of the CPU, and which instruction is about to be executed – it depends on you!



# Integers / Heelgetalle

- The maximum integer number that can be represented depends on the number of bits being used
- Unsigned numbers range from 0 to  $2^n - 1$
- Signed numbers range from  $-2^{n-1}$  to  $+2^{n-1} - 1$

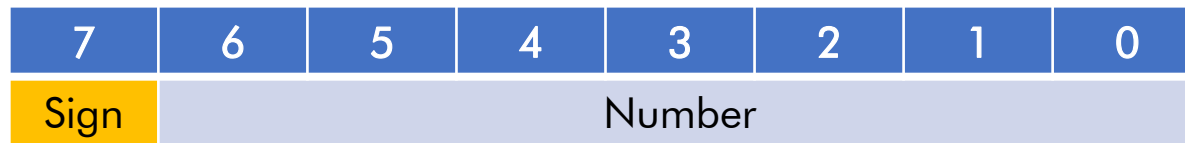
| Length      | No. of bits | Unsigned range     | Signed range                    |
|-------------|-------------|--------------------|---------------------------------|
| Byte        | 8           | 0 to 255           | -128 to 127                     |
| Half-word   | 16          | 0 to 65535         | -32768 to 32767                 |
| Word        | 32          | 0 to 4,294,967,295 | -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647 |
| Double word | 64          | 0 to $2^{64} - 1$  | $-2^{63}$ to $2^{63} - 1$       |

- Heelgetalle sonder teken bis kan strek van 0 tot  $2^n - 1$ . Heelgetalle met teken-bis kan strek van  $-2^{n-1}$  to  $+2^{n-1} - 1$  (waar daar n bisse gebruik word vir die voorstelling)

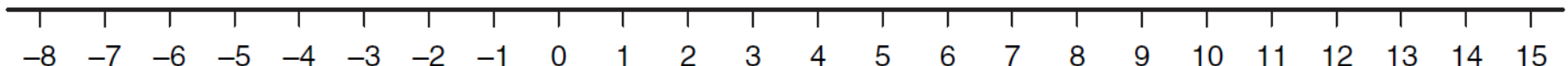


# Integers / Heelgetalle

- Signed integer numbers (numbers which can be positive or negative) are represented using 2s complement / Heelgetalle wat positief of negatief kan wees word deur 2s komplement voorgestel



- The processor will perform all arithmetic as if the number is unsigned. The difference is in the **interpretation** of the bit pattern.
- 2s complement are identical to unsigned binary numbers, but the most significant bit has a weight of  $-2^{N-1}$  instead of  $2^{N-1}$ .
  - The most positive number is:  $01...111_2 = 2^{N-1}-1$
  - The most negative number is:  $10...000_2 = -2^{N-1}$



Unsigned

0000 0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000 1001 1010 1011 1100 1101 1110 1111

1000 1001 1010 1011 1100 1101 1110 1111 0000 0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110 0111

Two's Complement



# C number types / C getal types

| Type           | Size (bits)       | Minimum                    | Maximum                      |
|----------------|-------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| char           | 8                 | $-2^{-7} = -128$           | $2^7 - 1 = 127$              |
| unsigned char  | 8                 | 0                          | $2^8 - 1 = 255$              |
| short          | 16                | $-2^{15} = -32,768$        | $2^{15} - 1 = 32,767$        |
| unsigned short | 16                | 0                          | $2^{16} - 1 = 65,535$        |
| long           | 32                | $-2^{31} = -2,147,483,648$ | $2^{31} - 1 = 2,147,483,647$ |
| unsigned long  | 32                | 0                          | $2^{32} - 1 = 4,294,967,295$ |
| long long      | 64                | $-2^{63}$                  | $2^{63} - 1$                 |
| unsigned long  | 64                | 0                          | $2^{64} - 1$                 |
| int            | machine-dependent |                            |                              |
| unsigned int   | machine-dependent |                            |                              |
| float          | 32                | $\pm 2^{-126}$             | $\pm 2^{127}$                |
| double         | 64                | $\pm 2^{-1023}$            | $\pm 2^{1022}$               |



# C number types / C getal types

- How to declare C variables for portable code:
- Platform provides a stdint.h header file, for instance:

```
typedef signed char  int8_t;  
typedef short int    int16_t;  
typedef int          int32_t;  
typedef unsigned char  uint8_t;  
typedef unsigned short int uint16_t;  
typedef unsigned int    uint32_t;
```

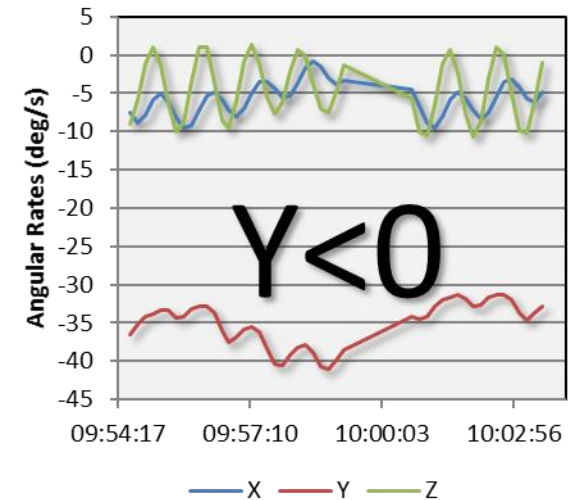
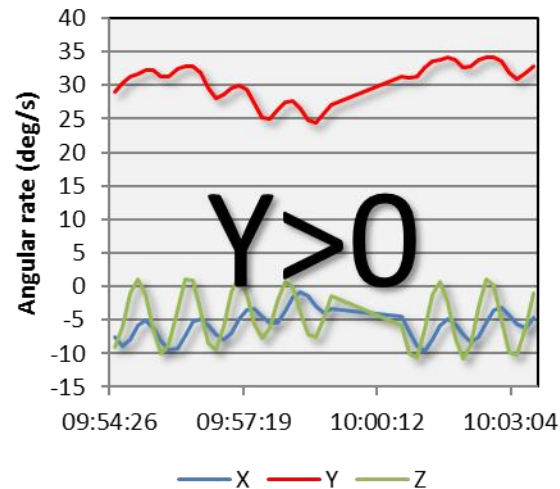
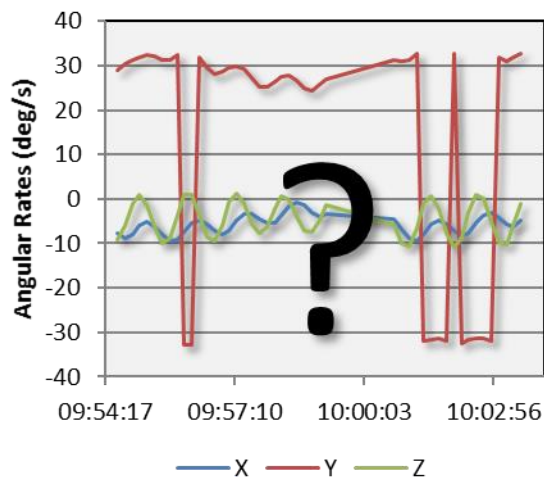
- In your source file:

```
#include <stdint.h>  
  
uint32_t variable = 5; // guaranteed to be a 32-bit int
```

# Integers / Heelgetalle

## Example – Satellite spin rate / Voorbeeld – satelliet spin tempo

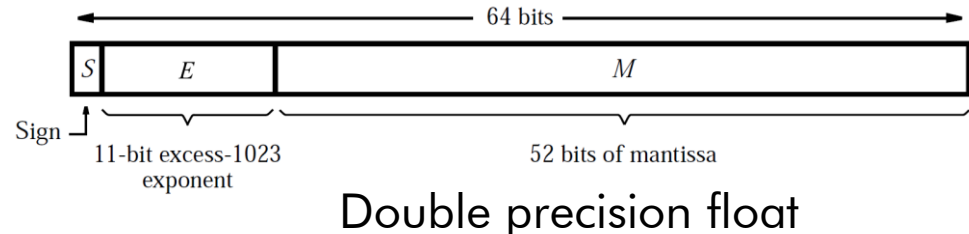
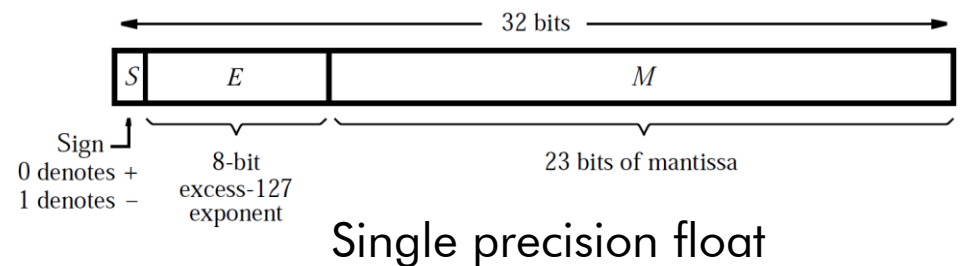
- Satellite angular rate vector (how fast it is spinning about each axis) telemetry uses 16-bit signed integer with x1000 scaling (fixed point decimal representation)
- Angular rate can vary from -32.768 to 32.767 deg/s
- Initial angular rates were quite a lot higher than expected. Values “jumping” between +32 and -32.



- What is the actual sign of the Y component?

# Floating point numbers / Wisselpunt getalle

- Increase the dynamic range with which a number can be stored – use scientific notation / Verhoog die dinamiese bereik waarbinne 'n getal gestoor kan word – gebruik wetenskaplike notasie
- $\text{Value} = (-1)^s \times (1.M) \times 2^{E-b}$
- $S$  = Sign bit
- $M$  = Mantissa (fraction)
- $E$  = Exponent
- $b$  = Bias/excess



- Single precision provides typically 6–9 digits of numerical precision, while double precision gives 15–17.
- Convenient online converter:



<http://babbage.cs.qc.cuny.edu/IEEE-754.old/Decimal.html>

# Characters / Karakters

- Numbers (bit patterns) can also be interpreted as characters (each character has a unique code) / Getalle kan ook geïnterpreteer word as karakter kodes
- ASCII used most commonly / ASCII word algemeen gebruik
- ASCII code for '0' is 48, '1' is 49 ...
- ASCII code for 'A' is 65, 'B' is 66 ...

```
char string1[] = "abc";  
unsigned char string2[] = {97, 98, 99, 0};
```

- Memory contents of string1 and string2 will be the same

# ASCII Table

**Table 6.5** ASCII encodings

| #  | Char  | #  | Char | #  | Char | #  | Char | #  | Char | #  | Char |
|----|-------|----|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|
| 20 | space | 30 | 0    | 40 | @    | 50 | P    | 60 | `    | 70 | p    |
| 21 | !     | 31 | 1    | 41 | A    | 51 | Q    | 61 | a    | 71 | q    |
| 22 | "     | 32 | 2    | 42 | B    | 52 | R    | 62 | b    | 72 | r    |
| 23 | #     | 33 | 3    | 43 | C    | 53 | S    | 63 | c    | 73 | s    |
| 24 | \$    | 34 | 4    | 44 | D    | 54 | T    | 64 | d    | 74 | t    |
| 25 | %     | 35 | 5    | 45 | E    | 55 | U    | 65 | e    | 75 | u    |
| 26 | &     | 36 | 6    | 46 | F    | 56 | V    | 66 | f    | 76 | v    |
| 27 | '     | 37 | 7    | 47 | G    | 57 | W    | 67 | g    | 77 | w    |
| 28 | (     | 38 | 8    | 48 | H    | 58 | X    | 68 | h    | 78 | x    |
| 29 | )     | 39 | 9    | 49 | I    | 59 | Y    | 69 | i    | 79 | y    |
| 2A | *     | 3A | :    | 4A | J    | 5A | Z    | 6A | j    | 7A | z    |
| 2B | +     | 3B | ;    | 4B | K    | 5B | [    | 6B | k    | 7B | {    |
| 2C | ,     | 3C | <    | 4C | L    | 5C | \    | 6C | l    | 7C |      |
| 2D | -     | 3D | =    | 4D | M    | 5D | ]    | 6D | m    | 7D | }    |
| 2E | .     | 3E | >    | 4E | N    | 5E | ^    | 6E | n    | 7E | ~    |
| 2F | /     | 3F | ?    | 4F | O    | 5F | _    | 6F | o    |    |      |



# Special Characters / Speciale karakters

- ASCII special character codes

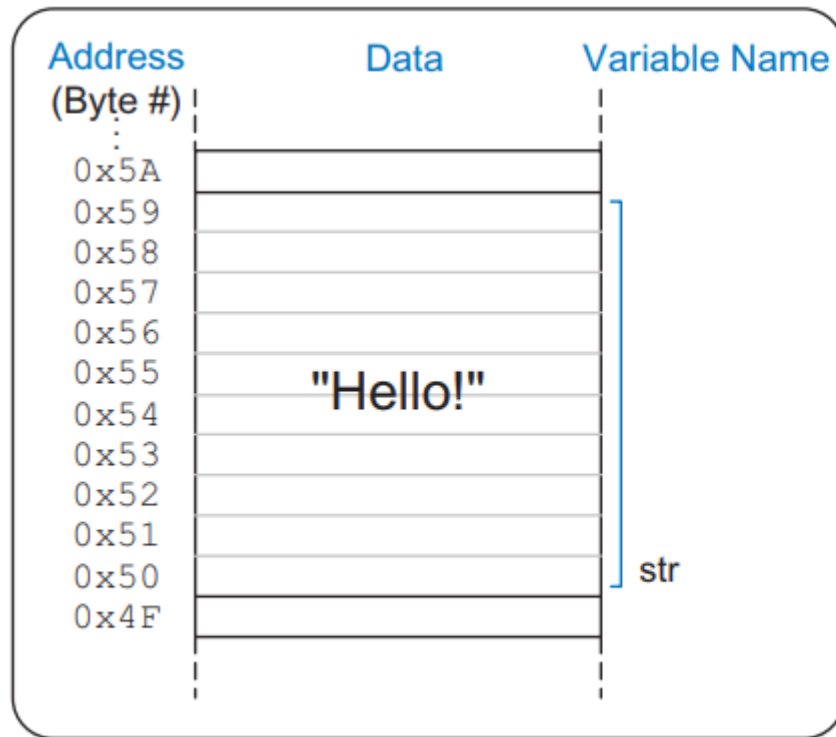
| Special Character | Hexadecimal Encoding | Description         |
|-------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| \r                | 0x0D                 | carriage return     |
| \n                | 0x0A                 | new line            |
| \t                | 0x09                 | tab                 |
| \0                | 0x00                 | terminates a string |
| \\                | 0x5C                 | backslash           |
| \"                | 0x22                 | double quote        |
| \'                | 0x27                 | single quote        |
| \a                | 0x07                 | bell                |



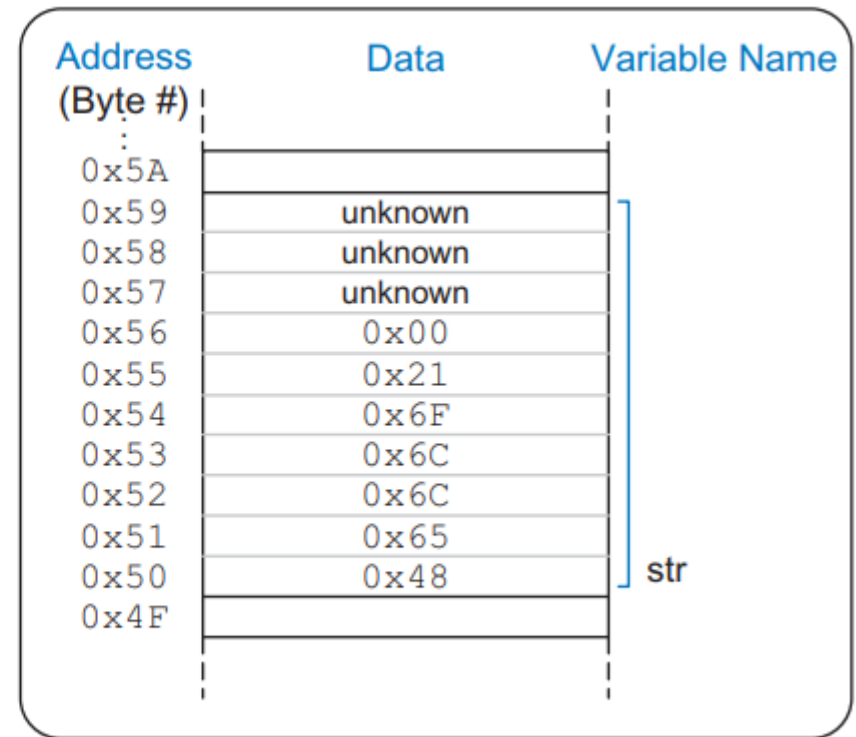
# C-string / C-stringe

- Strings in C are character arrays with “null termination” – a byte value of 0.

```
char greeting[10] = "Hello!";
```



Memory



Memory





# Boolean type / Boolese tipe

C89 does not have built-in Boolean types (\*)

```
#include <stdbool.h>

bool conditionA = false;
bool conditionB = true;

if (conditionA && conditionB)
    do_stuff();
```

In stdbool.h:

```
#define true    1
#define false   0

#define bool    _Bool
```

Is equivalent to (\*)

```
int conditionA = 0;
int conditionB = 1;

if (conditionA && conditionB)
    do_stuff();
```

\*sort of. Depends how the compiler implements the `_Bool` type of C99 standard of C language



# sizeof(...)

## What does sizeof() return in C?

- Allocated storage size for variable
- sizeof(unsigned char) → 1
- sizeof(uint32\_t) → 4
- sizeof(\_Bool) → implementation specific
- sizeof(int) → implementation specific

## For arrays and pointers:

- char data[40];
- char\* ddata = data;
- sizeof(data) → 40
- sizeof(ddata) → num of bytes to store a pointer (address, e.g. 32 bits)

**NB! sizeof() is not an actual function. It is an operator. There is no code that will calculate how many elements there are in your array. It simply asks the compiler to replace the "sizeof(...)" text with its implementation for that variable**

