# CS 4400 Computer Systems

#### **LECTURE 2**

Information storage
Bit-level operations
New to C?

#### 

- A. an unsigned integer > 231
- B. a negative integer
- c. a normalized floating-point value
- D. four characters
- E. an x86 assembly-language instruction
- F. none of the above
- G. all of the above

#### **Bits**

- All information stored by computers reduces to groups of two-valued signals, bits.
- Only when we apply some interpretation to the different possible bit patterns does a group of bits have meaning.
- Three important encodings
  - unsigned integers:  $x \ge 0$
  - two's complement integers: x may be positive, negative, or 0
  - floating-point numbers: approximate real values
- We can represent the values of any finite set.

#### Limitations

 Due to using a limited number of bits to encode a value, overflow (or underflow) can occur.

```
int x = 10000000000;
int y = 2000000000;
int z = x + y; // z is -1294967296
```

- Computer arithmetic does not follow every rule of integer arithmetic.
  - × The sum of two positive integers is a positive integer.
- However, computer arithmetic is consistent.
- Ariane 5 explosion

### Why Do We Care?

- By understanding
  - the ranges of values that can be represented
  - the properties of arithmetic operations
- We can write programs that
  - work correctly over the full range of values
  - are portable across different machines and compilers
- Learning how to implement arithmetic operations by directly manipulating the bits that represent numbers is critical to understanding the machine-level code generated.

### Addressing Bytes

- Bits are accessible in 8-bit blocks, bytes.
- To a machine-level program, memory is simply a very large array of bytes, virtual memory
- A unique number identifies each such byte, virtual memory address
- The set of all possible addresses, the *virtual* memory address space, is merely conceptual
- The mapping of virtual memory addresses to physical (i.e., real) addresses will be covered later

#### **Binary Notation**

- Each binary digit has a position p, starting with the least-significant bit (LSB) at p = 0 and proceeding to the most-significant bit (MSB) at p = bitCount 1.
- Written with LSB on the right and MSB on the left.
- If the bit at position p is 1, it contributes 2p to the decimal value of the number being represented.

$$x = bit_{bitCount-1} * 2^{bitCount-1} + ... + bit_1 * 2^1 + bit_0 * 2^0$$

Decimal value 23 in binary notation?

#### **Hexadecimal Notation**

- Base 16, using digits 0-9 and characters A-F to represent the 16 possible values.
- Easiest to convert from binary in 4-bit groups.
- In C, numeric constants starting with 0x or 0X are interpreted as being in hexadecimal.
- Decimal value 23 in hex?
- Binary value 10011100 in hex?

hex	decimal	binary		
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		
В	11	1011		
C	12	1100		
D	13	1101		
E	14	1110		
F	15	1111		

#### Conversions

• See decimal\_to\_hex.c

• See hex\_to\_decimal.c

• See binary\_conversions.c

(Sample code is uploaded to the Canvas page for CS 4400, look under the "files" tab at the left side of the page, then in the folder for Lecture 2)

#### Words

- Every computer has a word size, which indicates the size of integer and pointer data.
- How does the word size determine the maximum of the virtual address space?
- For a machine with an *n-bit* word size, virtual addresses can range from 0 to 2<sup>n</sup>-1.
- For computers that are 32-bit, the virtual address space is limited to 4 GB.
- What's the limit for 64-bit?

#### **Data Sizes**

- Computers and compilers support multiple data formats in different lengths.
- C supports data formats for both integers and floating-point.

	typical 32-bit	typical 64-bit
char	1	1
short int	2	2
int	4	4
long int	4	8
char*	4	8
float	4	4
double	8	8
quadruple	16	16

### **Portability**

- One aspect of portability is to make programs insensitive to the exact sizes of different data types.
- Because 32-bit machines have been the standard for so long, older programs assume the "typical 32-bit" sizes.
- With the increasing prominence of 64-bit machines, hidden word dependences have surfaced as bugs.
- For example, using an int to store a pointer can be problematic.

### Addressing Multi-Byte Data

- For an object that spans multiple bytes, we must consider
  - how to address the object
  - how the bytes are ordered
- The object's address is that of the smallest of the bytes.
- For example, an int stored in four bytes at memory locations 0x100, 0x101, 0x102, and 0x103 has address 0x100.

## Two Byte Ordering Conventions

- Consider a w-bit integer with bit representation  $x_{w-1} x_{w-2} \dots x_1 x_0$  with MSB  $x_{w-1}$  and LSB  $x_0$
- Assume w is a multiple of 8, to group the bits in bytes.
- The most-significant byte has bits  $x_{w-1} x_{w-2} ... x_{w-7} x_{w-8}$
- The least-significant byte has bits  $x_7 x_6 \dots x_1 x_0$
- Little endian—the least-significant byte comes first
- Big endian—the most-significant byte comes first

### **Example: Byte Order**

• Little endian:

$$x_7 x_6 ... x_1 x_0 | x_{15} x_{14} ... x_9 x_8 | x_{23} x_{22} ... x_{17} x_{16} | ...$$

Big endian:

... 
$$| x_{23} x_{22} ... x_{17} x_{16} | x_{15} x_{14} ... x_9 x_8 | x_7 x_6 ... x_1 x_0$$

Consider

```
int x = 0x01234567; // 19088743
int* addr = &x; // 0x100
```

	•••	0x100	0x101	0x102	0x103	•••
?? endian		01	23	45	67	
?? endian		67	45	23	01	

• When is byte order an issue for the programmer?

#### Representing Strings

- In C, a string is an array of characters terminated with a special character ' $\setminus 0$ ' (the null character, value  $0 \times 0$ ).
- Each character is simply an integer code (usually ASCII).
- Example 1: "hello"

  68 65 6C 6C 6F 00
- Example 2: "1234567"

  31 32 33 34 35 36 37 00
- These examples are independent of byte ordering and word size. Why?
- How are Java strings different?

### Representing Code

- From the perspective of the machine, a program is simply a sequence of bytes.
- Example:

```
int sum(int x, int y) {
  return x + y;
}
```

- Linux 05 89 e5 8b 45 0c 03 45 08 89 ec 5d c3
- Sun 81 c3 e0 08 90 02 00 09
- Binary code is seldom portable across different machines.

#### Question

Suppose that

int 
$$x = 0xAA;$$
  
int  $y = 0x55;$ 

What are the results of the following C expressions?

And:	х & у		х && У			
(X)Or:	x   7	7	x '	У	X	У
Not:	~X		~y	! >	ζ	!y
Shift:	x<<2	У	<<2	X>>	>2	y>>2

#### Operations in C

- See bit\_level\_ops.c
- See logical\_ops.c
  - Be careful not to confuse bit-level and logical ops.
  - What is short-circuit evaluation?
- See shift\_ops.c
  - Left shift always fills with 0s.
  - Right shift may be logical (fills w/0s) or arithmetic (fills w/value of MSB).

#### New to C? – Pointers

 You are already familiar with accessing variables using their names (same as in Java).

```
int num = 10;
```

- We can also access num through a second variable that holds the address of variable num.
- The pointer variable ptr holds the address of num.

```
int* ptr = #
```

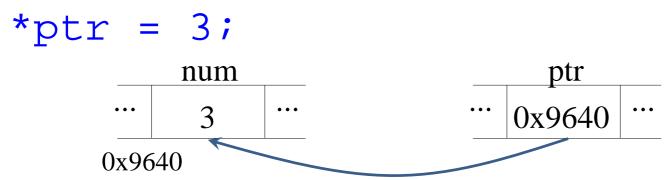
• & immediately to the left of a variable gives an expression whose value is the variable's virtual memory address.

#### Pointers and Addresses

- Suppose the address of num is 0x9640.
- Variable ptr "points to" num: ptr = #



• To access the contents of a cell whose addresses is in ptr, dereference the pointer using \*ptr.



### **Declaring Pointers**

 To declare ptr as a pointer variable that can hold the address of an int variable:

```
int* ptr;
```

- The data type is int\*, the variable is ptr.
- Be careful when declaring multiple variables on the same line. In

```
int* ptr1, ptr2;
```

- The variable ptr2 is a regular int.
- To declare two pointers:

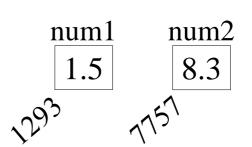
```
int *ptr1, *ptr2;
```

```
float num1 = 1.5;
2. float num2 = 8.3;
  float temp;
3.
4. float* flt_ptr;
5. flt_ptr = &num1;
6. temp = *flt_ptr;
7. *flt_ptr = num2;
8. num2 = temp;
```

What values do you expect to be contained in num1, num2, temp, and flt\_ptr?

```
num1
1. float num1 = 1.5;
                           1.5
2. float num2 = 8.3;
3. float temp;
4. float* flt_ptr;
5. flt_ptr = &num1;
6. temp = *flt_ptr;
7. *flt_ptr = num2;
8. num2 = temp;
```

```
1. float num1 = 1.5;
2. float num2 = 8.3;
3. float temp;
4. float* flt_ptr;
5. flt_ptr = &num1;
6. temp = *flt_ptr;
7. *flt_ptr = num2;
8. num2 = temp;
```



```
1. float num1 = 1.5;
2. float num2 = 8.3;
                                 num2
                          num1
3. float temp;
                           1.5
                                 8.3
4. float* flt_ptr;
5. flt_ptr = &num1;
6. temp = *flt_ptr;
7. *flt_ptr = num2;
8. num2 = temp;
```

temp

```
float num1 = 1.5;
2. float num2 = 8.3;
3. float temp;
                                 num2
                           num1
                                       temp
4. float* flt_ptr;
                           1.5
                                  8.3
5. flt_ptr = &num1;
6. temp = *flt_ptr;
7. *flt_ptr = num2;
8. num2 = temp;
```

flt\_ptr

```
float num1 = 1.5;
2. float num2 = 8.3;
  float temp;
3.
  float* flt_ptr;
4.
                          num1
                                 num2
5. flt_ptr = &num1;
                           1.5
                                  8.3
  temp = *flt_ptr;
7. *flt_ptr = num2;
8. num2 = temp;
```

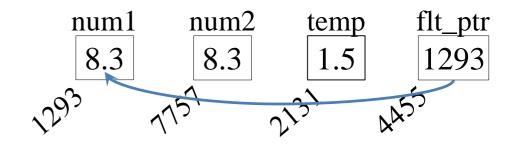
flt\_ptr

1293

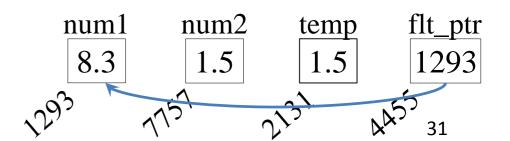
temp

```
float num1 = 1.5;
1.
2. float num2 = 8.3;
  float temp;
3.
  float* flt_ptr;
4.
5. flt_ptr = &num1;
                                   num2
                            num1
                                                flt_ptr
                                          temp
                                    8.3
   temp = *flt_ptr;
                                          1.5
                                                1293
                             1.5
7. *flt_ptr = num2;
   num2 = temp;
```

```
float num1 = 1.5;
1.
2. float num2 = 8.3;
  float temp;
3.
  float* flt_ptr;
4.
5. flt_ptr = &num1;
6.
   temp = *flt_ptr;
7. *flt_ptr = num2;
   num2 = temp;
```



```
float num1 = 1.5;
2. float num2 = 8.3;
3. float temp;
4. float* flt_ptr;
5. flt_ptr = &num1;
  temp = *flt_ptr;
7. *flt_ptr = num2;
8. num2 = temp;
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```



```
float num1 = 1.5;
1.
   float num2 = 8.3;
   fld
3.
        Why do we have pointers? It seems
    flo
4.
           like a more complicated way to
   flt
5.
         do something we could already do!
    tem
6.
   *flt_ptr = num2;
                               num1
                                      num2
                                             temp
                                                    flt_ptr
   num2 = temp;
                                       1.5
                                              1.5
                               8.3
                                                    1293
```

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### Pointers and Arrays

- An array name is a pointer constant whose value is the address of the first array element, and the value cannot be changed.
- A pointer variable has a value that is an address, and it can be changed.
- Example:

```
float rates[100];
float *ptr;
ptr = rates; /* needs no & */
```

Last line equivalent to ptr = &rates[0];

## **Dynamically-Allocated Arrays**

 How do you deal with an array when you don't know at compile time how large it should be?

```
int my_array[100000]; //big enough?
```

Allocate memory at run time, using library routine malloc.

```
int x = count_of_bytes_given_by_user;
int* my_array = malloc(x);
// my_array is address of first element
// my_array+1 is address of second
```

Much more on dynamic memory allocation to come.

#### Pointers and Strings

Recall that strings are really char arrays.

```
char my_string[] = "hello";
```

We can have a pointer to the array.

```
char *ptr = my_string;
```

 In fact, we can directly initialize the pointer with the string.

```
char *ptr = "hello";
```

• What is the difference between ptr and my\_string?

#### Pointer Arithmetic

- Pointer arithmetic can access individual array elements.
- Ops ++ and -- increment/decrement pointers.
- The result of incrementing a pointer is that it points to the next cell in the array (works regardless of the data size).
- Other operations may be applied to pointers (+, -, <, >).
- Example:

```
float nums[] = { 1.2, 3.4, 5.6 };
float *p1 = nums;
float *p2 = p1 + 2;
```

• Value of \*p2? Is expression p1 < p2 true or false?

#### **Exercise: Pointers**

- Write a function <a href="mailto:check">check</a> with two parameters: <a href="mailto:check">char\*</a> str and <a href="mailto:check">char\*</a> c.
- Function check returns 1 if c is in str and 0 otherwise.

(See check.c)

### New to C? – Formatted Output

- Function printf performs formatted output, in that it
  - controls where data is written
  - converts input into the desired type
  - writes output in the desired manner
- To print to standard out, use printf(format\_str, arg1, ..., argN)
- Functions for printing to file and to string also exist, and are similar (fprintf and sprintf, respectively).
- Example:

```
printf("%i%c%i is %f", 1, '/', 2, 0.5);
```

#### Format String and Address List

- The format\_str and argument list (arg1,...,argN) should correspond.
- An item in the format\_str specifies how the argument should be converted for output.
- The matching item in the argument list specifies what value should be printed. This list may contain any valid C expression, even function calls.
- The format string may contain any ordinary characters and conversion codes (denoting how to convert output).

#### **Conversion Codes**

- %d, %i decimal number
- %x, %X unsigned hexadecimal number
- %c single character
- %s characters from string until reaching '\0'
- %f floating-point number (default precision: 6)

 Note: see K&R for more conversion codes and options (field width, max chars/digits printed, alignment, ...).

#### New to C? – Casting

- In C, it is possible to explicitly convert one data type to another (pointer types included).
- For example, suppose that x is of type int. The expression (float)x is the original value of x converted to float.
- Note that the actual value and type of  $\mathbf{x}$  are unchanged.
- Casting may also be implicit. In mixed-type expressions, the types of some values are (invisibly) changed.

### **Example: Casting**

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {
                                      unix> gcc casting.c
 int miles;
                                      unix>./a.out
 int hours;
                                      151.000000
 float mph;
                                      151,666672
 miles = 455;
     hours = 3i
     mph = miles / hours;
 printf("%f\n", mph);
 mph = (float) miles / (float) hours;
                   printf("%f\n", mph);
 return 0;
```

casting.c

#### Mixed-Mode Arithmetic

- When variables of different types are included in a single arithmetic expression, the values are converted to the same type before the operation is performed.
- For example, the value of int variable x is converted to type float before the division is performed.

x / 4.0

- Again, the actual type and value of x are unchanged.
- Conversion to the same, more general type. E.g., converts int to float, not float to int.

### Type Promotion Hierarchy

- Types are organized into a promotion hierarchy.
  - long double
  - double
  - float
  - unsigned long
  - long
  - unsignedint
  - int
  - unsigned short
  - short
  - unsigned char
  - char

more general

### Example: Mixed-Mode Arithmetic

- Pay attention to when the type conversion occurs.
- Notice difference in implicit and explicit conversion.
- Example: