

# CSC 373 Winter 2020 Professor Lytinen

## Computer Representations of Instructions, Characters, and Integers

We are almost done with the C book. Text: Bryant and O'Hallaron, Chapter p. 31-95 (sections 2.1, 2.2, and part of 2.3)

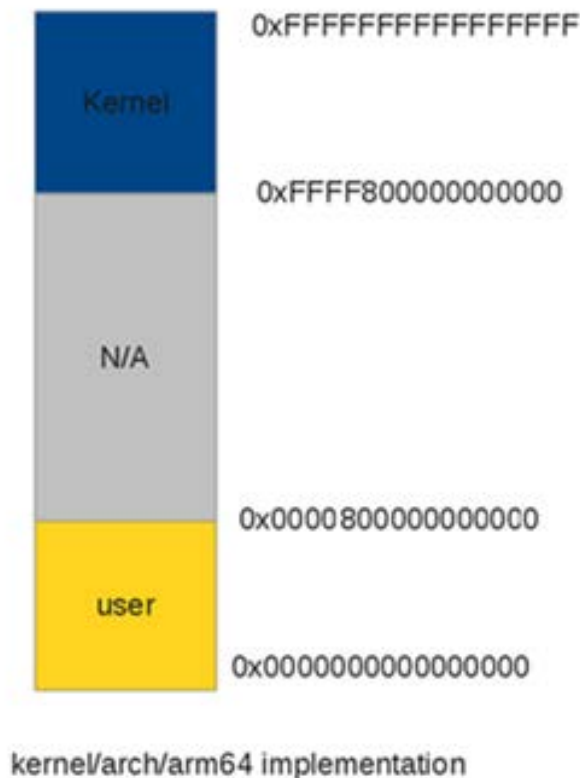
1. **Everything in a computer memory is a bit (0 or a 1)**
2. 8 bits = 1 **byte**
3. In general, a byte is the smallest directly addressable chunk of memory.
4. Bytes are further grouped together into larger sized chunks depending on the type of data

# Virtual memory

- On a 64-bit machine, the operating system gives a process the illusion that it has  $2^{64}$  bytes of memory (called **virtual memory**).
- This is also referred to as the **address space** of the process
- In reality, much of this data is stored on the disk, or don't exist at all. Copies of parts of the process may also be stored in
  - Main memory
  - The caches (starting with L3)
- For the most part, processes generally have **no control** of precisely where in physical memory data is store (exception: In **assembly language** we can specify that an **int** should be placed in and integer register).. These decisions are made by the hardware and/or the operating system.
- At the process level, all that can be explicitly referenced are the registers (by referring to an instruction with a register operand) and/or a virtual memory address ( $0 \dots (2^{64} - 1)$ )

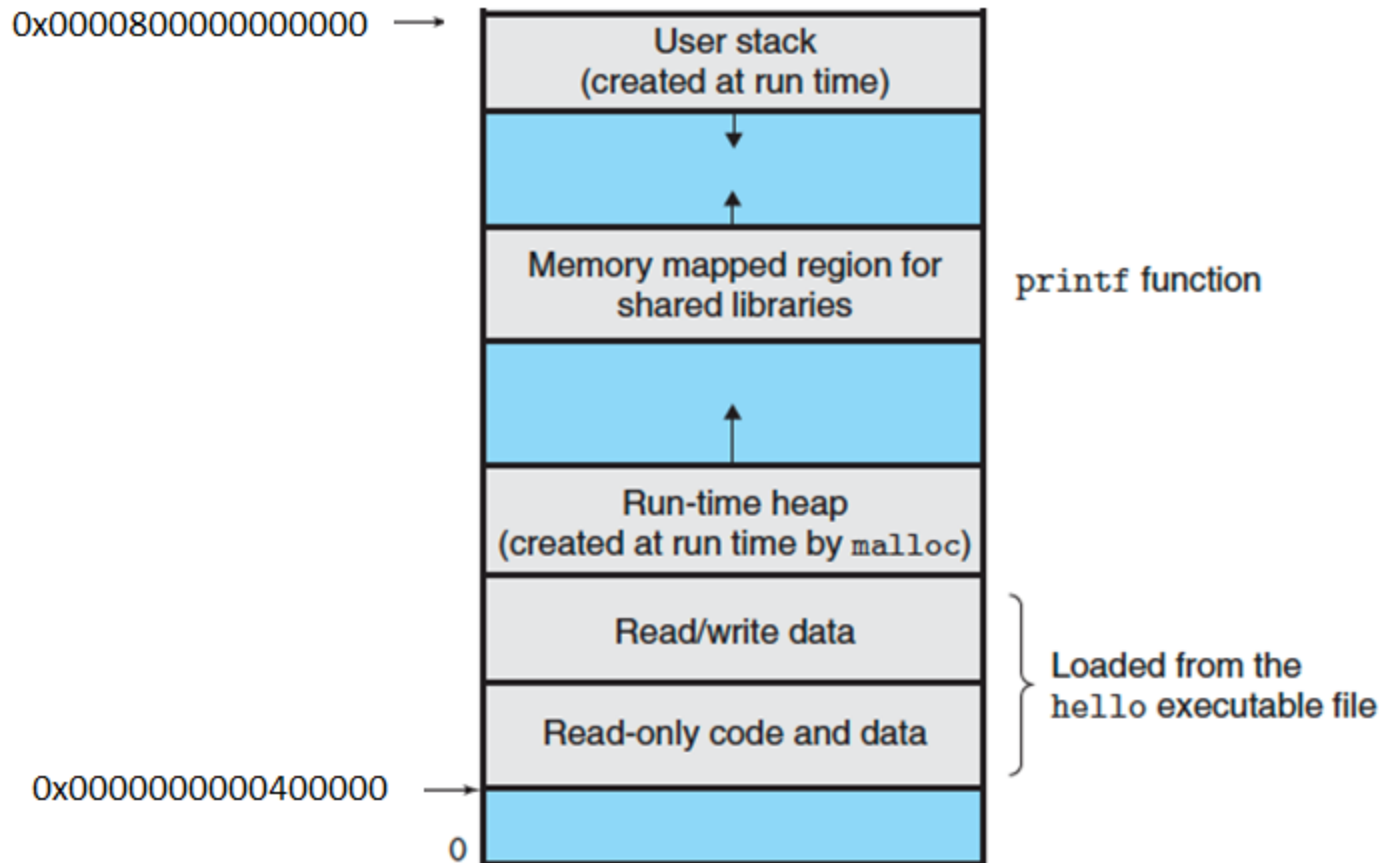
# Division of address space

- Source: <http://thinkiii.blogspot.com/2014/02/arm64-linux-kernel-virtual-address-space.html>
- Not all  $2^{64}$  bytes of the address space of a process are used;
- The “top” portion of the address space contains the OS “kernel” (its essentials); the bottom portion is your program and data. Note that the yellow is  $2^{48}$  bytes,  $2^{18}$  bytes are still unused.



# User address space

<http://stackoverflow.com/questions/9511982/virtual-address-space-in-the-context-of-programming>



# Storing programs and data

- **Instructions** are stored in groups of bytes of varying size, depending on the specific instruction
  - Details discussed in Chapter 3; instructions range from 1-15 bytes
- Each **data type** has its own internal representation:
  - int: and its variants: 1-8 bytes (8 - 64 bits), depending on the specific data type. All but unsigned types use the same basic format, called **2s complement**, which can represent an approximately equal range of positive and negative numbers

In an n-bit number,

$b_0$  is the least significant (rightmost) bit, and  $b_{n-1}$  is the leftmost bit (possibly the sign bit)

- The unsigned types do not support negative numbers within their ranges, and have a range of  $0 \dots (2^n - 1)$  ( $n$  = number of bits)

# Storing programs and data

- float, double: floating point numbers have their own representation. We'll discuss floating point briefly (not now).
- char: ASCII (each is 1 byte) or Unicode (each is 2 bytes) encoding. We will assume characters are in ASCII format.
- All pointers are 64-bits; content is interpreted as an address
- How does a program know whether to interpret something as an instruction, a char, an int, a float, a pointer, etc?
  - It's all just 0s and 1s
- At the machine level, the data type is interpreted by the context in which it is used

# Representation of Integers

- Base 10 is most natural for humans
- For computers, binary is the only option
- Signed integers: leftmost bit represents the sign (0 means non-negative, 1 means negative)
- remaining bits used for the specific negative or non-negative values

# Integers in Base 10

- Base 10:
  - 10 different symbols (0...9)
  - each digit has a different meaning depending on its location relative to other symbols in a number
  - Examples using the digit 1

Number	Number of trailing 0's	Meaning	As spoken in English
1	0	$10^0$	one
10	1	$10^1$	ten
100	2	$10^2$	one hundred
1000	3	$10^3$	one thousand
10000	4	$10^4$	ten thousand



## Other digits

Number	Number of trailing digits	Meaning of digit	As spoken in English
2	0	$2 * 10^0$	two
50	1	$5 * 10^1$	fifty
400	2	$4 * 10^2$	four hundred

Example:  $58204_{10}$

$10^4$	$10^3$	$10^2$	$10^1$	$10^0$
5	8	2	0	4
$5 * 10^4$	$8 * 10^3$	$2 * 10^2$	$0 * 10^1$	$4 * 10^0$
50000	8000	200	0	4

$$50000 + 8000 + 200 + 0 + 4 = 58204$$

## Base 2 for non-negative integers

- 2 different symbols (0, 1)
- Each digit represents a different power of 2, depending on where in the number it appears.
- For example, numbers with 1 followed by different numbers of 0's.

Number	Number of trailing 0's	Meaning	As spoken in English
1	0	$2^0$	one
10	1	$2^1$	two
100	2	$2^2$	four
1000	3	$2^3$	eight
10000	4	$2^4$	Sixteen

In general, if a 1 is followed by  $n$  0's, then the 1 means  $2^n$

# Converting from binary to base 10

**Example: 0000 0000 1011 0011<sub>2</sub>**

- In general, we'll pad the binary number with a appropriate number of 0s to conform to the data type's size (e.g., 16 bits for a `short` )
- $1*2^0 + 1*2^1 + 1*2^4 + 1*2^5 + 1*2^7 = 1 + 2 + 16 + 32 + 128 = \mathbf{179}_{10}$

**Another Example: 0000 0010 1100 1001<sub>2</sub>**

- $1*2^0 + \dots$

# Converting from (non-negative) base 10 to binary

## Method 1: powers of two

To convert a base 10 number to  $n$ -bit binary:

1. Initialize  $p$  to be  $2^{n-2}$ , the largest positive power of 2 that can be represented in  $n$  bits (leftmost reserved for the sign)
2. Repeat until  $p == 0$ :
  - a) If  $x \geq p$  then the next digit is 1. Also, subtract  $p$  from  $x$
  - b) Otherwise, the next bit is 0.
  - c) In either case, divide  $p$  by 2

# Converting from (non-negative) base 10 to binary

## Method 1: powers of two

What is  $42_{10}$  as an 8-bit binary number?

X	p	binary digit
42	64	0
42	32	1
10	16	0
10	8	1
2	4	0
2	2	1
0	1	0

$42_{10} = 0101010_2$  (or  $00101010_2$  including the sign bit)

## Exercise

### Method 1: powers of two

What is 28 as an 8-bit binary number

x	P	binary digit
28	64	0
28	32	0
28	16	1
12	8	1
4	4	1
0	2	0
0	1	0

$28_{10} =$

## Exercise

### Method 1: powers of two

What is  $187_{10}$  in binary, using 16 bits?

x	P	binary digit
1870	16384 ( $2^{14}$ )	0
1870	8192	0
1870	4096	0
1870	2048	0
1870	1024	1
846	512	1
314	256	1

$187_{10} =$

00000111...

X	P	Binary digit
48	64	0
48	32	1
16	16	1
0	8	0
0	4	0
0	2	0
0	1	0

$$187_{10} = 0000011101100000$$



```
// converts an int to a string whose chars are '0' or '1'.
void bits(int x, char b[]) {
    int p=1;
    int half_x = x/2;
    int i=0;
    // find largest power of 2 which is <= x
    while (p <= half_x) {
        p *= 2;
        i++;
    }
    b[i+1] = '\0';
    i=0;
    while (p > 0) {
        if (x >= p) {
            b[i] = '1';
            x -= p;
        }
        else b[i] = '0';
        p /= 2;
        i++;
    }
}
```

```
int main() {  
    int x;  
    char b[33];  
    while (1) {  
        printf("Type an int.  To finish, type -1\n");  
        scanf("%d", &x);  
        bits(x, b);  
        if (x < 0) return;  
        printf("%s\n", b);  
    }  
}
```

# Converting from (non-negative) base 10 to binary

## Method 2: Successive Division

- To convert  $x$  to binary:
  - Repeatedly divide  $x$  by 2
  - Next digit is the remainder
  - Continue until  $x \geq 1$
  - Answer is read from bottom to top
  - Pad with 0's if necessary
- Example: What is  $19_{10}$  in 8-bit binary?

$x$	$x/2$ (int division)	Remainder
19	9	1
9	4	1
4	2	0
2	1	0
1	0	1

$$19_{10} = 00010011_2$$

## Exercise: using successive division

Example: What is  $37_{10}$  in binary?

x	x/2	Remainder
37	18	1
18	9	0
9	4	1
4	2	0
2	1	0
1	0	1

$37_{10} =$

Pad with as many leading 0's as necessary for a datatype

0000 0000 0010 0101

## Exercise: using successive division

Example: What is  $188_{10}$  in binary?

x	x/2	Remainder
188	94	0
94	47	0
47	23	1
23	11	1
11	5	1
5	2	1
2	1	0
1	0	1

$$188_{10} = 0000\ 0000\ 1011\ 1100_2$$

# Converting from (non-negative) base 10 to binary

## Method 2: Successive Division

```
void bits2(int x, char *str, int len) {
    int i;
    int rem;    // rem is the remainder of dividing x by 2

    str[len] = '\0';
    // fill in the bits right to left
    for (i=31; x > 0; i--) {
        rem = x%2;
        if (rem == 1) str[i] = '1';
        else str[i] = '0';
        x /= 2;
    }
    // add leading 0s to make the number 32 bits
    for ( ; i >= 0; i--)
        str[i] = '0';
}
```

```
int main() {  
    int x;  
    char bits[33];  
    while (1) {  
        printf("Type an >0 int, or -1 to finish");  
        scanf("%d", &x);  
        if (x < 0) return;  
        bits2(x, bits, 33);  
        printf("%s\n", bits);  
    }  
}
```

## Range of `int`

- ints are 32 bits in C
- Minimum possible value, discussed below
- Leftmost bit indicates sign (1 = negative, 0 = non-negative)
- This leaves 31 bits, so maximum number is

= 0111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111

=  $2^{31}-1$

= 2,147,483,647<sub>10</sub>



# The unsigned type in C

- Only non-negative integers can be represented
- # bytes depends on type of unsigned integer; e.g.  
    `unsigned short` takes up 16 bytes
- Increases the range of non-negative numbers accordingly, at the sacrifice of no sign bit
- Minimum value of unsigned short:
- $0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000_2 = 0_{10}$
- Maximum value:
- $1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111 = 2^{16} - 1 = 65535$
- Minimum value of `unsigned int`
- $0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000_2 = 0$
- Maximum value:
- $1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111_2 = 2^{32} - 1 = 4,294,967,295_{10}$

# Negative integers

- For signed integers, the leftmost bit represents the **sign** of a number
- Leftmost bit == 1, number is negative. Leftmost bit == 0, number is non-negative
- To make addition easier, computers use **2s complement notation**
- To convert a non-negative number  $x_2$  (x in base 2) to a corresponding negative numbers in 2s complement:
  - flip all bits (i.e., change 0s to 1s, vice versa)
  - add 1
- Example:  $-29_{10}$  as a 32-bit int
$$+29_{10} = 2^4 + 2^3 + 2^2 + 2^0$$
$$= 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0001\ 1101_2$$

Flip the bits, then add 1

$$\begin{aligned}-29_{10} &= 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1110\ 0010 + 1 \\ -29_{10} &= 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1110\ 0011_2\end{aligned}$$

## Negative integers

- Example:  $-32_{10}$  as a 16-bit short  
 $+32_{10} = 2^5 = 0000\ 0000\ 0010\ 0000_2$

Flip the bits, then add 1

$$-32 = 1111\ 1111\ 1101\ 1111_2 + 1 = 1111\ 1111\ 1110\ 0000_2$$

- Example:  $-46_{10}$  as an 8-bit binary number ????????

## From 2s complement to base 10

- Example: 1111 1111 1110 0010<sub>2</sub> (16 bits = a short)

Subtract 1

Then flip the bits

1111 1111 1110 0001

0000 0000 0001 1110 = -30<sub>10</sub>

- Example: 1110 0010<sub>2</sub> (8 bits = a char)

## The minimum int

- Is it 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 ?

Subtract 1, then flip the bits

0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0001

so 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 =  $-1_{10}$

# The minimum int

- How about 1000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 ?

Subtract 1, then flip the bits

```
1000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000
-                                     1
-----
```

0111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 then flip bits

1000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 =  $-2^{31}_{10}$

- So the range of integers is  $[-2^{31}, 2^{31})$

## Exercise

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main() {
    char x = 1;
    while (x > 0) {
        x = (x << 1) + 1;
        printf("%d ", x);
    }
    printf("\n");
}
```

What is the last output of this program?

# Binary counting

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
int main() {  
    char x = 0;  
    do {  
        printf("%d", x);  
        x++;  
    } while (x != 0);  
    printf("\n");  
}
```

Output is:

```
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 ... 120 121 122 123 124 125 126  
127 -128 -127 -126 -125 -124 -123 -122 -121 -120 ...  
-10 -9 -8 -7 -6 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1
```



## Addition of two 1-bit numbers

X	Y	$X+Y = X \oplus Y$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

We really need 2 outputs: sum (S) and carry (C)

X	Y	S	$C = X \& Y$
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1

X	Y	S	C
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1

S = what logical operator(s) applied to X and Y?

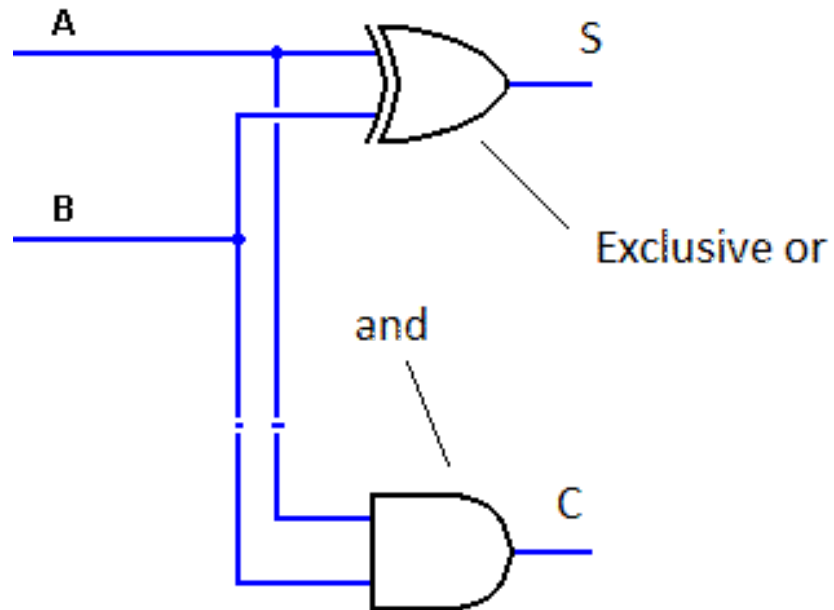
C = what logical operator(s) applied to X and Y?

X	Y	S	$X \wedge Y$	C	$X \& Y$
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	1	1

$$S = X \wedge Y$$

$$C = X \& Y$$

## Addition of two 1-bit numbers



## Addition of two n-bit numbers

$X_i$	$Y_i$	$C_{i-1}$	$X+Y$
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1
0	1	0	1
0	1	1	10
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	10
1	1	0	10
1	1	1	11

## Addition of two n-bit numbers: 3 inputs, 2 outputs

$X_i$	$Y_i$	$C_{i-1}$	$S_i$	$C_i$
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

$S_i$  = what combination of  $X_i$ ,  $Y_i$ , and  $C_{i-1}$ ?

$C_i$  = what combination of  $X_i$ ,  $Y_i$ , and  $C_{i-1}$

$X_i$	$Y_i$	$C_{i-1}$	$S_i$	$C_i$
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

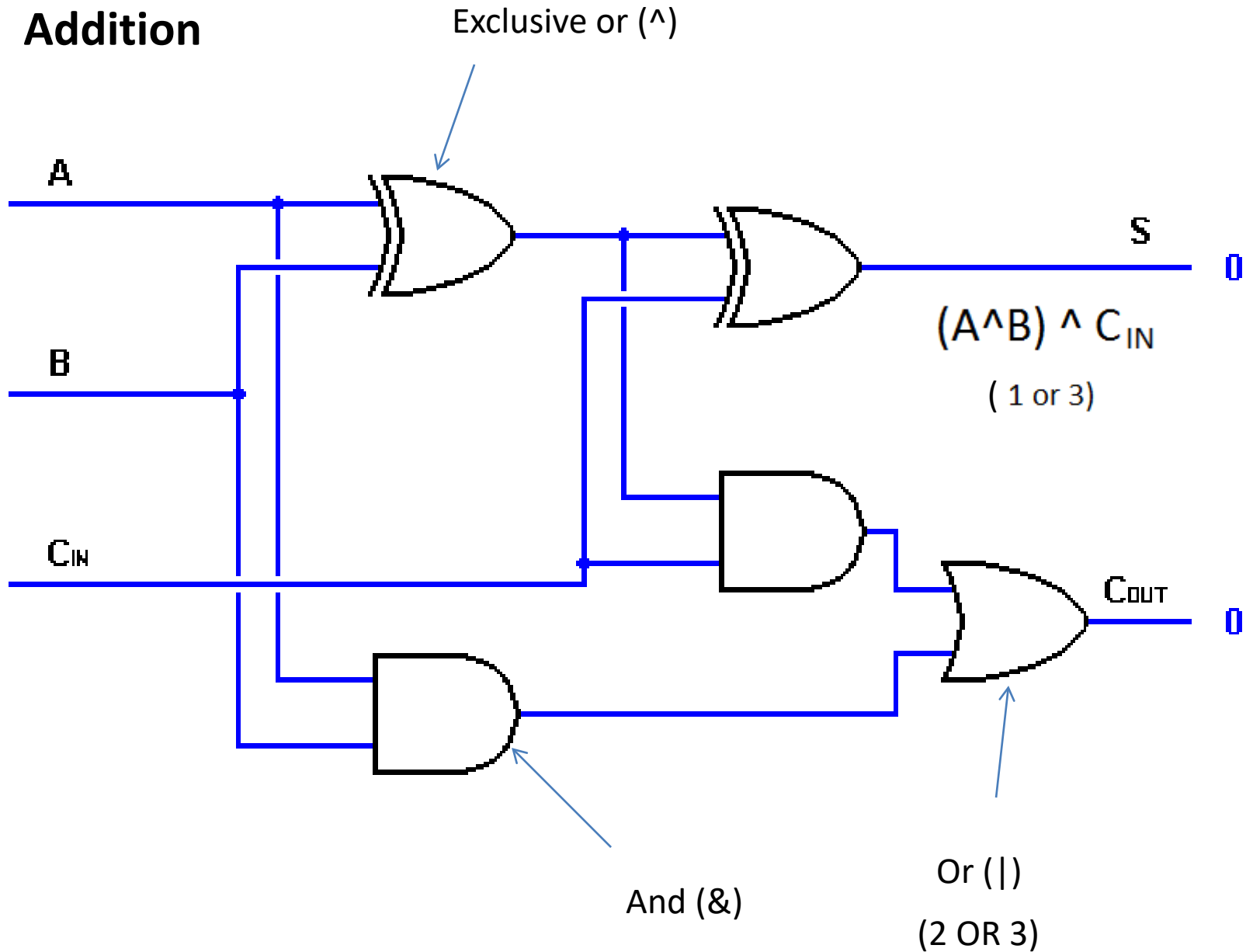
if an odd number of inputs are 1, then  $S_i = 1$

if at least 2 inputs are 1, then  $C_i = 1$

$$S_i = (X_i \wedge Y_i) \wedge C_{i-1}$$

$$C_i = ((X_i \wedge Y_i) \& C_{i-1}) \vee (X_i \& Y_i)$$

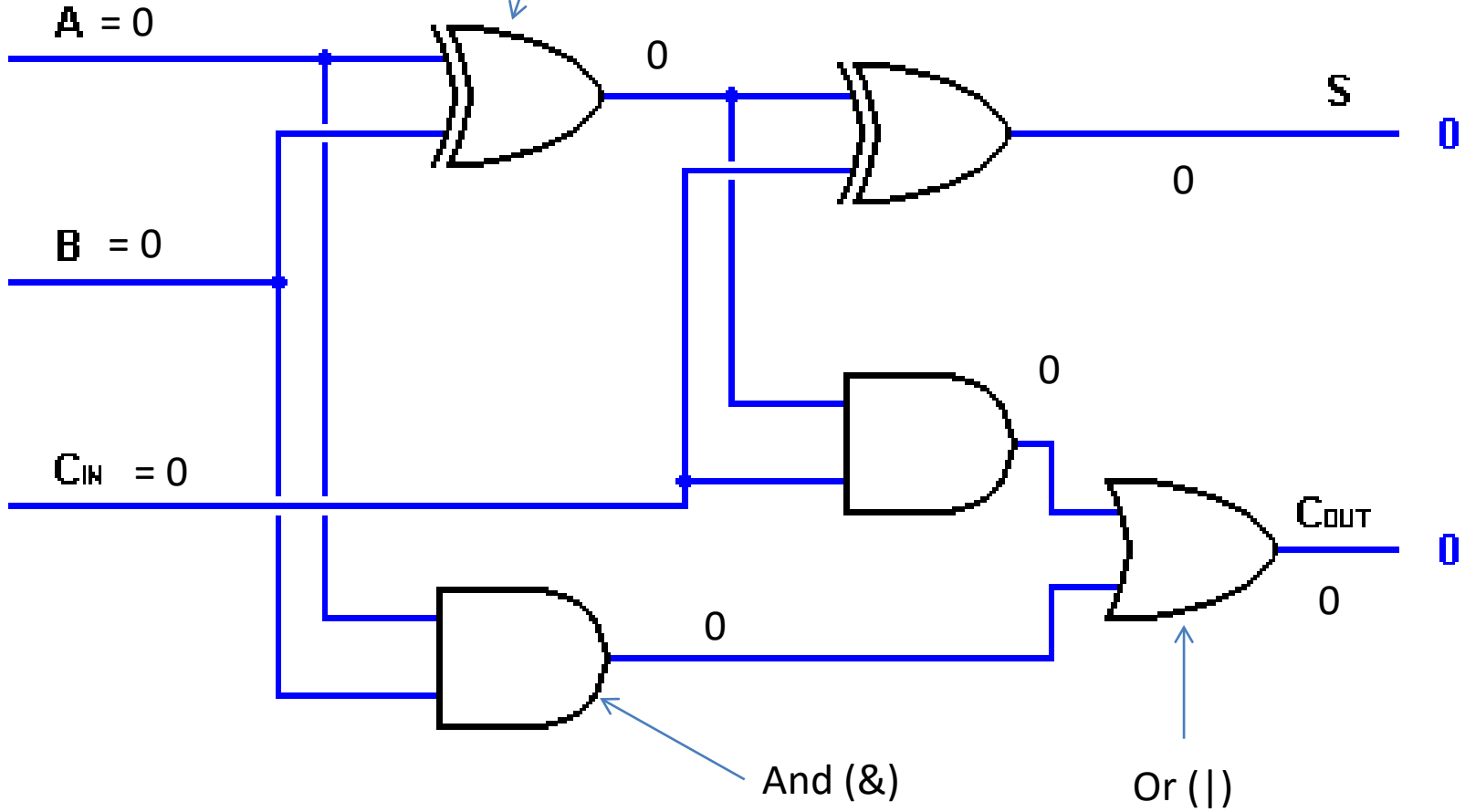
# Addition



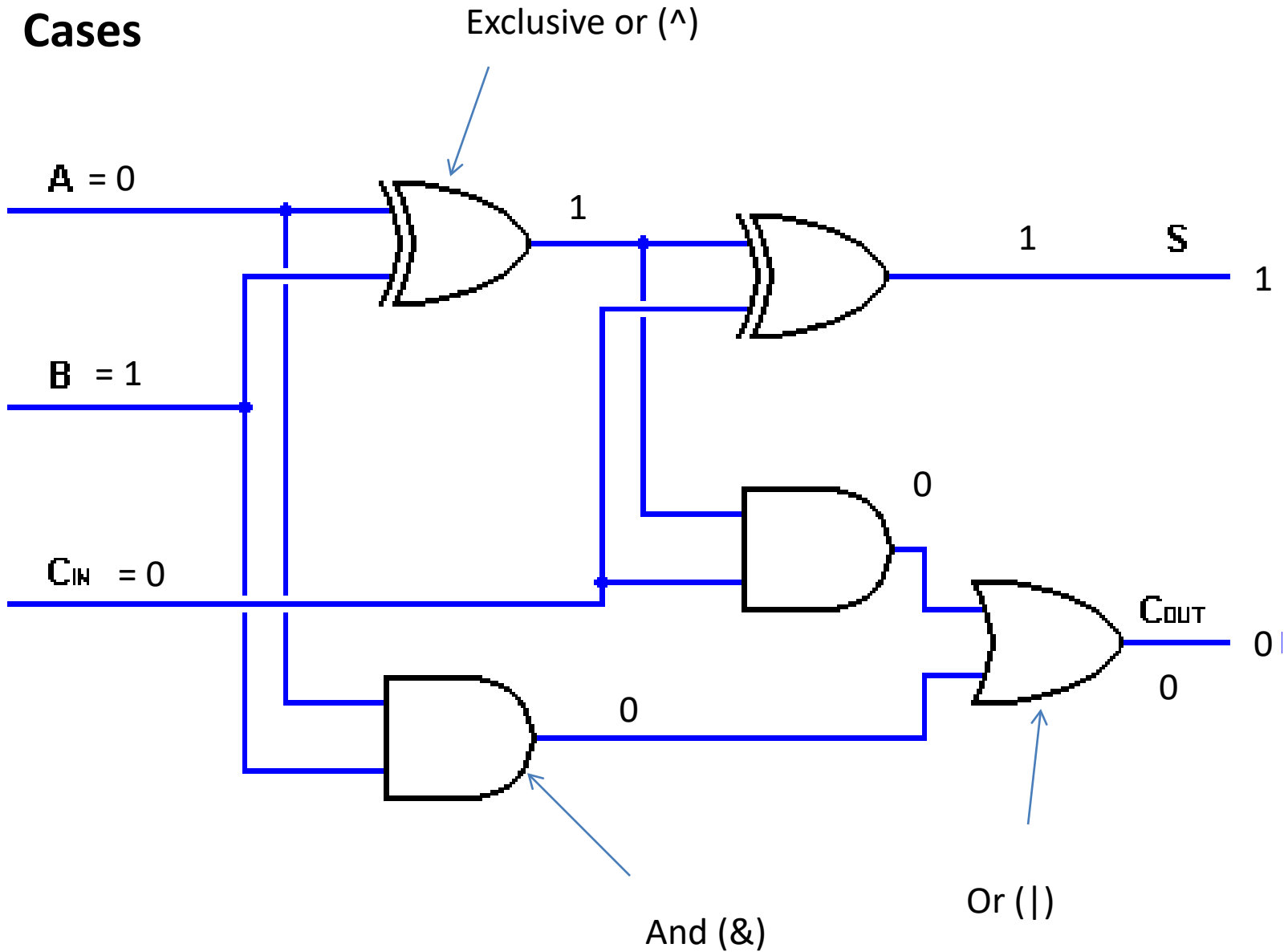


Exclusive or (^)

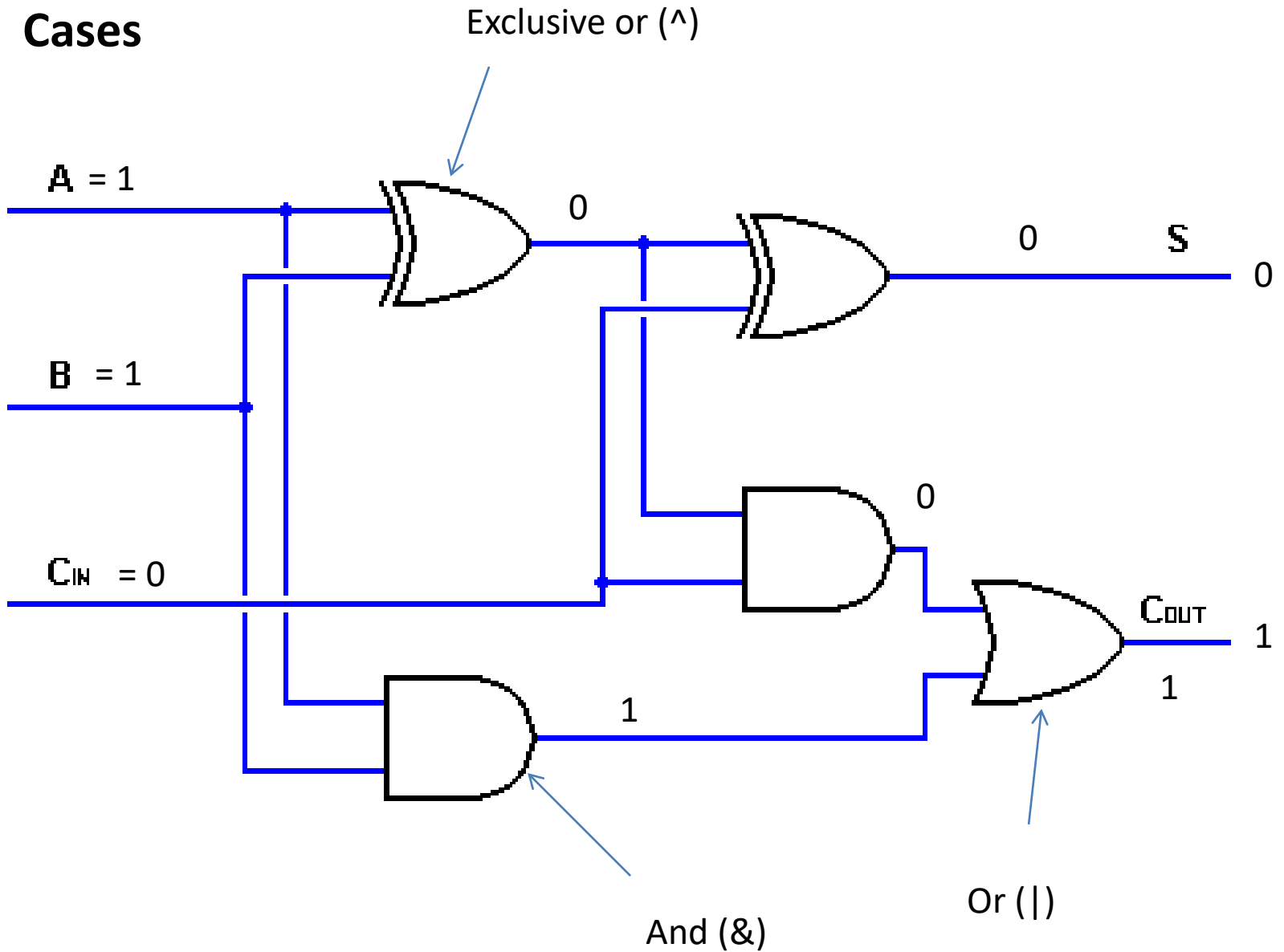
## Cases



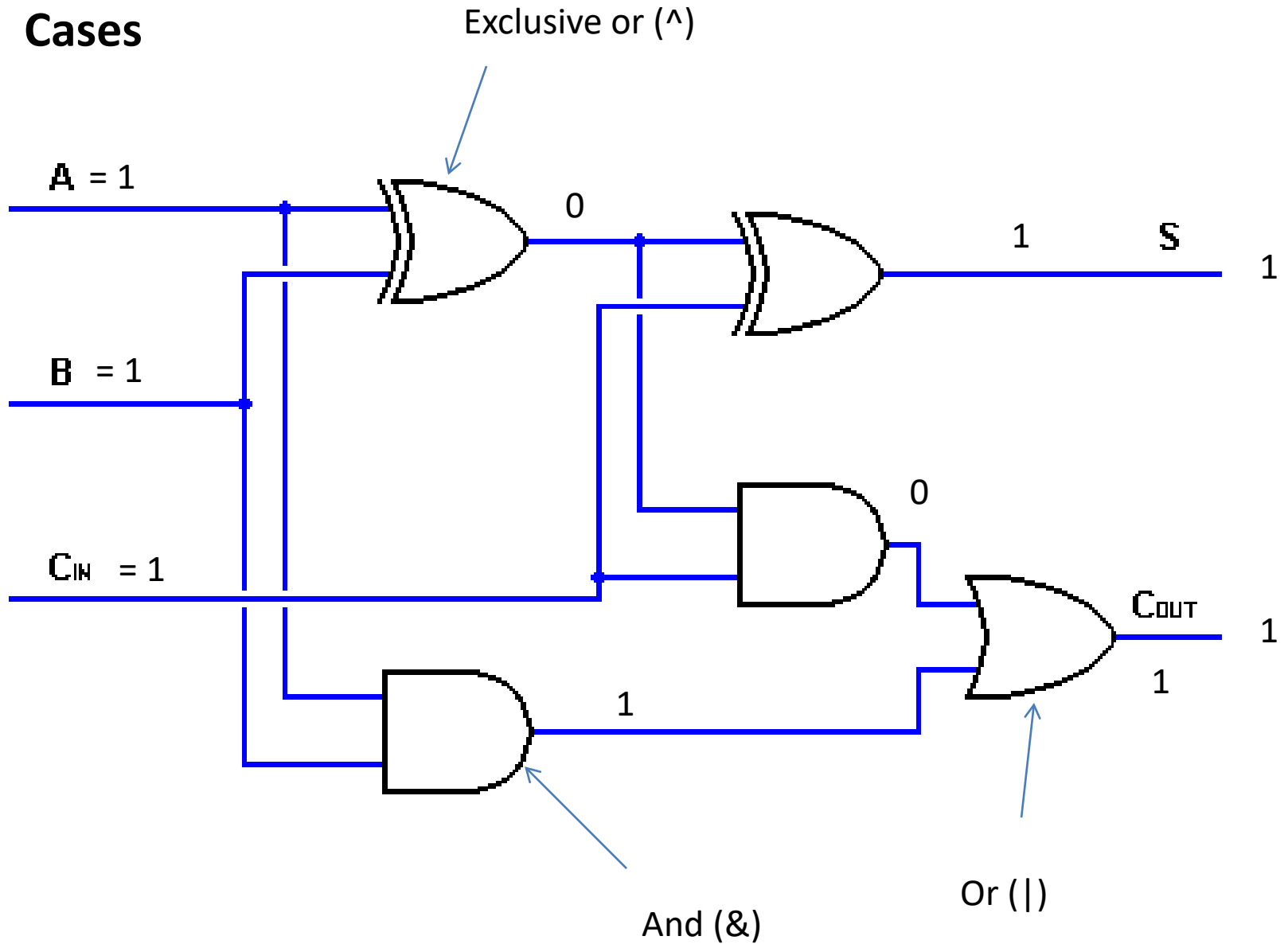
## Cases



## Cases



## Cases



Try adding these numbers

00110100  
+ 00011111

0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	A
0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	B
0	1	1	1	1	0	0	-	C <sub>in</sub>
0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	Sum
0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	C <sub>Out</sub>

# Addition

- Works for both positive and negative numbers, because of 2s complement
- Can be done more efficiently, but:

```
int add(int x, int y) {  
    int z; // the answer  
    int bitx, bity, x_xor_y, carry=0, sum;  
    int i;  
    for (i=0; i<32; i++) {  
        bitx = (x >> i) & 1; // extract ith bit of x  
        bity = (y >> i) & 1;  
        x_xor_y = bitx ^ bity;  
        sum = x_xor_y ^ carry;  
        carry = (x_xor_y & carry) | (bitx & bity);  
        z = z | (sum << i);  
    }  
    return z;  
}
```

# Characters: stored as binary numbers

- ASCII code: Standard list of numbers representing 128 characters, requiring 8 bits (1 byte)
  - Actually , it's 7 bits, but computer can only handle bytes
- A-Z, a-z, 0-9, punctuation, *control characters*
- Note A-Z differs from a-z - this often matters
- Example:

```
int main() {  
    char c=0;  
    do {  
        printf("%u = %c\n", c, c);  
        if (c == 127) break;  
        c++;  
    }  
    while (1);  
}
```

# Hexadecimal (hex)

- Base 16 numbers
- Notice:  $16 = 2^4$  (groups of 4 bits)
- 16 Digits (because it's base 16):

0,1,2,...,8,9,a,b,c,d,e,f

or

0,1,2,...,8,9,A,B,C,D,E,F

- Easy to convert between binary and hex: each hex digits represented in 4 bits



Easy to convert between binary and hex: each hex digits represented in 4 bits

Hex	Binary	Hex	Binary
0	0000	8	1000
1	0001	9	1001
2	0010	A	1010
3	0011	B	1011
4	0100	C	1100
5	0101	D	1101
6	0110	E	1110
7	0111	F	1111

Used or seen a lot in low-level computing, because it's more compact than binary, but easy to translate to binary

# There is no hex datatype in C

Why? –

## Counting in hex

0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F, 10, 11, 12...  
1D, 1E, 1F, 20, 21, 22... 2F, 30, ...

- Hex numbers are usually signified by an 0x before the number; e.g., 0x8AF0
- To print a hex number using printf, it is conventional to use %#x (# causes 0x to be displayed)

# Converting Hex Number to Binary

Each hex digit translates into 4 bits, according to table from earlier.

$0x000093af_{16} = 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 1001\ 0011\ 1010\ 1111$

**Both represent 32-bit numbers**

**8 hex digits = 32 bits**

# Converting Binary - Hex

- Group binary digits into groups of 4, starting from the right
- If fewer than 4 bits remaining, pad on the left with the necessary 0's
- Follow the table from before

- Example

Convert 0000 0000 1010 0001<sub>2</sub> to hex

a) break into groups of 4

0000 0000 1010 0001<sub>2</sub>

b) convert to hex

00a1<sub>16</sub>

# Converting Binary – Hex (ignoring 2s complement)

Convert  $100001_2$  to hex

a) break into groups of 4

$0010\ 0001_2$

b) convert to hex

$2\ 1_{16}$

0

## More Exercises

Convert  $00100110_2$  to hex

Assuming no 2s complement, convert  $0010\ 1010\ 0101_2$  to hex

# Converting Hex to Decimal

- Each column (digit) is worth some power of 16 (just like each binary digit is worth a different power of two). Assume a hex number  $x$  has  $k$  digits, and that  $h_0$  is the rightmost digit. Let's call the base 10 number  $d$ :

$$D = h_0 * 1 + h_1 * 16 + h_2 * 256 + \dots + h_{k-1} * 16^{k-1}$$

Example: Convert  $AF3_{16}$  to decimal

# Converting Hex to Decimal

$$D = h_0 * 1 + h_1 * 16 + h_2 * 256 + \dots + h_{k-1} * 16^{k-1}$$

Example: Convert  $AF3_{16}$  to decimal (no 2s complement)

Hex Digit	Power of 16	Base 10 value
3	0	$3 * 16^0 = 3$
F	1	$15 * 16^1 = 240$
A	2	$10 * 16^2 = 2560$
	Total (sum the Base 10 values)	$3 + 240 + 2560 = 2803_{10}$

# Converting Hex to Decimal

$$D = h_0 * 1 + h_1 * 16 + h_2 * 256 + \dots + h_{k-1} * 16^{k-1}$$

Example: Convert  $28C_{16}$  to decimal

Hex Digit	Power of 16	Base 10 value
C	0	12
8	1	128
2	2	512
	Total (sum the Base 10 values)	652



# Converting Hex to Decimal

```
int from_hex(char *hex) {
    int len = strlen(hex);
    int ans = 0;
    int p = 1;
    int i;
    // power of 16 represented
    // by the leftmost digit
    for (i=0; i<len-1; i++)
        p = p << 4;
    for (i=0; i<len; i++) {
        int digit;
        if ('0' <= hex[i] && '9' >= hex[i])
            digit = hex[i] - '0';
        else if ('a' <= hex[i] && 'f' >= hex[i])
            digit = 10 + hex[i] - 'a';
        else digit = 10 + hex[i] - 'A'
        ans += digit * p;
        p /= 16;
    }
    return ans;
}
```

## Converting from Decimal to Hex

### Powers of 16 (analogous to powers of 2 algorithm)

Task: convert  $x_{10}$  to hexadecimal

Find  $p$ , the largest power of 16  $\leq x$ . Same table as before (powers of 2).

BUT right column is a hex digit (0-f), not a bit (0-1)

```
// p = largest power of 16 which is <= x
while (p > 0) {
    if (p <= x) {
        d = p/x; // integer division
        x = x - (d*p);
        p >> 4;
    }
```

# Converting from Decimal to Hex

## Powers of 16 (analogous to powers of 2 algorithm)

Example: convert  $2370_{10}$  to hex

x	p	hex digit (x/p)
2370	256	9
66	16	4
2	1	2

$$2370_{10} = 942_{16}$$

Note:  $66 = 2370 - (9 \cdot 256)$

$$2 = 66 - (16 \cdot 4)$$



## Exercises

1. Convert  $333_{10}$  to hex

x	p	d (hex)
333	256	1
77	16	4
13	1	D

2. Convert  $1111_{10}$  to hex

x	p	d
1111	256	4
87	16	5
7	1	7

3. Convert  $8206_{10}$  to hex

x	p	d
8206	4096 ( $= 16^3$ )	

## Converting from Decimal to Hex

**Successive division, again (but this time divide by 16)**

convert  $2370_{10}$  to hex

x	x/16	x%16
2370	148	2
148	9	4
9	0	9

$$2370_{10} = 942_{16}$$



## Exercises

1. Convert  $283_{10}$  to hex

x	x/16	x%16
283		

2. Convert  $1060_{10}$  to hex

x	x/16	x%16
1060	66	4

3. Convert  $8206_{10}$  to hex

x	x/16	x%16
8206		

# Octal

Octal is base 8; usage is similar to hex, except that only the digits 0-7 are used, and conversion between octal and binary works in groups of three bits instead of four e.g.

## Octal symbols

In base 10, we have 10 different symbols (0..9)

In base 8, we need 8 different symbols ( 0-7)

Octal counting:

0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12, ..., 17, 20, 21, ...

Octal numbers are usually signified by an 0 before the number; e.g., 0177

To print an octal number using printf, use %#o

# Converting Octal Digits – Binary

- Individual octal digits can be converted to binary as follows:

Octal	Binary	Octal	Binary
0	000	4	100
1	001	5	101
2	010	6	110
3	011	7	111

Example: convert  $1111000101011_2$  to octal

Binary:	001	111	000	101	011 <sub>2</sub>
Octal:	1	7	0	5	3 <sub>8</sub>



# Permissions in Linux

- Linux divides file permission into 3 types of users:
  - self
  - members of a user group
  - the rest of the world
- Each type is represented by 3 bits
- Each bit represents one type of permission
  - Rightmost bit: execute permission
  - Middle bit: write permission
  - Leftmost bit: read permission
- Therefore, 9 bits (or 3 octal digits)

Examples:

\*necessary permission to read files in a directory

Code (binary)	Code (octal)	Permission
000	0	none
100	4	read-only
101	5	read/execute*
111	7	all permissions

# The linux chmod command

- Stands for "change mode"
- Changes permissions on a file or directory
- To access a directory, the permission must be set to read and execute (101 or  $5_8$ )
- To access a file, the permission must be set to read-only (100 or  $4_8$ )
- To access a file and write to it, the permission must be set to read-write (110 or 111,  $6_8$  or  $7_8$ )

The condor.depaul.edu server uses the **Apache** web server.

As configured, users place their Web files in ~/public\_html

Default homepage is called index.html

Type this URL into a browser window:

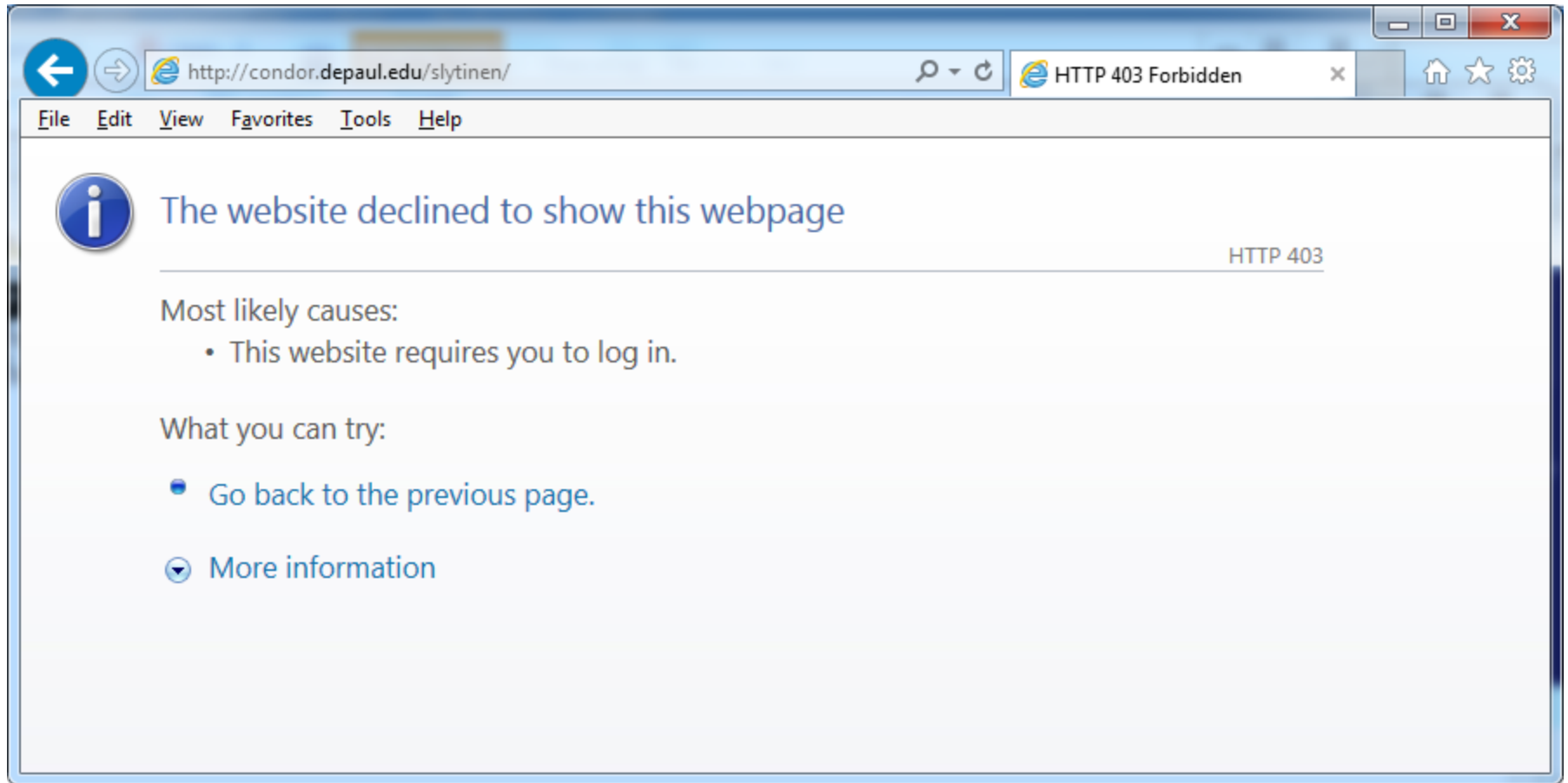
<http://condor.dpu.depaul.edu/slytinen/>



Now, I will login to condor.depaul.edu and use the `chmod` command:

```
$ cd public_html/
```

```
$ chmod 700 index.html
```



```
$ chmod 000 index.html
```

