# Week 5: Data Representation

References: Patterson & Hennessy, ARM Ed., Chapter 2

#### Review

Last week, we studied the **building blocks of digital logic**: gates, combinational circuits such as multiplexers, decoders, and adders, and sequential circuits such as latches, flip-flops, and registers.

These components provided the hardware foundation for how a CPU performs arithmetic and controls the flow of data.

This week, we turn from **how** the circuits operate to **what** they operate on: data itself.

The 0s and 1s flowing through logic gates are not arbitrary.

They represent integers, signed and unsigned values, characters, and eventually floating-point numbers.

Understanding how data is encoded in binary is essential for bridging the gap between high-level programming concepts and the physical machine.

# 1. Bits, Bytes, and Words (§2.1 – §2.3)

The most fundamental unit of information in a computer is the **bit**, which can hold a value of 0 or 1.

Physically, this is implemented as a low or high voltage.

- A byte is a collection of 8 bits.
   The byte is the smallest addressable unit of memory in most architectures.
   Even if only a single bit is required, the memory system allocates at least one byte.
- A word is the "natural" data size for a processor.
   A word matches the width of the CPU registers and datapath.
  - In a 32-bit ARMv7 processor, a word is 32 bits (4 bytes).
  - In a 64-bit ARMv8 processor, a word is 64 bits (8 bytes).

For example, the decimal value  $300_{10}$  is equal to  $100101100_2$ .

This requires 9 bits to store.

Since memory can only address whole bytes, at least 2 bytes are required.

#### Memory alignment

Processors often require that words be stored at memory addresses that are multiples of the word size.

For example, a 4-byte word should be placed at an address divisible by 4. Misaligned accesses may be slower or may even cause exceptions on some systems.

Alignment ensures efficient memory access.

# 2. Unsigned Binary Numbers (§2.4)

Binary numbers are represented using **positional notation**, similar to decimal numbers but with base 2.

Each position corresponds to a power of 2.

For an n-bit binary number:

$$\text{Value} = (b_{n-1} \times 2^{n-1}) + (b_{n-2} \times 2^{n-2}) + \dots + (b_1 \times 2^1) + (b_0 \times 2^0)$$

#### Example:

$$1101_2 = (1 \times 8) + (1 \times 4) + (0 \times 2) + (1 \times 1) = 13_{10}$$

## Range of unsigned values

- An *n*-bit unsigned integer can represent values from 0 to  $2^n 1$ .
- Examples:
  - 8-bit unsigned:  $0 \rightarrow 255$
  - 16-bit unsigned:  $0 \rightarrow 65{,}535$
  - 32-bit unsigned:  $0 \to 4,294,967,295$

### Overflow in unsigned arithmetic

Since registers have fixed width, results that exceed the maximum representable value **wrap around**.

#### Example (8-bit):

$$11111111_2\ (255)+1=00000000_2\ (0)$$

The 9th bit is discarded, producing wraparound.

In C and most modern languages, unsigned arithmetic is explicitly defined as modulo  $2^n$ .

## 3. Signed Numbers (§2.4)

Unsigned binary cannot represent negative values.

Several historical methods were developed to represent signed integers, but modern systems universally use **two's complement**.

## 3.1 Sign-and-Magnitude

The most intuitive scheme uses the leftmost bit to indicate sign (0 = positive, 1 = negative), with the remaining bits giving the magnitude.

- Example (4-bit):  $1001_2 = -9$ .
- Problem: Two encodings for zero (0000 = +0, 1000 = -0).

## 3.2 One's Complement

Negative numbers are obtained by flipping all the bits of the positive representation.

- Example (4-bit): +5 = 0101, -5 = 1010.
- Problem: Still has two encodings for zero.

## 3.3 Two's Complement (standard today)

Negative numbers are represented by inverting all bits of the positive number and then adding 1.

- Example (4-bit):
  - +6 = 0110
  - -6 = invert(0110) = 1001 + 1 = 1010

#### Range of two's complement

An *n*-bit two's complement number represents values from  $-2^{n-1}$  to  $2^{n-1}-1$ .

- 4-bit:  $-8 \rightarrow +7$
- 32-bit:  $-2,147,483,648 \rightarrow +2,147,483,647$

### Why two's complement?

- Only one representation for zero.
- Addition and subtraction use the same adder circuits as unsigned numbers.
- The carry out from the most significant bit can be ignored.

## Code Snippet

# 4. Arithmetic in Two's Complement (§2.4)

Two's complement arithmetic follows the same binary addition rules, with results interpreted as signed or unsigned depending on context.

## Example of overflow

```
0111_2\ (7) + 0001_2\ (1) = 1000_2\ (-8)
```

The 4-bit signed range is  $-8 \rightarrow +7$ , so the result has overflowed.

#### Detecting overflow

- If two positive numbers yield a negative result, overflow has occurred.
- If two negative numbers yield a positive result, overflow has occurred.
- If the operands have different signs, overflow cannot occur.

## Code Snippet

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

int add_overflows(int32_t a, int32_t b){
   int32_t s = a + b;
   return ((a ^ s) & (b ^ s)) < 0; // same signs in, different sign out
}</pre>
```

#### Subtraction

Subtraction is performed by adding the two's complement of the subtrahend.

**Example:** 5-3 is equivalent to 5+(-3).

#### **Code Snippet**

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

int32_t sub_via_add(int32_t a, int32_t b){
    return a + (~b + 1); // two's complement subtraction
}

int main(void){
    int32_t a = 5, b = 3;
    printf("a-b=%d sub_via_add=%d\n", a-b, sub_via_add(a,b));
    return 0;
}
```

## 5. Endianness (§2.6, §2.8 supplement)

**Endianness** refers to the ordering of bytes when multi-byte data is stored in memory.

- Little-endian: least significant byte stored at the lowest memory address.
  - This is the default on ARM and x86.
- $\bullet$   $\,$  Big-endian: most significant byte stored at the lowest address.

Example: Storing the 32-bit word 0x12345678 at address 0x1000.

• Little-endian: - 0x1000: 78 -0x1001:56

-0x1002:34

-0x1003:12

• Big-endian:

-0x1000: 12

-0x1001:34

-0x1002:56

-0x1003:78

Endianness is important for interpreting memory dumps, file formats, and network protocols.

## 6. Characters and ASCII (§2.9)

Computers must also represent non-numeric data such as text. This is achieved by mapping characters to integers.

• ASCII (American Standard Code for Information Interchange): A 7-bit encoding for 128 characters, including letters, digits, punctuation, and control codes.

```
- Examples: 'A' = 65, 'a' = 97, newline = 10.
```

- Extended ASCII: Uses 8 bits to allow 256 characters. Different systems defined different extended sets.
- Unicode: Defines a much larger set of characters for all writing systems.
- UTF-8: A variable-length encoding for Unicode.

  Backward compatible with ASCII: the first 128 characters have identical byte values.

#### Transition to Week 6

This week we established how **integers and characters** are represented inside a computer.

We examined unsigned binary numbers, extended the system to negatives with two's complement, and explored how overflow arises in fixed-width arithmetic. We also saw how characters are encoded in ASCII and Unicode, connecting binary storage to human-readable text.

Next week, we expand this foundation in two directions.

First, we study **bitwise operations**, which treat numbers as raw bit patterns and allow direct manipulation of individual bits — a key tool for systems programming and hardware design.

Second, we turn to **floating-point representation**, which extends binary arithmetic to fractions and real numbers using the IEEE 754 standard.

Together, these topics prepare us to handle both **low-level bit manipulation** and the **wide range of values** required in real-world scientific and engineering applications.