## Bits and Bytes



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## Why don't computers use Base 10 ?

- Base 10 number representation
- "Digit" in many languages also refers to fingers (and toes)
- Decimal (from latin decimus) means tenth
- A position numeral system (unlike, say Roman numerals)
- Natural representation for financial transactions (problems?)
- Even carries through in scientific notation
- Implementing electronically
- Hard to store
- ENIAC (First electronic computer) used 10 vacuum tubes / digit
- Hard to transmit

- Harder to implement digital logic functions
- Addition, multiplication, etc.


## Binary representations

- Base 2 number representation
- Represent $15213_{10}$ as $11101101101101_{2}$
- Represent $1.20_{10}$ as $1.0011001100110011[0011] \ldots 2$
- Represent $1.5213 \times 10^{4}$ as $1.1101101101101_{2} \times 2^{13}$
- Electronic Implementation
- Easy to store with bistable elements
- Reliably transmitted on noisy and inaccurate wires

- Straightforward implementation of arithmetic functions

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## Byte-oriented memory organization

- Programs refer to virtual addresses
- Conceptually very large array of bytes (byte = 8 bits)
- Actually implemented with hierarchy of different memory types
- SRAM, DRAM, disk
- Only allocate for regions actually used by program
- In Unix and Windows NT, address space private to particular "process"
- Program being executed
- Program can manipulate its own data, but not that of others
- Compiler + run-time system control allocation
- Where different program objects should be stored
- Multiple mechanisms: static, stack, and heap
- In any case, all allocation within single virtual address space


## How do we represent the address space?

- Hexadecimal notation
- Base 16 number representation
- Use characters ' 0 ' to ' 9 ' and ' $A$ ' to ' $F$ '
- E.g., FA1D37B ${ }_{16}$
- In C, 0xFA1D37B or 0xfald37b
- Each digit unpacks directly to binary
- A9 unpacks to 10101001
- Byte $=8$ bits
- Binary: $00000000_{2}$ to $11111111_{2}$
- Decimal: $0_{10}$ to $255_{10}$
- Hexadecimal: $00_{16}$ to $\mathrm{FF}_{16}$

| $\lambda^{e^{t}} \theta^{e^{i}} \beta^{n^{2}} n^{2}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 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 |

## Checkpoint



## Checkpoint



## What about Octal?

- Octal notation:
- Digits 0 through 7, e.g., 7120
- In C, C++, Java, Javascript..., signaled with leading 0, e.g., 077
- Source of surprise in things like new Date (09/11/2011)
- Encodes 3 bits at a time
- Like hex, unpacks directly to binary
- Unlike hex, no extra digit characters needed
- Used to be a serious competitor to hex
- Unix od command stands for "octal dump"
- Older architectures had word sizes divisible by 3, e.g., 24, 36, 60
- Octal needed to understand this riddle:
- Why do programmers confuse Halloween and Christmas?


## Machine words

- Machine has "word size"
- Nominal size of integer-valued data
- Including addresses
- A virtual address is encoded by such a word
- Most current machines are 32 bits (4 bytes)
- Limits addresses to 4GB
- Becoming too small for memory-intensive applications
- High-end systems are 64 bits ( 8 bytes)
- Potentially address $\approx 1.8 \times 10^{19}$ bytes
- Machines support multiple data formats
- Fractions or multiples of word size
- Always integral number of bytes


## Word-oriented memory organization

- Addresses specify byte locations
- Address of first byte in word
- Addresses of successive words differ by 4 (32-bit) or 8 (64-bit)

Addr. Bytes


0001
0002
0003
0004
0005
0006
0007
0008
0009
0010
0011
0012
0013
0014 EECS 213 Introduction to Computer §ystems
0008
0009
0010
0011
0012
0013
0014
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32-bit Words


64-bit Words

|  |
| :---: |
| Addr |
|  |
| 0000 |

## Data representations

- Sizes of C Objects (in Bytes)

| C Data type | Compaq Alpha | Typical 32b | Intel IA32 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Int | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| Long int | 8 | 4 | 4 |
| Char | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Short | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Float | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| Double | 8 | 8 | 8 |
| Long double | 8 | 8 | $10 / 12$ |
| Char * (any pointer) | 8 | 4 | 4 |

- Portability:
- Many programmers assume that object declared as int can be used to store a pointer
- OK for a typical 32-bit machine
- Not for Alpha


## Byte ordering

- How to order bytes within multi-byte word in memory
- Conventions
- Sun's, Mac's are "Big Endian" machines
- Least significant byte has highest address (comes last)
- Alphas, PC's are "Little Endian" machines
- Least significant byte has lowest address (comes first)
- Example
- Variable x has 4-byte representation $0 \times 01234567$
- Address given by $\& x$ is $0 \times 100$

Big Endian

|  | $0 \times 100$ | $0 \times 101$ | $0 \times 102$ | $0 \times 103$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

Little Endian
$0 \times 100 \quad 0 \times 101 \quad 0 \times 102 \quad 0 \times 103$


## Reading byte-reversed Listings

- For most programmers, these issues are invisible
- Except with networking or disassembly
- Text representation of binary machine code
- Generated by program that reads the machine code
- Example fragment



## Examining data representations

- Code to print byte representation of data
- Casting pointer to unsigned char * creates byte array

```
typedef unsigned char *pointer;
void show_bytes(pointer start, int len)
{
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < len; i++)
        printf("0x%p\t0x%.2x\n",
            start+i, start[i]);
    printf("\n");
}
```

Printf directives:
\%p: Print pointer
$\% x$ : Print Hexadecimal

## Checkpoint



## Representing strings in C

- A null-terminated array of characters
- Final character $=0$
- Each character encoded in 7-bit ASCII format
- Other encodings exist, but char S[6] = "15213"; uncommon
- "0" has code 0x30
- Digiti has code 0x30+i
- Compatibility
- Byte ordering not an issue
- Data are single byte quantities
- Text files generally platform independent

- Except for different line termination character(s)!


## Machine-level code representation

- Encode program as sequence of instructions
- Each simple operation
- Arithmetic operation
- Read or write memory
- Conditional branch
- Instructions encoded as bytes
- Alpha's, Sun's, Mac's use 4 byte instructions
- Reduced Instruction Set Computer (RISC)
- PC's use variable length instructions
- Complex Instruction Set Computer (CISC)
- Different instruction types and encodings for different machines
- Most code not binary compatible
- A fundamental concept:

Programs are byte sequences too!

## Representing instructions

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

- For this example, Alpha \& Sun use two 4-byte instructions
- Use differing numbers of instructions in other cases
- PC uses 7 instructions with lengths 1,2 , and 3 bytes
- Same for NT and for Linux
- NT / Linux not fully binary compatible

Alpha sum

| 00 |
| :---: |
| 00 |
| 30 |
| 42 |
| 01 |
| 80 |
| FA |
| $6 B$ |

Sun sum

| 81 |
| :---: |
| C 3 |
| E 0 |
| 08 |
| 90 |
| 02 |
| 00 |
| 09 |

Different machines use totally different instructions and encodings

## Boolean algebra

- Developed by George Boole in 19th Century
- Algebraic representation of logic
- Encode "True" as 1 and "False" as 0
Not ~A
And A \& B
Or A|B
Xor ${ }^{\wedge}{ }^{\wedge} \mathrm{B}$






## Application of Boolean Algebra

- Applied to Digital Systems by Claude Shannon
- 1937 MIT Master's Thesis
- Reason about networks of relay switches
- Encode closed switch as 1, open switch as 0


Connection when
A\&~B | A\&B
$=A^{\wedge} B$

## Integer Boolean algebra

- Integer Arithmetic
$\left\langle Z,+,{ }^{*},-, 0,1\right\rangle$ forms a mathematical structure called "ring"
- Addition is "sum" operation
- Multiplication is "product" operation
-     - is additive inverse
- 0 is identity for sum
- 1 is identity for product
- Boolean Algebra
$\langle\{0,1\}, \mid, \&, \sim, 0,1\rangle$ forms a mathematical structure called "Boolean algebra"
- Or is "sum" operation
- And is "product" operation
- ~ is "complement" operation (not additive inverse)
- 0 is identity for sum
- 1 is identity for product


## Boolean Algebra $\approx$ Integer Ring

| Commutativity | $\begin{aligned} A \mid B & =B \mid A \\ A \& B & =B \& A \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} A+B & =B+A \\ A * B & =B * A \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Associativity | $\begin{gathered} (\mathrm{A} \mid \mathrm{B})\|\mathrm{C}=\mathrm{A}\|(\mathrm{B} \mid \mathrm{C}) \\ (\mathrm{A} \& \mathrm{~B}) \& \mathrm{C}=\mathrm{A} \&(\mathrm{~B} \& \mathrm{C}) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} (\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B})+\mathrm{C} & =\mathrm{A}+(\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{C}) \\ (\mathrm{A} * \mathrm{~B}) * \mathrm{C} & =\mathrm{A} *(\mathrm{~B} * \mathrm{C}) \end{aligned}$ |
| Product distributes over sum | $\mathrm{A} \&(\mathrm{~B} \mid \mathrm{C})=(\mathrm{A} \& \mathrm{~B}) \mid(\mathrm{A} \& \mathrm{C})$ | $\mathrm{A} *(\mathrm{~B}+\mathrm{C})=\mathrm{A}^{*} \mathrm{~B}+\mathrm{A} * \mathrm{C}$ |
| Sum and product identities | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{A} \mid 0=\mathrm{A} \\ & \mathrm{~A} \& 1=\mathrm{A} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{A}+0=\mathrm{A} \\ \mathrm{~A} * 1=\mathrm{A} \end{gathered}$ |
| Zero is product annihilator | A \& $0=0$ | $\mathrm{A}^{*} 0=0$ |
| Cancellation of negation | $\sim(\sim \mathrm{A})=\mathrm{A}$ | $-(-A)=A$ |

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## Boolean Algebra = Integer Ring

| Boolean, not Ring: Sum distributes over product | $A \mid(B \& C)=(A \mid B) \&(A \mid C)$ | $\begin{aligned} & A+\left(B{ }^{*} C\right) \neq \\ & (A+B)^{*}(B+C) \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Boolean, not Ring: Idempotency | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{A} \mid \mathrm{A}=\mathrm{A} \\ \mathrm{~A} \& \mathrm{~A}=\mathrm{A} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & A+A \neq A \\ & A * A \neq A \end{aligned}$ |
| Boolean, not Ring: Absorption | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{A} \mid(\mathrm{A} \& \mathrm{~B})=\mathrm{A} \\ & \mathrm{~A} \&(\mathrm{~A} \mid \mathrm{B})=\mathrm{A} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} \mathrm{A}+(\mathrm{A} * \mathrm{~B}) & \neq \mathrm{A} \\ \mathrm{~A} *(\mathrm{~A}+\mathrm{B}) & \neq \mathrm{A} \end{aligned}$ |
| Boolean, not Ring: Laws of Complements | $\mathrm{A} \mid \sim \mathrm{A}=1$ | $\mathrm{A}+-\mathrm{A} \neq 1$ |
| Ring, not Boolean: Every element has additive inverse | $\mathrm{A} \mid \sim \mathrm{A} \neq 0$ | $\mathrm{A}+-\mathrm{A}=0$ |

## Properties of \& and ${ }^{\wedge}$

- Boolean ring
$\left\langle\{0,1\},^{\wedge}, \&, I, 0,1\right\rangle$
- Identical to integers mod 2
- $I$ is identity operation: $I(A)=A$
- $A^{\wedge} A=0$
- Property: Boolean ring
- Commutative sum $A^{\wedge} B=B^{\wedge} A$
- Commutative product $\quad A \& B=B \& A$
- Associative sum $\left(A^{\wedge} B\right)^{\wedge} C=A^{\wedge}\left(B^{\wedge} C\right)$
- Associative product $(A \& B) \& C=A \&(B \& C)$
- Prod. over sum $\quad A \&\left(B^{\wedge} C\right)=(A \& B)^{\wedge}(B \& C)$
- 0 is sum identity $A^{\wedge} 0=A$
- 1 is prod. identity $A \& 1=A$
- 0 is product annihilator $\quad A \& 0=0$
- Additive inverse $\mathrm{A}^{\wedge} \mathrm{A}=0$


## Checkpoint



## Relations between operations

- DeMorgan's Laws
- Express in terms of |, and vice-versa
- $A \& B=\sim(\sim A \mid \sim B)$
$-A$ and $B$ are true if and only if neither $A$ nor $B$ is false
- $A \mid B=\sim(\sim A \& \sim B)$
- A or B are true if and only if A and B are not both false
- Exclusive-Or using Inclusive Or
- $A^{\wedge} B=(\sim A \& B) \mid(A \& \sim B)$
- Exactly one of $A$ and $B$ is true
- $A^{\wedge} B=(A \mid B) \sim(A \& B)$
- Either $A$ is true, or $B$ is true, but not both


## General Boolean algebras

- We can extend the four Boolean operations to also operate on bit vectors
- Operations applied bitwise

$$
\begin{array}{r}
01101001 \\
\& 01010101 \\
\hline 01000001
\end{array} \frac{01101001}{01010101} \begin{array}{r}
01111101
\end{array} \stackrel{01101001}{ } \begin{aligned}
& 01010101 \\
&
\end{aligned} \frac{\sim 01010101}{10101010}
$$

- All of the Properties of Boolean Algebra Apply
- Resulting algebras:
- Boolean algebra: $\langle\{0,1\}(w), \mid, \&, \sim, 0(w), 1(w)\rangle$
- Ring: $\left\langle\{0,1\}(w),{ }^{\wedge}, \&, I, 0(w), 1(w)\right\rangle$


## Representing manipulating sets

- Useful application of bit vectors - represent finite sets
- Representation
- Width w bit vector represents subsets of $\{0, \ldots, w-1\}$
$-\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{j}}=1$ if $\mathrm{j} \in \mathrm{A}$
- 01101001 represents $\{0,3,5,6\}$
- 01010101 represents $\{0,2,4,6\}$
- Operations

| 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |

- \& Intersection 01000001 \{ 0, 6 \}
- | Union $01111101\{0,2,3,4,5,6\}$
- ^ Symmetric difference $00111100\{2,3,4,5\}$
- ~Complement 10101010 \{ 1, 3, 5, 7 \}


## Bit-level operations in C

- Operations \&, |, ~, ^ available in C
- Apply to any "integral" data type
- long, int, short, char
- View arguments as bit vectors
- Arguments applied bit-wise
- Examples (Char data type)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - ~0x41 --> 0xBE } \\
& \sim 01000001_{2} \quad-->\quad 10111110_{2} \\
& \text { - ~0x00 --> } 0 x F F \\
& \sim 00000000_{2} \quad-->\quad 11111111_{2} \\
& \text { - 0x69 \& 0x55 --> 0x41 } \\
& 01101001_{2} 01010101_{2} \text {--> } 01000001_{2} \\
& \text { - 0x69 | 0x55 --> 0x7D } \\
& 01101001_{2} \text { | } 01010101_{2} \text {--> } 01111101_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Logic operations in C - not quite the same

- Contrast to logical operators
- \&\&, ||,!
- View 0 as "False"
- Anything nonzero as "True"
- Always return 0 or 1
- Early termination (if you can answer looking at first argument, you are done)
- Examples (char data type)
- !0x41 --> 0x00
- !0x00 --> 0x01
- !!0x41 --> 0x01
- $0 \times 69$ \&\& $0 \times 55$--> $0 \times 01$
- 0x69 || 0x55 --> 0x01


## Shift operations

- Left shift: $x \ll y$
- Shift bit-vector x left y positions
- Throw away extra bits on left
- Fill with 0's on right
- Right shift: $\mathrm{x} \ll \mathrm{y}$
- Shift bit-vector $x$ right y positions

| Argument x | 01100010 |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\ll 3$ | 00010000 |
| Log. >> 2 | 00011000 |
| Arith. >> 2 | 00011000 |

- Throw away extra bits on right
- Logical shift
- Fill with 0's on left
- Arithmetic shift
- Replicate most significant bit on right
- Useful with two's complement

| Argument $\times$ | 10100010 |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\ll 3$ | 00010000 |
| Log. >> 2 | 00101000 |
| Arith. >> 2 | 11101000 | integer representation

## Main points

- It's all about bits \& bytes
- Numbers
- Programs
- Text
- Different machines follow different conventions
- Word size
- Byte ordering
- Representations
- Boolean algebra is mathematical basis
- Basic form encodes "false" as 0, "true" as 1
- General form like bit-level operations in C
- Good for representing manipulating sets

