

## Great Idea #1: Abstraction (Levels of Representation/Interpretation)

#### **C** Program

```
int square(int num) {
  return num * num;
}
```

#### **Binary**

0x00000317 0x00830067 0xff010113 0x00112623 0x00812423 0x01010413 0xfea42a23

.....

#### Assembly square(int):

addi	sp,	sp, -16
SW	ra,	<b>12(sp)</b>
SW	s0,	8(sp)
addi	s0,	sp, 16
SW	a0,	-12(s0)
lw	a0,	-12(s0)
mul	a0,	a0, a0
lw	s0,	8(sp)
lw	ra,	<b>12(sp)</b>
addi	sp,	sp, 16
ret		



## **Binary and Hexadecimal**

- Binary is base 2
  - Symbols: 0, 1
  - Convention: 2<sub>10</sub> = 10<sub>2</sub> = 0b10
- Example: What is 0b110 in base 10?
  - $0b110 = 110_2 = (1 \times 2^2) + (1 \times 2^1) + (0 \times 2^0) = 6_{10}$
- Hexadecimal (hex, for short) is base 16
  - Symbols? 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F
  - Convention:  $16_{10} = 10_{16} = 0 \times 10$
- ✤ Example: What is 0xA5 in base 10?
  - $0xA5 = A5_{16} = (10 \times 16^{1}) + (5 \times 16^{0}) = 165_{10}$

## **Base Comparison**

- Why does all of this matter?
  - Humans think about numbers in base 10, but computers "think" about numbers in base 2
  - Binary encoding is what allows computers to do all of the amazing things that they do!
- You should have this table memorized by the end of the class
  - Might as well start now!

Base 10	Base 2	Base 16
0	0000	0
1	0001	1
2	0010	2
3	0011	3
4	0100	4
5	0101	5
6	0110	6
7	0111	7
8	1000	8
9	1001	9
10	1010	Α
11	1011	В
12	1100	C
13	1101	D
14	1110	E
15	1111	F

## **Numerical Encoding**

- AMAZING FACT: You can represent anything countable using numbers!
  - Need to agree on an encoding
  - Kind of like learning a new language
- Examples:
  - Decimal Integers: 0→0b0, 1→0b1, 2→0b10, etc.
  - English Letters: CSE→0x435345, yay→0x796179

## **Binary Encoding – Characters/Text**

- ASCII Encoding (<u>www.asciitable.com</u>)
  - American Standard Code for Information Interchange

Dec	H>	Oct	Char	13	Dec	Hx	Oct	Html	Chr	Dec	Hx	Oct	Html	Chr	Dec	Нх	Oct	Html Ch	nr
0	0	000	NUL	(null)	32	20	040	<b></b> <i>₄</i> #32;	Space	64	40	100	«#64;	0	96	60	140	<b>`</b>	•
1	1	001	SOH	(start of heading)	33	21	041	<b>!</b>	1	65	41	101	A	A	97	61	141	& <b>#</b> 97;	a
2	2	002	STX	(start of text)	34	22	042	"	rr .	66	42	102	B	в	98	62	142	<b>b</b>	b
3	3	003	ETX	(end of text)	35	23	043	<b>#</b>	#	67	43	103	C	С	99	63	143	<b>c</b>	C
4	4	004	EOT	(end of transmission)	36	24	044	<b>\$</b>	ş	68	44	104	<b>D</b>	D	100	64	144	d	d
5	5	005	ENQ	(enquiry)	37	25	045	<b>%</b>	*	69	45	105	<b>E</b>	E	101	65	145	e	e
6	6	006	ACK	(acknowledge)	38	26	046	<b>&amp;</b>	6.	70	46	106	F	F	102	66	146	f	f
7	7	007	BEL	(bell)	39	27	047	<b>'</b>	1	71	47	107	G	G	103	67	147	g	a
8	8	010	BS	(backspace)	40	28	050	<b></b> ‰#40;	(	72	48	110	6#72;	H	104	68	150	h	h
9	9	011	TAB	(horizontal tab)	41	29	051	)	)	73	49	111	¢#73;	I	105	69	151	i	i
10	A	012	LF	(NL line feed, new line)	42	2A	052	«#42;	*	74	4A	112	¢#74;	J	106	6A	152	j	Ĵ
11	в	013	VT	(vertical tab)	43	2B	053	«#43;	+	75	4B	113	«#75;	K	107	6B	153	k	k
12	С	014	FF	(NP form feed, new page)	44	2C	054	«#44;	1	76	4C	114	& <b>#</b> 76;	L	108	6C	154	l	1
13	D	015	CR	(carriage return)	45	2D	055	«#45;	- \	77	4D	115	6#77;	М	109	6D	155	m	m
14	Ε	016	SO	(shift out)	46	2E	056	.	-	78	4E	116	<b>N</b>	N	110	6E	156	n	n
15	F	017	SI	(shift in)	47	2F	057	6#47;	1	79	4F	117	<b>O</b>	0	111	6F	157	o	0
16	10	020	DLE	(data link escape)	48	30	060	<b>0</b>	0	80	50	120	<b>P</b>	P	112	70	160	p	р
17	11	021	DC1	(device control 1)	49	31	061	«#49;	1	81	51	121	Q	Q	113	71	161	q	q
18	12	022	DC2	(device control 2)	50	32	062	<b>2</b>	2	82	52	122	<b>R</b>	R	114	72	162	<i>%#</i> 114;	r
19	13	023	DC3	(device control 3)	51	33	063	«#51;	3	83	53	123	<b>S</b>	S	115	73	163	s	3
20	14	024	DC4	(device control 4)	52	34	064	<b></b> <i>‱</i> #52;	4	84	54	124	<b>T</b>	Т	116	74	164	t	t
21	15	025	NAK	(negative acknowledge)	53	35	065	<b></b> <i>∝</i> #53;	5	85	55	125	¢#85;	U	117	75	165	u	u
22	16	026	SYN	(synchronous idle)	54	36	066	«#54;	6	86	56	126	<b>V</b>	V	118	76	166	v	v
23	17	027	ETB	(end of trans. block)	55	37	067	«#55;	7	87	57	127	«#87;	W	119	77	167	w	W
24	18	030	CAN	(cancel)	56	38	070	<b>8</b>	8	88	58	130	<b>X</b>	X	120	78	170	x	x
25	19	031	EM	(end of medium)	57	39	071	9	9	89	59	131	<b>Y</b>	Y	121	79	171	y	У
26	1A	032	SUB	(substitute)	58	ЗA	072	<b>:</b>	:	90	5A	132	<b>Z</b>	Z	122	7A	172	z	Z
27	1B	033	ESC	(escape)	59	ЗB	073	<b>;</b>	2	91	5B	133	& <b>#</b> 91;	[	123	7B	173	{	{
28	1C	034	FS	(file separator)	60	ЗC	074	<b>&lt;</b>	<	92	5C	134	& <b>#</b> 92;	1	124	7C	174		1
29	1D	035	GS	(group separator)	61	ЗD	075	l;	=	93	5D	135	<b>]</b>	]	125	7D	175	«#125;	}
30	lE	036	RS	(record separator)	62	ЗE	076	>	>	94	5E	136	6#94;	^	126	7E	176	~	~
31	lF	037	US	(unit separator)	63	ЗF	077	?	2	95	5F	137	<b>_</b>	-	127	7F	177		DE

Source: www.LookupTables.com

## Memory, Data, & Addressing I

## **Binary Encoding Additional Details**

- Because storage is finite in reality, everything is stored as "fixed" length
  - Data is moved and manipulated in fixed-length chunks
  - Multiple fixed lengths (*e.g.* 1 byte, 4 bytes, 8 bytes)
  - Leading zeros now must be included up to "fill out" the fixed length

<u>Example</u>: the "eight-bit" representation of the number 4 is 0b0000100
 Least Significant Bit (LSB)

## **Byte-Oriented Memory Organization**



- Conceptually, memory is a single, large array of bytes, each with a unique *address* (index)
  - Each address is just a number represented in *fixed-length* binary
- Programs refer to bytes in memory by their *addresses*
  - Domain of possible addresses = address space
  - Pointer: We can store addresses as data to "remember" where other data is in memory HIGH RISK AREA
- But not all values fit in a single byte... (e.g. 295)
  - Many operations actually use multi-byte values

## **Peer Instruction Question**

- If we choose to use 4-bit addresses, how big is our address space?
  - *i.e.* How much space can we "refer to" using our addresses?
  - A. 16 bits
  - B. 16 bytes
  - C. 4 bits
  - D. 4 bytes
  - E. We're lost...

## Machine "Words"

- We have chosen to tie word size to address size/width
  - word size = address size = register size
  - word size = w bits  $\rightarrow 2^w$  addresses
- Current x86 systems use 64-bit (8-byte) words
  - Potential address space: 2<sup>64</sup> addresses
     2<sup>64</sup> bytes ≈ 1.8 x 10<sup>19</sup> bytes
     = 18 billion billion bytes = 18 EB (exabytes)
  - Actual physical address space: 48 bits

## **Word-Oriented Memory Organization**

- Addresses still specify locations of *bytes* in memory
  - Addresses of successive words differ by word size (in bytes): e.g. 4 (32-bit) or 8 (64-bit)
  - Address of word 0, 1, ... 10?



## **Word-Oriented Memory Organization**

- Addresses still specify locations of *bytes* in memory
  - Addresses of successive words differ by word size (in bytes): e.g. 4 (32-bit) or 8 (64-bit)
  - Address of word 0, 1, ... 10?
- Address of word
  - = address of *first* byte in word
  - The address of *any* chunk of memory is given by the address of the first byte
  - Alignment



## A Picture of Memory (64-bit view)

✤ A "64-bit (8-byte) word-aligned" view of memory:

- In this type of picture, each row is composed of 8 bytes
- Each cell is a byte
- A 64-bit pointer will fit on one row



## A Picture of Memory (64-bit view)

✤ A "64-bit (8-byte) word-aligned" view of memory:

In this type of picture, each row is composed of 8 bytes



# **Addresses and Pointers**



big-endian

- \* An *address* is a location in memory
- \* A *pointer* is a data object that holds an address
  - Address can point to any data
- Value 504 stored at address 0x08
  - 504<sub>10</sub> = 1F8<sub>16</sub>
     = 0x 00 ... 00 01 F8
- Pointer stored at
   0x38 points to
   address 0x08



# **Addresses and Pointers**



big-endian

- \* An *address* is a location in memory
- \* A *pointer* is a data object that holds an address
  - Address can point to any data
- Pointer stored at 0x48 points to address 0x38
  - Pointer to a pointer!
- Is the data stored at 0x08 a pointer?
  - Could be, depending on how you use it



## **Data Representations**

## Sizes of data types (in bytes)

Java Data Type	C Data Type	32-bit	x86-64
boolean	bool	1	1
byte	char	1	1
char		2	2
short	short int	2	2
int	int	4	4
float	float	4	4
	long int	4	8
double	double	8	8
long	long	8	8
	long double	8	16
(reference)	pointer *	4	8

address size = word size

To use "bool" in C, you must #include <stdbool.h>

## **Memory Alignment**

- Aligned: Primitive object of K bytes must have an address that is a multiple of K
  - More about alignment later in the course

K	Туре
1	char
2	short
4	int, float
8	long, double, pointers

 For good memory system performance, data has to be aligned.

## **Byte Ordering**

- How should bytes within a word be ordered in memory?
  - Example: store the 4-byte (32-bit) int: 0x a1 b2 c3 d4
- By convention, ordering of bytes called *endianness*
  - The two options are big-endian and little-endian
    - In which address does the least significant *byte* go?
    - Based on *Gulliver's Travels*: tribes cut eggs on different sides (big, little)

## **Byte Ordering**

- Big-endian (SPARC, z/Architecture)
  - Least significant byte has highest address
- Little-endian (x86, x86-64, RISC-V)
  - Least significant byte has lowest address
- Bi-endian (ARM, PowerPC)
  - Endianness can be specified as big or little
- Example: 4-byte data 0xa1b2c3d4 at address 0x100



## Memory, Data, & Addressing II

## Review

- 1) If the word size of a machine is 64-bits, which of the following is usually true? (pick all that apply)
  - a) 64 bits is the size of a pointer
  - b) 64 bits is the size of an integer
  - c) 64 bits is the width of a register
- (True/False) By looking at the bits stored in memory, I can tell if a particular 4-bytes is being used to represent an integer, floating point number, or instruction.
- 3) If the size of a pointer on a machine is 6 bits, the address space is how many bytes?

## Assignment in C



- Ieft-hand side = right-hand side;
  - LHS must evaluate to a location
  - RHS must evaluate to a value (could be an address)
  - Store RHS value at LHS location
- \* int x, y;
- \* x = 0;
- \* y = 0x3CD02700;
- \* x = y + 3;
  - Get value at y, add 3, store in x
- \* int\* z = &y + 3;
  - Get address of y, "add 3", store in z



Pointer arithmetic

## **Pointer Arithmetic**

- Pointer arithmetic is scaled by the size of target type
  - In this example, sizeof (int) = 4
- \* int\* z = &y + 3;
  - Get address of y, add 3\*sizeof (int), store in z

• 
$$&_{y} = 0 \times 18 = 1 \times 16^{1} + 8 \times 16^{0} = 24$$

- $24 + 3*(4) = 36 = 2*16^{1} + 4*16^{0} = 0x24$
- Pointer arithmetic can be dangerous!
  - Can easily lead to bad memory accesses
  - Be careful with data types and casting

## Assignment in C

- \* int x, y;
- \* x = 0;
- \* y = 0x3CD02700;
- \* x = y + 3;
  - Get value at y, add 3, store in x
- \* int\* z = &y + 3;
  - Get address of y, add 12, store in z

What does this do?

**32** bit example (pointers are **32**-bits wide) & = "address of" \* = "dereference"



## Assignment in C

- \* int x, y;
- $\star x = 0;$
- \* y = 0x3CD02700;
- \* x = y + 3;
  - Get value at y, add 3, store in x

\* int\* z = &y + 3;

- Get address of y, add 12, store in z The target of a pointer is also a location ★ \*Z = y;
  - Get value of y, put in address stored in z

(pointers are **32**-bits & = "address of" \* = "dereference"



Arrays are adjacent locations in memory storing the same type of data object

#### a (array name) returns the array's address



# **Arrays Basics**

- **Pitfall:** An array in C does not know its own length, and its bounds are not checked!
  - We can accidentally access off the end of an array
  - We must pass the array and its size to any procedure that is going to manipulate it
- Mistakes with array bounds cause *segmentation faults* and *bus errors* 
  - Be careful! These are VERY difficult to find (You'll learn how to debug these in lab)

Declaration: int a[6];

Indexing:

Arrays are adjacent locations in memory storing the same type of data object

# a (array name) returns the array's address &a [i] is the address of a [0] plus i times the element size in bytes



#### Declaration: int a[6];

Indexing:  $a[0] = 0 \times 015f;$ a[5] = a[0];

No bounds  $a[6] = 0 \times BAD;$ checking:  $a[-1] = 0 \times BAD;$  Arrays are adjacent locations in memory storing the same type of data object

#### a (array name) returns the array's address

&a[i] is the address of a[0] plus i times the element size in bytes



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\*p = 0xA;

Pointers: int\* p; equivalent  $\begin{cases} p = a; \\ p = \&a[0]; \end{cases}$  Arrays are adjacent locations in memory storing the same type of data object

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#### D

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Pointers: int\* p; equivalent  $\begin{cases} p = a; \\ p = &a[0]; \end{cases}$ \*p = 0xA;

array indexing = address arithmetic

(both scaled by the size of the type)

p = p + 2;

Arrays are adjacent locations in memory storing the same type of data object

#### a (array name) returns the array's address

&a[i] is the address of a[0] plus i times the element size in bytes



#### CMPT 295

# Arrays in C

#### Declaration: int a[6];

Indexing: a[0] = 0x015f; a[5] = a[0];

No bounds a[6] = 0xBAD;checking: a[-1] = 0xBAD;

Pointers: int\* p;  
equivalent 
$$\begin{cases} p = a; \\ p = &a[0]; \\ *p = &0xA; \end{cases}$$

equivalent 
$$\begin{cases} p[1] = 0xB; \\ *(p+1) = 0xB; \\ p = p + 2; \end{cases}$$

\*p = a[1] + 1;

Arrays are adjacent locations in memory storing the same type of data object

## a (array name) returns the array's address

&a[i] is the address of a[0] plus
i times the element size in bytes



## **Representing strings**

- C-style string stored as an array of bytes (char\*)
  - Elements are one-byte ASCII codes for each character
  - No "String" keyword, unlike Java

										_		
32	space	48	0	64	@	80	Р	96	`	1	12	р
33	!	49	1	65	A	81	Q	97	а	1	13	q
34	"	50	2	66	В	82	R	98	b	1	14	r
35	#	51	3	67	c	83	S	99	с	1	15	S
36	\$	52	4	68	D	84	т	100	d	1	16	t
37	%	53	5	69	E	85	U	101	e	1	17	u
38	&	54	6	70	F	86	V	102	f	1	18	v
39	,	55	7	71	G	87	W	103	g	1	19	w
40	(	56	8	72	н	88	Х	104	h	1	20	х
41	)	57	9	73	I.	89	Y	105	1	1	21	У
42	*	58	:	74	J	90	Ζ	106	j	1	22	z
43	+	59	;	75	к	91	[	107	k	1	23	{
44	,	60	<	76	L	92	١	108	1	1	24	1
45	-	61	=	77	м	93	]	109	m	1	25	}
46		62	>	78	N	94	۸	110	n	1	26	~
47	/	63	?	79	0	95	_	111	o	1	27	del

#### **ASCII: American Standard Code for Information**

## **Null-Terminated Strings**

Example: "Donald Trump" stored as a 13-byte array



- Last character followed by a 0 byte ('\0')
   (a.k.a. "null terminator")
  - Must take into account when allocating space in memory
  - Note that '0' ≠ '\0' (*i.e.* character 0 has non-zero value)
- How do we compute the length of a string?
  - Traverse array until null terminator encountered

C (char = 1 byte)

## **Endianness and Strings**



- Byte ordering (endianness) is not an issue for 1-byte values
  - The whole array does not constitute a single value
  - Individual elements are values; chars are single bytes

## **Examining Data Representations**

- Code to print byte representation of data
  - Any data type can be treated as a byte array by casting it to char
  - C has unchecked casts !! DANGER !!

```
void show_bytes(char* start, int len) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < len; i++)
        printf("%p\t0x%.2x\n", start+i, *(start+i));
    printf("\n");
}</pre>
```

#### printf directives:

%p	Print pointer
\t	Tab
°∕X	Print value as hex
∖n	New line

## **Examining Data Representations**

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        printf("%p\t0x%.2x\n", start+i, *(start+i));
    printf("\n");
}</pre>
```

<pre>void show_int(i</pre>	.nt x) {		
show_bytes(	(char *)	<u>&amp;x</u> ,	<pre>sizeof(int));</pre>
}			

#### **CMPT 295**

## show\_bytes Execution Example

**int** x = 12345; // 0x00003039

printf("int  $x = %d; \n", x$ );

show\_int(x); // show\_bytes((char \*) &x,
sizeof(int));

- Result (Linux x86-64):
  - Note: The addresses will change on each run (try it!), but fall in same general range

#### int x = 12345;

0x7fffb7f71dbc\_0x39

0x7fffb7f71dbd 0x30

0x7fffb7f71dbe 0x00