

# Announcements

## ■ On the website: [cs.uw.edu/351](https://cs.uw.edu/351)

- Anonymous feedback form
- Need help?
  - Discussion board (aka GoPost) – You can \*search\* the GoPost!
  - Send email to cse351-staff at cse.uw.edu
  - Office hours: Almost finalized, check the calendar
- Lecture slides on the web schedule (these will be linked when ready)
- Lab 0, make sure to start early – due Monday at 5pm
- Videos for optional reference – not exactly the same slides as we'll use
  - Tips for C, debugging, etc.
  - Lecture content

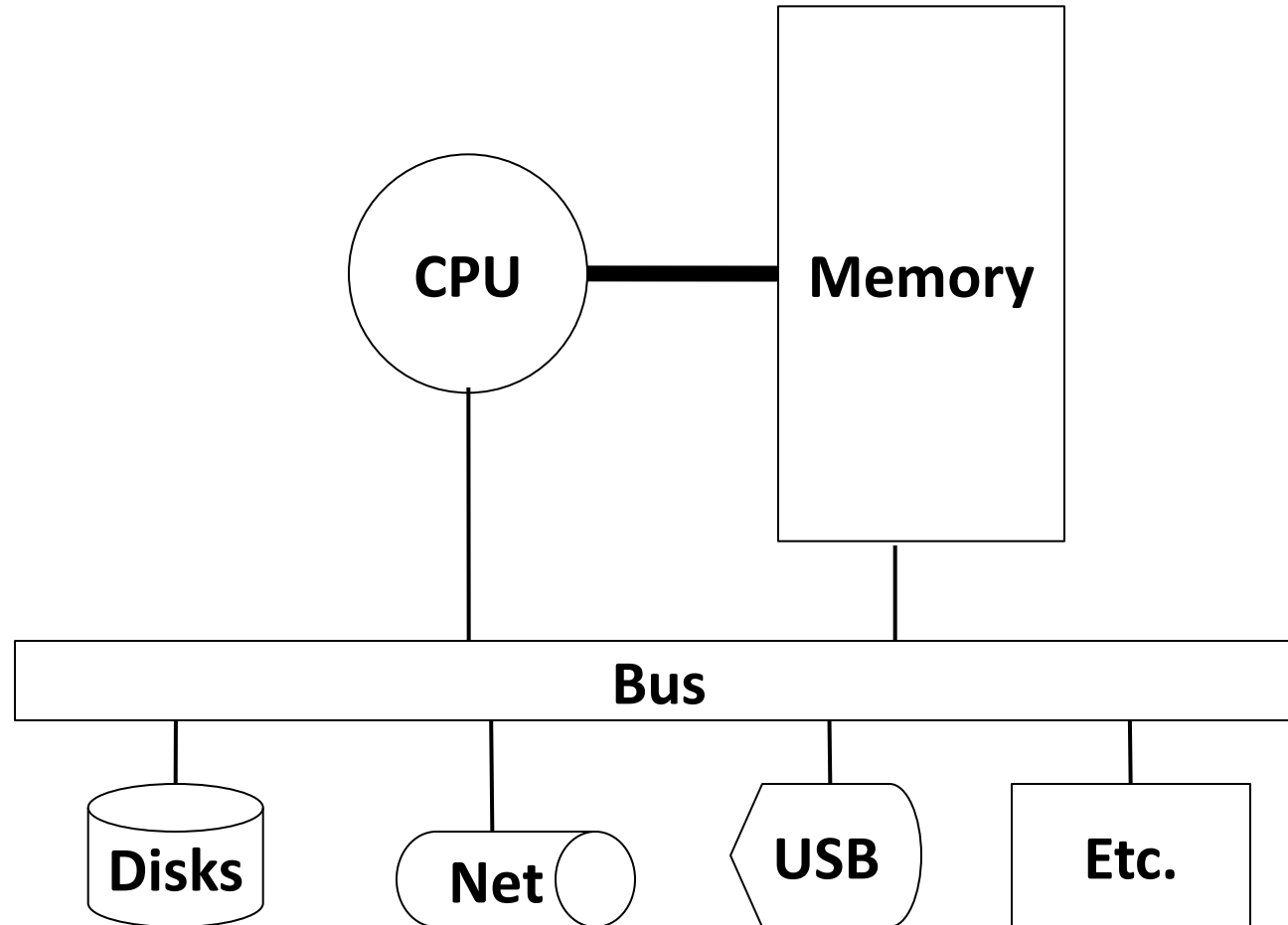
## ■ Video Assignment for Monday: (found on schedule)

<https://courses.cs.washington.edu/courses/cse351/15au/video-assignment-1.html>

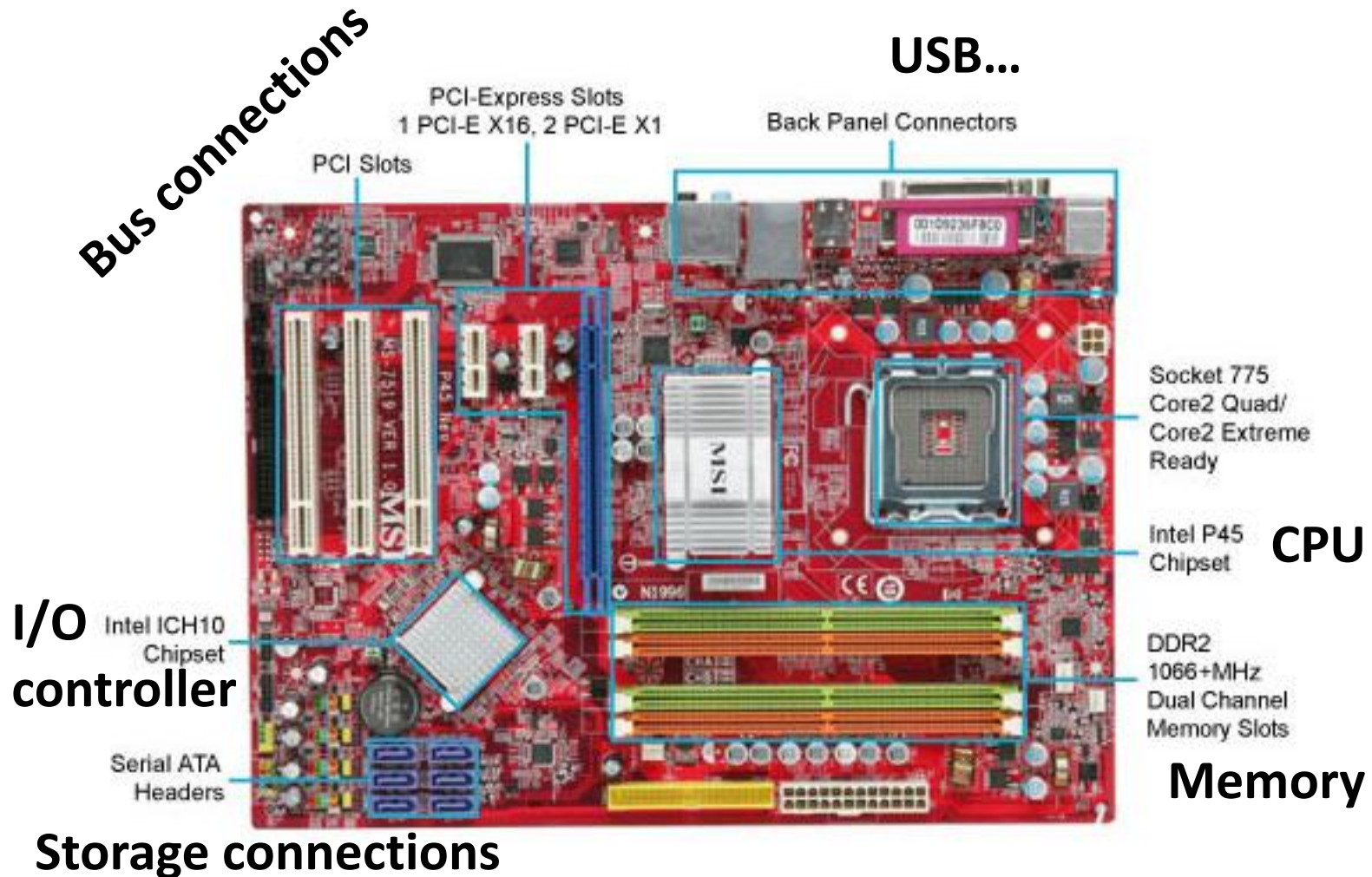
## ■ Everyone in cse351 should be able to sign up for cse390a

- Show up on Tuesday for first class

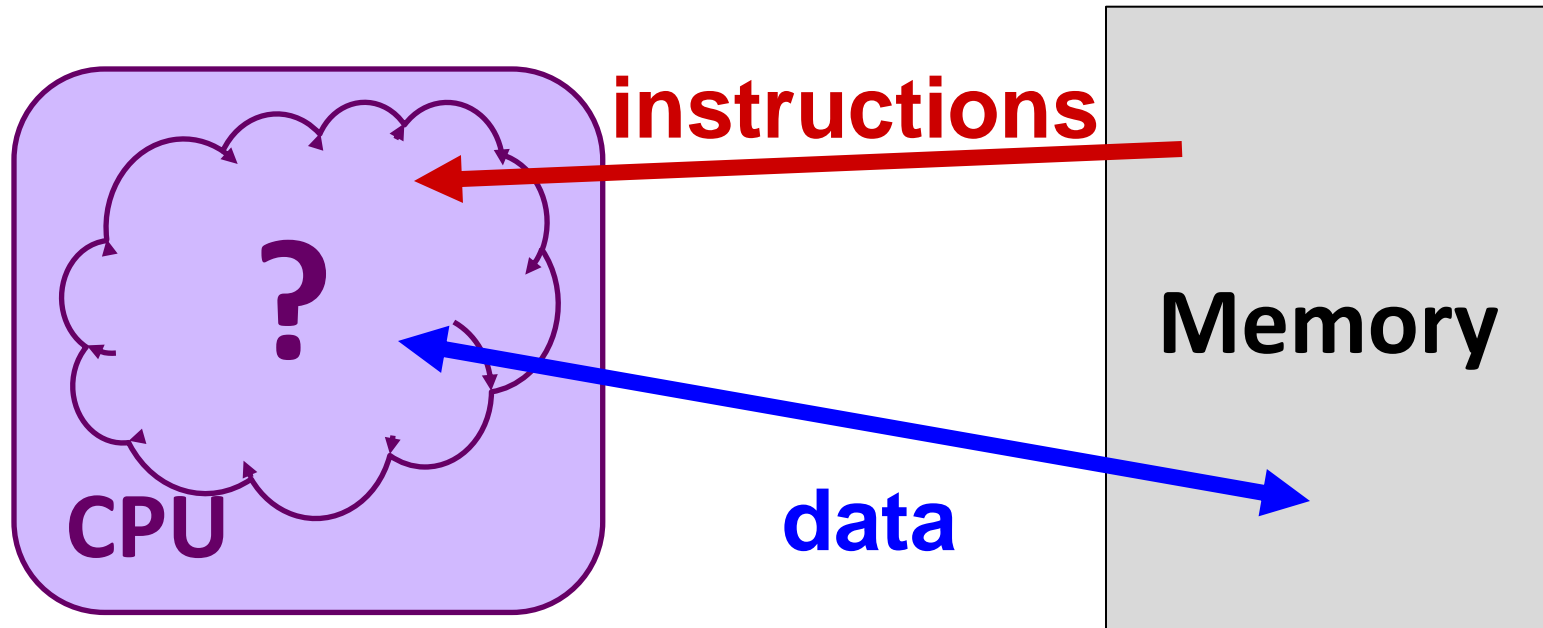
# Hardware: Logical View



# Hardware: Physical View

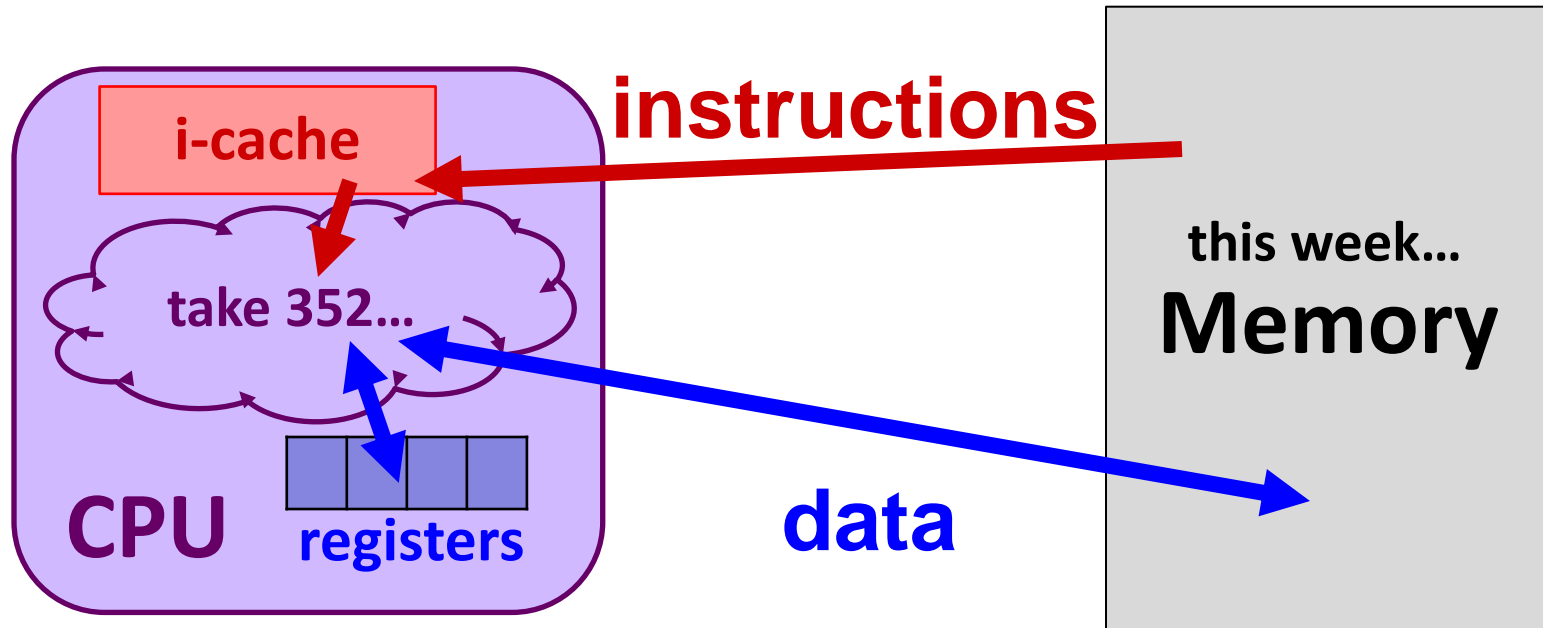


# Hardware: 351 View (version 0)



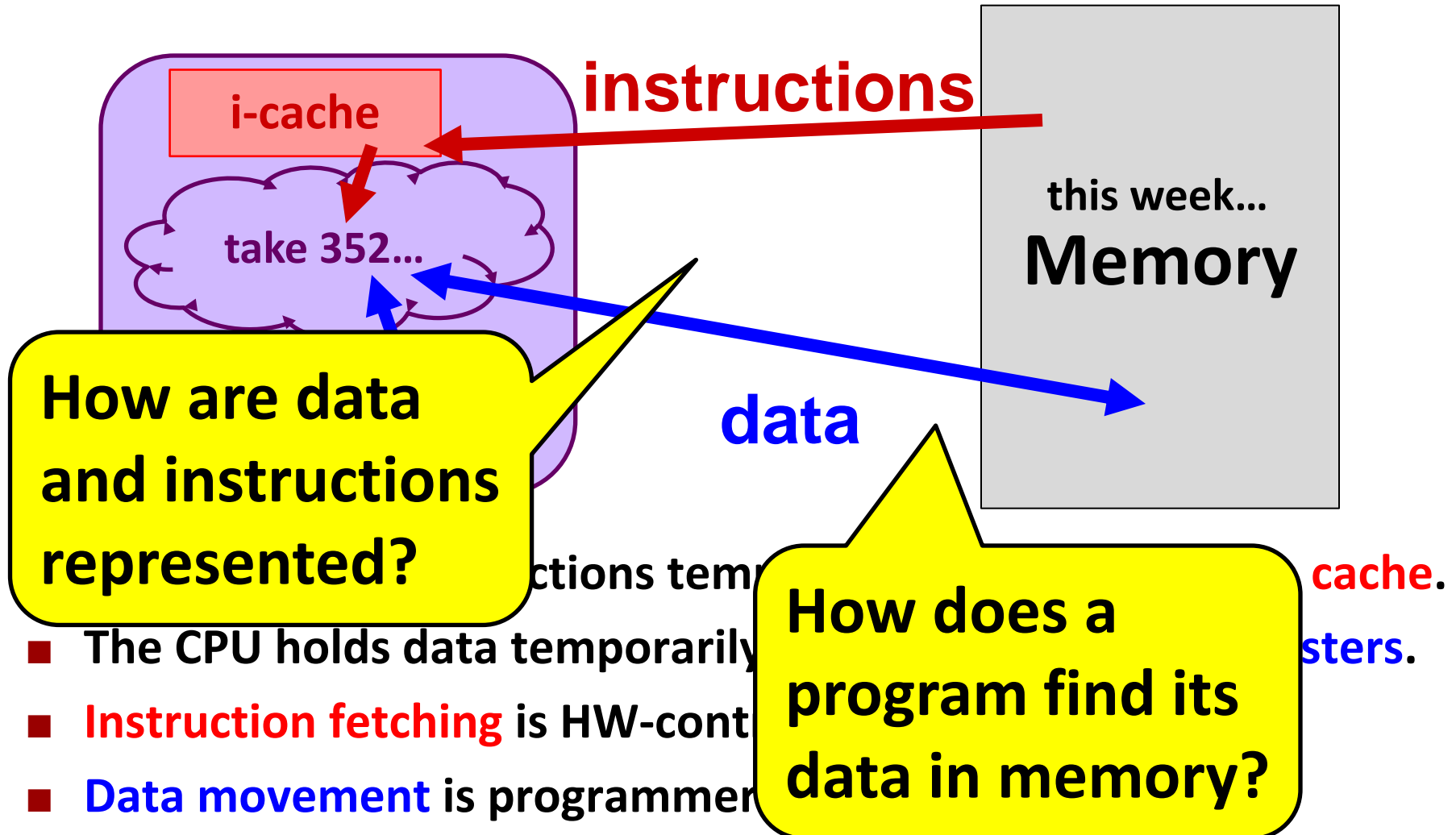
- CPU executes instructions; memory stores data
- To execute an instruction, the CPU must:
  - fetch an instruction;
  - fetch the data used by the instruction; and, finally,
  - execute the instruction on the data...
  - which may result in writing data back to memory.

# Hardware: 351 View (version 1)



- The CPU holds instructions temporarily in the **instruction cache**
- The CPU holds data temporarily in a fixed number of **registers**
- **Instruction and operand fetching** is HW-controlled
- **Data movement** is (assembly language) programmer-controlled
- We'll learn about the instructions the CPU executes – take cse352 to find out how it actually executes them

# Hardware: 351 View (version 1)



# Roadmap

C:

```
car *c = malloc(sizeof(car));  
c->miles = 100;  
c->gals = 17;  
float mpg = get_mpg(c);  
free(c);
```

Java:

```
Car c = new Car();  
c.setMiles(100);  
c.setGals(17);  
float mpg =  
    c.getMPG();
```

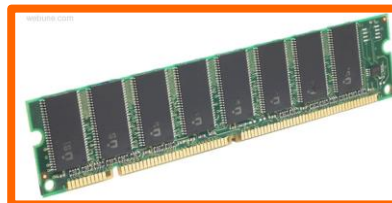
Assembly  
language:

```
get_mpg:  
    pushq    %rbp  
    movq     %rsp, %rbp  
    ...  
    popq     %rbp  
    ret
```

Machine  
code:

```
0111010000011000  
100011010000010000000010  
1000100111000010  
110000011111101000011111
```

Computer  
system:



OS:



Memory & data

Integers & floats

Machine code & C

x86 assembly

Procedures & stacks

Arrays & structs

Memory & caches

Processes

Virtual memory

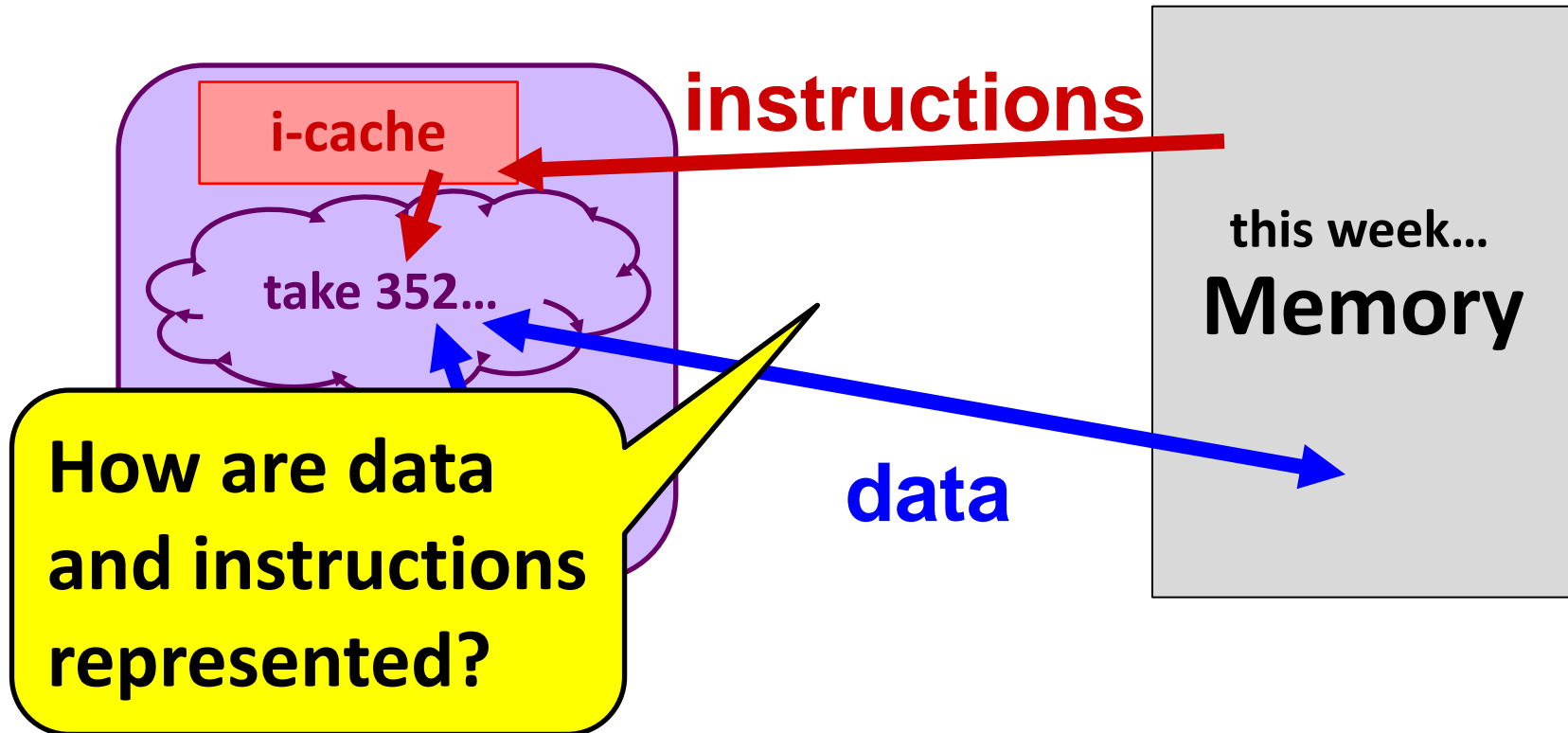
Memory allocation

Java vs. C

# Memory, Data, and Addressing

- Representing information as bits and bytes
- Organizing and addressing data in memory
- Manipulating data in memory using C
- Boolean algebra and bit-level manipulations





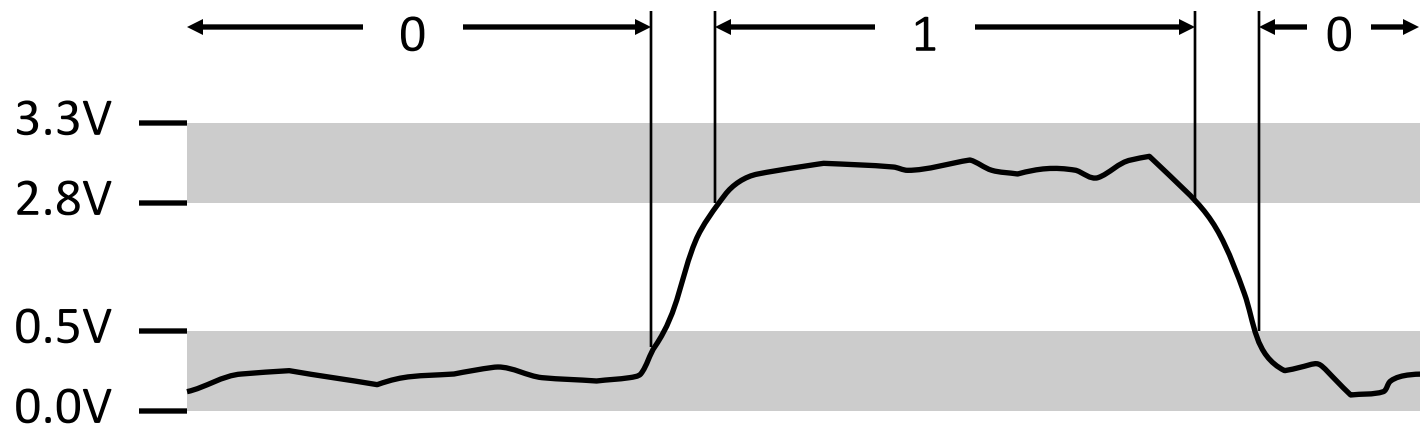
# Binary Representations

## ■ Base 2 number representation

- A base 2 digit (0 or 1) is called a *bit*.
- Represent  $351_{10}$  as  $0000000101011111_2$  or  $101011111_2$

## ■ Electronic implementation

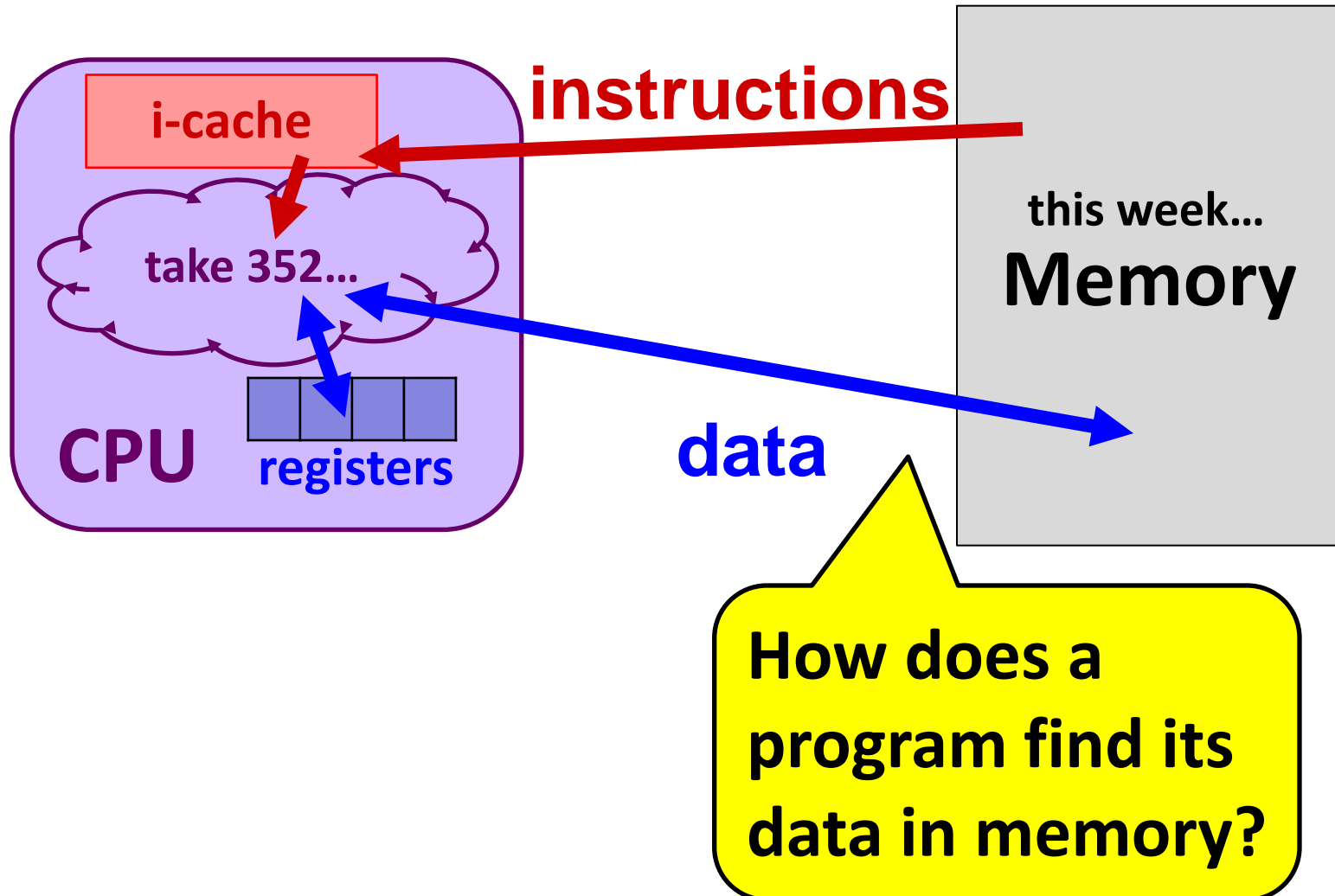
- Easy to store with bi-stable elements
- Reliably transmitted on noisy and inaccurate wires



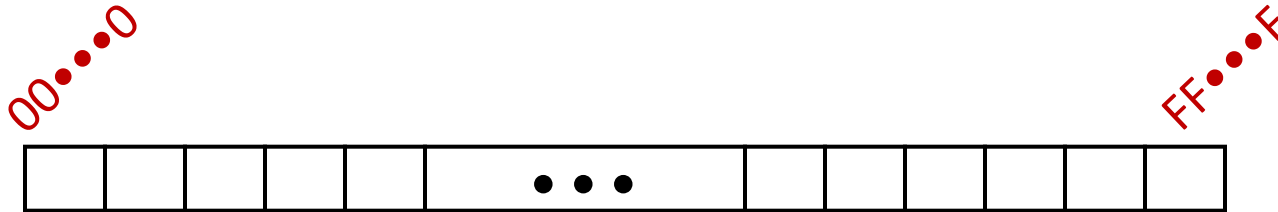
# Describing Byte Values

- **Binary**                       $00000000_2$  --  $11111111_2$ 
  - Byte = 8 bits (binary digits)
- **Decimal**                       $0_{10}$  --  $255_{10}$
- **Hexadecimal**                       $00_{16}$  --  $FF_{16}$ 
  - Byte = 2 hexadecimal (or “hex” or base 16) digits
  - Base 16 number representation
  - Use characters ‘0’ to ‘9’ and ‘A’ to ‘F’
  - Write  $FA1D37B_{16}$  in the C language
    - as `0xFA1D37B`    or   `0xfa1d37b`
- **More on specific data types later...**

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
B	11	1011
C	12	1100
D	13	1101
E	14	1110
F	15	1111



# Byte-Oriented Memory Organization



- Conceptually, memory is a single, large array of bytes, each with an unique **address** (index)
- The value of each byte in memory can be read and written
- Programs refer to bytes in memory by their **addresses**
  - Domain of possible addresses = *address space*
- But not all values (e.g., 351) fit in a single byte...
  - Store addresses to “remember” where other data is in memory
  - How much memory can we address with 1-byte (8-bit) addresses?
- Many operations actually use multi-byte values

# Machine Words

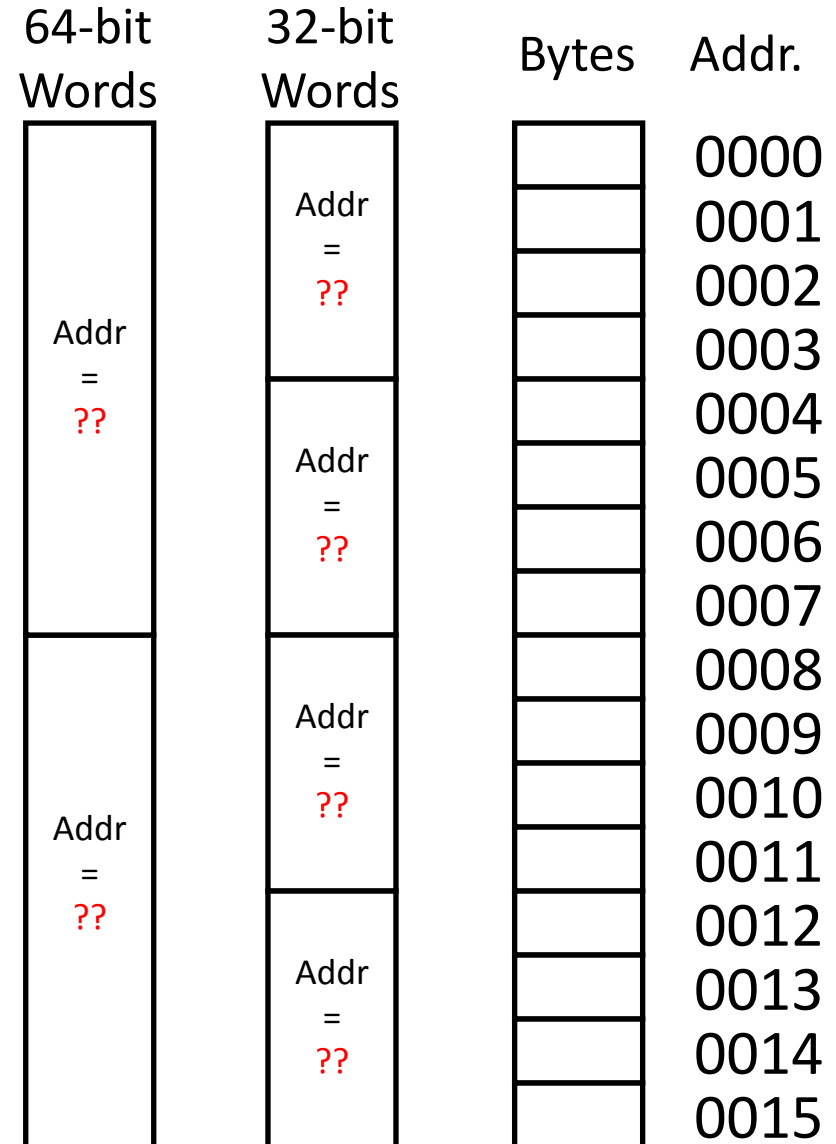
- **Word size = address size = register size**
- **Word size bounds the size of the *address space* and memory**
  - word size =  $w$  bits  $\Rightarrow 2^w$  addresses
  - Until recently, most machines used **32-bit (4-byte) words**
    - Potential address space:  $2^{32}$  addresses  
 $2^{32}$  bytes  $\approx 4 \times 10^9$  bytes = 4 billion bytes = **4GB**
    - Became too small for memory-intensive applications
  - Current x86 systems use **64-bit (8-byte) words**
    - Potential address space:  $2^{64}$  addresses  
 $2^{64}$  bytes  $\approx 1.8 \times 10^{19}$  bytes = 18 billion billion bytes = **18 EB** (exabytes)

# Word-Oriented Memory Organization

(note: decimal addresses)

## ■ Addresses specify locations of bytes in memory

- Address of word  
= address of first byte in word
- 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?

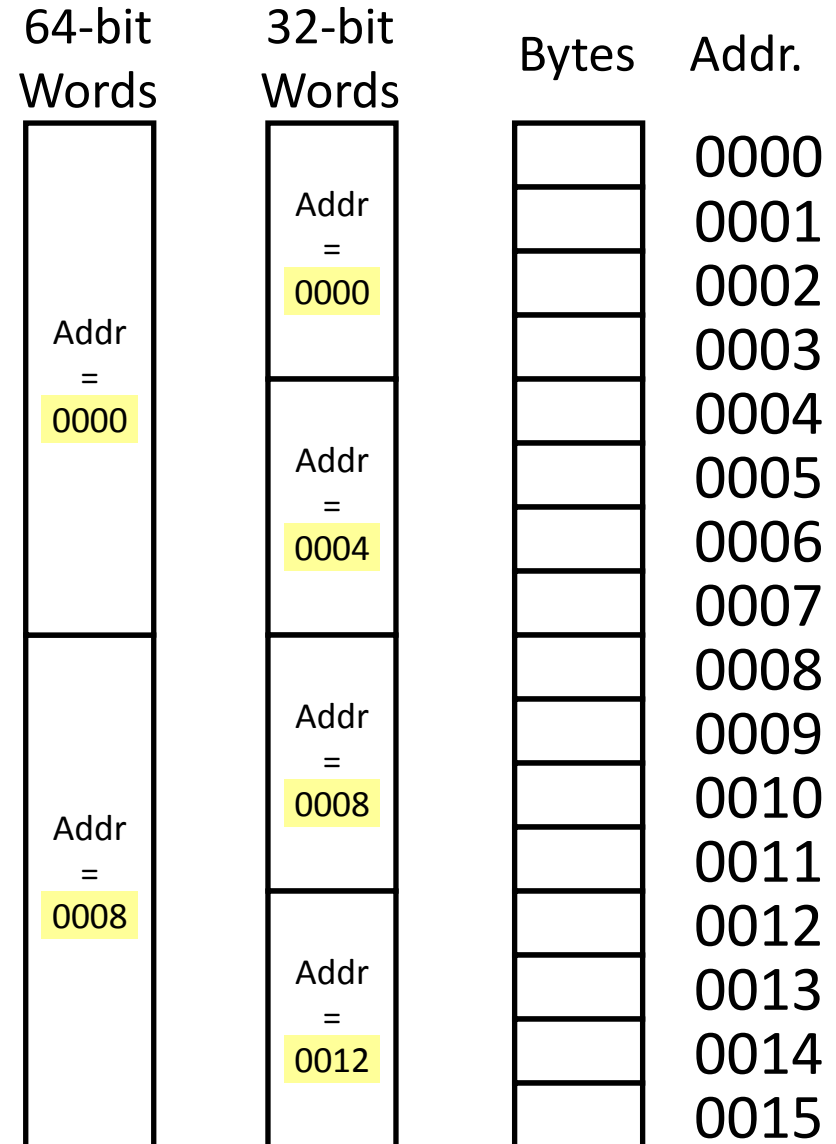


# Word-Oriented Memory Organization

(note: decimal addresses)

## ■ Addresses still specify locations of *bytes* in memory

- Address of word  
= address of first byte in word
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*e.g.*, 4 (32-bit) or 8 (64-bit)
- Address of word 0, 1, .. 10?
- ***Alignment***

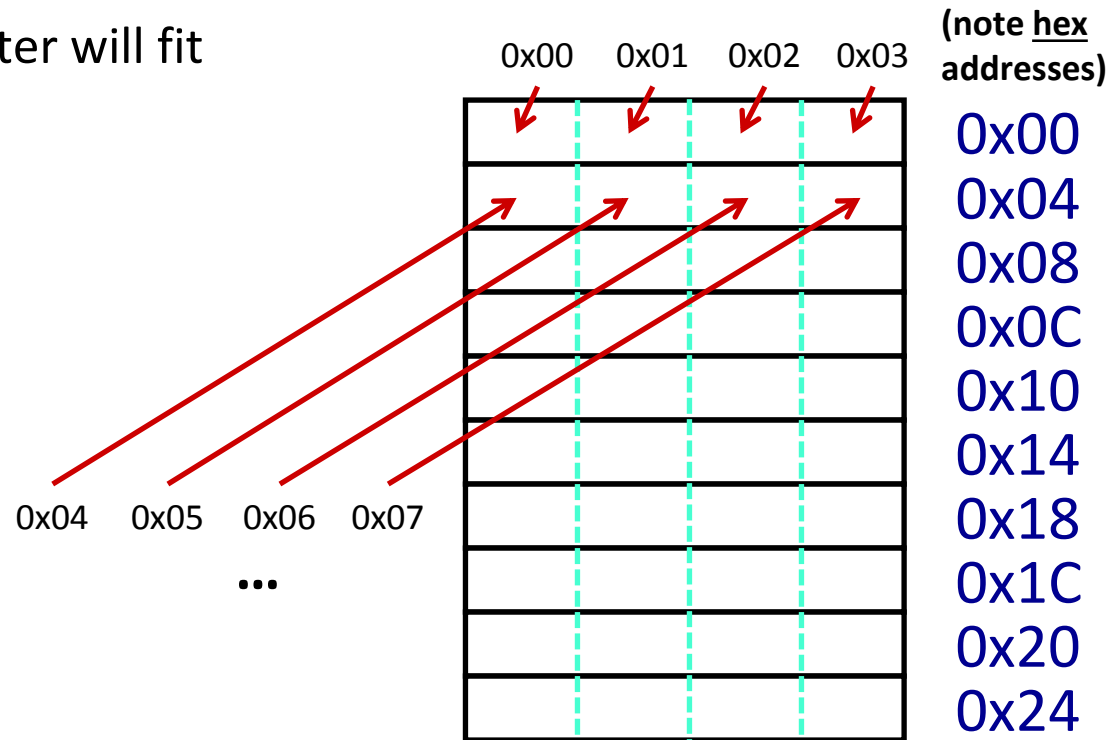




# A Picture of Memory (32-bit view)

## ■ A “32-bit (4-byte) word-aligned” view of memory:

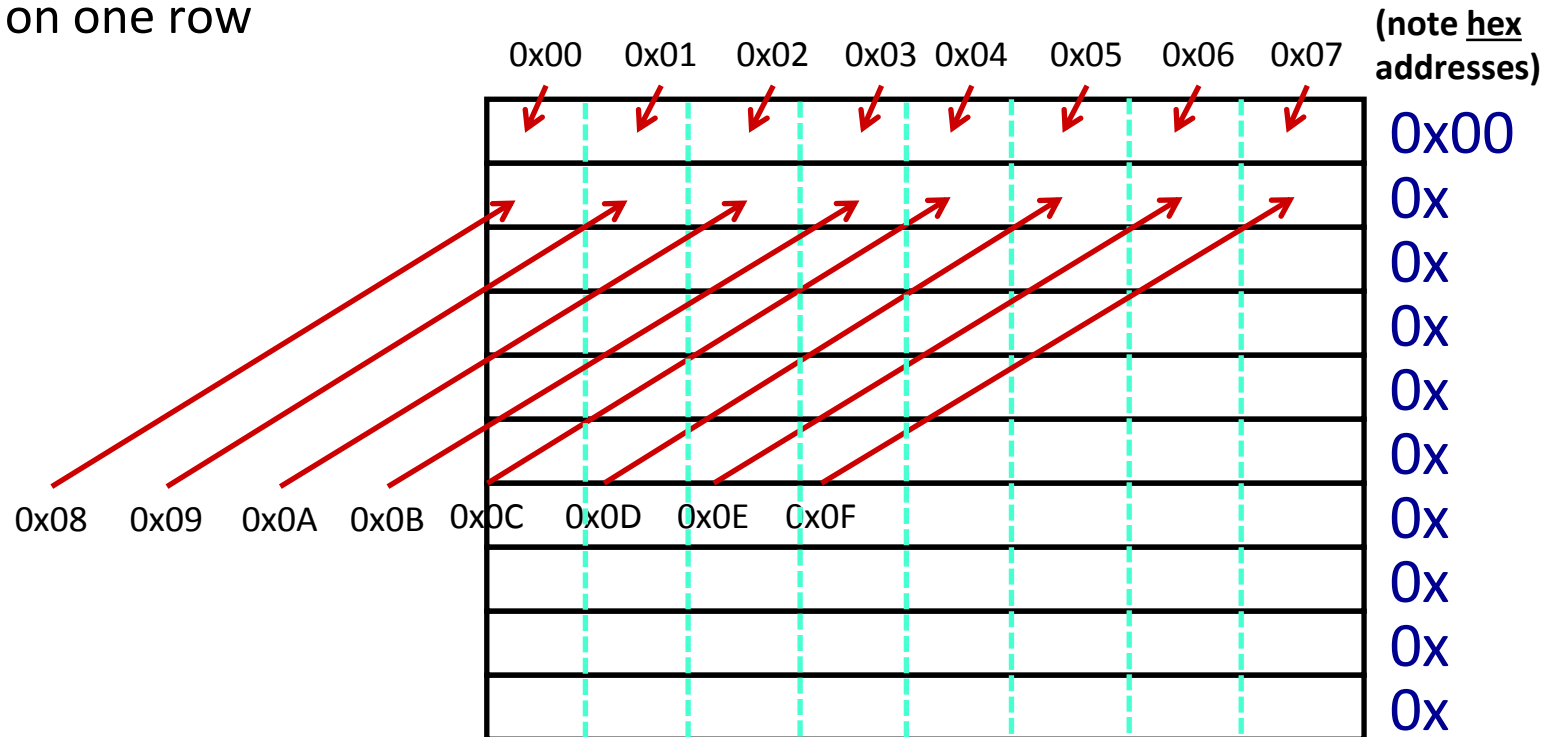
- In this type of picture, each row is composed of 4 bytes
- Each cell is a byte
- A 32-bit pointer will fit on one row



# A Picture of Memory (64-bit view)

## ■ A “64-bit (8-byte) word-aligned” view of memory:

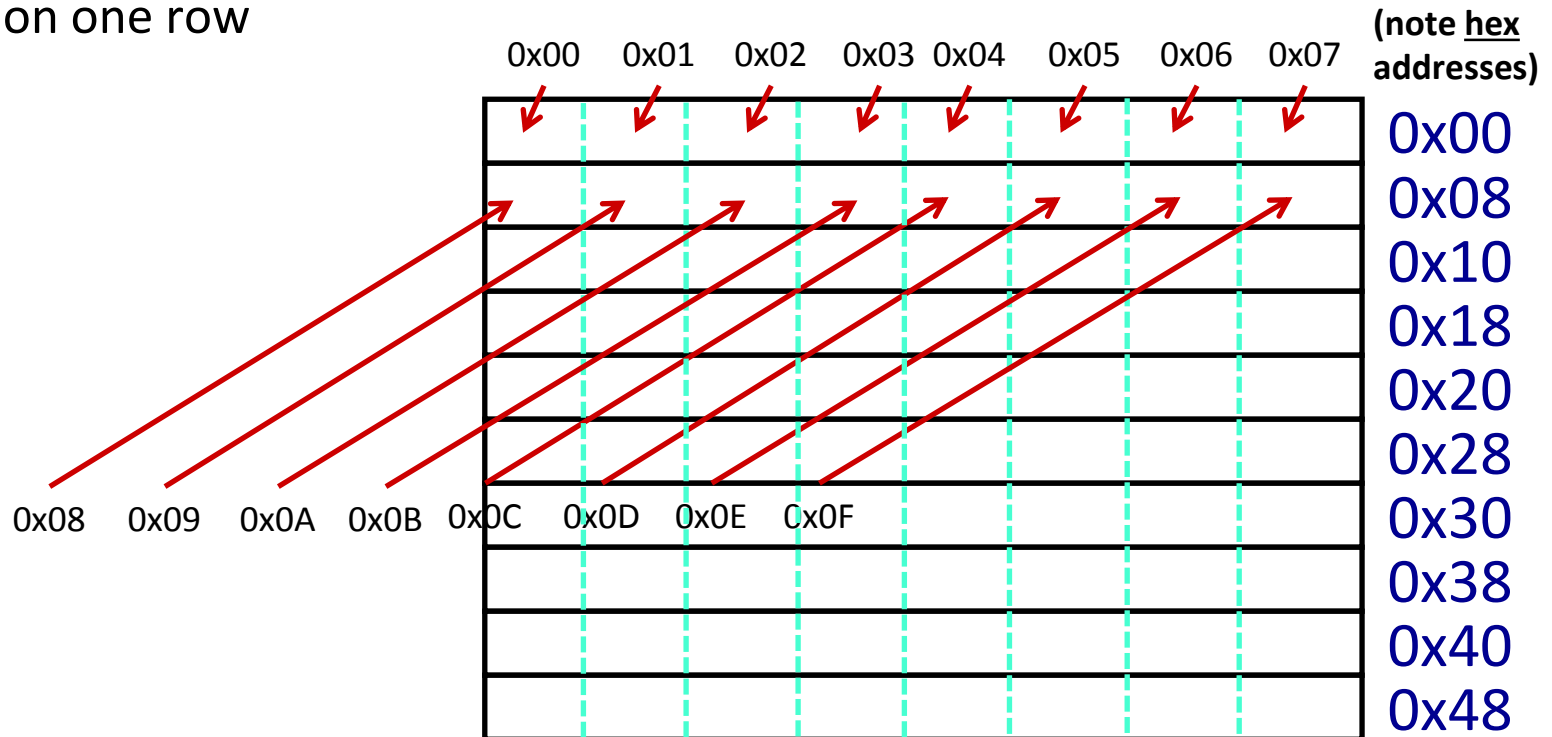
- In this type of picture, each row is composed of 8 bytes
- Each cell is a byte
- A 64-bit pointer will fit on one row



# 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
- Each cell is a byte
- A 64-bit pointer will fit on one row



# Addresses and Pointers

**32-bit example**  
(pointers are 32-bits wide)

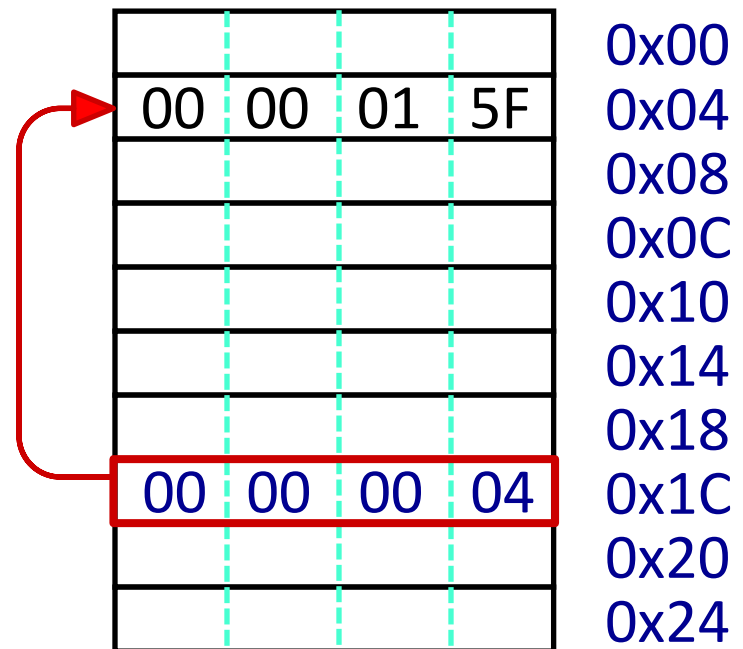
- An *address* is a location in memory
- A *pointer* is a data object that holds an address
- The value 351 is stored at address **0x04**
  - $351_{10} = 15F_{16} = 0x00\ 00\ 01\ 5F$

				0x00
00	00	01	5F	0x04
				0x08
				0x0C
				0x10
				0x14
				0x18
				0x1C
				0x20
				0x24

# Addresses and Pointers

**32-bit example**  
(pointers are 32-bits wide)

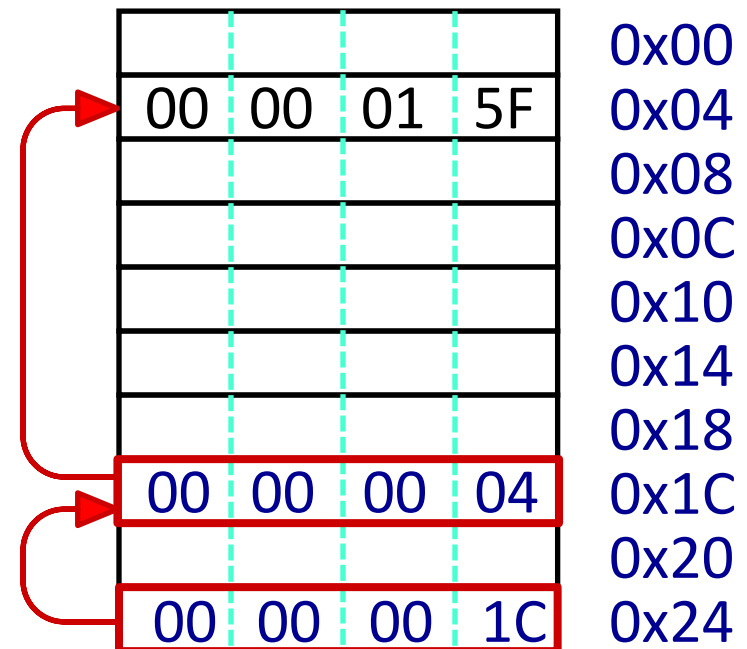
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- The value 351 is stored at address **0x04**
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- A pointer stored at address **0x1C** points to address **0x04**



# Addresses and Pointers

**32-bit example**  
(pointers are 32-bits wide)

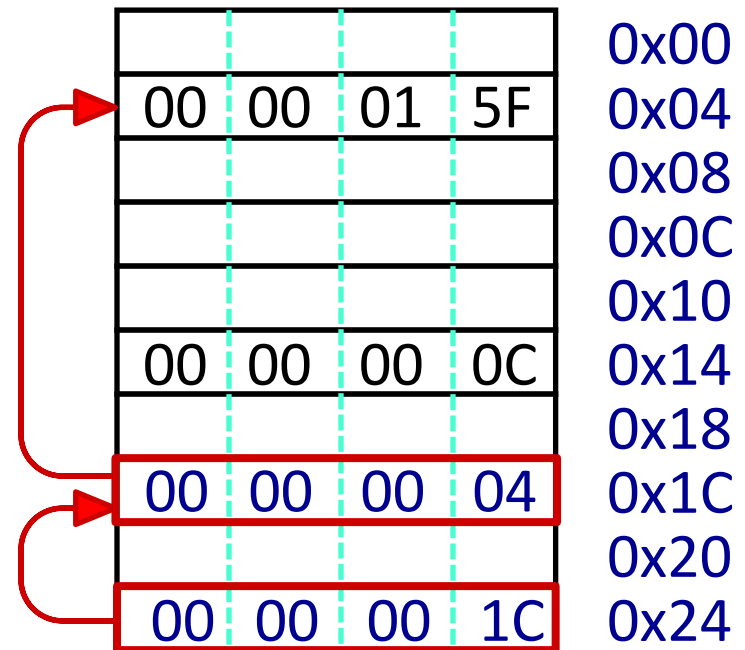
- An *address* is a location in memory
- A *pointer* is a data object that holds an address
- The value 351 is stored at address **0x04**
  - $351_{10} = 15F_{16} = 0x00\ 00\ 01\ 5F$
- A pointer stored at address **0x1C** points to address **0x04**
- A pointer to a pointer is stored at address **0x24**



# Addresses and Pointers

**32-bit example**  
(pointers are 32-bits wide)

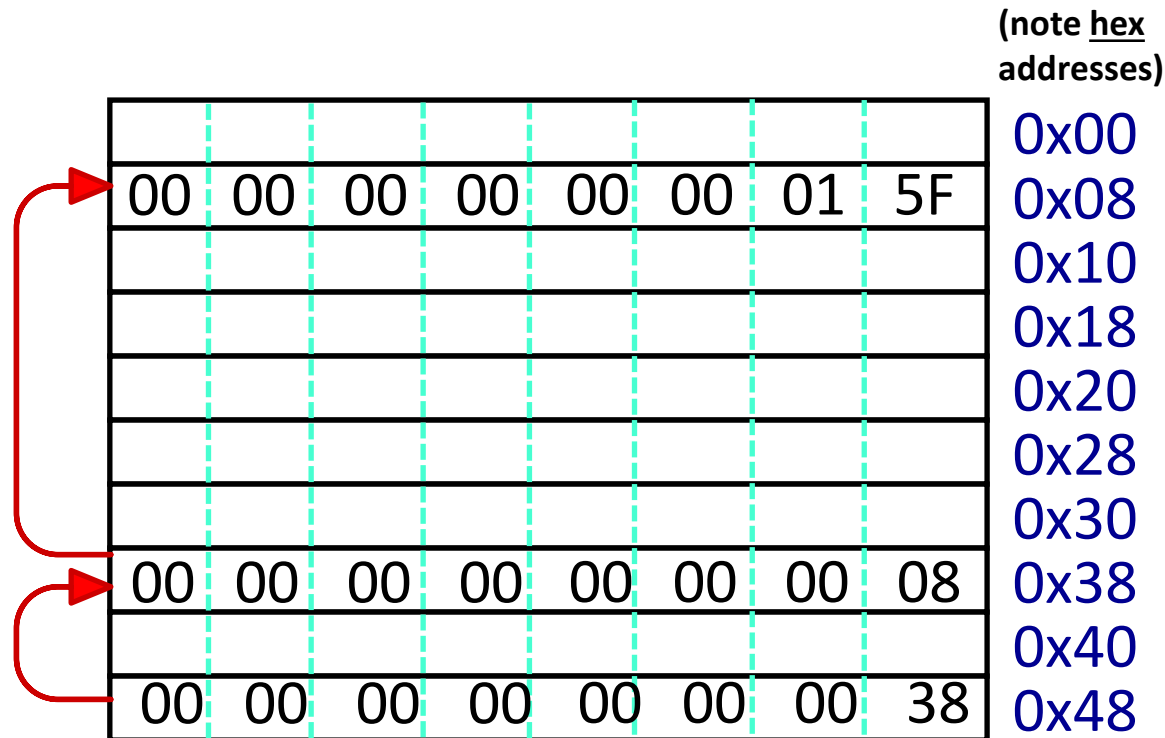
- An *address* is a location in memory
- A *pointer* is a data object that holds an address.
- The value 351 is stored at address **0x04**
  - $351_{10} = 15F_{16} = 0x00\ 00\ 01\ 5F$
- A pointer stored at address **0x1C** points to address **0x04**
- A pointer to a pointer is stored at address **0x24**
- The value 12 is stored at address **0x14**
  - Is it a pointer?



# Addresses and Pointers

**64-bit example**  
(pointers are 64-bits wide)

- A 64-bit (8-byte) word-aligned view of memory
- The value 351 is stored at address **0x08**
  - $351_{10} = 15F_{16} = 0x00\ 00\ 01\ 5F$
- A pointer stored at address **0x38** points to address **0x08**
- A pointer to a pointer is stored at address **0x48**





# Data Representations

## Sizes of data types (in bytes)

Java Data Type	C Data Type	Typical 32-bit	x86-64
boolean	<i>bool</i>	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 long	8	8
	long double	8	16
(reference)	pointer *	4	8

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

**address size = word size**

# More on Memory Alignment in x86-64

- For good memory system performance, Intel recommends data be aligned
  - However the x86-64 hardware will work correctly regardless of alignment of data.
- **Aligned means:** Any primitive object of K bytes must have an address that is a multiple of K.
- This means we could expect these types to have starting addresses that are the following multiples:

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

**More about alignment later in the course**

# Byte Ordering

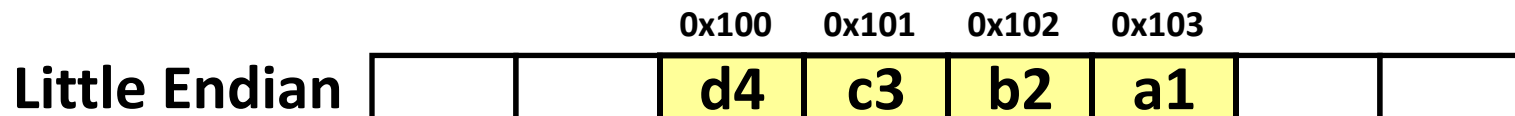
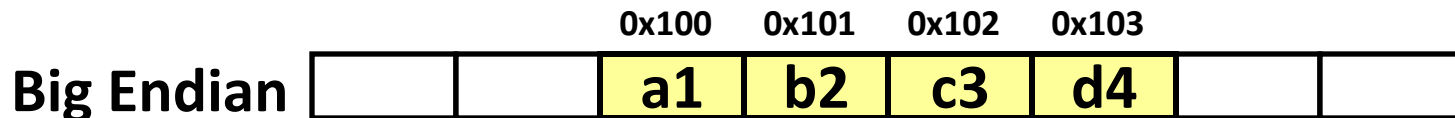
- How should bytes within a word be ordered in memory?

## Example:

- Store the 4-byte (32-bit) word: 0xa1 b2 c3 d4
  - In what order will the bytes be stored?
- Conventions!
  - Big-endian, Little-endian
  - Based on *Gulliver's Travels*: tribes cut eggs on different sides (big, little)

# Byte Ordering

- **Big-Endian** (PowerPC, SPARC, The Internet)
  - Least significant byte has highest address
- **Little-Endian** (x86)
  - Least significant byte has lowest address
- **Example**
  - Variable has 4-byte representation **0xa1b2c3d4**
  - Address of variable is **0x100**



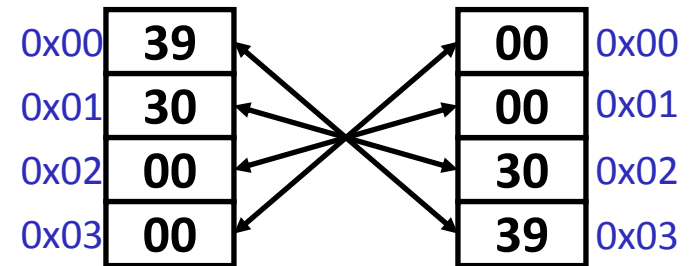
# Byte Ordering Examples

Decimal:	12345
Binary:	0011 0000 0011 1001
Hex:	3 0 3 9

```
int x = 12345;
// or x = 0x3039;
```

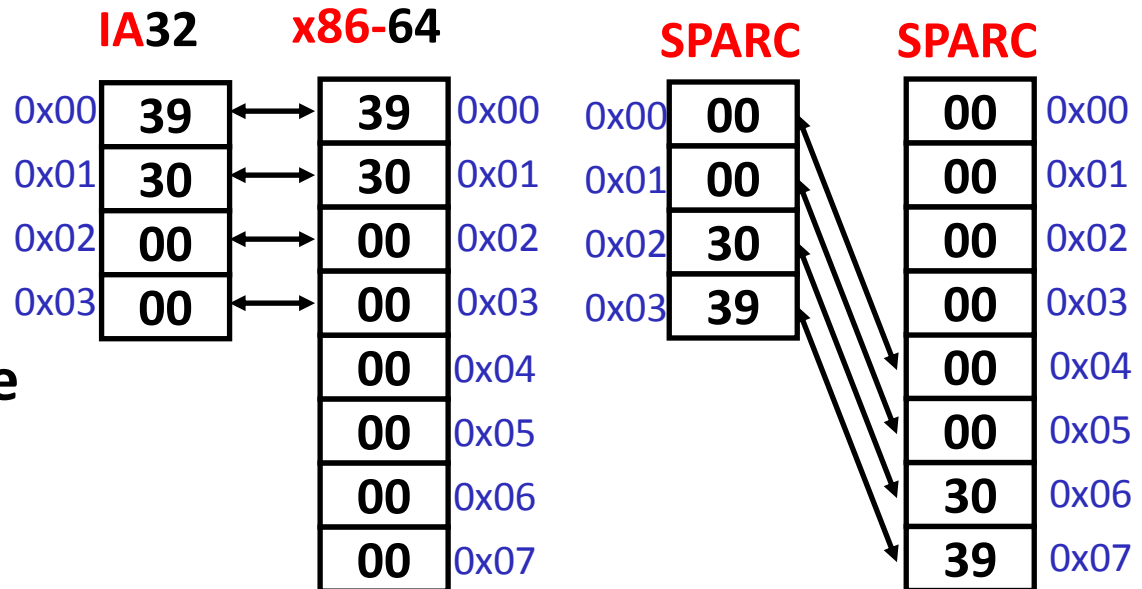
**IA32, x86-64**  
(little endian)

**SPARC**  
(big endian)



```
long int y = 12345;
// or y = 0x3039;
```

(A long int is the size of a word)



# Reading Byte-Reversed Listings

## ■ Disassembly

- Take binary machine code and generate an assembly code version
- Does the reverse of the assembler

## ■ Example instruction in memory

- add value 0x12ab to register 'ebx' (*a special location in CPU's memory*)

Address	Instruction Code	Assembly Rendition
8048366:	81 c3 ab 12 00 00	add \$0x12ab,%ebx

# Reading Byte-Reversed Listings

## ■ Disassembly

- Take binary machine code and generate an assembly code version
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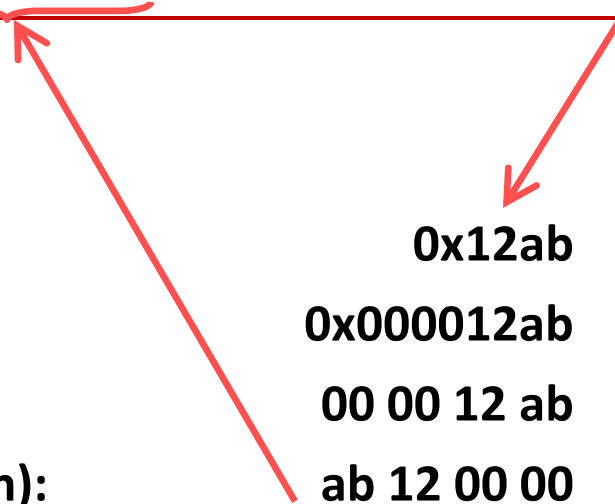
## ■ Example instruction in memory

- add value 0x12ab to register 'ebx' (*a special location in CPU's memory*)

Address	Instruction Code	Assembly Rendition
8048366:	81 c3 ab 12 00 00	add \$0x12ab,%ebx

## Deciphering numbers

- Value: 0x12ab
- Pad to 32 bits: 0x000012ab
- Split into bytes: 00 00 12 ab
- Reverse (little-endian): ab 12 00 00



# Addresses and Pointers in C

$\&$  = 'address of'  
 $*$  = 'value at address'  
 or 'dereference'

```
int* ptr;
```

Declares a variable, **ptr**, that is a pointer to (i.e., holds the address of) an int in memory

```
int x = 5;
```

```
int y = 2;
```

Declares two variables, **x** and **y**, that hold ints, and sets them to 5 and 2, respectively

```
ptr = &x;
```

Sets **ptr** to the address of **x**.  
 Now, "*ptr points to x*"

"Dereference **ptr**"

What is `*(&y)` ?

```
y = 1 + *ptr;
```

Sets **y** to "1 plus the value stored at the address held by **ptr**, because **ptr** points to **x**, this is equivalent to **y=1+x**;



# Assignment in C

**32-bit example**  
(pointers are 32-bits wide)

$\&$  = 'address of'  
 $*$  = 'value at address'  
 or 'dereference'

- A variable is represented by a memory location
- Initially, it may hold any value
- `int x, y;`
  - x is at location 0x04, y is at 0x18

\* is also used with  
variable declarations

0x00	0x01	0x02	0x03		
A7	00	32	00	0x00	
00	01	29	F3	0x04	<b>x</b>
EE	EE	EE	EE	0x08	
FA	CE	CA	FE	0x0C	
26	00	00	00	0x10	
00	00	10	00	0x14	
01	00	00	00	0x18	<b>y</b>
FF	00	F4	96	0x1C	
00	00	00	00	0x20	
00	42	17	34	0x24	

# Assignment in C

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				0x00	
00	01	29	F3	0x04	<b>x</b>
				0x08	
				0x0C	
				0x10	
				0x14	
01	00	00	00	0x18	<b>y</b>
				0x1C	
				0x20	
				0x24	

# Assignment in C

**32-bit example**  
(pointers are 32-bits wide)

$\&$  = 'address of'  
 $*$  = 'value at address'  
 or 'dereference'

- Left-hand-side = right-hand-side;
  - LHS must evaluate to a memory *location*
  - RHS must evaluate to a *value* (could be an address!)
  - Store RHS value at LHS location
- `int x, y;`
- `x = 0;`

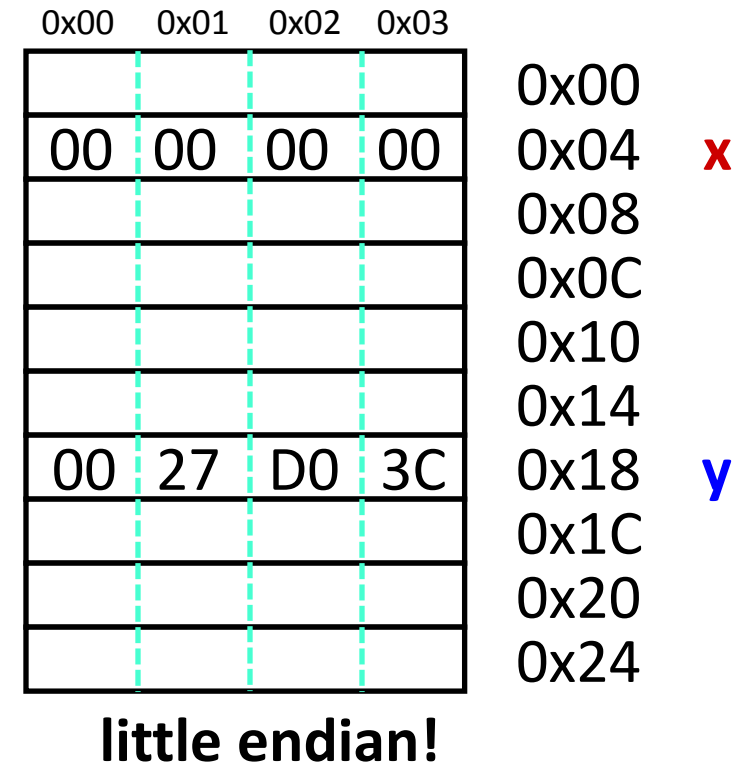
0x00	0x01	0x02	0x03		
				0x00	
00	00	00	00	0x04	<b>x</b>
				0x08	
				0x0C	
				0x10	
				0x14	
01	00	00	00	0x18	<b>y</b>
				0x1C	
				0x20	
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- `int x, y;`
- `x = 0;`
- `y = 0x3CD02700;`



# Assignment in C

**32-bit example**  
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 or 'dereference'

## ■ Left-hand-side = right-hand-side;

- LHS must evaluate to a memory *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, put it in x

0x00	0x01	0x02	0x03		
				0x00	
03	27	D0	3C	0x04	<b>x</b>
				0x08	
				0x0C	
				0x10	
				0x14	
00	27	D0	3C	0x18	<b>y</b>
				0x1C	
				0x20	
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# Assignment in C

**32-bit example**  
(pointers are 32-bits wide)

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■ **int x, y;**

■ **x = 0;**

■ **y = 0x3CD02700;**

■ **x = y + 3;**

- Get value at y, add 3, put it in x

■ **int\* z**

0x00	0x01	0x02	0x03		
				0x00	
03	27	D0	3C	0x04	<b>x</b>
				0x08	
				0x0C	
				0x10	
				0x14	
00	27	D0	3C	0x18	<b>y</b>
				0x1C	
				0x20	<b>z</b>
				0x24	

# Assignment in C

**32-bit example**  
(pointers are 32-bits wide)

$\&$  = 'address of'  
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 or 'dereference'

## ■ Left-hand-side = right-hand-side;

- LHS must evaluate to a memory *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, put it in x

■ **int\* z = &y + 3;**

- Get address of y, add **???**, put it in z

0x00	0x01	0x02	0x03		
				0x00	
03	27	D0	3C	0x04	<b>x</b>
				0x08	
				0x0C	
				0x10	
				0x14	
00	27	D0	3C	0x18	<b>y</b>
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# Assignment in C

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or 'dereference'

## ■ Left-hand-side = right-hand-side;

- LHS must evaluate to a memory *location*
- RHS must evaluate to a *value* (could be an address!)
- Store RHS value at LHS location

■ `int x, y;`

■ `x = 0;`

■ `y = 0x3CD027;`

■ `x = y + 3;`

- Get value at y, add 3, put it in x

■ `int* z = &y + 3;`

- Get address of y, add **12**, put it in z

$$\begin{array}{r} 0x18 = 24 \text{ (decimal)} \\ + 12 \\ \hline 36 = 0x24 \end{array}$$

**Pointer arithmetic  
can be dangerous**

Pointer arithmetic is scaled by size of target type

0x00	0x01	0x02	0x03		
				0x00	
03	27	D0	3C	0x04	<b>x</b>
				0x08	
				0x0C	
				0x10	
				0x14	
00	27	D0	3C	0x18	<b>y</b>
				0x1C	
24	00	00	00	0x20	<b>z</b>
				0x24	



# Assignment in C

**32-bit example**  
(pointers are 32-bits wide)

$\&$  = 'address of'  
 $*$  = 'value at address'  
 or 'dereference'

## ■ Left-hand-side = right-hand-side;

- LHS must evaluate to a memory *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, put it in x

■ **int\* z = &y + 3;**

- Get address of y, add **12**, put it in z

■ **\*z = y;**

- What does this do?

0x00	0x01	0x02	0x03		
				0x00	
03	27	D0	3C	0x04	<b>x</b>
				0x08	
				0x0C	
				0x10	
				0x14	
00	27	D0	3C	0x18	<b>y</b>
				0x1C	
24	00	00	00	0x20	<b>z</b>
				0x24	

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- Store RHS value at LHS location

■ `int x, y;`

■ `x = 0;`

■ `y = 0x3CD;`

■ `x = y + 3;`

- Get value of y, add 3, put it in x

■ `int* z = y + 3;`

- Get address of y, add **12**, put it in z

■ `*z = y;`

- Get value of y, put it at the address stored in z

The target of a pointer is  
also a memory location

0x00	0x01	0x02	0x03		
03	27	D0	3C	0x00	
				0x04	<b>x</b>
				0x08	
				0x0C	
				0x10	
				0x14	
00	27	D0	3C	0x18	<b>y</b>
				0x1C	
24	00	00	00	0x20	<b>z</b>
00	27	D0	3C	0x24	

# Arrays in C

Declaration: `int a[6];`

element type

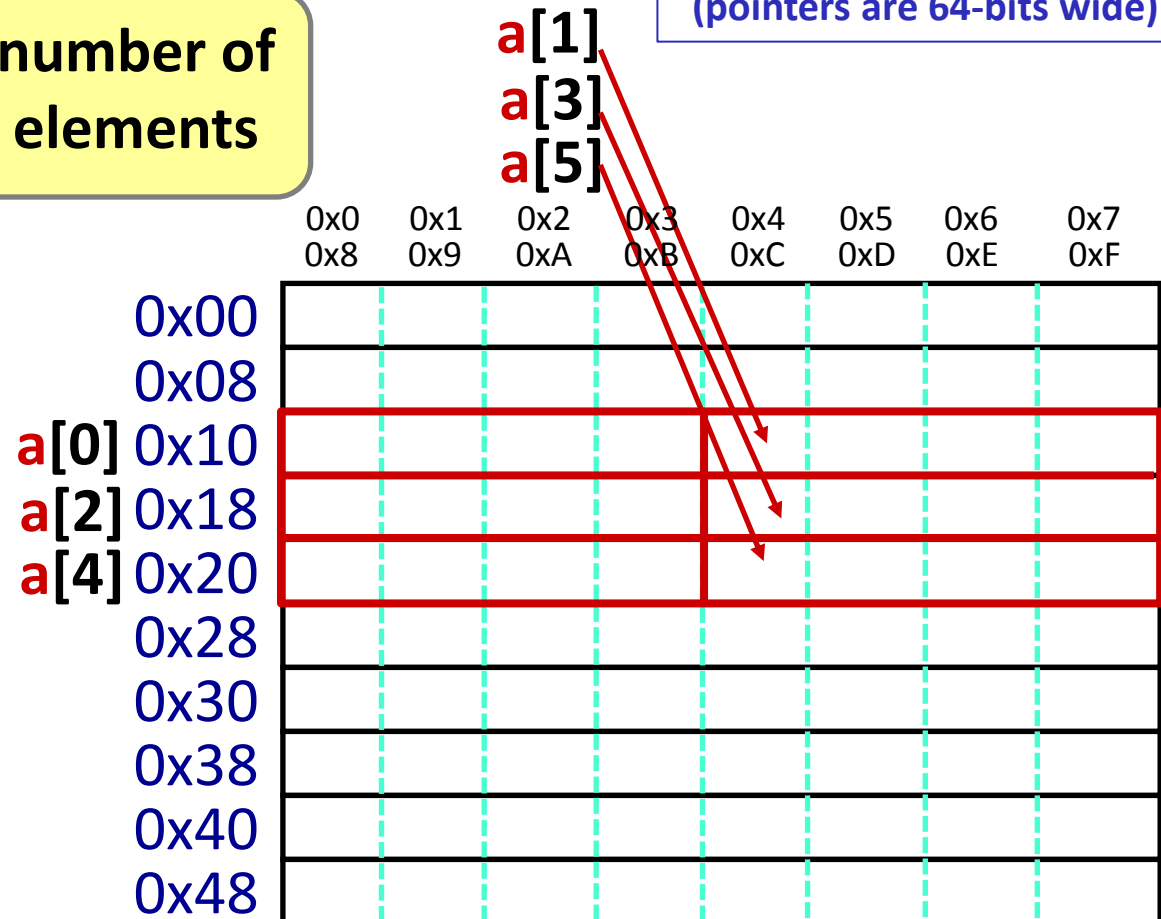
name

number of  
elements

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

**a** is a name for the array's address

**64-bit example**  
(pointers are 64-bits wide)



# Arrays in C

Declaration: `int a[6];`

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

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

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

	0x0 0x8	0x1 0x9	0x2 0xA	0x3 0xB	0x4 0xC	0x5 0xD	0x6 0xE	0x7 0xF
0x00								
0x08								
<b>a</b> [0] 0x10	5F	01	00	00				
<b>a</b> [2] 0x18								
<b>a</b> [4] 0x20					5F	01	00	00
0x28								
0x30								
0x38								
0x40								
0x48								

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`a[5] = a[0];`

**No bounds**        `a[6] = 0xBAD;`

**check:**            `a[-1] = 0xBAD;`

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	0x0 0x8	0x1 0x9	0x2 0xA	0x3 0xB	0x4 0xC	0x5 0xD	0x6 0xE	0x7 0xF
0x00								
0x08					AD	0B	00	00
<b>a</b> [0] 0x10	5F	01	00	00				
<b>a</b> [2] 0x18								
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0x28	AD	0B	00	00				
0x30								
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0x40								
0x48								

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0x28	AD	0B	00	00				
0x30								
0x38								
<b>p</b> 0x40	10	00	00	00	00	00	00	00
0x48								

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`p`

0x00  
 0x08  
 0x10  
 0x18  
 0x20  
 0x28  
 0x30  
 0x38  
 0x40  
 0x48

	0x0 0x8	0x1 0x9	0x2 0xA	0x3 0xB	0x4 0xC	0x5 0xD	0x6 0xE	0x7 0xF
					AD	0B	00	00
	0A	00	00	00				
					5F	01	00	00
	AD	0B	00	00				
	10	00	00	00	00	00	00	00

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`p`

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	0x8	0x9	0xA	0xB	0xC	0xD	0xE	0xF
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0x28	AD	0B	00	00				
0x30								
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0x40	18	00	00	00	00	00	00	00
0x48								



# Representing strings

## ■ A C-style string is represented by an array of bytes (*char*)

- Elements are one-byte **ASCII codes** for each character
- ASCII = American Standard Code for Information Interchange

32	space	48	0	64	@	80	P	96	`	112	p
33	!	49	1	65	A	81	Q	97	a	113	q
34	"	50	2	66	B	82	R	98	b	114	r
35	#	51	3	67	C	83	S	99	c	115	s
36	\$	52	4	68	D	84	T	100	d	116	t
37	%	53	5	69	E	85	U	101	e	117	u
38	&	54	6	70	F	86	V	102	f	118	v
39	'	55	7	71	G	87	W	103	g	119	w
40	(	56	8	72	H	88	X	104	h	120	x
41	)	57	9	73	I	89	Y	105	i	121	y
42	*	58	:	74	J	90	Z	106	j	122	z
43	+	59	;	75	K	91	[	107	k	123	{
44	,	60	<	76	L	92	\	108	l	124	
45	-	61	=	77	M	93	]	109	m	125	}
46	.	62	>	78	N	94	^	110	n	126	~
47	/	63	?	79	O	95	_	111	o	127	del

# Null-terminated Strings

- For example, “Harry Potter” can be stored as a 13-byte array

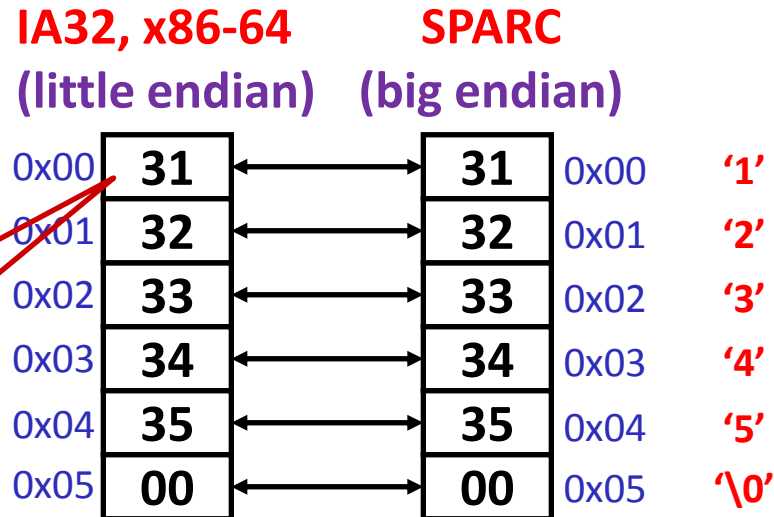
72	97	114	114	121	32	80	111	116	116	101	114	0
H	a	r	r	y		P	o	t	t	e	r	\0

- Why do we put a 0, or **null zero**, at the end of the string?
  - Note the special symbol: `string[12] = '\0';`
- How do we compute the string length?

# Endianness and Strings

C (char = 1 byte)

```
char s[6] = "12345";
```



Note: 0x31 = 49 decimal = ASCII '1'

- **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
- **Unicode characters – up to 4 bytes/character**
  - ASCII codes still work (just add leading zeros)
  - Unicode can support the many characters in all languages in the world
  - Java and C have libraries for Unicode (Java commonly uses 2 bytes/char)

# 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");  
}
```

```
void show_int (int x) {  
    show_bytes( (char *) &x, sizeof(int));  
}
```

### printf directives:

%p	Print pointer
\t	Tab
%x	Print value as hex
\n	New line

# show\_bytes Execution Example

```
int a = 12345; // represented as 0x00003039
printf("int a = 12345;\n");
show_int(a); // show_bytes((char *) &a, sizeof(int));
```

**Result (Linux x86-64):**

```
int a = 12345;
0x7fffb7f71dbc 0x39
0x7fffb7f71dbd 0x30
0x7fffb7f71dbe 0x00
0x7fffb7f71dbf 0x00
```

# Boolean Algebra

- **Developed by George Boole in 19th Century**
  - Algebraic representation of logic
    - Encode “True” as 1 and “False” as 0
  - AND:  $A \& B = 1$  when both A is 1 and B is 1
  - OR:  $A | B = 1$  when either A is 1 or B is 1
  - XOR:  $A \wedge B = 1$  when either A is 1 or B is 1, but not both
  - NOT:  $\sim A = 1$  when A is 0 and vice-versa
  - DeMorgan’s Law:  $\sim(A | B) = \sim A \& \sim B$   
 $\sim(A \& B) = \sim A | \sim B$

$\&$	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

$\sim$	
0	1
1	0

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$\&$	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

$ $	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	1

$\wedge$	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

$\sim$	
0	1
1	0

# General Boolean Algebras

## ■ Operate on bit vectors

- Operations applied bitwise

01101001	01101001	01101001	
<b>&amp; 01010101</b>	<b>  01010101</b>	<b>^ 01010101</b>	<b>~ 01010101</b>
<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
01000001	01111101	00111100	10101010

## ■ All of the properties of Boolean algebra apply

$$\begin{array}{r}
 01010101 \\
 \wedge 01010101 \\
 \hline
 00000000
 \end{array}$$

## ■ How does this relate to set operations?



# Representing & Manipulating Sets

## ■ Representation

- A  $w$ -bit vector represents subsets of  $\{0, \dots, w-1\}$
- $a_j = 1$  iff  $j \in A$

01101001	{ 0, 3, 5, 6 }
76543210	

01010101	{ 0, 2, 4, 6 }
76543210	

## ■ Operations

- |     |                      |          |                      |
|-----|----------------------|----------|----------------------|
| ■ & | 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

## ■ `&` `|` `^` `~`

- Apply to any “integral” data type
  - `long`, `int`, `short`, `char`, `unsigned`
- View arguments as bit vectors

## ■ Examples (char data type)

- `~0x41 --> 0xBE`  
 $\sim 01000001_2 \rightarrow 10111110_2$
- `~0x00 --> 0xFF`  
 $\sim 00000000_2 \rightarrow 11111111_2$
- `0x69 & 0x55 --> 0x41`  
 $01101001_2 \& 01010101_2 \rightarrow 01000001_2$
- `0x69 | 0x55 --> 0x7D`  
 $01101001_2 | 01010101_2 \rightarrow 01111101_2$

## ■ Some bit-twiddling puzzles in Lab 1

# Contrast: Logic Operations in C

## ■ Contrast to logical operators

- `&&` `||` `!`
  - 0 is “False”
  - Anything nonzero is “True”
  - Always return 0 or 1
  - Early termination a.k.a. short-circuit evaluation

## ■ Examples (char data type)

- `!0x41 --> 0x00`
- `!0x00 --> 0x01`
- `!!0x41 --> 0x01`
  
- `0x69 && 0x55 --> 0x01`
- `0x69 || 0x55 --> 0x01`
- `p && *p++` ( avoids null pointer access, null pointer = 0x0000 0000 0000 0000 )