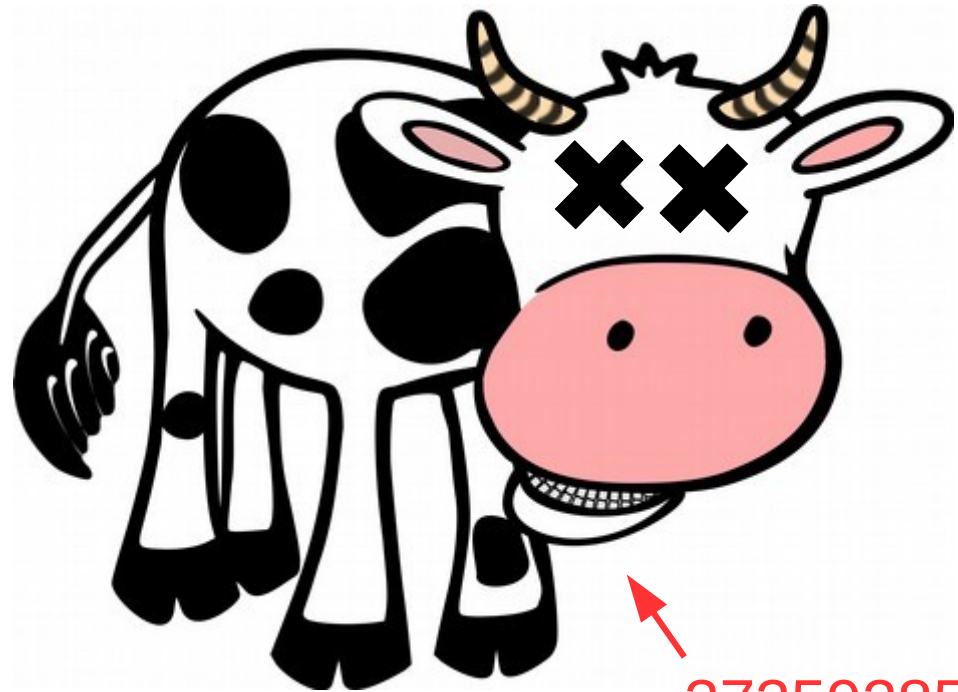


CS 261 Spring 2024

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(convert to hex!)

Binary Information

Binary information

- Topics
 - Base conversions (bin/dec/hex)
 - Data sizes
 - Byte ordering
 - Character and program encodings
 - Bitwise operations

Core theme

What does this mean?

100

Core theme

Information = Bits + Context

Why binary?

- Computers store information in binary encodings
 - **1 bit** is the simplest form of information (on / off)
 - Minimizes storage and transmission errors
- To store more complicated information, use more bits
 - However, we need **context** to understand them
 - Data **encodings** provide context
 - For the next two weeks, we will study encodings
 - First, let's become comfortable working with binary

Remainder system

- Quick method for decimal \rightarrow binary conversions
 - Repeatedly divide decimal number by two until zero, keeping track of remainders (either 0 or 1)
 - Read in reverse to get binary equivalent

$$\begin{array}{r} 11 \\ 5 \text{ r } 1 \\ 2 \text{ r } 1 \\ 1 \text{ r } 0 \\ 0 \text{ r } 1 \end{array} \quad \Rightarrow \quad 1011 \quad (8 + 2 + 1)$$

Question

- What is the decimal number 25 when represented in binary?

$$\begin{array}{r} 25 \\ 12 \text{ r } 1 \\ 6 \text{ r } 0 \\ 3 \text{ r } 0 \\ 1 \text{ r } 1 \\ 0 \text{ r } 1 \end{array} \quad \Rightarrow \quad 11001 \quad (16 + 8 + 1)$$

Base conversions

- **Hexadecimal** encoding is base-16 (usually prefixed with “0x”)
 - Converting between hex and binary is easy
 - Each digit represents 4 bits; just substitute digit-by-digit or in groups of four!
 - You should memorize (at least some of) these equivalences

Dec	Bin	Hex
0	0000	0
1	0001	1
2	0010	2
3	0011	3
4	0100	4
5	0101	5
6	0110	6
7	0111	7

Dec	Bin	Hex
8	1000	8
9	1001	9
10	1010	A
11	1011	B
12	1100	C
13	1101	D
14	1110	E
15	1111	F

Base conversions

- Examples:

– 0x4CA \Leftrightarrow 0100 1100 1010

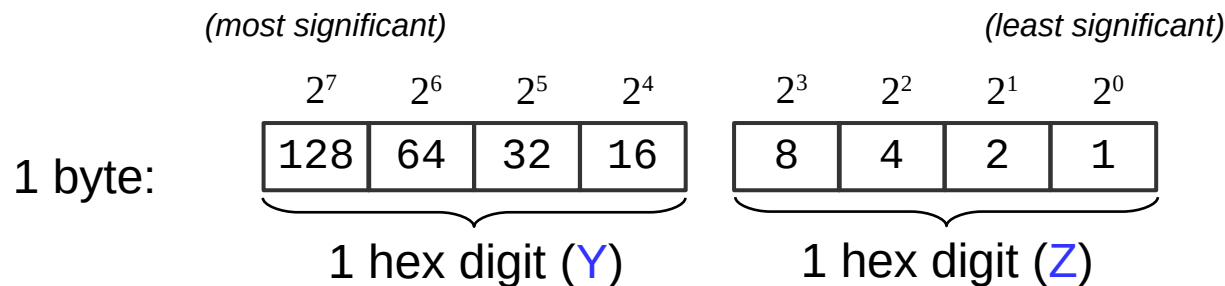
– 0x5F0 \Leftrightarrow 0101 1111 0000

Dec	Bin	Hex
0	0000	0
1	0001	1
2	0010	2
3	0011	3
4	0100	4
5	0101	5
6	0110	6
7	0111	7

Dec	Bin	Hex
8	1000	8
9	1001	9
10	1010	A
11	1011	B
12	1100	C
13	1101	D
14	1110	E
15	1111	F

Fundamental data sizes

- 1 **byte** = 2 hex digits (= 2 *nibbles*!) = **8 bits**



Value of
byte 0xYZ
is $16 \cdot Y + Z$

- Machine **word** = size of an address
 - (i.e., the size of a pointer in C)
 - Early computers used 16-bit addresses
 - Could address 2^{16} bytes = 64 KB
 - Now 32-bit (4 bytes) or 64-bit (8 bytes)
 - Can address 4GB or 16 EB

Prefix	Bin	Dec
Kilo	2^{10}	$\sim 10^3$
Mega	2^{20}	$\sim 10^6$
Giga	2^{30}	$\sim 10^9$
Tera	2^{40}	$\sim 10^{12}$
Peta	2^{50}	$\sim 10^{15}$
Exa	2^{60}	$\sim 10^{18}$

Byte ordering

- **Big endian**: store **higher** place values at lower addresses
 - Most-significant byte (MSB) to least-significant byte (LSB)
 - Similar to standard way to write hex (implied with “0x” prefix)
- **Little endian**: store **lower** place values at lower addresses
 - Least-significant byte (LSB) to most-significant byte (MSB)
 - Default byte ordering on most Intel-based machines

	<u>low</u> <u>addr</u>			<u>high</u> <u>addr</u>
0x11223344 in big endian:	11	22	33	44
0x11223344 in little endian:	44	33	22	11

Byte ordering examples

- **Big endian**: most significant byte first (MSB to LSB)
- **Little endian**: least significant byte first (LSB to MSB)

	<u>low</u>			<u>high</u>
0x11223344 in big endian:	11	22	33	44
0x11223344 in little endian:	44	33	22	11

Decimal: 1

16-bit big endian:	00000000	00000001	(hex: 00 01)
16-bit little endian:	00000001	00000000	(hex: 01 00)

Decimal: 19 (16+2+1)

16-bit big endian:	00000000	00010011	(hex: 00 13)
16-bit little endian:	00010011	00000000	(hex: 13 00)

Decimal: 256

16-bit big endian:	00000001	00000000	(hex: 01 00)
16-bit little endian:	00000000	00000001	(hex: 00 01)

Question

- What is the byte in the highest address when hexadecimal number 0x8345 is stored in little-endian ordering?
 - A) 0x83
 - B) 0x45
 - C) 0x34
 - D) 0x85
 - E) There is not enough information to tell.

Character encodings

- **ASCII** ("American Standard Code for Information Interchange")
 - 1-byte code developed in 1960s
 - Limited support for non-English characters
- **Unicode**
 - Multi-byte code developed in 1990s
 - "All the characters for all the writing systems of the world"
 - Over 136,000 characters in latest standard
 - **Fixed-width** (**UTF-16** and **UTF-32**) and **variable-width** (**UTF-8**)

UTF-8

Number of bytes	Bits for code point	First code point	Last code point	Byte 1	Byte 2	Byte 3	Byte 4
1	7	U+0000	U+007F	0xxxxxxx			
2	11	U+0080	U+07FF	110xxxxx	10xxxxxx		
3	16	U+0800	U+FFFF	1110xxxx	10xxxxxx	10xxxxxx	
4	21	U+10000	U+10FFFF	11110xxx	10xxxxxx	10xxxxxx	10xxxxxx

Program encodings

- **Machine code**

- Binary encoding of **opcodes** and operands
- Specific to a particular CPU architecture (e.g., x86_64)

```
int add (int num1, int num2)
{
    return num1 + num2;
}
```



```
0000000000400606 <add>:
400606:    55                push   %rbp
400607:    48 89 e5         mov    %rsp,%rbp
40060a:    89 7d fc         mov    %edi,-0x4(%rbp)
40060d:    89 75 f8         mov    %esi,-0x8(%rbp)
400610:    8b 55 fc         mov    -0x4(%rbp),%edx
400613:    8b 45 f8         mov    -0x8(%rbp),%eax
400616:    01 d0           add    %edx,%eax
400618:    5d                pop    %rbp
400619:    c3                retq
```


Bitwise operations

- Basic **bitwise** operations

& (and) **|** (or) **^** (xor)

- Not boolean algebra!

&& (and) **||** (or) **!** (not)

0 (false) **non-zero** (true)

- Important properties:

$$x \& 0 = 0$$

$$x \& 1 = x$$

$$x | 0 = x$$

$$x | 1 = 1$$

$$x \wedge 0 = x$$

$$x \wedge 1 = \sim x$$

$$x \wedge x = 0$$

&	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

AND

	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	1

OR

^	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

XOR

- Commutative:

$$x \& y = y \& x$$

$$x | y = y | x$$

$$x \wedge y = y \wedge x$$

- Associative:

$$(x \& y) \& z = x \& (y \& z)$$

$$(x | y) | z = x | (y | z)$$

$$(x \wedge y) \wedge z = x \wedge (y \wedge z)$$

- Distributive:

$$x \& (y | z) = (x \& y) | (x \& z)$$

$$x | (y \& z) = (x | y) \& (x | z)$$

Bitwise operations

- Bitwise complement (\sim) - “flip the bits”
 - $\sim 0000 = 1111$ ($\sim 0 = 1$) $\sim 1010 = 0101$ ($\sim 0xA = 0x5$)
- Left shift (\ll) and right shift (\gg)
 - Equivalent to multiplying (\ll) or dividing (\gg) by two
 - Left shift: $0110 \ll 1 = 1100$ $1 \ll 3 = 8$
 - **Logical** right shift (fill zeroes): $1100 \gg 2 = 0011$
 - **Arithmetic** right shift (fill most sig. bit): $1100 \gg 2 = 1111$
 $0100 \gg 2 = 0001$

On stu:

```
int: 0f000000 >> 8 = 000f0000 (arithmetic, for signed integers)
int: ff000000 >> 8 = ffff0000
uint: 0f000000 >> 8 = 000f0000 (logical, for unsigned integers)
uint: ff000000 >> 8 = 00ff0000
```

Masking

- Bitwise operations can extract parts of a binary value
 - This is referred to as **masking**; specify a bit pattern **mask** to indicate which bits you want
 - Helpful fact: 0xF is all 1's in binary!
 - Use a bitwise AND (&) with the mask to extract the bits
 - Use a bitwise complement (~) to invert a mask
 - Example: To extract the lower-order 16 bits of a larger value v , use “ $v \ \& \ 0xFFFF$ ”

```
0xDEADBEEF &      0xFFFF = 0x0000BEEF = 0xBEEF
0xDEADBEEF & 0x0000FFFF = 0x0000BEEF = 0xBEEF
0xDEADBEEF & 0xFFFF0000 = 0xDEAD0000
0xDEADBEEF &      ~0xFFFF = 0xDEAD0000
0xDEADBEEF & ~0x0000FFFF = 0xDEAD0000
```