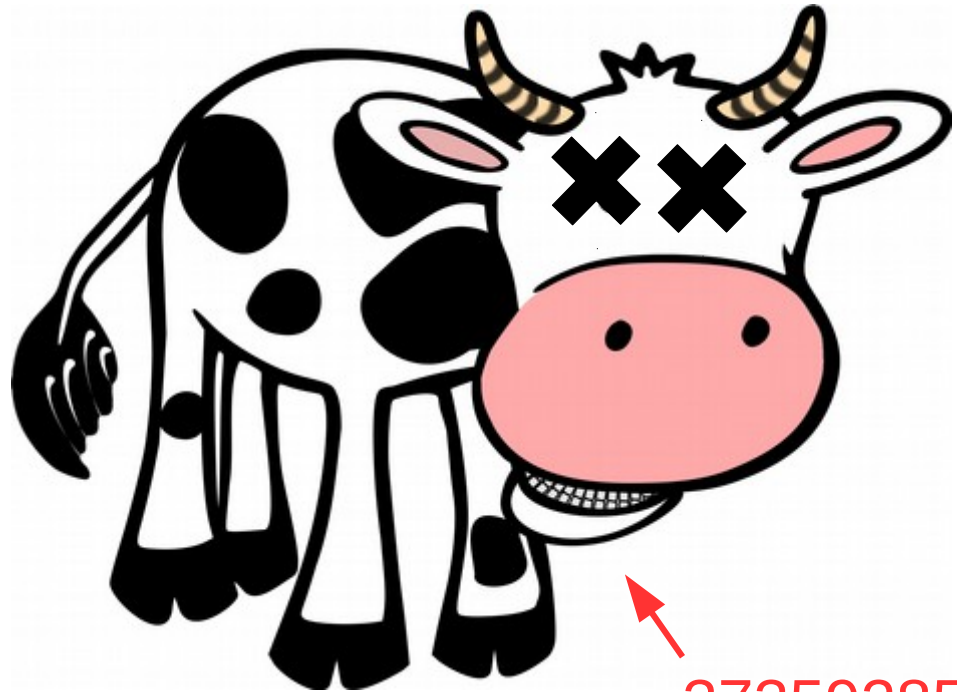


CS 261 Fall 2017

Mike Lam, Professor



3735928559

(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

Base conversions

- **Binary encoding** is base-2: bit i represents the value 2^i
 - Bits typically written from most to least significant (i.e., 2^3 2^2 2^1 2^0)

1	=				1	=	0·2 ³ + 0·2 ² + 0·2 ¹ + 1·2 ⁰	=	[000 1]						1-1=0			
5	=		4	+	1	=	0·2 ³ + 1·2 ² + 0·2 ¹ + 1·2 ⁰	=	[0 1 0 1]				5-4=1		1-1=0			
11	=	8	+		2	+	1	=	1·2 ³ + 0·2 ² + 1·2 ¹ + 1·2 ⁰	=	[1 0 1 1]			11-8=3	3-2=1	1-1=0		
15	=	8	+	4	+	2	+	1	=	1·2 ³ + 1·2 ² + 1·2 ¹ + 1·2 ⁰	=	[1 1 1 1]			15-8=7	7-4=3	3-2=1	1-1=0

Binary to decimal:

Add up all the powers of two (memorize powers of two to make this go faster!)

Decimal to binary:

Find highest power of two and subtract to find the remainder

Repeat above until the remainder is zero

Every power of two become 1; all other bits are 0

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

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

Base conversions

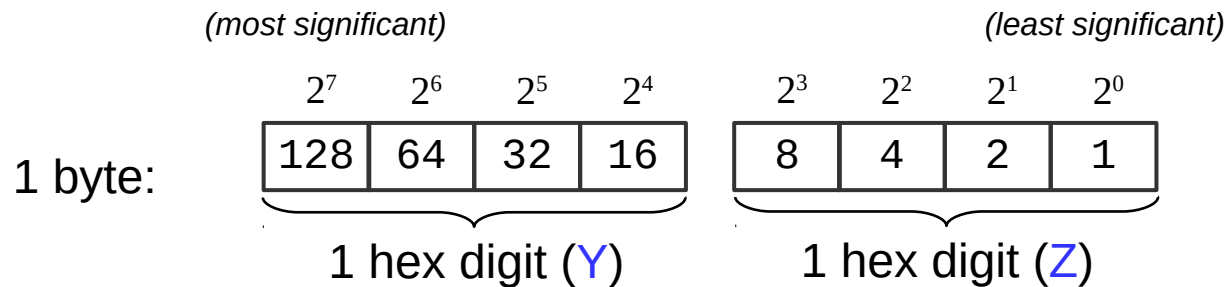
- **Hexadecimal** encoding is base-16 (often prefixed with “0x”)
 - Converting between hex and binary is easy
 - Each digit represents 4 bits; just substitute digit-by-digit or in groups of four!
 - You should memorize these equivalences

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

Fundamental data sizes

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



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

- 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

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

```
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)
```

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:

- $x \& 0 = 0$
- $x \& 1 = x$
- $x | 0 = x$
- $x | 1 = 1$
- $x \wedge 0 = x$
- $x \wedge x = 0$

&	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:

$$\begin{aligned}x \& y &= y \& x \\x | y &= y | x \\x \wedge y &= y \wedge x\end{aligned}$$

- Associative:

$$\begin{aligned}(x \& y) \& z &= x \& (y \& z) \\(x | y) | z &= x | (y | z) \\(x \wedge y) \wedge z &= x \wedge (y \wedge z)\end{aligned}$$

- Distributive:

$$\begin{aligned}x \& (y | z) &= (x \& y) | (x \& z) \\x | (y \& z) &= (x | y) \& (x | z)\end{aligned}$$

Bitwise operations

- Bitwise complement (\sim) - “flip the bits”
 - $\sim 0000 = 1111$ ($\sim 0 = 1$) $\sim 1010 = 0101$ ($\sim 0xA = 0x5$)
 - Also called **ones' complement** (useful in next class)
- 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): $1100 \gg 2 = 1111$
(but only if unsigned) $0100 \gg 2 = 0001$

On stu:

```
int: 0f000000 >> 8 = 000f0000 (arithmetic)
int: ff000000 >> 8 = ffff0000
uint: 0f000000 >> 8 = 000f0000 (logical)
uint: ff000000 >> 8 = 00ff0000
```

Masking

- Bitwise operations can extract parts of a binary value
 - This is referred to as **masking** because you need to 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
```