inst.eecs.berkeley.edu/~cs61c

CS61C : Machine Structures

Lecture #2 – Number Rep & Intro to C

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Review

- 5 classic components of all computers

  Control Datapath Memory Input Output

  Processor

- Decimal for human calculations, binary for computers, hex to write binary more easily
- 8 bits = 2 hex digits = 1 byte

Which base do we use?

- Decimal: great for humans, especially when doing arithmetic
- Hex: if human looking at long strings of binary numbers, its much easier to convert to hex and look 4 bits/symbol
  - Terrible for arithmetic on paper
- Binary: what computers use; you will learn how computers do +, -, *, /
  - To a computer, numbers always binary
  - Regardless of how number is written:
  - $32_{ten} == 32_{10} == 0x20 == 100000_2 == 0b100000$
  - Use subscripts "ten", "hex", "two" in book, slides when might be confusing

kibi, mebi, gibi, tebi, pebi, exbi, zebi, yobi

en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binary_prefix

- New IEC Standard Prefixes

Name	Abbr	Factor
kibi	Ki	2^{10} = 1,024
mebi	Mi	2^{20} = 1,048,576
gibi	Gi	2^{30} = 1,073,741,824
tebi	Ti	2^{40} = 1,099,511,627,776
pebi	Pi	2^{50} = 1,125,899,906,842,624
exbi	Ei	2^{60} = 1,152,921,504,606,846,976
zebi	Zi	2^{70} = 1,180,591,620,717,411,303,424
yobi	Yi	2^{80} = 1,208,925,819,614,629,174,706,176

- Make a mnemonic!

The way to remember #s

Answer! 2^{XY} means…

X=0 ⇒ ---	Y=0 ⇒ 1
X=1 ⇒ kibi ~10^3	Y=1 ⇒ 2
X=2 ⇒ mebi ~10^6	Y=2 ⇒ 4
X=3 ⇒ gibi ~10^9	Y=3 ⇒ 8
X=4 ⇒ tebi ~10^{12}	Y=4 ⇒ 16
X=5 ⇒ pebi ~10^{15}	Y=5 ⇒ 32
X=6 ⇒ exbi ~10^{18}	Y=6 ⇒ 64
X=7 ⇒ zebi ~10^{21}	Y=7 ⇒ 128
X=8 ⇒ yobi ~10^{24}	Y=8 ⇒ 256
	Y=9 ⇒ 512

2^{53} bytes = ___?___bytes

2^{87} bytes = ___?___bytes

What to do with representations of numbers?

- Just what we do with numbers!
  - Add them
  - Subtract them
  - Multiply them
  - Divide them
  - Compare them

```
    1  1
    1  0  1  0
+   0  1  1  1
-------------------
1   0  0  0  1
```

- Example: 10 + 7 = 17
  - …so simple to add in binary that we can build circuits to do it!
  - subtraction just as you would in decimal
  - Comparison: How do you tell if X > Y ?

BIG IDEA: Bits can represent anything!!

- Characters?
  - 26 letters ⇒ 5 bits (2^5 = 32)
  - upper/lower case + punctuation ⇒ 7 bits (in 8) ("ASCII")
  - standard code to cover all the world's languages ⇒ 8,16,32 bits ("Unicode") www.unicode.com
- Logical values?
  - 0 ⇒ False, 1 ⇒ True
- colors ? Ex: Red (00) Green (01) Blue (11)
- locations / addresses? commands?
- MEMORIZE: N bits ⇔ at most 2^N things

How to Represent Negative Numbers?

- So far, unsigned numbers
- Obvious solution: define leftmost bit to be sign!
  - 0 ⇒ +, 1 ⇒ –
  - Rest of bits can be numerical value of number
- Representation called sign and magnitude
- MIPS uses 32-bit integers. $+1_{ten}$ would be:

  0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0001
- And -1_{ten} in sign and magnitude would be:

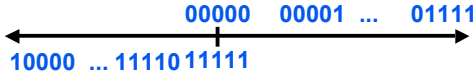
  1000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0001

Shortcomings of sign and magnitude?

- Arithmetic circuit complicated
  - Special steps depending whether signs are the same or not
- Also, two zeros
  - 0x00000000 = $+0_{ten}$
  - 0x80000000 = -0_{ten}
  - What would two 0s mean for programming?
- Therefore sign and magnitude abandoned

Another try: complement the bits

- Example: $7_{10} = 00111_2$ $-7_{10} = 11000_2$
- Called One's Complement
- Note: positive numbers have leading 0s, negative numbers have leadings 1s.



- What is -00000 ? Answer: 11111
- How many positive numbers in N bits?
- How many negative numbers?

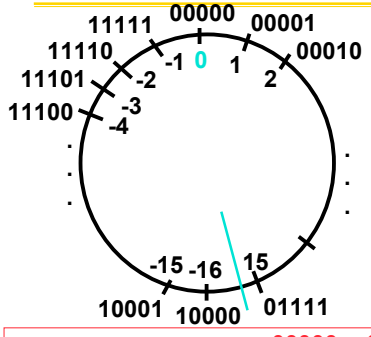
Shortcomings of One's complement?

- Arithmetic still a somewhat complicated.
- Still two zeros
  - 0x00000000 = $+0_{ten}$
  - 0xFFFFFFFF = -0_{ten}
- Although used for awhile on some computer products, one's complement was eventually abandoned because another solution was better.

Standard Negative Number Representation

- What is result for unsigned numbers if tried to subtract large number from a small one?
  - Would try to borrow from string of leading 0s, so result would have a string of leading 1s
    - 3 - 4 ⇒ 00…0011 – 00…0100 = 11…1111
  - With no obvious better alternative, pick representation that made the hardware simple
  - As with sign and magnitude, leading 0s ⇒ positive, leading 1s ⇒ negative
    - 000000...xxx is ≥ 0, 111111...xxx is < 0
    - except 1…1111 is -1, not -0 (as in sign & mag.)
- This representation is Two's Complement

2's Complement Number "line": N = 5



- 2^{N-1} non-negatives
- 2^{N-1} negatives
- one zero
- how many positives?

00000 00001 ... 01111

10000 ... 11110 11111

Two's Complement for N=32

0000 ... 0000 0000 0000 0000$_{two}$ =	0$_{ten}$
0000 ... 0000 0000 0000 0001$_{two}$ =	1$_{ten}$
0000 ... 0000 0000 0000 0010$_{two}$ =	2$_{ten}$
. . .	
0111 ... 1111 1111 1111 1101$_{two}$ =	2,147,483,645$_{ten}$
0111 ... 1111 1111 1111 1110$_{two}$ =	2,147,483,646$_{ten}$
0111 ... 1111 1111 1111 1111$_{two}$ =	2,147,483,647$_{ten}$
1000 ... 0000 0000 0000 0000$_{two}$ =	−2,147,483,648$_{ten}$
1000 ... 0000 0000 0000 0001$_{two}$ =	−2,147,483,647$_{ten}$
1000 ... 0000 0000 0000 0010$_{two}$ =	−2,147,483,646$_{ten}$
. . .	
1111 ... 1111 1111 1111 1101$_{two}$ =	−3$_{ten}$
1111 ... 1111 1111 1111 1110$_{two}$ =	−2$_{ten}$
1111 ... 1111 1111 1111 1111$_{two}$ =	−1$_{ten}$

- One zero; 1st bit called sign bit
- 1 "extra" negative:no positive 2,147,483,648$_{ten}$

Two's Complement Formula

- Can represent positive and negative numbers in terms of the bit value times a power of 2:

  $d_{31} \times -(2^{31}) + d_{30} \times 2^{30} + \ldots + d_2 \times 2^2 + d_1 \times 2^1 + d_0 \times 2^0$

- Example: 1101_{two}

  $= 1\times-(2^3) + 1\times2^2 + 0\times2^1 + 1\times2^0$

  $= -2^3 + 2^2 + 0 + 2^0$

  $= -8 + 4 + 0 + 1$

  $= -8 + 5$

  $= -3_{ten}$

Two's Complement shortcut: Negation

- Change every 0 to 1 and 1 to 0 (invert or complement), then add 1 to the result
- Proof*: Sum of number and its (one's) complement must be $111...111_{two}$

  However, $111...111_{two} = -1_{ten}$

  Let x' ⇒ one's complement representation of x

  Then x + x' = -1 ⇒ x + x' + 1 = 0 ⇒ x' + 1 = -x

- Example: -3 to +3 to -3

  x : 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1101$_{two}$

  x': 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0010$_{two}$

  +1: 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0011$_{two}$

  ()': 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1100$_{two}$

  +1: 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1101$_{two}$

You should be able to do this in your head…

Two's comp. shortcut: Sign extension

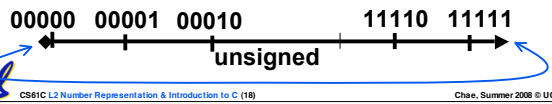
- Convert 2's complement number rep. using n bits to more than n bits
- Simply replicate the most significant bit (sign bit) of smaller to fill new bits
  - 2's comp. positive number has infinite 0s
  - 2's comp. negative number has infinite 1s
  - Binary representation hides leading bits; sign extension restores some of them
  - 16-bit -4_{ten} to 32-bit:

    1111 1111 1111 1100$_{two}$

    1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1100$_{two}$

What if too big?

- Binary bit patterns above are simply representatives of numbers. Strictly speaking they are called "numerals".
- Numbers really have an ∞ number of digits
  - with almost all being same (00…0 or 11…1) except for a few of the rightmost digits
  - Just don't normally show leading digits
- If result of add (or -, *, /) cannot be represented by these rightmost HW bits, overflow is said to have occurred.

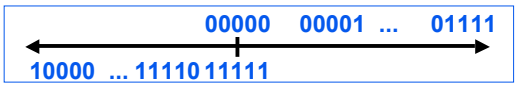


Preview: Signed vs. Unsigned Variables

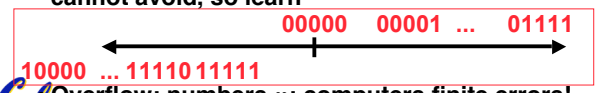
- Java and C declare integers `int`
  - Use two's complement (signed integer)
- Also, C declaration `unsigned int`
  - Declares a unsigned integer
  - Treats 32-bit number as unsigned integer, so most significant bit is part of the number, not a sign bit

Number summary...

- We represent "things" in computers as particular bit patterns: N bits ⇒ 2^N
- Decimal for human calculations, binary for computers, hex to write binary more easily
- 1's complement - mostly abandoned



- 2's complement universal in computing: cannot avoid, so learn



- Overflow: numbers ∞; computers finite,errors!

Peer Instruction Question

X = 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1100_{two}

Y = 0011 1011 1001 1010 1000 1010 0000 0000_{two}

A. X > Y (if signed)

B. X > Y (if unsigned)

	AB
1:	FF
2:	FT
3:	TF
4:	TT

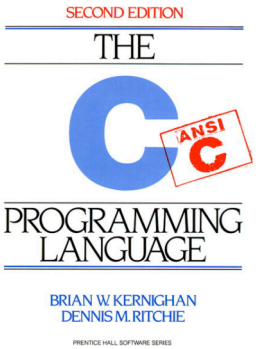
Administrivia

- Lab Today
  - Class accounts
- Office Hours 12-1 again today (329 Soda)
  - I'll be in and out of lab too
- Get cardkeys from CS main office Soda Hall 3rd floor (387 Soda)
  - Soda locks doors @ 6:30pm & on weekends
- UNIX Helpsession?

Administrivia

- HW
  - HW0 due Tuesday 7/1 in lab or to my office
  - HW1 due Monday 6/30 @ 23:59 PST
  - Quiz1 out later today, due Friday 6/27 @ 23:59 PST
  - HW2 due Saturday 7/5 @ 23:59 PST
- Reading
  - P&H: 1, 3.1, 3.2
  - K&R Chapters 1-4 (lots, get started now!);

Introduction to C



Has there been an update to ANSI C?

- Yes! It's called the "C99" or "C9x" std
  - You need "`gcc -std=c99`" to compile
- References
  - `http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/C99`
  - `http://home.tiscalinet.ch/t_wolf/tw/c/c9x_changes.html`
- Highlights
  - Declarations anywhere, like Java (#15)
  - Java-like `//` comments (to end of line) (#10)
  - Variable-length non-global arrays (#33)
  - `<inttypes.h>`: explicit integer types (#38)
  - `<stdbool.h>` for boolean logic def's (#35)
  - `restrict` keyword for optimizations (#30) Highlights
- For this class, safest to stick with K&R C

Disclaimer

- Important: You will not learn how to fully code in C in these lectures! You'll still need your C reference for this course.
  - K&R is a must-have reference
    - Check online for more sources
  - "JAVA in a Nutshell," O'Reilly.
    - Chapter 2, "How Java Differs from C"
  - Brian Harvey's course notes
    - On class website

Compilation : Overview

C *compilers* take C and convert it into an architecture specific machine code (string of 1s and 0s).

- Unlike Java which converts to architecture independent bytecode.
- Unlike most Scheme environments which interpret the code.
- These differ mainly in when your program is converted to machine instructions.
- Generally a 2 part process of compiling .c files to .o files, then linking the .o files into executables

Compilation : Advantages

- Great run-time performance: generally much faster than Scheme or Java for comparable code (because it optimizes for a given architecture)
- OK compilation time: enhancements in compilation procedure (`Makefiles`) allow only modified files to be recompiled

Compilation : Disadvantages

- All compiled files (including the executable) are architecture specific, depending on *both* the CPU type and the operating system.
- Executable must be rebuilt on each new system.
  - Called "porting your code" to a new architecture.
- The "change→compile→run [repeat]" iteration cycle is slow

C vs. Java™ Overview (1/2)

Java	C
• Object-oriented (OOP)	• No built-in object abstraction. Data separate from methods.
• "Methods"	• "Functions"
• Class libraries of data structures	• C libraries are lower-level
• Automatic memory management	• Manual memory management
	• Pointers

C vs. Java™ Overview (2/2)

Java	C
• High memory overhead from class libraries	• Low memory overhead
• Relatively Slow	• Relatively Fast
• Arrays initialize to zero	• Arrays initialize to garbage

• Syntax:
`/* comment */`
`// comment`
`System.out.print`
	• Syntax:
	`/* comment */`
	`printf`

C Syntax: Variable Declarations

- Very similar to Java, but with a few minor but important differences
- All variable declarations must go before they are used (at the beginning of the block).
- A variable may be initialized in its declaration.
- Examples of declarations:
  - correct:
```
{
    int a = 0, b = 10;
    ...
```
  - incorrect: `for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)`

C Syntax: True or False?

- What evaluates to FALSE in C?
  - 0 (integer)
  - NULL (pointer: more on this later)
  - no such thing as a Boolean
- What evaluates to TRUE in C?
  - everything else…
  - (same idea as in scheme: only `#f` is false, everything else is true!)

C syntax : flow control

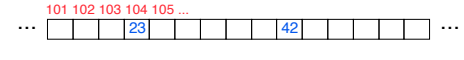
- Within a function, remarkably close to Java constructs in methods (shows its legacy) in terms of flow control
  - `if-else`
  - `switch`
  - `while` and `for`
  - `do-while`

C Syntax: `main`

- To get the main function to accept arguments, use this:
```
int main (int argc, char *argv[])
```
- What does this mean?
  - `argc` will contain the number of strings on the command line (the executable counts as one, plus one for each argument).
    - Example: `unix% sort myFile`
  - `argv` is a pointer to an array containing the arguments as strings (more on pointers later).

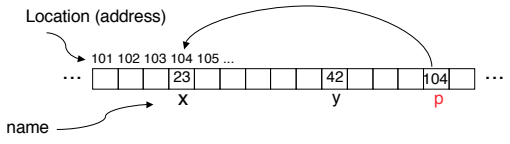
Address vs. Value

- Consider memory to be a single huge array:
  - Each cell of the array has an address associated with it.
  - Each cell also stores some value
  - Do you think they use signed or unsigned numbers? Negative address?!
- Don't confuse the address referring to a memory location with the value stored in that location.



Pointers

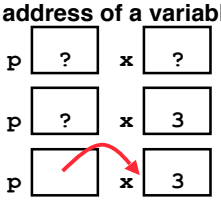
- An address refers to a particular memory location. In other words, it points to a memory location.
- Pointer: A variable that contains the address of another variable.



Pointers

- How to create a pointer:
  - `&` operator: get address of a variable

```
int *p, x;
  x = 3;
  p =&x;
```



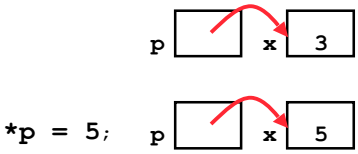
Note the "*" gets used 2 different ways in this example. In the declaration to indicate that `p` is going to be a pointer, and in the `printf` to get the value pointed to by `p`.

- How get a value pointed to?
  - `*` "dereference operator": get value pointed to

```
printf("p points to %d\n",*p);
```


Pointers

- How to change a variable pointed to?
  - Use dereference `*` operator on left of =



Pointers and Parameter Passing

- Java and C pass a parameter "by value"
  - procedure/function gets a copy of the parameter, so changing the copy cannot change the original

```
void addOne (int x) {
   x = x + 1;
}
int y = 3;
addOne(y);
```

- `y` is still = 3

Pointers and Parameter Passing

- How to get a function to change a value?

```
void addOne (int *p) {
  *p = *p + 1;
}
int y = 3;

addOne(&y);
```

- `y` is now = 4

Pointers

- Pointers are used to point to any data type (`int`, `char`, a `struct`, etc.).
- Normally a pointer can only point to one type (`int`, `char`, a `struct`, etc.).
  - `void *` is a type that can point to anything (generic pointer)
  - Use sparingly to help avoid program bugs… and security issues… and a lot of other bad things!

Peer Instruction Question

```
void main(); {
  int *p, x=5, y; // init
  y = *(p = &x) + 10;
  int z;
  flip-sign(p);
  printf("x=%d,y=%d,p=%d\n",x,y,p);
}
flip-sign(int *n){*n = -(*n)}
```

#Errors
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
(1) 0

How many errors?

Peer Instruction Answer

This slide has been corrected from the one presented in lecture

flip-sign prototype (or function itself) not declared before first use

```
void main(); {
  int *p, x=5, y; // init
  y = *(p = &x) + 10;
  int z;
  flip-sign(p);
  printf("x=%d,y=%d,p=%d\n",x,y,*p);
}
flip-sign(int *n){*n = -(*n);}
```

#Errors
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
(1) 0

How many errors? I get 8.

And in conclusion…

- All declarations go at the beginning of each function.
- Only 0 and NULL evaluate to FALSE.
- All data is in memory. Each memory location has an address to use to refer to it and a value stored in it.
- A pointer is a C version of the address.
  - * "follows" a pointer to its value
  - & gets the address of a value