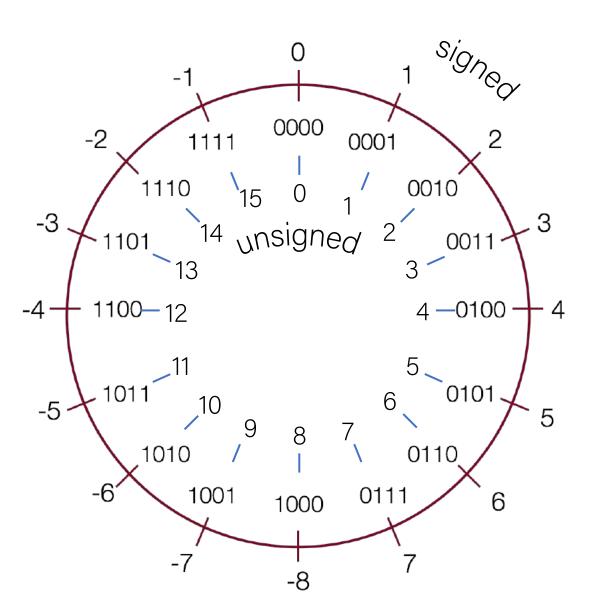
70710717171000101000100 CCOMPUTER Systems & Programming Lecture #03 -Bits and Bitwise Operators, Floating Point KOC UNIVERSITY Aykut Erdem // Koo University (A, Fall 2021)



Recap

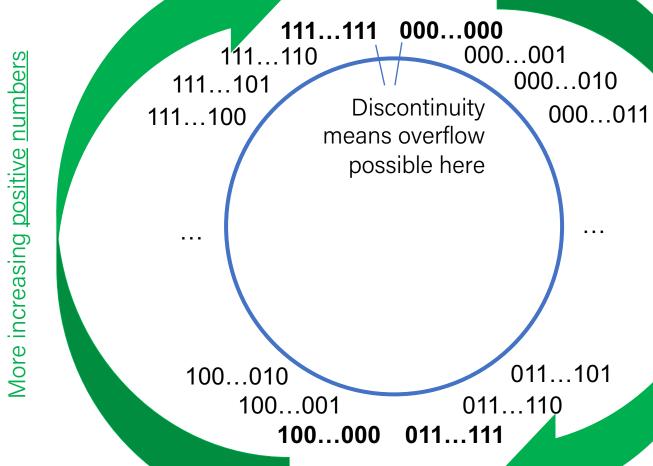
- Bits and Bytes
- Hexadecimal
- Integer Representations
- Unsigned Integers
- Signed Integers
- Overflow
- Casting and Combining Types

Recap: Unsigned and Signed Integers



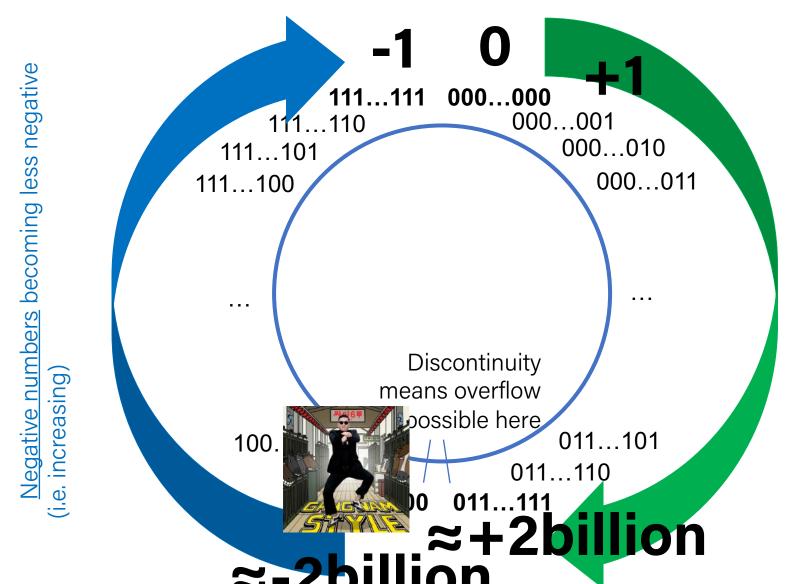
Recap: Overflow in Unsigned Integers

≈+4billion 0



Increasing <u>positive numbers</u>

Recap: Overflow in Signed Numbers



Increasing positive numbers

Bits and Bytes So Far

- all data is ultimately stored in memory in binary
- When we declare an integer variable, under the hood it is stored in binary

```
int x = 5;// really 0b0...0101 in memory!
```

- Until now, we only manipulate our integer variables in base 10 (e.g. increment, decrement, set, etc.)
- Today, we will learn about how to manipulate the underlying binary representation!
- This is useful for: more efficient arithmetic, more efficient storing of data, etc.

Plan For Today

- Casting and Combining Types
- Byte Ordering
- Bitwise Operators
- Bitmasks
- Bit Shift Operators
- Representing real numbers
- Fixed Point

Disclaimer: Slides for this lecture were borrowed from

- —Nick Troccoli's Stanford CS107 class
- —Randal E. Bryant and David R. O'Hallaron's CMU 15-213 class

Lecture Plan

- Casting and Combining Types
- Byte Ordering
- Bitwise Operators
- Bitmasks
- Bit Shift Operators
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- Fixed Point

Expanding Bit Representations

- Sometimes, we want to convert between two integers of different sizes (e.g. **short** to **int**, or **int** to **long**).
- We might not be able to convert from a bigger data type to a smaller data type, but we do want to always be able to convert from a smaller data type to a bigger data type.
- For **unsigned** values, we can add *leading zeros* to the representation ("zero extension")
- For **signed** values, we can *repeat the sign of the value* for new digits ("sign extension")
- **Note:** when doing <, >, <=, >= comparison between different size types, it will *promote to the larger type*.

Expanding Bit Representation

Expanding Bit Representation

```
short s = 4;
                                                   s = 0000 0000 0000 0100b
// short is a 16-bit format, so
int i = si
// conversion to 32-bit int, so i = 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0100b
— or —
short s = -4;
// short is a 16-bit format, so
                                                       1111 1111 1111 1100b
int i = si
// conversion to 32-bit int, so i = 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1100b
```

Truncating Bit Representation

If we want to **reduce** the bit size of a number, C *truncates* the representation and <u>discards the *more significant bits*</u>.

```
int x = 53191;
short sx = x;
int y = sx;
```

What happens here? Let's look at the bits in x (a 32-bit int), 53191:

0000 0000 0000 0000 1100 1111 1100 0111

When we cast x to a short, it only has 16-bits, and C truncates the number:

1100 1111 1100 0111

This is -12345! And when we cast **sx** back an **int**, we sign-extend the number.

```
1111 1111 1111 1111 1100 1111 1100 0111 // still -12345
```

Truncating Bit Representation

If we want to **reduce** the bit size of a number, C *truncates* the representation and <u>discards the *more significant bits*</u>.

```
int x = -3;
short sx = x;
int y = sx;
```

What happens here? Let's look at the bits in x (a 32-bit int), -3:

```
1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1101
```

When we cast x to a short, it only has 16-bits, and C truncates the number:

```
1111 1111 1111 1101
```

This is -3! If the number does fit, it will convert fine. y looks like this:

Truncating Bit Representation

If we want to **reduce** the bit size of a number, C *truncates* the representation and <u>discards the *more significant bits*</u>.

```
unsigned int x = 128000;
unsigned short sx = x;
unsigned int y = sx;
```

What happens here? Let's look at the bits in x (a 32-bit unsigned int), 128000:

0000 0000 0000 0001 1111 0100 0000 0000

When we cast x to a **short**, it only has 16-bits, and C *truncates* the number:

1111 0100 0000 0000

This is 62464! **Unsigned numbers can lose info too**. Here is what y looks like:

The size of Operator

```
long sizeof(type);
```

```
// Example
long int_size_bytes = sizeof(int);  // 4
long short_size_bytes = sizeof(short); // 2
long char_size_bytes = sizeof(char); // 1
```

sizeof takes a variable type as a parameter and returns the size of that type, in bytes.

```
short x = 130; // 0b1000 0010
char cx = x;
```

```
short x = -132 // 0b1111 1111 0111 1100
char cx = x;
```

```
short x = 25; // 0b1 1001
char cx = x;
```



```
short x = 130; // 0b1000 0010
char cx = x; // -126
```

```
short x = -132 // 0b1111 1111 0111 1100
char cx = x; // 124
```

```
short x = 25; // 0b1 1001
char cx = x; // 25
```



```
short x = 390; // 0b1 1000 0110
char cx = x;
```

```
short x = -15; // 0b1111 1111 1111 0001
char cx = x;
```



```
short x = 390; // 0b1 1000 0110 char cx = x; // -122
```

```
short x = -15; // 0b1111 1111 1111 0001 char cx = x; // -15
```



In Sum: Basic Rules of Expanding, Truncating

- Expanding (e.g., short int to int)
 - Unsigned: zeros added
 - Signed: sign extension
 - Both yield expected result
- Truncating (e.g., unsigned to unsigned short)
 - Unsigned/signed: bits are truncated
 - Result reinterpreted
 - Unsigned: mod operation
 - Signed: similar to mod
 - For small (in magnitude) numbers yields expected behavior

Lecture Plan

- Casting and Combining Types
- Byte Ordering
- Bitwise Operators
- Bitmasks
- Bit Shift Operators
- Representing real numbers
- Fixed Point

Number Representations

C Declaration	Intel IA32	X86-64
int	4	4
double	8	8
float	4	4
char	1	1
char *	4	8
short	2	2
long	4	8

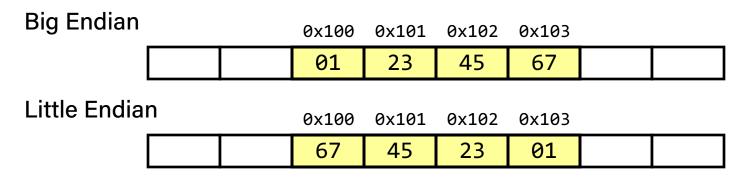
Byte Ordering

So, how are the bytes within a multi-byte word ordered in memory?

- Conventions
 - -Big Endian: Sun (Oracle SPARC), PPC Mac, Internet
 - Least significant byte has highest address
 - -Little Endian: x86, ARM processors running Android, iOS, and Linux
 - Least significant byte has lowest address

Byte Ordering Example

- Big Endian: Sun (Oracle SPARC), PPC Mac, Internet
 - Least significant byte has highest address
- Little Endian: x86, ARM processors running Android, iOS, and Linux
 - Least significant byte has lowest address
- Example:
 - Variable x has 4-byte value of 0x01234567
 - Address given by &x is 0x100



The origin of "endian"

"Gulliver finds out that there is a law, proclaimed by the grandfather of the present ruler, requiring all citizens of Lilliput to break their eggs only at the little ends. Of course, all those citizens who broke their eggs at the big ends were angered by the proclamation. Civil war broke out between the Little-Endians and the Big-Endians, resulting in the Big-Endians taking refuge on a nearby island, the kingdom of Blefuscu."

- Danny Cohen, On Holy Wars and A Plea For Peace (1980)

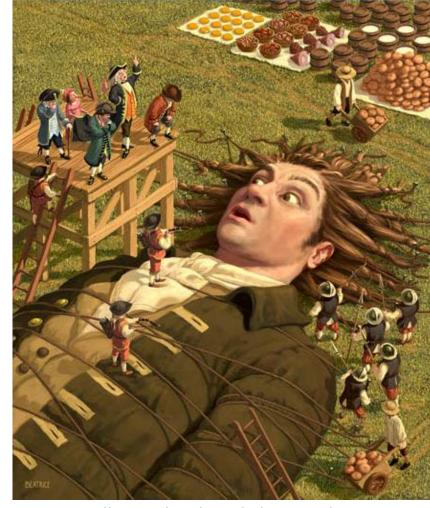


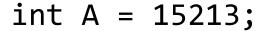
Illustration by Chris Beatrice

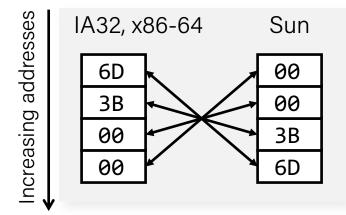
Representing Integers

Decimal: 15213

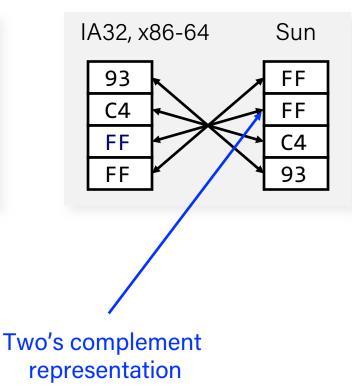
Binary: 0011 1011 0110 1101

Hex: 3 B 6 D

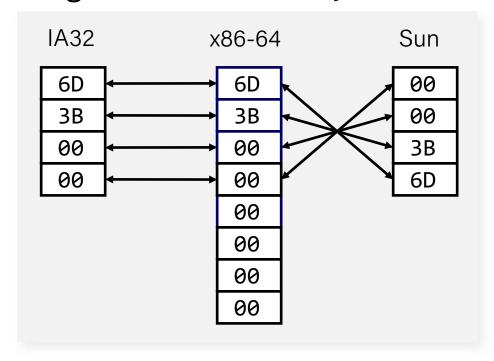




int B = -15213;



long int C = 15213;



Aside: ASCII

- ASCII is an encoding from common characters (letters, symbols, etc.) to bit representations (chars).
 - E.g. 'A' is 0x41
- Neat property: all uppercase letters, and all lowercase letters, are sequentially represented!
 - E.g. 'B' is 0x42

More on this next week!

Lecture Plan

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- Fixed Point

Now that we understand binary representations, how can we manipulate them at the bit level?

Bitwise Operators

- You're already familiar with many operators in C:
 - Arithmetic operators: +, -, *, /, %
 - Comparison operators: ==, !=, <, >, <=, >=
 - Logical Operators: &&, | |, !

- Today, we're introducing a new category of operators: bitwise operators:
 - &, |, ~, ^, <<, >>

And (&)

AND is a binary operator. The AND of 2 bits is 1 if both bits are 1, and 0 otherwise.

output	=	a & b;
a	b	output
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

& with 1 to let a bit through, & with 0 to zero out a bit

Or (|)

OR is a binary operator. The OR of 2 bits is 1 if either (or both) bits is 1.

output	= a	b;
a	b	output
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

with 1 to turn on a bit, | with 0 to let a bit go through

Not (~)

NOT is a unary operator. The NOT of a bit is 1 if the bit is 0, or 1 otherwise.

output	= ~a;
a	output
0	1
1	0

Exclusive Or (^)

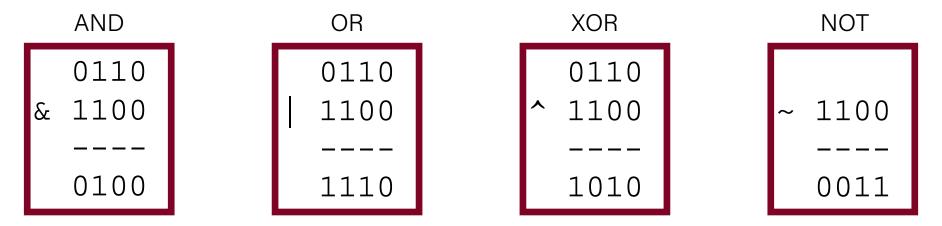
Exclusive Or (XOR) is a binary operator. The XOR of 2 bits is 1 if *exactly* one of the bits is 1, or 0 otherwise.

outpu	t = a	^ b;
a	b	output
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

[^] with 1 to flip a bit, ^ with 0 to let a bit go through

Operators on Multiple Bits

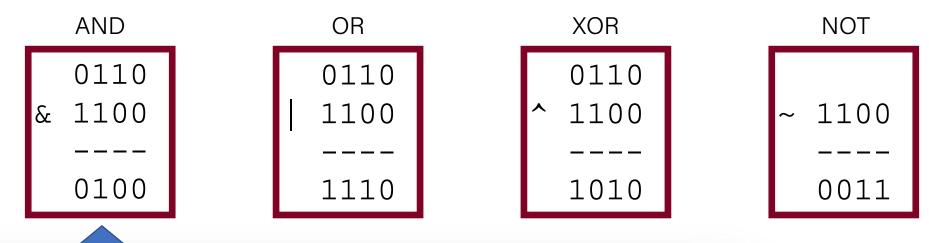
 When these operators are applied to numbers (multiple bits), the operator is applied to the corresponding bits in each number. For example:



Note: these are different from the logical operators AND (&&), OR (||) and NOT (!).

Operators on Multiple Bits

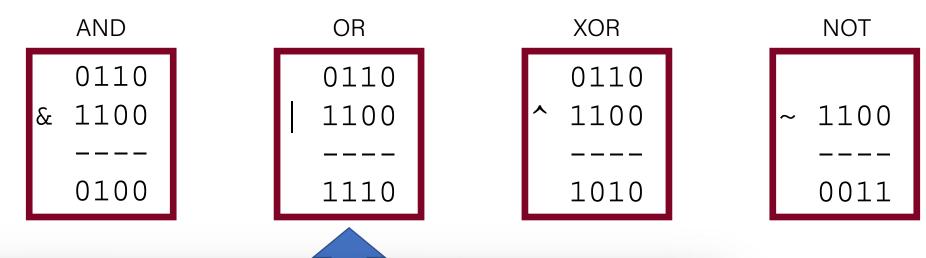
 When these operators are applied to numbers (multiple bits), the operator is applied to the corresponding bits in each number. For example:



This is different from logical AND (&&). The logical AND returns true if both are nonzero, or false otherwise. With &&, this would be 6 && 12, which would evaluate to **true** (1).

Operators on Multiple Bits

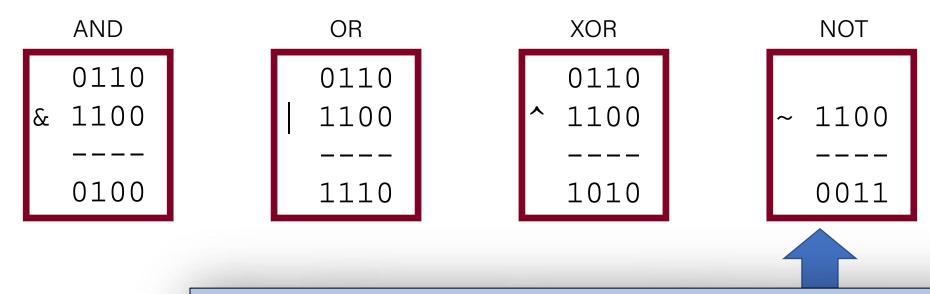
 When these operators are applied to numbers (multiple bits), the operator is applied to the corresponding bits in each number. For example:



This is different from logical OR (||). The logical OR returns true if either are nonzero, or false otherwise. With ||, this would be 6 || 12, which would evaluate to **true** (1).

Operators on Multiple Bits

 When these operators are applied to numbers (multiple bits), the operator is applied to the corresponding bits in each number. For example:



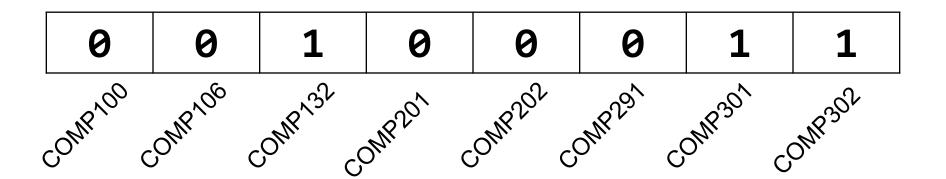
This is different from logical NOT (!). The logical NOT returns true if this is zero, and false otherwise. With !, this would be !12, which would evaluate to **false** (0).

Lecture Plan

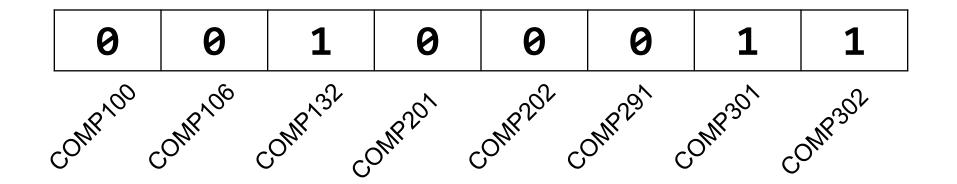
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Bit Vectors and Sets

- We can use bit vectors (ordered collections of bits) to represent finite sets, and perform functions such as union, intersection, and complement.
- Example: we can represent current courses taken using a char.



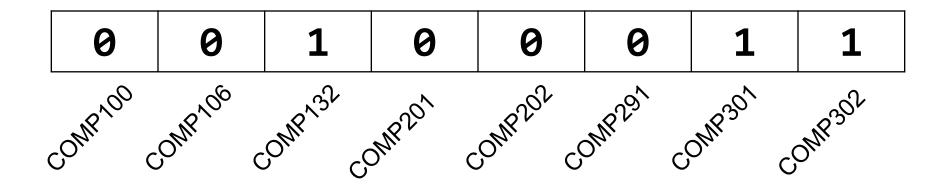
Bit Vectors and Sets



How do we find the union of two sets of courses taken? Use OR:

```
00100011
| 01100001
| -----
01100011
```

Bit Vectors and Sets

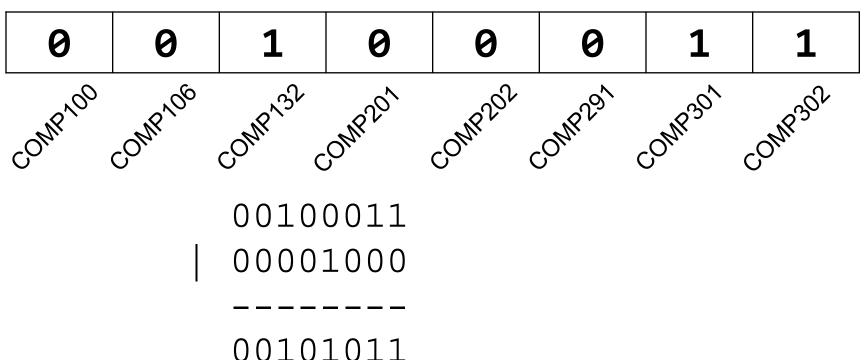


How do we find the intersection of two sets of courses taken? Use AND:

 We will frequently want to manipulate or isolate out specific bits in a larger collection of bits. A **bitmask** is a constructed bit pattern that we can use, along with bit operators, to do this.

• Example: how do we update our bit vector to indicate we've taken

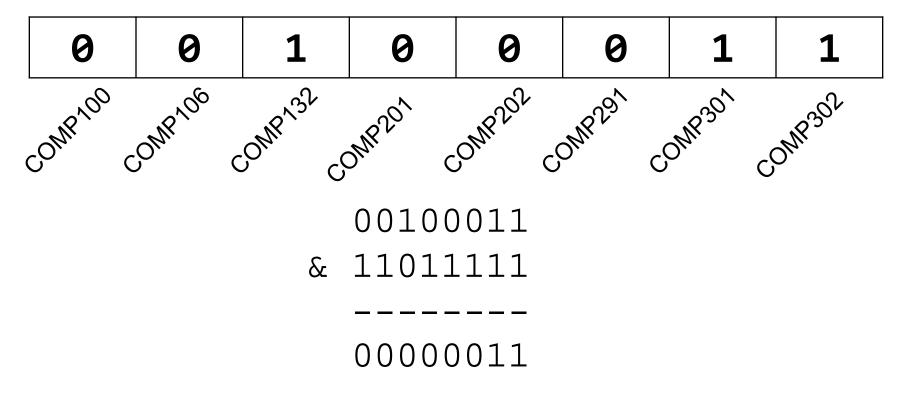
COMP202?



```
#define COMP100 0x1
                  /* 0000 0001 */
#define COMP106 0x2
                      /* 0000 0010 */
                      /* 0000 0100 */
#define COMP132 0x4
#define COMP201
              0x8 /* 0000 1000 */
#define COMP202 0x10 /* 0001 0000 */
#define COMP291 0x20 /* 0010 0000 */
#define COMP301 0x40 /* 0100 0000 */
#define COMP302
                0x80
                      /* 1000 0000 */
char myClasses = ...;
myClasses = myClasses | COMP201; // Add COMP201
```

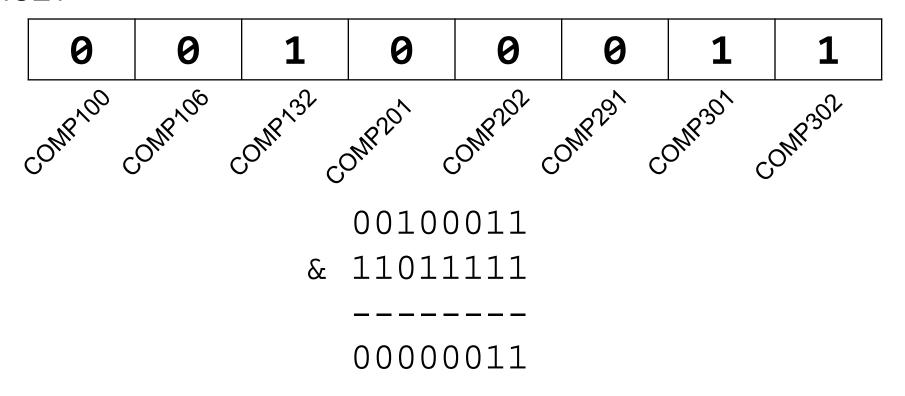
```
#define COMP100 0x1
                       /* 0000 0001 */
                       /* 0000 0010 */
#define COMP106 0x2
                       /* 0000 0100 */
#define COMP132 0x4
#define COMP201
               0x8 /* 0000 1000 */
                       /* 0001 0000 */
#define COMP202
               0x10
#define COMP291 0x20
                       /* 0010 0000 */
#define COMP301 0x40 /* 0100 0000 */
#define COMP302
                0x80
                       /* 1000 0000 */
char myClasses = ...;
myClasses |= COMP201; // Add COMP201
```

• Example: how do we update our bit vector to indicate we've *not* taken COMP132?



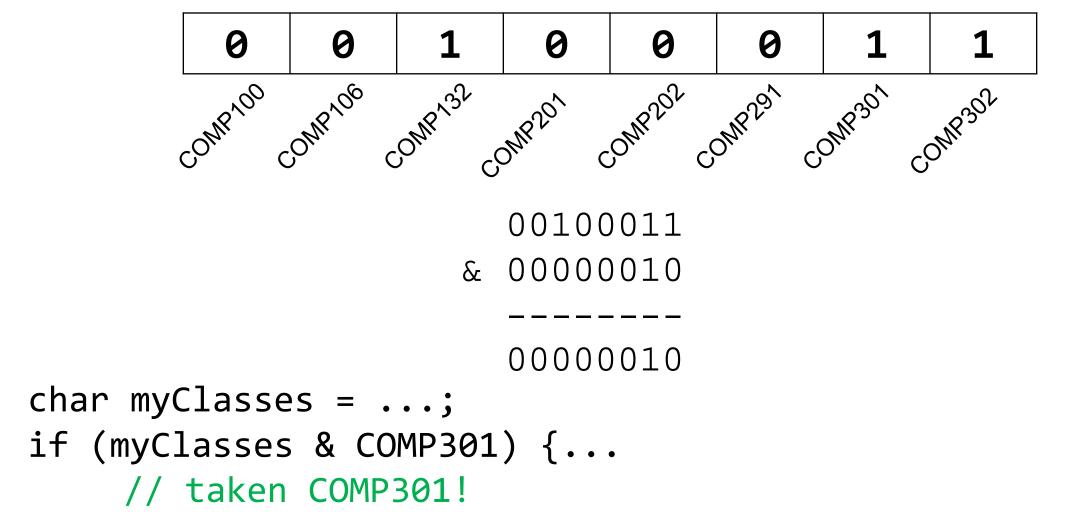
```
char myClasses = ...;
myClasses = myClasses & ~COMP132; // Remove COMP132
```

• Example: how do we update our bit vector to indicate we've *not* taken COMP132?

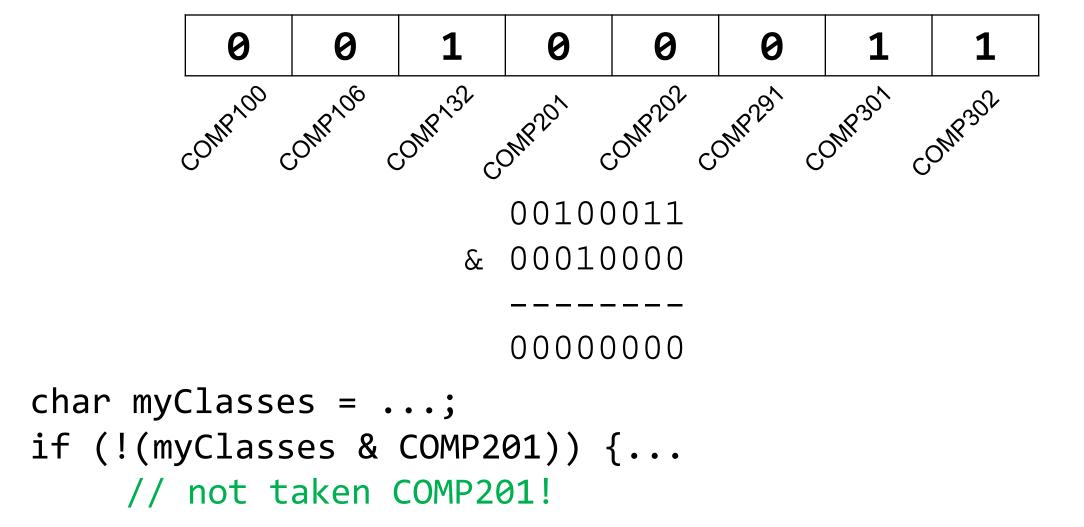


```
char myClasses = ...;
myClasses &= ~COMP132; // Remove COMP132
```

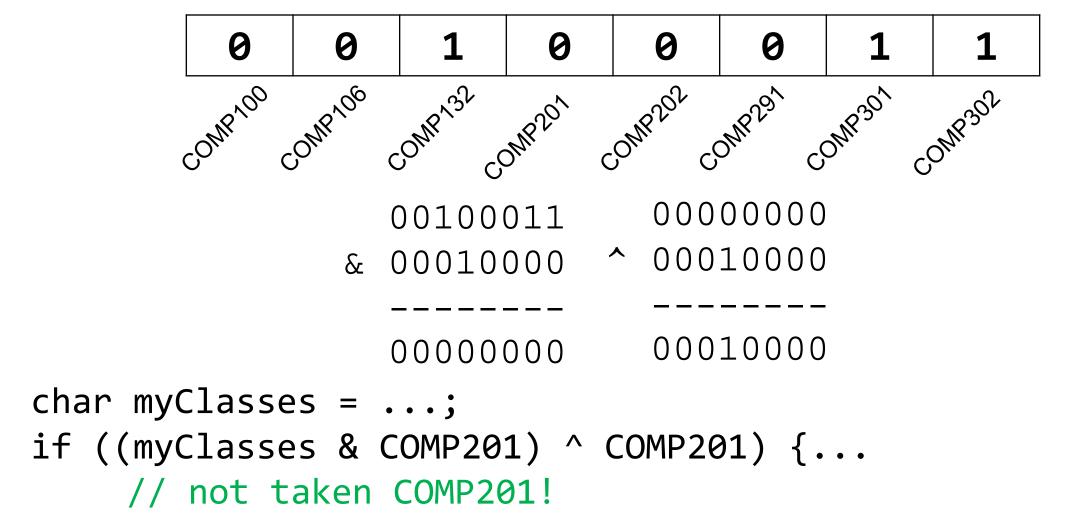
• Example: how do we check if we've taken COMP301?



• Example: how do we check if we've not taken COMP201?



• Example: how do we check if we've not taken COMP201?



Practice: Bitwise Operations

How can we use bitmasks + bitwise operators to...

0b00001101

1. ...turn on a particular set of bits? OR

2. ...turn off a particular 3. ...flip a particular set of bits? AND

set of bits? XOR

0b00001101

0b11111011

0b00001101

0b00000010

0b00001101

0b00000110

0b00001111

0b00001001

0b00001011

Bitwise Operator Tricks

- | with 1 is useful for turning select bits on
- & with 0 is useful for turning select bits off
- | is useful for taking the union of bits
- & is useful for taking the intersection of bits
- ^ is useful for flipping select bits
- ~ is useful for flipping all bits

• Bit masking is also useful for integer representations as well. For instance, we might want to check the value of the most-significant bit, or just one of the middle bytes.

• **Example**: If I have a 32-bit integer **j**, what operation should I perform if I want to get *just the lowest byte* in **j**?

```
int j = ...;
int k = j & 0xff; // mask to get just lowest byte
```

Practice: Bit Masking

• **Practice 1:** write an expression that, given a 32-bit integer j, sets its least-significant byte to all 1s, but preserves all other bytes.

j | 0xff

Practice: Bit Masking

• **Practice 1:** write an expression that, given a 32-bit integer **j**, sets its least-significant byte to all 1s, but preserves all other bytes.

• **Practice 2:** write an expression that, given a 32-bit integer **j**, flips ("complements") all but the least-significant byte, and preserves all other bytes.

Powers of 2

Without using loops, how can we detect if a binary number is a power of 2? What is special about its binary representation and how can we leverage that?

Demo: Powers of 2



is_power_of_2

Lecture Plan

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Left Shift (<<)

The LEFT SHIFT operator shifts a bit pattern a certain number of positions to the left. New lower order bits are filled in with 0s, and bits shifted off the end are lost.

```
x << k;  // evaluates to x shifted to the left by k bits
x <<= k;  // shifts x to the left by k bits</pre>
```

8-bit examples:

```
00110111 << 2 results in 11011100
01100011 << 4 results in 00110000
10010101 << 4 results in 01010000
```

The RIGHT SHIFT operator shifts a bit pattern a certain number of positions to the right. Bits shifted off the end are lost.

```
x >> k;  // evaluates to x shifted to the right by k bit
x >>= k;  // shifts x to the right by k bits
```

Question: how should we fill in new higher-order bits?

Idea: let's follow left-shift and fill with 0s.

```
short x = 2; // 0000 0000 0000 0010
x >>= 1; // 0000 0000 0000 0001
printf("%d\n", x); // 1
```

The RIGHT SHIFT operator shifts a bit pattern a certain number of positions to the right. Bits shifted off the end are lost.

```
x >> k;  // evaluates to x shifted to the right by k bit
x >>= k;  // shifts x to the right by k bits
```

Question: how should we fill in new higher-order bits?

Idea: let's follow left-shift and fill with 0s.

```
short x = -2; // 1111 1111 1111 1110
x >>= 1; // 0111 1111 1111 1111
printf("%d\n", x); // 32767!
```

The RIGHT SHIFT operator shifts a bit pattern a certain number of positions to the right. Bits shifted off the end are lost.

```
x >> k;  // evaluates to x shifted to the right by k bit
x >>= k;  // shifts x to the right by k bits
```

Question: how should we fill in new higher-order bits?

Problem: always filling with zeros means we may change the sign bit.

Solution: let's fill with the sign bit!

The RIGHT SHIFT operator shifts a bit pattern a certain number of positions to the right. Bits shifted off the end are lost.

```
x >> k;  // evaluates to x shifted to the right by k bit
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Solution: let's fill with the sign bit!

```
short x = 2; // 0000 0000 0000 0010
x >>= 1; // 0000 0000 0000 0001
printf("%d\n", x); // 1
```

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```
x >> k;  // evaluates to x shifted to the right by k bit
x >>= k;  // shifts x to the right by k bits
```

Question: how should we fill in new higher-order bits?

Solution: let's fill with the sign bit!

```
short x = -2; // 1111 1111 1110 x >>= 1; // 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 printf("%d\n", x); // -1!
```

There are two kinds of right shifts, depending on the value and type you are shifting:

- Logical Right Shift: fill new high-order bits with 0s.
- Arithmetic Right Shift: fill new high-order bits with the most-significant bit.

Unsigned numbers are right-shifted using Logical Right Shift.

Signed numbers are right-shifted using Arithmetic Right Shift.

This way, the sign of the number (if applicable) is preserved!

Shift Operation Pitfalls

- Technically, the C standard does not precisely define whether a right shift for signed integers is logical or arithmetic. However, almost all compilers/machines use arithmetic, and you can most likely assume this.
- 2. Operator precedence can be tricky! For example:

1<<2 + 3<<4 means 1 << (2+3) << 4 because addition and subtraction have higher precedence than shifts! Always use parentheses to be sure:

$$(1<<2) + (3<<4)$$

Bit Operator Pitfalls

- The default type of a number literal in your code is an int.
- Let's say you want a long with the index-32 bit as 1:

```
long num = 1 << 32;
```

• This doesn't work! 1 is by default an **int**, and you can't shift an int by 32 because it only has 32 bits. You must specify that you want 1 to be a **long**.

```
long num = 1 << 32;
```

COMP201 Topic 2: How can a computer represent real numbers in addition to integer numbers?

Learning Goals

Understand the design and compromises of the floating point representation, including:

- Fixed point vs. floating point
- How a floating point number is represented in binary
- Issues with floating point imprecision
- Other potential pitfalls using floating point numbers in programs

Lecture Plan

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Real Numbers

- We previously discussed representing integer numbers using two's complement.
- However, this system does not represent real numbers such as 3/5 or 0.25.
- How can we design a representation for real numbers?

Real Numbers

Problem: unlike with the integer number line, where there are a finite number of values between two numbers, there are an *infinite* number of real number values between two numbers!

Integers between 0 and 2: 1

Real Numbers Between 0 and 2: 0.1, 0.01, 0.001, 0.0001, 0.00001,...

We need a fixed-width representation for real numbers. Therefore, by definition, we will not be able to represent all numbers.

Real Numbers

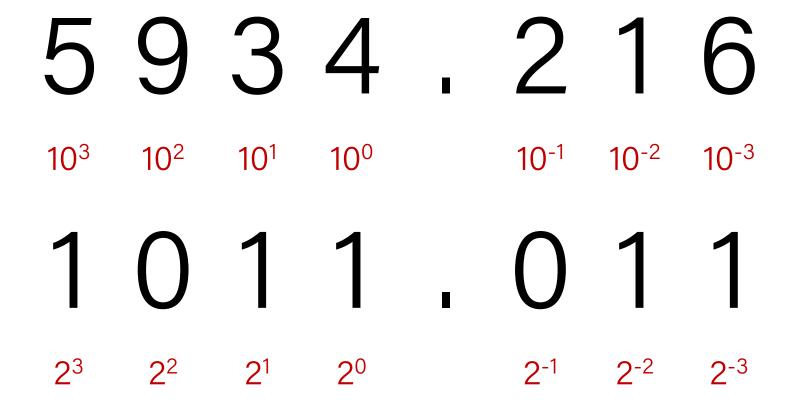
Problem: every number base has un-representable real numbers.

Base 10: $1/6_{10} = 0.16666666...$

Base 2: $1/10_{10} = 0.000110011001100110011..._2$

Therefore, by representing in base 2, we will not be able to represent all numbers, even those we can exactly represent in base 10.

• Idea: Like in base 10, let's add binary decimal places to our existing number representation.



Lecture Plan

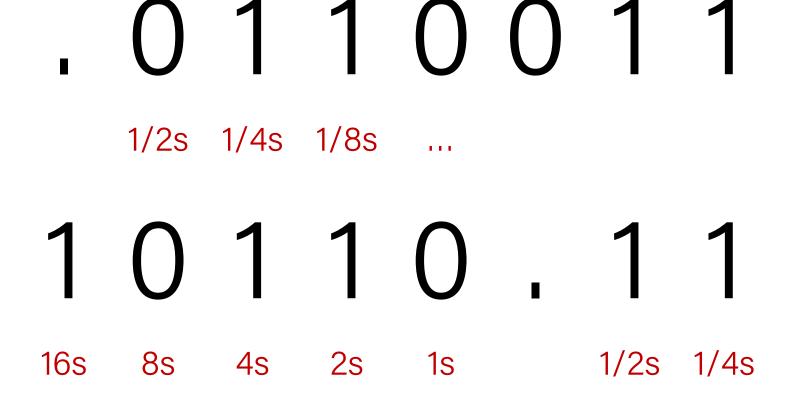
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• Idea: Like in base 10, let's add binary decimal places to our existing number representation.

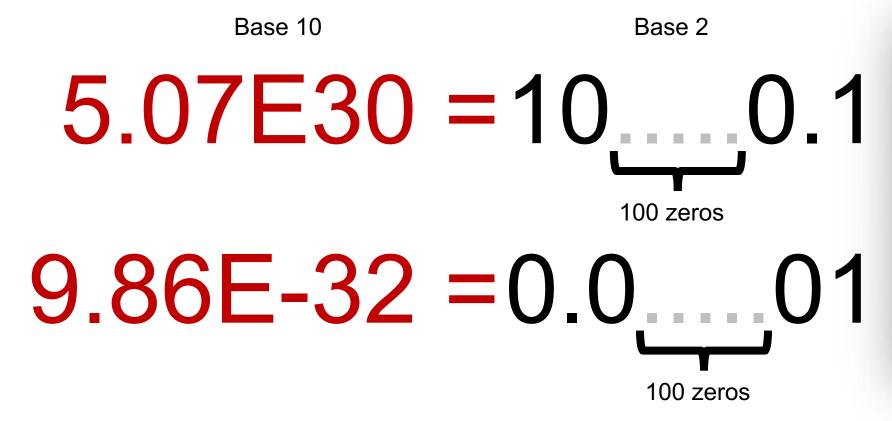


• **Pros**: arithmetic is easy! And we know exactly how much precision we have.

• **Problem**: we have to fix where the decimal point is in our representation. What should we pick? This also fixes us to 1 place per bit.



• **Problem**: we have to fix where the decimal point is in our representation. What should we pick? This also fixes us to 1 place per bit.



To be able to store both these numbers using the same fixed point representation, the bitwidth of the type would need to be at least 207 bits wide!

Let's Get Real

What would be nice to have in a real number representation?

- Represent widest range of numbers possible
- Flexible "floating" decimal point
- Represent scientific notation numbers, e.g. 1.2 x 10⁶
- Still be able to compare quickly
- Have more predictable over/under-flow behavior

Recap

- Bitwise Operators
- Bitmasks
- Bit Shift Operators
- Representing real numbers
- Fixed Point

Next time: More on how can a computer represent floating point numbers?