

CMSC216: Binary Encoding of Data

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Logistics

Reading

Bryant/O'Hallaron Ch 2.1-2.3

- ▶ Binary Encoding of Data
- ▶ Signed/Unsigned Integers
- ▶ Character Data
- ▶ Optional: Ch 2.4 Floats

Ch 3.1-7: Assembly, Arithmetic, Control

Goals

- ▶ Integer and character encoding
- ▶ Negative Values and Overflow/Underflow
- ▶ Bitwise Operations, Byte-Ordering
- ▶ Assembly Language Basics

Assignments

- ▶ **Lab04:** GDB and Bit Operations
- ▶ **Project 2:** Posted

Announcements

Discussion Review Activity for Engagement Points

- ▶ In Discussion Wed, staff will give support on Exam 1 review and for students to finish up Project 1
- ▶ Staff will conduct a short review activity for Engagement Points
- ▶ The section that has the highest total score will get additional Engagement Points: attend Discussion to make your section the victor!

Exam 1 Logistics

Practice + Review

- ▶ Practice Exam 1A and 1B Posted with Solutions
- ▶ Practice 1B was part of discussion on Monday

Exam 1

- ▶ In-person in class on Thu 19-Feb
- ▶ Exam runs lecture period: 75min
- ▶ Expect 2.5 pages front/back
- ▶ **Open Resource Exam:** review rules for this posted at bottom of course schedule (beneath slides)
Questions on Open Resource Exam boundaries?

Note: Exam contents ends with C File I/O; no binary encoding (these slides) on Exam 1

Unsigned Integers: Decimal and Binary

- Unsigned integers are always positive:

```
unsigned int i = 12345;
```

- To understand their binary encoding, first recall how decimal numbers “work” to encode quantities

Decimal: Base 10 Example

Each digit adds on a power 10

$$80,345 = 5 \times 10^0 +$$

5 ones

$$4 \times 10^1 +$$

40 tens

$$3 \times 10^2 +$$

300 hundreds

$$0 \times 10^3 +$$

0 thousands

$$8 \times 10^4$$

80 tens of thousands

$$5 + 40 + 300 + 80,000$$

Binary: Base 2 Example

Each digit adds on a power 2

$$11001_2 = 1 \times 2^0 +$$

1 ones

$$0 \times 2^1 +$$

0 twos

$$0 \times 2^2 +$$

0 fours

$$1 \times 2^3 +$$

8 eights

$$1 \times 2^4 +$$

16 sixteens

$$= 1 + 8 + 16 = 25$$

So, $11001_2 = 25_{10}$

Exercise: Convert Binary to Decimal

Base 2 Example:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 11001 & = & 1 \times 2^0 + \\ & & 0 \times 2^1 + \\ & & 0 \times 2^2 + \\ & & 1 \times 2^3 + \\ & & 1 \times 2^4 + \\ & = & 1 + 8 + 16 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{rcl} 1 & & 0 \\ & & 0 \\ & & 8 \\ & & 16 \\ & = & 25 \end{array}$$

Try With a Neighbor

Convert the following two numbers from base 2 (binary) to base 10 (decimal)

- ▶ 111
- ▶ 11010
- ▶ 01100001

So, $11001_2 = 25_{10}$

Answers: Convert Binary to Decimal

$$\begin{aligned}111_2 &= 1 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 \\&= 1 \times 4 + 1 \times 2 + 1 \times 1 \\&= 7_{10}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}11010_2 &= 1 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0 \\&= 1 \times 16 + 1 \times 8 + 0 \times 4 + 1 \times 2 + 0 \times 1 \\&= 26_{10}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}01100001_2 &= 0 \times 2^7 + 1 \times 2^6 + 1 \times 2^5 + 0 \times 2^4 \\&\quad + 0 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 \\&= 0 \times 128 + 1 \times 64 + 1 \times 32 + 0 \times 16 \\&\quad + 0 \times 8 + 0 \times 4 + 0 \times 2 + 1 \times 1 \\&= 97_{10}\end{aligned}$$

Note: last example ignores leading 0's

The Other Direction: Decimal to Binary

Converting a number from base 10 to base 2 is easily done using repeated division by 2; keep track of **remainders**

Convert 124 to base 2:

$$124 \div 2 = 62 \text{ rem } 0$$

$$62 \div 2 = 31 \text{ rem } 0$$

$$31 \div 2 = 15 \text{ rem } 1$$

$$15 \div 2 = 7 \text{ rem } 1$$

$$7 \div 2 = 3 \text{ rem } 1$$

$$3 \div 2 = 1 \text{ rem } 1$$

$$1 \div 2 = 0 \text{ rem } 1$$

- ▶ Last step got 0 quotient so we're done.
- ▶ Binary digits are in **remainders in reverse**
- ▶ Answer: 1111100
- ▶ Check:

$$0 + 0 + 2^2 + 2^3 + 2^4 + 2^5 + 2^6 = 4 + 8 + 16 + 32 + 64 = 124$$

Decimal, Hexadecimal, Octal, Binary Notation

- ▶ Numbers exist independent of any writing system
- ▶ Can write the same number in a variety of bases
- ▶ C provides syntax for most common bases used in computing

	Decimal	Binary	Hex	Octal
Base	10	2	16	8
Mathematical	125	1111101 ₂	7D ₁₆	175 ₈
C Prefix	None	0b...	0x..	0...
C Example	125	0b1111101	0x7D	0175
printf()	"%d"	N/A	"%x"	"%o"

- ▶ **Hexadecimal** often used to express long-ish byte sequences
Larger than base 10 so for 10-15 uses letters A-F
- ▶ **Examine** `number_writing.c` and `table.c` for patterns
- ▶ **Expectation:** Gain familiarity with doing conversions between bases as it will be useful in practice

Hexadecimal: Base 16

- ▶ Hex: compact way to write bit sequences
- ▶ One byte is 8 bits
- ▶ Each Hex character represents 4 bits
- ▶ **Each Byte is 2 Hex Digits**

Byte	Hex	Dec
0101 0111	$57 = 5*16 + 7$	87
5 7		
0011 1100	$3C = 3*16 + 12$	60
3 C=12		
1110 0010	$E2 = 14*16 + 2$	226
E=14 2		

Hex to 4 bit equivalence

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

Exercise: Conversion Tricks for Hex and Octal

What tricks are illustrated for Hex/Octal Conversions?

Decimal	Byte = 8bits	Byte by 4	Hexadecimal
87	01010111	bin: 0101 0111 hex: 5 7	57 = 5*16 + 7 hex dec
60	00111100	bin: 0011 1100 hex: 3 C=12	3C = 3*16 + 12 hex dec
226	11100010	bin: 1110 0010 hex: E=14 2	E2 = 14*16 + 2 hex dec
Decimal	Byte = 8bits	Byte by 3	Octal
87	01010111	bin: 01 010 111 oct: 1 2 7	127 = 1*8^2 + 2*8 + 7 oct dec
60	00111100	bin: 00 111 100 oct: 0 7 4	074 = 0*8^2 + 7*8 + 4 oct dec
226	11100010	bin: 11 100 010 oct: 3 4 2	342 = 3*8^2 + 4*8 + 2 oct dec

Answers: Conversion Tricks for Hex and Octal

- ▶ Converting between Binary and Hexadecimal is easiest when grouping bits by 4: each 4 bits corresponds to one hexadecimal digit

bin: 0101 0111	bin: 1110 0010
hex: 5 7	hex: E=14 2

- ▶ Converting between Binary and Octal is easiest when grouping bits by 3: each 3 bits corresponds to one octal digit

bin: 01 010 111	bin: 11 100 010
oct: 1 2 7	oct: 3 4 2

Character Coding Conventions

- ▶ Would be hard for people to share words if they interpreted bits as letters differently
- ▶ **ASCII:** American Standard Code for Information Interchange
An old standard for bit/character correspondence
- ▶ 7 bits per character, includes upper, lower case, punctuation

Dec	Hex	Binary	Char	Dec	Hex	Binary	Char
65	41	01000001	A	78	4E	01001110	N
66	42	01000010	B	79	4F	01001111	O
67	43	01000011	C	80	50	01010000	P
68	44	01000100	D	81	51	01010001	Q
69	45	01000101	E	82	52	01010010	R
70	46	01000110	F	83	53	01010011	S
71	47	01000111	G	84	54	01010100	T
72	48	01001000	H	85	55	01010101	U
73	49	01001001	I	86	56	01010110	V
74	4A	01001010	J	87	57	01010111	W
75	4B	01001011	K	88	58	01011000	X
76	4C	01001100	L	89	59	01011001	Y
77	4D	01001101	M	90	5A	01011010	Z
91	5B	01011101	[97	61	01100001	a
92	5C	01011110	\	98	62	01100010	b

Partial Table of ASCII Codes / Values, try `man 7 ascii` in a terminal for a full table

Exercise: Characters vs Numbers

Explain the following program and its output

```
1 // char_ints.c:  
2 #include <stdio.h>  
3 #include <string.h>  
4 int main(){  
5     ...  
6     char nums[64] = {  
7         72, 101, 108, 108, 111, 32,  
8         87, 111, 114, 108, 100, 33,  
9         0  
10    };  
11    printf("%s\n",nums);  
12    len = strlen(nums);  
13    for(int i=0; i<len; i++){  
14        printf("%2d %c %3d %02X\n",  
15                i,nums[i],nums[i],nums[i]);  
16    }  
17    return 0;  
18 }
```

>> gcc char_ints.c
>> ./a.out
...
Hello World!
[0] H 72 48
[1] e 101 65
[2] l 108 6C
[3] l 108 6C
[4] o 111 6F
[5] 32 20
[6] W 87 57
[7] o 111 6F
[8] r 114 72
[9] l 108 6C
[10] d 100 64
[11] ! 33 21

Answers: Characters vs Numbers

The Whole Array

```
char nums[64] = {  
    72, 101, 108, 108, 111, 32,  
    87, 111, 114, 108, 100, 33,  
    0  
};
```

Lays out a bit pattern at each spot the array; bit pattern is specified with decimal numbers

```
printf("%s\n", nums);
```

Print the array as though it were “string”: an array of characters that is null terminated

Elements of the Array

```
printf("[%2d] %c %3d %02X\n",  
       i, nums[i], nums[i], nums[i]);
```

Print a single element of the array as

- ▶ %c : a character (ASCII table lookup for the glyph to draw)
- ▶ %3d : a decimal number (padding to width 3)
- ▶ %02X : as a hexadecimal number (with leading 0's if needed and padded with width 2 - *noice!*)

Unicode

- ▶ *World:* Why can't I write
컴퓨터
in my code/web address/email?
- ▶ *America:* ASCII has 128 chars.
Deal with it.
- ▶ *World:* Seriously?
- ▶ *America:* We invented
computers. 'Merica!



- ▶ *World:*
- ▶ *America:* ... Unicode?
- ▶ *World:* But my language takes
more bytes than American.
- ▶ *America:* Deal with it. 'Merica!

- ▶ ASCII Uses 7 bits per char,
limited to 128 characters
- ▶ UTF-8 uses **1-4 bytes per character** to represent **many**
more characters
(1,112,064 *codepoints*)
- ▶ Uses 8th bit in a byte
(high-order bit) to indicate
extension to multiple bytes
- ▶ Requires software to understand
coding convention allowing
broader language support
- ▶ ASCII is a proper subset of
UTF-8 making UTF-8
backwards compatible and
wildly popular

Binary Integer Addition/Subtraction

Adding/subtracting in binary works the same as with decimal EXCEPT that carries occur on values of 2 rather than 10

ADDITION #1

$$\begin{array}{r} 1 \ 11 \quad <\text{-carries} \\ 0100 \ 1010 = 74 \\ + 0101 \ 1001 = 89 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$1010 \ 0011 = 163$$

SUBTRACTION #1

$$\begin{array}{r} ? \quad <\text{-carries} \\ 0111 \ 1001 = 121 \\ - 0001 \ 0011 = 19 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{VVVVVVVVVVVV} \\ \text{VVVVVVVVVVVV} \\ \text{VVVVVVVVVVVV} \end{array}$$

ADDITION #2

$$\begin{array}{r} 1111 \quad 1 \quad <\text{-carries} \\ 0110 \ 1101 = 109 \\ + 0111 \ 1001 = 121 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$1110 \ 0110 = 230$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{VVVVVVVVVVVV} \\ \text{VVVVVVVVVVVV} \\ \text{VVVVVVVVVVVV} \end{array}$$

x12 <-carries

$$\begin{array}{r} 0111 \ 0001 = 119 \\ - 0001 \ 0011 = 19 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$0110 \ 0110 = 102$$

When 0/1 is represented as Low/High Voltage, one can design digital circuits that implement arithmetic

Two's Complement Integers: Representing Negative Values

- ▶ To represent negative integers, must choose a **different** coding system than for positive-only integers
- ▶ The **Two's Complement Encoding** is the most common coding system for signed numbers so we will study it
- ▶ Alternatives exist
 - ▶ Signed magnitude: leading bit indicates pos (0) or neg (1)
 - ▶ One's complement: invert bits to go between positive negative
- ▶ Great advantage of two's complement: **signed and unsigned arithmetic are identical**
- ▶ Hardware folks only need to make one set of units for both unsigned and signed arithmetic

Summary of Two's Complement

TL;DR: *Most significant bit is a negative power of two.*

UNSIGNED BINARY

7654 3210 : position
ABCD EFGH : 8 bits
A: 0/1 * +(2^7) *POS*
B: 0/1 * +(2^6)
C: 0/1 * +(2^5)
...
H: 0/1 * +(2^0)

TWO's COMPLEMENT (signed)

7654 3210 : position
ABCD EFGH : 8-bits
A: 0/1 * -(2^7) *NEG*
B: 0/1 * +(2^6)
C: 0/1 * +(2^5)
...
H: 0/1 * +(2^0)

UNSIGNED BINARY

7654 3210 : position
1000 0000 = +128
1000 0001 = +129
1000 0011 = +131
1111 1111 = +255
0000 0000 = 0
0000 0001 = +1
0000 0101 = +5
0111 1111 = +127

TWO's COMPLEMENT (signed)

7654 3210 : position
1000 0000 = -128
1000 0001 = -127 = -128+1
1000 0011 = -125 = -128+1+2
1111 1111 = -1 = -128+1+2+4+..+64
0000 0000 = 0 [+127]
0000 0001 = +1
0000 0101 = +5
0111 1111 = +127

Two's Complement Notes

Unsigned/Signed Equivalents

Unsigned	1000 0110	= 134
Signed	1000 0110	= -121
	= 134 - 256	
Unsigned	1111 0001	= 241
Signed	1111 0001	= -15
	= 241 - 256	
Unsigned	0011 0011	= 51
Signed	0011 0011	= 51

When/Why X-256?

- ▶ Leading (leftmost) bit is 1
- ▶ Counted as 128 in Unsigned
- ▶ Counts as -128 in Signed
- ▶ Subtract 256 to compensate

Negation in Two's Complement

`int y = -x;`

- ▶ Unary Minus operator
- ▶ **Invert bits, Add 1**
- ▶ Works for both Pos→Neg and Neg→Pos

$\sim 0110\ 1000 \quad +104 : \text{negate}$

1001 0111 inverted
+ 1

1001 1000 = -104

$\sim 1001\ 1000 = -104 : \text{negate}$

0110 0111 = +103 inverted
+ 1

0110 1000 = +104

Exercise: Two's Complement Conversions

Fill in the missing entries in the following table

Bits	Hex	Decimal	
		Unsigned	Signed
1111 1111	A: _____	B: _____	C: _____
1001 0110	0x96	D: _____	E: _____
F: _____	0x3E	G: _____	H: _____
0010 0011	I: _____	35	J: _____
K: _____	L: _____	M: _____	-35

Answers: Two's Complement Conversions

Bits	Hex	Decimal	
		Unsigned	Signed
1111 1111	A: 0xFF	B: 255	C: -1
1001 0110	0x96	D: 150	E: -106
F: 0011 1110	0x3E	G: 62	H: 62
0010 0011	I: 0x23	35	J: 35
K: 1101 1101	L: 0xDD	M: 221	-35

K / L / M: Converting 35 to -35 decimal/bits can be done via
 $(-35+255) \text{ AND/OR via Invert Bits} + 1$

Overflow

- ▶ Sums that exceed the representation of the bits associated with the integral type **overflow**
- ▶ Excess significant bits are **dropped**
- ▶ Addition can result in a sum smaller than the summands, even for two positive numbers (!?)
- ▶ Integer arithmetic in fixed bits is a mathematical **ring**

Examples of Overflow in 8 bits

ADDITION #3 OVERFLOW

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 1111\ 111 \leftarrow \text{carries} \\ 1111\ 1111 = 255 \\ + 0000\ 0001 = \quad 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

ADDITION #4 OVERFLOW

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ \quad\quad\quad 1 \leftarrow \text{carries} \\ 1010\ 1001 = 169 \\ + 1100\ 0001 = 193 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0000\ 0000 = 256 \\ x \text{ drop 9th bit} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 0110\ 1010 = 362 \\ x \text{ drop 9th bit} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$0000\ 0000 = 0$$

$$0110\ 1010 = 106$$

Underflow

- ▶ **Underflow** occurs in unsigned arithmetic when values go below 0 (no longer positive)
- ▶ Pretend that there is an extra significant bit to carry out subtraction
- ▶ Subtracting a positive integer from a positive integer may result in a **larger** positive integer (?!?)
- ▶ Integer arithmetic in fixed bits is a mathematical **ring**

Examples of 8-bit Underflow

SUBTRACTIION #2 UNDERFLOW
?<-carries

$$\begin{array}{r} 0000 \ 0000 = 0 \\ - 0000 \ 0001 = 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

VVVVVVVVVVVVVV

?<-carries

$$\begin{array}{r} 1 \ 0000 \ 0000 = 256 \text{ (pretend)} \\ - 0000 \ 0001 = 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

VVVVVVVVVVVVVV

x 2<-carries

$$\begin{array}{r} 0 \ 1111 \ 1110 = 256 \\ - 0000 \ 0001 = 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

1111 1111 = 255

Overflow and Underflow In C Programs

- ▶ See `over_under_flow.c` for demonstrations in a C program.
- ▶ **No runtime errors** for under/overflow
- ▶ Good for hashing and cryptography
- ▶ Bad for most other applications: system critical operations should use checks for overflow / underflow
- ▶ Textbook mentions the [Ariane Rocket Crash](#) which was due to overflow of an integer converted from a floating point value

The Ariane explosion is an instructive example for several reasons.

- (1) *Software re-use caused the problem subverting the usual wisdom of relying on tested software; hardware changes ALWAYS trump software.*
- (2) *Sometimes computer science IS rocket science*

- ▶ Assembly provides condition codes indicating when overflow occurs but checking in C is tricky and painful¹

¹Many compilers like GCC can generate assembly instructions that will detect overflow and abort programs. See the demo program `overflow_detect.c` and GCCs `-ftrapv` option.

Integer Ops and Speed

- ▶ Along with Addition and Subtraction, **Multiplication and Division** can also be done in binary
- ▶ Algorithms are the same as base 10 but more painful to do by hand
- ▶ This pain is reflected in hardware speed of these operations
- ▶ The **Arithmetic and Logic Unit (ALU)** does integer ops in the machine
- ▶ A **clock** ticks in the machine at some rate like 3Ghz (3 billion times per second)

- ▶ Under ideal circumstances, typical ALU Op speeds are

Operation	Cycles
Addition	1
Logical	1
Shifts	1
Subtraction	1
Multiplication	3
Division	>30

- ▶ Due to disparity, it is worth knowing about **relation** between multiply/divide and **bitwise** operations
- ▶ Compiler often uses such tricks: shift rather than multiply/divide

Mangling Bits Puts Muscle on Your Bones

Below illustrates difference between logical and bitwise operations.

```
int xl = 12 || 10; // truthy (Logical OR)
int xb = 12 | 10; // 14      (Bitwise OR)
int yl = 12 && 10; // truthy (Logical AND)
int yb = 12 & 10; // 8       (Bitwise AND)
int zb = 12 ^ 10; // 6       (Bitwise XOR)
int wl = !12;     // falsey (Logical NOT)
int wb = ~12;     // 3       (Bitwise NOT/INVERT)
```

- ▶ Bitwise ops evaluate on a per-bit level
- ▶ 32 bits for int, 4 bits shown

Bitwise OR	Bitwise AND	Bitwise XOR	Bitwise NOT
1100 = 12	1100 = 12	1100 = 12	
1010 = 10	& 1010 = 10	^ 1010 = 10	~ 1100 = 12
-----	-----	-----	-----
1110 = 14	1000 = 8	0110 = 6	0011 = 3

Bitwise Shifts

- ▶ **Shift** operations move bits within a field of bits

- ▶ Shift operations are

```
x = y << k; // left shift y by k bits, store in x  
x = y >> k; // right shift y by k bits, store in x
```

- ▶ All integral types can use shifts: long, int, short, char
- ▶ **Not applicable** to pointers or floating point
- ▶ Examples in 8 bits

```
//      76543210  
char x = 0b00010111; // 23  
char y = x << 2;      // left shift by 2  
//  y = 0b01011100; // 92  
//  x = 0b00010111; // not changed  
char z = x >> 3;      // right shift by 3  
//  z = 0b00000010; // 2  
//  x = 0b00010111; // not changed  
char n = 0b10000000; // -128, signed  
char s = n >> 4;      // right shift by 4  
//  s = 0b11111000; // -8, sign extension  
//  right shift >> is "arithmetic"
```

Shifty Arithmetic Tricks

- ▶ Shifts with add/subtract can be used instead of multiplication and division
- ▶ Turn on optimization: `gcc -O3 code.c`
- ▶ Compiler automatically does this if it thinks it will save cycles
- ▶ Sometimes programmers should do this but better to convince compiler to do it for you, **comment** if doing manually

Multiplication

```
//      76543210
char x = 0b00001010; // 10
char x2 = x << 1; // 10*2
// x2 = 0b00010100; // 20
char x4 = x << 2; // 10*4
// x4 = 0b00101000; // 40
char x7 = (x << 3)-x; // 10*7
// x7 = (x * 8)-x; // 10*7
// x7 = 0b01000110; // 70
//      76543210
```

Division

```
//      76543210
char y = 0b01101110; // 110
char y2 = y >> 1; // 110/2
// y2 = 0b00110111; // 55
char y4 = y >> 2; // 110/4
// y4 = 0b00011011; // 27
char z = 0b10101100; // -84
char z2 = z >> 2; // -84/4
// z2 = 0b11101011; // -21
//      right shift sign extension
```

Exercise: Checking / Setting Bits

Use a combination of bit shift / bitwise logic operations to...

1. Check if bit i of int x is set (has value 1)
2. Clear bit i (set bit at index i to value 0)

Show C code for this

```
{  
    int x = ...;  
    int i = ...;  
    if( ??? ) { // ith bit of x is set  
        printf("set!\n");  
    }  
  
    i = ...;  
    ???;  
    printf("ith bit of x now cleared to 0\n");  
}
```

Answers: Checking / Setting Bits

1. Check if bit i of int x is set (has value 1)

```
int x = ...;
int mask = 1; // or 0b0001 or 0x01 ...
int shifted = mask << i; // shifted 0b00...010..00
if(x & shifted){           //      x & 0b10...010..01
    ...
}
// -----
//          0b00...010..00
```

2. Clear bit i (set bit at index i to value 0)

```
int x = ...;
int mask = 1; // or 0b0001 or 0x01 ...
int shifted = mask << i; // shifted 0b00...010..00
int inverted = ~shifted; // inverted 0b11...101..11
x = x & inverted;       //      x & 0b10...010..01
...
// -----
//          0b10...000..01
```

Showing Bits

- ▶ printf() capabilities:
 - %d as Decimal
 - %x as Hexadecimal
 - %o as Octal
 - %c as Character
 - ▶ No specifier for binary
 - ▶ Can construct such with bitwise operations
 - ▶ Code pack contains two codes to do this
 - ▶ printbits.c: single args printed as 32 bits
 - ▶ showbits.c: multiple args printed in binary, hex, decimal
- ▶ Showing bits usually involves shifting and bitwise AND &
 - ▶ Example from showbits.c
- ```
#define INT_BITS 32

// print bits for x to screen
void showbits(int x){
 for(int i=INT_BITS-1; i>=0; i--){
 int mask = 1 << i;
 if(mask & x){
 printf("1");
 } else {
 printf("0");
 }
 }
}
```

## Bit Masking

- ▶ Semi-common for functions to accept bit patterns which indicate true/false options
- ▶ Frequently makes use of bit **masks** which are constants associated with specific bits
- ▶ Example: Unix permissions might be...

```
#define S_IRUSR 0b100000000 // User Read
#define S_IWUSR 0b010000000 // User Write
#define S_IXUSR 0b001000000 // User Execute
#define S_IRGRP 0b000100000 // Group Read
...
#define S_IWOTH 0b000000010 // Others Write
#define S_IXOTH 0b000000001 // Others Execute
```

- ▶ Use them to create options to C functions like

```
int permissions = S_IRUSR|S_IWUSR|S_RGRP;
chmod("/home/kauffman/solution.zip",permissions);
```

# Unix Permissions with Octal

- ▶ Octal arises associated with **Unix file permissions**
- ▶ Every file has 3 permissions for 3 entities
- ▶ Permissions are true/false so a single bit will suffice
- ▶ `ls -l`: long list files, shows permissions
- ▶ `chmod 665 somefile.txt`:  
change permissions of  
`somefile.txt` to those  
shown to the right
  - binary      octal  
110110101 = 665
  - `rw-rw-r-x` `somefile.txt`
  - U    G    O
  - S    R    T
  - E    O    H
  - R    U    E
  - P    R
- ▶ `chmod 777 x.txt`: read / write / exec for everyone
- ▶ `chmod` also honors letter versions like `r` and `w`
- ▶ `chmod u+x script.sh #`  
make file executable
  - Readable `chmod` version:  
`chmod u=rw,g=rw,o=rx somefile.txt`

## Endianess: Byte ordering in Memory

- ▶ Single bytes like ASCII characters lay out sequentially in memory in increasing address
- ▶ Multi-byte entities like 4-byte ints require decisions on byte ordering
- ▶ We think of a 32-bit int like this

|          | Most Significant | <----->   | Least Significant |                        |
|----------|------------------|-----------|-------------------|------------------------|
| Binary:  | 0000 0000        | 0000 0000 | 0001 1000         | 1110 1001              |
|          | 0                | 0         | 0                 | 1      8      E      9 |
| Hex :    | 000018E9         |           |                   |                        |
| Decimal: | 6377             |           |                   |                        |

- ▶ There are 2 Options to for ordering multi-byte data in memory
  - ▶ **LittleEndian**: Least Significant byte at low address
  - ▶ **BigEndian**: Most Significant Byte at low address
- ▶ Example: Integer starts at address #1024

|            | Address   |           |           |           |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| LittleEnd: | #1027     | #1026     | #1025     | #1024     |
| Binary:    | 0000 0000 | 0000 0000 | 0001 1000 | 1110 1001 |
|            | 0      0  | 0      0  | 1      8  | E      9  |
| BigEnd:    | #1024     | #1025     | #1026     | #1027     |
|            | Address   |           |           |           |

## Little Endian vs. Big Endian

- ▶ Most modern machines use **LittleEndian** ordering by default
- ▶ Some processor (ARM) support both Little / Big Endian BUT and one is chosen at startup and used until turned off
- ▶ Both Big and Little Endian have (minor) engineering trade-offs
- ▶ At one time debated hotly among hardware folks: a la *Gulliver's Travels* conflicts
- ▶ **Intel Chips** were little endian and have dominated computing for several decades, set the precedent for modern platforms
- ▶ Big endian byte order shows up in **network programming**: sending bytes over the network is done in big endian ordering
- ▶ **Examine** `show_endianness.c` : uses C code to print bytes in order, reveals whether a machine is Little or Big Endian

## Output of show\_endianness.c

```
1 // show_endianness.c: Shows endianness layout of a binary number in
2 // memory. Intel machines and some ARM machines (Apple M1) are little
3 // endian so bytes will print least significant earlier.
4 #include <stdio.h>
5
6 int main(){
7 int bin = 0b00000000000000000000000000000001100011101001; // 6377
8 // | | | | | | | |
9 // 0 0 0 0 1 8 e 9
10 printf("%d\n%08x\n",bin,bin); // show decimal and hex representation of bin
11 char *ptr = (char *) &bin; // pointer to beginning of bin
12 for(int i=0; i<4; i++){ // print bytes of bin from low to high
13 printf("%hx ", ptr[i]); // memory address
14 } // '%hx' : 1-byte char in hex
15 printf("\n"); // '%hx' : 2-byte short in hex
16 return 0; // '%x' : 4-byte int in hex
17 }
```

```
>> gcc show_endianness.c
>> ./a.out
6377
000018e9
e9 18 0 0
```

**Notice:** num prints with value 18e9 but bytes appear in reverse order e9 18 when run on a Little Endian machine: the “littlest” byte appears earliest in memory