

COMP1521 25T2

Week 4 Lecture 1

Integers and Bitwise Operators

Announcements

- **Lab 3** Due: Today midday (2 hours ago 🤖)
- Weekly **Test 3** Due: Thursday 21:00:00.
- **Assignment 1** Due: Week 5 Friday 18:00 (next week)
 - Spec, code, walkthrough video are all available
- See **Help Session** Schedule for assistance
- **Census Date:** Thursday 26th Jun
 - Last day to drop T2 courses without financial liability

Assignment 1

- Watch Video
- Fetch Code
- Run C Code
- For each subset 0-3
 - Write **simplified C** 1 function at a time.
 - Compile and **autotest**
 - **Write MIPS** function
 - **Autotest** MIPS
 - Start next subset
- Follow **style** in supplied .s code
 - including function comments and equivalent C comments.

###	@@@	###	@@@	###	\$\$\$	
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xxx	===	xxx	\$\$\$	xxx	\$\$\$	
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^
|
0/14 steps
>

Today's Lecture

- Integers
- Bitwise Operations



Integers

Why Learn About Integers

- Fundamental topic in computing
 - Understand what you are seeing in mipsy web!
 - Understand limits of types and help you understand and debug code
- Prepare you for the next topic: bitwise operators
- Understand the jokes in these slides



There are 10 types of students

There are 10 types of students

Those that understand binary,
And those that don't

-Andrew Taylor

Numbers

4705

It is equivalent to: $4 \cdot 10^3 + 7 \cdot 10^2 + 0 \cdot 10^1 + 5 \cdot 10^0$
= 4000 + 700 + 0 + 5

Numbers

4705

It is equivalent to: $4 \cdot 10^3 + 7 \cdot 10^2 + 0 \cdot 10^1 + 5 \cdot 10^0$
 $= 4000 + 700 + 0 + 5$

If we assume it is base 10!

Base 10: Decimal

- In Base (or radix) 10 we have 10 digits e.g. 0..9
 - Then to get bigger numbers we start combining the digits e.g. 10
- Place Values

10^3	10^2	10^1	10^0
1000_{10}	100_{10}	10_{10}	1_{10}

- Example:

$$\begin{aligned} 4705_{10} &= 4 * 10^3 + 7 * 10^2 + 0 * 10^1 + 5 * 10^0 \\ &= 4000 + 700 + 0 + 5 \\ &= 4705_{10} \end{aligned}$$

Base 10 was an arbitrary choice

- Possibly exists because we have 10 digits (fingers)
- Ancient Egyptians, Brahmi Numerals, Greek Numerals, Hebrew Numerals, Roman Numerals and Chinese Numerals:
 - All base 10!

Code Demo

[digits.c](#)

What about some other bases?

- Let's think about base 7
(not a very useful base)
- We have 7 digits 0..6
 - Then we start combining the digits
e.g. 10 represents 7_{10}



7^3	7^2	7^1	7^0
343_{10}	49_{10}	7_{10}	1_{10}

- Here, $1216_7 =$

What about some other bases?

- Let's think about base 7
(not a very useful base)
- We have 7 digits 0..6
 - Then we start combining the digits
e.g. 10 represents 7_{10}



7^3	7^2	7^1	7^0
343_{10}	49_{10}	7_{10}	1_{10}

- Here, $1216_7 = 1 * 7^3 + 2 * 7^2 + 1 * 7^1 + 6 * 7^0$
 $= 1 * 343 + 2 * 49 + 1 * 7 + 6 * 1$
 $= 454_{10}$

Base 2: Computers like binary

- In Base (or radix) 2 we have 2 digits -- 0 and 1
 - Easy to represent using “electricity” -- Off and On
 - Then we start combining the digits e.g. 10_2 represents 2_{10}
- Place Values

2^3	2^2	2^1	2^0
8_{10}	4_{10}	2_{10}	1_{10}

$$1011_2 = ?_{10}$$

Base 2: Computers like binary

- In Base (or radix) 2 we have 2 digits -- 0 and 1
 - Easy to represent using “electricity” -- Off and On
 - Then we start combining the digits e.g. 10_2 represents 2_{10}
- Place Values

2^3	2^2	2^1	2^0
8_{10}	4_{10}	2_{10}	1_{10}

$$\begin{aligned}1011_2 &= 1 * 2^3 + 0 * 2^2 + 1 * 2^1 + 1 * 2^0 \\&= 1 * 8 + 0 * 4 + 1 * 2 + 1 * 1 \\&= 11_{10}\end{aligned}$$

More examples

Question: Convert 1101_2 to decimal?

Question: Convert 29_{10} to binary?

More examples

Question: Convert 1101_2 to decimal?

Answer: $1 * 2^3 + 1 * 2^2 + 0 * 2^1 + 1 * 2^0$
 $= 1 * 8 + 1 * 4 + 0 * 2 + 1 * 1$
 $= 13$

Question: Convert 29_{10} to binary?

More examples

Question: Convert 1101_2 to decimal?

Answer: $1 * 2^3 + 1 * 2^2 + 0 * 2^1 + 1 * 2^0$
 $= 1 * 8 + 1 * 4 + 0 * 2 + 1 * 1$
 $= 13$

Question: Convert 29_{10} to binary? 11101

- $29/2 = 14 \text{ R } 1$
- $14/2 = 7 \text{ R } 0$
- $7/2 = 3 \text{ R } 1$
- $3/2 = 1 \text{ R } 1$
- $1/2 = 0 \text{ R } 1$

Binary numbers are hard to read!

- They get very long, very fast
- E.g. $12345678_{10} = 101111000110000101001110_2$

Binary numbers are hard to read!

- They get very long, very fast
- E.g. $12345678_{10} = 101111000110000101001110_2$
- Solution: Write numbers in hexadecimal!
 - More compact than binary
 - Maps more easily to binary than decimal.
 - Bit patterns remain more obvious than in decimal

Base 16: Hexadecimal

- In Base (or radix) 16 we have 16 digits
 - 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A B C D E F
 - Then we start combining the digits e.g. 10 represents 16_{10}
- Place Values

16^3	16^2	16^1	16^0
4096_{10}	256_{10}	16_{10}	1_{10}

- $3AF1_{16} = ?_{10}$

Base 16: Hexadecimal

- In Base (or radix) 16 we have 16 digits
 - 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A B C D E F
 - Then we start combining the digits e.g. 10 represents 16_{10}
- Place Values

16^3	16^2	16^1	16^0
4096_{10}	256_{10}	16_{10}	1_{10}

- $3AF1_{16} = 3 * 16^3 + 10 * 16^2 + 15 * 16^1 + 1 * 16^0$
 $= 15089_{10}$

More hexadecimal examples

Question: Convert $1FF_{16}$ to decimal?

Question: Convert 13_{10} to hexadecimal?

More hexadecimal examples

Question: Convert $1FF_{16}$ to decimal?

Answer: $1 * 16^2 + 15 * 16^1 + 15 * 16^0 = 511_{10}$

Question: Convert 13_{10} to hexadecimal?

More hexadecimal examples

Question: Convert $1FF_{16}$ to decimal?

Answer: $1 * 16^2 + 15 * 16^1 + 15 * 16^0 = 511_{10}$

Question: Convert 13_{10} to hexadecimal?

Answer: D_{16}

Binary -> Hexadecimal

- Binary gets very long very quick
 - e.g. $12345678_{10} = 101111000110000101001110_2$
- Solution: Write numbers in hexadecimal!

16^3	16^2	16^1	16^0
4096_{10}	256_{10}	16_{10}	1_{10}

- **16 == 2⁴**
 - We can separate the bits into groups of 4...

Binary -> Hexadecimal

- $12345678_{10} = 101111000110000101001110_2$
 $= \textcolor{brown}{1011} \textcolor{olive}{1100} \textcolor{teal}{0110} \textcolor{red}{0001} \textcolor{purple}{0100} \textcolor{green}{1110}_2$

Each 4 bit group can be represented by **one** hexadecimal digit!

Base 10	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Base 16	F	E	D	C	B	A	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Base 2	1111	1110	1101	1100	1011	1010	1001	1000	0111	0110	0101	0100	0011	0010	0001	0000

Binary -> Hexadecimal

- $12345678_{10} = 101111000110000101001110_2$
 $= 1011\ 1100\ 0110\ 0001\ 0100\ 1110_2$
 $= \text{B}\ \text{C}\ 6\ 1\ 4\ \text{E}$

Each 4 bit group can be represented by **one** hexadecimal digit!

Base 10	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Base 16	F	E	D	C	B	A	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Base 2	1111	1110	1101	1100	1011	1010	1001	1000	0111	0110	0101	0100	0011	0010	0001	0000

More examples

Binary $01101111_2 =$

Hexadecimal $BAD2_{16} =$

More examples

Binary $01101111_2 = 6F_{16}$

Hexadecimal $BAD2_{16} =$

More examples

Binary $01101111_2 = 6F_{16}$

Hexadecimal $BAD2_{16} = 1011101011010010_2$

Base 8: Octal



- In Base (or radix) 8 we have 8 digits
 - 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 - Then we start combining the digits e.g. 10 represents 8_{10}
- Similar advantages to hexadecimal
 - $8 = 2^3$ so group bits into 3:
 - Example: $72_8 = 111\ 010_2 = 3A_{16} = 58_{10}$

Base 10	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Base 8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Base 2	111	110	101	100	011	010	001	000

Binary, Octal, Hexadecimal Summary

- In **binary**, (base 2), each digit represents **1** bit:
 - 01001000111110101011110010010111₂
- In **octal**, (base 8), each digit represents **3** bits
 - 01 001 000 111 110 101 011 110 010 010 111₂
 - 1 1 0 7 6 5 3 6 2 2 7₈
- In **hexadecimal**, (base 16), each digit represents **4** bits:
 - 0100 1000 1111 1010 1011 1100 1001 0111₂
 - 4 8 F A B C 9 7₁₆

Constants in C and MIPS assembly

- A number beginning with **0x** is hexadecimal
- A number beginning with **0** is octal
- A number beginning with **0b** is binary
- Otherwise, it is decimal

```
printf("%d", 0x2A);      // prints 42
```

```
printf("%d", 052);      // prints 42
```

```
printf("%d", 0b101010); // prints 42
```

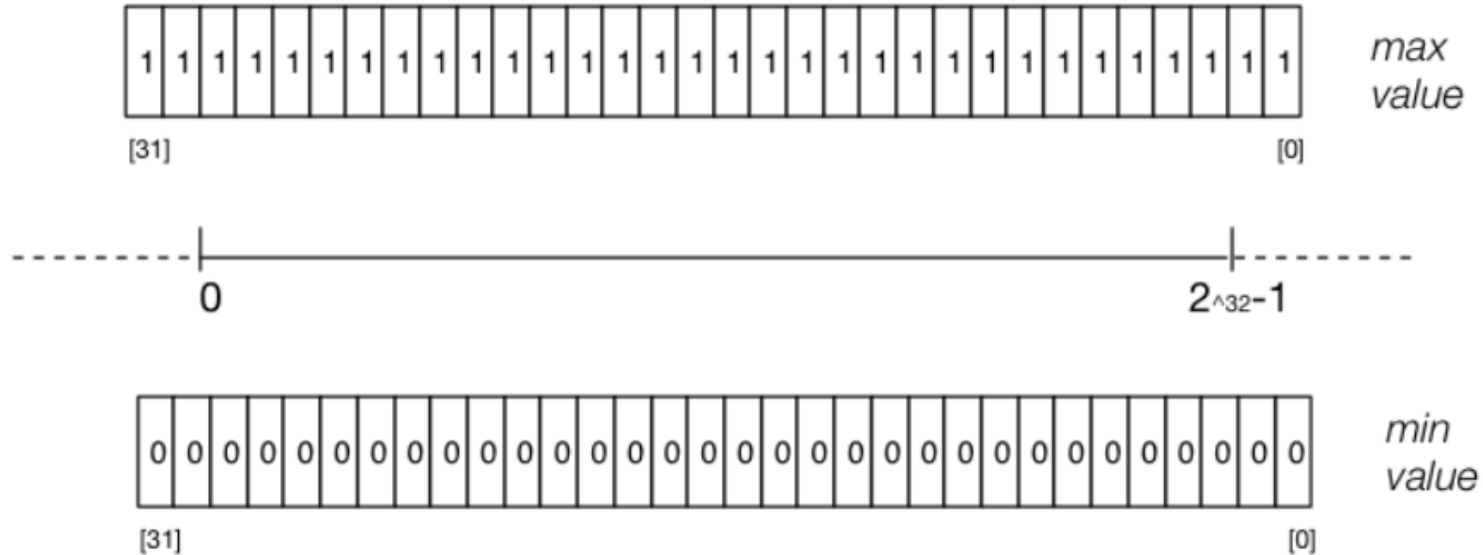
```
printf("%d", 42);       // prints 42
```

Easy Base Conversions in C

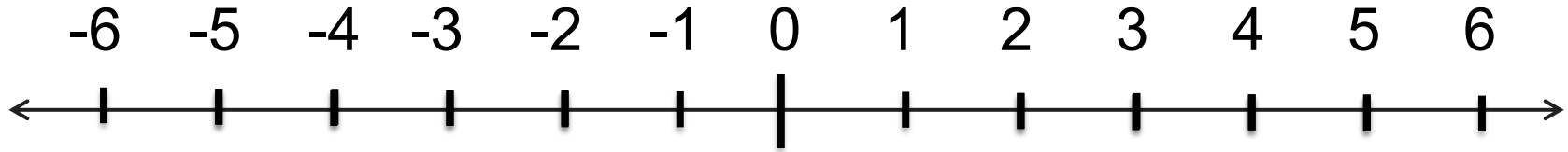
[integer_prefixes.c](#)

Unsigned integers

- In C the `unsigned int` data type is 4 bytes on our system
 - means we can store values from the range $0 \dots 2^{32}-1$

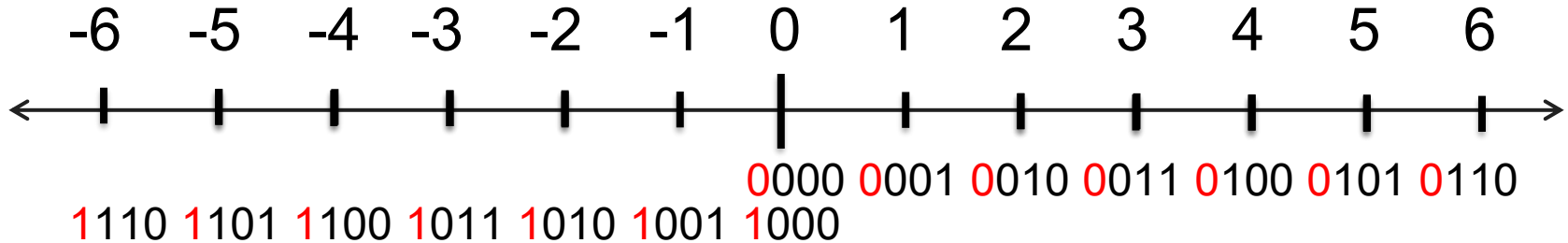


How do we store signed integers?



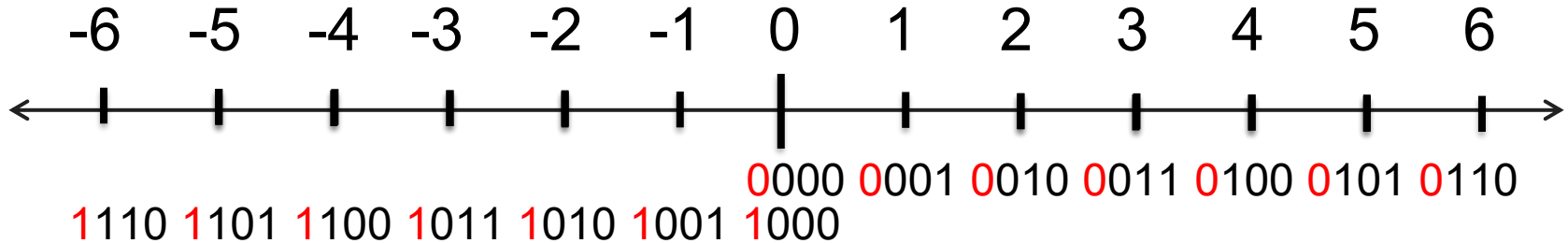
How do we store signed integers?

- What if we use 1 of the bits to represent the sign?



How do we store signed integers?

- What if we use 1 of the bits to represent the sign?



- Okay, but what algorithm for adding/subtracting numbers?

How we really represent negative numbers

4 = 00000100
3 = 00000011
2 = 00000010
1 = 00000001
0 = 00000000
-1 =

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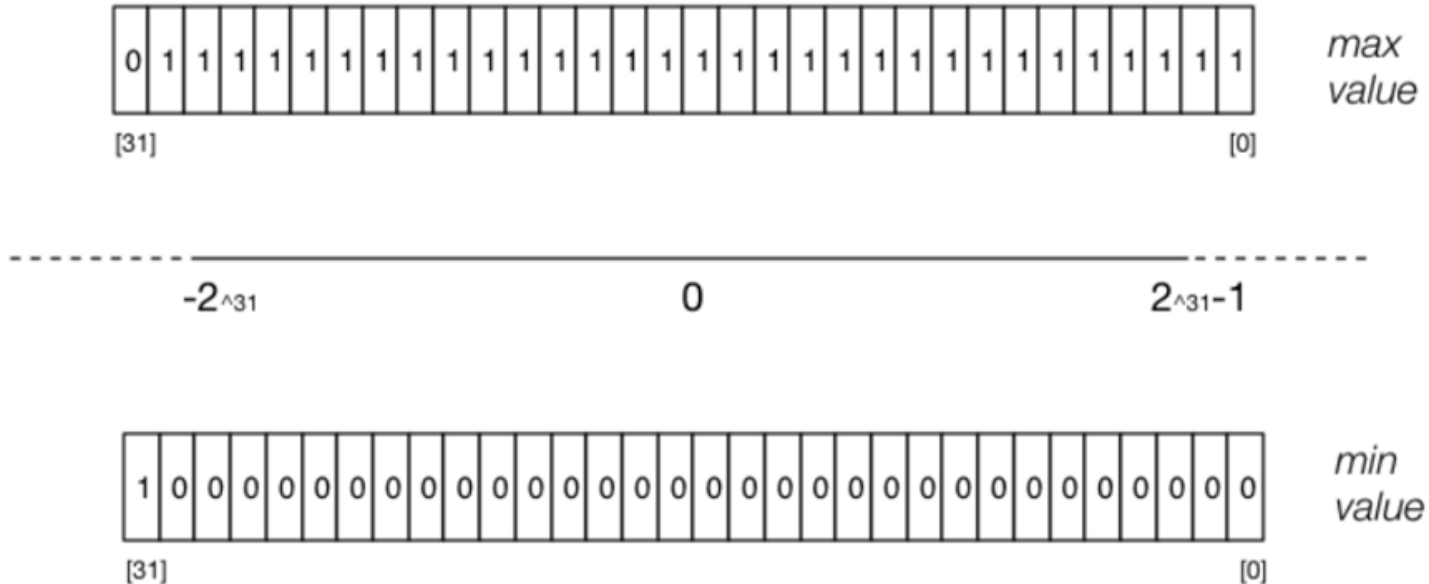
-1 = 11111111

How we really represent negative numbers

4	=	00000100	↖ +1
3	=	00000011	↖ +1
2	=	00000010	↖ +1
1	=	00000001	↖ +1
0	=	00000000	↖ +1
<hr/>			
-1	=	11111111	↖ +1
-2	=	11111110	↖ +1
-3	=	11111101	↖ +1

Signed integers

- In C the `int` data type is 4 bytes on our system
 - we can store values from the range $-2^{31}.. 2^{31}-1$



What do signed binary numbers look like?

- Modern computers use **two's complement** for integers
- Positive integers and zero represented as normal
- Negative integers represented in a way to make maths ✨ easy ✨ for the computer (not humans)
 - For an n -bit binary number, the number $-b$ is $2^n - b$
 - E.g. 8-bit number “-5” is represented as $2^8 - 5 = 1111\ 1011_2$

Two's Complement Tips and Tricks

- A shortcut for doing 2's complement
 - If you are trying to represent -5 in 8 bits
 - Take the +5 representation
 - 0000 0101
 - invert all the bits
 - 1111 1010
 - add 1
 - 1111 1011
- Repeat the process to go from -5 back to 5 again!

Example: 2's Complement Example

- Some simple code to examine 8-bit 2's complement numbers:

```
for (int i = -128; i < 128; i++) {  
    printf("%4d ", i);  
    print_bits(i, 8);  
    printf("\n");  
}
```

- `gcc 8_bit_twos_complement.c print_bits.c -o 8_bit_twos_complement`

Example: Printing all 8-bit 2's complement

```
$ ./8_bit_twos_complement
-128 10000000
-127 10000001
-126 10000010
...
-3 11111101
-2 11111110
-1 11111111
0 00000000
1 00000001
2 00000010
3 00000011
...
125 01111101
126 01111110
127 01111111
```

Example: print_bits_of_int.c

```
$ ./print_bits_of_int
Enter an int: 0
00000000000000000000000000000000
$ ./print_bits_of_int
Enter an int: 1
00000000000000000000000000000001
$ ./print_bits_of_int
Enter an int: -1
11111111111111111111111111111111
$ ./print_bits_of_int
Enter an int: 2147483647
01111111111111111111111111111111
$ ./print_bits_of_int
Enter an int: -2147483648
10000000000000000000000000000000
$
```

Bits and Bytes on cse Servers

- On CSE servers, C types have these sizes
 - `char` = 1 byte = 8 bits
 - 42 is 00101010
 - `short` = 2 bytes = 16 bits,
 - 42 is 00000000000101010
 - `int` = 4 bytes = 32 bits,
 - 42 is 0000000000000000000000000000000101010
 - `double` = 8 bytes = 64 bits,
 - 42 = ?
- above are common sizes but not universal
- `sizeof (int)` might be 2 (bytes) on a small embedded CPU

integer_types.c - exploring integer types

	Type	Bytes	Bits
	char	1	8
	signed char	1	8
	unsigned char	1	8
	short	2	16
	unsigned short	2	16
	int	4	32
	unsigned int	4	32
	long	8	64
	unsigned long	8	64
	long long	8	64
	unsigned long long	8	64

Exploring integer types

Type	Min	Max
char	-128	127
signed char	-128	127
unsigned char	0	255
short	-32768	32767
unsigned short	0	65535
int	-2147483648	2147483647
unsigned int	0	4294967295
long	-9223372036854775808	9223372036854775807
unsigned long	0	18446744073709551615
long long	-9223372036854775808	9223372036854775807
unsigned long long	0	18446744073709551615

stdint.h - guaranteed size integer types

- `#include <stdint.h>` to get below int types (and more) with known sizes
- We use these a lot in COMP1521!

```
                // range of values for type
                //          minimum          maximum
int8_t  i1; //          -128              127
uint8_t i2; //           0              255
int16_t i3; //        -32768             32767
uint16_t i4; //           0             65535
int32_t i5; //    -2147483648      2147483647
uint32_t i6; //           0      4294967295
int64_t i7; // -9223372036854775808  9223372036854775807
uint64_t i8; //           0 18446744073709551615
```

Code Examples

overflow_int.c

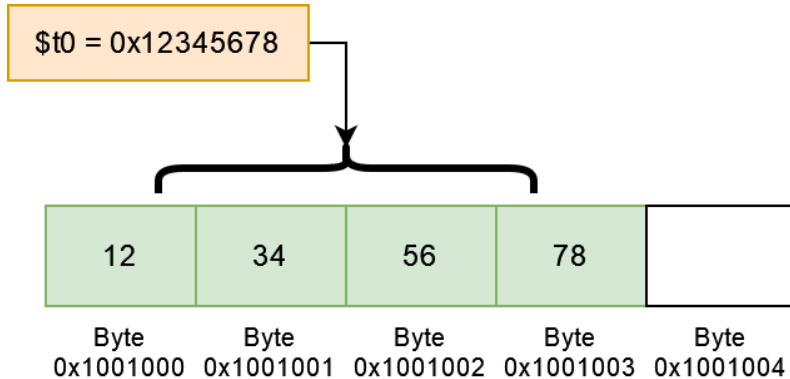
wrap_around_uint.c

char_bug.c

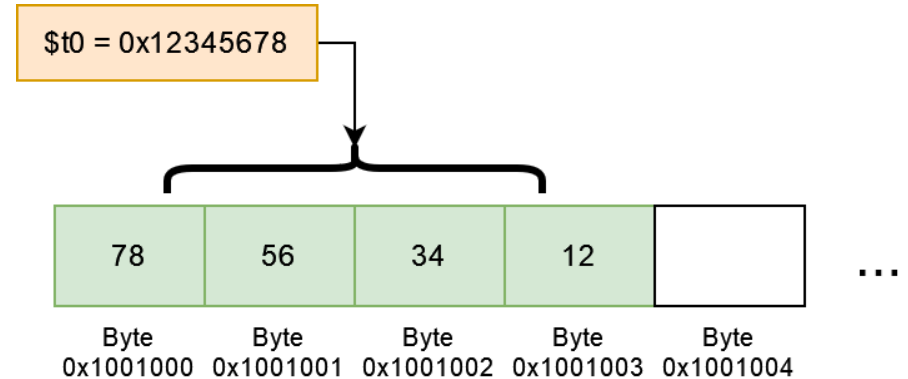
New? concept: Endian-ness

- “What order to put things in” is a hard question to answer
- Two schools of thought:
 - **Big-endian**: MSB at the “low address” - big bytes “first!”
 - **Little-endian**: LSB at the “low address” - little bytes “first!”

BIG:



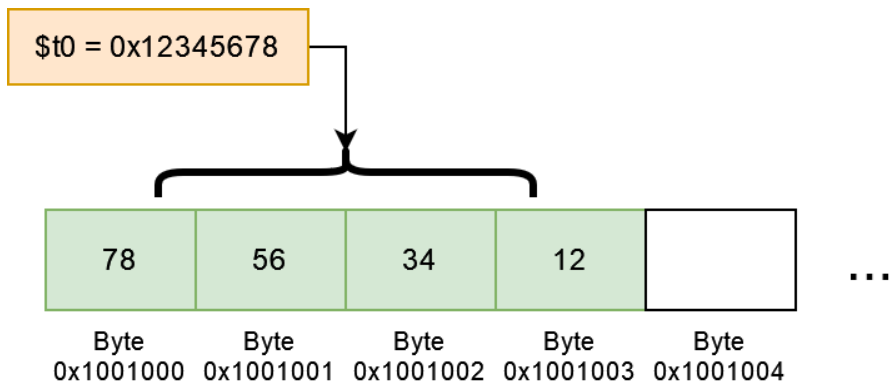
LITTLE:



Code example

- Mipsy-web is **little-endian**

```
.text  
  
main:  
  
    li $t0, 0x12345678  
    sw $t0, my_word  
  
.data  
  
my_word:  
    .space 4
```



Loading bytes, half-words

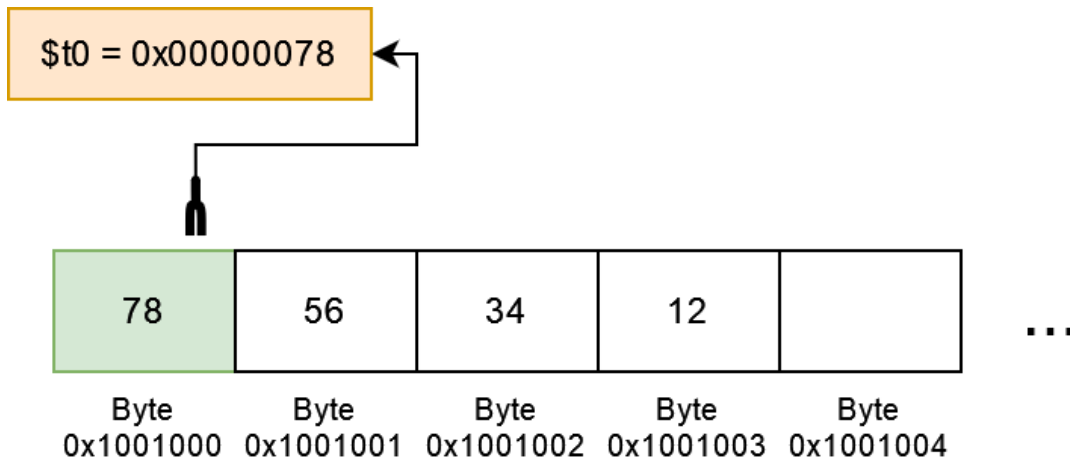
The results of these will depend on endianness:

- **lh/lb** assume the loaded byte/halfword is signed
 - The destination register top bits are set to the sign bit
- **lhu/lbu** for doing the same thing, but unsigned

Loading Examples: lb

```
.text
main:
    lb $t0, my_label

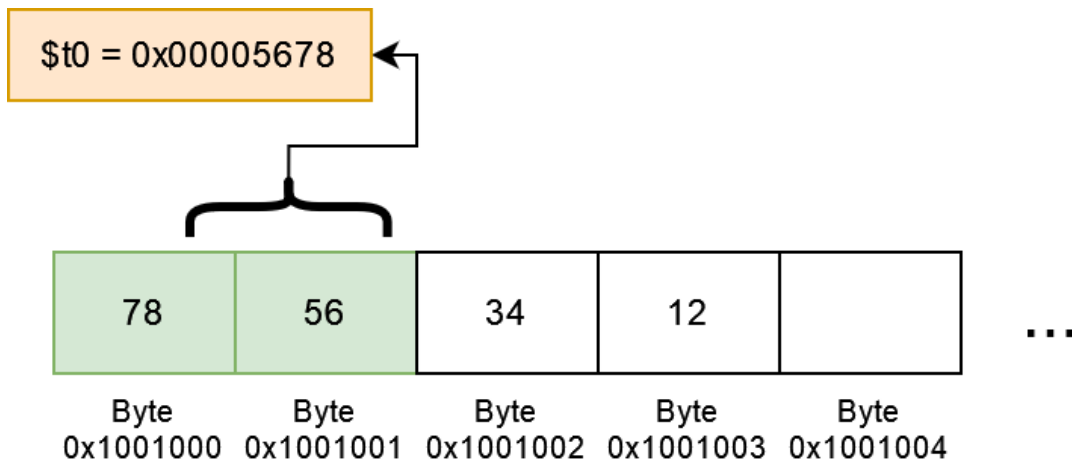
.data
my_label:
    .word 0x12345678
```



Loading Examples: lh

```
.text
main:
    lh $t0, my_label

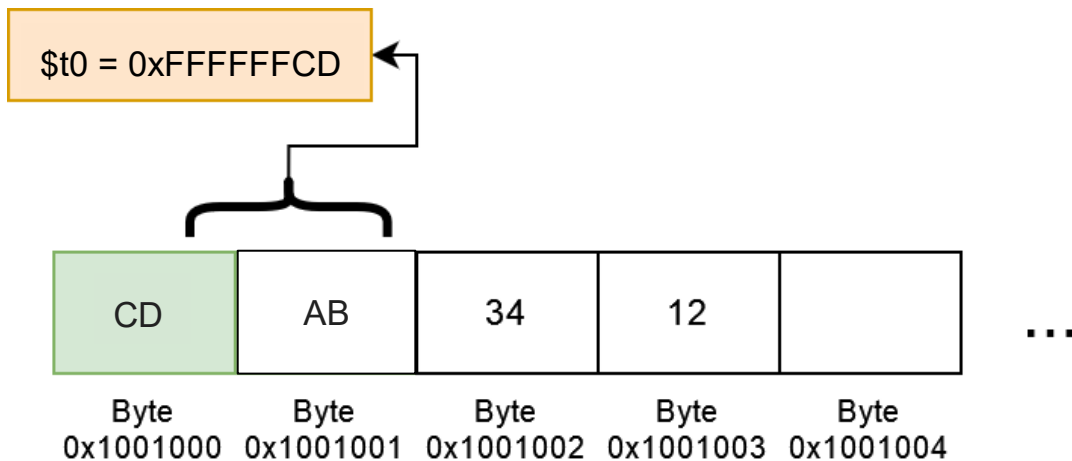
.data
my_label:
    .word 0x12345678
```



Loading Examples Negative: lb

```
.text
main:
    lb $t0, my_label

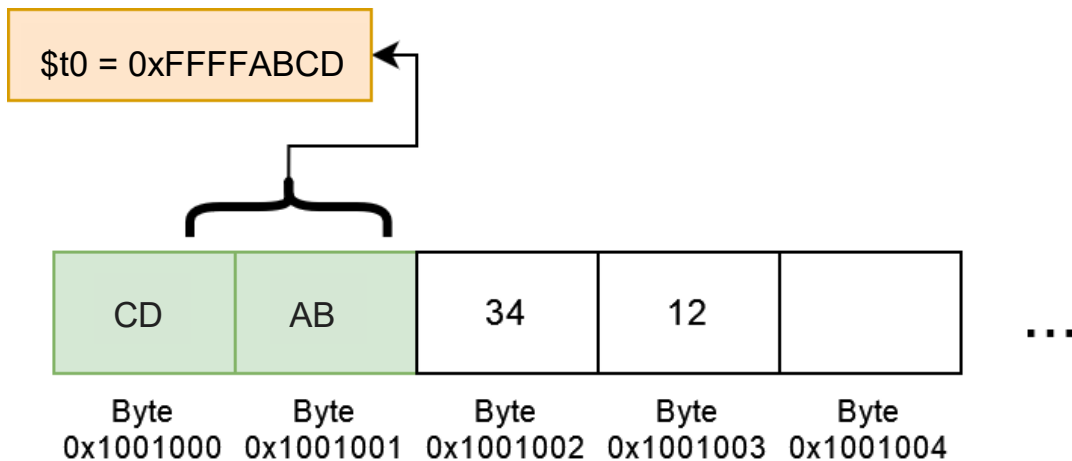
.data
my_label:
    .word 0x1234ABCD
```



Loading Examples Negative: lh

```
.text
main:
    lh $t0, my_label

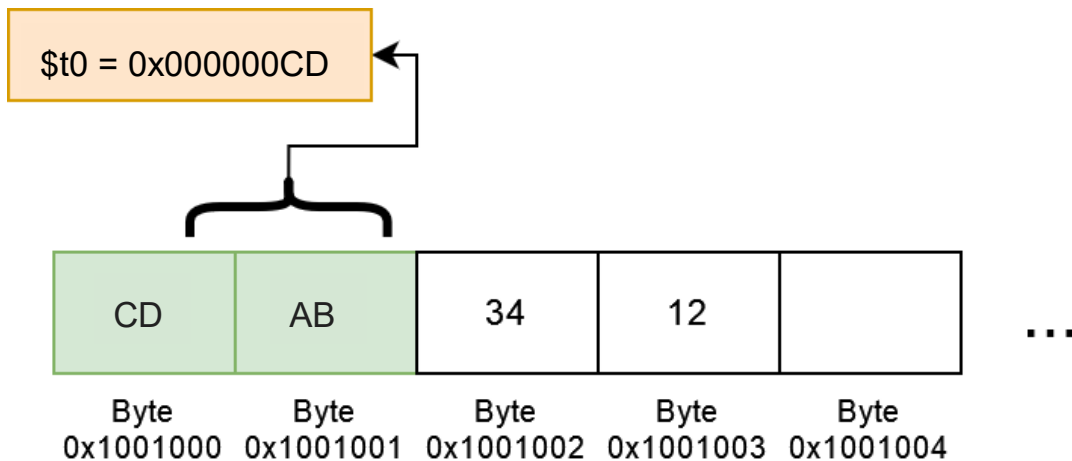
.data
my_label:
    .word 0x1234ABCD
```



Loading Examples: lbu

```
.text
main:
    lbu $t0, my_label

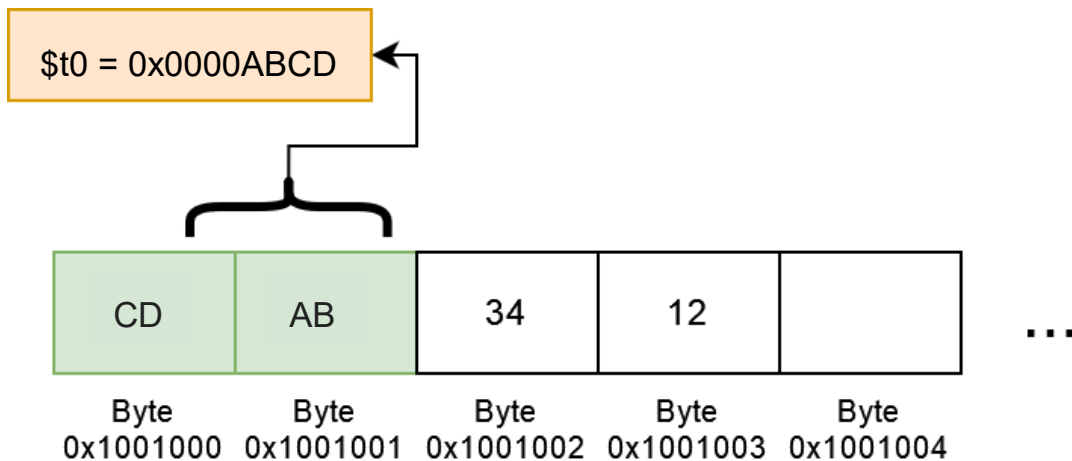
.data
my_label:
    .word 0x1234ABCD
```



Loading Examples Negative: lhu

```
.text
main:
    lhu $t0, my_label

.data
my_label:
    .word 0x1234ABCD
```



Endianness in C

endianness.c

Bitwise Operations

- CPUs provide instructions which implement bitwise operations
 - Provide us ways to manipulating the individual bits of a value.
 - MIPS provides 13 bit manipulation instructions
 - C provides 6 bitwise operators
 - `&` bitwise AND
 - `|` bitwise OR
 - `^` bitwise XOR (eXclusive OR)
 - `~` bitwise NOT
 - `<<` left shift
 - `>>` right shift

Bitwise AND (&)

- takes two values (eg. a & b) and performs a logical AND between pairs of corresponding bits
 - resulting bits are set to 1 if **both** the original bits in that column are 1

Example:

	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1
&	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1
	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1

&	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

Used for eg. checking if a particular bit is set (that is, set to 1)

Checking if a number is odd

The obvious way to check if a number is odd in C:

```
int is_odd(int n) {  
    return n % 2 != 0;  
}
```

Checking if a number is odd

However, an odd value must have a 1 bit in the 1s place:

128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1

We can use bitwise AND to check if the last bit is set .

Checking if a number is odd

```
int is_odd(int n) {  
    return n & 1;  
}
```

If the value is **ODD** (eg 39):

	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1
&	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
<hr/>								
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

If the value is **EVEN** (eg 38):

	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
&	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
<hr/>								
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Bitwise OR (|)

- takes two values (eg. $a \mid b$) and performs a logical OR between pairs of corresponding bits
 - resulting bits are set to 1 if **at least** one of the original bits are 1

Example:

	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1
	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1
<hr/>								
	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1

	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	1

Used for eg. setting a particular bit

What did we learn today?

- Recursive MIPS functions, invalid C
- Integers
- Bitwise & and |
- Next lecture:
 - More bitwise operators

Reach Out

Content Related Questions:

[Forum](#)

Admin related Questions email:

cs1521@cse.unsw.edu.au



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