#### COMP1521 25T1

#### Week 5 Lecture 1

# **Bitwise Operators and Floating Point**

Adapted from Hammond Pearce, Andrew Taylor and John Shepherd's slides

COMP1521 25T1

# Assignment 1 is due Friday 6pm

Week 4: test: due thursday 9pm (MIPS basics, control, arrays)

# Week 6 Flexibility Week

Week 6 (next week) is flexibility week so nothing is due then!

Week 5 lab: due monday midday week 7 Week 5 test: due thursday 9pm week 7 (MIPS strings) Week 6 test: due thursday 9pm week 7 (bitwise operators C)

# **Today's Lecture**

- Bitwise Operators
  - Recap
  - MIPS examples
  - C Coding examples
- Floating Point Representation



#### **Recap Demo: bitwise.c**

\$ dcc bitwise.c print\_bits.c -o bitwise \$ ./bitwise Enter a: 23032 Enter b: 12345 Enter c: 3 a = 0101100111111000 = 0x59f8 = 23032 $b = 0011000000111001 = 0 \times 3039 = 12345$  $\sim a = 1010011000000111 = 0 \times a607 = 42503$  $a \& b = 000100000111000 = 0 \times 1038 = 4152$ a | b = 0111100111111001 = 0x79f9 = 31225  $a \wedge b = 0110100111000001 = 0x69c1 = 27073$ a >> c = 0000101100111111 = 0x0b3f = 2879a << c = 1100111111000000 = 0xcfc0 = 53184

### **Exercise** 1

Given the following declarations:

```
// a signed 8-bit value
    uint8_t x = 0x55;
    uint8_t y = 0xAA;
```

What is the value of each of these expressions?

uint8_t $a = x \& y;$	uint8_t $e = x >> 1;$
uint8_t b = $x \wedge y$ ;	<pre>uint8_t f = y &gt;&gt; 2;</pre>
uint8_t $c = x   y;$	<pre>uint8_t g = y &lt;&lt; 2;</pre>
uint8 + d = xx	

# **MIPS - Bit manipulation instructions**

assembly	meaning	bit pattern
and $r_d$ , $r_s$ , $r_t$	$r_d$ = $r_s$ & $r_t$	000000ssssstttttddddd00000100100
or $r_d$ , $r_s$ , $r_t$	$r_d$ = $r_s  \mathrm{l}  r_t$	000000ssssstttttddddd00000100101
xor $r_d$ , $r_s$ , $r_t$	$r_d$ = $r_s \wedge r_t$	000000ssssstttttddddd00000100110
nor $r_d$ , $r_s$ , $r_t$	$r_d = \sim (r_s \mid r_t)$	000000ssssstttttddddd00000100111
and i $r_t, r_s, I$	$r_t$ = $r_s$ & I	001100ssssstttttIIIIIIIIIIIIIII
ori $r_t, r_s, I$	$r_t$ = $r_s$ l I	001101ssssstttttIIIIIIIIIIIIIII
xori $r_t, r_s, I$	$r_t$ = $r_s$ ^ I	001110ssssstttttIIIIIIIIIIIIIIII
${\rm not} r_d \text{, } r_s$	$r_d$ = ~ $r_s$	pseudo-instruction

# **MIPS - Shift instructions**

assembly	meaning	bit pattern
sllv $r_d$ , $r_t$ , $r_s$	$r_d$ = $r_t \ll r_s$	000000ssssstttttddddd0000000100
$\operatorname{srlv} r_d \text{,} r_t \text{,} r_s$	$r_d$ = $r_t \gg r_s$	000000ssssstttttddddd0000000110
srav $r_d$ , $r_t$ , $r_s$	$r_d$ = $r_t \gg r_s$	000000ssssstttttddddd0000000111
$\mathbf{sll} r_d \text{, } r_t \text{, } \mathbf{I}$	$r_d$ = $r_t \ll {\tt I}$	00000000000tttttdddddIIIII000000
$\operatorname{srl} r_d \text{, } r_t \text{, I}$	$r_d$ = $r_t$ » I	00000000000tttttdddddIIIII000010
$\operatorname{\mathbf{sra}} r_d \text{, } r_t \text{, } \mathbf{I}$	$r_d$ = $r_t$ » I	00000000000tttttdddddIIIII000011

- **srl** and **srlv** shift zeroes into most-significant bit
  - This matches shift in C of unsigned values
- **sra** and **srav** propagate most-significant bit
  - This ensures the sign is maintained

# **MIPS Code Demos**

- odd\_even.s
- mips\_bits.s
- mips\_negative\_shifts.s

# **Code Demos**

- XOr.C
- pokemon.c
- set\_low\_bits0.c
- set\_low\_bits.c
- set\_bits\_in\_range.c
- extract\_bits\_in\_range.c
- bitset.c

# Demo: pokemon.c

\$ dcc pokemon.c print\_bits.c -o pokemon \$ ./pokemon 000001000000000 BUG\_TYPE 000000000000000 POISON\_TYPE 100000000000000 FAIRY\_TYPE 1000010000010000 our\_pokemon type (1)

Poisonous 100101000000000 our\_pokemon type (2)

Scary

### Demo: pokemon.c

#define FIRE\_TYPE 0x0001 #define FIGHTING\_TYPE 0x0002 #define WATER\_TYPE 0x0004 #define FLYING\_TYPE 0x0008 #define POISON TYPE 0x0010 #define ELECTRIC\_TYPE 0x0020 #define GROUND\_TYPE 0x0040 #define PSYCHIC\_TYPE 0x0080 #define ROCK\_TYPE 0x0100 #define ICE TYPE 0x0200 #define BUG\_TYPE 0x0400 #define DRAGON\_TYPE 0x0800 #define GHOST\_TYPE 0x1000 #define DARK\_TYPE 0x2000 #define STEEL TYPE 0x4000 #define FAIRY\_TYPE 0x8000

# Demo: pokemon.c

\$ dcc pokemon.c print\_bits.c -o pokemon \$ ./pokemon 000001000000000 BUG\_TYPE 000000000000000 POISON\_TYPE 100000000000000 FAIRY\_TYPE 1000010000010000 our\_pokemon type (1)

Poisonous 100101000000000 our\_pokemon type (2)

Scary

### **Demo: set\_low\_bits.c**

\$ dcc set\_low\_bits.c print\_bits.c -o set\_low\_bits
\$ ./set\_low\_bits 3

```
The bottom 3 bits of 7 are ones:
000000000000000000000000000000111
$ ./set_low_bits 19
```

```
The bottom 19 bits of 524287 are ones:
0000000000001111111111111111
$ ./set_low_bits 29
```

# Demo: set\_bit\_range.c

\$ dcc set\_bit\_range.c print\_bits.c -o set\_bit\_range \$ ./set\_bit\_range 0 7

Bits 0 to 7 of 255 are ones: 0000000000000000000000000001111111 \$ ./set\_bit\_range 8 15

Bits 8 to 15 of 65280 are ones: 0000000000000000111111100000000 \$ ./set\_bit\_range 8 23

Bits 8 to 23 of 16776960 are ones: 000000001111111111111100000000 \$ ./set\_bit\_range 1 30

Bits 1 to 30 of 2147483646 are ones: 01111111111111111111111111111

## Demo: extract\_bit\_range.c

\$ dcc extract\_bit\_range.c print\_bits.c -o extract\_bit\_range \$ ./extract\_bit\_range 4 7 42

Bits 4 to 7 of 42 are: 0010 \$ ./extract\_bit\_range 10 20 123456789

Value 123456789 in binary is: 00000111010110111100110100010101

Bits 10 to 20 of 123456789 are: 11011110011

#### **Demo: bitset.c**

```
$ dcc bitset.c print_bits.c -o bitset
$ ./bitset
```

Set members can be 0-63, negative number to finish

```
Enter set a: 1 2 4 8 16 32 -1
```

```
Enter set b: 5 4 3 33 -1
```

```
a = {1,2,4,8,16,32}
b = {3,4,5,33}
a union b = {1,2,3,4,5,8,16,32,33}
a intersection b = {4}
cardinality(a) = 6
is_member(42, a) = 0
```

# **IEEE 754 Floating Point Representation**

- The industry standard
  - Used by almost all computers
- Crucial to understand when working with numeric computations
- Understand precision and accuracy limitations
  - Why using them for finance is unwise
  - Why sometimes

■ a + 1 == a

- Why code like
  - if (x == y) is not a good idea

# When your mom calls you by your full name



# **Floating Point Numbers**

- C has 3 floating point types
  - **float** ... typically 32-bit quantity (lower precision, narrower range)
  - **double** ... typically 64-bit quantity (higher precision, wider range)
  - long double ... typically 128-bit quantity (but maybe only 80 bits used)
- Literal floating point values by default are **double**: 3.14159, 1.0/3, 1.0e-9
- Reminder: division of 2 ints gives an int e.g. 1 / 2 == 0

Code demo: double\_output.c

# **Range of Floating Point Types**

How do floating types have such a large range?

float	4 bytes	min=1.17549e-38	max=3.40282e+38
double	8 bytes	min=2.22507e-308	max=1.79769e+308

With the same number of bytes compare:

unsigned int 4 bytes min=0 max= 4294967295 (4.29497e+09) unsigned long 8 bytes min=0 max= (1.84467e+19)

Code demo: Floating\_types.c

# **Fractions in different bases**

The decimal fraction 0.75 means

- $7*10^{-1} + 5*10^{-2} = 0.7 + 0.05 = 0.75$
- or equivalently  $75/10^2 = 75/100 = 0.75$

Similarly  $0.11_2$  means

- $1*2^{-1} + 1*2^{-2} = 0.5 + 0.25 = 0.75$
- or equivalently  $3/2^2 = 3/4 = 0.75$

Similarly 0.C<sub>16</sub> would means

- 12\*16<sup>-1</sup> = 0.75
- or equivalently 12/16<sup>1</sup> = 3/4 = 0.75

Note: We call the . a radix point rather than a decimal point when we are dealing with other bases.

# **Converting fractions to other bases**

- The algorithm to convert a decimal fraction to another base is
  - Take the decimal (fractional) part of the number and multiply it by the base you are converting to.
  - The whole number part of the result becomes the next digit after the radix point in the converted number.
  - Repeat the process with the remaining fractional part.
  - Continue until the fractional part becomes zero or you have enough digits for the desired accuracy.

Note: This process does not always terminate because some fractions have repeating representations in certain bases.

# **Example: Converting Fractions**

For example if we want to convert 0.3125 to base 2

- 0.3125 \* 2 = **0**.625
- 0.625 \* 2 **= 1**.25
- 0.25 \* 2 = **0**.5
- 0.5 \* 2 = **1**.0

Therefore  $0.3125 = 0.0101_2$ 

# **Floating Point Exercise 1:**

Convert the following decimal values into binary

- 12.625
- 0.1

#### **Code Demos**

double\_imprecision.c

# **Floating Point Representation Issues**

Representing floating point numbers with a fixed small number of bits means:

- a finite number of bit patterns
- can only represent a finite subset of reals
  - almost all real values will have no exact representation
  - value of arithmetic operations may be real with no exact representation
- we must use **closest value** which can be exactly represented
  - this approximation introduces an error into our calculations
  - o often, does not matter
  - sometimes ... can be disastrous
    - eg pacemakers, finance

# **Fixed Point Representation**

- A simple trick to represent fractional numbers as integers
  - every value is multiplied by a particular constant and stored as an integer
    - e.g. if constant is 1000 then 56125 represents 56.125
    - we could not represent 3.141592
- Used on small embedded processors without floating point hardware
- Major limitation is range:
  - 16 bits used for integer part and 16 bits for fraction (equivalent to a scale factor of 2<sup>16</sup>)
    - minimum  $2^{-16} \approx 0.000015$
    - maximum  $2^{15} \approx 32768$

# **IEEE Standard: Exponential Representation**

Idea: use scientific notation

• e.g 6.0221515 \* 10<sup>23</sup>

But in binary:

- 10.6875 = 1010.1011
  - $= 1.0101011 * 2^{3}$

Allows a much bigger range of values to be represented than fixed point

- 8 bits for the exponent can represent numbers from 10<sup>-38</sup>.. 10<sup>38</sup>
- 11 bits for the exponent can represent numbers from  $10^{-308}$  ..  $10^{308}$

#### **IEEE 754 Standard**



Note: the fraction part is often called the mantissa

# **IEEE 754 Standard: Sign and Fraction**

Sign bit: 0 for positive, 1 for negative

#### **Fraction:**

We don't want multiple representations of the same number so we **normalise** it

- Use representation with exactly 1 digit in front of the radix point
   (i.e. 1.1001×2<sup>3</sup> rather than 1100.1×2<sup>0</sup> or 11.001×2<sup>2</sup>)
- better to have only one representation (one bit pattern) representing a value
   multiple representations would make arithmetic slower on CPU

Weird hack: the first bit must be a one we don't need to store it

- as we long we have a special representation for zero
- To represent  $1.1001 \times 2^3$  we would store 100100000... for the fraction.

### **IEEE 754 Standard: Exponent**

- represented relative to a bias value *B* 
  - to represent exponent of x, we would store x+B
  - o for floats the **bias** is 127
- e.g. we were representing 1.1001×2<sup>3</sup> we would store (3+127) = 130 = 10000010 for a float
- How bias is calculated:
  - assume an 8-bit exponent, then bias  $B = 2^{8-1}-1 = 127$
  - valid bit patterns for exponent 00000001 .. 11111110 (1..254)
  - exponent values we can represent -126 .. 127

# **IEEE 754 Example**

#### 150.75 = 10010110.11

// normalise fraction, compute exponent

#### = 1.001011011 × 2<sup>7</sup>

// determine sign bit,

// map fraction to 24 bits, (don't store the leading 1)

// map exponent to 8 bits after adding on the bias of 127

where red is sign bit, green is exponent, blue is fraction

Note: *B*=127, e=2<sup>7</sup>, so exponent = 127+7 = 134 = **10000110** 

Check using explain\_float\_representation.c or Floating Point Calculator

# **Exercise 2: Floating Point Conversions**

**Question 1**: Convert the decimal numbers 1 to a floating point number in IEEE 754 single-precision format.

**Question 2**: Convert the following IEEE 754 single-precision floating point numbers to decimal.

0 1000000 11000000000000000000000

#### **IEEE 754 Standard: Special Cases**

Value	Exponent	Fraction	Example
<b>0</b> (+ve or -ve)	all O's	all O's	
inf ( $\infty$ and - $\infty$ )	all 1's	all O's	1.0/0
nan	all 1's	Not all 0's	0.0/0

# IEEE 754 infinity.c

Representation of +- infinity : propagates sensibly through calculations

```
double x = 1.0/0.0;
printf("%lf\n", x); //prints inf
printf("%lf\n", -x); //prints -inf
printf("%lf\n", x - 1); // prints inf
printf("%lf\n", 2 * atan(x)); // prints 3.141593
printf("%d\n", 42 < x); // prints 1 (true)</pre>
printf("%d\n", x == INFINITY); // prints 1 (true)
```

# IEEE 754 nan.c

Representation for invalid results NaN (not a number)

• ensures errors propagates sensibly through calculations

```
double x = 0.0/0.0;
```

```
printf("%lf\n", x); //prints nan
printf("%lf\n", x - 1); // prints nan
printf("%d\n", x == x); // prints 0 (false)
printf("%d\n", isnan(x)); // prints 1 (true)
```

# **Distribution of Floating Point Numbers**



integers ... subset (range) of the mathematical integers

- can represent all integer values in that subset
- each integer is 1 away from the next one and previous one
- all integers are represented accurately

# **Distribution of Floating Point Numbers**



floating point ... subset of the mathematical real numbers

- floating point numbers not evenly distributed
  - numbers closer to 0 have higher precision which is good
  - representations get further apart as values get bigger
  - this works well for most calculations but can cause weird bugs

# **Distribution of Floating Point Numbers**

#### A 64-bit **double** uses 52 bits for the fraction (mantissa).

- Between 2<sup>n</sup> and 2<sup>n+1</sup> there are 2<sup>52</sup> doubles evenly spaced
  - $\circ~$  e.g. in the interval 2<sup>-42</sup> and 2<sup>-43</sup> there are 2<sup>52</sup> doubles
  - $\circ$   $\,$  and in the interval between 1 and 2 there are  $2^{52}$  doubles
  - $\circ$   $\,$  and in the interval between  $2^{42}$  and  $2^{43}$  there are  $2^{52}$  doubles
- near 0.001 doubles are about 0.000000000000000002 apart
- near 1000 doubles are about 0.000000000002 apart
- near 10000000000000 doubles are about 0.25 apart
- above 2<sup>53</sup> doubles are more than 1 apart

## **Code Demos**

double\_disaster.c double\_catastrophe.c explain\_float\_representation.c

# What did we learn today?

- Bitwise Operators
  - Recap
  - MIPS examples
  - C Coding examples
- Floating Point Representation

Next Lecture: File Systems

# **Feedback Please!**

Your feedback is valuable!

If you have any feedback from today's lecture, please follow the link below or use the QR Code.

Please remember to keep your feedback constructive, so I can action it and improve your learning experience.



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