

Computer programming

## Iterative processing. Bitwise operators

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15 October 2013

## Assignment operators

We've used the simple assignment: *lvalue = expression*

*lvalue*: variable; also: array element; pointer dereference

*Compound assignment operators*: += -= \*= /= %=

`x += expr` is a shorthand for `x = x + expr`

also for bitwise assignment operators >> << & ^ |

use them: shorter, but also makes intent of transformation clearer

*Increment/decrement operators* prefix/postfix: ++ --

`++i` increments `i`, expression value is value *after* assignment

`i++` increments `i`, expression value is value *before* assignment

both have same *side effect* (assignment) but different *value*

```
int x=2, y, z; y = x++; /* y=2,x=3 */; z = ++x; // x=4,z=4
```

## Side effects and sequencing points

- The C standard defines *sequence points*, which constrain the evaluation order. Examples of sequence points are (Annex C)
- between evaluating the function designator (function expression) and arguments, and the actual call
  - between evaluating first and second arguments for `&&`, `||`, `,`
  - between evaluating the first operand in `? :` and the second/third

*If a side effect on a scalar object is unsequenced relative to either a different side effect on the same scalar object or a value computation using the value of the same scalar object, the behavior is undefined. If there are multiple allowable orderings of the subexpressions of an expression, the behavior is undefined if such an unsequenced side effect occurs in any of the orderings.*

C standard, 6.5 Expressions

Thus, `i = i++` or `a[i] = i++` are *undefined!*

## Caution with multiple side effects!

Even when order of side effects is well defined, use with caution!

DON'T write: `return i++;`

assignment to `i` is useless, since the function returns  
obscures intent (should it be `return i;` or `return i+1;` ?

DON'T: `c = toupper(c); return c;` DO: `return toupper(c);`

DON'T read multiple characters in an expression:

```
if ((c1 = getchar()) == '*' && ((c2 = getchar()) != '/'))  
    if first comparison fails, second char is not read  
    ⇒ hard to reason about program behavior
```

## The break statement

Exits the *immediately enclosing* switch or loop statement

Used if we don't want to continue the remaining processing

Usually: `if (condition ) break;`

```
#include <ctype.h>
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {           // count words in input
    unsigned nrw = 0;
    while (1) {           // infinite loop, exit with break
        int c;
        while (isspace(c = getchar())); // consume spaces
        if (c == EOF) break; // done
        nrw = nrw + 1; // else: start of word
        while (!isspace(c = getchar()) && c != EOF); // word
    }
    printf("%u\n", nrw);
    return 0;
}
```

## The for statement

```
for (init-clause ; test-expr ; update-expr) init-clause;  
    statement                               while (test-expr) {  
                                              statement  
                                              update-expr;  
                                              }
```

is equivalent\* with:

\* except: `continue` statement, see later

Any of the 3 parts in (...) may be missing, but semicolons stay  
If *test-expr* is absent, it is considered *true* (infinite loop)

Before C99: *init* part could only be an *expression*

Since C99: *init-clause* can also be a *declaration*

scope of declared identifiers is loop body only

⇒ **USE** loop scope for counters, if not needed later  
(scope of identifiers should only be as much as needed)

**WARNING!** The semicolon ; is the *empty statement*  
DO NOT use after closing ) of `for` unless for empty body!

## Counting with for loops

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void)
{
    unsigned n = 5;
    while (n--) // from n-1 to 0: n-- != 0, postdecrement
        printf("loop 1: n = %d\n", n);
    n = 5;      // reinitialize after countdown to 0
    for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) // from 0 to n-1
        printf("loop 2: counter %d\n", i);
    for (int i = 1; i <= n; ++i) // from 1 to n
        printf("loop 3: counter %d\n", i);
    for (int i = n; i > 0; --i) // from n to 1
        printf("loop 4: counter %d\n", i);
    for (int i = n; i--;)      // from n-1 to 0, postdecr.
        printf("loop 5: counter %d\n", i);
    return 0;
}
```

## Counting with for loops

If direction does not matter, this is shortest:

```
for (int i = n; i--;) )
```

also easier to compare to zero

Warning: test expression is computed *every* time

⇒ *avoid needless computation*, e.g.

```
for (int i = 0; i < strlen(s); ++i)
```

If needed, precompute upper bound:

```
for (int i = 0, len = strlen(s); i < len; ++i)
```

(if lucky, compiler may optimize for you, but not always)



## Example: rewrite, starting every word with uppercase

```
#include <ctype.h>
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {
    int c;
    while((c = getchar()) != EOF) {
        if (!isspace(c)) {           // first letter
            putchar(toupper(c));    // print uppercase
            while ((c = getchar()) != EOF) { // still word?
                putchar(c);        // print even if space
                if (isspace(c)) break; // but then exit
            }
        } else putchar(c);
    }
    return 0;
}
```

## The continue statement

jumps to the *end of the loop body* in a while, do or for loop  
i.e. to the *test*, in while and do loops  
and to the *update expression* in a for loop

```
for (int d = 2; ; ++d) { // write prime factors of n
    if (n % d != 0) continue; // not divisible; next d
    int exp = 0;
    do exp++;                // count exp while d is factor
    while ((n /= d) % d == 0);
    printf ("%d^%d", d, exp); // write current factor
    if (n > 1) putchar('*') else break;
}
```

Use sparingly.

can make code clearer, if decision to skip is early, and loop is long  
otherwise, a simple if may be cleaner/clearer.

## The switch statement: example

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void)
{
    int a = 3, b = 4, c, r;
    switch (c = getchar()) {
        case '+': r = a + b; break; // end switch
        case '-': r = a - b; break;
        case 'x': c = '*'; // continue onto next branch
        case '*': r = a * b; break;
        case '/': r = a / b; break;
        default: fputs("Unknown operator\n", stderr);
                return 1;
    }
    printf("Result: %d %c %d = %d\n", a, c, b, r);
    return 0;
}
```

# The switch statement

Used for multiple branches depending on an *integer value*  
can be clearer/more efficient than multiple if ... else

Syntax: `switch ( integer-expression ) statement`  
*statement* is a *block* with multiple statements, some *labeled*:  
`case value: statement`

The integer expression is evaluated.

If the statement has a `case` label with that value, jump to it

Otherwise, if there is a `default`, label, jump to it

Else, do nothing (goes on to next statement after switch)

A statement may have *several* labels (flow jumps to same code)

`case val1: case val2: statement`

Normal statement sequencing applies: flow does does *not stop* at the next case label (it's just a label)

⇒ to exit switch statement, use `break;` statement (*don't forget!*)

## switch vs. if ... else

A multiple `if ... else` statement will do *multiple* tests (until one succeeds)

A `switch` statement may be implemented using a *jump table*: the expression is evaluated and used as index in a table of addresses  
⇒ can be more efficient if range of possible values is limited (also: compiler may limit range of values to 1023, cf. standard)

More importantly: a `switch` may be *easier to read*

But: *be careful* not to forget `break` where needed!

# Writing and testing loops

We should consider:

- what variable changes in each iteration ?

- what is the loop continuation/stopping condition ?

Don't forget update of variable that controls loop  
(otherwise will loop forever)

What do we know on exiting the loop ? The loop condition is *false*.  
we consider this as we reason further about the program

We inspect/check/test the program:

- mentally, running it “pencil and paper” on simple cases

- then with increasingly complex tests, including corner cases

## What use are bitwise operators ?

To access the internal representation of data (e.g., numbers) and represent/encode/process some types of data efficiently

A *set* (of integers): represented by a bit for each possible element (1 = is member; 0 = is not member of set)

⇒ sets of small integers: using an int (`uint32_t`, `uint64_t`)  
(fixed-width integer types defined in `stdint.h`)

Set operations:

intersection = bitwise AND

union = bitwise OR

adding an element: setting the corresponding bit

The *current date* can be represented using bits:

day: 1-31 (5 bits);      month: 1-12 (4 bits)

year: 7 bits suffice for 1900 to 2027

⇒ need operations to extract day/month/year from a 16-bit value (e.g. `uint16_t`)

## Bitwise operators

Can *only* be used for *integer* operands!

- & bitwise AND (1 only if both bits are 1)
- | bitwise OR (1 if at least one of the bits is 1)
- ^ bitwise XOR (1 if *exactly* one of the bits is 1)
- ~ bitwise complement (opposite value:  $0 \leftrightarrow 1$ )
- << left shift with number of bits in second operand  
vacated bits are filled with zeros; leftmost bits are lost
- >> right shift with number of bits in second operand  
vacated bits filled with zero if number is unsigned or nonnegative  
else implementation-dependent (usually repeats sign bit)  
⇒ use only *unsigned* for portable code!

All operators work with *all bits* of operands at the same time  
they *don't change operands*, just give a result (like usual +, \*, etc.)



## Properties of bitwise operators

$n \ll k$  has value  $n \cdot 2^k$  (if no overflow)

$n \gg k$  has value  $n/2^k$  (integer division) for unsigned/nonnegative

$1 \ll k$  has 1 only in bit  $k \Rightarrow$  is  $2^k$  for  $k < 8 * \text{sizeof}(\text{int})$

$\Rightarrow$  use this, *not* `pow` (which is floating-point!)

$\sim(1 \ll k)$  has 0 only in bit  $k$ , rest are 1

0 has all bits 0,  $\sim 0$  has all bits 1 (= -1, since it's a signed int)

$\sim$  preserves signedness, so  $\sim 0u$  is unsigned (`UINT_MAX`)

$\&$  with 1 preserves a bit,  $\&$  with 0 is always 0

$n \& (1 \ll k)$  *tests* (is nonzero) bit  $k$  in  $n$

$n \& \sim(1 \ll k)$  *resets* (makes 0) bit  $k$  in the result

$|$  with 0 preserves a bit,  $|$  with 1 is always 1

$n | (1 \ll k)$  *sets* (to 1) bit  $k$  in the result

$\wedge$  with 0 preserves value,  $\wedge$  with 1 flips value

$n \wedge (1 \ll k)$  *flips* bit  $k$  in result

Again, *none of these have side effects*, they just produce results.

## Creating and working with bit patterns (masks)

& with 1 preserves      & with 0 resets

| with 0 preserves      | with 1 sets

Value given by bits 0-3 of  $n$ :    AND with  $0\dots01111_{(2)}$      $n \& 0xF$

Reset bits 2, 3, 4:    AND with  $\sim 0\dots011100_{(2)}$      $n \&= \sim 0x1C$

Set bits 1-4:    OR with  $11110_{(2)}$      $n |= 0x1E$      $n |= 036$

Flip bits 0-2 of  $n$ :    XOR with  $0\dots0111_{(2)}$      $n \hat{=} 7$

$\Rightarrow$  choose fitting operator and *mask* (easier written in hex/octal)

Integer with all bits 1:     $\sim 0$  (signed) or  $\sim 0u$  (unsigned)

$k$  rightmost bits 0, rest 1:     $\sim 0 \ll k$

$k$  rightmost bits 1, rest 0:     $\sim(\sim 0 \ll k)$

$\sim(\sim 0 \ll k) \ll p$  has  $k$  bits of 1, starting at bit  $p$ , rest 0

$(n \gg p) \& \sim(\sim 0 \ll k)$ :     $n$  shifted  $p$  bits, reset all except last  $k$

$n \& (\sim(\sim 0 \ll k) \ll p)$ :    reset all except  $k$  bits starting at bit  $p$