

# CS100 Lecture 3

Arithmetic Operators (1) and Control Flow

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# Arithmetic operators (1)

# The calculator

Accept input of the form `x op y`, where `x` and `y` are floating-point numbers and `op`  $\in \{ \text{'+'}, \text{'-'}, \text{'*'}, \text{'/'} \}$ . Print the result.

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void) {
    double x, y;
    char op;
    scanf("%lf %c %lf", &x, &op, &y);
    if (op == '+')
        printf("%lf\n", x + y);
    else if (op == '-')
        printf("%lf\n", x - y);
```

```
    else if (op == '*')
        printf("%lf\n", x * y);
    else if (op == '/')
        printf("%lf\n", x / y);
    else
        printf("Invalid operator.\n");
    return 0;
}
```

# Overview of arithmetic operators

Operator	Operator name	Example	Result
<code>+</code>	unary plus	<code>+a</code>	the value of <b>a</b> after promotions
<code>-</code>	unary minus	<code>-a</code>	the negative of <b>a</b>
<code>+</code>	addition	<code>a + b</code>	the addition of <b>a</b> and <b>b</b>
<code>-</code>	subtraction	<code>a - b</code>	the subtraction of <b>b</b> from <b>a</b>
<code>*</code>	product	<code>a * b</code>	the product of <b>a</b> and <b>b</b>
<code>/</code>	division	<code>a / b</code>	the division of <b>a</b> by <b>b</b>
<code>%</code>	remainder	<code>a % b</code>	the remainder of <b>a</b> divided by <b>b</b>
<code>~</code>	bitwise NOT	<code>~a</code>	the bitwise NOT of <b>a</b>
<code>&amp;</code>	bitwise AND	<code>a &amp; b</code>	the bitwise AND of <b>a</b> and <b>b</b>
<code> </code>	bitwise OR	<code>a   b</code>	the bitwise OR of <b>a</b> and <b>b</b>
<code>^</code>	bitwise XOR	<code>a ^ b</code>	the bitwise XOR of <b>a</b> and <b>b</b>
<code>&lt;&lt;</code>	bitwise left shift	<code>a &lt;&lt; b</code>	<b>a</b> left shifted by <b>b</b>
<code>&gt;&gt;</code>	bitwise right shift	<code>a &gt;&gt; b</code>	<b>a</b> right shifted by <b>b</b>

`+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, `%`

- `+` and `-` have two versions: unary (`+a`, `-a`) and binary (`a+b`, `a-b`).
  - The unary `+` / `-` and binary `+` / `-` are **different operators**, although they use the same notation.
- Operator precedence:  
 $\{ \text{unary } +, \text{unary } - \} > \{ *, /, \% \} > \{ \text{binary } +, \text{binary } - \}$   
 $\Rightarrow$  We will talk more about operator precedence later.

## Binary `+`, `-` and `*`, `/`

`a + b`, `a - b`, `a * b`, `a / b`

Before the evaluation of such an expression, the operands (`a`, `b`) will undergo a sequence of **type conversions**.

- The [detailed rules of the conversions](#) are very complex,
  - including *promotions*, conversions between `signed` and `unsigned` types, conversions between integers and floating-point types, etc.
  - We only need to remember some common ones.
- In the end, the operands will be converted to a **same type**, denoted `T`. **The result type is also `T`.**

## Binary `+`, `-` and `*`, `/`

`a + b`, `a - b`, `a * b`, `a / b`

If any one operand is of floating-point type and the other is an integer, **the integer will be implicitly converted to that floating-point type.**

Example:

```
double pi = 3.14;  
int diameter = 20;  
WhatType c = pi * diameter; // What is the type of this result?
```



## Binary `+`, `-` and `*`, `/`

`a + b`, `a - b`, `a * b`, `a / b`

If any one operand is of floating-point type and the other is an integer, **the integer will be implicitly converted to that floating-point type.**

Example:

```
double pi = 3.14;  
int diameter = 20;  
double c = pi * diameter; // 62.8
```

The value of `diameter` is implicitly converted to a value of type `double`. Then, a floating-point multiplication is performed, yielding a result of type `double`.

\* Does this rule make sense?

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The value of `diameter` is implicitly converted to a value of type `double`. Then, a floating-point multiplication is performed, yielding a result of type `double`.

\* Does this rule make sense? - Yes, because  $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ .

## Binary `+`, `-` and `*`, `/`

`a + b`, `a - b`, `a * b`, `a / b`

If any one operand is of floating-point type and the other is an integer, **the integer will be implicitly converted to that floating-point type**, and the result type is that floating-point type.

Similarly, if the operands are of types `int` and `long long`, the `int` value will be implicitly converted to `long long`, and the result type is `long long`.<sup>1</sup>

## Division: $a / b$

Assume  $a$  and  $b$  are of the same type  $T$  (after conversions as mentioned above).

- Then, the result type is also  $T$ .

Two cases:

- If  $T$  is a floating-point type, this is a floating-point division.
- If  $T$  is an integer type, this is an integer division.

## Division: `a / b`

Two cases:

- If `T` is a floating-point type, this is a floating-point division.
  - The result is no surprising.
- If `T` is an integer type, this is an integer division.
  - The result is **truncated towards zero** (since C99 and C++11) <sup>2</sup>.
  - What is the result of `3 / -2`?

Let `a` and `b` be two integers.

- What is the difference between `a / 2` and `a / 2.0`?
- What does `(a + 0.0) / b` mean? What about `1.0 * a / b`?

## Division: `a / b`

If `T` is an integer type, this is an integer division.

- The result is **truncated towards zero** (since C99 and C++11) <sup>2</sup>.
- What is the result of `3 / -2` ?
  - `-1.5` truncated towards zero, which is `-1`.

What is the difference between `a / 2` and `a / 2.0` ?

- `a / 2` yields an integer, while `a / 2.0` yields a `double`.

What does `(a + 0.0) / b` mean? What about `1.0 * a / b` ?

- Both use floating-point division to compute  $\frac{a}{b}$ . The floating-point numbers `0.0` and `1.0` here cause the conversion of the other operands.

Remainder: `a % b`

Example: `15 % 4 == 3` .

`a` and `b` must have integer types.

If `a` is negative, is the result negative? What if `b` is negative? What if both are negative?

## Remainder: `a % b`

Example: `15 % 4 == 3`.

`a` and `b` must have integer types.

~~If `a` is negative, is the result negative? What if `b` is negative? What if both are negative?~~

For any integers `a` and `b`, the following always holds:

$$(a / b) * b + (a \% b) == a$$



# Compound assignment operators

`+=` , `-=` , `*=` , `/=` , `%=`

- `a op= b` is equivalent to `a = a op b` .
- e.g. `x *= 2` is equivalent to `x = x * 2` .
- **[Best practice]** Learn to use these operators, to make your code clear and simple.

## Signed integer overflow

If a **signed integer type** holds a value that is not in the valid range, **overflow** is caused.

Suppose `int` is 32-bit and `long long` is 64-bit.

Do the following computations cause overflow?

```
int ival = 100000; long long llval = ival;  
int result1 = ival * ival;  
long long result2 = ival * ival;  
long long result3 = llval * ival;  
long long result4 = llval * ival * ival;
```

# Signed integer overflow

Suppose `int` is 32-bit and `long long` is 64-bit.

Do the following computations cause overflow?

```
int ival = 100000; long long llval = ival;
int result1 = ival * ival;           // (1) overflow
long long result2 = ival * ival;     // (2) overflow
long long result3 = llval * ival;    // (3) not overflow
long long result4 = llval * ival * ival; // (4) not overflow
```

(1)  $(10^5)^2 = 10^{10} > 2^{31} - 1$ .

(2) The result type of the multiplication `ival * ival` is `int`, which causes overflow. This is not affected by the type of `result2`.

# Signed integer overflow

Suppose `int` is 32-bit and `long long` is 64-bit.

Do the following computations cause overflow?

```
int ival = 100000; long long llval = ival;
int result1 = ival * ival;           // (1) overflow
long long result2 = ival * ival;      // (2) overflow
long long result3 = llval * ival;     // (3) not overflow
long long result4 = llval * ival * ival; // (4) not overflow
```

(3) Since `llval` is of type `long long`, the value of `ival` will be implicitly converted to `long long`, and then the multiplication yields a `long long` value.

(4) `*` is **left-associative**, so the expression `a * b * c` is interpreted as `(a * b) * c`.

⇒ We will talk about associativity in later lectures.

# Undefined behavior

Signed integer overflow is **undefined behavior**: There are no restrictions on the **behavior of the program**. Compilers are not required to diagnose undefined behavior (although many simple situations are diagnosed), and the compiled program is not required to do anything meaningful.

- It may yield some garbage values, or zero, or anything else;
- or, this statement may be removed if the compiler is clever enough;
- or, the program may crash;
- or, any other results.

⇒ More on undefined behaviors in recitations.

## Unsigned integers never overflow

Unsigned integer arithmetic is always performed *modulo*  $2^n$ , where  $n$  is the number of bits in that integer type.

e.g. For `unsigned int`, adding one to  $2^{32} - 1$  gives 0, and subtracting one from 0 gives  $2^{32} - 1$  (assuming `unsigned int` is 32-bit).

# Control flow

