

# C - Basics, Bitwise Operator

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Based on Tiger Wang's slides

# Python programmers



# C programmers



# C is an old programming language

<b>C</b>	<b>Java</b>	<b>Python</b>
1972	1995	2000 (2.0)
Procedure	Object oriented	Procedure & object oriented
Compiled to machine code, runs on bare machine	Compiled to bytecode, runs by another piece of software	Scripting language, interpreted by software
static type	static type	dynamic type
Manual memory management	Automatic memory management with GC	
Tiny standard library	Very Large library	Humongous library

# Why learn C for CSO?

- C is a systems language
  - Language for writing OS and low-level code
  - Systems written in C:
    - Linux, Windows kernel, MacOS kernel
    - MySQL, Postgres
    - Apache webserver, NGIX
    - Java virtual machine, Python interpreter
- Why learning C for CSO?
  - simple, low-level, “close to the hardware”

# "Hello World"

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 int main()
4 {
5     printf("hello, world\n");
6     return 0;
7 }
```

# "Hello World"

```
1 #include <stdio.h> ← Header file
```

```
2
```

```
3 int main()
```

```
4 {
```

```
5     printf("hello, world\n");
```

```
6     return 0;
```

```
7 }
```

Standard Library



```
gcc helloworld.c -o helloworld
```

# Three basic elements

## Variables

- Basic data objects manipulated in a program

## Operator

- What is to be done to them

## Expressions

- Combine the variables and constants to produce new values



# Variables

Declaration:    `int a = 1;`

The diagram illustrates the components of the variable declaration `int a = 1;`. Three arrows point from labels to the corresponding parts of the code: an arrow from *Type* points to `int`, an arrow from *Name* points to `a`, and an arrow from *Initial value* points to `1`.

# Variables

Declaration: `int a;`

*Type* →

← *Name*

If uninitialized,  
variable can have  
any value

Value assignment: `a = 0;`

# Primitive Types

64 bits machine

type	size (bytes)	example
(unsigned) char	1	char c = 'a'
(unsigned) short	2	short s = 12
(unsigned) int	4	int i = 1
(unsigned) long	8	long l = 1
float	4	float f = 1.0
double	8	double d = 1.0
pointer	8	int *x = &i

Old C has no native boolean type. A non-zero integer represents true, a zero integer represents false

C99 has “bool” type, but one needs to include `<stdbool.h>`

# Implicit conversion

```
int main()
{
    int a = -1;
    unsigned int b = 1;

    if (a < b) {
        printf("%d is smaller than %d\n", a, b);
    } else if (a > b) {
        printf("%d is larger than %d\n", a, b);
    }
}
```

```
$gcc test.c          ← No compiler warning!
$./a.out
-1 is larger than 1
```

Compiler converts types to the one with the largest data type  
(e.g. char → unsigned char → int → unsigned int)

# Implicit conversion

```
int main()
{
    int a = -1;
    unsigned int b = 1;

    if (a < b) {
        printf("%d is smaller than %d\n", a, b);
    } else if (a > b) {
        printf("%d is larger than %d\n", a, b);
    }

    return 0;
}
```

-1 is implicitly cast to unsigned int  $(4294967295)_{10}$

# Explicit conversion (casting)

```
int main()
{
    int a = -1;
    unsigned int b = 1;

    if (a < (int) b) {
        printf("%d is smaller than %d\n", a, b);
    } else if (a > (int) b) {
        printf("%d is larger than %d\n", a, b);
    }

    return 0;
}
```

# Operators

Arithmetic	+, -, *, /, %, ++, --
Relational	==, !=, >, <, >=, <=
Logical	&&,   , !
Bitwise	&,  , ^, ~, >>, <<

Arithmetic, Relational and Logical operators are identical to java's

# Bitwise operator &

x	y	x&y
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

This is a  
truth table

Result of 0x69 & 0x55

$$\begin{array}{r} (01101001)_2 \\ \& (01010101)_2 \\ \hline (01000001)_2 \end{array}$$



# Example use of &

- & is often used to mask off bits
  - any bit & 0 = 0
  - any bit & 1 = unchanged

```
int clear_msb(int x) {  
    return x & 0x7fffffff;  
}
```

# Bitwise operator |

x	y	x y
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

Result of 0x69 | 0x55

$$\begin{array}{r} (01101001)_2 \\ | (01010101)_2 \\ \hline (01111101)_2 \end{array}$$

# Example use of |

- | can be used to turn some bits on
  - any bit | 1 = 1
  - any bit | 0 = unchanged

```
int set_msb(int x) {  
    return x | 0x80000000;  
}
```

# Bitwise operator $\sim$

x	$\sim x$
0	1
1	0

result of  $\sim 0x69$

$$\begin{array}{r} \sim (01101001)_2 \\ \hline (10010110)_2 \end{array}$$

# Bitwise operator ^ (XOR)

x	y	x^y
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

result of 0x69^0x55

$$\begin{array}{r} (01101001)_2 \\ \wedge (01010101)_2 \\ \hline (00111100)_2 \end{array}$$

# Bitwise operator <<

$x \ll y$ , shift bit-vector  $x$  left by  $y$  positions

- Throw away bits shifted out on the left
- Fill in 0's on the right

result of  $0x69 \ll 3$

0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0

# Bitwise operator >>

- $x \gg y$ , shift bit-vector  $x$  right by  $y$  positions
  - Throw away bits shifted out on the right
  - (Logical shift) Fill with 0's on left

Logical result of  $0xa9 \gg 3$

1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1
0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1

# Bitwise operator >>

- $x \gg y$ , shift bit-vector  $x$  right by  $y$  positions
  - Throw away bits shifted out on the right
  - (Logical shift) Fill with 0's on the left
  - (Arithmetic shift) Replicate msb on the left

Arithmetic    result of  $0xa9 \gg 3$

	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1
	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1



# Which shift is used in C ?

Arithmetic shift for signed numbers

Logical shifting on unsigned numbers

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    int a = -1;
    unsigned int b = 1;
    printf("%d  %d\n", a>>10, b>>10);
}
```

Result: -1 0

# Which shift is used?

Arithmetic shift for signed numbers

Logical shifting on unsigned numbers

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    int a = -1;
    unsigned int b = 1;
    printf("%d  %d\n", (unsigned int)a>>10,
b>>10);
}
```

Result: 4194303 0

# Example use of shift

int

int

```
unsigned multiply_by_two(unsigned int x)  
{  
    return x << 1;  
}
```

# Example use of shift

int

int

```
unsigned divide_by_two(unsigned int x)  
{  
    return x >> 1;  
}
```

# Example use of shift

```
// clear bit at position pos
// rightmost bit is at 0th pos

int clear_bit_at_pos(int x, int pos)
{
    unsigned int mask = 1 << pos;
    return x & (~mask);
}
```

# Example use of shift

```
// set bit at position pos
// rightmost bit is at 0th pos

int set_bit_at_pos(int x, int pos)
{
    unsigned int mask = 1 << pos;
    return x | mask;
}
```

# C's Control flow

- Same as Java
- conditional:
  - if ... else if... else
  - switch
- loops: while, for
  - continue
  - break

# goto statements allow jump anywhere

goto *label*

```
for(...) {  
    for(...) {  
        for(...) {  
            goto error  
        }  
    }  
}
```

```
error:  
    code handling error
```



# Avoid goto's whenever possible

## Edgar Dijkstra: Go To Statement Considered Harmful

### Go To Statement Considered Harmful

**Key Words and Phrases:** go to statement, jump instruction, branch instruction, conditional clause, alternative clause, repetitive clause, program intelligibility, program sequencing

**CR Categories:** 4.22, 5.23, 5.24

#### EDITOR:

For a number of years I have been familiar with the observation that the quality of programmers is a decreasing function of the density of **go to** statements in the programs they produce. More recently I discovered why the use of the **go to** statement has such disastrous effects, and I became convinced that the **go to** statement should be abolished from all "higher level" programming languages (i.e. everything except, perhaps, plain machine code). At that time I did not attach too much importance to this discovery; I now submit my considerations for publication because in very recent discussions in which the subject turned up, I have been urged to do so.

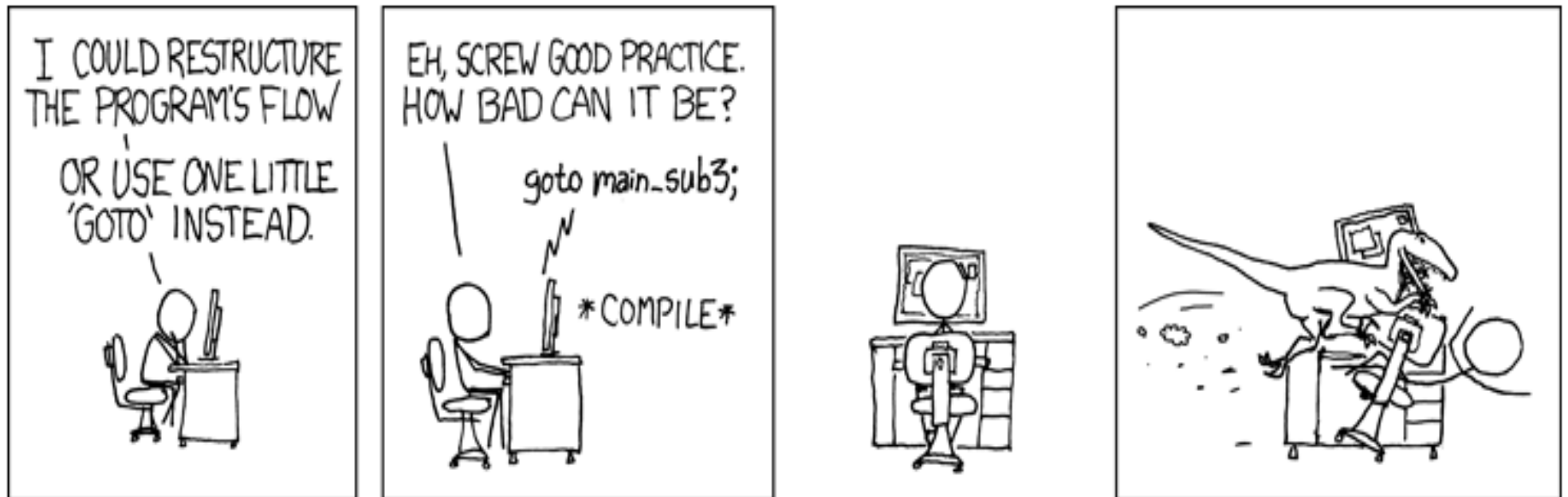
My first remark is that, although the programmer's activity ends when he has constructed a correct program, the process taking place under control of his program is the true subject matter of his activity, for it is this process that has to accomplish the desired effect; it is this process that in its dynamic behavior has to satisfy the desired specifications. Yet, once the program has been made, the "making" of the corresponding process is dele-

dynamic progress is only characterized when we also give to which call of the procedure we refer. With the inclusion of procedures we can characterize the progress of the process via a sequence of textual indices, the length of this sequence being equal to the dynamic depth of procedure calling.

Let us now consider repetition clauses (like, **while B repeat A** or **repeat A until B**). Logically speaking, such clauses are now superfluous, because we can express repetition with the aid of recursive procedures. For reasons of realism I don't wish to exclude them: on the one hand, repetition clauses can be implemented quite comfortably with present day finite equipment; on the other hand, the reasoning pattern known as "induction" makes us well equipped to retain our intellectual grasp on the processes generated by repetition clauses. With the inclusion of the repetition clauses textual indices are no longer sufficient to describe the dynamic progress of the process. With each entry into a repetition clause, however, we can associate a so-called "dynamic index," inexorably counting the ordinal number of the corresponding current repetition. As repetition clauses (just as procedure calls) may be applied nestedly, we find that now the progress of the process can always be uniquely characterized by a (mixed) sequence of textual and/or dynamic indices.

The main point is that the values of these indices are outside programmer's control; they are generated (either by the write-up of his program or by the dynamic evolution of the process) whether

# Avoid goto's whenever possible



# Exercises

Given a number, write a function to decide if it is even?

```
bool isEven(int n) {  
  
}
```

# Exercises

Given a number, write a function to decide if it is even?

```
bool isEven(int n) {  
    return (n & 0x1) == 0;  
}
```

# Exercises

Given a number, write a function to decide if it is even?

```
bool isEven(int n) {  
    return (n % 2) == 0;  
}
```

# Exercises

Given a number, write a function to decide if it is a power of two?

```
bool isPowerOfTwo(unsigned int n) {  
  
}
```

# Exercises

Given a number, write a function to decide if it is a power of two?

```
bool isPowerOfTwo(unsigned int n) {  
    if (n==0) return false;  
    while (n > 1) {  
        if (n % 2) // (n%2)!=0  
            return false;  
        n = n >> 1;  
    }  
    return true;  
}
```

# Exercises

Given a number, write a function to decide if it is a power of two?

```
bool isPowerOfTwo(unsigned int n) {  
    return (n & (n-1)) == 0;  
    // n&(n-1) clears rightmost bit-of-1 in n  
}
```



# Exercises

Given a number, write a function to decide if it is a power of two?

```
bool isPowerOfTwo(unsigned int n) {  
    return n != 0 && (n & (n-1)) == 0;  
}
```

# Exercises

Count the number of ones in the binary representation of the given number ?

( $n > 0$ )

```
int count_one(int n) {  
  
  
  
  
  
  
}
```

# Exercises

Count the number of ones in the binary representation of the given number ?

( $n > 0$ )

```
int count_one(int n) {  
    int count = 0;  
    while (n != 0 ) {  
        count += (n % 2);  
        n = (unsigned int)n>>1;  
    }  
    return count;  
}
```

# Exercises

Count the number of ones in the binary representation of the given number ?

```
bool count_one(int n) {  
  
}
```

A trick – clear the rightmost bit-of-1:  $n \& (n - 1)$

# Exercises

Count the number of ones in the binary representation of the given number ?

```
int count_one(int n) {  
    int count = 0;  
    while(n != 0) {  
        n = n&(n-1);  
        count++;  
    }  
    return count;  
}
```