

BIT TWIDDLING; THE C++STRING CLASS

Logical Operators

- These familiar operators (&&, ||, !) are called logical operators
- They operate on *entire* expressions
- So a || b is going to be true only if a is true, or b is true
- ... aka, when we evaluate **a** and **b**, at least one of them comes out as non-zero

Son of Logical Operators

- The logical and/or/not operators operate on the *entire value* at once all of **a**, or all of **b**
- A given value is made up of 32 bit (mostly)
- Sometimes we want to do things with individual bits!
- We can do this with a different set of operators called **bitwise operators**



Writing in Binary

- For this lecture we're going to mostly stick with integers unsigned integers in particular
- In memory, each integer is made up like this:



- There are 32-bits (16 in this picture) and we usually write them right-to-left
- This is how we write base-10 numbers too, if you think about it least significant # goes last

Bitwise Ops

 There are unary bitwise operators (one argument) and binary bitwise arguments (two arguments)



- The bitwise versions operate on the corresponding bits of each of their arguments)
- So for **a & b**, the 0th bit of **a** is *and*-ed with the 0th bit of **b**, and so on

Son of Bitwise

- Bitwise AND (&): resulting bit is true only if
 both input bits are true
- Bitwise OR (): resulting bit is true if **either** of the input bits are true
- Bitwise XOR (^): resulting bit is true if
 exactly one of input bit is true
- Unary Bitwise NOT (~): flips each bit



Bitwise And-ing

Example: **a & b**

a val:	0110	1001	0100	0011
	15 14 13 12	11 10 9 8	7654	3 2 1 0

b val: 1100 0101 0110 1000

result:

0100	0001	0100	0000
15 14 13 12	11 10 9 8	7 6 5 4	3 2 1 0

Why Bother?

- This stuff is used quite often in low-level programming
- One use often seen in *high-level* programming, however:
- A boolean value is either true or false, which can be represented by a single bit
- So we can cram 32 boolean values into a single 32-bit integer!

Specifying Flags

constant name	value	
ios::in	I	
ios::out	2	
ios::app	4	
ios::ate	8	
ios::nocreate	16	
ios::noreplace	32	
ios::trunc	64	
ios::binary	128	

- This is very common: each potential option is often called a **flag**; we can combine multiple flags together into a single integer
- These a few of the open mode flags; how could we combine a few of them together?
- Why do the values need to be powers of 2?

ios::out	0000	0000	0000	0010
	15 14 13 12	11 10 9 8	7654	3 2 1 0
ios::nocreate	0000	0000	0001	0000
	15 14 13 12	11 10 9 8	7 6 5 4	3 2 1 0
ios::trunc	0000	0000	0100	0000
	15 14 13 12	11 10 9 8	7 6 5 4	3 2 1 0
	ios::out	ios::noc	reate io	s::trunc
	0000	0000	0101	0010
	15 14 13 12	11 10 9 8	7 6 5 4	3 2 1 0

- In a power-of-2 constant, only a single bit will be "on"
- So we can combine many of them together without "interfering" with other constants

Getting 'em Out

- Now we know how to put a bunch of constants in to a bitmask - how do we get them out?
- Given an integer **options**, how do we tell if the ios::trunc flag is set?
- How about ios::binary?



options	0000	0000	0101	0010	
	15 14 13 12	11 10 9 8	7654	3 2 1 0	
ios::trunc	0000	0000	0100	0000	
	15 14 13 12	11 10 9 8	7654	3 2 1 0	
ios::binary	0000	0000	1000	0000	
	15 14 13 12	11 10 9 8	7 6 5 4	3 2 1 0	
	r	esults:			
options &	0000	0000	0100	0000	= 64
ios:: trunc	15 14 13 12	11 10 9 8	7654	3210	
options &	0000	0000	0000	0000	= 0
ios::binary	15 14 13 12	11 10 9 8	7 6 5 4	3 2 1 0	-

- Once we've **&**-ed the **options** with the constant we're checking, the rest is easy
- If none of the bits matched (aka, the ios::trunc bit was not set in options) the result will be zero
- ... otherwise (if the bit was set) it'll be nonzero
- So we can check the whole thing with a simple **if** statement:

```
if( options & ios::trunc )
    // ... ios::trunc was set!
```

be careful here... what happens if you accidentally use **&&**?



- We use the >> and <
 operators all the time, for iostreams (cin, cout, etc)
- ... but that's not what these operators were *meant* for!
- The iostream library turns them into stream operators by overloading them...
- ... but in C (and therefore in C++) these are the **bitshift operators**.

More Shifting

- There are two bitshift operators:
 - Shift left: << (shifts bits to the left)
 - Shift right: >> (shifts bits to the right)
- These look like:
 - x << n
 - x >> n
 - ... where x and n must be integer variables



Left-Shifting

Take a look at the following input:



We can shift by any number of bits, but let's shift left by 4 bits. We get the following results:



The bits "fall off" the high end of the integer, and the empty spaces on the low end get filled with zeros

An Interesting Effect...

0 0 0 0 7 6 5 4	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \\ 3 \ 2 \ 1 \ 0 \end{array} = 4 \\ < by \ bit \\ \end{array}$	0 0 0 0 7 6 5 4	1 0 0 0 0 3 2 1 0	= 8
0 0 0 0 7 6 5 4	$\frac{1010}{3 \ 2 \ 1 \ 0} = 10$	0 0 1 7 6 5 4	0 1 0 0 3 2 1 0	= 20
0 0 0 0 7 6 5 4	$\frac{1010}{3 \ 2 \ 1 \ 0} = 10$ < by 3 bits	0 1 0 1 7 6 5 4	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	= 80

... see what's going on here?

Left Shifting

When you left shift by **n** bits, you are actually multiplying by 2

• q << 3 = q * 8

- We've been talking mostly about *unsigned* integers, but this works for signed integers too
- Shift too far, though, and you get overflow a number bigger than an int can hold - and therefore the wrong answer
- Shifts and bitwise ops are very efficient

Right Shifting

- When you **right** shift by **n** bits, you are actually dividing by 2ⁿ
 - q >> I = q / 2

• q >> 4 = q / 16

- This is all *integer* division, so the result will just be the quotient no remainder!
- This works for unsigned integers signed integers are much more unpredictable (depends on how the compiler handles it)

- One thing to remember: just like a+b, bitwise/shift operations don't change anything unless you save the result!
- The result of **a+b** needs to be assigned to something to have an effect



- Similarly, **a&b** or **a^b**, etc. does nothing unless you save the result
- A tricksy example:

unsigned u = 15; u << 3;



C++ Strings

- The C++ string class encapsulates (duh) a string
- These tend to be much easier to work with than C-style strings
- Also: no concerns about about length; C++ strings resize themselves as required
- Also very fast to pass by value: they use a technique called **copy on write** in which the data buffer isn't copied until it absolutely has to be

Declaring a string

- First, #include <string>
- string is part of the std namespace, so using namespace std will give you access
- Or you can use the std:: prefix:

std::string myString = "greg was here";

std::string anotherString("yep, still here");

String Input

 operator>> has been overloaded for the string class, so you can use them with an istream:

```
string myString;
// reads in a single word
cin >> myString;
// reads in an entire line
getline(cin, my_string, '\n');
```



operator+

• The + and += operators are defined for strings, for easy concatenation:



<pre>string one = "pointers ";</pre>
<pre>string two = "are fun!";</pre>
<pre>string three = one + two;</pre>
three += " hooray!"
<pre>cout << "hey! " + three << endl;</pre>

Notice that this also works for regular C-style strings as well.

Comparisons

- The string class overloads all the comparison operators - no more strcmp()!
- Again, this is a lexicographic (dictionaryorder) comparison

```
string apple("apple");
string banana("banana");
if( apple == banana )
    cout << "apple == banana";
else if( apple > banana )
    cout << "apple > banana";
else
    cout << "apple < banana";</pre>
```

Individual elements

- You can get a string's length using the length or size methods
- ... and access individual characters using square brackets (the string has overloaded operator[])



```
for( int i = 0; i < myStr.length(); i++ )
{
    cout << myStr[i] << endl;
}</pre>
```



Iterating Through a String

```
for( int i = 0; i < myStr.length(); i++ )
{
    cout << myStr[i];
}</pre>
```

- This is the safe way to do things...
- We can't use the usual C-string tricks because string objects are **not** guaranteed to be NULLterminated



Iterating Through a String

 ... or, since a string is actually an STL container that contains a bunch of **char**s, we can use STL iterators:

```
string::iterator iter;
for( iter = myStr.begin(); iter != myStr.end(); iter++ )
{
    cout << *iter;
}
```



 One thing to note: iterators are often invalidated when you change the string, so be cautious using them after you do

Searching

- **find** and **rfind** search for a substring; **find** starts from the left, **rfind** starts from the right
- These return a size_type, which is basically an unsigned int - tells you where the substring is located with the string
- Returns **string::npos** upon failure
- Second (optional) parameter is where to start looking

```
string example("C and C++ are fun!");
cout << example.find("C") << endl;
cout << example.find("C", 1) << endl;</pre>
```



Erasing From A String

- the erase() method removes chunks from a string
- First parameter is where to start erasing...



 Second (optional) parameter is how many characters to erase; if omitted the rest of the string will be erased

```
string example("I will not miss C++ class!");
example.erase( 7, 4 );
cout << example << endl;</pre>
```

Inserting Into a String

• The **insert** method inserts new characters into an existing string



- First parameter: where you want to put the new characters
- Second parameter: the characters to insert

```
string example( "I don't like pointers!" );
example.erase( 2, 10 );
example.insert( 2, "couldn't live without" );
cout << example << endl;</pre>
```

Retrieving a char*

- Sometimes you need to convert a string into a C-style character array...
- To call a function that can't deal with C++ strings maybe
- You do this with the c_str method, which makes sure the string is NULL-terminated and returns a pointer to the data

string example("I'm already studying for the final!"); cout << strlen(example.c_str()) << endl;</pre>