C - Basics, Bitwise Operator

Jinyang Li

Lesson plan

- Overview
- C program organization
- Bitwise operators
- Control flow

C is an old programming language

C (1972)



Java (1995) Python (2.0, 2000)



C is an old programming language

| С | Java | Python |
|---|---|---|
| 1972 | 1995 | 2000 (2.0) |
| Procedure | Object oriented | Procedure & object oriented |
| Compiled to machine code, runs directly on hardware | 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
 - System software written in C:

- Why learning C for CSO?
 - simple, low-level, "close to the hardware"

The simplest C program: "Hello World"

If -o is not given, output executable file is a.out

Run

./hello

C program with multiple files: naïve organization

```
int sum(int x, int y)
{
   return x+y;
}
```

sum.c

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <assert.h>

Void test_sum()
{
   int r = sum(1,1);
   assert(r == 2);
}

int main()
{
   test_sum();
}
```

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

Gompile:

gcc sum.c test.c -o test

gcc sum.c main.c

Run:

Sum.c compiled twice.
Wasteful

C program with multiple files: *.h vs *.c files

```
int sum(int x, int y)
{
   return x+y;
}
```

sum.c

```
int sum(int x, int y);
sum.h
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <assert.h>

#include "sum.h"

void test_sum()
{
  int r = sum(1,1);
  assert(r == 2);
}

int main()
{
```

test sum();

Equivalent to "importing" a package

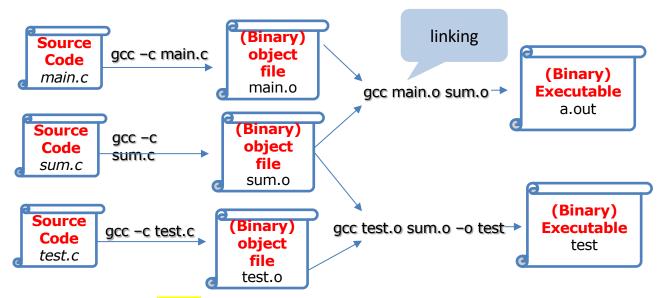
```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "sum.h"

int main()
{
   printf("sum=%d\n", sum(-1,1));
}
```

main.c

test.c

Common compilation sequence



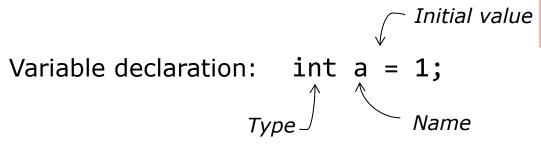
C project uses the make tool to automate compiling with dependencies.

```
all: a.out test
test: test.o sum.o
    gcc $^ -o $@
a.out: main.o sum.o
    gcc $^ -o $@
%.o: %.c
    gcc -c $^
```

Makefile

Basic C

- C's syntax is very similar to Java
 - Java borrowed its syntax from C



If uninitialized, variable can have any value

Primitive Types (64-bit machine)

| Either a character o | r an intger |
|----------------------|-------------|
|----------------------|-------------|

| 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 I = 1 |
| float | 4 | float $f = 1.0$ |
| double | 8 | double $d = 1.0$ |
| pointer | 8 | int $*x = &i$ |

Next lecture

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);
    }
    return 0;
}
```

```
$gcc test.c
$./a.out
-1 is larger than 1
```

Compiler converts int types to the one with the larger value (e.g. char \rightarrow unsigned char \rightarrow int \rightarrow unsigned int)

-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;
}
```

Lesson Plan

- Bitwise operators
- Control Flow
 - goto
- Function & variable storage

Operators

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

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

Bitwise AND: &

Truth table (of boolean function AND)

How many rows if function has n boolean (aka 1-bit) inputs?

| X | у | x AND y |
|---|---|---------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |

Operator & applies AND bitwise to two integers

Result of 0x68 & 0x55

$$(01101000)_{2}$$
 & $(01010101)_{2}$

 $(01000000)_2$

Example use of &

& is often used to mask off bits

```
\begin{array}{c} b & 0 = ? \\ b & b & 1 = ? \end{array}
```

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

Bitwise OR:

| X | у | x OR y |
|---|---|--------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |

Operator | applies OR bitwise to two integers

Result of 0x68 | 0x55

 $(01111101)_2$

Example use of |

can be used to turn some bits on

```
b | 1 = ?
b | 0 = ?
```

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

Bitwise NOT: ~

| х | NOT x |
|---|-------|
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 |

Operator ~ applies NOT bitwise to two integers

result of ~0x68

$$\sim$$
 (0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0)₂

 $(10010111)_2$

Bitwise XOR: ^

| X | у | x XOR y |
|---|---|---------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 |

Operator ^ applies XOR bitwise to two integers

result of 0x68^0x55

 $(00111101)_2$

Bitwise left-shift: <<

x << y, treat x as a bit-vector, shift x left by y positions

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

```
result of 0x69 << 3? (0110101)_2
```

$$=(0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0)_2$$

Bitwise right-shift: >>

- x >> 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
 - Arithmetic shift: Replicate msb on the left

```
Result of (logical) right-shift: 0xa9 >> 3 (1010101)_2
```

$$=(0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1)_2$$

Result of (arithmetic) right-shift:
$$0xa9 >> 3$$
 = $(11110101)_2$

Which shift is used in C?

Arithmetic shift for signed numbers Logical shifting on unsigned numbers

```
int a = 1;
a = a>>31;

int b = -1;
b = b >>31;
```

```
unsigned int b = 0xffffffff;
b = b >>31;
```

$$b = ??$$

Example use of shift

```
int multiply_by_powers_of_two(int x, int p)
{
    return x << p;
}</pre>
```

```
int divide_by_powers_of_two(int x, int p)
{
    return x >> p;
}
```

Caveat: right-shift rounds down, different from integer division "/" which rounds towards zero. e.g. -1>>1=-1, but -1/2=0

Example use of shift

```
// clear bit at position pos
// rightmost bit is at 0<sup>th</sup> pos

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

C's Control flow

- Same as Java
- Conditional:
 - if ... else if ... else
 - switch
- Loops: while, do while, for
 - continue
 - break

goto allows jump anywhere

```
while (cond) {
       Any control flow primitive can be
       expressed as a bunch of goto's.
A:
 if (cond == false) goto B;
 goto A
B:
```

```
There's no goto in Java or core Python
```

```
for(...) {
   for(...) {
       for(...) {
           goto error
error:
   code handling error
```

May be the only acceptable scenario for goto

There's no try/catch or try/except in C

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:

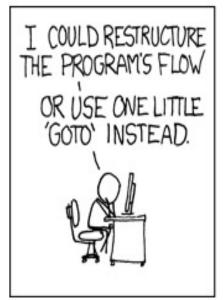
For a number of years I have been familiar with the observation that the quality of programmers is a decreasing function of the density of go to statements in the programs they produce. More recently I discovered why the use of the go to statement has such disastrous effects, and I became convinced that 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 deledynamic 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 "dvnamic 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.

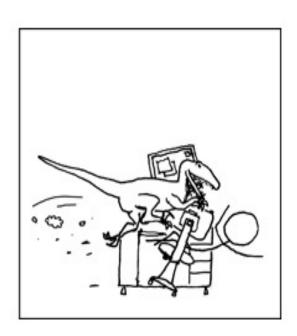
The main point is that the values of these indices are outside programmer's control; they are generated (either by the write-up of his program or by the dynamic evolution of the process) whether

Avoid goto's whenever possible









C is a procedural-language

- C program consists of functions
 - Also called procedures or subroutines
- Why breaking code into functions?
 - Readability and Reusability
- Keep functions short
 - General rules of thumb
 - Small enough to keep the code in your head
 - Fits on screen without scrolling

Variable and its storage: local variable

Local variables are defined inside a function

You can view function arguments as local variables defined in function body

```
int add(int a, int b)
{
    int r = a + b;
    return r;
}
```

Local variable scope:

- Within the function/block the local variable is declared
- Local variables with the same name in different scopes are unrelated
- Shadowing: Nested variable "hides" the outer variable of the same name in areas where they are both in scope

```
int add(int a, int b)
{
    int r = a;
    {
        int r;
        r += b;
    }
    return r;
}
```



What does add compute?

Variable and its storage: local variable scope

```
int find(int start, int end)
{
    for (int i = start; i < end; i++) {
        if ((i % 3) == 0)
            break;
    }
    return i;
}</pre>
```

```
$gcc -std=c99 test.c
```



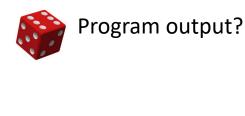
```
test3.c: In function 'find':
test3.c:8:10: error: 'i' undeclared (first use in this function)
return i;
^
```

Variable and its storage: local variable storage

Local variable storage:

- allocated upon function invocation, not initialized
- deallocated upon function return

```
void add(int a, int b)
    int result = a + b;
    return;
int main()
    int result = 0;
    add(1, 2);
    printf("r=%d\n", result);
```



Variable and its storage: global variable

Global variables are defined outside any function

```
#include <stdio.h>
int r = 0;
int sum(int a, int b)
    r = a + b;
int main()
    sum(1,2);
    int r = 0;
    printf("r=%d\n", r);
}
```

- Global variable scope:
 - Can be accessed from within any function
 - May be shadowed
- Global variable storage
 - Allocated upon program start, initialized to 0
 - Deallocated when entire program exits

Function invocation: pass by value

C (and Java) passes arguments by value

```
void swap(int \dot{x}, int y)
{
    int tmp = x;
    x = y;
     y = tmp;
int main()
{
    int x = 1;
    int y = 2;
    swap(x, y);
    printf("x: %d, y: %d", x, y);
}
```

```
Result x: ? y: ?
```

Function invocation: pass by value

```
void swap(int x, int y)
{
    int tmp = x;
    x = y;
    y = tmp;
int main()
{
    int x = 1;
    int y = 2;
    swap(x, y);
    printf("x: %d, y: %d", x, y);
}
```

| main.x: | |
|-----------|-----|
| main.y: | |
| | ••• |
| swap.x: | |
| swap.y: | |
| swap.tmp: | |