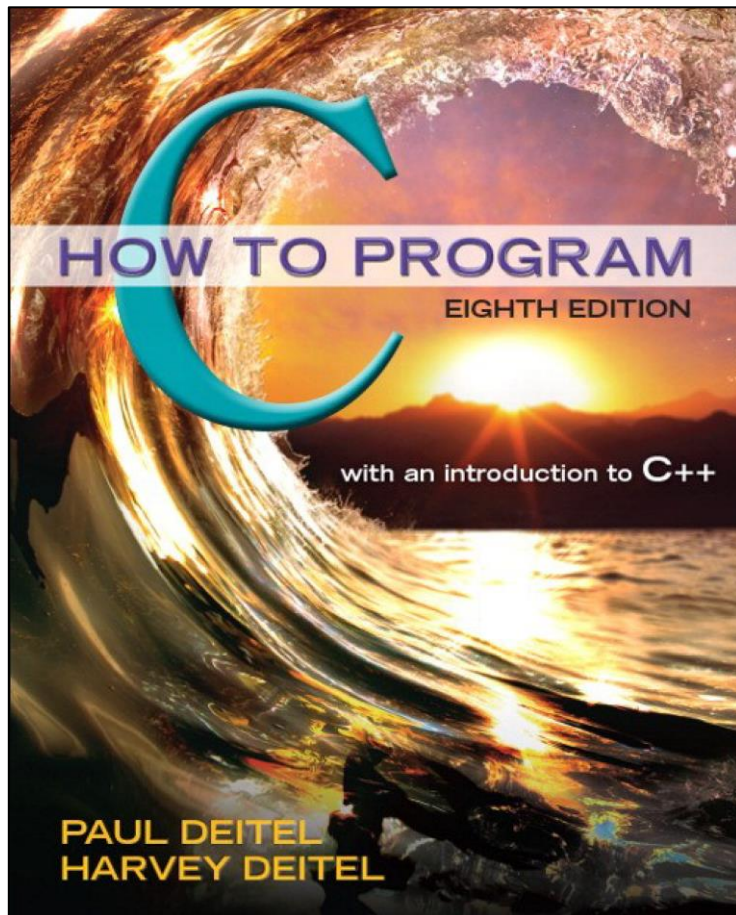


# C How to Program

Eighth Edition



## Chapter 10

C Structures, Unions, Bit  
Manipulation and  
Enumerations

# Learning Objectives (1 of 2)

- Create and use structs, unions and enums.
- Understand self-referential structs.
- Learn about the operations that can be performed on struct instances.
- Initialize struct members.
- Access struct members.
- Pass struct instances to functions by value and by reference.

# Learning Objectives (2 of 2)

- Use typedefs to create aliases for existing type names.
- Learn about the operations that can be performed on unions.
- Initialize unions.
- Manipulate integer data with the bitwise operators.
- Create bit fields for storing data compactly.
- Use enum constants.
- Consider the security issues of working with structs, bit manipulation and enums.

# Outline (1 of 4)

## 10.1 Introduction

## 10.2 Structure Definitions

### 10.2.1 Self-Referential Structures

### 10.2.2 Defining Variables of Structure Types

### 10.2.3 Structure Tag Names

### 10.2.4 Operations That Can Be Performed on Structures

## 10.3 Initializing Structures

## 10.4 Accessing Structure Members with . and →

# Outline (2 of 4)

## 10.6 typedef

## 10.7 Example: High-Performance Card Shuffling and Dealing Simulation

## 10.8 Unions

### 10.8.1 Union Declarations

### 10.8.2 Operations That Can Be Performed on Unions

### 10.8.3 Initializing Unions in Declarations

### 10.8.4 Demonstrating Unions

# Outline (3 of 4)

## 10.9 Bitwise Operators

10.9.1 Displaying an Unsigned Integer in Bits

10.9.2 Making Function `displayBits` More Generic and Portable

10.9.3 Using the Bitwise AND, Inclusive OR, Exclusive OR and Complement Operators

10.9.4 Using the Bitwise Left- and Right-Shift Operators

10.9.5 Bitwise Assignment Operators

# Outline (4 of 4)

## 10.10 Bit Fields

### 10.10.1 Defining Bit Fields

### 10.10.2 Using Bit Fields to Represent a Card's Face, Suit and Color

### 10.10.3 Unnamed Bit Fields

## 10.11 Enumeration Constants

## 10.12 Anonymous Structures and Unions

## 10.13 Secure C Programming

## 10.1 Introduction (1 of 2)

- **Structures**—sometimes referred to as **aggregates**—are collections of related variables under one name.
- Structures may contain variables of many different data types—in contrast to arrays, which contain **only** elements of the same data type.
- Structures are commonly used to define **records** to be stored in files (see Chapter 11, C File Processing).
- Pointers and structures facilitate the formation of more complex data structures such as linked lists, queues, stacks and trees (see Chapter 12, C Data Structures).



# 10.1 Introduction (2 of 2)

- We'll also discuss:
  - typedefs—for creating **aliases** for previously defined data types
  - unions—derived data types like structures, but with members that **share** the **same** storage space
  - bitwise operators—for manipulating the bits of integral operands
  - bit fields—unsigned int or int members of structures or unions for which you specify the number of bits in which the members are stored, helping you pack information tightly
  - enumerations—sets of integer constants represented by identifiers.

## 10.2 Structure Definitions (1 of 8)

- Structures are **derived data types**—they're constructed using objects of other types.
- Consider the following structure definition:
  - ```
struct card {  
    char *face;  
    char *suit;  
};
```
- Keyword **struct** introduces the structure definition.
- The identifier `card` is the **structure tag**, which names the structure definition and is used with `struct` to declare variables of the **structure type**—e.g., `struct card`.

## 10.2 Structure Definitions (2 of 8)

- Variables declared within the braces of the structure definition are the structure's **members**.
- Members of the same structure type must have unique names, but two different structure types may contain members of the same name without conflict (we'll soon see why).
- Each structure definition **must** end with a semicolon.

# Common Programming Error 10.1

Forgetting the semicolon that terminates a structure definition is a syntax error.

## 10.2 Structure Definitions (3 of 8)

- The definition of struct card contains members face and suit, each of type char \*.
- Structure members can be variables of the primitive data types (e.g., int, float, etc.), or aggregates, such as arrays and other structures.
- Structure members can be of many types.

## 10.2 Structure Definitions (4 of 8)

- For example, the following struct contains character array members for an employee's first and last names, an unsigned int member for the employee's age, a char member that would contain ' M' or ' F' for the employee's gender and a double member for the employee's hourly salary:

```
– struct employee {  
    char firstName[20];  
    char lastName[20];  
    unsigned int age;  
    char gender;  
    double hourlySalary;  
};
```

## 10.2.1 Self-Referential Structures (1 of 2)

- **A structure cannot contain an instance of itself.**
- For example, a variable of type `struct employee` cannot be declared in the definition for `struct employee`.
- A pointer to `struct employee`, however, may be included.

## 10.2.1 Self-Referential Structures (2 of 2)

- For example,

```
— struct employee2 {  
    char firstName[20];  
    char lastName[20];  
    unsigned int age;  
    char gender;  
    double hourlySalary;  
    struct employee2 person; // ERROR  
    struct employee2 *ePtr;  // pointer  
};
```

- struct employee2 contains an instance of itself (person), which is an error.



## 10.2 Structure Definitions (5 of 8)

- Because ePtr is a pointer (to type struct employee2), it's permitted in the definition.
- A structure containing a member that's a pointer to the **same** structure type is referred to as a **self-referential structure**.
- Self-referential structures are used in Chapter 12 to build linked data structures.

## 10.2.2 Defining Variables of Structure Types

- Structure definitions do **not** reserve any space in memory; rather, each definition creates a new data type that's used to define variables.
  - Structure variables are defined like variables of other types.
  - The definition
    - **struct** card aCard, deck[52], \*cardPtr;
- declares aCard to be a variable of type struct card,  
declares deck to be an array with 52 elements of type struct card and declares cardPtr to be a pointer to struct card.

## 10.2 Structure Definitions (6 of 8)

- Variables of a given structure type may also be declared by placing a comma-separated list of the variable names between the closing brace of the structure definition and the semicolon that ends the structure definition.
- For example, the preceding definition could have been incorporated into the struct card definition as follows:

```
– struct card {  
    char *face;  
    char *suit;  
} aCard, deck[52], *cardPtr;
```

## 10.2.3 Structure Tag Names

- The structure tag name is optional.
- If a structure definition does not contain a structure tag name, variables of the structure type may be declared **only** in the structure definition—**not** in a separate declaration.

# Common Programming Error 10.2

A structure cannot contain an instance of itself.

# Good Programming Practice 10.1

Always provide a structure tag name when creating a structure type. The structure tag name is required for declaring new variables of the structure type later in the program.

## 10.2.4 Operations That Can be Performed on Structures (1 of 2)

- The only valid operations that may be performed on structures are:
  - assigning structure variables to structure variables of the **same** type,
  - taking the address (&) of a structure variable,
  - accessing the members of a structure variable (see Section 10.4) and
  - using the `sizeof` operator to determine the size of a structure variable.

# Common Programming Error 10.3

Assigning a structure of one type to a structure of a different type is a compilation error.



## 10.2.4 Operations That Can be Performed on Structures (2 of 2)

- Structures may **not** be compared using operators `==` and `!=` because structure members are not necessarily stored in consecutive bytes of memory.
- Sometimes there are “holes” in a structure, because computers may store specific data types only on certain memory boundaries such as half-word, word or double-word boundaries.
- A word is a standard memory unit used to store data in a computer—usually 2 bytes or 4 bytes.

## 10.2 Structure Definitions (7 of 8)

- Consider the following structure definition, in which `sample1` and `sample2` of type `struct example` are declared:

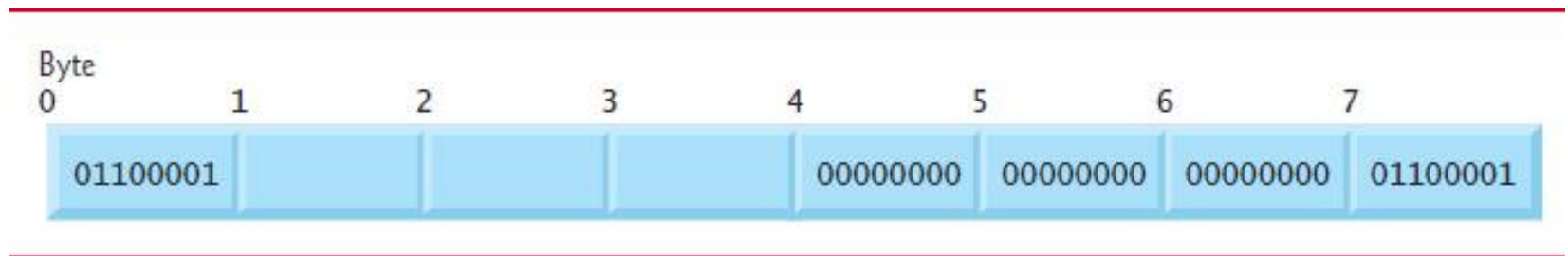
```
– struct example {  
    char c;  
    int i;  
} sample1, sample2;
```

- A computer with 2-byte words may require that each member of `struct example` be aligned on a word boundary, i.e., at the beginning of a word (this is machine dependent).

## 10.2 Structure Definitions (8 of 8)

- Figure 10.1 shows a sample storage alignment for a variable of type `struct example` that has been assigned the character 'a' and the integer 97 (the bit representations of the values are shown).
- If the members are stored beginning at word boundaries, there's a 1-byte hole (byte 1 in the figure) in the storage for variables of type `struct example`.
- The value in the 1-byte hole is undefined.
- Even if the member values of `sample1` and `sample2` are in fact equal, the structures are not necessarily equal, because the undefined 1-byte holes are not likely to contain identical values.

# Figure 10.1 Possible Storage Alignment for a Variable of Type Struct Example Showing an Undefined Area in Memory



## Portability Tip 10.1

Because the size of data items of a particular type is machine dependent and because storage alignment considerations are machine dependent, so too is the representation of a structure.

## 10.3 Initializing Structures (1 of 2)

- Structures can be initialized using initializer lists as with arrays.
- To initialize a structure, follow the variable name in the definition with an equals sign and a brace-enclosed, comma-separated list of initializers.
- For example, the declaration
  - `struct card aCard = {"Three", "Hearts"};`
- creates variable `aCard` to be of type `struct card` (as defined in Section 10.2) and initializes member `face` to "Three" and member `suit` to "Hearts".

## 10.3 Initializing Structures (2 of 2)

- If there are fewer initializers in the list than members in the structure, the remaining members are automatically initialized to 0 (or NULL if the member is a pointer).
- Structure variables defined outside a function definition (i.e., externally) are initialized to 0 or NULL if they're not explicitly initialized in the external definition.
- Structure variables may also be initialized in assignment statements by assigning a structure variable of the **same** type, or by assigning values to the **individual** members of the structure.

## 10.4 Accessing Structure Members (1 of 4)

- Two operators are used to access members of structures: the **structure member operator (.)**—also called the dot operator—and the **structure pointer operator (→)**—also called the **arrow operator**.
- The structure member operator accesses a structure member via the structure variable name.
- For example, to print member `suit` of structure variable `aCard` defined in Section 10.3, use the statement
  - `printf("%s", aCard.suit); // displays Hearts`



## 10.4 Accessing Structure Members (2 of 4)

- The structure pointer operator—consisting of a minus (–) sign and a greater than (>) sign with no intervening spaces—accesses a structure member via a **pointer to the structure**.
- Assume that the pointer `cardPtr` has been declared to point to `struct card` and that the address of structure `aCard` has been assigned to `cardPtr`.
- To print member `suit` of structure `aCard` with pointer `cardPtr`, use the statement
  - `printf("%s", cardPtr->suit); // displays Hearts`

## 10.4 Accessing Structure Members (3 of 4)

- The expression `cardPtr→suit` is equivalent to `(*cardPtr).suit`, which dereferences the pointer and accesses the member `suit` using the structure member operator.
- The parentheses are needed here because the structure member operator (`.`) has a higher precedence than the pointer dereferencing operator (`*`).
- The structure pointer operator and structure member operator, along with parentheses (for calling functions) and brackets (`[]`) used for array subscripting, have the highest operator precedence and associate from left to right.

## Good Programming Practice 10.2

Do not put spaces around the  $\rightarrow$  and  $.$  operators. Omitting spaces helps emphasize that the expressions the operators are contained in are essentially single variable names.

# Common Programming Error 10.4

Inserting space between the - and > components of the structure pointer operator or between the components of any other multiple-keystroke operator except ?: is a syntax error.

# Common Programming Error 10.5

Attempting to refer to a structure member by using only the member's name is a syntax error.

# Common Programming Error 10.6

Not using parentheses when referring to a structure member that uses a pointer and the structure member operator (e.g., `*cardPtr.suit`) is a syntax error. To prevent this problem use the arrow ( $\rightarrow$ ) operator instead.

## 10.4 Accessing Structure Members (4 of 4)

- The program of Figure. 10.2 demonstrates the use of the structure member and structure pointer operators.
- Using the structure member operator, the members of structure aCard are assigned the values “Ace” and “Spades”, respectively
- Pointer cardPtr is assigned the address of structure aCard
- Function printf prints the members of structure variable aCard using the structure member operator with variable name aCard, the structure pointer operator with pointer cardPtr and the structure member operator with dereferenced pointer cardPtr

# Figure 10.2 Structure Member Operator and Structure Pointer Operator (1 of 2)

```
1 // Fig. 10.2: fig10_02.c
2 // Structure member operator and
3 // structure pointer operator
4 #include <stdio.h>
5
6 // card structure definition
7 struct card {
8     char *face; // define pointer face
9     char *suit; // define pointer suit
10 };
11
12 int main(void)
13 {
14     struct card aCard; // define one struct card variable
15
16     // place strings into aCard
17     aCard.face = "Ace";
18     aCard.suit = "Spades";
19
20     struct card *cardPtr = &aCard; // assign address of aCard to cardPtr
21
```



## Figure 10.2 Structure Member Operator and Structure Pointer Operator (2 of 2)

```
22     printf("%s%s%s\n%s%s%s\n%s%s%s\n", aCard.face, " of ", aCard.suit,  
23         cardPtr->face, " of ", cardPtr->suit,  
24         (*cardPtr).face, " of ", (*cardPtr).suit);  
25 }
```

```
Ace of Spades  
Ace of Spades  
Ace of Spades
```

## 10.5 Using Structures with Functions (1 of 2)

- Structures may be passed to functions by passing individual structure members, by passing an entire structure or by passing a pointer to a structure.
- When structures or individual structure members are passed to a function, they're passed by value.
- Therefore, the members of a caller's structure cannot be modified by the called function.
- To pass a structure by reference, pass the address of the structure variable.

## 10.5 Using Structures with Functions (2 of 2)

- Arrays of structures—like all other arrays—are automatically passed by reference.
- To pass an array by value, create a structure with the array as a member.
- Structures are passed by value, so the array is passed by value.

# Common Programming Error 10.7

Assuming that structures, like arrays, are automatically passed by reference and trying to modify the caller's structure values in the called function is a logic error.

## Performance Tip 10.1

Passing structures by reference is more efficient than passing structures by value (which requires the entire structure to be copied).

## 10.6 typedef (1 of 4)

- The keyword **typedef** provides a mechanism for creating synonyms (or aliases) for previously defined data types.
- Names for structure types are often defined with **typedef** to create shorter type names.
- For example, the statement
  - **typedef struct card Card;**defines the new type name **Card** as a synonym for type **struct card**.
- C programmers often use **typedef** to define a structure type, so a structure tag is not required.

## 10.6 typedef (2 of 4)

- For example, the following definition

```
– typedef struct {  
    char *face;  
    char *suit;  
} Card;
```

creates the structure type Card without the need for a separate typedef statement.

## Good Programming Practice 10.3

Capitalize the first letter of typedef names to emphasize that they're synonyms for other type names.



## 10.6 typedef (3 of 4)

- Card can now be used to declare variables of type `struct card`.
- The declaration
  - `Card deck[52];`declares an array of 52 Card structures (i.e., variables of type `struct card`).
- Creating a new name with `typedef` does **not** create a new type; `typedef` simply creates a new type name, which may be used as an alias for an existing type name.

## 10.6 typedef (4 of 4)

- A meaningful name helps make the program self-documenting.
- For example, when we read the previous declaration, we know “deck is an array of 52 Cards.”
- Often, typedef is used to create synonyms for the basic data types.
- For example, a program requiring four-byte integers may use type `int` on one system and type `long` on another.
- Programs designed for portability often use typedef to create an alias for four-byte integers, such as `Integer`.
- The alias `Integer` can be changed once in the program to make the program work on both systems.

## Portability Tip 10.2

Use typedef to help make a program more portable.

# Good Programming Practice 10.4

Using typedefs can help make a program more readable and maintainable.

## 10.7 Example: High-Performance Card Shuffling and Dealing Simulation (1 of 3)

- The program in Figure 10.3 is based on the card shuffling and dealing simulation discussed in Chapter 7.
- The program represents the deck of cards as an array of structures and uses high-performance shuffling and dealing algorithms.
- The program output is shown in Figure 10.4 see slide 58.

# Figure 10.3 Card Shuffling and Dealing Program Using Structures (1 of 4)

```
1 // Fig. 10.3: fig10_03.c
2 // Card shuffling and dealing program using structures
3 #include <stdio.h>
4 #include <stdlib.h>
5 #include <time.h>
6
7 #define CARDS 52
8 #define FACES 13
9
10 // card structure definition
11 struct card {
12     const char *face; // define pointer face
13     const char *suit; // define pointer suit
14 };
15
16 typedef struct card Card; // new type name for struct card
17
18 // prototypes
19 void fillDeck(Card * const wDeck, const char * wFace[],
20     const char * wSuit[]);
21 void shuffle(Card * const wDeck);
22 void deal(const Card * const wDeck);
23
```

# Figure 10.3 Card Shuffling and Dealing Program Using Structures (2 of 4)

```
24  int main(void)
25  {
26      Card deck[CARDS]; // define array of Cards
27
28      // initialize array of pointers
29      const char *face[] = { "Ace", "Deuce", "Three", "Four", "Five",
30                          "Six", "Seven", "Eight", "Nine", "Ten",
31                          "Jack", "Queen", "King"};
32
33      // initialize array of pointers
34      const char *suit[] = { "Hearts", "Diamonds", "Clubs", "Spades"};
35
36      srand(time(NULL)); // randomize
37
38      fillDeck(deck, face, suit); // load the deck with Cards
39      shuffle(deck); // put Cards in random order
40      deal(deck); // deal all 52 Cards
41  }
42
```

# Figure 10.3 Card Shuffling and Dealing Program Using Structures (3 of 4)

```
43 // place strings into Card structures
44 void fillDeck(Card * const wDeck, const char * wFace[],
45             const char * wSuit[])
46 {
47     // loop through wDeck
48     for (size_t i = 0; i < CARDS; ++i) {
49         wDeck[i].face = wFace[i % FACES];
50         wDeck[i].suit = wSuit[i / FACES];
51     }
52 }
53
54 // shuffle cards
55 void shuffle(Card * const wDeck)
56 {
57     // loop through wDeck randomly swapping Cards
58     for (size_t i = 0; i < CARDS; ++i) {
59         size_t j = rand() % CARDS;
60         Card temp = wDeck[i];
61         wDeck[i] = wDeck[j];
62         wDeck[j] = temp;
63     }
64 }
65
```



# Figure 10.3 Card Shuffling and Dealing Program Using Structures (4 of 4)

```
66 // deal cards
67 void deal(const Card * const wDeck)
68 {
69     // loop through wDeck
70     for (size_t i = 0; i < CARDS; ++i) {
71         printf("%5s of %-8s%s", wDeck[i].face, wDeck[i].suit,
72             (i + 1) % 4 ? " " : "\n");
73     }
74 }
```

# Figure 10.4 Output for the High-Performance Card Shuffling and Dealing Simulation

|                   |                   |                   |                   |
|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Three of Hearts   | Jack of Clubs     | Three of Spades   | Six of Diamonds   |
| Five of Hearts    | Eight of Spades   | Three of Clubs    | Deuce of Spades   |
| Jack of Spades    | Four of Hearts    | Deuce of Hearts   | Six of Clubs      |
| Queen of Clubs    | Three of Diamonds | Eight of Diamonds | King of Clubs     |
| King of Hearts    | Eight of Hearts   | Queen of Hearts   | Seven of Clubs    |
| Seven of Diamonds | Nine of Spades    | Five of Clubs     | Eight of Clubs    |
| Six of Hearts     | Deuce of Diamonds | Five of Spades    | Four of Clubs     |
| Deuce of Clubs    | Nine of Hearts    | Seven of Hearts   | Four of Spades    |
| Ten of Spades     | King of Diamonds  | Ten of Hearts     | Jack of Diamonds  |
| Four of Diamonds  | Six of Spades     | Five of Diamonds  | Ace of Diamonds   |
| Ace of Clubs      | Jack of Hearts    | Ten of Clubs      | Queen of Diamonds |
| Ace of Hearts     | Ten of Diamonds   | Nine of Clubs     | King of Spades    |
| Ace of Spades     | Nine of Diamonds  | Seven of Spades   | Queen of Spades   |

## 10.7 Example: High-Performance Card Shuffling and Dealing Simulation (2 of 3)

- In the program, function `fillDeck` initializes the Card array in order with “Ace” through “King” of each suit.
- The Card array is passed to function `shuffle`, where the high-performance shuffling algorithm is implemented.
- Function `shuffle` takes an array of 52 Cards as an argument.
- The function loops through the 52 Cards

## 10.7 Example: High-Performance Card Shuffling and Dealing Simulation (3 of 3)

- For each card, a number between 0 and 51 is picked randomly.
- Next, the current Card and the randomly selected Card are swapped in the array
- A total of 52 swaps are made in a single pass of the entire array, and the array of Cards is shuffled!
- This algorithm **cannot** suffer from **indefinite postponement** like the shuffling algorithm presented in Chapter 7.
- Because the Cards were swapped in place in the array, the high-performance dealing algorithm implemented in function `deal` requires only **one** pass of the array to deal the shuffled Cards.

# Common Programming Error 10.8

Forgetting to include the array index when referring to individual structures in an array of structures is a syntax error.

## 10.8 Unions (1 of 2)

- A **union** is a **derived data type**—like a structure—with members that **share the same storage space**.
- For different situations in a program, some variables may not be relevant, but other variables are—so a union shares the space instead of wasting storage on variables that are not being used.
- The members of a union can be of any data type.

## 10.8 Unions (2 of 2)

- The number of bytes used to store a union must be at least enough to hold the **largest** member.
- In most cases, unions contain two or more data types.
- Only one member, and thus one data type, can be referenced at a time.
- It's your responsibility to ensure that the data in a union is referenced with the proper data type.

# Common Programming Error 10.9

Referencing data in a union with a variable of the wrong type is a logic error.



## Portability Tip 10.3

If data is stored in a union as one type and referenced as another type, the results are implementation dependent.

## 10.8.1 Union Declarations

- A union definition has the same format as a structure definition.
- The union definition

```
– union number {  
    int x;  
    double y;  
};
```

indicates that number is a union type with members int x and double y.

- The union definition is normally placed in a header and included in all source files that use the union type.

# Software Engineering Observation 10.1

As with a struct definition, a union definition simply creates a new type. Placing a union or struct definition outside any function does not create a global variable.

## 10.8.2 Operations That Can be Performed on Unions

- The operations that can be performed on a union are:
  - assigning a union to another union of the same type,
  - taking the address (&) of a union variable,
  - and accessing union members using the structure member operator and the structure pointer operator.
- Unions may not be compared using operators == and != for the same reasons that structures cannot be compared.

## 10.8.3 Initializing Unions in Declarations

- In a declaration, **a union may be initialized with a value of the same type as the first union member.**
- For example, with the union in Section 10.8.1, the statement

- `union number value = {10};`

is a valid initialization of union variable `value` because the union is initialized with an `int`, but the following declaration would truncate the floating-point part of the initializer value and normally would produce a warning from the compiler:

- `union number value = {1.43};`

## Portability Tip 10.4

The amount of storage required to store a union is implementation dependent but will always be at least as large as the largest member of the union.

## Portability Tip 10.5

Some unions may not port easily among computer systems. Whether a union is portable or not often depends on the storage alignment requirements for the union member data types on a given system.

## 10.8.4 Demonstrating Unions

- The program in Figure 10.5 uses the variable `value` of type `union number` to display the value stored in the union as both an `int` and a `double`.
- The program output is **implementation dependent**.
- The program output shows that the internal representation of a `double` value can be quite different from the representation of `int`.



# Figure 10.5 Displaying the Value of a Union in Both Member Data Types (1 of 2)

```
1 // Fig. 10.5: fig10_05.c
2 // Displaying the value of a union in both member data types
3 #include <stdio.h>
4
5 // number union definition
6 union number {
7     int x;
8     double y;
9 };
10
11 int main(void)
12 {
13     union number value; // define union variable
14
15     value.x = 100; // put an integer into the union
16     printf("%s\n%s\n%s\n %d\n\n%s\n %f\n\n\n",
17         "Put 100 in the integer member",
18         "and print both members.",
19         "int:", value.x,
20         "double:", value.y);
```

## Figure 10.5 Displaying the Value of a Union in Both Member Data Types (2 of 2)

```

21
22 value.y = 100.0; // put a double into the same union
23 printf("%s\n%s\n%s\n %d\n\n%s\n %f\n",
24        "Put 100.0 in the floating member",
25        "and print both members.",
26        "int:", value.x,
27        "double:", value.y);
28 }

```

```
Put 100 in the integer member
and print both members.
```

int:

100

double:

[illegible]

Put 100.0 in the floating member and print both members.

```
int:
```

0

double:

100.000000

## 10.9 Bitwise Operators (1 of 6)

- Computers represent all data internally as sequences of bits.
- Each bit can assume the value 0 or the value 1.
- On most systems, a sequence of 8 bits forms a byte—the typical storage unit for a variable of type `char`.
- Other data types are stored in larger numbers of bytes.
- The bitwise operators are used to manipulate the bits of integral operands both `signed` and `unsigned`.
- Unsigned integers are normally used with the bitwise operators.

## Portability Tip 10.6

Bitwise data manipulations are machine dependent.

## 10.9 Bitwise Operators (2 of 6)

- The bitwise operator discussions in this section show the binary representations of the integer operands.
- For a detailed explanation of the binary (also called base-2) number system see Appendix C.
- Because of the machine-dependent nature of bitwise manipulations, these programs may not work correctly on your system.

## 10.9 Bitwise Operators (3 of 6)

- The bitwise operators are **bitwise AND (&)**  
**bitwise inclusive OR (|)** **bitwise exclusive OR**  
(^; also known as **bitwise XOR**), **left shift (<<)**, **right shift (>>)**  
and **complement (~)**.

## 10.9 Bitwise Operators (4 of 6)

- The bitwise AND, bitwise inclusive OR and bitwise exclusive OR operators compare their two operands bit by bit.
- The **bitwise AND operator** sets each bit in the result to 1 if the corresponding bit in both operands is 1.
- The **bitwise inclusive OR** operator sets each bit in the result to 1 if the corresponding bit in either (or both) operand(s) is 1.
- The **bitwise exclusive OR** operator sets each bit in the result to 1 if the corresponding bit in exactly one operand is 1.

## 10.9 Bitwise Operators (5 of 6)

- The **left-shift operator** shifts the bits of its left operand to the left by the number of bits specified in its right operand.
- The **right-shift operator** shifts the bits in its left operand to the right by the number of bits specified in its right operand.
- The **bitwise complement operator** sets all 0 bits in its operand to 1 in the result and sets all 1 bits to 0 in the result.
- Detailed discussions of each bitwise operator appear in the examples that follow.
- The bitwise operators are summarized in Figure 10.6.



# Figure 10.6 Bitwise Operators

| Operator |                                                         | Description                                                                                                                                                                                   |
|----------|---------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| &        | <b>bitwise AND</b>                                      | Compares its two operands bit by bit. The bits in the result are set to 1 if the corresponding bits in the two operands are <b>both</b> 1.                                                    |
|          | <b>bitwise inclusive OR</b>                             | Compares its two operands bit by bit. The bits in the result are set to 1 if <b>at least one</b> of the corresponding bits in the two operands is 1.                                          |
| ^        | <b>bitwise exclusive OR (also known as bitwise XOR)</b> | Compares its two operands bit by bit. The bits in the result are set to 1 if the corresponding bits in the two operands are different.                                                        |
| <<       | <b>left shift</b>                                       | Shifts the bits of the first operand left by the number of bits specified by the second operand; fill from the right with 0 bits.                                                             |
| >>       | <b>right shift</b>                                      | Shifts the bits of the first operand right by the number of bits specified by the second operand; the method of filling from the left is machine dependent when the left operand is negative. |
| ~        | <b>Complement</b>                                       | All 0 bits are set to 1 and all 1 bits are set to 0.                                                                                                                                          |

## 10.9.1 Displaying an Unsigned Integer in Bits (1 of 4)

- When using the bitwise operators, it's useful to display values in binary to show the precise effects of these operators.
- The program of Figure 10.7 prints an `unsigned int` in its binary representation in groups of eight bits each for readability.
- For the examples in this section, we assume an implementation where `unsigned ints` are stored in 4 bytes (32 bits) of memory.

# Figure 10.7 Displaying an unsigned int in Bits (1 of 2)

```
1 // Fig. 10.7: fig10_07.c
2 // Displaying an unsigned int in bits
3 #include <stdio.h>
4
5 void displayBits(unsigned int value); // prototype
6
7 int main(void)
8 {
9     unsigned int x; // variable to hold user input
10
11     printf("%s", "Enter a nonnegative int: ");
12     scanf("%u", &x);
13
14     displayBits(x);
15 }
16
```

# Figure 10.7 Displaying an unsigned int in Bits (2 of 2)

```
17 // display bits of an unsigned int value
18 void displayBits(unsigned int value)
19 {
20     // define displayMask and left shift 31 bits
21     unsigned int displayMask = 1 << 31;
22
23     printf("%10u = ", value);
24
25     // loop through bits
26     for (unsigned int c = 1; c <= 32; ++c) {
27         putchar(value & displayMask ? '1' : '0');
28         value <<= 1; // shift value left by 1
29
30         if (c % 8 == 0) { // output space after 8 bits
31             putchar(' ');
32         }
33     }
34
35     putchar('\n');
36 }
```

```
Enter a nonnegative int: 65000
65000 = 00000000 00000000 11111101 11101000
```

## 10.9.1 Displaying an Unsigned Integer in Bits (2 of 4)

- Function `displayBits` uses the bitwise AND operator to combine variable `value` with variable `displayMask`
- Often, the bitwise AND operator is used with an operand called a **mask**—an integer value with specific bits set to 1.
- Masks are used to **hide** some bits in a value while **selecting** other bits.
- In function `displayBits`, mask variable `displayMask` is assigned the value
  - `1 << 31` (`10000000 00000000 00000000 00000000`)

## 10.9.1 Displaying an Unsigned Integer in Bits (3 of 4)

- The left-shift operator shifts the value 1 from the low-order (rightmost) bit to the high-order (leftmost) bit in `displayMask` and fills in 0 bits from the right.
- `putchar(value & displayMask ? '1' : '0');` determines whether a 1 or a 0 should be printed for the current leftmost bit of variable `value`.
- When `value` and `displayMask` are combined using `&`, all the bits except the high-order bit in variable `value` are “masked off” (hidden), because any bit “ANDed” with 0 yields 0.'

## 10.9.1 Displaying an Unsigned Integer in Bits (4 of 4)

- If the leftmost bit is 1, `value & displayMask` evaluates to a nonzero (true) value and 1 is printed—otherwise, 0 is printed.
- Variable `value` is then left shifted one bit by the expression `value <<= 1` (this is equivalent to `value = value << 1`).
- These steps are repeated for each bit in unsigned variable `value`.
- Figure 10.8 see slide 89 summarizes the results of combining two bits with the bitwise AND operator.

# Common Programming Error 10.10

Using the logical AND operator (&&) for the bitwise AND operator (&)—and vice versa—is an error.



# Figure 10.8 Results of Combining Two Bits with the Bitwise and Operator &

| Bit 1 | Bit 2 | Bit 1 & Bit 2 |
|-------|-------|---------------|
| 0     | 0     | 0             |
| 0     | 1     | 0             |
| 1     | 0     | 0             |
| 1     | 1     | 1             |

## 10.9.2 Making Function Displaybits More Scalable and Portable (1 of 3)

- In Figure 10.7 (see slides 83-84), we hard coded the integer 31 to indicate that the value 1 should be shifted to the leftmost bit in the variable `displayMask`.
- Similarly, we hard coded the integer 32 to indicate that the loop should iterate 32 times—once for each bit in variable `value`.
- We assumed that unsigned ints are always stored in 32 bits (4 bytes) of memory.
- Many of today's popular computers use 32-bit or 64-bit word hardware architectures.

## 10.9.2 Making Function Displaybits More Scalable and Portable (2 of 3)

- As a C programmer, you'll tend to work across many hardware architectures, and sometimes unsigned ints will be stored in smaller or larger numbers of bits.
- We can make the program in Figure 10.7 (see slides 83-84) more scalable and more portable by replacing the integer 31 with the expression

– `CHAR_BIT * sizeof(unsigned int) - 1`

and by replacing the integer 32 with the expression

– `CHAR_BIT * sizeof(unsigned int)`

## 10.9.2 Making Function Displaybits More Scalable and Portable (3 of 3)

- The symbolic constant **CHAR\_BIT** (defined in `<limits.h>`) represents the number of bits in a byte (normally 8).
- On a computer that uses 32-bit words, the expression `sizeof(unsigned int)` evaluates to 4, so the two preceding expressions evaluate to 31 and 32, respectively.
- On a computer that uses 16-bit words, the `sizeof` expression evaluates to 2 and the two preceding expressions evaluate to 15 and 16, respectively.

## 10.9.3 Using the Bitwise AND, Inclusive OR, Exclusive OR and Complement Operators (1 of 5)

- Figure 10.9 demonstrates the use of the bitwise AND operator, the bitwise inclusive OR operator, the bitwise exclusive OR operator and the bitwise complement operator.
- The program uses function `displayBits` to print the unsigned int values.
- The output is shown in Figure 10.10 see slide 98.

# Figure 10.9 Using the Bitwise AND, Bitwise Inclusive OR, Bitwise Exclusive OR and Bitwise Complement Operators (1 of 4)

```
1 // Fig. 10.9: fig10_09.c
2 // Using the bitwise AND, bitwise inclusive OR, bitwise
3 // exclusive OR and bitwise complement operators
4 #include <stdio.h>
5
6 void displayBits(unsigned int value); // prototype
7
8 int main(void)
9 {
10     // demonstrate bitwise AND (&)
11     unsigned int number1 = 65535;
12     unsigned int mask = 1;
13     puts("The result of combining the following");
14     displayBits(number1);
15     displayBits(mask);
16     puts("using the bitwise AND operator & is");
17     displayBits(number1 & mask);
18 }
```

# Figure 10.9 Using the Bitwise AND, Bitwise Inclusive OR, Bitwise Exclusive OR and Bitwise Complement Operators (2 of 4)

```
19 // demonstrate bitwise inclusive OR (|)
20 number1 = 15;
21 unsigned int setBits = 241;
22 puts("\nThe result of combining the following");
23 displayBits(number1);
24 displayBits(setBits);
25 puts("using the bitwise inclusive OR operator | is");
26 displayBits(number1 | setBits);
27
28 // demonstrate bitwise exclusive OR (^)
29 number1 = 139;
30 unsigned int number2 = 199;
31 puts("\nThe result of combining the following");
32 displayBits(number1);
33 displayBits(number2);
34 puts("using the bitwise exclusive OR operator ^ is");
35 displayBits(number1 ^ number2);
36
```

# Figure 10.9 Using the Bitwise AND, Bitwise Inclusive OR, Bitwise Exclusive OR and Bitwise Complement Operators (3 of 4)

---

```
37 // demonstrate bitwise complement (~)
38 number1 = 21845;
39 puts("\nThe one's complement of");
40 displayBits(number1);
41 puts("is");
42 displayBits(~number1);
43 }
44
```

---



# Figure 10.9 Using the Bitwise AND, Bitwise Inclusive OR, Bitwise Exclusive OR and Bitwise Complement Operators (4 of 4)

```
45 // display bits of an unsigned int value
46 void displayBits(unsigned int value)
47 {
48     // declare displayMask and left shift 31 bits
49     unsigned int displayMask = 1 << 31;
50
51     printf("%10u = ", value);
52
53     // loop through bits
54     for (unsigned int c = 1; c <= 32; ++c) {
55         putchar(value & displayMask ? '1' : '0');
56         value <<= 1; // shift value left by 1
57
58         if (c % 8 == 0) { // output a space after 8 bits
59             putchar(' ');
60         }
61     }
62
63     putchar('\n');
64 }
```

# Figure 10.10 Output for the Program of Figure 10.9

```
The result of combining the following
65535 = 00000000 00000000 11111111 11111111
1 = 00000000 00000000 00000000 00000001
using the bitwise AND operator & is
1 = 00000000 00000000 00000000 00000001
```

```
The result of combining the following
15 = 00000000 00000000 00000000 00001111
241 = 00000000 00000000 00000000 11110001
using the bitwise inclusive OR operator | is
255 = 00000000 00000000 00000000 11111111
```

```
The result of combining the following
139 = 00000000 00000000 00000000 10001011
199 = 00000000 00000000 00000000 11000111
using the bitwise exclusive OR operator ^ is
76 = 00000000 00000000 00000000 01001100
```

```
The one's complement of
21845 = 00000000 00000000 01010101 01010101
is
4294945450 = 11111111 11111111 10101010 10101010
```

## 10.9.3 Using the Bitwise AND, Inclusive OR, Exclusive OR and Complement Operators (2 of 5)

- In Figure 10.9 (see slides 94-97), integer variable number1 is assigned value 65535 (00000000 00000000 11111111 11111111) and variable mask is assigned the value 1 (00000000 00000000 00000000 00000001).
- When number1 and mask are combined using the bitwise AND operator (&) in the expression number1 & mask, the result is 00000000 00000000 00000000 00000001.
- All the bits except the low-order bit in variable number1 are “masked off” (hidden) by “ANDing” with variable mask.
- The **bitwise inclusive OR operator** is used to set specific bits to 1 in an operand.

## 10.9.3 Using the Bitwise AND, Inclusive OR, Exclusive OR and Complement Operators (3 of 5)

- In Figure 10.9 (see slides 94-98), variable `number1` is assigned 15 (00000000 00000000 00000000 00001111), and variable `setBits` is assigned 241 (00000000 00000000 00000000 11110001)
- When `number1` and `setBits` are combined using the **bitwise inclusive OR operator** in the expression `number1 | setBits`, the result is 255 (00000000 00000000 00000000 11111111).
- Figure 10.11 summarizes the results of combining two bits with the **bitwise inclusive OR operator**.

# Figure 10.11 Results of Combining Two Bits with the Bitwise Inclusive OR Operator |

| Bit 1 | Bit 2 | Bit 1   Bit 2 |
|-------|-------|---------------|
| 0     | 0     | 0             |
| 0     | 1     | 1             |
| 1     | 0     | 1             |
| 1     | 1     | 1             |

## 10.9.3 Using the Bitwise AND, Inclusive OR, Exclusive OR and Complement Operators (4 of 5)

- The **bitwise exclusive OR operator** (^) sets each bit in the result to 1 if **exactly** one of the corresponding bits in its two operands is 1.
- In Figure. 10.9 (see slide 94-97), variables number1 and number2 are assigned the values 139 (00000000 00000000 00000000 10001011) and 199 (00000000 00000000 00000000 11001111)
- When these variables are combined with the **bitwise exclusive OR operator** in the expression number1 ^ number2, the result is 00000000 00000000 00000000 01001100.
- Figure 10.12 summarizes the results of combining two bits with the **bitwise exclusive OR operator**.

# Figure 10.12 Results of Combining Two Bits with the Bitwise Exclusive OR operator $\wedge$

| Bit 1 | Bit 2 | Bit 1 $\wedge$ Bit 2 |
|-------|-------|----------------------|
| 0     | 0     | 0                    |
| 0     | 1     | 1                    |
| 1     | 0     | 1                    |
| 1     | 1     | 0                    |

## 10.9.3 Using the Bitwise AND, Inclusive OR, Exclusive OR and Complement Operators (5 of 5)

- The **bitwise complement operator** (~) sets all 1 bits in its operand to 0 in the result and sets all 0 bits to 1 in the result—otherwise referred to as “taking the **one’s complement** of the value.”
- In Figure 10.9 see slides 94-97, variable number1 is assigned the value 21845 (00000000 00000000 01010101 01010101)
- When the expression ~number1 is evaluated, the result is 11111111 11111111 10101010 10101010.



## 10.9.4 Using the Bitwise Left- and Right-Shift Operators (1 of 3)

- The program of Figure 10.13 demonstrates the **left-shift operator** (<<) and the **right-shift operator** (>>).
- Function `displayBits` is used to print the unsigned `int` values.

# Figure 10.13 Using the Bitwise Shift Operators (1 of 3)

```
1 // Fig. 10.13: fig10_13.c
2 // Using the bitwise shift operators
3 #include <stdio.h>
4
5 void displayBits(unsigned int value); // prototype
6
7 int main(void)
8 {
9     unsigned int number1 = 960; // initialize number1
10
11     // demonstrate bitwise left shift
12     puts("\nThe result of left shifting");
13     displayBits(number1);
14     puts("8 bit positions using the left shift operator << is");
15     displayBits(number1 << 8);
16
17     // demonstrate bitwise right shift
18     puts("\nThe result of right shifting");
19     displayBits(number1);
20     puts("8 bit positions using the right shift operator >> is");
21     displayBits(number1 >> 8);
22 }
23
```

# Figure 10.13 Using the Bitwise Shift Operators (2 of 3)

```
24 // display bits of an unsigned int value
25 void displayBits(unsigned int value)
26 {
27     // declare displayMask and left shift 31 bits
28     unsigned int displayMask = 1 << 31;
29
30     printf("%7u = ", value);
31
32     // loop through bits
33     for (unsigned int c = 1; c <= 32; ++c) {
34         putchar(value & displayMask ? '1' : '0');
35         value <<= 1; // shift value left by 1
36
37         if (c % 8 == 0) { // output a space after 8 bits
38             putchar(' ');
39         }
40     }
41
42     putchar('\n');
43 }
```

# Figure 10.13 Using the Bitwise Shift Operators (3 of 3)

The result of left shifting

960 = 00000000 00000000 00000011 11000000

8 bit positions using the left shift operator << is

245760 = 00000000 00000011 11000000 00000000

The result of right shifting

960 = 00000000 00000000 00000011 11000000

8 bit positions using the right shift operator >> is

3 = 00000000 00000000 00000000 00000011

## 10.9.4 Using the Bitwise Left- and Right-Shift Operators (2 of 3)

- The **left-shift operator** ( $\ll$ ) shifts the bits of its left operand to the left by the number of bits specified in its right operand.
- Bits vacated to the right are replaced with 0s; 1s shifted off the left are lost.
- In Figure 10.13, variable `number1` is assigned the value 960 (00000000 00000000 00000011 11000000)
- The result of left shifting variable `number1` 8 bits in the expression `number1 << 8` is 49152 (00000000 00000011 11000000 00000000).

## 10.9.4 Using the Bitwise Left- and Right-Shift Operators (3 of 3)

- The **right-shift operator** (`>>`) shifts the bits of its left operand to the right by the number of bits specified in its right operand.
- Performing a right shift on an unsigned `int` causes the vacated bits at the left to be replaced by 0s; 1s shifted off the right are lost.
- In Figure 10.13 see slide 106-108, the result of right shifting `number1` in the expression `number1 >> 8` is 3 (00000000 00000000 00000000 00000011).

# Common Programming Error 10.11

The result of right or left shifting a value is undefined if the right operand is negative or if the right operand is larger than the number of bits in which the left operand is stored.

## Portability Tip 10.8

The result of right shifting a negative number is implementation defined.



## 10.9.5 Bitwise Assignment Operators

- Each binary bitwise operator has a corresponding assignment operator.
- These **bitwise assignment operators** are shown in Figure 10.14 and are used in a manner similar to the arithmetic assignment operators introduced in Chapter 3.

# Figure 10.14 The Bitwise Assignment Operators

## Bitwise assignment operators

`& =`      Bitwise AND assignment operator.

`| =`      Bitwise inclusive OR assignment operator.

`^ =`      Bitwise exclusive OR assignment operator.

`<< =`      Left-shift assignment operator.

`>> =`      Right-shift assignment operator.

## 10.9 Bitwise Operators (6 of 6)

- Figure 10.15 shows the precedence and associativity of the various operators introduced to this point in the text.
- They're shown top to bottom in decreasing order of precedence.

# Figure 10.15 Operator Precedence and Associativity

| Operator                                             | Associativity | Type           |
|------------------------------------------------------|---------------|----------------|
| () [] . -> ++( <b>postfix</b> ) --( <b>postfix</b> ) | left to right | highest        |
| + - ++ -- ! & * ~ sizeof ( <b>type</b> )             | right to left | unary          |
| * / %                                                | left to right | multiplicative |
| + -                                                  | left to right | additive       |
| << >>                                                | left to right | shifting       |
| < <= > >=                                            | left to right | relational     |
| == !=                                                | left to right | equality       |
| &                                                    | left to right | bitwise AND    |
| ^                                                    | left to right | bitwise XOR    |
|                                                      | left to right | bitwise OR     |
| &&                                                   | left to right | logical AND    |
|                                                      | left to right | logical OR     |
| ?:                                                   | right to left | conditional    |
| = += -= *= /= &=  = ^= <<= >>= %=                    | right to left | assignment     |
| ,                                                    | left to right | comma          |

## 10.10 Bit Fields (1 of 7)

- C enables you to specify the number of bits in which an unsigned int or int member of a structure or union is stored.
- This is referred to as a **bit field**.
- Bit fields enable better memory utilization by storing data in the minimum number of bits required.
- Bit field members **must** be declared as int or unsigned int.

## 10.10 Bit Fields (2 of 7)

- Consider the following structure definition:
  - **struct bitCard {**  
    **unsigned int face : 4;**  
    **unsigned int suit : 2;**  
    **unsigned int color : 1;**  
    **};**

which contains three unsigned int bit fields—face, suit and color—used to represent a card from a deck of 52 cards.

## 10.10 Bit Fields (3 of 7)

- A bit field is declared by following an unsigned `int` or `int` **member name** with a colon (`:`) and an integer constant representing the **width** of the field (i.e., the number of bits in which the member is stored).
- The constant representing the width must be an integer between 0 and the total number of bits used to store an `int` on your system, inclusive.
- Our examples were tested on a computer with 4-byte (32-bit) integers.
- The preceding structure definition indicates that member `face` is stored in 4 bits, member `suit` is stored in 2 bits and member `color` is stored in 1 bit.

## 10.10 Bit Fields (4 of 7)

- The number of bits is based on the desired range of values for each structure member.
- Member `face` stores values from 0 (Ace) through 12 (King)—4 bits can store values in the range 0–15.
- Member `suit` stores values from 0 through 3 (0 = Diamonds, 1 = Hearts, 2 = Clubs, 3 = Spades)—2 bits can store values in the range 0–3.
- Finally, member `color` stores either 0 (Red) or 1 (Black)—1 bit can store either 0 or 1.
- Figure 10.16 (see slides 123-125) (output shown in Figure 10.17 (see slide 126)) creates array `deck` containing 52 struct `bitCard` structures



## 10.10 Bit Fields (5 of 7)

- Function `fillDeck` inserts the 52 cards in the deck array and function `deal` prints the 52 cards.
- Notice that bit field members of structures are accessed exactly as any other structure member.
- Member `color` is included as a means of indicating the card color on a system that allows color displays.
- It's possible to specify an **unnamed bit field** to be used as **padding** in the structure.

## 10.10 Bit Fields (6 of 7)

- For example, the structure definition

```
– struct example {  
    unsigned int a : 13;  
    unsignedint   : 19;  
    unsigned int b : 4;  
};
```

uses an unnamed 19-bit field as padding—nothing can be stored in those 19 bits.

- Member b (on our 4-byte-word computer) is stored in another storage unit.

# Figure 10.16 Representing Cards With Bit Fields in a Struct (1 of 3)

```
1 // Fig. 10.16: fig10_16.c
2 // Representing cards with bit fields in a struct
3 #include <stdio.h>
4 #define CARDS 52
5
6 // bitCard structure definition with bit fields
7 struct bitCard {
8     unsigned int face : 4; // 4 bits; 0-15
9     unsigned int suit : 2; // 2 bits; 0-3
10    unsigned int color : 1; // 1 bit; 0-1
11 };
12
13 typedef struct bitCard Card; // new type name for struct bitCard
14
15 void fillDeck(Card * const wDeck); // prototype
16 void deal(const Card * const wDeck); // prototype
17
18 int main(void)
19 {
20     Card deck[CARDS]; // create array of Cards
21
22     fillDeck(deck);
23 }
```

# Figure 10.16 Representing Cards With Bit Fields in a Struct (2 of 3)

```
24     puts("Card values 0-12 correspond to Ace through King");
25     puts("Suit values 0-3 correspond Hearts, Diamonds, Clubs and Spades");
26     puts("Color values 0-1 correspond to red and black\n");
27     deal(deck);
28 }
29
30 // initialize Cards
31 void fillDeck(Card * const wDeck)
32 {
33     // loop through wDeck
34     for (size_t i = 0; i < CARDS; ++i) {
35         wDeck[i].face = i % (CARDS / 4);
36         wDeck[i].suit = i / (CARDS / 4);
37         wDeck[i].color = i / (CARDS / 2);
38     }
39 }
40
```

# Figure 10.16 Representing Cards With Bit Fields in a Struct (3 of 3)

```
41 // output cards in two-column format; cards 0-25 indexed with
42 // k1 (column 1); cards 26-51 indexed with k2 (column 2)
43 void deal(const Card * const wDeck)
44 {
45     printf("%-6s%-6s%-15s%-6s%-6s\n", "Card", "Suit", "Color",
46         "Card", "Suit", "Color");
47
48     // loop through wDeck
49     for (size_t k1 = 0, k2 = k1 + 26; k1 < CARDS / 2; ++k1, ++k2) {
50         printf("Card:%3d Suit:%2d Color:%2d ",
51             wDeck[k1].face, wDeck[k1].suit, wDeck[k1].color);
52         printf("Card:%3d Suit:%2d Color:%2d\n",
53             wDeck[k2].face, wDeck[k2].suit, wDeck[k2].color);
54     }
55 }
```

# Figure 10.17 Output of the Program in Figure 10.16

Card values 0-12 correspond to Ace through King  
Suit values 0-3 correspond Hearts, Diamonds, Clubs and Spades  
Color values 0-1 correspond to red and black

| Card | Suit | Color | Card | Suit | Color |
|------|------|-------|------|------|-------|
| 0    | 0    | 0     | 0    | 2    | 1     |
| 1    | 0    | 0     | 1    | 2    | 1     |
| 2    | 0    | 0     | 2    | 2    | 1     |
| 3    | 0    | 0     | 3    | 2    | 1     |
| 4    | 0    | 0     | 4    | 2    | 1     |
| 5    | 0    | 0     | 5    | 2    | 1     |
| 6    | 0    | 0     | 6    | 2    | 1     |
| 7    | 0    | 0     | 7    | 2    | 1     |
| 8    | 0    | 0     | 8    | 2    | 1     |
| 9    | 0    | 0     | 9    | 2    | 1     |
| 10   | 0    | 0     | 10   | 2    | 1     |
| 11   | 0    | 0     | 11   | 2    | 1     |
| 12   | 0    | 0     | 12   | 2    | 1     |
| 0    | 1    | 0     | 0    | 3    | 1     |
| 1    | 1    | 0     | 1    | 3    | 1     |
| 2    | 1    | 0     | 2    | 3    | 1     |
| 3    | 1    | 0     | 3    | 3    | 1     |
| 4    | 1    | 0     | 4    | 3    | 1     |
| 5    | 1    | 0     | 5    | 3    | 1     |
| 6    | 1    | 0     | 6    | 3    | 1     |
| 7    | 1    | 0     | 7    | 3    | 1     |
| 8    | 1    | 0     | 8    | 3    | 1     |
| 9    | 1    | 0     | 9    | 3    | 1     |
| 10   | 1    | 0     | 10   | 3    | 1     |
| 11   | 1    | 0     | 11   | 3    | 1     |
| 12   | 1    | 0     | 12   | 3    | 1     |

## 10.10 Bit Fields (7 of 7)

- An **unnamed bit field with a zero width** is used to align the next bit field on a new **storage-unit boundary**.
- For example, the structure definition

```
– struct example {  
    unsigned int a : 13;  
    unsigned int : 0;  
    unsigned int b : 4;  
};
```

uses an unnamed 0-bit field to skip the remaining bits (as many as there are) of the storage unit in which a is stored and to align b on the next storage-unit boundary.

## Performance Tip 10.2

Bit fields help reduce the amount of memory a program needs.



## Portability Tip 10.9

Bit-field manipulations are machine dependent.

# Common Programming Error 10.12

Attempting to access individual bits of a bit field as if they were elements of an array is a syntax error. Bit fields are not “arrays of bits.”

# Common Programming Error 10.13

Attempting to take the address of a bit field (the & operator may not be used with bit fields because they do not have addresses).

## Performance Tip 10.3

Although bit fields save space, using them can cause the compiler to generate slower-executing machine-language code. This occurs because it takes extra machine-language operations to access only portions of an addressable storage unit. This is one of many examples of the kinds of space–time trade-offs that occur in computer science.

## 10.11 Enumeration Constants (1 of 3)

- An enumeration (discussed briefly in Section 5.11), introduced by the keyword `enum`, is a set of integer **enumeration constants** represented by identifiers.
- Values in an `enum` start with 0, unless specified otherwise, and are incremented by 1.
- For example, the enumeration

```
— enum months {  
    JAN, FEB, MAR, APR, MAY, JUN, JUL, AUG, SEP,  
    OCT, NOV, DEC};
```

creates a new type, `enum months`, in which the identifiers are set to the integers 0 to 11, respectively.

## 10.11 Enumeration Constants (2 of 3)

- To number the months 1 to 12, use the following enumeration:
  - `enum months {  
    JAN = 1, FEB, MAR, APR, MAY, JUN, JUL, AUG,  
    SEP, OCT, NOV, DEC};`
- Because the first value in the preceding enumeration is explicitly set to 1, the remaining values are incremented from 1, resulting in the values 1 through 12.
- The identifiers in an enumeration must be unique.
- The value of each enumeration constant of an enumeration can be set explicitly in the definition by assigning a value to the identifier.

## 10.11 Enumeration Constants (3 of 3)

- Multiple members of an enumeration can have the same constant value.
- In the program of Figure 10.18 see slides 138-139, the enumeration variable month is used in a for statement to print the months of the year from the array monthName.
- We've made monthName[0] the empty string "".
- You could set monthName[0] to a value such as \*\*\*ERROR\*\*\* to indicate that a logic error occurred.

# Common Programming Error 10.14

Assigning a value to an enumeration constant after it's been defined is a syntax error.



# Good Programming Practice 10.5

Use only uppercase letters in enumeration constant names. This makes these constants stand out in a program and reminds you that enumeration constants are not variables.

## Figure 10.18 Using an Enumeration (1 of 2)

```
1 // Fig. 10.18: fig10_18.c
2 // Using an enumeration
3 #include <stdio.h>
4
5 // enumeration constants represent months of the year
6 enum months {
7     JAN = 1, FEB, MAR, APR, MAY, JUN, JUL, AUG, SEP, OCT, NOV, DEC
8 };
9
10 int main(void)
11 {
12     // initialize array of pointers
13     const char *monthName[] = { "", "January", "February", "March",
14         "April", "May", "June", "July", "August", "September", "October",
15         "November", "December" };
16
17     // loop through months
18     for (enum months month = JAN; month <= DEC; ++month) {
19         printf("%2d%11s\n", month, monthName[month]);
20     }
21 }
```

## Figure 10.18 Using an Enumeration (2 of 2)

```
1  January
2  February
3   March
4   April
5    May
6    June
7    July
8   August
9  September
10 October
11 November
12 December
```

# Copyright



**This work is protected by United States copyright laws and is provided solely for the use of instructors in teaching their courses and assessing student learning. Dissemination or sale of any part of this work (including on the World Wide Web) will destroy the integrity of the work and is not permitted. The work and materials from it should never be made available to students except by instructors using the accompanying text in their classes. All recipients of this work are expected to abide by these restrictions and to honor the intended pedagogical purposes and the needs of other instructors who rely on these materials.**