

Introduction to Computers and Programming

Lecture 12 – Chap 20+chap18
Low level programming
Variable declaration

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Low level programming

- bit operations**

Bitwise Shift Operators

- ❑ C provides six ***bitwise operators***, which operate on integer data at the bit level.
- ❑ The bitwise shift operators shift the bits in an integer to the left or right:
 - << left shift
 - >> right shift
- ❑ The operands for << and >> may be of any integer type (including `char`).

Bitwise Shift Operators

- ❑ The value of $i \ll j$ is the result when the bits in i are shifted left by j places.
 - For each bit that is “shifted off” the left end of i , a zero bit enters at the right.
- ❑ The value of $i \gg j$ is the result when i is shifted right by j places.
 - If i is of an unsigned type or if the value of i is nonnegative, zeros are added at the left as needed.
 - If i is negative, the result is implementation-defined.

Bitwise Shift Operators

```
unsigned short i, j;  
i = 13;  
/* i is now 13 (binary 00000000000001101) */  
j = i << 2;  
/* j is now 52 (binary 00000000000110100) */  
j = i >> 2;  
/* j is now 3 (binary 00000000000000011) */
```

❑ Compound assignment operators <<= and >>=:

```
i <<= 2;  
/* i is now 52 (binary 00000000000110100) */
```

❑ The bitwise shift operators have lower precedence than the arithmetic operators, :

$i \ll 2 + 1$ means $i \ll (2 + 1)$, not $(i \ll 2) + 1$

Bitwise Complement, *And*, Exclusive *Or*, and Inclusive *Or*

- ❑ four additional bitwise operators:
 - ~ bitwise complement
 - & bitwise *and*
 - ^ bitwise exclusive *or*
 - | bitwise inclusive *or*
- ❑ The ~, &, ^, and | operators perform Boolean operations on all bits in their operands.
- ❑ The ^ operator produces 0 whenever both operands have a 1 bit, whereas | produces 1.

Examples of ~, &, ^, and | operators

```
unsigned short i, j, k;
```

```
i = 21;
```

```
/* i is now      21 (binary 00000000000010101) */
```

```
j = 56;
```

```
/* j is now      56 (binary 00000000000111000) */
```

```
k = ~i;
```

```
/* k is now 65514 (binary 1111111111101010) */
```

```
k = i & j;
```

```
/* k is now      16 (binary 00000000000010000) */
```

```
k = i ^ j;
```

```
/* k is now      45 (binary 00000000000101101) */
```

```
k = i | j;
```

```
/* k is now      61 (binary 00000000000111101) */
```

Bitwise Complement, *And*, Exclusive *Or*, and Inclusive *Or*

- ❑ The \sim operator can be used to make low-level programs.
 - An integer whose bits are all 1: ~ 0
 - An integer whose bits are all 1 except for the last five: $\sim 0x1f$
- ❑ Each of the \sim , $\&$, \wedge , and $|$ operators has a different precedence:

Highest: \sim

$\&$

\wedge

Lowest: $|$

- ❑ Examples:

$i \& \sim j | k$ means $(i \& (\sim j)) | k$

$i \wedge j \& \sim k$ means $i \wedge (j \& (\sim k))$

Compound assignment `&=`, `^=`, and `|=`

```
i = 21;
/* i is now 21 (binary 00000000000010101) */

j = 56;
/* j is now 56 (binary 00000000000111000) */

i &= j;
/* i is now 16 (binary 00000000000010000) */

i ^= j;
/* i is now 40 (binary 00000000000101000) */

i |= j;
/* i is now 56 (binary 00000000000111000) */
```

Bitwise Operators to Access Bits

- ❑ **Setting a bit.** The easiest way to set bit 4 of `i` is to *or* the value of `i` with the constant `0x0010`:

```
i = 0x0000;
/* i is now 00000000000000000000 */

i |= 0x0010;
/* i is now 000000000000010000 */
```

- ❑ If the position of the bit is stored in the variable `j`, a shift operator can be used to create the mask:

```
i |= 1 << j;          /* sets bit j */
```

- ❑ **Example:** If `j` has the value 3, then `1 << j` is `0x0008`.

Bitwise Operators to Access Bits

- ❑ **Clearing a bit.** Clearing bit 4 of `i` requires a mask with a 0 bit in position 4 and 1 bits everywhere else:

```
i = 0x00ff;
/* i is now 0000000011111111 */

i &= ~0x0010;
/* i is now 0000000011101111 */
```

- ❑ A statement that clears a bit whose position is stored in a variable:

```
i &= ~(1 << j);      /* clears bit j */
```

Bitwise Operators to Access Bits

- ❑ **Testing a bit.** An `if` statement that tests whether bit 4 of `i` is set:

```
if (i & 0x0010) ... /* tests bit 4 */
```

- ❑ A statement that tests whether bit `j` is set:

```
if (i & 1 << j) ... /* tests bit j */
```

Bitwise Operators to Access Bits

- ❑ Suppose that bits 0, 1, and 2 of a number correspond to the colors blue, green, and red, respectively.
- ❑ Names that represent the three bit positions:

```
#define BLUE    1
#define GREEN   2
#define RED     4
```

- ❑ Examples of setting, clearing, and testing the BLUE bit:

```
i  |= BLUE;           /* sets BLUE bit    */
i  &= ~BLUE;          /* clears BLUE bit */
if (i & BLUE) ...     /* tests BLUE bit  */
```

Bitwise Operators to Access Bits

- ❑ It's also easy to set, clear, or test several bits at time:

```
i |= BLUE | GREEN;
/* sets BLUE and GREEN bits */

i &= ~(BLUE | GREEN);
/* clears BLUE and GREEN bits */

if (i & (BLUE | GREEN)) ...
/* tests BLUE and GREEN bits */
```

- ❑ The `if` statement tests whether either the `BLUE` bit or the `GREEN` bit is set.

Modifying a bit-field

- ❑ Modifying a bit-field requires two operations:

- A bitwise *and* (to clear the bit-field)
- A bitwise *or* (to store new bits in the bit-field)

```
i = i & ~0x0070 | 0x0050;  
/* stores 101 in bits 4-6 */
```

- ❑ *j* contains the value to be stored in bits 4–6 of *i*.
- ❑ *j* will need to be shifted into position before bitwise :

```
i = (i & ~0x0070) | (j << 4);  
/* stores j in bits 4-6 */
```

Retrieving a bit-field

- ❑ Fetching a bit-field at the right end of a number (in the least significant bits) is easy:

```
j = i & 0x0007;  
/* retrieves bits 0-2 */
```

- ❑ If the bit-field isn't at the right end of `i`, shift first the bit-field and extract the field using the `&` operator:

```
j = (i >> 4) & 0x0007;  
/* retrieves bits 4-6 */
```




Bit-Fields

Bit-Fields in Structures

- ❑ DOS stores the date at which a file was created or last modified.
- ❑ Since days, months, and years are small numbers, storing them as normal integers would waste space.
- ❑ DOS allocates only 16 bits for a date, with 5 bits for the day, 4 bits for the month, and 7 bits for the year:



Bit-Fields Structures in C

- ❑ File date bit-fields for an identical layout:

```
struct file_date {  
    unsigned int day: 5;  
    unsigned int month: 4;  
    unsigned int year: 7;  
};
```

- ❑ A condensed version:

```
struct file_date {  
    unsigned int day: 5, month: 4, year: 7;  
};
```

Bit-Fields in Structures

- ❑ A bit-field can be used as any other member of a structure:

```
struct file_date fd;
```

```
fd.day = 28;
```

```
fd.month = 12;
```

```
fd.year = 8;          /* represents 1988 */
```

- ❑ Appearance of the `fd` variable after these assignments:

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

Bit-Fields in Structures

- ❑ The address operator (&) can't be applied to a bit-field.
- ❑ Because of this rule, functions such as `scanf` can't store data directly in a bit-field:

```
scanf ("%d", &fd.day);    /*** WRONG ***/
```

- ❑ We can still use `scanf` to read input into an ordinary variable and then assign it to `fd.day`.

How Bit-Fields Are Stored

- ❑ The same structure with the name of the seconds field omitted:

```
struct file_time {  
    unsigned int : 5;          /* not used */  
    unsigned int minutes: 6;  
    unsigned int hours: 5;  
};
```

- ❑ The remaining bit-fields will be aligned as if seconds were still present.

How Bit-Fields Are Stored

- ❑ The length of an unnamed bit-field can be 0:

```
struct s {  
    unsigned int a: 4;  
    unsigned int : 0;    /* 0-length bit-field */  
    unsigned int b: 8;  
};
```

- ❑ A 0-length bit-field tells the compiler to align the following bit-field at the beginning of a storage unit.
 - If storage units are 8 bits long, the compiler will allocate 4 bits for *a*, skip 4 bits to the next storage unit, and then allocate 8 bits for *b*.
 - If storage units are 16 bits long, the compiler will allocate 4 bits for *a*, skip 12 bits, and then allocate 8 bits for *b*.



Declarations

Declaration Syntax

- ❑ A declaration with a storage class and three declarators:

storage class declarators
↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
static float x, y, *p;
 ↑
 type specifier

- ❑ A declaration with a type qualifier and initializer but no storage class:

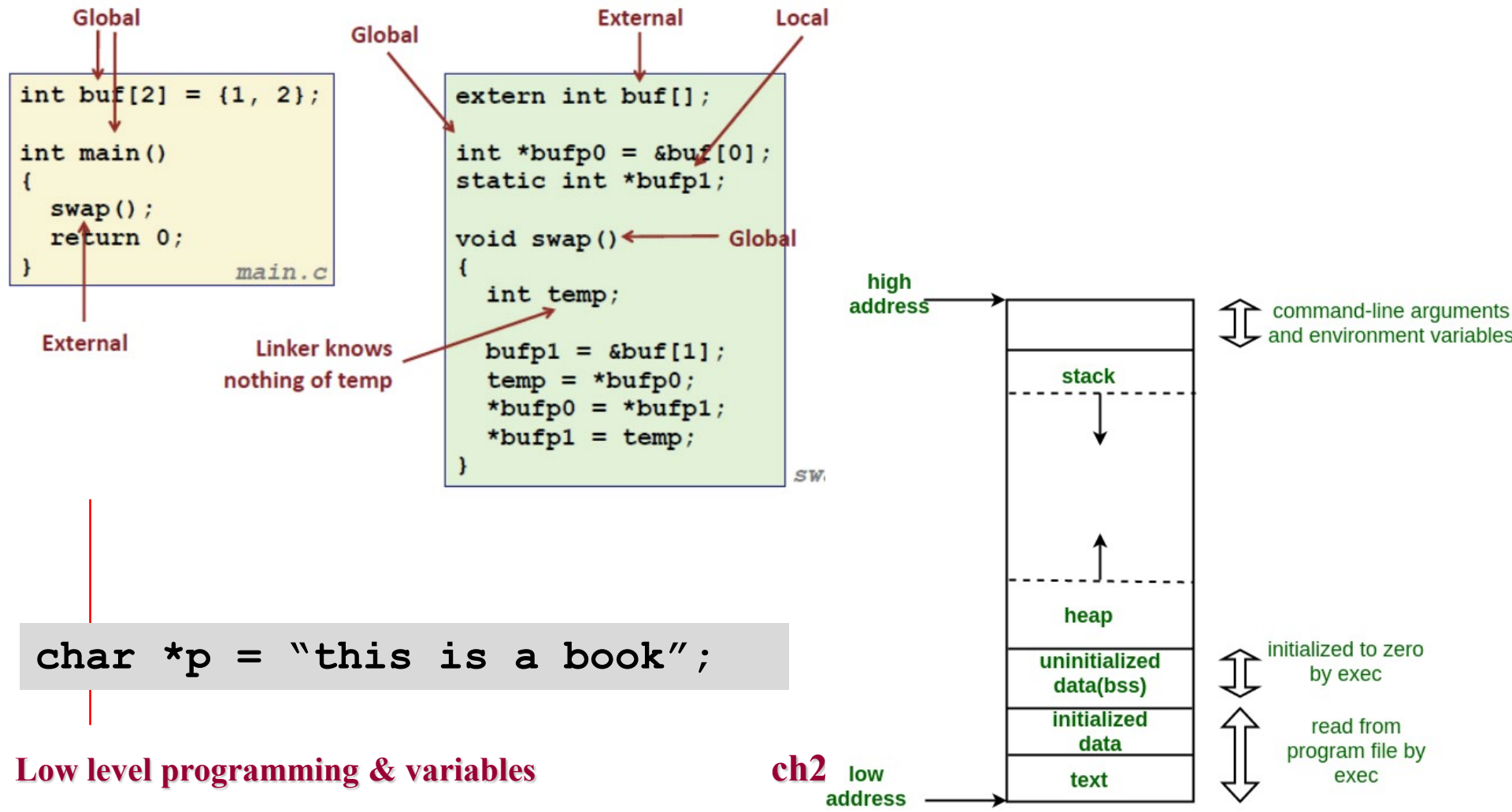
type qualifier declarator
↓ ↓
const char month[] = "January";
 ↑ ↑
 type specifier initializer

Declaration Syntax

- ❑ There are four ***storage classes***: `auto`, `static`, `extern`, and `register`.
- ❑ In C89, two ***type qualifiers***: `const` and `volatile`.
- ❑ ***type specifiers***: `void`, `char`, `short`, `int`, `long`, `float`, `double`, `signed`, and `unsigned` are all.
- ❑ Type specifiers also include specifications of structures, unions, and enumerations.
 - Examples: `struct point { int x, y; }`,
`struct { int x, y; }`, `struct point`.
- ❑ Declarators include:
 - Identifiers (names of simple variables)
 - Identifiers followed by `[]` (array names)
 - Identifiers preceded by `*` (pointer names)
 - Identifiers followed by `()` (function names)

Dynamically allocating Storage

- ❑ `malloc` and the other memory allocation functions obtain memory blocks from a storage pool known as **heap**.



Properties of Variables

❑ Example:

```
int i;  static storage duration
       file scope
       external linkage

void f(void)
{
    int j;  automatic storage duration
           block scope
           no linkage
}
```

- ❑ We can alter these properties by specifying an explicit storage class: `auto`, `static`, `extern`, or `register`.

The `static` Storage Class

❑ Example:

```
static int i;
void f(void)
{
    static int j;
}
```

Annotations for `static int i;`:

- static storage duration
- file scope
- internal linkage**

Annotations for `static int j;`:

- static storage duration**
- block scope
- no linkage

The `static` Storage Class

- ❑ Declaring a local variable to be `static` allows a function to **retain information between calls**.

- ❑ use `static` for reasons of efficiency:

```
char digit_to_hex_char(int digit)
{
    static const char hex_chars[16] =
        "0123456789ABCDEF";

    return hex_chars[digit];
}
```

- ❑ Declaring `hex_chars` to be `static` saves time, because `static` variables are initialized only once.

The `register` Storage Class

- ❑ `register` is best used for variables that are accessed and/or updated frequently.
- ❑ The loop control variable in a `for` statement is a good candidate for `register` treatment:

```
int sum_array(int a[], int n)
{
    register int i;
    int sum = 0;

    for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
        sum += a[i];
    return sum;
}
```

Type Qualifiers

- ❑ There are two type qualifiers: `const` and `volatile`.
- ❑ `const` is used to declare “read-only” objects.
- ❑ Examples:

```
const int n = 10;  
const int tax_brackets[] =  
    {750, 2250, 3750, 5250, 7000};
```

- ❑ `volatile` declaration of a pointer variable that will point to a volatile memory location:

```
volatile BYTE *p;  
/* p will point to a volatile byte */
```


Summary example

	<i>Name</i>	<i>Storage Duration</i>	<i>Scope</i>	<i>Linkage</i>
<code>int a;</code>	a	static	file	external
<code>extern int b;</code>	b	static	file	†
<code>static int c;</code>	c	static	file	internal
<code>void f(int d,</code>	d	automatic	block	none
<code> register int e)</code>	e	automatic	block	none
<code>{</code>	g	automatic	block	none
<code> auto int g;</code>	h	automatic	block	none
<code> int h;</code>	i	static	block	none
<code> static int i;</code>	j	static	block	†
<code> extern int j;</code>	k	automatic	block	none
<code> register int k;</code>				
<code>}</code>				