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## Basic C Elements

- Variables
- named, typed data items
- Operators
- predefined actions performed on data items
- combined with variables to form expressions, statements
- Rules and usage
- Implementation using LC-3 instructions


## Data Types

- C has three basic data types
int integer (at least 16 bits)
double floating point (at least 32 bits)
char character (at least 8 bits)
- Exact size can vary, depending on processor
- int is supposed to be "natural" integer size, for LC-3 that's 16 bits, LC-3 does not have double
- Int on a modern processor is usually 32 bits, double is usually 64 bits


## Variable Names

- Any combination of letters, numbers, and underscore (_)
- Case matters
- "sum" is different from "Sum", this is also true of function names
- Cannot begin with a number
- usually variables beginning with underscore are used only in special library routines
- Only first 31 characters are used
- actually that's compiler dependent, so be careful not to create ambiguous variables!


## Examples

## - Legal

i
wordsPerSecond words_per_second _green aReally_longName_moreThan31chars aReally_longName_moreThan31characters

## - Illegal

10sdigit ten'sdigit reserved keyword done?

```
double
```


## Literals

## - Integer

123 /* decimal */
-123
0x123 /* hexadecimal */

## - Floating point

6.023
6.023 e 23 /* 6.023 x $10^{23}$ */

5E12 /* 5.0 x $10^{12 ~ * / ~}$

- Character
'c'
'\n' /* newline */
' \xA' /* ASCII 10 (0xA) */


## Scope: Global and Local

- Where is the variable accessible?
- Global: accessed anywhere in program
- Local: only accessible in a particular region
- Compiler infers scope from where variable is declared in the program
- programmer doesn't have to explicitly state
- Variable is local to the block in which it is declared
- block defined by open and closed braces \{ \}
- can access variable declared in any "containing" block
- global variables are declared outside all blocks


## Example

```
#include <stdio.h>
int itsGlobal = 0;
main()
{
        int itsLocal = 1; /* local to main */
        printf("Global %d Local %d\n itsGlobal, itsLocal);
    {
        int itsLocal = 2; /* local to this block */
        itsGlobal = 4; /* change global variabie */
        printf("Global %d Local %d\n", itsGlobal, itsLocal);
        }
        printf("Global %d Local %d\n", itsGlobal, itsLocal);
}
Output
    Global 0 Local 1
    Global 4 Local 2
    Global 4 Local 1
```


## Operators

－Programmers manipulate variables using the operators provided by the high－level language．
－Variables and operators combine to form expressions and statements．
－These constructs denote the work to be done by the program．
－Each operator may correspond to many machine instructions．
－Example：The multiply operator（＊）typically requires multiple LC－3 ADD instructions．

## Expression

－Any combination of variables，constants， operators，and function calls
－every expression has a type，derived from the types of its components（according to C typing rules）
－Examples：

－シ－シーローと（y）


## Statement

- Expresses a complete unit of work
- executed in sequential order
- Simple statement ends with semicolon

- $y=y \dot{y} \dot{-} ; / *$ after multiplication */
- ; /* null statement */
- Compound statement groups simple statements using braces.
- syntactically equivalent to a simple statement



## Operators

Three things to know about each operator:

- (1) Function
- what does the operator do?


## - (2) Precedence

- in which order are operators combined?
- Example: $a$ * $b+c$ * $d$ " is the same as "(a * b) + (c *d)" since multiply has higher precedence than addition
- (3) Associativity
- in which order are operators of the same precedence combined?
- Example: $a-b-c$ " is the same as "(a-b) - c" because add and subtract associate left-to-right


## Assignment Operator

- Changes the value of a variable.


2. Set value of left-hand side variable to result.

## Assignment Operator

- All expressions evaluate to a value, even ones with the assignment operator.
- For assignment, the result is the value assigned.
- usually (but not always) the value of right-hand side
- type conversion might make assigned value different than computed value
- Assignment associates right to left.
$y=3=3 ;$
- $y$ gets the value 3 , because $(x=3)$ evaluates to the value 3 .

| $\square$ <br> Arithmetic Operators |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Symbol | Operation | Usage | Precedence | Assoc |
| * | multiply | \% | 6 | I-to-r |
| 1 | divide | $\because 1 \%$ | 6 | I-to-r |
| \% | modulo | シ \% | 6 | I-to-r |
| + | add | \% + | 7 | I-to-r |
| - | subtract | - | 7 | I-to-r |

- All associate left to right.
- : / \% have higher precedence than $\dot{r}-$.
- Full precedence chart on page 602 of textbook


## Arithmetic Expressions

- If mixed types, smaller type is "promoted" to larger.

> צ-

- if $x$ is int, converted to float and result is float
- Integer division $==$ fraction is dropped.
$\because / 3$
- if $x$ is int and $x=5$, result is 1 (not $1.666666 \ldots$ )
- Modulo -- result is remainder.
\% 3
- if $x$ is int and $x=5$, result is 2 .

Bitwise Operators

| Symbol | Operation | Usage | Precedence | Assoc |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\sim$ | bitwise NOT | ～ | 4 | r－to－I |
| ＜＜ | left shift | シくく | 8 | I－to－r |
| ＞＞ | right shift | シンン | 8 | I－to－r |
| \＆ | bitwise AND | ※ | 11 | I－to－r |
| $\wedge$ | bitwise XOR | ※ \％ | 12 | I－to－r |
| 1 | bitwise OR | $\geq 1 \geq$ | 13 | I－to－r |

－Operate on variables bit－by－bit．
－Like LC－3 AND and NOT instructions．
－Shift operations are logical（not arithmetic）．
－Operate on values－－neither operand is changed．

## Logical Operators

| Symbol | Operation | Usage | Precedence | Assoc |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ！ | logical NOT | ！ | 4 | r－to－I |
| \＆\＆ | logical AND |  | 14 | I－to－r |
| \｜ | Logical OR | $\because 11 \geq$ | 15 | I－to－r |

－Treats entire variable（or value）as TRUE（non－zero）or FALSE（zero）．
－Result of a logcial operation is always either TRUE（1） or FALSE（0）．

## Relational Operators

| Symbol | Operation | Usage | Precedence | Assoc |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ＞ | greater than | シン ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | 9 | I－to－r |
| ＞＝ | greater or equal | $\because$ ン＝ | 9 | I－to－r |
| ＜ | less than | ※く | 9 | I－to－r |
| $<$ | less or equal | $\because \leq=~ \% ~$ | 9 | I－to－r |
| ＝ | equals | $\because==\underline{y}$ | 10 | I－to－r |
| ！＝ | not equals | $\because!=\geq$ | 10 | I－to－r |

－Result is 1 （TRUE）or 0 （FALSE）．
－Note：Don＇t confuse equality（ $==$ ）with assignment $(=)$ ！

## Special Operators：＋＋and－－

| Symbol | Operation | Usage | Precedence | Assoc |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ++ | postincrement |  | 2 | r－to－l |
| -- | postdecrement | $\vdots--$ | 2 | r－to－l |
| ++ | preincrement | $-r-$ | 3 | r－to－l |
| -- | predecrement | $--z$ | 3 | r－to－l |

－Changes value of variable before（or after） its value is used in an expression．
－Pre：Increment／decrement variable before using its value．
－Post：Increment／decrement variable after using its value．

## Using＋＋and－－

$\therefore=4$ ；
y＝ジr；
－Results：$x=5, y=4$
（because x is incremented after assignment）
ェ＝4；
$y=$ r－ris
－Results：$x=5, y=5$
（because x is incremented before assignment）

## Practice with Precedence

－Assume $\mathrm{a}=1, \mathrm{~b}=2, \mathrm{c}=3, \mathrm{~d}=4$ ．

－same as：
※＝（
－For long or confusing expressions， use parentheses，because reader might not have memorized precedence table．
－Note：Assignment operator has lowest precedence， so operations on the right－hand side are evaluated before assignment．

## Special Operator：Conditional

| Symbol | Operation | Usage | Precedence | Assoc |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $?:$ | conditional | $\because ? ¥: ュ$ | 16 | I－to－r |

－If $x$ is TRUE（non－zero），result is $y$ ；else，result is $z$ ．
－Like a MUX，with $x$ as the select signal．


Special Operators：＋＝，＊＝，etc．
－Arithmetic and bitwise operators can be combined with assignment operator．
Statement Equivalent assignment
シ $\dot{-}=\mathrm{y}$ ；

－$=$ Y；
צ $=$－


ジ $/=$ ；

乡 \％ソ ソ
シ シ＝
シ＝シ y
シ1＝
Y＝1 1 ；

All have same precedence and associativity as＝ and associate right－to－left．

シ ${ }^{\circ}=$ Y
廷＝
シ くく＝ソ；
ふ＝ふく ジ
シンン＝！；

## Symbol Table

- Like assembler, compiler needs to know information associated with identifiers
- in assembler, all identifiers were labels and information is address
- Compiler keeps more information
- Name (identifier)
- Type
- Location in memory
- Scope

| Name | Type | Offset | Scope |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| amount | int | 0 | main |
| hours | int | -3 | main |
| minutes | int | -4 | main |
| rate | int | -1 | main |
| seconds | int | -5 | main |
| time | int | -2 | main |

## Allocating Space for Variables

- Global data section
- All global variables stored here R4 points to beginning
- Run-time stack
- Used for local variables
- R6 points to top of stack
- R5 points to top frame on stack
- New frame for each block (goes away when block exited) - Offset = distance from beginning of storage area
, Global: LDR R1, R4, \#4



## Local Variable Storage

- Local variables are stored in an activation record, also known as a stack frame.
- Symbol table "offset" gives the distance from the base of the frame.
- R5 is the frame pointer - holds address of the base of the current frame.
- A new frame is pushed on the run-time stack each time a block is entered.
- Because stack grows downward, base is the highest address of the frame, and variable offsets are $<=0$.


## Variables and Memory Locations

- In our examples, a variable is always stored in memory.
- When assigning to a variable, must store to memory location.
- A real compiler would perform code optimizations that try to keep variables allocated in registers.
Why?

