

Chapter 12

Variables and

Operators

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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 than "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

same identifier



- *Illegal*

10sdigit

ten'sdigit

done?

double

reserved keyword



Literals

● Integer

```
123 /* decimal */
```

```
-123
```

```
0x123 /* hexadecimal */
```

● Floating point

```
6.023
```

```
6.023e23 /* 6.023 x 1023 */
```

```
5E12 /* 5.0 x 1012 */
```

● 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 variable */
        printf("Global %d Local %d\n", itsGlobal, itsLocal);
    }
    printf("Global %d Local %d\n", itsGlobal, itsLocal);
}
```

The diagram illustrates variable scope with two arrows and two circles. A green arrow points from the `itsLocal` variable in the inner block to the `itsLocal` variable in the outer block, indicating that the inner block's `itsLocal` shadows the outer one. A red arrow points from the `itsGlobal` variable in the inner block to the `itsGlobal` variable in the outer block, indicating that both refer to the same global variable. A red circle highlights the `itsLocal` parameter in the inner `printf` call, and a green circle highlights the `itsLocal` parameter in the outer `printf` call.

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.
- An 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:

- `counter >= STOP`
- `x + sqrt(y)`
- `x & z + 3 || 9 - w-- % 6`

Try to make them more readable

Statement

- Expresses a complete unit of work
 - executed in sequential order
- Simple statement ends with semicolon
 - `z = x * y; /* assign product to z */`
 - `y = y + 1; /* after multiplication */`
 - `; /* null statement */`
- Compound statement groups simple statements using braces.
 - syntactically equivalent to a simple statement
 - `{ z = x * y; y = y + 1; }`

Operators

Three things to know about each operator:

● (1) Function

- what does the operator do?

● (2) Precedence

- in which order are operators combined?
- Ex: “ $a * b + c * d$ ” 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.

`x = x + 4;`



1. Evaluate right-hand side.

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 = x = 3;

- y gets the value 3, because (x = 3) evaluates to the value 3.

Arithmetic Operators

Symbol	Operation	Usage	Precedence	Assoc
*	multiply	$x * y$	6	l-to-r
/	divide	x / y	6	l-to-r
%	modulo	$x \% y$	6	l-to-r
+	add	$x + y$	7	l-to-r
-	subtract	$x - y$	7	l-to-r

- All associate left to right.
- * / % have higher precedence than + -.
- Full precedence chart on page 602 of textbook

Arithmetic Expressions

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

$x + 4.3$

- if x is int, converted to double and result is double

- Integer division -- fraction is dropped.

$x / 3$

- if x is int and x=5, result is 1 (not 1.666666...)

- Modulo -- result is remainder.

$x \% 3$

- if x is int and x=5, result is 2.

Bitwise Operators

Symbol	Operation	Usage	Precedence	Assoc
~	bitwise NOT	~x	4	r-to-l
<<	left shift	x << y	8	l-to-r
>>	right shift	x >> y	8	l-to-r
&	bitwise AND	x & y	11	l-to-r
^	bitwise XOR	x ^ y	12	l-to-r
	bitwise OR	x y	13	l-to-r

- Operate on variables bit-by-bit.
 - Like LC-3 AND and NOT instructions.
- Shift left operations are logical. Shift right: implementation dependent. Operate on *values* -- neither operand is changed.

Logical Operators

Symbol	Operation	Usage	Precedence	Assoc
!	logical NOT	!x	4	r-to-l
&&	logical AND	x && y	14	l-to-r
	Logical OR	x y	15	l-to-r

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

Relational Operators

Symbol	Operation	Usage	Precedence	Assoc
>	greater than	$x > y$	9	l-to-r
>=	greater or equal	$x >= y$	9	l-to-r
<	less than	$x < y$	9	l-to-r
<=	less or equal	$x <= y$	9	l-to-r
==	equals	$x == y$	10	l-to-r
!=	not equals	$x != y$	10	l-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	x++	2	r-to-l
--	postdecrement	x--	2	r-to-l
++	preincrement	--x	3	r-to-l
--	predecrement	++x	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 --

```
x = 4;
```

```
y = x++;
```

- Results: $x = 5, y = 4$
(because x is incremented after assignment)

```
x = 4;
```

```
y = ++x;
```

- Results: $x = 5, y = 5$
(because x is incremented before assignment)

Practice with Precedence

- Assume $a=1$, $b=2$, $c=3$, $d=4$.

`x = a * b + c * d / 2; /* x = 8 */`

- same as:

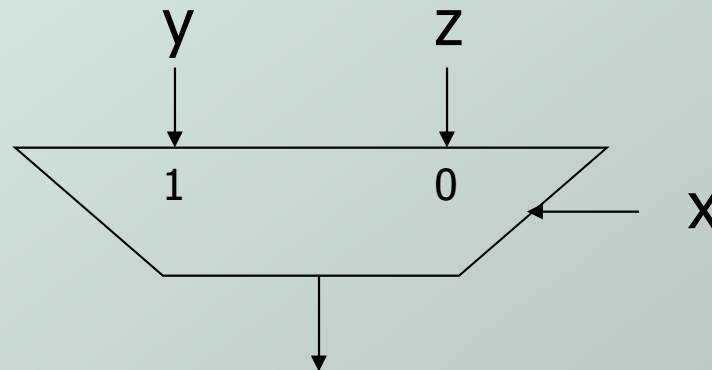
`x = (a * b) + ((c * d) / 2);`

- 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	$x?y:z$	16	l-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

`x += y;`

`x = x + y;`

`x -= y;`

`x = x - y;`

`x *= y;`

`x = x * y;`

`x /= y;`

`x = x / y;`

`x %= y;`

`x = x % y;`

`x &= y;`

`x = x & y;`

`x |= y;`

`x = x | y;`

`x ^= y;`

`x = x ^ y;`

`x <<= y;`

`x = x << y;`

`x >>= y;`

`x = x >> y;`

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

Variables: LC-3 Implementation

- We will later see how these are implemented in LC-3:
 - Symbol table
 - Memory space allocation
 - How local and global variables are stored.
- **We will return to the following slides later.**

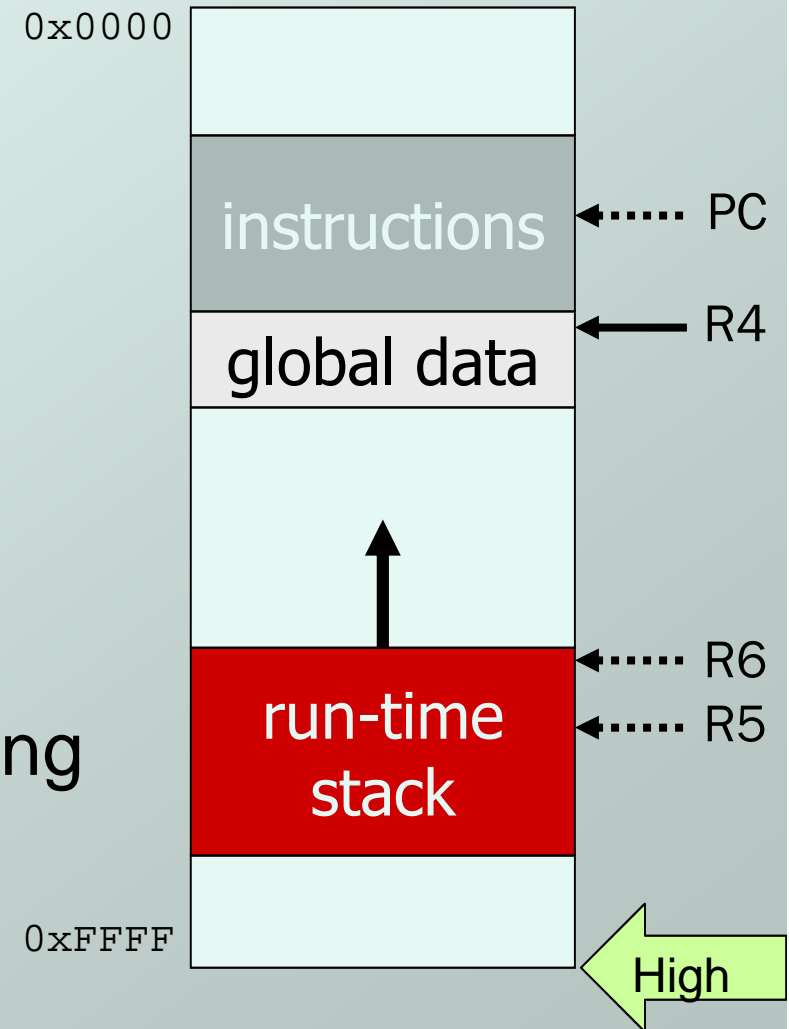
Symbol Table

- Like assembler, compiler needs to know information associated with identifiers
 - in assembler, all identifiers are 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

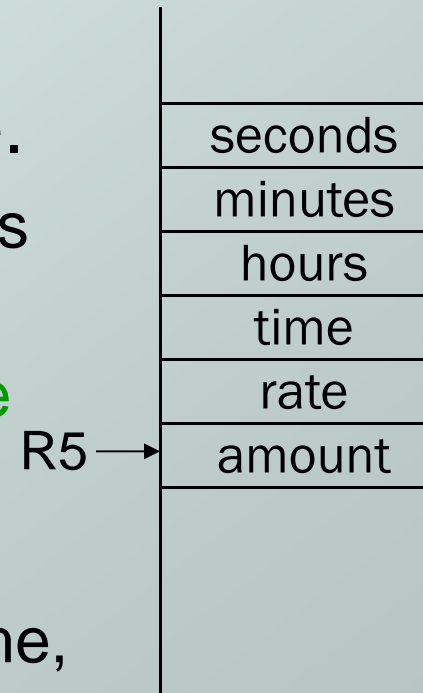
Allocating Space for Variables

- **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: **LDR R2, R5, #-3**



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?

Example: Compiling to LC-3

```
#include <stdio.h>
int inGlobal;

main()
{
    int inLocal;    /* local to main */
    int outLocalA;
    int outLocalB;

    /* initialize */
    inLocal = 5;
    inGlobal = 3;

    /* perform calculations */
    outLocalA = inLocal++ & ~inGlobal;
    outLocalB = (inLocal + inGlobal) - (inLocal -
    inGlobal);

    /* print results */
    printf("The results are: outLocalA = %d, outLocalB
    = %d\n", outLocalA, outLocalB);
}
```

Example: Symbol Table

Name	Type	Offset	Scope
<code>inGlobal</code>	<code>int</code>	<code>0</code>	<code>global</code>
<code>inLocal</code>	<code>int</code>	<code>0</code>	<code>main</code>
<code>outLocalA</code>	<code>int</code>	<code>-1</code>	<code>main</code>
<code>outLocalB</code>	<code>int</code>	<code>-2</code>	<code>main</code>

Example: Code Generation

- `; main`
- `; initialize variables`

```
AND R0, R0, #0
ADD R0, R0, #5 ; inLocal = 5
STR R0, R5, #0 ; (offset = 0)
```

```
AND R0, R0, #0
ADD R0, R0, #3 ; inGlobal = 3
STR R0, R4, #0 ; (offset = 0)
```


Example (continued)

- ; first statement:
- ; outLocalA = inLocal++ & ~inGlobal;

```
LDR R0, R5, #0 ; get inLocal
ADD R1, R0, #1 ; increment
STR R1, R5, #0 ; store
```

```
LDR R1, R4, #0 ; get inGlobal
NOT R1, R1 ; ~inGlobal
AND R2, R0, R1 ; inLocal & ~inGlobal
STR R2, R5, #-1 ; store in outLocalA
; (offset = -1)
```

Example (continued)

- ; next statement:
- ; outLocalB = (inLocal + inGlobal)
; - (inLocal - inGlobal);
LDR R0, R5, #0 ; inLocal
LDR R1, R4, #0 ; inGlobal
ADD R0, R0, R1 ; R0 is sum
LDR R2, R5, #0 ; inLocal
LDR R3, R5, #0 ; inGlobal
NOT R3, R3
ADD R3, R3, #1
ADD R2, R2, R3 ; R2 is difference
NOT R2, R2 ; negate
ADD R2, R2, #1
ADD R0, R0, R2 ; R0 = R0 - R2
STR R0, R5, #-2 ; outLocalB (offset = -2)