

# Chapter 22

# Input/Output

## Introduction

- C's input/output library is the biggest and most important part of the standard library.
- The `<stdio.h>` header is the primary repository of input/output functions, including `printf`, `scanf`, `putchar`, `getchar`, `puts`, and `gets`.
- This chapter provides more information about these six functions.
- It also introduces many new functions, most of which deal with files.

## Introduction

- Topics to be covered:
  - Streams, the `FILE` type, input and output redirection, and the difference between text files and binary files
  - Functions designed specifically for use with files, including functions that open and close files
  - Functions that perform “formatted” input/output
  - Functions that read and write unformatted data (characters, lines, and blocks)
  - Random access operations on files
  - Functions that write to a string or read from a string

## Introduction

- In C99, some I/O functions belong to the `<wchar.h>` header.
- The `<wchar.h>` functions deal with wide characters rather than ordinary characters.
- Functions in `<stdio.h>` that read or write data are known as *byte input/output functions*.
- Similar functions in `<wchar.h>` are called *wide-character input/output functions*.

## Streams

- In C, the term ***stream*** means any source of input or any destination for output.
- Many small programs obtain all their input from one stream (the keyboard) and write all their output to another stream (the screen).
- Larger programs may need additional streams.
- Streams often represent files stored on various media.
- However, they could just as easily be associated with devices such as network ports and printers.

## File Pointers

- Accessing a stream is done through a *file pointer*, which has type `FILE *`.
- The `FILE` type is declared in `<stdio.h>`.
- Certain streams are represented by file pointers with standard names.
- Additional file pointers can be declared as needed:  
`FILE *fp1, *fp2;`

## Standard Streams and Redirection

- `<stdio.h>` provides three standard streams:

<i>File Pointer</i>	<i>Stream</i>	<i>Default Meaning</i>
<code>stdin</code>	Standard input	Keyboard
<code>stdout</code>	Standard output	Screen
<code>stderr</code>	Standard error	Screen

- These streams are ready to use—we don't declare them, and we don't open or close them.

## Standard Streams and Redirection

- The I/O functions discussed in previous chapters obtain input from `stdin` and send output to `stdout`.
- Many operating systems allow these default meanings to be changed via a mechanism known as *redirection*.



## Standard Streams and Redirection

- A typical technique for forcing a program to obtain its input from a file instead of from the keyboard:

```
demo <in.dat
```

This technique is known as *input redirection*.

- ***Output redirection*** is similar:

```
demo >out.dat
```

All data written to `stdout` will now go into the `out.dat` file instead of appearing on the screen.

## Standard Streams and Redirection

- Input redirection and output redirection can be combined:

```
demo <in.dat >out.dat
```

- The < and > characters don't have to be adjacent to file names, and the order in which the redirected files are listed doesn't matter:

```
demo < in.dat > out.dat
```

```
demo >out.dat <in.dat
```

## Standard Streams and Redirection

- One problem with output redirection is that *everything* written to `stdout` is put into a file.
- Writing error messages to `stderr` instead of `stdout` guarantees that they will appear on the screen even when `stdout` has been redirected.

## Text Files versus Binary Files

- `<stdio.h>` supports two kinds of files: text and binary.
- The bytes in a ***text file*** represent characters, allowing humans to examine or edit the file.
  - The source code for a C program is stored in a text file.
- In a ***binary file***, bytes don't necessarily represent characters.
  - Groups of bytes might represent other types of data, such as integers and floating-point numbers.
  - An executable C program is stored in a binary file.

## Text Files versus Binary Files

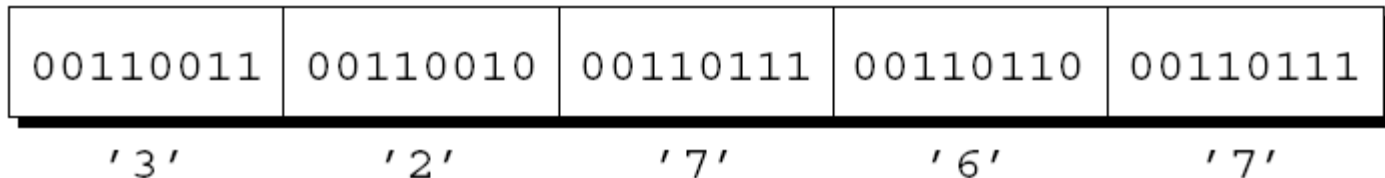
- Text files have two characteristics that binary files don't possess.
- ***Text files are divided into lines.*** Each line in a text file normally ends with one or two special characters.
  - Windows: carriage-return character ( ' \x0d ' ) followed by line-feed character ( ' \x0a ' )
  - UNIX and newer versions of Mac OS: line-feed character
  - Older versions of Mac OS: carriage-return character

## Text Files versus Binary Files

- ***Text files may contain a special “end-of-file” marker.***
  - In Windows, the marker is ' \x1a ' (Ctrl-Z), but it is not required.
  - Most other operating systems, including UNIX, have no special end-of-file character.
- In a binary file, there are no end-of-line or end-of-file markers; all bytes are treated equally.

## Text Files versus Binary Files

- When data is written to a file, it can be stored in text form or in binary form.
- One way to store the number 32767 in a file would be to write it in text form as the characters 3, 2, 7, 6, and 7:



## Text Files versus Binary Files

- The other option is to store the number in binary, which would take as few as two bytes:

01111111	11111111
----------	----------

- Storing numbers in binary can often save space.



## Text Files versus Binary Files

- Programs that read from a file or write to a file must take into account whether it's text or binary.
- A program that displays the contents of a file on the screen will probably assume it's a text file.
- A file-copying program, on the other hand, can't assume that the file to be copied is a text file.
  - If it does, binary files containing an end-of-file character won't be copied completely.
- When we can't say for sure whether a file is text or binary, it's safer to assume that it's binary.

## File Operations

- Simplicity is one of the attractions of input and output redirection.
- Unfortunately, redirection is too limited for many applications.
  - When a program relies on redirection, it has no control over its files; it doesn't even know their names.
  - Redirection doesn't help if the program needs to read from two files or write to two files at the same time.
- When redirection isn't enough, we'll use the file operations that `<stdio.h>` provides.

## Opening a File

- Opening a file for use as a stream requires a call of the `fopen` function.
- Prototype for `fopen`:

```
FILE *fopen(const char * restrict filename,  
            const char * restrict mode);
```
- `filename` is the name of the file to be opened.
  - This argument may include information about the file's location, such as a drive specifier or path.
- `mode` is a “mode string” that specifies what operations we intend to perform on the file.

## Opening a File

- The word `restrict` appears twice in the prototype for `fopen`.
- `restrict`, which is a C99 keyword, indicates that `filename` and `mode` should point to strings that don't share memory locations.
- The C89 prototype for `fopen` doesn't contain `restrict` but is otherwise identical.
- `restrict` has no effect on the behavior of `fopen`, so it can usually be ignored.

## Opening a File

- In Windows, be careful when the file name in a call of `fopen` includes the `\` character.
- The call  
`fopen("c:\project\test1.dat", "r")`  
will fail, because `\t` is treated as a character escape.
- One way to avoid the problem is to use `\\` instead of `\`:  
`fopen("c:\\project\\test1.dat", "r")`
- An alternative is to use the `/` character instead of `\`:  
`fopen("c:/project/test1.dat", "r")`

## Opening a File

- `fopen` returns a file pointer that the program can (and usually will) save in a variable:

```
fp = fopen("in.dat", "r");  
/* opens in.dat for reading */
```

- When it can't open a file, `fopen` returns a null pointer.

## Modes

- Factors that determine which mode string to pass to `fopen`:
  - Which operations are to be performed on the file
  - Whether the file contains text or binary data

## Modes

- Mode strings for **text** files:

### *String*

### *Meaning*

"r"	Open for reading
"w"	Open for writing (file need not exist)
"a"	Open for appending (file need not exist)
"r+"	Open for reading and writing, starting at beginning
"w+"	Open for reading and writing (truncate if file exists)
"a+"	Open for reading and writing (append if file exists)



## Modes

- Mode strings for **binary** files:

### *String*

### *Meaning*

"rb"	Open for reading
"wb"	Open for writing (file need not exist)
"ab"	Open for appending (file need not exist)
"r+b" or "rb+"	Open for reading and writing, starting at beginning
"w+b" or "wb+"	Open for reading and writing (truncate if file exists)
"a+b" or "ab+"	Open for reading and writing (append if file exists)

## Modes

- Note that there are different mode strings for *writing* data and *appending* data.
- When data is written to a file, it normally overwrites what was previously there.
- When a file is opened for appending, data written to the file is added at the end.

## Modes

- Special rules apply when a file is opened for both reading and writing.
  - Can't switch from reading to writing without first calling a file-positioning function unless the reading operation encountered the end of the file.
  - Can't switch from writing to reading without either calling `fflush` or calling a file-positioning function.

## Closing a File

- The `fclose` function allows a program to close a file that it's no longer using.
- The argument to `fclose` must be a file pointer obtained from a call of `fopen` or `freopen`.
- `fclose` returns zero if the file was closed successfully.
- Otherwise, it returns the error code `EOF` (a macro defined in `<stdio.h>`).

## Closing a File

- The outline of a program that opens a file for reading:

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

#define FILE_NAME "example.dat"

int main(void)
{
    FILE *fp;

    fp = fopen(FILE_NAME, "r");
    if (fp == NULL) {
        printf("Can't open %s\n", FILE_NAME);
        exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
    }
    ...
    fclose(fp);
    return 0;
}
```

## Closing a File

- It's not unusual to see the call of `fopen` combined with the declaration of `fp`:

```
FILE *fp = fopen(FILE_NAME, "r");
```

or the test against `NULL`:

```
if ((fp = fopen(FILE_NAME, "r")) == NULL) ...
```

## Attaching a File to an Open Stream

- `freopen` attaches a different file to a stream that's already open.
- The most common use of `freopen` is to associate a file with one of the standard streams (`stdin`, `stdout`, or `stderr`).
- A call of `freopen` that causes a program to begin writing to the file `foo`:

```
if (freopen("foo", "w", stdout) == NULL)
{
    /* error; foo can't be opened */
}
```

## Attaching a File to an Open Stream

- `freopen`'s normal return value is its third argument (a file pointer).
- If it can't open the new file, `freopen` returns a null pointer.



## Attaching a File to an Open Stream

- C99 adds a new twist: if `filename` is a null pointer, `freopen` attempts to change the stream's mode to that specified by the `mode` parameter.
- Implementations aren't required to support this feature.
- If they do, they may place restrictions on which mode changes are permitted.

## Obtaining File Names from the Command Line

- There are several ways to supply file names to a program.
  - Building file names into the program doesn't provide much flexibility.
  - Prompting the user to enter file names can be awkward.
  - Having the program obtain file names from the command line is often the best solution.
- An example that uses the command line to supply two file names to a program named `demo`:  
`demo names.dat dates.dat`

## Obtaining File Names from the Command Line

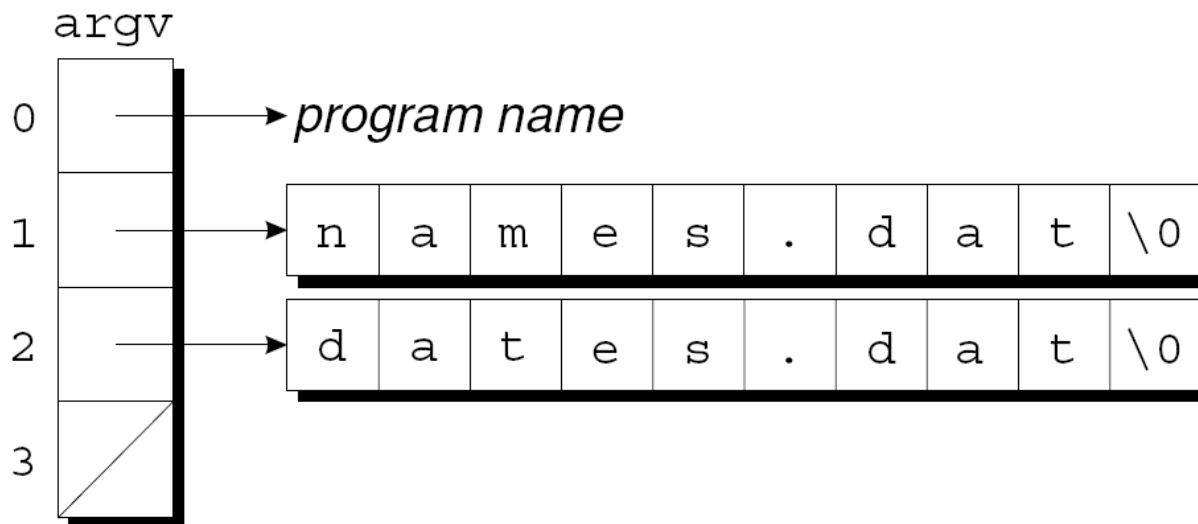
- Chapter 13 showed how to access command-line arguments by defining `main` as a function with two parameters:

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    ...
}
```

- `argc` is the number of command-line arguments.
- `argv` is an array of pointers to the argument strings.

## Obtaining File Names from the Command Line

- `argv[0]` points to the program name, `argv[1]` through `argv[argc - 1]` point to the remaining arguments, and `argv[argc]` is a null pointer.
- In the demo example, `argc` is 3 and `argv` has the following appearance:



## Program: Checking Whether a File Can Be Opened

- The `canopen.c` program determines if a file exists and can be opened for reading.
- The user will give the program a file name to check:  
`canopen file`
- The program will then print either *file* can be opened or *file* can't be opened.
- If the user enters the wrong number of arguments on the command line, the program will print the message `usage: canopen filename`.

## canopen.c

```
/* Checks whether a file can be opened for reading */
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    FILE *fp;

    if (argc != 2) {
        printf("usage: canopen filename\n");
        exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
    }

    if ((fp = fopen(argv[1], "r")) == NULL) {
        printf("%s can't be opened\n", argv[1]);
        exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
    }

    printf("%s can be opened\n", argv[1]);
    fclose(fp);
    return 0;
}
```

## Temporary Files

- Programs often need to create temporary files—files that exist only as long as the program is running.
- `<stdio.h>` provides two functions, `tmpfile()` and `tmpnam()`, for working with temporary files.

## Temporary Files

- `tmpfile` creates a temporary file (opened in "wb+" mode) that will exist until it's closed or the program ends.
- A call of `tmpfile` returns a file pointer that can be used to access the file later:

```
FILE *tempPtr;  
...  
tempPtr = tmpfile();  
    /* creates a temporary file */
```

- If it fails to create a file, `tmpfile` returns a null pointer.



## Temporary Files

- Drawbacks of using `tmpfile`:
  - Don't know the name of the file that `tmpfile` creates.
  - Can't decide later to make the file permanent.
- The alternative is to create a temporary file using `fopen`.
- The `tmpnam` function is useful for ensuring that this file doesn't have the same name as an existing file.

## Temporary Files

- `tmpnam` generates a name for a temporary file.
- If its argument is a null pointer, `tmpnam` stores the file name in a static variable and returns a pointer to it:

```
char *filename;
```

```
...
```

```
filename = tmpnam(NULL);
```

```
/* creates a temporary file name */
```

## Temporary Files

- Otherwise, `tmpnam` copies the file name into a character array provided by the programmer:

```
char filename[L_tmpnam];  
...  
tmpnam(filename);  
    /* creates a temporary file name */
```

- In this case, `tmpnam` also returns a pointer to the first character of this array.
- `L_tmpnam` is a macro in `<stdio.h>` that specifies how long to make a character array that will hold a temporary file name.

## Temporary Files

- The `TMP_MAX` macro (defined in `<stdio.h>`) specifies the maximum number of temporary file names that can be generated by `tmpnam`.
- If it fails to generate a file name, `tmpnam` returns a null pointer.

## File Buffering

- Transferring data to or from a disk drive is a relatively slow operation.
- The secret to achieving acceptable performance is **buffering**.
- Data written to a stream is actually stored in a buffer area in memory; when it's full (or the stream is closed), the buffer is “flushed.”
- Input streams can be buffered in a similar way: the buffer contains data from the input device; input is read from this buffer instead of the device itself.

## File Buffering

- Buffering can result in enormous gains in efficiency, since reading a byte from a buffer or storing a byte in a buffer is very fast.
- It takes time to transfer the buffer contents to or from disk, but one large “block move” is much faster than many tiny byte moves.
- The functions in `<stdio.h>` perform buffering automatically when it seems advantageous.
- On rare occasions, we may need to use the functions `fflush`, `setbuf`, and `setvbuf`.

## File Buffering

- `int fflush(FILE *stream),`
- `void setbuf(FILE * restrict stream,  
char * restrict buf) // old`
- `int setvbuf(FILE * restrict stream,  
char * restrict buf,  
int mode, size_t size)`

## File Buffering

- By calling `fflush`, a program can flush a file's buffer as often as it wishes.
- A call that flushes the buffer for the file associated with `fp`:  

```
fflush(fp);    /* flushes buffer for fp */
```
- A call that flushes *all* output streams:  

```
fflush(NULL); /* flushes all buffers */
```
- `fflush` returns zero if it's successful and EOF if an error occurs.



## File Buffering

- `setvbuf` allows us to change the way a stream is buffered and to control the size and location of the buffer.
- The function's third argument specifies the kind of buffering desired:
  - `_IOFBF` (full buffering)
  - `_IOLBF` (line buffering)
  - `_IONBF` (no buffering)
- Full buffering is the default for streams that aren't connected to interactive devices.

## File Buffering

- `setvbuf`'s second argument (if it's not a null pointer) is the address of the desired buffer.
- The buffer might have static storage duration, automatic storage duration, or even be allocated dynamically.
- `setvbuf`'s last argument is the number of bytes in the buffer.

## File Buffering

- A call of `setvbuf` that changes the buffering of `stream` to full buffering, using the `N` bytes in the `buffer` array as the buffer:  

```
char buffer[N];  
...  
setvbuf(stream, buffer, _IOFBF, N);
```
- `setvbuf` must be called after `stream` is opened but before any other operations are performed on it.

## File Buffering

- It's also legal to call `setvbuf` with a null pointer as the second argument, which requests that `setvbuf` create a buffer with the specified size.
- `setvbuf` returns zero if it's successful.
- It returns a nonzero value if the `mode` argument is invalid or the request can't be honored.

## File Buffering

- `setbuf` is an older function that assumes default values for the buffering mode and buffer size.
- If `buf` is a null pointer, the call `setbuf(stream, buf)` is equivalent to `(void) setvbuf(stream, NULL, _IONBF, 0);`
- Otherwise, it's equivalent to `(void) setvbuf(stream, buf, _IOFBF, BUFSIZ);` where `BUFSIZ` is a macro defined in `<stdio.h>`.
- `setbuf` is considered to be obsolete.

## Miscellaneous File Operations

- The `remove` and `rename` functions allow a program to perform basic file management operations.
- Unlike most other functions in this section, `remove` and `rename` work with file *names* instead of file *pointers*.
- Both functions return zero if they succeed and a nonzero value if they fail.

## Miscellaneous File Operations

- `remove` deletes a file:  

```
remove("foo");
```

/\* deletes the file named "foo" \*/
- If a program uses `fopen` (instead of `tmpfile`) to create a temporary file, it can use `remove` to delete the file before the program terminates.
- The effect of removing a file that's currently open is implementation-defined.

## Miscellaneous File Operations

- `rename` changes the name of a file:  

```
rename("foo", "bar");  
/* renames "foo" to "bar" */
```
- `rename` is handy for renaming a temporary file created using `fopen` if a program should decide to make it permanent.
  - If a file with the new name already exists, the effect is implementation-defined.
- `rename` may fail if asked to rename an open file.



## Formatted I/O

- The next group of library functions use format strings to control reading and writing.
- `printf` and related functions are able to convert data from numeric form to character form during output.
- `scanf` and related functions are able to convert data from character form to numeric form during input.

## The `...printf` Functions

- The `fprintf` and `printf` functions write a variable number of data items to an output stream, using a format string to control the appearance of the output.
- The prototypes for both functions end with the `...` symbol (an *ellipsis*), which indicates a variable number of additional arguments:

```
int fprintf(FILE * restrict stream,  
            const char * restrict format, ...);  
int printf(const char * restrict format, ...);
```

- Both functions return the number of characters written; a negative return value indicates that an error occurred.

## The `...printf` Functions

- `printf` always writes to `stdout`, whereas `fprintf` writes to the stream indicated by its first argument:

```
printf("Total: %d\n", total);  
/* writes to stdout */
```

```
fprintf(fp, "Total: %d\n", total);  
/* writes to fp */
```

- A call of `printf` is equivalent to a call of `fprintf` with `stdout` as the first argument.

## The `...printf` Functions

- `fprintf` works with any output stream.
- One of its most common uses is to write error messages to `stderr`:  

```
fprintf(stderr, "Error: data file can't be  
opened.\n");
```
- Writing a message to `stderr` guarantees that it will appear on the screen even if the user redirects `stdout`.

## The `...printf` Functions

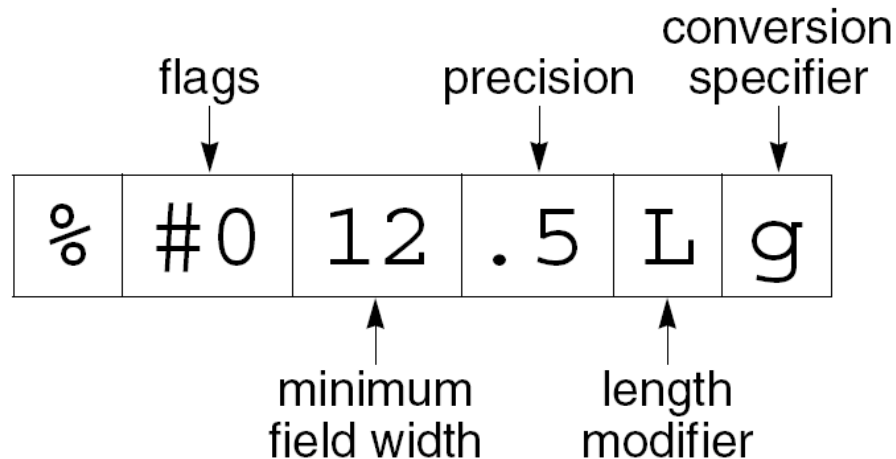
- Two other functions in `<stdio.h>` can write formatted output to a stream.
- These functions, named `vfprintf` and `vprintf`, are fairly obscure.
- Both rely on the `va_list` type, which is declared in `<stdarg.h>`, so they're discussed along with that header.

## ...printf Conversion Specifications

- Both `printf` and `fprintf` require a format string containing ordinary characters and/or conversion specifications.
  - Ordinary characters are printed as is.
  - Conversion specifications describe how the remaining arguments are to be converted to character form for display.

## ...printf Conversion Specifications

- A ...printf conversion specification consists of the % character, followed by as many as five distinct items:



## ...printf Conversion Specifications

- **Flags** (optional; more than one permitted):

**Flag**

**Meaning**

- Left-justify within field.

+ Numbers produced by signed conversions always begin with + or -.

**space** Nonnegative numbers produced by signed conversions are preceded by a space.

**#** Octal numbers begin with 0, nonzero hexadecimal numbers with 0X or 0x. Floating-point numbers always have a decimal point. Trailing zeros aren't removed from numbers printed with the g or G conversions.

**0** Numbers are padded with leading zeros up to the field width.  
(zero)



## Examples of **...printf** Conversion Specifications

- Examples showing the effect of flags on the %d conversion:

<i>Conversion Specification</i>	<i>Result of Applying Conversion to 123</i>	<i>Result of Applying Conversion to -123</i>
%8d	•••••123	•••••-123
%-8d	123•••••	-123•••••
%+8d	•••••+123	•••••-123
% 8d	•••••123	•••••-123
%08d	00000123	-00000123
%- +8d	+123•••••	-123•••••
%- 8d	•123•••••	-123•••••
%+08d	+00000123	-00000123
% 08d	•00000123	-00000123

## Examples of ...printf Conversion Specifications

- Examples showing the effect of the # flag on the o, x, X, g, and G conversions:

<i>Conversion Specification</i>	<i>Result of Applying Conversion to 123</i>	<i>Result of Applying Conversion to 123.0</i>
%8o.....	173	
%#8o.....	0173	
%8x.....	7b	
%#8x.....	0x7b	
%8X.....	7B	
%#8X.....	0X7B	
%8g.....	123	
%#8g.....	123.000	
%8G.....	123	
%#8G.....	123.000	

## ...printf Conversion Specifications

- ***Minimum field width*** (optional). An item that's too small to occupy the field will be padded.
  - By default, spaces are added to the left of the item.
- An item that's too large for the field width will still be displayed in its entirety.
- field width is either **an integer** or the **character \***.
  - If \* is present, the field width is obtained from the next argument.

## ...printf Conversion Specifications

- **Precision** (optional). The meaning of the precision depends on the conversion:
  - d, i, o, u, x, X: minimum number of digits (leading zeros are added if the number has fewer digits)
  - a, A, e, E, f, F: number of digits after the decimal point
  - g, G: number of significant digits
  - s: maximum number of bytes
- The precision is a period ( . ) followed by an integer or the character \*.
  - If \* is present, the precision is obtained from the next argument.

## ...printf Conversion Specifications

- ***Length modifier*** (optional). Indicates that the item to be displayed has a type that's longer or shorter than normal.
  - %d normally refers to an `int` value; %hd is used to display a `short int` and %ld is used to display a `long int`.

## ...printf Conversion Specifications

<i>Length Modifier</i>	<i>Conversion Specifiers</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
hh <sup>†</sup>	d, i, o, u, x, X n	signed char, unsigned char signed char *
h	d, i, o, u, x, X n	short int, unsigned short int short int *
l (ell)	d, i, o, u, x, X n c s a, A, e, E, f, F, g, G	long int, unsigned long int long int * wint_t wchar_t * no effect

<sup>†</sup>C99 only

## ...printf Conversion Specifications

<i>Length Modifier</i>	<i>Conversion Specifiers</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
ll <sup>†</sup> (ell-ell)	d, i, o, u, x, X n	long long int, unsigned long long int long long int *
j <sup>†</sup>	d, i, o, u, x, X n	intmax_t, uintmax_t intmax_t *
z <sup>†</sup>	d, i, o, u, x, X n	size_t size_t *
t <sup>†</sup>	d, i, o, u, x, X n	ptrdiff_t ptrdiff_t *
L	a, A, e, E, f, F, g, G	long double

<sup>†</sup>C99 only

## ...printf Conversion Specifications

- ***Conversion specifier.*** Must be one of the characters in the following table.

### ***Conversion Specifier***

### **Meaning**

**d, i**

Converts an `int` value to decimal form.

**o, u, x, X**

Converts an unsigned `int` value to base 8 (o), base 10 (u), or base 16 (x, X). x displays the hexadecimal digits a–f in lower case; X displays them in upper case.

**f, F<sup>†</sup>**

Converts a `double` value to decimal form, putting the decimal point in the correct position. If no precision is specified, displays six digits after the decimal point.

<sup>†</sup>C99 only



# ...printf Conversion Specifications

## Conversion Specifier

## Meaning

e, E

Converts a `double` value to scientific notation. If no precision is specified, displays six digits after the decimal point. If `e` is chosen, the exponent is preceded by the letter `e`; if `E` is chosen, the exponent is preceded by `E`.

**g, G**

**g** converts a **double** value to either **f** form or **e** form.  
**G** chooses between **F** and **E** forms.

 $a^\dagger, A^\dagger$ 

Converts a `double` value to hexadecimal scientific notation using the form `[-]0xh.hhhhp±d`. `a` displays

±C99 only the hex digits **a–f** in lower case; **A** displays them in upper case. The choice of **a** or **A** also affects the case of the letters **x** and **p**.

[illegible]

# ...printf Conversion Specifications

## *Conversion Specifier*

## *Meaning*

- |          |  |
|----------|--|
| <b>c</b> | Displays an <code>int</code> value as an unsigned character.   |
| <b>s</b> | Writes the characters pointed to by the argument. Stops writing when the number of bytes specified by the precision (if present) is reached or a null character is encountered.                          |
| <b>p</b> | Converts a <code>void *</code> value to printable form.  |
| <b>n</b> | The corresponding argument must point to an object of type <code>int</code> . Stores in this object the number of characters written so far by this call of <code>...printf</code> ; produces no output. |
| <b>%</b> | Writes the character %.  |

## C99 Changes to `...printf` Conversion Specifications

- C99 changes to the conversion specifications for `printf` and `fprintf`:
  - Additional length modifiers
  - Additional conversion specifiers
  - Ability to write infinity and NaN
  - Support for wide characters
  - Previously undefined conversion specifications now allowed

## Examples of **...printf** Conversion Specifications

- Examples showing the effect of the minimum field width and precision on the %S conversion:

<i>Conversion Specification</i>	<i>Result of Applying Conversion to "bogus"</i>	<i>Result of Applying Conversion to "buzzword"</i>
%6s	•bogus	buzzword
%-6s	bogus•	buzzword
%.4s	bogu	buzz
%6.4s	••bogu	••buzz
%-6.4s	bogu••	buzz••

## Examples of `...printf` Conversion Specifications

- how the `%g` conversion displays some numbers in `%e` form and others in `%f` form: (if num's exponent  $< -4$  or  $\geq$  precision)

<i>Number</i>	<i>Result of Applying <code>% .4g</code> Conversion to Number</i>
123456.	1.235e+05
12345.6	1.235e+04
1234.56	1235
123.456	123.5
12.3456	12.35
1.23456	1.235
.123456	0.1235
.0123456	0.01235
.00123456	0.001235
.000123456	0.0001235
.0000123456	1.235e-05
.00000123456	1.235e-06

## Examples of `...printf` Conversion Specifications

- The minimum field width and precision are usually embedded in the format string.
- Putting the `*` character where either number would normally go allows us to specify it as an argument *after* the format string.
- Calls of `printf` that produce the same output:

```
printf("%6.4d", i);  
printf("%* .4d", 6, i);  
printf("%6.*d", 4, i);  
printf("%*.*d", 6, 4, i);
```

## Examples of `...printf` Conversion Specifications

- A major advantage of `*` is that it allows us to use a macro to specify the width or precision:

```
printf("%*d", WIDTH, i);
```

- The width or precision can even be computed during program execution:

```
printf("%*d", page_width / num_cols,  
i);
```

## Examples of `...printf` Conversion Specifications

- The `%p` conversion is used to print the value of a pointer:

```
printf("%p", (void *) ptr);  
/* displays value of ptr */
```

- The pointer is likely to be shown as an octal or hexadecimal number.



## Examples of `...printf` Conversion Specifications

- The `%n` conversion is used to find out how many characters have been printed so far by a call of `...printf`.
- After the following call, the value of `len` will be 3:

```
printf("%d%n\n", 123, &len);
```

## The ...scanf Functions

- `fscanf` and `scanf` read data items from an input stream, using a format string to indicate the layout of the input.
- After the format string, any number of pointers—each pointing to an object—follow as additional arguments.
- Input items are converted (according to conversion specifications in the format string) and stored in these objects.

## The ...scanf Functions

- `scanf` always reads from `stdin`, whereas `fscanf` reads from the stream indicated by its first argument:

```
scanf("%d%d", &i, &j);  
/* reads from stdin */
```

```
fscanf(fp, "%d%d", &i, &j);  
/* reads from fp */
```

- A call of `scanf` is equivalent to a call of `fscanf` with `stdin` as the first argument.

## The ...scanf Functions

- Errors that cause the ...scanf functions to return prematurely:
  - ***Input failure*** (no more input characters could be read)
  - ***Matching failure*** (the input characters didn't match the format string)
- In C99, an input failure can also occur because of an ***encoding error***.

## The ...scanf Functions

- The ...scanf functions return **the number of data items** that were read and assigned to objects.
- They return EOF if an input failure occurs before any data items can be read.
- Loops that test scanf's return value are common.
- A loop that reads a series of integers one by one, stopping at the first sign of trouble:

```
while (scanf("%d", &i) == 1) {  
    ...  
}
```

## ...scanf Format Strings

- Calls of the ...scanf functions resemble those of the ...printf functions.
- However, the ...scanf functions work differently.
- The format string represents a pattern that a ...scanf function attempts to match as it reads input.
  - If the input doesn't match the format string, the function returns.
  - The input character that didn't match is “pushed back” to be read in the future.

## ...scanf Format Strings

- A ...scanf format string may contain three things:
  - Conversion specifications
  - White-space characters
  - Non-white-space characters

## ...scanf Format Strings

- ***Conversion specifications.*** Conversion specifications in a ...scanf format string resemble those in a ...printf format string.
- Most conversion specifications skip white-space characters at the beginning of an input item (the exceptions are %[ , %c, and %n).
- Conversion specifications never skip *trailing* white-space characters, however.



## ...scanf Format Strings

- ***White-space characters.*** One or more white-space characters in a format string match zero or more white-space characters in the input stream.
- ***Non-white-space characters.*** A non-white-space character other than % matches the same character in the input stream.

## ...scanf Format Strings

- The format string "ISBN %d-%d-%ld-%d" specifies that the input will consist of:
  - the letters ISBN
  - possibly some white-space characters
  - an integer
  - the - character
  - an integer (possibly preceded by white-space characters)
  - the - character
  - a long integer (possibly preceded by white-space characters)
  - the - character
  - an integer (possibly preceded by white-space characters)

## ...scanf Conversion Specifications

- A ...scanf conversion specification consists of the character % followed by:
  - \*
  - Maximum field width
  - Length modifier
  - Conversion specifier
- **\* (optional).** Signifies *assignment suppression*: an input item is read but not assigned to an object.
  - Items matched using \* aren't included in the count that ...scanf returns.

## ...scanf Conversion Specifications

- ***Maximum field width*** (optional). Limits the number of characters in an input item.
  - White-space characters skipped at the beginning of a conversion don't count.
- ***Length modifier*** (optional). Indicates that the object in which the input item will be stored has a type that's longer or shorter than normal.
- The table on the next slide lists each length modifier and the type indicated when it is combined with a conversion specifier.

## ...scanf Conversion Specifications

<i>Length Modifier</i>	<i>Conversion Specifiers</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
hh <sup>†</sup>	d, i, o, u, x, X, n	signed char *, unsigned char *
h	d, i, o, u, x, X, n	short int *, unsigned short int *
l	d, i, o, u, x, X, n	long int *, unsigned long int *
(ell)	a, A, e, E, f, F, g, G c, s, or [	double * wchar_t *
ll <sup>†</sup> (ell-ell)	d, i, o, u, x, X, n	long long int *, unsigned long long int *
j <sup>†</sup>	d, i, o, u, x, X, n	intmax_t *, uintmax_t *
z <sup>†</sup>	d, i, o, u, x, X, n	size_t *
t <sup>†</sup>	d, i, o, u, x, X, n	ptrdiff_t *
L	a, A, e, E, f, F, g, G	long double *

<sup>†</sup>C99 only

## ...scanf Conversion Specifications

- ***Conversion specifier***. Must be one of the characters in the following table.

### ***Conversion Specifier***

### ***Meaning***

d	Matches a decimal integer; the corresponding argument is assumed to have type <code>int *</code> .
i	Matches an integer; the corresponding argument is assumed to have type <code>int *</code> . The integer is assumed to be in base 10 unless it begins with <code>0</code> (indicating octal) or with <code>0x</code> or <code>0X</code> (hexadecimal).
o	Matches an octal integer; the corresponding argument is assumed to have type <code>unsigned int *</code> .
u	Matches a decimal integer; the corresponding argument is assumed to have type <code>unsigned int *</code> .

## ...scanf Conversion Specifications

### *Conversion Specifier*

### *Meaning*

x, X	Matches a hexadecimal integer; the corresponding argument is assumed to have type <code>unsigned int *</code> .
a <sup>†</sup> , A <sup>†</sup> , e, E, f, F <sup>†</sup> , g, G	Matches a floating-point number; the corresponding argument is assumed to have type <code>float *</code> .
c	Matches <i>n</i> characters, where <i>n</i> is the maximum field width, or one character if no field width is specified. The corresponding argument is assumed to be a pointer to a character array (or a character object, if no field width is specified). Doesn't add a null character at the end.
s	Matches a sequence of non-white-space characters, then adds a null character at the end. The corresponding argument is assumed to be a pointer to a character array.

<sup>†</sup>C99 only

## ...scanf Conversion Specifications

### *Conversion Specifier*

### *Meaning*

[	Matches a nonempty sequence of characters from a scanset, then adds a null character at the end. The corresponding argument is assumed to be a pointer to a character array.
p	Matches a pointer value in the form that <code>...printf</code> would have written it. The corresponding argument is assumed to be a pointer to a <code>void *</code> object.
n	The corresponding argument must point to an object of type <code>int</code> . Stores in this object the number of characters read so far by this call of <code>...scanf</code> . No input is consumed and the return value of <code>...scanf</code> isn't affected.
%	Matches the character %.



## ...scanf Conversion Specifications

- Numeric data items can always begin with a sign (+ or -).
- The o, u, x, and X specifiers convert the item to unsigned form, however, so they're not normally used to read negative numbers.

## ...scanf Conversion Specifications

- The **[** specifier is a more complicated (and more flexible) version of the **S** specifier.
- A conversion specification using **[** has the form **%[set]** or **%[^set]**, where *set* can be any set of characters.
- **%[set]** matches any sequence of characters in *set* (the *scanset*).
- **%[^set]** matches any sequence of characters not in *set*.
- Examples:
  - %[abc]** matches any string containing only **a**, **b**, and **c**.
  - %[^abc]** matches any string that doesn't contain **a**, **b**, or **c**.

## ...scanf Conversion Specifications

- Many of the ...scanf conversion specifiers are closely related to the numeric conversion functions in `<stdlib.h>`.
- These functions convert strings (like "-297") to their equivalent numeric values (-297).
- The `d` specifier, for example, looks for an optional + or - sign, followed by decimal digits; this is the same form that the `strtol` function requires.

## ...scanf Conversion Specifications

- Correspondence between ...scanf conversion specifiers and numeric conversion functions:

<i>Conversion Specifier</i>	<i>Numeric Conversion Function</i>
d	strtol with 10 as the base
i	strtol with 0 as the base
o	strtoul with 8 as the base
u	strtoul with 10 as the base
x, X	strtoul with 16 as the base
a, A, e, E, f, F, g, G	strtod

## C99 Changes to ...scanf Conversion Specifications

- C99 changes to the conversion specifications for `scanf` and `fscanf`:
  - Additional length modifiers
  - Additional conversion specifiers
  - Ability to read infinity and NaN
  - Support for wide characters

## scanf Examples

- The next three tables contain sample calls of `scanf`.
- Characters printed in ~~strikeout~~ are consumed by the call.

## scanf Examples

- Examples that combine conversion specifications, white-space characters, and non-white-space characters:

<b>scanf Call</b>	<b>Input</b>	<b>Variables</b>
<code>n = scanf("%d%d", &amp;i, &amp;j);</code>	<del>12</del> •, •34 <del>α</del>	n: 1 i: 12 j: unchanged
<code>n = scanf("%d,%d", &amp;i, &amp;j);</code>	<del>12</del> •, •34 <del>α</del>	n: 1 i: 12 j: unchanged
<code>n = scanf("%d ,%d", &amp;i, &amp;j);</code>	<del>12</del> •, •34 <del>α</del>	n: 2 i: 12 j: 34
<code>n = scanf("%d, %d", &amp;i, &amp;j);</code>	<del>12</del> •, •34 <del>α</del>	n: 1 i: 12 j: unchanged

## scanf Examples

- Examples showing the effect of assignment suppression and specifying a field width:

scanf Call	Input	Variables
<code>n = scanf("%*d%d", &amp;i);</code>	<del>12</del> •34↵	n: 1 i: 34
<code>n = scanf("%*s%s", str);</code>	<del>My</del> •Fair•Lady↵	n: 1 str: "Fair"
<code>n = scanf("%1d%2d%3d",           &amp;i, &amp;j, &amp;k);</code>	<del>123</del> 45↵	n: 3 i: 1 j: 23 k: 45
<code>n = scanf("%2d%2s%2d",           &amp;i, str, &amp;j);</code>	<del>1234</del> 56↵	n: 3 i: 12 str: "34" j: 56



## scanf Examples

- Examples that illustrate the `i`, `[`, and `n` conversion specifiers:

<b>scanf Call</b>	<b>Input</b>	<b>Variables</b>
<pre>n = scanf("%i%i%i", &amp;i, &amp;j, &amp;k); i: 12 j: 10 k: 18</pre>	<code>12 10 18</code>	n: 3
<pre>n = scanf("%[0123456789]", str); str: "123"</pre>	<code>123abc</code>	n: 1
<pre>n = scanf("%[0123456789]", str); str: unchanged</pre>	<code>abc123</code>	n: 0
<pre>n = scanf("%[^0123456789]", str); str: "abc"</pre>	<code>abc123</code>	n: 1
<pre>n = scanf("%*d%d%n", &amp;i, &amp;j); i: 20 j: 5</pre>	<code>10 20 30</code>	n: 1

## Detecting End-of-File and Error Conditions

- If we ask a `...scanf` function to read and store  $n$  data items, we expect its return value to be  $n$ .
- If the return value is less than  $n$ , something went wrong:
  - ***End-of-file.*** The function encountered end-of-file before matching the format string completely.
  - ***Read error.*** The function was unable to read characters from the stream.
  - ***Matching failure.*** A data item was in the wrong format.

## Detecting End-of-File and Error Conditions

- Every stream has two indicators associated with it: an ***error indicator*** and an ***end-of-file indicator***.
- These indicators are cleared when the stream is opened.
- Encountering end-of-file sets the end-of-file indicator, and a read error sets the error indicator.
  - The error indicator is also set when a write error occurs on an output stream.
- **A matching failure doesn't change either indicator.**

## Detecting End-of-File and Error Conditions

- Once the error or end-of-file indicator is set, it remains in that state until it's explicitly cleared, perhaps by a call of the `clearerr` function.
- `clearerr` clears both the end-of-file and error indicators:  

```
clearerr(fp);  
/* clears eof and error indicators for fp */
```
- `clearerr` isn't needed often, since some of the other library functions clear one or both indicators as a side effect.

## Detecting End-of-File and Error Conditions

- The `fEOF` and `fError` functions can be used to test a stream's indicators to determine why a prior operation on the stream failed.
- The call `fEOF ( fp )` returns a nonzero value if the end-of-file indicator is set for the stream associated with `fp`.
- The call `fError ( fp )` returns a nonzero value if the error indicator is set.

## Detecting End-of-File and Error Conditions

- When `scanf` returns a smaller-than-expected value, `feof` and `ferror` can be used to determine the reason.
  - If `feof` returns a nonzero value, the end of the input file has been reached.
  - If `ferror` returns a nonzero value, a read error occurred during input.
  - If neither returns a nonzero value, a matching failure must have occurred.
- The return value of `scanf` indicates how many data items were read before the problem occurred.

## Detecting End-of-File and Error Conditions

- The `find_int` function is an example that shows how `feof` and `ferror` might be used.
- `find_int` searches a file for a line that begins with an integer:  

```
n = find_int("foo");
```
- `find_int` returns the value of the integer that it finds or an error code:
  - 1 File can't be opened
  - 2 Read error
  - 3 No line begins with an integer

## Chapter 22: Input/Output

```
int find_int(const char *filename)
{
    FILE *fp = fopen(filename, "r");
    int n;

    if (fp == NULL)
        return -1;                /* can't open file */

    while (fscanf(fp, "%d", &n) != 1) {
        if (ferror(fp)) {
            fclose(fp);
            return -2;            /* read error */
        }
        if (feof(fp)) {
            fclose(fp);
            return -3;            /* integer not found */
        }
        fscanf(fp, "%*[^\\n]");    /* skips rest of line */
    }

    fclose(fp);
    return n;
}
```



## Character I/O

- The next group of library functions can read and write single characters.
- These functions work equally well with text streams and binary streams.
- The functions treat characters as values of type `int`, not `char`.
- One reason is that the input functions indicate an end-of-file (or error) condition by returning EOF, which is a negative integer constant.

## Output Functions

- `putchar` writes one character to the `stdout` stream:

```
putchar(ch);    /* writes ch to stdout */
```

- `fputc` and `putc` write a character to an arbitrary stream:

```
fputc(ch, fp); /* writes ch to fp */
```

```
putc(ch, fp);  /* writes ch to fp */
```

- `putc` is usually implemented as a macro (as well as a function), while `fputc` is implemented only as a function.

## Output Functions

- `putchar` itself is usually a macro:  
`#define putchar(c) putc((c), stdout)`
- The C standard allows the `putc` macro to evaluate the stream argument more than once, which `fputc` isn't permitted to do.
- Programmers usually prefer `putc`, which gives a faster program.
- If a write error occurs, all three functions set the error indicator for the stream and return `EOF`.
- Otherwise, they return the character that was written.

## Input Functions

- `getchar` reads a character from `stdin`:  
`ch = getchar();`
- `fgetc` and `getc` read a character from an arbitrary stream:  
`ch = fgetc(fp);`  
`ch = getc(fp);`
- All three functions treat the character as an `unsigned char` value (which is then converted to `int` type before it's returned).
- As a result, they never return a negative value other than EOF.

## Input Functions

- `getc` is usually implemented as a macro (as well as a function), while `fgetc` is implemented only as a function.
- `getchar` is normally a macro as well:  
`#define getchar() getc(stdin)`
- Programmers usually prefer `getc` over `fgetc`.

## Input Functions

- The `fgetc`, `getc`, and `getchar` functions behave the same if a problem occurs.
- At end-of-file, they set the stream's end-of-file indicator and return `EOF`.
- If a read error occurs, they set the stream's error indicator and return `EOF`.
- To differentiate between the two situations, we can call either `feof` or `ferror`.

## Input Functions

- One of the most common uses of `fgetc`, `getc`, and `getchar` is to read characters from a file.
- A typical `while` loop for that purpose:  

```
while ((ch = getc(fp)) != EOF) {  
    ...  
}
```
- Always store the return value in an `int` variable, not a `char` variable.
- Testing a `char` variable against `EOF` may give the wrong result.

## Input Functions

- The `ungetc` function “pushes back” a character read from a stream and clears the stream’s end-of-file indicator.
- A loop that reads a series of digits, stopping at the first nondigit:

```
while (isdigit(ch = getc(fp))) {  
    ...  
}  
ungetc(ch, fp);  
/* pushes back last character read */
```



## Input Functions

- The number of characters that can be pushed back by consecutive calls of `ungetc` varies; only the first call is guaranteed to succeed.
- Calling a file-positioning function (`fseek`, `fsetpos`, or `rewind`) causes the pushed-back characters to be lost.
- `ungetc` returns the character it was asked to push back.
  - It returns `EOF` if an attempt is made to push back `EOF` or to push back more characters than allowed.

## Program: Copying a File

- The `fcopy.c` program makes a copy of a file.
- The names of the original file and the new file will be specified on the command line when the program is executed.
- An example that uses `fcopy` to copy the file `f1.c` to `f2.c`:  
`fcopy f1.c f2.c`
- `fcopy` will issue an error message if there aren't exactly two file names on the command line or if either file can't be opened.

## Program: Copying a File

- Using "rb" and "wb" as the file modes enables `fcopy` to copy both text and binary files.
- If we used "r" and "w" instead, the program wouldn't necessarily be able to copy binary files.

## fcopy.c

```
/* Copies a file */

#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    FILE *source_fp, *dest_fp;
    int ch;

    if (argc != 3) {
        fprintf(stderr, "usage: fcopy source dest\n");
        exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
    }
}
```

## Chapter 22: Input/Output

```
if ((source_fp = fopen(argv[1], "rb")) == NULL) {
    fprintf(stderr, "Can't open %s\n", argv[1]);
    exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
}

if ((dest_fp = fopen(argv[2], "wb")) == NULL) {
    fprintf(stderr, "Can't open %s\n", argv[2]);
    fclose(source_fp);
    exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
}

while ((ch = getc(source_fp)) != EOF)
    putc(ch, dest_fp);

fclose(source_fp);
fclose(dest_fp);
return 0;
}
```

## Line I/O

- Library functions in the next group are able to read and write lines.
- These functions are used mostly with text streams, although it's legal to use them with binary streams as well.

## Output Functions

- The `puts` function writes a string of characters to `stdout`:  

```
puts("Hi, there!"); /* writes to stdout */
```
- After it writes the characters in the string, `puts` always adds a new-line character.

## Output Functions

- `fputs` is a more general version of `puts`.
- Its second argument indicates the stream to which the output should be written:  

```
fputs("Hi, there!", fp); /* writes to fp */
```
- Unlike `puts`, the `fputs` function doesn't write a new-line character unless one is present in the string.
- Both functions return `EOF` if a write error occurs; otherwise, they return a nonnegative number.



## Input Functions

- The `gets` function reads a line of input from `stdin`:  
`gets(str); /* reads a line from stdin */`
- `gets` reads characters one by one, storing them in the array pointed to by `str`, until it reads a new-line character (which it discards).
- `fgets` is a more general version of `gets` that can read from any stream.
- `fgets` is also safer than `gets`, since it limits the number of characters that it will store.

## Input Functions

- A call of `fgets` that reads a line into a character array named `str`:  
`fgets(str, sizeof(str), fp);`
- `fgets` will read characters until it reaches the first new-line character or `sizeof(str) - 1` characters have been read.
- If it reads the new-line character, `fgets` stores it along with the other characters.

## Input Functions

- Both `gets` and `fgets` return a null pointer if a read error occurs or they reach the end of the input stream before storing any characters.
- Otherwise, both return their first argument, which points to the array in which the input was stored.
- Both functions store a null character at the end of the string.

## Input Functions

- `fgets` should be used instead of `gets` in most situations.
- `gets` is safe to use only when the string being read is *guaranteed* to fit into the array.
- When there's no guarantee (and there usually isn't), it's much safer to use `fgets`.
- `fgets` will read from the standard input stream if passed `stdin` as its third argument:  
`fgets(str, sizeof(str), stdin);`

## Block I/O

- The `fread` and `fwrite` functions allow a program to read and write large blocks of data in a single step.
- `fread` and `fwrite` are used primarily with binary streams, although—with care—it's possible to use them with text streams as well.

## Block I/O

- `fwrite` is designed to copy an array from memory to a stream.
- Arguments in a call of `fwrite`:
  - Address of array
  - Size of each array element (in bytes)
  - Number of elements to write
  - File pointer
- A call of `fwrite` that writes the entire contents of the array `a`:  

```
fwrite(a, sizeof(a[0]),  
      sizeof(a) / sizeof(a[0]), fp);
```

## Block I/O

- `fwrite` returns the number of elements actually written.
- This number will be less than the third argument if a write error occurs.

## Block I/O

- `fread` will read the elements of an array from a stream.
- A call of `fread` that reads the contents of a file into the array `a`:  

```
n = fread(a, sizeof(a[0]),  
          sizeof(a) / sizeof(a[0]), fp);
```
- `fread`'s return value indicates the actual number of elements read.
- This number should equal the third argument unless the end of the input file was reached or a read error occurred.



## Block I/O

- `fwrite` is convenient for a program that needs to store data in a file before terminating.
- Later, the program (or another program) can use `fread` to read the data back into memory.
- The data doesn't need to be in array form.
- A call of `fwrite` that writes a structure variable `s` to a file:

```
fwrite(&s, sizeof(s), 1, fp);
```

## File Positioning

- Every stream has an associated *file position*.
- When a file is opened, the file position is set at the beginning of the file.
  - In “append” mode, the initial file position may be at the beginning or end, depending on the implementation.
- When a read or write operation is performed, the file position advances automatically, providing sequential access to data.

## File Positioning

- Although sequential access is fine for many applications, some programs need the ability to jump around within a file.
- If a file contains a series of records, we might want to jump directly to a particular record.
- `<stdio.h>` provides five functions that allow a program to determine the current file position or to change it.

## File Positioning

- The `fseek` function changes the file position associated with the first argument (a file pointer).
- The third argument is one of three macros:

<code>SEEK_SET</code>	Beginning of file
<code>SEEK_CUR</code>	Current file position
<code>SEEK_END</code>	End of file
- The second argument, which has type `long int`, is a (possibly negative) byte count.

## File Positioning

- Using `fseek` to move to the beginning of a file:  
`fseek(fp, 0L, SEEK_SET);`
- Using `fseek` to move to the end of a file:  
`fseek(fp, 0L, SEEK_END);`
- Using `fseek` to move back 10 bytes:  
`fseek(fp, -10L, SEEK_CUR);`
- If an error occurs (the requested position doesn't exist, for example), `fseek` returns a nonzero value.

## File Positioning

- The file-positioning functions are best used with binary streams.
- C doesn't prohibit programs from using them with text streams, but certain restrictions apply.
- For text streams, `fseek` can be used only to move to the beginning or end of a text stream or to return to a place that was visited previously.
- For binary streams, `fseek` isn't required to support calls in which the third argument is `SEEK_END`.

## File Positioning

- The `ftell` function returns the current file position as a long integer.
- The value returned by `ftell` may be saved and later supplied to a call of `fseek`:

```
long file_pos;
...
file_pos = ftell(fp);
    /* saves current position */
...
fseek(fp, file_pos, SEEK_SET);
    /* returns to old position */
```

## File Positioning

- If `fp` is a binary stream, the call `ftell(fp)` returns the current file position as a byte count, where zero represents the beginning of the file.
- If `fp` is a text stream, `ftell(fp)` isn't necessarily a byte count.
- As a result, it's best not to perform arithmetic on values returned by `ftell`.



## File Positioning

- The `rewind` function sets the file position at the beginning.
- The call `rewind(fp)` is nearly equivalent to `fseek(fp, 0L, SEEK_SET)`.
  - The difference? `rewind` doesn't return a value but does clear the error indicator for `fp`.

## File Positioning

- `fseek` and `ftell` are limited to files whose positions can be stored in a long integer.
- For working with very large files, C provides two additional functions: `fgetpos` and `fsetpos`.
- These functions can handle large files because they use values of type `fpos_t` to represent file positions.
  - An `fpos_t` value isn't necessarily an integer; it could be a structure, for instance.

## File Positioning

- The call `fgetpos(fp, &file_pos)` stores the file position associated with `fp` in the `file_pos` variable.
- The call `fsetpos(fp, &file_pos)` sets the file position for `fp` to be the value stored in `file_pos`.
- If a call of `fgetpos` or `fsetpos` fails, it stores an error code in `errno`.
- Both functions return zero when they succeed and a nonzero value when they fail.

## File Positioning

- An example that uses `fgetpos` and `fsetpos` to save a file position and return to it later:

```
fpos_t file_pos;  
...  
fgetpos(fp, &file_pos);  
    /* saves current position */  
...  
fsetpos(fp, &file_pos);  
    /* returns to old position */
```

## Program: Modifying a File of Part Records

- Actions performed by the `invclear.c` program:
  - Opens a binary file containing part structures.
  - Reads the structures into an array.
  - Sets the `on_hand` member of each structure to 0.
  - Writes the structures back to the file.
- The program opens the file in "`rb+`" mode, allowing both reading and writing.

## invclear.c

```
/* Modifies a file of part records by setting the quantity  
   on hand to zero for all records */
```

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

```
#define NAME_LEN 25  
#define MAX_PARTS 100
```

```
struct part {  
    int number;  
    char name[NAME_LEN+1];  
    int on_hand;  
} inventory[MAX_PARTS];
```

```
int num_parts;
```

## Chapter 22: Input/Output

```
int main(void)
{
    FILE *fp;
    int i;

    if ((fp = fopen("inventory.dat", "rb+")) == NULL) {
        fprintf(stderr, "Can't open inventory file\n");
        exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
    }

    num_parts = fread(inventory, sizeof(struct part),
                      MAX_PARTS, fp);

    for (i = 0; i < num_parts; i++)
        inventory[i].on_hand = 0;

    rewind(fp);
    fwrite(inventory, sizeof(struct part), num_parts, fp);
    fclose(fp);

    return 0;
}
```

## String I/O

- The functions described in this section can read and write data using a string as though it were a stream.
- `sprintf` and `snprintf` write characters into a string.
- `sscanf` reads characters from a string.



## String I/O

- Three similar functions (`vsprintf`, `vsnprintf`, and `vsscanf`) also belong to `<stdio.h>`.
- These functions rely on the `va_list` type, which is declared in `<stdarg.h>`, so they are discussed in Chapter 26.

## Output Functions

- The `sprintf` function writes output into a character array (pointed to by its first argument) instead of a stream.
- A call that writes "9/20/2010" into `date`:  
`sprintf(date, "%d/%d/%d", 9, 20, 2010);`
- `sprintf` adds a null character at the end of the string.
- It returns the number of characters stored (not counting the null character).

## Output Functions

- `sprintf` can be used to format data, with the result saved in a string until it's time to produce output.
- `sprintf` is also convenient for converting numbers to character form.

## Output Functions

- The `snprintf` function (new in C99) is the same as `sprintf`, except for an additional second parameter named `n`.
- No more than  $n - 1$  characters will be written to the string, not counting the terminating null character, which is always written unless `n` is zero.
- Example:  

```
snprintf(name, 13, "%s, %s", "Einstein", "Albert");
```

The string "Einstein, Al" is written into `name`.

## Output Functions

- `snprintf` returns the number of characters that would have been written (not including the null character) had there been no length restriction.
- If an encoding error occurs, `snprintf` returns a negative number.
- To see if `snprintf` had room to write all the requested characters, we can test whether its return value was nonnegative and less than `n`.

## Input Functions

- The `sscanf` function is similar to `scanf` and `fscanf`.
- `sscanf` reads from a string (pointed to by its first argument) instead of reading from a stream.
- `sscanf`'s second argument is a format string identical to that used by `scanf` and `fscanf`.

## Input Functions

- `sscanf` is handy for extracting data from a string that was read by another input function.
- An example that uses `fgets` to obtain a line of input, then passes the line to `sscanf` for further processing:

```
fgets(str, sizeof(str), stdin);  
/* reads a line of input */  
sscanf(str, "%d%d", &i, &j);  
/* extracts two integers */
```

## Input Functions

- One advantage of using `sscanf` is that we can examine an input line as many times as needed.
- This makes it easier to recognize alternate input forms and to recover from errors.
- Consider the problem of reading a date that's written either in the form *month/day/year* or *month-day-year*:

```
if (sscanf(str, "%d /%d /%d", &month, &day, &year) == 3)
    printf("Month: %d, day: %d, year: %d\n", month, day, year);
else if (sscanf(str, "%d -%d -%d", &month, &day, &year) == 3)
    printf("Month: %d, day: %d, year: %d\n", month, day, year);
else
    printf("Date not in the proper form\n");
```



## Input Functions

- Like the `scanf` and `fscanf` functions, `sscanf` returns the number of data items successfully read and stored.
- `sscanf` returns `EOF` if it reaches the end of the string (marked by a null character) before finding the first item.