

Lecture 16 -Structures, Unions and Enumerations

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Structure Variables

- The properties of a structure are different from those of an array.
 - The elements of a structure (its members) aren't required to have the same type.
 - The members of a structure have names; to select a particular member, we specify its name, not its position.
- In some languages, structures are called records, and members are known as fields.



Declaring Structure Variables

- A structure is a logical choice for storing a collection of related data items.
- A declaration of two structure variables that store information about parts in a warehouse:

```
struct {
  int number;
  char name[NAME_LEN+1];
  int on_hand;
} part1, part2;
```

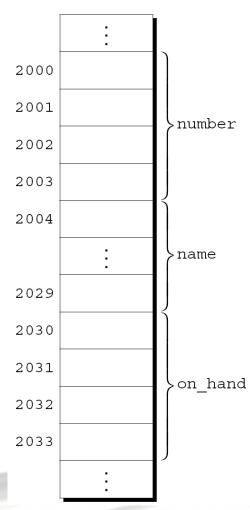


Declaring Structure Variables (cont.)

- The members of a structure are stored in memory in the order in which they're declared.
- Appearance of part1 ______
- Assumptions:

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- part1 is located at address 2000.
- Integers occupy four bytes.
- NAME_LEN has the value 25.
- There are no gaps between the members.



Declaring Structure Variables (cont.)

- Each structure represents a new scope.
- Any names declared in that scope won't conflict with other names in a program.
- For example, the following two declarations can appear in the same program:

```
struct {
  int number;
  char name[NAME_LEN+1];
  int on_hand;
} part1, part2;
```

```
struct {
  char name[NAME_LEN+1];
  int number;
  char sex;
} employee1, employee2;
```

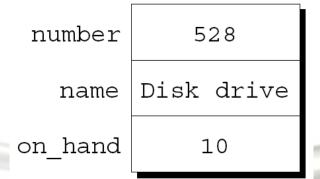


Initializing Structure Variables

A structure declaration may include an initializer:

```
struct {
  int number;
  char name[NAME_LEN+1];
  int on_hand;
} part1 = {528, "Disk drive", 10},
  part2 = {914, "Printer cable", 5};
```

Appearance of part1 after initialization:





Initializing Structure Variables (cont.)

- Structure initializers follow rules similar to those for array initializers.
- Expressions used in a structure initializer must be constant. (This restriction is relaxed in C99.)
- An initializer can have fewer members than the structure it's initializing.
- Any "leftover" members are given 0 as their initial value.



Designated Initializers (C99)

 The initializer for part1 shown in the previous example:

```
{528, "Disk drive", 10}
```

 In a designated initializer, each value would be labeled by the name of the member that it initializes:

```
{.number = 528, .name = "Disk drive", .on_hand = 10}
```

 The combination of the period and the member name is called a designator.



Designated Initializers (C99) (cont.)

- Designated initializers are easier to read and check for correctness.
- Also, values in a designated initializer don't have to be placed in the same order that the members are listed in the structure.
 - The programmer doesn't have to remember the order in which the members were originally declared.
 - The order of the members can be changed in the future without affecting designated initializers.



Designated Initializers (C99) (cont.)

- Not all values listed in a designated initializer need be prefixed by a designator.
- Example:

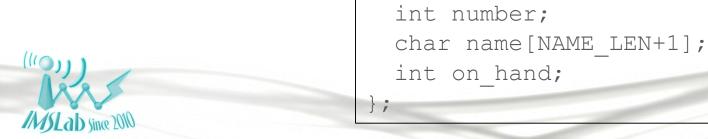
```
\{.number = 528, "Disk drive", .on hand = 10\}
```

struct {

The compiler assumes that "Disk drive" initializes the member that follows number in the structure.

Any members that the initializer fails to account for are

set to zero.



Operations on Structures

- To access a member within a structure, we write the name of the structure first, then a period, then the name of the member.
- Statements that display the values of part1's members:

```
printf("Part number: %d\n", part1.number);
printf("Part name: %s\n", part1.name);
printf("Quantity on hand: %d\n", part1.on_hand);
```



- The members of a structure are lvalues.
- They can appear on the left side of an assignment or as the operand in an increment or decrement expression:

```
part1.number = 258;
  /* changes part1's part number */
part1.on_hand++;
  /* increments part1's quantity on hand */
```



- The period used to access a structure member is actually a C operator.
- It takes precedence over nearly all other operators.
- Example:

```
scanf("%d", &part1.on hand);
```

The . operator takes precedence over the & operator, so & computes the address of part1.on hand.



The other major structure operation is assignment:

```
part2 = part1;
```

• The effect of this statement is to copy part1.number into part2.number, part1.name into part2.name, and so on.



- Arrays can't be copied using the = operator, but an array embedded within a structure is copied when the enclosing structure is copied.
- Some programmers exploit this property by creating "dummy" structures to enclose arrays that will be copied later:

```
struct { int a[10]; } a1, a2;
a1 = a2;
/* legal, since a1 and a2 are structures */
```



Structure Types

- Suppose that a program needs to declare several structure variables with identical members.
- We need a name that represents a type of structure, not a particular structure variable.
- Ways to name a structure:
 - Declare a "structure tag"
 - Use typedef to define a type name



Declaring a Structure Tag

- A structure tag is a name used to identify a particular kind of structure.
- The declaration of a structure tag named part:

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

Note that a semicolon must follow the right brace.



Declaring a Structure Tag (cont.)

The part tag can be used to declare variables:

```
struct part part1, part2;
```

• We can't drop the word struct:

```
part part1, part2; /*** WRONG ***/
```

part isn't a type name; without the word struct, it is meaningless.

 Since structure tags aren't recognized unless preceded by the word struct, they don't conflict with other names used in a program.



Declaring a Structure Tag (cont.)

 The declaration of a structure tag can be combined with the declaration of structure variables:

```
struct part {
  int number;
  char name[NAME_LEN+1];
  int on_hand;
} part1, part2;
```

 All structures declared to have type struct part are compatible with one another:

```
struct part part1 = {528, "Disk drive", 10};
struct part part2;
part2 = part1; /* legal; the same type */
```

Defining a Structure Type

- As an alternative to declaring a structure tag, we can use typedef to define a genuine type name.
- A definition of a type named Part:

```
typedef struct {
  int number;
  char name[NAME_LEN+1];
  int on_hand;
} Part;
```

Part can be used in the same way as the built-in types:

```
Part part1, part2;
```

- Functions may have structures as arguments and return values.
- A function with a structure argument:

```
void print_part(struct part p)
{
  printf("Part number: %d\n", p.number);
  printf("Part name: %s\n", p.name);
  printf("Quantity on hand: %d\n", p.on_hand);
}
```

• A call of print part:

```
print_part(part1);
```

A function that returns a part structure:

• A call of build_part: part1 = build part(528, "Disk drive", 10);



- Passing a structure to a function and returning a structure from a function both require making a copy of all members in the structure.
- To avoid this overhead, it's sometimes advisable to pass a pointer to a structure or return a pointer to a structure.
- Lecture 17 gives examples of functions that have a pointer to a structure as an argument and/or return a pointer to a structure.



- There are other reasons to avoid copying structures.
- For example, the <stdio.h> header defines a type named FILE, which is typically a structure.
- Each FILE structure stores information about the state of an open file and therefore must be unique in a program.
- Every function in <stdio.h> that opens a file returns a pointer to a FILE structure.
- Every function that performs an operation on an open file requires a FILE pointer as an argument.

 Within a function, the initializer for a structure variable can be another structure:

```
void f(struct part part1)
{
   struct part part2 = part1;
   ...
}
```

 The structure being initialized must have automatic storage duration.



Compound Literals (C99)

- A compound literal can be used to create a structure "on the fly," without first storing it in a variable.
- The resulting structure can be passed as a parameter, returned by a function, or assigned to a variable.



Compound Literals (C99)

 A compound literal can be used to create a structure that will be passed to a function:

```
print part((struct part) {528, "Disk drive", 10});
```

The compound literal is shown in **bold**.

A compound literal can also be assigned to a variable:

```
part1 = (struct part) {528, "Disk drive", 10};
```

 A compound literal consists of a type name within parentheses, followed by a set of values in braces.



Compound Literals (C99) (cont.)

 A compound literal may contain designators, just like a designated initializer:

 A compound literal may fail to provide full initialization, in which case any uninitialized members default to zero.



Nested Arrays and Structures

- Structures and arrays can be combined without restriction.
- Arrays may have structures as their elements, and structures may contain arrays and structures as members.



Nested Structures

- Nesting one structure inside another is often useful.
- Suppose that person name is the following structure:

```
struct person_name {
  char first[FIRST_NAME_LEN+1];
  char middle_initial;
  char last[LAST_NAME_LEN+1];
};
```



Nested Structures (cont.)

We can use person name as part of a larger structure:

```
struct student {
   struct person_name name;
   int id, age;
   char sex;
} student1, student2;
```

• Accessing student1's first name, middle initial, or last name requires two applications of the . operator:

```
strcpy(student1.name.first, "Fred");
```



Nested Structures (cont.)

- Having name be a structure makes it easier to treat names as units of data.
- A function that displays a name could be passed one person_name argument instead of three arguments: display name(student1.name);
- Copying the information from a person name structure to the name member of a student structure would take one assignment instead of three:

```
struct person_name new_name;
...
student1.name = new_name;
```



Arrays of Structures

- One of the most common combinations of arrays and structures is an array whose elements are structures.
- This kind of array can serve as a simple database.
- An array of part structures capable of storing information about 100 parts:

```
struct part inventory[100];
```



Arrays of Structures (cont.)

 Accessing a part in the array is done by using subscripting:

```
print part(inventory[i]);
```

 Accessing a member within a part structure requires a combination of subscripting and member selection:

```
inventory[i].number = 883;
```

 Accessing a single character in a part name requires subscripting, followed by selection, followed by subscripting:

```
inventory[i].name[0] = ' \setminus 0';
```



Initializing an Array of Structures

- Initializing an array of structures is done in much the same way as initializing a multidimensional array.
- Each structure has its own brace-enclosed initializer; the array initializer wraps another set of braces around the structure initializers.



Initializing an Array of Structures (cont.)

- One reason for initializing an array of structures is that it contains information that won't change during program execution.
- Example: an array that contains country codes used when making international telephone calls.
- The elements of the array will be structures that store the name of a country along with its code:

```
struct dialing_code {
  char *country;
  int code;
```



Initializing an Array of Structures (cont.)

```
const struct dialing code country codes[] =
  {{"Argentina",
                           54}, {"Bangladesh",
                                                    880},
   {"Brazil",
                         55}, {"Burma (Myanmar)", 95},
   {"China",
                           86}, {"Colombia",
                                                     57},
   {"Congo, Dem. Rep. of", 243}, {"Egypt",
                                                     20},
   {"Ethiopia",
                          251}, {"France",
                                                     33},
  {"Germany",
                          49}, {"India",
                                                     91},
                          62}, {"Iran",
  {"Indonesia",
                                                     98},
  {"Italy",
                         39}, {"Japan",
                                                    81},
  {"Mexico",
                          52}, {"Nigeria",
                                                    234},
  {"Pakistan",
                        92}, {"Philippines",
                                                     63},
                         48}, {"Russia",
  {"Poland",
                                                     7},
   {"South Africa",
                       27}, {"South Korea",
                                                    82},
   {"Spain",
                           34}, {"Sudan",
                                                    249},
   {"Thailand",
                                                     90},
                         66}, {"Turkey",
   {"Ukraine",
                          380}, {"United Kingdom",
                                                     44},
   {"United States",
                            1}, {"Vietnam",
                                                     84}};
```

The inner braces around each structure value are optional.

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Initializing an Array of Structures (cont.)

- C99's designated initializers allow an item to have more than one designator.
- A declaration of the inventory array that uses a designated initializer to create a single part:

```
struct part inventory[100] =
    {[0].number = 528, [0].on_hand = 10,
    [0].name[0] = '\0'};
```

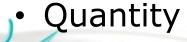


- The inventory.c program illustrates how nested arrays and structures are used in practice.
- The program tracks parts stored in a warehouse.
- Information about the parts is stored in an array of structures.
- Contents of each structure:
 - Part number
 - Name

inventory[0]

inventory[1]

number	name	on_hand
528	Disk drive	10
914	Printer cable	5
•••	•••	•••



- Operations supported by the program:
 - Add a new part number, part name, and initial quantity on hand
 - Given a part number, print the name of the part and the current quantity on hand
 - Given a part number, change the quantity on hand
 - Print a table showing all information in the database
 - Terminate program execution



- The codes i (insert), s (search), u (update), p
 (print), and q (quit) will be used to represent these
 operations.
- A session with the program:

```
Enter operation code: <u>i</u>
Enter part number: <u>528</u>
Enter part name: <u>Disk drive</u>
Enter quantity on hand: <u>10</u>

Enter operation code: <u>s</u>
Enter part number: <u>528</u>
Part name: Disk drive
Quantity on hand: 10
```

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```
Enter operation code: s
Enter part number: 914
Part not found.
Enter operation code: i
Enter part number: 914
Enter part name: Printer cable
Enter quantity on hand: 5
Enter operation code: u
Enter part number: 528
Enter change in quantity on hand: -2
```



```
Enter operation code: <u>s</u>
Enter part number: <u>528</u>
Part name: Disk drive
Quantity on hand: 8
```

```
Enter operation code: \underline{p}

Part Number Part Name Quantity on Hand

528 Disk drive 8

914 Printer cable 5
```

Enter operation code: \underline{q}



- The program will store information about each part in a structure.
- The structures will be stored in an array named inventory.
- A variable named num_parts will keep track of the number of parts currently stored in the array.



An outline of the program's main loop:

```
for (;;) {
 prompt user to enter operation code;
  read code;
  switch (code) {
    case 'i': perform insert operation; break;
    case 's': perform search operation; break;
    case 'u': perform update operation; break;
    case 'p': perform print operation; break;
    case 'q': terminate program;
    default: print error message;
```

- Separate functions will perform the insert, search, update, and print operations.
- Since the functions will all need access to inventory and num_parts, these variables will be external.
- The program is split into three files:
 - inventory.c (the bulk of the program)
 - readline.h (contains the prototype for the read_line function)
- readline.c (contains the definition of read_line)

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```
inventory.c
  #include <stdio.h>
  #include "readline.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 = 0; /* number of parts currently stored */
  int find part(int number);
  void insert(void);
  void search(void);
  void update(void);
( yoid print (void);
```

```
int main (void)
  char code;
  for (;;) {
    printf("Enter operation code: ");
    scanf(" %c", &code);
    while (getchar() != '\n') /* skips to end of line */
    switch (code) {
      case 'i': insert();
                break;
      case 's': search();
                break;
      case 'u': update();
                break;
      case 'p': print();
                break;
      case 'q': return 0;
      default: printf("Illegal code\n");
    printf("\n");
```

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```
int find part(int number)
  int i;
  for (i = 0; i < num parts; i++)
    if (inventory[i].number == number)
      return i;
  return -1;
void insert(void)
  int part number;
  if (num parts == MAX PARTS) {
    printf("Database is full; can't add more parts.\n");
    return;
```

```
printf("Enter part number: ");
scanf("%d", &part number);
if (find part(part number) >= 0) {
  printf("Part already exists.\n");
  return;
// insert at the end
inventory[num parts].number = part number;
printf("Enter part name: ");
read line(inventory[num parts].name, NAME LEN);
printf("Enter quantity on hand: ");
scanf("%d", &inventory[num parts].on_hand);
num parts++;
```



```
void search(void)
  int i, number;
  printf("Enter part number: ");
  scanf("%d", &number);
  i = find part(number);
  if (i >= 0) {
    printf("Part name: %s\n", inventory[i].name);
    printf("Quantity on hand: %d\n", inventory[i].on hand);
  } else
   printf("Part not found.\n");
```



```
void update(void)
  int i, number, change;
  printf("Enter part number: ");
  scanf("%d", &number);
  i = find part(number);
  if (i >= 0) {
    printf ("Enter change in quantity on hand: ");
    scanf("%d", &change);
    inventory[i].on hand += change;
  } else
    printf("Part not found.\n");
```



```
Enter operation code: <u>p</u>

Part Number Part Name Quantity on Hand

528 Disk drive 8

914 Printer cable 5
```

- The version of read_line in Lecture 13 won't work properly in the current program.
- Consider what happens when the user inserts a part:

```
Enter part number: <u>528</u>
Enter part name: Disk drive
```

- The user presses the Enter key after entering the part number, leaving an invisible new-line character that the program must read.
- When scanf reads the part number, it consumes the 5, 2, and 8, but leaves the new-line character unread.

- If we try to read the part name using the original read_line function, it will encounter the newline character immediately and stop reading.
- This problem is common when numerical input is followed by character input.
- One solution is to write a version of read_line that skips white-space characters before it begins storing characters.
- This solves the new-line problem and also allows us to avoid storing blanks that precede the part

readline.h

```
#ifndef READLINE H
#define READLINE H
/********************
* read line: Skips leading white-space characters, then
            reads the remainder of the input line and
                                                   *
            stores it in str. Truncates the line if its
            length exceeds n. Returns the number of
                                                   *
*
            characters stored.
                                                   *
**************************************
int read line(char str[], int n);
#endif
```



```
readline.c
#include <ctype.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include "readline.h"
int read line(char str[], int n)
  int ch, i = 0;
  while (isspace(ch = getchar()))
  while (ch != '\n' \&\& ch != EOF) {
    if (i < n)
      str[i++] = ch;
    ch = getchar();
  str[i] = ' \setminus 0';
  return i;
```

Unions

- A union, like a structure, consists of one or more members, possibly of different types.
- The compiler allocates only enough space for the largest of the members, which overlay each other within this space.
- Assigning a new value to one member alters the values of the other members as well.



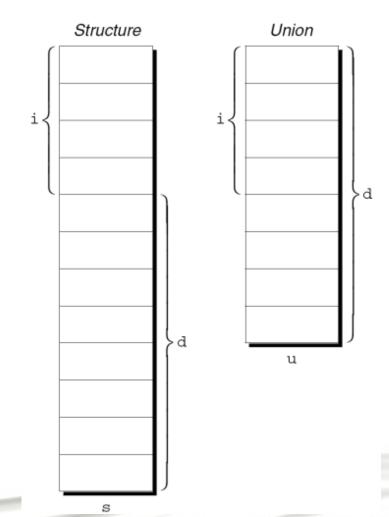
An example of a union variable:

```
union {
  int i;
  double d;
} u;
```

 The declaration of a union closely resembles a structure declaration:

```
struct {
  int i;
  double d;
} s;
```

- The structure s and the union u differ in just one way.
- The members of s are stored at different addresses in memory.
- The members of u are stored at the same address.





 Members of a union are accessed in the same way as members of a structure:

```
u.i = 82;
u.d = 74.8;
```

- Changing one member of a union alters any value previously stored in any of the other members.
 - Storing a value in u.d causes any value previously stored in u.i to be lost.
 - Changing u.i corrupts u.d.



int i;

double d;

- The properties of unions are almost identical to the properties of structures.
- We can declare union tags and union types in the same way we declare structure tags and types.
- Like structures, unions can be copied using the = operator, passed to functions, and returned by functions.



- Only the first member of a union can be given an initial value.
- How to initialize the i member of u to 0:

```
union {
  int i;
  double d;
} u = {0};
```

The expression inside the braces must be constant.
 (The rules are slightly different in C99.)



- Designated initializers can also be used with unions.
- A designated initializer allows us to specify which member of a union should be initialized:

```
union {
  int i;
  double d;
} u = {.d = 10.0};
```

 Only one member can be initialized, but it doesn't have to be the first one.



- Applications for unions:
 - Saving space
 - Building mixed data structures
 - Viewing storage in different ways



Using Unions to Save Space

- Unions can be used to save space in structures.
- Suppose that we're designing a structure that will contain information about an item that's sold through a gift catalog.
- Each item has a stock number and a price, as well as other information that depends on the type of the item:

Books: Title, author, number of pages

Mugs: Design

Shirts: Design, colors available, sizes available

• The item_type member would have one of the values BOOK, MUG, or SHIRT.

 This structure wastes space, since only part of the information in the structure is common to all items in the

catalog.

MUG

```
struct catalog_item {
   int stock_number;
   double price;
   int item_type; //BOOK, MUG or SHIRT
   char title[TITLE_LEN+1];
   char author[AUTHOR_LEN+1];
   int num_pages;
   char design[DESIGN_LEN+1];
   int colors;
   int sizes;
};
```

 By putting a union inside the catalog_item structure, we can reduce the space required by the structure.

```
struct catalog item {
  int stock number;
 double price;
  int item type;
 union {
    struct {
      char title[TITLE LEN+1];
      char author[AUTHOR LEN+1];
      int num pages;
    } book;
    struct {
      char design[DESIGN LEN+1];
    } muq;
    struct {
      char design[DESIGN LEN+1];
      int colors;
      int sizes;
    } shirt;
   item;
```



 If c is a catalog_item structure that represents a book, we can print the book's title in the following way:

```
printf("%s",
c.item.book.title);
```

```
struct catalog item {
 union {
    struct {
      char title[TITLE LEN+1];
      char author[AUTHOR LEN+1];
      int num pages;
    } book;
    struct {
    } muq;
    struct {
    } shirt;
  } item;
```



- The union embedded in the catalog_item structure contains three structures as members.
- Two of these (mug and shirt) begin with a matching member (design).
- Now, suppose that we assign a value to one of the design members:

```
strcpy(c.item.mug.design, "Cats");
```

 The design member in the other structure will be defined and have the same value:

```
printf("%s", c.item.shirt.design); // prints "Cats"
```

Using Unions to Build Mixed Data Structures

- Unions can be used to create data structures that contain a mixture of data of different types.
- Suppose that we need an array whose elements are a mixture of int and double values.
- First, we define a union type whose members represent the different kinds of data to be stored in the array:

```
typedef union {
  int i;
  double d;
} Number;
```

Using Unions to Build Mixed Data Structures (cont.)

Next, we create an array whose elements are Number values:

```
Number number array[1000];
```

- A Number union can store either an int value or a double value.
- This makes it possible to store a mixture of int and double values in number array:

```
number_array[0].i = 5;
number_array[1].d = 8.395;
```



Adding a "Tag Field" to a Union

- There's no easy way to tell which member of a union was last changed and therefore contains a meaningful value.
- Consider the problem of writing a function that displays the value stored in a Number union:

```
void print_number(Number n)
{
  if (n contains an integer)
    printf("%d", n.i);
  else
    printf("%g", n.d);
}
```

There's no way for print number to determine whether n contains an integer or a floating-point number.



- In order to keep track of this information, we can embed the union within a structure that has one other member: a "tag field" or "discriminant."
- The purpose of a tag field is to remind us what's currently stored in the union.
- item_type served this purpose in the catalog_item structure.



The Number type as a structure with an embedded union:

```
#define INT_KIND 0
#define DOUBLE_KIND 1

typedef struct {
  int kind;  /* tag field */
  union {
    int i;
    double d;
  } u;
} Number;
```

• The value of kind will be either INT KIND or DOUBLE KIND.



- Each time we assign a value to a member of u, we'll also change kind to remind us which member of u we modified.
- An example that assigns a value to the i member of u:

```
n.kind = INT_KIND;
n.u.i = 82;
```

n is assumed to be a Number variable.



- When the number stored in a Number variable is retrieved, kind will tell us which member of the union was the last to be assigned a value.
- A function that takes advantage of this capability:

```
void print_number(Number n)
{
  if (n.kind == INT_KIND)
    printf("%d", n.u.i);
  else
    printf("%g", n.u.d);
}
```

```
void print_number(Number n)
{
   if (n contains an integer)
     printf("%d", n.i);
   else
     printf("%g", n.d);
}
```

n is union

n is struct, u is union

Enumerations

- In many programs, we'll need variables that have only a small set of meaningful values.
- A variable that stores the suit of a playing card should have only four potential values: "clubs," "diamonds," "hearts," and "spades."



 A "suit" variable can be declared as an integer, with a set of codes that represent the possible values of the variable:

```
int s;  /* s will store a suit */
...
s = 2;  /* 2 represents "hearts" */
```

- Problems with this technique:
 - We can't tell that s has only four possible values.
 - The significance of 2 isn't apparent.



 Using macros to define a suit "type" and names for the various suits is a step in the right direction:

```
#define SUIT int
#define CLUBS 0
#define DIAMONDS 1
#define HEARTS 2
#define SPADES 3
```

An updated version of the previous example:

```
SUIT s;
...
s = HEARTS;
int s;
...
s = 2;
```

- Problems with this technique:
 - There's no indication to someone reading the program that the macros represent values of the same "type."
 - If the number of possible values is more than a few, defining a separate macro for each will be tedious.
 - The names CLUBS, DIAMONDS, HEARTS, and SPADES will be removed by the preprocessor, so they won't be available during debugging.



- C provides a special kind of type designed specifically for variables that have a small number of possible values.
- An enumerated type is a type whose values are listed ("enumerated") by the programmer.
- Each value must have a name (an enumeration constant).



 Although enumerations have little in common with structures and unions, they're declared in a similar way:

```
enum {CLUBS, DIAMONDS, HEARTS, SPADES} s1, s2;
```

 The names of enumeration constants must be different from other identifiers declared in the enclosing scope.



- Enumeration constants are similar to constants created with the #define directive, but they're not equivalent.
- If an enumeration is declared inside a function, its constants won't be visible outside the function.



Enumeration Tags and Type Names

- As with structures and unions, there are two ways to name an enumeration: by declaring a tag or by using typedef to create a genuine type name.
- Enumeration tags resemble structure and union tags:
 enum suit {CLUBS, DIAMONDS, HEARTS, SPADES};
- suit variables would be declared in the following way:
 enum suit s1, s2;



Enumeration Tags and Type Names (cont.)

 As an alternative, we could use typedef to make Suit a type name:

```
typedef enum {CLUBS, DIAMONDS, HEARTS, SPADES} Suit;
Suit s1, s2;
```

 In C89, using typedef to name an enumeration is an excellent way to create a Boolean type:

```
typedef enum {FALSE, TRUE} Bool;
```



Enumerations as Integers

- Behind the scenes, C treats enumeration variables and constants as integers.
- By default, the compiler assigns the integers 0, 1, 2, ...
 to the constants in a particular enumeration.
- In the suit enumeration, CLUBS, DIAMONDS, HEARTS, and SPADES represent 0, 1, 2, and 3, respectively.



 The programmer can choose different values for enumeration constants:

```
enum suit {CLUBS = 1, DIAMONDS = 2,
HEARTS = 3, SPADES = 4};
```

 The values of enumeration constants may be arbitrary integers, listed in no particular order:

```
enum dept {RESEARCH = 20,
PRODUCTION = 10, SALES = 25};
```

 It's even legal for two or more enumeration constants to have the same value.



- When no value is specified for an enumeration constant, its value is one greater than the value of the previous constant.
- The first enumeration constant has the value 0 by default.
- Example:

```
enum EGA_colors {BLACK, LT_GRAY = 7,

DK_GRAY, WHITE = 15};
```

BLACK has the value 0, LT_GRAY is 7, DK_GRAY is 8, and WHITE is 15.



Enumeration values can be mixed with ordinary integers:

- s is treated as a variable of some integer type.
- CLUBS, DIAMONDS, HEARTS, and SPADES are names for the integers 0, 1, 2, and 3.

- Although it's convenient to be able to use an enumeration value as an integer, it's dangerous to use an integer as an enumeration value.
- For example, we might accidentally store the number 4—which doesn't correspond to any suit—into s.

$$s = 4;$$



Using Enumerations to Declare "Tag Fields"

- Enumerations are perfect for determining which member of a union was the last to be assigned a value.
- In the Number structure, we can make the kind member an enumeration instead of an int:

```
typedef struct {
  enum {INT_KIND, DOUBLE_KIND} kind;
  union {
    int i;
    double d;
  } u;
} u;
} Number;

typedef struct {
    int kind; /* tag field */
    union ...
} Number;
```



Using Enumerations to Declare "Tag Fields"

- The new structure is used in exactly the same way as the old one.
- Advantages of the new structure:
 - Does away with the INT_KIND and DOUBLE_KIND macros
 - Makes it obvious that kind has only two possible values: INT KIND and DOUBLE KIND

