

## Chapter 7

# Basic Types

## Basic Types

- C's **basic** (built-in) **types**:
  - **Integer** types, including
    - long integers,
    - short integers, and
    - unsigned integers
  - **Floating** types
    - float,
    - double, and
    - long double
  - **char**
  - **\_Bool** (C99)

## Integer Types

- C supports two fundamentally different kinds of numeric types:
  - integer types and
  - floating types.
- Values of an **integer type** are whole numbers.
- Values of a **floating type** can have a fractional part as well.
- The **integer** types, in turn, are divided into two categories:
  - signed and
  - unsigned.

## Signed and Unsigned Integers

- The leftmost bit of a **signed** integer (known as the **sign bit**) is **0** if the number is **positive** or **zero**, **1** if it's **negative**.
- The largest **16-bit integer** has the binary representation 0111111111111111, which has the value **32,767** ( $2^{15} - 1$ ).
- The largest **32-bit integer** is // 宇宙的年齡，當今理論和觀測認為這個年齡在136億年  
01111111111111111111111111111111  
which has the value **2,147,483,647** ( $2^{31} - 1$ ). // 地球的年齡大約在45.4億年
- An integer with **no sign bit** (the leftmost bit is considered part of the number's magnitude) is said to be **unsigned**.
- The largest **16-bit unsigned integer** is **65,535** ( $2^{16} - 1$ ).
- The largest **32-bit unsigned integer** is **4,294,967,295** ( $2^{32} - 1$ ).

## Signed and Unsigned Integers

- By default, **integer** variables are **signed** in C—the **leftmost bit** is reserved for the **sign**.
- To tell the compiler that a variable has **no sign bit**, declare it to be **unsigned**.
- Unsigned numbers are primarily useful for
  - systems programming and
  - low-level, machine-dependent applications.

## Integer Types

- The `int` type is usually 32 bits, but may be 16 bits on older CPUs.
- **Long** integers may have **more bits** than ordinary integers;
- **Short** integers may have **fewer bits**.
- The specifiers `long` and `short`,
  - as well as signed and unsigned,
  - can be combined with `int` to form integer types.
- Only six combinations produce different types:
 

<code>short int</code>	<code>unsigned short int</code>
<code>int</code>	<code>unsigned int</code>
<code>long int</code>	<code>unsigned long int</code>
- The order of the specifiers doesn't matter.
- Also, the word `int` can be dropped (`long int` can be abbreviated to just `long`).<sup>6</sup>

## Integer Types

- The range of values
  - represented by each of the six integer types
  - varies from one machine to another.
- However, the C standard
  - requires that `short int`, `int`, and `long int`
  - must each cover a certain minimum range of values.
- Also, `int` must not be shorter than `short int`, and `long int` must not be shorter than `int`.

## Integer Types

- Typical ranges of values for the integer types on a **16-bit** machine:

Type	Smallest Value	Largest Value
<code>short int</code>	−32,768	32,767
<code>unsigned short int</code>	0	65,535
<code>int</code>	−32,768	32,767
<code>unsigned int</code>	0	65,535
<code>long int</code>	−2,147,483,648	2,147,483,647
<code>unsigned long int</code>	0	4,294,967,295

## Integer Types

- Typical ranges on a **32-bit** machine:

<i>Type</i>	<i>Smallest Value</i>	<i>Largest Value</i>
short int	-32,768	32,767
unsigned short int	0	65,535
int	-2,147,483,648	2,147,483,647
unsigned int	0	4,294,967,295
long int	-2,147,483,648	2,147,483,647
unsigned long int	0	4,294,967,295

## Integer Types

- Typical ranges on a **64-bit** machine:

<i>Type</i>	<i>Smallest Value</i>	<i>Largest Value</i>
short int	-32,768	32,767
unsigned short int	0	65,535
int	-2,147,483,648	2,147,483,647
unsigned int	0	4,294,967,295
long int	-2 <sup>63</sup>	2 <sup>63</sup> -1
unsigned long int	0	2 <sup>64</sup> -1

- The `<limits.h>` header
  - defines macros that represent the smallest and largest values of each integer type.

## Integer Types in C99

- C99 provides two additional standard integer types, long long int and unsigned long long int.
- Both long long types are required to be at **least 64 bits** wide.
- The range of long long int values is typically
  - 2<sup>63</sup> (-9,223,372,036,854,775,808) to
  - 2<sup>63</sup> - 1 (9,223,372,036,854,775,807).
- The range of unsigned long long int values is usually
  - 0 to
  - 2<sup>64</sup> - 1 (18,446,744,073,709,551,615).

## Integer Types in C99

- The short int, int, long int, and long long int types (along with the signed char type)
  - are called *standard signed integer types* in C99.
- The unsigned short int, unsigned int, unsigned long int, and unsigned long long int types (along with the unsigned char type and the \_Bool type)
  - are called *standard unsigned integer types*.
- In addition to the standard integer types, the C99 standard allows **implementation-defined extended integer types**, both signed and unsigned.

## Integer Constants

- **Constants** are numbers that appear in the text of a program.
- C allows **integer constants** to be written in
  - decimal (base 10),
  - octal (base 8), or
  - hexadecimal (base 16).

## Octal and Hexadecimal Numbers

- **Octal** numbers use only the digits 0 through 7.
  - Each position in an octal number represents a power of 8.
  - The **octal number 237** represents the **decimal number**  $2 \times 8^2 + 3 \times 8^1 + 7 \times 8^0 = 128 + 24 + 7 = 159$ .
- A **hexadecimal** (or hex) number is written using the digits 0 through 9 plus the letters A through F,
  - which stand for 10 through 15, respectively.
  - The **hex number 1AF** has the **decimal value**  $1 \times 16^2 + 10 \times 16^1 + 15 \times 16^0 = 256 + 160 + 15 = 431$ .

## Integer Constants

- **Decimal** constants contain digits between 0 and 9, but must not begin with a zero:  
15 255 32767
- **Octal** constants contain only digits between 0 and 7, and must **begin with a zero**:  
017 0377 077777
- **Hexadecimal** constants contain digits between 0 and 9 and letters between a and f, and always begin with **0x**:  
0xf 0xfff 0x7fff
- The letters in a hexadecimal constant may be either upper or lower case:  
0xff 0xFf 0xFF 0xFF 0Xff 0XfF 0XFF 0XFF

## Integer Constants

- The type of a **decimal integer constant** is normally **int**.
- If the value of the constant is too large to store as an **int**, the constant has type **long int** instead.
- If the constant is too large to store as a **long int**, the compiler will try **unsigned long int** as a last resort.
- For an *octal* or *hexadecimal* constant, the rules are slightly different: the compiler will go through the types **int**, **unsigned int**, **long int**, and **unsigned long int** until it finds one capable of representing the constant.

## Integer Constants

- To force the compiler to treat a constant as a **long integer**, just follow it with the letter **L** (or **l**):

15**L** 0377**L** 0x7fff**L**

- To indicate that a constant is **unsigned**, put the letter **U** (or **u**) after it:

15**U** 0377**U** 0x7fff**U**

- L and U may be used in combination:

0xffffffff**UL**

The order of the L and U doesn't matter, nor does their case.

## Integer Constants in C99

- In C99, integer constants
  - that end with either LL or ll (the case of the two letters must match)
  - have type long long int.
- Adding the letter U (or u)
  - before or after the LL or ll
  - denotes a constant of type **unsigned long long int**.
- C99's general rules for determining the type of an **integer constant** are a bit different from those in C89.
- The type of a decimal constant
  - with no suffix (U, u, L, l, LL, or ll)
  - is the "smallest" of the types **int**, **long int**, or **long long int** that can represent the value of that constant.

## Integer Constants in C99

- For an **octal** or **hexadecimal constant**,
  - the list of possible types is int, unsigned int, long int, unsigned long int, long long int, and unsigned long long int, in that order.
- Any **suffix** at the end of a constant
  - changes the list of possible types.
  - A constant that ends with U (or u) must have one of the types unsigned int, unsigned long int, or unsigned long long int.
  - A decimal constant that ends with L (or l) must have one of the types long int or long long int.

## Integer Overflow

- When **arithmetic operations** are performed on integers,
  - it's possible that the result will be too large to represent.
- For example, when an arithmetic operation is performed on two **int** values,
  - the result must be able to be represented as an **int**.
- If the **result** can't be represented as an **int** (because it requires too many bits),
  - we say that **overflow** has occurred.

## Integer Overflow

- The behavior when **integer overflow** occurs depends on whether the **operands** were signed or unsigned.
- When overflow occurs during an operation on **signed integers**, the program's behavior is undefined.
- When overflow occurs during an operation on **unsigned integers**, the result is defined:
  - we get **the correct answer modulo 2<sup>n</sup>**,
  - where **n** is the **number of bits** used to store the result.

```
4 = 100 mod 16      /* 100 - 16*6 = 4 */
```

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## Reading and Writing Integers

- Reading and writing **unsigned**, **short**, and **long integers** requires new **conversion specifiers**.
- When reading or writing an **unsigned integer**, use the letter **u**, **o**, or **x** instead of **d** in the conversion specification.

```
unsigned int u;

scanf("%u", &u); /* reads u in base 10 */
printf("%u", u); /* writes u in base 10 */
scanf("%o", &u); /* reads u in base 8 */
printf("%o", u); /* writes u in base 8 */
scanf("%x", &u); /* reads u in base 16 */
printf("%x", u); /* writes u in base 16 */
```

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## Reading and Writing Integers

- When reading or writing a **short integer**, put the letter **h** in front of **d**, **o**, **u**, or **x**:
 

```
short s;

scanf("%hd", &s);
printf("%hd", s);
```
- When reading or writing a **long integer**, put the letter **l** (“ell,” not “one”) in front of **d**, **o**, **u**, or **x**.
- When reading or writing a **long long integer** (C99 only), put the letters **ll** in front of **d**, **o**, **u**, or **x**.

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## Program: Summing a Series of Numbers (Revisited)

- The `sum.c` program (Chapter 6) sums a series of integers.
- One problem with this program is that the sum (or one of the input numbers) **might exceed the largest value allowed** for an `int` variable.
- Here's what might happen if the program is run on a machine whose integers are 16 bits long:
 

```
This program sums a series of integers.
Enter integers (0 to terminate): 10000 20000 30000 0
The sum is: -5536
```
- When **overflow occurs** with signed numbers, the outcome is **undefined**.
- The program can be improved by using `long` variables.

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**sum2.c**

```

/* Sums a series of numbers (using long variables) */
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    long n, sum = 0;

    printf("This program sums a series of integers.\n");
    printf("Enter integers (0 to terminate): ");

    scanf("%ld", &n);
    while (n != 0) {
        sum += n;
        scanf("%ld", &n);
    }
    printf("The sum is: %ld\n", sum);

    return 0;
}

```

**Floating Types**

- C provides three *floating types*, corresponding to different floating-point formats:
  - float      **Single-precision** floating-point
  - double      **Double-precision** floating-point
  - long double **Extended-precision** floating-point

**Floating Types**

- float is suitable when the amount of precision isn't critical.
- double provides enough precision for most programs.
- long double is rarely used.
- The C standard doesn't state how much precision the float, double, and long double types provide, since that depends on how numbers are stored.
- Most modern computers follow the specifications in **IEEE Standard 754** (also known as IEC 60559).

**The IEEE Floating-Point Standard**

- IEEE Standard 754 was developed by the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers.
  - It has two primary formats for floating-point numbers: **single precision** (32 bits) and **double precision** (64 bits).
- Numbers are stored in a form of **scientific notation**, with each number having a *sign*, an *exponent*, and a *fraction*.
- In **single-precision** format, the **exponent** is 8 bits long, while the **fraction** occupies 23 bits.
- The maximum value is approximately  $3.40 \times 10^{38}$ , with a precision of about **6 decimal digits**.

## Floating Types

- Characteristics of `float` and `double` when implemented according to the IEEE standard:

Type	Smallest Positive Value	Largest Value	Precision
<code>float</code>	$1.17549 \times 10^{-38}$	$3.40282 \times 10^{38}$	6 digits
<code>double</code>	$2.22507 \times 10^{-308}$	$1.79769 \times 10^{308}$	15 digits

- On computers that don't follow the IEEE standard, this table won't be valid.
- In fact, on some machines,
  - `float` may have the same set of values as `double`, or
  - `double` may have the same values as `long double`.

## Floating Types

- Macros that define the characteristics of the floating types can be found in the `<float.h>` header.
- In C99, the **floating types** are divided into two categories.
  - Real floating types**
    - `float`, `double`, `long double`
  - Complex types**
    - `float_Complex`,
    - `double_Complex`,
    - `long double_Complex`

## Floating Constants

- Floating constants** can be written in a variety of ways.
- Valid ways of writing the number 57.0:
 

```
57.0  57.  57.0e0  57E0  5.7e1  5.7e+1
.57e2  570.e-1
```
- A **floating constant**
  - must contain a **decimal point** and/or an **exponent**;
  - the **exponent** indicates the **power of 10** by which the number is to be scaled.
- If an **exponent** is present,
  - it must be preceded by the letter **E** (or **e**).
  - An optional + or - sign may appear after the **E** (or **e**).

## Floating Constants

- By default, **floating constants**
  - are stored as **double-precision** numbers.
- To indicate that only **single precision** is desired,
  - put the letter **F** (or **f**) at the end of the constant
  - (for example, `57.0F`).
- To indicate that a constant should be stored in **long double** format,
  - put the letter **L** (or **l**) at the end (`57.0L`).



## Reading and Writing Floating-Point Numbers

- The conversion specifications `%e`, `%f`, and `%g` are used for reading and writing **single-precision floating-point** numbers.
- When reading a value of type **double**, put the letter **l** in front of `e`, `f`, or `g`:  

```
double d;
scanf ("%lf", &d);
```
- Note:* Use **l** only in a `scanf` format string, not a `printf` string.
- In a `printf` format string, the `e`, `f`, and `g` conversions can be used to write either `float` or `double` values.
- When reading or writing a value of type **long double**, put the letter **L** in front of `e`, `f`, or `g`.

`%g`: 浮點數輸出，取`%f`或`%e`兩者中較精簡者。

## Character Types

- The only remaining basic type is `char`, the character type.
- The values of type `char`
  - can vary from one computer to another,
  - because different machines may have different underlying character sets.

## Character Sets

- Today's most popular character set
  - is **ASCII** (American Standard Code for Information Interchange),
  - a **7-bit code** capable of representing **128 characters**.
- ASCII
  - is often extended to a **256-character** code known as **Latin-1**
  - that provides the characters necessary for **Western European** and many **African languages**.

## Character Sets

- A variable of type `char` can be assigned any **single character**:

```
char ch;
```

```
ch = 'a';    /* lower-case a */
ch = 'A';    /* upper-case A */
ch = '0';    /* zero          */
ch = ' ';    /* space           */
```

- Notice that **character constants** are enclosed in **single quotes**, not **double quotes**.

## Operations on Characters

- Working with characters in C is simple, because of one fact: *C treats **characters** as small **integers**.*
- In ASCII, character codes
  - range from **0000000** to **1111111**,
  - which we can think of as the integers from **0** to **127**.
- The character
  - 'a' has the value 97, 'A' has the value 65,
  - '0' has the value 48, and ' ' has the value 32.
- Character constants** actually have `int` type rather than `char` type.

## Operations on Characters

- When a character appears in a computation, C uses its integer value.
- Consider the following examples, which assume the ASCII character set:

```
char ch;
int i;

i = 'a';           /* i is now 97 */
ch = 65;           /* ch is now 'A' */
ch = ch + 1;       /* ch is now 'B' */
ch++;              /* ch is now 'C' */
```

## Operations on Characters

- Characters can be compared, just as numbers can.
- An `if` statement that converts a lower-case letter to upper case:
 

```
if ('a' <= ch && ch <= 'z')
    ch = ch - 'a' + 'A';
```
- Comparisons such as `'a' <= ch` are done using the integer values of the characters involved.
- These values depend on the **character set** in use, so programs that use `<`, `<=`, `>`, and `>=` to compare characters may not be portable.

## Operations on Characters

- The fact that **characters** have the same properties as **numbers** has advantages.
- For example, it is easy to write a **for statement** whose **control variable** steps through all the upper-case letters:
 

```
for (ch = 'A'; ch <= 'Z'; ch++) ...
```
- Disadvantages of treating **characters** as **numbers**:
  - Can lead to errors that won't be caught by the compiler.
  - Allows meaningless expressions such as `'a' * 'b' / 'c'`.
  - Can hamper (阻碍) portability, since programs may rely on assumptions about the underlying **character set**.

## Signed and Unsigned Characters

- The `char` type—like the integer types—exists in both signed and unsigned versions.
- Signed characters normally have values between  $-128$  and  $127$ .
- Unsigned characters have values between  $0$  and  $255$ .
- Some compilers treat `char` as a signed type, while others treat it as an unsigned type. Most of the time, it doesn't matter.
- C allows the use of the words `signed` and `unsigned` to modify `char`:  

```
signed char sch;
unsigned char uch;
```

## Signed and Unsigned Characters

- C89 uses the term *integral types* to refer to both the integer types and the character types.
- Enumerated types are also integral types.
- C99 doesn't use the term "integral types."
- Instead, it expands the meaning of "integer types" to include the character types and the enumerated types.
- C99's `_Bool` type is considered to be an unsigned integer type.

## Arithmetic Types

- The integer types and floating types are collectively known as *arithmetic types*.
- A summary of the arithmetic types in C89, divided into categories and subcategories:
  - Integral (整數的) types
    - `char`
    - Signed integer types (`signed char`, `short int`, `int`, `long int`)
    - Unsigned integer types (`unsigned char`, `unsigned short int`, `unsigned int`, `unsigned long int`)
    - Enumerated types
  - Floating types (`float`, `double`, `long double`)

## Arithmetic Types

- C99 has a more complicated hierarchy:
  - Integer types
    - `char`
    - Signed integer types, both standard (`signed char`, `short int`, `int`, `long int`, `long long int`) and extended
    - Unsigned integer types, both standard (`unsigned char`, `unsigned short int`, `unsigned int`, `unsigned long int`, `unsigned long long int`, `_Bool`) and extended
    - Enumerated types
  - Floating types
    - Real floating types (`float`, `double`, `long double`)
    - Complex types (`float _Complex`, `double _Complex`, `long double _Complex`)

## Escape Sequences

- A **character constant** is usually one character enclosed in **single quotes**.
- However, certain special characters
  - **including the new-line character**—
  - can't be written in this way, because they're invisible (nonprinting) or because they can't be entered from the keyboard.
- **Escape sequences** provide a way to represent these characters.
- There are two kinds of escape sequences:  
**character escapes** and **numeric escapes**.

## Escape Sequences

- A complete list of character escapes:

<i>Name</i>	<i>Escape Sequence</i>	
Alert (bell)	\a	
Backspace	\b	
Form feed	\f	// 換頁
New line	\n	
Carriage return	\r	
Horizontal tab	\t	
Vertical tab	\v	
Backslash	\\	
Question mark	\?	
Single quote	\'	
Double quote	\"	

## Escape Sequences

- Character escapes are handy, but they **don't exist for all nonprinting ASCII characters**.
  - Character escapes are also useless for representing characters beyond the basic 128 ASCII characters.
- Numeric escapes, which **can represent any character**, are the solution to this problem.
  - A numeric escape for a particular character uses the character's **octal** or **hexadecimal** value.
  - For example, the ASCII **escape character** (decimal value: 27) has the value **33 in octal** and **1B in hex**.

## Escape Sequences

- An **octal escape sequence**
  - consists of the \ character followed by an octal number with at most three digits, such as \33 or \033.
- A **hexadecimal escape sequence**
  - consists of \x followed by a hexadecimal number, such as \x1b or \x1B.
  - The **x** must be in **lower case**, but the **hex digits** can be upper or lower case.

## Escape Sequences

- When used as a **character constant**, an escape sequence must be enclosed in **single quotes**.
- For example, a constant representing the **escape character** would be written `'\33'` (or `'\x1b'`).
- Escape sequences tend to get a bit cryptic (模糊/隱藏), so it's often a good idea to use `#define` to give them names:  

```
#define ESC '\33'
```
- Escape sequences can be embedded in strings as well.

## Character-Handling Functions

- Calling C's `toupper` library function is a fast and portable way to convert case:  

```
ch = toupper(ch); // int toupper(int);
```
- `toupper` returns the upper-case version of its argument.
- Programs that call `toupper` need to have the following `#include` directive at the top:  

```
#include <ctype.h>
```
- The C library provides many other useful character-handling functions.

## Reading and Writing Characters Using `scanf` and `printf`

- The `%c` conversion specification allows `scanf` and `printf` to read and write single characters:  

```
char ch;

scanf("%c", &ch); /* reads one character */
printf("%c", ch); /* writes one character */
```
- `scanf` doesn't skip white-space characters.
- To force `scanf` to skip white space before reading a character, put a space in its format string just before `%c`:  

```
scanf(" %c", &ch);
```

## Reading and Writing Characters Using `scanf` and `printf`

- Since `scanf` doesn't normally skip white space,
  - it's easy to detect **the end** of an input line:
  - check to see if the character just read is the new-line character.
- A loop that reads and ignores all remaining characters in the current input line:  

```
do {
    scanf("%c", &ch);
} while (ch != '\n');
```
- When `scanf` is called the next time, it will read the first character on the next input line.

## Reading and Writing Characters Using `getchar` and `putchar`

- For single-character input and output, `getchar` and `putchar` are an alternative to `scanf` and `printf`.
- `putchar` writes a character:  
`putchar(ch); // int putchar(int);`
- Each time `getchar` is called, it reads one character, which it returns:  
`ch = getchar(); // int getchar(void);`
- `getchar` returns an `int` value rather than a `char` value, so `ch` will often have type `int`.
- Like `scanf`, `getchar` doesn't skip white-space characters as it reads.

## Reading and Writing Characters Using `getchar` and `putchar`

- Using `getchar` and `putchar` (rather than `scanf` and `printf`) saves execution time.
  - `getchar` and `putchar` are much simpler than `scanf` and `printf`, which are designed to read and write many kinds of data in a variety of formats.
  - They are usually implemented as macros for additional speed.
- `getchar` has another advantage.
  - Because it returns the character that it reads, `getchar` lends (增添) itself to various C idioms (慣用語法).

## Reading and Writing Characters Using `getchar` and `putchar`

- Consider the `scanf` loop that we used to skip the rest of an input line:  

```
do {
    scanf("%c", &ch);
} while (ch != '\n');
```
- Rewriting this loop using `getchar` gives us the following:  

```
do {
    ch = getchar();
} while (ch != '\n');
```

## Reading and Writing Characters Using `getchar` and `putchar`

- Moving the call of `getchar` into the controlling expression allows us to condense the loop:  

```
while ((ch = getchar()) != '\n')
    ;
```
- The `ch` variable isn't even needed; we can just compare the return value of `getchar` with the new-line character:  

```
while (getchar() != '\n')
    ;
```

## Reading and Writing Characters Using `getchar` and `putchar`

- `getchar` is useful in
  - loops that skip characters as well as
  - loops that search for characters.
- A statement that uses `getchar` to skip an indefinite number of blank characters:
 

```
while ((ch = getchar()) == ' ')
```

```
    ;
```
- When the loop terminates, `ch` will contain the first nonblank character that `getchar` encountered.

## Reading and Writing Characters Using `getchar` and `putchar`

- Be careful when mixing `getchar` and `scanf`.
- `scanf` has a tendency to **leave behind characters** that it has “peeked” at **but not read**, including the new-line character:
 

```
printf("Enter an integer: ");
scanf("%d", &i);
printf("Enter a command: ");
command = getchar();
```
- `scanf` will **leave behind** any characters that weren't consumed during the reading of `i`, including (but not limited to) the **new-line character**.
- `getchar` will **fetch** the first leftover character.

## Program: Determining the Length of a Message

- The `length.c` program displays the length of a message entered by the user:
 

```
Enter a message: Brevity is the soul of wit.
Your message was 27 character(s) long.
```
- The length includes **spaces** and **punctuation**, but not the **new-line character** at the end of the message.
- We could use either `scanf` or `getchar` to read characters; most C programmers would choose `getchar`.
- `length2.c` is a shorter program that eliminates the variable used to store the character read by `getchar`.

## length.c

```
/* Determines the length of a message */
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    char ch;
    int len = 0;

    printf("Enter a message: ");
    ch = getchar();
    while (ch != '\n') {
        len++;
        ch = getchar();
    }
    printf("Your message was %d character(s) long.\n", len);

    return 0;
}
```

## length2.c

```

/* Determines the length of a message */
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    int len = 0;

    printf("Enter a message: ");
    while (getchar() != '\n')
        len++;
    printf("Your message was %d character(s) long.\n", len);

    return 0;
}

```

## Type Conversion

- For a computer to perform an arithmetic operation,
  - the **operands** must usually be of the same size (the same number of bits) and be stored in the same way.
- When **operands** of different types are mixed in expressions,
  - the C compiler may have to generate instructions that **change the types of some operands** so that hardware will be able to evaluate the expression.
  - If we add a 16-bit **short** and a 32-bit **int**, the compiler will arrange for the **short** value to be converted to 32 bits.
  - If we add an **int** and a **float**, the compiler will arrange for the **int** to be converted to **float** format.

## Type Conversion

- Because the compiler handles these conversions automatically,
  - without the programmer's involvement,
  - they're known as **implicit conversions**.
- C also allows the programmer to perform **explicit conversions**, using the **cast operator**.
- The rules for performing implicit conversions
  - are somewhat complex,
  - primarily because C has so many different arithmetic types.

## Type Conversion

- Implicit conversions are performed:
  - When the **operands** in an arithmetic or logical **expression** **don't have the same type**. (C performs what are known as the **usual arithmetic conversions**.)
  - When the **type of the expression** on the right side of an assignment doesn't match the **type of the variable** on the left side.
  - When the **type of an argument** in a function call doesn't match the **type of the corresponding parameter**.
  - When the **type of the expression** in a return statement doesn't match the **function's return type**.
- Chapter 9 discusses the last two cases.



## The Usual Arithmetic Conversions

- The usual arithmetic conversions are applied to the operands of most binary operators.
- If `f` has type `float` and `i` has type `int`, the usual arithmetic conversions will be applied to the operands in the expression `f + i`.
- Clearly it's safer to convert `i` to type `float` (matching `f`'s type) rather than convert `f` to type `int` (matching `i`'s type).
  - When an **integer** is converted to **float**, the worst that can happen is a minor **loss of precision**.
  - Converting a **floating-point** number to **int**, on the other hand, causes the **fractional part of the number to be lost**.
  - Worse still, the result will be meaningless if the original number is **larger than** the largest possible integer or **smaller than** the smallest integer.

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## The Usual Arithmetic Conversions

- Strategy behind the usual arithmetic conversions: convert operands to the “narrowest” type that will safely accommodate both values.
- Operand types can often be made to match
  - by converting the operand of the narrower type
  - to the type of the other operand (this act is known as ***promotion***).
- Common promotions include the ***integral promotions***, which convert a **character** or **short integer** to type **int** (or to **unsigned int** in some cases).
- The rules for performing the usual arithmetic conversions can be divided into two cases:
  - The type of **either** operand is a floating type.
  - **Neither** operand type is a floating type.

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## The Usual Arithmetic Conversions

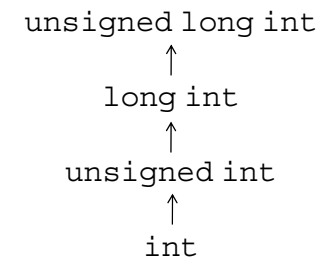
- ***The type of **either** operand is a floating type.***
  - If one operand has type `long double`, then convert the other operand to type `long double`.
  - Otherwise, if one operand has type `double`, convert the other operand to type `double`.
  - Otherwise, if one operand has type `float`, convert the other operand to type `float`.
- **Example:**
  - If one operand has type `long int` and the other has type `double`,
  - the `long int` operand is converted to `double`.

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## The Usual Arithmetic Conversions

- ***Neither operand type is a floating type.***
  - First perform **integral promotion** on both operands.
- Then use the following diagram to promote the operand **whose type is narrower**:



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## The Usual Arithmetic Conversions

- When a signed operand is combined with an unsigned operand, the **signed operand** is converted to an **unsigned** value.
- This rule can cause obscure (含糊的) programming errors.
- It's best to use **unsigned integers** as little as possible and, especially, never mix them with **signed integers**.

## The Usual Arithmetic Conversions

- Example of the **usual arithmetic conversions**:

```
char c;
short int s;
int i;
unsigned int u;
long int l;
unsigned long int ul;
float f;
double d;
long double ld;

i = i + c;      /* c is converted to int          */
i = i + s;      /* s is converted to int          */
u = u + i;      /* i is converted to unsigned int */
l = l + u;      /* u is converted to long int     */
ul = ul + l;    /* l is converted to unsigned long int */
f = f + ul;     /* ul is converted to float       */
d = d + f;      /* f is converted to double       */
ld = ld + d;    /* d is converted to long double  */
```

## Conversion During Assignment

- The **usual arithmetic conversions** don't apply to **assignment**.
- Instead, the **expression** on the right side of the assignment **is converted** to the type of the variable on the left side:

```
char c;
int i;
float f;
double d;

i = c;    /* c is converted to int */
f = i;    /* i is converted to float */
d = f;    /* f is converted to double */
```

## Conversion During Assignment

- Assigning a **floating-point** number to an **integer** variable drops the **fractional part** of the number:
 

```
int i;

i = 842.97;    /* i is now 842 */
i = -842.97;   /* i is now -842 */
```
- Assigning a value to a variable of a **narrower type**
  - will give a meaningless result (or worse)
  - if the value is **outside the range** of the variable's type:

```
c = 10000;    /**** WRONG ****/
i = 1.0e20;   /**** WRONG ****/
f = 1.0e100;  /**** WRONG ****/
```

## Conversion During Assignment

- It's a good idea
  - to append the `f` suffix to a **floating-point constant**
  - if it will be assigned to a `float` variable:

```
f = 3.14159f;
```

- Without the suffix, the constant `3.14159`
  - would have type `double`,
  - possibly causing a warning message.

## Implicit Conversions in C99

- C99's rules for **implicit conversions** are somewhat different.
- Each **integer type** has an “**integer conversion rank**.”
- Ranks from highest to lowest:
  1. `long long int`, `unsigned long long int`
  2. `long int`, `unsigned long int`
  3. `int`, `unsigned int`
  4. `short int`, `unsigned short int`
  5. `char`, `signed char`, `unsigned char`
  6. `_Bool`
- C99's “integer promotions”
  - involve converting any type whose rank is **less than** `int` and `unsigned int`
  - to `int` (provided that all values of the type can be represented using `int`) or else to `unsigned int`.

## Implicit Conversions in C99

- C99's rules for performing the **usual arithmetic conversions** can be divided into two cases:
  - The type of **either** operand is a floating type.
  - **Neither** operand type is a floating type.
- **The type of *either* operand is a floating type.**
  - As long as **neither** operand has a **complex** type, the rules are the same as before. (The conversion rules for **complex types** are discussed in Chapter 27.)

## Implicit Conversions in C99

- ***Neither operand type is a floating type.*** Perform **integer promotion** on **both operands**. **Stop** if the types of the operands are now **the same**. Otherwise, use the following rules:
  - If **both operands** have signed types or **both** have unsigned types, convert the operand whose type has lesser integer conversion rank to the type of the operand with greater rank.
  - If the **unsigned operand** has rank greater or equal to the rank of the type of the **signed operand**, convert the signed operand to the type of the unsigned operand.
  - If the type of the **signed operand** can represent all of the values of the type of the **unsigned operand**, convert the unsigned operand to the type of the signed operand.
  - Otherwise, convert **both operands** to the unsigned type corresponding to the type of the **signed operand**.

## Implicit Conversions in C99

- All arithmetic types
  - can be converted to `_Bool` type.
- The result of the conversion
  - is 0 if the original value is 0;
  - otherwise, the result is 1.

## Casting

- Although C's implicit conversions are convenient, we sometimes need a greater degree of control over type conversion.
- For this reason, C provides *casts*.
- A cast expression has the form

*( type-name ) expression*

*type-name* specifies the type to which the expression should be converted.

## Casting

- Using a cast expression to compute the **fractional part** of a float value:
 

```
float f, frac_part;

frac_part = f - (int) f;
```
- The difference between `f` and `(int) f`
  - is the **fractional part of f**,
  - which was dropped during the cast.
- Cast expressions enable us to document type conversions that would take place anyway:
 

```
i = (int) f; /* f is converted to int */
```

## Casting

- Cast expressions also let us force the compiler to perform conversions.
- Example:
 

```
float quotient;
int dividend, divisor;

quotient = dividend / divisor;
```
- To avoid truncation during division, we need to cast one of the operands:
 

```
quotient = (float) dividend / divisor;
```
- Casting `dividend` to float causes the compiler to convert `divisor` to float also.

## Casting

- C regards ( *type-name* ) as a **unary operator**.
- Unary operators have higher precedence than binary operators, so the compiler interprets  

```
(float) dividend / divisor
```

as  

```
((float) dividend) / divisor
```
- Other ways to accomplish the same effect:  

```
quotient = dividend / (float) divisor;
```

```
quotient = (float) dividend / (float) divisor;
```

## Casting

- Casts are sometimes necessary to **avoid overflow**:  

```
long i;
```

```
int j = 1000;
```

```
i = j * j;    /* overflow may occur */
```
- Using a cast avoids the problem:  

```
i = (long) j * j;
```
- The statement  

```
i = (long) (j * j);    /*** WRONG ***/
```

wouldn't work, since the **overflow would already have occurred** by the time of the cast.

## Type Definitions

- The `#define` directive can be used to create a “Boolean type” macro:  

```
#define BOOL int
```
- There's a better way using a feature known as a **type definition**:  

```
typedef int Bool;
```
- `Bool` can now be used in the same way as the built-in type names.
- Example:  

```
Bool flag;    /* same as int flag; */
```

## Advantages of Type Definitions

- Type definitions can make a program more understandable.
- If the variables `cash_in` and `cash_out` will be used to store dollar amounts, declaring `Dollars` as  

```
typedef float Dollars;
```

and then writing  

```
Dollars cash_in, cash_out;
```

is more informative than just writing  

```
float cash_in, cash_out;
```

## Advantages of Type Definitions

- Type definitions can also make a program easier to modify.
- To redefine `Dollars` as `double`, only the type definition need be changed:  

```
typedef double Dollars;
```
- Without the type definition, we would need to
  - locate **all float variables** that **store dollar amounts**
  - and change their declarations.

## Type Definitions and Portability

- Type definitions are an important tool for writing portable programs.
- One of the problems with moving a program from one computer to another is that **types** may have **different ranges** on different machines.
- If `i` is an `int` variable, an assignment like  

```
i = 100000;
```

 is fine on a **machine with 32-bit integers**, but will fail on a **machine with 16-bit integers**.

## Type Definitions and Portability

- For greater portability, consider using `typedef` to define new names for integer types.
- Suppose that we're writing a program that needs variables capable of storing product quantities in the range **0–50,000**.
- We could use `long` variables for this purpose,
  - but we'd rather use `int` variables,
  - since arithmetic on `int` values may be faster than operations on `long` values.
  - Also, `int` variables may take up less space.

## Type Definitions and Portability

- Instead of using the `int` type to declare quantity variables, we can define our own “quantity” type:  

```
typedef int Quantity;
```

 and use this type to declare variables:  

```
Quantity q;
```
- When we transport the program to a machine with shorter integers, we'll change the type definition:  

```
typedef long Quantity;
```
- Note that changing the definition of `Quantity` may affect the way `Quantity` variables are used.

## Type Definitions and Portability

- The C library itself uses typedef to create names for types
  - that **can vary** from one C implementation to another;
  - these types often have names that end with **\_t**.
- Typical definitions of these types:
 

```
typedef long int ptrdiff_t;
typedef unsigned long int size_t;
typedef int wchar_t;
```
- In C99, the <stdint.h> header uses typedef to define names for **integer types** with a particular number of bits.

## The sizeof Operator

- The value of the expression
 

```
sizeof ( type-name )
```

 is an **unsigned integer** representing the **number of bytes** required to store a value belonging to *type-name*.
- sizeof(char) is always 1, but the sizes of the other types may vary.
- On a 32-bit machine, sizeof(int) is normally 4.

## The sizeof Operator

- The sizeof operator can also be applied to **constants**, **variables**, and **expressions** in general.
  - If i and j are int variables, then sizeof(i) is 4 on a 32-bit machine, as is sizeof(i + j).
- When applied to an **expression**
  - **—as opposed to a type—**
  - sizeof doesn't require parentheses.
  - We could write **sizeof i** instead of **sizeof(i)**.
- Parentheses may be needed anyway because of operator precedence.
  - The compiler interprets sizeof i + j as (sizeof i) + j, because **sizeof** takes precedence over **binary +**.

## The sizeof Operator

- Printing a sizeof value requires care, because the type of a **sizeof expression** is an **implementation-defined** type named size\_t.
- In C89, it's best to convert the value of the expression to a known type before printing it:
 

```
printf("Size of int: %lu\n",
      (unsigned long) sizeof(int));
```
- The printf function in C99
  - can display a size\_t value directly
  - if the letter z is included in the conversion specification:

```
printf("Size of int: %zu\n", sizeof(int));
```