

I have fixed the mistakes that I have noticed. A list is as follows:

Page 5: Changed "std.out" to "stdout"

Page 6: Changed "Rate%" to "Rate%%"

Page 7: Changed "Rate%" to "Rate%%", and '\n' to '\n")'

Page 40: Changed 2 instances of "65536" with "65535"

Page 41: Changed 1 instance of "65536" with "65535"

Page 108: Changed "bit 0" with "bit 7", and "0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7" to "7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0"

Page 109: Changed "putc(stdout)" with "putc(c, stdout)"

Page 120: Changed "Rumplestiltskin", with "RumpleStiltskin"

Page 121: Changed "siz , " with "size,"

Page 133: Changed 3 instances of "processor" with "compiler"

Page 192: Changed "1972" with "1970". Replaced "0,365" with "0-365"

Page 211: Deleted 4 instances of "FF" as part of the page number

Page 212: Deleted 1 instance of "FF" as part of the page number

Page 213: Deleted 3 instances of "FF" as part of the page number

## Reviews from Amazon

5 star - The single best and only intro to C you will need -- and Iov - 1998-10-29  
I got an "A" in my C course. And I used 5 text books. The ONLY textbook that really helped was Alcock's "Illustrating C". It uses diagrams in a truly "revolutionary" way that really helps understanding. It's like moving from black and white to colour. The intention is to provide the student with a set of course notes, complete with instructor black-board diagrams -- only better. It really works. It's enjoyable. Did I mention I got an "A"? I hope that other textbook writers pick up on Mr. Alcock's unique style! Bravo!!! I found C difficult until Mr. Alcock's diagrams made things clear -- the mysterious problem in teaching seems to be that many teachers and textbooks stop JUST BEFORE they reach the foundation of the matter -- and then you have to guess what's really going on. I suspect that this is because many teachers or textbook writers really don't have a profound understanding of their material -- and this becomes a difficulty for the student. Mr. Alcock understands the foundation of the matter and has managed to present it in the most accessible manner. You can really learn from this surprisingly slight book!!! Bravo again!!!

5 star - Excellent! An embedded developer's dream - 1999-07-14

This is the best C book on the market for visual thinkers like me! I used it to re-engineer a large embedded development project a few years ago. It's the only book I have found that explained linked lists well. Buy it NOW!

5 star - Illustrating C is wonderful. It's a sin its out of print! - 2000-06-21

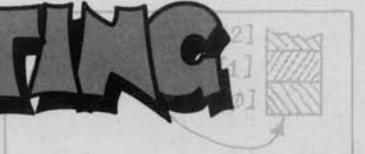
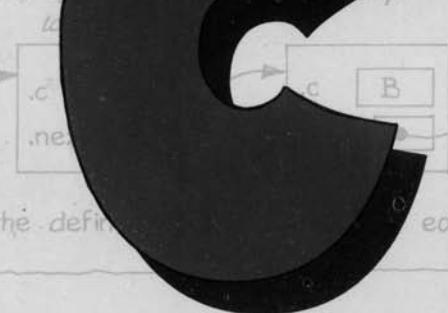
Donald Alcock's Illustrating C is not just an outstanding intro into writing idiomatic C, but it's a really beautiful model of how to put across a whole lot of the beautiful ideas of Computer Science. His illo's are hand drawn. Imagine really good blackboard illustrations of standard C.S. topics like linked lists and hash tables and so on, tidied up for publication. It just kills me that this wonderful little book is out of print. If you are a programmer of any stripe and you see a copy of this rascal, dive for it. You'll be glad you did. If you are a grizzled programmer that is taking up C, you'll find it a delight. If you are a gamer kid wanting to get into real programming, you'll find it hard, but worthwhile because there's so much great stuff presented in such a condensed manner. What a swell book!

5 star - The Best C book available - 2001-01-27

Yes this book is very difficult to find.. The author has an incredible way of explaining each concept within a page or two, in a very concise and intuitive manner. This book is great for beginners, and equally valuable to the more advanced programmers. A must have for the library...

In the previous section we saw how dynamic memory allocation is used on the stack. In this section we will see how dynamic memory allocation is used on the stack.

# ILLUSTRATING C



Where is the definition of each element:

```
typedef struct Element
{
    char c;
    struct Element * next;
};

Element_Type, * Pointer_Type;
```

alias for  
'struct Element'

alias for  
'pointer to objects of type  
struct Element'

'First processing' is the art of diverting pointers by copying addresses from one pointer variable to another. To depict such operations we use the notation shown here. The fat arrow depicts a simple copying of contents in the direction of the arrow. The ordinal number (1st, 2nd, etc.) shows the order of operations needed to avoid overwriting.



Where is the definition of Push(). The copy operations are depicted opposite, together with sketches of the linkage before and after the copy operations:

pointer to objects of type  
Pointer\_Type

```
void Push ( Pointer_Type * q, char ch )
```

```
{
```

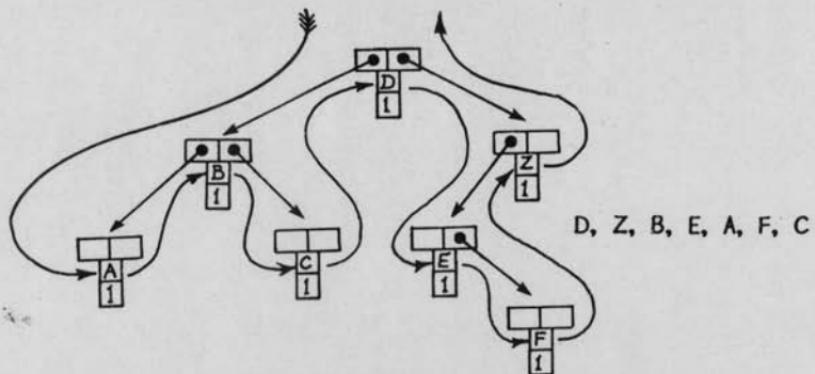
```
    Pointer_Type p;
    p = ( Pointer_Type ) malloc ( sizeof ( Pointer_Type ) );
    p -> c = ch;
    p -> next = * q;
    * q = p;
```

**DONALD ALCOCK**

1st into new element  
2nd

An invocation of Push() demands two arguments of which the first nominates a pointer. For example, Push(&X, 'A') to push 'A' onto stack X.

By popular demand for a book on ANSI standard C, Donald Alcock has again applied his unique formula based on calligraphy and multitudinous diagrams. These diagrams, by exploiting both dimensions of the page, show at a glance what would otherwise need a thousand words to explain.



The book is intended for anyone wanting to learn C, whether a programmer who already knows another programming language or a novice to computing. It starts with the simplest of C programs which is dissected and analysed statement by statement. It ends with sophisticated programs employing dynamic storage.

The book is organized as double-paged spreads, each encapsulating a fundamental idea or topic. This arrangement makes this an ideal book for reference as well as learning. There is also a syntax summary, operator summary, library summary, and comprehensive index.

The programs in this book are complete C programs, each illustrating a feature of C (such as pointer variables) or a principle of programming (such as using stacks) or a useful algorithm (such as Quicksort). The programs have been kept short, retaining just enough complexity to cover the point being made.

Also by the author, published by Cambridge University Press:

Illustrating BASIC  
Illustrating Fortran  
Illustrating Pascal

ISBN 0-521-42483-6



Cambridge University Press

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**ILLUSTRATING**





**ILLUSTRATING**



**(ANSI/ISO VERSION)**

Donald Acock

Reigate Manual Writers



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# PREFACE

The original C programming language was devised by Dennis Ritchie. The first book on C, by Kernighan and Ritchie, came out in 1978 and remained the most authoritative and best book on the subject until their second edition, describing ANSI standard C, appeared in 1988. In all that time, and since, the availability and use of C has increased exponentially. It is now one of the most widely used programming languages, not only for writing computer systems but also for developing applications.

There are many books on C but not so many on ANSI standard C which is the version described here.

This book attempts three things:

- to serve as a text book for introductory courses on C aimed both at those who already know a computer language and at those entirely new to computing
- to summarize and present the syntax and grammar of C by diagrams and tables, making this a useful reference book on C
- to illustrate a few essential programming techniques such as symbol state tables, linked lists, binary trees, doubly linked rings, manipulation of strings, parsing of algebraic expressions.

For a formal appreciation of C ↞ its power, its advantages and disadvantages ↞ see the references given in the Bibliography. As an informal appreciation: all those I know who program in C find the language likeable and enjoy its power. Programming C is like driving a fast and powerful car. Having learned to handle the car safely you would not willingly return to the family saloon.

The hand-written format of this book has evolved over several years, and over six previous books on computers and programming languages. The pages contain the kind of diagram an able lecturer draws on the blackboard and annotates with encircled notes. Written text has been kept short and succinct. I have tried to avoid adverbs, clichés, jargon and unnecessarily formal language.

I hope the result looks friendly.

R EIGATE

Surrey, U.K.

Donald Alcock

February 1992

# 1

## INTRODUCTION

The introduction starts with the concept of a stored program. The concept is second nature to anyone who has programmed anything on any computer in any language, but to a complete novice it can be difficult to grasp. So a simple program is written in English and then translated into C.

The chapter explains principles of running a C program on the computer. The explanation is sketchy because each implementation of C has different rules for doing so. Check the manuals for your own installation.

Finally the program is dissected, statement by statement.

# CONCEPTION

## THE CONCEPT OF A STORED PROGRAM

If you ask to borrow £5,000 at 15.5% compound interest over 5 years, the friendly bank manager works out your monthly repayment, M, from the compound interest formula:

$$M = \frac{P \times R \times (1+R)^N}{12 ((1+R)^N - 1)}$$

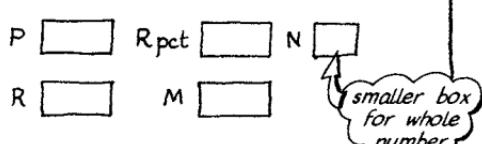
Where:

P represents the principal ( £5000 in this case )

R represents the rate of interest ( 0.155 is the absolute rate in the case of 15.5% )

N represents the number of years ( 5 in this case )

To work this out the friendly bank manager might use the following 'program' of instructions:

- 1 Get math tables or calculator ready
- 2 Draw boxes to receive values for P, Rpct, N. Also a box for the absolute rate, R, and a box for the repayment, M  

- 3 Ask the client to state the three values: Principal (P), Rate percent (Rpct), Number of years (N)
- 4 Write these values in their respective boxes
- 5 Write in box R the result of Rpct/100. For Rpct use the value to be found in box Rpct ( don't rub out the content of box Rpct )
- 6 Write in box M the result of the compound interest formula. Use for the terms P, R, N the values to be found in boxes P, R, N respectively ( don't change anything in boxes P, R, N )
- 7 Confirm to the client the values in boxes P, Rpct, N and the monthly installment read from box M
- 8 Work out ( 12 x value in box M x value in box N ) to tell the client how much will have to be repaid.

This program is good for any size of loan, any rate of interest, any whole number of years. Simply follow instructions 1 to 8 in sequence.

A computer can be made to execute such a program, but first you must translate it into a language the computer can understand. Here is a translation into the language called C.

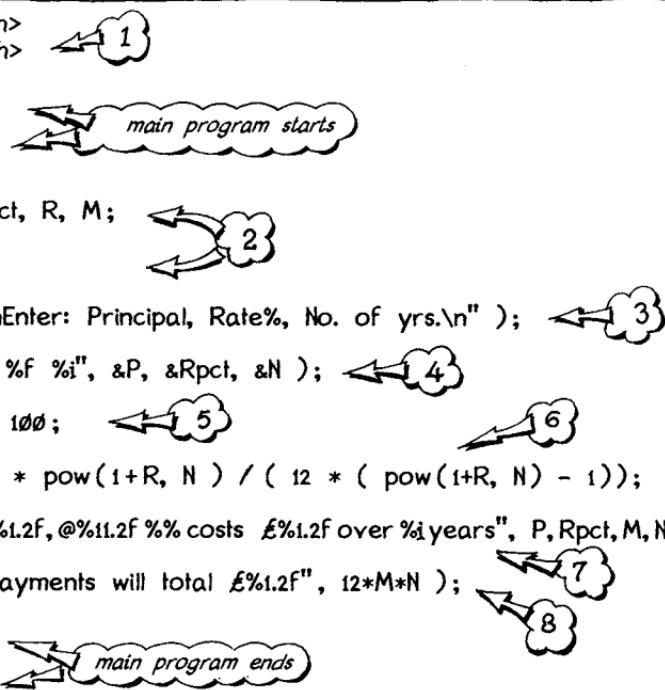
```
#include <stdio.h>           1
#include <math.h>

int main(void)
{
    float P, Rpct, R, M;
    int N;

    printf ("nEnter: Principal, Rate%, No. of yrs.\n");
    scanf ("%f %f %i", &P, &Rpct, &N);
    R = Rpct / 100;
    M = P * R * pow(1+R, N) / ( 12 * ( pow(1+R, N) - 1));
    printf ("\nEnter £%1.2f, @%11.2f %% costs £%1.2f over %i years", P, Rpct, M, N);
    printf ("\nPayments will total £%1.2f", 12*M*N);
    return 0;
}                                8
```

main program starts

main program ends



The above is a *program*. This particular program comprises:

- a set of *directives* to a *preprocessor*; each directive begins `#`
- a *function* called `main()` with one *parameter* named `void`.

A *Function* comprises:

- a *header* conveying the function's name (`(main)`) followed by
- a *block*

A *block* { enclosed in braces } comprises:

- a set of *declarations* (`( 'drawing' the little boxes )`)
- a set of *statements* (`( telling the processor what to do )`)

Each declaration and each statement is terminated with a semicolon.

The correspondence between the English program opposite, and the C program above, is indicated by numbers 1 to 8.

The C program is thoroughly dissected in following pages.

# REALIZATION

MAKING A PROGRAM RUN

The program on the previous page should work on any computer that understands C.

Unfortunately not all computer installations go about running C programs the same way; you have to have some understanding of the *operating system*, typical ones being Unix and DOS. You may be lucky and have an *integrated development environment (IDE)* such as that which comes with Turbo C or Microsoft C. In this case you do not have to learn much about Unix or DOS. You control Turbo C with mouse and menus; it really is easy to learn how.

Regardless of environment, the following essential steps must be taken before you can run the C program on the previous page.

- **Type.** Type the program at the keyboard using the editing facilities available. If these are inadequate, discover if it is feasible to use your favourite word processor.

When typing, don't type main as MAIN; corresponding upper and lower case letters are distinct in the C language (except in a few special cases).

Be sensible with spacing; don't split adjacent tokens and don't join adjacent tokens if both are words or letters;

Flo at P, Rpct, R, M;



split token

FloatP, Rpct, R, M;



tokens joined

Apart from that you may cram tokens together or spread them out over several lines if you like:

Float P,Rpct,R,M;int N;



space



space

Float P , Rpct , R , m ;



To separate tokens, use any combination of whitespace keys:



- **Store.** Store what you type in a file, giving the file a name such as WOTCOST.C (The .C is added automatically in some environments; it signifies a file containing a C program in character form, the .C being an extension of the name proper.)

- **C**ompile. Compile the program which involves translating your C program into a code the computer can understand and obey directly.

This step may be initiated by selecting Compile from a screen menu, or typing a command such as cc wotcost.c ( Unix ) and pressing the Return key. It all depends on your environment.

The compiler reports any errors encountered. A good IDE displays the statements in which the errors were discovered, and locates the cursor at the point where the correction should be made.

- **E**dit. Edit the .C file and recompile as often as necessary to correct the errors discovered by the compiler. The program may still have *logical* errors but at least it should compile.

You have now created a new file containing *object code*. The file of object code has a name related to the name of the original file. In a DOS environment it might have the name WOTCOST.OBJ ( compiled from WOTCOST.C ). In a Unix environment, if you compiled wotcost.c your object code would be stored in a.out.

- **L**ink. In many environments a simple C program may be compiled and linked all in one go ( type a.out, press Return, and away we go ! ). In other environments you must link the program to functions in the standard libraries ( pow, printf, scanf are functions written in C too ). The resulting file might have the name WOTCOST.EXE ( linked from WOTCOST.OBJ ).

- **R**un. Run the executable program by selecting Run from a menu or entering the appropriate command from the keyboard.

- **E**xecution. The screen now displays:

Enter three items separated space, tab or new line. End by pressing Return.

Enter Principal, Rate%, No. of yrs.

5000 15.5 5

£5000.00, @15.5% costs £125.77 over 5 years  
Payments will total £7546.37

The program computes and sends results to the standard output file ( named stdout ). This 'file' is typically the screen.

# DISSECTION

OF A C PROGRAM, PIECE BY PIECE

Here is the compound interest program again with a title added for identification.

```
/* WOTCOST; Computes the cost of a loan */
#include <stdio.h>                                ← comment
#include <math.h>                                     ← directives - no semicolon
int main (void)                                     ← header
{
    float P, Rpct, R, M;
    int N;
    printf ("\nEnter: Principal, Rate%%, No. of yrs.\n");
    scanf ("%f %f %i", &P, &Rpct, &N );
    R = Rpct / 100;
    M = P * R * pow(1+R, N) / (12*(pow(1+R, N) - 1) );
    printf ("\n£%1.2F, @%1.2F% costs £%1.2F over %i years", P, Rpct, M, N);
    printf ("\nPayments will total £%1.2F", 12*M*N );
    return 0;
}
```

/\* WOTCOST; loan \*/ Any text between /\* and \*/ is treated as commentary. Such commentary is allowed wherever whitespace is allowed, and is similarly ignored by the processor.

#include <stdio.h> The # ( which must be the first non-blank character on the line ) introduces an instruction to the *preprocessor* which deals with organizational matters such as including standard files. The standard libraries of C contain many useful functions; to make such a function available to your program, tell the preprocessor the name of its *header file*. In this case the header files are stdio.h (standard input and output) and math.h (mathematical). The header files tell the linker where to find the functions invoked in your program.

int main (void) A C program comprises a set of functions. Precisely one must be named **main** so the processor knows where to begin. The **int** and **void** are explained later; just accept them for now. The declarations and statements of the functions follow immediately; they are enclosed in braces, constituting a *block*. There is no semicolon between header and block.

float P, Rpct, R, M; The 'little boxes' depicted earlier are called *variables*. Variables that hold decimal numbers like 15.5 are of a different *type* from variables that hold only whole numbers. These two statements declare that the variables named P, Rpct, R, M are of type **float** ( short for floating point number ) and the variable named N is of type **int** ( short for integer ). Other types are introduced later.

Declarations, such as those above, must all precede the first statement.

Each declaration and each statement is terminated by a semicolon. A directive is neither a declaration nor a statement; it has no semicolon after it.

You have freedom of layout. Statements may be typed several to a line, one per line, one to several lines. To the C compiler a space, new line, Tab, comment, or any number or combination of such things between statements or between the tokens that make up a statement are simply whitespace. One whitespace is as good as another, but not when between quotation marks as we see here.

significant spaces, reproduced on output page

printf ("\nEnter: Principal, Rate%%, No. of yrs.\n");

This is an invocation

of printf(), a much-used library function for printing. In some environments the processor includes standard input and output automatically without your having to write #include <stdio.h>

printf ( " " );

the F stands for 'formatted'

characters to be sent to the standard output stream - honouring spaces;

When printing, the processor watches for back-slash. On meeting a back-slash the processor looks at the next character for guidance: n says start a new line. \n is called an escape sequence. There is also \t for Tab, \f for Form feed, \a for ring the bell (or beep) and others.

( It's no good pressing the Return key instead of typing \n. Pressing Return would start a new line on the screen, messing up the syntax and layout of your program. You don't want a new line in the program, you want your program to generate one when it obeys printf(). )

scanf ("%f %f %i", & P, & Rpct, & N );

This is an invocation of the scanf() function for

input. For brevity, most examples in this book use scanf(). Safer methods of input are discussed later.

scanf ("

the fields expected from the keyboard

" );

'comma list' of addresses of variables to which values are to be sent

There is more about scanf() overleaf.

To obey the `scanf()` instruction the processor waits until you have typed something at the keyboard and pressed the return key ( 'something' means three values in this example). The processor then tries to copy values, separated by whitespace, from the keyboard buffer. If you type fewer than three values the processor stays with the instruction until you have pressed Return after entering the third. If you type more, the processor reads and ignores the excess.

The processor now tries to interpret the first item as a floating point number (`%f`). If the attempt succeeds, the processor sends the value to the address of variable P (`&P`) — in other words stores the value in P. The second value from the keyboard is similarly stored in Rpt. Then the processor tries to interpret the third item from the keyboard as a whole number (`%i`) and stores this in variable N.

What happens if you type something wrong? Like:



where the `15000` is acceptable as `15000.00`, but the second item involves an illegal sign, the third is not a whole number.

The answer is that things go horribly wrong. In a practical program you would not use `scanf()`.

Why the '&' in `&P`, `&Rpt`, `&N`? Just accept it for now. The art of C, as you will discover, lies in the effective use of:

- & 'the address of...' or 'pointer to...'
- \* 'the value pointed to by...' or 'pointee of...'

```
R=Rpt/100;
M=P*R*pow(1+R,N)/(12*pow(1+R,N)-1);
```

in Rpt by `100`. The `/,*,+,-` mean respectively: divide by, multiply by, add to, subtract from. They are called *operators*, of which there are many others in C.

`pow(1+R,N)` is a *function* which returns the value of  $(1+R)$  raised to the power `N`. If you prefer to use logs you could write `exp(log(1+R)*N)` instead. The math library (`#include <math.h>`) would be needed in either case; `exp()`, `log()`, `pow()` are all `math.h` functions.

The terms `1+R` and `N` are *arguments* (actual arguments) for the function `pow()`, one for each of that function's *parameters* (dummy parameters). In some books on computing the terms *argument* and *parameter* are used interchangeably.

These statements specify the necessary arithmetic: `Rpt / 100` means divide the value found

```
printf ("\n%8.2f,@%.2f%% costs £%.2f over %i years", P,Rpct,M,N);
```

This is like the earlier printf() invocation; a string between quotes in which \n signifies Start a new line on the output screen.

printf ("

"

);

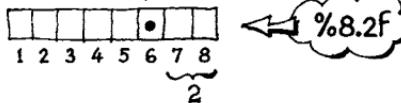
characters to be printed,  
interspersed with format  
specifications for values to  
be printed

comma list of names of  
variables whose values are  
to be printed in the  
format specified

But this time the string contains four format specifications: %8.2f, %.2f, %.2f, %i for which the values stored in variables P, Rpct, M, N are to be substituted in order. You can see this better by rearranging over two lines using whitespace:

```
printf ("\n£%8.2f @ %.2f %% costs £%.2f over %i years",  
       ,P, ,Rpct, ,M, ,N );
```

Take %8.2f as an example. The % denotes a format specification. f denotes a field suitable for a value of type float ~ in other words a number with a fractional part after a decimal point. The 8 specifies eight character positions for the complete number. The .2 specifies a decimal point followed by two decimal places:



A single percentage sign introduces a format specification as illustrated. So how do you tell the processor to print an ordinary percentage sign? The answer is to write %% as demonstrated in the printf() statement above.

The second ( and subsequent ) format specification is %.2f. How can the field be zero characters wide if it has a decimal point and two places after? This is a dodge; whenever a number is too wide, the processor widens the field rightwards until the number just fits.

```
printf ("\nPayments will total £%.2f", N * 12 * M );
```

This is another printf()

invocation with an 'elastic' field. This time the value to be printed is given by an expression,  $n*12*M$ , rather than the name of a variable. The processor evaluates the expression, converts the resulting value (if necessary) to a value of type float, and prints that value in the specified field.

printf ("

"

,

comma list may contain  
expressions as well as  
names of variables

```
return 0;
```

Just accept it for now: the opening int main ( void ) and closing return 0 are described later.

# EXERCISES

- 1 Implement the loans program. This is an exercise in using the tools of your particular C environment. It can take a surprisingly long time to master a new editor and get to grips with the commands of an unfamiliar interface. If all else fails, try reading the manual.

# 2

## CONCEPTS

One of the few troubles with C is that you can't formally define concept A without assuming something about concept B, and you can't define B without assuming something about A. Books on C have a bit in common with the novel Catch 22.

The aim of this chapter is to introduce, informally, enough simple concepts and vocabulary to make subsequent chapters comprehensible.

This chapter introduces decisions, loops, characters, arrays, functions, scope of variables, and recursion. Complete programs are included to illustrate the aspects introduced.

# DECISIONS

LOGICAL VALUES IN C  
THERE ARE NO BOOLEAN VARIABLES

If, in your program, Profit is greater than Loss (if Profit and Loss being names of variables holding values) you may want the program to do one thing, otherwise another. The expression Profit > Loss is true if the value in Profit is greater than that in Loss; true is represented by 1. Conversely, if the value in Profit is not greater than that in Loss the expression is false and takes the value 0.

Thus  $9.5 > 0.0$  takes the value 1 (true);  $9.5 < 0.0$  takes the value 0 (false). A few other logical operators are shown here: Operators are defined in Chapter 3 and briefly summarized on page 196.

< less than  
>= greater than or equal to  
== equal to  
!= not equal to  
&& logical and

There are no Boolean variables in C you have to make do with integers; a value of zero represents false; any non-zero value represents true.

Statements concerned with the flow of control (if, while, do for) are based on values of logical expressions: non-zero for true, zero for false.

## IF ELSE

A SELECTION STATEMENT

The if statement may be used to select a course of action according to the logical value (true or false) of a parenthesized expression:

if ( expression ) statement else statement

reducing to a value of non-zero (true) or zero (false)

```
if ( Profit > Loss )
    printf ( "Hooray!" );
else
    printf ( "Bother!" );
```

```
if ( Profit > Loss )
    printf ( "Hooray!" );
```

true      Profit > Loss      false

Hooray!

true      Profit > Loss      false

Hooray!      Bother!

The statement is typically a compound statement or block. Anywhere a statement is allowed a block is also allowed. A block comprises an indefinitely long sequence, in braces, of declarations (optional) followed by statements. Some of the statements may be if statements a nested pattern.

**B**e careful when nesting 'if' statements. Try to employ the pattern resulting from 'else if' rather than 'if if' which leaves 'elses' dangling in the brain. A sequence of 'if if' makes it difficult to match the associated 'elses' that pile up at the end.

**I**n the illustration below, the operator ! means *not*. Thus if variable Lame holds the value 0 ( false ) then the expression !Lame takes the value 1 ( true ). Conversely, if Lame holds a non-zero value ( true ) then the expression !Lame takes the value 0 (false).

```
if ( Lame )
    Walk ( 0 );
else
    if ( SoSo )
        Trot ( 0 );
    else
        if ( Quiet );
            Canter ( 0 );
        else
            Gallop ( 0 );
```

OK

```
if ( !Lame )
    if ( !SoSo )
        if ( !Quiet )
            Gallop ( 0 );
    else
        Canter ( 0 );
    else
        Trot ( 0 );
    else
        Walk ( 0 );
```

confusing

**E**ach 'else' refers to the closest preceding 'if' that does not already have an 'else', paying due respect to parentheses. Careful indentation shows which 'else' belongs to which 'if', but remember that the processor pays no attention to indentation. Careless indentation can present a misleading picture.

**H**ere is a program that uses a *block* in the 'if' statement as discussed opposite. The program does the same job as the introductory example but first checks that all items of data are positive.

**C**omplicated logic based on 'if else' can be clumsy; we meet more elegant methods of control later.

```
/* WOTCOST with data check */
#include <stdio.h>
#include <math.h>
void main (void)
{
    float P, Rpct, R, M;
    int N;
    printf ("\nEnter: Principal, Rate%, No. of yrs.\n");
    scanf ("%f %f %i", &P, &Rpct, &N );
    if ( ( P>0 ) && ( Rpct > 0 ) && ( N > 0 ) )
    {
        R = Rpct / 100;
        M = P*R*pow(1+R, N) / (12*(pow(1+R, N) - 1) );
        printf ("\n£%.2f, @%.2f% costs £%.2f over %i years", P, Rpct, M, N);
        printf ("\nPayments will total £%.2f", 12*M*N );
    }
    else
        printf ( "Non-positive Data" );
}
```

the initial 'void' means the program returns no signal of success or failure to its environment

there is no 'return 0'

block

&& says 'and'

# LOOPS

## INTRODUCING THE for LOOP THE MOST VERSATILE OF LOOP STRUCTURES

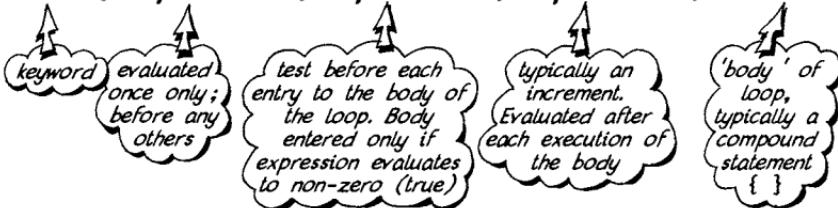
All real programs have loops. When a program has finished computing one person's salary it works through the same set of instructions to compute the next person's salary, and so on through the payroll. That is a loop.

There are, however, different kinds of loop. This one is a 'counted' loop; you specify in advance how many times to go round.

```
/* Humbug */
#include <stdio.h>
void main ( void )
{
    int j;
    for ( j=0; j<3; ++j )
        printf ("\nWe wish you a merry Christmas");
    printf ("\nAnd a happy New Year!");
```

In this loop, j has a test for continuation ( $j < 3$ ) and stands at zero. Zero satisfies the test, so round we go, wishing you a merry Christmas. Then j is incremented by 1 ( $++j$  is short for  $j = j + 1$ ) to become 1. The test ( $j < 3$ ) is again satisfied, so round we go for another merry Christmas. This process continues until j reaches 3, at which stage the test is no longer satisfied; we don't offer any more merry Christmases; we drop out of the loop with New Year greetings.

**For ( expression ; expression ; expression ) statement**



You can specify an infinite loop by omitting the second expression (implying  $i = true$ ) and get out of the loop with break.

getc(stdin)  
defined on  
opposite  
page

Later we meet 'tested' loop structures; the while loop and do loop:

**while ( expression ) statement**

**do statement while ( expression )**

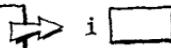
```
/* Count characters until new line */
#include <stdio.h>
void main ( void )
{
    int count = 0; char ch;
    for ( ; ; )
    {
        ch = getc ( stdin );
        if ( ch == '\n' ) break;
        else ++count;
    }
    printf ("\nEntry has %i chars", count);
```

# CHARACTERS

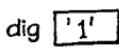
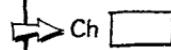
INTRODUCING CHARACTER CONSTANTS  
"STRINGS" COME LATER

Previous examples illustrated type `int` (integer) and `float` (floating-point number, one that has a decimal point). Another type is `char`, short for character. A character is a letter, digit or symbol.

`int i, j = 1;`



`char Ch, k = 'A', dig = '1';`



What can we assume about the relationship of characters? Some aspects depend on the character set employed. In ANSI C:

- `'a' < 'b' < 'c'` etc.
- `'A' < 'B' < 'C'` etc.
- `'0' < '1' < '2'` etc.
- `'2' + 3 = '5'` etc.

both alphabets (lower & upper case)  
are stored in ascending order

digits are stored in ascending  
order

digits are stored  
contiguously

If you work exclusively in the ASCII character set, the following relationships (not defined in ANSI C) also hold:

- `'i' + 1 gives 'j'`
- `'I' + 1 gives 'J'`
- `'i' + ('A' - 'a') gives 'I'` etc.
- `'I' + ('a' - 'A') gives 'i'` etc.

ASCII alphabets (not EBCDIC)  
are stored contiguously

these relationships hold for  
EBCDIC letters also

The previous examples featured `scanf()` and `printf()` for formatted items. For input of a single character from the keyboard use `getc(stdin)`, and for output of a single character to the screen use `putc(Ch, stdout)`. Both functions are defined in `stdio.h`. The parameters `stdin` and `stdout` indicate standard input and output streams defined by the system as depicted below.

`Ch = getc(stdin)`



next character from the  
keyboard buffer gets stored in  
nominated character variable

`putc(Ch, stdout)`



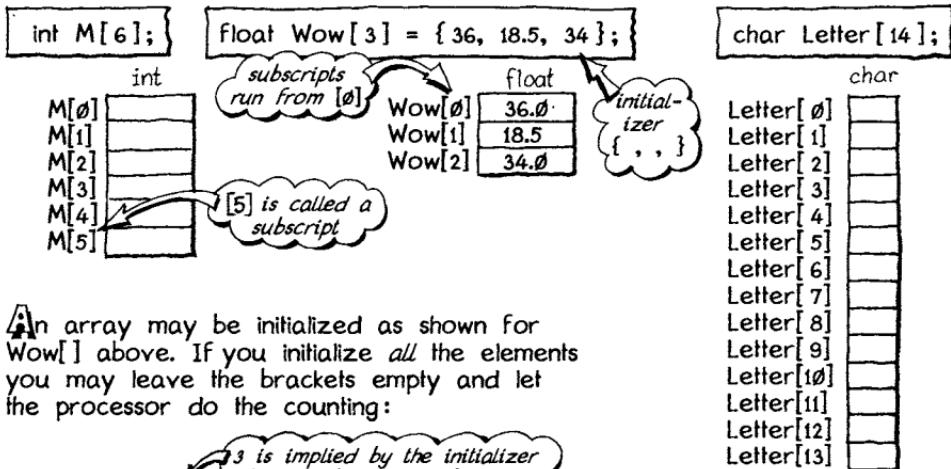
the character stored in this  
variable is 'put' on the screen

```
/* Echo input in CAPITALS (ASCII only) */
#include <stdio.h>
void main ( void )
{
    char Ch;
    for ( ; ; )
    {
        Ch = getc ( stdin );
        if ( Ch == '\n' ) break;
        if ( Ch >= 'a' ) && ( Ch <= 'z' )
            Ch = Ch - 'a' + 'A';
        putc ( Ch, stdout );
    }
}
```

# ARRAYS

AN 'OBJECT' COMPRISING 'ELEMENTS'

The little boxes illustrated earlier are individual boxes for values of type int, float and char. You may also declare arrays of such boxes (arrays of elements). In any one array all elements are of the same type.



An array may be initialized as shown for Wow[] above. If you initialize all the elements you may leave the brackets empty and let the processor do the counting:

3 is implied by the initializer

Float Wow [] = { 36, 18.5, 34 };

If the size is declared you may supply fewer initializing values; the processor pads out with zeros.

Float M[5] = { 1, 2 };

implies { 1, 2, 0, 0, 0, 0 }

Arrays may have any number of dimensions. Here is a two-dimensional array:

int Coeffs [5][3]

| int    | [0] | [1] | [2] |
|--------|-----|-----|-----|
| Coeffs | [0] | 1   | 1   |
|        | [1] | 1   | 2   |
|        | [2] | 1   | 3   |
|        | [3] | 1   | 4   |
|        | [4] | 1   | 5   |
|        |     |     | 10  |

The array is stored by rows.

Multi dimensional arrays may be initialized using nested braces:

int Coeffs[5][3]={ {1, 1}, {1, 2, 1}, {1, 3, 3}, {1, 4, 6}, {1, 5, 10} };

If you arrange values by rows, and include all of them, you may ignore the inner braces:

int Coeffs [][] [3] = { 1, 1, 0, 1, 2, 1, 1, 3, 3, 1, 4, 6, 1, 5, 10 };

5 not necessary

3 is necessary

0 is necessary

# MATRIX MULTIPLICATION

NESTED LOOPS

Non-mathematicians don't go away! This is business. There are three sales people selling four products. Quantities sold are tabulated in Table A:

| A            |  | PRODUCT |     |     |     |
|--------------|--|---------|-----|-----|-----|
| SALES PERSON |  | [0]     | [1] | [2] | [3] |
|              |  | 5       | 2   | 0   | 10  |
|              |  | 3       | 5   | 2   | 5   |
|              |  | 20      | 0   | 0   | 0   |

| B       |  | MONEY |      |
|---------|--|-------|------|
| PRODUCT |  | [0]   | [1]  |
| [0]     |  | 1.50  | 0.20 |
| [1]     |  | 2.80  | 0.40 |
| [2]     |  | 5.00  | 1.00 |
| [3]     |  | 2.00  | 0.50 |

Table B shows the price of each product and the commission earned by selling each item.

The money brought in is calculated thus:

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{SALES PERSON} \\ [0] 5 * 1.50 + 2 * 2.80 + 0 * 5.00 + 10 * 2.00 = 33.10 \\ [1] 3 * 1.50 + 5 * 2.80 + 2 * 5.00 + 5 * 2.00 = 38.50 \\ [2] 20 * 1.50 + 0 * 2.80 + 0 * 5.00 + 0 * 2.00 = 30.00 \end{array}$$

And the commissions earned thus:

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{SALES PERSON} \\ [0] 5 * 0.20 + 2 * 0.40 + 0 * 1.00 + 10 * 0.50 = 6.80 \\ [1] 3 * 0.20 + 5 * 0.40 + 2 * 1.00 + 5 * 0.50 = 7.10 \\ [2] 20 * 0.20 + 0 * 0.40 + 0 * 1.00 + 0 * 0.50 = 4.00 \end{array}$$

$$A[\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}] \times B[\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1.50 & 0.20 \\ 2.80 & 0.40 \\ 5.00 & 1.00 \\ 2.00 & 0.50 \end{bmatrix}]$$

$$B[\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1.50 & 0.20 \\ 2.80 & 0.40 \\ 5.00 & 1.00 \\ 2.00 & 0.50 \end{bmatrix}]$$

This computation is called matrix multiplication and looks best as set out below.

$$C[\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 33.10 & 6.80 \\ 38.50 & 7.10 \\ 30.00 & 4.00 \end{bmatrix}]$$

the number of columns of A must be the same as the number of rows of B  
and the result has as many rows as A & as many columns as B

Here is a program to input data for matrices A and B, multiply them together, then display their product, matrix C.

```
/* MATMUL Matrix multiplication */
#include <stdio.h>
float A[3][4], B[4][2], C[3][2];
int n, i, j, k;
void main (void)
{
    for ( n=0; n<3; ++n )
        scanf ( "%f %f %f %f", &A[n][0], &A[n][1], &A[n][2], &A[n][3] );
    for ( n=0; n<4; ++n )
        scanf ( "%f %f", &B[n][0], &B[n][1] );
    for ( i=0; i<2; ++i )
        for ( j=0; j<3; ++j )
        {
            C[i][j] = 0;
            for ( k=0; k<4; ++k )
                C[i][j] += A[i][k] * B[k][j];
        }
    for ( n=0; n<3; ++n )
        printf ( "%.2f %.2f, C[n][0], C[n][1] );
}
```

|    |   |   |    |
|----|---|---|----|
| 5  | 2 | 0 | 10 |
| 3  | 5 | 2 | 5  |
| 20 | 0 | 0 | 0  |

|      |      |
|------|------|
| 1.50 | 0.20 |
| 2.80 | 0.40 |
| 5.00 | 1.00 |
| 2.00 | 0.50 |

|       |      |
|-------|------|
| 33.10 | 6.80 |
| 38.50 | 7.10 |
| 30.00 | 4.00 |

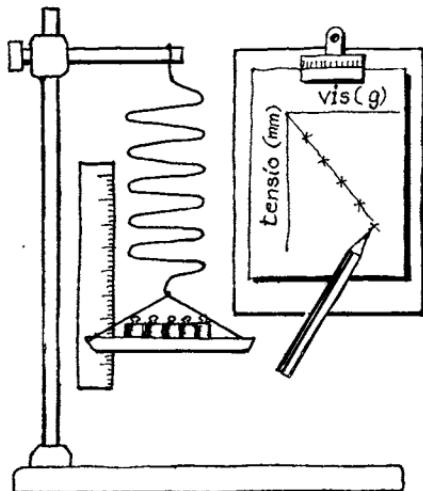
program displays C by rows

# HOOKE'S LAW

ILLUSTRATING NESTED LOOPS  
AND ARRAYS OF CHARACTERS

At school we hung little weights on the end of a spiral spring and measured its extension. If the spring extended 12mm on adding a one-gram weight we found it extended a further 12mm on adding the next gram. In other words we showed that extension is proportional to the force applied.

Robert Hooke (1635 - 1703) discovered this law and expressed it in Latin as 'ut tensio sic vis' (as the extension, thus the force). Then he tried to patent his discovery. To establish ownership before disclosing the secret, he published an anagram of 'ut tensio sic vis', made by arranging the letters of that sentence in alphabetical order.



Here is a program to compile Hooke's anagram. Run the program to see the anagram he published.

```
/* Anagram of Hooke's Law */
#include <stdio.h>

void main(void)
{
    char Letter[14] = {'u','t','t','e','n','s','i','o','s','i','c','v','i','s'};
    int j, k, Tempry;
    for (j=0; j<13; ++j)
        for (k=13; j<k; --k)
            if (Letter[k-1]>Letter[k])
            {
                Tempry = Letter[k-1];
                Letter[k-1] = Letter[k];
                Letter[k] = Tempry;
            }
    printf ("\nHooke's anagram is ");
    for (j=0; j<14; ++j)
        putchar (Letter[j]);
}
```

Annotations in the code:

- A callout bubble points to the variable `j` with the text "the number of letters".
- Two callout bubbles point to the loops with the text "j = j + 1" and "k = k - 1".
- A callout bubble points to the swap operation with the text "swap adjacent letters".

This program illustrates the technique called 'bubble sort' which is suitable for sorting small lists. For longer lists there are better methods such as Quicksort ↗ which is explained on Page 62.

Here is how the bubble sort works. To keep the illustration simple we shorten the quotation for *ut tensio sic vis* to *utten*.

The outer loop is controlled by  $j$  which starts at  $\emptyset$  as depicted in the first row of the table below.  $k$  is set pointing to the bottom letter. That letter is compared with the letter immediately above it ( $\text{Letter } [k-1] > \text{Letter } [k]$ ). If these two letters are out of order they are exchanged, otherwise left alone. Notice that the first two letters to be compared ( $n$  below,  $e$  above) are in the correct order.

Still with  $j$  set to zero,  $k$  is decremented by 1 so that it indicates the next letter up. This letter is compared with the letter immediately above it as before. If the two are out of order they are exchanged. In this case (e below, t above) they are out of order and therefore exchanged.

Again  $k$  is decremented so as to indicate the next letter up. Again this letter is compared with the letter above it and an exchange made if the two are out of order. And so on until  $k$  has risen to a position just below  $j$ . That completes the first cycle of  $j$ . The lightest letter has now risen to the top.

**B**ack to the outer loop;  $j$  is incremented so that it indicates the second letter in the list.  $k$  is set to the bottom of the list. Then the whole procedure, described above, is started again. But this time there is less to do because  $k$  does not have to rise so high. In the second cycle of  $j$  the second lightest letter rises to the second position in the list.

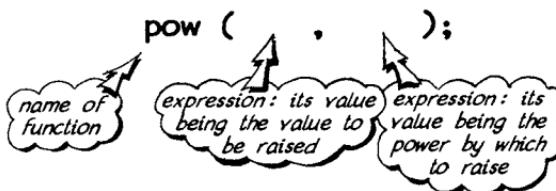
And so on until the list has been sorted.

|                 | $k = 4$   | $k = 3$   | $k = 2$   | $k = 1$   |
|-----------------|---|---|---|---|
| $j = \emptyset$ | $j \rightarrow \emptyset [u]$<br>$1 \quad t$<br>$2 \quad t$<br>$3 \quad e$<br>$k \rightarrow 4 \quad n$ | $j \rightarrow \emptyset [u]$<br>$1 \quad t$<br>$2 \quad t$<br>$3 \quad e$<br>$k \rightarrow 4 \quad n$ | $j \rightarrow \emptyset [u]$<br>$1 \quad t$<br>$2 \quad t$<br>$3 \quad e$<br>$4 \quad n$ | $j \rightarrow \emptyset [u]$<br>$1 \quad t$<br>$2 \quad e$<br>$3 \quad t$<br>$4 \quad n$ |
| $j = 1$         | $\emptyset [e]$<br>$j \rightarrow 1 \quad u$<br>$2 \quad t$<br>$3 \quad t$<br>$k \rightarrow 4 \quad n$ | $\emptyset [e]$<br>$j \rightarrow 1 \quad u$<br>$2 \quad t$<br>$3 \quad n$<br>$k \rightarrow 4 \quad t$ | $\emptyset [e]$<br>$j \rightarrow 1 \quad u$<br>$2 \quad n$<br>$3 \quad t$<br>$4 \quad t$ | $\emptyset [e]$<br>$j \rightarrow 1 \quad u$<br>$2 \quad n$<br>$3 \quad t$<br>$4 \quad t$ |
| $j = 2$         | $\emptyset [e]$<br>$1 \quad n$<br>$j \rightarrow 2 \quad u$<br>$3 \quad t$<br>$k \rightarrow 4 \quad t$ | $\emptyset [e]$<br>$1 \quad n$<br>$j \rightarrow 2 \quad u$<br>$3 \quad t$<br>$4 \quad t$               | $\emptyset [t]$<br>$1 \quad u$<br>$j \rightarrow 2 \quad u$<br>$3 \quad t$<br>$4 \quad t$ | $\emptyset [n]$<br>$1 \quad u$<br>$j \rightarrow 2 \quad n$<br>$3 \quad t$<br>$4 \quad t$ |
| $j = 3$         | $\emptyset [e]$<br>$1 \quad n$<br>$2 \quad t$<br>$j \rightarrow 3 \quad u$<br>$k \rightarrow 4 \quad t$ |   |   | $\emptyset [t]$<br>$1 \quad u$<br>$j \rightarrow 3 \quad t$<br>$4 \quad u$                |

# FUNCTIONS

MORE CONCEPTS ↗  
IN PARTICULAR THAT OF 'CALL BY VALUE'

The introductory example used a function from the math library called `pow()` (short for `power`).



Example:  $2.0^{3.0}$  would be expressed `pow(2.0, 3.0)`; the value returned would be  $8.0$ .

The parameters of the library function `pow()` are, in general, both of 'floating' type. In the introductory example, however, the second parameter was constrained to whole numbers by being declared of type `int`. This constraint is essential to what follows.

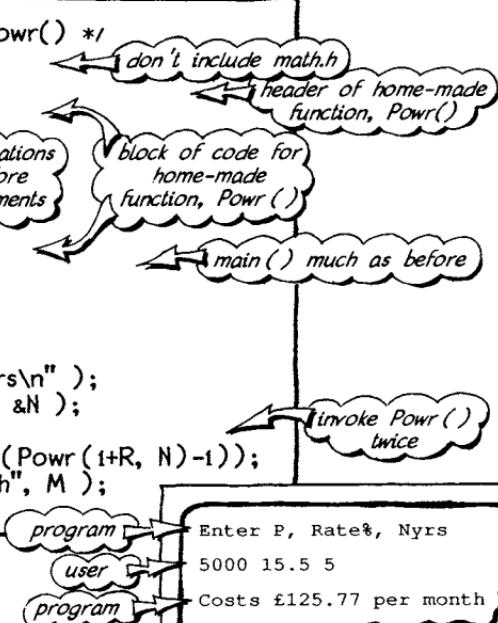
Here is the first example again, but instead of using `pow()` from the math library we supply and invoke our own function, `Powr()`.

```
/* WOTCOST with home-made Powr() */  
#include <stdio.h>  
Float Powr ( Float x, int n )  
{  
    Float v;  
    For ( v=1.0; n>0; --n )  
        v = v * x;  
    return ( v );  
}  
void main ( void )  
{  
    Float P, Rpct, R, M;  
    int N;  
    printf ("\nEnter: P, Rate%, Nyrs\n" );  
    scanf ("%f %f %i", &P, &Rpct, &N );  
    R = Rpct/100;  
    M = P*R*Powr (1+R, N)/(12*(Powr (1+R, N)-1));  
    printf ("Costs £%1.2f per month", M );  
}
```

The home-made function is dissected below:

```
Float Powr(      ); {
```

The header gives the name of the function being defined and the type of value the function will return. If the function returns no value at all, write `void`.



**Float Powr ( float x, int n )** The header also shows how many parameters there are, and the type of each. The names of parameters in the header are names of *dummy parameters*  $\leftarrow$  private to the block that follows the header. It does not matter if these names coincide with names in **main** (or in any other function that might invoke Powr). In this example, **n** could just as well be **N**  $\leftarrow$  without confusion with the **N** declared in **main**.

**float v;** Variable **v** is private to the function; a local variable. Outside the function any reference to **v** would be treated as an error. But when the program obeys a statement that invokes the function, a new variable **v** is created. When the program has finished with the function (having returned a value to the invoking statement) the variable **v**, together with its content, evaporates.

**for ( v=1.0; n>0; n=n-1 )** Variable **v** is initialized to **1.0** before the loop is executed for the first time. If Powr() were invoked with a value of **3** for **n**, the body of the loop would be executed **3** times. **n=n-1** may be abbreviated to **n-=1** or **--n** as we shall see.

**v = v \* x;** This is the body of the loop. **v** begins at **1.0**. The accumulating value in **v** is multiplied by the value found in **x** (computed from **1+R** in this example) on every circuit of the loop. This statement may be abbreviated to **v \*= x** as we shall see.

**return (v);** This is an instruction (return is a keyword) to stop executing statements of the function and offer the value in variable **v** as the value to be returned by this function. The 'return **0**' at the end of a **main()** program returns **0** to its environment if execution has been successful.

## CALL BY VALUE

### FUNDAMENTAL TO C-LANGUAGE

When you write a statement that invokes the function (in this case the relevant part of that statement is Powr(**1+R**, **N**) you substitute appropriate *expressions* for the dummy parameters **x** and **n**. Here we substitute **1+R** for **x** and substitute **N** for **n**.

When the processor comes to obey the statement in which you invoke the function, it works out the value of **1+R** (this might be **1.1**, for example) and the value of **N** (this might be **3**, for example). The program then starts obeying the statement { in the Function block } with **x** initialized to **1.1** and **n** initialized to **3**. This concept is known as *call by value*.

Although you invoke the function with Powr(**1+R**, **N**) the function is incapable of changing the content of variables **N** or **R**. In general, no function in C can change the content of a variable offered as an argument.

A function can change the contents of *global* variables, as demonstrated on the next page. A function can also change values to which pointers point, but this topic is left until later.

# RATE OF INTEREST

INTRODUCING GLOBAL  
& LOCAL VARIABLES

The program in the first example computed the monthly repayment for a loan, given the size of the loan, the rate of interest and the term. But here is a more difficult problem; a loan of P is to be repaid at M per month over N years; what rate of interest is being charged?

$$M = \frac{PR(1+R)^N}{12((1+R)^N - 1)}$$

where  $R = P/100$

The equation shown above may be solved for R by trial and error. Guess R, substitute in the formula to compute  $M_t$ , then:

- if  $M_t$  is the same (very nearly) as M the guess was correct; accept R
- if  $M_t$  is too small it means R was guessed too low, so multiply the rate by  $M/M_t$  to make it bigger and try again
- if  $M_t$  is too big it means R was guessed too high, so multiply the rate by  $M/M_t$  to make it smaller and try again.

This algorithm causes the ratio  $M/M_t$  to get closer and closer to 1. Make the program continue as long as the difference between  $M/M_t$  and 1 is more than 0.005 (say). The difference may be positive or negative, so we must ask if its absolute value (value ignoring sign) is greater than 0.005.

Here are some global declarations and three functions:

```
/* WOTRATE: computes rate of loan interest */
```

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

```
float P, M, R = 0.01;
```

```
int N;
```

```
float Powr (float x, int n)
```

```
{
```

```
    float v;
```

```
    for (v=1.0; n>0; n=n-1)
```

```
        v = v * x;
```

```
    return (v);
```

variables P, N, M, R declared globally (at file level). R is initialized at 1% before first entry to loop

(n--)

$v^x = x$

```
float Formula (void)
```

```
{
```

```
    float v;
```

```
    v = Powr (1+R, N);
```

```
    return (P*R*v)/(12*(v-1));
```

computes formula at top of page, referring to global P, R, N, hence no need for parameters. Formula() invokes Powr()

this v is local to Formula(), no connection with v in Powr()

local P

```
float Absolute (float P)
```

```
{
```

```
    if (P>=0.0) return P;
```

```
    else return -P;
```

local P 'hides' global P

more concisely  
float Absolute (float P)  
{ return (P<0.0)?-P:P; }

## Finally Function main():

```
void main ( void )
{
    float Mt;
    printf ("\nPrincipal, Repayment p.m., No.yrs.");
    scanf ("%f %f %i", &P, &M, &N );
    do { // see flow chart on Page 52
        Mt = Formula();
        R = R * M / Mt; // more concisely
        R *= M / Mt; // to nearest penny
    } while ( Absolute ( M / Mt - 1 ) > 0.005 );
    printf ("\nRate charged is %.5.2%%\n", 100*R );
}
```

Cloud annotations:

- "Mt is local to main ()"
- "P, M, N declared globally"
- "more concisely  
 $R = M / Mt$ "
- "to nearest penny"

Output window:

|         |                                    |
|---------|------------------------------------|
| program | Principal, Repayment p.m., No.yrs. |
| user    | 3750 195.36 2                      |
| program | Rate charged is 15.68%             |

## SCOPE OF VARIABLES

### A FEW FUNDAMENTALS

Variables P, M, R, N are declared at file level or globally which means outside every function. Implications of global declarations are:

- the processor reserves space for the variables declared. Declarations that reserve space are called *definitions*
- global variables retain the space reserved for them throughout the run. Their contents do not evaporate during the run
- variables may be referred to by statements in functions provided that:
  - any reference follows a declaration in the same file (or follows an **extern** declaration if in a different file *see later*)
  - the name referred to is not *hidden* by a local variable (like variable P in Function Absolute() opposite).

Variable v in Powr(), and variable v in Formula(), have only a transient existence. Although v is declared in Powr() on the first line after the header, it is not defined until Powr() is invoked. It then exists only until control reaches return (v). At this instant control leaves Powr(), and variable v evaporates, together with its contents. Puff! Next time Powr() is invoked, variable v could find itself somewhere else in memory. Such variables are called *automatic* to distinguish them from the *static* variables which retain identity throughout the run.

# RECURSION

## DEFINITION OF A FUNCTION TO INTRODUCE AN IMPORTANT PROGRAMMING CONCEPT

The highest common factor (hcf) of 1470 and 693 is 21. In other words 21 is the biggest number that will divide into 1470 and 693 without leaving a remainder in either case. To verify this, factorize both numbers to prime factors:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 1470 & = & 2 \times \cancel{3} \quad \times \quad 5 \times \cancel{7} \quad \times \quad 7 \\ 693 & = & \cancel{3} \times 3 \quad \times \quad \cancel{7} \times 11 \end{array}$$

and pair off any common factors ~~=~~ in this case 3 and 7. The highest common factor (also called the greatest common divisor) is the product of these: in this case  $3 \times 7 = 21$ .

Euclid's method of finding the hcf is more elegant. Find the remainder when 1470 is divided by 693. (The % operator gives this remainder):

$$1470 \% 693 \longrightarrow 84$$

Because this remainder is not zero, repeat the process, substituting the second number for the first and the remainder for the second:

$$693 \% 84 \longrightarrow 21$$

This remainder is still not zero so repeat the process:

$$84 \% 21 \longrightarrow 0$$

This remainder is zero, so the hcf is 21. Nice!

Here is a C function based on Euclid's method:

```
int HCF ( int n, int m )  
{  
    int Remainder;  
    Remainder = n % m;  
    if ( Remainder != 0 )  
        return HCF ( m, Remainder );  
    else  
        return m;
```

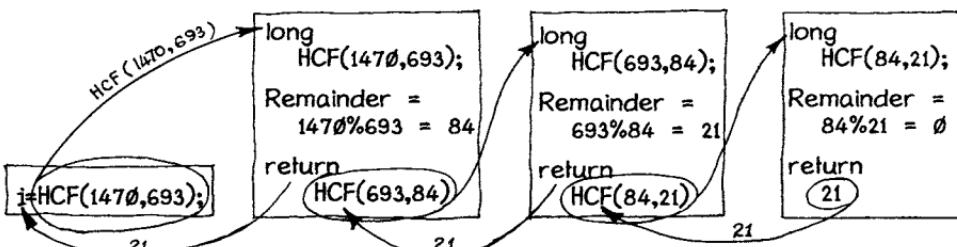
```
int HCF( int n, m )  
{ return n%m?HCF(m, n%m):m }
```

this works both  
when  $n > m$  and  
when  $m > n$

$\neq$  signifies  
NOT EQUAL TO

concise  
version

It is easy to see what would happen with  $HCF(84, 21)$  because Remainder would become zero, making the function return 21. But with  $HCF(1470, 693)$  Remainder becomes 84, so the function invokes itself as  $HCF(693, 84)$ . In so doing, Remainder becomes 21, therefore the function invokes itself as  $HCF(84, 21)$ . It is as though C provided a fresh copy of the code of function HCF() on each invocation.



The ability of a function to invoke a fresh copy of itself is called recursion.

If you find the function opposite confusing, here is a simpler example; the hackneyed factorial:

The factorial of 5 is  $5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 120$ . Mathematicians indicate a factorial by a post-fixed exclamation mark:

$$5! = 120$$

It is obvious that the factorial of 5 is 5 times the factorial of 4:

$$5! = 5 \times 4!$$

So what is the factorial of n? Clearly:

$$n! = n \times (n-1)!$$

But that's too hasty. What if n is 1? If n is 1 then factorial n is 1.

Tell this to the computer by encoding:

'if n is 1 then factorial n is 1,  
otherwise factorial n is n times factorial (n-1)'

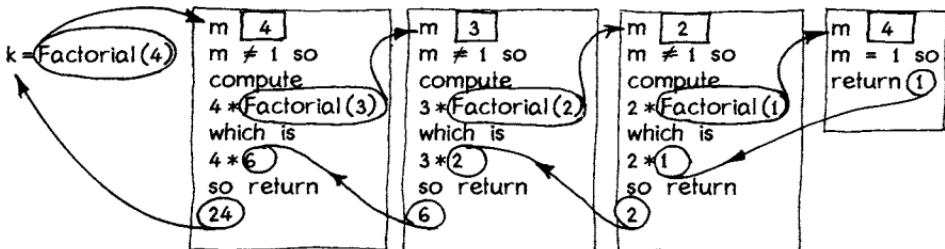
```
#include <stdio.h>

long int Factorial ( long int n )
{
    if ( n==1 )
        return 1;
    else
        return n*Factorial(n-1);
}
```

And try out the function by appending a simple main() function:

```
void main ( void )
{
    long int m, k;
    printf ("Integer please\n");
    scanf ("%f", &m );
    k = Factorial(m);
    printf ("%lf", k);
}
```

Integer please  
4  
24



# EXERCISES

- 1 Program MATMUL multiplies matrices of fixed size (3 rows, 4 columns; 4 rows, 2 columns). Make the program deal with any specified sizes up to an arbitrary 100 by 100.  
Read three sizes: the number of rows of A, the number of columns of A (implying also the number of rows of B), the number of columns of B. Read A and B by rows, then print C by rows. For this exercise you have to change each simple reading loop to a nested pair of loops. Similarly the printing loop.
- 2 Alter the Hooke's Law program to read and sort a list of numbers (type double) into numerical order, then display the sorted list. Make the program request the length of list, then ask for the numbers one by one.
- 3 For the math library functions  $\sin(x)$  and  $\cos(x)$ , the value of  $x$  must be expressed in radians. Write Functions Sine(a) and Cosine(a) for which the argument, a, must be expressed in degrees of arc. All types are double.
- 4 Write function Reverse(A, N) to display an array of integers in reverse order. An obvious way to do this is print  $A[-N]$  in a loop until N stores zero. Instead of using a loop, write the function so that it employs recursion.

# 3

## COMPONENTS

This chapter defines most of the basic components of C. Their syntax is defined using a pictorial notation. Characters, names and constants (the simple building blocks) are defined first. Important principles of the language are next explained; these include the concept of scalar types, the precedence and associativity of 'operators', the concepts of 'coercion' and 'promotion' in expressions of mixed type.

The operators are summarized on a single page for ease of reference.

The syntax of expressions and statements is defined in this chapter. Declarations are discussed, but their syntax is not defined because it involves the concept of pointers and dynamic storage. These topics are left to later chapters.

# NOTATION

TO DESCRIBE THE WRITTEN FORM (SYNTAX)  
OF THE BUILDING BLOCKS OF C

For a precise definition of the syntax of ANSI C, see the definitions in ANSI X 3.159. These are expressed in BNF (Backus Naur Form).

To appreciate the syntactical form of an entity the practical programmer needs something different; BNF is not a self evident notation. Some books employ railway track diagrams, potentially easier to comprehend than BNF, but the tracks grow too complicated for defining structures in C. So I have devised a pictorial notation from which a programmer should be able to appreciate syntactical forms at a glance. The notation is fairly rigorous but needs a little help from notes here and there.

*italics*

Italic letters are used to name the entities being defined:  
*digit, token, integer* and so on

*integer*

The broad arrow says that the nominated entity 'is defined to be ...' (in this example 'An *integer* is defined to be ...')

Romans,  
& + ( \* ,  
012 etc.

These stand for themselves. Copy them from the diagram just as they are. Do not change case; R and r are not the same letter

Vertical bars contain two or more rows and offer the choice of one row. Vertical bars may be nested

Forward arrow says the item or items beneath may be skipped over; in other words they are optional. In some cases a word is written over the arrow: this defines the implication of skipping the item under the arrow

Backward arrow says you may return to go through this part of the diagram again (typically choosing another item from vertical bars)

This also says you may return, but must insert a comma before the next item; it defines a 'comma list'

Notes may be explanatory or definitive. A typical definitive note points to *expression* and says 'must be integral'

This symbol is put in front of illustrations; it says 'for example' or 'e.g.'

# CHARACTERS

character

letter  
digit  
symbol  
escape

The diagram says 'A character is defined as a letter or digit or symbol or escape'

letter

Upper and lower case letters are distinct in C. Z is not the same letter as z.

digit

symbol

0  
1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9

??  
??

??  
??

Digits 0 to 9 are decimal digits. Octal and hex digits are defined on Page 197.

A few characters, such as #, £, @, are available in most implementations of C. They may be used as character constants and in strings but are not defined by ANSI C.

Not every installation can manage the full range of symbols. The Standard gets round this problem by defining a range of trigraphs. If you type ??<, for example, the implementation should substitute the code for a left brace. And similarly for the other trigraphs. Substitution is carried out before any other operation on the text.

In Chapter 1 you saw the escape sequence \n which is effectively a single character, although compounded of two. It represents the new line character. It is no good pressing Return to get a new line character because that would mess up the layout of the program. You don't want a new line in your program; you want the computer to make a new line when printing results. \n does the trick.

??  
??  
??  
??  
??  
??  
??=

An 'escape sequence' is needed whenever the character to be conveyed would upset something, or has no corresponding key on the keyboard ↩ like 'ring the bell'.

escape

a  
b  
f  
n  
r  
t  
v  
\  
"  
?

hex  
0~F  
X  
digit  
octal  
0~7  
digit  
0

ring bell  
backspace  
form feed  
new line  
car. return  
hor. tab  
vert. tab

► \'  
► \"  
► \?  
► \x 23 #  
► \43 #  
► \0 null

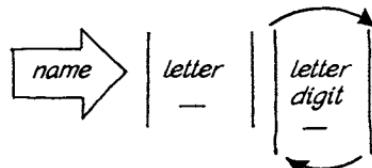
An example of 'upsetting something' is a double quote in printf (" "); which would close the quotation prematurely. You can include a double quote in a quotation as the single escape sequence \" as follows:

printf("\\"Ooh!\" I exclaimed.");

A  
a  
B  
b  
C  
c  
D  
d  
E  
e  
F  
f  
G  
g  
H  
h  
I  
i  
J  
j  
K  
k  
L  
l  
M  
m  
N  
n  
O  
o  
P  
p  
Q  
q  
R  
r  
S  
s  
T  
t  
U  
u  
V  
v  
W  
w  
X  
x  
Y  
y  
Z  
z

# NAMES

The example programs in the first chapter illustrate several names invented by the programmer to identify variables. Such names are also called *identifiers*. Names are used to identify other things in C apart from objects such as variables.



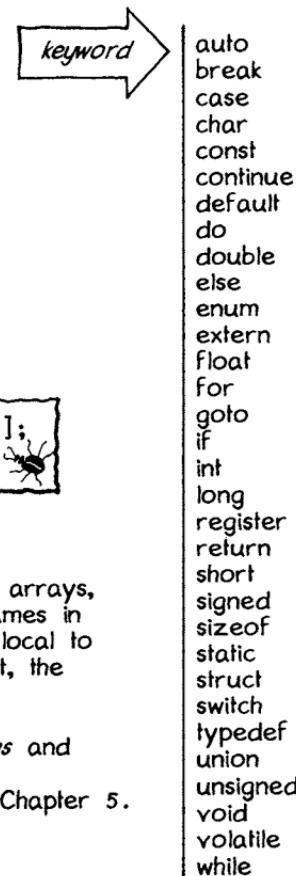
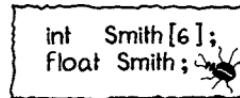
The diagram shows that a *name* starts with a *letter* or underscore, that the first character may be followed by other letters, digits, underscores. Examples are: LengthOfWall, Lenth\_Of\_Wall, \_\_DATE\_\_.

The name you invent should not clash with a keyword. There are thirty-two keywords in ASCII C as listed here. Remember that upper and lower case letters are distinct, so Auto and Break are *not* keywords and may be used as names of variables.

The names chosen for use in the programs of this book are safe from clashing with keywords or with names of standard library functions. The names used are:

- single letters e.g. i, N
- capitalized words e.g. Length
- capitalized phrases e.g. NewLength, Old\_Height

You may not give the same name to an array and to a variable in the same piece of program.



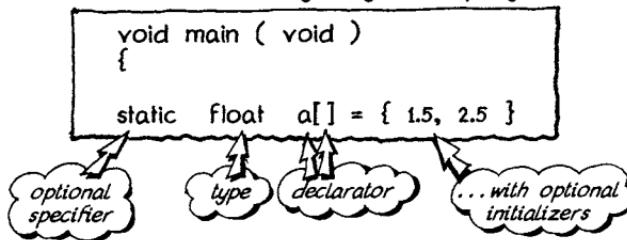
In general, functions and *objects* (i.e. variables, arrays, structures, unions, enumerations) have unique names in the same piece of program. If an object that is local to a function has the same name as a global object, the global object becomes hidden from view.

Not all names behave in this way; names of *tags* and *labels*, for example, do not clash; they occupy a different *name space*. Name space is explained in Chapter 5.

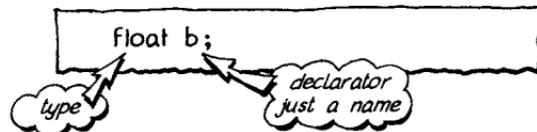
# SCALAR TYPES

WE MEET AGGREGATES  
AND COMPLEX TYPES LATER

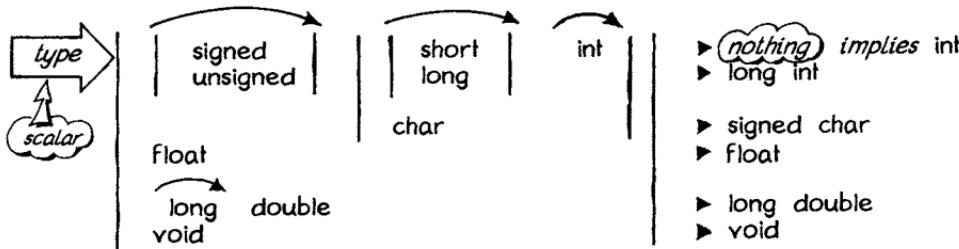
A typical declaration at the beginning of a program is:



The implications of specifiers, declarators, initializers are far-reaching and complicated. All are explained in subsequent pages. For the moment, consider a declaration of a simple scalar (single valued) variable.



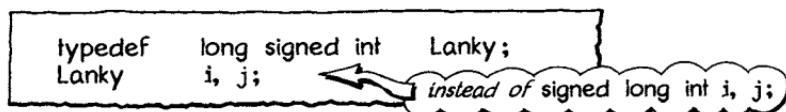
The syntax for scalar type is defined as follows:



The diagram is simplified for clarity; the syntax of C allows permutations. For example, the following are all allowed and equivalent: signed long int, long signed int, signed int long, etc.

You can define an alias (synonym) for a phrase using the `typedef` facility:

`typedef type name` *alias*

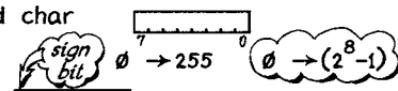


# ON YOUR MACHINE

A TYPICAL IMPLEMENTATION

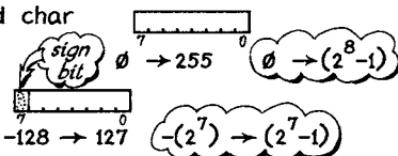
The number and arrangement of binary digits (bits) representing each scalar type depends on the implementation, subject to certain minimal requirements if the implementation is to comply with ANSI C. The following implementation is typical.

unsigned char



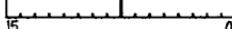
O.K. For full PC character set

char



O.K. For ASCII character set

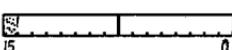
unsigned int



0 → 65,535



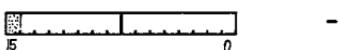
short int



-32,768 → 32,767



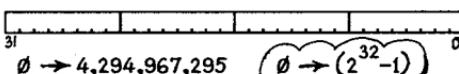
int



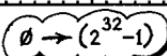
-32,768 → 32,767



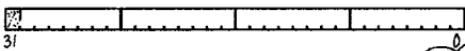
unsigned long



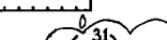
0 → 4,294,967,295



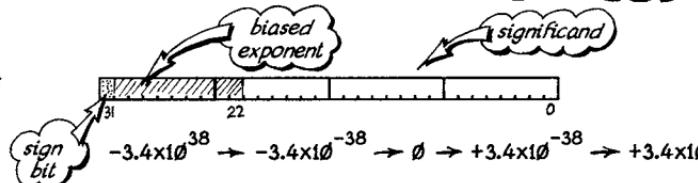
long



-2,147,483,648 → 2,147,483,647

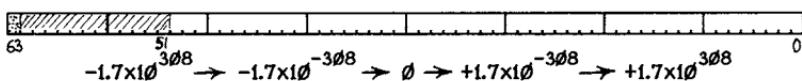


float



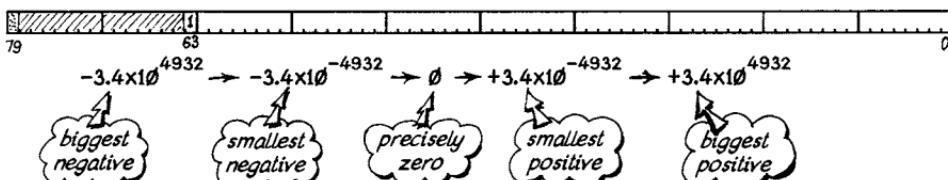
double

About 15 decimal-digit precision



long double

About 19 decimal-digit precision



# CONSTANTS

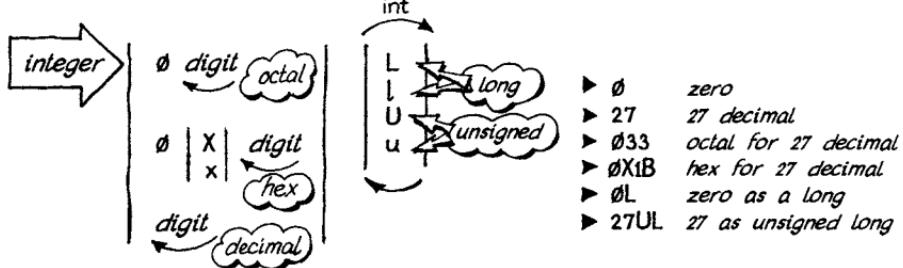
## DEFINITIONS OF 'LITERAL' CONSTANTS

The introductory program has the line `R = Rpct / 100`; The `100` is a literal constant. The program on Hooke's anagram illustrates character constants, '`u`', '`t`', etc. These are also literal constants. Named constants are introduced over the page.



## LITERAL CONSTANTS

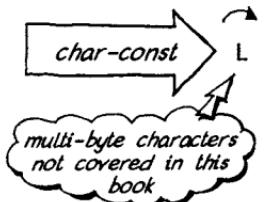
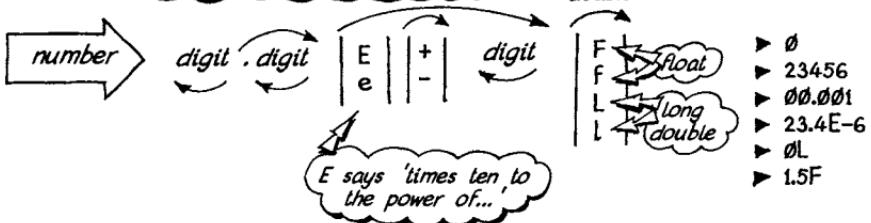
integer, number, char-const



octal digits: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7

hex digits: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F

lower case letters are synonymous as digits A = a etc.



'

" null space  
'a' '6' '#'  
\ single backslash  
\ single apostrophe

## STRING LITERALS

"STRINGS" ARE DEFINED IN CHAPTER 6

# NAMED CONSTANTS

If your program deals with the geometry of circles you may write the value of  $\pi$  as a literal constant:

```
Area = 3.141593 * d * d / 4;
```

Or give  $\pi$  a name and value as shown here:

```
/* Program 1 with circles */  
#include <stdio.h>  
void main(void)  
{  
    double const Pi = 3.141593;
```

```
Area = Pi * d * d * / 4;
```

The const is a qualifier. It qualifies the variable declared next on its right. The nominated variable should be initialized in the same declaration. Thereafter, the processor will not allow you to change the initialized value by assignment or any other means. You may not use this kind of constant in 'constant expressions' evaluated at compile time.

The traditional way to name a C constant is to write a name ( PI say ) and tell the preprocessor to substitute a value for it.

Write #define with # as the first visible character on the line and no semicolon at the end as shown. From there on the preprocessor will substitute 3.141593 for every independent occurrence of PI ( not in comments or where PI is part of a longer token ). The preprocessor is covered in Chapter 5.

```
/* Program 2 with circles */  
#include <stdio.h>  
#define PI 3.141593  
void main(void)  
{
```

```
Area = PI * d * d * / 4;  
/* substitute value for PI */  
PIPE = 6;
```

## ENUMERATIONS

### NAMING CONSTANTS CALLED 'ENUMERATIONS'

enumeration

enum

name { name

= expression } name ;

Integral constants may be named in an enumeration. You may nominate int variables capable of storing int values in the range of the enumeration

- enum { No, Yes };
- enum Boolean { False, True };
- enum Boolean Ok;
- enum Imperial { Inch=1, Foot=12\*Inch } L;

```
Ok = ( a > b ) ? True : False;  
if ( Ok != Yes ) break;
```

variable Ok correctly used in range of its enumeration

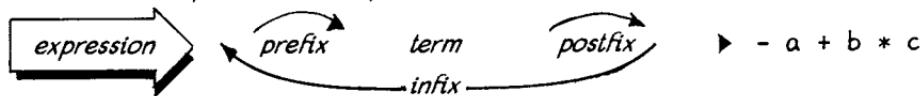
```
Ok = ( a > b );  
Ok = 2 * Yes;  
Yes = No;
```

probably allowable  
not nice; out of range  
error: Yes is a CONSTANT

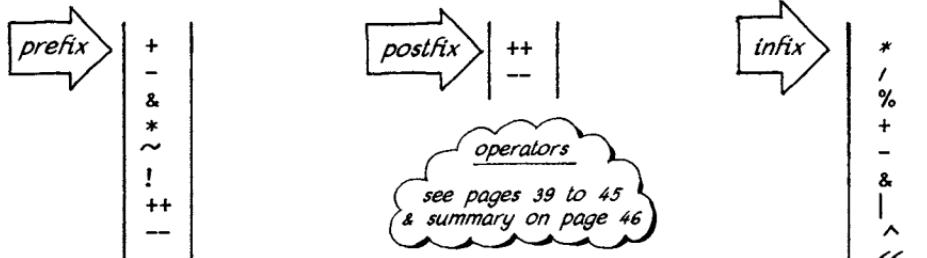
# EXPRESSIONS

THIS TERM COVERS A VARIETY OF CONSTRUCTS

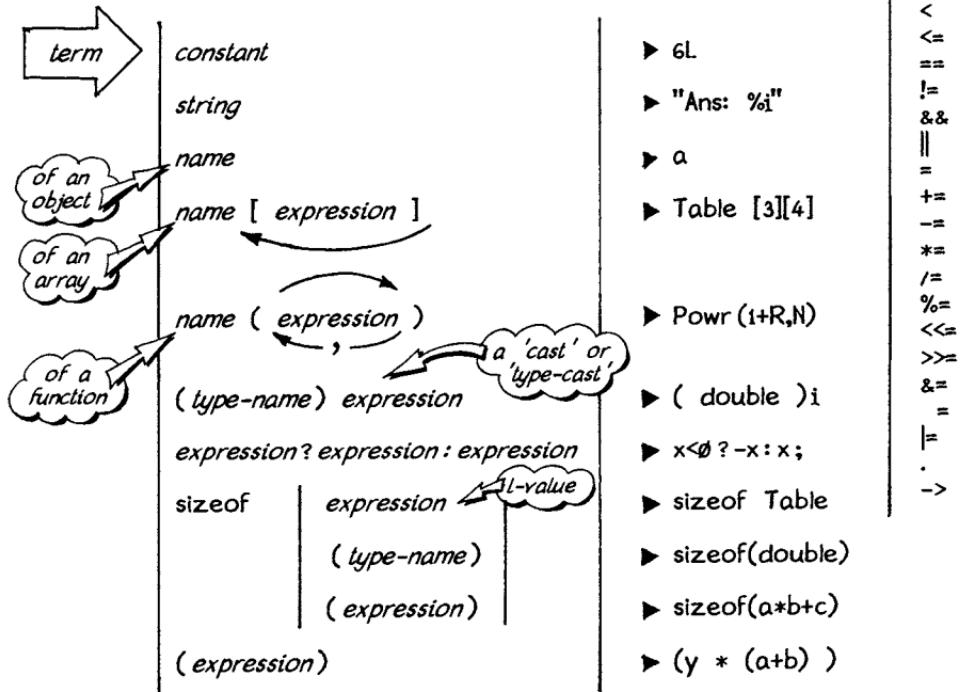
Expressions are used in earlier examples without formal definition. The definition of expression is simple:



Operators are described individually later in this chapter; here they are defined syntactically under the names *prefix*, *postfix* and *infix*:

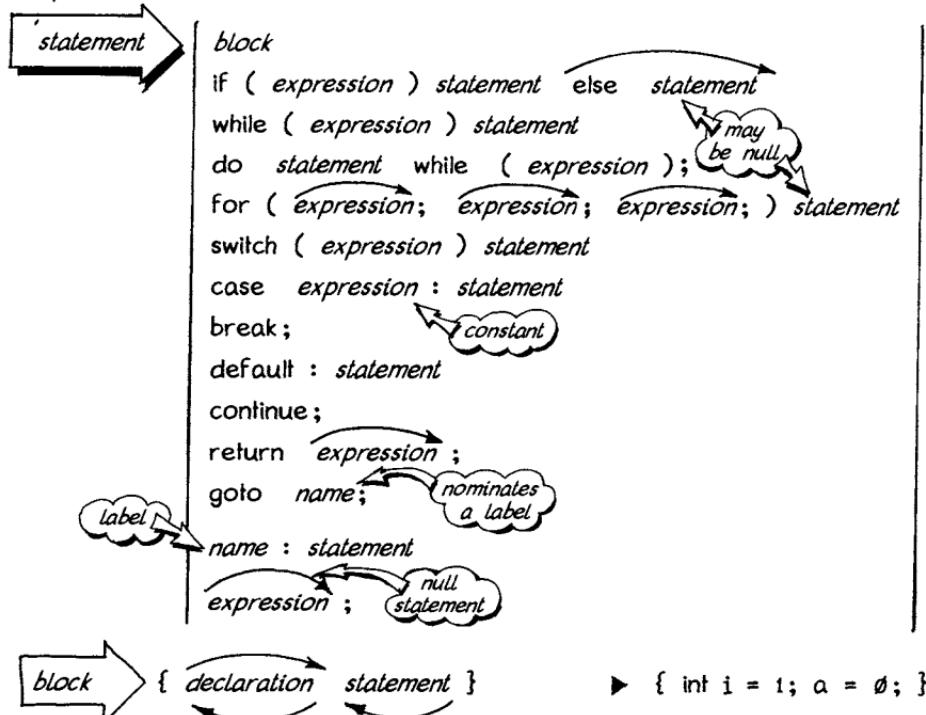


In the following definition of *term*, the optional entity called *type-name* has yet to be introduced; it is defined on Page 135.



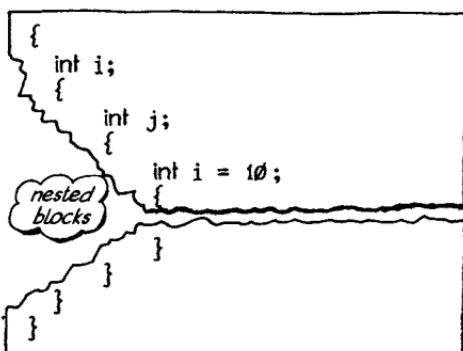
# STATEMENTS AND PROGRAM

Here is the syntax of statement. Some control statements have already been introduced (if, for, break, return), others are covered in Chapter 4.



Because a statement may be a block, and because a block contains at least one statement, it follows that blocks may be 'nested'. All the declarations in each block must precede the first statement of that block.

Below is the syntax of program:



program → declaration

A program comprises a set of declarations, each of which may declare a global object, a function prototype or a function definition. You must give precisely one function the name main.

# DECLARATIONS

OF 'OBJECTS' AND FUNCTIONS  
(FOR FULL SYNTAX SEE CHAPTER 8)

'Objects' (or 'data objects') are variables, arrays, enumerations, structures and unions. We meet structures and unions in Chapter 8.

Objects are things which have a name and a type (or shape) and can store data. An object must be declared before it can be used.

Because structures and unions have not yet been introduced, the full syntax of a declaration must wait until later (Chapter 8). Some examples of typical declarations of simple types are shown here:

```
int j, k;  
char Letter[] = { 'a', 'b', 'c' };  
float x = 3.45;
```

Each declaration applies as far as the end of the current file (the 'scope' of the declaration). But in a block of program within this scope, a contradictory declaration may 'hide' the original (the 'visibility'). Scope and visibility are further described below.

## DECLARATION VERSUS DEFINITION A SEMANTIC DIFFERENCE

When an object is initialized (e.g. float x = 3.45) the declaration becomes a *definition*; any further defining of x would make the processor report an error during compilation or linking.

An object declared but not initialized (e.g. int i) is, in general, automatically initialized to zero at the end of compilation as though you had originally declared int i = 0. The object is then *defined*.

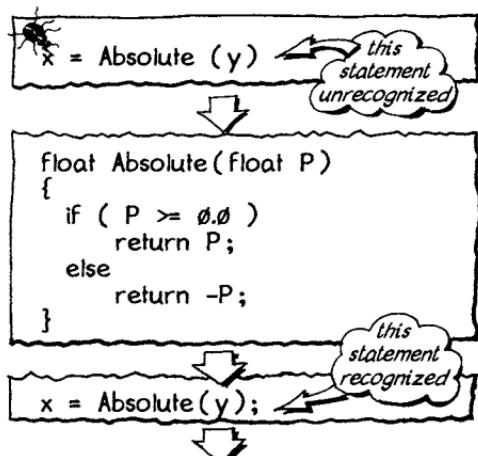
The differences between declaration and definition are semantic rather than syntactic. The differences are, in fact, more complicated than suggested above, and are further described in Chapter 5.

## FUNCTION DEFINITION

Function Absolute(), introduced earlier, is defined again here. Statements inside this function, and statements inside functions that follow this definition, may all invoke Absolute(). Invocations from inside functions that precede this definition would be errors.

Referring back to the program on Page 22, notice that function Powr() precedes function Formula() in which Powr() is invoked, and that Formula() precedes main() in which Formula() is invoked.

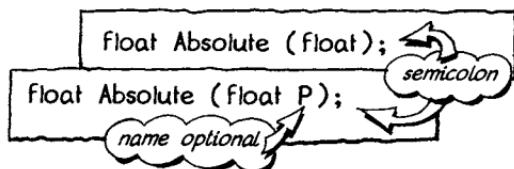
## SEQUENCE OF DECLARATIONS



# PROTOTYPES

## PROTOTYPE DECLARATIONS, VITAL TO ANSI C

The restriction on sequence of declarations explained above may be removed by employing a function declaration as well as a function definition.

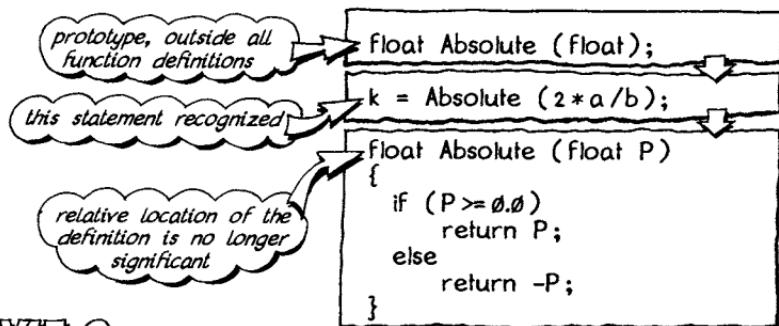


A function declaration is called a *prototype*; a concept new to ANSI C.

A prototype has the same form as the header of a function definition except:

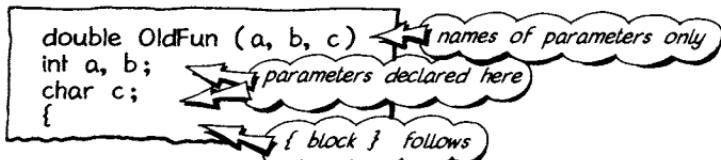
- names of variables are simply comments; they may be different from those in the definition or omitted altogether
- every prototype ends with a semicolon.

Each prototype must be placed somewhere before the first invocation of the corresponding function; an obvious place is near the top of the file.



## OLD~STYLE C

Prototypes did not exist in 'old-style' C. Furthermore, the shape of a function definition was different, the parameters being declared between the header and its block. Although this syntax is permitted by ANSI C, it is not illustrated further in this book.



## HEADER FILES

To keep a program tidy, collect all the prototypes in a file and give the file a name such as MYHDR.H (where .H signifies a *header file*). At the top of your main program write #include "MYHDR.H" which has the same effect as copying out all the prototypes ahead of the main program.

# OPERATORS

ARITHMETIC, LOGICAL, BITWISE,  
ASSIGNMENT, INCREMENTING, SEQUENCE

On Page 35 operators are grouped according to their role in the syntax of expressions (prefix, infix, postfix). Here they are classified according to the kind of work they do.

The term *operand* signifies *expression*, the expression conforming to any special requirements noted (such as integral value).

## ARITHMETIC OPERATORS

+ - % / \*

|   |                             |                |                            |
|---|-----------------------------|----------------|----------------------------|
| + | operand                     | ► + a          | Value of operand unchanged |
| - | + and - as prefix operators | ► -pow (2, 16) | Value of operand negated   |

the + as a prefix operator is new to ANSI C;  
it did not exist in the original K & R

|         |   |         |         |   |
|---------|---|---------|---------|---|
| operand | + | operand | ► a + b | Sum   |
|         | - |         | ► a - b | Difference  |
|         | / |         | ► a / b | Quotient  |
|         | * |         | ► a * b | Product   |
| operand | % | operand | ► i % j | 'Modulo'; the remainder<br>when i is divided by j |

$$(i/j) * j + i \% j \Rightarrow i$$

## LOGICAL OPERATORS

! > >= < <= == && ||

Logical not is a prefix operator

|         |         |         |  |         |  |     |     |   |   |
|---------|---------|---------|--|---------|--|-----|-----|---|---|
| !       | operand | ► ! Try | If Try contains a non-zero<br>value (true) then ! Try<br>indicates a zero value<br>(false). And vice versa                           |         |  |     |     |   |   |
|         |         |         | <table border="1"><tr><td>operand</td><td></td></tr><tr><td>≠ 0</td><td>= 0</td></tr><tr><td>0</td><td>1</td></tr></table> ! operand | operand |  | ≠ 0 | = 0 | 0 | 1 |
| operand |         |         |  |         |  |     |     |   |   |
| ≠ 0     | = 0     |         |  |         |  |     |     |   |   |
| 0       | 1       |         |  |         |  |     |     |   |   |

Each comparison made using the following six infix operators takes the result 1 (if type int) if the comparison proves to be true; zero if it proves false.

|                |          |                |                |                            |
|----------------|----------|----------------|----------------|----------------------------|
| <i>operand</i> | >        | <i>operand</i> | ► n > m        | Greater than (6>5 gives 1) |
|                | $\geq$   |                | ► n $\geq$ m   | Greater than or equal to   |
|                | <        |                | ► n < m        | Less than (6<5 gives 0)    |
|                | $\leq$   |                | ► n $\leq$ m   | Less than or equal to      |
|                | $\equiv$ |                | ► n $\equiv$ m | Equal to                   |
|                | $\neq$   |                | ► n $\neq$ m   | Not equal to               |

Truth tables for the operators  $\&\&$  (and) and  $\|$  (or) are shown. The symmetry of the tables shows that these operations are *commutative*. For example, i  $\&\&$  j gives the same result as j  $\&\&$  i;

| <i>operand</i> | $\&\&$ | <i>operand</i> | ► i $\&\&$ j | Logical and (2 $\&\&$ 3 gives 1) |
|----------------|--------|----------------|--------------|----------------------------------|
|                | $\ $   |                | ► i $\ $ j   | Logical or                       |
| both integral  |        |                |              |                                  |

| and<br>$\&\&$ |                  | operand          |               |
|---------------|------------------|------------------|---------------|
|               |                  | $\neq \emptyset$ | $= \emptyset$ |
| operand       | $\neq \emptyset$ | 1                | 0             |
| operand       | $= \emptyset$    | 0                | 0             |

| or<br>$\ $ |                  | operand          |               |
|------------|------------------|------------------|---------------|
|            |                  | $\neq \emptyset$ | $= \emptyset$ |
| operand    | $\neq \emptyset$ | 1                | 1             |
| operand    | $= \emptyset$    | 1                | 0             |

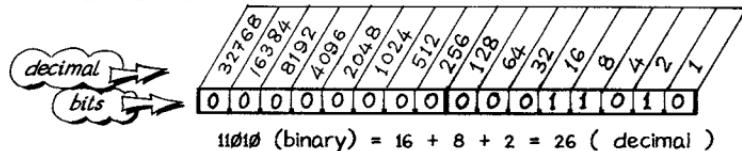
## BITWISE OPERATORS

$\&$  /  $\wedge$  ~  $\ll$   $\gg$

Bitwise operators are vital for screen graphics, for packing and unpacking data, and other devices of the programmer's craft.

All operands of bitwise operators must be integral. Because computers have different ways of representing negative integers, use bitwise operators *only on the unsigned types*.

*unsigned int* on your installation may be represented as a 16-bit word. If so, 26 will be stored like this:



Zero is stored as sixteen 0's. The biggest number (1+2+4+8+16+...+32768 = 65535) is stored as sixteen 1's.

|             |                                     |
|-------------|-------------------------------------|
| $\emptyset$ | 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 |
| 65535       | 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 |

|                |              |                |                                |                      |
|----------------|--------------|----------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|
| <b>operand</b> | <b>&amp;</b> | <b>operand</b> | $\blacktriangleright X \& XII$ | Bitwise and          |
|                | <b> </b>     |                | $\blacktriangleright X   XII$  | Bitwise or           |
|                | <b>^</b>     |                | $\blacktriangleright X ^ XII$  | Bitwise exclusive or |

these operators are commutative:  $X \& XII$  gives the same result as  $XII \& X$ , and similarly for the others, as evident from symmetry of truth tables.

|                 |                |                              |             |
|-----------------|----------------|------------------------------|-------------|
| <b>~</b>        | <b>operand</b> | $\blacktriangleright \sim X$ | Bitwise not |
| prefix operator |                |                              |             |

|                |                 |                |                              |   |
|----------------|-----------------|----------------|------------------------------|---|
| <b>operand</b> | <b>&lt;&lt;</b> | <b>operand</b> | $\blacktriangleright X << N$ | Shift left N places:<br>right fill with 0's |
|                | <b>&gt;&gt;</b> |                | $\blacktriangleright X >> N$ | Shift right N places:<br>left fill with 0's |

```
#include <stdio.h>
void main(void)
{
    unsigned int Zero = 0, X = 10, XII = 12;
    printf ("%u", ~Zero);
```

%u is the conversion code for  
unsigned int. don't use %i

|       |                                   |
|-------|-----------------------------------|
| Zero  | 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0   0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 |
| ~Zero | 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1   1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 |

65535

|          |                |
|----------|----------------|
| <b>~</b> | <b>operand</b> |
| $\neq 0$ | = 0            |
| 0        | 1              |

```
printf ("%u", X & XII);
```

|     |                                     |
|-----|-------------------------------------|
| X   | 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0   0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0   |
| XII | 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0   0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 |

8

|              |                |
|--------------|----------------|
| <b>&amp;</b> | <b>operand</b> |
| $\neq 0$     | = 0            |
| 1            | 0              |
| = 0          | 0              |

|         |                                   |
|---------|-----------------------------------|
| X & XII | 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0   0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 |
|---------|-----------------------------------|

```
printf ("%u", X | XII);
```

|     |                                     |
|-----|-------------------------------------|
| X   | 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0   0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0   |
| XII | 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0   0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 |

14

|          |                |
|----------|----------------|
| <b> </b> | <b>operand</b> |
| $\neq 0$ | = 0            |
| 1        | 1              |
| = 0      | 1              |

|         |                                   |
|---------|-----------------------------------|
| X   XII | 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0   0 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 |
|---------|-----------------------------------|

```
printf ("%u", X ^ XII);
```

|     |                                     |
|-----|-------------------------------------|
| X   | 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0   0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0   |
| XII | 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0   0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 |

6

|          |                |
|----------|----------------|
| <b>^</b> | <b>operand</b> |
| $\neq 0$ | = 0            |
| 0        | 1              |
| = 0      | 1              |

|         |                                   |
|---------|-----------------------------------|
| X ^ XII | 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0   0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 |
|---------|-----------------------------------|

```
printf ("%u", X<<1, X>>1);
```

20 5

}

# ASSIGNMENT OPERATORS

=    +=    \*=    /=    %=  
&=    =    |=    <<=    >>=

The operand on the left of an assignment is typically the name of a variable or array element.

n = 3; makes sense    3 = n; is nonsense



The term *l-value* (or *lvalue*) is short for 'left value' and is used in the jargon with blatant disregard for the sanctity of English to identify items that make sense only on the left of an assignment. In general, l-values are names of storage locations or expressions that point to storage locations in which the content may be altered. We meet pointers later.

|             |    |         |  |   |
|-------------|----|---------|--|---|
| operand<br> | =  | operand | ► n = m  | Assigns value of right operand to the location identified by the left operand ('puts value into n') |
| operand<br> | += | operand | ► n += m<br>► n -= m<br>► n *= m<br>► n /= m<br>► n %= m   | Short for    n = n + m<br>n = n - m<br>n = n * m<br>n = n / m<br>n = n % m                          |
| operand<br> | &= | operand | ► i &= j<br>► i ^= j<br>► i  = j<br>► i <<= j<br>► i >>= j | Short for    i = i & j<br>i = i ^ j<br>i = i   j<br>i = i << j<br>i = i >> j                        |

If you include one of the above assignments as a term in a larger expression the term contributes the value assigned. Thus in the expression:

$$4 + (n = a[i])$$

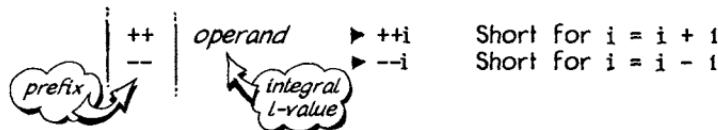
The term (n = a[i]) contributes the value assigned to n. If array element a[1] contained 3, this 3 would be assigned to n, and the value of (n = a[i]) would be 3.

The value of the whole expression would therefore be  $4 + 3 = 7$ .

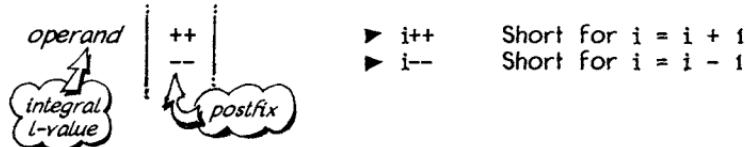
# INCREMENTING OPERATORS

++ --

Incrementing operators are special assignment operators. Each may be used as a prefix operator or postfix operator, the behaviour being different in each case.



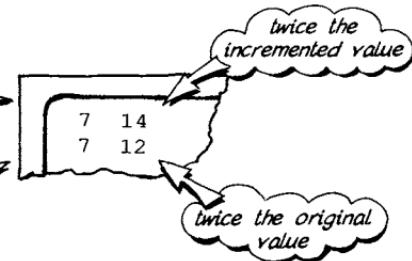
If you include  $i++$  as a term of a larger expression, the original value of  $i$  is taken as the value of the term. Similarly for  $i--$ .



If you include  $++i$  as a term of a larger expression, the incremented value of  $i$  is taken as the value of the term. Similarly with  $--i$  the decremented value is taken as the value of the term.

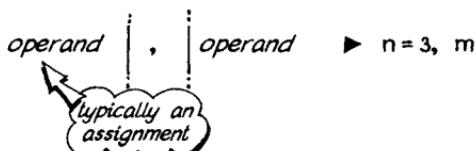
The following program demonstrates the difference in result between prefixing and postfixing the operator.

```
#include <stdio.h>
void main ( void )
{
    int p, q;
    p = 6;
    q = 2 * ++p;
    printf ("\n%i %i", p, q );
    p = 6;
    q = 2 * p++;
    printf ("\n%i %i", p, q );
}
```



## SEQUENCE OPERATOR

, USEFUL IN THE PARAMETERS OF A for LOOP



Evaluate & discard  $n=3$ , value of expression is value of  $m$

The expression comprising the first operand is evaluated (any side effects being implemented) and the value of the expression discarded. Then the second operand is evaluated, its value being made the value of the complete expression.

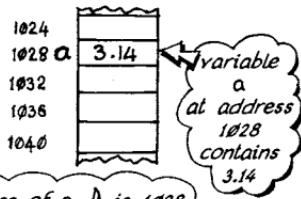
# REFERENCE OPERATORS

& \* . ->

The reference operators are concerned with pointers and structures. These topics are introduced later. Here, for sake of completeness, are definitions in mechanistic terms.

&      operand      &a  
prefix

The address of a



\*      operand      \*p  
identifies pointer variable

The 'pointee' of... (My terminology, analogous to 'appointee')

assume the 1028 got there by  
 $p = \&a;$

p 1028

|        |      |
|--------|------|
| 1028 a | 3.14 |
| 1032   |      |
| 1036   |      |
| 1040   |      |

NOTE  
\*&a SAYS THE SAME THING AS a  
( \* & cancels itself out )

absolute addresses are seldom of interest, so:

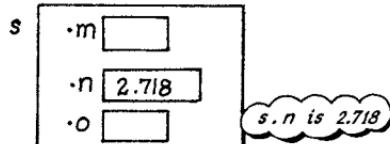


\*p (the pointee of p) is 3.14

operand . operand  
nominates a structure  
points to a structure  
operand -> operand

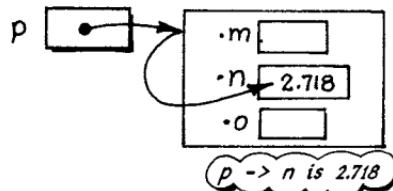
s.n

Member named n of structure identified by s



p->n

Member named n of the pointee of p (where p points to a structure)



NOTE  
p->n IS SHORT FOR (\*p).n

parentheses essential; precedence would make \*p.n imply \*(p.n)

# OTHER OPERATORS

? : (type) [ ] sizeof

First the ternary operator; exceedingly useful. All three operands are expressions, the first of which is integral.

operand ? operand : operand

if test non zero, this second expression is implied

if test zero, this third expression is implied

► max = i > j ? a \* b : c \* d;

Only one of the last two expressions is evaluated; the result becomes the value of the entire expression (assigned to max in the example above)

```
double AbsVal ( double x )  
{  
    return x < 0 ? -x : x;  
}
```

returns -x if x is negative,  
otherwise returns +x

The 'cast' (or 'type cast') involves a prefix operator:

( type-name ) operand

► AbsVal ( (double) (2\*i) )

nominates the type to which the value of the operand is to be converted before use.

Parentheses constitute a postfix operator, establishing that the operand is a function.

operand ( )

identifies a function

inside these parentheses the compiler treats comma as a separator; never as a sequence operator

► AbsVal (d)  
► pow (a, 3)  
► int \*(void)

function with no parameters returning pointer to int

Brackets constitute a postfix operator for subscripting the array identified by the operand.

operand [ ]

identifies an array

► int a[] = {10, 20, 30};  
► a[i + 1]  
► int (\*) []

pointer to array of integers

Prefix operator, sizeof, is for discovering the number of storage units (bytes) occupied by a particular object or by an object of particular type. This operator is used for dynamic storage (Chapter 10).

sizeof operand

expression (not evaluated) identifies an object

sizeof (type-name)

after sizeof, the compiler never treats () as a type cast

► sizeof a  
► sizeof ( double )  
► sizeof ( struct s )

a nominates an object: variable, array, structure or union

sizeof (char) has the value 1

# OPERATOR SUMMARY

## PREFIX, INFIX, POSTFIX OPERATORS

Key:

v, i

nominate objects that are l-values (e.g. v or \*p).

a, b, m, n stand for expressions which reduce to numerical values (integral values in the case of m and n)

p nominates (or otherwise indicates) a pointer variable  
w nominates a member of a structure or union.

prefix

|    |       |  |
|----|-------|--|
| +  | ► + a | confirmation   |
| -  | ► - a | negation   |
| &  | ► & v | address of   |
| *  | ► * p | the pointee of (object pointed to by)                |
| ~  | ► ~m  | ones' complement ( $10001100 \rightarrow 01110011$ ) |
| !  | ► !m  | logical NOT (1 if m is FALSE)                        |
| ++ | ► ++i | increment i before using its value                   |
| -- | ► --i | decrement i before using its value                   |

infix

|     |           |   |       |         |       |         |
|-----|-----------|---|-------|---------|-------|---------|
| *   | ► a * b   | product   | m     | 0 1 0 1 | m     | 0 1 0 1 |
| /   | ► a / b   | quotient  | n     | 1 1 0 0 | n     | 1 1 0 0 |
| %   | ► m % n   | remainder   | m&n   | 0 0 1 0 | m   n | 1 1 0 1 |
| +   | ► a + b   | sum   |       |         |       |         |
| -   | ► a - b   | difference  | m     | 0 1 0 1 | m     | 0 1 0 1 |
| &   | ► m & n   | bitwise AND                                       | n     | 1 1 0 0 | n     | 1 1 0 0 |
|     | ► m   n   | bitwise OR  | m^n   | 1 0 0 1 |       |         |
| ^   | ► m^n     | bitwise EXCLUSIVE OR                              |       |         |       |         |
| <<  | ► m << n  | m shifted n positions left, right fill with 0's   |       |         |       |         |
| >>  | ► m >> n  | m shifted n posns right, left fill type-dependent |       |         |       |         |
| .   | ► a, b    | evaluate and discard a, evaluate and retain b     |       |         |       |         |
| >   | ► a > b   | 1 if a greater than b... 0 otherwise              |       |         |       |         |
| ≥   | ► a ≥ b   | 1 if a grtr than or equal to b... 0 otherwise     |       |         |       |         |
| <   | ► a < b   | 1 if a less than b... 0 otherwise                 |       |         |       |         |
| ≤   | ► a ≤ b   | 1 if a less than or equal to b... 0 otherwise     |       |         |       |         |
| ==  | ► a == b  | 1 if a equals b... 0 otherwise                    |       |         |       |         |
| !=  | ► a != b  | 1 if a is not equal to b... 0 otherwise           |       |         |       |         |
| &&  | ► m && n  | logical AND                                       |       |         |       |         |
|     | ► m    n  | logical OR  |       |         |       |         |
| =   | ► v = a   | assign value a to object v                        |       |         |       |         |
| *=  | ► v *= a  | short for v = v * a                               | m & n | n ≠ 0   | n = 0 |         |
| /=  | ► v /= a  | short for v = v / a                               | m ≠ 0 | 1       | 0     |         |
| %=  | ► i %= m  | short for i = i % m                               | m = 0 | 0       | 0     |         |
| +=  | ► v += a  | short for v = v + a                               |       |         |       |         |
| -=  | ► v -= a  | short for v = v - a                               |       |         |       |         |
| &=  | ► i &= m  | short for i = i & m                               |       |         |       |         |
| =   | ► i   = m | short for i = i   m                               |       |         |       |         |
| ^=  | ► i ^= m  | short for i = i ^ m                               |       |         |       |         |
| >>= | ► i >>= m | short for i = i >> m                              |       |         |       |         |
| <<= | ► i <<= m | short for i = i << m                              |       |         |       |         |
| .=  | ► v . w   | member w of structure v                           |       |         |       |         |
| ->  | ► p -> w  | short for (*p).w                                  |       |         |       |         |

postfix

|    |        |                                |
|----|--------|--------------------------------|
| ++ | ► i ++ | use value of i, then increment |
| -- | ► i -- | use value of i, then decrement |

What does  $a+b \% c$  mean?  $(a+b)\%c$  or  $a+(b\%c)$ ? The question can be asked another way: which of + and % takes precedence? The following table shows the precedence of all operators; those in the top row take precedence over those in the second, and so on. In any one row, all operators have equal precedence.

What does  $a/b/c$  mean?  $(a/b)/c$  or  $a/(b/c)$ ? (Try 8/4/2 both ways and see the difference.) This question can be asked another way: When successive operators have equal precedence, in which direction are parentheses applied? Left to right or right to left? The required direction is the *associativity*. The table shows by an arrow the direction of associativity (left to right or right to left) at every precedence level.

In the placing of parentheses, precedence is relevant where successive operators are found in different rows of the table; associativity is relevant where successive operators are found in the same row of the table.

| OPERATORS     |   |    |      |    |    |      |    |    |    |         |        |   |        |
|---------------|---|----|------|----|----|------|----|----|----|---------|--------|---|--------|
| HIGH          |   | (  | expr | )  | [  | expr | ]  | ++ | -- | postfix | infix  | . | ->     |
|               | ↑ | !  | ~    | -  | +  | *    | *  | &  | ++ | --      | sizeof | ← | prefix |
|               | ↓ | *  | /    | %  |    |      |    |    |    |         |        |   |        |
|               | ↑ | +  | -    |    |    |      |    |    |    |         |        |   |        |
|               | ↓ | << | >>   |    |    |      |    |    |    |         |        |   |        |
|               | ↑ | <  | <=   | >  | >= |      |    |    |    |         |        |   |        |
|               | ↓ | == | !=   |    |    |      |    |    |    |         |        |   |        |
|               | ↑ | &  |      |    |    |      |    |    |    |         |        |   |        |
|               | ↓ | ^  |      |    |    |      |    |    |    |         |        |   |        |
|               | ↑ |    |      |    |    |      |    |    |    |         |        |   |        |
|               | ↓ | ?: |      |    |    |      |    |    |    |         |        |   |        |
|               | ↑ | =  | *=   | /= | %= | +=   | -= | <= | >= | &=      | =      |   |        |
|               | ↓ | .  |      |    |    |      |    |    |    |         |        |   |        |
| PRECEDENCE    |   |    |      |    |    |      |    |    |    |         |        |   |        |
| ASSOCIATIVITY |   |    |      |    |    |      |    |    |    |         |        |   |        |
| LOW           |   |    |      |    |    |      |    |    |    |         |        |   |        |

ternary operator

all the rest, infix

Example: precedence

$$\begin{aligned} 5 + -3 * 4 &> -8 \\ 5 + (-3) * 4 &> (-8) \\ 5 + ((-3) * 4) &> (-8) \\ (5 + ((-3) * 4)) &> (-8) \end{aligned}$$

value is 1  
(true)

Example: associativity

R to L

$$\begin{aligned} a *= b = c += d / = e \\ a *= b = c += (d / = e) \\ a *= b = (c += (d / = e)) \\ a *= (b = (c += (d / = e))) \end{aligned}$$

# MIXED TYPES

COERCION & CASTS

When terms of an expression are of different type, the processor 'coerces' values to a consistent type. Coercion may cause a short integer to become long ('promotion') or a long to become short ('demotion') according to the context of the expression. If you wish to override coercion you may include a *cast* to specify the precise promotion or demotion required.

## PROMOTION & DEMOTION 'LOWER' TO 'HIGHER' & VICE VERSA

The processor cannot directly obey the statement `d = 2`, where `d` is of type double, because 2 is of 'lower' type than d; you cannot store an int in a location declared double. In obeying `d = 2` the processor first takes a copy of 2 and promotes the copy to double as though you had written `2.0` instead of 2. The promoted value is then assigned to d.

The converse, `i = 2.0`, where i is of type int, also involves conversion before assignment is possible. But there can be trouble when a 'higher' value is demoted to a 'lower'. With `i = 2.1`, for example, the .1 would be lost and you would probably receive a warning. Some processors would collapse on meeting `i = 70000`.

## CAST

### OVERRIDES COERCION

When assignment involves different types, the program coerces values to the type of the receiving object. The same effect can be achieved by a cast. For example, '`d = (double) i`' causes a copy of the content of i to be promoted to type double and assigned to d. The expression `i = (int) d` causes the converse by demotion.

## PARAMETERS

### A FORM OF ASSIGNMENT

Invoking a function with parameters is a form of assignment; parameters of different type are coerced in the manner just described.

For example, in `AbsVal(-3)` (where the parameter has been declared of type double) the -3 would be coerced to type double as though you had written `AbsVal(-3.0)`. Or you could avoid coercion by writing `AbsVal((double)-3)`. Coercion of parameters works because the processor can see from the prototype declaration what types of arguments the function expects.

## LITERAL CONSTANTS

### USE SUFFIXES, NOT CASTS

Literal constants not of type int or double would be suffixed to specify type. L (long or long double), F (float), U (unsigned) are defined on Page 33. Thus `2L` represents the value 2 in a form suitable for storage as a long int, whereas `2.0L` represents the same value, but in a form suitable for storage as a long double. Do not use casts with literal constants.

# ACTION OF OPERATORS

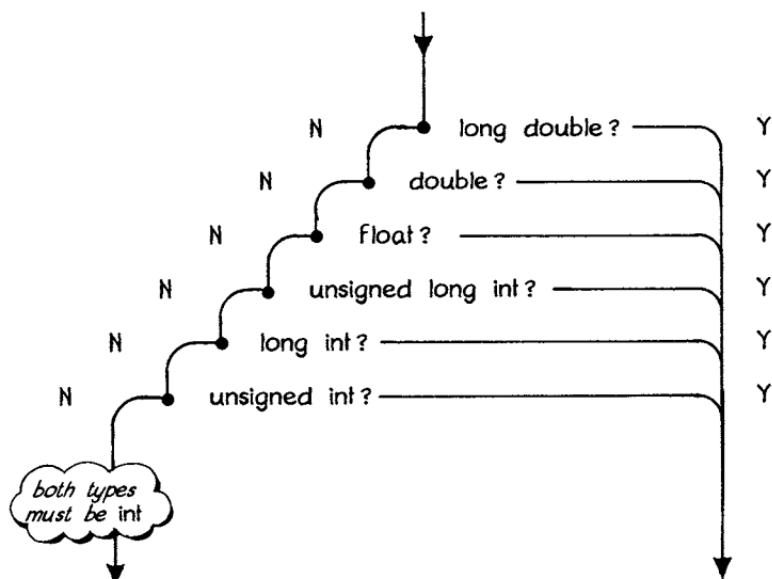
In general, any infix operator can cause type promotion if given operands of different type:  $3.141593/4$  is a simple example involving the division operator. In such a case the processor promotes the operand of 'lower' type (in this case 4 which is **int**) to the 'higher' type (in this case that of 3.141593 which is **double**).

The rules obeyed by the processor for maintaining the principle of promotion to 'higher' type are as follows:

For each operand; if it is:

- **unsigned short int** promote its value to **signed int**
- **unsigned char** promote its value to **int** with zero left fill
- **signed char** promote its value to **int** with sign extended
- **char** promote its value to **int** (form depends on implementation)

Then ask if the type of either operand is one of the following:



Produce result of type **int**

Promote the value of the other operand to the same type, then produce a result of this same type.



# 4

## CONTROL

This chapter describes the control statements of C and their use. These statements control the sequence of execution within a function. Without them, execution starts at the first statement after the heading of the function and proceeds sequentially to the last.

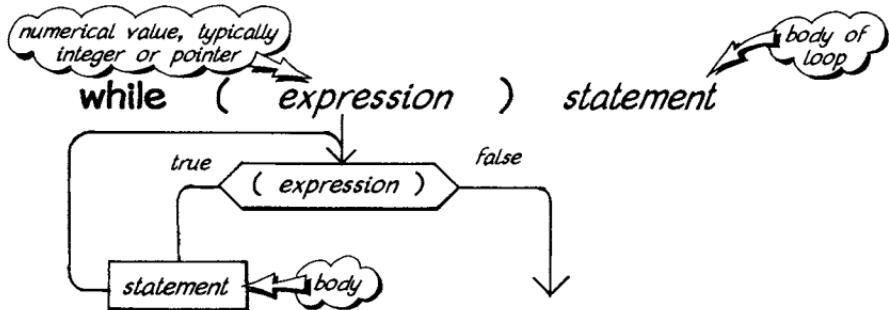
Control statements already introduced are: if, do, for, break, return.

Control statements are classified in this chapter as follows:

- |                 |                         |
|-----------------|-------------------------|
| • Tested loops  | while, do               |
| • Counted loops | for                     |
| • Escape        | break, continue, return |
| • Selection     | if, switch              |
| • Jump          | goto                    |

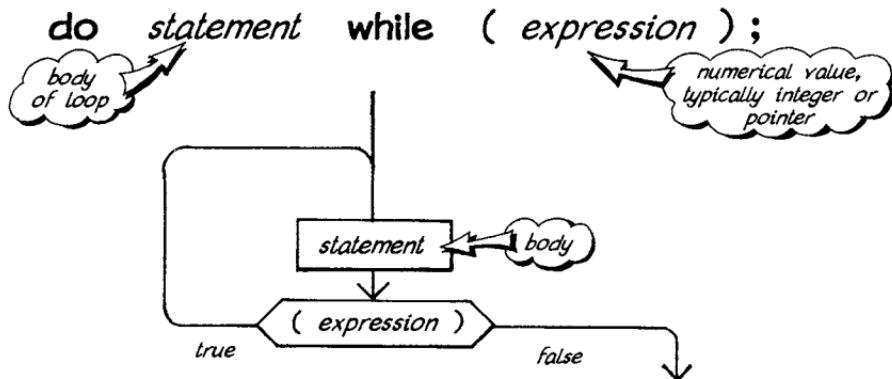
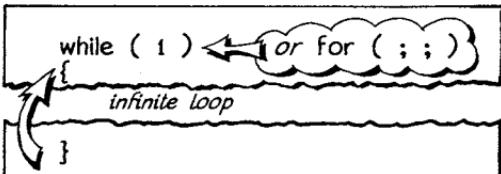
# TESTED LOOPS

LOOP UNTIL A CONDITION IS MET  
while AND do



If, on entry to the while loop, expression reduces to zero (or null) then statement is not executed at all. The test for continuation is at the top.

An infinite loop may be constructed by writing a non-zero constant as the expression (permanently true). Escape from an infinite loop using 'break' or 'continue' as depicted opposite.



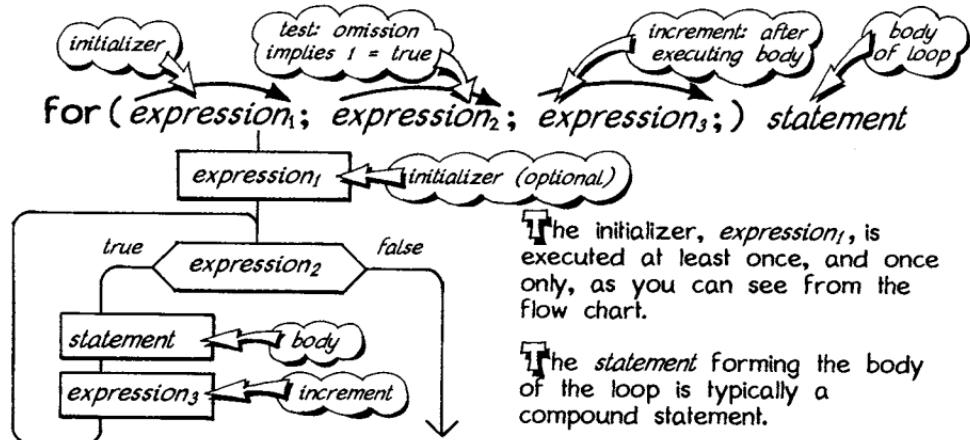
The statement is executed at least once, the test for continuation being at the bottom.

Tested loops are useful when you do not know in advance how many times (if any) a piece of program is to be executed. It may be executed again and again until some goal is achieved such as the difference between two quantities becoming very small. Whatever the goal, it must be expressed as a logical value, true or false.

The 'while' loop is needed more often than 'do', but an example in which 'do' is appropriate is given on Page 23.

# COUNTED LOOP

PREDETERMINED NUMBER OF TIMES for



The initializer, `expression1`, is executed at least once, and once only, as you can see from the flow chart.

The statement forming the body of the loop is typically a compound statement.

**M**ake an infinite loop by omitting the test, thereby implying constantly true.

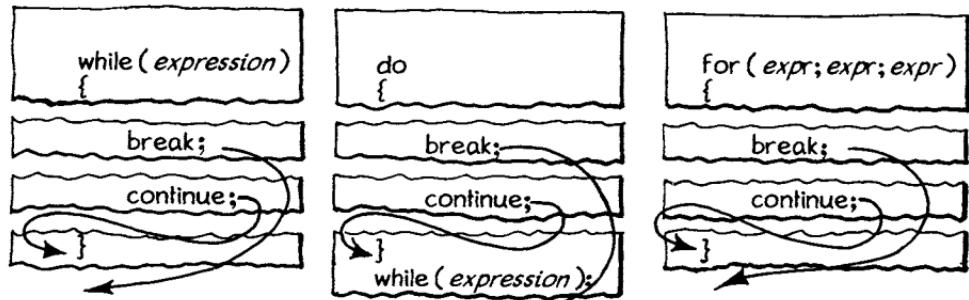
**U**se the comma operator to extend any or all expressions. For example:

```
for (a=1, b=1; x>y; i++, j++)
```

## ESCAPE

GETTING OUT OF A LOOP BY break & continue  
RETURNING FROM A FUNCTION BY return

'break' takes you out of the present loop altogether; 'continue' takes you to the end of the body of the loop, hence to the next execution of the body ↗ if the control mechanism so requires. ( You can escape from a complete nest of loops using the 'goto label' statement but use of 'goto', except for error recovery, is frowned upon. )



return expression ;

omit expression if function is defined to return void

value of expression is returned to the invocation as though by assignment

For all serious programs, declare `main()` as type `int`, and include a `return 0;` The zero signifies normal termination to the computer environment.

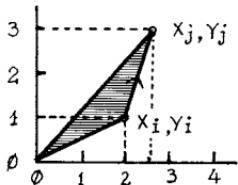
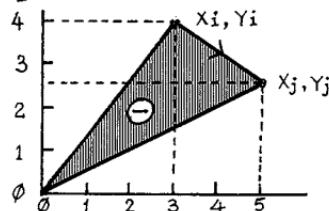
# AREA OF A POLYCON

SIMPLE COUNTED LOOPS

Consider the diagram on the right:  
The shaded area is given by  $A_{ij}$   
where:

$$A_{ij} = \frac{1}{2}(X_i Y_j - X_j Y_i)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(2 \times 3 - 2.5 \times 1) = 1.75$$

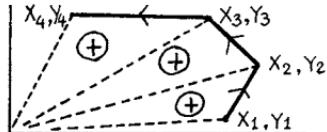


The same formula may be used for computing the area on the left. But this area turns out to be negative:

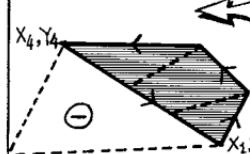
$$A_{ij} = \frac{1}{2}(X_i Y_j - X_j Y_i)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(3 \times 2.5 - 5 \times 4) = -6.25$$

The formula may be applied to sequential sides of a polygon, and the triangular areas summed to give the area shown here



But if the polygon is closed, as shown on the left, the sum of the areas will be the area enclosed.

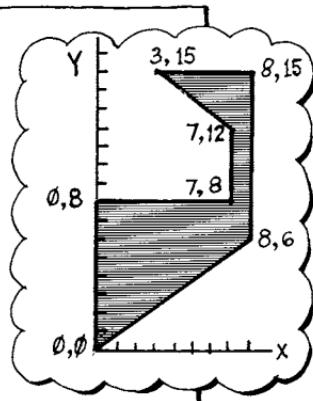


The bounded surface must be kept to the left of each arrow: the sides of the figure should not cross each other as in a figure of eight.

Here is a program by which to input coordinates of boundary points and compute the area enclosed:

```
/* Area of a polygon */
#include <stdio.h>
void main ( void )
{
    int n, j;
    double Area = 0.0, x[30], y[30];
    printf ("\n\nNumber of vertices? : ");
    scanf ("%i", &n );
    for ( j=0; j<n; ++j )
    {
        printf ("Coords of point %i ? : ", j+1 );
        scanf ("%f %f ", &x[j], &y[j] );
    }
    for ( j=0; j<n; ++j )
        Area += 0.5*(x[j]*y[(j+1)%n]-x[(j+1)%n]*y[j]);
    printf ("\nArea is %.2lf", Area );
}
```

arbitrary limit  
on size



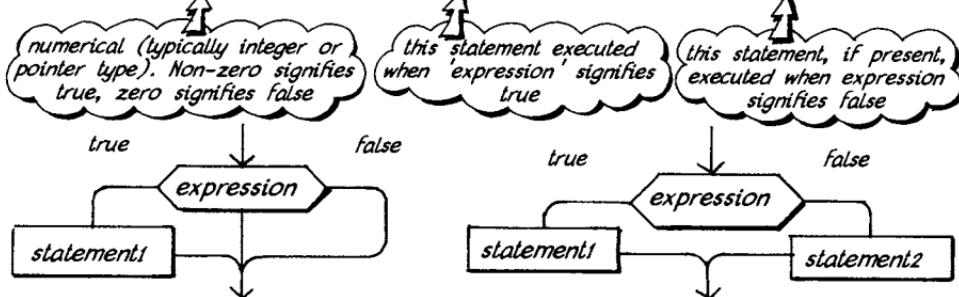
The expression  
 $(i+j)\%n$  gives  
values as shown  
by the little table

| j | j+1 | (j+1)%n |
|---|-----|---------|
| 0 | 1   | 1       |
| 1 | 2   | 2       |
| 2 | 3   | 3       |
| 3 | 4   | 4       |
| 4 | 5   | 5       |
| 5 | 6   | 6       |
| 6 | 7   | 0       |

|                       |       |
|-----------------------|-------|
| Number of vertices? : | 7     |
| Coords of point 1 ? : | 0 0   |
| Coords of point 2 ? : | 8 6   |
| Coords of point 3 ? : | 8 15  |
| Coords of point 4 ? : | 3 15  |
| Coords of point 5 ? : | 7 12  |
| Coords of point 6 ? : | 7 8   |
| Coords of point 7 ? : | 0 8   |
| Area is               | 53.00 |

# SELECTION STATEMENT ~ IF

if ( expression ) statement, else statement<sub>2</sub>



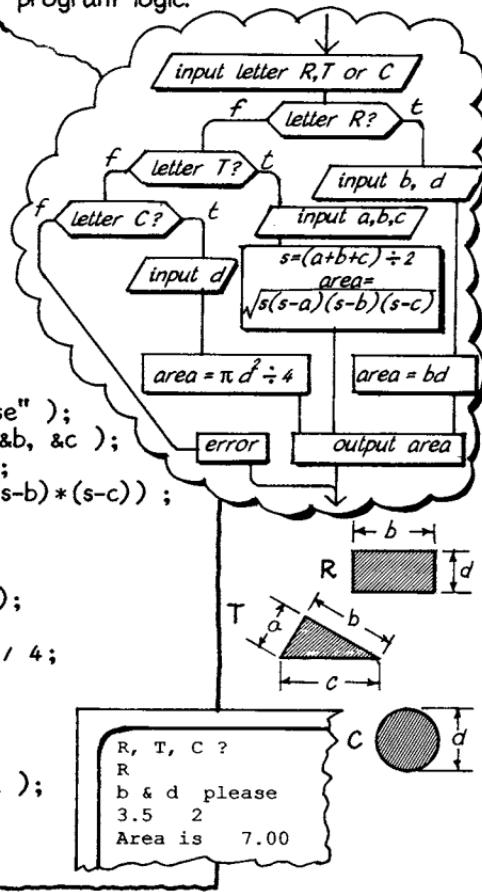
See discussion on nesting and other features of if...else on pp 12 & 13.

/\* Areas of shapes \*/

```

#include <stdio.h>
#include <math.h>
void main(void)
{
    double Pi = 3.141593;
    double s, Area, a, b, c, d;
    char Letter;
    int Ok = 1;
    printf ("\nR, T, C ?");
    scanf ("%c", &Letter);
    if ( Letter == 'R' ) {
        printf ("\nb & d please");
        scanf ("%f %f", &b, &d );
        Area = b * d;
    }
    else
        if ( Letter == 'T' ) {
            printf ("\na, b & c please");
            scanf ("%f %f %f", &a, &b, &c );
            s = ( a + b + c ) / 2;
            Area = sqrt (s*(s-a)*(s-b)*(s-c));
        }
        else
            if ( Letter == 'C' ) {
                printf ("\nd please");
                scanf ("%f ", &d );
                Area = Pi * d * d / 4;
            }
    else
        Ok = 0;
    if ( Ok )
        printf ("Area is %.2F", Area );
    else
        printf ("Try again" );
}
  
```

The example illustrates nested if's; not always the best way to express program logic.



# ROMAN NUMBERS

TABLE-CONTROLLED LOGIC,  
AVOIDING CLUMSINESS OF if...else

Programmers spend a lot of time writing input routines. Few are asked to input and decode Roman numbers like MCMXCII, but this presents no particular difficulty if you use a symbol-state table. This approach is tidier than logic based on if and else.

Assume Roman numerals to be composed of the following elements, never more than one from each consecutive list:

| thousands | hundreds | D=500    | Ieris  | L=50    | units | V=5    |
|-----------|----------|----------|--------|---------|-------|--------|
| M=1000    | C=100    | DC=600   | X=10   | LX=60   | I=1   | VI=6   |
| MM=2000   | CC=200   | DCC=700  | XX=20  | LXX=70  | II=2  | VII=7  |
| MMM=3000  | CCC=300  | DCCC=800 | XXX=30 | LXXX=80 | III=3 | VIII=8 |
| etc.      | CD=400   | CM=900   | XL=40  | XC=90   | IV=4  | IX=9   |

In fact the Romans felt less constrained. IIII was common. Some monuments have inscriptions of numbers starting with more than twenty Cs.

The logic of the program is contained in the following symbol-state table:

| starting state | SYMBOL  |        |        |       |       |       |      |      | error |
|----------------|---------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|-------|
|                | M       | D      | C      | L     | X     | V     | I    |      |       |
| 00             | 1000:00 | 500:01 | 100:03 | 50:07 | 10:06 | 5:12  | 1:11 |      |       |
| 01             |         |        | 100:02 | 50:07 | 10:06 | 5:12  | 1:11 |      |       |
| 02             |         |        | 100:04 | 50:07 | 10:06 | 5:12  | 1:11 |      |       |
| 03             | 800:05  | 300:05 | 100:04 | 50:07 | 10:06 | 5:12  | 1:11 |      |       |
| 04             |         |        | 100:05 | 50:07 | 10:06 | 5:12  | 1:11 |      |       |
| 05             |         |        |        | 50:07 | 10:06 | 5:12  | 1:11 |      |       |
| 06             |         |        |        | 80:10 | 30:10 | 10:09 | 5:12 | 1:11 |       |
| 07             |         |        |        |       |       | 10:08 | 5:12 | 1:11 |       |
| 08             |         |        |        |       |       | 10:09 | 5:12 | 1:11 |       |
| 09             |         |        |        |       |       | 10:10 | 5:12 | 1:11 |       |
| 10             |         |        |        |       |       |       | 5:12 | 1:11 |       |
| 11             |         |        |        |       |       |       |      | 1:14 |       |
| 12             |         |        |        |       |       |       |      | 1:13 |       |
| 13             |         |        |        |       |       |       |      | 1:14 |       |
| 14             |         |        |        |       |       |       |      | 1:15 |       |
| 15             |         |        |        |       |       |       |      |      |       |

Take the Roman number CIX as an example. Begin with a value of zero. You are in state 00 (where the arrow is). Look down from symbol C and find 100:03 which says 'Add 100 to the value and change state to 03.' So add 100 to zero and move the arrow to 03. Now look down from symbol I and find 1:11. So add 1 to the value (100 + 1 = 101) and move the arrow to state 11. Finally, look down from symbol X and find 8:15. So add 8 to the value (101 + 8 = 109) and move the arrow to state 15, a row of empty cells.

There are no more Roman digits, so CIX decodes as 109. Experiment with MCMXCII and you should get 1992. Experiment with MDDI and you should encounter an empty cell which means an error of formation.

The program to implement this method of decoding is short and simple because the logic is embodied in the table.

Two pieces of information are packed into each element of the table. To unravel, divide by 100 and use the quotient as the contribution to the final value and the remainder to give the next state. Thus 50001 gives a contribution of  $50001 / 100 = 500$  (integer division) and a new state of  $50001 \% 100 = 1$  (remainder when 50001 is divided by 100). The array has to be declared as 'long' on installations that offer only 16 bits for an 'int'.

```
/* Roman Numerals */
#include <stdio.h>
char Symbol [ ] = { 'M', 'D', 'C', 'L', 'X', 'V', 'I' };
long Table [16] [8] =
{
    { 100000, 50001, 10003, 5007, 1006, 512, 111, 0 },
    { 0, 0, 10002, 5007, 1006, 512, 111, 0 },
    { 0, 0, 10004, 5007, 1006, 512, 111, 0 },
    { 80005, 30005, 10004, 5007, 1006, 512, 111, 0 },
    { 0, 0, 10005, 5007, 1006, 512, 111, 0 },
    { 0, 0, 0, 5007, 1006, 512, 111, 0 },
    { 0, 0, 8010, 3010, 1009, 512, 111, 0 },
    { 0, 0, 0, 0, 1008, 512, 111, 0 },
    { 0, 0, 0, 0, 1009, 512, 111, 0 },
    { 0, 0, 0, 0, 1010, 512, 111, 0 },
    { 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 512, 111, 0 },
    { 0, 0, 0, 0, 815, 315, 114, 0 },
    { 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 113, 0 },
    { 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 114, 0 },
    { 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 115, 0 },
    { 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0 }
};

void main ( void )
{
    long Entry = 1, Number = 0;
    int Column, Row = 0;
    char Ch;
    printf ("\nEnter a number\n");
    while ( (Ch = getchar ()) != '\n' && Entry )
        {
            For (Column = 0; Column < 7 && Ch != Symbol[Column]; ++Column)
                {
                    Entry = Table [Row] [Column];
                    Number += Entry / 100;
                    Row = Entry % 100;
                }
            if (Entry)
                printf ("=%i in Arabics", Number);
            else
                printf ("\nError");
            printf ("\nEnd of run");
        }
}

stops looping if Entry picks up zero (false)
```

enter the table

accumulate Number

select next row of table

Enter a number  
MCMXCII  
= 1992 in Arabics  
End of run

# SWITCH

## SELECTION STATEMENT

switch ( expression ) statement

integral value ( coerced if necessary to int or unsigned int ) is compared with the value of each case expression in the block. Control jumps to the statement following the matching value. If there is no match, control jumps to the statement following default:

typically a { block } containing case labels and a single default: label

case expression : statement

no more than one default per switch

may involve constants only; evaluated at compile time. Unique value essential after every case in the same block

this statement is next to be executed if value of the case expression matches value of the switch expression

default : statement

executed if no match. (Undefined behaviour if there is neither match nor default)

break

break statement typically terminates each case

```
printf("How many legs did it have?");  
scanf("%i", &Legs);  
switch ( Legs ) {
```

```
    case 8: printf ("A spider, perhaps?"); break;  
    case 2: printf ("A double-glazing sales person"); break;  
    case 3: case 5: case 1: printf ("That's odd!"); break;  
    case 4: printf ("Probably a mouse"); break;  
    case 6: printf ("Definitely a bug"); break;  
    default: printf ("Could be dangerous");
```

no particular order

multiple case expression:

}

all breaks take you here

The switch statement is useful wherever the logic demands selection of one case from a group of several. The Areas program could be improved using 'switch' in place of 'if' as shown below:

```
switch ( Letter ) {
```

```
    case 'R': case 'r': {  
        printf ("\nb & d please");  
        scanf ("%f %f", &b, &d );  
        area = b * d;  
        break;  
    }  
    case 'T': case 't': {
```

allow r as well as R

terminates every case

etc.

If you omit 'break' after the statements belonging to one particular case, control simply falls through to the next as illustrated by the following program which displays all twelve verses of a tedious Christmas carol.

```
/* 12 days of Christmas */
void main( void )
{
    int i, j;
    char Ord[] = { 's', 't', 'n', 'd', 'r', 'd', 'f', 'h' };
    for ( i=1; i<= 12; i++ ) {
        j = i < 4 ? 2*(i-1) : 6;
        printf ("\n\nOn the ");
        printf ("%i%c%c ", i, Ord[j], Ord[j+1]);
        printf ("day of Christmas my true love sent to me,");
        if ( i==1 ) printf ("\nA ");
        switch (i)
        {
            case 12:   printf ("\nTwelve drummers drumming,");
            case 11:   printf ("\n'leven pipers piping,");
            case 10:   printf ("\nTen maids a-milking,");
            case 9:    printf ("\nNine lords a-leaping,");
            case 8:    printf ("\nEight ladies dancing,");
            case 7:    printf ("\nSeven swans a-swimming,");
            case 6:    printf ("\nSix geese a-laying,");
            case 5:    printf ("\nFive GO-OLD rings,");
            case 4:    printf ("\nFour calling birds,");
            case 3:    printf ("\nThree French hens,");
            case 2:    printf ("\nTwo-oo turtle doves,");
            printf ("\nAnd a ");
            case 1:    printf ("part ri-idge in a pear treeee.");
        }
    }
}
```

Nested switch statements are useful for implementing the logic contained in symbol-state tables. The outer switch is given a case for each state (row) of the table. The logic in each of these cases comprises an inner switch having a case for each symbol (column) of the table.

## JUMP

### RECOVERING FROM CHAOS

An error condition may be drastic enough to warrant a jump out of the mess.

```
matching label
      goto name
name : statement
      a label marking a
      statement in the same
      function
```

Names of labels do not clash with names of other entities.

# CABLES

LOTS OF LOOPS: THIS PROGRAM IS FOR THE READER WHO HAS A LITTLE MATHEMATICS

The power cables  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  look as if they are running uncomfortably close to one another. What is the closest distance between them?

This would be an awkward problem without vector algebra: here are enough of the principles to solve it.

A vector  $\vec{v}$  is written as:

$$\vec{v} = v_0 \vec{i} + v_1 \vec{j} + v_2 \vec{k}$$

where  $v_0, v_1, v_2$  are its

projections in the directions depicted. The length (modulus) of  $\vec{v}$  is:

$$|\vec{v}| = \sqrt{v_0^2 + v_1^2 + v_2^2}$$

Divide  $\vec{v}$  by its own length and you have a unit long vector in the same direction as  $\vec{v}$ :

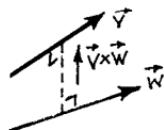
$$\frac{v_0}{|\vec{v}|} \vec{i} + \frac{v_1}{|\vec{v}|} \vec{j} + \frac{v_2}{|\vec{v}|} \vec{k}$$

The scalar (or dot) product,  $\vec{w} \cdot \vec{v}$ , is given by  $w_0 v_0 + w_1 v_1 + w_2 v_2$ . This expression represents the product of the length of one vector and the projected length of the other upon it. Another way to look at it is:

$$|w| |v| \cos \theta$$

The vector (or cross) product,  $\vec{v} \times \vec{w}$  is given by this determinant. It is a vector having a direction normal both to  $\vec{v}$  and to  $\vec{w}$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \vec{i} & \vec{j} & \vec{k} \\ v_0 & v_1 & v_2 \\ w_0 & w_1 & w_2 \end{vmatrix}$$



That's all we need of vector algebra for this problem. In the sketch above,  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  can be expressed:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{a} &= (9-4)\vec{i} + (16-8)\vec{j} + (17-10)\vec{k} = 5\vec{i} + 8\vec{j} + 7\vec{k} \\ \vec{b} &= (10-6)\vec{i} + (11-3)\vec{j} + (15-5)\vec{k} = 4\vec{i} + 8\vec{j} + 10\vec{k} \end{aligned}$$

Their cross product,  $a \times b$ , is a vector normal to  $a$  and  $b$ :

$$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \begin{vmatrix} \vec{i} & \vec{j} & \vec{k} \\ 5 & 8 & 7 \\ 4 & 8 & 10 \end{vmatrix} = 24\vec{i} - 22\vec{j} + 8\vec{k}$$

Its length is  $\sqrt{(24)^2 + (-22)^2 + (8)^2} = 33.53$

*a result of  
 $\partial\vec{i} + \partial\vec{j} + \partial\vec{k}$   
implies  $\vec{a}$  lies parallel to  $\vec{b}$*

So a unit vector,  $\vec{c}$ , connecting any point on  $\vec{a}$  to any point on  $\vec{b}$  is  $(\vec{a} \times \vec{b}) / 33.53$

$$0.72\vec{i} - 0.66\vec{j} + 0.24\vec{k}$$

Take a vector,  $\vec{c}$ , connecting any point on  $\vec{a}$  to any point on  $\vec{b}$ . Here is one; it connects the tip of  $\vec{a}$  to the tip of  $\vec{b}$ :

$$\vec{a} = (10-9)\vec{i} + (11-16)\vec{j} + (15-17)\vec{k} = 1\vec{i} - 5\vec{j} - 2\vec{k}$$

Project this onto the unit vector to give the shortest distance between the cables:

$$d = (1) \times (0.72) + (-5) \times (-0.66) + (-2) \times (0.24) = 3.52 \text{ approximately}$$

If the cables run parallel, special action is needed as shown in the 'else' clause in the program.

/\* Power cables; are they too close? \*/

#include <stdio.h>

#include <math.h>

void main( void )

{  
 int j, k=1, m=2;  
 char Cable[2] = { 'A', 'B' };  
 double Coord[12], a[3], b[3], c[3], u[3];  
 double Clearance=0.0, Proj=0.0, asq=0.0, csq=0.0, usq=0.0;  
 For (j=0; j<12; j++)  
 {  
 if (!(j%6))  
 printf ("\nCable %c\n", Cable[k=1-k]);  
 if (!(j%3))  
 printf ("End %i: x,y,z coords: ", m=3-m);  
 scanf ("%f", &Coord[j]);  
 }  
 For (j=0; j<3; ++j)  
 {  
 a[j] = Coord [3 + j] - Coord [j];  
 b[j] = Coord [9 + j] - Coord [6 + j];  
 c[j] = Coord [9 + j] - Coord [3 + j];  
 }  
 u[0] = a[1] \* b[2] - b[1] \* a[2];  
 u[1] = a[2] \* b[0] - a[0] \* b[2];  
 u[2] = a[0] \* b[1] - b[0] \* a[1];  
 For (j=0; j<3; ++j)  
 usq += u[j] \* u[j];  
 if (usq > 0.0) ← non-parallel cables  
 {  
 For (j=0; j<3; ++j)  
 csq += c[j] \* u[j];  
 csq /= sqrt (usq);  
 Clearance = (csq < 0.0) ? -csq: csq;  
 }  
 else ← parallel cables  
 {  
 For (j=0; j<3; ++j)  
 {  
 asq += a[j] \* a[j];  
 csq += c[j] \* c[j];  
 Proj += a[j] \* c[j];  
 }  
 csq -= Proj \* Proj / asq;  
 Clearance = (csq > 0) ? sqrt( csq ) : 0.0;  
 }  
 printf ("\nClearance between A & B is %.2f\n", Clearance);  
}

we need sqrt

alternating  
[0], [1], ...

alternating  
1, 2, 1, 2, ...

|                                 |
|---------------------------------|
| Cable A                         |
| End 1: x,y,z coords: 4 8 10     |
| End 2: x,y,z coords: 9 16 17    |
| Cable B                         |
| End 1: x,y,z coords: 6 3 5      |
| End 2: x,y,z coords: 10 11 15   |
| Clearance between A & B is 3.52 |

# QUICKSORT

AN INGENIOUS ALGORITHM

The sorting method called Quicksort was devised by Prof. C. A. R. Hoare. The version described here is a bit different from the original but serves to explain the essential principles of the method.

Take some letters to sort:

G B L I C N M H  
i ↑                          ← ↑ j

Set an arrow at either end of the list and prepare to move j towards i. If j indicates a 'bigger' letter than i does, move j another step towards i.

G B L I C N M H  
i ↑                          j ↑ ← ↑ ← ↑

Now j indicates a smaller letter than i does. So swap the two letters indicated, and swap the arrows i and j as well:

C B L I G N M H  
j ↑ →                      ↑ i

Continue moving j towards i (which now means stepping rightwards instead of leftwards). If j indicates a smaller letter than i does, move j another step towards i:

C B L I G N M H  
↑ ← ↑ j                    ↑ i

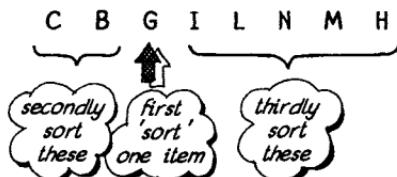
Now j indicates a bigger letter than i does. So swap letters, arrows, direction and condition exactly as before:

C B G I L N M H  
i ↑                          ← ↑ j

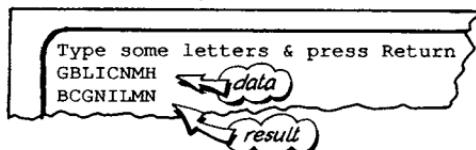
And so on, swapping as necessary, until j reaches i:

C B G I L N M H  
i ↑ j

At which stage it is true to say that every letter to the left of i is at least as small as the letter indicated: every letter to the right of i is at least as big. In other words the letter indicated has found its resting place. The letters to the left of i have not, however, been sorted, nor have those to the right of i. But having 'sorted' one letter, and split the group into two, it remains only to sort each sub-group, starting out in each case in the manner described in detail above.



A tidy way to sort is to point to the entities (such as personnel records) to be sorted, then rearrange the pointers. C language has special facilities for handling pointers but these must wait until Chapter 10; here we use integers to introduce the concept.



Use the program as shown above.  
Try 'ut tensio sic vis.'

|     |   |     |   |
|-----|---|-----|---|
| [0] | 0 | [0] | G |
| [1] | 1 | [1] | B |
| [2] | 2 | [2] | L |
| [3] | 3 | [3] | I |
| [4] | 4 | [4] | C |
| [5] | 5 | [5] | N |
| [6] | 6 | [6] | M |
| [7] | 7 | [7] | H |

|     |   |     |   |
|-----|---|-----|---|
| [0] | 1 | [0] | G |
| [1] | 4 | [1] | B |
| [2] | 0 | [2] | L |
| [3] | 7 | [3] | I |
| [4] | 3 | [4] | C |
| [5] | 2 | [5] | N |
| [6] | 6 | [6] | M |
| [7] | 5 | [7] | H |

/\* QSORT: Quicksort; home-made pointers \*/

```
#include <stdio.h>
char Letters[100];
int Pointers[100];
```

global arrays depicted

```
void Qsort ( int i, int j )
{
    if ( i < j )
        { otherwise return without
          doing anything
            int First=j, Last=j, Way=1, Temp;
            while ( i != j )
            {
                if (Way == Letters[Pointers[i]] > Letters[Pointers[j]] )
                {
                    Temp = Pointers[i];
                    Pointers[i] = Pointers[j];
                    Pointers[j] = Temp;
                    Temp = i;
                    i = j;
                    j = Temp;
                    Way = !Way;
                }
                j += !Way - Way;
            }
            Qsort (First, i-1); secondly sort these
            Qsort (i+1, Last); thirdly sort these
        }
}
```

```
void main( void )
{
```

```
    int n, k;
    printf ("\nType some letters and press Return\n");
    for ( n=0; ( Letters [n] = getchar() ) != '\n'; ++n )
        Pointers [n] = n;
```

set pointers

```
Qsort ( 0, n-1 );
```

invoke Qsort

```
for ( k=0; k<n; ++k )
    printf ("%c", Letters[Pointers[k]]);
```

print letters in sorted order

# EXERCISES

1 Re-program 'Areas of shapes' using the logic of a switch statement in place of if...then...else. You should find the result simpler and tidier than the program on page 55.

2 Write a function, using a symbol-state table, to read an octal number from the keyboard, converting it to a decimal integer ( of type long ). Allow a preceding + or - sign. For example, the program should read -74 and get the result -50.

Your state table should have four columns. These are: [0] to deal with the leading + or -, [1] to deal with any digit from 0 to 7, [2] to deal with a space character, [3] to deal with any other character ( an error ). The value in each cell should comprise a label ( for use in an associated 'switch' statement ) and the number of the next 'state', or row. The 'case' associated with valid digits should multiply the accumulating result by the number base, 8, then add the current digit.

Write a test-bed program to read octal numbers from the keyboard and display their decimal equivalents on the screen.

3 Extend your octal number program by making it read numbers to any base from 2 to 32. The digits for base 32 should be: 0123456789ABCDEFGHIJKLMNPQRSTUVWXYZ ( only as far as F for base 16 etc ). Hint: Store these as characters in an array; when accumulating a number, add the array subscript to the accumulation.

Let the program treat the first number it reads as a number base. Make it treat subsequent entries as numbers expressed to that base.

4 The Quicksort algorithm 'sorts' a single item, then calls itself to deal with those above and those below. You can apply similar logic to the bubble sort described on Page 19. Simply 'bubble' one number to the top of the list, then call the bubble function recursively to deal with the list below.

Write a recursive bubble sort function. To test it, use the program on Page 63, first replacing the Quicksort function.

# 5

## ORGANIZATION

This chapter describes the organization of a C program in terms of *translation units* and *files*.

A C program is turned into an executable program by a processor comprising a *preprocessor*, a *compiler*, a *linker*.

The preprocessor is described in detail; its logical *passes*, the use of *directives*, the composition of a *macro*, and the use of macros for textual substitution and *conditional preprocessing*.

*Storage class* is explained; the use of storage class *specifiers* to establish the scope of an object or function, and whether objects and their contents evaporate or not when control moves on. The significance of storage class specifiers in different contexts (outside and inside function definitions) is carefully explained.

The chapter ends with an explanation of *name space*, the contexts in which different entities given the same name would clash.

A C program may be all in one file or shared among several. The contents of each file is called a *translation unit* and comprises a set of directives, declarations and function definitions.

```
#define PI 3.14
#include <math.h>
int i = 0, j;
int MyFun ( float f )
{
    declarations
    statements
}
int YrFun ( double d )
{
    declarations
    statements
}
```

MYFILE1

```
#include <math.h>
int MyFun ( float );
int YrFun ( double );
extern int i;

int main ( void )
{
    declarations
    statements
}
```

```
}
```

MYFILE2

program of  
two translation  
units, MYFILE1  
and MYFILE2

A Although some modern processors prepare a C program for execution in a single 'pass', the logical process of preparation is best described in terms of multiple passes made by three distinct parts of the processor;

- preprocessor
- compiler
- linker

The C preprocessor resembles a word processor; it simplifies and rationalizes spacing, removes comments, copies nominated files into the program, substitutes pieces of text. At the end of this stage, translation units contain nothing but C language.

The compiler translates C language into code the computer can obey directly. For each 'text file' of C language the compiler generates a corresponding 'object file' of executable code. Cross references between functions and between files are left open at this stage.

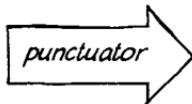
The linker deals with cross references. It copies the executable code of invoked library routines into the program, links all invocations to the functions invoked, cross refers local and global variables. The linkage of variables depends on their 'storage class', a subject described in detail below.

The final result is an 'executable file.'

# PREPROCESSOR

SIX LOGICAL 'PASSES'

The preprocessor works with *tokens*. These are the indivisible atoms of a C program. All forms of token except *punctuator* have been introduced in other contexts; *punctuator* is defined below.

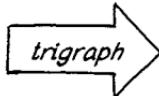


[ ]  
( )  
{ }  
.  
;  
:  
...  
=  
#



keyword  
name  
constant  
string  
operator  
punctuator

► if  
► A\_4  
► ØL  
► "abc"  
► +=  
► [ ]



= /  
? ( )  
! <  
> -

# \^ [ ] { }

The C processor does the following things, effectively in the order listed below:

- It replaces each *trigraph* with code for the single character it represents. Thus ??< is everywhere replaced by a left brace. (Trigraphs enable users of equipment based on a seven-bit character code to implement ANSI C.)
- Wherever \ is followed by a new line the preprocessor removes both the \ and the new-line character, thereby 'splicing' successive lines. The need for \ in this context is explained later.
- It rearranges white space such that each *token* is minimally separated from its neighbours. It replaces each comment by a single space.
- It obeys each *directive* in turn. A directive begins with # as the first non-blank character on a new line. The directives (all defined below) are concerned with textual substitution by *macro*. Macros are described in subsequent pages.
- It replaces *escape sequences* in character constants and quoted strings with equivalent single codes. For example, \n (as seen in '\n' or in printf ("\nFinish")) gets replaced with the code for new-line generation. Escape sequences are summarized on Page 197.
- It concatenates adjacent strings, removing any space between them and removing redundant quotation marks:

"Meth" "inks" " " "Pi" "rates"



"Methinks Pirates"

# SIMPLE MACROS

#define #undef

A name in association with a useful value, or useful piece of program, is called a *macro*.

In this program (which reads the radius of a circle from the keyboard and displays its area on screen) PI is a constant used in much the same way as an initialized variable. Before the compiler ever sees PI, however, the preprocessor meets `#define PI 3.14` and substitutes 3.14 for each occurrence of PI except in the following circumstances:

- not if part of a longer token such as PIPE
- not inside quoted strings such as "Ratio PI"
- not in comments (all of which have been removed at this stage).

Much the same holds for `#define XXX return Ø`; except that three tokens (return and Ø and ; ) are substituted for each single occurrence of XXX. In general, the text for substitution may be of any length; it terminates at the end of the line. (So what if the cursor reaches the edge of the screen before you have finished typing the text for substitution? Press \ followed immediately by Return. The cursor jumps to the next line and you continue typing, but the preprocessor 'splices' what you type to the previous line as illustrated earlier.)

As explained above, `#define PI 3.14` causes 3.14 to be substituted for each occurrence of PI throughout the file except for the three circumstances noted. Here is a fourth exception; substitution ceases when the preprocessor meets `#undef PI`. From that point onwards no further substitutions are made for PI.

## MACROS WITH ARGUMENTS

Your macro may have arguments. These are names in parentheses following the macro's name and the opening parenthesis.

#define ABS(x) ((x)<Ø ? -(x) : (x))

no space here

After the definition of ABS(X) the preprocessor might meet a term in an expression such as ABS(a) for which it would substitute: ((a)<Ø ? -(a) : (a)). This expression returns the absolute (i.e. positive) value of the number held in variable a.

Why all the parentheses? Wouldn't `(x<Ø) ? -x : x` suffice? No. Try with `ABS(3-7)` which would become `(3-7)<Ø ? -3-7 : 3-7` and return -10 instead of 4. Put parentheses around the text and around every argument within it.

Watch out for side effects! `ABS ( i++ )` would expand into `((i++) < Ø ? -(i++) : (i++))` causing i to be incremented twice on each execution. (`i++` is equivalent to `i = i + 1`).

Macros may invoke each other:

```
#define ABS(X) ((X) < 0 ? -(X) : (X))
#define NEAR_EQ((A),(B)) (ABS((A)-(B))>(TOL) ? 0 : 1);
#define TOL 0.001
```

The NEAR\_EQ macro returns 1 (true) if its arguments have nearly equal values, otherwise 0 (false). The criterion for 'nearly' is set by the value associated with TOL. For the setting shown, NEAR\_EQ (1.2345, 1.2349) would return 1 (true).

Macros that invoke one another may be arranged in any order; the preprocessor re-scans to satisfy unmatched names (notice that ABS precedes NEAR\_EQ but TOL follows). However, if one macro involves others, all participant macros must be defined ahead of any function wanting to use it. For example, if NEAR\_EQ is to be used in main() then ABS, TOL and NEAR\_EQ must all be defined ahead of the definition of main().

## STRING ARGUMENTS

operators: # 'string-lzer'  
## 'paster'

If # is placed in front of an argument inside the substitution text, the preprocessor takes the argument literally, enclosing it in quotes. In this example, if the preprocessor subsequently met PLURAL(Cat) it would expand it to printf ("Cat" "s");

```
#define PLURAL(P) printf (#P"s");
```

Adjacent strings are always concatenated, and contiguous "" removed, so the effect of PLURAL (Cat) would be printf ("Cats");

The \ and " in the actual argument are replaced by \\ and \" respectively, and so should be treated literally. PLURAL (Cat\nip) is replaced by printf ("Cat\nip") without an accident over the \n. But be careful! My system goes berserk if it meets leading or trailing \ or unbalanced " (\Cat, Cat\, C"at).



The preprocessor's 'operator', ##, concatenates arguments. If the preprocessor subsequently met OYEZ (Asterix, ix) it

would substitute 'printf ("Asterix");'. But here we are in dangerous territory; see Kernighan & Ritchie and the manuals for your particular system (or experiment boldly).

```
#define OYEZ(A, B) printf("A##B");
```

# HEADER FILES

#include

Here is a home-made header file.  
Name it MYHEAD.H

You may start a program as  
below. Its first line then gets  
replaced by the contents of the

```
#define PI 3.14
int Print ( char c, int i );
int Post ( float, double );
#define ABS(X) ((X)<0 ? -(X) : (X))
int Pick ( void );
```

MYHEAD.H

```
#include < stdio.h >
#include "MYHEAD.H"
int main ( void )
{
```

standard header file named stdio.h. Similarly, its second line gets replaced by the contents of the header file named MYHEAD.H

In general, the #include line tells the preprocessor to replace that line with the entire contents of the file nominated. If the name is in pointed brackets it means the file may be found in the usual directory for standard header files; if the name is in quotes it means the header file is in the same directory as the program being processed.

The organization of files and directories, and the limitations of allowable syntax in names of files, depends on your implementation. See local manuals for the precise implications of <name> and "name".

A header file is typically an ordinary text file that contains a selection of the following in any order:

- definitions of constants ( #define PI 3.14 )
- definitions of macros ( #define ABS(x) ((x)<0 ? -(x) : (x)) )
- function prototypes ( int Pick( void ); )
- #include lines nominating similar files ( #include "YRHEAD.H" )

Standard header files, such as stdio.h and math.h, are available at every C installation. When your program invokes a standard function ( for example printf("Hi"); ) you have to know which standard header file contains its prototype. In the case of printf() it is stdio.h. To make printf() available, place #include <stdio.h> somewhere ahead of the function in which printf("Hi") occurs. The usual place is ahead of all functions defined in the file.

## FUNCTION PROTOTYPES

Home-made header files ( such as MYHEAD.H ) are useful for keeping a program tidy as it grows. Defining PI once only is better than defining it separately in each file. More importantly, an ANSI C processor will compile an invocation ( such as k=Pick( void ) ) only if it knows what type of value ( int, float, double, etc. ) the function should return, and what type each argument should take. The processor knows these facts if it has already met your definition of Pick() and compiled it. But what if the processor met k=Pick() before having seen and compiled the definition? The answer is that you should already have shown the processor a *prototype* of Pick(): a prototype contains all information necessary for compiling the invocation k=Pick().

The tidiest way to show prototypes is to make a header file for them and include that header file ( #include "MYHEAD.H" ). Then you need not worry whether the processor meets an invocation before having compiled the function invoked.

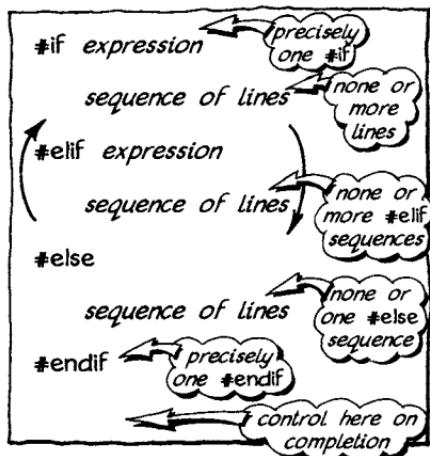
# CONDITIONAL PREPROCESSING

You can make the preprocessor deal with some sequences of lines in your input file and ignore others according to the conditions encountered during processing ~ such as including a file only if it is not already included.

The diagram shows the required arrangement of directives, expressions and lines to achieve conditional preprocessing.

The composition of expression is restricted to simple constants; don't include sizeof or a cast or an enumerated constant.

The preprocessor will deal with no more than one sequence of lines, and that's the first sequence encountered whose associated expression evaluates as non-zero (*true*). #elif means 'else if'. If all the #if and #elif expressions evaluate as zero (*false*) the preprocessor deals with the sequence following #else ~ but in the absence of an #else sequence the preprocessor does nothing. In every case the preprocessor ends by jumping to the line after the obligatory #endif.



#if (!defined Pi) || (!defined e)  
#define Pi 3.141593  
#define e 2.718  
#endif

Logical OR  
set both if either unset

An expression may involve the special 'operator' exclusive to the preprocessor. It has the form:

defined ( name )      or  
defined name

and takes the value 1L (*i.e.* unity expressed as a long int) if true; 0L if false. True signifies that the processor has already met the definition of name in the form:

define name text

The preprocessor coerces all its Boolean values to long int (1L, 0L).

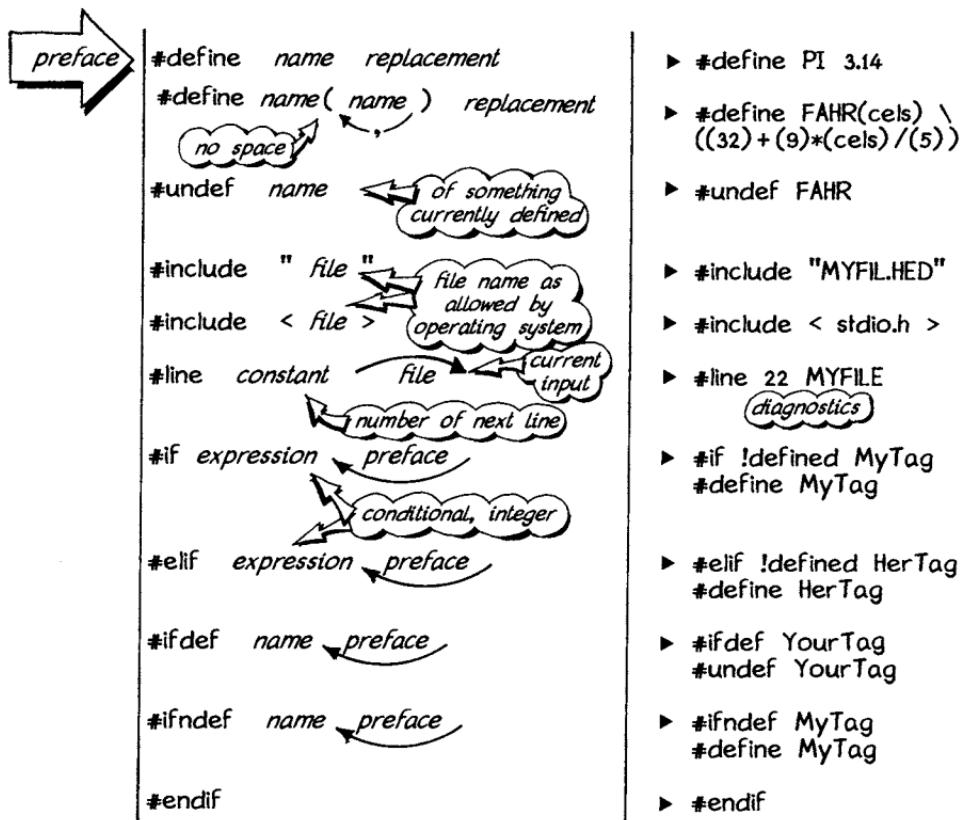
#if !defined YRTAG  
#include "YRHEAD.H"  
#define YRTAG  
#endif

Ansi C offers two directives, #ifdef and #ifndef, which you may use in place of #if in macros such as those illustrated above:

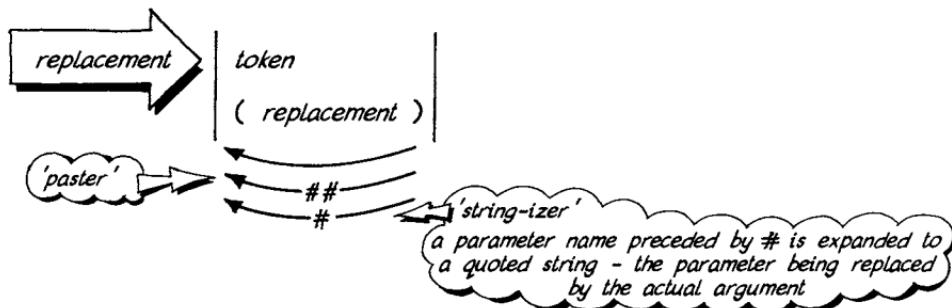
#ifdef name is short for #if defined name  
#ifndef name is short for #if !defined name

There are no corresponding short cuts to use with #elif.

The following diagram summarizes the syntax of a preprocessor directive. Each directive must be on a line of its own (possibly extended by \) preceding the program it is to modify.



where



# STORAGE CLASS

## THE BEHAVIOUR OF OBJECTS IN DIFFERENT CONTEXTS

The simple declarations illustrated earlier declare the type of a variable, and optionally supply an initial value. Such definitions may be preceded by a *qualifier* or *storage class specifier* or both:

```
int i = 6, j;  
float f;
```

*qualifier*

const  
volatile

new to  
ANSI C

*specifier*

auto  
register  
static  
extern

```
const float pi = 3.1416;
```

Any declaration qualified by const should be initialized ~~as~~ because the processor refuses to permit a subsequent assignment to the object, either directly or indirectly; const means it is constant.

The volatile qualifier has to do with 'optimizing compilers'; its precise behaviour depends on the installation, so consult local manuals about its purpose and possible usefulness.

Storage class specifiers say whether an object should be remembered or allowed to evaporate when control leaves the current function, whether a global object is global to one file or all files, whether a function is accessible from all files or just one, and so on.

```
auto int i = 6, j;  
register int k = 3, l;  
static float a, b, c, d;  
extern int p, q;
```

The significance of each storage class specifier depends on the context of the declaration. This subject is covered in detail in following pages. Here is a summary, much simplified:



Means the object evaporates when control leaves the current block. Objects declared inside blocks are auto by default, so auto declarations are seldom used



Means auto, plus a hint to the processor that it may store the variable in a fast register (at the cost of being refused access to it via an address).



Outside all functions: 'static' means the object or function can be accessed within the current file only



In a block; 'static' means the object and its contents are to be preserved when control leaves the current block



Tells the processor to look for a full definition elsewhere outside the current block or current file ~~as~~ and extend its scope to the current block or file.

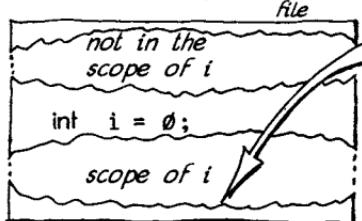
# OUTSIDE DECLARATIONS

RELEVANT SPECIFIERS: static & extern

'Outside' means outside all function definitions.

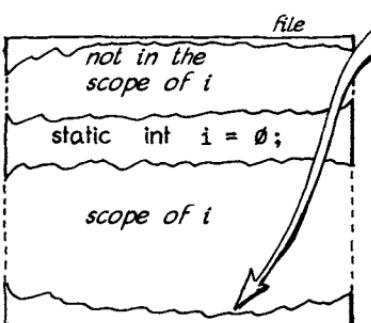
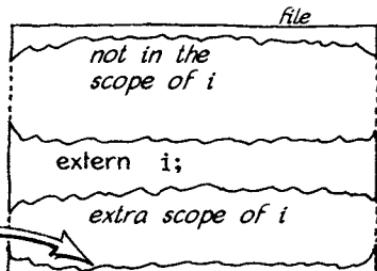
Objects declared outside function definitions are maintained throughout the program's run. They are said to be 'global.' Global objects provide a useful medium of communication between functions.

The 'scope' of an object is the region of program in which statements may refer to that object or change the contents of that object. This assumes the object is not hidden: 'visibility' is explained later.



The scope of an object defined without a specifier runs from the point of declaration to the end of the same file.

The scope of such an object may be extended to other files, or another region of the same file, by extern declaration. Each extra scope runs from the point of extern declaration to the end of that file.

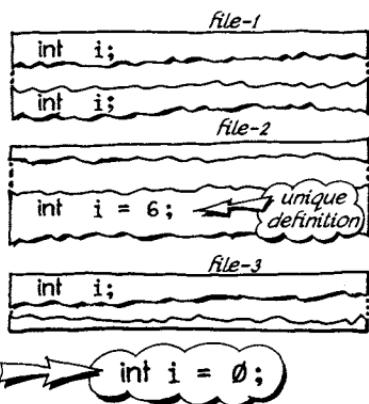


The scope of an object specified as static runs from the point of declaration to the end of the same file.

- In an outside declaration 'static' means private to the current file.
- An 'extern i' in the same file would refer to the same i.
- An 'extern i' in another file would not be associated with this static declaration.

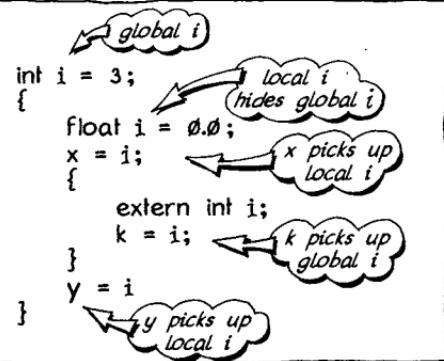
An outside declaration without an initializer is a *tentative definition*. There may be any number of tentative definitions throughout the program provided their types do not clash.

- If the linker finds a unique definition of the item it treats all tentative definitions as redundant declarations
- If the linker finds no unique definition it treats all tentative definitions as a single definition initialized to zero (or zeros).



**A**lthough an object may be 'in scope' it may nevertheless be hidden by the scope of a local declaration inside a block. Global i becomes 'invisible' in the scope of local i.

**I**n a deeper nested block you can hide the current scope of local i with an even more local i and so on to any depth. (In this example we use 'extern' to make global i hide local i in the same block.)



not in scope of Func()

extern int Func ( void );

extern implied  
by default

scope of Func()

Semicolon denotes a *prototype declaration*. The prototype declaration declares that statements between here and the end of the file may invoke Func(), whose *definition* is elsewhere.

In a prototype declaration the 'extern' is implied by default. In the example here, int Func( void ); would be enough.

**A** block instead of a semicolon denotes a full *definition* of Func(), its scope running from the closing brace to the end of the file. It is unnecessary to write a prototype following a definition.

not in the  
scope of Func()

static int Func ( void )  
{

block

}

scope of Func()

(the scope cannot be  
extended to other files)

not in the  
scope of Func()

int Func ( void )  
{

block

}

scope of Func()

(the scope can be  
extended to other files  
by extern)

**T**he scope of a function may be kept private to the file in which it is defined by declaring the definition *static*. This feature is useful for 'encapsulating' information, together with corresponding access functions, where no other functions can see them. Encapsulation is a vital principle of OOP (object-oriented programming).

# BLOCK DECLARATIONS

RELEVANT SPECIFIERS;  
auto, register, static, extern

An auto object, whether declared auto explicitly or by default, evaporates together with its contents when control leaves the current block.

```
{ register i;
```

A register variable behaves as an auto variable except that (i) you hint that storage in a fast register would be appropriate, and (ii) whether the processor takes the hint or not, ANSI C forbids taking a register variable's address.

```
{ int i = 2 * j + k;
```

If initialization of auto objects, or register variables, is 'dynamic', looking and behaving like assignment.

```
{ static int i;
```

Objects declared static are maintained throughout the program's run; they don't evaporate.

The initializer of a static object is evaluated at compile time; therefore it may involve only constants and sizeof.

```
{ static int i = 2 * sizeof(int);
```

```
{ extern int i;
```

An extern declaration in a block makes the linker look first at outside definitions in the current file. If the linker finds the outside declaration 'int i=6;', it takes this to be the i referred to by extern. The same would apply if the linker found a static definition like 'static int i = 6;'.

If the linker finds no outside definition of i in the current file, it assumes a unique definition exists elsewhere (in another file belonging to the program. (If 'int i=6' would be a valid definition of i, but 'static int i' in another file would be ignored because that particular i is exclusive to its own file.)

Because extern says that the object or function is defined outside the current block (whether in the same file or another) it follows that an object declared 'extern int i' will not evaporate when control leaves the current block.

```
{ extern int Func(void);  
{ int Func(void);
```

extern by default

This is a prototype declaration. It says that statements in the same block may invoke Func(), whose definition is outside (in the same or another file). The linker looks first in the current file. If it finds an

outside definition (beginning 'int Func(void)' { or 'static int Func(void)' { ) it takes this to be the Func() referred to by extern. If the linker finds no such definition of Func() in the current file it assumes the definition is to be found in another file (disregarding any declared static).

You cannot initialize an object declared extern anywhere. You cannot declare a function static if the prototype declaration is in a block.

```
extern int i = 6 ;  
{ extern int i = 7 ;  
static int Func(void);
```



# PARAMETER DECLARATIONS

THE ONLY ALLOWABLE  
SPECIFIER IS register

int Func( int i ) { *block* } Object i is private to { block }. When Func() is subsequently invoked from elsewhere (say as  $x = \text{Func}(2 * 3)$ ), object i gets initialized to 6, and the statements of block are obeyed. When control leaves the function, object i and its contents evaporate.

Parameters are intrinsically auto objects: don't specify auto, static or extern.

int Func( *auto*, *static*, *extern* int i )

int Func( register int i ) The processor may take the hint and store variable i in a fast register rather than a memory location. Whether it does so or not, ANSI C forbids taking the address of a register variable using &i or by indirect means.

int Func( int i, int j, int k ) On a call such as:  
 $s = \text{Func}(x * p, y * q, z * r);$   
you may not assume the order of evaluation of  $x * p$ ,  $y * q$ ,  $z * r$ . You may assume all are evaluated before entry to Func().

A parameter of a function may be a function. For full understanding you need to know about pointers (next chapter) but here is an example:

int Func( float MyFun() )

short for (\* MyFun) ↗

#include <stdio.h>  
#include <math.h>  
double Lookup( double LibFun(), double Argument )  
{  
 return LibFun( Argument );  
}  
  
void main( void )  
{  
 printf( "\n%f %f", Lookup( sqrt, 16 ), Lookup( log, 2.718 ) );  
}

function as parameter of a function ↗

names of <math.h> functions ↗

4.000000 0.999896 ↗

int Func( float MyArray[] )

short for (\* MyArray) ↗

A parameter of a function may be an array. For full understanding you need to know about pointers (next chapter) but here is an example of a function that swaps array elements:

void Switch( int A[], int i, int j )

match ↗  
int Temp = A[ i ];  
A[ i ] = A[ j ];  
A[ j ] = Temp ;

exchange elements  
3 & 6 of array B[]  
as follows:

Switch( B, 3, 6 );

# NAME SPACE

INTERACTION, CLASH & HIDING OF NAMES

The name of a macro in a #define directive gets substituted for identical tokens → to the end of the file or corresponding #undef. The only tokens immune to replacement are those in comments and quoted strings.

A keyword ( such as float ) can be replaced by the text of a macro. Otherwise keywords may be used only as keywords.

```
int Sam = Ø;  
float Sam[6];  
int Sam ( void );  
{  
    int Sim;  
    float Sim[4] = { 1, Ø, Ø, Ø };  
    enum Tag { Red, Green, Sim };
```

```
#define pi 3.14
```

```
area = pi*r*r;
```

```
}
```

```
#define float double
```

```
float a = 3.5; becomes double  
int goto = 6;
```

Among outside declarations, or at the same level of nesting in any one block, you may not give a variable the same name as an array, Furthermore, names must be unique among variables, arrays, functions, enumeration constants, and entities yet to be introduced ( viz. defined types, structures, unions ). At any one level all these share the same name space.

But you may use the same name at a different level of a block, thereby hiding the entity at the outer level.

An example of hidden names on Page 75 shows how you can 'unhide' a name at outer level using extern.

```
struct Tag1{ int i, float f };  
enum Tag2{ Red, Yellow, Green };  
struct Tag3{ char c, struct Tag1 };
```

these names  
mutually  
distinct

cross  
reference  
to tag OK

```
int Hid = 3;  
int MyFun( void )  
{  
    float Hid[3] = { 1, 3, 7 };
```

OK,  
hides  
int Hid

```
    double Hid;
```

OK  
hides  
Hid

Tags are names used to identify different enumerations, structures and unions. Tags share name space and so should be mutually distinct. But you may hide one tag with another at different level in the manner already illustrated for variables.

There is no interaction between names of tags and names of other entities.

The members of any one structure or union must be uniquely named, but there is no interaction between identically named members of different structures or unions.

```
if (Chaos) goto Lab1;
```

```
Lab1: printf ("Bad data");
```

```
struct OneStruct { int i, float f };  
struct TwoStruct { int i, float g };
```

OK

A goto statement specifies a name to match that of a label within the same function. In any one function all labels must be unique. There is no interaction between names of labels and names of any other entities in the same function.

# POINTERS, ARRAYS, STRINGS

This is probably the most important chapter in the book; the art of C is handling *pointers*. Pointers are closely associated with arrays, and arrays with strings.

The chapter begins by explaining the concept of a pointer and defines two operators, \* and &, with which to declare and manipulate pointers.

Because C works on the principle of 'call by value' you cannot return values from functions by altering the values stored in their parameters. But you can use pointers as parameters and make functions alter the contents of the objects they point to. This concept may appear tricky at first, but glorious when you can handle it confidently. The chapter spends some time on this concept.

When you add 2 to a pointer into an array, the pointer then points to the element two further along, regardless of the length of element. This is a property of *pointer arithmetic*, the subject next described in this chapter.

Most pointers point to objects, but you can make them point to functions as well. The chapter shows the correspondence between *pointers to arrays* and *pointers to functions*. You may care to skip this topic on first reading; likewise the next which analyses the structure of *complex declarations*. Complex declarations are easy to understand once you have felt the need to set up a data structure in which pointers point to other pointers.

To manipulate *strings* you need only simple pointers. The second half of this chapter explains strings and their use. Strings are simply character arrays designed to hold words and sentences. C programmers follow certain conventions in the structure of strings. These conventions are described.

# POINTERS

THE SPIRIT OF C

The idea behind pointers was introduced in the context of sorting, Page 63. The following statement causes the letters to be printed in order:

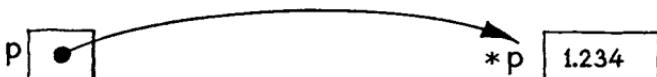
```
for ( k = 0; k < 8; ++k )
    printf ("\n%c", Letters[Pointers[k]]);
```

But this is too clumsy for C which has special variables and operators for handling pointers. If you find the concepts confusing, persevere! They become beautifully clear when the penny drops.

| Pointers | Letters |
|----------|---------|
| [0]      | G       |
| [1]      | B       |
| [2]      | L       |
| [3]      | I       |
| [4]      | C       |
| [5]      | N       |
| [6]      | M       |
| [7]      | H       |

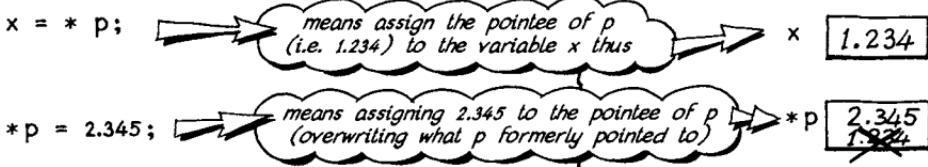
## \* OPERATOR

If p names a *pointer variable*,  $*p$  denotes the object currently pointed to by p.



**Terminology:** When a job is advertised, the one who appoints is called the *appointer*. The successful applicant is called the *appointee*. On the same linguistic principle, let the object indicated by the *pointer* be called the *pointee*.  $*p$  denotes the *pointee* of p.

The term  $*p$  (the pointee of p) may be used like the name of a variable:

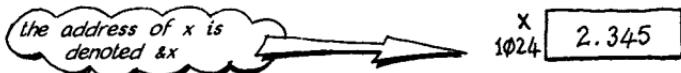


## & OPERATOR

Behind the scenes, pointer and pointee are linked by address.



The address of an object is denoted by the object's name, preceded by ampersand, to say 'the address of ...' or 'the value of pointers to...'



Point to x by assigning &x (you need not know it's 1024) to q, thus:

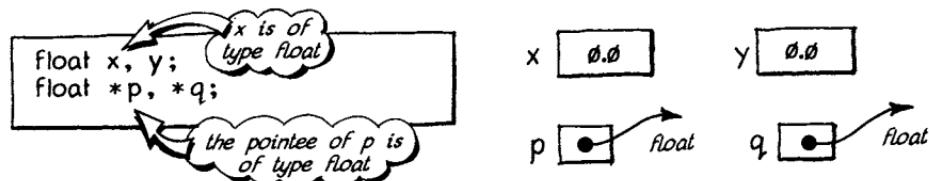


Now you can access the content of x via the pointer variable as \*q.

There is no further need to depict absolute addresses. Here is the picture that says it all:



## DECLARING POINTERS

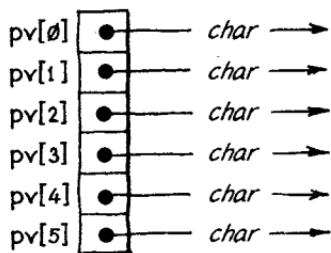


The first declaration establishes x and y as variables of type float in the usual way. The second declares 'pointer variables' named p and q, of which the pointees are of type float. In other words p and q are intended for pointing to variables of type float.

To declare a 'pointer variable' you tell the processor what type of object you intend to point to.

char \*pv[6];

The above declares an array of six elements, pv[0] to pv[5] (all pointers), their pointees being of type char.



int \* const coptr = & x;  
const int \* ptrcon;

Qualifiers apply to the nearest rightwards entity; coptr is a constant (initialized) pointer with an integer pointee; the pointee of ptrcon is a constant integer.

# PARAMETERS

USING POINTERS TO COMMUNICATE  
WITH FUNCTIONS VIA THEIR PARAMETERS

A common requirement in programming is the exchange of values held in a pair of variables or array elements.

Here is a block of 'in-line' code to exchange the values held in a pair of variables, i and j.

How about a function for swapping values?

```
void Swap ( char i, char j )  
{  
    int Temp = i;  
    i = j;  
    j = Temp;  
}
```



```
{  
    int Temp = i;  
    i = j;  
    j = Temp;  
}  
}
```

in-line code

This one is no good. Parameters in C are called by value. The function manipulates copies only.

Suppose your program had 2 stored in A, 3 stored in B. And suppose you invoked this function as:

Swap ( A, B );

The processor would enter the function, assigning a copy of the contents of A into i, a copy of the contents of B into j. It would then swap the contents of i and j, then return, leaving the contents of A and B undisturbed. No good! The trick is to employ pointers as parameters and swap their pointees.

The function on the right may be invoked as:

Swap ( & A, & B );

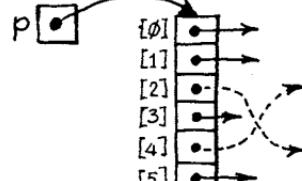
The processor enters the function assigning the address of A to i (which makes i point to A) and the address of B to j (which makes j point to B). The pointees of i and j are then exchanged.

The above function may be invoked with addresses of array elements as arguments (e.g. Swap ( &p[i], &p[j] )) or you may write a swapping function that has three parameters, the first nominating the array and the other two the subscripts. This function (which exchanges elements of an array of pointers to char) might be invoked as:

```
void Exch ( char *v[], int m, int n )  
{  
    char * Temp = v[m];  
    v[m] = v[n];  
    v[n] = Temp;  
}
```

type of Temp to match that of v[m]

Exch ( p, 2, 4 );



# QUICKSORT AGAIN

PROTOTYPES, POINTERS,  
POINTERS AS PARAMETERS

Here is the sorting function from Page 63 re-written with (i) prototypes to allow functions to be assembled in any order, (ii) an array of pointers (a pointer vector) instead of making do with integers, (iii) a function for exchanging the contents of array elements, (iv) a function for comparing entities. This arrangement keeps the sorting algorithm separate from the details of comparing and swapping. By writing replacement Comp() and Exch() functions you may use Qsort (unchanged except for the type declaration) to sort objects of any type.

```
#include < stdio.h >
void Qsort(char *[], int, int);
void Exch(char *[], int, int);
int Comp (char, char);
char *pv[100], Letters[100];
void main( void )
{
    int i, n, c;
    printf("\nType some letters & press Return\n");
    for (n=0; (c = getchar()) != '\n'; ++n)
    {
        Letters[n] = c;
        pv[n] = & Letters[n];
    }
    Qsort(pv, 0, n-1);
    for (i=0; i<n; ++i)
        printf("%c", *pv[i]);
}
```

```
void Qsort(char * p[], int i, int j)
{
    if (i < j)
    {
        int First=1, Last=j, Way=1, Temp;
        while (i != j)
        {
            if (Way == Comp (*p[i], *p[j]))
                Exch (p, i, j);
            Temp = i, i = j, j = Temp;
            Way = !Way;
        }
        j += (!Way - Way);
    }
    Qsort (p, First, i-1);
    Qsort (p, i+1, Last);
}
```

```
int Comp (char a, char b)
{
    return a>b;
```

prototypes

stops reading  
chars on  
Return

logic  
explained  
on Page 62

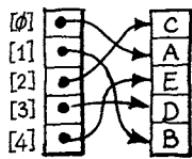
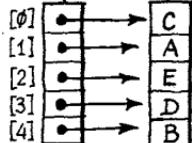
see foot of this page for Comp

append function Exch()  
shown at the foot of the  
opposite page

in-line code  
for swap

Comp() would be more complicated if it  
compared words rather than letters

pv Letters



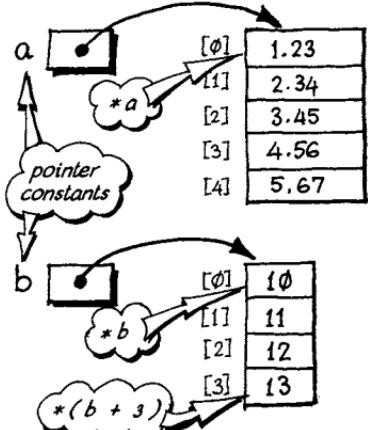
= ABCDE

# PONTER ARITHMETIC

AND A FRESH  
LOOK AT ARRAYS

Arrays were introduced earlier as named patterns of subscripted elements, the elements behaving like variables. Behind the scenes, however, subscripts of arrays are handled as pointers. Here is a fresh way to depict arrays:

```
Float a[] = { 1.23, 2.34, 3.45, 4.56 };  
int b[] = { 10, 11, 12, 13 };
```



An array is treated as a named 'pointer constant' pointing to the initial array element.

It follows that instead of writing  $a[0]$  you may write  $*a$  (the pointee of  $a$ ).

More than that! Instead of  $a[3]$  you may write  $*(a+3)$  (the 3rd element beyond the pointee of  $a$ ). Similarly  $*(b+3)$  for  $b[3]$ .

```
printf( "n%.2f", a[3] );  
printf( "n%.2f", *(a + 3) );
```

4.56  
4.56

```
printf( "n%i", b[3] );  
printf( "n%i", *(b + 3) )
```

13  
13

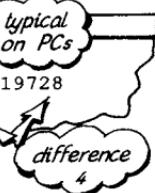
On a typical installation an element of  $a[]$  (type float) would be twice as long as an element of  $b[]$  (type int). To locate  $a[3]$  or  $b[3]$  the processor compensates for length. In one case the '3' signifies three times the length of a float, in the other it signifies three times the length of an int.

The same applies to  $*(a+3)$  and  $*(b+3)$ ; the '3' signifies the third element, whatever the types of  $a$  and  $b$ .

When you work with array subscripts, or with pointers, the processor takes care of types and their lengths;  $&a[1] - &a[0]$  yields 1 whatever the type of  $a$ .

```
printf( "n%i", sizeof( float ) );  
printf( "n%i %i", &a[1], &a[0] );  
printf( "n%i", &a[1]-&a[0] );
```

always 1

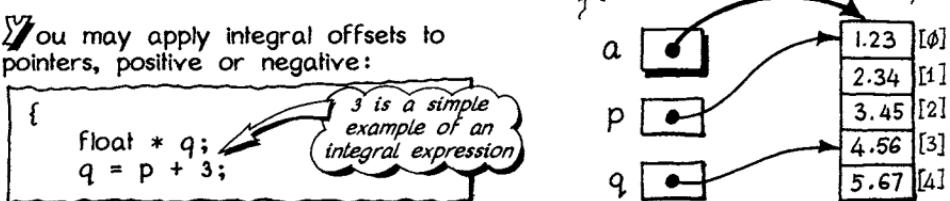


A corresponding example using pointers in place of array subscripts would involve the terms `&*a` and `&*(a+1)`. But the '`&`' says 'the address of the pointee of ...' which cancels itself out. So `&*a` is the same thing as `a`; `&*(a+1)` is the same thing as `a+1`. It follows that `&*(a+1)-&*a` is the same thing as `1`, being independent of the length of type `a`.

You may assign the value of a pointer-constant to a pointer-variable of compatible type:



But the converse is meaningless:  
Constants, by definition, are constant:



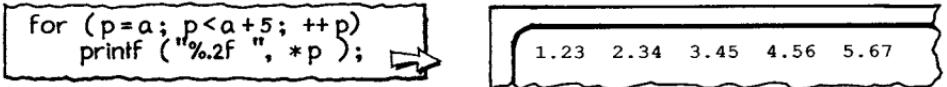
The constant `\emptyset` (if zero) may be assigned to a pointer-variable to signify that it is unset (no element can have an absolute address of zero). The header file `<stdio.h>` offers a zero constant, `NULL`, for indicating unset pointers.

You may subtract (never add) pointers that point into the same array. The result is integral and it could be large. Header file `<stddef.h>` offers the special type, `ptrdiff_t` for declaring variables in which to store such differences.



Negative subscripts are allowed provided they remain in bounds.

Exception: The pointer is allowed to point just one increment beyond the last element. In the following example, `p` ends up pointing to a non-existent element, `a[5]`. At that stage `*p` would be undefined.



Pointers into the same array may be compared using `>`, `>=`, `==`, `!=` etc.

The number of elements in an array may be found from:  
`sizeof arrayname / sizeof ( type )`

More neatly:  
`sizeof arrayname / sizeof arrayname[0]`

# PARLOUR TRICK

## MORE ARRAYS; MORE FUNCTIONS WITH POINTERS AS PARAMETERS

**A**maze your friends. Write down a long multiplication such as this; then start writing down the answer, digit by digit, from right to left, carrying all the working in a cool head.

The trick is mentally to reverse the bottom number, mentally shunting it leftwards past the top number. At each shunt multiply only the digits lying beneath one another, summing the products. Write down the last digit of this sum and carry the rest into the next shunt. The entire process is depicted down the right of the page.

To see how it works, consider each number as a polynomial in  $10$ . In every shunted position the products of terms lying one above the other yield the same power of  $10$ . Furthermore these terms are the *only* terms in the same power of  $10$  (but not forgetting the carry from above).

$$4 \times 10^3 + 6 \times 10^2 + \frac{7 \times 10^1}{9 \times 10^0} + \frac{5 \times 10^0}{3 \times 10^2}$$

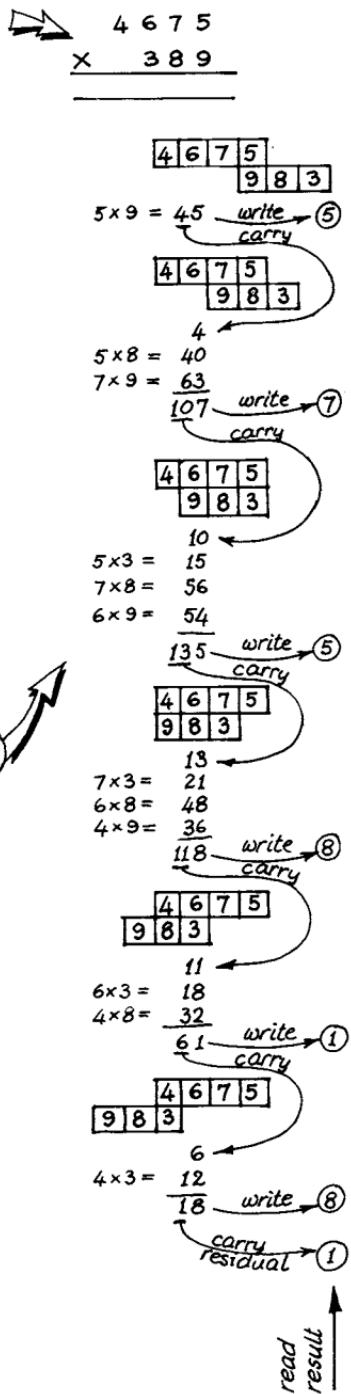
$$\underline{54 \times 10^2} + \underline{56 \times 10^2} + \underline{15 \times 10^2}$$

e.g. all the terms in  $10^2$

The program opposite automates the method of multiplication described above. It can cope with any reasonable length of multiplication by adjusting the constant OP (e.g. #define OP 35). As set opposite, the program can multiply terms as long as 35 digits, giving a product as long as 70 digits.

To use the program type two numbers separated by an asterisk and terminated by an equals sign. Then press Return.

The program offers another go. When fed up with it, hold down Ctrl and press C (or whatever it is you do on your particular implementation to abort a run ).



```

/* Any-length multiplication */
#include < stdio.h >
#define OP 20
int Read_Op ( int *, char );

```

```
void main ( void )
{
```

```

    long int sum;
    int a[OP], b[OP], c[OP+OP];
    int i, j, k, m, n, ch;
    while ( 1 )
    {
        i = Read_Op ( a, '*' );
        j = Read_Op ( b, '=' );

```

set desired limit of operand

prototype of Read-operand function

```

        n = i + j;
        sum = 0;
        for ( k=n; k>=0; --k )

```

length of product accommodates operators

invoke function with pointer to array a[] then with pointer to array b[]

```

            for ( m=k; m>=0; --m )
                if ( m<=i && (k-m)<=j )
                    sum += a[ m ] * b[ k-m ];
                c [ n-k ] = sum % 10; ← pick off last digit
                sum /= 10; ← carry sum
        }
        if ( sum )
            c [ ++n ] = sum; ← final carry if not zero
        while ( n+1 )
            printf ( "%i", c [ n-- ] ); ← print result
        printf ( "\n" );
    }
}
```

```
int Read_Op ( int *p, char Xit )
{
```

```

    int r, Ch;
    for ( r=0; ( Ch = getchar(), ) != Xit; ++r )
        if ( Ch >= '0' && Ch <='9' ) ← accept only digits
            p[r] = Ch - '0';
        else
            --r; ← ignore non-digit
    return --r;
}
```

return subscript of last digit

pointer to int

invoke with '\*' or '='

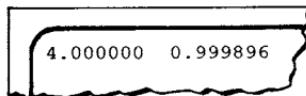
The function for reading the operands terminates on the character you specify as the second parameter. It reads the digits into the array pointed to by the first parameter. The function returns the subscript of the final digit; thus if the function reads a seven digit number (0 through 6) the function returns 6.

# POINTERS TO FUNCTIONS

*YOU MAY CARE TO SKIP  
THIS ON FIRST READING*

The demonstration program on Page 77 is reproduced below.

```
#include < stdio.h >
#include < math.h >
double Lookup ( double LibFun ( ), double Argument )
{
    return LibFun ( Argument );
}
void main ( void )
{
    printf ("\n%f %F", Lookup ( sqrt, 16 ), Lookup ( log, 2.718 ) );
}
```



The program shows that one function (`Lookup()`) may have another function (`LibFun()`) as a parameter. When you invoke `Lookup()` you provide the name of an available function as an argument in place of the dummy parameter. In essence, you follow the same pattern as for numerical parameters.

But 'double LibFun()' is actually an allowable shorthand form of:

double (\* LibFun) ( )  
return type necessary parentheses;  
                  ( ) binds tighter than \*

The parentheses around \* LibFun are needed because () binds tighter than \*. Without parentheses this parameter would parse as double \* ( LibFun () ) which says 'Function returning pointer to a double'. With parentheses as shown it reads:

'LibFun is a pointer to a function that returns a double.'

You may find the concept easier from a different point of view:

double (\*LibFun)() The full declaration

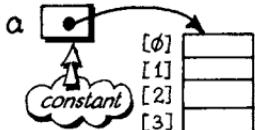
\*  This shape signifies a pointee (something pointed to)

This part of a pointee identifies the pointer of the pointee, in our case LibFun:  
'LibFun is a pointer pointing to ...'

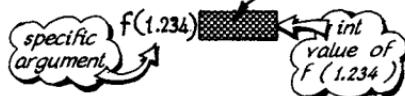
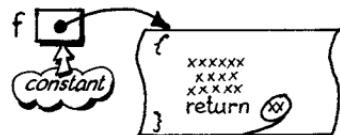
double  ( ) This shape declares a function that returns a double.  
'LibFun is a pointer to a function returning a double.

So a function name (`sqrt` or `log` in the program above) is a *constant pointer*. The concept of array names is similar; an array name is a *constant pointer* to the beginning of that array; see the depictions opposite.

```
int a[4];
```

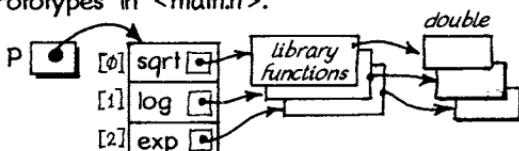


```
int f(double d);
```



Here is a demonstration program to take the concept a step further. Given a number, the program prints its square root, log and anti-log. These are library functions with prototypes in `<math.h>`.

The data structure is depicted here. `P` names an array of pointers (function names) to library functions.



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

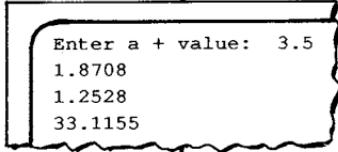
void main ( void )
{
    double r, v;
    int i;
    double (*P[])() = { sqrt, log, exp };
    printf ("\nEnter a + value: ");
    scanf ("%lf, &v");
    For ( i=0; i<3; ++i );
    {
        r = (*P[i])(v);
        printf ("\n%.4F", r );
    }
}
```

contains prototypes  
double sqrt (double ); etc.

declaration analysed below

array initialized with function pointers ( i.e. function names )

`(sqrt)(v) then  
(log)(v) then  
(exp)(v)`



The complicated declaration may be analysed in the manner shown opposite:

```
double ( * P [ ] ) ( )
```

Mind the precedence! [] binds tighter than \*. Implied parentheses are shown here.

```
P [ ]
```

This nominates an array element

```
* [ ]
```

The pointee of any element `P[i]` is

```
double [ ] ( )
```

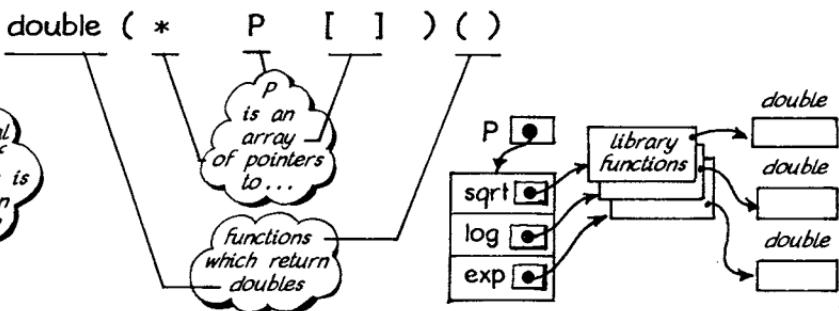
... a function that returns a double.

'`P` is an array of pointers, each of which points to a function (having unspecified parameters) that returns a double'

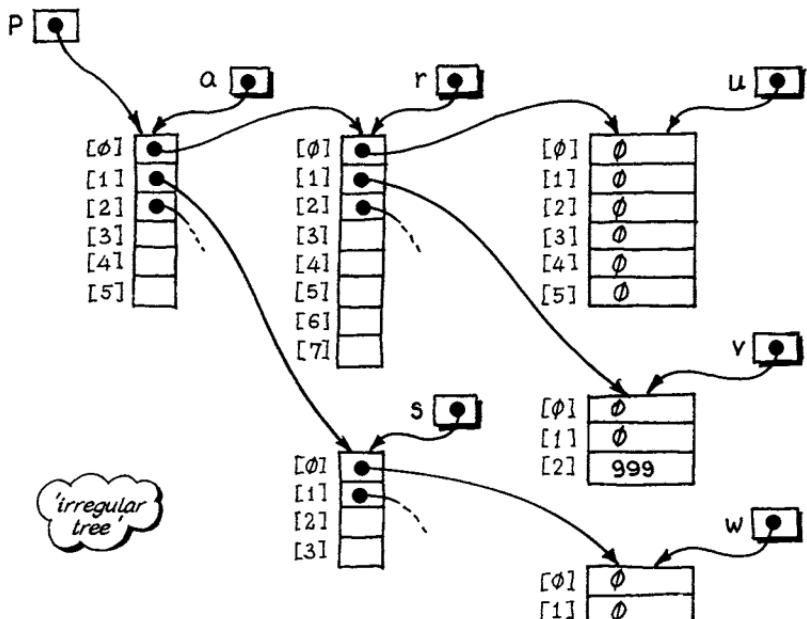
# COMPLEX DECLARATIONS

YOU MAY CARE TO SKIP  
ON FIRST READING

A complex declaration is illustrated on the previous page. Here it is again, analysed as a 'parse tree':



Here is a data structure involving arrays of pointers to arrays:



The demonstration program opposite shows how such a structure may be set up; first by declaring the arrays, then by linking pointers to addresses. The structure may be described by analogy with a tree having a root, branches and leaves.

The program shows how to access a particular leaf from each junction on the path from the root. Notice how the expressions for access suggest and reflect the array declarations.

```
#include < stdio.h >
void main ( void )
{
    int u[6], v[] = { 0, 0, 999 }, w[2];
    int (*r[8])[], (*s[4])[];
    int (*(*a[6]))[], (*(*(*p))[])[]);
}
```

*3 implied by initializer*

*sizes of all arrays must be specified or implied by initializer*

```
p = &a;
a[0] = &r;
a[1] = &s;
r[0] = &u;
r[1] = &v;
s[0] = &w;
```

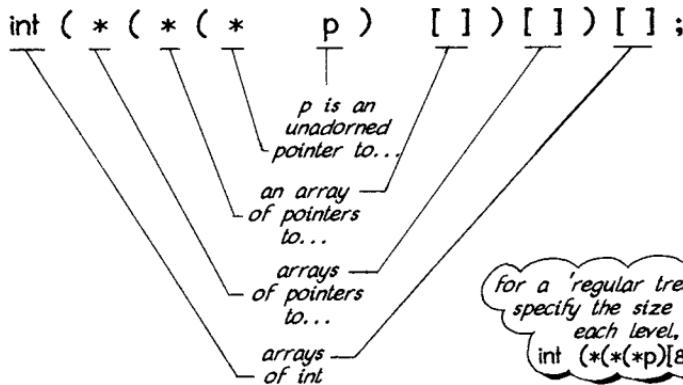
*Link pointers to addresses*

```
printf ("\n%i", v[2]);
printf ("\n%i", (*r[i])[2]);
printf ("\n%i", (*(*a[0]))[i][2]);
printf ("\n%i", (*(*(*p))[0])[i][2]);
```

999  
999  
999  
999

*change subscripts to access any other leaf*

Here is a 'parse tree' for the declaration of p:



*for a 'regular tree' you would specify the size of array at each level, e.g.*

```
int (*(*(*p)[8])[6])[10];
```

In the expressions for access to the same leaf (which mirror the declarations of pointer vectors) climb back from leaf to root by replacing each local array name with the pointee from the previous level. For example, both v and r[i] point to the same place, so replace v with the pointee of r[i]. Follow this on the diagram apposite:

```
printf ("\n%i", v[2]);
printf ("\n%i", (*r[i])[2]);
printf ("\n%i", (*(*a[0]))[i][2]);
printf ("\n%i", (*(*(*p))[0])[i][2]);
```

*replace v with (\*r[i])*

*replace r with (\*a[0])*

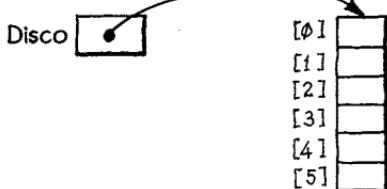
*replace a with (\*p)*

# STRINGS

## THE USUAL FORM OF A CHARACTER ARRAY

Here is an array of characters initialized from a list of character constants:

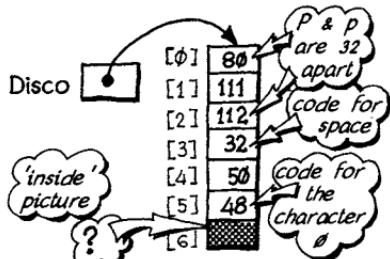
```
char Disco [ ] = { 'P', 'o', 'p', ' ', '2', '0' } ;
```



When working with character arrays it is useful to append an extra element to mark the end of the array. Advantages of this approach are demonstrated at length later.

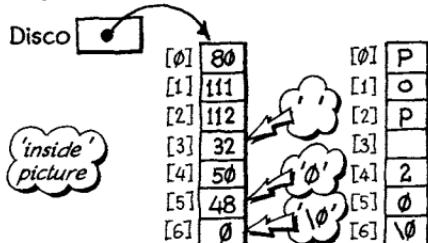
What character do we use for the marker?

To appreciate the problem, consider how characters are represented inside the computer. Many implementations represent characters by their ASCII codes. (I have shown ASCII codes as decimal numbers; the computer would store them as binary numbers.)



The answer is to use zero for the marker, not '0' (which has an ASCII code of 48) but an internal code of zero. Use the escape sequence \0 to represent the internal code of zero.

```
char Disco [ ] = { 'P', 'o', 'p', ' ', '2', '0', '\0' } ;
```



An array of characters terminated by a zero marker is called a string (or string array).

To initialize a string, C offers the following short cut:

```
char Disco [ ] = "Pop 20" ;
```

counted to 7 automatically

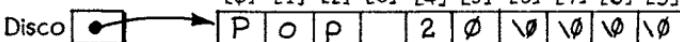
spaces are significant

\0 appended automatically

The zero marker is included in the count. The same result would be got from `char Disco[7] = "Pop 20"`. But `char Disco[6] = "Pop 20"` is an error, a likely result being the loss of the zero marker.

`Disco[10] = "Pop 20"` would create a string with zeros in the extra elements:

[0] [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] [8] [9]



# STRING ARRAYS

POINTER IS A CONSTANT;  
STRING IS MALLEABLE

char Disco [ ] = "Pop 20";

string array

[0] [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6]

Disco [ ] → P o p   2 0 \0

pointer constant

You may not assign to a constant:



Disco = p;

But you may change the contents of elements in the array provided you do not try to extend it.

Disco [0] = 'T';

Disco [1] += 'A' - 'a';

Disco [2] += 'A' - 'a';

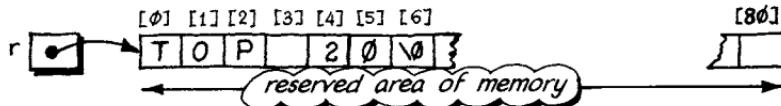
[0] [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6]

T O P   2 0 \0

Programs which manipulate strings typically declare a set of string arrays, each of adequate length. An example is :

char r[81], s[81], t[81],

where the string currently in each array may grow to a length of 80 characters (and its terminating '\0').



## STRING POINTERS

POINTERS VARIABLE;  
ANY STRING IS CONSTANT

char \*p, \*q, \*Gig = "TUNE";

string pointers

p [ ] q [ ]

p and q can point only to characters  
they point nowhere at present

Gig [ ] → T U N E \0

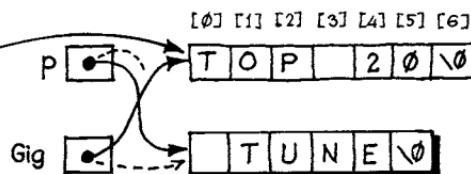
Gig is initialized to a  
constant string

Although you may find it possible to alter a string constant (e.g. Gig[2] = 'O' to change "TUNE" to "TONE") the outcome would be undefined.

But you may freely assign pointers (including pointers to constant strings) to pointer variables:

p = Gig;  
Gig = Disco;

Disco [ ]



# PRINTING STRINGS

A call to the printf() function ( defined in <stdio.h> ) takes the form:

printf ( string , expression )

The string contains as many descriptors as there are expressions following. So far we have met %i, %f, %c. There is also %s for the substitution of a string defined by its pointer:

printf ( "%s TO %s", p, Gig );

TUNE TO TOP 20

All examples of printf have so far shown string as a literal string ( in other words in quotes ). But wherever a string is demanded, you may provide either a literal string or a pointer to a string. There should be a zero marker at the end of the string.

printf ( Gig );  
printf ( p );

CAREFUL!  
if Gig or p contained %,  
printf would look for an extra  
argument to match each %

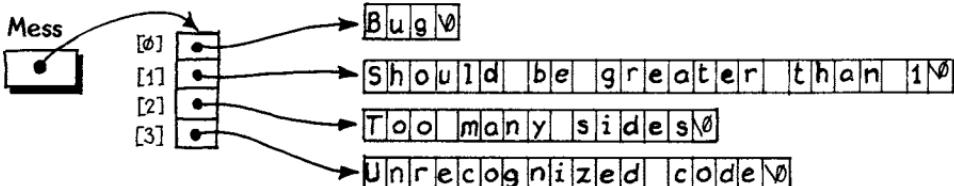
TOP 20 TUNE

## RAGGED ARRAYS

NO NEED FOR EVERY ROW  
TO BE THE SAME LENGTH

It is sometimes useful to store a set of constant strings such as names of days of the week ("Monday", "Tuesday",...) or error messages addressed to the user of your program:

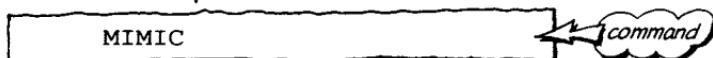
```
void ErrCode ( int n )
{
    static char *Mess[] = { array private to ErrCode
        "Bug",
        "Should be greater than 1",
        "Too many sides",
        "Unrecognized code"
    }
    int s = sizeof Mess[] / sizeof Mess[0] - 1;
    n = ( n > s || n < 0 ) ? 0 : n;
    printf ("Error No. %i: %s!", n, Mess[n]);
}
```



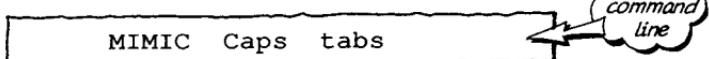
# COMMAND LINE

CATERING FOR OPTIONS  
WHEN YOU RUN THE PROGRAM

The way to set a C program running depends on the implementation. Typically you type a *command* nominating the file in which the executable program is stored, then press Return.



A program may be written that demands (or will accept as an option) extra information in the command line:



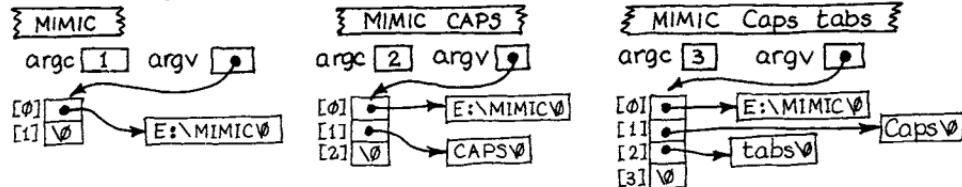
The manual that explains how to use such a program might define the allowable command line by a syntax diagram like this:



The options are automatically handed to function main() provided that you give main() two parameters: the first is of type int, the second is an array of pointers to char. Conventionally these are called argc and argv[] respectively:

```
void main ( int argc, char * argv [ ] )
```

The processor parses the command line into strings, recording their number (at least one) in argc, and setting up a pointer vector terminated by NULL (as depicted below):



Here is a program that lists the arguments corresponding to its command-line parameters, excluding the name of the program file:

```
# include < stdio.h >  
  
void main ( int argc, char * argv [ ] )  
{  
    while ( -- argc )  
        printf ("%s\n", * ++ argv );  
}
```

the pointee of the augmented argc

to list the full command line, change --argc to argc-- and change ++argv to \*argv++

MIMIC Irish? No, I can't.  
Irish?  
No,  
I  
can't.

# PARAMETER COUNTING . . . )

The printf() function is defined in Chapter 7 as follows:

```
int printf ( const char *, ... );
```

first parameter  
a string

the ellipsis denotes an  
unspecified number of  
arguments

Examples of invocations (each with a different number of arguments) are:

```
printf ( "\nThere are %i lumps weighing %f grams", n, w );
```

%i says the  
first argument  
will be an int

%f says the second  
argument will be in  
floating form

parameters for  
the two extra  
arguments expected

```
printf ( "\nAnswer is %i", count );
```

one extra argument  
expected

You can write functions such as this, in which there is at least one fixed argument followed by an unspecified number of extra arguments. The header file <stdarg.h> defines a tool kit for retrieving the extra arguments. The tools are described below:

```
#include < stdarg.h >
```

va\_list ap ;  
name of  
a pointer  
a special pointer type

First declare a pointer to the  
list of extra arguments

va\_start ( ap, n ) ;

Place this ahead of your first  
use of va\_arg()

name of the  
argument-  
pointer

name of last fixed  
parameter in the  
declaration of this  
function

Place this below your last use  
of va\_arg()

va\_end ( ap ) ;

name of the  
argument-  
pointer

i = va\_arg ( ap, int ) ;

va\_arg  
returns the  
next extra  
argument

type-name describing  
the type of argument  
expected next  
may not be char,  
unsigned char, or float

Place any number of these  
between va\_start() and  
va\_end(). Each invocation of  
va\_arg() returns the next  
extra argument and treats it as  
having the type you specify.

Here is a function to compute the arithmetic mean of its extra parameters. It has only one fixed parameter, and that is to convey the number of extra arguments you supply:

```
#include < stdarg.h > // prototypes of va_arg() etc.  
#include < stdio.h >  
double Mean ( int Count, ... )  
{  
    int n;  
    double Sum=0; // declare ap as pointer to  
    va_list ap; // va_list  
    va_start ( ap, Count ); // make ap point to the first extra  
    for ( n = 0; n < Count; ++n ) // argument ( after count )  
        Sum += va_arg ( ap, double ); // pick up each extra argument in  
    va_end ( ap ); // turn - treating it as a double  
    return Sum / Count; // tidy up  
}
```

Here is a test-bed for the function. It is tested on four, two and one extra arguments respectively;

```
void main ( void )  
{  
    printf ( "\n\n%F", Mean(4, 1.5, 2.4, 3.6, 2.8) ); // argument for  
    printf ( "\n%F", Mean(2, 1.2, 3.6) ); // fixed parameter  
    printf ( "\n%F", Mean(1, 6.7) );  
}
```

|          |
|----------|
| 2.575000 |
| 2.400000 |
| 6.700000 |

By now you should have spotted a fundamental weakness in the argument-retrieval scheme: you have to tell the function how many extra arguments to expect, and what the type of each will be. There is no equivalent of the 'argc' and 'argv' parameters of function main().

There are three distinct ways of telling the function how many extra arguments to expect:

- As in the example above, use one of the fixed parameters as a counter; or
- Let the final extra argument act as a marker. For example, if all arguments should be positive numbers, terminate the argument list with -1 and watch for this signal when reading them with va\_arg(); or
- Use the idea found in printf(), scanf(), et al. The last fixed parameter is a string; each occurrence of % in the string signifies the expectation of a corresponding extra argument in the list that follows. Furthermore, the style code ( %i, %f, %s etc.) tells what type the expected argument should be. You can handle a range of distinct types with a switch statement having a different va\_arg() for each case.

# STRING UTILITIES

A SET OF FUNCTIONS  
FOR MANIPULATING STRINGS

Much of programming is concerned with strings. The ANSI C library offers about thirty string-handling functions that cover everything one would want to do. Here we develop a similar, but smaller, set of functions which nevertheless covers most of what one needs. Some resemble functions in the library, others are different (particularly the one for reading strings from the keyboard).

## READ FROM KEYBOARD

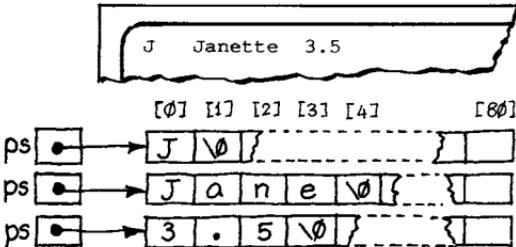
int KeyString ( char \*, int(), int );

This is a function for reading strings typed at the keyboard.

An example of a call is:

KeyString ( ps, Spaces, 4 );

Which serves to read and ignore leading spaces, then to read up to four characters into the array pointed to by ps, then to read and ignore any remaining characters in that string ( e.g. 'tte' in 'Janette' ).



Strings typed at the keyboard may be terminated in the usual way ( whitespace ) or by any other characters you care to list. Name a function and list your selection. For example:

```
int Punctuators ( char t )
{
    return (t=='\t') + (t==' ') + (t=='\n') + (t==';');
}
```

The above causes termination on tab, space, new line, semicolon. The function below terminates the item on reading a space or new line only.

```
int Spaces ( char t )
{
    return (t==' ') + (t=='\n');
}
```

The third function ( below ) terminates the item on reading new line only. In other words it gets the next line of input:

```
int Lines ( char t )
{
    return (t=='\n');
}
```

get next  
line

The first parameter of KeyString() points to the array into which the string from the keyboard buffer is to go, the second nominates the termination function, the third specifies the maximum number of characters to be stored in the receiving array ( the 'significant' characters ).

```

/* READ NEXT STRING FROM KEYS */
int KeyString ( char *p, int TermFunc(char), int length )
{
    int c;
    char *s;
    if ( length < 1 ) return 1;
    s = p + length - 1;
    while ( TermFunc ( c=getc( stdin ) ) && c != EOF );
    ungetc( c, stdin );
    while ( !TermFunc ( c=getc( stdin ) ) && c != EOF )
        if ( p < s )
            *p++ = c;
    *p = '\0';
    return (c == EOF) ? EOF : 0;
}

```

Annotations:

- short for `(*TermFunc)`
- `c=getc(stdin)` is the same as `c=getchar()`
- constant in `stdio.h` signals end of file
- return 1 if erroneous call
- return `c` to input for next `getc()` to read
- return EOF signal if end of file
- return `\0` if OK

Two features of this function need clarification:

- `ungetc()` causes the nominated character to be 'pushed back' on the nominated stream (in this case `stdin`) to be picked up by the next `getc()`.
- EOF is a constant defined in `<stdio.h>` (in several processors it takes the value `-1`). EOF is what you get if you read when there is nothing more on the input stream to be read. With every processor there is a way of sending EOF from the keyboard. With DOS systems you hold down Ctrl and press Z. Consult your particular manual on what to press.

Below is a little test bed for demonstrating the `KeyString()` function. To try the test bed, run it and type:

Note: This function is useful!

and press Return.

The screen responds:

Note terminated by semicolon

This func is usef specified truncation in call to KeyString

```

/* TEST BED FOR KeyString */
#include < stdio.h >
int KeyString ( char, int (*) (), int );
int Punctuators ( char );
void main ( void )
{
    int i;
    char String [ 81 ];
    while ( 1 )
    {
        i=KeyString( String, Punctuators, 4 );
        printf ("\n%s", String );
        if ( i == EOF )
            break;
    }
}

```

append `KeyString()`, and `Punctuators()`

Type other sentences.  
Finish with EOF.

# WHAT KIND OF CHARACTER ?

The following two functions work for ASCII code in which letters are numbered contiguously. EBCDIC code would require some complication.

```
/* NOT FOR EBCDIC: Returns 1 if c is a capital, otherwise 0 */
int IsCap ( char c )
{
    return c >= 'A' && c <= 'Z' ;
}
```

```
/* NOT FOR EBCDIC: Returns 1 if c is a letter, otherwise 0 */
int IsLetter ( char c )
{
    return IsCap(c) || ( c >= 'a' && c <= 'z' );
}
```

The next two functions work for any code. For IsVowel() a static array is initialized at compile time and scanned on each call.

```
/* ANY CODE: Returns 1 if c is a vowel, otherwise 0 */
int IsVowel ( char c )
{
    static char v [ ] = "EeAaIiOoUu";
    char * p ;
    p = v ;
    while ( *p && (*p != c) )
        ++p;
    return *p == c;
}
```

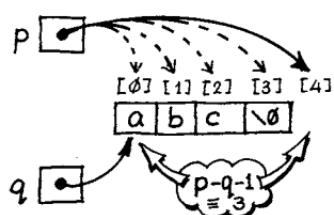
```
/* ANY CODE: Returns 1 if c is a digit, otherwise 0 */
int IsDigit ( char c )
{
    return c >= '0' && c <= '9' ;
}
```

# HOW LONG IS A STRING ?

LENGTH EXCLUDING THE NULL

To compute the length of a string, take a copy of its pointer. Then increment the pointer, stopping when its pointee is  $\backslash 0$  (False). The length of string, excluding the  $\backslash 0$  element, is 1 less than the difference between the augmented and original pointers.

```
int StringLen ( char * p )
{
    char * q = p ;
    while ( * p ++ )
        ;
    return p - q - 1 ;
}
```

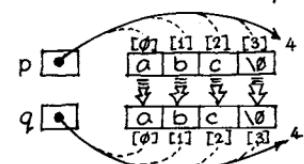


# COPYING STRINGS

COPY ALL, COPY A PART,  
COPY & CONCATENATE

If you want *q* to point to the string pointed to by *p*, simply copy pointers thus: *q* = *p*. But sometimes copying pointers will not do; you have to copy a string, element by element, to another location. To do this, copy the pointee of *p* to the pointee of *q*, then increment both *q* and *p*, stopping when the pointee of *p* is '\0'.

```
void StringCopy ( char * p, char * q )
{
    while ( * q = * p )           // it loops until
        ++ q, ++ p;               // is copied to *q
}
```



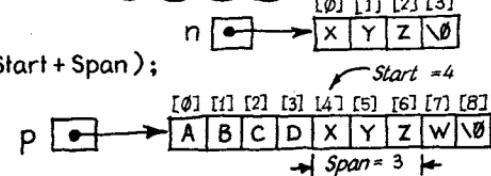
And here is an even more terse version:

```
void StringCopy ( char * p, char * q )
{
    while ( * q ++ = * p ++ );
}
```

null statement

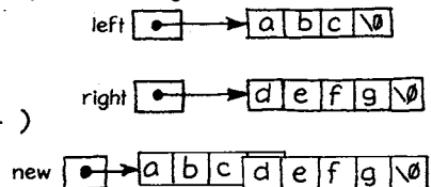
The next function copies part of a string. You give the position of the starting character and the number of characters to be copied to the new location.

```
void Middle ( char * n, char * p, int Start, int Span )
{
    int L = StringLen ( p );
    if ( Start >= 0 && Start < L && Span > 0 )           // conditions to be met
    {
        if ( Start + Span > L )                         // if Span overlaps end of
            Span = L - Start;                            // string, truncate it
        *(n+Span) = '\0';
        while ( Span -- )
            *(n+Span) = *(p+Start+Span);
    }
    else
        * n = '\0';
}
```



The final copying utility copies two strings, locating them end to end as a new string. A typical call is Concat (N, L, R); the only overlapping allowed is Concat (L, L, R). Either original string may be empty.

```
void Concat ( char * new, char * left, char * right )
{
    if ( * left )
        while ( * new ++ = * left ++ )           // step back over \0
            new --;                                // new = a b c d e f g \0
    while ( * new ++ = * right ++ )
        ;
}
```



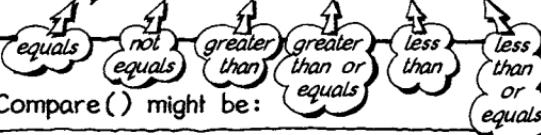
# COMPARING STRINGS

ONE WITH ANOTHER  
OR PART OF ANOTHER

When comparing strings, is "Twine" equal to "twine"? And do we want to test for equality or for relative ordering? The function Compare() offers parameters by which to specify both such requirements.

To make the parameters meaningful, create two types: enum Mode and enum Logic, by the following declarations:

```
enum Mode { Distinct, Equiv };  
enum Logic { eq, ne, gt, ge, lt, le };
```



A call to Compare() might be:

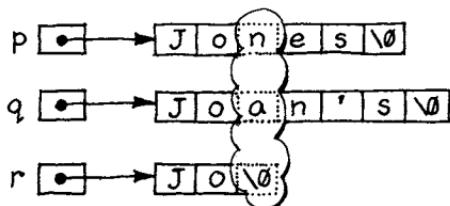
```
Ok = Compare ( p, eq, q, Equiv );
```

Which sets Ok to 1 if strings p and q are equal on the assumption that upper and corresponding lower-case letters are equivalent:

```
Ok = Compare ( ps, gt, "Wilkins", Equiv );
```

The above would set Ok to 1 if the string pointed to by ps is to be placed above "Wilkins" in a sorted list like a telephone directory.

The function assumes '`'a' < 'b' < 'c'` etc. and distinguishes strings on their first non-matching character. Thus "Jones" is greater than "Joan's" because '`'n' > 'a'`'. Also, "Jo" is less than "Joan's" because '`\0 < 'a'`'.



Punctuation marks and other characters are ordered according to their internal codes. In ASCII, for example, an apostrophe is less than a full stop, so "X's" precedes "X.s" in a sorted list. One would expect "Buzzg" to precede "Buzz\0" but the criterion is the first non-matching character; g is greater than \ so "Buzz\0" precedes "Buzzg" in the sorted list (not nice).

To handle case distinction or equivalence we call on the function Uc() shown below:

```
/* NOT FOR EBCDIC: Returns upper case equivalent of c */  
/* if c is a lower case and letter and if Mode is Equiv */ .
```

```
char Uc ( char c, enum Mode M )  
{  
    return ( M && ( c >= 'a' ) && ( c <= 'z' ) ) ? c + 'A' - 'a' : c ;  
}
```

Mode  
Distinct

Mode  
Equiv

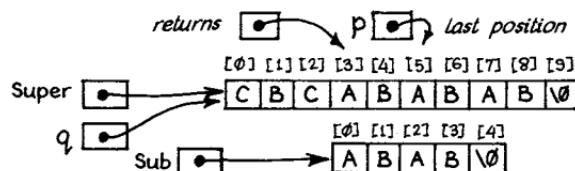
```

/* Compare two strings for equality (0), non-equality (1), etc. */
/* with Equiv case (0) or Distinct case (1) */
int Compare (char *p, enum Logic L, char *q, enum Mode M)
{
    L %= 6; ensures range 1 to 5
    while (*p && *q && (Uc(*p,M)==Uc(*q,M)) )
        p++, q++;
    switch(L)
    {
        case 0: return *p == *q;
        case 1: return *p != *q;
        case 2: return Uc(*p, M) > Uc(*q, M);
        case 3: return Uc(*p, M) >= Uc(*q, M);
        case 4: return Uc(*p, M) < Uc(*q, M);
        case 5: return Uc(*p, M) <= Uc(*q, M);
    }
    return 0;
}

```

The second comparing function finds the first occurrence of a short string in a long string. If a match is found, the function returns a pointer to the starting character of the matching portion in the long string.

If no match is found the function returns a NULL pointer. NULL is defined in <stdio.h>.



The mode of comparison (cases Distinct or cases Equiv) may be specified as for the Compare() function.

```

/* Finds first occurrence of substring in superstring */
/* Returns pointer to substring in superstring, or NULL */
char * Instr(char *Super, char *Sub, enum Mode M)
{
    char *p, *q;
    int i;
    q = Super;
    p = q + StringLen(q) - StringLen(Sub);
    if (p >= q)
    {
        while (q <= p)
        {
            for(i=0; *(Sub+i) && Uc(*(q+i),M) ==
                Uc(*(Sub+i),M); ++i)
                ;
            if (!*(Sub+i)) return q;
            ++q;
        }
        return NULL;
    }
}

```

# BACKSLANG

Isthay isay Ackslangbay! Ancay ouyay eadray itay? Erhapspay otnay atay irstfay.

**B**ackslang is a secret language spoken in boarding schools. It is suitably incomprehensible when heard for the first time but easy to master once you know the grammatical rules. There are probably many dialects of Backslang (also called *pig Latin*); this one is remembered from school days. Each English word is folded about its first vowel and *ay* is appended (tea → eatay, tomato → omatolay). If a word begins with a vowel, the second vowel becomes the pivot (item → emitay) unless there is no second vowel, in which case there is no fold (itch → itchay). A diphthong at the beginning of a word is treated as a single vowel (oil → oilay not iloay; earwig → igearway not arrigeay).

**A** capital letter at the beginning of a word has to be transformed (Godfather → Odfathergay not odfatherGay). The *u* after *g* demands special treatment (Queen → Eenuay not ueenQay). A trailing punctuation mark has to remain trailing (Crumbs! → Umbs!crary not Umbs!cray).

**O**pposite is a header file and main program for encoding a sentence into Backslang.

**W**hen you run the program it waits for you to type a sentence and press Return. Type:

This is Backslang! Can you read it? Perhaps not at first.

**T**he program encodes and responds with:

Isthay isay Ackslangbay! Ancay ouyay eadray itay? Erhapspay otnay atay irstfay.

**T**ype another sentence and press Return until fed up with it. Stop (after space or new line) by holding down Ctrl and pressing Z (or whatever you do to send EOF from your keyboard) then press Return.

**T**here are checks this program fails to make. Numbers are not respected at all: 356 comes out as 35ay6 (can you see why?). Punctuation marks are catered for only at the end of a word (Backslang! comes out as Ackslangbay!). A punctuation mark in front of or inside a word is treated as if it were a consonant ("Think" becomes ink"Thay" and Joan's becomes Oans'jay). And a sentence can only be as long as the keyboard buffer.

**N**evertheless this small program does illustrate string manipulation using a library of simple home-made functions ~ and it's more fun than the usual examples in text books, like counting lines and occurrences of words.

```

/* Header file, STRINGY.H, declaring string facilities */
#include < stdio.h >
enum Mode { Distinct, Equiv };
enum Logic { eq, ne, gt, ge, lt, le };
void Middle (char *, char *, int, int);
char Uc (char, enum Mode);
int Compare (char *, enum Logic, char *, enum Mode);
void Concat (char *, char *, char *);
int StringLen (char *);
char * Instr (char *, char *, enum Mode);
int KeyString (char *, int (*)(), int);
int Lines (char);
int Spaces (char);
int Punctuators (char);
void StrCopy (char *, char *);
int IsDigit (char);
int IsVowel (char);
int IsCap (char);
int IsLetter (char);

```

this is a  
header file  
containing all the  
string utilities  
described.  
#include "STRINGY.H"  
to make them  
available

/\* Enigma encoder, English >>> Backslang \*/

#include "STRINGY.H"

void main ( void )

{  
 char p[20], fore[40], aft[40], PuncMk, \* Qu;  
 int Cap, Length, i;

while (KeyString (p, Punctuators, 15) != EOF)

{  
 Length = StringLen (p);  
 if (Length <= 2)  
 Concat (p, p, "ay");  
 else

if ( Cap = IsCap (\*p) )  
 \*p += 'a' - 'A';

PuncMk = \*(p + Length - 1);  
 if ( !IsLetter (PuncMk) )

\*(p + --Length) = NULL;  
 if ( Qu = Instr (p, "qu", Equiv) )

\*(Qu + 1) = '\$';  
 i = IsVowel (\*p) ? 2 : 1;

for ( ; !IsVowel (\*(p+i)) && i < Length; ++i )

if (Qu)

\*(Qu + i) = 'u';  
 Middle (fore, p, i, Length - i);  
 Middle (aft, p, 0, i);  
 Concat (p, fore, aft);  
 Concat (p, p, "ay");  
 if ( !IsLetter (PuncMk) )

Concat (p, p, &PuncMk);  
 if ( Cap && IsLetter (\*p) )

\*p += 'A' - 'a';  
 }  
 printf ("%s ", p);  
 }

}

Backslang  
encoder

space

# EXERCISES

- 1 When the price of an article includes value-added tax, book keepers have to break down the price into net cost and amount of tax. Write a function having four arguments: inclusive price, percentage rate of tax, pointer to location for storing net cost, pointer to location for storing amount of tax. The function should return 0 if successful, otherwise a non-zero value. An example call might be: n = VAT( 23.95, 17.5, &Cost, &Tax )
- 2 Convert the sorting program on Page 83 so that it sorts words rather than single letters. This exercise involves handling strings. To read the words, use KeyString() defined on Page 99. Set up a two-dimensional array of characters for storing the words by rows, each row terminated with 0. To compare words, use Compare() (defined on page 103) with Mode set to Equiv.
- 3 An exercise with pointers to functions. Recast the areas program on Page 55 to comprise a main program and three functions, each of which returns an area. Function Rectangle() reads two values from the keyboard, Triangle() reads three, Circle() reads only one. The main program reads a letter, R, T or C. It then calls the associated function and displays the value returned. Don't use a switch statement; set up an array of pointers to functions as shown on Page 89.
- 4 The declaration int \* x() declares a function returning a pointer to int. The declaration double (\*(\*z)[])[] [] declares a pointer to an array of pointers to arrays of double. What does the declaration long int (\*(\*z[1])[])() declare?
- Tackle it verbally, or draw a parse tree, or depict the data structure with boxes and arrows. (In the second edition of Kernighan & Ritchie see Bibliography ~ are functions for constructing and unraveling complex declarations automatically.)
- 5 Page 104 lists some deficiencies of the Backslang program. Improve the program accordingly, making it respect numbers and all usual punctuation marks.

# 7

## INPUT, OUTPUT

This chapter explains how to handle input and output, both on the standard streams ( `stdin`, `stdout`, `stderr` ) and on streams connected to files. The chapter explains how to open such streams and create files on the disk.

The chapter begins with the input and output of single characters using library functions already introduced ( `getc()`, `ungetc()`, `putc()` ). Related functions are described ( `fgetc()`, `fputc()` and `getchar()`, `putchar()` ).

The mysterious format strings used in `scanf()` and `printf()` are at last fully described.

Streams are explained, and how to open and close them. Also how to *rewind*, *remove* and *rename* files. These techniques are illustrated by an example of a simple utility for concatenating files under keyboard control.

The use of temporary files is explained.

Finally, *binary files* are introduced and *random access* explained. These subjects are illustrated by an example of a rudimentary data base.

# ONE CHARACTER

GET FROM ANY STREAM,  
PUT TO ANY STREAM

Input and output of a single character has already been introduced informally. The most common library functions are explained on this double page. All are defined and summarized in Chapter 10.

## CST

```
int fgetc ( FILE * s ) ;  
int getc ( FILE * s ) ;  
int getchar ( void ) ;
```

function  
macro, based on fgetc()  
macro equivalent to getc('stdin')

Ch = getchar();

Each of these 'get' functions returns the code value of the next character waiting in the stream buffer, or EOF if the buffer is empty.

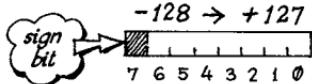
A typical stream is stdin. This stream is automatically connected to the keyboard buffer. You may, however, nominate any input stream that has been created and connected to a file as described on Page 116. For example:

```
FILE * MyStream;  
MyStream = fopen ("MYFILE", "r" );  
i = fgetc ( MyStream );
```

The return value, i, is of type int as shown by the prototypes above. The following coerces the return value to type char:

```
char c ;  
c = fgetc ( stdin ) ;
```

But this may cause trouble. Suppose your implementation treats type char as a one-byte signed integer. A variable of this kind can store any ASCII character (if value 0 to 127) but cannot properly handle characters with values 128 to 255 because these would demand a 1 as bit 7. This is the sign bit; setting it to 1 would make the variable negative.

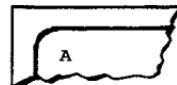


Some C compilers offer a global 'switch' by which to change the interpretation of type char to a one-byte unsigned integer, allowing correct interpretation of character values in the range 0 to 255 (typical of a personal computer). But for the sake of portability it is wise to leave this switch alone and to treat characters as type int in all input operations.

**A**NSI C has facilities for handling characters that need more than eight bits to encode them. They are called 'multi-byte characters'. The Kanji alphabet illustrates a typical requirement for multi-byte characters. This book does not deal specifically with them.

## PUT

```
int fputc ( int c, FILE * s ); ← function  
int putc ( int c, FILE * s ); ← macro based on fputc()  
int putchar ( int c ); ← macro equivalent  
                           to putc ( c, stdout )  
putchar ( 'A' ); ← 'A' is coerced to ( int ) 65
```



**E**ach of these 'put' functions places the character corresponding to code *c* onto the nominated stream. Each function returns *c* if successful, otherwise EOF.

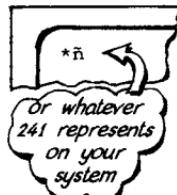
**T**ypical streams are stdout or stderr. Other streams may be nominated and connected to files as described on Page 116. For example:

```
FILE * YrStream;  
YrStream = fopen ( "YRFILE", "w" );
```

**T**he first parameter is of type int, implying that if you provide a value of type char, the value will be promoted to type int before transmission.

```
fputc ( '*', YrStream );  
fputc ( 241, YrStream );
```

← OK outside ASCII char range



## UNGET

```
int ungetc ( int c, FILE * s );
```

```
char Ch;  
ungetc ( Ch, stdin );
```

**T**he function puts any character *c* on the front of the nominated input stream such that the next fgetc() (or getc()) to nominate the same stream will pick up character *c*.

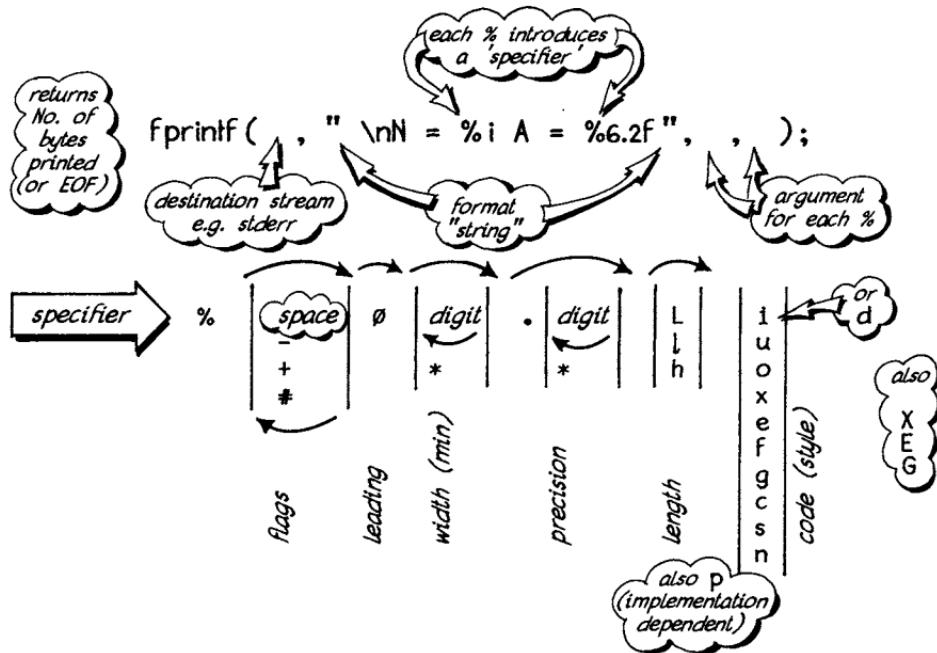
**T**his function is intended for use in cases where you cannot know if you have finished reading one item until you have read the first character of the next. You can then 'push back' this character, making the keyboard buffer appear as though the character had never been read from its stream. See the example on Page 99.

**D**on't try to 'push' any more than one character on the front of a stream. The function returns EOF if unsuccessful.

# PRINT FORMAT

int fprintf(FILE \*, const char \*, ...);

This double page defines fprintf() which sends formatted output to a nominated stream. The 'specifiers' needed are common to all library functions having the letters 'printf' in their name: printf(), sprintf() etc.

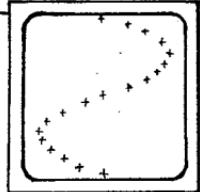
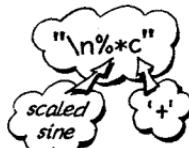


- Flags**
- Left justify, then pad rightwards with spaces (absence of a minus sign means right justify and pad to the left)
  - +
  - # Print values coded e, f, g with at least one decimal place (e.g. 10.0) Prefix 0x to values coded as style x; prefix 0 to values coded as style o.
- leading** Print a leading zero (but ignore this flag if a minus flag is also present)
- width** Minimum field width expressed as digits, e.g. 12 (wider values are not constrained to this width)
- \*
- Signifies that width is specified by an int argument preceding the argument that provides the value to be printed. The following program displays one cycle of a sine curve:

```

#include < stdio.h >
#include < math.h >
void main ( void )
{
    int i;
    double rad = 3.141593 / 180;
    for ( i=0; i<=360; i+=20 )
        fprintf( stdout, "\n%*c", (int)(sin(i*rad)*35+40), '+' );
}

```



*precision* Number of places after the decimal point expressed as digits;  
e.g. 2. In the case of a string, *precision* expresses the maximum number of characters to be printed. The asterisk works in the same way for *precision* as it does for *width*.

*length* The type of each numerical argument must be compatible with its associated style code, optionally modified by h, l or L, as defined in the following table. e.g. Le signifies a long double to be printed in scientific format.

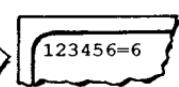
| code (style) | unmodified | h                  | l                 | L           |
|--------------|------------|--------------------|-------------------|-------------|
| d, i, n      | int        | short int          | long int          | -           |
| e, f, g      | double     | -                  | -                 | long double |
| o, u, x      | int        | unsigned short int | unsigned long int | -           |

|       |   |
|-------|---|
| i, d  | Decimal integer e.g. -123   |
| u     | Decimal integer, unsigned e.g. 123  |
| o     | Octal integer, unsigned e.g. 777 (if 175 decimal)   |
| x     | Hex integer, unsigned e.g. 1a (if 26 decimal)   |
| e     | Scientific format e.g. -1.23e002  |
| f     | Decimal number e.g. -123.05   |
| g     | In style e or f, whichever is the shorter   |
| X,E,G | These specify the same forms as x, e, g respectively, but any letters involved are printed in capitals (if code x produced ff2a, code X would produce FF2A) |
| c     | Single character  |
| s     | The associated argument points to a string. Print the entire string, extending field width (if necessary) to accommodate.                                   |
| n     | The associated argument points to an int variable to which the current count of printed characters is sent:   |

```

int m;
fprintf ( stdout, "123456%n", &m );
fprintf ( stdout, "=%i", m );

```



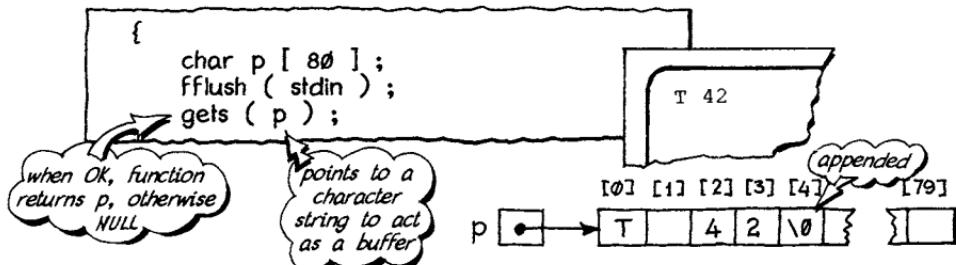
The sequence of arguments must match precisely the sequence of specifiers in the string. When the type of an argument fails to match its associated specifier the result is either crazy or non-existent.

# SCAN FORMAT

char \* gets ( char \* );  
int sscanf ( const char \*, const char \*, ... );

Examples in this book show input from the keyboard via scanf(). That is not a practical way to read data. If the item you type on the keyboard does not match precisely what scanf() has been told to expect, scanf() evokes mayhem by ignoring the item. So if you really need the extensive scanning facilities offered by scanf() it pays to use them under control of sscanf() (string scan format) as described below. Do not use scanf() for practical programs.

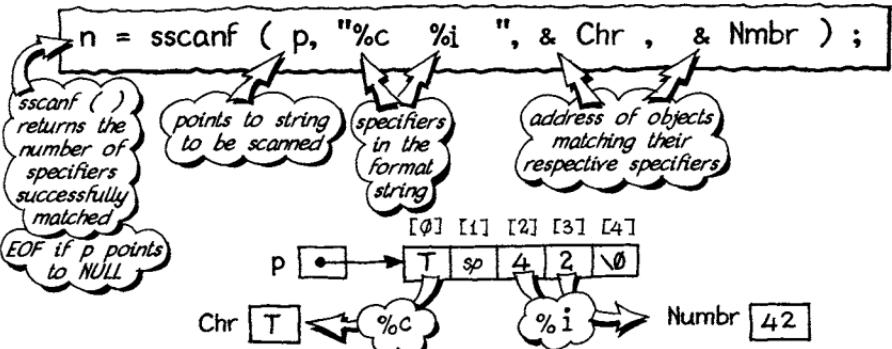
To use sscanf() with keyboard data, first input a line as a string. The easiest way to do this is by gets() (get string). Use fflush(stdin) to flush the keyboard buffer. Its prototype is in <stdio.h>.



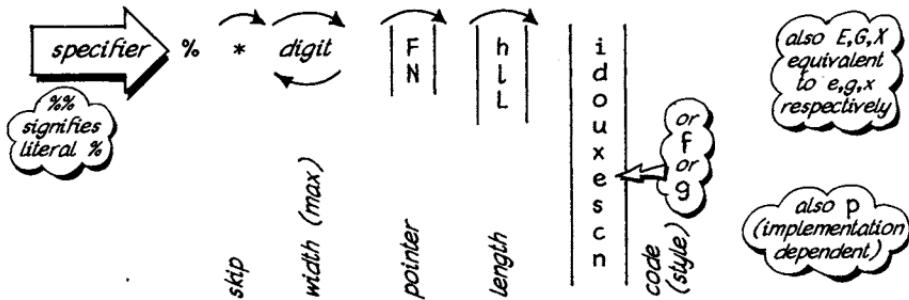
Function gets(), when called, reads from the keyboard buffer into the string pointed to by the nominated pointer (p in the example shown). Reading terminates on new line, but the new-line character itself is not stored with the string. '\0' is automatically appended.

It is up to you to make the string buffer long enough (typically 80).

Now scan the string using sscanf(). If things go wrong you can scan again and again.



Write nothing in the format string except spaces and tabs (which are ignored) and specifiers. Other characters in the format string would be expected to match corresponding characters of the input string and Murphy's Law says they wouldn't.



- skip** The characters associated with a 'skip' specifier are read from the keyboard buffer, interpreted according to the specifier, then discarded (If %\*i as the first specifier would cause the first item from the keyboard to be treated as an integer, then skipped).
- width (max)** You may specify a field width beyond which the next specifier takes over (If 456 processed by %2i would be int 45, leaving 6 to be resolved by the next specifier in the string).
- pointer** The F or N signifies a 'Far' or 'Near' pointer to override the default format. (This is a matter of particular implementations and is beyond the scope of this book.)
- length** The input string is encoded according to its associated letter, optionally modified by h, l or L, and coerced to the type of the receiving variable as tabulated below (e.g. hi  $\equiv$  short int):

| basic code | length modifier |              |               |             |
|------------|-----------------|--------------|---------------|-------------|
|            | unmodified      | h            | l             | L           |
| d,i,n      | int             | short int    | long int      | -           |
| e,F,g      | float           | -            | double        | long double |
| o,u,x      | unsigned int    | unsigned int | unsigned long | -           |

- d** Decimal integer e.g. -78
- i** Integer: decimal e.g. -78; octal e.g. 077; hex e.g. 0xa
- e,f,g** Decimal number e.g. 0, -12.3, +1.2E-6
- u,o,x** Unsigned decimal, octal, hex integer respectively
- c** %6c reads next 6 characters (including whitespace) and stores them as an array from the given address. '\0' is not appended. %c implies %1c.
- s** %7s reads non-whitespace characters sequentially and stores them as a string from the given address. The string is terminated by '\0' on meeting a whitespace character or achieving the count, whichever happens first. %s implies %big s where big is a large number, implementation dependent.
- n** Integer count of successfully read characters prior to meeting %n.

# EASIER INPUT

TO USE WHERE `scanf()`  
IS UNNECESSARILY CLUMSY

Using `gets()` and `scanf()` is a clumsy way to handle keyboard input if your need is to read only simple numbers and words. How often do you need to read numbers in scientific format? Or in octal or hex? If the answer is 'Often!' use `sscanf()`. Otherwise read on.

Decide what characters are to behave as terminators. Typically these are space, tab and new line, but you might wish to add comma, colon, semicolon. It depends on the kind of program you are writing. Specify your chosen terminators in a function having the form described on Page 98. Assume the one called `Punctuators()` for the example opposite.

In your program, get the next item by a call to `GetNext()`. It does not matter what sort of value you expect; the person at the keyboard may have typed it wrongly anyway; you simply cannot know what you may get and have to deal with.

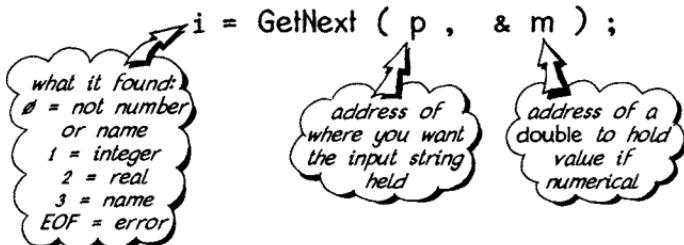
Now consult the return value of `GetNext()`. This value tells you what was found in the keyboard buffer as far as the next terminator:

0: neither number nor name  
2: a decimal number

1: a whole number  
3: a name

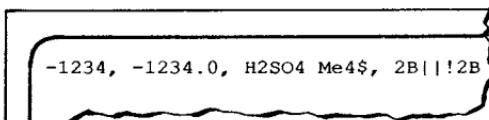
A 'name' is here defined as a string of letters (and optionally digits) that starts with a letter. Underscore is not included; modify `IsLetter()` on Page 100 if you want it to be.

A numerical result is stored in a variable of type `double`.



Assuming comma and space to be terminators, five calls to this line would produce results as follows:

| i | *p      | m            |
|---|---------|--------------|
| 1 | -1234   | -1234.000000 |
| 2 | -1234.0 | -1234.000000 |
| 3 | H2SO4   | 0.000000     |
| 0 | Me4\$   | 0.000000     |
| 0 | 2B  2B  | 2.000000     |



A call to `GetNext()` says:  
'Get the next item from the keyboard and, show me what kind of item it is'

```

int GetNext ( char *p, double *n )
{
    int Status;
    double Frac = 0;
    char Sign, *r;
    enum { string, integer, decimal, name };
    Status = KeyString ( p, Punctuators, 15 );
    if ( Status != EOF )
    {
        Sign = (*p == '+' || *p == '-') ? *p: NULL;
        *n = 0.0;
        for ( r = Sign ? p+1: p; IsDigit(*r); ++r )
            *n = *n * 10 + (*r - '0');
        if ( *r == '.' )
            for ( ++r, Frac=1; IsDigit ( *r ) ; ++r )
                *n += ( *r - '0' ) / ( Frac *= 10 );
        if ( Sign == '-' )
            (*n) *= -1.0;
        if ( !*r )
            Status = Frac ? decimal : integer;
        else
        {
            if ( IsLetter (*p) )
                while ( IsLetter(*p) || IsDigit (*p) )
                    ++p;
            Status = !*p ? name : string;
        }
    }
    return Status;
}

```

Below is a driving program with which to test GetNext().

```

#include "STRINGY.H" ← listed on Page 105
void main( void )
{
    char w[80];
    double m;
    int i;
    while (1) ← infinite loop; enter EOF to get out
    {
        i = GetNext( w, &m );
        if ( i == EOF ) break;
        puts ( w );
        switch( i )
        {
            case 4: printf ("      Name      "); break;
            case 0: printf ("      String     "); break;
            case 1: printf ("      Integer    "); break;
            case 2: printf ("      Decimal    "); break;
            default: printf ("      Chaos      ");
        }
        printf ("      Value =%lf\n", m );
    }
}

```

simple driver to demonstrate GetNext()

echo to screen as a string

try this with the input line shown opposite

# STREAMS AND FILES

The standard 'streams' are:

- `stdin` standard input stream (from keyboard)
- `stdout` standard output stream (to screen)
- `stderr` standard error stream (to screen)

You may define any number of other streams connected to various devices (such as printers and plotters) and to 'files' on disk. This book deals only with disk files. The means of attaching other devices depends on the implementation, but the concept of a 'stream' remains independent of the implementation; it should be possible to direct an input stream from any input device, an output stream to any output device.

## OPENING

```
FILE* fopen ( const char *, const char * ) ;  
FILE* freopen( const char*, const char*, FILE * );
```

A stream may be opened and connected to a file using `fopen()`.

*NULL if  
opening fails*

```
stream = fopen ( filename, mode );  
freopen ( filename, mode, stream );
```

*stream*

*name*

*redirect from stream to filename  
e.g. freopen ( "PRNFILE.DOC", "w", stdout )*

This name nominates a stream in the same manner as `stdin` nominates a stream. The name must have been declared as a pointer to `FILE`, where `FILE` is a type (just as `int` is a type) defined by C. For example:

```
FILE * MyStream
```

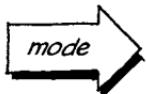
*filename*

*"name"*

The allowable syntax of `name` depends on the implementation. In DOS, for example, lower case and corresponding upper case letters are equivalent and the path is punctuated by backslash. Examples are: "MYFILE.DOC" and "C:\\MYDIR\\MYFILE2.DOC" (where \\ is an escape sequence to represent a single \).

You may express `filename` as a pointer to a string. For example, in a DOS environment:

```
char *p = "C:\\MYDIR\\MYFILE.DOC";  
MyStream = fopen ( p, "w" );
```



r |      b |      "

- "r"
- "wb"
- "wb+"

You may express mode as a pointer to a string:

```
char * q = " w + b " ;
MyStream = Fopen ( "MYFILE", q ) ;
```

| mode symbol | ☞ significance of mode symbols ☝  |                                      |
|-------------|---|--------------------------------------|
|             | if nominated file exists  | if file doesn't exist                |
| r           | open file for reading   | error: return NULL                   |
| w           | open file for writing   | create file, and open it for writing |
| a           | open file for appending<br>↳ writing on the end   |                                      |
| b           | declares file to be 'binary' ↳ as handled by fread() and fwrite(). The absence of b implies a formatted text file   |                                      |
| +           | permits both reading and writing ↳ using fseek() and ftell(), or using fgetpos() and fsetpos(). Or just by rewind() |                                      |

## CLOSING

```
int fclose ( FILE * ) ;
```

When you have finished with a file you should close it. The exit() function demonstrated overleaf serves to close all open files when obeyed; in such a case you do not need fclose(). The function returns 0 if successful, otherwise EOF.

```
i = fclose ( stream ) ;
```

## REWINDING

```
void rewind ( FILE * ) ;
```

When a file has been written, or added to, it must be rewound before it can be read. This can be achieved by resetting the file pointer, as explained later, or by rewind().

```
rewind ( stream ) ;
```

The rewind function automatically clears error indicators ( see later ).

## REMOVING

```
int remove ( const char * ) ;
```

You may remove ( delete ) an existing file, but not while the file is open. Close it first. The function returns 0 if successful, otherwise EOF.

```
i = remove ( "MYFILE.DOC" ) ;
```

# RENAME

int rename ( const char \*, const char \* );

Any file, open or closed, may be renamed.

i = rename ( "ELDERLY", "SENIOR" );

returns 0  
if OK

old name

new name

Because a file name may define a path, rename() may be used to 'move' a file from one directory to another. The following rudimentary utility achieves this in a general way:

```
#include < stdio.h >
void main ( void )
{
    char old[80], new[80];
    printf ( "Enter existing path\n> " );
    gets ( old );
    printf ( "Enter new path\n> " );
    gets ( new );
    if ! rename ( old, new )
        printf ( "Success!\n" );
    else
        printf ( "Try again!\n" );
}
```

store this file as  
MOVER.C

Mover  
Enter existing path  
> C:\MINE\LETTER.DOC  
Enter new path  
>C:\YOURS\LETTER.DOC  
Success !

## ERRORS

int ferror(FILE\*); int feof(FILE\*); clearerr(FILE\*);

Every file stream has two *indicators*, initially clear (zero):

- error indicator
- end-of-file indicator

If something goes wrong during an attempted read or write, the error indicator for that stream becomes non-zero and stays non-zero until specifically cleared by clearerr() or rewind(). An attempt to read beyond the end of a file causes the end-of-file indicator to be set non-zero, but this indicator clears itself before every attempt at reading.

You can interrogate either indicator, and re-set both to zero, using the following functions:

if all's well

i = ferror ( MyStream );

interrogate error  
indicator

if not  
the end

i = feof ( MyStream );

interrogate  
end-of-file indicator

clearerr ( MyStream );

no  
return  
value

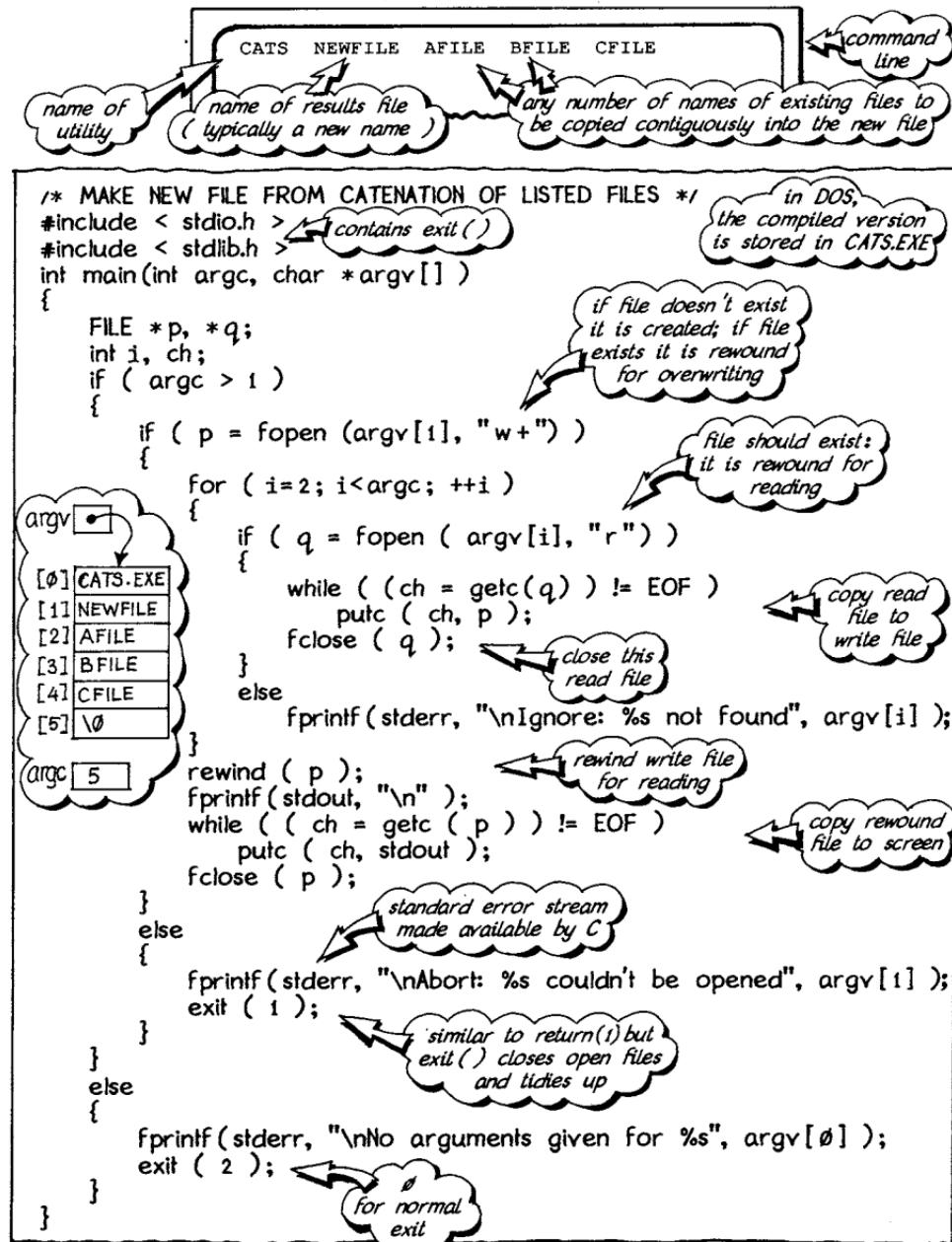
rewind ( MyStream );

either function  
sets both  
indicators zero

# CATS

A UTILITY FOR CONCATENATING NOMINATED FILES  
TO ILLUSTRATE `fopen()`, `rewind()`, `Fclose()`

This program is a rudimentary utility. To run it, type CATS, then nominate the file you want to be the concatenated file, then nominate the files to be copied into the concatenated file. For the concatenated file you may nominate a new file (and let the utility create it) or an existing file (and let the utility wipe out its current contents).



# TEMPORARY FILES

```
FILE * tmpfile ( void );
char * tmpnam( char * );
```

You can create a temporary file which has no filename; just a name to identify its stream. The mode of opening is "w+b" — in other words you may write to the temporary file and read from it in 'binary' form. Binary form is explained opposite.

```
FILE * BriefStream;
BriefStream = tmpfile ( );
```

void parameter;  
leave empty

becomes  
NULL if  
error

The nameless file is automatically removed when you close its stream:

```
Fclose ( BriefStream );
```

also removes  
temporary file

If you need a temporary *name* for a file, function tmpnam() will provide a string guaranteed not to clash with the name of any other file. You may give tmpnam() a parameter pointing to an adequately long array in which to put the unique string. The minimal length to allow for this string is given by the constant L\_tmpnam, defined in < stdio.h >.

```
#include < stdio.h >
void main ( void )
{
    char RumpelStiltskin [ L_tmpnam ];
    tmpnam ( RumpelStiltskin );
    printf ("My name is %s\n", RumpelStiltskin );
}
```

My name is TM ??

If you omit its argument, tmpnam() returns a pointer to a static array created internally.

```
char * MayFly = tmpnam();
MyStream = fopen ( MayFly, "w+b" );
```

MayFly → ???

```
Fclose ( MyStream );
remove ( MayFly );
```

it is your  
responsibility to  
remove the  
named file

The name returned by tmpnam() may be associated with a 'new file' using fopen(). When the stream to that file is eventually closed, the file itself remains in the file directory. If you want to get rid of it, use remove(). The only files to be removed automatically on closure of the stream are the nameless files created by tmpfile().

# BINARY I/O

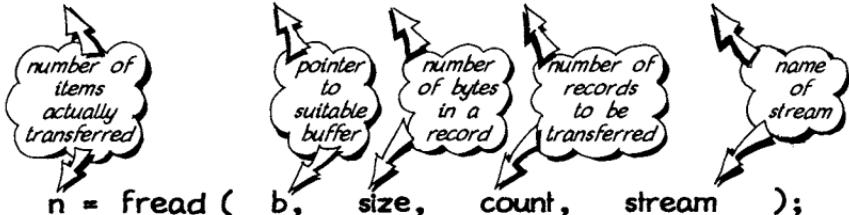
```
size_t fwrite( const void *, size_t, size_t, FILE * );
size_t fread( void *, size_t, size_t, FILE * );
```

All streams so far illustrated are streams of characters, or text. A text stream comprises *lines*, each line having zero or more characters terminated by a *new line* character. No matter how the local hardware treats such a file, the C programmer may use library functions (*e.g.* `getc()`, `scanf()`, `printf()` etc.) on the assumption that the file is modelled as just described.

If you need to store a great many numbers in a file, and subsequently read them back for further processing, it would be wasted effort converting, say, the binary integer `01111111111111111111111111111111` to its decimal equivalent of 2147483647 for filing, then subsequently converting 2147483647 back to `01111111111111111111111111111111` for processing in memory. In doing this you might drop or pick up bits wherever binary numbers do not have precise decimal equivalents. So the C library provides functions for writing and reading a stream of bytes regardless of what they represent. As long as you remember what you wrote to file you can read it back without conversion, precisely as it was.

Binary streams are especially useful for filing data structures such as the personnel records defined on Page 127. The size of any such structure is given by `sizeof( type )` where `type` is the type of the structure (*e.g.* `sizeof( struct MyStruct )`).

`n = fwrite( b, size, count, stream );`



`n = fread( b, size, count, stream );`

```
#include < stdio.h >
/* JUST A DEMONSTRATION */
void main ( void )
```

open a stream  
to a temporary  
file

```
FILE * BinStream = tmpfile ();
char PrintBuf [ 40 ];
char Record [ ] = "You'll never guess where I've been!\n";
int Size = 36 + 1;
```

record with 36 visible  
characters

add 1 for the '\n'

```
Fwrite ( Record, Size, 1, BinStream );
rewind ( BinStream );
Fread ( PrintBuf, Size, 1, BinStream );
printf ( "%s\n", PrintBuf );
fclose ( BinStream );
```

print the  
print buffer

write 1 Record  
out to BinStream

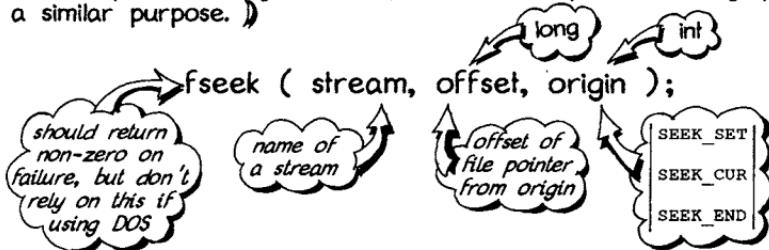
read BinStream  
into print buffer

}

# RANDOM ACCESS

```
int fseek ( FILE *, long, int ) ;  
long ftell ( FILE * ) ;
```

In the previous examples the files that have been written are rewound before being read. But access to a file can be more selective; you can locate a conceptual 'file pointer' at any point in a file, then read the record it points to, or write a record on the file starting at that position. The pointer is located by the function `fseek()` and you can discover its current position using `ftell()`. (`fsetpos()` and `getpos()` serve a similar purpose.)

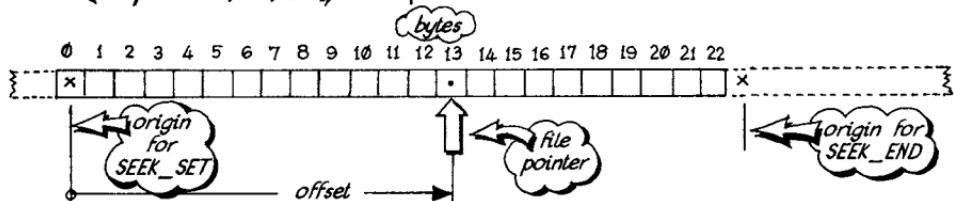


The origin may be located at the start of the file (at its first byte) by `SEEK_SET`, or at the end of the file (one past its last byte) by `SEEK_END`. The origin may be located at the current position of the file pointer by `SEEK_CUR`. These three constants are defined in `< stdio.h >` as an enumeration:



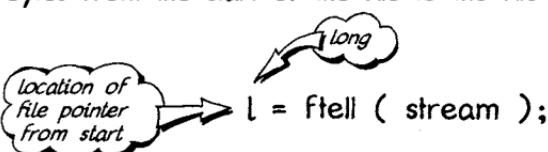
You may use equivalent integers or provide a less clumsy enumeration such as `enum { start, current, end };`

The offset locates the file pointer relative to the origin. The offset is expressed as a number of bytes and may be positive or negative: `fseek( MyStream, 13, 0 )` is depicted below:



The next `fwrite()` or `fread()` starts with the byte at the file pointer.

The offset for a text stream should be given either as zero or as a value returned by `ftell()`. The value returned by `ftell()` is the number of bytes from the start of the file to the file pointer.



# DATABASE

TO ILLUSTRATE `fwrite()`, `fread()`, `fseek()`  
(BINARY I/O WITH RANDOM ACCESS FILE)

The Following is a primitive database for names and addresses. The program asks for a surname, then an address, then another name and address, and so on until you enter EOF (Ctrl+Z in DOS). The program then asks for a surname. When you enter one, the program searches the database it has created and prints a name and address. If records have the same surname, all associated addresses are printed. To stop the program asking for names, enter EOF from the keyboard.

```
/* PRIMITIVE DATABASE */
#include < stdio.h >
#include "STRINGY.H"
void main ( void )
{
    char p[20], q[60], r[20];
    long i, Point;
    FILE * Dbase = fopen ( "DBASE.BIN", "w+" );

```

prototypes for  
utilities listed  
on Page 105

creates a file  
called DBASE.BIN  
and retains it

```
/* PART ONE: INPUT DATA */
For ( Point=0; ; Point += 80 )
{
    printf ( "Name?\n>" );
    KeyString ( p, 19 );
    if ( feof ( stdin ) )
        break;
    printf ( "Address?\n>" );
    KeyString ( q, 59 );
    fwrite ( p, 20, 1, Dbase );
    fwrite ( q, 60, 1, Dbase );
}
```

```
/* PART TWO: INTERROGATE */
for ( ; ; )
{
```

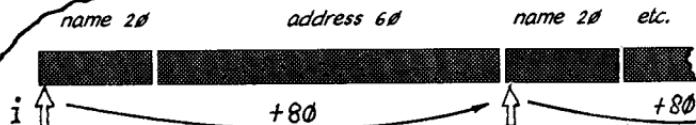
```
    printf ( "Who?\n>" );
    KeyString ( r, 19 );
    if ( feof ( stdin ) )
        break;
    for ( i=0; i<Point ; i+=80 )
    {
        fseek ( Dbase, i, SEEK_SET );
        fread ( p, 20, 1, Dbase );
        if ( Compare ( r, eq, p, Equiv ) )
        {
            fread ( q, 60, 1, Dbase );
            printf ( "%s\n", q );
        }
    }
}
```

Name?  
> Benson  
Address?  
> Mr. A.J. 2 Kingfisher Drive  
Name?  
> Williams  
Address?  
> Mrs. T.E., 7 The Cottages  
Name?

Who?  
> Benson  
Mr. A.J. 2 Kingfisher Drive  
Ms. P. 97 Wentworth Avenue  
Who?

offsets jump  
in 80s

offset at  
start



# EXERCISES

1 Write a function, with `fprintf()` at its heart, to tabulate numbers.

Let its prototype be:

```
void Tabulate ( double Value, int Line, int Field, int Places );
```

*Value* identifies the next value to be printed

*Line* is set 0 if printing on the same line, 1 if on the next line

*Field* is the number of character positions in the complete field

*Places* is the number of places after the decimal (0 zero signifying none, and no point).

`Tabulate ( 234, 0, 10, 3 )` would print the result on the same line

as the previous number, in the form `sss234.000` (where *s* represents a space).

`Tabulate ( 234, 0, 10, 3 )` would display

`ssssss234` as an integer.

With this simple function you can produce complex and elegant tabulations.

2 Convert one of your C programs that employs `scanf()` to using `gets()` followed by `sscanf()`. Consult the return value on each call to `sscanf()`. Display an error message if the number of matching specifiers is wrong; arrange for a remedial line to be input by `gets()`.

3 Convert another C program to using function `GetNext()` (defined on Page 115). You should find error conditions much easier to handle than with `gets()` and `sscanf()`.

4 The concatenation utility on Page 119 is badly designed. If you nominate an existing file to receive the information, you lose the current contents of that file without further warning. Rectify this deficiency. Make the utility ask if you really intend to lose the current contents of the nominated file; offer the chance to retract.

5 Improve the database program on Page 123. The possibilities are endless; man-years of effort are expended in producing saleable address-book programs, but attempt the following minimal improvements. Make it possible to keep names and addresses in a disk file on leaving the program, and make it possible to add names and addresses in subsequent runs. Make it possible to delete and modify names and addresses.

# 8

## STRUCTURES, UNIONS

This chapter explains the concept of a *structure* as a collection of variables, this collection including nested structures if desired.

A structure can be handled in much the same way as a variable; you can copy a structure, assign to a structure, take the address of a structure with &, access the members of a structure. You may declare arrays of structures. You can nominate a structure as a parameter of a function or write a function that returns a structure.

This chapter introduces structures by analogy with arrays. The operators for accessing members are defined and their use explained. Concepts are illustrated by an example of a library list in which to search for a book if you know its title or can remember only part of its title.

Unions and bitfields are introduced ( a union is a structure in which members share storage space).

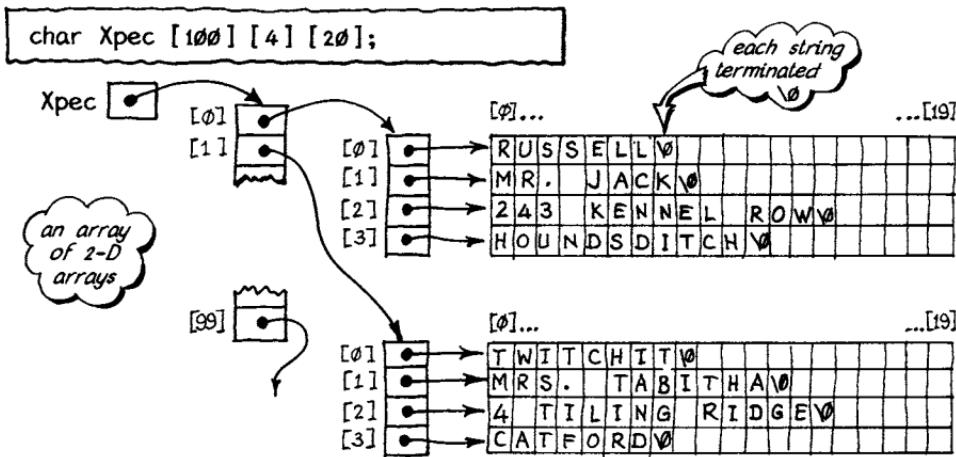
Having described structures and unions it is possible to define, fully, the syntax terms *type* and *declaration*. The allowable syntax of *declaration* differs according to context, so a separate diagram is drawn for each context.

Finally the chapter explains the idea of stacks and gives an example of their use in converting simple algebraic expressions to reverse Polish notation.

# INTRODUCING STRUCTURES

Much of information handling is about updating and sorting lists of names and addresses. With each name and address may come other information: an amount of money owing, a list of diseases survived, a code indicating the subject's purchasing power or likelihood of signing an order. In short, information comes as large sets of structured sub-sets.

For a list of names and addresses you could define an array of two-dimensional arrays (in other words a three-dimensional array) as depicted below:



You could use this scheme to sort names and addresses on various keys (surname, town etc.). You might display the complete list of names and addresses as follows:

```
for ( n = 0; n < 100; ++n )
    for ( line = 0; line < 4; ++line )
        printf ("\n%s", Xpec [n] [line]);
```

|                |
|----------------|
| RUSSELL        |
| MR. JACK       |
| 243 KENNEL ROW |
| HOUNDS DITCH   |
| TWITCHIT       |
| MRS. TABITHA   |
| 4 TILING RIDGE |
| CATFORD        |

But this scheme has deficiencies. Arrays are too uniform; every item (surname, forename, house and street, town) must have the same amount of storage allocated to it. And numbers, and sums of money, have to be stored as character strings instead of integers, hence cannot be used directly as sorting keys.

These deficiencies can be overcome using a *structure* instead of a two-dimensional array. You may define a *shape* to suit any particular collection of entities to be stored. A structure may incorporate any type of variable. It may also incorporate other structures (nested structures).

The address book above is re-defined as an array of structures opposite.

```

struct
{
    char Surname [ 12 ] ;
    char Forename [ 20 ] ;
    int House ;
    char Street [ 13 ] ;
    char Town [ 15 ] ;
}

```

Xpec [ 100 ] ;

'Members' of structure defined

Xpec



an array of 100 structures

[0]

.Surname  
.Forename  
.House  
.Street  
.Town

|             |   |     |
|-------------|---|-----|
| Russell     | 0 | 100 |
| Mr. Jack    | 0 | 100 |
| 243         | 0 | 100 |
| Kennel Row  | 0 | 100 |
| Houndsditch | 0 | 100 |

[1]

.Surname  
.Forename  
.House  
.Street  
.Town

|              |   |     |
|--------------|---|-----|
| Twitchit     | 0 | 100 |
| Mrs. Tabitha | 0 | 100 |
| 4            | 0 | 100 |
| Tiling Ridge | 0 | 100 |
| Catford      | 0 | 100 |

[2]

Displaying the list involves the dot operator (full stop) for accessing each member of the structure.

Xpec [ 1 ]. Town

'dot'

member name

This is 'Catford' - check on picture above

```

for ( n=0; n < 100; ++n )
{
    printf ( "\n\n%s, %s", Xpec[n].Surname, Xpec[n].Forename ) ;
    printf ( "\n\n%i, %s ", Xpec[n].House, Xpec[n].Street ) ;
    printf ( "\n\n%s ", Xpec[n].Town ) ;
}

```

Russell, Mr. Jack  
243 Kennel Row  
Houndsditch

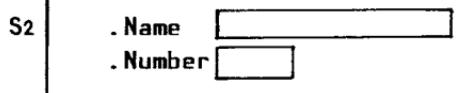
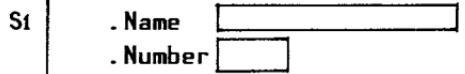
Twitchit, Mrs. Tabitha  
4 Tiling Ridge  
Catford

# USAGE OF STRUCTURES

AND UNIONS

Here is a declaration of a typical shape of structure along with the definition of two objects, S1 and S2, of the shape declared.

```
struct
{
    char Name [ 20 ];
    int Number ;
}
S1, S2 ;
```



Objects S1 and S2 may be handled in some respects like scalar variables and arrays. You may do the following:

- Initialize the members of structures in the manner of initialized arrays
- Declare structures static, extern, auto, as described on Pages 136 to 137. An auto structure may be initialized by assignment.
- Access the members of a structure in much the same manner as variables
- Copy or assign an entire structure as a unit
- Take the address of a structure
- Define functions that have structures as parameters (this depicts the invocation)
- Define functions that return a complete structure (this depicts the invocation)

size must be declared

```
struct
{
    char Name [ 20 ];
    int Number ;
}
S1 = { "Mo Niker", 123 },
S2 = { "Pat Ronymic", 987 };
```

→  
n = S1.Number ;  
S1.Number = S2.Number ;  
S2.Number = n ;

→  
S2 = S1 ;

→  
p = & S1 ;  
printf ( "%i" , ( \*p ).Number ) ;

→  
n = Fun ( S1 ) ;

→  
S1 = OtherFun ( "Jones" , 33 ) ;

You may not compare structures logically →

{ if ( S1 == S2 ) 

The above rules apply to unions as well as to structures.

# ACCESS OPERATORS

AND ➤

The use of the dot operator for access to a member is demonstrated by an earlier example, part of it reproduced below:

```
for ( n=0; n < 100; ++n )  
{  
    printf ( "\n\n%s, %s", Xpec[n].Surname, Xpec[n].Forename ) ;  
    printf ( "\n\n%i, %s", Xpec[n].House, Xpec[n].Street ) ;  
    printf ( "\n\n%s", Xpec[n].Town ) ;  
}
```

Russell, Mr. Jack  
243 Kennel Row  
Houndsditch

The essential shape of each access expression is:



Instead of writing `Xpec[n]` as the reference to the structure we may write:

`* ( Xpec + n )`

This demonstrates pointer notation as an alternative to array notation as described on Page 84. So the access expression may be written:

`(* ( Xpec + n ) ).Town`

The outermost parentheses are essential because the dot binds more tightly (it has higher precedence) than the asterisk. Without the outermost parentheses the expression would be treated as `*((Xpec + n ).Town)` which signifies a pointer to a member of an impossible object.

To avoid the clumsiness of the dot expression, C provides the arrow operator `->` (minus sign followed by greater than). `p->a` is short for `(*p).a`. So the access expression may be written:

`( Xpec + n ) -> Town`

where the parentheses are needed because `->` binds more tightly than `+` (without them it would say `Xpec + ( n -> Town )`).

The fragment of program at the top of the page may be re-written as:

```
for ( n=0; n < 100; ++n )  
{  
    printf ( "\n\n%s, %s", (Xpec+n)->Surname, (Xpec+n)->Forename ) ;  
    printf ( "\n\n%i, %s", (Xpec+n)->House, (Xpec+n)->Street ) ;  
    printf ( "\n\n%s", (Xpec+n)->Town ) ;  
}
```

# STYLE OF DECLARATION

The full syntax for declaring an 'aggregate' (structure, union, enumeration) is defined on pages 136 and 137. It is possible to arrange such a declaration in several ways, three of which are illustrated below.

1. struct MyTag { int Ego; char Sweet[16]; } ;  
struct MyTag a, b;

make tag &  
define shape

quote tag &  
declare objects

In the above arrangement a type of structure is defined and given a tag. Subsequently (not necessarily on the next line) objects of the same type may be declared by reference to the tag. These objects may then be used much like variables: initialized, copied, pointed to, used as arguments of functions and returned by functions.

Terminology: Excessive use of the word 'type' causes confusion. I use the synonym 'shape' to avoid ambiguity where 'type' applies to a structure or union. Thus: 'A structure of such and such a shape comprises objects of such and such types.'

2. struct { int Id; char Ripe[35]; } c, d;

define shape  
& declare  
objects

The second arrangement is shorter than the first, and establishes the shape of objects c, d in the same manner as a, b. But with the first arrangement you may subsequently declare more objects of the same shape:

struct MyTag e, f[6], \*g;

struct followed by a tag constitutes a shape  
(in other words a type)

It is impossible to do likewise with c, d in the second arrangement because there is no tag, hence no shape, to which to refer.

You can declare an alias (synonym) for a shape using the keyword `typedef`:

3. `typedef struct MyTag MyType`

'MyType' is now an  
alias for 'struct MyTag'

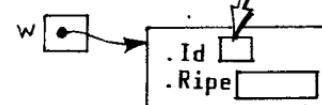
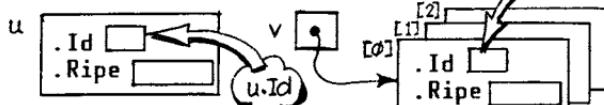
or more imaginatively:

`typedef { int Id; char Ripe[35]; } YourType;`

after which you may declare objects as follows:

MyType r, s[6], \*t;  
YourType u, v[3], \*w;

(\*w).Id  
w -> Id



An alias (via `typedef`) is neat and avoids the need for a tag.

# BOOKLIST

SEARCH FOR A BOOK, OR SET OF BOOKS,  
IF YOU REMEMBER ONLY PART OF A TITLE

```
#include "STRINGY.H"
typedef struct
```

```
{ char Title[40];
  char Author[30];
  char Publisher[30];
  int Year;
} Record_Shape;
```

```
static Record_Shape List[] =
```

```
{
  {"Illustrating BASIC", "Donald Alcock",
   "Cambridge University Press", 1977},
  {"Illustrating Computers", "Colin Day & Donald Alcock",
   "Pan Information", 1982},
  {"Illustrating Fortran", "Donald Alcock",
   "Cambridge University Press", 1982},
  {"Illustrating Super-BASIC", "Donald Alcock",
   "Cambridge University Press", 1985},
  {"Illustrating BBC-BASIC", "Donald Alcock",
   "Cambridge University Press", 1986},
  {"Illustrating Pascal", "Donald Alcock",
   "Cambridge University Press", 1987},
  {"Illustrating C", "Donald Alcock",
   "Cambridge University Press", 1992},
};
```

```
static int Num_Books = sizeof List / sizeof ( Record_Shape );
```

```
int main(void)
```

```
{
  char Buffer[40];
  Record_Shape * p;
  enum { Distinct, Equiv };
```

```
printf ("\nDatabase: Type any part of a book title to\n"
       "initiate a search for a book or books.\n"
       "(Ctrl+Z to end the session)");
```

```
while (1)
```

```
{
  printf ("\nSearch on fragment: ");
  fflush ( stdin );
  if ( KeyString ( Buffer, 40 ) != EOF )
  {
    for ( p = List; (p - List) < Num_Books; ++p )
    {
      if ( Instr ( &(p - Title), Buffer, Equiv ) )
      {
        printf ("\nTitle: %s", p->Title );
        printf ("\nAuthor: %s", p->Author );
        printf ("\nPublisher: %s, %i\n", p->Publisher, p->Year );
      }
    }
  }
  else
    return 0;
}
```

← STRINGY.H is listed on Page 105

Search on fragment: fortr

|            |                                  |
|------------|----------------------------------|
| Title:     | Illustrating Fortran             |
| Author:    | Donald Alcock                    |
| Publisher: | Cambridge University Press, 1982 |

Search on fragment:

List

[ ]

[ ]

[ ]

[2]

[1]

[0]

[ ]

[ ]

[ ]

[ ]

[ ]

[ ]

[ ]

[ ]

[ ]

Record\_Shape

display instruction to user

read the search string

seek occurrence of search string in each title

Equiv:  
lets Illus ≡ ILLUS

return on reading EOF

# UNIONS

## STRUCTURES THAT SHARE SPACE

A union is an aggregate similar to a structure, the difference being that all its fields share the same storage space. Like the married couple who shared the same narrow bed but never slept together because he was on night shift and she on days. When you use a union you have to remember who is currently in bed.

union Factory

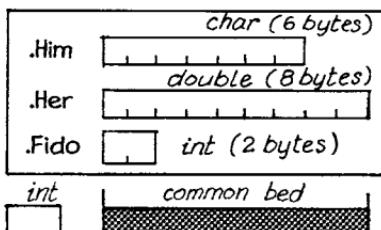
```
{  
    char Him [ 6 ] ;  
    double Her ;  
    int Fido ;  
}
```

union Factory

Worker ;  
shape  
(type)

```
enum { He, She, It } Tab;
```

Worker



In this example there are three fields sharing storage space. The processor reserves enough space to accommodate the longest; in this example the double.

The idea of 'Tab' is to keep tabs on the current type. If you assign to Worker.Him, write Tab=He; if you assign to Worker.Her, write Tab=She; and so on. Check when you 'fetch' from a union: use a statement such as 'if (Tab==She) i = Worker.Her; else exit();'

You may initialize a union, but only with reference to its first field. An example, using the shape defined above, is:

union Factory

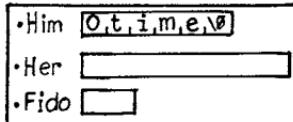
```
Minder = "Ottime" ;
```

shape  
(type)

new  
object

applies to  
first field

Minder



A union may be nested inside a structure. In the example shown here you could refer to the fields of the union named Nested\_Object, which lies inside the structure named Demo\_Object, as:

Demo\_Object.Nested\_Object.Him[1], Demo\_Object.Nested\_Object.Her etc.

```
struct Composite_Type
```

```
{
```

```
    char Title [ 40 ] ;
```

```
    union
```

```
{
```

```
    char Him [ 6 ] ;
```

```
    double Her ;
```

```
    int Fido ;
```

```
} Nested_Object ;
```

```
}
```

no tag

Unions are useful for handling large sets of entities of different sizes (some int, some double, some pointers). By expressing each as a union you may make all entities the same size, thereby simplifying the handling functions (filing, chaining). The cost of this expedient is wasted space in unions that contain the smaller members.

# BIT FIELDS

DOWN TO THE BASICS

Here is an array of 52 structures representing a deck of blank playing cards:

```
typedef struct
{
    unsigned Value: 4;
    unsigned Suit: 2;
    unsigned InPlay: 1;
}
Card_Type;
static Card_Type Deck [52];
```

Card\_Type

|         |                          |                          |                          |                          |
|---------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| .Value  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| .Suit   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |                          |                          |
| .InPlay | <input type="checkbox"/> |                          |                          |                          |

The colon denotes a 'bit field'. The integer after the colon specifies the number of bits (binary digits) in the field. The four-bit field can represent Ace (1) through to King (13) leaving 0, 14, 15 unused. The two-bit field represents Spades, Hearts, Diamonds or Clubs (0, 1, 2 or 3). The one-bit field is for representing the state 'not in play' or 'in play' (0 or 1).

Initializing the deck would be possible but laborious. The following fragment (in which i, s, v are of type int) does it dynamically:

```
for ( i=s=0 ; s < 4 ; ++s )
    for ( v=1 ; v < 14 ; ++v )
    {
        Deck [ i ]. Suit = s ;
        Deck [ i ]. Value = v ;
        Deck [ i ]. InPlay = 0 ;
    }
```

bit fields addressed  
just like ordinary  
members

How does the compiler arrange the storage of bit fields? In the above example, common sense would suggest that the compiler would pack each seven-bit record into an eight-bit byte, wasting one bit per record. Possible. But you cannot know; the method of storage depends on the whim of the compiler.

You can, however, declare unnamed bit fields to create boundaries where computers like them best → at powers of 2:

```
typedef struct
{
    unsigned Value: 4;
    unsigned Suit: 2;
    unsigned InPlay: 1;
    unsigned : 1;
}
```

bring the total  
to 8 bits

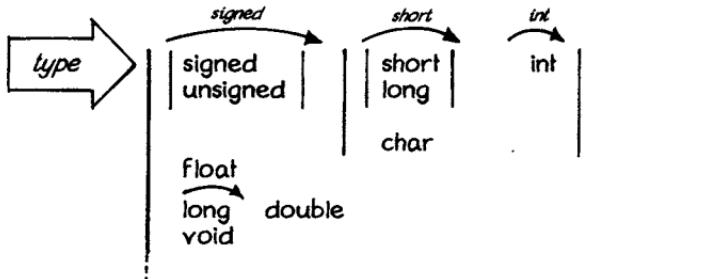
Bit fields are useful to programmers who work at low level → close to the machine → and best left alone by the rest of us. If you want to play card games there are more appropriate facilities in C than bit fields.

# SYNTAX

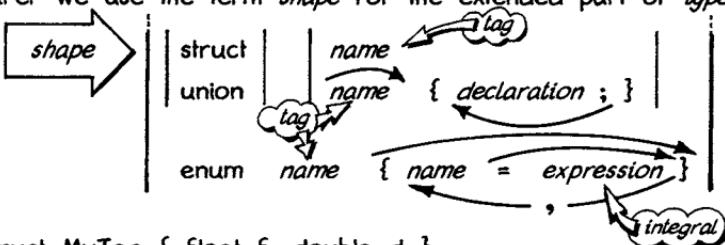
AT LAST! WE CAN DEFINE  
THE REMAINING SYNTAX OF C

## TYPE OR SHAPE

The syntax of scalar type is defined in Chapter 4 as :



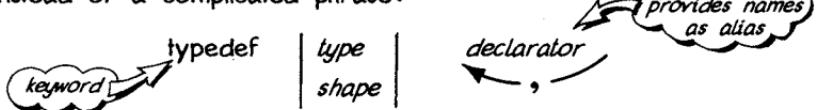
The concept of *type* is now extended to structures, unions and enumerations. These are collectively termed 'aggregates.' We extend the type diagram to include aggregates. But to make subsequent explanations clearer we use the term *shape* for the extended part of *type*:



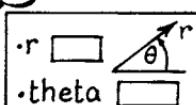
- struct MyTag { float f, double d }
- struct MyTag
- struct { int \*p, struct MyTag }
- union { long l, float f }
- enum Boolean { True = 1, False = 0 }

## ALIAS

Examples of *type* or *shape* can be more complicated than those shown. To prevent complexity getting out of hand, C provides the `typedef` facility for declaring an *alias* (in other words a synonym) that may be used instead of a complicated phrase:



- `typedef unsigned long int Lengthy;`  
`Lengthy a, b, c ;` ↳ alias for 'unsigned long int'  
↳ a, b, c declared unsigned long int
- `typedef struct { double r, theta } Polar, *PolePt ;`  
`Polar c, d, e ;` ↳ c, d, e have the shape  
`PolePt p, q ;` ↳ p, q may point to Polar shapes



# DECLARATORS

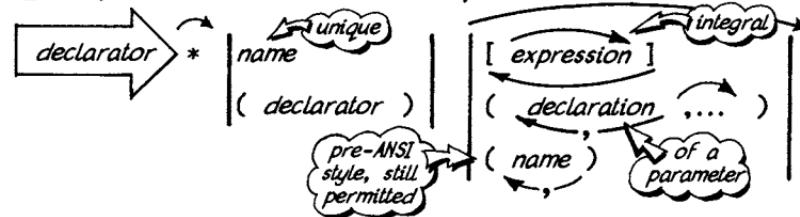
A declaration comprises three parts: an optional storage class specifier, a type (or shape), a list of declarators. For example:

static int i, Colour [3], Fun(float), \*p;

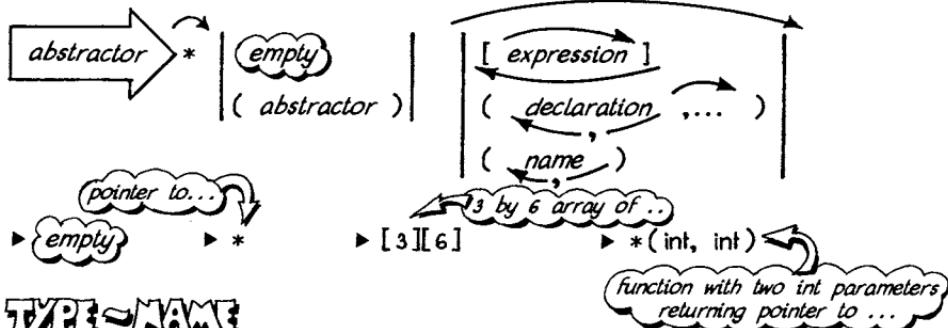
list of declarators

Each declarator provides a unique name. In this example the names in the list of declarators are: i, Colour, Fun, p.

The syntax of declarator is formally defined as follows:

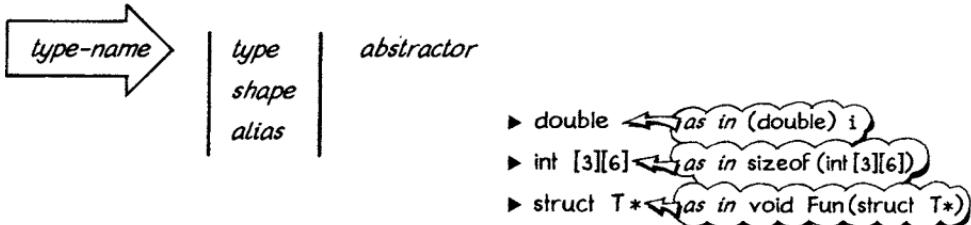


In some contexts a declarator appears without a name. An example is the prototype declaration 'double Sine(double);' where the name of the parameter has been omitted. (Omission is optional in this case, the prototype may be written 'double Sine(double Angle);' where Angle is no more than commentary.) But in type casts, and in sizeof() when finding the size of a type (shape), it is essential to omit the name. A declarator that omits the name is called an 'abstract declarator' (abstractor for short) and is defined as follows:



## TYPE-NAMES

In sizeof(type-name), and optionally as parameters in a prototype, the entity denoted type-name combines type and abstractor as follows:



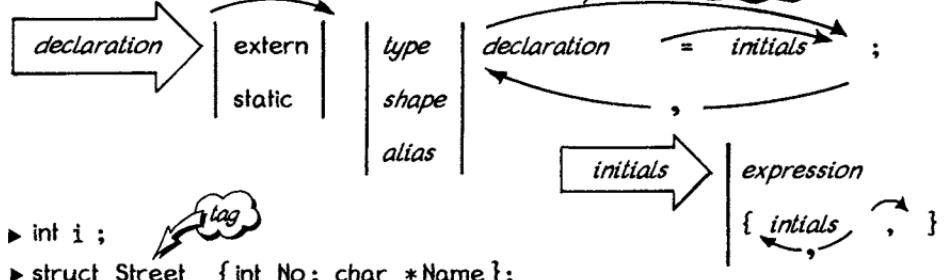
# DECLARATION

## SELECT SYNTAX DIAGRAM ACCORDING TO CONTEXT

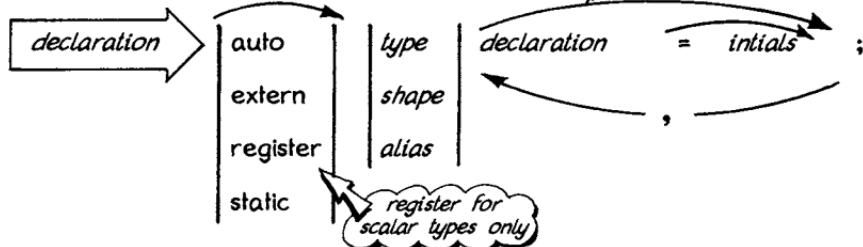
A Function definition and the declaration of a structure employ different symbols. The declaration of a parameter shows by its form and content whether the function is being defined or whether it is being declared as a prototype. So although it is possible to draw a single diagram defining the syntax of all declarations, it is not helpful to do so. For a particular context the general definition would not show which paths through the diagram were permitted and which forbidden.

Here are seven separate diagrams, each defining declaration in a different context.

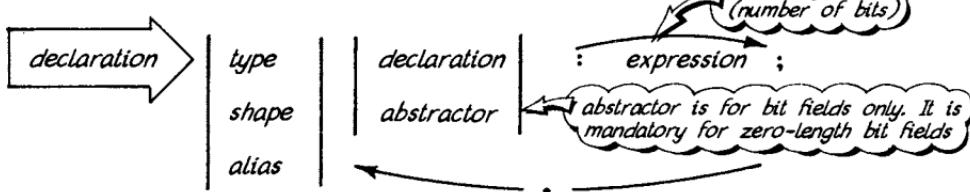
### GLOBAL ( OUTSIDE ) OBJECT



### OBJECT IN A BLOCK

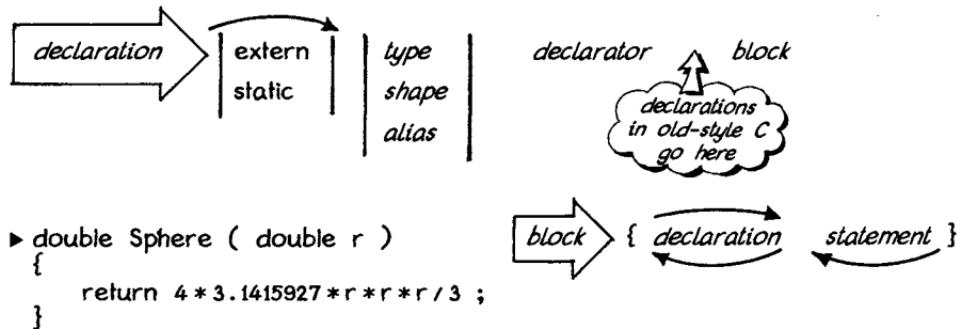


### MEMBER OF STRUCTURE OR UNION

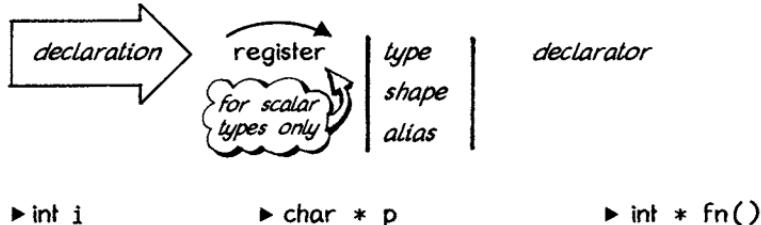


► char \* Ref ;      ► struct Street MyStreet ;      ► unsigned Suit : 2 ;

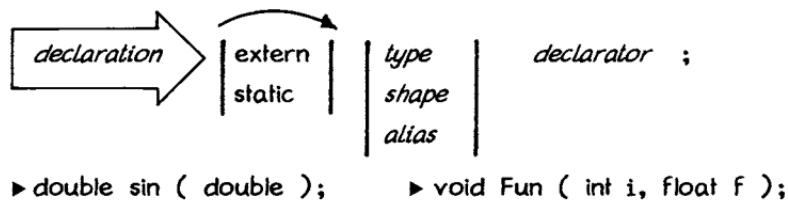
## FUNCTION DEFINITION ( ALWAYS GLOBAL )



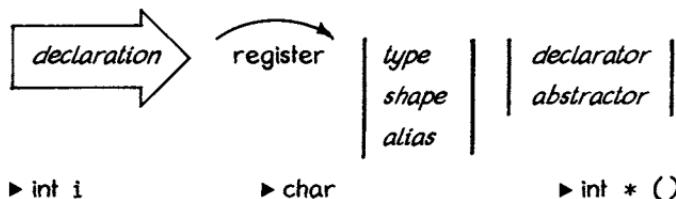
## PARAMETERS OF A FUNCTION DEFINITION



## PROTOTYPE DECLARATION



## PARAMETERS OF A PROTOTYPE DECLARATION



## SIMPLIFICATION

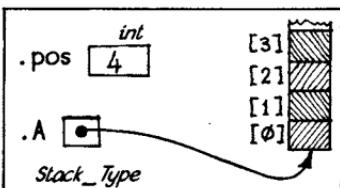
*const AND volatile EXCLUDED*

These definitions exclude the qualifiers `const` and `volatile`. Including them would complicate the syntax diagrams out of all proportion to their worth. Placement (to the left of the entity qualified) is depicted for `const` at the foot of Page 81. The effect of `volatile` depends on the implementation.

# STACKS

A SIMPLE DATA STRUCTURE WITH WIDE APPLICATION

A programmer's stack is a simple concept with wide application. Stacks can be found in all kinds of program, at system level and in every field of application. To maintain the analogy of a physical stack (of bricks or trays) we draw the programmer's stack (of numbers, characters or structures) upside down.



A stack may be created, as depicted, from an array of stackable objects and an integer variable for storing the number of objects currently stacked.

Three functions are all we need to manage such a stack:

**Push** Place a new object on the top of the stack

**Pop** Take a copy of the object at the top of the stack, then remove the top object

**Peep** Take a copy of the object at the top of the stack without removing it. Send a signal if the stack was empty.

Below is the type definition of the shape depicted above, setting it up to stack characters. On the right of the page are compatible function definitions of Push, Pop and Peep. For typical invocations of these, see the program on Page 141.

```
typedef struct
{
    int pos;
    char A[40];
} Stack_Type;
```

name of  
new type  
depicted at  
top of page

```
void Push (Stack_Type *q, char c)
{
    if ( q -> pos < 40 )
        q -> A[ q -> pos ++ ] = c;
}
```

```
char Pop ( Stack_Type *q )
{
    if ( q -> pos > 0 )
        return q -> A[ --q -> pos ];
    else
        return NULL;
}
```

```
char Peep ( Stack_Type *q )
{
    if ( q -> pos > 0 )
        return q -> A[ q -> pos - 1 ];
    else
        return NULL;
}
```

The next chapter explains how to avoid arrays (for which you have to specify a maximum height of stack) by using dynamic storage.

# REVERSE POLISH NOTATION

ILLUSTRATING THE USE OF STACKS

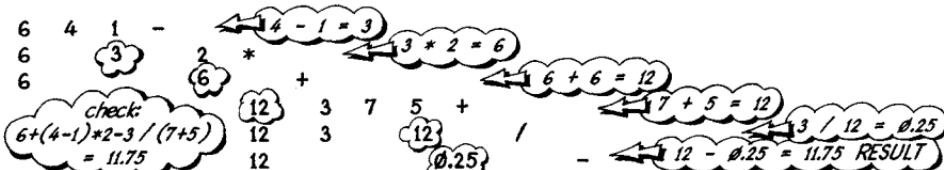
Algebraic expressions in conventional form may be expressed in reverse Polish notation which has no parentheses (‘Polish’ because the notation was devised by the Polish logician Jan Lukaciewicz which only Poles can pronounce; ‘Reverse’ because his original order of operators and operands has been reversed). As an example of reverse Polish notation:

$A + (B - C) * D - F / (G + H)$  transforms to ABC-D\*+FGH+/-

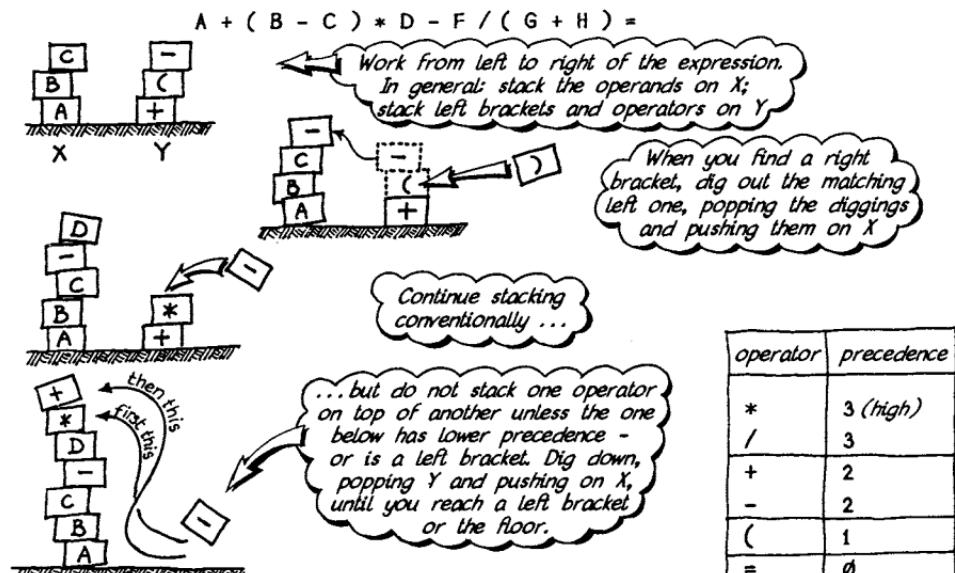
The reverse Polish expression is easier to evaluate than might appear. For example let  $A = 6$ ,  $B = 4$ ,  $C = 1$ ,  $D = 2$ ,  $F = 3$ ,  $G = 7$ ,  $H = 5$ . With these values the expression to be evaluated is:

6 4 1 - 2 \* + 3 7 5 + / -

Work from left to right taking each item in turn. Whenever you come to an operator, apply it to the previous two terms, reducing two terms to one:

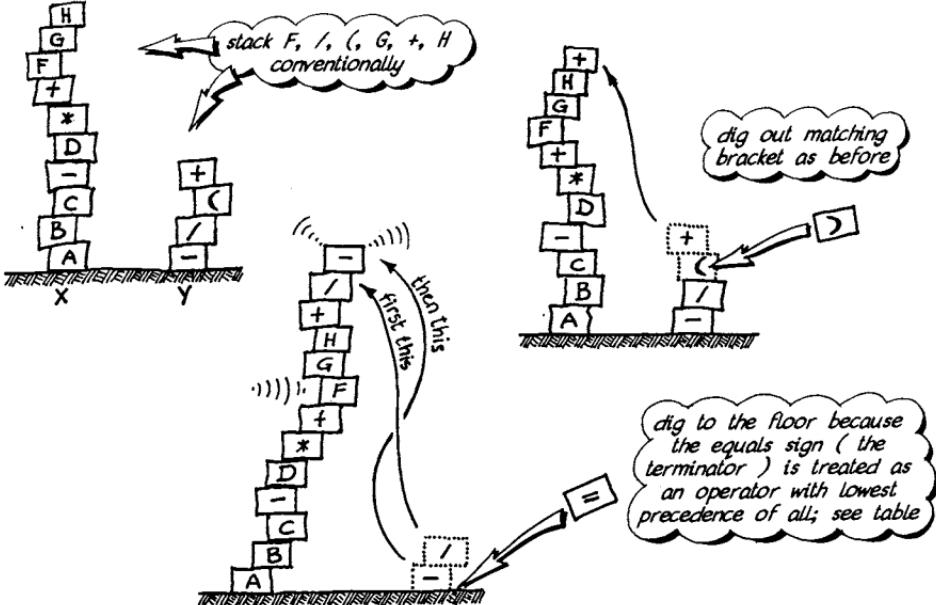


The above should demonstrate that reverse Polish notation would be useful for evaluating expressions by computer. So how do you transform an expression such as  $A + (B - C) * D - F / (G + H)$  in the first place? The process employs two stacks; the steps are explained below:



| operator | precedence |
|----------|------------|
| *        | 3 (high)   |
| /        | 3          |
| +        | 2          |
| -        | 2          |
| (        | 1          |
| =        | 0          |

Notice that the left bracket is included in the precedence table and allocated low precedence. This is a trick to avoid having to treat explicitly the condition ... or is a left bracket. Clever.

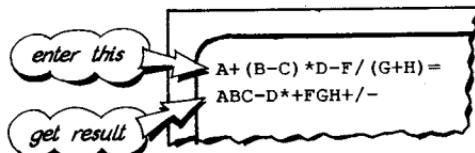


In addition to the functions Push() and Pop() a function is needed to return the precedence of an operator. The function shown below is given a character as its parameter and returns the corresponding integer from the little table.

```
int Prec ( char c )
{
    switch ( c )
    {
        case '=' : return 0 ;
        case '(' : return 1 ;
        case '+' : case '-' : return 2 ;
        case '*' : case '/' : return 3 ;
        default : printf ("\nChaos") ;
    }
}
```

| operator | precedence |
|----------|------------|
| *        | 3 (high)   |
| /        | 3          |
| +        | 2          |
| -        | 2          |
| (        | 1          |
| =        | 0          |

On the next page is a program to transform conventional expressions to reverse Polish. To use the program type the expression and terminate with an equals sign:



```
#include < stdio.h >
typedef struct
{
    int pos;
    char A[40];
}
Stack_Type;

void Push ( Stack_Type *, char );
char Pop ( Stack_Type * );
char Peep ( Stack_Type * );
int Prec ( char );

void main ( void )
{
    Stack_Type X = { Ø }, Y = { Ø };
    char ch;
    int i;
    do
    {
        ch = getchar ();
        switch ( ch )
        {
            case '(':
                Push ( &Y, ch );
                break;
            case ')':
                while ( Peep ( &Y ) != '(' )
                    Push ( &X, Pop ( &Y ) );
                ch = Pop ( &Y );
                break;
            case '+': case '-': case '*': case '/': case '=':
                while ( Peep ( &Y ) != NULL && Prec ( ch ) <= Prec ( Peep ( &Y ) ) )
                    Push ( &X, Pop ( &Y ) );
                Push ( &Y, ch );
                break;
            default:
                if ( ch >= 'A' && ch <= 'Z' )
                    Push ( &X, ch );
        }
    } while ( ch != '=' );
    for ( i=Ø; i<X.pos; ++i )
        printf ("%c", X.A[i] );
    printf ("\n");
}
```

**prototypes**

**define stacks  
X & Y  
initialize pos  
to zero in each**

**print stack X  
as an array  
(bottom up)**

place here: Push(), Pop(), Peep(), Prec()

# EXERCISES

- 1 What is one third times seven eighths? Answer: Seven twenty-fourths precisely. By contrast, 0.3333 times 0.875 gives an approximate answer. Write a set of functions to add, subtract, multiply and divide pure fractions and produce pure fractions. Base the work on a special shape defined to contain fractions:

```
typedef struct
{
    unsigned int .Numerator;
    unsigned int .Denominator;
    int .Sign;
} Fraction_Shape
```

Use HCF(), defined on Page 24, to convert vulgar fractions to simpler form (  $\frac{1470}{693}$ , for example, reduces to  $\frac{70}{33}$  when numerator and denominator are divided by their highest common factor of 21 ).

Devise a test program for reading two fractions ( as two pairs of integers ), selecting an operation ( add, multiply, etc.) and printing the resulting fraction.

- 2 Adapt the book list program on Page 131 for looking up other books or other kinds of information particular to your own field. There is no reason to confine the search to the first member; let the user of the program specify any of the members and provide a fragment of text for the search. In the case of numerical members, adopt a suitable convention such as a match wherever a date falls within a year of the search date.

- 3 The program on Page 141 transforms an algebraic expression from one notation to another. Change the program so that it reads a numerical expression instead of an algebraic one and produces a single numerical result.

The left stack should be made to contain numbers instead of letters. Whenever you are about to place an operator on the left stack, pop two numbers, apply the operator, then push the result back on the left stack. When you meet the equals sign you should be left with a single number on the left stack; that is the result of the expression. Try your program with  
 $6 + ( 4 - 1 ) * 2 - 3 / ( 7 + 5 ) =$   
and the answer should be 11.75.

# 9

## DYNAMIC STORAGE

This chapter explains the shortcomings of arrays having pre-determined length and the consequent need for dynamic storage. The use of library functions for allocating and freeing memory is then explained.

The concept of a linked list is introduced with particular reference to stacks. The concept is then extended to cover rings and binary trees.

Examples in this chapter include a program for demonstrating ring structures and a program for finding the shortest route through a road network. Finally there is a sorting program based on the *monkey puzzle* technique.

# MEMORY ALLOCATION

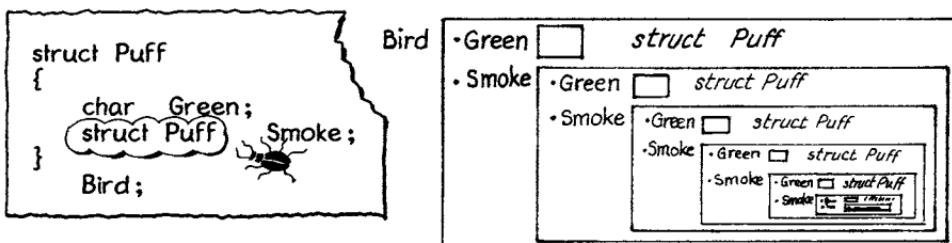
CONCEPTS OF DYNAMIC STORAGE & CHAINING

The trouble with arrays is that the processor has to be told what space to allocate to each of them before execution starts. There are many applications for which it is impossible to know the detailed memory requirements in advance. What we need is a scheme in which the processor allocates memory during execution and on demand. A program written to use such a scheme fails only if demands on *total* memory exceed supply, not if one of many individual arrays exceeds its bounds.

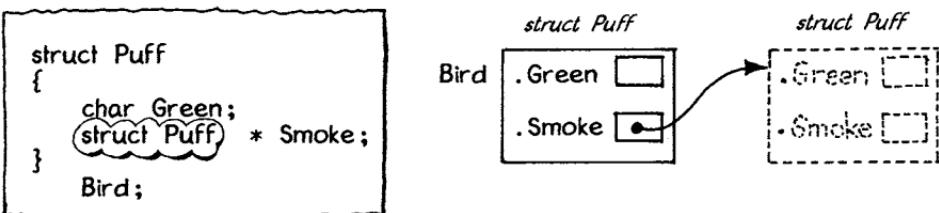
The scheme is called 'dynamic storage.' For practical purposes it is based on structures. When the program needs a new structure it creates one from a 'heap' of unstructured memory. When a program has finished with a structure it frees the memory from which that structure was built, tossing it back on the heap. With good luck and management the heap should retain enough memory to meet all demands throughout execution.

Dynamic storage involves linking structures of identical shape. We use a library function for allocating these structures.

To create structures of identical shape it is meaningless to define a member that has the same shape as its parent structure:



But you can declare a member that *points* to a structure of the same shape:



To create the structure being pointed to we must allocate space for it. To allocate space, use the library function malloc() (memory allocator) whose prototype may be found in the header file < stdlib.h >. This function returns a pointer to a region of storage of a size specified by the argument of the function.

The prototype of malloc() is shown opposite, embellished with explanatory remarks. The prototype of free(), which returns storage to the heap, is: void free(); where p must have been established using malloc() (or one of its derivatives, calloc() or realloc() ).

prototype:

```
void * malloc ( size_t b );
```

malloc()  
returns a pointer  
to a structured  
region of storage

void  
signifies any type  
of object.  
You must cast  
malloc() to  
appropriate shape

size\_t  
nominates an integral type  
defined by `typedef` in <stdlib>  
e.g.  
`typedef unsigned size_t;`

b  
gives number  
of bytes  
required for  
new structure

In the example opposite, the shape of object pointed to is struct Puff. The size of object is `sizeof(struct Puff)` where the value returned by `sizeof()` is of the shape demanded by `malloc()` (namely the type: `size_t`). The library defines an appropriate 'size\_t' for your particular implementation and 'model' (tiny, huge, etc.).

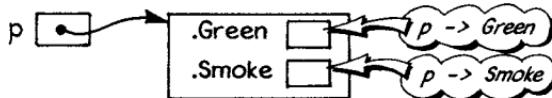
If you declare a pointer, p, pointing to objects of shape struct Puff:

```
struct Puff *p;
```

you may create a pointee thus:

```
p = ( struct Puff * ) malloc ( sizeof ( struct Puff ) );
```

pointer to type 'struct Puff'



and free a pointee thus:

```
free ( p );
```



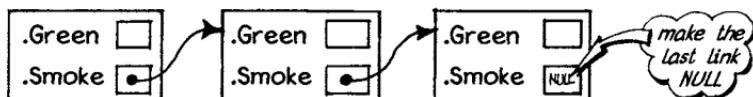
More usefully, you may link structures in the form of a chain:

```
Bird.Smoke = ( struct Puff * ) malloc ( sizeof( struct Puff ) );
```

Add another link:

```
Bird.Smoke -> Smoke = ( struct Puff * ) malloc ( sizeof( struct Puff ) );  
Bird.Smoke -> Smoke -> Smoke = NULL ;
```

Bird

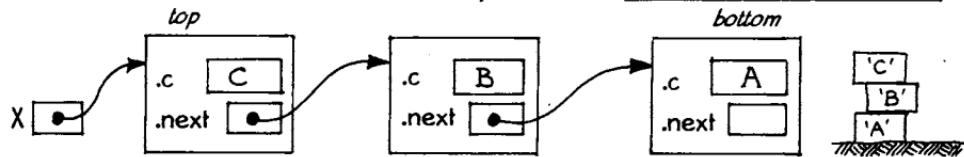


And so on: `Bird.Smoke -> Smoke -> Smoke -> ...`

# STACKS

WITH DYNAMIC MEMORY ALLOCATION

In the previous chapter, stacks are based on arrays and have the shape depicted on the right. A new shape of stack is introduced below; it is based on dynamic storage rather than an array.



Here is the definition of the shape of each element:

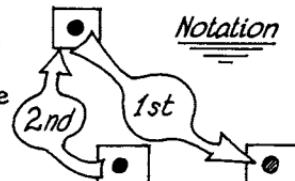
```
typedef struct Element
{
    char c;
    struct Element * next;
}
```

```
Element_Type, * Pointer_Type;
```

alias for  
'struct Element'

alias for  
'pointer to objects of type  
struct Element'

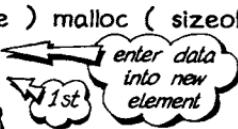
'List processing' is the art of diverting pointers by copying addresses from one pointer variable to another. To depict such operations we use the notation shown here. The fat arrow depicts a simple copying of contents in the direction of the arrow. The ordinal number ((1st, 2nd, etc.)) shows the order of operations needed to avoid overwriting.



Notation

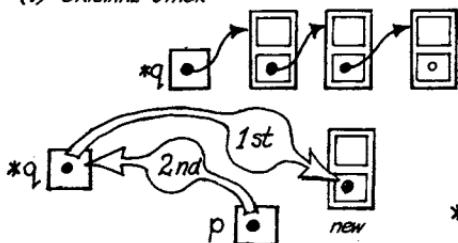
Here is the definition of Push(). The copy operations are depicted opposite, together with sketches of the linkage before and after the copy operations:

```
void Push ( Pointer_Type * q, char ch )
{
    Pointer_Type p;
    p = ( Pointer_Type ) malloc ( sizeof ( Element_Type ) );
    p -> c = ch;
    p -> next = * q;
    * q = p;
}
```

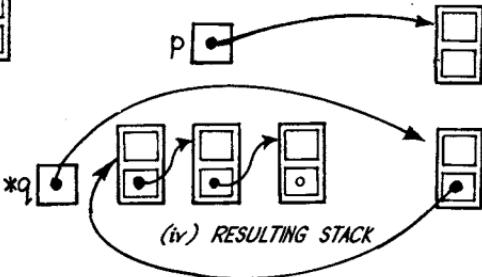


An invocation of Push() demands two arguments of which the first nominates a pointer. For example, Push(&X, 'A') to push 'A' onto stack X.

(i) ORIGINAL STACK



(ii) CREATE NEW STRUCTURE (malloc)



(iii) COPY POINTERS

Here is the definition of Pop(). The copy operations are depicted under the definition together with sketches of the linkage before and after the copy operations.

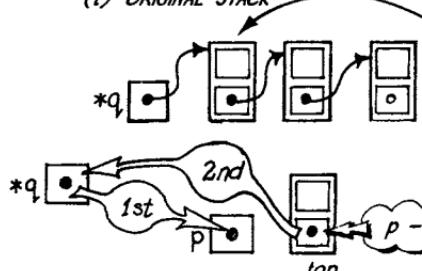
```
char Pop ( Pointer_Type * q )
{
    char ch ;
    Pointer_Type p ;
    p = * q ; // 1st
    if ( * q != NULL ) ;
    {
        ch = p -> c ;
        * q = p -> next ; // 2nd
        free ( p ) ;
        return ch ;
    }
    else
        return NULL ;
}
```

pointer to objects of type  
'Pointer\_Type'

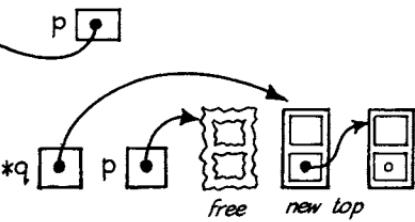
1st

2nd

(i) ORIGINAL STACK



(ii) MAKE p POINT TO TOP STRUCTURE



(iii) COPY POINTERS

(iv) RESULTING STACK

Finally, here is the definition of Peep(). No pointers are disturbed.

```
char Peep ( Pointer_Type * q )
{
    if ( * q != NULL )
        return ( * q ) -> c ;
    else
        return NULL ;
}
```

necessary parentheses  
because ->  
binds tighter than \*

# POLISH AGAIN

THIS TIME WITH DYNAMIC STACKS

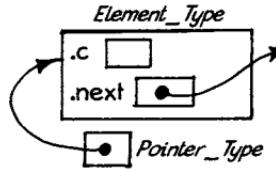
A program for transforming algebraic expressions into reverse Polish form is given below. The main loop from 'do' to 'while(ch != '=')' is identical to that on Page 141. Function Prec() is also identical. Functions Push(), Pop(), Peep() are replaced by the dynamic versions defined on the previous double page, but their prototypes are the same as before.

```
/* POLISH WITH DYNAMIC STACKS */
#include < stdio.h >
typedef struct Element
{
    char c;
    struct Element * next;
}
Element_Type, * Pointer_Type;
void Push ( Pointer_Type *, char );
char Pop ( Pointer_Type * );
char Peep ( Pointer_Type * );
int Prec ( char );
```

```
void main ( void )
{
    char ch;
    Pointer_Type X=NULL, Y=NULL;
    do
    {
        ch = getchar ();
        switch (ch)
        {
            case '(':
                Push ( &Y, ch );
                break;
            case ')':
                while ( Peep (&Y) != '(' )
                    Push ( &X, Pop (&Y) );
                ch = Pop ( &Y );
                break;
            case '+': case '-': case '*': case '/': case '=':
                while (Peep(&Y) != NULL && Prec(ch) <= Prec(Peep(&Y)) )
                    Push ( &X, Pop (&Y) );
                Push ( &Y, ch );
                break;
            default: if ( ch >= 'A' && ch <= 'Z' )
                Push ( &X, ch );
        }
    }
    while ( ch != '=' ); /* end of do-while loop */

    while ( Pop(&Y) != NULL )
        ;
    while ( Peep(&X) )
        Push(&Y, Pop(&X));
    while ( Peep (&Y) )
        printf ("%c", Pop( &Y ) );
    printf ("\n");
}
```

place here: Push(), Pop(), Peep(), Prec()



*these as before*

two stacks  
X [ ] Y [ ]



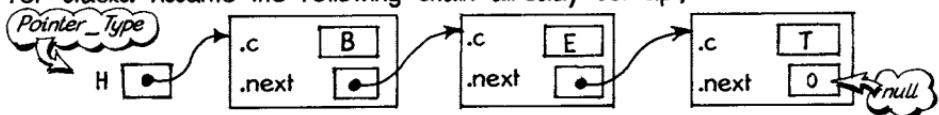
*flush Y*  
*pop from X into Y thus reversing order*  
*pop and print entire Y*

# SIMPLE CHAINING

PARADIGMS FOR TRAVERSAL,  
INSERTION & DELETION

A chain is demonstrated on earlier pages in the particular form of a stack. In general, chains are more flexible than this; they have many applications. The example which follows this introduction illustrates an algorithm for finding the shortest route through a road network.

For demonstrating the techniques introduced below, we adopt the same structure (type Element\_Type) as that employed on the opposite page for stacks. Assume the following chain already set up;



Traversal means referring sequentially to the elements of a chain. In this demonstration, 'referring to' involves printing the content of an element ~ the content being just a single character.

```

Pointer_Type p, n;
/* TRAVERSAL - NON RECURSIVE */
p = H;           /* copy head of chain */
while ( p ) {    /* refer to data */
    printf ("\n%c", p -> c );
    p = p -> next;
}
  
```

declare two working pointers

linkage:  
—→ before  
- - - - - - - - - after

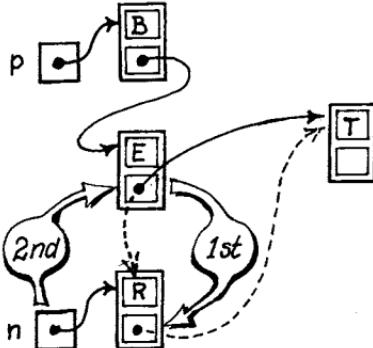
point to next element

Insertion:

```

/* INSERT 'R' AFTER 'E' */
p = H;
while ( p -> c != 'E' ) {
    p = p -> next;
}
n = (Pointer_Type)
    malloc(sizeof(Element_Type));
n -> c = 'R';
n -> next = p -> next;
p -> next = n;
  
```

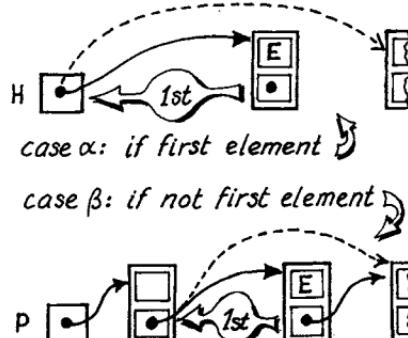
traverse to find 'E'  
create new element  
1st copy  
2nd copy



Deletion:

```

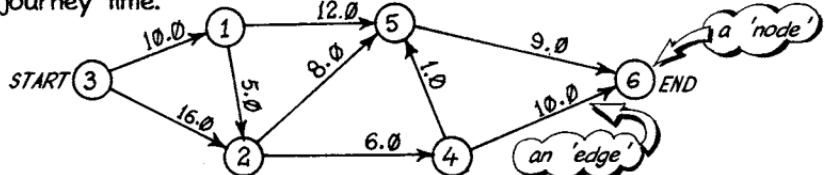
/* DELETE 'E' LEAVING GARBAGE */
if ( H -> c == 'E' )
    H = H -> next;
else
{
    p = H;
    while ( p -> next -> c != 'E' )
        p = p -> next;
    p -> next = p -> next -> next;
}
  
```



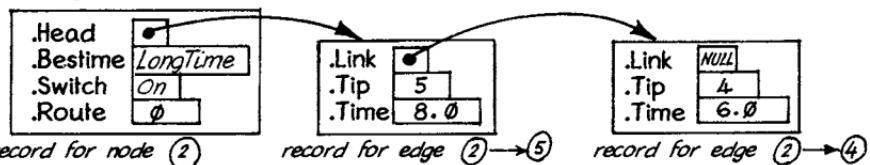
# SHORTEST ROUTE

AN EXAMPLE TO ILLUSTRATE  
THE USE OF CHAINS

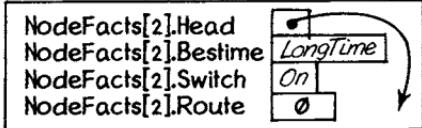
Finding the shortest (or longest) route through a network is a problem that crops up in various disciplines — one of which is critical path scheduling for the control and monitoring of construction projects. Given a network such as that below, the problem is to find the shortest route from the node marked *START* to that marked *END*. The journey must follow the direction of the arrow. The number against each arrow shows the journey time.



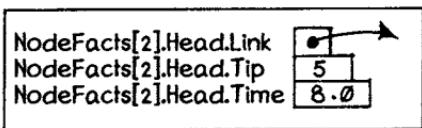
The data structure needed for a shortest-route program is depicted below. There is a record for each node, and a chain runs from each such record. Each chain comprises edge records which store data describing all the edges which run out of that node.



Records for all nodes are held in an array named *NodeFacts*. The record for node 2 is annotated more fully below. In the component named *Bestime* is the value *LongTime* (a constant set to  $10^{20}$ ). In the component named *Switch* is a Boolean value, initially switched to *On*. Uses of these items are explained later.



The records for edges running out of a node are created dynamically. Each record has a component for storing the link, another for storing the node number at the tip, another for storing the journey time along the particular edge. This example is for edge 2 to 5.

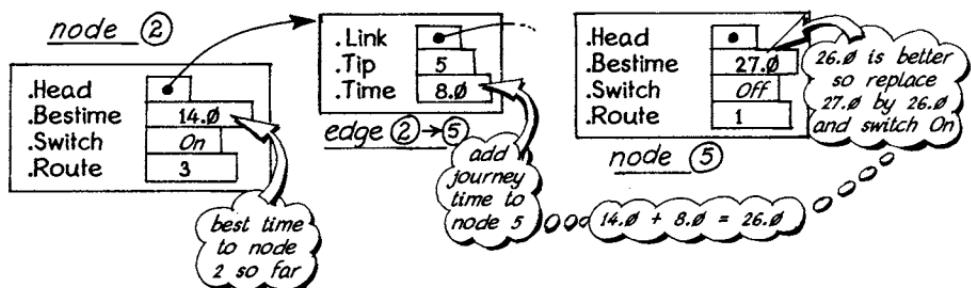


The shortest route is found by an iterative process. Before the process can start the chains must be formed — and initial values placed in the components that will eventually hold changing values. The component named *Bestime* is to hold the best time so far achieved to this node by different trial routes; the initial time in this component is set so high that the first feasible route, however slow, has to be an improvement. An exception is the starting node: the best time to the starting node is, by definition, nothing.

All switches are turned *On* initially. A switch that is *On* implies that the edges leading out of that node must be explored (or re-explored).

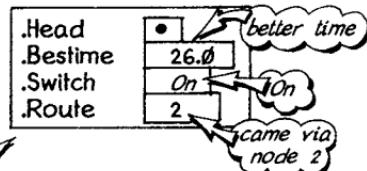
The iterative process starts at the starting node, then cycles the array of node records until terminated. The process terminates on detection of all switches being Off.

At each node the chain of edge records is traversed. For each edge in the chain, the time to reach its tip is found by taking the best time so far achieved at the tail and adding it to the journey time for that edge. The result is compared with the best time so far recorded in the node record for the tip. If the new time is better, several things must be recorded. These are depicted below:



Whenever a better route to a node is found, the faster time is substituted and the node switched On, as depicted for node 5 above. To be able to trace this improved route subsequently, the Route component is made to contain the number of the node through which the route came. So the outcome of dealing with the edge from 2 to 5 is as shown here:

node 5



After traversing the chain of edges from node 2, the Switch at node 2 is turned off. However, the action at node 2 included turning On the switch at node 5, so the iteration is not yet finished. The process continues until all switches are off in other words until a complete cycle through the nodes fails to make a single improvement to the route.

The node records are assembled as an array rather than being created dynamically and linked as a chain. The array structure was chosen because node records are accessed in a 'random' way (e.g. when dealing with node 2 you have to refer to nodes 5 and 4). Using an array, such references are resolved quickly by a simple change of subscript.

I tried with the network sketched opposite, data and results would be as shown here. ➡

| No. nodes             | No. edges | Startnode | Endnode |
|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|---------|
| 6                     | 9         | 3         | 6       |
| 3                     | 1         | 10.0      |         |
| 3                     | 2         | 16.0      |         |
| 1                     | 2         | 5.0       |         |
| 1                     | 5         | 12.0      |         |
| 2                     | 4         | 6.0       |         |
| 2                     | 5         | 8.0       |         |
| 5                     | 6         | 9.0       |         |
| 4                     | 6         | 10.0      |         |
| 4                     | 5         | 1.0       |         |
| Route from 6 to 3     |           |           |         |
| 6....4....2....1....3 |           |           |         |
| Time taken is 31.0    |           |           |         |

*data*

*results*

# SHORTEST ROUTE

THE COMPLETE PROGRAM

```
/* SHORTEST ROUTE PROGRAM */
```

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

```
/* ROUTE PROGRAM BEGINS */
```

```
typedef struct Edge
{
    struct Edge * Link;
    int Tip;
    double Time;
}
Edge_Type, * Ptr_Edgetype;
```

```
typedef struct Node
{
    Ptr_Edgetype Head;
    double Bestime;
    int Switch;
    int Route;
}
Node_Type, * Ptr_Nodetype;
```

```
int main ( void )
{
```

```
    enum
        double const
        double const
        double
        int
```

```
    Ptr_Edgetype
```

```
    Node_Type
```

```
    printf ("\nNo.Nodes, No.Edges, Startnode, Endnode\n");
    scanf ("%i %i %i %i", &Nodes, &Edges, &StartNode, &EndNode );
```

```
    for ( i=1; i<=Nodes; ++i )
    {
```

```
        NodeFacts[i].Head = NULL;
        NodeFacts[i].Bestime = LongTime;
        NodeFacts[i].Switch = On;
        NodeFacts[i].Route = Ø;
```

```
}
```

```
    NodeFacts [ StartNode ]. Bestime = Nothing;
```

{ Off, On };

Nothing = ØØ;

LongTime = 1E2Ø;

Try, Best;

Nodes, Edges, StartNode, EndNode,

Tail, Cycles, i, j, n;

Edge=NULL, p=NULL;

NodeFacts [ 3Ø ];

Boolean switch

impractically high

array of node records

input 4 counters

initialize all node records

replace time at start node

```

for ( j=1; j<=Edges; ++j )
{
    p = (Ptr_Edgetype) malloc ( sizeof ( Edge_Type ) );
    scanf ("%i %i %1F", & Tail, & p->Tip, & p->Time );
    p->Link = NodeFacts [ Tail ]. Head;
    NodeFacts [ Tail ]. Head = p;
}

Cycles =  $\emptyset$ ;
n = StartNode - 1;
while ( Cycles < 2 )
{
    Cycles += 1;
    n = n % Nodes + 1;
    if ( NodeFacts [ n ]. Switch == On )
    {
        Cycles =  $\emptyset$ ;
        Edge = NodeFacts [ n ]. Head;
        while ( Edge != NULL )
        {
            Try = NodeFacts [ n ]. Bestime + Edge->Time;
            if ( Try < NodeFacts [ Edge->Tip ]. Bestime )
            {
                NodeFacts [ Edge->Tip ]. Bestime = Try;
                NodeFacts [ Edge->Tip ]. Route = n;
                NodeFacts [ Edge->Tip ]. Switch = On;
            }
            Edge = Edge->Link;
        }
        NodeFacts [ n ]. Switch = Off;
    }
}
Best = NodeFacts [ EndNode ]. Bestime;
if ( Best != LongTime && Best != Nothing )
{
    printf ("\nRoute from %i to %i\n", EndNode, StartNode );
    n = EndNode;
    while ( n )
    {
        printf ("%i", n);
        n = NodeFacts [ n ]. Route;
        if ( n ) printf ("...");
    }
    printf ("\n\nTime taken is %.2f", Best );
}
else
    printf ("\nNo way through, or going nowhere");
return  $\emptyset$ ;
}

```

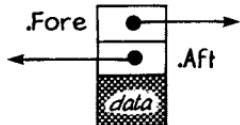
*n is augmented by 1 before use, hence -1 in preparation*

*chain each edge to the node it leads out of*

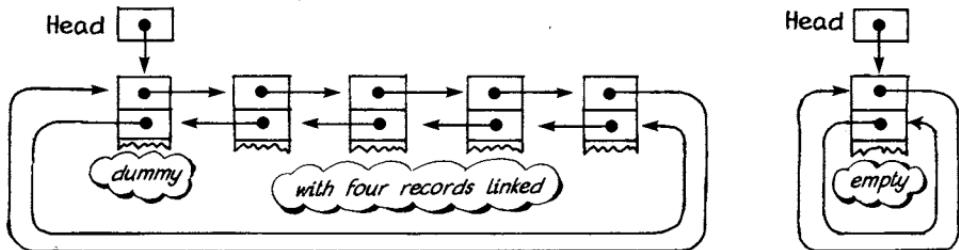
# INTRODUCING RINGS

AN ELEGANT DATA STRUCTURE

The fundamental record of a doubly linked ring has pointers pointing fore and aft thus:



Access to records in a ring is simplified by employing one record as a dummy head as illustrated below. This device makes it unnecessary to check whether the record to be added or deleted is next to the fixed head, and, if so, to take special action. Very messy.



A ring is depicted above with four records; it is also depicted empty.

Here is the definition of a shape suitable for constructing a ring. To keep everything simple, this shape is made capable of storing just a single character.



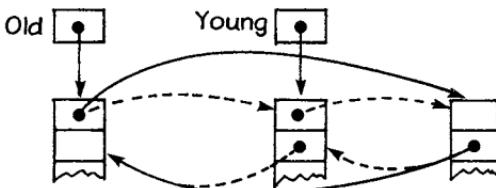
```
typedef struct Petal
{
    struct Petal * Fore ;
    struct Petal * Aft ;
    char Data ;
}
Ring_Type, * P_Type ;
```

In the main program an empty ring may be set up as follows:

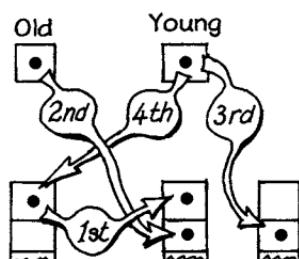
```
p = ( P_Type ) malloc ( sizeof ( Ring_Type ) );
```

A new record may be inserted before or after the record currently pointed to. Procedures for both these operations are given below:

```
void In_After ( P_Type Old, P_Type Young )
{
    Young -> Fore = Old -> Fore ;
    Young -> Aft = Old ;
    Old -> Fore -> Aft = Young ;
    Old -> Fore = Young ;
}
```



pointers  
initially →  
finally →

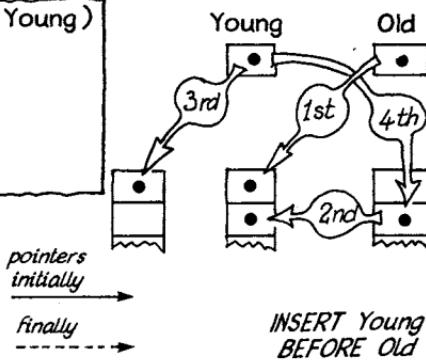
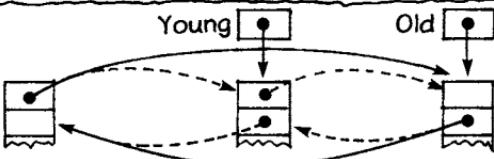


INSERT Young  
AFTER Old

```

void In_Before(P_Type Old, P_Type Young)
{
    Young -> Fore = Old;
    Young -> Aft = Old -> Aft;
    Old -> Aft -> Fore = Young;
    Old -> Aft = Young;
}

```

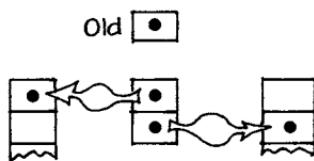


Deletion (without freeing and returning to the heap) is simple:

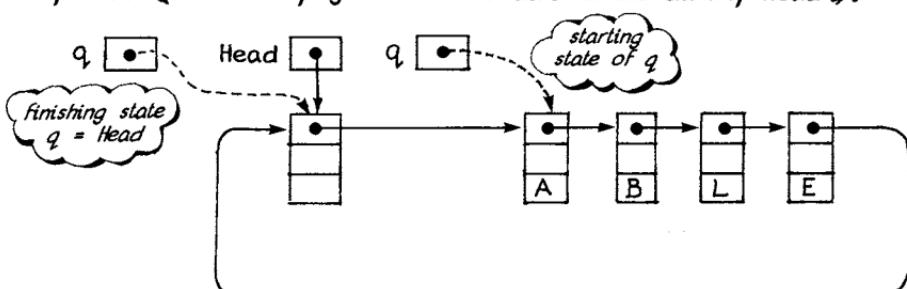
```

void Delete( P_Type Old )
{
    Old -> Fore -> Aft = Old -> Aft;
    Old -> Aft -> Fore = Old -> Fore;
}

```



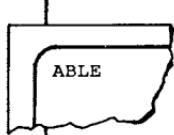
Traversal is simple in either direction, the only difficulty is stopping. If the aim is to traverse the ring precisely once, start by pointing to the first record and arrange to stop as soon as the pointer points to the dummy head (before trying to refer to data in the dummy head).



```

q = Head -> Fore ;
while ( q != Head )
{
    printf ("%c", q -> Data ) ;
    q = q -> Fore ;
}
printf ("\n") ;

```



If both occurrences of Fore were changed to Aft, the result of the above piece of program would be ELBA rather than ABLE.

Overleaf is a demonstration program designed to exercise the principles and procedures introduced on this double page.

The following program maintains a doubly-linked ring organized alphabetically. To introduce a letter, enter +L ( or + other letter ). To remove a letter, enter -L ( or - whatever the letter ). To display the stored data in alphabetical order, enter > at the start of a line. To display in reverse order enter <. To stop, abort the run ( e.g. in DOS, hold down Ctrl and press C ).

```
/* RING A RING OF ROSES */
```

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

```
typedef struct Petal
```

```
{  
    struct Petal * Fore;  
    struct Petal * Aft;  
    char Data;  
}  
Ring_Type, * P_Type;
```

```
void In_Before( P_Type Old, P_Type Young );  
void Delete( P_Type Old );
```

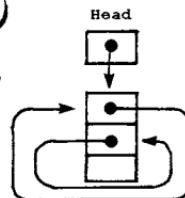
```
/* MAIN PROGRAM */
```

```
void main( void )
```

```
{  
    char Choice, Letter;  
    P_Type Head, p, q;  
    char w[80];
```

```
Head = (P_Type) malloc ( sizeof ( Ring_Type ) );
```

```
Head -> Fore = Head;  
Head -> Aft = Head;  
Head -> Data = NULL;
```



```
printf ( "\nEnter +L ( or + any letter ) to add letter to the ring"  
      " \nEnter -L ( or - any existing letter ) to remove letter "  
      " \nEnter > to list alphabetically, or < to list in reverse\n" );
```

```
Enter +L [or + any letter] to add letter to the ring  
Enter -L [or - any existing letter] to remove letter  
Enter > to list alphabetically, or < to list in reverse
```

```
+ C
```

```
+ F
```

```
+ A
```

```
>
```

```
ACF
```

```
- C
```

```
<
```

```
FA
```

```

while (1)
{
    Choice = Letter = Ø;
    fflush (stdin);
    sscanf ( gets(w), " %c %c ", & Choice, & Letter );
    if ( Letter == Ø || ( Letter >= 'A' && Letter <= 'Z' ) )
    {
        switch ( Choice )
        {
            case '+':
                p = (P_Type) malloc (sizeof (Ring_Type));
                p -> Data = Letter;
                q = Head -> Fore;
                while ( q != Head && q -> Data < Letter )
                    q = q -> Fore;
                In_Before ( q, p );
                break;

            case '-':
                q = Head -> Fore;
                while ( q != Head && q -> Data != Letter )
                    q = q -> Fore;
                if ( q != Head )
                    Delete ( q );
                break;

            case '>':
                q = Head -> Fore;
                while ( q != Head )
                {
                    printf ("%c", q -> Data);
                    q = q -> Fore;
                }
                printf ("\n");
                break;

            case '<':
                q = Head -> Aft;
                while ( q != Head )
                {
                    printf ("%c", q -> Data);
                    q = q -> Aft;
                }
                printf ("\n");
        }
    }
}

```

*insert functions In\_Before() and Delete() here*

An application such as a book index (a secondary sorted list under each entry) can be handled as a *ring* of rings.

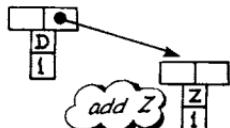
# BINARY TREES

ANOTHER ELEGANCE

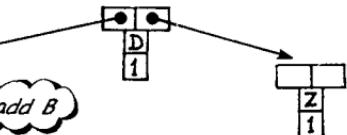
Take some letters to sort:

D, Z, B, E, A, F, C

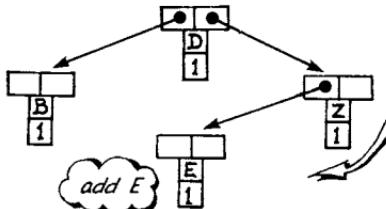
Bring the first letter, D, to the root of a tree and store it as a node. (Trees grow upside down as do several metaphors in computer science.)



Now take the next letter, Z, and bring it to the root node. It is 'bigger' than D so go right and make a new node to contain Z as shown here.



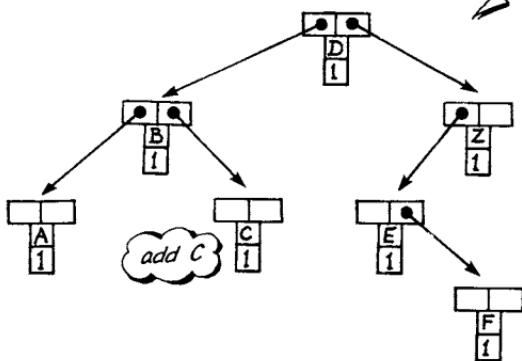
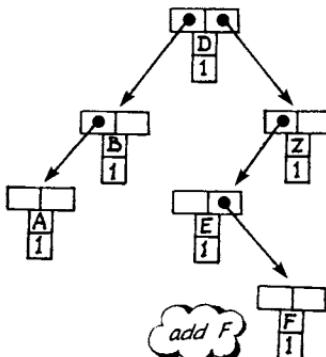
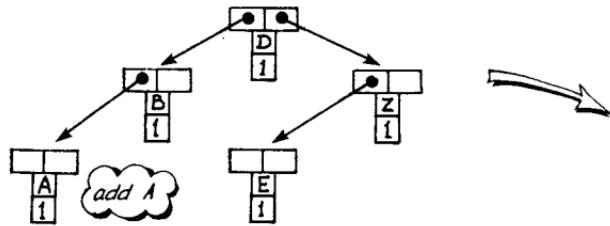
Now the third letter, B. It is smaller than D so go left and make a new node.



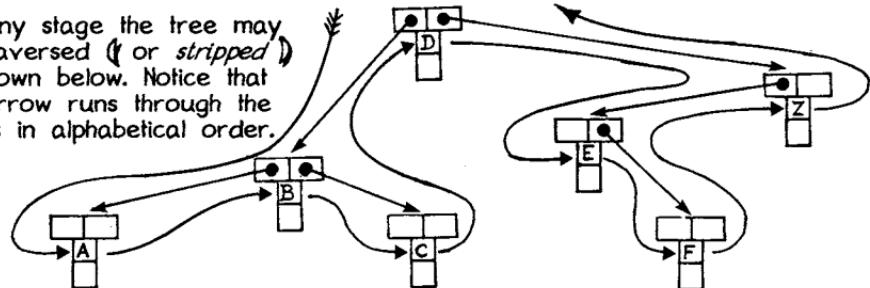
The next letter, E, is bigger than D so go right. It is smaller than Z so go left. Then make a new node to contain E as shown here.

In general, bring the next letter to the root node and compare. If the new letter is smaller go left, if bigger go right. Do the same thing as you reach the next node, and the next and the next. Eventually you will find no node for comparison. At that stage make a new node and store the new letter in it.

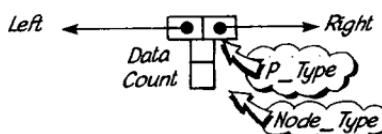
the same thing as you reach the next node, and the next and the next. Eventually you will find no node for comparison. At that stage make a new node and store the new letter in it.



At any stage the tree may be traversed (or striped) as shown below. Notice that the arrow runs through the letters in alphabetical order.



The type of node record depicted opposite is easily defined:



```
typedef struct Nod
{
    struct Nod * Left;
    struct Nod * Right;
    char Data;
    int Count;
} Node_Type, * P_Type;
```

Hanging letters on a tree as depicted in stages opposite is best done recursively. If the current node is NULL make a new node to contain the new letter; otherwise invoke Add\_Item with the parameter specifying the left or right pointer according to how the new letter compares with that pointed to:

```
P_Type Add_Item ( P_Type p, char Letter )
{
    if ( p == NULL )
        p = Create_Node ( Letter, 1 );
    else
        if ( Letter < p -> Data )
            p -> Left = Add_Item ( p -> Left, Letter );
        else
            if ( Letter > p -> Data )
                p -> Right = Add_Item ( p -> Right, Letter );
            else
                p -> Count ++;

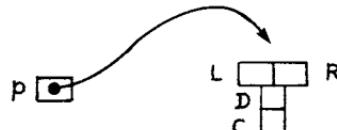
    return p;
}
```

*create new node with null pointers*

*don't store twice, just add 1 to the count*

The function for creating a node involves the malloc() function whose prototype is in <stdlib.h>:

```
P_Type Create_Node (char D, int C)
{
    P_Type p;
    p = (P_Type) malloc ( sizeof ( Node_Type ) );
    p -> Left = NULL;
    p -> Right = NULL;
    p -> Data = D;
    p -> Count = C;
    return p;
}
```

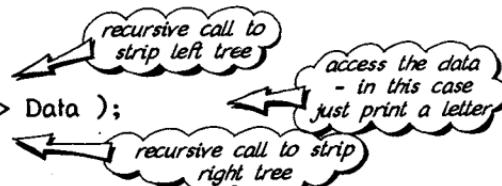


# BINARY TREES

( CONTINUED )

The tree may be traversed recursively:

```
void Strip ( P_Type p )
{
    if ( p != NULL )
    {
        Strip ( p -> Left );
        Print ( p -> Count, p -> Data );
        Strip ( p -> Right );
    }
}
```



where the Print() function is as follows:

```
void Print ( int i, char c )
{
    while ( i-- )
        printf ("%c", c);
}
```

The order of stripping shown above is called 'in order' stripping. Two other orders are useful to programmers:

'pre order' D BAC ZEF

```
Print ( p -> Count, p -> Data );
Strip ( p -> Left );
Strip ( p -> Right );
```

'post order' ACB FEZ D

```
Strip ( p -> Left );
Strip ( p -> Right );
Print ( p -> Count, p -> Data );
```

Adding to the tree is simple, as demonstrated by the elegant brevity of Add\_Item, but true deletion is not simple because it requires re-arrangement of the tree. The following Function finds the letter specified, then decrement its count of occurrences. The Print() Function ignores letters that have a zero count, so Lose\_Item effectively deletes letters.

```
void Lose_Item ( P_Type p, char Letter )
{
    if ( p != NULL )
    {
        if ( Letter == p -> Data )
            Lose_Item ( p -> Left, Letter );
        else
            if ( Letter == p -> Data )
                Lose_Item ( p -> Right, Letter );
            else
                if ( p -> Count > 0 )
                    p -> Count --;
    }
}
```

# MONKEY PUZZLE

ANOTHER NAME FOR THE  
BINARY TREE SORT

```
/* MONKEY PUZZLE SORTING */
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
typedef struct Nod
{
    struct Nod * Left;
    struct Nod * Right;
    char Data;
    int Count;
}
Node_Type, * P_Type;
```

```
P_Type Create_Node ( char, int );
P_Type Add_Item ( P_Type, char );
void Lose_Item ( P_Type, char );
void Strip ( P_Type );
void Print ( int, char );
```

```
void main ( void )
{
```

```
    P_Type Root;
    char Choice, Letter, w[80];
```

```
    printf ("\nEnter +L ( or + any letter ) to add letter to tree"
            "\nEnter -L ( or - any existing letter ) to remove it"
            "\nEnter      to list alphabetically\n" );
```

```
Root = NULL;
while (1)
```

*to leave the loop,  
abort the program*

```
{   Choice = Letter = Ø;
    fflush (stdin);
    sscanf ( gets (w), "%c %c ", & Choice, & Letter );
    if ( Letter == Ø || ( Letter >= 'A' && Letter <= 'Z' ) )
```

```
{   switch ( Choice )
```

```
    case '+':
        Root = Add_Item ( Root, Letter );
        break;
```

```
    case '-': case '_':
        Lose_Item ( Root, Letter );
        break;
```

```
    case '>':
        Strip ( Root );
        printf ("\n");
    }
```

*Flush  
keyboard  
buffer*

*make underscore  
a synonym for  
a minus sign*

*place here the functions whose prototypes are listed above*

# EXERCISES

- 1 Implement the program on Page 148; it employs dynamic stacks. Change the program so that it reads a numerical expression instead of an algebraic one and produces a single numerical result. The way to go about it is explained on Page 142, exercise 3.
- 2 Implement the shortest route program on Page 152. Contrive a network in which there is more than one 'shortest' route. Which does the program choose and why? Modify the program so that it detects multiple shortest routes and warns the user of their existence.
- 3 Modify program ROSES such that it stores *words* in alphabetical order rather than just letters.

As a challenge, develop the program as a tool for book indexing. The structure on the ring should contain a pointer to a chain of integers representing page numbers. Each structure on the main ring should also contain a nested structure ( ) of similar shape ) defining a sub-ring to enable an entry in the book index to look something like this:

```
cats, 172ff
    care of, 172-4
    habits of, 176-7
    in literature, 178-81
```

in which the sub-entries for 'cats' are in alphabetical order.

- 4 Implement the monkey puzzle program on Page 161. Extend its scope so that entering < from the keyboard makes the list of letters appear in reverse order. ( The scope of binary trees is only touched on in this book. )

## **LIBRARY**

This chapter presents the functions of the ANSI C library.

Each function is described by name of function, name of header file in which it is defined, its prototype, a brief description of the function, and an example of its usage. Functions are grouped according to application; use the summary in Chapter 11 for alphabetical reference.

Functions concerned with multi-byte characters and foreign locales are not fully described in this book. For full details see ANSI X 3.195 which also explains why such functions were included in the standard library.

# INPUT, OUTPUT, FILES

Functions for dealing with input, output and file management are described under the following subheadings:

- Low-level input & output
- Single character input & output
- File management
- Random access
- String input & output
- Formats for input & output
- Temporary files
- Buffering

## LOW LEVEL I/O

### Fwrite, Fread

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
size_t fwrite ( const void * buf, size_t b, size_t c, FILE * s );
size_t fread ( void * buf, size_t b, size_t c, FILE * s );
```

Low level functions for writing from buffer to file and reading from file to buffer. Both functions return the number of items successfully transferred. `size_t` is a special type defined by `typedef` in `stdio.h`.

```
Nr_Out = fwrite ( P_out, sizeof ( char ), 80, OutStream );
Nr_In = fread ( P_in, sizeof ( char ), 80, InStream );
```

## SINGLE CHARACTER I/O

### Fputc, putc, putchar

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
int fputc ( int c, FILE * s );
```

Output a single character to stream `s`.

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
int putc ( int c, FILE * s );
int putchar ( int c );
```

macros: `putc()` is equivalent to `fputc()`, so avoid arguments that have side effects; `putchar()` is equivalent to `putc( int c, stdout )`;

```
fputc ( Ch, stdout );
```

### Fgetc, getc, getchar

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
int fgetc ( FILE * s );
```

Input and return a single character from stream *s*.

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
int getc ( FILE * s );
int getchar ( void );
```

macros: `getc()` is equivalent to `fgetc()`, so avoid arguments that have side effects; `getchar()` is equivalent to `getc(stdin)`.

```
Ch = fgetc ( stdin );
```

### ungetc

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
int ungetc ( int c, FILE * s );
```

Causes the next `fgetc()` (or other 'get' function) on this stream to pick up the character 'ungot'. If a second character is 'ungot' before the first has been picked up, the first is lost. Returns the code of the character 'ungot', or EOF if unsuccessful.

```
ungetc ( Ch, stdin );
```

## FILE MANAGEMENT

### fflush

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
int fflush ( FILE * s );
```

Flush input buffer on stream *s*. Return  $\emptyset$  if successful.

```
fflush ( stdin );
```

### fopen, freopen, fclose

```
#include <stdio.h>
FILE * fopen ( const char * file, const char * mode );
FILE * freopen ( const char * file, const char * mode, FILE * s );
```

Function `fopen()` opens a file in the mode specified and returns a pointer to the associated stream. Returns NULL if unsuccessful. The composition of \*mode is defined on Page 117.

Function `freopen()` is similar to `fopen()`, but points to stream *s*, thereby redirecting input or output from stream *s* to the nominated file.

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
FILE * fclose ( FILE * s );
```

Closes an open stream, flushing the output buffer if writing. Returns  $\emptyset$  if successful, otherwise NULL.

```
char *p = "C:\\MYDIR\\MYFILE.ME";
MyStream = fopen ( p, "wt" );
freopen ( "PRNTFILE.TXT", "w", stdout );
fclose ( YourStream );
```

### remove, rename, rewind

- `#include <stdio.h>`  
`int remove ( const char * file);`

Deletes a file, currently closed, and returns `0` if successful.

- `#include <stdio.h>`  
`int rename ( const char * old, const char * new );`

Renames a file, whether it is open or closed, returning `0` if successful.

- `#include <stdio.h>`  
`void rewind ( FILE * s);`

Clears end of file and error flags for stream `s`. Locates the file pointer such that the next read will pick up the first item.

```
printf ( "%s\\n", remove( "MYFILE.DOC") ? "Error": "OK" );
printf ( "%s\\n", rename ( "HER.SUR", "HIS.SUR") ? "Error" : "Ok" );
rewind ( MyStream );
```

### clearerr, feof, ferror

- `#include <stdio.h>`  
`void clearerr ( FILE * s );`

Resets the error indicator and end-of-file indicator without rewinding.

- `#include <stdio.h>`  
`int feof ( FILE * s );`  
`int ferror ( FILE * s );`

Returns non-zero if there has been an attempt to read the stream beyond its end-of-file indicator, or the error indicator has become set. Returns zero if all's well. Each function clears its associated indicator. See page 118 for fuller description.

## RANDOM ACCESS

### fseek, ftell

- `#include <stdio.h>`  
`int fseek ( FILE * s, long offset, int origin );`

Locates the file pointer:

- at the start of stream  $s$  if *origin* specifies  $\emptyset$ ,
- one byte past the end of the file if *origin* specifies 2,
- at *offset* bytes from the start of the file if *origin* is 1.

For clarity: enum { SEEK\_SET, SEEK\_CUR, SEEK\_END } is defined in stdio.h as constants for  $\emptyset$ , 1 and 2.

The function returns  $\emptyset$  if successful, but under MS DOS may return  $\emptyset$  after an unsuccessful attempt.

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
long ftell ( FILE * s );
```

Returns the position of the file pointer. If the return is used as *offset* in fseek(), *origin* must be zero ( SEEK\_SET ).

```
fseek ( MyStream,  $\emptyset$ , SEEK_SET );
ftell ( YrStream );
```

### Fsetpos, Fgetpos

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
int fsetpos ( FILE * s, const fpos_t * p );
```

Sets the file pointer for stream  $s$  to the value pointed to by  $p$ . If successful, the function clears the end-of-file flag for stream  $s$  and returns  $\emptyset$ . If unsuccessful, the function sets the global variable *errno* and returns a non-zero value. *fpos\_t* is a special type defined by *typedef* in stdio.h.

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
int fgetpos ( FILE * s, fpos_t * c );
```

Saves the position of the file pointer on stream  $s$  at the location pointed to by  $c$ . If successful, the function returns  $\emptyset$ , otherwise it sets the global variable *errno* and returns a non-zero value.

```
fpos_t * PosPoint;
fgetpos ( MyStream, PosPoint );
fsetpos ( MyStream, PosPoint );
```

## STRING I/O

### Fgets, gets, Fputs, puts

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
char * fgets ( char * b, int n, FILE * s );
```

From stream  $s$  the function reads as many as  $n-1$  characters to buffer  $b[]$ . It stops reading if it meets  $\backslash n$  ( which it RETAINS ) or EOF. It appends NULL to the character string. The function returns a pointer to buffer  $b$ , or NULL if the operation fails.

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
char * gets ( char * b );
```

Reads characters from `stdin` until meeting `\n` ( which it DROPS ) or EOF. It appends `NULL` to the character string. The function returns a pointer to buffer `b`, or `NULL` if the operation fails.

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
int fputs ( const char * b, FILE * s );
```

Sends the character string in buffer `b` ( which must be NULL terminated ) to stream `s`. Returns `0` if the operation fails.

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
int puts ( const char * b );
```

Sends the character string in buffer `b` ( which must be NULL terminated ) to stream `stdout`. The function returns `0` if the operation fails.

```
char w [ 80 ], v [ 80 ];
fgets ( w, 80, stdin );
gets ( v );
fputs ( w, stdout );
puts ( v );
```

## FORMATS FOR I/O

### `fprintf`, `printf`, `sprintf`

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
int fprintf ( FILE * s, const char * fmt, ... );
```

Prints on stream `s` as many items as there are single percentage signs in `fmt` that have matching arguments in the `...` list. Pages 110 and 111 describe the composition of the format string. The function returns the number of items actually printed.

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
int printf ( const char * fmt, ... );
```

As `fprintf()` but with `stdout` implied for stream `s`.

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
int sprintf ( char * p, const char * fmt, ... );
```

As `fprintf()` but with string `p` in place of stream `s`.

```
char fmat [] = "First %i, then %6.2f then %c then %s\n";
char sink [ 80 ];
fprintf ( stdout, fmat, 1, 1.25, 'A', "OK" );
printf ( fmat, 1, 1.25, 'A', "OK" );
sprintf ( sink, fmat, 1, 1.25, 'A', "OK" );
printf ( "%s", sink );
```

## vfprintf, vprintf, vsprintf

- `#include <stdio.h>`  
`#include <stdarg.h>`

```
int vfprintf ( FILE * s, const char * fmt, va_list ap );
int vprintf ( const char * fmt, va_list ap );
int vsprintf ( char * p, const char * fmt, va_list ap );
```

These functions correspond to fprintf, printf, sprintf respectively, but instead of having a list of arguments they have a pointer of type `va_list` pointing to the 'next' argument retrievable by `va_arg()`. Page 96 explains the use of `va_arg()`. `va_list` is a special type defined by `typedef` in `stdarg.h`.

```
For ( n=0; n<Count; ++n )
    vprintf ( "%f", va_arg ( ap, double ) );
```

## fscanf, scanf, sscanf

- `#include <stdio.h>`  
`int fscanf ( FILE * s, const char * fmt, ... );`

The function reads from stream `s` as many items as there are percentage signs in `fmt` for which there are corresponding pointers in the `...` list. White space in `fmt` is ignored. The function returns the number of items actually read; if excess arguments are provided they are ignored. Pages 112 and 113 describe the composition of the format string.

- `#include <stdio.h>`  
`int scanf ( const char * fmt, ... );`

As `fscanf()` with `stdin` implied for stream `s`.

- `#include <stdio.h>`  
`int sscanf ( const char * b, const char * fmt, ... );`

As `fscanf()` but with string `b` in place of stream `s`.

```
fscanf ( stdin, "%i", &n );
scanf ( "%i", &n );
```

```
char w [ 80 ];
gets ( w );
sscanf ( w, "%i %f %lf", &n, &x, &y );
```

**tmpfile, tmpnam**

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
FILE * tmpfile ( void );
```

Opens a nameless, temporary file in mode "wbt" and returns the associated stream. Mode is defined on Page 117. The function returns NULL if opening fails. The nameless file is automatically deleted on closure of the stream.

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
char * tmpnam ( char * nam );
```

Generates a unique name and returns a pointer to it. The argument points to the array in which you want the name stored. The minimum length of array is given by L\_tmpnam, the maximum number of names by TMP\_MAX, these constants being defined in stdio.h. Absence of an argument implies storage in the form of a constant. See Page 120 for clarification.

```
FILE * BriefStream;
BriefStream = tmpfile();
```

points to nameless file

```
Fclose ( BriefStream );
```

```
char R[L_tmpnam];
tmpnam ( R );
```

name stored in R[]

```
FILE * S;
char * M = tmpnam();
S = fopen ( M, "w+b" );
```

name stored as a constant

```
Fclose ( S );
remove ( M );
```

**BUFFERING****setvbuf, setbuf**

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
int setvbuf ( FILE * s, char * b, int mode, size_t sz );
```

Changes the buffer for stream *s* from that allocated by the system to that specified by *b*. The mode of buffering should be specified as:

- \_IOLBF for full buffering,
- \_IOLBF for buffering a line at a time,
- \_IONBF for no buffering.

Buffer size is specified by *sz*. The mode constants, and the special type *size\_t*, are defined in stdio.h.

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
void setbuf ( FILE * s, char * b );
```

As *setvbuf()* but with mode set to *\_IOFBF* and *sz* set to *BUFSIZ*. The constants are defined in stdio.h.

```
setvbuf ( MyStream, MyBuf, _IOFBF, 2048 );
setbuf ( YrStream, YrBuf );
```

## PROCESS CONTROL

Functions for process control are described under the separate subheadings:

- Termination
- Environment
- Locale
- Error recovery
- Signals & exceptions

### TERMINATION

The following functions are concerned with terminating a program, printing explanatory messages and tidying up at exit. Three libraries are involved.

#### exit, abort, assert

- ```
#include <stdlib.h>
void exit ( int status );
```

Call *exit()* to exit a program normally. The function flushes file buffers, closes files left open. If you registered a set of functions using *atexit()*, these are now invoked in the reverse order of their registration.

Constants *EXIT\_SUCCESS* and *EXIT\_FAILURE* are defined in stdlib.h for use as an argument. *EXIT\_SUCCESS* has the value zero.

- ```
#include <stdlib.h>
void abort ( void );
```

Call `abort()` to exit a program abnormally. The function does not flush file buffers or call functions set up using `atexit()`.

- ```
#include <assert.h>
void assert ( int expression );
```

A macro intended for program development. If `expression` evaluates as zero, certain diagnostics are sent to `stderr`, then `abort()` is invoked. You can disable `assert()` using macro `NDEBUG` in the preprocessor.

```
if ( Chaos ) abort();
if ( ! Chaos ) exit (0);
assert ( Nodes > Edges );
```

### perror

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
void perror ( const char * mess );
```

Prints on stream `stderr` the message you give as argument. Precedes the message with the error number currently held by the global variable `errno`.

```
perror ( "out of memory" );
exit (2);
```

### atexit

- ```
#include <stdlib.h>
int atexit ( void ( * fun )( void ) );
```

When `atexit()` is invoked it 'registers' the function pointed to by `fun` as a function to be invoked by `exit()`. The `exit()` function invokes all registered functions in the reverse order of their registration. You may register as many as 32, possibly more, see local manual for the number permitted. Registered functions should be simple ones that cause no side affects.

```
atexit ( Second_Func() );
atexit ( First_Func() );
```

The following functions are concerned with a program's environment. Environment strings may be interrogated and commands to the operating system executed from inside the program.

### getenv

- `#include <stdlib.h>`  
`char * getenv ( const char * Name );`

The name used as an argument is matched against the list of 'environment names' held by the system; for example "PATH" or "MYFILE2". If a match is found the function returns a pointer to the corresponding data object, otherwise it returns NULL. Do not attempt to change the static object pointed to.

```
p = getenv ( "PATH" );
```

### system

- `#include <stdlib.h>`  
`int system ( const char * command );`

Executes, from inside a program, a command addressed to the computer's operating system. The command should be encoded as a string. Given NULL as the argument, the function returns non-zero to indicate the presence of a command processor, zero to indicate absence.

```
system ( "DIR" );
```

## LOCALE

Monetary values in different countries are printed in diverse styles; for example \$5.95 versus £3-15. Separators and groupings of digits vary, also the usage of commas and periods. A set of such conventions may be set up in a C program as a named structure, and these may be picked up for use in any 'international' functions you may write. A locale has categories (accessed by the constants LC\_NUMERIC, LC\_TIME, LC\_MONETARY etc.) which may be independently changed.

By default, the structure named C specifies only the use of a period as a decimal point. No function in the C library refers to any locale convention save that of the decimal point.

The prototypes shown below declare functions for setting conventions for a locale and interrogating the structure. See ANSI X3.159 for further information.

## **setlocale, localeconv**

- ```
#include <locale.h>
char setlocale ( int category, const char * locale );
struct lconv * localeconv ( void );
```

```
setlocale ( LC_ALL, "C" );
printf ("Out, damned %s, out I say!\n", localeconv ()->decimal_point);
```

## **ERROR RECOVERY**

The 'goto' statement, which causes a jump to a label in the same function, can be useful for error recovery but is limited in scope. The facilities, longjmp() and setjmp(), are designed to serve a similar purpose as the 'goto' and the label respectively, but their use is not constrained to the scope of a single function.

A macro, setjmp(), is defined in <setjmp.h>. Also defined is an array type named jmp\_buf. On invocation, setjmp() saves its calling environment in the nominated buffer for use by the next invocation of longjmp(). The location of setjmp() serves as the 'label'.

The macro returns  $\emptyset$  if successful.

When a subsequent longjmp() is executed, control returns to setjmp(). The second argument of longjmp() provides an error code which setjmp() then returns. The program behaves as though there had been no interruption to its flow.

To avoid unwanted interaction, calls to longjmp() should be made only in simple contexts. A definition of the four allowable contexts, referred to above as 'simple', may be found in 4.6.11 of ANSI X3.159.

## **setjmp, longjmp**

- ```
#include <setjmp.h>
int setjmp ( jmp_buf saver );
void longjmp ( jmp_buf saver, int value );
```

```
if ( ErNo = setjmp(MyBuf)== $\emptyset$  )
{ normal program }
else
{ handle errors: switch (ErNo) }

if ( Chaos )
longjmp ( MyBuf, 1 );
```

The signal.h header file provides tools for handling failures, errors and interruptions, described collectively as 'exceptions'. When an exception occurs during execution the processor raises a corresponding 'signal'.

The header file defines the following macros for processing signals:

- SIG\_DFL default treatment, depends on implementation
- SIG\_IGN ignore
- SIG\_ERR the value returned by signal() if signal fails.

The header file defines the following signals:

- SIGABRT abnormal termination, as with abort()
- SIGFPE arithmetic error ( such as division by zero )
- SIGILL illegal instruction
- SIGINT interrupt ( typically Ctrl+C from keyboard )
- SIGSEGV attempted access outside memory range
- SIGTERM request for termination received by program.

Signals are objects of type sig\_atomic\_t, a type defined in the header file. When an exception arises, the corresponding signal is automatically raised, and 'handled' as specified in the function ( which you may write ) nominated as the second parameter of signal(). This function may, itself, invoke signal() in various ways, and may be designed to abort the run or return to the place where the signal was raised.

Instead of writing a handling function you may call one of the standard macros SIG\_IGN or SIG\_DFL for ignoring the signal or treating it in the default manner. After ignoring a signal, control reverts to where the signal was raised. The 'default manner' depends on the implementation.

In addition to handling signals you may raise them. A signal is raised by means of the raise() function.

### signal, raise

- ```
#include <signal.h>
void ( * signal ( int sig, void ( * hndlr )( int ) ) ) (int );
int raise ( int sig );
```

The first argument of signal() should be one of the six listed. The second argument may be the name of a function you have written for handling the exception, or it may be SIG\_DFL or SIG\_IGN. When the nominated exception arises, the associated function or macro is called. If the signal() function fails it returns SIG\_ERR.

If you write a handling function it should have a single int argument for the signal to be handled and return a value of like type.

```
if ( signal ( SIGINT, MyHandler ) == SIG_ERR )  
    perror (" signal Failure"), exit(1);  
signal ( SIGFPE, SIG_IGN );  
raise ( SIGSEGV );
```

## VARIABLE ARGUMENT LIST

Functions may be defined with an argument list comprising at least one argument always present followed by a variable number of 'extra' arguments. <stdarg.h> provides tools for picking up the extra arguments. The pointer must have the special type, va\_list, defined in the header file.

### va\_start, va\_arg, va\_end

- `#include <stdarg.h>`  
`void va_start ( va_list p, name );`

Place function at start of extraction sequence. The first argument declares the pointer, the second is the name of the last fixed argument in the function.

```
#include <stdarg.h>  
type va_arg ( va_list p, type );
```

This is obeyed once for each argument extracted. type will be int, float, double, etc. according to the type of argument to be extracted in each case.

- `#include <stdarg.h>`  
`void va_end ( va_list p );`

Place Function at end of extraction sequence. See Page 96 for clarification.

```
va_list ap;  
va_start ( ap, Count );  
va_end ( ap );
```

## MEMORY ALLOCATION

When one structure points to another of the same type, memory has to be allocated for the structure pointed to. Memory is allocated from a 'heap' maintained by the processor. Allocation functions specify the number of bytes required.

If a pointer to a structure is made to point elsewhere, the structure formerly pointed to becomes 'garbage', which may be 'freed' and returned to the heap.

## **malloc, calloc, realloc, free**

- ```
#include <stdlib.h>
void * malloc ( size_t bytes );
```

The function returns a pointer to a buffer comprising storage of the specified size. The type of pointer may be indicated by a cast. Size is measured as a total number of bytes, usually by sizeof() which returns a value of the required type.

- ```
#include <stdlib.h>
void * calloc ( size_t NumElts, size_t EltSiz );
```

The function returns a pointer to a buffer for an array having *NumElts* elements, each of *EltSiz* bytes. The type of pointer may be indicated by a cast. The size of element is usually given via sizeof() which returns a value of the required type.

- ```
#include <stdlib.h>
void * realloc ( void * p, size_t newsiz );
```

Changes the size of an allocated section of memory, pointed to by *p*, to the new size of *newsiz* bytes. If the new size is smaller than the previous size, the new content will remain the same as far as it goes. The pointer should have been established by malloc(), calloc() or realloc() — or it may be NULL, in which case realloc() behaves like malloc().

- ```
#include <stdlib.h>
void free ( void * p );
```

Frees the section of memory previously allocated, and pointed to by *p*, returning it to the heap. See Chapter 9 for clarification.

```
p = (Ptr_to_Edgetype) malloc ( sizeof ( Edge_Type ) );
q = ( int * ) calloc ( 1000, sizeof ( int ) );
```

## **STRING TO NUMBER**

The functions described below are for converting values expressed in character form to values in numerical form and vice versa.

### **atoi**

- ```
#include <stdlib.h>
int atoi ( const char * s );
```

Returns the decimal int value represented by the argument. Equivalent to the call: (int) strtol ( *s*, (char \*) NULL, 10 ).

```
printf ( "%i\n", atoi ( " -987" ) );
```

-987

## atol

- ```
#include <stdlib.h>
long atol (const char * s );
```

Returns the decimal long int value represented by the argument.  
Equivalent to the call: `strtol ( s, (char**) NULL, 10 )`;

```
printf ("%li\n", atoi (" -98765" ));
```

-98765

## atof

- ```
#include <stdlib.h>
double atof ( const char * s );
```

Returns the double value represented by the argument. Equivalent to the call: `strtod ( s, (char**) NULL )`;

```
printf ( "%f\n", atof ( " -98.765" ) );
```

-98.765000

## strtod

- ```
#include <stdlib.h>
double strtod ( const char * s, char ** p );
```

Short for 'string to double'. The form of string is expected to be the following:

*wsp sign digits.digits exp sign digits excess*

- *wsp* means optional white space
- *sign* means an optional + or -
- *digits* means an optional sequence of decimal digits; at least one digit must follow the decimal point if there is no digit before it
- *exp* is E, e, D or d to signify 'times ten to the power...'
- *excess* signifies any trailing, non-conforming string such as "ABC" in "-4.5e6ABC".

The function returns the value represented by the string. It leaves *p* NULL, or pointing to the start of the trailing string if such exists. If the converted value is too big for its type, the function returns the value of the constant `HUGE_VAL` and sets `errno`.

```
char String [] = "-4.5e6ABC";
printf ("%lf", strtod (String, & p ) );
printf (" %s\n", p );
```

-4500000.000000 ABC

## strtol, strtoul

- ```
#include <stdlib.h>
long strtol ( const char * s, char ** p, int base );
unsigned long strtoul ( const char * s, char ** p, int radix );
```

Short for 'string to long' and 'string to unsigned long'. The form of string is expected to be:

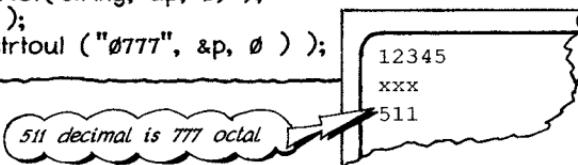
wsp sign  $\emptyset$  x digits

- *wsp* means optional white space
- *sign* means an optional + or -
- *x* means an optional x or X
- *digits* means a sequence of octal, decimal or hex digits.
- *excess* signifies any trailing, non-conforming string.

The function returns the value represented by string *s*, leaving *p* NULL, or pointing to the trailing string if such exists. If the value is too big for its type, *strtol()* returns the value of the constant *LONG\_MAX* or *LONG\_MIN* according to the sign given in *s*, and sets *errno*; *strtoul()* returns *ULONG\_MAX* and sets *errno*.

The argument, *base*, which specifies the number base, may be set from 2 to 36 or to zero. If set zero the base is deduced from the initial characters of *s* by the following rules: first character  $\emptyset$ , next  $\emptyset$  to 7, implies base 8 (octal); first character  $\emptyset$ , next x or X, implies base 16 (hex); first character 1 to 9 implies base 10 (decimal).

```
char String[] = "+12345xxx", * p;
printf ( "%li\n", strtol(String, &p, 0) );
printf ( "%s\n", p );
printf ( "%lu\n", strtoul ("0777", &p, 0 ) );
```



# MATHEMATICS

The mathematical functions are described below under the headings:

- Arithmetical
- Trigonometrical
- Hyperbolics
- Random numbers
- Modular division
- Logarithms & exponentials

Most of the mathematical functions and macros are defined in the math.h header but a few are to be found in stdlib.h. These are functions concerned with:

- absolute values (abs, fabs, labs)
- pseudo-random numbers (rand, srand)
- modular divisions (div, ldiv).

If an argument supplied to a function is outside the domain over which the function is defined, the global variable, errno, is set to the value returned by macro EDOM. If the value computed by a function cannot be represented by type double, errno is set to the value returned by macro ERANGE. In either case the value returned by the function then depends on the implementation. The value returned by macro HUGE\_VAL may be employed. Check local manuals about domain and range errors.

## ARITHMETICAL

### abs, fabs, labs

- ```
#include <stdlib.h>
int abs ( int n );
long labs ( long w );

```
- ```
#include <math.h>
double fabs ( double d );
```

Absolute (positive) value of the argument.

```
printf ("%i %i %i\n", abs(-2), abs(0), abs(2) );
printf ("%li\n", labs(-2));
printf ("% .4f\n", fabs(-.002) );
```

```
2 0 2
2
0.0020
```

### ceil, floor

- ```
#include <math.h>
double ceil ( double d );
double floor ( double d );
```

The nearest whole number above the value of the argument, and the nearest whole number below the value of the argument respectively.

```
printf ( %.2f\n", ceil ( 2.001 ) );
printf ( %.2f\n", floor ( 2.999 ) );
```

```
3.00
2.00
```

### pow

- ```
#include <math.h>
double pow ( double x, double y );
```

The result of  $x$  raised to the power  $y$ . A domain error if  $x$  is negative and  $y$  non-integral. A range error occurs if the computed value is too big.

```
printf ( "%.2F %.2F\n", pow ( 2,3 ), pow ( 2.5, 3.5 ) );
```

8.00 24.71

### sqrt

```
■ #include <math.h>
double sqrt ( double a );
```

The square root of an argument that must be positive. Domain error if the argument is negative.

```
printf ( "%.2F %.2F\n", sqrt ( 0 ), sqrt ( 13.45 ) );
```

0.00 3.67

## TRIGONOMETRICAL

### sin, cos, tan

```
■ #include <math.h>
double sin ( double ar );
double cos ( double ar );
double tan ( double ar );
```

The sine, cosine, tangent ( respectively ) of an angle measured in radians.

```
const double pi = 3.1415926;
printf ( "%.3f %.3f\n", sin ( pi/6 ), sin ( 0 ) );
printf ( "%.3f %.3f\n", cos ( -pi/6 ), cos ( pi ) );
printf ( "%.3f\n", tan ( pi/4 ) );
```

0.500 0.000  
0.866 -1.000  
1.000

### asin, acos

```
■ #include <math.h>
double asin ( double a );
double acos ( double a );
```

The arc sine ( the angle whose sine is... ), and arc cosine ( the angle whose cosine is... ). The value returned is measured in radians. For asin() the range is  $[-\pi/2, +\pi/2]$ , for acos() the range is  $[0, \pi]$ . Domain error if the argument falls outside the range -1 to +1.

```
printf ( "%.3f %.3f\n", asin(0.5), acos(sqrt(3)/2) );
```

0.524 0.524

$\pi/6$

## atan, atan2

- #include <math.h>  
double atan ( double a );  
double atan2 ( double y, double x );

The arc tangent (the angle whose tangent is...). The argument of atan() specifies the ratio of y to x; arguments of atan2() specify the same ratio but with y and x independently signed. The value returned is measured in radians. For atan() the range is  $[-\pi/2, +\pi/2]$ ; for atan2() it is  $[-\pi, +\pi]$ .

```
printf ( "%.3f %.3f\n", atan(1), atan2(-1, -1) );
```

0.785 -2.356

## HYPERBOLICS

## sinh, cosh, tanh

- #include <math.h>  
double sinh ( double x );  
double cosh ( double x );  
double tanh ( double x );

The hyperbolic sine, hyperbolic cosine, hyperbolic tangent respectively. A range error occurs with sinh() or cosh() if the computed value is too big.

```
const double d = 7.6009025;  
printf ( "%.3f %.3f %.3f", sinh(d), cosh(d), tanh(d) );
```

1000.000 1000.000 1.000

## RANDOM NUMBERS

## rand, srand

- #include <stdlib.h>  
int rand (void);

Returns a pseudo random number having a value between zero and the constant RAND\_MAX which is defined in stdlib.h. The starting value (the seed) may be set by a call to function srand().

- #include <stdlib.h>  
void srand ( unsigned int seed );

When called, the function sets a seed for the rand() function. The seed is based on the argument given to srand(); if a program is re-run with identical seeds, rand() will generate an identical sequence of numbers. In the absence of any srand() function, srand(1) is implied.

```
srand ( 10 );  
printf ( "%i %i %i\n", rand(),rand(),rand() );
```

10345 30957 3463

for example

**div, ldiv**

- `#include <stdlib.h>`  
`div_t div ( int num, int denom );`

The arguments specify the numerator and denominator of a division operation. The function returns the quotient and remainder of that operation in a structure of type `div_t`. This structure is defined in `stdlib.h` as:

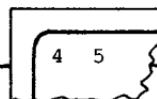
```
typedef struct
{
    int quot;
    int rem;
} div_t;
```

- `#include <stdlib.h>`  
`ldiv_t ldiv ( long num, long denom );`

The function works as described above, but involves long integers. The structure returned is defined in `stdlib.h` as:

```
typedef struct
{
    long quot;
    long rem;
} ldiv_t;
```

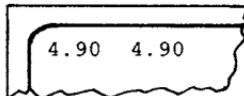
```
div_t shorty;
shorty = div ( 37, 8 );
printf ( "%i %i\n", shorty.quot, shorty.rem );
```

**fmod**

- `#include <math.h>`  
`double fmod ( double x, double y );`

Returns the remainder of a floating point division, where the division operation is designed to stop when the quotient reaches the highest possible integral value, positive or negative.

```
printf ( " %.2f %.2f\n", fmod(36.4, 6.3), fmod(36.4, -6.3) );
```



## modf

- #include <math.h>  
double modf ( double d, double \* p );

Returns the fractional part of a floating point number,  $d$ , leaving  $p$  pointing to a whole number expressed in floating point form. If  $d$  is negative, both parts are taken as negative.

```
double Frac, Int;  
Frac = modf(-12.34, & Int);  
printf ( "%.2f %.2f\n", Int, Frac );
```

-12.00 -0.34

## LOGARITHMS & EXPONENTIALS

### log, log10, exp

- #include <math.h>  
double log ( double a );  
double log10 ( double a );  
double exp ( double a );

The natural logarithm (base e) of the argument, the base 10 logarithm of the argument, the natural anti-logarithm of the argument – in other words e raised to the power of the argument.

```
const double e = 2.718282;  
printf ( "%.2f %.2f %.2f\n", log(1), log(e), log10(1000) );  
printf ( "%.2f %.2f %.2f\n", exp(0), exp(1), exp(log(123)) );
```

|      |      |        |
|------|------|--------|
| 0.00 | 1.00 | 3.00   |
| 1.00 | 2.72 | 123.00 |

### frexp, ldexp

- #include <math.h>  
double frexp ( double x, int \* p );

The composition of binary floating point number  $x$  is  $m$  times 2 to the integral power  $n$ , where  $m$  is the 'mantissa'. Function frexp() returns the mantissa of  $x$  and leaves  $p$  pointing to the integral exponent.

- #include <math.h>  
double ldexp ( double x, int n );

Function ldexp() returns the product of  $x$  times 2 to the power  $n$ .

```
double Man;  
int Exp;  
Man = frexp ( 6.3, & Exp );  
printf ( "%.4f %i\n", Man, Exp );  
printf ( "%.2f\n", ldexp( Man, Exp ) );
```

|        |   |
|--------|---|
| 0.7875 | 3 |
| 6.30   |   |

# CHARACTERS

Functions for identifying characters ('is it an integer?' etc.) are defined in header file ctype.h. Functions for converting values from character representation to numerical representation, and vice versa, are defined in header file stdlib.h.

## isalnum, isalpha, isdigit, isxdigit

```
■ #include <ctype.h>
int isalnum ( int c );
int isalpha ( int c );
int isdigit ( int c );
int isxdigit ( int c );
```

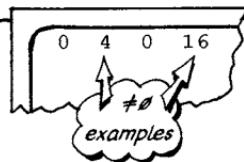
These functions return a non-zero value (true) if the test passes, otherwise 0 (false). The tests are respectively for:

- isalnum(), an alphanumeric character, letter or digit
- isalpha(), a letter
- isdigit(), a digit from 0 to 9
- isxdigit(), a hex digit, 0 to F (or f)

```
printf ("%i %i %i %i\n", isalnum('*'), isalpha('G'), isdigit('b'), isxdigit('b') );
```

## isgraph, isprint

```
■ #include <ctype.h>
int isgraph ( int c );
int isprint ( int c );
```



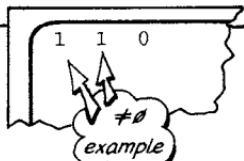
These functions return a non-zero value (true) if the test passes, otherwise 0 (false). The tests are respectively for:

- isgraph(), a printable character excluding a space character
- isprint(), a printable character including a space character

```
printf ("%i %i %i %i\n", isprint('*'), isprint(' '), isgraph(' ') );
```

## islower, isupper

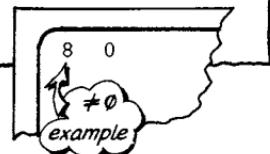
```
■ #include <ctype.h>
int islower ( int c );
int isupper ( int c );
```



These functions return a non-zero value (true) if the test passes, otherwise 0 (false). The tests are respectively for:

- `islower()`, a letter from a to z
- `isupper()`, a letter from A to Z

```
printf ("%i %i\n", islower('n'), isupper('n') );
```



### iscntrl, ispunct, isspace

- `#include <ctype.h>`  
int iscntrl ( int c );  
int ispunct ( int c );  
int isspace ( int c );

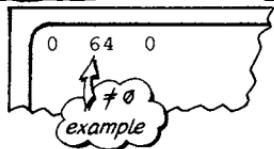
These functions return a non-zero value (true) if the test passes, otherwise 0 (false). The tests are respectively for:

- `iscntrl()`, a control character such as that sent from the keyboard by holding down Ctrl and pressing C.
- `ispunct()`, a punctuation mark such as ; or : or .
- `isspace()`, one of the white space characters ' ', \f, \n, \r, \t, \v

```
printf ("%i %i %i\n", iscntrl(' '), ispunct('*'), isspace(';') );
```

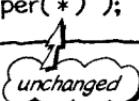
### tolower, toupper

- `#include <ctype.h>`  
int tolower ( int c );  
int toupper ( int c );



Returns the lower case or upper case equivalent of the argument respectively. If there is no such equivalent, the function returns the same value as its argument, treated as type int.

```
printf ("%c %c\n", tolower('A'), toupper('*') );
```



## STRINGS

Most of the following functions are defined in `string.h`, a few in `<stdlib.h>`. They concern character arrays and their manipulation. In the explanations that follow, the phrase 'string s' is used as a short way of saying 'the array pointed to by s'.

The functions are described under the following subheadings:

- String length
- String copy & concatenate
- String comparison & search
- Miscellaneous strings

## STRING LENGTH

### strlen

- ```
#include <string.h>
size_t strlen ( const char * s );
```

Returns the number of bytes in the null-terminated string pointed to by *s*, NOT counting the null terminator.

```
printf ( "%i\n", strlen ( "ABC" ) );
```

3

## COPY & CONCATENATE

The library offers several string copying functions, all subtly different in behaviour.

### strcpy, strncpy

- ```
#include <string.h>
char * strcpy ( char * s1, const char * s2 );
char * strncpy ( char * s1, const char * s2, size_t n );
```

Function `strcpy()` copies string *s1*, including its terminating null, to *s2*. `strncpy()` does a similar job, but copies only *n* characters. If a terminator in *s2* is met before all *n* characters have been copied, the target string is padded with null characters to the full count of *n*. The functions return a pointer to the copied string. For neither function should the strings overlap.

```
char S[6];
strncpy ( S, "ABCDE", 8);
```

## memcpy, memmove

- #include <string.h>  
void \* memcpy ( void \* b1, const void \* b2, size\_t n );  
void \* memmove ( void \* b1, const void \* b2, size\_t n );

The objects copied by these two functions are not limited to null-terminated strings. `memcpy()` copies  $n$  characters from buffer  $b2$  to buffer  $b1$ , returning pointer  $b1$ . The objects should not overlap.

`memmove()` does a similar job to `memcpy()` but behaves as though the  $n$  characters were first copied from  $b2$  to a private buffer, then copied from the buffer to  $b1$ , thus tolerating overlap.

```
char S[3];  
memcpy ( S, "ABCD", 3 );
```

## strcat, strncat

- #include <string.h>  
char \* strcat ( char \* s1, const char \* s2 );  
char \* strncat ( char \* s1, const char \* s2, size\_t n );

Function `strcat()` copies  $s2$  onto the end of  $s1$ , overwriting the terminating null of  $s1$  with the first character of  $s2$ . The copied string is not disturbed. The return value is  $s1$ . `strncat()` does a similar job, but appends only the first  $n$  characters of  $s2$ , then adds a null terminator. For neither function should the strings overlap.

```
char S[6] = "XY";  
strncat ( S, "ABC", 2 );
```

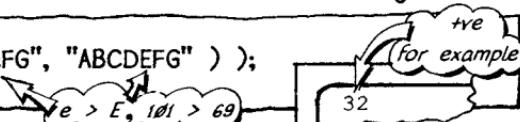
## STRING COMPARISON

## strcmp, strncmp, memcmp

- #include <string.h>  
int strcmp ( const char \* s1, const char \* s2 );  
int strncmp ( const char \* s1, const void \* s2, size\_t n );  
int memcmp ( const void \* s1, const void \* s2, size\_t n );

Function `strcmp()` compares  $s1$  and  $s2$ , character by character, until it reaches the end of both strings or encounters a difference. If it reaches the end, the function returns zero; if it encounters a difference it returns a positive or negative value. The value returned is positive if the first non-matching character in  $s1$  is greater (treated as unsigned char) than the corresponding character in  $s2$ , otherwise the value returned is negative. `strncmp()` does a similar job, but considers only the first  $n$  characters – fewer if a null terminator is met early. `memcmp()` is similar to `strncmp()` but not constrained to work with null-terminated strings.

```
printf ("%i\n", strcmp( "ABCDEFG", "ABCDEFG" ) );
```



**strchr, strrchr, memchr**

- #include <string.h>
 

```
char * strchr ( const char * s, int c );
char * strrchr ( const char * s, int c );
void * memchr ( const void * b, int c, size_t n );
```

Function `strchr()` returns a pointer to the first occurrence of `c` in `s`, or `NULL` if it fails to find one. `strrchr()` is similar to `strchr()` but returns the last occurrence instead of the first. In both these functions, '`\0`' is included as one of the characters of the string. `memchr()` does a similar job to `strchr()` but is not constrained to work with null-terminated strings and considers only the first `n` characters of buffer `b`.

```
printf ("%s %s\n", strchr( "abba", 'b'), strrchr("abba", 'b') );
```

bba    ba

**strcspn, strpbrk, strspn, strstr**

- #include <string.h>
 

```
size_t strcspn ( const char * s1, const char * s2 );
char * strpbrk ( const char * s1, const char * s2 );
size_t strspn ( const char * s1, const char * s2 );
char * strstr ( const char * s1, const char * s2 );
```

Function `strcspn()` returns the number of characters in `s1` encountered before meeting any of the characters in `s2`. `strpbrk()` returns a pointer to the first character encountered in `s1` that matches any of the characters in `s2`. `strspn()` returns the number of characters in `s1` encountered before meeting one that is outside the list in `s2`. Function `strstr()` finds the location of sub-string `s2` in `s1` and returns a pointer to its leading character. Returns `NULL` if there is no match.

```
printf ( "%i leading consonants\n", strcspn("Phrygian", "aeiou") );
printf ( "%s\n", strpbrk ("Phrygian", "aeiou") );
printf ( "%i leading digits\n", strspn( "1984 JULY 23", "0123456789" ) );
printf ( "%s\n", strstr( "Mares eat oats", "at" ) );
```

5 leading consonants  
ian  
4 leading digits  
at oats

**strtok**

- #include <string.h>
 

```
char * strtok ( const char * s1, const char * s2 );
```

The function returns pointers to successive tokens constituting the string `s1`. Characters deemed to separate the tokens are listed in `s2`. On the first call to `strtok()` the first argument should identify the string full of tokens; on subsequent calls the first argument should be `NULL` to signify the same string as before; the terminators may be different on each call. The function returns `NULL` when there are no more tokens to deal with. The original string is overwritten with undefined information.

```
char * p, Line[] = "Para 37.6 : drs = x1 / 12.73";
printf ("%s", p=strtok (Line, ":") );
while (p)
    printf (" %s", p=strtok( NULL, " ./=" ) );
printf ("\n");
```

Para 37.6 drs,x1,12,73,(null),

## MISCELLANEOUS STRINGS

### strerror

- #include <string.h>  
char \* strerror ( int n );

Returns a pointer to a system message corresponding to the error number given as the argument. The argument is typically the value of the global variable errno. The content of the message depends on the implementation.

```
printf ( "%s\n", strerror( errno ) );
```

Invalid data

example

### memset

- #include <string.h>  
void \* memset ( void \* b, int c, size\_t n );

The function sets the first *n* characters of buffer *b* to the value *c* and returns the pointer you give as the first argument. Make sure *b* has at least *n* characters.

```
memset ( MyBuffer, '\0', 2048 );
```

### strcoll, strxfrm

Functions for comparing the strings employed in particular locales. strcoll() is designed for use where few comparisons are expected; strxfrm() is for transforming strings such that their transformed versions can be compared rapidly by strcmp(). See ANSI X3.159 for details.

### mblen, mbstowcs, mbtowc, wctomb, wcstombs

The ANSI C library defines a set of functions that work with multi-byte and 'wide' characters such as those in the character sets of Asian languages. See ANSI X3.159 for details.

# SORT, SEARCH

The following functions typically employ a Quicksort algorithm and 'binary chop' respectively, but ANSI X3.159 does not demand any particular methods of implementation.

## qsort

- #include <stdlib.h>  
void qsort ( void \* b, size\_t n, size\_t w, comparison );  
  
where *comparison* is a function call in the form:  
  
int ( \* f ) ( const void \*, const void \* );

The function rearranges the *n* pointers held in *b* such that the objects they point to ( each of *w* bytes ) may be accessed in ascending order. Specify which order by providing a function to compare the objects indicated by its arguments. Use a library function like strcmp() or write your own. The function should return a positive integer if the first argument points to the greater object, a negative integer if it points to the lesser, otherwise zero.

```
char Kids [] [6] = { "mo", "meeny", "eeny", "miny" };  
int i, n = sizeof Kids / sizeof Kids[0];  
qsort ( Kids, n, 6, strcmp );  
for ( i = 0; i < n, ++i )  
    printf ("%s ", Kids[i] );  
printf ("\n");
```

eeny meeny miny mo

## bsearch

- #include <stdlib.h>  
void \* bsearch ( const void \* k, const void \* b, size\_t n,  
size\_t w, comparison );

where *comparison* is a function call as defined for qsort().

The Function searches the first *n* objects in a sorted array, *b*, each element of size *w* bytes, and compares them with the key indicated by *k*. Comparisons employ the function you nominate, the key being associated with first argument, the array element with the second. If a match is found, the function returns a pointer to the matching element, otherwise it returns NULL. If more than one element matches the key, one of them is pointed to, but which of them is unspecified.

```
char Kids [] [6] = { "eeny", "meeny", "miny", "mo" };  
char * Key = "meeny";  
printf ( "%s\n", bsearch ( Key, Kids, 4, 6, strcmp ) );
```

meeny

# DATE and TIME

For the functions defined in the time.h header file, there are two distinct representations of time:

- as a type, time\_t
- as a structure, struct tm

As a type, time\_t, time is represented as the number of seconds since the start of New Year's day, 1970, in Greenwich. The definition of struct tm is as follows:

```
struct tm
{
    int tm_sec;          /* seconds after the minute, 0-61 */
    int tm_min;          /* minutes after the hour, 0-59 */
    int tm_hour;         /* hours since midnight, 0-23 */
    int tm_mday;         /* day of month, 1-31 */
    int tm_mon;          /* months since January, 0-11 */
    int tm_year;         /* years since 1900 */
    int tm_wday;         /* days since Sunday, 0-6 */
    int tm_yday;         /* days since 1st January, 0-365 */
    int tm_isdst;        /* daylight saving time flag */
};
```

range allows up to two leap seconds

## asctime, ctime

- `#include <time.h>`
- `char * asctime ( struct tm * t );`
- `char * ctime ( const time_t * t );`

Function asctime() returns a pointer to a string. The string contains an encoding of what is represented in the structure indicated by t. Function ctime() does the same thing, but for an argument of type time\_t. The form of the encoding is:

Sun Nov 10 21:21:00 1991\n\0

```
struct tm MyBirthday = { 0, 0, 10, 28, 1, 30 };
printf ( "%s", asctime ( & MyBirthday ) );
```

## clock

- `#include <time.h>`
- `clock_t clock ( void );`

Sun Feb 28 10:00:00 1930

Returns the time, measured in 'ticks', since the current process was started. The duration of a 'tick' depends on the implementation; to obtain the number of seconds, divide the returned value by CLOCKS\_PER\_SEC, which is a macro defined in the time.h header file. If the implementation does not provide a clock facility the function returns -1 ( cast as type clock\_t ).

```
i = clock ();  
process
```

```
j = clock ();  
printf ( "%i secs\n", ( j - i ) / CLOCKS_PER_SEC );
```

CLOCKS\_PER\_SEC

according to ANSI x3.159-1989  
but CLK\_TCK is the name used  
in some implementations

## difftime

- `#include <time.h>`  
`double difftime ( time_t t2, time_t t1 );`

Returns the number of seconds between the earlier time,  $t_1$ , and the later time,  $t_2$ .

```
Lapse = difftime ( Start, Finish );
```

## gmtime, localtime

- `#include <time.h>`  
`struct tm * gmtime ( const time_t * t );`  
`struct tm * localtime ( const time_t * t );`

Decodes information contained in the object pointed to by the argument,  $t$ , stores the expanded information in a structure of type `struct tm`, and returns a pointer to this structure. The results are based on Greenwich Mean Time or local time according to the function chosen; see your particular manual about the implications of GMT and local time.

```
p = gmtime ( & Start );
```

## mktime

- `#include <time.h>`  
`time_t mktime ( struct tm * p );`

Encodes information representing local time, and held in the structure pointed to by  $p$ , then returns this information encoded as type `time_t`. Two of the fields, `tm_wday` and `tm_yday`, play no part in the encoding. Returns -1 ( cast as `time_t` ) if the function fails.

```
time_t Occasion;  
Occasion = mktime ( & MyBirthday );
```

## time

- `#include <time.h>`  
`time_t time ( time_t * t );`

Consults the computer's timer. Returns the current date and time encoded as type `time_t`. If  $t$  is not NULL, the result is also copied to the location  $t$  points to.

```
time_t TimeNow;  
time( & TimeNow );  
printf ("Time is now %s\n", ctime ( & TimeNow ) );
```

Time is now Thu Dec 19 15:50:05 1991

## strftime

A Function for Formatting the date and time held in a structure of type struct tm as a string to your own design. A battery of about twenty Format specifiers is provided; each begins with a percentage sign on the principles adopted in printf() and scanf() but using multi-byte characters. The application of strftime() is sensitive to locale. See ANSI X3.159 for details.

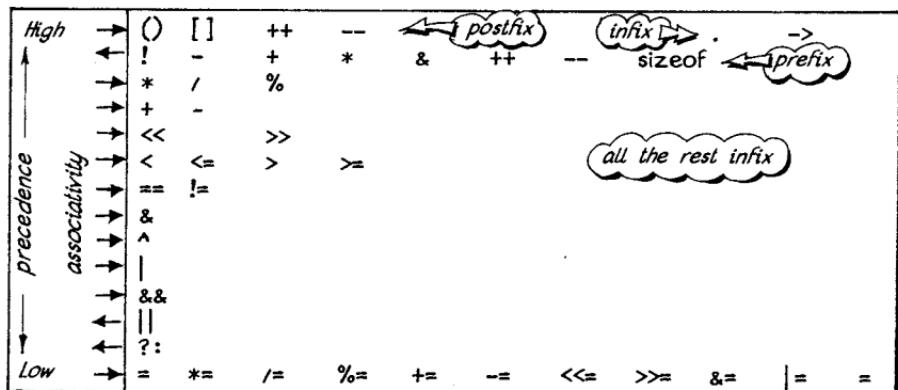
## SUMMARIES

This chapter contains summaries of information designed for quick reference. It contains:

- Operator summary, including a table showing the relative precedence of operators.
- Syntax summary, showing all syntax diagrams included in the text
- Library summary, listing alphabetically the prototypes of all library functions except those concerned with multi-byte characters and Foreign locales.

# OPERATOR SUMMARY

PRECEDENCE, ASSOCIATIVITY & SEMANTICS

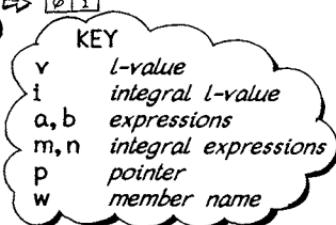


## PREFIX OPERATORS

- + ► + a confirmation
- ► - a negation
- & ► & v address of l-value
- \* ► \* p pointee of object pointed to by )
- ~ ► ~ m ones' complement ~  $\begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{smallmatrix}$   $\leftrightarrow \begin{smallmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{smallmatrix}$
- ! ► ! m logical not (1 if n false )
- ++ -- ► ++i increment (decrement ) then use value

## INFIX OPERATORS

- \*
- /
- %
- +
- 
- & | ^
- << >>
- ,
- > >= < <= == !=
- && ||
- =
- += -= \*= /= %=
- &= |= ^ =
- <<= >>=
- .
- >
- a \* b product
- a / b quotient
- m % n remainder
- a + b sum (difference )
- m & n bitwise and (or ) (exclusive or )
- m << n m shifted left (right ) n positions
- a, b evaluate & discard a, eval & retain b
- n > m 1 if comparison is true, otherwise 0
- n & m logical and (or )
- v = a assign value of a to l-value v
- a += b short for a = a + b (and similarly )
- n &= m short for n = n & m (n = n | m) (n = n ^ m)
- n <= m short for n = n < m (n = n > m )
- v . w member w of structure v
- p -> w short for (\*p).w



## POSTFIX OPERATORS

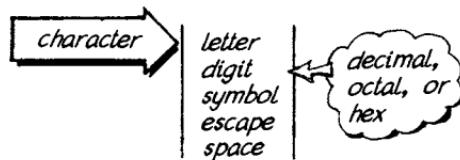
- ++ -- ► i++ use value, then increment (decrement )

## OTHER OPERATORS

- ?: (type-name) ► m ? a : b if m = 0 value is a, otherwise b
- sizeof () ► (double) a result is a double ('a' undisturbed )
- sizeof [] ► sizeof v size in bytes of object v
- sizeof (double) ► sizeof (double) size of every object of type double
- () [ ] ► () signifies function, [] signifies array

# SYNTAX SUMMARY

THE NOTATION EMPLOYED  
IS DEFINED ON PAGE 28



letter → | A  
a  
B  
C  
c  
D  
d  
E  
e  
F  
f  
G  
g  
H  
h  
I  
i  
J  
j  
K  
k  
L  
l  
M  
m  
N  
n  
O  
o  
P  
p  
Q  
q  
R  
r  
S  
s  
T  
t  
U  
u  
V  
v  
Y  
y  
Z  
z

digit → | 0  
1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9 | ↗ decimal

digit → | 0  
1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7 | ↗ octal

digit → | 0  
1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7 | ↗ hex

symbol → | .  
:  
;  
?  
"  
!  
—  
/  
~  
%  
&  
^  
\*  
—  
=  
+  
<  
>  
{  
}  
| ↗ tri-graphs

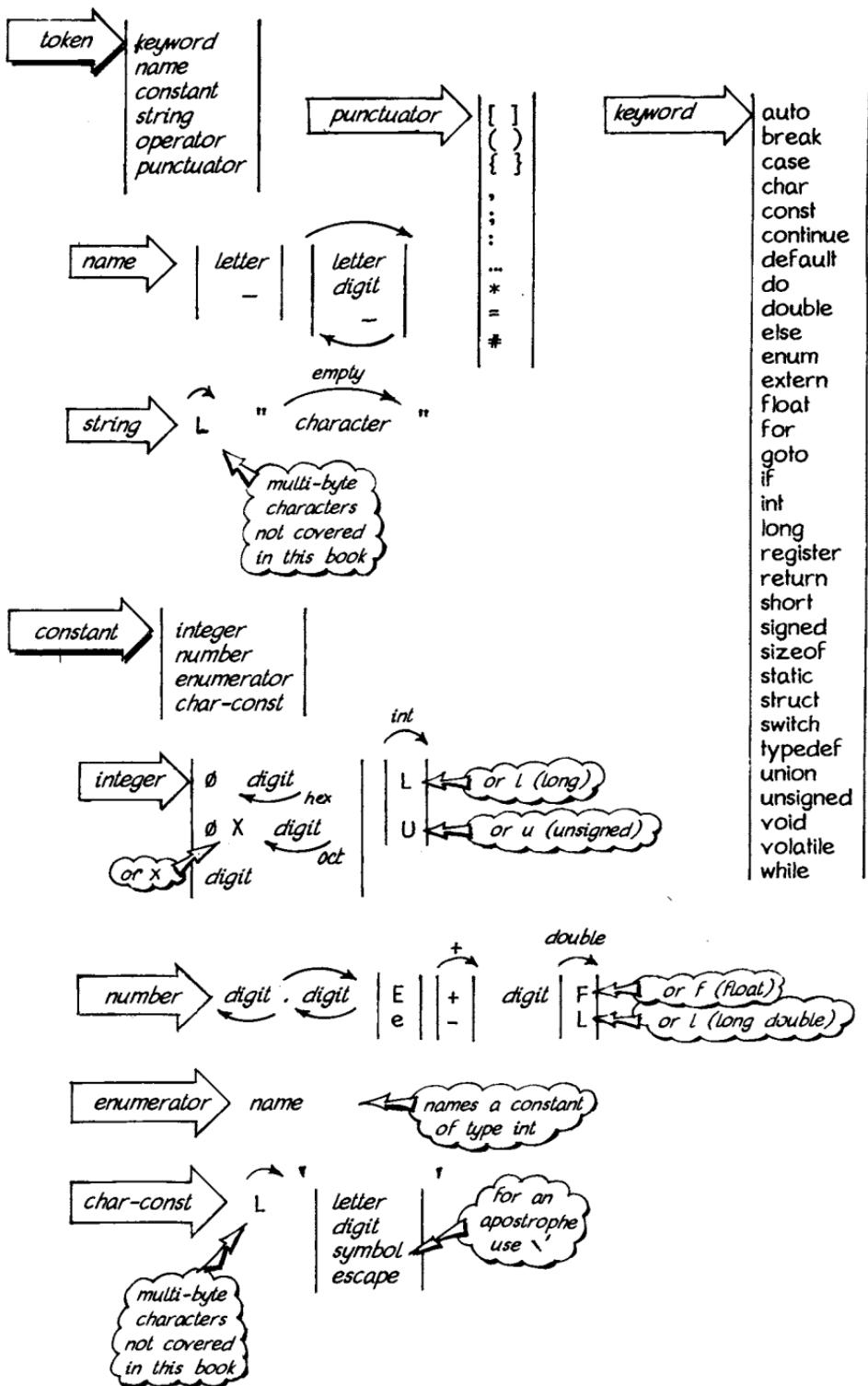
escape → | \ ↗ ASCII notation

a  
b  
f  
n  
r  
t  
v  
`  
"  
!  
?  
x  
| ↗ or X

BELL  
BS  
FF  
NL  
CR  
HT  
VT

hex ↗ up to 3 octals

digit ↗ 0 = ASCII zero



**operator**

prefix  
infix  
postfix  
other

infix

prefix

+

-

&

\*

~

!

++

--

postfix

++

--

other

?:

(type)

()

[]

sizeof

semantics of  
these operators  
summarized on  
Page 164

**expression**

prefix

term

postfix

infix

**term**

constant  
string  
name

of an object:  
variable, array,  
structure, union,  
or enumeration

name  
of an  
array

invocation of  
a function

[ expression ]

name ( expression )

sizeof

expression  
( type-name )  
( expression )

'type cast'

( type-name ) expression

expression ? expression : expression

( expression )

\* / % + - & ^ << >> , > >= < <= == != && || = += -= \*= /= %= <<= >>= &= ^= |= . ->

**statement**

**block**

if ( expression ) statement else statement

while ( expression ) statement

do statement while ( expression );

may be  
a null  
statement

for ( expression ; expression ; expression ) statement

switch ( expression ) statement

case expression : statement

constant

default : statement

break;

continue;

return expression ;

goto name ;

nominates  
a label

name : statement

label  
nominated

expression ;

null statement  
represented by  
solitary semicolon

**block**

{ declaration statement }

**program**

declaration

precisely one  
declaration must  
be a definition  
of main( )

keyword

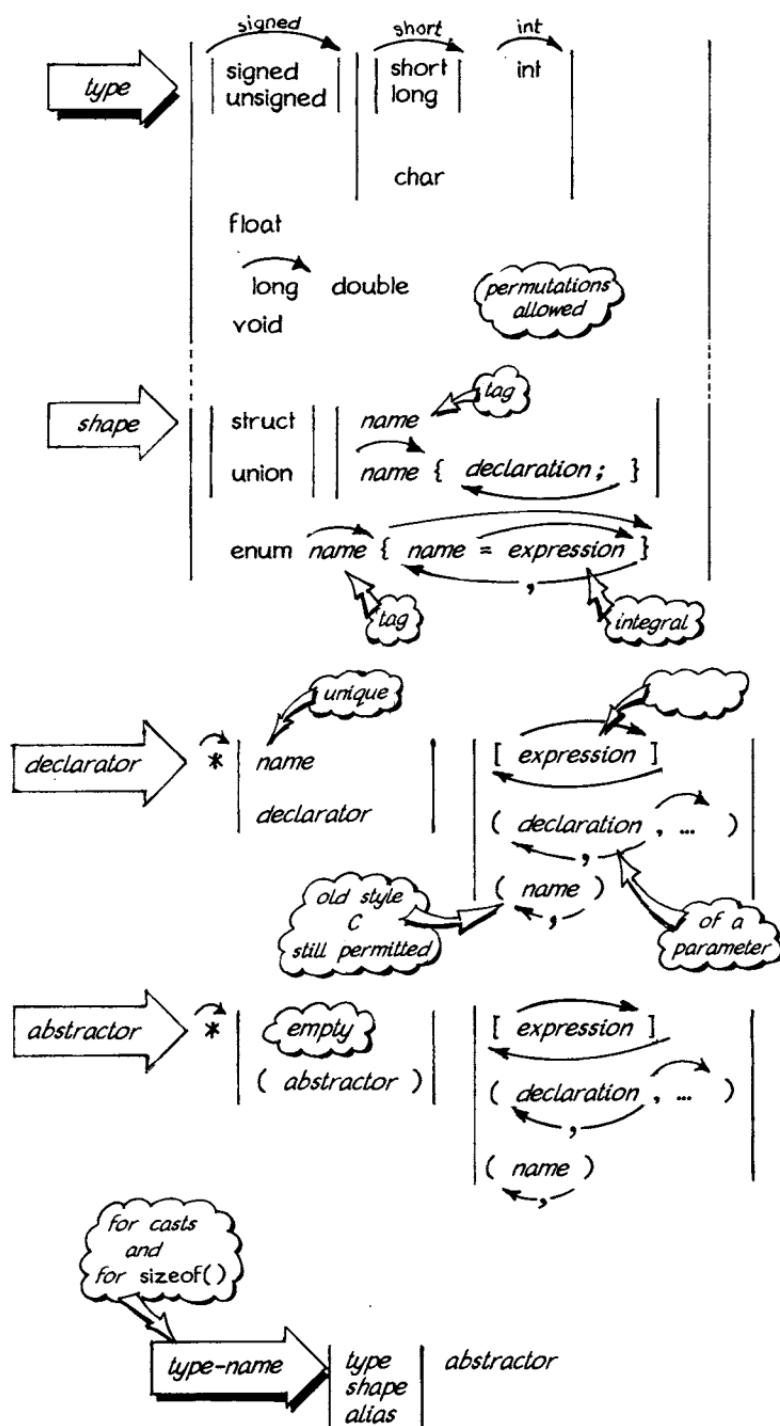
typedef

type  
shape

declarator

name becomes  
an alias  
for the type

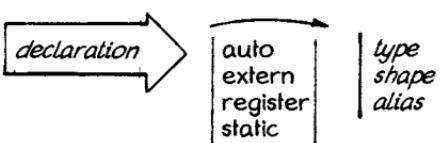
**alias**



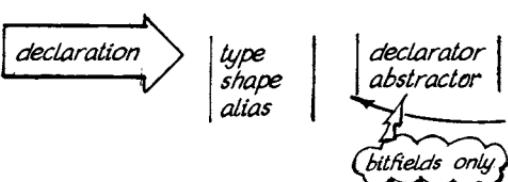
## GLOBAL OBJECT



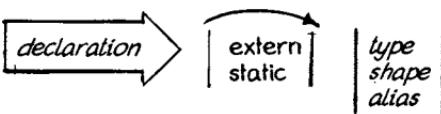
## OBJECT IN A BLOCK



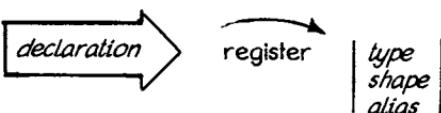
## MEMBER OF STRUCTURE OR UNION



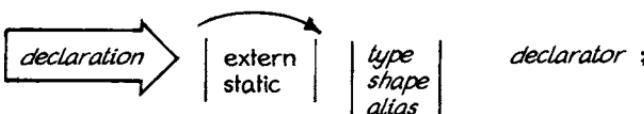
## FUNCTION DEFINITION



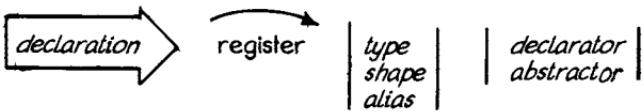
## PARAMETER OF A FUNCTION DEFINITION



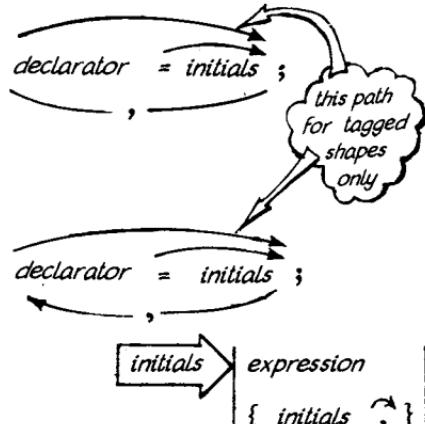
## PROTOTYPE DECLARATION



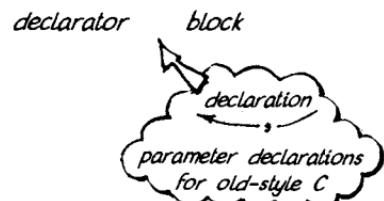
## PARAMETER OF A PROTOTYPE DECLARATION



## DECLARATION ( OF OBJECTS )



## DECLARATION ( OF FUNCTIONS )

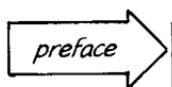


Note:  
const & volatile  
omitted from diagrams  
see Page 137

Each directive must be on a line of its own

( possibly extended by )

preceding the program it is to modify



```
#define name replacement
#define name ( name ) replacement
#undef name
#include "file"
#include < file >
#line constant file
    ↗ current input
    ↗ number of next line
#if expression preface
    ↗ integral (conditional)
#elif expression preface
#endif
#ifndef name preface
#endif
#endif
```



token  
( replacement )

→ ## → '#' → 'paster'  
→ '#' → 'string-izer'

# LIBRARY SUMMARY

FUNCTION PROTOTYPES  
IN ALPHABETICAL ORDER

| Return | Function                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 | ( Prototypes of parameters ) | Page                                                                                    |
|--------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| a      | void abort ( void );<br>int abs ( int n );<br>double acos ( double a );<br>char * asctime ( struct tm * t );<br>double asin ( double a );<br>assert ( int expression );<br>void atan ( double a );<br>double atan2 ( double y, double x );<br>int atexit ( void ( * fun )( void ) );<br>double atof ( const char * s );<br>int atoi ( const char * s );<br>long atol ( const char * s ); | b - c                        | 172<br>180<br>181<br>192<br>181<br>172<br>182<br>182<br>182<br>172<br>178<br>177<br>178 |
|        | void * bsearch ( const void * k, const void * b, size_t n, size_t w, comparison );<br>void * calloc ( size_t numEls, size_t ElSize );<br>double cell ( double d );<br>void clearerr ( FILE * s );<br>clock_t clock ( void );<br>double cos ( double ar );<br>double cosh ( double x );<br>char * ctyme ( const time_t * t );                                                             | d - f                        | 191<br>177<br>180<br>166<br>192<br>181<br>182<br>192                                    |
|        | double difftime ( time_t t2, time_t t1 );<br>div ( int num, int denom );<br>void exit ( int status );<br>double exp ( double a );<br>double fabs ( double d );<br>FILE * fclose ( FILE * s );<br>int feof ( FILE * s );                                                                                                                                                                  |                              | 193<br>183<br>171<br>184<br>180<br>165<br>166                                           |

## Function ( Prototypes of parameters )

### Return

```

int ferror ( FILE * s );
int fflush ( FILE * s );
int fgetc ( FILE * s );
int fgetpos ( FILE * s, fpos_t * c );
char * fgets ( char * b, int n, FILE * s );
double floor ( double d );
double fmod ( double x, double y );
FILE * fopen ( const char * file, const char * mode );
int fprintf ( FILE * s, const char * fmt, ... );
int fputc ( int c, FILE * s );
int fputs ( const char * b, FILE * s );
size_t fread ( void * buf, size_t b, size_t c, FILE * s );
void free ( void * p );
FILE * freopen ( const char * file, const char * mode, FILE * s );
double frexp ( double x, int * p );
FILE * fscanf ( FILE * s, const char * fmt, ... );
int fseek ( FILE * s, long offset, int origin );
FILE * fsetpos ( FILE * s, const fpos_t * p );
long ftell ( FILE * s );
FILE * fwrite ( const void * buf, size_t b, size_t c, FILE * s );

```

---

g - i

```

int getch ( FILE * s );
int getchar ( void );
char * getenv ( const char * name );
char * gets ( char * b );
time_t * gmtime ( const time_t * t );
int isalnum ( int c );
int isalpha ( int c );
int iscntrl ( int c );
int isdigit ( int c );

```

### Header

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## Function (Prototypes of parameters)

## Header

## Page

|                |                                                        |          |     |
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| int            | isgraph ( int c );                                     | ctype.h  | 185 |
| int            | islower ( int c );                                     | ctype.h  | 185 |
| int            | isprint ( int c );                                     | ctype.h  | 185 |
| int            | ispunct ( int c );                                     | ctype.h  | 186 |
| int            | isspace ( int c );                                     | ctype.h  | 186 |
| int            | isupper ( int c );                                     | ctype.h  | 185 |
| int            | isxdigit ( int c );                                    | ctype.h  | 185 |
| long           | labs ( long w );                                       | stdlib.h | 180 |
| double         | ldexp ( double x, int n );                             | math.h   | 184 |
| ldiv_t         | ldiv ( long num, long denom );                         | stdlib.h | 183 |
| struct lconv * | localeconv ( void );                                   | locale.h | 174 |
| struct tm *    | localtime ( const time_t * t );                        | time.h   | 193 |
| double         | log ( double a );                                      | math.h   | 184 |
| double         | log10 ( double a );                                    | math.h   | 184 |
| void           | longjmp ( jmp_buf saver, int value );                  | setjmp.h | 174 |
| m              | malloc ( size_t bytes );                               | stdlib.h | 177 |
| void *         | memchr ( const void * b, int c, size_t n );            | string.h | 189 |
| int            | memcmp ( const void * s1, const void * s2, size_t n ); | string.h | 188 |
| void *         | memcpy ( void * b1, const void * b2, size_t n );       | string.h | 188 |
| void *         | memmove ( void * b1, const void * b2, size_t n );      | string.h | 188 |
| void *         | memset ( void * b, int c, size_t n );                  | string.h | 190 |
| time_t         | mktime ( struct tm * p );                              | time.h   | 193 |
| double         | modf ( double d, double * p );                         | math.h   | 184 |
| p - q          | perror ( const char * mess );                          | stdio.h  | 172 |
| void           | pow ( double x, double y );                            | math.h   | 180 |
| double         | printf ( const char * fmt, ... );                      | stdio.h  | 168 |
| int            |                                                        |          |     |

| Return | Function                                             | ( Prototypes of parameters ) | Header   | Page |
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| int    | putc ( int c, FILE * s );                            |                              | stdio.h  | 164  |
| int    | putchar ( int c );                                   |                              | stdio.h  | 164  |
| int    | puts ( const char * b );                             |                              | stdio.h  | 168  |
| void   | qsort ( void * b, size_t n, size_t w, comparison );  |                              | stdlib.h | 191  |
|        |                                                      |                              |          |      |
| int    | raise ( int sig );                                   |                              | signal.h | 175  |
| int    | rand ( void );                                       |                              | stdlib.h | 182  |
| void * | realloc ( void * p, size_t newsize );                |                              | stdlib.h | 177  |
| int    | remove ( const char * file );                        |                              | stdio.h  | 166  |
| int    | rename ( const char * old, const char * new );       |                              | stdio.h  | 166  |
| void   | rewind ( FILE * s );                                 |                              | stdio.h  | 166  |
|        |                                                      |                              |          |      |
| int    | scarf ( const char * fmt, ... );                     |                              | stdio.h  | 169  |
| void   | setbuf (FILE * s, char * b );                        |                              | stdio.h  | 171  |
| int    | setjmp ( jmp_buf saver );                            |                              | setjmp.h | 174  |
| char   | setlocale ( int category, const char * locale );     |                              | locale.h | 174  |
| int    | setvbuf ( FILE * s, char * b, int mode, size_t sz ); |                              | stdio.h  | 170  |
| void   | (*signal (int sig, void (* handler)(int) ) (int);    |                              | signal.h | 175  |
| double | sin ( double ar );                                   |                              | math.h   | 181  |
| double | sinh ( double x );                                   |                              | math.h   | 182  |
| int    | sprintf ( char * p, const char * fmt, ... );         |                              | stdio.h  | 168  |
| double | sqrt ( double a );                                   |                              | math.h   | 181  |
| void   | srand (unsigned int seed );                          |                              | stdlib.h | 182  |
|        |                                                      |                              |          |      |
| int    | sscanf ( const char * b, const char * fmt, ... );    |                              | stdio.h  | 169  |
| char * | strcat ( char * s1, const char * s2 );               |                              | string.h | 188  |
| char * | strchr ( const char * s, int c );                    |                              | string.h | 189  |
| int    | strcmp ( const char * s1, const char * s2 );         |                              | string.h | 188  |
| char * | strcpy ( char * s1, const char * s2 );               |                              | string.h | 187  |



# BIBLIOGRAPHY

American National Standard For Information Systems  
*Programming Language - C, ANSI X3.159-1989*

The Standard defines the dialect of C presented in this book. National standards can be forbidding documents, and expensive, but ANSI X3.159 is worth having if you are going to program seriously in C. The document is beautifully organized and the prose intelligible. It is not a tutorial text, but appended to the Standard is a 'rationale' to explain difficult paragraphs of the Standard and say why certain library functions were included.

Kernighan, B.W., & Ritchie, D.M. (1988) *The C programming language*, Second edition. (Prentice Hall)

Dennis Ritchie invented C; this book is its bible. The first edition is dated 1978 and remained the only authoritative, and certainly the best, book on C (although not the easiest to read) until the second edition was published ten years later. During the intervening decade there must have been an enormous amount of feedback from readers. The second edition shows every sign of professional involvement in its authorship, responding to the feedback and resolving the old ambiguities. The book is marked 'ANSI C'. It is a joy to read.

Bakakati, N. (1989) *The Waite Group's Essential Guide to ANSI C*, (Howard W. Sams & Co.)

This is a pocket-sized reference to ANSI C. It covers the language and keywords, but most of it describes the library. The description of each library function comprises a short explanation of its purpose, its syntax, an example call, a description of what it returns, and a list of names of related functions. A useful reference for the practical C programmer.

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*Italics* indicates an ANSI C library function  
**bold** indicates a keyword of ANSI C

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