

My notes from K.N. King's "C Programming
A Modern Approach" 2nd version

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Chapter 1

Note

In this material I will go over everything from book, trying to summarize every note-worthy subject. I will do it, while learning Latex, so good luck to me.

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Chapter 2

C Fundamentals

2.1 Steps of Executing a C Program

Automated process:

1. **Preprocessing** - Preprocessor is executing directives (they begin with #).
2. **Compiling** - Compiler translates program into machine instructions (object code).
3. **Linking** - Linker combines object code and code needed for execution of the program.

2.2 The General Form of a Simple Program

Simple C programs have this form:

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

Directives - Begin with '#' symbol, they state what headers include to program.

Functions - They are segments of code that take arguments, and returns (or not) a value. Only `main` function is required.

Statements - Commands to execute, mostly end with semicolon.

String literal - Series of characters enclosed in double quotation marks, e.g. "Hello world!".

New-line character - `\n` is an escape sequence, which advances to the next line of output.

Comments - Are omitted in program execution, can be used to comment single line e.g. `/* Comment */`, or block of lines. From C99 we can use one line comments e.g. `// Comment`.

2.3 Variables and Assignments

Variable - Place to store calculation's output, for using in future. Variable's characteristics:

- **Types** - For now, there are two types of variables:
 - **int** - Integer types, can store quite big whole number, but that depends on your computer's architecture.
 - **float** - Can store bigger numbers, as well as digits after decimal point.
- **Declarations** - To use a variable, we first need to declare it. It means that we need to specify variable's type, and name. We can chain declarations with the same type e.g. `int i, sum, x;`. In C99 they can now be declared after statements, not like in C89.
- **Assignment** - We assign value to a variable. Variable is on the left side, while value, expression, formula etc. is on the right side. To assign something to a variable, we first need to declare it. Examples:

```
int i;  
float f;  
i = 1;  
f = 1.5;
```

Initialization

At the default most variables are uninitialized, which means that they have some random - garbage value assigned to them, if we didn't. In declaration we can assign value to a variable, making it an **initializer**, e.g. `int i = 0;`.

2.4 Reading Input

For reading input we need to use `scanf` function, which needs a format string and value to read, e.g. `scanf("%d", &i);`.

2.5 Defining Names for Constants

To define a constant, we need to use a **macro definition**, which is interpreted by the preprocessor e.g. `#define WIDTH 20`.

2.6 Identifiers

Names in C are called **identifiers**. They can begin with the lower-case or upper-case letters or underscores e.g. `times10 my_var _done`. They cannot begin with a number e.g. `10times`. They cannot contain minus signs e.g. `my-var`.

Keywords

There are number of keywords, which are prohibited from using as identifiers.

2.7 Layout of the C Program

We can slice C statements into **tokens**:

```
printf    (    "Height:    %d\n"    ,    height    )    ;  
  1        2        3        4        5        6        7    8
```

Tokens 1 and 2 are identifiers, token 3 is a string literal and tokens 2, 4, 6, and 7 are punctuation.

In most cases we can put many spaces between them. But we cannot put spaces within tokens e.g. `fl oat f;`.

Chapter 3

Formatted Input/Output

3.1 The printf Function

Needs a format string and arguments to insert there. There is no limit to these arguments. Format string could have conversion specifications, which are supplied by its arguments, to insert into format string e.g. `printf("Value: %d", i);` where `%d` is a conversion specification and `i` is a value to be supplied to the format string.

3.2 Conversion Specifications

Outside of letter(s) specifying which type to convert to, they consist of the **Minimal Field Width (m)** and **Precision (p)**. They have the form of: `%m.pX`.

Minimal field width

Specifies the minimum number of characters to print. If the number of characters to print is less than specified, the number is right justified with spaces added. If the number of characters is greater than specified it will automatically expand to display all of characters.

Precision

Depends on the type to be displayed, reference the book for more detailed preview.

Conversion specifications:

- **d** - Displays an integer in a decimal (base 10) form. *p* indicates the minimum number of digits to display.
- **e** - Displays a floating-point number in exponential format. *p* indicates the number of digits after the decimal point.
- **f** - Displays a floating-point number without an exponent. *p* has the same meaning as previous.
- **g** - Displays a floating-point number in exponential format or fixed (without an exponent). *p* indicates the maximum number of significant digits to be displayed. It depends on the size of the number.

Escape sequences

They are characters, that would introduce problems in compilation or have some action to do e.g. insert new line into output. Few of them are:

- **\a** - alert (bell),
- **\b** - backspace,
- **\n** - new line,
- **\t** - tab,
- **\"** - quote character,
- **** - slash character.

3.3 The scanf Function

This function handles input from stdin stream (keyboard), have a format string and may contain conversion specifications. The scanf call may look like that: `scanf("%d", &i);`. Scnf when reading an input ignores the white-space characters. It only matches input to the provided variables. If a reading error occurs, scanf will return immediately, ignoring the rest of the format string. It doesn't read the new-line character at the end of the input. If character cannot be read, function puts it back for the next variable and adds it to that.

Ordinary Characters in Format Strings

We can put a white-space characters into the format string, then `scanf` will read any number of white-space characters and discard them. When it encounters a non-white-space character it is trying to match it with an inputted character. If it fails, it returns.

Chapter 4

Expressions

4.1 Arithmetic Operators

Unary	Binary	
	Additive	Multiplicative
+ unary plus - unary minus	+ addition - subtraction	* multiplication / division % reminder

Operator Precendence and Associativity

Operator precendence is in what order C calculates expressions. The arithmetic operators have the following relative precendence:

Highest: + - (unary)

* / %

Lowest: + - (binary)

Associativity decides in what order operators with the same precendence are calculated. The binary operators are all left associative, whilst the unary operators are all right associative.

4.2 Assignment Operators

Are used to store a computed value of the expression.

Simple Assignment

Evaluates an expression, which then assigns into the variable, expression can be a *constant* (always has the same value). If they don't have the same type, the value of an expression is converted to the type of the variable. Assignments can be chained together e.g. `i = j = k = 0;`. The `=` operator is right associative.

Lvalues

Assignment operator requires that on its left side can only be a variable, not an expression e.g. `i + j = 0;` is wrong.

Compound Assignment

We can shorten statements e.g. `i += 2;` is equivalent to `i = i + 2;`. It works with the other operators including the following: `-=` `*=` `/=` `%=`, they all work in the same way and are right associative.

4.3 Increment and Decrement Operators

Used to even more shorten a compound addition and subtraction by 1. E.g.

```
i = i + 1;  
j = j - 1;
```

Are the same as:

```
i += 1;  
j -= 1;
```

Which are the same as:

```
i++;  
j--;
```

They contain side effects - after adding or subtracting 1, value of their operands is modified. There are two types of these operators: **prefix** (`++i` or `--i`) which increments the variable first, then assigns value to `i`, and **postfix** (`i++` or `i--`) which first assigns value to `i` and increments `i` after this statement.

Chapter 5

Selection Statements

We could group most statements in this three categories:

- **Selection statements** - Test provided condition, and execute code within their borders, e.g. `if` and `switch` statements.
- **Iteration statements** - Iterate over and over again, until their condition is not true, e.g. `for`, `while`, and `do while` statements.
- **Jump statements** - They control the flow of the program, can stop iterations, skip through them or jump to any place in the program, e.g. `break`, `continue` and `goto` statements.

5.1 Logical Expressions

Relational Operators

They are used to compare expressions, yielding 0 if statement are not true and 1 if statement are true.

Symbol	Meaning
<	less than
>	greater than
<=	less than or equal to
>=	greater than or equal to

Equality Operators

Symbol	Meaning
<code>==</code>	equal to
<code>!=</code>	not equal to

Logical Operators

Symbol	Meaning	Operation
<code>!</code>	logical negation	Inverse - if false, returns 1
<code>&&</code>	logical and	If both expressions are true, returns 1
<code> </code>	logical or	If either one of them is true, returns 1

5.2 The If Statement

Has the form of: `if (expression) statement`. If evaluated expression has a non-zero value, then statement after parentheses is executed.

Compound Statements

We can "stack" multiple statements between the parentheses.

The else clause

If we want to execute statements when our expression is not true, we need to use a `else` clause. It has the following form: `if (expression) statement else statement`.

Cascaded if Statements

Thanks to them we can test multiple conditions. They have the following form: `if (expression) statement else if (expression) statement else statement`.

Conditional Expressions

Has the following form: `epr1 ? epr2 : epr3`. Tests whether the first expression is true, if it is then executes the second expression, otherwise executes the third expression.

5.2.1 Boolean Values

C89

There is not a boolean type in C89, but we could declare a macro definition named `TRUE` or `FALSE`, e.g. `#define TRUE 1`.

C99

With the arrival of C99 we could declare `_Bool` type, e.g. `_Bool flag = true;`. For using this type we must declare a `#include <stdbool.h>`.

5.3 The switch statement

Switch statement can be a better-looking and faster alternative to the cascaded `if`. It has the following form:

```
switch ( expression ) {  
    case constant-expression : statements  
    ...  
    case constant-expression : statements  
    default : statements  
}
```

Components of the `switch` statement:

- **Controlling expression** - could be an `int` or a `char`, but not `float` and strings.
- **Case labels** - Form: `case constant-expression :` Cannot contain variables and function calls.
- **Statements** - Comes after each case label.

Switch statement doesn't need a `default` case. We use a `break` statement to stop at one choice, otherwise switch would execute all remaining cases.

Chapter 6

Loops

Loop is a repeatedly executing statements until the controlling expression is not true.

6.1 The while Statement

It has the following form: `while (expression) statement`. First it tests the controlling expression, then executes the loop body, if the expression is false, the loop terminates. It is possible that the loop body will not be executed at all, because it could be a false from the beginning.

6.2 The do Statement

It resembles the `while` loop, but it tests the controlling expression after each execution of the loop body, which makes it execute always at least once. It has the following form: `do statement while (expression) ; .`

6.3 The for Statement

Is used in a variety of ways, is ideal for counting loops. Has the following form: `for (expr1 ; expr2 ; expr3) statement`. Every expression has its own role, in first you initialize or assign values to iterating variables. In the second you place a condition, which is checked every execution and while it is true loop will execute. In the third you put an operation which is performed at the end of each loop iteration. We could make more expressions (separated by the comma), but would need to place them in place according to their characteristics. Most of the

`for` loops can be replaced by the `while` loop. We could omit any expression, but we need to compensate for it before or later. From C99 we could declare variables in the loop body, which will not be used as the variables already declared.

6.4 Exiting from a Loop

6.4.1 The `break` Statement

Is used to jump out of the loop body, terminating it. Can escape only one level of nesting.

6.4.2 The `continue` Statement

Only used in loops. Transfers control to the end of the loop, but it stays in loop for the next execution. Can be considered a "skip to the end" statement.

The `goto` Statement

Jumps (transfers control) from its declaration to the label in the other part of the program. Label has the following form: `identifier : statement`. The `goto` statement has this form: `goto identifier ;`. Nowadays it is not commonly used, in favour of the `break`, `continue` and `return` statements.

6.5 The `null` Statement

We could omit the loop body (moving the loop body into expressions) or one of its expressions (which will create an infinite loop), e.g. `for (i = 0; ; i++) ...`.

Chapter 7

Basic Types

7.1 Integer Types

They are the whole numbers. We can divide them into two categories: **signed** and **unsigned**. The **signed** integers can be both positive and negative, but because of this they are two times less than **unsigned** type, which cannot contain negative numbers, thus making it one bit bigger. Sometimes we need bigger numbers, then we would use a **long** integer which on the most machines is double the **int** type. We could also store smaller integer values in the **short** type. Every type can be **signed** or **unsigned**, e.g. **unsigned short int**. We could abbreviate names by dropping the word **int**. Types aren't required to have a certain bounds or maximum values, which varies from one architecture to another. For our machine's ranges we could see the `<limits.h>` header.

Integer Types in C99

From C99 we could now declare type `long long int`, which can be even two times the `long int` type.

Integer Constants

Constant numbers are numbers that cannot change. Can be of the base 10, 8 and 16:

- **Decimal** - Contain digits 0 through 9, cannot begin with a zero.
- **Octal** - Contain digits 0 through 7, must begin with a zero.

- **Hexadecimal** - Containing digits 0 through 9 and letter a to f, always begin with a 0x. Letters can be either lower case or upper case.

We could mix together any of these without any repercussions. As well as we could indicate that constant is for example `long int` - by adding `L` or `l` to the number. To indicate that constant is a `unsigned int` - add `U` or `u`. Both can be added together. In C99 we could specify the type `long long int` by adding `LL` or `ll` to the end.

If the result of the arithmetic operation is more than what desired type can store, we say that occurred an **Integer Overflow**.

Reading and Writing Integers

For reading/writing operations we need to use the conversion specification for Unsigned types:

- **Unsigned** - `U` in decimal.
- **Octal** - `O`.
- **Hexadecimal** - `X`.

We could use them with type conversion specifications by appending this letter to the front:

- **Short** - `h`.
- **Long** - `L`.
- **Long Long (C99)** - `LL`.

7.2 Floating Types

Numbers in the decimal form. There are three of them:

- **Float** - Single precision.
- **Double** - Double precision.
- **Long double** - Extended precision.

Mostly are stored according to The IEEE Floating-Point Standard.

Floating Constants

A floating constant must contain a decimal point and/or an exponent. The exponent (if present) must be preceded by the letter E or e. We could put the letter F or f (for `float`) or LF or lf (for `double`) at the end of the number to set the desired type.