
Learn C under Windows 95/NT[®]

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Table of Contents

1 Welcome Aboard5
What's in the Package?5
Why Learn C?5
What Should You Know to Get Started?6
What Equipment Will You Need?7
The Lay of the Land.7
The Chapters.8
Conventions Used in This Book.	10
Strap Yourself In	11
2 Using CodeWarrior	13
Opening a Project.	13
Compiling a Project.	14
What's Next?.	16
3 Programming Basics	17
Reasons for Programming	17
Programming Languages	17
The Programming Process	19
Flavors of Object Code	26
What's Next?.	26
4 C Basics: Functions	29
C Functions	29
ISO C and the Standard Library	34
Same Program, Two Functions	36
Generating Some Errors	43
What's Next?.	46
Exercises	47
5 C Basics: Variables and Operators	49
An Introduction to Variables	49
Operators	57

Table of Contents

Operator Order.	66
Sample Programs.	69
Sprucing Up Your Code	82
What's Next?.	87
Exercises	87
6 Controlling Your Program's Flow.	89
Flow Control.	89
Expressions	92
Sample Programs.	121
What's Next?.	129
Exercises	130
7 Pointers and Parameters	133
What Is a Pointer?	133
Pointer Basics	136
Function Parameters	145
What Do Parameters Have to Do with Pointers?	151
Global Variables and Function Returns	155
More Sample Programs	164
What's Next?.	174
Exercises	174
8 Variable Data Types	177
Other Data Types	177
Working with Characters	189
Arrays	196
Text Strings	206
#define	214
A Sample Program: wordCount.	219
What's Next?.	226
Exercises	227
9 Designing Your Own Data Structures	231
Using Arrays (Model A)	231
Designing Data Structures (Model B)	245
Allocating Your Own Memory	257

Working with Linked Lists	262
What's Next?.	277
Exercises	278
10 Working with Files	281
What Is a File?	281
Working with Files, Part One.	282
Working with Files, Part Two.	291
Working with Files, Part Three	309
What's Next?.	323
Exercises	323
11 Advanced Topics.	325
What Is Typecasting?	325
Unions	330
Function Recursion	335
Binary Trees	340
Function Pointers.	349
Initializers	351
The Remaining Operators	353
Creating Your Own Types	357
Static Variables	360
More on Strings	362
What's Next?.	364
Exercises	364
12 Where Do You Go from Here?.	369
The Windows Graphical User Interface	369
The Windows API	370
Getting Started with Windows Programming.	372
Go Get 'Em	373

Table of Contents

A Glossary	375
B Source Code Listings.	387
C C Syntax Summary	479
D Selections from the Standard Library	483
E Answers to Selected Exercises	523
F Bibliography	531



Welcome Aboard

Welcome! By opening this book, you have taken the first step toward learning the C programming language. As you make your way through the book, you'll learn one of the most popular and powerful programming languages of all time. You will be glad you took this step.

Before we start programming, there are a few questions worth addressing at this point.

What's in the Package?

Learn C under Win 95/NT is an electronic book. The book is filled with all kinds of interesting facts, figures, and programming examples, all designed to teach you how to program in C.

In addition to this electronic book, the Discover Programming CD-ROM contains everything you'll need to run each of the book's programming examples on your own computer. As you look through the disc, you'll find CodeWarrior, one of the most popular development environments, along with each of the programs presented in the book, so you don't have to type in the examples yourself. We've also included a boatload of cool shareware and commercial software demos. Such a deal!

Why Learn C?

There are many reasons for learning C. Perhaps the biggest reason is C's popularity as a programming language. C is probably the hottest programming language around. In fact, many of the best-selling Windows applications were written in C. If you are just getting started in programming, C is a great first programming language. If you already know a programming language, such as BASIC or Pascal, you'll find C a worthy addition to your language set.

Welcome Aboard

What Should You Know to Get Started?

C is everywhere. Almost every computer made today supports the C language. Once you learn C, you'll be able to create your own programs for fun and profit. You can use C to create utilities, games, and tools that do exactly what you want them to do. You can even use C to write the next great spreadsheet, word processor, or utility. Who knows? You might even make \$80 gazillion in the process!

Whatever your reasons, learning to program in C will pay you dividends the rest of your programming life.

What Should You Know to Get Started?

For the most part, the only prerequisite to using this book is a basic knowledge of Windows. Do you know how to double-click on an application to start it up? Does the file selection dialog in Figure 1.1 look familiar? Do you know how to use a word processor like WordPerfect or Microsoft Word? If you can use Windows to run programs and edit documents, you have everything you need to get started learning C.

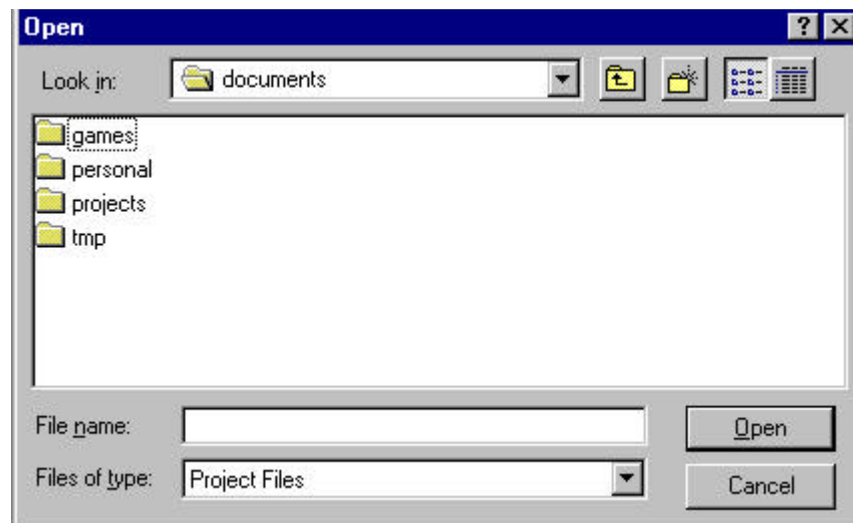


Figure 1.1 A file selection dialog.

If you know nothing about programming, don't worry. The first few chapters of this book will bring you up to speed. If you have some programming experience (or even a lot), you might want to skim

the first few chapters, then dig right into the C fundamentals that start in Chapter 4.

What Equipment Will You Need?

Although it is possible to learn C just by reading a book, you'll get the most out of this book if you run each example program as you read how it works. To do this, you'll need a PC with at least a 486-based processor and 16 megabytes of memory. CodeWarrior will run with Windows 95 and Windows NT 4.0.

The Lay of the Land

This book was designed with several different readers in mind. If you're new to programming, you'll want to read every chapter. As you make your way through the book, try not to skip over material you don't understand. Ask. Make a commitment to finish this book. You can do it!

If you have some programming experience but know nothing about C, read Chapter 2, then skim through Chapter 3. If Chapter 3 is cake to you, jump right to Chapter 4. You'll probably find that the concepts presented in the first few chapters are pretty straightforward. Read at your own speed until you reach a comfortable depth. The farther into the book you get, the more complex the concepts become.

If you get stuck, there are a lot of places you can turn to for help. On-line services, such as CompuServe and America Online feature programming development forums filled with friendly folks who are usually more than glad to help someone just getting started. If you have access to the Internet, you can subscribe to newsgroups, such as "comp.lang.c" and "comp.os.ms-windows.programmer.win32," where you'll be able to post your questions and, hopefully, find answers to them. Better yet, find a friend who's been down this road before, someone you can get together with, face-to-face, to help you through the tougher concepts.

Whether you have programming experience or not, you might find it helpful to have a copy of a good C reference by your side as you make your way through this book. Two particularly useful books

Welcome Aboard

The Chapters

are *The C Programming Language* by Kernighan and Ritchie (affectionately known as K&R) and *C: A Reference Manual* by Harbison and Steele (also known as H&S). K&R is the granddaddy of all C references and is the book that got me started in C programming. Although K&R tends to be a little dense, it is filled with great sample code. As you master each new concept in this book, take a look at how K&R treats the same subject.

H&S covers much of the same ground as K&R but at a slightly different level. If you can swing the cost, consider picking up both of these books. They'll prove to be valuable additions to your C programming library. You'll find descriptions of both books (along with a bunch of others) in the bibliography in Appendix F.

The Chapters

This book is made up of 12 chapters and 6 appendixes. Chapter 1 provides an overview of the book and gets you started down the right path.

Chapter 2 covers the basics of using CodeWarrior to open a project and then convert the project's source code into an executable application.

Chapter 3 is for those of you with little or no programming experience. Chapter 3 answers some basic questions, such as Why write a computer program? and How do computer programs work? We'll look at all the elements that come together to create a computer program, elements such as source code, a compiler, and the computer itself. Even if you're a seasoned Pascal programmer, you might want to read through this chapter, just to review the basics.

Chapter 4 opens the door to C programming by focusing on one of the primary building blocks of C: the function. You'll run some sample programs and discover one of the cruelest, least-liked, yet most important parts of programming: the syntax error.

Chapter 5 explores the foundation of C programming: variables and operators. When you finish this chapter, you will have a fundamental understanding of programming. You'll know how to declare a variable and how to use operators to store data in the variable.

Chapter 6 introduces the concept of flow control. You'll learn how to use C programming constructs, such as `if`, `while`, and `for`, to control the direction of your program. You'll learn how your program can make decisions based on data that you feed into it.

Chapter 7 starts off with the concept of pointers, which you'll use in almost every C program you write. Pointers allow you to implement complex data structures, opening up a world of programming possibilities.

Chapter 8 introduces data types. You'll learn about arrays and strings and the common bond they share. At this point, you are in real danger of becoming a C guru. Careful!

Chapter 9 tackles data structures. You'll learn how to design and build the right data structure for the job. Your knowledge of pointers is sure to get a workout in this chapter.

Chapter 10 teaches you how to work with disk files. You'll learn how to open a file and read its contents into your program. You'll also learn how to write your program's data out to a file.

Chapter 11 is a potpourri of miscellaneous C programming issues. This chapter tries to clear up any programming loose ends. You'll learn about recursion, binary trees, and something not every C programmer knows about: C function pointers.

Chapter 12 prepares you for your next step along the programming path. You'll learn a little about what makes Windows programs special, as well as find out how you can write your own programs that sport that special Windows look and feel.

Appendix A is a glossary of the technical terms used in this book.

Appendix B contains a complete listing of all the examples used in this book. This section will come in handy as a reference as you write your own C programs. Need an example of an if-else statement in action? Turn to the examples in Appendix B.

Appendix C is another useful reference. It describes the syntax of each of the C statement types introduced in the book. Need an exact specification of a `switch` statement? Check out Appendix C.

Appendix D provides a description of the **Standard Library** functions introduced in this book. The Standard Library is a set of functions available as part of every standard C development

Welcome Aboard

Conventions Used in This Book

environment, no matter what type of computer it's being used with. Need to know how to call one of the Standard Library functions introduced in the book? Use Appendix D.

Appendix E provides answers to the exercises presented at the end of each chapter.

Appendix F is a bibliography of useful programming titles.

Conventions Used in This Book

As you read this book, you'll encounter a few standard conventions intended to make it easier to read. For example, technical terms appearing for the first time are in **boldface**. You'll find most of these terms in the glossary in Appendix A.

By the Way

Occasionally, you'll come across a block of text set off in its own little box, like this. These blocks are called *tech blocks* and are intended to add technical detail to the subject being discussed. For the most part, each tech block will fit in one of three categories: "By the Way," "Important," and "Warning." As the names imply, these blocks have different purposes. "By the Way" tech blocks are intended to be informative but not crucial. "Important" tech blocks should be read beginning to end and the information within tucked into a reasonably responsive part of your brain. "Warning" tech blocks are usually trying to caution you about a potentially disastrous programming problem you should be on the lookout for. Read and heed these warnings.

All of the source code examples in this book are presented using a special font, known as the `code font`. This font is also used for source code fragments that appear in the middle of running text.

At the end of each chapter from Chapter 4 on, you'll find a set of exercises designed to reinforce the concepts presented in that chapter. Go through each of the exercises. It will be time well spent. As mentioned earlier, Appendix E contains answers to selected chapter exercises.

Welcome Aboard
Strap Yourself In . . .

Strap Yourself In . . .

That's about it. Let's get started. . . .

Welcome Aboard

Strap Yourself In . . .



Using CodeWarrior

In this chapter, we'll go over the basics of using CodeWarrior to open a project and then convert the project's source code into a real double-clickable application.

Opening a Project

Let's take CodeWarrior for a spin. Open the `Learn C Projects` directory on your hard drive; then open the subdirectory named `02.01 - hello`. You should see a window with three files. Two of the files in this window, `hello.cwp` and `hello.c`, contain the ingredients you'll use to build your very first C application. (The third file, `hello.exe`, is the finished C application.)

Double-click on the file `hello.cwp`. A window just like the one shown in Figure 2.1 should appear. This window is called the **project window**. It contains information about the files used to build our application. Since this information is stored in the

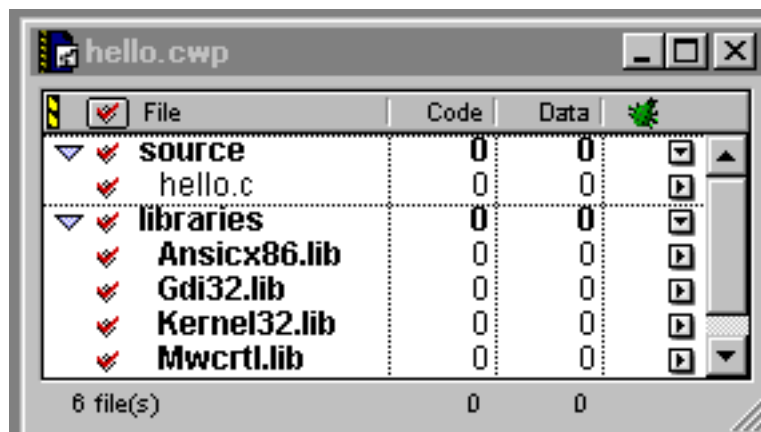


Figure 2.1 The `hello.cwp` project window.

Using CodeWarrior

Compiling a Project

file `hello.cwp`, this file is also known as a **project file**. A file that ends in the characters `.cwp` is a CodeWarrior project file.

Warning

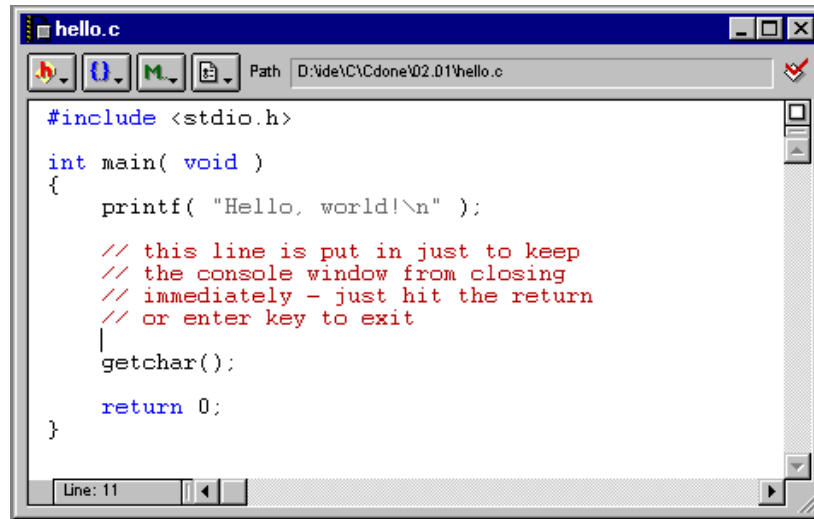
If a window with the title `hello.c` appeared instead of the one shown in Figure 2.1, you double-clicked on the wrong file. Quit CodeWarrior and double-click on the file `hello.cwp` instead of `hello.c`.

The project window in Figure 2.1 is divided into two parts, each marked by a down-pointing triangle on the extreme left side of the window. The first part (labeled `source`) names the files that contain the project **source code**. Source code is a set of instructions that determine what your application will do and when it will do it. This project contains a single source code file, named `hello.c`.

Let's take a look at the source code in `hello.c`. Double-click on the label `hello.c`, being careful not to double-click on the word `source`. A source code window will appear containing the source code in the file `hello.c` (Figure 2.2). This is your first C program. This program tells the computer to display the text "Hello, world!" in a window. Don't worry about the how or why of it right now. We'll get into all that later on. For now, let's turn this source code into an application.

Compiling a Project

Go to the Project menu and select Run. If you look closely, you'll see numbers appear in each row of the project window. Then, a new window, labeled `hello`, will appear on the screen. When you selected Run from the Project menu, CodeWarrior converted your source code into an application named `hello.exe` and then ran `hello.exe`. The application `hello.exe`, in turn, created the new window (Figure 2.3).



The screenshot shows a window titled 'hello.c' with a toolbar at the top containing icons for Run, Compile, Make, and Save. The path is 'D:\vide\CV\cdone\02.01\hello.c'. The code is as follows:

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main( void )
{
    printf( "Hello, world!\n" );

    // this line is put in just to keep
    // the console window from closing
    // immediately - just hit the return
    // or enter key to exit
    |
    getchar();

    return 0;
}
```

The status bar at the bottom indicates 'Line: 11'.

Figure 2.2 The source code window with the source code from the file `hello.c`.

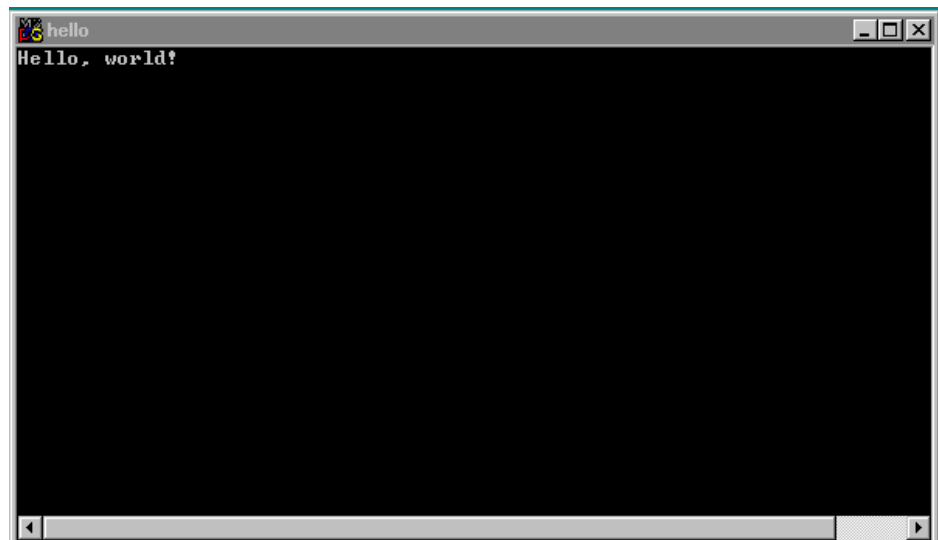


Figure 2.3 The window created by the `hello.exe` program.

Using CodeWarrior

What's Next?

This window is not a CodeWarrior window, but a DOS console window. This window only gets displayed for an instant. You can make the window of your console application remain visible until you hit any key by adding the following line of code:

```
getchar( );
```

If you execute `hello.exe` directly from the DOS window, the text "Hello, world!" will be output directly to the same window.

What's Next?

Now that you've learned the basics of CodeWarrior, let's take a little closer look at the programming process. Get comfortable and turn the page. Here we go. . . .



Programming Basics

Before we dig into the specifics of C programming, we'll spend a few minutes reviewing the basics of programming in general. We'll answer such basic questions as, *Why write a computer program?* and *How do computer programs work?* We'll look at all of the elements that come together to create a computer program, such as source code, a compiler, and the computer itself.

If you've already done some programming, skim through this chapter. If you feel comfortable with the material, skip ahead to Chapter 4. Most of the issues covered in this chapter are not specific to C.

Reasons for Programming

Why write a computer program? There are many reasons. Some programs are written in direct response to a problem too complex to solve by hand. For example, you might write a program to calculate the constant π to 5000 decimal places or to determine the precise moment to fire the boosters that will bring the space shuttle home safely.

Other programs are written as performance aids, allowing you to perform a regular task more efficiently. You might write a program to help you balance your checkbook, keep track of your baseball card collection, or lay out this month's issue of *Dinosaur Today*.

All of these examples share a common theme. All are examples of the art of programming.

Programming Languages

Your goal in reading this book is to learn how to use the C programming language to create programs of your own. Before we get into C, however, let's take a minute to look at some other popular programming languages.

Some Alternatives to C

As mentioned in Chapter 1, C is probably the most popular programming language around. There's very little you can't do in C, once you know how. On the other hand, a C program is not necessarily the best solution to every programming problem.

For example, suppose that you are trying to build a database to track your company's inventory. Rather than writing a custom C program to solve your problem, you might be able to use an off-the-shelf package, such as FoxPro or dBase, to construct your database. The programmers who created these packages solved most of the knotty database management problems you'd face if you tried to write your program from scratch. The lesson here: Before you tackle a programming problem, examine all the alternatives. You might find one that will save you time or money or that will prove to be a better solution to your problem.

Some applications feature their own proprietary scripting language. For instance, Microsoft Excel lets you write programs that operate on the cells within a spreadsheet. Some word processing programs let you write scripts that control just about every word processing feature in existence. Although proprietary scripting languages can be quite useful, they aren't much help outside their intended environments. You wouldn't find much use for the Excel scripting language outside Excel, for example.

What About Pascal?

There are a lot of programming languages out there. In the late 1970s and early 1980s, C's popularity was still growing, and the undisputed ruler of the programming universe was Pascal. Pascal remains an excellent programming language, but it has now fallen far behind C in popularity. To prove this to yourself, go to your favorite bookstore and compare the number of C books and Pascal books (assuming you can still find a Pascal book). Better yet, dig out the employment section from last Sunday's paper and count the number of computer ads calling for C or C++ experience (we'll get to C++ in a minute) versus those calling for Pascal experience. These two exercises should convince you that you are on the right track.

What About C++?

If there is a pretender to the programming language throne, it has to be a language called C++ (pronounced C-Plus-Plus). Simply put, C++ is an object-oriented version of C and is extremely popular with both Windows and Macintosh programmers. Someday, you will want to learn C++. Thankfully, you can learn C first, and all that C knowledge will count toward your C++ education. Learn C now and spend some time practicing your newfound craft. Once you have some C experience under your belt, make learning C++ your next priority.

The Programming Process

In Chapter 2, you went through the process of opening a project, and converting the project's source code into an executable application. Let's take a closer look at that process.

Writing Your Source Code

No matter what their purposes, most computer programs start as source code. Your source code will consist of a sequence of instructions that tell the computer what to do. Source code is written in a specific programming language, such as C. Each programming language has a specific set of rules defining what is and isn't "legal" in that language.

Your mission in reading this book is to learn how to create useful, efficient, and, best of all, legal C source code.

If you were using everyday English to program, your source code might look like this:

```
Hi, Computer!
```

```
Do me a favor. Ask me for five numbers, add them together, then tell me the sum.
```

If you wanted to run this program, you'd need a programming tool that understood source code written in English. Since CodeWarrior doesn't understand English but does understand C, let's look at a C program that does the same thing:

Programming Basics

The Programming Process

```
int main( void )
{
    int index, num, sum;

    sum = 0;

    for ( index=1; index<=5; index++ )
    {
        printf( "Enter number %d --->", index );
        scanf( "%d", &num );
        sum = sum + num;
    }

    printf( "The sum of these numbers is %d.", sum );

    return 0;
}
```

If this program doesn't mean anything to you, don't panic. Just keep reading. By the time you finish reading this book, you'll be writing C code like a pro.

Compiling Your Source Code

Once your source code is written, your next job is to hand it off to a **compiler**. The compiler translates your C source code into instructions that make sense to your computer. These instructions are known as **machine language**, or **object code**. Source code is for you, machine language/object code is for your computer.

CodeWarrior uses the project file to keep track of all your source and object code. As an example, the project file shown in Figure 3.1 contains the names of three files. The first two files contain C source code. The third file, known as a **library**, contains object code. Think of a library as a source code file that has already been compiled.

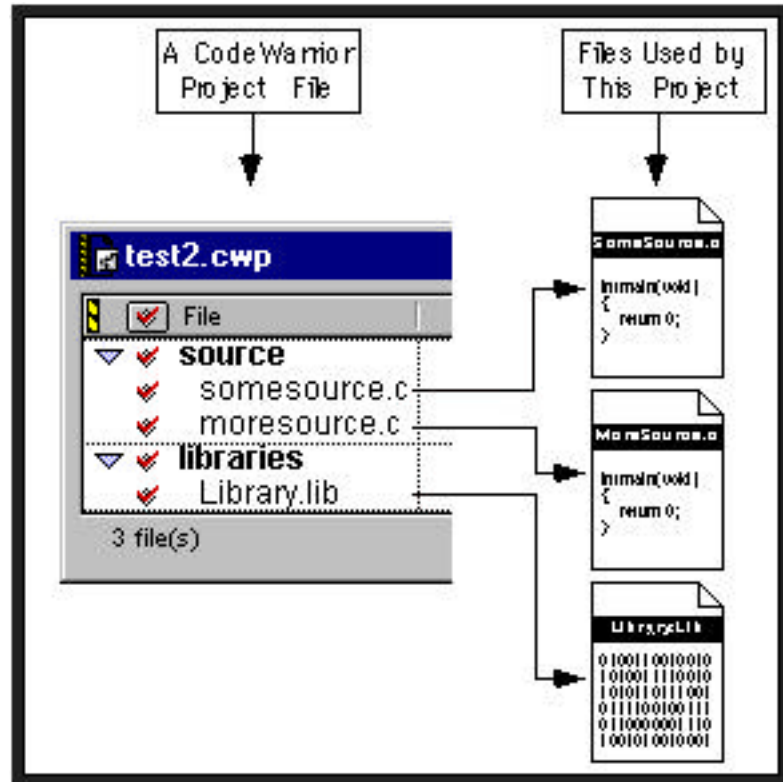


Figure 3.1 A CodeWarrior project file containing three files.

By the Way

A library starts life as source code. The source code is compiled and the resulting object code stored in a file. This object code can then be included in other projects. By using a library, you get access to some useful source code without having to go through the time and effort of recompiling the source code into object code.

When you ask CodeWarrior to run your project, CodeWarrior steps through each of the files referenced by your project file (Figure 3.2). If a file contains source code, the source code is sent to a compiler, and the resulting object code is copied into the project file. If the file is a library, the compilation step is skipped, and the library's object

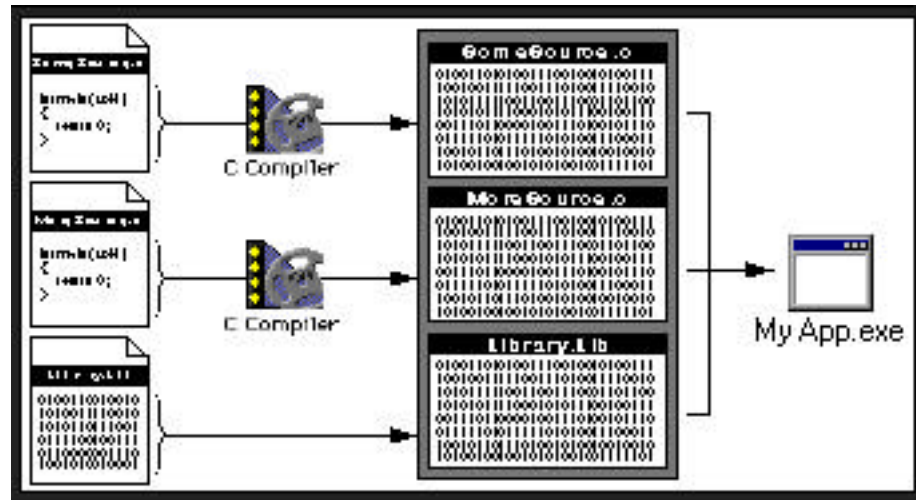


Figure 3.2 CodeWarrior sends source code through a compiler to generate object code, then copies the object code into the project file. Object code from libraries bypasses the compilation step.

code is copied into the project file. Once all the object code is in place, it gets combined (in a process known as **linking**) and copied into your application file. Finally, CodeWarrior runs your application.

Remember, when you run these applications, the output will be displayed in a DOS console window that appears for only a moment. To make the window remain open, append the line

```
getchar ( ) ;
```

to the end of your program.

By the Way

If the compilation process seems confusing to you, don't worry. Each programming example comes complete with step-by-step directions that show you how to compile your code. Once you feel more comfortable with the programming process, give this section another read.

Let's take a look at a real-life example, a project file named `hello.cwp`. Figure 3.3 shows the `hello.cwp` project window. The project window lists all the files that CodeWarrior uses to build the `hello` application. Notice that the list is divided into two parts. The top part lists the project's source code files (there's only one), and the lower part lists the project's libraries (there are five).

Each of the six files listed in the project window is found on your hard drive. You'll find the file `hello.c` in the same subdirectory as the project file (`hello.cwp`). The five library files are located with the rest of the CodeWarrior files, in the `Lib` subdirectory of the CodeWarrior directory. To convince yourself of this, select `Find` from the Start Menu (or select `Find` from the Tools Menu in the Windows Explorer, or use `Search` from the File Menu in the File Manager) to search for these libraries on your hard drive. They were copied onto your hard drive when you installed CodeWarrior.

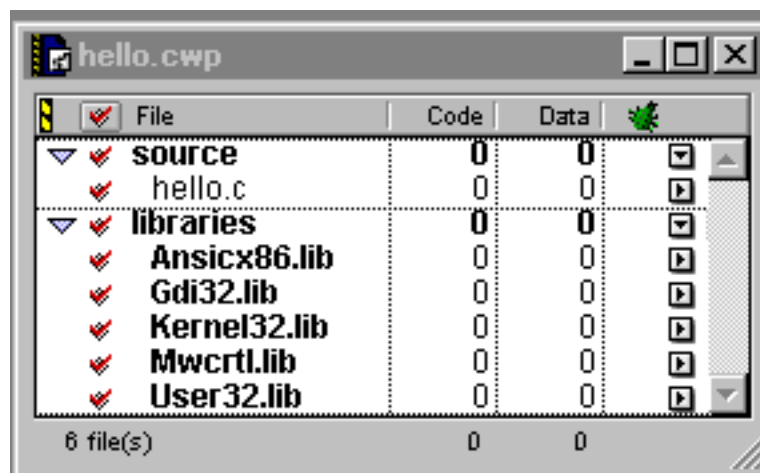


Figure 3.3 The `hello.cwp` project window, before compilation.

Programming Basics

The Programming Process

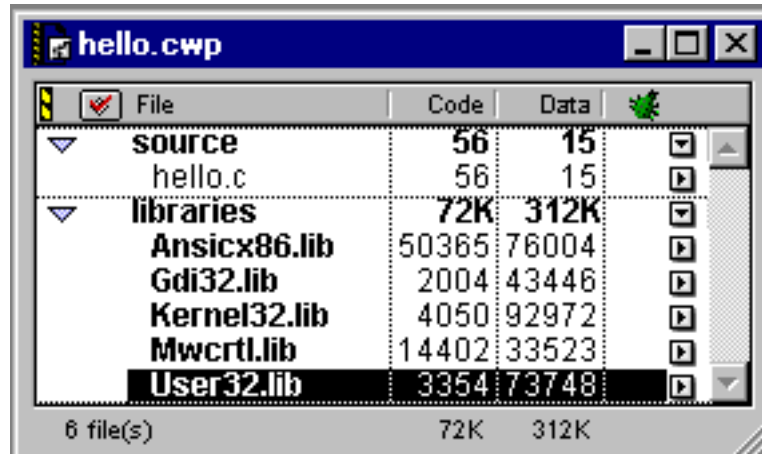
Warning

When you find the libraries, don't move them or mess with them in any way. CodeWarrior knows where these libraries live and won't be able to run your project if it can't find them.

When you select Run from the Project menu, CodeWarrior steps through each of the project's files. In the case of `hello.c`, CodeWarrior first checks to see whether `hello.c` has been modified since the last time it was compiled. If it has, the source code in `hello.c` is passed to CodeWarrior's C compiler, and the resulting object code is stored in the file `hello.cwp`.

In the case of each of the five libraries, CodeWarrior first checks to see whether the object code from the library file has already been copied into `hello.cwp`. If it has not been copied, the object code gets copied over. This process is known as **loading**. Source code gets compiled and libraries get loaded (insert silly drinking reference here).

Figure 3.4 is a snapshot of the project window after all the project files were updated. Notice that where there used to be a solid block of zeroes, there are now all kinds of numbers. The Code column tells you how much object code is stored in `hello.cwp` for each file in the project. For example, the object code for the file `hello.c` is 56 bytes long, and the object code for the library `Ansicx86.lib` is 50,365 bytes long. Why such a big difference? The source code in `hello.c` is tiny. As you get farther along in the book, watch that number start to climb!



The screenshot shows a window titled 'hello.cwp' with a table of file sizes. The table has three columns: 'File', 'Code', and 'Data'. The 'File' column is expanded to show a tree view with 'source' and 'libraries' folders. The 'Code' and 'Data' columns show the size of each file in bytes. The 'User32.lib' file is highlighted in the 'libraries' folder.

File	Code	Data
source	56	15
hello.c	56	15
libraries	72K	312K
Ansicx86.lib	50365	76004
Gdi32.lib	2004	43446
Kernel32.lib	4050	92972
Mwcrtl.lib	14402	33523
User32.lib	3354	73748

6 file(s) 72K 312K

Figure 3.4 The updated project window.

By the Way

You'll find these same five libraries in every one of the programs in this book. Together, these libraries contain everything needed to create the window that appears every time you run one of the book's programs.

The row labeled `source` summarizes the numbers for all the source code in the project. The row labeled `libraries` summarizes the numbers for the project libraries. If you add the code sizes for all five libraries, you'll get the number 74,175. So where does the number 72K come from? One kilobyte, or 1K, is equal to 1024 bytes; 74,175 divided by 1024 is approximately 72.4. Roughly speaking, 74,175 bytes is around 72K.

As the compiler goes through your source code, it sets aside certain pieces of your source code as data. For example, the text string "Hello, world!\n" is stored in the project file as data, not as part of the object code. As you can see in Figure 3.4, this string takes up 15 bytes of memory (look in the column labeled Data). You'll learn all about text strings later in the book.

By the Way

Since CodeWarrior stores the object code inside the project file on your hard drive, your project files will take up more room with a compiled program than with an uncompiled program. To save space, select Remove Binaries from the Project menu when you are done with a project. This item tells CodeWarrior to delete any object code it may have stored in the project file. Don't worry; Remove Binaries won't affect your source code. It'll just slim down your project file.

Flavors of Object Code

Just as there are many different programming languages, there are many different flavors of object code. In order for your application to run, the object code it was built on must be compatible with the **central processing unit** (also known as the **CPU**, or **processor**), which is the brains of your computer.

IBM PCs and PC-compatibles use processors built by Intel. These processors include the 8086, 80286, 80386, 80486, the Pentium, and the Pentium Pro. Macintosh computers are based on processors from Motorola. These include the 68000, 68020, 68030, 68040, and the PowerPC 601 and 604.

Each of these processors understands a specific set of machine language instructions. The 80486 understands 80486 machine language instructions but not 68000 machine language instructions. Similarly, the 68000 does not understand 80486 machine language instructions. That's one reason why you can't just copy a Windows application onto a Macintosh hard drive and run it. It's also one reason why you can't copy a Mac application onto a Windows machine and run it.

What's Next?

At this point, don't worry too much about the details. For now, focus on the basics. Understanding how to write C source code is far more important than the intricacies of the project file.

Ready to get into some source code? Get out your programming gloves; we're about to go to code!

Programming Basics

What's Next?



C Basics: Functions

Every programming language is designed to follow strict rules that define the language's source code structure. The C programming language is no different. The next few chapters will explore the syntax of C.

Chapter 3 discussed some fundamental programming topics, including the process of translating source code into machine code through a tool called the compiler. This chapter focuses on one of the primary building blocks of C programming, the **function**.

C Functions

C programs are made up of functions. A function is a chunk of source code that accomplishes a specific task. You might write a function that adds a list of numbers or that calculates the radius of a given circle. Here's an example of a function:

```
int main( void )
{
    printf( "I am a function and my name is
           main!!!\n" );

    return 0;
}
```

This function, called `main()`, prints a message in a window.

Important

Throughout this book, we'll refer to a function by placing a pair of parentheses after its name. This will help distinguish between function names and variable names. For example, `doTask()` re-

fers to a function, whereas the name `doTask` refers to a variable. Variables are covered in Chapter 5.

The Function Definition

Functions start off with a function specifier, in this case:

```
int main( void )
```

A function specifier consists of a **return type**, the function name, and a pair of parentheses wrapped around a **parameter list**. We'll talk about the return type and the parameter list later. For now, the important thing is to be able to recognize a function specifier and be able to pick out the function's name from within the specifier.

Following the specifier comes the body of the function. The body is always placed between a pair of curly braces: `{ }`. These braces are known in programming circles as "left-curly" and "right-curly." Here's the body of `main()`:

```
{
    printf( "I am a function and my name is
           main!!!\n" );

    return 0;
}
```

The body of a function consists of a series of **statements**, with each statement followed by a semicolon (;). If you think of a computer program as a detailed set of instructions for your computer, a statement is one specific instruction. The `printf()` featured in the body of `main()` is a statement. It instructs the computer to display some text on the screen.

As you make your way through this book, you'll learn C's rules for creating efficient, compilable statements. Creating efficient statements will make your programs run faster with less chance of error.

The more you learn about programming (and the more time you spend at your craft), the more efficient you'll make your code.

Syntax Errors and Algorithms

When you ask the compiler to compile your source code, the compiler does its best to translate your source code into object code. Every so often, however, the compiler will hit a line of source code that it just doesn't understand. When this happens, the compiler reports the problem to you and does not complete the compile. The compiler will not let you run your program until every line of source code compiles.

As you learn C, you'll find yourself making two types of mistakes. The simplest type, called a **syntax error**, prevents the program from compiling. The syntax of a language is the set of rules that determines what will and will not be read by the compiler. Many syntax errors are the result of a mistyped letter, or **typo**. Another common syntax error occurs when you forget the semicolon at the end of a statement.

Syntax errors are usually fairly easy to fix. If the compiler doesn't tell you exactly what you need to fix, it will usually tell you where in your code the syntax error occurred and give you enough information to spot and repair the error.

The second type of mistake is a flaw in your program's **algorithm**. An algorithm is the approach used to solve a problem. You use algorithms all the time. For example, here's an algorithm for sorting your mail:

1. Start by taking the mail out of the mailbox.
2. If there's no mail, you're done! Go watch TV.
3. Take a piece of mail out of the pile.
4. If it's junk mail, throw it away; then go back to step 2.
5. If it's a bill, put it with the other bills; then go back to step 2.
6. If it's not a bill and not junk mail, read it; then go back to step 2.

This algorithm completely describes the process of sorting through your mail. Notice that the algorithm works, even if you didn't get any mail. Notice also that the algorithm always ends up at step 2, with the TV on.

C Basics: Functions

C Functions

Figure 4.1 is a pictorial representation, or flowchart, of the mail-sorting algorithm. Much as you might use an outline to prepare for writing an essay or a term paper, you might use a flowchart to flesh out a program's algorithm before you start writing the program.

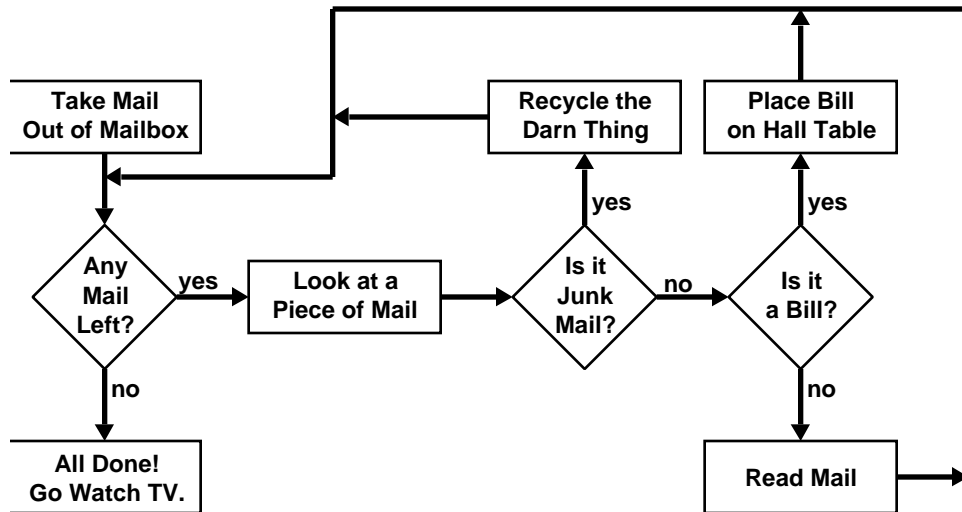


Figure 4.1 An algorithm for sorting your mail.

This flowchart uses two types of boxes. Each rectangular box portrays an action, such as taking mail out of the mailbox or throwing junk mail into the trash. Each diamond-shaped box poses a yes/no question. An action box has a single arrow leading from it to the next box to read, once you've finished taking the appropriate action. A question box has two arrows leading out of it: one showing the path to take if the answer to the question is yes and the other showing the path to take if the answer is no. Follow the flowchart through, comparing it to the algorithm as described.

In the C world, a well-designed algorithm results in a well-behaved program. On the other hand, a poorly designed algorithm can lead to unpredictable results. Suppose, for example, that you wanted to write a program that added three numbers and printed the sum at the end. If you accidentally printed one of the numbers instead of the sum of the numbers, your program would still compile and run. The result of the program would be in error, however (you printed

one of the numbers instead of the sum), because of a flaw in your program's algorithm.

The efficiency of your source code, referred to earlier, is a direct result of good algorithm design. Keep the concept of algorithm in mind as you work your way through the examples in the book.

Calling a Function

In Chapter 3, you looked at `hello`, a program with a single function, `main()`. As a refresher, here's the source code from `hello`:

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main( void )
{
    printf( "Hello, world!\n" );

    return 0;
}
```

You ran `hello` by selecting Run from the Project menu. CodeWarrior started by executing the first line in the function named `main()`. In this case, the first line in `main()` was the **call** to the function `printf()`. Whenever your source code calls a function, each statement in the called function is executed before the next statement of the calling function is executed.

Confused? Look at Figure 4.2. In this example, `main()` starts with a call to the function `MyFunction()`. This call to `MyFunction()` will cause each statement inside `MyFunction()` to be executed. Once the last statement in `MyFunction()` has been executed, control is returned to `main()`. Now, `main()` can call `AnotherFunction()`.

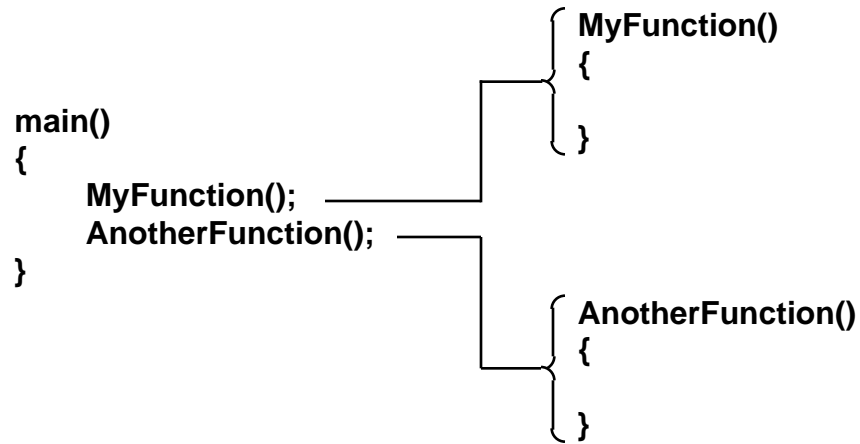


Figure 4.2 When `main()` calls `MyFunction()`, all of the statements inside `MyFunction()` get executed before `main()` calls `AnotherFunction()`.

Every C program you write will have a `main()` function. Your program will start running with the first line in `main()` and, unless something unusual happens, end with the last line in `main()`. Along the way, `main()` may call other functions, which may, in turn, call other functions, and so on.

ISO C and the Standard Library

The American National Standards Institute (ANSI) established a national standard for the C programming language. This standard became known as **ANSI C**. Later, the International Standards Organization (ISO) adopted this standard, and ANSI C evolved into the international standard known as **ISO C**. Part of this standard is a specific definition of the syntax of the C language.

By the Way

Since the term ISO C is still catching on, you'll still hear most C programmers refer to the ANSI C standard. The main difference between the two standards is that ISO C has extra functions in its Standard Library to handle multibyte and wide characters. ISO C

or ANSI C—either term is fine. The important thing to be aware of is that a strict C standard does exist.

As we stated earlier, the syntax of a language provides a set of rules defining what is and isn't legal source code. For example, ISO C tells you when you can and can't use a semicolon. ISO C tells you to use a pair of parentheses after the name of your function, regardless of whether your function has any parameters. You get the idea. The greatest benefit to having an international standard for C is portability. With a minimum of tinkering, you can get an ISO C program written on one computer up and running on another computer. When you finish with this book, you'll be able to program in C on any computer that has an ISO C compiler.

Another part of the ISO C standard is the Standard Library, a set of functions available to every ISO C programmer. As you may have guessed, the `printf()` function you've seen in our source code examples is part of the Standard Library. Take a look at the `hello.c` project window (Figure 4.3). In the libraries section, the file `Ansicx86.Lib` contains the Standard Library. Remember, when you see ANSI, think ISO!

We'll spend a great deal of time working with the Standard Library in this book. Once you get comfortable with the Standard Library functions presented here, check out the Standard Library C Reference on the Discover Programming CD. Spend some time going through each of the Standard Library functions to get a sense of the variety of functions offered.

C Basics: Functions

Same Program, Two Functions

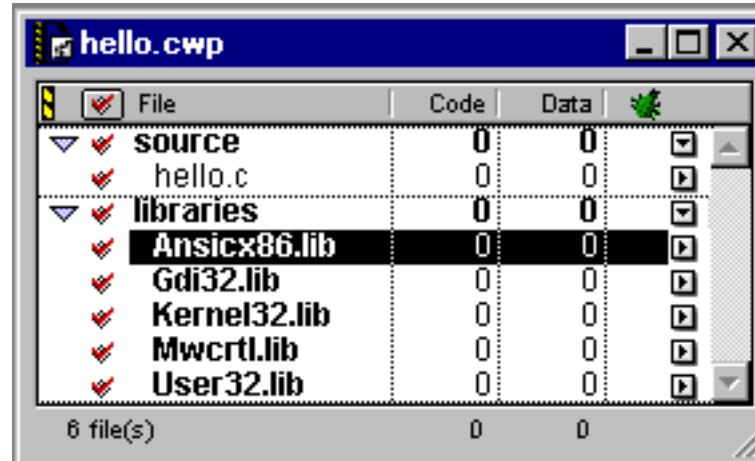


Figure 4.3 The hello.cwp project window, with the Standard Library highlighted.

Same Program, Two Functions

As you start writing your own programs, you'll find yourself designing many individual functions. You might need a function that puts a form up on the screen for the user to fill out. You might need a function that takes a list of numbers as input, providing the average of those numbers in return. Whatever your needs, you will definitely be creating a lot of functions. Let's see how it's done.

Our first program, `hello`, consisted of a single function, `main()`, that passed the text string "Hello, world!\n" to `printf()`. Our second program, `hello2`, captures that functionality in a new function, called `SayHello()`.

By the Way

You've probably been wondering why the characters `\n` keep appearing at the end of all our text strings. Don't worry; there's nothing wrong with your copy of the book. The `\n` is perfectly normal. It tells `printf()` to move the cursor to the beginning of the next line in the text window, sort of like pressing the return key in a text editor.

The sequence `\n` is frequently referred to as a carriage return, or just plain return. By including a return at the end of a `printf()`, we know that the next line we print will appear at the beginning of the next line in the text window.

Opening hello2.cwp

Using the Windows Explorer or My Computer, open the Learn C Projects directory, open the subdirectory named 04.01 - hello2, and double-click on the project file `hello2.cwp`. A project window named `hello2.cwp` will appear, as shown in Figure 4.4.

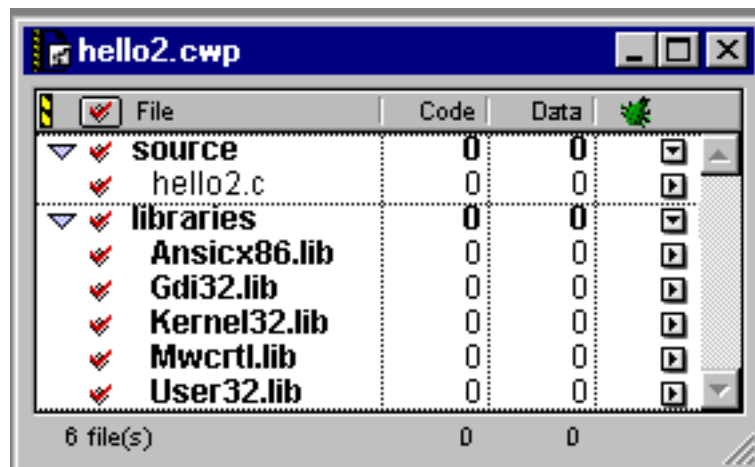


Figure 4.4 The project window for `hello.cwp`

If you double-click on the name `hello2.c` in the project window, a source code editing window will appear, containing source code remarkably similar to this:

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

C Basics: Functions

Same Program, Two Functions

```
void SayHello( void );

int main( void )
{
    SayHello();

    return 0;
}

void SayHello( void )
{
    printf( "Hello, world!\n" );
}
```

hello2 starts off with this line of source code:

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

You'll find this line (or a slight variation) at the beginning of each one of the programs in this book. It tells the compiler to include the source code from the file `stdio.h` as it compiles `hello2.c`. The file `stdio.h` contains information we'll need if we are going to call `printf()` in this source code file. You'll see the `#include` (pronounced pound-include) mechanism used throughout this book, and we'll talk about it in detail later. For now, get used to seeing this line of code at the top of each of our source code files.

The two lines following the `#include` are blank. This is completely cool. Since the C compiler ignores all blank lines, you can use them to make your code a little more readable. I like to leave a few blank lines (at least) between each of my functions.

This line of code appears next:

```
void SayHello( void );
```

Although this line might look like a function specifier, don't be fooled! If this were a function specifier, it would not end with a semicolon, and it would be followed by a left-curly brace ({) and the rest of the function. This line is known as a **function prototype**, or **function declaration**. You'll include a function prototype for every function, other than `main()`, in your source code file.

To understand why, it helps to know that a compiler reads your source code file from the beginning to the end, a line at a time. By placing a complete list of function prototypes at the beginning of the file, you give the compiler a preview of the functions it is about to compile. The compiler uses this information to make sure that calls to these functions are made correctly.

By the Way

This will make a lot more sense to you once we get into the subject of parameters in Chapter 7. For now, get used to seeing function prototypes at the beginning of all your source code files.

Next comes the function `main()`. `main()` first calls the function `SayHello()`:

```
int main( void )
{
    SayHello();
```

At this point, the lines of the function `SayHello()` get run. When `SayHello()` is finished, `main()` can move on to its next line of code. The keyword `return` tells the compiler to return from the current function, without executing the remainder of the function. We'll talk about `return` in Chapter 7. Until then, the only place you'll see this line is at the end of `main()`.

```
    return 0;
}
```

Following `main()` is another pair of blank lines, followed by the function `SayHello()`. `SayHello()` prints the string "Hello, world!" in a window, then returns control to `main()`.

C Basics: Functions

Same Program, Two Functions

```
void SayHello( void )
{
    printf( "Hello, world!\n" );
}
```

Let's step back for a second and compare `hello` to `hello2`. In `hello`, `main()` called `printf()` directly. In `hello2`, `main()` calls a function that calls `printf()`. This extra layer demonstrates a basic C programming technique: taking code from one function and using it to create a new function. This example took the following line of code and used it to create a new function called `SayHello()`:

```
printf( "Hello, world!\n" );
```

This function is now available for use by the rest of the program. Every time we call the function `SayHello()`, it's as if we executed the following line of code:

```
printf( "Hello, world!\n" );
```

`SayHello()` may be a simple function, but it demonstrates an important concept. Wrapping a chunk of code in a single function is a powerful technique. Suppose that you create an extremely complex function, say, 100 lines of code in length. Now suppose that you call this function in five different places in your program. With 100 lines of code, plus the five function calls, you are essentially achieving 500 lines of functionality. That's a pretty good return on your investment!

Let's watch `hello2` in action.

Running `hello2.cwp`

Select Run from the Project menu. You'll see a window similar to the one shown in Figure 4.5. Gee, this looks just like the output from the `hello` program. Of course, that was the point! Even though we embedded our `printf()` inside the function `SayHello()`, `hello2` ran the same as `hello`.

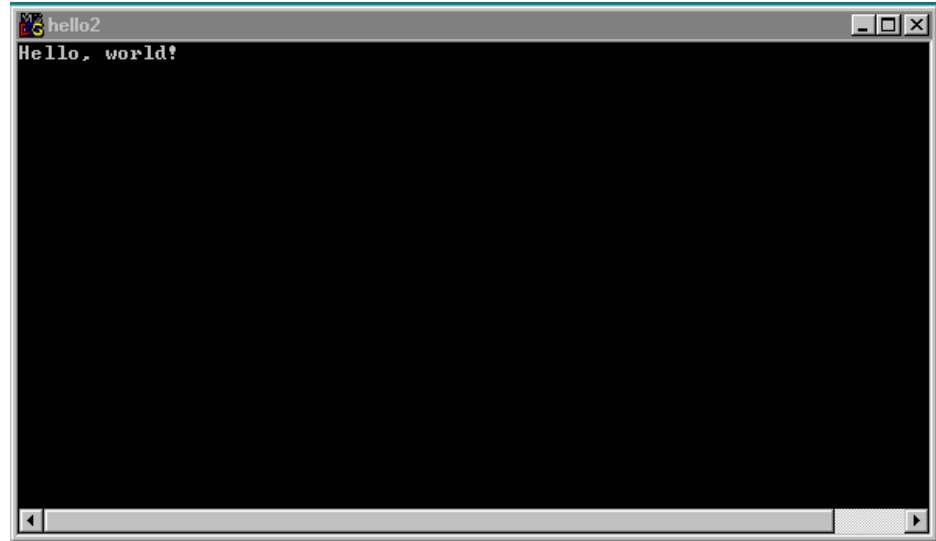


Figure 4.5 The output from `hello2`.

Before we move on to our next program, let's get a little terminology out of the way. The window that appeared when you ran `hello` and `hello2` is known as a **console** window. The console window appears whenever you call a function like `printf()`, that is, a routine that tries to display some text. The console window is one of the benefits you get by using the Standard Library. All the programs in this book take advantage of the console window.

The text that appears in the console window is known as **output**. After you run a program, you're likely to check out the output that appears in the console to make sure that your program ran correctly.

Another Example

Imagine what would happen if you changed `main()` in `hello2` to read:

```
int main( void )
{
    SayHello();
    SayHello();
}
```

C Basics: Functions

Same Program, Two Functions

```
SayHello();  
  
return 0;  
}
```

What's different? In this version, we've added two more calls to `SayHello()`. Can you picture what the console will look like after we run this new version?

To find out, close the `hello2.cwp` project window and then select Open from CodeWarrior's File menu. When the window shown in Figure 4.6 appears, navigate into the subdirectory named `04.02 - hello3` and open the project named `hello3.cwp`.

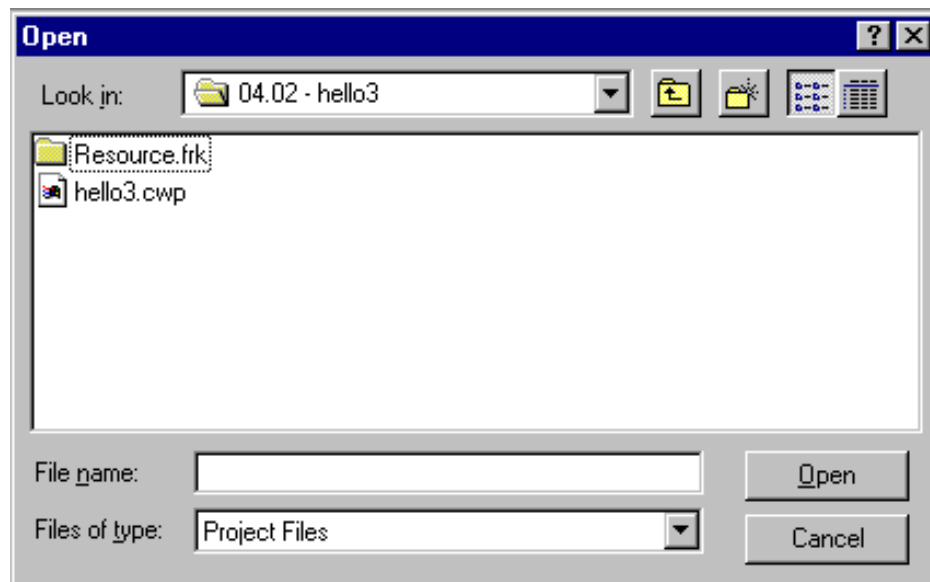


Figure 4.6 This window appears when you select Open from CodeWarrior's File menu.

When you run `hello3`, the console window shown in Figure 4.7 will appear. Take a look at the output. Does it make sense to you? Each call to `SayHello()` generates the text string "Hello, world!" followed by a carriage return.

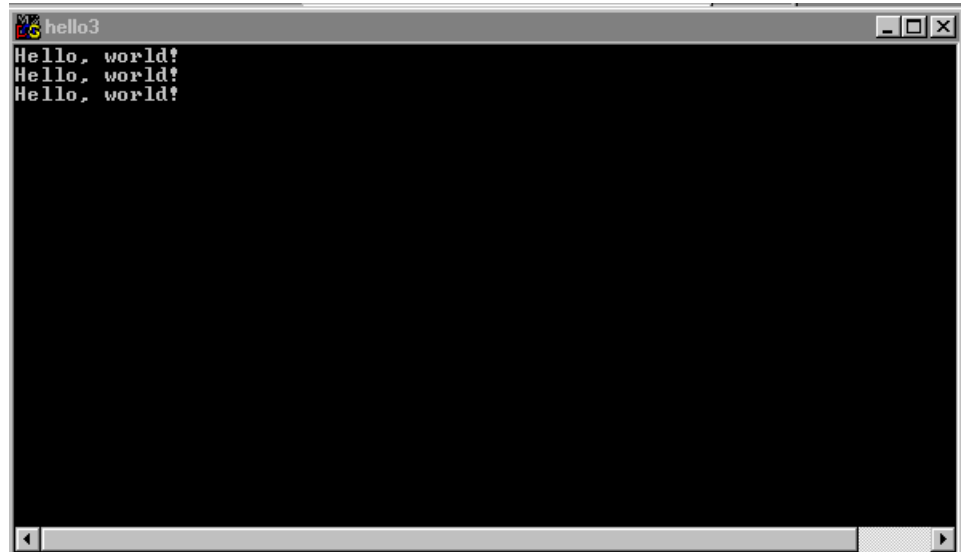


Figure 4.7 The output from `hello3`.

Generating Some Errors

Before we move on to the next chapter, let's see how the compiler responds to errors in our source code. Back in CodeWarrior, double-click on the name `hello3.c` in the `hello3.cwp` project window (Figure 4.8). The source code window containing the `hello3.c` source code will appear.

In the source code window, find the line of source code containing the function specifier for `main()`. The line should read:

```
int main( void )
```

Click at the end of the line, so the blinking cursor appears at the very end of the line. Now type a semicolon, so that the line reads:

```
int main( void );
```

C Basics: Functions

Generating Some Errors

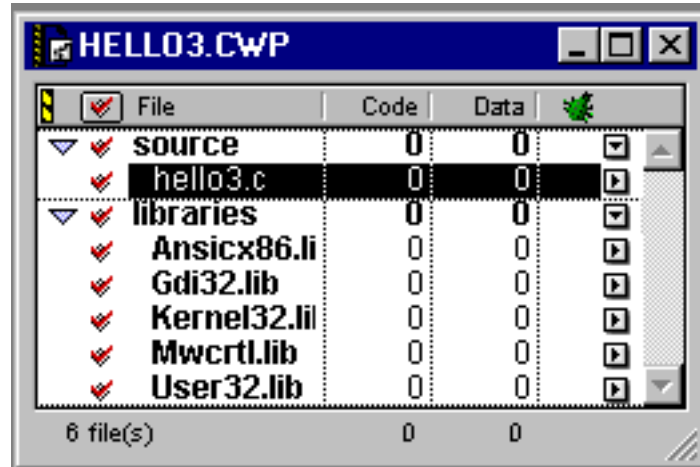


Figure 4.8 The `hello3.cwp` project window, with the source code file `hello3.c` highlighted.

Here's the entire file, showing the tiny change you just made:

```
#include <stdio.h>

void SayHello( void );

int main( void );
{
    SayHello();
    SayHello();
    SayHello();

    return 0;
}

void SayHello( void )
{
```

```
printf( "Hello, world!\n" );  
}
```

Keep in mind that you added only a single semicolon to the source code; select Run from the Project menu. CodeWarrior knows that you changed your source code since the last time it was compiled and will try to recompile `hello3.c`. Figure 4.9 shows the error window that appears, telling you that you've got a problem with your source code. Yikes! All that, just because you added a measly semicolon! Sometimes, the compiler will give you a perfectly precise message that exactly describes the error it encountered. In this case, however, the compiler got so confused by the extra semicolon that it reported six errors instead of just one. Notice, however, that the very first error message gives you a pretty good idea of what is going on. It complains about a syntax error on line 8 and then displays a left-curly brace (`{`). If you click on the line you just modified, then look at the bottom of the source code window, you'll see that the line you added the semicolon to is line 7 and that the very next line (line 8) contains the left-curly brace in question.

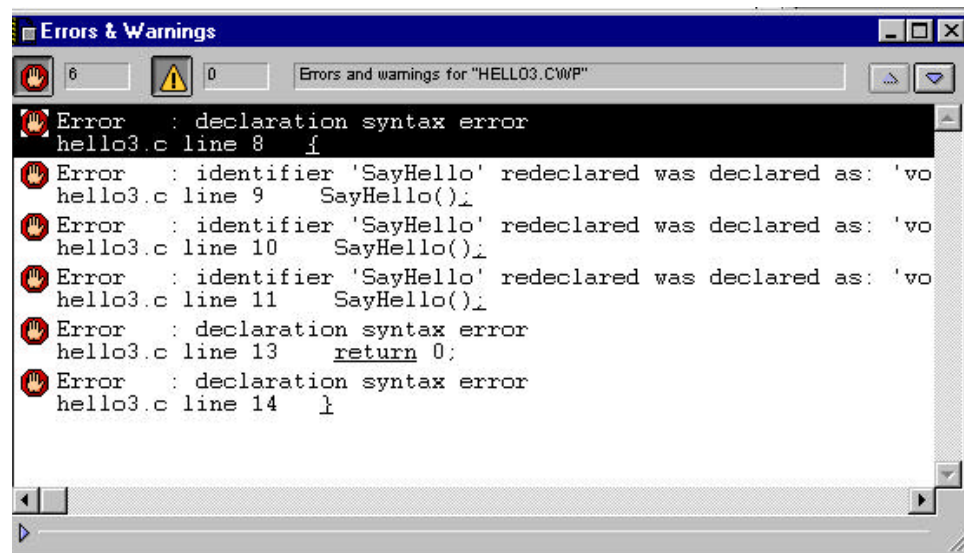


Figure 4.9 Yikes! All this just because you added a single semicolon!

Use the mouse and the delete key to delete the offending semicolon at the end of the first line of code. Select Run from the Project menu

C Basics: Functions

What's Next?

again. This time, the code should compile without a hitch. Once the code is compiled, CodeWarrior will run it, proving that your source code is now fixed.

The Importance of Case in C

Many types of errors are possible in C programming. One of the most common results from the fact that C is a case-sensitive language. In a **case-sensitive** language, there is a big difference between lower- and uppercase letters. This means that you can't refer to `printf()` as `Printf()` or even `PRINTF()`. Figure 4.10 shows the error message you'll get if you change your `printf()` call to `PRINTF()`. This message is telling you that CodeWarrior couldn't find a function named `PRINTF()`. To fix this problem, just change `PRINTF()` to `printf()` and recompile.

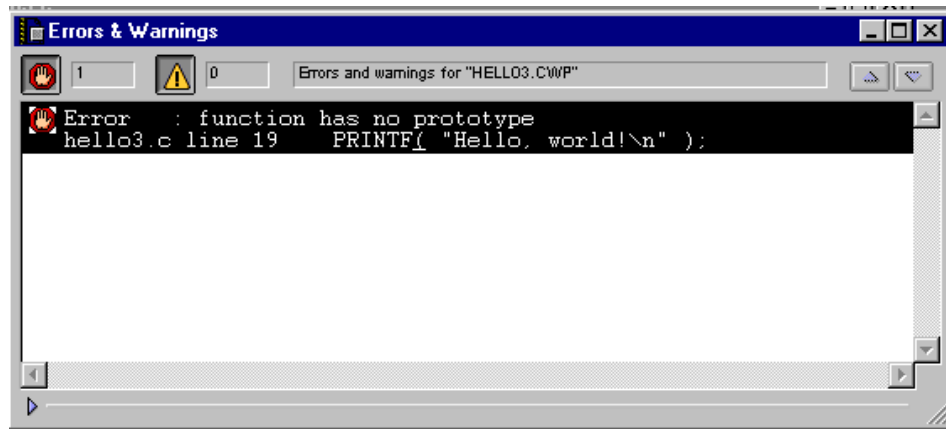


Figure 4.10 The error reported by CodeWarrior for use of incorrect case in call to `printf()`.

What's Next?

Congratulations! You've made it through basic training. You know how to open a project, how to compile your code, and even how to create an error message or two. You've learned about the most important function: `main()`. You've also learned about `printf()` and the Standard Library.

Now you're ready to dig into the stuff that gives a C program life: variables and operators.

Exercises

Open the project `hello2.cwp`, edit `hello2.c` as described in each exercise, and describe the error that results:

1. Change the line:

```
SayHello()
```

to say:

```
SayHello(
```

2. Change things back. Now change the line:

```
main()
```

to say:

```
Main()
```

3. Change things back. Now delete the `{` after the line:

```
main()
```

4. Change things back. Now delete the semicolon at the end of this line:

```
printf("Hello, world!\n");
```

so it reads:

```
printf("Hello, world!\n")
```


C Basics: Functions

Exercises



C Basics: Variables and Operators

At this point, you should feel pretty comfortable with the CodeWarrior environment. You should know how to open a project and how to edit a project's source code. You should also feel comfortable running a project and (heaven forbid) fixing any syntax errors that may have occurred along the way.

On the programming side, you should recognize a function when you see one. When you think of a function, you should first think of `main()`, the most important function. You should remember that functions are made up of statements, each of which is followed by a semicolon.

With these things in mind, we're ready to explore the foundation of C programming: **variables** and **operators**. Variables and operators are the building blocks you'll use to construct your program's statements.

An Introduction to Variables

A large part of the programming process involves working with data. You might need to add a column of numbers or sort a list of names alphabetically. The tricky part of this process is representing your data in a program. This is where variables come in.

Variables can be thought of as containers for your program's data. Imagine three containers on a table. Each container has a label: `cup1`, `cup2`, and `cup3`. Now imagine that you have three pieces of paper. Write a number on each piece of paper and place one piece inside each of the three containers. Figure 5.1 shows what this might look like.

C Basics: Variables and Operators

An Introduction to Variables

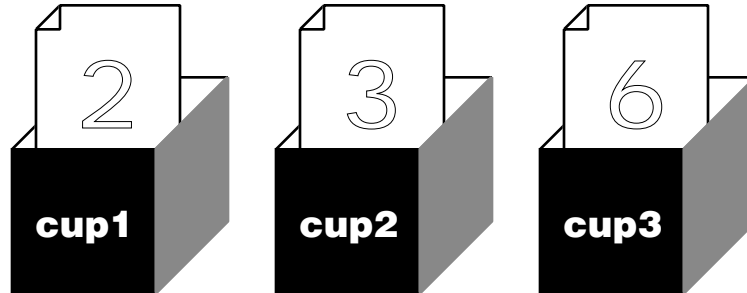


Figure 5.1 Three containers, each with its own value.

Now imagine asking a friend to reach into the three cups, pull out the number in each one, and add the three values. You can ask your friend to place the sum of the three values in a fourth container created just for this purpose. The fourth container is labeled `sum` and is shown in Figure 5.2.

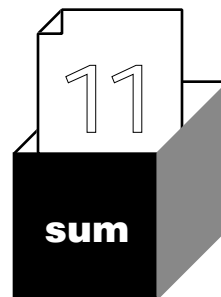


Figure 5.2 A fourth container, containing the sum of the other three containers.

This is exactly how variables work. Variables are containers for your program's data. You create a variable and place a value in it. You then ask the computer to do something with the value in your variable. You can ask the computer to add three variables and place the result in a fourth variable. You can even ask the computer to take the value in a variable, multiply it by 2, and place the result back into the original variable.

Getting back to our example, now imagine that you changed the values in `cup1`, `cup2`, and `cup3`. Once again, you could call on your

friend to add the three values, updating the value in the container `sum`. You've reused the same variables, using the same formula, to achieve a different result. Here's the C version of this formula:

```
sum = cup1 + cup2 + cup3;
```

Every time you execute this line of source code, you place the sum of the variables `cup1`, `cup2`, and `cup3` into the variable named `sum`. At this point, it's not important to understand exactly how this line of C source code works. What is important is to understand the basic idea behind variables. Each variable in your program is like a container with a value in it. This chapter will teach you how to create variables and how to place a value in a variable.

Working with Variables

Variables come in a variety **types**. A variable's type determines the kind of data that can be stored in that variable. You determine a variable's type when you create the variable. (We'll discuss creating variables in just a second.) Some variable types are useful for working with numbers. Other variable types are designed to work with text. In this chapter, we'll work only with variables of one type: a numerical type called `int`. (In Chapter 8, we'll get into other variable types.) A variable of type `int` can hold a numerical value, such as 27 or -589.

Working with variables is a two-stage process. First, you create a variable; then you use the variable. In C, you create a variable by **declaring** it. Declaring a variable tells the compiler, "Create a variable for me. I need a container to place a piece of data in." When you declare a variable, you have to specify both the variable's type and its name. In our earlier example, we created four containers, each having a label. In the C world, this would be the same as creating four variables with the names `cup1`, `cup2`, `cup3`, and `sum`. In C, if we want to use the value stored in a variable, we use the variable's name. We'll show you how to do this later in the chapter.

Here's an example of a variable declaration:

```
int myVariable;
```

C Basics: Variables and Operators

An Introduction to Variables

This declaration tells the compiler to create a variable of type `int` (remember, an `int` is useful for working with numbers) with the name `myVariable`. The type of the variable (in this case, `int`) is extremely important. As you'll see, a variable type determines the kind and range of values a variable can be assigned.

Variable Names

Here are two rules to follow when you create your own variable names:

- Variable names must always start with an upper- or lowercase letter (A, B, . . . , Z or a, b, . . . , z) or with an underscore (`_`).
- The remainder of the variable name must be made up of upper- or lowercase letters, numbers (0, 1, . . . , 9), or the underscore.

These two rules yield such variable names as `myVariable`, `THIS_NUMBER`, `vaRiAbLe_1`, and `A1234_4321`. Note that a C variable may never include a space or a character such as `&` or `*`. These two rules *must* be followed.

On the other hand, these rules do leave a fair amount of room for inventiveness. Over the years, different groups of programmers came up with additional guidelines (also known as **conventions**) that made variable names more consistent and a bit easier to read.

As an example of this, UNIX programmers tended to use all lowercase letters in their variable names. When a variable name consisted of more than one word, the words were separated by an underscore. This yielded variable names like `my_variable` or `number_of_puppies`

Macintosh programmers tend to follow a naming convention established by their SmallTalk cousins. Variable names are formed from lowercase letters and numbers, always starting with a lowercase letter. This yields variable names like `number` or `digit33`. A variable with more than one word is started with a lowercase letter, and each successive word in the variable name is started with an uppercase letter. This yields variable names like `myVariable` or `howMany`

Many Windows programmers use a variable naming convention known as Hungarian notation. In Hungarian notation, the variable name begins with a lowercase letter that denotes the type of the

variable. For a `char`, the variable name would start with `c`, as in `cMyVariable`. For an `int`, the variable name would start with `i`, as in `iMyInt`.

As mentioned in Chapter 4, C is a case-sensitive language. The compiler will cough out an error if you sometimes refer to `myVariable` and other times refer to `myvariable`. Adopt a naming convention and stick with it: Be consistent!

The Size of a Type

When you declare a variable, the compiler reserves a section of memory for the exclusive use of that variable. When you assign a value to a variable, you are modifying the variable's dedicated memory to reflect that value. The number of bytes assigned to a variable is determined by the variable's type. You should check your compiler's documentation to see how many bytes go along with each of the standard C types.

Some compilers assign 4 bytes to each `int`. Others assign 2 bytes to each `int`. By default, CodeWarrior uses 4-byte `ints`.

Warning

It's important to understand that the size of a type can change, depending on such factors as your computer's processor type and operating system (Windows versus MacintoshOS, for example) and your development environment. Remember, read the manual that comes with your compiler.

Let's continue with the assumption that CodeWarrior is using 4-byte `ints`. The following variable declaration reserves memory (in our case, 4 bytes) for the exclusive use of the variable `myInt`:

```
int myInt;
```

If you later assign a value to `myInt`, that value is stored in the 4 bytes allocated for `myInt`. If you ever refer to the value of `myInt`, you'll be referring to the value stored in `myInt`'s 4 bytes.

C Basics: Variables and Operators

An Introduction to Variables

If your compiler used 2-byte ints, the preceding declaration would allocate 2 bytes of memory for the exclusive use of `myInt`. As you'll see, it is important to know the size of the each type you are dealing with.

Why is the size of a type important? The size of a type determines the range of values that the type can handle. As you might expect, a type that's 4 bytes in size can hold a wider range of values than a type that's only 1 byte in size.

Bytes and Bits

Each byte of computer memory is made up of 8 **bits**. Each bit has a value of either 1 or 0. Figure 5.3 shows a byte holding the value 00101011. The value 00101011 is said to be the **binary** representation of the value of the byte. Look more closely at Figure 5.3. Each bit is numbered (above each bit in the figure), with bit 0 on the extreme right side and bit 7 on the extreme left. Most computers use this standard bit-numbering scheme.

Notice also the labels ("Add 1," "Add 2," and so on) that appear beneath each bit in the figure. These labels are the key to binary numbers. Memorize them. (It's easy—each bit is worth twice the value of its neighbor to the right.) These labels are used to calculate the value of the entire byte. Here's how it works:

- Start with a value of 0.
- For each bit with a value of 1, add the label value below the bit.

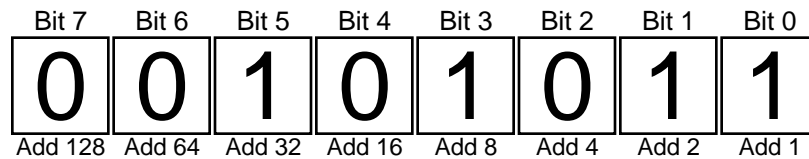


Figure 5.3 A byte holding the binary value 00101011.

That's all there is to it! In the byte pictured in Figure 5.3, you'd calculate the byte's value by adding $1 + 2 + 8 + 32 = 43$. Where did we get the 1, 2, 8, and 32? They're the bottom labels of the only bits with

a value of 1. Try another one. What's the value of the byte pictured in Figure 5.4?

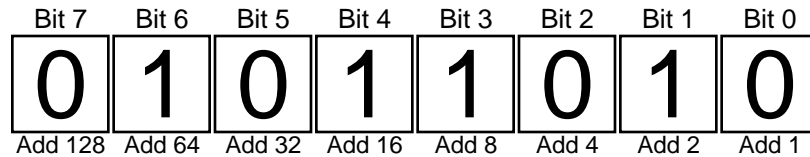


Figure 5.4 What's the value of this byte?

Easy, right? Just $2 + 8 + 16 + 64 = 90$. Right! How about the byte in Figure 5.5?

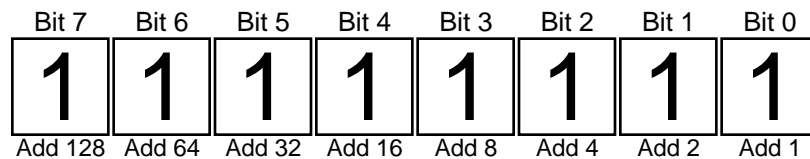


Figure 5.5 Last one: What's the value of this byte?

This is an interesting one: $1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + 16 + 32 + 64 + 128 = 255$. This example demonstrates the largest value that can fit in a single byte. Why? Because every bit is turned on. We've added everything we can add to the value of the byte.

The smallest value a byte can have is 0 (00000000). Since a byte can range in value from 0 to 255, a byte can have 256 possible values.

Important

This is just one of several ways to represent a number using binary. This approach is fine if you want to represent integers that are always greater than or equal to 0 (known as **unsigned** integers). Computers use a different technique, known as **two's complement notation**, to represent integers that might be either negative or positive.

To represent a negative number using two's complement notation:

C Basics: Variables and Operators

An Introduction to Variables

- Start with the binary representation of the positive version of the number.
- Complement all the bits (turn the 1s into 0s and the 0s into 1s).
- Add 1 to the result.

For example, the binary notation for the number 9 is 00001001. To represent -9 in two's complement notation, flip the bits (11110110) and then add 1. The two's complement for -9 is $11110110 + 1 = 11110111$

The binary notation for the number 2 is 00000010. The two's complement for -2 would be $11111101 + 1 = 11111110$. Notice that in binary addition, when you add $01 + 01$, you get 10 . Just as in regular addition, you carry the 1 to the next column.

Don't worry about the details of binary representation and arithmetic. What's important to remember is that the computer uses one notation for positive-only numbers and a different notation for numbers that can be positive or negative. Both notations allow a byte to take on one of 256 different values. The positives-only scheme allows values ranging from 0 to 255. The two's complement scheme allows values ranging from -128 to 127. Note that both of these ranges contain exactly 256 values.

Going from 1 to 2 Bytes

So far, we've discovered that 1 byte (8 bits) of memory can hold one of $2^8 = 256$ possible values. By extension, 2 bytes (16 bits) of memory can hold one of $2^{16} = 65,536$ possible values. If the 2 bytes are unsigned (never allowed to hold a negative value), they can hold values ranging from 0 to 65,535. If the 2 bytes are **signed** (allowed to hold both positive and negative values), they can hold values ranging from -32,768 to 32,767.

By default, most C data types are signed (allowed to hold both positive and negative values). This means that a variable declared as follows is signed and, assuming a 4-byte `int`, can hold values ranging from -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647:

```
int myInt;
```

Important

To declare a variable as `unsigned`, precede its declaration with the `unsigned` qualifier. Here's an example:

```
unsigned int myInt;
```

This version of `myInt` (again, assuming 4-byte ints) can hold values ranging from 0 to 4,294,967,295.

Now that you've defined the type of variable your program will use (in this case, `int`), you can assign a value to your variable.

Operators

One way to assign a value to a variable is with the `=` operator, also known as the **assignment operator**. An operator is a special character (or set of characters) representing a specific computer operation. The assignment operator tells the computer to compute the value to the right of the `=` and to assign that value to the left of the `=`. Take a look at this line of source code:

```
myInt = 237;
```

This statement causes the value 237 to be placed in the memory allocated for `myInt`. In this line of code, `myInt` is known as an **l-value** (for left-value) because it appears on the left side of the `=` operator. A variable makes a fine l-value. A number (like 237) makes a terrible l-value. Why? Because values are copied *from the right side to the left side* of the `=` operator. For example, the following line of code asks the compiler to copy the value in `myInt` to the number 237:

```
237 = myInt;
```

C Basics: Variables and Operators

Operators

Since you can't change the value of a number, the compiler will report an error when it encounters this line of code (most likely, the error message will say something like "l-value expected").

By the Way

As we just illustrated, you can use numerical constants (such as 237) directly in your code. In the programming world, these constants are called **literals**. Just as there are different types of variables, there are also different types of literals. You'll see more on this topic later in the book.

Look at this example:

```
int main( void )
{
    int myInt, anotherInt;

    myInt = 503;
    anotherInt = myInt;

    return 0;
}
```

Notice we've declared two variables in this program. One way to declare multiple variables is the way we did here, separating the variables by a comma (,). There's no limit to the number of variables you can declare using this method.

We could have declared these variables by using two separate declaration lines:

```
int myInt;
int anotherInt;
```

Either way is fine. As you'll see, C is an extremely flexible language. However, there is one rule of thumb you should keep in mind. Although there are exceptions, you'll generally declare all your vari-

ables before any other type of statement occurs. Consider this example:

```
int main( void )
{
    int myInt;

    myInt = 503;

    int anotherInt;

    anotherInt = myInt;

    return 0;
}
```

This program will not compile (see the errors in Figure 5.6). Why? A variable (`anotherInt`) was declared after a nondeclaration statement (`myInt = 503`).

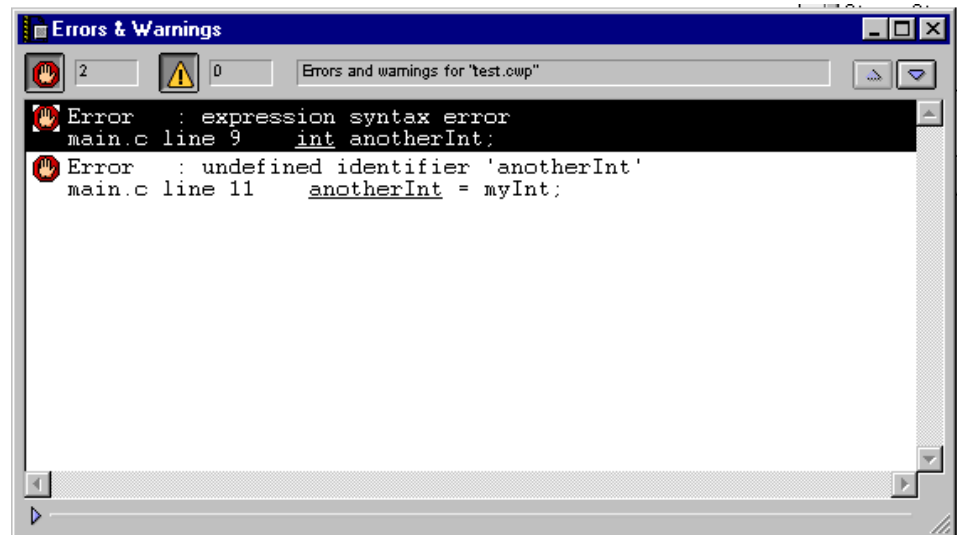


Figure 5.6 These errors occurred because `anotherInt` was declared after an assignment statement.

C Basics: Variables and Operators

Operators

Here's the corrected version:

```
int main( void )
{
    int myInt;
    int anotherInt;

    myInt = 503;
    anotherInt = myInt;

    return 0;
}
```

This program starts by declaring two ints:

```
int myInt;
int anotherInt;
```

Next, the program assigns the value 503 to myInt:

```
myInt = 503;
```

Finally, the value in myInt is copied into anotherInt:

```
anotherInt = myInt;
```

After this last statement, the variable anotherInt also contains the value 503.

By the Way

Here's another version of our program that also compiles:

```
int          main( void )
{
            int          myInt;
```

```
myInt = 503;
{
    int    anotherInt;

    anotherInt = myInt;
}
return 0;
}
```

Wait a sec. This version declares a variable (`anotherInt`) after a nondeclaration statement. So how come it compiles? The left-curly (`{`) after the assignment statement starts a new block of code, which gives you another opportunity to declare more variables. The right-curly (`}`) ends the block.

Although this may be interesting, it doesn't come up that often. Your best bet is to stick to the strategy of declaring a function's variables at the beginning of the function.

Why go to all this effort just to assign a value to a variable? Think of it as learning to crawl before you can walk. As we cover more and more of the C language, you'll start to see some of the fantastic things you can accomplish. At the beginning of this chapter, we looked at an example that took the values from three containers, added them, and placed the result in a fourth container. That's what this is all about. C variables and operators allow you to manipulate and manage data inside a program. The data might represent your baseball card collection or the flight path of the Mars lander. Variables and operators allow you to massage the data to get the results you want. Have patience and keep reading.

Let's look at some other operators.

The +, -, ++, and -- Operators

The + and - operators each take two values and reduce them to a single value. For example, the following statement will first resolve the right side of the = by adding the numbers 5 and 3.

```
myInt = 5 + 3;
```

Once that's done, the resulting value (8) is assigned to the variable on the left side of the =. This statement assigns the value 8 to the variable `myInt`. Assigning a value to a variable means copying the value into the memory allocated to that variable.

Here's another example:

```
myInt = 10;  
anotherInt = 12 - myInt;
```

The first statement assigns the value 10 to `myInt`. The second statement subtracts 10 from 12 to get 2, then assigns the value 2 to `anotherInt`.

The ++ and -- operators operate on a single value only. The ++ operator **increments** (raises) the value by 1, and -- **decrements** (lowers) the value by 1. Take a look:

```
myInt = 10;  
myInt++;
```

The first statement assigns `myInt` a value of 10. The second statement changes the value of `myInt` from 10 to 11. Here's an example with --:

```
myInt = 10;  
-- myInt;
```

This time, the second line of code left `myInt` with a value of 9. You may have noticed that the first example showed the ++ following

`myInt`, whereas the second example showed the `--` preceding `myInt`.

The position of the `++` and `--` operators determines when their operation is performed in relation to the rest of the statement. Placing the operator to the right of a variable or an expression (**postfix notation**) tells the compiler to resolve all values before performing the increment (or decrement) operation. Placing the operator to the left of the variable (**prefix notation**) tells the compiler to increment (or decrement) first, then continue evaluation. Confused? The following examples should make this point clear:

```
myInt = 10;
anotherInt = myInt--;
```

The first statement assigns `myInt` a value of 10. In the second statement, the `--` operator is to the right of `myInt`. This use of postfix notation tells the compiler to assign `myInt`'s value to `anotherInt` before decrementing `myInt`. This example leaves `myInt` with a value of 9 and `anotherInt` with a value of 10.

Here's the same example, written using prefix notation:

```
myInt = 10;
anotherInt = -- myInt;
```

This time, the `--` is to the left of `myInt`. In this case, the value of `myInt` is decremented before being assigned to `anotherInt`. The result? Both `myInt` and `anotherInt` are left with a value of 9.

By the Way

This use of prefix and postfix notation shows both a strength and a weakness of the C language. The strength is that C allows you to accomplish a lot in a small amount of code. In the previous examples, we changed the value of two different variables in a single statement. C is powerful.

The weakness is that C code written in this fashion can be extremely cryptic, difficult to read for even the most seasoned C pro-

grammer.

Write your code carefully.

The += and -= Operators

In C, you can place the same variable on both the left and right sides of an assignment statement. For example, the following statement increases the value of `myInt` by 10:

```
myInt = myInt + 10;
```

The same results can be achieved using the += operator:

```
myInt += 10;
```

In other words, the preceding statement is the same as:

```
myInt = myInt + 10;
```

In the same way, the -= operator can be used to decrement the value of a variable. The following statement decrements the value of `myInt` by 10:

```
myInt -= 10;
```

The *, /, *=, and /= Operators

The * and / operators each take two values and reduce them to a single value, much the same as the + and - operators do. The following statement multiplies 3 and 5, leaving `myInt` with a value of 15:

```
myInt = 3 * 5;
```

The following statement divides 5 by 2 and, if `myInt` is declared as an `int` (or any other type designed to hold whole numbers), assigns the integral (truncated) result to `myInt`:

```
myInt = 5 / 2;
```

The number 5 divided by 2 is 2.5. Since `myInt` can hold only whole numbers, the value 2.5 is truncated, and the value 2 is assigned to `myInt`.

Important

Math alert! Numbers like `-37`, `0`, and `22`, are known as **whole numbers**, or **integers**. Numbers like `3.14159`, `2.5`, and `.0001` are known as **fractional**, or **floating-point numbers**.

The `*=` and `/=` operators work much the same as their `+=` and `-=` counterparts. The following two statements are identical:

```
myInt *= 10;
myInt = myInt * 10;
```

The following two statements are also identical:

```
myInt /= 10;
myInt = myInt / 10;
```

By the Way

The `/` operator doesn't perform its truncation automatically. The accuracy of the result is limited by the data type of the operands. As an example, if the division is performed using `ints`, the result will be an `int` and is truncated to an integer value.

Several data types (such as `float`, introduced in Chapter 8) support floating-point division, using the `/` operator.

Operator Order

Using Parentheses ()

Sometimes, the expressions you create can be evaluated in many ways. For example:

```
myInt = 5 + 3 * 2;
```

You can add $5 + 3$, then multiply the result by 2 (giving you 16). Alternatively, you can multiply $3 * 2$ and add 5 to the result (giving you 11). Which is correct?

C has a set of built-in rules for resolving the order of operators. As it turns out, the $*$ operator has a higher precedence than the $+$ operator, so the multiplication will be performed first, yielding a result of 11.

Although it helps to understand the relative precedence of the C operators, it is difficult to keep track of them all. That's why the C gods gave us parentheses! Use parentheses in pairs to define the order in which you want your operators performed. The following statement will leave `myInt` with a value of 16:

```
myInt = ( 5 + 3 ) * 2;
```

The following statement will leave `myInt` with a value of 11:

```
myInt = 5 + ( 3 * 2 );
```

You can use more than one set of parentheses in a statement, as long as they occur in pairs—one left parenthesis associated with each right parenthesis. The following statement will leave `myInt` with a value of 16:

```
myInt = ( ( 5 + 3 ) * 2 );
```

Resolving Operator Precedence

As mentioned previously, C has built-in rules for resolving operator precedence. If you have a question about which operator has a higher precedence, refer to the chart in Figure 5.7. Here's how the chart works.

Operators by Precedence	Order
->, ., ++postfix, --postfix	Left to Right
*pointer, &address of, +unary, -unary, !, ~, ++prefix, --prefix, sizeof	Right to Left
Typecast	Right to Left
*multiply, /, %	Left to Right
+binary, -binary	Left to Right
<<left-shift, >>right-shift	Left to Right
>, >=, <, <=,	Left to Right
==, !=	Left to Right
&bitwise-and	Left to Right
^	Left to Right
	Left to Right
&&	Left to Right
	Left to Right
?:	Right to Left
=, +=, -=, *=, /=, %=, >>=, <<=, &=, =, ^=	Right to Left
,	Left to Right

Figure 5.7 The relative precedence of C's built-in operators. The higher its position in the chart, the higher the operator's precedence.

The higher an operator is in the chart, the higher its precedence. For example, suppose that you are trying to predict the result of this line of code:

```
myInt = 5 * 3 + 7;
```

First, look up the operator `*` in the chart. Hmmm . . . `*` seems to be in the chart twice: once with label `pointer` and once with the label `multiply`. You can tell just by looking at this line of code that we want the `multiply` version. The compiler is pretty smart. Just like you, it can tell that this is the `multiply` version of `*`.

OK, now look up `+`. Yup, it's in there twice also: once as `unary` and once as `binary`. A unary `+` or `-` is the sign that appears before a

C Basics: Variables and Operators

Operator Order

number, as in +147 or -32768. In our line of code, the + operator has two operands, so clearly binary+ is the one we want.

Now that you've figured out which operator is which, you can see that the multiply* is higher up on the chart than the binary+ and thus has a higher precedence. This means that the * will get evaluated before the +, as if the expression were written as:

```
myInt = ( 5 * 3 ) + 7;
```

So far, so good. Now consider this line of code:

```
myInt = 27 * 6 % 5;
```

Both of these operators are on the fourth line in the chart. Which one gets evaluated first? If both operators under consideration are on the same line in the chart, the order of evaluation is determined by the entry in the chart's rightmost column. In this case, the operators are evaluated from left to right. In the current example, * will get evaluated before %, as if the line of code were written:

```
myInt = ( 27 * 6 ) % 5;
```

Now look at this line of code:

```
myInt = 27 % 6 * 5;
```

In this case, the % will get evaluated before the *, as if the line of code were written:

```
myInt = ( 27 % 6 ) * 5;
```

Of course, you can avoid this exercise altogether with a judicious sprinkling of parentheses. As you look through the chart, you'll definitely notice some operators that you haven't learned about yet. As

you read through the book and encounter new operators, check back on the chart to see where it fits in. In fact, go ahead and dogear the page (pay for the book first, though!) so you can find the chart again later.

Sample Programs

So far in this chapter, we've discussed variables (mostly of type `int`) and operators (mostly mathematical). The program examples on the following pages combine variables and operators into useful C statements. We'll also learn about a powerful part of the Standard Library, the `printf()` function.

Opening `operator.cwp`

Our next program, `operator.cwp`, provides a testing ground for some of the operators covered in the previous sections. `operator.c` declares a variable (`myInt`) and uses a series of statements to change the value of the variable. By including a `printf()` after each of these statements, `operator.c` makes it easy to follow the variable, step by step, as its value changes.

Start up CodeWarrior by double-clicking on the project file `operator.cwp` inside the `Learn C Projects` directory, in the subdirectory named `05.01 - operator`. The project window for `operator.cwp` should appear (Figure 5.8).

Run `operator.cwp` by selecting `Run` from the `Project` menu. CodeWarrior will first attempt to compile `operator.c`, turning it into an application named `operator`. If you haven't mucked around with the source code, things should proceed smoothly, resulting in a clean compile. Once the code compiles, CodeWarrior will run `operator`, displaying information in the console window. The information displayed by your program is also known as your program's output. Compare your output to that shown in Figure 5.9. They should be the same.

C Basics: Variables and Operators

Sample Programs

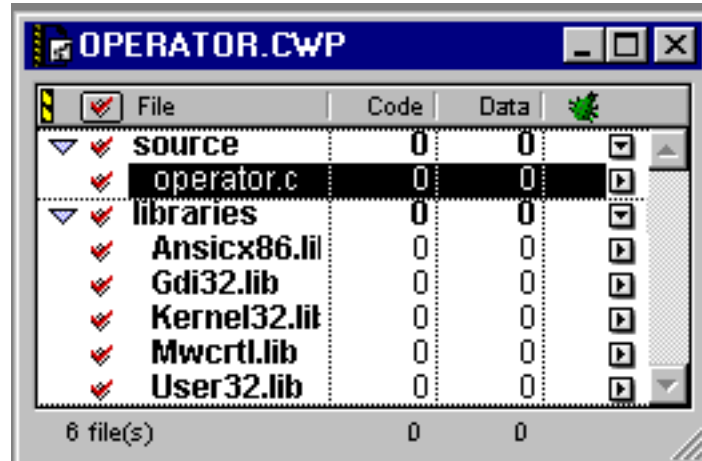


Figure 5.8 The operator.cwp project window.



Figure 5.9 The output generated by operator.

By the Way

In ancient times, programmers used character-based displays to communicate with their computers. These displays were called consoles. A typical console screen supported 24 rows of text, each up to 80 columns wide. When the computer wanted to communicate with you, it displayed some characters on your console. To respond to the computer, you'd type at your keyboard. The characters you typed would also appear on your console.

Programmers love character-based displays because they're simple. To display text on a window-based system (like Windows or the Macintosh), you have to worry about things like text font, size, and style. You have to worry about lining all your text up just right.

With a character-based display, you didn't worry about things like that. Typically, you just sent the text out to the display, one line at a time. When you reached the bottom of the screen, the console would scroll the text automatically. So easy!

Modern programming environments, such as CodeWarrior, offer you the best of both worlds. For example, CodeWarrior supports all the elements specific to Windows, such as pull-down menus, scroll bars, windows, and icons.

CodeWarrior also features a standard, scrolling console window. The console window is essentially a 24-line, 80-column display console embedded in a Windows window. Since many of the Standard Library routines, such as `printf()`, were designed with this simpler, character-based display in mind, we'll make extensive use of the console window as we learn C.

Stepping Through the Source Code

Before we step through the source code in `operator.c`, you might want to bring the source code up on your screen (double-click on the name `operator.c` in the project window, or select Open from the File menu). A new window will appear, listing the source code in the file `operator.c`.

C Basics: Variables and Operators

Sample Programs

The file `operator.c` starts off with a `#include` statement that gives us access to a bunch of Standard Library functions, including `printf()`:

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

Then, `main()` starts out by **defining** an `int` named `myInt`.

```
int main( void )
{
    int myInt;
```

By the Way

Note that earlier the term “declaring a variable” was used; now the term “defining” is being used. What’s the difference? A variable declaration is any statement that specifies a variable’s name and type—for example:

```
int myInt;
```

A variable definition is a declaration that causes memory to be allocated for the variable. Since the previous statement does cause memory to be allocated for `myInt`, it does qualify as a definition. Later in the book, you’ll see some declarations that don’t qualify as definitions. For now, just remember that a definition causes memory to be allocated.

At this point in the program (after `myInt` has been declared but before any value has been assigned to it), `myInt` is said to be **uninitialized**. In computerese, the term **initialization** refers to the process of establishing a variable’s value for the first time. A variable that has been declared but that has not had a value assigned to it is said to be uninitialized. You initialize a variable the first time you give it a value.

Since `myInt` was declared to be of type `int` and since CodeWarrior is currently set to use 4-byte `ints`, 4 bytes of memory were reserved for `myInt`. Since we haven’t placed a value in those 4 bytes yet, they

could contain any value at all. Some compilers place a value of 0 in a newly allocated variable; some do not. The key is, don't depend on a variable being preset to a specific value. If you want a variable to contain a specific value, assign the value to the variable yourself!

Important

Later in the book, you'll learn about global variables. Global variables are always given an initial value by the compiler. All the variables used in this chapter are local variables, not global variables. Local variables are not guaranteed to be initialized by the compiler.

The next line of code uses the `*` operator to assign a value of 6 to `myInt`. Following that, we use `printf()` to display the value of `myInt` in the console window:

```
myInt = 3 * 2;
printf( "myInt ---> %d\n", myInt );
```

The code between `printf()`'s left and right parentheses is known as a parameter list. The **parameters**, or **arguments**, in a parameter list are automatically provided to the function you are calling (in this case, `printf()`). The receiving function can use the parameters passed to it to determine its next course of action. We'll get into the specifics of parameter passing in Chapter 7. For the moment, let's talk about `printf()` and the parameters used by this Standard Library function.

The first parameter passed to `printf()` defines what will be drawn in the console window. The simplest call to `printf()` uses a quoted text string as its only parameter. A quoted text string consists of a pair of double-quote characters (") with zero or more characters between them. For example, this call of `printf()` will draw the characters `Hello!` in the console window:

```
printf( "Hello!" );
```

Notice that the double-quote characters are not part of the text string.

C Basics: Variables and Operators

Sample Programs

You can request that `printf()` draw a variable's value in the midst of the quoted string. In the case of an `int`, do this by embedding the two characters `%d` within the first parameter and by passing the `int` as a second parameter. Then, `printf()` will replace the `%d` with the value of the `int`.

In these two lines of code, we first set `myInt` to 6 and use `printf()` to print the value of `myInt` in the console window:

```
myInt = 3 * 2;
printf( "myInt ---> %d\n", myInt );
```

This code produces the following line of output in the console window:

```
myInt ---> 6
```

The two characters `"\n"` in the first parameter represent a carriage return and tell `printf()` to move the cursor to the beginning of the next line before it prints any more characters.

By the Way

The `%d` is known as a **format specifier**. The `d` in the format specifier tells `printf()` that you are printing an integer variable, such as an `int`. We'll cover format specifiers in detail in Chapter 8.

You can place any number of `%` specifications in the first parameter, as long as you follow the first parameter by the appropriate number of variables. Here's another example:

```
int    var1, var2;

var1 = 5;
var2 = 10;
printf( "var1 = %d\n\nvar2 = %d\n", var1, var2 );
```

The preceding code will draw the following text in the console window:

```
var1 = 5

var2 = 10
```

Notice the blank line between the two lines of output. It was caused by the “\n\n” in the first `printf()` parameter. The first carriage return placed the cursor at the beginning of the next console line (directly under the `v` in `var1`). The second carriage return moved the cursor down one more line, leaving a blank line in its path.

Let’s get back to our source code. The next line of `operator.c` increments `myInt` from 6 to 7 and prints the new value in the console window:

```
myInt += 1;
printf( "myInt ---> %d\n", myInt );
```

The next line decrements `myInt` by 5 and prints its new value, 2, in the console window:

```
myInt -= 5;
printf( "myInt ---> %d\n", myInt );
```

Next, `myInt` is multiplied by 10, and its new value, 20, is printed in the console window:

```
myInt *= 10;
printf( "myInt ---> %d\n", myInt );
```

Next, `myInt` is divided by 4, resulting in a new value, 5.

```
myInt /= 4;
printf( "myInt ---> %d\n", myInt );
```

C Basics: Variables and Operators

Sample Programs

Finally, `myInt` is divided by 2. Since 5 divided by 2 is 2.5 (not a whole number), a truncation is performed, and `myInt` is left with a value of 2:

```
myInt /= 2;
printf( "myInt ---> %d", myInt );

return 0;
}
```

Opening postfix.cwp

Our next program demonstrates the difference between postfix and prefix notation (the `++` and `--` operators defined earlier in the chapter). Using the Windows Explorer or My Computer, go into the `Learn C Projects` directory, then into the `05.02 - postfix` subdirectory, and double-click on the project file `postfix.cwp`. CodeWarrior will close the project file `operator.cwp` and open `postfix.cwp`.

Take a look at the source code in the file `postfix.c` and try to predict the result of the two `printf()` calls before you run the program. Remember, you can open a source code listing for `postfix.c` by double-clicking on the name `postfix.c` in the project window. Careful, this one's tricky.

Once your guesses are locked in, select `Run` from the `Project` menu. How'd you do? Compare your two guesses with the output in Figure 5.10. Let's look at the source code.



Figure 5.10 The output generated by the program `postfix`

Stepping Through the Source Code

The first half of `postfix.c` is pretty straightforward. The variable `myInt` is defined to be of type `int`. Then, `myInt` is assigned a value of 5. The tricky part comes next:

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

```
int main( void )  
{  
    int myInt;  
  
    myInt = 5;
```

The first call to `printf()` has a statement embedded in it. This is another great feature of the C language. Where there's room for a variable, there's room for an entire statement. Sometimes, it's convenient to perform two actions within the same line of code. For example:

C Basics: Variables and Operators

Sample Programs

```
printf( "myInt ---> %d\n", myInt = myInt * 3 );
```

This line of code first triples the value of `myInt`, then passes the result (the tripled value of `myInt`) on to `printf()`. The same could have been accomplished using two lines of code:

```
myInt = myInt * 3;
printf( "myInt ---> %d\n", myInt );
```

In general, when the compiler encounters an assignment statement where it expects a variable, it first completes the assignment, then passes on the result of the assignment as if it were a variable. Let's see this technique in action.

In `postfix.c`, our friend the postfix operator emerges again. Just prior to the two calls of `printf()`, `myInt` has a value of 5. The first `printf()` increments the value of `myInt` using postfix notation:

```
printf( "myInt ---> %d\n", myInt++ );
```

The use of postfix notation means that the value of `myInt` will be passed on to `printf()` before `myInt` is incremented. This means that the first `printf()` will accord `myInt` a value of 5. However, when the statement is finished, `myInt` will have a value of 6.

The second `printf()` acts in a more rational (and preferable) manner. The prefix notation guarantees that `myInt` will be incremented (from 6 to 7) before its value is passed on to `printf()`:

```
printf( "myInt ---> %d", ++myInt );

return 0;
}
```

By the Way

Can you break each of these `printf()` statements into two separate ones? Give it a try, then read on . . .

The first `printf()` looks like this:

```
printf( "myInt ---> %d\n", myInt++ );
```

Here's the two-statement version:

```
printf( "myInt ---> %d\n", myInt );  
myInt++;
```

Notice that the statement incrementing `myInt` was placed after the `printf()`. Do you see why? The postfix notation makes this necessary. Run through both versions and verify this for yourself.

The second `printf()` looks like this:

```
printf( "myInt ---> %d", ++myInt );
```

Here's the two-statement version:

```
++myInt;  
  
printf( "myInt ---> %d\n", myInt );
```

This time, the statement incrementing `myInt` came before the `printf()`. This time, it's the prefix notation that makes this necessary. Again, go through both versions and verify this for yourself.

The purpose of demonstrating the complexity of the postfix and prefix operators is twofold. On one hand, it's extremely important that you understand exactly how these operators work from all angles. This will allow you to write code that works and will aid you in making sense of other programmers' code. On the other hand, embedding prefix and postfix operators within function parameters may save you lines of code but, as you can see, may prove a bit confusing.

Opening slasher.cwp

The last program in Chapter 5, `slasher.cwp`, demonstrates several backslash combinations. Using the Windows Explorer or My Computer, open the `Learn C Projects` directory; then open the `05.03 - slashersubdirectory` and double-click on the project file `slasher.cwp`. When CodeWarrior opens the `slasher.cwp` project window, run `slasher.cwp` by selecting `Run` from the `Project` menu. You should see something like the console window shown in Figure 5.11.



```
slasher
1111000000
0011
Here's a backslash...\...for you.
Here's a double quote..."...for you.
Here are a few tabs...           ...for you.
Here are a few beeps.....for you.
```

Figure 5.11 The output from `slasher.cwp`.

Stepping Through the Source Code

`slasher.c` consists of a series of `printf()` calls, each of which demonstrates a different backslash combination. The first `printf()` prints a series of 10 zeros, followed by the characters `\r` (also known as the **backslash combination** `\r`):

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

```
int main( void )
{
    printf( "0000000000\r" );
```

The `\r` backslash combination generates a carriage return without a line feed, leaving the cursor at the beginning of the current line (unlike `\n`, which leaves the cursor at the beginning of the next line down).

The next `printf()` prints five 1s over the first five 0s, as if someone had printed the text string "1111100000". The `\n` at the end of this `printf()` moves the cursor to the beginning of the next line in the console window:

```
    printf( "11111\n" );
```

The next `printf()` demonstrates `\b`, the backspace backslash combination, which tells `printf()` to back up one character so that the next character printed replaces the last character printed. This `printf()` sends out four 0s, backspaces over the last two, then prints two 1s. The result is as if you had printed the string "0011":

```
    printf( "0000\b\b11\n" );
```

The `\` can also be used to cancel a character's special meaning within a quoted string. For example, the backslash combination `\\` generates a single `\` character. The difference is, this `\` loses its special backslash powers. It doesn't affect the character immediately following it.

The backslash combination `\"` generates a `"` character, taking away the special meaning of the `"`. Without the `\` before it, the `"` character would mark the end of the quoted string. The `\` allows you to include a `"` inside a quoted string.

The backslash combinations `\\` and `\"` are demonstrated in the next two `printf()` calls:

```
    printf( "Here's a backslash...\\...for you.\n" );
```

C Basics: Variables and Operators

Sprucing Up Your Code

```
printf( "Here's a double quote...\\"...for  
        you.\n" );
```

The `\t` combination generates a single tab character. The console window has a tab stop every eight spaces. Here's a `printf()` example:

```
printf( "Here are a few tabs...\t\t\t\t...for  
        you.\n" );
```

The `\a` backslash combination provides a simple way to make your PC beep.

```
printf( "Here are a few beeps...\a\a\a\a...for  
        you." );  
  
return 0;  
}
```

Those are all the sample programs for this chapter. Before we move on, however, I'd like to talk to you about something personal. It's about your coding habits.

Sprucing Up Your Code

You are now in the middle of your C learning curve. You've learned about variables, types, functions, and bytes. You've learned about an important part of the Standard Library, the function `printf()`. It's at this point in the learning process that programmers start developing their coding habits.

Coding habits are the little things programmers do that make their code a little bit different (and hopefully better!) than anyone else's. Before you get too set in your ways, here are a few coding habits you can, and should, add to your arsenal.

Source Code Spacing

You may have noticed the tabs, spaces, and blank lines scattered throughout the sample programs. These are known in C as **white space**. With a few exceptions, white space is ignored by C compilers. Believe it or not, as far as the C compiler goes, the following two programs are equivalent:

```
main()  
{  
    int myInt;myInt  
  
    =  
    5  
    ;  
    printf("myInt=",myInt);}
```

```
main()  
{  
    int myInt;  
  
    myInt = 5;  
    printf("myInt =", myInt );  
}
```

The C compiler doesn't care whether you put 5 statements per line or whether you put 20 carriage returns between your statements and your semicolons. One thing the compiler won't let you do is place white space in the middle of a word, such as a variable or a function name. For example, the following line of code won't compile:

```
my  Int = 5;
```

C Basics: Variables and Operators

Sprucing Up Your Code

Instead of a single variable named `myInt`, the compiler sees two items: one named `my` and the other named `Int`. White space can confuse the compiler.

Too little white space can also confuse the compiler. For example, this line of code won't compile:

```
intmyInt;
```

The compiler needs at least one piece of white space to tell where the type ends and where the variable begins. On the other hand, as you've already seen, this line compiles just fine:

```
myInt=5;
```

Since a variable name can't contain the character `=`, the compiler has no problem telling where the variable ends and where the operator begins.

As long as your code compiles properly, you're free to develop your own style for using white space. Here are a few hints:

- Place a blank line between your variable declarations and the rest of your function's code. Also, use blank lines to group related lines of code.
- Sprinkle single spaces throughout a statement. Here is a line without spaces:

```
printf("myInt=",myInt);
```

Compare that line with this line:

```
printf( "myInt =", myInt );
```

The spaces make the second line easier to read.

- When in doubt, use parentheses. Compare these two lines:

```
myInt=var1+2*var2+4;
myInt = var1 + ( 2 * var2) + 4;
```

What a difference parentheses and spaces make!

- Always start variable names with a lowercase letter, using an uppercase letter at the start of each subsequent word in the name. This yields variable names such as `myVar`, `areWeDone`, and `employeeName`
- Always start function names with an uppercase letter, using an uppercase letter at the start of each subsequent word in the name. This yields function names such as `DoSomeWork()`, `HoldThese()`, and `DealTheCards()`.

These hints are merely suggestions. Use standards that make sense for you and the people with whom you work. The object here is to make your code as readable as possible.

Comment Your Code

One of the most critical elements in the creation of a computer program is clear and comprehensive documentation. When you deliver your award-winning graphics package to your customers, you'll want to have two sets of documentation. One set is for your customers, who'll need a clear set of instructions to guide them through your wonderful new creation.

The other set of documentation consists of the comments you'll weave throughout your code. Comments in source code act as a sort of narrative, guiding a reader through your source code. You'll include comments that describe how your code works, what makes it special, and what to look out for when changing it. Well-commented code includes a comment at the beginning of each function to describe the function, the function parameters, and the function's variables. It's also a good idea to sprinkle individual comments among your source code statements, explaining the role each line plays in your program's algorithm. How do you add a comment to your source code? Take a look . . .

C Basics: Variables and Operators

Sprucing Up Your Code

All C compilers recognize the sequence `/*` as the start of a comment and will ignore all characters until they reach the sequence `*/` (the end of comment characters). Here's some commented code:

```
int main( void )
{
    int numPieces; /* Number of pieces of pie left */

    numPieces = 8; /* We started with 8 pieces */

    numPieces--; /* Marge had a piece */
    numPieces--; /* Lisa had a piece */
    numPieces -= 2; /* Bart had two pieces!! */
    numPieces -= 4; /* Homer had the rest!!! */

    printf( "Slices left = %d", numPieces );
                                /* How about some */
                                /* cake instead? */

    return 0;
}
```

Notice that although most of the comments fit on the same line, the last comment was split among two lines. The preceding code will compile just fine.

Important

Most modern C compilers will also accept the C++ commenting convention. C++ ignores the remainder of a line of code, once it encounters the characters `//`. For example, this line of code combines both comment styles:

```
printf( "Comments" /* C comment */ );
        // C++ comment!!!
```

Use the C++ comment mechanism only if you are sure you won't

be porting your code to a C compiler that doesn't understand the C++ mechanism.

Since all the programs in this book are examined in detail, line by line, the comments were left out. This was done to make the examples as simple as possible. In this instance, do as we say, not as we do. Comment your code. No excuses!

What's Next?

This chapter introduced the concepts of variables and operators, tied together in C statements, separated by semicolons. We looked at several examples, each of which made heavy use of the Standard Library function `printf()`. We learned about the console window, quoted strings, and backslash combinations.

Chapter 6 will increase our programming options significantly, introducing C control structures, such as the `for` loop and the `if ... then ... else` statement. Get ready to expand your C programming horizons. See you in Chapter 6.

Exercises

1. Find the error in each of the following code fragments:

- a. `printf(Hello, world);`
- b. `int myInt myOtherInt;`
- c. `myInt =+ 3;`
- d. `printf("myInt = %d");`
- e. `printf("myInt = ", myInt);`
- f. `printf("myInt = %d\\", myInt);`
- g. `myInt + 3 = myInt;`
- h. `int main(void)`
`{`
`int myInt;`

C Basics: Variables and Operators

Exercises

```
    myInt = 3;
    int  anotherInt;

    anotherInt = myInt;

    return 0;
}
```

2. Compute the value of `myInt` after each code fragment is executed:
 - a.

```
myInt = 5;
myInt *= (3+4) * 2;
```
 - b.

```
myInt = 2;
myInt *= ( (3*4) / 2 ) - 9;
```
 - c.

```
myInt = 2;
myInt /= 5;
myInt--;
```
 - d.

```
myInt = 25;
myInt /= 3 * 2;
```
 - e.

```
myInt = (3*4*5) / 9;
myInt -= (3+4) * 2;
```
 - f.

```
myInt = 5;
printf( "myInt = %d", myInt = 2 );
```
 - g.

```
myInt = 5;
myInt = (3+4) * 2;
```
 - h.

```
myInt = 1;
myInt /= (3+4) / 6;
```



Controlling Your Program's Flow

So far, you've learned quite a bit about the C language. You know about functions (especially one named `main()`). You know that functions are made up of statements, each of which is terminated by a semicolon. You know about variables, which have a name and a type. Up to this point, you've dealt with variables of type `int`.

You also know about operators, such as `=`, `+`, and `+=`. You've learned about postfix and prefix notation and the importance of writing clear, easy-to-understand code. You've learned about an important programming tool, the console window. You've learned about the Standard Library, a set of functions supplied as standard equipment with every C programming environment. You've also learned about `printf()`, an invaluable component of the Standard Library.

Finally, you've learned a few housekeeping techniques to keep your code fresh, sparkling, and readable. Comment your code, because your memory isn't perfect, and insert some white space to keep your code from getting too cramped.

Flow Control

One thing you haven't learned about the C language is flow control. The programs we've written so far have all consisted of a straightforward series of statements, one right after the other. Every statement is executed in the order it occurred.

Flow control is the ability to define the order in which your program's statements are executed. The C language provides several keywords you can use in your program to control your program's flow. One of these is the keyword `if`.

The `if` Statement

The keyword `if` allows you to choose among several options in your program. In English, you might say something like this:

If it's raining outside I'll bring my umbrella; otherwise I won't.

In the previous sentence, you're using "if" to choose between two options. Depending on the weather, you'll do one of two things. You'll bring your umbrella or you won't bring your umbrella. C's `if` statement gives you this same flexibility. Here's an example:

```
int main( void )
{
    int myInt;

    myInt = 5;

    if ( myInt == 0 )
        printf( "myInt is equal to zero." );
    else
        printf( "myInt is not equal to zero." );

    return 0;
}
```

This program declares `myInt` to be of type `int` and sets the value of `myInt` to 5. Next, we use the `if` statement to test whether `myInt` is equal to 0. If `myInt` is equal to 0 (which we know is not true), we'll print one string. Otherwise, we'll print a different string. As expected, this program prints the string "myInt is not equal to zero".

An `if` statement can come in two ways. The first, known as plain old `if`, fits this pattern:

```
if ( expression )
    statement
```

An `if` statement will always consist of the word `if`, a left parenthesis, an expression, a right parenthesis, and a statement. (We'll define both "expression" and "statement" in a minute.) This first form of `if` executes the statement if the expression in parentheses is true. An English example of the plain `if` might be:

```
If it's raining outside, I'll bring my umbrella.
```

Notice that this statement tells us what will happen only if it's raining outside. No particular action will be taken if it is not raining.

The second form of `if`, known as `if-else`, fits this pattern:

```
if ( expression )
    statement
else
    statement
```

An `if-else` statement will always consist of the word `if`, a left parenthesis, an expression, a right parenthesis, a statement, the word `else`, and a second statement. This form of `if` executes the first statement if the expression is true and executes the second statement if the expression is false. An English example of an `if-else` statement might be:

```
If it's raining outside, I'll bring my umbrella,
otherwise I won't.
```

Notice that this example tells us what will happen if it is raining outside (I'll bring my umbrella) and if it isn't raining outside (I won't bring my umbrella). The example programs presented later in the chapter demonstrate the proper use of both `if` and `if-else`.

Our next step is to define our terms.

Expressions

In C, an **expression** is anything that has a value. For example, a variable is a type of expression, since a variable always has a value. (Even an uninitialized variable has a value—we just don't know what the value is!) The following are all examples of expressions:

- `myInt + 3`
- `(myInt + anotherInt) * 4`
- `myInt++`

An assignment statement is also an expression. Can you guess the value of an assignment statement? Think back to Chapter 5. Remember when we included an assignment statement as a parameter to `printf()`? The value of an assignment statement is the value of its left side. Check out the following code fragment:

```
myInt = 5;  
myInt += 3;
```

Both of these statements qualify as expressions. The value of the first expression is 5. The value of the second expression is 8 (because we added 3 to `myInt`'s previous value).

Literals can also be used as expressions. The number 8 has a value. Guess what? Its value is 8. All expressions, no matter what their type, have a numerical value.

By the Way

Technically, there is an exception to this rule. The expression `(void)0` has no value. In fact, any value or variable cast to type `void` has no value. Ummm, but, Dave, what's a cast? What is type `void`? We'll get to both of these topics later in the book. For the moment, when you see `void`, think "no value."

True Expressions

Earlier, we defined the `if` statement as follows:

```
if ( expression )  
    statement
```

We then said that the statement gets executed if the expression is true. Let's look at C's concept of truth.

Everyone has an intuitive understanding of the difference between true and false. I think we'd all agree that the statement is false:

```
5 equals 3
```

We'd also agree that the following statement is true:

```
5 and 3 are both greater than 0
```

This intuitive grasp of true and false carries over into the C language. In the case of C, however, both true and false have numerical values. Here's how it works.

In C, any expression that has a value of 0 is said to be false. Any expression with a value other than 0 is said to be true. As stated earlier, an `if` statement's statement gets executed if its expression is true. To put this more accurately:

An `if` statement's statement gets executed if (and only if) its expression has a value other than 0.

Here's an example:

```
myInt = 27;  
  
if ( myInt )  
    printf( "myInt is not equal to 0" );
```

The `if` statement in this piece of code first tests the value of `myInt`. Since `myInt` is not equal to 0, the `printf()` gets executed.

Comparative Operators

C expressions have a special set of operators, called **comparative operators**. Comparative operators compare their left sides with their right sides and produce a value of either 1 or 0, depending on the relationship of the two sides.

For example, the operator `==` determines whether the expression on the left is equal in value to the expression on the right. In the following expression, `myInt` evaluates to 1 if `myInt` is equal to 5 and to 0 if `myInt` is not equal to 5:

```
myInt == 5
```

Here's an example of the `==` operator at work:

```
if ( myInt == 5 )  
    printf( "myInt is equal to 5" );
```

If `myInt` is equal to 5, the expression `myInt == 5` evaluates to 1 and `printf()` gets called. If `myInt` isn't equal to 5, the expression evaluates to 0 and the `printf()` is skipped. Just remember, the key to triggering an `if` statement is an expression that resolves to a value other than 0.

Figure 6.1 shows some of the other comparative operators. You'll see some of these operators in the example programs later in the chapter.

Operator	Resolves to 1 if...
<code>==</code>	left side is equal to right
<code><=</code>	left side is less than or equal to right
<code>>=</code>	left side is greater than or equal to right
<code><</code>	left side is less than right
<code>></code>	left side is greater than right
<code>!=</code>	left side is not equal to right

Figure 6.1 Some comparative operators.

Logical Operators

Our next set of operators, collectively known as **logical operators**, are modeled on the mathematical concept of truth tables, and make use of `true` and `false`. If you don't know much about truth tables (or are just frightened by mathematics in general), don't panic. Everything you need to know is outlined in the next few paragraphs.

By the Way

To make your programs a little easier to read, you can define the constants `true` and `false`. The constant `true` has a value of 1, and the constant `false` has a value of 0. You define `true` and `false` like this:

```
#define true 1
#define false 0
```

The first of the set of logical operators is the `!` operator. The `!` operator turns `true` into `false` and `false` into `true`. Figure 6.2 shows the truth table for the `!` operator. In this table, T stands for `true` and F stands for `false`. The letter A in the table represents an expression. If the expression A is `true`, applying the `!` operator to A yields the value `false`. If the expression A is `false`, applying the `!` operator to A yields the value `true`. The `!` operator is commonly referred to as the NOT operator; `!A` is pronounced Not A.

A	!A
T	F
F	T

Figure 6.2 The truth table for the `!` operator.

Here's a piece of code that demonstrates the `!` operator:

```
int myFirstInt, mySecondInt;
```


Controlling Your Program's Flow

Expressions

```
myFirstInt = false;
mySecondInt = ! myFirstInt;
```

First, we declare two ints. We assign the value `false` to the first int, then use the `!` operator to turn the `false` into a `true` and assign it to the second int. This is really important. Take another look at Figure 6.2. The `!` operator converts `true` into `false` and `false` into `true`. What this really means is that `!` converts 1 to 0 and 0 to 1. This really comes in handy when you are working with an `if` statement's expression, like this one:

```
if ( mySecondInt )
    printf( "mySecondInt must be true" );
```

The previous chunk of code translated `mySecondInt` from `false` to `true`, which is the same thing as saying that `mySecondInt` has a value of 1. Either way, `mySecondInt` will cause the `if` to fire, and the `printf()` will get executed.

Take a look at this piece of code:

```
if ( ! mySecondInt )
    printf( "mySecondInt must be false" );
```

This `printf()` will get executed if `mySecondInt` is `false`. Do you see why? If `mySecondInt` is `false`, then `! mySecondInt` must be `true`.

The `!` operator is a **unary** operator. Unary operators operate on a single expression (the expression to the right of the operator). The other two logical operators, `&&` and `||`, are binary operators. Binary operators, such as the `==` operator presented earlier, operate on two expressions, one on the left side and one on the right side of the operator.

The `&&` operator is commonly referred to as the **and** operator. The result of an `&&` operation is `true` if, and only if, both the left side and the right side are `true`. Here's an example:

```
int hasCar, hasTimeToGiveRide;

hasCar = true;
hasTimeToGiveRide = true;

if ( hasCar && hasTimeToGiveRide )
    printf( "Hop in - I'll give you a ride!\n" );
else
    printf( "I've either got no car, no time, or
           neither!\n" );
```

This example uses two variables. One indicates whether the program has a car, the other whether the program has time to give us a ride to the mall. All philosophical issues aside (Can a program have a car?), the question of the moment is, Which `printf()` will fire? Since both sides of the `&&` were set to `true`, the first `printf()` will be called. If either one (or both) of the variables were set to `false`, the second `printf()` would be called. Another way to think of this is that we'll get a ride to the mall only if our friendly program has a car *and* has time to give us a ride. If either of these is not true, we're not getting a ride. By the way, notice the use here of the second form of `if`: the `if-else` statement.

The `||` operator is commonly referred to as the `or` operator. The result of a `||` operation is `true` if either the left side or the right side, or both sides, of the `||` are `true`. Put another way, the result of a `||` is `false` if, and only if, both the left side and the right side of the `||` are `false`. Here's an example:

```
int nothingElseOn, newEpisode;

nothingElseOn = true;
newEpisode = true;

if ( newEpisode || nothingElseOn )
    printf( "Let's watch Star Trek!\n" );
else
```

Controlling Your Program's Flow

Expressions

```
printf( "Something else is on or I've seen this
       one.\n" );
```

This example uses two variables to decide whether we should watch "Star Trek" (your choice: TOS, TNG, DS9, or VOY). One variable indicates whether anything else is on right now, and the other tells you whether this episode is a rerun. If this is a brand new episode *or* if nothing else is on, we'll watch "Star Trek."

Here's a slight twist on the previous example:

```
int nothingElseOn, itsARerun;

nothingElseOn = true;
itsARerun = false;

if ( (! itsARerun) || nothingElseOn )
    printf( "Let's watch Star Trek!\n" );
else
    printf( "Something else is on or I've seen this
          one.\n" );
```

This time, we've replaced the variable `newEpisode` with its exact opposite, `itsARerun`. Look at the logic that drives the `if` statement. We're combining `itsARerun` with the `!` operator. Before, we cared whether the episode was a `newEpisode`. This time, we are concerned that the episode is not a rerun. See the difference?

Both the `&&` and the `||` operators are summarized in the table in Figure 6.3. If you look in the directory `Learn C Projects`, you'll find a subdirectory named `06.01 - truthTester`. The file `truthTester.c` contains the three examples we just went through. Take some time to play with the code. Take turns changing the variables from `true` to `false` and back again. Use this code to get a good feel for the `!`, `&&`, and `||` operators.

A	B	A && B	A B
T	T	T	T
T	F	F	T
F	T	F	T
F	F	F	F

Figure 6.3 Truth table for the && and || operators.

By the Way

On most keyboards, you type the character & by holding down the shift key and typing a 7. You type the character | by holding down the shift key and typing a \ (backslash). Don't confuse the | with the letters l or i or with the ! character.

Compound Expressions

All of the examples presented so far have consisted of relatively simple expressions. Here's an example that combines several operators:

```
int myInt;

myInt = 7;

if ( (myInt >= 1) && (myInt <= 10) )
    printf( "myInt is between 1 and 10" );
else
    printf( "myInt is not between 1 and 10" );
```

This example tests whether a variable is in the range between 1 and 10. The key here is the expression:

```
(myInt >= 1) && (myInt <= 10)
```

Controlling Your Program's Flow

Expressions

This expression lies between the `if` statement's parentheses and uses the `&&` operator to combine two smaller expressions. Notice that the two smaller expressions are each surrounded by parentheses to avoid any ambiguity. If we left out the parentheses, the expression might not be interpreted as we intended:

```
myInt >= 1 && myInt <= 10
```

Once again, use parentheses for safe computing.

Statements

At the beginning of the chapter, we defined the `if` statement as:

```
if ( expression )
    statement
```

We've covered expressions pretty thoroughly. Now, we'll turn our attention to the statement.

At this point in the book, you probably have a pretty good intuitive model of the statement. You'd probably agree that this is a statement:

```
myInt = 7;
```

But is this one statement or two?

```
if ( isCold )
    printf( "Put on your sweater!" );
```

The previous code fragment is a statement within another statement. The `printf()` resides within a larger statement, the `if` statement.

The ability to break your code out into individual statements is not a critical skill. Getting your code to compile, however, *is* critical. As we introduce new types of statements, pay attention to the statement syntax. And pay special attention to the examples. Where do the semicolons go? What distinguishes this type of statement from all other types?

As you build up your repertoire of statement types, you'll find yourself using one type of statement within another. That's perfectly acceptable in C. In fact, every time you create an `if` statement, you'll use at least two statements, one within the other. Take a look at this example:

```
if ( myVar >= 1 )
    if ( myVar <= 10 )
        printf( "myVar is between 1 and 10" );
```

This example uses an `if` statement as the statement for another `if` statement. This example calls the `printf()` if both `if` expressions are `true`, that is, if `myVar` is greater than or equal to 1 and less than or equal to 10. You could have accomplished the same result with this piece of code:

```
if ( ( myVar >= 1 ) && ( myVar <= 10 ) )
    printf( "myVar is between 1 and 10" );
```

The second piece of code is a little easier to read. There are times, however, when the method demonstrated in the first piece of code is preferred. Take a look at this example:

```
if ( myVar != 0 )
    if ( ( 1 / myVar ) < 1 )
        printf( "myVar is in range" );
```

One thing you don't want to do in C is divide a number by 0. Any number divided by 0 is infinity, and infinity is a foreign concept to the C language. If your program ever tries to divide a number by 0,

Controlling Your Program's Flow

Expressions

your program is likely to crash. The first expression in this example tests to make sure that `myVar` is not equal to 0. If `myVar` is equal to 0, the second expression won't even be evaluated! The sole purpose of the first `if` is to make sure that the second `if` never tries to divide by 0. Make sure that you understand this point. Imagine what would happen if we wrote the code this way:

```
if ( (myVar != 0) && ((1 / myVar) < 1) )
    printf( "myVar is in range" );
```

As it turns out, if the left half of the `&&` operator evaluates to `false`, the right half of the expression will never be evaluated, and the entire expression will evaluate to `false`. Why? Because if the left operand is `false`, it doesn't matter what the right operand is; `true` or `false`, the expression will evaluate to `false`. Be aware of this as you construct your expressions.

The Curly Braces

Earlier in the book, you learned about the curly braces (`{ }`) that surround the body of every function. These braces also play an important role in statement construction. Just as parentheses can be used to group terms of an expression together, curly braces can be used to group multiple statements together. Here's an example:

```
onYourBack = TRUE;

if ( onYourBack )
{
    printf( "Flipping over" );
    onYourBack = FALSE;
}
```

In the example, if `onYourBack` is `true`, both of the statements in curly braces will be executed. A pair of curly braces can be used to combine any number of statements into a single superstatement, also known as a **block**. You can use this technique anywhere a statement is called for.

Curly braces can be used to organize your code, much as you'd use parentheses to ensure that an expression is evaluated properly. This concept is especially appropriate when dealing with nested statements. Consider this code, for example:

```
if ( myInt >= 0 )
    if ( myInt <= 10 )
        printf( "myInt is between 0 and 10.\n" );
else
    printf( "myInt is negative.\n" ); /* <---
                                        Error!!! */
```

Do you see the problem with this code? Which `if` does the `else` belong to? As written (and as formatted), the `else` looks as though it belongs to the first `if`. That is, if `myInt` is greater than or equal to 0, the second `if` is executed; otherwise, the second `printf()` is executed. Is this right?

Nope. As it turns out, an `else` belongs to the `if` closest to it (the second `if`, in this case). Here's a slight rewrite:

```
if ( myInt >= 0 )
    if ( myInt <= 10 )
        printf( "myInt is between 0 and 10.\n" );
    else
        printf( "myInt is not between 0 and 10.\n" );
```

One point here is that formatting is nice, but it won't fool the compiler. More important, this example shows how easy it is to make a mistake. Check out this version of the code:

```
if ( myInt >= 0 )
{
    if ( myInt <= 10 )
        printf( "myInt is between 0 and 10.\n" );
}
else
```


Controlling Your Program's Flow

Expressions

```
printf( "myInt is negative.\n" );
```

Do you see how the curly braces help? In a sense, they act to hide the second `if` inside the first `if` statement. There is no chance for the `else` to connect to the hidden `if`.

No one I know ever got fired for using too many parentheses or too many curly braces.

Where to Place the Semicolon

So far, the statements we've seen fall into two categories. Function calls, such as calls to `printf()`, and assignment statements are called **simple statements**. Always place a semicolon at the end of a simple statement, even if it is broken over several lines, like this:

```
printf( "%d%d%d%d", var1,
        var2,
        var3,
        var4 );
```

Statements made up of several parts—including, possibly, other statements—are called **compound statements**. Compound statements obey some pretty strict rules of syntax. The `if` statement, for example, always looks like this:

```
if ( expression )
    statement
```

Notice there are no semicolons in this definition. The statement part of the `if` can be a simple statement or a compound statement. If the statement is simple, follow the semicolon rules for simple statements by placing a semicolon at the end of the statement. If the statement is compound, follow the semicolon rules for that particular type of statement.

Notice that using “curlies” to build a superstatement, or block, out of smaller statements does not require the addition of a semicolon.

The Loneliest Statement

Guess what? A single semicolon qualifies as a statement, albeit a somewhat lonely one. For example:

```
if ( bored )  
    ;
```

This code fragment is a legitimate (and thoroughly useless) `if` statement. If `bored` is `true`, the semicolon statement gets executed. The semicolon by itself doesn't do anything but fill the bill where a statement was needed. There are times where the semicolon by itself is exactly what you need.

The `while` Statement

The `if` statement uses the value of an expression to decide whether to execute or to skip over a statement. If the statement is executed, it is executed just once. Another type of statement, the `while` statement, repeatedly executes a statement as long as a specified expression is `true`. The `while` statement follows this pattern:

```
while ( expression )  
    statement
```

The `while` statement is also known as the `while loop`, because once the statement is executed, the `while` loops back to reevaluate the expression. Here's an example of the `while` loop in action:

```
int i;  
  
i=0;  
  
while ( ++i < 3 )  
    printf( "Looping: %d\n", i );  
  
printf( "We are past the while loop." );
```

Controlling Your Program's Flow

Expressions

This example starts by declaring a variable, `i`, to be of type `int`; `i` is then initialized to 0. Next comes the `while` loop. The first thing the `while` loop does is evaluate its expression. The `while` loop's expression is:

```
++i < 3
```

Before this expression is evaluated, `i` has a value of 0. The prefix notation used in the expression (`++i`) increments the value of `i` to 1 before the remainder of the expression is evaluated. The evaluation of the expression results in `true`, since 1 is less than 3. Since the expression is `true`, the `while` loop's statement, a single `printf()`, is executed. Here's the output after the first pass through the loop:

```
Looping: 1
```

Next, the `while` loops back and reevaluates its expression. Once again, the prefix notation increments `i`, this time to a value of 2. Since 2 is less than 3, the expression evaluates to `true`, and the `printf()` is executed again. Here's the output after the second pass through the loop:

```
Looping: 1  
Looping: 2
```

Once the second `printf()` completes, it's back to the top of the loop to reevaluate the expression. Will this never end? Once again, `i` is incremented, this time to a value of 3. Aha! This time, the expression evaluates to `false`, since 3 is not less than 3. Once the expression evaluates to `false`, the `while` loop ends. Control passes to the next statement, the second `printf()` in our example:

```
printf( "We are past the while loop." );
```

The `while` loop was driven by three factors: initialization, modification, and termination. Initialization is any code that affects the loop

but occurs before the loop is entered. In our example, the critical initialization occurred when the variable `i` was set to 0.

By the Way

In a loop, you'll frequently use a variable that changes value each time through the loop. In our example, the variable `i` was incremented by 1 each time through the loop. The first time through the loop, `i` had a value of 1. The second time, `i` had a value of 2. Variables that maintain a value based on the number of times through a loop are known as **counters**.

Traditionally, programmers have given counter variables simple names, such as `i`, `j`, or `k` (it's an old FORTRAN convention). In the interest of clarity, some programmers use such names as `counter` or `loopCounter`. The nice thing about names like `i`, `j`, and `k` is that they don't get in the way; they don't take up a lot of space on the line. On the other hand, your goal should be to make your code as readable as possible, so it would seem that a name like `counter` would be better than the uninformative `i`, `j`, or `k`.

Once again, pick a style you are comfortable with and stick with it!

Within the loop, modification is any code that changes the value of the loop's expression. In our example, the modification occurred within the expression itself when the counter, `i`, was incremented.

Termination is any condition that causes the loop to end. In our example, termination occurs when the expression has a value of `false`. This occurs when the counter, `i`, has a value that is not less than 3. Take a look at this example:

```
int i;

i=1;

while ( i < 3 )
{
    printf( "Looping: %d\n", i );
```

Controlling Your Program's Flow

Expressions

```
        i++;
    }

    printf( "We are past the while loop." );
```

This example produces the same results as the previous example. This time, however, the initialization and modification conditions have changed slightly. In this example, `i` starts with a value of 1 instead of 0. In the previous example, the `++` operator was used to increment `i` at the very *top of the loop*. This example modifies `i` at the *bottom of the loop*.

Both of these examples show different ways to accomplish the same end. The phrase "There's more than one way to eat an Oreo" sums up the situation perfectly. There will always be more than one solution to any programming problem. Don't be afraid to do things your own way. Just make sure that your code works properly and is easy to read.

The for Statement

Nestled inside the C toolbox, right next to the `while` statement, is the `for` statement. The `for` statement is similar to the `while` statement, following the basic model of initialization, modification, and termination. Here's the pattern for a `for` statement:

```
for ( expression1 ; expression2 ; expression3 )
    statement
```

The first expression represents the `for` statement's initialization. Typically, this expression consists of an assignment statement, setting the initial value of a counter variable. This first expression is evaluated once, at the beginning of the loop.

The second expression is identical in function to the expression in a `while` statement, providing the termination condition for the loop. This expression is evaluated each time through the loop, before the statement is executed.

Finally, the third expression provides the modification portion of the `for` statement. This expression is evaluated at the bottom of the loop, immediately following execution of the statement.

Important

All three of these expressions are optional and may be left out entirely. For example, here's a `for` loop that leaves out all three expressions:

```
for ( ; ; )
    DoSomethingForever();
```

Since this loop has no terminating expression, it is known as an **infinite loop**. Infinite loops are generally considered bad form and should be avoided like the plague!

The `for` loop can also be described in terms of a `while` loop:

```
expression1;
while ( expression2 )
{
    statement
    expression3;
}
```

By the Way

Since you can always rewrite a `for` loop as a `while` loop, why introduce the `for` loop at all? Sometimes, a programming idea fits more naturally into the pattern of a `for` statement. If the `for` loop makes the code more readable, why not use it? As you write more and more code, you'll develop a sense for when to use the `while` and when to use the `for`.

Here's an example of a `for` loop:

```
int i;
```

Controlling Your Program's Flow

Expressions

```
for ( i = 1; i < 3; i++ )
    printf( "Looping: %d\n", i );

printf( "We are past the for loop." );
```

This example is identical in functionality to the `while` loops presented earlier. Note the three expressions on the first line of the `for` loop. Before the loop is entered, the first expression is evaluated (remember, assignment statements make great expressions):

```
i = 1
```

Once the expression is evaluated, `i` has a value of 1. We are now ready to enter the loop. At the top of each pass through the loop, the second expression is evaluated:

```
i < 3
```

If the expression evaluates to `true`, the loop continues. Since `i` is less than 3, we can proceed. Next, the statement is executed:

```
printf( "Looping: %d\n", i );
```

Here's the first line of output:

```
Looping: 1
```

Having reached the bottom of the loop, the `for` evaluates its third expression:

```
i++
```

This changes the value of `i` to 2. Back to the top of the loop. Evaluate the termination expression:

```
i < 3
```

Since *i* is still less than 3, the loop continues. Once again, the `printf()` does its thing. The console window looks like this:

```
Looping: 1  
Looping: 2
```

Next, the `for` evaluates `expression3`:

```
i++
```

The value of *i* is incremented to 3. Back to the top of the loop. Evaluate the termination expression:

```
i < 3
```

Lo and behold! Since *i* is no longer less than 3, the loop ends, and the second `printf()` in our example is executed:

```
printf( "We are past the for loop." );
```

As was the case with `while`, `for` can take full advantage of a pair of curly braces:

```
for ( i = 0; i < 10; i++ )  
{  
    DoThis();  
    DoThat();  
    DanceALittleJig();  
}
```


Controlling Your Program's Flow

Expressions

In addition, both `while` and `for` can take advantage of the loneliest statement, the lone semicolon:

```
for ( i = 0; i < 1000; i++ )
    ;
```

This example does nothing 1000 times. But the example does take some time to execute. The initialization expression is evaluated once, and the modification and termination expressions are each evaluated 1000 times. Here's a `while` version of the loneliest loop:

```
i = 0;

while ( i++ < 1000 )
    ;
```

By the Way

Some compilers will eliminate this loop and just set `i` to its terminating value (the value it would have if the loop executed normally). This is known as **code optimization**. The nice thing about code optimization is that it can make your code run faster and more efficiently. However, an optimization pass on your code can sometimes have unwanted side effects, such as eliminating the `while` loop just discussed. It's a good idea to get to know your compiler's optimization capabilities and tendencies. Read your manual!

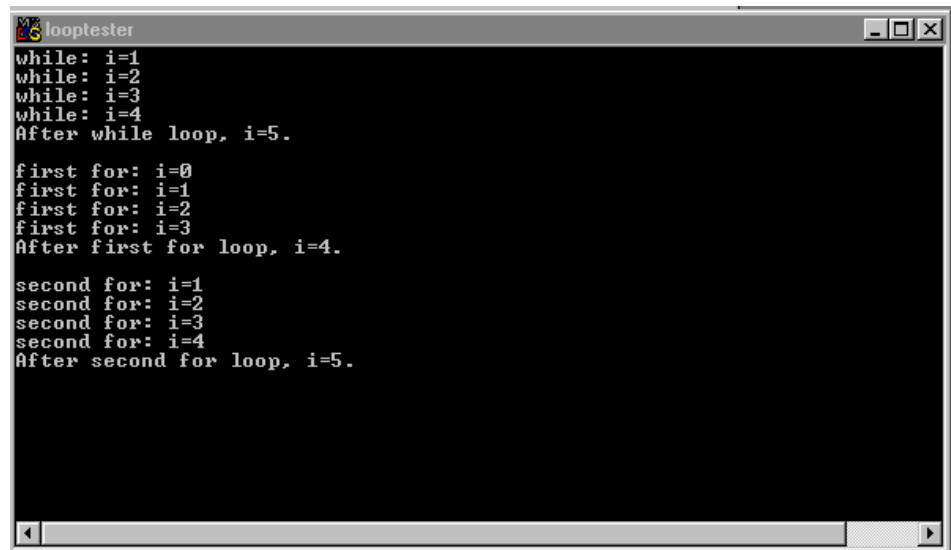
loopTester.cwp

Interestingly, there is an important difference between the `for` and `while` loops you just saw. Take a minute to look back and try to predict the value of `i` the first time through each loop and after each loop terminates. Were the results the same for the `while` and `for` loops? Hmm. . . . You might want to take another look. Here's a sample program that should clarify the difference between these two loops. Look in the directory `Learn C Projects`, inside the subdirectory named `06.02 - loopTester`, and open the project

loopTester.cwp The file loopTester.c implements a while loop and two slightly different for loops. Run the project. Your output should look like that shown in Figure 6.4.

The loopTester program starts off with the standard #include. The main() function defines a counter variable, i; sets i to 0; and then enters a while loop:

```
while ( i++ < 4 )
    printf( "while: i=%d\n", i );
```



```
looptester
while: i=1
while: i=2
while: i=3
while: i=4
After while loop, i=5.

first for: i=0
first for: i=1
first for: i=2
first for: i=3
After first for loop, i=4.

second for: i=1
second for: i=2
second for: i=3
second for: i=4
After second for loop, i=5.
```

Figure 6.4 The output from loopTester.cwp, showing the output from three different loops.

The loop executes four times, resulting in this output:

```
while: i=1
while: i=2
while: i=3
while: i=4
```

Controlling Your Program's Flow

Expressions

Do you see why? If not, go through the loop yourself, calculating the value for `i` each time through the loop. Remember, since we are using postfix notation (`i++`), `i` gets incremented *after* the test is made to see whether it is less than 4. The test and the increment happen at the top of the loop, before the loop is entered.

Once the loop completes, we print the value of `i` again:

```
printf( "After while loop, i=%d.\n\n", i );
```

Here's the result:

```
After while loop, i=5.
```

Here's how we got that value. The last time through the loop (with `i` equal to 4), we go back to the top of the `while` loop, test to see whether `i` is less than 4 (it no longer is), and then do the increment of `i`, bumping it from 4 to 5.

OK, one loop down, two to go. This next loop looks as if it should accomplish the same thing. The difference is, we don't do the increment of `i` until the bottom of the loop, until we've been through the loop once already.

```
for ( i = 0; i < 4; i++ )  
    printf( "first for: i=%d\n", i );
```

As you can see by the output, `i` ranges from 0 to 3 instead of from 1 to 4.

```
first for: i=0  
first for: i=1  
first for: i=2  
first for: i=3
```

After we drop out of the `for` loop, we once again print the value of `i`:

```
printf( "After first for loop, i=%d.\n\n", i );
```

Here's the result:

```
After first for loop, i=4.
```

As you can see, the `while` loop ranged `i` from 1 to 4, leaving `i` with a value of 5 at the end of the loop. The `for` loop ranged `i` from 0 to 3, leaving `i` with a value of 4 at the end of the loop. So how do we fix the `for` loop so that it works the same way as the `while` loop? Take a look:

```
for ( i = 1; i <= 4; i++ )
    printf( "second for: i=%d\n", i );
```

This `for` loop started `i` at 1 instead of 0 and it tests to see whether `i` is *less than or equal to* 4 instead of just less than 4. We could also have used the terminating expression `i < 5` instead. Either one will work. As proof, here's the output from this loop:

```
second for: i=1
second for: i=2
second for: i=3
second for: i=4
```

Once again, we print the value of `i` at the end of the loop:

```
printf( "After second for loop, i=%d.\n", i );

return 0;
}
```

Here's the last piece of output:

Controlling Your Program's Flow

Expressions

After second `for` loop, `i=5`.

This second `for` loop is the functional equivalent of the `while` loop. Take some time to play with this code. You might try to modify the `while` loop to match the first `for` loop.

The `while` and `for` statements are by far the most common types of C loops. For completeness, however, we'll cover the remaining loop, a little-used gem called the `do` statement.

The `do` Statement

The `do` statement is a `while` statement that evaluates its expression at the bottom of its loop instead of at the top. Here's the pattern a `do` statement must match:

```
do
    statement
while ( expression ) ;
```

Here's a sample:

```
i = 1;

do
{
    printf( "%d\n", i );
    i++;
}
while ( i < 3 );

printf( "We are past the do loop." );
```

The first time through the loop, `i` has a value of 1. The `printf()` prints a 1 in the console window, then the value of `i` is bumped to 2. It's not until this point that the expression `(i < 3)` is evaluated. Since 2 is less than 3, a second pass through the loop occurs.

During this second pass, the `printf()` prints a 2 in the console window; then the value of `i` is bumped to 3. Once again, the expression `(i < 3)` is evaluated. Since 3 is not less than 3, we drop out of the loop to the second `printf()`.

The important thing to remember about `do` loops is this: Since the expression is not evaluated until the bottom of the loop, the body of the loop (the statement) is always executed at least once. Since `for` and `while` loops both check their expressions at the top of the loop, it's possible for either to drop out of the loop before the body of the loop is executed.

Let's move on to a completely different type of statement, known as the `switch`.

The switch Statement

The `switch` statement uses the value of an expression to determine which of a series of statements to execute. Here's an example that should make this concept a little clearer:

```
switch ( theYear )
{
    case 1066:
        printf( "Battle of Hastings" );
        break;
    case 1492:
        printf( "Columbus sailed the ocean blue" );
        break;
    case 1776:
        printf( "Declaration of Independence\n" );
        printf( "A very important document!!!" );
        break;
    default:
        printf( "Don't know what happened during this
                year" );
}
```

Controlling Your Program's Flow

Expressions

The `switch` is constructed of a series of cases, each based on a specific value of `theYear`. If `theYear` has a value of 1066, execution continues with the statement following that case's colon, in this case, the line:

```
printf( "Battle of Hastings" );
```

Execution continues, line after line, until either the bottom of the `switch` (the right-curly brace) or a `break` statement is reached. In this case, the next line is a `break` statement.

The `break` statement comes in handy when you are working with `switch` statements and loops. The `break` tells the computer to jump immediately to the next statement after the end of the loop or `switch`.

Continuing with the example, if `theYear` has a value of 1492, the `switch` jumps to the lines:

```
printf( "Columbus sailed the ocean blue" );  
break;
```

A value of 1776 jumps to the lines:

```
printf( "Declaration of Independence\n" );  
printf( "A very important document!!!" );  
break;
```

Notice that this case has two statements before the `break`. There is no limit to the number of statements a case can have: One is OK; 653 is OK. You can even have a case with no statements at all.

The original example also contains a `default` case. If the `switch` can't find a case that matches the value of its expression, the `switch` looks for a case labeled `default`. If the `default` is present, its statements are executed. If no `default` is present, the `switch` completes without executing any of its statements.

Here's the pattern the `switch` tries to match:

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

Important

Why would you want a case with no statements? Here's an example:

```
switch ( myVar )
{
    case 1:
    case 2:
        DoSomething();
        break;
    case 3:
        DoSomethingElse();
}
```

In this example, if `myVar` has a value of 1 or 2, the function `DoSomething()` is called. If `myVar` has a value of 3, the function `DoSomethingElse()` is called. If `myVar` has any other value, nothing happens. Use a case with no statements when you want two different cases to execute the same statements.

Think about what happens with this example:

```
switch ( myVar )
{
    case 1:
        DoSometimes();
    case 2:
```


Controlling Your Program's Flow

Expressions

```
        DoFrequently( );
    default:
        DoAlways( );
}
```

If `myVar` is 1, all three functions will get called. If `myVar` is 2, `DoFrequently()` and `DoAlways()` will get called. If `myVar` has any other value, `DoAlways()` gets called by itself. This is a good example of a `switch` without breaks.

At the heart of each `switch` is its expression. Most `switches` are based on single variables, but, as we mentioned earlier, assignment statements make perfectly acceptable expressions.

Each case is based on a **constant**. Numbers (such as 47 or -12,932) are valid constants. Variables, such as `myVar`, are not. As you'll see later, single-byte characters (such as 'a' or '\n') are also valid constants. Multiple-byte character strings (like "Gummy-bear") are not.

If your `switch` uses a `default` case, make sure that you use it as shown in the pattern described. Don't include the word `case` before the word `default`.

break Statements in Other Loops

The `break` statement has other uses besides the `switch` statement. Here's an example of a `break` used in a `while` loop:

```
i=1;

while ( i <= 9 )
{
    PlayAnInning( i );
    if ( ItIsRaining() )
        break;
    i++;
}
```

This sample tries to play nine innings of baseball. As long as the function `ItIsRaining()` returns with a value of `false`, the game continues uninterrupted. If `ItIsRaining()` returns a value of `true`, the `break` statement is executed, and the program drops out of the loop, interrupting the game.

The `break` statement allows you to construct loops that depend on multiple factors. The termination of the loop depends on the value of the expression found at the top of the loop, as well as on any outside factors that might trigger an unexpected break.

Sample Programs

isOdd.c

This program combines `for` and `if` statements to tell you whether the numbers 1 through 20 are odd or even and whether they are an even multiple of 3. The program also introduces a brand new operator: the `%` operator. Go into the `Learn C Projects` directory, then into the `06.03 - isOdd` subdirectory, and open the project `isOdd.cwp`.

Run `isOdd.cwp` by selecting `Run` from the `Project` menu. You should see something like the console window shown in Figure 6.5. You should see a line for each number from 1 through 20. Each of the numbers will be described as either odd or even. Each of the multiples of 3 will have additional text describing them as such. Here's how the program works.

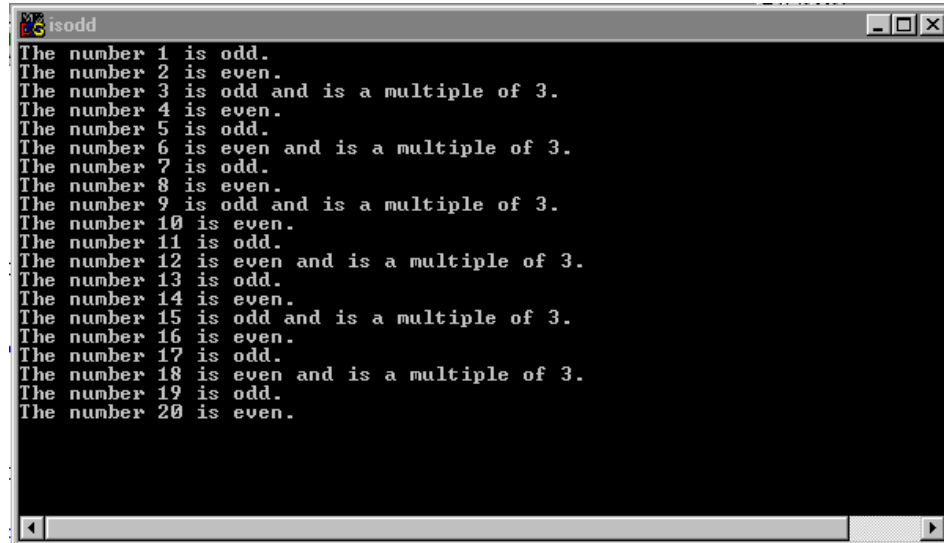
Stepping Through the Source Code

This program starts off with the usual `#include` and the beginning of `main()`, which begins by declaring a counter variable named `i`.

```
int main( void )
{
    int i;
```

Controlling Your Program's Flow

Sample Programs



```
isodd
The number 1 is odd.
The number 2 is even.
The number 3 is odd and is a multiple of 3.
The number 4 is even.
The number 5 is odd.
The number 6 is even and is a multiple of 3.
The number 7 is odd.
The number 8 is even.
The number 9 is odd and is a multiple of 3.
The number 10 is even.
The number 11 is odd.
The number 12 is even and is a multiple of 3.
The number 13 is odd.
The number 14 is even.
The number 15 is odd and is a multiple of 3.
The number 16 is even.
The number 17 is odd.
The number 18 is even and is a multiple of 3.
The number 19 is odd.
The number 20 is even.
```

Figure 6.5 Running `isOdd.cwp`

Our goal here is to step through each of the numbers from 1 to 20. For each number, we want to check to see whether the number is odd or even. We also want to check whether the number is evenly divisible by 3. Once we've analyzed a number, we'll use `printf()` to print a description of the number in the console window.

By the Way

The scheme that defines the way a program works is called the program's algorithm. It's a good idea to try to work out the details of your program's algorithm before writing even one line of source code.

As you might expect, the next step is to set up a `for` loop, using `i` as a counter initialized to 1. The loop will keep running as long as the value of `i` is less than or equal to 20. This is the same as saying that the loop will exit as soon as the value of `i` is found to be greater than 20. Every time the loop reaches the bottom, the third expression, `i++`, will be evaluated, incrementing the value of `i` by 1. This is a classic `for` loop.

```
for ( i = 1; i <= 20; i++ )  
{
```

Now we're inside the `for` loop. Our goal is to print a single line for each number, that is, one line each time through the `for` loop. If you check back to Figure 6.5, you'll notice that each line starts with the phrase:

```
The number x is
```

In that phrase, `x` is the number being described. That's the purpose of this first `printf()`:

```
printf( "The number %d is ", i );
```

Notice that this `printf()` wasn't part of an `if` statement. We want this `printf()` to print its message every time through the loop. The next sequence of `printf()` statements are a different story altogether.

The next chunk of code determines whether `i` is even or odd, then uses `printf()` to print the appropriate word in the console window. Because the last `printf()` didn't end with a newline character (`\n`), the word "even" or "odd" will appear in the console window on the *same line* as, and immediately following:

```
The number x is
```

This next chunk of code introduces a brand new operator—`%`—a binary operator that returns the remainder when the left operand is divided by the right operand. For example, `i % 2` divides 2 into `i` and returns the remainder. If `i` is even, this remainder will be 0. If `i` is odd, this remainder will be 1.

```
if ( ( i % 2 ) == 0 )  
    printf( "even" );  
else
```

Controlling Your Program's Flow

Sample Programs

```
printf( "odd" );
```

In the expression `i % 3`, the remainder will be 0 if `i` is evenly divisible by 3 and either 1 or 2 otherwise.

```
if ( (i % 3) == 0 )
    printf( " and is a multiple of 3" );
```

If `i` is evenly divisible by 3, we'll add the following phrase to the end of the current line:

```
" and is a multiple of 3"
```

Finally, we add a period `."` and a newline `"\n"` to the end of the current line, placing us at the beginning of the next line of the console window:

```
printf( ".\n" );
```

The loop ends with a curly brace, and `main()` ends with our normal return and a right-curly brace.

```
    }
    return 0;
}
```

nextPrime.cwp

Our next program focuses on the mathematical concept of **prime numbers**. A prime number is any number whose only factors are 1 and itself. For example, 6 is not a prime number, because its factors are 1, 2, 3, and 6. The number 5 is prime because its factors are lim-

ited to 1 and 5. The number 12 isn't prime, because its factors are 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, and 12.

Our next program will find the next prime number greater than a specified number. For example, if we set our starting point to 14, the program would find the next prime, 17. We have the program set up to check for the next prime after 19. Know what that is?

Go into the directory `Learn C Projects`, into the subdirectory `06.04 - nextPrime`, and open the project `nextPrime.cwp`. Run `nextPrime.cwp` by selecting `Run` from the `Project` menu. You should see something like the console window shown in Figure 6.6. As you can see, the next prime number after 19 is (drum roll, please ...) 23. Here's how the program works.

Stepping Through the Source Code

This program starts off with two `#includes` instead of the usual one. The new `#include <math.h>`, gives us access to a series of math functions, most notably the function `sqrt()`. This function takes a single parameter and returns the square root of that parameter. You'll see how this works in a minute.



Figure 6.6 Running `nextPrime.cwp`

Controlling Your Program's Flow

Sample Programs

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

Next, we define the constants `true` and `false`. (We'll cover `#define` later.)

```
#define true    1
#define false   0
```

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

We're going to need a boatload of variables. They're all defined as ints:

```
    int startingPoint, candidate, last, i;
    int isPrime;
```

The first variable, `startingPoint`, is the number we want to start off with. We'll find the next prime after `startingPoint`; `candidate` is the current candidate we are considering. Is `candidate` the lowest prime number greater than `startingPoint`? By the time we are done, it will be!

```
        startingPoint = 19;
```

Since 2 is the lowest prime number, if `startingPoint` is less than 2, we know that the next prime is 2. By setting `candidate` to 2, our work is done:

```
        if ( startingPoint < 2 )
        {
            candidate = 2;
        }
```

If `startingPoint` is 2, the next prime is 3, and we'll set `candidate` accordingly:

```
else if ( startingPoint == 2 )
{
    candidate = 3;
}
```

If we got this far, we know that `startingPoint` is greater than 2. Since 2 is the only even prime number and since we've already checked for `startingPoint` being equal to 2, we can now limit our search to odd numbers only. We'll start `candidate` at `startingPoint`, then make sure that `candidate` is odd. If it isn't, we'll decrement `candidate`. Why decrement instead of increment? If you peek ahead a few lines, you'll see that we're about to enter a `do` loop and that we bump `candidate` to the next odd number at the *top* of the loop. By decrementing `candidate` now, we're preparing for the bump at the top of the loop, which will take `candidate` to the next odd number greater than `startingPoint`.

```
else
{
    candidate = startingPoint;

    if (candidate % 2 == 0)
        candidate--;
```

This loop will continue stepping through consecutive odd numbers until we find a prime number. We'll start `isPrime` off as `true`, then check the current `candidate` to see whether we can find a factor. If we do find a factor, we'll set `isPrime` to `false`, forcing us to repeat the loop.

```
do
{
    isPrime = true;
```


Controlling Your Program's Flow

Sample Programs

```
candidate += 2;
```

Now we'll check to see whether `candidate` is prime. This means verifying that `candidate` has no factors other than 1 and `candidate`. To do this, we'll check the numbers from 3 to the square root of `candidate` to see whether any of them divides evenly into `candidate`. If not, we know we've got ourselves a prime!

```
last = sqrt( candidate );
```

By the Way

So why don't we check from 2 up to `candidate - 1`? Why start with 3? Since `candidate` will never be even, we know that 2 will never be a factor. For the same reason, we know that no even number will ever be a factor.

Why stop at the square root of `candidate`? Good question! To help understand this approach, consider the factors of 12, other than 1 and 12. They are 2, 3, 4, and 6. The square root of 12 is approximately 3.46. Notice how this fits nicely in the middle of the list of factors. Each of the factors less than the square root will have a matching factor greater than the square root. In this case, 2 matches with 6 ($2 \cdot 6 = 12$) and 3 matches with 4 ($3 \cdot 4 = 12$). This will always be true. If we don't find a factor by the time we hit the square root, there won't be a factor, and the candidate is prime.

Take a look at the top of the `for` loop. We start `i` at 3. Each time we hit the top of the loop (including the first time through the loop), we'll check to make sure that we haven't passed the square root of `candidate` and that `isPrime` is still true. If `isPrime` is false, we can stop searching for a factor, since we've just found one! Finally, each time we complete the loop, we bump `i` to the next odd number.

```
for ( i = 3; ( i <= last ) && isPrime; i
      += 2 )
{
```

Each time through the loop, we'll check to see whether `i` divides evenly into `candidate`. If so, we know that it is a factor, and we can set `isPrime` to `false`:

```
                if ( (candidate % i) == 0 )
                    isPrime = false;
            }
        } while ( ! isPrime );
    }
```

Once we drop out of the `do` loop, we use `printf()` to print both the starting point and the first prime number greater than the starting point:

```
    printf( "The next prime after %d is %d.\n",
           startingPoint, candidate );

    return 0;
}
```

If you are interested in prime numbers, play around with this program. See if you can modify the code to print all the prime numbers from 1 to 100. How about the first 100 prime numbers?

What's Next?

Congratulations! You've made it through some tough concepts. You've learned about the C statements that allow you to control your program's flow. You've learned about C expressions and the concept of `true` and `false`. You've also learned about the logical operators based on the values `true` and `false`. You've learned about the `if`, `if-else`, `for`, `while`, `do`, `switch`, and `break` statements. In short, you've learned a lot!

Our next chapter introduces the concept of **pointers**, also known as variable addresses. From now on, you'll use pointers in almost

Controlling Your Program's Flow

Exercises

every C program you write. Pointers allow you to implement complex data structures, opening up a world of programming possibilities.

Chapter 7 also discusses function parameters in detail. As usual, plenty of code fragments and sample applications will be presented to keep you busy. See you there.

Exercises

1. What's wrong with each of the following code fragments:

- a.

```
if i
    i++;
```
- b.

```
for ( i=0; i<20; i++ )
    i--;
```
- c.

```
while ( )
    i++;
```
- d.

```
do ( i++ )
    until ( i == 20 );
```
- e.

```
switch ( i )
{
    case "hello":
    case "goodbye":
        printf( "Greetings." );
        break;
    case default:
        printf( "Boring." );
}
```
- f.

```
if ( i < 20 )
    if ( i == 20 )
        printf( "Lonely..." );
```

- g.

```
while ( done = TRUE )  
    done = ! done;
```
- h.

```
for ( i=0; i<20; i*20 )  
    printf( "Modification..." );
```
- 2. Modify `nextPrime.c` to compute the prime numbers from 1 to 100.
- 3. Modify `nextPrime.c` to compute the first 100 prime numbers.

Controlling Your Program's Flow

Exercises



Pointers and Parameters

You've come a long way. You've mastered variable basics, operators, and statements. You're about to add some powerful, new concepts to your programming toolbox.

For starters, we'll introduce the concept of pointers. In programming, pointers are references to other things. When someone calls your name to get your attention, they're using your name as a pointer. Your name is one way people refer to you.

What Is a Pointer?

Your name and address can combine to serve as a pointer, telling the mail carrier where to deliver the new Sears catalog. Your address distinguishes your house from all the other houses in your neighborhood, and your name distinguishes you from the rest of the people living in your house.

A pointer to a variable is really the address of the variable in memory. If you pass the value of a variable to a function, the function can make use of the variable's value but can't *change* the variable's value. If you pass the address of the variable to the function, the function can also change the value of the variable.

When you declare a variable in C, memory is allocated to the variable. This memory has an address. C pointers are special variables, specifically designed to hold one of these addresses. Later in the chapter, you'll learn how to create a pointer, how to make it point to a specific variable, and how to use the pointer to change the variable's value.

Pointers and Parameters

What Is a Pointer?

Why Use Pointers?

Pointers can be extremely useful, allowing you to access your data in ways that ordinary variables just don't allow. Here's a real-world example of "pointer flexibility."

When you go to the library in search of a specific title, you probably start your search in a card catalog. Card catalogs contain thousands of index cards, one for every book in the library. Each index card contains information about a specific book: the author's name, the book's title, and the copyright date, for example.

Most libraries have three card catalogs. Each lists all the books, sorted alphabetically by subject, by author, or by title. In the subject card catalog, a book can be listed more than once. For example, a book about Thomas Jefferson might be listed under "Presidents, U.S.," "Architects," or even under "Inventors" (Jefferson was quite an inventor).

Figure 7.1 shows a catalog card for Albert Einstein's famous book on relativity, called *The Meaning of Relativity*. The card was listed in the subject catalog under the subject "RELATIVITY (PHYSICS)." Take a minute to look the card over. Pay special attention to the catalog information located on the left side of the card. The catalog number for this book is 530.1. This number tells you exactly where to find the book among all the other books on the shelves. The books are ordered numerically, so you'll find this book, between 530 and 531 on the shelves.

Important

In this example, the library bookshelves are like your computer's memory, with the books acting as data. The catalog number is the address of your data (a book) in memory (on the shelf).

As you might have guessed, the catalog number acts as a pointer. The card catalogs use these pointers to rearrange all the books in the library, without moving a single book. Think about it. In the subject card catalog, all the books are arranged by subject. Physically, the book arrangements have nothing to do with subject. Physically, the books are arranged numerically, by catalog number. By adding a

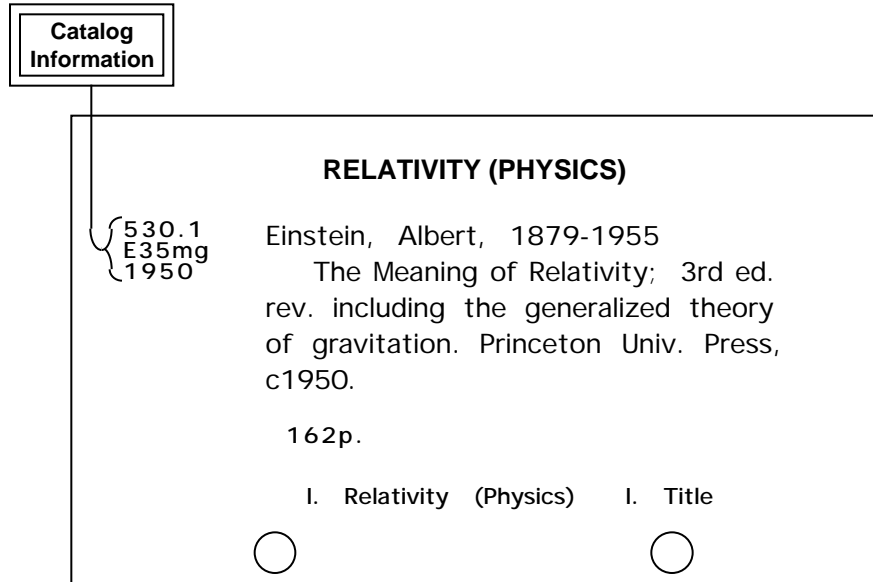


Figure 7.1 Catalog card for a rather famous book. Note the catalog information on the left side of the card.

layer of pointers between you and the books, the librarians achieve an extra layer of flexibility.

In the same way, the author and title card catalogs use a layer of pointers to arrange all the books by author and by title. With these pointers, all the books in the library can be arranged in four different ways without ever leaving the shelves. The books are arranged physically (sorted by catalog number) and logically (sorted in one catalog by author, in another by subject, and in another by title). Without the support of a layer of pointers, these logical book arrangements would be impossible.

By the Way

Adding a layer of pointers is also known as “adding a level of indirection.” The number of levels of indirection is the number of pointers you have to use to get to your library book (or to your data).

Checking Out of the Library

So far, we've talked about pointers in terms of library catalog numbers. The use of pointers in your C programs is not much different from this model. Each card catalog number points out the location of a book on the library shelf. In the same way, each pointer in your program will point out the location of a piece of data in computer memory.

If you wrote a program to keep track of your compact disc collection, you might maintain a list of pointers, each one of which might point to a block of data describing a single CD. Each block of data might contain such information as the name of the artist, the name of the album, the year of release, and a category (jazz, rock, blues). If you got more ambitious, you could create several pointer lists. One list might sort your CDs alphabetically by artist name. Another might sort them chronologically by year of release. Yet another list might sort your CDs by musical category. You get the picture.

There's a lot you can do with pointers. By mastering the techniques presented in these next few chapters, you'll be able to create programs that take full advantage of pointers.

Our goal for this chapter is to master pointer basics. We'll talk about C pointers and C pointer operations. You'll learn how to create a pointer and how to make the pointer point to a variable. You'll also learn how to use a pointer to change the value of the variable the pointer points to.

Pointer Basics

Pointers are variable addresses. Instead of an address such as:

```
1313 Mockingbird Lane  
Raven Heights, California 90263
```

a variable's address refers to a memory location within your computer. As we discussed in Chapter 3, your computer's memory consists of a sequence of bytes. A 1-megabyte computer has exactly 2^{20} (or 1,048,576) bytes of memory, also known as **random-access memory**, or **RAM**. An 8-megabyte computer has exactly $8 \times 2^{20} = 2^{23} =$

8,388,608 bytes of RAM. Every one of those bytes has its own unique address. The first byte has an address of 0. The next byte has an address of 1. Computer addresses always start with 0 and continue up, one at a time, until they reach the highest address. Figure 7.2 shows the addressing scheme for an 8-megabyte computer. Notice that the addresses run from 0 (the lowest address) all the way up to 8,388,607 (the highest address).

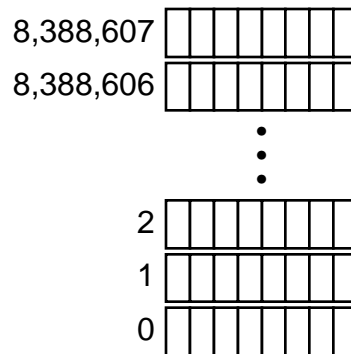


Figure 7.2 Addressing scheme for 8 megabytes of bytes.

Variable Addresses

When you run a program, one of the first things the computer does is allocate memory for your program's variables. For example, suppose that you declare an `int` in your code, like this:

```
int myVar;
```

The compiler reserves memory for the exclusive use of `myVar`.

Important

The amount of memory allocated for an `int` depends on your development environment. Since all of the projects in this book were built using 4-byte `ints`, the figures showing `int` memory allocation also show 4-byte `ints`. Don't be fooled! If your development

Pointers and Parameters

Pointer Basics

environment is set to use 2-byte `ints`, 2 bytes will be allocated for each `int`.

Each of `myVar`'s bytes has a specific address. Figure 7.3 shows an 8-megabyte computer with 4 bytes allocated to the variable `myVar`. In this picture, the 4 bytes allocated to `myVar` have the addresses 508, 509, 510, and 511.

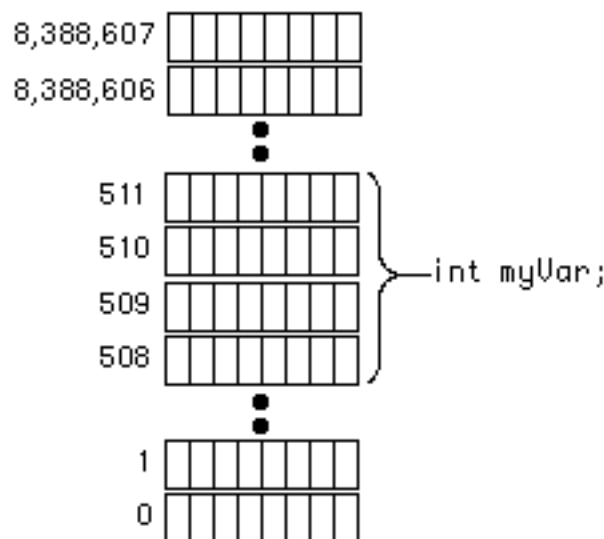


Figure 7.3 The 4 bytes allocated for the `int` named `myVar`.

By convention, a variable's address is said to be the address of its first byte (the first byte is the one with the lowest-numbered address). If a variable uses memory locations 508 through 511 (as `myVar` does), its address is 508 and its length is 4 bytes.

Important

When more than 1 byte is allocated to a variable, the bytes will always be consecutive (next to each other in memory). The 4 bytes allocated to an `int` might have such addresses as 508, 509, 510, and 511 or 64,000, 64,001, 64002, and 64003. You will never see

an `int` whose byte addresses are 508, 509, 510, and 695. A variable's bytes are like family—they stick together!

As we showed earlier, a variable's address is a lot like the catalog number on a library catalog card. Both act as pointers: one to a book on the library shelf and the other to a variable. From now on, when we use the term pointer with respect to a variable, we are referring to the variable's address.

Now that you understand what a pointer is, your next goal is to learn how to use pointers in your programs. The next few sections will teach you some valuable pointer-programming skills. You'll learn how to create a pointer to a variable. You'll also learn how to use that pointer to access the variable it points to.

The C language provides you with a few key tools to help you. These tools come in the form of two special operators: `&` and `*`.

The `&` Operator

The `&` operator (also called the "address of" operator) pairs with a variable name to produce the variable's address. For example, the following expression refers to `myVar`'s address in memory:

```
&myVar
```

If `myVar` owned memory locations 508 through 511 (as in Figure 7.3), the expression would have a value of 508:

```
&myVar
```

The expression `&myVar` is a pointer to the variable `myVar`.

As you start programming with pointers, you'll find yourself using the `&` operator frequently. An expression like `&myVar` is a common way to represent a pointer. Another way to represent a pointer is with a **pointer variable**, a variable specifically designed to hold the address of another variable.

Declaring a Pointer Variable

C supports a special notation for declaring pointer variables. The following line declares a variable called `myPointer`:

```
int *myPointer;
```

Notice that the `*` is not part of the variable's name. Instead, it tells the compiler that the associated variable is a pointer, specifically designed to hold the address of an `int`. If there were a data type called `bluto`, you could declare a variable designed to point to a `bluto` like this:

```
bluto *blutoPointer;
```

For now, we'll limit ourselves to pointers that point to `ints`. Look at this code:

```
int *myPointer, myVar;  
myPointer = &myVar;
```

The assignment statement puts `myVar`'s address in the variable `myPointer`. If `myVar`'s address is 508, this code will leave `myPointer` with a value of 508. Note that this code has absolutely no effect on the value of `myVar`.

There will be times in your coding when you have a pointer to a variable but not the variable itself. This happens a lot. You can use the pointer to manipulate the value of the variable it points to. Observe:

```
int *myPointer, myVar;  
  
myPointer = &myVar;  
*myPointer = 27;
```

As before, the first assignment statement places `myVar`'s address in the variable `myPointer`. The second assignment introduces the `*` operator. The `*` operator (called the **star** operator) converts a pointer variable to the item the pointer points to.

By the Way

The `*` that appears in the declaration statement isn't really an operator. It's there only to designate the variable `myPointer` as a pointer.

If `myPointer` points to `myVar`, as is the case in our example, `*myPointer` refers to the variable `myVar`. In this case, the next two lines say the same thing:

```
*myPointer = 27;
```

```
myVar = 27;
```

Confused? These memory pictures should help. Figure 7.4 joins our program in progress, just after the variables `myVar` and `myPointer` were declared:

```
int *myPointer, myVar;
```

Pointers and Parameters

Pointer Basics

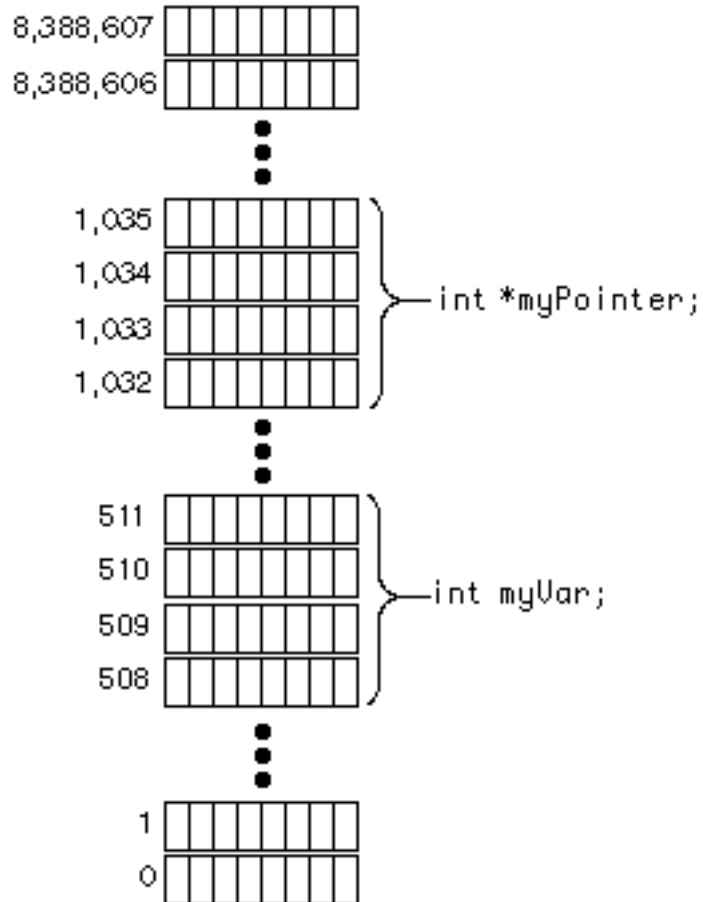


Figure 7.4 Memory allocated for `myVar` and `myPointer`

Notice that 4 bytes were allocated for the variable `myVar` and that 4 bytes were allocated for `myPointer`. Why? Because `myVar` is an `int` and `myPointer` is a pointer, designed to hold a 4-byte address; 4 bytes equal 32 bits. Since memory addresses start at 0 and can never be negative, 4-byte memory addresses range from 0 up to $2^{32} - 1 = 4,294,967,295$. That means that a 32-bit computer can address a maximum of 4 gigabytes (4096 megabytes) of memory. That's a lot of RAM!

Important

Early versions of Windows were 16 bit systems. 20 bit physical addresses were formed from two 16 bit values, a segment and an

offset. This allowed for the addressing of 1 megabyte of memory.

Windows 95 uses full 32 bit memory addressing. This allows for the direct addressing of 4 gigabytes of physical memory.

Once memory is allocated for `myVar` and `myPointer`, we move on to the statement:

```
myPointer = &myVar;
```

The 4-byte address of the variable `myVar` is written to the 4 bytes allocated to `myPointer`. In our example, `myVar`'s address is 508. Figure 7.5 shows the value 508 stored in `myPointer`'s 4 bytes. Now `myPointer` is said to "point to" `myVar`.

OK, we're almost there. The next line of our example writes the value 27 to the location pointed to by `myPointer`:

```
*myPointer = 27;
```

Without the `*` operator, the computer would place the value 27 in the memory allocated to `myPointer`. The `*` operator **dereferences** `myPointer`. Dereferencing a pointer turns the pointer into the variable it points to. Figure 7.6 shows the end results.

If the concept of pointers seems alien to you, don't worry. You are not alone. Programming with pointers is one of the most difficult topics you'll ever take on. Just keep reading, and follow each of the examples line by line. By the end of the chapter, you'll be a pointer expert!

Pointers and Parameters

Pointer Basics

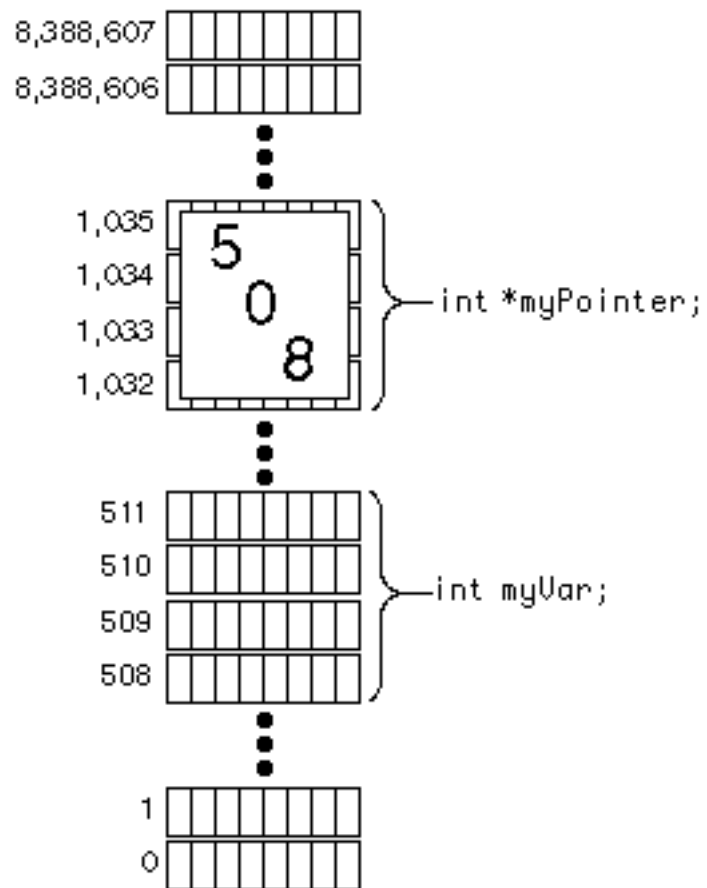


Figure 7.5 The address of `myVar` is assigned to `myPointer`.

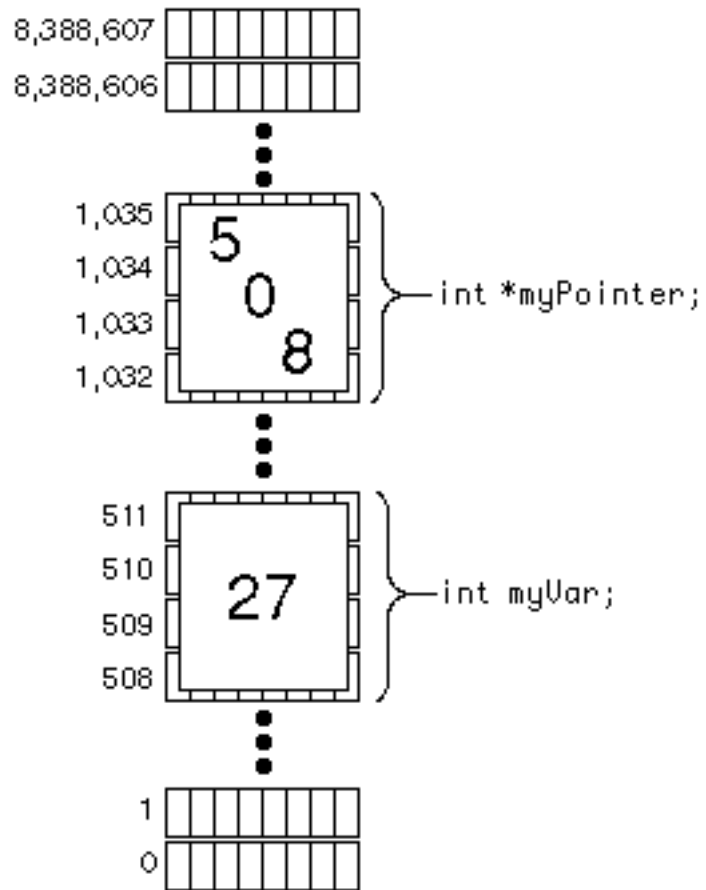


Figure 7.6 Finally, the value 27 is assigned to `*myPointer`

Function Parameters

One of the most important uses of pointers (and perhaps the easiest to understand) lies in the implementation of **function parameters**. In this section, we'll focus on parameters and, at the same time, have a chance to see pointers in action.

What Are Function Parameters?

A function parameter is your chance to share a variable between a calling function and the called function.

Suppose that you wanted to write a function called `AddTwo ()` that took two numbers, added them, and returned their sum. How would you get the two original numbers into `AddTwo ()`? How would you get the sum of the two numbers back to the function that called `AddTwo ()`?

As you might have guessed, the answer to both questions lies in the use of parameters. Before you can learn how to use parameters, however, you'll have to first understand the concept of **variable scope**.

Variable Scope

In C, every variable is said to have a scope, or range. A variable's scope defines where in the program you have access to a variable. In other words, if a variable is declared inside one function, can another function refer to that same variable?

C defines variable scope as follows:

- A variable declared inside a function is local to that function and may be referenced only inside that function.

This statement is important. It means that you can't declare a variable inside one function, then refer to that same value inside another function. Here's an example that will never compile:

```
int main( void )
{
    int numDots;

    numDots = 500;

    DrawDots();

    return 0;
}
```

```
void DrawDots( void )
{
    int i;

    for ( i = 1; i <= numDots; i++ )
        printf( "." );
}
```

The error in this code occurs when the function `DrawDots()` tries to reference the variable `numDots`. According to the rules of scope, `DrawDots()` doesn't even know about the variable `numDots`. If you tried to compile this program, the compiler would complain that `DrawDots()` tried to use the variable `numDots` without declaring it.

The problem you are faced with is getting the value of `numDots` to the function `DrawDots()` so `DrawDots()` knows how many "dots" to draw. The answer to this problem is function parameters.

By the Way

`DrawDots()` is another example of the value of writing functions. We've taken the code needed to perform a specific function (in this case, draw some dots) and embedded it in a function. Now, instead of having to duplicate the code inside `DrawDots()` every time we want to draw some dots in our program, all we'd need is a single line of code: a call to the function `DrawDots()`.

How Function Parameters Work

Function parameters are just like variables. Instead of being declared at the beginning of a function, function parameters are declared between the parentheses on the function's title line, like this:

```
void DrawDots( int numDots )
{
    /* function's body goes here */
}
```

Pointers and Parameters

Function Parameters

When you call a function, you just match up the parameters, making sure that you pass the function what it expects. To call the version of `DrawDots()` we just defined, make sure that you place an `int` between the parentheses. The call to `DrawDots()` inside `main()` passes the value 30 into the function `DrawDots()`:

```
int main( void )
{
    DrawDots( 30 );

    return 0;
}
```

When `DrawDots()` starts executing, it sets its parameter to the passed-in value. In this case, `DrawDots()` has one parameter, an `int` named `numDots`. When the call executes, the function `DrawDots()` sets its parameter, `numDots`, to a value of 30:

```
DrawDots( 30 );
```

To make things a little clearer, here's a revised version of our example:

```
int main( void )
{
    DrawDots( 30 );

    return 0;
}

void DrawDots( int numDots )
{
    int i;

    for ( i = 1; i <= numDots; i++ )
```

```
    printf( "." );  
}
```

This version of `main()` calls `DrawDots()`, passing as a parameter the constant 30. `DrawDots()` receives the value 30 in its `int` parameter, `numDots`. This means that the function `DrawDots()` starts execution with a variable named `numDots` having a value of 30.

Inside `DrawDots()`, the `for` loop behaves as you might expect, drawing 30 periods in the console window. Figure 7.7 shows this program in action. You can run this example yourself. The project file, `drawDots.cwp`, is located in the `Learn C Projects` directory in a subdirectory named `07.01 - drawDots`.

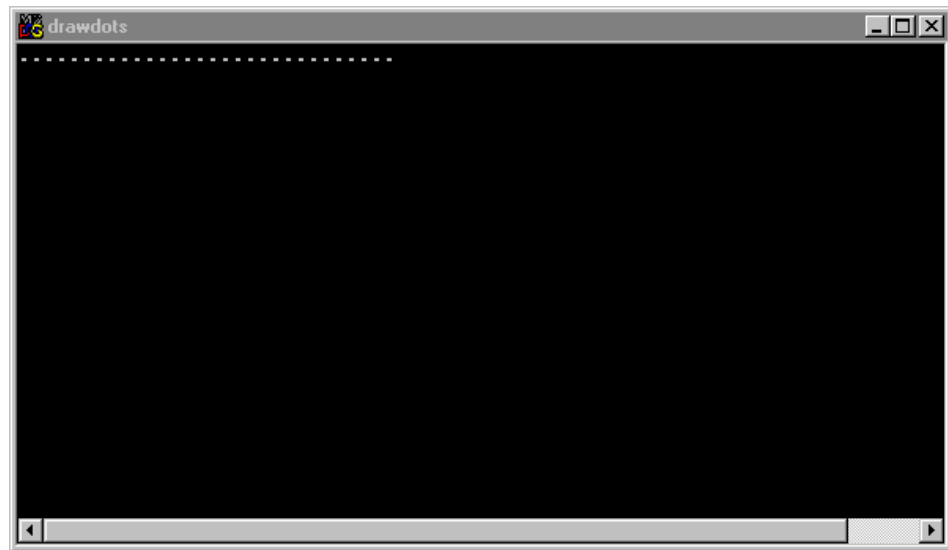


Figure 7.7 The program `drawDots` in action.

Parameters Are Temporary

When you pass a value from a calling function to a called function, you are creating a temporary variable inside the called function. Once the called function exits (returns to the calling function), that variable ceases to exist.

Pointers and Parameters

Function Parameters

In our example, we passed a value of 30 into `DrawDots()` as a parameter. The value came to rest in the parameter variable named `numDots`. Once `DrawDots()` exited, `numDots` ceased to exist.

- Remember, a variable declared inside a function can be referenced only by that function.

It is perfectly acceptable for two functions to use the same variable names for completely different purposes. It's fairly standard, for example, to use a variable name like `i` as a counter in a `for` loop. What happens when, in the middle of just such a `for` loop, you call a function that also uses a variable named `i`? Here's an example:

```
int main( void )
{
    int i;

    for ( i=1; i<=10; i++ )
    {
        DrawDots( 30 );
        printf( "\n" );
    }

    return 0;
}

void DrawDots( int numDots )
{
    int i;

    for ( i = 1; i <= numDots; i++ )
        printf( "." );
}
```

This code prints a series of 10 rows of dots, with 30 dots in each row. After each call to `DrawDots()`, a carriage return ("`\n`") is printed, moving the cursor in position to begin the next row of dots.

Notice that both `main()` and `DrawDots()` feature a variable named `i`. In `main()`, the variable `i` is used as a counter, tracking the num-

ber of rows of dots printed. `DrawDots()` also uses `i` as a counter, tracking the number of dots in the row it is printing. Won't the copy of `i` in `DrawDots()` mess up the copy of `i` in `main()`? No!

When `main()` starts executing, memory gets allocated for its copy of `i`. When `main()` calls `DrawDots()`, additional memory gets allocated for the copy of `i` in `DrawDots()`. When `DrawDots()` exits, the memory for its copy of `i` is deallocated, freed up so it can be used again for some other variable. A variable declared within a specific function is known as a local variable. `DrawDots()` has a single local variable, the variable `i`.

What Do Parameters Have to Do with Pointers?

OK. Now we're getting to the crux of the whole matter. What does all this have to do with pointers? To answer this question, you have to understand the two different methods of parameter passing.

Parameters are passed from function to function either by value or by address. Passing a parameter by value passes only the value of a variable or a literal on to the called function. Take a look at this code:

```
int main( void )
{
    int numDots;

    numDots = 30;

    DrawDots( numDots );

    return 0;
}

void DrawDots( int numDots )
{
    int i;
```


Pointers and Parameters

What Do Parameters Have to Do with Pointers?

```
    for ( i = 1; i <= numDots; i++ )
        printf( "." );
}
```

Here's what happens when `main()` calls `DrawDots()`. On the calling side, the expression passed as a parameter to `DrawDots()` is resolved to a single value. In this case, the expression is simply the variable `numDots`. The value of the expression is the value of `numDots`, which is 30.

On the receiving side, when `DrawDots()` gets called, memory is allocated for its parameters, as well as for its local variables. This means that memory is allocated for its copy of `numDots`, as well as for its copy of `i`. The value that `DrawDots()` receives from `main()` (in this case, 30) is copied into the memory allocated to its copy of `numDots`.

It is important to understand that whatever `main()` passes as a parameter to `DrawDots()` is *copied* into its local copy of the parameter. Think of this copy of `numDots` as just another local variable that will disappear when `DrawDots()` exits. `DrawDots()` can do whatever it likes to its copy of the parameter. Since it is just a local copy, any changes will have absolutely no effect on the copy of the parameter in `main()`.

Since passing parameters by value is a one-way operation, there's no way to get data back from the called function. Why would you ever want to? Several reasons. You might write a function that takes an employee number as a parameter. You might want that function to return the employee's salary in another parameter. How about a function that turns yards into meters? You could pass the number of yards as a value parameter, but how would you get back the number of meters?

Passing a parameter by address (instead of by value) solves this problem. If you pass the address of a variable, the receiving function can use the `*` operator to change the value of the original variable. Here's an example:

```
int main( void )
{
    int square;
```

```
    SquareIt( 5, &square );

    printf( "5 squared is %d.\n", square );

    return 0;
}

void SquareIt( int number, int *squarePtr )
{
    *squarePtr = number * number;
}
```

In this example, `main()` calls the function `SquareIt()`, which takes two parameters. As in the previous example, both parameters are declared between the parentheses on the function's title line. Notice that a comma separates the parameter declarations.

The first of the two `SquareIt()` parameters is an `int`. The second parameter is a pointer to an `int`. `SquareIt()` squares the value passed in the first parameter, using the pointer in the second parameter to return the squared value.

By the Way

If it's been 10 or more years since your last math class, squaring a number is the same as multiplying the number by itself. The square of 4 is 16, and the square of 5 is 25.

Here's how `main()` calls `SquareIt()`:

```
SquareIt( 5, &square );
```

Here's the function prototype of `SquareIt()`:

```
void SquareIt( int number, int *squarePtr );
```

Pointers and Parameters

What Do Parameters Have to Do with Pointers?

When `SquareIt()` gets called, memory is allocated for an `int` (number) and for a pointer to an `int` (`squarePtr`).

Once the local memory is allocated, the value 5 is copied into the local parameter `number`, and the address of `square` is copied into `squarePtr`. (Remember, the `&` operator produces the address of a variable.)

Inside the function `SquareIt()`, any reference to `*squarePtr` is just like a reference to `square`. The following assignment statement assigns the value 25 (since `number` has a value of 5) to the variable pointed to by `squarePtr`:

```
*squarePtr = number * number;
```

This has the effect of assigning the value 25 to `square`. When `SquareIt()` returns control to `main()`, the value of `square` has been changed, as evidenced by the screen shot in Figure 7.8. If you'd like to give this code a try, you'll find it in the `Learn C Projects` directory, inside the `07.02 - squareIt` subdirectory. We'll see lots more pointer-wielding examples throughout the rest of the book.

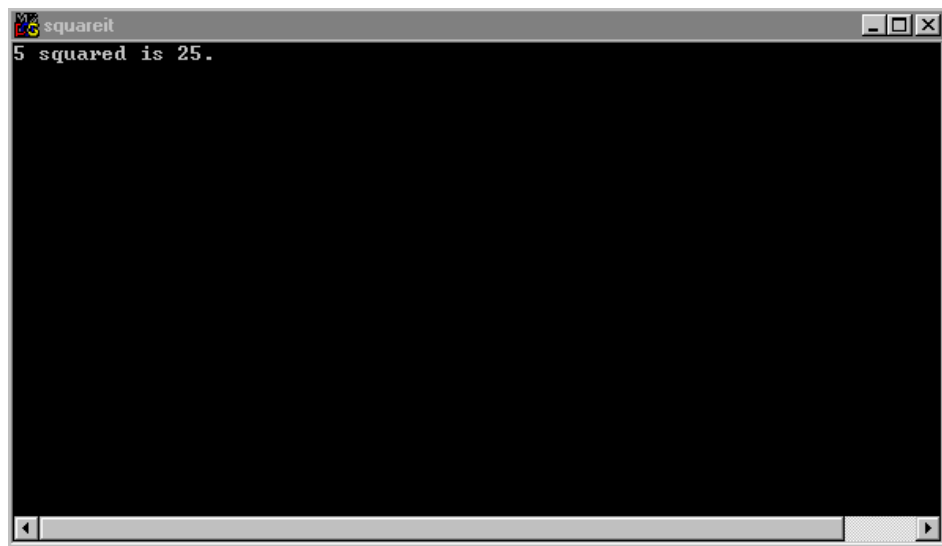


Figure 7.8 `squareIt` in action.

Global Variables and Function Returns

The combination of pointers and parameters gives us one way to share variables between different functions. This section demonstrates two more techniques for doing the same.

Global variables are variables that are accessible from inside every function in your program. By declaring a global variable, two separate functions can access the same variable without passing parameters. We'll show you how to declare a global variable, then talk about when and when not to use global variables in your programs.

Another topic we'll discuss later in the chapter is a property common to all functions. All functions written in C have the ability to **return** a value to the function that calls them. You set this return value inside the function. You can use a function's return value in place of a parameter, use it to pass "additional information" to the calling function, or not use it at all. We'll show you how to add a return value to your functions.

Global Variables

Earlier in the chapter, you learned how to use parameters to share variables between two functions. Passing parameters between functions is great. You can call a function and pass it some data to work on; when the function's done, it can pass you back the results.

Global variables provide an alternative to parameters. Global variables are just like regular variables, with one exception. Global variables are immune to C's scope rules. They can be referenced inside each of your program's functions. One function might initialize the global variable, another might change its value, and another function might print the value of the global variable in the console window.

As you design your programs, you'll have to make some basic decisions about data sharing between functions. If you'll be sharing a variable among a number of functions, you might want to consider making the variable a global. Globals are especially useful when you want to share a variable between two functions that are several calls apart.

Pointers and Parameters

Global Variables and Function Returns

Several calls apart? At times, you'll find yourself passing a parameter to a function not because that function needs the parameter but because the function calls another function that needs the parameter. Look at this code:

```
#include <stdio.h>

void PassAlong( int myVar );
void PrintMyVar( int myVar );

int main( void )
{
    int myVar;

    myVar = 10;

    PassAlong( myVar );

    return 0;
}

void PassAlong( int myVar )
{
    PrintMyVar( myVar );
}

void PrintMyVar( int myVar )
{
    printf( "myVar = %d", myVar );
}
```

Notice that `main()` passes `myVar` to the function `PassAlong()`. `PassAlong()` doesn't make use of `myVar` but instead just passes `myVar` along to the function `PrintMyVar()`. `PrintMyVar()` prints `myVar`, then returns.

If `myVar` were a global, you could have avoided some parameter passing. In that case, `main()` and `PrintMyVar()` could have

shared `myVar` without the use of parameters. When should you use parameters? When should you use globals? There's no easy answer. As you write more code, you'll develop your own coding style and, with it, your own sense of when to use globals versus parameters. For the moment, let's take a look at the proper way to add globals to your programs.

Adding Globals to Your Programs

Adding globals to your programs is easy. Just declare a variable at the beginning of your source code, before the start of any of your functions. Here's the example we showed you earlier, using globals in place of parameters:

```
#include <stdio.h>

void PassAlong( void );
void PrintMyVar( void );

int gMyVar;

int main( void )
{
    gMyVar = 10;

    PassAlong();

    return 0;
}

void PassAlong( void )
{
    PrintMyVar();
}

void PrintMyVar( void )
{
    printf( "gMyVar = %d", gMyVar );
}
```

Pointers and Parameters

Global Variables and Function Returns

This example starts with a variable declaration, right at the top of the program. Because `gMyVar` was declared at the top of the program, `gMyVar` becomes a global variable, accessible to each of the program's functions. Notice that none of the functions in this version use parameters. As a reminder, when a function is declared without parameters, use the keyword `void` in place of a parameter list.

When to Use Globals

In general, you should try to minimize your use of globals. On the one hand, global variables make programming easier, because you can access a global anywhere. With parameters, you have to pass the parameter from function to function, until it gets to where it will be used.

On the other hand, globals are expensive, memorywise. Since the memory available to your program is finite, you should try to be memory conscious whenever possible. What makes global variables expensive where memory is concerned? Whenever a function is called, memory for the function's variables is allocated on a temporary basis. When the function exits, the memory allocated to the function is freed up (put back into the pool of available memory). Global variables, on the other hand, are around for the life of your program. Memory for each global is allocated when the program first starts running and isn't freed up until the program exits.

Try to minimize your use of globals, but don't be a miser. If using a global will make your life easier, go ahead and use it.

Function Returns

Before we get to our source code examples, there's one more subject to cover. In addition to passing a parameter and using a global variable, there's one more way to share data between two functions. Every function returns a value to the function that called it. You can use this return value to pass data back from a called function.

So far, all of our examples have ignored **function return values**. The return value comes into play only when you call a function in an expression, like this:

```
int main( void )
{
    int sum;

    sum = AddTheseNumbers( 5, 6 );

    printf( "The sum is %d.", sum );

    return 0;
}

int AddTheseNumbers( int num1, int num2 )
{
    return( num1 + num2 );
}
```

There are a few things worth noting in this example. First, take a look at the function specifier for `AddTheseNumbers()`. So far in this book, every single function other than `main()` has been declared by using the keyword `void`. `AddTheseNumbers()`, like `main()`, starts with the keyword `int`. This keyword tells you the type returned by this function. A function declared with the `void` keyword doesn't return a value. A function declared with the `int` keyword returns a value of type `int`.

A function returns a value by using the `return` keyword, followed by an expression that represents the value you want returned. For example, take a look at this line of code from `AddTheseNumbers()`:

```
return( num1 + num2 );
```

This line of code adds the two variables `num1` and `num2`, then returns the sum. To understand what that means, take a look at this line of code, which calls `AddTheseNumbers()` from `main()`:

```
sum = AddTheseNumbers( 5, 6 );
```


Pointers and Parameters

Global Variables and Function Returns

This line of code first calls `AddTheseNumbers()`, passing in values of 5 and 6 as parameters. `AddTheseNumbers()` adds these numbers and returns the value 11, which is then assigned to the variable `sum`.

When you use a function inside an expression, the computer makes the function call, then substitutes the function's return value for the function when it evaluates the rest of the expression.

There are several ways to use `return`. To exit a function immediately, without establishing a return value, you could use this statement:

```
return;
```

You could also use this statement:

```
return();
```

The parentheses in a `return` statement are optional. You'd use the plain `return`, without an expression, to return from a function of type `void`. You might use this immediate `return` in case of an error, like this:

```
if ( OutOfMemory() )  
    return;
```

What you'll want to remember about this form of `return` is that it does not establish the return value of the function. This works fine if your function is declared `void`:

```
void MyVoidFunction( int myParam );
```

But it won't cut it if your function is declared to return a value:

```
int AddTheseNumbers( int num1, int num2 )
```

By the Way

If you forget to specify a return value, some compilers will say nothing, some will print warnings, and others will report errors.

`AddTheseNumbers()` is declared to return a value of type `int`. Here are two versions of the `AddTheseNumbers()` return statement:

```
return( num1 + num2 );
```

```
return num1 + num2;
```

Notice that the second version did not include any parentheses. Since `return` is a keyword and not a function call, either of these forms is fine.

You can find a version of this program on your hard drive. Look in the directory `Learn C Projects` in the subdirectory `07.03 - addThese`. Figure 7.9 shows the output of this program.

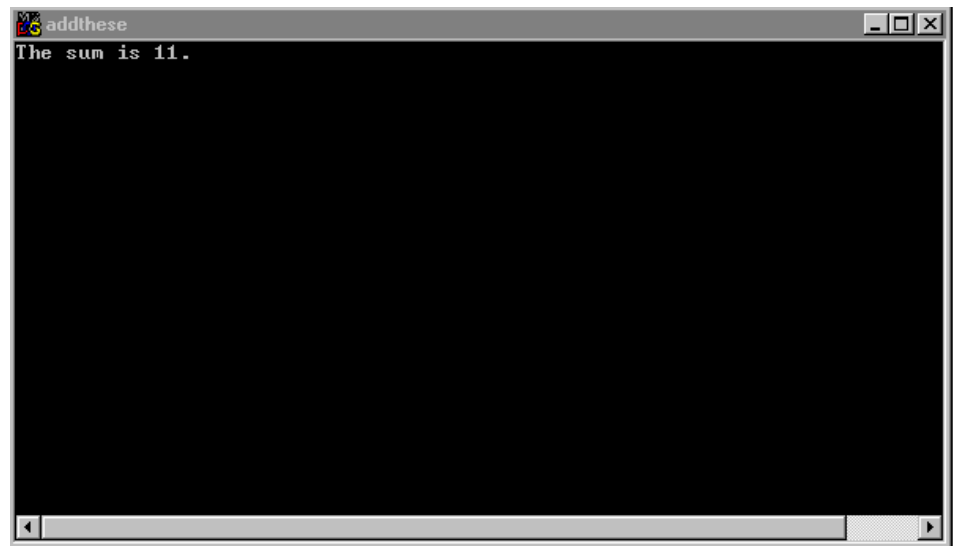


Figure 7.9 `addThese` in action.

Pointers and Parameters

Global Variables and Function Returns

Danger! Avoid Uninitialized Return Values!

Before we leave the topic of function return values, there's one pitfall worth mentioning. If you're going to use a function in an expression, make sure that the function provides a return value. For example, this code will produce unpredictable results:

```
int main( void )
{
    int sum;

    sum = AddTheseNumbers( 5, 6 );

    printf( "The sum is %d.", sum );

    return 0;
}

int AddTheseNumbers( int num1, int num2 )
{
    return; /* Yikes! We forgot to
            set the return value */
}
```

When `AddTheseNumbers()` returns, what will its value be? No one knows! Figure 7.10 shows one possibility. As you can see, the computer used 0 as the return value for `AddTheseNumbers()`. Don't forget to set a return value if you intend to use a function in an expression.

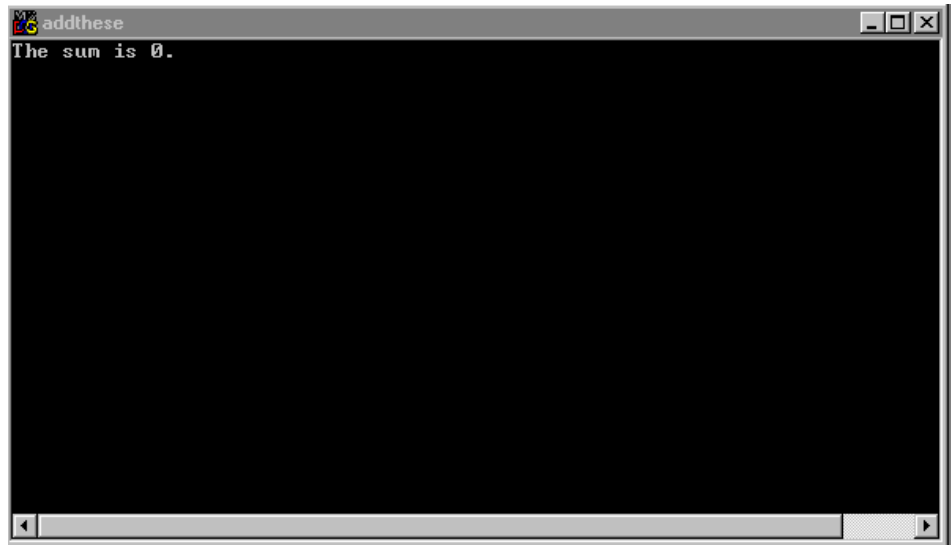


Figure 7.10 Yikes! The sum of 5 + 6 is not equal to 0. Someone forgot to set the return value.

To Return or Not to Return

Should you use a return value or a passed-by-address parameter? Which is correct? This is basically a question of style. Either solution will get the job done, so feel free to use whichever works best for you. Just remember that a function can have only one return value but an unlimited number of parameters. If you need to get more than one piece of data back to the calling function, your best bet is to use parameters.

The function `AddTheseNumbers ()` was a natural fit for the `return` statement. It took in a pair of numbers (the input parameters) and needed to return the sum of those numbers. Since it needed to return only a single value, the `return` statement worked perfectly.

Another nice thing about using the `return` statement is that it frequently allows us to avoid declaring an extra variable. In `addThese`, we declared `sum` to receive the value returned by `AddTheseNumbers ()`. Since all we did with `sum` was print its

Pointers and Parameters

More Sample Programs

value, we could have accomplished the same thing with this version of `main()`:

```
int main( void )
{
    printf( "The sum is %d.",
           AddTheseNumbers( 5, 6 ) );

    return 0;
}
```

See the difference? We included the call to `AddTheseNumbers()` in the `printf()`, bypassing `sum` entirely. When `AddTheseNumbers()` returns its `int`, that value is passed on to `printf()`.

More Sample Programs

Are you ready for some more code? The next few sample programs use pointers, function parameters, global variables, and function returns. Crank up the stereo, break out the pizza, and fire up your PC. Let's code!

listPrimes.cwp

Our next sample program is an updated version of `nextPrime`, the Chapter 6 program that found the next prime number following a specified number. The example we presented reported that the next prime number after 19 was 23.

This version of the program, called `listPrimes.cwp`, uses a function named `IsItPrime()` and lists all the prime numbers between 1 and 50. Open up the project `listPrimes.cwp`. You'll find the program in the `Learn C Projects` directory, inside the subdirectory named `07.04 - listPrimes`. Run `listPrimes` and then compare your results with the console window shown in Figure 7.11.

Stepping Through the Source Code

The `listPrimes.c` source code consists of two functions: `main()` and `IsItPrime()`. `IsItPrime()` takes a single parameter, an `int` named `candidate`, which is passed by value. `IsItPrime()` returns a value of `true` if `candidate` is a prime number and a value of `false` otherwise.

The program starts off with two `#includes`: `stdio.h` gives us access to the function prototype of `printf()`, and `math.h` gives us access to the function prototype for `sqrt()`:

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

Then we define the constants `true` and `false`. (Remember, we'll discuss `#define` later.)

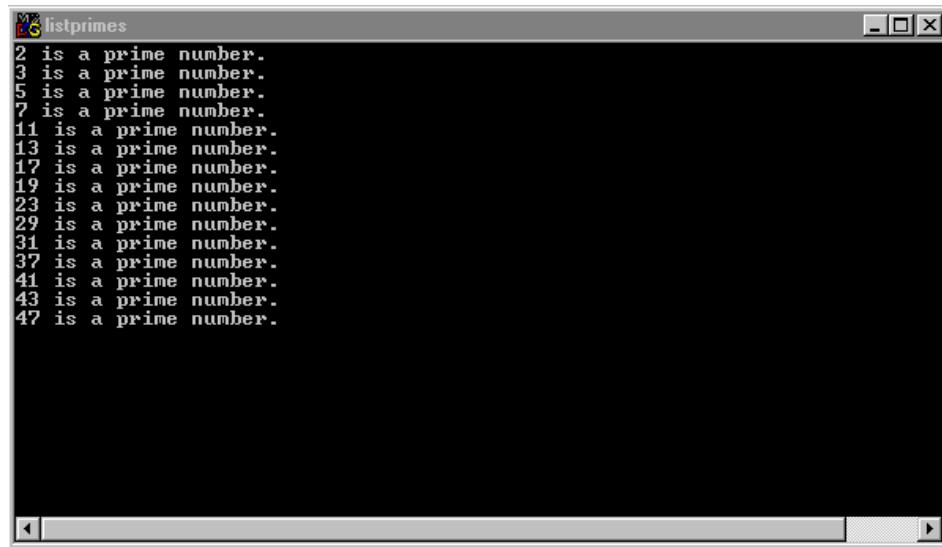
```
#define true    1
#define false   0
```

Next comes the function prototype for `IsItPrime()`. The compiler will use this function prototype to make sure that all calls to `IsItPrime()` pass the right number of parameters (in this case, 1) and that the parameters are of the correct type (in this case, a single `int`).

```
/* ***** */
/* Function Prototypes */
/* ***** */
int IsItPrime( int candidate );
```

Pointers and Parameters

More Sample Programs



```
listprimes
2 is a prime number.
3 is a prime number.
5 is a prime number.
7 is a prime number.
11 is a prime number.
13 is a prime number.
17 is a prime number.
19 is a prime number.
23 is a prime number.
29 is a prime number.
31 is a prime number.
37 is a prime number.
41 is a prime number.
43 is a prime number.
47 is a prime number.
```

Figure 7.11 listPrimes in action.

The `main()` function defines a single variable, an `int` named `i`. We'll use `i` as a counter to step through the integers from 1 to 50. We'll pass each number to `IsItPrime()`. If the result is `true`, we'll report the number as prime:

```
int main( void )
{
    int i;

    for ( i = 1; i <= 50; i++ )
    {
        if ( IsItPrime( i ) )
            printf( "%d is a prime number.\n", i );
    }

    return 0;
}
```

By the Way

As usual, `main()` ends with a `return` statement. By convention, returning a value of 0 tells the outside world that everything ran just hunky-dory. If something goes wrong (if we ran out of memory, perhaps), the same convention calls for us to return a negative number from `main()`. Some operating systems will make use of this return value, and others won't. It doesn't cost you anything to follow the convention, so go ahead and follow it.

`IsItPrime()` first checks to see whether the number passed in is less than 2. If it is, `IsItPrime()` returns `false`, since 2 is the first prime number:

```
int IsItPrime( int candidate )
{
    int i, last;

    if ( candidate < 2 )
        return false;
```

If `candidate` has a value of 2 or greater, we'll step through all the numbers between 2 and the square root of `candidate`, looking for a factor. If this algorithm is new to you, go back to the previous chapter and check out the program `nextPrime`. If we find a factor, we know that the number isn't prime, and we'll return `false`:

```
    else
    {
        last = sqrt( candidate );

        for ( i = 2; i <= last; i++ )
        {
            if ( (candidate % i) == 0 )
                return false;
        }
    }
}
```


Pointers and Parameters

More Sample Programs

If we get through the loop without finding a factor, we know that `candidate` is prime, and we return `true`:

```
    return true;
}
```

By the Way

If `candidate` is equal to 2, `last` will be equal to 1.414, which will get truncated to 1, since `last` is an `int`. If `last` is 1, the `for` loop won't even get through one iteration and will fall through to the statement:

```
return true;
```

The same thing happens if `candidate` is 3. Since 2 and 3 are both prime, this works just fine. On the other hand, this little example shows you how careful you have to be to check your code, to make sure it works in all cases.

Consider the function name `IsItPrime()`. In C, when you name a function in the form of a `true` or `false` question, it is good form to return a value of `true` or `false`. The question this function answers is, Is the candidate prime? It is critical that `IsItPrime()` return `true` if the candidate was prime and `false` otherwise. When `main()` calls `IsItPrime()`, `main()` is asking the question, Is the candidate prime? In the case of the `if` statement, `main()` is saying, If `i` is prime, do the `printf()`:

```
if ( IsItPrime( i ) )
    printf( ... );
```

Make sure that your function return values make sense!

power.cwp

Our next program combines a global variable, a pointer parameter, and some value parameters. At the heart of the program is a function, called `DoPower()`, that takes three parameters. `DoPower()` takes a base and an exponent, raises the base to the exponent power, and returns the result in a parameter. Raising a base to an exponent power is the same as multiplying the base by itself, an exponent number of times.

For example, raising 2 to the fifth power (written as 2^5) is the same as saying $2*2*2*2*2$, which is equal to 32. In the expression 2^5 , 2 is the base and 5 is the exponent. The function `DoPower()` takes a base and an exponent as parameters and raises the base to the exponent power. `DoPower()` uses a third parameter to return the result to the calling function.

The program also uses a global variable, an `int` named `gPrintTraceInfo`, which demonstrates one of the most important uses of a global variable. Every function in the program checks the value of the global `gPrintTraceInfo`. If `gPrintTraceInfo` is `true`, each function prints a message when the function is entered and another message when the function exits. In this way, you can **trace** the execution of the program. By reading each `printf()`, you can see when a function is entered and when it leaves.

If `gPrintTraceInfo` is set to `true`, the extra function-tracing information will be printed in the console window. If `gPrintTraceInfo` is set to `false`, the extra information will not be printed. As you'll see in a moment, by simply changing the value of a global, you can dramatically change the way your program runs.

Running power.cwp

You'll find `power.cwp` in the `Learn C Projects` directory, in the `07.05 - power` subdirectory. Run `power.cwp` and compare your results with the console window shown in Figure 7.12. This output was produced by three consecutive calls to the function `DoPower()`. The three calls calculated the result of the expressions 2^5 , 3^4 , and 5^3 . Here's how the program works.

Pointers and Parameters

More Sample Programs

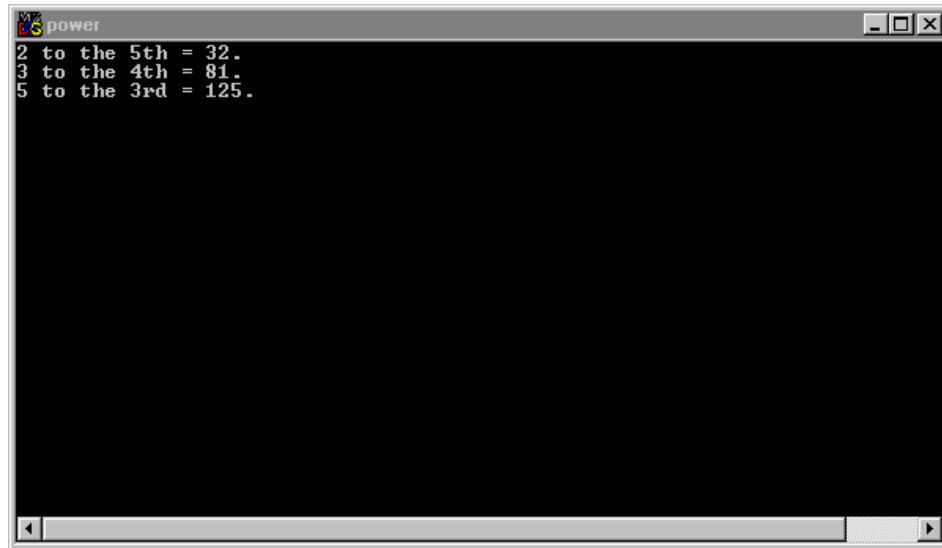


Figure 7.12 power output, with `gPrintTraceInfo` set to `false`.

Stepping Through the Source Code

The program starts with a standard `#include`, the definition of the constants `true` and `false`, and the function prototype for `DoPower()`. Notice that `DoPower()` is declared to be of type `void`, telling you that `DoPower()` doesn't return a value. As you read through the code, think about how you might rewrite `DoPower()` to return its result by using the `return` statement instead of in a parameter.

```
#include <stdio.h>  
  
#define true 1  
#define false 0  
  
/*****  
/* Function Prototypes */  
*****/
```

```
void DoPower( int *resultPtr, int base, int
              exponent );
```

Next comes the declaration of our global, `gPrintTraceInfo`. Once again, notice that the global starts with a `g`:

```
/* **** */
/* Globals */
/* **** */
int      gPrintTraceInfo;
```

Next, `main()` starts off by setting `gPrintTraceInfo` to `false`. We then check to see whether tracing is turned on. If so, we'll print a message telling us we've entered `main()`:

```
int main( void )
{
    int power;

    gPrintTraceInfo = false;

    if ( gPrintTraceInfo )
        printf( "---> Starting main()...\n" );
```

By the Way

C guarantees that it will initialize all global variables to zero. Since `false` is equivalent to zero, we could have avoided setting `gPrintTraceInfo` to `false`, but it does make the code a little clearer.

Here are our three calls to `DoPower()`, each of which is followed by a `printf()` reporting our results. If `DoPower()` returned its results in a return statement, we could have eliminated the variable `power` and embedded the call to `DoPower()` inside the `printf()` in place of `power`.

Pointers and Parameters

More Sample Programs

```
DoPower( &power, 2, 5 );
printf( "2 to the 5th = %d.\n", power );

DoPower( &power, 3, 4 );
printf( "3 to the 4th = %d.\n", power );

DoPower( &power, 5, 3 );
printf( "5 to the 3rd = %d.\n", power );
```

If tracing is turned on, we'll print a message saying that we are leaving `main()`:

```
if ( gPrintTraceInfo )
    printf( "---> Leaving main()...\n" );

return 0;
}
```

The function `DoPower()` takes three parameters. We'll use `resultPtr`, a pointer to an `int`, to pass back the function results. The value parameters `base` and `exponent` represent the—guess what?—base and exponent.

```
void DoPower( int *resultPtr, int base, int
              exponent )
{
    int i;
```

Once again, check the value of `gPrintTraceInfo`. If it's true, print a message telling us that we're at the beginning of `DoPower()`. Notice the tab character (represented by the characters `\t`) at the beginning of the `printf()` quoted string. You'll see what this was for when we set `gPrintTraceInfo` to true.

```
if ( gPrintTraceInfo )
```

```
printf( "\t---> Starting DoPower()...\n" );
```

The following three lines calculate base raised to the exponent power, accumulating the results in the memory pointed to by `resultPtr`. When `main()` called `DoPower()`, it passed `&power` as its first parameter. This means that `resultPtr` contains the address of (points to) the variable `power`. Changing `*resultPtr` is exactly the same as changing `power`. When `DoPower()` returns to `main()`, the value of `power` will have been changed; `power` was passed by address (also called by reference) instead of by value.

```
*resultPtr = 1;
for ( i = 1; i <= exponent; i++ )
    *resultPtr *= base;
```

Finally, if `gPrintTraceInfo` is true, print a message telling us that we're leaving `DoPower()`:

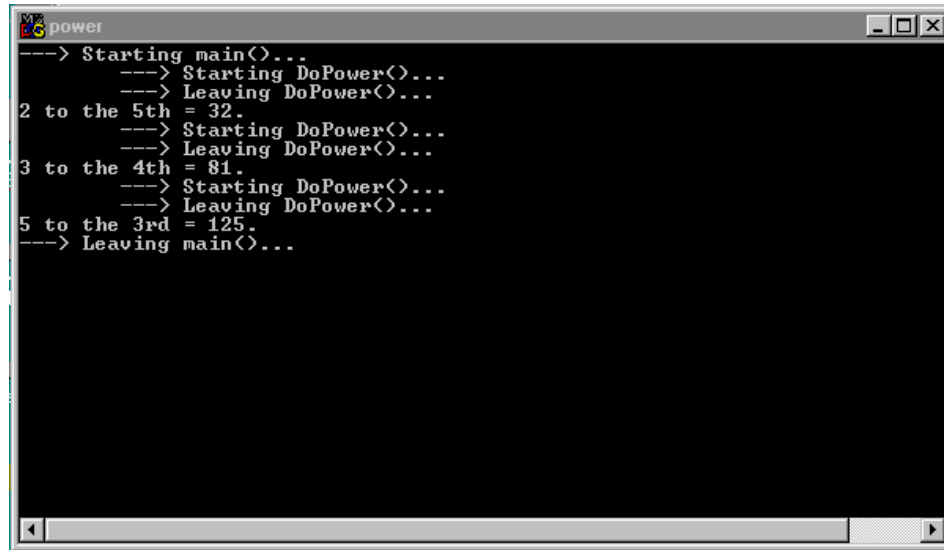
```
if ( gPrintTraceInfo )
    printf( "\t---> Leaving DoPower()...\n" );
}
```

Figure 7.13 shows the console window when `power` is run with `gPrintTraceInfo` set to true. See the trace information? Find the lines printed when you enter and exit `DoPower()`. The leading tab characters help distinguish these lines.

This tracing information was turned on and off by a single global variable. As you start writing your own programs, you'll want to develop your own set of tricks for global variables. For example, programmers who write programs that can run in color or black and white usually create a global called something like `gIsColor`. They set `gIsColor` to true or false, once they establish whether they are running in a color or a black-and-white environment. In this way, a function buried deep inside the program doesn't have to figure out whether it's running in color or in black and white. All it has to do is check the value of `gIsColor`.

Pointers and Parameters

What's Next?



```
power
---> Starting main()...
    ---> Starting DoPower()...
    ---> Leaving DoPower()...
2 to the 5th = 32.
    ---> Starting DoPower()...
    ---> Leaving DoPower()...
3 to the 4th = 81.
    ---> Starting DoPower()...
    ---> Leaving DoPower()...
5 to the 3rd = 125.
---> Leaving main()...
```

Figure 7.13 power output, with `gPrintTraceInfoSet` to true.

What's Next?

Wow! You really are becoming a C programmer. In this chapter alone, you covered pointers, function parameters (both by value and by address), global variables, and function return values.

You're starting to develop a sense of just how powerful and sophisticated the C language really is. You've built an excellent foundation. Now you're ready to take off.

Chapter 8 introduces the concept of data types. Throughout the book, you've been working with a single data type, the `int`. Chapter 8 introduces the concepts of arrays, strings, pointer arithmetic, and typed function return values. Let's go.

Exercises

1. Predict the result of each of the following code fragments:

```
a. int main( void )
   {
     int num, i;

     num = 5;

     for ( i = 0; i < 20; i++ )
       AddOne( &num );

     printf( "Final value is %d.", num );

     return 0;
   }

void AddOne( int *myVar )
{
  (*myVar) ++;
}

b. int gNumber;

int main( void )
{
  int i;
  gNumber = 2;

  for ( i = 1; i <= 2; i++ )
    gNumber *= MultiplyIt( gNumber );

  printf( "Final value is %d.", gNumber );
}

int MultiplyIt( int myVar )
{
  return( myVar * gNumber );
}
```


Pointers and Parameters

Exercises

```
c.  int gNumber;

    int main( void )
    {
        int i;
        gNumber = 1;

        for ( i = 1; i <= 10; i++ )
            gNumber = DoubleIt( gNumber );

        printf( "Final value is %d.", gNumber );
    }

    int DoubleIt( intmyVar )
    {
        return 2 * myVar;
    }
```

2. Modify `power.c`. Delete the first parameter of the function `DoPower()`, modifying the routine to return its result as a function return value instead.
3. Modify `listPrimes.c`. Instead of printing prime numbers, print only nonprime numbers. In addition, print one message for nonprimes that are multiples of 3 and a different message for nonprimes that are not multiples of 3.



Variable Data Types

OK, now we're cooking! You may now consider yourself a C Programmer, First Class. At this point, you've mastered all the basic elements of C programming. You know that C programs are made up of functions, one—and only one!—of which is named `main()`. Each of these functions uses keywords (such as `if`, `for`, and `while`), operators (such as `=`, `++`, and `*=`), and variables to manipulate the program's data.

Sometimes, you'll use a global variable to share data between functions. At other times, you'll use a parameter to share a variable between a calling and a called function. Sometimes, these parameters are passed by value; sometimes, pointers are used to pass a parameter by address. Some functions return values. Others, declared with the `void` keyword, don't return a value.

In this chapter, we'll focus on **variable types**. Each of the variables in the previous example programs has been declared as an `int`. As you'll soon see, there are many other data types out there.

Other Data Types

So far, the focus has been on `ints`, which are extremely useful when it comes to working with numbers. You can add two `ints`. You can check whether an `int` is even, odd, or prime. You can do a lot with `ints`, as long as you limit yourself to whole numbers.

By the Way

Just as a reminder, 527, 33, and -2 are all whole numbers, whereas 35.7, 92.1, and -1.2345 are not whole numbers.

What do you do if you want to work with nonwhole numbers, such as 3.14159 and -98.6? Check out this slice of code:

Variable Data Types

Other Data Types

```
int myNum;  
  
myNum = 3.5;  
printf( "myNum = %d", myNum );
```

Since `myNum` is an `int`, the number 3.5 will be truncated before it is assigned to `myNum`. When this code ends, `myNum` will be left with a value of 3 and not 3.5 as intended. Do not despair. There are several special C data types created especially for working with nonwhole, or floating-point numbers.

By the Way

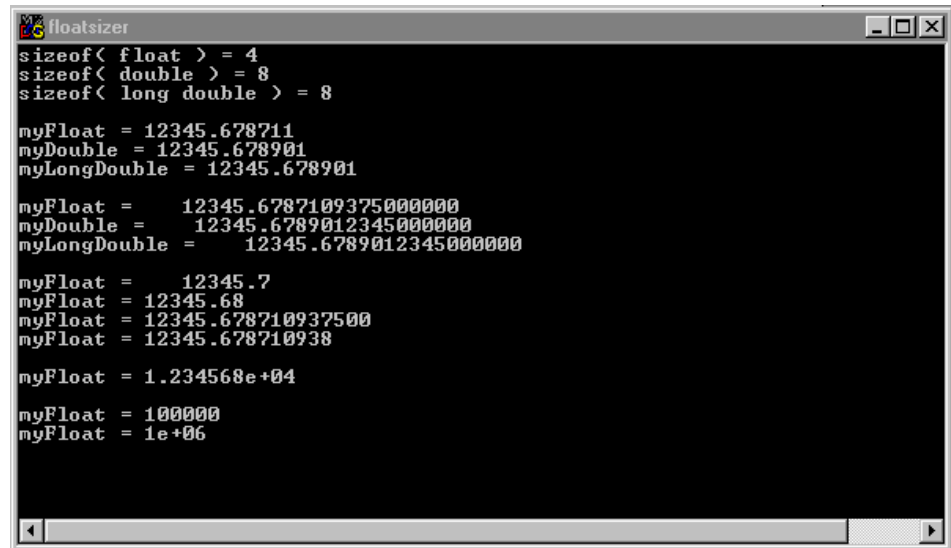
The term floating point refers to the decimal point found in all floating-point numbers.

Floating-Point Data Types

The three floating-point data types are `float`, `double`, and `long double`. These types differ in the number of bytes allocated to each and, therefore, the range of values each can hold. The relative sizes of these three types are completely implementation dependent. Here's a program you can run to tell you the size of these three types in your development environment and to show you various ways to use `printf()` to print floating-point numbers.

floatSizer

Look inside the `Learn C Projects` directory, inside the subdirectory named `08.01 - floatSizer`, and open the project named `floatSizer.cwp`. Figure 8.1 shows the results when I ran `floatSizer` on Windows using CodeWarrior. The first three lines of output tell you the size, in bytes, of the types `float`, `double`, and `long double`, respectively. If you run the same program using Microsoft Visual C++ Compiler, you'll find that a `float` is still 4 bytes long and that a `double` and a `long double` are still 8 bytes each. However, never assume that you know the size of a type. As you'll see when we go through the source code, C gives you everything you need to check the size of a specific type in your development



```
floatsizer
sizeof( float ) = 4
sizeof( double ) = 8
sizeof( long double ) = 8

myFloat = 12345.678711
myDouble = 12345.678901
myLongDouble = 12345.678901

myFloat = 12345.6787109375000000
myDouble = 12345.6789012345000000
myLongDouble = 12345.6789012345000000

myFloat = 12345.7
myFloat = 12345.68
myFloat = 12345.678710937500
myFloat = 12345.678710938

myFloat = 1.234568e+04

myFloat = 100000
myFloat = 1e+06
```

Figure 8.1 The output from `floatSizer`

environment. If you need to be sure of a type's size, write a program and check the size for yourself.

Stepping Through the Source Code

The code starts with the standard `#include`:

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

Then `main()` defines three variables: a float, a double, and a long double:

```
int main( void )
{
    float        myFloat;
    double       myDouble;
    long double  myLongDouble;
```

Variable Data Types

Other Data Types

Next, we'll assign a value to each of the three variables. Notice that we've assigned the same number to each:

```
myFloat = 12345.67890123456789;  
myDouble = 12345.67890123456789;  
myLongDouble = 12345.67890123456789;
```

Now comes the fun part. We'll start by using C's `sizeof` operator to print the size of each of the three floating-point types. Even though `sizeof` doesn't look like the other operators we've seen (+, *, <<, and so on), it is indeed an operator. Stranger yet, `sizeof` requires a pair of parentheses surrounding a single parameter, much like a function. The parameter is either a type or a variable; `sizeof()` returns the size, in bytes, of its parameter.

By the Way

Like `return`, `sizeof` doesn't always require a pair of parentheses. If the `sizeof` operand is a type, the parentheses are required. If the `sizeof` operand is a variable, the parentheses are optional. Rather than trying to remember this rule, avoid confusion and always use parentheses with `sizeof`.

Did you notice the `(int)` to the left of each `sizeof`? This is known as a **typecast**. A typecast tells the compiler to convert a value of one type to a specified type. In this case, we are taking the type returned by `sizeof` and converting it to an `int`. Why do this? The reason is that `sizeof` returns a value of type `size_t` (weird type name, eh?), and `printf()` doesn't have a format specifier that corresponds to a `size_t`. By converting the `size_t` to an `int`, we can use the format specifier `%d` to print the value returned by `sizeof`. Notice the extra `\n` at the end of the third `printf()`, which gives us a blank line between the first three lines of output and the next line of output:

```
printf( "sizeof( float ) = %d\n", (int)sizeof  
    ( float ) );  
printf( "sizeof( double ) = %d\n", (int)sizeof  
    ( double ) );
```

```
printf( "sizeof( long double ) = %d\n\n",  
      (int)sizeof( long double ) );
```

Important

If the concept of typecasting is confusing to you, have no fear. We'll get into typecasting in Chapter 11. Until then, you can use this method whenever you want to print the value returned by `sizeof`. Alternatively, you might declare a variable of type `int`, assign the value returned by `sizeof` to the `int`, and then print the `int`:

```
int          myInt;  
  
myInt = sizeof( float );  
printf( "sizeof( float ) = %d\n", myInt );
```

Use whichever method works for you.

The rest of this program is dedicated to various and sundry ways you can print your floating-point numbers. So far, all of our programs have printed `ints` using the format specifier `%d`. The Standard Library has a set of format specifiers for all of C's built-in data types, including several for printing floating-point numbers.

First, we'll use the format specifier `%f` to print our three floating-point numbers in their natural, decimal format:

```
printf( "myFloat = %f\n", myFloat );  
printf( "myDouble = %f\n", myDouble );  
printf( "myLongDouble = %f\n\n", myLongDouble );
```

Here's the result:

```
myFloat = 12345.678711  
myDouble = 12345.678901  
myLongDouble = 12345.678901
```

Variable Data Types

Other Data Types

As a reminder, all three of these numbers were assigned the value:

```
12345.67890123456789
```

Hmmm . . . none of the numbers we printed matches this number. And the first number we printed is different from the second and third numbers. What gives? There are several problems here. As we've already seen, this development environment uses 4 bytes for a `float` and 8 bytes each for a `double` and a `long double`. This means that the number:

```
12345.67890123456789
```

can be represented more accurately using a `double` or a `long double` than it can be using a `float`. In addition, we are printing using the default precision of the `%f` format specifier. In this case, we are printing only six places past the decimal point. Although this might be plenty of precision for most applications, we'd like to see how accurate we can get.

We then use **format specifier modifiers** to more closely specify the output produced by each `printf()`. By using `%25.16f` instead of `%f`, we tell `printf()` to print the floating-point number with an accuracy of 16 places past the decimal and to add spaces if necessary so the number takes up at least 25 character positions:

```
printf( "myFloat = %25.16f\n", myFloat );
printf( "myDouble = %25.16f\n", myDouble );
printf( "myLongDouble = %25.16f\n\n",
        myLongDouble );
```

Here's the result:

```
myFloat =      12345.6787109375000000
myDouble =     12345.6789012345678900
myLongDouble = 12345.6789012345678900
```

As requested, `printf()` printed each of these numbers to 16 places past the decimal place (count the digits yourself), padding each result with zeros as needed. Since adding the 16 digits to the right of the decimal, plus 1 space for the decimal, plus 5 for the 5 digits to the left of the decimal equals 22 ($16+1+5=22$) and we asked `printf()` to use 25 character positions, `printf()` added 3 spaces to the left of the number.

By the Way

We originally asked `printf()` to print a `float` with a value of:

```
12345.67890123456789
```

The best approximation of this number we were able to represent by a `float` is:

```
12345.6787109375000000
```

Where did this approximation come from? The answer has to do with the way your computer stores floating-point numbers.

The fractional part of a number (the number to the right of the decimal) is represented in binary just like an integer. Instead of the sum of powers of 2, the fractional part is represented as the sum of powers of $1/2$. For example, the number 0.75 is equal to $1/2 + 1/4$. In binary, that's 11.

The problem with this representation is that it's impossible to represent some numbers with complete accuracy. If you need a higher degree of accuracy, use `double` or a `long double` instead of `float`. Unless you cannot afford the extra memory that the larger data types require, you are probably better off using a `double` or a `long double` in your programs instead of a `float` for all your floating-point calculations.

The next portion of code shows you the result of using different modifier values to print the same `float`:

Variable Data Types

Other Data Types

```
printf( "myFloat = %10.1f\n", myFloat );
printf( "myFloat = %.2f\n", myFloat );
printf( "myFloat = %.12f\n", myFloat );
printf( "myFloat = %.9f\n\n", myFloat );
```

Here's the output produced by each `printf()`:

```
myFloat =      12345.7
myFloat = 12345.68
myFloat = 12345.678710937500
myFloat = 12345.678710938
```

The specifier `%10.1f` told `printf()` to print 1 digit past the decimal and to use 10 character positions for the entire number. The specifier `%.2f` told `printf()` to print 2 digits past the decimal and to use as many character positions as necessary to print the entire number. Notice that `printf()` rounds off the result for you and doesn't simply cut off the number after the specified number of places.

The specifier `%.12f` told `printf()` to print 12 digits past the decimal, and the specifier `%.9f` told `printf()` to print 9 digits past the decimal. Again, notice the rounding that takes place.

By the Way

Unless you need to exactly control the total number of characters used to print a number, you'll probably leave off the first modifier and just specify the number of digits past the decimal you want printed, using specifiers such as `%.2f` and `%.9f`.

If you do use a two-part modifier, such as `%3.2f`, `printf()` will never cut off numbers to the left of the decimal. For example, the output `myFloat = 255.54` will be produced by the following code:

```
myFloat = 255.543;
printf( "myFloat = %3.2f", myFloat );
```

Even though you told `printf()` to use three character positions to print the number, `printf()` was smart enough to not lose the numbers to the left of the decimal.

The next `printf()` uses the specifier `%e`, asking `printf()` to print the float using **scientific**, or **exponential notation**:

```
printf( "myFloat = %e\n\n", myFloat );
```

Here's the corresponding output:

```
myFloat = 1.234568e+04
```

The result, `1.234568e+04` is equal to 1.234568 times 10 to the fourth power, or 1.234568×10^4 , or $1.234568 * 10000 == 12,345.68$.

The next two `printf()` calls use the specifier `%g`, letting `printf()` decide whether decimal or scientific notation will be the most efficient way to represent this number. The first `%g` deals with a `myFloat` value of 100,000:

```
myFloat = 100000;  
printf( "myFloat = %g\n", myFloat );
```

Here's the output:

```
myFloat = 100000
```

Next, the value of `myFloat` is changed to 1,000,000, and `%g` is used once again:

```
myFloat = 1000000;  
printf( "myFloat = %g\n", myFloat );
```

Variable Data Types

Other Data Types

```
    return 0;
}
```

Here's the result of this last `printf()`. As you can see, this time `printf()` decided to represent the number using exponential notation:

```
myFloat = 1e+06
```

The lesson here is: Use `float` if you want to work with floating-point numbers. Use `double` or `long double` for extra accuracy, but beware the extra cost in memory usage. Use `int` for maximum speed, if you want to work exclusively with whole numbers, or if you want to truncate a result.

The Integer Types

So far, you've learned about four types: three floating-point types (`float`, `double`, and `long double`) and one integer type (`int`). In this section, we'll introduce the remaining integer types: `char`, `short`, and `long`. As was the case with the three floating-point types, the size of each of the four integer types is implementation dependent. Our next program, `intSizer` proves that point. You'll find `intSizer`, in the `Learn C Projects` directory, in the `08.02 - intSizer` subdirectory.

Important

Although these forms are rarely used, a `short` is also known as a `short int`, and a `long` is also known as a `long int`. As an example, these declarations are perfectly legal:

```
short int    myShort;
long int     myLong;
```

Although the preceding declarations are just fine, you are more likely to encounter declarations like these:

```
short        myShort;
```

```
long          myLong;
```

As always, choose your favorite style and be consistent.

The `intSizer` program contains one `printf()` for each integer type:

```
printf( "sizeof( char ) = %d\n", (int)sizeof
( char ) );
printf( "sizeof( short ) = %d\n", (int)sizeof
( short ) );
printf( "sizeof( int ) = %d\n", (int)sizeof
( int ) );
printf( "sizeof( long ) = %d\n", (int)sizeof
( long ) );
```

Like their `floatSizer` counterparts, these `printf()` calls use `sizeof` to determine the size of a `char`, a `short`, an `int`, and a `long`. When `intSizer` was compiled using `CodeWarrior`, here's what came back:

```
sizeof( char ) = 1
sizeof( short ) = 2
sizeof( int ) = 4
sizeof( long ) = 4
```

Again, the point to remember is: There are *no* guarantees. Don't assume that you know the size of a type. Write a program and check for yourself.

Type Value Ranges

All the integer types can be either signed or unsigned. This obviously affects the range of values handled by that type. For example, a signed 1-byte `char` can store a value from -128 to 127, and an unsigned 1-byte `char` can store a value from 0 to 255. If this clouds your mind with pain, now might be a good time to go back and re-view Chapter 5.

Variable Data Types

Other Data Types

A signed 2-byte `short` or `int` can store values ranging from -32768 to 32767 . An unsigned 2-byte `short` or `int` can store values ranging from 0 to 65535.

A signed 4-byte `long` or `int` can store values ranging from $-2,147,483,648$ to $2,147,483,647$. An unsigned 4-byte `long` or `int` can store values ranging from 0 to 4,294,967,295.

A 4-byte `float` can range in value from $-3.4e+38$ to $3.4e+38$. An 8-byte `double` or `long double` can range in value from $-1.7e+308$ to $1.7e+308$.

Memory Efficiency Versus Safety

Each time you declare one of your program's variables, you'll have a decision to make. What's the best type for this variable? In general, it's a good policy not to waste memory. Why use a `long` when a `short` will do just fine? Why use a `double` when a `float` will do the trick?

There is a danger in being *too* concerned with memory efficiency, however. For example, suppose that a customer asked you to write a program designed to print the numbers 1 through 100, one number per line. Sounds pretty straightforward. Just create a `for` loop and embed a `printf()` in the loop. In the interests of memory efficiency, you might use a `char` to act as the loop's counter. After all, if you declare your counter as an `unsigned char`, it can hold values ranging from 0 to 255. That should be plenty, right?

```
unsigned char counter;

for ( counter=1; counter<=100; counter++ )
    printf( "%d\n", counter );
```

This program works just fine. But suppose that your customer then asks you to extend the program to count from 1 to 1000 instead of just to 100. You happily change the 100 to 1000 like so:

```
unsigned char counter;

for ( counter=1; counter<=1000; counter++ )
```

```
printf( "%d\n", counter );
```

What do you think will happen when you run the program? To find out, open the `Learn C Projects` directory, open the `08.03 - typeOverflow` subdirectory, and open and run the project `typeOverflow.cwp`.

Keep an eye on the numbers as they scroll by on the screen. When the number 255 appears, a funny thing happens. The next number will be 0, then 1, 2, and so on. If you leave the program running for a while, it will climb back up to 255, then jump to 0 and climb back up again. This will continue forever. Type Control C to quit the program.

The problem with this program occurs when the `for` loop increments `counter` when it has a value of 255. Since an unsigned `char` can hold a maximum value of 255, incrementing it gives it a value of 0 again. Since `counter` can never get higher than 255, the `for` loop never exits.

Just for kicks, edit the code and change the unsigned `char` to a signed `char`. What do you think will happen? Try it!

The real solution here is to use a `short`, `int`, or `long` instead of a `char`. Don't be stingy. Unless there is a real reason to worry about memory usage, err on the side of extravagance. Err on the side of safety!

Working with Characters

With its minimal range, you might think that a `char` isn't good for much. Actually, the C deities created the `char` for a good reason. It is the perfect size to hold a single alphabetic character. In C, an alphabetic character is a single character placed between a pair of single quotes ('). Here's a test to see whether a `char` variable contains the letter `'a'`:

```
char c;
```

```
c = 'a';
```

Variable Data Types

Working with Characters

```
if ( c == 'a' )
    printf( "The variable c holds the character
           'a'." );
```

As you can see, the character `'a'` is used in both an assignment statement and an `if` statement, just as if it were a number or a variable.

The ASCII Character Set

In C, a signed `char` takes up a single byte and can hold a value from -128 to 127. How can a `char` hold a numerical value, as well as a character value, such as `'a'` or `'+'`? The answer lies with the **ASCII character set**. The ASCII (American Standard Code for Information Interchange) character set of 128 standard characters features the 26 lowercase letters, the 26 uppercase letters, the 10 numerical digits, and an assortment of other exciting characters, such as `}` and `=`. Each of these characters corresponds exactly to a value between 0 and 127. The ASCII character set ignores the values between -128 and -1.

For example, the character `'a'` has an ASCII value of 97. When a C compiler sees the character `'a'` in a piece of source code, it substitutes the value 97. Each of the values from 0 to 127 is interchangeable with a character from the ASCII character set.

Warning

Although we use the ASCII character set throughout this book, you should know that there are other character sets out there. Another commonly used character set is the EBCDIC character set. Each EBCDIC character, like an ASCII character, has a value between 0 and 127 and, therefore, fits nicely inside a `char`.

Some foreign alphabets have more characters than can be represented by a single byte. To accommodate these multibyte characters, ISO C features **wide-character** and **wide-string data types**.

Although we won't get into EBCDIC and multibyte character sets in

this book, you should keep these things in mind as you write your own code. Read up on the multibyte extensions introduced as part of the ISO C standard. There's an excellent writeup in Harbison and Steele's *C: A Reference Manual* (see the bibliography at the back of this book).

ascii.cwp

Here's a program that will make the ASCII character set easier to understand. Go into the `Learn C Projects` directory, then into the `08.04 - ascii` subdirectory, and open the project `ascii.cwp`.

Before we step through the project source code, let's take it for a spin. Select `Run` from the `Project` menu. A console window similar to the one in Figure 8.2 should appear. The first line of output shows the characters corresponding to the ASCII values from 32 to 47. Why start with 32? As it turns out, the ASCII characters between 0 and 31 are nonprintable characters, such as the backspace (ASCII 8) or the carriage return (ASCII 13). A table of the nonprintable ASCII characters is presented later on.

Notice that ASCII character 32 is a space, or `' '`. ASCII character 33 is `'!'`. ASCII character 47 is `'/'`. This presents some interesting coding possibilities. For example, this code is perfectly legitimate:

```
int sumOfChars;  
  
sumOfChars = '! ' + '/ ';
```

What a strange piece of code! Although you will probably never do anything like this, try to predict the value of the variable `sumOfChars` after the assignment statement. And the answer is . . .

The character `'!'` has a value of 33, and the character `'/'` has a value of 47. Therefore, `sumOfChars` will be left with a value of 80 following the assignment statement. C allows you to represent any number between 0 and 127 in two different ways: as an ASCII character or as a number. Let's get back to the console window in Figure 8.2.

Variable Data Types

Working with Characters

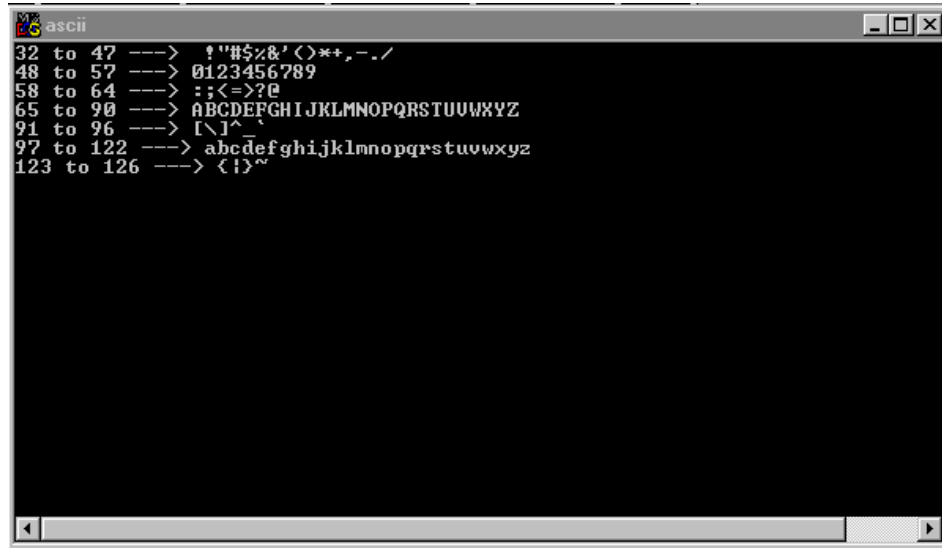


Figure 8.2 The printable ASCII characters.

The second line of output shows the ASCII characters from 48 through 57. As you can see, these 10 characters represent the digits 0 through 9. Here's a little piece of code that converts an ASCII digit to its numerical counterpart:

```
char digit;
int convertedDigit;

digit = '3';

convertedDigit = digit - '0';
```

This code starts with a char named `digit`, initialized to hold the ASCII character '3', which has a numerical value of 51. The next line of code subtracts the ASCII character '0' from `digit`. Since the character '0' has a numerical value of 48, and `digit` started with a numerical value of 51, `convertedDigit` ends up with a value of 51 - 48, or 3. Isn't that interesting?

Warning

Subtracting `'0'` from any ASCII digit yields that digit's numerical counterpart. Although this is a great trick if you know you're working with ASCII, your code will fail if the digits of the current character set are not represented in the same way as they are in ASCII. For example, if you were on a machine that used a character set in which the digits were sequenced from 1 to 9, followed by 0, this trick wouldn't work.

The next line of the console window shown in Figure 8.2 shows the ASCII characters with values ranging from 58 to 64. The following line is pretty interesting. It shows the range of ASCII characters from 65 to 90. Notice anything familiar about these characters? They represent the complete uppercase alphabet.

The next line in Figure 8.2 lists ASCII characters with values from 91 through 96. The next line lists the ASCII characters with values ranging from 97 through 122. These 26 characters represent the complete lowercase alphabet.

Warning

Adding 32 to an uppercase ASCII character yields its lowercase equivalent. Likewise, subtracting 32 from a lowercase ASCII character yields its uppercase equivalent.

Guess what? You never want to take advantage of this information! Instead, use the Standard Library routines `tolower()` and `toupper()` to do the conversions for you.

As a general rule, try not to make assumptions about the order of characters in the current character set. Use Standard Library functions rather than working directly with character values. Although it is tempting to do these kinds of conversions yourself, by going through the Standard Library, you know that your program will work across single-byte character sets.

The final line in Figure 8.2 lists the ASCII characters from 123 to 126. As it turns out, the ASCII character with a value of 127 is another nonprintable character. Figure 8.3 lists these "unprintables." The

Variable Data Types

Working with Characters

left-hand column shows the ASCII code; the right-hand column shows the keyboard equivalent for that code, along with any appropriate comments. The characters with comments by them are probably the only unprintables you'll ever use.

ASCII Unprintables	
0	Used to terminate text strings (Explained later in chapter)
1	Control-A
2	Control-B
3	Control-C
4	Control-D (End of file mark, see Chapter 10)
5	Control-E
6	Control-F
7	Control-G (Beep character - Try it!)
8	Control-H (Backspace)
9	Control-I (Tab)
10	Control-J (Line feed)
11	Control-K (Vertical feed)
12	Control-L (Form feed)
13	Control-M (Carriage return, no line feed)
14	Control-N
15	Control-O
16	Control-P
17	Control-Q
18	Control-R
19	Control-S
20	Control-T
21	Control-U
22	Control-V
23	Control-W
24	Control-X
25	Control-Y
26	Control-Z
27	Control-[(Escape character)
28	Control-
29	Control-]
30	Control-^
31	Control_
127	del

Figure 8.3 The ASCII unprintables.

Stepping Through the Source Code

Before we move on to our next topic, let's take a look at the `ascii.c` source code that generated the ASCII character listing in

Figure 8.2. This code begins with the usual `#include`, followed by a function prototype of the function `PrintChars()`. `PrintChars()` takes two parameters, which define a range of chars to print.

```
#include <stdio.h>

/*****
 * Function Prototypes */
*****/
void PrintChars( char low, char high );
```

The `main()` function calls `PrintChars()` seven times in an attempt to functionally organize the ASCII characters:

```
int main( void )
{
    PrintChars( 32, 47 );
    PrintChars( 48, 57 );
    PrintChars( 58, 64 );
    PrintChars( 65, 90 );
    PrintChars( 91, 96 );
    PrintChars( 97, 122 );
    PrintChars( 123, 126 );

    return 0;
}
```

`PrintChars()` declares a local variable, `c`, to act as a counter as we step through a range of chars:

```
void PrintChars( char low, char high )
{
    char c;
```

Variable Data Types

Arrays

We'll use `low` and `high` to print a label for the current line, showing the range of ASCII characters to follow. Notice that we use `%d` to print the integer version of these chars; `%d` can handle any integer types no bigger than an `int`:

```
printf( "%d to %d ---> ", low, high );
```

Next, a `for` loop is used to step through each of the ASCII characters, from `low` to `high`, using `printf()` to print each of the characters consecutively on the same line. The `printf()` bears closer inspection. Notice the use of `%c` (instead of our usual `%d`) to tell `printf()` to print a single ASCII character:

```
for ( c = low; c <= high; c++ )  
    printf( "%c", c );
```

Once the line is printed, a single new line is printed, moving the cursor to the beginning of the next line in the console window. Thus ends `PrintChars()`:

```
printf( "\n" );  
}
```

The `char` data type is extremely useful to C programmers. The next two topics—arrays and text strings—will show you why. As you read through these two topics, keep the concept of ASCII characters in the back of your mind. As you reach the end of the section on text strings, you'll see an important relationship develop among the three topics.

Arrays

An **array** turns a single variable into a list of variables; for example:

```
int myNumber [ 3 ];
```

This declaration creates three separate `int` variables, referred to in your program as `myNumber[0]`, `myNumber[1]`, and `myNumber[2]`. Each of these variables is known as an **array element**. The number enclosed in brackets (`[]`) is called an **index**.

```
char myChar[ 20 ];
```

In this declaration, the name of the array is `myChar`. This declaration will create an array of type `char` with a **dimension** of 20. The dimension of an array is the array's number of elements. The array elements will have **indices** that run from 0 to 19.

Important

In C, array indices always run from 0 to one less than the array's dimension.

This slice of code first declares an array of 100 `ints`, then assigns each `int` a value of 0:

```
int myNumber[ 100 ], i;

for ( i=0; i<100; i++ )
    myNumber[ i ] = 0;
```

You could have accomplished the same thing by declaring 100 individual `ints`, then initializing each individual `int`. Here's what that code might look like:

```
int myNumber0, myNumber1, . . . . . , myNumber99;

myNumber0 = 0;
myNumber1 = 0;
.
.
.
```

Variable Data Types

Arrays

```
myNumber99 = 0;
```

It would take 100 lines of code just to initialize these variables! By using an array, we've accomplished the same thing in just a few lines of code. Look at this code fragment:

```
sum = 0;
for ( i=0; i<100; i++ )
    sum += myNumber[ i ];

printf( "The sum of the 100 numbers is %d.", sum );
```

This code adds the value of all 100 elements of the array `myNumber`.

Important

In this example, the `for` loop is used to **step through** an array, performing some operation on each of the array's elements. You'll use this technique frequently in your own C programs.

Why Use Arrays?

Programmers would be lost without arrays. Arrays allow you to keep lists of things. For example, if you need to maintain a list of 50 employee numbers, declare an array of 50 `ints`. You can declare an array using any C type. For example, the following code declares an array of 50 floating-point numbers:

```
float salaries[ 50 ];
```

This might be useful for maintaining a list of employee salaries.

Use an array when you want to maintain a list of related data. Here's an example.

dice.cwp

Look in the `Learn C Projects` directory, inside the `08.05 - dice` subdirectory, and open the project `dice.cwp`. This program simulates the rolling of a pair of dice. After each roll, the program adds the two dice, keeping track of the total. It rolls the dice 1000 times, then reports on the results. Give it a try!

Run `dice` by selecting `Run` from the `Project` menu. A console window should appear, similar to the one in Figure 8.4. Take a look at the output—it's pretty interesting. The first column lists all the possible totals of two dice. Since the lowest-possible roll of a pair of six-sided dice is 1 and 1, the first entry in the column is 2. The column counts all the way up to 12, the highest-possible roll (achieved by a roll of 6 and 6).

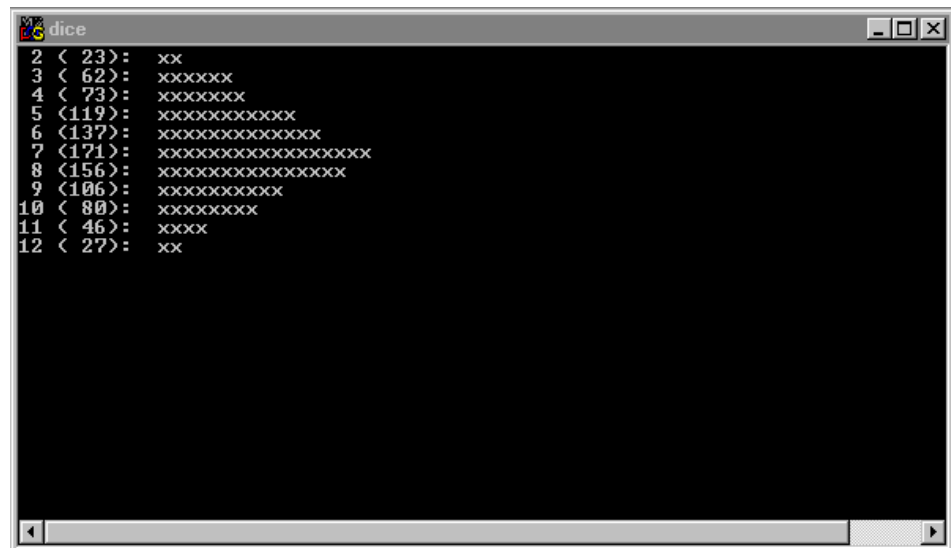


Figure 8.4 `dice` in action. Your mileage may vary!

The number in parentheses is the total number of rolls (out of 1000 rolls) that matched that row's number. For example, the first row describes the dice rolls that total 2. In this run, the total is 28. Finally, the program prints an `x` for every 10 of these rolls. For the total 28, for example, the program prints two `x`'s at the end of the 2s row. Since 160 7s were rolled, 16 `x`'s were printed at the end of the 7s row.

Variable Data Types

Arrays

By the Way

Recognize the curve depicted by the x's in Figure 8.4? The curve represents a "normal" probability distribution, also known as a bell curve. According to the curve, you are about six times more likely to roll a 7 as you are to roll a 12. Want to know why? Check out a book on probability and statistics.

Let's take a look at the source code that makes this possible.

Stepping Through the Source Code

The source code starts off with three `#includes`: `<stdlib.h>` gives us access to the routines `rand()` and `srand()`, `<time.h>` gives us access to `clock()`, and `<stdio.h>` gives us access to `printf()`.

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

Following are the function prototypes for `RollOne()`, `PrintRolls()`, and `PrintX()`. You'll see how these routines work as we step through the code.

```
/* ***** */
/* Function Prototypes */
/* ***** */
int RollOne( void );
void PrintRolls( introlls[] );
void PrintX( inthowMany );
```

`main()` declares an array of 13 ints named `rolls`, which will keep track of the 11 possible types of dice rolls. For example, `rolls[2]` will keep track of the total number of 2s, `rolls[3]` will keep track of the total number of 3s, and so on, up until `rolls[12]`, which will keep track of the total number of 12s rolled. Since there is no way to

roll a 0 or a 1 with a pair of dice, `rolls[0]` and `rolls[1]` will go unused.

```
int main( void )
{
    int    rolls[ 13 ], twoDice, i;
```

By the Way

We could have rewritten the program using an array of 11 ints, thereby saving 2 ints worth of memory. If we did that, `rolls[0]` would track the number of 2s rolled, `rolls[1]` would track the number of 3s rolled, and so on. This would have made the program a little more difficult to read, since `rolls[i]` would be referring to the number of $(i+2)$'s rolled.

In general, it is OK to sacrifice memory to make your program easier to read, as long as program performance isn't compromised.

The function `srand()`, part of the Standard Library, initializes a random-number generator, using a seed provided by another Standard Library function, `clock()`. Once the random-number generator is initialized, another function, `rand()`, will return an int with a random value.

```
srand( clock() );
```

Why random numbers? Sometimes, you want to add an element of unpredictability to your program. For example, in our program, we want to roll a pair of dice again and again. The program would be pretty boring if it rolled the same numbers over and over. By using a random-number generator, we can generate a random number between 1 and 6, thus simulating the roll of a single die!

The next step is for `main()` to initialize each of the elements of the array `rolls` to 0:

```
for ( i=0; i<=12; i++ )
    rolls[ i ] = 0;
```

Variable Data Types

Arrays

This is appropriate, since no rolls of any kind have taken place yet.

The next `for` loop rolls the dice 1000 times. As you'll see, the function `RollOne()` returns a random number between 1 and 6, simulating the roll of a single die. By calling it twice and storing the sum of the two rolls in the variable `twoDice`, we've simulated the roll of two dice:

```
for ( i=1; i <= 1000; i++ )
{
    twoDice = RollOne() + RollOne();
```

The next line is pretty tricky, so hang on. At this point, the variable `twoDice` holds a value between 2 and 12, the total of two individual dice rolls. We'll use that value to specify which `int` to increment. If `twoDice` is 12 (if we rolled a pair of 6s), we'll increment `rolls[12]`. Get it? If not, go back and read through this again. If you still feel stymied (and it's OK if you do), find a C buddy to help you through this. It is important that you get this concept. Be patient.

```
    ++ rolls[ twoDice ];
}
```

Once we're finished with our 1000 rolls, we'll pass `rolls` as a parameter to `PrintRolls()`:

```
PrintRolls( rolls );

return 0;
}
```

Notice that we used the array name without the brackets (`rolls` instead of `rolls[]`). The name of an array is a pointer to the first element of the array. If you have access to this pointer, you have access

to the entire array. You'll see how this works when we look at `PrintRolls()`.

Important

Just remember that passing the name of an array as a parameter is exactly the same as passing a pointer to the first element of the array. To prove this, edit `dice.c` and change

```
PrintRolls( rolls );
```

```
PrintRolls( &(amp; rolls[0]) );
```

The two lines of code are equivalent! The second form passes the address of the first array element. If you think back to Chapter 7, we used the `&` operator to pass a parameter by reference instead of by value. By passing the address of the first array element, you give `PrintRolls()` the ability to both access and modify all of the array elements. This is an important concept!

`RollOne()` first calls `rand()` to generate a random number ranging from 0 to 32,767 (in fact, the upper bound is defined by the constant `RAND_MAX`, which is guaranteed to be at least 32,767). Next, the `%` operator is used to return the remainder when the random number is divided by 6. This yields a random number ranging from 0 to 5. Finally, 1 is added to this number, converting it to a number between 1 and 6, and that number is returned:

```
int RollOne( void )
{
    return (rand() % 6) + 1;
}
```

`PrintRolls()` starts off by declaring a single parameter, an array pointer named `rolls`. Notice that `rolls` was declared using square brackets, telling the compiler that `rolls` is a pointer to the first element of an array (in this case, to an array of ints).

```
void PrintRolls( int rolls[] )
```

Variable Data Types

Arrays

```
{
    int    i;
```

By the Way

`PrintRolls()` could also have declared its parameter using this notation:

```
void      PrintRolls( int *rolls )
```

Instead, it used this notation:

```
void      PrintRolls( int rolls[] )
```

Both of these notations describe a pointer to an `int`, and both can be used to access the elements of an array. You'll learn more about the close relationship between pointers and arrays as you make your way through the rest of the book.

For now, remember this convention. If you are declaring a parameter that will point to an array, use the square-bracket form. Otherwise, use the normal pointer form.

Let's get back to our program. We had just started looking at `PrintRolls()`. The `for` loop steps through the `rolls` array, one `int` at a time, starting with `rolls[2]` and making its way to `rolls[12]`. For each element, `PrintRolls()` first prints the roll number and then, in parentheses, the number of times (out of 1000) that roll occurred. Next, `PrintX()` is called to print a single `x` for every 10 rolls that occurred. Finally, a carriage return is printed, preparing the console window for the next roll.

```
for ( i=2; i<=12; i++ )
{
    printf( "%2d (%3d):  ", i, rolls[ i ] );
    PrintX( rolls[ i ] / 10 );
    printf( "\n" );
}
}
```

PrintX is pretty straightforward. It uses a `for` loop to print the number of `x`'s specified by the parameter `howMany`:

```
void PrintX( int    howMany )
{
    int i;

    for ( i=1; i<=howMany; i++ )
        printf( "x" );
}
```

Danger, Will Robinson!!!

Before we move on, there is one danger worth discussing at this point. See if you can spot the potential hazard in this piece of code:

```
int myInts[ 3 ];

for ( i=0; i<20; i++ )
    myInts[ i ] = 0;
```

Yikes! The array `myInts` consists of exactly three array elements, yet the `for` loop tries to initialize 20 elements. This is called **exceeding the bounds** of your array. Because C is such an informal language, it will let you “get away” with this kind of source code. In other words, CodeWarrior will compile this code without complaint. Your problems will start as soon as the program tries to initialize the fourth array element, which was never allocated.

What will happen? The safest thing to say is that the results will be unpredictable. The problem is, the program is trying to assign a value of 0 to a block of memory that it doesn't necessarily own. Anything could happen. The program would most likely crash, which means that it stops behaving in a rational manner. I've seen some cases where the computer actually leaps off the desk, hops across the floor, and jumps face first into the trash can.

Variable Data Types

Text Strings

Well, OK, not really. But odd things will happen if you don't keep your array references in bounds.

Warning

As you code, be aware of the limitations of your variables. For example, a `char` is limited to values from `-128` to `127`. Don't try to assign a value such as `536` to a `char`. Don't reference `myArray[27]` if you declared `myArray` with only 10 elements. Be careful!

Text Strings

The first C program in this book made use of a text string:

```
printf( "Hello, world!" );
```

This section will teach you how to use such text strings in your own programs. It will teach you how these strings are stored in memory and how to create your own strings from scratch.

A Text String in Memory

The text string `"Hello, world!"` exists in memory as a sequence of 14 bytes (Figure 8.5). The first 13 bytes consist of the 13 ASCII characters in the text string. Note that the seventh byte contains a space (on an ASCII-centric computer, that translates to a value of 32).

The final byte (byte 14) has a value of 0, not to be confused with the ASCII character `'0'`. The 0 is what makes this string a C string. Every C string ends with a byte having a value of 0. The 0 identifies the end of the string.

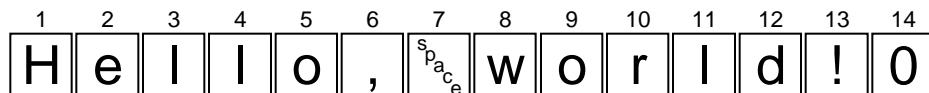


Figure 8.5 The `"Hello, world!"` text string.

When you use a quoted string like "Hello, world!" in your code, the compiler creates the string for you. This type of string is called a **string constant**. When you use a string constant in your code, the detail work is done for you automatically. In the following example, the 14 bytes needed to represent the string in memory are allocated automatically:

```
printf( "Hello, world!" );
```

The 0 is placed in the fourteenth byte, automatically. You don't have to worry about these details when you use a string constant.

String constants are great, but they are not always appropriate. For example, suppose that you want to read in somebody's name, then pass the name on to `printf()` to display in the console window. Since you won't be able to predict the name that will be typed in, you can't predefine the name as a string constant. Here's an example.

name.cwp

Look in the `Learn C Projects` directory, inside the `08.06 - name` subdirectory, and open the project `name.cwp`. The program will ask you to type your first name on the keyboard. Once you've typed your first name, the program will use your name to create a custom welcome message. Then, `name` will tell you how many characters long your name is. How useful!

To run `name`, select `Run` from the `Project` menu. A console window will appear, prompting you for your first name, like this:

```
Type your first name, please:
```

Type your first name, then enter a carriage return. When I did, I saw the output shown in Figure 8.6. Let's take a look at the source code that generated this output.

Variable Data Types

Text Strings



Figure 8.6 name prompts you to type in your name, then tells you how long your name is.

Stepping Through the Source Code

At the heart of `name.c` is a new Standard Library function called `scanf()`. This function uses the same format specifiers as `printf()` to read text in from the keyboard. This code will read in an `int`:

```
int myInt;

scanf( "%d", &myInt );
```

The `%d` tells `scanf()` to read in an `int`. Notice the use of the `&` before the variable `myInt`. This passes the address of `myInt` to `scanf()`, allowing `scanf()` to change the value of `myInt`. To read in a `float`, use code like:

```
float myFloat;
```

```
scanf( "%f", &myFloat );
```

The program name `.c` starts off with a pair of `#includes`: `<string.h>` gives us access to the Standard Library function `strlen()`, and `<stdio.h>`, well, you know what we get from `<stdio.h>`—`printf()`, right? Right.

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

To read in a text string, you have to first declare a variable to place the text characters in. The program uses an array of characters for this purpose:

```
int main( void )
{
    char name[ 50 ];
```

The array name is big enough to hold a 49-byte text string. When you allocate space for a text string, remember to save 1 byte for the 0 that terminates the string.

The program starts by printing a **prompt**. A prompt is a text string that lets the user know that the program is waiting for input, as in the following:

```
printf( "Type your first name, please: " );
```

Before we get to the `scanf()` call, it helps to understand how the computer handles input from the keyboard. When the computer starts running your program, it automatically creates a big array of chars for the sole purpose of storing keyboard input to your program. This array is known as your program's **input buffer**. Every time you enter a carriage return, all the characters typed since the previous carriage return are appended to the current input buffer.

When your program starts, the input buffer is empty. If you type `123 abcd` from your keyboard, followed by a carriage return, the

Variable Data Types

Text Strings

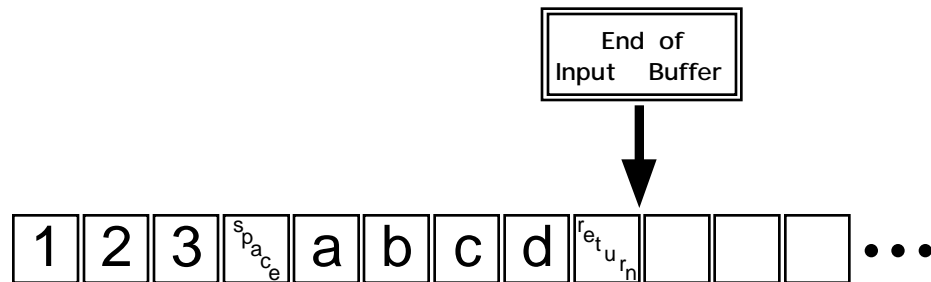


Figure 8.7 A snapshot of the input buffer.

input buffer will look like Figure 8.7. The computer keeps track of the current end of the input buffer. The space character between the '123' and the 'abcd' has an ASCII value of 32. Notice that the carriage return was placed in the input buffer.

Given the input buffer shown in Figure 8.7, suppose that your program called `scanf()`, like this:

```
scanf( "%d", &myInt );
```

Starting at the beginning of the input buffer, `scanf()` reads a character at a time until it reaches one of the nonprintables, such as a carriage return, tab, space, or 0, until it reaches the end of the buffer or a character that conflicts with the format specifier (if `%d` was used and the letter 'a' was encountered, for example).

After the `scanf()`, the input buffer looks like Figure 8.8. Notice that the characters passed on to `scanf()` were removed from the input buffer and that the rest of the characters slid over to the beginning of the buffer. In fact, `scanf()` took the characters '1', '2', and '3' and converted them to the integer 123, placing 123 in the variable `myInt`.

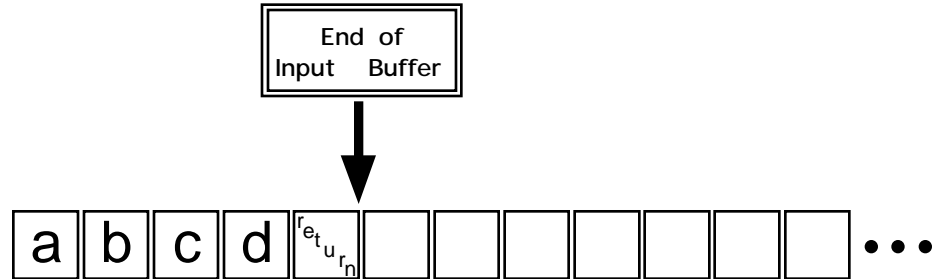


Figure 8.8 A second snapshot of the input buffer.

If you then typed the line:

3.5 Dave

followed by a carriage return, the input buffer would look like Figure 8.9. At this point, the input buffer contains two carriage returns. To the input buffer, a carriage return is just like any other character. To a function like `scanf()`, the carriage return is white space.

By the Way

If you forgot what white space is, now would be a good time to turn back to Chapter 5, where white space was first described.

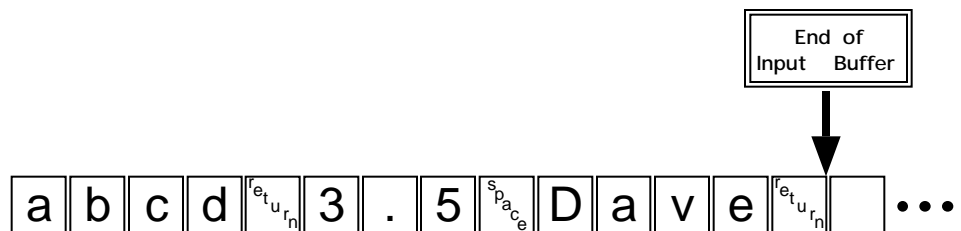


Figure 8.9 A third snapshot of the input buffer.

Variable Data Types

Text Strings

Before we started our discussion on the input buffer, `main()` had just called `printf()` to prompt for the user's first name:

```
printf( "Type your first name, please: " );
```

Next, we called `scanf()` to read the first name from the input buffer:

```
scanf( "%s", name );
```

Since the program just started, the input buffer is empty; `scanf()` will wait until characters appear in the input buffer, which will happen as soon as you type some characters and enter a carriage return. Type your first name and enter a carriage return.

By the Way

Note that `scanf()` will ignore white-space characters in the input buffer. For example, if you type a few spaces and tabs and then enter a carriage return, `scanf()` will still sit there, waiting for some real input. Try it!

Once you type in your name, `scanf()` will copy the characters, a byte at a time, into the array of `chars` pointed to by `name`. Remember, because `name` was declared as an array, `name` points to the first of the 50 bytes allocated for the array.

If you type in the name `Dave`, `scanf()` will place the four characters `'D'`, `'a'`, `'v'`, and `'e'` into the first four of the 50 bytes allocated for the array. Next, `scanf()` will set the fifth byte to a value of 0 to terminate the string properly (Figure 8.10). Since the string is properly terminated by the 0 in `name[4]`, we don't really care about the value of the bytes `name[5]` through `name[49]`.

Next, we pass `name` on to `printf()`, asking it to print the name as part of a welcoming message. The `%s` tells `printf()` that `name` points to the first byte of a zero-terminated string. Stepping through memory, one byte at a time, `printf()` starts with the byte that `name` points to and prints each byte in turn until it reaches a byte with a value of 0, marking the end of the string.

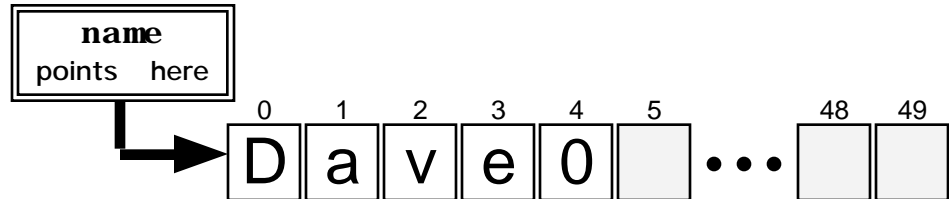


Figure 8.10 The array name after the string “Dave” is copied to it. Notice that name[4] has a value of 0.

```
printf( "Welcome, %s.\n", name );
```

Warning

If name[4] didn't contain a 0, the string wouldn't be properly terminated. Passing a nonterminated string to printf() is a sure way to confuse printf(), which will step through memory one byte at a time, printing a byte and looking for a 0. It will keep printing bytes until it happens to encounter a byte set to 0. Remember, C strings must be terminated!

The next line of the program calls another Standard Library function, called strlen(), which takes a pointer as a parameter and returns the length, in bytes, of the string pointed to by the parameter. This function depends on the string being terminated with a 0. Just like sizeof(), strlen() returns a value of type size_t. We'll use a typecast to convert the value to an int, then print it using %d. Again, we'll cover typecasting later in the book.

```
printf( "Your name is %d characters long.",  
       (int)strlen( name ) );  
  
return 0;  
}
```

Variable Data Types

#define

Our last program for this chapter demonstrates a few more character-handling techniques, a new Standard Library function, and an invaluable programmer's tool, the `#define`.

#define

The `#define` (pronounced pound-define) tells the compiler to substitute one piece of text for another throughout your source code. The following statement, for example, tells the compiler to substitute `6` every time it finds the text `kMaxPlayers` in the source code.

```
#define kMaxPlayers    6
```

The text `kMaxPlayers` is known as a **macro**. As the C compiler goes through your code, it enters each `#define` into a list, known as a **dictionary**, performing all the `#define` substitutions as it goes.

Important

It's important to note that the compiler never modifies your source code. The dictionary it creates as it goes through your code is separate from your source code, and the substitutions it performs are made as the source code is translated into machine code.

Here's an example of a `#define` in action:

```
#define kMaxArraySize    100

int main( void )
{
    char  myArray[ kMaxArraySize ];
    int   i;

    for ( i=0; i<kMaxArraySize; i++ )
        myArray[ i ] = 0;

    return 0;
}
```

```
}
```

The `#define` at the beginning of this example substitutes 100 for `kMaxArraySize` everywhere it finds it in the source code file. In this example, the substitution will be done twice. Although your source code is not modified, here's the effect of this `#define`:

```
int main( void )
{
    char  myArray[ 100 ];
    int   i;

    for ( i=0; i<100; i++ )
        myArray[ i ] = 0;

    return 0;
}
```

Warning

Note that a `#define` must appear in the source code file before it is used. In other words, this code won't compile:

```
int  main( void )
{
    char myArray[ kMaxArraySize ];
    int           i;

#define kMaxArraySize      100

    for ( i=0; i<kMaxArraySize; i++ )
        myArray[ i ] = 0;

    return 0;
}
```

Having a `#define` in the middle of your code is just fine. The prob-

Variable Data Types

#define

lem here is that the declaration of `myArray` uses a `#define` that hasn't occurred yet!

If you use `#defines` effectively, you'll build more flexible code. In the previous example, you can change the size of the array by modifying a single line of code, the `#define`. If your program is designed correctly, you should be able to change the line to:

```
#define kMaxArraySize 200
```

You can then recompile your code, and your program should still work properly. A good sign that you are using `#defines` properly is an absence of constants in your code. In the example, the constant `100` was replaced by `kMaxArraySize`. You can also use the Pre-process command from the Project menu to get a preview of the result of all your `#define` substitutions.

By the Way

Windows programmers, like Unix programmers, tend to name their `#define` constants using all uppercase letters, sprinkled with underscores (`_`) to act as word dividers (as in `MAX_ARRAY_SIZE`).

As you'll see in our next program, you can put practically anything, even source code, into a `#define`. Take a look:

```
#define kPrintReturn    printf( "\n" );
```

Although not particularly recommended, this `#define` will work just fine:

```
printf( "\n" );
```

It will substitute that statement for every occurrence of the text `kPrintReturn` in your source code. You can also base one `#define` on a previous `#define`:

```
#define kSideLength 5
#define kArea    kSideLength * kSideLength
```

By the Way

Interestingly, you could have reversed the order of these two `#defines`, and your code would still have compiled. As long as both entries are in the dictionary, their order of occurrence in the dictionary is not important.

What is important is that `#define` appear in the source code before any source code that refers to it. If this seems confusing, don't sweat it. It won't be on the test.

FunctionLike #define Macros

You can create a `#define` macro that takes one or more arguments. Here's an example:

```
#define kSquare( a )((a) * (a))
```

This macro takes a single argument. The argument can be any C expression; for example:

```
myInt = kSquare( myInt + 1 );
```

If you called the macro like that, the compiler would use its first pass to turn the line into this:

```
myInt = (( myInt + 1 ) * ( myInt + 1 ));
```

Notice the usefulness of the parentheses in the macro. Suppose, however, the macro were defined like this:

```
#define kSquare( a )a * a
```

Variable Data Types

#define

The compiler would have produced:

```
myInt = myInt + 1 * myInt + 1;
```

But that is not what we wanted. The only multiplication that gets performed by this statement is `1 * myInt`, because the `*` operator has a higher precedence than the `+` operator.

Be sure that you pay strict attention to your use of white space in your `#define` macros. For example, there's a world of difference between these two macros:

```
#define kSquare( a )((a) * (a))
#define kSquare ( a )((a) * (a))
```

(Note the space between `kSquare` and `(a)`.) The second form of the macro creates a `#define` constant named `kSquare`, which is defined as:

```
( a )((a) * (a))
```

This won't even compile (see the error message in Figure 8.11), because the compiler doesn't know what `a` is.

Here's another interesting macro side effect. Suppose that you wanted to call this macro:

```
#define kSquare( a )((a) * (a))
```

But instead, you called it like this:

```
mySquare = kSquare( myInt++ );
```

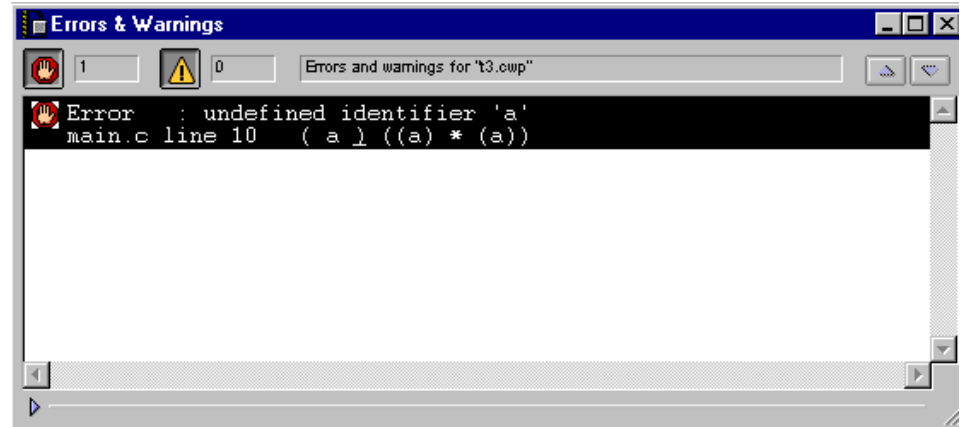


Figure 8.11 An error generated by adding one space to a macro.

The preprocessor pass expands this macro call to:

```
mySquare = ((myInt++) * (myInt++));
```

Do you see the problems here? First, `myInt` will get incremented twice by this macro call (probably not what was intended). Second, the first `myInt++` will get executed before the multiply happens, yielding a final result of `myInt * (myInt+1)`, definitely not what you wanted! The point here: Be careful when you pass an expression as a parameter to a macro.

A Sample Program: wordCount

Look in the `Learn C Projects` directory, inside the `08.07 - wordCount` subdirectory, and open the project `wordCount.cwp`. This program will ask you to type in a line of text and will count the number of words in the text you type.


To run `wordCount`, select `Run` from the `Project` menu. The program will then prompt you to type in a line of text:

```
Type a line of text, please:
```

Variable Data Types

A Sample Program: wordCount

Type in a line of text, at least a few words long. End your line by entering a carriage return. When you do, `wordCount` will report its results. The program will ignore any white space, so feel free to sprinkle your input with tabs, spaces, and the like. My output is shown in Figure 8.12. Let's take a look at the source code that generated this output.



```
wordcount
Type a line of text, please:
I find delight in the gruesome and grim!!!
---- This line has 8 words ----
I find delight in the gruesome and grim!!!
```

Figure 8.12 `wordCount`, doing its job.

Stepping Through the Source Code

The program begins with the usual `#include` and then adds a new one—`<ctype.h>`—which includes the prototype of the function `isspace()`. This function takes a `char` as input and returns `true` if the char is a tab (`'\t'`), hard carriage return (a return without a line feed: `'\r'`), newline (a return with a line feed: `'\n'`), vertical tab (`'\v'`), form feed (`'\f'`), or space (`' '`). Otherwise, it returns `false`.

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

```
#include <ctype.h>
```

By the Way

Older C environments may include a variant of `isspace()` called `iswhite()`.

Next, we define some constants: `true`, `false`, `kMaxLineLength`, `kZeroByte`. `kMaxLineLength` specifies the largest line this program can handle (200 bytes should be plenty). `kZeroByte` has a value of 0 and is used to mark the end of the line of input. More of this in a bit.

```
#define true      1
#define false    0
#define kMaxLineLength  200
#define kZeroByte      0
```

Here are the function prototypes for the two functions `ReadLine()` and `CountWords()`. `ReadLine()` reads in a line of text, and `CountWords()` takes a line of text and returns the number of words in the line:

```
/* **** */
/* Function Prototypes */
/* **** */
void  ReadLine( char *line );
int   CountWords( char *line );
```

The `main()` function starts by defining an array of chars that will hold the line of input we type and an `int` that will hold the result of our call to `CountWords()`:

```
/* ****> main <*/
int main( void )
{
    char  line[ kMaxLineLength ];
    int   numWords;
```

Variable Data Types

A Sample Program: wordCount

By the Way

Notice that we've added a comment line that appears immediately before each of the `wordCount` functions. As your programs get larger and larger, a comment like this makes it easier to spot the beginning of a function and makes your code a little easier to read.

Once we type the prompt, we'll pass `line` to `ReadLine()`. Remember that `line` is a pointer to the first byte of the array of chars. When `ReadLine()` returns, `line` contains a line of text, terminated by a zero byte, making `line` a legitimate, 0-terminated C string. We'll pass that string on to `CountWords()`:

```
printf( "Type a line of text, please:\n" );

ReadLine( line );
numWords = CountWords( line );
```

We then print a message telling us how many words we just counted:

```
printf( "\n---- This line has %d word",
        numWords );

if ( numWords != 1 )
    printf( "s" );

printf( " ----\n%s\n", line );

return 0;
}
```

This last bit of code shows attention to detail, something very important in a good program. Notice that the first `printf()` ended with the characters "word". If the program found either no words or more than one word, we want to say either of the following:

```
This line has 0 words.  
This line has 2 words.
```

If the program found exactly one word, the sentence should read:

```
This line has 1 word.
```

The last `if` statement makes sure that the "s" gets added if needed. In `main()`, we defined an array of `chars` to hold the line of characters we type in. When `main()` called `ReadLine()`, it passed the name of the array as a parameter to `ReadLine()`:

```
char line[ kMaxLineLength ];  
ReadLine( line );
```

As we said earlier, the name of an array also acts as a pointer to the first element of the array. In this case, `line` is equivalent to `&(line[0])`. `ReadLine()` now has a pointer to the first byte of the `line` array in `main()`.

```
/******> ReadLine <*/  
void ReadLine( char *line )  
{
```

This `while` loop calls `getchar()` to read one character at a time from the input buffer; `getchar()` returns the next character in the input buffer. Or, if there's an error, it returns the constant `EOF`. You'll learn more about `EOF` in Chapter 10.

By the Way

As was the case with `scanf()`, when a character is read from the input buffer, the character is removed, and the rest of the charac-

Variable Data Types

A Sample Program: wordCount

ters in the buffer move over to take the place of the removed character.

The first time through the loop, `line` points to the first byte of the `line` array in `main()`. At this point, the expression `*line` is equivalent to the expression `line[0]`. The first time through the loop, we're getting the first character from the input buffer and copying it into `line[0]`.

The `while` loop continues as long as the character we just read in is not `'\n'` (as long as we have not yet retrieved the return character from the input buffer):

```
while ( (*line = getchar()) != '\n' )
    line++;
```

Each time through the loop, we'll increment the local copy of the pointer `line` in `ReadLine()` to point to the next byte in the `line` array of `main()`. The next time through the loop, we'll read a character into the second byte of the array, then the third byte, and so on, until read in a `'\n'` and drop out of the loop.

Important

This technique is known as **pointer arithmetic**. When you increment a pointer that points into an array, the value of the pointer is incremented just enough to point to the next element of the array. For example, if `line` were an array of 4-byte `floats` instead of `chars`, the following line of code would increment `line` by 4 instead of by 1:

```
line++;
```

In both cases, `line` would start off pointing to `line[0]`; then, after the statement `line++`, `line` would point to `line[1]`.

Take a look at this code:

```
char          charPtr;
```

```
float      floatPtr;  
double    doublePtr;  
  
charPtr++;  
floatPtr++;  
doublePtr++;
```

In the last three statements, `charPtr` gets incremented by 1 byte, `floatPtr` gets incremented by 4 bytes, and `doublePtr` gets incremented by 8 bytes (assuming 1-byte `chars`, 4-byte `floats`, and 8-byte `doubles`).

This is an extremely important concept to understand. If this seems fuzzy to you, go back and reread this section, then write some code to make sure that you truly understand how pointers work, especially as they relate to arrays.

Once we drop out of the loop, we'll place a 0 in the next position of the array. This turns the line into a 0-terminated string we can print using `printf()`:

```
    *line = kZeroByte;  
}
```

`CountWords()` also takes a pointer to the first byte of the `main()` function's `line` array as a parameter. `CountWords()` will step through the array, looking for nonwhite space characters. When one is encountered, `CountWords()` sets `inWord` to `true` and increments `numWords`, then keeps stepping through the array looking for a white-space character, which marks the end of the current word. Once the white space is found, `inWord` is set to `false`:

```
/******> CountWords <*/  
int CountWords( char *line )  
{  
    int    numWords, inWord;
```

Variable Data Types

What's Next?

```
numWords = 0;
inWord = false;
```

This process continues until the zero byte marking the end of the line is encountered:

```
while ( *line != kZeroByte )
{
    if ( ! isspace( *line ) )
    {
        if ( ! inWord )
        {
            numWords++;
            inWord = true;
        }
    }
    else
        inWord = false;

    line++;
}
```

Once we drop out of the loop, we'll return the number of words in the line:

```
return numWords;
}
```

What's Next?

Congratulations! You've made it through one of the longest chapters in the book. You've mastered several new data types, including floats and chars. You've learned how to use arrays, especially in conjunction with chars. You've also learned about C's text-substitution mechanism, the `#define`.

Chapter 9 will teach you how to combine C's data types to create your own customized data types, called `structs`. So go grab some lunch, lean back, prop up your legs, and turn the page.

Exercises

1. What's wrong with each of the following code fragments:

a. `char c;`

```
int      i;
```

```
i=0;
```

```
for ( c=0; c<=255; c++ )
```

```
    i += c;
```

b. `float myFloat;`

```
myFloat = 5.125;
```

```
printf( "The value of myFloat is %d.\n", f );
```

c. `char c;`

```
c = "a";
```

```
printf( "c holds the character %c.", c );
```

d. `char c[5];`

```
c = "Hello, world!";
```

e. `char c[kMaxArraySize]`

```
#define kMaxArraySize      20
```

```
int      i;
```

Variable Data Types

Exercises

- ```
 for (i=0; i<kMaxArraySize; i++)
 c[i] = 0;
```
- f. #define kMaxArraySize 200
- ```
char c[ kMaxArraySize ];

c[ kMaxArraySize ] = 0;
```
- g. #define kMaxArraySize 200
- ```
char c[kMaxArraySize], *cPtr;
int i;

cPtr = c;
for (i=0; i<kMaxArraySize; i++)
 cPtr++ = 0;
```
- h. #define kMaxArraySize 200
- ```
char c[ kMaxArraySize ];
int          i;

for ( i=0; i<kMaxArraySize; i++ )
{
    *c = 0;
    c++;
}
```
- i. #define kMaxArraySize 200;
2. Rewrite `dice.c`, showing the possible rolls using three dice instead of two.

3. Rewrite `wordCount.cwp` printing each of the words, one per line.

Variable Data Types

Exercises



Designing Your Own Data Structures

In Chapter 8, we introduced several new data types, such as `float`, `char`, and `short`. We discussed the range of each type and introduced the format specification characters necessary to print each type using `printf()`. Next, we introduced the concept of arrays, focusing on the relationship between `char` arrays and text strings. Along the way, we discovered the `#define`, C's mechanism for text substitution.

This chapter will show you how to use existing C types as building blocks to design your own customized data structures. Sometimes, your programs will want to bundle certain data together. For example, suppose that you were writing a program to organize your compact disc collection. Imagine the type of information you'd like to access for each CD. At the least, you'd want to keep track of the artist's name and the name of the CD. You might also want to rate each CD's listenability on a scale of 1 to 10.

In the next few sections, we'll look at two approaches to a basic CD tracking program. Each approach will center on a different set of data structures. One approach (Model A) will use arrays, and the other (Model B) will use a set of custom-designed data structures.

Using Arrays (Model A)

One way to model your CD collection is to use a separate array for each CD's attributes:

```
#define kMaxCDs          300
#define kMaxArtistLength 50
#define kMaxTitleLength  50
```


Designing Your Own Data Structures

Using Arrays (Model A)

```
char  rating[ kMaxCDs ];
char  artist[ kMaxCDs ][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
char  title[ kMaxCDs ][ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
```

This code fragment uses three #defines: `kMaxCDs` defines the maximum number of CDs this program will track, `kMaxArtistLength` defines the maximum length of a CD artist's name, and `kMaxTitleLength` defines the maximum length of a CD's title.

The array `rating` consists of 300 chars, one char for each CD. Each char in this array will hold a number from 1 to 10, the rating we've assigned to a particular CD. For example, this line of code assigns a value of 8 to CD 37:

```
rating[ 37 ] = 8;    /* A pretty good CD */
```

The arrays `artist` and `title` are known as **multidimensional arrays**. A normal array, such as `rating`, is declared using a single dimension:

```
float  myArray[ 5 ];
```

This statement declares a normal, or one-dimensional, array containing five floats:

```
myArray[ 0 ]
myArray[ 1 ]
myArray[ 2 ]
myArray[ 3 ]
myArray[ 4 ]
```

The following statement, however, differs from a normal array:

```
float  myArray[ 3 ][ 5 ];
```

This statement declares a two-dimensional array, containing $3 \times 5 = 15$ floats:

```
myArray[0][0]
myArray[0][1]
myArray[0][2]
myArray[0][3]
myArray[0][4]
myArray[1][0]
myArray[1][1]
myArray[1][2]
myArray[1][3]
myArray[1][4]
myArray[2][0]
myArray[2][1]
myArray[2][2]
myArray[2][3]
myArray[2][4]
```

Think of a two-dimensional array as an array of arrays. Thus, `myArray[0]` is an array of five floats, as are `myArray[1]` and `myArray[2]`.

Here's a three-dimensional array:

```
float    myArray[ 3 ][ 5 ][ 10 ];
```

How many floats does this array contain? Tick, tick, tick. . . . Got it? The answer: $3 \times 5 \times 10 = 150$. This version of `myArray` contains 150 floats.

By the Way

C allows you to create arrays of any dimension, although you'll rarely have a need for more than a single dimension.

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Using Arrays (Model A)

So why would you ever want a multidimensional array? If you haven't already guessed, the answer to this question is going to lead us back to our CD tracking example.

Here are the declarations for our three CD tracking arrays:

```
#define kMaxCDs          300
#define kMaxArtistLength 50
#define kMaxTitleLength 50

char  rating[ kMaxCDs ];
char  artist[ kMaxCDs ][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
char  title[ kMaxCDs ][ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
```

Once again, `rating` contains one `char` for each CD; `artist`, on the other hand, contains an array of `chars` for each CD. Each CD gets an array of `chars` whose length is `kMaxArtistLength + 1`. Each array is large enough to hold an artist's name up to 50 bytes long, with one byte left over to hold the terminating zero byte. To restate this, the two-dimensional array `artist` is large enough to hold up to 300 artist names, each of which can be up to 50 characters long, not including the terminating byte.

A Sample Program: multiArray.cwp

The sample program `multiArray` brings this concept to life. The program defines the two-dimensional array `artist` (as described earlier), prompts you to type in a series of artists, stores their names in the two-dimensional `artist` array, then prints out the contents of `artist`.

Open the `Learn C Projects` directory, go inside the subdirectory `09.01 - multiArray` and open the project `multiArray.cwp`. Run `multiArray` by selecting `Run` from the `Project` menu. The program will first tell you how many bytes of memory are allocated for the entire `artist` array:

The `artist` array takes up 15300 bytes of memory.

As a reminder, here's the declaration of `artist`:

```
#define kMaxCDs          300
#define kMaxArtistLength 50

char  artist[ kMaxCDs ][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
```

By performing the `#define` substitution yourself, you can see that `artist` is defined as a 300-by-51 array; 300 times 51 is 15,300, matching the result reported by `multiArray`.

After `multiArray` reports the `artist` array size, it enters a loop, prompting you for your list of favorite musical artists:

```
Artist #1 (return to exit):
```

Enter an artist name, then enter a return. You'll be prompted for a second artist name. Type in a few more names, then enter an extra return. The extra return tells `multiArray` that you are done entering names.

The program will step through the array, using `printf()` to list the artists you've entered. In case your entire music collection consists of a slightly warped vinyl copy of Leonard Nimoy singing some old Dylan classics, feel free to use my list, shown in Figure 9.1.

Let's take a look at the source code.

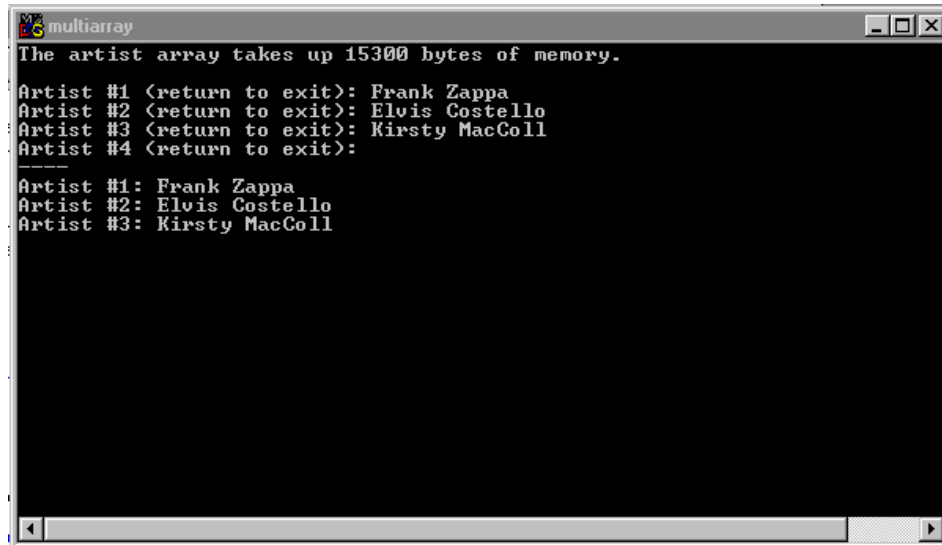
Stepping Through the Source Code

The program starts off with a standard `#include <stdio.h>` gives us access to both `printf()` and `gets()`. After reading a line of text from the input buffer, `gets()` converts it into a zero-terminated string.

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

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Using Arrays (Model A)



```
multiarray
The artist array takes up 15300 bytes of memory.
Artist #1 (return to exit): Frank Zappa
Artist #2 (return to exit): Elvis Costello
Artist #3 (return to exit): Kirsty MacColl
Artist #4 (return to exit):
-----
Artist #1: Frank Zappa
Artist #2: Elvis Costello
Artist #3: Kirsty MacColl
```

Figure 9.1 multiArray in action.

You've seen these four #defines before:

```
#define true      1
#define false    0

#define kMaxCDs      300
#define kMaxArtistLength  50
```

Here's the function prototype for `PrintArtists()`, the function we'll use to print out the artist array. Notice anything unusual about the declaration of `artist`? More on that in a bit.

```
/* ***** */
/* Function Prototypes */
/* ***** */
void PrintArtists( short numArtists,
                  char artist[][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ] );
```

First, `main()` defines `artist`, our two-dimensional array, which is large enough to hold 300 artists. The name of each artist can be up to 50 bytes long, plus the zero terminating byte.

```
/******> main <*/  
int main( void )  
{  
    char  artist[ kMaxCDs ][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
```

The number of artist names you've typed in is contained in `numArtists`. Notice that `numArtists` is a `short`. Since `kMaxCDs` is 300, even an unsigned `char` would not be large enough for `numArtists`. Since the maximum value of a signed `short` is 32767 (an implementation-dependent value), a `short` will be plenty big enough.

```
    short numArtists;
```

Beginning as `false`, `doneReading` will get set to `true` once we are ready to drop out of our artist-reading loop; `result` will hold the result returned by `gets()`:

```
    char  doneReading, *result;
```

This `printf()` prints out the size of the `artist` array. Notice that we've used the `%ld` format specifier to print the result returned by `sizeof`; `%ld` indicates that the type you are printing is the size of a long, which is true for `size_t`, the type returned by `sizeof`. If you use `%d`, you won't need the `(int)` typecast we used in earlier programs.

```
    printf( "The artist array takes up %ld bytes of  
           memory.\n\n", sizeof( artist ) );
```

```
    doneReading = false;  
    numArtists = 0;
```

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Using Arrays (Model A)

Warning

Note that `size_t` is not guaranteed to be an unsigned `long` although it usually is. The only guarantee is that `size_t` is the same size as that returned by the `sizeof` operator. In our case, `size_t` is defined as an unsigned `long`, so the `%ld` format specifier will work just fine.

Here's the loop that reads in the artist names. We'll drop out of the loop once `doneReading` is set to `true`.

```
while ( ! doneReading )
{
```

Inside the loop, we'll start off by printing a prompt that includes the artist number. We want the artist number to start at 1, but we don't want to increment `numArtists` until we are sure that the user has entered an artist number, so we'll just use `numArtists+1` in this `printf()`.

```
printf( "Artist #%d (return to exit): ",
        numArtists+1 );
```

Next, we'll call `gets()`; `gets()` is pretty much the same as the `ReadLine()` function from the `wordCount` program in Chapter 8. This `gets()` reads characters from the input buffer until it encounters a `'\n'`, then converts the read characters into a zero-terminated string. `gets()` takes a single parameter, a `char` pointer that points to the first byte of the memory where the finished string will be written:

```
result = gets( artist[ numArtists ] );
```

Once it is done, `gets()` returns a pointer to the beginning of the string (essentially the same pointer you passed in as a parameter), allowing you to use the result of `gets()` as a parameter to another function, such as `printf()`.

Warning

If an error occurs while reading from the input buffer, `gets()` returns the constant `NULL`, C's symbol for an invalid pointer. In all the time I've been writing C code, I've never seen this happen, but you never know.

Take a look at the parameter we passed to `gets()`:

```
artist[ numArtists ]
```

What type is this parameter? Remember, `artist` is a two-dimensional array, and a two-dimensional array is an array of arrays. Thus, `artist` is an array of an array of chars; `artist[numArtists]` is an array of chars, and so is exactly suited as a parameter to `gets()`.

Imagine an array of chars named `blap`:

```
char blap[ 100 ];
```

You'd have no problem passing `blap` as a parameter to `gets()`, right? In that case, `gets()` would read the characters from the input buffer and place them in `blap`. Our `artist[0]` is just like `blap`. Both are pointers to an array of chars. `blap[0]` is the first char of the array `blap`; likewise, `artist[0][0]` is the first char of the array `artist[0]`.

OK, back to the code. If `gets()` fails (which it won't) or if the first byte of the string we just read in is the zero terminator (more on this in a sec), we'll set `doneReading` to `true` so we drop out of the loop. If the read was successful and we got a string bigger than 0 bytes long, we'll increment `numArtists` and go back to the top of the loop.

```
if ( (result == NULL) ||  
    (result[0] == '\\0') )  
    doneReading = true;
```


Designing Your Own Data Structures

Using Arrays (Model A)

```
        else
            numArtists++;
    }
```

Important

There are two important questions, both relating to this expression:

```
(result[0] == '\\0')
```

What is '\\0', and why are we comparing it against the first byte of the string stored in `result`? Just like '\\n', '\\0' is a character constant, a shorthand for a `char` with specific meaning. Here, '\\0' is the zero terminator C places at the end of its strings. In earlier programs, when we wanted to add a zero terminator at the end of a string, we used the constant 0; '\\0' is a character that has a value of 0 and works just as well.

Using '\\0' makes it pretty clear that you are talking about the zero terminator instead of just an arbitrary numerical value. Once again, choose a style that makes sense to you and be consistent.

To answer the second question, we compare '\\0' with the first byte of the string returned by `gets()` to see whether the string contains more than zero characters. A string that starts with the terminator is said to be a zero-length string. That's what `gets()` returns if the first character it encounters is a carriage return ('\\n').

By the way, a zero-length string is represented in C as two consecutive double-quotes: "".

Once we drop out of the loop, we print a dividing line, then call `PrintArtists()` to print the contents of our array of artist names. The second parameter, `artist`, is a pointer to the first element of the `artist` array, that is, `&(artist[0])`.

```
printf( "----\n" );

PrintArtists( numArtists, artist );

return 0;
}
```

Take a look at the definition of the second parameter of `PrintArtists()`. Notice that the first of the two dimensions is missing (the first pair of brackets is empty). Although we could have included the first dimension (`kMaxCDs`), the fact that we were able to leave it out makes a really interesting point. When memory is allocated for an array, it is allocated as one big block. To access a specific element of the array, the compiler uses the dimensions of the array, as well as the specific element requested, to calculate an offset into this block.

```
/******> PrintArtists <*/
voidPrintArtists( short numArtists,
                  char artist[][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ] )
{
```

In the case of `artist`, the compiler allocated a block of memory $300 * 51 = 15,300$ bytes long. Think of this block as 300 `char` arrays, each of which is 51 bytes long. To get to the first byte of the first array, we just use the pointer that was passed in (`artist` points to the first byte of the first of the 300 arrays). To access the first byte of the second array (in C notation, `artist[1][0]`), the compiler adds 51 to the pointer `artist`. In other words, the start of the second array is 51 bytes farther in memory than the start of the first array. The start of the 10th array is $9 * 51 = 459$ bytes farther in memory than the start of the first array.

Although it is nice to know how to compute array offsets in memory, the point is that the compiler calculates the `artist` array offsets using the second dimension and not the first dimension of `artist` (51 is used; 300 is not used).

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Using Arrays (Model A)

Important

The compiler could use the first array bound (300) to verify that you don't reference an array element that is **out of bounds**. For example, the compiler could complain if it sees this line of code:

```
artist[305][0] = '\0';
```

The compiler would tell you that you are trying to reference a memory location outside the block of memory allocated for `artist`.

Guess what. C compilers don't do bounds checking of any kind. If you want to access memory beyond the bounds of your array, no one will stop you. This is part of the "charm" of C. C gives you the freedom to write programs that crash in spectacular ways. Your job is to learn how to avoid such pitfalls.

OK, let's finish up this code. `PrintArtists()` first checks to see whether `numArtists` is zero or less. If it is, an appropriate message is printed:

```
/******> PrintArtists <*/  
void PrintArtists( short numArtists,  
                  char artist[][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ] )  
{  
    short    i;  
  
    if ( numArtists <= 0 )  
        printf( "No artists to report.\n" );
```

If we've got at least one artist to print, we'll step through the array, printing the artist number followed by the zero-terminated artist string. Notice that we used `%s` to print each string; `%s` is designed to print a `'\0'` terminated string:

```
    else
```


Designing Your Own Data Structures

Using Arrays (Model A)

`artist[1][0]` and `artist[1][1]`. When `gets()` read the second artist name, it copied the string "Jimi Hendrix" starting at `artist[1][0]`. Here's where things start to get skooony. The string "Jimi Hendrix" overwrites the last two bytes of the first string (the character `'2'` and the `'\0'`). Horrors! We just overwrote the first string's terminator.

When `PrintArtists()` prints the first string, it keeps printing until it comes to a terminating `'\0'`, which doesn't happen until the end of "Jimi Hendrix". This is a pretty subtle bug. One solution is to make the "width" of the array larger. Instead of 51 bytes for each artist, how about 100 bytes? Although this solution reduces the chances of an out-of-bounds error, it has the disadvantage of requiring more memory and is still not perfect.

A better solution is to read each artist name from the input buffer one character at a time. If you get 50 bytes of data and still haven't reached the end of a name, slap a `'\0'` in the 51st byte and drop the rest of the name in the **bit bucket** (that is, ignore the rest of the name). Hmm. . . . Something tells me that you'll be implementing this solution as an exercise in the back of this chapter. Am I clairvoyant? Could be.

Arrays and Memory

At the beginning of the chapter, we described a program that would track your CD collection. The goal was to look at two different approaches to solving the same problem. The first approach, Model A, uses three arrays to hold a rating, artist name, and title for each CD in the collection:

```
#define kMaxCDs          300
#define kMaxArtistLength 50
#define kMaxTitleLength  50

char  rating[ kMaxCDs ];
char  artist[ kMaxCDs ][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
char  title[ kMaxCDs ][ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
```

Before we move on to Model B, let's take a closer look at the memory used by the Model A arrays.

- The array `rating` uses 1 byte for each CD (enough for a 1-byte rating from 1 to 10).
- The array `artist` uses 51 bytes for each CD (enough for a text string holding the artist's name, up to 50 bytes in length, plus the terminating byte).
- The array `title` also uses 51 bytes for each CD (enough for a text string holding the CD's title, up to 50 bytes in length, plus the terminating byte).

Add those three, and you find that Model A allocates 103 bytes for each CD. Since Model A allocates space for 300 CDs when it declares its three key arrays, it uses $300 * 103 = 30,900$ bytes.

Since the program really needs only 103 bytes for each CD, wouldn't it be nice if you could allocate the memory for a CD when you need it? With this type of approach, if your collection consisted of only 50 CDs, you'd have to use only $50 * 103 = 5150$ bytes of memory instead of 30,900.

As you'll see by the end of the chapter, C provides a mechanism for allocating memory as you need it. Model B takes a first step toward memory efficiency by creating a single data structure that contains all the information relevant to a single CD. Later in the chapter, you'll learn how to allocate just enough memory for a single structure.

Designing Data Structures (Model B)

As stated earlier, our CD program must keep track of a rating (from 1 to 10), the CD artist's name, and the CD's title:

```
#define kMaxCDs          300
#define kMaxArtistLength 50
#define kMaxTitleLength  50

char  rating[ kMaxCDs ];
char  artist[ kMaxCDs ][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
```

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Designing Data Structures (Model B)

```
char title[ kMaxCDs ][ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
```

The struct Keyword

C provides the perfect mechanism for wrapping all three of these variables into one tidy bundle. A `struct` allows you to associate any number of variables together under a single name. Here's an example of a `struct` declaration:

```
#define kMaxArtistLength    50
#define kMaxTitleLength    50

struct CDInfo
{
    char rating;
    char artist[ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
    char title[ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
}
```

This `struct` type declaration creates a new type, called `CDInfo`. Just as you'd use a type such as `short` or `float` to declare a variable, you can use this new type to declare an individual `struct`. Here's an example:

```
struct CDInfo myInfo;
```

This line of code uses the previous type declaration as a template to create an individual `struct`. The compiler uses the type declaration to tell it how much memory to allocate for the `struct`, then allocates a block of memory large enough to hold all of the individual variables that make up the `struct`.

The variables that form the `struct` are known as **fields**. A `struct` of type `CDInfo` has three fields: a `char` named `rating`, an array of `chars` named `artist`, and an array of `chars` named `title`. To access the fields of a `struct`, use the `.` operator:

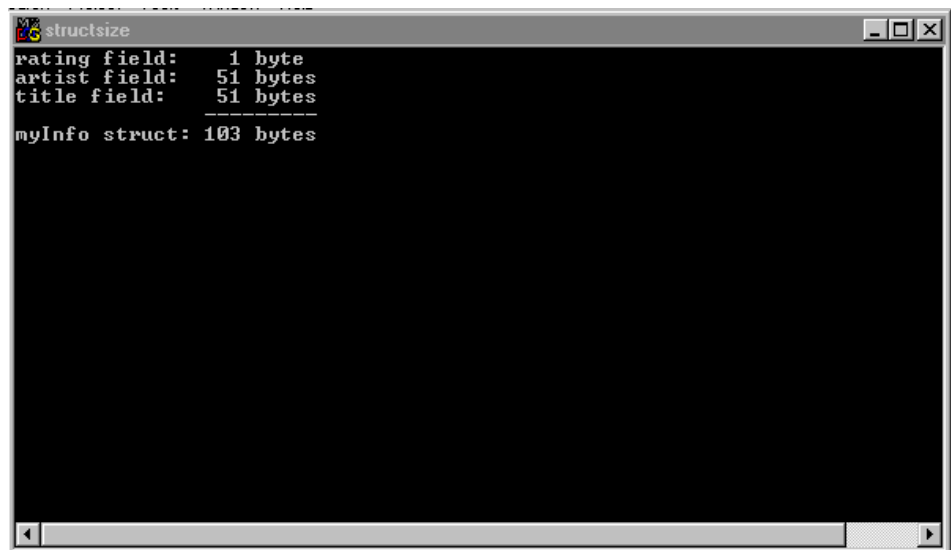
```
struct CDInfo    myInfo;  
  
myInfo.rating = 7;
```

Notice the `.` between the `struct` name (`myInfo`) and the field name (`rating`). The `.` following a `struct` name tells the compiler that a field name is to follow.

A Sample Program: `structSize.cwp`

Here's a program that demonstrates the declaration of a `struct` type, as well as the definition of an individual `struct`. Open the `Learn C Projects` directory, go inside the subdirectory `09.02 - structSize`, and open the project `structSize.cwp`. Run `structSize` by selecting `Run` from the `Project` menu.

Compare your output with the console window shown in Figure 9.3. They should be the same. The first three lines of output show the `rating`, `artist`, and `title` fields. To the right of each field name, you'll find printed the number of bytes of memory allocated to that field. The last line of output shows the memory allocated to the entire `struct`.



```
structsize  
rating field:    1 byte  
artist field:   51 bytes  
title field:    51 bytes  
-----  
myInfo struct: 103 bytes
```

Figure 9.3 `structSize` shows the size of a `CDInfo` struct.

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Designing Data Structures (Model B)

Stepping Through the Source Code

If you haven't done so already, quit `structSize` and take a minute to look over the source code in `structSize.c`. Once you feel comfortable with it, read on.

The program `structSize.c` starts off with our standard `#include`, along with a brand new one:

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

Notice the double quotes around `"structSize.h"`; they tell the compiler to look for this include file in the same directory as the source code file. The compiler compiles the source code it finds in `"structSize.h"` as if it were inside `structSize.c`

In general, angle brackets (`<>`) are used for system include files (such as `<stdio.h>`). Double quotes (`" "`) should be used for include files that belong to your application.

Important

As you've already seen, C include files typically end in the two characters `.h`. Though you *can* give your include files any name you like, the `.h` convention is one you should definitely stick with. Include files are also known as **header files**, which is where the `h` comes from.

Let's take a look at `structSize.h`. Select Open from the File menu, then select and open `structSize.h`

Important

Include files typically contain things like `#defines`, global variables, global declarations, and function prototypes. By embedding these things in an include file, you declutter your source code file and, more important, make this common source code available to other source code files through a single `#include`.

The `structSize.h` header file starts off with two `#defines` you've seen before:

```
#define kMaxArtistLength  50
#define kMaxTitleLength   50
```

Next comes the declaration of the struct type, `CDInfo`:

```
/* ***** */
/* Struct Declarations */
/* ***** */
struct CDInfo
{
    char  rating;
    char  artist[ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
    char  title[ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
};
```

By including the header file at the top of the file (where we might place our globals), we've made the `CDInfo` struct type available to all of the functions inside `structSize.c`. If we placed the `CDInfo` type declaration inside of `main()` instead, our program would still have worked (as long as we placed the type declaration before the definition of `myInfo`), but we would then not have access to the `CDInfo` type outside of `main()`.

That's all that was in the header file `structSize.h`. Back in `structSize.c`, `main()` starts by defining a `CDInfo` struct named `myInfo`, which has three fields: `MYINFO.RATING`, `MYINFO.ARTIST`, and `myInfo.title`.

```
/* ***** > main < */
int main( void )
{
    struct CDInfo  myInfo;
```

The next three statements print the size of the three `myInfo` fields. Notice that we are again using the `%ld` format specifier to print the value returned by `sizeof`:

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Designing Data Structures (Model B)

```
printf( "rating field:    %ld byte\n",
        sizeof( myInfo.rating ) );

printf( "artist field:   %ld bytes\n",
        sizeof( myInfo.artist ) );

printf( "title field:    %ld bytes\n",
        sizeof( myInfo.title ) );
```

This next `printf()` prints a separator line, purely for aesthetics. Notice the way everything lines up in Figure 9.3?

```
printf( "                -----\n" );
```

The last `printf` prints the size in bytes of the entire struct.

```
printf( "myInfo struct: %ld bytes",
        sizeof( myInfo ) );

return 0;
}
```

Passing a struct as a Parameter

Think back to the CD tracking program we've been discussing throughout the chapter. We started off with three separate arrays, each of which tracked a separate element: the rating field, the CD artist, and the title of each CD.

We then introduced the concept of a structure that would group all the elements of one CD together, in a single `struct`. One advantage of a `struct` is that you can use a single pointer to pass all the information about a CD. Imagine a routine called `PrintCD()`, designed to print the three elements that describe a single CD. Using the original array-based model, we'd have to pass three parameters to `PrintCD()`:

```
void PrintCD( char rating, char *artist, char
             *title )
{
    printf("rating: %d\n", rating );
    printf("artist: %s\n", artist );
    printf("title: %s\n", title );
}
```

Using the struct-based model, however, we could pass the info by using a single pointer. As a reminder, here's the `CDInfo` struct declaration again:

```
#define kMaxArtistLength    50
#define kMaxTitleLength    50

struct CDInfo
{
    char  rating;
    char  artist[ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
    char  title[ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
};
```

This version of `main()` defines a `CDInfo` struct and passes its address to a new version of `PrintCD()` (we'll get to it next).

```
int main( void )
{
    struct CDInfo  myInfo;

    PrintCD( &myInfo );

    return 0;
}
```

Just as has been the case in earlier programs, passing the address of a variable to a function gives that function the ability to modify the

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Designing Data Structures (Model B)

original variable. Passing the address of `myInfo` to `PrintCD()` gives `PrintCD()` the ability to modify the three `myInfo` fields. Although our new version of `PrintCD()` doesn't modify `myInfo`, it's important to know that that opportunity exists. Here's the new, struct-based version of `PrintCD()`:

```
void PrintCD( struct CDInfo *myCDPtr )
{
    printf( "rating: %d\n", (*myCDPtr).rating );
    printf( "artist: %s\n", myCDPtr->artist );
    printf( "title: %s\n", myCDPtr->title );
}
```

Notice that `PrintCD()` receives its parameter as a pointer to (address of) a `CDInfo` struct. The first `printf()` uses the `*` operator to turn the struct pointer back to the struct it points to, then uses the `.` operator to access the `rating` field:

```
(*myCDPtr).rating
```

C features a special operator, `->`, that lets you accomplish the same thing. The `->` operator is binary, that is, it requires both a left and a right operand. The left operand is a pointer to a struct, and the right operand is the struct field. The notation `myCDPtr->artist` is exactly the same as `(*myCDPtr).rating`.

Use whichever form you prefer. In general, most C programmers use the `->` operator to get from a struct's pointer to one of the struct's fields.

Passing a Copy of the struct

Here's a version of `main()` that passes the struct itself, instead of its address:

```
int main( void )
{
    struct CDInfo    myInfo;
```

```
PrintCD( myInfo );  
}
```

Whenever the compiler encounters a function parameter, it passes a copy of the parameter to the receiving routine. The previous version of `PrintCD()` received a copy of the address of a `CDInfo` struct.

In this new version of `PrintCD()`, the compiler passes a copy of the entire `CDInfo` struct, not just a copy of its address. This copy of the `CDInfo` struct includes copies of the `rating` field and the `artist` and `title` arrays:

```
void PrintCD( struct CDInfo myCD )  
{  
    printf( "rating: %d\n", myCD.rating );  
    printf( "artist: %s\n", myCD.artist );  
    printf( "title: %s\n", myCD.title );  
}
```

Important

When a function exits, all of its local variables (except for `static` variables, which we'll cover in Chapter 11) are no longer available. This means that any changes you make to a local parameter are lost when the function returns. If this version of `PrintCD()` made changes to its local copy of the `CDInfo` struct, those changes would be lost when `PrintCD()` returned.

Sometimes, you'll want to pass a copy of a struct. One advantage this technique offers is that there's no way that the receiving function can modify the original struct. Another advantage is that it offers a simple mechanism for making a copy of a struct. A disadvantage of this technique is that copying a struct takes time and uses memory. Time won't usually be a problem, but memory usage might be, especially if your struct gets pretty large. Just be aware that whatever you pass as a parameter is going to get copied by the compiler.

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Designing Data Structures (Model B)

Important

There's a sample program in the `Learn C Projects` directory, inside a subdirectory named `09.04 - paramAddress`, that should help show the difference between passing the address of a `struct` and passing a copy of the `struct`. Basically, here's how the program works.

First, `main()` defines a `CDInfo` `struct` named `myCD`, then prints the address of `myCD`'s `rating` field:

```
printf( "Address of myCD.rating in main():
        %ld\n", &(myCD.rating) );
```

Notice that we print an address using the `%ld` format specifier. Although there are other ways to print a variable's address, this works just fine for our purposes. Here's the output of this `printf()`:

```
Address of myCD.rating in main(): 26352526
```

Next, `main()` passes the address of `myCD` and `myCD` as parameters to a routine named `PrintParamInfo()`:

```
PrintParamInfo( &myCD, myCD );
```

Here's the prototype for `PrintParamInfo()`:

```
void      PrintParamInfo( struct CDInfo *myCDPtr,
                          struct CDInfo myCDCopy );
```

The first parameter is a copy of the address of `main()`'s `myCD` `struct`. The second parameter is a copy of the same `struct`. `PrintParamInfo()` prints the address of the `rating` field of each version of `myCD`:

```
printf( "Address of myCDPtr->rating in
        PrintParamInfo(): %ld\n",
```

```
        &(myCDPtr->rating) );  
printf( "Address of myCDCopy.rating in  
        PrintParamInfo(): %ld\n",  
        &(myCDCopy.rating) );
```

Here are the results, including the line of output generated by `main()`:

```
Address of myCD.rating in main(): 26352526  
Address of myCDPtr->rating in PrintParamInfo():  
        26352526  
Address of myCDCopy.rating in PrintParamInfo():  
        26352414
```

Notice that the `rating` field accessed with a pointer has the same address as the original `rating` field in `main()`'s `myCD` struct. If `PrintParamInfo()` uses the first parameter to modify the `rating` field, it will, in effect, be changing `main()`'s `rating` field. If `PrintParamInfo()` uses the second parameter to modify the `rating` field, the `rating` field will remain untouched.

By the way, most programmers use **hexadecimal** (or **hex**) **notation** when they print addresses. Hex notation represents numbers as base 16 instead of the normal base 10 you are used to. Instead of the 10 digits 0 through 9, hex features the 16 digits 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, a, b, c, d, e, and f. Each digit of a number represents a successive power of 16 instead of successive powers of 10.

For example, the number 532 in base 10 is equal to $5 \cdot 10^2 + 3 \cdot 10^1 + 2 \cdot 10^0 = 5 \cdot 100 + 3 \cdot 10 + 2 \cdot 1$. The number 532 in hex is equal to $5 \cdot 16^2 + 3 \cdot 16^1 + 2 \cdot 16^0 = 5 \cdot 256 + 3 \cdot 16 + 2 \cdot 1 = 1330$ in base 10. The number `ff` in hex is equal to $15 \cdot 16 + 15 \cdot 1 = 255$ in base 10. Remember, the hex digit `f` has a decimal (base 10) value of 15.

To represent a hex constant in C, precede it by the characters `0x`. The constant `0xff` has a decimal value of 255. The constant `0xFF` also has a decimal value of 255. C doesn't distinguish between upper- and lowercase when representing hex digits.

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Designing Data Structures (Model B)

To print an address in hex, use the format specifier `%p` instead of `%ld`. Modify `paramAddress` by using `%p`, just to get a taste of hex.

struct Arrays

Just as you can declare an array of chars or ints, you can also declare an array of structs:

```
#define kMaxCDs    300

struct CDInfo    myCDs[ kMaxCDs ];
```

This declaration creates an array of 300 structs of type `CDInfo`. The array is named `myCDs`. Each of the 300 structs will have the three fields `rating`, `artist`, and `title`. You access the fields of the structs as you might expect. Here's an example (note the use of the all-important `.` operator):

```
myCDs[ 10 ].rating = 9;
```

We now have an equivalent to our first CD-tracking data structure. Whereas Model A used three arrays, we now have a solution that uses a single array. As you'll see when you start writing your own programs, packaging your data in a struct makes life a bit simpler. Instead of passing three parameters each time you need to pass a CD to a function, you can simply pass a struct.

From a memory standpoint, both CD tracking solutions cost about the same. With three separate arrays, the cost is:

```

                300 bytes /* rating array */
300 * 51 = 15,300 bytes /* artist array */
300 * 51 = 15,300 bytes /* artist array */
-----
Total        30,900 bytes
```

With an array of `structs`, the cost is:

```
300 * 104 = 31,200 bytes /* Cost of array of 300
                          CDInfo structs */
```

Why does the array of `structs` take up 300 more bytes than the three separate arrays? Easy. Each `struct` contains a byte of padding to bring its size from an odd number (103) to an even number (104). Since the array contains 300 `structs`, we accumulate 300 bytes of padding. Since 300 bytes is pretty negligible, these two methods are reasonably close in terms of memory cost.

So what can we do to cut this memory cost down? Thought you'd never ask!

Allocating Your Own Memory

One of the limitations of an array-based CD tracking model is that arrays are not resizable. When you define an array, you have to specify exactly how many elements make up your array. For example, this code defines an array of 300 `CDInfo` `structs`:

```
#define kMaxCDs      300

struct CDInfo  myCDs[ kMaxCDs ];
```

As we calculated earlier, this array will take up 31,200 bytes of memory, whether we use 1 array or 300 to track a CD. If you know in advance exactly how many elements your array requires, arrays are just fine. In the case of our CD tracking program, this just isn't practical. For example, if my CD collection consists entirely of a test CD that came with my stereo and a rare soundtrack recording of *Gilligan's Island* outtakes, a 300-`struct` array is overkill. Even worse, what happens if I've got more than 300 CDs? No matter what number I pick for `kMaxCDs`, there's always the chance that it won't prove large enough.

The problem here is that arrays are just not flexible enough to do what we want. Instead of trying to predict the amount of memory

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Allocating Your Own Memory

we'll need in advance, what we need is a method that will allow us to get a chunk of memory the size of a `CDInfo struct`, as we need it. In more technical terms, we need to allocate and manage our own memory.

When your application starts, some memory is used to hold the object code that makes up your application. Still more memory is used to hold such things as your application's global variables. As your application runs, some memory will be allocated to `main()` local variables. When `main()` calls a function, memory is allocated for that function's local variables. When that function returns, the memory allocated for its local variables is freed up, or made available to be allocated again.

In the next few sections, you'll learn about some functions you can call to allocate a block of memory and to free the memory (to return it to the pool of available memory). Ultimately, we'll combine these functions with a special data structure to provide a memory-efficient, more flexible alternative to the array.

Using Standard Library Functions

`malloc()`

The Standard Library function `malloc()` allows you to allocate a block of memory of a specified size. To access `malloc()`, you'll need to include the file `<stdlib.h>`:

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

The function `malloc()` takes a single parameter, the size of the requested block, in bytes. `malloc()` returns a pointer to the newly allocated block of memory. Here's the function prototype:

```
void *malloc( size_t size );
```

By the Way

Note that the parameter is declared to be of type `size_t`, the same type returned by `sizeof`. Think of `size_t` as equivalent to an unsigned `long`. Note also that `malloc()` returns the type

`(void *)`, a pointer to a `void`. A `void` pointer is essentially a generic pointer. Since there's no such thing as a variable of type `void`, the type `(void *)` is used to declare a pointer to a block of memory whose type has not been determined.

In general, you'll convert the `(void *)` returned by `malloc()` to the pointer type you really want. Read on to see an example of this.

If `malloc()` can't allocate a block of memory the size you requested, it returns a pointer with the value `NULL`. `NULL`, a constant, is usually defined to have a value of 0 and is used to specify an invalid pointer. In other words, a pointer with a value of `NULL` does not point to a legal memory address. You'll learn more about `NULL` and `(void *)` as we use them in our examples.

Here's a code fragment that allocates a single `CDInfo` struct

```
struct CDInfo    *myCDPtr;

myCDPtr = malloc( sizeof( struct CDInfo ) );
```

The first line of code declares a new variable, `myCDPtr`, which is a pointer to a `CDInfo` struct. At this point, `myCDPtr` doesn't point to a `CDInfo` struct. You've just told the compiler that `myCDPtr` is designed to point to a `CDInfo` struct.

The second line of code calls `malloc()` to create a block of memory the size of a `CDInfo` struct; `sizeof` returns its result as a `size_t`, the type we need to pass as a parameter to `malloc()`. How convenient!

By the Way

On the right side of the `=` operator is a `(void *)` and on the left side a `(struct CDInfo *)`. The compiler automatically resolves this type difference for us. We could have used a typecast here to make this more explicit:

```
myCDPtr = (struct CDInfo *)malloc(sizeof(struct
```

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Allocating Your Own Memory

```
CDInfo );
```

It really isn't necessary, however, and besides, we won't get into typecasting until Chapter 11!

If `malloc()` was able to allocate a block of memory the size of a `CDInfo` struct, `myCDPtr` contains the address of the first byte of this new block. If `malloc()` was unable to allocate our new block (perhaps there wasn't enough unallocated memory left), `myCDPtr` will be set to `NULL`.

```
if ( myCDPtr == NULL )
    printf( "Couldn't allocate the new block!\n" );
else
    printf( "Allocated the new block!\n" );
```

If `malloc()` succeeded, `myCDPtr` points to a struct of type `CDInfo`. For the duration of the program, we can use `myCDPtr` to access the fields of this newly allocated struct:

```
myCDPtr->rating = 7;
```

It is important to understand the difference between a block of memory allocated using `malloc()` and a block of memory that corresponds to a local variable. When a function declares a local variable, the memory associated with that variable is temporary. As soon as the function exits, the block of memory associated with that memory is returned to the pool of available memory. A block of memory that you allocate using `malloc()`, by contrast, sticks around until you specifically return it to the pool of available memory.

free()

The Standard Library function `free()` returns a previously allocated block of memory back to the pool of available memory. Here's the function prototype:

```
void free( void *ptr );
```

This function takes a single argument, a pointer to the first byte of a previously allocated block of memory, for example:

```
free( myCDPtr );
```

This line returns the block allocated earlier to the free-memory pool. Use `malloc()` to allocate a block of memory. Use `free()` to free up a block of memory allocated with `malloc()`. When a program exits, the operating system automatically frees up all allocated memory.

Warning

Never pass an address to `free()` that didn't come from `malloc()`. Never put a fork in an electrical outlet. Both will make you extremely unhappy!

Keep Track of That Address!

The address returned by `malloc()` is critical. If you lose it, you've lost access to the block of memory you just allocated. Even worse, you can never free up the block, and it will just sit there, wasting valuable memory, for the duration of your program.

By the Way

One great way to lose a block's address is to call `malloc()` inside a function, saving the address returned by `malloc()` in a local variable. When the function exits, your local variable goes away, taking the address of your new block with it!

One way to keep track of a newly allocated block of memory is to place the address in a global variable. Another way is to place the pointer inside a special data structure known as a **linked list**.

Working with Linked Lists

The linked list is one of the most widely used data structures in C. A linked list is a series of `struct`s, each of which contains, as a field, a pointer. Each `struct` in the series uses its pointer to point to the next `struct` in the series. Figure 9.4 shows a linked list containing three elements.

A linked list starts with a **master pointer**. The master pointer is a pointer variable, typically a global, that points to the first `struct` in the list. This first `struct` contains a field, also a pointer, that points to the second `struct` in the linked list. The second `struct` contains a pointer field that points to the third element. The linked list in Figure 9.4 ends with the third element. The pointer field in the last element of a linked list is typically set to `NULL`.

By the Way

The notation used at the end of the linked list in Figure 9.4 is borrowed from our friends in electrical engineering. The funky three-line symbol at the end of the last pointer represents a `NULL` pointer.

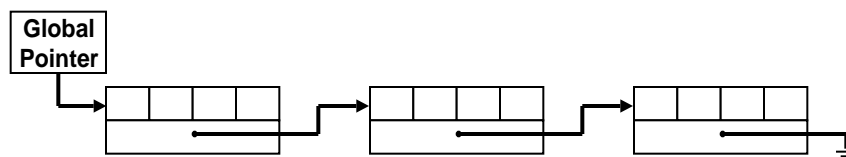


Figure 9.4 A linked list containing three elements.

Why Use Linked Lists?

Linked lists allow you to be extremely memory efficient. Using a linked list, you can implement our CD-tracking data structure, allocating exactly the number of `struct`s that you need. Each time a CD is added to your collection, you'll allocate a new `struct` and add it to the linked list.

A linked list starts out as a single master pointer. When you want to add an element to the list, call `malloc()` to allocate a block of memory for the new element. Next, make the master pointer point to the new block. Finally, set the new block's next element pointer to `NULL`.

Creating a Linked List

The first step in creating a linked list is to design the main link, the linked list struct. Here's a sample:

```
#define kMaxArtistLength    50
#define kMaxTitleLength    50

struct CDInfo
{
    char    rating;
    char    artist[ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
    char    title[ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
    struct CDInfo    *next;
}
```

The change here is the addition of a fourth field, a pointer to a `CDInfo` struct. The next field is the key to connecting two `CDInfo` structs. If `myFirstPtr` is a pointer to one `CDInfo` struct and `mySecondPtr` is a pointer to a second struct, the following line connects the two structs:

```
myFirstPtr->next = mySecondPtr;
```

Once they are connected, you can use a pointer to the first struct to access the fields in the second struct! For example:

```
myFirstPtr->next->rating = 7;
```

This line sets the `rating` field of the second struct to 7. Using the next field to get from one struct to the next is also known as **traversing a linked list**.

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Working with Linked Lists

Our next (and final) program for this chapter will incorporate the new version of the `CDInfo` struct to demonstrate a more memory-efficient CD tracking program. This program is pretty long, so you may want to take a few moments to let the dog out and answer your mail.

By the Way

There are many variants of the linked list. If you connect the last element of a linked list to the first element, you create a never-ending, circular list. You can add a `prev` field to the struct and use it to point to the previous element in the list (as opposed to the next one). This technique allows you to traverse the linked list in two directions and creates a doubly linked list.

As you gain more programming experience, you'll want to check out some books on data structures. Three books well worth exploring are *Algorithms in C* by Robert Sedgewick, *Data Structures and C Programs* by Christopher J. Van Wyk, and Volume 1 (subtitled *Fundamental Algorithms*) of Donald Knuth's Computer Science series. As always, these books are listed in the bibliography in Appendix F.

A Sample Program: `cdTracker.cwp`

This program implements Model B of our CD tracking system. The program uses a text-based menu, allowing you to quit, add a new CD to the collection, or list all of the currently tracked CDs.

Open the `Learn C Projects` directory, go inside the subdirectory `09.05 - cdTracker`, and open the project `cdTracker.cwp`. Run `cdTracker` by selecting Run from the Project menu. The console window will appear, showing the prompt:

```
Enter command (q=quit, n=new, l=list):
```

At this point, you have three choices. You can type a `q`, followed by a carriage return, to quit the program. You can type an `n`, followed by a carriage return, to add a new CD to your collection. Finally, you

can type an `l`, followed by a carriage return, to list all the CDs in your collection.

Start by typing an `l`, followed by a carriage return. You should see the message:

```
No CDs have been entered yet...
```

Next, the original command prompt should reappear:

```
Enter command (q=quit, n=new, l=list):
```

This time, type an `n`, followed by a carriage return. You will be prompted for the artist's name and the title of a CD you'd like added to your collection:

```
Enter Artist's Name: Frank Zappa  
Enter CD Title: Anyway the Wind Blows
```

Next, you'll be prompted for a rating for the new CD. The program expects a number between 1 and 10. Try typing something unexpected, such as the letter `x`, followed by a carriage return:

```
Enter CD Rating (1-10): x  
Enter CD Rating (1-10): 10
```

The program checks your input, discovers it isn't in the proper range, and repeats the prompt. This time, type a number between 1 and 10, followed by a carriage return. The program returns you to the main command prompt:

```
Enter command (q=quit, n=new, l=list):
```

Type the letter `l`, followed by a carriage return. The single CD you just entered will be listed, and the command prompt will again be displayed:

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Working with Linked Lists

```
Artist:  Frank Zappa
Title:   Anyway the Wind Blows
Rating:  10
```

```
Enter command (q=quit, n=new, l=list):
```

Type an *n*, followed by a carriage return, and enter another CD. Repeat the process one more time, adding a third CD to the collection. Now enter the letter *l*, followed by a carriage return, to list all three CDs. Here's my list:

```
Enter command (q=quit, n=new, l=list):  l
```

```
Artist:  Frank Zappa
Title:   Anyway the Wind Blows
Rating:  10
```

```
Artist:  XTC
Title:   The Big Express
Rating:  8
```

```
Artist:  Jane Siberry
Title:   Bound by the Beauty
Rating:  9
```

```
Enter command (q=quit, n=new, l=list):
```

Finally, enter a *q*, followed by a carriage return, to quit the program. Let's hit the source code.

Stepping Through the Source Code

The code for `cdTracker.c` starts by including three different files: `<stdlib.h>` gives us access to `malloc()` and `free()`; `<stdio.h>` gives us access to such routines as `printf()`, `getchar()`, and `gets()`:

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

The third include file is our own "`cdTracker.h`", which starts off with three `#defines` that you should know pretty well by now:

```
/* **** */
/* Defines */
/* **** */
#define kMaxCDs          300
#define kMaxArtistLength 50
#define kMaxTitleLength  50
```

Next comes the new and improved `CDInfo` struct declaration:

```
/* **** */
/* Struct Declarations */
/* **** */
struct CDInfo
{
    char rating;
    char artist[ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
    char title[ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
    struct CDInfo *next;
} *gFirstPtr, *gLastPtr;
```

Notice the two variables hanging off the end of this struct declaration. This is a shorthand declaration of two globals, each of which is a pointer to a `CDInfo` struct. We'll use these two globals to keep track of our linked list.

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Working with Linked Lists

The global `gFirstPtr` will always point to the first struct in the linked list; the global `gLastPtr` will always point to the last struct in the linked list. We'll use `gFirstPtr` when we want to step through the linked list, starting at the beginning. We'll use `gLastPtr` when we want to add an element to the end of the list. As long as we keep these pointers around, we'll have access to the linked list of memory blocks we'll be allocating.

By the Way

We could have split this declaration into two parts, like this:

```
struct CDInfo
{
    char    rating;
    char    artist[ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
    char    title[ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
    struct CDInfo    *next;
};

struct CDInfo    *gFirstPtr, *gLastPtr;
```

Either form is fine, although the shorthand version in `cdTracker.h` does a better job of showing that `gFirstPtr` and `gLastPtr` belong with the `CDInfo` struct declaration.

The header file `cdTracker.h` ends with a series of function prototypes:

```
/* ***** */
/* Function Prototypes */
/* ***** */
char    GetCommand( void );
struct CDInfo    *ReadStruct( void );
void    AddToList( struct CDInfo *curPtr );
void    ListCDs( void );
void    Flush( void );
```

Let's get back to `cdTracker.c`; `main()` defines a `char` named `command`, which will be used to hold the single-letter command typed by the user:

```
/******> main <*/  
int main( void )  
{  
    char  command;
```

Next, the variables `gFirstPtr` and `gLastPtr` are set to a value of `NULL`. As defined earlier, `NULL` indicates that these pointers do not point to valid memory addresses. Once we add an item to the list, these pointers will no longer be `NULL`:

```
    gFirstPtr = NULL;  
    gLastPtr = NULL;
```

Next, `main()` enters a `while` loop, calling the function `GetCommand()`. `GetCommand()` prompts you for a one-character command: a `'q'`, `'n'`, or `'l'`. Once `GetCommand()` returns a `'q'`, we drop out of the `while` loop and exit the program.

```
    while ( (command = GetCommand() ) != 'q' )  
    {
```

If `GetCommand()` returns an `'n'`, the user wants to enter information on a new CD. First, we call `ReadStruct()`, which allocates space for a `CDInfo` struct, then prompts the user for the information to place in the fields of the new struct. Once the struct is filled out, `ReadStruct()` returns a pointer to the newly allocated struct.

The pointer returned by `ReadStruct()` is passed on to `AddToList()`, which adds the new struct to the linked list:

```
        switch( command )  
        {
```

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Working with Linked Lists

```
    case 'n':
        AddToList( ReadStruct() );
        break;
```

If `GetCommand()` returns an `'l'`, the user wants to list all the CDs in his or her collection. That's what the function `ListCDs()` does:

```
    case 'l':
        ListCDs();
        break;
    }
}
```

Before the program exits, it says "Goodbye...".

```
    printf( "Goodbye..." );
}
```

Next up on the panel is `GetCommand()`. `GetCommand()` declares a `char` named `command`, used to hold the user's command:

```
/******> GetCommand <*/
char GetCommand( void )
{
    char command;
```

Because we want to execute the body of this next loop at least once, we used a `do` loop instead of a `while` loop. We'll first prompt the user to enter a command, then use `scanf()` to read a character from the input buffer. The function `Flush()` will read characters, one at a time, from the input buffer until it reads in a carriage return. If we didn't call `Flush()`, any extra characters we typed after the command (including the `'\n'`) would be picked up the next time through this loop, and extra prompt lines would appear, one for each extra character. To see this effect, comment out the call to

Flush() and type more than one character when prompted for a command:

```
do
{
    printf( "Enter command (q=quit, n=new,
            l=list):  " );
    scanf( "%c", &command );
    Flush();
}
while ( (command != 'q') && (command != 'n')
        && (command != 'l') );
```

We'll drop out of the loop once we get a 'q', an 'n', or an 'l'.

By the Way

Here's a cool trick Keith Rollin (C guru extraordinaire) showed me. Instead of ending the do loop with this statement:

```
while ( (command != 'q') && (command != 'n')
        && (command != 'l') );
```

try this code instead:

```
while ( ! strchr( "qnl", command ) );
```

The two parameters of `strchr()` are: a zero-terminated string and an `int` containing a character. First, `strchr()` searches the string for the character and, if it was found, returns a pointer to the character inside the string. If the character wasn't in the string, `strchr()` returns `NULL`. Pretty cool, eh?

Once we drop out of the loop, we'll print a separator line and return the single-letter command:

```
printf( "\n-----\n" );
```


Designing Your Own Data Structures

Working with Linked Lists

```
    return( command );
}
```

Next up is `ReadStruct()`. Notice the unusual declaration of the function name:

```
/******> ReadStruct <*/
struct CDInfo  *ReadStruct( void )
{
```

This line says that `ReadStruct()` returns a pointer to a `CDInfo` struct:

```
struct CDInfo  *ReadStruct( void )
```

`ReadStruct()` uses `malloc()` to allocate a block of memory the size of a `CDInfo` struct. The variable `infoPtr` will act as a pointer to the new block. We'll use the variable `num` to read in the rating, which we'll eventually store in `infoPtr->rating`

```
    struct CDInfo  *infoPtr;
    int            num;
```

`ReadStruct()` calls `malloc()` to allocate a `CDInfo` struct, assigning the address of the block returned to `infoPtr`:

```
    infoPtr = malloc( sizeof( struct CDInfo ) );
```

If `malloc()` cannot allocate a block of the requested size, it will return a value of `NULL`. If this happens, we'll print an appropriate message and call the Standard Library function `exit()`. As its name implies, `exit()` causes the program to immediately exit.

```
    if ( infoPtr == NULL )
    {
```

```
    printf( "Out of memory!!!  Goodbye!\n" );
    exit( 0 );
}
```

By the Way

The parameter you pass to `exit()` will be passed back to the operating system (or to whatever program launched your program).

If we're still here, `malloc()` must have succeeded. Next, we'll print a prompt for the CD artist's name, then call `gets()` to read a line from the input buffer and place that line in the `artist` field of the newly allocated `struct`.

We then repeat the process to prompt for and read in the CD title:

```
    printf( "Enter Artist's Name:  " );
    gets( infoPtr->artist );

    printf( "Enter CD Title:  " );
    gets( infoPtr->title );
```

This loop prompts the user to enter a number between 1 and 10. We then use `scanf()` to read an `int` from the input buffer. Note that we used a temporary `int` to read in the number instead of reading it directly into `infoPtr->rating`. We did this because the `%d` format specifier expects an `int`, and `rating` is declared as a `char`. Once we read the number, we call `Flush()` to get rid of any other characters (including the `'\n'`):

```
do
{
    printf( "Enter CD Rating (1-10):  " );
    scanf( "%d", &num );
    Flush();
}
while ( ( num < 1 ) || ( num > 10 ) );
```

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Working with Linked Lists

Warning

This `do` loop is not as careful as it could be. If `scanf()` encounters an error of some kind, `num` will end up with an undefined value. If that undefined value happens to be between 1 and 10, the loop will exit, and an unwanted value will be entered in the `rating` field. Although that might not be such a big deal in our case, we probably would want to drop out of the loop or, at the very least, print some kind of error message if this happens.

Here's another version of the same code:

```
do
{
    printf( "Enter CD Rating (1-10):  " );
    if ( scanf( "%d", &num ) != 1 )
    {
        printf( "Error returned by
                scanf()!\n" );
        exit( -1 );
    };
    Flush();
}
while ( ( num < 1 ) || ( num > 10 ) );
```

Now, `scanf()` returns the number of items it read. Since we've asked it to read a single `int`, this version prints an error message and exits if we don't read exactly one item. This is a pretty simplistic error strategy, but it does make a point. Pay attention to error conditions and to function return values.

Once a number between 1 and 10 is read in, it is assigned to the `rating` field of the newly allocated `struct`:

```
infoPtr->rating = num;
```

Finally, a separating line is printed, and the pointer to the new struct is returned:

```
printf( "\n-----\n" );

return( infoPtr );
}
```

`AddToList()` takes a pointer to a `CDInfo` struct as a parameter. It uses the pointer to add the struct to the linked list:

```
/*> AddToList <*/
void AddToList( struct CDInfo *curPtr )
{
```

If `gFirstPtr` is `NULL`, the list must be empty. If it is, make `gFirstPtr` point to the new struct:

```
if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
    gFirstPtr = curPtr;
```

If `gFirstPtr` is not `NULL`, there's at least one element in the linked list. In that case, make the next field of the very last element on the list point to the new struct:

```
else
    gLastPtr->next = curPtr;
```

In either case, set `gLastPtr` to point to the new "last element in the list." Finally, make sure that the next field of the last element in the list is `NULL`. You'll see why we did this in the next function, `ListCDs()`.

```
gLastPtr = curPtr;
curPtr->next = NULL;
```

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Working with Linked Lists

```
}
```

ListCDs() lists all the CDs in the linked list. The variable `curPtr` is used to point to the link element currently being looked at:

```
/******> ListCDs <*/  
void ListCDs( void )  
{  
    struct CDInfo    *curPtr;
```

If no CDs have been entered yet, we'll print an appropriate message:

```
    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )  
    {  
        printf( "No CDs have been entered yet...\n" );  
        printf( "\n-----\n" );  
    }
```

Otherwise, we'll use a `for` loop to step through the linked list. The `for` loop starts by setting `curPtr` to point to the first element in the linked list and continues as long as `curPtr` is not `NULL`. Each time through the loop, `curPtr` is set to point to the next element in the list. Since we make sure that the last element's next pointer is always set to `NULL`, we know that when `curPtr` is equal to `NULL`, we have been through every element in the list and that we are done:

```
    else  
    {  
        for ( curPtr=gFirstPtr; curPtr!=NULL; curPtr =  
              curPtr->next )  
        {
```

Next, the first two `printf()` routines use the `%s` format specifier to print the strings in the fields `artist` and `title`:

```
printf( "Artist:  %s\n", curPtr->artist );
printf( "Title:   %s\n", curPtr->title );
```

Next, the rating field and a separating line are printed, and it's back to the top of the loop:

```
printf( "Rating:  %d\n", curPtr->rating );

printf( "\n-----\n" );
}
}
}
```

Flush() uses getchar() to read characters from the input buffer until it reads in a carriage return. Flush() is a good utility routine to have around:

```
/******> Flush <*/
void Flush( void )
{
    while ( getchar() != '\n' )
        ;
}
```

By the Way

Flush() was based on the Standard Library function fflush(), which flushes the input buffer associated with a specific file. Since we haven't gotten into files yet, we wrote our own version, but as you can see, it wasn't that difficult.

What's Next?

This chapter covered a wide range of topics, from #includes to linked lists. The intent of the chapter, however, was to attack a real-world programming problem: in this case, a program to catalog CDs. The chapter showed several design approaches, discussing the

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Exercises

pros and cons of each. Finally, the chapter presented a prototype for a CD tracking program. The program allows you to enter information about a series of CDs and, on request, will present a list of all the CDs tracked.

One problem with this program, however, is that once you exit, you lose all of the data you entered. The next time you run the program, you have to start all over again.

Chapter 10 offers a solution to this problem. The chapter introduces the concept of files and file management, showing you how to save your data from memory out to your disk drive and how to read your data back in again. The chapter updates `cdTracker`, storing the CD information collected in a file on your disk drive.

Exercises

1. What's wrong with each of the following code fragments:

- a.

```
struct Employee
{
    char name[ 20 ];
    int employeeNumber
};
```
- b.

```
while ( getchar() == '\n' ) ;
```
- c.

```
#include "stdio.h"
```
- d.

```
struct Link
{
    name[ 50 ];
    Link*next;
};
```
- e.

```
struct Link
{
    struct Linknext;
    struct Link prev;
}
```
- f.

```
StepAndPrint( char *line )
{
    while ( *line != 0 )
        line++;
```

```
    printf( "%s", line );  
}
```

2. Update `multiArrayso` it gets its input one byte at a time. If more characters are entered than will fit in the `struct`, terminate the string with as many bytes as will fit, and ignore the rest.
3. Update `cdTracker.c` so it maintains its linked list in order from the lowest rating to the highest rating. If two CDs have the same rating, the order is unimportant.
4. Update `cdTracker.c` adding a `prev` field to the `CDInfo` `struct` so it maintains a doubly linked list. As before, the `next` field will point to the next link in the list. Now, however, the `prev` field should point to the previous link in the list. Add to the menu an option that prints the list backward, from the last `struct` in the list to the first.

Designing Your Own Data Structures

Exercises



Working with Files

Chapter 9 introduced `cdTracker`, a program designed to keep track of your compact disc collection. The program `cdTracker` allowed you to enter a new CD, as well as to list all existing CDs. However, `cdTracker` didn't save the CD information when it exited. If you ran `cdTracker`, entered information on 10 CDs, and then quit, your information would be gone. The next time you ran `cdTracker`, you'd have to start from scratch.

The solution to this problem is somehow to save all of the CD information before you quit the program. This chapter will show you how. Chapter 10 introduces the concept of **files** for the long-term storage of your program's data.

What Is a File?

A file is a series of bytes residing in some storage media. Files can be stored on your hard drive, on a floppy disk, or even on a CD-ROM. The word processor you keep on your hard drive resides in a file. Each document you create with your word processor also resides in a file.

The CD that contains this book contains many different files. The CodeWarrior compiler lives in its own file. Each of the Learn C projects consists of at least two files: a project file and at least one source code file. When you compile and link a project, you produce a new kind of file, an executable file. All of these are examples of the same thing: a collection of bytes known as a file.

All of the files on your computer share a common set of traits. For example, each file has a size. The file `autoexec.bat` has a size of 441 bytes. The file `winmine.exe` has a size of 24,176 bytes. Each of these files resides on a hard disk drive attached to my computer.

Working with Files, Part One

In the C world, each file consists of a **stream** of consecutive bytes. When you want to access the data in a file, you first **open** the file using a Standard Library function named `fopen()`, pronounced eff-open. Once your file is open, you can **read** data from the file or write new data back into the file, using Standard Library functions, such as `fscanf()` and `fprintf()`. Once you are done working with your file, you'll close it by using the Standard Library function `fclose()`.

Opening and Closing a File

Here's the function prototype for `fopen()`, found in the file `<stdio.h>`:

```
FILE *fopen( const char *name, const char *mode );
```

By the Way

The `const` keyword marks a variable or a parameter as read-only. In other words, `fopen()` is not allowed to modify the array of characters pointed at by `name` or `mode`. Here's another example:

```
const int    myInt = 27;
```

This declaration creates an `int` named `myInt` and assigns it a value of 27 (we'll talk in Chapter 11 about definitions that also initialize). More important, the value of `myInt` is now permanently set, and `myInt` is now read-only. As long as `myInt` remains in scope, you can't change its value.

The first parameter, `name`, tells `fopen()` which file you want to open. For example, the file name "My Data File" tells `fopen()` to look in the current directory (the directory containing the currently running application) for a file named `My Data File`.

Important

The backslash character (`\`) has a special meaning in a Windows file. A single backslash refers to the current directory, and a pair of

backslashes refers to a subdirectory's parent directory. For example, the file name `\\My Data File` refers to a file named `My Data File` in the directory containing the current subdirectory. The file name `\\folder\\file` refers to a file named `file` in a subdirectory named `folder`, which is in the current directory.

Be aware that different operating systems use different file-naming conventions. UNIX uses a `/` instead of a `\` and `//` instead of `\\`. The Macintosh uses `:` and `::` instead of `\` and `\\`. Check with your operating system's technical manuals and experiment for yourself!

The second parameter, `mode`, tells `fopen()` how you'll be accessing the file. The three basic file modes are `"r"`, `"w"`, and `"a"`, for read, write, and **append**, respectively.

Using `"r"` tells `fopen()` that you want to read data from the file and that you won't be writing to the file at all. The file must already exist in order to use this mode. In other words, you can't use the mode `"r"` to create a file.

The mode `"w"` tells `fopen()` that you want to write to the specified file. If the file doesn't exist yet, a new file with the specified name is created. If the file does exist, `fopen()` deletes it and creates a new empty file for you to write into.

Warning

This last point bears repeating. Calling `fopen()` with a mode of `"w"` will delete the contents of an existing file, essentially starting you over from the beginning of the file. Be careful!

The mode `"a"`, similar to `"w"`, tells `fopen()` that you want to write to the specified file and to create the file if it doesn't exist. If the file does exist, however, the data you write to the file is appended to the end of the file.

If `fopen()` successfully opens the specified file, it allocates a `struct` of type `FILE` and returns a pointer to the `FILE struct`, which contains information about the open file, including the current mode (`"r"`, `"w"`, `"a"`, or whatever), as well as the current **file**

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part One

position. The file position, acting like a bookmark in a book, is a pointer into the file. When you open a file for reading, for example, the file position points to the first byte in the file. When you read the first byte, the file position moves to the next byte.

It's not really important to know the details of the `FILE struct`. All you need to do is keep track of the `FILE` pointer returned by `fopen()`. By passing the pointer to a Standard Library function that reads or writes, you'll be sure that the read or write takes place in the right file and at the right file position. You'll see how all this works as we go through the chapter sample code.

Here's a sample `fopen()` call:

```
FILE *fp;

if ( (fp = fopen( "My Data File", "r")) == NULL )
{
    printf( "File doesn't exist!!!\n" );
    exit(1);
}
```

This code first calls `fopen()`, attempting to open the file named `My Data File` for reading. If `fopen()` cannot open the file for some reason (perhaps you've asked it to open a file that doesn't exist or you've already opened the maximum number of files), it returns `NULL`. In that case, we'll print an error message and exit.

By the Way

There is a limit to the number of simultaneously open files. This limit is implemented as a constant, `FOPEN_MAX`, defined in the file `<stdio.h>`.

If `fopen()` does manage to open the file, it will allocate the memory for a `FILE struct`, and `fp` will point to that `struct`. We can then pass `fp` to routines that read from the file. Once we're done with the file, we'll pass `fp` to the function `fclose()`:

```
int fclose( FILE *stream );
```

Next, `fclose()` takes a pointer to a `FILE` as a parameter and attempts to close the specified file. If the file is closed successfully, `fclose()` frees up the memory allocated to the `FILE` struct and returns a value of 0. It is very important that you match every `fopen()` with a corresponding `fclose()`; otherwise, you'll end up with unneeded `FILE` structs floating around in memory.

In addition, once you've passed a `FILE` pointer to `fclose()`, that `FILE` pointer no longer points to a `FILE` struct. If you want to access the file again, you'll have to make another `fopen()` call.

By the Way

If `fclose()` fails, it returns a value of `-1`. Many programmers ignore the value returned by `fclose()`, since there's not a whole lot you can do about it. On the other hand, you can never have too much error checking in your code, so you might consider checking the value returned by `fclose()` and, at the very least, printing an appropriate error message if `fclose()` fails.

Reading a File

Once you open a file for reading, the next step is to read data from the file. There are several Standard Library functions to help you do just that. For starters, the function `fgetc()` reads a single character from a file's input buffer. Here's the function prototype:

```
int fgetc( FILE *fp );
```

The single parameter is the `FILE` pointer returned by `fopen()`. After reading a single character from the file, `fgetc()` advances the file position pointer. If the file position pointer is already at the end of the file, `fgetc()` returns the constant `EOF`.

By the Way

Although `fgetc()` returns an `int`, the following also works just fine:

```
char          c;
```

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part One

```
c = fgetc( fp );
```

When the C compiler encounters two different types on each side of an assignment operator, it does its best to convert the value on the right-hand side to the type of the left-hand side before doing the assignment. As long as the type of the right-hand side is no larger than the type of the left-hand side (as is the case here, as an `int` is at least as large as a `char`), this won't be a problem.

We'll get into the specifics of typecasting in Chapter 11.

The function `fgets()` reads a series of characters into an array of chars. Here's the function prototype:

```
char *fgets( char *s, int n, FILE *fp );
```

The first parameter is a pointer to an array of chars that you've already allocated. Don't just declare a `(char *)` and pass it in to `fgets()`. Instead, allocate an array of chars large enough to hold the largest block of chars you might end up reading in, then pass a pointer to that array as the first parameter (you'll see an example in a second).

The second parameter is the maximum number of characters you'd like to read. The function `fgets()` stops reading once it reads in `n-1` chars or if it encounters an end-of-file or a `'\n'` before it reads `n-1` chars. If `fgets()` successfully reads `n-1` chars, it appends a 0 terminator to the char array (that's why the array has to be at least `n` chars in size). If `fgets()` encounters a `'\n'` before it reads `n-1` chars, it stops reading after the `'\n'` is read, then adds the 0 terminator to the array, right after the `'\n'`. If `fgets()` encounters an end-of-file before it reads `n-1` chars, it adds the 0 terminator to the array, right after the last character read. If `fgets()` encounters an end-of-file before it reads in any chars, it returns `NULL`. Otherwise, `fgets()` returns a pointer to the char array.

Finally, the third parameter is the `FILE` pointer returned by `fopen()`. Here's an example:

```
#define kMaxBufferSize    200

FILE    *fp;
char    buffer[ kMaxBufferSize ];

if ( (fp = fopen( "My Data File", "r")) == NULL )
{
    printf( "File doesn't exist!!!\n" );
    exit(1);
}

if ( fgets( buffer, kMaxBufferSize, fp ) == NULL )
{
    if ( feof( fp ) )
        printf( "End-of-file!!!\n" );
    else
        printf( "Unknown error!!!\n" );
}
else
    printf( "File contents: %s\n", buffer );
```

Notice that the example calls a function named `feof()` if `fgets()` returns `NULL`. `NULL` is returned no matter what error `fgets()` encounters. The function `feof()` returns `true` if the last read on the specified file resulted in an end-of-file and a `false` otherwise.

The function `fscanf()` is similar to `scanf()`, reading from a file instead of the keyboard. Here's the prototype:

```
int    fscanf( FILE *fp, const char* format, ... );
```

The first parameter is the `FILE` pointer returned by `fopen()`. The second parameter is a format specification embedded inside a character string. The format specification tells `fscanf()` what kind of data you want read from the file. The `...` operator in a parameter list tells the compiler that zero or more parameters may follow the second parameter. Like `scanf()` and `printf()`, `fscanf()` uses

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part One

the format specification to determine the number of parameters it expects to see. Be sure to pass the correct number of parameters; otherwise, your program will get confused.

These are a few of the file-access functions provided by the Standard Library. Check out the Standard Library function summaries found in Appendix D in this book and in electronic form on the book's CD (search for the file name `C Library Reference`) Even better, get yourself a copy of *C: A Reference Manual* by Harbison and Steele and check out Chapter 15, "Input/Output Facilities."

In the meantime, the next section provides an example that uses the functions `fopen()` and `fgetc()` to open a file and display its contents.

printFile.cwp

This program opens a file named `My Data File`, reads in all the data from the file, one character at a time, and prints each character in the console window. Open the `Learn C Projects` directory, go inside the subdirectory `10.01 - printFile`, and open the project `printFile.cwp`. Run `printFile` by selecting `Run` from the `Project` menu. Compare your output with the console window shown in Figure 10.1. They should be the same.

Quit the application and return to CodeWarrior. Let's take a look at the data file read in by `printFile`. Select `Open` from the `File` menu. CodeWarrior will prompt you for a text file to open. Select the file named `My Data File`. A window will open, allowing you to edit the contents of the file named `My Data File`. Feel free to make some changes to the file and run the program again. Make sure not to change the name of the file, however.

Let's take a look at the source code.

Stepping Through the Source Code

Open the source code file `printFile.c` by double-clicking on its name in the project window. Take a minute to look over the source code. Once you feel comfortable with it, read on.

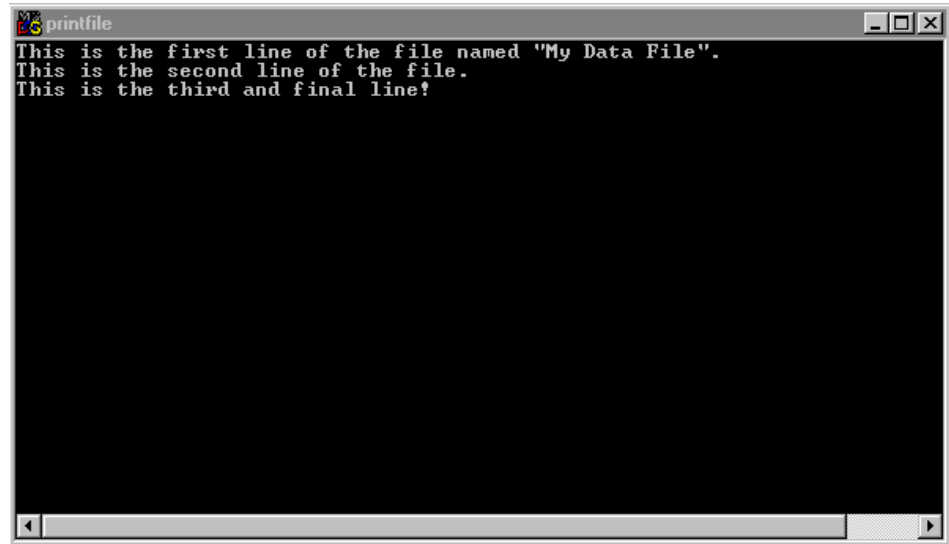


Figure 10.1 The `printFile` output, showing the contents of the file `My Data File`

The source code starts off with the usual `#include`:

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

Then, `main()` defines two variables: `fp` is our `FILE` pointer, and `c` is an `int` that will hold the chars we read from the file:

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

This call of the function `fopen()` opens the file named `My Data File` for reading, returning the file pointer to the variable `fp`:

```
fp = fopen( "My Data File", "r" );
```

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part One

If `fp` is not `NULL`, the file was opened successfully:

```
if ( fp != NULL )
{
```

The `while` loop continuously calls `fgetc()`, passing it the file pointer `fp`. Next, `fgetc()` returns the next character in `fp`'s input buffer. The returned character is assigned to `c`. If `c` is not equal to `EOF`, `putchar()` is called, taking `c` as a parameter:

```
while ( (c = fgetc( fp )) != EOF )
    putchar( c );
```

Now, `putchar()` prints the specified character to the console window. We could have accomplished the same thing by using `printf()`:

```
printf( "%c", c );
```

By the Way

As you program, you'll often find two different solutions to the same problem. Should you use `putchar()` or `printf()`? If performance is critical, pick the option that is more specific to your particular need. In this case, `printf()` is designed to handle many different data types, whereas `putchar()` is designed to handle one data type, an `int`. Chances are, the source code for `putchar()` is simpler and more efficient than the source code for `printf()` when it comes to printing an `int`. If performance is critical, you might want to use `putchar()` instead of `printf()`. If performance isn't critical, go with your own preference.

Once we are done, we'll close the file by calling `fclose()`. Remember to always balance each call of `fopen()` with a corresponding call to `fclose()`.

```
        fclose( fp );
    }

    return 0;
}
```

stdin, stdout, and stderr

C provides you with three `FILE` pointers that are always available and always open. `stdin` represents the keyboard, `stdout` represents the console window, and `stderr` represents the file where the user wants all error messages sent. These three pointers are normally associated with command line-oriented operating systems, such as UNIX and DOS, but it's definitely worth knowing about them.

In `printFile`, we used the function `fgetc()` to read a character from a previously opened file. The following line will read the next character from the keyboard's input buffer:

```
c = fgetc( stdin );
```

Thus, `fgetc(stdin)` is equivalent to calling `getchar()`.

As you'll see in the next few sections, whenever C provides a mechanism for reading or writing to a file, C also provides a similar mechanism for reading from `stdin` or writing to `stdout`. You probably won't use `stdin` and `stdout` in your code, but it's good to know what they are and what they do.

Working with Files, Part Two

So far, you've learned how to open a file by using `fopen()` and how to read from a file by using `fgetc()`. You've seen, once again, that you can often use two different functions to solve the same problem. Now let's look at some functions that allow you to write data out to a file.

Writing to a File

The Standard Library offers several functions that write data out to a previously opened file. This section will introduce three of them: `fputc()`, `fputs()`, and `fprintf()`.

The first, `fputc()`, takes an `int` holding a character value and writes the character out to the specified file. The function `fputc()` is declared as follows:

```
int fputc( int c, FILE *fp );
```

If `fputc()` successfully writes the character out to the file, it returns the value passed to it in the parameter `c`. If the write fails for some reason, `fputc()` returns the value `EOF`.

By the Way

Note that:

```
fputc( c, stdout );
```

is the same as calling:

```
putchar( c );
```

The function `fputs()` is similar to `fputc()` but writes out a zero-terminated string instead of a single character. This function is declared as follows:

```
int fputs( const char *s, FILE *fp );
```

`fputs()` writes out all the characters in the string but does not write out the terminating `0`. If the write succeeds, `fputs()` returns a `0`. If the write fails, `fputs()` returns `EOF`.

The third function, `fprintf()`, works just like `printf()`. Instead of sending its output to the console window, `fprintf()` writes its output to the specified file. It is declared as follows:

```
int fprintf( FILE *fp, const char *format, ... );
```

The first parameter specifies the file to be written to. The second is the format-specification text string. Any further parameters depend on the contents of that string.

A Sample Program: cdFiler.cwp

In Chapter 9, we ran `cdTracker`, a program designed to help you track your compact disc collection. The big shortcoming of `cdTracker` is its inability to save your carefully entered CD data. As you quit the program, the CD information you entered gets discarded, forcing you to start over the next time you run `cdTracker`.

Our next program, `cdFiler`, solves this problem by adding two special functions to `cdTracker`. `ReadFile()` opens a file named `cdData`, reads in the CD data in the file, and uses the data to build a linked list of `cdInfo` structs. `WriteFile()` writes the linked list back out to the file.

Open the `Learn C Projects` directory, go inside the subdirectory `10.02 - cdFiler`, and open the project `cdFiler.cwp`. Check out the `cdFiler.cwp` project window shown in Figure 10.2. Notice that there are two separate source code files. Your project can contain as many source code files as you like. Just make sure that only one of the files has a function named `main()`, since that's where your program will start.

The file `main.c` is almost identical to the file `cdTracker.c` from Chapter 9. The file `files.c` contains the functions that allow `cdFiler` to read and write the file `cdData`.

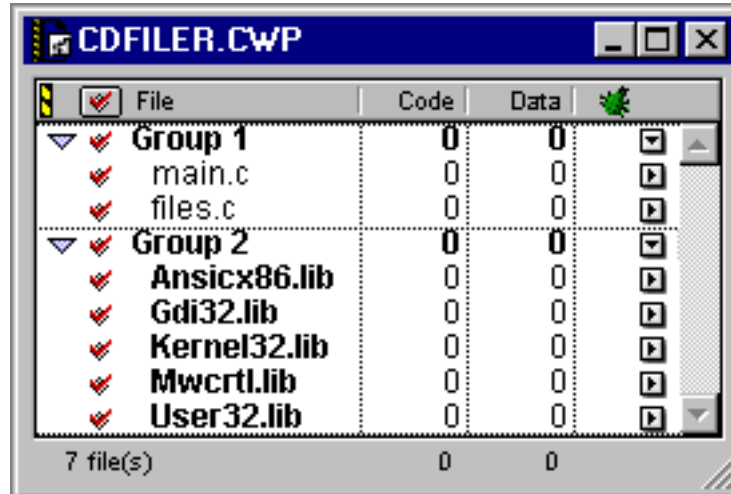


Figure 10.2 The `cdFiler.cwp` project window.

Exploring `cdData`

Before you run the program, take a quick look at the file `cdData`. Select `Open` from the `File` menu. When prompted for a text file to open, select the file `cdData`. A text editing window for `cdData` will appear on the screen. At first glance, the contents of the file may not make much sense, but the text does follow a well-defined pattern:

```
Frank Zappa
Anyway the Wind Blows
8
Edith Piaf
The Voice of the Sparrow
10
Joni Mitchell
For the Roses
9
```

The file is organized in three-line clusters. Each cluster contains a one-line CD artist, a one-line CD title, and a one-line numerical CD rating.

Important

The layout of your data files is as important a part of the software design process as the layout of your program's functions. The file described here follows a well-defined pattern. As you lay out a file for your next program, think about the future. Can you live with one-line CD titles? Do you want the ability to add a new CD field, perhaps the date of the CD's release?

The time to think about these types of questions is at the beginning of your program's life, during the design phase.

Running cdFiler

Before you run `cdFiler`, close the `cdData` text editing window.

Warning

To create this window, CodeWarrior had to open the file `cdData`. If you don't close the window before you run the program, the file will remain open. When you run `cdFiler`, it will also open the file. You'll have the same file open in two places. That is not a good idea. Although CodeWarrior allows you to do this, your results can be somewhat unpredictable.

Once the window is closed, run `cdFiler` by selecting Run from the Project menu. The console window will appear, prompting you for a `'q'`, `'n'`, or `'l'`:

```
Enter command (q=quit, n=new, l=list): l
```

Type `l`, followed by a carriage return. This will list the CDs currently in the program's linked list. If you need a refresher on linked lists, now would be a perfect time to turn back to Chapter 9.

```
Enter command (q=quit, n=new, l=list): l
```

```
-----
```


Working with Files

Working with Files, Part Two

```
Artist: Frank Zappa
Title:  Anyway the Wind Blows
Rating:  8
```

```
-----
Artist:  Edith Piaf
Title:   The Voice of the Sparrow
Rating:  10
```

```
-----
Artist:  Joni Mitchell
Title:   For the Roses
Rating:  9
```

```
-----
Enter command (q=quit, n=new, l=list):
```

Whereas Chapter 9's `cdTracker` started with an empty linked list, `cdFiler` starts with a linked list built from the contents of the `cdData` file. The CDs you just listed should match the CDs you saw when you edited the `cdData` file.

Let's add a fourth CD to the list. Type `n`, followed by a carriage return:

```
Enter command (q=quit, n=new, l=list): n
```

```
-----
Enter Artist's Name: Adrian Belew
Enter CD Title: Mr. Music Head
Enter CD Rating (1-10): 8
```

```
-----
Enter command (q=quit, n=new, l=list):
```

Next, type `l` to make sure that your new CD made it into the list:

```
Enter command (q=quit, n=new, l=list): l
```

```
-----  
Artist:  Frank Zappa  
Title:   Anyway the Wind Blows  
Rating:  8
```

```
-----  
Artist:  Edith Piaf  
Title:   The Voice of the Sparrow  
Rating:  10
```

```
-----  
Artist:  Joni Mitchell  
Title:   For the Roses  
Rating:  9
```

```
-----  
Artist:  Adrian Belew  
Title:   Mr. Music Head  
Rating:  8
```

```
-----  
Enter command (q=quit, n=new, l=list):
```

Finally, type `q`, followed by a carriage return. This causes the program to write the current linked list back out to the file `cdData`. To prove that this worked, run `cdFiler` one more time. When prompted for a command, type `l` to list your current CDs. You should find your new CD nestled at the bottom of the list. Let's see how this works.

Stepping Through the Source Code

The file `cdFiler.h` contains source code that will be included by both `main.c` and `files.c`. The first four `#defines` should be familiar to you. The fifth creates a constant containing the name of the file containing our CD data:

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part Two

```
/* **** */
/* Defines */
/* **** */
#define true 1
#define false 0

#define kMaxArtistLength 50
#define kMaxTitleLength 50

#define kCDFileName "cdData"
```

This `CDInfo` struct is identical to the one found in `cdTracker`:

```
/* **** */
/* Struct Declarations */
/* **** */
struct CDInfo
{
    char rating;
    char artist[ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
    char title[ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
    struct CDInfo *next;
};
```

Just as we did in `cdTracker`, we've declared two globals to keep track of the beginning and end of our linked list. The `extern` keyword at the beginning of the declaration tells the C compiler to link this declaration to the definition of these two globals, which can be found in `main.c`. If you removed the `extern` keyword from this line, the compiler would first compile `files.c`, defining space for both pointers. When the compiler went to compile `main.c`, it would complain that these globals were already declared.

The `extern` mechanism allows you to declare a global without allocating memory for it. Since the `extern` declaration doesn't allocate memory for your globals, you'll need another declaration (usually

found in the same file as `main()` that does allocate memory for the globals. You'll see that declaration in `main.c`:

```
/* **** */
/* Global Declarations */
/* **** */
extern struct CDInfo *gFirstPtr, *gLastPtr;
```

Next comes the list of function prototypes. By listing all the functions in this `#include` file, we make all functions available to be called from all other functions. As your programs get larger and more sophisticated, you might want to create a separate include file for each of your source code files. Some programmers create one include file for globals, another for defines, and another for function prototypes.

```
/* **** */
/* Function Prototypes - main.c */
/* **** */
char GetCommand( void );
struct CDInfo *ReadStruct( void );
void AddToList( struct CDInfo *curPtr );
void ListCDs( void );
void ListCDsInReverse( void );
void Flush( void );

/* **** */
/* Function Prototypes - files.c */
/* **** */
void WriteFile( void );
void ReadFile( void );
char ReadStructFromFile( FILE *fp, struct CDInfo
                        *infoPtr );
```

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part Two

The file `main.c` is almost exactly the same as the file `cdTracker.c` from Chapter 9. There are four differences, however. First, we include the file `cdFiler.h` instead of `cdTracker.h`:

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

Next, we include the definitions of our two globals directly in this source code file, to go along with the `extern` declarations in `cdFiler.h`. This definition is where the memory gets allocated for these two global pointers:

```
/* ***** */
/* Global Definitions */
/* ***** */
struct CDInfo    *gFirstPtr, *gLastPtr;
```

The last two differences are contained in `main()`. Before we enter the command-processing loop, we call `ReadFile()` to read in the `cdData` file and turn the contents into a linked list:

```
/* ***** > main < */
int main( void )
{
    char    command;

    gFirstPtr = NULL;
    gLastPtr = NULL;

    ReadFile();

    while ( (command = GetCommand() ) != 'q' )
    {
        switch( command )
        {
```

```
        case 'n':
            AddToList( ReadStruct() );
            break;
        case 'l':
            ListCDs();
            break;
    }
}
```

Once we drop out of the loop, we call `WriteFile()` to write the linked list out to the file `cdData`:

```
WriteFile();

printf( "Goodbye..." );

return 0;
}
```

For completeness, here's the remainder of `cdMain.c`. Each of these functions is identical to its `cdTracker.c` counterpart:

```
/******> GetCommand <*/
char GetCommand( void )
{
    char command;

    do
    {
        printf( "Enter command (q=quit, n=new,
                l=list): " );
        scanf( "%c", &command );
        Flush();
    }
    while ( (command != 'q') && (command != 'n')
            && (command != 'l') );
}
```

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part Two

```
        printf( "\n-----\n" );
        return( command );
    }

/*****> ReadStruct <*/
struct CDInfo  *ReadStruct( void )
{
    struct CDInfo  *infoPtr;
    int            num;

    infoPtr = malloc( sizeof( struct CDInfo ) );

    if ( infoPtr == NULL )
    {
        printf( "Out of memory!!!  Goodbye!\n" );
        exit( 0 );
    }

    printf( "Enter Artist's Name:  " );
    gets( infoPtr->artist );

    printf( "Enter CD Title:  " );
    gets( infoPtr->title );

    do
    {
        printf( "Enter CD Rating (1-10):  " );
        scanf( "%d", &num );
        Flush();
    }
    while ( ( num < 1 ) || ( num > 10 ) );

    infoPtr->rating = num;

    printf( "\n-----\n" );
```

```
    return( infoPtr );
}

/*****> AddToList <*/
void AddToList( struct CDInfo *curPtr )
{
    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
        gFirstPtr = curPtr;
    else
        gLastPtr->next = curPtr;

    gLastPtr = curPtr;
    curPtr->next = NULL;
}

/*****> ListCDs <*/
void ListCDs( void )
{
    struct CDInfo *curPtr;

    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
    {
        printf( "No CDs have been entered yet...\n" );
        printf( "\n-----\n" );
    }
    else
    {
        for ( curPtr=gFirstPtr; curPtr!=NULL; curPtr =
            curPtr->next )
        {
            printf( "Artist:  %s\n", curPtr->artist );
            printf( "Title:   %s\n", curPtr->title );
            printf( "Rating:  %d\n", curPtr->rating );

            printf( "\n-----\n" );
        }
    }
}
```


Working with Files

Working with Files, Part Two

```
    }
  }
}

/*****> Flush <*/
void Flush( void )
{
    while ( getchar() != '\n' )
        ;
}
```

The file `files.c` starts out with the same `#includes` as `main.c`:

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

`WriteFile()` first checks to see whether there are any CDs to write out. If `gFirstPtr` is `NULL` (the value it was set to in `main()`), no CDs have been entered yet, and we can just return:

```
/*****> WriteFile <*/
void WriteFile( void )
{
    FILE *fp;
    struct CDInfo *infoPtr;
    int num;

    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
        return;
```

Next, we'll open the file `cdData` for writing. If `fopen()` returns `NULL`, we know that it couldn't open the file, and we'll print out an error message and return:

```
if ( ( fp = fopen( kCDFFileName, "w" ) ) == NULL )
{
    printf( "***ERROR: Could not write CD file!" );
    return;
}
```

This for loop steps through the linked list, setting `infoPtr` to point to the first struct in the list, then moving it to point to the next struct, and so on, until `infoPtr` is equal to `NULL`. Since the last struct in our list sets its next pointer to `NULL`, `infoPtr` will be equal to `NULL` when it points to the last struct in the list and the third for statement is executed:

```
for ( infoPtr=gFirstPtr; infoPtr!=NULL;
      infoPtr=infoPtr->next )
{
```

Each time through the list, we call `fprintf()` to print the artist string, followed by a carriage return, and then the title string, followed by a carriage return. Remember, each of these strings was zero-terminated, a requirement if you plan on using the `%s` format specifier:

```
    fprintf( fp, "%s\n", infoPtr->artist );
    fprintf( fp, "%s\n", infoPtr->title );
```

Finally, we convert the `rating` field to an `int` by assigning it to the `int num`, then print it (as well as a following carriage return) to the file by using `fprintf()`. We converted the `char` to an `int` because the `%d` format specifier was designed to work with an `int`, not a `char`:

```
        num = infoPtr->rating;
        fprintf( fp, "%d\n", num );
    }
```

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part Two

Once we finish writing the linked list into the file, we'll close the file by calling `fclose()`:

```
fclose( fp );  
}
```

`ReadFile()` starts by opening the file `cdData` for reading. If we can't open the file, we'll print an error message and return, leaving the list empty:

```
/******> ReadFile <*/  
void ReadFile( void )  
{  
    FILE *fp;  
    struct CDInfo *infoPtr;  
    int i;  
  
    if ( ( fp = fopen( kCDFileName, "r" ) ) == NULL )  
    {  
        printf( "***ERROR: Could not read CD file!" );  
        return;  
    }  
}
```

With the file open, we'll enter a loop that continues as long as `ReadStructFromFile()` returns true. By using the do-while loop, we'll execute the body of the loop before we call `ReadStructFromFile()` for the first time. This is what we want. The body of the loop attempts to allocate a block of memory the size of a `CDInfo` struct. If the `malloc()` fails, we'll bail out of the program:

```
do  
{  
    infoPtr = malloc( sizeof( struct CDInfo ) );  
  
    if ( infoPtr == NULL )
```

```
    {
        printf( "Out of memory!!!  Goodbye!\n" );
        exit( 0 );
    }
}
while ( ReadStructFromFile( fp, infoPtr ) );
```

`ReadStructFromFile()` will return false when it reaches the end of the file, when it can't read another set of `CDInfo` fields. In that case, we'll close the file and free up the last block we just allocated, since we have nothing to store in it:

```
    fclose( fp );
    free( infoPtr );
}
```

`ReadStructFromFile()` uses a funky form of `fscanf()` to read in the first two `CDInfo` fields. Notice the use of the format descriptor `"%[^\n]\n"`. This tells `fscanf()` to read characters from the specified file until it reaches an `'\n'`, then to read the `'\n'` character and stop. The characters `[^\n]` represent the set of all characters except `'\n'`. Note that the `%[` format specifier places a zero-terminating byte at the end of the characters it reads in:

```
/******> ReadStructFromFile <*/
char  ReadStructFromFile( FILE *fp, struct CDInfo
                        *infoPtr )
{
    int  num;

    if ( fscanf( fp, "%[^\n]\n", infoPtr->artist )
        != EOF )
    {
```

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part Two

By the Way

The square brackets inside a format specifier give you much greater control over `scanf()`. For example, the format specifier `" %[abcd]"` would tell `scanf()` to keep reading as long as it was reading an `'a'`, a `'b'`, a `'c'`, or a `'d'`. The first non-`[abcd]` character would be left in the input buffer for the next part of the format specifier or for the next read operation to pick up.

If the first character in the set is the character `^`, the set represents the characters that do not belong to the set. In other words, the format specifier `"%^abcd]"` tells `scanf()` to continue reading as long as it doesn't encounter any of the characters `'a'`, `'b'`, `'c'`, or `'d'`.

If `fscanf()` reaches the end of the file, we'll return `false`, letting the calling function know that there are no more fields to read. If `fscanf()` succeeds, we'll move on to the `title` field, using the same technique. If this second `fscanf()` fails, we've got a problem, since we read an `artist` but couldn't read a `title`.

```
if ( fscanf( fp, "%[^\n]\n", infoPtr->title )
    == EOF )
{
    printf( "Missing CD title!\n" );
    return false;
}
```

If we got both the `artist` and `title`, we'll use a more normal format specifier to pick up an `int` and the third carriage return:

```
else if ( fscanf( fp, "%d\n", &num ) == EOF )
{
    printf( "Missing CD rating!\n" );
    return false;
}
```

If we picked up the `int`, we'll use the assignment operator to convert the `int` to a `char` and add the now complete `struct` to the list by passing it to `AddToList()`:

```
    else
    {
        infoPtr->rating = num;
        AddToList( infoPtr );
        return true;
    }
}
else
    return false;
}
```

Working with Files, Part Three

Now that you've mastered the basics of file reading and writing, there are a few more topics worth exploring before we leave this chapter. We'll start off with a look at some additional file-opening modes.

The "Update" Modes

So far, you've encountered the three basic file-opening modes: "`r`", "`w`", and "`a`". Each of these modes has a corresponding **update mode**, specified by adding `+` to the mode. The three update modes—"`r+`", "`w+`", and "`a+`"—allow you to open a file for both reading and writing.

Important

Although the three update modes do allow you to switch between read and write operations without reopening the file, you must first call `fsetpos()`, `fseek()`, `rewind()`, or `fflush()` before you make the switch. (See Appendix C or the *C Library Reference* on the CD.)

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part Three

In other words, if your file is opened using one of the update modes, you can't call `fscanf()` and then call `fprintf()` (or call `fprintf()` followed by `fscanf()`) unless you call `fsetpos()`, `fseek()`, `rewind()`, or `fflush()` in between.

In Harbison and Steele's *C: A Reference Manual*, there's a great chart that summarizes these modes quite nicely. My version of the chart is shown in Figure 10.3. Before you read on, take a minute to look the chart over to be sure you understand the different file modes.

By the Way

C also allows a file mode to specify whether a file is limited to ASCII characters (text mode) or is allowed to hold any type of data at all (binary mode). To open a file in text mode, just append a `t` at the end of the mode string (as in `"rt"` or `"w+t"`). To open a file in binary mode, append a `b` at the end of the mode string (as in `"rb"` or `"w+b"`).

If you use a file mode that doesn't include a `t` or a `b`, check your development environment manuals to find out which of the two types is the default.

Mode Rules	"r"	"w"	"a"	"r+"	"w+"	"a+"
Named file must already exist	yes	no	no	yes	no	no
Existing file's contents are lost	no	yes	no	no	yes	no
Read OK	yes	no	no	yes	yes	yes
Write OK	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Write begins at end of file	no	no	yes	no	no	yes

Figure 10.3 My version of the Harbison and Steele file mode chart showing the rules associated with the six basic file-opening modes.

Random File Access

So far, each of the examples presented in this chapter has treated files as a **sequential stream of bytes**. When `cdFiler` read from a file, it started at the beginning of the file and read the contents, one byte at a time or in larger chunks, but from the beginning straight through until the end. This sequential approach works fine if you intend to read or write the entire file all at once. As you might have guessed, there is another model.

Instead of starting at the beginning and streaming through a file, you can use a technique called **random file access**. The Standard Library provides a set of functions that let you reposition the file position indicator to any location within the file, so that the next read or write you do occurs exactly where you want it to.

Imagine a file filled with 100 `long`s, each 4 bytes long. The file would be 400 bytes long. Now suppose that you wanted to retrieve the 10th `long` in the file. Using the sequential model, you would have to do 10 reads to get the 10th `long` into memory. Unless you read the entire file into memory, you'll continually be reading a series of `long`s to get to the `long` you want.

Using the random-access model, you would first calculate where in the file the 10th `long` starts, jump to that position in the file, and then just read that `long`. To move the file position indicator just before the 10th `long`, you'd skip over the first nine `long`s ($9 * 4 = 36$ bytes).

The `fseek()`, `ftell()`, and `rewind()` Functions

There are five functions that you'll need to know about in order to randomly access your files. One of those functions, `fseek()`, moves the file position indicator to an offset you specify, relative to the beginning of the file, the current file position, or the end of the file:

```
int fseek( FILE *fp, long offset, int wherefrom );
```

You'll pass your `FILE` pointer as the first parameter, a `long` offset as the second parameter, and one of `SEEK_SET`, `SEEK_CUR`, or

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part Three

`SEEK_END` as the third parameter. `SEEK_SET` represents the beginning of the file, `SEEK_CUR` represents the current position, and `SEEK_END` represents the end of the file (in which case you'll probably use a negative offset).

The function `ftell()` takes a `FILE` pointer as a parameter and returns a `long` containing the value of the file position indicator:

```
long ftell( FILE *fp );
```

The function `rewind()` takes a `FILE` pointer as a parameter and resets the file position indicator to the beginning of the file:

```
void rewind( FILE *fp );
```

By the Way

The functions `fsetpos()` and `fgetpos()` were introduced as part of ISO C and allow you to work with file offsets that are larger than will fit in a `long`. You can look these two functions up in the usual places.

A Sample Program: `dinoEdit.cwp`

The last sample program in this chapter, `dinoEdit` is a simple example of random file access. The program allows you to edit a series of dinosaur names stored in a file named `My Dinos`. Each dinosaur name in this file is 20 characters long. If the dinosaur name is shorter than 20 characters, the appropriate number of spaces is added to the name to bring the length up to 20. This is done to make the size of each item in the file a fixed length. You'll see why this is important as we go through the source code. For now, let's take `dinoEdit` for a spin.

Open the `Learn C Projects` directory, go inside the subdirectory `10.03 - dinoEdit`, and open the project `dinoEdit.cwp`. Run `dinoEdit` by selecting `Run` from the `Project` menu. The program will count the number of dinosaur names in the file `My Dinos` and will use that number to prompt you for a dinosaur number to edit:

```
Enter number from 1 to 5 (0 to exit):
```

Since the file `My Dinos` on your CD has five dinosaur names, enter a number from 1 to 5:

```
Enter number from 1 to 5 (0 to exit): 3
```

If you enter the number 3, for example, `dinoEdit` will fetch the third dinosaur name from the file, then ask you to enter a new name for the third dinosaur. If you enter a return without typing a new name, the existing name will remain untouched. If you type a new name, `dinoEdit` will overwrite the existing name with the new name:

```
Dino #3: Galimimus
Enter new name: Euoplocephalus
```

Either way, `dinoEdit` will prompt you to enter another dinosaur number. Reenter the same number, so you can verify that the change was made in the file:

```
Enter number from 1 to 5 (0 to exit): 3
Dino #3: Euoplocephalus
Enter new name:
Enter number from 1 to 5 (0 to exit): 0
Goodbye...
```

Let's take a look at the source code.

Stepping Through the Source Code

The file `dinoEdit.h` starts off with a few `#defines`: `true`, `false`, `kDinoRecordSize`, `kMaxLineLength`, `kDinoFileName`. `kDinoRecordSize` defines the length of each dinosaur record. `kMaxLineLength` defines the length of an array of chars we'll use to read in any new dinosaur names.

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part Three

`kDinoFileName` is the name of the dinosaur file. Note that the dinosaur file doesn't contain any carriage returns, just $5 * 20 = 100$ bytes of pure dinosaur pleasure!

```
/* ***** */
/* Defines */
/* ***** */
#define true 1
#define false 0

#define kDinoRecordSize      20
#define kMaxLineLength      100
#define kDinoFileName       "My Dinos"
```

Next come the function prototypes for the functions in `main.c`:

```
/* ***** */
/* Function Prototypes - main.c */
/* ***** */
int GetNumber( void );
int GetNumberOfDinos( void );
void ReadDinoName( int number, char *dinoName );
char GetNewDinoName( char *dinoName );
void WriteDinoName( int number, char *dinoName );
void Flush( void );
void DoError( char *message );
```

First, `main.c` starts with four `#includes`: `<stdlib.h>` gives us access to the function `exit()`; `<stdio.h>` gives us access to a number of functions, including `printf()` and all the file-manipulation functions, types, and constants; and `<string.h>` gives us access to the function `strlen()`. You've already seen what "dinoEdit.h" brings to the table:

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

```
#include <string.h>
#include "dinoEdit.h"
```

By the Way

If you ever want to find out which of the functions you call are dependent on which of your include files, just comment out the `#include` statement in question and recompile. The compiler will spew out an error message (or a whole bunch of messages) telling you it couldn't find a prototype for a function you called.

`main()` basically consists of a loop that first prompts for a dinosaur number at the top of the loop, then processes the selection in the body of the loop:

```
/******> main <*/
int main( void )
{
    int    number;
    FILE   *fp;
    char   dinoName[ kDinoRecordSize+1 ];
```

`GetNumber()` prompts for a dinosaur number between 0 and the number of dinosaur records in the file. If the user types 0, we'll drop out of the loop and exit the program:

```
    while ( (number = GetNumber() ) != 0 )
    {
```

If we made it here, `GetNumber()` must have returned a legitimate record number. `ReadDinoName()` takes the dinosaur number and returns the corresponding dinosaur name from the file. The returned dinosaur name is then printed:

```
        ReadDinoName( number, dinoName );

        printf( "Dino #%d: %s\n", number, dinoName );
```

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part Three

`GetNewDinoName()` prompts the user for a new dinosaur name to replace the existing name. `GetNewDinoName()` returns `true` if a name is entered and `false` if the user just entered a return. If the user entered a name, we'll pass it on to `WriteDinoName()`, which will write the name in the file, overwriting the old name:

```
        if ( GetNewDinoName( dinoName ) )
            WriteDinoName( number, dinoName );
    }

    printf( "Goodbye..." );

    return 0;
}
```

`GetNumber()` starts off with a call to `GetNumberOfDinos()`. As its name implies, `GetNumberOfDinos()` goes into the dinosaur file and returns the number of records in the file:

```
/******> GetNumber <*/
int GetNumber( void )
{
    int    number, numDinos;

    numDinos = GetNumberOfDinos();
```

`GetNumber()` then continuously prompts for a dinosaur number until the user enters a number between 0 and `numDinos`:

```
do
{
    printf( "Enter number from 1 to %d (0 to
            exit): ", numDinos );
    scanf( "%d", &number );
    Flush();
```

```
    }
    while ( (number < 0) || (number > numDinos) );

    return( number );
}
```

`GetNumberOfDinos()` starts our file-management adventure. First, we'll open `My Dinos` for reading only:

```
/******> GetNumberOfDinos <*/
int GetNumberOfDinos( void )
{
    FILE *fp;
    long fileLength;

    if ( (fp = fopen( kDinoFileName, "r" )) == NULL )
        DoError( "Couldn't open file...Goodbye!" );
}
```

Important

Notice that we've passed an error message to a function called `DoError()` instead of printing it with `printf()`. There are several reasons for doing this. First, since `DoError()` executes two lines of code (calls of `printf()` and `exit()`), each `DoError()` call saves a bit of code.

More important, this approach encapsulates all our error handling in a single function. If we want to send all error messages to a log file, all we have to do is edit `DoError()` instead of hunting down all the error messages and attaching a few extra lines of code.

Next, we'll call `fseek()` to move the file position indicator to the end of the file. Can you see what's coming?

```
if ( fseek( fp, 0L, SEEK_END ) != 0 )
    DoError( "Couldn't seek to end of
            file...Goodbye!" );
```

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part Three

Now, we'll call `ftell()` to retrieve the current file position indicator, which also happens to be the file length! Cool!

```
if ( (fileLength = ftell( fp )) == -1L )
    DoError( "ftell() failed...Goodbye!" );
```

Now that we have the file length, we can close the file:

```
fclose( fp );
```

Finally, we'll calculate the number of dinosaur records by dividing the file length by the number of bytes in a single record. For simplicity's sake, we'll convert the number of records to an `int` before we return it. That means that we can't deal with a file that contains more than 32,767 dinosaur records. How many dinosaurs can you name?

```
return( (int)(fileLength / kDinoRecordSize) );
}
```

`ReadDinoName()` first opens the file for reading only.

```
/*> ReadDinoName <*/
void ReadDinoName( int number, char *dinoName )
{
    FILE *fp;
    long bytesToSkip;

    if ( (fp = fopen( kDinoFileName, "r" )) == NULL )
        DoError( "Couldn't open file...Goodbye!" );
```

Since we'll be reading the `number`th dinosaur, we have to move the file position indicator to the end of the `(number-1)`th dinosaur. That means that we'll need to skip over `(number-1)` dinosaur records:

```
bytesToSkip = (long)((number-1) *
    kDinoRecordSize);
```

We'll use `fseek()` to skip that many bytes from the beginning of the file (that's what the constant `SEEK_SET` is for):

```
if ( fseek( fp, bytesToSkip, SEEK_SET ) != 0 )
    DoError( "Couldn't seek in file...Goodbye!" );
```

Finally, we'll call `fread()` to read the dinosaur record into the array of chars pointed to by `dinoName`. The first `fread()` parameter is the pointer to the block of memory where the data will be read. The second parameter is the number of bytes in a single record. Since `fread()` expects both the second and third parameters to be of type `size_t`, we'll use a typecast to make the compiler happy. (Gee, by the time we talk about typecasting in Chapter 11, you'll already be an expert!) The third parameter is the number of records to read in. We want to read in one record of `kDinoRecordSize` bytes. The last parameter is the `FILE` pointer we got from `fopen()`.

Because `fread()` returns the number of records read, we expect to return a value of 1, since we asked `fread()` to read one record. If that doesn't happen, something is dreadfully wrong (perhaps the file got corrupted or that Pepsi you spilled in your hard drive is finally starting to take effect).

```
if ( fread( dinoName, (size_t)kDinoRecordSize,
    (size_t)1, fp ) != 1 )
    DoError( "Bad fread()...Goodbye!" );
```

Once again, we close the file when we're done working with it.

```
fclose( fp );
}
```


Working with Files

Working with Files, Part Three

`GetNewDinoName()` starts by prompting for a new dinosaur name, then calling `gets()` to read in a line of text:

```
/******> GetNewDinoName <*/
char  GetNewDinoName( char *dinoName )
{
    char  line[ kMaxLineLength ];
    int   i, nameLen;

    printf( "Enter new name: " );

    gets( line );
```

If the line was empty (if the user just entered a carriage return), we'll return `false`, letting the calling function know that the user has, in effect, decided not to replace the dinosaur name:

```
    if ( line[0] == '\0' )
        return false;
```

Our next step is to fill the `dinoName` array with spaces. We'll then call `strlen()` to find out how many characters the user typed in. We'll copy those characters back into the `dinoName` array, leaving `dinoName` with a dinosaur name, followed by a bunch of spaces:

```
    for ( i=0; i<kDinoRecordSize; i++ )
        dinoName[i] = ' ';
```

`strlen()` takes a pointer to a zero-terminated string and returns the length of the string, not including the 0 terminator:

```
    nameLen = strlen( line );
```

If the user typed a dinosaur name larger than 20 characters long, we'll copy only the first 20 characters:

```
if ( nameLen > kDinoRecordSize )
    nameLen = kDinoRecordSize;
```

Here's where we copy the characters from `line` into `dinoName`:

```
for ( i=0; i<nameLen; i++ )
    dinoName[i] = line[i];
```

Finally, we'll return `true` to let the calling function know that the name is ready:

```
    return true;
}
```

`WriteDinoName()` opens the file for reading and writing. Since we used a mode of `"r+"` instead of `"w+"`, we won't lose the contents of `My Dinos` (in other words, `My Dinos` won't be deleted and recreated):

```
/******> WriteDinoName <*/
void WriteDinoName( int number, char *dinoName )
{
    FILE *fp;
    long bytesToSkip;

    if ( (fp = fopen( kDinoFileName, "r+" )) == NULL)
        DoError( "Couldn't open file...Goodbye!" );
```

Next, we calculate the number of bytes we need to skip to place the file position indicator at the beginning of the record we want to overwrite, then call `fseek()` to move the file position indicator:

```
bytesToSkip = (long)((number-1) *
    kDinoRecordSize);
```

Working with Files

Working with Files, Part Three

```
if ( fseek( fp, bytesToSkip, SEEK_SET ) != 0 )
    DoError( "Couldn't seek in file...Goodbye!" );
```

We then call `fwrite()` to write the dinosaur record back out. Note that `fwrite()` works exactly the same way as `fread()`, including returning the number of records written:

```
if ( fwrite( dinoName, (size_t)kDinoRecordSize,
            (size_t)1, fp ) != 1 )
    DoError( "Bad fwrite()...Goodbye!" );

fclose( fp );
}
```

You've seen this function before:

```
/******> Flush <*/
void Flush( void )
{
    while ( getchar() != '\n' )
        ;
}
```

`DoError()` prints the error message, adding a carriage return, then exits:

```
/******> DoError <*/
void DoError( char *message )
{
    printf( "%s\n", message );
    exit( 0 );
}
```

What's Next?

Chapter 11 tackles a wide assortment of programming topics. We'll look at typecasting, the technique used to translate from one type to another. We'll cover recursion, the ability of a function to call itself. We'll also examine function pointers, variables that can be used to pass a function as a parameter.

Exercises

1. What's wrong with each of the following code fragments:

- a. `FILE *fp;`

```
fp = fopen( "w", "My Data File" );
if ( fp != NULL )
    printf( "The file is open." );
```

- b. `char myData = 7;`
`FILE *fp;`

```
fp = fopen( "r", "My Data File" );
fscanf( "Here's a number: %d", &myData );
```

- c. `FILE *fp;`
`char *line;`

```
fp = fopen( "My Data File", "r" );
fscanf( fp, "%s", &line );
```

- d. `FILE *fp;`
`char line[100];`

```
fp = fopen( "My Data File", "w" );
fscanf( fp, "%s", line );
```

Working with Files

Exercises

2. Write a program that reads in and prints a file with the following format:
 - The first line in the file contains a single `int`. Call it `x`.
 - All subsequent lines contain a list of `x` `ints` separated by tabs.

If the first number in the file is 6, all subsequent lines will have six `ints` per line. There is no limit to the number of lines in the file. Keep reading and printing lines until you reach the end of the file.

You can print each `int` as you encounter it or, for extra credit, allocate an array of `ints` large enough to hold one line's worth of `ints`, then pass that array to a function that prints an `int` array.

3. Modify `cdFiler.cwps0` that memory for the `artist` and `title` lines is allocated as the lines are read in. First, you'll need to change the `CDInfo` struct declaration as follows:

```
struct CDInfo
{
    char    rating;
    char    *artist;
    char    *title;
    struct CDInfo *next;
};
```

In addition to calling `malloc()` to allocate a `CDInfo` struct, you'll call `malloc()` to allocate space for the `artist` and `title` strings. Don't forget to leave enough space for the terminating 0 at the end of each string.



Advanced Topics

Congratulations! By now, you've mastered most of the fundamental C programming concepts. This chapter will fill you in on some useful C programming tips, tricks, and techniques that will enhance your programming skills. We'll start with a look at typecasting, C's mechanism for translating one data type to another.

What Is Typecasting?

There often will be times when you find yourself trying to convert a variable of one type to a variable of another type. For example, the following code fragment causes the line `i is equal to 3` to appear in the console window:

```
float f;  
int i;  
  
f = 3.5;  
i = f;  
  
printf( "i is equal to %d", i );
```

Notice that the original value assigned to `f` was truncated from 3.5 to 3 when the value in `f` was assigned to `i`. This truncation was caused when the compiler saw an `int` on the left side and a `float` on the right side of this assignment statement:

```
i = f;
```

The compiler automatically translated the `float` to an `int`. In general, the right-hand side of an assignment statement is always trans-

Advanced Topics

What Is Typecasting?

lated to the type on the left-hand side when the assignment occurs. In this case, the compiler handled the type conversion for you.

Typecasting is a mechanism you can use to translate the value of an expression from one type to another. A typecast, or just plain **cast**, always takes this form:

```
(type) expression
```

The `type` is any legal C type. Look at the following code fragment:

```
float f;  
  
f = 1.5;
```

The variable `f` gets assigned a value of 1.5. Now look at this code fragment:

```
float f;  
  
f = (int)1.5;
```

The value of 1.5 is cast as an `int` before being assigned to `f`. Just as you might imagine, casting a `float` as an `int` truncates the `float`, turning the value 1.5 into 1. In this example, two casts were performed. First, the `float` value 1.5 was cast to the `int` value 1. When this `int` value was assigned to the `float` `f`, the value was cast to the `float` value 1.0.

Cast with Care

Use caution when you cast from one type to another. Problems can arise when casting between types of a different size. Consider this example:

```
int    i;  
char  c;
```

```
i = 500;  
c = i;
```

Here, the value 500 is assigned to the `int` `i`. So far, so good. Next, the value in `i` is cast to a `char` as it is assigned to the `char` `c`. See the problem? Since a `char` can hold values only between -128 and 127, assigning a value of 500 to `c` doesn't make sense.

By the Way

So what happens to the extra byte or bytes when a larger type is cast to a smaller type? The matching bytes are typecast, and the value of any extra bytes is lost.

For example, when a 2-byte `int` is cast to a 1-byte `char`, the leftmost byte of the `int` (the byte with the more significant bits, the bits valued 28 through 215) is dropped, and the rightmost byte (the bits valued 20 through 27) is copied into the `char`.

Look at this:

```
int          i;  
char         c;  
  
i = 500;  
c = i;
```

The `int` `i` has a value of `0x01E4`, which is hex for 500. After the second assignment, the `char` ends up with the value `0xE4`, which has a value of 244 if the `char` was unsigned or -12 if the `char` is signed.

To learn more about type conversions, check out Section 6.2 of Harbison and Steele's *C: A Reference Manual*.

Advanced Topics

What Is Typecasting?

Casting with Pointers

Typecasting can also be used when working with pointers. The notation `(int *) myPtr` casts the variable `myPtr` as a pointer to an `int`. Casting with pointers allows you to link structs of different types. For example, suppose that you declared two struct types, as follows:

```
struct Dog
{
    struct Dog *next;
};

struct Cat
{
    struct Cat *next;
};
```

By using typecasting, you could create a linked list that contains both Cats and Dogs. Figure 11.1 shows a Dog whose `next` field points to a Cat. Imagine the source code you'd need to implement such a linked list.

Consider this source code:

```
struct Dog myDog;
struct Cat myCat;

myDog.next = &myCat; /* ←Compiler complains */
myCat.next = NULL;
```

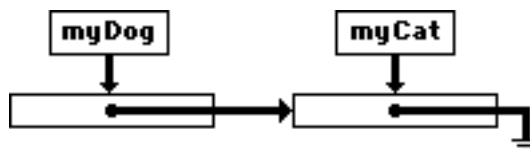


Figure 11.1 `myDog.next` points to `myCat`, and `myCat.next` points to `NULL`.

In the first assignment statement, a pointer of one type is assigned to a pointer of another type: `&myCat` is a pointer to a struct of type `Cat`; `myDog.next` is declared to be a pointer to a struct of type `Dog`. To make this code compile, we'll need a typecast:

```
struct Dog  myDog;
struct Cat  myCat;

myDog.next = (struct Dog *)(&myCat);
myCat.next = NULL;
```

If both sides of an assignment operator are arithmetic types (such as `float`, `int`, and `char`), the compiler will automatically cast the right-hand side of the assignment to the type of the left-hand side. If both sides are pointers, you'll have to perform the typecast yourself.

There are a few exceptions to this rule. If the pointers on both sides of the assignment are the same type, no typecast is necessary. If the pointer on the right-hand side is either `NULL` or of type `(void *)`, no typecast is necessary. Finally, if the pointer on the left-hand side is of type `(void *)`, no typecast is necessary.

The type `(void *)` is sort of a wild card for pointers. It matches up with any pointer type. For example, here's a new version of the `Dog` and `Cat` code:

```
struct Dog
{
    void *next;
} ;

struct Cat
{
    void *next;
} ;

struct Dog  myDog;
struct Cat  myCat;
```

Advanced Topics

Unions

```
myDog.next = &myCat;  
myCat.next = NULL;
```

This code lets `Dog.next` point to a `Cat` struct without a typecast. If you are not sure what type your pointers will be pointing to, declare your pointers as `(void *)`.

By the Way

The rules for typecasting are fairly complex and beyond the scope of this book. To learn more about type conversions, check out Sections 6.2 through 6.4 in *C: A Reference Manual* by Harbison and Steele. If you plan on moving on to C++ (and you should), check out the discussion of type conversions in *Learn C++ under Windows 95/NT* by yours truly.

Unions

C offers a special data type, known as a **union**, which allows a single variable to disguise itself as several different data types. A union data type is declared just like a struct. Here's an example:

```
union Number  
{  
    int    i;  
    float f;  
    char  *s;  
} myNumber;
```

This declaration creates a union type named `Number`, as well as an individual `Number` named `myNumber`. If this were a struct declaration, you'd be able to store three different values in the three fields of the struct. A union, on the other hand, lets you store one and only one of the union's fields in the union. Here's how this works.

When a union is declared, the compiler allocates the space required by the largest of the union's fields, sharing that space with all of the union's fields. If an `int` requires 4 bytes, a `float` 4 bytes, and a

pointer 4 bytes, `myNumber` is allocated exactly 4 bytes. You can store an `int`, a `float`, or a `char` pointer in `myNumber`. The compiler allows you to treat `myNumber` as any of these types. To refer to `myNumber` as an `int`, refer to:

```
myNumber . i
```

To refer to `myNumber` as a `float`, refer to:

```
myNumber . f
```

To refer to `myNumber` as a `char` pointer, refer to:

```
myNumber . s
```

You are responsible for remembering which form the union is currently occupying.

Warning

If you store an `int` in `myUnion` by assigning a value to `myUnion . i`, you'd best remember that fact. If you proceed to store a `float` in `myUnion . f`, you've just trashed your `int`. Remember, there are only 4 bytes allocated to the entire union.

In addition, storing a value as one type and then reading it as another can produce unpredictable results. For example, if you stored a `float` in `myNumber . f`, the field `myNumber . i` would not be the same as `(int)(myNumber . f)`.

One way to keep track of the current state of the union is to declare an `int` to go along with the union, as well as a `#define` for each of the union's fields:

```
#define kUnionContainsInt      1
#define kUnionContainsFloat   2
```

Advanced Topics

Unions

```
#define kUnionContainsPointer 3

union Number
{
    int    i;
    float f;
    char  *s;
} myNumber;

int myUnionTag;
```

If you are currently using `myUnion` as a float, assign the value `kUnionContainsFloat` to `myUnionTag`. Later in your code, you can use `myUnionTag` when deciding which form of the union you are dealing with:

```
if ( myUnionTag == kUnionContainsInt )
    DoIntStuff( myUnion.i );
else if ( myUnionTag == kUnionContainsFloat )
    DoFloatStuff( myUnion.f );
else
    DoPointerStuff( myUnion.s );
```

Why Use Unions?

In general, a union is most useful when dealing with two data structures that share a set of common fields but differ in some small way. For example, consider these two struct declarations:

```
struct Pitcher
{
    char  name[ 40 ];
    int   team;
    int   strikeouts;
    int   runsAllowed;
} ;
```

```
struct Batter
{
    char  name[ 40 ];
    int   team;
    int   runsScored;
    int   homeRuns;
} ;
```

These structs might be useful if you were tracking the pitchers and batters on your favorite baseball team. Both structs share a set of common fields: the array of chars named `name` and the `int` named `team`. Both structs have their own unique fields as well. The `Pitcher` struct contains a pair of fields appropriate for a pitcher: `strikeouts` and `runsAllowed`. The `Batter` struct contains a pair of fields appropriate for a batter: `runsScored` and `homeRuns`.

One solution to your program would be to maintain two types of structs: a `Pitcher` and a `Batter`. There is nothing wrong with this approach. There is an alternative, however. You can declare a single struct that contains the fields common to `Pitcher` and `Batter`, with a union for the unique fields:

```
#define kMets 1
#define kReds 2

#define kPitcher 1
#define kBatter 2

struct Pitcher
{
    int   strikeouts;
    int   runsAllowed;
} ;

struct Batter
{
```

Advanced Topics

Unions

```
    int    runsScored;
    int    homeRuns;
} ;

struct Player
{
    int    type;
    char   name[ 40 ];
    int    team;
    union
    {
        struct Pitcher  pStats;
        struct Batter   bStats;
    } u;
};
```

Here's an example of a `Player` declaration:

```
struct Player    myPlayer;
```

Once you created the `Player` struct, you would initialize the `type` field with one of either `kPitcher` or `kBatter`:

```
myPlayer.type = kBatter;
```

You would access the `name` and `team` fields like this:

```
myPlayer.team = kMets;
printf( "Stepping up to the plate:  %s",
        myPlayer.name );
```

Finally, you'd access the union fields like this:

```
if ( myPlayer.type == kPitcher )
    myPlayer.u.pStats.strikeouts = 20;
```

The `u` was the name given to the union in the declaration of the `Player` type. Every `Player` you declare will automatically have a union named `u` built into it. The union gives you access to either a `Pitcher` struct named `pStats` or a `Batter` struct named `bStats`. The preceding example references the `strikeouts` field of the `pStats` field.

unions provide an interesting alternative to maintaining multiple data structures. Try them. Write your next program using a union or two. If you don't like them, you can return them for a full refund.

Function Recursion

Some programming problems are best solved by repeating a mathematical process. For example, to learn whether a number is prime (see Chapter 6), you might step through each of the even integers between 2 and the number's square root, one at a time, searching for a factor. If no factor is found, you have a prime. The process of stepping through the numbers between 2 and the number's square root is called **iteration**.

In programming, iterative solutions are fairly common. Almost every time you use a `for` loop, you are applying an iterative approach to a problem. An alternative to the iterative approach is known as **recursion**. In a recursive approach, instead of repeating a process in a loop, you embed the process in a function and have the function call itself until the process is complete. The key to recursion is a function calling itself.

Suppose that you wanted to calculate 5 factorial (also known as 5!). The factorial of a number is the product of each integer from 1 up to the number. For example, 5 factorial is:

$$5! = 5 * 4 * 3 * 2 * 1 = 120$$

Using an iterative approach, you might write some code like this:

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


Advanced Topics

Function Recursion

```
int main( void )
{
    int    i, num;
    long   fac;

    num = 5;
    fac = 1;

    for ( i=1; i<=num; i++ )
        fac *= i;

    printf( "%d factorial is %ld.", num, fac );

    return 0;
}
```

By the Way

If you are interested in trying this code, it is provided on disk in the Learn C Projects directory, under the subdirectory named 11.01 - iterate

If you ran this program, you'd see this line printed in the console window:

```
5 factorial is 120.
```

As you can see from the source code, the algorithm steps through (iterates) the numbers 1 through 5, building the factorial with each successive multiplication.

A Recursive Approach

You can use a recursive approach to solve the same problem. For starters, you'll need a function to act as a base for the recursion, a function that will call itself. There are two things you'll need to

build into your recursive function. First, you'll need a mechanism to keep track of the depth of the recursion. In other words, you'll need a variable or a parameter that changes, depending on the number of times the recursive function calls itself.

Second, you'll need a terminating condition, something that tells the recursive function when it's gone deep enough. Here's one version of a recursive function that calculates a factorial:

```
int factorial( int num )
{
    if ( num > 1 )
        num *= factorial( num - 1 );

    return( num );
}
```

`factorial()` takes a single parameter, the number whose factorial you are trying to calculate. First, `factorial()` checks to see whether the number passed to it is greater than 1. If it is not, `factorial()` calls itself, passing 1 less than the number passed into it. This strategy guarantees that, eventually, `factorial()` will get called with a value of 1.

Figure 11.2 shows this process in action. The process starts with a call to `factorial()`:

```
result = factorial( 3 );
```

Take a look at the leftmost `factorial()` source code in Figure 11.2. `factorial()` is called with a parameter of 3. The `if` statement checks to see whether the parameter is greater than 1. Since 3 is greater than 1, the following statement is executed:

```
num *= factorial( num - 1 );
```

Advanced Topics

Function Recursion

This statement calls `factorial()` again, passing a value of `n-1`, or 2, as the parameter. This second call of `factorial()` is pictured in the center of Figure 11.2.

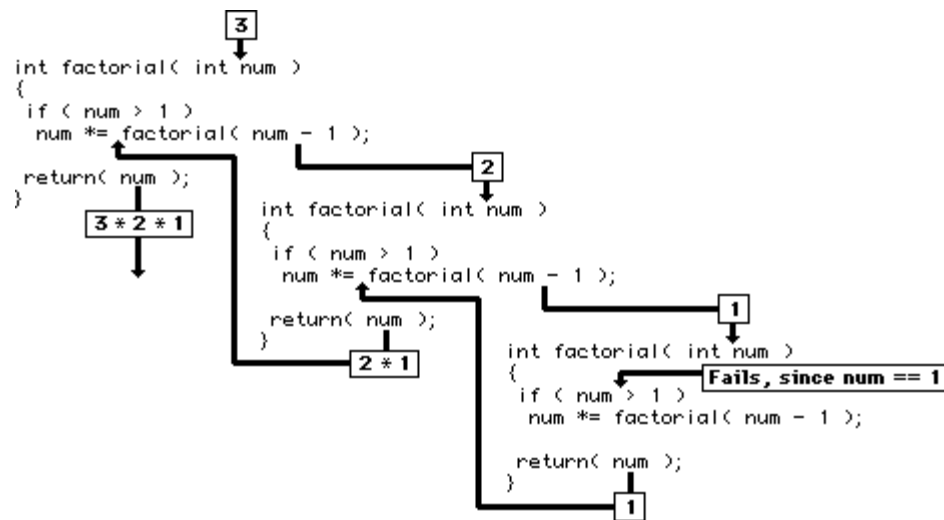


Figure 11.2 The recursion process caused by the call `factorial(3)`.

Important

It's important to understand that this second call to `factorial()` is treated just like any other function call that occurs in the middle of a function. The calling function's variables are preserved while the called function runs. In this case, the called function is just another copy of `factorial()`.

This second call of `factorial()` takes a value of 2 as a parameter. The `if` statement compares this value to 1 and, since 2 is greater than 1, executes the statement:

```
num *= factorial( num - 1 );
```

This statement calls `factorial()` yet again, passing `num-1`, or 1, as a parameter. The third call of `factorial()` is portrayed on the rightmost side of Figure 11.2.

The third call of `factorial()` starts with an `if` statement. Since the input parameter was 1, the `if` statement fails. Thus, the recursion termination condition is reached. This third call of `factorial()` now returns a value of 1.

At this point, the second call of `factorial()` resumes, completing the statement:

```
num *= factorial( num - 1 );
```

Since the call of `factorial()` returned a value of 1, this statement is equivalent to:

```
num *= 1;
```

This leaves `num` with the same value it came in with, namely, 2. This second call of `factorial()` returns a value of 2.

At this point, the first call of `factorial()` resumes, completing the statement:

```
num *= factorial( num - 1 );
```

Since the second call of `factorial()` returned a value of 2, this statement is equivalent to:

```
num *= 2;
```

Since the first call of `factorial()` started with the parameter `num` taking a value of 3, this statement sets `num` to a value of 6. Finally, the original call of `factorial()` returns a value of 6. This is as it should be, since $3 \text{ factorial} = 3 * 2 * 1 = 6$.

Advanced Topics

Binary Trees

Important

The recursive version of the factorial program is also provided on disk. You'll find it in the `Learn C Projects` directory, under the subdirectory named `11.02 - recurse`. Open the project and follow the program through, line by line.

Binary Trees

As you learn more about data structures, you'll discover new applications for recursion. For example, one of the most-used data structures in computer programming is the **binary tree** (Figure 11.3). As you'll see later, binary trees were just made for recursion. The binary tree is similar to the linked list. Both consist of `structs` connected by pointers embedded in each `struct`.

Linked lists are linear. Each `struct` in the list is linked by pointers to the `struct` behind it and in front of it in the list. Binary trees always start with a single `struct`, known as the `root struct`, or **root node**. Where the linked-list `structs` we've been working with contain a single pointer, named `next`, binary-tree `structs` each have two pointers, usually known as `left` and `right`.

Check out the binary tree in Figure 11.3. Notice that the root node has a left **child** and a right child. The left child has its own left child, but its `right` pointer is set to `NULL`. The left child's left child has two `NULL` pointers. A node with two `NULL` pointers is known as a **leaf node**, or **terminal node**.

Binary trees are extremely useful. They work especially well when you are trying to sort data having a **comparative relationship**. This means that if you compare two pieces of data, you'll be able to judge the first piece as greater than, equal to, or less than the second piece. For example, numbers are comparative. Words in a dictionary can be comparative, if you consider their alphabetical order. The word *iguana* is greater than *aardvark* but less than *xenophobe*.

Here's how you might store a sequence of words, one at a time, in a binary tree. We'll start with this list of words:

opulent
entropy
salubrious
ratchet
coulomb
yokel
tortuous

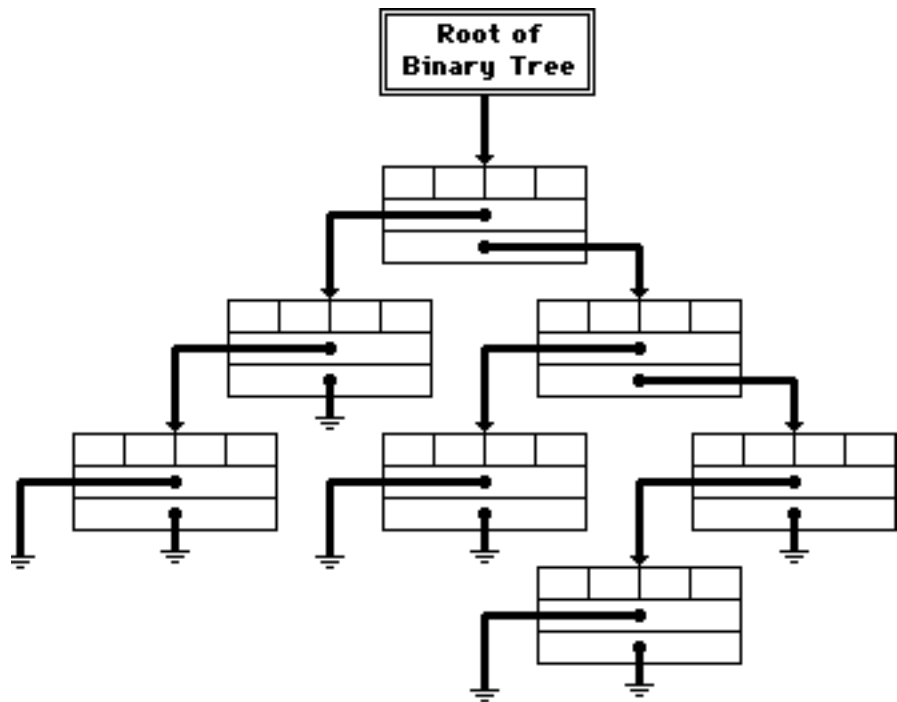


Figure 11.3 A binary tree. Why binary? Each node in the tree contains two pointers.

Figure 11.4 shows the word `opulent` added to the root node of the binary tree. Since it is the only word in the tree so far, both the left and right pointers are set to NULL.

Advanced Topics

Binary Trees

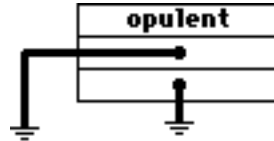


Figure 11.4 The word `opulent` is entered into the binary tree.

Figure 11.5 shows the word `entropy` added to the binary tree. Since `entropy` is less than `opulent` (that is, comes before it alphabetically), `entropy` is stored as `opulent`'s left child.

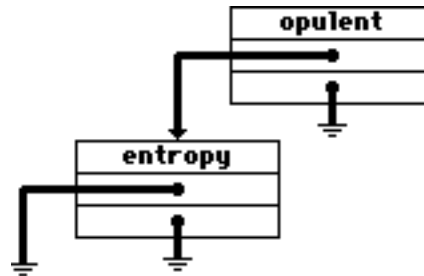


Figure 11.5 The word `entropy` is less than the word `opulent` and is added as its left child in the binary tree.

Next, Figure 11.6 shows the word `salubrious` added to the tree. Since `salubrious` is greater than `opulent`, it becomes `opulent`'s right child.

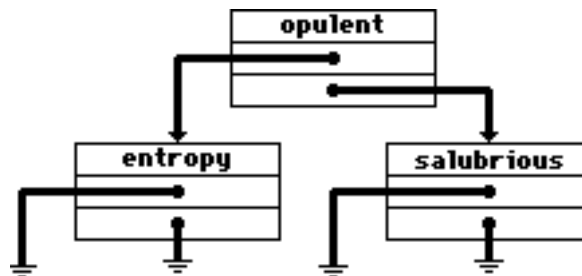


Figure 11.6 The word `salubrious` is greater than the word `opulent` and is added to its right in the tree.

Figure 11.7 shows the word `ratchet` added to the tree. First, `ratchet` is compared to `opulent`. Since `ratchet` is greater than `opulent`, we follow the right pointer. Since there's a word there already, we'll have to compare `ratchet` to this word. Since `ratchet` is less than `salubrious`, we'll store it as `salubrious`'s left child.

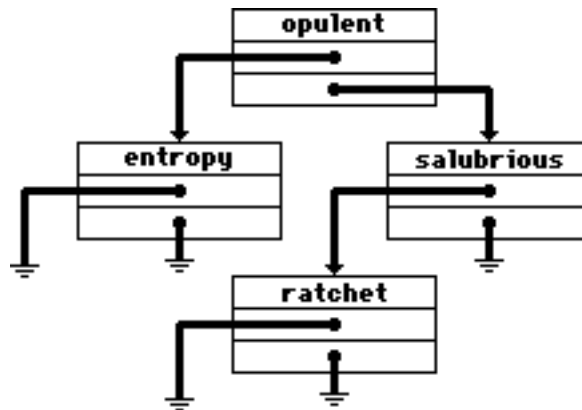


Figure 11.7 The word `ratchet` is greater than `opulent` but less than `salubrious` and is placed in the tree accordingly.

Figure 11.8 shows the binary tree after the remainder of the word list has been added. Do you understand how this scheme works? What would the binary tree look like if `coulomb` were the first word on the list? The tree would have no left children and would lean heavily to the right. What if `yoke1` were the first word entered? As you can see, this particular use of binary trees depends on the order of the data. Randomized data starting with a value close to the average produces a **balanced tree**. If the words had been entered in alphabetical order, you would have ended up with a binary tree that looked like a linked list.

By the Way

Data structure theory is one of my favorite topics in all of computer science. I'd like to rattle on and on about variant tree structures and binary tree balancing algorithms, but my editors would like me to get this book out sometime this year. This shouldn't stop you, though. Go to your library and check out a book on data structures and another on sorting and searching algorithms (which we'll get

Advanced Topics

Binary Trees

to in a minute). My favorite books on these topics are listed in the bibliography in Appendix F.

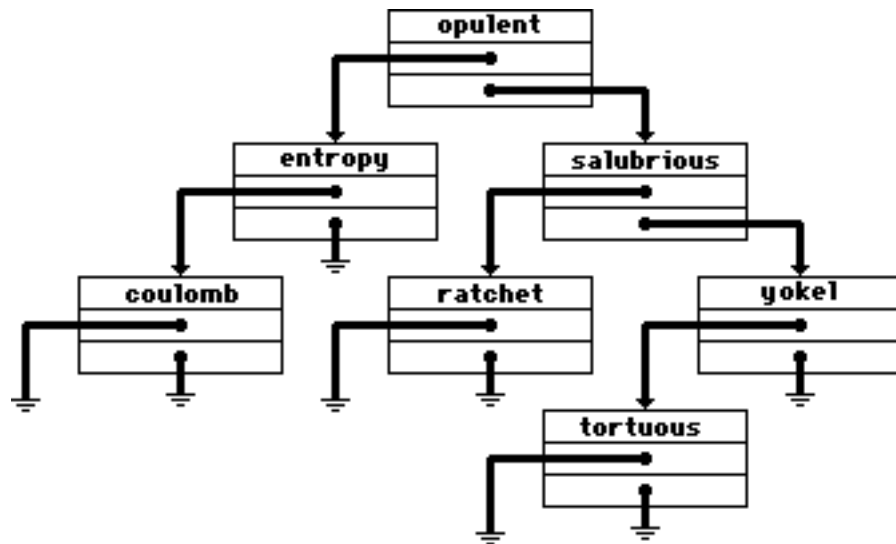


Figure 11.8 The words `coulomb`, `yokel`, and `tortuous` are added to the tree.

Searching Binary Trees

Now that your word list is stored in the binary tree, the next step is to look up a word in the tree. This is known as **searching** the tree. Suppose you wanted to look up the word `tortuous` in your tree. You'd start with the root node, comparing `tortuous` with `opulent`. Since `tortuous` is greater than `opulent`, you'd follow the right pointer to `salubrious`. You'd follow this algorithm down to `yokel` and finally `tortuous`.

By the Way

Searching a binary tree is typically much faster than searching a linked list. In a linked list, you search through your list of nodes, one at a time, until you find the node you are looking for. On average, you'll end up searching half of the list. In a list of 100 nodes, you'll end up checking 50 nodes on average. In a list of 1000

nodes, you'll end up checking 500 nodes on average.

In a balanced binary tree, you reduce the search space in half each time you check a node. Without getting into the mathematics (check Knuth's *The Art of Computer Programming*, Volume 3, for more info), the maximum number of nodes searched is approximately $\log_2 n$, where n is the number of nodes in the tree. On average, you'll search $\log_2 n / 2$ nodes. In a list of 100 nodes, you'll end up searching 3.32 nodes on average. In a list of 1000 nodes, you'll end up checking about 5 nodes on average.

As you can see, a binary tree provides a significant performance advantage over a linked list.

A binary tree that contained just words may not be very interesting, but imagine that these words were names of great political leaders. Each `struct` might contain a leader's name, biographical information, and, perhaps, a pointer to another data structure containing great speeches. The value, name, or word that determines the order of the tree is said to be the **key**.

You don't always search a tree based on the key. Sometimes, you'll want to step through every node in the tree. For example, suppose that your tree contained the name and birth date of each of the presidents of the United States. Suppose also that the tree was built using each president's last name as a key. Now suppose that you wanted to compose a list of all presidents born in July. In this case, searching the tree alphabetically won't do you any good. You'll have to search every node in the tree. This is where recursion comes in.

Recursion and Binary Trees

Binary trees and recursion were made for each other. To search a tree recursively, the recursing function has to visit the current node, as well as call itself with each of its two child nodes. The child nodes will do the same thing with themselves and their child nodes. Each part of the recursion stops when a terminal node is encountered.

Check out this piece of code:

Advanced Topics

Binary Trees

```
struct Node
{
    int    value;
    struct Node *left;
    struct Node *right;
} myNode;

Searcher( struct Node *nodePtr )
{
    if ( nodePtr != NULL )
    {
        VisitNode( nodePtr );
        Searcher( nodePtr->left );
        Searcher( nodePtr->right );
    }
}
```

The function `Searcher()` takes a pointer to a tree node as its parameter. If the pointer is `NULL`, we must be at a terminal node, and there's no need to recurse any deeper. If the pointer points to a `Node`, the function `VisitNode()` is called. `VisitNode()` performs whatever function you want performed for each node in the binary tree. In our current example, `VisitNode()` could check to see whether the president associated with this node was born in July. If so, `VisitNode()` might print the president's name in the console window.

Once the node is visited, `Searcher()` calls itself twice, once passing a pointer to its left child and once passing a pointer to its right child. If this version of `Searcher()` were used to search the tree in Figure 11.8, the tree would be searched in the order described in Figure 11.9. This type of search is known as a **preorder search**, because the node is visited before the two recursive calls take place.

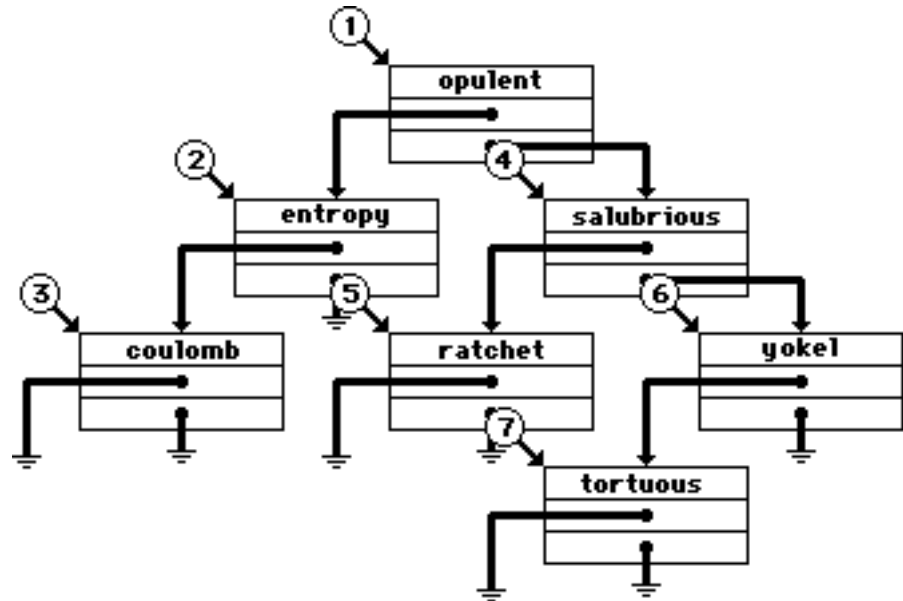


Figure 11.9 A preorder search of a binary tree. This search was produced by the first version of `Searcher()`.

Here's a slightly revised version of `Searcher()`. Without looking at Figure 11.10, can you predict the order in which the tree will be searched? This version of `Searcher()` performs an **inorder search** of the tree:

```
Searcher( struct Node *nodePtr )
{
    if ( nodePtr != NULL )
    {
        Searcher( nodePtr->left );
        VisitNode( nodePtr );
        Searcher( nodePtr->right );
    }
}
```

Advanced Topics

Binary Trees

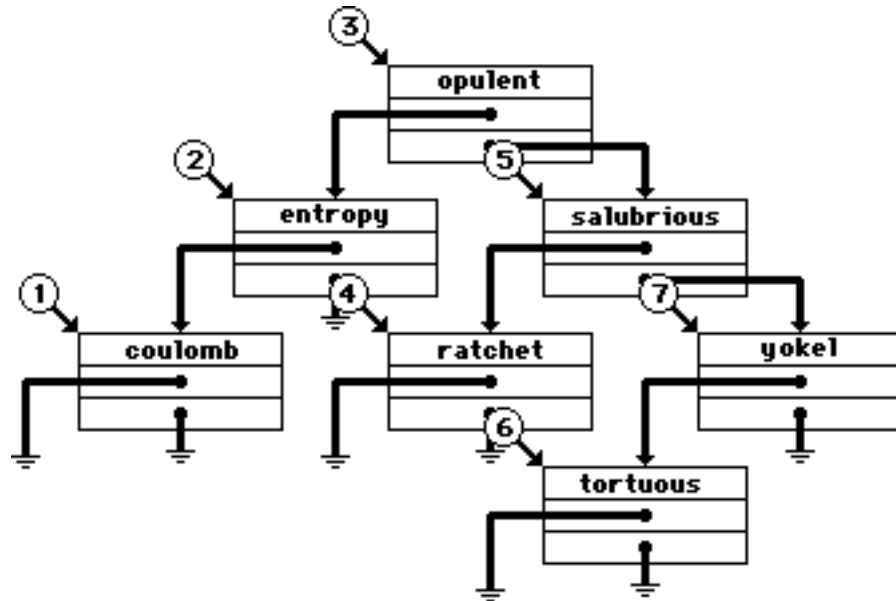


Figure 11.10 An inorder search of the same tree.

Here's a final look at `Searcher()`. This version performs a **postorder search** of the tree (Figure 11.11):

```
Searcher( struct Node *nodePtr )
{
    if ( nodePtr != NULL )
    {
        Searcher( nodePtr->left );
        Searcher( nodePtr->right );
        VisitNode( nodePtr );
    }
}
```

Recursion and binary trees are two extremely powerful programming tools. Learn how to use them—they'll pay big dividends.

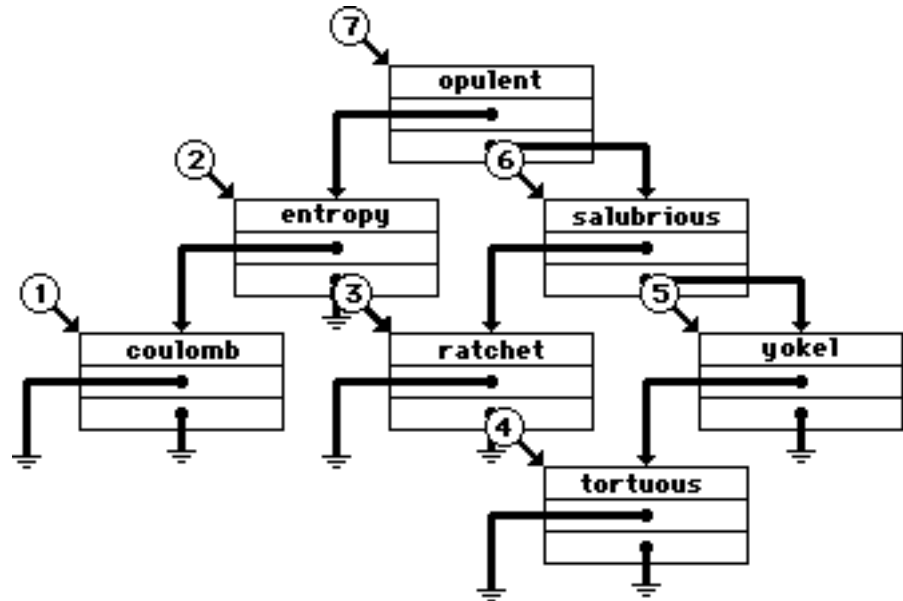


Figure 11.11 A postorder search of the same tree.

Function Pointers

Next on the list is the subject of **function pointers**. Function pointers are exactly what they sound like: pointers that point to functions. Up to now, the only way to call a function was to place its name in the source code:

```
MyFunction();
```

Function pointers give you a new way to call a function. Function pointers allow you to say, "Execute the function pointed to by this variable." Here's an example:

```
int(*myFuncPtr)( float );
```

This line of code declares a function pointer named `myFuncPtr`, which is a pointer to a function that takes a single parameter, a

Advanced Topics

Function Pointers

`float`, and that returns an `int`. The parentheses in the declaration are all necessary. The first pair tie the `*` to `myFuncPtr`, ensuring that `myFuncPtr` is declared as a pointer. The second pair surround the parameter list and distinguish `myFuncPtr` as a function pointer.

Suppose we had a function called `DealTheCards()` that took a `float` as a parameter and returned an `int`. This line of code assigns the address of `DealTheCards()` to the function pointer `myFuncPtr`:

```
myFuncPtr = DealTheCards;
```

Notice that the parentheses were left off the end of `DealTheCards()`. This is critical. If the parentheses were there, the code would have called `DealTheCards()`, returning a value to `myFuncPtr`. You may also have noticed that the `&` operator wasn't used. When you refer to a function without using the parentheses at the end, the compiler knows that you are referring to the address of the function.

Now that you have the function's address in the function pointer, there's only one thing left to do—call the function. Here's how it's done:

```
int result;  
  
result = (*myFuncPtr)( 3.5 );
```

This line calls the function `DealTheCards()`, passing it the parameter `3.5` and returning the function value to the `int result`. You could also have called the function this way:

```
int result;  
  
result = myFuncPtr( 3.5 );
```

Some older (non-ANSI compliant) compilers can't handle this form, but it is easier on the eye.

By the Way

There's a lot you can do with function pointers. You can create an array of function pointers. How about a binary tree of function pointers? You can pass a function pointer as a parameter to another function. Taking this one step further, you can create a function that does nothing but call other functions. Cool!

For your enjoyment, there's a function-calling example on the source code disk. You'll find the project in the `Learn C Projects` directory, inside the `11.03 - funcPtr` subdirectory. The program is pretty simple, but it should serve as a useful reference when you start using function pointers in your own programs.

Initializers

When you declare a variable, you can also provide an initial value for the variable at the same time. The format for integer types, floating-point types, and pointers is as follows:

```
type variable = initializer;
```

In this case, the initializer is just an expression. Here are a few examples:

```
float myFloat = 3.14159;
int   myInt   = 9 * 27;
int   *intPtr = &myInt;
```

If you plan on initializing a more complex variable, such as an array, struct, or union, you'll use a slightly different form of initializer, embedding the elements used to initialize the variable between pairs of curly braces. Consider these two array declarations:

```
int   myInts[] = { 10, 20, 30, 40 };
float myFloats[ 5 ] = { 1.0, 2.0, 3.0 };
```


Advanced Topics

Initializers

The first line of code declares an array of four `ints`, setting `myInts[0]` to 10, `myInts[1]` to 20, `myInts[2]` to 30, and `myInts[3]` to 40. If you leave out the array dimension, the compiler makes it just large enough to contain the listed data.

The second line of code includes a dimension but not enough data to fill the array. The first three array elements are filled with the specified values, but `myFloats[3]` and `myFloats[4]` are initialized to 0.0.

By the Way

If you don't provide enough values in your initializer list, the compiler initializes all the remaining elements to their **default initialization value**. For integers, the default initialization value is 0; for floats, 0.0; and for pointers, `NULL`.

Here's another example:

```
chars[ 20 ] = "Hello";
```

What a convenient way to initialize an array of `chars`! Here's another way to accomplish the same thing:

```
chars[ 20 ] = { 'H', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o', '\0' };
```

Once again, if you leave out the dimension, the compiler will allocate just enough memory to hold your text string, including a byte to hold the 0 terminator. If you include the dimension, the compiler will allocate that many array elements, then fill the array with whatever data you provide. If you provide more data than will fit in the array, your code won't compile.

Here's a `struct` example:

```
struct Numbers  
{
```

```
int i, j;
float f;
}

struct Numbers myNums = { 1, 2, 3.01 };
```

As you can see, the three initializing values were wrapped in a pair of curly braces. This leaves `myNums.i` with a value of 1, `myNums.j` with a value of 2, and `myNums.f` with a value of 3.01. If you have a struct, union, or array embedded in your struct, you can nest a curly wrapped list of values inside another list. For example:

```
struct Numbers
{
    int i, j;
    float f[ 4 ];
}

struct Numbers myNums1 = { 1, 2, {3.01, 4.01,
    5.01, 6.01} };
```

The Remaining Operators

If you go back to Chapter 5 and review the list of operators shown in Figure 5.7, you'll likely find a few operators you are not yet familiar with. Most of the ones we've missed were designed specifically to set the individual bits within a byte. For example, the `|` operator (not to be confused with its comrade, the logical `||` operator) takes two values and "ORs" their bits together, resolving to a single value. This operator is frequently used to set a particular bit to 1.

Check out this code:

```
short    myShort;

myShort = 0x0001 | myShort;
```

Advanced Topics

The Remaining Operators

This code sets the rightmost bit of `myShort` to 1, no matter what its current value is. This line of code, based on the `|=` operator, does the exact same thing:

```
myShort |= 0x0001;
```

The `&` operator takes two values and “ANDs” their bits together, resolving to a single value. This operator is frequently used to set a particular bit to 0 (more frequently referred to as **clearing a bit**).

Check out this code:

```
short myShort;  
  
myShort = 0xFFFFE & myShort;
```

This code sets the rightmost bit of `myShort` to 0, no matter what its current value is. It might help to think of `0xFFFFE` as `111111111111110` in binary. The next line of code, based on the `&=` operator, does the exact same thing:

```
myShort &= 0xFFFFE;
```

The `^` operator takes two values and “XORs” their values together. It goes along with the `^=` operator. The `~` operator takes a single value and turns all the 1s into 0s and all the 0s into 1s. The `&`, `|`, `^`, and `~` operators are summarized in Figure 11.12.

A	B	A&B	A B	A^B	~A
1	1	1	1	0	0
1	0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	1

Figure 11.12 A summary of the `&`, `|`, `^`, and `~` operators.

By the Way

The previous examples assumed that a `short` is 2 bytes (16 bits) long. Of course, this makes for some implementation-dependent code. Here's a more portable example.

```
short      myShort;  
  
myShort = (~1) & myShort;
```

This code sets the rightmost bit of `myShort`, no matter how many bytes are used to implement a `short`. You could also write this as:

```
myShort &= (~1);
```

The last of the binary operators, `<<`, `>>`, `<<=`, and `>>=`, are used to **shift bits** within a variable, either to the left or to the right. The left operand is usually an unsigned variable, and the right operand is a positive integer specifying how far to shift the variable's bits.

For example, this code shifts the bits of `myShort` 2 bits to the right:

```
unsigned short myShort = 0x0100;  
  
myShort = myShort >> 2; /* equal to myShort >>= 2;*/
```

Notice that `myShort` starts off with a value of 0000000100000000 and ends up with a value of 0000000010000000 (in hex, that's 0x0040). Notice that zeros get shifted in to make up for the leftmost bits that are getting shifted over and that the rightmost bits are lost when they shift off the end.

Warning

These operators were designed to work with unsigned values only. Check with your compiler to see how it handles shifting of signed values.

Advanced Topics

The Remaining Operators

The last two operators we need to cover are the `,` and `?:` operators. The `,` operator gives you a way to combine two expressions into a single expression. The `,` operator is binary, and both operands are expressions. The left expression is evaluated first and the result discarded. The right expression is then evaluated and its value returned. Here's an example:

```
for ( i=0, j=0; i<20 && j<40; i++,j+=2 )
    DoSomething( i, j );
```

This `for` loop is based on two variables instead of one. Before the loop is entered, `i` and `j` are both set to 0. The loop continues as long as `i` is less than 20 and `j` is less than 40. Each time through the loop, `i` is incremented by 1, and `j` is incremented by 2.

The `?` and `:` operators combine to create something called a **conditional expression**. A conditional expression consists of a logical expression (an expression that evaluates to either `true` or `false`), followed by the `?` operator, followed by a second expression, followed by the `:` operator, followed by a third expression:

```
logical-expression ? expression2 : expression3
```

If the logical expression evaluates to `true`, `expression2` gets evaluated, and the entire expression resolves to the value of `expression2`. If the logical expression evaluates to `false`, `expression3` gets evaluated, and the entire expression resolves to the value of `expression3`. Here's an example:

```
IsPrime( num ) ? DoPrimeStuff( num ) :
    DoNonPrimeStuff( num );
```

As you can see, a conditional expression is really a shorthand way of writing an `if-else` statement. Here's the `if-else` version of the previous example:

```
if ( IsPrime( num ) )
```

```
    DoPrimeStuff( num );  
else  
    DoNonPrimeStuff( num );
```

Some people like the brevity of the `? :` operator combination. Others find it difficult to read. As always, make your choice and stick with it.

Warning

A word of advice: Don't overuse the `? :` operator. For example, suppose that you wanted to use `? :` to generate a number's absolute value. You might write code like this:

```
int      value;  
  
value = (value<0) ? (-value) : (value);
```

Although this code works, take a look at this code translated into its `if-else` form:

```
int      value;  
  
if ( value<0 )  
        value = (-value);  
else  
        value = (value);
```

As you can see, the `? :` operator can lead you to write source code that you would otherwise consider pretty darn silly.

Creating Your Own Types

The `typedef` statement lets you use existing types to create brand new types you can then use in your declarations. You'll declare this new type just as you would a variable, except that you'll precede the

Advanced Topics

Creating Your Own Types

declaration with the word `typedef`, and the name you declare will be the name of a new type. Here's an example:

```
typedef int    *IntPtr;

IntPtr        myIntPtr;
```

The first line of code creates a new type named `IntPtr`. The second line declares a variable named `myIntPtr`, which is a pointer to an `int`.

Here's another example:

```
typedef float (*FuncPtr)( int * );

FuncPtr myFuncPtr;
```

The first line of code declares a new type named `FuncPtr`. The second line declares a variable named `myFuncPtr`, which is a pointer to a function that returns a `float` and that takes a single `int` as a parameter.

Enumerated Types

In a similar vein, the `enum` statement lets you declare a new type known as an enumerated type. An enumerated type is a set of named integer constants, collected under a single type name. A series of examples will make this clear.

```
enum Weekdays
{
    Monday,
    Tuesday,
    Wednesday,
    Thursday,
    Friday
};
```

```
enum Weekdays whichDay;  
  
whichDay = Thursday;
```

This code starts off with an enum declaration. The enum is given the name `Weekdays` and consists of the constants `Monday`, `Tuesday`, `Wednesday`, `Thursday`, and `Friday`. The second line of code uses this new enumerated type to declare a variable named `whichDay`, an integer variable that can take on any of the `Weekdays` constants, as evidenced by the last line of code, which assigns the constant `Thursday` to `whichDay`.

Here's another example:

```
enum Colors  
{  
    red,  
    green = 5,  
    blue,  
    magenta,  
    yellow = blue + 5  
} myColor;  
  
myColor = blue;
```

This code declares an enumerated type named `Colors`. Notice that some of the constants in the `Colors` list are accompanied by initializers. When the compiler creates the enumeration constants, it numbers them sequentially, starting with 0. In the previous example, `Monday` has a value of 0, `Tuesday` has a value of 1, and so on, with `Friday` having a value of 4.

In this case, the constant `red` has a value of 0. But the constant `green` has a value of 5. Things move along from there, with `blue` and `magenta` having values of 6 and 7, respectively. Next, `yellow` has a value of `blue+5`, which is 11.

This code also declares an enumeration variable named `myColor`, which is then assigned a value of `blue`.

Advanced Topics

Static Variables

By the Way

You can declare an enumerated type without the type name:

```
enum
{
    chocolate,
    strawberry,
    vanilla
};

int         iceCreamFlavor = vanilla;
```

This code declares a series of enumeration constants with values of 0, 1, and 2. We can assign the constants to an `int`, as we did with `iceCreamFlavor`. This comes in handy when you need a set of integer constants but have no need for a tag name.

Static Variables

Normally, when a function exits, the storage for its variables is freed up, and their values are no longer available. By declaring a local variable as `static`, the variable's value is maintained across multiple calls of the same function. Here's an example:

```
int StaticFunc( void )
{
    static int  myStatic = 0;

    return myStatic++;
}
```

This function declares an `int` named `myStatic` and initializes it to a value of 0. The function returns the value of `myStatic` and increments `myStatic` after the return value is determined. The first time this function is called, it returns 0, and `myStatic` is left with a value

of 1. The second time `StaticFunc()` is called, it returns 1, and `myStatic` is left with a value of 2.

By the Way

Take a few minutes and try this code out for yourself. You'll find it in the `Learn C Projects` directory in the subdirectory `11.04 - static`.

One of the keys to this function is the manner in which `myStatic` received its initial value. Imagine if the function looked like this:

```
int StaticFunc( void )
{
    static int  myStatic;

    myStatic = 0;    /* ← Bad idea.... */

    return myStatic++;
}
```

Each time through the function, we'd be setting the value of `myStatic` back to 0. This function will always return a value of 0. Not what we want, eh?

The difference between the two functions? The first version sets the value of `myStatic` to 0 by initialization (the value is specified within the declaration). The second version sets the value of `myStatic` to 0 by assignment (the value is specified after the declaration). If a variable is marked as `static`, any initialization is done once and once only. Be sure that you set the initial value of your `static` variable in the declaration and not in an assignment statement.

By the Way

One way to think of `static` variables is as global variables that are limited in scope to a single function.

More on Strings

The last topic we'll tackle in this chapter is **string manipulation**. Although we've done some work with strings in previous chapters, there are a number of Standard Library functions that haven't been covered. Each of these functions requires that you include the file `<string.h>`. Here are a few examples.

strcpy()

The function `strcpy()` is declared as follows:

```
char *strcpy( char *dest, const char *source );
```

This function copies the string pointed to by `source` into the string pointed to by `dest`, copying each of the characters in `source`, including the terminating 0 byte. That leaves `dest` as a properly terminated string. The function returns the pointer `dest`.

An important thing to remember about `strcpy()` is that you are responsible for ensuring that `source` is properly terminated and that enough memory is allocated for the string returned in `dest`. Here's an example of `strcpy()` in action:

```
char name[ 20 ];  
  
strcpy( name, "Dave Mark" );
```

This example uses a string literal as the source string. The string is copied into the array `name`. The return value was ignored.

strcat()

The function `strcat()` is declared as follows:

```
char *strcat( char *dest, const char *source );
```

The function `strcat()` appends a copy of the string pointed to by `source` onto the end of the string pointed to by `dest`. As was the case with `strcpy()`, `strcat()` returns the pointer `dest`. Here's an example of `strcat()` in action:

```
char name[ 20 ];

strcpy( name, "Dave " );
strcat( name, "Mark" );
```

The call of `strcpy()` copies the string "Dave " into the array `name`. The call of `strcat()` copies the string "Mark" onto the end of `dest`, leaving `dest` with the properly terminated string "Dave Mark". Again, the return value was ignored.

strcmp()

The function `strcmp()` is declared as follows:

```
int strcmp( const char *s1, const char *s2 );
```

This function compares the strings `s1` and `s2` and returns 0 if the strings are identical, a positive number if `s1` is greater than `s2`, and a negative number if `s2` is greater than `s1`. The strings are compared one byte at a time. If the strings are not equal, the first byte that is not identical determines the return value. Here's a sample:

```
if ( strcmp( "Hello", "Goodbye" ) )
    printf( "The strings are not equal!" );
```

Notice that the `if` succeeds when the strings are not equal.

strlen()

The function `strlen()` is declared as follows:

```
size_t strlen( const char *s );
```

Advanced Topics

What's Next?

This function returns the length of the string pointed to by `s`. Look at this call, for example:

```
length = strlen( "Aardvark" );
```

The value returned is 8, the number of characters in the string, not counting the terminating zero.

More Standard Library

There is a lot more to the Standard Library than what we've covered in the book. Having made it this far, consider yourself an official C programmer. You now have a sworn duty to dig in to the C Library Reference that came on the CD. Start off with Chapter 15, which covers the functions declared in `<string.h>`. Find out what the difference is between `strcmp()` and `strncmp()`. Wander around. Get to know the Standard Library. You will be making extensive use of it.

If you haven't done so already, go out and buy a copy of *C: A Reference Manual* by Harbison and Steele. When it comes to a definitive answer to a C programming question, having Harbison and Steele by your side is the next best thing to having Keith Rollin's home phone number.

What's Next?

Chapter 12 answers the question, Where do you go from here? Do you want to learn to create programs with that special Windows look and feel? Would you like more information on data structures and C programming techniques? Chapter 12 offers some suggestions to help you find your programming direction.

Exercises

1. What's wrong with each of the following code fragments:
 - a.

```
struct Dog
```

```
{
    struct Dog    *next;
} ;

struct Cat
{
    struct Cat    *next;
} ;

struct Dog    myDog;
struct Cat    myCat;
```

```
myDog.next = (struct Dog)&myCat;
myCat.next = NULL;
```

b.

```
int    *MyFunc( void );
typedef int (*FuncPtr)();
```

```
FuncPtr    myFuncPtr = MyFunc;
```

c.

```
union Number
{
    int    i;
    float  f;
    char   *s;
} ;
```

```
Number    myUnion;
```

```
myUnion.f = 3.5;
```

Advanced Topics

Exercises

```
d.  struct Player
    {
        int      type;
        char     name[ 40 ];
        int      team;
        union
        {
            int      myInt;
            float     myFloat;
        } u;
    } myPlayer;

    myPlayer.team = 27;
    myPlayer.myInt = -42;
    myPlayer.myFloat = 5.7;
e.  int  *myFuncPtr( int );

    myFuncPtr = main;
    *myFuncPtr();
f.  char s[ 20 ];

    strcpy( s, "Hello " );

    if ( strcmp( s, "Hello" ) )
        printf( "The strings are the same!" );
g.  char *s;

    s = malloc( 20 );
```

```
        strcpy( "Heeeers Johnny!", s );  
h.   char *s;  
  
        strcpy( s, "Aardvark" );  
i.   void DoSomeStuff( void )  
      {  
          /* stuff done here */  
      }  
  
      int main( void )  
      {  
          int      ii;  
  
          for ( ii = 0; ii < 10; ii++ )  
              DoSomeStuff;  
  
          return 0;  
      }
```

2. Write a program that reads in a series of integers from a file, storing the numbers in a binary tree in the same fashion as the words were stored earlier in the chapter. Store the first number as the root of the tree. Next, store the second number in the left branch if it is less than the first number or in the right branch if it is greater than or equal to the first number. Continue this process until all the numbers are stored in the tree.

Now write a series of functions that print the contents of the tree using preorder, inorder, and postorder recursive searches.

Advanced Topics

Exercises



Where Do You Go from Here?

Now that you've mastered the fundamentals of C, you're ready to dig into the specifics of Windows programming. As you've run the example programs in the previous chapters, you've probably noticed that none of the programs sport the look and feel that make a Windows program a Windows program.

For one thing, all of the interaction between you and your program focuses on the keyboard and the console window. None of the programs take advantage of the mouse. None offer color, pull-down menus, or a selection of different fonts. These are all part of the Windows user interface.

The Windows Graphical User Interface

User interface is the part of your program that interacts with the user. So far, your user interface skills have focused on writing to and reading from the console window, using such functions as `printf()`, `scanf()`, and `getchar()`. The advantage of this type of user interface is that each of those functions is available on every machine that supports the C language. Programs written using the Standard C Library are extremely portable.

However, console-based user interfaces tend to be limited. With a console-based interface, you can't use an elegant graphic to make a point. Text-based interfaces can't provide animation or digital sound. In a nutshell, the console-based interface is simple and, at the same time, simple to program. Windows' graphical user interface (GUI) offers an elegant, more sophisticated method of working with a computer.

Where Do You Go from Here?

The Windows API

Since Windows was introduced, a PC just wouldn't be the same without windows, pull-down and pop-up menus, icons, push buttons, and scroll bars. You can and should add these user interface elements to your C programs. The difficult part is deciding which features to use and where to use them.

Once you've identified the pieces of the Windows interface you want in your program, you're ready to take advantage of the functions made available by the Windows application programming interface (API).

The Windows API

The Windows API contains functions that create windows on the screen and others that draw text in these windows. There are functions for drawing shapes, lines, and dots in color and in black and white. There's a set of functions that allows you to implement your own pull-down menus. The Windows API is extremely robust and powerful.

The Windows API provides mechanisms to create, display and control the various components of a program's user interface. That's why Windows programs have such a consistent look and feel. The CodeWarrior IDE that you have been using is an example of an application created with the Windows API. Take a look at the IDE's Open dialog in Figure 12.1. Notice the close resemblance to other such dialogs from different applications. Also available through the Windows API are routines to do message handling, text and graphics drawing, and icon manipulation, as well as a long list of other capabilities.

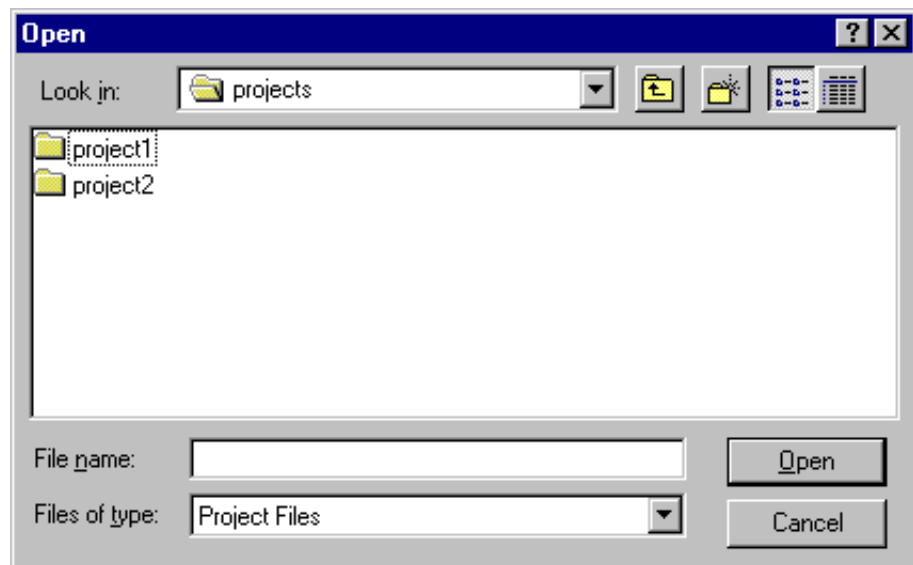


Figure 12.1 The CodeWarrior IDE Open dialog.

HelloWorld.cwp

Our final project, a revamped version of our earlier hello world program, presents a simple Windows application. Although HelloWorld doesn't do much, it does the display the basics involved in actually displaying and manipulating a Windows window.

Go into the `Learn C Projects` directory, then into the subdirectory named `12.01 - HelloWorld`, and open the project named `HelloWorld.cwp`.

Run the project by selecting `Run` from the `Project` menu. Once CodeWarrior compiles your source code, the window in Figure 12.2 will appear at the top of your screen. This particular program does not display any menus. To exit the program, double click on the window's close box in the upper right corner of the window.

Where Do You Go from Here?

Getting Started with Windows Programming

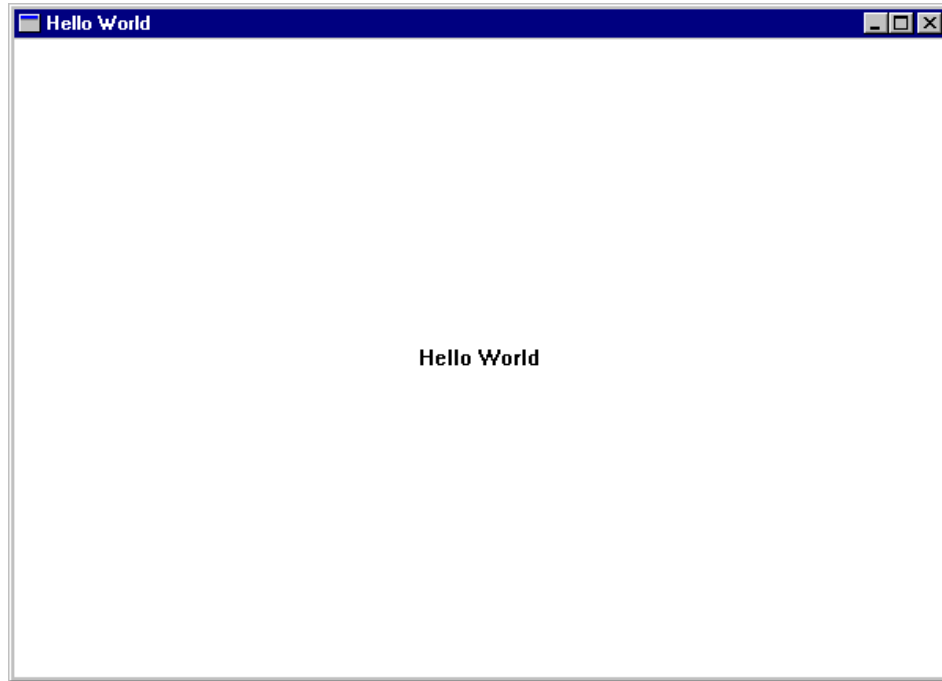


Figure 12.2 Window displayed by the HelloWorld program.

Getting Started with Windows Programming

The next step in your programming education is to learn how to use the Windows API in your own programs. You've taken the first step by buying this Discover Programming CD. Now, you're ready to start using the Windows API. Fortunately, there's a lot of literature available to help ease you through the Windows programming learning curve.

By the Way

If you plan on moving to C++, check out the sequel to this book, called *Learn C++ under Windows 95/NT*. It assumes that you know C and gets you started with C++.

Go Get 'Em

Well, that's about it. I hope you enjoyed reading this book as much as I enjoyed writing it. Above all, I hope you are excited about C. Now that you have C under your belt, go out there and write some source code.

Enjoy!

Where Do You Go from Here?

Go Get 'Em



A

Glossary

algorithm: The technical approach used to solve a problem.

ANSI C: The standard version of the C programming language established by the American National Standards Institute.

append: A mode used when opening a file for writing. Append mode specifies that any data written to the file is written after any existing data.

argument: Another word for **parameter**.

array: A variable containing a sequence of data of a particular type. For example, you can declare an array of 50 `ints`.

array element: The smallest addressable unit of an array. In an array of 50 `ints`, each `int` represents an element of the array.

ASCII character set: A set of 128 standard characters defined by the American Standard Code for Information Interchange.

backslash combination or backslash sequence: A single character represented by the combination of the backslash (`\`) and another character. For example, the sequence `'\n'` represents a new line character.

backward compatibility: A computer design that allows a newer generation of computers to run the previous generation of software.

balanced tree: A binary tree that maintains a uniform depth. The more unbalanced a tree becomes, the less efficient some tree-searching algorithms become.

bell curve: A bell-shaped statistical curve that represents a normal probability distribution. Plotting the possible rolls of a pair of six-sided dice yields a bell curve.

binary: A system of mathematics based on the two digits 0 and 1. Computers use binary to represent the value stored in memory.

binary tree: A data structure that consists of a series of nodes, each of which features a left and right pointer. These two pointers point to other nodes, linking the group of nodes into a tree-like structure.

bit: The smallest unit of computer memory, a bit has a value of either 0 or 1.

bit bucket: A euphemism used to indicate a place where lost data goes. If your data went into the bit bucket, you'll never see it again—it is irretrievably lost.

block: A sequence of memory.

call: Cause a function to be executed. When a function is called, its code gets executed and control is then returned to the calling function.

case-sensitive: Sensitive to the difference between upper- and lower-case letters. C is a case-sensitive language and therefore distinguishes between names such as `MyFunction()` and `MYFUNCTION()`.

cast: See **typecast**.

Central Processing Unit (CPU): The integrated circuit that controls the processing of a computer. The PC family of computers is driven by the Intel x86 series CPU.

child: A node in a tree pointed to by another node. The node that points to a child node is known as the child's parent.

clearing a bit: Changing the value of a bit to 0.

code optimization: A process used by a compiler to increase the efficiency of the object code it generates.

comparative operator: An operator that compares its left side with its right side, producing a value of either `TRUE` or `FALSE`.

comparative relationship: The relationship between the two sides of a comparative operator that determines whether the operator returns a value of `TRUE` or `FALSE`.

compiler: A program that translates source code into the machine code understood by a computer.

compound statements: Statements made up of several parts, and possibly including other statements.

conditional expression: An expression built around the `?` and `:` operators.

console: A terminal or window that receives the output from Standard Library functions, such as `printf()` and echoes the input from the keyboard.

constant: A program value that doesn't change: `27`, `1.1414`, and `'\n'` are all examples of constants.

convention: A standard agreed upon by a group of people. For example, most Windows programmers follow the convention of using Hungarian notation to name their variables.

counter: A variable whose sole purpose is to keep a running count of an event. The variable that changes each time through a `for` loop is a counter.

CPU: See **Central Processing Unit**.

deallocate: The opposite of allocate. Memory is typically allocated using `malloc()` and deallocated using `free()`.

declaration: A statement used to define a new variable, function, or type. A variable declaration establishes both the name and type of the variable.

decrement: Decrease in value. Typically, decrementing a variable decreases its value by 1.

default initialization value: The value used to initialize a global variable. The default initialization value for an `int` is 0 and for a pointer is `NULL`.

definition: A declaration that causes memory to be allocated for the item being declared.

dereference: Use a pointer to retrieve the contents of the memory location that the pointer points to.

dictionary: The table used by the compiler to hold the list of `#define` substitutions contained in the source code being compiled.

dimension: The number of array elements associated with an array.

doping: The process of using a laser beam to create impurities in the silicon of an integrated circuit.

exceeding the bounds: Exceeding the bounds of an array means trying to access an inappropriate element of the array, such as the 51st int in an array of 50 ints.

expression: A combination of variables and operators that resolves to a single value.

field: An element of a `struct`. A field is normally accessed using either the `.` or `->` operator.

file: A series of bytes residing on some storage media. For example, a file might be stored on a floppy disk, a hard drive, or even a CD-ROM.

file position: The current location in a file, indicating the next byte that will be returned by a read operation or the location where a read operation will place its first byte.

floating-point numbers: Numbers that contain a decimal point. For example, 3.5, -27.6874, and 3.14159 are all floating-point numbers.

flow control: The ability to control the order in which your program's statements are executed.

format specifier: A sequence of bytes, starting with `%`, that determines the format of data being read or written.

format specifier modifier: A sequence of bytes that adds more detail to a format specifier. For example, `%6d` is a format specifier and the 6 in `%6d` is the format specifier modifier.

fractional part: The part of a floating point to the right of the decimal point.

function: A sequence of source code that accomplishes a specific task. C functions have a title and a body. The title contains the function's name and parameters. The body contains the function's code.

function declaration: A line containing a function's return value, name, and parameter list, followed by a semicolon. The function declaration is also known as a function prototype and is used by the compiler to perform type checking.

function parameter: A class of variable that allows data sharing between a calling function and a called function.

function pointer: A variable containing a pointer to a function. Function pointers can be used to call the function they point to.

function prototype: See **function declaration**.

function return value: The value returned by a function. Functions of type `void` are the only types of functions that do not return a value.

function specifier: The first line of a function, basically, a function declaration without the semicolon.

global variable: A variable that is accessible from inside every function in your program.

graphical user interface (GUI): A user interface that features graphical elements, such as pictures, icons, and windows. Windows is a great example of a graphical user interface.

header file: A file that is included by another source code file using the `#include` mechanism. Header files typically end with `.h`.

hexadecimal notation or hex notation: A notation that represents numbers in base 16 instead of the traditional base 10.

increment: Increase in value. Typically, incrementing a variable increases its value by 1.

index: The number used to refer to an individual array element. An array index usually appears between the brackets following the array name.

indices: The plural of index.

infinite loop: A loop that repeats indefinitely. This is usually a bad thing.

initialization: The process of assigning a value to a variable for the first time.

initialized: Containing a known value.

inorder search: A binary tree search that recursively searches a node's left child, visits the node itself, then recursively searches the node's right child.

Glossary

input buffer: A block of memory designed to accumulate input from the keyboard for later retrieval by your program.

input device: A device that allows a user to provide input to your program. The mouse and the keyboard are both input devices.

integer: A whole number, such as 1, -26, or 3,876,560.

integer part: The part of a floating-point number to the left of the decimal point.

ISO C: The international standard for C established by the International Standards Organization. ISO C is based on ANSI C.

iteration: The process of stepping through a list or array. In C, iteration frequently starts at 0 and proceeds to some upper limit.

key: The field in a tree struct that determines the search order of the tree.

keyboard accelerator: A key combination used to perform a function, most often to duplicate a common menu option.

l-value: The left-hand side of an assignment statement.

leaf node: A terminal node of a tree. In a binary tree, a leaf node has two NULL pointers.

library: A file containing precompiled object code used as part of a project. The routines in the Standard Library are compiled into a series of libraries.

linked list: A data structure consisting of two or more structs, linked together by pointers.

linking: The process of joining the elements in a project into its ultimate form. For example, a series of compiled files might be linked into an application.

literal: A constant of any type. The number 123 is an example of an int literal. "Hello" is an example of a literal text string.

loading: The process of copying a library's object code into the project file.

local variable: A variable declared within a function (as opposed to a global variable).

localize: Customize your software so it is readable in a specific country, using a specific language. For example, you might localize your program for use in Japan by replacing the English, ASCII text by the multibyte character system used in Japan.

logical operator: The set of operators that resolve to either `true` or `false`. `!`, `&&`, and `||` are examples of logical operators.

loop: Any repeating source code sequence. `do`, `while`, and `for` are examples of C loop statements.

machine language: A machine readable translation of your source code. Machine language is also known as object code.

macro: A `#define` that takes a parameter.

master pointer: The pointer to the first element in a linked list.

memory: A portion of a computer, composed of specially designed integrated circuits, used for the temporary storage of programs and data.

modification: The code within a loop that modifies the value of the loop's expression. Without modification, the loop will never terminate.

multi-dimensional array: An array declared with more than one index.

My Computer: A Windows utility that displays the components of your computer system in the form of folders and icons.

object code: See **machine language**.

open a file: Perform the necessary work prior to accessing a file's data. Files can be opened using several different modes, among them read, write, and append.

operator: A special character (or set of characters) that represents a specific computer operation. `=`, `++`, and `/` are examples of operators.

out of bounds: See **exceeding the bounds**.

output: The result of your program. In this book, all the output appeared in a console window.

pad byte or padding: Characters appended to a block of memory used to bring the block up to a predetermined size. Space characters

are frequently used to pad a string to a fixed record size. Pad bytes are used to bring a `struct` up to a specific alignment in memory.

parameter: See **function parameter**.

parameter list: The list of parameters associated with a function. A function's parameter list is found in the function specifier.

pointer: A special variable, designed specifically to hold the address of another variable.

pointer arithmetic: The process of incrementing or decrementing a pointer to point to a new memory location.

pointer variable: See **pointer**.

postfix notation: The use of the `++` or `--` operator following a variable. In postfix notation, the value of the variable is returned before the variable is incremented or decremented.

postorder search: A binary tree search that recursively searches a node's left child, recursively searches the node's right child, then visits the node itself.

prefix notation: The use of the `++` or `--` operator preceding a variable. In prefix notation, the variable is incremented or decremented before the value of the variable is returned.

preorder search: A binary tree search that visits a node, then recursively searches the node's left and right children.

prime number: A number whose only factors are 1 and itself. 2, 3, 5, and 7 are the only primes less than 10.

processor: See **Central Processing Unit**.

project file: A special file CodeWarrior uses to gather information about your project. The project object code is stored in the project file.

project window: A window listing each of the source code files associated with the project. The project window also lists the current size of the object code associated with each source code file.

prompt: A text string that tells the user what your program expects him or her to do. For example, a prompt might ask the user to type in a number between 1 and 10.

Random Access Memory (RAM): See **memory**.

random file access: Accessing the data in a file by seeking to a specific location, as opposed to reading a byte at a time from the beginning of the file.

read a file: The process of transferring the data stored in a file into your program.

Read-Only Memory (ROM): A memory chip that can be read but not written to.

recursion: The process that occurs when a function calls itself. Recursive functions normally feature a parameter that keeps track of the depth of the recursion (the number of times the function has called itself). The recursive function will stop calling itself once a terminating condition has been met.

return: What a function does when it is ready to exit. When a function returns, its nonstatic local variables go out of scope (can no longer be accessed).

return type: The data type returned by a function.

ROM: See **Read-Only Memory**.

root node: The first node in a tree. A root node has no parents.

scientific or exponential notation: A notation for representing numbers as a floating point number times a power of 10. For example, 2.5e3 is equal to 2.5 times 10 to the third power, which is equal to 2500.

searching: The process of traversing a tree or list to look for a particular feature or value.

sequential stream of bytes: A stream of bytes, one right after another. Accessing a stream sequentially is the opposite of random file access.

shift bits: Move the bits within a byte either to the left or to the right.

signed: A variable capable of storing both positive and negative values.

simple statement: An assignment statement or function call. Simple statements never have substatements.

source code: A sequence of statements that tells the computer what to do. Source code is written in a specific programming language, such as C or Pascal.

source code editor: A program that allows you to review and modify your source code. CodeWarrior has a built-in source code editor.

Standard Library: A set of built-in functions that comes with every ANSI standard compiler.

star operator: Another name for the * operator (the pointer dereferencing operator).

statement: A combination of function calls, operators, and variables that performs a set of computer operations. Statements are usually followed by a semicolon.

step through: Usually associated with an array or a linked list. Stepping through an array or linked list means performing an operation on each element of the array or linked list.

stream: A sequence of bytes, normally associated with a file.

string constant: A string literal, such as "Hello".

string manipulation: The process of copying or altering a string variable. String manipulation is normally performed on a 0-terminated string embedded in an array of chars.

syntax error: An error in your source code that prevents the compiler from compiling your code. CodeWarrior reports syntax errors by printing an error message in a separate window.

terminal node: Another name for a **leaf node**.

termination: The condition within a loop that allows the loop to exit.

trace: A process that allows you to map the flow of your program's code. You can trace your program's execution using the CodeWarrior debugger.

traversal: The process of stepping through a linked list, binary tree, or similar data structure. Traversals usually follow a specific pattern, such as preorder, inorder, or postorder.

two's complement notation: The notation used by a compiler to represent signed integers.

type: The class a variable belongs to. A variable's type determines the type of data that can be stored in the variable. `char`, `int`, and `float` are examples of variable types.

typecast: A C mechanism for converting a variable from one type to another.

typecasting: The process of applying a typecast to a variable.

typo: Slang for a typographical error.

unary: Usually used with respect to an operator, this indicates that the operator has a single operand.

union: A data structure that allows multiple fields but dedicates all its memory to one of the fields.

unsigned: A variable capable of storing only values greater than or equal than zero.

update mode: The file opening modes that allow you to switch between reading and writing without reopening the file. Update modes are specified by including a `+` in the mode specifier.

user interface: The part of your program that interacts with the user.

variable: A container for your program's data. Variables have a name and a type.

variable scope: Within a program, a variable's scope determines where in the program the variable can be accessed. Local variables are only accessible within the function they are declared in. Global variables are accessible throughout the file they are declared in.

variable type: See **type**.

white space: An invisible character, such as a space, tab, or carriage return. White space is ignored by the compiler.

whole number: An integer, as opposed to a floating point number. -256, 22, and 1,000,000 are all whole numbers, but 3.14159 is not a whole number.

wide character data types: Data types designed to hold characters represented by more than one byte. ISO supports wide character types, ANSI does not.

Glossary

wide string data types: String data types based on **wide character data types**. To learn more about these, see the writeup in Harbison and Steele's *C: A Reference Manual*.

Windows Application Programming Interface (API): A set of functions that allows you to access and incorporate the features of Windows in your programs.

Windows Explorer: A Windows utility that displays the contents of the computer in a tree-view format.

write a file: The process of transferring data stored in your program's variables out to a disk file.



Source Code Listings

02.01 - hello _____ hello.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main( void )
{
    printf( "Hello, world!\n" );

    return 0;
}
```

04.01 - hello2 _____ hello2.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

void SayHello( void );

int main( void )
{
    SayHello();

    return 0;
}

void SayHello( void )
{
```

Source Code Listings

```
    printf( "Hello, world!\n" );  
}
```

04.02 - hello3 _____ hello3.c

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

```
void SayHello( void );
```

```
int main( void )  
{  
    SayHello();  
    SayHello();  
    SayHello();  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

```
void SayHello( void )  
{  
    printf( "Hello, world!\n" );  
}
```

05.01 - operator _____ operator.c

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

```
int main( void )  
{  
    int myInt;  
  
    myInt = 3 * 2;
```

```
printf( "myInt ----> %d\n", myInt );

myInt += 1;
printf( "myInt ----> %d\n", myInt );

myInt -= 5;
printf( "myInt ----> %d\n", myInt );

myInt *= 10;
printf( "myInt ----> %d\n", myInt );

myInt /= 4;
printf( "myInt ----> %d\n", myInt );

myInt /= 2;
printf( "myInt ----> %d", myInt );

return 0;
}
```

05.02 - postfix _____ postfix.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main( void )
{
    int    myInt;

    myInt = 5;
    printf( "myInt ----> %d\n", myInt++ );
    printf( "myInt ----> %d", ++myInt );

    return 0;
}
```

Source Code Listings

05.03 - slasher _____ slasher.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main( void )
{
    printf( "0000000000\r" );
    printf( "11111\n" );

    printf( "0000\b\b11\n" );

    printf( "Here's a backslash...\\...for you.\n" );
    printf( "Here's a double quote...\"...for
        you.\n" );

    printf( "Here are a few tabs...\t\t\t\t...for
        you.\n" );

    printf( "Here are a few beeps...\a\a\a\a...for
        you." );

    return 0;
}
```

06.01 - truthTester _____ truthTester.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

#define true    1
#define false   0

int main( void )
{
    int hasCar, hasTimeToGiveRide;
    int nothingElseOn, newEpisode, itsARerun;
```

```
hasCar = true;
hasTimeToGiveRide = true;

if ( hasCar && hasTimeToGiveRide )
    printf( "Hop in - I'll give you a ride!\n" );
else
    printf( "I've either got no car, no time, or
           both!\n" );

nothingElseOn = true;
newEpisode = true;

if ( newEpisode || nothingElseOn )
    printf( "Let's watch Star Trek!\n" );
else
    printf( "Something else is on or I've seen
           this one.\n" );

nothingElseOn = true;
itsARerun = true;

if ( nothingElseOn || (! itsARerun) )
    printf( "Let's watch Star Trek!\n" );
else
    printf( "Something else is on or I've seen
           this one.\n" );

return 0;
}
```

06.02 - loopTester _____ loopTester.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main( void )
{
```

Source Code Listings

```
int i;

i = 0;
while ( i++ < 4 )
    printf( "while: i=%d\n", i );

printf( "After while loop, i=%d.\n\n", i );

for ( i = 0; i < 4; i++ )
    printf( "first for: i=%d\n", i );

printf( "After first for loop, i=%d.\n\n", i );

for ( i = 1; i <= 4; i++ )
    printf( "second for: i=%d\n", i );

printf( "After second for loop, i=%d.\n", i );

return 0;
}
```

06.03 - isOdd _____ isOdd.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main( void )
{
    int i;

    for ( i = 1; i <= 20; i++ )
    {
        printf( "The number %d is ", i );

        if ( (i % 2) == 0 )
            printf( "even" );
        else
```

```
        printf( "odd" );

        if ( (i % 3) == 0 )
            printf( " and is a multiple of 3" );

        printf( ".\n" );
    }

    return 0;
}
```

06.04 - nextPrime _____ nextPrime.c

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

#define true    1
#define false   0

int main( void )
{
    int startingPoint, candidate, last, i;
    int isPrime;

    startingPoint = 19;

    if ( startingPoint < 2 )
    {
        candidate = 2;
    }
    else if ( startingPoint == 2 )
    {
        candidate = 3;
    }
    else
    {
        candidate = startingPoint;
    }
}
```

Source Code Listings

```
    if (candidate % 2 == 0)/* Test only odd*/
        /* numbers */
        candidate--;
    do
    {
        isPrime = true; /* Assume glorious success */
        candidate += 2; /* Bump to the next number */
        /* to test */
        last = sqrt( candidate ); /* We'll check to*/
        /* see if candidate has */
        /* any factors, from 2 to*/
        /* last Loop through odd */
        /* numbers only */
        for ( i = 3; (i <= last) && isPrime; i += 2 )
        {
            if ( (candidate % i) == 0 )
                isPrime = false;
        }
    } while ( ! isPrime );
}

printf( "The next prime after %d is %d.
Happy?\n",
        startingPoint, candidate );
return 0;
}
```

06.05 - nextPrime2 _____ nextPrime2.c

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

#define true    1
#define false   0

int main( void )
{
```

```
int    candidate, isPrime, i, last;

printf( "Primes from 1 to 100: 2, " );

for ( candidate=3; candidate<=100; candidate+=2 )
{
    isPrime = true;
    last = sqrt( candidate );

    for ( i = 3; (i <= last) && isPrime; i += 2 )
    {
        if ( (candidate % i) == 0 )
            isPrime = false;
    }

    if ( isPrime )
        printf( "%d, ", candidate );
}

return 0;
}
```

06.06 - nextPrime3 _____ nextPrime3.c

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

#define true    1
#define false   0

int main( void )
{
    int primeIndex, candidate, isPrime, i, last;

    printf( "Prime #1 is 2.\n" );

    candidate = 3;
```

Source Code Listings

```
primeIndex = 2;

while ( primeIndex <= 100 )
{
    isPrime = true;
    last = sqrt( candidate );

    for ( i = 3; (i <= last) && isPrime; i += 2 )
    {
        if ( (candidate % i) == 0 )
            isPrime = false;
    }

    if ( isPrime )
    {
        printf( "Prime #%d is %d.\n", primeIndex,
            candidate );
        primeIndex++;
    }

    candidate+=2;
}

return 0;
}
```

07.01 - drawDots _____ **drawDots.c**

```
#include <stdio.h>

/*****
/* Function Prototypes */
*****/
void DrawDots( int numDots );

int main( void )
```

```
{
    DrawDots( 30 );

    return 0;
}

void DrawDots( int numDots )
{
    int i;

    for ( i = 1; i <= numDots; i++ )
        printf( "." );
}
```

07.02 - squareIt _____ squareIt.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

/*****
/* Function Prototypes */
*****/
void SquareIt( int number, int* squarePtr );

int main( void )
{
    int square;

    SquareIt( 5, &square );

    printf( "5 squared is %d.\n", square );

    return 0;
}
```

Source Code Listings

```
void SquareIt( int number, int* squarePtr )
{
    *squarePtr = number * number;
}
```

07.03 - addThese _____ addThese.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

/*****
/* Function Prototypes */
*****/
int AddTheseNumbers( int num1, int num2 );

int main( void )
{
    int sum;

    sum = AddTheseNumbers( 5, 6 );

    printf( "The sum is %d.", sum );

    return 0;
}

int AddTheseNumbers( int num1, int num2 )
{
    return( num1 + num2 );
}
```

07.04 - listPrimes _____ listPrimes.c

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

```
#include <math.h>

#define true    1
#define false   0

/*****
 * Function Prototypes */
/*****/
int IsItPrime( int candidate );

int main( void )
{
    int i;

    for ( i = 1; i <= 50; i++ )
    {
        if ( IsItPrime( i ) )
            printf( "%d is a prime number.\n", i );
    }

    return 0;
}

int IsItPrime( int candidate )
{
    int i, last;

    if ( candidate < 2 )
        return false;
    else
    {
        last = sqrt( candidate );

        for ( i = 2; i <= last; i++ )
        {
            if ( (candidate % i) == 0 )
```


Source Code Listings

```
        return false;
    }
}

return true;
}
```

07.05 - power _____ power.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

#define true    1
#define false   0

/*****
 * Function Prototypes */
/*****
void  DoPower( int *resultPtr, int base, int
             exponent );

/*****/
/* Globals */
/*****/
int  gPrintTraceInfo;

int  main( void )
{
    int  power;

    gPrintTraceInfo = false;

    if ( gPrintTraceInfo )
        printf( "----> Starting main()...\n" );

    DoPower( &power, 2, 5 );
```

```
    printf( "2 to the 5th = %d.\n", power );

    DoPower( &power, 3, 4 );
    printf( "3 to the 4th = %d.\n", power );

    DoPower( &power, 5, 3 );
    printf( "5 to the 3rd = %d.\n", power );

    if ( gPrintTraceInfo )
        printf( "---> Leaving main()...\n" );

    return 0;
}

void DoPower( int *resultPtr, int base, int
              exponent )
{
    int i;

    if ( gPrintTraceInfo )
        printf( "\t---> Starting DoPower()...\n" );

    *resultPtr = 1;
    for ( i = 1; i <= exponent; i++ )
        *resultPtr *= base;

    if ( gPrintTraceInfo )
        printf( "\t---> Leaving DoPower()...\n" );
}
```

07.06 - power2 _____ power2.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

#define true    1
#define false   0
```

Source Code Listings

```

/*****
/* Function Prototypes */
/*****
int DoPower( int base, int exponent );

/*****/
/* Globals */
/*****/
int gPrintTraceInfo;

int main( void )
{
    int power;

    gPrintTraceInfo = false;

    if ( gPrintTraceInfo )
        printf( "---> Starting main()...\n" );

    printf( "2 to the 5th = %d.\n",DoPower( 2, 5 ) );
    printf( "3 to the 4th = %d.\n",DoPower( 3, 4 ) );
    printf( "5 to the 3rd = %d.\n",DoPower( 5, 3 ) );

    if ( gPrintTraceInfo )
        printf( "---> Leaving main()...\n" );

    return 0;
}

int DoPower( int base, int exponent )
{
    int i, result;

```

```
if ( gPrintTraceInfo )
    printf( "\t---> Starting DoPower()...\n" );

result = 1;
for ( i = 1; i <= exponent; i++ )
    result *= base;

if ( gPrintTraceInfo )
    printf( "\t---> Leaving DoPower()...\n" );

return result;
}
```

07.07 - nonPrimes _____ nonPrimes.c

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

#define true    1
#define false   0

/*****
 * Function Prototypes */
/*****/
int IsItPrime( int candidate );

int main( void )
{
    int i;

    for ( i = 1; i <= 50; i++ )
    {
        if ( ! IsItPrime( i ) )
        {
            if ( (i % 3) == 0 )
```

Source Code Listings

```
        printf( "%d is not a prime number and is a
              multiple of 3.\n", i );
    else
        printf( "%d is not a prime number.\n", i );
    }
}

return 0;
}

int IsItPrime( int candidate )
{
    int i, last;

    if ( candidate < 2 )
        return false;
    else
    {
        last = sqrt( candidate );

        for ( i = 2; i <= last; i++ )
        {
            if ( (candidate % i) == 0 )
                return false;
        }
    }

    return true;
}
```

08.01 - floatSizer _____ **floatSizer.c**

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

```
int main( void )
```

```
{
    float myFloat;
    double myDouble;
    long double myLongDouble;

    myFloat = 12345.67890123456789;
    myDouble = 12345.67890123456789;
    myLongDouble = 12345.67890123456789;

    printf( "sizeof( float ) = %d\n", (int)sizeof(
        float ) );
    printf( "sizeof( double ) = %d\n", (int)sizeof(
        double ) );
    printf( "sizeof( long double ) = %d\n\n",
        (int)sizeof( long double ) );

    printf( "myFloat = %f\n", myFloat );
    printf( "myDouble = %f\n", myDouble );
    printf( "myLongDouble = %f\n\n", myLongDouble );

    printf( "myFloat = %25.16f\n", myFloat );
    printf( "myDouble = %25.16f\n", myDouble );
    printf( "myLongDouble = %25.16f\n\n",
        myLongDouble );

    printf( "myFloat = %10.1f\n", myFloat );
    printf( "myFloat = %.2f\n", myFloat );
    printf( "myFloat = %.12f\n", myFloat );
    printf( "myFloat = %.9f\n\n", myFloat );

    printf( "myFloat = %e\n\n", myFloat );

    myFloat = 100000;
    printf( "myFloat = %g\n", myFloat );

    myFloat = 1000000;
    printf( "myFloat = %g\n", myFloat );
```

Source Code Listings

```
    return 0;
}
```

08.02 - intSizer _____ intSizer.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main( void )
{
    printf( "sizeof( char ) = %d\n", (int)sizeof(
        char ) );
    printf( "sizeof( short ) = %d\n", (int)sizeof(
        short ) );
    printf( "sizeof( int ) = %d\n", (int)sizeof( int
        ) );
    printf( "sizeof( long ) = %d\n", (int)sizeof(
        long ) );

    return 0;
}
```

08.03 - typeOverflow _____ typeOverflow.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main( void )
{
    unsigned charcounter;

    for ( counter=1; counter<=1000; counter++ )
        printf( "%d\n", counter );

    return 0;
}
```

08.04 - ascii _____ ascii.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

/*****
/* Function Prototypes */
*****/
void PrintChars( char low, char high );

int main( void )
{
    PrintChars( 32, 47 );
    PrintChars( 48, 57 );
    PrintChars( 58, 64 );
    PrintChars( 65, 90 );
    PrintChars( 91, 96 );
    PrintChars( 97, 122 );
    PrintChars( 123, 126 );

    return 0;
}

void PrintChars( char low, char high )
{
    charc;

    printf( "%d to %d ---> ", low, high );

    for ( c = low; c <= high; c++ )
        printf( "%c", c );

    printf( "\n" );
}
```


Source Code Listings

08.05 - dice _____ dice.c

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

/*****
/* Function Prototypes */
*****/
int RollOne( void );
void PrintRolls( introlls[] );
void PrintX( inthowMany );

int main( void )
{
    int    rolls[ 13 ], twoDice, i;

    srand( clock() );

    for ( i=0; i<=12; i++ )
        rolls[ i ] = 0;

    for ( i=1; i <= 1000; i++ )
    {
        twoDice = RollOne() + RollOne();
        ++ rolls[ twoDice ];
    }

    PrintRolls( rolls );

    return 0;
}
```

```
int RollOne( void )
{
    return (rand() % 6) + 1;
}

void PrintRolls( introlls[] )
{
    int    i;

    for ( i=2; i<=12; i++ )
    {
        printf( "%2d (%3d):  ", i, rolls[ i ] );
        PrintX( rolls[ i ] / 10 );
        printf( "\n" );
    }
}

void PrintX( inthowMany )
{
    int i;

    for ( i=1; i<=howMany; i++ )
        printf( "x" );
}
```

08.06 - name _____ **name.c**

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

int main( void )
{
    char name[ 50 ];
```

Source Code Listings

```
printf( "Type your first name, please: " );

scanf( "%s", name );

printf( "Welcome, %s.\n", name );
printf( "Your name is %d characters long.",
        (int)strlen( name ) );

return 0;
}
```

08.07 - wordCount _____wordCount.c

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

#define true    1
#define false   0
#define kMaxLineLength  200
#define kZeroByte      0

/*****/
/* Function Prototypes */
/*****/
void  ReadLine( char *line );
int  CountWords( char *line );

/*****/> main <*/
int main( void )
{
    char  line[ kMaxLineLength ];
    int   numWords;

    printf( "Type a line of text, please:\n" );
```

```
ReadLine( line );
numWords = CountWords( line );

printf( "\n---- This line has %d word",numWords);

if ( numWords != 1 )
    printf( "s" );

printf( " ----\n%s\n", line );

return 0;
}

/*****> ReadLine <*/
void ReadLine( char *line )
{
    while ( (*line = getchar()) != '\n' )
        line++;

    *line = kZeroByte;
}

/*****> CountWords <*/
int CountWords( char *line )
{
    int    numWords, inWord;

    numWords = 0;
    inWord = false;

    while ( *line != kZeroByte )
    {
        if ( ! isspace( *line ) )
        {
            if ( ! inWord )
            {
                numWords++;
            }
        }
    }
}
```

Source Code Listings

```
        inWord = true;
    }
}
else
    inWord = false;

    line++;
}

return numWords;
}
```

08.08 - dice2 _____ dice2.c

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

#define kMaxRoll  18
#define kMinRoll  3

/*****
 * Function Prototypes */
/*****
int RollOne( void );
void PrintRolls( introlls[] );
void PrintX( inhowMany );

int main( void )
{
    int  rolls[ kMaxRoll + 1 ], threeDice, i;

    srand( clock() );

    for ( i=0; i<=kMaxRoll; i++ )
```

```
        rolls[ i ] = 0;

    for ( i=1; i <= 1000; i++ )
    {
        threeDice = RollOne() + RollOne() + RollOne();
        ++ rolls[ threeDice ];
    }

    PrintRolls( rolls );

    return 0;
}

int RollOne( void )
{
    return (rand() % 6) + 1;
}

void PrintRolls( introlls[] )
{
    int    i;

    for ( i=kMinRoll; i<=kMaxRoll; i++ )
    {
        printf( "%2d (%3d):  ", i, rolls[ i ] );
        PrintX( rolls[ i ] / 10 );
        printf( "\n" );
    }
}

void PrintX( inhowMany )
{
    int i;

    for ( i=1; i<=howMany; i++ )
```

Source Code Listings

```
    printf( "x" );  
}
```

08.09 - wordCount2 _____ wordCount2.c

```
#include <stdio.h>  
#include <ctype.h>  
  
#define true    1  
#define false   0  
#define kMaxLineLength  200  
#define kZeroByte      0  
  
/*****  
/* Function Prototypes */  
*****/  
void  ReadLine( char *line );  
int  CountWords( char *line );  
void  PrintWords( char *line );  
  
/*****> main <*/  
int main( void )  
{  
    char  line[ kMaxLineLength ];  
    int   numWords;  
  
    printf( "Type a line of text, please:\n" );  
  
    ReadLine( line );  
    numWords = CountWords( line );  
  
    printf( "\n---- This line has %d word", numWords );  
  
    if ( numWords != 1 )  
        printf( "s" );  
}
```

```
printf( " ----\n%s\n", line );

printf( "\n---- Here are the words ----" );
PrintWords( line );

return 0;
}

/*****> ReadLine <*/
void ReadLine( char *line )
{
    while ( (*line = getchar()) != '\n' )
        line++;

    *line = kZeroByte;
}

/*****> CountWords <*/
int CountWords( char *line )
{
    int    numWords, inWord;

    numWords = 0;
    inWord = false;

    while ( *line != kZeroByte )
    {
        if ( ! isspace( *line ) )
        {
            if ( ! inWord )
            {
                numWords++;
                inWord = true;
            }
        }
    }
}
```


Source Code Listings

```
        else
            inWord = false;

        line++;
    }

    return numWords;
}

/*****> PrintWords <*/
void PrintWords( char *line )
{
    int    inWord;

    inWord = false;

    while ( *line != kZeroByte )
    {
        if ( ! isspace( *line ) )
        {
            if ( ! inWord )
            {
                putchar( '\n' );
                inWord = true;
            }
            putchar( *line );
        }
        else
            inWord = false;

        line++;
    }
}
```

09.01 - multiArray _____ multiArray.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

#define true    1
#define false   0
#define kMaxCDs      300
#define kMaxArtistLength50

/*****
/* Function Prototypes */
*****/
void PrintArtists( short numArtists,
                  char artist[][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ] );

/*****> main <*/
int main( void )
{
    char  artist[ kMaxCDs ][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
    short numArtists;
    char  doneReading, *result;

    printf( "The artist array takes up %ld bytes of
            memory.\n\n", sizeof( artist ) );

    doneReading = false;
    numArtists = 0;

    while ( ! doneReading )
    {
        printf( "Artist #%d (return to exit): ",
                numArtists+1 );
        result = gets( artist[ numArtists ] );

        if ( (result == NULL) ||
              (result[0] == '\\0') )
            doneReading = true;
        else

```

Source Code Listings

```
        numArtists++;
    }

    printf( "----\n" );

    PrintArtists( numArtists, artist );

    return 0;
}

/*****> PrintArtists <*/
void PrintArtists( short numArtists,
                  char artist[][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ] )
{
    short i;

    if ( numArtists <= 0 )
        printf( "No artists to report.\n" );
    else
    {
        for ( i=0; i<numArtists; i++ )
            printf( "Artist #%d: %s\n",
                    i+1, artist[i] );
    }
}
```

09.02 - structSize _____ structSize.h

```
#define kMaxArtistLength  50
#define kMaxTitleLength   50
```

```
/***/
/* Struct Declarations */
/***/
struct CDInfo
```

```
{
    char  rating;
    char  artist[ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
    char  title[ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
};
```

09.02 - structSize _____ structSize.c

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

/*****> main <*/
int main( void )
{
    struct CDInfo myInfo;

    printf( "rating field:    %ld byte\n",
           sizeof( myInfo.rating ) );

    printf( "artist field:   %ld bytes\n",
           sizeof( myInfo.artist ) );

    printf( "title field:     %ld bytes\n",
           sizeof( myInfo.title ) );

    printf( "          -----\n" );

    printf( "myInfo struct: %ld bytes",
           sizeof( myInfo ) );

    return 0;
}
```

09.03 - structSize2 _____ structSize2.h

```
/*****/
```

Source Code Listings

```
/* Struct Declarations */
/*****

struct LongShortShort
{
    long   myLong;
    short  myShort1;
    short  myShort2;
};

struct ShortLongShort
{
    short  myShort1;
    long   myLong;
    short  myShort2;
};

struct DoubleChar
{
    double myDouble;
    char   myChar;
};

struct CharDoubleChar
{
    char   myChar1;
    double myDouble;
    char   myChar2;
};

struct DoubleCharChar
{
    double myDouble;
    char   myChar1;
    char   myChar2;
};
```

09.03 - structSize2 _____ structSize2.c

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "structSize2.h"

/*****> main <*/
int main( void )
{
    printf( "char:    %ld byte\n", sizeof( char ) );
    printf( "short:   %ld bytes\n", sizeof( short ) );
    printf( "long:    %ld bytes\n", sizeof( long ) );
    printf( "double: %ld bytes\n\n",
           sizeof( double ) );

    printf( "LongShortShort: %ld bytes\n",
           sizeof( struct LongShortShort ) );

    printf( "ShortLongShort: %ld bytes\n",
           sizeof( struct ShortLongShort ) );

    printf( "DoubleChar:    %ld bytes\n",
           sizeof( struct DoubleChar ) );

    printf( "CharDoubleChar: %ld bytes\n",
           sizeof( struct CharDoubleChar ) );

    printf( "DoubleCharChar: %ld bytes\n",
           sizeof( struct DoubleCharChar ) );

    return 0;
}
```

09.04 - paramAddress _____ paramAddress.h

```
/*****/
/* Defines */
```

Source Code Listings

```

/*****/
#define kMaxCDs          300
#define kMaxArtistLength 50
#define kMaxTitleLength 50

/*****/
/* Struct Declarations */
/*****/
struct CDInfo
{
    char  rating;
    char  artist[ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
    char  title[ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
};

/*****/
/* Function Prototypes */
/*****/
void  PrintParamInfo( struct CDInfo *myCDPtr,
                     struct CDInfo myCDCopy );

```

09.04 - paramAddress _____ paramAddress.c

```

#include <stdio.h>
#include "paramAddress.h"

/*****/
/*****/> main <*/
int main( void )
{
    struct CDInfo myCD;

    printf( "Address of myCD.rating in
            main():          %ld\n",
            &(myCD.rating) );
}

```

```
PrintParamInfo( &myCD, myCD );

return 0;
}

/*****> PrintStructAddresses <*/
void PrintParamInfo( struct CDInfo *myCDPtr,
                    struct CDInfo myCDCopy )
{
    printf( "Address of myCDPtr->rating in
            PrintParamInfo(): %ld\n",
            &(myCDPtr->rating) );

    printf( "Address of myCDCopy.rating in
            PrintParamInfo(): %ld\n",
            &(myCDCopy.rating) );
}
```

09.05 - cdTracker cdTracker.h

```
/***/
/* Defines */
/***/
#define kMaxCDs          300
#define kMaxArtistLength 50
#define kMaxTitleLength 50

/***/
/* Struct Declarations */
/***/
struct CDInfo
{
    char rating;
```


Source Code Listings

```
char  artist[ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
char  title[ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
struct CDInfo*next;
} *gFirstPtr, *gLastPtr;

/*****
/* Function Prototypes */
*****/
char  GetCommand( void );
struct CDInfo*ReadStruct( void );
void  AddToList( struct CDInfo *curPtr );
void  ListCDs( void );
void  Flush( void );
```

09.05 - cdTracker _____ cdTracker.c

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

/*****> main <*/
int main( void )
{
    char  command;

    gFirstPtr = NULL;
    gLastPtr = NULL;

    while ( (command = GetCommand() ) != 'q' )
    {
        switch( command )
        {
            case 'n':
                AddToList( ReadStruct() );
                break;
        }
    }
}
```

```
        case 'l':
            ListCDs();
            break;
    }
}

printf( "Goodbye..." );

return 0;
}

/*****> GetCommand <*/
char GetCommand( void )
{
    char command;

    do
    {
        printf( "Enter command (q=quit, n=new,
                l=list):  " );
        scanf( "%c", &command );
        Flush();
    }
    while ( (command != 'q') && (command != 'n')
            && (command != 'l') );

    printf( "\n-----\n" );
    return( command );
}

/*****> ReadStruct <*/
struct CDInfo*ReadStruct( void )
{
    struct CDInfo*infoPtr;
    int          num;
```

Source Code Listings

```
    infoPtr = malloc( sizeof( struct CDInfo ) );

    if ( infoPtr == NULL )
    {
        printf( "Out of memory!!! Goodbye!\n" );
        exit( 0 );
    }

    printf( "Enter Artist's Name:  " );
    gets( infoPtr->artist );

    printf( "Enter CD Title:  " );
    gets( infoPtr->title );

    do
    {
        printf( "Enter CD Rating (1-10):  " );
        scanf( "%d", &num );
        Flush();
    }
    while ( ( num < 1 ) || ( num > 10 ) );

    infoPtr->rating = num;

    printf( "\n-----\n" );

    return( infoPtr );
}

/*****> AddToList <*/
void AddToList( struct CDInfo *curPtr )
{
    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
        gFirstPtr = curPtr;
    else
        gLastPtr->next = curPtr;
```

```
    gLastPtr = curPtr;
    curPtr->next = NULL;
}

/*****> ListCDs <*/
void ListCDs( void )
{
    struct CDInfo*curPtr;

    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
    {
        printf( "No CDs have been entered yet...\n" );
        printf( "\n-----\n" );
    }
    else
    {
        for ( curPtr=gFirstPtr; curPtr!=NULL; curPtr =
            curPtr->next )
        {
            printf( "Artist:  %s\n", curPtr->artist );
            printf( "Title:   %s\n", curPtr->title );
            printf( "Rating:  %d\n", curPtr->rating );

            printf( "\n-----\n" );
        }
    }
}

/*****> Flush <*/
void Flush( void )
{
    while ( getchar() != '\n' )
        ;
}
```

Source Code Listings

09.06 - multiArray2 _____ multiArray2.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

#define true      1
#define false    0
#define kMaxCDs      300
#define kMaxArtistLength  50

/*****
/* Function Prototypes */
*****/
void  ReadLine( char *line );
void  Flush( void );
void  PrintArtists( short numArtists,
                  char artist[][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ] );

/*****> main <*/
int main( void )
{
    char  artist[ kMaxCDs ][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
    short numArtists;
    char  doneReading;

    printf( "The artist array takes up %ld bytes of
            memory.\n\n", sizeof( artist ) );

    doneReading = false;
    numArtists = 0;

    while ( ! doneReading )
    {
        printf( "Artist #%d (return to exit): ",
                numArtists+1 );
        ReadLine( artist[ numArtists ] );
    }
}
```

```
        if ( artist[numArtists][0] == '\\0' )
            doneReading = true;
        else
            numArtists++;
    }

    printf( "----\n" );

    PrintArtists( numArtists, artist );

    return 0;
}

/*****> ReadLine <*/
void ReadLine( char *line )
{
    char c;
    short numCharsRead;

    numCharsRead = 0;

    while ( ((c = getchar()) != '\\n') &&
            ( ++numCharsRead <= kMaxArtistLength) )
    {
        *line = c;
        line++;
    }

    *line = 0;

    if ( numCharsRead > kMaxArtistLength )
        Flush();
}

/*****> Flush <*/
```

Source Code Listings

```
void Flush( void )
{
    while ( getchar() != '\n' )
        ;
}

/*****> PrintArtists <*/
void PrintArtists( short numArtists,
                  char artist[][ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ] )
{
    shorti;

    if ( numArtists <= 0 )
    {
        printf( "No artists to report.\n" );
        return;
    }
    else
    {
        for ( i=0; i<numArtists; i++ )
            printf( "Artist #%d: %s\n",
                    i+1, artist[i] );
    }
}
```

09.07 - cdTracker2 _____ cdTracker2.h

```
/***/
/* Defines */
/***/
#define kMaxCDs          300
#define kMaxArtistLength 50
#define kMaxTitleLength 50

/*****/
```

```
/* Struct Declarations */
/*****/
struct CDInfo
{
    char    rating;
    char    artist[ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
    char    title[ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
    struct CDInfo*next;
} *gFirstPtr, *gLastPtr;

/*****/
/* Function Prototypes */
/*****/
char    GetCommand( void );
struct CDInfo*ReadStruct( void );
void    AddToList( struct CDInfo *curPtr );
void    InsertInList( struct CDInfo *afterMeCDPtr,
struct CDInfo *newCDPtr );
void    ListCDs( void );
void    Flush( void );
```

09.07 - cdTracker2 _____ cdTracker2.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include "cdTracker2.h"

/*****> main <*/
int main( void )
{
    char    command;

    gFirstPtr = NULL;
    gLastPtr = NULL;
```


Source Code Listings

```
while ( (command = GetCommand() ) != 'q' )
{
    switch( command )
    {
        case 'n':
            AddToList( ReadStruct() );
            break;
        case 'l':
            ListCDs();
            break;
    }
}

printf( "Goodbye..." );

return 0;
}

/*****> GetCommand <*/
char GetCommand( void )
{
    char command;

    do
    {
        printf( "Enter command (q=quit, n=new,
            l=list):  " );
        scanf( "%c", &command );
        Flush();
    }
    while ( (command != 'q') && (command != 'n')
        && (command != 'l') );

    printf( "\n-----\n" );
    return( command );
}
```

```

/*****> ReadStruct <*/
struct CDInfo*ReadStruct( void )
{
    struct CDInfo*infoPtr;
    int          num;

    infoPtr = malloc( sizeof( struct CDInfo ) );

    if ( infoPtr == NULL )
    {
        printf( "Out of memory!!!  Goodbye!\n" );
        exit( 0 );
    }

    printf( "Enter Artist's Name:  " );
    gets( infoPtr->artist );

    printf( "Enter CD Title:  " );
    gets( infoPtr->title );

    do
    {
        printf( "Enter CD Rating (1-10):  " );
        scanf( "%d", &num );
        Flush();
    }
    while ( ( num < 1 ) || ( num > 10 ) );

    infoPtr->rating = num;

    printf( "\n-----\n" );

    return( infoPtr );
}

/*****> AddToList <*/
```

Source Code Listings

```
void  AddToList( struct CDInfo *curPtr )
{
    struct CDInfo*beforePtr;

    /*First check to see if the list is empty */
    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
        InsertInList( NULL, curPtr );
    else if ( curPtr->rating <= gFirstPtr->rating )
/*Next check to see if curPtr should be the new */
/*first item */
        InsertInList( NULL, curPtr );
    else
/*Walk through the list till you find the first */
/*rating higher than us */
    {
        beforePtr = gFirstPtr;

        while ( (beforePtr->next != NULL) &&
                (beforePtr->next->rating < curPtr->rating) )
        {
            beforePtr = beforePtr->next;
        }
        InsertInList( beforePtr, curPtr );
    }
}

/*****> InsertInList <*/
void  InsertInList( struct CDInfo *afterMeCDPtr,
                   struct CDInfo *newCDPtr )
{
    if ( afterMeCDPtr == NULL )
/* This means we want to insert the new one as */
/* the first in the list */
    {
        newCDPtr->next = gFirstPtr;
        gFirstPtr = newCDPtr;
        if ( gLastPtr == NULL )
```

```
        gLastPtr = newCDPtr;
    }
    else if ( afterMeCDPtr == gLastPtr )
/* This means we want to insert the new one as */
/* the last in the list */
    {
        gLastPtr->next = newCDPtr;
        newCDPtr->next = NULL;
        gLastPtr = newCDPtr;
    }
    else
    {
        newCDPtr->next = afterMeCDPtr->next;
        afterMeCDPtr->next = newCDPtr;
    }
}

/*****> ListCDs <*/
void ListCDs( void )
{
    struct CDInfo*curPtr;

    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
    {
        printf( "No CDs have been entered yet...\n" );
        printf( "\n-----\n" );
    }
    else
    {
        for ( curPtr=gFirstPtr; curPtr!=NULL; curPtr =
            curPtr->next )
        {
            printf( "Artist:  %s\n", curPtr->artist );
            printf( "Title:   %s\n", curPtr->title );
            printf( "Rating:  %d\n", curPtr->rating );
        }
    }
}
```

Source Code Listings

```
        printf( "\n-----\n" );
    }
}

/*****> Flush <*/
void Flush( void )
{
    while ( getchar() != '\n' )
        ;
}
```

09.08 - cdTracker3 _____ cdTracker3.h

```
/***/
/* Defines */
/***/
#define kMaxCDs          300
#define kMaxArtistLength 50
#define kMaxTitleLength  50

/*****/
/* Struct Declarations */
/*****/
struct CDInfo
{
    char rating;
    char artist[ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
    char title[ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
    struct CDInfo*next, *prev;
} *gFirstPtr, *gLastPtr;

/*****/
/* Function Prototypes */
```

```
/*  
char  GetCommand( void );  
struct CDInfo*ReadStruct( void );  
void  AddToList( struct CDInfo *curPtr );  
void  ListCDs( void );  
void  ListCDsInReverse( void );  
void  Flush( void );
```

09.08 - cdTracker3 _____ cdTracker3.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>  
#include <stdio.h>  
#include "cdTracker3.h"  
  
/*  
int main( void )  
{  
    char  command;  
  
    gFirstPtr = NULL;  
    gLastPtr = NULL;  
  
    while ( (command = GetCommand() ) != 'q' )  
    {  
        switch( command )  
        {  
            case 'n':  
                AddToList( ReadStruct() );  
                break;  
            case 'l':  
                ListCDs();  
                break;  
            case 'r':  
                ListCDsInReverse();  
                break;  
        }  
    }  
}
```

Source Code Listings

```
    }

    printf( "Goodbye..." );

    return 0;
}

/*****> GetCommand <*/
char GetCommand( void )
{
    char command;

    do
    {
        printf( "Enter command (q=quit, n=new, l=list,
                r=list reverse):  " );
        scanf( "%c", &command );
        Flush();
    }
    while ( (command != 'q') && (command != 'n')
            && (command != 'l') && (command != 'r') );

    printf( "\n-----\n" );
    return( command );
}

/*****> ReadStruct <*/
struct CDInfo*ReadStruct( void )
{
    struct CDInfo*infoPtr;
    int          num;

    infoPtr = malloc( sizeof( struct CDInfo ) );

    if ( infoPtr == NULL )
    {
```

```
        printf( "Out of memory!!! Goodbye!\n" );
        exit( 0 );
    }

    printf( "Enter Artist's Name:  " );
    gets( infoPtr->artist );

    printf( "Enter CD Title:  " );
    gets( infoPtr->title );

    do
    {
        printf( "Enter CD Rating (1-10):  " );
        scanf( "%d", &num );
        Flush();
    }
    while ( ( num < 1 ) || ( num > 10 ) );

    infoPtr->rating = num;

    printf( "\n-----\n" );

    return( infoPtr );
}

/*****> AddToList <*/
voidAddToList( struct CDInfo *curPtr )
{
    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
        gFirstPtr = curPtr;
    else
        gLastPtr->next = curPtr;

    curPtr->prev = gLastPtr;

    gLastPtr = curPtr;
    curPtr->next = NULL;
}
```


Source Code Listings

```
    }

    /*****> ListCDs <*/
void ListCDs( void )
{
    struct CDInfo*curPtr;

    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
    {
        printf( "No CDs have been entered yet...\n" );
        printf( "\n-----\n" );
    }
    else
    {
        for ( curPtr=gFirstPtr; curPtr!=NULL;
              curPtr = curPtr->next )
        {
            printf( "Artist:  %s\n", curPtr->artist );
            printf( "Title:   %s\n", curPtr->title );
            printf( "Rating:  %d\n", curPtr->rating );

            printf( "\n-----\n" );
        }
    }
}

    /*****> ListCDsInReverse <*/
void ListCDsInReverse( void )
{
    struct CDInfo*curPtr;

    if ( gLastPtr == NULL )
    {
        printf( "No CDs have been entered yet...\n" );
        printf( "\n-----\n" );
    }
}
```

```
else
{
    for ( curPtr=gLastPtr; curPtr!=NULL;
        curPtr = curPtr->prev )
    {
        printf( "Artist:  %s\n", curPtr->artist );
        printf( "Title:   %s\n", curPtr->title );
        printf( "Rating:  %d\n", curPtr->rating );

        printf( "\n-----\n" );
    }
}

/*****> Flush <*/
void Flush( void )
{
    while ( getchar() != '\n' )
        ;
}
```

10.01 - printFile _____ printFile.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main( void )
{
    FILE*fp;
    int c;

    fp = fopen( "My Data File", "r" );

    if ( fp != NULL )
    {
        while ( (c = fgetc( fp )) != EOF )
```

Source Code Listings

```
        putchar( c );

        fclose( fp );
    }

    return 0;
}
```

10.02 - cdFiler _____ cdFiler.h

```
/* **** */
/* Defines */
/* **** */
#define true    1
#define false   0

#define kMaxArtistLength  50
#define kMaxTitleLength   50

#define kCDFileName      "cdData"

/* **** */
/* Struct Declarations */
/* **** */
struct CDInfo
{
    char    rating;
    char    artist[ kMaxArtistLength + 1 ];
    char    title[ kMaxTitleLength + 1 ];
    struct CDInfo*next;
};

/* **** */
/* Global Declarations */
/* **** */
```

```
extern struct CDInfo *gFirstPtr, *gLastPtr;

/*****/
/* Function Prototypes - main.c */
/*****/
char  GetCommand( void );
struct CDInfo*ReadStruct( void );
void  AddToList( struct CDInfo *curPtr );
void  ListCDs( void );
void  ListCDsInReverse( void );
void  Flush( void );

/*****/
/* Function Prototypes - files.c */
/*****/
void  WriteFile( void );
void  ReadFile( void );
char  ReadStructFromFile( FILE *fp, struct CDInfo
    *infoPtr );
```

10.02 - cdFiler _____ files.c

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

/*****> WriteFile <*/
void WriteFile( void )
{
    FILE *fp;
    struct CDInfo*infoPtr;
    int      num;

    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
```

Source Code Listings

```
        return;

    if ( ( fp = fopen( kCDFFileName, "w" ) ) == NULL )
    {
        printf( "***ERROR: Could not write CD file!" );
        return;
    }

    for ( infoPtr=gFirstPtr; infoPtr!=NULL;
          infoPtr=infoPtr->next )
    {
        fprintf( fp, "%s\n", infoPtr->artist );
        fprintf( fp, "%s\n", infoPtr->title );

        num = infoPtr->rating;
        fprintf( fp, "%d\n", num );
    }

    fclose( fp );
}

/*****> ReadFile <*/
void ReadFile( void )
{
    FILE *fp;
    struct CDInfo*infoPtr;
    int i;

    if ( ( fp = fopen( kCDFFileName, "r" ) ) == NULL )
    {
        printf( "***ERROR: Could not read CD file!" );
        return;
    }

    do
    {
        infoPtr = malloc( sizeof( struct CDInfo ) );
```

```
        if ( infoPtr == NULL )
        {
            printf( "Out of memory!!!  Goodbye!\n" );
            exit( 0 );
        }
    }
while ( ReadStructFromFile( fp, infoPtr ) );

fclose( fp );
free( infoPtr );
}

/*****> ReadStructFromFile <*/
char ReadStructFromFile( FILE *fp, struct CDInfo
    *infoPtr )
{
    int    num;

    if ( fscanf( fp, "%[^\n]\n", infoPtr->artist )
        != EOF )
    {
        if ( fscanf( fp, "%[^\n]\n", infoPtr->title )
            == EOF )
        {
            printf( "Missing CD title!\n" );
            return false;
        }
        else if ( fscanf( fp, "%d\n", &num ) == EOF )
        {
            printf( "Missing CD rating!\n" );
            return false;
        }
        else
        {
            infoPtr->rating = num;
            AddToList( infoPtr );
        }
    }
}
```

Source Code Listings

```
        return true;
    }
}
else
    return false;
}
```

10.02 - cdFiler _____ main.c

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

/*****
/* Global Definitions */
*****/
struct CDInfo*gFirstPtr, *gLastPtr;

/*****> main <*/
int main( void )
{
    char  command;

    gFirstPtr = NULL;
    gLastPtr = NULL;

    ReadFile();

    while ( (command = GetCommand() ) != 'q' )
    {
        switch( command )
        {
            case 'n':
                AddToList( ReadStruct() );
                break;
        }
    }
}
```

```
        case 'l':
            ListCDs();
            break;
    }
}

WriteFile();

printf( "Goodbye..." );

return 0;
}

/*****> GetCommand <*/
char GetCommand( void )
{
    char command;

    do
    {
        printf( "Enter command (q=quit, n=new,
                l=list):  " );
        scanf( "%c", &command );
        Flush();
    }
    while ( (command != 'q') && (command != 'n')
            && (command != 'l') );

    printf( "\n-----\n" );
    return( command );
}

/*****> ReadStruct <*/
struct CDInfo*ReadStruct( void )
{
    struct CDInfo*infoPtr;
```


Source Code Listings

```
int      num;

infoPtr = malloc( sizeof( struct CDInfo ) );

if ( infoPtr == NULL )
{
    printf( "Out of memory!!! Goodbye!\n" );
    exit( 0 );
}

printf( "Enter Artist's Name:  " );
gets( infoPtr->artist );

printf( "Enter CD Title:  " );
gets( infoPtr->title );

do
{
    printf( "Enter CD Rating (1-10):  " );
    scanf( "%d", &num );
    Flush();
}
while ( ( num < 1 ) || ( num > 10 ) );

infoPtr->rating = num;

printf( "\n-----\n" );

return( infoPtr );
}

/*****> AddToList <*/
void AddToList( struct CDInfo *curPtr )
{
    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
        gFirstPtr = curPtr;
    else
```

```

        gLastPtr->next = curPtr;

    gLastPtr = curPtr;
    curPtr->next = NULL;
}

/*****> ListCDs <*/
void ListCDs( void )
{
    struct CDInfo*curPtr;

    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
    {
        printf( "No CDs have been entered yet...\n" );
        printf( "\n-----\n" );
    }
    else
    {
        for ( curPtr=gFirstPtr; curPtr!=NULL; curPtr =
            curPtr->next )
        {
            printf( "Artist:  %s\n", curPtr->artist );
            printf( "Title:   %s\n", curPtr->title );
            printf( "Rating:  %d\n", curPtr->rating );

            printf( "\n-----\n" );
        }
    }
}

/*****> Flush <*/
void Flush( void )
{
    while ( getchar() != '\n' )
        ;
}

```

Source Code Listings

10.03 - dinoEdit _____ dinoEdit.h

```
/*  
*****  
/* Defines */  
*****  
#define true      1  
#define false    0  
  
#define kDinoRecordSize    20  
#define kMaxLineLength    100  
#define kDinoFileName     "My Dinos"  
  
/*  
*****  
/* Function Prototypes - main.c */  
*****  
int GetNumber( void );  
int GetNumberOfDinos( void );  
void ReadDinoName( int number, char *dinoName );  
char GetNewDinoName( char *dinoName );  
void WriteDinoName( int number, char *dinoName );  
void Flush( void );  
void DoError( char *message );
```

10.03 - dinoEdit _____ main.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>  
#include <stdio.h>  
#include <string.h>  
#include "dinoEdit.h"  
  
/*  
*****> main <*/  
int main( void )  
{
```

```
int    number;
FILE*fp;
char  dinoName[ kDinoRecordSize+1 ];

while ( (number = GetNumber() ) != 0 )
{
    ReadDinoName( number, dinoName );

    printf( "Dino #%d: %s\n", number, dinoName );

    if ( GetNewDinoName( dinoName ) )
        WriteDinoName( number, dinoName );
}

printf( "Goodbye..." );

return 0;
}

/*****> GetNumber <*/
int GetNumber( void )
{
    int number, numDinos;

    numDinos = GetNumberOfDinos();

    do
    {
        printf( "Enter number from 1 to %d (0 to
            exit): ", numDinos );
        scanf( "%d", &number );
        Flush();
    }
    while ( (number < 0) || (number > numDinos) );

    return( number );
}
```

Source Code Listings

```
/******> GetNumberOfDinos <*/
int GetNumberOfDinos( void )
{
    FILE*fp;
    longfileLength;

    if ( (fp = fopen( kDinoFileName, "r" )) == NULL )
        DoError( "Couldn't open file...Goodbye!" );

    if ( fseek( fp, 0L, SEEK_END ) != 0 )
        DoError( "Couldn't seek to end of
                file...Goodbye!" );

    if ( (fileLength = ftell( fp )) == -1L )
        DoError( "ftell() failed...Goodbye!" );

    fclose( fp );

    return( (int)(fileLength / kDinoRecordSize) );
}
```

```
/******> ReadDinoName <*/
void ReadDinoName( int number, char *dinoName )
{
    FILE*fp;
    long bytesToSkip;

    if ( (fp = fopen( kDinoFileName, "r" )) == NULL )
        DoError( "Couldn't open file...Goodbye!" );

    bytesToSkip = (long)((number-1) *
                        kDinoRecordSize);

    if ( fseek( fp, bytesToSkip, SEEK_SET ) != 0 )
        DoError( "Couldn't seek in file...Goodbye!" );
}
```

```
    if ( fread( dinoName, (size_t)kDinoRecordSize,
               (size_t)1, fp ) != 1 )
        DoError( "Bad fread()...Goodbye!" );

    fclose( fp );
}

/*****> GetNewDinoName <*/
char GetNewDinoName( char *dinoName )
{
    char line[ kMaxLineLength ];
    int i, nameLen;

    printf( "Enter new name: " );

    gets( line );

    if ( line[0] == '\0' )
        return false;

    for ( i=0; i<kDinoRecordSize; i++ )
        dinoName[i] = ' ';

    nameLen = strlen( line );

    if ( nameLen > kDinoRecordSize )
        nameLen = kDinoRecordSize;

    for ( i=0; i<nameLen; i++ )
        dinoName[i] = line[i];

    return true;
}

/*****> WriteDinoName <*/
```

Source Code Listings

```
void WriteDinoName( int number, char *dinoName )
{
    FILE*fp;
    long bytesToSkip;

    if ( (fp = fopen( kDinoFileName, "r+")) == NULL )
        DoError( "Couldn't open file...Goodbye!" );

    bytesToSkip = (long)((number-1) *
        kDinoRecordSize);

    if ( fseek( fp, bytesToSkip, SEEK_SET ) != 0 )
        DoError( "Couldn't seek in file...Goodbye!" );

    if ( fwrite( dinoName, (size_t)kDinoRecordSize,
        (size_t)1, fp ) != 1 )
        DoError( "Bad fwrite()...Goodbye!" );

    fclose( fp );
}

/*****> Flush <*/
void Flush( void )
{
    while ( getchar() != '\n' )
        ;
}

/*****> DoError <*/
void DoError( char *message )
{
    printf( "%s\n", message );
    exit( 0 );
}
```

10.04 - fileReader fileReader.c

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

#define true    1
#define false   0

/*****
 * Function Prototypes */
/*****
void DoError( char *message );
int ReadLineOfNums( FILE *fp, int numsPerLine, int
    *intArray );
void PrintLineOfNums( int numsPerLine, int
    *intArray );

/*****> main <*/
int main( void )
{
    FILE    *fp;
    int     *intArray, numsPerLine;
    size_t  arraySize;

    fp = fopen( "My Data File", "r" );

    if ( fp == NULL )
        DoError( "Couldn't open file!" );

    if ( fscanf( fp, "%d", &numsPerLine ) != 1 )
        DoError( "Bad fscanf() call!" );

    if ( numsPerLine <= 0 )
        DoError( "Too few items per line!" );

    arraySize = numsPerLine * sizeof( int );
```


Source Code Listings

```
    if ( (intArray = malloc( arraySize )) == NULL )
        DoError( "Couldn't malloc() int array!" );

    while ( ReadLineOfNums( fp, numsPerLine,
        intArray ) )
        PrintLineOfNums( numsPerLine, intArray );

    free( intArray );

    return 0;
}

/*****> ReadLineOfNums <*/
int ReadLineOfNums( FILE *fp, int numsPerLine, int
    *intArray )
{
    int i;

    for ( i=0; i<numsPerLine; i++ )
    {
        if ( fscanf( fp, "%d", &(intArray[ i ]) ) != 1
    )
        return false;
    }

    return true;
}

/*****> PrintLineOfNums <*/
void PrintLineOfNums( int numsPerLine, int
    *intArray )
{
    int i;

    for ( i=0; i<numsPerLine; i++ )
```

```
        printf( "%d\t", intArray[ i ] );

    printf( "\n" );
}

/*****> DoError <*/
void DoError( char *message )
{
    printf( "%s\n", message );
    exit( 0 );
}
```

10.05 - cdFiler2 _____ cdFiler2.h

```
/***/
/* Defines */
/***/
#define true    1
#define false   0

#define kMaxLineLength  200
#define kCDFileName     "cdData"

/*****/
/* Struct Declarations */
/*****/
struct CDInfo
{
    char  rating;
    char  *artist;
    char  *title;
    struct CDInfo*next;
};
```

Source Code Listings

```

/*****
/* Global Declarations */
*****/
extern struct CDInfo *gFirstPtr, *gLastPtr;

/*****
/* Function Prototypes - main.c */
*****/
char  GetCommand( void );
struct CDInfo *ReadStruct( void );
void  AddToList( struct CDInfo *curPtr );
void  ListCDs( void );
void  ListCDsInReverse( void );
void  Flush( void );
char  *MallocAndCopy( char *line );
void  ZeroLine( char *line );

/*****
/* Function Prototypes - files.c */
*****/
void  WriteFile( void );
void  ReadFile( void );
char  ReadStructFromFile( FILE *fp, struct CDInfo
    *infoPtr );

```

10.05 - cdFiler2 _____ files.c

```

#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include "cdFiler2.h"

/*****> WriteFile <*/
void WriteFile( void )
{

```

```
FILE *fp;
struct CDInfo*infoPtr;
int      num;

if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
    return;

if ( ( fp = fopen( kCDFFileName, "w" ) ) == NULL )
{
    printf( "***ERROR: Could not write CD file!" );
    return;
}

for ( infoPtr=gFirstPtr; infoPtr!=NULL;
      infoPtr=infoPtr->next )
{
    fprintf( fp, "%s\n", infoPtr->artist );
    fprintf( fp, "%s\n", infoPtr->title );

    num = infoPtr->rating;
    fprintf( fp, "%d\n", num );
}

fclose( fp );
}

/*****> ReadFile <*/
void ReadFile( void )
{
    FILE *fp;
    struct CDInfo*infoPtr;

    if ( ( fp = fopen( kCDFFileName, "r" ) ) == NULL )
    {
        printf( "***ERROR: Could not read CD file!" );
        return;
    }
}
```

Source Code Listings

```
do
{
    infoPtr = malloc( sizeof( struct CDInfo ) );

    if ( infoPtr == NULL )
    {
        printf( "Out of memory!!! Goodbye!\n" );
        exit( 0 );
    }
}
while ( ReadStructFromFile( fp, infoPtr ) );

fclose( fp );
free( infoPtr );
}

/*****> ReadStructFromFile <*/
char ReadStructFromFile( FILE *fp, struct CDInfo
    *infoPtr )
{
    int    num;
    char  line[ kMaxLineLength ];

    ZeroLine( line );
    if ( fscanf( fp, "%[^\\n]\\n", line ) != EOF )
    {
        infoPtr->artist = MallocAndCopy( line );
        ZeroLine( line );

        if ( fscanf( fp, "%[^\\n]\\n", line ) == EOF )
        {
            printf( "Missing CD title!\n" );
            return false;
        }
        else
        {
```

```
        infoPtr->title = MallocAndCopy( line );

        if ( fscanf( fp, "%d\n", &num ) == EOF )
        {
            printf( "Missing CD rating!\n" );
            return false;
        }
        else
        {
            infoPtr->rating = num;
            AddToList( infoPtr );
            return true;
        }
    }
}
else
    return false;
}
```

10.05 - cdFiler2 _____ main.c

```
#include <string.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include "cdFiler2.h"

/*****/
/* Global Definitions */
/*****/
struct CDInfo*gFirstPtr, *gLastPtr;

/*****/> main <*/
int main( void )
{
    char  command;
```

Source Code Listings

```
gFirstPtr = NULL;
gLastPtr = NULL;

ReadFile();

while ( (command = GetCommand() ) != 'q' )
{
    switch( command )
    {
        case 'n':
            AddToList( ReadStruct() );
            break;
        case 'l':
            ListCDs();
            break;
    }
}

WriteFile();

printf( "Goodbye..." );

return 0;
}

/*****> GetCommand <*/
char GetCommand( void )
{
    char command;

    do
    {
        printf( "Enter command (q=quit, n=new,
            l=list):  " );
        scanf( "%c", &command );
        Flush();
    }
```

```
    }
    while ( (command != 'q') && (command != 'n')
           && (command != 'l') );

    printf( "\n-----\n" );
    return( command );
}

/*****> ReadStruct <*/
struct CDInfo*ReadStruct( void )
{
    struct CDInfo*infoPtr;
    int          num;
    char  line[ kMaxLineLength ];

    infoPtr = malloc( sizeof( struct CDInfo ) );

    if ( infoPtr == NULL )
    {
        printf( "Out of memory!!!  Goodbye!\n" );
        exit( 0 );
    }

    printf( "Enter Artist's Name:  " );
    gets( line );
    infoPtr->artist = MallocAndCopy( line );

    printf( "Enter CD Title:  " );
    gets( line );
    infoPtr->title = MallocAndCopy( line );

    do
    {
        printf( "Enter CD Rating (1-10):  " );
        scanf( "%d", &num );
        Flush();
    }
}
```


Source Code Listings

```
while ( ( num < 1 ) || ( num > 10 ) );

infoPtr->rating = num;

printf( "\n-----\n" );

return( infoPtr );
}

/*****> AddToList <*/
void AddToList( struct CDInfo *curPtr )
{
    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
        gFirstPtr = curPtr;
    else
        gLastPtr->next = curPtr;

    gLastPtr = curPtr;
    curPtr->next = NULL;
}

/*****> ListCDs <*/
void ListCDs( void )
{
    struct CDInfo*curPtr;

    if ( gFirstPtr == NULL )
    {
        printf( "No CDs have been entered yet...\n" );
        printf( "\n-----\n" );
    }
    else
    {
        for ( curPtr=gFirstPtr; curPtr!=NULL; curPtr =
            curPtr->next )
        {
```

```
        printf( "Artist:  %s\n", curPtr->artist );
        printf( "Title:   %s\n", curPtr->title );
        printf( "Rating:  %d\n", curPtr->rating );

        printf( "\n-----\n" );
    }
}

/*****> Flush <*/
void Flush( void )
{
    while ( getchar() != '\n' )
        ;
}

/*****> MallocAndCopy <*/
char *MallocAndCopy( char *line )
{
    /*
    This function takes a string as a parameter and
    malloc()s a new block of memory the size of the
    string, with an extra byte for the 0-terminator.

    strcpy() is called to copy the string into the
    new block of memory and the pointer to the new
    block is returned...
    */
    char *pointer;
    if ( (pointer = malloc( strlen(line)+1 )) ==
        NULL )
    {
        printf( "Out of memory!!!  Goodbye!\n" );
        exit( 0 );
    }
    strcpy( pointer, line );
}
```

Source Code Listings

```
    return pointer;
}

/*****> ZeroLine <*/
void ZeroLine( char *line )
{
    int    i;

    for ( i=0; i<kMaxLineLength; i++ )
        line[ i ] = 0;
}
```

11.01 - iterate _____ iterate.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main( void )
{
    int    i, num;
    long   fac;

    num = 5;
    fac = 1;

    for ( i=1; i<=num; i++ )
        fac *= i;

    printf( "%d factorial is %ld.", num, fac );

    return 0;
}
```

11.02 - recurse _____ recurse.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

long factorial( long num );

int main( void )
{
    long    num = 5L, fac;

    printf( "%ld factorial is %ld.", num,
           factorial( num ) );

    return 0;
}

long factorial( long num )
{
    if ( num > 1 )
        num *= factorial( num - 1 );

    return( num );
}
```

11.03 - funcPtr _____ funcPtr.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int SquareIt( int num );

int main( void )
{
    int    (*myFuncPtr)( int );
    int    num = 5;

    myFuncPtr = SquareIt;
```

Source Code Listings

```
    printf( "%d squared is %d.", num,
           (*myFuncPtr)( num ) );

    return 0;
}
```

```
int SquareIt( int num )
{
    return( num * num );
}
```

11.04 - static _____ static.c

```
#include <stdio.h>

int StaticFunc( void );

int main( void )
{
    int    i;

    for ( i=1; i<=5; i++ )
        printf( "%d\n", StaticFunc() );

    return 0;
}

int StaticFunc( void )
{
    static int myStatic = 0;

    return myStatic++;
}
```

11.05 - treePrinter _____ treePrinter.h

```

/***** */
/* Defines */
/***** */
#define true    1
#define false   0

#define kNumbersFileName  "treePrinter numbers"

/***** */
/* Struct Declarations */
/***** */
struct Node
{
    int      number;
    struct Node*left, *right;
};

/***** */
/* Global Declarations */
/***** */
extern struct Node*gRootNodePtr;

/***** */
/* Function Prototypes - main.c */
/***** */
void  BuildTree( void );
int   GetNumberFromFile( int *numPtr, FILE *fp );
void  DoError( char *message );

/***** */
```

Source Code Listings

```
/* Function Prototypes - tree.c */
/*****
void  AddNumberToTree( int num );
void  AddNodeToTree( struct Node *newNodePtr,
                    struct Node **curNodePtrPtr );
void  DescendTreePreorder( struct Node *nodePtr );
void  DescendTreeInorder( struct Node *nodePtr );
void  DescendTreePostorder( struct Node *nodePtr );
void  VisitNode( struct Node *nodePtr );
*****/
```

11.05 - treePrinter _____ main.c

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

/*****
/* Global Definitions */
*****/
struct Node*gRootNodePtr;

/*****> main <*/
int main( void )
{
    gRootNodePtr = NULL;

    BuildTree();

    printf( "Preorder:  " );
    DescendTreePreorder( gRootNodePtr );

    printf( "\nInorder:  " );
    DescendTreeInorder( gRootNodePtr );

    printf( "\nPostorder: " );
}
```

```
    DescendTreePostorder( gRootNodePtr );

    printf( "\n\nGoodbye..." );

    return 0;
}

/*****> BuildTree <*/
void BuildTree( void )
{
    int    num;
    FILE  *fp;

    if ( ( fp = fopen( kNumbersFileName, "r" ) ) ==
        NULL )
        DoError( "Could not read numbers file!\n" );

    printf( "Numbers:  " );

    while ( GetNumberFromFile( &num, fp ) )
    {
        printf( "%d, ", num );
        AddNumberToTree( num );
    }

    printf( "\n-----\n" );

    fclose( fp );
}

/*****> GetNumberFromFile <*/
int GetNumberFromFile( int *numPtr, FILE *fp )
{
    if ( fscanf( fp, "%d\n", numPtr ) == EOF )
        return false;
    else

```


Source Code Listings

```
        return true;
    }

/*****> DoError <*/
void DoError( char *message )
{
    printf( "%s\n", message );
    exit( 0 );
}
```

11.05 - treePrinter _____ tree.c

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

/*****> AddNumberToTree <*/
void AddNumberToTree( int num )
{
    struct Node*nodePtr;

    nodePtr = malloc( sizeof( struct Node ) );

    if ( nodePtr == NULL )
        DoError( "Could not allocate memory!\n" );

    nodePtr->number = num;
    nodePtr->left = NULL;
    nodePtr->right = NULL;

    AddNodeToTree( nodePtr, &gRootNodePtr );
}

/*****> AddNodeToTree <*/
```

```
void AddNodeToTree( struct Node *newNodePtr,  
                  struct Node **curNodePtrPtr )
```

```
/*
```

This recursive function inserts a new tree node (pointed to by `newNodePtr`) into the subtree pointed to by the pointer pointed to by `curNodePtr`. We use two levels of pointer here so we can change the value of the pointer passed in. See the call to `AddNodeToTree` a few lines up.

Here's the algorithm: `AddNodeToTree` first checks to see if `*curNodePtrPtr` is `NULL`. If so, this is where the new node belongs: `*curNodePtrPtr` is set to point to the new node and we are done.

If not, we'll check the node `*curNodePtrPtr` does point to and repeat the search in either the left or right child, depending on whether the new number being added to the tree is less than or greater than/equal to the current node.

To help with the notation, think of:

```
*curNodePtrPtr
```

as equivalent to

```
gRootNodePtr
```

```
*/
```

```
{
```

```
if ( *curNodePtrPtr == NULL )
```

```
    *curNodePtrPtr = newNodePtr;
```

```
else if ( newNodePtr->number < (*curNodePtrPtr)-  
        >number )
```

```
    AddNodeToTree( newNodePtr, &( (*curNodePtrPtr)-  
        >left ) );
```

```
else
```

```
    AddNodeToTree( newNodePtr, &( (*curNodePtrPtr)-  
        >right ) );
```

Source Code Listings

```
    }

    /*****> DescendTreePreorder <*/
void DescendTreePreorder( struct Node *nodePtr )
{
    if ( nodePtr == NULL )
        return;

    VisitNode( nodePtr );
    DescendTreePreorder( nodePtr->left );
    DescendTreePreorder( nodePtr->right );
}

    /*****> DescendTreeInorder <*/
void DescendTreeInorder( struct Node *nodePtr )
{
    if ( nodePtr == NULL )
        return;

    DescendTreePreorder( nodePtr->left );
    VisitNode( nodePtr );
    DescendTreePreorder( nodePtr->right );
}

    /*****> DescendTreePostorder <*/
void DescendTreePostorder( struct Node *nodePtr )
{
    if ( nodePtr == NULL )
        return;

    DescendTreePreorder( nodePtr->left );
    DescendTreePreorder( nodePtr->right );
    VisitNode( nodePtr );
}
```

```
/*> VisitNode <*/  
void VisitNode( struct Node *nodePtr )  
{  
    printf( "%d, ", nodePtr->number );  
}
```

12.01 - HelloWorld _____ HelloWorld.c

```
#include <windows.h>  
  
LRESULT CALLBACK WndProc (HWND hWnd, UINT iMessage,  
                          WPARAM wParam, LPARAM lParam);  
  
//*****  
int APIENTRY WinMain(HINSTANCE hInstance,  
                    HINSTANCE hPrevInstance,  
                    LPSTR lpCmdLine, int nCmdShow)  
{  
    static char szAppName[] = "HelloWorld" ;  
    HWND        hWnd ;  
    MSG         message ;  
    WNDCLASSEX  wndclass ;  
  
    wndclass.cbSize      = sizeof (wndclass);  
    wndclass.style       = CS_HREDRAW | CS_VREDRAW;  
    wndclass.lpfnWndProc = WndProc;  
    wndclass.cbClsExtra  = 0;  
    wndclass.cbWndExtra  = 0;  
    wndclass.hInstance   = hInstance ;  
    wndclass.hIcon       =  
        LoadIcon(NULL, IDI_APPLICATION);  
    wndclass.hCursor     =  
        LoadCursor(NULL, IDC_ARROW);  
    wndclass.hbrBackground =  
        (HBRUSH)GetStockObject (WHITE_BRUSH);  
    wndclass.lpszMenuName = NULL;
```

Source Code Listings

```
wndclass.lpszClassName = szAppName;
wndclass.hIconSm       =
    LoadIcon (NULL, IDI_APPLICATION);

RegisterClassEx (&wndclass);

hWnd = CreateWindow (szAppName,      // class
                    "Hello World",  // caption
                    WS_OVERLAPPEDWINDOW, // style
                    CW_USEDEFAULT,  // x pos
                    CW_USEDEFAULT,  // y pos
                    CW_USEDEFAULT,  // x size
                    CW_USEDEFAULT,  // y size
                    NULL,           // parent window handle
                    NULL,           // window menu handle
                    hInstance,     // instance handle
                    NULL) ;        // creation parameters

ShowWindow(hWnd, nCmdShow);
UpdateWindow(hWnd);

while ( GetMessage(&message, NULL, 0, 0) )
{
    TranslateMessage(&message);
    DispatchMessage(&message);
}

return message.wParam;
}

//*****
LRESULT CALLBACK WndProc (HWND hWnd, UINT iMessage,
                          WPARAM wParam, LPARAM lParam)
{
    HDC          hdc;
    PAINTSTRUCT ps;
    RECT         rect;
```

```
switch ( iMessage )
{
    case WM_CREATE:
        return 0;

    case WM_PAINT :
        hdc = BeginPaint( hWnd, &ps );
        GetClientRect( hWnd, &rect );
        DrawText(hdc, "Hello World", -1, &rect,
                DT_SINGLELINE | DT_CENTER |
                DT_VCENTER);

        EndPaint(hWnd, &ps);
        return 0;

    case WM_DESTROY:
        PostQuitMessage(0);
        return 0;
}

return DefWindowProc( hWnd, iMessage,
                    wParam, lParam );
}
```

Source Code Listings



C

C Syntax Summary

The if Statement

syntax:

```
if ( expression )
    statement
```

example:

```
if ( numEmployees > 20 )
    BuyNewBuilding();
```

alternate syntax:

```
if ( expression )
    statement
else
    statement
```

example:

```
if ( temperature < 60 )
    WearAJacket();
else
    BringASweater();
```

The while Statement

syntax:

```
while ( expression )
    statement
```

example:

```
while ( FireTooLow() )
```


C Syntax Summary

```
AddAnotherLog();
```

The for Statement

syntax:

```
for ( expression1 ; expression2 ; expression3 )  
    statement
```

example:

```
int          i, myArray[ 100 ];  
  
for ( i=0; i<100; i++ )  
    myArray[ i ] = 0;
```

The do Statement

syntax:

```
do  
    statement  
while ( expression ) ;
```

example:

```
do  
    CallMeAtLeastOnce();  
while ( KeepGoing() ) ;
```

The switch Statement

syntax:

```
switch ( expression )  
{  
    case constant:  
        statements
```

```
        case constant:
            statements
        default:
            statements
    }
```

example:

```
switch ( theYear )
{
    case 1066:
        printf( "Battle of Hastings" );
        break;
    case 1492:
        printf( "Columbus sailed the ocean blue"
);
        break;
    case 1776:
        printf( "Declaration of Independence\n"
);
        printf( "A very important document!!!" );
        break;
    default:
        printf( "Don't know what happened during
this year" );
}
```

The break Statement

syntax:

```
break;
```

C Syntax Summary

example:

```
i=1;

while ( i <= 9 )
{
    PlayAnInning( i );
    if ( ItsRaining() )
        break;
    i++;
}
```

The return Statement

syntax:

```
return;
```

example:

```
if ( FatalError() )
    return;
```

alternate syntax:

```
return( expression );
```

example:

```
int  AddThese( int num1, int num2 )
{
    return( num1 + num2 );
}
```



Selections from the Standard Library

This appendix contains excerpts reprinted from the *C Library Reference* found on the CodeWarrior disk and is being reprinted with permission from MetroWerks. This is only part of the *C Library Reference* so make sure you check out the original.

atof(), atoi(), atol()

<i>Purpose</i>	Convert a character string to a numeric value.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdlib.h> double atof(const char *nptr); int atoi(const char *nptr); long int atol(const char *nptr);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	<p>The <code>atof()</code> function converts the character array pointed to by <code>nptr</code> to a floating point value of type <code>double</code>.</p> <p>The <code>atoi()</code> function converts the character array pointed to by <code>nptr</code> to an integer value.</p> <p>The <code>atol()</code> function converts the character array pointed to by <code>nptr</code> to an integer of type <code>long int</code>.</p> <p>All three functions skip leading white space characters.</p> <p>All three functions set the global variable <code>errno</code> to <code>ERANGE</code> if the converted value cannot be expressed in their respective type.</p>
<i>Return value</i>	<p><code>atof()</code> returns a floating point value of type <code>double</code>.</p> <p><code>atoi()</code> returns an integer value of type <code>int</code>.</p> <p><code>atol()</code> returns an integer value of type <code>long int</code>.</p>

Selections from the Standard Library

See also `errno.h`
 `stdio.h: scanf()`

bsearch()

Purpose Efficient sorted array searching.

Synopsis `#include <stdlib.h>`
`void *bsearch(const void *key,`
 `const void *base,`
 `size_t nmemb,`
 `size_t size,`
 `int (*compare)`
 `(const void *,`
 `const void *)`)

Remarks The `bsearch()` function efficiently searches a sorted array for an item using the binary search algorithm.

The `key` argument points to the item to search for.

The `base` argument points to the first byte of the array to search. The array must already be sorted in ascending order based on the comparison requirements of the function pointed to by the `compare` argument.

The `nmemb` argument specifies the number of array elements to search.

The `size` argument specifies the size of an array element.

The `compare` argument points to a programmer-supplied function that takes two pointers to different array elements and compares them based on the key. If the two elements are equal, `compare` must return a zero. The `compare` function must return a negative value if the first element is less than the second. Likewise, the function must return a positive value if the first argument is greater than the second.

Return value `bsearch()` returns a pointer to the element in the array matching the item pointed to by `key`. If no match was found, `bsearch()` returns a null pointer (`NULL`).

See also `stdlib.h: qsort()`

exit()

Purpose Terminate a program normally.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdlib.h>
void exit(int status);
```

Remark The `exit()` function calls every function installed with `atexit()` in the reverse order of their installation, flushes the buffers and closes all open streams, then calls the Toolbox system call `ExitToShell`.

Return value `exit()` does not return any value to the operating system. The status argument is kept to conform to the ANSI C Standard Library specification.

See also `stdlib.h: abort(), atexit()`

fclose()

Purpose Close an open file.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
int fclose(FILE *stream);
```

Remarks The `fclose()` function closes a file created by `fopen()`, `freopen()`, or `tmpfile()`. The function flushes any buffered data to its file and closes the stream. After calling `fclose()`, `stream` is no longer valid and cannot be used with file functions unless it is reassigned using `fopen()`, `freopen()`, or `tmpfile()`. All of a program's open streams are flushed and closed when a program terminates normally.

Selections from the Standard Library

`fclose()` closes then deletes a file created by `tmpfile()`.

Return value `fclose()` returns a zero if it is successful and returns a -1 if it fails to close a file.

See also `stdio.h`: `fopen()`, `freopen()`,
`tmpfile()`
`stdlib.h`: `exit()`, `abort()`

feof()

Purpose Check the end-of-file status of a stream.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
int feof(FILE *stream);
```

Remarks The `feof()` function checks the end-of-file status of the last read operation on stream. The function does not reset the end-of-file status.

Return value `feof()` returns a nonzero value if the stream is at the end-of-file and return zero if the stream is not at the end-of-file.

See also `stdio.h`: `clearerr()`, `ferror()`

ferror()

Purpose Check the error status of a stream.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
int ferror (FILE *stream);
```

Remarks The `ferror()` function returns the error status of the last read or write operation on stream. The function does not reset its error status.

Return value `ferror()` returns a nonzero value if stream's error status is on, and returns zero if stream's error status is off.

See also `stdio.h`: `clearerr()`, `feof()`

fflush()

<i>Purpose</i>	Empty a stream's buffer to its file.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> int fflush(FILE *stream);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>fflush()</code> function empties stream's buffer to the file associated with stream.
<i>Return value</i>	<code>fflush()</code> returns a nonzero value if it is unsuccessful and returns zero if it is successful.
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdio.h</code> : <code>setvbuf()</code>

fgetc()

<i>Purpose</i>	Read the next character from a stream.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> int fgetc(FILE *stream);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>fgetc()</code> function reads the next character from stream and advances its file position indicator.
<i>Return value</i>	<code>fgetc()</code> returns the character as an <code>int</code> . If the end-of-file has been reached, <code>fgetc()</code> returns <code>EOF</code> .
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdio.h</code> : <code>getc()</code> , <code>getchar()</code>

fgetpos()

<i>Purpose</i>	Get a stream's current file position indicator value.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> int fgetpos(FILE *stream, fpos_t *pos);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>fgetpos()</code> function is used in conjunction with the <code>fsetpos()</code> function to allow random access to a file. The <code>fgetpos()</code> function gives unreliable results when used with streams associated with a console

Selections from the Standard Library

(`stdin`, `stderr`, `stdout`).
While the `fseek()` and `ftell()` functions use long integers to read and set the file position indicator, `fgetpos()` and `fsetpos()` use `fpos_t` values to operate on larger files. The `fpos_t` type, defined in `stdio.h`, can hold file position indicator values that do not fit in a long int.
The `fgetpos()` function stores the current value of the file position indicator for stream in the `fpos_t` variable `pos` points to.

Return value `fgetpos()` returns zero when successful and returns a nonzero value when it fails.

See also `stdio.h`: `fseek()`, `fsetpos()`, `ftell()`

fgets()

Purpose Read a character array from a stream.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
char *fgets(char *s, int n,
            FILE *stream);
```

Remarks The `fgets()` function reads characters sequentially from stream beginning at the current file position, and assembles them into `s` as a character array. The function stops reading characters when `n` characters have been read. The `fgets()` function finishes reading prematurely if it reaches a newline (`'\n'`) character or the end-of-file. Unlike the `gets()` function, `fgets()` appends the newline character (`'\n'`) to `s`. It also null terminates the character array.

Return value `fgets()` returns a pointer to `s` if it is successful. If it reaches the end-of-file before reading any characters, `s` is untouched and `fgets()` returns a null pointer (`NULL`). If an

error occurs `fgets()` returns a null pointer and the contents of `s` may be corrupted.

See also

`stdio.h`: `gets()`, `fprintf()`,
`printf()`

fopen()

Purpose

Open a file as a stream.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
FILE *fopen(const char *filename,
            const char *mode);
```

Remarks

The `fopen()` function opens a file specified by `filename`, and associates a stream with it. The `fopen()` function returns a pointer to a `FILE`. This pointer is used to refer to the file when performing I/O operations.

The mode argument specifies how the file is to be used. Table 7 describes the values for mode. A file opened with an update mode ("`+`") is buffered, so it cannot be written to and then read from (or vice versa) unless the read and write operations are separated by an operation that flushes the stream's buffer or the last read or write reached the end-of-file. The `fseek()`, `fsetpos()`, `rewind()`, and `fflush()` functions flush a stream's buffer.

All file modes, except the append modes ("`a`", "`a+`", "`ab`", "`ab+`"), set the file position indicator to the beginning of the file. The append modes set the file position indicator to the end-of-file.

Return value

`fopen()` returns a pointer to a `FILE` if it successfully opens the specified file for the specified operation. `fopen()` returns a null pointer (`NULL`) when it is not successful.

See also

`stdio.h`: `fclose()`

Selections from the Standard Library

fprintf()

<i>Purpose</i>	Send formatted text to a stream.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> int fprintf(FILE *stream, const char *format, ...);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>fprintf()</code> function writes formatted text to stream and advances the file position indicator. Its operation is the same as <code>printf()</code> with the addition of the stream argument. Refer to the description of <code>printf()</code> .
<i>Return value</i>	<code>fprintf()</code> returns the number of arguments written or a negative number if an error occurs.
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdio.h</code> : <code>printf()</code> , <code>sprintf()</code> , <code>fprintf()</code> , <code>vfprintf()</code> , <code>vprintf()</code> , <code>vsprintf()</code>

fputc()

<i>Purpose</i>	Write a character to a stream.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> int fputc(int c, FILE *stream);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>fputc()</code> function writes character <code>c</code> to stream and advances stream's file position indicator. Although the <code>c</code> argument is an <code>int</code> , it is converted to a <code>char</code> before being written to stream. <code>fputc()</code> is written as a function, not as a macro.
<i>Return value</i>	<code>fputc()</code> returns the character written if it is successful, and returns EOF if it fails.
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdio.h</code> : <code>putc()</code> , <code>putchar()</code>

fputs()

<i>Purpose</i>	Write a character array to a stream.
----------------	--------------------------------------

Selections from the Standard Library

<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> int fputs(const char *s, FILE *stream);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>fputs()</code> function writes the array pointed to by <code>s</code> to stream and advances the file position indicator. The function writes all characters in <code>s</code> up to, but not including, the terminating null character. Unlike <code>puts()</code> , <code>fputs()</code> does not terminate the output of <code>s</code> with a newline (<code>'\n'</code>).
<i>Return value</i>	<code>fputs()</code> returns a zero if successful, and returns a nonzero value when it fails.
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdio.h</code> : <code>puts()</code>

fread()

<i>Purpose</i>	Read binary data from a stream.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> size_t fread(void *ptr, size_t size, size_t nmemb, FILE *stream);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>fread()</code> function reads a block of binary or text data and updates the file position indicator. The data read from stream are stored in the array pointed to by <code>ptr</code> . The <code>size</code> and <code>nmemb</code> arguments describe the size of each item and the number of items to read, respectively. The <code>fread()</code> function reads <code>nmemb</code> items unless it reaches the end-of-file or a read error occurs.
<i>Return value</i>	<code>fread()</code> returns the number of items read successfully.
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdio.h</code> : <code>fgets()</code> , <code>fwrite()</code>

free()

<i>Purpose</i>	Release previously allocated memory to heap.
----------------	--

Selections from the Standard Library

<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdlib.h> void free(void *ptr);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>free()</code> function releases a previously allocated memory block, pointed to by <code>ptr</code> , to the heap. The <code>ptr</code> argument should hold an address returned by the memory allocation functions <code>calloc()</code> , <code>malloc()</code> , or <code>realloc()</code> . Once the memory block <code>ptr</code> points to has been released, it is no longer valid. The <code>ptr</code> variable should not be used to reference memory again until it is assigned a value from the memory allocation functions.
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdlib.h</code> : <code>calloc()</code> , <code>malloc()</code> , <code>realloc()</code> Refer to the example for <code>calloc()</code>

freopen()

<i>Purpose</i>	Redirect a stream to another file.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> FILE *freopen(const char *filename, const char *mode, FILE *stream);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>freopen()</code> function changes the file stream associated with another file. The function first closes the file the stream is associated with, and opens the new file, <code>filename</code> , with the specified mode, using the same stream.
<i>Return value</i>	<code>fopen()</code> returns the value of <code>stream</code> , if it is successful. If <code>fopen()</code> fails it returns a null pointer (<code>NULL</code>).
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdio.h</code> : <code>fopen()</code>

fscanf()

<i>Purpose</i>	Read formatted text from a stream.
----------------	------------------------------------

<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> int fscanf(FILE *stream, const char *format, ...);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>fscanf()</code> function reads programmer-defined, formatted text from <code>stream</code> . The function operates identically to the <code>scanf()</code> function with the addition of the <code>stream</code> argument indicating the stream to read from. Refer to the <code>scanf()</code> function description.
<i>Return value</i>	<code>fscanf()</code> returns the number of items read. If there is an error in reading data that is inconsistent with the format string, <code>fscanf()</code> sets <code>errno</code> to a nonzero value. <code>fscanf()</code> returns EOF if it reaches the end-of-file.
<i>See also</i>	<code>errno.h</code> <code>stdio.h</code> : <code>scanf()</code>

fseek()

<i>Purpose</i>	Move the file position indicator.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> int fseek(FILE *stream, long offset, int whence);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	<p>The <code>fseek()</code> function moves the file position indicator to allow random access to a file. The function moves the file position indicator either absolutely or relatively. The <code>whence</code> argument can be one of three values defined in <code>stdio.h</code>: <code>SEEK_SET</code>, <code>SEEK_CUR</code>, <code>SEEK_END</code>.</p> <p>The <code>SEEK_SET</code> value causes the file position indicator to be set offset bytes from the beginning of the file. In this case <code>offset</code> must be equal or greater than zero.</p> <p>The <code>SEEK_CUR</code> value causes the file position indicator to be set offset bytes from its current position. The <code>offset</code> argument can be a negative or positive value.</p>

Selections from the Standard Library

The `SEEK_END` value causes the file position indicator to be set offset bytes from the end of the file. The offset argument must be equal or less than zero.

The `fseek()` function undoes the last `ungetc()` call and clears the end-of-file status of stream.

Return value `fseek()` returns zero if it is successful and returns a nonzero value if it fails.

See also `stdio.h`: `fgetpos()`, `fsetpos()`,
 `ftell()`

fsetpos()

Purpose Set the file position indicator.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
int fsetpos(FILE *stream,
            const fpos_t *pos);
```

Remarks The `fsetpos()` function sets the file position indicator for stream using the value pointed to by `pos`. The function is used in conjunction with `fgetpos()` when dealing with files having sizes greater than what can be represented by the long int argument used by `fseek()`.
`fsetpos()` undoes the previous call to `ungetc()` and clears the end-of-file status.

Return value `fsetpos()` returns zero if it is successful and returns a nonzero value if it fails.

See also `stdio.h`: `fgetpos()`, `fseek()`,
 `ftell()`

ftell()

Purpose Return the current file position indicator value.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
long int ftell(FILE *stream);
```

<i>Remarks</i>	<p>The <code>ftell()</code> function returns the current value of stream's file position indicator. It is used in conjunction with <code>fseek()</code> to provide random access to a file.</p> <p>The function will not work correctly when it is given a stream associated to a console file, such as <code>stdin</code>, <code>stdout</code>, or <code>stderr</code>, where a file indicator position is not applicable. Also, <code>ftell()</code> cannot handle files with sizes larger than what can be represented with a <code>long int</code>. In such a case, use the <code>fgetpos()</code> and <code>fsetpos()</code> functions.</p>
<i>Return value</i>	<p><code>ftell()</code>, when successful, returns the current file position indicator value. If it fails, <code>ftell()</code> returns <code>-1L</code> and sets the global variable <code>errno</code> to a nonzero value.</p>
<i>See also</i>	<p><code>errno.h</code> <code>stdio.h</code>: <code>fgetpos()</code></p>

fwrite()

<i>Purpose</i>	<p>Write binary data to a stream.</p>
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> size_t fwrite(const void *ptr, size_t size, size_t nmem, FILE *stream);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	<p>The <code>fwrite()</code> function writes <code>nmem</code> items of <code>size</code> bytes each to stream. The items are contained in the array pointed to by <code>ptr</code>. After writing the array to stream, <code>fwrite()</code> advances the file position indicator accordingly.</p>
<i>Return value</i>	<p><code>fwrite()</code> returns the number of elements successfully written to stream.</p>
<i>See also</i>	<p><code>stdio.h</code>: <code>fread()</code></p>

Selections from the Standard Library

getc()

<i>Purpose</i>	Read the next character from a stream.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> int getc(FILE *stream);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>getc()</code> function reads the next character from <code>stream</code> , advances the file position indicator, and returns the character as an <code>int</code> value. Unlike the <code>fgetc()</code> function, <code>getc()</code> is implemented as a macro.
<i>Return value</i>	<code>getc()</code> returns the next character from the stream or returns <code>EOF</code> if the end-of-file has been reached or a read error has occurred.
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdio.h</code> : <code>fgetc()</code> , <code>fputc()</code> , <code>getchar()</code> , <code>putchar()</code>

getchar()

<i>Purpose</i>	Get the next character from <code>stdin</code> .
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> int getchar(void);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>getchar()</code> function reads a character from the <code>stdin</code> stream.
<i>Return value</i>	<code>getchar()</code> returns the value of the next character from <code>stdin</code> as an <code>int</code> if it is successful. <code>getchar()</code> returns <code>EOF</code> if it reaches an end-of-file or an error occurs.
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdio.h</code> : <code>fgetc()</code> , <code>getc()</code> , <code>putchar()</code>

gets()

<i>Purpose</i>	Read a character array from <code>stdin</code> .
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> char *gets(char *s);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>gets()</code> function reads characters from <code>stdin</code> and stores them sequentially in the

character array pointed to by `s`. Characters are read until either a newline or an end-of-file is reached.

Unlike `fgets()`, the programmer cannot specify a limit on the number of characters to read. Also, `gets()` reads and ignores the newline character (`'\n'`) so that it can advance the file position indicator to the next line. The newline character is not stored `s`.

Like `fgets()`, `gets()` terminates the character string with a null character. If an end-of-file is reached before any characters are read, `gets()` returns a null pointer (`NULL`) without affecting the character array at `s`. If a read error occurs, the contents of `s` may be corrupted.

Return value `gets()` returns `s` if it is successful and returns a null pointer if it fails.

See also `stdio.h: fgets()`

malloc()

Purpose Allocate a block of heap memory.

Synopsis `#include <stdlib.h>`
`void *malloc(size_t size);`

Remarks The `malloc()` function allocates a block of contiguous heap memory-size bytes.

Return value `malloc()` returns a pointer to the first byte of the allocated block if it is successful and returns a null pointer if it fails.

See also `stdlib.h: calloc(), free(),`
`realloc()`

memchr()

Purpose Search for an occurrence of a character.

Selections from the Standard Library

<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <string.h> void *memchr(const void *s, int c, size_t n);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>memchr()</code> function looks for the first occurrence of <code>c</code> in the first <code>n</code> characters of the memory area pointed to by <code>s</code> .
<i>Return value</i>	<code>memchr()</code> returns a pointer to the found character, or a null pointer (NULL) if <code>c</code> cannot be found.
<i>See also</i>	<code>string.h</code> : <code>strchr()</code> , <code>strrchr()</code>

memcmp()

<i>Purpose</i>	Compare two blocks of memory.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <string.h> int memcmp(const void *s1, const void *s2, size_t n);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>memcmp()</code> function compares the first <code>n</code> characters of <code>s1</code> to <code>s2</code> one character at a time.
<i>Return value</i>	<code>memcmp()</code> returns a zero if all <code>n</code> characters pointed to by <code>s1</code> and <code>s2</code> are equal. <code>memcmp()</code> returns a negative value if the first nonmatching character pointed to by <code>s1</code> is less than the character pointed to by <code>s2</code> . <code>memcmp()</code> returns a positive value if the first nonmatching character pointed to by <code>s1</code> is greater than the character pointed to by <code>s2</code> .
<i>See also</i>	<code>string.h</code> : <code>strcmp()</code> , <code>strncmp()</code>

memcpy()

<i>Purpose</i>	Copy a contiguous memory block.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <string.h> void *memcpy(const void *dest, const void *source, size_t n);</pre>

Remarks The `memcpy()` function copies the first `n` characters from the item pointed to by `source` to the item pointed to by `dest`. The behavior of `memcpy()` is undefined if the areas pointed to by `dest` and `source` overlap. The `memmove()` function reliably copies overlapping memory blocks.

Return value `memcpy()` returns the value of `dest`.

See also `string.h`: `memmove()`, `strcpy()`,
`strncpy()`
Refer to the example for `memchr()`.

memmove()

Purpose Copy an overlapping contiguous memory block.

Synopsis

```
#include <string.h>
void *memmove(void *dest,
              const void *source, size_t n);
```

Remarks The `memmove()` function copies the first `n` characters of the item pointed to by `source` to the item pointed to by `dest`. Unlike `memcpy()`, the `memmove()` function safely copies overlapping memory blocks.

Return value `memmove()` returns the value of `dest`.

See also `string.h`: `memcpy()`, `memset()`,
`strcpy()`, `strncpy()`

perror()

Purpose Output an error message to `stderr`.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
void perror(const char *s);
```

Remarks The `perror()` function outputs the character array pointed to by `s` and the value of the global variable `errno` to `stderr`.

Selections from the Standard Library

See also `abort.h: abort()`
 `errno.h`

printf()

Purpose Output formatted text.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
int printf(const char *format,
           ...);
```

Remarks The `printf()` function outputs formatted text. The function takes one or more arguments, the first being `format`, a character array pointer. The optional arguments following `format` are items (integers, characters, floating point values, etc.) that are to be converted to character strings and inserted into the output of `format` at specified points.

The `printf()` function sends its output to `stdout`.

The `format` character array contains normal text and conversion specifications. Conversion specifications must have matching arguments in the same order in which they occur in `format`.

A conversion specification describes the format its associated argument is to be converted to. A specification starts with a percent sign (`%`), optional flag characters, an optional minimum width, an optional precision width, and the necessary, terminating conversion type.

Doubling the percent sign (`%%`) results in the output of a single `%`.

An optional flag character modifies the formatting of the output; it can be left or right justified, and numerical values can be padded with zeroes or output in alternate forms. More than one optional flag character can be used in a conversion specification. Table 8 describes the flag characters.

The optional minimum width is a decimal digit string. If the converted value has more characters than the minimum width, it is expanded as required. If the converted value has fewer characters than the minimum width, it is, by default, right justified (padded on the left). If the `- flag` character is used, the converted value is left justified (padded on the right).

The optional precision width is a period character (`.`) followed by decimal digit string. For floating point values, the precision width specifies the number of digits to print after the decimal point. For integer values, the precision width functions identically to, and cancels, the minimum width specification. When used with a character array, the precision width indicates the maximum width of the output.

A minimum width and a precision width can also be specified with an asterisk (`*`) instead of a decimal digit string. An asterisk indicates that there is a matching argument, preceding the conversion argument, specifying the minimum width or precision width.

The terminating character, the conversion type, specifies the conversion applied to the conversion specification's matching argument. Table 9 describes the conversion type characters.

A conversion type can be prefixed with an `h`, `l`, or `L`. Using `h` indicates that the corresponding argument is a `short int` or `unsigned short int`. The `l` indicates the argument is a `long int` or `unsigned long int`. The `L` indicates the argument is a `long double`.

Return value

`printf()`, like `fprintf()`, `sprintf()`, `vfprintf()`, and `vprintf()`, returns the number of arguments that were successfully output. `printf()` returns a negative value if it fails.

Selections from the Standard Library

See also stdio.h: `fprintf()`, `sprintf()`,
 `vprintf()`, `vprintf()`

putc() _____

Purpose Write a character to a stream.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
int putc(int c, FILE *stream);
```

Remarks The `putc()` function outputs `c` to stream and advances stream's file position indicator. The `putc()` works identically to the `fputc()` function, except that it is written as a macro.

Return value `putc()` returns the character written when successful and return EOF when it fails.

See also stdio.h: `fputc()`, `putchar()`

putchar() _____

Purpose Write a character to stdout.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
int putchar(int c);
```

Remarks The `putchar()` function writes character `c` to stdout.

Return value `putchar()` returns `c` if it is successful and returns EOF if it fails.

See also stdio.h: `fputc()`, `putc()`

puts() _____

Purpose Write a character string to stdout.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
int puts(const char *s);
```

Remarks The `puts()` function writes a character string array to stdout, stopping at, but not including,

the terminating null character. The function also appends a newline (`'\n'`) to the output.

Return value `puts()` returns zero if successful and returns a nonzero value if it fails.

See also `stdio.h: fputs()`

qsort()

Purpose Sort an array.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdlib.h>
void qsort(void *base, size_t nmemb,
           size_t size, int (*compare)
           (const void *, const void *))
```

Remarks The `qsort()` function sorts an array using the quicksort algorithm. It sorts the array without displacing it; the array occupies the same memory it had before the call to `qsort()`. The base argument is a pointer to the base of the array to be sorted. The `nmemb` argument specifies the number of array elements to sort. The size argument specifies the size of an array element. The compare argument is a pointer to a programmer-supplied compare function. The function takes two pointers to different array elements and compares them based on the key. If the two elements are equal, compare must return a zero. The compare function must return a negative number if the first element is less than the second. Likewise, the function must return a positive number if the first argument is greater than the second.

See also `stdlib.h: bsearch()`

Selections from the Standard Library

rand()

<i>Purpose</i>	Generate a pseudo-random integer value.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdlib.h> int rand(void);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	A sequence of calls to the <code>rand()</code> function generates and returns a sequence of pseudo-random integer values from 0 to <code>RAND_MAX</code> . The <code>RAND_MAX</code> macro is defined in <code>stdlib.h</code> . By seeding the random number generator using <code>srand()</code> , different random number sequences can be generated with <code>rand()</code> .
<i>Return value</i>	<code>rand()</code> returns a pseudo-random integer value between 0 and <code>RAND_MAX</code> .
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdlib.h</code> : <code>srand()</code>

remove()

<i>Purpose</i>	Delete a file.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> int remove(const char *filename);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>remove()</code> function deletes the named file specified by <code>filename</code> .
<i>Return value</i>	<code>remove()</code> returns 0 if the file deletion is successful, and returns a nonzero value if it fails.
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdio.h</code> : <code>fopen()</code> , <code>rename()</code>

rename()

<i>Purpose</i>	Change the name of a file.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> int rename(const char *old, const char *new);</pre>

Selections from the Standard Library

<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>rename()</code> function changes the name of a file, specified by <code>old</code> to the name specified by <code>new</code> .
<i>Return value</i>	<code>rename()</code> returns a nonzero if it fails and returns zero if successful.
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdio.h</code> : <code>freopen()</code> , <code>remove()</code>

rewind()

<i>Purpose</i>	Reset the file position indicator to the beginning of the file.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> void rewind(FILE *stream);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>rewind()</code> function sets the file indicator position of <code>stream</code> such that the next write or read operation will be from the beginning of the file. It also undoes any previous call to <code>ungetc()</code> and clears <code>stream</code> 's end-of-file and error status.
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdio.h</code> : <code>fseek()</code> , <code>fsetpos()</code>

scanf()

<i>Purpose</i>	Read formatted text.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> int scanf(const char *format, ...);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>scanf()</code> function reads text and converts the text read to programmer specified types. The format argument is a character array containing normal text, white space (space, tab, newline), and conversion specifications. The normal text specifies literal characters that must be matched in the input stream. A white space character indicates that white space characters are skipped until a non-white-space character is reached. The conversion specifications indicate what characters in the input stream are to be

converted and stored.

The conversion specifications must have matching arguments in the order they appear in format. Because `scanf ()` stores data in memory, the matching conversion specification arguments must be pointers to objects of the relevant types.

A conversion specification consists of the percent sign (%) prefix, followed by an optional maximum width or assignment suppression, and ending with a conversion type. A percent sign can be skipped by doubling it in format; %% signifies a single % in the input stream.

An optional width is a decimal number specifying the maximum width of an input field. `scanf ()` will not read more characters for a conversion than is specified by the width. An optional assignment suppression character (*) can be used to skip an item by reading it but not assigning it. A conversion specification with assignment suppression must not have a corresponding argument.

The last character, the conversion type, specifies the kind of conversion requested. Table 10 describes the conversion type characters.

The conversion type may be preceded by `u`, `U`, `l`, or `L`. When used with integer conversion types, `u` and `U` specify unsigned integers. The `l` and `L`, when used with integer conversions, signify long integers. When used with floating point conversions, `l` signifies a double and `L` signifies a long double

Return value

`scanf ()` returns the number of items successfully read and returns EOF if a conversion type does not match its argument or an end-of-file is reached.

See also

`stdio.h`: `printf ()`, `sscanf ()`

setbuf()

<i>Purpose</i>	Change the buffer size of a stream.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> void setbuf(FILE *stream, char *buf);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	<p>The <code>setbuf()</code> function allows the programmer to set the buffer size for stream. It should be called after stream is opened, but before it is read from or written to.</p> <p>The function makes the array pointed to by <code>buf</code> the buffer used by stream. The <code>buf</code> argument can either be a null pointer or point to an array of size <code>BUFSIZ</code>, defined in <code>stdio.h</code>.</p> <p>If <code>buf</code> is a null pointer, the stream becomes unbuffered.</p>
<i>See also</i>	<code>stdio.h</code> : <code>setvbuf()</code> <code>stdlib.h</code> : <code>malloc()</code>

setvbuf()

<i>Purpose</i>	Change the buffering scheme for a stream.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <stdio.h> int setvbuf(FILE *stream, char *buf, int mode, size_t size);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	<p>The <code>setvbuf()</code> allows the manipulation of the buffering scheme as well as the size of the buffer used by stream. The function should be called after the stream is opened but before it is written to or read from.</p> <p>The <code>buf</code> argument is a pointer to a character array. The <code>size</code> argument indicates the size of the character array pointed to by <code>buf</code>. The most efficient buffer size is a multiple of <code>BUFSIZ</code>, defined in <code>stdio.h</code>.</p> <p>If <code>buf</code> is a null pointer, then the operating system creates its own buffer of size bytes. The <code>mode</code> argument specifies the buffering</p>

Selections from the Standard Library

scheme to be used with `stream`. `modecan` have one of three values defined in `stdio.h`: `_IOFBF`, `_IOLBF`, and `_IONBF`.

`_IOFBF` specifies that stream be buffered.

`_IOLBF` specifies that stream be line buffered.

`_IONBF` specifies that stream be unbuffered.

Return value `setvbuf()` returns zero if it is successful and returns a nonzero value if it fails.

See also `stdio.h`: `setbuf()`
`stdlib.h`: `malloc()`

sprintf()

Purpose Format a character string array.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
int sprintf(char *s,
            const char *format, ...);
```

Remarks The `sprintf()` function works identically to `printf()` with the addition of the `s` parameter. Output is stored in the character array pointed to by `s` instead of being sent to `stdout`. The function terminates the output character string with a null character. For information on how to use `sprintf()` refer to the description of `printf()`.

Return value `sprintf()` returns the number of characters assigned to `s`, not including the null character.

See also `stdio.h`: `fprintf()`, `printf()`

srand()

Purpose Set the pseudo-random number generator seed.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdlib.h>
void srand(unsigned int seed);
```

Remarks The `srand()` function sets the seed for the pseudo-random number generator to seed. Each seed value produces the same sequence of random numbers when it is used.

See also `stdlib.h: rand()`

sscanf()

Purpose Read formatted text into a character string.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
int sscanf(char *s,
           const char *format, ...);
```

Remarks The `sscanf()` operates identically to `scanf()` but reads its input from the character array pointed to by `s` instead of `stdin`. The character array pointed to `s` must be null terminated. Refer to the description of `scanf()` for more information.

Return value `scanf()` returns the number of items successfully read and converted and returns EOF if it reaches the end of the string or a conversion specification does not match its argument.

See also `stdio.h: fscanf(), scanf()`

strcat()

Purpose Concatenate two character arrays.

Synopsis

```
#include <string.h>
char *strcat(char *dest,
             const char *source);
```

Remarks The `strcat()` function appends a copy of the character array pointed to by `source` to the end of the character array pointed to by `dest`. The `dest` and `source` arguments must both point to null terminated character arrays.

Selections from the Standard Library

`strcat()` null terminates the resulting character array.

Return value `strcat()` returns the value of `dest`.

See also `string.h`: `strncat()`

strchr()

Purpose Search for an occurrence of a character.

Synopsis

```
#include <string.h>
char *strchr(const char *s, int c);
```

Remarks The `strchr()` function searches for the first occurrence of the character `c` in the character array pointed to by `s`. The `s` argument must point to a null terminated character array.

Return value `strchr()` returns a pointer to the successfully located character. If it fails, `strchr()` returns a null pointer (NULL).

See also `string.h`: `memchr()`, `strrchr()`

strcmp()

Purpose Compare two character arrays.

Synopsis

```
#include <string.h>
int strcmp(const char *s1,
           const char *s2);
```

Remarks The `strcmp()` function compares the character array pointed to by `s1` to the character array pointed to by `s2`. Both `s1` and `s2` must point to null terminated character arrays.

Return value `strcmp()` returns a zero if `s1` and `s2` are equal, a negative value if `s1` is less than `s2`, and a positive value if `s1` is greater than `s2`.

See also `string.h`: `memcmp()`, `strcoll()`, `strncmp()`

strcpy()

<i>Purpose</i>	Copy one character array to another.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <string.h> char *strcpy(char *dest, const char *source);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	<p>The <code>strcpy()</code> function copies the character array pointed to by <code>source</code> to the character array pointed to <code>dest</code>. The <code>source</code> argument must point to a null terminated character array. The resulting character array at <code>dest</code> is null terminated as well.</p> <p>If the arrays pointed to by <code>dest</code> and <code>source</code> overlap, the operation of <code>strcpy()</code> is undefined.</p>
<i>Return value</i>	<code>strcpy()</code> returns the value of <code>dest</code> .
<i>See also</i>	<code>string.h</code> : <code>memcpy()</code> , <code>memmove()</code> , <code>strncpy()</code>

strcoll()

<i>Purpose</i>	Compare two character arrays according to locale.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <string.h> int strcoll(const char *s1, const char *s2);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	<p>The <code>strcoll()</code> function compares two character arrays based on the collating sequence set by the <code>locale.h</code> header file. The MetroWerks C implementation of <code>strcoll()</code> compares two character arrays using <code>strcmp()</code>. It is included in the string library to conform to the ANSI C Standard Library specification.</p>
<i>Return value</i>	<code>strcoll()</code> returns zero if <code>s1</code> is equal to <code>s2</code> , a negative value if <code>s1</code> is less than <code>s2</code> , and a positive value if <code>s1</code> is greater than <code>s2</code> .

Selections from the Standard Library

See also locale.h
string.h: memcmp(), strcmp(),
strncmp()

strcspn()

Purpose Count characters in one character array that are not in another.

Synopsis #include <string.h>
size_t strcspn(const char *s1,
const char *s2);

Remarks The strcspn() function counts the initial length of the character array pointed to by s1 that does not contain characters in the character array pointed to by s2. The function starts counting characters at the beginning of s1 and continues counting until a character in s2 matches a character in s1. Both s1 and s2 must point to null terminated character arrays.

Return value strcspn() returns the length of characters in s1 that does not match any characters in s2.

See also string.h: strpbrk(), strspn()

strerror()

Purpose Return an error message in a character array.

Synopsis #include <string.h>
char *strerror(int errnum);

Remarks The strerror() function returns a pointer to a null terminated character array that contains an error message. The errnum argument has no effect on the message returned by strerror(); it is included to conform to the ANSI C Standard Library specification.

Return value `strerror()` returns a pointer to a null terminated character array containing an error message.

strlen()

Purpose Compute the length of a character array.

Synopsis

```
#include <string.h>
size_t strlen(const char *s);
```

Remarks The `strlen()` function computes the number of characters in a null terminated character array pointed to by `s`. The null character (`'\0'`) is not added to the character count.

Return value `strlen()` returns the number of characters in a character array not including the terminating null character.

strncat()

Purpose Append a specified number of characters to a character array.

Synopsis

```
#include <string.h>
char *strncat(char *dest,
               const char *source, size_t n);
```

Remarks The `strncat()` function appends a maximum of `n` characters from the character array pointed to by `source` to the character array pointed to by `dest`. The `dest` argument must point to a null terminated character array. The `source` argument does not necessarily have to point to a null terminated character array. If a null character is reached in `source` before `n` characters have been appended, `strncat()` stops. When done, `strncat()` terminates `dest` with a null character (`'\0'`).

Return value `strncat()` returns the value of `dest`.

Selections from the Standard Library

See also string.h: strcat()

strncmp()

Purpose Compare a specified number of characters.

Synopsis

```
#include <string.h>
int strncmp(const char *s1,
            const char *s2, size_t n);
```

Remarks The strncmp() function compares n characters of the character array pointed to by s1 to n characters of the character array pointed to by s2. Both s1 and s2 do not necessarily have to be null terminated character arrays. The function stops prematurely if it reaches a null character before n characters have been compared.

Return value strncmp() returns a zero if the first n characters of s1 and s2 are equal, a negative value if s1 is less than s2, and a positive value if s1 is greater than s2.

See also string.h: memcmp(), strcmp()

strncpy()

Purpose Copy a specified number of characters.

Synopsis

```
#include <string.h>
char *strncpy(char *dest,
              const char *source, size_t n);
```

Remarks The strncpy() function copies a maximum of n characters from the character array pointed to by source to the character array pointed to by dest. Neither dest nor source must necessarily point to null terminated character arrays. Also, dest and source must not overlap. If a null character ('\0') is reached in source

before *n* characters have been copied, `strncpy()` continues padding *dest* with null characters until *n* characters have been added to *dest*.

The function does not terminate *dest* with a null character if *n* characters are copied from source before reaching a null character.

Return value `strncpy()` returns the value of *dest*.

See also `string.h`: `memcpy()`, `memmove()`,
`strcpy()`

strpbrk()

Purpose Look for the first occurrence of an array of characters in another.

Synopsis

```
#include <string.h>
char *strpbrk(const char *s1,
              const char *s2);
```

Remarks The `strpbrk()` function searches the character array pointed to by *s1* for the first occurrence of a character in the character array pointed to by *s2*. Both *s1* and *s2* must point to null terminated character arrays.

Return value `strpbrk()` returns a pointer to the first character in *s1* that matches any character in *s2*, and returns a null pointer (NULL) if no match was found.

See also `string.h`: `strcspn()`

strrchr()

Purpose Search for the last occurrence of a character.

Synopsis

```
#include <string.h>
char *strrchr(const char *s, int c);
```

Selections from the Standard Library

<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>strrchr()</code> function searches for the last occurrence of <code>c</code> in the character array pointed to by <code>s</code> . The <code>s</code> argument must point to a null terminated character array.
<i>Return value</i>	<code>strrchr()</code> returns a pointer to the character found or returns a null pointer (NULL) if it fails.
<i>See also</i>	<code>string.h</code> : <code>memchr()</code> , <code>strchr()</code>

strspn()

<i>Purpose</i>	Count characters in one character array that are in another.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <string.h> size_t strspn(const char *s1, const char *s2);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>strspn()</code> function counts the initial number of characters in the character array pointed to by <code>s1</code> that contains characters in the character array pointed to by <code>s2</code> . The function starts counting characters at the beginning of <code>s1</code> and continues counting until it finds a character that is not in <code>s2</code> . Both <code>s1</code> and <code>s2</code> must point to null terminated character arrays.
<i>Return value</i>	<code>strspn()</code> returns the number of characters in <code>s1</code> that matches the characters in <code>s2</code> .
<i>See also</i>	<code>string.h</code> : <code>strpbrk()</code> , <code>strscpn()</code>

strstr()

<i>Purpose</i>	Search for a character array within another.
<i>Synopsis</i>	<pre>#include <string.h> char *strstr(const char *s1, const char *s2);</pre>
<i>Remarks</i>	The <code>strstr()</code> function searches the character array pointed to by <code>s1</code> for the first occurrence

of the character array pointed to by *s2*. Both *s1* and *s2* must point to null terminated (`'\0'`) character arrays.

Return value `strstr()` returns a pointer to the first occurrence of *s2* in *s1* and returns a null pointer (`NULL`) if *s2* cannot be found.

See also `string.h: memchr(), strchr()`

strtok()

Purpose Extract tokens within a character array.

Synopsis

```
#include <string.h>
char *strtok(char *str,
              const char *sep);
```

Remarks The `strtok()` function tokenizes the character array pointed to by *str*. The *sep* argument points to a character array containing token separator characters. The tokens in *str* are extracted by successive calls to `strtok()`. The first call to `strtok()` causes it to search for the first character in *str* that does not occur in *sep*. The function returns a pointer to the beginning of this first token. If no such character can be found, `strtok()` returns a null pointer (`NULL`). If, on the first call, `strtok()` finds a token, it searches for the next token. The function searches by skipping characters in the token in *str* until a character in *sep* is found. This character is overwritten with a null character to terminate the token string, thereby modifying the character array contents. The function also keeps its own pointer to the character after the null character for the next token. Subsequent token searches continue in the same manner from the internal pointer. Subsequent calls to `strtok()` with a `NULL` *str* argument cause it to return pointers to

Selections from the Standard Library

subsequent tokens in the original `str` character array. If no tokens exist, `strtok()` returns a null pointer. The `sep` argument can be different for each call to `strtok()`.

Both `str` and `sep` must be null terminated character arrays.

Return value

When first called `strtok()` returns a pointer to the first token in `str` or returns a null pointer if no token can be found.

Subsequent calls to `strtok()` with a `NULL` `str` argument causes `strtok()` to return a pointer to the next token or return a null pointer (`NULL`) when no more tokens exist.

`strtok()` modifies the character array pointed to by `str`.

tmpfile()

Purpose

Open a temporary file.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
FILE *tmpfile(void);
```

Remarks

The `tmpfile()` function creates and opens a binary file that is automatically removed when it is closed or when the program terminates.

Return value

`tmpfile()` returns a pointer to the `FILE` variable of the temporary file if it is successful. If it fails, `tmpfile()` returns a null pointer (`NULL`).

See also

`stdio.h`: `fopen()`, `tmpnam()`

tmpnam()

Purpose

Create a unique temporary filename.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
char *tmpnam(char *s);
```

Remarks

The `tmpnam()` functions creates a valid file name character string that will not conflict with

any existing filename. A program can call the function up to `TMP_MAX` times before exhausting the unique filenames `tmpnam()` generates. The `TMP_MAX` macro is defined in `stdio.h`.

The `s` argument can either be a null pointer or pointer to a character array. The character array must be at least `L_tmpnam` characters long. The new temporary filename is placed in this array. The `L_tmpnam` macro is defined in `stdio.h`. If `s` is `NULL`, `tmpnam()` returns with a pointer to an internal static object that can be modified by the calling program.

Unlike `tmpfile()`, a file created using a filename generated by the `tmpnam()` function is not automatically removed when it is closed.

Return value `tmpnam()` returns a pointer to a character array containing a unique, nonconflicting filename. If `s` is a null pointer (`NULL`), the pointer refers to an internal static object. If `s` points to a character array, `tmpnam()` returns the same pointer.

See also `stdio.h`: `fopen()`, `tmpfile()`

tolower(), toupper() _____

Purpose Character conversion macros.

Synopsis

```
#include <ctype.h>
int tolower(int c);
int toupper(int c);
```

Remarks The `tolower()` macro converts an uppercase letter to its lowercase equivalent. Non-uppercase characters are returned unchanged. The `toupper()` macro converts a lowercase letter to its uppercase equivalent and returns all other characters unchanged.

Return value `tolower()` returns the lowercase equivalent of uppercase letters and returns all other

Selections from the Standard Library

characters unchanged.
`toupper()` returns the uppercase equivalent of a lowercase letter and returns all other characters unchanged.

See also `ctype.h`: `isalpha()`, `islower()`,
`isupper()`

ungetc()

Purpose Place a character back into a stream.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
int ungetc(int c, FILE *stream);
```

Remarks The `ungetc()` function places character `c` back into stream's buffer. The next read operation will read the character placed by `ungetc()`. Only one character can be pushed back into a buffer until a read operation is performed. The function's effect is ignored when an `fseek()`, `fsetpos()`, or `rewind()` operation is performed.

Return value `ungetc()` returns `c` if it is successful and returns EOF if it fails.

See also `stdio.c`: `fseek()`, `fsetpos()`,
`rewind()`

vfprintf()

Purpose Write formatted output to a stream.

Synopsis

```
#include <stdio.h>
int vfprintf(FILE *stream,
             const char *format,
             va_list arg);
```

Remarks The `vfprintf()` function works identically to the `fprintf()` function. Instead of the variable list of arguments that can be passed to `fprintf()`, `vfprintf()` accepts its arguments in the array of type `va_list`

processed by the `va_start()` macro from the `stdarg.h` header file.

Return value `vfprintf()` returns the number of characters written or EOF if it failed.

See also `stdio.h`: `fprintf()`, `printf()`
`stdarg.h`

vprintf()

Purpose Write formatted output to `stdout`.

Synopsis `#include <stdio.h>`
`int vprintf(const char *format,`
`va_list arg);`

Remarks The `vprintf()` function works identically to the `printf()` function. Instead of the variable list of arguments that can be passed to `printf()`, `vprintf()` accepts its arguments in the array of type `va_list` processed by the `va_start()` macro from the `stdarg.h` header file.

Return value `vprintf()` returns the number of characters written or a negative value if it failed.

See also `stdio.h`: `fprintf()`, `printf()`
`stdarg.h`

vsprintf()

Purpose Write formatted output to a string.

Synopsis `#include <stdio.h>`
`int vsprintf(char *s,`
`const char *format,`
`va_list arg);`

Remarks The `vsprintf()` function works identically to the `sprintf()` function. Instead of the variable list of arguments that can be passed to `sprintf()`, `vsprintf()` accepts its

Selections from the Standard Library

arguments in the array of type `va_list` processed by the `va_start()` macro from the `stdarg.h` header file.

Return value `vsprintf()` returns the number of characters written to `s` or EOF if it failed.

See also `stdio.h`: `printf()`, `sprintf()`
`stdarg.h`



Answers to Selected Exercises

Chapter 4

1.

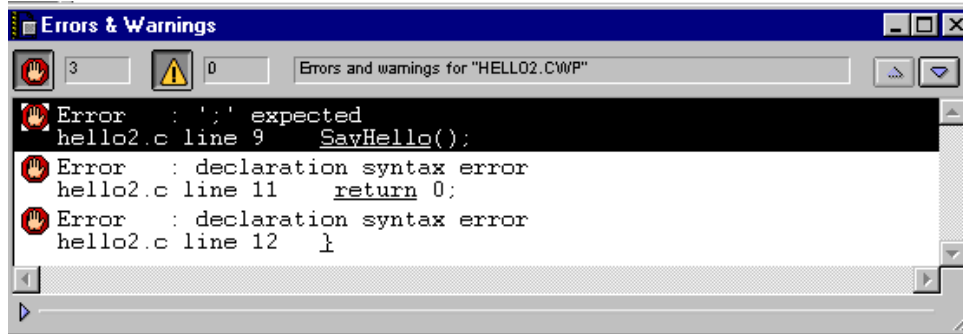
```
Errors & Warnings
Errors and warnings for "HELLO2.CWP"
Error : expression syntax error
hello2.c line 9 SayHello(_
```

2.

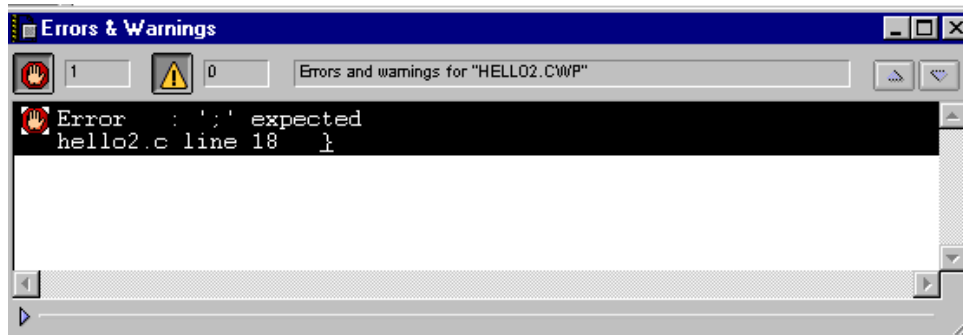
```
Errors & Warnings
Errors and warnings for "HELLO2.CWP"
Warning : function has no prototype
hello2.c line 8 _f
Link Error : Undefined symbol: _main in file:
maincrt.c
```

Answers to Selected Exercises

3.



4.



Chapter 5

1.
 - a. Missing quotes around "Hello, World".
 - b. Missing comma between two variables.
 - c. += should be += (although this will compile with some older compilers).

- d. Missing second parameter to `printf()`. Note that this error won't be caught by the compiler and is known as a run-time error.
 - e. Another run-time error. This time, you are missing the `%d` in the first argument to `printf()`.
 - f. This time, we've either got an extra `\` or are missing an `n` following the `\` in the first `printf()` parameter.
 - g. The left- and right-hand sides of the assignment are switched.
 - h. The declaration of `anotherInt` follows a nondeclaration.
- 2.
- a. 70
 - b. -6
 - c. -1
 - d. 4
 - e. -8
 - f. 2
 - g. 14
 - h. 1

Chapter 6

- 1.
- a. The `if` statement's expression should be surrounded by parentheses.
 - b. We increment `i` inside the `for` loop's expression, then decrement it in the body of the loop. This loop will never end!
 - c. The `while` loop has parentheses but is missing an expression.
 - d. The `do` statement should follow this format:

```
do  
statement  
while ( expression ) ;
```
 - e. Each case in this `switch` statement contains a text string, which is illegal. Also, `case default` should read `default`.
 - f. The `printf()` will never get called.
 - g. This is probably the most common mistake made by C programmers. The assignment operator (`=`) is used

Answers to Selected Exercises

instead of the logical equality operator (`==`). Since the assignment operator is perfectly legal inside an expression, the compiler won't find this error, an annoying little error you'll encounter again and again!

- h. Once again, this code will compile, but it likely is not what you wanted. The third expression in the `for` loop is usually an assignment statement—something to move `i` toward its terminating condition. The expression `i * 20` is useless here, since it doesn't change anything.
- 2. Look in the folder `06.05 - nextPrime2`
- 3. Look in the folder `06.06 - nextPrime3`

Chapter 7

- 1.
 - a. Final value is 25.
 - b. Final value is 512. Try changing the `for` loop from 2 to 3. Notice that this generates a number too large for a 2-byte `int` to hold.
 - c. Final value is 1024.
- 2. Look in the folder `07.06 - power2`
- 3. Look in the folder `07.07 - nonPrimes`

Chapter 8

- 1.
 - a. If the `char` type defaults to `signed` (very likely), `c` can hold values only from `-128` to `127`. Even if your `char` does default to `unsigned`, this is dangerous code. At the very least, use an `unsigned char`. Even better, use a `short`, `int`, or `long`.
 - b. Use `%f`, `%g`, or `%e` to print the value of a `float`, not `%d`.
 - c. The text string `"a"` is composed of two characters: `'a'` and the terminating zero byte. The variable `c` is only a single byte in size. Even if `c` were 2 bytes long, you can't copy a text string this way. Try copying the text one byte at a time into a variable large enough to hold the text string and its terminating zero byte.
 - d. Once again, this code uses the wrong approach to copying a text string, and there is not enough memory allocated to hold the text string and its zero byte.
 - e. The `#define` of `kMaxArraySize` must come before

- the first non-`#define` reference to it.
- f. The following definition creates an array ranging from `c[0]` to `c[kMaxArraySize-1]`

```
char c[ kMaxArraySize ];
```

The reference to `c[kMaxArraySize]` is out of bounds.

- g. The problem occurs in the line:

```
cPtr++ = 0;
```

This line assigns the pointer variable `cPtr` a value of 0 (making it point to location 0 in memory), then increments it to 1 (making it point to location 1 in memory). This code will not compile. Here's a more likely scenario:

```
*cPtr++ = 0;
```

This code sets the char that `cPtr` points to to 0, then increments `cPtr` to point to the next char in the array.

- h. The problem here is with the statement:

```
c++;
```

You can't increment an array name. Even if you could, if you increment `c`, you no longer have a pointer to the beginning of the array! A more proper approach is to declare an extra char pointer, assign `c` to this char pointer, then increment the copy of `c`, rather than `c` itself.

- i. You don't need to terminate a `#define` with a semicolon. This statement defines "kMaxArraySize" to "200;", probably not what we had in mind.

2. Look in the folder 08.08 - dice2
3. Look in the folder 08.09 - wordCount2

Chapter 9

1. a. The semicolon after `employeeNumber` is missing.
- b. This code is really pretty useless. If the first character returned by `getchar()` is `'\n'`, the `;` will get executed; otherwise, the loop just exits. Try changing

Answers to Selected Exercises

- the `==` to `!=` and see what happens.
- c. This code will work, since the double quotes around the header file name tell the compiler to search the local directory in addition to the places it normally searches for system header files. On the other hand, it is considered better form to place angle brackets around a system header file: `<stdio.h>`.
 - d. The name field is missing its type. As it turns out, this code will compile, but it might not do what you think it does. Since the type is missing, the C compiler assumes that you want an array of ints. Even though it compiles, this is bad form!
 - e. Both `next` and `prev` should be declared as pointers.
 - f. There are several problems with this code. First, the `while` loop is completely useless. Also, the code should use `'\0'` instead of `0` (although that's really a question of style). Finally, by the time we get to the `printf()`, `line` points beyond the end of the string!
- 2. Look in the folder 09.06 - `dice2`
 - 3. Look in the folder 09.07 - `cdTracker2`
 - 4. Look in the folder 09.08 - `cdTracker3`

Chapter 10

- 1.
 - a. The arguments to `fopen()` appear in reverse order.
 - b. Once again, the arguments to `fopen()` are reversed. In addition, the first parameter to `fscanf()` contains a prompt, as if you were calling `printf()`. Also, the second parameter to `fscanf()` is defined as a `char`, yet the `%d` format specifier is used, telling `fscanf()` to expect an `int`. This will cause `fscanf()` to store a value of size `int` in the space allocated for a `char`. Not good!
 - c. The `line` is declared as a `char` pointer instead of as an array of `chars`. No memory was allocated for the string being read in by `fscanf()`. Also, since `line` is a pointer, the `&` in the `fscanf()` call shouldn't be there.
 - d. This code is fine except for one problem. The file is

opened for writing, yet we are trying to read from the file by using `fscanf()`.

2. Look in the folder 10.04 - fileReader
3. Look in the folder 10.05 - cdFiler2

Chapter 11

1.
 - a. In the next-to-last line, the address of `myCat` is cast to a `struct`. Instead, the address should be cast to a `(struct Dog *)`.
 - b. The `typedef` defines `FuncPtr` to be a pointer to a function that returns an `int`. `MyFunc()` is declared to return a pointer to an `int`, not an `int`.
 - c. The declaration of `Number` is missing the keyword `union`. Here's the corrected declaration:

```
union    Number    myUnion;
```
 - d. The `Player` union fields must be accessed using `u`. Instead of `myPlayer.myInt`, refer to `myPlayer.u.myInt`. Instead of `myPlayer.myFloat`, refer to `myPlayer.u.myFloat`.
 - e. First off, `myFuncPtr` is not a function pointer and not a legal l-value. As is, the declaration just declares a function named `myFuncPtr`. This declaration fixes that problem:

```
int    (*myFuncPtr)( int );
```

Next, `main()` doesn't take a single `int` as a parameter. Besides that, calling `main()` yourself is a questionable practice. Finally, to call the function pointed to by `myFuncPtr`, use either `myFuncPtr()`; or `(*myFuncPtr)()`; instead of `*myFuncPtr()`.
 - f. The function `strcmp()` returns zero if the strings are equal. The `if` would fail if the strings were the same. The message passed to `printf()` is wrong.
 - g. The parameters passed to `strcpy()` should be reversed.
 - h. No memory was allocated for `s`. When `strcpy()`

Answers to Selected Exercises

- copies the string, it will be writing over unintended memory.
- i. This is a common problem that tons of people, including battle-scarred veterans, run into. The function call in the loop is not a function call. Instead, the address of the function `DoSomeStuff` is evaluated. Because this address is not assigned to anything or used in any other way, the result of the evaluation is discarded. The expression `"DoSomeStuff;"` is effectively a no-op, making the entire loop a no-op.
 2. Look in the folder `11.05 - treePrinter`



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