## Precedence Table

| Description | Operator | Associativity |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Function expression | () | Left to Right |
| Array Expression | [] | Left to Right |
| Structure operator | -> | Left to Right |
| Structure operator | - | Left to Right |
| Unary minus | - | Right to left |
| IncrementDecrement | ++ | Right to Left |
| One's compliment | $\sim$ | Right to left |
| Negation | $!$ | Right to Left |
| Address of | $\&$ | Right to left |
| Value of address | $*$ | Right to left |
| Type cast | (type ) | Right to left |
| Size in bytes | sizeof | Right to left |
| Multiplication | - | Left to right |
| Division | \% | Left to right |
| Modulus | + | Left to right |
| Addition | - | Left to right |
| Subtraction | $\ll$ | Left to right |
| Left shift | $\gg$ | Left to right |
| Right shift | $<$ | Left to right |
| Less than | Left to right |  |
| Less than or equal to | $<=$ | Left to right |
| Greater than | $>$ | Left to right |
| Greater than or equal to | $>=$ | Left to right |
| Equal to | $==$ | Left to right |
| Not equal to | $!=$ | Left to right |

Continued...

| Description | Operator | Associativity |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bitwise AND | \& | Left to right |
| Bitwise exclusive OR | ^ | Left to right |
| Bitwise inclusive OR | 1 | Left to right |
| Logical AND | \& \& | Left to right |
| Logical OR | \\| | Leff to right |
| Conditional | ? : | Right to left |
| Assignment | $\begin{array}{lll} = & & \\ *= & 1= & \%= \\ += & = & \&= \\ \wedge= & 1= & \\ \ll= & \gg= & \end{array}$ | Right to left |
|  |  | Right to left |
|  |  | Right to left |
|  |  | Right to left |
|  |  | Right to left |
| Comma | , | Right to left |

Figure A1.1

## $B$ Standard Library Functions

- Standard Library Functions
- Arithmetic Functions
- Data Conversion Functions
- Character Classification Functions
- String Manipulation Functions
- Searching and Sorting Functions
- I/O Functions
- File Handling Functions
- Directery Control Functions
- Buffer Manipulation Functions
- Disk I/O Functions
- Memory Allocation Functions
- Process Control Functions
- Graphics Functions
- Time Related Functions
- Miscellaneous Functions
- DOS Interface Functions

Let alone discussing each stariaard library function in detail, even a complete list of these functions would occupy scores of pages. However, this book would be incomplete if it has nothing to say about standard library functions. I have tried to reach a compromise and have given a list of standard library functions that are more popularly used so that you know what to search for in the manual. An excellent book dedicated totally to standard library functions is Waite group's, Turbo C Bible, written by Nabjyoti Barkakti.

Following is the list of selected standard library functions. The functions have been classified into broad categories.

## Arithmetic Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| abs | Returns the absolute value of an integer |
| cos | Calculates cosine |
| cosh | Calculates hyperbolic cosine |
| exp | Raises the exponential e to the $\mathrm{x}^{\text {th }}$ power |
| fabs | Finds absolute value |
| floor | Finds largest integer less than or equal to argument |
| fmod | Finds floating-point remainder |
| hypot | Calculates hypotenuse of right triangle |
| $\log$ | Calculates natural logarithm |
| $\log 10$ | Calculates base 10 logarithm |
| modf | Breaks down argument into integer and fractional parts |
| pow | Calculates a value raised to a power |
| $\sin$ | Calculates sine |
| $\sinh$ | Calculates hyperbolic sine |
| $\operatorname{sqrt}$ | Finds square root |
| $\tan$ | Calculates tangent |
| $\tanh$ | Calculates hyperbolic tangent |

Data Conversion Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| atof | Converts string to float |
| atoi | Converts string to int |
| atol | Converts string to long |
| ecvt | Converts double to string |
| fcvt | Converts double to string |
| gevt | Converts double to string |
| itoa | Converts int to string |
| ltoa | Converts long to string |
| strtod | Converts string to double |
| strtol | Converts string to long integer |
| strtoul | Converts string to an unsigned long integer |
| ultoa | Converts unsigned long to string |

## Character classification Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| isalnum | Tests for alphanumeric character |
| isalpha | Tests for alphabetic character |
| isdigit | Tests for decimal digit |
| islower | Tests for lowercase character |
| isspace | Tests for white space character |
| isupper | Tests for uppercase character |
| isxdigit | Tests for hexadecimal digit |
| tolower | Tests character and converts to lowercase if uppercase |
| toupper | Tests character and converts to uppercase if lowercase |

## String Manipulation Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| streat | Appends one string to another |
| strchr | Finds first occurrence of a given character in a string |
| stremp | Compares two strings |
| strempi | Compares two strings without regard to case |
| strcpy | Copies one string to another |
| strdup | Duplicates a string |
| stricmp | Compares two strings without regard to case (identical to <br> strempi) |
| strlen | Finds length of a string |
| strlwr | Converts a string to lowercase |
| strncat | Appends a portion of one string to another <br> strmemp |
| Compares a portion of one string with portion of another <br> string |  |
| strnepy | Copies a given number of characters of one string to another |
| strnicmp | Compares a portion of one string with a portion of another <br> without regard to case |
| strrchr | Finds last occurrence of a given character in a string <br> strev |
| Reverses a string |  |

## Searching and Sorting Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| bsearch | Performs binary search |
| lfind | Performs linear search for a given value |
| qsort | Performs quick sort |

## I/O Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| Close | Closes a file |
| fclose | Closes a filc |
| feof | Detects end-of-file |
| fgetc | Reads a character from a file |
| fgetchar | Reads a character from keyboard (function version) |
| fgets | Reads a string from a file |
| fopen | Opens a filc |
| fprintf | Writes formatted data to a file |
| fputc | Writes a character to a file |
| fputchar | Writes a character to screen (function version) |
| fputs | Writes a string to a file |
| fscanf | Reads formatted data from a filc |
| fseek | Repositions file pointer to given location |
| ftell | Gets current file pointer position |
| getc | Reads a character from a filc (macro version) |
| getch | Reads a character from the keyboard |
| getche | Reads a character from keyboard and echoes it |
| getchar | Reads a character from keyboard (macro version) |
| gets | Reads a line from keyboard |
| inport | Reads a two-byte word from the specified I/O port |
| inportb | Reads one byte from the specified I/O port |
| kbhit | Checks for a keystroke at the keyboard |
| Iseek | Repositions file pointer to a given location |
| open | Opens a file |
| outport <br> outportb | Writes a two-byte word to the specified I/O port |
| printf | Writes one byte to the specified I/O port |
| putc | Writes formatted data to screen |
| putch | Writes a character to a file (macro version) |
| putehar | Writes a character to the screen |
| puts | Writes a character to sereen (macro version) |
| read | Reads data from a file |


| rewind | Repositions file pointer to beginning of a file |
| :--- | :--- |
| scanf | Reads formatted data from keyboard |
| sscanf | Reads formatted input from a string |
| sprintf | Writes formatted output to a string |
| tell | Gets current file pointer position |
| write | Writes data to a filc |

## File Handling Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| remove | Deletes file |
| rename | Renames file |
| unlink | Deletes file |

## Directory Control Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| chdir | Changes current working directory |
| getewd | Gets current working directory |
| fnsplit | Splits a full path name into its components |
| findfirst | Searches a disk directory |
| findnext | Continues findfirst scarch |
| mkdir | Makes a new directory |
| rmdir | Removes a directory |

## Buffer Manipulation Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| memchr | Returns a pointer to the first occurrence, within a specified <br> number of characters, of a given characier in the buffer |
| mememp | Compares a specified number of characters from two <br> buffers |

memcpy Copies a specified number of characters from one buffer to another
memiemp Compares a specified number of characters from two buffers without regard to the case of the characters
memmove Copies a specified number of characters from one buffer to another
memset Uses a given character to initialize a specified number of bytes in the buffer

## Disk I/O Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| absread | Reads absolute disk sectors |
| abswrite | Writes absolute disk sectors |
| biosdisk | Performs BIOS disk services |
| getdisk | Gets current drive number |
| setdisk | Sets current disk drive |

## Memory Allocation Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| calloc | Allocates a block of memory |
| farmalloc | Allocates memory from far heap |
| farfree | Frees a block from far heap |
| free | Frees a block allocated with malloc |
| malloc | Allocates a block of memory |
| realloc | Reallocates a block of memory |

## Process Control Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| abort | Aborts a process |
| atexit | Executes function at program termination |


| execl | Executes child process with argument list |
| :--- | :--- |
| exit | Terminates the process |
| spawnl | Executes child process with argument list |
| spawnlp | Executes child process using PATH variable and argument <br> list |
| system | Executes an MS-DOS command |

## Graphics Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| arc | Draws an arc |
| ellipse | Draws an cllipse |
| floodfill | Fills an area of the screen with the current color |
| getimage | Stores a screen image in memory |
| getlinestyle | Obtains the current line style |
| getpixel | Obtains the pixel's value |
| lineto | Draws a line from the current graphic output position to the <br> specified point |
| moveto | Moves the current graphic output position to a specified <br> point |
| pieslice | Draws a pie-slice-shaped figure <br> putimage <br> rectangle |
| Retrieves an image from memory and displays it <br> setcolor | Draws a rectangle |
| sethe current color |  |

## Time Related Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| clock | Returns the elapsed CPU time for a process |
| difftime | Computes the difference between two times |

ftime Gets current system time as structure
strdate $\quad$ Returns the current system date as a string
strtime Returns the current system time as a string
time Gets current system time as long integer
setdate Sets DOS date
getdate Gets system date

## Miscellaneous Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| delay | Suspends execution for an interval (milliseconds) |
| getenv | Gets valuc of environment variable |
| getpsp | Gets the Program Segment Prefix |
| perror | Prints error message |
| putenv | Adds or modifies value of environment variable |
| random | Generates random numbers |
| randomize | Initializes random number generation with a random value |
|  | based on time |
| sound | Turns PC speaker on at specified frequency |
| nosound | Turns PC speaker off |

## DOS Interface Functions

| Function | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| FP_OFF | Returns offset portion of a far pointer |
| FP_SEG | Returns segment portion of a far pointer |
| getvect | Gets the current value of the specified interrupt vector |
| keep | Installs terminate-and-stay-resident (TSR) programs |
| int86 | Issues interrupts |
| int86x | Issues interrupts with segment register values |
| intdos | Issues interrupt 21h using registers other than DX and AL |
| intdosx | Issues interrupt 21h using segment register values |
| MK_FP | Makes a far pointer |

segread Returns current values of segment registers

## Chasing The <br> Bugs

Cprogrammers are great innovators of our times. Unhappily, among their most enduring accomplishments are several new techniques for wasting time. There is no shortage of horror stories about programs that took twenty times to 'debug' as they did to 'write'. And one hears again and again about programs that had to be rewritten all over again because the bugs present in it could not be located. A typical C programmer's 'morning after' is red eyes, blue face and a pile of crumpled printouts and dozens of reference books all over the floor. Bugs are C programmer's birthright. But how do we chase them away. No sure-shot way for that. I thought if I make a list of more common programming mistakes it might be of help. They are not arranged in any particular order. But as you would realize surely a great help!
[1] Omitting the ampersand before the variables used in scanf().
For example,
int choice ;
scanf( "\%d", choice) ;
Here, the $\&$ before the variable choice is missing. Another common mistake with scanf( ) is to give blanks cither just before the format string or immediately after the format string as in,
int choice;
scanf (" \%d ", choice );
Note that this is not a mistake, but till you don't understand scanf( ) thoroughly, this is going to cause trouble. Safety is in eliminating the blanks. Thus, the correct form would be,
int choice ;
scanf ( "\%d", \&choice ) ;
[2] Using the operator $=$ instead of the operator $==$.
What do you think will be the output of the following program:

```
main()
{
    int i= 10;
    while (i=10)
    {
        print( ( "got to get out" );
        i++:
    }
}
```

At first glance it appears the message will be printed once and the control will come out of the loop since $\mathbf{i}$ becomes 11 . But, actually we have fallen in an indefinite loop. This is because the $=$ used in the condition always assigns the value 10 to $\mathbf{i}$, and since $\mathbf{i}$ is non-zero the condition is satisfied and the body of the loop is executed over and over again.
[3] Ending a loop with a semicolon.
Observe the following program.

```
main()
{
    int j=1;
    while ( }\textrm{j}<=100)\mathrm{ ;
    {
        printf("nnCompguard");
        j++;
    }
}
```

Inadvertently, we have fallen in an indefinite loop. Cause is the semicolon after while. This in effect makes the compiler feel that you wanted the loop to work in the following manner:
while ( $\mathrm{j}<=100$ );
This is an indefinite loop since $\mathbf{j}$ never gets incremented and hence eternally remains less that 100 .
[4] Omitting the break statement at the end of a case in a switch statement.

Remember that if a break is not included at the end of a case, then execution will continue into the next case.

```
main()
{
    int ch = 1;
    switch (ch )
    {
        case 1:
            printf( ("nGoodbye");
            case 2:
            printf('InLieutenant');
    }
}
```

Here, since the break has not been given after the printf() in case 1, the control runs into case 2 and executes the second printf() as well.

However, this sometimes turns out to be a blessing in disguise. Especially, in cases when we are checking whether the value of a variable equals a capital letter or a small case
letter. This example has been succinctly explained in Chapter 4.
[5] Using continue in a switch.
It is a common error to believe that the way the keyword break is used with loops and a switch; similarly the keyword continue can also be used with them. Remember that continue works only with loops, never with a switch.
[6] A mismatch in the number, type and order of actual and formal arguments.
yr = romanise ( year, 1000, 'm') ;
Here, three arguments in the order int, int and char are being passed to romanise(). When romanise() receives these arguments into formal arguments they must be received in the same order. A careless mismatch might give strange results.
[7] Omitting provisions for returning a non-integer value from a function.

If we make the following function call,
area $=$ area_circle ( 1.5 );
then while defining area_circle( ) function later in the program, care should be taken to make it capable of returning a floating point value. Note that unless otherwise mentioned the compiler would assume that this function returns a value of the type int.
[8] Inserting a semicolon at the end of a macro definition.

How do you recognize a C programmer? Ask him to write a paragraph in English and watch whether he ends each sentence with a semicolon. This usually happens because a C programmer becomes habitual to ending all statements with a semicolon. However, a semicolon at the end of a macro definition might create a problem. For example,

## \#define UPPER 25 ;

would lead to a syntax error if used in an expression such as
if ( counter == UPPER )
This is because on preprocessing, the if statement would take the form
if $($ counter $=25$ )
[9] Omitting parentheses around a macro expansion.

```
#define SQR(x) x * x
main()
{
    int a;
    a=25/SQR (5);
    printf("\n%d", a);
}
```

In this example we expect the value of a to be 1 , whereas it turns out to be 25 . This so happens because on preprocessing the arithmetic statement takes the following form:
$a=25 / 5^{\circ} 5$;
[10] Leaving a blank space between the macro template and the macro expansion.
\#define ABS (a) ( $a=0$ ? $a:-a)$
Here, the space between ABS and (a) makes the preprocessor believe that you want to expand ABS into (a), which is certainly not what you want.
[11] Using an expression that has side effects in a macro call.

```
#define SUM (a)(a+a)
main()
{
    int w,b=5;
    w = SUM(b++);
    printf ("n%%", w );
}
```

On preprocessing, the macro would be expanded to,
$w=(b++)+(b++)$;
If you are wanting to first get sum of 5 and 5 and then increment $\mathbf{b}$ to 6 , that would not happen using the above macro definition.
[12] Confusing a character constant and a character string.
In the statement
ch = 'z' ;
a single character is assigned to ch. In the statement
ch = 'z";
a pointer to the character string " $a$ " is assigned to $\mathbf{c h}$.
Note that in the first case, the declaration of ch would be, char ch;
whereas in the second case it would be,
char *ch;
[13] Forgetting the bounds of an array.

```
main()
{
    int num[50], i;
    for (i=1;i<= 50;i++ )
        num[i] = i* i;
}
```

Here, in the array num there is no such element as num[50], since array counting begins with 0 and not 1 . Compiler would not give a warning if our program exceeds the bounds. If not taken care of, in extreme cases the above code might even hang the computer.
[14] Forgetting to reserve an extra location in a character array for the null terminator.

Remember each character array ends with a ' 10 ', therefore its dimension should be declared big enough to hold the normal characters as well as the ' 10 '.

For example, the dimension of the array word [ ] should be 9 if a string "Jamboree" is to be stored in it.
[15] Confusing the precedences of the various operators.

```
main()
{
    char ch;
    FLLE *f;
    fp = fopen("text.c", "r");
    while (ch = getc ( fp )!= EOF )
        putch (ch);
    fclose (fp);
}
```

Here, the value returned by gete( ) will be first compared with EOF, since $!=$ has a higher priority than $=$. As a result, the value that is assigned to ch will be the true/false result of the test-1 if the value returned by gete( ) is not equal to EOF and 0 otherwise. The correct form of the above while would be,
while ( (ch = getc ( fp ) )! ! EOF ) putch (ch);
[16] Confusing the operator $->$ with the operator . while referring to a structure element.

Remember, on the left of the operator . only a structure variable can occur, whereas on the left of the operator $\rightarrow$ only a pointer to a structure can occur. Following example demonstrates this.

## 710

```
{
    struct emp
    l
        char name[35];
        int age ;
    };
    struct empe = {"Dubhashi", 40};
    struct emp *ee ;
    printf("ln%d", e.age );
    ee=&e;
    printf("n%%d", ee->>age );
}
```

[17] Forgetting to use the far keyword for referring memory locations beyond the data segment.

```
main()
{
    unsigned int *s ;
    s=0\times413;
    printf ( "ln%d", *s );
}
```

Here, it is necessary to use the keyword far in the declaration of variable $s$, since the address that we are storing in $s(0 \times 413)$ is a address of location present in BIOS Data Area, which is far away from the data segment. Thus, the correct declaration would look like,
unsigned int far *s:
The far pointers are 4-byte pointers and are specific to DOS. Under Windows every pointer is 4 -byte pointer.
[18] Exceeding the range of integers and chars.

```
main()
{
    char ch;
        for (ch=0 ; ch <=255;ch++)
        printf( "ln%c %d", ch, ch );
}
```

Can you believe that this is an indefinite loop? Probably, a closer look would confirm it. Reason is, ch has been declared as a char and the valid range of char constant is -128 to +127 . Hence, the moment ch tries to become 128 (through ch++), the value of character range is exceeded, therefore the first number from the negative side of the range, -128 , gets assigned to ch. Naturally the condifion is satisfied and the control remains within the loop externally.

# Hexadecimal Numbering 

- Numbering Systems
- Relation Between Binary and Hex

while working with computers we are often required to use hexadecimal numbers. The reason for this iseverything a computer does is based on binary numbers, and hexadecimal notation is a convenient way of expressing binary numbers. Before justifying this statement let us first discuss what numbering systems are, why computers use binary numbering sy 4 cm . fay binary and hexadecimal numbering systems are reiated and how to use hexadecimal numbering system in everyday life.

## Numbering Systems

When we talk about different numbering systems we are really talking about the base of the numbering system. For example, binary numbering system has base 2 and hexadecimal numbering system has base 16 , just the way decimal numbering system has base 10 . What in fact is the 'base' of the numbering system? Base represents number of digits you can use before you run out of digits. For example, in decimal numbering system, when we have used digits from 0 to 9 , we run out of digits. That's the time we put a 1 in the column to the left - the ten's column - and start again in the one's column with 0 , as shown below:

0
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9 last available digit
10 start using a new column

Since decimal numbering system is a base 10 numbering system any number in it is constructed using some combination of digits 0 to 9 . This seems perfectly natural. However, the choice of 10 as a base is quite arbitrary, having its origin possibly in the fact that man has 10 fingers. It is very easy to use other bases as well. For example, if we wanted to use base 8 or octal numbering system, which uses only eight digits ( 0 to 7 ), here's how the counting would look like:

Similarly, a hexadecimal numbering system has a base 16 . In hex notation, the ten digits 0 through 9 are used to represent the values zero through nine, and the remaining six values, ten through fifteen, are represented by symbols A to $F$. The hex digits A to F are usually written in capitals, but lowercase letters are also perfectly acceptable. Here is how the counting in hex would look like:

2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
A
B
C
D
E
F last available digit
10 start using a new column
11

Many other numbering systems can also be imagined. For example, we use a base 60 numbering system, for measuring minutes and seconds. From the base 12 system we retain our 12 hour system for time, the number of inches in a foot and so on. The moral is that any base can be used in a numbering system, although some bases are convenient than others.

The hex numbers are built out of hex digits in much the same way the decimal numbers are built out of decimal digits. For example, when we write the decimal number 342 , we mean,

3 times 100 (square of 10 )
+4 times 10
+2 times 1
Similarly, if we use number 342 as a hex number, we mean,
3 times 256 (square of 16)
+4 times 16
+2 times 1

## Relation Between Binary and Hex

As it turns out, computers are more comfortable with binary numbering system. In a binary system, there are only two digits 0 and 1 . This means you can't count very far before you need to start using the next column:

## 0

1 last available digit
10 start using a new column
11

Binary numbering system is a natural system for computers because each of the thousands of electronic circuits in the computer can be in one of the two states-on or off. Thus, binary numbering system corresponds nicely with the circuits in the computer- 0 means off, and 1 means on. 0 and 1 are called bits, a short-form of binary digits.

Hex numbers are used primarily as shorthand for binary numbers that the computers work with. Every hex digit represents four bits of binary information (Refer Figure D.1). In binary numbering system 4 bits taken at a time can give rise to sixteen different numbers, so the only way to represent each of these sixteen 4-bit binary numbers in a simple and short way is to use a base sixteen numbering system.

Suppose we want to represent a binary number 11000101 in a short way. One way is to find it decimal equivalent by multiplying each binary digit with an appropriate power of 2 as shown below:

$$
1^{*} 2^{7}+1^{*} 2^{6}+0 * 2^{5}+0 * 2^{4}+0 * 2^{3}+1 * 2^{2}+0 * 2^{1}+1^{*} 2^{0}
$$

which is equal to 197.

| Hex | Binary | Hex | Binary |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0000 | 8 | 1000 |
| 1 | 0001 | 9 | 1001 |
| 2 | 0010 | A | 1010 |
| 3 | 0011 | B | 1011 |
| 4 | 0100 | C | 1100 |
| 5 | 0101 | D | 1101 |
| 6 | 0110 | E | 1110 |
| 7 | 0111 | F | 1111 |

Figure D. 1
Another method is much simpler. Just look at Figure D.1. From it find out the hex digits for the two four-bit sets (1100 and 0101). These happen to be C and 5. Therefore, the binary number's hex equivalent is C5. You would agree this is a easier way to represent the binary number than to find its decimal equivalent. In this method neither multiplication nor addition is needed. In fact, since there are only 16 hex digits, it's fairly easy to memorize the binary equivalent of each one. Quick now, what's binary 1100 in hex? That's right C. You are already getting the feel of it. With a little practice it is easy to translate even long numbers into hex. Thus, 1100010100111010 binary is C53A hex.

As it happens with many unfamiliar subjects, learning hexadecimal 'requires a little practice. Try your hand at converting some binary numbers and vice versa. Soon you will be talking hexadecimal as if you had known it all your life.

## E ASCII Chart

There are 256 distinct characters used by IBM compatible family of microcomputers. Their values range from 0 to 255 . These can be grouped as under:

| Character Type | No. of Characters |
| :--- | :--- |
| Capital letters | 26 |
| Small-case Letters | 26 |
| Digits | 10 |
| Special Symbols | 32 |
| Control Character | 34 |
| Graphics Character | 128 |
| Total | 256 |

Figure E. 1
Out of the 256 character set, the first 128 are often called ASCII characters and the next 128 as Extended ASCII characters. Each ASCII character has a unique appearance. The following simple program can generate the ASCII chart:

```
main()
{
    int ch ;
    for (ch=0; ch <<= 255; ch++)
        printf("%d %cln", ch, ch );
}
```

This chart is shown on the following page. Out of the 128 graphic characters (Extended ASCII characters), there are characters that are used for drawing single line and double line boxes in text mode. For convenience these characters are shown in Figure E.2.


Figure E. 2
722

| 岂 |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\stackrel{\text { y }}{\substack{\text { mu }}}$ |  |
| 息 |  |
| $\stackrel{\text { y }}{\stackrel{3}{\pi}}$ |  |
| 句 |  |
| $\frac{ \pm}{3}$ |  |
| 宸 | ．．－O－Nm大iorma．．．v\｜Ar．（e）＜ |
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F Helper.h File

725

## LRESULT CALLBACK WndProc ( HWND, UINT, WPARAM, LPARAM ) ;

HINSTANCE hinst ; // current instance
/* FUNCTION: Initlnstance ( HANDLE, int
PURPOSE: Saves instance handle and creates main window
COMMENTS: In this function, we save the instance handle in a global variable and create and display the main program window.
*
BOOL Initlnstance ( HINSTANCE hinstance, int nCmdShow, char* pTitle ) \{
char classname[]= "MyWindowClass" : HWND hWnd ;

WNDCLASSEX wcex :

```
wcex.cbSize = sizeof (WNDCLASSEX);
wcex.style = CS_HREDRAW |CS_VREDRAW;
wcex.IpfnWndProc =(WNDPROC)WndProc :
wcex.cbClsExtra =0;
wcex.cbWndExtra =0;
wcex.hinstance = hinstance;
wcex.hicon = NULL;
wcex.hCursor = LoadCursor (NULL, IDC_ARROW );
wcex.hbrBackground =(HBRUSH)(COLOR_WINDOW + 1);
wcex.IpszMenuName = NULL;
wcex.lpszClassName = classname;
wcex.hiconSm = NULL;
```

if (!RegisterClassEx ( \&wcex ))
return FALSE ;
hlnst = hinstance ; // Store instance handle in our global variable

```
hWnd = CreateWindow ( classname, pTitle,
                                    WS_OVERLAPPEDWINDOW,
                                    CW_USEDEFAULT, 0, CW_USEDEFAULT, 0, NULL,
                                    NULL, hinstance, NULL ) ;
if (!hWnd)
```


## return FALSE ;

ShowWindow ( hWnd, nCmdShow ); UpdateWindow ( hWnd ) ;
return TRUE :

## G Boot Parameters

The disk drives in DOS and Windows are organized as zerobased drives. That is, drive A is drive number 0 , drive B is drive number 1 , drive C is drive number 2 , etc. The hard disk drive can be further partitioned into logical partitions. Each drive consists of four logical parts-Boot Sector, File Allocation Table (FAT), Directory and Data space. When a file/directory is created on the disk, instead of allocating a sector for it, a group of sectors is allocated. This group of sectors is often known as a cluster. How many sectors together form one cluster depends upon the capacity of the disk. As the capacity goes on increasing, so also does the maximum cluster number. Accordingly, we have 12 -bit, 16 -bit or 32 -bit FAT. In a 12 -bit FAT each entry is of 12 bits. Since each entry in FAT represents a cluster number, the maximum cluster number possible in a 12 -bit FAT is $2^{12}$ (4096). Similarly, in case of a 16 -bit FAT the maximum cluster number is $2^{16}(65536)$. Also, for a 32 -bit FAT the maximum cluster number is $2^{28}$ (268435456. Only 28 of the 32 bits are used in this FAT). All FAT systems are not supported by all versions of DOS and Windows. For example, the 32 -bit FAT system is supported only in Win 95 OSR2 version or later. There are differences in the organization of contents of Boot Sector, FAT and Directory in FAT12/FAT16 system on one hand and FAT32 on the other.

In Chapter 19 Figure 19.6 we saw the breakup of the contents of the boot sector of a 12 -bit FAT. Given below are the contents of a boot sector of 16 -bit FAT and a 32 -bit FAT.

| Description | Length | Typical Values |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Jump instruction | 3 | EB3C90 |
| OEM name | 8 | MSWIN4.1 |
| Bytes per sector | 2 | 512 |
| Sectors per cluster | 1 | 64 |
| Reserved sectors | 2 | 1 |
| Number of FAT copies | 1 | 2 |
| Max. Root directory entries | 2 | 512 |
| Total sectors | 2 | 0 |
| Media descriptor | 1 | F8 |
| Sectors per FAT | 2 | 256 |
| Sectors per track | 2 | 63 |
| No. of sides | 2 | 255 |
| Hidden sectors | 4 | 63 |
| Huge sectors | 4 | 4192902 |
| BIOS drive number | 1 | 128 |
| Reserved sectors | 1 | 1 |
| Boot signature | 1 | 41 |
| Volume ID | 4 | 4084677574 |
| Volume label | 11 | ICIT |
| File system type | 8 | FAT16 |

Figure G. 1
Let us now take a look at the 32 -bit FAT system's boot sector contents. These are shown in Figure G.2.

| Description | Length | Typical Values |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Jump instruction | 3 | EB5890 |
| OEM name | 8 | MSWIN4.1 |
| Bytes per sector | 2 | 512 |
| Sectors per cluster | 1 | 8 |
| Reserved sectors | 2 | 51 |
| Number of FAT copies | 1 | 2 |
| Root directory entries | 2 | 0 |
| Total sectors | 2 | 0 |
| Media descriptor | 1 | F8 |
| Sectors per FAT | 2 | 0 |
| Sectors per track | 2 | 63 |
| No. of sides | 2 | 255 |
| Hidden sectors | 2 | 63 |
| High word of hidden sectors | 4 | 63 |
| Huge sectors | 4 | 4192902 |
| High word of huge sectors | 2 | 4192902 |
| Sectors per FAT | 2 | 4095 |
| High word of sectors per FAT | 2 | 4095 |
| Drive description flag | 2 | 0 |
| File system version | 2 | 0 |
| Root directory starting cluster | 2 | 2 |
| High word of root directory | 2 | 0 |
| starting cluster | 2 | 6 |
| File system information sector | 2 |  |
| Back up boot sector | 2 |  |
| Reserved | 2 |  |

...continued

| BIOS drive number | 1 | 128 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Rescrved | 1 | 0 |
| Boot signature | 1 | 41 |
| Volume ID | 4 | 649825316 |
| Volume label | 11 | ICIT |
| File system type | 8 | FAT32 |

Figure G. 2
There are significant changes in the contents of the boo $t$ sector of a 32-bit FAT system. The entries 'Number of hidden sectors' and 'Huge sectors' have now been made 4-byte entries. The first two bytes contain the low word of the value, whereas, the next two bytes contain the high word value.

The number of sectors per FAT in a 32 -bit file system is likely to exceed what can be accommodated in two bytes. Hence the entry 'Sectors per FAT' for a disk with a 32 -bit file system would typically have a value 0 . The value of 'Sectors per FAT' is now stored as a 4-byte entity, with the similar arrangement of low word and high word as discussed earlier.

The boot sector of a 32 -bit FAT system also has new entries like 'Drive description flag', 'File system version' 'Starting cluster number of the root directory', 'Sector number of the file system information sector', and the sector number of the 'Backup boot sector'.

The 'Drive description flag' is a two-byte entity. Bit 8 of this flag indicates whether or not the information written to the active FAT will be written to all copies of the FAT. The low four bits of this entry contains the 0 -based FAT number of the active FAT. These bits are meaningful only if bit 8 is set.

In the entry 'File system version number' the high byte contains the major version number, whereas, the low byte contains the minor version number.

The entry 'File system information sector' contains a value indicating the sector number where the file system information is present. This file system information consists of the fields shown in Figure G.3.


Figure G. 3
The entry 'File information sector' contains a value OFFFFh if there is no such sector. The entry 'Backup boot sector' contains a value OFFFFh is there is no backup boot sector. Otherwise this value is any non-zero value less than the reserved sector count.

## H Linux Installation

This appendix gives the steps that are to be carried out for installing Red Hat Linux 9.0. In addition I have also indicated a few commands that are necessary to compile and execute the programs given in Chapters 20 and 21. Follow the steps mentioned below to carry out the installation.
(a) Configure the system to boot from CDROM drive.
(b) Insert the first CD in the drive and boot the system from it.
(c) Hit 'Enter' key when the 'boot' prompt appears.
(d) Select the 'Skip' option in the "CD Found" dialog box.
(e) Click on the 'Next' button in the 'Welcome' screen.
(f) Click on the 'Next' button in the 'Language selection' screen.
(g) Click on the 'Next' button in the 'Keyboard' screen.
(h) Click on the 'Next' button in the 'Mouse Configuration' screen.
(i) Select the 'Custom' option in the 'Installation Type' screen and then click on the 'Next' button.
(j) Click on the 'Next' button in the 'Disk Partitioning Setup' screen.
(k) Select the 'Keep all partitions and use existing free space' option in the 'Automatic Partitioning' screen and then click on the 'Next' button. Ignore any warnings generated by clicking on the 'OK' button.
(I) Click on the 'Next' button in the 'Boot loader configuration' screen.
(m) Click on the 'Next' button in the 'Network configuration' screen.
(n) Click on the 'Next' button in the 'Firewall configuration' screen.
(o) Click on the 'Next' button in the 'additional language support' screen.
(p) Select a suitable option in the 'Time zone offset' screen and click on the 'Next' button.
(q) Type a password for the root account in the 'Set root password' screen and then click on the 'Next' button.
(r) Click on the 'Next' button in the 'Authentication configuration' screen.
(s) In the 'Package group selection' screen make sure that you select the following options- X window system, K desktop environment, Development tools, GNOME software development and then click on the 'Next' button.
(t) Select 'No' option in the 'Boot diskette creation' screen
(u) Click on the 'Next' button in the 'Graphical Interface (x) configuration' screen.
(v) Click on the 'Next' button in the 'Monitor configuration' screen.
(w) In the 'Customize graphical configuration' screen select the 'Graphical' option and then click on 'Next' button.
(x) Once the system restarts configure the system to boot from Hard Disk.

## Using Red Hat Linux

For logging into the system enter the username and password and select the session as KDE (K Desktop Environment). Once you have logged in, to start typing the program use the following menu options:

KMenu| Run Command
A dialog would now pop up. In this dialog in the command edit box type KWrite and then click on the Ok button. Now you can type the program and save it.

To compile the program you need to go the command prompt. This can be done using the following menu option.

KMenu | System Tools | Terminal
Once at the command prompt you can use the gec compiler to compile and execute your programs. You can launch another instance of the command prompt by repeating the step mentioned above.

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