A Precedence Table

688

Description	Operator	Associativity
Function expression	0	Left to Right
Array Expression	[]	Left to Right
Structure operator	->	Left to Right
Structure operator		Left to Right
Unary minus	-	Right to left
Increment/Decrement	++	Right to Left
One's compliment	~	Right to left
Negation	1	Right to Left
Address of	&	Right to left
Value of address	*	Right to left
Type cast	(type)	Right to left
Size in bytes	sizcof	Right to left
Multiplication	•	Left to right
Division	1	Left to right
Modulus .	%	Left to right
Addition	+	Left to right
Subtraction	-	Left to right
Left shift	<<	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...

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	11	Left to right
Conditional	?:	Right to left
ssignment	=	Right to left
	*= /=	%= Right to left
		&= Right to left
	^= =	Right to left
	<<= >>=	Right to left
Comma		Right to left

Figure A1.1

В

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
- Directory 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

et alone discussing each standard 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.

Function	Use
abs	Returns the absolute value of an integer
cos	Calculates cosine
cosh	Calculates hyperbolic cosine
exp	Raises the exponential e to the xth 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
log10	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
sqrt	Finds square root
tan	Calculates tangent
tanh	Calculates hyperbolic tangent

Arithmetic 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	
gcvt	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	

Data Conversion Functions

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	

694

String Manipulation Functions

Function	Use	
strcat	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 strempi)	
strlen	Finds length of a string	
strlwr -	Converts a string to lowercase	
strncat	Appends a portion of one string to another	
strncmp	Compares a portion of one string with portion of another string	
strncpy	Copies a given number of characters of one string to another	
strnicmp	Compares a portion of one string with a portion of another without regard to case	
strrchr	Finds last occurrence of a given character in a string	
strrev	Reverses a string	
strset	Sets all characters in a string to a given character	
strstr	Finds first occurrence of a given string in another string	
strupr	Converts a string to uppercase	

Searching and Sorting Functions

Function	Use	
bsearch	Performs binary search	
lfind	Performs linear search for a given value	
gsort	Performs quick sort	

Appendix B: Standard Library Functions

I/O Functions

Function	Use	
Close	Closes a file	
fclose	Closes a file	
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 file	
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 file	
fseek	Repositions file pointer to given location	
ftell	Gets current file pointer position	
getc	Reads a character from a file (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	
lseek	Repositions file pointer to a given location	
open	Opens a file	
outport	Writes a two-byte word to the specified I/O port	19
outportb	Writes one byte to the specified I/O port	
printf	Writes formatted data to screen	
putc	Writes a character to a file (macro version)	
putch	Writes a character to the screen	
putchar	Writes a character to screen (macro version)	
puts	Writes a line to file	
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 file

File Handling Functions

Function	Use		The second s
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 component	its
findfirst	Searches a disk directory	
findnext	Continues findfirst search	
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 number of characters, of a given character in the buffer
number of characters, of a given character in the b memcmp Compares a specified number of characters from the buffers	

Appendix B: Standard Library Functions

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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	2.53	
abort	Aborts a process		
atexit	Executes function at program termination		

090	
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 list
system	Executes an MS-DOS command

Graphics Functions

608

Function	Use
arc	Draws an arc
ellipse	Draws an ellipse
floodfill	Fills an area of the screen with the current color
gctimage	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 specified point
moveto	Moves the current graphic output position to a specified point
pieslice	Draws a pie-slice-shaped figure
putimage	Retrieves an image from memory and displays it
rectangle	Draws a rectangle
setcolor	Sets the current color
setlinestyle	Sets the current line style
putpixel setviewport	Plots a pixel at a specified point Limits graphic output and positions the logical origin within the limited area

Time Related Functions

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

Appendix B: Standard Library Functions

ftime	Gets current system time as structure
strdate	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 value 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 nosound	Turns PC speaker on at specified frequency 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 Sets the current value of the specified interrupt vector
setvect	Sets the current value of the offer

C Chasing The Bugs

programmers 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 either 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)
    {
        printf ( "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 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 i, and since 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 (j <= 100);
    {
        printf ("\nCompguard");
        j++;
    }
}</pre>
```

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 (j <= 100);

This is an indefinite loop since 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 ( "\nLieutenant" );
    }
}
```

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*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%d", 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 ch.

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;
}</pre>
```

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 '\0', therefore its dimension should be declared big enough to hold the normal characters as well as the '\0'.

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;
    FILE *fp;
    fp = fopen ("text.c", "r");
    while ( ch = getc ( fp ) != EOF )
        putch ( ch );
    fclose ( fp );
}
```

Here, the value returned by getc() 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 getc() 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 -> only a pointer to a structure can occur. Following example demonstrates this.

main()

1

```
{
    struct emp
    {
        char name[35];
        int age;
    };
    struct emp e = { "Dubhashi", 40 };
    struct emp *ee;
    printf ( "\n%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 = 0x413;
    printf ( "\n%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 (0x413)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 ( "\n%c %d", ch, ch );
}</pre>
```

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 condition is satisfied and the control remains within the loop externally.

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D Hexadecimal Numbering

- Numbering Systems
- · Relation Between Binary and Hex

hile working with computers we are often required to use hexadecimal numbers. The reason for this is everything 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 system. how binary and hexadecimal numbering systems are related 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:

14

••••

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:

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 last available digit 10 start using a new column 11 12 ...

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:

0

2			
2 3 4 5			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
7 8 9 A B C			
A			
в			
С			
D			
E			
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:

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

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

which is equal to 197.

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, 1100 0101 0011 1010 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.

ASCII Chart

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0

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

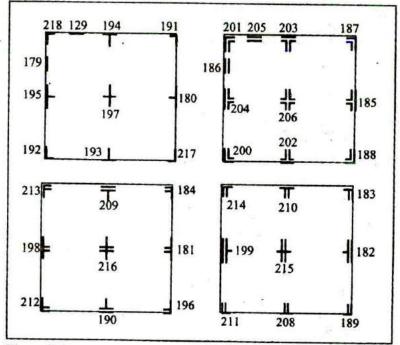
Character Type	No. of Characters
Capital letters	26
Small-case Letters	26
Digits	10
Special Symbols	32
Control Character	34
Graphics Character	128
Total	256

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 %c\n", ch, ch ) ;
}</pre>
```

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.





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Value	Char	Value	Char	Value	Char	Value	Char	Value	Char	Value	Char
				VV		66	a	88	X	110	£
	¢		!≁	45	1	67	J	86	Y	111	0
		34	+ 4	46	1, 9	68	Q	6	2	112	d
4 6	• •	1 2		47	- 1	69	ш	16		113	9
n t	•	36	• •	48	0	70	ш	92		114	L
t 4	•	27	1	49	-	11	U	93	_	115	s
n v	h 4	36	L	205	2	72	H	94	<	116	-
0 1		20	. 1	5		13	I	95		117	ŋ
- 0	• •	30		\$	4	74	5	96	•	118	>
• •		25	•	53	S	75	X	67	g	119	A
01		3		54	9	76	Ч	98	Ą	120	x
2 -	F (22	-	55	7	17	X	66	U	121	Y
12	00	44	. :	56	- 00	78	Z	100	p	122	Z
12	+ e	35	#	27	6	62	0	101	e	123	~~
21		36	. •	58		80	Р.	102	ł	124	
1 1	¢	37	%	59		81	0	103	50	125	~
2	E 🖌	8	\$	60	v	82	Я	104	ч	126	1
		30	- 1	61	ĸ	83	S	165	.1	127	H
101		40	1	5	٨	84	L	106		128	C
0	→ =	2 .		53	6	85	Ŋ	107	×	129	ü
200		47	•	3 2	0	86	>	108	-	130	·v
35	= 00	43	+	65	×	87	W	109	E	131	53×

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ppena	1 D. 1	Appendix D. ADOM Churt	1471								-
Value	Char	Value	Char	Value	Char	Value	Char	Value	Char	Value	Char
132	ω.	154	0	176	***	198	-	220	•	242	~
133	<u>م</u>	155	R.	177	likk	199	Ŧ	221	-	243	
134	220	156	ħ	178		200	(=	222	-	244	- 1
135	C	157	¥	179		201	า	223		245	
136	æ	158	₹	180	-	202	⊫	224	P .	246	+ ·
137	0:	159	f	181	╨	203	41	225	8	247	13
138	o -	160	в,	182	-	204	-1-	226	٦	248	0
139	-1	161		183	3	205	11	227	4	249	•
140	-,	162	0.	184	للہ	206	₽	228	М	250	•
141		163	E ,	185	<u></u>	207	⊩	229	a	251	e
142	×	164	34	186		208	Ħ	230	F	252	ц
143	A	165	Z	187	ĩ	209	1	231	7	253	2
44	Ē	166		188	۲	210	1	232	Ð	254	
145	8	167	•	189	L	211	F	233	θ	255	
146	Æ	168	:	190	u _	212	n-	234	5		
147	o	169	٦	191	J	213	Π	235	07		
148	01	170	1	192	-	214	7	236	8		
149	ò	171	1/2	193	F	215	+	237	9		
150	Þ	172	1/4	194	4	216	#	238	Ð		
151	Ę.	173		195	-	217	L	239	٦		
152	<:	174	*	196	I	218	٦	240	80		

*

F Helper.h File

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

HINSTANCE hInst ; // current instance

```
/* FUNCTION: InitInstance (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 InitInstance (HINSTANCE hInstance, int nCmdShow, char* pTitle ) {
```

```
char classname[] = "MyWindowClass" ;
HWND hWnd ;
```

```
WNDCLASSEX wcex :
wcex.cbSize
                   = sizeof ( WNDCLASSEX ) ;
                  = CS HREDRAW | CS VREDRAW ;
wcex.style
                  = ( WNDPROC ) WndProc ;
wcex.lpfnWndProc
wcex.cbClsExtra
                   = 0 ;
                 = 0 :
wcex.cbWndExtra
wcex.hinstance
                  = hinstance :
wcex hicon
                 = NULL :
                = LoadCursor ( NULL, IDC_ARROW );
wcex.hCursor
wcex.hbrBackground = (HBRUSH)(COLOR_WINDOW + 1);
wcex.lpszMenuName = NULL;
wcex.lpszClassName = classname ;
wcex.hlconSm
                   = NULL :
```

if (!RegisterClassEx (&wcex)) return FALSE :

hInst = 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) ; 727

.

.

return TRUE ;

}

.

.

-

G Boot Parameters

he 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 212 (4096). Similarly, in case of a 16-bit FAT the maximum cluster number is 2¹⁶ (65536). Also, for a 32-bit FAT the maximum cluster number is 2²⁸ (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
lump instruction	3	EB3C90
DEM 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
lump instruction	3	EB5890
DEM 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 starting cluster	2	2
File system information sector	2	1
Back up boot sector	2	6
Reserved	6	0

continued ...

BIOS drive number	1	128
Reserved	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.

Description	Length
File system signature	4
Total number of free clusters	4
Sector number of the next free cluster	4
Reserved	6

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.
- 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.
- 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 gcc compiler to compile and execute your programs. You can launch another instance of the command prompt by repeating the step mentioned above. \$2

5

Index

!

0, 328, 329, 330, 331 1, 64, 72 !=, 51 #define, 244, 245, 247 #elif, 258 #clse, 257, 258 #endif, 255, 256, 258 #if, 258 #ifdef, 255, 256, 257 #ifndef, 257 #include, 253, 254, 258 #pragma pack, 382, 630 #pragma, 261, 263 #undef, 260 %=, 106 &&. 64 &, 180 •, 180, 182 ·=, 106 ++, 106 +=, 106 -=, 106 /=, 106 <, 51 <=. 51 ==, 51, 52 >, 475 >, 51 >=, 51 >>, 486 ? :, 76 1,64 521 _____cdecl, 555 decispec (dllexport), 640 stdcall, 555, 556

A

Actual arguments, 167, 189 Address of operator, 180 API Functions, 547 Application Message Queues, 552 arge, 466, 468, 556 argy, 466, 468, 556 Array, 270, 271, 272, 279, 344 Аггау Accessing Elements, 273 Bounds Checking, 276 Declaration, 272 Initialisation, 275 Memory representation, 283, 287 of characters, 328 of pointers to strings, 347 of pointers, 300, 347, 348, 351 of structures, 371, 373 Passing to function, 277, 286 Reading data, 274 Storing data, 273 Three dimensional, 302 Two dimensional, 289 Associativity, 34 atof(). auto, 225, 228, 234

B

BeginPaint(), 588 Binary Files, 434 bioscom(), 622 Bit Fields, 513, 515 BitBlt(), 604, 605, 606, 612 -Bitwise Operators, 482 Blocking Signals, 675 BOOL, 537 Boot Parameters, 629 Boot Sector, 626 Bounds checking, 333 break, 118, 123, 138 BUTTON, 564

C

C++, 3 Call by Reference, 178, 188 Call by Value, 178, 186 CALLBACK, 568, 572 Calling Convention, 172 CapsLock, 637

Index

case, 136 Character Set. 5 Character, 10 Child process, 655 CloseHandle(), 632, 647 COLORREF, 537 Command line arguments, 466 Comment, 15 Communication using Signals, 668 Communication with keyboard, 634 Communication with storage devices, 626, 633 Compilation, 19 Compiler, 214, 215, 221 Compiler 16-bit, 214 32-bit, 214 Compound assignment operators, 106 Conditional Compilation, 255 Conditional Operators, 76 Console I/O, 395 Console I/O functions, 395, 396 Console I/O Functions formatted, 395, 396 unformatted, 395, 405 const. 340, 341, 342 Constants, 6, 7 Context Switch, 654 continue, 120, 123 Control Instructions Decision making Instructions, 50 Loops, 98 Control Instructions cpp. 252 CPU registers, 544 CPU registers, 621 CreateCompatibleDC(), 606 CreateFile(), 631, 647 CreateFontIndirect(), 585 CreateHatchBrush(), 594 CreatePatternBrush(), 595 CreatePen(), 592 CreateSolidBrush(), 588, 594 CreateWindow(), 565, 570

D

Data space, 626 Data Type enum, 506, 507 Database Management, 441 Decision Control Instructions switch, 136 Decision Making Instructions, 50 default, 136 DefWindowProc(), 572, 576 DeleteObject(), 586, 590 Dennis Ritchie, 2, 42 Device context, 580, 581 Device driver, 623 Directory, 626 Disk Bootstrap Program, 629 DispatchMessage(), 571, 572 DLL, 548 DIIMain(), 639 double, 219 do-while, 98, 121 DrawText(), 586 Dynamic Linking, 635

E

EDIT, 564 Ellipse(), 589 else, 50, 61, 66, 144 EndPaint(), 586 cnum, 506, 509 EOF, 469 Escape Sequences, 401 Event Driven Model, 551 exec. 659 execl(), 659, 664 execle(), 659 Execution, 19 execv(), 659 execvp(), 659 Exported functions, 640 expose_event, 683, 684 extern, 234

F

fclose(), 422, 472 feof(), 469 ferror(), 470, 471 fflush(), 432 fg command, 673, 685 fgetc(), 420, 424, 448, 469, 471, 472 fgets(), 430 File Allocation Table, 626 File I/O, 395, 416 File I/O Opening Modes, 426 FILE BEGIN, 632 FILE SHARE READ, 631 float, 219 Floating Point Emulator, 222 Floppy disk Logical structure, 627 fopen(), 418, 419, 421, 426, 452, 470, 472 for, 98, 107, 110, 115 fork(), 655, 656, 657, 664 Formal arguments, 167, 170 Format Specifications, 397 Format specifiers, 18 fprintf(), 430 fputc(), 422, 424, 425, 448, 473 fputchar(), 407 fputs(), 427, 428, 430 fread(), 441, 446 fscanf(), 431 fseek(), 446, 447 ftell(), 447 Functions, 158, 165 Functions Adding to library, 197, 200 Called function, 159, 162, 163, 164 Calling function, 159 definition, 162, 163 Passing values, 166 Prototype declaration, 175, 177 Returning from, 168, 169, 170 returning pointers, 518 Scope, 171

variable arguments, 520 fwrite(), 441, 446, 448

G

g signal connect(), 680, 683, 685 gcc, 653, 664 GDI, 581, 582 gdk draw arc(), 684 gdk draw line(), 684 gdk_draw_polygon(), 684 gdk draw rectangle(), 684 gdk_gc_new(), 684 gdk gc unref(), 684 GENERIC READ, 631 **GENERIC WRITE, 633** getc(), 420, 422 getch(), 406 getchar(), 406 getche(), 406 GetClientRect(), 612 GetCommandLine(), 557 GetDC(), 600 GetKeyState(), 642 GetMessage(), 571 getpid(), 655 getppid(), 658 gets(), 407, 408, 409, 333, 334 goto, 145 gotoxy(), 442 GTK library, 678 gtk init(), 680 gtk_main(), 681 gtk_main_quit(), 680 gtk_widget_set_size_request(), 680 gtk widget_show(), 681 gtk window_new(), 680 gtk_window_set_title(), 680 GTK WINDOW TOPLEVEL, 680 GtkWidget, 680

H

HANDLE, 537 Handling Multiple Signals, 671 Hardware Interaction, 618

Index

Hardware Interaction DOS Perspective, 619 Windows Perspective, 623 HC_ACTION, 642, 644 HINSTANCE, 556 HS_CROSS, 594 Hungarian Notation, 558

I

I/O Redirection, 473 Input, 476 Input/Output, 477 Output, 474 if, 50, 51, 56, 61, 66, 144 Init, 658, 661, 664 InitInstance(), 570, 571, 572, 595 Instructions, 23 Instructions Arithmetic Instruction, 23, 25 Control Instruction, 23 Type Declaration Instruction, 23, 24 int, 537 Integer, 8 Integers, 214 Integrated Development Environment (IDE), 19 Interrupt Descriptor Table, 623 Interrupt Service Routines, 619 Interrupt Vector Table, 619 Interrupts, 544, 621 inthandler(), 672

J

Java, 3

K

K Desktop environment (KDE), 653 Kernel routine, 623 Kernel, 623 Kernighan and Ritchie, 168 Keyboard messages, 636 KeyLogger, 645 Keywords, 6, 12 Kill, 664, 672, 684 KillTimer(), 613 KWrite, 652

L

LineTo(), 589 Linus Torvalds, 650 Linux, 3, 19, 536, 650 Linux Event Driven programming, 678 Orphan, 661, 664 Preemptive scheduling, 654 Process Table, 660 process, 654 Shell, 661 Zombie, 661, 664 LISTBOX, 564 LoadBitmap(), 595 LoadLibrary(), 641 LOGFONT, 585 Logical Operators, 64 long int, 537 long, 214, 215, 216 Loops, 98, 114 Loops do-while, 98, 121 for, 98, 107, 110, 115 while, 98, 99, 101 Low Level Disk I/O, 447 LPARAM, 537 **LPSTR, 556** LRESULT, 568, 572 Is command, 660 Lvalue, 77

M

Macro Expansion, 244 main(), 16 MAKEINTRESOURCE, 595 malloc(), 352, 353 Mangling Keys, 644 MessageBox(), 557, 562, 566 Microprocessor 16-bit, 214 32-bit, 214 MK_LBUTTON, 600 MoveToEx(), 589, 600 MSG, 571 Multi tasking, 540

N

Negative numbers, 222 Storing, 222

0

O APPEND, 450 O BINARY, 451 **O CREAT**, 451 O RDWR, 451 O TEXT, 451 O WRONLY, 451 OnCreate(), 610 OnCreate(), 641 OnDestroy(), 572, 641 OnLButtonDown(), 599, 600 OnMouseMove(), 600 OnPaint(), 585, 586, 590 OnTimer(), 610, 612 open(), 450, 452 **OPEN EXISTING, 632** Operator .. 380 ->, 380 >,475 AND, 493 Bitwise, 482 Left Shift, 488 One's Complement, 484 OR, 498 Right Shift, 486 XOR, 499 Operators, 17, 73 Operators Address of, 180 Associativity, 34

Compound assignment operators, 106 Conditional Operators, 76 Logical Operators, 64 Relational Operators, 51 Value at address, 180, 278

P

Page Directory Table, 542 Page Table, 542 Page-in operation, 541 PAINTSTRUCT, 585 Parent process, 655 perror(), 471 PlaySound(), 612, 613 **POINT, 589** Pointer, 185, 330 Pointers, 178, 179, 184, 279, 292, 295, 300, 334, 347, 539 Pointers to an Array, 295 to functions, 515 Polygon (), 589 Preprocessor Directives Conditional Compilation, 255 File Inclusion, 253 Macro, 244, 248, 252 Preprocessor, 242 printf(), 18, 396, 471 PRN, 476 Processes ID (PID), 654 Programming Model, 543, 547 Programming Model Event Driven, 551, 562 Sequential, 543 Windows, 547 Prototype Declaration, 175, 177 ps command, 658, 664 putc(), 474 putch(), 407, 425 putchar(), 407 puts(), 333, 334, 407, 408, 409

Index

R

rand(), 612 read(), 452 ReadFile(), 632, 647 Real, 9 Record I/O, 430; 437 Rectangle(), 589 Recursion, 189, 193, 194 register, 227, 234 RegisterClassEx(), 570 Relational Operators, 51 ReleaseDC(), 600 return, 168, 169 rewind(), 446 RGB(), 586 ROM-BIOS functions, 622 RoundRect(), 589

S

S IREAD, 451 S IWRITE, 451 scanf(), 21, 22, 396 Scheduler, 654 SEEK_CUR, 447 SEEK END, 447 SelectObject(), 586 SetCapture(), 601 SetFilePointer(), 632 SetPixel(), 599 SetTextColor(), 586 SetTimer(), 611 short int, 537 short, 214, 215, 216 ShowWindow(), 565, 570 sigaddset(), 677 SIGCONT, 669, 672, 673, 685 sigemptyset(), 677 sighandler(), 670, 674 SIGINT, 669, 684 SIGKILL, 669, 672 signal(), 669, 672 Signal, 668, 684 signed, 214, 216, 217 sigprocmask(), 677, 685

sigset 1, 677 SIGSTOP, 673, 685 SIGTERM, 672, 684 sizcof(), 439 SND ASYNC, 613 SND FILENAME, 613 sprintf(), 404, 405 srand(). 613 SRCCOPY, 607 sscanf(), 404, 405 Standard Library Functions, 335 static, 228, 229, 230, 234 stdaux, 472 stdprn, 472, 473 Storage Class, 223, 226, 227, 230, 233 Storage Classes Automatic, 224 External, 230 Register, 226 Static, 227 strcat(), 342 strcat, 336 strchr(), 336 stremp(), 336, 343, 344, 346 strcmpi(), 336 strcpy(), 339, 340 strcpy, 336 strdup(), 336 stricmp(), 336 String I/O, 427 Strings Bounds checking, 333 Strings. 328, 329, 334, 347 strien(), 337 strlen, 336 strlwr, 336 strncat, 336 stmcmp(), 336 strncpy, 336 stmicmp(), 336 stmset(), 336 strrchr(), 336 strrev(), 336 strsct(), 336 strstr(), 336

746

struct, 367 Structure, 364, 366, 374, 383 Structure Accessing elements, 370 Declaration, 367 Variables, 368 strupr, 336 SVGA, 580 SW_SHOWNORMAL, 565 switch, 50, 136, 144 System Message Queue, 552, 637

Т

termhandler(), 672 Text Files, 434 TextOut(), 586 Three dimensional array, 302 time(), 613 Two dimensional array, 344, 348 Type Conversion, 29 Type Declaration Instruction, 24 Typecasting, 511 typedef, 506; 510, 511, 537, 538, 556, 572

U

un-catchable signals, 672 Unhook WindowsHookEx(), 642 UNIX, 3, 650 unsigned, 214, 216, 217

V

Value at address operator, 180, 278 Variables, 6, 11 VDU, 473 VGA, 580 void, 177

W

waitpid(), 662, 664 while, 98, 99, 101 WIFEXITED(), 663 Window Class, 564 Window Class BUTTON, 564 EDIT, 564 LISTBOX, 564 Windows Hooks, 635 Windows, 536, 537 WinMain(), 555, 556, 557, 562, 566, 571, 595 WM CHAR, 634 WM CLOSE, 573 WM_CREATE, 610, 640 WM DESTROY, 572, 573, 640 WM KEYDOWN, 634 WM KEYUP, 634 WM LBUTTONDOWN, 596, 599 WM LBUTTONUP, 596 WM MOUSEMOVE, 596 WM PAINT, 585 WM QUIT, 571, 572, 576 WM TIMER, 610, 611 WNDCLASSEX, 569, 572 WndProc(), 568, 571, 585, 597, 599, 600 WPARAM, 537 WriteFile(), 632, 647 WS OVERLAPPEDWINDOW, 565

X

XGA, 580