

## Lecture 03

### I/O, Functions, Strings, Arrays

#### In this lecture

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- **File I/O**
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#### Input and Output

Input/output(I/O) is fundamental to any programming language. Most programming languages provide built-in I/O routines or provide libraries that can be used to do I/O operations. In C, I/O operations can be performed by using stdio.h. You are encouraged to type at the Unix prompt:

```
>man stdio.h
```

To read about this standard buffered input/output routines.

(if you see : press space bar to go to next page. Type Q to quit man pages)

Files are treated as streams of data that can come from terminal or from an external storage device such as tape or disk. Files can be treated as ASCII or can be treated as binary files. All bytes in an ASCII file are expected to be represented using a character in ASCII table and it is possible to edit those files. For example any .txt file is an ASCII file. C compiler provides three standard IO references.

STDIN – refers to Standard input device (typically a keyboard)

STDOUT – defines standard output device (typically a terminal)

STDERR – defines a device where the errors are recorded.

There are two stdio.h functions that can be used for this processing data. fprintf is used for formatted output while fscanf is used for formatted input.

#### Writing output to STDOUT

Let us look at fprintf first. This is a function with variable number of arguments. Here is an example.

```
fprintf(STDIN, "This is a test %d %.4f %10.2f %c\n",134,56.455, 3355.5346, 65);
```

The prototype of fprintf is: int fprintf(FILE\* fp, char \*S, arg1, arg2, ...)

Where S typically called a format string that contains regular characters (eg: "This is ..") and specification of conversion of arguments. For example first specification %d in the

example instructs the compiler to replace %d by the decimal representation of 134, the first argument. The number of format specifications inside the format string must match the number of arguments. Although the program will compile w/o the equal number of matching arguments, the output can be erroneous.

The formatting statements such as %10.2f are used to format your output to 10 total spaces (blanks in front) and 2 decimal places. A list of format characters can be found in Table 7-1 on page 154 on K&R.

If you are interested in outputting the characters to terminal then you can use the function: `int putchar(int)`

For example if you need to write the character 'c' to terminal then you may write: `putchar('c')` or `putchar(99)` where 99 is the ASCII value of character 'c'. `putchar` returns the ASCII value of the same character or EOF if an error occurs.

### Reading input from STDIN

Function `scanf` can be used to read input from STDIN. For example, if you need to read an integer from STDIN to integer variable `x`, then you can write; **`scanf("%d", &x);`**

Note that `scanf` requires a format statement ("`%d`") and "address" of the variable that input is read into. Each variable is given a location in the memory and `&x` indicates the actual memory location for `x`. You can see this memory location by typing `printf("%x", &x);` What you will see is a 32 bit address variable for `x` given as a hexadecimal(base-16) number. `scanf` stops when its exhaust the input string. `scanf` returns the number of successful matches. Basic `scanf` conversions can be found on Table 7-2 on page 158.

If you dealing with a stream of characters from keyboard you can use the function: `int getchar(void)`

`getchar` returns the ASCII value of the next input character or EOF, a constant defined in `stdio.h` Another function that may be of use is the `sscanf`. The prototype for `sscanf` is:

**`int sscanf(char*S,char* format, arg1, arg2,...)`**

Where it scans the string `S` according to the format statement order of args. Blanks within the format statement are ignored. It is important that arguments to `scanf` statement are addresses of variables.

### Reading "Characters" from stdin

You need to be extra careful about reading characters from `stdin`. If you just want to read one character from the `stdin` (for example, to get a menu option) one problem may be that the linefeed character (ASCII=10) may still be in the buffer waiting to be read. Although you might think that you can flush the buffer using `fflush`, `fflush(stdin)` does not work in some systems. One possibility is to write a dummy function

```
int flush(){
    char ch;
    fscanf(STDIN, "%c", ch);
}
```

To flush just the line feed character. After reading a character from the stdin, just call flush to do the cleanup. Here is a simple program (courtesy Tim Hoffman) that illustrates some of the concepts.

```
/* hello.c
   Illustrates: fprintf, fflush, stdin, stdout
   Author: Tim Hoffman
*/

#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>

int main( int argc, char *argv[] )
{
    int x,y;
    fprintf(STDOUT,"Hello World: Enter two small positive numbers for x and y: ");
    fflush(stdout); /* needed because output streams are buffered */
    fscanf(STDIN, "%d %d", &x, &y);
    fprintf(STDOUT,"\nYou entered %d for x and %d for y\n", x,y);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

### File I/O

Any file is treated as a stream of bytes ending with the EOF character. However there is a distinction between text file and a binary file. A text file is considered a file of readable characters with lines ending with newline('\n') character. Here is an example of a text file.

10\n
20\n
eof

A binary file on the other hand is a sequence of bytes stored in a file. So if your intention is to store 10 and 20 in the file, you can store them very compactly using just two bytes.

0000101000010100
------------------

The trick is that you need to know how to read the data from the binary file since there are no newline or EOF characters or spaces that separates the data.

## Reading from a File

A file can be considered a data stream and the first part of reading from a file is to open up a pointer to that file. For example;

```
FILE* fp; // defines a pointer to any file (input/output/text/binary)
```

To open a file for reading we simply use the fopen function defined in stdio.

```
fp = fopen(filename, "r");
```

This indicates that the file with the filename(a string) is open for read only. We can combine the two statements for example by writing

```
FILE* fp = fopen("data.txt", "r");
```

Available file opening modes are "r" = read, "w" = write and "a" = append. Some systems may require binary files to open with "b" mode. So you may write:

```
FILE* fp = fopen("data.bin", "rb");
```

If the file cannot be open fopen will return NULL. You need to check this before starting to read data from the file.

There are two functions that can be used to read from a file. fscanf and fprintf. The function prototype for fscanf is

```
int fscanf(FILE* fp, const char* format, aorg1, arg2, ...);
```

fscanf reads formatted data from a file stream fp and stores them in arguments according to the format statement given.

For example if a file data.txt contains two short ints

10
20

Then you can read two numbers in the file by;

```
FILE* fp = fopen("data.txt", "r");  
int x, y;  
fscanf(fp, "%d %d", &x, &y);
```

## WRITING TO A FILE

We can open a file as

```
FILE* fout = fopen("out.txt","w");
```

This opens the out.txt in your working directory (it creates a new one if it does not exist) for writing. We can write, for example two integers to the file as

```
fprintf(fout,"%d %d", 20, 30);
```

here is a program (courtesy Tim Hoffman) that illustrates concepts as listed.

```
/* fileio.c
   Illustrates:
       argc, argv
       atoi(), exit()
       printf(), fprintf(), fscanf()
       fopen(), fclose()
   Author: Tim Hoffman
*/

#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>

int main( int argc, char *argv[] )
{
    FILE *infile, *outfile; /* infile and outfile are pointers to FILE objects */
    int x,i,n;

    if (argc < 3 )
    {
        printf("must enter two values on cmd line: a small positive integer followed by name
              of output file.\n");
        exit( EXIT_FAILURE );
    }

    n = atoi( argv[1] ); /* read the man pages on atoi(). Converts a string to an int */
    if (n<=0)
    {
        printf("must enter a SMALL POSITIVE INT followed by name for output file on cmd
              line\n");
        exit( EXIT_FAILURE );
    }

    outfile = fopen(argv[2], "wt" ); /* "wt" means we are writing text to the file */
    if (NULL==outfile) /* if the open fails then a NULL pointer was put into outfile */
    {
        printf("Can't open %s for output.\n", argv[2] );
        exit( EXIT_FAILURE );
    }
}
```

```

}

/* READY TO WRITE A SEQUENCE Of INTS TO THE OUTPUT TEXT FILE */

printf("\nWriting to file %s\n", argv[2] );
for (i=1 ; i<=n ; ++i )
{
    printf("...wrote %d\n",i);
    fprintf( outfile, "%d\n", i );
}
fclose( outfile );

/*RE-OPEN THAT FILE AS INPUT AND READ THEM BACK IN AND ECHO TO STDOUT */

infile = fopen(argv[2], "rt" ); /* "rt" means we are reading the text file */
if (infile==NULL)
/* we really don't expect this to happen considering we just wrote it - but we always test */
{
    printf("Can't open %s for input.\n", argv[2] );
    exit( EXIT_FAILURE );
}

printf("\nNow reading from file %s\n", argv[2] );
for (i=1 ; i<=n ; ++i )
{
    fscanf( infile, "%d", &x );
    printf("...read %d\n",x);
}
fclose( infile );

    return 0;
}

```

### READING FROM A BINARY FILE

If the file is binary, then we cannot use fscanf to read the data from the file. Instead we need to use : fread

The function prototype for fread is

For example if we want to read 2 bytes from memory and store them in a short int variable x, we can write;

```
fread(&x, sizeof(x),1,fp);
```

**The prototype for fread is**

```
size_t fread ( void * ptr, size_t size, size_t count, FILE * stream );
```

We will discuss more on binary files later in the course.

## Arrays in C

Arrays are static blocks of memory assigned by the compiler. Arrays can be initialized and implicitly assigned a size. For example

```
int A[] = {1,2,3};
```

declares an array of size 3 and assign values to 1, 2, 3. Array indices starts from 0.

An array can also be declared, as

```
const int n = 10;  
int A[n];
```

The size of the memory assigned is the number of bytes necessary to hold n integers. The name of the array, A in this case, serves as the address of the first byte of the array memory block. For example, the statement

```
printf(“%x\n”, A);
```

outputs the address of the starting byte of the array. As we learn pointers we will be able to manipulate the values of the array using indirect pointers.

C does not check for array boundaries. So a statement such as `A[n] = 10;` is completely legal and but could have some devastating effects. This is a weakness of C language and a source of hacker attacks on code written in C. At CMU, there are efforts to create “safe” subsets of C such as c0. If you take 15-122, you will be exposed to some of these ideas.

We can define arrays of any standard/primitive types (int, double, char etc) or user defined types(discussed later). Arrays can be defined as dynamic structures once we understand how to allocate memory using malloc or calloc. This will be discussed later.

### Two Dimensional Arrays

C can define two dimensional arrays. For example,

```
char List[100][20];
```

Defines a two dimensional array of 100x20, where we have 100 rows to store a string of max size 20. We can set the character 2 of string 50 to ‘a’ by doing

```
List[50][2] = ‘a’;
```

## Strings

It is very important to understand how strings are processed in C. Unlike in Java, where String is an object, in C a string is considered to be a sequence of characters ending with the null character '\0'. It is very important to have '\0' at the end a string or else it may throw run time errors (or segmentation faults) if we try to do something like this.

```
char name[4];  
name[0]='g'; name[1]='u'; name[2]='n'; name[3]='a';  
fprintf(STDIN, "%s", name);
```

It is possible in some systems that the null character may be automatically added. We will talk about C string in detail next week, but until then you can see some of the functions available for C strings from Bb. We just touched on some of the topics of IO, strings and files in C. We will be discussing more of these things later in the course.

## Functions

Functions allow programs to be broken into smaller, more manageable components. Functions can also hide details of the operations from the program that uses it. Also using functions allow programmers to debug code more easily. C functions can be included in separate files, compiled and linked later to create the executable. The basic form of a function is:

```
<return_type> function_name(arguments){  
    Function_statements  
    Return value  
}
```

Although functions support modular code development, they are generally less efficient as function execution uses run time stack for function evaluation. All arguments to a C function are passed by value. That is a copy of the variables is placed in the runtime stack so function can perform its operations. As C supports passing addresses of variables into functions, one can effectively passed an argument by "reference" so function can modify the value of a global variable. We will discuss more about functions later in the course.

## Further Readings

K & R Chapter 1 – Tutorial Introduction Pages 5-31



Dec	Hx	Oct	Char	Dec	Hx	Oct	Html	Chr	Dec	Hx	Oct	Html	Chr	Dec	Hx	Oct	Html	Chr
0	0	000	<b>NUL</b> (null)	32	20	040	&#32;	Space	64	40	100	&#64;	@	96	60	140	&#96;	`
1	1	001	<b>SOH</b> (start of heading)	33	21	041	&#33;	!	65	41	101	&#65;	A	97	61	141	&#97;	a
2	2	002	<b>STX</b> (start of text)	34	22	042	&#34;	"	66	42	102	&#66;	B	98	62	142	&#98;	b
3	3	003	<b>ETX</b> (end of text)	35	23	043	&#35;	#	67	43	103	&#67;	C	99	63	143	&#99;	c
4	4	004	<b>EOF</b> (end of transmission)	36	24	044	&#36;	\$	68	44	104	&#68;	D	100	64	144	&#100;	d
5	5	005	<b>ENQ</b> (enquiry)	37	25	045	&#37;	%	69	45	105	&#69;	E	101	65	145	&#101;	e
6	6	006	<b>ACK</b> (acknowledge)	38	26	046	&#38;	&	70	46	106	&#70;	F	102	66	146	&#102;	f
7	7	007	<b>BEL</b> (bell)	39	27	047	&#39;	'	71	47	107	&#71;	G	103	67	147	&#103;	g
8	8	010	<b>BS</b> (backspace)	40	28	050	&#40;	(	72	48	110	&#72;	H	104	68	150	&#104;	h
9	9	011	<b>TAB</b> (horizontal tab)	41	29	051	&#41;	)	73	49	111	&#73;	I	105	69	151	&#105;	i
10	A	012	<b>LF</b> (NL line feed, new line)	42	2A	052	&#42;	*	74	4A	112	&#74;	J	106	6A	152	&#106;	j
11	B	013	<b>VT</b> (vertical tab)	43	2B	053	&#43;	+	75	4B	113	&#75;	K	107	6B	153	&#107;	k
12	C	014	<b>FF</b> (NP form feed, new page)	44	2C	054	&#44;	,	76	4C	114	&#76;	L	108	6C	154	&#108;	l
13	D	015	<b>CR</b> (carriage return)	45	2D	055	&#45;	-	77	4D	115	&#77;	M	109	6D	155	&#109;	m
14	E	016	<b>SO</b> (shift out)	46	2E	056	&#46;	.	78	4E	116	&#78;	N	110	6E	156	&#110;	n
15	F	017	<b>SI</b> (shift in)	47	2F	057	&#47;	/	79	4F	117	&#79;	O	111	6F	157	&#111;	o
16	10	020	<b>DLE</b> (data link escape)	48	30	060	&#48;	0	80	50	120	&#80;	P	112	70	160	&#112;	p
17	11	021	<b>DC1</b> (device control 1)	49	31	061	&#49;	1	81	51	121	&#81;	Q	113	71	161	&#113;	q
18	12	022	<b>DC2</b> (device control 2)	50	32	062	&#50;	2	82	52	122	&#82;	R	114	72	162	&#114;	r
19	13	023	<b>DC3</b> (device control 3)	51	33	063	&#51;	3	83	53	123	&#83;	S	115	73	163	&#115;	s
20	14	024	<b>DC4</b> (device control 4)	52	34	064	&#52;	4	84	54	124	&#84;	T	116	74	164	&#116;	t
21	15	025	<b>NAK</b> (negative acknowledge)	53	35	065	&#53;	5	85	55	125	&#85;	U	117	75	165	&#117;	u
22	16	026	<b>SYN</b> (synchronous idle)	54	36	066	&#54;	6	86	56	126	&#86;	V	118	76	166	&#118;	v
23	17	027	<b>ETB</b> (end of trans. block)	55	37	067	&#55;	7	87	57	127	&#87;	W	119	77	167	&#119;	w
24	18	030	<b>CAN</b> (cancel)	56	38	070	&#56;	8	88	58	130	&#88;	X	120	78	170	&#120;	x
25	19	031	<b>EM</b> (end of medium)	57	39	071	&#57;	9	89	59	131	&#89;	Y	121	79	171	&#121;	y
26	1A	032	<b>SUB</b> (substitute)	58	3A	072	&#58;	:	90	5A	132	&#90;	Z	122	7A	172	&#122;	z
27	1B	033	<b>ESC</b> (escape)	59	3B	073	&#59;	;	91	5B	133	&#91;	[	123	7B	173	&#123;	{
28	1C	034	<b>FS</b> (file separator)	60	3C	074	&#60;	<	92	5C	134	&#92;	\	124	7C	174	&#124;	
29	1D	035	<b>GS</b> (group separator)	61	3D	075	&#61;	=	93	5D	135	&#93;	]	125	7D	175	&#125;	}
30	1E	036	<b>RS</b> (record separator)	62	3E	076	&#62;	>	94	5E	136	&#94;	^	126	7E	176	&#126;	~
31	1F	037	<b>US</b> (unit separator)	63	3F	077	&#63;	?	95	5F	137	&#95;	_	127	7F	177	&#127;	DEL

Source: [www.LookupTables.com](http://www.LookupTables.com)

## ASCII TABLE

### Exercises

1. Suppose you want to process a binary file (a sequence of bytes ending with EOF character) and output characters in the file. How would you do that?
2. Write a program to read a file of text and count the words in the file. Output one word per line to STDOUT.
3. Suppose a TAB is 3 characters long. Write a program that will take a string (with tabs) as input and replace each tab with a space.
4. Suppose a file of the following format is given.

```
123/n
34/n
EOF
```

Write the binary representation of the file. See if you can write a little program to confirm your output.

### Answers

1. We can read one character at a time from any file until we hit EOF character (assuming file has an EOF character).  
char ch;  
FILE\* fp = fopen(filename,"r");

```
while (fscanf(fp,"%c", &ch) != EOF) { ...}
```

4. 123/n  
34/n  
EOF

123/n = 00110001001100100011001100001010

34/n = 001100110011010000001010

EOF = There is no ASCII value for EOF