

THE EXPERT'S VOICE® IN C

C Quick Syntax Reference

Mikael Olsson

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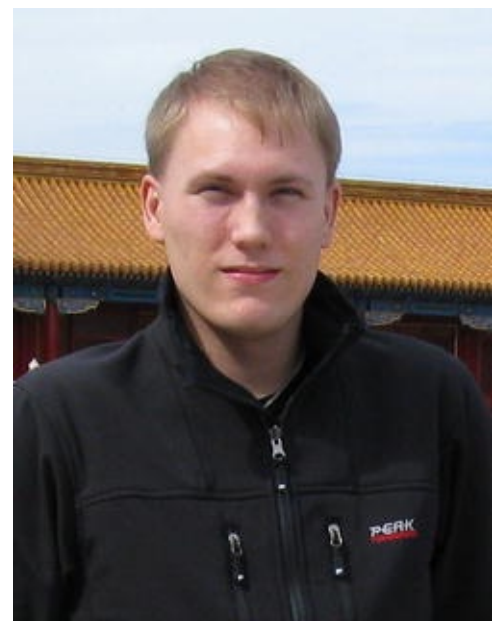
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Introduction

The C programming language is a general-purpose, middle-level language originally developed by Dennis M. Ritchie at Bell Labs. It was created over the period 1969 through 1973 for the development of the UNIX operating system, which had previously been written in assembly language. The name C was chosen because many of its features derived from an earlier language called B. Whereas the B language is no longer in common use, C became and still remains one of the most popular and influential programming languages in use today.

Although C is a general-purpose language it is most often used for systems programming. This includes software that controls the computer hardware directly, such as drivers, operating systems, and software for embedded microprocessors. C can also be used for writing applications, which run on top of system software. However, it has largely been superseded in that domain by higher-level languages, such as C++, Objective-C, C#, Swift, and Java. The features of these and many other languages are heavily influenced by C, as can be seen in some of their names.

The development of C was a major milestone in computer science as it was the first widely successful middle-level language for system development. The foremost reasons for its success were that the language was concise, fast, and powerful. It offered comparable speed to assembly with far improved usability. The high-level constructs of the language allowed programmers to focus mainly on the software's design, while its low-level capabilities still provided direct access to the hardware when needed, as assembly had done. Furthermore, the language is relatively simple to understand with few keywords and what many consider to be an elegant syntax.

Another major reason for the success of C was its portability. Unlike assembly the C language is platform independent. A standards-compliant C program can therefore be compiled for a wide variety of computer systems with few changes to its source code. Moreover, the C compiler was small and easy to port to different CPU architectures, which together with the language's popularity has made C compilers available on most computer systems.

C versions

In 1978, Brian Kernighan and Dennis Ritchie produced the first publicly available description of C, now known as K&R C. This description was succeeded in 1989 when the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) provided a comprehensive definition of C known as ANSI C or C89. In the following year the same specification was adopted as an international standard by the International Organization for Standardization and became known as ISO C90 or just C90. C has since undergone three more revisions by ISO (successively adopted by ANSI) with further language extensions, including C95, C99, and most recently C11, which is the latest ANSI standard for the C programming language.

Contents

Chapter 1: Hello World

Creating a Project

Adding a Source File

Hello World

IntelliSense

Chapter 2: Compile and Run

Visual Studio Compilation

Console Compilation

Comments

Chapter 3: Variables

Data Types

Declaring Variables

Assigning Variables

Printing Variables

Integer Types

Signed and Unsigned

Sized Integers

Floating-Point Types

Literal Suffixes

Char Type

Bool Type

Variable Scope

Chapter 4: Operators

Arithmetic Operators

Assignment Operators

Combined Assignment Operators

Increment and Decrement Operators

Comparison Operators

Logical Operators

Bitwise Operators

Operator Precedence

Chapter 5: Pointers

Creating Pointers

Dereferencing Pointers

Pointing to a Pointer

Null Pointer

Chapter 6: Arrays

Array Declaration and Allocation

Array Assignment

Multi-Dimensional Arrays

Arrays and Pointers

Array Size

Chapter 7: String

Escape Characters

String Functions

Chapter 8: Conditionals

If Statement

Switch Statement

Ternary Operator

Chapter 9: Loops

While Loop

Do-While Loop

For Loop

Break and Continue

Goto Statement

Chapter 10: Functions

Defining Functions

Calling Functions

Function Parameters

Void Parameter

Return Statement

Forward Declaration

Variable Parameter Lists

Pass by Value

Pass by Address

Return by Value or Address

Inline Functions

Chapter 11: Typedef

Chapter 12: Enum

Enum Example

Enum Constant Values

Enum Conversions

Enum Scope

Chapter 13: Struct

Struct Objects

Member Access

Struct Pointers

Bit Fields

Chapter 14: Union

Chapter 15: Type Conversions

Implicit Conversions

Explicit Conversions

Chapter 16: Storage Classes

Auto

Register

External

Static

Volatile

Chapter 17: Constants

Constant Variables

Constant Pointers

Constant Parameters

Constant Guideline

Chapter 18: Preprocessor

Including Source Files

Define

Undefine

Predefined Macros

Macro Functions

Conditional Compilation

Compile if Defined

Error and Warning

Line

Pragma

Chapter 19: Memory Management

Malloc

Free

Realloc

Void Pointer

Chapter 20: Command Line Arguments

Chapter 21: Headers

Why to Use Headers

What to Include in Headers

Include Guards

Index

Contents at a Glance

Chapter 1: Hello World

Chapter 2: Compile and Run

Chapter 3: Variables

Chapter 4: Operators

Chapter 5: Pointers

Chapter 6: Arrays

Chapter 7: String

Chapter 8: Conditionals

Chapter 9: Loops

Chapter 10: Functions

Chapter 11: Typedef

Chapter 12: Enum

Chapter 13: Struct

Chapter 14: Union

Chapter 15: Type Conversions

Chapter 16: Storage Classes

Chapter 17: Constants

Chapter 18: Preprocessor

Chapter 19: Memory Management

Chapter 20: Command Line Arguments

Chapter 21: Headers

Index

1. Hello World

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To begin programming in C you need a text editor and a C compiler. You can get both at the same time by installing an Integrated Development Environment (IDE) that includes support for C. A good choice is Microsoft's Visual Studio Community Edition, which is a free version of Visual Studio that is available from Microsoft's website.¹ This IDE has built-in support for the C89 standard and also includes many features of C99 as of the 2013 version.

Some other popular cross-platform IDEs include Eclipse CDT, Code::Blocks, and CodeLite. Alternatively, you can develop using a simple text editor – such as Notepad – although this is less convenient than using an IDE. If you choose to do so, just create an empty document with a `.c` file extension and open it in the editor of your choice. By convention, the `.c` extension is used for files that contain source code for C programs.

Creating a Project

After installing Visual Studio, go ahead and launch the program. You then need to create a project, which will manage the C source files and other resources. Go to **File** ► **New** ► **Project** to display the New Project window. From there select the Visual C++ template type in the left frame. Then select the Win32 Console Application template in the right frame. At the bottom of the window you can configure the name and location of the project. When you are finished, click the OK button, and another dialog box will appear titled Win32 Application Wizard. Click next, and a couple of application settings will be displayed. Leave the application type as Console application and check the Empty project checkbox. Then click Finish to let the wizard create your empty project.

Adding a Source File

You have now created a C/C++ project. In the Solution Explorer panel (**View** ► **Solution Explorer**) you can see that the project consists of three empty folders: Header Files, Resource Files, and Source Files. Right-click on the Source Files folder and select **Add** ► **New Item**. From the Add New Item dialog box choose the C++ File (.cpp) template. Give this source file the name “myapp.c.” The `.c` file extension will make the file compile in C instead of C++. Click the Add button, and the empty C file will be added to your project and opened for you.

Hello World

The first thing to add to the source file is the `main` function. This is the entry point of the program, and the code inside of the curly brackets is what will be executed when the program runs. The brackets,

along with their content, is referred to as a code block, or just a block.

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

Your first application will simply output the text "Hello World" to the screen. Before this can be done the `stdio.h` header needs to be included. This header provides input and output functionality for the program, and is one of the standard libraries that come with all C/C++ compilers. What the `#include` directive does is to effectively replace the line with everything in the specified header before the file is compiled.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {}
```

With `stdio.h` included you gain access to several new functions, including the `printf` function that is used for printing text – in this case to a console window. To call this function you type its name followed by a set of parentheses that includes the text string that will be displayed. The string is delimited by double quotes, and the whole statement is followed by a semicolon. The semicolon is used in C to mark the end of a code statement.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {
printf("Hello World");

return 0;

}
```

The `main` function here ends with a `return` statement, which returns a status code as the program exits. This can be useful if the intent is for your program to be executed by another program. The status code can then signal to the caller the success or failure of your program to complete its function. By convention, the return code zero is used to indicate that a program or function has executed successfully.

The C89 standard requires the `return` statement to be present, but following C90 the statement became optional. As of C90 the compiler will automatically include the `return` statement if it is omitted. For brevity the statement will be left out from future code examples.

IntelliSense

When writing code in Visual Studio a window called IntelliSense will pop up wherever there are multiple predetermined alternatives from which to choose. This window can be also brought up manually at any time by pressing `Ctrl+Space` to provide quick access to any code entities you are able to use within your program. This is a very powerful feature that you should learn to make good use of.

Footnotes

¹ <http://www.visualstudio.com>.

2. Compile and Run

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Before a program can be run, the source code has to be translated into an executable format by a compiler. This step transforms the human-readable source code into binary machine code, which is a sequence of instructions that can be executed by a computer.

Visual Studio Compilation

Continuing from the last chapter, the Hello World program is now complete and ready to be compiled and run. You can do this by going to the Build menu and clicking on Debug ► Start Without Debugging (Ctrl+F5). Visual Studio then compiles and runs the application that displays the text in a console window.

If you select Start Debugging (F5) from the Debug menu instead, the console window displaying Hello World will close as soon as the `main` function is finished. To prevent this, you can add a call to the `getchar` function at the end of `main`. This function, included with the `stdio.h` header, will read a character from the keyboard and thereby prevent the program from exiting until the return key is pressed.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {
printf("Hello World");

getchar();

}
```

Console Compilation

As an alternative to using an IDE you can also compile source files from a terminal window as long as you have a C compiler. For example, on a Linux machine you can use the GNU C compiler, which is available on virtually all Unix systems, including Linux and the BSD family, as part of the GNU Compiler Collection (GCC). This compiler can also be installed on Windows by downloading MinGW¹ or on Mac as part of the Xcode development environment.²

To use the GNU compiler you type its name “`gcc`” in a terminal window and give it the input and output filenames as arguments. It then produces an executable file, which when run gives the same result as one compiled under Windows in Visual Studio.

```
gcc myapp.c -o myapp.exe
./myapp.exe
```

Comments

Comments are used to insert notes into the source code. They have no effect on the end program and are meant only to enhance the readability of the code, both for you and for other developers. The C89 standard featured only one comment notation, a multiline comment delimited by `/*` and `*/`.

```
/* multi-line  
comment */
```

The C99 standard added the single-line comment, which starts with `//` and extends to the end of the line. This comment was standardized since it was a convenient feature found in many other programming languages, such as C++. Many C compilers also started to support the single-line comment long before the C99 standard was formalized.

```
// single-line comment
```

Keep in mind that whitespace characters – such as comments, spaces, and tabs – are generally ignored by the compiler. This allows you a lot of freedom in how to format your code.

Footnotes

1 <http://www.mingw.org>.

2 <https://developer.apple.com/xcode/>.

3. Variables

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Variables are used for storing data during program execution.

Data Types

Depending on what data you need to store, there are several different kinds of data types. The simple types in C consist of four integer types: three floating-point types as well as the char type.

Data Type	Size (byte)	Description
char	1	Integer or character
short int long long long	2 4 4 or 8 8	Integer
float double long double	4 8 8 or 16	Floating-point number

In C, the exact size of the data types is not fixed. The sizes shown in the previous table are those commonly found on 32-bit and 64-bit systems. The C standard only specifies the minimum range that is guaranteed to be supported. The minimum size for char is 8 bits, for short and int it is 16 bits, for long it is 32 bits and long long must contain at least 64 bits. Most modern compilers make int 32 bits which nearly universally means 4 bytes. Each integer type in the table must also be at least as large as the one preceding it. The same applies to the floating-point types where each one must provide at least as much precision as the preceding one.

Declaring Variables

Before a variable can be used, it first has to be declared. To declare a variable you start with the data type you want the variable to hold followed by an identifier, which is the name of the variable.

```
int myInt;
```

The identifier can consist of letters, numbers, and underscores, but it cannot start with a number. It also cannot contain spaces or special characters and must not be a reserved keyword.

```
int _myInt32; /* allowed */
int 32Int;    /* incorrect (starts with number) */
int my Int;  /* incorrect (contains space) */
int Int@32;  /* incorrect (contains special character) */
int int;     /* incorrect (reserved keyword) */
```

Note that C is a case sensitive programming language, so uppercase and lowercase letters have

different meanings.

Assigning Variables

To assign a value to a declared variable the equal sign is used, which is known as the assignment operator (=). This is called assigning or initializing the variable.

```
myInt = 50;
```

The declaration and assignment can be combined into a single statement. When a variable is assigned a value it then becomes *defined*.

```
int myInt = 50;
```

If you need to create more than one variable of the same type there is a shorthand way of doing it using the comma operator (,).

```
int x = 1, y = 2, z;
```

Once a variable has been defined (declared and assigned), you can use it by simply referencing the variable's name: for example, to copy the value to another variable.

```
int a = x;
```

Printing Variables

In addition to strings the `printf` function can be used to print values and variables to the standard output stream. This is done by embedding format specifiers into the string where the value is to be printed. Each specifier must be matched by a corresponding argument to `printf` of the correct type, as seen in the following example.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
int x = 5;

printf("x is %d and 2+3 is %d", x, 2+3);

}
```

The `%d` specifier displays an integer of the `char`, `short` or `int` type. Other commonly used format specifiers are seen in the following table.

Specifier	Output
<code>%d</code> or <code>%i</code>	char, short, or int
<code>%c</code>	character
<code>%s</code>	string of characters
<code>%f</code>	float or double
<code>%Lf</code>	long double
<code>%ld</code>	long int
<code>%lld</code>	long long int
<code>%u</code>	unsigned char, short or int
<code>%lu</code>	unsigned long int
<code>%llu</code>	unsigned long long int
<code>%p</code>	pointer address

For more information on `printf` and other standard library functions, you can visit the C library

Integer Types

There are four native integer (whole number) types you can use depending on how large a number you need the variable to hold. Typical ranges on 32-bit and 64-bit systems are given below.

```
char myChar = 0; /* -128 to +127 */
short myShort = 0; /* -32768 to +32767 */
int myInt = 0; /* -2^31 to +2^31-1 */
long myLong = 0; /* -2^31 to +2^31-1 */
```

C99 added support for the `long long` data type, which is guaranteed to be at least 64 bits in size.

```
long long myLL = 0; /* -2^63 to +2^63-1 */
```

To determine the exact size of a data type you can use the `sizeof` operator. This operator returns the number of bytes that a type occupies in the system you are compiling for. The type returned is `size_t`, which is an alias for an integer type. The specifier `%zu` was introduced in C99 as a portable way to format this type with `printf`. Visual Studio does not support this specifier and uses `%Iu` instead.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {
size_t s = sizeof(int);

printf("%zu", s); /* "4" (C99) */

printf("%Iu", s); /* "4" (Visual Studio) */

}
```

In addition to standard decimal notation, integers can also be assigned by using octal or hexadecimal notation. The following values all represent the same number, which in decimal notation is 50.

```
int myDec = 50 /* decimal notation */
int myOct = 062; /* octal notation (0) */
int myHex = 0x32; /* hexadecimal notation (0x) */
```

Signed and Unsigned

By default, all integer types in C are signed and may therefore contain both positive and negative values. This can be explicitly declared using the `signed` keyword.

```
signed char myChar; /* -128 to +127 */
signed short myShort; /* -32768 to +32767 */
signed int myInt; /* -2^31 to +2^31-1 */
signed long myLong; /* -2^31 to +2^31-1 */
signed long long myLL; /* -2^63 to +2^63-1 */
```

If only positive values need to be stored the integer types can be declared as unsigned to double their upper range.

```
unsigned char uChar; /* 0 to 255 */
unsigned short uShort; /* 0 to 65535 */
unsigned int uInt; /* 0 to 2^32-1 */
unsigned long uLong; /* 0 to 2^32-1 */
```

```
unsigned long long uLL; /* 0 to 2^64-1 */
```

~~When an unsigned value is printed the specifier %u is used for the unsigned char, short, and int types. The unsigned long type is specified with %lu and unsigned long long with %llu.~~

```
unsigned int uInt = 0;
printf("%u", uInt); /* "0" */
```

The signed and unsigned keywords may be used as types on their own, in which case the int type is assumed by the compiler.

```
unsigned uInt; /* unsigned int */
signed sInt; /* signed int */
```

In the same way, the short and long data types are abbreviations of short int and long int.

```
short myShort; /* short int */
long myLong; /* long int */
```

Sized Integers

As mentioned before, the actual sizes of the integer types are implementation dependent. For more precise specification of size the C99 standard introduced a number of exact-width integer types. They can be enabled by including the stdint.h standard header.

```
#include <stdint.h>
/* Signed exact-width integers */
int8_t iSmall; /* 8 bits */
int16_t iMedium; /* 16 bits */
int32_t iLarge; /* 32 bits */
int64_t iHuge; /* 64 bits */
```

Unsigned versions of these types are available as well. Like the signed versions, these exact-width integer types are guaranteed to have the same number of bits across all implementations.

```
/* Unsigned exact-width integers */
uint8_t uSmall; /* 8 bits */
uint16_t uMedium; /* 16 bits */
uint32_t uLarge; /* 32 bits */
uint64_t uHuge; /* 64 bits */
```

It is recommended to use sized integers when available, to more easily keep track of the range of your integer variables and to enhance the portability of your programs. Compilers that comply with standards prior to C99 may provide sized integers with different type names. Visual Studio, for example, has built-in support for the following signed exact-width integers.

```
/* Visual Studio signed exact-width integers */
__int8 iSmall; /* 8 bits */
__int16 iMedium; /* 16 bits */
__int32 iLarge; /* 32 bits */
__int64 iHuge; /* 64 bits */
```

Floating-Point Types

The floating-point types can store real numbers with different levels of precision.

```
float myFloat; /* ~7 digits */
double myDouble; /* ~15 digits */
long double myLD; /* typically same as double */
```

The precision shown above refers to the total number of digits. A `float` can accurately represent about 7 digits, whereas a `double` can handle around 15 of them.

```
float myFloat = 12345.678;
printf("%f", myFloat); /* "12345.677734" */
```

When printing a floating-point number you can limit the decimal places to, for instance, two in the following way.

```
printf("%.2f", myFloat); /* "12345.68" */
```

Floating-point numbers can be expressed using decimal, exponential, or hexadecimal notation. Exponential (scientific) notation is used by adding `E` or `e` followed by the decimal exponent, while the hexadecimal floating-point notation uses `P` or `p` to specify the binary exponent. Support for the hexadecimal notation was not standardized until C99.

```
double fDec = 1.23;
double fExp = 3e2; /* 3*10^2 = 300 */
double fHex = 0xAp2; /* 10*2^2 = 40 */
```

Literal Suffixes

An integer literal (constant) is normally treated as an `int` by the compiler, or a larger type if needed to fit the value. Suffixes can be added to the literal to change this evaluation. With integers the suffix can be a combination of `U` and `L`, for unsigned and long respectively. C99 also added the `LL` suffix for the long long type. The order and casing of these letters do not matter.

```
int i = 10;
long l = 10L;
unsigned long ul = 10UL;
```

A floating-point literal is treated as a `double`. The `F` or `f` suffix can be used to specify that a literal is of the `float` type instead. Likewise, the `L` or `l` suffix specifies the long double type.

```
float f = 1.23F;
double d = 1.23;
long double ld = 1.23L;
```

The compiler implicitly converts literals to whichever type is necessary, so this type distinction for literals is usually not necessary. If the `F` suffix is left out when assigning to a `float` variable the compiler may give a warning since the conversion from `double` to `float` involves a loss of precision.

Char Type

The `char` type is commonly used to represent ASCII characters. Such character constants are enclosed in single quotes and can be stored in a variable of `char` type.

```
char c = 'x'; /* assigns 120 (ASCII for x) */
```

When the `char` is printed with the `%c` format specifier the ASCII character is displayed.

```
printf("%c", c); /* "x" */
```

Use the `%d` specifier to instead display the numerical value.

```
printf("%d", c); /* "120" */
```

Bool Type

C99 introduced a `_Bool` type to increase compatibility with C++. Variables of this type can store a Boolean value, which is a value that can only be either 1 (true) or 0 (false).

```
_Bool b = 0; /* false value */
```

The type `_Bool` is usually accessed via its alias name `bool` defined by the standard header `stdbool.h`. This header also defines the macros `true` and `false` as aliases for 1 and 0.

```
#include <stdbool.h>
bool b = true; /* true value */
```

Variable Scope

The scope of a variable refers to the region of code within which it is possible to use that variable. Variables in C may be declared both globally and locally. A global variable is declared outside of any code blocks and is accessible from anywhere after it has been declared. A local variable, on the other hand, is declared inside of a function and will only be accessible within that function after it has been declared. The lifetime of a local variable is also limited. A global variable will remain allocated for the duration of the program, while a local variable will be destroyed when its function has finished executing.

```
int globalVar; /* global variable */
int main(void) {
int localVar; /* local variable */

}
```

The default values for these variables are also different. Global variables are automatically initialized to zero by the compiler, whereas local variables are not initialized at all. Uninitialized local variables will therefore contain whatever garbage is already present in that memory location.

```
int globalVar; /* initialized to 0 */
int main(void) {
int localVar; /* uninitialized */

}
```

Using uninitialized variables is a common programming mistake that can produce unexpected results. It is therefore a good idea to always give your local variables an initial value when they are declared.

```
int main(void) {
int localVar = 0; /* initialized to 0 */

}
```

In C89, local variables must be declared before any other statements within their scope. The later C99 standard changed this to allow variables to be declared anywhere within a function's scope, which can be more intuitive.

```
int main(void) {
int var1;

/* Other statements */

int var2; /* C99 only */

}
```

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