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VOLUME 2, NUMBER 2

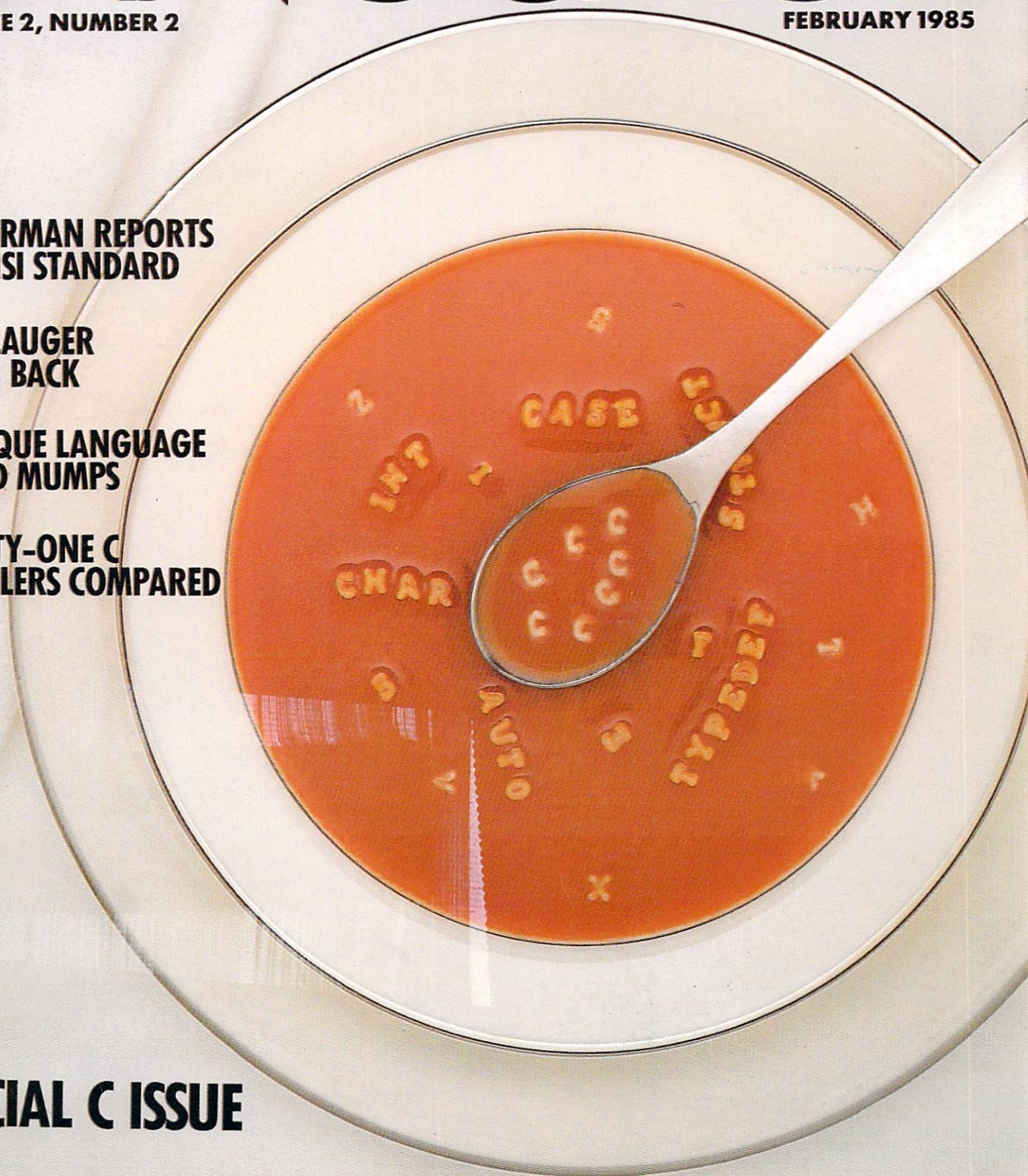
FEBRUARY 1985

**C CHAIRMAN REPORTS  
ON ANSI STANDARD**

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LOOKS BACK**

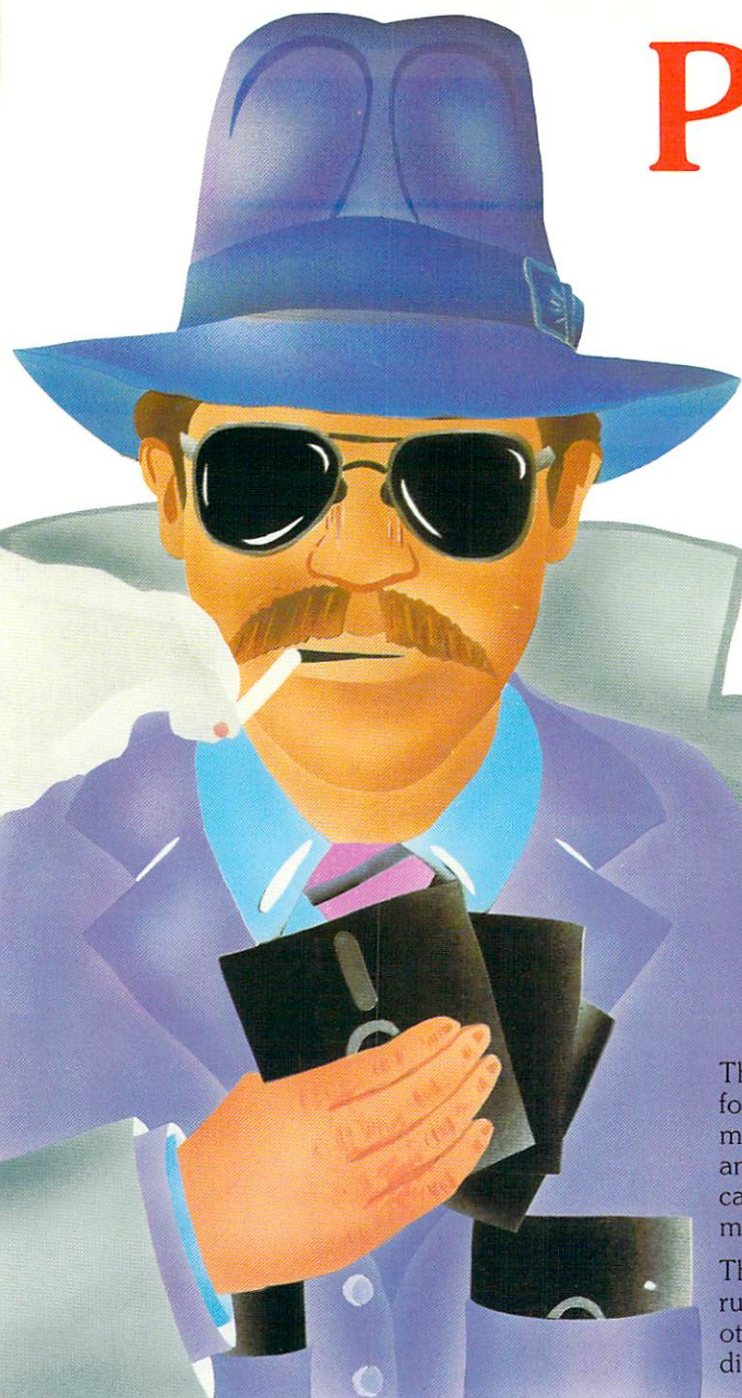
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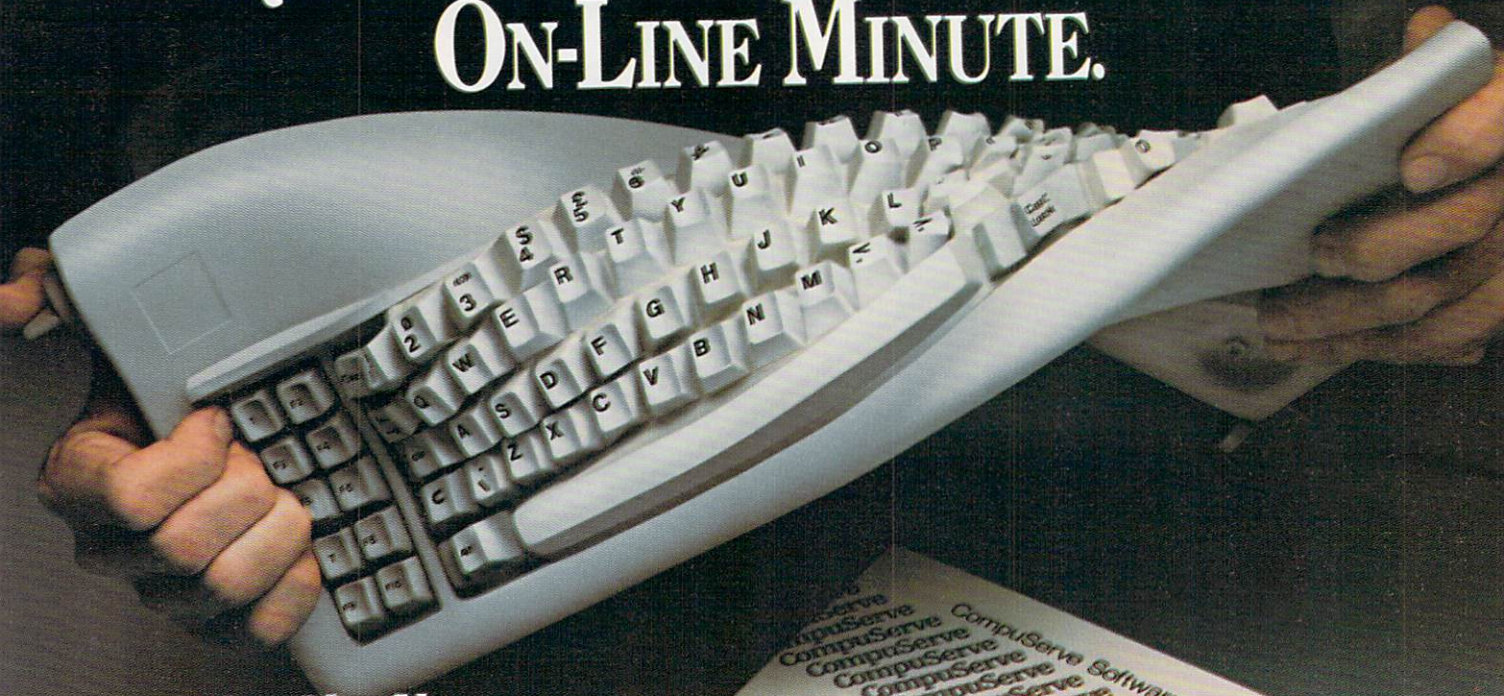
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# COMPUTER LANGUAGE

## ARTICLES

### The Standardization of C

by Jim Brodie

As a language well suited for both applications and systems programming, C's popularity has prompted the development of a standard to further enhance the language's portable syntax. Jim Brodie, chairman of ANSI's C Programming Language Standards Committee, discusses the history behind the standardization effort, the goals and working principles of the committee, and how the language currently being defined is different from the de facto, Kernighan and Ritchie standard.

26

### C Instead of FORTRAN?

by Anthony Skjellum

Because of FORTRAN's installed base of users and its limited ability to be portable between hardware configurations, it has traditionally been the default language for scientific and engineering programming tasks. However, despite recent movements in the industry to give FORTRAN a face-lift by adding certain structured language constructs, C may better answer the need for an efficient, modular, and structured programming environment for scientific and engineering projects.

33

### Programming Macros in C, Part I

by Alexander B. Abacus

In this three-part series, Alexander Abacus presents various methods and techniques for using macros to improve C program development efficiency. Part I focuses on how to use macros as building blocks for parsing command line arguments. In the following two installments, we'll see how macros can also be used in debugging large programs and as a means for translating the common representation of data into different but related tables required by different programs.

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### C to Assembly Interface

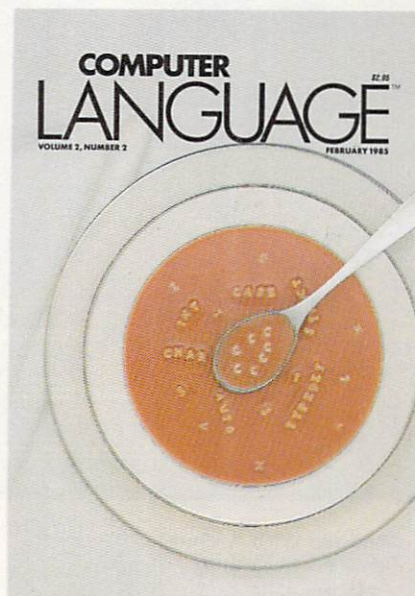
by Brian H. Burger

When programming large, complex projects, it often becomes necessary to access architecture-dependent machine capabilities to increase program speed and efficiency. Yet to some programmers, the C language can open a Pandora's box since it requires more knowledge of the machine than most other languages.

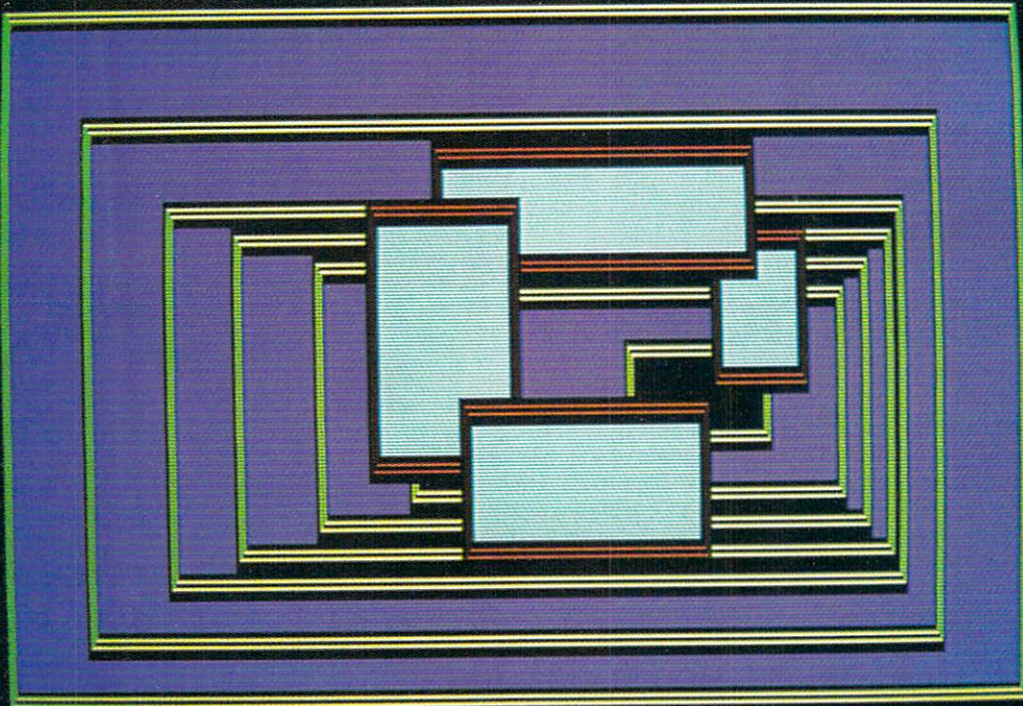
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# Publisher's Notes

**W**elcome to our first theme issue! This

month we spotlight the C programming language.

The amount of reader interest and increased popularity of C made the subject choice of this issue an easy one. The C language has endured the evolutionary process that any new language must undergo when its followers attempt to gather industry-wide acceptance for the use of their language. After the past 15 years or so since its birth at Bell Laboratories, C is regarded today as perhaps the premier language for systems and applications programming because of certain built-in features such as the portability of source code, its simple but structured syntax, and its machine-level interface capabilities.

How much more popular will C become? According to P.J. Plauger, involved with the early development of C at Bell Labs, C's popularity is just short of peaking. (See editor Craig LaGrow's interview with Plauger in ComputerVisions.)

A real highlight in this issue is our comparative analysis of 21 C compilers—nearly every C compiler now on the market. This is the most complete and objective (no re-run press releases here!) C review any magazine has ever published.

We established a four-man team of C experts who judged the compilers on objective technical criteria, comparing the compilers on the basis of four benchmark timing programs and a close analysis of their features. This consumer report kind of approach seems to be the fairest method of comparison possible, but I'm

sure we'll receive a healthy amount of disagreement about the results. Let's just keep it down to idle threats—no physical harm, please!

Another important feature in this C theme issue is a special report from the chairman of the C Programming Language Standards Committee, Jim Brodie, on the history and current status of the C language standardization effort.

This issue also introduces a new column by Namir Shamma entitled CrossXthoughts. Look to this column for lively discussions on topics like programming techniques, algorithms, and practical solutions to complex programming problems.

I also want to announce our plans to sponsor a special seminar and workshop on the C programming language to be held in Cambridge, Mass., in September 1985. We're just setting up this event now and would appreciate any suggestions you might have. If you're interested in getting more information about this special event, please fill out the coupon on page 11 and send it in today. Additional details about the seminar will be released in upcoming issues.

This issue is a mini celebration of sorts—it's *COMPUTER LANGUAGE*'s half-year birthday. After only six issues, we're selling over 30,000 copies every month. Thanks for the great support.

Finally, remember *COMPUTER LANGUAGE* is not a cheerleader for any language. All Modula-2, Forth, COBOL, BASIC, etc., fanatics, you'll have your month too!

Cheers!



Carl Landau  
Publisher

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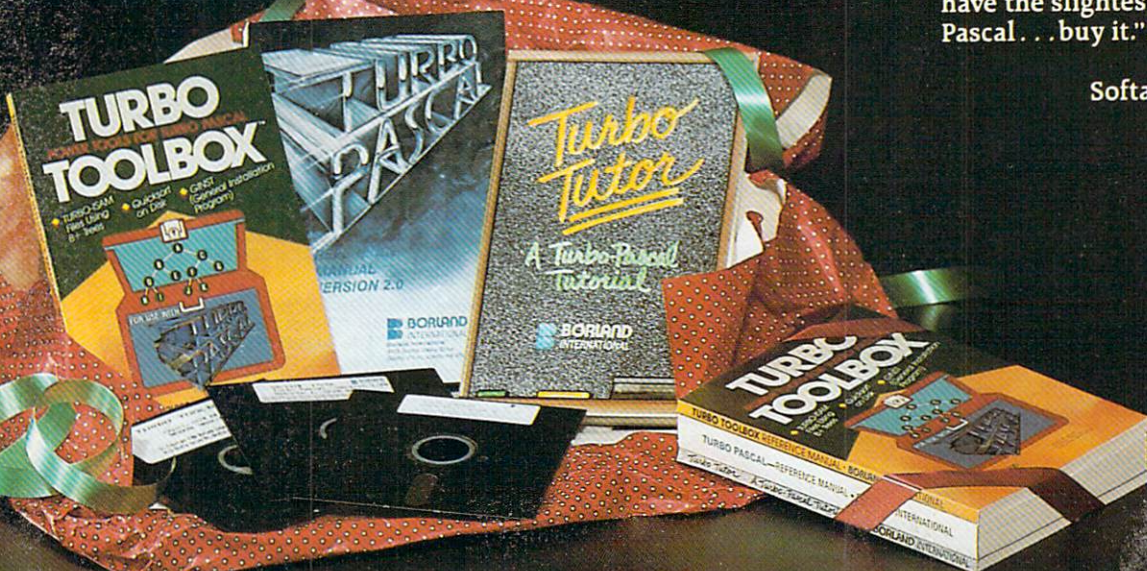
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CIRCLE 69 ON READER SERVICE CARD



# FEEDBACK

## A C limerick

Dear Editor:

C is one of the most versatile languages available today. Its ability to add by function allows you to create large applications. Yet for operating systems or process control, C can "get small" while still maintaining good structure.

As a mildly typed language, C impresses some restrictions on the programmer but still allows freedom for special situations. I thought your readers might enjoy a little program I wrote for nonprogramming managers who insist on easily readable code (Listing 1).

Mike Rejsa  
Minneapolis, Minn.

## Correct Ada figure

Dear Editor:

For those people who want a correct copy of Figure 2 of my article "Learn to Think in Ada" (Nov. 1984, pp. 47-49), here is a copy (Listing 2). Please apologize to our readers for me. I can imagine how frustrating it must be to try to figure out how a program works when it isn't all there.

Do-While Jones  
Ridgecrest, Calif.

## What was it, exactly?

As many readers have pointed out, the listings in Joe Celko's "What Day is It, Exactly" (Dec. 1984, pp. 47-50) contained some errors. Here are corrections, by listing and line number:

■ Listing 1/line 4: change MOD 400 to MOD 100

■ Listing 2/line 1: change Validate to ValidDate

line 4: change MinSystemYear to MaxSystemYear

line 11: change MonthSuze to MonthSize

line 12: change second MinSystemYear to MaxSystemYear

line 13: change Validdate to ValidDate

■ Listing 3/line 2: add \*/ to end of line

line 8: change INIT90 to INIT (0

line 9: change month > 1 to month > 2

```
/* A limerick for C programmers */
/* by Mike Rejsa */
#define a
#define and(c) bdos(6, c)
#define created
#define Dee =
#define had =
#define it --
#define thought puts
#define with -
int *fame = 128, *give = 128, *name = 128;
int *Bea = 130, *looking = 130, *to = 130;
int language = 120;
main()
{
    /* A lady programmer named */
    *Bea Dee
    created a language
    with 'C';
    while (--*looking)
    {
        for (*fame had *to; *give; it a *name)
            and( ' ' );
        thought( "Is it Bea, C, or Dee?" );
    }
}
```

Listing 1.

```
with CONSOLE_IO; use CONSOLE_IO;
procedure Solve_Exercise_3_4_B is
    I, J : integer;
    TEST_RESULT, I_IS_ODD, J_IS_EVEN : boolean;
begin
    put("Please enter an integer ""I"" "); get(I); new_line;
    put("Now enter another integer ""J"" "); get(J); new_line;
    if I mod 2 = 1
        then I_IS_ODD := TRUE;
        else I_IS_ODD := FALSE;
    end if;
    if J mod 2 = 0
        then J_IS_EVEN := TRUE;
        else J_IS_EVEN := FALSE;
    end if;
    TEST_RESULT := I_IS_ODD and J_IS_EVEN;
    put("The test turned out "); put(TEST_RESULT); new_line;
end Solve_Exercise_3_4_B;
```

Listing 2.



```
IF (month=2) THEN Jul2:= Jul2 + 1 ELSE NULL;
IF ((month>2) AND (month<9)) THEN Jul2:= Jul2 - 1 ELSE NULL;
```

Listing 3.

```
IF LeapYear(year) THEN X:=1 ELSE X:=2
Julian:= Truncate(275 * month / 9) - X * Truncate((month+9) / 12)
Julian:= Julian + day - 30;
```

Listing 4.

line 12: change day: to day;  
 ■ Listing 4/line 2: change \* to \*/  
 line 7: change 30.475 to 30.4375  
 line 12: change month > 1 to month > 2  
 ■ Listing 5/line 8: change  
 CenturyTable[1:12] to CenturyTable[1:5]  
 Line 26: change : to ; at the end of line  
 ■ Listing 6/line 12: change EF to IF.

## Calendar modifications

Dear Editor:

Lines 8-11 of Listing 4 in Joe Celko's "What Day is It, Exactly?" are wrong. They might be replaced with the two lines in Listing 3.

An easier approach to the Commercial Date is shown in Listing 4.

F. Barry Mulligan  
 Atlanta, Ga.

## Leap year rule

Dear Editor:

I feel I should correct an inaccuracy in Joe Celko's "What Day is It, Exactly?" The inaccuracy has to do with leap year calculations.

First, in the text of Celko's article he states, "... every year divisible by four is a leap year ... there is also a 400-year cycle ... The four-year cycle exists because the number of days in a year is 365 and almost one-quarter days. Leap year takes care of the one-quarter day, and the 400-year rule takes care of the 'almost.'"

The actual rule is different. The year is a little more than 11 min short of 365 days and one-quarter. This amounts to being a day ahead after about 128 years or about 3 days ahead in 400 years. The rule is: if the year is divisible by 4, it IS a leap year, UNLESS, if the year is divisible by 400, it IS a leap year. Hence, the year 2000 is a leap year.

Daniel Efron  
 St. Louis Park, Minn.

Author Joe Celko comments: Where 365.25 days per year appears, you can substitute the more accurate 365.2422 days per year if the software will not have rounding problems in the calculations.

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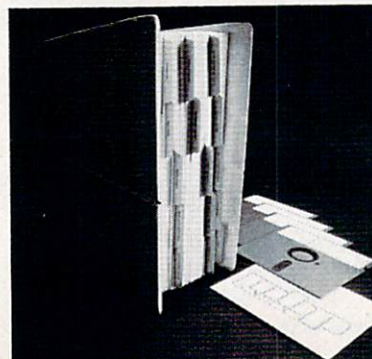
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CIRCLE 39 ON READER SERVICE CARD



```

PROGRAM Math
PARAMETER (a=1.43576, b=5.23417)
total = 0.0
DO 10 i = 1, 2500
  c = EXP( LOG( (SQRT(b))**2 ) ) * a/b
  d = ATAN( SIN(c)/COS(c) ) /a
  total = total + d
10 CONTINUE
WRITE(*,20) total
20 FORMAT(1X,'Total is: ',F11.5)
STOP
END

```

```

PROGRAM Overhead
PRINT *, 'Finished'
STOP
END

```

Listing 5.

## FORTRAN math program

Dear Editor:

Your software review of the Digital Research FORTRAN-77 compiler (Nov. 1984, pp. 66-71) was worthwhile but it lacked any critical comments. Being interested in such a compiler, I visited a friend who recently purchased the DRI product and is running it on an NEC/APC operating under CP/M 86. We entered the two programs in Listing 5.

The resulting statistics for program "overhead" are provided: (most of the run-time is consumed in reading the executable image into RAM)

Compilation time: 41 sec  
 Link time: 5 min 24 sec  
 Run time: 16 sec  
 Executable file size: 84K

The math program was compiled without options and then linked with the HARD8087 option (requires 8087 coprocessor) and also with the SIM8087 option (software mathematics), and these two executable images were run from a RAMdisk. The following statistics are provided:

- On the 8086 math program, an execution time of 15 min 15 sec, and a result of 2499.99976
- On the 8087 chip, an execution time of 15.7 sec, and a result of 2499.99976.

Note that the correct result is 2500.

*Kenneth C. Beaudrie  
 Denver, Colo.*



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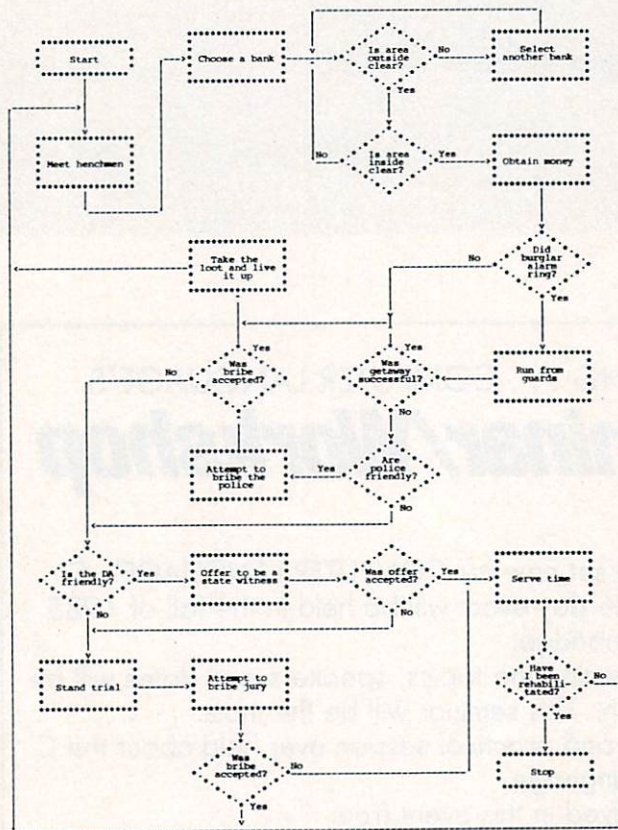
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PRINT/PRINT USING	•	•	•
LPRINT/LPRINT USING	•	•	•
PRINT @	•	•	•
INPUT/LINE INPUT	•	•	•
INPUT #/LINE INPUT #	•	•	•
READ #/READ # LINE	•	•	•
LOG/LOF/EOF/ERROR	•	•	•
FIELD/GET/PUT	•	•	•
RSET/LSET/ERASE	•	•	•
MKDS/MKIS/MKSS	•	•	•
CVI/CVS/CVD/SPC	•	•	•
READ/DATA/RESTORE	•	•	•
TRON/TROFF	•	•	•
DEF FN/RANDOM/RND	•	•	•
DEF USR/SWAP/WAIT	•	•	•
CALL (ASSEMBLY LANG)	•	•	•
DEFSTR/DBL/SNG/INT	•	•	•
DOUBLE/REAL	•	•	•
INTEGER/STRING	•	•	•
GOTO/GOSUB	•	•	•
ON ERROR GOTO	•	•	•
RESUME/RESUME NEXT	•	•	•
ERL/ERR	•	•	•
ON number GOTO/GOSUB	•	•	•
NAME/RENAME	•	•	•
PEEK/POKE/INP/OUT	•	•	•
SYSTEM/SOUND	•	•	•
SADD/MATCH/UCASE\$	•	•	•
VAL/TAB/STR\$/VARPTR	•	•	•
SIN/COS/TAN/ATN	•	•	•
LOG/EXP/ABS/SQR	•	•	•
COMMANDS/IF END	•	•	•
INKEY\$/INPUT\$	•	•	•
TIMES\$/DATES\$/HEX\$/OCTS	•	•	•
STRING\$/SPACES	•	•	•
LEFT\$/RIGHT\$/MID\$	•	•	•
CHR\$/ASC/LEN/SGN	•	•	•
OPTION BASE	•	•	•
ROW/POS/LPOS	•	•	•
DIM/MEM/FRE	•	•	•
MOD/MFRE	•	•	•
GET/PUT (CHARACTER)	•	•	•
KILL/CLS/CLEAR/INSTR	•	•	•
INT/FIX/CINT	•	•	•
CSNG/CDBL	•	•	•
CHAIN	•	•	•
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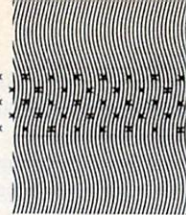
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CIRCLE 1 ON READER SERVICE CARD





## Pseudocode syntax

By Namir Shammas

Welcome to CrossXthoughts! It is a new column for all programmers and a platform for sharing algorithms and programming development techniques and solutions.

We will cover a wide variety of subjects, such as data management techniques, interpreters, graphics, and artificial intelligence. I will be using the *COMPUTER LANGUAGE* Bulletin Board Service (415 957-9370) and CompuServe to interact with readers (but ordinary mail is not completely ruled out!). These media will be used for topic selections, follow-up discussion on published columns, questions asked by readers, and sharing expert opinions and experiences.

In addition, the column will assist readers with similar interests in contacting each other. This will allow further discussion and exchange and published follow-up. I will maintain SIG lists containing names, addresses, phone numbers, etc. They will be posted on the bulletin boards and also made available through *COMPUTER LANGUAGE* by written requests. Putting your name on a particular SIG list is done at your request, by writing or through the BBS and CompuServe. The column will also carry out mini-contests awarding books, software packages, and subscriptions in the magazine.

To make this column a crossroad for programmers who use different languages, I will be using pseudocode listings frequently. Pseudocode is also this issue's topic.

To insure good readability and a degree of consistency I am suggesting a syntax for the Programmers' Pseudo Listing (PPL). I have loaded it on a BBS file called NILE, which contains an application program written in Turbo Pascal and the documentation for using it. It checks the PPL syntax and helps in top-down software design process, allowing development from general to specific.

Additional advantages gained from using the PPL are:

- During software development it is easier and faster to alter and update text than it is to change flowcharts.

- The PPL offers programmers flexibility in sharing information. One can generalize certain code segments to either spare the other party irrelevant code or deliberately hide detailed algorithms to protect programming tips and tricks.

- To assist top-down software design.

- To assist applications development in more than one language or from one to another.

The implementation of a standard PPL, just like any language, is subject to certain syntax and rules. They are of course much more flexible than those for formal languages. Deviating from them is by no means a sacrilege. The general rules are:

- **Data types and identifiers.** This is the area where languages differ greatly. The PPL will leave the choice of how to present data structures up to the programmer.
- **Labels.** The aim of structured languages is to move away from using labels and *GOTO*s. It is worth pointing out that Modula-2 has not implemented the *GOTO* statement at all! By contrast, Ada and C allow using the *GOTO* especially for exiting deeply nested loops. Therefore, labeled *GOTO*s are allowed. This should benefit those who program in BASIC and FORTRAN. However, I must say—following the example of nonsmoker signs—“Thank you for not *GOTO*ing!”

- **Loops.** There are two basic types of loops. The first has a loop counter with

starting and ending values—the code in the loop is repeated a fixed number of times. This is the famous *FOR-DO* loop in Pascal and Modula-2 or the *FOR-NEXT* in BASIC.

The second loop type would execute the enclosed code depending on the success of a conditional test. When the test is located at the beginning of the loop, we have the *WHILE-DO*, as in Pascal, Modula-2, C, and FORTRAN 77. When the test is carried out at the end of the loop, forcing execution of the code at least once, we have the *REPEAT-UNTIL* effect. The test can also be carried out anywhere inside the loop in an attempt to exit. This is equivalent to the *LOOP-EXIT* in Ada and Modula-2.

From the preceding we can see that the different loop types can be presented basically as shown in Listing 1. The *INITIALIZE* will remind the programmer of any loop initializations; I suggest its presence be mandatory. The word “None” should be used when no action is needed. The *LOOP* keyword is followed by an optional loop name. The latter is useful to keep track of exiting nested loops (actually, it is an Ada feature).

The loop *BEGIN* may contain information to indicate the use of a counter or a conditional test to simulate the *WHILE-DO* construct. The conditional test can be inserted inside the loop code or at the end. The latter will simulate the *REPEAT-*

### General loop construct

```
INITIALIZE <optional set-up>
LOOP <optional name>
BEGIN <no text to simulate REPEAT-UNTIL> or
      <declare loop counter> or
      <Optional test here to EXIT <optional name> >

      loop code with optional test to EXIT <optional name>

      Optional test here to EXIT <optional name>

END LOOP
TERMINATE resolve any pending operations
```

Listing 1.



UNTIL construct. The *END LOOP* token need not be followed by a loop name since we expect loops to be logically nested. The *TERMINATE* keyword is used to indicate the action taken to resolve pending data treatment after the loop ends.

■ **Conditional branching.** Inspired by languages like C, Pascal, Modula-2 and Ada, I use two types of conditional branching constructs:

1. The well-known *IF-THEN* construct with *ELSE* and *ELSEIF* clauses for more elaborate decision-making. Listing 2 shows the two alternatives when using the *IF-THEN* clauses.

2. The *CASE* test is applied when an identifier can be used as a switch to select the appropriate course of action. Listing 3 shows the construct for *CASE*. The *WHEN* and *OTHERWISE* keywords will indicate the beginning of a new *CASE* option and the end of a previous one, except for the first *WHEN*.

```

IF-THEN constructs

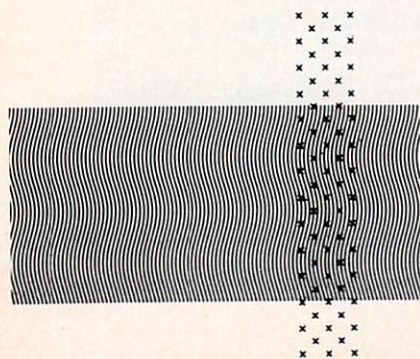
IF <Test is true>
THEN
    Outcome # 1
ELSE
    Outcome # 2
END IF

and

IF <Test 1 is true>
THEN
    Outcome # 1
ELSEIF <Test 2 is true>
THEN
    Outcome # 2
ELSEIF <Test 3 is true>
THEN
    Outcome # 3
ELSE
    Outcome # 4
END IF

```

Listing 2.



■ **Procedures and functions.** Due to the use of plain English words to describe the action taken, we must be able to point out specific calls to procedures and functions. I suggest that the procedure names be enclosed in brackets and function names in braces. The following example shows how a call to a procedure *SOLVE* is documented:

Set up simultaneous equation and [SOLVE]

Another example is a call to a logical function *DiskFull*:

IF {DiskFull} THEN warn the user that no space is left

Since the PPL may be involved in early software development stages, the procedure and function declarations follow the main code portion. This allows for a top-down software design. Thus, procedures and functions that are called more often would be located further down in the listing. To declare the code for a procedure or function, it is sufficient to use the keywords *PROCEDURE* or *FUNCTION* followed by a name.

■ **Input/Output.** This is another aspect of programming where different languages as well as dialects implement differently. We will adopt the following commands:

*DISPLAY* <list> for screen output  
*INPUT* <list> for keyboard input  
*PRINT* <list> to send output to a printer.

File I/O involves reading and writing of data records. The first command needed by all file I/O is to open it:

OPEN <filename>, <buffer name or number>, <mode>

where the I/O mode is one of the following:

*INPUT* for data input  
*OUTPUT* for data output

```

CASE construct

CASE <identifier>

    WHEN <value 1 is ture> => Outcome # 1
    WHEN <value 2 is ture> => Outcome # 2
    .....
    OTHERWISE => Outcome # X

END CASE

```

Listing 3.

*APPEND* to append output data to the existing file

*RANDOM* for random data read and write.

Its counterpart is *CLOSE* <buffer name or number> to close the file.

For sequential I/O we have *READ* <buffer>, <data> to input data, *WRITE* <buffer>, <data> to output.

For random I/O we have *READ* <buffer>, <record #>, <data> and *WRITE* <buffer>, <record #>, <data> to read and write, respectively. The *SEEK* <buffer>, <record> is used to position record pointers to a specific location.

Port communications is carried out in a similar way to file I/O except the modes allowed are, obviously, *INPUT* and *OUTPUT*.

■ **Incrementing, decrementing and scaling variables.** These operations are used extensively in all languages. Some, like C, offer a shorthand way of stating them. I am adopting the C notation. This is useful in shortening code lines since long variable names would most likely be used for clarity. To increment a variable:

Variable += Added number

which is equivalent to

Variable = Variable + Added number

and to decrement a variable:

Variable -= Subtracted number

Similarly, scaling a variable by multiplication or division, as in

Variable = Variable \* Factor

and

Variable = Variable / Factor

become (Variable \*= Factor) and (Vari-



able /= Factor), respectively.

■ **Remarks.** For those who want to formalize remarks and comments, borrowing from Ada's syntax is useful. The remark is expressed by at least two consecutive dashes, as in:


```
-- This is a remark
----- This one too!
----- and so is this ----
```

Listing 4 shows pseudocode for solving a single nonlinear equation using the Newton-Raphson method. The PPL shown reflects a rather detailed code revealing very specific algorithms.

Listing 5 shows the code for a regression program that will read data from a file and perform a best-fit regression. This is done by subjecting the data read to a combination of mathematical transformations. Each of the latter represents a different regression model.

The code shown will process the data through four models. The slope, intercept and correlation coefficient is calculated for each model. An insertion sort is performed as results are obtained for each model. This allows for the printing of the curve fitting information sorted from best to worst model. The PPL listing reflects the case where a programmer is avoiding detailed coding in certain areas.

Do you have any comments or suggestions concerning PPL? Does the idea of a consistent type of pseudocode appeal to you? Is it too restrictive? Would you like to participate in a SIG-PPL group for further refinement of PPL? Let me hear from you. Please write to me in care of *COMPUTER LANGUAGE*, 131 Townsend St., San Francisco, Calif. 94107 or contact me through the BBS or CompuServe.

In the next issue I will discuss interactive parsers and interpreters for mathematical equations (i.e., the heart of electronic spreadsheets). If you have any code or algorithms to share, questions to ask, or would like to enrol in the SIG list, drop me a line. Remember that the SIGs are there to help exchange information and, who knows, perhaps find your next software coauthor! 

PPL listing for solving a single nonlinear equation using the Newton-Raphson method

PROGRAM Root

Version 1.0 June 10, 1984  
LAST UPDATE : 06-15-84 12:22:23

INPUT Guess, Accuracy, Maximum

```
INITIALIZE Set Counter = 0
           Set Goflag True
```

LOOP

```
-- The token below is not followed by anything as part of
-- simulating the REPEAT-UNTIL loop
```

BEGIN

```
IF abs(Guess) > 1 THEN Increment = 0.01 * Guess
                    ELSE Increment = 0.01
```

END IF

```
Delta_X = 2 * Increment * {F(Guess)} /
          ({F(Guess + Increment)} - {F(Guess + Increment)})
```

```
Guess -= Delta_X
```

```
Counter += 1
```

```
IF Counter > Maximum THEN Goflag is False END IF
```

```
When (abs(Delta_X) <= Accuracy) OR (Goflag is False) EXIT
```

END LOOP

TERMINATE None

```
IF Goflag is True THEN
    DISPLAY Guess and Counter
```

```
ELSE
    DISPLAY Message for divergence
```

END IF

END PROGRAM -- This is optional

FUNCTION {F(X)}

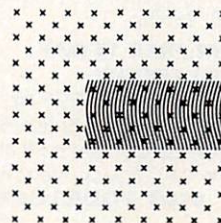
-- User function

```
F = EXP(X) - 3 * X * X
```

END

END PPL

Listing 4.





# THE C/UNIX\*

## Hotline

### C TITLES

- 1. Programming in C with a Bit of UNIX\***, F. Richard Moore. A first glimpse of C for the computer novice. 1985, 388 pp., paper (73009-3) \$16.95; cloth (73010-1) \$22.95.
- 2. Learning to Program in C**, Thomas Plum. Plum walks programmers through the world of C. 1984, paper (52784-6) \$25.00; cloth (52785-3) \$32.95.
- 3. C Programming Guidelines**, Thomas Plum. Put yourself on solid ground with this clear explanation of the standards. 1984, 145 pp., paper (10999-1) \$26.00.
- 4. The C Programmer's Handbook**, AT&T Bell Laboratories, M. I. Borsky. Destined to be the C programmer's constant companion. 1985, 96 pp., spiral (11007-2) \$14.95.
- 5. The C Programming Language**, Brian W. Kernighan and Dennis M. Ritchie. The "Bible"—a must for C programmers. 1978, 228 pp., cloth (11016-3) \$22.95.
- 6. C: A Reference Manual**, Samuel P. Harbison and Guy L. Steele. The latest details of C—right at your fingertips! 1984, paper (11000-7) \$19.95; cloth (11001-5) \$24.95.
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### UNIX TITLES

- 1. The UNIX\* Programming Environment**, Puts two UNIX experts right at your side. 1984, paper (93768-0) \$19.95; cloth (93769-6) \$26.95. Brian Kernighan and Rob Pike
- 2. A UNIX\* Primer**, Ann Nicols Lomuto and Nico Lomuto. Lays out UNIX by cutting through common problems. 1983, 240 pp., paper (93773-0) \$20.00; cloth (93888-6) \$21.95.
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PPL listing for best-curve fit

PROGRAM BEST\_FIT

Version 1.0 June 10, 1984

LAST UPDATE : 06-15-84 12:22:23

```

INPUT Filename           -- Get name of data source
OPEN Filename,#1,INPUT
READ #1,Number_of_data  -- Read the amount of data
INITIALIZE None         -- Loop to read the (X,Y) data pairs
LOOP
  BEGIN For counter = 1 to Num_of_data
    READ #1,X(counter),Y(counter)
  END LOOP
TERMINATE CLOSE #1 -- close buffer

```

Set Num\_Model = 4 -- This sets number of models

[DO REGRESSION]

Print sorted results

END PROGRAM

-----

PROCEDURE [DO REGRESSION]

```

INITIALIZE None
LOOP Outer
  BEGIN For model = 1 to Num_Model
    INITIALIZE Set regression summation to zero
    LOOP Summations
      BEGIN For count = 1 to Num_of_data
        [Transform]
        Update summations using X and Y
      END LOOP Summations
    TERMINATE None
    Calculate Slope, Intercept and correlation coefficient
    -- Perform insertion sort using the values of the
    -- correlation coefficient
    [SORT]
  END LOOP Outer
TERMINATE None

```

END

-----

PROCEDURE [Transform]

```

CASE model
  WHEN 1 => X = X(count); Y = Y(count)
  WHEN 2 => X = Log(X(count)); Y = Y(count)
  WHEN 3 => X = X(count); Y = Log(Y(count))
  WHEN 4 => X = Log(X(count)); Y = Log(Y(count))

```

END CASE

END

END PPL -- This must be included in every PPL listing using  
-- program NILE.PAS

Listing 5.



## UNIX on micros

By Ken Takara

**U**NIX has been around on mini-computers for a long time. This month, however, let's focus on the future of UNIX as a micro-computer operating system alternative.

Many factions in the microcomputer industry have stated that UNIX may never receive the market acceptance UNIX supporters claim it will primarily because of certain inherent problems with the UNIX operating system's overall organization and interface to the programmer and end user.

Let's turn now to a discussion of UNIX on micros and focus on certain arguments that deal with UNIX as a development environment.

The following people debate the UNIX issue in this month's column: John McNamee, a free-lance consultant; Jack Crenshaw, software engineer; Bob Peterson of the MUSUS SIG on the Compu-Serve data base; Mike Cohen; Morton Goldberg; Tim Smith; Bob Upshaw; Earle Robinson; Eli Willner; Joel Swank; and Dennis Hamilton.

**I**s it reasonable to run UNIX on a micro? It has a reputation as a rather large operating system, requiring vast amounts of memory and disk space.

**McNamee:** Define micro and you will get a better answer. I doubt a Commodore 64 will run it, and the IBM PC has a hard time. My view is that UNIX requires a CPU made by somebody other than Intel and a disk drive that is faster than the ST506 interface, 100-millisecond seek drives you find in PCs.

**Peterson:** I have had occasion to look into how much machine UNIX needs. I came to the conclusion that 256K RAM, memory management/protection and 5MB of hard disk space are the absolute minimums for UNIX.

Certain clone systems—for example,

IDRIS—require less disk space and no memory management. This places UNIX in the medium to upper ranges of micros at a usual cost of \$5,000 through \$7,000 for the basic machine. This would be for a single-user machine.

I tend to believe that UNIX is a better fit with the architecture of the MC68000 and National 32000 processors. In the Intel world, an 80286 is probably the realistic minimum for decent performance.

**Cohen:** 256K RAM? Try doing anything useful on a 256K TRS-16! 512K is more like it. That and a 5MB hard disk would still be a *very* tight fit. A nice thing would be a streamlined, single-user UNIX subset.

**McNamee:** That's not really true. The PDP-11 is a mini, and it can only address 64K of code plus 64K of data, and you can't even play tricks to get more. There are no user-accessible segment registers. The definitions of super-micro, mini, super-mini, and mainframe seem to constantly change. When the PDP-11/70 came out, everybody said it was almost a mainframe. Now you can get an LSI-11/73 with about the same speed right on your desk.

I think Fortune tried to sell floppy-based UNIX. You will notice that their profits (or should I say, lack of them) may have had something to do with trying to sell systems too small to run UNIX.

Tandy threatened to release floppy-based XENIX, but so far it has not shown up. I don't know anybody else doing it.

**Goldberg:** I'll stick my two cents in. I had VENIX/86 running on my PC-XT. I killed it because it wanted too much disk space. It would only allow PC-DOS 3MB of the 10MB on the hard disk. My PC-DOS applications outgrew 3MB and VENIX had to go.

VENIX/86 is a real UNIX, an AT&T licensed version 7 with some Berkeley enhancements such as the vi screen editor. Code developed under VENIX should run on most UNIX systems if it is recompiled on the system it is moved to. I got VENIX to develop code for what I thought was going to be the booming UNIX-on-PCs market. But the market didn't boom.

I earn more money from stuff I do on PC-DOS than I could with the VENIX stuff. So it was an economic decision that forced me to abandon VENIX. If I could

have afforded a second hard disk, I would have kept them both.

**Crenshaw:** It seems to me everyone's missing a key point: UNIX is a time-sharing system. That means that one CPU is used to poll or otherwise respond to a usually large number of user terminals. It also means a very considerable overhead is required to allow that CPU to do all the bookkeeping necessary to support that.

That means context switching, access control, virtual memory overhead, priority control, accounting, mail and message handling—not to mention the ubiquitous news!—etc., etc. That doesn't leave much CPU left over for number crunching, as anyone who's ever used a 40-user VAX can testify.

UNIX is without a doubt the best OS ever written for multi-user, time-sharing systems, bar none. Now the question is, do such systems have any place on a micro? As a strong supporter of Purnelle's law—at least one CPU per user—I claim they do not. For some reason, whenever a new computer is announced (for example, the IBM PC AT) the first question asked is, will it run UNIX? The next one is, how many users will it support?

My question is, why do we want to crowd people onto a single CPU? Has silicon suddenly become a precious metal? To get back to single-user UNIX, isn't that OS-9?

**McNamee:** There is no reason why UNIX can't be run single user. The only difference between multi-user and single-user UNIX is an entry in */etc/tty*. A process is a process is a process. It doesn't matter if they are all attached to the same terminal or to multiple terminals.

I think the reason everybody asks if it runs UNIX and how many users it supports is that networks aren't doing the job they should. Right now it costs less to have one machine serving multiple users than it does to network a bunch of PC's.

**Peterson:** UNIX is one of the few operating systems that will live comfortably on a local area network. A single-user UNIX machine in a LAN satisfies the more-than-one processor/user criterion while providing multitasking. OS-9 is not UNIX, nor is it a single-user UNIX.



There is a need in the real world to share data. At the current time, a multi-user machine is the best understood environment for data sharing. The LAN environment is finally getting some software packages that share across the network, but they are few.

At the present time, a 3 to 10-user machine is cheaper than 3 to 10 micros. This is because of the mechanical devices and packaging, not the silicon. When the economics of the world change so that a LAN environment with data sharing tools is less expensive than a multi-user machine, and such a system is available from a trusted vender, then LAN systems will become more prevalent than multi-user systems.

**Hamilton:** I believe that UNIX having been implemented in a time-sharing setting is irrelevant to a discussion of what UNIX is. There isn't much about the architecture that users see that commits UNIX one way or the other.

You build it with a time-sharing kernel when you've got a large facility that you want to share. When you have small facilities that you want to interconnect, you do it differently. But the user, apart from

observed performance differences, should be able to get work done on either with the same knowledge and skills.

**N**ow, who would want to use the world's most impossible system . . . ?

**McNamee:** A programmer with an IQ greater than his or her shoe size should have no problem. Users are best given menu shells or another such interface. Turning a dumb user over to one of the standard shells is cruel and unusual punishment.

UNIX was a system designed by programmers for other programmers. It does make it very easy to set a user up with a menu shell, but you need a programmer to do the initial setup. I think the same could be said about CP/M or MS-DOS. The CP/M prompt A > doesn't give you much more to go on than + or %.

**Peterson:** UNIX is an old system. Many times this means that there is a lot of software available, and for UNIX this is true. But in the UNIX world, this software isn't oriented to the business or personal user but to the academic or software developer.

The fact that UNIX was designed in the early 1970s also means that it was based on contemporary design principles and hardware. This implies that UNIX itself doesn't know about bit-map displays, for example. Some applications do, and some

venders do ship bit-map-oriented user interfaces, but these are add-ons, not a part of the basic system.

The average user will be better served with TopView on an IBM PC AT or with some other system for which appropriate applications software is available.

**Upshaw:** The only way to address the severe shortage of good software is to make it possible to write a piece of software once and use it on a large number of different machines.

It's clear to even the most casual observer that UNIX is running on more different machines than any other operating system. It's only natural that UNIX migrate to micros.

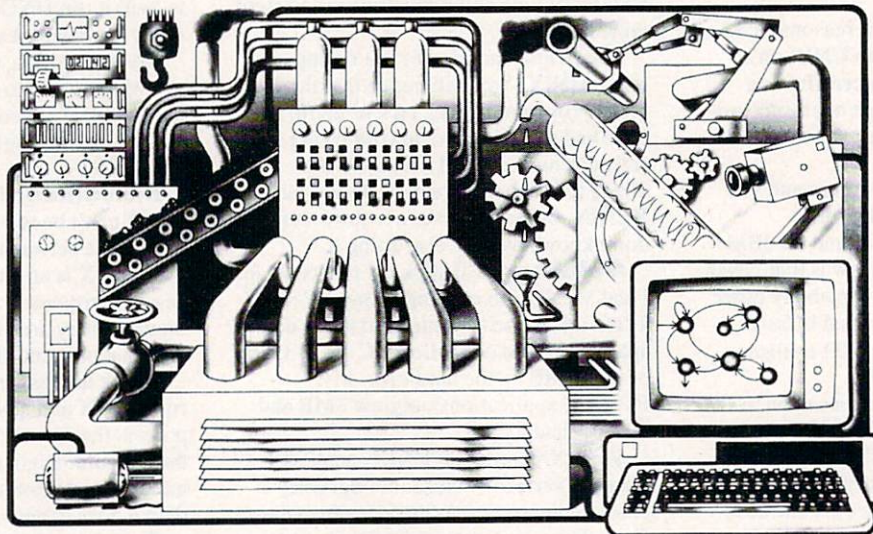
**Crenshaw:** I think when many people talk about UNIX, they are really talking about the user interface. And that can be gotten in a lot of OS's. As a matter of fact, I think we should be sure we are all talking about the same aspects of the OS.

The part of UNIX that I think is least suited to micros is the file system and the terminal interface software. I love the directory structure and the shell.

**McNamee:** I am a programmer. I

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know what I'm doing. I usually get things right. UNIX is for people just like me. It provides me with the tools to get my job done in the least amount of time with the least effort. It also allows me to easily create any user interface I desire.

I can set up a machine that secretaries can use without ever knowing about any UNIX commands. All they need to do is log in. The only people who lose with UNIX are the ones who need help (i.e., dumb end users) but don't buy a system with proper support (in the form of a programmer to set them up).

It is very important to remember that UNIX is not MS-DOS or CP/M. It is a multi-user operating system. I don't know of any good multi-user system that is so simple a total novice could make it go without help. Sure, it's easier to use MS-DOS, but MS-DOS does not solve the same problems as UNIX.

**Smith:** I like UNIX too, as a programmer's system. But I curse it many times, for example, when I forget some bizarre aspect of, say, shell syntax. Also, as a one-time UNIX system administrator on a big VAX, I know how bad it can be when you have a bunch of dumb and/or unfriendly users aboard.

We need something better. There's no reason why it can't be done. Maybe it's mice and icons for the end users and a good shell for the experts, both on the same system. But it's going to have to be a lot more efficient than any current UNIX.

**Robinson:** I can certainly agree that UNIX is better than CP/M, which is only a very primitive file loader. But to say that it is better than MS-DOS for a single user is something else. UNIX, due to its constant file accessing, would be unacceptably slow on most micros unless it were a CPU of the MC68000 family.

Otherwise, with the features now available under MS-DOS and the excellent public domain utilities—like directory programs, extended type-ahead buffer, NDOSEDIT, editors, squeeze and unsqueeze programs, shells, etc.—MS-DOS is the system of preference for most people other than those actually doing program development.

**McNamee:** Does *dir* really mean more than *ls*? I doubt it. Most of the places where I've seen a large number of dumb users doing computer work, they all had their instructions written down, and they just followed the steps. They really didn't know what they were doing, and in this kind of environment, it doesn't matter whether you type *delete*, *era*, or *rm* to erase a file.

**Crenshaw:** Count me in as one who

has been less than overwhelmed by UNIX. Well, to be more accurate, the thing that turns me off most is not so much the system as the aura of mystery that seems to surround it. It's what I call the Fraternity Syndrome.

In brief, a young computer science student gets his first exposure to UNIX in school. He's totally blown away by it and totally in awe of the UNIX wizards. But after stumbling around for a few years, he learns some things and wakes up one morning to find that he's one of the wizards. He's held in awe by others and that feels pretty good.

Now do you think he's going to tell you all you need to know to use UNIX effectively? No way. You're going to have to pay your dues, same as he did.

I find that this attitude pervades everything about a typical UNIX installation, including the command names and the documentation. To me, it takes a lot of the fun out of things. It's like some kind of gigantic inside joke.

**Willner:** One more vote against UNIX. I don't like to fight my environment. I don't like to memorize archaic commands, no matter how much it makes me look like a wiz. I don't like to destroy all my files because of a misplaced keystroke.

**Swank:** UNIX is hard to learn, but once learned, it is very powerful. I can do in one line in UNIX what would take me 200 cards in IBM-360 JCL.

**Peterson:** Willner pointed out a couple of the reasons I don't like UNIX. The command names don't relate to the function of the command and I, too, don't like an environment where dangerous operations don't prompt for verification.

However, my dislike goes deeper. UNIX doesn't have a consistent method of record locking, and the file system is excessively fragile. The OS doesn't take advantage of the fact that almost all terminals are now CRTs, not TTYs. Not to mention that UNIX doesn't understand bit-mapped displays.

One of the great myths about UNIX is that there is a single thing named UNIX. This just isn't so. User groups are just now defining what they consider the core of UNIX, including OS calls and library utilities. In addition to the various versions delivered by AT&T and Berkeley, each processor's and/or vender's implementation differs in subtle ways.

I like the tools philosophy embodied in UNIX and the concept of pipes. However, the idea of pipes deserves to be extended. It hasn't really changed since UNIX was first written up in SIGPLAN notices.

**Upshaw:** The UNIX user interface allows one to easily go from one machine to another. Sure VisiCalc will port fairly easily from one CP/M machine to another (say, an Apple to a Xerox 820), but it's a rewrite to port to an IBM PC, not to men-

tion a VAX or a Cray (yes, there is a spreadsheet on the Cray). And, of course, the UNIX/C environment is conducive to portability.

**McNamee:** I like UNIX as a programmer's environment and would hate to see it turned into a pure end-user system. I think it is quite possible to build a reasonable interface on top of existing UNIX. I don't think you can build a programmer friendly interface on top of a Mice/Icon system.



In its intended environment, the Mice/Icon interface works well. It just doesn't do anything good for me as a programmer, and in fact, it holds me back. I want to bring up again my point that it isn't fair to compare the user friendly aspects of UNIX to existing single-user OS's.

Compare it to other time-sharing systems. Multi-user systems such as UNIX were created with goals very different from those of the Mac. UNIX is good for what it was designed, and the Mac is good for what it was designed. UNIX is not the OS for everybody or even for the majority of the people.

**Upshaw:** When I am interviewing candidates for a job, more often than not they have used UNIX. UNIX is very popular in the universities, and with all the major vendors jumping on the UNIX bandwagon, its popularity is likely to increase.

When I hire someone, I don't want to train my employee to use five different systems—I've got more important things to do. If he or she already knows the system that runs all five of my machines, I'll save a considerable amount of time and money.

**Smith:** Try to get hold of a copy of the November issue of *UNIX Review*. There's an interview with Don Norman, a professor of psychology at Univ. of California at San Diego. In it he explains why he does and doesn't like UNIX. He's a sharp guy and has become something of an expert in the design of systems for good human interaction.

 Periodically, I will be holding argument clinics over some subject on the CLM SIG on CompuServe. If you don't happen to have a CompuServe account, you can still join in. I will try to announce the future subjects in advance on the *COMPUTER LANGUAGE* Bulletin Board Service, so send your thoughts through the mail or via the BBS. 



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C



## P.J. Plauger reflects on the history of C

By Craig LaGrow

**H**e calls himself a programmer at heart. But as an accomplished science fiction writer, president of a successful software company, technical book author, musician, and runner, P.J. Plauger is certainly a man of many talents.

His friends and work associates know him as Bill—a name he was affectionately given by his older sister three days after his birth. But in any published, professional work, he prefers to use the initials of his real name, Phillip James.

Plauger's first contact with Bell Laboratories was as a undergraduate at Princeton Univ. in the early 1960s. He and several of his fellow students were fortunate enough to shuttle back and forth between Bell Labs and school and get involved in temporary summer projects.

"In those days it was heaven," says Plauger. "It was the place to go because just about anything you could do that would advance the state of communications in the next five years was considered fair game. And it was the place to be if you were interested in being at the cutting edge of programming."

"In the 1960s, there was still this tremendous intellectual freedom in the very undefined world of computer programming," he remembers. "Maybe a place like IBM Yorktown Heights, RCA, GTE, or XEROX would come close, but Bell Labs was really just a wonderful place to be for freedom and access to resources."

Plauger went on after Princeton to earn a Ph.D. in nuclear physics from Michigan State Univ. There he spent half his time, with a fellow graduate student, designing and writing a virtual memory operating system. He confesses that he "invented" demand paging, not knowing that the rest of the world had already done so.

"I've worked and earned my living as a programmer since 1963, and I say that very proudly," says Plauger. "I consider myself a programmer rather than a manager or a computer scientist. Those are things that I've done, but I've earned my living as a computer programmer."

Plauger started working for Bell Labs upon receiving his doctorate in 1969, first

at Holmdel, N.J., then later at their Murray Hill, N.J., headquarters. He spent his five and one-half years at Bell Labs as a member of technical staff, which is the standard staff level for people doing research. His department was chartered with getting computers into telephone central offices and digitizing things so that data processing technology could be better brought to bear.

But he was also surrounded by people like Dennis Ritchie, Ken Thompson, and Brian Kernighan, who were working on the beginnings of what was to become UNIX and C. He naturally soaked up as much of that technology as he could, fascinated by anything that could improve programmer productivity.

While Plauger was working at Bell Labs, he designed small, in-house languages, built a few compilers, and began to work with rudimentary UNIX and program development tools.

"In many ways, the success of UNIX was little more than a matter of Thompson and Ritchie setting up fences, if you will, to herd people in the right direction," remembers Plauger. "They just made it easier for people to write reusable software with good properties. If there has ever been a central committee on how to homogenize UNIX, it has only existed the last couple of years—and a lot of the payoff has been lost in the growth and size of UNIX from attempting to homogenize it."

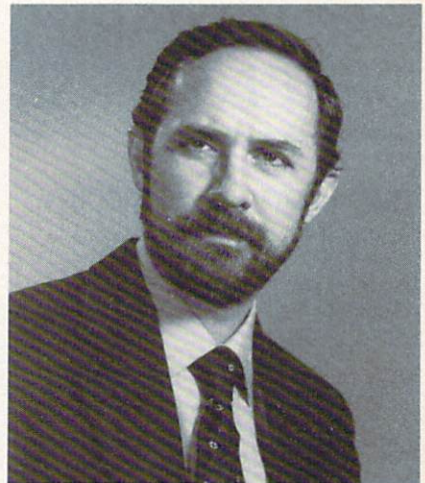
According to Plauger, there is no question that Ritchie invented the C language and made it what it is today.

"It was his baby, and that's one of its great strengths; its integrity stems from the fact that there was one good designer who was really responsible," says Plauger. "All of us to this day who are involved with it deferred to him."

**P**lauger was one of the first real C programmers.

Working on an old PDP-11/20—the very first PDP-11 UNIX system—he recalls tripping over many of the bugs when things like structures first went into the language.

An interesting footnote to the C language development going on at the time was that Plauger was simultaneously developing a language he hoped would



rival C. He then completed a language implementation that today would resemble something like PL/M for the PDP-11.

"One of the smarter things I did in my career was realize after a period of time that the C language was superior to mine," he says. "I actually had the decency to stand up and tell a lot of people that even though I'd put a lot of work into this language, C was better and they should use it instead. I became a convert in the early days."

Thompson had been experimenting with a language called B, a precursor to C that was, according to Plauger, a "cute derivative" of another experimental language called BCPL. "The trouble with it on a PDP-11, though, was that it assumed everything was a 16-bit integer," Plauger recalls.

The B language could manipulate pointers like 16-bit integers but, because of its weakness with byte resolution addressing of the PDP-11, a programmer had to know to count by twos to step through an array. Because of this, data typing went into the language just to help the compiler know how to manipulate pointers to different types of data.

The second problem with B was that it wasn't a true compiler but rather an interpreter.

"C in a nutshell is B with typing to get



# C

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the pointer arithmetic right and true compilation to get better efficiency," says Plauger.

Ironically, however, all the development work on UNIX and C at the time was being done in total opposition to the administrative philosophy of Bell Labs. The fact that the project survived, according to Plauger, was mostly due to a policy of "salutary neglect" on the part of management.

"There were no projects, no specs, no requirements; it was almost all done on speculation—all of it," says Plauger. "Over about a two-and-one-half-year period, one by one most of the people in our area at Bell Labs elected to do their work on UNIX, but nobody told them to," he says.

The GE 635 computer, which was one of the large systems that Bell researchers were supposed to be using in their work, actually turned into a remote printer for the UNIX machine as far as this group was concerned.

"Nobody made them do that. Nobody made them write up the utilities which eventually got swept up into the UNIX package. Nobody enforced a uniform style," says Plauger. "As a consequence, we can all now piss and moan about the irregularities that are there. But considering there was no enforcement, it's remarkably regular. The miracle is that UNIX is as good as it is, not that it couldn't be better."

The early prototypes to UNIX and C also were being used for many interesting projects in-house at the time. Plauger often reminds people that Thompson started UNIX to support his own "little solar system exploration thing" so it would be easier to develop the software for it.

"There were half a dozen people hanging around the UNIX room because each had his own little pet project going, and UNIX was the best leverage to get that accomplished," says Plauger. "Not a single one of them was chartered by management in order to improve productivity or in order to pursue that particular goal."

"It was very easy to get caught up in all this," he recalls. "Of course having Brian Kernighan next door to shoot the bull with and speculate about what we could do with all these things was great."

**A**s Kernighan and Plauger became closer friends and work associates, they ended up writing two books on programming style called *The Elements of Programming Style*,<sup>1</sup> *Software Tools*,<sup>2</sup> and *Software Tools in Pascal*,<sup>3</sup> which have become text book standards in many computer science curricula across the country.

"I think Brian had a folder of examples that showed how bad the training for pro-

grammers was at the time," he says. "Finally, we'd get to a 'there ought to be a law' stage."

"What we did with *The Elements of Programming Style* was to write the manuscript fairly quickly and circulate it among our friends," he recalls. "We'd tend to go on a kind of feeding frenzy, tearing up programming examples from other books. It took us a couple of iterations to get to the correct style that I think made the book what it is.

"Brian is a very solid writer, very direct. And I've tried to emulate Issac Asimov's science-fact writing," says Plauger. "Between the two of us, Brian and I managed to keep the worst offenses of our programmer arrogance and love for big words out of the document. It managed to be something better than either one of us could have done on our own."

Plauger remembers Ritchie being a bit more distant to him both professionally and socially at first. "He lived in his own world, which was populated by the likes of Ken Thompson and Doug McIlroy," says Plauger.

"It was like, wow, this guy comes in at 1:30 or 2:00 p.m. and immediately goes to lunch! But nobody seemed to mind because he'd work till midnight with these people, and they'd all get tremendous amounts of brilliant work done," he says.

Plauger admits that he'll always have a tremendous respect and admiration for Ritchie. "He's a marvelous writer and an excellent designer with what amounts to a slightly enhanced version of Appendix A in Ritchie's and Kernighan's famous book, *The C Programming Language*.<sup>4</sup> Also of importance was the /usr/group effort on standardizing libraries.

Serving as the secretary of the committee since its inception over a year ago, Plauger was also appointed chairman of the Library TG—one of the three technical subcommittees working on pieces of the soon-to-be published ANSI X3J11 C standard.

"I think it's amusing that I ended up as chairman of the Library TG because some have said that's like putting the fox in charge of the hen house," jokes Plauger. "I gravitated toward that because of the tremendous technology that my own compiler company [Whitesmiths Ltd.] has developed for making C work well—not just in UNIX but everywhere."

"We all agreed to adopt the /usr/group standard as the base document for the library standards effort. Essentially what I did was show the committee how to modify that set of functions to get the UNIX-isms out, so that they could be implemented in a variety of environments.

"We also have put forward and adopted a number of additional functions which



you need outside of the UNIX environment. The net result is that what ANSI now has is functionally very compatible with UNIX V7 and System III, which /usr/group has standardized on, but is strongly enhanced semantically to make a more widely usable standard," says Plauger.

Participating in the ANSI committee meetings have been representatives from over two dozen C compiler companies. Consequently, the interests of many companies comes to bear in each of the standards meetings.

According to Plauger, compiler manufacturing companies have a strong influence on the outcome of the standardization. "Other groups, such as educators and independent consumers, are often outvoted because of this makeup," he claims.

"Obviously one of the reasons that we're having all these standardization meetings is that we have these different dialects that have evolved in different little communities. What we're trying to do is to bring them together."

Plauger feels strongly that the main purpose of the ANSI standards effort is to create a marketplace for the C language to grow into.

"If there is no marketplace, there's no way you can make money," says Plauger. "You can bury your gold in your back yard and be safe, but that's not a market. Or at the other extreme, if there are no rules for safe trade, there'll always be pirates waiting out there every time you send a ship out to do business. It'll get boarded and everything gets ripped off. That's not a marketplace either."

But today, after a year and one-half of meetings, the committee is preparing to finalize a document that will formalize the rules and definitions that future C compiler writers will follow when designing different implementations of C for different hardware and operating system environments.

"In these last few meetings, we're really just getting down to the sorts of things that Talmudic scholars would sit around arguing about on a Saturday," says Plauger. "We're really just quibbling over whether certain nice extensions should get stuck into the language before it's frozen and what the subtle interpretation is of certain types of coercions. Things like that."

**Y**et Plauger is also willing to admit that he thinks the C language will soon begin to decline in popularity within the programming community as a whole.

"My feeling is that C is just short of peaking in popularity—that is, it has almost peaked and will start declining soon," says Plauger. "C has some mainte-

nance problems with large programs. It's a little too lax in its declarations and its type checking, and it doesn't have all the facilities you need, such as for packaging."

"You see the amount of stuff that's been written in C, from commercial applications to you name it," says Plauger. "FORTRAN ranks in popularity right up there with C, but C is unquestionably the better language right now. Its major limitation is that when you get a programming project somewhere between 50 and 200 and 1,000 lines of code, you start losing control."

"C just doesn't have all of the things that you need for modularization, strong checking, and so on. It's evolving in that direction, but it's got its weaknesses. Today certain dialects of Pascal are becoming fairly powerful too. The trouble with Pascal is that in order to meet those requirements it has to be extended, and nobody seems to have agreed on which extensions yet.

"Ada is still out of the starting gate. If I had to do a large project commercially, I would do it in structured COBOL. If I felt the demand for performance were too great, I might switch to PL/I but probably to C," says Plauger.

Bell Labs is preparing to introduce an enhanced version of C, called C++, which, according to Plauger, "has a lot of bright ideas tacked on. But it's not compelling to me that's the best thing to do to C yet. Certainly a lot of good ideas that are missing in C can be found in Ada. Ada is full of a lot of things, it's just too big a language. I think right now programming in C, with tighter discipline, is what we're

going to be relying on to carry us through the next few years," says Plauger.

**P**lauger's five-year stint with Bell Labs did not end on the best of terms. In 1974, the woman who he was married to at that time filed charges of sex discrimination against Bell Labs, and Plauger decided to support her in her suit against the company because he felt her claims were justified.

"I think that because I was so outspoken in encouraging her to oppose the company made it hard for people to want to keep me on at Bell Labs," he says. "Let's face it, I didn't have the personality to understand how to work well in an organization of that size. I had a chance to leave under my own steam before I got run out of town on a rail, so I took it."

Plauger left Bell Labs in 1975 to work for Yourdon Inc., a seminar and book publishing company based in New York, N.Y. Ed Yourdon, founder of the company, had created a strong reputation worldwide for being an author of important books on programmer productivity.

"I'd say I went to Yourdon with a head full of ideas about programming tools," he remembers. "When the opportunity came up to actually write a C compiler, I was quite confident that I could do it even though I hadn't written a whole C compiler before."

But Plauger soon left Yourdon to start his own company on the kitchen table of his apartment on New York's Manhattan

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island. He called the company White-smiths because it had a certain Old World sound to it. "We wanted to call to mind the old craft guilds almost back in the Middle Ages, certainly the early Renaissance," says Plauger.

Even the company logo—which shows a hand holding an ink quill pen in front of a collection of different lettering styles spanning thousands of years—can be seen both as an ancient Roman seal and a cathode ray tube.

"I have learned to think of programming not so much as an art but as a craft, meaning a more pragmatic art form," he says. "Certainly you don't write a program and just have everyone stand around and admire it."

Since that time, Plauger's company has written C compilers that stretch from the small, 8080-based microcomputers to the IBM 370. Most of their customers, he claims, depend on the fact that White-smiths is able to bridge such a broad range of systems and environments with a uniform language.

"Let's face it, I started this company because I like writing code and showing the world that you could really produce high-quality code that is marketable. I think we've done that," says Plauger. "Now I'm learning how to be a businessman."

"When you own your own company it

just tends to eat you up," he says. "I do pride myself on being a writer, but I've had little time for that lately. And if you ask me what I do for a living, I'd say I'm a programmer."

**N**ot only is Plauger the head of his own successful software company, but he's also a talented science fiction author. He won the John W. Campbell Award for best new science fiction writer of the year in 1975. His story "Child of All Ages,"<sup>5</sup> originally published in *Analog*, has been widely anthologized and has been optioned for television. His novel, *Fighting Madness*,<sup>6</sup> and several other short stories have been published by *Analog* and other magazines.

Plauger emulates the prose style of C.S. Forrester in his fiction, just as he models his technical writing after Asimov. He prefers to write in a clean and straightforward way, without forcing his readers to "bump their shins on the big words or funky grammar," as he puts it. "When you write science fiction, you can't snow people with fancy terminology, you have to sell a story about people."

Plauger now lives in a beautiful Early Victorian house in Concord, Mass., and spends most of his life with his family shuttling back and forth between this

home and another lakeside home in New Hampshire. Above all, he says he enjoys watching his five-year-old son, Geoffrey, growing up.

Aside from programming and running a company, Plauger practices piano daily and manages to get in a jog every day as well. "I'm a runner just for the pleasure of it, enough to keep my heart ticking well and let me eat extra dessert."

As a multitalented individual, with interests spanning from the artistic to the pragmatic, Plauger certainly qualifies as one of the more fascinating Renaissance people in our computing industry today.

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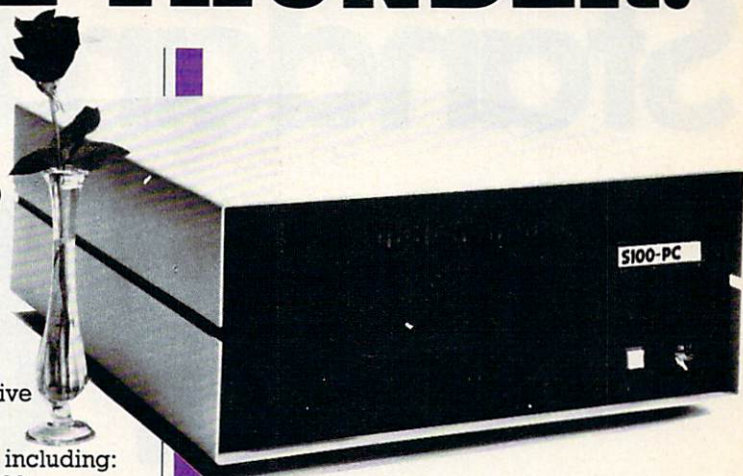
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# The Standardization of C

By Jim Brodie, chairman of C Programming Language Standards Committee

**T**he C programming language has become widely accepted as one of the leading choices for a variety of applications, including systems programming (such as operating systems and compilers), industrial real-time control applications (such as telephone switching systems and process control), and even general applications (such as text editors, data base systems, and spreadsheets).

This widespread interest and use in many environments has prompted the development of a standard to enhance the portability of C programs by precisely specifying the language, library, and environment requirements of C.

In this article I will discuss a little of the history behind this standardization effort, the goals and working principles of the standards committee, and how the language currently being defined by the standard committee is different from the existing de facto standard for C. I will not address the standard activities related to the library or environment.

## Why a new standard?

The C language has a de facto standard definition in *The C Programming Language* by Brian Kernighan and Dennis

Ritchie (affectionately known as K&R in C programming circles). The language as described in K&R has been the starting point for almost every C translator (compiler or interpreter) in use.

Despite the high quality of this book, considerable divergence has occurred in the C translator implementations where language and library features or properties were ambiguously or imprecisely defined (or simply not defined at all). In addition, the language has grown in various directions as it has matured, and user requirements and language weaknesses have been identified. Unfortunately these extensions to the C language have varied significantly across C translator implementations.

Because of the variations in the different dialects of C, the portability of C programs—one of the often noted strengths of C—has suffered.

It became clear a need existed to define a standard that would establish a precise definition of what C translators should accept and what C programmers could count on when trying to write portable programs. This led to the formation of the C Programming Language Standards Committee (labeled X3J11) under the auspices of the American National Standards Institute (ANSI).

The standards committee, which is made up of volunteer representatives from a wide cross section of industry, aca-



demia, and C users, was formed in June 1983. The committee meets four times a year in one week sessions to formulate the new standard that will be presented to the C community for comment and, if satisfactory, approval.

The primary goal for the standards committee is to codify existing practice. It is not in the committee's charter to develop a significantly different language with many new features. Much of the work of the committee centers around determining what is existing practice and

trying to resolve the differences when existing practice is inconsistent or contradictory.

The committee feels strongly that the resulting standard should enhance the portability of C programs. The committee uses the rule of "the fighting chance"—it is striving to develop a standard that does not force a C programmer to write portable programs (the low-level, machine-dependent features of C are part of its strength) but at least gives the programmer a fighting chance of writing a portable program if good programming practices are followed.

Maintaining the Spirit of C is also high on the list of the committee's goals. Some philosophical principles underlie the original design of the C language. The committee is striving to ensure that the C language it defines stays very close to the principles that made C successful in the first place. Some of these principles could be summarized in phrases like "Trust the programmer and allow the programmer to do what needs to be done," "Keep the language small and simple, and "Make it fast, even if it is not guaranteed to be right."

This last principle may need a little explanation. Many operations are defined to be "how the target machine's hardware does it" rather than by some general rule. For example, the size of the basic integer variable type, *int*, is defined to be the natural (read fastest) integer size for the machine. Another example is that C does not define whether there is zero fill or sign fill when an object is shifted to the right. It is allowed to be whatever is fastest and easiest on the particular target machine.

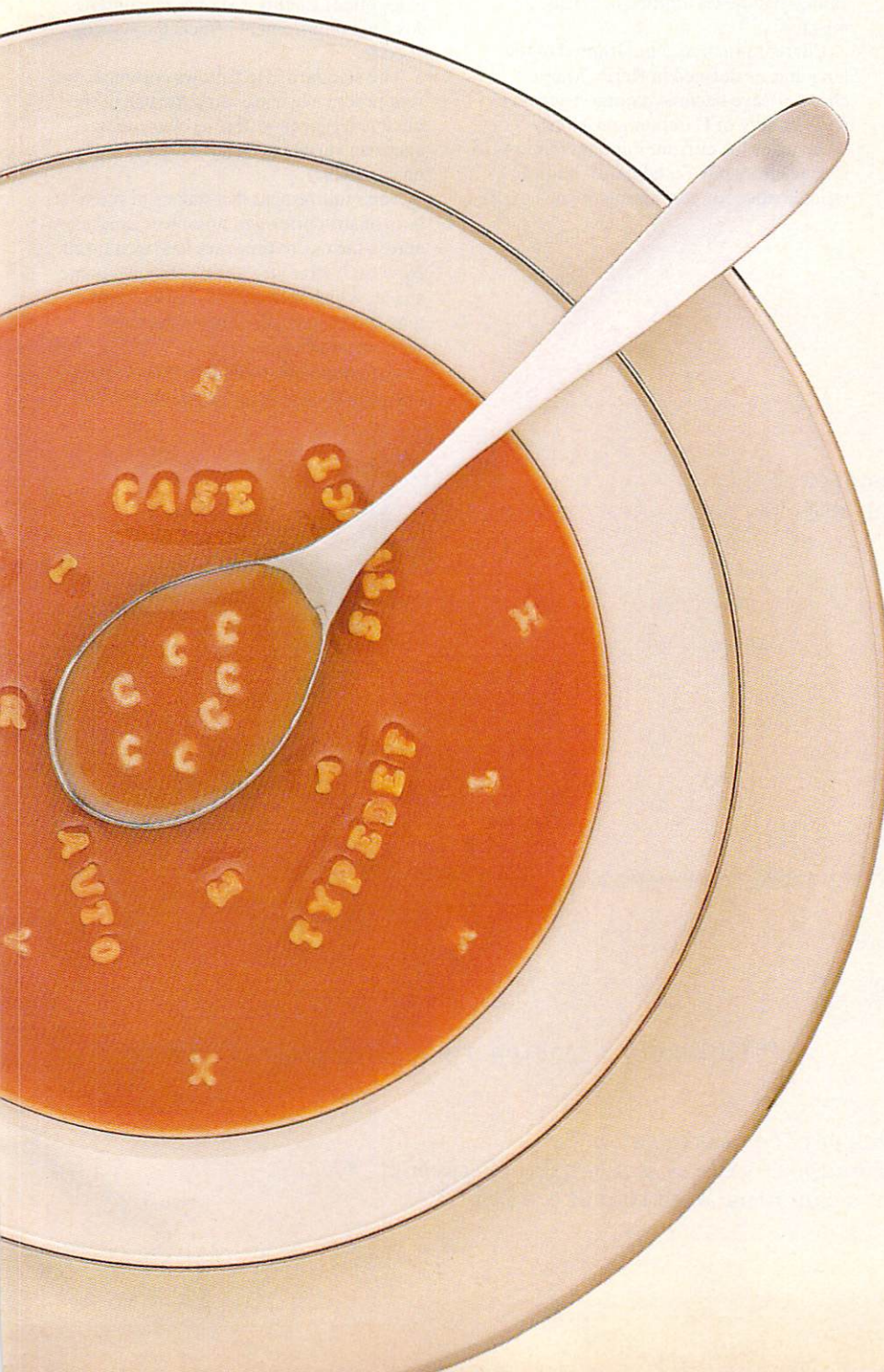
The astute reader may have noticed that the goals of allowing the writing of portable programs and permitting machine-defined features are frequently diametrically opposed. A significant part of the committee's work is determining, on a case-by-case basis, how the language can be defined so that each of the goals is reached in a reasonable way.

The committee is also working to define a standard that will break as little currently working code as is reasonably possible. It has generally been accepted that every translator will need to be modified to meet the requirements of the emerging standard. However, it is the committee's hope that only a small subset rewritten to be accepted by a standard conforming translator.

Other goals, including a desire for semantic precision, internal consistency, simplicity, and reliability, are also considered when trying to evaluate alternative approaches and solutions before the committee. These goals often come into play when considering possible extensions to the C language.

### Changes to K&R

The language portion of the standard is being derived from *The C Reference Manual* by Dennis Ritchie, an early version of which was published as Appendix A of





*The C Programming Language*. In the remainder of this article I will outline some of the differences between the current draft of the standard and the language as defined in K&R.

It should be noted that the draft is not final and that the committee may change its position on any of the features described here. It is not possible to give a final definitive list of language changes and features since the committee remains undecided on several fundamental and many peripheral issues.

Despite this caveat, the features described here will probably be in the draft proposed standard submitted for approval unless a significant amount of C community feedback is received indicating that the committee has made a mistake.

Current practice is not limited to the language as defined in K&R. Many changes have become common across a wide variety of C implementations.

Many of the current implementations of C translators have established slightly stricter rules for combining objects of dif-

ferent types in C expressions. This change is also reflected in the standard. For example, integers (with the exception of 0) can no longer be assigned to a pointer variable unless an explicit cast is supplied. Listing 1 shows an example of how this requirement affects the writing of code.

The standard also follows common, current practice by extending the use of the unsigned type modifier to *char*, *short*, and *long* variables (K&R only defined unsigned *int*).

The requirement that names of members of structures and unions be unique across the entire program has been lifted. Now each structure defines its own name space, which means that member names may be reused in different structures without conflict.

Structures assignment as well as passing structures as arguments and having

```
func1()
{
  int addr=1234;
  char * cp;

  cp = addr;          /* incorrect */
  cp = (char *) addr; /* correct */
}
```

Listing 1.

```
struct firstst
{
  int  f1;
  long s1;
};

struct simplst
{
  int  s1;          /* no name conflict with firstst.s1 */
  short s2;
};

struct simplst str1, str2;

struct simplst stfunc(); /*declare a function returning a structure */
func()
{
  str2 = str1;      /* structure assignment */
  str1 = stfunc(str2); /* function with a structure argument, */
                    /* returning a structure value */
}
```

Listing 2.



functions which return structures are also included in the standard. Listing 2 demonstrates how code that uses these features would look. Note that the assignment of the structure variable *str1* to *str2* causes the contents of *str1* to be copied into *str2*. This is not just a copying of pointers to the structures. Future modifications to members of *str1* will have no effect on the contents of *str2*.

The type *void* has been included to allow the specification that a function does not return a value (i.e., is a procedure). This allows a programmer to be more precise in specifying the correct use of a function.

The listing below demonstrates several uses of *void*. The declaration of the function *vfunc* uses *void* to specify that this is a function that returns no value. This is contrasted with the declarations of *lfunc*, which returns a long *int* and *ifunc* which returns an *int* (by default).

```
void vfunc();
long int lfunc();
ifunc ();
main()
{
vfunc();
(void) lfunc();
}
```

The main program in this example invokes the *void* typed function *vfunc* as a procedure that returns no value. The use of *void* in a cast is shown in the last statement in *main*. Here the *void* cast is used to show that the long value returned by *lfunc* is being explicitly ignored after this call. While the use of the cast in this situation is not required by the standard, it does allow for the writing of programs that are clearer and more maintainable.

Simple enumerated types have also been included. It should be noted that the enumerated types of C are significantly different than those supplied in some other languages, notably Pascal. Enumerated type variables are treated by C as simple integer variables, and no predecessor or successor functions are supplied. It is also possible to control the values of each of elements in the enumeration list. For example, in Listing 3 the enu-

meration constants *apple*, *grape*, *pear*, and *orange* have the values 0, 1, 4, and 5, respectively. The assignment causes *myjuice* to have a value of 4.

The last line of Listing 3 emphasizes the integer nature of enumerated type variables. The variable *myjuice* is decremented by one (using the `--` operator). *Myjuice* now contains the value 3, not the value 1. No special processing is done to limit the values held by an enumerated type variable to those in its enumeration list.

The rules for identifiers have been changed slightly. Identifiers continue to be of an arbitrary length; however, internal identifiers (e.g., *auto* and *static* variables) may now be significant anywhere in the first 31 characters (as opposed to eight in K&R). External identifiers (e.g., global variables and non-static functions) are more restricted due to the large number of implementations that have assemblers, linkers, and other language-related utilities that can not support long names.

Conforming implementations are only required to support external identifiers (global variables and non-static functions), which are single case and significant in the first six characters. Implementations can, of course, allow a greater number of significant characters in an external identifier.

The committee has also clarified the rules in several areas where various implementations had taken different approaches. One area that falls into this category is the "writability" of strings. Some current implementations view strings as constants that cannot be modified (and put into ROM, if useful). Others view them as an array of characters

that can be modified just as any array can be.

The current draft of the standard specifies that strings are constants and are not writable. It is allowable for a translator to supply writable strings as an extension to the language, however, portable programs should not use this extension.

Considerable variety in implementations has occurred in the area of macros. A fairly common practice in this area is "pasting" together tokens by eliding a comment between them. This practice, shown in Listing 4, is based on the assumption that a comment can be replaced by nothing rather than white space as specified in K&R. This practice will not have the desired merging effect in standards conforming translators since the standard explicitly states that comments are replaced by white space (e.g., a blank).

Since the merging facility was viewed as useful, the committee defined a new, consistent syntax for token pasting on *#define* lines. This syntax uses a new *##* operator (Listing 5).

### New rules and extensions

In addition to the noted changes as a result of common existing practice and clarifications, the committee has established some new rules and added several extensions to the C language to meet specific well-defined needs.

The most ambitious extension has been the addition of a facility, called function prototypes, which allows the checking and conversion of function call arguments. This feature has been added to address the C language weakness that there was no way to ensure that actual function arguments were correct other

```
func2 ()
{
enum fruit {apple, grape, pear=4, orange};
enum fruit myjuice;

myjuice = pear;
--myjuice;
}
```

Listing 3.



Old style of merging

```
/* merge arguments a and b into a single token */
#define concat(a,b)  a/**/b
```

Listing 4.

New style of merging

```
/* merge arguments a and b into a single token */
#define concat(a,b)  a # b
```

Listing 5.

```
int protol (long, char *, short);
double proto2 (void);
unsigned int oldfunc();

func()
{
int    abc;
char * cp;
short  xyz;
double dbl;

abc = protol(abc, cp, xyz); /* abc is widened to a long */
dbl = proto2(abc);         /* invalid function call */
```

Listing 6.

```
main()
{
unsigned char uc;
signed char  sc;
char         c;
int          abc;

uc = '\377';
sc = '\377';
c  = '\377';

/* assuming 8-bit char and two's complement */
abc = uc; /* abc becomes 255 */
abc = sc; /* abc becomes -1 */
abc = c; /* depends on the implementation, */
          /* either 255 or -1 */
```

Listing 7.

than by tedious hand-checking. Some of the most difficult-to-find bugs are related to mismatched types between a function's parameters and the actual arguments on the function call.

The optional prototype facility allows the specification of a function declaration that includes type information for each of the parameters to the function. When present, it causes the translator to check each of the actual arguments on a function call. If the arguments match the corresponding parameter type in the prototype then nothing is done.

If an actual argument has a different type, but is convertible to the correct type by the rules of assignment, then the code to do the appropriate conversion is added. For example, an *int* actual argument would be converted to a *long* if the corresponding argument in the prototype was a *long*. If the arguments are different and there is no valid assignment conversion (e.g., between *int* and structure type) then an error has occurred.

Listing 6 demonstrates the declaration for several functions. *Protol* is declared to be a function that returns *int*. It has three parameters which have types *long*, pointer to *char*, and *short*, respectively. *Proto2* is declared to be a function, returning a double. It has no parameters (note the use of the *void* keyword). *Oldfunc* is defined as a function that returns unsigned *short*. This declaration does not contain any parameter type information, and therefore the traditional rules that did not include any checking or conversion apply on the calls to *oldfunc*.

The function calls made in *func* will be handled as follows. The call to *protol* will be checked. It will be determined that *abc* is of type *int* and that the prototype calls for a *long*. The appropriate conversion code will be generated. The other arguments match, therefore no additional special work is required. The call to *proto2* will be checked, and since the prototype says there are no arguments and the call has an argument, the call is invalid.

There are several places in C where the sign of a value is allowed to be whatever is fastest for the compiler to generate. This is seen when *char* and bit field values are widened to integers during expression evaluations. In these cases it is implementation-defined whether a value



that has the high-order bit set results in a positive or negative integer value.

This freedom for implementors allows for efficient code generation but causes problems when the signedness of a *char* or bit field value is important when writing portable programs. This problem has been addressed with the addition of the type modifier, *signed*, to the language.

The *signed* type modifier guarantees that the translator will view the bit pattern in the *char* variable or bit field as representing a signed value. Listing 7 shows an example of the three types of signedness that *char* variables can take on. Assuming an 8-bit *char*, the assignment of “\377” (octal 377) will set all of the bits in each of the variables.

However, when these variables are used (e.g., widened during the assignment to an integer variable), they are interpreted in different ways. The *unsigned char* is guaranteed to take on only zero and positive values. The *signed char* includes both positive and negative values. The “plain” *char* has an implementation-defined range. However, since implementations are allowed to select the fastest widening available in the hardware, plain *char* is an appropriate choice when the signedness of the value is not important (e.g., when it will only hold printable characters).

Two new type modifiers have also been added to the C language: *const* and *volatile*. The *const* modifier has been added to allow the specification that a data item will not be changed during the course of the program. This information is particularly valuable in small environments where constant data could be placed in ROM, if desired.

The presence of the *const* modifier causes the compiler to check for the invalid direct assignment, incrementing, or decrementing of the *const* object. Indirect attempts to modify *const* objects via pointers cause undefined behavior that the compiler is not required to diagnose.

The code fragment in Listing 8 shows how definitions using the *const* type modifier would look. The first line declares a constant *xyz* with a value of 24. Next, the constant array *arr* is defined and initialized. *Const* objects should always be ini-

tialized since modifications are not allowed in the body of the code.

The *volatile* type modifier indicates to the compiler that this object may be modified in ways unknown to the translator. It prevents the translator from optimizing any expressions that use this object. This has been added to address the need, in many microprocessor environments, for the adequate handling of memory mapped I/O.

In a memory mapped I/O system, a read or write of a location may cause special side effects, even though the statement appears pointless or unnecessary from the C code point of view.

The code fragment that follows defines and uses the *volatile* object *iomem*. If *iomem* had not been *volatile*, the translator would have been free to eliminate the first assignment to *iomem* since there is no use of *iomem* before it is assigned a new value in the second statement. Since *iomem* is *volatile*, this possible optimization is not allowed. This preserves the special semantics that may be associated with repeated writes to memory mapped I/O location.

```
main ()
{
    volatile char iomem;
    iomem = 0;
    iomem = 1;
```

An important benefit of the *volatile* modifier is that it frees the translator to do sophisticated optimizations when it is not present.

```
const short xyz = 24;
const int   arr[4] = {188, 996, 44, -17};

func ()
{
    int abc;

    abc = xyz + arr[3]; /* appropriate use of constants */
    xyz = 10;          /* invalid use of a constant */
    arr[2]++;          /* invalid use of a constant */
```

Listing 8.

This previous discussion has been a brief overview of the language-related work which is currently going on in the standards effort for the C programming language. I have not presented all of the changes and features that people will find new and different in the standard. However, I have tried to cover some of the major areas of change and to explain the underlying goals and principles that have guided all of the changes.

People interested in becoming involved in the standards activity or in obtaining a copy of the working document which, when complete, will become the draft proposed standard should contact either:

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# C Instead of FORTRAN?

By Anthony Skjellum



One of the most prevalent topics for disagreement between programmers is the choice of programming language. Many articles discuss the relative merits and demerits of various languages, and some authors make invidious comparisons to show that their own favorite language is better than the rest.

While many of these articles are quite informative, they usually fail to bring out how the application affects the choice of language. For example, one would normally choose a data base language for data base management applications as opposed to a general-purpose language like BASIC or Pascal.

Through examples this article attempts to illustrate why the C programming language works well for scientific and engineering applications. Before beginning, some background comments are in order.

Traditionally, scientific and engineering applications have depended very heavily on FORTRAN as the source language. FORTRAN was introduced early in the computer age. It subsequently became widely available, and the language afforded some portability between different hardware. FORTRAN became popular with scientists and engineers.

For many of these programmers, the concept of programming begins and ends with FORTRAN. Unfortunately, FOR-

TRAN did not provide a programming environment that was conducive to structured, modular programming.

Furthermore, the intense connection of intrinsic functions to the compiler often forced programmers to resort to complex programming tricks. Many programmers became experts on writing tricky programs instead of programs that could be easily maintained, enhanced, or understood.

In all fairness, FORTRAN has undergone some face-lifts to include structured programming additions. But many programmers avoid these new features because they are not supported uniformly on different machines. Thus, traditional FORTRAN 66 has remained the standard form for programs.

New scientists/engineers automatically learn FORTRAN because that is the language they'll encounter in industry. A sort of vicious circle exists. Part of the problem is that students taught FORTRAN in an engineering/scientific setting often don't learn to carefully distinguish their FORTRAN code from an underlying algorithm.

No computer language can force the user into a perfect mold. The importance of a structured computer language is that it should make modular programming a comfortable, natural effort. At the same time, it shouldn't be so rigid that the programmer must work around language features and restrictions.

C satisfies these requirements as a structured language. It has the additional advantage that it is widely available with essentially no dialects. The standard library defined for C varies somewhat from implementation to implementation,

but a good level of software portability exists.

We now turn to illustrations of the convenience and versatility of C in our application area.

## Learning to program in C

An important aspect of programming is the language learning phase. C turns out to be easy to learn, although advanced features involving pointer arithmetic often are not learned at first. Fortunately, quite a bit can be done with just a few keywords and knowledge of a minimum number of library functions. Table 1 contains a list of keywords and functions useful when first learning C.

The relative ease of learning C is attractive for engineering and science students. If necessary, rudiments of C programming can be included as part of a secondary or college semester course, and students can learn the language incrementally as they develop programs. (It is also worthwhile to require modular program design and good documentation as part of the programming task.)

If C programming is used with several courses in a curriculum, students can gradually build a considerable knowledge of application programming in their field without taking specific programming courses.

In certain instances, students should learn to deal with software/hardware interfacing as part of course work. In many circumstances, however, this is avoided because students don't have time to learn assembly language in an engineering course.





However, since C handles address calculations and binary logic with ease, a small assembly-level nucleus could be prepared by the instructor, with students developing the bulk of the code in C instead of in assembly language. This would allow students to get hands-on experience they would otherwise miss. Development would be much less painful and time-consuming. This approach is feasible in a majority of cases, and it can often be used in practical applications also.

With all these comments behind us, let's turn to some example programs. They are designed to convey some of the flavor of C.

### Example no. 1

Imagine the following problem. We need to develop a bisection method algorithm that can be applied to several distinct real functions within a program. The bisection method is a robust means for finding

zeros of functions. For example, if our function were

$$f(x) = x - 1.0$$

then there would be exactly one zero, namely when  $x$  is equal to one. In more interesting cases, we often can't deduce the answer by inspection. (For more specifics on this method, consult Figure 1.)

In such cases, we need a function to find the desired zero or zeros. Such a program is depicted in Listing 1. (All listings referred to in this article are available in electronic form. You can download them either from the *COMPUTER LANGUAGE* Bulletin Board Service—(415) 957-9370—or take them from *COMPUTER LANGUAGE*'s account on CompuServe by typing "GO CLM".)

Our function `_bisect()` will find zeros of the function called `f()`, which we would define elsewhere in our program. Some valid examples for `f()` are presented in Listing 2. An example call to `_bisect()` might be the routine in Listing 3.

As we defined our task, we'll want to use a bisection method on more than one function. For example, we might want to perform bisection on three functions: `f()`, `g()`, and `h()`. To do so, we could write three versions of the `_bisect()` function.

This would work but is unnecessary and also a repetition of effort. To avoid this, we make the function under evaluation an argument to a more general function called `bisect()`, which we present in Listing 4. A valid calling sequence to this new routine might be as presented in Listing 5.

The importance of this improvement should not be missed. We have generalized the function to the point where it can be applied like a mathematical operator. That is, the function to be worked on is part of the argument list. Thus, `bisect()` operates on the function specified over the interval selected.

C provides the ability to use functions as arguments through the concept of pointers to functions. The name of a function without parentheses is an address. So

## Basic keywords and functions in C

Keywords	Use
for	Used for looping structures
break	Break from looping structures
continue	Continue at start of loop
if... else	Conditionals
return	Return a value from a function
int	Define integer type
float, double	Define real single, double precision types
Functions	Use
exit()	Unconditional program termination
printf()	Formatted print function
scanf()	Formatted input function

Table 1.

## Description of the bisection method

### Object

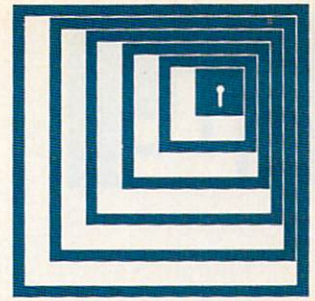
Find a solution of  $f(x) = 0$  (to within a tolerance) given a continuous function  $f(x)$  on the closed interval  $[a,b]$ . The values  $f(a)$ ,  $f(b)$  must have opposite signs so that a zero exists in the interval  $[a,b]$ .

### Algorithm

- Step 0: See if  $f(a)$ ,  $f(b)$  have opposite signs if not, print error message and abort program
- Step 1: Compute  $c = (a+b)/2$
- Step 2: Compute  $t = f(c)$
- Step 3: If  $|t| < \text{tolerance}$ , we are done. Return  $c$  as the location of zero.
- Step 4: If  $t > 0$  and  $f(b) > 0$   
 $b = c$   
 If  $t > 0$  and  $f(b) < 0$   
 $a = c$   
 If  $t < 0$  and  $f(a) < 0$   
 $a = c$   
 If  $t < 0$  and  $f(a) > 0$   
 $b = c$   
 This is the bisection of the interval
- Step 5: Go back to step 2

Figure 1.





```
double _bisect(a,b,prec)      /* find a zero of f(x) */
double a,b;                  /* limits */
double prec;                  /* convergence precision */
{
    double fabs();           /* absolute value (standard function) */
    double f();              /* this function returns double */
    double curr;             /* current point */
    double temp_val;         /* current value */
    int cond;                /* indicates condition of signs of problem */

    if((f(a) <= 0.0)&&(f(b) >= 0.0))
        cond = 0;           /* no reversal */
    else
    if((f(a) > 0.0)&&(f(b) < 0.0))
        cond = 1;           /* reversal*/
    else
    {
        printf("Illegal bisection request [%e,%e]\n",a,b);
        exit(1);
    }

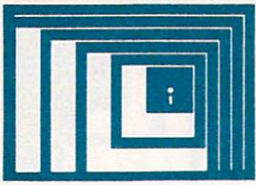
    while(1)                  /* loop 'forever' */
    {
        curr = (a+b)/2.0;     /* bisect interval */
        temp_val = f(curr);   /* get value there */

        if(fabs(temp_val) < prec) /* we are done */
            break;

        if(temp_val < 0.0)
        {
            if(!cond) a = curr;
            else      b = curr;
        }
        else
        {
            if(!cond) b = curr;
            else      a = curr;
        }
    }

    /* end while(1) */
    return(curr);
} /* end _bisect() */
```





the word "cos" specifies the address of the function *cos()*. The corresponding argument variable *fn* in the function *bisect()* is defined as follows:

```
double (*fn)();
```

This means that *fn* is a pointer to a function which returns double precision real numbers. Whenever we write *(\*fn)(x)*, we actually end up calling the originally specified function, i.e., *cos(x)*.

This provision is useful throughout pro-

gram development. It is one of the most useful concepts of C. We can define very general functions and pass other functions to them to define their actual behavior in a particular instance. Programmers not only avoid repetitious coding but the

```
double f(x)
double x;
{
    return(x - 1.0);          /* f(x) = x - 1.0 */
}

double f(x)
double x;
{
    double sin();           /* sin() function */
    return(sin(2.0*x));     /* f(x) = sin(2x) */
}

double f(x)
double x;
{
    double temp = 0.0;
    double power = 1.0;
    int i;

    for(i = 1; i < 6; i++) /* i loops from 1 to 5 inclusive */
    {
        temp = temp + power/((double)i);
        power = power * x;
    }

    return(temp); /* f(x) = polynomial */
}
```

Listing 2.

```
double y;
...
y = _bisect(1.0, 2.0, .0001); /*
                               range to search [1.0, 2.0],
                               zero tolerance is .0001
                               */
```

Listing 3.





```
double bisect(fn,a,b,prec)      /* find zero of specified function */
double (*fn)();                /* function to find zero of */
double a,b;                    /* limits */
double prec;                    /* convergence precision */
{
    double fabs();             /* absolute value (standard function) */
    double curr;               /* current point */
    double temp_val;           /* current value */
    int cond;                   /* indicates condition of signs of problem */

    if(((fn)(a) <= 0.0)&&((fn)(b) >= 0.0))
        cond = 0;              /* no reversal */
    else
        if(((fn)(a) > 0.0)&&((fn)(b) < 0.0))
            cond = 1;           /* reversal*/
        else
        {
            printf("Illegal bisection request [%e,%e]\n",a,b);
            exit(1);
        }

    while(1)                    /* loop 'forever' */
    {
        curr = (a+b)/2.0;       /* bisect interval */
        temp_val = (fn)(curr);  /* get value there */

        if(fabs(temp_val) < prec) /* we are done */
            break;

        if(temp_val < 0.0)
        {
            if(!cond) a = curr;
            else      b = curr;
        }
        else
        {
            if(!cond) b = curr;
            else      a = curr;
        }
    }

    /* end while(1) */
    return(curr);
} /* end bisect() */
```



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greater generality often makes the functions applicable for future purposes. Any greater effort in carefully coding such a function is rewarded by reduced effort on a future project.

In introducing C, pointers to functions should be discussed early. Students should be taught how to use the device; explanation of addresses and pointers can wait until arrays have been introduced and understood. In this context, the concept of an address can be more easily motivated.

In this first example, we have illustrated an algorithm in its C incarnation, and we also introduced the idea of passing functions as arguments. When building software for scientific/engineering applications, we are often faced with the need to perform operator-like procedures on functions we define. Often we have no analytical representation for the functions, so we must consider some sort of interpolation. The next example illustrates how we can turn numerical data into a "black box" and thus simplify other computations.

### Example no. 2

As a result of experimentation or numerical computation we often obtain a set of  $N$  data points:

$$\{x[i], y[i]\} \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

From this data, we seek to obtain a continuous functional relation of the form  $y = f(x)$ . Since we only know the relation between  $x, y$  at  $N$  points, we have to interpolate (or perhaps extrapolate) to get a value we require. If we are successful, we will be able to bury the discrete nature of our data within a function that appears

continuous. Once we do this, we can potentially use functions such as *bisect()*, which accept a continuous function as an argument.

The quality of answers that this technique produces depends heavily on the method of interpolation we use. For certain applications, linear interpolation suffices. Listing 6 is a general linear interpolation routine. This is the first step to placing our data in a black box.

Given the general linear interpolation routine, we can create a function that appears to other routines as if it were continuous. If an  $x$  is requested outside the known interval, the interpolator will detect this and return  $1.0e300$ , which is nearly "infinity" in double precision.

Error handling must be performed at some level, but this is up to the programmer. Listing 7 provides the outer level function, which uses *linterp()* on data arrays called *xarray[]* and *yarray[]*. These arrays are defined to contain *npoint* points. We have been careful to make *linterp()* general so that it can deal with many different data arrays instead of just a specific pair. This makes life easy for the programmer. For example, inverse interpolation of the *xarray[]*, *yarray[]*, can be done without difficulty. To perform this new calculation, we need only change the line

```
y = linterp(xarray,yarray,x,npoints);
```

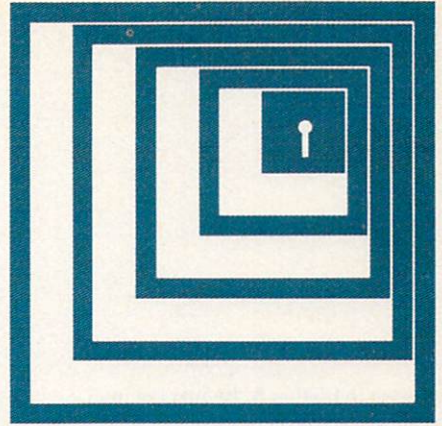
of Listing 7 to the analogous form

```
x = linterp(yarray,xarray,y,npoints);
```

```
double cos(); /* use cos() function for calculation */
double y; /* destination for answer */
...
y = bisect(cos,0.0,3.14159,.0001);
/*
bisect cos() function
interval [0.0,3.14159]
zero tolerance .0001
*/
```

Listing 5.





```
/*  
  
                                Linear Interpolation  
*/  
  
double linterp(xvalues,yvalues,x,points)  
double xvalues[];                /* source of x values (sorted) */  
double yvalues[];                /* source of y values (sorted) */  
double x;                        /* find y given this x */  
int points;                      /* number of points */  
{  
    int i;                        /* looping variable */  
    double low_x,high_x;          /* used for tabular x values */  
    double low_y,high_y;          /* used for tabular y values */  
    double y;                    /* temporary for result */  
  
    if((x < xvalues[0]) || (x > xvalues[points-1]))  
        return(1.0e300);        /* flag illegal result */  
  
    for(i = 0;i < points;i++)  
    {  
        low_x = xvalues[i];  
        high_x = xvalues[i+1];  
  
        if((low_x <= x) && (high_x >= x))  
        {  
            low_y = yvalues[i];  
            high_y = yvalues[i+1];  
            break;  
        }  
    }  
  
    y = low_y + ((x-low_x)/(high_x-low_x))*(high_y-low_y);  
    /* formula for a straight line */  
  
    return(y);  
}  
*/  
  
*/
```





as seen in Listing 8. By inverse interpolation we mean that given a  $y$  value, we can find the corresponding  $x$  (possibly not unique). Whether this is useful for specific data depends on the nature of the data and the task at hand. Normally we would have to re-sort the data before attempting this so that  $y$  values became ordered lowest to highest.

In this second example, we have shown how to build routines to most conveniently structure discrete data within a

program. This approach avoids many complications when using general routines and will come in handy when performing many tasks in scientific/engineering applications. Usually more sophisticated interpolation will be employed. These examples were included to show the point, not to solve the general problem.

C can be used successfully for the type of applications considered in this article. Since it is readily available, powerful, and

easy to learn, there is good reason to hope that many engineers and scientists will find C useful in future programming tasks. ■

*Anthony Skjellum graduated from Caltech with a B.S. in physics in 1984. He is now pursuing graduate studies in chemical engineering, exploring the use of parallel computers and distributed processing for chemical engineering applications.*

```
double f(x)          /* black box form for data */
double x;           /* point to evaluate at */
{
    double y;

    extern double xarray[],yarray[]; /* our data defined
                                       as external */
    extern int npoints;              /* points in arrays */

    y = linterp(xarray,yarray,x,npoints);
                                       /* compute answer */

    return(y);      /* return answer (no error check) */
}
```

Listing 7.

```
double g(y)          /* inverse black box form for data */
double y;           /* point to evaluate at */
{
    double x;

    extern double xarray[],yarray[]; /* our data defined
                                       as external */
    extern int npoints;              /* points in arrays */

    x = linterp(yarray,xarray,y,npoints);
                                       /* compute answer */

    return(x);      /* return answer (no error check) */
}
```

Listing 8.



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# *An Open Letter to BDS C Users*

Hi, I'm Leor Zolman, author of the **BDS C Compiler** and president of BD Software, Inc. I would like to take this opportunity to personally thank all of you out there who have purchased and used BDS C over the past five years for your overwhelming support, feedback, and *especially* your kind words about the package to potential new users. As you may have noticed, I've been doing a lot of advertising lately; while the advertising tells the world that BD Software, Inc. is still alive and selling C compilers, nothing has served to popularize the package as much as word of mouth, and for that I am grateful.

While I'm on the subject of expressing appreciation, someone who really deserves a bunch of it is Robert Ward, coordinator of the C User's Group. In the three-plus years that Robert has been in charge of the Group, he has done a remarkable job of newsletter production and public domain software acquisition. If any of you who use BDS C are not already enrolled as members of the C User's Group, then you are missing out on some really *spectacular* software available for peanuts. Here are some of the offerings: a package that effectively makes BDS C put out assembly language, screen editors, text formatters, a bulletin board system, cross-assemblers, Unix-style libraries (if you don't like the standard CP/M-specific BDS C library), and lots more. Robert, you done good.

BDS C first went on sale in August of 1979. For the first several years of its existence, all copies were vended through one particular exclusive distributor in New York. Unfortunately, most dealers and many users had trouble dealing with that distributor (to put it mildly), and many dealers probably wrote off BDS C due to the difficulty inherent in obtaining it. Late in 1982 I decided to market BDS C myself, and therefore began to interact directly with a number of software dealers and distributors. A number of those dealers and distributors have been a special pleasure to work with, and I would like to list them here so that any authors out there considering the choice of distributors might benefit from my experience: **New Generation Systems, The Programmer's Shop, Westico, Workman and Associates**. In Japan: **Lifebeat Inc.** (not to be confused with Lifeboat New York!) In Australia: **ARCOM Pacific**.

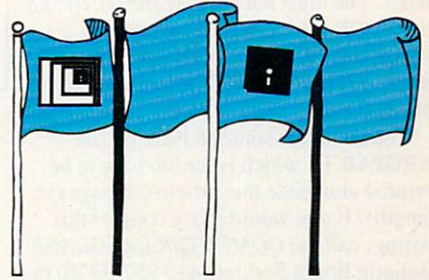
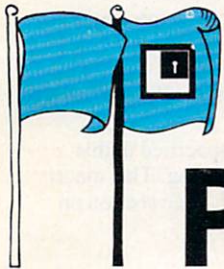
Thanks again to BDS C users, distributors and Robert Ward for a fun-filled, productive five year adventure. If the next five years prove to be even half as gratifying as the last, I'm going to be one lucky programmer...

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# Programming Macros in C



**P**art I of this article will cover macros as building blocks for parsing command line arguments in C programs. Next month we'll explore how macros can also be used as effective tools when debugging large programs. Finally, in Part III of this special series, we'll look at how to use macros in C to translate a common representation of data into different but related tables required by different programs.

Most programs take some arguments from the command line. It is desirable to have a standard way of parsing those arguments to insure uniformity of the user interface and reduce programming effort spent on this common task.

By careful selection of macros, argument parsing can be specified in a very compact manner that resembles data declarations rather than executable code. Most error conditions are handled in the code generated by macro calls. The same degree of compactness cannot be achieved by using only functions without macros.

The parsing algorithm can be customized by setting values of several key variables. To reduce the volume of information the programmer has to specify, default values are provided whenever possible. The programmer can override each default. A separate macro sets each key variable. Each macro has at most one argument and the name of the macro is mnemonically related to the effect it produces.

## Command line arguments

Command line arguments are divided into positional arguments and key-letter arguments (also called options). Key-letter arguments start with a trigger character, which is usually a minus sign. The order of processing positional and key-letter arguments can be varied:

- Deferred processing of positional arguments. When all key-letter arguments are processed before any of the positional arguments, all key-letter arguments apply to all positional arguments regardless of the placement of key-letter arguments.
- Immediate processing of positional arguments. When all arguments are processed in order, a key-letter argument is effective only for the positional arguments that follow after it on the command line.
- Key-letter arguments must precede all positional arguments—required by many programs written in C. After detecting the first positional argument, these programs assume that all subsequent arguments are positional. This approach is popular because it is easy to implement. It is supported by the implementation described here but is not recommended.

Key-letter arguments are further divided into flag and text arguments. A flag argument consists of a key letter following a trigger character. Several flag key letters can be grouped together following one trigger character as in:

```
-ab  
-a -b
```

A text argument consists of a single key letter immediately following a trigger character and followed by a character

string either immediately or after a white space, as:

```
-t Word  
-t "Quoted word"  
-tTail
```

Handling of text arguments in C programs is inconsistent. Some require white space after the flag letter, others do not allow it, while most programs accept both variations.

The input to the C program is the command line already parsed into words. A word is a sequence of characters between white spaces. White spaces can be part of a word only if the word is enclosed in quotes.

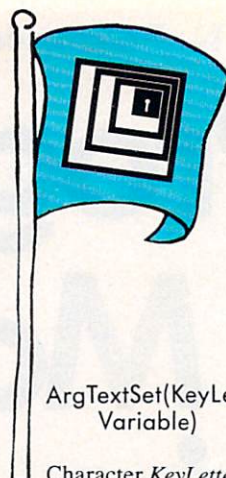
It is obvious that words passed to the C program do not correspond to our key-letter arguments. In the first example under flag arguments, there are two flag arguments but only one word is passed to the C program. In the first two examples under text arguments, there is one text argument but two words are passed to the C program.

## Solutions

The following macro definitions provide tools for parsing positional and flag arguments. Text arguments, additional error checking, and some bells and whistles will be added in the complete solution.

The macros defined in Listing 1 are used as a "sandwich." Macros *ArgBEGIN()*, *ArgLOOP*, and *ArgEND* should be thought of as bread in the sand-





wich. The meat between *ArgBEGIN()* and *ArgLOOP* are the macros overriding provided defaults. Macros between *ArgLOOP* and *ArgEND* define key-letter arguments.

The complete solution is in the file ARGPAR.H, which is far too long to be printed alongside this article (10 pages in length). If you would like a copy of this listing, call the *COMPUTER LANGUAGE* Bulletin Board Service (415 957-9370) or pick it up on our CompuServe account by typing "GO CLM". If you have no access to a modem, send a stamped, self-addressed envelope to the editor and he'll mail you a copy. I strongly encourage you to take this extra step if you're truly interested in further pursuing this subject.

The following macros were selected from the file ARGPAR.H to illustrate the more important and often fundamental ideas on how to effectively use macros in parsing command arguments in C.

#### ArgBEGIN(ArgumentCounter, ArgumentVector)

Macro *ArgBEGIN()* starts the sandwich that defines argument parsing. Arguments of this macro are typically the names of the arguments of the function *main()*.

#### ArgTrigger(TriggerCharacter)

Any character can be specified as trigger character. Default is '-'.

#### ArgMin(LowLimit)

specifies the minimum number of positional arguments that must be coded on the command line. If the macro is not coded, the check is not performed.

#### ArgMax(HighLimit)

specifies the maximum number of positional arguments that may be coded on the command line. If this macro is not coded, the check is not performed.

#### ArgDescription(StringArray)

The argument *StringArray* supplies the description of command arguments. It is printed when requested by the *-?* option or after any error message that terminates the parsing of arguments.

#### ArgPosCall(Function)

This macro turns on the immediate processing of positional arguments. The supplied function is called when a positional argument is recognized. At that moment only those key-letter arguments that precede that positional argument have been processed. (See section on function interface.)

#### ArgKeyLeading

This macro forces the requirement that all key-letter arguments must precede all positional arguments.

#### ArgLOOP

Macro *ArgLOOP* divides the *ArgBEGIN()* — *ArgEND* sandwich in two parts. The first part is optional and may be empty. If present it sets the modes that apply to argument parsing. All modes have default values provided by *ArgBEGIN()*. Each default can be overridden separately by coding a macro between *ArgBEGIN()* and *ArgLOOP*. Those macros have already been described.

The second part defines key-letter arguments. Macros defining key-letter arguments must be coded between macros *ArgLOOP* and *ArgEND*. One (and only one) such macro must be coded for each key-letter argument. Macros defining key-letter arguments are described next.

#### ArgFlagSet(KeyLetter, CounterVariable)

Character *KeyLetter* specified in this macro can be used as a flag. This macro increments the *CounterVariable* each time that flag is found in command line arguments. *CounterVariable* should be initialized to zero. Note that the flag is allowed to occur more than once on the command line.

#### ArgTextSet(KeyLetter, PointerVariable)

Character *KeyLetter* specified in this macro can be used to introduce text argument. *PointerVariable* is set to point to the first character of the text string. *PointerVariable* should be initialized to NULL pointer. Multiple occurrences of the text argument specified by this macro are not allowed.

#### ArgFlagCall(KeyLetter, FlagFunction)

Character *KeyLetter* specified in this macro can be used as a flag. This macro invokes *FlagFunction*. (See section on function interface.)

#### ArgTextCall(KeyLetter, TextFunction)

Character *KeyLetter* specified in this macro can be used to introduce text argument. This macro invokes *TextFunction*. (See section on function interface.)

#### ArgEND

Macro *ArgEND* ends the sandwich that defines argument parsing. After the execution of the *ArgBEGIN()* — *ArgEND* sandwich, *ArgumentCounter* and *ArgumentVector* will be updated to reflect only positional arguments.

#### Function interface

Functions required as the second argument of macros *ArgFlagCall()*, *ArgTextCall()*, and the only argument of the macro *ArgPosCall()* all have the same interface. They should be defined as:

```
char * name(keyLetter, textString)
char keyLetter;
char * textString;
{ ... }
```

Character *keyLetter* contains the key letter for key-letter arguments and '\0' for positional arguments.

Pointer *textString* points to the text of the argument for positional arguments and key-letter text arguments and is a NULL pointer for key-letter flag arguments.



Simplified argument parsing, positional and flag

```
#define ArgBEGIN(A_argc, A_argv) \  
  { /* Begin block with local variables. Ends with ArgEND. */ \  
    struct \  
    { int      argc, *ptrArgCount; \  
      char **  argVector; \  
      char *   (*ptrFunction) (); \  
      char     keyTrigger, *keyPointer; \  
      int      argIndex, charIndex, nextPositional, keysTerminated; \  
    } a0; \  
    a0.ptrArgCount = &(A_argc); a0.argVector = (A_argv); \  
    a0.argc = *a0.ptrArgCount; a0.keyTrigger = '-'; \  
    a0.ptrFunction = argPos; \  
 \  
#define ArgPosCall(A_Function) a0.ptrFunction = (A_Function); \  
#define ArgTrigger(A_Trigger)  a0.keyTrigger = (A_Trigger); \  
 \  
#define ArgLOOP \  
  a0.keysTerminated = 0; a0.nextPositional = 1; \  
  for ( (a0.argIndex = 1); (a0.argIndex < a0.argc); (++a0.argIndex) ) \  
  { /* for all arguments */ \  
    if ( ( a0.argVector[a0.argIndex][0] != a0.keyTrigger ) \  
        || ( a0.keysTerminated != 0 ) \  
        || ( a0.argVector[a0.argIndex][1] == '\0' ) ) \  
    { /* not a key: bubble up positional arguments */ \  
      a0.argVector[a0.nextPositional] = a0.argVector[a0.argIndex]; \  
      (void) (*a0.ptrFunction) ( '\0', a0.argVector[a0.nextPositional] ); \  
      ++a0.nextPositional; \  
    } \  
    else /* it is a key */ \  
    { \  
      for \  
      ( (a0.charIndex = 1, a0.keyPointer = & a0.argVector[a0.argIndex][1]) \  
        ; ( ( a0.keyPointer != (char *) 0 ) \  
          && ( (*a0.keyPointer) != '\0' ) ) \  
        ) \  
      ; (++a0.charIndex, ++a0.keyPointer) \  
    } \  
    { /* for all characters in an argument */ \  
      switch ( a0.keyPointer[0] ) \  
      { \  
#define ArgFlagSet(A_KeyLetter, A_FlagCounter) \  
      case A_KeyLetter: ++A_FlagCounter; break; \  
    } \  
  } \  
}
```

Listing 1. (Continued on following page).



```

#define ArgFlagCall(A_KeyLetter, A_Function) \
        case A_KeyLetter: (A_Function)( *a0.keyPointer, 0 ); break;

#define ArgEND \
        default: \
            (void) fprintf \
            ( stderr \
            , " Stop. Key letter '%c\' rejected.\n" \
            , *a0.keyPointer \
            ); \
            exit (1); \
        } /* switch */ \
    } /* for all characters in argument */ \
} /* if key or not a key */ \
} /* for all arguments */ \
(* a0.ptrArgCount) = a0.nextPositional - 1; \
} /* End block begun with ArgBEGIN. */ \

static char * argPos( a_keyChar, a_argString )
char  a_keyChar, *a_argString;
{ return ( (char *) 0 ); }

/* ----- */

#if defined DriverH

#include <stdio.h>

void main(argCount, argVector)
int  argCount;
char * argVector[];
{
    int  f_flag = 0;

    ArgBEGIN      (argCount, argVector)
    ArgPosCall    (argPos)
    ArgTrigger    ('-')
    ArgLOOP
    ArgFlagSet    ('f', f_flag)
    ArgFlagCall   ('F', argPos)
    ArgEND

    exit (0);
} /* main */

#endif DriverH

```

Listing 1. (Continued from preceding page).





The returned pointer should be NULL unless an error has been detected.

### Predefined flags

The following key-letters are predefined as flags:

-? causes output of argument description. (See macro *ArgDescription()*.)

-! enables all debugging code if the program is compiled with debugging code. This flag must be the first argument after the command name. Besides acting as a flag, it can also be immediately followed by text, without a separating white space. Text is used to enable selected parts of debugging code.

The flag initializes the global variables used by the debugging macros, to be described in Part II.

-- A trigger character followed by another trigger character signals the end of key-letter arguments. Remaining arguments are treated as positional even if they start with a trigger character.

- If the trigger character stands alone it is passed as a positional argument. This is frequently used as notation for standard input.

The test driver at the end of the include file shows how to code the sandwich of macros that have been described. Counter variables referenced as arguments of macro *ArgFlagSet()* should be initialized to zero. Pointer variables referenced as arguments of macro *ArgTextSet()* should be initialized to a NULL pointer.

This is just the tip of the iceberg on how macros can be used to improve C program development efficiency. Next month we'll focus on how to use macros in order to set up a systematic method for debugging your code *before* you're ready to compile. ■

### Reference

Harbison, Samuel P. and Steele, Guy L. C: *A Reference Manual*. Prentice-Hall, 1984, pp.26-84.

*Alexander Abacus has a B.S. in electrical engineering and is a software consultant for CGA Computer Inc., Cranford, N.J. His software experience includes work for Sperry, IBM, and AT&T Bell Laboratories.*

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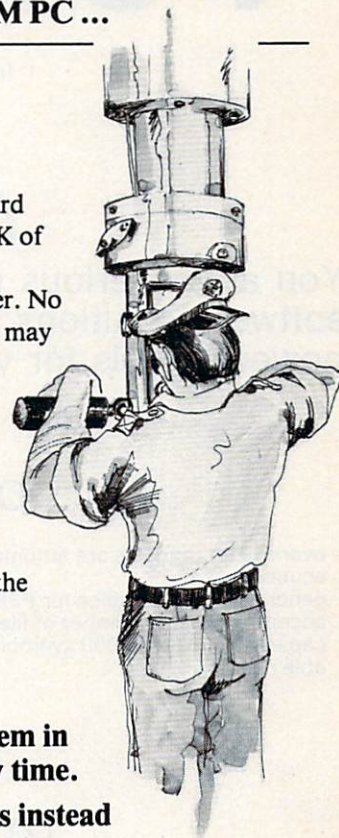
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# C to Assembly Interface

By Brian H. Burger



**T**he fundamental question that arises when confronted with a new general purpose programming language is "why use it?", which really means "what advantages does it have over other languages?"

Of course, the answer depends upon the type of programming tasks to be carried out and their complexity or magnitude. For complex programming tasks, any advantages will have considerable bearing on both the effort required to accomplish the task and the quality of the resultant program.

It is necessary to access architecture-dependent machine capabilities to efficiently accomplish most complex programming tasks. Even without considering efficiency this is readily apparent for systems software. Since it is the nature of any non-machine language to be independent of these architecturally dependent features, a mechanism is necessary to access these features. The relative ease and efficiency of reaching these features is a consideration in choosing a language.

In this article we will briefly look at the advantages of C over other compiled programming languages and then focus on how C can be easily interfaced to access architecture-dependent capabilities. In particular, we will show how Lattice C can be efficiently interfaced to IBM MACRO Assembler to access the IBM PC

ROM interrupt system by providing source code to perform video I/O. The code provided can be extended to access other architecture-dependent features on the IBM PC or on any computer using an 8088/86 architecture.

## High-level vs. assembler

But if one must access these architecture-dependent features in any case, why not write the entire program in the assembler language of the target computer? After all, assembler code should result in the most efficient object code.

The problem is that assembler code is the most time-consuming to write and understand after it is written and will result in a large amount of source code to monitor and maintain. In addition, the program will only work on the target computer (or processor) for which it is designed.

It is generally far superior to write programs in a high-level language for increased productivity and portability. Thus, the better high-level language is the one that is most productive and most portable since that is the reason for using it in the first place.

Yet the resultant program must still use computer resources efficiently. There is no advantage to using a language that produces a program too slow or too memory hungry, even if it can be generated quickly and will work on lots of machines—except perhaps when that program is used, not as the end result, but as part of the process of development.

A superior language generates a more resource-efficient program. In fact, during the early development of FORTRAN the efficiency of the program resulting

from the language was considered to be of much greater importance than the design of the language itself. John Backus wrote in *The History of Programming Languages*:<sup>1</sup>

*To this day I believe that our emphasis on object program efficiency rather than on language design was basically correct. I believe that had we failed to produce efficient programs, the widespread use of languages like FORTRAN would have been seriously delayed. In fact, I believe that we are in a similar, but unrecognized, situation today (1978): in spite of all the fuss that has been made over myriad language details, current conventional languages are still very weak programming aids, and far more powerful languages would be in use today if anyone had found a way to make them run with adequate efficiency.*

## Separately compiled subprograms

A high-level language is used instead of assembler when the benefits of increased productivity and portability outweigh the penalty of less efficient use of computer resources. So the best high-level language to use is the one which is most productive, most portable, and generates the most efficient object code.

Another feature of a superior language is its ease of use and, by implication, programmer productivity. A language is easier to use if one can separately compile any number of subprograms and link them together later to produce an executable program. A language that allows separately compiled subprograms is superior



```

T ENDS
;
DSPIO  PROC    NEAR
      POP     SI      ; SAVE RETURN ADDRESS
      POP     AX      ; GET PARAMETERS
      POP     BX
      POP     CX
      POP     DX
      POP     DI      ; OPTIONAL POINTER TO 4 WORD AREA
      INT     10H
      CMP     SP,BP   ; BP IS ALWAYS >= OFFSET OF LAST ARGUMENT
      JA      DONE    ; IF NO RETURN POINTER PASTITLE DSPIO -
                        ; SUBROUTINE TO PERFORM DIRECT SCREEN I/O
;
; int ax, bx, cx, dx ;
; char retval [8] ;
;
; dspio( ax, bx, cx, dx, retval ) ;
; dspio( ax ) ;
; dspio( ax, bx ) ;
; dspio( ax, bx, cx ) ;
; dspio( ax, bx, cx, dx ) ;
;
; ax - dx VALUES TO BE PLACED IN THE REGISTERS OF THE SAME NAME
; AS NEEDED BY PARTICULAR VIDEO I/O FUNCTION
;
; retval, IF SUPPLIED IS A POINTER TO A 4 WORD AREA INTO WHICH THE
; 4 REGISTERS AX - DX ARE COPIED AFTER RETURN FROM INT 10H.
;
DGROUP GROUP DATA
DATA   SEGMENT WORD PUBLIC 'DATA'
      ASSUME DS:DGROUP
DATA   ENDS
;
PGROUP GROUP PROG
PROG   SEGMENT BYTE PUBLIC 'PROG'
      ASSUME CS:PGROUP
      PUBLIC DSPIO
;
RLAYOUT STRUC      ; Return address space layout; pointed at by retval
RAX     DW        ?
RBX     DW        ?
RCX     DW        ?
RDX     DW        ?
RLAYOUT ENDS
;
DSPIO  PROC    NEAR
      POP     SI      ; SAVE RETURN ADDRESS
      POP     AX      ; GET PARAMETERS
      POP     BX
      POP     CX
      POP     DI      ; OPTIONAL POINTER TO 4 WORD AREA
      INT     10H
      CMP     SP,BP   ; BP IS ALWAYS >= OFFSET OF LAST ARGUMENT
      JA      DONE    ; IF NO RETURN POINTER PASSED, DON'T SAVE VALUES
      MOV     [DI].RAX,AX
      MOV     [DI].RBX,BX

```

Listing 1 (Continued on a following page).





to one that does not. It wastes computer time to recompile an entire program whenever a change is made, and it wastes programmer time to have to wait for a compilation before proceeding.

Without the capability for separate compilation of subprograms, it is extremely difficult to maintain a library of useful subprograms, next to impossible for more than one programmer to work on the program, and difficult—if not impossible—to access architecture-dependent capabilities. Certainly, useful programming techniques like information hiding, stubbing, modular design and development, and others are compatible with separate compilation of subprograms and are at least inconsistent with the idea of one monolithic program compiled as one unit.

## C

The language that produces the most efficient object code, is most portable, allows for the separate compilation of subprograms, and is most productive to use is the best language. C is recognized as producing efficient object code because it deals with the same sort of objects that most computers do. Constructs like register-type variables, pointers, the increment/decrement operators (`++`, `--`, `+=`, `*=`, etc.), bitwise logical operators (`<<`, `>>`, `&`, etc.), a macro capability, and others all lead to efficient use of machine resources.

C is considered to be a very portable language.<sup>2</sup> It allows and in fact encourages separately compiled subprograms. Part of its portability power and efficiency is a consequence of not providing language constructs to do architecture-dependent machine operations but instead to encourage the creation of standard libraries to accomplish these tasks.

The brevity and elegance of its expressive power leads to increased productivity. Note that I say “leads to.” C requires an understanding of the elements of the computer and related concepts to a greater extent than many other high-level programming languages. The average

COBOL programmer has little use for knowledge concerning the difficulties encountered when a data structure falls on an odd or even byte address boundary since COBOL assumes the programmer isn't concerned with these situations and consequentially accepts any resultant inefficiencies.

Since C doesn't provide any language constructs to accomplish architecture-dependent machine functions, it is particularly important that one can interface C efficiently to assembler to accomplish these tasks. Even though C compilers normally include a standard library of subprograms, some machine-dependent features are not always included. It is not practical to expect a language or compiler system to provide access to all or even most of these features since they are specific to a particular computer or architecture and frequently specific even to a particular configuration.

### Architecture-dependent capability

But what is meant by accessing architecture-dependent machine capabilities? For example, machines frequently provide in ROM a set of routines for performing machine specific operations. On the IBM PC and other machines utilizing the Intel 8088/86 processors, these routines can be accessed in assembly language through the software initiated interrupt system.

An interface to an assembly language subprogram is therefore needed to access them from a high-level language. In another example, machines generally have multiple processors that work independently of the main processor from which they get instructions. In 8088/86 assembly, an instruction can be sent to one of these processors by using an assembly-level instruction named *OUT* designed for this purpose.

The basic problem then becomes interfacing from a high-level language to the assembly level to access these special features in an efficient and uncomplicated manner. The rest of this article is devoted to doing just that by illustrating the ease with which C can be interfaced to assembly to access the IBM PC video interrupt routines.

You may be wondering why we aren't interfacing to perform DOS calls instead,

in particular the DOS version 2 extended screen and keyboard device driver. While doing this will likely make the program more portable for DOS machines, this DOS driver is slow and cumbersome. In any case, similar techniques can be used to interface to DOS interrupts.

### Interfacing C

Specifically, Lattice/Microsoft C (referred to from this point forward as just C) is interfaced to IBM MACRO Assembler (MASM) to perform video I/O as shown in the MASM source code in Listing 1 and the C source code in Listing 2.<sup>3,4</sup> Figure 1 shows the C memory model that is being used. Its limitations are that the program can't be larger than 128K—the program segment is limited to 64K, and the combined data and stack segment is limited to 64K.

This discussion will not be concerned with C programs that use an extended memory model. If a program needs an instruction segment or data segment that exceeds 64K bytes, unavoidable inefficiencies creep into the implementation. There are many other ways to address this need rather than extending the memory model of the compiler. A discussion of this subject is beyond the scope of the present article. Furthermore, this model is insufficient in few cases.

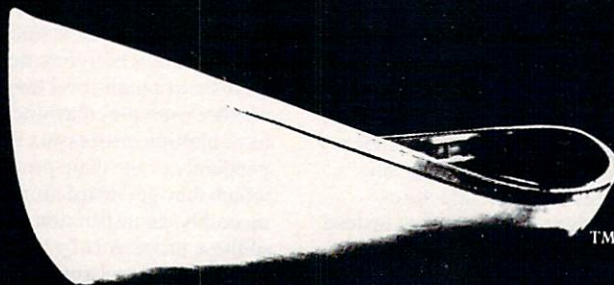
Upon entry into a subprogram from C, the BP is the only general purpose register that needs to remain unmodified or be saved. C loads the BP with a pointer to the top of the stack before any arguments are pushed and uses that value to deallocate the stack upon return from the subprogram. This feature allows a variable number of arguments to be passed to the called subprogram, as the caller can deallocate the arguments from the stack by simply restoring the BP to the SP after the call. This mechanism requires a two-byte instruction (*MOV SP, BP*) to restore the stack after the call instead of the three- or four-byte instruction required to explicitly add a value to the stack pointer.

Since it is the caller's responsibility to deallocate arguments from the stack, there is no need to know at compile time the number of arguments to be passed. All other registers can be freely used except for the segment registers which must remain unchanged from their original





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```

        MOV     [DI].RCX,CX
        MOV     [DI].RDX,DX
        JMP     SI
DONE:   PUSH    DI
        PUSH    DX           ; RESTORE STACK BECAUSE OF THE POSSIBILITY THAT THEY
        PUSH    CX           ; WERE NOT PASSED AS ARGUMENTS
        PUSH    BX
        JMP     SI
DSPIO   ENDP
PROG    ENDS
        END

```

Listing 1 (Continued from a preceding page).

```

main()
{
    int retvals [4] ;
    int index ;
    SET_MODE ;
    hline(0,0,219,80) ; /* draw box around screen */
    hline(24,0,219,80) ; /* i.e., manual window using nonwindow characters */
    verline(0,0,219,24) ;
    verline(0,79,219,24) ;
    window(3,3,6,5) ;
    window(10,10,5,6) ;
    window(7,17,10,11) ;
    window(15,40,10,6) ;
    window(5,50,20,16) ;
    /* read c#define PAGE 0
    /* video modes */
#define s40x25_bw 0
#define s40x25_color 1
#define s80x25_bw 2
#define s80x25_color 3
#define med_color 4
#define med_bw 5
#define high_bw 6
    /* video functions */
#define set_type 256
#define set_cur 512
#define read_position 768
#define read_light_pen_position 1024
#define select_page 1280
#define scroll_up 1536
#define scroll_dn 1792
#define read_attribute_char 2048
#define write_attribute_char 2304
#define write_char 2560
#define set_palette 2816
#define write_dot 3072
#define read_dot 3328
#define write_teletype 3584
#define get_state 3840
    /* macros */
#define curpos(row,col) dspio(set_cur,PAGE,0,(((int)row)<<8)+col)

```

Listing 2 (Continued on a following page).





entry values. This mechanism is efficient and flexible—only one register needs to be saved upon call of a subprogram or remain unmodified, and it can be passed a varying number of arguments.

C passes arguments to its subprograms by value, not by reference. So any argument passed is a copy of the original value, not a reference or pointer to it. Arguments are passed by pushing them onto the stack in reverse order. That is, the first argument pushed is the rightmost argument appearing in the C function call. Upon entry to the subprogram, the first parameter appears on the top of the stack after the return instruction pointer pushed by the call.

### The routine

The subprogram in Listing 1 is straightforward. To understand the particulars of the video I/O functions see the *IBM Personal Computer Technical Reference Manual*.<sup>5</sup> The macros in the source code in Listing 2 provide enough information to use most of the functions without the manual, and the source code preamble in Listing 3 provides most of the additional particulars needed.

The video I/O interrupt takes its arguments from the four general purpose registers AX through DX and returns values in those same registers. This subprogram takes five arguments corresponding to the four general purpose registers to be passed to the video I/O interrupt routine and a pointer argument used for storage of any return values. The return address is popped into SI, the arguments are popped off the stack directly into the four general purpose registers, and the fifth argument is popped into the DI register for later use. The second through fifth arguments are valid only if the subprogram was actually called with those arguments.

After the video I/O interrupt is executed, the subprogram determines if a pointer was actually passed as the fifth argument by recognizing that the BP is equal to the SP before any arguments were pushed. If it is a valid argument, the values of the four general purpose registers are copied to the locations pointed at by the fifth argument.

Similarly, all but the first argument are returned to the stack in case they were not actually passed. For those functions that

return values in the general registers in addition to AX, all five arguments must be supplied. Otherwise incorrect values would get on the stack, and return values would be placed somewhere other than where they were supposed to go.

Only those arguments actually needed must be passed if no values are returned, plus any intervening arguments. When *dspio* is called to perform the set mode function in Listing 2, only one value is passed. Since the video I/O interrupt doesn't care what is in any of the registers it doesn't use when called, there is no need to pass trailing filler arguments.

However, if there are some intervening arguments, as when changing the cursor position in *curpos*, the intervening arguments must be included. To avoid the passing of filler arguments, the function code passed in the first argument can be used to branch to code that pops the arguments only into registers pertinent to the function. Thus, for function code 2 (i.e., *set mode*), it can be assumed that there will be no argument supplied for CX and the third argument can be popped into DX instead.

This is what *dspio* in Listing 3 is all

about. *Dspio* avoids passing arguments unnecessarily, thereby increasing execution speed but for the penalty of increased instruction overhead.

### An alternative

In Listing 3 a jump table is used to efficiently control the execution of code. It works by storing offsets in a table in such a way so that the function code stored in the first argument can be used as an index into the table to obtain the appropriate address to jump to. Thus, the order in which labels are stored into *CASE\_TABLE* determines the code that will be executed upon receiving a function code in the high byte of the first argument. The first argument is copied into BX, the function code is extracted, multiplied by 2 (since addresses are words), and used as an index into *CASE\_TABLE* to obtain the address to which the subprogram transfers control.

C treats subprograms as functions that return values. They return their function value to the caller in the general registers. The registers pertinent are determined by the type of the function. Thus, for *int*

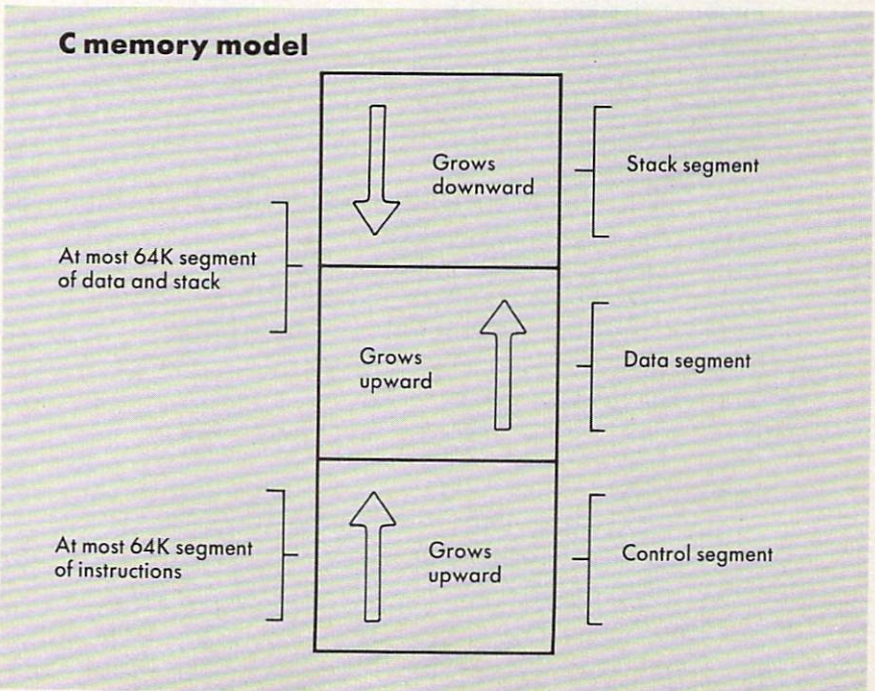


Figure 1.



```

#define SET_MODE dspio(s80x25_bw)
#define horline(ch,width) dspio(write_char+ch,PAGE,width)
#define hline(row,col,ch,width) curpos(row,col) ; horline(ch,width)
#define wrtchar(ch) dspio(write_char+ch,PAGE,1)

main()
{
  int retvals [4] ;
  int index ;
  SET_MODE ;
  hline(0,0,219,80) ; /* draw box around screen */
  hline(24,0,219,80) ; /* i.e., manual window using nonwindow characters */
  verline(0,0,219,24) ;
  verline(0,79,219,24) ;
  window(3,3,6,5) ;
  window(10,10,5,6) ;
  window(7,17,10,11) ;
  window(15,40,10,6) ;
  window(5,50,20,16) ;
  /* read cursor position */
  for (index=0; index <4; index++ ) {
    curpos(index,index+1) ;
    dspio(read_position,PAGE,0,0,retvals) ;
    printf("For page PAGE, Row:%u, Col:%u, cursor mode=%o,%o \n",
      retvals[3]>>8, (retvals[3]<<8)>>8, retvals[2]>>8,(retvals[2]<<8)>>8) ;
  }
  /* get current video state */
  dspio(get_state,PAGE,0,0,retvals) ;
  printf("Mode: %u, Columns: %u, Active Page: %u \n",
    (retvals[0]<<8)>>8, retvals[0]>>8, retvals[1]>>8) ;
}
window(row,col,width,depth) /* start at row,col, i.e. left upper corner */
char row,col ;
{
  /* first do 4 corners */
  curpos(row,col) ;
  wrtchar(214) ;
  curpos(row+depth,col) ;
  wrtchar(211) ;
  curpos(row,col+width-1) ;
  wrtchar(183) ;
  curpos(row+depth,col+width-1) ;
  wrtchar(189) ;
  /* then connect corners with horizontal and vertical lines */
  hline(row,col+1,196,width-2) ;
  hline(row+depth,col+1,196,width-2) ;
  verline(row+1,col,186,depth-1) ;
  verline(row+1,col+width-1,186,depth-1) ;
}
verline(row,col,ch,len)
char row, col, ch, len ;
{
  char cnt ;
  for (cnt=len; cnt > 0; cnt--) {
    curpos(row++,col) ;
    wrtchar(ch) ;
  }
}

```

Listing 2 (Continued from a preceding page).



functions the return value is stored in the AX register upon exit from the sub-program. The other registers are used for types requiring larger size return values.

For those video I/O functions that supply values upon return from interrupt in AX, no processing is required as they are passed back to the C caller as the called functions return value.

Thus, functions *read attribute and character* and *read dot* return information as the value of the *int* function *dispio* upon return. *Get state* returns all but the current active display page as *dispio*'s *int* function value in addition to storing it in the return area. *Get light pen position* returns whether or not the light pen switch is triggered as *dispio*'s *char* function value or as its high byte *int* function value, in addition to storing it.

In fact, all information can be returned as the function value of *dispio* upon return provided *dispio* is typed as double. However, C would have to generate code to deal with this long float type, which would result in unnecessary inefficiencies in most cases.

### Efficiency

An instruction efficiency analysis of the minimum and maximum instruction

sequences for both routines<sup>6</sup> shows that *dispio* is almost always faster. When no values are returned, it executes from 16% to 30% faster and when values are returned, from 24% faster to 5% slower.

*Dispio* is actually faster than the analysis indicates since it eliminates all excess pushing of arguments from C, while *dspio* requires pushing of filler arguments. For example, the worst case path for *dispio* is when it is doing a *read light pen* position and takes 198 cycles. *Dispio* requires two arguments from C and thus two pushes, while *dspio* would require five arguments from C or five pushes. Adding the extra three pushes for *dspio* yields 219 cycles compared with 198 cycles for *dispio*.

Clearly *dispio* will always be faster than *dspio*. If one is willing to put up with always supplying five arguments to *dspio*, the four pushes to restore the stack can be deleted, in which case it will be almost as fast as *dispio*. Of course, since C will be pushing arguments that aren't needed, that savings is partly an illusion.

Finally, one could return all values through C's function mechanism. The type of the function must then be chosen carefully, as the type declared will depend on what values are to be returned. To some, C opens a Pandora's box since C

requires more knowledge of the machine and computer-related concepts than most other languages. To others, C allows increased productivity resulting from using a flexible high-level language with an acceptable efficiency penalty. ■

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```
TITLE DISPIO - SUBROUTINE TO PERFORM DIRECT SCREEN I/O
;
; #define MAX 8
; char retvals [MAX] /* used by 3 functions */
; /* (1) - read cursor position; retvals[0-1] = current cursor mode */
; /*      retvals[3] = col, retvals[2] = row */
; /* (2) - read light pen position */
; /*      retvals[0] = active(1)/inactive(0) */
; /*      retvals[2-3] = pixel column, retvals[4]=raster line */
; /*      retvals[6] = row, retvals[7] = col */
; /* (3) - get state; retvals[0] = cols, retvals[1] = mode */
; /*      retvals[2] = page */
;
; setmode - dispio(mode) ;
; set cursor type - dispio(set_curs_type,type) ;
; set cursor position - dispio(set_cursor,page<<8,row<<8+col) ;
; read cursor position - dispio(read_cursor_position,page<<8,retvals) ;
; read light pen position - dispio(read_pen,retvals) ;
; select active page - dispio(select_page+new_page_value) ;
; scroll active page up - dispio(scroll_up+number_of_lines,page<<8,
;                          lrow<<8+lcol, rrow<<8+rcol) ;
; scroll active page down - dispio(scroll_down+number_of_lines,page<<8,
;                          lrow<<8+lcol,rrow<<8+rcol) ;
; get attribute character at current cursor pos - dispio(readac,page<<8) ;
; returns attribute character as function value - high byte attribute,
; low byte character
; write attribute character at current cursor position - dispio(writeac+char,
;                          page<<8+attribute, repeat count)
```

Listing 3 (Continued on following page).



```

; write character - dispio(write_char+character,page<<8,repeat count) ;
; set color palette - dispio(set_palette,palette<<8+color_value) ;
; write dot - dispio(write_dot+color,col,row) ;
; read dot - dispio(read_dot,col,row)
;
; dot read returned as low byte of function value
; write teletype - dispio(write_teletype+char,(page<<8)+color) ;
; get state - dispio(get_state,retval)
;
DGROUP GROUP DATA
DATA SEGMENT WORD PUBLIC 'DATA'
ASSUME DS:DGROUP
CASE_TABLE DW SETMODE,CURSTYPE,SETCURS,READCURS,READPEN,SETMODE
DW SCROLL,SCROLL,READAC,WRITEAC,WRITEAC,READAC,WRITEDOT
DW WRITEDOT,READAC,STATE
; case table uses 16 words
RLAYOUT STRUC ; Return address space layout
RAX DW ?
RBX DW ?
RCX DW ?
RDX DW ?
RLAYOUT ENDS
DATA ENDS
;
PGROUP GROUP PROG
PROG SEGMENT BYTE PUBLIC 'PROG'
ASSUME CS:PGROUP
PUBLIC DISPIO

```

Listing 3 (Continued on following page).

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```

;
DISPIO PROC NEAR
      POP SI
      POP AX
      MOV BL,AH
      XOR BH,BH
      CMP BL,15 ; INVALID FUNCTION CODE ?
      JA ERROR
      SHL BX,1
      JMP CASE_TABLE[BX]
;
ERROR: MOV AX,-1
      JMP SI
;
SETCURS: POP BX
        POP DX
SETMODE: INT 10H
        JMP SI
;
READCURS: POP BX
          INT 10H
          POP DI
          MOV [DI].RAX,CX
          MOV [DI].RBX,DX
          JMP SI
;
SCROLL: POP BX
WRITEDOT: POP CX
         POP DX
         INT 10H
         JMP SI
;
READAC: POP BX
        INT 10H
        JMP SI
;
WRITEAC: POP BX
CURSTYPE: POP CX
         INT 10H
         JMP SI
;
STATE: INT 10H
       POP DI
       MOV [DI].RAX,AX
       MOV [DI].RBX,BX
       JMP SI
;
READPEN: INT 10H
        POP DI
        MOV [DI].RAX,AX
        MOV [DI].RBX,BX
        MOV [DI].RCX,CX
        MOV [DI].RDX,DX
        JMP SI
DISPIO ENDP
PROG ENDS
      END

```

# C

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# EXOTIC LANGUAGE OF THE MONTH CLUB

## MUMPS: A multi-user, data base language

By J. Edward Volkstorf Jr.

Imagine an interactive programming language

where all data is simply a string of characters. There are no integers vs. real numbers concerns. For instance, the length of the string "BLUE", the number 3.14, and the integer 4321 are all 4.

Conversion from numeric to string never takes place; numbers are already strings! You can use numbers and alphanumeric strings in any arithmetic operation. Of course  $2 * 3.14$  is 6.28, but "2APPLES" + "3ORANGES" = 5. (Who said you can't mix apples and oranges!) The rule is that a string used as a number is converted to the number until a nonnumeric value is encountered.

Furthermore, even array subscripts are considered character strings. Thus an array such as  $X(I)$  with a value of 23 is typical, but how about  $ACODE("NYC")$  having the value of 212? Of course alphabetic and numeric values can co-exist in the same array.

Sounds a lot like SNOBOL, but this is actually a quick start in looking at MUMPS, a unique language that has been around since the early 1970s. It has many rather unusual but very powerful data management features. To those accustomed to FORTRAN, COBOL, or BASIC and the like, MUMPS appears quite odd, plus hard to use and understand. However, this doesn't have to be the case.

It is really quite easy to work with MUMPS. In particular, it has enabled the design of many complex multi-user systems in which interactive users all share in the access to and update of data bases. Before we consider this level of MUMPS, let's look more closely at some of the language's more basic features.

Since all data is represented as a string, there are many string related functions, as in BASIC. For example, to retrieve some portion of a string you use the *EXTRACT* function. Thus

```
$EXTRACT("Computers",I,J)
```

returns the *I*th through *J*th characters from the first argument to the function. If

*I* is 4 and *J* is 7 then the function value is "pute".

Note that functions are distinguished by a leading dollar sign (otherwise we would have designated a three dimensional array). Variables may be up to eight alphanumeric characters that begin with a letter. Other string related functions include:

- *\$LENGTH(X)* returns the number of characters, i.e., the length of variable *X*
- *\$CHARACTER("A")* equal to 65, returning the ASCII code for a character
- *\$FIND("COMPUTE","MP")* has the value 3, finding the first occurrence of the string "MP" in the first argument *COMPUTE*
- *\$PIECE("1ST,2ND,3RD";",",N)* returns the *N*th comma delimited portion of the first string argument, such that if *N* is 2 then 2ND is returned. The second argument, the comma here, determines the delimiter

Of course functions can be nested, and numeric values can be used as arguments. For example,

- *\$FIND(N, ".")* will be either 0 if *N* is an integer (i.e., no decimal point) or some value greater than 0 if it is a real number
- *\$LENGTH(\$PIECE(NAME, ",", 1))* might be used to calculate the length of someone's first name, those characters preceding the first comma in the string *NAME*

As mentioned initially, arrays may also contain strings. They may be any dimension, and subscripts may be ASCII character strings. A typical array might be used, as in most languages, to store a table of numbers:

```
X(1) = 12, X(2) = 23, X(3) = 34, etc.
```

but since MUMPS allows those subscripts to be character strings you can design data tables that look like:

```
ACODE("SAN DIEGO") = 619  
ACODE("LOS ANGELES") = 213  
ACODE("SACRAMENTO") = 916
```

where the array *ACODE* defines the valid telephone area code numbers for a set of cities. For data such as a person's name, street address, arbitrary words, and the

like, this allows some incredible savings in program code when manipulating data. But how do you retrieve the values?

In the first example the array *X* could use a subscript variable that ranges from 1 to 3. MUMPS handles the area code array differently, using the *\$NEXT*, *\$ORDER*, and *\$DEFINE* functions.

Both *\$NEXT* and *\$ORDER* take a subscripted variable and determine the subscript value that follows in that array based on the MUMPS collating system. (Note that this gets tricky, since for numeric subscripts 123 follows 45 which follows 6, but for a strict string collating sequence, left to right character comparisons are made; the sequence would be 123, 45, then 6). MUMPS determines whether subscripts are collated as numerics or as ASCII character strings.

Thus for *ACODE*, the following holds:

- *\$NEXT(ACODE("LOS ANGELES"))* would be "SAN DIEGO"
- *\$NEXT(ACODE("SA"))* would be "SACRAMENTO"
- *\$NEXT(ACODE("SAN DIEGO"))* is -1, indicating that no further subscripted values were found.

The last example is where *\$NEXT* and *\$ORDER* differ. The latter returns a null string instead of the -1.

There is another way to determine if a single value exists using the *\$DATA* function. It takes any variable name as an argument and returns 1 if the variable is defined, a 10 if it is a pointer to a lower level (such as the first subscript in a two dimensional array), or 11, which covers both cases. Otherwise a zero is returned. Thus,

- *\$DEFINE(ACODE("SAN DIEGO"))* returns 1
- *\$DEFINE(ACODE("SANTA CLARA"))* returns 0
- *\$DEFINE(ACODE)* returns 10
- but *\$DEFINE(AREAC("LOS ANGELES"))* returns 0 since *AREAC* is not the correct array name (assuming it is not used).

Along with this set of string functions is a host of numeric and string operators. Many are



very powerful in nature. For numerics, the typical arithmetic operators of +, -, \*, / are used for addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. Also an integer divide is symbolized by \ and modulo operator by #. The last two operators make for very concise expressions such as

```
123 \ 10 = 12
123 # 10 = 3
123 \ 10 # 10 = 2
```

For string operations, the underline designates concatenation. The right bracket is the contains operator which tests whether the first argument contains the second. The left bracket signifies a string follows comparison. As you might expect, the usual Boolean operators, =, <, >, <=, and >=, are used for assorted equality and inequality checks.

Keeping track of operator precedence is simple in MUMPS; there isn't any. Operators are processed in a strict left to right sequence except for expressions in parentheses which, as expected, are processed first.

One of the more powerful Boolean operators is the ?, which tests for pattern

matching. A 1 or 0 truth value is returned depending on whether or not the first argument follows the pattern designated by the second argument. Patterns are determined by various character class codes and string constants, which can be modified by a numeric repeat count. For example, in the following statement the letter *N* designates numeric digits that test whether the variable *SSN* is a valid social security number:

```
IF SSN ? 3N1"-''2N1"-''4N
```

Thus the pattern is three digits, a dash, two more digits, a dash and ending with four digits.

In the following example, the letter *U* indicates upper case alphabetic characters and *A*, an alphabetic character. The period is used to mean any number of characters as a repeat count. The expression

```
IF NAME ? 1U.A1"-''1U.A
```

might be used to check for a person's name, formatted as a last name and first name separated by a comma.

Other letter codes include *C* for control characters, *E* for any character (everything), and *P* for punctuation.

Logical expressions are combined with & for *and* and ! for *or*. The apostrophe may be used in front of any logical operator for the inverse of the operator. Thus *IF X < 0 ! (X > 1)* tests whether *X* is less than zero or if it is greater than one, and *IF M ! "." & (M ? .N)* tests whether *M* is all digits and does not have a decimal point.

Another powerful operator is @, which represents indirect reference of "indirection." Indirection is a unary operation that is performed on character strings. The result of an indirection operation depends on how it is used. Basically, @ takes a value and treats it like a variable:

```
SET NAM = "X" ; variable NAM gets value "X"
SET @NAM = 2 ; indirectly sets variable X to value 2
```


or an expression:

```
SET ARG = "X=3,Y=4" ; define an argument
SET @ARG ; sets X to 3 and Y to 4
```

Indirection is useful in processing differently named arrays with one statement.

**A**s in BASIC, input and output in MUMPS is oriented around interactive video display and printer terminals. The command

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*WRITE* outputs the values for constants, variables, and expressions to the currently assigned I/O device.

Input is done in a similar manner using the *READ* command. For example, the code in Listing 1 reads a set of integer values and prints their sum. Note the pattern matching command and the entry of a null string "" to indicate no more data. Comments are denoted in MUMPS as all text that follows a semicolon on a single line.

MUMPS program lines begin with one or more spaces or with an alphanumeric line label. Statements are separated by a single blank space. Since the syntax of each statement determines its format and overall length, statement delimiters are not needed. Control may be passed to named lines with the *GOTO* or *DO* commands.

The *SET* command assigns values to any number of variables. Note that the *IF* command does not use a *THEN*. MUMPS continues processing with the command that follows the logical expression if it is true. Otherwise control is transferred to the beginning of the next line.

An *ELSE* command is available but not in the sense of most other languages. Instead MUMPS has an internal last truth value that may be checked at anytime with the *ELSE*.

Thus an *IF* might have a corresponding *ELSE* located many lines of code away.

The *IF* can test this internal truth value by using a null expression, designated by two blank spaces after the *IF*. This means the results of an *IF* evaluation can be checked in other areas of a program without the original expression being coded.

Loops in MUMPS are coded using the *FOR* command. *FOR* repeatedly sets a variable to some value based on one of the four following basic formats:

```
FOR I=1:1:10; sets I to 1,2,3... 10
FOR N="TOM","DICK","HARRY";
    sets N to each of the strings that
    follow
FOR I=1:1 UNTIL I>99; increments I
    until the condition following the
    UNTIL is true
```

```
FOR I=1:1 WHILE I<100;
    increments as long as the condi-
    tion after the WHILE is true
```

The scope of the *FOR* is only to the end of the line. Thus the following counts how many numbers are greater than 0 in the 100 element array *NUM*:

```
SET GZ=0 FOR I=1 TO 100 IF
    NUM(I)>0 SET GZ=GZ+1
```

The *DO* command calls subroutines. It is like the *GOTO* in all respects except that anywhere in the code to which control is transferred, a *QUIT* statement can be

```
SET TOTAL=0,CNT=0; initialize total and count variables
IPN READ "Enter a number: ",NUMB
    IF NUMB="" GOTO DONE; exit on a null entry
    IF NUMB'?.N WRITE NUMB," is not valid"; validate number
    ELSE SET TOTAL=TOTAL+NUMB,CNT=CNT+1; update values
    GOTO IPN; get next number
DONE WRITE "Read ",CNT," numbers for a total of ",TOTAL
    HALT; end of program
```

Listing 1.

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executed causing a return to the next expression in the calling *DO* statement. A *DO* may call one or more subroutines such as:

```
DO SUB1,SUB2,SUB3 ; perform in
  succession the 3 subroutines
```

Related in some respects to indirection is the *XECUTE* command. It evaluates its argument as a command string to be executed as though it were explicitly coded in the program. For example,

```
XECUTE $PIECE("GOTO NEXT/DO
  PREV","/","N)
```

either does a *GOTO NEXT* or a *DO PREV* depending on whether *N* has the value of 1 or 2. Obviously some very cryptic and run-time dependent code can be created with this command.

A noteworthy coding format in MUMPS allows conditional execution of all commands, with minor exceptions. A command name may be followed by a colon and some expression. The expression is evaluated and, if true, the command is processed. Otherwise it is bypassed. Thus the *FOR* loop counting

example could be coded

```
SET GZ=0 FOR I= 1 TO 100
  SET:NUM(I)>0 GZ=GZ+1
```

A *GOTO* or *DO* command also may use this conditional execution as in:

```
DO:X="YES" SAVE ; call subroutine
  SAVE if X is YES
GOTO:I'=0 SUM ; goto line labeled
  SUM if I is not 0
```

The expression can also follow arguments to the *DO* and *GOTO*, which is handy for selectively executing certain subroutines:

```
DO
  SUB1:X<0,SUB2:X=0,SUB3:X
  >0,SUB4
```

which performs one of the subroutines *SUB1*, *SUB2*, or *SUB3* depending on the value of *X* and always calls *SUB4*.

**B**y now many readers may think MUMPS is a variation of BASIC but without line numbers and numeric and string data typing. To some extent this is true. Where MUMPS truly leaves all other languages behind is in its ability to process complex data structures that are disk resident.

MUMPS files do not exist in the traditional sense. All disk data is a string of ASCII characters, named in the same manner as local memory-resident variables, with the exception of a ^ (carat) preceding the name. The significance of this is that all statements, commands, functions, operators, etc., may use disk variables in a manner identical to local variables.

MUMPS calls its disk data globals since disk data may be shared by all users. Memory-resident variables, on the other hand, are local to one particular MUMPS process. Thus instead of opening, reading, and writing a file, you simply *SET* the global to some value. For instance, the following statement adds one to a status global and then displays its current value:

```
SET ^STAT=^STAT+1 WRITE "Status
  is",^STAT
```

The *\$DEFINE* function, mentioned earlier, determines whether a global exists or not. Thus a statement like the one below might precede the above update of global *STAT*

```
IF $DEFINE(^STAT)=0 WRITE "Status
  not defined"
```

These two examples illustrate the simplest forms for using a global. More often globals are processed as multi-dimensional arrays where the subscripts

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are either numeric or string subscripts. Processing a global then takes on the form of array processing using the *FOR* loop and *\$NEXT* or *\$ORDER* functions.

A strict numeric sequence of integers might be used as subscripts to store a series of statistical values, where each value in the global is a single number. For example, let the global *^X* contain 200 values. Then their sum is simply:

```
SET TOTAL=0 FOR I=1:1:200
TOTAL=TOTAL+^X(I)
```

which is identical to how the values would be totalled if *^X* were a local array.

As with local arrays, global subscripts are also defined sparsely, i.e., only those values defined are actually stored in the global. An accounting system could use a global to track the status of purchase orders where the subscript is a purchase order number. The data stored at a particular node in the global might contain items such as the date ordered, the customer number, and so on. For further detail on the data—the purchase order in this example—a second set of subscripts might be used for information about the nature of the order, the line items in it, terms, etc.

We could have a situation where the code presented in Listing 2 would tell a user if a purchase order exists and the date when it was made based on the first subscript in global *^PONUMB*.

A second level of subscripts might be the line item numbers in the *PO*, with a subscript of zero indicating how many lines, plus other related information. When a *PO* is confirmed to exist using the previous example, the line items might be printed, unformatted, as in Listing 3.

The unformatted data is noted since the values in the string would usually be vari-

able length with some special character delimiter. The *\$PIECE* function is then used to determine individual field values. A line item node in the above global might look like:

```
12 ^ MX102 ^ DS/DD Diskettes ^ 1.50
^ 18.00
```

which could indicate 12 model MX102 DS/DD diskettes at \$1.50 each for a total of \$18.00. The *^* is an often-used MUMPS field delimiter.

```
PON READ "Enter PO number: ",PO
IF PO'?.N WRITE "Invalid number" GOTO PON
IF $DEFINE(^PONUMB(PO))=0 WRITE "Not on file"
ELSE WRITE "Ordered: ",^PONUMB(PO)
GOTO PON
```

Listing 2.

```
SET LN=^PONUMB(PO,0)
WRITE LN," line items for PO ",PO
FOR I=1:1:LN WRITE !,"Line ",I," ",^PONUMB(PO,I)
```

Listing 3.

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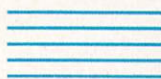


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MUMPS provides a syntactic convenience in processing globals, called the naked reference. It essentially means that a global reference may be made without a name and the last level in the global will continue to be processed. This means the global coded  $\wedge$ PONUMB(PO,I) could have been coded as simply  $\wedge$ (I) since the initial reference was in the first line at the second level subscripts.

With two or more subscripts used to define their data, globals take on the form of tree structures. Although not a data base management system in the fullest sense, MUMPS provides all the language features needed for creating any hierarchical data base.

Most MUMPS systems implement their global data structures using some form of balanced B\* or multiway tree structure. This guarantees a reasonable response time to examine any node in any size global.

 MUMPS is also a multi-user data management system. Its global data structures may be referenced by any user on the system. For instance, the purchase order global could be referenced by any number of users on a system checking the status of their purchases. The typical MUMPS system has all global references occurring in a buffer pool (sometimes called a disk cache) so that each user has access to the same and most current data.

Updating a file is another matter. To control the sequence in which a global is updated there is a LOCK command. This allows a user to have exclusive control of an entry in a lock table that in turn typically defines an area of a global.

In the purchase order example, a receiving area might be changing the status of some line items in the file. In the clerical area a buyer might also change something in the PO that is on back-order. Either user could have their program LOCK the entire order if both used a statement of the form:

```
LOCK ^PONUMB(PO)
```

On the other hand, if the changes are only specific to one line item in the order then the control may be:

```
LOCK ^PONUMB(PO,LINE)
```

where PO is the purchase number and LINE the line number being changed.


Users on the system making inquiries do not have to use the locking code since they will always be retrieving the most current PO data from the buffer pool.

In general, access codes, passwords, and the like on commercial MUMPS systems provide an overall control mechanism. They usually map a group of related globals to a certain user class

when those users sign on to the system. Many variations exist, even to the extent of coding certain globals as read only, or read/write by user class.

The HANG and JOB commands are also useful in a multi-user environment. The HANG command suspends program execution for a specified number of seconds. This might be used in time dependent processes, such as waiting until a certain time of day has arrived before continuing with program execution.

The JOB command initiates another MUMPS process. This might be something as simple as a print spooler to a process that files the records generated by a number of other data entry processes. With the HANG command the second process could be set to function every few minutes or so instead of continually waiting for records to file.

 At this point I would like to describe the typical MUMPS system layout. A single-user system consists of basically the interpreter and the single-user area. The user area has a fixed space that describes the current context in which the user is functioning. Three variably sized areas also exist: the user's program code, the local variables (the symbol table), and a stack area for intermediate values during program execution. (Figure 1.)

For multi-user systems, an executive handles the time sharing and context switching between users. In the disk buffer pool all global references are handled. (Figure 2.)

This area is also used to hold program routines called in from the disk by the DO and GOTO commands. Some vendors even share program code between users. Thus the user partition only consists of the fixed context area, the symbol table, and stack.

Some systems do not fluctuate just in a fixed partition area and thus allow the symbol area to be completely dynamic in size. Some systems even swap partition overflows to and from the disk. In these, MUMPS becomes a virtual machine much in the same manner as the IBM 360/370 OS.

Some MUMPS vendors who offer networked systems provide another very sophisticated area of global processing. In these systems a global has some additional coding within its name designating that it resides on another machine. For example, some vendors use brackets to indicate the networked machine as in

```
SET  
  ^[MACH3]GLOBAL(SUB1,SUB2)  
  =0
```



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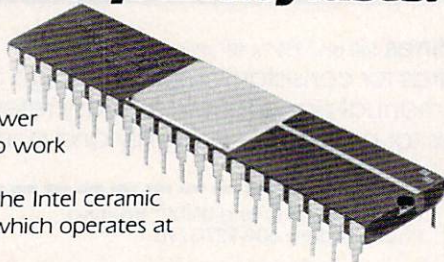
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A MUMPS program that SETs the global value is actually passing data through a high-speed communications device to another MUMPS computer's disk. Once again, other than the slight name change, the remote global is processed in the same manner as one on the current machine, which is the same as locally defined variable data.

As you can see now, MUMPS is not just a language but a unique way of developing multi-user data base oriented systems on mini and microcomputers. When I think of MUMPS I think of the fanaticism of C or Fort. Like these languages, MUMPS is fostered by a dedicated set of programmers who often work with systems containing over 100 interactive terminals that are updating and accessing the same data base on moderately priced minicomputers.

MUMPS has its roots in the health care environment; in 1969, the initial version of the language was created at Massachusetts General Hospital. The following seven years saw a small proliferation of various dialects which culminated in an ANSI standardized version that was first offered by a number of hardware manufacturers, most notably Digital Equipment Corp. on its PDP-11.

The language is currently available on a wide range of minis, including the Data General Eclipses, Prime, Tandem, and

others. MUMPS is also available in a multi-user environment on the IBM PC and 6809-based microprocessors. Single-user systems are also available for the Apple, 6809, IBM PC, and 8080 systems.

MUMPS has an enormous number of applications in the health care field, particularly in laboratory and radiology data management where there is extensive variable length textual data.

Another important application includes overall patient data management for admissions, business office and medical records. Many clinic and physician group practice systems also use MUMPS and of course many business-oriented applications are written in it.

The key element MUMPS offers is its ease in developing multi-user data management systems. In the health care application examples noted, it is essential to allow all users access to individual patient data. For example, in a laboratory application, test results can be viewed as soon as they are entered into the system on video display terminals at the nursing station, physicians' lounge, or even the physician's office if he or she has a modem for dialing into the hospital's computer.

For further information contact the MUMPS Users Group. They offer a wide assortment of publications and services for the novice and veteran MUMPS user. A national meeting takes place every year in June in different parts of the country. For more specific information on actual

commercial MUMPS systems, the MUG provides a list of current vendors of MUMPS language processors and MUMPS applications. Four microprocessor-based MUMPS system vendors are also included in the references. ■

#### References

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5. Eclectic Systems Corp., 16260 Midway Rd., Addison, Texas 75001, (214) 661-1370. Various microprocessor implementations of MUMPS.

*J. Edward Volkstorff Jr. is a free-lance software consultant living in Chesapeake, Va.*

Single user MUMPS system memory layout

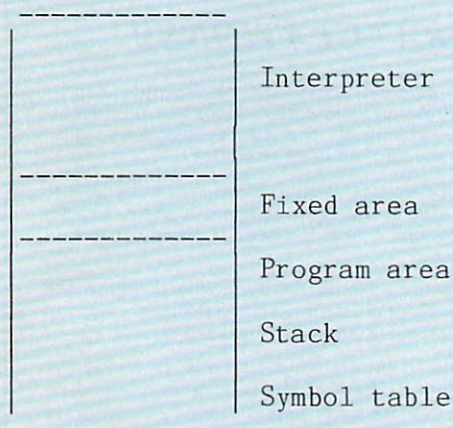


Figure 1.

Multi-user MUMPS system memory organization

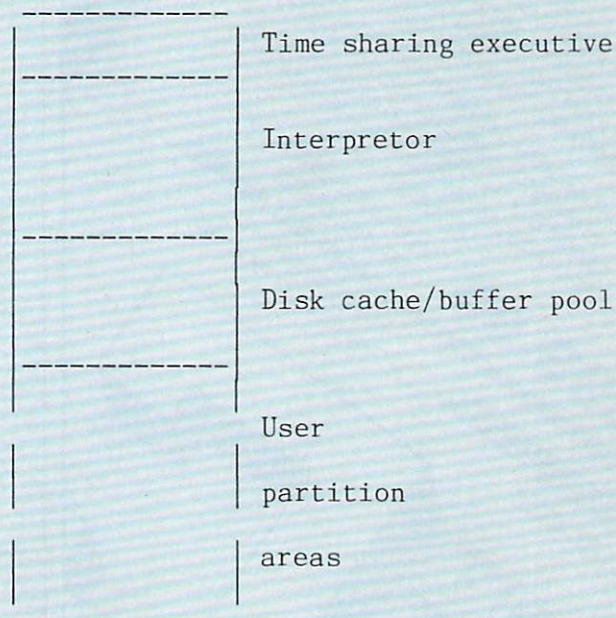


Figure 2.



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## Expert team analyzes 21 C compilers

By Steve Leibson, Fred Pfahler, Jim Reed, and Jim Kyle

In the early 1970s at Bell Laboratories, Dennis Ritchie developed his C programming language for PDP-11 minicomputers. He needed a systems programming language for the new UNIX operating system created by colleague Ken Thompson. The C language has grown in popularity since those early days due to its simplicity, elegance, and power.

Today C has left the UNIX environment and comfortably resides on other operating systems and computers. This special review will look at the C compilers currently available on the market from a variety of operating system perspectives. We will cover 12 C compilers and one interpreter running under PC-DOS, six CP/M C compilers, two OS-9 C compilers, one CP/M 86 C compiler, and one TRS-80 compiler. (C compilers for the Apple Macintosh will be reviewed in the April issue.) A list of company names, addresses, and phone numbers is included at the end of the review.

Languages have been grouped by operating system in the text and in four tables on bundled software and essential information (page 75), benchmark results (page 79), basic data types (page 99), and library functions (page 100). It may not be fair to compare language implementations across operating system boundaries, but such comparisons are inevitable and interesting.

We tested the C languages by installing them in appropriate systems. Then we attempted to compile and run a suite of four benchmark programs on each. Details on the benchmarks we used—Sieve of Eratosthenes, Fib, Deref, and Matrix—are contained in a sidebar (page 82).

Throughout this review we refer to the definitive reference on C—*The C Programming Language* by Brian W. Kernighan and Dennis M. Ritchie. C users all over refer to this book simply as K&R and we will too.

### MS-DOS/PC-DOS C COMPILERS

Little doubt exists that MS-DOS, in the guise of PC-DOS in the IBM PC family and the many compatibles, is the successor to CP/M as the most popular microcomputer operating system. With the addition of tree-structured directories introduced with DOS 2.0, this operating system clearly targets low-end UNIX applications.

In this atmosphere, many software houses have decided to offer C compilers for MS-DOS and PC-DOS. As a bonus, one company has introduced a C interpreter! We will look at 11 of these compilers and the interpreter in this portion of the review. All compilers were tested using DOS 3.0 on an IBM PC with 544K of memory and two 360K floppy drives.

The 8088 processor, with its segmented architecture, presents an interesting problem for language developers. Pointers can be either 16 bits or 20 bits long. This has led to the use of four programming models, originally set forth in Intel's PL/M 86 programming language. These models are called small, medium, compact, and large (or big).

The small 8088 memory model defines separate code and data areas, with each area limited to 64K bytes. Thus the total program with data included may use a maximum of 128K bytes of memory. The program stack must also fit in the 64K allocated to the data. Programs compiled with the small memory model use 16-bit pointers.

The medium memory model limits the data segment to 64K bytes, so data pointers within the program are 16 bits long. The program, however, is no longer constrained to a 64K block but can extend throughout memory. Call and return pointers are therefore managed by the compiler and linker so that their size is appropriate for each instance.

Programs compiled under the compact memory model have separate 64K spaces for code, data, and stack segments, while a fourth segment, called the heap, can occupy the rest of memory.

The large or big model allows code to expand throughout memory, while the global data and stack are limited to 64K segments. The heap can also extend

throughout memory, as in the compact model.

Lattice and Microsoft have a slightly different set of memory models; the small, program, data and large models allow for a simpler allocation of pointer size. Small programs have a 64K code and a 64K data segment. Programs compiled with the program model have a 1MB program space but a 64K data space, while programs compiled with the data model are limited to a 64K program space and have a 1MB data space. The large model allows for both segments to use 1MB.

### Manx's Aztec C

Let's start off with a fine example of a compiler that has many strengths—one from Manx Software Systems with the unlikely name of Aztec C. Two versions of the package are supplied, version 1.06D and 2.20B. The earlier version is slower but more mature (less bugs), and the new version is faster but has not yet aged. We tried both versions, and the results are in the benchmark table (Table 2). Programs compiled with the version 1.06 compiler won't link with the version 2.20 linker and vice versa. You get a "not an object file" error.

Two floating point libraries are supplied. One library does not use the 8087 and the other does. Aztec C supports only the small memory model, but it also supports overlays, so programs can become quite large. The version 2.20 compiler has an option to support either the 8086/8088 or the 80186/80286. We did not quite understand this because the 80186 is more like the 8086 than the 80286, however, we did not have the hardware to test this option.

No batch files were supplied on the distribution disks and we found no recommended files in the manual, but the syntax for the compile and link commands is fairly simple. With the compile disk on drive A and the source code on drive B, *CC B: <filename>* compiles the program and *LN B: <filename> C.LIB* links it.

The Sieve and Fib programs compiled, linked, and ran for both versions of Aztec C, but we had problems with Deref and



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Matrix. Deref had to be reduced to 12 levels of indirection before Aztec C could compile it. At that level, the program compiled and linked in 60 sec, ran in 6 sec, and took 4,352 bytes.

Our problem with Matrix turned out to be library related. A second math library, called m.lib, must also be linked with Matrix. After that, we had no further trouble.

Manx offers Aztec in several different flavors, so you can port your programs across a lot of hardware if you need to. One interesting aspect of the Aztec C compiler is the PRO extension. This includes an editor (called z), a symbolic debugger, and source files for several of the library functions. The PRO version of the compiler can generate ROMable code. These extensions seem to be quite valuable for serious development work. The Aztec C86 compiler for MS-DOS or CP/M 86 is \$249.00, and the compiler with the PRO options is \$499.00.

### Supersoft C

Supersoft C went together a little differently from the other packages. It also would not fit on one 360K disk so we were instructed to put just the library on a second disk. Then a single batch file called CM.BAT ran the show.

When it came time to link in the library, the linker paused and asked where the library could be found since it wasn't where it was supposed to be. This was our cue to swap the library into drive A and type "A". Well, that didn't work but typing "A:" did. Another company that doesn't seem to read its own manual.

At \$350, Supersoft C seems a bit expensive for a compiler that does not yet support floating point. Supersoft says it plans to upgrade the compiler to floating point but for now it supports Binary Coded Decimal floating point through float and double declarations, plus some special library math routines. It seems that although you can declare floats and doubles, all you can do with them is pass their pointers around. You can't use the compiler's intrinsic operators on them.

Only one memory model seems to be supported by Supersoft C, and it appears to be the small model. Supersoft C does not directly support overlays, but a section in the manual states that Digital Research's RASM86 assembler running under MS-DOS will support overlay operation. Supersoft's linker ELINK supports overlays in the CP/M 80 environment.

In the benchmarks, Sieve compiled and ran fine, we had to remove void from the Fib program, Deref ran fine, and Matrix could not be compiled due to the lack of intrinsic floating point math.

Supersoft C seems to be a software package in transition. Until it supports full C, we think it is overpriced. When floating point math is added, it will be a real contender.

### Computer Innovations' C86

We liked Computer Innovations' C86 right away. You have to admire a company that names its librarian Marion. However, this fondness quickly dimmed. Executable files in C86 are supplied squeezed to save room on the disk and must be unsqueezed to create the working disk. We don't know about you, but we like to get the software out of the box and get it running fast. Unsqueezing files is for bulletin boards!

Learning how to use C86 isn't as easy as it might be. No test program is supplied, although there is a listing in the manual. One paragraph is devoted to linking. We think that this is hardly adequate. In the end we stole the link batch file LNK.BAT from the C-Systems work disk.

C86 supports the small and big models. The 8087 is also supported by a compiler option and a special 8087 library. Programs compiled with this option selected will not run on machines that do not have the 8087 coprocessor. Computer Innovations previously supported overlays, but with the addition of support for the big memory model, overlays were dropped.

Sieve compiled and ran fine but Fib wouldn't parse. It was then that we found out that the C86 manual lists no error messages. It only says that error messages "should be self-explanatory." We wouldn't have looked in the manual if that were true, honest. The problem with Fib was the void typing again. Removal of the offending void allowed Fib to compile and run.

Deref proved to be too complex again. Reducing the indirection to 14 levels proved to work. At that level of complexity, Deref compiled in 106 sec, ran in 6 sec, and took 12,680 bytes. Matrix required a #include <stdio.h> before it would compile.

### Wizard C

There is nothing like a good name to get a product off the ground quickly, and we like the name Wizard. It makes us feel like real hackers. Wizard Systems' Wizard C seems to have been written by someone who has been in the business a while. This especially shows in the documentation, which is conversational without being preachy or snobbish.

Wizard C barely fits on a double-sided floppy. We were finally able to squeeze all of the required files onto the disk by deleting COMMAND.COM. This makes the disk unbootable but much easier to use during compilation.

Using a confusing set of compiler options, you can generate programs under the small, medium, or large model. The default is the small memory model. Adding the -e option gives you extended data, but this option must be used with the



## Bundled software and essential information

	Manufacturer	Name	Price	Version	Operating system	Editor	Assembler	Linker	Librarian	Debugger	No. compiler phases	Optimizer pass	Compiler output	Full K&R	Full K&R storage classes	Compiler source included	Pages in manual
MS-DOS/PC-DOS compilers	Lattice	C	\$500	2.13(2.14 avail)	MS-DOS, CP/M 86	no	N.A.	no	yes	no	2	no	OBJ	yes	yes	no	150+
	Microsoft	C	\$500	2.03	MS-DOS	no	N.A.	yes	yes	no	2	no	OBJ	yes	yes	no	150+
	Microsoft	C	\$450-500	3.00.13	MS-DOS	no	N.A.	yes	yes	no	4	yes	OBJ	yes	yes	no	832
	Mark Williams	MWC86	\$500	2.0	MS-DOS, Coherent, CP/M 86, ISIS, RMX, VAX/VMS	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	4	yes	OBJ	yes	yes	no	238
	Rational Systems	Instant C	\$495	.9(1.0 avail)	MS-DOS	yes	no	N.A.	N.A.	yes	0	N.A.	N.A.	no	yes	no	175
	Wizard Systems	Wizard C	\$450	1.3(2.0 avail)	MS-DOS, TOS, VAX/VMS	no	no	no	no	no	3	no	OBJ or ASM	yes	yes	no	243
	Computer Innovations	Optimizing C86	\$395	2.20G (2.20J avail)	MS-DOS, CP/M 86	no	no	no	yes	no	4	yes	OBJ or ASM	yes	yes	no	275+
	Supersoft	C	\$350	1.2	MS-DOS, CP/M, CP/M 86	no	no	no	no	no	3	yes	ASM	no	no	no	228
	Manx Software	Aztec C/ PRO	\$498	2.20B	MS-DOS, CP/M 86, Macintosh	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	1	no	ASM	no	yes	no	400+
	C-Systems	C	\$199	2.06(2.08 avail 2/1)	MS-DOS	no	yes	no	no	yes	3	no	ASM	no	yes	no	193
	C Ware	DeSmet C	\$159	2.4	MS-DOS, CP/M 86	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	3	no	.0	no	no	no	128
	Datalight	Small-C	\$40	2.1	MS-DOS	no	no	no	no	\$40	1	no	ASM	no	no	yes	45
	Ecosoft	Eco-C	\$250	3.1(3.2 avail 1/1)	CP/M	no	yes	yes	no	no	4	no	ASM	no	yes	no	210
	Alcor	Alcor C	\$139	2.01.00	CP/M, MS-DOS	yes	no	yes	no	no	1	no	p-code	yes	yes	no	486
CP/M compilers	BDS	BDS C	\$150	1.50a	CP/M, MP/M	no	N.A.	yes(2)	no	yes	2	no	.CRL	no	yes	no	184
	Code Works	Q/C	\$95.00	3.2B(3.2C now avail)	CP/M, MP/M	no	no	no	no	no	1	no	ASM	no	yes	yes	173
	Software Toolworks	C/80	\$49.95	3.1	CP/M, MP/M, MS-DOS	no	yes	no	no	no	1	no	ASM	no	yes	no	50
	Hendrix	Small-C	\$25.00	2.1	CP/M, MP/M	no	no	no	no	no	1	no	ASM	no	no	yes	256
OS-9 compilers	Microware	C	\$400	1.1.4	OS-9	no	yes	yes	no	ASM level	2	yes	ASM	no	yes	no	132
	Introl	C	\$425	1.55	OS-9, Flex, Uniflex	no	yes	yes	yes	no	4	yes	ASM	no	no	yes	218
CP/M 86	Digital Research	C	\$500	1.11	CP/M 86 MS-DOS	no	yes	yes	yes	no	2	no	OBJ	yes	yes	no	500+

N.A. = Not Applicable.

Table 1.



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Z8002	IBM PC	Conversion/Download
Z80	Data General/ONE	Communications
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9900...	others	
	G65SCXX, G65SC1XX	
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-m option to create a large model program. The -m option used alone generates a medium model program. A nice feature of the compiler is that it automatically invokes the linker, reducing the need to babysit the compilation process.

One very useful program in the UNIX C programming environment is LINT. This is not something you pick off of your clothes but an extended error checking program designed to aid in writing code. Wizard C has LINT-type error checking built into the compiler. This feature produced several interesting warnings during compilation of the benchmark programs. In addition, Wizard C is supplied with the LINT program, and phase one of the compiler can be told to generate lint files (.LNT) to be used by LINT.

The Sieve and Fib benchmarks compiled and ran fine, but Deref struck once again. Wizard C came up with the very descriptive message "Disaster, Type stack overflow." The compiler could only handle 16 levels of indirection before the stack blew. At that level of indirection, Deref compiled in 72 sec, ran in 8 sec, and required 8,444 bytes of code. Matrix required a `#include <stdio.h>` before it would compile.

#### Datalight's Small-C

As an indication of MS-DOS's lineage, we find the migrant Small-C fresh from its appearance in the CP/M world. This is J. E. Hendrix's version 2.1 of Small-C, retargeted for the 8086 processor family by Datalight. Most of the words written later on about the CP/M version of Small-C apply to the MS-DOS version as well. Small-C for MS-DOS supports only the small memory model.

Small-C has a loyal group of followers, which is most evident from the number of programs written in the language appearing in *Dr. Dobbs's Journal* over the past few years. Therefore, we find this version for PC-DOS and MS-DOS to be most welcome.

Small-C requires but is not supplied with an assembler and a linker. We used the Microsoft macro-assembler MASM version 1.0 and the linker supplied with DOS 3.0 in our tests. Two programs supplied with Small-C were batch file CC.BAT, which can be used to automate the compilation process, and LL.BAT, which does the same for linking. CC.BAT worked fine but LL.BAT would not work with version 2.2 of the DOS linker as supplied. This was due to the specification of the bit bucket NUL: as the target for the linker's list file. Apparently LINK version 2.2 (supplied with DOS 3.0) prefers NUL (without the :). A quick swipe of the editor and Small-C was off and running.

In the benchmark tests, Small-C compiled and ran Sieve with no problem but hit the rocks on the other three programs. It couldn't compile Fib until references to

*void* and *unsigned* were removed. Then it was able to compile and properly run the benchmark. Deref requires structures and Matrix requires floating point arithmetic and two-dimensional arrays. Small-C does not support these three features so the last two benchmarks weren't compiled or run.

At \$40, Small-C really isn't intended to be a heavy-duty development tool although it can be remarkably useful. It serves as a low-cost introduction to the C programming language and an instructive example of how to write a compiler.

Small-C is the only MS-DOS C compiler we reviewed here which includes the source. The library source is also included. Thus you can learn how compilers are constructed and modify the existing Small-C compiler experimentally.

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## Benchmark results

	Compiler	Sieve			Fib			Deref			Matrix		
		Compile time (sec)	Run time (sec)	Size (bytes) (sec)	Compile time (sec)	Run time (sec)	Size (bytes) (sec)	Compile time (sec)	Run time (sec)	Size (bytes)	Compile time	Run time	Size (bytes)
MS-DOS/PC-compilers	Lattice	98	11	21,902	80	58	13,710	90	13	13,726	163	29	25,176
	Microsoft (2.03)	103	11	19,754	81	57	11,578	90	13	11,578	99	28	22,722
	Microsoft (3.0)	102	11	6,926	109	72	6,924	104	10	6,940	—	—	—
	Mark Williams	79	12	6,887	81	—	6,869	79	11	6,874	107	29	10,847
	Rational Systems	4	41	640	3	176	640	—	—	—	8	35	1,408
	Wizard Systems	74	12	16,490	76	52	8,444	—	—	—	84	16	18,826
	Computer Innovations	111	13	12,729	112	46	12,728	—	—	—	134	27	13,766
	Supersoft	132	28	13,112	114	47	4,738	119	15	4,822	—	—	—
	Manx 1.06D	63	17	4,448	58	82	4,384	—	—	—	94	21	7,920
	Manx 2.20B	64	11	4,448	61	61	4,448	—	—	—	92	16	7,840
	C-Systems	119	19	27,716	112	58	19,456	—	—	—	191	22	31,114
	C Ware	49	12	6,656	48	44	6,656	49	11	6,656	55	17	7,168
	Datalight	94	40	14,182	82	76	5,861	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Digital Research	108	12	27,136	109	43	18,944	145	14	18,944	145	18	31,872
CP/M compilers	Ecosoft	93	39	14,464	39	83	—	78	15	—	154	18	—
	Alcor	25	215	1,024	30	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	BDS	25	48	3,840	27	113	3,840	25	12	3,712	—	—	—
	Code Works	67	48	12,160	67	104	4,352	46	12	4,352	—	—	—
	Software Toolworks	117	26	12,288	114	57	3,584	—	—	—	172	20	12,288
	Hendrix	270	58	16,640	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
OS-9 compilers	Microware (from disk)	111	15	3,873	111	54	3,812	—	—	—	151	43	8,207
	Microware (from RAM)	72	12	3,873	74	12	3,812	—	—	—	112	40	8,207
	Introl (from disk)	195	17	7,618	195	34	7,546	191	14	7,567	246	29	8,370
	Introl (from RAM)	—	11	7,618	—	28	7,546	—	8	7,567	—	22	8,370
CP/M-86 compilers	Digital Research (CP/M-86)	158	12	28,672	155	43	20,480	153	14	20,480	195	18	34,816
	Digital Research (MS-DOS)	108	12	27,136	109	43	18,944	145	14	18,944	145	18	31,872

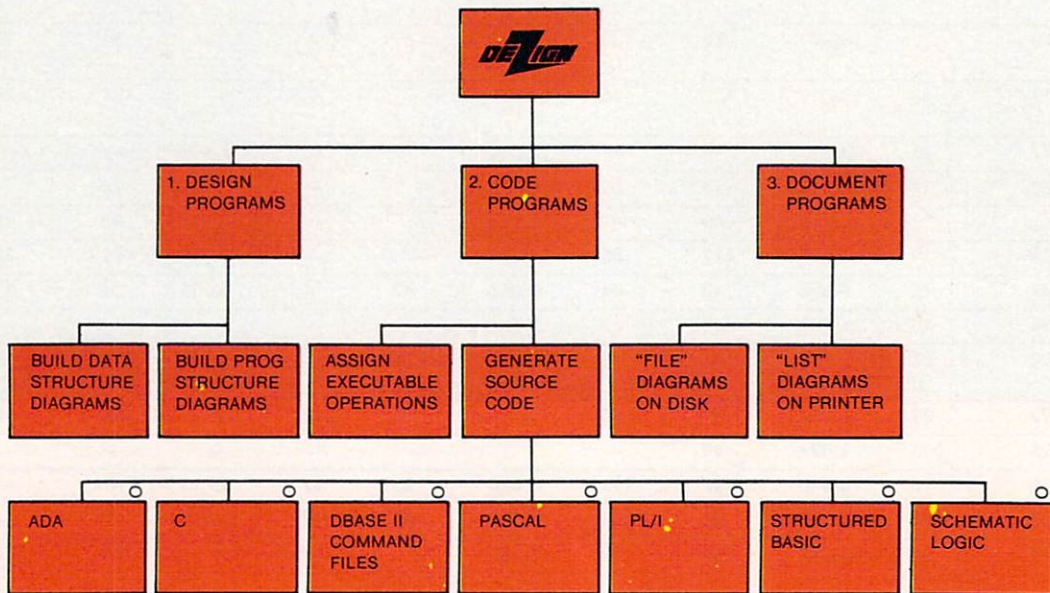
Table 2.



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"Principles of Program Design," by M. Jackson, Academic Press, describes the JSP methodology and is available for \$50 directly from Zedcomp and from most professional/technical book stores.



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software—a complete development system, in fact. You start with a screen editor geared to the IBM PC. You can pay well over \$159 for just an editor and we have just begun.

Next is the compiler. It isn't a small compiler at all, but a nearly full K&R implementation. What's missing? Well, some of the data types, preprocessor commands, storage classes and an operator or two. But these omissions didn't stop DeSmet C from compiling and running the four benchmarks with no modifications!

The compiler supports only the small memory model but makes up for the memory limitations by supporting overlays. Support is also available for the Intel 8087 numeric coprocessor. Two libraries are supplied with DeSmet C. One supports floating point calculations with assembly language routines and the other uses the 8087.

Also included in this software bargain bonanza are a binder (linker), an assembler, a performance profiler (!) and a librarian. The linker is necessary because the DeSmet compiler output is not the .OBJ file the DOS linker can use. The assembler is not needed for the compilation of C programs. It is a parallel development tool for routines that must be coded in assembly language for efficiency. The assembler produces object files compatible with the DeSmet binder.

Do you know what a profiler is? It is a jolly little utility that uses the IBM PC's real-time clock to generate a histogram of your program's operation. It does this by latching on to a periodic interrupt and sampling the instruction pointer (IP) at each interrupt. The value in the IP is used to increment one of 1,024 counters or "buckets". The result is a good approximation of where your program spends its time. Current versions of DeSmet C allow the profiler to work symbolically.

We did not have a chance to work with the DeSmet debugger or librarian, but they would appear to be most adequate from the documentation. Speaking of the documentation, we get to our only complaint about DeSmet C. For \$159, we think C Ware could afford a vinyl 3-ring binder. The documentation is good, but it needs packaging.

Finally, DeSmet C was the easiest DOS C compiler to bring up. Twenty minutes out of the box, it compiled a program. That includes the time it took to create working copies of the compiler and binder. It worked just like the instructions said it would too! Truly a miraculous package.

### C-Systems C

Returning to earth, we look at C-Systems C. This compiler is more a complete implementation of K&R although still not a full version. C-Systems C does not come

with an assembler or linker. Using the DOS assembler and linker, the complete development package of compiler, assembler, linker and library won't fit on one 360K floppy disk. Thus you will need a compile disk and a link disk and will be swapping between them unless you have a hard disk or RAM disk.

The compiler supplied for \$199.00 supports the small and big memory models. Libraries for the compact and medium models are \$50.00 each. Library source is not included but is available at an extra charge. The 8087 is also supported. It can be sensed automatically or the compiler can be instructed to assume that an 8087 will be present, for maximum performance.

This compiler did not work the way the manual said it would. A batch file called CC.BAT is supplied to run the compilation. You are supposed to have your source on drive B and the compile disk on drive A. Then, while logged on to B, type "a:cc <filename>" and your file will compile. Except it won't. CC.BAT expects the compiler files to be on the default drive, which in this case is B, but the files are actually on A. Logging onto drive A and typing "CC B: <filename>" works ever so much better. You'd think they would have tried it, wouldn't you? A batch file for linking, called LNK.BAT, did work as advertised.

Another problem we had in running C-Systems C the first time was due to our own error, with plenty of help from C-Systems. They supply batch file CC.BAT and an executable file called CC.EXE on the same disk, and we copied them both over to our working disk without looking. CC.EXE doesn't perform the same as CC.BAT, yet it overrides it when CC is called from DOS. We shouldn't have copied CC.EXE to our working disk and neither should you unless you know what it does. Our opinion: C-Systems should not supply its programs with this potential for error built in.

Though apparently a more complete implementation of C than DeSmet, C-Systems C had problems in the benchmarks. Sieve compiled and ran fine, but problems cropped up getting the other three to compile. C-Systems C didn't like *void* in Fib, couldn't handle 40 levels of indirection in Deref, and required a `#include <stdio.h>` in Matrix.

Since the compiler couldn't deal with the indirection in Deref, we started reducing the level of complexity until the program would compile. The magic number was 30 levels of indirection. No values were entered in the benchmark table for this program since it is not the full program, but at 30 levels of indirection, Deref compiled in 106 sec, ran in 9 sec, and linked to 19,426 bytes.

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## Benchmarks

The suite of four benchmark programs we used in reviewing the C languages was taken from a recent article in *BYTE* magazine.<sup>1</sup> Written by Dr. David D. Clark, these benchmarks test out various features of the languages.

First, however, we found it necessary to debug the benchmarks. Something must have happened to Clark's programs between benchmark testing and publication because two of the programs listed wouldn't run. If anybody would like a copy of our reworked benchmarks, written in C, they are all available on the *COMPUTER LANGUAGE* Bulletin Board Service and on this magazine's account on CompuServe. Look for the files BENMRK.\*. With all the tables and lengthy text from this review, there was just not enough room in the magazine left to print these benchmarks.

The first benchmark we used is the ever popular Sieve of Eratosthenes, written in a very simple dialect of C. This program is also called the prime number generator. It is a good test of a language's ability to run loops since the program has a triply nested loop. Sieve computes all prime numbers from 3 to 16,381. It does this by manipulating an array of 8,191 flags, with each flag representing an odd number from 1 to 16,381. Even numbers are obviously not prime and thus require no flags in the array. At the completion of the program, the largest prime found (16,381) is printed as is the number of primes (1,899). All compilers were able to run this program and obtain the correct answer.

The second benchmark, called Fib, generates Fibonacci numbers. This is a recursive algorithm so the program tests the speed of function calls and the

ability of the language implementation to perform recursion. The Fibonacci numbers are computed using the following algorithm:

```
If x <= 2 then F(x) = 1
If x > 2 then F(x) = F(x-1) +
                    F(x-2)
```

When the program completes, it prints the value of  $F(24)$ , which is 46,368.

Though our third benchmark is a very short program, many of the compilers had a lot of trouble with it. Called Deref, it tests the speed at which a C deals with indirection. By setting up a nested structure, the program repeatedly accesses a variable through 40 levels of indirection. This complexity of indirection was managed by only a few compilers.

The fourth benchmark was derived from a program proposed by *BYTE* columnist Jerry Pournelle.<sup>2</sup> Called Matrix, it tests floating point arithmetic speed. Since some of the compilers reviewed in this article do not implement floating point arithmetic, they weren't able to compile this benchmark. C programs don't always require floating point calculations so the inability to run this benchmark is not a terrible blot on a compiler's record.

Still, it is valuable to compare floating point performances on those C implementations that can run this program. The program creates three matrices. It then fills (initializes) the matrices and computes values by iteratively performing matrix multiplication and addition. This program is designed to be very compute-intensive. The final value printed is the sum of all elements in the C matrix, which is 465,880.

## Rational Systems' Instant C

And now for something completely different, as Monty Python would say. Instant C from Rational Systems is a C interpreter! We felt right at home with Instant C. It has the look and feel of C and the texture of a BASIC interpreter, all at the same time.

Imagine instant gratification from this language. Type "i++" and the value  $i$  is printed, then incremented. Type "+ + i" and  $i$  is incremented, then displayed. Learn C the easy way, with Instant C. We debugged all of the DOS benchmark programs in Instant C before unleashing the nasty old compilers on them.

The reason we did this is easy to understand by looking at the compile times in the benchmark results table—not a compile (load) time over 8 sec. But not all can be inferred from this table. The incredible (200K!) interpreter includes an editor. If you load a program with syntax errors, the interpreter will instantly switch to the edit mode and plunk the cursor on the offending character. You won't be able to exit this mode until you clean up all of your syntax errors or cry uncle (quit).

Editing is very slick. Type "ED <function name>" and only the function appears, while the interpreter switches to edit mode—modular text editing in the context of an interpreter. Some very admirable ideas are written into this little piece of code.

How about those error messages? "I'm sorry, but I don't know the word 'number.'" appeared when we had used "number" in one place and "NUMBER" in another. Being a compiler means never having to say you're sorry, but the interpreter seems to have that ability.

The bad news shows in the execution time column in the benchmark results table. Interpreters are slower than compilers by a factor of two or three. Yet look at the Matrix execution time. The interpreter approaches the speed of the compilers in floating point intensive programs. This is somewhat intuitive, as a floating point routine is the same the whole world over, compiler or interpreter.

Deref was again the heartbreaker. Above 16 indirection levels, the syntax is too complex for Instant C's parser. At 16 indirection levels, the program ran, but the memory-resident source was destroyed. At 14 levels, all was well.

As to the source being clobbered—the copy of Instant C we received was a pre-release copy, version 0.9. This problem will no doubt be fixed for the released version. Let's hope so, this program is too good to do without!

Unfortunately, you may have to do without it. At \$500, you get a great tool for writing and testing functions and modules and nothing to compile them after they are working. Rational Systems recommends that you purchase someone else's compiler as a companion to Instant



C, but we think the combined purchase price is a bit steep.

On the other hand, if Instant C could make you twice as productive, just think what your company will save not having to hire a second programmer. We sincerely feel that Instant C can have a major positive impact on programmer productivity.

### Mark William's MWC86

From the land of the minicomputer and the super-microcomputer comes Mark Williams Co's MWC86. Originally from the UNIX environment (Coherent from Mark Williams), MWC86 is a complete development system for the MS-DOS environment. It includes a compiler, linker, assembler, librarian and symbolic debugger.

MWC86 supports both small and large models. In addition, floating point libraries for non-8087 and 8087 use are included. The compiler, linker, and one library fit on a single disk.

The manual looks nice. It is typeset and has fancy tab dividers. However, it is not well indexed and doesn't seem to have any error message explanations. The index includes only function names and no topics, so it is almost useless for the beginner. The lack of error message explanations is completely unforgivable.

The csd C-source debugger is this package's claim to fame. Included is a vacuum-formed template that fits over the IBM PC's special function keys. The csd debugger completely disassociates the debug process from the assembly language level, allowing the programmer to deal only with C source code. The debugger allows the program to run at full speed, and program size does not grow because the debugger is being used. On-line help screens are also available, making this the most comprehensive debugger we have seen for MS-DOS C compilers.

During compilation of the benchmark programs, we encountered several errors and warnings. As mentioned previously, these were not explained in the manual and we were left to our own resources. Ultimately, we were able to compile all four of the benchmarks, but Fib did not run. In fact it hung the machine, making us suspect MWC86's capacity for recursion.

### Microsoft C (Lattice version)

It is somewhat common knowledge that Microsoft C is actually Lattice C (reviewed later). This isn't a secret as the Microsoft manual lists Lattice as joint copyright holder. Since the two compilers sell for the same price (\$500), it is very interesting to compare and contrast the two packages.


Microsoft C was supplied as version 2.03. This compiler supports the small, program, data and large models. The Microsoft C compiler does not support the

8087, but data formats have been made to conform to the 8087 definitions.

No help is supplied for the creation of the working disk. This is apparently left as an exercise for the user. Microsoft supplied all files on single-sided disks so there was quite a bit of disk swapping needed to create the work disks. No batch files were supplied to aid in compilation or linking, but sufficient information was in the manual for an experienced programmer to create these files. A copy of

K&R was included in the documentation.

The Microsoft C compiler is a full C implementation. It was able to compile and run the benchmarks with two modifications. The *void* typing in Fib had to be eliminated, and Matrix required the addition of *#include <stdio.h>*. In addition, a fluke collision occurred between the array *c[[]]* and a procedure called *c* in the standard program entry module. This



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resulted in a doubly-defined symbol error. Changing the array name to *qc* quickly solved this problem.

### Lattice C

It is apparent that Lattice C version 2.13 is a later version of the compiler sold as Microsoft C, version 2.03. Whole sections of the manual are duplicated in both versions. Lattice C also supports the four memory models: small, program, data, and large. Several features have been added to the Lattice version since Microsoft obtained the compiler.

The first addition is 8087 support. Lattice C will automatically sense the presence of the 8087 coprocessor and use the appropriate routines. Another addition is in expansion of the library to include more extensive mathematical functions. A *fork/wait* capability has been added which allows a program to create a child process and wait for it to complete.

One addition we particularly appreciated was an executive program called LC, which manages the compilation of programs. This replaced the batch file we created for Microsoft C. Unfortunately, no corresponding program is supplied for linking, so we used the file developed for Microsoft C, with suitable modifications.

We found the Lattice C manual to be quite complex. It is haphazardly assembled in three sections. The first section is a supplement containing the additions in version 2.10 of the compiler. The large middle section is the functional description of Lattice C, revision 2. The last section is a set of technical bulletins updating the first section supplement with the additions made in versions 2.10, 2.11, and 2.13. Finding information in this confusing array of pages is not very easy. Unlike the Microsoft compiler, Lattice does not include a copy of K&R with its manual.

Ignoring the manual, Lattice C is the most comprehensive compiler we have reviewed for MS-DOS. Its memory models, 8087 and library support provide a very full-featured compiler. If Lattice only supplied a debugger, it would be a most complete development system.

Lattice C was able to compile all of the benchmark programs, but Fib required the deletion of the *void* typing, and Matrix required the addition of `#include <stdio.h>`.

While linking Matrix we encountered one problem—we got several error messages for missing functions. The manual was not much help at first. Eventually we discovered that Lattice had decided to split the library, giving floating point functions a separate library. Changing the link command cleared this problem up. The scattered documentation on the version 2.13 revisions were at the root of this problem, as the other two manual sections were quite misleading.

### Microsoft C 3.0

This compiler is not at all like the C compilers previously offered by Microsoft. Before release 3.0, Microsoft sold repackaged versions of the Lattice C compiler. With the release 3.0 package, Microsoft introduces a homegrown compiler with very powerful features that take very good advantage of MS-DOS. Of course, this is to be expected since MS-DOS is also a Microsoft product.

Microsoft has tried to reproduce a UNIX-like environment with the release 3.0 C compiler. This can be seen in the compiler environment and the library functions supplied. Nothing has been retained from the Lattice package. Microsoft does acknowledge its previous compilers, however, by supplying a conversion aid, a file called V2TOV3.H.

The release 3.0 package is very large. It has a four-phase compiler, a special linker, several libraries, a librarian, and a large collection of include files. The manual is very large and comprehensive. It is composed of three sections: a user's guide, run-time library reference, and language reference.

The manual recommends a two-disk partition for floppy disk systems, placing the compiler and *include* files on one disk, with one set of libraries and the linker on the second. Unfortunately, we couldn't squeeze all of the *include* files on one disk with the compiler. They must have gotten somewhat larger since the manual was written. The end result is that we highly recommend a hard disk for use with this compiler.

Microsoft has abandoned the Lattice memory models in favor of the more popular Intel-style models. Release 3.0 supports small, medium, and large memory models. In addition, Microsoft C release 3.0 supports the keywords *near* and *far*, which can override the selected memory model for data items. Memory model selection is made by compiler command line options.

We received a prerelease version of this compiler from Microsoft. It was able to compile the first three benchmarks with no problems, but the Matrix benchmark produced an internal compiler error. This bug has been reported to Microsoft, and we hope it will be fixed by the time the compiler is offered for sale. The release 3.0 compiler generated fairly compact code that ran quickly for the Sieve and Deref tests but surprisingly slow in the Fib test. In all, we found the new Microsoft compiler to be quite impressive and expect it to be a contender in the crowded MS-DOS C compiler market.



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## COMPILERS FOR CP/M

Recent years have witnessed a growing support for C running under CP/M, starting with Small-C and progressing to ECO-C's highly professional implementation. This support has seeded a large and continually growing body of software written for the CP/M environment.

### J.E. Hendrix's Small-C

The original version of Small-C was published in *Dr. Dobb's Journal* in May 1980 by Ron Cain. In its original form, Small-C was a simple one-pass compiler that generated assembly language text for the 8080 processor. It recognized only characters, integers, and one-dimensional arrays of each. There were no Boolean operators so bitwise logical operators were used. The only loop control was the *while* statement.

The compiler was updated and extended by Jim E. Hendrix and published again in *Dr. Dobb's Journal* in December 1982. The new compiler, dubbed version 2.0 Small-C, has been extended by the addition of code optimization, data initialization, conditional compilation, the EXTERN storage class, the *for*, *do/while*, *switch*, and *goto* statements, assignment operators, Boolean operators, the one's complement operator, and assorted other features.

Since his article appeared, Jim Hendrix has published *The Small-C Handbook*, which does an excellent job of documenting the essential features of the compiler. The book, in combination with a disk of the compiler sources, would make an excellent semester course on the structure of seed compilers.

The Small-C compiler at \$25, with the book \$14.95, brings this tool in at the lowest price of any of the compilers we have reviewed for CP/M. The combined price tag of \$39.95 is a good investment, as the compiler makes an excellent tool for doing small utility development in the CP/M environment. Be aware that it implements only a subset of the full language.

Disk one contains the compiler CC.COM, several submit files, a read.me document, and order forms for the use of people who wish to get their own copy of Small-C. The read.me document deals with a problem seen with using certain versions of M80. The only instantly apparent source file is called AR.C. We displayed the source file and discovered that it is a program archiver and the assorted .ARC files on the disk are archived sources for the system. A submit file connects the compilation, assembly, and link portions of building a program. It seems as if almost everything has been thought of. The documentation consists of a copy of *The Small-C Handbook*.

The largest plus we see to Small-C is that in combination with *The Small-C*

*Handbook* you have a ready tool to learn about what a compiler is and how it works. The compiler does not try to deal with the entire language so it is somewhat simpler and easier to read. Modifying the compiler to extend the language is quick and easy.

The Small-C compiler is in the public domain and virtually free. What you are paying for when you purchase the package is the right to be in on any updates and fixes that come along, which is explained in the file REGISTER on the disk. It is your least expensive step into the C language. If you try it out and find it's not to your taste, you haven't made a heavy investment. If you find that you like C, then in the future you can move up to a bigger implementation.

But *be warned*, do not expect to do large-scale development in Small-C. More comprehensive versions of the language are out there. Many of the more powerful extensions of C would make some rather long and tedious Small-C programs quite a bit shorter and more concise.

Small C could run only one of the benchmarks. Lack of floating point support and one-dimensional arrays prevented the Matrix program from compiling, lack of unsigned integers kept Fib from compiling, and lack of structures stopped Deref.

Also be warned that if you do not already have an M80 compatible relocating assembler, and a linker, you are going to have to get one in order to use Small-C. Jim Hendrix does not supply one with the package. Output of the compiler is assembly language source.

Small-C is not unique in offering the entire compiler source as part of the compiler package. It was just the first. If you need to fill a special niche in your tool chest, then Small-C may fit the bill.

### Software Toolworks' C/80

Software Toolworks' C/80 is a late entry into the CP/M group of compilers. Fitting between J.E. Hendrix's Small-C and The Code Works' Q/C, it is the least expensive of the C implementations offering a floating point package. The compiler comes with a configuration program and an assembler. The total package with Math-Pack and the compiler costs about \$90. For the price it seems to be a reasonable implementation of C. However, it is not as close to K&R C as the advertising would like you to believe.

This compiler does sport some rather impressive benchmarks, taking just 26 sec to run the Sieve test. It then promptly turned around and exploded on Deref. We don't know what happened. It got lost and filled the screen with garbage when

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attempting the pointer dereferencing. It is hoped this problem will be fixed.

The source code for the libraries is included in the package with the source for the floating point package. Software Toolworks has included at least some rudimentary verification tools with the package. It's a start at least.

We have a problem with the manual, however. The 60 pages includes a 10-page blurb on the MathPack. It covers the topic, but is reminiscent of the original CP/M user's guides that told you everything you needed to know about CP/M, if only you knew where to look. K&R C and C/80 are going to have several points of difference, so if your goal is portability, this is not the tool for you.

Although this compiler does not live up to its advertised claim of being a full C implementation, it does have a place if for no other reason than to create blazingly fast utilities. Writing a large program (over 10,000 lines) with this compiler could be a trick. The main effort at least initially would be to verify which constructs worked and which were going to go out to lunch.

### The Code Works' Q/C

The second compiler we examined for CP/M was the Q/C compiler from The Code Works. This is the only other compiler we know of that sells the compiler package with source. (At least in the affordable category.)

This compiler is a very good step up from Small-C for the hobbyist. In particular, it has a respectably rich subset of the C language. It differs in that it does not support *long*, *float*, or *double* declarations, which again means that Matrix cannot be executed for this compiler. Lack of support for extended-precision numbers does not greatly reduce the value of this compiler to the experimenter. The compiler sources are included.

Q/C, like the other less expensive compilers, does not implement parameterized *#defines*. The Q/C compiler also does not support the initialization of *local*, *auto*, or *register* variables. Because Q/C is implemented as a single-pass recursive descent compiler, local variable declarations are only supported immediately after a function header; local variables within blocks and bit fields are not supported.

The preceding list is not particularly extensive for a compiler in the \$100 range, particularly one distributed in source form. Educators needing a good tool with its own programming course should look long and hard at this product.

We particularly like two features available with this compiler. The first is that the compiler is available to create code for one of two processors: 8080 or Z80. The Z80 version generates only M80 (or CWA—the optional Code Works assembler) mnemonics because of optimizations for the Z80 processor. The 8080 version



oes not support Zilog mnemonics.

The second feature we liked is *trace*. When turned on, the compiler generates code that displays the name of each function when it is executed. This sounds handy for tracing down hard to find or invisible problems. The trace feature also causes the compiler to search for *trace* flags placed within comments and to generate the code necessary to output the text within the trace flag text area.

The manual is excellent. It starts off with an introduction by the author. The first chapter shows a sample compilation using each of the recommended assemblers. It also covers the QRESET program, which is used to change certain parameters within the compiler (size of the symbol table, macro storage, default options, etc.). This is a reasonable way of dealing with the limitations of a small machine. The sources for QRESET are part of the source library.

This manual, however, does have one failing: it has no index. Most of the material is well-organized, but certain things are hard to find, such as information on EXPAND.COM. This is not serious because of the manual's good general organization, just a nuisance.

The Q/C compiler, by Jim Colvin, has a lot to recommend it. Sources are included as part of the package. This means that self-maintenance is possible for the hobbyist, and the resource material made available to the instructor makes it a must acquisition. The price tag of close to \$100 is not totally intimidating.

Some of the compiler's features (e.g., *trace*) are unusually good ideas. We would like to have this feature on some of the VAX cross compilers we use at work. In particular, the ability to embed *trace* flags and debug text for output in comments is one of those things that make you hit yourself and say "Why didn't I think of that?" Other features, such as the ability to compile code for multiple assemblers, indicate the author has run into the new compiler syndrome: being able to do the compilation but not having the assembler to finish the job. Very frustrating.

Q/C is a small machine compiler. It does what it is meant to do and it does it well. The compiler is shipped set to compile code modules with 200 symbols in its symbol table. This can be changed. Still, it indicates an inherent limitation of the system. The limit is on the total number of symbols per compilation rather than per level of scope, which means you may need to keep your modules small in order to use this compiler effectively. We can't help but wonder what the maximum limits on these settings would be.

### BD Software's BDS C

BD Software's BDS C has been used to write software for the CP/M operating

system for about four years. In that time it has become one of the most used and respected C compilers within the CP/M community. The compiler is written in 8080 assembly language and directly produces 8080 code. This is not always a desirable feature, but in this case, because it is a blindingly fast compiler, it is forgivable. It is so fast that it can approach the convenience of an interpreter for small code fragments. BDS C accomplishes this speed by loading the entire source file from disk into memory and compiling in place.

BDS C is the only CP/M C compiler we have reviewed that has seriously exam-

ined the program verification and debugging issue and has provided tools to aid in this endeavor. This is accomplished using two methods. BDS recognizes that the CP/M environment has very effective verification tools already available. These tools are utilized by producing as an output from the compiler a standard format symbol file. This allows the the C programmer convenient access to assorted symbolic debuggers supplied by other vendors.

The compiler may also be instructed to output 8080 restart (RST) instructions at

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the beginning of each C statement. This allows CDB, BDS's symbolic C debugger, to directly control execution of the target program by setting breakpoints and allowing symbolic display and modification of variables. This is definitely a step toward reducing the drudgery of program verification.

The ability of BDS to quickly compile and integrate the resulting code into a very good symbolic debugger has gone a long way toward making BDS C one of the preferred tools in the CP/M programmer's toolchest.

The release we reviewed (version 1.50a) still suffers from a lack of real number implementation. It does, however, support a floating point function library, which is not integrated at all into the compiler. Thus, *float*, *double*, and *long* data types are not directly supported. Functions similar to the intrinsic *long* and *float* operations are available from the library using byte arrays.

The C Users Group (formerly the BDS C Users Group) is one of the more active software-producing users groups in the country. The *float* and *longint* package as well as the CDB symbolic debugger resulted from efforts by members of this group.

Library sources have been included to allow customization by users for non-CP/M environments. Along with these are a large number of source files. The CDB symbolic debugger is included in source form. There is a library for directed I/O, a utility for command line wild card expansion, an assembler to assemble to BDS C's own .CRL-format relocating libraries and the *float* and *longint* libraries mentioned previously. Othello (a game!), several file utilities, and finally Teledit, a large telecommunications program, are also included.

BDS C is one of the best values for an all-around useful tool. For \$150 you have the fastest CP/M compiler on the market. If you thought that program turnaround was not important, then you have never had to do serious debugging. Given the difficulty of system development efforts, we want all the help we can get in building and verifying software. We wish more compilers used the intelligence and acute sense of reality that BDS C has placed in their debugging tools. Many of the mainframe-based cross development compilers have some form of hook into the compiled code, which allows a debugging system to be integrated into the software.

Because of the in-memory compilation, BDS C is best used for module development. The size of the source code body that can be compiled is limited to 48K or so in a 64K CP/M environment. In certain cases this may impose restrictions on the size and number of functions available in any one compilation.

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Matmult	42	115	N/A

\*Times courtesy of Dr. David Clark  
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We've also expanded the library (120 functions), the user's manual and compile-time switches (including multiple non-fatal error messages). The price is still \$250.00 and includes Microsoft's MACRO 80. As an option, we will supply Eco-C with the SLR Systems assembler - linker - librarian for \$295.00 (up to six times faster than MACRO 80).

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The greatest failing of the BDS C compiler has been the .CRL libraries' non-standard format. Some sort of conversion capability that would convert between .REL format and .CRL format libraries would be an excellent addition to the system. The new CASM assembler is a good addition to the package. It just fails in many ways to link with the large body of excellent development tools available under CP/M.

### Alcor C

Alcor Systems' Alcor C is one of the two CP/M implementations of C in this article that could be termed a *full* implementation. It has the most comprehensive manual of all of the implementations that we have reviewed. It is divided into six sections: beginners, editor, system, tutorial, reference, and Advanced Development Package (ADP). It contains about 470 pages of information about the use of the compiler and editor. It is well laid out with a table of contents and index for each section.

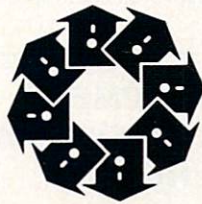
The package is divided into three main systems and the editor. The first system is the compiler and the p-code interpreter. The second system is the ADP. It contains the p-code-to-native machine conversion, the p-code optimizer, and the LinkLoader, which allows both native machine code and optimized p-code functions to be used in the same program.

The LinkLoader allows you the ability to profile the program and convert those portions requiring high efficiency to native machine code while still retaining the size efficiencies of p-code for the majority of the program. The ADP package is offered as an option to the base compiler, but for the serious development effort it is a must. The third section is Alcor's XASM multi-assembler. The assembler is not an essential portion of the system, but the documentation on the assembler contains a complete description of Alcor's low-level p-code. This is essential for doing large-scale development in this type of environment.

If your development effort is concerned with porting software, this compiler is one of the two CP/M C compilers reviewed that can do the job. Alcor C is very close to being full K&R C. Most of the differences from K&R are extensions on the base language. Alcor C has only two restrictions: the address of an array element may not be used as an initializer and external float and double variables may not be initialized.

It becomes apparent very quickly that p-code implementations have many advantages. One of them is the completeness of the implementation. The Alcor C language implementation is one

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which we would not hesitate to use in a large programming effort. The professionalism presented is very apparent.

One of the elements that seems to be missing, however, is effective support for program verification. Since the compiler produces p-code that is interpreted at one level in the development, one would believe that a very good symbolic debugger could be produced. In particular, other languages are available from Alcor running the same p-codes, which would make the development of an interactive debugging tool to go with its language packages quite attractive.

The p-code implementation also allows for a large system development on a small machine. This may seem to be contradictory at first, but consider that the p-

code, instruction for instruction, is much more dense than native machine code. So that once the program size has made up for the interpreter overhead, the p-code begins to be much more compact than the native code implementation.

However, for small programs and utilities, p-code loses big. Even with p-code conversion to native code, the native code compilers will win out. Interpreted languages—whether text-based or p-code-based—all have one failing: they bring one more level of complexity and potential for error into the picture.

The p-code interpreter within the Alcor package is murderously slow. The Sieve benchmark took 3.3 min to run. We aborted Fib after 5 min. This seems to be about 10 times slower than most of the native code implementations. Even with a 3-4 times improvement in speed of gener-

ated native code, it is running 2-3 times slower than the competition.

### Ecosoft's ECO-C

Ecosoft proudly states that the only incompatibilities that its Eco-C has with the full C syntax are lack of bit fields and the *#line* macro directive. The Eco-C package provides everything that is required to compile and run programs. In particular, it provides one of the best assemblers we have stumbled across, the SLR assembler by SLR Systems. The inclusion of tools of this quality does not dim the quality of Ecosoft's C implementation but complements it, creating a very good program development tool.

Eco-C is a very clean implementation of the C language. Portability of C programs from other systems is very good. The SLR assembler selected as a companion tool to the compiler is a breath of fresh air to the assembly language programmer.

The manual for Eco-C is 115 pages long in an off-size format binder. For the large-scale project, you should see if you can order several manuals at extra cost. It is very concise and professionally done, concentrating on the essentials of operating the compiler, creating libraries, the assembler interface, and Ecosoft's version of the standard library interface. The compiler does not include any sources for the STDIO but does state that Ecosoft will make them available for a simple copying charge and release statement.

Included in the same binder is the manual for the SLR assembler. Approximately the same length as the compiler manual, it quickly illustrates the use of the assembler, linker, and librarian included in the package. Just as an example, the assembler can be configured from the command line to output either a .COM file, a .HEX file or one of two separate .REL file formats. We have not even discussed how much faster it executes than M80. Too bad we are not reviewing assemblers!

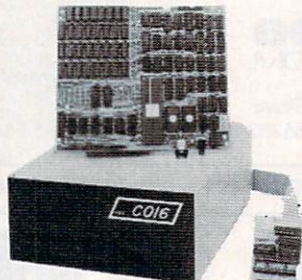
At \$250, the Eco-C package is out of the range of most individual programmers. Even so, with the inclusion of the SLR assembler for \$45 extra, it is a good investment. The compiler and assembler are good for a large range of software development, from the small utility development effort to massive multi-programmer efforts. This is the only package we reviewed that we would be willing to call a professional tool. The compiler options, although not simple, were well-documented. The benchmarks were not the fastest but were in the ballpark, making this a fine tool for all-around use.

The compiler is such a nice tool that it is too bad program verification interfaces consist entirely of using the .SYM output file at the assembly language level. There should be some way of hooking a symbolic debugger to the final program,

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either as a compiler option to output restart instructions or hooks to allow for post processing the assembler output (i.e., output line numbers and line boundary markers as a compiler option).

## OS-9 C COMPILERS

### Microware C

Microware offers one of the few C compilers for the OS-9 operating system and the 6809 processor. That's not too much of a surprise because OS-9 is a Microware operating system. In case you haven't run into OS-9 before, it is a multi-user and multitasking operating system for the Motorola MC6809 8/16-bit microprocessor. OS-9 is blessed with UNIX-like tree directories and can support over 1MB of system memory with memory management. It is therefore a very comfortable environment for the C language.

Though it is very close to a full C implementation, Microware C differs somewhat from K&R C. Bit fields are not supported. Constant expressions for initializers may include arithmetic operators only if the operands in the expression are of type *int* or *char*. The *#if <constant expression>* is not supported although *#ifdef*, *#ifndef*, *#else* and *#endif* are. Macro definitions and strings must reside on a single line of source code. Finally, the *\n* escape sequence is output as a carriage return, which is not interpreted as an "end of line" character in most systems but is exactly what OS-9 requires.

On the positive side, Microware has added some interesting enhancements. A new storage class, *Direct*, has been added to take advantage of the 6809's direct page register. Though use of this feature will make a program non-portable, it can be used when program execution speed has the highest priority.

In addition, Microware's C supports inline assembly code with the *#asm* and *#endasm* preprocessor commands. It is possible to output a linefeed using the *\l* line feed escape sequence extension.

The Microware level II compiler comprises six separate programs. An execution manager, called CC2, is supplied as one of these programs. CC2 invokes the other five programs, simplifying the programmer's interface. The compilation sequence involves the preprocessor, compiler, optimizer, assembler, and linker. Also included in the package is an extensive library of header files that facilitate operating system calls, a Microware BASIC09 interface, and several other useful functions.

### Introl C

Introl offers the other C compiler for the OS-9 operating system reviewed in this article. It is available for the Flex and Uniflex operating systems as well. Introl C is almost a full K&R implementation,

lacking bit fields, *double float* variables and the *#line* and *#if* preprocessor directives.

Introl's compiler has some enhancements. Comment nesting is permitted, allowing the programmer to comment out a section of code by bracketing the code segment. Separate name spaces for each union and structure are supported so that identical names can be used in different *struct* and *union* declarations. Symbols can be up to 90 characters in length.

For \$425 Introl supplies the compiler, a relocating assembler, linker, a library and a librarian. This comprises a nearly complete OS-9 language development system, lacking only an editor. For the hardware developer, a library of modules is available for generating stand-alone, ROMable code. Introl's documentation is superb.

One amenity Introl C lacks, however, is

a module to invoke the various compiler phases automatically. With preprocessor, parse, code generation, optimizer, assembler and link phases all required to generate an executable file, such a utility would be most welcome. Introl's C compiled more slowly than Microware's compiler and generated larger executable files. However, this is offset by the faster execution times of Introl C's compiled programs.

## CP/M 86 C COMPILERS

The last MS-DOS C compiler we reviewed is from Digital Research, which submitted both versions for review. It is similar to the CP/M 86 version, so we discuss both in this section.

CP/M 86 has not done well in the IBM

# Realia COBOL. Numbers speak louder than words.

## Compilation Speed (minutes:seconds)

Lines in Program	Realia COBOL	mbp COBOL	Level II COBOL	R-M COBOL	Microsoft COBOL
1,000	:51	8:33	3:42	5:05	5:11
5,000	3:30	48:07	16:58	*	45:26

\*Could not successfully compile the program.

## Execution Time Ratio (Gibson Mix; calculated S-Profile)

Realia COBOL	mbp COBOL	Level II COBOL	R-M COBOL	Microsoft COBOL
1.0	3.6	14.7	21.6	22.3

All benchmark tests were performed on an IBM PC-XT with 192KB of memory. IBM PC-XT is a registered trademark of International Business Machines Corporation; mbp COBOL, of mbp Software and System Technology; Level II COBOL, of Micro Focus; R-M COBOL, of Ryan-McFarland; and Microsoft COBOL, of Microsoft.

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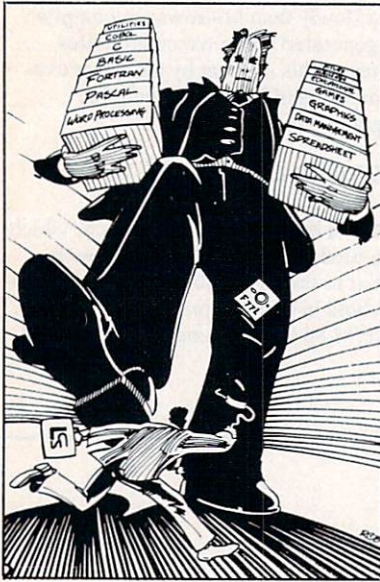
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PC segment of the 16-bit market but has fared better with the other computers using the 8086 processor. Since CP/M 86 is a Digital Research operating system, it is of no surprise that the one CP/M 86 C compiler tested is also from Digital Research, though many of the MS-DOS C compilers are also available in CP/M 86 versions.

### Digital Research C

We had a bit of trouble coaxing the CP/M 86 version of Digital Research C to run on our IBM PC. This was probably not the compiler's fault. We had an old copy of CP/M 86 (version 1.0), and the compiler simply returned to the operating system before completing the compilation. Version 1.1 of CP/M 86 cleared this up, and we were off and running.

Digital Research C supports the small and big 8088 memory models. Memory model selection as well as 8087 support are specified at compile time by command line options.

One very nice feature of the Digital Research C compiler documentation is the inclusion of a copy of K&R with the manual. Digital Research made it quite clear how to configure a working disk with compiler, linker, and library. We had no problem creating one.

Source code was another story. Our benchmarks had all been written using a text editor under MS-DOS, and we had no editor for CP/M 86. Copies of CP/M 86 compatible editors are few and far between in our area, and we turned a bit green when we considered using the CP/M 86 editor ED to create the files. Fortunately we have a very handy utility program called Xenocopy Plus from Vertex Systems, which promptly transferred the four benchmark source files to a CP/M 86 disk.

Sieve compiled and ran with no problem. Fib required that we add `#include <portab.h>` so that the `void` typing would be recognized. Deref and Matrix also compiled and ran fine.

An interesting aspect of the compilation is that the compiler places information in the object file so that the linker knows which libraries to use. No library parameters are in the link syntax. The compiler was not smart enough to place the object file on the same disk as the source file. It required we specify we wanted this by using the `-z` compiler option. However, the linker knew that we wanted the executable file on the same disk as the object file. Consistency once again is desirable but lacking.

Digital Research also submitted for review the MS-DOS version of its C compiler. Its benchmark performance is included in both the MS-DOS and CP/M 86 benchmark tables for comparisons. Two very interesting conclusions are that

Digital Research's compiler generates very fast code, consistently showing one of the best execution times in the MS-DOS category.

The other point of note is that the MS-DOS version of the compiler generates programs more quickly than the CP/M 86 version. Though not shown in the tables, we checked the times required to compile and link separately. The MS-DOS versions of both the compiler and linker are faster than their CP/M 86 counterparts. We suspect that this is actually better performance on the part of MS-DOS during floppy accesses.

### TRS-80 C COMPILERS

Three C compilers are available for the TRS-80 Z80 computers: LC, Alcor C, and Aztec C. Because other machine versions of the Alcor and Aztec C compilers have already been covered, we will focus here on MiSosys's LC compiler.

LC is based on Small-C and, like Small-C, is not a full implementation of the language. However, LC provides more of C's features than does Small-C. The `switch` and `goto` statements are included, greatly simplifying command parsers and similar routines. The omissions (floating point capability, `long` integers, `unions`, and `structs`) are significant only if you try to use it as a number cruncher.

LC first appeared on the scene in December 1982 and has undergone only two significant changes since then. The first was a general bug-fix shortly after the package was released, which brought the version number to 1.1; the second actually did not affect the compiler but rather greatly extended the supplied libraries. This, the current version, is 1.2. This review was done using version 1.1.

When you buy LC (for \$150), you get two disks (and a large 3-ring binder filled with an excellent user manual). One disk contains the LC compiler itself together with the libraries, an `/ASM` skeleton, and a `/JCL` file. The other contains EDAS, a full-featured macro assembler (which can also be purchased separately). The LC strategy is to compile the C source code into an assembly-language file, which is then assembled by EDAS. EDAS produces executable code as its output; no linking step is required.

On TRS-80 model 1 or 3, LC programs require the LDOS operating system. No other DOS provides the capability for I/O redirection. On model 4, LC programs will run under all versions of TRSDOS 6. Incidentally, by using the appropriate `/ASM` skeleton and libraries, LC programs can be cross compiled between models 1, 3, and 4. Any model 1/3 LC program will run on either model interface changeably; model 4 programs interface to the hardware differently but can be compiled by the model 3 compiler.

The assembly-language output from LC



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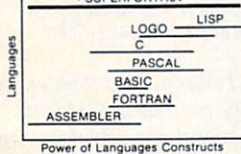
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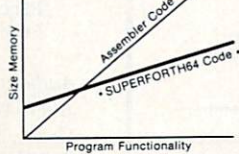
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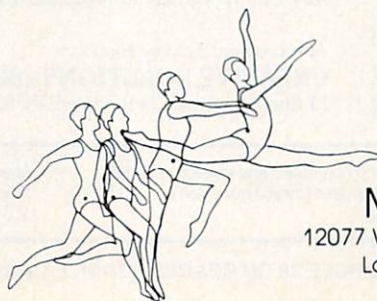
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can be modified or optimized as desired. No optimizer is included with the package.

Data types handled by LC include *char*, *int*, *unsigned int*, and pointers to any of these. Arrays are permitted but are limited to only one dimension. Pointer arithmetic is in exact accord with K&R as are most of the library functions. The lack of floating point capability is addressed by a special library that provides interfaces to the floating point code in the TRS-80's ROM. This makes number crunching pos-

sible, but such programs are not portable.

Since LC is a subset, only the Sieve and integer-sort benchmarks are applicable to it. Table 5 (page 102) presents the results (measurements were made on an early-production model 4 operating in model 3 mode at a clock speed of 2.2 MHz).

The absence of *structs* looks to us to be only a minor inconvenience (the other omissions have posed no problems in my applications). Programs created with it include a virtual-memory full-screen editor, a communications program including multiple file-transfer protocols, and many

small utilities. One of the best features of LC is the ease with which its libraries may be modified; possibly the poorest parts of it are the lack of optimization, the failure to perform constant expression evaluation at compile time, and the absence of parameterized *#define* commands.

#### Whitesmiths footnote

Unfortunately, we were not able to obtain for review a current version of the Whitesmiths C compiler. By the time you read this review, Whitesmiths should be shipping version 3.0, which claims to improve some of the problems we encountered when we analyzed an older version (version 2.2) of the compiler.

If you're considering the purchase of this older version of the Whitesmith's compiler, you should be aware of the following concerns: installation is potentially difficult because files are automatically erased during a relatively long link session. You'll need a hard disk to run the supplied DOS 2.0 batch files. Also, the two manuals supplied do not cover certain MS-DOS implementation issues very well (e.g., no installation procedure for floppy-based systems running DOS 2.0 or 3.0), and the benchmarks used in this review had to be modified for them to compile correctly, due to the lack of automatic initializers. However, if you do cross development work with minicomputers and MS-DOS equipment, this version of Whitesmiths may be the right choice.

#### That's it!

A package is available for just about any requirement. Most of the packages are good, solid products. We have tried to point out the few that seemed less than adequate. Since everyone has different needs, it is difficult to make a hard recommendation.

The C programming language continues to evolve. Originating as a minicomputer systems programming language, it is now beginning to appear as a serious contender in the microcomputer arena. Is C a reality on microcomputers? The answer to that question is undoubtedly "Yes!"

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1. Clark, David D. "Two More Versions of C for CP/M." *BYTE* (May 1984): 246.
2. Pournelle, Jerry. "A BASIC and Pascal Benchmark, Elegance, Apologies and FORTH." *BYTE* (Oct. 1982): 254.

*Authors Steve Leibson, Fred Pfahler, and Jim Reed can be reached at Cadnetix Corp., 5757 Central Ave., Boulder, Colo. 80301.*

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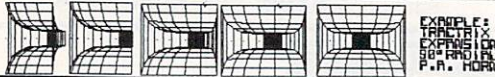
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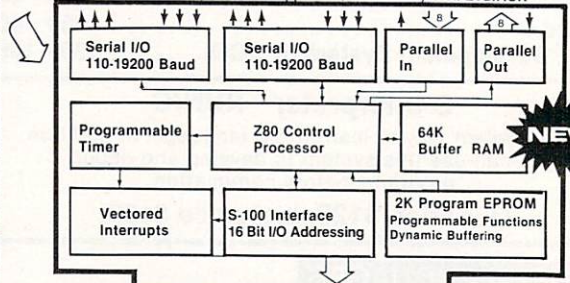
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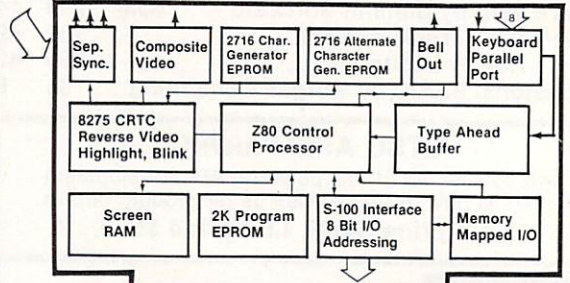
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# Basic data types

	Manufacturer	Char	Unsigned char	Int	Unsigned int	Short	Unsigned short	Long	Unsigned long	Float	Double	Pointer	Enumerated	Void	Struct	Union	Array	Bit field	Strings
Lattice	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Microsoft (2.03)	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Microsoft (3.0)	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Mark Williams	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Rational Systems	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes
Wizard Systems	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Computer Innovations	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes
Supersoft	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	no	no	no	yes	?	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes	
Manx Software Systems	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes
C-Systems	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
C Ware	yes	no	yes	yes	no	no	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes
Datalight	yes	no	yes	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	yes	no	no	no	no	*	no	no	yes
Ecosoft	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Alcor	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
BDS	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	**	**	**	**	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Code Works	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes
Software Toolworks	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Hendrix	yes	no	yes	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no
Microware	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes
Introl	yes	(default unsigned)	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes
Digital Research	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	?	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes

\*One dimensional. \*\*Is a library function.

Table 3.



## Library functions

	Manufacturer	I/O	File management	String	Memory management	Arithmetic	Sort	Program control	Date/time	OS calls	Trigonometric/transcendental	Library source included	
MS-DOS/PC-DOS compilers	Lattice	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	no	
	Microsoft 2.0	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	
	Microsoft 3.0	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	
	Mark Williams	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	no	
	Rational Systems	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes	no	no	
	Wizard Systems	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	
	Computer Innovations	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	
	Supersoft	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	
	Manx Software Systems	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	no	
	C-Systems	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no
	C Ware	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no
	Datalight	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	no	no	no	yes
CP/M compilers	Ecosoft	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	\$10	
	Alcor	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	
	BDS	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes	external	yes	
	Code Works	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	
	Software Toolworks	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	
	Hendrix	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	
OS-9	Microware	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	
	Introl	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	?	no	no	
CP/M 86	Digital Research	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	no	

Table 4.

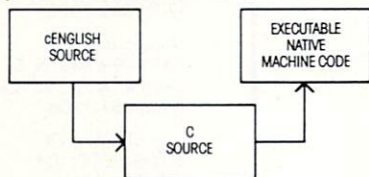


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## The C Generation Language.

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**How is portability achieved?** cENGLISH through its compiler interface translates cENGLISH into documented C source and uses a host C compiler to produce native machine code.



C source can be embedded in cENGLISH source.

Differences in the operating system and data base manager are handled by the runtime libraries.

The result is that cENGLISH source can be compiled without modification on any micro or mini configuration supporting cENGLISH.

**What about performance?** cENGLISH executes FAST, just like any compiled C program.

**How easy is cENGLISH to use?** While cENGLISH is a powerful high level language that can accommodate complex software development, it remains simple and straightforward to use.

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Standard O/S compilers: Lattice C<sup>™</sup> for MS/DOS<sup>™</sup>

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### SAMPLE cENGLISH PROGRAM

```
IDENTIFICATIONS
MODULE: Mininame
AUTHOR: bcs
DATE: 8/29/84
REMARKS: Sample cENGLISH program that adds first
names to a file
END IDENTIFICATIONS
```

```
GLOBALS
FIXED LENGTH 1 ans
FIXED LENGTH 15 Fname
END GLOBALS
```

#### MAIN PROGRAM

```
BEGIN
CLEAR SCREEN
SET ECHO OFF

USE "NAMES"
VIEW BY "ID..FNAME" ASCENDING

AT 23,1 SAY "Add a record? Y or N"
AT 23,25 ENTER ans USING "!"

WHILE ans EQ "Y"
CLEAR GETS
AT 6,1 SAY "Enter first name"
AT 6,20 GET Fname
READ SCREEN

INSERT
Fname = Fname
END INSERT

AT 12,10 SAY "Welcome to cENGLISH," & Fname
WAIT
AT 14,10 SAY "HIT ANY KEY TO CONTINUE"
STORE " " TO Fname
STORE " " TO ans
AT 23,1 SAY "Add another record? Y or N"
AT 23,30 ENTER ans USING "!"
CLEAR ROW 1 THRU 23

END WHILE

AT 12,10 SAY "That's all for now!"
UNUSE "NAMES"
SET ECHO ON

END PROGRAM
```



I'd like to know more about cENGLISH.  
Please send further information.

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CIRCLE 26 ON READER SERVICE CARD



## TRS-80 benchmark comparisons

	Sieve	Mysort
Source code size (bytes)	390	296
Assembly code size (bytes)	2,768	2,750
Executable code size (bytes)	3,129	3,139
Compile time (min:sec)	00:28	00:28
Assembly time (min:sec) <sup>1</sup>	02:53	02:59
Execution time (min:sec) <sup>2</sup>	01:52	00:32

1. EDAS is disk bound when compiling LC-generated code; these times reflect performance of a two-pass assembler taking all input from floppy disk files.
2. Times include total program load and run time. Actual sorting time on mysort was about 9 sec; remaining time includes array initialization and results reporting.

Table 5.

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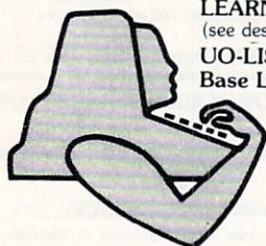
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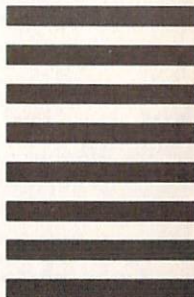
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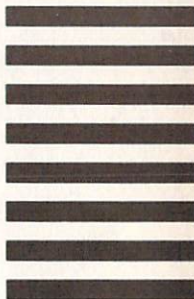
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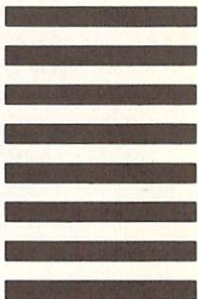
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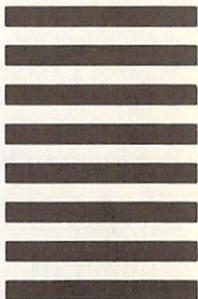
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# "Despite the recent press notices, multiuser microcomputers aren't anything new!"

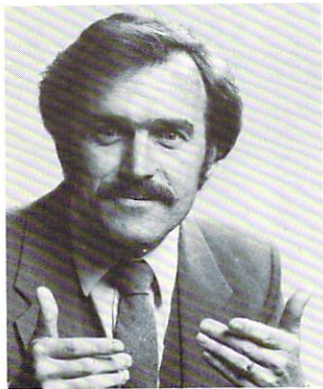
**This is the first in a series of discussions with Rod Coleman, President of Stride Micro (formerly Sage Computer) on the 68000 multiuser market and its current environment.**

**Q:** Why do you say that?

**RC:** "The technology to build a high performance multiuser system has been around for five years. And while some of the leaders in this industry have been pretending that micro multiuser didn't exist, we've been shipping complete systems for nearly three years. The benefits of multiuser are undeniable; it is more cost effective, and offers greater flexibility and utility. But until just recently, the marketing pressure to be compatible instead of being better, has blinded the industry."

**Q:** What do you mean?

**RC:** "Well, for example, the Motorola 68000 processor introduced 16/32-bit technology to the personal computer world a long time ago. It was fully capable of



**"A surprising feature is compatibility. Everybody talks about it, but nobody does anything about it."**

meeting high performance and multiuser design requirements in 1980. Instead of this trend taking off, most energy was spent promoting 8088/8086 products that

were clearly inferior from a technical point of view. This phenomenon leads me to believe that they will soon rewrite the old proverb: 'Build a better mousetrap and the world will beat a path to your door,' but only if they can find the way through the marketing fog."

**Q:** Are things changing now?

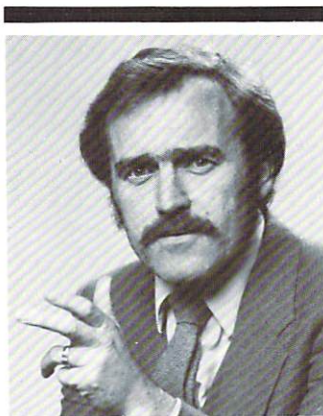
**RC:** "Yes and no. With the business world starting to take more and more interest in microcomputer solutions, the advantages of a solid multiuser system couldn't be kept hidden forever; companies like ours and a few others were beginning to make a dent. Instead of taking a fresh approach, some of the newest multiuser offerings will probably only give the technology an undeserved black eye! Multiuser is far more than the ability to plug in more terminals. It involves things like machine compatibility, fast processors, adequate memory, large storage capacities, backup features, networking, and operating system flexibility."

**Q:** Is this what makes the new Stride 400 Series different?

**RC:** "Exactly. That sounds self-serving, but it's true. Today a number of companies are introducing their first multiuser system. We've been building and shipping multiuser machines for almost three years. We know the pitfalls, we've fallen into some of them. But we have learned from our mistakes."

**Q:** Give me some examples.

**RC:** A hard disk is almost mandatory for any large multiuser installation. Yet, backing up a hard disk can be a nightmare if you only have floppies to work with. That's why we've added a tape backup option to all the larger Stride 400 Series machines. It's irresponsible for a manufacturer to market a multiuser system without such backup. Another good lesson was bus design. We started with one of our own designs, but learned that it's important not only to find a bus that is powerful, but also one that has good support and a strong future to serve tomorrow's needs. We



**"The marketing pressure to be compatible instead of being better, has blinded the industry."**

think the VMEbus is the only design that meets both criteria and thus have made it a standard feature of every Stride 400 Series machine."

**Q:** What are some of the other unique features of the 400 Series?

**RC:** "A surprising feature is compatibility. Everybody talks about it, but nobody does anything about it. Our systems are completely compatible with each other from the 420 model starting at \$2900, through the 440, on to the powerful 460 which tops out near \$60,000. Each system can talk to the others via the standard built-in local area network. Go ahead and compare this with others in the industry. You'll find their little machines don't talk to their big ones, or that the networking and multiuser are incompatible, or that they have different processors or operating systems, and so on."

**Q:** When you were still known as Sage Computer, you had a reputation for performance, is that still the case with the new Stride 400 Series?

**RC:** "Certainly, that's our calling card: 'Performance By Design.' Our new systems are actually faster; our standard processor is a 10 MHz 68000 running with no wait

states. That gives us a 25% increase over the Sage models. And, we have a 12 MHz processor as an option. Let me add that speed isn't the only way to judge performance. I think it is also measured in our flexibility. We support a dozen different operating systems, not just one. And our systems service a wide variety of applications from the garage software developer to the corporate consumer running high volume business applications."

**Q:** Isn't that the same thing all manufacturers say in their ads?

**RC:** "Sure it is. But to use another over used-term, 'shop around'. We like to think of our systems as 'full service 68000 supermicrocomputers.' Take a look at everyone else's literature and then compare. When you examine cost, performance, flexibility, and utility, we don't think there's anyone else in the race. Maybe that's why we've shipped and installed more multiuser 68000 systems than anyone else."



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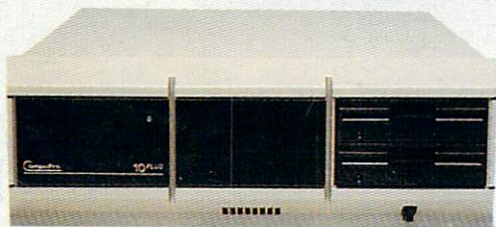
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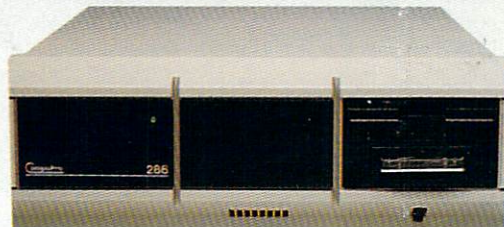


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