

GNU libiberty

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# 1 Using

To date, `libiberty` is generally not installed on its own. It has evolved over years but does not have its own version number nor release schedule.

Possibly the easiest way to use `libiberty` in your projects is to drop the `libiberty` code into your project's sources, and to build the library along with your own sources; the library would then be linked in at the end. This prevents any possible version mismatches with other copies of `libiberty` elsewhere on the system.

Passing `--enable-install-libiberty` to the `configure` script when building `libiberty` causes the header files and archive library to be installed when `make install` is run. This option also takes an (optional) argument to specify the installation location, in the same manner as `--prefix`.

For your own projects, an approach which offers stability and flexibility is to include `libiberty` with your code, but allow the end user to optionally choose to use a previously-installed version instead. In this way the user may choose (for example) to install `libiberty` as part of GCC, and use that version for all software built with that compiler. (This approach has proven useful with software using the GNU `readline` library.)

Making use of `libiberty` code usually requires that you include one or more header files from the `libiberty` distribution. (They will be named as necessary in the function descriptions.) At link time, you will need to add `-liberty` to your link command invocation.

## 2 Overview

Functions contained in `libiberty` can be divided into three general categories.

### 2.1 Supplemental Functions

Certain operating systems do not provide functions which have since become standardized, or at least common. For example, the Single Unix Specification Version 2 requires that the `basename` function be provided, but an OS which predates that specification might not have this function. This should not prevent well-written code from running on such a system.

Similarly, some functions exist only among a particular “flavor” or “family” of operating systems. As an example, the `bzero` function is often not present on systems outside the BSD-derived family of systems.

Many such functions are provided in `libiberty`. They are quickly listed here with little description, as systems which lack them become less and less common. Each function *foo* is implemented in *foo.c* but not declared in any `libiberty` header file; more comments and caveats for each function’s implementation are often available in the source file. Generally, the function can simply be declared as `extern`.

### 2.2 Replacement Functions

Some functions have extremely limited implementations on different platforms. Other functions are tedious to use correctly; for example, proper use of `malloc` calls for the return value to be checked and appropriate action taken if memory has been exhausted. A group of “replacement functions” is available in `libiberty` to address these issues for some of the most commonly used subroutines.

All of these functions are declared in the `libiberty.h` header file. Many of the implementations will use preprocessor macros set by GNU Autoconf, if you decide to make use of that program. Some of these functions may call one another.

#### 2.2.1 Memory Allocation

The functions beginning with the letter ‘x’ are wrappers around standard functions; the functions provided by the system environment are called and their results checked before the results are passed back to client code. If the standard functions fail, these wrappers will terminate the program. Thus, these versions can be used with impunity.

#### 2.2.2 Exit Handlers

The existence and implementation of the `atexit` routine varies amongst the flavors of Unix. `libiberty` provides an unvarying dependable implementation via `xatexit` and `xexit`.

#### 2.2.3 Error Reporting

These are a set of routines to facilitate programming with the system `errno` interface. The `libiberty` source file `strerror.c` contains a good deal of documentation for these functions.

## 2.3 Extensions

`libiberty` includes additional functionality above and beyond standard functions, which has proven generically useful in GNU programs, such as `obstacks` and `regex`. These functions are often copied from other projects as they gain popularity, and are included here to provide a central location from which to use, maintain, and distribute them.

### 2.3.1 Obstacks

An *obstack* is a pool of memory containing a stack of objects. You can create any number of separate obstacks, and then allocate objects in specified obstacks. Within each obstack, the last object allocated must always be the first one freed, but distinct obstacks are independent of each other.

Aside from this one constraint of order of freeing, obstacks are totally general: an obstack can contain any number of objects of any size. They are implemented with macros, so allocation is usually very fast as long as the objects are usually small. And the only space overhead per object is the padding needed to start each object on a suitable boundary.

#### 2.3.1.1 Creating Obstacks

The utilities for manipulating obstacks are declared in the header file `obstack.h`.

**struct obstack** [Data Type]

An obstack is represented by a data structure of type `struct obstack`. This structure has a small fixed size; it records the status of the obstack and how to find the space in which objects are allocated. It does not contain any of the objects themselves. You should not try to access the contents of the structure directly; use only the macros described in this chapter.

You can declare variables of type `struct obstack` and use them as obstacks, or you can allocate obstacks dynamically like any other kind of object. Dynamic allocation of obstacks allows your program to have a variable number of different stacks. (You can even allocate an obstack structure in another obstack, but this is rarely useful.)

All the macros that work with obstacks require you to specify which obstack to use. You do this with a pointer of type `struct obstack *`. In the following, we often say “an obstack” when strictly speaking the object at hand is such a pointer.

The objects in the obstack are packed into large blocks called *chunks*. The `struct obstack` structure points to a chain of the chunks currently in use.

The obstack library obtains a new chunk whenever you allocate an object that won't fit in the previous chunk. Since the obstack library manages chunks automatically, you don't need to pay much attention to them, but you do need to supply a function which the obstack library should use to get a chunk. Usually you supply a function which uses `malloc` directly or indirectly. You must also supply a function to free a chunk. These matters are described in the following section.

#### 2.3.1.2 Preparing for Using Obstacks

Each source file in which you plan to use obstacks must include the header file `obstack.h`, like this:

```
#include <obstack.h>
```

Also, if the source file uses the macro `obstack_init`, it must declare or define two macros that will be called by the obstack library. One, `obstack_chunk_alloc`, is used to allocate the chunks of memory into which objects are packed. The other, `obstack_chunk_free`, is used to return chunks when the objects in them are freed. These macros should appear before any use of obstacks in the source file.

Usually these are defined to use `malloc` via the intermediary `xmalloc` (see Section “Unconstrained Allocation” in *The GNU C Library Reference Manual*). This is done with the following pair of macro definitions:

```
#define obstack_chunk_alloc xmalloc
#define obstack_chunk_free free
```

Though the memory you get using obstacks really comes from `malloc`, using obstacks is faster because `malloc` is called less often, for larger blocks of memory. See Section 2.3.1.10 [Obstack Chunks], page 11, for full details.

At run time, before the program can use a `struct obstack` object as an obstack, it must initialize the obstack by calling `obstack_init` or one of its variants, `obstack_begin`, `obstack_specify_allocation`, or `obstack_specify_allocation_with_arg`.

```
int obstack_init (struct obstack *obstack_ptr) [Function]
    Initialize obstack obstack_ptr for allocation of objects. This macro calls the obstack’s
    obstack_chunk_alloc function. If allocation of memory fails, the function pointed
    to by obstack_alloc_failed_handler is called. The obstack_init macro always
    returns 1 (Compatibility notice: Former versions of obstack returned 0 if allocation
    failed).
```

Here are two examples of how to allocate the space for an obstack and initialize it. First, an obstack that is a static variable:

```
static struct obstack myobstack;
...
obstack_init (&myobstack);
```

Second, an obstack that is itself dynamically allocated:

```
struct obstack *myobstack_ptr
    = (struct obstack *) xmalloc (sizeof (struct obstack));

obstack_init (myobstack_ptr);
```

```
int obstack_begin (struct obstack *obstack_ptr, size_t chunk_size) [Function]
    Like obstack_init, but specify chunks to be at least chunk_size bytes in size.
```

```
int obstack_specify_allocation (struct obstack *obstack_ptr, size_t chunk_size, size_t alignment, void (*chunkfun) (size_t), void (*freefun) (void *)) [Function]
    Like obstack_init, specifying chunk size, chunk alignment, and memory allocation functions. A chunk_size or alignment of zero results in the default size or alignment respectively being used.
```

```
int obstack_specify_allocation_with_arg (struct obstack      [Function]
    *obstack_ptr, size_t chunk_size, size_t alignment, void
    *(*chunkfun) (void *, size_t), void (*freefun) (void *, void
    *), void *arg)
```

Like `obstack_specify_allocation`, but specifying memory allocation functions that take an extra first argument, *arg*.

```
obstack_alloc_failed_handler                                     [Variable]
```

The value of this variable is a pointer to a function that `obstack` uses when `obstack_chunk_alloc` fails to allocate memory. The default action is to print a message and abort. You should supply a function that either calls `exit` (see Section “Program Termination” in *The GNU C Library Reference Manual*) or `longjmp` and doesn’t return.

```
void my_obstack_alloc_failed (void)
...
obstack_alloc_failed_handler = &my_obstack_alloc_failed;
```

### 2.3.1.3 Allocation in an Obstack

The most direct way to allocate an object in an obstack is with `obstack_alloc`, which is invoked almost like `malloc`.

```
void * obstack_alloc (struct obstack *obstack_ptr, size_t      [Function]
    size)
```

This allocates an uninitialized block of *size* bytes in an obstack and returns its address. Here *obstack\_ptr* specifies which obstack to allocate the block in; it is the address of the `struct obstack` object which represents the obstack. Each obstack macro requires you to specify an *obstack\_ptr* as the first argument.

This macro calls the obstack’s `obstack_chunk_alloc` function if it needs to allocate a new chunk of memory; it calls `obstack_alloc_failed_handler` if allocation of memory by `obstack_chunk_alloc` failed.

For example, here is a function that allocates a copy of a string *str* in a specific obstack, which is in the variable `string_obstack`:

```
struct obstack string_obstack;

char *
copystring (char *string)
{
    size_t len = strlen (string) + 1;
    char *s = (char *) obstack_alloc (&string_obstack, len);
    memcpy (s, string, len);
    return s;
}
```

To allocate a block with specified contents, use the macro `obstack_copy`.

```
void * obstack_copy (struct obstack *obstack_ptr, void          [Function]
    *address, size_t size)
```

This allocates a block and initializes it by copying *size* bytes of data starting at *address*. It calls `obstack_alloc_failed_handler` if allocation of memory by `obstack_chunk_alloc` failed.







```
void obstack_ptr_grow_fast (struct obstack *obstack_ptr,      [Function]
                           void *data)
```

`obstack_ptr_grow_fast` adds `sizeof (void *)` bytes containing the value of `data` to the growing object in obstack `obstack_ptr`.

```
void obstack_int_grow_fast (struct obstack *obstack_ptr,      [Function]
                           int data)
```

`obstack_int_grow_fast` adds `sizeof (int)` bytes containing the value of `data` to the growing object in obstack `obstack_ptr`.

```
void obstack_blank_fast (struct obstack *obstack_ptr,         [Function]
                        size_t size)
```

`obstack_blank_fast` adds `size` bytes to the growing object in obstack `obstack_ptr` without initializing them.

When you check for space using `obstack_room` and there is not enough room for what you want to add, the fast growth macros are not safe. In this case, simply use the corresponding ordinary growth macro instead. Very soon this will copy the object to a new chunk; then there will be lots of room available again.

So, each time you use an ordinary growth macro, check afterward for sufficient space using `obstack_room`. Once the object is copied to a new chunk, there will be plenty of space again, so the program will start using the fast growth macros again.

Here is an example:

```
void
add_string (struct obstack *obstack, const char *ptr, size_t len)
{
    while (len > 0)
    {
        size_t room = obstack_room (obstack);
        if (room == 0)
        {
            /* Not enough room. Add one character slowly,
               which may copy to a new chunk and make room. */
            obstack_1grow (obstack, *ptr++);
            len--;
        }
        else
        {
            if (room > len)
                room = len;
            /* Add fast as much as we have room for. */
            len -= room;
            while (room-- > 0)
                obstack_1grow_fast (obstack, *ptr++);
        }
    }
}
```

You can use `obstack_blank_fast` with a “negative” size argument to make the current object smaller. Just don’t try to shrink it beyond zero length—there’s no telling what will happen if you do that. Earlier versions of obstacks allowed you to use `obstack_blank` to shrink objects. This will no longer work.

### 2.3.1.8 Status of an Obstack

Here are macros that provide information on the current status of allocation in an obstack. You can use them to learn about an object while still growing it.

**void \* obstack\_base (struct obstack \*obstack\_ptr)** [Function]

This macro returns the tentative address of the beginning of the currently growing object in *obstack\_ptr*. If you finish the object immediately, it will have that address. If you make it larger first, it may outgrow the current chunk—then its address will change!

If no object is growing, this value says where the next object you allocate will start (once again assuming it fits in the current chunk).

**void \* obstack\_next\_free (struct obstack \*obstack\_ptr)** [Function]

This macro returns the address of the first free byte in the current chunk of obstack *obstack\_ptr*. This is the end of the currently growing object. If no object is growing, *obstack\_next\_free* returns the same value as *obstack\_base*.

**size\_t obstack\_object\_size (struct obstack \*obstack\_ptr)** [Function]

This macro returns the size in bytes of the currently growing object. This is equivalent to

```
((size_t) (obstack_next_free (obstack_ptr) - obstack_base (obstack_ptr)))
```

### 2.3.1.9 Alignment of Data in Obstacks

Each obstack has an *alignment boundary*; each object allocated in the obstack automatically starts on an address that is a multiple of the specified boundary. By default, this boundary is aligned so that the object can hold any type of data.

To access an obstack's alignment boundary, use the macro *obstack\_alignment\_mask*.

**size\_t obstack\_alignment\_mask (struct obstack \*obstack\_ptr)** [Macro]

The value is a bit mask; a bit that is 1 indicates that the corresponding bit in the address of an object should be 0. The mask value should be one less than a power of 2; the effect is that all object addresses are multiples of that power of 2. The default value of the mask is a value that allows aligned objects to hold any type of data: for example, if its value is 3, any type of data can be stored at locations whose addresses are multiples of 4. A mask value of 0 means an object can start on any multiple of 1 (that is, no alignment is required).

The expansion of the macro *obstack\_alignment\_mask* is an lvalue, so you can alter the mask by assignment. For example, this statement:

```
obstack_alignment_mask (obstack_ptr) = 0;
```

has the effect of turning off alignment processing in the specified obstack.

Note that a change in alignment mask does not take effect until *after* the next time an object is allocated or finished in the obstack. If you are not growing an object, you can make the new alignment mask take effect immediately by calling *obstack\_finish*. This will finish a zero-length object and then do proper alignment for the next object.

### 2.3.1.10 Obstack Chunks

Obstacks work by allocating space for themselves in large chunks, and then parceling out space in the chunks to satisfy your requests. Chunks are normally 4096 bytes long unless you specify a different chunk size. The chunk size includes 8 bytes of overhead that are not actually used for storing objects. Regardless of the specified size, longer chunks will be allocated when necessary for long objects.

The obstack library allocates chunks by calling the function `obstack_chunk_alloc`, which you must define. When a chunk is no longer needed because you have freed all the objects in it, the obstack library frees the chunk by calling `obstack_chunk_free`, which you must also define.

These two must be defined (as macros) or declared (as functions) in each source file that uses `obstack_init` (see Section 2.3.1.1 [Creating Obstacks], page 3). Most often they are defined as macros like this:

```
#define obstack_chunk_alloc malloc
#define obstack_chunk_free free
```

Note that these are simple macros (no arguments). Macro definitions with arguments will not work! It is necessary that `obstack_chunk_alloc` or `obstack_chunk_free`, alone, expand into a function name if it is not itself a function name.

If you allocate chunks with `malloc`, the chunk size should be a power of 2. The default chunk size, 4096, was chosen because it is long enough to satisfy many typical requests on the obstack yet short enough not to waste too much memory in the portion of the last chunk not yet used.

`size_t obstack_chunk_size (struct obstack *obstack_ptr)` [Macro]

This returns the chunk size of the given obstack.

Since this macro expands to an lvalue, you can specify a new chunk size by assigning it a new value. Doing so does not affect the chunks already allocated, but will change the size of chunks allocated for that particular obstack in the future. It is unlikely to be useful to make the chunk size smaller, but making it larger might improve efficiency if you are allocating many objects whose size is comparable to the chunk size. Here is how to do so cleanly:

```
if (obstack_chunk_size (obstack_ptr) < new-chunk-size)
    obstack_chunk_size (obstack_ptr) = new-chunk-size;
```

### 2.3.1.11 Summary of Obstack Macros

Here is a summary of all the macros associated with obstacks. Each takes the address of an obstack (`struct obstack *`) as its first argument.

`int obstack_init (struct obstack *obstack_ptr)`

Initialize use of an obstack. See Section 2.3.1.1 [Creating Obstacks], page 3.

`int obstack_begin (struct obstack *obstack_ptr, size_t chunk_size)`

Initialize use of an obstack, with an initial chunk of *chunk\_size* bytes.



`void obstack_blank_fast (struct obstack *obstack_ptr, size_t size)`  
Add *size* uninitialized bytes to a growing object without checking that there is enough room. See Section 2.3.1.7 [Extra Fast Growing], page 8.

`void obstack_1grow_fast (struct obstack *obstack_ptr, char data_char)`  
Add one byte containing *data\_char* to a growing object without checking that there is enough room. See Section 2.3.1.7 [Extra Fast Growing], page 8.

`size_t obstack_room (struct obstack *obstack_ptr)`  
Get the amount of room now available for growing the current object. See Section 2.3.1.7 [Extra Fast Growing], page 8.

`size_t obstack_alignment_mask (struct obstack *obstack_ptr)`  
The mask used for aligning the beginning of an object. This is an lvalue. See Section 2.3.1.9 [Obstacks Data Alignment], page 10.

`size_t obstack_chunk_size (struct obstack *obstack_ptr)`  
The size for allocating chunks. This is an lvalue. See Section 2.3.1.10 [Obstack Chunks], page 11.

`void *obstack_base (struct obstack *obstack_ptr)`  
Tentative starting address of the currently growing object. See Section 2.3.1.8 [Status of an Obstack], page 10.

`void *obstack_next_free (struct obstack *obstack_ptr)`  
Address just after the end of the currently growing object. See Section 2.3.1.8 [Status of an Obstack], page 10.















ISPUNCT (c)	[Extension]
ISSPACE (c)	[Extension]
ISUPPER (c)	[Extension]
ISXDIGIT (c)	[Extension]

These twelve macros are defined by `safe-ctype.h`. Each has the same meaning as the corresponding macro (with name in lowercase) defined by the standard header `ctype.h`. For example, `ISALPHA` returns true for alphabetic characters and false for others. However, there are two differences between these macros and those provided by `ctype.h`:

- These macros are guaranteed to have well-defined behavior for all values representable by `signed char` and `unsigned char`, and for `EOF`.
- These macros ignore the current locale; they are true for these fixed sets of characters:

```
ALPHA      A-Za-z
ALNUM      A-Za-z0-9
BLANK      space tab
CNTRL      !PRINT
DIGIT      0-9
GRAPH      ALNUM || PUNCT
LOWER      a-z
PRINT      GRAPH || space
PUNCT      ~!@#$%^&*()_-=+[{]}\|;:','<.>/?
SPACE      space tab \n \r \f \v
UPPER      A-Z
XDIGIT     0-9A-Fa-f
```

Note that, if the host character set is ASCII or a superset thereof, all these macros will return false for all values of `char` outside the range of 7-bit ASCII. In particular, both `ISPRINT` and `ISCNTRL` return false for characters with numeric values from 128 to 255.

ISIDNUM (c)	[Extension]
ISIDST (c)	[Extension]
IS_VSPACE (c)	[Extension]
IS_NVSPACE (c)	[Extension]
IS_SPACE_OR_NUL (c)	[Extension]
IS_ISOBASIC (c)	[Extension]

These six macros are defined by `safe-ctype.h` and provide additional character classes which are useful when doing lexical analysis of C or similar languages. They are true for the following sets of characters:

```
IDNUM      A-Za-z0-9_
IDST       A-Za-z_
VSPACE     \r \n
NVSPACE    space tab \f \v \0
SPACE_OR_NUL  VSPACE || NVSPACE
ISOBASIC   VSPACE || NVSPACE || PRINT
```







you run the risk of blocking when there is no child process yet to read the data and allow you to continue. `pex_input_pipe` makes no promises about the size of the pipe's buffer, so if you need to write any data at all before starting the first process in the pipeline, consider using `pex_input_file` instead.

- Using `pex_input_pipe` and `pex_read_output` together may also cause deadlock. If the output pipe fills up, so that each program in the pipeline is waiting for the next to read more data, and you fill the input pipe by writing more data to `fp`, then there is no way to make progress: the only process that could read data from the output pipe is you, but you are blocked on the input pipe.

```
const char * pex_one (int flags, const char *executable,      [Extension]
                     char * const *argv, const char *pname, const char *outname,
                     const char *errname, int *status, int *err)
```

An interface to permit the easy execution of a single program. The return value and most of the parameters are as for a call to `pex_run`. `flags` is restricted to a combination of `PEX_SEARCH`, `PEX_STDERR_TO_STDOUT`, and `PEX_BINARY_OUTPUT`. `outname` is interpreted as if `PEX_LAST` were set. On a successful return, `*status` will be set to the exit status of the program.

```
FILE * pex_read_err (struct pex_obj *obj, int binary)      [Extension]
```

Returns a `FILE` pointer which may be used to read the standard error of the last program in the pipeline. When this is used, `PEX_LAST` should not be used in a call to `pex_run`. After this is called, `pex_run` may no longer be called with the same `obj`. `binary` should be non-zero if the file should be opened in binary mode. Don't call `fclose` on the returned file; it will be closed by `pex_free`.

```
FILE * pex_read_output (struct pex_obj *obj, int binary)  [Extension]
```

Returns a `FILE` pointer which may be used to read the standard output of the last program in the pipeline. When this is used, `PEX_LAST` should not be used in a call to `pex_run`. After this is called, `pex_run` may no longer be called with the same `obj`. `binary` should be non-zero if the file should be opened in binary mode. Don't call `fclose` on the returned file; it will be closed by `pex_free`.

```
const char * pex_run (struct pex_obj *obj, int flags,      [Extension]
                     const char *executable, char * const *argv, const char
                     *outname, const char *errname, int *err)
```

Execute one program in a pipeline. On success this returns `NULL`. On failure it returns an error message, a statically allocated string.

`obj` is returned by a previous call to `pex_init`.

`flags` is a bitwise combination of the following:

**PEX\_LAST** This must be set on the last program in the pipeline. In particular, it should be set when executing a single program. The standard output of the program will be sent to `outname`, or, if `outname` is `NULL`, to the standard output of the calling program. Do *not* set this bit if you want to call `pex_read_output` (described below). After a call to `pex_run` with this bit set, `pex_run` may no longer be called with the same `obj`.





`char* rindex (const char *s, int c)` [Supplemental]  
 Returns a pointer to the last occurrence of the character *c* in the string *s*, or NULL if not found. The use of `rindex` is deprecated in new programs in favor of `strrchr`.

`int setenv (const char *name, const char *value, int overwrite)` [Supplemental]

`void unsetenv (const char *name)` [Supplemental]  
`setenv` adds *name* to the environment with value *value*. If the name was already present in the environment, the new value will be stored only if *overwrite* is nonzero. The companion `unsetenv` function removes *name* from the environment. This implementation is not safe for multithreaded code.

`void setproctitle (const char *fmt, ...)` [Supplemental]  
 Set the title of a process to *fmt*. *va* args not supported for now, but defined for compatibility with BSD.

`int signo_max (void)` [Extension]  
 Returns the maximum signal value for which a corresponding symbolic name or message is available. Note that in the case where we use the `sys_siglist` supplied by the system, it is possible for there to be more symbolic names than messages, or vice versa. In fact, the manual page for `psignal(3b)` explicitly warns that one should check the size of the table (`NSIG`) before indexing it, since new signal codes may be added to the system before they are added to the table. Thus `NSIG` might be smaller than value implied by the largest `signo` value defined in `<signal.h>`.  
 We return the maximum value that can be used to obtain a meaningful symbolic name or message.

`int sigsetmask (int set)` [Supplemental]  
 Sets the signal mask to the one provided in *set* and returns the old mask (which, for `liberty`'s implementation, will always be the value 1).

`const char * simple_object_attributes_compare` [Extension]  
`(simple_object_attributes *attrs1, simple_object_attributes *attrs2, int *err)`  
 Compare *attrs1* and *attrs2*. If they could be linked together without error, return NULL. Otherwise, return an error message and set *\*err* to an `errno` value or 0 if there is no relevant `errno`.

`simple_object_attributes * simple_object_fetch_attributes` [Extension]  
`(simple_object_read *simple_object, const char **errmsg, int *err)`  
 Fetch the attributes of *simple\_object*. The attributes are internal information such as the format of the object file, or the architecture it was compiled for. This information will persist until `simple_object_attributes_release` is called, even if *simple\_object* itself is released.

On error this returns NULL, sets *\*errmsg* to an error message, and sets *\*err* to an `errno` value or 0 if there is no relevant `errno`.



```
void simple_object_release_read (simple_object_read      [Extension]
                               *simple_object)
```

Release all resources associated with *simple\_object*. This does not close the file descriptor.

```
void simple_object_release_write (simple_object_write    [Extension]
                                 *simple_object)
```

Release all resources associated with *simple\_object*.

```
simple_object_write * simple_object_start_write          [Extension]
    (simple_object_attributes attrs, const char *segment_name,
     const char **errmsg, int *err)
```

Start creating a new object file using the object file format described in *attrs*. You must fetch attribute information from an existing object file before you can create a new one. There is currently no support for creating an object file de novo.

*segment\_name* is only used with Mach-O as found on Darwin aka Mac OS X. The parameter is required on that target. It means that all sections are created within the named segment. It is ignored for other object file formats.

On error *simple\_object\_start\_write* returns NULL, sets *\*ERRMSG* to an error message, and sets *\*err* to an errno value or 0 if there is no relevant errno.

```
const char * simple_object_write_add_data              [Extension]
    (simple_object_write *simple_object,
     simple_object_write_section *section, const void *buffer,
     size_t size, int copy, int *err)
```

Add data *buffer/size* to *section* in *simple\_object*. If *copy* is non-zero, the data will be copied into memory if necessary. If *copy* is zero, *buffer* must persist until *simple\_object\_write\_to\_file* is called. is released.

On success this returns NULL. On error this returns an error message, and sets *\*err* to an errno value or 0 if there is no relevant error.

```
simple_object_write_section *                           [Extension]
    simple_object_write_create_section (simple_object_write
    *simple_object, const char *name, unsigned int align, const
    char **errmsg, int *err)
```

Add a section to *simple\_object*. *name* is the name of the new section. *align* is the required alignment expressed as the number of required low-order 0 bits (e.g., 2 for alignment to a 32-bit boundary).

The section is created as containing data, readable, not writable, not executable, not loaded at runtime. The section is not written to the file until *simple\_object\_write\_to\_file* is called.

On error this returns NULL, sets *\*errmsg* to an error message, and sets *\*err* to an errno value or 0 if there is no relevant errno.





**char\* strrchr (const char \*s, int c)** [Supplemental]  
 Returns a pointer to the last occurrence of the character *c* in the string *s*, or NULL if not found. If *c* is itself the null character, the results are undefined.

**const char \* strsignal (int signo)** [Supplemental]  
 Maps an signal number to an signal message string, the contents of which are implementation defined. On systems which have the external variable **sys\_siglist**, these strings will be the same as the ones used by **psignal()**.  
 If the supplied signal number is within the valid range of indices for the **sys\_siglist**, but no message is available for the particular signal number, then returns the string 'Signal *num*', where *num* is the signal number.  
 If the supplied signal number is not a valid index into **sys\_siglist**, returns NULL.  
 The returned string is only guaranteed to be valid only until the next call to **strsignal**.

**const char\* strsigno (int signo)** [Extension]  
 Given an signal number, returns a pointer to a string containing the symbolic name of that signal number, as found in **<signal.h>**.  
 If the supplied signal number is within the valid range of indices for symbolic names, but no name is available for the particular signal number, then returns the string 'Signal *num*', where *num* is the signal number.  
 If the supplied signal number is not within the range of valid indices, then returns NULL.  
 The contents of the location pointed to are only guaranteed to be valid until the next call to **strsigno**.

**char\* strstr (const char \*string, const char \*sub)** [Supplemental]  
 This function searches for the substring *sub* in the string *string*, not including the terminating null characters. A pointer to the first occurrence of *sub* is returned, or NULL if the substring is absent. If *sub* points to a string with zero length, the function returns *string*.

**double strtod (const char \*string, char \*\*endptr)** [Supplemental]  
 This ISO C function converts the initial portion of *string* to a double. If *endptr* is not NULL, a pointer to the character after the last character used in the conversion is stored in the location referenced by *endptr*. If no conversion is performed, zero is returned and the value of *string* is stored in the location referenced by *endptr*.

**int strtouerrno (const char \*name)** [Extension]  
 Given the symbolic name of a error number (e.g., EACCES), map it to an errno value. If no translation is found, returns 0.

**long int strtol (const char \*string, char \*\*endptr, int base)** [Supplemental]

**unsigned long int strtoul (const char \*string, char \*\*endptr, int base)** [Supplemental]

The **strtoul** function converts the string in *string* to a long integer value according to the given *base*, which must be between 2 and 36 inclusive, or be the special value

0. If *base* is 0, `strtoll` will look for the prefixes 0 and 0x to indicate bases 8 and 16, respectively, else default to base 10. When the base is 16 (either explicitly or implicitly), a prefix of 0x is allowed. The handling of *endptr* is as that of `strtod` above. The `strtoul` function is the same, except that the converted value is unsigned.

```
long long int strtoll (const char *string, char          [Supplemental]
                      **endptr, int base)
```

```
unsigned long long int strtoull ( const char *string,      [Supplemental]
                                 char **endptr, int base)
```

The `strtoll` function converts the string in *string* to a long long integer value according to the given *base*, which must be between 2 and 36 inclusive, or be the special value 0. If *base* is 0, `strtoll` will look for the prefixes 0 and 0x to indicate bases 8 and 16, respectively, else default to base 10. When the base is 16 (either explicitly or implicitly), a prefix of 0x is allowed. The handling of *endptr* is as that of `strtod` above. The `strtoull` function is the same, except that the converted value is unsigned.

```
int strtosigno (const char *name)                        [Extension]
```

Given the symbolic name of a signal, map it to a signal number. If no translation is found, returns 0.

```
int strverscmp (const char *s1, const char *s2)          [Function]
```

The `strverscmp` function compares the string *s1* against *s2*, considering them as holding indices/version numbers. Return value follows the same conventions as found in the `strverscmp` function. In fact, if *s1* and *s2* contain no digits, `strverscmp` behaves like `strcmp`.

Basically, we compare strings normally (character by character), until we find a digit in each string - then we enter a special comparison mode, where each sequence of digits is taken as a whole. If we reach the end of these two parts without noticing a difference, we return to the standard comparison mode. There are two types of numeric parts: "integral" and "fractional" (those begin with a '0'). The types of the numeric parts affect the way we sort them:

- integral/integral: we compare values as you would expect.
- fractional/integral: the fractional part is less than the integral one. Again, no surprise.
- fractional/fractional: the things become a bit more complex. If the common prefix contains only leading zeroes, the longest part is less than the other one; else the comparison behaves normally.

```
strverscmp ("no digit", "no digit")
⇒ 0      // same behavior as strcmp.
strverscmp ("item#99", "item#100")
⇒ <0    // same prefix, but 99 < 100.
strverscmp ("alpha1", "alpha001")
⇒ >0    // fractional part inferior to integral one.
strverscmp ("part1_f012", "part1_f01")
⇒ >0    // two fractional parts.
strverscmp ("foo.009", "foo.0")
⇒ <0    // idem, but with leading zeroes only.
```





`void xmalloc_set_program_name (const char *name)` [Replacement]

You can use this to set the name of the program used by `xmalloc_failed` when printing a failure message.

`void* xmemdup (void *input, size_t copy_size, size_t alloc_size)` [Replacement]

Duplicates a region of memory without fail. First, *alloc\_size* bytes are allocated, then *copy\_size* bytes from *input* are copied into it, and the new memory is returned. If fewer bytes are copied than were allocated, the remaining memory is zeroed.

`void* xrealloc (void *ptr, size_t size)` [Replacement]

Reallocate memory without fail. This routine functions like `realloc`, but will behave the same as `xmalloc` if memory cannot be found.

`char* xstrdup (const char *s)` [Replacement]

Duplicates a character string without fail, using `xmalloc` to obtain memory.

`char* xstrerror (int errnum)` [Replacement]

Behaves exactly like the standard `strerror` function, but will never return a NULL pointer.

`char* xstrndup (const char *s, size_t n)` [Replacement]

Returns a pointer to a copy of *s* with at most *n* characters without fail, using `xmalloc` to obtain memory. The result is always NUL terminated.

`char* xvasprintf (const char *format, va_list args)` [Replacement]

Print to allocated string without fail. If `xvasprintf` fails, this will print a message to `stderr` (using the name set by `xmalloc_set_program_name`, if any) and then call `xexit`.



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```

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```

```
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```
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```

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```
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```

```
signature of Ty Coon, 1 April 1990
Ty Coon, President of Vice
```

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