# Cash2.1 User Manual
Cellular Automata in Simulated Hardware 2.1

Bram van Dijk

Nobuto Takeuchi

Theoretical Biology, Utrecht University[1]

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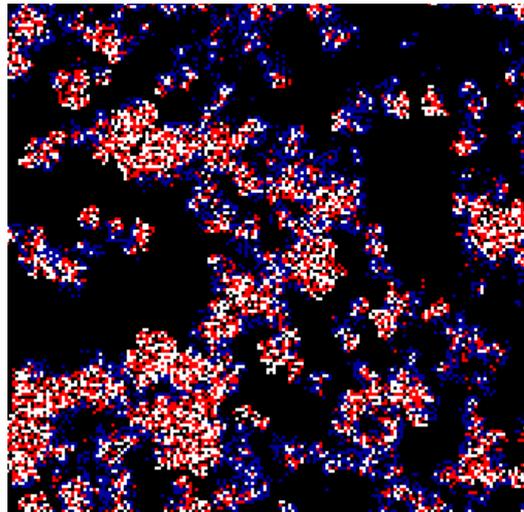
Cash2.1 Chaotic wave patterns in mutualists and cheaters

Contents

Chapter 1

Introduction

Cash2.1 is an easy-to-use library to make a program simulating Cellular Automata (CA's), and it was created for the use in the course Bioinformatic Processes given by Paulien Hogeweg at Utrecht University.

This document discusses how to setup/install Cash2.1, followed by a basic introduction to the command-line, programming in C, and using Cash2.1. If you need more help with figuring out how to work the command-line, check out **the command-line bootcamp**.

If you know what you are doing, and already have Cash2.1 running, you can jump right in and make your own CAs by checking out all the advanced functions found in Chapter 5.

Chapter 2

Installation

In principle, Cash2.1 is a program made for Linux. Installing on a Linux system is easiest, but it is also possible to install them on Windows or Mac OS. The general installation process is the same for all systems:

- Installing dependencies (libraries used by Cash2.1)

- Installing software for display and graphing

- Installing and testing Cash2.1

2.1   Installing on Linux (own laptop / desktop)

Installing the required dependencies for Cash2.1 can be done manually (see blue box below, only for cool kids) or by using the script provided on our course website:

- `wget http://theory.bio.uu.nl/BINF/software/Cash2.1/cash_dependencies.sh`

- `sudo ./cash_dependencies.sh`

- (enter your password)

For geeks that want to do it themselves, here's what the script does:

- `apt-get update`
- `apt-get install unzip`
- `apt-get install build-essential`
- `apt-get install grace`
- `apt-get install x11-apps (just for testing)`
- `apt-get install libpng-dev`
- `apt-get install zlib1g-dev`
- `apt-get install libx11-dev`
- `echo "export DISPLAY=:0.0" >> ~/.bashrc`
- `source ~/.bashrc`

Next, continue to Chapter 3 to start installing and using Cash2.1.

2.2 Installing on Windows

Since Windows 10, the Microsoft app store has 'Ubuntu for Windows' freely available, which is a small, yet fully functional, Linux Ubuntu distribution run on windows. By installing this, and installing a program to manage your display (displaying graphs and the CA grid), we can use Cash2.1 without any limitations.

Step 1/5: Preparing Windows 10 developer mode

- Go to Control Panel → Updates and Security → For developers, and enable the 'Developer mode'

- Go to Control Panel → Program's and Features → Turn Window features on or off. Enable 'Windows Subsystem for Linux' (see Figure 2.1)

- (Restart Windows)
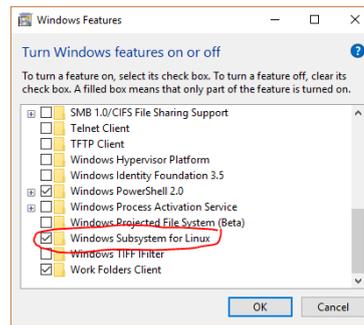
Figure 2.1: Enable Windows Subsystem for Linux

Step 2/5: Installing Ubuntu for Windows 10

- Install Ubuntu for Windows 10, available in the Microsoft app store.

- Start Ubuntu for Windows. Continue through the installation. (setting up a username and password, etc.).

- By default, your Windows documents can be accessed via */mnt/c/Users/<username>*.
  (note: it is adviced to download and install Cash2.1 here, since you can then easily edit the code via your preferred Windows text editor, without getting permission problems)

Step 3/5: Installing an X server for Windows

In order to run graphical applications such as Cash2.1 via your newly installed Ubuntu, you need an X server. There's a small one called VcXsrv available here `sourceforge.net/projects/vcxsrv/`

NOTE! This program needs to run while using Ubuntu to get a display. It's in your Start Menu, and called XLaunch. If you're lazy like me, you can add it to your windows start-up applications:

- Right click on XLaunch in the start-up menu

- Select More → Open file location

- Copy the VcXsrv shortcut file

- Paste the shortcut in %appdata%/Microsoft/Windows/Start Menu/Programs/Startup

- (An X icon should appear in your system tray whenever you start Windows)

Step 4/5: Installing required tools on Ubuntu for Windows

For Cash2.1 to work, some other packages need to be installed (see blue box below). For easily doing this, run the script on our website. Type the following commands into your Ubuntu terminal:

- `wget http://theory.bio.uu.nl/BINF/software/Cash2.1/cash_dependencies.sh`

- `sudo ./cash_dependencies.sh`

- (enter your password)

- Test your display by typing `xeyes`. Do you a window with eyes?

Step 5/5: Installing and testing Cash2.1

This is explained in Chapter 3.

For geeks that want to do it themselves, here's what the script does:

- `apt-get update`
- `apt-get install unzip`
- `apt-get install build-essential`
- `apt-get install grace`
- `apt-get install x11-apps (just for testing)`
- `apt-get install libpng-dev`
- `apt-get install zlib1g-dev`
- `apt-get install libx11-dev`
- `echo "export DISPLAY=localhost:0.0"` $>>$ $\sim$`/.bashrc`
- `"source` $\sim$`/.bashrc`

2.3   Installing on Mac OSX

Since Mac OS is a also a UNIX system, using Cash2.1 is possible, but it requires some different steps. We need to install a program to manage your display (displaying graphs and the CA grid), like Xquartz. If you are lazy, see if our setup script gets you through it (we've tested the script, but only on a few systems). If it didnt work, follow the instructions in the blue box below.

Here's what the script is supposed to do on your Mac OS system. It installes xcode and homebrew, and then uses homebrew to install xquartz, libpng and grace:

- `xcode-select --install`
- `ruby -e "$(curl -fsSL https://raw.githubusercontent.com/Homebrew/install/master/install)"`
- `brew cask install xquartz`
- `brew install libpng`
- `brew install grace`

Figure 2.2: Dependendies required for Cash2.1

Next, continue to Chapter 3 to start using Cash2.1.

2.4 Installing on UU campus (COMPbio students)

Boot the computer in "Betalinux" (reboot if it is already in Windows). Open a terminal window (type 'term' in the start menu and it should pop up) and type:

- `/clz/bio-binf/setup-binf`

- `source ~/.bashrc`

Done. Next, continue to Chapter 3 to start installing and using Cash2.1.

Chapter 3

Downloading and testing Cash2.1

From here on out, we will start using the command line. I will briefly explain some of the basics for beginners here. If you know how the command line works, you can skip to section 3.2.

3.1   Using the command line

Using Cash2.1, you will mostly work in a terminal. You can find the terminal by searching for 'terminal' in the start menu of either Linux, Mac OS, or Windows. In the terminal, you can type commands. In this section, some of the most useful commands will be explained.

Assume our directories are structured in the following way:

Imagine that we start in **root/een/two**.

cd ..:
This command will take us up one step in the directory structure. So, we will end up in **root/een**.

ls:
This command will show us the content of the directory we are currently in, **root/een**. It will show us at least the three directories: **one**, **two** and

15
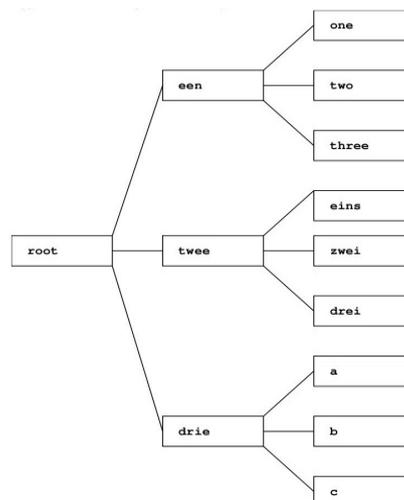
`three`.

cd three:
This command takes us to the subdirectory `three`. Of
course this only works when a directory with the name
you type actually exists.
We type **cd ..** again to get back into `root/een`.

mkdir four:
By using this command, we create a new subdirectory in the directory we are currently in, with the
given name. So, we have added a directory `root/een/four` to our directory structure.

cp filename four:
This command will copy a certain file (with the name filename) from the place in the directory
structure we are now to `root/een/four`. If you want to copy a file from or to a different place, you
should specify the path in your command. For instance, if you want to copy a file named file1 from
`root/een/two` to `root/twee/drei`, you should type **cp two/file1 root/twee/drei**.

mv A B:
This command enables you to move or rename a file. If A and B are two different file names, the
name of A will be changed to B. If A and B are two diffferent path names followed by the same
file name, the file will be moved from A to B. If A and B are two different path names followed by
different file names, the file will be moved from A to B **and** it will be renamed. For example, if you
type **mv two/file1 root/drie/file2**, the file named file1 in directory `root/een/two` will be moved
to `root/drie` and it will be renamed to file2.

Running, suspending, and cancelling programs:
You can run a program by typing `./` followed the name of the program. For example, the 'game of
life' program that comes with Cash2.1 available on the course website, can be ran by typing `./life`
in the terminal. (IF you compiled life by typine 'make life' first!)

When starting a program, you will you might notice that you cannot type commands into the
terminal anymore (actually you CAN, but they dont do anything). Your `prompt` is not active any
more. You can return to your prompt by pressing **Ctrl Z**. Although you can now type in commands
again, the program is suspended. If you now type **bg**, the program will start running again 'in the
background'. This means you can have your cake and eat it too.

If you type **&** behind a command that starts a program, the program starts in the backgroud. This means that you keep your prompt and can still type commands in your terminal.

If you want to (force) quit a certain program, type **Ctrl C**. This will completely shut down the program you are running. Since most people are used to **Ctrl C** (and **Ctrl V**) being the copy-paste commands, these commands are now availble by combining them with SHIFT (Ctrl+Shift+C / Ctrl+Shift+C). On Ubuntu for Windows, you can right-click to paste.

3.2 Downloading, installing, and first use of Cash2.1

Now that you know a bit about the command-line, lets download and install Cash2.1. Here's the command lines:

- `wget http://theory.bio.uu.nl/BINF/software/Cash2.1/Cash2.1.zip`

- `unzip Cash2.1.zip`

Now you should have a directory name Cash2.1. Now it is time to start using the command line. If you already know how this works, you can skip to §3.2.

To install Cash2.1 , simply cd into the directory, and type 'make', followed by 'make install':

- `cd Cash2.1`

- `make`

- `make install`

If you got through this without serious errors, Cash2.1should now work. But what is this 'make' command doing? In the next Chapter, we will briefly introduce programming and compiling code, so you can begin using Cash2.1.

Chapter 4

Programming in C and Cash2.1

4.1 What is programming?

To use Cash2.1, we will do some programing. Let me explain what it is like to make a program. First, one writes down sets of orders that will be executed by computers in a text file. Such a file is called a **source code**. Computers cannot understand the source code as it is. Thus, one then runs some program to translate the source code into a **executable** file. This executable file is what refer to as the **program**. This translation process is called **compilation**, and the program to compile source codes is called the **compiler**. Many modern programming languages like Python and R do not require compilation, but since that this generally means they are also *slower*, we tend to favour programming in C.

Let us take an example. Go to the directory called `examples` by typing **cd examples** in the Cash2.1 directory. Type **ls** to see the files and the directories located in this directory. There is a file called `life.c` and this is our example source code. This will show us the "Game of Life", which is explained in the lectures by P. Hogeweg. The file name has an extension ".c" which tells us that the file is C source code. We are going to compile it. Type **make life** — this means to compile the source code called `life.c` and create a program called `life`. Note that one should not type "`make life.c`" but "`make life`". If the compilation is successful, one obtains a file called `life`, which is printed in green color if you type **ls** (if a program is executable, it will be in green color on most systems). Now that we have an program to simulate CA, type **./life** to see the output of the program. What do you observe?

Glider gun, it is called. In the next section, we will see how to make this kind of program by ourselves.

4.2   First look at an example source code

The following is the source code `life.c`. Let's just look through it:

```c
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <time.h>
#include <errno.h>
#include <math.h>
#include <grace_np.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <float.h>
#include <limits.h>
#include <signal.h>
#include <cash2003.h>
#include <cash2.h>
#include <mersenne.h>
#include <cash2-s.h>

static TYPE2** Life;

void Initial(void)
{
  MaxTime = 2147483647; /* default=2147483647 */
  nrow = 200; /* # of row (default=100)*/
  ncol = 200; /* # of column (default=100)*/
  nplane = 1; /* # of planes (default=0)*/
  scale = 2; /* size of the window (default=2)*/
  boundary = WRAP; /* the type of boundary: FIXED, WRAP, ECHO (default=WRAP).
                      Note that Margolus diffusion is not supported for ECHO. */
  ulseedG = 56; /* random seed (default=56)*/

  /* useally, one does not have to change the followings */
  /* the value of boundary (default=(TYPE2){0,0,0,0,0,0.,0.,0.,0.,0.})*/
  boundaryvalue2 = (TYPE2){0,0,0,0,0,0.,0.,0.,0.,0.};
}

void InitialPlane(void)
{
  MakePlane(&Life);

```

```
38    /* Usage: InitialSet(1,2,3,4,5);
39        1: name of plane
40        2: number of the state other than the background state
41        3: background state or empty state
42        4: state I want to put
43        5: fraction of cells that get S1 state (0 to 1) */
44    InitialSet(Life,1,0,1,0.3);
45
46    Boundaries2(Life);
47  }
48
49  void NextState(int row,int col)
50  {
51    int sum;
52
53    sum = CountMoore8(Life,1,row,col);
54
55    if(sum==3 || (sum==2 && Life[row][col].val==1)){
56        Life[row][col].val = 1;
57    }
58    else{
59        Life[row][col].val = 0;
60    }
61  }
62
63  void Update(void)
64  {
65    Display(Life);
66    Synchronous(1,Life);
67  }
```

Listing 4.1: `life.c`

Perhaps cryptic in the beginning? I will first explain its outline. The program simulates the Game of Life. Let us first look at line 49–61. The **next-state function** of the Game of Life is written here. This part is the core of the program, and a special attention is called for here. Without knowing the details, one might well understand meaning of Line 49–61: it is the rule of the Game of Life[1].

---

[1] For those who forgot the rule of the Game of Life, let me repeat it: (1) Count the number of the cells with state 1 in the Moore neighborhood—i.e. 8 neighbors in east, west, north, south, north east, north west, south east and south west—of the focal cell; (2) if the number of neighboring cells with state 1 is three, the state of the focal cell becomes state 1; if the number of neighboring cells with state 1 is two and the focal cell's state is 1, the focal cell's state remains 1; otherwise the focal cell's state becomes 0.

Let us look at other lines too. Line 63–67 is the thing that runs repeatedly for this program. It is quite verbal: `Display()` the grid, and then apply a `Synchronous()` update (this applies the next state function for the entire grid). Rince and repeat. But before all this works, there is a bit of setup. Let's explain that a bit more next.

Line 34–47 initializes the CA plane. Line 18–32 is a kind of mess. Actually, it sets parameters of CA such as the maximum number of updating (`MaxTime`), the number of rows and columns (`nrow`, `ncol`) and so forth. In summary, the outline is that we (1) initialize the parameters of CA `Initial()` (Line 18) , (2) make a plane and initialize it by `InitialPlane()` (Line 34), (3) specify the rules of CA by NextState() (Line 49), (4) update the CA plane by `Update()` (Line 63). Next we will see the meaning of lines in more details.

4.3   Details of the source code

4.3.1   Header

Lines 1-14 (see below) means that one includes the library called `cash2-s` and also the others. In most of the cases during the course, one need not modify this part of the code, so that one can simply copy and paste it. This part of the code is called "header", and files with `.h` are called "header files".

```c
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <time.h>
#include <errno.h>
#include <math.h>
#include <grace_np.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <float.h>
#include <limits.h>
#include <signal.h>
#include <cash2003.h>
#include <cash2.h>
#include <mersenne.h>
#include <cash2-s.h>

static TYPE2** Life;
```

Listing 4.2: Header

Line 16 is a **variable definition**. A variable is a storage which can contain a value such as a character (`'a'`, `'b'`), an integer (`1`) or a floating number (`3.1417`). When one uses variables, one has to define them before using. In this case, we define a variable which will later contain a plane of CA. I will explain more about the variable definition by dividing it in parts.

We start from the last word of the variable definition. `Life` is the name of the variable. The naming is arbitrary. In naming variables, we can use alphabets and underscores "_"; numbers are also allowed to use if it does not come to the beginning of the name (e.g. `Plane1`, `Plane2` are OK, but not `1Plane`).

Next look at the first two words, `static TYPE2**`. At this moment, we ignore the meaning of `static` but learn by heart to put it in the beginning. The second one, `TYPE2 **`, tells the data **type** of the variable. Variables have several different types: integer (`int`), real number (`double`), character (`char`) and so on. When one defines a variable, one has to specify its type. Note that once one defines a variable as, say, `int` type, one cannot store a real number, such as 1.3, in this variable (for example, `int x; x = 1.3;` stores 1 in `x` instead of 1.3). `TYPE2**` is simply one of those types. Last but not least, there is a semi-colon, "`;`", at the end of line. A semi-colon says "this is the end of an order". Despite its littleness, it is a very important to put it.

4.3.2 `Initial()` function

Let us proceed to Line 18–32 (see below too). This part has a syntax such that `Initial() {something;}`. This synthax is common to all the other parts of the program such as `NextState() {something;}` and `Update() {something;}`. They are called **functions**. A function is a building block of a program.

Taking a closer look, Line 18 is the begining of the **function definition** of the function of which name is `Initial()`.

```
1  void  Initial(void)
```

Listing 4.3: Function definition

`void` in the beginning of the line means that the function returns nothing, i.e. it performs some computation, but gives back no value (cf. `sin(3.14/2.)` which computes sin(3.14/2.) and returns ≈ 1.)

```
1  void  Initial(void)
2  {
3    MaxTime = 2147483647; /* default=2147483647 */
4    nrow = 200; /* # of row (default=100)*/
5    ncol = 200; /* # of column (default=100)*/
6    nplane = 1; /* # of planes (default=0)*/
```

```
7    scale = 2; /* size of the window (default=2)*/
8    boundary = WRAP; /* the type of boundary: FIXED, WRAP, ECHO (default=WRAP).
9                       Note that Margolus diffusion is not supported for ECHO. */
10   ulseedG = 56; /* random seed (default=56)*/
11
12   /* useally, one does not have to change the followings */
13   /* the value of boundary (default=(TYPE2){0,0,0,0,0,0.,0.,0.,0.,0.})*/
14   boundaryvalue2 = (TYPE2){0,0,0,0,0,0.,0.,0.,0.,0.};
15 }
```

Listing 4.4: `Initial()` function

Inside of the function `Initial()`, we sets parameters of CA. Line 20 sets the maximum number of updating to 2147483647. The simbol "=" **assigns** a value on the right hand side into the variable on the left hand side. Is it allowed to use variables without defining it? No, but the variable `MaxTime` has been already defined in the library. The same is true for the other parameters. The meaning of the variables is almost clear from the name.

`nplane` is the number of CA planes. When using multiple CA planes, one first has to define variables for all planes after the inclusion of the header files before the `Initial()` function. Then, one has to put the correct number of planes in `nplane`.

`boundary` is the type of the boundary: `WRAP` is torus boundary, `FIXED` is fixed boundary, `ECHO` is echoing boundary; all of those are explained during the lectures. When one wants to assign some value in the boundaries in `FIXED` boundary mode, one sets `boundaryvalue2` to a state of boundaries. For example, if one wants to set the value of the boundaries to 2, one writes `boundaryvalue2 = {2,0,0,0,0,0.,0.,0.,0.,0.}`.

`ulseedG` is the **random seed**. When drawing random number from the computer, they are not really random, but just a stack of psuedo-random numbers. When when uses such a "random" number, the top one is drawn from the stack. In other words, if you really want 2 simulations to have different results based on random events, one should change this random seed.

4.3.3   `InitialPlane()` function

`InitialPlane()` function (Line 34-47) (1) creates CA planes, (2) initializes them, and (3) sets the boundaries of CA (which boundary types and what boundary values have been given in `Initial()`).

```
1 void InitialPlane(void)
2 {
```

```
 3    MakePlane(&Life);
 4
 5    /* Usage: InitialSet(1,2,3,4,5);
 6       1: name of plane
 7       2: number of the state other than the background state
 8       3: background state or empty state
 9       4: state I want to put
10       5: fraction of cells that get S1 state (0 to 1) */
11    InitialSet(Life,1,0,1,0.3);
12
13    Boundaries2(Life);
14 }
```

Listing 4.5: `InitialPlane()` function

Look at Line 36. Here one calls the function called `MakePlane()`, which makes planes as the name suggests. If one wants to represent a CA plane in the variable `Life`, one gives the variable `Life` as an argument to the `MakePlane()` function. The meaning of an ampersand (`&`) in the front of the variable will not be explained; it is just a rule. If one uses multiple CA planes, say `Plane1` and `Plane2`, then one writes `MakePlane(Plane1,Plane2))`.

Line 44 is the most difficult syntax among all parts of the source code `life.c`. In this part of the code, we initialize CA plane. In this particular example, this line sets the state of 30% of all the cells in CA to 1, and the rest of the cells have state 0. The arguments of InitialSet() specify the above: The first argument takes a variable which contains a plane we want to initialize (`Life` in our case); the second argument is the number of cell states we wants to put apart from the background cell states (we want to put state 1 apart from background cell state 0; thus the number here should be 1); the third argument is the state of background (in our case, 0); the forth argument is the state we want to put in the cells (in our case 1); the fifth argument is the fraction of the cells which get the cell state of the forth argument (in our case 0.3). For instance, if one wants to set the state of 5% of the cells to 2, the state of 10% of the cells to 1 and the rest to 0, then `InitialSet(Life,2,0,2,0.05,1,0.1)`.

The last line of the function, Line 46, set the boundaries of the CA plane by calling `Boundaries2()`. The value of boundaries are specified in `Initial()`.

4.3.4 `NextState()` function

Let us turn to the `NextState()` function (see below). This function defines a rule of CA. `NextState()` function takes two arguments, `row` and `col`. They are the coordinates of a cell to update. They are used to get an information about the neighborhood of the cell at position (row,col).

```c
void NextState(int row, int col)
{
  int sum;

  sum = CountMoore8(Life, 1, row, col);

  if(sum==3 || (sum==2 && Life[row][col].val==1)){
    Life[row][col].val = 1;
  }
  else{
    Life[row][col].val = 0;
  }
}
```

Listing 4.6: `NextState()` function

Line 51 defines a `int` type variable `sum`. The name suggests that it gets the sum of something. In Line 53, `CountMoore8()` counts the cells with state 1 in the Moore neighborhood of the cel at position (row,col). The number 8 in the name of the function means that the number of the neighbors is 8 and the counting does not consider the current cell itself. There are lots of variants of `CountMoore8()` available (see §5.1). The arguments to `CountMoore8()` function are as follows: The first argument is the variable of the plane on which one wants to count (`Life` in our case); the second argument is the state we want to count (`1` in our case); the third and the forth arguments are the coordinate of the cell where counting is performed. `CountMoore8()` function will return the number of cells with state 1, and the sign `=` stores this value in the variable `sum`.

The last part of the function (Line 55–60) contains the CA rule table. The lines which contain `if` and `else` are called **if-else statements** (see §5.2). In `Life[row][col].val` at Line 55, the square brackets "`[] []`" specifies which cell one refers to. The first clause specifies the row, and the second clause specifies the column. Thus, `Life[row][col]` enables one to access the cell at `[row][col]` (i.e. either to know or to modify its state). the postfix `.val` enables one to access the value of the cell called `val`. Line 56 assignes 1 to the variable `Life[row][col].val`—it sets the state of the cell at `[row][col]` to 1—if the condition in Line 55 is true. The same is true for Line 59.

Actually, there are more than one `val` in `Life[row][col]`. For instance, there is `Life[row][col].fval`, which takes a `double` type value (a floating number such as 3.14). For example, if one writes `Life[row][col].val = 3.14`, `Life[row][col].val` actually gets 3, instead of 3.14, because it is `int`. But, if one writes `Life[row][col].fval = 3.14`, then `Life[row][col].fval` indeed gets 3.14. There are also `val2`, `val3`, `val4` and `val5` for `int` type, and `fval2`, `fval3`, `fval4` and `fval5` for `double` type (see §5.1.2 for details).

4.3.5 `Update()` function

We are almost at the end. The last function, `Update()`, (see below) is a quite easy one. `Update()` will be called once every time step. In our case `Update()` will call `Display()` to diplay, and `Shynchronous()` to update the plane syhnchronously. The usages of these two function are as follows. `Display()` function takes the CA plane as its argument, thus `Life` in our case. To call `Shynchronous()` function, the first argument is the number of the planes we are updating, thus 1 in our case, the second argument is the CA plane, thus `Life`. If there are two planes, say `Plane1` and `Plane2`, then one writes `Display(Plane1,Plane2)` and `Shynchronous(2,Plane1,Plane2)`.

```
1  void Update(void)
2  {
3    Display(Life);
4    Synchronous(1,Life);
5  }
```

Listing 4.7: `Update()` function

Chapter 5

Advanced useage functions

5.1 Reference Manual

In this section, a summary of almost all the features of Cash2.1 is presented. It is recommended to read through it so that one can know what one can do and supposed to do. In the following, words followed by brackets are functions. The words within the brackets are arguments (parameters and objects used by the function). The word in front of the function name is the 'return type' of the function. If this value is `void`, that means the function returns nothing, but just modifies the objects passed to it (*e.g.* the CA grid), or set global variables like 'MaxTime'. Another common return is `int` which means that by calling the function, you get an integer value back. This can then be used to set a variable. Here's some examples: *e.g.*:

```
1  // NOTE This code and the functions are examplary, and not part of CASH2.1
2  int GlobalVariable = 0;
3
4  void SetGlobalVariable(int val) // A function that modifies something, but returns
       nothing
5  {
6    GlobalVariable = val;
7  }
8
```

```
 9  int Square(int val) // A function that modifies nothing, but returns something
10  {
11     return val*val;
12  }
13
14  SetGlobalVariable(1000);                  // Set GlobalVariable
15  a = 10;                                   // a set to 10
16  asquared = Square(a);                     // squared set to 100
17  printf("%d\n", Square(GlobalVariable));   // Prints to the terminal 1.000.000
```

Listing 5.1: `Update()` function

5.1.1   Functions that must be defined by the user

What follows here are all the function that have to be defined in the main program. Most of the time, you can simply grab one of the examples, and start modifying the NextState function, the Update function, and the Initial function to get something cool.

`void Initial(void)`
   The function is supposed to set parameters of the CA. The following parameters are available.

   `(int) nplane`
      The number of planes. Default is 0.

   `(int) nrow`
      The number of rows of CA planes. Default is 100.

   `(int) ncol`
      The number of columns of CA planes. Default is 100.

   `(int) scale`
      The window size. Default is 2.

   `(int) margin`
      The graphics of the CA planes will be shown in a window. `margin` specifies the margin between the edge of the window and the drawings of CA planes. If several planes are to be displayed, `margin` also specifies the margin between planes. Default is 0.

   `(TYPE2) boundaryvalue2`
      The value of the cells at boundaries. Boundaries are either at `[0][x]` or at `[nrow+1][x]` or at `[x][0]` or at `[x][ncol+1]`. This parameter must be set appropriately only in fixed boundary case. In the other types of boundary, this parameter is ignored. Default is {0,0,0,0,0,0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0,0.0}.

(int) boundary
> The type of the boundary. It can take either WRAP (tourus) or FIXED (fixed boundary) or ECHO (echoing boundary). WRAP, FIXED, ECHO are predefined.

(unsigned long) ulseedG
> The random seed. Default is 56.

(int) Time
> This variable is not supposed to be modified during whole simulation. Users can know the current time step via this variable.

(int) MaxTime
> The maximum number of iteration. Default is 2147483647 (=INT_MAX)

void InitialPlane(void)
> The function is supposed to call MakePlane() to create CA planes. The function is supposed to initilize CA planes. See InitialSet() and InitalSetS() functions below. The function is supposed to set boundaries by calling Boundaries2() (see § 5.1.3) if the type of boundary is FIXED.

void NextState(int *row*, int *col*)
> The function is supposed to describe the rule of CA. The argument row and col will takes the coordinate of the current cell to update.

void Update(void)
> The function will be called once every time step. The function is supposed to contain functions such as Diplay(), Plot(), Asynchronous(), Shynchronous etc (see § 5.1.3 and § 5.1.3). For example, an user can define a new function to investigate a CA plane, and call it in Update().

5.1.2   On TYPE2

TYPE2 is a structure type defined as

```
typedef struct __type2{
  int val;
  int val2;
  int val3;
  int val4;
  int val5;
  double fval;
```

```
  double fval2;
  double fval3;
  double fval4;
  double fval5;
} TYPE2;
```

A cell can contains ten different values. `val` has a special meaning: Its value is used for graphical display of the CA planes as follows:

0	black	6	brown	12	indigo
1	white	7	grey	13	maroon
2	red	8	violet	14	turquoise
3	green	9	cyan	15	green4
4	blue	10	magenta		
5	yellow	11	orange		

Apart from the above color table, the colors 16–255 are available. Look at `default.ctb` file in `cash2-s` directory. To change the color, see `ColorRGB()` (see§ 5.1.3).

To obtain the values of variables, say `fval2`, add `.fval2` at the end of the variable which contains a CA plane. For example, if the variable of a plane is called `Life`, then the value of `fval2` of the cell at coordinate `[row][col]` is obtained by `Life[row][col].fval2`.

5.1.3   Available functions

The notations are as follows. Italicized words in brackets are the name of the arguments, which should be replaced by appropriate names when functions are called. A word before the name of arguments are the type of the argument, which should be left out when using the function. A "..." in argument lists means that the number of arguments to the function is not fixed (the function can take multiple arguments).

Graphics

`int Display(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`)`

    The function displays the graphics of CA planes. When the function is called, the function will redraw (update) the graphics. The arguments to the function should be the variables of planes. The number of arguments to the function and `nplane` must be the same. For example, if one has two planes, say `Plane1` and `Plane2`, then one writes `Display(Plane1,Plane2)`. The order of the graphics of the planes displayed on the window is the same as the order of the

arguments given to the function. For example, `Plane1` is shown on the most left, and `Plane2` is shown next to `Plane1` on the right hand side.

int ColorRGB(int *ncolor*,int *red*,int *green*,int *blue*)
> The function sets the color table. `ncolor` is the index of the color. The color is specified by RGB values; the RGB values must be between 0 and 255 both inclusive. The function must be called within `InitialPlane()` function. For example, if one has called `ColorRGB(5,0,255,0)`, then the cell which has value 5 in its `.val` will be shown green in the graphics.

Easy neighborhood retrieval

The function makes it possible to access the neighborhood of an arbitrary cell of CA. Functions here access only to `val` of the cell. To access the other varialbes, such as `fval`, one can refers to §5.1.3.

int GetNeighbor(TYPE2** *plane*,int *row*,int *col*,int *direction*)
> The function returns the value of `.val` of the neighbor cells. `direction` specifies the direction of the neighbor. It takes either an symbolic name or an integer as defined in the following table.

NORTHWEST	NORTH	NORTHEAST		5	1	6
WEST	CENTRAL	EAST	or	2	0	3
SOUTHWEST	SOUTH	SOUTHEAST		7	4	8

> For example, if one writes:

> ```
> north = GetNeighbor(Plane1,row,col,NORTH);
> ```

> then `north` gets `val` of the north neighbor of the cell at `[row][col]`.

int RandomMoore8(TYPE2** *plane*,int *row*,int *col*)
> The function returns the value of `val` of the cell which is randomly chosen from Moore neighborhood of the cell at `[row][col]`. The number at the end of the function name represents the number of cells from which random choice is performed.

> For example, one writes:

> ```
> rand_neigh = RandomMoore8(Plane1,row,col);
> ```

then `rand_neigh` gets the value of `val` of the cell which is randomly chosen from Moore neighborhood. Note that one cannot know which neighbor is actually chosen (cf. § 5.1.3).

int RandomMoore9(TYPE2** *plane*,int *row*,int *col*)
:   The function returns the value of `val` of the cell which is randomly chosen from Moore neighborhood plus the cell at `[row][col]` (cf. `RandomMoore8()`).

int RandomNeumann4(TYPE2** *plane*,int *row*,int *col*)
:   The function is the same as `RandomMoore8` except that the neighborhood is von Neumann neighborhood (NORTH,EAST,SOUTH,WEST).

int RandomNeumann5(TYPE2** *plane*,int *row*,int *col*)
:   The function is the same as `RandomMoore9` except that the neighborhood is von Neumann neighborhood.

int CountMoore8(TYPE2 ** *plane*,int *aval*,int *row*,int *col*)
:   The function counts the number of cells which have the state `aval` in `val` in Moore neighborhood of the cell at `[row][col]`.
    For example, if one writes `count = CountMoore8(Plane1,1,row,col)`, then `count` gets the number of neighbors which have state 1 in `val`.

int CountMoore9(TYPE2 ** *plane*,int *aval*,int *row*,int *col*)
:   The function counts the number of cells which have the state `aval` in `val` in Moore neighborhood plus plus the cell at `[row][col]`.

int CountNeumann4(TYPE2 ** *plane*,int *aval*,int *row*,int *col*)
:   The function is the same as `CountMoore8()` function except that the neighborfood is von Neumann neighborhood.

int CountNeumann5(TYPE2 ** *plane*,int *aval*,int *row*,int *col*)
:   The function is the same as `CountMoore9()` function except that the neighborfood is von Neumann neighborhood.

int SumMoore8(TYPE2 ** *plane*,int *row*,int *col*)
:   The function sums up `val`) of the neighbors in the Moore neighborhood, and it returns the sum.

int SumMoore9(TYPE2 ** *plane*,int *row*,int *col*)
:   The function is the same as `SumMoore8()` except that it include the focal cell in summing.

`int SumNeumann4(TYPE2 ** `*`plane`*`,int `*`row`*`,int `*`col`*`)`
> The function is the same as `SumMoore8()` except that the neighborhood is Neumann neighborhood.

`int SumNeumann5(TYPE2 ** `*`plane`*`,int `*`row`*`,int `*`col`*`)`
> The function is the same as `SumNeumann4()` except that it include the focal cell in summing.

Advanced neighborhood retrieval

In this section, advanced methods of accessing the neighborhood will be explained. These methods enable one to use not only `val`, but also the other values of a cell such as `fval` (see 5.1.2 for the complete list of the available variables).

`TYPE2 GetNeighborS(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`,int `*`row`*`,int `*`col`*`,int `*`direction`*`)`
> The function returns the the state of the neighbor cell of the cell at `[row][col]`. `direction` specifies the direction of the neighbor as in `GetNeighbor()` function. The function is used when one wants to obtain the values of all the variables of the neighbor cell.
>
> For example, if one wants to obtain the value of `fval5` of the north cell of the cell at `Plane[row][col]`, then writes:
>
> ```
> TYPE2 neigh_state;
> neigh_state = GetNeighborS(Plane,row,col,NORTH)
> ```
>
> Then, `neighbor.fval5` will give the value of `fval5`.
>
> An important thing to note is that changing the value of the variable obtained in this way does not change the value of the neighbor cell. For instance, suppose one does the following:
>
> ```
> neigh_state = GetNeighborS(Plane,row,col,NORTH);
> neigh_state.fval5 = 1.4;
> ```
>
> This does not put value `1.4` in the variable `fval5` of the north neighbor. This is because, `neighbor` is a copy of the neighbor cell, but not the neighbor cell itself. To change the value of the neighbor cell, one must use `GetNeigborC()` function family or `GetNeigborP()` function family (see below).

`TYPE2 RandomMooreS8(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`,int `*`row`*`,int `*`col`*`)`

The runction returns the state of the cell which is randomly chosen from Moore neighborhood. Note that one can not modify the state of the neighboring cell with this function (see `GetNeighborS()` in this section).

`TYPE2 RandomMooreS9(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`,int `*`row`*`,int `*`col`*`)`

The runction returns the state of the cell which is randomly chosen from Moore neighborhood plus the cell at `[row][col]`. Note that one can not modify the state of the neighboring cell with this function (see `GetNeighborS()` in this section).

`TYPE2 RandomNeumannS4(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`,int `*`row`*`,int `*`col`*`)`
The same as `RandomMooreS8()` function except that the neighborhood is von Neumann neighborhood.

`TYPE2 RandomNeumannS5(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`,int `*`row`*`,int `*`col`*`)`
The same as `RandomMooreS9()` function except that the neighborhood is von Neumann neighborhood.

`TYPE2 CountMooreS8(TYPE2 ** `*`plane`*`,int `*`aval`*`,int `*`row`*`,int `*`col`*`)`

The function counts the number of cells which have `aval` value. The counting is done for each integer variable of the cell (from `val` to `val5`). The return value is a `TYPE2` value. For example, if one writes:

```
TYPE2 count;
count = CountMooreS8(Plane1,3,row,col);
```

then `count.val` contains the number of neighbors which has state 3 in `val`, and `count.val2` contains the number of neighbors which has state 3 in `val2`, and so forth.

`TYPE2 CountMooreS9(TYPE2 ** `*`plane`*`,int `*`aval`*`,int `*`row`*`,int `*`col`*`)`
The function does the same job as `CountMooreS8` does, but counting is done in the Moore neighborhood plus the cell at `[row][col]`.

`TYPE2 CountNeumannS4(TYPE2 ** `*`plane`*`,int `*`aval`*`,int `*`row`*`,int `*`col`*`)`
The function is the same as `CountMooreS8` except that the neighborhood is von Neumann neighborhood.

```
TYPE2 CountNeumannS5(TYPE2 ** plane,int aval,int row,int col)
```
The function is the same as `CountMooreS9` except that the neighborhood is von Neumann neighborhood.

```
int SumMooreS8(TYPE2 ** plane,int row,int col)
```

The function sums up all cell states of the neighboring cells in the Moore neighborhood. It returns the `TYPE2` type value. For example, if one writes

```
TYPE2 sum;
sum = SumMooreS8(Plane1,row,col);
```

then, `sum.val` is the sum of `val` in Moore neighborhood, and `sum.fval` is the sum of `fval` in Moore neighborhood, and so forth.

```
int SumMooreS9(TYPE2 ** plane,int row,int col)
```
The function is the same as `SumMooreS8()` except that it include the focal cell in summing.

```
int SumNeumannS4(TYPE2 ** plane,int row,int col)
```
The function is the same as `SumMooreS8()` except that the neighborhood is Neumann neighborhood.

```
int SumNeumannS5(TYPE2 ** plane,int row,int col)
```
The function is the same as `SumNeumannS4()` except that it include the focal cell in summing.

```
void GetNeighborC(TYPE2** plane,int row,int col,int direction,
    int* neirow,int* neicol)
```

The function is used to obtain the coordinate of the neighbor cell of the cell at `[row][col]`. `direction` specifies the direction of the neighbor as in `GetNeighbor()` function. The third and forth arguments must be an address of the variable in which the coordinate is stored. One can read and modify the state of the neighbor cell by using this funnction. For example, if one writes:

```
int neirow, neicol;
GetNeighborC(Plane,row,col,NORTH,&neirow,&neicol);
```

then, `neirow` and `neicol` will get the coordinate of the north neighbor of the cell at `[row][col]`. With the obtained coordinate, one can write:

```
Plane[neirow][neicol].val2 = 4;
```

Then the value of `val2` of the north neighbor will become 4.

void RandomMooreC8(TYPE2** *plane*,int *row*,int *col*,int* *neirow*,int* *neicol*)

The function puts the coordinate of the randomly chosen cell from the Moore neighborhood.
With this function, one can read and modify the state of the randomly chosen neighbor cell.
For example, if one wites:
`RandomMooreC8(Life,row,col,&neirow,&neicol);`
then `neirow` and `neicol` will get the coordinate of the cell which is randomly chosen (see also
`GetNeighborC()`).

void RandomMooreC9(TYPE2** *plane*,int *row*,int *col*,int* *neirow*,int* *neicol*)

The same as `RandomMooreC8()` function except that the focal cell at `[row][col]` is included
in the random choise.

void RandomNeumannC4(TYPE2** *plane*,int *row*,int *col*,int* *neirow*,int* *neicol*)

The same as `RandomMooreC8()` function except that the neighborfood is von Neumann neigh-
borhood.

void RandomNeumannC5(TYPE2** *plane*,int *row*,int *col*,int* *neirow*,int* *neicol*)

The function is the same as `RandomMooreC9()` function except that the neighborhood is von
Neumann neighborhood.

TYPE2* GetNeighborP(TYPE2** *plane*,int *row*,int *col*, int *nei*)

The function is the same as `GetNeighborS()` except that the function returns a pointer to the
neighbor cell. With this function, one can read and modify the state of the randomly chosen
neighbor cell. For example, if one writes

```
TYPE2* neip;
neip = GetNeighborP(Plane,row,col,NORTH);
```

then `neip->val` can be used to read and modify `val` of the north neighbor. One can write
`neip->val = 5` to set `val` to 5. The same is true for the other (`f`)`val`'s. See also `GetNeighborC()`,
which is perhaps more simple to use.

`TYPE2* RandomMooreP8(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`,int `*`row`*`,int `*`col`*`)`

> The function returns a pointer to the neighbor cell which is randomly chosen from the Moore neighborhood.

`TYPE2* RandomMooreP9(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`,int `*`row`*`,int `*`col`*`)`

> The same as `RandomMooreP8()` function except that the random choice includes the focal cell at `[row][col]`.

`TYPE2* RandomNeumannP4(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`,int `*`row`*`,int `*`col`*`)`

> The same as `RandomMooreP8` except that the neighborhood is von Neumann neighborhood.

`TYPE2* RandomNeumannP5(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`,int `*`row`*`,int `*`col`*`)`

> The same as `RandomMooreP9` except that the neighborhood is von Neumann neighborhood.

Initilization

`int InitialSet(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`,int `*`nval`*`, int `*`bground`*`,...)`

> This function initializes the CA plane. The second argument is the number of cell states one wants to use in initialization apart from the background state, which is given as the third argument. If *nval* is larger than 0, the additional arguments should be supplied: The number of additional arguments is twice as much as *nval*; the first additional argument is a cell state; the second additional argument is the fraction of the space which will get the cell state of the previous argument (between 0–1); the third (state) and forth (fraction) arguments are about another cell state, and so on.
>
> For example, if one wants to put state 1 with the fraction of 0.1 and state 2 with the fraction of 0.2, and the rest of cells have state 0 (background state), then write
>
> `\InitialSet(plane,2,0,1,0.1,2,0.2);`

`int InitialSpot(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`,int `*`val`*`, int `*`size`*`, `*`offset`*`)`

> An alternative function to initializing your plane, by placing a small circle in the middle of the grid. For example, if one wants to put a small clump of cells with state 1 on the grid, one can use val 1, size 20, and offset 0:
>
> `\InitialSpot(plane,1,10,0);`

int InitialSetS(TYPE2** *plane*,int *nval*,TYPE2 *bground*,...)

The function is the same as InitialSet() function except that the function takes TYPE2 value
as arguments for the cell state. For example, if one wants to set val to 1 and fval to 0.1 for
30% of the cells, and val to 2 and fval to 0.2 for 60% of the cells, and the rest of the cells
have state 0 in val and value 0.0 in fval, then write the following:

```
InitialPlane(void){
    TYPE2 bg, s1, s2; /* background; state 1; state 2 */
    bg.val = 0;
    bg.fval 0.0;
    s1.val = 1;
    s1.fval = 0.1;
    s2.val = 2;
    s2.fval = 0.2;
    InitialSetS(plane,2,bg,s1,0.3,s2,0.6);
}
```

void MakePlane(TYPE2*** *plane1*,...)

The function create—i.e. allocate memory to—planes. If one wants to use 3 planes, then set
nplane to 3 in Initial(), and write MakePlane(&Plane1,&Plane2,&Plane3) in InitialPlane(),
where the name of planes are arbitrary.

void Boundaries2(void)

The function sets boundaries of the CA. This is necessary only when the boundary type is
FIXED. The value of boundaries is specified in Init() by assigning an appropriate value to
boundaryvalues2.

Updation

void SpaceTimePlot(TYPE2** *spacetime*,TYPE2** *plane*)

The function makes a space-time plot. The space-time plot will be stored in *spacetime* and
created from *plane*. The section will be horizontal at nrow/2. For example, if one writes

SpaceTimePlot(STPlot,Plane);
Display(STPlot,Plane);

then the row at row/2 will be copied into a row of STPlot so that STPlot is space time plot.
The other rows of Plane will not be shown in STPlot.

`void MDiffusion(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`)`

The function does one step Margolus diffusion on *plane*. Note that all the (`f`)`val`'s move together.

`void ObstacleMargolus(TYPE2** `*`diffusing_plane`*`, TYPE2** `*`obstacle_plane`*`, int `*`obstacle_int`*`)`

`void PerfectMix(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`)`

The function mixes the plane perfectly. Note that all the (`f`)`val`'s move together.

`void DiffusionFVAL(TYPE2** `*`plane`*`,double `*`dconst`*`,int `*`fval_index`*`)`

The function performs diffusion on the floating number stored in a chosen variable on `plane`. `fval_index` specifies the variable; e.g., if `fval_index=3`, then the diffusion is done for `fval3`. `dconst` is the diffusion constant; note that if the diffusion constant is too large, the diffusion does not go correct.

`void Plot(int npl,TYPE2** Plane1,...)`

The function counts the number of cells which have state 1, 2, ... and 15 in `val`, then it plots the population of the cells against `Time` and will show it on Xmgrace. The default colors of the cell on the graphics, and the colors of the lines in Xmgrace are corresponding to each other; e.g., state 2 is red, the line which shows the population of cells which has state 2 is also red. The population of state 1 cell will be displayed in black although state 1 is white in the default graphics. The first argument is the number of planes on which one wants to count; thus not necessarily equal to `nplane`; one may not want to count the cells on space-time plot. From the second argument, one should supply CA planes on which one wants to count.

`void PlotArray(double data[15])`

The function plot what is in `data`. x in `data[`x`]` corresponds the set x in Xmgrace. The size of array must be 15. Do not use `Plot()` function and `PlotArray()` function together. Given one wants to plot $f(t) = t$, $f(t) = t^2$ and $f(t) = sin(t)$ where t is time, then an example is as follows.

```
Update(void)
{
  double x[15] = {0.,}; /* This is called an array. If one does this, one can use
                           it like x[0], x[1], ... , x[14]. */

  x[0] = Time; /* Time is already defined in the library */
  x[1] = Time*Time;
  x[2] = sin(Time);
  PlotArray(x); /* Do not put [] after x */
}
```

Then, sets s0, s1 and s2 in Xmgrace will get a value of `x[0]`, `x[1]` and `x[2]` respectively. Sets s3–s14 will get 0.0 always.

void PlotXY(double `x`,double `y`)

The function plots the value of `x` and `y` in Xmgrace. For example, if one writes

```
Update(void){
    double number_now;
    double number_before;
    number_before = countGlobal(Plane1,1);
    Asynchronous();
    number_now = countGlobal(Plane1,1);
    PlotXY(number_before,number_now);
}
```

then, one can draw a Taken's plot with time interval of one, i.e. the plot of (x_t, x_{t+1}) for $x_{t+1} = f(x_t)$.

int countGlobal(TYPE2** `plane`, int `state`)

The function counts the number of cells in CA of which `val` has state `state`. For example, if one writes `x = countGlobal(Plane,5)`, then `x` gets the number of cells which has state 5 in `val`. (See also `PlotXY()`).

void Asynchronous(void)

The function does one step of asynchronous updating depending on `NextState()` function.

void Synchronous(int `npl`, TYPE2** `plane1`,...)

The function does one step of synchronous updating depending on `NextState()` function. The argument `npl` should take the number of planes for which updating should be done, and need not to be the same as `nplane`; one usually does not want to update a plane for, say, space-time plot, which will be updated by `SpaceTimePlot()`. The argument `plane1` takes the plane which one wants to update. If there is more than one, say three planes, then one can write:

```
Synchronous(3,plane1,plane2,plane3);
```

It is recommended that `Update(row,col)` should not modify the state of cells except for the focal cell at `row,col` when `Shynchronous()` is used. Otherwise, the updating is not done synchronously anymore.

IO

void SavePlane(char* *filename*,TYPE2** *plane*,...)
   (currently obsolete)

void ReadSavedData(char* *filename*,int *npl*,TYPE2** *plane*) Despite SavePlane being obsolete, this one still works. You can even type your own table to use as input. `npl` is the number of planes given to the function. Note that `npl` does not have to be the same as `nplane`, which the total number of planes. An example is as follows.

```
1  InitialPlane ( void ){
2      ReadSavedData ( ''bud.sav '' ,1 , Obstacle );
3  }
```

5.2   If-else

If-else statements is one of the standard **control-flow** statements in C, and control-flow statements control which line of the code is executed according to arbitrary rules. The usage of the if-else statements is the following.

```
1  if ( condition 1 ) {
2      orders 1
3  }
4  else   if ( condition 2 ) {
5      orders 2
6  }
7  else   if ( condition 3 ) {
8      orders 3
9  }
10 .
11 .
12 .
13 else   if ( condition n − 1 ) {
14     orders n − 1
15 }
16 else {
17     orders n
18 }
```

Listing 5.2: if-else statement

If condition 1 is true, then execute orders 1, else if condition 2 is true, then execute orders 2, ... , else execute orders n. The curry braces surrounding each set of orders tell the program from which line to which line the program should execute if the condition is true. One can put as many `else if` as one wants. One can also omit `else if` and `else` completely (but not `if`). To define the conditions, we use the following primitives:

- `(a == b)`   a is equal to `b`

- `(a  > b)`   a larger than `b`

- `(a >= b)`   a is larger than or equal to `b`

- `(a <  b)`   a is smaller than `b`

- `(a <= b)`   a is smaller than or equal to `b`

- `(a != b)`   a is not equal `b`

In order to combine several conditions such that "(if condition 1 is true) AND (if condition 2 is true)", we can use the following primitives:

- `((a==b) && (c==d))`   a is equal to `b` AND `c` is equal to `d`

- `((a==b) || (c==d))`   a is equal to `b` OR `c` is equal to `d`

Brackets "()" specifies the order of the evaluation. This is like in mathematics—$1 + 3 \times 5$ is different from $(1 + 3) \times 5$. Therefore, `((a==b||c==d)&&(a>c))` is different from `((a==b)||(c==d && a>c))`. Note that the meaning of `=` and `==` is very different.

5.3   For-loop

For-loop is also one of the control-flow statements in C; it is very useful. In this section, we will see how to use a for-loop. The following is the example of the usage where one adds 1, 2, 3, . . . and 10.

```
x = 0;
for( i =1; i <=10; i=i +1){
    x = x + i;
}
```

Listing 5.3: for-loop statement

In the above example, `i` starts from being 1, and the lines within the curry braces will be executed many times until `i<=10` is not true anymore; when `i` becomes 11, the execution goes out of the curry braces. Each time the execution go thorough the loop, `i=i+1` is executed one; thus `i` increases by 1 in each time. The result will be that `x` is 55. By the way, `i` must be defined somewhere. In the following example, one counts the number of cells of which `fval` is larger than 5.0.

```
counter = 0;
for(i=1;i<=nrow;i=i+1){
    for(j=1;j<=ncol;j=j+1){
        if(Plane[i][j].fval > 0.5){
            counter = counter + 1;
        }
    }
}
```

Listing 5.4: Counting something

`i`, `j` and `counter` must be defined somewhere, but `nrow` and `ncol` are already defined. Usually, instead of `i=i+1;`, the statement `i++;` is used, and it has the same effect—inclement by 1. Therefore, we can also write `counter++;` instead of `counter=counter+1;`

5.4 Pseudo random number generator

Pseudo random number generator is used for stochastic simulation. The function `genrand_real1()` returns a floating number (`double` type) randomly between 0 and 1 (both inclusive) with uniform distribution. If one writes:

```
if(genrand_real1() < 0.3){
    something1;
}else{
    something2
}
```

Listing 5.5: Counting something

then `something1` is executed with a probability 0.3, while `something2` is executed with a probability 0.7.

Chapter 6

FAQ

6.1 Questions on installing Cash2.1

Q: I get errors when launching Ubuntu for Windows for the first time
A: You probably did not enable all the developer mode options from step 1/5

Q: I do not get any graphs or display when running Cash2.1
A: Windows/Mac users, did you install an X server (VcXsrv or Xquartz)? Are you sure it is running? For Windows, is the global DISPLAY variable in ∼/.bashrc correctly set to 0:0?

Q: When compiling, it says 'Error: linker/library not found'
A: One of the dependencies (see Chapter on Installation) is not corretly installed, or your machine cannot find it. It could be installed in a different location if you're working from your own computer. For the latter, try adjusting the makefiles -I and -L options by adding your paths.

Still not working? Contact bramvandijk88 [AT] gmail.com

6.2 Questions on programming in Cash2.1

- I want to count things

  `countGlobal`, for-loop.

- I want to plot things
  `Plot`, `PlotArray`, `PlotXY`

- I want to repeat something simple many times
  For-loop.

- I want to use more than one variables per cell
  See §5.1.2.

- I want to use more than one plane
  `MakePlanes()`, `Display()` and `nplane`.

- I want to modify the state of neighbor cells
  `RandomMooreC8()` and `RandomMooreP8()`, etc.

- I want to do something once in so many time steps
  `if(Time%so_many_time_steps==0)`.

- Every time a function is called, a variable gets a unknown number
  Initilize the variable. Put `static` in front.

- How to do stochastic simulation?
  See §Pseudo random number generator.