

History of Computing:-

Features of C:-

- procedural language
 - Middle level language
 - Direct access to memory through pointers
 - Bit manipulation using bitwise operators
 - Writing assembly code with C code
 - popular choice for system level apps
 - Wide variety of built-in functions, standard libraries and header files
 - ↳ printf
- } system level features

Example in C

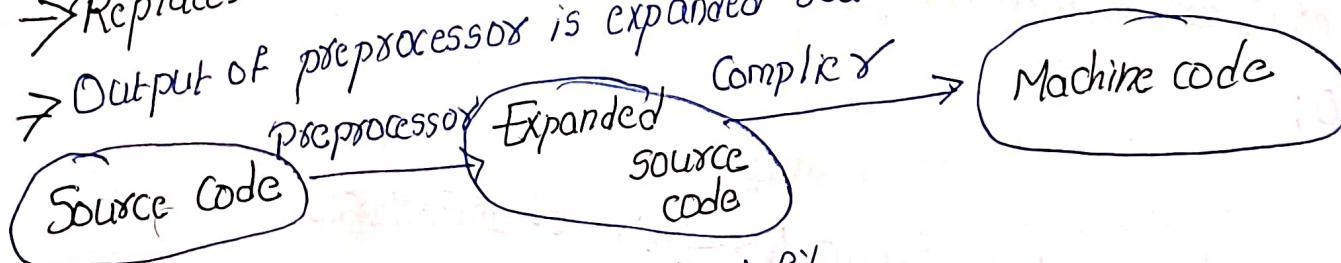
```
// → Comments      # include <stdio.h>
```

It is a preprocessor. It replaces text (starting with #) with actual content.

→ Replaces before the compilation begins

→ Output of preprocessor is expanded source code

→ Compiler



stdio.h → Standard input output file

→ header file

→ Contains declarations (prototypes) of functions like printf, scanf etc

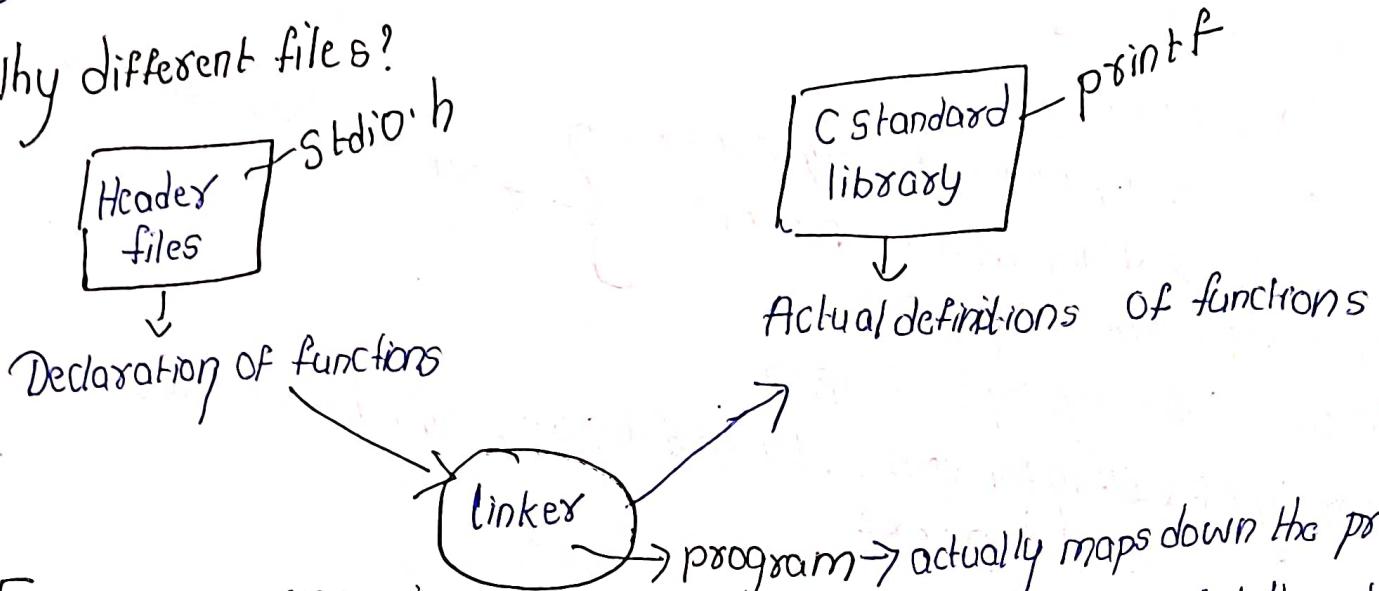
Syntax of a function:-

Return-type name_of_function (parameter_type name_of_parameter, parameter_type name_of_parameter ...)

Set of statements

}

Why different files?



Example of a program:-

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
int main()
```

```
{  
    printf("Eswar Kumar Anantha");  
    return 0;  
}
```

program → actually maps down the prototypes mentioned by pre-processor to the actual codes written in this standard library. It simply maps and doesn't copy and paste content like preprocessor

→ Comment out the `#include <stdio.h>` → Use of undeclared identifier → `printf`

→ Remove the semicolon after `printf` → expected ';' after expression

→ Remove `int return` type from `main` → C requires a type specifier for all declarations

→ Instead of 0 in `return` write any integer you want → ~~Some error~~ no error

→ Replace 0 with some character like 'a' → ~~Some error~~ no error

→ Remove semicolon ; after `return` → expected ';' after `return` statement

Variable:-

→ Declaring Variable before we use
Declaration: announcing the properties of Variable to the compiler
Properties: size of the Variable and name of the Variable
Definition of Variable: allocating memory to a Variable
Most of the time declaration and definition will be done at same time
Example `int Var;` → Data type: how much space a variable is going to occupy in memory
→ Name of Variable

Initialization:- `int Var=3;` (Initially it is storing and we can change after)

Variable = vary-able
Variable must be done always once and use multiple times

Variable naming conventions:-

Variable name: - Composed of letters or combination of letters (both upper and lower case) and digits
Rule: don't start varname with digit → beginning with underscore is valid but not recommended → Case Sensitive → Special characters (@, #, %, ^, \$, * ...) not allowed in the name of variable
→ Blanks or white spaces not allowed. → Don't use keywords to name your variables. → Don't use long names for variables.

Basic Output function - printf:-

printf ("%d", Var); %d is a place holder for Variable

"d" means decimal

printf ("%d %d %d", Var1, Var2,);
corry:

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

```
{ int two = 2, three = 3, six = 6;
    int result = (two + three) * six / three;
    printf ("%d + %d * %d / %d", two, three, six, three);
    printf ("%d", result);
    return 0;
```

170
7

Fundamental data types - integer

Wanna know size programmatically? \Rightarrow Use "size of" operator
 \Rightarrow Size of is a unary operator and not a function

Range: Upper and lower limit of some set of data - for example {0, 1, 2, 3, 4}

Range: 0 to 4

Decimal number system (base 10) \Rightarrow Range: 0 to 9

Binary number system: Machine understandable number system also called as

base 2 number system \Rightarrow Range 0 to 1 for maximum of n bit

For 4 bit data \Rightarrow Range 0 to 15

$$12^n - 1$$

Range of integers

for 2 bytes \rightarrow Unsigned range: 0 to 65535 (by applying $2^n - 1$)

(16 bits) Signed range: -32768 to +32767

2^n Complement range: $-(2^{n-1})$ to $+(2^{n-1})$

If PC supports
4 bytes → Unsigned range 0 to 4294967295
(32 bits) Signed range: -2147483648 to +2147483647

Modifiers:

Long and short: If integer is 4 bytes → long int may be 8 bytes
Syntax: - size of (short int) → short int may be 2 bytes
⇒ size of (short) <= size of (int) <= size of (long)

Note: - by default int some_variable_name; is signed integer variable
→ Unsigned int some_variable_name; allows only positive values

Programming Examples:-

①

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <limits.h> → To determine
int main() min and max
{ value of system
    int var1 = INT_MIN;
    int var2 = INT_MAX;
```

Range of signed integer is from:
printf ("%d to %d", var1, var2);
} return 0;

O/p: - ⇒ -2147483648 to 2147483647

②

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <limits.h>
int main()
{
    unsigned int Var1 = 0;
    unsigned int Var2 = UINT_MAX; → unsigned decimal
    printf ("%u to %u", Var1, Var2);
    return 0;
}
```

O/p: - 0 to 4294967295

③

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <limits.h>
int main ()
{
    short int Var1 = SHRT_MIN;
    short int Var2 = SHRT_MAX;
    printf("Range : %d to %d", Var1, Var2);
    return 0;
}
```

O/p:- -32768 to 32767

→ Short → long %u → %ld %u → %Lu → unsigned long integer
if sizeof(long int) = 4 bytes else if sizeof(long int) = 8 bytes
then sizeof(long long int) = 8 bytes then sizeof(long long int) = 8 bytes

→ Exceeding the unsigned and signed range:-

Let's take an example of 3bit (unsigned range)

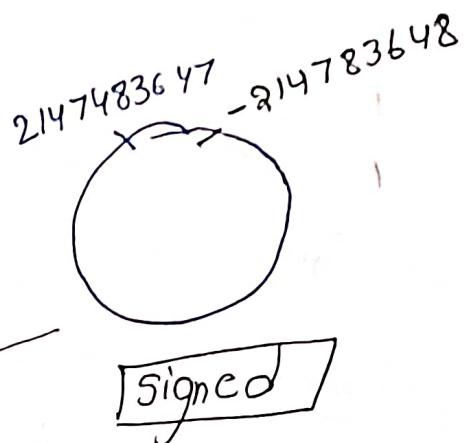
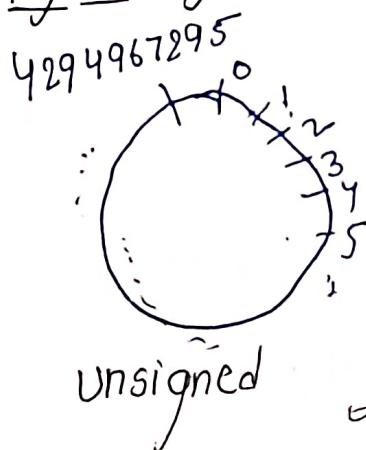
000	→ 0
100	→ 4
101	→ 5
110	→ 6
111	→ 7
1000	→ 0
1001	→ 1

↓
9

It looks like 8 mod function
So it returns 0 when 8 is there and 1 when 9 and
[101] it is cycle

for 32 bit unsigned data $\rightarrow \text{Mod } 2^{32}$ | for n bit unsigned data $\rightarrow \text{Mod } 2^n$

Signed range:-



$$\Rightarrow 2147483648 \rightarrow -214783648 \\ -2147483649 \rightarrow 2147483647 \xrightarrow{\text{max or signed}}$$

Fundamental data type $\rightarrow \text{char}$ -

char Eswar = 'N'; (only single not double quotes)
char data type can have only characters. It can't hold the string to it
char only hold 1 byte of information

char Eswar = 65;

%c \rightarrow Format specifier for character

Example:-

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

```
{
```

```
    char var = 65;
```

```
    printf("%c", var);
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

O/P:- A (acc to Ascitable)

Size and range of character

Size

1 byte = 8 bits

Range

Unsigned \rightarrow 0 to 255

Signed \rightarrow -128 to +127

Signed vs Unsigned

$+128 = 1000000$	$+128 = 1000000$
$-127 = 1000001$	$-127 = 1000001$
$+129 = 1000001$	$+130 = 1000010$

So they point same char (acc to Ascitable)

float, double and long double :- used to represent fractional numbers
float \Rightarrow 4 bytes double \Rightarrow 8 bytes long double \Rightarrow 12 bytes

Size of these data types totally depend from system I/O system

- float \Rightarrow IEEE 754 single precision floating point
- double \Rightarrow IEEE 754 double precision floating " %f \Rightarrow place holder
- long double \Rightarrow Extended precision floating "

fixed point representation

Ex:
 $\frac{9}{10} = \frac{9}{10}$ → $\frac{9}{10}$ integer fraction
 Sign

That's why floating point representation choose over fixed point representation.

Floating point representation

Example:

$\frac{9}{10} = \frac{+9}{10}$ monHSA.
 Sign Exponent

$$0.M \times \text{Base}^{\text{Exp}}$$

$$\text{Min.} = -0.9 \times 10^{+9}$$

$$\text{Max.} = +0.9 \times 10^{+9}$$

float var1 = 3.142f; . . .

printf("%f\n", var1);

%f is a placeholder for longdouble/c
%d is a placeholder for ~~long~~ double

float → upto 6 decimal points
double → upto 15 decimal points
long double → upto 18 decimal points
accurate after that everything will change e

→ division or multiplication or addition (or) such

⇒ int/int → int int/float → float

float + float
float

%s → string of character 8

printf("%d", printf("%s", "Hello World!"));

O/P:- Hello World 12

printf("%10s", "Hello");

O/P:- Hello
 ↑ whitespaces

10 characters wide

it will print first second print then first

Char c = 255;

c = C + 10;

printf("%d", c);

return 0;

exceeding the range

⇒ 28

256 265
 |
 1 - 9

Ans: 9

int i \Leftrightarrow signed int i

Signed i; \rightarrow Because integer is implicitly assumed
Unsigned i;
long i;
long long i;

Unsigned i = 1;

int j = -4;

printf("%u", i+j);

return 0;

3

\rightarrow check if $\boxed{\%d}$

it returns
Signed Integer
 $(\%d)$

Defining scope of variable:

Scope = lifetime:

Local Variable \rightarrow Inside the function after that automatically destroys

global variable \rightarrow Outside the function

\Rightarrow System choose local than global

What is AUTO Modifiers?

Auto means automatic

Variables declared inside a scope by default are automatic variables

⇒ for auto variable if the value is not assigned it produces some garbage value.

⇒ on other hand, global variable by default initialized

Extern modifier:-

int var;

Declaration and definition

⇒ Extern is shorthand for external

⇒ Used when a particular file needs to access a variable from

another file

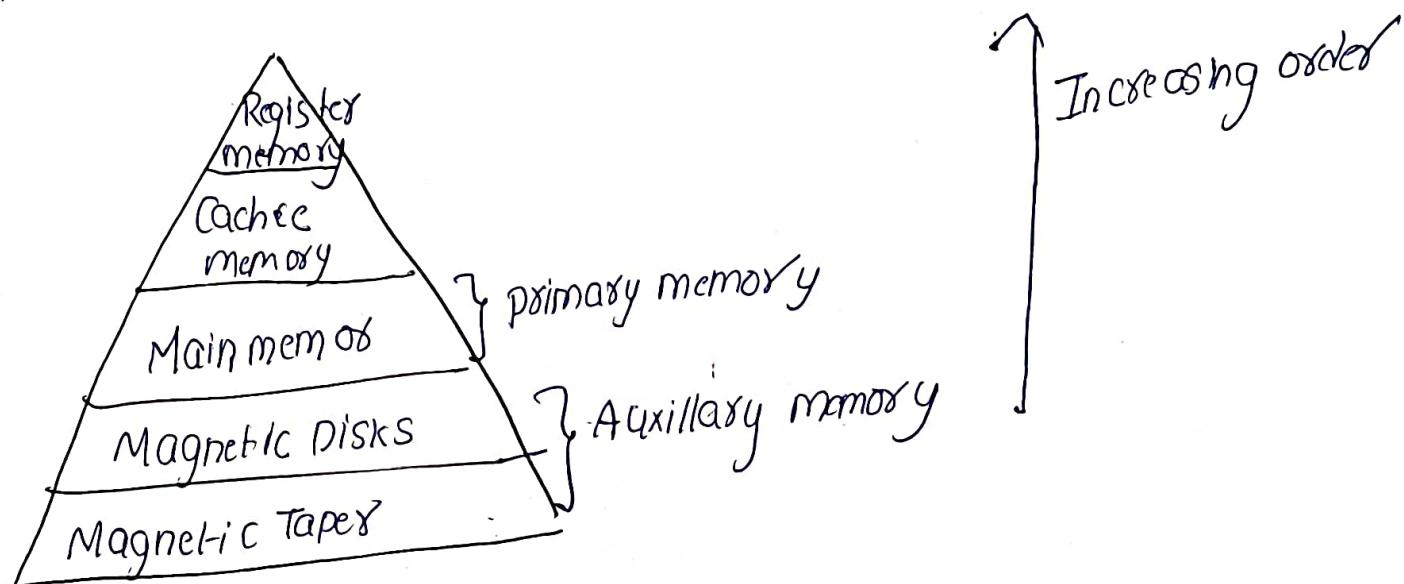
If Extern int var = 9; (then it is declared and defined)

extern int var;

Declaration

Multiplic times of declaring is allowed

not allocating memory



What is register modifier?

Syntax:- register int var;

⇒ Register keyword hints the compiler to store a variable in register memory

⇒ This is because access time of register memory is so high

Constants:

using #define using const

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define PI 3.14159
```

"...is 11?

```
int main () {  
    printf ("%.5f", PI);  
    return 0;  
}
```

- please don't add semicolon at the end
- choosing capital letters for NAME is a good practice
- Whatever inside double quotes will not be printed
- We can use macros like functions (video) → video
We can write multiple line using \ → video
- 6) First expansion then evaluation → video

radioactive iodine labeled microspheres

7) Some predefined ...
- TIME - = Can print date and time

7) Some predefined
- TIME -- Can print date and time
[] (Read only value)
- int var1; (Assigned)

Syntax of Const :- Const INF :- Can't assign var1 to another value only that is fixed

qui

```
int var = 52  
printf("%d", var);
```

→ If O is present it's treated.

~~815~~ (052) 828

$$5 \times 8 + 2 = 42$$

"%d" → format specifier

Scanf → Scan formatted String

Accept character, string and numeric data from user using input-keyword

Scanf also use format specifiers like printf

Ex: %d to accept input of integers

int var;

scanf("%d", &var);

Why &? → While scanning the input, scanf needs to store that input data somewhere
To store this input data, scanf needs to know the memory location of a variable.

That's why we use &var

quiz

int var = 0x43FF;

printf("%X", var);

What if "%d"

It represents the hexadecimal value

"%X" → format specifier for hexadecimal

Operators in C:-

Arithmetic operators

+, -, *, /, %

Increment/decrement operators

++, --

Relational operators

==, !=, <=, >=, <, >

Logical operator

&&, ||, !

Bitwise operators

&, ^, |, ~, >>, <<

Assignment operators

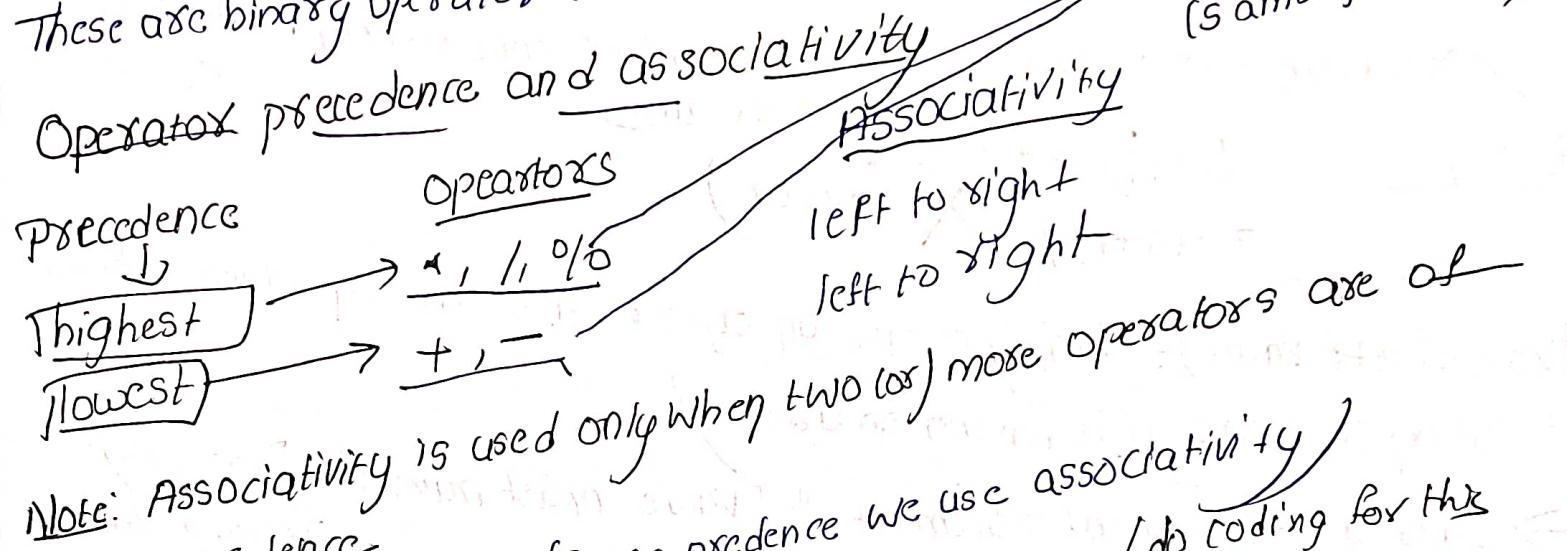
=, +=, -=, *=, /=, %=,
<=, >=, &=, |=, ||=

Other operators

?; & * size of () ,

Arithmetic operations $\rightarrow +, -, *, /, \%$

These are binary operators.



Note: Associativity is used only when two (or) more operators are of same precedence
for example: $+, -$ (same precedence we use associativity) (do coding for this)

Increament and decreament operator:-

\Rightarrow Increament operator is used to increament the value of a variable by one. Similarly, decreament operator is used to decreament the value of a variable by one

int a=5;

a++;

a=6

(a++ = a+1)

int a=5;

a--;

a=4

$a-- = a-1$

→ Both are unary operators.

$a+a;$ X (only unary operator)

post-increment operator

Pre-increment operator

$++a;$

$a+t;$

$--a;$

$a-;$

→ You can't use \cancel{x} value before or after increment/decrement operator

Example: $(a+b) + t;$ X (error)

$++(a+b);$

LValue (left Value): Simply means an object that has an identifiable location in memory (ie having an address).

"LValue" must have the capability to hold data

→ In any assignment statement

→ So it must be variable → LValue cannot be a function expression

(like $a+b$) or a constant (like 3, 4 etc.)

RValue (right Value): Simply means an object that has no identifiable location in memory.

→ Anything which is capable of returning constant value

→ Expression like $a+b$ will return constant value

hold data
 $a++;$ return constant
 $c = a+t;$

$(a+b) t+;$ hold data or X
 $a+b = a+b + 1;$
hold data X

difference b/w preincrement/decrement and postincrement/decrement value

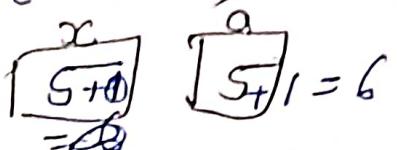
Pre \rightarrow means first increment/decrement then assign it to another variable

Post \rightarrow first assign it to another variable then increment/decrement

$$x = ++a;$$



$$x = a + t;$$



$$a=4 \quad b=3; \quad [a++ + b] ?$$

Token generation \rightarrow

\rightarrow lexical analysis is first phase in compilation process
 \rightarrow Lexical analyzer (scanner) scans the whole source program and when it finds meaningful sequence of characters (lexemes) then it converts it into a token

Token: lexemes mapped into token-name and attribute-value

Ex: int \rightarrow <keyword, int>

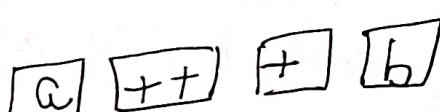
\rightarrow It always matches the longest character sequence

$$\text{int} - a = 4;$$



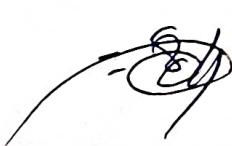
$$a = 4; \quad b = 3;$$

$$a++ + b$$



Post increment
 \rightarrow first-use value
in eqn then
increment it

$$4 + 3 = 7 //$$



$a + \underline{+} + b$ space

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}\hline a & + & ++b \\ \hline \end{array}$$
$$4 + 4 = 8$$

Preincrement: First increment the value and then use in the equation after completion of equation

$a + ++ + b$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}\hline a++ & + & ++b \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\Rightarrow 4 + 4 = 8$$

$\cancel{a} \cancel{b} \cancel{+}$ - do
no meaning
 $a=4, b=4;$

Relational operators $=, !=, \leq, \geq, <, >$

Comparing two values

→ All relational operators will return either True (or) False

Logical operator:

$\&\&$, $\|\|$, $!$ → NOT

AND

OR

$\&\&$ and $\|\|$ are used to combine two conditions

$\&\&$ → Returns True when all conditions under True or else False

$\&\&$ → Returns True if one (or) more conditions (or) else False

$!$ operator is used to complement when the condition under consideration

$!$ → Returns True when condition is false and vice versa

$a = 5$

if ($!(a == 6)$)
 print("Eswar");

Short Circuit in case of &&:- Simply means if there is a condition anywhere in the expression that returns false, then rest of conditions after that will not be evaluated.

Video → check with `--a` where $a = 1$

Short circuit in case of ||:- Simply means if there is a condition anywhere in the expression that returns true, then rest of the conditions will not be evaluated.

Video

Bitwise Operators

1) It does bitwise manipulation

`&, |, ~, <<, >>, ^`

Difference between bitwise and logical operators :-

`char x = 1, y = 2;`

`if (x & y)`
 printf ("Result of x & y is 0");

`if (x && y)`
 printf ("Result of x && y is 1");

`0001
0010`

Left Shift Operator

First Operand `<<` second Operand

whose bits get left shifted

↓ decides number of places to shift

\Rightarrow left shifting is equivalent to multiplication by $2^{\text{right operand}}$

$\text{var} = 3; \quad \text{var} \ll 1 \quad \text{output} \div 6 (3 \times 2^1)$

$\text{var} \ll 4 \quad \text{output} \div 48 (3 \times 2^4)$

Right Shift first operand $>>$ second operand

$\text{var} = 3 \quad \text{var} >> 1 \quad (3/2) = 1$

Right shifting is equivalent to division by $2^{\text{right operand}}$

$\text{var} >> 3 \quad (3/2^3) = 0$

XOR -

Inclusive OR

\rightarrow Either A or B is 1 or Both are

\Leftrightarrow Including both

Exclusive OR

Either A is 1 or B is 1 then output is 1 but both A and B are 1 then output is 0

* Excluding both

int a = 4 b = 3;

$$a = a \wedge b;$$

$$b = a \wedge b;$$

$$a = a \wedge b;$$

$$a = 4 \wedge 3$$

$$a = 5$$

$$b = 5 \wedge 3$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 0110 \\
 0011 \\
 \hline
 0101
 \end{array}$$

$= 5^{+1}$

~~0101~~

$$\begin{array}{r}
 0101 \\
 0110 \\
 \hline
 0011
 \end{array}$$

$$b = 6$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 a = 5 \wedge 6 \\
 0101 \\
 0110 \\
 \hline
 0010
 \end{array}$$

$$= 7$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 0101 \\
 0011 \\
 \hline
 0110
 \end{array}$$

~~0101~~

Assignment operator - (Binary value)

L-value R-value .

This operator copies R-value to L-value

L-value $\boxed{\text{var} = 5}$; R-value

$+ = - = * = / = \% = << = >> = \& = | = ^ =$

Assignment operator is having least precedence except comma operators

$$\boxed{a + 1} \Rightarrow \boxed{a = a + 1}$$

char a = 7

$$\boxed{a^1 = 5}$$

(2)

(2)

$$\begin{array}{r} 0111 \\ 0101 \\ \hline 0010 \end{array}$$

$$a + 3$$

$$a = \frac{a + 3}{2 + 3} = \boxed{5}$$

Conditional Operator

result = (marks > 33) ? 'P' : 'F';

⇒ quick facts about conditional operator :-
⇒ Conditional operator is only ternary operator available in
list of operators in clangage int result;

Exp1? Exp2: Exp3

result 0 ? 1 : 2;

if
none

Comma (,) operator:-

⇒ Comma Operator is used as separator

⇒ Comma Operator can be used as an operator

int a = (3, 4, 8);

printf("%d", a);

Comma returns right most operator
and simply rejects everything
but evaluate it

a = 8

int var = (printf(~~(%d)~~ ("s/n", Hello), 5));
printf(var);

③ Comma operator having least precedence

int a = 3, 4, 8; — Compile

Bracket has highest precedence among all operators

Precedence of operators — Precedence of a operator

comes into picture when in an expression we need to

decide which operator will be evaluated first. Operator

with higher precedence will be evaluated first

Associativity of operators — Associativity of operators come into

picture when precedence of operators are same and we need to

decide which operator will be evaluated first

Left to right

() → parenthesis in function calls (highest precedence) → function
If suppose = operator is having greater precedence then, fun will belong
to = operator and therefore it will be treated as a variable e.

Member access operator (\rightarrow): -

They are used to access members of structure

They are used to do postfix Increment/Decrement (+, -)

They are used to access members of postfix Increment/Decrement (+, -) ⇒ Precedence of Post fix Increment/decrement operator is greater than Increment-/Decrement

prefix Increment- / Decrement
... a postfix operator is left to right

\Rightarrow Associativity of postfix operators is right to left
 \Rightarrow Associativity of prefix operators is right to left

111+
188 0
0001
00

$$\begin{array}{r} 0010 \\ 0001 \\ \hline 11 \end{array}$$

If Else: - Nested If
switch is a great replacement to long else if constructs

$$\int \ln t - x = 2;$$

switch(x)

{ Case 1: printf ("CISI");
break;

{ Case 1: printf ("C(S1");
break;
... (2) is 2).

default: printf ("x is another number")

break;

Facts related to switch:-

- 1) You are not allowed to add duplicate cases
- 2) Only those expression are allowed in switch which results in an integral constant value (not floating point)
- 3) Floating constants are not used in case value even case $B^4 + 5$ - allowed case 1.5 - not allowed
- 4) Variables are not allowed in case statement but macros are allowed
- 5) Default can be placed anywhere inside switch. It will still get evaluated if no match is found

Importance of loops:

Syntax of while:-

while (expression)

{
 St1;
 St2;
 }
}

for loop:

Syntax of for loop:

for (initialization; condition; increment/decrement)

{
 Statements;
 }

Difference b/w While loop and do while loop:-

While:

```
int i = 0;
while (i > 0)
{
  printf ("%d", i);
  i--;
}
```

int i = 0;

do

{ printf ("%d", i);

 i--;
}

while (i > 0);

Semicolon main

In do while first body will be excuted Then checks the condition
Whenever you wanna excute body atleast once you must use do while over while.

Break: used to terminate from the loop
Continue: Similar to break but instead of terminating from the loop it forces to execute the next iteration of the loop

$$\frac{1024}{2} \approx 2^10$$

Loops question 1:-

i=1024;
for (; i ; i>>=1)
 print("Hello,World");

⇒ 11 times helloworld would print

Question 2:-

```
int i=0;
for (i=0; i<20; i++)
{
    switch (i)
    {
        case 0: i+=5;
        case 1: i+=2;
        case 5: i+=5;
        default: i+=4;
    }
    printf("%d", i);
```

X
O/P: 5 10 15 20
no break
O/p: 16,21

Question:

```
int i=0;  
for (printf("One\n"); i<3&&printf(""); i++)  
{ printf("Hi\n"); }
```

Dp }

One

hi

hi

hi

"One\n"; i<3&&

{ unsigned int i=500; → 0 to 4294967295

While (i++ != 0); → Semicolon encountered no body for this is
printf("%d", i); just simply check the condition until 0
return 0; encountered

$$i = 0 \\ i++ = i = 0 + 1 = 1$$

int x=3; → ends because of semicolon
if [x == 2] { x = 0; } → it will assign to it

if (x == 3) x++;

else x+=2; → x=2

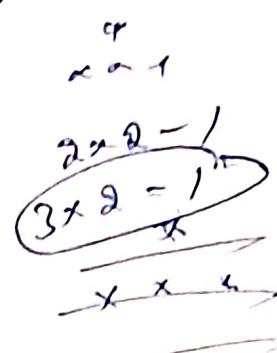
$$g >= 5 - (r-1) \\ s >= 26$$

Pyramid of Stars



```
for (int i=0; i<=n, i++);
```

```
for (j=0;
```



for pyramid we need
3 rows \rightarrow 5 columns
4 rows \rightarrow 7 columns

5 rows \rightarrow 9 columns

6 rows \rightarrow 11 columns

n rows \rightarrow $(2n-1)$ columns

$$j = 2^{j-1}$$

```
for (int i=1; i<=columns; i++);
```

```
for (int j=1; j<=columns; j++);
```

if ($j >= n - (i-1)$ $\&$ $j <= (n + (i-1))$)

```
{ print("*"); }
```

}

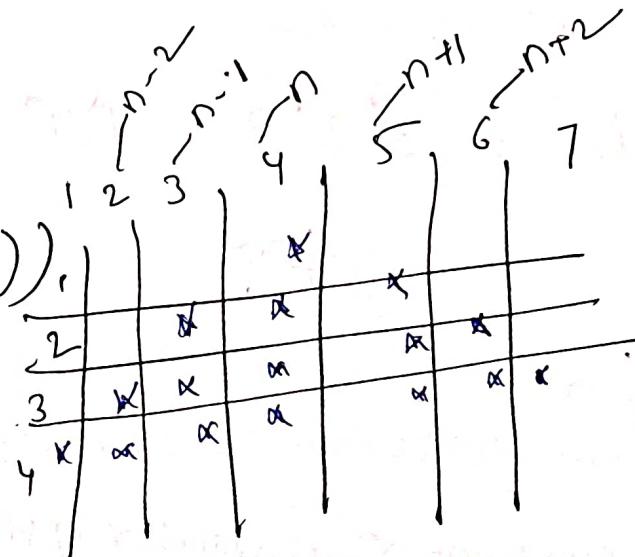
else

```
{ print(" "); }
```

}

10 =
11

$i >= 5(i-1)$
 $i >= 3$



$$n=5$$

5

$i-2+1$

$i-2-1$

$$\begin{cases} n - (i-1) \\ n + (i-1) \end{cases}$$

```
for (int i=0; i<=n; i++);
```

```
for (int j=0; j<=(2n-1); j++);
```

if ($j >= n - (i-1)$)

$$i <= 5 + (-2)$$

$i <=$

Palindrome:

Number (or) a word or phrase if read backwards gives

Palindrome: Number (or) a word or phrase

Same number (or) a word or phrase

Ex:

12321

12321/10

~~Armstrong~~-

⇒ An Armstrong number of order n is a number in which each digit when multiplied by itself n no. of times and finally added together, result same number.

$$371 \Rightarrow 3^3 + 7^3 + 1^3 = 27 + 343 + 1 = 371$$

371

Problem:- Write a program to check whether number is strong (or) not

Strong number- is a number in which the sum of factorial of individual digits of a number is equal to original number

$$145 = 1! + 4! + 5! = 145$$

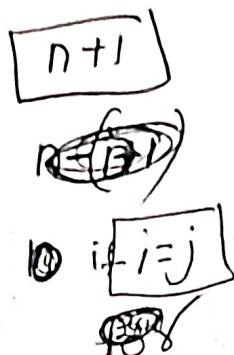
① Write a program to add two numbers without using '+' operator

(Idea is to use increment

and decrement
operators)

Floyd's triangle

1	2	3	4	5
2	3			
4	5	6		
7	8	9	10	
11	12	13	14	15



Arrays: - An array is a data structure containing a no. of data values (all of which are of same type)

Data structure → Format for organizing and storing data
Also, each data structure is designed to organize data to suit a specific purpose.

For example:-

One dimensional array

$a = [5 | 10 | 15 | 20]$

Declaration and define 1d array:-

Syntax data-type name [no of elements];

Ex: int arr [5];

→ Compiler will allocate a contiguous block of memory of size = $[5 * \text{size of } (\text{int})]$

Can we specify the length of array as 5.6 (or) other than integer

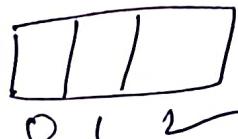
X (No. length of array can be specified by an ^{positive} integer constant expression like $\text{int arr}[2/3]$)

Specifying the length of an array using macro is considered to be an excellent practice → Why? → because changing can be done ~~anywhere~~ if we use MACRO.

```
#define N10  
int arr[N];
```

Accessing elements from 1d array:-

⇒ array-name[index]



arr[0]; arr[1]; and so on

Initialising 1d array:

arr[5] = {1, 2, 5, 67, 32}; | arr[] = {1, 2, 5, 67, 32};

int arr[5]; X

arr[0] = 1; not preferred method

arr[1] = 2;

arr[2] = 5;

arr[3] = 67;

int arr[5];

for (i=0; i<5; i++) {

scanf("%d", &arr[i]);

}

⇒ int arr[10] = {45, 6, 2, 78, 5, 6};

The remaining locations of the array are filled by value 0.

Why not int arr[10] = {}; Because, this is illegal.

You must have to specify atleast 1 element and illegal to add more elements than specified value.

Designated initialization of Arrays:-

```
int arr[10] = {1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 2, 3, 0, 0, 0};
```

\Rightarrow int arr[10] = {[0] = 1, [5] = 2, [6] = 3};

\Rightarrow This way of initialization is called designated in HalliGation
and each number in square brackets is said to be designated.

Reverse Order:-

```
int main() {
```

```
    int a[9] = {34, 56, 54, 32, 67, 89, 90, 32, 21};
```

int i; ~~size n-1~~

```
for (int j = (n-1); i = 0; i--) {
```

do reverse

Input: 67827 \rightarrow O/p:- Yes (if repeated twice)

Using size of operator with array:-

Size of (name_of_array) / Size of (name_of_array[0])

Introduction of multidimensional array

Declaration and syntax:- array of array

data-type name_of_array [size1][size2] ... [sizeN];

For example

int a[3][4]; // Two dimensional array

int a[3][4][6]; // Three dimensional array

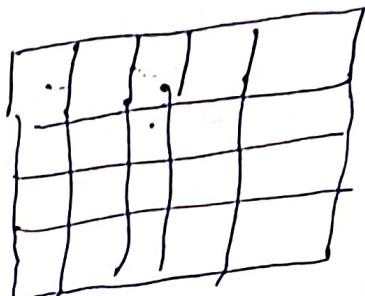
Size calculation - Size of multidimensional

The size of all dimension

Ex. Size of a $[0][20] = 10 \times 20 = 200$ elements (can be stored)

2 dimensional

int arr[5][5];
rows columns



4x5

Initializing two dimensional array!

method 1:- int a[2][3] = {1,2,3,4,5,6};

0	1	2
1	2	3

method 2:- int a[2][3] = {{1,2,3}, {4,5,6}}

0	1	2
1	2	3

Accessing of element:-
Using row index and column index

$$a[0][1] = 2$$

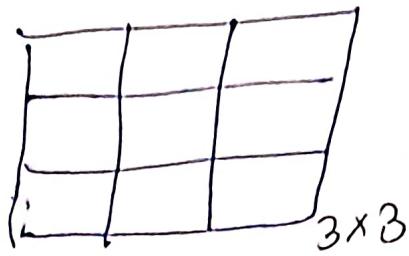
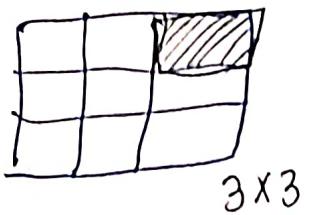
How to print 2d array element!

TWO nested for loops

```
for (i=0; i<2; i++)
{
    for (j=0; j<3; j++)
    {
        cout << a[i][j];
    }
    cout << endl;
}
```

Introduction to 3d arrays:-

int arr[2][3][3];



arr[0][0][2] ^{row 0}
column n
first 2d array

Initialising 3d array:- int a[2][2][3] = {{2,3},{5,6},{..},{12}};



0	1	2	3
4	5	6	

2x3

0	7	8	9
10	11	12	

2x3

Pointing 3d arrays

```
for(int i=0; i<2 ; i++)
    for(int j=0 ; j<2 ; j++)
        for(int k=0 ; k<3 ; k++)
```

Write a program that reads a 5x5 array of integers and prints the row sum and column sum;

8	3	9	0	10
3	5	17	1	1
2	8	6	23	1
15	7	3	2	9
6	14	2	6	10

Row total :- 30 27 40 36 28

Column total :- 34 37 37 32 21

```

int i, j;
int sum = 0;
for (i=0; i<5; i++)
{
    for (j=0; j<5; j++)
    {
        sum += arr[i][j];
    }
}
printf ("%d", sum);
sum = 0;
}

```

Matrix Multiplication:-

- In order to multiply two matrices # columns of 1st matrix = # rows of 2nd matrix
- Also, size of resultant matrix depends on # rows of 1st matrix and # columns of 2nd matrix
— do your own

Constant arrays in C:- Either One dimensional or multidimensional arrays can be made constant by starting declaration with keyword const.

const int a[10] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, ..., 10}; # read only location

Advantage:-

- It assures us that the program will not modify the array which may contain some valuable info

Variable length of array:-

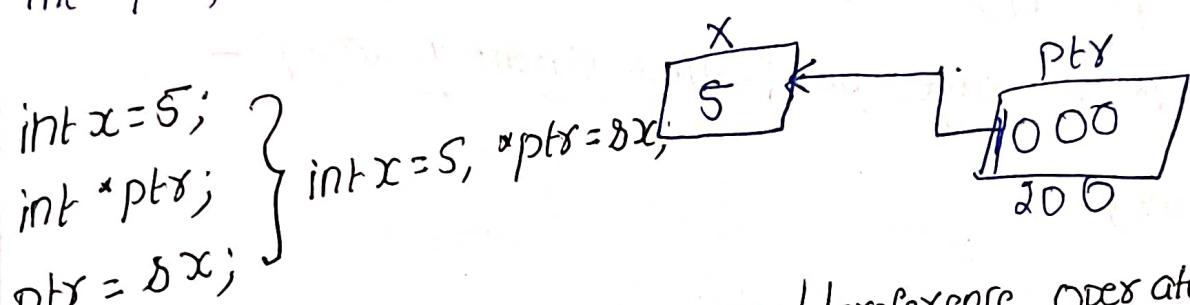
int a[n]; → Variable

Pointers:- pointer is a special variable that is capable of storing some address
→ It points to a memory location where the first byte is stored

Syntax for declaring pointer variable:-

data-type * pointer-name
→ Here data type refers to the type of the value that the pointer will point to

for example
int *ptr; ← points to integer val char *ptr; ← points to char value



Value of operator / Indirection operator / Dereference operator is an operator that is used to access the value stored at the location pointed by pointer

int x=5, *ptr=&x;
printf("%d", *ptr); O/P : 5

int x=10, *ptr=&x; *ptr=4;
printf("%d", *ptr);

⇒ Never apply the indirection operator to uninitialised pointer

Assigning value to an uninitialized pointer is dangerous

`int *ptr;` (segmentation fault) caused by program trying to
`*ptr = 1;` read (or) write an illegal memory location

Pointer assignment :-

`int i = 10;`
`int *p, *q;`
`q = &i;`
`q = p; Output:- 10, 10`

not same
but $^q \neq ^p$

`int i = 10; j = 20; &p; *q;`

$p = &i; \quad q = &j;$

$*q = *p;$

`printf(*q, *p);` → 10, 10

`i = 1 &p = &i; int *q;`

`q = p; *q = 5; printf(p)`

(segmentation fault)

— functions left //

Application of pointer to find largest and smallest element in array:-

`int a[] = {23, 45, 6, 98}`

`int min, max;`

`min = max = a[0]`

Returning pointers:-

```

int a[];
int n = size of (a) / size of a[0];
int *mid = findMid(a, n);
printf ("%d", *mid);
return 0;
}

```

```

int *findMid (int a[], int n)
{

```

```

    return &a[n/2];
}

```

Word of Caution - Never ever try to return the address of an automatic Variable local variable

for example:

```

int *fun()
{
    int i=10; //local variable
    return &i;
}

```

```

int main()
{

```

```

    int *p = fun();
    printf ("%d", *p);
}

```

```

}

```

Imp.
 int *p = &i; {First statement is declaration and second is simple assignment
 p = &i; statement why isn't in second statement p is preceded by symbol

so! In C, * symbol has different meanings depending on the context in which it is used

At the time of declaration, * symbol is not acting as an indirection operator

* Symbol in first statement tells the Compiler that p is pointer to an integer

But if we write *p = 8; then it is wrong, because here * symbol indicates the indirection operator and we can't assign the address to some integer.

variable

Therefore in second statement there is no need of * symbol in front of p. It simply means we are assigning the address to a pointer

Q2 O/P: void fun (const int *p)

}

*p = 0;

}

int main()

const int i = 10;

fun(&i);

return 0;

}

⇒ error

3) How to print the address of variable?
⇒ Use %p as a format specifier in printf function

int i = 10;

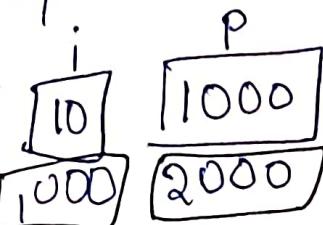
int *p = &i;

print("%p", p); → in hexadecimal

- 1) If i is a variable and p points to i , which of the following are aliases of i
- $\&p$
 - $\&sp$
 - sp
 - $\&i$
 - $\&\&sp$

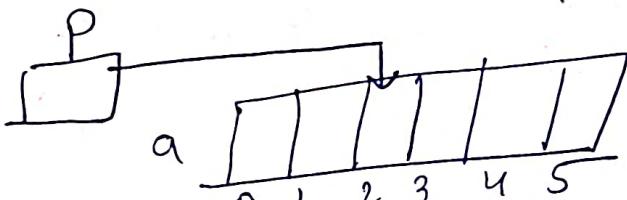
$i = 10;$

$\&p = \&i;$ $\Rightarrow \&(1000) = 10$



$$\begin{aligned} & \text{a) } \&i = \&(1000) = 10 \\ & \text{b) } \&sp = \&(\&sp) = \&(2000) = 1000 \\ & \text{c) } sp = \&sp = 2000 \\ & \text{d) } \&i = \&(10) \text{ doesn't make sense} \\ & \text{e) } \&(sp) = \&(1000) = 10 \end{aligned}$$

Pointers Arithmetic (addition).-



Initially, if p points to $a[i]$, then

$$p = p + j \equiv \&a[i+j]$$

$$p = 1000$$

$$p = \&a[i]$$

$$p = p + 1 \Rightarrow p = 1000 + 1 * 4$$

$$p = 1004$$

H/w We have pointer p and array a .
 p contains address of 3rd element $p = \&a[2]$

$$\Rightarrow p = p + 2 \Rightarrow p = \&a[4]$$

Pointers arithmetic Subtraction

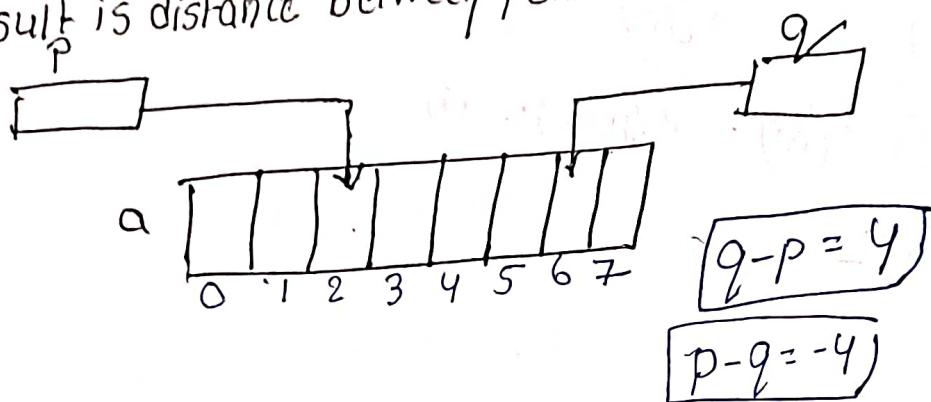
$p = p - 3$ (Vice versa) for addition

Initially, if p points to $a[i]$, then $[p = p - j] \equiv [8a[i-j]]$

$$[p = p - 3] \equiv [p = 1012 - 3 \times 4]$$

Subtracting one pointer from another pointer

Result is distance between pointers



$$[q - p = 4]$$

$$[p - q = -4]$$

Performing arithmetic on pointers which are not pointing to array element leads to undefined behaviour.

```
int main() {
```

```
    int i = 10;
```

```
    int *p = &i;
```

```
    printf("%d", *(p+3));
```

⇒ Different outputs everytime

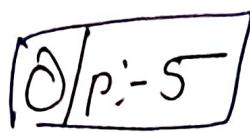
457

⇒ If two pointers are pointing to different arrays then performing subtraction between them leads to undefined behaviour

Post increment:-

$a[] = \{5, 16, 7, 89\}$

$\star p = &a[0];$



$\star (p + t); \rightarrow \text{print } t$

again $\rightarrow p \rightarrow 0/p :- 16$

pre increment $\star (++p) \rightarrow [0/p :- 16]$

And decrement operator is also same //

Comparing two pointers,- → Use relational operators ($<$, $<=$, $>$, \geq) and equality operator ($=$, \neq)

→ To compare pointers

→ Only possible when both pointers point to same array.

→ Output depends upon the relative positions of both pointers

Calculate the sum of elements of arrays using pointers,-

for ($p = &a[0]; p < n; p++$)

sum $t = *p;$

Using array Name as pointer,-

fact:- Name of an array can be used as a pointer to first element of array

for example:-

int main () {

int a[5];

$*a = 10;$

printf ("0/od", a[0]);

$* (a + 1) = 20;$

It is true that we can use array names w/ pointer to modify
a new address is not possible

int a[] = {1, 2, 3};
printf("%d", a+1);
Assigning $a = a + 1$ X

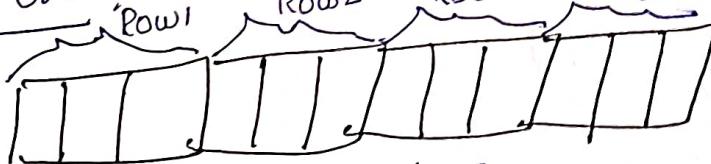
printf("%d", a+1); Accessing it is possible

Reverse a series of numbers using pointers:- do it
Passing array name as an argument to a function:- do it (vid)

Using pointer to 2d array:-

difference b/w row major and column major order:-

Row Major Order:- Elements are stored row by row



Similarly Column major order

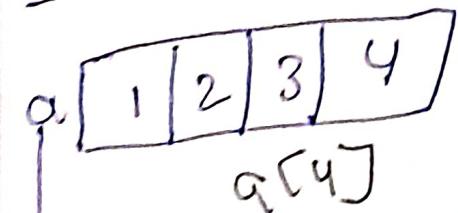
C follows row major order

	C ₀	C ₁
R ₀	1	2
R ₁	3	4

Using pointers:-

for (p = &a[0][0]; p <= &a[row-1][col-1]; p++)
 printf("%d", *p);

Address Arithmetic of 2d:-



$a[4]$

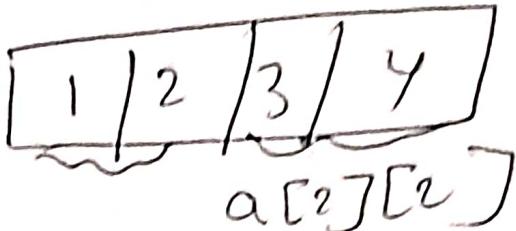
pointer to first element of array

$a = \& a[0][0]$

$*a = 1$

$\&(a+1) + 1 \rightarrow$ last element - address

2d array



$a[2][2]$

pointer to first 1D array

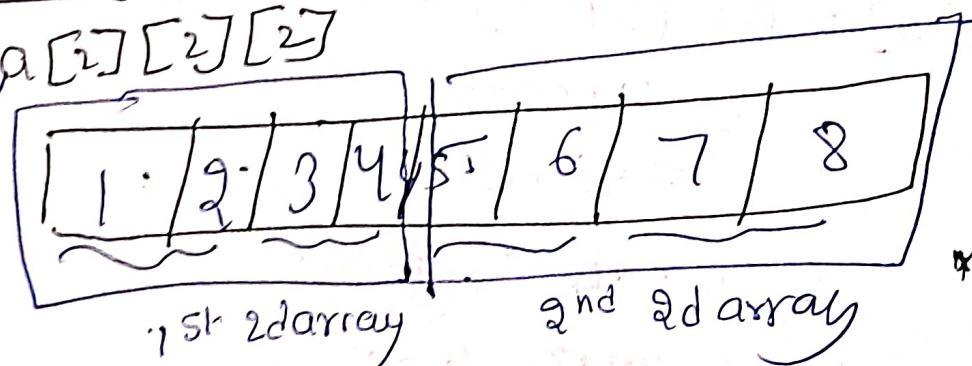
$\&a = 1$

$$\&(a) \Rightarrow \&(a[0][0]) = 1$$

$\&a(a+1) \rightarrow$ second dimensional 1st element -

3d array:-

int $a[2][2][2]$



1st 2d array

2nd 2d array

$\&((a+1)+1)$

pointer to first 2d array

$a+1 \rightarrow$ pointer to second 2d array

$\&a = 1$

$\&a(a+1) = 5$

~~$\&(a[0][0])$~~ $\&(a(a+1))$

$\&(a(a+1))+1$

Pointers:

- char a[100][100]
- c Assuming that main memory is byte: array is stored starting from memory address 0, the address of a[40][50] is formula: $8a[i][j] = BA + [(i-1)b_1) \times NC + (j-1)b_2] \times c$

Where BA = Base address of whole 2d array

NC = no. of columns c = size of data type of elements stored in array

a[0...99][0...99]

$$BA = 0 \quad NC = 100$$

$$8a[40][50] = 0 + [(40-0) \times 100 + (50-0) \times 1] \\ = 4000 + 50 \\ = 4050$$

x+3

200

$$2000 + 3 * 4 \rightarrow (2012)$$

2036

$$2000 + 3 * 4 * 3$$

(2036)

2036, 2036, 2036

222220

Z\$1=20
D71

Pointers pointing Entire Array:-

int (*p)[5] = &a;
 ↓
 pointer
 To five integer elements

int (*p)[5] = &a;
 printf("%d", *p);

a) 11111
1000

O/p of following program:-

int a[3] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6};
 int (*ptr)[3] = a;
 printf("%d %d", (*ptr)[1], (*ptr)[2]); O/p: - 2, 3
 ++ptr;
 printf("%d %d", (*ptr)[1], (*ptr)[2]); O/p: - 4, 5, 6
2356

State question:-

Void f(int *p, int *q)

```
{ p=8;
  *p=2;
}
int i=0, j=1
int main()
{
```

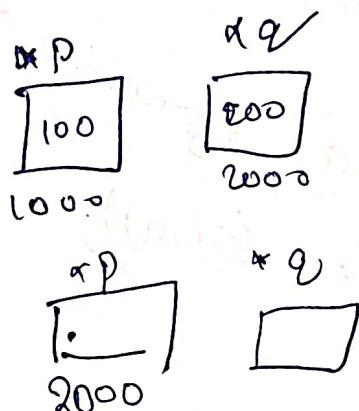
f(&i, &j);

printf(i, j);

return 0;

3

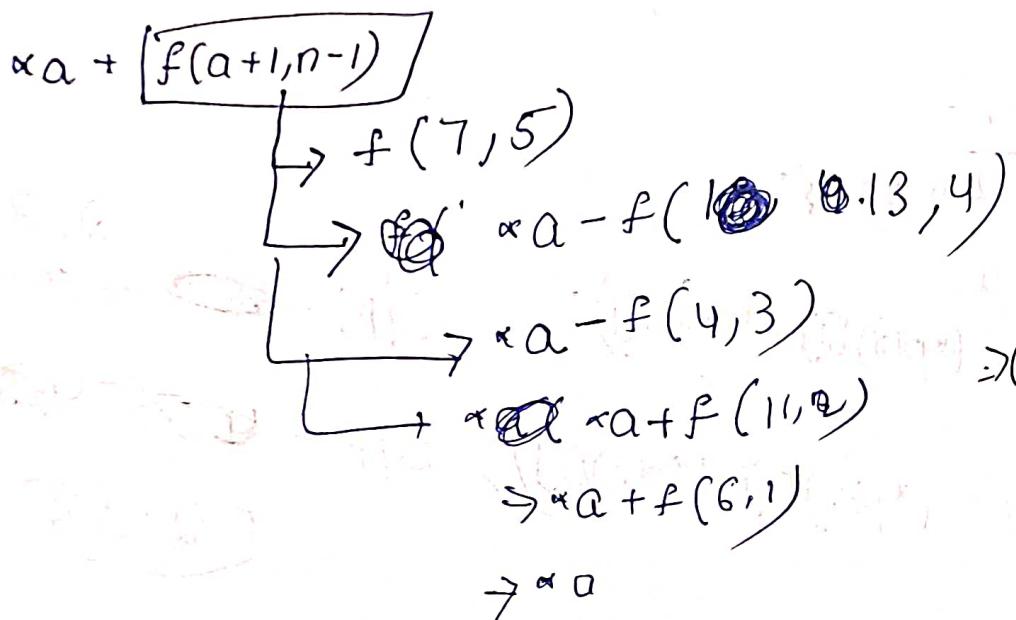
0	P:- ④ 2
---	---------



$a = \{12, 7, 13, 4, 11, 6\}$

else if ($\cdot a \% 2 == 0$) return $*a + f(a+1, n-1);$

else return $*a - f(a+1, n-1);$



P

int c, *b, *a; points to pointer

c = 4, b = &c, a = 86 address of pointe

printf("0%od", f(c, b, a)); $x=4, *py=4$

$*pp3 = 4$

int y, z;

$*p3 = + 1 \quad 5;$

$$3 = 5$$

$$*py + = 2;$$

$$x = 6$$

7
5 + 8 + 1
13
X9

Basics of recursion:-

Defination of Recursion:- is a process in which a function calls itself directly or indirectly.

or indirectly

for example:

```
int fun()
{
    ...
    fun();
}
```

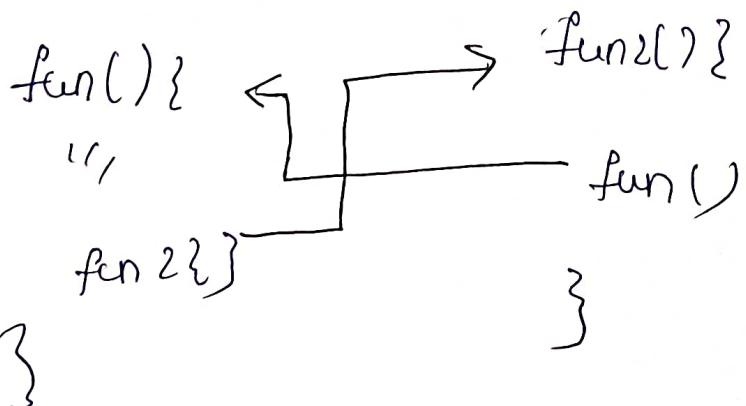
Idea:-

- 1) divide the problem into smaller sub-problems
- 2) specify the base condition to stop the recursion

Types of recursion:- 1) direct recursion 2) Indirect recursion
3) Tail recursion 4) Non tail recursion.

① Direct recursion:- A function called direct recursive if it calls the same function again,

② Indirect recursion:- If function (let say fun) is called indirect recursive if it calls another function (fun2) and then fun2 calls fun directly (or) indirectly



③ Tail recursion:- A recursive function is said to be tail recursive if the recursive call is last thing done by the function. There is no need to keep

record of previous state

Void fun(int n) {

if (n==0)

return;

else

printf("odd"; n);

return fun(n-1);

}

int main()

fun(3);

return 0;

}

Non-tail recursive :- A recursive function is said to be non-tail recursive if the recursive call is not the last thing done by function. After returning back, there is some something left to evaluate.

tail

∴ fun(8)

= 3

else

return 1 + fun(4) 2

1 + fun(2) 1

1 + fun(1) 1+0

Advantages and disadvantages:-

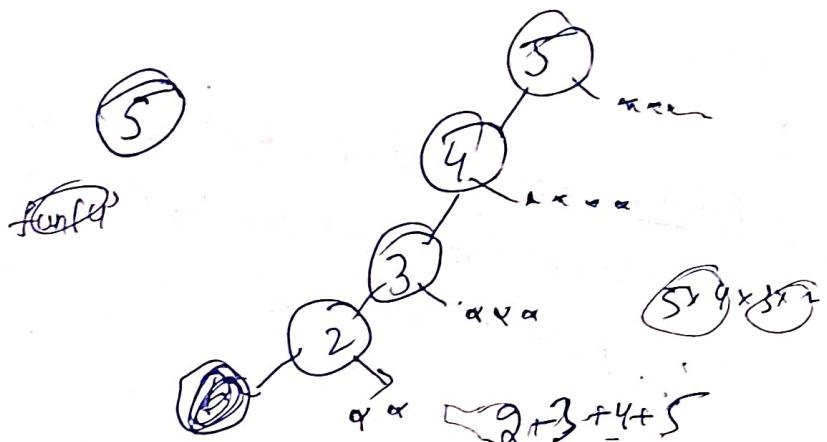
- Every recursive program can be modeled into iterative program but recursive programs are more elegant and requires less lines of code.
- disadvantage: It requires more space than iterative programs. activation record stack space

Ex:-

get(n-1);
get(n-3);

5
4
3
2
1
0

```
int i = 0
if (n > 1)
    fun1(n-1)
for
```



14

(3)

fun1(5)

x = 1, k;

(n = 5)

for (k = 1; k < n; k++)
 $x = x + \text{fun}(k) * \text{fun}(n - k)$

$x = 1 + \text{fun}(k)$

n = 5

$1 + \text{fun}(1) + \text{fun}(n - 1)$

fun(1)
(1)

$1 + 1 + \text{fun}(n - 1)$

$1 + 1 + \text{fun}(1)$

5 = 1

strings:-

String literal (or string constant) is a sequence of characters enclosed within double quotes.

%s → is a place holder

"Hello world" → in printf

printf("%s", " - - - - -")

- APJ. Adul kabam"); Error

printf("%s", " - - - - \") - APJ. Adul kabam");

next line

and also " " → for another line

String string literal:-

first argument to printf and scanf function is always a string literal

But, what we are actually passing to printf/scanf?

String literals are stored as an array of characters

E | A | R | T | H | \0

Indicates the end of the string

null character

Total 6 bytes of read only memory is allocated

In C. Compiler treats a string literal as a pointer to first character.

[E | A | R | T | H | \0]

1000

So the printf (or) scanf, we are passing a pointer, } to first character of a string literal

Both printf and scanf functions expects a character pointer (char*) as an argument

Assigning string literal to a pointer -

Char *ptr = "Hello World!"

→ ptr contains the address of first character of string literal
As writing "Hello" is equivalent to writing pointer to first character
Therefore, we can subscript it to get some character of string literal

"Hello"[1] is equivalent to pointer to 'H'[1].

H | e | l | l | o | \0

pointer to 'H'[1] = e

String literal cannot be modified. It causes undefined behaviour

Char *ptr = "Hello"

*ptr = 'M';

String literals are known as string constants

String literal and character constant are not same

"H" ≠ 'H'.

Represented by
a pointer to
character 'H'

Represented by
an integer (72)

Declaring a string variable - If string variable is one dimensional array
of characters that is capable of holding a string at a time
→ Extra ram for null character

char s[6] = "Hello";
Although it seems like "Hello" in above example is a string literal but it's not. When a string is assigned to a character array, then this character array is treated like other types of array. We can modify its characters.

But we can modify characters

```
for(i=0; s[i] != '\0'; i++)
```

Writing String using printf and puts function:-

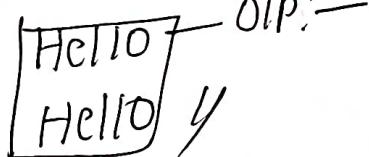
```
char *ptr = "HelloWorld";  
printf("%s", ptr);
```

"%ns" is used to point just a part of string where n is no. of characters

from ns field of length A. ptr → puts() function is a function declared in <stdio.h>

write string using puts: → puts() function is a function declared in <stdio.h> library and is used to write strings to output screen. Also, puts() function automatically writes a new line character after writing the string to output screen.

```
char *s = "Hello";  
puts(s);  
puts(s);
```



Reading strings using scanf and gets functions:-

Using scanf: We can read a string into string variable (character array)

```
char a[10];
```

```
scanf("%s", a); printf("%s", a);
```

scanf() doesn't store the white space characters in the string variable.
It only reads characters other than whitespaces and store them in the specified character array until it encounters a white-space character.

Reading string using gets:- In order to read an entire line of input, gets() function can be used.

```
char a[10];  
gets(a);  
printf("%s", a);
```

As scanf and gets function are risky to use. Hence it is advisable to design our own input function.

We want our input function

- It must continue to read the string even after seeing whitespace characters
- It must stop reading the string after seeing new line character
- discard extra characters → return no. of characters it stores in the character array

Video

getchar() function is used to read one character at a time from the user input. It returns an integer equivalent to ASCII code of the character.

putchar() in C:-

Prototype: int putchar (int ch)

putchar accepts an integer argument (which represents a character if wants to display) and returns an integer representing the characters written on screen

```
int ch;  
for(ch = 'A'; ch <= 'Z'; ch++)  
    putchar(ch);  
return 0;
```

}

Introduction to functions -

Introduction: A function is basically a set of statements that takes inputs, perform some computation and produce output

Syntax:-

type of data type
functions - There are two imp reasons of why we are using functions:

Why functions - There are two main reasons for using functions:

- Reusability: Once the function is defined, it can be reused over and over again in your program.

Why functions - They are two,
Once the function is defined, it can be reused over and over again
Reusability - If you are just using function in your program

Reusability: Once the function is defined, you can reuse it in other parts of your program or in different programs. If you are just using function in your program as abstraction, If you are just using function in your program as abstraction, if it works inside one part of the program, it will work in other parts as well.

Abstraction: If you are just using it, then you don't have to worry about how it works inside.

Fix Scanf fn:

Ex: → Video

function declaration inc:-

function declaration inc. - When we declare a variable, we declare its properties to the compiler
ex:- Name-var ; data type = int

When we declare a variable, we declare its name & data type = int

for ex:- int var; (or) (also called function prototype) means

Similarly, function declaration (also called function prototype) declares the properties of functions to compiler.

for ex:- int fun(int, char);

Properties: Name of function = fun

Return type - int

No. of parameters :- 2

Type of parameter is int

, , , , , , , 2 ÷ char

→ It is not necessary to put name of parameters in function prototype

for ex:- int fun(int Var 1, char Var 2);
not necessary to mention

Is it always necessary to declare the function before using it?

→ Not necessary but it's preferred to declare the fn before using it

function definition - function definition consists of block of code which is capable of performing some specific task

→ Don't forget to mention the prototype of a function. In that prototype no need of mentioning ~~names of~~ parameters

int add (int, int);

int main()

{
int m=20, n=30, sum;
sum=add (m, n);

While calling a function you should not mention return type of function. Also you should not mention the data types of arguments.

{
int add (int a, int b)
}
return (a+b);
}
It is imp to mention both data type and name of parameters.
u
add int a =
int b =

Difference b/w a function and a parameter?

Parameters :- Variable in declaration and definition of the function
whose value is passed to the function.

Parameter :- is actual value of the parameter that get passed to function
Argument :- is actual value of the parameter that get passed to function
Parameter \rightarrow formal parameters Argument \rightarrow actual or parameters
received by a function passed to function
passed to formal

Call by value:- Here values of actual parameters will be copied to formal parameters and these two different parameter store values in different locations.

```

paranthesis
int x=10, y=20;           (answering)
fun(x,y);
printf("odd odd", x,y);
int fun(int xc, int y)
{
    x=20;
    y=10;
}

```

O/p:- 10, 20

O/p:- 10,20
Call by reference: Here both actual and formal parameters refers to same memory location, therefore any changes made to formal parameters reflected to actual parameters.

Will get reflected to add() p.
Here instead passing values, we pass addresses
int fun (int

Will get 8 & 10
 Here instead passing values, we pass address
 $\text{int fun(int } * \text{ptr1, int } * \text{ptr2)}$
 int x=10, y=20;
 $\text{fun(} & \text{x, } & \text{y);}$
 $\text{printf("}\%d \%d", \text{x, y)}$

Q1P:- 20, 10

Strings Continuation:-

Solved problem:-

- printf("%c", '\n'); → character ✓
- printf("%c", "in"); → string ✗
- puts("\n"); → character ✓
- puts("n"); → string ✗
- puts('n'); → character ✗
- puts("\r"); → string ✓
- printf("%os", '\n'); ✗
- printf("%os", "n"); ✓

Introduction to C string library and strcpy (string copy) function

There are some operations which we can perform on strings

Ex' Copy strings, concatenate strings, Select strings and so on

<string.h> library contains all the required fn's for performing.

String operations

So we just have to include header file #include <string.h> in our program

strcpy function:-

prototype:- char* strcpy (char *destination, const char* source)

It isn't modified. That is
Why it is Constant

④ `strcpy` returns the pointer to the first character of the string which is copied in the destination. Hence if we use `%s`, then whole string will be printed on the screen.

We can also chain together a series of `strcpy` calls.

`strcpy(str3, strcpy(str2, str1));` → returns string

Caution: In the call to `strcpy(str1, str2)` there is no way the `strcpy` will check whether the string pointed by `str2` will fit in `str1`. If the length of the string pointed by `str2` is greater than length of characters array `str1` then it will be an undefined behaviour.

To avoid this we can use `strncpy`

`strncpy(str2, str1, size of (str2));`

O/P:- Characters mentioned upto `size of str2` will be printed.

strncpy will leave the string in `str2` (destination) without a terminating null character if the size of str1 (source) is equal to or greater than size of str2 (destination).

To avoid this:

After this line add

`str2[size of (str2) - 1] = '\0';`

Strlen (String length function) :- → determine the length of string.

Prototype :- $\text{Size}_t \text{ strlen}(\text{const char}^* \text{str});$ ↓
 Unsigned integer
 Type atleast 16 bits.

not length of array

→ It doesn't count Null character

Strcat (String concatenate) function :-

Prototype :- $\text{char}^* \text{ strcat}(\text{char}^* \text{str1}, \text{const char}^* \text{str2});$

Strcat function appends the content of string str2 at the end of string str1

Caution :- An undefined behaviour can be observed if size of str1 isn't long enough to accommodate the additional characters of str2

Strncat is the safest version of strcat :-

If appends the limited no. of characters specified by third argument passed to it

Note :- Strncat automatically adds NULL characters at end of resultant string

$\text{strncat}(\text{str1}, \text{str2}, \text{size of str1}) - \text{strlen}(\text{str1}) - 1;$

↑ ↑ Creating new
 Size of array Size of string characters

strcmp (String Comparison) function:-

Prototype:- `int strcmp (const char *s1, const char *s2);`

→ Compares two strings s_1 & s_2

Less than 0, if $s_1 < s_2$

→ Returns value:- Greater than 0 if $s_1 > s_2$

Equal to 0, if $s_1 == s_2$

ASCII character Set:-

* All uppercase letters are less than all the lowercase letters

→ Digits are less than letters (48 - 57)

→ Spaces are less than all printing characters (Space character has the value 32 in ASCII set)

Array of strings:-

`char fruits[][12] = { "20 oranges", "2 apples", "3 bananas",`

`"1 pineapple" };`

→ So lot of memory get wasted as oranges etc sizes are less

Array of pointers:- This is one dimensional array.

`char *fruits[] = { };`

char p[20];

`char *s = "abcde";`

`int length = strlen(s)`

`for (int i=0; i<length; i++)` first character becomes null
`p[i] = s[length-i];` character

Printf function will print everything before the null character and will not see anything after null character.

char c[] = "Gate 2011";

char *p = c; // address of first character

printf("%s", p + P[3] - P[1]);

1000 + E - A

1000 + 4

1004

2011 → output!

G	A	T	E	2	0	1	1	1	0
1000	1001	1002	1003	1004	1005	1006	1007	1008	1009

Void foo(char *a) ABCD EFGH\0

{ if (*a && a != ' ') // means if a character pointed by a is neither a null character and nor a blank character then continue else stop

{ foo(a+1);

putchar(*a);

3

Output: DCBA

Some

Consider the program:-

```
Void fun1(char *s1, char *s2) {
```

```
    char *temp;
```

```
    temp = s1;
```

```
    s1 = s2;
```

```
    s2 = temp;
```

```
}
```

```
Void fun2 (char **s1, char **s2) {
```

```
    char *tmp;
```

```
    tmp = *s1;
```

```
    *s1 = *s2;
```

```
    *s2 = tmp;
```

```
}
```

```
int main() {
```

```
    char *str1 = "Hi", *str2 = "BYE";
```

```
    fun1(str1, str2); printf ("%s %s", str1, str2); → Hi BYF
```

```
    fun2 (&str1, &str2); printf ("%s %s", str1, str2); BYE 

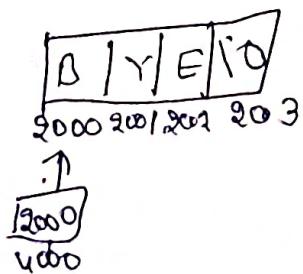
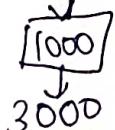
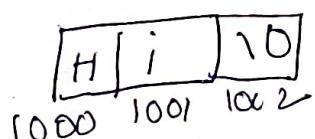
|    |
|----|
| HI |
| BY |

 %
```

```
    return 0;
```

3000, 4000

```
}
```



```
int main()
```

```
}
```

```
char *c = "GATECSIT2017";
```

```
char *p = c;
```

```
printf("%d", (int) strlen(c + 2[p] - 6[p] - 1));
```

```
return 0;
```

```
}
```

$\xrightarrow{* (n+p)}$ $\xrightarrow{* (6+p)}$
 \downarrow \downarrow
1000 T - I - 1
strlen(1010) \rightarrow 17 $\Rightarrow \textcircled{2}$

(int) 12

strlen returns a size-t type data
therefore (int) will convert the
size-t type to int type. This is
called type casting

Structures in C:-

I want to store all the info about cars which are available in my garage.

Array has the capability to store more than one elements but they all must be of same type.

⇒ Structure is a user defined data type that can be used to group elements of different types into single type.

Declaring structure variable:-

Example Structure of car

```
struct car {  
    char engine;  
    char *fuel-type;  
    int fuel-tank-cap;  
    int seating-cap;  
    float city-mileage;  
};  
car car1, car2;
```

⇒ Video

it is in global scope

With the help of → dot structure
we can access member of structure

int main()

car1.engine =

struct with car-

char

char engine[20];

Structure Types [Using Structure tag]-

⇒ Video

If structure is in global scope → User define the values. But if structure is in local scope

User can't define the values inside in it

Need of Creating a type

Structure tag is used to identify a particular kind of Structure

Using the `typedef` keyword

Syntax - `typedef existing-data-type new-data-type`
`typedef` gives freedom to user by allowing them to create their own types
[Video] Useful for creating own datatype instead of `struct`

Initializing & Accessing the Structure Members

Not allowed

```
struct abc {  
    int p=23;  
    int q=34;  
};
```

~~Wrong~~ `typedef abc`{
 int p;
 int q;

```
{abc;  
int main ()
```

```
{  
    abc x = {23,34};  
}
```

Accessing members of structure:-
We can access members of structure Using dot(.) operator
Designated initialization:- This allows structure members to be initialized in any order

Video Array of structure:- Instead of declaring multiple variables, we can also declare an array of structure in which each element of the array will represent a structure variable.

Video Accessing members of structures using Structure pointer:-

```
Struct abc {  
    int x;  
    int y;  
};
```

```
int main() {
```

```
    Struct abc a = {0,1};
```

```
    Struct abc *p = &a;
```

```
    printf("%d %d", p->x, p->y);
```

$\text{ptr} \rightarrow x$ is equivalent to
 $(^{\text{ptr}}) \cdot x$
 $(a) \cdot x$

Structure padding in C:-

How memory is allocated to structure members?

When an object of some structure type is declared then some contiguous block of memory will be allocated to structure members.

Structure padding:-

Processor doesn't read 1 byte at a time from memory

It reads 1 word at a time

If we have 32 bit processor then it means it can access 4 bytes at a time which means word size is 4 bytes. If 64 → 8 bytes at a time

Struct abc {

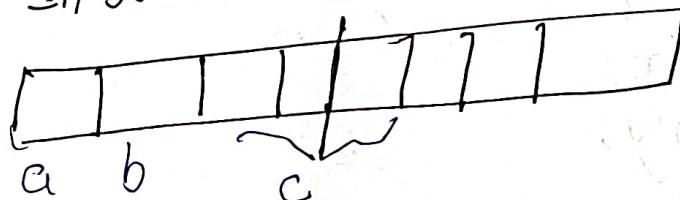
char a; // 1 byte

char b; // 1 byte

int c; // 4 bytes

} var;

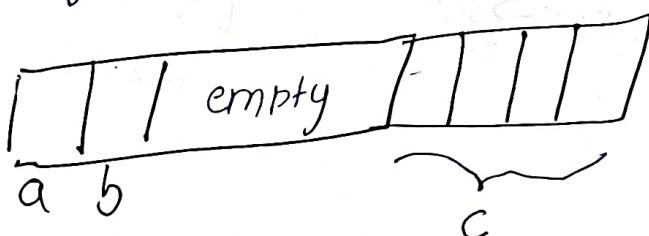
In 32 bit architecture



It's an unnecessary wastage of CPU cycles

→ Come into picture:-

Then the padding concept.



Total = 1 byte + 1 byte + 2 bytes + 4 bytes = 8 bytes

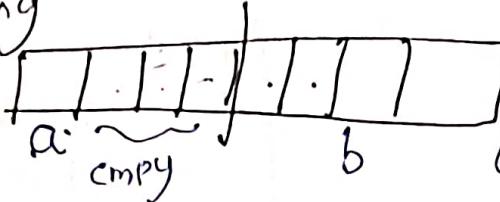
If we change the order What happens:-

Example

Alignment Consideration

```
char a;  
int b;  
char c;  
};
```

padding ↓



Total will be access



4 bytes access at a time

for 32 bit architecture $3 \times 4 = 12$

Structure packing in C - Because of structure packing, size of the structure becomes more than size of actual structure

Due to this some memory will get wasted

We can avoid the wastage memory by simple writing

#pragma pack(1)

#pragma pack(1)

```
struct abc {
```

```
char a;
```

```
int b;
```

```
char c;
```

```
} var;
```

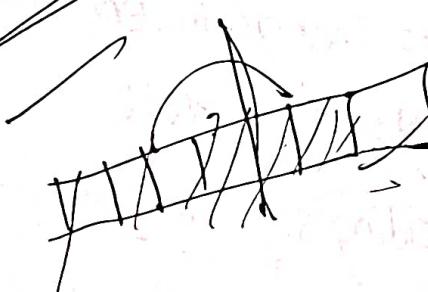
```
int main() {
```

printf("%d", sizeof(var));

```
}
```

#pragma is a special purpose directive
Used to turn on (or) off certain features

0 P:- 6



Introduction to Unions → Union is a user defined data type but unlike structures, Union members share same memory location.

Example:

```
struct abc {  
    int a;  
    char b;  
};
```

a's address ↗ different
b's address ↗ different

```
Union abc {  
    int a;  
    char b;  
};
```

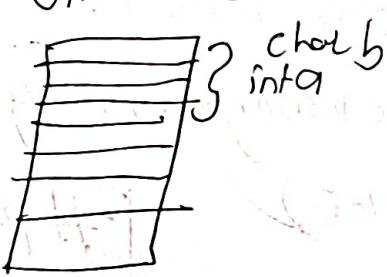
a's address → both are same
b's address → both are same

memory location

struct abc



Union abc



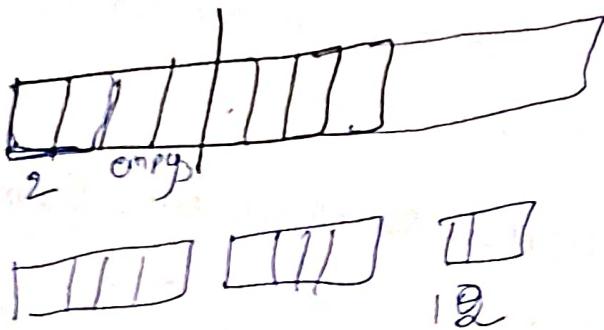
Fact → In Union members will share same memory allocation if we make change in one member. Then it will be reflected to other members as well.

Deciding size of Union → Size of the Union is taken acc to size of largest member of Union.

Accessing members Using Pointers:-

We can access members of Union through pointers by using the arrow (\rightarrow) operator

→ Video



Applications of Unions:-

Books: Title, Author, no. of pages, price
Shirts: Color, size, design, price

→ Video
Application of Union to save memory space

→ Video

Enumeration. — An enumeration is a user defined type which is used to assign names to integral constants because names are easier to handle in program

```
enum bool {false, true};  
int main() {  
    enum bool var;  
    var = True;  
    printf("var=%d", var);  
}
```

If we don't assign values to enum names then automatically compiler will assign values to them starting from 0

Need of Enumeration:-

Two imp reasons:-

→ Enums can be declared in local scope
→ Enums names are automatically initialized by the compiler

→ Two (or) more names can have same value.

```
int main() {
```

```
    enum point { x=0, y=0, z=0 };
```

```
    printf("%d %d %d", x, y, z);
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

→ We can assign values in any order +/i unassigned names will get values as value of previous name +/i

```
int main() {
```

```
    enum point { y=2, x=34, t, z=0 };
```

```
    printf("%d %d %d %d", x, y, z, t);
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

34, 2, 0, 35

→ Only integral values are allowed

No float (or) nothing

fact 4: All enum constants must be unique in their scope.

[Video]

question: The following structures are designed to store info about objects on a graphics screen.

struct point { int x, y; };

struct rectangle { struct point upper-left, lower-right; };

A point structure stores the x and y coordinates of a point on the screen.
A rectangle structure stores the coordinates of the upper-left and lower-right corners of the rectangle.

Write a function that accepts rectangle structure & as an argument and

Computes the area of &

[Video] (or) Solve by own

Q)

struct {

double a;

union {

char b[4];

double c;

int d;

} e;

char f[4];

} s;

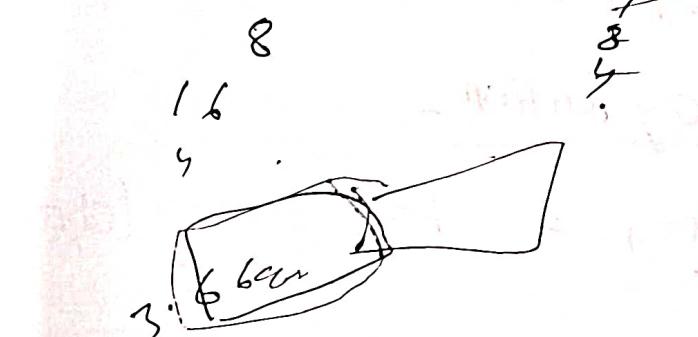
{ Assume that compiler leaves holes b/w members }

b/w members

Packing is considered

over padding

(20)



Understanding Void pointer- It is a pointer which has no associated data type with it. It can point to any data type and can be typecasted to any type.

Ex:-

```
int main()
{
```

```
    int n=10;
    void *ptr=&n;
    printf("%d", *(int *)ptr);
    return 0;
}
```

We cannot dereference a void pointer

Use of Void pointer- malloc and calloc fn returns a void pointer. Due to this reason, they can allocate a memory for any type of data.

Null pointers- Null pointers is a pointer that does not point to any memory location. It represents an invalid memory location. When a null value is assigned to a pointer, then pointer is considered as "NULL" pointer.

~~Ex~~ int main() {

 int *ptr = NULL;

 return 0;

}

- uses
→ It is used to initialize a pointer when that pointer isn't assigned any valid memory address yet.
→ Useful for handling errors when using malloc function.
→ The value of NULL is 0. We can either use NULL or 0. But this 0 is written in context of pointers and is not equivalent to integer 0.
→ Size of null pointer depends on compiler.

→ It is good practice to initialize a pointer as NULL.
Dangling pointers → It is a pointer which points to some non-existing memory location.

Ex int main ()

{ int *ptr = (int *)malloc(sizeof(int));

 ; ;

 free(ptr);
 return 0;

still, ptr contains address

To avoid dangling pointers de initialise it to N

→ video Example.

Wild pointers: - Wild pointers are also known as uninitialised pointers. These pointers usually point to some arbitrary memory location and may cause a program to crash or hang.

Basis of dynamic memory allocation:-

Memory allocated during compile time is called static memory.

The memory allocated is fixed and can't be increased or decreased during run time.

The process of allocating memory at the time of execution is called dynamic memory allocation.

`malloc()` → It is a built-in function declared in header file.

`<stdlib.h>` → `malloc(size_t size)` → malloc function allocates memory block acc to size specified in the heap and on success it returns a pointer pointing to first byte to allocated memory else returns NULL.

`size_t` is defined as unsigned int.

Why void pointers - malloc doesn't have an idea of what it is pointing to. It merely allocates memory requested by user without knowing the type of data to be stored inside memory. void pointers can be typecasted to dynamically allocated memory.

malloc(): This function is used to dynamically allocate multiple blocks of memory.

If is different from malloc in 2 ways:-

calloc() needs two arguments instead of one

Syntax- void *calloc (size_t n, size_t size)
 no. of blocks
 size of each block

- memory allocated by `calloc` is initialized to zero.
- memory allocated by `malloc` is not initialized to zero.

calloc → memory allocation
malloc → memory allocation
realloc → function is used to change the size of memory block without losing old data
Syntax void *realloc(void *ptr, size_t newsize)
pointer previously allocated memory

free()

Void free(ptr)

- Structures and functions -
- Structure members as argument - Just like Variable
We can pass structure members as arguments to functions
- call by reference - Instead of passing topics of structure members, we can pass their address.

struct charset {

char s;

int i;

}

Void key_value (char *s, int i) {

scanf ("%c %d", s, i);

}

int main() {

int jj;

struct charset cs;

key_value (&cs.s, &cs.i);

printf ("%c %d", cs.s, cs.i);

return 0

}

Passing Structure Variable as an argument:-

Instead of passing structure mem individually, it is a good practise to pass a struc. variable as argument.
Unlike arrays, name of structure variables are not pointers
struct point {

```
int x;
int y;
};

void print (struct point P) {
    printf ("%d %d\n", P.x, P.y);
}

int main () {
    struct point P1 = {23, 45};
    struct point P2 = {56, 90};
    print (P1);
    print (P2);
    return 0;
}
```

Passing pointer to structure as an argument:-

If the size of structure is very large then passing the copy of whole structure is not efficient
Better pass address of structure

→ Use the arrow operator (\rightarrow) to access the structure members inside the called function.

as last program but

Void print (struct point *p1) {

 printf ("%d %d\n", p1->x, p1->y);

}

Returning a structure variable from the function

② changing values.

Struct point p1 = {23, 45};

Struct point p2 = {56, 90};

p1 = edit(p1);

p2 = edit(p2);

Struct point edit {Struct point P3} {

(P3.x)++;

P3.y = P3.y + 5;

return P3;

}