LEARN C PROGRAMMING

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C Tutorial

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C programming is a general-purpose, procedural, imperative computer programming language developed in 1972 by Dennis M. Ritchie at the Bell Telephone Laboratories to develop the UNIX operating system. C is the most widely used computer language. It keeps fluctuating at number one scale of popularity along with Java programming language, which is also equally popular and most widely used among modern software programmers.

Why to Learn C Programming?

C programming language is a MUST for students and working professionals to become a great Software Engineer specially when they are working in Software Development Domain. I will list down some of the key advantages of learning C Programming:

- Easy to learn
- Structured language
- It produces efficient programs
- It can handle low-level activities
- It can be compiled on a variety of computer platforms

Facts about C

- C was invented to write an operating system called UNIX.

- C is a successor of B language which was introduced around the early 1970s.
- The language was formalized in 1988 by the American National Standard Institu (ANSI).
- The UNIX OS was totally written in C.
- Today C is the most widely used and popular System Programming Language.
- Most of the state-of-the-art software have been implemented using C.

Hello World using C Programming.

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Live Demo

```
nclude <stdio.h>

t main() {
 /* my first program in C */
 printf("Hello, World! \n");

 return 0;
```

Applications of C Programming

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Operating Systems

Language Compilers

Assemblers

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Applications of C Programming

C was initially used for system development work, particularly the programs that make-up the operating system. C was adopted as a system development language because it produces code that runs nearly as fast as the code written in assembly language. Some examples of the use of C are -

- Operating Systems
- Language Compilers
- Assemblers
- Text Editors
- Print Spoolers
- Network Drivers

- Modern Programs
- Databases
- Language Interpreters
- Utilities

Audience

This tutorial is designed for software programmers with a need to understand the C programming language starting from scratch. This **C tutorial** will give you enough understanding on C programming language from where you can take yourself to higher level of expertise.

Prerequisites

Before proceeding with this tutorial, you should have a basic understanding of Computer Programming terminologies. A basic understanding of any of the programming languages will help you in understanding the **C programming** concepts and move fast on the learning track.

C - Constants and Literals

Constants refer to fixed values that the program may not alter during its execution. These fixed values are also called **literals**.

Constants can be of any of the basic data types like *an integer constant, a floating constant, a character constant, or a string literal*. There are enumeration constants as well.

Constants are treated just like regular variables except that their values cannot be modified after their definition.

Integer Literals

An integer literal can be a decimal, octal, or hexadecimal constant. A prefix specifies the base or radix: 0x or 0X for hexadecimal, 0 for octal, and nothing for decimal.

An integer literal can also have a suffix that is a combination of U and L, for unsigned and long, respectively. The suffix can be uppercase or lowercase and can be in any order.

Here are some examples of integer literals –

```
212         /* Legal */
215u        /* Legal */
0xFeeL      /* Legal */
078         /* Illegal: 8 is not an octal digit */
032UU       /* Illegal: cannot repeat a suffix */
```

Following are other examples of various types of integer literals –

```
85          /* decimal */
0213        /* octal */
0x4b        /* hexadecimal */
30          /* int */
30u         /* unsigned int */
30l         /* long */
30ul        /* unsigned long */
```

Floating-point Literals

A floating-point literal has an integer part, a decimal point, a fractional part, and an exponent

part. You can represent floating point literals either in decimal form or exponential form.

While representing decimal form, you must include the decimal point, the exponent, or both; and while representing exponential form, you must include the integer part, the fractional part, or both. The signed exponent is introduced by e or E.

Here are some examples of floating-point literals –

```
3.14159       /* Legal */
314159E-5L    /* Legal */
510E          /* Illegal: incomplete exponent */
210f          /* Illegal: no decimal or exponent */
.e55          /* Illegal: missing integer or fraction */
```

Character Constants

Character literals are enclosed in single quotes, e.g., 'x' can be stored in a simple variable of **char** type.

A character literal can be a plain character (e.g., 'x'), an escape sequence (e.g., '\t'), or a universal character (e.g., '\u02C0').

There are certain characters in C that represent special meaning when preceded by a backslash for example, newline (\n) or tab (\t).

- **Here, you have a list of such escape sequence codes –**

Following is the example to show a few escape sequence characters –

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main() {
   printf("Hello\tWorld\n\n");

   return 0;
}
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces the following result –

```
Hello World
```

String Literals

String literals or constants are enclosed in double quotes "". A string contains characters that are similar to character literals: plain characters, escape sequences, and universal characters.

You can break a long line into multiple lines using string literals and separating them using white spaces.

Here are some examples of string literals. All the three forms are identical strings.

```
"hello, dear"

"hello, \

dear"

"hello, " "d" "ear"
```

Defining Constants

There are two simple ways in C to define constants −

- Using **#define** preprocessor.
- Using **const** keyword.

The #define Preprocessor

Given below is the form to use #define preprocessor to define a constant −

```
#define identifier value
```

The following example explains it in detail −

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

#define LENGTH 10
#define WIDTH  5
#define NEWLINE '\n'

int main() {
   int area;

   area = LENGTH * WIDTH;
   printf("value of area : %d", area);
   printf("%c", NEWLINE);
```

```
   return 0;
}
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces the following result –

```
value of area : 50
```

The const Keyword

You can use **const** prefix to declare constants with a specific type as follows –

```
const type variable = value;
```

The following example explains it in detail –

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main() {
   const int  LENGTH = 10;
   const int  WIDTH = 5;
   const char NEWLINE = '\n';
   int area;

   area = LENGTH * WIDTH;
   printf("value of area : %d", area);
   printf("%c", NEWLINE);

   return 0;
}
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces the following result –

```
value of area : 50
```

Note that it is a good programming practice to define constants in CAPITALS.

C - Variables

A variable is nothing but a name given to a storage area that our programs can manipulate. Each variable in C has a specific type, which determines the size and layout of the variable's memory; the range of values that can be stored within that memory; and the set of operations that can be applied to the variable.

The name of a variable can be composed of letters, digits, and the underscore character. It must begin with either a letter or an underscore. Upper and lowercase letters are distinct because C is case-sensitive. Based on the basic types explained in the previous chapter, there will be the following basic variable types –

Sr.No.	Type & Description
1	**char** Typically a single octet(one byte). It is an integer type.
2	**int** The most natural size of integer for the machine.
3	**float** A single-precision floating point value.
4	**double** A double-precision floating point value.
5	**void** Represents the absence of type.

C programming language also allows to define various other types of variables, which we will cover in subsequent chapters like Enumeration, Pointer, Array, Structure, Union, etc. For this chapter, let us study only basic variable types.

Variable Definition in C

A variable definition tells the compiler where and how much storage to create for the variable. A variable definition specifies a data type and contains a list of one or more variables of that type as follows –

```
type variable_list;
```

Here, **type** must be a valid C data type including char, w_char, int, float, double, bool, or any user-defined object; and **variable_list** may consist of one or more identifier names separated by commas. Some valid declarations are shown here –

```
int    i, j, k;
char   c, ch;
float  f, salary;
double d;
```

The line **int i, j, k;** declares and defines the variables i, j, and k; which instruct the compiler to create variables named i, j and k of type int.

Variables can be initialized (assigned an initial value) in their declaration. The initializer consists of an equal sign followed by a constant expression as follows –

```
type variable_name = value;
```

Some examples are –

```
extern int d = 3, f = 5;     // declaration of d and f.
int d = 3, f = 5;            // definition and initializing d and f.
byte z = 22;                 // definition and initializes z.
char x = 'x';                // the variable x has the value 'x'.
```

For definition without an initializer: variables with static storage duration are implicitly initialized with NULL (all bytes have the value 0); the initial value of all other variables are undefined.

Variable Declaration in C

A variable declaration provides assurance to the compiler that there exists a variable with the given type and name so that the compiler can proceed for further compilation without requiring the complete detail about the variable. A variable definition has its meaning at the time of compilation only, the compiler needs actual variable definition at the time of linking the program.

A variable declaration is useful when you are using multiple files and you define your variable in one of the files which will be available at the time of linking of the program. You will use the keyword extern to declare a variable at any place. Though you can declare a variable multiple times in your C program, it can be defined only once in a file, a function, or a block of code.

Example

Try the following example, where variables have been declared at the top, but they have been defined and initialized inside the main function –

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

// Variable declaration:
extern int a, b;
extern int c;
extern float f;

int main () {

   /* variable definition: */
   int a, b;
   int c;
   float f;

   /* actual initialization */
   a = 10;
   b = 20;

   c = a + b;
   printf("value of c : %d \n", c);

   f = 70.0/3.0;
   printf("value of f : %f \n", f);

   return 0;
}
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces the following result –

```
value of c : 30
value of f : 23.333334
```

The same concept applies on function declaration where you provide a function name at the time of its declaration and its actual definition can be given anywhere else. For example –

```
// function declaration
int func();

int main() {

   // function call
   int i = func();
}

// function definition
int func() {
   return 0;
}
```

Lvalues and Rvalues in C

There are two kinds of expressions in C –

- **lvalue** – Expressions that refer to a memory location are called "lvalue" expressions. An lvalue may appear as either the left-hand or right-hand side of an assignment.
- **rvalue** – The term rvalue refers to a data value that is stored at some address in memory. An rvalue is an expression that cannot have a value assigned to it which means an rvalue may appear on the right-hand side but not on the left-hand side of an assignment.

Variables are lvalues and so they may appear on the left-hand side of an assignment. Numeric literals are rvalues and so they may not be assigned and cannot appear on the left-hand side. Take a look at the following valid and invalid statements –

```
int g = 20; // valid statement

10 = 20; // invalid statement; would generate compile-time error
```

C - Scope Rules

A scope in any programming is a region of the program where a defined variable can have its existence and beyond that variable it cannot be accessed. There are three places where variables can be declared in C programming language –

- Inside a function or a block which is called **local** variables.
- Outside of all functions which is called **global** variables.
- In the definition of function parameters which are called **formal** parameters.

Let us understand what are **local** and **global** variables, and **formal** parameters.

Local Variables

Variables that are declared inside a function or block are called local variables. They can be used only by statements that are inside that function or block of code. Local variables are not known to functions outside their own. The following example shows how local variables are used. Here all the variables a, b, and c are local to main() function.

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main () {

   /* local variable declaration */
   int a, b;
   int c;

   /* actual initialization */
   a = 10;
   b = 20;
   c = a + b;

   printf ("value of a = %d, b = %d and c = %d\n", a, b, c);

   return 0;
}
```

Global Variables

Global variables are defined outside a function, usually on top of the program. Global variables hold their values throughout the lifetime of your program and they can be accessed inside any of the functions defined for the program.

A global variable can be accessed by any function. That is, a global variable is available for use throughout your entire program after its declaration. The following program show how global variables are used in a program.

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

/* global variable declaration */
int g;

int main () {

   /* local variable declaration */
   int a, b;

   /* actual initialization */
   a = 10;
   b = 20;
   g = a + b;

   printf ("value of a = %d, b = %d and g = %d\n", a, b, g);

   return 0;
}
```

A program can have same name for local and global variables but the value of local variable inside a function will take preference. Here is an example −

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

/* global variable declaration */
int g = 20;

int main () {

   /* local variable declaration */
```

```
int g = 10;

printf ("value of g = %d\n",  g);

return 0;
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces the following result –

```
value of g = 10
```

Formal Parameters

Formal parameters, are treated as local variables with-in a function and they take precedence over global variables. Following is an example –

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

/* global variable declaration */
int a = 20;

int main () {

  /* local variable declaration in main function */
  int a = 10;
  int b = 20;
  int c = 0;

  printf ("value of a in main() = %d\n",  a);
  c = sum( a, b);
  printf ("value of c in main() = %d\n",  c);

  return 0;
}

/* function to add two integers */
int sum(int a, int b) {

   printf ("value of a in sum() = %d\n",  a);
   printf ("value of b in sum() = %d\n",  b);

   return a + b;
```

```
}
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces the following result –

```
value of a in main() = 10
value of a in sum() = 10
value of b in sum() = 20
value of c in main() = 30
```

Initializing Local and Global Variables

When a local variable is defined, it is not initialized by the system, you must initialize it yourself. Global variables are initialized automatically by the system when you define them as follows –

Data Type	Initial Default Value
int	0
char	'\0'
float	0
double	0
pointer	NULL

It is a good programming practice to initialize variables properly, otherwise your program may produce unexpected results, because uninitialized variables will take some garbage value already available at their memory location.

C - Operators

An operator is a symbol that tells the compiler to perform specific mathematical or logical functions. C language is rich in built-in operators and provides the following types of operators −

- Arithmetic Operators
- Relational Operators
- Logical Operators
- Bitwise Operators
- Assignment Operators
- Misc Operators

We will, in this chapter, look into the way each operator works.

Arithmetic Operators

The following table shows all the arithmetic operators supported by the C language. Assume variable A holds 10 and variable B holds 20 then −

Show Examples

Operator	Description	Example
+	Adds two operands.	A + B = 30
−	Subtracts second operand from the first.	A − B = -10
*	Multiplies both operands.	A * B = 200
/	Divides numerator by de-numerator.	B / A = 2
%	Modulus Operator and remainder of after an integer division.	B % A = 0
++	Increment operator increases the integer value by one.	A++ = 11
--	Decrement operator decreases the integer value by one.	A-- = 9

Relational Operators

The following table shows all the relational operators supported by C. Assume variable A ho
10 and variable B holds 20 then −

Show Examples

Operator	Description	Example
==	Checks if the values of two operands are equal or not. If yes, then the condition becomes true.	(A == B) is not true.
!=	Checks if the values of two operands are equal or not. If the values are not equal, then the condition becomes true.	(A != B) is true.
>	Checks if the value of left operand is greater than the value of right operand. If yes, then the condition becomes true.	(A > B) is not true.
<	Checks if the value of left operand is less than the value of right operand. If yes, then the condition becomes true.	(A < B) is true.
>=	Checks if the value of left operand is greater than or equal to the value of right operand. If yes, then the condition becomes true.	(A >= B) is not true.
<=	Checks if the value of left operand is less than or equal to the value of right operand. If yes, then the condition becomes true.	(A <= B) is true.

Logical Operators

Following table shows all the logical operators supported by C language. Assume variable A holds 1 and variable B holds 0, then −

Show Examples

Operator	Description	Example
&&	Called Logical AND operator. If both the operands are non-zero, then the condition becomes true.	(A && B) is false.
||	Called Logical OR Operator. If any of the two operands is non-zero, then the condition becomes true.	(A || B) is true.
!	Called Logical NOT Operator. It is used to reverse the logical state of its operand. If a condition is true, then Logical NOT operator will make it false.	!(A && B) is true.

Bitwise Operators

Bitwise operator works on bits and perform bit-by-bit operation. The truth tables for &, |, and ^ is as follows –

p	q	p & q	p | q	p ^ q
0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	1	1

Assume A = 60 and B = 13 in binary format, they will be as follows –

A = 0011 1100

B = 0000 1101

A&B = 0000 1100

A|B = 0011 1101

A^B = 0011 0001

~A = 1100 0011

The following table lists the bitwise operators supported by C. Assume variable 'A' holds 60 and variable 'B' holds 13, then –

Show Examples

Operator	Description	Example
&	Binary AND Operator copies a bit to the result if it exists in both operands.	(A & B) = 12, i.e., 0000 1100
|	Binary OR Operator copies a bit if it exists in either operand.	(A | B) = 61, i.e., 0011 1101
^	Binary XOR Operator copies the bit if it is set in one operand but not both.	(A ^ B) = 49, i.e., 0011 0001
~	Binary One's Complement Operator is unary and has the effect of 'flipping' bits.	(~A) = ~(60), i.e,. -0111101
<<	Binary Left Shift Operator. The left operands value is moved left by the number of bits specified by the right operand.	A << 2 = 240 i.e., 1111 0000
>>	Binary Right Shift Operator. The left operands value is moved right by the number of bits specified by the right operand.	A >> 2 = 15 i.e., 0000 1111

Assignment Operators

The following table lists the assignment operators supported by the C language –

Show Examples

Operator	Description	Example
=	Simple assignment operator. Assigns values from right side operands to left side operand	C = A + B will assign the value of A + B to C
+=	Add AND assignment operator. It adds the right operand to the left operand and assign the result to the left operand.	C += A is equivalent to C = C + A
-=	Subtract AND assignment operator. It subtracts the right operand from the left operand and assigns the result to the left operand.	C -= A is equivalent to C = C - A
*=	Multiply AND assignment operator. It multiplies the right operand with the left operand and assigns the result to the left operand.	C *= A is equivalent to C = C * A
/=	Divide AND assignment operator. It divides the left operand with the right operand and assigns the result to the left operand.	C /= A is equivalent to C = C / A
%=	Modulus AND assignment operator. It takes modulus using two operands and assigns the result to the left operand.	C %= A is equivalent to C = C % A
<<=	Left shift AND assignment operator.	C <<= 2 is same as C = C << 2
>>=	Right shift AND assignment operator.	C >>= 2 is same as C = C >> 2
&=	Bitwise AND assignment operator.	C &= 2 is same as C = C & 2
^=	Bitwise exclusive OR and assignment operator.	C ^= 2 is same as C = C ^ 2
|=	Bitwise inclusive OR and assignment operator.	C |= 2 is same as C = C | 2

Misc Operators ↦ sizeof & ternary

Besides the operators discussed above, there are a few other important operators including sizeof and ? : supported by the C Language.

Show Examples

Operator	Description	Example
sizeof()	Returns the size of a variable.	sizeof(a), where a is integer, will return 4.
&	Returns the address of a variable.	&a; returns the actual address of the variable.
*	Pointer to a variable.	*a;
? :	Conditional Expression.	If Condition is true ? then value X : otherwise value Y

Operators Precedence in C

Operator precedence determines the grouping of terms in an expression and decides how an expression is evaluated. Certain operators have higher precedence than others; for example, the multiplication operator has a higher precedence than the addition operator.

For example, x = 7 + 3 * 2; here, x is assigned 13, not 20 because operator * has a higher precedence than +, so it first gets multiplied with 3*2 and then adds into 7.

Here, operators with the highest precedence appear at the top of the table, those with the lowest appear at the bottom. Within an expression, higher precedence operators will be evaluated first.

Show Examples

Category

Postfix

Unary

Category	Operator	Associativity
Postfix	() [] -> . ++ - -	Left to right
Unary	+ - ! ~ ++ - - (type)* & sizeof	Right to left
Multiplicative	* / %	Left to right
Additive	+ -	Left to right
Shift	<< >>	Left to right
Relational	< <= > >=	Left to right
Equality	== !=	Left to right
Bitwise AND	&	Left to right
Bitwise XOR	^	Left to right
Bitwise OR	|	Left to right
Logical AND	&&	Left to right
Logical OR	||	Left to right
Conditional	?:	Right to left
Assignment	= += -= *= /= %=>>= <<= &= ^= |=	Right to left
Comma	,	Left to right

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Postfix	() [] -> . ++ - -	Left to right
Unary	+ - ! ~ ++ - - (type)* & sizeof	Right to left
Multiplicative	* / %	Left to right
Additive	+ -	Left to right
Shift	<< >>	Left to right
Relational	< <= > >=	Left to right
Equality	== !=	Left to right
Bitwise AND	&	Left to right
Bitwise XOR	^	Left to right
Bitwise OR	|	Left to right
Logical AND	&&	Left to right
Logical OR	||	Left to right
Conditional	?:	Right to left
Assignment	= += -= *= /= %=>>= <<= &= ^= |=	Right to left
Comma	,	Left to right

C - Basic Syntax

You have seen the basic structure of a C program, so it will be easy to understand other basic building blocks of the C programming language.

Tokens in C

A C program consists of various tokens and a token is either a keyword, an identifier, a constant, a string literal, or a symbol. For example, the following C statement consists of five tokens –

```
printf("Hello, World! \n");
```

The individual tokens are –

```
printf
(
   "Hello, World! \n"
)
;
```

Semicolons

In a C program, the semicolon is a statement terminator. That is, each individual statement must be ended with a semicolon. It indicates the end of one logical entity.

Given below are two different statements –

```
printf("Hello, World! \n");
return 0;
```

Comments

Comments are like helping text in your C program and they are ignored by the compiler. They start with /* and terminate with the characters */ as shown below –

```
/* my first program in C */
```

You cannot have comments within comments and they do not occur within a string or character literals.

Identifiers

A C identifier is a name used to identify a variable, function, or any other user-defined item. An identifier starts with a letter A to Z, a to z, or an underscore '_' followed by zero or more letters, underscores, and digits (0 to 9).

C does not allow punctuation characters such as @, $, and % within identifiers. C is a **case-sensitive** programming language. Thus, *Manpower* and *manpower* are two different identifiers in C. Here are some examples of acceptable identifiers –

```
mohd       zara    abc    move_name  a_123
myname50   _temp   j      a23b9      retVal
```

Keywords

The following list shows the reserved words in C. These reserved words may not be used as constants or variables or any other identifier names.

auto	else	long	switch
break	enum	register	typedef
case	extern	return	union
char	float	short	unsigned
const	for	signed	void
continue	goto	sizeof	volatile
default	if	static	while
do	int	struct	_Packed
double			

Whitespace in C

A line containing only whitespace, possibly with a comment, is known as a blank line, and a C compiler totally ignores it.

Whitespace is the term used in C to describe blanks, tabs, newline characters and comments. Whitespace separates one part of a statement from another and enables the compiler to identify where one element in a statement, such as int, ends and the next element begins. Therefore, in

following statement –

```
int age;
```

there must be at least one whitespace character (usually a space) between int and age for the compiler to be able to distinguish them. On the other hand, in the following statement –

```
fruit = apples + oranges;   // get the total fruit
```

no whitespace characters are necessary between fruit and =, or between = and apples, although you are free to include some if you wish to increase readability.

following statement –

```
int age;
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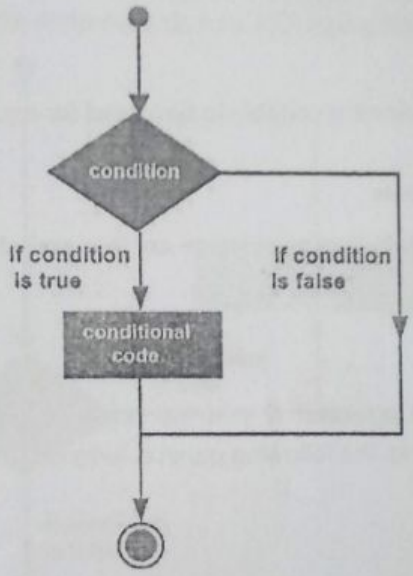
```
fruit = apples + oranges;   // get the total fruit
```

no whitespace characters are necessary between fruit and =, or between = and apples, although you are free to include some if you wish to increase readability.

C - Decision Making

Decision making structures require that the programmer specifies one or more conditions to be evaluated or tested by the program, along with a statement or statements to be executed if the condition is determined to be true, and optionally, other statements to be executed if the condition is determined to be false.

Show below is the general form of a typical decision making structure found in most of the programming languages –



C programming language assumes any **non-zero** and **non-null** values as **true**, and if it is either zero or **null**, then it is assumed as **false** value.

C programming language provides the following types of decision making statements.

Sr.No.	Statement & Description
1	if statement An **if statement** consists of a boolean expression followed by one or more statements.
2	if...else statement An **if statement** can be followed by an optional **else statement**, which executes when the Boolean expression is false.
3	nested if statements You can use one **if** or **else if** statement inside another **if** or **else if** statement(s).
4	switch statement A **switch** statement allows a variable to be tested for equality against a list of values.
5	nested switch statements You can use one **switch** statement inside another **switch** statement(s).

The ? : Operator

We have covered **conditional operator ? :** in the previous chapter which can be used to replace **if...else** statements. It has the following general form –

```
Exp1 ? Exp2 : Exp3;
```

Where Exp1, Exp2, and Exp3 are expressions. Notice the use and placement of the colon.

The value of a ? expression is determined like this –

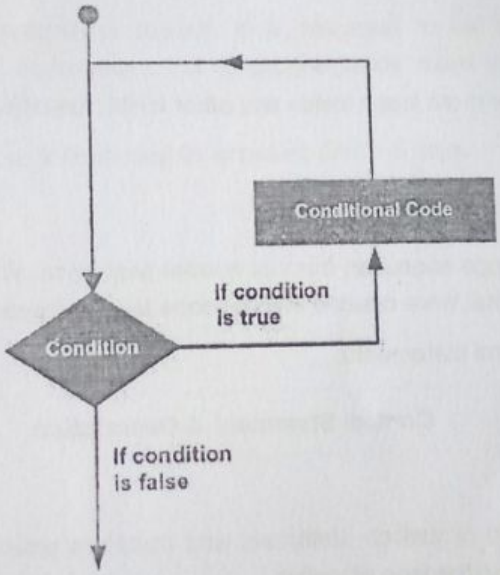
- Exp1 is evaluated. If it is true, then Exp2 is evaluated and becomes the value of the entire ? expression.
- If Exp1 is false, then Exp3 is evaluated and its value becomes the value of the expression.

C - Loops

You may encounter situations, when a block of code needs to be executed several number of times. In general, statements are executed sequentially: The first statement in a function is executed first, followed by the second, and so on.

Programming languages provide various control structures that allow for more complicated execution paths.

A loop statement allows us to execute a statement or group of statements multiple times. Given below is the general form of a loop statement in most of the programming languages −



C programming language provides the following types of loops to handle looping requirements.

Sr.No.	Loop Type & Description
1	while loop Repeats a statement or group of statements while a given condition is true. It tests the condition before executing the loop body.
2	for loop Executes a sequence of statements multiple times and abbreviates the code that manages the loop variable.
3	do...while loop It is more like a while statement, except that it tests the condition at the end of the loop body.
4	nested loops You can use one or more loops inside any other while, for, or do..while loop.

Loop Control Statements

Loop control statements change execution from its normal sequence. When execution leaves a scope, all automatic objects that were created in that scope are destroyed.

C supports the following control statements.

Sr.No.	Control Statement & Description
1	break statement Terminates the **loop** or **switch** statement and transfers execution to the statement immediately following the loop or switch.
2	continue statement Causes the loop to skip the remainder of its body and immediately retest its condition prior to reiterating.
3	goto statement Transfers control to the labeled statement.

The Infinite Loop

...op becomes an infinite loop if a condition never becomes false. The for loop is traditionally ...ed for this purpose. Since none of the three expressions that form the 'for' loop are required, ...ou can make an endless loop by leaving the conditional expression empty.

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main () {

   for( ; ; ) {
      printf("This loop will run forever.\n");
   }

   return 0;
}
```

When the conditional expression is absent, it is assumed to be true. You may have an initialization and increment expression, but C programmers more commonly use the for(;;) construct to signify an infinite loop.

NOTE – You can terminate an infinite loop by pressing Ctrl + C keys.

Data Structures & Algorithms

Data Structure is a systematic way to organize data in order to use it efficiently. Following terms are the foundation terms of a data structure.

- **Interface** − Each data structure has an interface. Interface represents the set of operations that a data structure supports. An interface only provides the list of supported operations, type of parameters they can accept and return type of these operations.
- **Implementation** − Implementation provides the internal representation of a data structure. Implementation also provides the definition of the algorithms used in the operations of the data structure.

Characteristics of a Data Structure

- **Correctness** − Data structure implementation should implement its interface correctly.
- **Time Complexity** − Running time or the execution time of operations of data structure must be as small as possible.
- **Space Complexity** − Memory usage of a data structure operation should be as little as possible.

Need for Data Structure

As applications are getting complex and data rich, there are three common problems that applications face now-a-days.

- **Data Search** − Consider an inventory of 1 million(10^6) items of a store. If the application is to search an item, it has to search an item in 1 million(10^6) items every time slowing down the search. As data grows, search will become slower.
- **Processor speed** − Processor speed although being very high, falls limited if the data grows to billion records.
- **Multiple requests** − As thousands of users can search data simultaneously on a web server, even the fast server fails while searching the data.

To solve the above-mentioned problems, data structures come to rescue. Data can be organized in a data structure in such a way that all items may not be required to be searched, and the required data can be searched almost instantly.

Execution Time Cases

There are three cases which are usually used to compare various data structure's execution time in a relative manner.

- **Worst Case** − This is the scenario where a particular data structure operation takes maximum time it can take. If an operation's worst case time is $f(n)$ then this operation will not take more than $f(n)$ time where $f(n)$ represents function of n.

- **Average Case** – This is the scenario depicting the average execution time of an operation of a data structure. If an operation takes $f(n)$ time in execution, then m operations will take $mf(n)$ time.
- **Best Case** – This is the scenario depicting the least possible execution time of an operation of a data structure. If an operation takes $f(n)$ time in execution, then the actual operation may take time as the random number which would be maximum as $f(n)$.

Basic Terminology

Data – Data are values or set of values.
Data Item – Data item refers to single unit of values.
Group Items – Data items that are divided into sub items are called as Group Items.
Elementary Items – Data items that cannot be divided are called as Elementary Items.
Attribute and Entity – An entity is that which contains certain attributes or properties, which may be assigned values.
Entity Set – Entities of similar attributes form an entity set.
Field – Field is a single elementary unit of information representing an attribute of an entity.
Record – Record is a collection of field values of a given entity.
File – File is a collection of records of the entities in a given entity set.

//(need to setup environment for practical's, C/C++ or Java compilers)

Data Structures - Algorithms Basics

Algorithm is a step-by-step procedure, which defines a set of instructions to be executed in a certain order to get the desired output. Algorithms are generally created **independent** of underlying languages, **i.e.** an algorithm can be implemented in more than one programming language.

From the data structure point of view, following are some important categories of algorithms –

- **Search** – Algorithm to search an item in a data structure.
- **Sort** – Algorithm to sort items in a certain order.
- **Insert** – Algorithm to insert item in a data structure.
- **Update** – Algorithm to update an existing item in a data structure.
- **Delete** – Algorithm to delete an existing item from a data structure.

Characteristics of an Algorithm

Not all procedures can be called an algorithm. An algorithm should have the following characteristics –

- **Unambiguous** – Algorithm should be clear and unambiguous. Each of its steps (or phases), and their inputs/outputs should be clear and must lead to only one meaning.
- **Input** – An algorithm should have 0 or more well-defined inputs.
- **Output** – An algorithm should have 1 or more well-defined outputs, and should match the desired output.

- **Finiteness** – Algorithms must terminate after a finite number of steps.
- **Feasibility** – Should be feasible with the available resources.
- **Independent** – An algorithm should have step-by-step directions, which should be independent of any programming code.

How to Write an Algorithm?

There are no well-defined standards for writing algorithms. Rather, it is problem and resource dependent. Algorithms are never written to support a particular programming code.

As we know that all programming languages share basic code constructs like loops (do, for, while), flow-control (if-else), etc. These common constructs can be used to write an algorithm.

We write algorithms in a step-by-step manner, but it is not always the case. Algorithm writing is a process and is executed after the problem domain is well-defined. That is, we should know the problem domain, for which we are designing a solution.

Example

Let's try to learn algorithm-writing by using an example.

Problem – Design an algorithm to add two numbers and display the result.

```
Step 1 - START
Step 2 - declare three integers a, b & c
Step 3 - define values of a & b
Step 4 - add values of a & b
Step 5 - store output of step 4 to c
Step 6 - print c
Step 7 - STOP
```

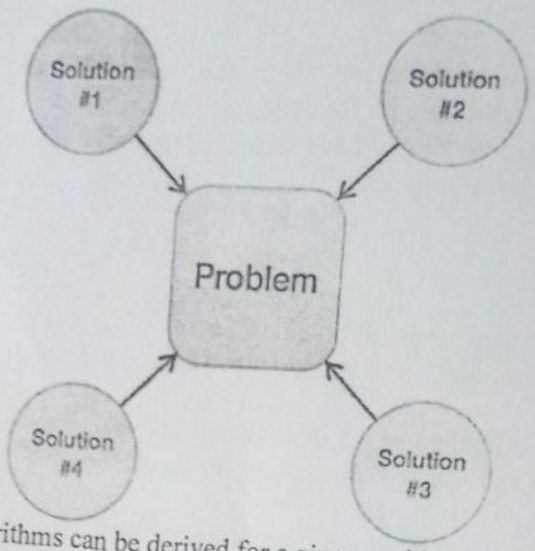
Algorithms tell the programmers how to code the program. Alternatively, the algorithm can be written as –

```
Step 1 - START ADD
Step 2 - get values of a & b
Step 3 - c ← a + b
Step 4 - display c
Step 5 - STOP
```

In design and analysis of algorithms, usually the second method is used to describe an algorithm. It makes it easy for the analyst to analyze the algorithm ignoring all unwanted definitions. Analyst can observe what operations are being used and how the process is flowing.

Writing **step numbers**, is optional.

We design an algorithm to get a solution of a given problem. A problem can be solved in more than one ways.



Hence, many solution algorithms can be derived for a given problem. The next step is to analyze those proposed solution algorithms and implement the best suitable solution.

Algorithm Analysis

Efficiency of an algorithm can be analyzed at two different stages, before implementation and after implementation. They are the following –

- ***A Priori* Analysis** – This is a theoretical analysis of an algorithm. Efficiency of an algorithm is measured by assuming that all other factors, for example, processor speed, are constant and have no effect on the implementation.
- ***A Posterior* Analysis** – This is an empirical analysis of an algorithm. The selected algorithm is implemented using programming language. This is then executed on target computer machine. In this analysis, actual statistics like running time and space required, are collected.

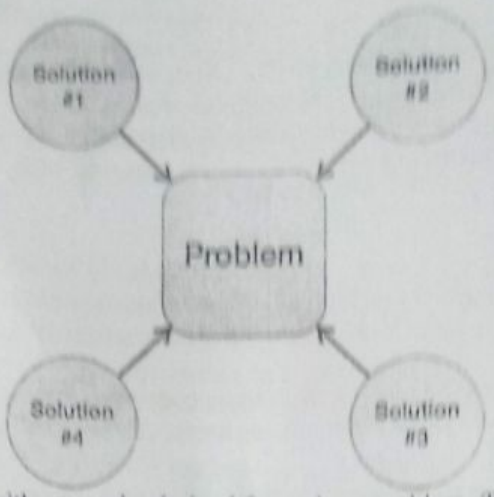
We shall learn about *a priori* algorithm analysis. Algorithm analysis deals with the execution or running time of various operations involved. The running time of an operation can be defined as the number of computer instructions executed per operation.

Algorithm Complexity

Suppose **X** is an algorithm and **n** is the size of input data, the time and space used by the algorithm X are the two main factors, which decide the efficiency of X.

- **Time Factor** – Time is measured by counting the number of key operations such as comparisons in the sorting algorithm.
- **Space Factor** – Space is measured by counting the maximum memory space required by the algorithm.

The complexity of an algorithm **f(n)** gives the running time and/or the storage space required by the algorithm in terms of **n** as the size of input data.



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Algorithm Complexity

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- **Time Factor** − Time is measured by counting the number of key operations such as comparisons in the sorting algorithm.
- **Space Factor** − Space is measured by counting the maximum memory space required by the algorithm.

The complexity of an algorithm **f(n)** gives the running time and/or the storage space required by the algorithm in terms of **n** as the size of input data.

increase linearly with the increase in **n** and the running time of the second operation will increase exponentially when **n** increases. Similarly, the running time of both operations will be nearly the same if **n** is significantly small.

Usually, the time required by an algorithm falls under three types −

- **Best Case** − Minimum time required for program execution.
- **Average Case** − Average time required for program execution.
- **Worst Case** − Maximum time required for program execution.

Asymptotic Notations

Following are the commonly used asymptotic notations to calculate the running time complexity of an algorithm.

- O Notation
- Ω Notation
- θ Notation

Big-O Notation, O

The notation O(n) is the formal way to express the upper bound of an algorithm's running time. It measures the worst case time complexity or the longest amount of time an algorithm can possibly take to complete.

For example, for a function $f(\mathbf{n})$

Common Asymptotic Notations

Following is a list of some common asymptotic notations −

constant	–	$O(1)$
logarithmic	–	$O(\log n)$
linear	–	$O(n)$
n log n	–	$O(n \log n)$
quadratic	–	$O(n^2)$
cubic	–	$O(n^3)$
polynomial	–	$n^{O(1)}$
exponential	–	$2^{O(n)}$

Data Structures - Divide and Conquer

In divide and conquer approach, the problem in hand, is divided into smaller sub-problems and then each problem is solved independently. When we keep on dividing the subproblems into even smaller sub-problems, we may eventually reach a stage where no more division is possible. Those "atomic" smallest possible sub-problem (fractions) are solved. The solution of all sub-problems is finally merged in order to obtain the solution of an original problem.

Broadly, we can understand **divide-and-conquer** approach in a three-step process.

Divide/Break

This step involves breaking the problem into smaller sub-problems. Sub-problems should represent a part of the original problem. This step generally takes a recursive approach to divide the problem until no sub-problem is further divisible. At this stage, sub-problems become atomic in nature but still represent some part of the actual problem.

Conquer/Solve

This step receives a lot of smaller sub-problems to be solved. Generally, at this level, the problems are considered 'solved' on their own.

Merge/Combine

When the smaller sub-problems are solved, this stage recursively combines them until they formulate a solution of the original problem. This algorithmic approach works recursively and conquer & merge steps works so close that they appear as one.

Examples

The following computer algorithms are based on **divide-and-conquer** programming approach –

- Merge Sort
- Quick Sort
- Binary Search
- Strassen's Matrix Multiplication
- Closest pair (points)

There are various ways available to solve any computer problem, but the mentioned are a good example of divide and conquer approach.

Data Structures - Dynamic Programming

Dynamic programming approach is similar to divide and conquer in breaking down the problem into smaller and yet smaller possible sub-problems. But unlike, divide and conquer, these sub-problems are not solved independently. Rather, results of these smaller sub-problems are remembered and used for similar or overlapping sub-problems.

Dynamic programming is used where we have problems, which can be divided into similar sub-problems, so that their results can be re-used. Mostly, these algorithms are used for optimization. Before solving the in-hand sub-problem, dynamic algorithm will try to examine the results of the previously solved sub-problems. The solutions of sub-problems are combined in order to achieve the best solution.

So we can say that –

- The problem should be able to be divided into smaller overlapping sub-problem.
- An optimum solution can be achieved by using an optimum solution of smaller sub-problems.
- Dynamic algorithms use Memorization.

Comparison

In contrast to greedy algorithms, where local optimization is addressed, dynamic algorithms are motivated for an overall optimization of the problem.

In contrast to divide and conquer algorithms, where solutions are combined to achieve an overall solution, dynamic algorithms use the output of a smaller sub-problem and then try to optimize a bigger sub-problem. Dynamic algorithms use Memorization to remember the output of already solved sub-problems.

Example

The following computer problems can be solved using dynamic programming approach –

- Fibonacci number series
- Knapsack problem
- Tower of Hanoi
- All pair shortest path by Floyd-Warshall
- Shortest path by Dijkstra
- Project scheduling

Dynamic programming can be used in both top-down and bottom-up manner. And of course, most of the times, referring to the previous solution output is cheaper than recomputing in terms of CPU cycles.

Data Structures & Algorithm Basic Concepts

This chapter explains the basic terms related to data structure.

Data Definition

Data Definition defines a particular data with the following characteristics.

- **Atomic** – Definition should define a single concept.
- **Traceable** – Definition should be able to be mapped to some data element.
- **Accurate** – Definition should be unambiguous.
- **Clear and Concise** – Definition should be understandable.

Data Object

Data Object represents an object having a data.

Data Type

Data type is a way to classify various types of data such as integer, string, etc. which determines the values that can be used with the corresponding type of data, the type of operations that can be performed on the corresponding type of data. There are two data types –

- Built-in Data Type
- Derived Data Type

Built-in Data Type

Those data types for which a language has built-in support are known as Built-in Data types. For example, most of the languages provide the following built-in data types.

- Integers
- Boolean (true, false)
- Floating (Decimal numbers)
- Character and Strings

Derived Data Type

Those data types which are implementation independent as they can be implemented in one or the other way are known as derived data types. These data types are normally built by the combination of primary or built-in data types and associated operations on them. For example –

- List
- Array
- Stack
- Queue

Basic Operations

The data in the data structures are processed by certain operations. The particular data structure chosen largely depends on the frequency of the operation that needs to be performed on the data structure.

- Traversing
- Searching
- Insertion
- Deletion
- Sorting
- Merging

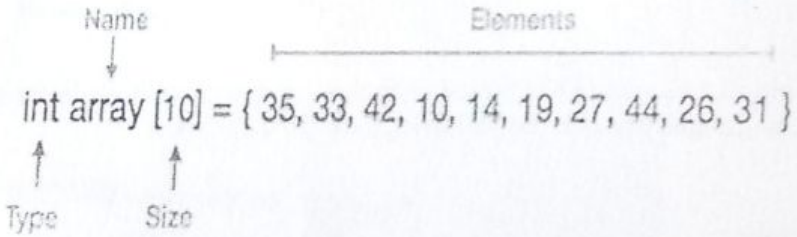
Data Structures and Algorithms - Arrays

Array is a container which can hold a fix number of items and these items should be of the same type. Most of the data structures make use of arrays to implement their algorithms. Following are the important terms to understand the concept of Array.

- **Element** − Each item stored in an array is called an element.
- **Index** − Each location of an element in an array has a numerical index, which is used to identify the element.

Array Representation

Arrays can be declared in various ways in different languages. For illustration, let's take C array declaration.



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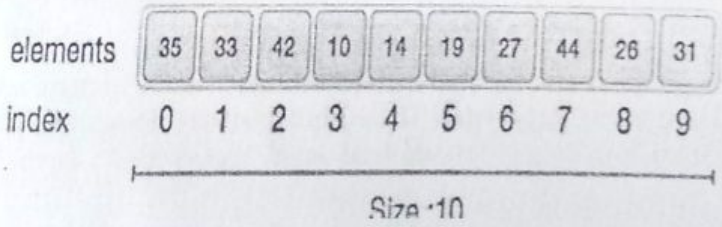


As per the above illustration, following are the important points to be considered.

- Index starts with 0.
- Array length is 10 which means it can store 10 elements.
- Each element can be accessed via its index. For example, we can fetch an element at index 6 as 9.

Basic Operations

Following are the basic operations supported by an array.

- **Traverse** – print all the array elements one by one.
- **Insertion** – Adds an element at the given index.
- **Deletion** – Deletes an element at the given index.
- **Search** – Searches an element using the given index or by the value.
- **Update** – Updates an element at the given index.

Traverse Operation

This operation is to traverse through the elements of an array.

Example

Following program traverses and prints the elements of an array:

```
#include <stdio.h>
main() {
   int LA[] = {1,3,5,7,8};
   int item = 10, k = 3, n = 5;
   int i = 0, j = n;
   printf("The original array elements are :\n");
   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }
}
```

When we compile and execute the above program, it produces the following result –

Output

```
The original array elements are :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 5
LA[3] = 7
LA[4] = 8
```

Insertion Operation

Insert operation is to insert one or more data elements into an array. Based on the requirement, a new element can be added at the beginning, end, or any given index of array.

Here, we see a practical implementation of insertion operation, where we add data at the end of the array –

Example

Following is the implementation of the above algorithm –

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

main() {
   int LA[] = {1,3,5,7,8};
   int item = 10, k = 3, n = 5;
   int i = 0, j = n;

   printf("The original array elements are :\n");

   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }

   n = n + 1;

   while( j >= k) {
      LA[j+1] = LA[j];
      j = j - 1;
   }

   LA[k] = item;

   printf("The array elements after insertion :\n");

   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }
}
```

When we compile and execute the above program, it produces the following result –

Output

```
The original array elements are :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 5
LA[3] = 7
LA[4] = 8
The array elements after insertion :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 5
LA[3] = 10
LA[4] = 7
LA[5] = 8
```

For other variations of array insertion operation click here

Deletion Operation

Deletion refers to removing an existing element from the array and re-organizing all elements of an array.

Algorithm

Consider **LA** is a linear array with **N** elements and **K** is a positive integer such that K<=N. Following is the algorithm to delete an element available at the K^{th} position of LA.

```
1. Start
2. Set J = K
3. Repeat steps 4 and 5 while J < N
4. Set LA[J] = LA[J + 1]
5. Set J = J+1
6. Set N = N-1
7. Stop
```

Example

Following is the implementation of the above algorithm –

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

void main() {
   int LA[] = {1,3,5,7,8};
   int k = 3, n = 5;
   int i, j;

   printf("The original array elements are :\n");

   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }

   j = k;

   while( j < n) {
      LA[j-1] = LA[j];
      j = j + 1;
   }

   n = n -1;

   printf("The array elements after deletion :\n");

   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }
}
```

When we compile and execute the above program, it produces the following result –

Output

```
The original array elements are :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 5
LA[3] = 7
LA[4] = 8
```

```
The array elements after deletion :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 7
LA[3] = 8
```

Search Operation

You can perform a search for an array element based on its value or its index.

Algorithm

Consider LA is a linear array with N elements and K is a positive integer such that K<=N. Following is the algorithm to find an element with a value of ITEM using sequential search.

```
1. Start
2. Set J = 0
3. Repeat steps 4 and 5 while J < N
4. IF LA[J] is equal ITEM THEN GOTO STEP 6
5. Set J = J +1
6. PRINT J, ITEM
7. Stop
```

Example

Following is the implementation of the above algorithm –

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

void main() {
   int LA[] = {1,3,5,7,8};
   int item = 5, n = 5;
   int i = 0, j = 0;

   printf("The original array elements are :\n");

   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }

   while( j < n){
      if( LA[j] == item ) {
         break;
      }

      j = j + 1;
   }

   printf("Found element %d at position %d\n", item, j+1);
}
```

When we compile and execute the above program, it produces the following result –

Output

```
The original array elements are :
```

```
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 5
LA[3] = 7
LA[4] = 8
Found element 5 at position 3
```

Update Operation

Update operation refers to updating an existing element from the array at a given index.

Algorithm

Consider **LA** is a linear array with **N** elements and **K** is a positive integer such that **K<=N**. Following is the algorithm to update an element available at the K^{th} position of LA.

```
1. Start
2. Set LA[K-1] = ITEM
3. Stop
```

Example

Following is the implementation of the above algorithm –

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

void main() {
   int LA[] = {1,3,5,7,8};
   int k = 3, n = 5, item = 10;
   int i, j;

   printf("The original array elements are :\n");

   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }

   LA[k-1] = item;

   printf("The array elements after updation :\n");

   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }
}
```

When we compile and execute the above program, it produces the following result –

Output

```
The original array elements are :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 5
LA[3] = 7
LA[4] = 8
```

```
The array elements after updation :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 10
LA[3] = 7
LA[4] = 8
```

Data Structure and Algorithms - Linked List

A linked list is a sequence of data structures, which are connected together via links.

Linked List is a sequence of links which contains items. Each link contains a connection to another link. Linked list is the second most-used data structure after array. Following are the important terms to understand the concept of Linked List.

- **Link** – Each link of a linked list can store a data called an element.
- **Next** – Each link of a linked list contains a link to the next link called Next.
- **LinkedList** – A Linked List contains the connection link to the first link called First.

Linked List Representation

Linked list can be visualized as a chain of nodes, where every node points to the next node.

As per the above illustration, following are the important points to be considered.

- Linked List contains a link element called first.
- Each link carries a data field(s) and a link field called next.
- Each link is linked with its next link using its next link.
- Last link carries a link as null to mark the end of the list.

Types of Linked List

Following are the various types of linked list.

- **Simple Linked List** – Item navigation is forward only.
- **Doubly Linked List** – Items can be navigated forward and backward.
- **Circular Linked List** – Last item contains link of the first element as next and the first element has a link to the last element as previous.

Basic Operations

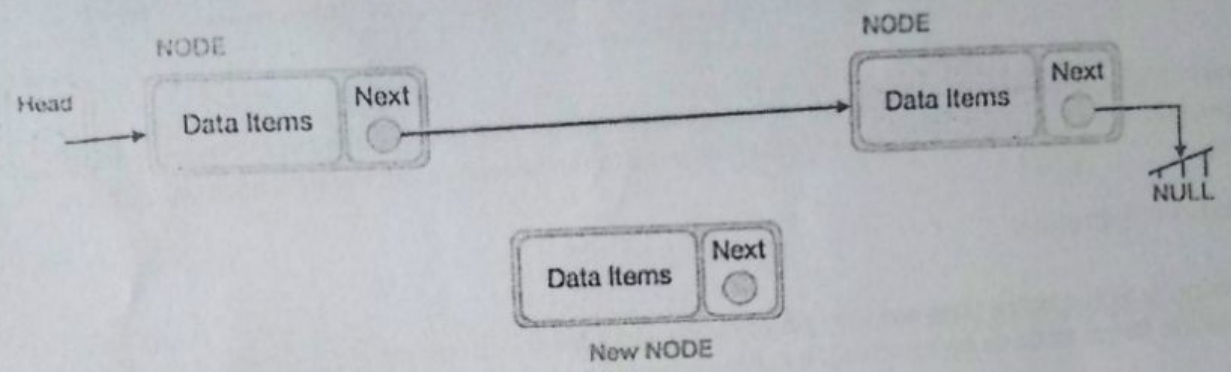
Following are the basic operations supported by a list.

- **Insertion** – Adds an element at the beginning of the list.
- **Deletion** – Deletes an element at the beginning of the list.
- **Display** – Displays the complete list.

- **Search** – Searches an element using the given key.
- **Delete** – Deletes an element using the given key.

Insertion Operation

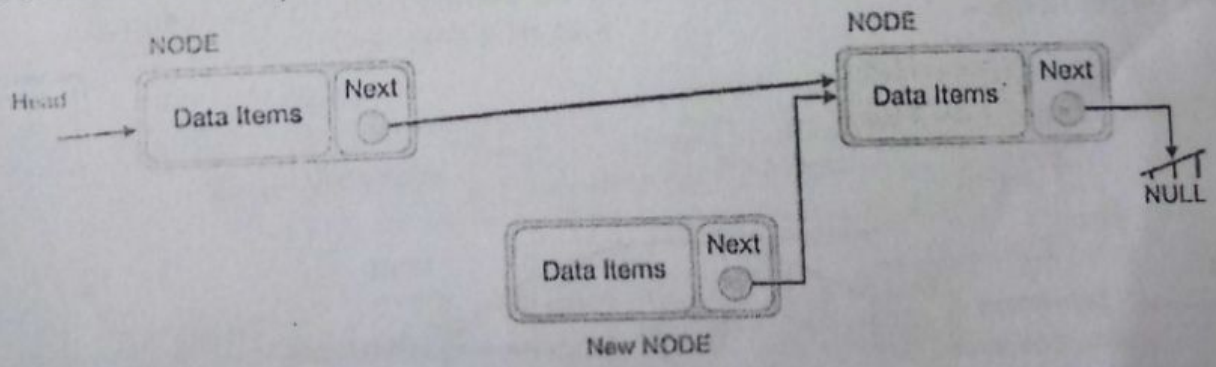
Adding a new node in linked list is a more than one step activity. We shall learn this with diagrams here. First, create a node using the same structure and find the location where it has to be inserted.



Imagine that we are inserting a node B (NewNode), between A (LeftNode) and C (RightNode). Then point B.next to C –

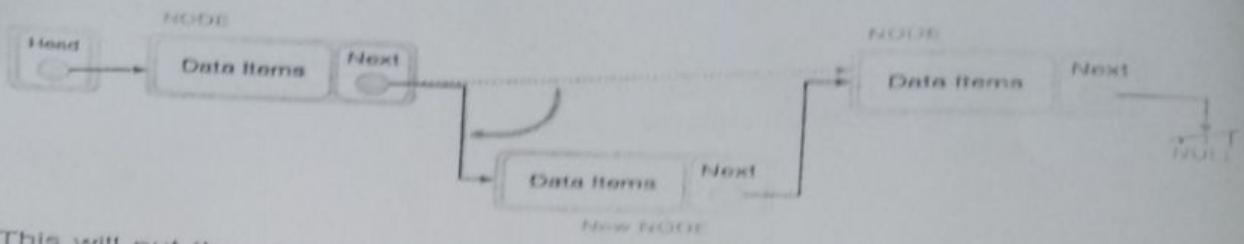
```
NewNode.next -> RightNode;
```

It should look like this –

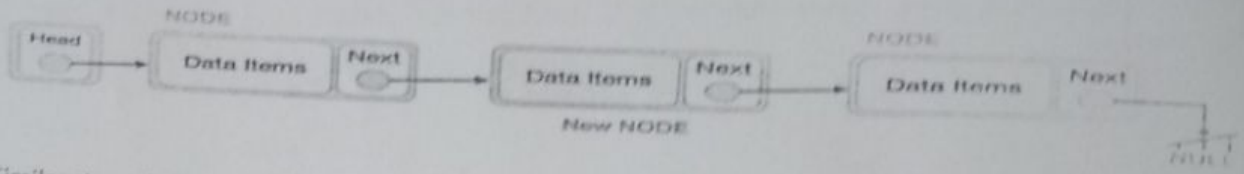


Now, the next node at the left should point to the new node.

```
LeftNode.next -> NewNode;
```



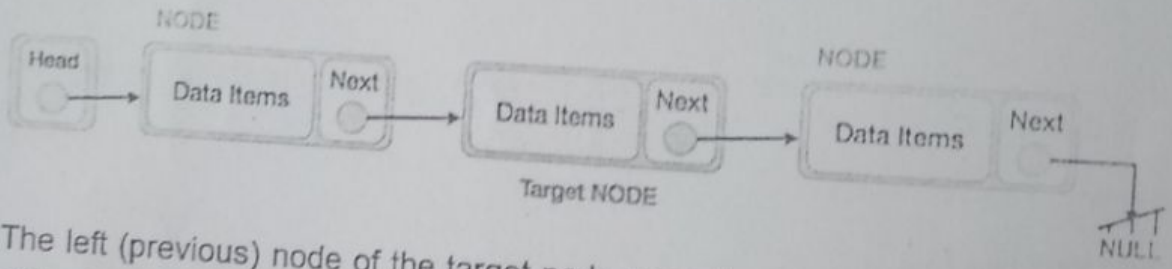
This will put the new node in the middle of the two. The new list should look like this –



Similar steps should be taken if the node is being inserted at the beginning of the list. While inserting it at the end, the second last node of the list should point to the new node and the new node will point to NULL.

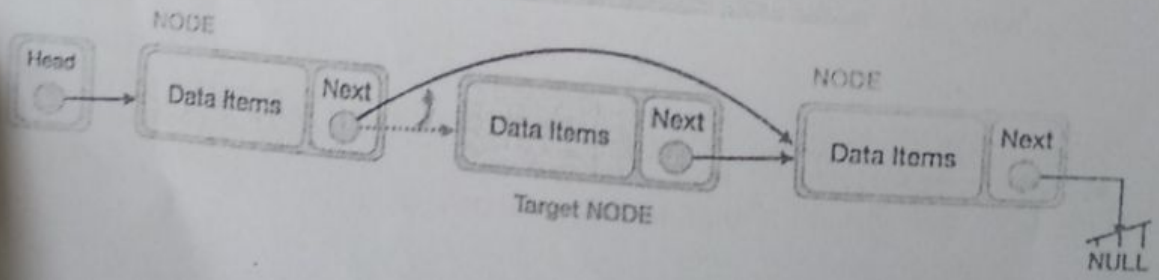
Deletion Operation

Deletion is also a more than one step process. We shall learn with pictorial representation. First, locate the target node to be removed, by using searching algorithms.



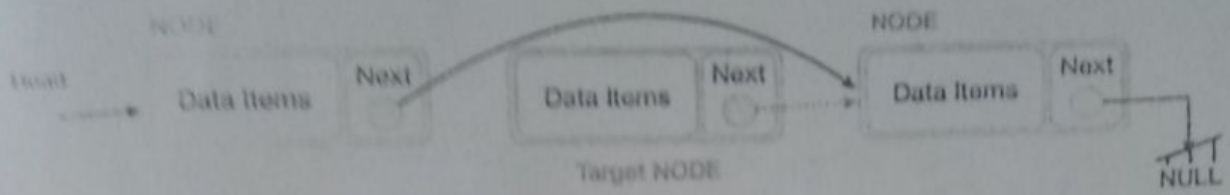
The left (previous) node of the target node now should point to the next node of the target node –

```
LeftNode.next -> TargetNode.next;
```

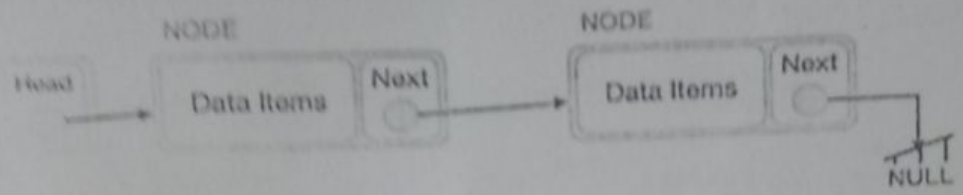


This will remove the link that was pointing to the target node. Now, using the following code, we will remove what the target node is pointing at.

```
TargetNode.next -> NULL;
```

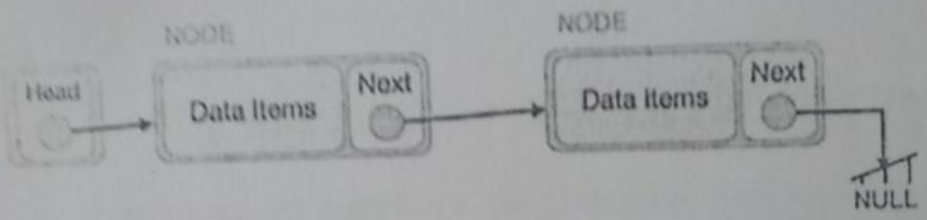


We need to use the deleted node. We can keep that in memory otherwise we can simply deallocate memory and wipe off the target node completely.

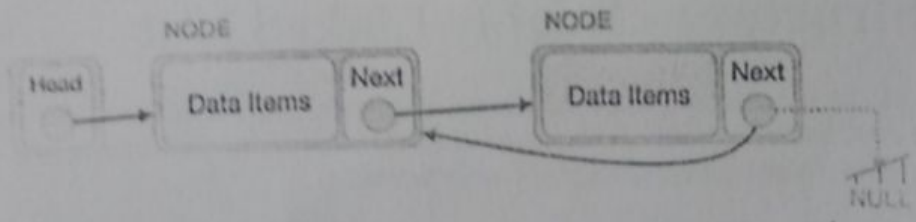


Reverse Operation

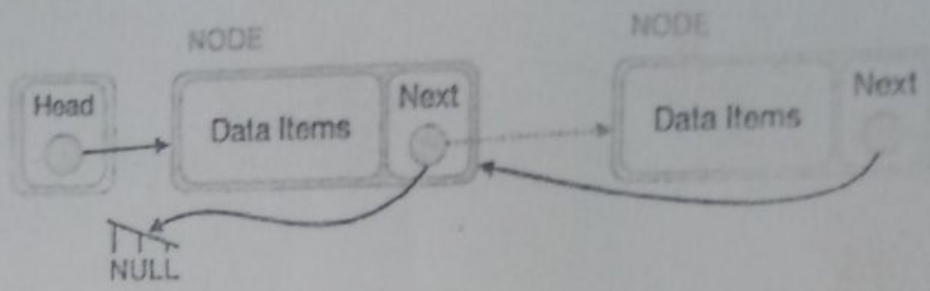
This operation is a thorough one. We need to make the last node to be pointed by the head node and reverse the whole linked list.



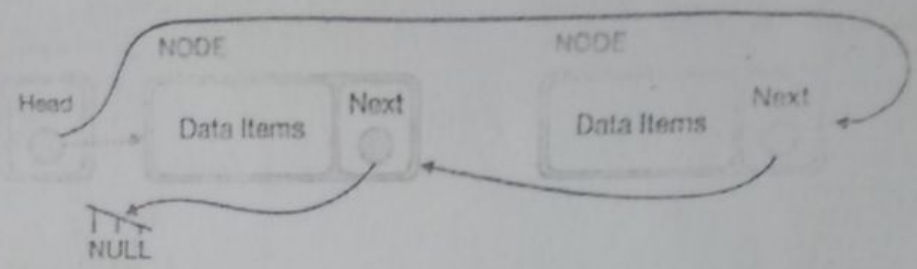
First, we traverse to the end of the list. It should be pointing to NULL. Now, we shall make it point to its previous node –



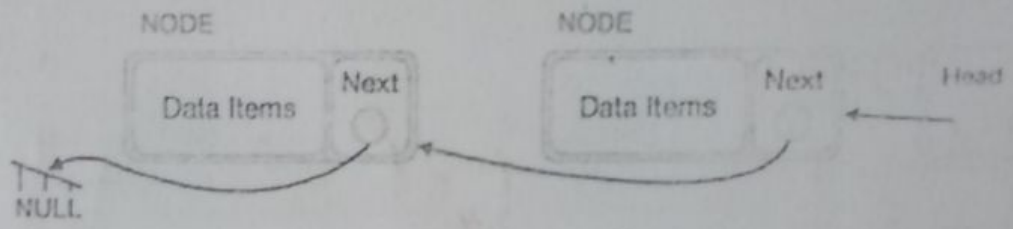
We have to make sure that the last node is not the last node. So we'll have some temp node, which looks like the head node pointing to the last node. Now, we shall make all left side nodes point to their previous nodes one by one.



Except the node (first node) pointed by the head node, all nodes should point to their predecessor, making them their new successor. The first node will point to NULL.



We'll make the head node point to the new first node by using the temp node.



The linked list is now reversed. To see linked list implementation in C programming language, please click here .

Data Structure - Doubly Linked List

Doubly Linked List is a variation of Linked list in which navigation is possible in both ways, either forward and backward easily as compared to Single Linked List. Following are the important terms to understand the concept of doubly linked list.

- **Link** − Each link of a linked list can store a data called an element.
- **Next** − Each link of a linked list contains a link to the next link called Next.
- **Prev** − Each link of a linked list contains a link to the previous link called Prev.
- **LinkedList** − A Linked List contains the connection link to the first link called First and to the last link called Last.

Doubly Linked List Representation