

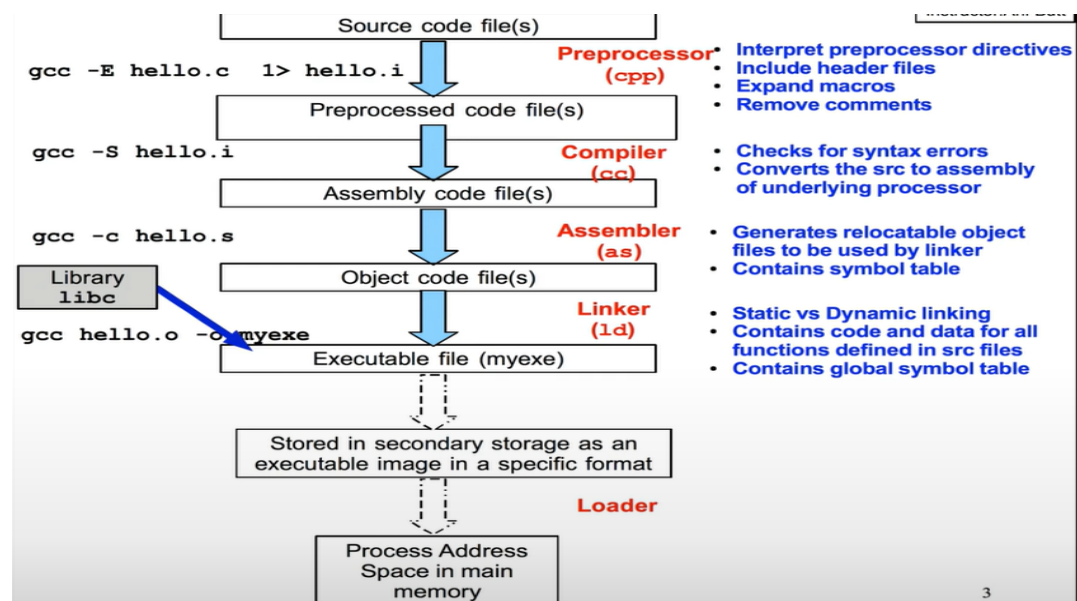
1) Basics:

C is a procedural programming language. It was initially developed by Dennis Ritchie in the year 1972. It was mainly developed as a system programming language to write an operating system. The main features of the C language include low-level memory access.

SIGNED INTEGER: The `int` type in C is a signed integer, which means it can represent both negative and positive numbers. This contrasts with an unsigned integer (which can be used by declaring a variable `unsigned int`), which can only represent positive numbers.

UNSIGNED INTEGER: In the case of an unsigned integer, only positive numbers can be stored. In this data type, all the bits in the integer are used to store a positive value, rather than having some reserved for sign information.

Compilation steps in c:



This command will generate all files: `g++.exe test1.cpp -o test1 -save-temps`

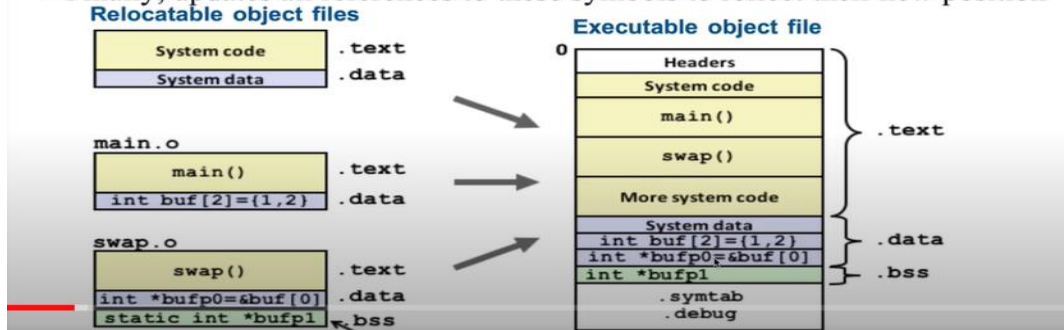
How to check available functions in library files: `ar -t libc.a | grep printf.o`

What linker does: Linker performs two tasks:

- 1) Relocation
- 2) Symbol resolution

Relocation: For each .c file, compilers and assemblers generate code and data sections in each object (.o) file that start at address zero

- The linker merges separate code and data sections into single sections
- It then relocates symbols from their relative locations in the .o files to their final absolute memory locations in the executable
- Finally, updates all references to these symbols to reflect their new position



Linker symbols:

In the context of linker there are three different kinds of symbols:

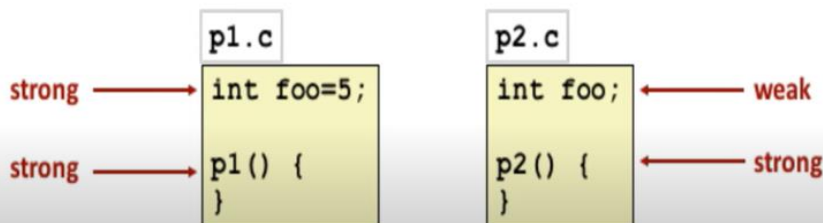
- 1. Global Symbols:** Symbols that are defined in one module and can be referenced by other modules are called global symbols.
- 2. External Symbols:** Global symbols that are referenced by a module, but are defined in some other module. Normally declared with `extern` keyword.

Non static functions and non static global variables fall in above two categories

- 3. Local Symbols:** Symbols that are defined and referenced exclusively by a single module. For example, any global variable or function declared with the `static` keyword is private to that module.

The three types of linker symbols (global, external, and local) are either marked as strong or weak.

- 1. Strong Symbols:** Function names and initialized globals
- 2. Weak Symbols:** Uninitialized globals



Keeping in mind the concept of strong and weak symbols, UNIX linkers use the following rules for dealing with multiply-defined symbols.

1. **Rule 1:** Multiple strong symbols are not allowed
2. **Rule 2:** Given a strong symbol and multiple weak symbols, choose the strong symbol
3. **Rule 3:** If there are multiple weak symbols, choose an arbitrary one

Dynamic library linking can be done two times:

Load time (default case for Linux): If library code is not already loaded by another process; loader loads the code into process's address space. If library code is already loaded, then loader just puts the address

at place of unresolved reference inside memory.

Run time: Programmer has the responsibility to load the using `dlopen` and `dlclose`. Executable is loaded into memory with unresolved references.

Tools: Check the symbol table of objectfile and executable.

`Objectdump -d -M Intel hello.o`

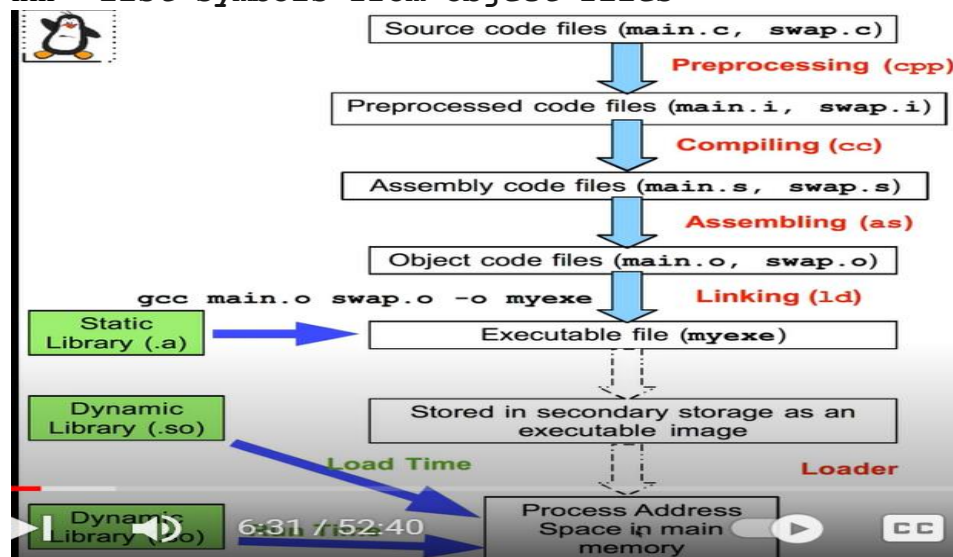
`readelf -s hello.o`

`nm hello.o`

`readelf` - display information about ELF files

`objdump` - display information from object files

`nm` - list symbols from object files



Static library:

How static library is created:

1. Compile .c files to make object file: `gcc -c *.c`
2. Archive object files to create static library: `ar -rs libmymath.a *.o`

Check the content of library: `ar -t libmymath.a`

How to use my own static library:

`gcc -I../ prog1.c -o prog -L../ -lmymath` (-I to include header file path and -L to include your library)

Dynamic library:

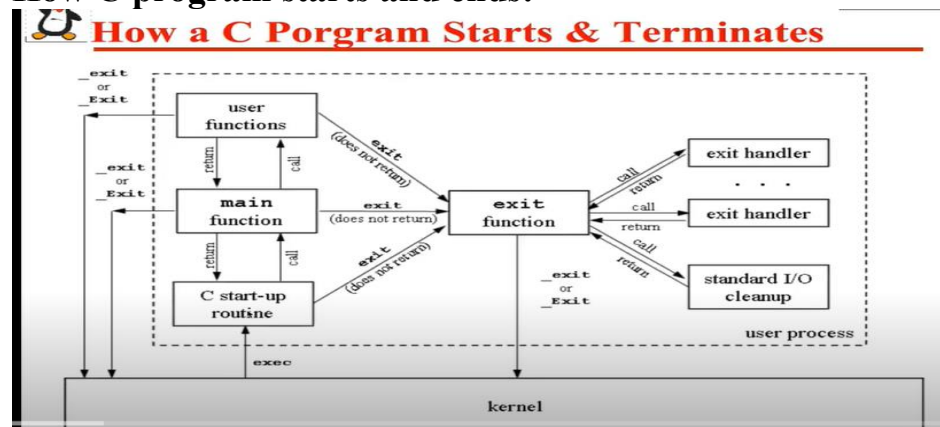
How dynamic library is created:

1. **Compile .c files to make object file:** `gcc -I../ -fPIC *.c -shared -o libmymath.so` (-fPIC is used to make it independent of position and can be referenced from any location)

How to use dynamic library:

`gcc -I../ prog1.c -o prog -L../ -lmymath`

How C program starts and ends:



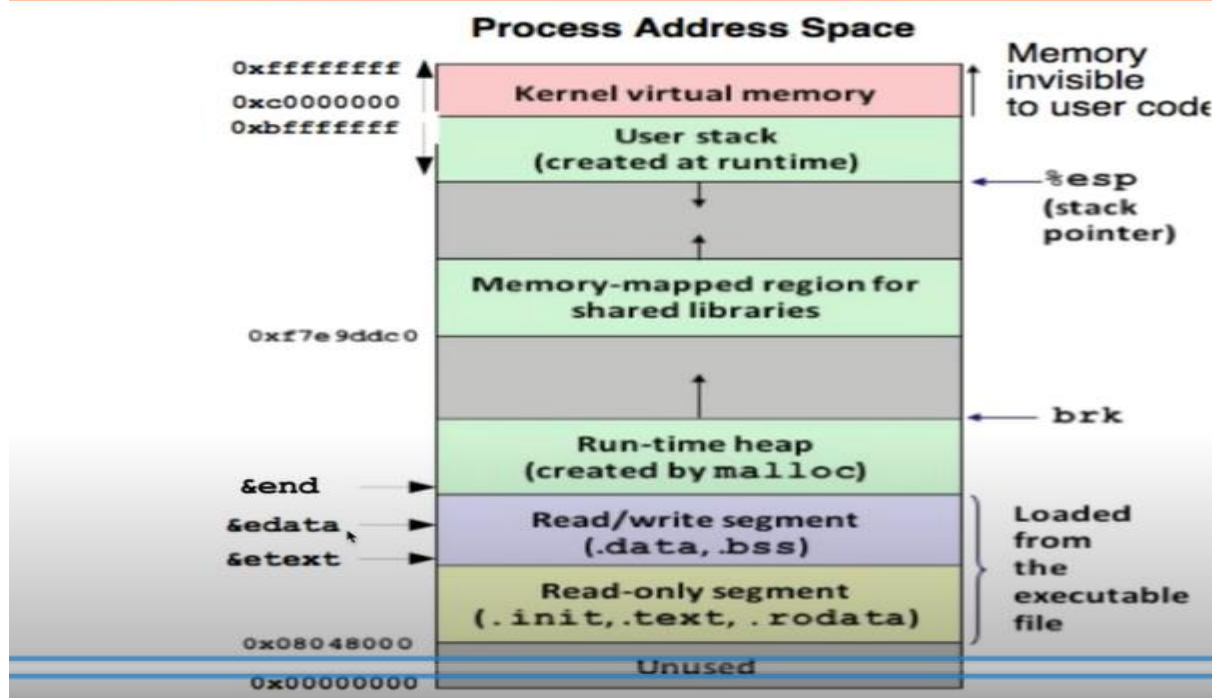
Steps involved: User tries to execute binary on terminal. Kernel uses `exec` system call to load the binary program in address space of process. Then C-start-up routines are called. C-start-up routine consists of code to set the command line args and env variables and main function is called.

Strace command is used to trace the system calls and signals sent to it.

Ex: `strace a.out`

Process logical address space:

Process Logical Address Space



System memory is reserved for kernel and its data structure (process table, global open file descriptor, mount table)

Heap allocation: Heap starts just above the data segment and moved upto memory mapped region area. Heap grows in upward direction.

Allocators come in two basic styles. Both styles require the application to explicitly allocate blocks. They differ about which entity is responsible for freeing allocated blocks

- **Explicit allocators** require the application to explicitly free any allocated blocks. For example, the C standard library provides an explicit allocator called the `malloc` package. C programs allocate a block by calling the `malloc` function and free a block by calling the `free` function. In C++, we normally use the `new` and `delete` operators
- **Implicit allocators** require the allocator to detect when an allocated block is no longer being used by the program and then free the block. Implicit allocators are also known as garbage collectors, and the process of automatically freeing unused allocated blocks is known as garbage collection. For example, higher-level languages such as Lisp, ML and Java rely on garbage collection to free allocated blocks

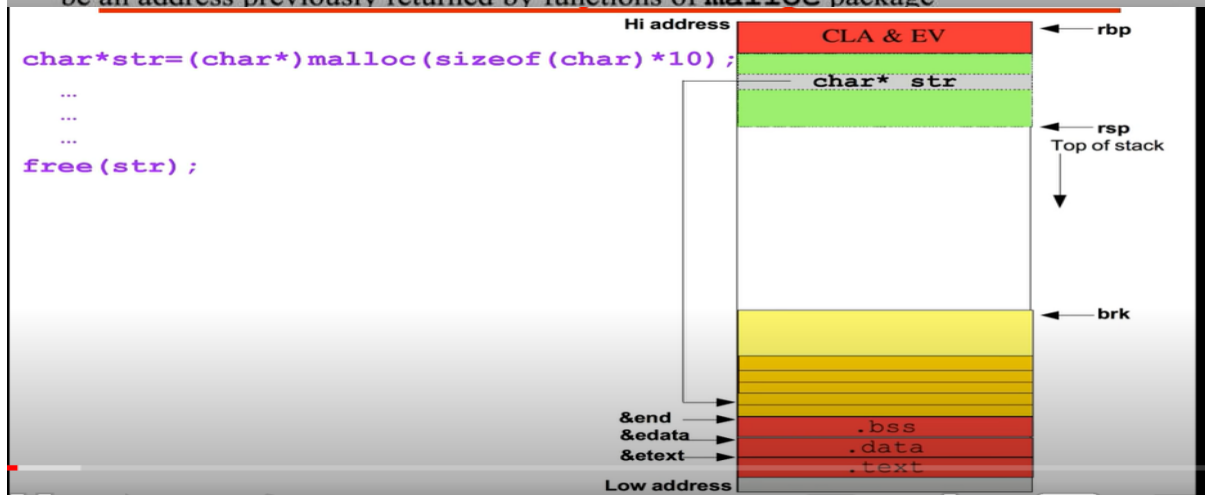
Malloc function family:


```

void *malloc (size_t size);
void*calloc(size_t noOfObjects, size_t size);
void *realloc (void* ptr, size_t newsize );
void free ( void* ptr );

```

- **malloc()** allocates size bytes from the heap and returns a pointer to the start of the newly allocated block of memory. On failure returns NULL and sets **errno** to indicate error
- **calloc()** allocates space for specific number of objects, each of specified size. Returns a pointer to the start of the newly allocated block of memory. Unlike **malloc()**, **calloc()** initializes the allocated memory to zero. On failure returns NULL and sets **errno** to indicate error
- **realloc()** is used to resize a block of memory previously allocated by one of the functions in **malloc()** package. Ptr argument is the pointer to the block of memory that is to be resized. On success **realloc()** returns a pointer to the location of the resized block, which may be different from its location before the call. On failure, returns NULL and leaves the previous block pointed to by pointer untouched.
- **free()** deallocates the block of memory pointed to by its pointer argument, which should be an address previously returned by functions of **malloc** package



Char* str is stored in stack and points to dynamic unnamed memory.

```

int brk(void* end_data_segment);

```

- Resizing the heap is actually telling the kernel to adjust the process's **program break**, which lies initially just above the end of the uninitialized data segment (i.e end variable)
- **brk()** is a system call that sets the **program break** to location specified by **end_data_segment**. Since virtual memory is allocated in pages, this request is rounded up to the page boundary. Any attempt to lower the program break than **end** results in segmentation fault
- The upper limit to which the program break can be set depends on range of factors like:
 - Process resource limit for size of data segment
 - Location of memory mappings, shared memory segment and shared libraries

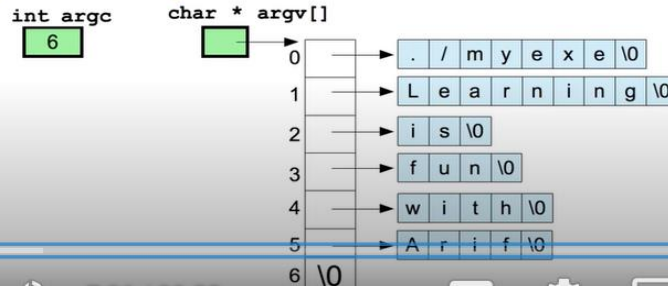
Command line arguments:



Command Line Arguments

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]){
    printf("No of arguments passed are: %d\n",argc);
    printf("Parameters are:\n");
    for(int i = 0; argv[i] != NULL ; i++)
        printf("argv[%d]:%s \n", i, argv[i]);
    return 0;
}
```

\$./myexe Learning is fun with Arif

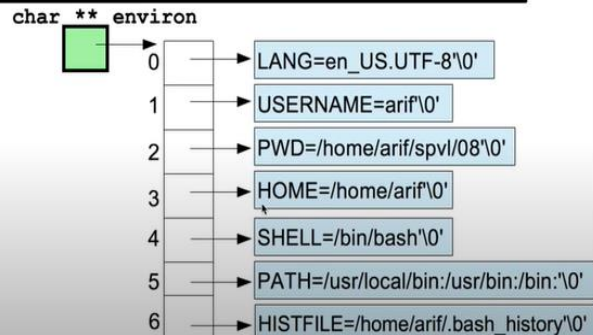


Environment variables:

Accessing Environment Variables

```
int extern char **environ;
int main(){
    printf("\n Environment variable passed are:\n");
    for (int i = 0; environ[i] != NULL ; i++)
        printf("environ[%d]:%s\n", i, environ[i]);
    return 0;
}
```

\$./myexe



2) Storage class in c

Storage classes in C				
Storage Specifier	Storage	Initial value	Scope	Life
auto	stack	Garbage	Within block	End of block
extern	Data segment	Zero	global Multiple files	Till end of program
static	Data segment	Zero	Within block	Till end of program
register	CPU Register	Garbage	Within block	End of block

auto:

This is the default storage class for all the variables declared inside a function or a block. It is stored in stack.

static :

it is accessible in same file only not in multiple files. It is stored in data section (read only if const. else writable of data section). static variables cannot be reinitialized.

Can we declare static variable in header file?? static means that the variable is only used within your compilation unit and will not be exposed to the linker, so if you have a static int in a header file and include it from two separate .c files, you will have two discrete copies of that int, which is most likely not at all what you want.

Extern:

globally declared variables and functions can be declared as extern in other files or same files. declaration can be done multiple times, but definition must be once.

//extern int var = 0; -> variable is declared and defined both so errors.

//extern int var; --> variable is declared extern, but no definition is found, even no header file inclusion means no definition is present so compile error.

//int main(void)

//{

// var = 10;

// return 0;

//}

register:

This storage class declares register variables which have the same functionality as that of the auto variables.

//The only difference is that the compiler tries to store these variables in the register of the microprocessor if a free register is available.

//Declaration and definition: int a; --> is declaration and definition both.... extern int a;-> only declaration.

Volatile: The volatile keyword is intended to prevent the compiler from applying any optimizations on objects that can change in ways that cannot be determined by the compiler.

Usage of volatile:

1) *Global variables modified by an interrupt service routine outside the scope:* For example, a global variable can represent a data port (usually global pointer referred as memory mapped IO) which will be updated dynamically. The code reading data port must be declared as volatile in order to fetch latest data available at the port. Failing to declare variable as volatile, the compiler will optimize the code in such a way that it will read the port only once and keeps using the same value in a temporary register to speed up the program.

2) *Global variables within a multi-threaded application:* There are multiple ways for threads communication, viz, message passing, shared memory, mail boxes, etc. A global variable is weak form of shared memory. When two threads sharing information via global variable, they need to be qualified with volatile. Since threads run asynchronously, any update of global variable due to one thread should be fetched freshly by another consumer thread.

3) Memory layout:

Text segment (i.e. instructions): Machine code of compiled program.

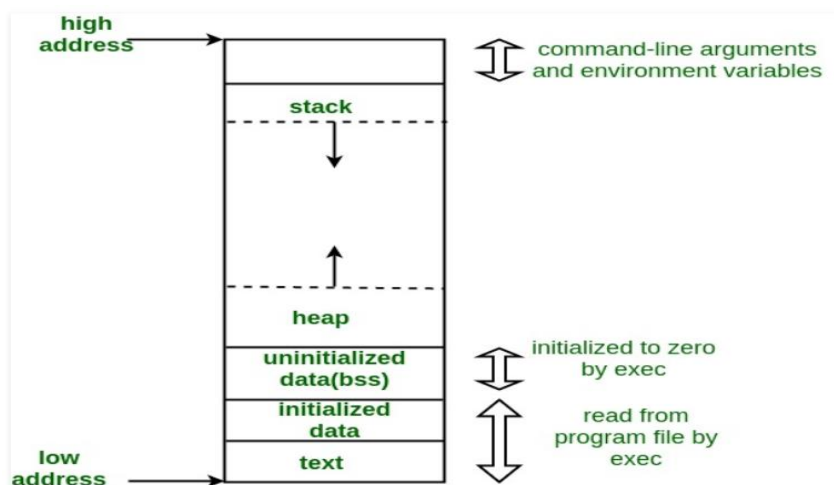
Initialized data segment: Initialized data segment, usually called simply the Data Segment. A data segment is a portion of the virtual address space of a program, which contains the global variables and static variables that are initialized by the programmer.

Uninitialized data segment (bss): Uninitialized data segment often called the “bss” segment, named after an ancient assembler operator, that stood for “block started by symbol.” Data in this segment is initialized by the kernel to arithmetic 0 before the program starts executing. uninitialized data starts at the end of the data segment and contains all global variables and static variables that are initialized to zero or do not have explicit initialization in source code.

Heap: Heap is the segment where dynamic memory allocation usually takes place.

The heap area begins at the end of the BSS segment and grows to larger addresses from there. The Heap area is shared by all shared libraries and dynamically loaded modules in a process.

Stack: Where automatic variables are stored, along with information that is saved each time a function is called. Each time a function is called, the address of where to return to and certain information about the caller’s environment, such as some of the machine registers, are saved on the stack.



Virtual memory get available to PCB for allocating space at run time. While heap can grow to all available memory, mostly stack can't be grows whenever required.

/* code with memory leak */

```
int main(void)
{
    int *ptr = (int*)malloc(10);

    return 0;
}
```

//Check the leak summary with valgrind tool. It shows memory leak of 10 bytes, which is highlighted in red colour.

```
valgrind -leak-check=full ./free
==1238== LEAK SUMMARY:
==1238==    definitely lost: 10 bytes in 1 blocks.
```

```
int main(void)
{

    int *ptr = (int*) malloc(10);

    /* we are calling realloc with size = 0 */

    realloc(ptr, 0);

    return 0;

}
```

Difference Between malloc() and calloc():The name **malloc** and **calloc()** are library functions that allocate memory dynamically. It means that memory is allocated during runtime(execution of the program) from the heap segment.

Malloc:Allocates memory block of given size (in bytes) and returns a pointer to the beginning of the block. malloc() doesn't initialize the allocated memory. If we try to access the content of memory block(before initializing) then we'll get segmentation fault error(or maybe garbage values). **void* malloc(size_t size);**

calloc: Allocates the memory and also initializes the allocated memory block to zero. If we try to access the content of these blocks then we'll get 0. **void* calloc(size_t num, size_t size);**

How does free() know the size of memory to be deallocated:When memory allocation is done, the actual heap space allocated is one word larger than the requested memory. The extra word is used to store the size of the allocation and is later used by free()

4) Functions:

- **Parameter Passing to functions:**

- **Pass by Value:** In this parameter passing method, values of actual parameters are copied to function's formal parameters and the two types of parameters are stored in different memory locations. So any changes made inside functions are not reflected in actual parameters of caller.
- **Pass by Reference** Both actual and formal parameters refer to same locations, so any changes made inside the function are reflected in actual parameters of caller.

- **Functions that are executed before and after main() in C:**

```
/* Apply the constructor attribute to myStartupFun() so that it is executed before main() */
void myStartupFun (void) __attribute__((constructor));

/* Apply the destructor attribute to myCleanupFun() so that it is executed after main() */
void myCleanupFun (void) __attribute__((destructor));

/* implementation of myStartupFun */
void myStartupFun (void)
{
    printf ("startup code before main()\n");
}
/* implementation of myCleanupFun */
void myCleanupFun (void)
{
    printf ("cleanup code after main()\n");
}
int main (void)
{
    printf ("hello\n");
    return 0;
}
```

- **return statement vs exit() in main():** When `exit(0)` is used to exit from program, destructors for locally scoped non-static objects are not called. But destructors are called if `return 0` is used. Can be checked using c++ program.
- **What is evaluation order of function parameters in C?:** It is compiler dependent in C. It is never safe to depend on the order of evaluation of side effects.
- **Does C support function overloading?** No but generic function can be implemented by using `void*`.

```
int foo(void * arg1, int arg2);
```

- **Function pointers**

```
void fun(int a)
```

```

{
}
int main()
{
// fun_ptr is a pointer to function fun()
void (*fun_ptr)(int) = &fun;

    // Invoking fun() using fun_ptr
    (*fun_ptr)(10);
}
// fun_ptr_arr is an array of function pointers
void (*fun_ptr_arr[])(int, int) = {add, subtract, multiply};

```

- **call back functions:**

```

typedef int callback_t;

callback_t add(int x, int y)
{
    return(x+y);
}
callback_t sub(int x, int y)
{
    return((x>y)?(x-y):(y-x));
}

//callback functions:array of function pointers
callback_t (*fun[])(int,int) = {add,sub};

int main()
{
    printf("value after addition is =%d\n", (*fun[0])(5,4));
    printf("value after subtraction is =%d\n", (*fun[1])(5,4));
    return 0;
}

```

- **Generic function:** We can write generic function using void pointer:

```

#include<stdio.h>

enum type {
    TYPE_CHAR,
    TYPE_INT,
    TYPE_FLOAT
};

void* add(enum type t, void *vp1, void *vp2)
{
    int k, l;
    switch (t) {
        case TYPE_CHAR:
            break;

```



```

        case TYPE_INT:
            k = (*(int *)vp1);
            l = (*(int *)vp2);
            return &(k+l);

        case TYPE_FLOAT:
            break;
    }

}

int main()
{
    int i=5;
    int j = 6;

    int ret = add(TYPE_INT, &i, &j);
    printf("%d\n",ret);
    return 0;
}

```

- **Count Variable Numbers of Arguments:** C supports variable numbers of arguments. But there is no language provided way for finding out total number of arguments passed. User must handle this in one of the following ways:
 - 1) By passing first argument as count of arguments.
 - 2) By passing last argument as NULL (or 0).
 - 3) Using some printf (or scanf) like mechanism where first argument has placeholders for rest of the arguments.
-

- **Control statements:**

- **Switch:**

- switch is alternate way for lot of if-elseif. every case must have break but not in "default".
- The expression provided in the switch should result in a constant value otherwise it would not be valid.
- Duplicate case values are not allowed.
- The default statement is optional. Even if the switch case statement do not have a default statement, it would run without any problem.

- **range in switch case:**

```

switch (arr[i])
{
    case 1 ... 6:
        cout << arr[i] << " in range 1 to 6\n";
        break;
    default:
        cout << arr[i] << " not in range\n";
        break;
}

```

-
-

- **If-elseif-else:**

- if takes zero and non-zero values. If can take fractional also ie. 3.5(non zero)
- if-elseif-else: if is true then control will not go to elseif and else. if is not true then elseif will be checked.

-
- **Array:** An array in C/C++ or be it in any programming language is a collection of similar data items stored at contiguous memory locations and elements can be accessed randomly using indices of an array. They can be used to store collection of primitive data types such as int, float, double, char, etc of any particular type.

- **Array declaration by specifying size**

```
int arr1[10];
```

- **declare an array of user specified size**

```
int n = 10;
int arr2[n];
```

- **Array declaration by initializing elements**

```
int arr[] = { 10, 20, 30, 40 }
```

- **Array declaration by specifying size and initializing elements**

```
int arr[6] = { 10, 20, 30, 40 }
```

- **Strings in C:**

Initializing a String:

```
//char str[] = "GeeksforGeeks";
//char str[50] = "GeeksforGeeks";
//char str[] = {'G','e','e','k','s','f','o','r','G','e','e','k','s','\0'};
//char str[14] = {'G','e','e','k','s','f','o','r','G','e','e','k','s','\0'};
```

//while using scanf to read input from user for char array. we do not use '&'. ex:// reading string: scanf("%s",str); --> because str without '[' and ']' is base
//address of string.

/puts(str); --> print string to console(standard output)

//int fputs(const char *str, FILE *stream)--> writes a string to the specified stream up

// c = fgetc(fp); --> reads character from file stream.

//char* str2 = (char*)malloc(sizeof(char) * size); -->allocating dynamic memory to char*.
//const char* str = "This is GeeksForGeeks"; --> if u don't use const it will throw warning.
beacause rhs is constant.

//// const char* str = "This is GeeksForGeeks"; and then str[1] = 'o'; --> gives compile time error because trying to modify read only value.

char str[] = "Hello"; and then str[1] = 'o'; it's correct.

char* str1 = "Hello world"; //str1[1] = 'A' => **not possible as char pointer is pointing to constant memory location which is used for storing string.**

//We can not assign string to another but pointers can be assigned:

Int main()

```
{
    Char str1[] = "Hi";
    Char str2[10];
    Char*s ="hello";
    Char* q;

    Str1 = str2; //error
    Q = s; //valid
}
```

// str1[] = "Hi"; str2[] = "Bye"; we can not assign str1 = str2 (or str2 = str1) --> constants can not be assigned...

// char*str1 = "hi"; char*str2 ="bye"; str1 = str2(correct)

Once string is defined, it can not be initialised with other set of characters. It's valid for pointers:
Int main()

```
{
    Char str1[] = "Hi";
    Char* p = "bye";
    Str1 = "hello"; //error
    P = "hello"; //valid
}
```

//const char *p ----> p is pointer, pointing to const char*(means char* value can't be modified....

//char * const p ----> const p is pointing to char*(p can not point to other string)

//const char * const p ----> both r constant means string can not be modified and also p can not point to other string.

// programs: strlen, strcpy, strcat, strcmp, string reversing

Pointers:

Ex:

// Declare an array

```
int val[3] = { 5, 10, 15};
```

// Declare pointer variable

```
int *ptr;
```

// Assign address of val[0] to ptr.

// We can use ptr=&val[0]; (both are same)

```
ptr = val ;
```

```
cout << "Elements of the array are: ";
```

```
cout << ptr[0] << " " << ptr[1] << " " << ptr[2];
```

- **Dangling pointer: A pointer pointing to a memory location that has been deleted (or freed) is called dangling pointer.**

- `int *ptr = (int *)malloc(sizeof(int));`

```
// After below free call, ptr becomes a
// dangling pointer
free(ptr);
```

```
// No more a dangling pointer
ptr = NULL;
```

Ex: Dangling pointer:

// The pointer pointing to local variable becomes

// dangling when local variable is not static.

```
int *fun()
```

```
{
```

```
    // x is local variable and goes out of
```

```
    // scope after an execution of fun() is
```

```
    // over.
```

```
    int x = 5; //if we take it static then, no dangling pointer...
```

```
    return &x;
```

```
}
```

// Driver Code

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
    int *p = fun();
```

```
    fflush(stdin);
```

```
    // p points to something which is not
```

```
    // valid anymore
```

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

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

- **Void pointer:** Void pointer is a specific pointer type – void * – a pointer that points to some data location in storage, which doesn't have any specific type. void pointers cannot be dereferenced. It can however be done using typecasting the void pointer. Pointer arithmetic is not possible on pointers of void due to lack of concrete value and thus size.
- **Wild pointer:** A pointer which has not been initialized to anything (not even NULL) is known as wild pointer.
- **Pointer variable can be assigned a value whereas array variable cannot be:**

```
int a[10];
int *p;
p=a; /*legal*/
a=p; /*illegal*/
```


- Arithmetic on pointer variable is allowed.

```
p++; /*Legal*/
a++; /*illegal*/
```

- Near pointer is used to store 16 bit addresses means within current segment on a 16 bit machine. The limitation is that we can only access 64kb of data at a time.
- A far pointer is typically 32 bit that can access memory outside current segment. To use this, compiler allocates a segment register to store segment address.
- huge pointer is also typically 32 bit and can access outside segment. In case of far pointers, a segment is fixed. In far pointer, the segment part cannot be modified, but in Huge it can be.
- **Pointer to integer variable:**

```
int *p;
int x =10;
p=&x; //p is pointing to x means p is having address of variable x. *p will give value at x and p will have x's address.
```

- **Pointer to an array:**

```
//int *p; int arr[] = {1,2,3,4}; p=arr; -> p is pointing to arr base address. p[0] or *p will give value of arr[0]. p[1] or *(p+1) will give value of arr[1]. p: is pointer to 0th element of the array arr. The base type of p is int. Assign address of arr[0] to ptr or arr is same.
```

- **Pointer to an array of 4 integers**

```
//int arr[] = {1,2,3,4}; int (*p)[4]--> This pointer to an array of 4 integers. p= &arr; p[0][0]-> arr[0], p[0][1] is equal to arr[1]. ptr is a pointer that points to the whole array arr. so if we write p++, then the pointer ptr will be shifted forward by 16 bytes.
```

- **More pointer concepts:**

```
/Ex: const int a =10; const int *p; p = &a;
/*p = 20;--> a cannot be modified through p(since p is holding address of int and it should be const)
// a =10; --> a is constant, cannot be modified
//int *const p -> p cannot hold any other address.
//const int *constp-> p cannot hold any other address and a cannot be modified by p.

//int *p; --> int *
```

Enum, Struct and Union:

- **Enumeration (or enum):** is a user defined data type in C. It is mainly used to assign names to integral constants, the names make a program easy to read and maintain.

```
enum week{Mon, Tue, Wed};
enum week day;
Or
enum week{Mon, Tue, Wed}day;
```

```
//enum State {Working = 1, Failed = 0};
```

```
//Two enum names can have same value: enum State {Working = 1, Failed = 0, Freezed = 0};
// If we do not explicitly assign values to enum names, the compiler by default assigns values starting from 0
//We can assign values to some name in any order. All unassigned names get value as value of previous name plus one: enum day {sunday = 1, monday, tuesday = 5, wednesday, thursday = 10, friday, saturday};
```

- **Structure:** A structure is a user defined data type in C/C++. A structure creates a data type that can be used to group items of possibly different types into a single type.

// A variable declaration with structure declaration.

```
struct address
{
    char name[50];
    char street[100];
    char city[50];
    char state[20];
    int pin;
};
```

- **Structure members cannot be initialized with declaration:**

```
struct Point
{
    int x = 0; // COMPILER ERROR: cannot initialize members here
    int y = 0; // COMPILER ERROR: cannot initialize members here
};
```

- **Structure members can be initialized using curly braces**

```
'{}'
struct Point p1 = {0, 1};
```

- **Structure members are accessed using dot (.) operator:**

```
Accessing members of point p1
p1.x = 20;
```

- **array of structures:**

```
struct Point arr[10];
```

- **Union:** is a user defined data type. In union, all members share the same memory location.

both x and y share the same location. If we change x, we see the changes being reflected in y:

```
union test
{
    int x, y;
};
```

```
int main()
{
    // A union variable t
```

```

union test t;
t.x = 2; // t.y also gets value 2
printf("After making x = 2:\n x
= %d, y = %d\n\n",
t.x, t.y);
}

```

- Size of a union is taken according to the size of largest member in union.

- **Structure Padding:**

To align the data in memory, one or more empty bytes (addresses) are inserted (or left empty) between memory addresses which are allocated for other structure members while memory allocation. This concept is called structure padding.

Architecture of a computer processor is such a way that it can read 1 word (4 bytes 32 bit processor) from memory at a time.

To make use of this advantage of processor, data are always aligned as 4 bytes package which leads to insert empty addresses between other member's address.

Ex: struct student

```

{
    int id1;
    int id2;
    char a;
    char b;
    float percentage;
}

```

sizeof struct student should be $(4+4+1+1+4) = 14$ but it's wrong. size will be $(4+4+4(\text{for two chars})+4) = 16$ due to structure alignment.

//Structure padding takes extra memory sapce so need to avoid structure padding. avoid structure padding, we use structure packing.

```

struct stud
{
    int x;
    char y;
    int z;
};

```

>size of struct stud will be $(4+4+4) = 12$ (due to structure padding)

- **Structure packing:**

```

#pragma pack(1)
struct stud
{
    int x;
    char y;
    int z;
};

```

>size of struct stud will be $(4+1+4) = 9$ (due to structure packing). pragma pack(1) will

not add 4 bytes for char data type but only 1 byte. If we use pragma pack(2)..it will add 2 bytes for char data type.

- **Bit Fields:**

//The idea is to use memory efficiently when we know that the value of a field or group of fields will never exceed a limit or is within a small range.

```
//struct date {  
// d has value between 1 and 31, so 5 bits  
// are sufficient  
// unsigned int d: 5;
```

```
  
// m has value between 1 and 12, so 4 bits  
// are sufficient  
// unsigned int m : 4;
```

```
  
// unsigned int y;  
//}; sizeof struct date = 8 bytes(4 bytes for int d and int m and 4 bytes for int y)
```

- **Input/Output:**

printf() : It returns total number of Characters Printed, Or negative value if an output error or an encoding error.

scanf() : It returns **total number of Inputs Scanned successfully**, or EOF if input failure occurs before the first receiving argument was assigned.

return type of getchar(), fgetc() and getc() is int (not char). So it is recommended To assign the returned values of these functions to an integer type variable.

```
int in;  
while ((in = getchar()) != EOF)  
{  
    putchar(in);  
}
```

Operators:

Arithmetic Operators (+, -, *, /, %, post-increment, pre-increment, post-decrement, pre-decrement)

Relational Operators (==, !=, >, <, >= & <=) Logical Operators (&&, || and !)

Bitwise Operators (&, |, ^, ~, >> and <<)

Assignment Operators (=, +=, -=, *=, etc)

Logical Operators:

Logical AND operator: The '&&' operator returns true when both the conditions under consideration are satisfied. Otherwise, it returns false. For example, a && b returns true when both a and b are true (i.e. non-zero).

Logical OR operator: The '||' operator returns true even if one (or both) of the conditions under consideration is satisfied. Otherwise, it returns false. For example, a || b returns true if one of a or b or both are true (i.e. non-zero). Of course, it returns true when both a and b are true.

Logical NOT operator: The '!' operator returns true the condition in consideration is not satisfied. Otherwise it returns false. For example, !a returns true if a is false, i.e. when a=0.

Bitwise operator:

The & (bitwise AND) in C or C++ takes two numbers as operands and does AND on every bit of two numbers. The result of AND is 1 only if both bits are 1.

The | (bitwise OR) in C or C++ takes two numbers as operands and does OR on every bit of two numbers. The result of OR is 1 if any of the two bits is 1.

The ^ (bitwise XOR) in C or C++ takes two numbers as operands and does XOR on every bit of two numbers. The result of XOR is 1 if the two bits are different.

The << (left shift) in C or C++ takes two numbers, left shifts the bits of the first operand, the second operand decides the number of places to shift.

The >> (right shift) in C or C++ takes two numbers, right shifts the bits of the first operand, the second operand decides the number of places to shift.

//Bitwise and(&) is used to reset bit(1->0). If bit is 1 & 0 will reset bit.

//Bitwise or(|) is used to enable bit(0->1). 0|1 will set bit.

//& is used to check if bit is enabled or disabled by performing & with 1 to that bit.

//Bitwise or(|) operations: 1|1 = 1, 0|0 = 0, 1|0 = 1, 0|1 = 1

//Bitwise xor(^) operations: 1^1 = 0, 0^0 = 0, 1^0 = 1, 0^1 = 1

//Bitwise and(&) operations: 1&1 = 1, 0&0 = 0, 1&0 = 0, 0&1 = 0

precedence of Prefix ++ (or Prefix --) has same priority than dereference (*) operator, and precedence of Postfix ++ (or Postfix --) is higher than both Prefix ++ and *.

If p is a pointer then *p++ is equivalent to *(p++) and ++*p is equivalent to ++(*p) (both Prefix ++ and * are right

Ex:

```
// Program 1
#include<stdio.h>
int main()
{
char arr[] = "geeksforgeeks";
char *p = arr;
++*p;
printf(" %c", *p);
getchar();
return 0;
}
o/p: h
```

Ex:

```
// Program 2
#include<stdio.h>
```

```

int main()
{
char arr[] = "geeksforgeeks";
char *p = arr;
*p++;
printf(" %c", *p);
getchar();
return 0;
}

```

O/P: e

Data Type:

Char: The most basic data type in C. It stores a single character and requires a single byte of memory in almost all compilers.

int: As the name suggests, an int variable is used to store an integer.

float: It is used to store decimal numbers (numbers with floating point value) with single precision.

double: It is used to store decimal numbers (numbers with floating point value) with double precision.

*******File handling*******

//Reading from a file:

//FILE * filePointer;

//filePointer = fopen("fileName.txt", "r");

//fscanf(filePointer, "%s %s %s %d", str1, str2, str3, &year);

//Writing a file:

//FILE *filePointer ;

//filePointer = fopen("fileName.txt", "w");

//fprintf(filePointer, "%s %s %s %d", "We", "are", "in", 2012);

//Closing a file

//FILE *filePointer ;

//filePointer= fopen("fileName.txt", "w");

//----- Some file Operations -----

//fclose(filePointer)

//fputs can be used for writing string to file:

//char dataToBeWritten[50] = "GeeksforGeeks-A Computer Science Portal for Geeks";

//fputs(dataToBeWritten, filePointer) ;

//fgets can be used for reading from file:

//while(fgets (dataToBeRead, 50, filePointer) != NULL)

macros vs functions//

//By using macro, You get a nice performance as the preprocessor takes care of expanding the code wherever you have used the macro,
// so there is no stack or function call needed for this but You cannot return a parameter.
// You cannot debug a macro. and If the macro is used at multiple places, this will increase your binary size.You cannot do recursion in macro.

//Is it fine to write “void main()” or “main()”:
//The int returned by main() is a way for a program to return a value to “the system” that invokes it

//Command line arguments//

//argc (ARGument Count) is int and stores number of command-line arguments passed by the //user including the name of the program. So if we pass a value to a program,
//value of argc would be 2 (one for argument and one for program name)
//The value of argc should be non negative.
//argv(ARGument Vector) is array of character pointers listing all the arguments.
//If argc is greater than zero,the array elements from argv[0] to argv[argc-1] will contain pointers to strings.
//Argv[0] is the name of the program , After that till argv[argc-1] every element is command -line arguments.

//////////return statement vs exit() in main()

//In C++, what is the difference between exit(0) and return 0 ?
//When exit(0) is used to exit from program, destructors for locally scoped
//non-static objects are not called. But destructors are called if return 0 is used.

*****file_handling_C*****

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

```
int main( )
{
```

```
    // Declare the file pointer
    FILE *filePointer ;
```

```
    // Get the data to be written in file
    char dataToBeWritten[50]
        = "GeeksforGeeks-A Computer Science Portal for Geeks";
```

```
    // Open the existing file GfgTest.c using fopen()
    // in write mode using "w" attribute
    filePointer = fopen("GfgTest.c", "w") ;
```

```
    // Check if this filePointer is null
    // which maybe if the file does not exist
    if ( filePointer == NULL )
```

```

{
    printf( "GfgTest.c file failed to open." ) ;
}
else
{

    printf("The file is now opened.\n") ;

    // Write the dataToBeWritten into the file
    if ( strlen ( dataToBeWritten ) > 0 )
    {

        // writing in the file using fputs()
        fputs(dataToBeWritten, filePointer) ;
        fputs("\n", filePointer) ;
    }

    // Closing the file using fclose()
    fclose(filePointer) ;

    printf("Data successfully written in file GfgTest.c\n");
    printf("The file is now closed." ) ;
}
return 0;
}

```

*****function_pointer*****

```

#include <stdio.h>
int sum(int num1, int num2);
int sub(int num1, int num2);
int mult(int num1, int num2);
int div(int num1, int num2);

/*void add(int a, int b)
{
    printf("Addition is %d\n", a+b);
}
void subtract(int a, int b)
{
    printf("Subtraction is %d\n", a-b);
}
void multiply(int a, int b)
{
    printf("Multiplication is %d\n", a*b);
}

int main()
{
    // fun_ptr_arr is an array of function pointers
    void (*fun_ptr_arr[])(int, int) = {add, subtract, multiply};
}

```

```

    unsigned int ch, a = 15, b = 10;

    printf("Enter Choice: 0 for add, 1 for subtract and 2 "
           "for multiply\n");
    scanf("%d", &ch);

    if (ch > 2) return 0;

    (*fun_ptr_arr[ch])(a, b);

    return 0;
} */

int main()
{ int x, y, choice, result;
  int (*ope[4])(int, int);
  ope[0] = sum;
  ope[1] = sub;
  ope[2] = mult;
  ope[3] = div;
  printf("Enter two integer numbers: ");
  scanf("%d%d", &x, &y);
  printf("Enter 0 to sum, 1 to subtract, 2 to multiply, or 3 to divide: ");
  scanf("%d", &choice);
  result = ope[choice](x, y);
  printf("%d", result);
  return 0;}

int sum(int x, int y) {return(x + y);}
int sub(int x, int y) {return(x - y);}
int mult(int x, int y) {return(x * y);}
int div(int x, int y) {if (y != 0) return (x / y); else return 0;}

```

Strtok use to tokenize the string:

```

#include<stdio.h>
#include <string.h>

int main() {
    char string[50] = "Hello! We are learning about strtok";
    // Extract the first token
    char * token = strtok(string, " ");
    // loop through the string to extract all other tokens
    while( token != NULL ) {
        printf( " %s\n", token ); //printing each token
        token = strtok(NULL, " ");
    }
}

```

```
return 0;  
}
```

strtok() keeps some data inside of itself by using static variables. This way, **strtok()** can continue searching from the point it left off at during the previous call. To signal **strtok()** that you want to keep searching the same string, you pass a **NULL** pointer as its first argument. **strtok()** checks whether the first argument is **NULL** and if it is, it uses its currently stored data. If the first parameter is not null, it is treated as a new search and all internal data is reset.

Most Important C functions:

1) Memory allocation/destruction function:

- **malloc:** is used to dynamically allocate a single large block of memory (**contiguous memory**) with the specified size. It returns a pointer of type **void** which can be cast into a pointer of any form. It doesn't initialize memory at execution time so that it has initialized each block with the default garbage value initially.
ptr = (int*) malloc (100 * sizeof(int));
- **calloc:** is used to dynamically allocate the specified number of blocks of memory of the specified type. it is very much like **malloc ()** but has two different points and these are:
It initializes each block with a default value '0'.
It has two parameters or arguments as compare to **malloc ()**.
ptr = (float*) calloc (25, sizeof(float));
- **realloc:** is used to dynamically change the memory allocation of a previously allocated memory. In other words, if the memory previously allocated with the help of **malloc** or **calloc** is insufficient, **realloc** can be used to **dynamically re-allocate memory**.
ptr = realloc(ptr, newSize);
- **free:** is used to dynamically **de-allocate** the memory. The memory allocated using functions **malloc ()** and **calloc ()** is not de-allocated on their own. Hence the **free ()** method is used.
free(ptr);

2) Memory manipulation functions:

- **memset:** is used to fill a block of memory with a particular value.
void *memset (void *ptr, int x, size_t n);
- **memcpy:** is used to copy a block of memory from a location to another location.

```
void * memcpy (void *to, const void *from, size_t
numBytes);
```

```
/* Copies contents of str2 to str1 */
```

```
memcpy (str1, str2, sizeof(str2));
```

memcmp: Compare two blocks of memory

- Compares the first *num* bytes of the block of memory pointed by *ptr1* to the first *num* bytes pointed by *ptr2*, returning zero if they all match or a value different from zero representing which is greater if they do not.

```
n=memcmp ( buffer1, buffer2, sizeof(buffer1) );
```

- **memmove:** s used to copy a block of memory from a location to another location.

```
/* Copies contents of str2 to sr1 */
```

```
memmove (str1, str2, sizeof(str2));
```

memcpy () simply copies data one by one from one location to another. On the other hand, memmove () copies the data first to an intermediate buffer, then from the buffer to destination. memcpy() leads to problems when strings overlap.

3) String manipulation functions:

- **strncpy:** copies n characters of string2 to string1

```
char *strncpy(char *dest, const char *src, size_t n)
```

- **strncat:** appends only the specified number of characters in the second string to the first.

```
char *strncat(char *dest, const char *src, size_t n)
```

- **strcmp:** Compares two string, if string matches returns 0, if first string is less than second then -1 else 1.
- **strtok:** **char *strtok(char *str, const char *delim)** breaks string **str** into a series of tokens using the delimiter **delim**
- **strstr:** Returns a pointer to the first occurrence of str2 in str1, or a null pointer if str2 is not part of str1.

```
char * strstr (    char * str1, const char * str2 );
```

- **strchr:** Returns a pointer to the first occurrence of character in the C string str.

```
char * strchr (    char * str, int character );
```

4) Formatted I/O functions:

- **printf:** Writes the C string pointed by format to the standard output (stdout). If format includes format specifiers. On success, the total number of characters written is returned.

```
int printf ( const char * format, ... );
```

- **scanf:** Reads data from stdin and stores them according to the parameter format into the locations pointed by the additional arguments. On

success, the function returns the number of items of the argument list successfully filled

int scanf (const char * format, ...);

- **sprintf:** a file handling function that is used to send formatted output to the string.

```
• int main() {  
•     int num = 3003;  
•     int length;  
•     char output[50]; //for storing the converted string  
•     length = sprintf(output, "%d", num);
```

- **sscanf:** **int sscanf (const char *str, const char *format, ...)** reads formatted input from a string.

5) Unformatted I/O functions:

- **getch:**
- **getchar:**
- **putchar:**
- **gets:**
- **puts:**
- **putch:**