

Advanced question

Bit operations

$$\text{with } a=5, b=3$$

$$\text{Point } (a, b) = \boxed{(5, 3)}$$

$x = 6$

x 13

二七

$$3). \quad x = 4$$

$x \sim x$

=

$$\text{Xor} = \wedge$$

1 0 - 1

1 0 - 1 0 0 - 0

~~1932 do 20-7-11~~

$$\int \text{int} - x = 1$$

$$x = x \ll 2 :$$

Print C'YD

Print C 1000

10. *Leucosia* *leucostoma* *leucostoma* *leucostoma* *leucostoma*

1. *Leucosia* (L.) *leucostoma* (L.) *leucostoma* (L.) *leucostoma* (L.)

$\int \text{int}(X) \approx 8$

int ~~(x, y)~~ <= 0

$$x = \infty > 1;$$

Robert Lindquist

Results (had - x).

681 30

b) $\sim C\$$ equals to

(b)

$$\overline{1010}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{C4} \\ \text{---} \\ \text{0101} \end{array}$$

Step 1:

$$+5 = 0101$$

Step 2:

$$\sim(0101) = 1010$$

we see

, 1010 \rightarrow It is negative in 2's complement.

$$\begin{array}{r} 8421 \\ 0101 \\ \hline 0101 \end{array} \rightarrow b$$

$$\begin{array}{r} i= \\ 1 \\ \hline 10 \\ \hline 0101 \end{array}$$

\Rightarrow check if the 3rd bit in $x = \omega$ is set

int $x = \omega$

$x = x \& (1 \ll 3)$ // toggle 3bit

printf ("%d\n", x); op: 2

~~$$\begin{array}{r} 8421 \\ 1010 \\ \hline 1010 \end{array}$$~~

pro

$x = \omega / 110000 1010$

int bit-p = 3;

if ($x \& (1 \ll \text{bit-p}) \neq 0$)

pb ("set");

else pb ("not set");

10 & (1 << 3) != 0
0000 1010
(0000) 1010
(0000) 1010

Bit masking operation

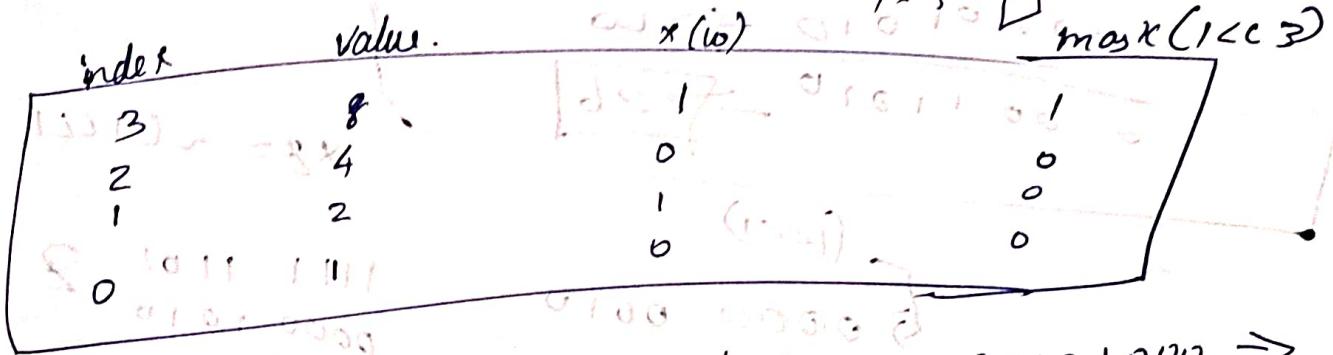
It is basically like putting a mask over certain bits and hiding the others un-useful.

It is used to set, clear, or, toggle (or) is volatile.

example creating a bit mask

int $x = 10$;

int mask = ($1 \ll 3$) ; $\rightarrow 11000000$ - index



$$x \& mask = 00001010 \& 00001000 \Rightarrow 00001000 \Rightarrow$$

non-zero — Bit is set.

- 2 → to check a bit
- 1 → to set a bit
- ~ → to toggle a bit
- 8 → to clear a bit.

// check bit 2

$\& (x \& (1 \ll 2))$

0000001000 ($1 \ll 2$)

$$\begin{array}{r} x=10 \\ 10 \rightarrow 00001010 \\ 1100 \rightarrow 00000100 \\ \hline 00000100 \end{array}$$

not a bit

Clear Bit

$$6 \times 8 = \sim(111)$$

This clear Bit 1 (makes it 0) even if it was 1, Dots

Slowly work

$$\sim(111) = 0000 \text{ . } 0010$$

$$\sim(111) = 1111 \text{ . } 1101$$

1 < 4 Bits

$$x = \cancel{1111010}$$

$$00001010$$

$$00010000 \text{ . } 10000$$

at place one -

$$10000 \rightarrow 1 \ll 4$$

$$000001010 \rightarrow w$$

$$00011010 \rightarrow 26$$

$$\rightarrow x1 = \sim(111)$$

$$x = 111$$

<

Q) what does $x \& n$ (1 less than n) do?

$x = 5$ $n = 2$

$x \& n = 1$ (1 less than n).

$x = 5$ & $n = 1$ (1 less than n).

$\boxed{x=1}$

$(1111)_2 = 0000001000$

$n = 1$ (1 less than n).

$5 = 00000101$

$-----$

00000001

So it is used to set the nth bit of a number.

Q) How to set nth bit of a number?

$x = 1$ (1 less than n)

$x = 7$

$x = 7$ 000000111

00100000

$-----$

00100111 (x + 1 - 1 = 39)

$111 \rightarrow$

~~000100000~~

So we can set the nth bit of a number by doing $x \& n$ and then adding 1.

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Logical operations

1) int $a = 0$, $b = 5$;
Printf ("%d", $a \& b$);

= 0

Because other than zero, all other numbers are positive, only in 2's comp.

2) int $a = 1$, $b = 0$;
printf ("%d", $a \& b$);

= 1

Because of & operator

3) !0 equal to .

= 1

Because 0 is false
! not operator.

so $!0 == 1$

4) int $x = 0$

if ($"y \& d"$, $x \&= +x$);

= 1

Because
++ x (Pseudo)

and &

& = compare each bit of two values

&& = compare the further (non-zero - true)

6) 0 111 111

S 0 & 1

0 & 1 = 0

0 111 = 1

7) evaluate $!(a \& b) == !a \& !b$

$a = 1$ $b = 2$

$!(a \& b) = ?$
 $= 0$.

0 & 0

0 = 0

⑧ Precedence 28 (v) ~~11~~ ~~11~~ ~~11~~ ~~11~~ ~~11~~ ~~11~~

if has h.s.

int a = 1; b = 1;

$$a - - = 1 \\ + + b = 2.$$

if (a == 2 & ++b)

printf("%d", b);

$$\therefore 0 = 2$$

⑨ Can? Short circuit evaluation prevent a segfault
in C? Yes

what is short-circuit? ~~depends on the result of the left side~~

29 Short circuits if the left side is false (0)

30 Short-circuits if the left side is true (non-zero)

The right side is not even evaluated if the left is already determined the outcome.

e.g.

char *ptr = NULL;

and if (ptr != NULL && ptr[0] == 'A')

{
}

Other is safer because:

if ptr == NULL, the first condition

ptr != NULL is false.

a) So 28 - the second part $ptr[0] == 'A'$ is never run

→ No crash, no segmentation fault.

1's and 2's complement

① 1's complement of 0101

$$\rightarrow 0101$$

2) 2's complement of 0101

(but) 2's complement do

1's first and add 1

$$\underline{1011}$$

③ find -5 in binary 2's complement

$$= 1011$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \\ 4 \\ 2 \end{array}$$

$$5 \rightarrow 0101$$

④ is $-x_1 + 1$ equal to $-x_2$

$$x = 3$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 2^3 = 1010 \\ 1 \\ \hline 1011 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} -x_1 = \frac{1100}{0011} \\ \hline 1100 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} -x_2 + 1 \\ = -3 + 1 \\ = 1011 \end{array}$$

? So they are equal

$$\begin{array}{r} 10 = 00001010 \\ 1's = 11110101 \\ 2^8 \rightarrow 11110101 \\ \hline 11110101 \end{array}$$

⑤ Convert -40 to 2's comp in 8 bit

$$\text{So } \underline{11110110}$$

In prog

Signed char x = -40

for (int i=7; i>=0; i--)

printf("%d", (x>>i)&1);

$$\begin{array}{r} 10 = 00001010 \\ 1's = 11110101 \\ 2^8 \rightarrow 11110101 \\ \hline 11110101 \end{array}$$

6) Diff B/w signed and unsigned

Signed \rightarrow can represent both + and - values
uses MSB (0 = Positive, 1 = negative)

unsigned \rightarrow can represent only positive values
All bits contribute to magnitude.

7) overflow detection in 2's

If 2 numbers of same sign are added
and the result is opposite sign then it is

$+ (+) + = \text{should } (+)$ if result is (\neq) then it is
in overflow

$- (+) - = \text{should } -$ if result is (+) then it is
overflow

8) How is Subtraction Done using 2's complement?

Dick $a - b = a + (\text{2's complement of } b)$

ex: $a = 7, b = 3$

$$\begin{array}{r} 7 = 011 \\ 3 = 0011 \end{array}$$

2's complement of B

$$= 0011$$

$$a + (\text{2's comp}) = 0111 \rightarrow a.$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1101 \\ - 0011 \\ \hline 10100 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1100 \\ - 0011 \\ \hline 1101 \end{array}$$

Ans \rightarrow $10100 = 4$

$$7 - 3 = 4 \quad 4 = \boxed{4}$$

9) result of $a(-1)$ under \oplus \otimes
 $\begin{array}{r} 1110 \\ \oplus 1110 \\ \hline 1110 \end{array}$

under \oplus \otimes
 $\begin{array}{r} 1110 \\ \oplus 1110 \\ \hline 1110 \end{array}$

under \oplus \otimes
 $\begin{array}{r} 1110 \\ \oplus 1110 \\ \hline 1110 \end{array}$

under \oplus \otimes
 $\begin{array}{r} 1110 \\ \oplus 1110 \\ \hline 1110 \end{array}$

10) i) complement of -8 in 8 bits
 $\begin{array}{r} 1110 \\ \oplus 1110 \\ \hline 0000 \end{array}$

ii) sum of 8 bits
 $\begin{array}{r} 1110 \\ + 1110 \\ \hline 10000 \end{array}$

$-8 \Rightarrow 1110$
~~complement~~ $\oplus 1110$

complement of -8 is 1110

complement of -8 is 1110

Therefore 1110 is not a contradiction with

$$(d \oplus \text{constant}) \oplus d = d \oplus d = 0$$

$d \oplus d = 0$

$d \oplus 0 = d$

$d \oplus d = d$

$d \oplus d = d$

$$x = 6$$

Array

D) `int arr[3] = {1, 2, 3};
printf("%d", arr[0]);`

= 2

② Accessing out of Bound: `arr[10] = 5;`
Gets undefined Behaviour.

arr and &arr

arr \Rightarrow Array name

int *

Address of arr[0]

(decays to
pointer)

&arr

Address of the
entire array

int (*)[5]

Address of whole
array arr

arr = 0x1000

arr + 1 = 0x1004

&arr = 0x1000

arr + 1 = 0x1004 (size + 4 bytes).

arr:

① decays to int *

② points to arr[0]

③ You can access like
arr[0], *(arr + 1)

&arr:

is of type int(*)[5] \rightarrow
pointer to whole array

④ you need to define difference

*(&arr) == arr

(*(&arr))[0] == arr[0]

4) Size of array using sizeof operator?

int arr[] = {10, 20, 30, 40, 50};

int size = sizeof(arr) / sizeof(arr[0]);

$$5 \times 4$$

$$20 / 4 = 5$$

5) int a[5] = { };

must be zero

what is a[4]:

Ans. int a[5] = { }; the value at [4] = 0.

6) How to Pass an array to a function?

void printArry (int *arr, int size) {

for (int i=0; i<size; i++) {
 print (' ', arr[i]);

call func
free arr

in arr[] = {1, 2, 3}

printArry (arr, 3);

→ 1) Can you modify an array in a function?

Ans void update (int arr[], int size){
arr[0] = 99; // It will modify no. 9.

}

8) What does $\&(arr + i)$. mean?

$arr[i] == \&(arr + i)$.

I + uses pointer arithmetic

+ arr + i moves the pointers, elements ahead.

a) & denotes it

b)

c) int a[2][2] = {{1, 2}, {3, 4}};
printf ("%d", a[i][j]);

so
 $a = [[1, 2], [3, 4]]$

$\Rightarrow 3$

Array of Pointer

int *arr[3];

int a=5, b=10, c=15;

int *arr[3] = {&a, &b, &c}

You can assign each pointer
to a different int variable

on arrays

Pointer to array

int (*ptr)[3];

a) points to the entire array block
b) used when passing full array to
function.

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

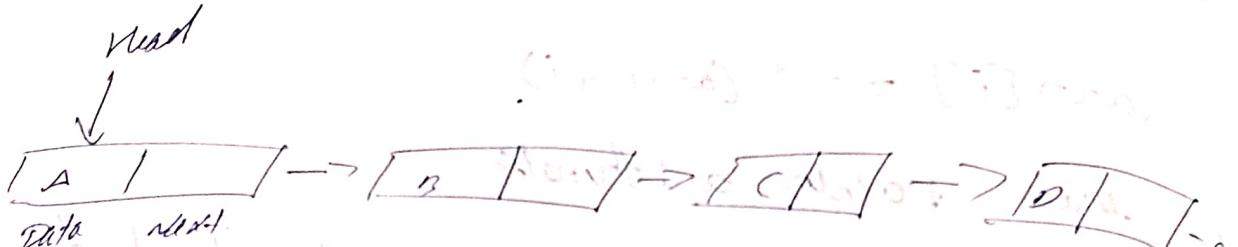
int (*ptr)[3] = &arr;

Linked list

4B What is linked list

A linked list is a dynamic data structure where

- 1) each node holds some Data and a pointer to the next node.
- 2). Nodes are dynamically allocated, so memory can shrink at runtime.
- 3) The list ends when a node's next pointer is null.



Program

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

// Define the node structure using typdef

typedef struct Node

```
int data;
```

```
struct Node *next;
```

```
Node;
```

all places with the object of type Node
at once we can use Node

```
int main()
```

// Allocate 3 nodes in the list

```
Node *first = NULL;
```

```
Node *second = NULL;
```

```
Node *third = NULL;
```

node * temp = new
struct ("linked list value"):

w hile (temp != NULL) {

printf("%d", temp->data);

temp = temp->next

}

free (head);

free (second);

free (+third);

9.

42 How To Traverse a linked list ?

Traversal means visiting each node of the linked list from start to end. usually to

1) Print Data

2) Search for a value

3) Count elements

4) (or) Perform other operat.

Q3) How to detect a loop in a linked list?

A loop in a linked list means:

- Some node's next pointer links back to previous node.
- It creates an infinite cycle. Your program could crash.
- Many is called Detected.

e.g. $\text{head} \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$

$\text{head} \rightarrow \text{data} = 1;$

$\text{head} \rightarrow \text{next} = \text{second}$

$\text{second} \rightarrow \text{data} = 2$

$\text{second} \rightarrow \text{next} = \text{third}$

$\text{third} \rightarrow \text{data} = 3$

$\text{third} \rightarrow \text{next} = \text{second}$. //loop

int detectLoop(Node *head) {

 Node *slow = head;

 Node *fast = head;

L S
1-72-73

while (slow 22 fast 22 fast \rightarrow next) ;
 slow = slow \rightarrow next
 fast = fast \rightarrow next \rightarrow next
 if (slow == fast) {
 return 1;
 }

~~linked list fully~~

int main()
 init(100) \rightarrow

struct function

typedef struct node {
 int data;
 struct node *next;
} node_s;

global variables

node_s
+ head *extern;

int print (int data).

{
 head = (node_s *) malloc (sizeof (node_s));

if (head == NULL)

{

Point ("Head not created");

return -1;
}

else

{

head \rightarrow data = data;

head \rightarrow next = NULL;

int insertFront (int data)

insertFront (4) \rightarrow

{
 node_s *newnode = (node_s *) malloc (sizeof (node_s));

if (newnode == NULL)

{
 Point ("New node not created");

return -2;

else

{
 newnode \rightarrow data = data;

newnode \rightarrow next = head;

head = newnode;

insert_back() \Rightarrow nodes $\&N, \&P;$

$n = (\text{node_s} + 1) \text{ malloc}(\text{size}\&(\text{node_s}))$;

if ($n == \text{null}$)

{
 printf("No node available");
 return -3;

$n \rightarrow \text{data} = \text{data}$

$n \rightarrow \text{next} = \text{null}$ };

for ($P = \text{head}; P \rightarrow \text{next} != \text{null}; P = P \rightarrow \text{next}$)

{

}

$P \rightarrow \text{next} = n;$

return 0;

int delete_front() \Rightarrow

$\text{temp} = (\text{node_s} + 1) \text{ malloc}(\text{size}\&(\text{node_s}))$;

$\text{temp} = \text{head};$

$\text{head} = \text{head} \rightarrow \text{next};$

free (temp);

{

deleteback: \rightarrow $\text{node_s} + n.$

$\text{temp} = (\text{node_s} + 1) \text{ malloc}(\text{size}\&(\text{node_s}))$;

for ($\text{temp} = \text{head}; \text{temp} \rightarrow \text{next} != \text{null}; \text{temp} = \text{temp} \rightarrow \text{next}$)

{
 $n = \text{temp}.$

$n \rightarrow \text{next} = n;$

free (temp);

$n \rightarrow \text{next} = n;$

Malloc vs callocHeap and memory areas

parameter	\rightarrow	malloc (size)	calloc (num, size)
ret value	\rightarrow	Doesn't initialize memory	initial to all byte to zero
use case	\rightarrow	when not not required.	when you want zero - initialized memory.

malloc: Allocates a single block of memory of a specified size in bytes.

Return value: Returns a void* pointer to the beginning of the allocated memory block. This pointer can be cast to any data type. Returns null if memory allocation fails.

calloc:

Allocates memory for an array of a specified number of elements, each of a specified size and initializes all bytes to zero.

Return value:

Returns a void* pointer to the beginning of the allocated memory block. This pointer can be cast to any data type. Returns null if memory allocation fails.

2) Segmentation fault?

A Segmentation fault occurs when you try to access memory:

a) that your program doesn't own.

b) that's invalid

c) (or) that's not allowed for that operation.

Ex:

```
int *p = NULL;
```

```
*p = 10;
```

3) Accessing Freed memory

When you free() memory and still try to use it then it is undefined behaviour.

Ex:

```
int *p = malloc(4);
```

```
free(p);
```

```
*p = 10; // undefined behavior
```

4) Double Free error

Calling free() twice on the same memory location corrupts the program internal memory management data structures. This is undefined behaviour.

Ex:

```
int *p = malloc(10);
```

```
free(p);
```

```
free(p); // double free detected
```

5) memory leak example

when you declared malloc and forgot to free it the memory set aside to memory leak.

void leak() {

int *P = malloc(100);
}

we created the memory but we never freed it

6) Dangling pointers

A dangling pointer that points to a memory location that has been deallocated or freed. This situation typically arises in the following

~~similar~~

→ A dangling pointer points to memory that is already freed (or) out of scope.

ex 1

int *P;

{

int x = 10

P = &x;

}

x is out of scope here, P is dangling here.

ex 2.

int *P = malloc(4);

free(P);

Now if you want to access the P it is undefined behaviour.

wild pointer

A wild pointer, also sometimes referred to as an undeclared pointer is a pointer that has been declared but not initialized to a specific, valid memory address.

int *ptr;

If memory for `*ptr` has not been allocated then it would lead to undefined behavior.

Heap vs stack

feature	Stack	Heap
Allocated By	compiler	Programmer (malloc, calloc)
life time	Auto destroyed after function	You control (until free)
speed	faster (LIFO structure)	slower (manual mgmt.)
size	smaller	larger.
example:	int arr[5];	int *p = malloc(sizeof(int));

memory

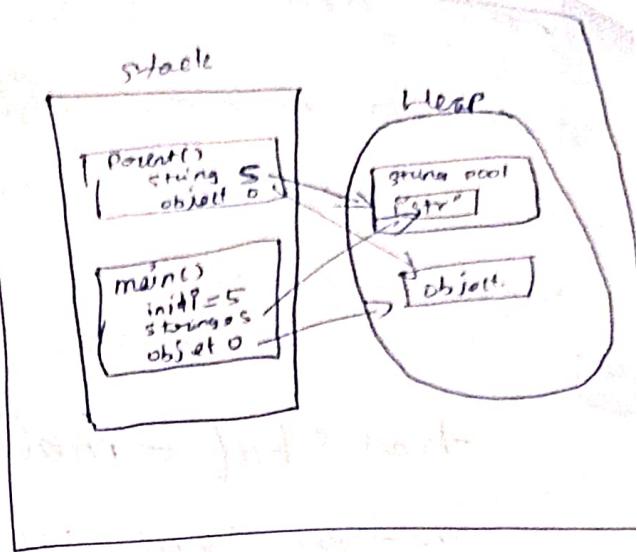
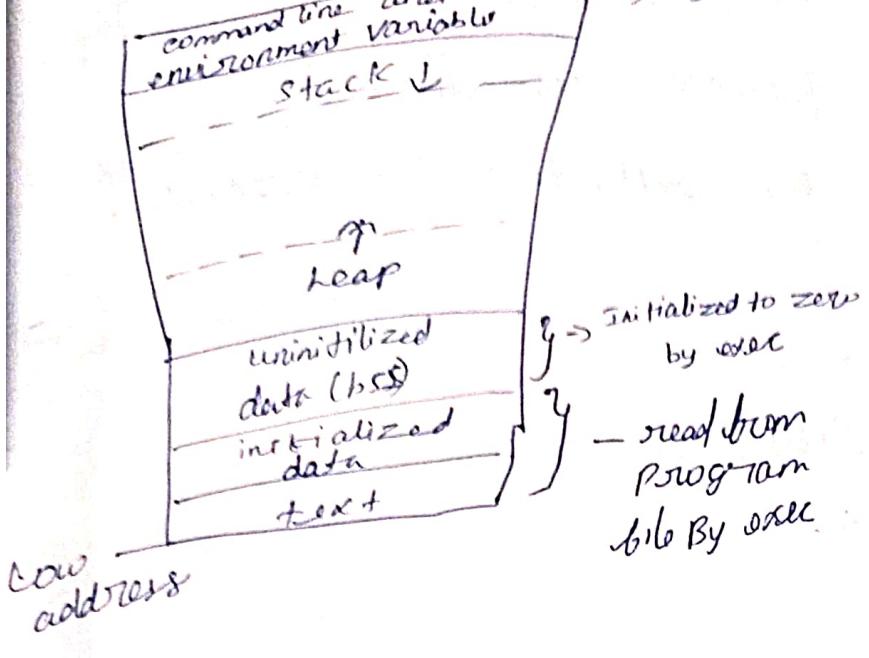
Static memory

dynamic memory

Speed

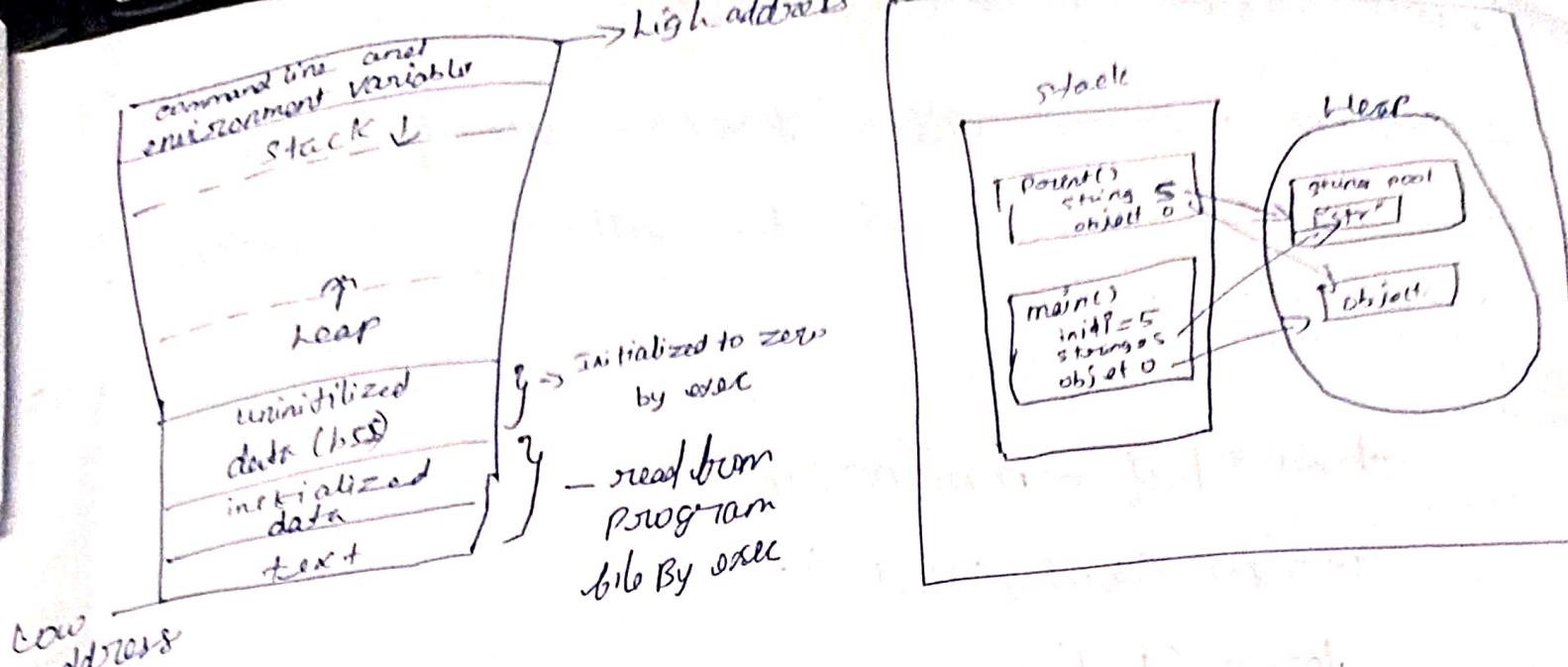
faster

slower



b) Segmentation fault on Null pointer Dereference?
If you are Dereference Null on the Pointer
it will crash.

```
int *p = NULL;  
printf("%d", *p); //crash.  
printf("%d", p); //print  
printf("%p", &p); //address print
```



8) Segmentation fault on Null pointer Dereference?

If you are Dereference Null on the pointers it will crash.

```

int *p = NULL;
printf("%d", *p); // Crash.
printf("%d", p); // O - print
printf("%p", &p); // address print.

```

~~Ans.~~

9). use-after-free vulnerability

Accessing memory after free() = use-after-free
This can be exploited by attackers to execute arbitrary code.

Ex:

```
char *buf = malloc(10);
```

```
strcpy(buf, "Hello");
```

```
free(buf);
```

```
printf("%s", buf);
```

Timestamping
every time we runnig it give random values

10) tools to detect memory errors

<u>Tool</u>	<u>What it Detects</u>
valgrind	leaks, invalid frees, use-after-free, etc
ASAN	(Address sanitizer) best, routine mem checker.
GDB	Debugging seg faults
Static Analyzer	clear static Analyzer, Cppcheck

Ex: with Valgrind

in wrnp{ /Downloads /PL4 -4-m1 /wrnp }
Test pro.

Valgrind ./my-program

Function Pointers and Callbacks

1) Declare pointer to function returning int?

[Tip] A function pointer stores the address of a function, just like an int pointer stores address of an int.

Syntax:

$\text{int } (*\underline{\text{fptr}})(\text{int}, \text{int});$ <small>variable NAME</small>	$\text{return-type } (*\text{ptr})(\text{parameter - types})$
---	---

ex:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int add(int a, int b) {
    return a+b;
}

int main() {
    int (*fptr)(int, int); // Declaration
    fptr = add; // assignment
    int result = fptr(10, 20); // function call using pointer
    printf("Result %d", result);
    return 0;
}
```

2) How to Pass function Pointer to Another function:

In this function pointer to another function we will declare another function name into the required function.

ex: compute(10, 20, add); // Passing function as argument.

Example Program

```
#include <stdio.h>
int add (int a, int b) {
    return a + b;
}
void compute (int x, int y, int (*add)(int, int)) {
    printf ("Result = %d\n", add(x, y));
}
int main () {
    compute (10, 20, add);
    return 0;
}
```

Another Example

```
#include <stdio.h>
int add (int a, int b) {
    return a + b;
}
int sub (int a, int b) {
    return a - b;
}
int compute (int a, int b, int (*add)(int, int), int (*sub)(int,
    int)) {
    int c = add(a, b);
    int d = sub(a, b);
    printf ("Addition is %d\n", c);
    printf ("Sub is %d\n", d);
}
int main () {
    int a, b;
    printf ("Enter numbers ");
    scanf ("%d %d", &a, &b);
    compute (a, b, add, sub);
    return 0;
}
```

3) callback function Example inc?

callbacks are just function pointers passed to another function. often for custom behavior (event, ISR, HAL).

ex:

```
#include < stdio.h >

void on-button-Press () {
    printf("Button was pressed");
}

void simulate_button (void (*callback)()) {
    printf("Simulating Button Press");
    callback();
}
```

```
int main() {
    simulate_button (on-button-Press);
    return 0;
}
```

1) Normal vs callback function

Feature	Normal function	callback function
Defined & called	Directly in main / logic	Passed to another function.
Fixed behavior	Yes	at runtime.
use case	any logic	event handling , API hooks , HAL

5) Array of function pointers

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

```
int add (int a, int b) {  
    return a+b;  
}
```

```
int sub (int a, int b) {  
    return a-b;  
}
```

```
int mul (int a, int b) {  
    return a*b;  
}
```

```
int main() {
```

```
    int (*OP[3])(int, int) = {add, sub, mul};
```

```
    int choice = 0,
```

```
    int x = 5, y = 3;
```

```
    printf("%d", OP[choice](x, y));
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

3) Function pointer to call

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

```
int add (int a, int b) {  
    return a+b;  
}
```

```
int main() {
```

```
    int (*ptr)(int, int) = add;
```

```
    printf("Sum %d\n", ptr(4, 6));
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

8) Can function pointers point to static functions?
Yes, static functions can be pointed to by
functions pointers within the same file.

#include <stdio.h>

static void greet() {

 printf("Hello from static");

}

int main() {

 void (*ptr)() = greet;

 ptr();

 return 0;

}

8) What is typedef for function pointers?

Using **typedef** makes function pointer usage clean

& readable

void (*handler)(int);

with typedef:

typedef void (*callback_t)(int);

void example(callback_t cb) {

 cb(100);

}

Let us see full program example for it

Prog

```
#include <stdio.h>
typedef int (*math_op_t)(int, int);
int add(int a, int b)
{
    return a+b;
}
int main()
{
    math_op_t f = add;
    printf("Sum = %d", f(7, 3));
    return 0;
}
```

Q) How is function address stored in memory?

- * Function pointers store code Segment address
(unlike variables, which are in stack/heap)
- * You can't modify function contents - only call via pointer

Code

```
#include <stdio.h>
void hello()
{
    printf("Hi");
}
int main()
{
    printf("Function address", hello); // address of
    void (*ptr)() = hello;
    ptr();
    return 0;
}
```

(v) void (* bptr)(); what is this?

This means
bptr is a pointer to a function.

- a) The function takes no parameter
- b) The function returns void.

#include <stdio.h>

```
void show() {  
    printf("This is me");
```

g

```
int main() {
```

void (* bptr)(); //declare.

bptr = show;

bptr();

return 0;

g

All in one Program

int (*f)(int) → f is pointer to function taking int
and returning int

typedef int (*fp)(int) fp is a type alias for function
pointer

fptr = add;

assign function to pointer

fptr(10);

call function via pointer

func(fptr)

Pass function pointer as
argument.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int add (int a, int b)
{
    return a+b;
}
int sub (int a, int b)
{
    return a-b;
}
typedef int (*math_ptr) (int, int);
void call_math (math_ptr op, int x, int y)
{
    printf ("Result ", op(x,y));
}
```

```
void hello()
{
    printf ("Hello there");
}
int main()
{
    math_ptr ptr = add; // Direct call
    call_math (ptr, 10, 20);

    math_ptr ops[] = {add, sub}; // Array of pointers
    printf ("ops[0] = %d", ops[0](50, 30));

    void (*say_hi)() = hello;
    say_hi();
    return 0;
}
```

Queue

enqueue adds at the rear
dequeue removes from the front

1) FIFO

The Queue is working under Queue Principle

2) Array-based Queue implementation

#include <stdio.h>

#define MAX_SIZE 100

typedef struct Queue {

int queue[MAX_SIZE];

int front;

int rear;

Queue;

// Initialize queue is empty.

void initializeQueue (Queue *q) {

q->front = -1;

q->rear = -1;

}

// Check if the queue is empty

int isEmpty (Queue *q) {

return (q->front == -1);

}

// Check if the queue is full

int isFull (Queue *q) {

return (q->rear == MAX_SIZE - 1);

}

// Insert element at rear

void enqueue (Queue *q , int data) {

if (isfull (q)) {

printf ("Queue is full");

return ;

}

if (isempty (q)) {

q->front = 0;

q->rear ++;

q->queue [q->rear] = data;

printf ("enqueued %d", data);

}

// Remove element from the front

int dequeue (Queue *q) {

if (isempty(q)) {

printf ("Queue is empty");

return -1;

int data = q->queue [q->front];

~~int data = q->front = q->rear;~~

if (q->front == q->rear) {

q->front = q->rear = -1;

else {

q->front ++;

}

printf ("Dequeued %d", data);

return data;

}

```

void display (queue & q) {
    if (isempty (q)) {
        cout << "Queue is empty";
        return;
    }
    cout << "Queue : ";
    cout << endl;
    for (int i = 0; i < q.size(); i++) {
        cout << q.front () << endl;
        q.pop();
    }
    cout << "In";
}

int main () {
    queue q;
    enqueue (q, 10);
    enqueue (q, 20);
    display (q);
    deque (q);
    display (q);
    return 0;
}

```

3) more overflows

Queue overflow occurs when you try to insert an element into the queue but there is no more space left.

4) enque and deque

3) Circular Queue logic

In normal queue, once rear reaches the end, you can't reuse space.

In circular queue, the last position wraps around to the start forming a circular buffer.

$$\text{rear} = (\text{rear} + 1) \% \text{MAX_SIZE};$$

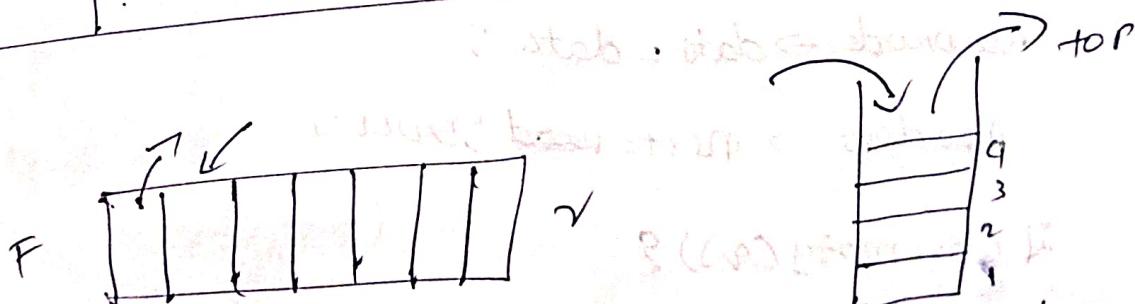
4) Detect full in circular Queue:

int isfull (Queue *q) {

return ((q->front + q->rear + 1) / MAX_SIZE) == q->front.

5) Queue vs stack

Feature	Queue	Stack
order	FIFO (First In First Out)	Last In First Out
insertion	At - rear.	At top
deletion	from front	From top
use cases	Task scheduling, buffers	Recursion, undo/redo



Implementation: Reuse of a linked list as a stack.

Queue using Singly List

#include <stdio.h>

#include <stdlib.h>

struct stNode {

int data;

struct stNode *next;

} node;

struct stNode *front;

node *rear, *root;

queue;

Void initQueue(queue *q) {

q->front = q->rear = NULL;

}

int isEmpty(queue *q) {

return q->front == NULL;

}

Void enqueue(queue *q, int data) {

node *newNode = (node *) malloc(sizeof(node));

newNode->data = data;

newNode->next = ~~next~~ NULL;

if (isEmpty(q)) {

q->front = q->rear = newNode;

} else {

q->rear->next = newNode;

q->rear = newNode;

4

int deqque (Queue *q) {

if (is empty (q)) {

printf ("Queue is empty");

return -1;

3

int data = q->front->data;

Node *temp = q->front;

q->front = q->front->next;

free (temp);

if (q->front == NULL)

q->rear = NULL;

return data;

4

void display (Queue *q) {

Node *temp = q->front;

while (temp) {

printf ("%d -> ", temp->data);

temp = temp->next;

3

printf ("NULL");

3

int main() {

Queue q;

initialize (&q);

enqueue (&q, 10);

enqueue (&q, 20);

display (&q);

printf ("Deque id ", deque (&q));

display (&q);

AUG - 4

stack [LIFO]
4 functions

end = (end + 1)

- 1) Push
- 2) Pop
- 3) Top
- 4) Size

a) Implement stack using array

#include <stdio.h>

#define MAX 5

int stack[MAX];

int top = -1;

Push

void push (int value) {

if (top == MAX - 1)

printf ("Stack overflow");

else {

top++;

stack[top] = value;

printf ("Pushed %d\n", value);

3
g

void pop() {

if (top == -1) {

printf ("Stack underflow");

g

```
printf ("Popped %d\n", stack[top]);
```

top--

3
3

```
void display () {
```

if (top == -1)

```
    printf ("Stack empty");
```

and print ("Stack empty")

else {

```
    printf ("Stack ");
```

for (int i=0; i<=top; i++) {

```
    printf ("%d", stack[i]);
```

```
    printf ("\n");
```

(a) numbers how

3 (6-5) 5 6

3 (6-5) 5 6

3 (6-5) 5 6

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3 (6-5) 5 6

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3 (6-5) 5 6

3 (6-5) 5 6

```
int main () {
```

```
    push (10);
```

```
    push (20);
```

```
    push (30);
```

```
    display();
```

```
    pop();
```

```
    display();
```

```
    return 0;
```

Avg. 3) what is stack overflow?

overflow happens when you try to push more than the stack can hold.

4) Recursive functions and stack

A recursive function is a function that calls itself to solve smaller versions of the same problem.

void countdown (int n) {

if (n == 0) {

cout << "Biff.";

return;

else

cout << n << endl;

countdown (n - 1);

Now stack works with Recursion

every time you call a function, C creates a stack frame, a small memory box on the call stack.

This frame stores:

a). Function arguments

b). Local variables

c). Return address

when a recursive function calls itself, new stack frames are pushed onto them, and when finished, they get popped off.

push and pop operation

* push means add to top

* pop means remove from top

stack in expression evaluation

b) stack were used to:

a) evaluate postfix expressions like $23 + [\text{means } 2+3]$

* convert infix to postfix like $(a+b)$

You push numbers and pop them when you get an operator

call stack frame in recursion

c) call stack frame in recursion
when you do a function call, it creates a stack frame

every function call

a) gets a stack frame, a memory box that stores

variables and returns address from it

* once done, it's popped off.

* once done, it's popped off.

check stack underflow

underflow happens when you try to pop from an empty stack.

if ($\text{top} == -1$)

complexity of push / pop

time compl

push O(1)

pop O(1)

8) Stack using linked list

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

```
struct Node {
```

```
    int data;
```

```
    struct Node* next;
```

```
};
```

```
struct Node* top = NULL;
```

```
void Push (int val) {
```

```
    struct Node* newnode = malloc (sizeof (struct Node));
```

```
    newnode->data = val;
```

```
    newnode->next = top;
```

```
    top = newnode;
```

```
    printf ("Pushed %d in stack\n");
```

```
}
```

```
void pop()
```

```
if (top == NULL) {
```

```
    printf ("Stack underflow\n");
```

```
    return;
```

```
    printf ("Popped %d\n", top->data);
```

```
    struct Node* temp = top;
```

```
    top = top->next;
```

brec(temp);

3

void display () {

struct Node* ptr = top;

Pointf ("Stack");

while (ptr != NULL)

Pointf ('y.d', ptr->data),

ptr = ptr->next;

3

Pointf ("In");

3

int main () {

push (10);

push (20);

push (30);

display ();

pop ();

display ();

return 0;

g