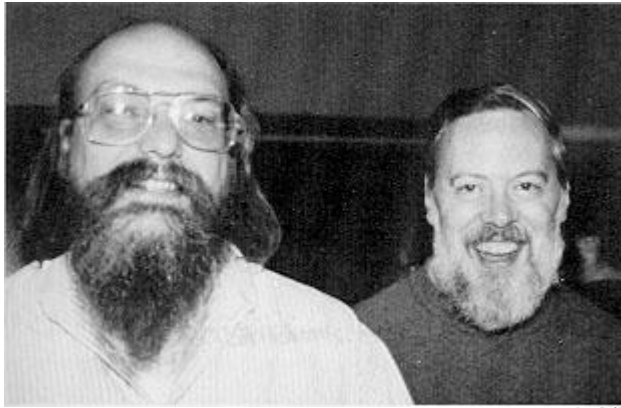


# An Intro to C

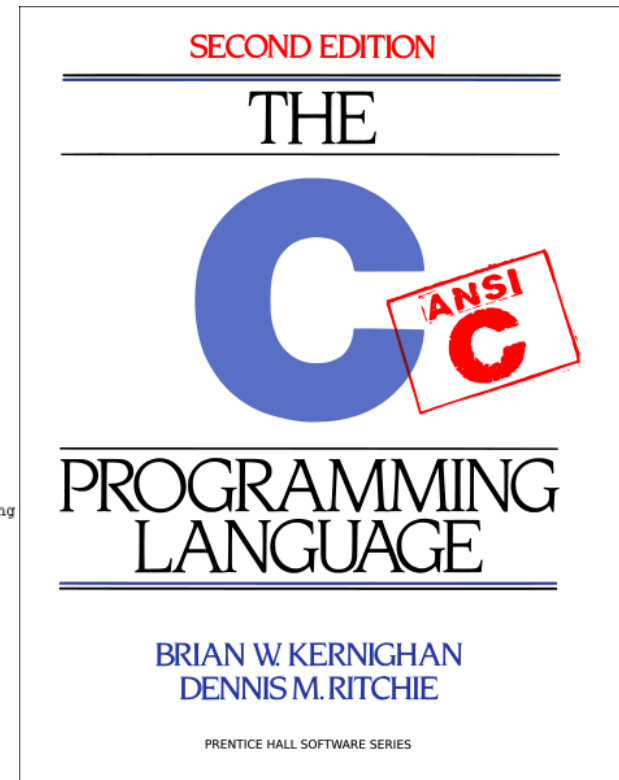




```

252 {
253     WARN_ON_ONCE((cpu_has_apic && !disable_apic));
254     return 0;
255 }
256 /*
257  * right after this call apic->write/read doesn't do anything
258  * note that there is no restore operation it works one way
259  */
260 void apic_disable(void)
261 {
262     apic->read = native_apic_read_dummy;
263     apic->write = native_apic_write_dummy;
264 }
265
266 void native_apic_wait_icr_idle(void)
267 {
268     while (apic_read(APIC_ICR) & APIC_ICR_BUSY)
269         cpu_relax();
270 }
271
272 u32 native_safe_apic_wait_icr_idle(void)
273 {
274     u32 send_status;
275     int timeout;
276
277     timeout = 0;
278     do {
279         send_status = apic_read(APIC_ICR) & APIC_ICR_BUSY;
280         if (!send_status)
281             break;
282         udelay(100);
283     } while (timeout++ < 1000);
284
285     return send_status;
286 }
287

```



“C should be every programmer’s first crush”

# Links

**Source Code: <https://github.com/gnu-user/intro-c>**

# Basics

- Comments
  - `//` for single line comments
  - `/* ... */` for multiline comments
- Variables
  - letters, digits, underscores
  - naming convention uses underscores (`my_variable`)
  - C is a Spartan language, and so should your naming be
- Sections of code (code blocks) are enclosed using curly braces `{ ... }`

# Basics

- C has many operators, many of which you are familiar with from other languages
  - assignment: =
  - arithmetic: +, -, \*, /, %
  - augmented assignment: +=, -=, \*=, /=, %= ...
  - boolean logic: !, &&, ||
  - equality testing: ==, !=
  - increment and decrement: ++, --
  - **member selection: ., ->**
  - **object size: sizeof**
  - order relations: <, <=, >, >=
  - **pointer, reference, and dereference: &, \*, [ ]**

# Basics

- Data types, C has the following base types
  - char
  - int
  - long
  - float
  - double
  - void
- Each data type can have the following modifiers
  - signed, unsigned (+/- or only + values)
  - const (a constant value such as pi in your code)
  - static (makes the variable stay in memory and accessible without regard to scope)

# Basics - Arrays & Pointers

- A Collection of data, syntax similar to other languages
- Arrays need to be null terminated (strings) or have the length stored somewhere
  - If you create a character array (strings) they are **automatically null terminated**

```
int ar[10]; // This has no data in it yet
```

```
int point[6]={1,2,3,4, 5,0}; // should know the length!
```

```
char str[] = "hello" // auto null-terminated
```

- Pointers are conceptually like a street signing “pointing” you to where something in memory is located
- We will discuss pointers later when we talk about dynamic memory

# Basics - Other Data Types

- Structs, allow you to create your own data types
  - Often used with **typedefs**, which allow you to define a “type” as a different name, a shortcut for structs

```
typedef struct {  
    char name;  
    int age;  
} my_struct;
```

- Unions, like a struct, can only be one data type of the struct at a time...
- Enums, enumeration of data, used a lot to simplify code

```
typedef enum { red, green, blue } colours;
```



# Basics - Scope

- Scope, a very important concept, easiest to remember that variables defined inside `{ ... }` cannot be accessed outside of it
- Variables and methods declared in other header files can be used when you include the header file
- Generally you have access to everything included from the header file (functions, constants, structs) anywhere in your code

# Basics - Control Flow

- If, else-if, else statements

```
if (5 < 6) {  
    printf("Five is less than six!");  
} else {  
    printf("What?!");  
}
```

- You have the standard for, while, and do while loop like in other languages

```
for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) {  
    printf("Hello World!\n");  
}
```

# Basics - Control Flow

- Switch-case statement, much cleaner than if-elseif...-else statements, especially when dealing with numeric/enumerated data

```
switch (grade) {  
    case 1:  
        printf("A\n");  
        break;  
    case 2:  
        printf("B\n");  
        break;  
    ...  
    default:  
        break;  
}
```

# Basics - Functions

- Functions are the building blocks of C, they allow you to organize code into **conceptual blocks of execution**
- Functions without arguments in C **must have void** as the argument, this is different from other languages
- Functions are often broken into two steps the ***declaration*** which is just the function name and parameters in a header file and the ***definition*** which is the actual code (body) of the function
- Functions in C are pretty standard, except for a few quirks you must have **void** as an argument if there are none, always specify the types and variables of functions (even though the code compiles if you don't)

# Basics - Functions

```
double square(double value); // The declaration
```

```
double square(double value) { // The definition  
    return value * value;  
}
```

```
// This takes no arguments and returns nothing  
void say_hello(void);
```

```
void say_hello(void) {  
    printf("Hello\n");  
}
```

# Basics - Other

- You can utilize the pre-processor of the compiler to create macros in C, these should be used rather than putting in “hard-coded” values in your programs
- The **#define** keyword is used to define macros which the compiler will substitute throughout your code

```
#define MY_CONSTANT 123456
```

- Typecasts are important for converting between data types in your program, however you must be careful that you are typecasting between compatible types using **(type\_name) expression**

```
double value = (double) 5 / 3;
```

# I/O

- Performing input and output operations are very useful in C for reading and writing data as well as printing out content to the terminal.
- The most common methods for performing I/O in C are the following
  - printf
  - puts
  - fopen
  - fclose
  - scanf
  - fprintf

# Printing to Console

- The **printf** function takes a formatted string containing the content to print and takes the content to print as arguments, for a newline add `\n` to the end.
- The most common placeholders for printing variables are
  - **%d** -- for integers
  - **%f** -- for floating point values
  - **%s** -- for strings

```
printf("Hi %s you're %d and %f feet\n", "sue", 10,  
4.2);
```

- **puts** is similar to **printf** but only prints text and adds a newline to the end automatically.



# Opening and Closing Files

- The **fopen** function is used to open a file given the path provided, the second argument it takes is the mode the most common are the following:
  - “**r**” -- read the file
  - “**w**” -- write to the file
  - “**r+**” -- read and write to the file
  - “**a**” -- append to the file
- The **fopen** function returns a pointer to the file (more on this later), **fclose** takes the pointer and closes the file.

```
File *fp = fopen("outfile.txt", "w");  
fclose(fp);
```

# Reading Input

- The **scanf** function is most commonly used to read input from the terminal provided by users, the scanf function takes a formatted string of the expected input, and the address in memory (reference).
- The following example is for a prompt asking the user to enter their age and year of birth

```
int age, year;  
printf("Enter your age and year of birth:");  
scanf("%d %d", &age, &year);
```

# Reading From a File

- The **fscanf** function is similar to `scanf`, except that it takes the pointer to the file as the first argument, followed by the formatting, and the references to the variables to store the results.

```
int age, year;  
File *fp = fopen("age_year.txt", "r");  
fscanf(fp, "%d %d\n", &age, &year);  
fclose(fp);
```

# Writing to a File

- The **fprintf** function is similar to printf, except that it takes the pointer to the file as the first argument, followed by the formatting, and the variables for the formatted string.

```
int age = 5, year = 2010;  
File *fp = fopen("age_year.txt", "w");  
fprintf(fp, "%d %d\n", age, year);  
fclose(fp);
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define AGE_INCREMENT 5
double square(int val);
typedef struct {
    char* name;
    int age;
} person;
typedef enum { red, blue, green } colour;

int main(void){
    person student;
    student.name = "Bob";
    student.age = 20;
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) {
        switch (student.age) {
            case 20:
                printf("young\n");
                break;
            case 30:
                printf("forever 21\n");
                printf("Their age doubled: %f\n", square(student.age));
                break;
            default:
                break;
        }
        student.age += AGE_INCREMENT;
    } return 0;
}

double square(int val) {
    return (double) val * val;
}
```

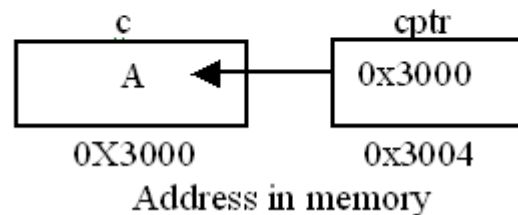
# Memory Management

- Anytime you need to create something that you don't know ahead of time (at runtime) you generally need to use dynamic memory allocation
- Data that is declared in your code (e.g. variables, constants, strings) are placed on the stack, whereas data that is allocated when the code is executed is on the heap
- The main functions used for dynamically memory allocation are **malloc**, **calloc**, **realloc**, **free**
- Pointers are used as “sign posts” that tell you where data is located in memory

# Pointers

- Pointers are variables that point to data in memory
- Pointers store the memory location, they are dereferenced to access the data in memory
- Pointers can be updated to “point” to a new location in memory just as any other variable can be changed
- Asterisk “\*” used to create a pointer, my personal convention is to group it with the variable (e.g. *int \*var*)

```
char c = 'A';  
char *cptr;  
cptr = &c;
```



# Pointers

- Remember scope? It's important, when you have a pointer to something in memory you have to keep track of it and free it when you're done using it
- Just because the pointer variable doesn't exist anymore it **doesn't mean the memory it's pointing to is now free**
- Arrays are actually pointers! The language just has a nice syntactic sugar for accessing them (e.g. `my_array[4]` is getting the 4th value from the base memory address in the pointer `my_array`)
- Always null initialize your pointers, this makes it easy to check if a pointer is actually pointing to valid data!



# Dynamic Memory

- When you dynamically allocate memory you need to specify how many bytes of memory you need using **malloc** or **calloc**
- **malloc** is just “memory allocate” and allocates any memory (often full of garbage data that was already sitting in memory)
- **calloc** is the same except it fills the memory with null
- **realloc** is useful if you need to get more memory for the memory you allocated originally using malloc/calloc
- Memory allocated is returned as a void pointer, you must ***typecast*** the pointer returned to the correct type

# Dynamic Memory

- Often you may not know the size in bytes of something such as a struct, this is where **sizeof** comes in handy
- **sizeof** will tell you the size of the data in bytes, if you need to make an array, just multiply **sizeof** by the size of your array
- When you are done using the memory you must free it using **free**, this is the most difficult part of dynamic memory and leads to memory leaks if you don't free memory that you are no longer using
- Whenever you are dealing with strings **ALWAYS use calloc**, as it will fill the memory with null characters. Otherwise you will have a lot of headaches...

```

#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <string.h>
#define BUFFER 128

void mem_leak(void);

int main(void) {
    char *name = NULL;
    int *age = NULL;
    name = (char *) calloc(BUFFER, sizeof(char)); // Allocate array using
calloc
    age = (int *) malloc(sizeof(float)); // Allocate a float using malloc
    mem_leak(); // Creates memory leak allocated memory not freed
    printf("Enter your name: ");
    scanf("%s", name);
    printf("Enter your age: ");
    scanf("%d", age);
    // Arrays are pointers, print each character of the name
    for (int i = 0; i < strlen(name); ++i) { // strlen fail if didn't use
calloc!
        printf("%c\n", name[i]);
    }
    // Don't forget to free the memory. Can't free munch don't have pointer!
    free(name), free(age);
    return 0;
}

// This function creates memory leaks, it should return the munch pointer!
void mem_leak(void) {
    char* munch = NULL;
    munch = (char*) calloc(BUFFER * 1000, sizeof(char));
}

```

# Compiling Your Code

- If you are compiling a single source file it is relatively easy and can be done just using gcc

```
gcc -Wall -std=c99 -o example_2 example_2.c
```

- **Always use -std=c99**
  - No "for (...) style loops" in older C versions!
  - ANSI standard added a lot of useful improvements
- If you have multiple source files chances are you will need a Makefile
- Makefiles are how their name sounds, they are used to “make” your source code

# Compiling Your Code

- Makefiles are simple if you make them simple
- It is often much more practical to reuse and change an existing Makefile instead of making one from scratch
- You can use cmake to generate one for you, cmake is being used a lot now for newer projects
- Googling helps a lot, if you're using eclipse they will be auto-generated for you, however you often have to customize them

```
# MAKEFILE TEMPLATE
SOURCE_FILES := example.c useful.c other_stuff.c
HEADER_FILES := useful.h other_stuff.h
OBJECT_FILES := main.o useful.o other_stuff.o
FLAGS := -Wall -O0 -g3 -std=c99
EXEC_NAME := example
INSTALL_DIR := /usr/bin/
RM := rm -rf

default: example
debug: example-debug
all: example

example: $(SOURCE_FILES) $(HEADER_FILES)
    @echo 'Building target: $@'
    gcc $(FLAGS) $(SOURCE_FILES) -o $(EXEC_NAME)
    @echo 'Finished building target: $@'

example-debug: $(SOURCE_FILES) $(HEADER_FILES)
    @echo 'Building target: $@'
    gcc $(FLAGS) -DDEBUG $(SOURCE_FILES) -o $(EXEC_NAME)
    @echo 'Finished building target: $@'

install:
    @cp $(EXEC_NAME) $(INSTALL_DIR)

clean:
    @$ (RM) $(OBJECT_FILES) $(EXEC_NAME)
```

# Debugging

*If debugging is the process of removing bugs, then programming must be the process of putting them in.*

*--Edsger W. Dijkstra*

# Debugging

- Debugging is an essential part of programming, no one writes code that is bug free
- Most modern IDEs (Eclipse, Visual Studio, IntelliJ) have extensive debugging functionality allowing you to step through every line of your code and view everything as it happens
- We will get into these later using an example program with a bug in it.
- The easiest method can be to simply add “sanity checks” which print out information at parts of your code
- Can use **#define**, **#ifdef** to have debug messages



# Debugging

```
#include <stdio.h>

#define DEBUG

int main(void) {
#ifdef DEBUG
    printf("Debugging program\n");
#else
    printf("Running normally\n");
#endif
    return 0;
}
```

# Advice

- Become familiar with the C library
  - See the references provided
- **Don't reinvent the wheel!** Use the C library, if it doesn't have what you need find a library that does
  - [GSL \(Scientific computing\)](#)
  - [GMP \(Scientific computing, infinite precision\)](#)
  - [SGLIB](#)
  - [Gnulib](#)
  - [CCAN \(Collection of code snippets for C\)](#)
  - [KLIB](#)

# Common Mistakes

- **Always use -std=c99**
  - No "for (...) style loops" with older versions!
  - ANSI standard added a lot of useful improvements
- Multiple header inclusions error when compiling, solution is to just add each new header file using Eclipse (File → New → C Header)
- Segfaults, this is caused by a pointer trying to access memory it doesn't have access to
  - NULL initialize your pointers is a good habit
- Not null terminating strings (**use calloc!**) or sending wrong array length, remember 0 is first item in array

# Resources

- Excellent and Concise C References
  - <http://en.cppreference.com/w/c>
  - <http://www.cplusplus.com/reference/library/>
  - <http://users.ece.utexas.edu/~adnan/c-refcard.pdf>
- Online Books / Tutorials
  - <http://gribblelab.org/CBootcamp/>
  - <http://c.learncodethehardway.org/book/>
  - [http://publications.gbdirect.co.uk/c\\_book/](http://publications.gbdirect.co.uk/c_book/)
  - [http://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/C\\_Programming](http://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/C_Programming)
  - <http://www.cprogramming.com/>
  - <http://www.tutorialspoint.com/cprogramming/index.htm>

# Resources

- Detailed C References
  - <http://www.gnu.org/software/gnu-c-manual/gnu-c-manual.html>
  - [http://www.gnu.org/software/libc/manual/html\\_mono/libc.html](http://www.gnu.org/software/libc/manual/html_mono/libc.html)
  - [http://www.acm.uiuc.edu/webmonkeys/book/c\\_guide/](http://www.acm.uiuc.edu/webmonkeys/book/c_guide/)
  - <http://www.c-faq.com/>
- POSIX/UNIX Reference
  - [http://www.gnu.org/software/libc/manual/html\\_mono/libc.html](http://www.gnu.org/software/libc/manual/html_mono/libc.html)
  - <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unistd.h>

# Resources

- POSIX/UNIX Overview
  - <http://cplus.kompf.de/posixlist.html>
  - <http://www.cs.cf.ac.uk/Dave/C/CE.html>
  - <http://www.tutorialspoint.com/cprogramming/index.htm>