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Administrivia

- Any questions about the syllabus or the course?
- About the reading: You don't have to read every page carefully, but we won't have time in class to cover everything, so you should plan to at least skim.
- Most (non-trivial) code from class will be on the Web, under "Sample programs".
- Homework 1 will be on the Web later today. I will send mail.

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Getting Started with Linux (Review)

- (A UNIX person's response to claims that UNIX isn't user friendly: "Sure it is. It's just choosy about its friends.")
- The graphical system should give you a way to get a terminal window, which is what we will use a lot in this class (in keeping with the title!). In theory you know the basics from CSCI 1320. If you don't remember much, this might be a good time to review notes or whatever course materials you still have.

Useful Command-Line Tips

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- The shell (the application that's processing what you type) keeps a history of commands you've recently typed. Up and down arrows let you cycle through this history and reuse commands.
(Pedantic aside: "The shell" here means the one you're most likely to be using. There are other programs with similar functionality you could use instead.)
- The shell offers "tab completion" for filenames — if you type part of a filename and press the tab key, it will try to complete it.
- To learn more about command `foo`, type `man foo`. (This also works with C library routines — more about them later.) This is reference information rather than a tutorial, but usually very complete.

Text Editors

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- Many, many text editors, and people have favorites. I use and will teach in this class `vi`: It's found on every UNIX/Linux system I know of, and is very powerful, though it takes some getting used to. (`vi` on our Linux machines is actually `vim`, a more capable "clone" of the original `vi`.) Other popular Linux text editors include `emacs`, `pico`, and various graphical editors that come with "desktop environments" such as GNOME and KDE.
- Tip: If you're struggling with whatever editor you previously used, either spend a little time learning its features, or choose another one! `vim` has `vimtutor`. `emacs` also has built-in tutorial.

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Programming Basics (as described in CSCI 1320)

- What computers actually execute is *machine language* — binary numbers each representing one primitive operation. Once upon a time, people programmed by writing machine language (!).
- Nowadays, “programming” as we will use it means writing *source code* in a *high-level language*. Source code is simply plain text, which . . . At this point we diverge from the explanation for beginners. Exactly what happens to get from source code to something the computer can execute varies among languages . . .

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From Source Code to — What?

- Some high-level languages (such as the language understood by typical UNIX/Linux command shells) are directly interpreted by some other program.
- Others are *compiled* into *object code* (machine language) and then *linked* with other object code (including system libraries) to form an *executable* (something the operating system can execute).
- Still others (including Scala and Python, sometimes) take an intermediate approach — initially compiled into *byte code* (object code for a made-up processor), which is (in principle) interpreted by a runtime system, with system library code brought in at runtime. (In practice, a “just-in-time” compiler may translate byte code into native object code on the fly.)

A First C Program

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- We'll start by writing the traditional "hello world" program in C, using `vi`.
(This tradition of having one's first program in a language print "hello world"? It comes from the early and still widely-cited book *The C Programming Language*, by Kernighan and Ritchie.)
- Once it's written, compile-and-link by typing `gcc hello.c`. (There are other options you should use, but for now this is okay.) Result is `a.out`.
- Execute by typing `a.out`.
- What does all this mean? well ...

Structure of a C Program

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- Pre-processor directives: These begin with `#` and are used to (among other things) include in the compilation process information about libraries.
- Global identifiers (functions and variables). Function declarations here are often useful; variables are usually bad practice.
- Function(s), possibly containing variables, returning values, etc. Every complete program has exactly one `main` function.
- Syntax should look familiar to Java programmers (no accident — Java was designed that way). Less familiar to Python and Scala programmers.

A Few Words About Types

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- To the hardware, “it’s all ones and zeros”; types say how we want to interpret them (integers? characters?), define what kinds of things we can do with particular chunks of data.
- Should be reasonably familiar to Scala and Java programmers but may be new to Python programmers. Both languages are more willing to guess your intent than C is. Book lists C’s built-in types. Some will work in `gcc` only with `-std=c99`.

Functions

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- C programs are organized in terms of *functions* — a somewhat more primitive version of methods as found in object-oriented programming languages such as Python and Scala. As in other programming languages, C functions are a little like mathematical functions, except that evaluating them can have “side effects”.
(For example, evaluating the library function `printf` has the side effect of writing some text to standard output (by default, displaying it in the terminal window).)
- Unlike in some other languages, C functions have to be declared (or defined) before being referenced. Declaration includes name, return type, and formal parameters. For library functions, declaration is usually supplied via a `#include` preprocessor directive.

Functions, Continued

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- A complete C program must contain a function called `main`. It can be declared to take zero parameters, or two. Which to use? Depends on whether it needs access to command-line arguments. It should return an integer.
- When you execute a compiled/linked program, the operating system calls `main`, optionally passing it any command-line arguments. The program ends when this function does; its return value can be used to indicate whether the program succeeded (e.g., in shell scripts).
- (Now look again at our "hello world" program. More of it should make sense.)

Sidebar — Compiler Options

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- Earlier I showed the simplest way to use `gcc` to compile a program. But there are many variations — *options*. Specify on the command line, ahead of name of input file.
- Some of the most useful:
 - `-Wall` and `-pedantic` warn you about dangerous and non-standard things. `-Wall` *highly* recommended.
 - `-std=c99` allows you to use full C99.
 - `-o` allows you to name the output file (default `a.out`).
- Automate with `make` (more later).

Minute Essay

- Was anything today particularly unclear?

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