Programming Software Systems

Introduction to Programming for the Computer Engineering Track

Lecture 1
Introduction

Eugene Zouev
Fall Semester 2020
Innopolis University

Who Is This Guy? ©

- Eugene Zouev
- Have been working at Moscow Univ.,
 Swiss Fed Inst of Technology (ETH Zürich),
 EPFL (Lausanne); PhD (1999, Moscow Univ).
- Prof. interests:
 compiler construction, language design, PL semantics.
- The author of the 1st Russian C++ front-end compiler Interstron Ltd., Moscow, 1999-2000.
- Zonnon language implementation for .NET & Visual Studio
 ETH Zürich, 2005.
- Swift prototype compiler for Tizen & Android
 Samsung Research, 2015
- Six (or seven? ©) books; the latest are
 - «Редкая профессия», ДМК Пресс, Москва 2014.
 - Software Design for Resilient Computer Systems, Springer, 2019



Why the Course?

- Programming is the fundamental skill in computer science whatever area you choose in your professional career.
- A professional should know several programming languages...
- ...Moreover: (s)he should be able to quickly learn any new language, software technology or a framework...
- And for that, you should know basic concepts that are common to many (if not all) programming languages: type, algorithm, control flow, expressions/statements, syntax/semantics, software lifecycle, OOP, and many other.

I'm sure you have some experience in practical programming. But do you really understand (and can explain) notions used in your code?

The Fall Semester: The Schedule

	B20-01	B20-02	B20-03	B20-04
Tuesday				
10:40-12:10	Programming Software Systems 1 (Lecture)			
	Eugene Zouev			
	106			
12:40-14:10	Programming Software Systems 1 (Tutorial)			
	Eugene Zouev			
	106			
Friday				
14:20-15:50		Programming Software Systems 1 (Lab)		Programming Software Systems 1 (Lab)
		Sirojiddin Komolov		Mansur Khazeev
		301		
16:00-17:30	Programming Software Systems 1 (Lab)		Programming Software Systems 1 (Lab)	
	Sirojiddin Komolov		Mansur Khazeev	
	301		321	

Organization

Contents

Lectures:
 Theory, general stuff.
 Language concepts will be

presented first

- Tutorials:
 Extra stuff. Examples to illustrate what was presneted during the lecture + particular aspects
- Labs:
 Allow you to get practcal experince in programming

Organization

Contents

- Lectures:

 Theory, general stuff.
 Language concepts will be presented first
- Tutorials:
 Extra stuff. Examples to illustrate what was presneted during the lecture + particular aspects
- Labs:
 Allow you to get practcal experince in programming

Moodle

- *All* information will be on Moodle (http://moodle.innopolis.university)
- There you will find:
 - the lecture material, just after the class (sometime before)
 - and the lab sessions with exercises and information about the project and the assignments
- Plus any other information and all your grades

Exams, Evaluation & Grading

Examinations

- Assignments:
 to be evaluated each week
- Mid-term examination: written form (quiz; ~13th Oct.)
- Final exam: written form (program tasks)

Exams, Evaluation & Grading

Examinations

- Assignments:
 to be evaluated each week
- Mid-term examination: written form (quiz; ~13th Oct.)
- Final exam: written form (program tasks)

Assessment

- Mid-term Exam (25%),
- Final Exam (30%)
- Lab assignments (40%)
- Lab attendance (5%)

Grading

- A [90, 100]
- B [75, 90)
- C [60, 75)
- D [0, 60)

Required Background & Workload

The course is intended to be self-contained, requiring basic knowledge of math including binary calculus and common sense ©

The will to learn is a key prerequisite!

Overall the course should take on average 12 hours per week of your life ©

Prof M. Mazzara: only 50% of material will be given on lectures/tutorials; the other is the matter of **your own study**

The Overall Structure of the Course

Three main parts of the course

• The C language

Small, system-level (but still general-purpose) language

The Overall Structure of the Course

Three main parts of the course

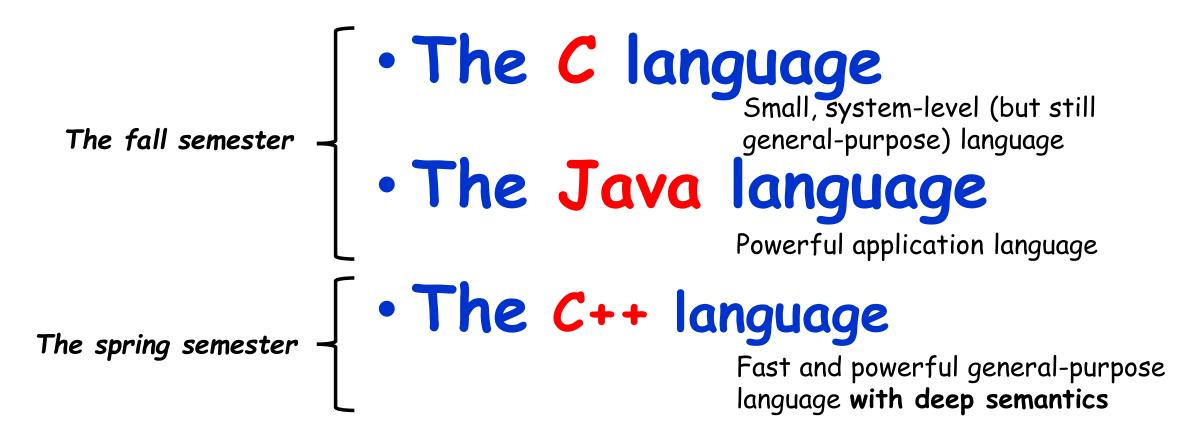
The fall semester

The fall semester

The Java language
Powerful application language

The Overall Structure of the Course

Three main parts of the course



A remark about language syntax & semantics

Syntax:

A set of rules that regulate the structure of programs and their parts (constructs)

A remark about language syntax & semantics

Syntax:

A set of rules that regulate the structure of programs and their parts (constructs)

Semantics:

The meaning of the constructs

Static semantics:

- How programs get compiled Dynamic semantics:
- How programs get executed.

A remark about language syntax & semantics

"Usual" view at a language:

Syntax:

A set of rules that regulate the structure of programs and their parts (constructs)

Semantics:

The meaning of the constructs

Static semantics:

- How programs get compiled Dynamic semantics:
- How programs get executed.





A remark about language syntax & semantics

"Usual" view at a language:

Syntax:

A set of rules that regulate the structure of programs and their parts (constructs)

Semantics:

The meaning of the constructs

Static semantics:

- How programs get compiled Dynamic semantics:
- How programs get executed.





A remark about language syntax & semantics

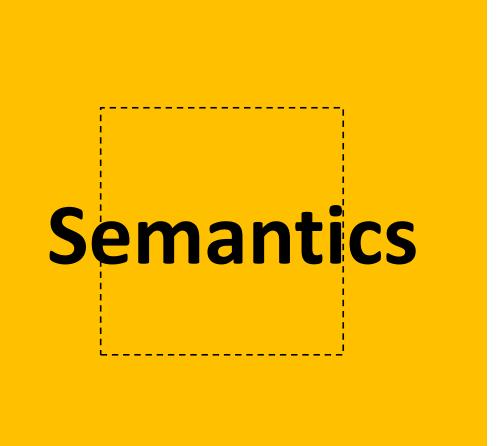
Reality:

Semantics **Syntax**

A remark about language syntax & semantics

Reality:

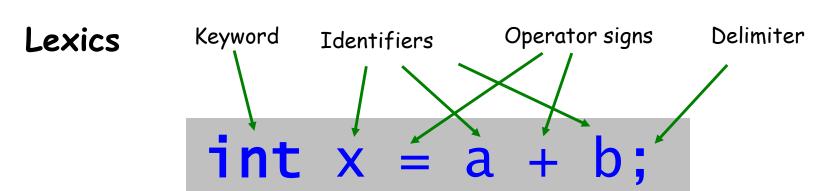
Syntax

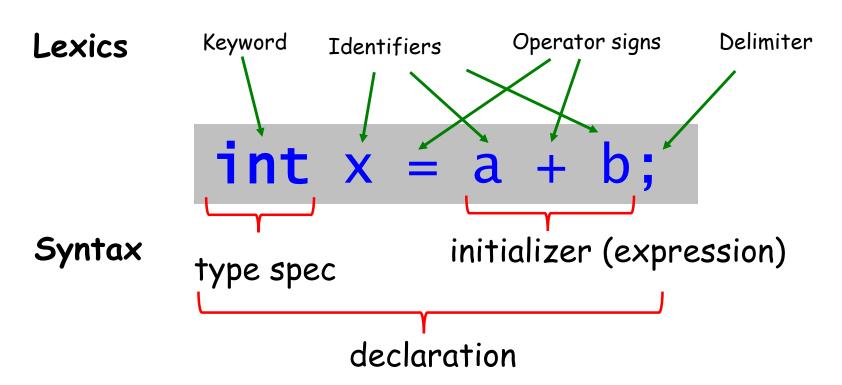


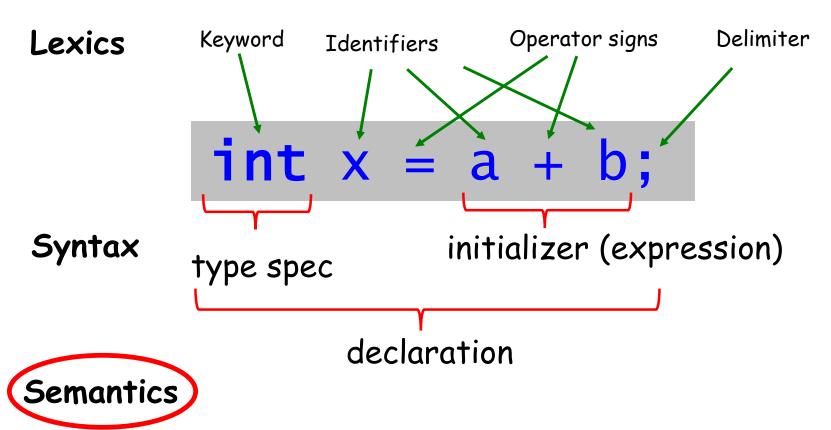
Conclusion for programmers:

- Pay most attention on the language <u>semantics</u> rather then on syntax

int
$$x = a + b$$
;







- Allocate memory for the new integer variable (in stack)
- Calculate (the value of) the expression from initializer
- Perform type conversion(s) to integer, if necessary
- Store the value of the expression
- Make x available in the current context

Program Lifecycle: Compilation

Program source text

```
int main()
{
    Stack<double> stack1;
    Stack<int> stack2(5);
    int y = 1;
    double x = 1.1;
    int i, j;
    cout << "\n pushed values into stack1: ";
    for ( i=1; i<=11; i++)
    {
        if (stack1.push(i*x))
            cout << endl << i*x;
        else
            cout << "\n stack1 is full";
    }
    cout << "\n\n popd values from stack1:\n";
    for (i=1; i<=6; i++)
        cout << stack1.pop() << endl;
    ...</pre>
```

Is this a program? ©

Program Lifecycle: Compilation

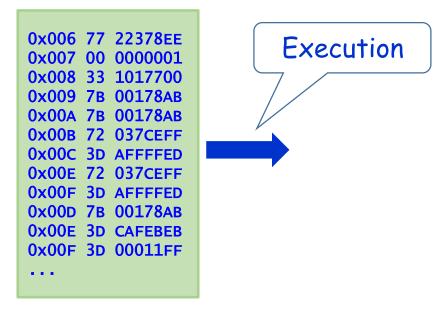
Program source text

```
int main()
{
    Stack<double> stack1;
    Stack<int> stack2(5);
    int y = 1;
    double x = 1.1;
    int i, j;
    cout << "\n pushed values into stack1: ";
    for ( i=1; i<=11; i++)
    {
        if (stack1.push(i*x))
            cout << endl << i*x;
        else
            cout << "\n stack1 is full";
    }
    cout << "\n\n popd values from stack1:\n";
    for (i=1; i<=6; i++)
        cout << stack1.pop() << endl;
    ...</pre>
```

Is this a program? ©

- No: this is just a text

Machine code



This is this a program

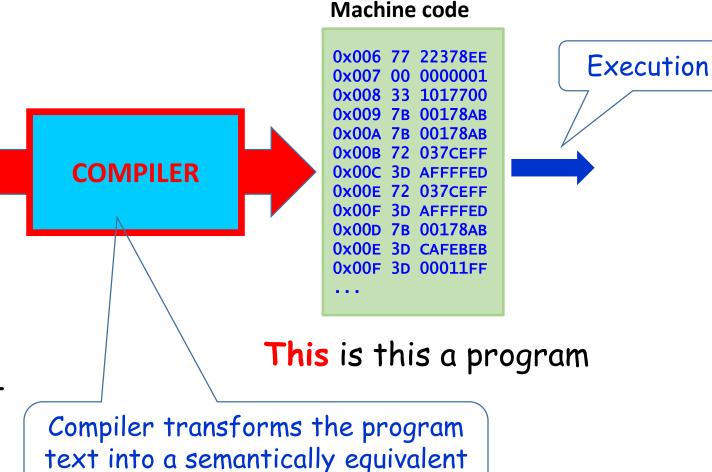
Program Lifecycle: Compilation

Program source text

```
int main()
{
    Stack<double> stack1;
    Stack<int> stack2(5);
    int y = 1;
    double x = 1.1;
    int i, j;
    cout << "\n pushed values into stack1: ";
    for ( i=1; i<=11; i++)
    {
        if (stack1.push(i*x))
            cout << endl << i*x;
        else
            cout << "\n stack1 is full";
    }
    cout << "\n\n popd values from stack1:\n";
    for (i=1; i<=6; i++)
        cout << stack1.pop() << endl;
    ...</pre>
```

Is this a program? \odot

- No: this is just a text



sequence of machine instructions

We will consider other kinds of program lifecycles later

The Common Memory Model Conceptual View

Each program uses three kinds of memory:

- Program
- Dynamic memory ("Heap")
- Stack

The Common Memory Model Conceptual View

Each program uses three kinds of memory:

- Program
- Dynamic memory ("Heap")
- Stack

Program

Sequence of machine code instructions

Program cannot modify this memory: self-modified programs are not allowed

The Common Memory Model Conceptual View

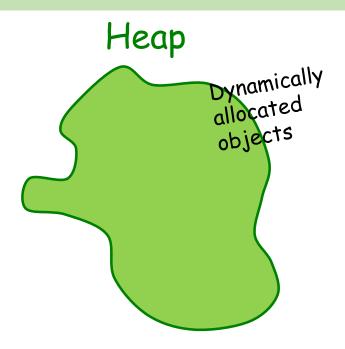
Each program uses three kinds of memory:

- Program
- Dynamic memory ("Heap")
- Stack

Program Sequence of machine code

instructions

Program cannot modify this memory: self-modified programs are not allowed



The discipline of using heap is defined by program dynamic semantics, i.e., at runtime (while program execution)

The Common Memory Model Conceptual View

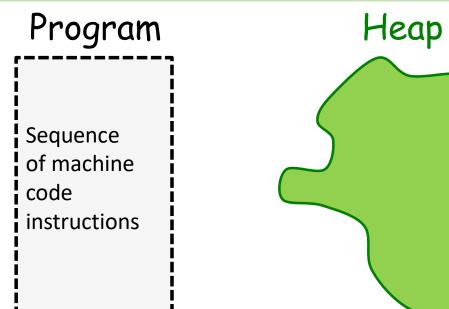
Dynamically

allocated

objects

Each program uses three kinds of memory:

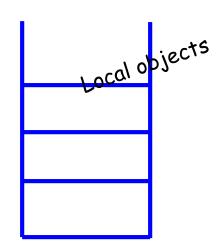
- Program
- Dynamic memory ("Heap")
- Stack



Program cannot modify this memory: self-modified programs are not allowed

The discipline of using heap is defined by program dynamic semantics, i.e., at runtime (while program execution)

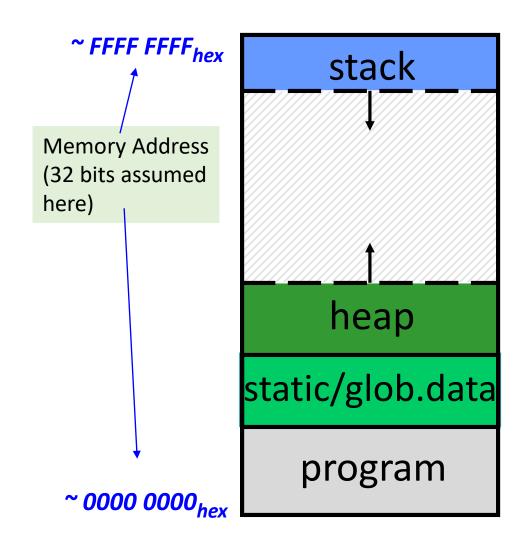
Stack



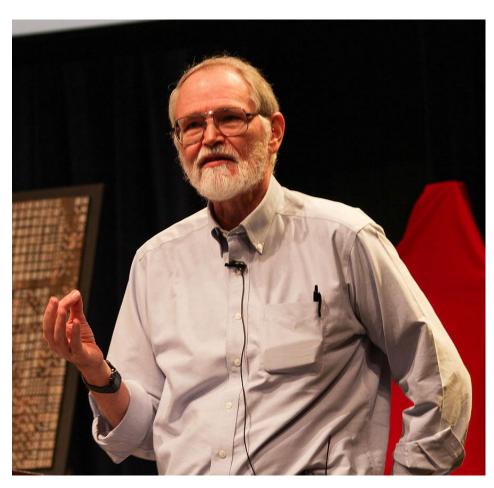
The discipline of using stack is defined by the (static) program structure

The Common Memory Model More Detailed View

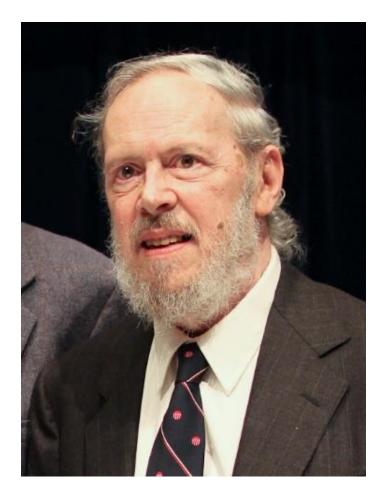
- Everything's number and everything's in memory: both program and data
- Program's address space contains 4 regions:
 - stack: local variables inside functions,
 grows downward
 - heap: space requested for dynamic data;
 resizes dynamically, grows upward
 - static data: variables declared outside functions, does not grow or shrink.
 Loaded when program starts, can be modified.
 - code: loaded when program starts, does not change



The C Language: Authors



Brian Kernighan



Dennis Ritchie

The C Language: Initial Remarks

 C is not a "very high-level" language, nor a "big" one, and is not specialized to any particular area of application. But <u>its absence of restrictions</u> and its generality make it more convenient and effective for many tasks than supposedly more powerful languages.

Kernighan and Ritchie

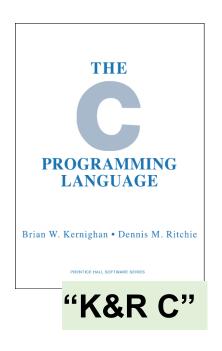
 Using C, we can write programs that allow us to exploit underlying features of the architecture - memory management, special instructions, parallelism.

References

 C International Standard ISO/IEC 9899:2011

The latest publicly-available document (n1570): http://www.open-std.org/jtc1/sc22/wg14/www/docs/n1570.pdf

- Working group JTC1/SC22/WG14 C
- C99 Rationale: http://www.open-std.org/jtc1/sc22/wg14/www/docs/C99RationaleV5.10.pdf
- <u>Kernighan, Brian W.</u>; <u>Ritchie, Dennis M.</u> (February 1978). The C Programming Language (1st ed.). <u>Englewood</u> <u>Cliffs, NJ</u>: <u>Prentice Hall. ISBN 0-13-110163-3</u>.
- Any modern book in C ☺.
- Online resources (many of them...)



The C Programming Language

- C is very simple & compact language. (Oh, really? (3)
 - However, C programs can be extremely complicated and might look cryptic.
- C is complete & very powerful language. "The universal
- C is "middle-level" language.

"The universal assembly language"

- No constructs with complicated semantics; no built-in system support like memory management.
- C was designed to be as close to hardware as possible.
 - Each C language construct is typically mapped to a clear machine code (or even to a single machine instruction).
- The C core language is completely independent from its standard library.
- The C language is old.
 - It doesn't support modern programming patterns & idioms.
 - Its programming paradigm is conservative & archaic.

The C Programming Language

- C is <u>very</u> popular (see any TIOBE index)
- C is the typed language (but not strongly typed).
 - Each C object is characterized by its type;
 - No way to change object's type during program execution;
 - There are a lot of ways, however, to convert types.
- Key C concepts: Variable, Pointer, Array, Structure, Function.
- C assumes compilation.
 - C programs should be compiled into a sequence of machine instructions before running;
 - Typically, C program should also be linked with some other programs (libraries) before running.
- C is unsafe
 - C is an efficient language, but leaves safety to the programmer

The First C Program & Structure

```
int Max(int a, int b)
   if ( a > b )
       return a;
   else
       return b;
char* hello = "Hello";
void Input(int* x,int *y);
int main()
   int x, y;
   input(&x,&y);
   return Max(x,y);
```

```
int Max(int a, int b)
   if ( a > b )
       return a;
   else
       return b;
char* hello = "Hello";
void Input(int* x,int *y);
int main()
   int x, y;
   input(&x,&y);
   return Max(x,y);
```

Some concrete observations:

- The program contains four declarations:
 3 functions, and one string.
- The whole program is placed within the single source file.
- The execution always starts from the function called main.

```
int Max(int a, int b)
   if (a > b)
       return a;
   else
       return b;
char* hello = "Hello";
void Input(int* x,int *y);
int main()
   int x, y;
   input(&x,&y);
   return Max(x,y);
```

Some concrete observations:

- The program contains four declarations:
 3 functions, and one string.
- The whole program is placed within the single source file.
- The execution always starts from the function called main.

Common rules:

- The program is a sequence of declarations.
- The whole program may consist of several source files (and usually does).
- All program functionality is in functions.

1. This is the function that accepts two parameters; both should be of integer type. The result of the function should be of integer type.

```
int Max(int a, int b) *1
   if (a > b)
       return a;
   else
       return b;
char* hello = "Hello";
void input(int* x, int *y);
int main()
   int x, y;
   input(&x,&y);
   return Max(x,y);
```

- 1. This is the function that accepts two parameters; both should be of integer type. The result of the function should be of integer type.
- 2. This is the function **algorithm**: what the function actually does.

```
int Max(int a, int b) *1
{ *2
   if ( a > b )
       return a;
   else
       return b;
char* hello = "Hello";
void input(int* x, int *y);
int main()
   int x, y;
   input(&x,&y);
   return Max(x,y);
```

- 1. This is the function that accepts two parameters; both should be of integer type. The result of the function should be of integer type.
- 2. This is the function **algorithm**: what the function actually does.
- 3. **return** statement specifies the **result** of the function...

```
int Max(int a, int b) *1
{ *2
   if ( a > b )
       return a;
   else
          *3
       return b;
char* hello = "Hello";
void input(int* x, int *y);
int main()
   int x, y;
   input(&x,&y);
   return Max(x,y);
```

- 1. This is the function that accepts two parameters; both should be of integer type. The result of the function should be of integer type.
- 2. This is the function **algorithm**: what the function actually does.
- 3. **return** statement specifies the **result** of the function...
- 4. input is the preliminary function declaration without the algorithm. The full function definition is to be provided separately (while program linking).

```
int Max(int a, int b)
{ *2
   if ( a > b )
       return a;
   else
          *3
       return b;
char* hello = "Hello";
void input(int* x, int *y);
int main()
   int x, y;
   input(&x,&y);
   return Max(x,y);
```

- 1. This is the function that accepts two parameters; both should be of integer type. The result of the function should be of integer type.
- 2. This is the function **algorithm**: what the function actually does.
- 3. return statement specifies the result of the function...
- 4. input is the preliminary function declaration without the algorithm. The full function definition is to be provided separately (while program linking).
- 5. main is the "entry point" of the whole program.

```
int Max(int a, int b)
{ *2
   if ( a > b )
       return a;
   else
           *3
       return b;
char* hello = "Hello";
void input(int* x, int *y);
int main() *5
{
   int x, y;
   input(&x,&y);
   return Max(x,y);
```

- 1. This is the function that accepts two parameters; both should be of integer type. The result of the function should be of integer type.
- 2. This is the function **algorithm**: what the function actually does.
- 3. **return** statement specifies the **result** of the function...
- 4. input is the preliminary function declaration without the algorithm. The full function definition is to be provided separately (while program linking).
- 5. main is the "entry point" of the whole program.
- 6. main contains two variable declarations and two function calls.

```
int Max(int a, int b)
{ *2
   if ( a > b )
       return a;
   else
           *3
       return b;
char* hello = "Hello";
void input(int* x, int *y);
int main() *5
{
   int x, y;
   input(&x,&y);
   return Max(x,y);
```

Several kinds of variables:

• Function parameters: they are <u>local</u> to the function. Parameters are created and initialized automatically, when the function gets invoked. (Place: **stack**)

```
int Max(int a, int b)
           Function parameters
   if (a > b)
       return a;
   else
       return b;
char* hello = "Hello";
void input(int* x, int *y);
int main()
   int x, y;
   input(&x,&y);
   return Max(x,y);
```

Several kinds of variables:

- Function parameters: they are <u>local</u> to the function. Parameters are created and initialized automatically, when the function gets invoked. (Place: **stack**)
- Global variables: they are created once, automatically, when the program starts. (Place: stack)

```
int Max(int a, int b)
            Function parameters
   if (a > b)
       return a;
   else
       return b;
     Global variable
char* hello = "Hello";
void input(int* x, int *y);
int main()
   int x, y;
   input(&x,&y);
   return Max(x,y);
```

Several kinds of variables:

- Function parameters: they are <u>local</u> to the function. Parameters are created and initialized automatically, when the function gets invoked. (Place: **stack**)
- Global variables: they are created once, automatically, when the program starts. (Place: stack)
- Local variables: they exist (accessible)
 only within their scopes. (Here the
 scope is the body of a function.)
 Locals are created dynamically when
 the control flow enters the scope
 where they were declared. (Place:
 stack)

```
int Max(int a, int b)
            Function parameters
   if (a > b)
        return a;
   else
        return b;
     Global variable
char* hello = "Hello";
void input(int* x, int *y);
int main()
{
   int x, y; Local variables
   input(&x,&y);
   return Max(x,y);
```

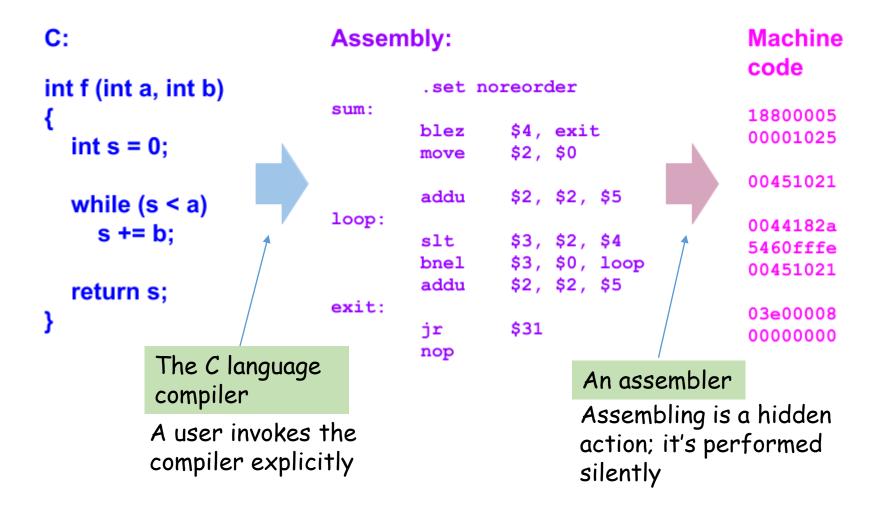
Several kinds of variables:

- Function parameters: they are <u>local</u> to the function. Parameters are created and initialized automatically, when the function gets invoked. (Place: stack)
- Global variables: they are created once, automatically, when the program starts. (Place: stack)
- Local variables: they exist (accessible)
 only within their scopes. (Here the
 scope is the body of a function.)
 Locals are created dynamically when
 the control flow enters the scope
 where they were declared. (Place:
 stack)
- All functions are global: there are no local (nested) functions.

```
int Max(int a, int b)
            Function parameters
   if ( a > b )
        return a;
   else
        return b;
     Global variable
char* hello = "Hello";
void input(int* x, int *y);
int main()
   int x, y; Local variables
   input(&x,&y);
   return Max(x,y);
}
```

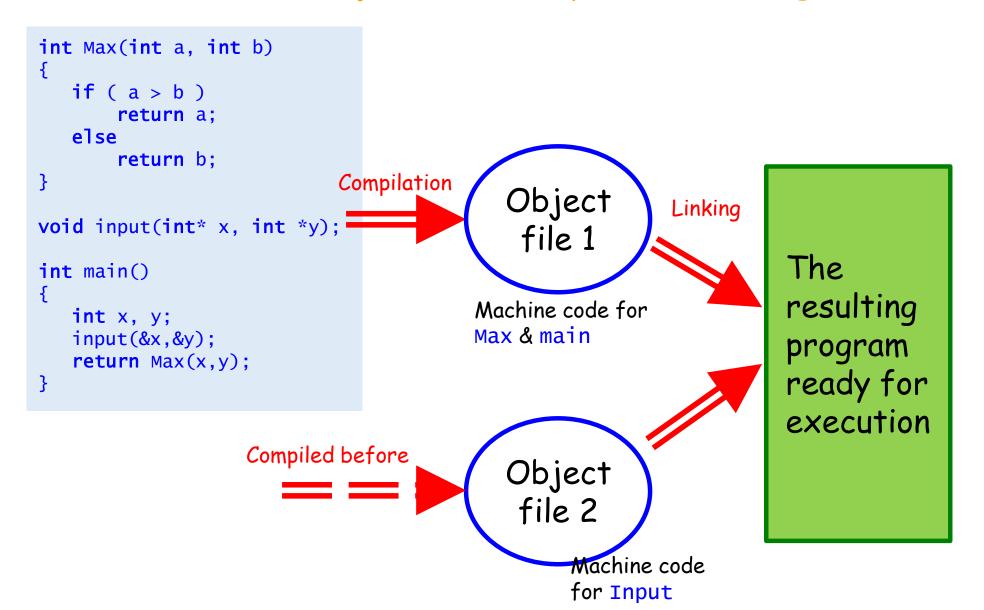
The Source & Machine Code Example

Software: from C to processor instructions

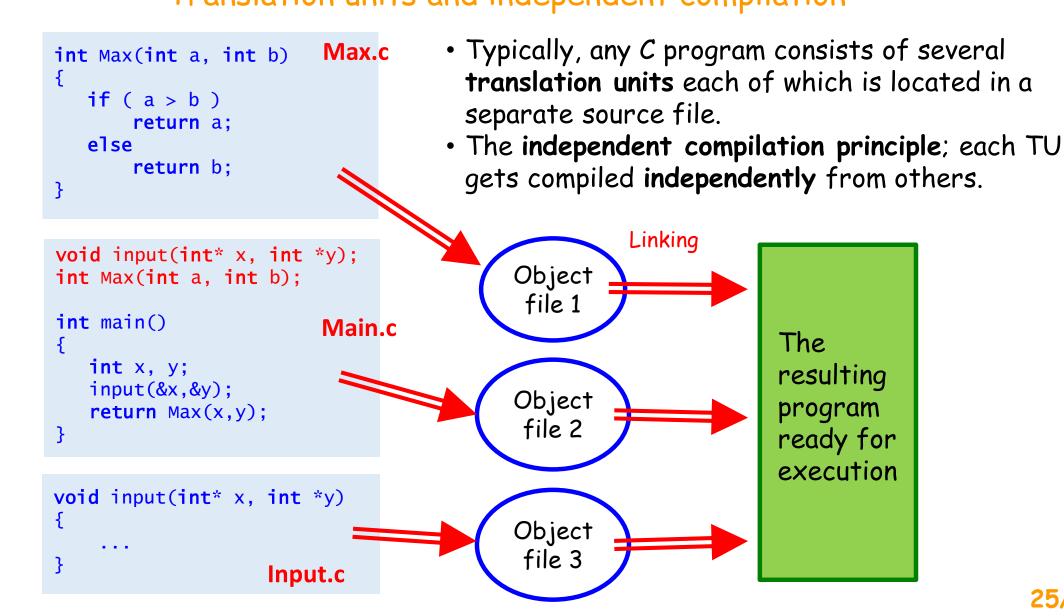


How C Programs are Built

Source & object files, compilation & linking



How C Programs are Built Translation units and independent compilation



C Memory Management: Stack

Where are variables allocated?

- If declared outside a function, the are allocated in "static" storage
- If declared inside function, they are allocated on the "stack" and freed when function returns.

```
int aGlobal;
int main()
{
   int aLocal;
}
```

aGlobal is declared outside any function; it is the global variable

aLocal is declared within the function; it is the local variable

```
int main()
   a();
void a (int m)
   b(1);
void b (int n)
   c(2);
void c (int o)
   d(3);
void d (int p)
```

How the Stack Works LIFO memory: "Last in -First out"

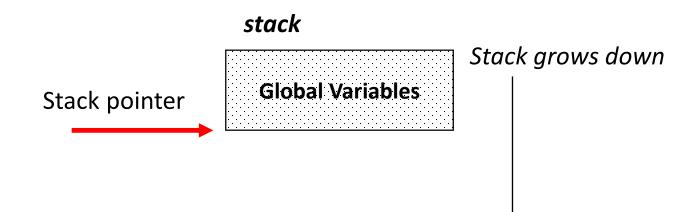
The rules

 Every time a function is called, a new frame is allocated on the stack.

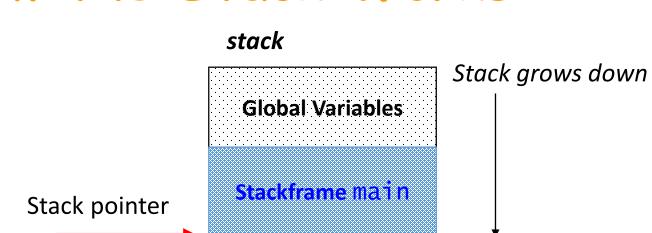
Activation record, or Stackframe

- Stack frame includes:
 - Return address (who called me?)
 - Arguments
 - Space for local variables
- Stack frames are adjacent blocks of memory; stack pointer indicates the start of the stack frame.
- When function ends, the stack frame is popped off the stack; frees memory for future stack frames.

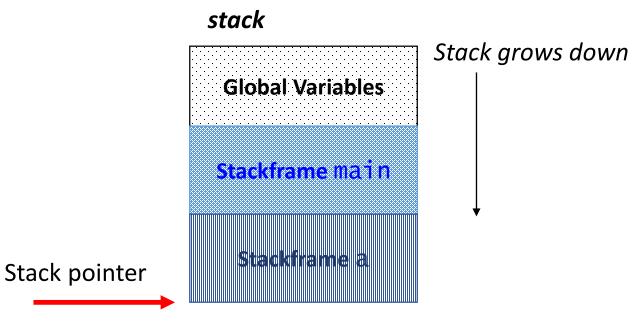
```
int main()
{
   a();
void a (int m)
   b(1);
void b (int n)
   c(2);
void c (int o)
   d(3);
void d (int p)
```



```
int main() ←
{
   a();
void a (int m)
   b(1);
void b (int n)
   c(2);
void c (int o)
   d(3);
void d (int p)
                Call chain
```

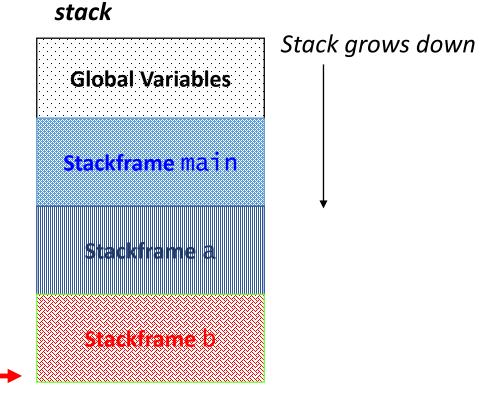


```
int main() ←
{
   a();
void a (int m)
   b(1);
void b (int n)
   c(2);
void c (int o)
   d(3);
void d (int p)
               Call chain
```



Stack pointer

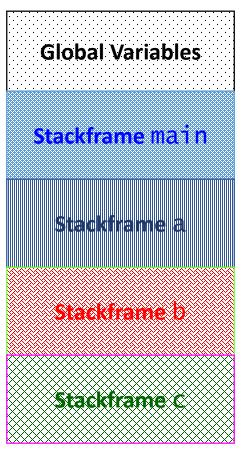
```
int main() ←
   a(); -
void a (int m)
   b(1); -
void b (int n)
   c(2);
void c (int o)
   d(3);
void d (int p)
               Call chain
```



Stack pointer

```
int main() ←
   a(); -
void a (int m)
   b(1); -
void b (int n)
   c(2);
void c (int o)
   d(3);
void d (int p)
               Call chain
```

stack



Stack grows down

```
int main() ____
                                              stack
   a(); —
                                                                Stack grows down
                                               Global Variables
void a (int m)
   b(1); —
                                               Stackframe main
void b (int n)
                                                Stackframe a
   c(2);
                                                Stackframe b
void c (int o)
                                                Stackframe C
   d(3); ——
void d (int p)
                                                Stackframe d
                               Stack pointer
                 Call chain
```

How the Stack Works int main() ← stack \rightarrow a(); Stack grows down **Global Variables** void a (int m) b(1); -Stackframe main void b (int n) Stackframe a c(2); Stackframe b void c (int o) Stackframe C d(3); -Return void d (int p) Stackframe d Stack pointer chain Call chain

C Memory Management: Stack

We will continue considerations of the stack functionality in more details on **tutorial** today.



Scope of a Variable

- The scope of a variable is a portion of the (source) code in which that variable is visible
 - the scope is where in the code we can refer to the variable declared
- Scoping rules (of some language, e.g., C) define scopes of variables
- Scoping rules may vary from language to language and also among different declaration types in the same language
 - i.e. scoping rules for variable declarations may be different from those for function declarations

Blocks

- In most structured high-level languages the notion of block is central to scope identification
- A block is a portion of code enclosed between two special symbols, which mark the beginning and the end of the block.
 - In C (in Java, C++ etc.) blocks are marked by curly braces:

{ this is a block }

- In some other languages blocks are marked by begin and end keywords or in some other manner (e.g. implicitly).
- Usually, blocks can be nested; but some languagedependent limitations are possible.

Scopes & Blocks

- Variable is visible
 - -In the block it is defined
 - Starting from the line of definition
 - In all inner bocks unless a variable of the same name is declared within
- Global variables (if exist in the language)
 - Defined outside the scope of any block
- Hiding a variable
 - A homonymous variable declared within a block makes a variable of the same name declared outside <u>invisible</u>

Scopes & Blocks

- Scope is a rule determining existence and visibility of variables.
- Block is a compound language construct where variables (and other program entities) are declared.
- Declared entities are valid only within their scope, e.g. a variable exists only in its scope.
 The system is unaware of these entities in other parts of the code.

```
void f()
    int i = 3;
    for ( int j=0; j<20; j++ )
        int k;
        if ( condition )
             int i = 7;
             \dots i+k\dots g(k)\dots
        else
             int j = g(k+i);
             . . .
int g(int z) {
    int i = z+1;
    return i*i;
```

```
void f()
                 int i = 3;
                 for ( int j=0; j<20; j++ )
                      int k;
                      if ( condition )
The scope of inner i
                            int i = 7;
is this block. The
local i hides the i
                            \dotsi+k\dotsg(k)\dots
from the outer block
                       else
The scope of inner j
is this block. The
                            int j = g(k+i);
local j hides the j
                            . . .
from the outer block
           int g(int z) {
                 int i = z+1;
                 . . .
                 return i*i;
```

The loop body is the block. j and k are declared in the block that is the scope for them

```
void f()
                 int i = 3;
                 for ( int j=0; j<20; j++ )
                      int k;
                      if ( condition )
The scope of inner i
                            int i = 7;
is this block. The
                            \dotsi+k\dotsg(k)\dots
local i hides the i
from the outer block
                       else
The scope of inner j
is this block. The
                            int j = q(k+i);
local j hides the j
                             . . .
from the outer block
            int g(int z) {
                 int i = z+1;
                 . . .
                 return i*i;
```

Function body is the block

The scope of i starts from its declaration until the end of the block except inner scope where local i is declared

The loop body is the block. j and k are declared in the block that is the scope for them

Function body is the block. The scope for z and i is the body.
g's i is not related to f's i.

```
void f()
                int i = 3:
                 for ( int j=0; j<20; j++ )
                      int k;
                      if ( condition )
The scope of inner i
                           int i = 7;
is this block. The
                           ...i+k...q(k)...
local i hides the i
from the outer block
                      else
The scope of inner j
is this block. The
                           int j = g(k+i);
local j hides the j
from the outer block
           int g(int z) {
                 int i = z+1;
                 . . .
                 return i*i;
```

Summary

- Personal introduction: you know me, I will learn who you are ©.
- Course introduction: you know what and how we will be doing.
- Languages' syntax & semantics.
- Program lifecycle: compilation.
- The memory model: code, heap & stack.
- The typical C program structure.
- How C programs are compiled and built.
- C programs and the notion of stack.
- Variable scopes and program blocks.