

# Introduction to Programming

## Part I

### Lecture 1

### Introduction: Some Basic Points

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Fall Semester 2021  
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# 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 its absence of restrictions 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.

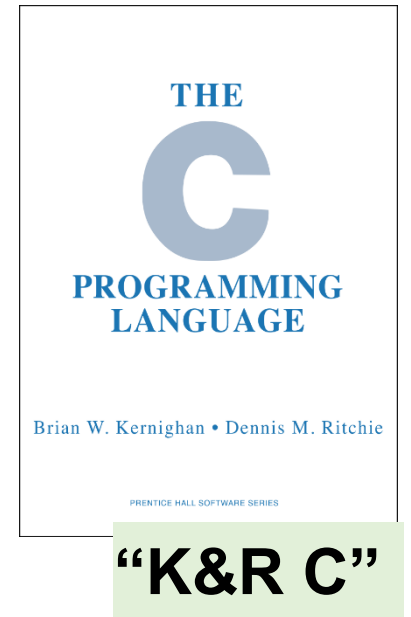
# References

- **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>
- [Kernighan, Brian W.](#); [Ritchie, Dennis M.](#) (February 1978). The C Programming Language (1st ed.). [Englewood Cliffs, NJ](#): [Prentice Hall](#). [ISBN 0-13-110163-3](#).
- Any modern book in C ☺.
- Online resources (many of them...)



# The C Programming Language

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

# The C Programming Language

- C is very popular (see any TILOBE 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);
}
```

# The First C Program & Structure

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int Max(int a, int b)
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    if ( a > b )
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```

## 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`.



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int Max(int a, int b)
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    if ( a > b )
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}
```

## 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.

# The First C Program & Structure

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);
}
```

# The First C Program & Structure

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);
}
```

# The First C Program & Structure

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);
}
```

# The First C Program & Structure

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) *1
{ *2
    if ( a > b )
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    else *3
        return b;
}

char* hello = "Hello";

*4
void input(int* x, int *y);

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{
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}
```

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5. **main** is the "entry point" of the whole program.

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    if ( a > b )
        return a;
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        return b;
}

char* hello = "Hello";

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void input(int* x, int *y);

int main() *5
{
    int x, y;
    input(&x,&y);
    return Max(x,y);
}
```

# The First C Program & Structure

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.

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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) *1
{ *2
    if ( a > b )
        return a;
    else *3
        return b;
}

char* hello = "Hello";

*4
void input(int* x, int *y);

int main() *5
{
    int x, y;
    input(&x,&y); *6
    return Max(x,y);
}
```

# The First C Program & Structure

Several kinds of variables:

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

```
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);
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```



# The First C Program & Structure

## Several kinds of variables:

- **Function parameters:** they are local 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**)

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    if ( a > b )
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        return b;
}

char* hello = "Hello";

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int main()
{
    int x, y;
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# The First C Program & Structure

## Several kinds of variables:

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- **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**)

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## Several kinds of variables:

- **Function parameters:** they are local 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)
{
    if ( a > b )
        return a;
    else
        return b;
}

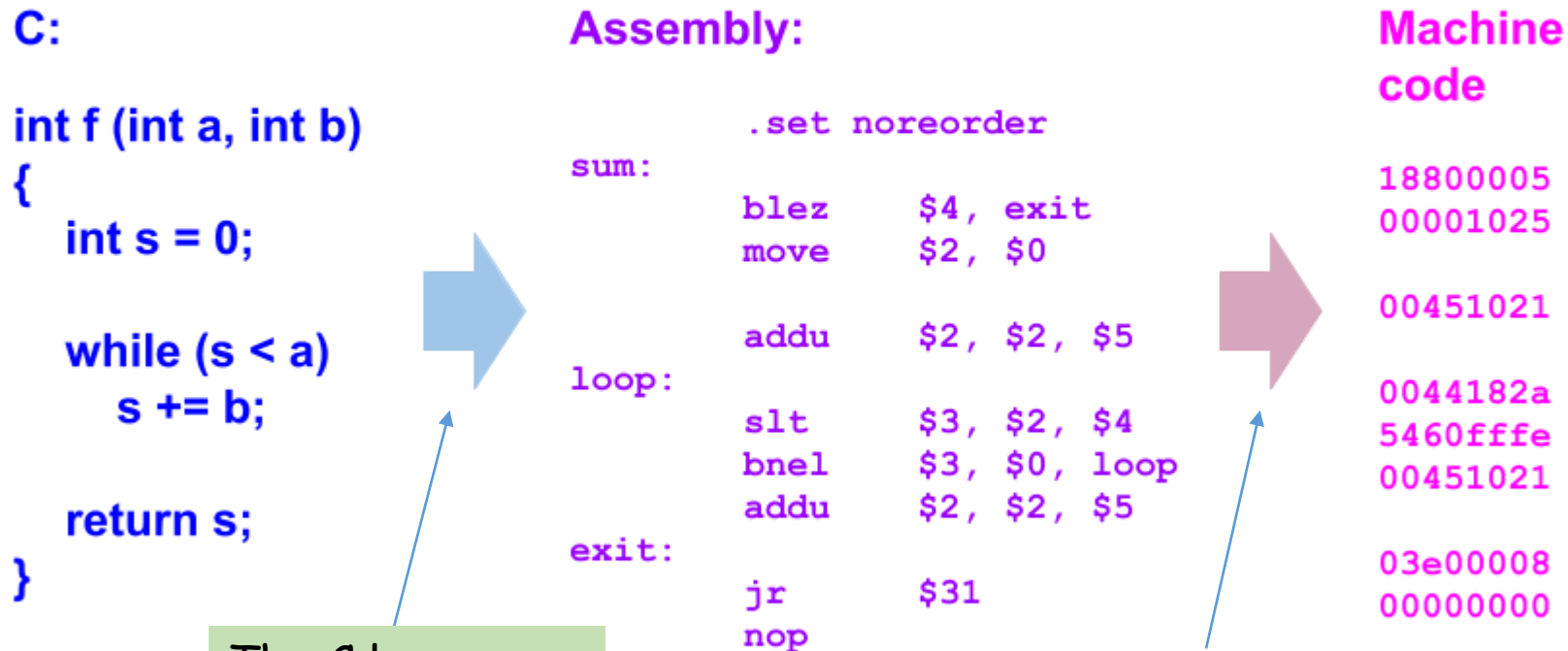
char* hello = "Hello";

void input(int* x, int *y);

int main()
{
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}
```

# The Source & Machine Code Example

Software: from C to processor instructions



The C language compiler

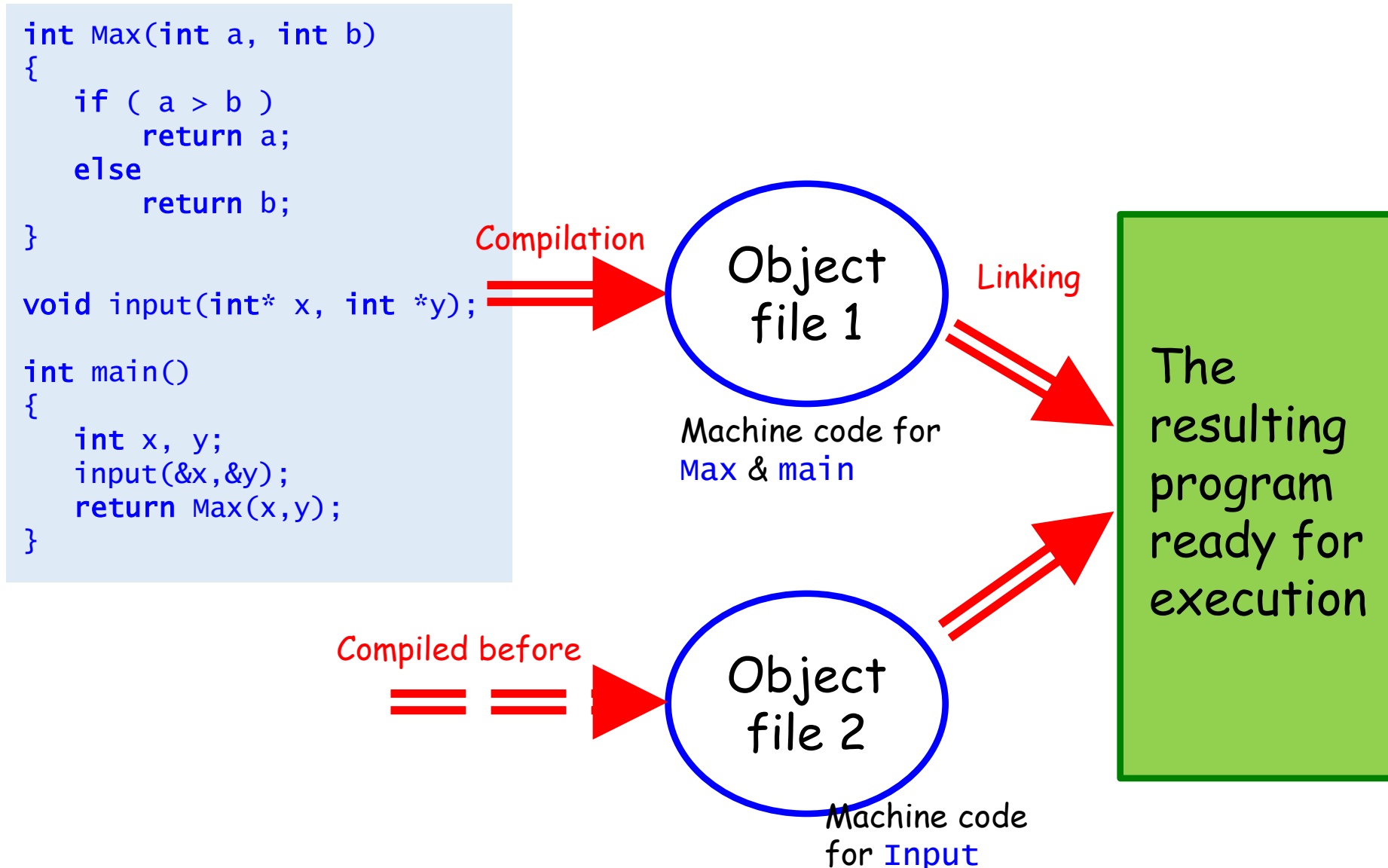
A user invokes the compiler explicitly

An assembler

Assembling is a hidden action; it's performed silently

# How C Programs are Built

## Source & object files, compilation & linking



# How C Programs are Built

## Translation units and independent compilation

Translation unit 1

```
int Max(int a, int b) Max.c
{
    if ( a > b )
        return a;
    else
        return b;
}
```

Translation unit 2

```
void input(int* x, int *y);
int Max(int a, int b);

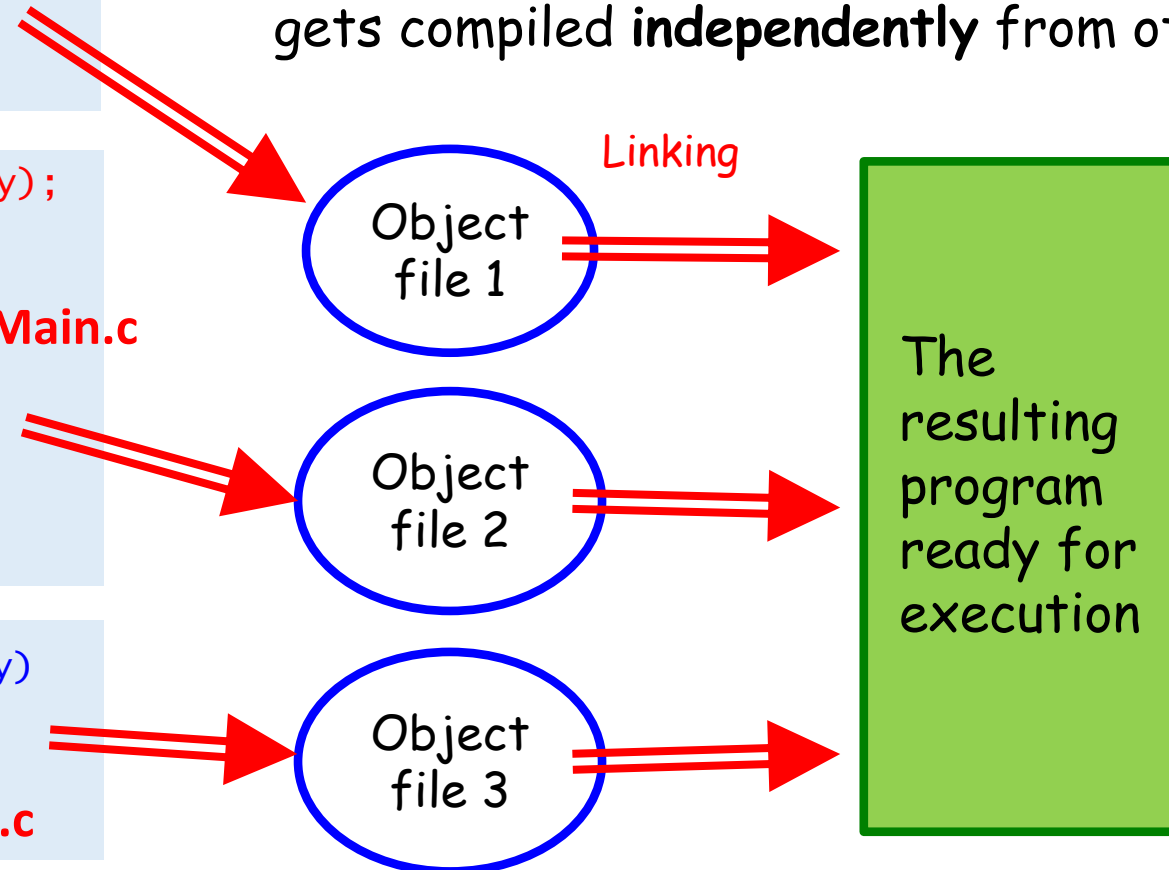
Main.c
int main()
{
    int x, y;
    input(&x,&y);
    return Max(x,y);
}
```

Translation unit 3

```
void input(int* x, int *y)
{
    ...
}

Input.c
```

- Typically, any C program consists of several **translation units** each of which is located in a separate source file.
- The **independent compilation principle**; each TU gets compiled **independently** from others.



# The Common Memory Model

## Conceptual View

Each program uses three kinds of memory:

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

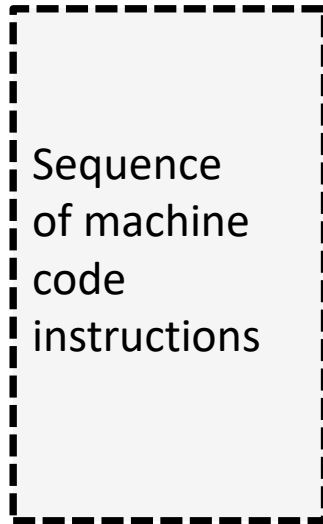
# The Common Memory Model

## Conceptual View

Each program uses three kinds of memory:

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

Program



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



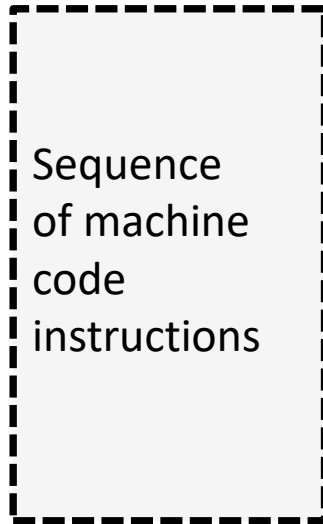
# The Common Memory Model

## Conceptual View

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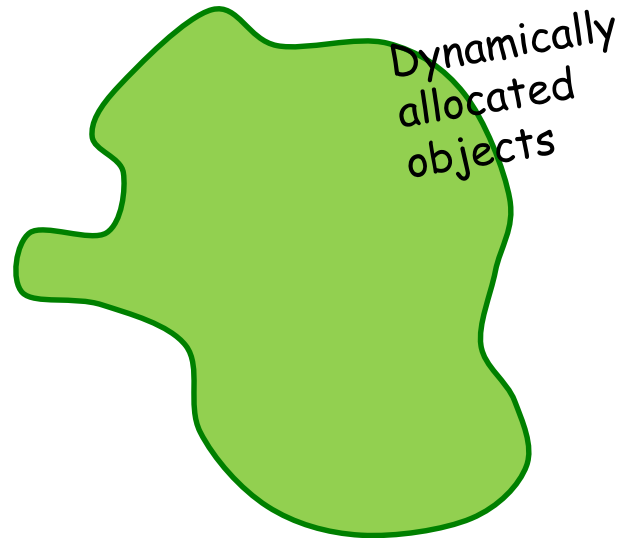
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Program



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

Heap



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

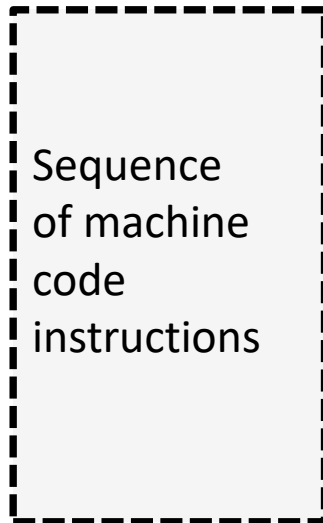
# The Common Memory Model

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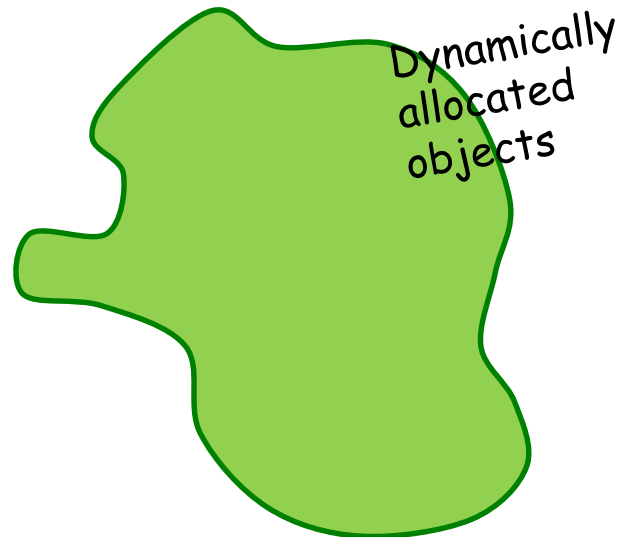
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Program



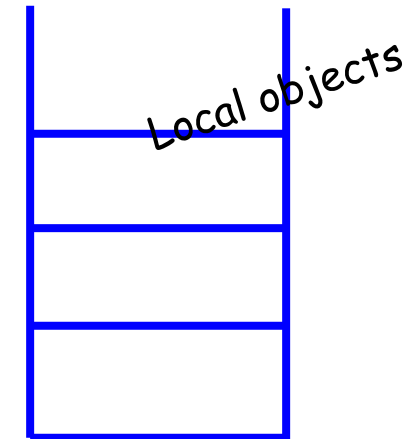
Program cannot modify this memory: self-modified programs are not allowed

Heap



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

Stack

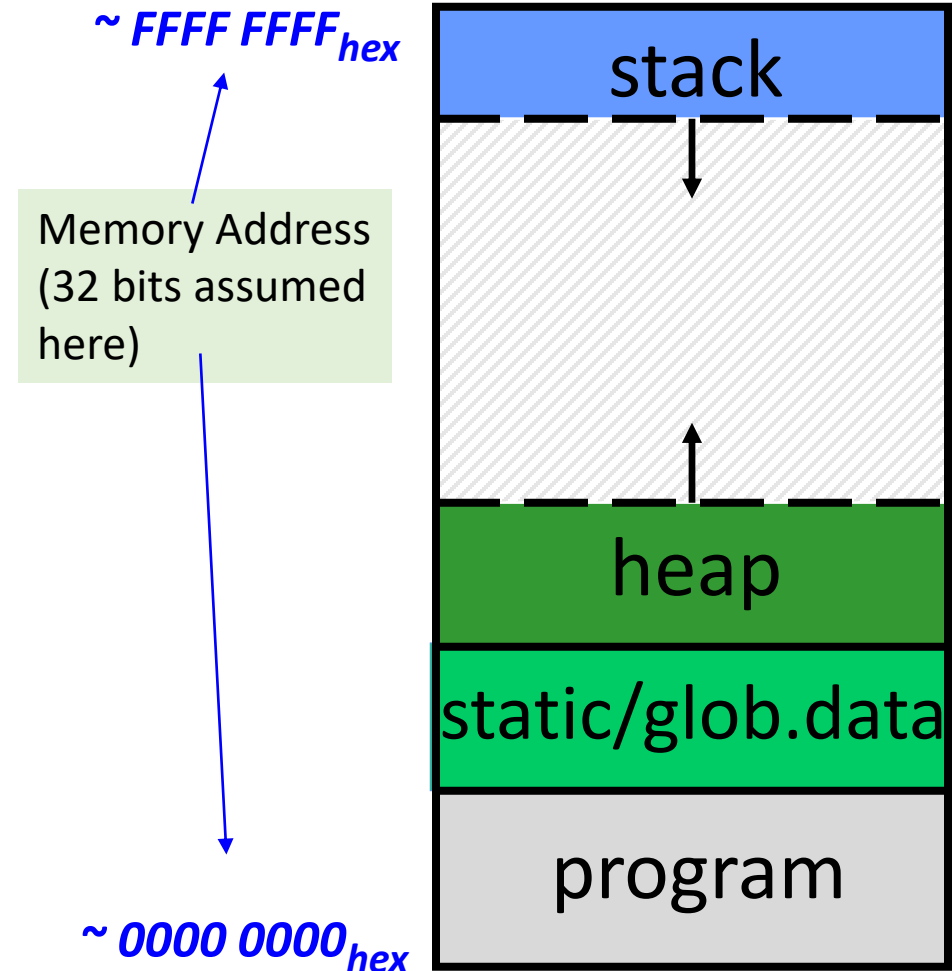


The discipline of using stack is defined by the (static) **program structure**

# 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



# C Memory Management: Stack

## Where are variables allocated?

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

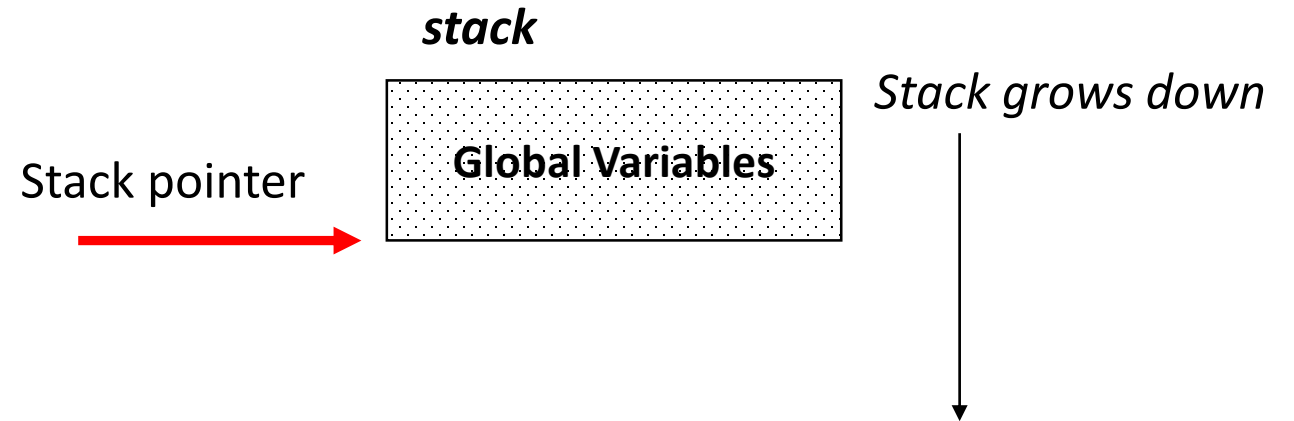
- Every time a function is called, a **new frame is allocated** on the stack.

**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.

# How the Stack Works

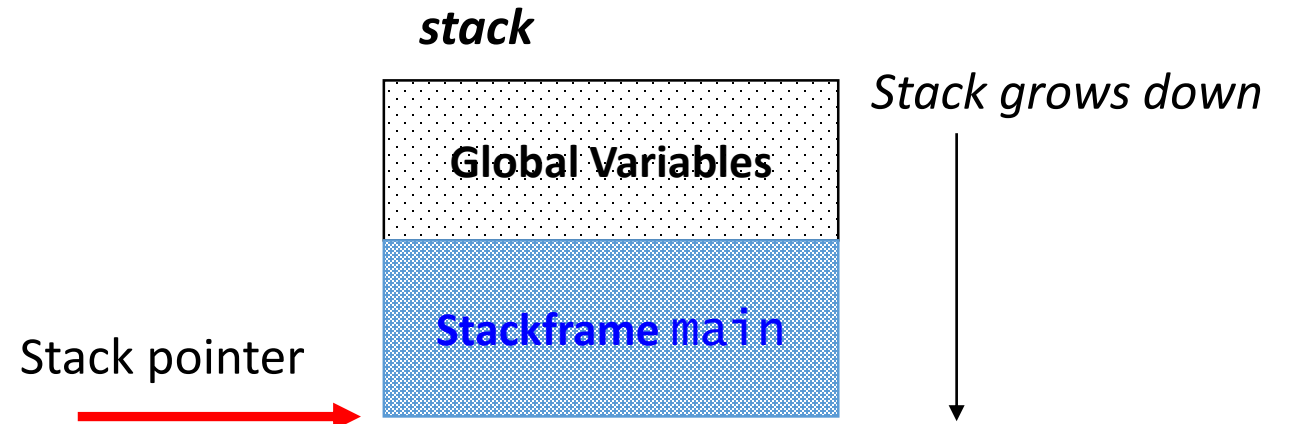
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{
    d(3);
}
void d (int p)
{
}
}
```



# How the Stack Works

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

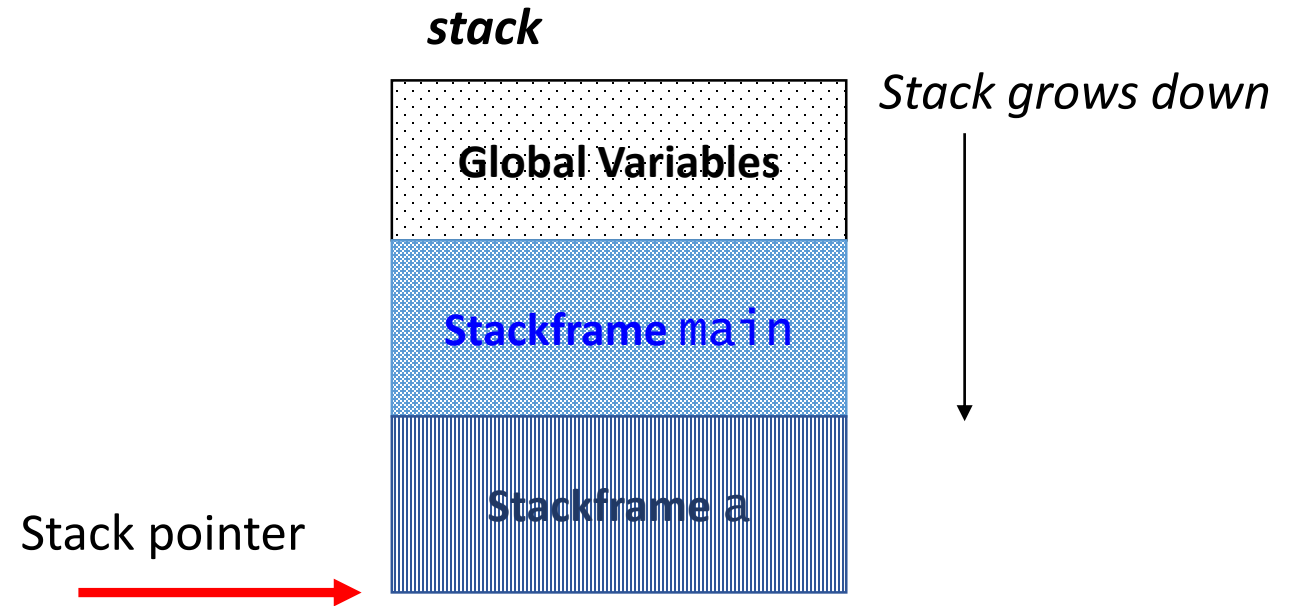
Call chain



# How the Stack Works

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int main()
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    c(2);
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{
    d(3);
}
void d (int p)
{
}
}
```

Call chain

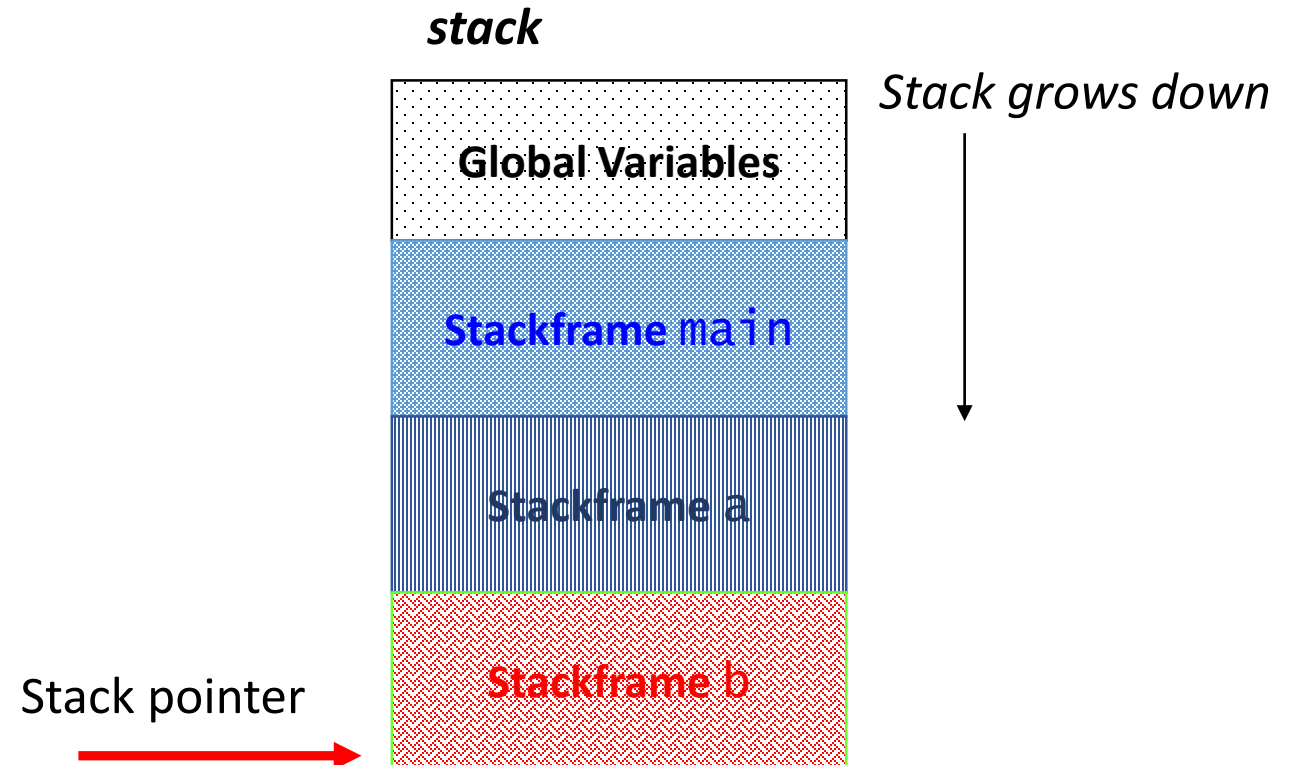




# How the Stack Works

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{
    d(3);
}
void d (int p)
{
}
```

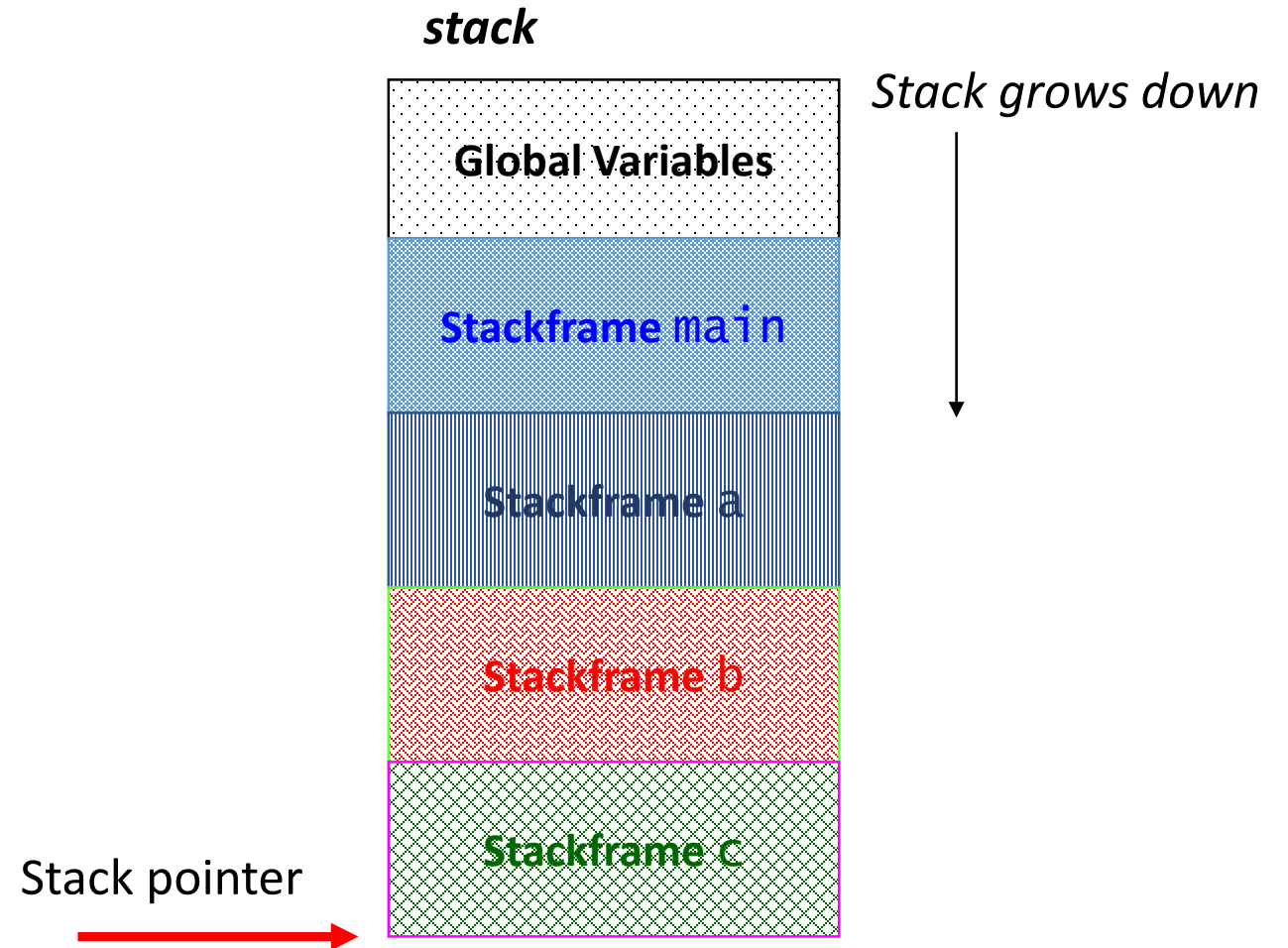
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void d (int p)
{
}
}
```

Call chain



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void b (int n)
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    c(2);
}
void c (int o)
{
    d(3);
}
void d (int p)
{
}
}
```

Call chain

Stack pointer

stack

Stack grows down

Global Variables

Stackframe main

Stackframe a

Stackframe b

Stackframe c

Stackframe d

# How the Stack Works

```
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)
{
}
}
```

Return  
chain

Call chain

Stack pointer

*stack*

Global Variables

Stackframe main

Stackframe a

Stackframe b

Stackframe c

Stackframe d

*Stack grows down*

# C Memory Management: Stack



See more about stack  
functionality in the tutorial

# 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 language-dependent limitations are possible.

# Scopes & Blocks

- Variable is visible
  - In the block it is defined
    - Starting from the line of definition
  - In all inner blocks **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 invisible**



# 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.

# Scopes & Blocks: an Example

```
void f()
{
    int i = 3;
    for ( int j=0; j<20; j++ )
    {
        int k;
        if ( condition )
        {
            int i = 7;
            ...i+k...g(k)...
        }
        else
        {
            int j = g(k+i);
            ...
        }
    }
}

int g(int z) {
    int i = z+1;
    ...
    return i*i;
}
```

# Scopes & Blocks: an Example

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    int i = 3;
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        }
    }
}

int g(int z) {
    int i = z+1;
    ...
    return i*i;
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```

The scope of inner **i** is this block. The local **i** hides the **i** from the outer block

The scope of inner **j** is this block. The local **j** hides the **j** from the outer block

# Scopes & Blocks: an Example

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

The scope of inner **i** is this block. The local **i** hides the **i** from the outer block

The scope of inner **j** is this block. The local **j** hides the **j** from the outer block

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        else
        {
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            ...
        }
    }
}

int g(int z) {
    int i = z+1;
    ...
    return i*i;
}
```

# Scopes & Blocks: an Example

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

The scope of inner **i**  
is this block. The  
local **i** hides the **i**  
from the outer block

The scope of inner **j**  
is this block. The  
local **j** hides the **j**  
from the outer block

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 )
        {
            int i = 7;
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        }
        else
        {
            int j = g(k+i);
            ...
        }
    }
}

int g(int z) {
    int i = z+1;
    ...
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```

# Summary

- Introduction to the C language.
- Program lifecycle: compilation.
- The typical C program structure.
- How C programs are compiled and built.
- The memory model: code, heap & stack.
- C programs and the notion of stack.
- Scopes and Blocks.