

2 - Basic Language Features

January 9, 2023

COMP2404

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COMP 2404

virtual machines interpreters Garbage Collection

(Short) History of Programming Languages



- 1. Regional Assembly (1951)
- 2. FORTRAN (1957)
- 3. Lisp (1958)
- 4. COBOL (1959)
- 5. BASIC (1964)
- 6. B (1969)
- 7. Pascal (1970)
- 8. C (1972)
- 9. Prolog (1972)
- 10. Scheme (1975)

(Short) History of Programming Languages



- 11. C++ (1980) (C with classes, renamed in 1983)
- 12. Ada (1983)
- 13. Objective C (1986, Apple for MacOS and iOS)
- 14. Perl (1987)
- 15. Haskell (1990)
- 16. Python (1990)
- 17. R (1993)
- 18. Java (1995)
- 19. Javascript (1995)
- 20. PHP (1995)

Programming Languages



What is the most powerful language?

- ▶ the set of problems that are solvable on a computer is the same for all (Turing Complete) languages
- ► Then what is the difference?
 - Speed
 - Convenience
 - Libraries
 - Compiled vs Interpreted
 - ► Some are fast, some are expressive, some attempt to do both

C++ has high-level constructs and systems level control

▶ Ethos - the programmer should not be restricted from doing anything

All programming languages manipulate data

Data Types



Data types:

Primitive

- ▶ int, float, double, char, bool
- ► About a constant size (roughly the same as a memory address more on this later)

Aggregate

- classes class Student{ };
- structs struct Student{ };

Memory address

▶ pointers - Student* stu = new Student;

Variable and Data Types



All memory looks the same

- ► 100100100101011101001101
- ► Is that a double, int, char?
- ► How does the compiler know?

Memory is pointed to by another piece of memory that has a label that tells the type

- ▶ label tells us how to interpret those bits what value is contained
- ▶ int, double, char, etc
- ► This "pointer" memory has an address
- ► C++ lets us manipulate addresses as well as values

Variables



Variables have:

- Name
 - ► How the compiler and programmer identify a variable.
- Type
 - ► Variable points at a piece of memory with a bit value.
 - ► Type tells compiler (and programmer) how to interpret that value.
- Address
 - ► Where in memory the value is stored.
- Value
 - ► Technically a bit value, but interpreted according to the type

Memory



In C++ we manage our own memory

- Very important to understand how memory is used
- ► We will give a basic description here and come back to this model again and again...

Two main places for memory:

Function call stack

► Fast, convenient, but temporary

Heap

- ► Slower to allocate but lasts until delete is called
- Lifespan must be carefully managed to avoid segfaults and memory leaks

Function Call Stack



Every time you call a function, a new **Stack Frame** is put on the **Function Call Stack**

- ► Any local variables are stored in that stack frame
- These variables are deleted automatically when we return from a function

```
void foo2(){
   int x;
}
```

```
void foo2()
metadata and variables
  void foo()
metadata and variables
  int main()
metadata and variables
```

Heap

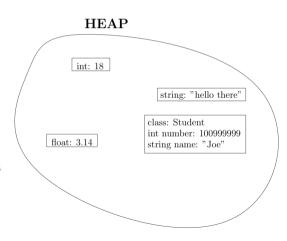


Variable declared with new goes on the Heap

- ► new keyword returns a pointer
- ► A pointer contains a memory address

```
int* x = new int;
*x = 18;
```

- ▶ must dereference (*) the pointer to access the int value
- ➤ variable remains in memory until delete is called on the pointer



delete x;

Declaring Variables



Two ways to declare a variable:

Statically allocated

```
int x;
float y;
```

- ► The variable has memory allocated where it is declared
 - could be on the function call stack or as data in a struct or class
 - the containing struct or class may be statically or dynamically allocated
 - ► this variable is deleted automatically

Dynamically allocated

```
int *x = new int;
float *y = new float;
```

- ► The variable has memory allocated **on the heap**
- ► deleted when delete is called
 - ► More on delete in the Memory Management section
 - ► For now we will focus on creation

Classes and Structs



Structs

- ► In C++ structs have variables and functions
- ► By default all members are public
 - ► Often (but not always) considered bad software engineering.
- ► Do not use *structs* in place of *classes*.
 - ► You will lose marks.
- ► *Structs* have their place, but we will use *classes* almost exclusively.

Classes

- Contain variables and functions
- By default all members are private
 - ► (Mostly) considered good software engineering.
 - ► Prevents misuse or corruption of data.
 - ► Known as *the principle of least privilege* allow least amount of access to data necessary.

Operators



We can manipulate data using operators.

They are the usual suspects, and you use them in ways you would expect

Types of operators:

Programming example <p1>

Characteristics of Operators



Arity

- ► the number of arguments
- ▶ unary, binary, ternary

Precendence

- ► The order in which operators execute
- ► It is not simply left to right BEDMAS

Associativity

- ▶ The order in which operators of the same precedence execute
- ► left-to-right or right-to-left

Characteristics of Operators



- ► Arithmetic operators have left to right associativity
- ▶ a / b / c / d; // the order will affect the outcome
- ► Assignment operators have right to left associativity
- \triangleright a = b = c = d; // all receive the value in d
- ► Prefix vs postfix operators
 - ► ++x ∨s x++
- prefix is slightly faster

C++ Terminology



Putting data and operators together gives us Expressions.

Expression:

► A sequence of operations that resolve to a value

```
2 + 2 - 3
3 * variable
2 * pow (5, 3)
2 < 3
```

Expressions are typically embedded into **Statements**

C++ Terminology



Statement

- ► An instruction or command terminated by a semi-colon
- ► Can be an expression return value can be used or discarded
- ► Can be a function

```
v = 6 + 2;
getValue();
setValue(4);
```

Programming example <p2>

Control Flow Statements



Statements can also control the flow of the program.

Conditional

▶ if-else

Selective

► switch

Iterative

▶ do-while, while, for

Jump

▶ break, continue

C++ Terminology



How do statements control the program flow?

By dividing our code into **Blocks**

- ▶ been around since 1958 or so
- ► a sequence of statements between matching braces
 - functions
 - ▶ if statements, for-loops
 - ▶ blocks for no reason
- ► Blocks can have local variables

Blocks and Local Variables



```
int x = 8;
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++){
    int x = i;
}
cout<<x<<endl;</pre>
```

```
int x = 8;
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++){
    x = i;
    int x = 10;
    cout << x << end1;
cout << x << endl;
```

C++ Terminology



Scope

- ► Block scope
 - ► declared in a block
 - ► local to that block
 - "local variables"
- ► Global scope / file scope
 - declared outside of any block
 - "global variables"
 - ▶ we will learn to use them, but should NEVER be used in industrial grade applications

Programming example <p3>

Standard I/O Streams



C++ stream library

- ▶ #include <iostream>
 - ► allows standard input and output
 - ▶ in the **std** namespace
 - ► same namespace as **strings**
 - more on this later
- ► cout member of the ostream class
 - ► an object with reference to standard output (console)
 - ▶ you can change the output stream associated with cout (to a string for example)
 - ► this does NOT change the standard output
 - printf, for example, will still print to the screen

Standard I/O Streams



C++ stream library

#include <iostream>

▶ cin — member of the istream class - standard input — i.e., from the keyboard

► cerr — member of the ostream class - standard error output (console, or you can set to a log file)

Programming example <p4>



Methods, subroutines, procedures, etc

- ► different languages have different names
- ► functionally (mostly) the same

In C++ there are two kinds of functions

- ► Global functions
 - belong to everyone
- ► Member functions
 - ▶ Belong to a class (or struct).
 - ► We will only refer to *classes* from now on.

Functions |



Global functions

- ► C exclusively uses global functions.
- ▶ Defined outside of any block (except a namespace).
- Called from any function and any class in the program.
- ► Example: main().

Member functions

- ► Java exclusively uses member functions.
- ▶ Defined within a class behaviour of that class.
- ► Called by an object of that class, however
- ▶ static (class) functions can be called on the class itself.

Functions |



Function declaration:

- ► AKA function prototype or specification.
- ▶ Details of *how* to call your function.
 - ► Name, number and types of arguments, return type.
 - ► Compiler needs only the prototype to determine if you've used function correctly.
- ▶ Document your prototype to answer what your function does.
 - ▶ Descriptive variables and function names are often best, but when it doubt, provide comments.



Function implementation:

- ► Body of the function.
- ► Code that executes when the function is called.

Member (and some global) functions in C++:

- ▶ Declaration and implementation are stored in different files.
- ► Header has declaration.
- ► Source has implementation.



(Good) function design:

- ► Take in parameters (data), process data and return a result using
 - return value, or
 - output parameter(s).
- ► A function should be single purpose.
 - ► DON'T try and do everything in one function.
 - ▶ DO call another (helper) function if there is more to do.
- ► Single purpose functions mean:
 - ► Simple to write.
 - ► Simple to debug.
 - ► Simple to document.



(Good) function design:

- ► Encapsulate unnecessary details.
 - ► Prototypes are often enough for the user.
- ► Divide large tasks into helper functions.
- ► Functions should be reusable.
 - Anticipate other uses.
 - ► Make function as general as possible.

Functions |



(Good) function design - Return values:

- ► Return values can be used to:
 - ► Indicate success or failure.
 - ► As very simple returns, like a getter.
- ► In C++, results are often returned using output parameters.
 - ► Can return multiple values.
- ► In this class we will practice using output parameters
- ► We'll use return values to:
 - ► Indicate errors.
 - ► For simple getters.
 - ► For *cascading* (which we'll see later).



Return Values vs Output Parameters:

- ► There are different schools of thought.
 - ▶ Not a matter of right and wrong: both can be made to work.
- ▶ A matter of performance and safety trade-offs and consistency with the team.
- ► A developer should know how to use both.

Function Design



Parameters

- ► Space is allocated on the function call stack.
 - ► Same as local variables.

Parameters can be passed in using

- ▶ pass-by-value, or
- ▶ pass-by-reference.

Function Design



Pass-by-value:

- ► The value passed in is copied into a local variable.
 - ► The value passed in can be a variable or expression.
- ► The function can only modify the local value the original value is untouched.

Pass-by-reference:

- ▶ The memory address of a variable is *copied* and passed into the function.
 - ▶ Must be a variable or an expression that evaluates to a variable.
- ► This address "points" to the original value, allowing us to modify the original value.

Function Design



In C++, pass-by-reference can be done via *pointers* or *references*.

► There are no references in C, only pointers.

To the compiler *pointers* and *references* are the same (or exceedingly similar).

- ▶ Both are addresses same memory footprint.
- ► Use a different syntax.
- ► More on this shortly.

Parameter Roles



Input parameter:

- ► Value or information required by function.
- ► Sent in by calling function.

Output parameter:

- ► Result of the function could be garbage.
- ► Parameter value is set by the function.

Input / Output parameter:

► A value we want changed by the function.

programming example <p5>

Pass by Reference



Essentially "pass by memory location". Two ways:

▶ Pointers:

- ► Powerful.
- Somewhat natural.
- Easy to make mistakes with segmentation fault, or worse, NULL reference (bad memory).

► References:

- ► Same thing "under the hood" as pointers.
 - ► It is a memory location.
- Syntactically treated as a variable.
- Less versatile than pointers, but easier to use.
- ► Supposed to protect against NULL references.
 - ► But you can do it if you try.

References



References can also be used outside of parameter passing.

► Must be assigned a memory address to a value on declaration.

```
int x = 10;
int& y = x;
```

- ► This memory location can never be changed.
 - ightharpoonup This reference is permanently BOUND to the memory location of x.
 - ► We call it an *alias* for another variable.
 - ▶ It is another variable name accessing the same value.
 - ▶ The value stored in the memory location that is being pointed to CAN change.
- ► Most common usage is for passing parameters by reference.

programming example <p6>