Epsilon Language

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The Epsilon Project

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**The Epsilon Language**

**2015 Draft Manual**

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# Introduction

The **Epsilon Project** is a research project developed by a number of researchers in the University of Batangas. The goal of this project is to enable programmers to build software using a language that has most of the features of C, the object-oriented concept of C++, and the safety and ease of use of BASIC. This language is called **Epsilon**, an object-oriented language inspired by C, C++ and BASIC. The version of the language described in this manual, the **Epsilon 2015**, is experimental and limited and the writers of these language encourages other researchers to enhance its features and implementations.

The official repository of the project is managed using Git and is hosted in GitHub. The project site is https://github.com/rexwynnohay/Epsilon-Project/

## Lexical Conventions

Epsilon programs are stored in files, which are called **translation units**. Epsilon doesn’t support separate compilation, but it does support inclusion of library files by using preprocessors.

There are six classes of **tokens**; identifiers, keywords, constants, string literals and separators. **Identifiers** are user-defined tokens used for naming different kinds of entities in the program. **Keywords** are tokens that cannot be used as identifiers because they have semantic value of their own. **Constants** are the literal values of a program such integers and characters. **String literals** are collections of character constants terminated by null. **Separators** are ignored characters that separates other tokens. Whitespaces are considered separators while the newline character separates statements.

**Comments** in Epsilon are the same with C++. Multi-line comments begins with /\* and ends with \*/. Single-line comments begins with // and ends in the end of the line.

Identifiers (class names, function names, object names, variable names, data structure names, symbolic constants) should start with a letter followed by zero or more alphanumeric characters including underscores (\_). The length of an identifiers can be up to 31 characters. This restriction is placed to enforced good programming practice (Long identifier names are hard to remember).

[List keywords here]

## Meaning of Identifiers

As defined before, an identifier, also called name, may refer to many things: functions, variables, class, objects, data structures, symbolic constants, enumeration constants or aliases. A variable is a storage location that has two attributes: storage class and its type. The **storage class** determines the lifetime of the storage the associated with the identified variable while the **type** determines the meaning of the values found in the variable. A name also has a scope and a linkage to a storage location which other names may also refer.

Epsilon has two storage classes, automatic and static. **Automatic variables** are local to a block and are destroyed in block termination. **Static variables** on the other hand retains their value after block termination.

There are two kinds of data types in Epsilon, fundamental or derived. Fundamental types are discussed in Section 2.2. Derived types are constructed from fundamental types in the following ways:

* Arrays
* Functions
* Objects
* Pointers
* Records

## Scope

Epsilon defines 2 levels of scope:

1. **Block scope** – objects declared in this level have scopes from the point of their creation until the end of the block they are created in. Example of this are variables declared inside a function or in the parameter list, inside control flow statements like if..then..end if, and inside the block…end block statements.
2. **Program scope** – objects declared in this level have scopes from the point of their creation until the end of the program.

At any part of the program, an object can either be local or nonlocal. An active object is said to be **local** in a defined region if it is declared there while. An active object is said to be **nonlocal** in a defined region if it is not declared there. In case a local and nonlocal variable with the same name is present in the same region, the compiler will hide the nonlocal variable.

# Data Types and Variables

**Data types** or **types** is a classification that determines an object’s size in memory and the types of operations that can be used with it. A **variable** is a storage location associated with a symbolic name called ID which contains a value.

## Variable Declaration

Before a variable can be used, it must be declared first. Declaration is the process of announcing the existence of an object, therefore the compiler will start creating it by binding an ID to it and allocating a storage space for it. The variable’s lifetime depends on the level of scope it has acquired.

Epsilon has 5 different classifications of data types: primitive, composite and pointers. Each of these classifications will be discussed in the subsequent sections.

## Primitive Types and Variable Declaration

Epsilon has the following primitive or fundamental data types:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Primitive Type | Description |
| boolean | A single-byte representing true or false. |
| char | A single byte data type capable of holding one character |
| int | An integer with the natural size of integer in the local machine |
| float | Single-prescision floating point |
| double | Double-precision floating point |

The syntax for declaring variables is:

[Modifiers] DataType variableName[ = InitialValue][Other Variables]

Variables are implicitly initialized to 0 in its declaration. Below are examples of variable declaration:

int x

char y, z

int a, b = 9, c // b initialized with the value 9

## Pointers

A pointer is a variable whose value is a memory address. A pointer is always associated with a valid data type to determine the address range it can refer. The operator # is used to denote that a variable is a pointer. To declare a pointer:

int #ptr

The code above makes the pointer variable ptr points to a variable of type int. The operator # only applies to the variable it is attached to. This means, in the code

Int num, #numptr, num2

the only pointer variable is the numptr.

A pointer variable must always be initialized before it can be used. To initialize a pointer variable, assign it with a memory location either by memory allocation or using the address operator @, which returns the address of its operand.

Int num = 5, #numPtr, num2

numPtr = @num

To access variable that a pointer points, use the dereferencing operator #. An error of **UninitializedPointerException** will result if the dereferencing operator is used with uninitialized pointer.

num2 = #numPtr // num2 = 5

#numPtr = 10 // num = 10

#### Casting Pointers

A pointer variable, no matter what type of variable it refers, has the same size depending on the machine. This is because all pointer variables hold only one type of data, a memory address. The data type in the pointer declaration is required so the compiler can determine how many bytes a pointer refers. For casting pointers, the syntax used is:

(type #) pointerVarName

#### Generic Pointers

A generic pointer can represent any pointer type. Generic pointers are created by declaring a pointer variable that points to void. Example:

void #ptr

All pointer types can be assigned to a generic pointer and vice versa without the use of cast operation. A generic pointer cannot be dereferenced because there is no way the compiler can know the precise number of bytes the pointer refers.

#### Pointer to Pointers

To declare a pointer variable that points to another pointer variable, use the # operator multiple times.

## Composite Types

**Composite types** are data structures derived from more than one data type. Epsilon has the following composite types:

* Array
* Hash
* Enumeration
* Record

### Arrays

An **array** is a group of memory location all having the same name and data type. The syntax for declaring arrays is:

DataType arrayName[[Size]]

Example codes:

Int numbers[10]

Float grades[10], students[10]

The individual location in an array is called **element**. To access an element an array, use the following syntax:

The number between the square brackets is the **index** number of the element being accessed. If an array is declared to have 12 elements, the available indexes are 0 to 11. If the array is referenced using its ID only, the value of the first element is the one that will be returned. So,

int numbers[10]

numbers = 9 //The same as numbers[0] = 9

Index of array must be an integer number. Expressions that accesses an array element using index which is a negative integer or outside the range of possible elements will return an **OutofBoundArrayException**. The array name is a pointer to the first element of the array.

#numbers = 4 // the same as numbers[0] = 4

Programmers can also initialize an array in its declaration by using the initialization list. The syntax for this is:

DataType arrayName[[size]] = {Expression List}

Example:

Float numbers[10], grades[5] = {1.0, 1.25, 1.50, 1.75, 2.0}

When the size of an array is omitted in its declaration, the compiler will determine the size of the array base on the number of values in the initialization list. Omitting the array size without the initialization list is a compile-time error.

#### Multi-dimensional Arrays

You can define a multi-dimensional array by adding subscript on its declaration. The syntax for this is:

DataType arrayName[[Size]][[Size]]…

To define a 3x4 array, the code will be

Int table[3][4]

To initialize multi-dimensional arrays, use nested initialization list. Example:

Int table[3][4] = {{1, 2, 3, 4}, {5, 6, 7, 8}, {9, 10, 11, 12}}

Int matrix[2][2][2] = {{1, 2}, {3, 4}}, {{5, 6}, {7, 8}}}

/\*

table[0][0] = 1 matrix[0][0][0] = 1

table[0][1] = 2 matrix[0][0][1] = 2

table[0][2] = 3 matrix[0][1][0] = 3

table[0][3] = 4 matrix[0][1][1] = 4

table[1][0] = 5 matrix[1][0][0] = 5

table[1][1] = 6 matrix[1][0][1] = 6

table[1][2] = 7 matrix[1][1][0] = 7

table[1][3] = 8 matrix[1][1][1] = 8

table[2][0] = 9

table[2][1] = 10

table[2][2] = 11

table[2][3] = 12

\*/

### Enumeration

**Enumeration** is a set of integer constants represented by IDs. The values in the enumeration starts at 0, unless specified otherwise, and are incremented by 1.

enum cardsuit

Clubs

Diamonds

Hearts

Spades

end enum

### Record

A **record** is a collection of variables under one ID. These variables are called **fields** of the record and are accessed using the dot operator. To define a record type, use the syntax,

record recordName

[Variables Declarations]

end record

Example:

record date

int day

int month

int year

end record

To declare a variable of type record, use the syntax:

record recordName variableName

Example:

record date birthday

To access fields of a record variable, use the dot (.) operator. Example

birthday.year = 1995

#### Record Initialization

To initialize a record variable in its declaration, use the initialization list:

record recordName variableName = {[Expression List]}

Example:

record date birthday = {25, 2, 1995}

/\*

birthday.day = 25

birthday.month = 2

birthday.yeat = 1995

\*/

When the number of values in the initialization list is less than the number of fields in the record, the remaining fields will be initialized to zero. When the number of values in the initialization list is greater than the number of fields in the record, the compiler will issue an error.

#### Record Pointers

Like other variables, it is possible to declare a pointer to a record variable. For example:

record date birthday = {25, 2, 1995}

record date #bdayPtr = @birthday

## Type Conversion

Some operators, depending on its operand, converts the value of an operand from one type to another. The compiler must handle this situation according to C++ standards. A programmer can force the conversion of type using the cast operator (type).

## Static Variables

Local variables normally dies in the event of function termination. The exception to this rule are the static local variables. These kind of variables still have block scope, but their values are retained and can still be retrieved in function calls. To declare a static local variable, use the syntax

static DataType variableName[ = InitialValue][Other Variables]

# Expressions, Operators and Statements

## Expressions

An **expression** is the combination of symbols (e.g. literals, operators, function calls), that when executed, yields a value. Epsilon expressions are nestable. The following are the types of Epsilon expressions:

* Arithmetic
* Logical
* Relational
* Function call
* Constant expression

### Constant Expressions and Function Calls

A **constant expression** is simply an expression that involves only literal values, such as 5, 17.59 and ‘a’. The literal value TRUE is a Boolean whose value is any non-zero integer while FALSE is equal to zero.

Integer constants can also be expressed as octal or hexadecimal. Octal integers has a leading 0 while hexadecimals has a leading 0x or 0X.

A **function call** is an expression that invokes a pre-defined function and yields a value based on what the function returns. The syntax for function call is:

functionName(argumentList)

### Arithmetic Expressions

Arithmetic expression in Epsilon is done using the five arithmetic operators:

1. + Addition
2. - Subtraction
3. \* Multiplication
4. / Division
5. % Modulo

Dividing both integer values yields another integer. For example, 9 / 2 yields 4. The modulo operator yields the remainder of an expression after division.

### Relational and Logical Expressions

Relational expression uses the four relational operators and two equality operators.

1. > Greater than
2. < Less than
3. >= Greater than or equal
4. <= Less than or equal
5. == Equal
6. != Not equal

When relational expressions are evaluated, they yield Boolean values, which are either the constant TRUE or FALSE.

Logical expressions also yields Boolean values, but they use the logical operators OR, AND and NOT.

## Operator Precedence

Epsilon operator follows these precedence rules:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Operators | Description | Associativity |
| () | Parentheses (function call operator) | Left to right |
| [] | Array subscript |  |
| . | Member selection via object |  |
| -> | Member selection via pointer |  |
| ++ | Unary post-increment |  |
| -- | Unary post-decrement |  |
| ++ | Unary pre-increment | Right to left |
| -- | Unary pre-decrement |  |
| + | Unary plus |  |
| - | Unary minus |  |
| NOT | Unary logical negation |  |
| ~ | Unary bitwise complement |  |
| ( *type* ) | Unary cast |  |
| # | Dereference |  |
| @ | Address |  |
| sizeof | Determine size in bytes |  |
| \* | Multiplication | Left to right |
| / | Division |  |
| % | Modulus |  |
| + | Addition | Left to right |
| - | Subtraction |  |
| << | Bitwise left shift | Left to right |
| >> | Bitwise right shift |  |
| < | Relational less than | Left to right |
| <= | Relational less than or equal to |  |
| > | Relational greater than |  |
| >= | Relational greater than or equal to |  |
| == | Relational is equal to |  |
| != | Relational is not equal to |  |
| & | Bitwise AND | Left to right |
| ^ | Bitwise exclusive OR | Left to right |
| | | Bitwise inclusive OR | Left to right |
| AND | Logical AND | Left to right |
| OR | Logical OR | Left to right |
| ?: | Ternary conditional | Right to left |
| = | Assignment | Right to left |
| += | Addition assignment |  |
| -= | Subtraction assignment |  |
| \*= | Multiplication assignment |  |
| /= | Division assignment |  |
| %= | Modulus assignment |  |
| &= | Bitwise AND assignment |  |
| ^= | Bitwise exclusive OR assignment |  |
| |= | Bitwise inclusive OR assignment |  |
| <<= | Bitwise left shift assignment |  |
| >>= | Bitwise right shift |  |
| , | Comma | Left to right |

## Statements

A **statement** is the smallest single standalone element in a program. It consists of expressions or other statements. Expressions and statements differs from each other because the former yields a value or values after its computation, while the latter expresses actions that must be carried out.

The Epsilon language has the following types of statement:

* Assignment
* Function call
* Control flow
* Macro statement
* Variable declaration
* Compound statements

Epsilon statements are separated by a newline (CR+LF or \r\n) character.

### Assignment Statements

Assignment statements is used in copying a value from an expression, called the **rvalue**, to a variable, called the **lvalue**, by using the six assignment operators: =, +=, -=, \*=, /=, %=.

Below are the examples of assignment statements.

X = 5

Y += X // Y = Y + X

Y -= X // Y = Y - X

Y \*= X // Y = Y \* X

Y /= X // Y = Y / X

Y %= X // Y = Y % X

### Function Call

See [Section 4.1.1 Constant Expressions and Function Call](#_Constant_Expressions_and)

### Control Flow Statements

See [Section 5 Control Flow](#_Control_Flow)

### Macro Statements

**Macro statements** are statements that are processed first by the compiler before compiling programs. Macro statements must always be placed before any other statements in the program. Epsilon has two macro statements, the link and define.

### Variable Declarations

See [Section 3.2 Primitive Types and Variable Declarations](#_Primitive_Types_and)

### Compound Statements

A compound statement is also called a block statement because they are composed of multiple statements. Examples of compound statements are class definition, function definition and control flow statements.

# Classes and Objects

A **class** is a collection of data, called **members**, and functions that manipulate these data, called **methods**, which serves as the template for creating **objects**.

## Class Definition

Defining a class has the following syntax:

Class ClassName

[Data Creation]

[Function Definitions]

End class

Below is an example of class definition.

class Main

function int main()

printf(“Hello World!”)

return 0

end function

end class

This is the definition of a class called Main, in which the function main is defined. The function main serves as the entry point of the program, which makes it as a requirement in every Epsilon program. There should only be one main function in the entire program.

class SwapInt

int x, y, temp

public function SwapInt(int x, int y)

this->x = x

this->y = y

end function

public function swap()

temp = x

x = y

y = x

end function

end class

class Main

function main() as int

int x = 7, y = 9

SwapInt swapper = new SwapInt()

swapper.swap(x, y)

return 0

end function

end class

Another example of class definition is presented above. The body of the class starts after the class header and ends before the end class statement.

## Object Declaration and Instantiation

To declare an object, use the syntax

ClassName ObjectName

You can also declare multiple objects of the same class by separating names of the objects with comma (,).

ClassName ObjectName1, ObjectName2, ObjectName3

To instantiate an object, use the syntax

ClassName ObjectName = new ClassName(argumentList)

It is also possible to instantiate objects in the same line

ClassName Object1 = new ClassName(argumentList), Object2 = new ClassName(argumentList)

Note that every object has its own copy of all data members of the class.

## Constructors and Destructors

The arguments in the argumentList in object instantiation are passed to the constructor of the class. The class **constructor** is a special function that is called once the object is instantiated. Although a constructor is a function, the syntax for defining it is a bit different. The syntax for defining a constructor is

constructor ClassName([Parameters])

[Statement List]

end constructor

Constructors are usually used in initializing data of the class. Constructors is treated as public functions that doesn’t return anything, even void. (See [Section 5.2 Access Modifiers](#_Access_Modifiers)) If the definition of class has no constructor, the compiler will provide a **default constructor**, which is a constructor with no parameter and statement. Constructors are implicitly called in object creation.

Another type of special member function is the **destructor**. Destructors are implicitly called when an object is destroyed. Destructors doesn’t release the object’s memory but rather it performs some termination housekeeping before the object’s memory is reclaimed. To define a destructor, use the syntax,

destructor ClassName()

[Statement List]

end destructor

If the definition of class has no destructor, the compiler will provide a **default destructor**, which is a destructor with no parameter and statement. Destructors are naturally a public function with no parameters. It is syntax error to define a destructor with parameters.

## Composition

**Composition**, or the has-a relationship, is the feature of object-oriented programming that allows classes to have objects of other classes as its members. These member objects are constructed in the order of their declaration in the class definition and not in the order of how they are initialized in the constructor.

## Pointers to Objects and Object Size

Like any other variables, an object can also have a pointer variable that refers to it. For example,

Student stud = new Student()

Student #stud\_ptr = @stud

Stud\_ptr->x = 9 // the same as (\*stud\_ptr).x

Once a pointer to object is declared, the members of the object being referred can be accessed through the pointer using the arrow operator (->).

Logically, programmers may think that the size of an object constitutes the sizes of its data and function members. But physically, an object instance has a copy of only the data members. The compiler creates only one copy of the functions separate from all objects of the class. This copy is being shared by all instances.

## Self-Referencing

Sometimes, the name of a local variable in a member function’s parameters is the same with the data member of the class. In this case, the data member is hidden because the local variable will prevail in this scope. To access the data member that is hidden, use the this keyword. The this keyword is actually a pointer to the current object instance. Because it is a pointer, the arrow operator must be used with it.

## Static Class Member

As mentioned before, objects normally have their own copy of data members. The exception to this rule are the static data members. These kind of data members are declared like static local variables and is shared among objects of that class. Static data members have class scope and can be declared as public or private.

Like data members, function members can also be declared as static. A static function member is a service of the class and is not attached to any object. They cannot accessed through *this* pointer because the latter points to an object and the former is not attached to any object. They also cannot access non-static data members because the latter belongs to a specific object. Violating these rules is a semantic error.

Static data and function members can be accessed like ordinary members. They can also be accessed through the scope operator (::) using the syntax

className::staticMember

## Member-wise Assignment

The assignment operator can be used to assign an object to another object of the same type. This assignment is performed through **member-wise assignment**, a process where the data member of the object in the right of the assignment operator is assigned individually to the same data members of the object in the left of the assignment operator.

## Inheritance

**Inheritance**, or the is-a relationship, is another important feature of OOP that allows a class to absorb or inherit the all the capabilities of an existing class and modify or enhance them. The existing class is called the **superclass** (or parent class or base class) while the new class is called the **subclass** (or child class or derived class). To define heritance, use the following syntax,

class SubClassName extends SuperClassName

[Statement List]

end class

Example:

class Person

String name

Int age

Public function getName() as String

Return name

End function

Public function setName(String name)

this->name = name

end function

Public function getAge() as int

Return name

End function

Public function setAge(int age)

this->age = age

end function

end class

class Student extends Person

String course

Public function getCourse() as String

Return course

End function

Public function setCourse(String course)

this->course = course

end function

end class

class Main

Student stud = new Student()

Stud.setName(“Rexwyn”)

Stud.setAge(19)

Stud.setCourse(“BSCS”)

End class

In the example above, the data and function members of Person is inherited by Student and can be used by Student freely as if those members where defined inside it. It is also possible to override the members of the superclass by redefining them. Note that class inheritance includes the constructor and destructor of the superclass.

### Class Hierarchy

Inheritance relationships between classes forms the class hierarchy. It is possible to define a subclass that extends another subclass of a superclass. For example, a class called Laptop may extend the class Computer, which extends the class ElectronicDevice. The class Computer is the direct base class of Laptop while ElectronicDevice is the indirect base class of Laptop. Note that Epsilon doesn’t support multiple inheritance.

### Overriding Member Functions

It is also possible to override the members of the superclass by redefining them. Note that this feature still conforms to the rule function signatures. This means defining a function in the subclass with the same name with a function in the superclass but with different signatures will not override the latter. Constructors and destructors can also be overridden by redefining them.

class Student extends Person

String course

Public function getCourse() as String

Return course

End function

Public function setCourse(String course)

this->course = course

end function

Public function setName(String name)

this.name = “My name is “ + name

end function

end class

In the example above, the setName() member function of Person is overridden by the Student class.

### Accessing Overridden Functions

Once a function in the superclass is overridden, the subclass can still access this function inside the subclass definition using the parent keyword and the arrow operator (->). The keyword parent is a pointer to the direct superclass of the subclass.

# Control Flow

## Conditional Expression

A conditional expression is what controls the execution of control flow statements. In general, all expressions are conditional expression. All non-zero values are equivalent to TRUE, while a zero value is equal to FALSE.

## Selection

The selection statement provides means of choosing between two or more execution paths.

### The Two-Way Selection Statement

The two-way selection statement has the syntax:

if Conditional-Expression then

[Statement List]

end if

This statement is usually called **if-then** statement. Another variation, called the **if-then-else** statement, has the syntax

if Conditional-Expression then

[Statement List]

else

[Statement List]

end if

The nested-if has the following syntax:

if Conditional-Expression then

[Statement List]

else if

[Statement List]

…

[else

[Statement List]]

end if

### Multiple-Selection Statement

The multiple-selection statement, usually called the **switch statement**, has the following syntax:

Switch Identifier

Case Expression:

[Statement List]

Break

…

[default:

[Statement List]]

End switch

It is possible to define multiple cases to simulate OR operation.

Switch Identifier

Case Expression:

Case Expression:

…

[Statement List]

Break

…

[default:

[Statement List]]

End switch

## Iteration

### The while Loop

The while loop has the following syntax:

while Conditional-Expression

[Statement List]

end while

### The do-while Loop

The do-while loop has the following syntax:

Do

[Statement List]

while Conditional-Expression

### The for Loop

The for loop has the following syntax:

For (Variable Declaration | Variable Identifier) = Value to Value [reverse]

[Statement List]

Next

### break and continue Statements

The **break** statement, when encountered inside the switch and iteration statements, stops the flow of execution in that statement and jumps to the next statement immediately after it. The **continue** statement, when encountered inside iteration statements, jumps the execution to the next iteration.

## Exception Handling

An **exception** is an error in a program. **Exception handling** is a mechanism for resolving exceptions. This allows programmers to create application that are robust and fault-tolerant. Epsilon provides the **try-catch** statements for exception handling. The syntax for this is

Try

[Try Statements]

[Catch [ExceptionType [ParameterName]]

[Catch Statements]

Catch […]]

End Try

The **try statements** is the code section that may *throw* an exception. When this section really did throw an exception, the remaining statements in the try statement will be skipped and, according to the type of exception thrown, then appropriate **catch handler** will execute the its **catch statements**. A catch handler is chosen if its exception-parameter type is identical or a superclass of the type of the exception thrown. The exception-parameter can have an optional name to allow interaction with it. Each catch handler can only have one exception-parameter. When multiple catch handler have the same type of exception parameter, the first will be the one to execute.

Note that the try statements and catch statements are considered block of statements and variables declare within it dies in its termination.

Unhandled exception terminates the program. Exception is either thrown implicitly by the compiler or by the user using the **throw statement**.

Throw [Exception]

A very basic example of exception handling is

Try

Throw 12

Catch int e

printf(“The program threw an exception of value %d\n, e)

end try

Generally, a result of an expression can be an operand of a throw statement. If the operand is an object of a class, it is called **object exception**. A throw statement must only have one operand or none at all. Throw statement executed outside a try-catch block terminates the program immediately.

It is also possible to define a try-catch block inside the try block or the catch block. In cases like this, the internal try-catch block may forward the exception to the external try-catch block.

When an exception is thrown but not caught in a particular scope, a process called **stack unwinding** will take place. In this process, the function that cannot handle the exception properly will terminate, destroying all local variables inside it and returns the control to the statement that called that function. If that statement is inside a try-catch block, an attempt to handle the exception is made. If the statement is not inside a try-catch block or there is no appropriate handler is specified, stack unwinding occurs again.

# Functions

**Functions**, also called methods or subprograms, are collection of valid statements that accepts some data as argument, called **parameters**, and return a value after its execution. If a function is declared outside a class, it will have a file scope.

## Function Definition

The syntax for defining a function is:

[Modifiers] function functionName(parameterList) as returnType

[Statements]

end function

Below is an example of a function that accepts two integers and returns their sum.

public function add(int x, int y) as int

return x + y

end function

Functions are identified using their signature. A **signature** of a function consists of its name and the data types of its parameters. Example, the function

function add(int x, int y) as int

return x + y

end function

has a signature of

add int int

Function signature must specify the name and exact type and order of the parameters. It is possible to declare two functions with the same name as long as they have different signatures. This feature is called **function overloading**. Take note that a class constructor can also be overloaded. To simplify language implementation, Epsilon doesn’t support **argument coercion**, which is the automatic type conversion of argument to match the data type of the parameters during function call.

## Access Modifiers

Epsilon allows functions to be of two types based on how they can be accessed, public or private. **Public** functions can be accessed in any part of the program in which the class it is defined is active. Public functions are declared with the access modifier public. **Private** functions can only be accessed within the class they are defined and are declared with the access modifier private. The absence of access modifier in function definition makes the function public by default.