

Programming Software Systems

Introduction to Programming
for the Computer Engineering Track

Tutorial 2

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Fall Semester 2020
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Static vs Dynamic

Static typing

C, C++, Java, Scala, C#, Eiffel, ...

- ☹ Requires more efforts while writing a program: need to explicitly specify object types.
- 😊 **The program is (much) more safe:** many bugs are detected before running (in compile time).
- 😊 The program is more readable; it's easier to read, understand and maintain it.

```
int x;  
...  
x = 7; // OK  
...  
x = "string"; // error
```

The binding between the variable and its type is **hard**: x can take any value but the type of the value must be always the same.

Dynamic typing

Javascript, Python, Ruby, ...

- 😊 It's much easier to write a program: no need to take care about object types.
- 😊 The program is more flexible: no need to introduce different objects for different purposes.
- ☹ The program often looks cryptic; it's required much more efforts to understand and maintain them.
- ☹ **Programs are unsafe and inefficient.**

```
x = 7; // OK  
...  
x = "string"; // OK!  
...  
y = x + 7; // OK!
```

The binding between the variable and its type is **soft**: x can hold any value of any type.

Static vs Dynamic: Pros & Cons

Why dynamic programs are less safe?

`a * b`

Static vs Dynamic: Pros & Cons

Why dynamic programs are less safe?



a * b

A static language:

the compiler checks types of **a** and **b** and concludes (before programs starts) whether multiplication operator is valid for those types.

If types are inappropriate compiler reports a diagnostic message, and the bug can be fixed before launching the program.

Static vs Dynamic: Pros & Cons

Why dynamic programs are less safe?

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the compiler checks types of `a` and `b` and concludes (before programs starts) whether multiplication operator is valid for those types.

If types are inappropriate compiler reports a diagnostic message, and the bug can be fixed before launching the program.

A dynamic language:

the compiler knows nothing about types of `a` and `b` therefore it cannot judge whether this code is valid or not.

Typically, compiler trusts programmer and considers the code valid.

For some values of `a` and `b` the code could be really valid, but for other could be erroneous.

The bug can occur only while program is running and sometimes after long time after it is written...

Static vs Dynamic: Pros & Cons

Why dynamic programs are less efficient?

$a * b$

Static vs Dynamic: Pros & Cons

Why dynamic programs are less efficient?

$a * b$

A static language:

the compiler knows for sure that a and b both have integer type.

So, it generates the compact and fast code:

- Load integers a & b to the stack
- Perform integer multiplication
- Remove operands from the stack and put the result to the stack

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- Load integers `a` & `b` to the stack
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A dynamic language:

the compiler knows nothing about types of `a` and `b` therefore it should generate code for **all possible cases**:

```
if a, b are integers:
    Perform integer multiplication
else if a, b are strings:
    Perform string concatenation
else if a is string, b is integer:
    Create repetition like a+a+a
else if a is integer, b is string:
    Convert a to string
    Perform string concatenation
else ...
```


Types & Memory

- Each object is of some type - *obvious*
 - Each object (value) occupies some amount of memory - *trivial*
- => What's the **size** of memory for (values of) various types?

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Different approaches are taken in programming languages

Java

All type sizes are defined in the language reference explicitly
(for example, type `int` occupies 32 bits)

C

- (A value of) `char` type occupies exactly one byte
- Other type sizes depend on underlying hardware (RAM/CPU)

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C

```
int si = sizeof (int);  
int se = sizeof a+b;
```

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Types & Memory

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C

`sizeof` is a unary operator

```
int si = sizeof (int);  
int se = sizeof a+b;
```

- `sizeof` returns the amount of memory in bytes
- `sizeof` applies to any expression or to any type
- `sizeof` is a compile time construct

Different approaches are taken in programming languages

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C

- (A value of) `char` type occupies exactly one byte
- Other type sizes depend on underlying hardware (RAM/CPU)

C Derived ("User-Defined") Types

Some tricks & flaws with C types and declarations

```
struct S {  
    int a, b;  
};
```

Usual declaration of a structure type...

We can use it like as follows: `struct S s;`

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struct S {  
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The structure type declaration **together** with variable declaration!

We can still use `S` in declarations: `struct S s3;`

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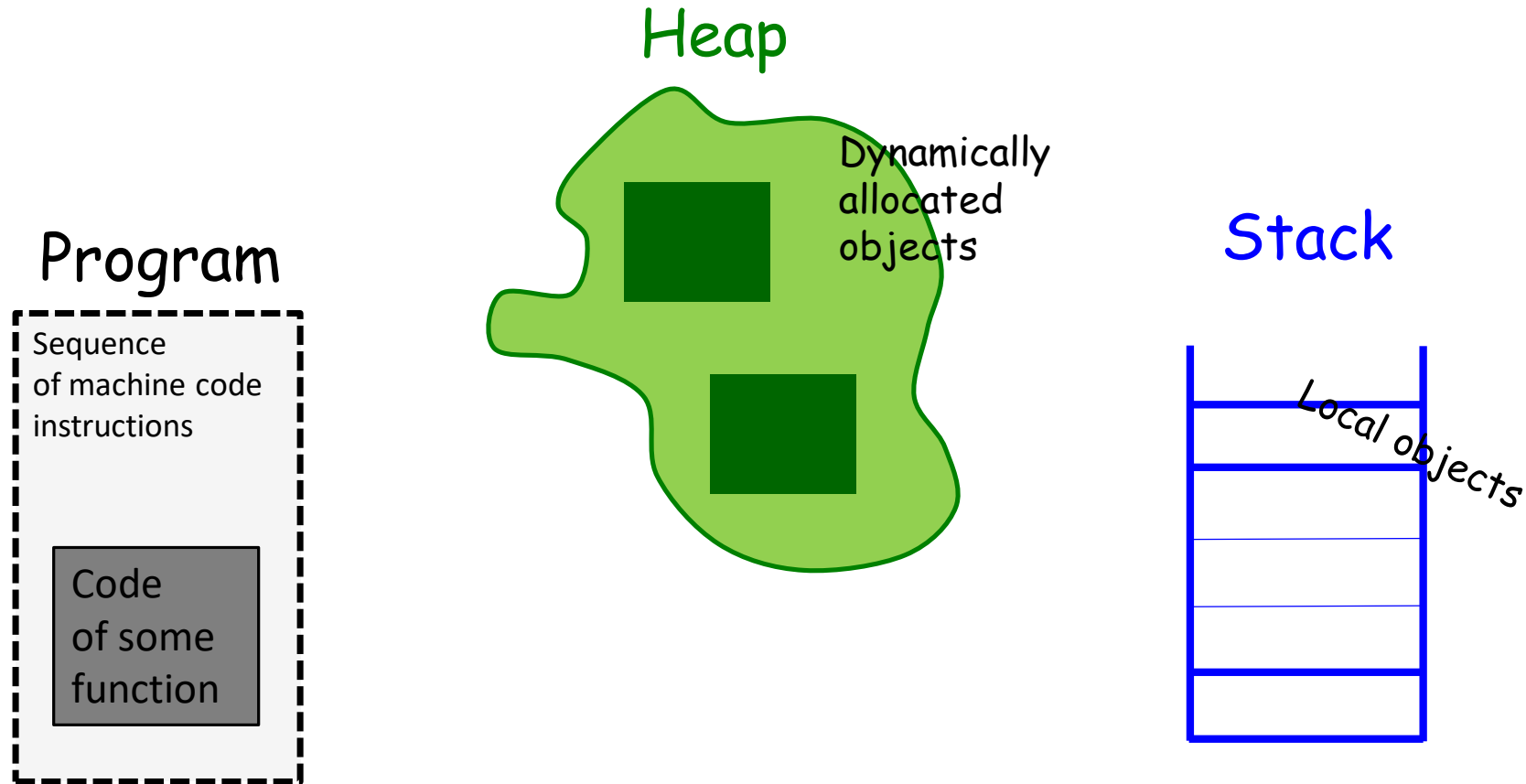
```
typedef struct {  
    int a, b;  
} S;
```

Here, we introduce a **synonym** to the unnamed structure type.

Later, we can use the synonym:

`S s1, s2;`

Pointers & The C Memory Model

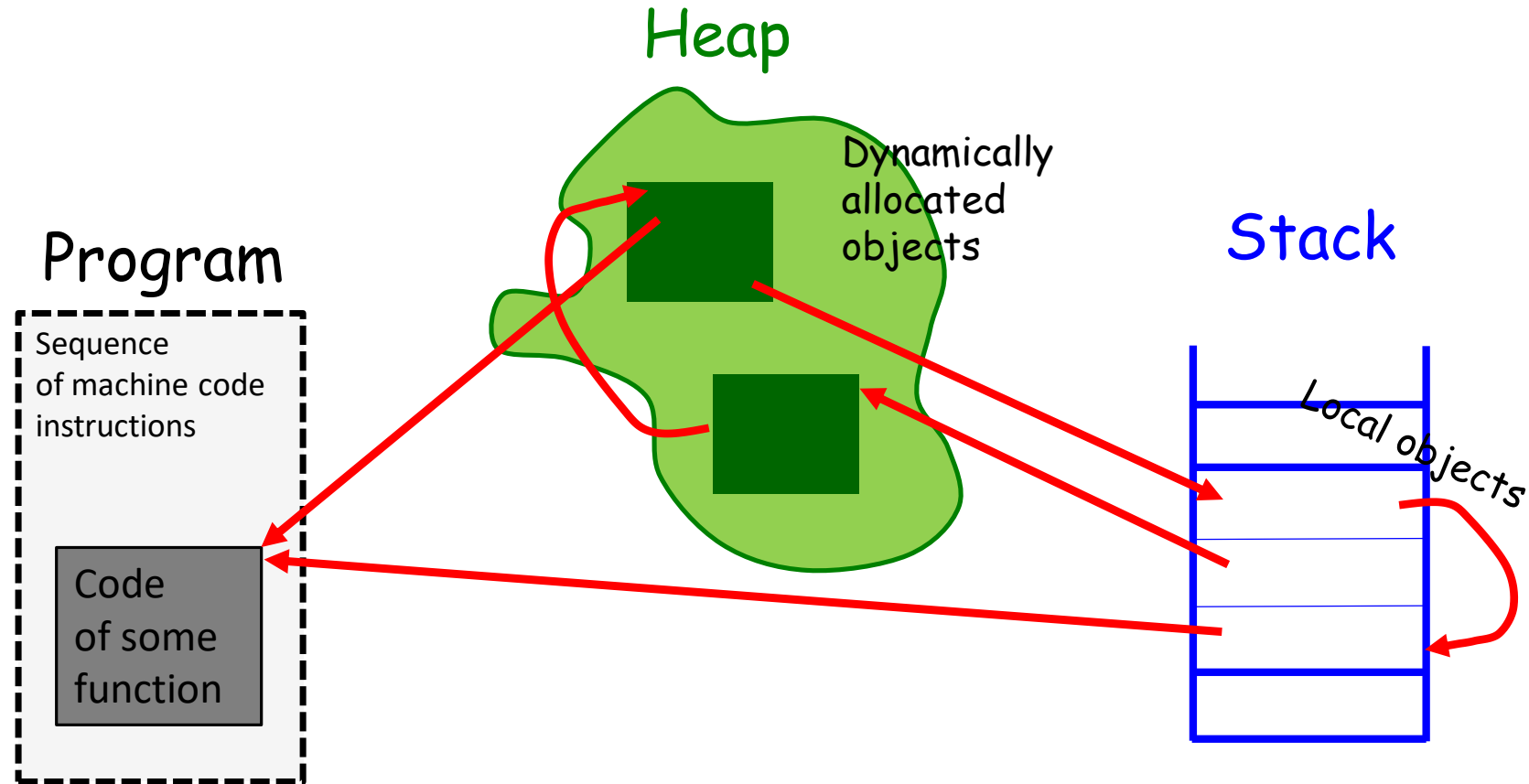


Program cannot modify this memory (self-modified programs are not allowed)

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

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

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Problems with C pointers

Example: pointers & scopes

```
int* p;  
  
void f() {  
    int A[10];  
    p = A+2;  
}  
  
void main() {  
    f();  
    *p = 777;  
}
```

p is the **global object**; it's created on the program's start and exist until its end

A is the **local object**; it's created on the f's start and exists **until exit from f**

What the hell will happen here?!



Problems with C pointers

Execution Stack

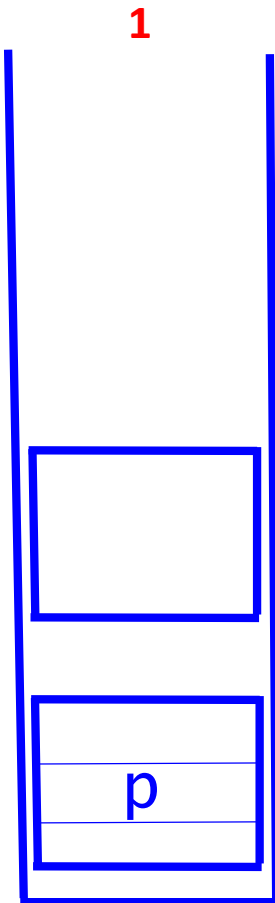
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```

The diagram illustrates the execution stack with four numbered arrows pointing to specific lines of code:

- Arrow 1 points to the opening brace of the `main()` function.
- Arrow 2 points to the opening brace of the `f()` function.
- Arrow 3 points to the line `p = A+2;` inside the `f()` function.
- Arrow 4 points to the line `*p = 777;` inside the `main()` function.

Problems with C pointers

Execution Stack



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int* p;
void f() {
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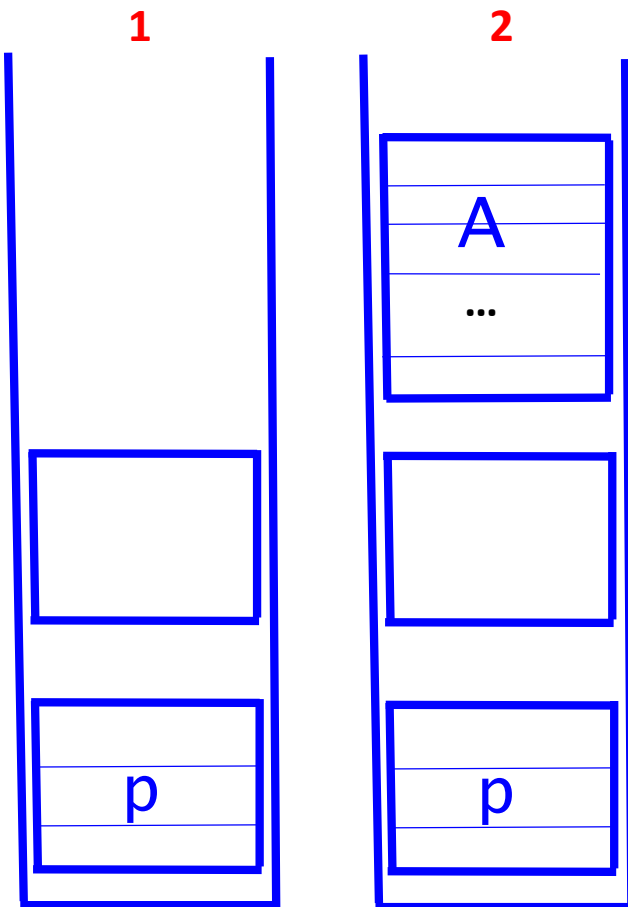
Diagram illustrating the execution stack with function calls and return values:

- Arrow 2 points to the start of `f()`.
- Arrow 3 points to the end of `f()` (returning to `main`).
- Arrow 1 points to the start of `main()`.
- Arrow 4 points to the end of `main()`.

Stackframe
for global
variables

Problems with C pointers

Execution Stack



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void f() {  
    int A[10];  
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```

Arrows point to the following lines of code:

- 2: `int A[10];`
- 3: `p = A+2;`
- 1: `f();`
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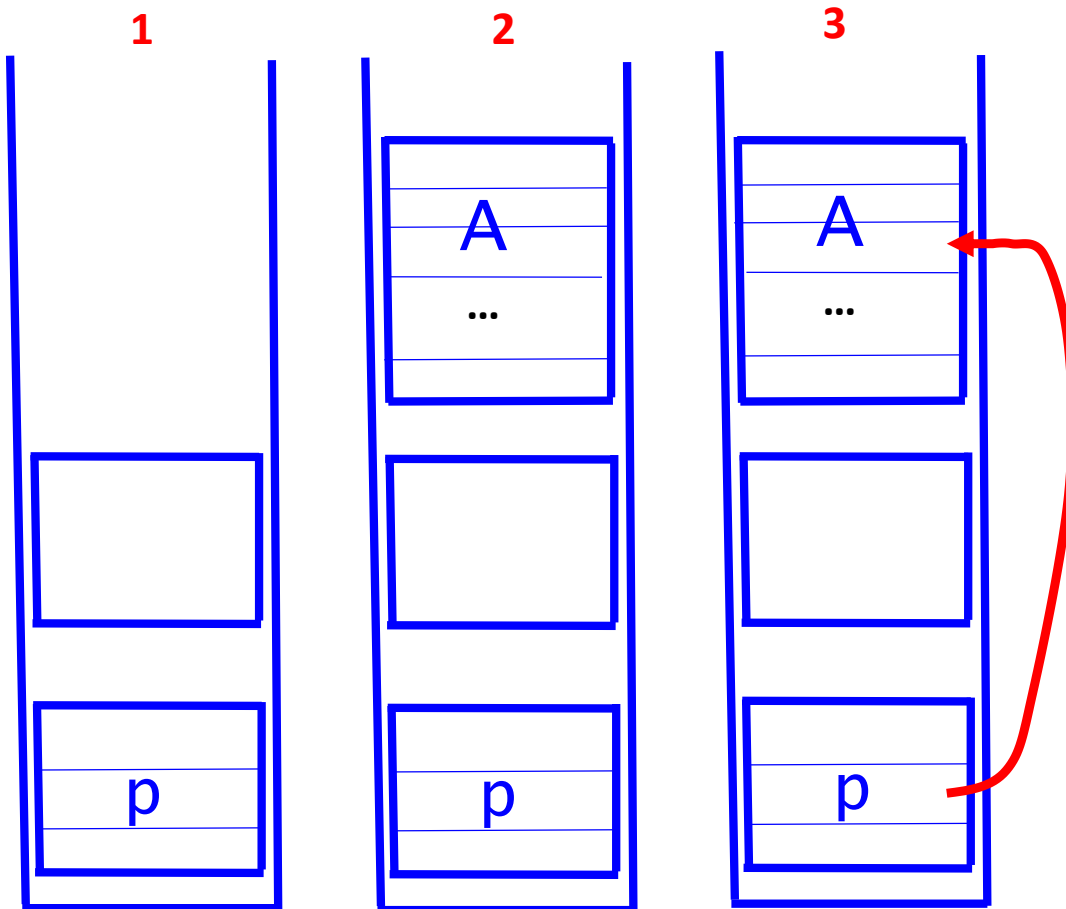
Stackframe
for the call to
`f`

Stackframe
for the call
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Stackframe
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Problems with C pointers

Execution Stack



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```

Arrows indicate the call sequence: 2 (f), 3 (f), 1 (main), 4 (main).

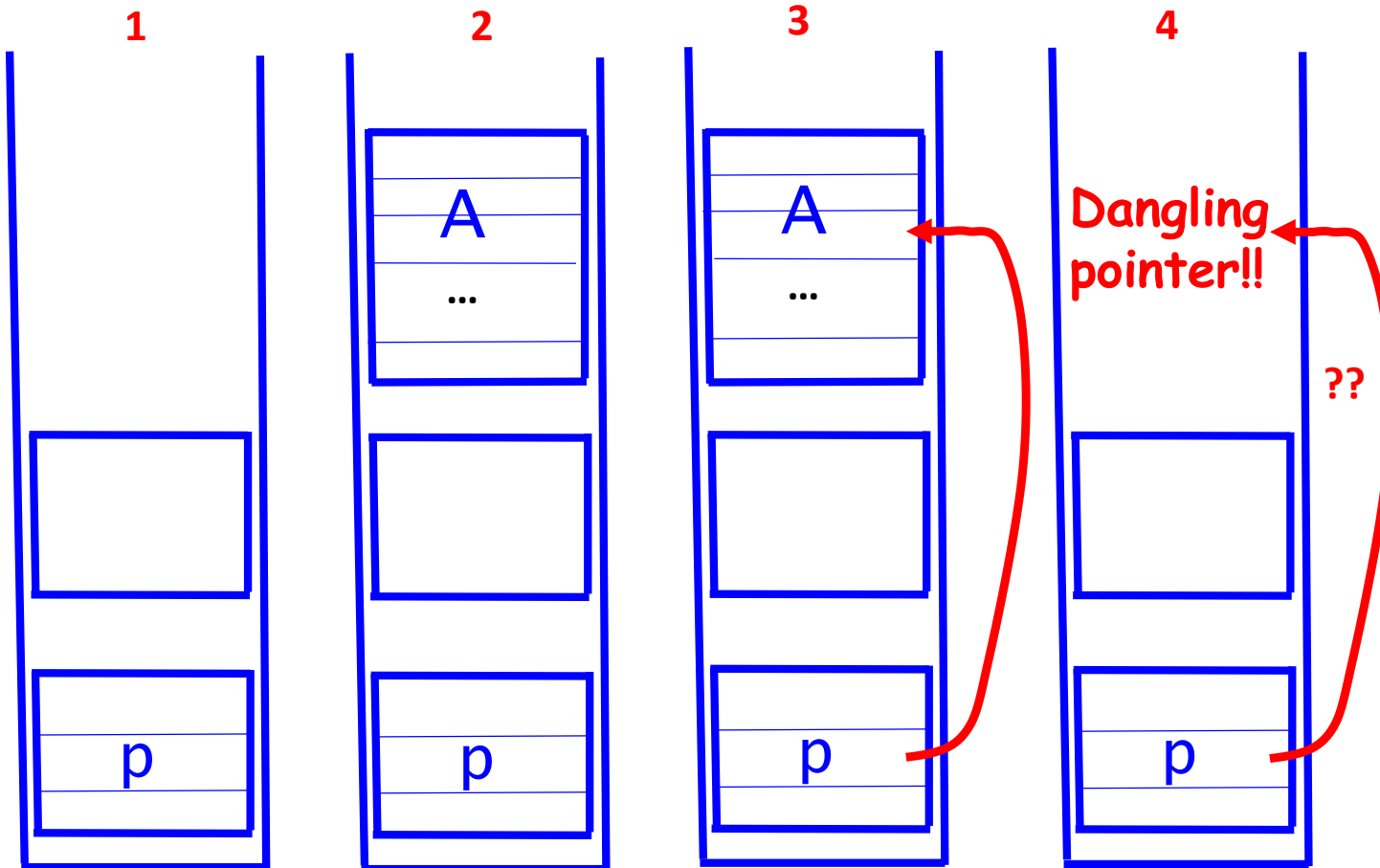
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Stackframe
for the call to
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Stackframe
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Stackframe
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Problems with C pointers

Example: dynamic objects, pointers & scopes

```
void f() {  
    int* p = (int*)malloc(10);  
}  
  
void main() {  
    f();  
    ...  
}
```

p is the **local object**;
it lives only within
the f function

The unnamed object created by
malloc() is **dynamic object**; it
doesn't follow the scoping rules!

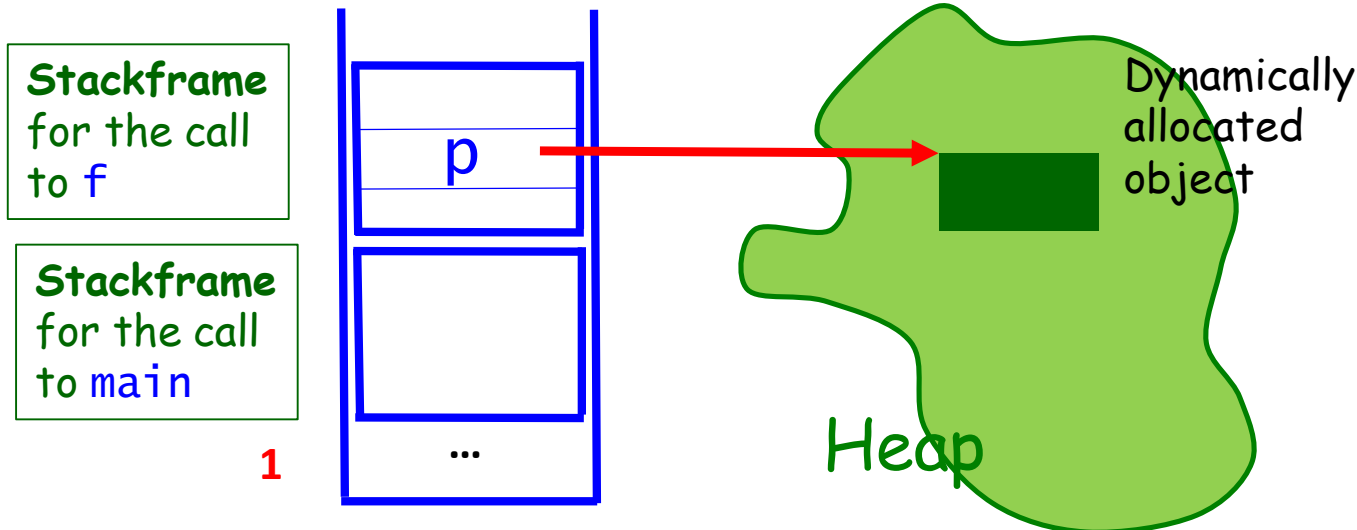
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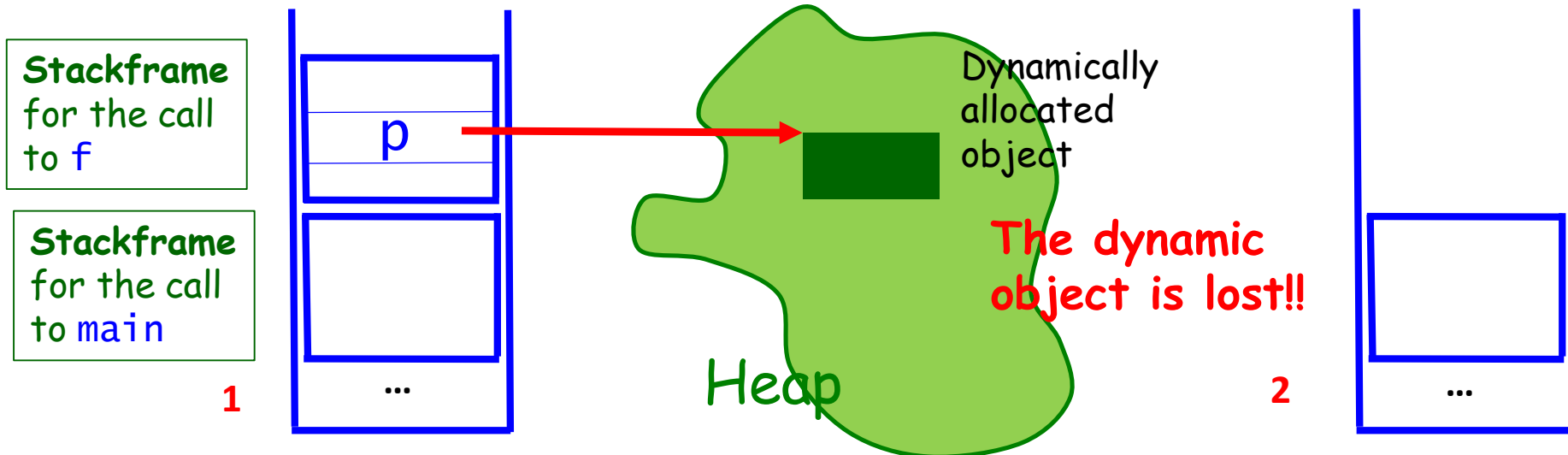
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Example: dynamic objects, pointers & scopes

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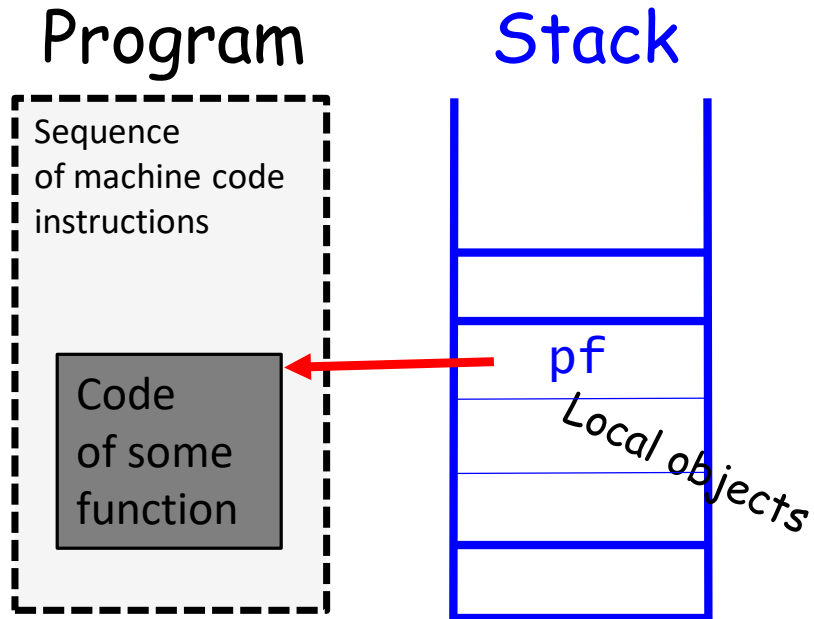


Pointers to Functions

```
void f(int p)
{
    ...
}
...

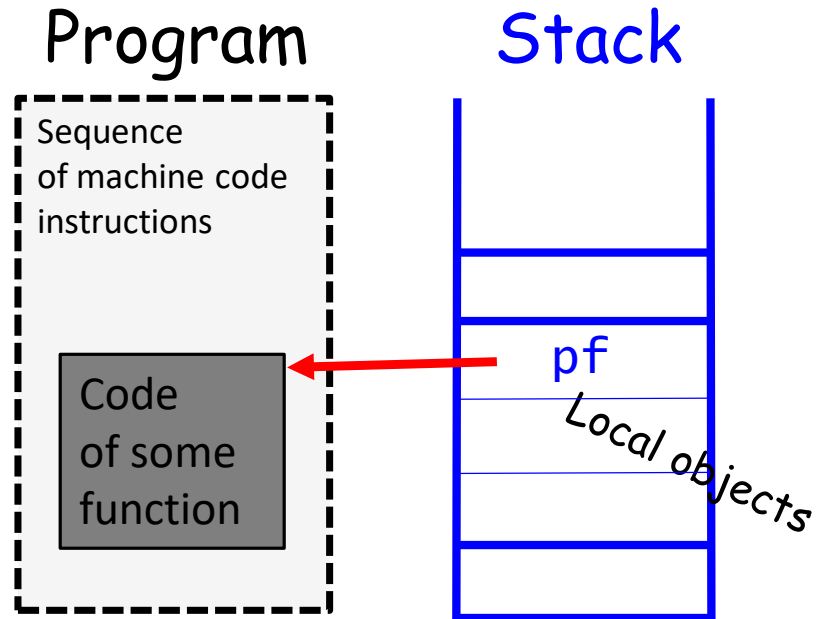
...
void main()
{
    f(1); // call to f
}
```

Pointers to Functions



```
void f(int p)
{
    ...
}
...
void (*pf)(int) = &f;
...
void main()
{
    f(1); // call to f
}
```

Pointers to Functions



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void f(int p)
{
    ...
}
...
void (*pf)(int) = &f;
...
void main()
{
    f(1); // call to f
    pf(1); // call to f!
}
```

Automatic & static objects

```
void f() {  
    int x = 0;  
    ...  
    x += 1;  
    printf("%d", x);  
}  
  
void main() {  
    for(int i=1; i<=100; i++)  
        f();  
}
```

x is the **local object**

- it "belongs" to the **f** function;
- it is **available** only from within the **f** function;
- it is created and gets initialized **each time** the **f** function is invoked

The loop prints the same value **1** on each iteration.

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The **x** variable is often called as **automatic local variable**.

```
...  
auto int x = 0;  
...
```


Automatic & static objects

```
void f() {  
    static int x = 0;  
    ...  
    x += 1;  
    printf("%d", x);  
}  
  
void main() {  
    for(int i=1; i<=100; i++)  
        f();  
}
```

x is still the **local object**

- it "belongs" to the **f** function;
- it is **available** only from within the **f** function;
- it is created and gets initialized **only once**: before the very first call to the function it belongs to.

The loop prints values 1, 2, 3, ... on each iteration.

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The loop prints values 1, 2, 3, ... on each iteration.

The **x** variable is often called as **static local variable**.

Algol-60:
Own variables

Automatic & static objects

Example: Fibonacci numbers

$$\text{Fib}(0) = 0$$

$$\text{Fib}(1) = 1$$

$$\text{Fib}(n) = \text{Fib}(n-2) + \text{Fib}(n-1)$$

Automatic & static objects

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$\text{Fib}(0) = 0$

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$\text{Fib}(n) = \text{Fib}(n-2) + \text{Fib}(n-1)$

```
long long Fib(int N)
{
    if ( N == 0 || N == 1 ) return N;
    return Fib(N-2) + Fib(N-1);
}
```

Automatic & static objects

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```

```
long long Fib() {
    static long long first = 0;
    static long long second = 1;
    long long out = first + second;
    first = second;
    second = out;
    return out;
}
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The stateless
function

The function
with its own
state, OR

Finite automat

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