EMBEDDED SYSTEMS PROGRAMMING 2017-18

Language Basics

(PROGRAMMING) LANGUAGES



ABOUT THE LANGUAGES

- **C** (1972)
 - Designed "to replace assembly language" and still being efficient
 - Standard: <u>ISO/IEC 9899:2011</u> (latest version, December 2011)
- **C++** (1983)
 - Designed to add object orientation to C while still allowing low-level (sometimes nasty) operations. 99.9% compatible with C.
 - Standard: ISO/IEC 14882:2017 (latest version, December 2017)

- Java (1993)
 - Designed to be easier and less error-inducing than C++
 - Standard: none, interested parties decide the way to follow via the ICP

PARADIGMS

The aforementioned languages can be considered

- imperative
 - The program is composed by a series of statements that dictate what should be done
- structured
 Control structures (loops, etc.) are available
- procedural
 Control structures called "subroutines" are available
- for C++ and Java: object-oriented

OBJECT ORIENTATION

- Several modern programming languages embrace the object-oriented (OO) paradigm
- Data and code must/can be encapsulated into special structures called objects
 - Encourages associations with real-world entities,
 which should make programming easier
 - Favors code modularity
- More about OO programming in a dedicated lecture

(C) C++ JAVA Part of the Part of

FORMATTING

The following rules apply to all 3 languages
 (C, C++, Java)

- White spaces separate names and keywords
- Statements are terminated by a ";"

COMMENTS

The following rules apply to all 3 languages
 (C, C++, Java)

- Anything from "//" to the end of a line is a comment
- Anything enclosed between "/*" and "*/" is a comment

COMMENTS: JAVA

 In Java, a comment starting with two asterisks is a documentation comment

```
/** Sample documentation comment */
```

- A documentation comment describes the declaration that follows it
- Many IDEs are able to handle and/or extract documentation comments

NAMES

The following rules apply to all 3 languages
 (C, C++, Java)

- A name includes letters, numbers and "_".
 The first character must be a letter
- No white spaces allowed inside a name
- Names are case sensitive

VARIABLES

The following rules apply to all 3 languages
 (C, C++, Java)

- The languages are statically-typed: all variables must be declared before use
- A declaration contains the data type and the name of the variable
- A default value may be optionally specified

VARIABLES: INITIALIZATION

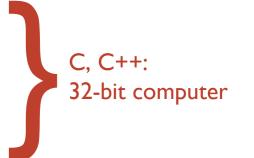
Java: if no value is provided, variables are initialized to zero by default

 C, C++: if no value is provided, variables assume a random value

PRIMITIVE DATA TYPES (1/2)

The following data types are common to all 3 languages
 (C, C++, Java)

- short: 16-bit signed two's complement integer
- int: 32-bit signed two's complement integer
- float: 32-bit IEEE 754 floating point
- double: 64-bit IEEE 754 floating point



PRIMITIVE DATA TYPES (2/2)

 The following data types are common to all 3 languages (C, C++, Java)

• Enumerated type (enum): a set of named <u>values</u>.

Use enum types to represent a fixed set of constants known at compile time

PRIMITIVE DATA TYPES: JAVA

- byte: 8-bit signed two's complement integer
- boolean: only two values, i.e. true and false
- char: 16-bit Unicode character

All the integer types are always signed

PRIMITIVE DATA TYPES: C, C++

- bool: only two values, i.e. true and false
- char: 8-bit character
- void: generic identifier, does not imply type

- Integer data types can be unsigned
- Pointers to data (more on this later)

PRIMITIVE DATA TYPES: EXAMPLES (1/2)

All 3 languages:

```
short n = 0x1234;
int i = -100000;
double pi = 3.14;
enum g = {alpha, beta, gamma};
```

Java:

```
boolean result = true;
char capitalC = 'C';
```

PRIMITIVE DATA TYPES: EXAMPLES (2/2)

C and C++:

```
bool result = true;
unsigned short j = 60000;
int * p; // pointer to integer
```

ARRAYS

The following rules apply to all 3 languages
 (C, C++, Java)

- An array is a container that holds a <u>fixed</u> number L
 of values of the same data type
- L is established when the array is created
- The i-th element of an array A is identified by A[i], with i ranging from 0 (zero) to L-I

ARRAYS: EXAMPLES

Definition of an array of integers in Java:

```
int[] A = new int[10];
int[] B = \{3,4,7,6,2\}; // L=5
```

Definition of an array of integers in C and C++:

```
int A[10];
int B[] = \{3,4,7,6,2\}; // L=5
```

STRINGS

Java: Unicode character strings are a primitive data type handled through the String class.
Once created, a String object cannot be changed.

• C++: no strings, but the standard string class emulates them via null-terminated arrays of char

C: no strings, no libraries,
 only null-terminated arrays of char

STRINGS: EXAMPLES

Java

```
String Greetings = "Hello";
```

C++

```
string Greetings = "Hello";
string Greetings("Hello"); /* as above */
```

• C

```
char Greetings[] = "Hello"; /* 6 bytes */
```

CONSTANTS

- To declare a variable as constant
 - Java: prepend the final keyword
 - C, C++: prepend the const keyword

OPERATORS

Common to all 3 languages (C, C++, Java)

- Assignment: =
- Bitwise: & | ~ ^ << >>
- Relational: == != <= >= < >
- Conditional: && | |

OPERATORS: JAVA

 The + operator is a concatenation operator when at least one of its operands is a string (more about strings later)

OPERATORS: EXAMPLES

The following expressions are equivalent

FUNCTIONS

- Function: piece of code that can be invoked to perform a specific task
- Identified by a function name
- Can receive one or more input parameters
- Can return at most one output parameter
- Java: no functions, only methods (e.g., functions inside a class)

DECLARATION VS. DEFINITION

- Declaration: only the name and parameters (i.e., the function prototype) are specified
- Definition: code for the function (i.e., the function implementation) is provided
- Declaration and definition can be provided together or kept separate
- Mutatis mutandis, the same can be said also for variables, methods, classes...

FUNCTIONS: EXAMPLES

Declarations in C and C++

```
void f(void);
float generate_random_number(void);
void close_file(int file_id);
int sum(int a, int b);
int sum(short a, short b); // Functions with the same name can // coexist as long as they have a // different prototype ("overloading")
```

RETURN

- C, C++, Java:
 used to specify the return value of a function or a method
- Terminates the execution of the function/method

HEADER FILES (1/2)

C, C++: contain declaration of variables and classes, prototypes of library functions, ...
 Use the .h extensions.
 Can be included (and therefore shared) by many source files.

#include directive

EXAMPLE: C++

• sum.h: contains the declaration of function sum

sum.cpp: contains the definition of function sum

```
#include "sum.h"
int sum(int a, int b)
{
    return a+b;
}
```

program.cpp: uses function sum

```
#include "sum.h"
...
result = sum(quantity1, quantity2);
...
```

HEADER FILES (2/2)

- Java: no header files. Identifiers are automatically
 - extracted from source files,
 - read from dynamic libraries

PACKAGES AND NAMESPACES

- Java: Package. C++: Namespace
- Purpose: grouping names into contexts so as to avoid naming collisions

You must use the fully qualified name of an element in a package/namespace, unless you previously declared that the package/namespace is being used

EXAMPLE: JAVA

```
package foo;

public class Global
{
    public static int bar; // more on static later
}
```

In another source file:

 Code not explicitly declared within a package goes into the unnamed package

EXAMPLE: C++

In another source file:

```
using namespace foo; // import the namespace
++foo::bar; // fully qualified name
++bar; // short name
```

 Code not explicitly declared within a namespace goes into the global namespace

ENTRY POINT OF A PROGRAM

Java: "main (...)" method of the entry class (can be specified if the program is inside a JAR)

C, C++: "main (...)" function

- The "..." in "main (...)" indicates the program's parameters
- Syntax for parameters is fixed

"HELLO WORLD!": JAVA

Hello.java

```
class Hello
{
    public static void main(String[] args)
    {
        System.out.printf("Hello World!\n");
    }
}
```

"HELLO WORLD!": C

Hello.c

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, const char *argv[])
{
    printf("Hello World!\n");
    return 0;
}
```

"HELLO WORLD!": C++

Hello.cpp

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, const char *argv[])
{
    printf("Hello World!\n");
    return 0;
}
```

"HELLO WORLD!": TRUE C++

Hello2.cpp

```
#include <iostream>
int main(int argc, const char *argv[])
{
    std::cout << "Hello World!" << std::endl;
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

CONDITIONAL EXECUTION

Common to all three languages

- if (...) {...} else {...} construct: the boolean condition inside (...) is calculated; if it evaluates to true, then the code inside the former pair of curly braces is executed, otherwise the code inside the latter pair
- The else {} part is optional: if it is not specified and the condition evaluates to false, no code is executed

EVALUATION RULE

Beware of the evaluation rule for subclauses!

```
if ( (c<10) || ((a==1) && (a<c++)) ) {...}
```

- Short-circuit evaluation: subclauses are evaluated from left to right and the evaluation stops as soon as the boolean value of the whole clause is univocally determined
- Can be an issue if some subclauses perform assignments or have other side effects

SWITCH(...)...CASE

Common to all three languages

- The (non-boolean) expression following switch is evaluated, then the case clause associated with the value is executed
- No case for the value: no code is executed
- default keyword (optional): used to label a block of statements to be executed if no case matches

SWITCH(...)...CASE: EXAMPLE

```
switch(n)
    case 0:
        /* Code to execute when n is zero */
       break:
    case 1:
    case 4:
   case 9:
       /* Code to execute when n is a perfect square */
       break:
   case 3:
   case 5:
   case 7:
        /* Code to execute when n is a small prime number */
       break:
 default:
        /* Code to execute in all the remaining cases,
           for instance, when n=2 or n=8 or... */
       break;
```

LOOPS (1/3)

Common to all three languages

for(...) loop

```
for(var_init; exit_condition; var_incr)
{
    //code
}
```

 The loop is executed as long as the condition is true (possibly forever)

LOOPS (2/3)

Common to all three languages

while(...) loop

```
while(exit_condition)
{
    //code
}
```

 The loop is executed as long as the condition is true (possibly forever, possibly zero times)

LOOPS (3/3)

Common to all three languages

do...while(...) loop

```
do
{
    //code
}
while(exit_condition);
```

 The loop is executed as long as the condition is true (possibly forever, at least one time)

LOOPS: EXAMPLES

C, C++, Java

```
for(i=0; i<10; i++) { A[i]=10-i; }

i = 0;
while(i<10) { B[i]=10-i; i++; }

i = 0;
do { C[i]=10-i; i++; } while(i<10);</pre>
```

At the end of the program, A=B=C

BREAK

Common to all three languages

Terminates the execution of one of the following:

- switch(...)...case
- for (...) loop
- while (...) loop
- do...while (...) loop

BREAK: EXAMPLE

A fourth way to initialize an array

```
i = 0;
while(1!=0)
{
    D[i]=10-i;
    i++;

    if(i >= 10) break;
}
```

GOTO

 C and C++: transfers execution to a specific source position, identified by a label

```
while(1)
{
    /* Do something */
    if(condition) goto foo;
    /* Do something else */
}

foo:
++v; // First line executed after the goto
```

- goto gained a bad name; it is seldom used nowadays
- Java: although reserved as a keyword, goto is not used and has no function

GOTO CONSIDERED HARMFUL

"For a number of years I have been familiar with the observation that the quality of programmers is a decreasing function of the density of 'go to' statements they produce [...] The 'go to' statement should be abolished from all higher level programming languages"

Edsger W. Dijkstra

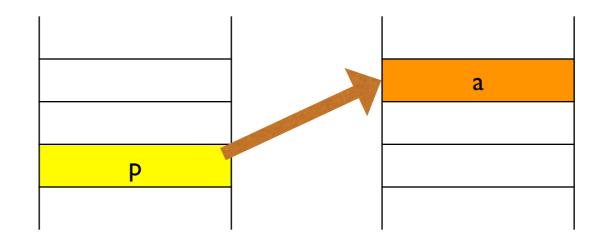
Communications of the ACM

March 1968

POINTERS (1/3)

C and C++ only. No pointers in Java!

A pointer is a data type that do not contain data:
 it contains the address of data stored elsewhere



p is a pointer to a

POINTERS (2/3)

Definition of a pointer

 Assignment of an address to a pointer via the reference operator &

$$p = &a$$

Access to pointed data via the dereference operator *

$$b = *p;$$
 // $b=a$
*p = 10; // $a=10$

POINTERS (3/3)

• The size of a pointer is equal to the size of addresses on the host machine (nowadays, 32 or 64 bits)

- A pointer may be NULL
 (i.e., it does not point to anything valid)
- If a pointer is not NULL, there is no way to tell whether it points to valid data or not

VOID POINTERS (1/2)

- void pointers point to a value that has no type (and thus also no specified length)
- void pointers can point to any kind of data but cannot be directly dereferenced

```
void f(void* data, int data_type)
{
    char * pc;
    int * pi;
    if(data_type == 1) {
        pc = (char*) data; // cast to char
        // use data as char
    }
    else if(data_type == 2) {
        pi = (int*) data; // cast to int
        // use data as int
    }
}
```

VOID POINTERS (2/2)

- C allows implicit conversion from void* to other pointer types
- C++ does not (an example of incompatibility between C and C++)

```
void f(void* data, int data_type)
{
    char * pc;
    int * pi;
    if(data_type == 1) {
        pc = data; // OK in C, not OK in C++
        // use data as char
    }
    else if(data_type == 2) {
        pi = data; // OK in C, not OK in C++
        // use data as int
    }
}
```

POINTER ARITHMETIC

C and C++ only

- Arithmetic operators can be applied to pointers
- When calculating a pointer arithmetic expression, the integer operands are multiplied by the size of the object being pointed to

MALLOC, FREE

- C: dynamic memory must be allocated with the malloc stdlib function, and must be explicitly released with free
- C++: dynamic memory can be managed with the library functions malloc and free, or with the new and delete language operators

```
#include <stdlib.h>
...
unsigned char *color;  // A color in RGB format

color = (unsigned char *)malloc(3);
color[0] = color[1] = color[2] = 0;
...
free(color);
```

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