Where do we go from here?

• C++

- classes and objects, with all the moving parts visible
- operator overloading
- templates, STL, standards, ...

• Java

- components, collections, generics
- language and performance comparisons
- *C*#, .NET
 - user interfaces
 - component-based software
 - viruses
- Go
 - concurrency
- Little languages
 - languages you might build yourself

Evolution of Programming Languages

- 40's machine level
 - raw binary

50's assembly language

- names for instructions and addresses
- very specific to each machine
- 60's high-level languages: Fortran, Cobol, Algol, Basic
- 70's system programming languages: C, PL/1, Algol 68, Pascal
- 80's object-oriented languages: C++, Ada, Smalltalk, Objective C, ... strongly typed (to varying degrees) better control of large programs (at least in theory) better internal checks, organization, safety
- 90's scripting, component-based, ...: Perl, Java, Visual Basic, ... glue
- OO's Web server and client: Python, PHP, Ruby, Javascript, ... focus on interfaces, components, frameworks
- 10's Go, Dart, Haskell, Scala, Swift, Rust, ... re-thinking? wishful thinking?

Program structure issues

- how to cope with ever bigger programs?
- objects
 - user-defined data types
- components
 - related objects
- frameworks
 - automatic generation of routine code
- interfaces
 - boundaries between code that provides a service and code that uses it
- \cdot information hiding
 - what parts of an implementation are visible
- resource management
 - creation and initialization of entities
 - maintaining state
 - ownership: sharing and copying
 - memory management
 - cleanup
- error handling; exceptions

Complicated data types in C

- representation is visible, can't be protected
 - opaque types are sort of an exception
- creation and copying must be done very carefully
 - and you don't get any help with them
- no initialization
 - you have to remember to do it
- \cdot no help with deletion
 - you have to recover the allocated memory when no longer in use
- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ weak argument checking between declaration and call
 - easy to get inconsistencies
- \cdot the real problem: no abstraction mechanisms
 - complicated data structures can be built,
 - but access to the representation can't be controlled
 - you can't change your mind once the first implementation has been done
- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ abstraction and information hiding are

nice for small programs, absolutely necessary for big programs

C++

- designed & implemented by Bjarne Stroustrup
 - began ~ 1980; C++98 standard in 1998; C++14 standard in Nov 14
- \cdot a better C
 - almost completely upwards compatible with C
 - more checking of interfaces (e.g., function prototypes, added to ANSI C)
 - other features for easier programming
- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ data abstraction
 - methods reveal only WHAT is done
 - classes hide HOW something is done in a program, can be changed as program evolves

object-oriented programming

- *inheritance* -- define new types that inherit properties from previous types
- polymorphism or dynamic binding -- function to be called is determined by data type of specific object at run time
- templates or "generic" programming
 - compile-time parameterized types
 - define families of related types, where the type is a parameter
- a "multi-paradigm" language
 - lots of ways to write code

C++ classes

 data abstraction and protection mechanism derived from Simula 67 (Kristen Nygaard, Norway)

class Thing {

public:

methods -- functions for operations that can be done on this kind of object private:

variables and functions that implement the operations

};

- \cdot defines a data type 'Thing'
 - can declare variables and arrays of this type, create pointers to them, pass them to functions, return them, etc.
- object: an instance of a class variable
- \cdot method: a function defined within the class
- \cdot private variables & functions not accessible from outside the class
- it is not possible to determine HOW the operations are implemented, only WHAT they do.

C++ synopsis

$\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ data abstraction with classes

 a class defines a type that can be used to declare variables of that type, control access to representation

operator and function name overloading

- all C operators (including =, +=..., (), [], ->, argument passing and function return but not . and ?:) can be overloaded to apply to user-defined types
- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ control of creation and destruction of objects
 - initialization of class objects, recovery of resources on destruction
- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ inheritance: derived classes built on base classes
 - virtual functions override base functions
 - multiple inheritance: inherit from more than one class
- exception handling
- namespaces for separate libraries
- templates (generic types)
 - Standard Template Library: generic algorithms on generic containers
 - template metaprogramming: execution of C++ code during compilation
- compatible (almost) with C except for new keywords

Stack class in C++

```
// stkl.c: simple-minded stack class
class stack {
  private:
                     // default visibility
       int stk[100];
       int *sp;
  public:
       int push(int);
       int pop();
       stack(); // constructor decl
};
int stack::push(int n) {
       return *sp++ = n;
}
int stack::pop() {
       return *--sp;
}
stack::stack() { // constructor implementation
       sp = stk;
}
stack s1, s2; // calls constructors
s1.push(1); // calls method
s2.push(s1.pop());
```

Inline definitions

- member function body can be written inside the class definition
- \cdot this normally causes it to be implemented inline
 - no function call overhead

```
// stk2.c: inline member functions
```

```
class stack {
    int stk[100];
    int *sp;
    public:
        int push(int n) { return *sp++ = n; }
        int pop() { return *--sp; }
        stack() { sp = stk; }
};
```

Memory allocation: <u>new</u> and <u>delete</u>

- new is a type-safe alternative to malloc
 - delete is the matching alternative to free
- new T allocates an object of type T, returns pointer to it
 stack *sp = new stack;
- new T[n] allocates array of T's, returns pointer to first
 int *stk = new int[100];
 - by default, throws exception if no memory
- delete p frees the single item pointed to by p delete sp;
- delete [] p frees the array beginning at p delete [] stk;
- new uses T's constructor for objects of type T
 - need a default constructor for array allocation
- delete uses T's destructor ~T()
- use new/delete instead of malloc/free
 - malloc/free provide raw memory but no semantics
 - this is inadequate for objects with state
 - never mix new/delete and malloc/free

Dynamic stack with <u>new</u>, <u>delete</u>

```
// stk3.c: new, destructors, delete
class stack {
 private:
       int *stk; // allocated dynamically
       int *sp; // next free place
 public:
       int push(int);
       int pop();
       stack(); // constructor
       stack(int n); // constructor
       ~stack(); // destructor
};
stack::stack() {
       stk = new int[100]; sp = stk;
}
stack::stack(int n) {
       stk = new int[n]; sp = stk;
}
stack::~stack() {
      delete [ ] stk;
}
```

Constructors and destructors

• constructor:

creating a new object (including initialization)

- implicitly, by entering the scope where it is declared
- explicitly, by calling $\underline{\text{new}}$
- destructor:

destroying an existing object (including cleanup)

- implicitly, by leaving the scope where it is declared
- explicitly, by calling <u>delete</u> on an object created by new
- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ construction includes initialization, so it may be parameterized
 - by multiple constructor functions with different args
 - an example of function overloading
- new can be used to create an array of objects
 - in which case delete can delete the entire array

Implicit and explicit allocation and deallocation

• implicit:

```
f() {
    int i;
    stack s; // calls constructor stack::stack()
    ...
    // calls s.~stack() implicitly
}
```

• explicit:

```
f() {
    int *ip = new int;
    stack *sp = new stack; // calls stack::stack()
    ...
    delete sp; // calls sp->~stack()
    delete ip;
    ...
}
```

Constructors; overloaded functions

 two or more functions can have the same name if the number and/ or types of arguments are different

```
abs(int); abs(double); abs(complex)
atan(double x); atan(double y, double x);
int abs(int x) { return x >= 0 ? x : -x; }
double abs(double x) { return x >= 0 ? x : -x; }
```

• multiple constructors for a class are a common instance

```
stack::stack();
stack::stack(int stacksize);
stack s; // default stack::stack()
stack s1(); // same
stack s2(100); // stack::stack(100)
stack s3 = 100; // also stack::stack(100)
```

Overloaded functions; default args

- default arguments: syntactic sugar for a single function
 stack::stack(int n = 100);
- declaration can be repeated if the same
- explicit size in call
 stack s(500);
- omitted size uses default value stack s;
- overloaded functions: different functions, distinguished by argument types
- these are two different functions:

```
stack::stack(int n);
stack::stack();
```

Operator overloading

- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ almost all C operators can be overloaded
 - a new meaning can be defined when one operand of an operator is a userdefined (class) type
 - define operator + for object of type T

T T::operator+(int n) {...}

- T T::operator+(double d) {...}
- define regular + for object(s) of type T

T operator +(T f, int n) $\{\ldots\}$

- can't redefine operators for built-in types
 int operator +(int, int) is ILLEGAL
- can't define new operators
- can't change precedence and associativity
 - e.g., $\hat{}$ is low precedence even if used for exponentiation

\cdot 3 short examples

- complex numbers: overloading arithmetic operators
- IO streams: overloading << and >> for input and output
- subscripting: overloading []
- later: overloading assignment and function calls

An implementation of complex class

```
class complex {
   double re, im;
   public:
      complex(double r = 0, double i = 0)
        { re = r; im = i; } // constructor
      friend complex operator +(complex,complex);
      friend complex operator *(complex,complex);
};
complex operator +(complex c1, complex c2) {
      return complex(c1.re+c2.re, c1.im+c2.im);
}
```

complex declarations and expressions

```
complex a(1.1, 2.2), b(3.3), c(4), d;
```

```
d = 2 * a;
2 coerced to 2.0 (C promotion rule)
then constructor invoked to make complex(2.0, 0.0)
```

• operator overloading works well for arithmetic types

References: controlled pointers

- need a way to access object, not a copy of it
- \cdot in C, use pointers

```
void swap(int *x, int *y) {
    int temp;
    temp = *x; *x = *y; *y = temp;
}
swap(&a, &b);
```

- in C++, references attach a name to an object
- a way to get "call by reference" (var) parameters without using explicit pointers

```
void swap(int &x, int &y) {
    int temp;
    temp = x; x = y; y = temp;
}
swap(a, b); // pointers are implicit
```

 because it's really a pointer, a reference provides a way to access an object without copying it

A vector class: overloading []

```
class ivec { // vector of ints
  int *v; // pointer to an array
  int size; // number of elements
 public:
  ivec(int n) { v = new int[size = n]; }
  int& operator[](int n) { // checked
     assert(n \ge 0 \& \& n < size);
     return v[n];
   }
};
  ivec iv(10); // declaration
  iv[10] = 1; // checked access on left side of =
```

- operator[] returns a reference
- \cdot a reference gives access to the object so it can be changed
- necessary so we can use [] on left side of assignment

Iostreams: overloading >> and <<

- \cdot I/O of user-defined types without function-call syntax
- \cdot C printf and scanf can be used in C++
 - no type checking
 - no mechanism for I/O of user-defined types

Java System.out.printf(arglist)

- does some type checking
- basically just calls to String method for each item

Iostream library

- overloads << for output, >> for input
- permits I/O of sequence of expressions
- natural integration of I/O for user-defined types
 same syntax and semantics as for built-in types
- type safety for built-in and user-defined types

Output with iostreams

```
• overload operator << for output

- very low precedence

- left-associative, so

    cout << e1 << e2 << e3

- is parsed as

    (((cout << e1) << e2) << e3)

#include <iostream>

    ostream& operator<<(ostream& os, const complex& c) {

        os << "(" << c.real() << ", " << c.imag() << ")";

        return os;

    }
```

- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ takes a reference to iostream and data item
- \cdot returns the reference so can use same iostream for next expression
- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ each item is converted into the proper type
- iostreams cin, cout, cerr already open
 - corresponding to stdin, stdout, stderr

Input with iostreams

```
    overload operator >> for input

  - very low precedence
  - left-associative, so
     cin \gg e1 \gg e2 \gg e3
  - is parsed as
     (((cin >> e1) >> e2) >> e3)
   char name[100];
   double val;
   while (cin >> name >> val) {
      cout << name << " = "
            << val << "\n";
   }
```

- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ takes a reference to iostream and reference to data item
- returns the reference so can use same iostream for next expression
- each item is converted into the proper type
 cin >> name calls istream& operator >>(istream&, char*)

Formatter in C++

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
using namespace std;
const int maxlen = 60;
string line;
void addword(const string&);
void printline();
main(int argc, char **argv) {
   string word;
   while (cin >> word)
      addword (word);
   printline();
}
void addword(const string& w) {
   if (line.length() + w.length() > maxlen)
      printline();
   if (line.length() > 0)
      line += " ";
   line += w;
}
void printline() {
   if (line.length() > 0) {
      cout << line << endl;</pre>
      line = "";
   }
}
```

Summary of references

- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ reference is in effect a very constrained pointer
 - points to a specific object
 - can't be changed, though whatever it points to can certainly be changed
- provides control of pointer operations for applications where addresses must be passed for access to an object
 - e.g., a function that will change something in the caller
 - like swap(x, y)
- provides notational convenience
 - compiler takes care of all * and & properly
- permits some non-intuitive operations like the overloading of []
 - int &operator[] permits use of [] on left side of assignment
 - v[e] means v.operator[](e)