Modern C++ Programming

13. Translation Units II

INCLUDE, MODULE, AND COMPILATION

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#include Issues

The include guard avoids the problem of multiple inclusions of a header file in a translation unit

header.hpp:

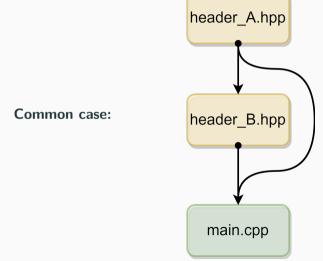
```
#ifndef HEADER_HPP // include guard
#define HEADER_HPP

... many lines of code ...
#endif // HEADER_HPP
```

#pragma once preprocessor directive is an alternative to the **include guard** to force current file to be included only once in a translation unit

 #pragma once is less portable but less verbose and compile faster than the include guard

The include guard/#pragma once should be used in every header file



```
header_A.hpp:
#pragma once // prevent "multiple definitions" linking error
struct A {
};
header B.hpp:
#include "header A.hpp" // included here
struct B {
    A a;
};
main.cpp:
#include "header A.hpp" // .. and included here
#include "header_B.hpp"
int main() {
    A a; // ok, here we need "header A.hpp"
    B b; // ok, here we need "header B.hpp"
```

Forward Declaration

Forward declaration is a declaration of an identifier for which a complete definition has not yet given. "forward" means that an entity is declared before it is defined

```
void f(): // function forward declaration
class A; // class forward declaration
int main() {
    f(); // ok, f() is defined in the translation unit
// A a: // compiler error no definition (incomplete type)
          // e.g. the compiler is not able to deduce the size of A
   A* a: // ok
void f() {} // definition of f()
class A {}: // definition of A()
```

Forward Declaration vs. #include

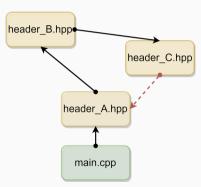
Advantages:

- Forward declarations can save compile time as #include forces the compiler to open more files and process more input
- Forward declarations can save on unnecessary recompilation. #include can force your code to be recompiled more often, due to unrelated changes in the header

Disadvantages:

- Forward declarations can hide a dependency, allowing user code to skip necessary recompilation when headers change
- A forward declaration may be broken by subsequent changes to the library
- Forward declaring multiple symbols from a header can be more verbose than simply #including the header

A **circular dependency** is a relation between two or more modules which either directly or indirectly depend on each other to function properly



Circular dependencies can be solved by using forward declaration, or better, by rethinking the project organization

```
header_A.hpp:
#pragma once // first include
#include "header B.hpp"
class A {
    B* b;
};
header B.hpp:
#pragma once // second include
#include "header C.hpp"
class B {
    C* c:
};
header_C.hpp:
#pragma once // third include
#include "header A.hpp"
class C { // compile error "header A.hpp": already included by "main.cpp"
    A* a; // the compiler does not know the meaning of "A"
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};
```

Circular Dependencies (fix)

};

```
header A.hpp:
#pragma once
class B; // forward declaration
        // note: does not include "header B.hpp"
class A {
    B* b;
};
header_B.hpp:
#pragma once
class C; // forward declaration
class B {
   C* c:
};
header_C.hpp:
#pragma once
class A; // forward declaration
class C {
    A* a:
                                                                                            12/47
```

Common Linking Errors

Very common *linking* errors:

undefined reference

Solutions:

- Check if the right headers and sources are included
- Break circular dependencies (could be hard to find)

multiple definitions

Solutions:

- inline function, variable definition or extern declaration
- Add include guard/ #pragma once to header files
- Place template definition in header file and full specialization in source files

C++20 Modules

The #include problem: The duplication of work - the same header files are possibly parsed/compiled multiple times and most of the compiled output is later-on thrown away again by the linker

C++20 introduces **modules** as a robust replacement for plain #include

Module (C++20)

A **module** is a <u>set</u> of source code files that are compiled <u>independently</u> of the translation units that import them

Modules allow defining clearer interfaces with a fine-grained control on what to *import* and *export* (similar to Java, Python, Rust, etc.)

- A Practical Introduction to C++20's Modules
- Modules the beginner's guide
- Understanding C++ Modules
- Overview of modules in C++

Less error-prone than #include:

- No effect on the compilation of the translation unit that *imports* the module
- Macros, preprocessor directives, and non-exported names declared in a module are not visible outside the module
- Declarations in the *importing* translation unit do not participate in overload resolution or name lookup in the *imported* module

Other benefits:

- (Much) Faster compile time. After a module is compiled once, the results are stored in a binary file that describes all the exported types, functions, and templates
- Smaller binary size. Allow to incorporate only the imported code and not the whole #include

Terminology

A module consists of one or more module units

A **module unit** is a *translation unit* that contains a **module** declaration

module my.module.example;

A **module name** is a concatenation of *identifiers* joined by dots (the dot carries no meaning) my.module.example

A module unit purview is the content of the translation unit

A module purview is the set of purviews of a given module name

Visibility and Reachability

Visibility of **names** instructs the linker if a symbol can be used by another translation unit. *Visible* also means a candidate for name lookup

Reachable of **declarations** means that the semantic properties of an entity are available

- Each *visible* declaration is also *reachable*
- Not all reachable declarations are also visible

Reachability Example

Common example: the members of a class are $\underline{\text{reachable}}$ (i.e. can be used) or the class size is known, but not the class type itself

```
auto g() {
   struct A {
      void f() {}
   };
   return A{};
auto x = g(); // ok
// A y = g(); // compile error, "A" is unknown at this point
x.f();
       // ok
sizeof(x); // ok
using T = decltype(x); // ok
```

Module Unit Types

- A module interface unit is a module unit that exports a symbol and/or module name or module partition name
- A primary module interface unit is a module interface unit that exports the module name. There must be one and only one primary module interface unit in a module
- A module implementation unit is a module unit that does not export a module name or module partition name

A **module interface unit** should contain only declarations if one or more *module implementation units* are present. A **module implementation unit** implements/defines the declarations of *module interface units*

Keywords

module specifies that the file is a named module

```
module my.module; // first code line
```

import makes a module and its symbols visible in the current file

```
import my.module; // after module declaration and #include
```

export makes symbols visible to the files that import the current module

- export module <module_name> makes visible all the exported symbols of a module. It must appear once per module in the primary module interface unit
- export namespace <namespace> makes visible all symbols in a namespace
- export <entity> makes visible a specific function, class, or variable
- export {<code>} makes visible all symbols in a block

import Example

Compile time: 2x (up to 10x) less

```
#include <iostream>
int main() {
     std::cout << "Hello World";</pre>
Preprocessing size -E : \sim 1MB
import <iostream>;
int main() {
     std::cout << "Hello World";</pre>
Preprocessing size: 236B (x500)
```

g++-12 -std=c++20 -fmodules-ts main.cpp -x c++-system-header iostream

export Example - Single Primary Module Interface Unit

my module.cpp export module my.example; // make visible all module symbols export int f1() { return 3; } // export function export namespace my ns { // export namespace and its content int f2() { return 5: } export { // export code block int f3() { return 2: } int f4() { return 8: } void internal() {} // NOT exported. It can be used only internally

export Example - Two Module Interface Units

```
my module1.cpp Primary Module Interface Unit
export module my.example; // This is the only file that exports all module symbols
export int f1() { return 3; } // export function
my_module2.cpp Module Interface Unit
module my.example: // Module declaration but symbols are not exported
export namespace my_ns {      // export namespace
int f2() { return 5: }
export {
                               // export code block7
int f3() { return 2; }
int f4() { return 8: }
```

export Example - Module Interface and Implementation Units

my_module1.cpp Primary Module Interface Unit

 $\verb|my_module2.cpp| \textit{Module Implementation Unit}$

```
module my.example; // Module declaration but symbols are not exported
int f1() { return 3; }
int f3() { return 2; }
int f4() { return 8; }
```

Keyword Notes

import

- A module implementation unit can import another module, but cannot export any names. Symbols of the module interface unit are imported implicitly
- All import must appear <u>before</u> any declarations in that module unit and <u>after</u>
 module; a export module (if present)

export

- Symbols with internal linkage or no linkage cannot be exported, i.e. anonymous namespaces and static entities
- The export keyword is used in module interface units only
- The semantic properties associated to **exported** symbols become *reachable*

export import Declaration

Imported modules can be directly re-exported

```
export module main_module; // Top-level primary module interface unit
export import sub_module; // import and re-export "sub_module"
export module sub module; // Primary module interface unit
export void f() {}
import main module;
int main() {
    f(); // ok, f() is visible
```

Global Module Fragment

A **global module fragment** (unnamed module) can be used to include header files in a module interface when importing them is not possible or preprocessing directives are needed

Macro definitions or other preprocessing directives are not visible outside the file itself

Private Module Fragment

A **private module fragment** allows a module to be represented as a <u>single translation</u> unit without making all the contents of the module reachable to importers

 \rightarrow A modification of the private module fragment $\underline{\texttt{does not}}$ cause recompilation

If a module unit contains a *private module fragment*, it will be the <u>only</u> module unit of its module

Header Module Unit

Legacy headers can be directly imported with import instead of #include

All declarations are implicitly exported and attached to the global module (fragment)

- Macros from the header are available for the importer, but macros defined in the importer have no effect on the imported header
- Importing compiled declarations is faster than #include

C++23 will introduce modules for the standard library

A module can be organized in isolated module partitions

Syntax:

```
export module module_name : partition_name;
```

- Declarations in any of the partitions are visible within the entire module
- Like common modules, a module partition consists in one module partition interface unit and zero or more module partition implementation units
- Module partitions are not visible outside the module
- Module partitions do <u>not</u> implicitly import the module interface
- All names exported by partition interface files must be imported and re-exported by the primary module interface file

Module Partitions

```
main module.ixx
export module main module;
export import :partition1; // re-export f() to importers of "main module"
export import :partition2; // re-export q() to importers of "main module"
export void h() { internal(); } // internal() can be directly used
partition1.ixx
export module module name:partition1;
export void f() {}
partition2.ixx
export module module_name:partition2;
export void g() {}
void internal() {} // not exported
```

Compiling Multiple

Translation Units

Fundamental Compiler Flags

```
Include flag: g++ -I include/ main.cpp -o main.x
```

- -I : Specify the include path for the project headers
- -isystem: Specify the include path for system (external) headers (warnings are not emitted)

They can be used multiple times

Important: include and library compiler flags, as well as multiple values in an environment variable, are evaluated $\underline{\text{in order}}$ from left to right. The first match suppress the other ones

Compile to a file object: g++ -c source.cpp -o source.o

Compile Methods

Method 1

```
<u>Compile</u> all files together (naive):
```

```
g++ main.cpp source.cpp -o main.out
```

Method 2

Compile each translation unit in a file object:

```
g++ -c source.cpp -o source.o
```

Multiple objects can be compiled in parallel

<u>Link</u> all file objects:

```
g++ main.o source.o -o main.out
```

Libraries in C++

Static Library

A **static library** is a set of object files (just the concatenation) that are directly <u>linked</u> into the final executable. If a program is compiled with a static library, all the functionality of the static library becomes part of final executable

- A static library cannot be modified without re-link the final executable
- Increase the size of the final executable
- + The linker can optimize the final executable (link time optimization)

Given the static library my_lib, the corresponding file is:

```
Linux libmy_lib.a
Windows my_lib.lib
```

Building Static Libraries

Steps to build a static library

- Compile object files for each translation unit (.cpp)
- Create the static library by using the archiver (ar) Linux utility

```
g++ source1.c -c source1.o
g++ source2.c -c source2.o
ar rvs libmystaticlib.a source1.o source2.o
```

Using Static Libraries

A *static library* has to be **linked** to the final executable:

```
Linux g++ -llibrary main.cpp -o main
```

Windows msvc <path_to_library>/library.lib main.cpp /OUT:main.exe

The directories where to search for *static* libraries at *compile-time* are specified with environment variables:

Linux LIBRARY_PATH Search for .a files

Windows LIBPATH Search for .lib files

It is also possible to specify additional *library paths* with compiler flags:

```
Linux g++ -L<library_path> main.cpp -o main
```

Windows msvc /LIBPATH<library path> main.cpp /OUT:main.exe

Dynamic Library

A **dynamic library**, also called a **shared library**, consists of routines that are <u>loaded</u> into the application at <u>run-time</u>. If a program is compiled with a dynamic library, the library does not become part of final executable. It remains as a separate unit

- + A dynamic library can be modified without re-link: bug fixing, new functionalities
- Dynamic library functions are called outside the executable. Neither the linker nor the compiler can optimize the code between shared libraries and the final executable
- The environment variables must be set to the right shared library path, otherwise the application crashes at the beginning

Given the shared library my_lib , the corresponding file is:

```
Linux libmy_lib.so
Windows my_lib.dll + my_lib.lib
```

Building Dynamic Libraries

Steps to build a dynamic library

- Compile object files for each translation unit (.cpp). Since library cannot store code at fixed addresses, the compiler must generate position independent code (-fPIC)
- Create the dynamic library

```
g++ source1.c -c source1.o -fPIC
g++ source2.c -c source2.o -fPIC
g++ source1.o source2.o -shared -o libmydynamiclib.so
```

Dynamic libraries need to be available when the program executes (*run-time*). The program searches for dynamic libraries in the same directory and the paths specified in the following environment variables:

Linux Search for .so files

- LD_LIBRARY_PATH environment variable
- /lib64 and /usr/lib64
- RPATH and RUNPATH fields with custom values embedded in the executable
- /etc/ld.so.cache cache of library locations created by the ldconfig command.
 Can be inspected by ldconfig -p

Windows Search for .dll files

- PATH environment variable
- Executable directory and current working directory
- %SystemRoot%\System32, %SystemRoot% system directories
- HKEY_LOCAL_MACHINE\SYSTEM\CurrentControlSet\Control \Session Manager\KnownDLLs list of known DLLs

Application Binary Interface (ABI)

An **Application Binary Interface (ABI)** defines the low-level details of how programs composed of separately compiled modules work together. An ABI specifies how functions are called and how data is exchanged.

A **stable ABI** is essential to update the program's shared libraries without recompiling all the code

Some examples of ABI-breaking changes are changing the type or order of members within a struct, modifying the return type or parameters of a function, or adding a virtual function to a class that previously did not have one

An ABI can be also checked across different shared library/header versions with specific tools, such as ABI Compliance Checker $\@ifnextchar[{\@model{Checker}}{\@model{Checker}}$

Demangling

Name mangling is a technique used to solve various problems caused by the need to resolve unique names

Transforming C++ ABI (Application binary interface) identifiers into the original source identifiers is called **demangling**

Example (linking error):

```
_ZNSt13basic_filebufIcSt11char_traitsIcEED1Ev
```

After demangling:

```
std::basic_filebuf<char, std::char_traits<char> >::~basic_filebuf()
```

How to demangle: echo <name> | c++filt

Online Demangler: https://demangler.com

Find Dynamic Library Dependencies

The 1dd utility shows the shared objects (shared libraries) required by a program or other shared objects

```
$ 1dd /bin/ls
      linux-vdso.so.1 (0x00007ffcc3563000)
      libselinux.so.1 => /lib64/libselinux.so.1 (0x00007f87e5459000)
      libcap.so.2 => /lib64/libcap.so.2 (0x00007f87e5254000)
      libc.so.6 \Rightarrow /lib64/libc.so.6 (0x00007f87e4e92000)
      libpcre.so.1 => /lib64/libpcre.so.1 (0x00007f87e4c22000)
      libdl.so.2 \Rightarrow /lib64/libdl.so.2 (0x00007f87e4a1e000)
      /1ib64/1d-1inux-x86-64.so.2 (0x00005574bf12e000)
      libattr.so.1 => /lib64/libattr.so.1 (0x00007f87e4817000)
      libpthread.so.0 => /lib64/libpthread.so.0 (0x00007f87e45fa000)
```

Alternatively, LD_DEBUG=libs can be used to print search and load paths of shared libraries at runtime

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The nm utility provides information on the symbols being used in an object file or executable file

```
$ nm -D -C something.so
    w __gmon_start__
    D __libc_start_main
    D free
    D malloc
    D printf

# -C: Decode low-level symbol names
# -D: accepts a dynamic library
```

readelf displays information about ELF format object files

```
$ readelf --symbols something.so | c++filt
... OBJECT LOCAL DEFAULT 17 __frame_dummy_init_array_
... FILE LOCAL DEFAULT ABS prog.cpp
... OBJECT LOCAL DEFAULT 14 CC1
... OBJECT LOCAL DEFAULT 14 CC2
... FUNC LOCAL DEFAULT 12 g()

# --symbols: display symbol table
```

objdump displays information about object files

```
$ objdump -t -C something.so | c++filt
... df *ABS* ... prog.cpp
... O .rodata ... CC1
... O .rodata ... CC2
... F .text ... g()
   O .rodata ... (anonymous namespace)::CC3
    O .rodata ... (anonymous namespace)::CC4
    F .text ... (anonymous namespace)::h()
   F .text ...
                 (anonymous namespace)::B::j1()
... F .text ...
                 (anonymous namespace)::B::i2()
# --t: display symbols
# -C: Decode low-level symbol names
```

References and Additional Material

- 20 ABI (Application Binary Interface) breaking changes every C++ developer should know
- Policies/Binary Compatibility Issues With C++
- 10 differences between static and dynamic libraries every C++ developer should know