

CSCI251 Spring-2022

Advanced Programming

C++ Foundations II:
*Getting started with Procedural
Programming*

Outline

- ✓ Procedural programming.
- ✓ Introducing `main()` ...
- ✓ ... explaining **Hello World!**
- ✓ Comments.
- ✓ Primitive types, variables and memory.
- ✓ Functions.
- ✓ Multiple files.

Procedural programming

- ✓ In procedural programming we typically focus on a specific aim, or end result.
 - The aim is often fairly fixed.
 - If there need to be changes they are often localised.
 - We don't have/need the abstraction that is common within object oriented programming.
- ✓ Code is written in a step-by-step way.
 - Typically small, and should be fairly easy to follow.

- ✓ With the code being written for a specific purpose it's possible to produce high performance code.
 - But the code has limited re-use value.
- ✓ With something like Object Oriented Programming (OOP), you can manage a larger code base that makes extensive use of re-use and allows for the code to be readily developed in independent teams.
- ✓ With procedural programming you tend to get a better understanding of the step by step operations, whereas OOP tends to hide the details.

- ✓ In procedural programming, procedures, also called routines, subroutines or functions, are declared or defined independent of `main()` program construct.
 - `main()` is similar to a `main()` method in Java, but not the same.
- ✓ The program is a list of procedure calls.
 - Effectively a list of operations that change the state.
 - The state being the values of the data attributes.
 - Step 1: Call procedure B
 - Step 2: Call procedure A
 - Step 3: Call procedure C
 - Step 4: Call procedure B
 - Step 5: Call procedure C
 - Step 6: Call procedure A
 - Step 7: Call procedure A

- ✓ It is possible to write programs without any procedures or “function calls”.
- ✓ Such code might be referred to as unstructured or sequential.
- ✓ While this may be appropriate for simple tasks there are advantages in using functions:
 - Code can be re-used within a program.
 - Test once, changes to the same logic don’t need to be applied in multiple places, ...
 - Code defined to carry out a specific function can be easily transferred to another program.
 - Program flow can be more readily tracked.
 - This makes it easier to read and helps with bug fixing.

- ✓ Individual functions contain exact rules regarding the input and the output.
 - For example; exactly two integers as input, and one integer as output.
- ✓ This exactness is one of the major disadvantages with procedural languages.
 - There is a need to keep track of all the detail.
- ✓ Another major disadvantage is that *similar but not identical* pieces of code must be rewritten.
 - For example: The procedure for calculating the area of a rectangle would often be different from the procedure to calculate the area of a triangle; even though both are polygons.

Introducing `main()` ...

- ✓ Java: every method/function needs to be in a class.
 - Java 8 added functional interfaces, a little different.
- ✓ In a lot of languages, including C++, you can have standalone functions.
- ✓ In both Java and C++, `main()` serves as an entry point to the program.
- ✓ In Java applications, the `main()` method (function) is a static public member of a `Runnable` class.
 - If you don't know what this means, don't stress...

- ✓ In contrast C++ programs **must** have a stand alone `main()` function, that should return an integer, an `int`, to the operating system.
 - A return value of 0 typically means a normal termination.
 - Some other value is usually associated with an error.

... explaining Hello World!

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main() {
    cout << "Hello World!" << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

- ✓ We have our stand alone `main()`, a special case of the general function syntax:

```
return_type function(arguments) { }
```

Types: `return_type`, `arguments`?

- ✓ Data can be specified to be of a particular type, that's the technical term.
 - Type provides a context to data, it tells us how the string of bits we are dealing with should be treated.
- ✓ The **`return_type`** tells us what the output looks like, the **`arguments`** tell us what the input looks like.



Type and context...

- ✓ So far we have come across `int`, for integer.
- ✓ It's reasonable that we can perform arithmetic operations (+,-,...) on integers, and therefore should be able to on `int`'s.
- ✓ But if we have something like stores letters, characters \diamond `char`, it's not so clear those operations should make sense.

Primitive types in C++

- The types `int`, `double` and `char`, are all primitive or basic or built-in types in C++.
 - Actual sizes are compiler dependent.

Type	Meaning	Minimum size	
<code>bool</code>	Boolean	1 byte	Java: <code>boolean</code>
<code>char</code>	Character	8 bits	ASCII vs 16 bit Unicode for Java
<code>wchar_t</code>	Wide character	16 bits	
<code>char8_t</code>	Unicode character (UTF-8)	8 bits	Since C++20
<code>char16_t</code>	Unicode character (UTF-16)	16 bits	Since C++11
<code>char32_t</code>	Unicode character (UTF-32)	32 bits	Since C++11
<code>short</code>	Short integer	16 bits	
<code>int</code>	Integer	16 bits	
<code>long</code>	Long integer	32 bits	Since C++11
<code>long long</code>	Long integer	64 bits	Since C++11
<code>float</code>	Single-precision floating-point	4 bytes	
<code>double</code>	Double-precision floating-point	8 bytes	
<code>long double</code>	Extended-precision floating-point	8 bytes	

Signed or unsigned

- ✓ Other than `bool`, `wchar_t`, `char8_t`, `char16_t`, and `char32_t`, the rest types can have a qualifier `signed` or `unsigned`.
- ✓ Variables that are declared as `unsigned` only represent values greater than or equal to zero.

```
unsigned long long rats_present = 1;  
unsigned long long cats_present = -1;
```

- ✓ With integer overflow ...

```
std::cout << cats_present << std::endl;  
18446744073709551615
```

Back to main()

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main() {
    cout << "Hello World!" << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

- ✓ `#include` is similar to `import` in Java.
- ✓ It brings in a header, `iostream` here.
 - Effectively a collection of code written elsewhere.
- ✓ The header `iostream` is the part of the standard library for C++ associated with Input/Output.
- ✓ Bring in your own files using something like
`#include "My_file.h"`
- ✓ The `.h` suffix conventionally indicates header.
- ✓ More on libraries and pre-processing later ...

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main() {
    cout << "Hello World!" << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

- ✓ Having the library `iostream` allows us to access input and output streams types, `istream` and `ostream`, representing input and output streams respectively.
 - Input: Use standard in: object `cin` of type `istream`.
 - Output: Use standard out: object `cout` of type `ostream`.


```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main() {
    cout << "Hello World!" << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

- ✓ So, what about the rest of the line?
- ✓ << is the output or insertion operator.
 - It pushes the value right operand, in this case the literal "Hello World!", to the buffer for the stream specified by the left operand, cout, ...
 - ... where it may sit until flushed to the stream by ...
- ✓ endl, a manipulator.
 - Manipulators modify a stream.

Literal or variable 9

- ✓ Literals have explicit fixed values.

```
cout << "Whatever!" << endl;
```

- ✓ Variables do not.

```
cout << variable << endl;
```

- ✓ It's possible variables are fixed but the value isn't explicit here.

Output chaining ...

```
cout << "Hello World!" << endl;
```

- ✓ Generally, since `<<` is left-associative,
`return X << (ostream X, values)`
- ✓ ... the left referenced `ostream` is returned and the next values in the chain added to it.
- ✓ Consider `cout << b << c << endl;`
`(cout << b) << c << endl;`
- ✓ Stream (buffer) contains b: `(cout << c) << endl;`
- ✓ Stream (buffer) contains b, c: `cout << endl;`
- ✓ The manipulator `endl` writes the stream out from the memory buffer to the output stream.
`flush` is also a manipulator. **Practice 1 !**

- That just leaves ...

```
using namespace std;
```

- This lets us avoid a longer version of ...

```
cout << "Hello World!" << endl;
```

- Specifically ...

```
std::cout << "Hello World!" << std::endl;
```

- Namespaces are organisational tools.
 - We can use `X::Y` to refer to `Y` in namespace `X`.
 - They can help avoid name clashes.
- The standard namespace (`std`) contains a lot of common C++ functionality.

Not using namespace std;

- ✓ It's good practice not to use ...

```
using namespace std;
```

- ✓ ... because doing so risks collisions between names in the standard library and names you have used.

- It's convenient for simple examples though, so a fair few of our examples in the notes *will* use it...

- ✓ It's not unusual to see selective use of `using`, something like the following:

```
using std::cout;  
using std::cin;  
using std::endl;
```

Scope ...

- ✓ Scope is the context of an entity, like a variable.
- ✓ It's where the name of the entity is visible, so we can refer to the entity.
- ✓ Using a namespace brings the entities in a namespace into the current scope.
- ✓ Something before `main()` has global scope, it's visible anywhere after that in our file, and potentially in other files if we use `extern`.
 - Usually avoid global variables.
- ✓ Generally scopes are defined by `{ ... }`.
 - Like around `main`, and any other function.

```
int x = 5;           // global scope/variable

int main() {
    int y = 10;      // local scope/variable
}
```

- ✓ As stated in the previous set of notes, functions can be standalone in C++, so independent of any class.
- ✓ A variable declared within a function is local to that function. Practice 2!
- ✓ A variable defined within braces, and this is typical for loops for example, has local scope within that control structure.

More `main()` ...

- ✓ The form of `main()` didn't have arguments...

```
int main() { }
```

- ✓ ... but it can have them...

```
int main( int argc, char *argv[] ) { }
```

- ✓ The first parameter (`argc`) is the number of command-line arguments, *including the name of the executable itself*. `c` is for count.
- ✓ The second parameter is an array of C-style strings, so a sequence of characters, terminated with a special null character (`\0`).²⁴

- ✓ Lets have a look and see how an example of this runs on Ubuntu.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main(int argc, char* argv[]){
    for ( int i=0; i < argc; i++ )
    {
        cout << "arg " << i << " " << argv[i] << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

- ✓ This form of `main()` get parameters (input) from the command line when we run a program.
- ✓ The first line is the function header:

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[])
```

`stoi` and friends ...

- ✓ The function `stoi` is often used to convert arguments to integers.
- ✓ You should be exploring this and the related functions in the lab.
- ✓ There are alternatives, such as using `stringstreams`.

Input ... `cin` and `>>`

- ✓ So we should look at an example of `cin`, standard in, and `>>`, the input or extraction operator.

```
# include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main(){
    string name;
    int age;

    cout << "Enter a first name and age: ";
    cin >> name >> age;
    cout << name << " is " << age << " years old." << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

- ✓ Unlike in Java, the name of this program doesn't need to be tied to a class name.

But wait ... how did these work

```
cin >> name >> age;  
cout << name << " is " << age << " years old." << endl;
```

- ▼ ... when we have different arguments for the operators `>>` and `<<`?
 - Operators are symbols determining particular functionality for an expression.
- ▼ These work because the insertion and extraction operators are overloaded to work with the primitive types.
 - Remember type and context earlier...
- ▼ An overloaded operator has different functionalities, depending on the arguments given to it.

✓ So the following all work ...

```
int k = 2;
double d = 4/5;
char c = 'x';
cin >> k;           // read an int
cin >> d;           // read a double
cin >> c;           // read a char
cout << k << endl;  // write an int
cout << d << endl;  // write a double
cout << c << endl;  // write a char
```

- ✓ Overloading operators is possible in C++, and it's similar to overloading methods in Java.
- ✓ We will later expect to use << and >> with our own types.

Practice 4!

Commenting in C++

- ✓ It's good practice to include some comments on what you want parts of your code to do ...
- ✓ Commenting syntax for C++ is the same as for Java.
- ✓ Two basic comment types:

- line comments: `//`
- block comments: `/* multiple lines */`

```
// This is a one line comment
```

```
float price;    //retail price
```

```
/* This is a comment that covers  
   a block over two lines          */
```

```
/******  
 * This is another block comment *  
******/
```

- ✓ The third type of comments are the documentation comments.
- ✓ A tool such as Doxygen can be used to generate documentation from them.

```
/**  
 * Various notes here ...  
 * Various other notes ...  
 * ...  
 */
```

- ✓ Doxygen is available from:
<https://www.doxygen.nl/index.html>

Comments and variable names

- ✓ Comments should provide clarity to someone reading your code, not get in the way.

```
int intB;           //building number  
float price;        //retail price
```

Or ...

```
int building_number;  
int buildingNumber;  
float retail_price;  
float retailPrice;
```


<https://www.defprogramming.com/>

- ✓ “The proper use of comments is to compensate for our failure to express ourselves in code.”
 - Robert C. Martin

- ✓ “The best reaction to “this is confusing, where are the docs” is to rewrite the feature to make it less confusing, not write more docs.”
 - Jeff Atwood

Variable declaration and assignment

- ✓ We have seen this a few times already.

```
variable_type variable_name = variable_value;
```

```
double d = 4/5;
```

```
unsigned int cats_present = 3;
```

- ✓ We can chain the operator = too, but = is right associative ...

```
int x, y, z;
```

```
x=y=z=5;
```

- ✓ So z is set to 5, then y to z, then x to y.

Warning: Not initialising ...

```
public class Add {  
  
    public static void main() {  
  
        int number1=1, number2 = 2, sum;  
        //      sum = number1 + number2;  
  
        System.out.println("Sum of these numbers: "+sum);  
    }  
}
```

- Java doesn't let you use uninitialized variables.

```
12:16:05 $ javac Add.java  
Add.java:8: error: variable sum might not have been initialized  
    System.out.println("Sum of these numbers: "+sum);  
                        ^
```

1 error

```
#include<iostream>

int main() {

    int number1 = 1, number2 = 2, sum;
    // sum = number1 + number2;

    std::cout << sum << std::endl;

    return 0;

}
```

✓ C++ does!

12:20:53 \$ g++ Sum.cpp

12:20:56 \$

12:20:56 \$ g++ Sum.cpp -Wall

Sum.cpp: In function 'int main()':

Sum.cpp:5:6: warning: unused variable 'number1' [-Wunused-variable]

```
int number1=1, number2 = 2, sum;
```

~~~~~

Sum.cpp:5:17: warning: unused variable 'number2' [-Wunused-variable]

```
int number1=1, number2 = 2, sum;
```

~~~~~

Sum.cpp:8:15: warning: 'sum' is used uninitialized in this function [-Wuninitialized]

```
std::cout << sum << std::endl;
```

~~~

12:21:09 \$

# Linked to memory

- ✓ The primitive types map directly on to memory entities like bytes and words, entities that most processors are designed to work with.
- ✓ This allows C++ to efficiently use the hardware, without there being an abstraction in between.
- ✓ Memory is effectively seen as a sequence of bytes, each typed object is given a location in memory, and values are placed in such objects.

- ✓ We refer to and access the locations using pointers.
  - Pointers are variables that contain locations.
- ✓ We will leave pointers for now, and return to them when we look at arrays and dynamic memory.
- ✓ Pointers play a critical role in C++.

# Functions ...

- ✓ Procedural suggests procedures, or functions, should be used ...

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

void print() {
    cout << "Hello world!" << endl;
}

int main() {
    print();
    return 0;
}
```

- ✓ **Note:** `print()` isn't part of a class.

- ✓ The function `print()` needs to be declared prior to reaching `main()`, otherwise the compiler won't recognise it.
- ✓ The structure of `main()` often tells a story about what our code does, and sometimes it's clearer if definitions are out of the way.
  - Declarations need to be prior to `main()`, definitions don't.
- ✓ So, it's not unusual to separate the declaration and the definition of functions.
  - When we do this we have a forward declaration, using the function header followed by a semi-colon `;`.



```
# include <iostream>
using namespace std;

void print();           // function prototype

int main() {
    print();            // function call
    return 0;
}

// function definition
void print() {
    cout << "Hello world!" << endl;
}
```

This is a  
forward  
declaration.

# Define once, declare as often as you need!

- ✓ Declaring sets up a relationship between a name and its purpose (variable, function, class).
  - Declaring says something is going to be defined.
- ✓ Defining allocates memory and puts the data/code in it.
  - Declaring doesn't involve allocating memory, and we cannot allocate memory multiple times.

# Multiple files ...

- ✓ Code is often, usually and preferably, spread across multiple files.
- ✓ It is often helpful to put all of the functions into other files.
- ✓ This is particularly useful if there are a lot of functions, and/or classes, and some of them are shared between programs.

# Direct including other source files?

## Hello.cpp

```
#include "print.cpp"

int main() {
    print();
    return 0;
}
```

## print.cpp

```
#include <iostream>

void print() {
    std::cout << "Hello world!" << std::endl;
}
```

Which one will work?

1. `$ g++ -c Hello.cpp print.cpp -o Hello.o print.o`
2. `$ g++ -c Hello.cpp -o Hello.o`

Which one will work?

1. `$ g++ Hello.o print.o -o Run`
2. `$ g++ Hello.o -o Run`

Which step needs to rerun when print.cpp is changed?

1. Compilation
2. Linking
3. Compilation and Linking

**Bad Practice!**  
Any change to print.cpp  
will result in re-compilation  
of Hello.cpp

# Including a head file ...

print.h `void print();` This is a forward declaration

## Hello.cpp

```
#include "print.h"

int main() {
    print();
    return 0;
}
```

## print.cpp

```
#include <iostream>

void print() {
    std::cout << "Hello world!" << std::endl;
}
```

Which one will work?

1. `$ g++ -c Hello.cpp print.cpp -o Hello.o print.o`
2. `$ g++ -c Hello.cpp print.cpp print.h -o Hello.o print.o`

Which one will work?

1. `$ g++ Hello.o print.o -o Run`
2. `$ g++ Hello.o -o Run`

Which one(s) need to be recompile if print.cpp is changed?  
Hello.cpp, print.cpp or print.h

### Good Practice!

Any change to print.cpp will result  
in re-compilation of print.cpp only

### Other benefits

1. Separation of interface and implementation
  2. Code Reusability
  3. Encapsulation
  4. Code organization
- ...

- ✓ Typically all data structure declarations, and function prototypes that you want to access in other files should be declared in header (.h) files, such as `print.h`.
- ✓ The definitions of those declarations go in the implementation file, such as `print.cpp`.
- ✓ Don't put `using namespace std;` in the included file.
  - You cannot turn it off so it applies to the rest of the file where the `#include` statement is. Λ

- ✓ Do include external functionality, like `iostream`, that you need in a file to be included, in the to be included file.
- ✓ You wouldn't necessarily need to include that external functionality in main but you shouldn't really assume you can get it through the header file of someone else.
- ✓ The file that contains `main()` is sometimes referred to as the driver file.
  - It doesn't typically have a paired header, `main.h` or similar, whereas usually the other code you write will come in file pairs, `myFunctions.h`, `myFunctions.cpp`.

# C++ libraries ...

- ✓ Sometimes we want to use functions, or classes, that other people have written.
- ✓ In particular, we often want to use the standard library.
  - Each C or C++ standard library has a corresponding header file, like `iostream`.
- ✓ These header files contain:
  - Function prototypes.
  - Definitions of various data types.
  - Definitions of constants.
  - Declarations of objects.



- For example, the math library, `cmath`, contains a square root function.

```
# include <iostream>
# include <cmath>
using namespace std;

int main() {
    double a;
    cout << "Enter a number: ";
    cin >> a;
    cout << "Square root " << a << " = " << sqrt(a) << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

- More on the library can be found at  
<http://www.cplusplus.com/reference/cmath/>

# Warning: Is no return okay?

- ✓ If you write your `main()` and leave out ...  
`return 0;`
- ✓ ... your code still runs.
- ✓ Whatever is most recently in memory is returned so you can get away without it.
  - You will likely see examples where it's not there, sometimes in this subject to save space, but in practice it's best to explicitly include it.
- ✓ The value returned is not necessarily going to be 0 and if there is a system test looking for 0 you will likely fail it.