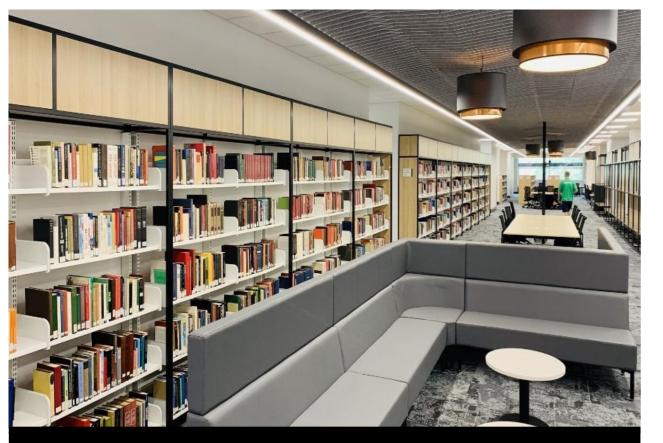


CSCI251 Advanced Programming Creating Library in C++



Outline

Object Oriented Programming in C++

Static library

- 1. What is it?
- 2. Code Practice

Shared library

- 3. Why shared?
- 4. Code Practice

Exception handling

- 5. Why exception?
- 6. Two demo

Enumerations

- 7. Concept of enum
- 8. Code-demo











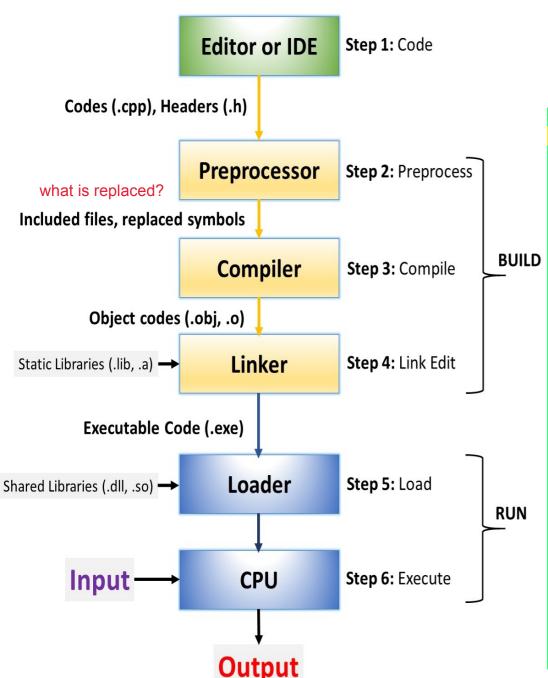


What are .dll and .so files? Where are they located?



.dll and .so

- ☐ What is dll: dll stands for Dynamic Link Library. It is a dynamic library file
- Where you can find it: in Windows OS (in program folders)
- What is so: so stands for Shared Object. It is a dynamic library file
- Where you can find it: in Linux or Mac OS

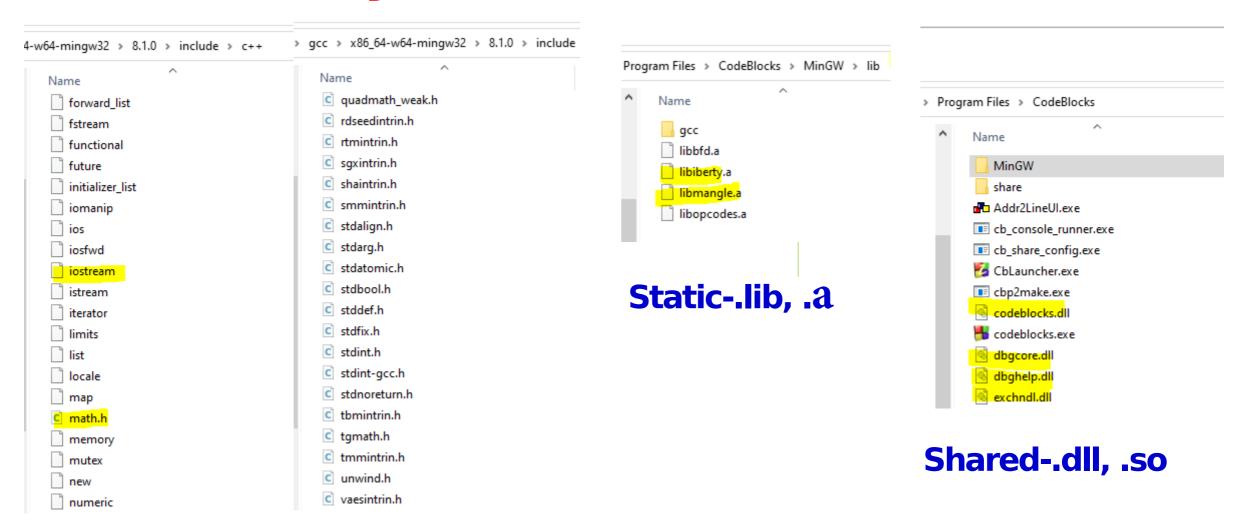


Writing Process



```
* Ask the user for the length and width of a retangle
 * and compute its perimeter and area.
 * (retangle.cpp)
_ */
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
   int length;
                               // Declare 1 integer variable
   int width, perimeter, area; // Declare 2 integer variables in one state
   cout << "Compute the Perimeter and Area of Rectangle" << endl;</pre>
   cout << "Please enter the length: "; // Prompting message</pre>
   cin >> length;
                                           // Read input into variable length
   cout << "Please enter the width: "; // Prompting message</pre>
   cin >> width;
                                           // Read input into variable width
   // Compute perimeter and area
   perimeter = 2*(length + width);
   area = length * width;
   // Print the results to the screen
   cout << "\nThe result:" << endl;</pre>
   cout << "The perimeter is: " << perimeter << "m" << endl;</pre>
   cout << "The area is: " << area << "m2" << endl;</pre>
   return 0;
```

C++ Library: Inside Code:Blocks code



Preprocess-header



What is C++ library

A library is a package of code that is meant to be reused by many programs. Typically, a C++ library comes in two pieces:

- A header file that defines the functionality the library is exposing (offering) to the programs using it.
- A precompiled binary that contains the implementation of that functionality pre-compiled into machine language.



Why are libraries pre-compiled?

First, save resources: libraries rarely change, they do not need to be recompiled often.

Second, improve security: precompiled objects are in machine language, it prevents people from accessing or changing the source code.



- ☐ There are two major types of library, and the type influences linkage:
- ☐ Static Libraries:
 - A static library is just a collection of .o files concatenated together.
 - They are compiled and linked directly into your program. When you compile a program that uses a static library, all the functionality of the static library that your program uses becomes part of your executable.



- On Windows, static libraries typically have a .lib extension, whereas on linux, static libraries typically have an .a (archive) extension. One advantage of static libraries is that you only have to distribute the executable in order for users to run your program.
- A copy of the library becomes part of every executable that uses it, this can cause a lot of wasted space. Static libraries also cannot be upgraded easily -- to update the library, the entire executable needs to be replaced.



- Dynamic or Shared Libraries:
 - ✓ They are loaded into your application at run time. It does not become part of your executable -- it remains as a separate unit.
 - ✓ On Windows, dynamic libraries typically have a .dll (dynamic link library) extension, whereas on Linux, dynamic libraries typically have a .so (shared object) extension.



- Advantages of Shared Library
 - Many programs can share one copy, which saves space.
 - Dynamic library can be upgraded to a newer version without replacing all of the executables that use it.



Separation: h vs cpp

- We need to tell "clients" about how to use the functions and classes we write, but they don't see the details of our implementations.
- So we can put the definition in the header and leave the implementation to the cpp file, and the cpp code can be precompiled to save time.



Structure of a library

- ☐ A library has two parts:
 - The library itself.
 - ✓ Depending on whether it is a static library or shared library it will have a different extension, typically .a or .so.
 - The header file describing the entry points/ function calls and variables in the library which are publicly accessible.
- ☐ A library does not have a main function, it's not a complete program.







Building a static library ...

One way to build a static library is to generate the object file and use the archiver.

The archiver will combine object files to form a library OR an archive:

```
$ g++ -c code.cpp
$ ar -crv libcode.a code.o
```

The resultant library is libcode.a.

Libraries are generally prefixed with lib.

To check what a library contains, in terms of the object files inside it, use the -t flag.

```
$ ar -t libcode.a code.o
```



Using the static library

- ✓ To use libcode.a in other programs you would include the header code.h and link against libcode.a.
- ✓ We can link it in using ...
 - \$ g++ driver.cpp libcode.a -o program
- The .a file doesn't need to be compiled, just linked in after the object files for the cpp files, here just driver.cpp, have been generated.
- ✓ We don't need libcode.a around when we run our program.



```
Code - Static
```

```
#include <iostream>
#include <chrono>
                                    time.cpp
#include "fibfun.h"
int main()
    auto start = std::chrono::system clock::now();
    std::cout << "f(35) = " << fibonacci(35) << '\n';
    auto end = std::chrono::system_clock::now();
    std::chrono::duration<double> elapsed seconds = end-start;
    std::time t end time = std::chrono::system clock::to time t(
end);
    std::cout << "finished computation at " << std::ctime(&end t</pre>
ime)
              << "elapsed time: " << elapsed seconds.count() <<</pre>
"s\n";
```

```
$ g++ -c fibfun.cpp
$ ar -crv libfib.a fibfun.o
$ g++ time.cpp libfib.a -o time1
```

Time complexity?



```
long fibonacci(unsigned n
```

fibfun.cpp

```
long fibonacci(unsigned n)
{
    if (n < 2)
         return n;
    return fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-
2);
```

ls -1 time1 Size: time1 15168



Practice 1: Static Library

- Do on capa system
- Create 3 files: main.cpp, add.h, and add.cpp
 - add.h declare an add function type int with 2 int parameter: int
 add(int, int);
 - add.cpp defines add function that returns the sum of 2 parameters:
 int add(int a, int b) {return a+b;}
 - main.cpp include add.h file then call add function and print to the sum of your two numbers: cout<<add(10, 14);</pre>
- Create static library
 - \Rightarrow \$ g++ -c add.cpp
 - > \$ ar -crv libadd.a add.o
 - > \$ g++ main.cpp libadd.a -o add1
- Run executable file and show the size
 - ./add1
 - ► ls -l add1







Building a shared library

- Dynamic libraries are built in the similar way except we use -shared as the link directive - these are passed to ld.
- This tells the compiler we want a shared library.
- We can replace dynamic content without requiring recompilation of the rest.
- To build the shared library with the GNU compiler you must use the use -fpic
 directive which produces position independent output.

```
g++ -fpic -shared -o libcode.so code.cpp
```



Using a library...

- Let us consider a prebuilt library called libcode.so.
- The header code.h and shared object libcode.so reside in your current home directory.
- You have a file called main.cpp which calls a function in libcode.so called code.
- How do you compile it and link it against the library?



Using a library...

- We need to set up the library path to the current directory (.), or wherever we store our library...,
 - \$ LD_LIBRARY_PATH=.
 - \$ export LD_LIBRARY_PATH
- And then ...
 - \$ g++ -I. -L. main.cpp -lcode
- The code is for the library short name...



Using a library...

- This directive means:
 - -⊥ headers can be found in the current directory along with the default system directory.
 - -⊥ libraries can be found in the current directory along with the default system directory.
 - -lcode, link against libcode.so which is in the current directory.
 - Without $-\bot$. it won't be found.



Code - Dynamic

```
#include <iostream>
#include <chrono>
#include "fibfun.h"
                                    time.cpp
int main()
    auto start = std::chrono::system clock::now();
    std::cout << "f(35) = " << fibonacci(35) << '\n';
    auto end = std::chrono::system clock::now();
    std::chrono::duration<double> elapsed seconds = end-start;
    std::time t end time = std::chrono::system clock::to time t(
end);
    std::cout << "finished computation at " << std::ctime(&end t</pre>
ime)
              << "elapsed time: " << elapsed seconds.count() <<</pre>
"s\n";
```

fibfun.h

```
long fibonacci(unsigned n
);
```

fibfun.cpp

```
long fibonacci(unsigned n)
{
   if (n < 2)
      return n;
   return fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2);
}</pre>
```

A dynamic library

```
$ g++ -fpic -shared -o libfib.so
fibfun.cpp
$ g++ -I. -L. time.cpp -lfib -o time2
$ ./time2
```

Size: time2 15128



Code - Dynamic

A dynamic library – Should be like this

```
$ LD_LIBRARY_PATH=.
$ export LD_LIBRARY_PATH
$ g++ -fpic -shared -o libfib.so
fibfun.cpp
$ g++ -I. -L. time.cpp -lfib -o time2
$ ./time2
```

Size: time2 15128

Practice 2: Dynamic Library



- Do on capa system
- (did it) Create 3 files: main.cpp, add.h, and add.cpp
 - add.h declare an add function type int with 2 int parameter: int
 add(int, int);
 - add.cpp defines add function that returns the sum of 2 parameters:
 int add(int a, int b) {return a+b;}
 - main.cpp include add.h file then call add function and print to the sum of your two numbers: cout<<add(10, 14);</pre>
- Create dynamic library

```
$ LD LIBRARY PATH=.
```

- \$ export LD LIBRARY PATH
- \$ g++ -fpic -shared -o libadd.so add.cpp
- \Rightarrow \$ g++ -I. -L. main.cpp -ladd -o add2
- Run executable file and show the size
 - ./add2
 - \triangleright 1s -1 add2

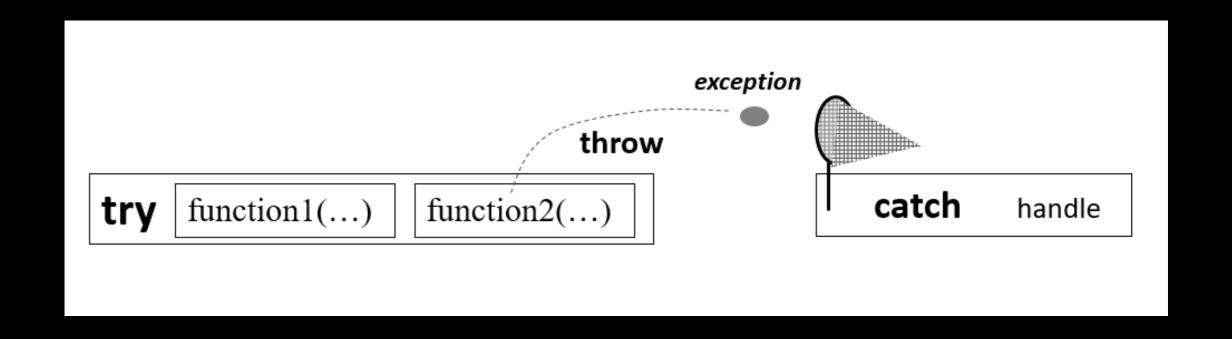
Summary?





Exception handling Part 2 - remind







Exception handling Part 2

- ☐ There are two (C++) uses of the term exception:
 - An exception is a situation that the code is unable to deal with.
 - This is in the sense of something occurring which is outside of normal expectations.
 - The exception needs to be communicated and dealt with.
 - These generally correspond to runtime errors, for example when the user enters invalid data.



Exception handling Part 2

- An exception is also an object that is passed from the problem location to the location where the problem will be handled.
- This is the aspect we are going to focus on now.
- A program is composed of separate modules, such as functions which may come from libraries.
- Error handling can be separated into two parts:
- The reporting of error conditions that cannot be resolved locally.
- The handling of errors detected elsewhere.



Exception handling Part 2

For example:

- The author of a library can detect runtime errors, but will not know what to do with them in the context of your program!
- The user of the library must know how to cope with such errors, but cannot detect them easily.
- Exceptions in C++ are a means of separating error reporting from error handling

Throwing Objects



- Just as simple variables such as doubles, ints, and strings can be thrown via exception-handling techniques, programmer-defined class objects can also be thrown.
 - These objects are called exception objects.
- This is particularly useful in two situations:
 - If a class object contains errors, you may want to throw the entire object,
 rather than just one data member or a string message.
 - When you want to throw two or more values, you can encapsulate them into a class object so that they can be thrown together.



Throwing Standard Class Objects

The extraction operator for the following class has been overloaded to throw an exception.

```
class Employee
{
   friend ostream& operator<<(ostream&, const Employee&);
   friend istream& operator>>(istream&, Employee&);
   private:
      int empNum;
      double hourlyRate;
};
```

```
u Sw
```

```
ostream& operator<<(ostream &out, const Employee &emp)
{
  out << "Employee " << emp.empNum << " : Rate $";
  out << emp.hourlyRate << " per hour ";
  return out;
}</pre>
```

```
istream& operator>>(istream &in, Employee &emp)
   const int LOWNUM = 100;
   const int HIGHNUM = 999;
   const double LOWPAY = 19.49;
   const double HIGHPAY = 59.99;
   cout << "Enter employee number : ";</pre>
   in >> emp.empNum;
   cout << "Enter hourly rate : ";</pre>
   in >> emp.hourlyRate;
   if (emp.empNum < LOWNUM || emp.empNum > HIGHNUM || emp.hourlyRate < LOWPAY</pre>
  emp.hourlyRate > HIGHPAY)
        throw(emp);
   return in;
```



```
int main()
   const int NUM_EMPLOYEES = 3;
   Employee aWorker[NUM EMPLOYEES];
   for (int i = 0; i < NUM_EMPLOYEES; ++i)</pre>
      try
          cout << "Employee #" << (i+1) << " ";</pre>
          cin >> aWorker[i];
       catch (Employee emp)
          cout << "Bad data! " << emp << endl;</pre>
          cout << "Please re-enter" << endl;</pre>
          --i;
   cout << endl << "Employees:" << endl;</pre>
   for (int i = 0; i < NUM_EMPLOYEES; ++i)</pre>
       cout << aWorker[i] << endl;</pre>
```

03:25:49 \$./a.out

Employee #1 Enter employee number: 102

Enter hourly rate : 3

Bad data! Employee 102 : Rate \$3 per hour

Please re-enter

Employee #1 Enter employee number: 120

Enter hourly rate: 500

Bad data! Employee 120 : Rate \$500 per

hour

Please re-enter

Employee #1 Enter employee number: 120

Enter hourly rate: 25

Employee #2 Enter employee number: 200

Enter hourly rate: 20

Employee #3 Enter employee number: 300

Enter hourly rate: 30

Employees:

Employee 120 : Rate \$25 per hour

Employee 200 : Rate \$20 per hour

Employee 300 : Rate \$30 per hour



Practice 1

The Bad data!
statements are from the catch block.



 Here goes a class specifically for exceptions, the instances are exception objects.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class dividebyzero {
public:
        dividebyzero();
        void printmessage();
private:
        const char* message;
};
dividebyzero::dividebyzero() : message("Divide by Zero"
) { }
void dividebyzero::printmessage()
        cout << message << endl;</pre>
```

```
" 3
```

```
float quotient(int num1, int num2){
if (num2 == 0)
    throw dividebyzero();
return (float) num1 / num2;
int main(){
    int a, b;
    cout << "Enter two numbers : ";</pre>
    cin >> a >> b;
    try
        float x = quotient(a,b);
        cout << "Quotient : " << x << endl</pre>
    catch (dividebyzero error)
        error.printmessage();
        return 1;
    return 0;
```

Here we have a function which throws an exception object of type dividebyzero.

When the exception is thrown an instance of this object is passed to the handler.







Enumerations: enum

- An enum is a means of grouping together constants.
- Each enumeration is a new literal type.
- Classical enums are now referred to as unscoped enums ...

```
enum colour {red, green, blue};
```

C++11 introduces scoped enums, which look more like

```
enum class lights {red, green, blue};
```

____ and are sometimes called enum classes.



Enumerations: enum

- The idea is the names entered in the braces take on literal values.
- The default values are 0 for the first, and 1 more than the previous for other entries.
- So 0, 1, 2 for the example ...

```
▶ Run

1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 int main(){
5 enum colour {red, green, blue};
6 cout << red << endl;
7 cout << green << endl;
8 cout << blue << endl;
9 }</pre>
0
1
2
```

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main(){
enum colour {red, green, blue};
cout << red << endl;
cout << green << endl;
cout << blue << endl;
}</pre>
```



The general unscoped notation is

```
enum typeName {list-of-values}
```

And once we have done this ...

```
enum colour {red, green, blue};
```

... we can declare and use variables of that type ...

```
colour hatColour;
hatColour = blue;
```



You don't actually need the typename to set up the values but you then won't have corresponding types...

```
enum {a, b, c};
```

You can set values as well, as in this example:

```
enum {floatPrec = 6, doublePrec = 10,
    double_doublePrec = 10};
```

What if you set some?

```
enum \{a = 4, b, c, d\};
```

Or set some equal ...

```
enum \{a = 4, b, c, d = 4\};
```



- Unscoped enums are accessible anywhere, scoped are not.
- The general notation for scoped ones ...

```
enum class typename {list-of-values};
```

- To access these values we need to use the scope resolution operator, so typename::value.
- Let's look at an example.



Set up a couple of enums, one unscoped and one scoped.

```
enum colour {red, yellow, green};
enum class peppers {red, yellow, green};
```

Which of these will work?

```
colour eyes = green;
peppers p1 = green;
colour hair = colour::red;
peppers p2 = peppers::red;
```



Set up a couple of enums, one unscoped and one scoped.

```
enum colour {red, yellow, green};
enum class peppers {red, yellow, green};
```

Which of these will work?

```
colour eyes = green;
peppers p1 = green;
colour hair = colour::red;
peppers p2 = peppers::red;
```

All but the second, where you try to initialise peppers with a colour.



enum type types: C++11

- By default, scoped enums have int as the underlying type.
- enum intValues : unsigned long long
 { charType = 255, shortType = 65535,
 intType = 65535, longType = 4294967295UL,
 long longType = 18446744073709551615ULL};



enum type types: C++11

- Unscoped enums don't have a default type, just an integral large enough to hold the specified values.
- This makes a difference when we use forward declaration for enums, which is allowed from C++11 on.
 - The underlying size must be specified and since unscoped doesn't have a default we must be explicit for unscoped enums.

```
enum intValues : unsigned long long;
enum class open_modes;
```



Scoped are better than unscoped

We can represent enums in UML as follows:

