CS100 Lecture 13

"C" in C++

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"C" in C++

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"Better C"

C++ was developed based on C.

From *The Design and Evolution of C++*:

C++ is a general-purpose programming language that

- is a better C,
- supports data abstraction,
- supports object-oriented programming.

C++ brought up new ideas and improvements of C, some of which also in turn influenced the development of C.

"Better C"

- bool, true and false are built-in. No need to #include <stdbool.h>. true and false are of type bool, not int.
 - This is also true since C23.
- The return type of logical operators &&, ||, ! and comparison operators <,
 <=, >, >=, ==, != is bool, not int.
- The type of string literals "hello" is const char [N+1], not char [N+1].
 - Recall that string literals are stored in read-only memory. Any attempt to modify them results in undefined behavior.
- The type of character literals 'a' is char, not int.

"Better C"

• const variables initialized with literals are compile-time constants. They can be used as the length of arrays.

```
const int maxn = 1000;
int a[maxn]; // a normal array in C++, but VLA in C
```

- int fun() declares a function accepting no arguments. It is not accepting unknown arguments.
 - This is also true since C23.

Type System

Stronger type checking

Some arithmetic conversions are problematic: They are not value-preserving.

```
int x = some_int_value();
long long y = x; // OK. Value-preserving
long long z = some_long_long_value();
int w = z; // Is this OK?
```

- Conversion from int to long long is value-preserving, without doubt.
- Conversion from long long to int may lose precision. ("narrowing")

However, no warning or error is generated for such conversions in C.

Stronger type checking

Some arithmetic conversions are problematic: They are not value-preserving.

```
long long z = some_long_long_value();
int w = z; // "narrowing" conversion
```

Stroustrup had decided to ban all implicit narrowing conversions in C++. However,

The experiment failed miserably. Every C program I looked at contained large numbers of assignments of int s to char variables. Naturally, since these were working programs, most of these assignments were perfectly safe. That is, either the value was small enough not to become truncated, or the truncation was expected or at least harmless in that particular context.

In the end, narrowing conversions are not banned completely in C++. They are not allowed only in a special context in modern C++. We will see it soon.

Stronger type checking

Some type conversions (casts) can be very dangerous:

- For $T \neq U$, T * and U * are different types. Treating a T * as U * leads to undefined behavior in most cases, but the C compiler gives only a warning!
- void * is a hole in the type system. You can cast anything to and from it without even a warning.

C++ does not allow the dangerous type conversions to happen *implicitly*.

Explicit Casts

C++ provides four **named cast operators**:

- static_cast<Type>(expr)
- const_cast<Type>(expr)
- reinterpret_cast<Type>(expr)
- dynamic_cast<Type>(expr) ⇒ will be covered in later lectures.

In contrast, the C style explicit cast (Type)expr looks way too innocent.

"An ugly behavior should have an ugly looking."

const_cast

Cast away low-level constness (DANGEROUS):

```
int ival = 42;
const int &cref = ival;
int &ref = cref; // Error: casting away low-level constness
int &ref2 = const_cast<int &>(cref); // OK
int *ptr = const_cast<int *>(&cref); // OK
```

However, modifying a const object through a non-const access path (possibly formed by const_cast) results in **undefined behavior**!

```
const int cival = 42;
int &ref = const_cast<int &>(cival); // compiles, but dangerous
++ref; // undefined behavior (may crash)
```

reinterpret_cast

Often used to perform conversion between different pointer types (DANGEROUS):

```
int ival = 42;
char *pc = reinterpret_cast<char *>(&ival);
```

We must never forget that the actual object addressed by pc is an int, not a character! Any use of pc that assumes it's an ordinary character pointer is likely to fail at run time, e.g.:

```
std::string str(pc); // undefined behavior
```

Wherever possible, do not use it!

static_cast

Other types of conversions (which often look "harmless"):

```
double average = static_cast<double>(sum) / n;
int pos = static_cast<int>(std::sqrt(n));
```

Some typical usage: \Rightarrow We will talk about them in later lectures.

```
static_cast<std::string &&>(str) // converts to a xvalue
static_cast<Derived *>(base_ptr) // downcast without runtime checking
```

Minimize casting

[Best practice] Minimize casting. (Effective C++ Item 27)

Type systems work as a **guard** against possible errors: Type mismatch often indicates a logical error.

[Best practice] When casting is necessary, prefer C++-style casts to old C-style casts.

With old C-style casts, you can't even tell whether it is dangerous or not!

Type deduction

C++ is very good at **type computations**:

```
std::vector v(10, 42);
```

• It should be std::vector<int> v(10, 42); , but the compiler can deduce that int from 42.

```
int x = 42; double d = 3.14; std::string s = "hello";
std::cout << x << d << s;</pre>
```

• The compiler can detect the types of x, d and s and select the correct printing functions.

When declaring a variable with an initializer, we can use the keyword auto to let the compiler deduce the type.

```
auto x = 42;  // `int`, because 42 is an `int`.
auto y = 3.14;  // `double`, because 3.14 is a `double`.
auto z = x + y;  // `double`, because the type of `x + y` is `double`.
auto m;  // Error: cannot deduce the type. An initializer is needed.
```

auto can also be used to produce compound types:

What about this?

```
auto str = "hello";
```

What about this?

```
auto str = "hello"; // `const char *`
```

- Recall that the type of "hello" is **const char [6]**, not std::string. This is for compatibility with C.
- When using auto, the array-to-pointer conversion ("decay") is performed automatically.

Deduction of return type is also allowed (since C++14):

```
auto sum(int x, int y) {
  return x + y;
}
```

• The return type is deduced to int .

Since C++20, auto can also be used for function parameters! Such a function is actually a function template.

• This is beyond the scope of CS100.

```
auto sum(auto x, auto y) {
  return x + y;
}
```

auto lets us enjoy the benefits of the static type system.

Some types in C++ are very long:

```
std::vector<std::string>::const_iterator it = vs.begin();
```

Use auto to simplify it:

```
auto it = vs.begin();
```

auto lets us enjoy the benefits of the static type system.

Some types in C++ are not known to anyone but the compiler:

```
auto lam = [](int x, int y) { return x + y; } // A lambda expression.
```

Every lambda expression has its own type, whose name is only known by the compiler.

decltype

decltype(expr) will deduce the type of the expression expr without evaluating it.

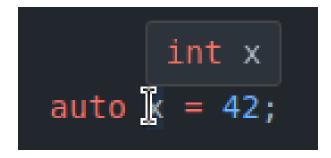
• decltype(fun(x, y)) only deduces the return type of fun without actually calling it. Therefore, no output is produced.

Note on auto and decltype

The detailed rules of auto and decltype (as well as their differences) are complicated, and require some deeper understanding of C++ types and templates. You don't have to remember them.

Learn about them mainly through experiments.

 A good IDE should be of great help: Place your mouse on it, and your IDE should tell you the deduction result.



C23 also has auto type deduction.

Functions

Default arguments

Some functions have parameters that are given a particular value in most, but not all, calls. In such cases, we can declare that common value as a **default argument**.

ullet By default, the screen is 24 imes80 filled with \ullet .

```
auto default_screen = get_screen();
```

• To override the default arguments:

Default arguments

Arguments in the call are resolved by position.

• Some other languages have named parameters:

```
print(a, b, sep=", ", end="") # Python
```

There is no such syntax in C++.

Default arguments are only allowed for the last (right-most) several parameters:

Function overloading

In C++, a group of functions can have the same name, as long as they can be differentiated when called.

```
int max(int a, int b) {
  return a < b ? b : a;
}
double max(double a, double b) {
  return a < b ? b : a;
}
const char *max(const char *a, const char *b) {
  return std::strcmp(a, b) < 0 ? b : a;
}</pre>
```

Overloaded functions

Overloaded functions should be distinguished in the way they are called.

```
void move_cursor(Coord to);
void move_cursor(int r, int c); // OK, differ in the number of arguments
```

Overloaded functions

Overloaded functions should be distinguished in the way they are called.

• The following are declaring the same function. They are not overloading.

```
void fun(int *);
void fun(int [10]);
```

• The following are the same for an array argument:

```
void fun(int *a);
void fun(int (&a)[10]);
int ival = 42; fun(&ival); // OK, calls fun(int *)
int arr[10]; fun(arr); // Error: ambiguous call
```

Why?

Overloaded functions

Overloaded functions should be distinguished in the way they are called.

• The following are the same for an array argument:

```
void fun(int *a);
void fun(int (&a)[10]);
int arr[10]; fun(arr); // Error: ambiguous call
```

- For fun(int (&)[10]), this is an exact match.
- For fun(int *), this involves an array-to-pointer implicit conversion. We will see that this is also considered an exact match.

Suppose we have the following overloaded functions.

```
void fun(int);
void fun(double);
void fun(int *);
void fun(const int *);
```

Which will be the best match for a call fun(a)?

Suppose we have the following overloaded functions.

```
void fun(int);
void fun(double);
void fun(int *);
void fun(const int *);
```

Obvious: The arguments and the parameters match perfectly.

```
fun(42); // fun(int)
fun(3.14); // fun(double)
const int arr[10];
fun(arr); // fun(const int *)
```

Not so obvious:

```
int ival = 42;
// fun(int *) or fun(const int *)?
fun(&ival);
fun('a'); // fun(int) or fun(double)?
fun(3.14f); // fun(int) or fun(double)?
fun(NULL); // fun(int) or fun(int *)?
```

```
void fun(int);
void fun(double);
void fun(int *);
void fun(const int *);
```

- fun(&ival) matches fun(int *)
- fun('a') matches fun(int)
- fun(3.14f) matches fun(double)
- fun(NULL) ? We will see this later.

There are detailed rules that define these behaviors. **But our program should avoid such confusing overload sets.**

- 1. An exact match, including the following cases:
 - identical types
 - match through decay of array (or function) type
 - match through top-level const conversion
- 2. Match through adding low-level const
- 3. Match through integral or floating-point promotion
- 4. Match through numeric conversion
- 5. Match through a class-type conversion (in later lectures).

No need to remember all the details. But pay attention to some cases that are very common.

The null pointer

NULL is a macro defined in standard library header files.

• In C, it may be defined as (void *)0, 0, (long)0 or other forms.

In C++, NULL cannot be (void *)0 since the implicit conversion from void * to other pointer types is **not allowed**.

- It is most likely to be an integer literal with value zero.
- With the following overload declarations, fun(NULL) may call fun(int) on some platforms, and may be **ambiguous** on other platforms!

Better null pointer: nullptr

In short, NULL is a "fake" pointer.

Since C++11, a better null pointer is introduced: nullptr (also available in C23)

- nullptr has a unique type std::nullptr_t (defined in <cstddef>), which is neither void * nor an integer.
- fun(nullptr) will definitely match fun(int *).

[Best practice] Use nullptr as the null pointer constant in C++.

Avoid abuse of function overloading

Only overload operations that actually do similar things. A bad example:

```
Screen &moveHome(Screen &);
Screen &moveAbs(Screen &, int, int);
Screen &moveRel(Screen &, int, int, std::string direction);
```

If we overload this set of functions under the name move, some information is lost.

```
Screen &move(Screen &);
Screen &move(Screen &, int, int);
Screen &move(Screen &, int, int, std::string direction);
```

Which one is easier to understand?

```
moveHome(scrn); // OK, moves to home. move(scrn); // Unclear: How to move?
```

Range-based for loops revisited

Range-based for loops

Traverse a std::string

```
int str_to_int(const std::string &str) {
  int value = 0;
  for (auto c : str) // char
    value = value * 10 + c - '0';
  return value;
}
```

Note: This function can be replaced by std::stol.

Range-based for loops

Traverse a std::vector

```
bool is_all_digits(const std::string &str) {
 for (auto c : str)
    if (!std::isdigit(c))
      return false;
  return true;
int count_numbers(const std::vector<std::string> &strs) {
  int cnt = 0;
  for (const auto &s : strs) // const std::string &s
    if (is_all_digits(s))
      ++cnt;
  return cnt;
```

Traverse an array

An array can also be traversed by range- for:

```
int arr[100] = {}; // OK in C++ and C23.
// The following loop will read 100 integers.
for (auto &x : arr) // int &
   std::cin >> x;
```

Note: The range-based for loop will traverse the entire array.

What else can be traversed using a range- for $? \Rightarrow$ We will learn about this when introducing **iterators**.

Pass an array by reference

```
void print(int *arr) {
  for (auto x : arr) // Error: `arr` is a pointer, not an array.
    std::cout << x << ' ';
  std::cout << '\n';
}</pre>
```

We can declare arr to be a **reference to array**:

```
void print(const int (&arr)[100]) {
  for (auto x : arr) // OK. `arr` is an array.
    std::cout << x << ' ';
    std::cout << '\n';
}</pre>
```

• arr is of type const int (&)[100]: a reference to an array of 100 elements, where each element is of type const int.

Pass an array by reference

We can declare arr to be a reference to array:

```
void print(const int (&arr)[100]) {
   for (auto x : arr) // OK. `arr` is an array.
     std::cout << x << ' ';
   std::cout << '\n';
}</pre>
```

• arr is of type const int (&)[100]: a reference to an array of 100 elements, where each element is of type const int.

Note that only arrays of 100 int s can fit here.

```
int a[100] = {}; print(a); // OK.
int b[101] = {}; print(b); // Error.
double c[100] = {}; print(c); // Error.
```

Pass an array by reference

To allow arrays of any type, any length: Use a template function.

```
template <typename Type, std::size_t N>
void print(const Type (&arr)[N]) {
  for (const auto &x : arr)
    std::cout << x << ' ';
  std::cout << '\n';
}</pre>
```

We will learn about this in the end of this semester.

Summary

Type system

- Dangerous casts must happen explicitly: pointers of different types, pointers to integers, casting away low-level const ness, ...
- const_cast: used for casting away low-level const ness.
- reinterpret_cast: used for conversion between different pointer types.
- static_cast : used for some normal "innocent-looking" conversions: int to double , unsigned to int , ...
- Prefer the C++-style named casts to old C-style casts.
- auto and decltype : type deduction

Summary

Functions

- Default arguments: used for setting defaults for some parameters.
- Function overloading: a group of functions with the same name but can be distinguished in the way they are called.

Range-based for loops

• can also be used to traverse arrays.