

# COSC 2P95

## The Basics

### Week 2

Brock University

# Compilation

We'll get into this a little more when we discuss using multiple source files, but we need a cursory knowledge of how compilation works.

There are three particularly significant components involved in the compilation process:

- The preprocessor
  - ▶ Directives are given to a program, largely to do concatenations and substitutions, with minimal control logic included
  - ▶ Think of it as translating one form of source code into a different one
- The compiler
  - ▶ The compiler takes the amended *translation units*, and compiles them into *object files*
  - ▶ Like executable machine code, but still missing libraries, or connections to each other
- The linker
  - ▶ Connects object files, and libraries, to make an executable

There might also be an *assembler* involved

# So, what are we writing?

We're writing the source files. For the most part, we usually won't worry about anything lower than that.

- In C, source files typically end with `.c`, while *header* files end with `.h`
- In C++, `.cpp` is the most common (though `.h` is probably still more popular than `.hpp`)
- Decent compilers are capable of accepting different *targets* (for cross-compiling), as well as following multiple *standards*

## About source files...

The source files themselves are simply plaintext. It's also worth knowing:

- As hinted at earlier, programs can be broken up into multiple files, for logical separation and modularity
  - ▶ For C, this can be done however you feel appropriate
  - ▶ For C++, it's highly advisable to model solutions as you would for any other Object-Oriented language
- The result can be distributed as a library, or simply be an application
- Each file could contain any of: preprocessor directives, constant and variable declarations, external/static variables, procedures/functions, etc.

Also, you can include a `main` function, to represent the entry point into the application.

# Compiler

For this course, we'll be using the GNU Compiler Collection (`gcc`).

- GCC actually supports a wide range of languages
  - ▶ It's not unheard of to 'make a compiler' by writing software to first translate another language into C, and then compile it
  - ▶ Specifically, we'll be compiling via the command `g++`

Of course, there are numerous other compilers, but GNU is pretty popular for Unix-derived systems.

`gcc` offers several advanced features (including stopping before the linker phase to invoke it manually at a later time, choosing different levels of compilation optimization, and targeting entirely different architectures), but we're not likely to need those any time soon.

# Final thought on gcc and gpp

Please remember that you have a valuable resource at your disposal in the `man` pages.

- You aren't expected to remember how to include libraries, or turn more warnings on, or activate pedantic mode

# The Preprocessor

Though we'll be learning more about this later, we probably can't avoid using the preprocessor at least a little.

Basically, the preprocessor can perform substitutions akin to running *macros*. For example, two important directives are:

- `#include`
  - ▶ Similar to, though distinct from, an *import* in Java or Python
  - ▶ Closer to copying and pasting code from other sources files into the current one, but without needing to actually include it
  - ▶ Good for forward declarations/function *prototypes*, constants, and typedefs
  - ▶ This facilitates the use of multiple source files, but can also introduce its own conflicts
- `#define`
  - ▶ Primarily defines a symbolic replacement
    - ★ One use is for *include guards* (more on this later)
  - ▶ Another is to define a literal to use as a substitution for a term
    - ★ Almost like a constant...
    - ★ Please try to avoid this usage, when possible

# I can haz exampleburger?

Yes! You can!

I think this is a good time for our first sample program.  
How about something *completely* original?

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    printf("Hello class!");  
}
```



# Hey! That was C!

Ya got me. That was C. Let's see just how different C++ can be!

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    printf("Hello class!");  
}
```

# Are you mocking me?

Perish the thought. Remember, C++ isn't just a C-like language. It's mostly C-compatible!

Still, let's look at how you'd write it in C++ (for real):

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {  
    std::cout<<" Hello class!"<<std::endl;  
}
```

# Should we explain that?

I think we probably should...

- `#include <iostream>` — we tell the preprocessor that we'll be using IO from the *Standard Template Library*
- `int main` — `main` actually has a return. After exiting, it tells the OS whether or not it exited on an error
- `int argc` and `char *argv[]` (or `char **argv`) — this is how we'll be able to pass in additional command-line parameters
- `cout` — an object wrapping around the *standard output* stream
- `<<` — a stream insertion (that returns a reference to the same stream)
- `endl` — a newline character
- `std::` — we wish to access something within another *namespace*

# Values and types

C++ supports a pretty wide range of types. Generally, operations will require matching types, so be aware of typing, even when only dealing with values.

- `int`
  - ▶ `short int` (or `short`)
  - ▶ `int`
  - ▶ `long int` (or `long`)
  - ▶ `long long int` (or `long long`)
  - ▶ `sizeof(short) ≤ sizeof(int) ≤ sizeof(long)`
- `char` and `bool` are a little special
- Floating point
  - ▶ `float` — typically 32 bit
  - ▶ `double` — typically 64 bit
  - ▶ `long double` is also a thing, but less common
- Are these signed or unsigned? How do we define strings?

# Using literals

More often than not, if you want to use a value explicitly, you can just type it.

However, there are some times when you might need to be less ambiguous:

- You can append suffixes like U, L, or sometimes LL to values to ensure that they're unsigned, long, long long, etc.
- If you want to ensure that a literal will be treated as a floating point value, make sure it has a decimal component
- You can express your integer values as:
  - ▶ Base 10 — by just typing the number
  - ▶ Octal — with a leading 0 (e.g. `x=013`)
  - ▶ Hexadecimal — with a leading 0x (e.g. `x=0x0B`)
  - ▶ Binary — as of the C14 standard, with a leading 0b (e.g. `0b00001011`)

## Casting and coercion

Suppose I have an `int k`, and I'd like it to have the contents of `double d`. Could I just say `k=d` ; ?

Maybe this is a good time to explain the difference between *strongly-typed* languages, and *weakly-typed* languages...

Still, we can do the conversion explicitly with a cast: `k=(int)d`;

Pop quiz! What would you expect from: `2/3` ? What about `2/3.0` ? How about `2.0/3` ?

# Variables and assignment

I think it's finally time to start declaring some variables!

A *variable* represents the label for a place in memory that can be used to hold data. Its symbol is associated with a *type*, which must be declared from the first creation of the variable.

- e.g. `int k;`
- or `int k=4,m,n;`
- or `char c=-'A';` (why is this a thing?)

This brings up our first official operator: *assignment*.

An assignment has a left-hand side (LHS), and a right-hand side (RHS). An RHS may be an expression or a variable, but an LHS can only be a variable.

Fun fact: an assignment is still an expression, and returns the value being assigned. This allows for *multiple assignments*! (example time!)

## Scope and extent

This will be of somewhat limited use until we address functions and using multiple source files, but we still need to know how *scope* and *extent* work. (but first, do we remember *what* they are?)

- Block-level variables are *automatic* (auto) by default — they're allocated upon entering the block, and deallocated upon leaving the block. Describes *most* local variables
- A variable at the file-level (global-ish) scope will persist for the translation unit's duration of use. It's effectively *static*, but that's different from the *static* keyword (it actually has several uses)
- Now that we've already started to introduce namespaces, scope is already a bit more complicated. In a few weeks, we'll also introduce an *external* (extern) variable
- *volatile* is used to mark variables that might be accessed by external threads or modules
- You can also define a variable to be *register*, but this is only a suggestion to the compiler



## Why's it called *cout*?

We'll get to proper IO later on, but first we need to understand what's going on so far:

- As mentioned, `cout` is a stream object for *standard output*
  - ▶ `<<` defines a special *operator* on the class for stream insertion
- `cerr` behaves the same, but is bound to *standard error*
- `clog` is basically like a buffered version of `cerr`: good for dumping large volumes of text, but not really interesting to us
- `cin` is an input, and reads from *standard input*

Do we mind taking a quick glance at an example?

We need a bit more practice with Bash anyhow.

# Expressions and Operators

Of course, we know what an *expression* is: some sequence of values, variables, and operators that can be evaluated to return a value.

Which operators are we familiar with?

- $+$   $-$   $*$   $/$
- $\%$
- $++$   $--$
- $\&$   $|$   $\wedge$
- $<<$   $>>$  (can we see this being problematic?)
- $\sim$   $!$  (are these the same thing?)
- $\&\&$   $||$  (*totally* different from  $\&$  and  $!!$ )
- $,$  (are  $a=b=3, c=4$ ; and  $a=(b=3, c=4)$ ; the same? EXPLAIN!)

# Constants

There are three basic methods of defining constants:

- `const` — a keyword prepended to a variable declaration as a promise not to change it (don't forget to assign a value)
- By using the `#define` preprocessor directive, to make a substitution of the literal for the term
- `constexpr` — for constant expressions (variables/functions that can be evaluated at compile time)

# Strings

We aren't going to get too much into strings yet.

- C provided a very minimal solution, supplemented by libraries
- C++ provides a proper `string` class as part of the Standard Template Library
  - ▶ Depending on the C++ standard, there might be some peculiarities for when it copies references, and when it performs a 'copy on write'
  - ▶ For now, just know that C++ strings are closer to Java and Python than C

# Booleans

We've already talked about booleans (the `bool` type), but we haven't actually used one yet.

As with most data types in C++, the size of `bool` isn't defined by the standard (instead left up to compilers to decide), but 8 bits isn't uncommon. Think about the implications there...

Example time? I think it is.

# Flow control

## Conditionals

Most languages have some form of an *if* statement. C++ is no different.

- We have an `if` and an `else`, though no *elif* or *endif*
- Surround the boolean expression with parentheses
- You may follow the condition with a statement, or a block
  - ▶ (Watch out for semicolons... *mwahahahaha*)

# Dangling else

(Yes, that's really a thing)

One small thing to watch out for when using nested conditionals is the concept of a *dangling else*.

Consider the following code:

```
if (a)
    if (b)
        cout<<"Yes, a and b"<<endl;
else
    cout<<"Uh... help?"<<endl;
```

- Languages like, Ada and Bash script, use explicit terminators for conditionals (like *end if* and *fi*, respectively)

# Ternary conditional operator

• ?



# Switch statements

In C++, switches are used as a shorthand alternative for multiple else-if cases, instead matching up labels with the evaluated expression to test.

```
switch (dealie) {  
    case 1:  
        cout<<"Only run this on 1\n";  
        break;  
    case 2:  
    case 3:  
        cout<<"Run this on 2 or 3\n";  
        break;  
    case 4:  
        cout<<"Only run this on 4, but continue to 5, too\n";  
    case 5:  
        cout<<"I'm a 5\n";  
        break;  
    default:  
        cout<<"I like turtles\n";  
        break; //because I can  
}
```

# Loops

Is there anything here we should go into more detail on?

- `for`
  - ▶ Typical `for` loops
  - ▶ `for (;;)`
  - ▶ `for (type c:s)` (range-based; only in more recent standards)
  - ▶ Could we write a single loop with two counters approaching each other?
- `while`
- `do ... while`
- `break` and `continue`

# Labels and the goto statement

No.

# Bitfields and Bitmasks

Suppose you wish to store some number of booleans. What data type would you use?

- Even `char` seems like a waste of space...
- `bool` is now an option, thanks to C++, but may or may not pack well

If you're dealing with *many* records (or saving many records to a disk/database), then it may make more sense to pack multiple booleans into the same integer value (e.g. 64-bit).

The bits can be set and extracted via bitwise operators, typically abstracted out to functions (with the bit position being provided as an index argument).

# Questions?

Comments?

- Did you notice that *Brock University* is misspelled in the lower-left corner?