

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <ctype.h>
```

```
#define MAXPAROLA 30
#define MAXRIGA 80
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    int freq[MAXPAROLA]; /* vettore di contatori
delle frequenze delle lunghezze delle parole */
    char riga[MAXRIGA];
    int i, inizio, lunghezza;
    FILE *f;
```

```
for(i=0; i<MAXPAROLA; i++)
    freq[i]=0;
```

```
if(argc != 2)
```

```
{
    fprintf(stderr, "ERRORE: serve un parametro con il nome del file\n");
    exit(1);
}
```

```
f = fopen(argv[1], "r");
if(f==NULL)
```

```
{
    fprintf(stderr, "ERRORE: impossibile aprire il file %s\n", argv[1]);
    exit(1);
}
```

```
while( fgets( riga, MAXRIGA, f ) != NULL )
```



High Level Programming

C++ Basics

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Project organization

- ❖ C++ inherits most of C's syntax
- ❖ It is almost always implemented as a compiled language
- ❖ Filename have extensions
 - .cpp for source files
 - Sometimes .cc, .cxx
 - .h for header files
 - Sometimes .H, .hh, .hpp, .hxx, .h++

"Hello world": Version 1

❖ A C++ version of the "Hello world" program that uses the standard library stream

`#include <iostream>` is a preprocessor directive in C++ that tells the compiler to include the contents of the `<iostream>` header file in your program.

```
#include <iostream>
```

C++ libraries do not need ".h"

```
int main(int argc, char ** argv) {  
    int v1, v2;
```

`std::`
is a namespace
(see ahead)

```
    std::cout << "Enter two Values: ";  
    std::cin >> v1 >> v2;  
    std::cout << "Sum: " << v1+v2 << std::endl;
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

- Enter two Values: 26 12
- Sum: 38

I/O Streams

❖ The I/O library define four objects

➤ cin

- An istream to read from standard input (normally the keyboard)

C style:
scanf (...) - fscanf (stdin, ...)

➤ cout

- An ostream for standard output, usual output (normally the screen)

C style:
printf (...) - fprintf (stdout, ...);

➤ cerr

- An ostream for standard error , i.e., errors and warnings (not buffered)

C style:
fprintf (stderr, ...);

➤ clog

- An ostream for standard logs, i.e., general information about the execution (buffered)

Console Output

Correspond to the C
printf

```
std::cout << expression;
```

- ❖ Sends expression to the standard output
 - We do not need the type of the objects
 - It is done automatically by the compiler
 - The output operator can handle different types
 - Multiple "<<" can be chained together
 - The
 - **std::endl** is the pre-defined "end of line " ("\\n")
 - Each new line flushes the buffer
 - **std::flush** flushes the buffer
 - **std::ends** write a null and then flushes the buffer

Examples

No newline

```
std::cout << "We have " << classNum << " classes!";
```

Newline

```
std::cout << "I am " << age << " years old!" << std::endl;
```

```
std::cout << "hi!" << std::endl;
```

Write "hi!" then a new line, then flushes the buffer

```
std::cout << "hi!" << std::flush;
```

Write "hi!" then flushes the buffer

```
std::cout << "hi!" << std::ends;
```

Write "hi!", then a null, then flushes the buffer

Console Input

Corresponding to the C
scanf

```
std::cin >> expression;
```

- ❖ Reads input from console & stores in variable
 - We do not need the type of the objects
 - It is done automatically by the compiler
 - The input operator can handle different types
 - Multiple ">>" can be chained together
 - Usually preceded by a prompt message to the user
 - It is difficult to detect invalid input
 - Read single strings not entire lines

Examples

```
int age, weight;
```

```
std::cout << "Enter age and weight: ";  
std::cin >> age >> weight;
```

The first input goes into age and the second one into weight

```
std::cout << "Enter age and weight: ";  
cin >> age;  
cin >> weight;
```

Equivalent to the previous one

```
string s;  
cin >> s;
```

Work for all types and for files
(strings will be introduced in unit 4)

```
int sum=0, value=0;  
while (std::cin >> value)  
    sum += value;
```

The input operator returns `std::cin` which is invallied (i.e., false) when we hit end-of-file or an invalid input (i.e., wrong type)

Namespace

The concept is common to the C language

- ❖ A **namespace** is region that provides a scope to the identifiers
 - Namespaces are used to organized code into logical groups
 - They prevent name collisions when the code includes multiple libraries
- ❖ The prefix **std::** indicates that the names are defined inside the namespace **std**
 - Libraries separate their symbols (function and variables) into namespaces
 - We need to indicate where symbol comes from by using **namespace::** before the symbol

Using declaration

❖ The “using” declaration

```
using std::cin;
```

- Says that we want to use the name **cin** from the namespace **std**
 - Brings symbols from the library's namespace into the global scope of program
- Each using declaration introduces a single namespace member at a time
- Do not use **using** inside header files
 - To avoid automatic naming everytime the header is included

Using Directive

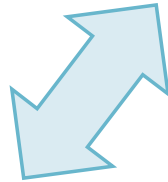
❖ The “using” directive

```
using namespace std;
```

- Says that we want to use the namespace **std**, i.e., it takes all the names from a specific namespace visible without quantification
 - We retain no control over which names are made visible
 - We do not control name collision problems inherent in using multiple libraries

Example

```
std::cout << ... << std::endl;  
std::cin >> ...  
std::cerr <<
```



```
using std::cin;  
using std::cout;  
using std::endl;  
  
cout << ... << endl;  
cin >> ...  
cerr << ...
```



Need to be placed
in all cpp files
(even for multi-
file projects)

```
using namespace std;  
  
cout << ... << endl;  
cin >> ...  
cerr << ...
```

"Hello world": Version 2

- ❖ A C++ version of the "Hello world" program that uses the standard library stream and namespaces

```
#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

int main(int argc, char ** argv) {
    int v1, v2;

    cout << "Enter two Values: ";
    cin >> v1 >> v2;
    cout << "Sum: " << v1+v2 << endl;

    return 0;
}
```

Arithmetic types

Notice: Minimum
size versus sizeof

| Type | Meaning | Minimum Size |
|-------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| bool | Boolean | NA |
| char | Character | 8 |
| wchar_t | Wide Character | 16 |
| short | Short integer | 16 |
| int | Integer | 16 |
| long | Long integer | 32 |
| long long | Long integer | 64 |
| float | Single-precision floating point | 6 significant digits |
| double | Double-precision floating point | 10 significant digits |
| long double | Extended-precision floating point | 10 significant digits |

For other types (e.g., char16_t, char32_t, etc.) see documentation

Arithmetic types

- ❖ The type of an object defines the data contained and the operations available
- ❖ The type `bool` assumes values `true` and `false`
- ❖ To support internationalization, there are several character types
 - A `char` is big enough to hold all numeric values corresponding to a character in the set available in the hardware architecture used
 - The type `wchar_t` (`char16_t`, `char32_t`, etc.) are used for extended character set (i.e., the Unicode representation)

Arithmetic types

- ❖ For some type signed and unsigned versions are possible
 - Pay attention when signed and unsigned types are mixed

```
unsigned u = 19;
```

```
int i = -42;
```

```
std::cout << i + i << std::endl;
```

```
std::cout << u + i << std::endl;
```

$i+i \rightarrow -84$

$u+i \rightarrow 4294967264$
on 32-bit

Signed integer types can represent both positive and negative numbers, including zero. The range of values that a signed integer type can represent is divided evenly between positive and negative numbers, with one bit reserved for the sign.

Unsigned integer types can only represent non-negative numbers, including zero. All bits in an unsigned integer are used to represent the magnitude of the number, with no bit reserved for the sign. As a result they can represent a larger range of positive values compared to signed int types of same size

Literals

- ❖ A value, e.g., 10, is a literal because its value is self-evident
 - Every literal has a type
 - The form and value of the literal determine its value

| Type | Meaning | Example |
|-----------------|--|--------------------|
| Integer | Decimal, Octal, Hexadecimal | 20, 024, 0x23 |
| Float | Include a decimal point and an exponent | 3.1415, 1.2e3 |
| Character | A character within single quotes | 'a' |
| String | Zero or more characters enclosed in quotation marks | "this is a string" |
| Escape sequence | Newline, carriage return, vertical tab, horizontal tab, etc. | \n, \r, \v, \t |

Literals

- ❖ Literals may have prefix and suffix specifiers
 - Prefixes and suffixes can override the default type

| Prefix | Meaning | Example |
|--------|---------------------------------|---------|
| u | Unicode 16 character (char16_t) | u"this" |
| U | Unicode 32 character (char32_t) | U"this" |
| L | Hexadecimal (wchar_t) | L23 |

| Postfix | Meaning | Example |
|----------|-----------|-----------------------|
| U or u | Unsigned | 42u |
| L or l | Long | 3.1415l |
| LL or ll | Long long | 4611686018427387904LL |

Variables

- ❖ Variables are defined in C++ as in C
 - Each variable has a type
 - Definitions can optionally provide an initial value
 - In C++ variables can be initialized in different ways
 - Variables defined outside a function are default-initialized to zero

```
int i = 0;  
int i = {0};  
int i{0};  
int i(0);
```

C++11
Curly braces, list initialization

```
int j{i}, k(i), l=i;
```

Variables

❖ As in C variables, we may have

➤ A declaration and a definition

- A declaration makes a name known to the program
- A definition creates the entity
- Variables must be defined exactly once but can be declared many times

➤ The keyword **extern** is used in C

- It defines a declaration that is not a definition
- If the variable is initialized the declaration is also a definition

```
int i;  
extern j = 0;
```

Definitions

Declarations

```
extern int i;  
extern j;
```

Pointers

❖ Pointers are used as in C

```
int* ptr;  
int *ptr;  
int * ptr:
```

The size does not depend on the type because pointers are **memory addresses**

- A pointer is an object “pointing” to another object
- Pointers can be used to access objects
 - Pointers support pointer-arithmetic

```
int i = 10;  
int *ptr = &i;  
  
cout << i;  
cout << *ptr;
```

When x is an array, the behavior of `int* ptr = x;` and `int* ptr = &x;` is slightly different due to the difference in how arrays and pointers are handled in C++.

Equivalent

```
int v[10];  
int *ptr;  
  
ptr = &v[0];  
ptr++;  
ptr=ptr+5;
```

Now ptr points to v[6]

```
int x[5] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};  
int (*ptr)[5] = &x; // Pointer to an array of 5 integers. This is how we can create a pointer to an array of all 5 elements.
```

Pointers

- Pointers of type **void *** are special pointers that can hold the address of any object
- The main difference from C is that **NULL** (or 0) is **nullptr**
 - The use of **NULL** is deprecated (but accepted)
 - A pointer should always be set to **nullptr** before and after usage
 - **nullptr** is a literal with a type that can be converted to all other types

introduced in C++11

References

- ❖ A reference defines an alternative name for an object

```
int i = 0;  
int &r = i;  
int &wrong_r;
```

The variable r is an alias of variable i

Error: A reference must be initialized

- A reference exists only if the object exists
 - Instead of copying the object we bind the reference to its initializer
 - A reference **cannot** be assigned to **nullptr** as it **must** be assigned to a **variable**
- There is no standard implementation
 - Most of the times the compiler translate a reference into a pointer with de-referencing operations

C++, a reference is an alias or alternative name for an existing object. It allows you to access and manipulate the same object using different names. References provide a convenient way to work with variables without copying their values, and they are often used as function parameters and return types, as well as in variable declarations.

References

- We can define multiple references in a single definition
- References may be bound only to objects not to literals

If ref value changes the original val will also change
so if `int a = 3; int &ref = a` then if
`ref = 44` so does `a` become 44.

Once initialized it is bound to that variable
for the lifetime. Can't be changed.

```
int i = 0;  
int &r1 = i, &r2 = i;  
  
int &wrong_r = 10;  
  
float f;  
int &rf = f;
```

Error: Initializer
must be an object

Error: The initializer
must be an integer

Function Parameters: References are commonly used in function parameters to avoid the overhead of copying large objects. When a function parameter is declared as a reference, changes made to the parameter inside the function affect the original object passed as an argument.

Differences from Pointers: While references are similar to pointers in many ways, there are some key differences:
References cannot be null and must be initialized when declared.
Once initialized, references cannot be made to refer to a different object.
References do not have their own memory address; they simply provide an alias for an existing object.

Qualifiers

In C++ qualifiers are keywords that modify the behavior of variables, functions, and classes. There are several types of qualifiers in C++, including `const`, `volatile`, `mutable`, and `constexpr`.

❖ Any **type** (except functions and reference types) can be cv-qualified

➤ Const-qualified

- Used when we want to define an object we know cannot be changed

➤ Volatile-qualified

modified unexpectedly by external factors, such as hardware or other parts of the program.

- Used for objects that can be changed in ways outside the control of the program (e.g., a variable updated by the system clock)

```
const int c = 0;  
volatile int v;  
const volatile int cv;  
volatile const int vc;
```

cv-qualifiers can appear in any order, before or after the type

Qualifiers

- ❖ Constant objects cannot be modified once defined and initialized
 - Constant types can be used similarly to their non-constant version
 - When we have const with pointers, we can have
 - Top-level constants, i.e., the pointer is constant
 - Low-level constants, i.e., the referenced object is constant

Top-level constant.
The pointer p1 cannot change

```
int *const p1 = &v1;
```

p1 is a constant pointer to an integer, here the value of p1 cannot be changed

```
const int *p2 = &v2;
```

p2 is a pointer to a constant integer, here the value of v1 cannot be changed

```
const double *const pi = 3.14;
```

Low-level constant. The value cannot change. The pointer p2 can change

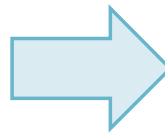
Constant pointer to a constant object

Qualifiers

- ❖ Volatile objects prevent the compiler to optimize the code segments involving the object
 - The compiler must suppose that the value of the object can be changed
 - Volatile should be avoided in most cases
 - **Deprecated** from C++20

```
int i = 100;  
while (i == 100) {  
    ...  
}
```

If i is not modified, the compiler may be tempted to change the while construct into while(true)



```
volatile int i = 100;  
while (i == 100) {  
    ...  
}
```

To avoid the compiler optimization we can define the object as volatile

The auto specifier

- ❖ From C+11 we can let the compiler figure out the type of an object by using the **auto** type specifier
 - A variable defined with auto must have an initializer
 - As with any other specifier we can define multiple objects using auto but all declarations must have the same type

Although auto deduces the type of a variable at compile time, it still provides compile-time type checking. This means that the type inferred by auto must be compatible with the initializer expression, preventing type mismatch errors.

```
auto i = 0;  
auto pi = 3.1415;  
int &r = i;  
auto j = 10, k = 20;
```

Correct

Error:
Inconsistent types

```
auto i = 0, pi = 3.1415;
```

The decltype specifier

- ❖ We can let the compiler deduces the type of an object from an expression using the **decltype** type specifier
 - A variable defined with **decltype** must have an initializer

```
decltype (f()) v = 0;  
  
int i;  
decltype (i + 3.1415) f;
```

Function f is not called,
it is just used to define
the type of v

```
int x = 10;  
decltype(x) y = 20; // declares y with the same type as x (int)
```

Reported for the sake of
completeness. Not often used.
You may ignore it !

Expressions

- ❖ There are no major differences between C and C++ operators

| Type | Syntax | Example |
|------------------------------|------------------------|---|
| Precedence and associativity | | $i+j*k = (i+(j*k))$ |
| Arithmetic operators | $+, -, *, /, \%$ | <code>quotient = i/2;</code> <code>remainder = n%2;</code> |
| Logical operators | $!, \&\&, $ | |
| Relational operators | $<, <=, ==, >=, >, !=$ | <code>i==0 && j>0</code> |
| Assignment | | <code>i=3; j=k=5;</code> |
| Bitwise | | <code>i>>2</code> |
| Etc. | | |

Type conversions

- ❖ In C++ some types are related to each other
 - We can use an object or value of one type when another one is expected
 - We say that we **convert** one type into the other
- ❖ In C++ we have
 - **Implicit conversions**
 - The ones carried out automatically without the intervention of the programmer
 - For example, in most expressions smaller types are promoted to larger type
 - **Explicit conversions**
 - The ones explicitly forced by the programmer

Type conversions

- ❖ C++ extends C in terms of explicit conversions
- ❖ C++ allows
 - C (old-type) conversions
 - C++ (new) named-cast conversions
 - `static_cast`
 - `const_cast`
 - `reinterpret_cast`
 - `dynamic_cast`
- ❖ The target of these operators is to provide a safer syntax to dangerous constructs

Not used.

Run-time type identification:
It converts a pointer or a reference
to a base type into a pointer or
reference to a derived type

C (old-style) cast

- ❖ The C language resorts to **cast** operations when a type conversion is required

```
(<type>) <expression>  
<type> (<expression>)
```

➤ The C compiler

- Does not perform any check about the accuracy or meaning of the cast
- It only checks its syntactic feasibility

```
int i, j;  
float f;  
  
i = (int) f;  
f = (float) j;
```

Depending on the types involved an old-style cast has the same behavior as a `static_cast`, `const_cast`, `reinterpret_cast`

Safe Conversions:

`static_cast` is used for conversions that are safe and well-defined at compile time, such as converting between fundamental data types (like `int` to `double`) or performing upcasting and downcasting in inheritance hierarchies.

C++ static cast

```
static_cast <new_type> (expression)
```

We are not only specifying the type but also the fact we wanna cast it

❖ It is used to cast related types

- It performs the conversion and checks whether the conversion is acceptable
- Converts the **expression** to the **new_type**
 - It is often used to convert a **larger** type into a **smaller** one
 - It is used to perform conversions the compiler will not generate automatically
 - It can be used to convert **void** pointers to pointers of another type

Example

```
int i = 42;  
void *vp = &i;  
int *ip = static_cast<int*>(vp);
```

From void * to int *

```
int sum(int a, int b) {  
    return a+b;  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    int i = 42, j = 31;  
    double x = 3.14, y = 23.34;
```

```
    x = sum (i, j);  
    y = sum (i, static_cast<int>(y));  
    z = sum (static_cast<int>(x), static_cast<int>(y));  
}
```

From double to int*

C++ const cast

```
const_cast <new_type> (expression)
```

- ❖ It converts a constant into a non-constant type
 - It casts away the **const**
 - Once we have cast away the const, the compiler will no longer prevent us from writing to the object
 - However, using a const_cast to write to a const object is undefined
- ❖ Most useful in the context of overloaded functions

Reported for the sake of completeness. Not often used.
You may ignore it !

Example

```
int f1 (int *ptr) {  
    return (*ptr+10);  
}  
  
...  
int f2 (int *ptr) {  
    *ptr = *ptr + 10;  
    return (*ptr);  
}  
  
...  
const int val = 10;  
const int *ptr = &val;  
int *ptrc = const_cast <int *> (ptr);
```

```
cout << f1 (ptrc);
```

It can be used to pass constant data to a function that does not receive const.
Output: 20

```
cout << f2 (ptrc);
```

It is undefined behavior to modifying a value which is initially declared as const.
Output: Undefined

C++ reinterpret cast

```
reinterpret_cast <new_type> (expression)
```

❖ It is used to convert **unrelated** types

➤ It converts the underlying bit sequence representing **expression** as a value of **new_type** without any logic check

- It forces a low-level reinterpretation of the bit pattern of its operand
- It is used when we want to work with bits
 - It is a compile-time directive which instructs the compiler to treat the **expression** as if it had the type **new_type**
- Usually, it does not generate any CPU instructions

IN c we can define a structure (struct) or a union which is very much like struct. Once we define the union the compiler reserves value for space

C++ reinterpret cast

❖ It is similar to the use of **unions** in C language

reinterpret_cast in C++ allows converting between unrelated pointer types or between pointer types and integral types, but it doesn't change the underlying memory layout. union in C allows multiple members of different types to share the same memory location, enabling storage of different types of data in the same space. Both can manipulate memory in unconventional ways, but reinterpret_cast is more flexible with pointer conversions, while union is specifically designed for shared memory storage of different types.

- It is inherently **machine dependent**
 - Not to use it unless strictly required
- Requires a complete understanding of the types involved in the operation
- Only a very restricted set of conversions is allowed
 - Invalid conversions usually lead to undefined behavior
 - It is undefined to access an object using an expression of a different type

Example

From pointer to integer
(a static casts would be an error)

```
int i = 10;  
  
uintptr_t v1 = reinterpret_cast<uintptr_t>(&i);  
  
cout << "Value of &i: 0x" << v1 << '\n';
```

For now consider this as a malloc (dynamic
memory allocation); pi points to 65

```
int *pi = new(65);  
char *pc = reinterpret_cast<char*> (p);
```

```
cout << *pi << endl;  
cout << *pc << endl;
```

```
cout << pi << endl;  
cout << pc << endl;
```

65

A

0x1609c20

A
Hug ?

Statements

- ❖ There are no major differences between C and C++ statements

| Type | Syntax | Example |
|------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|
| Null | ; | |
| Composed (block) | { } | {i=0;j=1; ...} |
| Conditional | if, if-else | if (i==10) {...} else {...} |
| The switch | switch, case, default | |
| Iterative | while | while (i<=N) { ... } |
| | for | for (int i=0; i<N; i++) {...} |
| | do-while | do { ... } while (i<=N); |
| Jump statements | Break, continue, goto | |

The range for statement

- ❖ C++11 introduced a simpler for statement
 - It is used to iterate through the elements of a container or other sequences

```
for (declaration : expression)
    statement
```

- The expression must represent a sequence
 - Braced initializer
 - Array
 - An object, such as a vector or string
- The declaration defines a variable
 - It must be possible to convert each element of the sequence to the variable type

Please, see the unit
04 for containers

Example

The types **string** and **vector** are introduced in section u04s02

vector is the type, and also the type of the element which is an integer. In a way the vector is a class which can be used with all different types. We can have a vector of integers or a vector of strings, etc. A vector which is an array of integers.

```
vector<int> v = {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9};
```

```
for (auto r : v)
    cout << r;
```

r is automatically defined such that compatible with values in v. We are just printing them out with no space.

```
for (auto &r : v)
    r *= 2;
```

r is not a copy of the element but a synonym of v with i varying from 0 to 9

Double the value of each element

First Loop: In this loop, auto i creates a copy of each element in the vector v2. Inside the loop, i is modified, but the modifications do not affect the original elements in the vector v2. Therefore, the loop prints the values of i after adding 2 to each copied element, but the elements of v2 remain unchanged.

Second Loop: In this loop, auto &i creates a reference to each element in the vector v2. Inside the loop, i is modified directly, affecting the original elements in the vector v2. Therefore, the loop prints the values of i after adding 2 to each original element in the vector v2.

```
string s("this is a string");
```

String initialization

```
for (auto c : s)
    cout << c;
```

```
for (auto &c : s)
    if (ispunct())
        cnt++;
```

If it is a punctuation character count it up

Exceptions

- ❖ For exception in C++
 - See documentation
 - Recall notions of Java and/or software engineering courses