

# Programmierparadigmen

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Topic 5.2

**C/C++ Repetition**

DEPENDABILITY OF SOFTWARE-INTENSIVE SYSTEMS  
INSTITUTE OF INFORMATION SECURITY AND DEPENDABILITY, FACULTY OF INFORMATICS

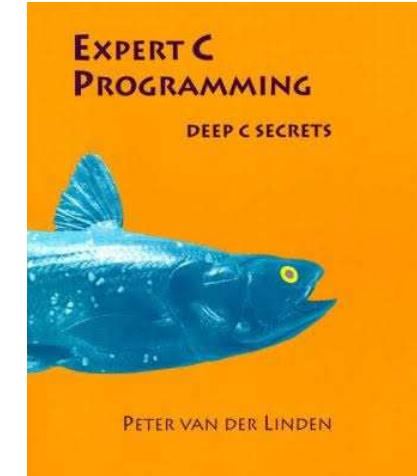
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# Overview on Today's Lecture

## Content

- C/C++ Basics
  - Built-in Types
  - Structs, unions, classes
  - Pointers, arrays, references
- Memory management
- Declarations in C



## Learning goals: participants –

- refresh the most important basics of the C programming language  
(in order to be able to apply them within MPI)
- are able to read and understand C declarations

# Programming Languages Compared

- C
  - No object-oriented language constructs; no classes, only structs
  - No (direct) multithreading support until recently (2011)
  - Program execution flow is determined by a set of functions
    - Starting in function `main()`
- C++
  - C with object orientation
  - Still allows for functions and variables outside classes
  - Can still be used for procedural programming without object orientation
- Java
  - Strictly object-oriented (but still defines primitive data types)
    - Everything resides inside a class (including `static void main()`)
  - Source code files are organized along class boundaries
  - Explicit multithreading support

# C/C++ Built-in Data Types

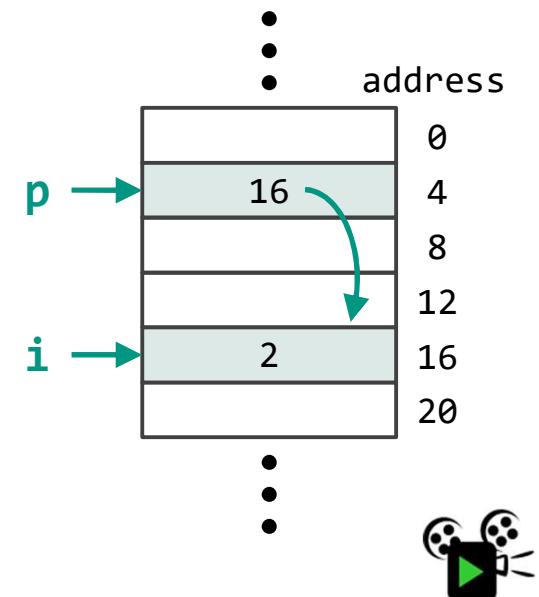
- Data types: void, int, float, double, char, enum
- Modifiers: short, long, signed, unsigned
- Actual sizes and ranges of data types are platform-dependent
- Arrays: indicated by []
- Boolean values
  - C: int = 0 for *false*; int ≠ 0 for *true*
  - C++: bool
- Strings
  - C: char[] terminated with '\0',
  - C++: std::string
- Enumerations
  - C: list of aliases for integer numbers
  - C++: enum is still an alias for integers
    - Declaration has become simpler, keyword enum can be omitted

# Pointers

- C/C++ variable that contains an *address* of another variable
- Pointer handling syntax:
  - Pointer declaration: asterisk (\*)
  - Variable address retrieval: reference operator (&)
  - Target value retrieval: dereference operator (\*)

```
int i, j;
int *p;      /* pointer to int */

int main() {
    i = 2;
    p = &i;    /* p points to address of i */
    j = *p;    /* j is assigned the value of i */
    return 0;
}
```



# Pointers: Fundamental Properties

- Common means to pass parameters to functions
  - avoids copying data structures in spite of „call by value“
  - enables data processing in a function without loss of changes upon leaving the function
- Can point to –
  - any data type, including structs, classes (C++), and void
  - **functions**
  - other pointers
- Suited for working with arrays
- Can be used to build and manipulate data structures like linked lists

# Pointer Arithmetic

- Pointers can be *incremented* and *decremented*
  - by the (platform-specific) size of their data types
- They can also be *subscripted* like accessing an element of an array
  - Attention: risk of data errors due to direct memory access

```
char c1, c2;
char *p; /* pointer to char */

int main() {
    c1 = 'A';
    p = &c1;      /* p is assigned the address of c1 */
    p += 5;       /* p is incremented by 5 * sizeof(char) */
    c2 = p[2];   /* c2 is assigned the value at address p + 2 *
                     sizeof(char)*/
    return 0;
}
```

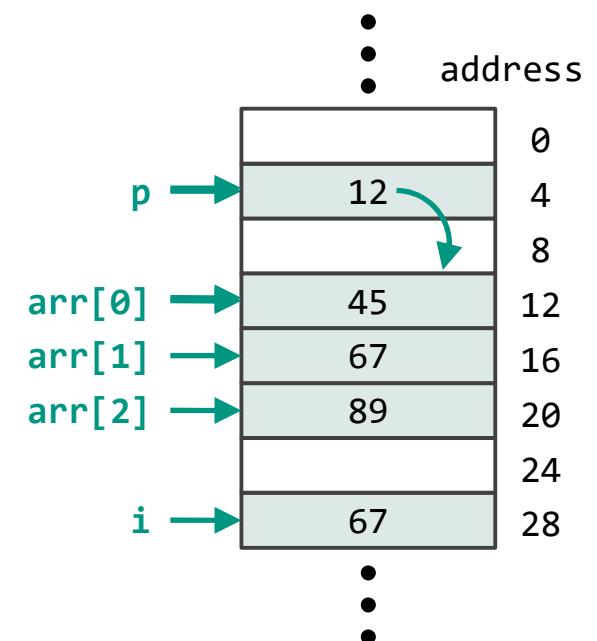
# Pointers and Arrays (1)

- Arrays are allocated as continuous areas in memory with a consecutive layout of their elements
- Using pointer arithmetic, pointers can address arbitrary array elements
- Array names decay to the address of the first array element

```
int arr[] = { 45, 67, 89 };
int *p, i;

int main() {
    p = arr;          /* p is assigned the address of
                        the first element of arr */
    p = &arr[0];      /* same effect as above */

    i = arr[1];       /* i is assigned the value 67 */
    i = p[1];         /* same effect as above */
    i = *(p + 1);     /* same effect as above */
    return 0;
}
```



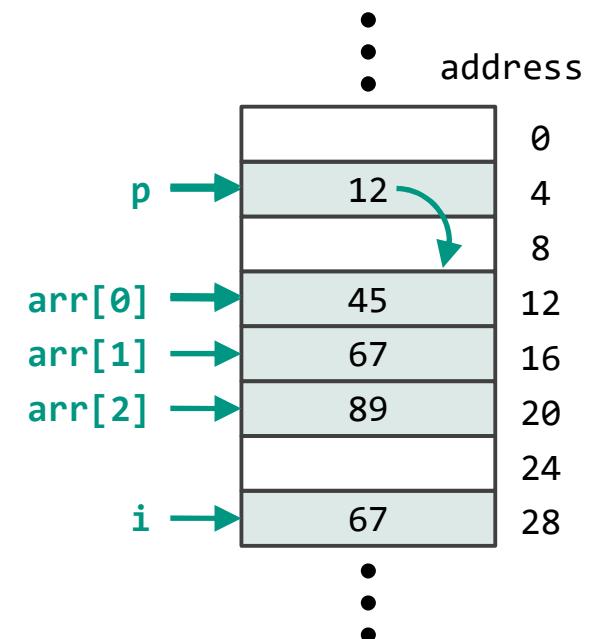
# Pointers and Arrays (2)

- Notice: even though we write `p = arr`, `p` is not the same as `arr`:
  - `arr` (or `&arr[0]`) **is** the address of the first array element
  - `p` **points to** the address of the first array element
  - leads to **linking error** if in one file `int p[5]` and in other file `extern int *p` is defined / declared

```
int arr[] = { 45, 67, 89 };
int *p, i;

int main() {
    p = arr;          /* p is assigned the address of
                        the first element of arr */
    p = &arr[0];      /* same effect as above */

    i = arr[1];      /* i is assigned the value 67 */
    i = p[1];        /* same effect as above */
    i = *(p + 1);    /* same effect as above */
    return 0;
}
```



# Parameter Passing in C

- Default: pass by value
- Exception: array parameters
  - Syntax suggests copy of whole array
  - But only the pointer to the first address is passed

```
void incr(int arr[], int length) { /* as a function parameter, int arr[]
                                         implicitly means int *arr */
    int i = 0;
    for(i = 0; i < length; i++) {
        arr[i]++;
        /* array elements can be accessed by
           standard pointer subscription */
    }
}

int main() {
    int arr[] = { 45, 67, 89 };
    incr(arr, 3);
    /* arr decays to &arr[0] */
    return 0;
}
```

# Function Pointers

- C/C++ supports **pointers to functions**
  - which in turn allows assigning functions to variables
- Declaration is similar to other languages
- Example: `void (*foo) (int);`
  - declares a variable foo that points to a function expecting an int and delivering void
- A function's *address* can be retrieved as shown below

```
void my_int_func(int x) {  
    printf( "%d\n", x );  
}  
  
...  
  
void (*foo)(int);  
foo = &my_int_func; ← fetch address of my_int_function  
foo(2);
```

cf. e.g. <http://www.cprogramming.com/tutorial/function-pointers.html>

# References vs. Pointers

- References are used in C++ to realize **pass by reference** for function parameters
- C only knows **pass by value** (except for arrays) and thus requires pointers to avoid parameter copies

```
void incr(int *i) {  
    (*i)++;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int i = 1;  
    incr(&i);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Pass by value (C/C++)

```
void incr(int &i) {  
    i++;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int i = 1;  
    incr(i);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Pass by reference (C++ only)

# Memory Management in C

- Each program is allocated into three areas (segments) of memory
  - *Text segment* (or *code segment*): contains the program instructions
  - *Stack segment*: automatic variables within functions
  - *Heap segment*: global and static variables, dynamically allocated memory
- Direct memory manipulation through pointer variables possible
  - Attention: risk of memory errors
- Explicit dynamic allocation/deallocation of heap memory through `malloc()` and `free()` possible
  - No garbage collection
    - Do not forget to free your memory once you do not need it anymore

# Memory Management in C++

- C++ provides operators `new` and `delete`
  - Instead of `malloc()` and `free()`
  - Includes constructor / destructor execution
    - The required memory size is automatically calculated
- Like in C, any data type can be dynamically allocated on the heap
- Explicit memory release through `delete` is still necessary  
(no garbage collection)

# Declarations in C

- *Forward declaration principle*
  - All entities (variables, types, functions) must be declared before use
- Multiple declarations of the same identifier may exist
  - e.g. in multiple files
- The actual definition of the identifier occurs in exactly one place
  - ... and may be integrated with a declaration

# Declarations in C: Challenges

- C declarations are sometimes hard to read

- No simple reading from left to right

```
int * arr[]; /* arr is an array of
pointer to int */
```

- Potentially nested declarations

```
int *(*p)(); /* p is a pointer to a
function returning a
pointer to an int */
```

- Modifiers `const` and `volatile`

```
volatile int * const i; /* i is a
read-only pointer to
a volatile int */
```

- What does the following declaration mean?

```
unsigned int* const *(*next)();
```

# Declarations in C: Modifiers

- **const**
  - Read-only after definition
  - Attention: through pointers and direct memory access, changing read-only data is still possible!
- **volatile**
  - Always fetch value from main memory
  - No registers, no optimization
  - Useful if variable is accessed outside the user program control (e.g. I/O buffers)
- Other modifiers
  - Type-specifiers: void, char, short, int, long, signed, unsigned, float, double
  - Storage-class: extern, static, register, auto, typedef

# The Precedence Rule [Linden1994]

```
unsigned int* const *(*next)();
```

- A “[name] is a...”
- B Follow the precedence order:
  - B.1 parentheses ()
  - B.2 postfix operators:
    - B.2.1 () “...function returning...”
    - B.2.2 [] “...array of...”
  - B.3 prefix operator: \* “...pointer to...”
  - B.4 prefix operator \* and **const / volatile** modifier:  
“...[modifier] pointer to...”
  - B.5 **const / volatile** modifier next to type specifier:  
“...[modifier] [specifier]”
  - B.6 type specifier: “...[specifier]”

# The Precedence Rule: Example

```
unsigned int* const *(*next)();
```

1.	A	next	“next is a ...”
2.	B.3	*	“...pointer to...”
3.	B.1	( )	“...”
4.	B.2.1	( )	“...a function returning...”
5.	B.3	*	“...a pointer to...”
6.	B.4	*const	“...a read-only pointer to...”
7.	B.6	unsigned int	“...unsigned int.”

# “Decoder Ring” for C Declarations [Linden1994]

Step number	Token to match	How to read
1. Go to the leftmost identifier:	Identifier	say “identifier is”
2. Look at the next token to the right if it's a square bracket...	[ possible-size ] ...	for each pair, say “array of”
3. ...or if it is an opening parenthesis	( possible-parameters )	read up to closing parenthesis, say “function returning”
4. If the token to the left is an opening parenthesis:	( stuff-already-dealt-with )	read up to balancing parenthesis, start again at step 2
5. If the token to the left is any of const / volatile / asterisk:	const volatile *	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• for const say “read-only”</li> <li>• for volatile say “volatile”</li> <li>• for * say “pointer to”</li> </ul> <p>→ keep reading tokens to the left, until it's not one of these three, then goto step 4</p>
6. The tokens that remain from the basic type of the declaration:	basic type	read off the remaining tokens, e.g. “unsigned int”

# Conclusion

- C and C++ are still widely used languages
  - Especially in the embedded and high-performance domains due to more degrees of freedom (manual memory management etc.)
- Although they are syntactically similar to Java, there are some subtle differences, such as –
  - the use of pointers
  - no fixed sizes for built-in data types
  - the lack of a garbage collection

# Literature and References

- [Linden1994] Peter van der Linden, „Expert C Programming“, Prentice Hall, 1994
- [Meyer1997] Bertrand Meyer, „Object-oriented Software Construction“, 2nd Edition, Prentice Hall, 1997
- [SGI1994] SGI Standard Template Library Programmer's Guide, 1994,  
<http://www.sgi.com/tech/stl>
- [Ullenboom2004] Christian Ullenboom, „Java ist auch eine Insel“, 4th Edition, Galileo Computing, 2004
- [Wilhalm2004] Thomas Willhalm, „Von Java nach C++“, Internal Report, KIT, 2004,  
<http://digbib.ubka.uni-karlsruhe.de/volltexte/1000001246>

# APPENDIX

# Appendix: Structs and Unions

- C/C++ user-defined data type
- Groups variables together
- Members are accessed through the point operator (.)

```
struct/union myPoint {int dimX; int dimY; int dimZ;};

int main() {
    struct myPoint p;
    p.dimX = 10;
    p.dimY = 20;
    p.dimZ = 30;
    printf("%d\n", p.dimX) /* output? */

    return 0;
}
```

- union is similar to struct but with storage shared across members
  - May be used to save space, or to give multiple interpretations of the same data
  - Attention: risk of memory errors

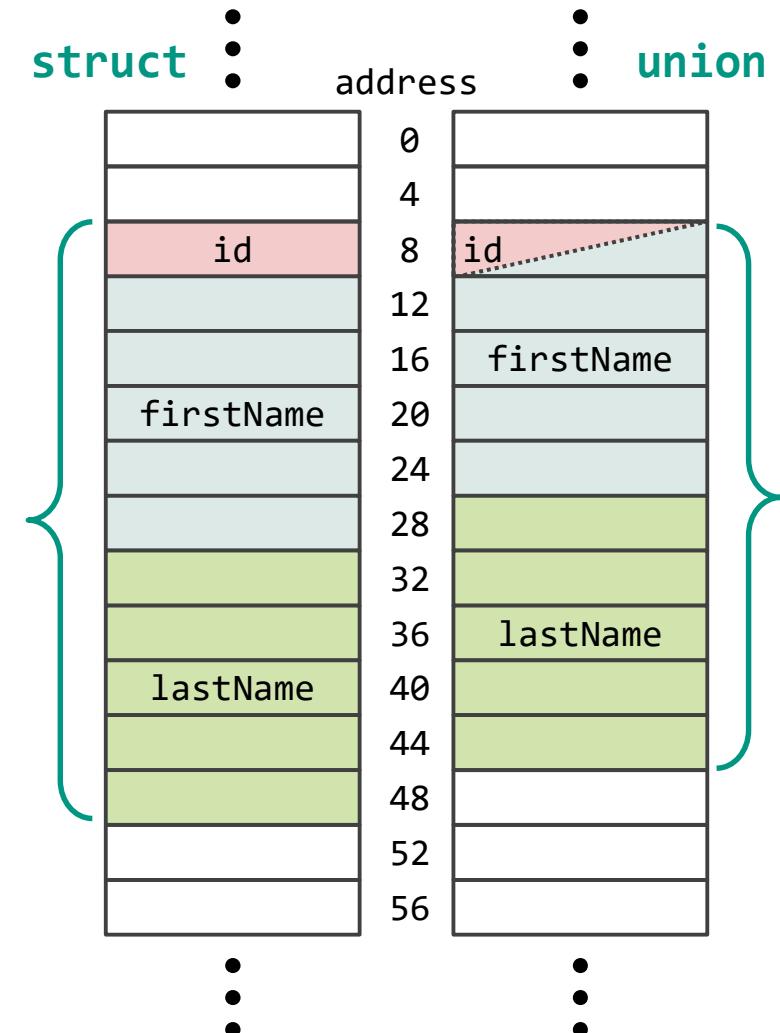
# Appendix: Structs vs. Unions

- A student with an id AND a name:

```
struct student {
    int id;
    struct {
        char firstName[20];
        char lastName[20];
    } name;
};
```

- A student with an id XOR a name:

```
union student {
    int id;
    struct {
        char firstName[20];
        char lastName[20];
    } name;
};
```



# Structs vs. Classes

- struct in C:
  - Only data, no behaviour, no inheritance
- struct in C++:
  - May include behaviour (*methods*)
  - Even inheritance works
  - Only difference to classes is basically the default access to and inheritance of members
    - public for structs
    - private for classes
- class in C++/Java:
  - Data (*fields*) and behaviour (*methods*)
  - Blueprint from which instances (*objects*) can be created at run-time
  - Offers inheritance and polymorphism

# Appendix: Inheritance in C++

- C++ classes can have inheritance relationships just like in Java

```
class A {  
public:  
    int getData() {  
        return 1;  
    }  
};
```

```
class B : public A {  
public:  
    double getDataC() {  
        return 3.14;  
    }  
};
```

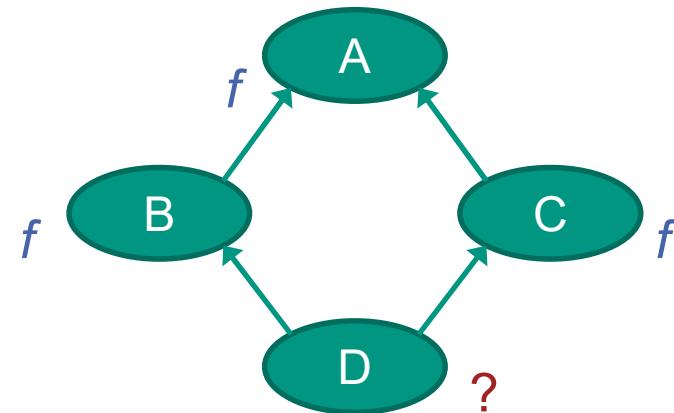
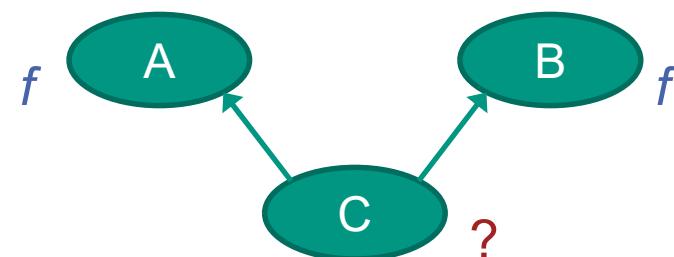
*like extends in Java*

- C++ also allows for multiple inheritance
  - May cause ambiguities if methods of multiple inherited classes have the same signature
  - Is not relevant in this lecture (cf. Appendix for more detailed information)

# Appendix: Multiple Inheritance

- C++ classes allow for multiple inheritance
  - This may cause ambiguities

- Inheritance of two features with the same name
- Multiple inheritance of the same feature (*diamond inheritance*)



# Appendix: Inheritance of Identical Features

- Two features with equal name: use scope resolution operator (`:::`)

```
class A {  
public:  
    int getData() {  
        return 1;  
    }  
};
```

```
class B {  
public:  
    char getData() {  
        return 'a';  
    }  
};
```

```
class C : public A, public B {  
public:  
    double getDataC() {  
        return 3.14;  
    }  
};
```

*like extends in Java*

```
int main() {  
    C myC; automatically calls default constructor  
    int i = myC.A::getData(); /* identify feature using scope  
                                resolution operator */  
  
    char c = myC.B::getData(); /* identify feature using scope  
                                resolution operator */  
  
    double d = myC.getDataC();  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Appendix: Diamond Inheritance

- Diamond inheritance must use **virtual** base classes
  - Avoids two sub objects in inherited class (D)
  - Must already be considered when designing intermediate classes
    - i.e. B and C

```
class A {  
public:  
    virtual int getData() {return 0;};  
};
```

```
class D : public B, public C {  
public:  
    int getData() {return B::getData();}  
};
```

```
int main() {  
    A *myA;  
    D myD;  
    myA = &myD; /* causes compile error without virtual base classes */  
    return (*myA).getData(); /* which member function is executed? */  
}
```

```
class B : virtual public A {  
public:  
    int getData() {return 1;}  
};
```

```
class C : virtual public A {  
public:  
    int getData() {return 2;}  
};
```

# Appendix: Default Implementations in Java

- Java does not allow multiple inheritance for classes
- Java 8 introduced default implementations of methods in interfaces
  - *Reason:* Extending an interface (i.e. adding a method) is problematic, as it breaks all classes that implement the interface
  - *Solution:* Allow to add a methods with default implementations, adding the default-Keyword and a method body

```
interface A {  
    int existingMethod();  
    default int newMethod() {  
        int i;  
        // calculation of i  
        return i;  
    }  
}
```

```
class C implements A {  
    public int existingMethod() {  
        return 0;  
    }  
}
```

# Appendix: Default Implementation Pitfalls

```
interface A {  
    int a();  
}
```

```
interface B {  
    default int a() {  
        return 1;  
    }  
}
```

```
class C  
    implements B {  
}
```

Compiles

*Compiler Error:* The default method `a()` inherited from `B` conflicts with another method inherited from `B`

```
interface A {  
    int a();  
}
```

```
interface B {  
    default int a() {  
        return 1;  
    }  
}
```

```
class C  
    implements A, B {  
}
```

Does not compile

This could also be an interface

```
interface A {  
    default int a() {  
        return 0;  
    }  
}
```

```
interface B {  
    default int a() {  
        return 1;  
    }  
}
```

```
class C  
    implements A, B {  
}
```

Does not compile

*Compiler Error:* Duplicate default methods named `a` with the parameters `()` and `()` are inherited from the types `A` and `B`



# Appendix: Default Implementation Pitfalls

```
interface A {  
    int a();  
}
```

```
interface B {  
    default int a() {  
        return 1;  
    }  
}
```

```
class C  
    implements B {  
}
```

Compiles

```
interface A {  
    int a();  
}
```

```
interface B {  
    default int a() {  
        return 1;  
    }  
}
```

```
class C  
    implements A, B {  
}
```

Does not compile

```
interface A {  
    default int a() {  
        return 0;  
    }  
}
```

```
interface B {  
    default int a() {  
        return 1;  
    }  
}
```

```
class C  
    implements A, B {  
}
```

Does not compile

- If at least two implemented interfaces declare a method and at least one them defines it, it must be overwritten in the implementing class

# Appendix: Multiple Inheritance in Java

- Resolving the compilation error:
  - Option 1: Manually overwrite method

```
class C implements A, B {  
    @Override  
    public int a() {  
        return 0;  
    }  
}
```

```
interface A {  
    default int a() {  
        return 0;  
    }  
}
```

- Option 2: Reuse existing method

```
class C implements A, B {  
    @Override  
    public int a() {  
        return A.super.a();  
    }  
}
```

Use a() of  
interface A

```
interface B {  
    default int a() {  
        return 1;  
    }  
}
```

- Default Implementations can (but should not) be used to mimic multiple inheritance in Java



# Appendix: Stack vs. Heap in C

## ■ Stack

- Realized as *Last In First Out* (LIFO)
- Automatic allocation / release of memory upon entering / leaving functions and blocks
- Attention: recursive function calls and / or „big“ function parameters can lead to stack overflow!

## ■ Heap

- Automatic allocation of global and static variables from their definition until end of program execution
- Explicit allocation / release of arbitrary-sized memory blocks upon request
- Attention: sequential memory requests do not necessarily lead to consecutively allocated memory blocks

# Appendix: Memory Management Example

```
#include <stdlib.h>

int i;          /* global variable - visible from here to end of file,
                  memory allocation on heap */
extern char c; /* global variable, memory allocation at place of definition */
static float f; /* global static variable - visible ONLY in this file */

void incr(int *ptr) {
    static int delta = 2; /* local static variable - visible in incr */
    *ptr += delta;
}

int main() {
    double d = 3.7; /* local variable - visible in main, allocated on stack */
    int *ptr;        /* local pointer variable - same as above */
    ptr = (int *)malloc(sizeof(int)); /* dynamic memory allocation on heap */
    free(ptr);      /* release of allocated memory on heap */
    return 0;
}
```

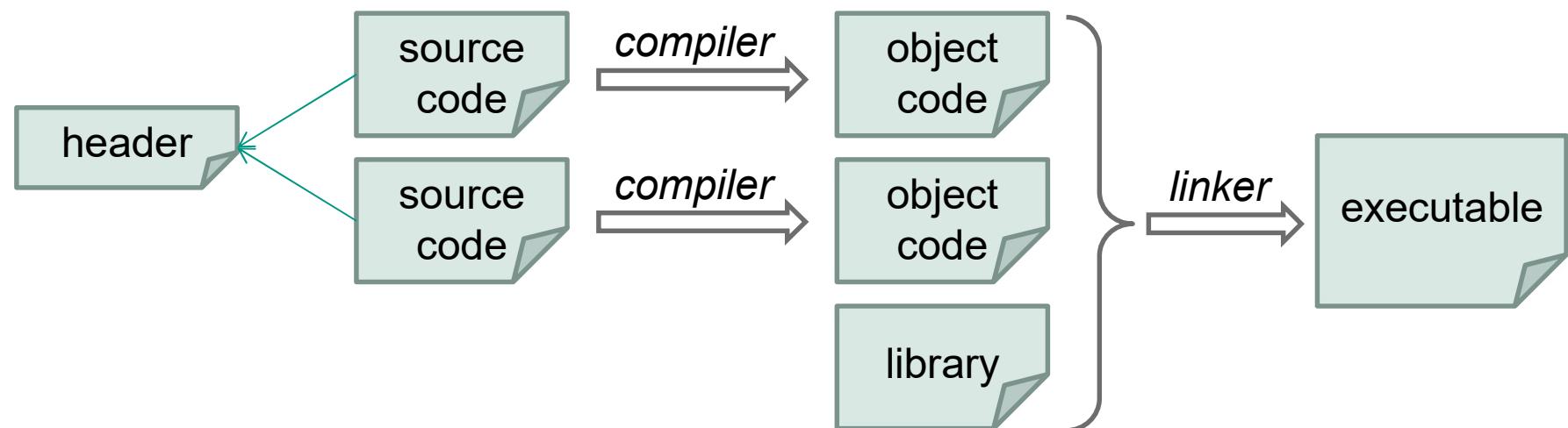
# Appendix: Compiling and Linking

## ■ Artefacts

- Source code files (including header files)
- Object code files (including libraries)
- Executable file

## ■ Tools

- Compiler
- Linker



# Appendix: Compiler and Linker Details

- Compiler
  - Compiles one source file into an object file:
    - extern declarations → undefined symbols
    - Global definitions → defined symbols
    - Local definitions → local symbols
  - Includes header files to allow for reusable forward declarations
- Linker
  - Combines object files (including libraries) into an executable
  - Resolves undefined symbols of individual object files
  - *Dynamic linking* allows for keeping undefined symbols in the executable and loading corresponding DLLs at run-time

# Appendix: Makefiles for Compiling/Linking

- Allow for automation of the build process
- Define targets for compiling and linking
- Keep track of dependencies between artefacts

```
CC = g++
FLAGS = -Wall -g
hafas.o: hafas.cc
    $(CC) -c hafas.cc $(FLAGS) -o hafas.o
dijkstra.o: dijkstra.cc
    $(CC) -c dijkstra.cc $(FLAGS) -o dijkstra.o
hafas: hafas.o dijkstra.o
    $(CC) hafas.o dijkstra.o $(FLAGS) -o hafas
```

[Wilhalm2004]

# Appendix: C++ References

- Only available in C++
- Represent an *alias* for a variable
- Declared using the reference modifier (&)
  - In contrast to a pointer it does not need to be dereferenced
- Must be defined together with the declaration
  - ... except in –
    - function parameters
    - return types of function calls
    - declarations with `extern` specifier
  - In other words, once a reference is created, all assignments only change the referenced value

# Appendix: C++ Special Keywords

- **asm**
  - C++ inline assembler
- **explicit**
  - prohibits automatic conversions
- **friend**
  - grants access to private and protected class members
- **inline**
  - function is directly inserted into calling code
- **mutable**
  - allows a data member of a const object to be modified
- **operator**
  - creates overloaded operator functions
- **virtual**
  - allows member functions to be overridden by a derived class

# Appendix: C++ Standard Template Library

- Standard Template Library (STL) [SGI1994]
  - Contains basic data structures and algorithms
  - Generic programming, parameterized classes
  - Based on *concepts* and *refinements*
- Concrete Contents
  - Containers (vector, list, set, map, ...)
  - Iterators (istream\_iterator, insert\_iterator, sequence\_buffer, ...)
  - Algorithms (find, count, search, copy, swap, replace, remove, sort, ...)
  - Other contents (function objects, utilities, memory allocation)