

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

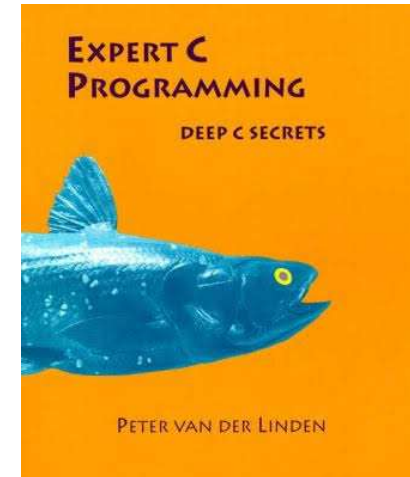
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Overview on Today's Lecture

■ 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

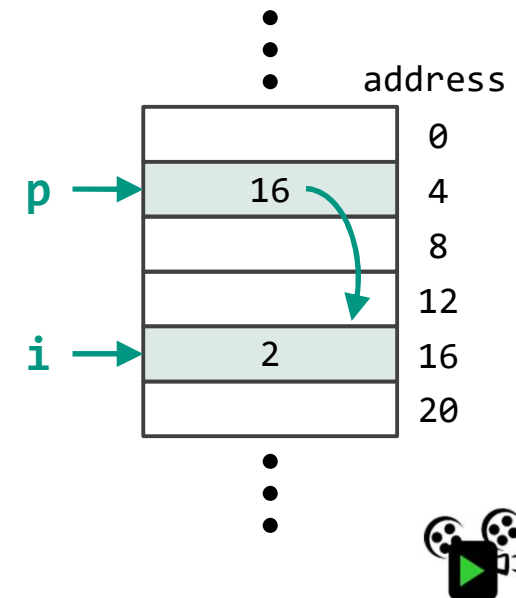
- Data types: `void`, `int`, `float`, `double`, `char`, `enum`
- Modifiers: `short`, `long`, `signed`, `unsigned`
- Actual sizes and ranges of data types are platform-dependent
- Arrays: indicated by `[]`
- Boolean values
 - C: `int = 0` for *false*; `int ≠ 0` for *true*
 - C++: `bool`
- Strings
 - C: `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

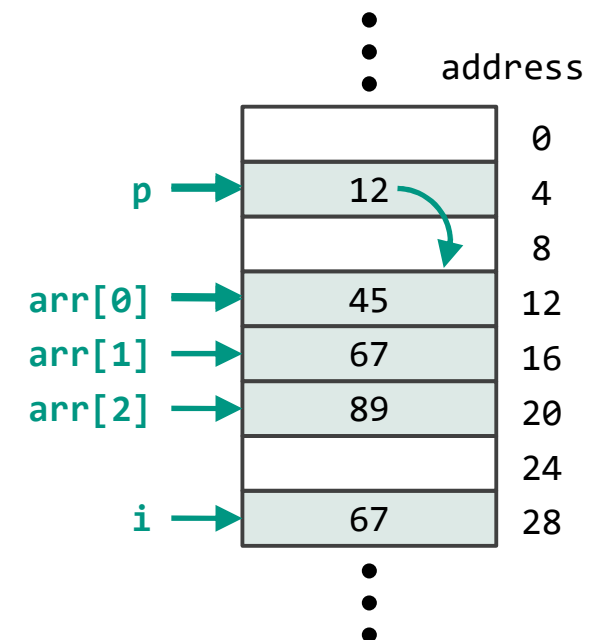
```

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;
}

```



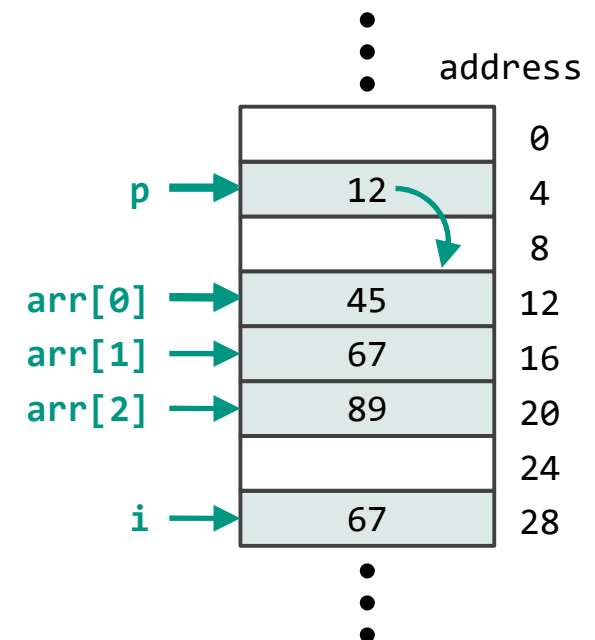
Pointers and Arrays (2)

- 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 }; /* arr decays to &arr[0] */  
    incr(arr, 3);  
    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;  
foo(2);
```

fetch address of my_int_function

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"> • for const say “read-only” • for volatile say “volatile” • for * say “pointer to” → keep reading tokens to the left, until it’s not one of these three, then goto step 4
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

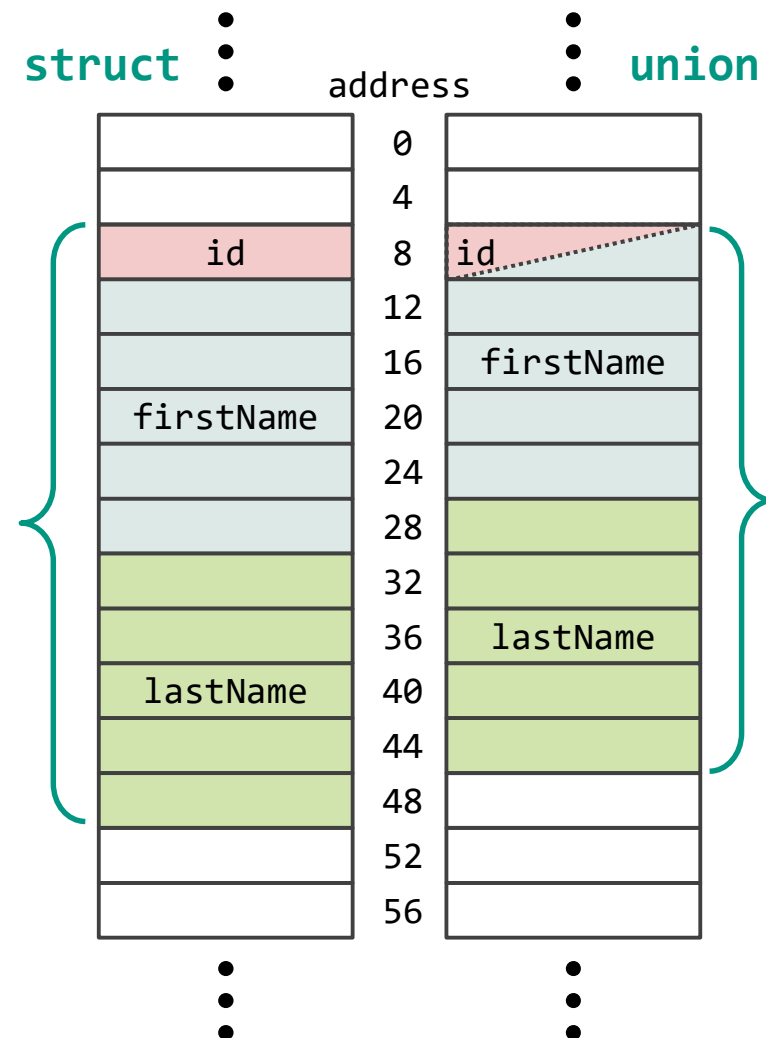
Appendix: Structs vs. Unions

- 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;  
        }  
};
```

like extends in Java

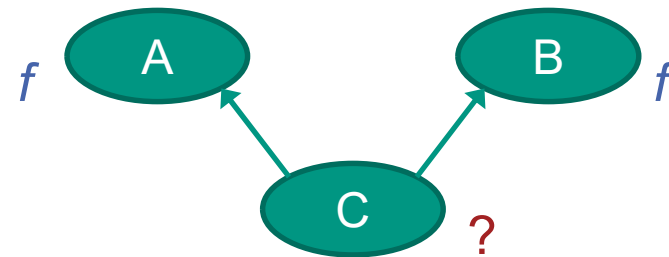
```
class B : public A {  
    public:  
        double getDataC() {  
            return 3.14;  
        }  
};
```

- 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)

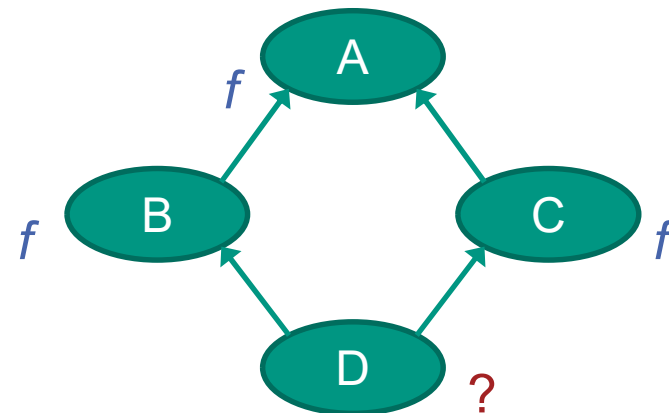
Appendix: Multiple Inheritance

- 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';  
        }  
};
```

like extends in Java

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

automatically calls default constructor

```
int main() {  
    C myC;   
    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;};  
};
```

← basically allows overriding at runtime

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

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

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

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

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 A {  
    int a();  
}
```

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

This could also
be an interface

Compiles

Compiler Error: The default method `a()` inherited from `B` conflicts with another method inherited from `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 A {  
    int a();  
}
```

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Compiles

Does not compile

Does not compile

- If at least two implemented interfaces declare a method and at least one of 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;
}
```

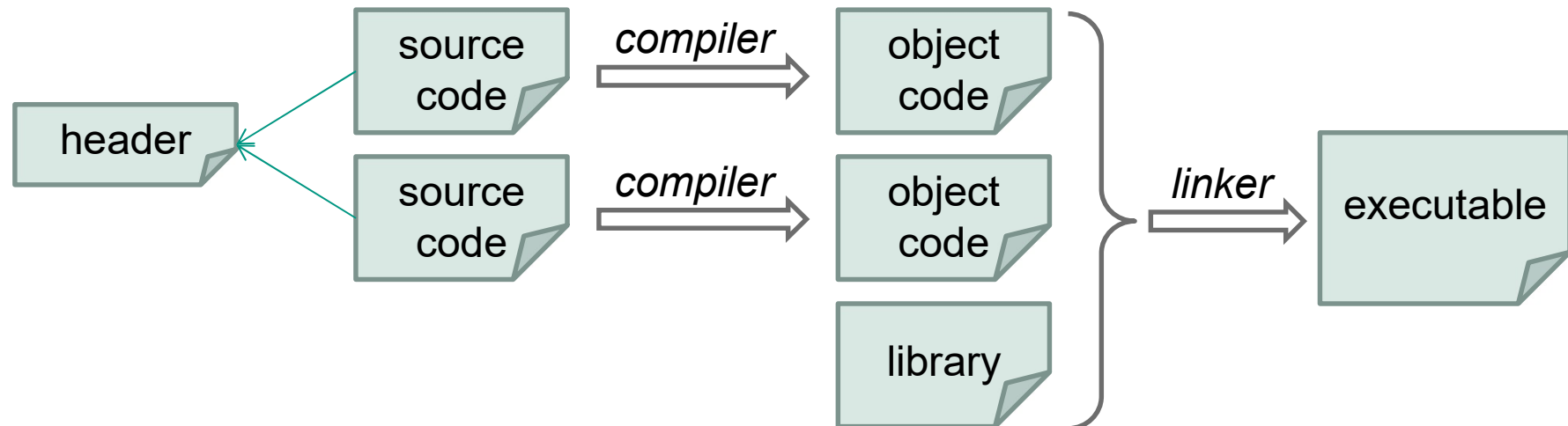

Appendix: Compiling and Linking

■ 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)