

C++

HS2021

Marco Agostini

Computer Science
University of Applied Sciences of Eastern Switzerland
September 2021

Inhaltsverzeichnis

1	Introduction	3
1.1	Why C++?	3
1.2	Undefined Behaviour	3
1.3	C++ Compilation Process	3
1.4	Declarations and Definitions	3
2	Values and Streams	4
2.1	Variable Definitions	4
2.2	Values and Expressions	4
2.3	Strings	5
2.4	Input and Output Streams	5
3	Sequences and Iterators	7
3.1	Introduction to <code>std::array<T, N></code> and <code>std::vector<T></code>	7
3.2	Iteration	8
3.3	Using Iterators with Algorithms	8
3.4	Iterators for I/O	9
4	Functions and Exceptions	10
4.1	Function Parameter Declarations	10
4.2	Function Overloading and Default Arguments	10
4.3	Lambda Function	10
4.4	Failing Functions	11
4.5	Exceptions	11
5	Classes and Operators	13
5.1	Classes	13
5.2	Inheritance	14
5.3	Operator Overloading	14
6	Enums and Namespaces	16

1 Introduction

1.1 Why C++?

- Work al almost all platforms from a micro controller to the main frame
- Multi-paradigm language with zero-cost abstraction
- High-level abstraction facilities
- The concepts from C++ can mostly be applied to any other programming language

1.2 Undefined Behaviour

The undefined behaviour is defined in the C++ standard (funny, isn't it?). C++ has no garbage collector. If in C++ something is written wrong and the compiler doesn't detect it: undefined behaviour can occur.

1.3 C++ Compilation Process

*.cpp files for source code

- Also called "Implementation File"
- Function implementations (can be in .h files as well)
- Source of compilation - aka Translation Unit"

*.h files for interfaces and templates

- Called "Header File"
- Declarations and definitions to be used in other implementation files.
- Textual inclusion through a pre-processor (C++20 will incorporate a Module mechanism)
- `#include "header.h"`

3 Phases of Compilation

- **Preprocessor** – Textual replacement of preprocessor directives (`#include`)
- **Compiler** – Translation of C++ code into machine code (source file to object file)
- **Linker** - Combination of object files and libraries into libraries and executables

1.4 Declarations and Definitions

All things with a name that you use in a C++ program must be declared before you can do so!

Defining Functions

*< return – type > < function – name > (< parameters >){ / * body * / }*

Tells the compiler that there is a function named *< function – name >* that takes the parameters *< parameters >* and returns a value of type *< return – type >*. The Signature of a function is just the combination of name and the parameter types.

One Definition Rule

While a program element can be declared several times without problem there can be only one definition of it. (ODR = One Definition Rule)

Include Guard

Include guards ensure that a header file is only included once. Multiple inclusions could violate the One Definition Rule when the header contains definitions.

```
1 #ifndef SAYHELLO_H_
2 #define SAYHELLO_H_
3 #include <iosfwd>
4 struct Greeter {
5 };
6 #endif /* SAYHELLO_H_ */
```

2 Values and Streams

2.1 Variable Definitions

Defining a variable consists of specifying its `<type>`, its `<variable-name>` and its `<initial value>`. Empty braces mean default initialisation. Using `=` for initialisation we can have the compiler determine its type (do not combine with braces!).

`< type > < variable - name > < initial - value >;`

Constants

Adding the `const` keyword in front of the name makes the variable a single-assignment variable, aka a constant. A `const` must be initialised and is immutable.

When should `const` be used?

- A lot of code needs names for values, but often does not intend to change it
- It helps to avoid reusing the same variable for different purposes (code smell)
- It creates safer code, because a `const` variable cannot be inadvertently changed
- It makes reasoning about code easier
- Constness is checked by the compiler
- It improves optimization and parallelization (shared mutable state is dangerous)

Where to place Variable definition?

Do not practice to define all (potentially) needed variables up front (that style is long obsolete!). Every mutable global variable you define is a design error!

A Note on Naming

The C++ convention is to begin variable names with a lower case letter. Spell out what the variable is for and do not abbreviate!

Types for Variables

Are part of the language and don't need an include.

- `short`, `int`, `long`, `long long` – each also available as unsigned version
- `bool`, `char`, unsigned `char`, signed `char` - are treated as integral numbers as well
- `float`, `double`, `long double`

2.2 Values and Expressions

C++ provides automatic type conversion if values of different types are combined in an expression. Dividing integers by zero is undefined behavior.

Literal Example	Type	Value
'a'	char	Letter a, value: 97
'\n'	char	<NL> character, value: 10
'\x0a'	char	<NL> character, value: 10
1	int	1
42L	long (preferred)	42
5LL	long long	5
int{} (not really a literal)	int	0 (default value)
1u	unsigned int	1
42ul	unsigned long	42
5ull	unsigned long long	5
020	int	16 (octal 20)
0x1f	int	31 (hex 1F)
0xFULL	unsigned long long	15 (hex F)
0.f	float	0
.33	double	0.33
1e9	double	1000000000 (10 ⁹)
42.E-12L	long double	0.000000000042 (42*10 ⁻¹²)
.3l	long double	0.3
"hello" (n+1)	char const [6]	Array of 6 chars: h e l l o <NUL>
"\012\n\\"	char const [4]	Array of 4 chars: <NL> <NL> \ <NUL>

```
1 (5 + 10 * 3 - 6 / 2) // precedence as in normal mathematics = 32
2 auto x = 3; / 3 // Fractions results of int operations always rundet down! 1
3 auto y = x%2 ? 1 : 0; // int to boolean conversion 0=false, all other are
  true. = 1
```

2.3 Strings

`std::string` is C++'s type for representing sequences of `char` (which is often only 8 bit). These strings are mutable in C++ in contrast to Java. Literals like `äbäre` are not of type `std::string` they consist of `const char`s in a null terminated array.

To have a `std::string` we need to append an `s`. This requires using namespace `std::literals`;

```
1 void printName(std::string name) {
2     using namespace std::literals;
3     std::cout << "my name is: "s << name;
4 }
```

String Capabilities

You can iterate over the contents of a string.

```
1 void toUpper(std::string & value) {
2     for (char & c : value) {
3         c = toupper(c);
4     }
5 }
```

2.4 Input and Output Streams

Functions taking a stream object must take it as a reference, because they provide a side-effect to the stream (i.e., output characters).

Simple I/O Stream objects provide C++'s I/O mechanism with the help of the pre-defined globals: `std::cin` `std::cout`. Should only be used in the main function! Streams have a state that denotes if I/O was successful or not.

- Only `.good()` streams actually do I/O
- You need to `.clear()` the state in case of an error
- Reading a `std::string` can not go wrong, unless the stream is already `!good()`.

Reading a `std::string` Value

```
1 #include <iostream>
2 #include <string>
3 std::string inputName(std::istream & in) {
4     std::string name{};
5     in >> name;
6     return name;
7 }
```

Reading an `int` Value

```
1 int inputAge(std::istream& in) {
2     int age{-1};
3     if (in >> age) { // Boolean conversion
4         return age;
5     }
6     return -1;
7 }
```

Chaining Input Operations

- Multiple subsequent reads are possible
- If a previous read already failed, subsequent reads fail as well

```
1 std::string readSymbols(std::istream& in) {
2     char symbol{};
3     int count{-1};
4     if (in >> symbol >> count) {
5         return std::string(count, symbol);
6     }
7 }
```

```
7     return "error";  
8 }
```

Stream States

Formatted input on stream is must check for `is.fail()` and `is.bad()`. If failed, `is.clear()` the stream and consume invalid input characters before continue.

State Bit Set	Query	Entered
<none>	<code>is.good()</code>	initial <code>is.clear()</code>
failbit	<code>is.fail()</code>	formatted input failed
eofbit	<code>is.eof()</code>	trying to read at end of input
badbit	<code>is.bad()</code>	unrecoverable I/O error

Headers

As a general advise the most matching include should be used.

- *iosfwd* contains only the declarations for `std::ostream` and `std::istream`. This is sufficient for function declarations.
- *istream* and *ostream* contain the implementation of the corresponding stream, operators.
- *iostream* contains all of the above and additionally `std::cout`, `std::cin`, `std::cerr`. This is only required in the source file containing the `main()` function, because only there the global standard IO variables shall be used

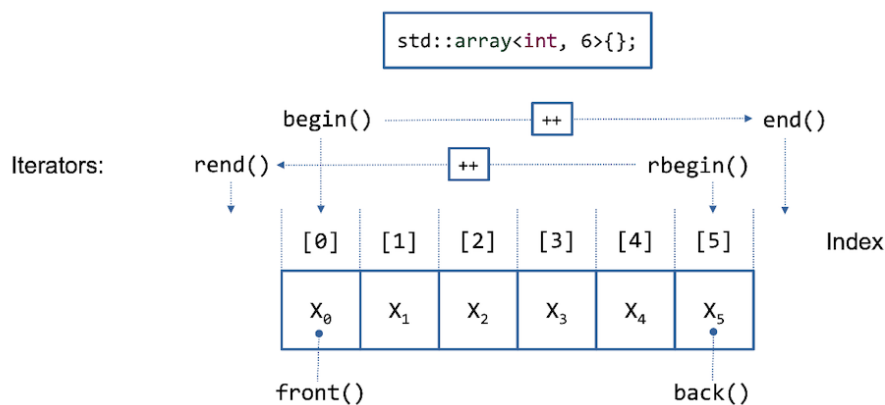
3 Sequences and Iterators

3.1 Introduction to `std::array<T, N>` and `std::vector<T>`

Array

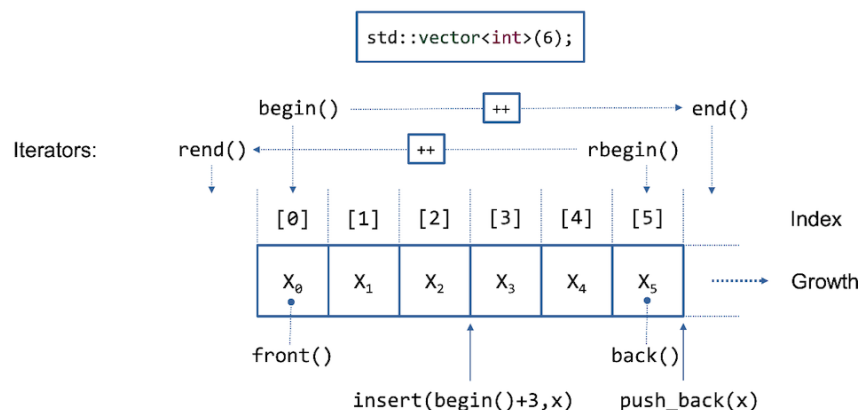
C++'s `std::array<T, N>` is a fixed-size Container. `T` is a template type parameter (= placeholder for type). `N` is a positive integer, template non-type parameter (= placeholder for a value). Elements can be accessed with a subscript operator `[]` or `at()`. The size is bound to the array object and can be queried using `.size()`. Avoid plain C-Array whenever possible: `int arr[1, 2, 3, 4, 5];`

- `at()` throws an exception on invalid index access
- `[]` has undefined behavior on invalid index access Behavior
- The size of an array must be known at compile-time and cannot be changed. Otherwise it contains `N` default-constructed elements: `std::array<int, 5> emptyArray;`



Vector

C++'s `std::vector<T>` is a Container = contains its elements of type `T` (no need to allocate them). `java.util.ArrayList<T>` is a collection = keeps references to `T` objects (must be "new"ed). `T` is a template type parameter (= placeholder for type). `std::vector` can be initialized with a list of elements. Otherwise it is empty: `std::vector<double> vd;`



Append Elements to an `std::vector<T>`

- `v.push_back(<value>);`
- `v.insert(<iterator - position>, <value>);`

Filling a Vector with Values

```
1 std::vector<int> v{};
2 v.resize(10);
3 std::fill(std::begin(v), std::end(v), 2);
4
5 std::vector<int> v(10);
```

```

6 std::fill(std::begin(v), std::end(v), 2);
7
8 std::vector v(10, 2);
9
10 // Filling increased values with iota
11 std::vector<int> v(100); std::iota(std::begin(v), std::end(v), 1);

```

Finding and counting elements of a vector

`std::find()` and `std::find_if()` return an iterator to the first element that matches the value or condition.

```

1 auto zero_it = std::find(std::begin(v), std::end(v), 0); if (zero_it == std
  ::end(v)) {
2 std::cout << "no zero found \n"; }
3

```

3.2 Iteration

Its possible to index a vector like an array but there is no bounds check. Accessing an element outside the valid range is Undefined Behavior.

Bad Style Iteration!

```

1 for (size_t i = 0; i < v.size(); ++i) { //Index is "unsigned" 0-1=MAX_INT
2   std::cout << "v[" << i << "] = " << v[i] << '\n'; }
3 }

```

Elemt Iteration (Range-Based for)

- Advantage: No index error possible
- Works with all containers, even value lists 1, 2, 3

	const: • element cannot be changed	non-const: • element can be changed
reference: • element in vector is accessed	<pre>for (auto const & cref : v) { std::cout << cref << '\n'; }</pre>	<pre>for (auto & ref : v) { ref *= 2; }</pre>
copy: • loop has own copy of the element	<pre>for (auto const ccopy : v) { std::cout << ccopy << '\n'; }</pre>	<pre>for (auto copy : v) { copy *= 2; std::cout << copy << '\n'; }</pre>

Iteration with Iterators

```

1 for (auto it = std::begin(v); it != std::end(v); ++it) {
2   std::cout << (*it)++ << ", ";
3 }
4 // Guarantee to just have read-only access with std::cbegin() and std::cend
  ()
5 for (auto it = std::cbegin(v); it != std::cend(v); ++it) {
6   std::cout << *it << ", ";
7 }

```

3.3 Using Iterators with Algorithms

Each algorithm takes iterator arguments. The algorithm does what its name tells us.

```

1 // Counting blanks in a string
2 size_t count_blanks(std::string s) {
3   size_t count{0};

```



```

4   for (size_t = 0; i < s.size(); ++i) {
5       if (s[i] == ' ') {
6           ++count;
7       }
8   }
9   return count;
10 }
11
12 // Counting blanks in a string with algorithms
13 size_t count_blanks(std::string s) {
14     return std::count(s.begin(), s.end(), ' ');
15 }
16
17 // Summing up all values in a vector
18 std::vector<int> v{5, 4, 3, 2, 1};
19 std::cout << std::accumulate(std::begin(v), std::end(v), 0) << " = sum\n";
20
21 // Number of elements in range
22 void printDistanceAndLength(std::string s) {
23     std::cout << "distance: " << std::distance(s.begin(), s.end()) << '\n';
24     std::cout << "in a string of length: " << s.size() << '\n';
25 }
26
27 // Printing all values of a vector
28 void printAll(std::vector<int> v) {
29     std::for_each(std::cbegin(v), std::cend(v), print);
30 }
31
32 // For each with a Lambda
33 void printAll(std::vector<int> v, std::ostream & out) {
34     std::for_each(std::cbegin(v), std::cend(v), [&out](auto x) {
35         out << "print: " << x << '\n';
36     });
37 }

```

3.4 Iterators for I/O

Iterators connect streams and algorithms. Streams (`std::istream` and `std::ostream`) cannot be used with algorithms directly.

- `std::ostream_iterator<T>` outputs values of type `T` to the given `std::ostream`
 - No `end()` marker needed for output, it ends when the input range ends.
- `std::istream_iterator<T>` reads values of type `T` from the given `std::istream`
 - End iterator is the default constructed `std::istream_iterator<T>`
 - It ends when the stream is no longer good().

4 Functions and Exceptions

4.1 Function Parameter Declarations

Parameter Declarations

	const: <ul style="list-style-type: none">Parameter cannot be changed	non-const: <ul style="list-style-type: none">Parameter can be changed
reference: <ul style="list-style-type: none">Argument on call-site is accessed	<pre>void f(std::string const & s) { //no modification //efficient for large objects }</pre>	<pre>void f(std::string & s) { //modification possible //side-effect also at call-site }</pre>
copy: <ul style="list-style-type: none">Function has its own copy of the parameter	<pre>void f(std::string const s) { //no modification //used for maximum constness }</pre>	<pre>void f(std::string s) { //modification possible //side-effect only locally }</pre>

- Value Parameter - Default `void f(type par);`
- Reference Parameter - site-effect `void f(type & par);`
- Const-Reference Parameter - optimisation `void f(type const & par);`
- Const Value Parameter - Prevent changing the para `void f(type const par);`

Function Return Type

- By (Const) Value - default type `f();` or type `const f();`
- By Reference - Only return a reference parameter (or a call member variable from a member function) `type & f();` or type `const & f();`

4.2 Function Overloading and Default Arguments

Function Overloading

The same function name can be used for different functions if parameter number or types differ. Function can not be overloaded just by their return type! If only the parameter type is different there might be ambiguities. The resolution of overloads happens at compile-time = Ad hoc polymorphism.

Default Arguments

A function declaration can provide default arguments for its parameters *from the right*.

```
1 void incr(int & var, unsigned delta = 1);  
2 // Default arguments can be omitted when calling the function  
3 int counter {0};  
4 incr(counter); // uses default for delta
```

Functions as Parameters

Functions are first class objects in C++. You can pass them as argument and you can keep them in reference variables.

Caution! Call Sequence!

Statements are sequenced by ; (semicolon). Within a single expression, such as a function call, sequence of evaluation is undefined!

4.3 Lambda Function

Defining inline functions. Auto const for function variable for Lambda. `[]` introduces a Lambda function. Can contain captures: `[=]` or `[&]` to access variables from scope.

```
1 auto const g = [] (char c) -> {  
2     return std::toupper(c);  
3 };  
4 g('a');
```

Lambda Capture Examples

- Capturing a local variable by value
 - Local copy lives as long as the lambda lives
 - Local copy is immutable, unless lambda is declared as mutable
- Capturing a local variable by reference
 - Allows modification of the captured variable
 - Side-effect is visible in the surrounding scope, but referenced variable must live at least as long as the lambda lives.

```

1 // Capturing by value
2 int x = 5;
3 auto l = [x]() mutable {
4     std::cout << ++x;
5 };
6 // Capturing by reference
7 auto const l = [&x]() {
8     std::cout << ++x;
9 };

```

4.4 Failing Functions

What should we do, if a function cannot fulfil its purpose?

1. Ignore the error and provide potentially undefined behaviour
2. Return a standard result to cover the error
3. Return an error code or error value
4. Provide an error status as a side-effect
5. Throw an Exception

Ignore the Error

- Relies on the caller to satisfy all preconditions.
- Viable only if not dependent on other resources.
- Most efficient implementation.
- Simple for the implementer but hard for the caller.

Error Value

- Only feasible if result domains is smaller than return type
- POSIX defines -1 to mark failure of system calls
- Burden on the caller to check the result

Cover the Error with a Standard Result

- Reliefs the caller from the need to care if it can continue with the default value
- Can hide underlying problems.
- Often better if caller can specify its own default value.

Cover the Error with a Standard Result

- Requires reference parameter
- (Bad!) Alternative: global variable (POSIX: errno)
- E.g: std::istream's states (good(), fail()) is changed as a side-effect of input

4.5 Exceptions

An exception can throw any copyable type. No means to specify what could be thrown. No check if you catch an exception that might be thrown at call-site. No meta-information is available as part of the exception. Exception thrown while exception is propagated results in a program abort (not while caught).

Catching Exceptions

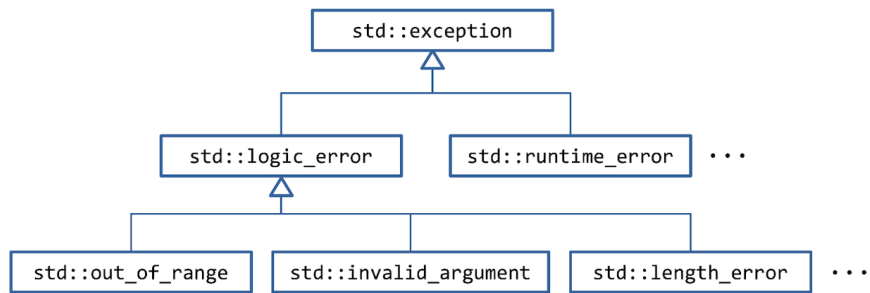
Principle: Throw by value, catch by const reference. This avoids unnecessary copying and allows dynamic polymorphism for class types.

```

1 try {
2     throwingCall();
3 } catch (type const & e) {
4     //Handle type exception
5 } catch (type2 const & e) {
6     //Handle type2 exception
7 } catch (...) {
8     //Handle other exception types
9 }

```

The Standard Library has some pre-defined exception types that you can also use in `<stdexcept>`. All have a constructor parameter for the reason of type `std::string`. It provides the `what()` member function to obtain the reason"



Keyword **noexcept**

Functions can be declared to explicitly not throw an exception with the `noexcept` keyword. The compiler does not need to check it. If an exception is thrown (directly or indirectly) from a `noexcept` function the program will terminate.

5 Classes and Operators

5.1 Classes

Does one thing and is well named after that. Consists of member functions with only a few lines. Has a class invariant: provides guarantee about its state (values of the member variables). Constructors establish that invariant. Is easy to use without complicated protocol sequence requirements.

A class is usually defined in a header file. At the end of a class definition a semicolon is required.

Class Head

Keywords for defining a class: class or struct. Default visibility for members of the class are: private for class and public for struct.

Access Specifier

- private: visible only inside the class (and friends); for hidden data members
- protected: also visible in subclasses
- public: visible from everywhere; for the interface of the class

Member Variables

Don't make member variables const as it prevents copy assignment. Don't add members to communicate between member function calls.

Static Member Functions and Variables

No *static* in *.cpp file only in *.h file!

Constructors

Function with name of the class and no return type.

- Default Constructor - No parameters. Implicitly available if there are no other explicit constructors. Has to initialize member variables with default values.
- Copy Constructor - Has one <own-type> const & parameter. Implicitly available (unless there is an explicit move constructor or assignment operator). Copies all member variables.
- Move Constructor - Has one <own-type> && parameter. Implicitly available (unless there is an explicit copy constructor or assignment operator). Moves all members
- Typeconversion Constructor - Has one <other-type> const & parameter. Converts the input type if possible. Declare explicit to avoid unexpected conversions.
- _INITIALIZER List Constructor - Has one std::initializer_list parameter. Does not need to be explicit, implicit conversion is usually desired._INITIALIZER List constructors are preferred if a variable is initialized with { }
- Destructor - Named like the default constructor but with a ~. Must release all resources. Implicitly available. Must not throw an exception. Called automatically at the end of the block for local instances.

```
1 // File: date.h
2 #ifndef DATE_H_
3 #define DATE_H_
4 class Date { // HEAD
5     int year, month, day; // MEMBER VARIABLES
6 public:
7     Date(int year, int month, int day) // CONSTRUCTOR
8     : year{year}, month{month}, day{day} { /*...*/ }
9     static bool isLeapYear(int year) { /*...*/ }
10 private:
11     bool isValidDate() const { /*...*/ };
12 #endif /* DATE_H_ */
```

```
1 class Date {
2 public:
3     Date(int year, int month, int day);
4     Date(); // Default-Constructor
5     Date() = default; // explicit Default-Constructor
6     Date(Date const &); // Copy-Constructor
7     Date(Date &&); // Move-Constructor
8     explicit Date(std::string const &); // Typeconversion-Constructor
```

```

9     Date(std::initializer_list<Element> elements); // Initializer List-
    Constructor
10     ~Date(); // Destructor
11     Date(Date const &) = delete; // delete implicit Copy-Constructor
12 };

```

5.2 Inheritance

Base classes are specified after the name: *class < name >:< base1 >, ..., < baseN >*. Multiple inheritance is possible and inheritance can specify visibility. If no visibility is specified the default of the inheriting class is used.

```

1  class Base {
2  private:
3      int onlyInBase;
4  protected:
5      int baseAndInSubclasses;
6  public:
7      int everyoneCanFiddleWithMe
8  };
9  class Sub : public Base {
10     //Can see baseAndInSubclasses and
11     //everyoneCanFiddleWithMe
12 };

```

5.3 Operator Overloading

Custom operators can be overloaded for user-defined types. Declared like a function, with a special name: *<returntype> operator op(<parameters>);*. Unary operators -> one parameters and binary operators -> two parameters.

Free Operator

Free operator< uses two parameters of *Date* each *const &* return type *bool*. Is inline when defined in header. The only problem we have is that we don't have access to private members.

```

1  // File Any.cpp
2  #include "Date.h" Any.cpp
3  #include <iostream>
4  void foo() {
5      std::cout << Date::myBirthday;
6      Date d{};
7      std::cin >> d;
8      std::cout << "is d older? " << (d < Date::myBirthday);
9  }
10
11 // File Date.h
12 class Date {
13     int year, month, day; // private :-(
14 };
15 inline bool operator<(Date const & lhs, Date const & rhs) {
16     return lhs.year < rhs.year || // Does not WORK!
17     (lhs.year == rhs.year && (lhs.month < rhs.month ||
18     (lhs.month == rhs.month && lhs.day == rhs.day)));
19 }

```

Member Operator

Member operator< uses one parameter of type *Date*, which is *const&*, return type *bool* and Right-hand side of operation. Implicit this object: *const* due to qualifier, left-hand side of operation.

```

1  // File Any.cpp
2  #include "Date.h"

```

```

3 #include <iostream>
4 void foo() {
5     std::cout << Date::myBirthday;
6     Date d{};
7     std::cin >> d;
8     std::cout << "is d older? " << (d < Date::myBirthday);
9 }
10 // File Date.h
11 class Date {
12     int year, month, day; // private :-)
13     bool operator<(Date const & rhs) const {
14         return year < rhs.year ||
15             (year == rhs.year && (month < rhs.month ||
16             (month == rhs.month && day == rhs.day)));
17     }
18 };

```

6 Enums and Namespaces