CSE 1325

Week of 09/07/2020

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Uniform Initialization

Unsafe Conversions

C++ allows for (implicit) unsafe conversions.

unsafe = a value can be implicitly turned into a value of another type that does not equal the original value

```
int IntVar1 = 32112;
char CharVarA = IntVar1;
int IntVar2 = CharVarA;
```



Uniform Initialization

Unsafe Conversions

To be warned against these unsafe conversions, use the uniform initialization format

```
int IntVar1 {32112};
char CharVarA {IntVar1};
int IntVar2 {CharVarA};
```







Uniform Initialization

Additional Notes about Uniform Initialization

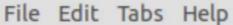
Type bool can be initialized with UI

```
bool b1 {true};
bool b2 {false};
bool b3 {!true};
bool b4 {!false};
```

A function can be called that returns a value inside the {}

Use empty braces {} to initialize a variable to 0.





```
student@csel325:/media/sf_VM$ more uui3Demo.cpp
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int getValueFromUser()
        cout << "Enter an integer: ";
        int input{};
        cin >> input;
        return input;
int main()
        int num {getValueFromUser()};
        cout << num << " doubled is: " << num * 2 << '\n';
        return 0;
student@cse1325:/media/sf_VM$
```

DRY vs WET Coding

DRY Don't Repeat Yourself

Advantages

Maintainability

Readability

Reuse

Cost

Testing

WET
Write Everything Twice
We Enjoy Typing

Advantages

NONE



Abstraction

In order to use a function, you only need to know its name, inputs, outputs, and where it lives.

You don't need to know how it works, or what other code it's dependent upon to use it.

This lowers the amount of knowledge required to use other people's code (including everything in the standard library).

Required Formatting of Code

The opening brace for a function should be given its own line and the closing brace should line up with the opening brace. Any code lines within the braces should be indented the same amount which must be between 3 and 5 spaces.

```
int main()
{
    my first line
    my second line
    my third line
}
```

Just like the Java and C, a string is a collection of sequential characters.

C++ has a string type. Just like the Java, string is actually an object; therefore, knows things and can do things. This will make more sense once we start talking about classes and member functions.

To use string include the string header file.

#include <string>

As we did with cin and cout, we can either put

using namespace std

in our .cpp file and not need to preface string with std:: or we can not use the std namespace and need to use std::string.

```
std::string MyString;
string MyString;
```

Declaring and initializing a string in one line

```
string MyString("Silly"); constructing
```

A string can also be declared and then assigned a value

```
string MyString;
MyString = "Silly";
assignment
```

We've already seen the example where cin stops reading at whitespace (just like scanf()).

```
string first_name, last_name, full_name;

cout << "Hello!\n" << endl;

cout << "What is your name? (Enter your first name and last name) " << endl;

cin >> first_name >> last_name;

cout << "Hello " << first_name << ' ' << last_name << endl;</pre>
```

What if we need to read a line of input including the whitespace into a single variable?

For example, what if I wanted to take whatever name was entered and only store it in one variable?

```
string full_name;

cout << "Hello!\n" << endl;

cout << "What is your name? " << endl;

cin >> full_name;

cout << "Hello " << full_name << endl;</pre>
```

```
If I type
Fred Flintstone
at the prompt, what will print?
```

getline() is the C++ version of fgets() from C. It takes two parameters just like fgets().

The first parameter is the stream to read from – when reading from the screen use cin.

The second parameter is string variable where you want to store the input.

```
string full_name;

cout << "Hello!\n" << endl;

cout << "What is your name? " << endl;

getline(cin, full_name);

cout << "Hello " << full_name << endl;</pre>
```

```
Hello!
What is your name?
Fred Flintstone
Hello Fred Flintstone
```

Mixing cin with getline() can cause issues

cin leaves the newline (\n) in the standard input buffer.

```
10     cin >> dog_name;
(gdb)
What is your dog's name? Dino
11     cout << "Hi " << dog_name << endl;
(gdb) p *stdin
$1 = {_flags = -72539512, _IO_read_ptr = 0x55555576928} ("\n",)</pre>
```

Which getline() then reads and uses; therefore, not prompting for more input.

We can use

```
cin.iqnore(50, \n');
```

This function discards the specified number of characters or fewer characters if the delimiter is encountered in the input stream.

Puts a null at the end of the buffer and throws out the newline

New keywords in C++

const

Used to inform the compiler that the value of a particular variable should not be modified.

If a value does not (or should not) change in the body of a function to which it's passed, the parameter should be declared const.

const int counter = 1;

counter is an integer constant

New keywords in C++

const

const variables must be initialized when you define them and then that value can not be changed via assignment.

const variables can be initialized from other variables (including non-const ones).

We will use const with function parameters when we learn about passing by value in C++.

```
#include <iostream>
                                             #include <iostream>
                                             using namespace std;
using namespace std;
                                             int main()
int main()
                                               const int x;
  int x;
                                               x = 1;
                                               return 0;
  x = 1;
                                 constDemo.cpp: In function 'int main()':
                                 constDemo.cpp:7:12: error: uninitialized const 'x' [-fpermissive]
  return 0;
                                  const int x;
                                 constDemo.cpp:9:4: error: assignment of read-only variable 'x'
                                  x = 1;
                                 makefile:15: recipe for target 'constDemo.o' failed
                                 make: *** [constDemo.o] Error 1
```

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
                             constDemo.cpp: In function 'int main()':
                             constDemo.cpp:9:4: error: assignment of read-only variable 'x'
                              x = 1;
 const int x = 1;
                             makefile:15: recipe for target 'constDemo.o' failed
                             make: *** [constDemo.o] Error 1
 x = 1;
  return 0;
```

Passing Parameters to Functions

Two basic methods of passing parameters to functions

- pass by value
 - parameter is called *value parameter*
 - a copy is made of the current value of the parameter
 - operations in the function are done on the copy the original does not change
- pass by reference
 - parameter is called a *variable parameter*
 - the address of the parameter's storage location is known in the function
 - operations in the function are done directly on the parameter

Passing Parameters to Functions

In C

all parameters are passed by value

the ability to pass by reference does not exist

Pass by reference can be simulated

- pass the address of the variable
- address cannot be modified
- contents of address can be modified

Review from 1320

```
int main(void)
 int MyMainNum = 0;
 printf("Before PassByValue call\tMyMainNum = %d\n", MyMainNum);
 PassByValue (MyMainNum);
 printf("After PassByValue call\tMyMainNum = %d\n", MyMainNum);
                            call\tMyMainNum = %d\n", MyMainNum);
 printf("Before PassByRef
 PassByRef(&MyMainNum);
                            call\tMyMainNum = %d\n", MyMainNum);
 printf("After PassByRef
 return 0;
```

A copy is passed

```
int PassByValue (int MyNum)
{
     MyNum += 100;
     printf("Inside PassByValue\tMyNum = %d\n", MyNum);
}
```

The address of the actual variable is passed

```
int PassByRef (int *MyNumPtr)
{
          *MyNumPtr += 100;
          printf("Inside PassByRef\tMyRefNum = %d\n", *MyNumPtr);
}
```

```
int MyMainNum = 0;
printf("Before PassByValue call\tMyMainNum = %d\n", MyMainNum);
PassByValue (MyMainNum);
printf("After PassByValue call\tMyMainNum = %d\n", MyMainNum);
int PassByValue(int MyNum)
    MyNum += 100;
    printf("Inside PassByValue\tMyNum = %d\n", MyNum);
Before PassByValue call MyMainNum = 0
Inside PassByValue MyNum = 100
After PassByValue call MyMainNum = 0
```

```
int MyMainNum = 0;
printf("Before PassByRef
                           call\tMyMainNum = %d\n", MyMainNum);
PassByRef(&MyMainNum);
                           call\tMyMainNum = %d\n", MyMainNum);
printf("After PassByRef
int PassByRef(int *MyNumPtr)
     *MyNumPtr += 100;
     printf("Inside PassByRef\tMyNumPtr = %d\n", *MyNumPtr);
Before PassByRef
                   call MyMainNum = 0
                        MyRefNum = 100
Inside PassByRef
                   call MyMainNum = 100
After PassByRef
```

Pass by Reference in C++

C++ has a specific syntax for passing by reference.

To indicate that a function parameter is passed by reference, follow the parameter's type in the function prototype by an ampersand (&); use the same convention when listing the parameter's type in the function header.

int& number

number is a reference to an int

```
int main(void)
  int MyMainNum = 0;
                                          call\tMyMainNum = " << MyMainNum << endl;</pre>
  cout << "Before PassByRefCPlusPlus</pre>
  PassByRefCPlusPlus (MyMainNum);
                                          call\tMyMainNum = " << MyMainNum << endl;</pre>
  cout << "After PassByRefCPlusPlus</pre>
  return 0;
                                   What happens if we remove the &?
int PassByRefCPlusPlus(int& MyNum)
  MyNum += 100;
  cout << "Inside PassByRefCPlusPlus\t\tMyNum</pre>
                                                       = " << MyNum << endl;
```

Pass By Reference Pros vs Cons

One disadvantage of pass-by-value is that, if a large data item is being passed, copying that data can take a considerable amount of execution time and memory space.

Pass-by-reference is good for performance reasons, because it can eliminate the pass-by-value overhead of copying large amounts of data.

Pass-by-reference can weaken security; the called function can corrupt the caller's data.

const References

Function setName uses pass-by-value.

```
void setName(std::string AccountName)
{
   string name = AccountName;
}
```

When this function is called, it receives a copy of its string argument. string objects can be large, so this copy operation degrades an application's performance.

const References

For this reason, string objects (and objects in general) should be passed to functions by reference.

```
void setName(std::string& AccountName)
{
   name = AccountName;
}
```

const References

But, this means that the function can change/corrupt the data.

To specify that a reference parameter should not be allowed to modify the corresponding argument, place the const qualifier before the type name in the parameter's declaration.

```
void setName(const std::string& AccountName)
{
   name = AccountName;
}
```

We get the performance of passing the string by reference, but setName treats the argument as a constant, so it cannot modify the value in the caller—just like with pass-by-value. Code that calls setName would still pass the string argument exactly as before.

namespace

What is a namespace?

A namespace defines an area of code in which all identifiers are guaranteed to be unique.

Namespaces are used to help avoid issues where two independent pieces of code have naming collisions with each other when used together.

namespace

Name Collision Example

If you were told to go to Room 129 BUT not told which building on campus, how would you know which building to choose for Room 129?

Being told NH 129 or ERB 129 makes a big difference in where you end up.

namespace

ERB.h

```
void PrintLocation(int RoomNumber)
{
   std::cout << "ERB " << RoomNumber;
}</pre>
```

NH.h

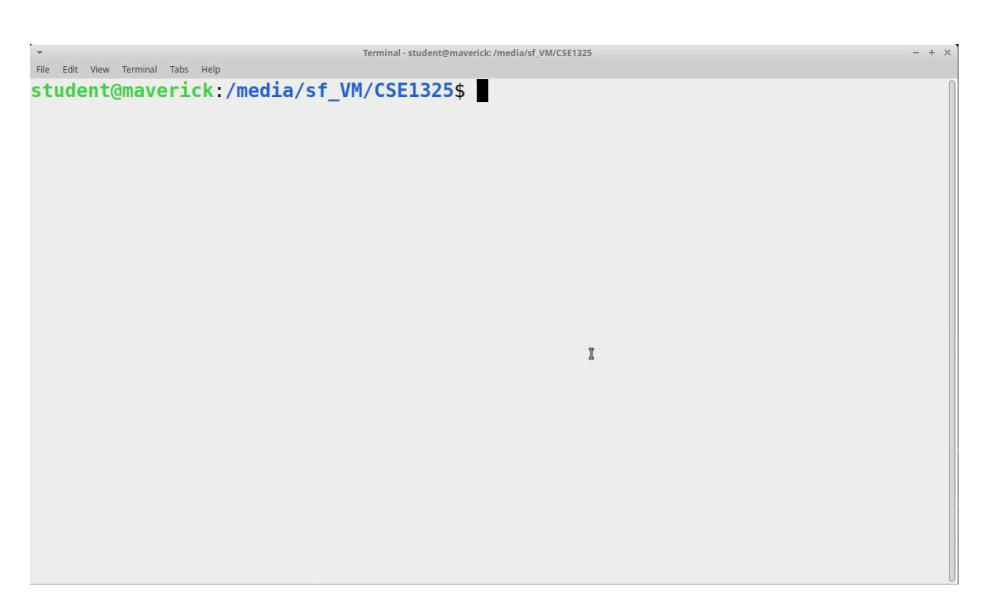
```
void PrintLocation(int RoomNumber)
{
   std::cout << "NH " << RoomNumber;
}</pre>
```

namespace

```
// namespace demo using ERB and NH
   #include <iostream>
   #include "ERB.h"
   #include "NH.h"
   int main()
        int RoomNumber{};
10
12
        std::cout << "Enter Room Number ";</pre>
13
        std::cin >> RoomNumber;
14
15
        PrintLocation (RoomNumber);
16
17
        return 0;
18
```

g++ xxxx.cpp -E







File Edit View Terminal Tabs Help

student@maverick:/media/sf_VM/CSE1325\$



namespace

```
ERB.h
namespace ERB
     void PrintLocation(int RoomNumber)
           cout << "ERB " << RoomNumber;</pre>
NH.h
namespace NH
     void PrintLocation(int RoomNumber)
           cout << "NH " << RoomNumber;</pre>
```

```
student@maverick:/media/sf_VM/CSE1325$ make
g++ -c -g -std=c++11 namespaceERBNHDemo.cpp -o namespaceERBNHDemo.o
namespaceERBNHDemo.cpp: In function 'int main()':
namespaceERBNHDemo.cpp:15:2: error: 'PrintLocation' was not declared in this sco
pe
   15 | PrintLocation(RoomNumber);
namespaceERBNHDemo.cpp:15:2: note: suggested alternatives:
In file included from namespaceERBNHDemo.cpp:5:
ERB.h:3:7: note: 'ERB::PrintLocation'
    3 | void PrintLocation(int RoomNumber)
In file included from namespaceERBNHDemo.cpp:6:
NH.h:3:7: note: 'NH::PrintLocation'
    3 | void PrintLocation(int RoomNumber)
              ^~~~~~~~~~
make: *** [makefile:14: namespaceERBNHDemo.o] Error 1
student@maverick:/media/sf_VM/CSE1325@
```

student@maverick:/media/sf_VM/CSE1325\$ m



Scope Resolution Operator

You can tell the compiler to look at a particular namespace by using the scope resolution operator

So what is

• •

std::cout

with the name of the namespace.

actually doing?

```
ERB::PrintLocation(RoomNumber);
```

NH::PrintLocation(RoomNumber);

Scope Resolution Operator

```
#include <iostream>
 4
 5
    using namespace std;
 6
    #include "ERB.h"
    #include "NH.h"
    using namespace ERB;
    int main()
10
11 □{
         int RoomNumber{};
13
14
         cout << "Enter Room Number ";</pre>
15
         cin >> RoomNumber;
16
17
         PrintLocation (RoomNumber);
18
         NH::PrintLocation(RoomNumber);
19
2.0
         return 0;
```

Explicit Type Conversion – Casting C vs C++

Explicit cast in C

C-style explicit cast in C++ syntax

```
int i1 = 10; int i1 = 10; int i2 = 4; int i2 = 4; float f = (float)i1 / i2; float f = float(i1) / i2;
```

Because these types of casts are not checked by the compiler, they can be misused.

C++ introduced compile-time type checking; therefore, making type casting safer.

Explicit Type Conversion – Casting

```
static_cast

int i1 = 10;
int i2 = 4;
float f = static_cast<float>(i1) / i2;
```

static_cast takes a single value as input and outputs the same value converted to the type specified inside the angled brackets.

static cast is best used to convert one fundamental type into another.

One of the simplest user-defined data type is the enumerated type.

An **enumerated type** (also called an **enumeration** or **enum**) is a data type where every possible value is defined as a symbolic constant (called an **enumerator**).

Enumerations are defined via the **enum** keyword.

```
enum Color
                       Color Banana = COLOR YELLOW;
    COLOR BLACK,
                       Color Blueberry{COLOR BLUE};
   COLOR RED,
   COLOR BLUE,
   COLOR GREEN,
                       Color Celery (COLOR GREEN);
    COLOR WHITE,
    COLOR CYAN,
    COLOR YELLOW,
    COLOR MAGENTA
```

Providing a name for an enumeration is optional.

ike slockion becaused:

Defining an enumeration does not allocate any memory. When a variable of the enumerated type is defined, memory is allocated for that variable at that time.

Note that each enumerator is separated by a comma and the entire enumeration ends with a semicolon.

Unintended side effects can occur when we use multiple enumerations within the same program scope.

```
enum Fruit
enum Muppet
                                    fruit red,
   Muppet red,
                                    fruit yellow,
   Muppet yellow,
                                    fruit blue,
   Muppet blue,
                                    fruit green
   Muppet green
```

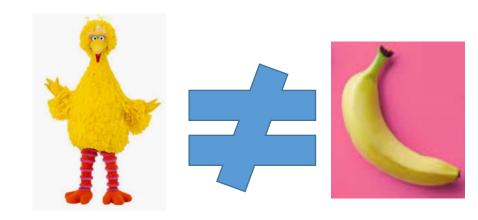
```
Terminal - student@mayerick: /media/sf VM/CSE1325
                                                    File Edit View Terminal Tabs Help
Muppet BigBird = Muppet yellow;
                                                   int main(void)
Muppet Grover (Muppet blue);
                                                          Muppet BigBird = Muppet yellow;
                                                          Muppet Grover(Muppet blue);
Muppet Oscar{Muppet green};
                                                          Muppet Oscar{Muppet green};
                                                          Fruit Banana = fruit yellow;
                                                          Fruit Blueberry{fruit blue};
                                                          Fruit Apple G(fruit green);
Fruit Banana = fruit yellow;
Fruit Blueberry{fruit blue};
                                                          if (BigBird == Banana)
                                                                 std::cout << "BigBird is a Banana\n";</pre>
                                                          else
Fruit Apple G(fruit green);
                                                                 std::cout << "BigBird is a BIRD - not a banana\n";</pre>
                                                          return 0;
                                                   student@maverick:/media/sf VM/CSE1325$ make
                                                   make: Nothing to be done for 'all'.
                                                   student@maverick:/media/sf_VM/CSE1325$
if (BigBird == Banana)
     std::cout << "BigBird is a Banana";</pre>
```

When C++ compares two enumerations (BigBird and Banana), it implicitly converts both of them to integers and compares the integers.

Since BigBird and Banana were both been set to enumerators that evaluate to 1, this code will logically assume that BigBird is equal to Banana.

With standard enumerators, there's no way to prevent comparing enumerators from different enumerations. We get a warning, but it still created an executable.

Since this was probably not our intention, we have a problem.



Another issue:

Because enumerators are placed into the same namespace as the enumeration, an enumerator name can't be used in multiple enumerations within the same namespace:

```
enum Color
        RED,
        BLUE,
        GREEN
};
enum Feeling
        HAPPY,
        TIRED,
        BLUE
                Line 28
student@cse1325:/media/sf VM$ make
g++ -c -g -std=c++11 enum1Demo.cpp -o enum1Demo.o
enum1Demo.cpp:28:2: error: redeclaration of 'BLUE'
```

enum class/scoped enumeration

enum class (also called a scoped enumeration) makes enumerations both strongly typed and strongly scoped.

To make an enum class, we use the keyword class after the enum keyword

```
enum Color
{
    RED,
    BLUE
};

Color Apple = RED;

enum class Color
{
    RED,
    RED,
    BLUE
};

Color Apple = Color::RED
```

enum class/scoped enumeration

```
lenum Color
        RED,
        BLUE,
                                      enum class Color
                                                              Added class
        GREEN
                                              RED,
                                              BLUE,
enum Feeling
                                              GREEN
        HAPPY,
                                                              Added class
        TIRED,
                                      enum class Feeling
        BLUE
                                              HAPPY,
                                              TIRED,
student@cse1325:/media/sf VM$ make
                                              BLUE
g++ -c -g -std=c++11 enum1Demo.cpp -d;
enum1Demo.cpp:28:2: error: redeclarat
  BLUE
                                      student@cse1325:/media/sf VM$ make
                                      g++ -c -g -std=c++11 enum1Demo.cpp -o enum1Demo.o
                                      g++ -g -std=c++11 enum1Demo.o -o enum1Demo.e
```

- user defined type
- keywords enum class
- includes a type name and a set of identifiers
- identifiers/enumeration constants must be integer constants
- the value of the enumeration constants start at 0 (unless specified otherwise)
- enumeration constants increment by 1
- identifiers in an enum class must be unique

```
keyword type name enumeration constants enum class Status {CONTINUE, WON, LOST};
```

Status is the scoped enum's type name

CONTINUE has a value of 0, WON has a value of 1 and LOST has a value of 2.

```
(gdb) ptype Status
type = enum class Status : int {Status::CONTINUE, Status::WON, Status::LOST}
```

```
enum class Status {CONTINUE, WON, LOST};
```

Status is a type so we can declare a variable of that type.

```
Status gameStatus;
```

Then we can assign the enumerated values to our new variable.

```
gameStatus = Status::LOST;
gameStatus = Status::LOST;
$1 = Status::LOST
```

```
enum class Status {CONTINUE, WON, LOST};
gameStatus = Status::LOST;
We use the scope resolution operator to "tie" LOST to Status.
                               enumclassDemo.cpp: In function 'int main()':
                               enumclassDemo.cpp:10:15: error: 'LOST' was not declared in this scope
If we leave it off
                                gameStatus = LOST;
```

gameStatus = LOST;

Using the :: allows other enumerated classes to reuse the same enumerated constants with different values.

```
enum class Player1Status {CONTINUE, WON, LOST};
enum class Player2Status {LOST, CONTINUE, WON};
Player1Status P1Stat;
                         P1Stat is a variable of type Rlayer1Status
                         P2Stat is a variable of type Player2Status
Player2Status P2Stat;
P1Stat = Player1Status::LOST;
P2Stat = Player2Status::LOST;
```

The auto keyword

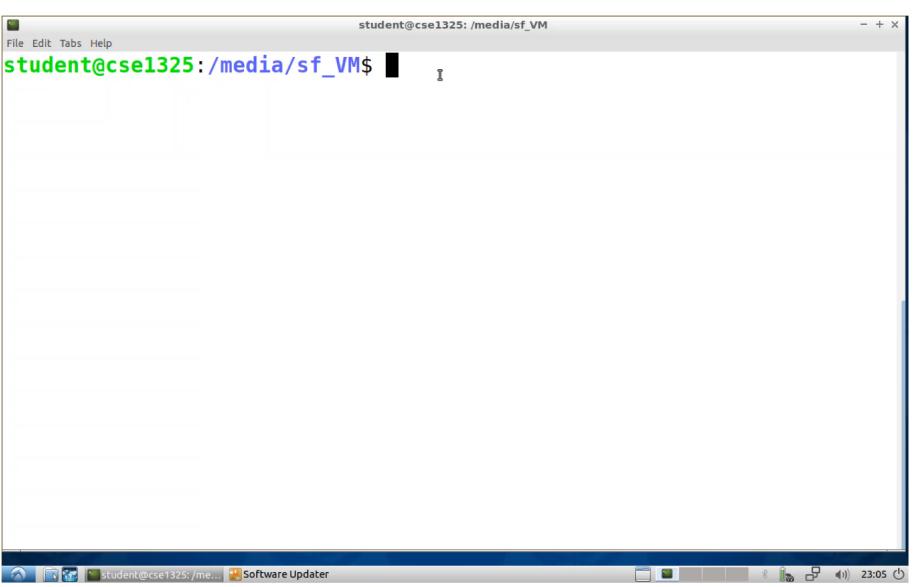
When initializing a variable, the auto keyword can be used in place of the variable type to tell the compiler to infer the variable's type from the initializer's type.

This is called **type inference** (also sometimes called type deduction).

```
auto d = 5.0;
auto i = 1 + 2;
```

The auto keyword

This even works with the return values from functions



```
student@cse1325: /media/sf_VM
File Edit Tabs Help
student@cse1325:/media/sf_VM$ more, autoDemo.cpp
// auto demo
#include <iostream>
double add(double x, int y)
    return x + y;
    auto sum = add(5.2, 6);
         std::cout << sum;
    return 0;
student@cse1325:/media/sf_VM$
          udent@cse1325: /me... Software Updater
```

```
// auto demoCRLF
     CRLF
     #include <iostream>CRLF
     CRLF
     double add (double x, int y) CRLF
    ■ { CRLF
          ·return ·x · + ·y; CRLF
      CRLF
       CRLF
     int main() CRLF
     CRIF
         \cdot \cdot \cdot  auto \cdot  sum \cdot = \cdot  add (5.2, \cdot 6); CRLF
           std::cout << sum; CRLF
      CLUTT
14
          return 0; CRLF
16
```

The auto keyword

- only works when initializing a variable upon creation. Variables created without initialization values cannot use this feature (as C++ has no context from which to deduce the type).
- the compiler cannot infer types for function parameters at compile time; therefore, auto cannot be used for function parameters
- best used when the object's type is hard to type, but the type is obvious from the right hand side of the expression
- using auto in place of fundamental data types only saves a few (if any) keystrokes in the future, we will see examples where the types get complex and lengthy. In those cases, using auto can be very nice.