

CS100 Recitation 11

FlashHu

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1 More about Operators

- `operator()`
- `operator++` and `operator--`
- `operator->`

2 Preprocessor Directives

- Conditional Directives
- Macros
- Other Directives

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operator()

The function call operator provides function semantics for any object. A class that overloads operator() is called **functor**.

```
#include <functional> // for std::greater<int>
class Modulo {
public:
    Modulo(int x): _x(x) {}
    inline bool operator()(int& a, int& b) const {
        return a % _x < b % _x;
    }
private:
    const int _x;
};

std::priority_queue<int, std::vector<int>, std::greater<int>> q;
std::sort(a, a + 10, std::greater<int>());
std::sort(a, a + 10, Modulo(5));
```

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Prefix and postfix operator++

```
struct X
{
    // prefix increment
    X& operator++()
    {
        // actual increment takes place here
        return *this; // return new value by reference
    }

    // postfix increment
    X operator++(int) // the argument is ignored
    {
        X old = *this; // copy old value
        operator++();  // prefix increment
        return old;    // return old value
    }
}
```

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operator->

It appears to be a binary operator `class->member`.

However, it can only be overloaded as a unary operator.

- `class->member` includes 2 steps: `(*class).member`.
- The fact is that `operator.` cannot be overloaded.
- Therefore the only modifiable step is the first step: specify the address of its content.

Unlike other operators that have no restrictions on the type of return value, `operator->` must return a pointer or another class with overloaded `operator->` to be realistically usable.

implementation of operator* and operator->

The definition of `operator->` should be in consistence with `operator*`

```
template <typename T>
class iterator_like {
private:
    T* m_content;
public:
    T& operator*() const {
        // implementation-specific
    }
    T* operator->() const {
        return &operator*(); // &(*(*this))
    }
};
```

However, what if class T overloads its `operator&`? A tricky solution here:

```
#include <memory>
return std::addressof(operator*());
```

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Conditional Directives

```
#if expression  
#ifdef identifier  
#ifndef identifier  
#elif expression  
#else  
#endif
```

Difference between `#if` and `#ifdef`:

- `expression` is a constant expression. `expression` can also be an identifier. The result is 1 if the identifier was defined as a macro name, otherwise the result is 0.
- `identifier` can only be an identifier.

Examples:

- Include guard
- Debug mode control

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Macros

```
#define identifier  
#define identifier replacement-list  
#define identifier(parameters) replacement-list  
#define identifier(parameters, ...) replacement-list  
#undef identifier  
g++ -o ... -Didentifier
```

- Remember it only replace the text where identifier appears with replacement-list! The parameters and replacement-list doesn't need to be a single object, so pay attention to the potential problem caused by `() , ;`!
- Unlike functions which can be overloaded, macros defined by the same identifier makes the program ill-formed unless the definitions are identical.

Object-like macros

```
#define identifier replacement-list
```

Examples:

```
#define PI 3.14
```

```
// A terrible example widely used by OIers
```

```
#define int long long // replace int by long long below
```

```
typedef long long int; // Error
```

```
using int = long long; // Error
```

Function-like macros

```
#define identifier(parameters) replacement-list  
#define identifier(parameters, ...) replacement-list  
#define identifier(...) replacement-list
```

The later two are with variable number of arguments.

- The additional arguments (...) can be accessed using `__VA_ARGS__` identifier.
- replacement-list may contain the token sequence `__VA_OPT__(content)`, which is replaced by content if `__VA_ARGS__` is non-empty, and nothing otherwise.

Examples:

```
#define LEN(x, y) sqrt((x)*(x)+(y)*(y)) // OK  
#define LEN(x, y) sqrt(x*x+y*y) // Potential problems!  
#define eprintf(format, ...) \ // define in multiline  
    fprintf(stderr, format, __VA_ARGS__)
```

Operators in #define

- #: replace the following identifier by its string literal
- ##: concatenate two successive identifiers

Examples:

```
#define PRINT(v) std::cout << (#v ":") << v  
int tmp = 1;  
PRINT(v);  
// output: tmp:1
```

```
#define DECLARE(fun, id) void fun_##id(int x)  
DECLARE(test, 5);  
// void test_5(int x);
```


Preprocessor metaprogramming

Like template, preprocessor is able to realize complex functions during compile time, although it is not designed to do that.

In C++ we prefer template metaprogramming, and preprocessor metaprogramming is out of fashion.

Example:

- Some compiler doesn't support binary integer literal such as `0b0100110`
- Binary integer literal encoding
(<https://paste.ubuntu.com/p/h875zMBKJX/>)

A tricky example: FOR_EACH

<https://www.scs.stanford.edu/~dm/blog/va-opt.html>

```
#define PARENS ()
#define EXPAND(...) EXPAND1(EXPAND1(EXPAND1(EXPAND1(__VA_ARGS__)))
#define EXPAND4(...) EXPAND3(EXPAND3(EXPAND3(EXPAND3(__VA_ARGS__)))
#define EXPAND3(...) EXPAND2(EXPAND2(EXPAND2(EXPAND2(__VA_ARGS__)))
#define EXPAND2(...) EXPAND1(EXPAND1(EXPAND1(EXPAND1(__VA_ARGS__)))
#define EXPAND1(...) __VA_ARGS__
#define FOR_EACH(macro, ...) \
    __VA_OPT__(EXPAND(FOR_EACH_HELPER(macro, __VA_ARGS__)))
#define FOR_EACH_HELPER(macro, a1, ...) \
    macro(a1) \
    __VA_OPT__(FOR_EACH_AGAIN PARENS(macro, __VA_ARGS__))
#define FOR_EACH_AGAIN() FOR_EACH_HELPER
```

A tricky example: debug info printing by FOR_EACH

```

#include <iostream>
#define DEBUG(...) \
    do { \
        std::cout << __LINE__ << ": "; \
        FOR_EACH(PRINT, __VA_ARGS__); \
        std::cout << std::endl; \
    } while (0)
#define PRINT(v) std::cout << (#v "=") << v << ' ';
int main() {
    int a = 1;
    double b = 2.3;
    char c[] = "hello";
    DEBUG(a, b, c);
} // output: 25: a=1 b=2.3 c=hello

```

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Other Directives

```
#include <...> // usually for standard libraries
#include "... " // usually for local header files
#error message // stop compilation
#pragma parameters // implementation-specific behavior of the
                  compiler
```

Examples:

```
#include <iostream>
#include "matrix.hpp"
#pragma GCC optimize(2)
#pragma omp parallel
```

CS100 Introduction to Programming

Recitation 11-CMake

Wei Jiaxin

What is program?

- A program in Linux is a file with execute permission, which can be a script or binary file
- Commonly used “`cd`, `ls`” and other commands are executable files located in the `/bin` directory
- When programming in C++, a compiler can be used to compile a text file into an executable program

Compiler g++

- `g++ filename.cpp` generates `.out` executable file in the current directory by default
- `g++ -o name.out filename.cpp` generates an executable file with a custom filename in the current directory

Why we need CMake?

- A large project usually contains many folders and source files, and there may be complex dependencies between classes
- A large number of compilation commands need to be entered, and the entire compilation process becomes extremely cumbersome
- So we need CMake to manage source code

What is CMake?

- CMake is a meta build system that uses scripts called "CMakeLists" to generate build files for a specific environment
- CMake is distributed as open-source software under permissive BSD-3-Clause license
- CMake only needs to maintain several "CMakeLists.txt" files, which greatly reduces the difficulty of maintaining the entire project

How to use CMake?

- In a cmake project, use the `cmake` command to generate a Makefile file
- And then use the `make` command to compile the entire project according to the contents of the Makefile file

Step 1

- Write the source code
- The source file with the main function will be compiled to generate an executable file
- Other source files will be packaged into libraries for other programs to call

Step 2

- Create a new “CMakeLists.txt” file to tell CMake what to do with the files in the directory
- The following contents are needed:

#Declare the required minimum version of cmake

cmake_minimum_required(VERSION 2.8)

#Add C++11 standard support

set(CMAKE_CXX_FLAGS "-std=c++11")

#Open debug mode

set(CMAKE_BUILD_TYPE "Debug")

#Declare a cmake project

project(HelloWorld)

#Add compile parameters

add_definitions("-g")

#Add a static library

add_library(hello libHelloWorld.cpp)

#Add a shared library

add_library(hello SHARED libHelloWorld.cpp)

#Add an executable program

add_executable(helloWorld helloWorld.cpp)

#Link the executable to the library

target_link_libraries(helloWorld hello)

Step 3

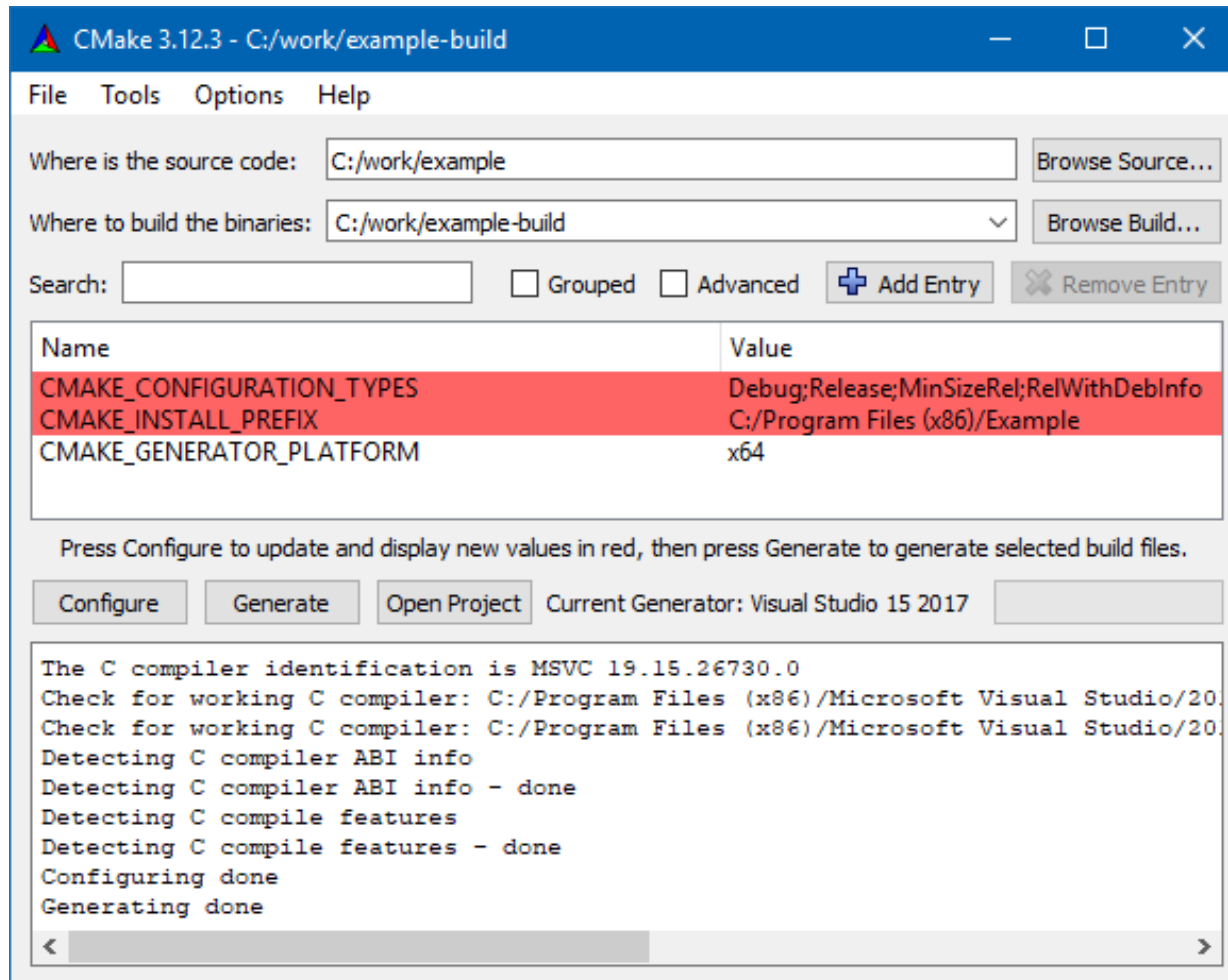
- Create a new intermediate folder “build” in the current directory, and then enter the build folder (separate the intermediate files generated by cmake from the source code)
- Compile the upper-level directory (the directory where the source code is located) through the `cmake ..` command

- Compile the automatically generated Makefile through the `make` command to get the executable program `helloWorld`
- When you need to release the source code, just delete the build folder

CMake on Windows

- Run cmake-gui.exe
- The top two entries are the source code and binary directories
- They allow you to specify where the source code is for what you want to compile and where the resulting binaries should be placed.

CMake GUI



Useful links

- CMake tutorial

<https://cmake.org/cmake/help/latest/guide/tutorial/index.html>

- CLion CMake tutorial

<https://www.jetbrains.com/help/clion/quick-cmake-tutorial.html>