G52CPP C++ Programming Lecture 8

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http://www.cs.nott.ac.uk/~jaa/cpp/g52cpp.html

Last lecture

Dynamic memory allocation

Memory re-allocation to grow arrays

Linked lists

Aside: do not use variable sized arrays

- Variable length arrays are NOT valid in C++
 - Sadly, gcc on avon, bann etc will allow them in C++
- E.g.:
 int myfunc(int iSize)
 {
 char array[iSize];
 ...
 }
- Size of array is not a constant, it depends upon the value of variable
- You must use a numeric literal or a constant for a size
 - You can use a #define to set it to a literal (see later)
- If you need variable size arrays, use malloc() or new
- Use: g++ -pedantic myfile.cpp to get a warning

This lecture

- const
 - Constants, including pointers
- The C pre-processor
 - And macros
- Compiling and linking
 - And multiple header files
- Linkage and visibility

const

Defensive programming

const : constant/unchanging

- constant variables cannot be changed
- E.g. const int maxvalue = 4;
- Or int const maxvalue = 4;
- Not really 'variable's anymore? Cannot be 'varied'
- #define could have same effect see later
 - But, using text replacement in the preprocessor
- const is nicer for declaring constants
 - Multiple contradictory definitions will be caught
 - Unlike for #define

Pointers to constant data

 The thing pointed at through a pointer to const cannot be changed using the pointer

```
E.g. const char* p = "Hello";Or char const* p = "Hello";
```

- Note: const is to the left of the *
- The following code will NOT compile:

```
const char* pc = "Hello";
*pc = 'B'; // BAD
```

 String literals should be const char* not char* and good compilers will ensure this (warnings)

Constant pointers

 You can also prevent the pointer itself from being changed, by using const. E.g.:

```
char* const p = "Hello";
```

Note: the const is to the right of the *

- You cannot change this pointer to make it point at something else
- The following code will not compile:

```
char* const cp = "Hello";
cp = "Bye"; // BAD
```

– i.e. catch errors at compilation!

For pointers, it matters where the const is

For constant pointers it matters which side of the * the const is:

The pointer is constant - constant short*:
 short * const pcs = &s;

 The short pointed at cannot be changed through the pointer – pointer to constant short:

```
short const * cps = &s;
const short * cps = &s;
```

Can change neither pointer nor thing pointed at :

```
short const * const cpcs = &s;
const short * const cpcs = &s;
```

How to remember this...

Read backwards with * meaning 'pointer to'

```
float * const pcf = &f;
   "Constant pointer to a float"
The pointer is constant – constant float*
float const * cpf = &f;
   "Pointer to constant float"
const float * cpf = &f; (same as float const *)

    "Pointer to float which is constant"

The float pointed at cannot be changed through the pointer
const float * const cpcf = &f;
   - "Constant pointer to float which is constant"
```

Neither the pointer nor the thing it points at can be changed

String literals again

- String literals should not be changed
- i.e. use const pointers

Should use:

```
const char* str = "Hello";
```

• Not:

```
char* str = "Hello";
```

Compiler should give warnings otherwise

Volatile and register

(so that you know that they exist)

'volatile' and 'register' keywords

- The volatile keyword is important if other threads or processes may access the data
 - Know that it exists and when you should use it
- Tells the compiler that data may change outside thread or program (similar meaning in Java)
- Will turn off some potential optimisations
 - Value must be checked every time it is needed
 - Compiler cannot assume it is unchanged

```
Example:
   volatile int v = 4;
   volatile float f = 16.7f;
```

- Another one to know: the 'register' keyword
 - Request to store value in a register not a variable
 - Again, know that it exists and what it does
 - Not usually needed with modern optimising compilers

The C/C++ pre-processor

The C/C++ Preprocessor

- Runs BEFORE passing code to the compiler
 - Compiler will only see the code after the preprocessor has changed it
- It affects statements beginning with #
- Examples:

- #pragma

```
- #include
- #define, #undef
- #if, #ifdef, #ifndef, #else, #endif
```

#include

- Replaces this statement by the text of the specified file
 - For example, to include function declarations
- E.g. #include <stdio.h>
 - Include the file with standard input/output function declarations in it (e.g. printf)
 - Looks in the directories on the include path
 - Normally used for system header files
 - Note: C++ standard header files may differ but same effects
- E.g. #include "myheader.h"
 - The "" usually means look in the project path as well as the main include path
 - Normally used for your own, project-specific header files
- Do not confuse with Java's 'import':
 - import defines the packages to look in for resolving class names (more like the C++ keyword using, but still different)
 - #include replaces the line, potentially with function declarations

Using multiple files

Reminder

- Declare functions before usage
 - Called function prototyping
 - Definitions are also declarations
 - So, sorting functions into reverse order works all declared before use
- e.g.:

Note: no parameter names are needed. The return type, function name and parameter types must be specified

Sharing things between files

- In general, you can put functions (and classes) in any files you wish (the filename is totally unimportant)
- Global variables and functions are always accessible from anywhere within the same file
 - You can *hide* them from *other* files by using the static keyword, e.g.:

```
static int g_hidden = 1;
```

- They are then accessible everywhere within the same file but not from other files
- If *not static* (i.e. hidden), then:
 - You can access global functions from other files
 - Just **declare** them and the linker will do the work
 - You can access global variables from other files
 - Use the keyword 'extern' in a declaration
 - extern changes a definition into a declaration

Visibility (Linkage)

What can be seen where?

File1.cpp

```
static int hidden_in_file;
int visible_from_outside;
static void myintfunc()
void myextfunc( char c )
   int local_var = 2;
   static int persistant = 4;
   myintfunc();
```



File2.cpp

```
extern int
  visible_from_outside;

void myextfunc( char );

void myfunc()
{
   char c = 4;
   myextfunc( c )
}
```

Key Idea: Encapsulation

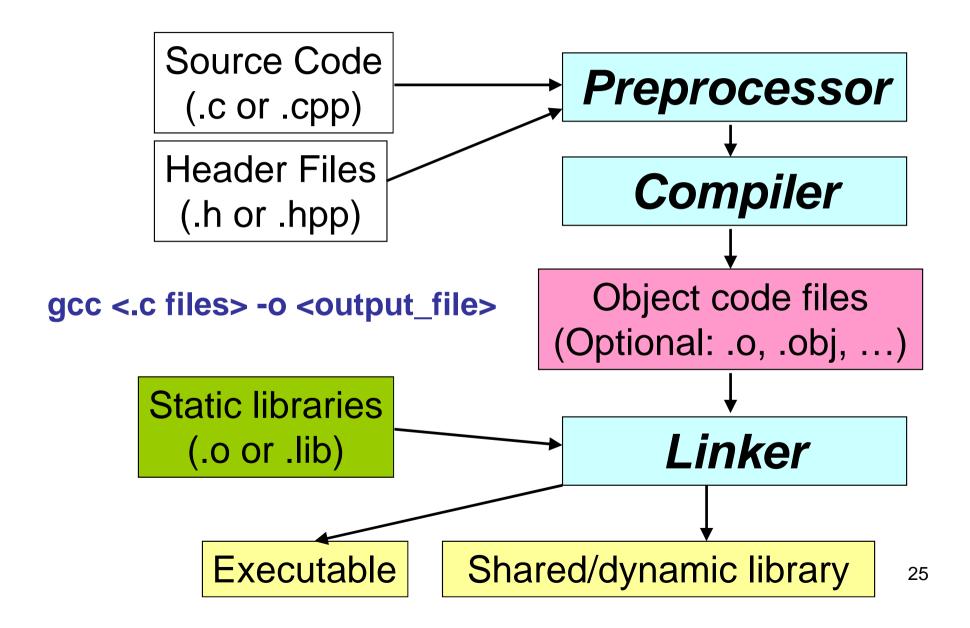
- The idea of hiding the internals the data
 - Give access to the data to as few 'things' as possible
 - i.e. hide it as much as possible
- Controlling the interface which can be seen
- Why?
 - Helps with debugging and structure
 - You can see what can alter each thing
- C encapsulation can be performed using files
 - External interface (global functions)
 - Internal functions (static global functions)
- C++/Java use classes (much more control)

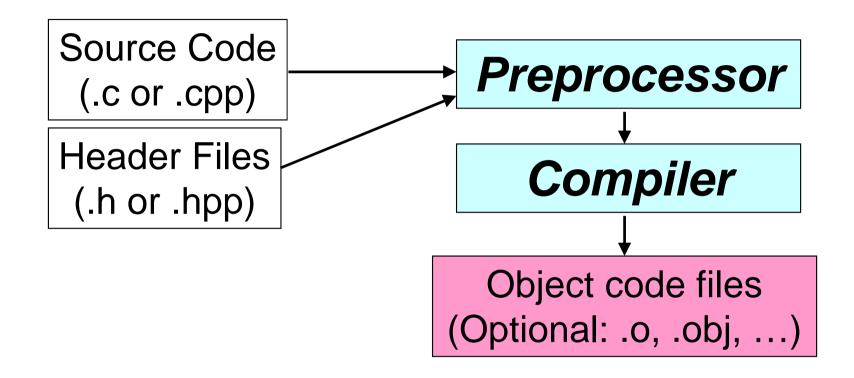
Summary: the static keyword

- static is used for three different things
 - For local variables
 - static means the value is maintained between function calls
 - For global variables and functions
 - static limits visibility/access to within the file
 - For C++ (not C!) classes:
 - Method or variable is associated with the class not the object (one copy per class, no this pointer)
 - The same as Java for this one

Types of files

- Source code files, named .cpp or .c
 - Contain your functions and classes
- Header files, named .h or .hpp
 - Declarations for all functions which you want to make available to other files
 - i.e. function name, return type, parameter types
 - Declarations for classes, in C++
 - Any constants you want to make available
 - Any #defines to apply to other files
 - Anything else you want to share
- Library files, named .o, .lib, ...
 - Already compiled
 - Contain implementation of library functions

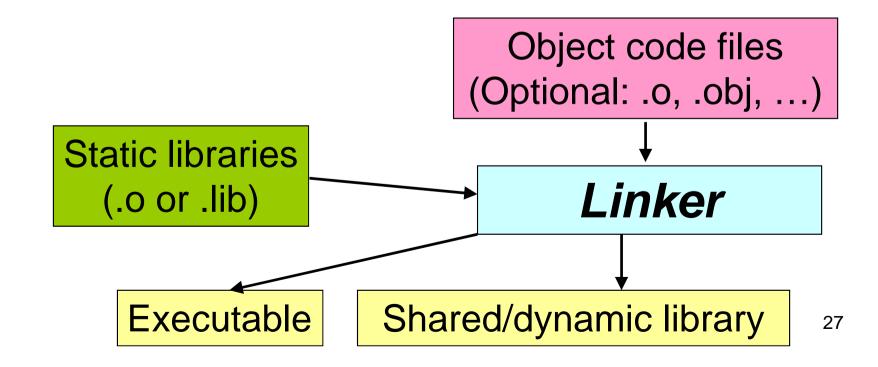




You can just compile to object code files (not link):

gcc -c <.c files> -o <output_file>

You can then link the files by passing the .o files to gcc (instead of the .c files)
gcc <.o files> -o <output_file>



Compiling with gcc

- gcc uses the file extension to determine file type when compiling/linking:
 - -.c for C files
 - -.cpp (and others) for C++ files
 - .o for object code files (just need linking)
- Standard C library is linked by default when compiling C code
- When compiling C++ you need to link in the standard C++ library files manually
 - e.g. use -lstdc++ on gcc command line
 - or (often) can use g++ instead of gcc

#define and #ifdef

#define

- An intelligent 'find and replace' facility
- Often considered bad in C++ code (useful in C)
 - const is used more often, especially for members
 - Template functions are better than macros
- Example: define a 'constant':
 - #define MAX_ENTRIES 100
 - Replace occurrences of "MAX_ENTRIES" by the text "100" (without quotes), e.g. in:

```
if ( entry_num < MAX_ENTRIES ) { ... }</pre>
```

- Remember: Done by the pre-processor!
 - E.g. NOT actually a definition of a constant
- 'Constant' #defines usually written in CAPITALS

Conditional compilation

- You can remove parts of the source code if desired
 - Done by the pre-processor (not compiled)
- E.g. Only include code if some name has been defined earlier (in the code or included header file)

```
#ifdef <NAME_OF_DEFINE>
     <Include this code if it was defined>
#else
     <Include this code if it was not defined>
#endif
```

- To include only 'if not defined' use #ifndef
- There is also a #if <condition>

Conditional compilation

- Platform-dependent code can be included
- e.g. Include only if on a specific machine:

```
#ifdef ___WINDOWS___
... windows code here ...
#elif ___SYS5UNIX__
... System 5 code here ...
#endif
```

- Often used for cross-platform code
- The correct #define has to be made somewhere to specify the current platform
- Know that this can be done, recognise it

Avoiding multiple inclusion

Code to include the contents of a file only once:

```
#ifndef UNIQUE_DEFINE_NAME_FOR_FILE
#define UNIQUE_DEFINE_NAME_FOR_FILE
... include the rest of the file here ...
#endif
```

- To work, the name in the #define has to be unique throughout the program
 - E.g. you probably should include the path of the header file, not just the filename
 - Example: mycode/game/graphics/screen.h could be called MYCODE_GAME_GRAPHICS_SCREEN_H
 - By convention, #defines are in upper case

Three rules for header files

- 1. Ensure that the header file **#includes** everything that it needs itself
 - i.e. #include any headers it depends upon
- 2. Ensure that it doesn't matter if the header file is included multiple times
 - See previous slide
- 3. Ensure that header files can be included in any order
 - A consequence of the first two rules

#define and macro definitions

You can use #define to define a macro:

```
\#define max(a,b) (((a)>(b)) ? (a) : (b))
int v1 = max(40, 234);
int v1 = (((40)>(234))?(40):(234))
int v2 = max(v1, 99);
int v2 = (((v1)>(99))?(v1):(99))
int v3 = max (v1, v2);
int v3 = (((v1)>(v2))? (v1) : (v2))
```

- Remember: done by the pre-processor!
 - NOT a function call

What is the output here?

MyHeader.h

```
#ifndef MY_HEADER_H
#define MY_HEADER_H

#define max(a,b) (((a)>(b)) ? (a) : (b))
#endif
```

MyTest.cpp

```
#include "MyHeader.h"
int main( int argc, char* argv[] )
{
   int a = 1, b = 1;
   while ( a < 10 )
   {
      printf( "a = %d, b = %d ", a, b );
      printf( "max = %d\n", max(a++,b++) );
   }
}</pre>
```

The (surprise?) output

```
printf( "a = %d, b = %d ", a, b );
printf( "max = %d n'', max(a++,b++) );
The output is:
   a = 1, b = 1 max = 2
   a = 2, b = 3 max = 4
  a = 3, b = 5 max = 6
  a = 4, b = 7 max = 8
  a = 5, b = 9 max = 10
  a = 6, b = 11 max = 12
  a = 7, b = 13 \text{ max} = 14
  a = 8, b = 15 \text{ max} = 16
  a = 9, b = 17 \text{ max} = 18

    Why?

  max(a++,b++) expands to:
      ((a++)>(b++))? (a++): (b++)
```

 So, whichever number is greater will get incremented twice, and the lesser number only once

Next lecture

• classes (and C++ structs)

Member functions

• inline functions