Introduction to Programming and Computing for Scientists

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Lectures 6

C++ class

- A class is a container for **data** and **functions**.
- An instances of the class are called an **objects**, e.g. you can create many instances of class coords as (2,3), (1,0), (-3,2).
- Two mandatory functions: constructor creates new objects; destructor cleans up when an object is destroyed.

```
class coords { //Here I declare a class of type "coords"
  public:
  coords(int xCoord, int yCoord); //Constructor, Call to create an instance of the class.
  ~coords(); //Destructor. Gets called when an instance of the class is destroyed.
 int x: //The only two member variables are the x and y coordinates
 int y;
 private: //This class has no private members
1:
coords::coords(int xCoord, int yCoord) { //Simply store the user supplied coordinates
  x = xCoord:
    = yCoord;
coords::~coords() {
  //There are no special tasks to perform when destroying a set of coordinates
}
```

Inheritance

• Inheritance is a way to share characteristics among similar types.

Inheritance

- We'd have to repeat a lot of code to write the triangle and rectangle.
- Inheritance simplifies this immensely. Both triangle and rectangle are really special cases of something more general. Let's call it a shape.

```
#include "shape.h"
shape::shape(double base, double height) {
    setBase(base); //Let's call these functions rather than duplicate the code
    setHeight(height);
}
shape::~shape() { }
```

Inheritance

• Now we'll make triangle inherit from shape. The only new code we have to write is whatever is specific to triangle (in this case the area function).

```
#include "triangle.h"

triangle::triangle(double base, double height) : shape(base, height) {
    //The first (and in this case only) thing to do is initialize the parent object
}

triangle::~triangle() {
    //At the end of this destructor, the parent destructor is called automatically
}
```

- shape is the 'base' or 'parent' class, while triangle is the 'derived' class.
- When an object is created, the base part should always be constructed first.
 Destruction follows the opposite order The base should be destroyed last.

• Let's pretend the area of a shape is so crucial, we have functions to check it.

```
bool isBigEnough(rectangle& obj) {
  return obj.area() > 10.;
}
bool isBigEnough(triangle& obj) {
  return obj.area() > 10.;
}
```

- This is clunky because every new kind of shape needs its own function.
- Ideally, we'd like to have a single function that works with any kind of shape.

```
bool isBigEnough(shape& obj) {
  return obj.area() > 10.;
}
```

- This function will happily accept triangle and reclangle objects as arguments. They inherit from shape, so they are shapes.
- The problem is that shape does not declare an area function, so the compiler complains. We can try adding one to the class definition.

• This small test program doesn't print the answer we want. The problem is of course that isBigEnough calls the area function in shape, which returns 0.

```
#include <iostream> //For cout
#include "triangle.h" //Both triangle.h and rectangle.h include shape.h
#include "rectangle.h" //I added #ifndef macros in shape.h, so it isn't doubly defined
using namespace std:
bool isBigEnough(shape& obj) { //A shape is big enough if its area is greater than 10
 return obj.area() > 10.:
int main() { //Create some shapes, print their area and see if they're big enough
 triangle tri(10., 10.):
 cout << "Triangle with area " << tri.area();</pre>
 if(isBigEnough(tri)) cout << " is big enough!" << endl;</pre>
 else cout << " is NOT big enough!" << endl:
 rectangle rec(5., 5.);
 cout << "Rectangle with area " << rec.area();</pre>
 if(isBigEnough(rec)) cout << " is big enough!" << endl:</pre>
 else cout << " is NOT big enough!" << endl;</pre>
 return 0:
```

```
Triangle with area 50 is NOT big enough!
Rectangle with area 25 is NOT big enough!
```

• We can get the desired behavior by making the area function virtual.

```
virtual double area() { return 0.: } //Change the area function in shape.h to this
```

- When a function is virtual, derived classes are allowed to override it. If isBigEnough receives a triangle, the triangle version of area is called.
- The call to area thus behaves differently depending on whether the shape is a triangle or rectangle. Such a function is said to be *polymorphic*.
- After area is declared virtual, the test program gives the expected output.

```
Triangle with area 50 is big enough!
Rectangle with area 25 is big enough!
```

- You seldom need to tell a function what kind of shape it is dealing with at compile time. The proper behavior is achieved through polymorphism.
- Good use of inheritance and polymorphism will make code much easier to read, maintain and extend. One of the great strengths of OO programming!

• Virtual functions work the same way with pointers as with references.

```
bool isBigEnough(shape* obj) {
  return obj->area() > 10.; //Works as expected - area is called in the derived class
}
```

• Pointers mesh well with inheritance, because a pointer of type base class can point to a derived class. Remember, triangles and rectangles *are* shapes.

```
shape* shapePtr = new shape(10, 10); //Nothing new - A shape pointer pointing to a shape
isBigEnough(shapePtr); //The area function in shape is called, so this returns false
shape* triPtr = new triangle(10, 10); //Perfectly OK - Any triangle is also a shape
isBigEnough(triPtr); //The area function in triangle is called, so this returns true
triangle* illegalPtr = new shape(10, 10); //Not OK - A shape isn't necessarily a triangle
```

• If a class is handled polymorphically, is should have a virtual destructor.

```
shape* triPtr = new triangle(10, 10); //A shape pointer that points to a triangle
delete triPtr; //Calls "shape(). Make it virtual so the triangle part is destroyed too!
```

- We made shape return an area of zero, but in reality it is undefined.
- This is a valid concern. In fact, it doesn't make sense to instantiate a shape in the first place. Only triangle and rectangle are meaningful objects.
- To avoid this logical inconsistency, make the area function pure virtual in shape. A class that has a pure virtual function can not be instantiated.
- A class that contains at least one pure virtual function is called abstract.

```
virtual double area() = 0; //Put this in shape.h to make area a pure virtual function
```

 Any class that inherits from shape must now either implement area or be abstract itself. This ensures that no one can misuse our shape class.

```
triangle t(10, 10); //No problem - A triangle is a meaningful object shape s(10, 10); //This will not compile. Shape is abstract and can not be instantiated!
```

Memory Leak

- Hardest bugs to trace typically are related with memory managing and allocation.
- Most common mistake is Memory Leak forgetting to free allocated memory.

```
#include <stdlib.h> /* atof */
#include <unistd.h>
                      /* usleep */
using namespace std;
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    const int sizeOfAlloccationInBytes = 300000000; //300 MB
   int numberOfAllocations = 10;
   double timeToSleepBetweenAllocations = 0.3 * 1000000: // microseconds
   for (int i=0: i<numberOfAllocations: i++){</pre>
        char *myChar = new char[sizeOfAlloccationInBytes]; // allocate memory in heap
        for (int j=0; j<sizeOfAlloccationInBytes; j++){</pre>
            myChar[j] = 'a':
       usleep(timeToSleepBetweenAllocations):
          delete myChar; // <-- possible place of memory leak, if one forget to add this line
        myChar = NULL;
   return 0;
}
```

The const keyword

 Declare a variable as const when you want to be certain that it is never modified. Trying to do so then results in a compile time error.

```
const int var = 10; //Remember to initialize at declaration time. Const variables can't be modified later
var = 20; //Nope! Because var is const, this results in a compile time error
```

 The const keyword acts on whatever word or symbol is to its immediate left. If there is nothing to its left, it acts on whatever is to its right instead.

```
int const var = 10; //These two lines are completely equivalent
const int var = 10; //Pick one usage and be consistent
```

- A const pointer (int* const p) must point to the same variable forever.
- A pointer to const (int const* p) can't be used to assign to a variable.

```
int foo = 10;
int bar = 20;

int* const p1 = &foo; //p1 is a constant pointer to int (so the pointer is const but not foo)
*p1 = 30; //No problem
p1 = &bar; //Error! p1 must forever point to foo
int const* p2 = &foo; //p2 points to a constant int (so foo is const but not the pointer itself)
*p2 = 30; //Error! foo can't be assigned to via p2. Assigning via e.g. p1 is still fine, though.
p2 = &bar; //No problem
```

The const keyword

- const variables and objects are picky about how they are used. They will only work with functions that have promised in advance not to change them.
- A function can promise not to change an argument by declaring it as const.
- This is relevant only when passing arguments by reference or pointer. When an argument is passed by value, any modifications are local to the function.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void passByValue(int foo) { cout << foo << endl; } //None of these functions actually modify foo
void passByPtr(int* foo) { cout << *foo << endl; }
void passByConstPtr(int const* foo) { cout << *foo << endl; }
int main() {
    const int foo = 10;
    passByValue(foo); //No problem! The function can only modify a local copy of foo
    passByPtr(&foo); //Compile time error! Function could in principle modify foo
    passByConstPtr(&foo); //CM! The function has promised not to modify foo
}</pre>
```

The const keyword

- Member functions of an object can be declared as const to promise that they won't try to modify any of the object's member variables.
- This promise must be made before a const object will use the functions.

```
class date { //This class represents a day, month and year
   public:
   date(int day, int month, int year); //You get the idea, so let's skip everything but the month part
   int getMonth() const; //This function is const - It promises not to change any of the member variables
   void setMonth(int month);

   private:
   int month_;
};
```

```
const date myBirthday(23, 8, 1986); //Changing my birthday makes no sense at all. I'll make it const!
int month = myBirthday.getMonth(); //No problem, getMonth has promised not to change anything
myBirthday.setMonth(8); //Results in a compiler error because setMonth is not const. It might make changes!
```

- Code that works as intended with const variables is called "const correct".
- If you want your code to be const correct, do it right from the start! It is extremely difficult to take a program that is not const correct and fix it.

- Type casting is when a variable of one type is converted into another type.
- Casts that aren't specifically requested by the programmer are called implicit. Built-in types are often implicitly converted into each other.

```
int a = 10;
double b = a; //The int is implicitly converted into a double
```

• Any type can be implicitly converted if the appropriate constructor exists.

```
class effort { //This empty class is just used for the sake of example
    //We'll let the compiler automatically generate a constructor and destructor
};
```

```
class success {
  public:
    success(effort& toConvert) {} //Success can be constructed from effort
};
```

```
effort e;
success s = e; //The effort is implicitly converted into success
```

- There are four types of explicit casts in C++:
 - dynamic_cast
 - static_cast
 - ▶ reinterpret_cast
 - const_cast
- Let's pretend, for the sake of example, that shape was never made abstract.

```
shape* shapePtrToShape = new shape(); //shape pointer pointing to a shape
shape* shapePtrToTri = new triangle(); //shape pointer pointing to a triangle
triangle* triPtrToTri = new triangle(); //triangle pointer pointing to a triangle
```

- dynamic_cast is used to cast pointers and references within class hierarchies. Downcasting only works on polymorphic classes.
- The legality is checked at run time. Be careful! You will not get any warnings at compile time. An illegal cast of a pointer returns NULL.

```
shape* upCast = dynamic_cast<shape*>(triPtrToTri); //Always OK
triangle* downCast = dynamic_cast<triangle*>(shapePtrToTri); //OK if polymorphic
triangle* illegalCast = dynamic_cast<triangle*>(shapePtrToShape); //Not OK, returns NULL
```

- static_cast works like dynamic_cast except the legality of the cast is not checked at all. This avoids some overhead at run time. Faster but less safe.
- In addition, static_cast can do any conversion that could have been done implicitly. Use it freely when converting between built-in types.

```
int a = 9;
int b = 10; //Dividing two ints returns another int, rounded down
double ratio = static_cast<double>(a)/b; //Would return 0 if not for the cast
```

- reinterpret_cast can convert between references and pointers of (almost) any type. Even unrelated classes can be converted into each other.
- There are valid uses for reinterpret_cast (such as interfacing identical classes from several third party libraries), but having to reinterpret_cast generally indicates that your code is not well designed.

• const_cast turns a const variable into non-const. Can be used to modify const variables or pass them to functions that take non-const arguments.

```
void printThis(char* str) { //str should be declared const because it's not modified
  cout << str << endl; //As is we couldn't pass a const char*, which is bad design
}
const char* constString = "Text to print";
printThis(const_cast<char*>(constString)); //A const_cast is required to use the function
```

• There are also C-style casts. But it's not recommended to use them!

```
//Base to derived? Derived to base? Getting rid of const? Integer to pointer?
quantity* qPtr = (quantity*) var; //It's impossible to tell because I used a C-style cast
```

- C++ casts do only one thing, making the intention of the programmer clear. A C-style cast will try every type of cast until it finds one that succeeds.
- This makes C-style casts dangerous! They might not do what you intend, but since they still perform legal operations the compiler does not complain.

Operator overloading

- When an operator does more than one thing, it is said to be overloaded.
- For example, the addition operator + is overloaded. It adds when acting on integers, but concatenates when acting on strings.

```
int aVal = 10;
int bVal = 20;
int cVal = aVal + bVal; //The addition operator adds two numbers and returns the sum, so cVal = 30

string aStr = "Hello";
string bStr = ", world!";
string cStr = aStr + bStr; //Now the same operator concatenates two strings, so cStr = "Hello, world!"
```

 Operators are really just convenient shorthands for function calls. The operator functions have silly names, but they are ordinary functions.

```
c = a.operator!(); //Equivalent to c = !a
c = a.operator+(b); //Equivalent to c = a + b
c = operator+(a,b); //Also equivalent to c = a + b. The operator doesn't have to be a member of a
```

• You might be tempted to try and call the operator functions directly. This will work for user-defined types, but not built-in ones (like int and double).

Operator overloading

- Any class can overload an operator by implementing the appropriate operator function. This can be convenient and make code more readable.
- Let's implement the += (increment), == (equality) and != (inequality)
 operators for the shape class.

```
class shape {
  public:
    shape& operator+=(const shape& toAdd); //Increment
    bool operator==(const shape& toCompare) const; //Equality. Once we have this, defining != is easy
    bool operator!=(const shape& toCompare) const { return !(*this == toCompare); } //Use existing equality
};
```

```
shape& shape::operator+=(const shape& toAdd) { //We get to decide for ourselves what addition means
  base_ += toAdd.getBase(); //Let's decide that it means to add up the base and height
  height_ += toAdd.getHeight();
  return *this; //Return a reference to the object to enable chaining of operations (a + b + c + ...)
}

bool shape::operator==(const shape& toCompare) const { //We get to decide what it means to be equal
  if(base_ != toCompare.getBase()) return false; //Let's define it as having the same base and height
  if(height_ != toCompare.getHeight()) return false;
  return true;
}
```

Operator overloading

- Implementing == and != as member functions works fine. But they don't
 have to members, because they don't need access to private variables.
- The usual convention is to implement operators that don't change the state of the object as non-member functions.

```
class shape {
   //Put the shape class here as usual
};
bool operator==(const shape& lhs, const shape& rhs); //Then define the operators outside
bool operator!=(const shape& lhs, const shape& rhs); //They are not members of the class
```

```
bool operator==(const shape& lhs, const shape& rhs) { //Implement the functions. Note lack of shape::
    if(lhs.getBase() != rhs.getBase()) return false;
    if(lhs.getHeight() != rhs.getHeight()) return false;
    return true;
}
bool operator!=(const shape& lhs, const shape& rhs) { //The inequality can again make use of the equality
    return !(lhs == rhs);
}
```

Templates

- Sometimes you want a function or class that works with more than one type.
- For example, we might want a function compare that determines which out of two inputs is greater. It should work with any type, including custom ones.
- The naive approach is to copy the source code for each type, but that is not sustainable in the long run. A better solution is to write a template function.

```
template <typename T> //typename is a C++ keyword, T is a name that you choose to represent the type
int compare(const T& val1, const T& val2) {
   if (val2 < val1) return 1; //The first argument is greater
   if (val1 < val2) return -1; //The second argument is greater
   return 0; //The arguments are equal
}</pre>
```

• Now any type that implements operator< can use the function! In general, templates should try to place as few requirements on the types as possible.

Templates

Classes can also be templates. The syntax is the same as for functions.

```
template <typename T> //Put the template keyword before the class, just like for functions
class calculator { //This simple calculator class can add and multiply objects
   public:
   T multiply(T val1, T val2);
   T add(T val1, T val2);
};

template <typename T> //The function implementations should also be preceded by the template keyword
T calculator<T>::multiply(T val1, T val2) {
   return val1*val2; //For this to work, the type must implement operator*
}

template <typename T>
T calculator<T>::add(T val1, T val2) {
   return val1 + val2; //For this to work, the type must implement operator+
}
```

 Now we can make calculators for any type. The syntax for creating templated types is the familiar one from vectors, maps and so on.

```
calculator<double> doubleCalc; //This calculator works with doubles calculator<shape> shapeCalc; //This would work with shapes if they defined operator* and operator+
```

What is coding style?

Style == Readability

- How and when to use comments,
- Tabs or spaces for indentation (and how many spaces),
- Appropriate use of white space,
- Proper naming of variables and functions,
- Code grouping an organization,
- Patterns to be used/avoided.

Coding style

- Style == Readability
- Why Coding Style Matters?
 - Make Errors Obvious.
 - Easy to understand logic of your own old codes.
 - ▶ Style is mandatory in any sw developer team.
- EasyToStart tip: use editor plugins, e.g. flymake-google-cpplint for Emacs (accompany with iedit, google-c-style).

```
#include <float.h>
#include <stdarg.h>

// Let's try typing 'while'

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
   int variable_index = 0;
   while ( variable_index != 10) {
      printf("This is good");
      variable_index ++;
   }

   return 0;
}
```

Clean Code: Meaningful names

• Use meaningful (intention-revealing) names

```
const int size;
int nCycles;
double time;
```

Better

```
const int sizeOfAlloccationInBytes;
int numberOfAllocations;
double timeToSleepBetweenAllocations;
```

Clean Code: Functions

• Keep functions small (no more than 20 lines)

```
public void renderWebPage() {
 StringBuilder content = getContentBuilder();
 content.append("<html>");
 content.append("<head>");
 for (HeaderElement he : getHeaderElements()) {
   String headerEntry = he.getStartTag() + he.getContent() +
      he.getEndTag():
    content.append(headerEntry);
 content.append("</head>");
 content.append("<body>");
 for (BodyElement be : getBodyElements()) {
   String bodyEntry = /* .. */
      content.append(bodyEntry);
 content.append("</body>"):
 content.append("</html>"):
 OutputStream output = new OutputStream(response);
 output.write(content.toString().getBytes());
 output.close();
```

Clean Code: Functions

• Keep functions small (no more than 20 lines)

```
public void renderWebPage() {
    startPage();
    includeHeaderContent();
    includeHeaderContent();
    endPage();
    writePageToResponse();
}

private void startPage() { /* ... */ }

private void includeHeaderContent() { /* ... */ }

private void includeBodyContent() { /* ... */ }

private void endPage() { /* ... */ }

private void writePageToResponse() { /* ... */ }
```

Clean Code: Functions

Function

- should do one thing,
- should do it well,
- should do it only,
- with less arguments is easier to use.

```
calendar.SetDate(2014,2,3);
```

```
calendar.SetDate(todaysDate);
```

Clean Code: Comments

 Intuitively understandable code is better than complex code with a lot comments.

```
// Check to see if the employee is eligible for full benefits
if ((employee.flags & HOURLY_FLAG) != 0 && (employee.age > 65))

if (employee.isEligibleForFullBenefits())
```

Describe why you do something - not how!

```
// We need to remove duplicates from the names because
// a person cannot have the same name more than once.
Set<String> uniqueNames = new HashSet<String>(names);
```

Don't comment obvious things

```
// Check if members have been initialized. If not, do it!
if (members == null) {
  members = new ArrayList<Member>();
}
```

Final words

- Aim for simpilicity, whenever possible.
- Stick to one coding style. Importance of code readability usually are underestimated.
- Use Coding Tools.
- Use Google.

Backup Slides

References

- http://indico.cern.ch/event/404359/timetable
- http://www.smashingmagazine.com/2012/10/why-coding-style-matters/