

EDAF50 – C++ Programming

11. Low-level details. Loose ends.

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Outline

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- 2 Bit operations
 - bit-fields
 - <bitset>
- 3 The comma operator
- 4 C-style strings
 - The C standard library string functions
- 5 Multi-dimensional arrays
- 6 Templates
- 7 Most vexing parse

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union

The size of a normal struct (class) is *the sum* of its members

```
struct DataS {  
    int nr;  
    double v;  
    char txt[6];  
};
```

All members in a struct are laid out after each other in memory.

The size of a union is equal to *the size of the largest member*

```
union DataU {  
    int nr;  
    double v;  
    char txt[6];  
};
```

All members in a union have *the same address*: only one member can be used at any time.

union

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union

Example use of DataU

```
union DataU {  
    int nr;  
    double v;  
    char txt[6];  
};  
  
DataU a;  
a.nr = 57;  
cout << a.nr << endl;    57  
  
a.v = 12.345;  
cout << a.v << endl;    12.345  
  
strncpy(a.txt, "Tjo", 6);  
cout << a.txt << endl;    Tjo
```

The programmer is responsible for only using the "right" member

union

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union

Example of wrong use

```
using std::cout;  
using std::endl;  
  
union Foo{  
    int i;  
    float f;  
    double d;  
    char c[10];  
};  
int main()  
{  
    Foo f;  
  
    f.i = 12;  
    cout << f.i << ", " << f.f << ", " << f.d << ", " << f.c << endl;  
  
    strncpy(f.c, "Hej, du", 10);  
    cout << f.i << ", " << f.f << ", " << f.d << ", " << f.c << endl;  
}
```

12, 1.68156e-44, 5.92879e-323, ^L
745170248, 3.33096e-12, 1.90387e-306, Hej, du

union

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union

encapsulate a union in a class to reduce the risk of mistakes

```
struct Bar{  
    enum {undef, i, f, d, c} kind;  
    Foo u;  
};  
void print(Bar b) {  
    switch(b.kind){  
    case Bar::i:  
        cout << b.u.i << endl;  
        break;  
    case Bar::f:  
        cout << b.u.f << endl;  
        break;  
    case Bar::d:  
        cout << b.u.d << endl;  
        break;  
    case Bar::c:  
        cout << b.u.c << endl;  
        break;  
    default:  
        cout << "???" << endl;  
        break;  
    }  
}  
  
void test_kind()  
{  
    Bar b{};  
  
    b.kind = Bar::i;  
    b.u.i = 17;  
  
    print(b);  
  
    Bar b2{};  
    print(b2);  
}  
17  
???
```

union

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union

anonymous union – removes one level

An alternative to the previous example:

```
struct FooS{
    enum {undef, k_i, k_f, k_d, k_c} kind;
    union{
        int i;
        float f;
        double d;
        char c[10];
    };
};
```

FooS test;

```
test.kind = FooS::k_c;
strncpy(test.c, "Testing", 10);
if(test.kind == FooS::k_c)
    cout << test.c << endl;
```

Testing

Exposing the tag to the users is brittle.

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Tagged union

A class with anonymous union and access functions

```
struct FooS{
    enum {undef, k_i, k_f, k_d, k_c} kind;
    union{
        int i;
        float f;
        double d;
        char c[10];
    };
    FooS() : kind{undef} {}
    FooS(int ii) : kind{k_i}, i{ii} {}
    FooS(float fi) : kind{k_f}, f{fi} {}
    FooS(double di) : kind{k_d}, d{di} {}
    FooS(const char* ci) : kind{k_c} {strncpy(c, ci, 10);}
    int get_i() {assert(kind==k_i); return i;}
    float get_f() {assert(kind==k_f); return f;}
    double get_d() {assert(kind==k_d); return d;}
    char* get_c() {assert(kind==k_c); return c;}
    FooS& operator=(int ii) {kind=k_i; i = ii; return *this;}
    FooS& operator=(float fi) {kind=k_f; f = fi; return *this;}
    FooS& operator=(double di) {kind=k_d; d = di; return *this;}
    FooS& operator=(const char* ci){kind=k_c; strncpy(c, ci, 10);
        return *this;}
};
```

union

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Bitwise operators

Bitwise and: $a \& b$ shift left: $a \ll 5$
 Bitwise or: $a | b$ shift right: $a \gg 5$
 Bitwise xor: $a \wedge b$ *>> on signed types is implementation defined*
 Bitwise complement: $\sim a$

Common operations:

set 5th bit

```
a = a | (1 << 4);
a |= (1 << 4);
```

clear 5th bit

```
a = a & ~(1 << 4);
a &= ~(1 << 4);
```

toggle 5th bit

```
a = a ^ (1 << 4);
a ^= (1 << 4);
```

Bit operations

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Bitwise operators

Example:

Low-level operations: Bitwise operators
 All variables are unsigned 16 bit integers

```
a = 77;           // a = 0000 0000 0100 1101
b = 22;          // b = 0000 0000 0001 0110
c = ~a;          // c = 1111 1111 1011 0010
d = a & b;       // d = 0000 0000 0000 0100
e = a | b;       // e = 0000 0000 0101 1111
f = a ^ b;       // f = 0000 0000 0101 1011
g = a << 3;      // g = 0000 0010 0110 1000
h = c >> 5;      // h = 0000 0111 1111 1101
i = a & 0xf00f;  // i = 0000 0000 0000 1101
j = a | 0xf00f;  // j = 1111 0000 0100 1101
k = a ^ (1 << 4); // k = 0000 0000 0101 1101
```

Bit operations

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Bit-fields

Can be used to save memory

Specify explicit size in bits with var : bit_width

```
struct Car { // record in a car database
    char reg_nr[6]; // NB! not null-terminated.
    unsigned int model_year : 12;
    unsigned int tax_paid : 1;
    unsigned int inspected : 1;
};
```

sizeof(Car) = 8 on my computer

Bit operations : bit-fields

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Bit-fields

Example

Access of members

Car c;

```
strncpy(c.reg_nr, "ABC123", 6);
c.model_year = 2011;
c.tax_paid = true;
c.inspected = true;
```

```
cout << "Year: " << c.model_year << endl;
if (c.tax_paid && c.inspected)
    cout << std::string(c.reg_nr, c.reg_nr+6) << " is OK";
```

Bit operations : bit-fields

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Bit-fields Warnings

Bit-fields can be useful in special cases, but they are *not portable*

- ▶ the layout of the object is *implementation defined*
- ▶ the compiler can add *padding*
- ▶ bit-field members *have no address*
 - ▶ cannot use the address-of operator &
- ▶ always specify **signed** or **unsigned**
 - ▶ use **unsigned** for members of size 1
- ▶ access can be slower than a "normal" struct
- ▶ integer variables and bitwise operations is an alternative

std::bitset (<bitset>)

- ▶ efficient class for storing a set of bits
 - ▶ compact
 - ▶ fast
- ▶ has convenient functions
 - ▶ test, **operator**[]
 - ▶ set, reset, flip
 - ▶ any, all, none, count
 - ▶ conversion to/from string
 - ▶ I/O operators
- ▶ cf. std::vector<bool>
 - ▶ std::bitset has fixed size
 - ▶ a std::vector can grow
 - ▶ but does not quite behave like a normal std::vector<T>

bitset

Example: store 50 flags in 8 bytes

```
void test_bitop(){
    bool status;
    cout << std::boolalpha;

    unsigned long quizA = 0;

    quizA |= 1UL << 27 ;
    status = quizA & (1UL << 27);
    cout << "student 27: " ;
    cout << status << endl;

    quizA &= ~(1UL << 27);
    status = quizA & (1UL << 27);
    cout << "student 27: " ;
    cout << status << endl;
}
student 27: true
student 27: false
```

```
void test_bitset(){
    bool status;
    cout << std::boolalpha;

    std::bitset<50> quizB;

    quizB.set(27);
    status = quizB[27];
    cout << "student 27: " ;
    cout << status << endl;

    quizB.reset(27);
    status = quizB[27];
    cout << "student 27: " ;
    cout << status << endl;
}
student 27: true
student 27: false
```

The comma operator (Introduction and warning)

The comma operator expression expression1, expression2

- ▶ First evaluates expression1, then expression2
- ▶ the expression has the value of expression2
- ▶ NB! The comma separating function parameters or arguments is *not* the comma operator
- ▶ Examples:

```
string s;
while(cin >> s, s.length() > 5) { // better: use &&
    //do something
}

std::vector<int> v(10);

vector<int>::size_type cnt = v.size();
for(vector<int>::size_type i=0; i < v.size(); ++i, --cnt) {
    v[i]=cnt;
}
// v now contains 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
```

Do not use the comma operator!

C-strings – library functions

functions in <cstring>

```
strcpy(dest,src) // Copies src to dest
strncpy(dest,src,n) // Copies at most n chars
// NB! dest is not null-terminated when truncating

strcat(s,t) // Appends a copy of t to the end of s
strncat(s,t,n) // Appends at most n chars

strlen(s) // Gives the length of s
strlen(s,n) // Gives the length of s, max n chars

strcmp(s,t) // Compare s and t
strncmp(s,t,n) // ... at most n chars
// s<t, s==t, s>t returns <0, =0, >0 respectively
```

(even more) unsafe, avoid when possible!

Multidimensional arrays

multi-dimensional arrays

- ▶ Does not (really) exist in C++
 - ▶ are arrays of arrays
 - ▶ Look like in Java
- ▶ Java: array of *references to arrays*
- ▶ C++: two alternatives
 - ▶ Array of arrays
 - ▶ Array of *pointers* (to the first element of an array)

Multi-dimensional arrays

Initializing a matrix with an initializer list:

3 rows, 4 columns

```
int a[3][4] = {
    {0, 1, 2, 3}, /* initializer list for row 0 */
    {4, 5, 6, 7}, /* initializer list for row 1 */
    {8, 9, 10, 11} /* initializer list for row 2 */
};
```

Instead of nested lists one can write the initialization as a single list:

```
int a[3][4] = {0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11};
```

- ▶ Multi-dimensional arrays are stored like an array in memory.
- ▶ The dimension *closest to the name* is the size of the array
- ▶ The remaining dimensions belong to the element type

Multi-dimensional arrays

Representation of arrays in memory

An array `T array[3]` is represented in memory by a sequence of three elements of type `T`: `| T | T | T |`

An `int[4]` is represented as

`| int | int | int | int |`

Thus, `int[3][4]` is represented as three `int[4]` objects:

`| int | int | int | int | int | int | int | int | int | int | int | int |`

Multi-dimensional arrays

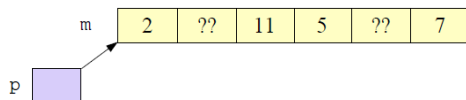
Examples

```
int m[2][3]; // A 2x3-matrix

m[1][0] = 5;

int* e = m; // Error! cannot convert 'int [2][3]' to 'int*'
int* p = &m[0][0];
*p = 2;

p[2] = 11;
int* q=m[1]; // OK: int[3] decays to int*
q[2] = 7;
```



Multi-dimensional arrays

Parameters of type multi-dimensional arrays

```
// One way of declaring the parameter
void printmatr(int (*a)[4], int n);

// Another option
void printmatr(int a[][4], int n) {
    for (int i=0; i<n; ++i) {
        for (const auto& x : a[i]) { The elements of a are int[4]
            cout << x << " ";
        }
        cout << endl;
    }
}
```

Multi-dimensional arrays

Initialization and function call

```
int a[3][4] {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12};
int b[3][4] {{1,2,3,4},{5,6,7,8},{9,10,11,12}};

printmatr(a,3);
cout << "-----" << endl;
printmatr(b,3);
```

```
1 2 3 4
5 6 7 8
9 10 11 12
-----
1 2 3 4
5 6 7 8
9 10 11 12
```

Template parameters

Types or values

```
template <typename T, int N>
struct Buffer{
    using value_type = T;
    constexpr int size() {return N;}
    T buf[N];
};
```

- ▶ Buffer: like an array that knows its size
 - ▶ No overhead for heap allocation
 - ▶ Template parameters must be **constexpr**
 - cannot have variable size
 - ▶ cf. `std::array`
- ▶ The size as value parameter to the template
- ▶ An alias (`value_type`) and a **constexpr** function (`size()`)
 - ▶ Users can access (read) template parameter values

Template parameters and alias

All standard containers has a "member type" (nested type name) named `value_type`

```
template <typename T>
class Container{
public:
    using value_type = T;
    ...
};
template <typename Cont>           template parameters
typename Cont::value_type&        return type
get_first(Cont& t)                function name and parameters
{
    return *t.begin();
}
Here typename is needed by the compiler to know that the name
Cont::value_type is a type before the template is instantiated
void example()
{
    Vector<int> v{2,4,3,5,4,6};
    cout << "first element of v is " << get_first(v) << endl;
}
```

Templates

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Alias

using can be used to create type aliases

```
using size_t = unsigned int;
```

including templates:

```
using IntVector = Vector<int>;
```

Templates

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Iterator traits Exempel: find

```
template <class InIt, class T>
InIt find (InIt first, InIt last, const T& val);
```

Better way: the compiler knows the actual value type.

With `decltype` and `std::declval<T>`

```
template <class InIt, class T=decltype(* declval<InIt>())>
InIt find (InIt first, InIt last, const T& val);
```

With `std::iterator_traits<Iterator>`

```
template <class InIt,
          class T=typename iterator_traits<InIt>::value_type>
InIt find (InIt first, InIt last, const T& val);
```

Templates

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Class Templates Definition of function members

```
template <typename T>
void Vector<T>::print() const
{
    for(size_t i = 0; i != sz; ++i)
        cout << p[i] << " ";
    cout << endl;
}
```

- ▶ Function members in a class template are function templates
- ▶ `print()` works for all types with an `operator<<`
- ▶ "Duck typing":
if it walks like a duck and quacks like a duck, it is a duck

Templates

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Class Templates Definition of member functions

```
template <typename T>
void Vector<T>::print() const
{
    for(size_t i = 0; i != sz; ++i)
        cout << p[i] << " ";
    cout << endl;
}
```

▶ Works for all types with `operator<<`

▶ but not for elements of type

```
struct Foo{
    int x;

    Foo(int d=0) :x{d}{}
};
```

Template specialization for the type `Foo`:

```
template<> full specialization: no template arguments
void Vector<Foo>::print() const
{
    for(size_t i = 0; i != sz; ++i)
        cout << "Foo("<<p[i].x << ") ";
    cout << endl;
}
```

Templates

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Template specialization

- ▶ Class Templates can be specialized
 - ▶ fully
 - ▶ partially
- ▶ Function templates can be specialized
 - ▶ fully
 - ▶ *but overloading is always preferable*

Templates

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Templates, comments

- ▶ Templates have parameters
 - ▶ type parameters: declared with **class** or **typename**
 - ▶ value parameters: declared as usual, e.g., **int N**
- ▶ The compiler needs the template definition to instantiate ⇒ it must be in the *header file* (if used by others)
- ▶ Overloading:
 - ▶ Functions can be overloaded ⇒ function templates can be overloaded
 - ▶ Classes cannot be overloaded ⇒ class templates cannot be overloaded
- ▶ Template specialization:
 - ▶ Class templates can be specialized *partially* or *fully*
 - ▶ Function templates can only be *fully* specialized, *but*
 - ▶ Specializations are not overloaded
 - ▶ Often better/clearer to overload with a normal function (not a template) than to specialize

Templates

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Variadic templates

```
void println() { base case: no arguments
    cout << endl;
}

template <typename T, typename... Tail>
void println(const T& head, const Tail&... tail)
{
    cout << head << " ";    Print the first element
    println(tail...);       recursion: print the rest
}

void test_variadic()
{
    string a("Hello");
    int b{10};
    double c{17.42};
    long d{100};

    println(a,b,c,d);
}
```

Templates

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Template metaprogramming

- ▶ Write code that is executed *by the compiler, at compile-time*
- ▶ Common in the standard library
 - ▶ As optimization: move computations from run-time to compile-time
 - ▶ As utilities: e.g., `type_traits`, `iterator_traits`
- ▶ Metafunction: a class template containing the result
- ▶ Standard library conventions:
 - ▶ Type results: type member named `type`
 - ▶ Value results: value member named `value`

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Template metaprogramming Example of compile-time computation

```
template <int N>
struct factorial{
    static constexpr int value = N * factorial<N-1>::value;
};

template <>
struct factorial<0>{
    static constexpr int value = 1;
};

void example()
{
    display_int<factorial<5>::value>();
}
```

Result of the *meta-function call* as a compiler error:

```
In function 'void example()':
error: invalid use of incomplete type 'struct display_int<120>'
    display_int<factorial<5>::value>();
```

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Template metaprogramming Example of templates for getting values as compiler errors

- ▶ Trick: use a template that doesn't compile to get information about the template parameters through a compiler error.
- ▶ Can be useful for debugging templates.
- ▶ To get an int:

```
template <int N>
struct display_int;    // declaration but no definition
```

- ▶ To get a type:

```
template <typename T>
struct display_type;
```

Templates

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Most vexing parse Example 1

```
struct Foo {
    int x;
};

int main()
{
    #ifdef ERROR1
        Foo f();    // function declaration
    #else
        Foo f{};    // Variable declaration C++11
        // Foo f; //C++98 (but not initialized)
    #endif
    cout << f.x << endl;    // Error

    Foo g = Foo();    // OK    // C++11: auto g = Foo();
    cout << g.x << endl;
}
```

```
error: request for member 'x' in 'f', which is of
non-class type 'Foo()'
```

Most vexing parse

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Most vexing parse Example 2

```
struct Foo {
    int x;
};

struct Bar {
    int x;
    Bar(Foo f) :x{f.x} {};
};

int main()
{
#ifdef ERROR2
    Bar b(Foo()); // function declaration
#else
    Bar b(Foo()); // Variable declaration (C++11)
    // Bar b((Foo())); // C++98 : extra parentheses --> expression
#endif
    cout << b.x << endl; // Error!

    error: request for member 'x' in 'b', which is of
    non-class type 'Bar(Foo (*)())'
```

Most vexing parse Example: actual function

```
struct Foo {
    Foo(int i=0) :x{i} {};
    int x;
};

struct Bar {
    int x;
    Bar(Foo f) :x{f.x} {};
};

Bar b(Foo()); // forward declaration

Foo make_foo()
{
    return Foo(17);
}

Bar b(Foo(*f)())
{
    return Bar(f());
}

void test()
{
    Bar tmp = b(make_foo());
    cout << tmp.x << endl;
}

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```

Suggested reading

References to sections in Lippman

[C-style strings](#) 3.5.4

[Multi-dimensional arrays](#) 3.6

[Bitwise operations](#) 4.8

[The comma operator](#) 4.10

[Union](#) 19.6

[Bit-fields](#) 19.8.1

[Templates](#) Chapter 16