

DM841  
DISCRETE OPTIMIZATION

## Elements of C++

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# C++ Features

- ▶ **Declaration** of a function or class that does not include a body only types (function prototype)
- ▶ **Definition**: declaration of a function that does include a body (implementation)
- ▶ **Pointer variable**: a variable that stores the address where another object resides: `int *m = nullptr;`
- ▶ **Dynamic allocation via `new` operator**. No garbage collector, we must free the memory via **`delete`**. Otherwise the memory is lost: Memory leak.
- ▶ **Address-of operator: (`&`)** (declares an lvalue reference, `&&` declares rvalue reference, eg, `x+y`, "foo", 2; if an object has a name then it is an lvalue).

```
for( auto x: arr )  
  ++x; \\ broken: assumes copy
```

```
for( auto &x: arr )  
  ++x; // increment by one, ok!
```

# C++ Features

## Parameter passing:

### ▶ call-by-value:

```
double average( double a, double b );  
double z = average( x, y )
```

### ▶ call-by-(lvalue)-reference:

```
void swap( double & a, double & b );  
swap( x, y )
```

### ▶ call-by-reference-to-a-constant (or call-by-constant reference):

```
string randomItem( const vector<string> & arr );
```

1. Call-by-value is appropriate for small objects that should not be altered by the function
2. Call-by-constant-reference is appropriate for large objects that should not be altered by the function and are expensive to copy
3. Call-by-reference is appropriate for all objects that may be altered by the function

Temporary elements that are about to be destroyed can be passed by a call-by-rvalue-reference:

```
string randomItem( const vector<string> & arr );  
string randomItem( vector<string> && arr );  
  
vector<string> v { "hello", "world" };  
cout << randomItem( v ) << endl;  
cout << randomItem( { "hello", "world" } ) << endl;
```

Often used in overloading of = operator, that can be implemented by a copy or a move

## Return passing

```
LargeType randomItem1( const vector<LargeType > & arr )
{
    return arr[ randomInt( 0, arr.size() - 1 ) ];
}

const LargeType & randomItem2( const vector<LargeType > & arr )
{
    return arr[ randomInt( 0, arr.size() - 1 ) ];
}

vector<LargeType> vec;

LargeType item1 = randomItem1( vec ); // copy, return-by-value
LargeType item2 = randomItem2( vec ); // copy
const LargeType & item3 = randomItem2( vec ); // no copy, return-by-(lvalue)-constant
      -reference
```

## Return passing

```
vector<int> partialSum( const vector<int> & arr )  
{  
    vector<int> result( arr.size() );  
    result[ 0 ] = arr[ 0 ];  
    for ( int i = 1; i < arr.size(); ++i)  
        result[ i ] = result[ i-1 ] + arr[ i ];  
    return result;  
}
```

```
vector<int> vec;
```

```
vector<int> sums = partialSum( vec ); // copy in old C++, move in C++11
```

# C++ Features

- ▶ Encapsulation (functions in the class as opposed to C)
- ▶ Constructors
- ▶ Rule of three: destructor, copy constructor, copy assignment operator (move constructor, move assignment)
- ▶ Public and private parts (and protected)
- ▶ Templates
- ▶ STL: vector
- ▶ (Some functions C-like: `string.c_str()` needed to transform a string in char array as in C)

# Passing Objects

- ▶ In C++ objects are passed:
  - ▶ by value  $F(A\ x)$
  - ▶ by reference  $F(A\&\ x)$
  
- ▶ In java objects are passed by reference,  $F(A\&\ x)$

In C++:  $F(\text{const } A\&\ x)$  pass the object but do not change it.

If  $F(A\&\ x)$  const the function does not change anything



# Passing Objects

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- ▶ In java objects are passed by reference,  $F(A\&\ x)$

In C++:  $F(\text{const } A\&\ x)$  pass the object but do not change it.

If  $F(A\&\ x)$  `const` the function does not change anything

Compare:

```
% vector<string> int2crs;  
string Input::operator[](unsigned i) const { return int2crs[i]; }  
string& Input::operator[](unsigned i) { return int2crs[i]; }
```

# Inheritance

- ▶ General idea: extension of a class
- ▶ Example with A and B (next slide)
- ▶ Access level protected: only derived classes can see
- ▶ Hidden spaces: syntax with `::` (double colon), eg `std::cout`
- ▶ Hidden fields: syntax with `::` (double colon), eg `A::a1`
- ▶ Hidden methods (rewritten)
- ▶ Types of inheritance: public, private, and protected
- ▶ Invocation of constructors with inheritance: use of `:`
- ▶ Compatibility between base class and derived class (asymmetric)

```
#include <iostream>

class A
{
public:
    A(int p1, double p2) { a1 = p1; a2 = p2; }
    int M1() const { return a1; }
    double a2;
protected: //not private
    int a1;
};

class B : public A
{
public:
    B(int p1, double p2, unsigned p3) : A(p1,p2) { b1 = p3; }
    unsigned B1() const { return b1; }
    void SetA1(int f) { a1 = f; }
private:
    unsigned b1;
};

int main() // or (int argc, char* argv[])
{
    A x(1, 3.4);
    B y(-4, 2.3, 10);

    y.SetA1(-23);
    std::cout << y.a2 << " " << y.M1() << std::endl; // 2.3 -23
    return 0;
}
```

# Polymorphism

One of the key features of class inheritance is that a pointer to a derived class is type-compatible with a pointer to its base class.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

class Polygon {
    protected:
        int width, height;
    public:
        void set_values (int a, int b)
            { width=a; height=b; }
};

class Rectangle: public Polygon {
    public:
        int area()
            { return width*height; }
};

class Triangle: public Polygon {
    public:
        int area()
            { return width*height/2; }
};
```

```
int main () {
    Rectangle rect;
    Triangle trgl;
    Polygon * ppoly1 = &rect;
    Polygon * ppoly2 = &trgl;
    ppoly1->set_values (4,5);
    ppoly2->set_values (4,5);
    cout << rect.area() << '\n'; // 20
    cout << trgl.area() << '\n'; // 10
    return 0;
}
```

# Polymorphism

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

class Polygon {
    protected:
        int width, height;
    public:
        void set_values (int a, int b)
            { width=a; height=b; }
        virtual int area() {return 0;}
};

class Rectangle: public Polygon {
    public:
        Rectangle(int a, int b) {width=a;
            height=b;}
        int area()
            { return width*height; }
};

class Triangle: public Polygon {
    public:
        Triangle(int a, int b) {width=a;
            height=b;}
        int area()
            { return width*height/2; }
};
```

```
int main () {
    Polygon * ppoly1 = new Rectangle (4,5)
        ;
    Polygon * ppoly2 = new Triangle (4,5);
    cout << ppoly1->area() << '\n';
    cout << ppoly2->area() << '\n';
    delete ppoly1;
    delete ppoly2;
    return 0;
}
```

# Virtual functions

- ▶ Compatibility in case of redefined methods
- ▶ Late binding
- ▶ Pure virtual functions
- ▶ Abstract classes

## Redefinition M1

```
class A {  
int M1() {return a1;}  
int a1  
}  
  
class B {  
int M1() {return a1;}  
int a1;  
}  
  
A a(,);  
B b(,,);  
x=b.M1();  
  
cout<<x<<" " <<a.M1()<<endl;
```

# Virtual functions

```
void F(A a) {  
    ...  
}  
  
A x(,);  
B y(,,);  
  
F(y);
```

It calls method from class A. It copies an object of class B in A by removing what y had more. It doesn't even know that A exists

```
void F(A& a)
```

function for class A

It is not obvious which one of A or B it is going to use.

Eg. Persons (A) and student (B)

Methods are of two types:

- ▶ Final (in java) methods
- ▶ Virtual methods

If F is a virtual method it calls the last one defined.

Virtual  $\rightsquigarrow$  Late binding makes binding between F and M late, ie, at execution time.



# Pure virtual functions

We can have that the function is undefined in the parent class:

```
virtual int H() = 0;
```

pure virtual function, virtual function that is not defined but only redefined.

A becomes an **abstract** class hence we cannot define an object of class A. Like interfaces in java. There everything is virtual, here it is mixed.

Why? I might have different subclasses that implement the functions in different ways.

```
class A {
public:
    A(int p1, double p2) { a1 = p1; a2 = p2; }
    virtual int M1() const { cout << "A::M1"; return a1; }
    double a2;
    virtual int H() = 0;
protected:
    int a1;
};

class B : public A {
public:
    B(int p1, double p2, unsigned p3) : A(p1,p2) { b1 = p3; }
    unsigned B1() const { return b1; }
    void SetA1(int f) { A::a1 = f; }
    int M1() const { cout << "B::M1"; return a2; }
protected:
    unsigned b1;
    vector<float> a1;
};

void F(A& a) {
    cout << a.M1() << endl;
}

int main() {
    A x(1,3.4);
    B y(-4,2.3,10);
    F(y);
    return 0;
}
```

# Abstract Classes

They are classes that can only be used as base classes, and thus are allowed to have pure virtual member functions.

```
#include <iostream>
// abstract base class
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

class Polygon {
protected:
    int width, height;
public:
    void set_values (int a, int b)
        { width=a; height=b; }
    virtual int area (void) =0;
};

class Rectangle: public Polygon {
public:
    int area (void)
        { return (width * height); }
};

class Triangle: public Polygon {
public:
    int area (void)
        { return (width * height / 2); }
};
```

```
int main () {
    Rectangle rect;
    Triangle trgl;
    Polygon mypolygon; // not working if
                       Polygon is abstract base class
    Polygon * ppoly1 = &rect;
    Polygon * ppoly2 = &trgl;
    ppoly1->set_values (4,5);
    ppoly2->set_values (4,5);
    cout << ppoly1->area() << '\n';
    cout << ppoly2->area() << '\n';
    return 0;
}
```

# Casting

C++ is a strongly-typed language. Conversions, specially those that imply a different interpretation of the value, must be explicit, [type-casting](#).

Note:

```
unsigned a,b;  
unsigned x = abs((int) a - (int) b);  
unsigned x = abs(static_cast<int> a - static_cast<int> b);
```

`static_cast<int>` instead of `(int)` (C-like syntax)

If used with pointers, no checks are performed during runtime to guarantee that the object being converted is in fact a full object of the destination type. Therefore, it is up to the programmer to ensure that the conversion is safe.

`dynamic_cast<int>`

can only be used with pointers and references to classes (or with `void*`). Its purpose is to ensure that the result of the type conversion points to a valid complete object of the destination pointer type.

Example: pointer upcast (converting from pointer-to-derived to pointer-to-base); pointer downcast (convert from pointer-to-base to pointer-to-derived) polymorphic classes (those with virtual members) if -and only if- the pointed object is a valid complete object of the target type. Require run time checking and it is therefore more costly.

# Templates

## Generic programming

```
template <class T>
class mypair {
    T values [2];
public:
    mypair (T first, T second)
    {
        values[0]=first; values[1]=second;
    }
};
```

(must be fully defined in the header files.)

```
mypair<int> myobject (115, 36);
mypair<double> myfloats (3.0, 2.18);
```