Modern C++ Programming

6. BASIC CONCEPTS V

FUNCTIONS AND PREPROCESSING

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Functions

Overview

A **function** (**procedure** or **routine**) is a piece of code that performs a *specific task*

Purpose:

- **Avoiding code duplication**: less code for the same functionality $\rightarrow$ less bugs

- **Readability**: better express what the code does

- **Organization**: break the code in separate modules

Function Parameter and Argument

Function Parameter [formal]

A **parameter** is the variable which is part of the method signature

Function Argument [actual]

An **argument** is the actual value (instance) of the variable that gets passed to the function

```cpp
void f(int a, char* b); // parameters: int a, char* b
                        // return type: void

f(3, "abc");            // arguments: 3, "abc"
```

Pass by-Value

Call-by-value

The object is copied and assigned to input arguments of the method `f(T x)`

Advantages:

- Changes made to the parameter inside the function have no effect on the argument

Disadvantages:

- Performance penalty if the copied arguments are large (e.g. a structure with several data members)

When to use:

- Built-in data type and small objects ($\leq$ 8 bytes)

When not to use:

- Fixed size arrays which decay into pointers
- Large objects

Pass by-Pointer

Call-by-pointer

The <u>address</u> of a variable is <u>copied</u> and assigned to input arguments of the method
`f(T* x)`

Advantages:
- Allows a function to change the value of the argument
- The argument is not copied (fast)

Disadvantages:
- The argument may be a null pointer
- Dereferencing a pointer is slower than accessing a value directly

When to use:
- *Raw* arrays (use `const T*` if read-only)

When not to use:
- All other cases

Pass by-Reference

Call-by-reference

The <u>reference</u> of a variable is copied and assigned to input arguments of the method
`f(T& x)`

Advantages:

- Allows a function to change the value of the argument (better readability compared with pointers)
- The argument is not copied (fast)
- References must be initialized (no null pointer)
- Avoid implicit conversion (without `const T&`)

When to use:

- All cases except raw pointers

When not to use:

- Pass by-value *could* give performance advantages and improve the readability with built-in data type and small objects that are trivially copyable

Examples

```cpp
struct MyStruct;

void f1(int a);        // pass by-value
void f2(int& a);       // pass by-reference
void f3(const int& a); // pass by-const reference
void f4(MyStruct& a);  // pass by-reference

void f5(int* a);       // pass by-pointer
void f6(const int* a); // pass by-const pointer
void f7(MyStruct* a);  // pass by-pointer

void f8(int*& a);      // pass a pointer by-reference
//-------------------------------------------------------------
char c = 'a';
f1(c);    // ok, pass by-value (implicit conversion)
// f2(c); // compile error different types
f3(c);    // ok, pass by-value (implicit conversion)
```

Signature

Function signature defines the *input types* for a (specialized) function and the *inputs + outputs types* for a template function

A function signature includes the number of arguments, the types of arguments, and the order of the arguments

- The C++ standard prohibits a function declaration that only differs in the return type
- Function declarations with different signatures can have distinct return types

Overloading

Function overloading allows having distinct functions with the same name but with different *signatures*

```cpp
void f(int a, char* b);        // signature:  (int, char*)

// char f(int a, char* b);     // compile error same signature
                               // but different return types

void f(const int a, char* b);  // same signature, ok
                               // const int == int

void f(int a, const char* b);  // overloading with signature: (int, const char*)

int f(float);                  // overloading with signature: (float)
                               // the return type is different
```

Overloading Resolution Rules

- An exact match

- A promotion (e.g. char to int)

- A standard type conversion (e.g. float and int)

- A constructor or user-defined type conversion

```cpp
void f(int   a);
void f(float b);        // overload
void f(float b, char c); // overload
//-----------------------------------------------------------
   f(0);       // ok
// f('a');     // compile error ambiguous match
   f(2.3f);    // ok
// f(2.3);     // compile error ambiguous match
   f(2.3, 'a'); // ok, standard type conversion
```

Overloading and =delete

=delete can be used to prevent calling the wrong overload

```cpp
void g(int) {}

void g(double) = delete;

g(3);   // ok
g(3.0); // compile error
```

```cpp
#include <cstddef> // std::nullptr_t

void f(int*) {}

void f(std::nullptr_t) = delete;

f(nullptr); // compile error
```

Function Default Parameters

Default/Optional parameter

A **default parameter** is a function parameter that has a default value

- If the user does not supply a value for this parameter, the default value will be used
- All default parameters must be the rightmost parameters
- Default parameters must be declared only once
- Default parameters can improve compile time and avoid redundant code because they avoid defining other overloaded functions

```cpp
void f(int a, int b = 20);          // declaration

//void f(int a, int b = 10) { ... } // compile error, already set in the declaration

void f(int a, int b) { ... }        // definition, default value of "b" is already set

f(5); // b is 20
```

C++ allows marking functions with standard properties to better express their intent:

- C++11 `[[noreturn]]` indicates that the function does not return

- C++14 `[[deprecated]]` , `[[deprecated("reason")]]` indicates the use of a function is discouraged. It issues a compiler warning if used

- C++17 `[[nodiscard]]`
  C++20 `[[nodiscard("reason")]]` issues a warning if the return value of a function is discarded

- C++17 `[[maybe_unused]]` suppresses compiler warnings of unused entities

```cpp
[[noreturn]] void f() { std::exit(0); }

[[deprecated]] void my_rand() { ... }

[[nodiscard]] bool g(int& x) {
    update(x);
    bool status = ...;
    return status;
}

void h([[maybe_unused]] x) {
#if !defined(SKIP_COMPUTATION)
    ... use x ...
#endif
}
//-------------------------------------------------------------------
my_rand();   // WARNING "deprecated"
g(y);        // WARNING "discard return value"
int z = g(); // no warning
h(3);        // no warning if SKIP_COMPUTATION is defined
```

Function Pointers and Function Objects

Standard C achieves generic programming capabilities and composability through the concept of **function pointer**

A function can be passed as a pointer to another function and behaves as an *"indirect call"*

```c
#include <stdlib.h> // qsort

int descending(const void* a, const void* b) {
    return *((const int*) a) > *((const int*) b);
}

int array[] = {7, 2, 5, 1};
qsort(array, 4, sizeof(int), descending);
// array: { 7, 5, 2, 1 }
```

```
int eval(int a, int b, int (*f)(int, int)) {
    return f(a, b);
}
// type: int (*)(int, int)
int add(int a, int b) { return a + b; }
int sub(int a, int b) { return a - b; }

cout << eval(4, 3, add); // print 7
cout << eval(4, 3, sub); // print 1
```

Problems:

Safety There is no check of the argument type in the generic case (e.g. `qsort`)
Performance Any operation requires an indirect call to the original function. Function
inlining is not possible

Function Object

A **function object**, or **functor**, is a *callable* object that can be treated as a parameter

C++ provides a more efficient and convenience way to pass *"procedure"* to other functions called **function object**

```cpp
#include <algorithm> // for std::sort

struct Descending {                      // <-- function object
    bool operator()(int a, int b) {  // function call operator
        return a > b;
    }
};
int array[] = {7, 2, 5, 1};
std::sort(array, array + 4, Descending{});
// array: { 7, 5, 2, 1 }
```

Advantages:

Safety Argument type checking is always possible. It could involve templates

Performance The compiler injects `operator()` in the code of the destination function and then compile the routine. Operator inlining is the standard behavior

C++11 simplifies the concept by providing less verbose `function objects` called **lambda expressions**

Lambda Expressions

Lambda Expression

Lambda Expression

A C++11 **lambda expression** is an *inline local-scope* function object

```
auto x = [capture clause] (parameters) { body }
```

- The `[capture clause]` marks the declaration of the lambda and how the local scope arguments are captured (by-value, by-reference, etc.)

- The `parameters` of the lambda are normal function parameters (optional)

- The `body` of the lambda is a normal function body

The expression to the right of `=` is the **lambda expression**, and *the runtime object* `x` created by that expression is the **closure**

Lambda Expression

```cpp
#include <algorithm> // for std::sort

int array[] = {7, 2, 5, 1};
auto lambda = [](int a, int b){ return a > b; }; // named lambda

std::sort(array, array + 4, lambda);
// array: { 7, 5, 2, 1 }

// in alternative, in one line of code:          // unnamed lambda
std::sort(array, array + 4, [](int a, int b){ return a > b; });
// array: { 7, 5, 2, 1 }
```

Capture List

Lambda expressions *capture* external variables used in the body of the lambda in two ways:

- Capture *by-value*
- Capture *by-reference* (can modify external variable values)

Capture list can be passed as follows

- `[]` no capture
- `[=]` captures <u>all</u> variables *by-value*
- `[&]` captures <u>all</u> variables *by-reference*
- `[var1]` captures only `var1` *by-value*
- `[&var2]` captures only `var2` *by-reference*
- `[var1, &var2]` captures `var1` *by-value* and `var2` *by-reference*

Capture List Examples

```cpp
// GOAL: find the first element greater than "limit"
#include <algorithm> // for std::find_if
int limit = ...

auto lambda1 = [=](int value)       { return value > limit; }; // by-value
auto lambda2 = [&](int value)       { return value > limit; }; // by-reference
auto lambda3 = [limit](int value)   { return value > limit; }; // "limit" by-value
auto lambda4 = [&limit](int value)  { return value > limit; }; // "limit" by-reference
// auto lambda5 = [](int value)     { return value > limit; }; // no capture
                                                               // compile error

int array[] = {7, 2, 5, 1};
std::find_if(array, array + 4, lambda1);
```

Capture List - Other Cases

- `[=, &var1]` captures all variables used in the body of the lambda **by-value**, except `var1` that is captured **by-reference**

- `[&, var1]` captures all variables used in the body of the lambda **by-reference**, except `var1` that is captured **by-value**

- A lambda expression can read a variable without capturing it if the variable is `constexpr`

```cpp
constexpr int limit = 5;
int var1 = 3, var2 = 4;

auto lambda1 = [](int value){ return value > limit; };

auto lambda2 = [=, &var2]() { return var1 > var2;   };
```

Lambda Expressions - Parameters

C++14 Lambda expression parameters can be automatically deduced

```cpp
auto x = [](auto value) { return value + 4; };
```

C++14 Lambda expression parameters can be initialized

```cpp
auto x = [](int i = 6) { return i + 4; };
```

Lambda Expressions - Composability

Lambda expressions can be composed

```cpp
auto lambda1 = [](int value){ return value + 4; };
auto lambda2 = [](int value){ return value * 2; };

auto lambda3 = [&](int value){ return lambda2(lambda1(value)); };
// returns (value + 4) * 2
```

A function can return a lambda (dynamic dispatch is also possible)

```cpp
auto f() {
    return [](int value){ return value + 4; };
}

auto lambda = f();
cout << lambda(2); // print "6"
```

C++17 Lambda expression supports `constexpr`

C++20 Lambda expression supports `consteval`

```cpp
// constexpr lambda
auto factorial = [](int value) constexpr {
    int ret = 1;
    for (int i = 2; i <= value; i++)
        ret *= i;
    return ret;
};
auto mul = [](int v) consteval { return v * 2; };

constexpr int v1 = factorial(4) + mul(5); // '24' + '10'
```

C++20 Lambda expression supports `template` and `requires` clause

```cpp
auto lambda = []<typename T>(T value)
                requires std::is_arithmetic_v<T> {
    return value * 2;
};

auto v = lambda(3.4); // v: 6.8 (double)

struct A{} a;
// auto v = lambda(a); // compiler error
```

`mutable` **Lambda Expression**

Lambda capture is *by-const-value*

`mutable` specifier allows the lambda to modify the parameters captured *by-value*

```cpp
int  var = 1;

auto lambda1 = [&](){ var = 4; };          // ok
lambda1();
cout << var; // print '4'

// auto lambda2 = [=](){ var = 3; };       // compile error
// lambda operator() is const

auto lambda3 = [=]() mutable { var = 3; }; // ok
lambda3();
cout << var;  // print '4', lambda3 captures by-value
```

[[nodiscard]] Attribute

C++23 allows adding the `[[nodiscard]]` attribute to lambda expressions

```cpp
auto lambda = [] [[nodiscard]] (){ return 4; };

lambda();          // compiler warning

auto x = lambda(); // ok
```

Capture List and Classes ⤳

- `[this]` captures the current object `(*this)` *by-reference* (implicit in C++17)
- `[x = x]` captures the current object member `x` *by-value* C++14
- `[&x = x]` captures the current object member `x` *by-reference* C++14
- `[=]` default capture of `this` pointer by value has been deprecated C++20

```cpp
class A {
    int data = 1;

    void f() {
        int  var    = 2;                          // <-- local variable
        auto lambda1 = [=]()      { return var; };          // copy by-value, return 2
        auto lambda2 = [=]()      { int var = 3; return var; }; // return 3 (nearest scope)
        auto lambda3 = [this]() { return data; };           // copy by-reference, return 1
        auto lambda4 = [*this]() { return data; };          // copy by-value (C++17), return 1
//      auto lambda5 = [data]() { return data; };           // compile error 'data' is not visible
        auto lambda6 = [data = data]() { return data; }; // return 1
    }
};
```

Preprocessing

Preprocessing and Macro

A **preprocessor directive** is any line preceded by a *hash* symbol (#) which tells the compiler how to interpret the source code *before* compiling it

Macro are preprocessor directives which substitute any occurrence of an *identifier* in the rest of the code by replacement

Macro are evil:
Do not use macro expansion!!
...or use as little as possible

- Macro cannot be directly debugged
- Macro expansions can have unexpected side effects
- Macro have no namespace or scope

Preprocessors

All statements starting with `#`

- `#include "my_file.h"`

  Inject the code in the current file

- `#define MACRO <expression>`

  Define a new macro

- `#undef MACRO`

  Undefine a macro

  (a macro should be undefined as early as possible for safety reasons)

Multi-line Preprocessing: `\` at the end of the line

Indent: `#    define`

Conditional Compiling

- `#if <condition>`
    - `code`
  `#elif <condition>`
    - `code`
  `#else`
    - `code`
  `#endif`

- `#if defined(MACRO)` equal to `#ifdef MACRO`
  `#elif defined(MACRO)` equal to `#elifdef MACRO` C++23

  Check if a macro is defined

- `#if !defined(MACRO)` equal to `#ifndef MACRO`
  `#elif !defined(MACRO)` equal to `#elifndef MACRO` C++23

  Check if a macro is not defined

Common Error 1

Do not define macro in header files and before includes!!

```cpp
#include <iostream>

#define value    // very dangerous!!
#include "big_lib.hpp"

int main() {
    std::cout << f(4); // should print 7, but it prints always 3
}
```

`big_lib.hpp`:
```cpp
int f(int value) {     // 'value' disappears
    return value + 3;
}
```

It is very hard to see this problem when the macro is in a header

Common Error 2

Use parenthesis in macro definition!!

```cpp
#include <iostream>

#define SUB1(a, b)  a - b        // WRONG
#define SUB2(a, b) (a - b)       // WRONG
#define SUB3(a, b) ((a) - (b))   // correct

int main() {
    std::cout << (5 * SUB1(2, 1));   // print 9 not 5!!
    std::cout << SUB2(3 + 3, 2 + 2); // print 6 not 2!!
    std::cout << SUB3(3 + 3, 2 + 2); // print 2
}
```

Common Error 3

Macros make hard to find compile errors!!

```
 1: #include <iostream>
 2:
 3: #define F(a) {           \
 4:         ...              \
 5:         ...              \
 6:         return v;
 7:
 8: int main() {
 9:     F(3);       // compile error at line 9!!
10: }
```

- **In which line is the error??!***

---

*modern compilers are able to roll out the macro

Common Error 4

Macro content is not always evaluated!!

```cpp
#if defined(DEBUG)
#    define CHECK(EXPR)   // do something with EXPR
     void check(bool b) { /* do something with b */ }
#else
#    define CHECK(EXPR)   // do nothing
     void check(bool) {}  // do nothing
#endif
bool f() { /* return a boolean value */ }

check( f() )
CHECK( f() )
```

- **What happens when** `DEBUG` **is not defined?**
  `f()` is not evaluated the second time

Common Error 5

Use curly brackets in multi-lines macros!!

```cpp
#include <iostream>
#include <nuclear_explosion.hpp>

#define NUCLEAR_EXPLOSION                        \  // {
    std::cout << "start nuclear explosion"; \
    nuclear_explosion();
                                                 // }
int main() {
    bool never_happen = false;
    if (never_happen)
        NUCLEAR_EXPLOSION
} // BOOM!! ☠
```

The second line is executed!!

Common Error 6

Macros do not have scope!!

```cpp
#include <iostream>

void f() {
    #define value 4
    std::cout << value;
}

int main() {
    f();                // 4
    std::cout << value; // 4
    #define value 3
    f();                // 4
    std::cout << value; // 3
}
```

Common Error 7

Macros can have side effect!!

```c
#define MIN(a, b) ((a) < (b) ? (a) : (b))

int main() {
    int array1[] = { 1, 5, 2 };
    int array2[] = { 6, 3, 4 };
    int i = 0;
    int j = 0;
    int v1 = MIN(array1[i++], array2[j++]); // v1 = 5!!
    int v2 = MIN(array1[i++], array2[j++]); // undefined behavior/segmentation fault ☠
}
```

When Preprocessors are Necessary

- **Conditional compiling**: different architectures, compiler features, etc.

- **Mixing different languages**: code generation (example: `asm assembly`)

- **Complex name replacing**: see template programming

Otherwise, prefer `const` and `constexpr` for constant values and functions

```cpp
#define SIZE 3      // replaced with
const int SIZE = 3; // only C++11 at global scope

#define SUB(a, b) ((a) - (b)) // replaced with
constexpr int sub(int a, int b) {
    return a - b;
}
```

`__LINE__`	Integer value representing the current line in the source code file being compiled
`__FILE__`	A string literal containing the name of the source file being compiled
`__FUNCTION__`	(non-standard, gcc, clang) A string literal containing the name of the function in the 'macro scope'
`__PRETTY_FUNCTION__`	(non-standard, gcc, clang) A string literal containing the full signature of the function in the 'macro scope'
`__func__`	(C++11 keyword) A string containing the name of the function in the 'macro scope'

source.cpp:

```cpp
#include <iostream>

void f(int p) {
    std::cout << __FILE__ << ":" << __LINE__;    // print 'source.cpp:4'
    std::cout << __FUNCTION__;                     // print 'f'
    std::cout << __func__;                         // print 'f'
}

// see template lectures
template<typename T>
float g(T p) {
    std::cout << __PRETTY_FUNCTION__;              // print 'float g(T) [T = int]'
    return 0.0f;
}

void g1() { g(3); }
```

C++20 provides source location utilities for replacing macro-based approach

#include <source_location>

current()	get source location info (static member)
line()	source code line
column()	line column
file_name()	current file name
function_name()	current function name

```cpp
#include <source_location>

void f(std::source_location s = std::source_location::current()) {
    cout << "function: " << s.function_name() << ", line " << s.line();
}
f(); // print: "function: f, line 6"
```

Select code depending on the C/C++ version

- `#if defined(__cplusplus)` C++ code
- `#if __cplusplus == 199711L` ISO C++ 1998/2003
- `#if __cplusplus == 201103L` ISO C++ 2011*****
- `#if __cplusplus == 201402L` ISO C++ 2014*****
- `#if __cplusplus == 201703L` ISO C++ 2017

Select code depending on the compiler

- `#if defined(__GNUG__)` The compiler is gcc/g++ [†]
- `#if defined(__clang__)` The compiler is clang/clang++
- `#if defined(_MSC_VER)` The compiler is Microsoft Visual C++

---

* MSVC defines `__cplusplus == 199711L` even for C++11/14

[†] `__GNUC__` is defined by many compilers, e.g clang

Select code depending on the operating system or environment

- `#if defined(_WIN64)` OS is Windows 64-bit
- `#if defined(__linux__)` OS is Linux
- `#if defined(__APPLE__)` OS is Mac OS
- `#if defined(__MINGW32__)` OS is MinGW 32-bit
- ...and many others

Other Macros

`__DATE__` A string literal in the form "MMM DD YYYY" containing the date in which the compilation process began

`__TIME__` A string literal in the form "hh:mm:ss" containing the time at which the compilation process began

Very comprehensive macro list:

- sourceforge.net/p/predef/wiki/Home/
- Compiler predefined macros
- Abseil platform macros

Feature Testing Macro

C++17 introduces `__has_include` macro which returns `1` if header or source file with the specified name exists

```
#if __has_include(<iostream>)
#    include <iostream>
#endif
```

C++20 introduces a set of macros to evaluate if a given feature is supported by the compiler

```
#if __cpp_constexpr
constexpr int square(int x) { return x * x; }
#endif
```

Macros depend on compilers and environment!!

```cpp
struct A {
    int x;  // enable C++11 code
#if __cplusplus >= 201103
    A() = default;
#else
    A() {}
#endif
};
```

```cpp
// should return ≈ 10.0f
float safe_function() {
    A a{}; // zero-initialization
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
        a.x += 1.0f;
    return a.x;
}
// what is the behavior ???
```

The code works fine on Linux, but not under Windows MSVC. MSVC sets `__cplusplus` to `199711` even if C++11/14/17 flag is set!! in this case the code can return `NaN`

---

see Lecture "Object-Oriented Programming II - Zero Initialization" and MSVC now correctly reports `__cplusplus`

Stringizing Operator (#)

The **stringizing macro operator** (`#`) causes the corresponding actual argument to be enclosed in double quotation marks `"`

```cpp
#define STRING_MACRO(string) #string

cout << STRING_MACRO(hello);  // equivalent to "hello"
```

```cpp
#define INFO_MACRO(my_func)                 \
{                                           \
    my_func                                 \
    cout << "call " << #my_func << " at "   \
        << __FILE__ << ":" __LINE__;        \
}
void g(int) {}

INFO_MACRO( g(3) ) // print: "call g(3) at my_file.cpp:7"
```

Common Error 9

<div align="center">

Code injection

</div>

```cpp
#include <cstdio>

#define CHECK_ERROR(condition)                        \
{                                                     \
    if (condition) {                                  \
        std::printf("expr: " #condition " failed at line %d\n",\
                    __LINE__);                        \
    }                                                 \
}

int t = 6, s = 3;
CHECK_ERROR(t > s) // print "expr: t > s failed at line 13"
CHECK_ERROR(t % s == 0) // segmentation fault!!! ☠
// printf interprets "% s" as a format specifier
```

#error and #warning

- `#error "text"` The directive emits a user-specified error message at compile time when the compiler parse it and stop the compilation process

- C++23 `#warning "text"` The directive emits a user-specified warning message at compile time when the compiler parse it without stopping the compilation process

#pragma

The `#pragma` directive controls implementation-specific behavior of the compiler. In general, it is not portable

- `#pragma message "text"` Display informational messages at compile time (every time this instruction is parsed)

- `#pragma GCC diagnostic warning "-Wformat"`
  Disable a GCC warning

- `_Pragma(<command>)` (C++11)
  It is a keyword and can be embedded in a `#define`
  ```
  #define MY_MESSAGE \
      _Pragma("message(\"hello\")")
  ```

Token-Pasting Operator (##) ★

The **token-concatenation (or pasting) macro operator** (`##`) allows combining two
tokens (without leaving no blank spaces)

```
#define FUNC_GEN_A(tokenA, tokenB)  \
    void tokenA##tokenB() {}

#define FUNC_GEN_B(tokenA, tokenB)  \
    void tokenA##_##tokenB() {}

FUNC_GEN_A(my, function)
FUNC_GEN_B(my, function)

myfunction();  // ok, from FUNC_GEN_A
my_function(); // ok, from FUNC_GEN_B
```

Variadic Macro ★

A **variadic macro** C++11 is a special macro accepting a variable number of arguments (separated by comma)

Each occurrence of the special identifier `__VA_ARGS__` in the macro replacement list is replaced by the passed arguments

Example:
```cpp
void f(int a)               { printf("%d", a);         }
void f(int a, int b)        { printf("%d %d", a, b);   }
void f(int a, int b, int c) { printf("%d %d %d", a, b, c); }

#define PRINT(...) \
    f(__VA_ARGS__);

PRINT(1, 2)
PRINT(1, 2, 3)
```

Macro Trick ★

Convert a number literal to a string literal

```
#define TO_LITERAL_AUX(x) #x
#define TO_LITERAL(x)     TO_LITERAL_AUX(x)
```

Motivation: avoid integer to string conversion (performance)

```
int main() {
    int  x1   = 3 * 10;
    int  y1   = __LINE__ + 4;
    char x2[] = TO_LITERAL(3);
    char y2[] = TO_LITERAL(__LINE__);
}
```