

Object-oriented Programming for Automation & Robotics

Carsten Gutwenger

LS 11 Algorithm Engineering

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Automatic Variables

- All variables so far have been defined inside a block
→ **automatic** variables
- Memory is automatically
 - **allocated** at the beginning of the block
 - **freed** at the end of the block
- This is very comfortable for us: We do not have to deal with any issues on handling memory
- Today, we discuss:
 1. **Static and global variables**
→ live throughout the whole program
 2. **Static data members**
→ shared by all objects of a class
 3. **Dynamic memory allocation**
→ We decide on the lifetime of an object!

Static Variables

- You can declare variables in functions as **static**
- A static variable lives throughout the **whole program**
→ It **retains** its value between calls to that function

```
int newnumber() {  
    static int counter;  
    return ++counter;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    cout << newnumber() << endl;  
    cout << newnumber() << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

Output:
1
2

- Static variables of built-in types are initialized to 0; for custom types, the default constructor is called

Global Variables

- You can define variables outside of any scope → **global** variables
- For global variables, the same rules as for static variables apply (e.g. initialization)

```
int counter; // global variable

int newnumber() {
    return ++counter;
}

int main() {
    cout << newnumber() << endl;
    cout << newnumber() << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

- Good programming practice:
 - try to **limit** scope of variables
 - → use as **few** global variables as possible!

Static Data Members

- We can also define data members to be **static**
- Static data members are **shared by all objects** of that class
- Same rules for initialization as for static variables
- Similarly, we can define **member functions** to be static
 - such functions can only access static data members of the class

Static Data Members

```
class C {  
    static int counter; // static data member  
public:  
    C() { ++counter; }  
    static int getCounter() { return counter; }  
};  
  
int C::counter; // static data members must be defined outside the class!  
// could also be initialized: int C::counter = 10;  
  
int main() {  
    cout << C::getCounter() << ' ';  
    C a;  
    cout << C::getCounter() << ' ';  
    C b;  
    cout << C::getCounter() << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

Output:
0 1 2

Annotations:

- static data member: points to the declaration of `static int counter;`
- static member function: points to the declaration of `static int getCounter()`
- static data members must be defined outside the class! could also be initialized: `int C::counter = 10;`: points to the declaration of `int C::counter;`
- calling a static member function; equivalent: `a.getCounter(), b.getCounter()`: points to the three calls to `C::getCounter()` in `main()`.

Allocating Memory: The `new` Operator

- So far, we are not able to create new objects **dynamically** (i.e. decide at runtime to create objects)
- The `new` operator allows us to **allocate** a new piece of memory and to invoke a **constructor**:

```
int *IntPtr; // stores address of an int object
IntPtr = new int(17); // reserves memory for an int
                     // initializes int with 17
```

- The general form of a `new` expression is:

```
new type-name
new type-name ( constructor-args )
```

- `new` returns a pointer to the newly created object; you should always store this pointer, so you can free the memory later

Freeing Memory: The `delete` Operator

- When you no longer need an object created with `new`, you must **free** the occupied memory using `delete`:

```
int *intPtr = new int(17);  
// do something with *intPtr  
delete intPtr; // free memory
```

- If you don't free memory allocated by `new` explicitly, this memory will never be freed automatically!
→ **memory leak!**
- After calling `delete`, all pointers to this object become **invalid**
- Accessing objects through invalid pointers (**dangling pointers**) is a serious programming error!***

Safety Caveats

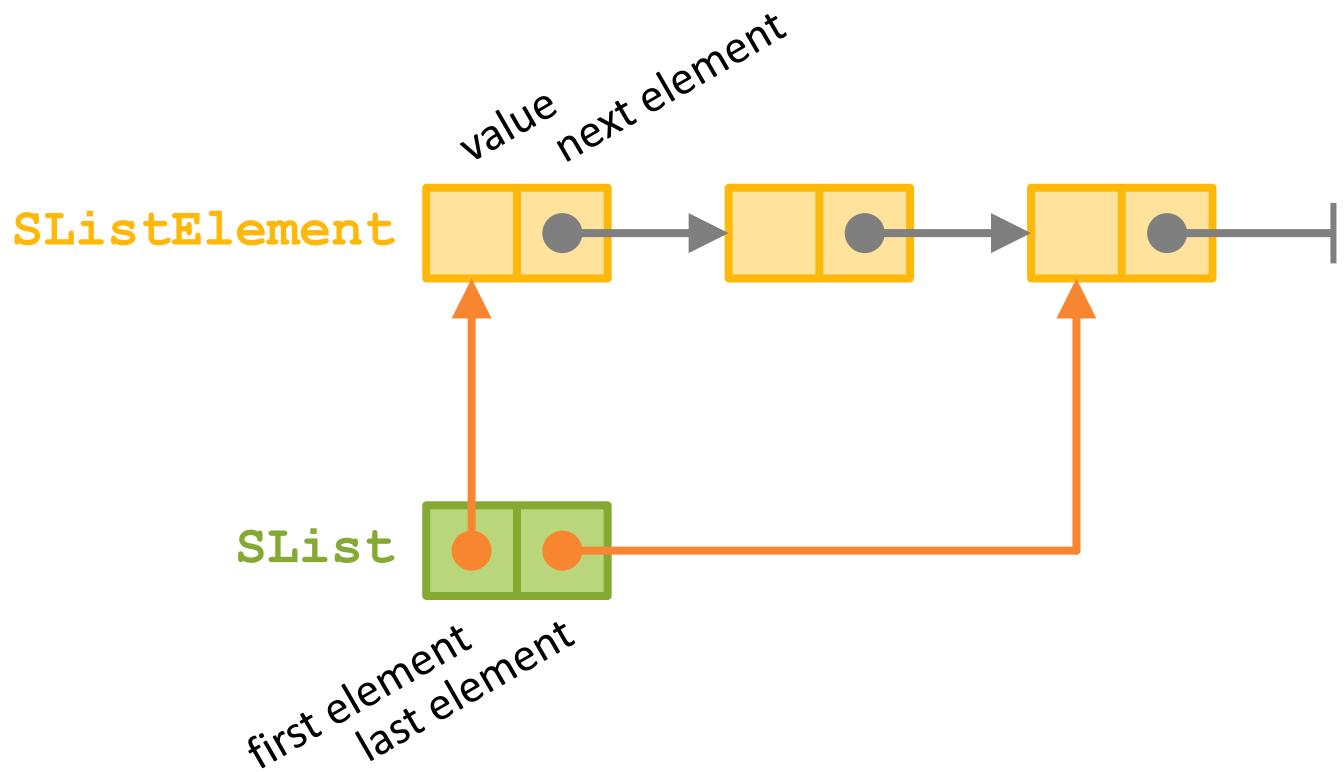
1. Initialize all pointers to 0 or such that they point to an object
2. Set pointers to 0 immediately after you free the memory they point to:

```
delete intPtr;  
intPtr = 0;
```

3. When you are in doubt if a pointer is valid, test if it is not 0 before dereferencing it
- **Remark:** It is also allowed to call `delete` for a 0-pointer (in this case nothing is done)

Example: Singly-linked Lists

- We want to implement our own singly-linked list, which allows us to **dynamically** add and remove elements



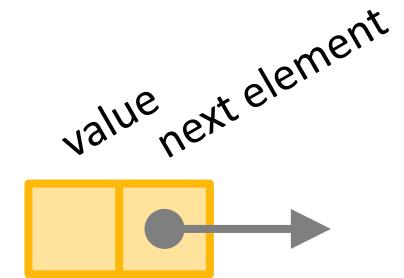
Modeling the Elements: SListElement

```
// data type for values stored in the list
typedef int ValueType;

// structure for list elements
struct SListElement {
    SListElement *pNext;
    ValueType value;

    SListElement(ValueType x) : pNext(0), value(x) { }
    SListElement(ValueType x, SListElement *p)
        : pNext(p), value(x) { }
};


```



- The type definition **ValueType** allows us to easily change the value type if required

Iterators

- Similar as standard container classes, we want to provide some nifty **iterators** for our list
- We realize iterators by a new class **SListIterator**:
 - encapsulates a pointer to **SListElement**
 - provides typical functionality, like comparison, assignment, dereferencing, and advancing an iterator

Iterators: The Interface

```
class SListIterator {  
    SListElement *pElement;  
  
public:  
    SListIterator() : pElement(0) {}  
    SListIterator(SListElement *p) : pElement(p) {}  
    SListIterator(const SListIterator &it) : pElement(it.pElement) {}  
  
    bool operator==(const SListIterator &it) const;  
    bool operator!=(const SListIterator &it) const;  
  
    SListIterator &operator=(const SListIterator &it);  
  
    valueType &operator*() const;  
  
    SListIterator &operator++(); // operator ++ (prefix)  
    SListIterator operator++(int); // operator ++ (postfix)  
};
```

Iterators: The Implementation

```
bool SListIterator::operator==(const SListIterator &it) const {
    return pElement == it.pElement; }

SListIterator &SListIterator::operator=(const SListIterator &it) {
    pElement = it.pElement;
    return *this; }

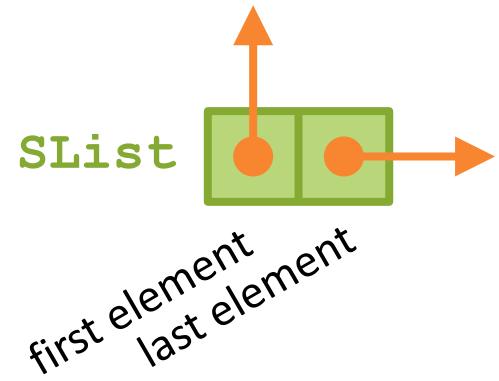
ValueType &SListIterator::operator*() const { // dereference
    return pElement->value; }

SListIterator &SListIterator::operator++() { // prefix notation
    pElement = pElement->pNext;
    return *this; }

SListIterator SListIterator::operator++(int) { // postfix notation
    SListIterator it = *this;
    pElement = pElement->pNext;
    return it; }
```

Singly-linked Lists: The Interface

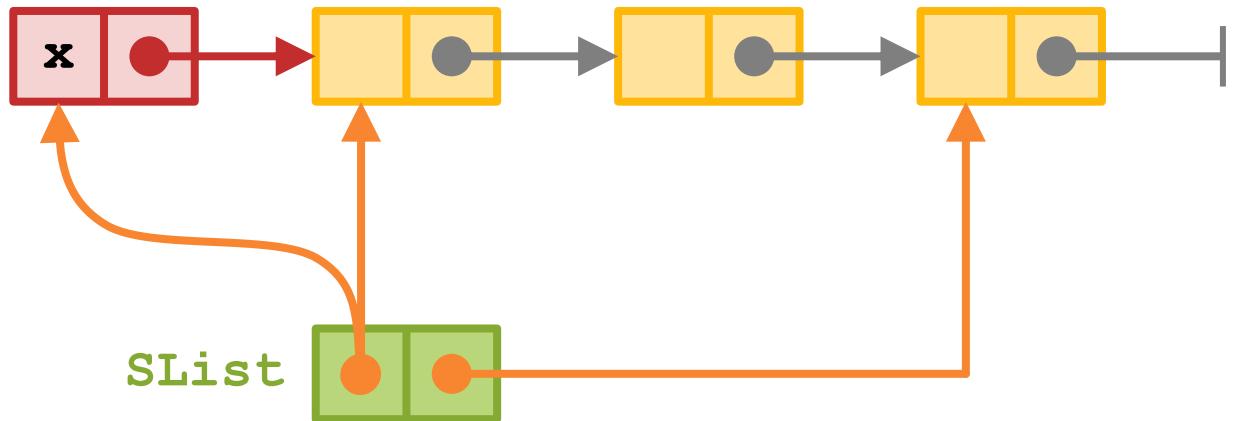
```
class SList {  
    SListElement *pHead, *pTail;  
  
public:  
    typedef SListIterator iterator;  
  
    SList() : pHead(0), pTail(0) { }  
    ~SList() { clear(); }  
  
    // iterators  
    iterator begin() const { return iterator(pHead); }  
    iterator end() const { return iterator(); }  
  
    iterator push(ValueType x);    // add element at the front  
    iterator append(ValueType x); // add element at the back  
  
    ValueType pop(); // remove first element and return its value  
  
    void clear(); // remove all elements  
};
```



Push Method

```
SList::iterator SList::push(ValueType x)
{
    pHead = new SListElement(x, pHead);
    if(pTail == 0)
        pTail = pHead;

    return iterator(pHead);
}
```

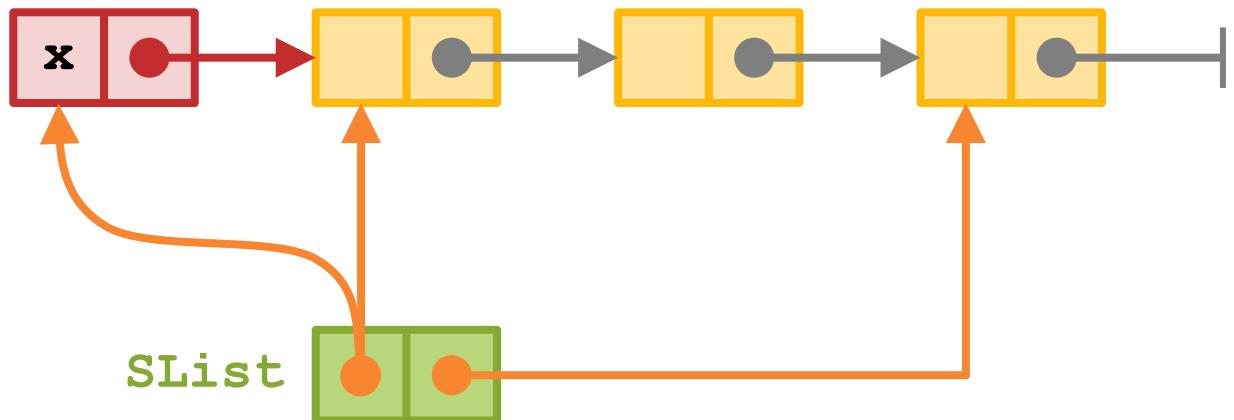


Pop Method

```
ValueType SList::pop()
{
    SListElement *p = pHead;
    ValueType x = p->value;

    pHead = p->pNext;
    if (pHead == 0)
        pTail = 0;

    delete p; return x;
}
```



Schedule for last two lectures

- Lecture 12:
How to debug programs with Visual Studio
- Lecture 13:
Function objects and automatic pointers