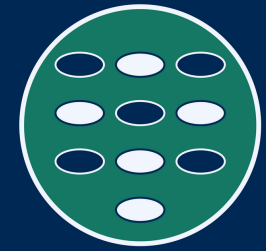




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# INF205

## Resource-efficient programming

### 2 The C++ programming language

2.1 Features of C++

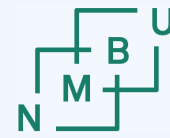
2.2 Pointers and arrays

2.3 Pass by value or reference

2.4 Memory allocation

2.5 Immutability and constants

2.6 Working with libraries



# Structure of the course

## 1) Introduction (week 6)

- Getting started - the lecture last week.

## 2) The C/C++ programming language(s) (weeks 7 and 8)

- Essential features that make C/C++ different from Python; e.g., dealing with memory allocation and deallocation explicitly, using pointers.

## 3) Data structures (weeks 9 to 11)

- Linked data structures, containers, C++ standard template library.
- Memory management for container data structures.

## 4) Concurrency (week 12 to 17)

- MPI and ROS2 for parallel programming and concurrent processes.

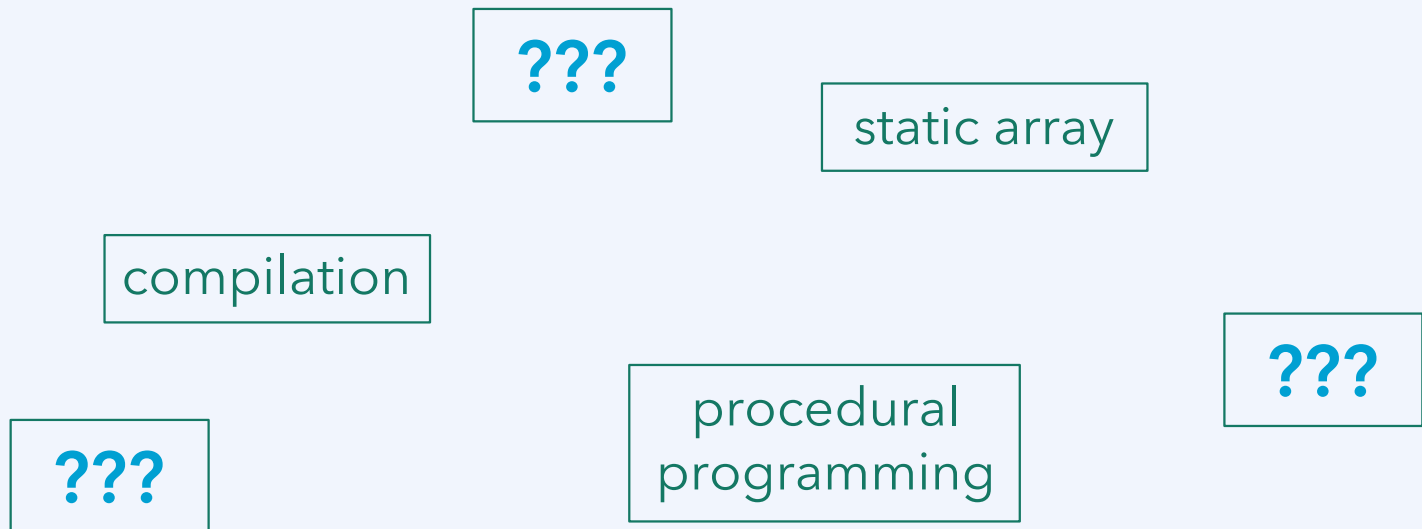
## 5) Production and optimization (week 18 and 19)

- Good practices and useful tools for programming projects.

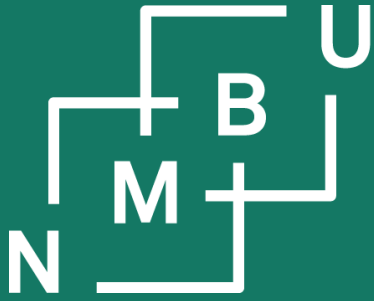
# Weekly glossary concepts

What are essential concepts from the previous lecture?

Let us include them in the **INF205 glossary**.<sup>1</sup>



<sup>1</sup><https://home.bawue.de/~horsch/teaching/inf205/glossary-en.html>

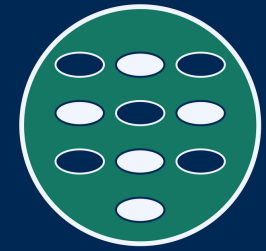


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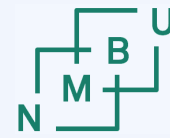
## 2 C++ basics

### 2.1 Features of C++

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# Functions / procedural programming

In many procedural programming languages, including C/C++ and Python, code blocks that can be called from other blocks are called **functions**. However, do not confuse **procedural programming** (as a programming paradigm) with **functional programming**, a name given to a very different approach (LISP, etc.).

- Functions are named
- Each function has a distinct task
- It may have its own variables
- It may call another function, including calls to itself (recursion),
- It may return a value; it must have a return type (which may be **void**)
- It may accept arguments
- Function **parameters** are the variables listed in the function's definition. Function **arguments** are the values passed to the function, which are assigned to the function's parameters at runtime.

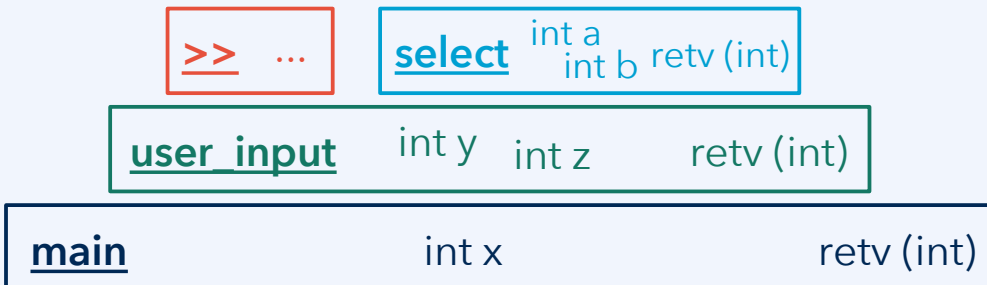
# Functions and their stack frames

## Stack-like memory management

When a function is called, a known amount of memory must be allocated for its variables (including parameters) “on top of the stack.”

When the function returns, its memory can be released; the calling method and its variables become the top of the stack again.

The lifetime of local variables in a **stack frame** is limited to the function’s runtime.



```
int select(int a, int b)
{
    if(a%2 == 0) return a;
    else return b;
}
```

```
int user_input()
{
    int y = 0, z = 0;
    std::cin >> y >> z;
    return select(y, z);
}
```

```
int main()
{
    int x = user_input();
}
```

# Observations: Stack

## Backtrace and stack inspection using gdb

- Compile with "-g" or "-g3" option
- gdb three-functions
  - break three-functions.cpp:6
  - run

Breakpoint 1, select (a=4, b=3) at three-functions.cpp:6

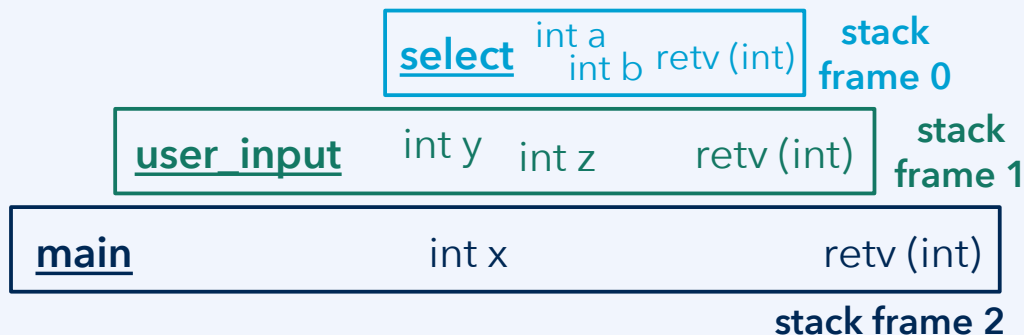
```
6      if(a%2 == 0) return a;
```

- bt ["backtrace"]

```
#0 select (a=4, b=3) at three-functions.cpp:6
```

```
#1 [...] user_input () at three-functions.cpp:14
```

```
#2 [...] main () at three-functions.cpp:19
```



```
1
2
3
4 int select(int a, int b)
5 {
6     if(a%2 == 0) return a;
7     else return b;
8 }
9
10 int user_input()
11 {
12     int y = 0, z = 0;
13     std::cin >> y >> z;
14     return select(y, z);
15 }
16
17 int main()
18 {
19     int x = user_input();
20 }
```

# Overloading and namespaces

Function **overloading** (identical name within the **same namespace**, if any) and the use of **multiple namespaces** are technically different mechanisms. However, they become similar if equal names occur in multiple namespaces.

```
namespace task_a
{
    void run(double x, double y);
}
namespace
{
    void run(int x, int y);
}
```

---

```
int main()
{
    using namespace task_a;
    run(1.0, 1.0);
}
```

```
namespace task_b
{
    void run(int x, int y);
    void run(double x, double y);
}
```

---

```
int main()
{
    using namespace task_b;
    run(1.0, 1.0);
}
```

```
namespace task_c
{
    void run(double x, double y);
}
namespace
{
    void run(double x, double y);
}
```

---

```
int main()
{
    run(1.0, 1.0);
    task_c::run(1.0, 1.0);
}
```

In what case are we strictly overloading “run” (within a single namespace)?

**In each of the cases, which version of “run” will be executed?**



# C++ Core Guidelines

- In: Introduction
- P: Philosophy
- I: Interfaces
- F: Functions
- C: Classes and class hierarchies
- Enum: Enumerations
- R: Resource management
- ES: Expressions and statements
- Per: Performance
- CP: Concurrency and parallelism
- E: Error handling
- Con: Constants and immutability
- T: Templates and generic programming
- CPL: C-style programming
- SF: Source files
- SL: The Standard Library

<https://github.com/isocpp/CppCoreGuidelines/blob/master/CppCoreGuidelines.md>

# Selected guidelines on namespaces

**SF.20:** Use namespaces to express logical structure

Use of the “unnamed namespace” construction: **namespace{ ... }**

- **SF.21:** Don't use an unnamed namespace in a header
- **SF.22:** Use an unnamed namespace for all internal/non-exported entities

(This makes it easy to distinguish “helper” code from that needed outside.)

```
void do_task_a(int x);  
void do_task_b(int x);  
void do_task_c(int x);  
...
```

header file, \*.h

was declared in the header

```
namespace  
{  
    int transform(int x) { ... }  
}  
  
void do_task_a(int x)  
{  
    int y = transform(x);  
    ...  
}
```

code file, \*.cpp

# Selected guidelines on functions

## Core Guidelines on functions:

- F.1: “Package” meaningful operations as carefully named functions
- F.2: A function should perform a single logical operation
- F.3: Keep functions short and simple
- ...
- F.46: `int` is the return type for `main()`

**I.6:** Prefer **Expects()** for expressing preconditions

**I.7:** State postconditions [with **Ensures()**]

*example based on Grimm's book, p.443:*

```
int area(int height, int width)
{
    Expects(height > 0);
    int retv = height*width;
    Ensures(retv > 0);
    return retv;
}
```

More traditional style uses **assert(...)**.

# Selected guidelines on signed/unsigned integers

Core Guidelines style rules against “**unsigned**”.

These rules use elements taken from the [Guidelines Support Library \(GSL\)](#).

**ES.102:** Use signed types for arithmetic

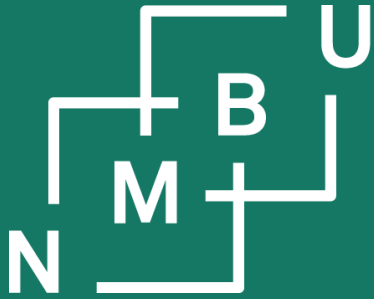
**ES.106:** Don't try to avoid negative values by using “unsigned”

**ES.107:** Don't use unsigned for subscripts [e.g., array indices], prefer [gsl::index](#)

The reasoning against a normal (signed) integer is that “**int** might not be big enough.”

Except in the very rare occurrence where that could be the case, we can use `int`.

**Remember the pitfall:** For arithmetics over “unsigned” variables, the result of the subtraction “**2 - 3**” is the value **4 294 967 295**.



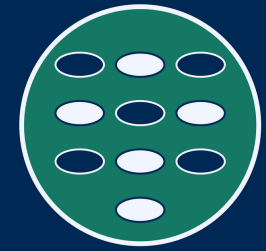
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## 2 C++ basics

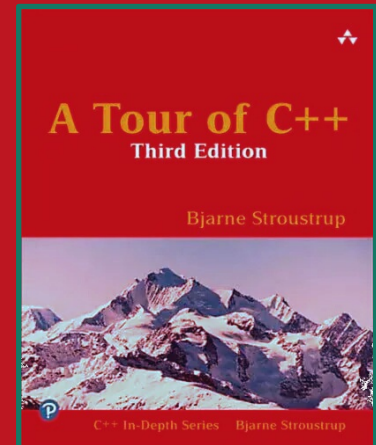
### 2.1 Features of C++

### 2.2 Pointers and arrays

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Section 1.7

# What is a pointer?

Compare:

- An **int** is a variable that contains an integer number, such as **7**.
- A **std::string** is a variable that contains a string, such as **"INF205"**.
- A pointer to X, of type **X\***, is a variable that contains a memory address, such as **0x7ffeaea5174c**. It is meant for an address of a value of type X.
- It is good practice to set pointers to **nullptr** ("null pointer") whenever it is impossible to assign them a valid memory address.
- We can **allocate** memory for an X object by hand, with **X\* pt = new X**.
- We can **deallocate** (release) the memory again by hand, with **delete pt**.

A **pointer** is a variable that has a **memory address** as its value.

- `double*` `b` is a pointer to an address for storing a double value.
- The address of an object is obtained by **referencing**, e.g., `pt = &var`;
- While `pt` is the address, we can **dereference** it (`*pt`) to access the content.

# Operators for referencing (&) and dereferencing (\*)

## Referencing operator &:

- Used to obtain the address of a variable: `&x` is the address of `x`.
- If `x` has type `X`, the address has the type `X*`, i.e., “pointer to `X`.”

```
int x = 5; int* y = &x;
```

- A second, independent use of this operator is “passing a reference” as a function argument, e.g., as in `void increment(int& x);`

## Dereferencing operator \*:

- If `y` is a pointer of type `X*` (pointer to `X`), the value of `y` is an address.
- To access the value stored at the address `y`, we dereference it as `*y`.
- The value stored at `y`, and accessed by `*y`, is then of type `X`.
- `&` and `*` are inverse operators, therefore, `*(&x)` is the same as `x`:

```
int x = 5; int* y = &x; cout << x << " is the same as " << *y;
```

# Allocate with new, deallocate with delete

**Allocation:** Reserve memory to store data.

**Deallocation:** Release the memory.

## On the stack

The stack is already handled completely and safely by the compiler. **Memory on the stack** (local variables of functions) is **allocated** as part of a **stack frame when the function is called**. It is **deallocated** again **when the function returns**.

## On the heap

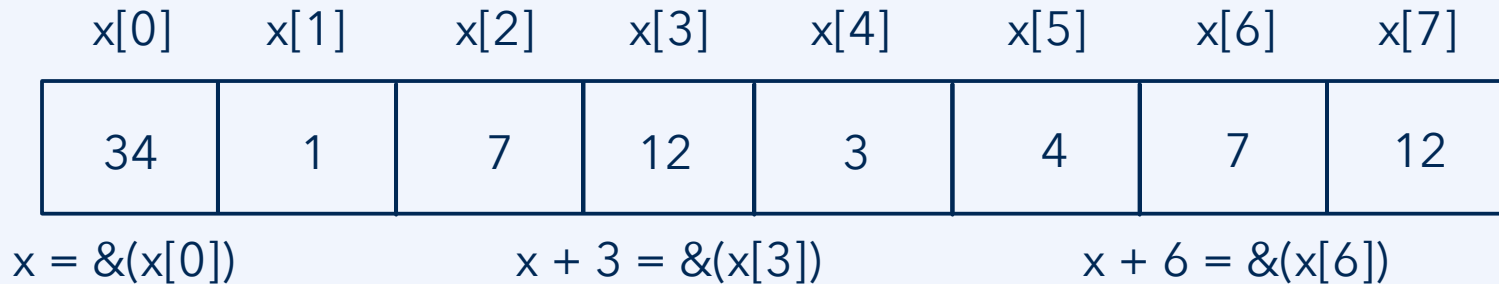
**Memory on the heap** is managed independent of the stack, at runtime, subject to **explicit allocation and deallocation** instructions that must come from the programmer. There is no garbage collection in C++!

- **Allocation** is done with **new**. Example: `int* i = new int(42);` ← initialization to \*i = 42
- **Deallocation** is done with **delete**. Example: `delete i;`



# C/C++ arrays are pointers

An array contains a sequence of elements of the same type, arranged **contiguously in memory**. This supports fast access using **pointer arithmetics**. Once created, the size of a C/C++ array is fixed; we cannot append elements.



In C/C++, the type of an array such as **int[]** is the same as the corresponding **pointer type int\***, i.e., **the array actually is a pointer**. Its value is an address at which an integer is stored, namely, the memory **address of the first element**.

When  $x[i]$  is accessed, the compiler transforms this into  $x + \text{sizeof}(\text{int}) * i$ .

- **Allocation** is done with **new**. Example: **int\* i = new int[8]();**
- **Deallocation** is done with **delete[]**. Example: **delete[] i;**

# Summary: Allocation and deallocation of pointers

How do we declare a pointer?

- Like any other variable. Its type is a pointer type; e.g., `int* my_int_pointer;`

How do we initialize a pointer?

- Initialize to **nullptr** (pointer version of 0): `int* my_int_pointer = nullptr;`
- Initialize to **another variable's address**: `int* my_int_pointer = &my_index;`
- **Allocate memory** on the heap: `int* my_int_pointer = new int(0);`

How do we deallocate a variable if it is stored on the heap?

- Delete the pointer to it. Example: `b = new BookIndex; ...; delete b;`

How to release the memory if it is a local variable that is stored on the stack?

- **Don't do that! You can only call "delete" on memory allocated with "new".**

What if we call **new**, but there is not enough free memory left on the system?

- **new** `VeryBigObject` may throw an exception (a high-level construct).
- **new(std::nothrow)** `VeryBigObject` may return **nullptr** (low-level construct).

# Summary: Allocation and deallocation of arrays

How do we declare a array?

- Give the size as constant expression in square brackets; e.g., `int values[6];`
- Also possible: Just declare a pointer; e.g., `int* values;`

How do we initialize an array?

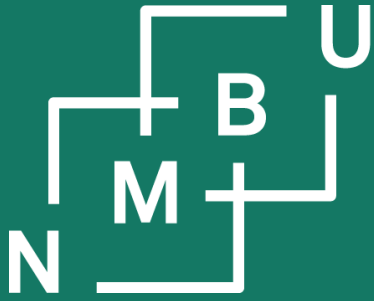
- Explicitly give all the values: `int values[ ] = {4, 2, 3, -7, 2, 3};`
- Initialize to **all zeroes**, indicating the array size: `int values[6] = { };`
- **Allocate memory** with **default initialization**: `int* values = new int[6]();`

How do we deallocate an array if it is stored on the heap?

- Use **delete[]**. Example: `b = new BookIndex[100](); ...; delete[] b;`
- **Pitfall**: If you use **delete** instead of **delete[]**, only `b[0]` will be deallocated!

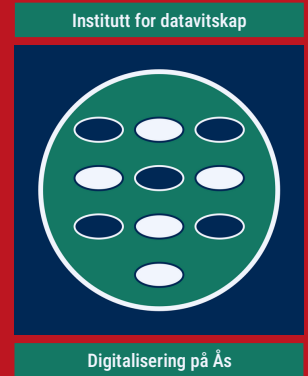
What if we call **new**, but there is not enough free memory left on the system?

- `new BigObject[100000]()` may throw an exception.
- `new(std::nothrow) BigObject[100000]()` may return **nullptr**.



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# Tutorial scheduling



# Registration to present at the tutorial session

## INF205 tutorial problem presentations, 14.2.2024

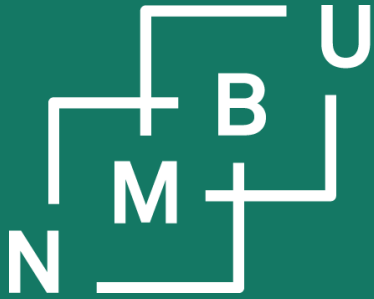
INF205 problems 1 to 7.

Problem 1. Basic tools Wednesday, 14. February 2024 - 14:15	<a href="#">BOOK</a>
Problem 2. From C++ to Python Wednesday, 14. February 2024 - 14:20	<a href="#">BOOK</a>
Problem 3. From Python to C++ Wednesday, 14. February 2024 - 14:25	<a href="#">BOOK</a>
Problem 4. Size of the primary data types, in bytes Wednesday, 14. February 2024 - 14:30	<a href="#">BOOK</a>
Problem 5. Using C/C++ arrays Wednesday, 14. February 2024 - 14:35	<a href="#">BOOK</a>
6. Program analysis - termination of a recursive function Wednesday, 14. February 2024 - 14:40	<a href="#">BOOK</a>
7. Program analysis - return value of a function Wednesday, 14. February 2024 - 14:50	<a href="#">BOOK</a>

It is a mandatory activity to present once at the tutorial.

At present, we will have just enough problems to discuss so that everyone can present.

Therefore, all slots will be used – where nobody signs up, somebody will be chosen and announced in advance of the meeting.



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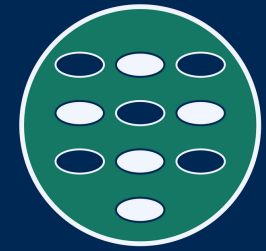
## 2 C++ basics

2.1 Features of C++

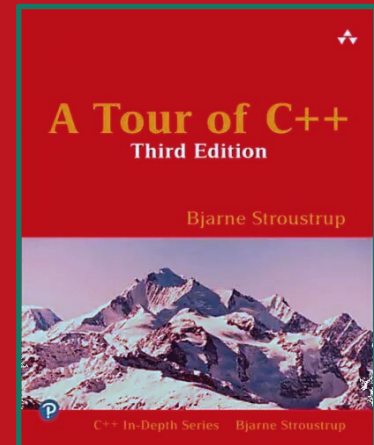
2.2 Pointers and arrays

2.3 Pass by value/reference

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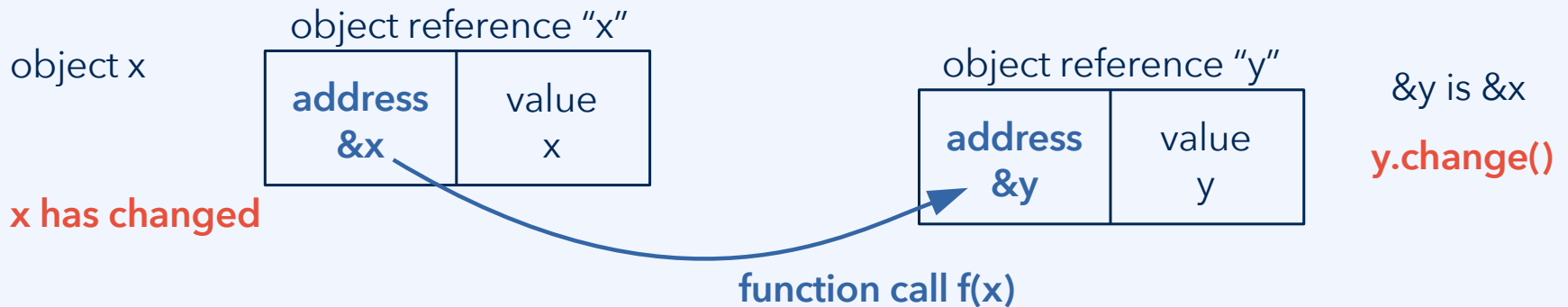


Sections 1.9, 3.6

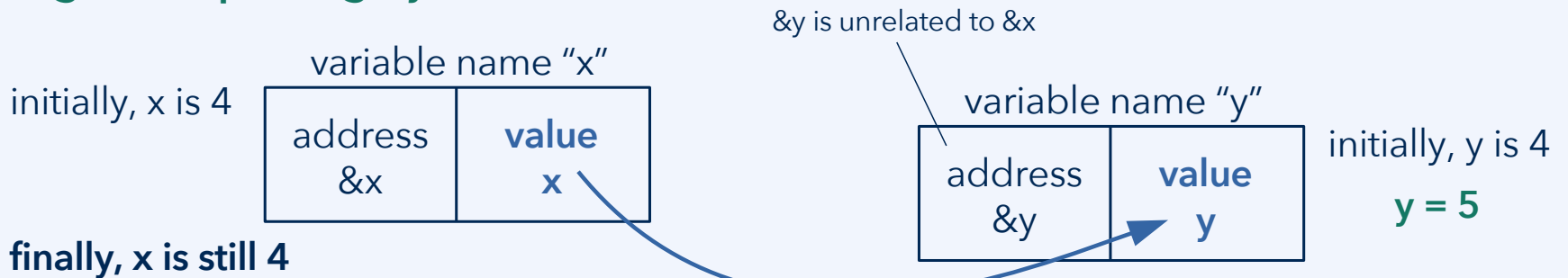
# Pass by value in C++ (compared to Python)

In Python, object references are passed by value (i.e., "pass by object reference"):

## Argument passing by object reference in Python (similarly, in Java)



## Argument passing by value

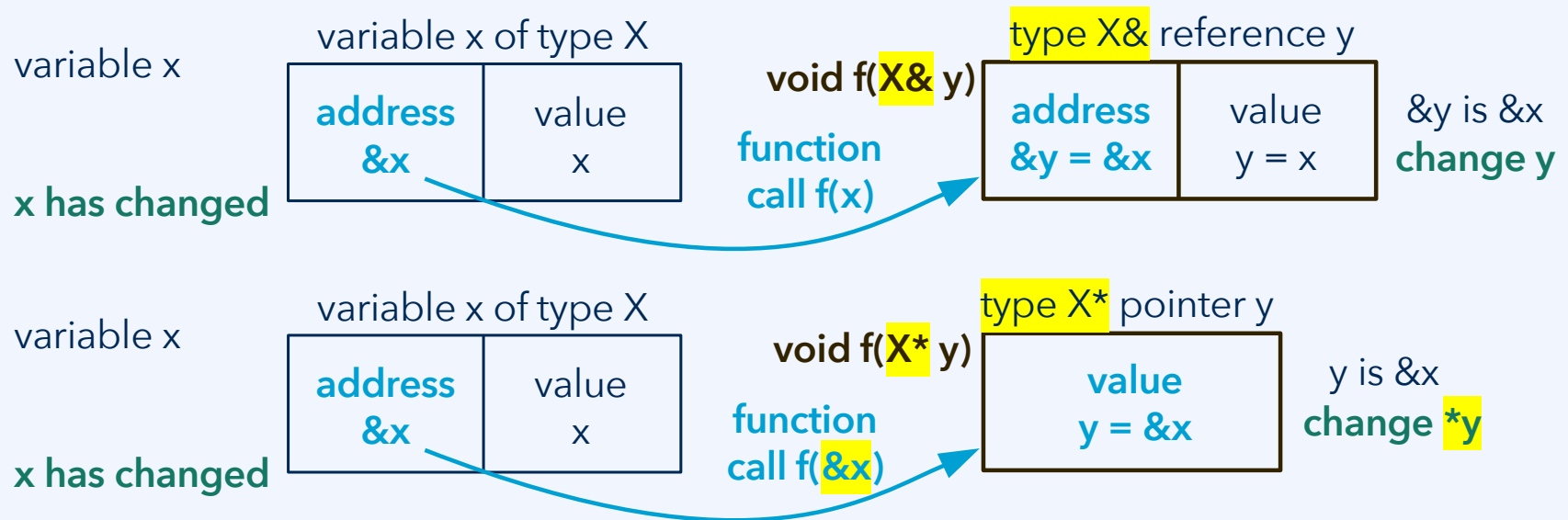


# Pass by reference in C++ (compared to pass by value)

**Pass by value:** A new copy of the argument value(s) is created in memory. The function works with the copy. The function cannot access the original variable.

**Pass by reference:** The function is enabled to access the original variable at its address in memory. No copy is created. Changes affect the original variable.

C++ has two mechanisms for this: **Passing a reference** and **passing a pointer**.\*



\*Unfortunately there is some terminology confusion about this. We will call both "pass by reference."



# Pass by reference vs. pass by value

Advantages of **passing** a function argument **by value**:

- **Memory management** is done at the stack level, **by the compiler**. The programmer can relax and does not need to deal with this aspect.
- The stack can be optimized at compile time, and it is **faster to access** memory on the stack because there is no need to look up an address.
- **Variable lifetime** coincides with the runtime of functions that use them.
- The value of **the variable in the calling function is protected** from any intransparent changes by the called function.
- This makes the code **more modular**. It is easier to understand and even verify the function. (The point of using local instead of global variables.)

Advantages of **passing** a function argument **by reference**:

There must be a reason there is a second mechanism, pass-by-reference. Even Python uses it when dealing with objects. **Discussion: What is the advantage?**

# Pass by reference using a pointer vs. a reference

Pointers and references are two equivalent notations for the same techniques.

```
void some_function(int& parameter) {  
    ...  
    // convert the reference to a pointer  
    int* y = &parameter;  
    // now we can work with pointer y  
    ...  
}
```

```
void some_function(int* parameter) {  
    ...  
    // convert the pointer to a reference  
    int& x = *parameter;  
    // now we can work with reference x  
    ...  
}
```

Advantages of pass-by-reference **using a reference**:

- Some memory-related errors become less likely if we only work with references; e.g., errors from applying incorrect pointer arithmetics.
- Looks more like Java, Python, and other modern high-level languages.

Advantages of pass-by-reference **using a pointer**:

- It is visible to the programmer at all times that we deal with memory.
- Looks more like C, and it is closer to the object-code representation.

## Remark: Strings in C and C++

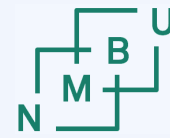
The C++ language only prescribes what functionalities a **std::string** should provide, not how it is realized at the memory level, which is up to the compiler.

Most implementations remain close to that from the C language, where **character arrays terminated by the null character '\0'** are employed. (If you want to enforce this, you can also still use all the C style constructs explicitly.)

**string s = "INF205";** or **char s[] = "INF205";** produce the following in memory:



Also to ensure backwards compatibility with C, **string literals** between double quotation marks such as "INF205" are of the type **const char\*** (not **std::string**). Between single quotation marks there is always a **char**, such as **char x = 'a';**



## Remark: Strings in C and C++

**C++ strings** may be the same as arrays at the memory level, but they are not arrays to the language. Therefore, **it is possible to pass C++ strings by value**.

**C strings**, however, **can never be passed by value** because they are arrays.

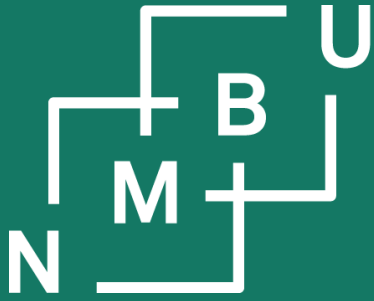
```
void increment_at(int p, char* str)
{
    str[p]++;
}
```

```
int main()
{
    char c_style_str[] = "INF205";
    increment_at(5, c_style_str);
    cout << c_style_str << "\n";
}
```

```
void increment_at(int p, std::string str)
{
    str[p]++;
}
```

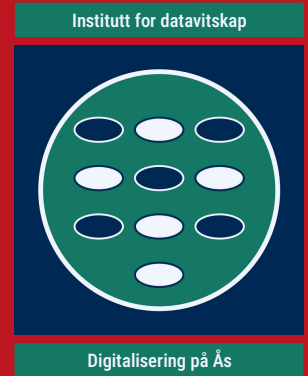
```
int main()
{
    std::string cpp_style_str = "INF205";
    increment_at(5, cpp_style_str);
    cout << cpp_style_str << "\n";
}
```

**Example file: string-argument-passing.cpp**



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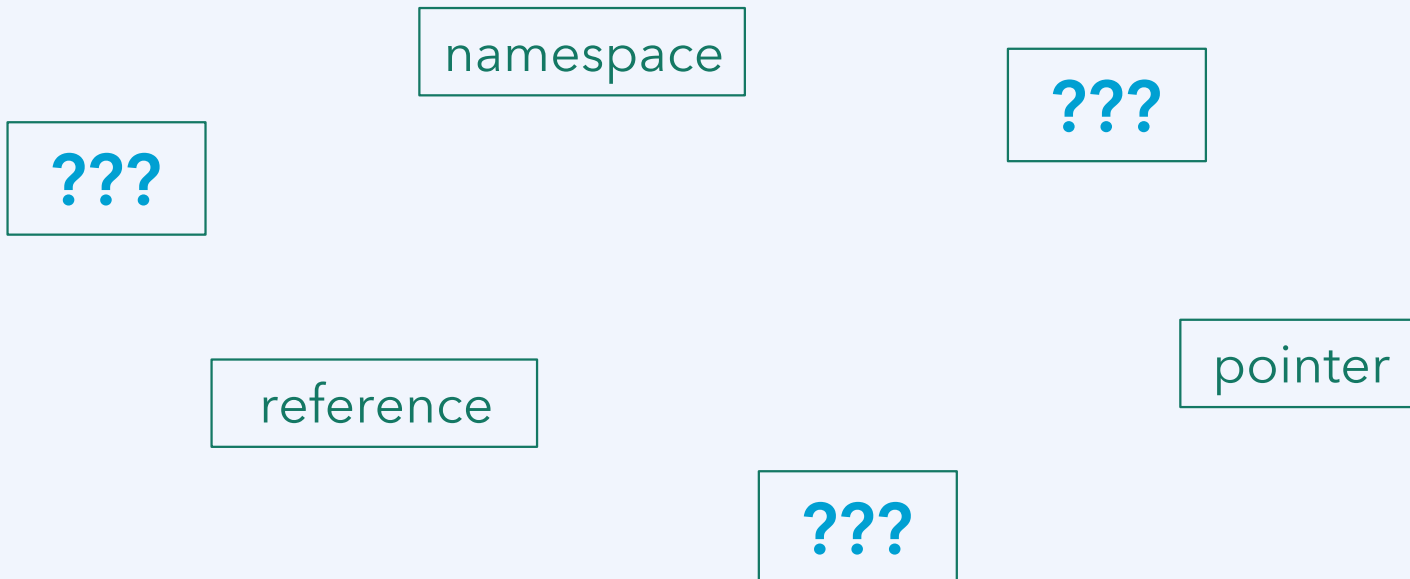
# Conclusion



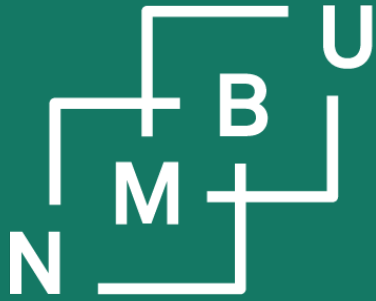
# Weekly glossary concepts

What are essential concepts from this lecture?

Let us include them in the **INF205 glossary**.<sup>1</sup>

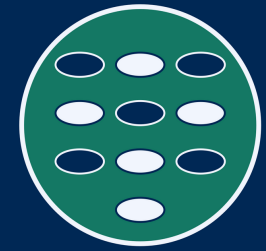


<sup>1</sup><https://home.bawue.de/~horsch/teaching/inf205/glossary-en.html>



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# INF205

## Resource-efficient programming

### 2 The C++ programming language

2.1 Features of C++

2.2 Pointers and arrays

2.3 Pass by value or reference

2.4 Memory allocation

2.5 Immutability and constants

2.6 Working with libraries