

Programming techniques for scientific simulations

Autumn semester 2012

Information

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Administrative issues

- ◆ Time of the lecture ?
- ◆ Time of the exercises?
- ◆ Computer accounts:
 - ◆ Student workstation accounts of the D-PHYS
 - ◆ Sign up this week or next!

About the course

- ◆ RW (CSE) students
 - ◆ Mandatory lecture in the 3rd semester in the bachelor curriculum
- ◆ Physics students
 - ◆ Recommended course as preparation for:
 - Computational Physics Courses:
 - Introduction to Computational Physics (AS)
 - Computational Statistical Physics (SS)
 - Computational Quantum Physics (SS)
 - Semester thesis in Computational Physics
 - Masters thesis in Computational Physics
 - PhD thesis in Computational Physics

A few quiz questions to get an overview of your knowledge

1. How are your C++ programming skills?

- A. I have never programmed at all
- B. I have never programmed in C nor C++
- C. I know some basic C
- D. I know some basic C++
- E. I know C++ well
- F. I am a C++ guru

A few quiz questions to get an overview of your knowledge

2. How is the integer value +1 represented in binary in a 16 bit integer

- A. 0000000000000000
- B. 0000000000000001
- C. 1000000000000000
- D. 1111111111111111
- E. 1000000000000001
- F. 1111111111111110

A few quiz questions to get an overview of your knowledge

3. How is the integer value -1 represented in binary in a 16 bit integer

- A. 0000000000000000
- B. 0000000000000001
- C. 1000000000000000
- D. 1111111111111111
- E. 1000000000000001
- F. 1111111111111110

A few quiz questions to get an overview of your knowledge

4. What is the size of the string "Hello", i.e. the result of

```
sizeof("Hello")
```

- A. 1
- B. 5
- C. 6
- D. 7
- E. 8

A few quiz questions to get an overview of your knowledge

5. What will the following code print:

```
int a=0;
std::cout << a++;
std::cout << ++a;
std::cout << a;
```

- A. 012
- B. 022
- C. 112
- D. 122
- E. 123

A few quiz questions to get an overview of your knowledge

6. What is the machine precision ε ?

- A. The smallest floating point number that can be represented
- B. The smallest positive floating point number
- C. The largest number such that $1.0 + \varepsilon = 1.0$
- D. The smallest number such that $1.0 + \varepsilon \neq 1.0$
- E. The largest number such that $0.0 + \varepsilon = 0.0$
- F. The smallest number such that $0.0 + \varepsilon \neq 0.0$

A loop example: what is wrong?

```

std::cout << "Enter a number: ";
unsigned int n;
std::cin >> n;

for (int i=1;i<=n;++i)
    cout << i << "\n";

int i=0;
while (i<n)
    std::cout << ++i << "\n";

i=1;
do
    cout << i++ << "\n";
while (i<=n);

i=1;
while (true) {
    if(i>n) break;
    cout << i++ << "\n";
}

```

7. Does any of the loops not always print all positive numbers up to n?

- A. All loops are wrong
- B. The first loop is wrong
- C. The second loop is wrong
- D. The third loop is wrong
- E. The fourth loop is wrong
- F. All loops are correct

Consider the following five swap functions

◆ Five examples for swapping number

```

void swap1 (int a, int b) { int t=a; a=b; b=t; }
void swap2 (int& a, int& b) { int t=a; a=b; b=t;}
void swap3 (int const & a, int const & b) { int t=a; a=b; b=t;}
void swap4 (int *a, int *b) { int *t=a; a=b; b=t;}
void swap5 (int* a, int* b) {int t=*a; *a=*b; *b=t;}

```

8. What will happen if we compile it?

- A. All will compile
- B. swap1 will not compile
- C. swap2 will not compile
- D. swap3 will not compile
- E. swap4 will not compile
- F. swap5 will not compile

Consider the following five swap functions

◆ Five examples for swapping number

```
void swap1 (int a, int b) { int t=a; a=b; b=t; }
void swap2 (int& a, int& b) { int t=a; a=b; b=t;}
void swap3 (int const & a, int const & b) { int t=a; a=b; b=t;}
void swap4 (int *a, int *b) { int *t=a; a=b; b=t;}
void swap5 (int* a, int* b) {int t=*a; *a=*b; *b=t;}
```

◆ Now consider these calls

```
◆ int a=1; int b=2; swap1(a,b); cout << a << " " << b << "\n";
◆ int a=1; int b=2; swap2(a,b); cout << a << " " << b << "\n";
◆ int a=1; int b=2; swap3(a,b); cout << a << " " << b << "\n";
◆ int a=1; int b=2; swap4(&a,&b); cout << a << " " << b << "\n";
◆ int a=1; int b=2; swap5(&a,&b); cout << a << " " << b << "\n";
```

◆ 9. Which swap functions actually swap the values?

Consider the following five swap functions

◆ Five examples for swapping number

```
void swap1 (int a, int b) { int t=a; a=b; b=t; }
void swap2 (int& a, int& b) { int t=a; a=b; b=t;}
void swap3 (int const & a, int const & b) { int t=a; a=b; b=t;}
void swap4 (int *a, int *b) { int *t=a; a=b; b=t;}
void swap5 (int* a, int* b) {int t=*a; *a=*b; *b=t;}
```

9. Which swap functions actually swap the values?

- A. 1 and 4 will work
- B. 2 and 5 will work
- C. all but 3 will work
- D. 1 and 2 will work
- E. 3 will work
- F. 4 and 5 will work

Prerequisites

- ◆ Programming
 - ◆ Knowledge of at least one programming language
 - ◆ Basic algorithms
 - ◆ Searching, sorting
 - ◆ Knowledge of fundamental data structures
 - ◆ Arrays, lists, trees
 - ◆ Will be reviewed, but initial knowledge an advantage
- ◆ Numerical analysis
 - ◆ Linear systems of equations and eigenvalue problems
 - ◆ Numerical integration and differentiation
 - ◆ Basic knowledge of statistics

Questions regarding programming

- ◆ Who knows
 - ◆ Assembler?

 - ◆ C?

 - ◆ Java?

 - ◆ C++?
 - ◆ Classes?
 - ◆ Inheritance?
 - ◆ Templates?
 - ◆ Generic Programming?
 - ◆ Standard library?
 - ◆ Optimization in C++?
 - ◆ Expression templates?

Questions regarding hardware

- ◆ Who knows about
 - ◆ Memory?
 - ◆ Caches?
 - ◆ Registers?

 - ◆ Integer formats?
 - ◆ Floating point formats?

 - ◆ CPU Types?

Contents of the lecture

- ◆ Understanding hardware
 - ◆ Memory, caches, registers, CPU
- ◆ Understanding assembly language
 - ◆ What does a compiler do with your code?
 - ◆ I recommend to attend lectures on writing compilers
- ◆ Programming languages
 - ◆ C, C++

Contents of the lecture

- ◆ Abstractions for higher level programming
 - ◆ Object oriented programming and virtual functions
 - ◆ Generic programming and templates
- ◆ Libraries
 - ◆ High performance libraries
 - ◆ BLAS, ATLAS, LAPACK
 - ◆ C++ libraries
 - ◆ Standard library
 - ◆ Boost
 - ◆ Library design
 - ◆ Reusable components
 - ◆ Generic interfaces

Literature on C++ and optimization

- ◆ Andrew Koenig and Barbara E. Moo, *Accelerated C++*, Addison Wesley 2000
 - ◆ Good and short introduction
- ◆ Stanley B. Lippman, *Essential C++*, Addison Wesley 2000
 - ◆ Good and short introduction
- ◆ Bjarne Stroustrup, *The C++ Programming Language*, 3rd edition, Addison Wesley 1997
 - ◆ The reference book

Why C++?

- ◆ Generic high level programming
 - ◆ Shorter development times
 - ◆ Smaller error rate
 - ◆ Easier debugging
 - ◆ Better software reuse
- ◆ Efficiency
 - ◆ As fast or faster than FORTRAN
 - ◆ Faster than C, Pascal, ...
- ◆ Job skills
 - ◆ We all need to find a job some day...

Generic programming

- ◆ Print a sorted list of all words used by [Shakespeare](#)

```
#include <iostream>
#include <algorithm>
#include <vector>
#include <string>
#include <iterator>

using namespace std;

int main()
{
    vector<string> data;
    copy(istream_iterator<string>(cin), istream_iterator<string>(), back_inserter(data));
    sort(data.begin(), data.end());
    unique_copy(data.begin(), data.end(), ostream_iterator<string>(cout, "\n"));
}
```

Why C++?

	C++	C	Java	FORTRAN	FORTRAN 95
Efficiency	√√	√	×	√√	√
Modular Programming	√	√	√	×	√
Object Oriented Programming	√	×	√	×	√
Generic Programming	√	×	×	×	×

A first C++ program

```

/* A first program */

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

int main()
{
    cout << "Hello students!\n";
    // std::cout without the using declaration
    return 0;
}

```

- ◆ /* and */ are the delimiters for comments
- ◆ includes declarations of I/O streams
- ◆ declares that we want to use the standard library ("std")
- ◆ the main program is always called "main"
- ◆ "cout" is the standard output stream.
- ◆ "<<" is the operator to write to a stream
- ◆ statements end with a ;
- ◆ // starts one-line comments
- ◆ A return value of 0 means that everything went OK

Getting the sources from the svn repository

- ◆ Check out the source tree of the examples, the password is hs12

```
svn co --username lectures https://alps.ethz.ch/lectures/pt
```

- ◆ Go to the directory

```
cd pt/week1
```

- ◆ Compile the program

```
c++ -o hello hello.C
```

- ◆ Run the program

```
./hello
```

Building by CMake

- ◆ Cmake (<http://www.cmake.org>) is a cross platform build tool

- ◆ On Linux, Unix and MacOX use CMake to create a Makefile

```
cmake .  
make
```

- ◆ Or use Xcode on the Mac

```
cmake -G Xcode .  
open Project.xcodeproj
```

- ◆ Or use the CMake GUI on Windows and MS Visual Studio

More about the std namespace

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    cout << "Hello\n";
}
```

```
#include <iostream>
int main()
{
    std::cout << "Hello\n";
}
```

```
#include <iostream>
using std::cout;
int main()
{
    cout << "Hello\n";
}
```

- ◆ All these versions are equivalent
- ◆ Feel free to use any style in your program
- ◆ Never use `using` statements globally in libraries!

A first calculation

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cmath>

using namespace std;

int main()
{
    cout << "The square root of 5 is"
    << sqrt(5.) << "\n";
    return 0;
}
```

- ◆ `<cmath>` is the header for mathematical functions
- ◆ Output can be connected by `<<`
- ◆ Expressions can be used in output statements
- ◆ What are these constants?
 - ◆ `5.`
 - ◆ `0`
 - ◆ `"\n"`

Integral data types

- ◆ Signed data types
 - ◆ `short, int, long, long long`
 - ◆ Not yet standard: `int8_t, int16_t, int32_t, int64_t`
- ◆ Unsigned data types
 - ◆ `unsigned short, unsigned int, unsigned long, unsigned long long`
 - ◆ Not yet standard: `uint8_t, uint16_t, uint32_t, uint64_t`
- ◆ Are stored as binary numbers
 - ◆ `short`: usually 16 bit
 - ◆ `int`: usually 32 bit
 - ◆ `long`: usually 32 bit on 32-bit CPUs and 64 bit on 64-bit CPUs
 - ◆ `long long`: usually 64 bits

Integer representations

- ◆ An n -bit integer is stored in $n/8$ bytes
 - ◆ Little-endian: least significant byte first
 - ◆ Big-endian: most significant byte first
 - ◆ Exercise: write a program to check the format of your CPU
- ◆ Unsigned

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

 n bits mantissa x
 - ◆ x just stored as n bits, values from $0 \dots 2^n-1$
- ◆ Signed

S							
----------	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

 $n-1$ bits mantissa x
 - ◆ Stored as 2 's complement, values from $-2^{n-1} \dots 2^{n-1}-1$
 - ◆ Highest bit is sign **S**
 - ◆ $x \geq 0$: **S**=0, rest is x
 - ◆ $x < 0$: **S**=1, rest is $\sim(-x - 1)$
 - ◆ Advantage of this format: signed numbers can be added like unsigned

Integer constants

- ◆ Integer literals can be entered in a natural way
- ◆ Suffixes specify type (if needed)
 - ◆ int: `0`, `-3`, ...
 - ◆ unsigned int: `3u`, `7U`, ...
 - ◆ short: `0S`, `-5s`, ...
 - ◆ unsigned short: `1us`, `9su`, `6US`, ...
 - ◆ long: `0L`, `-5l`, ...
 - ◆ unsigned long: `1ul`, `9Lu`, `6Ul`, ...
 - ◆ long long: `0LL`, `-5ll`, ...
 - ◆ unsigned long long: `1ull`, `9LLu`, `6Ull`, ...

Characters

- ◆ Character types
 - ◆ Single byte: `char`, `unsigned char`, `signed char`
 - ◆ Uses ASCII standard
 - ◆ Multi-byte (e.g. for Japanese: 大): `wchar_t`
 - ◆ Unfortunately is not required to use Unicode standard
- ◆ Character literals
 - ◆ `'a'`, `'b'`, `'c'`, `'1'`, `'2'`, ...
 - ◆ `'\t'` ... tabulator
 - ◆ `'\n'` ... new line
 - ◆ `'\r'` ... line feed
 - ◆ `'\0'` ... byte value 0

Strings

◆ String type

- ◆ C-style character arrays `char s[100]` should be avoided
- ◆ C++ class `std::string` for single-byte character strings
- ◆ C++ class `std::wstring` for multi-byte character strings

◆ String literals

- ◆ `"Hello"`
- ◆ Contain a trailing `'\0'`, thus `sizeof("Hello")==6`

Boolean (logical) type

◆ Type

- ◆ `bool`

◆ Literal

- ◆ `true`
- ◆ `false`

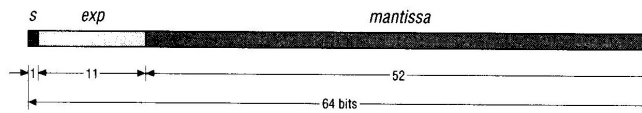
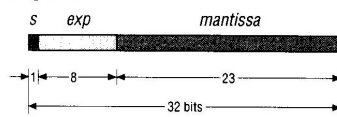
Floating point numbers

- ◆ Floating point types
 - ◆ single precision: `float`
 - ◆ usually 32 bit
 - ◆ double precision: `double`
 - ◆ Usually 64 bit
 - ◆ extended precision: `long double`
 - ◆ Often 64 bit (PowePC), 80 bit (Pentium) or 128 bit (Cray)
- ◆ Literals
 - ◆ single precision: `4.562f`, `3.0F`
 - ◆ double precision: `3.1415927`, `0.`
 - ◆ extended precision: `6.54498467494849849489L`

IEEE floating point representation

- ◆ The 32 (64) bits are divided into sign, exponent and mantissa

Single Precision



Double Precision

Type	Exponent	Mantissa	Smallest	Largest	Base 10 accuracy
<code>float</code>	8	23	1.2E-38	3.4E+38	6-9
<code>double</code>	11	52	2.2E-308	1.8E+308	15-17

Converting to/from IEEE representation

- ◆ Sign
 - ◆ Positive: 0, Negative: 1
- ◆ Mantissa
 - ◆ Left shifted until leftmost digit is 1, other digits are stored
- ◆ Exponent
 - ◆ Half of the range (127 for float, 1023 for double) is added

172.625		Base 10
10101100.101	$\times 2^{**0}$	Base 2
1.0101100101	$\times 2^{**7}$	Base 2 Normalized

Add 127 for bias=134

0 10000110 **0101100101** 00000000000000

1. Assumed bit and binary point

Floating point arithmetic

- ◆ Truncation can happen because of finite precision

$$\begin{array}{r} 1.00000 \\ 0.0000123 \\ \hline 1.00001 \end{array}$$

- ◆ Machine precision ϵ is smallest number such that $1 + \epsilon \neq 1$
 - ◆ Exercise: calculate ϵ for `float`, `double` and `long double` on your machine
- ◆ Be very careful about roundoff
 - ◆ For example: sum numbers starting from smallest to largest
 - ◆ See examples provided

Implementation-specific properties of numeric types

- ◆ defined in header `<limits>`
- ◆ `numeric_limits<T>::is_specialized` // is true if information available
- ◆ most important values for integral types
 - ◆ `numeric_limits<T>::min()` // minimum (largest negative)
 - ◆ `numeric_limits<T>::max()` // maximum
 - ◆ `numeric_limits<T>::digits` // number of bits (digits base 2)
 - ◆ `numeric_limits<T>::digits10` // number of decimal digits
 - ◆ and more: `is_signed, is_integer, is_exact, ...`
- ◆ most important values for floating point types
 - ◆ `numeric_limits<T>::min()` // minimum (smallest nonzero positive)
 - ◆ `numeric_limits<T>::max()` // maximum
 - ◆ `numeric_limits<T>::digits` // number of bits (digits base 2)
 - ◆ `numeric_limits<T>::digits10` // number of decimal digits
 - ◆ `numeric_limits<T>::epsilon()` // the floating point precision
 - ◆ and more: `min_exponent, max_exponent, min_exponent10, max_exponent10, is_integer, is_exact`
- ◆ first example of templates, use by replacing T above by the desired type:
`std::numeric_limits<double>::epsilon()`

A more useful program

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cmath>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    cout << "Enter a number:\n";
    double x;
    cin >> x;
    cout << "The square root of "
    << x << " is "
    << sqrt(x) << "\n";
    return 0;
}
```

- ◆ a variable named 'x' of type 'double' is declared
- ◆ a double value is read and assigned to x
- ◆ The square root is printed

Variable declarations

- ◆ have the syntax: `type variablelist;`
 - ◆ `double x;`
 - ◆ `int i,j,k; // multiple variables possible`
 - ◆ `bool flag;`
- ◆ can appear anywhere in the program


```
int main() {
...
double x;
}
```
- ◆ can have initializers, can be constants
 - ◆ `int i=0; // C-style initializer`
 - ◆ `double r(2.5); // C++-style constructor`
 - ◆ `const double pi=3.1415927;`

Advanced types

- ◆ **Enumerators** are integer which take values only from a certain set


```
enum trafficlight {red, orange, green};
enum occupation {empty=0, up=1, down=2, updown=3};
trafficlight light=green;
```
- ◆ **Arrays** of size n


```
int i[10]; double vec[100]; float matrix[10][10];
```

 - ◆ indices run from 0 ... n-1! (FORTRAN: 1...n)
 - ◆ last index changes fastest (opposite to FORTRAN)
 - ◆ Should not be used in C++ anymore!!!
- ◆ Complex types can be given a new name


```
typedef double[10] vector10;
vector10 v={0,1,4,9,16,25,36,49,64,81};
vector10 mat[10]; // actually a matrix!
```

Expressions and operators

- ◆ Arithmetic
 - ◆ multiplication: `a * b`
 - ◆ division: `a / b`
 - ◆ remainder: `a % b`
 - ◆ addition: `a + b`
 - ◆ subtraction: `a - b`
 - ◆ negation: `-a`
- ◆ Increment and decrement
 - ◆ pre-increment: `++a`
 - ◆ post-increment: `a++`
 - ◆ pre-decrement: `--a`
 - ◆ post-decrement: `a--`
- ◆ Logical (result bool)
 - ◆ logical not: `!a`
 - ◆ less than: `a < b`
 - ◆ less than or equal: `a <= b`
 - ◆ greater than: `a > b`
 - ◆ greater than or equal: `a >= b`
 - ◆ equality: `a == b`
 - ◆ inequality: `a != b`
 - ◆ logical and: `a && b`
 - ◆ logical or: `a || b`
- ◆ Conditional: `a ? b : c`
- ◆ Assignment: `a = b`

Bitwise operations

- ◆ Bit operations
 - ◆ bitwise not: `~a`
 - ◆ inverts all bits
 - ◆ left shift: `a << n`
 - ◆ shifts all bits to higher positions, fills with zeros, discards highest
 - ◆ right shift: `a >> n`
 - ◆ shifts to lower positions
 - ◆ bitwise and: `a & b`
 - ◆ bitwise xor: `a ^ b`
 - ◆ bitwise or: `a | b`
- ◆ The **bitset** class implements more functions. We will use it later in one of the exercises.
- ◆ Interested students should refer to the recommended C++ books
- ◆ The shift operators have been redefined for I/O streams:
 - ◆ `cin >> x;`
 - ◆ `cout << "Hello\n";`
- ◆ The same can be done for all new types: "operator overloading"
- ◆ Example: **matrix operations**
 - ◆ `A+B`
 - ◆ `A-B`
 - ◆ `A*B`

Compound assignments

- ◆ `a *= b`
 - ◆ `a /= b`
 - ◆ `a %= b`
 - ◆ `a += b`
 - ◆ `a -= b`
 - ◆ `a <<= b`
 - ◆ `a >>= b`
 - ◆ `a &= b`
 - ◆ `a ^= b`
 - ◆ `a |= b`
- ◆ `a += b` equivalent to `a=a+b`
 - ◆ allow for simpler codes and better optimizations

Special operators

- ◆ scope operators: `::`
- ◆ member selectors
 - ◆ `.`
 - ◆ `->`
- ◆ subscript `[]`
- ◆ function call `()`
- ◆ construction `()`
- ◆ `typeid`
- ◆ casts
 - ◆ `const_cast`
 - ◆ `dynamic_cast`
 - ◆ `reinterpret_cast`
 - ◆ `static_cast`
- ◆ `sizeof`
- ◆ `new`
- ◆ `delete`
- ◆ `delete[]`
- ◆ pointer to member select
 - ◆ `.*`
 - ◆ `->*`
- ◆ `throw`
- ◆ comma `,`
- ◆ all these will be discussed later

Operator precedences

- ◆ Are listed in detail in all reference books or look at http://www.cppreference.com/operator_precedence.html
- ◆ Arithmetic operators follow usual rules
 - ◆ $a+b*c$ is the same as $a+(b*c)$
- ◆ Otherwise, *when in doubt use parentheses*

Statements

- ◆ simple statements
 - ◆ `;` // null statement
 - ◆ `int x;` // declaration statement
 - ◆ `typedef int index_type;` // type definition
 - ◆ `cout << "Hello world";` // all simple statements end with ;
- ◆ compound statements
 - ◆ more than one statement, enclosed in curly braces

```
{
    int x;
    cin >> x;
    cout << x*x;
}
```


The if statement

- ◆ Has the form

```
if (condition)
    statement
```

- ◆ or

```
if (condition)
    statement
else
    statement
```

- ◆ can be chained

```
if (condition)
    statement
else if (condition)
    statement
else
    statement
```

- ◆ Example:

```
if (light == red)
    cout << "STOP!";
else if (light == orange)
    cout << "Attention";
else {
    cout << "Go!";
}
```

The switch statement

- ◆ can be used instead of deeply nested if statements:

```
switch (light) {
    case red:
        cout << "STOP!";
        break;
    case orange:
        cout << "Attention";
        break;
    case green:
        cout << "Go!";
        go();
        break;
    default:
        cerr << "illegal color";
        abort();
}
```

- ◆ do not forget the `break!`

- ◆ always include a default!

- ◆ the telephone system of the US east coast was once disrupted completely for several hours because of a missing default!

- ◆ also multiple labels possible:

```
switch(ch) {
    case 'a':
    case 'e':
    case 'i':
    case 'o':
    case 'u':
        cout << "vowel";

    default:
        cout << "other character";
}
```

The for loop statement

- ◆ has the form

```
for (init-statement ; condition ; expression)  
    statement
```

- ◆ example:

```
◆ for (int i=0;i<10;++i)  
    cout << i << "\n";
```

- ◆ can contain more than one statement in for(;;), but this is very bad style!

```
◆ double f;  
  int k;  
  for (k=1,f=1 ; k<50 ; ++k, f*=k)  
    cout << k << "! = " << f<< "\n";
```

The while statement

- ◆ is a simpler form of a loop:

```
while (condition)  
    statement
```

- ◆ example:

```
while (trafficlight()==red) {  
    cout << "Still waiting\n";  
    sleep(1);  
}
```

The do-while statement

- ◆ is similar to the while statement

```
do
    statement
while (condition);
```

- ◆ Example

```
do {
    cout << "Working\n";
    work();
} while (work_to_do());
```

The break and continue statements

- ◆ **break** ends the loop immediately and jumps to the next statement following the loop
- ◆ **continue** starts the next iteration immediately
- ◆ An example:

```
while (true) {
    if (light()==red)
        continue;
    start_engine();
    if(light()==orange)
        continue;
    drive_off();
    break;
}
```

A loop example: what is wrong?

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    cout << "Enter a number: ";
    unsigned int n;
    cin >> n;

    for (int i=1;i<=n;++i)
        cout << i << "\n";

    int i=0;
    while (i<n)
        cout << ++i << "\n";

    i=1;
    do
        cout << i++ << "\n";
    while (i<=n);

    i=1;
    while (true) {
        if(i>n)
            break;
        cout << i++ << "\n";
    }
}
```

The goto statement

- ◆ will not be discussed as it should not be used
- ◆ included only for machine produced codes,
e.g. FORTRAN -> C translators
- ◆ can always be replaced by one of the other control structures
- ◆ **we will not allow any goto in the exercises!**

Static memory allocation

- ◆ Declared variables are assigned to memory locations

```
int x=3;
int y=0;
```

- ◆ The variable name is a symbolic reference to the contents of some real memory location
 - ◆ It only exists for the compiler
 - ◆ No real existence in the computer

address	contents	name
0	3	x
4	0	y
8		
12		
16		
20		
24		
28		

Pointers

- ◆ Pointers store the address of a memory location

- ◆ are denoted by a * in front of the name

```
int *p; // pointer to an integer
```

- ◆ Are initialized using the & operator

```
int i=3;
p = &i; // & takes the address of a variable
```

- ◆ Are dereferenced with the * operator

```
*p = 1; // sets i=1
```

- ◆ Can be dangerous to use

```
p = 1; // sets p=1: danger!
*p = 258; // now messes up everything, can crash
```

- ◆ Take care: `int *p;` does not allocate memory!

address	contents	name
0	1075015	p
4	1	i
8		
12		
16		
20		
24		
28		

Dynamic allocation

◆ Automatic allocation

- ◆ `float x[10];` // allocates memory for 10 numbers

◆ Allocation of flexible size

- ◆ `unsigned int n; cin >> n; float x[n];` // will not work
- ◆ The compiler has to know the number!

◆ Solution: dynamic allocation

- ◆ `float *x=new float[n];` // allocate some memory for an array
- ◆ `x[0]=...;...` // do some work with the array x
- ◆ `delete[] x;` // delete the memory for the array. `x[i]`, *x now undefined!

◆ Don't confuse

- ◆ `delete`, used for simple variables
- ◆ `delete[]`, used for arrays

Pointer arithmetic

◆ for any pointer `T *p`; the following holds:

- ◆ `p[n]` is the same as `*(p+n)`;

◆ Adding an integer `n` to a pointer increments it by the `n` times the size of the type – and not by `n` bytes

◆ Increment `++` and decrement `--` increase/decrease by one element

◆ Be sure to only use valid pointers

- ◆ initialize them
- ◆ do not use them after the object has been deleted!
- ◆ catastrophic errors otherwise

Arrays and pointers

- ◆ are very similar, but subtly different! ◆ see these examples!

```

int array[5];                int* pointer=new int[5];

for (int i=0;i < 5; ++i)    for (int i=0;i < 5; ++i)
    array[i]=i;              pointer[i]=i;

int* p = array; // same as &array[0]  int* p = pointer;
for (int i=0;i < 5; ++i)          for (int i=0;i < 5; ++i)
    cout << *p++;                cout << *p++;

delete[] p; // will crash
array=0; // will not compile
p=0; // is OK

◆ p=pointer;
delete[] p; // is OK
delete[] pointer; // crash
delete[] p; // will crash
p=0; // is OK
pointer=0; // is OK

```

A look at memory: array example

- ◆ Array example

```

int array[5];

for (int i=0;i < 5; ++i)
    array[i]=i;

int* p = array; // same as &array[0]
for (int i=0;i < 5; ++i)
    cout << *p++;

delete[] p; // will crash
array=0; // will not compile
p=0; // is OK

```

address	contents	name
0	0	a[0]
4	1	a[1]
8	2	a[2]
12	3	a[3]
16	4	a[4]
20	0	p
24		
28		

A look at memory: pointer example

◆ Array example

```
int* pointer=new int[5];

for (int i=0;i < 5; ++i)
    pointer[i]=i;

int* p = pointer;
for (int i=0;i < 5; ++i)
    cout << *p++;

delete[] pointer; //is OK
delete[] pointer; //crash
delete[] p; //will crash
p=0; //is OK
pointer=0; //is OK
```

address	contents	name
0	12	pointer
4	12	p
8		
12	0	
16	1	
20	2	
24	3	
28	4	

References

◆ are aliases for other variables:

```
float very_long_variabe_name_for_number=0;

float &x=very_long_variabe_name_for_number;
    // x refers to the same memory location

x=5; // sets very_long_variabe_name_for_number to 5;

float y=2;
x=y; // sets very_long_variabe_name_for_number to 2;
    // does not set x to refer to y!
```


A more flexible program: function calls

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

```
float square(float x) {
    return x*x;
}
```

- ◆ a function “square” is defined
 - ◆ return value is float
 - ◆ parameter x is float

```
int main() {
    cout << “Enter a number:\n”;
    float x;
    cin >> x;
    cout << x << “ “ <<
    square(x) << “\n”;
    return 0;
}
```

- ◆ and used in the program

Function call syntax

- ◆ syntax:


```
returntype functionname
    (parameters)
{
    functionbody
}
```

- ◆ There are several kinds of parameters:
 - ◆ pass by value
 - ◆ pass by reference
 - ◆ pass by const reference
 - ◆ pass by pointer

- ◆ *returntype* is “void” if there is no return value:

```
void error(char[] msg) {
    cerr << msg << “\n”;
}
```

- ◆ Advanced topics to be discussed later:
 - ◆ inline functions
 - ◆ default arguments
 - ◆ function overloading
 - ◆ template functions

Pass by value

- ◆ The variable in the function is a copy of the variable in the calling program:

```
void f(int x) {  
    x++; // increments x but not the variable of the calling program  
    cout << x;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int a=1;  
    f(a);  
    cout << a; // is still 1  
}
```

- ◆ Copying of variables time consuming for large objects like matrices

Pass by reference

- ◆ The function parameter is an alias for the original variable:

```
void increment(int& n) {  
    n++;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int x=1; increment(x); // x now 2  
    increment(5); // will not compile since 5 is literal constant!  
}
```

- ◆ avoids copying of large objects:
 - ◆ `vector eigenvalues(Matrix &A);`
- ◆ but allows unwanted modifications!
 - ◆ the matrix A might be changed by the call to eigenvalues!

Pass by const reference

◆ Problem:

- ◆ `vector eigenvalues (Matrix& A); // allows modification of A`
- ◆ `vector eigenvalues (Matrix A); // involves copying of A`

◆ how do we avoid copying and prohibit modification?

- ◆ `vector eigenvalues (Matrix const &A);`
- ◆ now a reference is passed -> no copying
- ◆ the parameter is const -> cannot be modified

Pass by pointer

◆ Another method to pass an object without copying is to pass its address

◆ Used mostly in C

◆ `vector eigenvalues (Matrix *m);`

◆ disadvantages:

- ◆ The parameter must always be dereferenced: `*m;`
- ◆ In the function call the address has to be taken:

```
Matrix A;  
cout << eigenvalues (&A);
```

◆ rarely needed in C++

A swap example

◆ Five examples for swapping number

- ◆ `void swap1 (int a, int b) { int t=a; a=b; b=t; }`
- ◆ `void swap2 (int& a, int& b) { int t=a; a=b; b=t;}`
- ◆ `void swap3 (int const & a, int const & b)`
`{ int t=a; a=b; b=t;}`
- ◆ `void swap4 (int *a, int *b) { int *t=a; a=b; b=t;}`
- ◆ `void swap5 (int* a, int* b) {int t=*a; *a=*b; *b=t;}`

◆ Which will compile?

◆ What is the effect of:

- ◆ `int a=1; int b=2; swap1(a,b); cout << a << " " << b << "\n";`
- ◆ `int a=1; int b=2; swap2(a,b); cout << a << " " << b << "\n";`
- ◆ `int a=1; int b=2; swap3(a,b); cout << a << " " << b << "\n";`
- ◆ `int a=1; int b=2; swap4(&a,&b); cout << a << " " << b << "\n";`
- ◆ `int a=1; int b=2; swap5(&a,&b); cout << a << " " << b << "\n";`

Type casts

◆ Variables can be converted (cast) from one type to another

◆ **static_cast** converts one type to another, using the best defined conversion, e.g.

- ◆ `float y=3.f;`
- ◆ `int x = static_cast<int>(y);`
- ◆ replaces the C construct `int x= (int) y;`

◆ **reinterpret_cast** converts one pointer type to another, but only useful for low-level programming

- ◆ `float y=3.f;`
- ◆ `float *fp = &y;`
- ◆ `int *ip = reinterpret_cast<int*>(fp)`
- ◆ `std::cout << *ip;`

Type casts (continued)

- ◆ `const_cast` can be used to remove `const`-ness from a variable
 - ◆ Example: need to pass a `double*` to a C-style function which does not change the value, but I only have a `const double*`

```
void legacy_c_function (double* d);

void foo(const double* d) {
    // remove the const
    double* nonconst_d = const_cast<double*>(d);
    // now call the function
    legacy_c_function(nonconst_d);
}
```

- ◆ Use it very sparingly. Usually the need for `const_cast` is a sign of bad software design
- ◆ Other casts to be discussed later:
 - ◆ `dynamic_cast`
 - ◆ `boost::lexical_cast`
 - ◆ `boost::numeric_cast`

Namespaces

- ◆ What if a `square` function is already defined elsewhere?
- ◆ **C-style solution:** give it a unique name; ugly and hard to type


```
float ETH_square(float);
```
- ◆ **Elegant C++ solution:** `namespaces`
 - ◆ Encapsulates all declarations in a modul, called “namespace”, identified by a prefix
 - ◆ Example:


```
namespace ETH
{
    float square(float);
}
```
 - ◆ Namespaces can be nested
- ◆ Can be accessed from outside as:
 - ◆ `ETH::square(5);`
 - ◆ `using ETH::square;`
`square(5);`
 - ◆ `using namespace ETH;`
`square(5);`
- ◆ Standard namespace is `std`
- ◆ For backward compatibility the standard headers ending in `.h` import `std` into the global namespace. E.g. the file “`iostream.h`” is:


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