C/C++ PRIMER

LECTURE 4: FUNCTION ARGUMENTS, MEMORY ALLOCATION, I/O

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OUTLINE

- Function arguments: pass-by-value, pass-by-reference
- Memory allocation, stack and heap
- Input/Output (I/O)

Recall the function signature of the Mid-Point rule from the last lecture:

```
1 double mid_point(const double a, const double b, const int n); // this is a declaration
```

In function declarations or definitions (where the function *body* is defined), a, b and n are called *parameters*.

- Parameters are just dummy variables that are used inside the function definition as placeholders for the arguments when the function is called.
- In a function declaration you technically do not need the parameter names, only their types. This is also a valid function declaration:

1 double mid_point(const double, const double, const int); // this is a declaration

Later you call the function like this:

```
1 double a = 1.0;
2 double b = 2.0;
3 int n = 10;
4 mid_point(a, b, n); // function call
```

Here a, b and n are called *arguments* to the function mid_point.

- Function parameters: dummy variables with symbolic meaning only.
- **Function arguments:** variables with values assigned to them outside of the function scope.

- In C/C++ function arguments are pass-by-value.
- Pass-by-value means that the arguments are *evaluated* and the result is assigned to corresponding parameters.
- Evaluated means this:

```
1 double a = 1.0;
2 double b = 2.0;
3 int n = 10;
4 mid_point(a + b, b, n); // the first argument will be the result of a + b
```

• If your function parameters are user-defined classes which may encapsulate data, passing them by value to functions can be very expensive because the data needs to be copied (internally) too. (This remark applies to C++ only.)

- If your function has parameters that are *pointers*, the value of the pointer argument (i.e. *its address*) is passed by value.
- The function parameter is *still assigned a private copy of the pointer value*, but because the pointer value is a *reference* (i.e. a memory address) we can modify the data at the memory address from *within the function*.
- In that case we speak of *pass-by-reference*, even though the value of the reference (memory address) is passed by value.

Function parameters passed by value are *local* to the function. Consider the following example:

```
1 int power(int x, int n)
2 {
3    int result = 1;
4    for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i) {
5       result *= x;
6    }
7    return result;
8 }</pre>
```

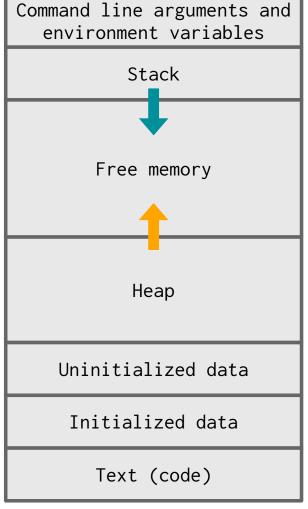
We do not necessarily need the iteration variable i:

```
1 int power(int x, int n)
2 {
3    int result = 1;
4    do {
5       result *= x;
6    } while (0 < --n); // you can use the parameter n as a normal variable
7    return result;
8 }</pre>
```

- Your programs require dynamic memory that you allocate on the *heap*.
- Dynamic memory is memory for which you do not know the size a priori.
- When you call a function, that function call requires memory too. *Recall*: arguments are pass-by-value, these values must be stored somewhere *temporarily*. The function body itself contains *local* variables that must be allocated somewhere too.
- This memory requirement is much smaller and only of short lifetime. It must therefore be allocated on a data structure that is much faster than the heap. This data structure is called a (LIFO) *stack* (Last-In-First-Out).

Structure of virtual memory for an executable program:

High address



LIFO stack (Last-In-First-Out), allocated by the OS at program start. Stack frames are created here (e.g. function calls). Easy to manage and much faster than memory allocation on the heap.

Stack and heap grow in opposite direction.

Dynamic memory that grows depending on program. Hard to manage (fragmentation, garbage collection) and involves expensive kernel calls (e.g. malloc or new). Allocating memory on the heap is slow.

Global and static variables. The linker allocates memory in these segments. Those variables can be either initialized or uninitialized.

Executable machine code (instructions), read-only segment.

Low address

- The size of the stack is configurable and usually defaults to 4-8 MB.
- On Linux you can check the stack size for programs with ulimit -s.
- You can allocate memory on the stack but if you allocate more than what the stack can hold you are creating a *stack-overflow* and your program will crash. (This is where the name from the community forum https://stackoverflow.com comes from.)

Let us create a stack-overflow:

1. Check the stack size on your system:

```
1 $ ulimit -s
2 8192 # these are kbytes -> 8MB
```

2. Write a small program that allocates at least 8MB on the stack:

```
1 int main(void)
2 {
3     double large_array[1048576]; // exactly 8192 kB
4     return static_cast<int>(large_array[10]);
5 }
```

3. Compile and run:

```
1 $ g++ stackoverflow.cpp && ./a.out
2 Segmentation fault (core dumped)
```

- If you use a smaller array the program completes correctly, e.g. double large_array[1024];
- Because there are other things allocated on the stack as well, even if we reduce the number of elements in large_array only slightly the program would likely still run into a segmentation fault.

- If we need a *large chunk of memory*, we must allocate the memory on the *heap*.
- Allocating memory on the heap implies *explicit* memory management! When you *allocate* memory, you *must also free* the memory when you no longer need it.
- If you do not free memory and you loose the reference to it, your code is *leaking memory* which can have serious implications when you run the program. *This is a bug.*

Dynamic memory allocation on the heap using the C standard library:

```
1 #include <stdlib.h>
2 int main(void)
3 {
4     // see https://en.cppreference.com/w/c/memory/malloc
5     double *large_array = (double *)malloc(1048576 * sizeof(double));
6     const double retval = large_array[10];
7     free(large_array); // release the memory when no longer needed
8     return (int)retval; // C-style cast from double to int
9 }
```

• Dynamic memory allocation on the heap in C++:

```
int main(void)
{
    // see https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/language/new
    double *large_array = new double[1048576];
    const double retval = large_array[10];
    delete[] large_array; // release the memory when no longer needed
    return static_cast<int>(retval); // C++ style cast from double to int
}
```

- In C the functions to print formatted output are called printf and fprintf.
- There are few more but we will not discuss them here. See https://en.cppreference.com/w/c/io/fprintf for more documentation.
- We focus here on the C++ I/O routines.

- The standard I/O streams in C++ are defined in the iostream header.
- The three main streams are
 - cin (stdin)
 cout (stdout)
 cerr (stderr)
- Example: read from stdin and print to stdout

```
1 #include <iostream>
 2 #include <string>
 3 using namespace std;
 4 int main(void)
 5
       cout << "Type something: "; // send something to stdout</pre>
       string received;
       cin >> received; // read from stdin until newline character
       cout << "You typed: " << received << endl;</pre>
 9
       return 0;
10
11 }
1 $ g++ io.cpp && ./a.out
2 Type something: something
3 You typed: something
```

- Since stdin, stdout and stderr are just three special file streams, all C++ stream objects behave identical.
- C++ distinguishes between input streams (istream) and output streams (ostream). cin is an istream object and cout and cerr are ostream objects.
- The istream and ostream objects associated for regular file streams are defined in the fstream header.

Example: print function to stream to different objects:

```
1 #include <fstream>
 2 #include <iostream>
 3 #include <string>
   using namespace std;
   void print(ostream &stream, const string message)
       stream << message << endl; // append a newline at the end
 8
 9 }
10
11 int main(void)
12 {
13
       // create an output stream associated to file 'output.txt'. Note: ofstream
       // is an output file stream object, it inherits from the ostream object.
14
       // Because of this inheritance we can use the 'ostream &' reference in the
15
16
       // print() function above.
       // See https://www.cplusplus.com/reference/fstream/fstream/
17
18
       ofstream my_file("output.txt");
       print(my_file, "This message is streamed into my file");
19
       print(cout, "This message is streamed to stdout");
20
       print(cerr, "This message is streamed to stderr");
21
       return 0;
22
23 }
```

Example: print function to stream to different objects:

```
1 $ g++ print.cpp
2 $ ./a.out > stdout 2> stderr # redirect stdout and stderr streams to files
3 $ cat stdout stderr output.txt
4 This message is streamed to stdout
5 This message is streamed to stderr
6 This message is streamed into my file
```

See also the following link for format manipulators used together width floating point numbers: https://www.cplusplus.com/reference/ios/scientific/.
You may find this useful for the following hands-on exercise.

HANDS-ON: DERIVATIVE WITH FINITE-DIFFERENCE

Write a program dfdx that computes the derivative of the function

$$f(x)=e^{-rac{1}{2}x}\sin(x)ig(\cos(x)ig)^2$$

