# CSCI 2270 Data Structures and Algorithms Lecture 4

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Office hours: ECCS 112/128

Wed 1-2pm

Thurs 2-3pm

## Getting the most out of the CS department and the school

- Undergraduate groups in computer science
  - http://innovatecu.com/Undergraduate events
  - http://wic.cs.colorado.edu/Women in Computing
  - CU ACM student chapter (link TBD)
  - Game Development club (link TBD)
- Departmental talks (colloquia)
  - http://www.colorado.edu/cs/colloquia/colloquium-schedule
  - A few of these involve our own faculty
- Other departmental talks
  - IQBio: <a href="http://biofrontiers.colorado.edu/events/upcoming-events">http://biofrontiers.colorado.edu/events/upcoming-events</a>
  - Linguistics: <a href="http://www.colorado.edu/linguistics/talks/">http://www.colorado.edu/linguistics/talks/</a>
  - Electrical Eng: <a href="http://ecee.colorado.edu/news/seminars.html">http://ecee.colorado.edu/news/seminars.html</a>

#### ++n vs n++

++n is prefix increment

increment n and then use the increased value n++ is postfix increment

use the original value and then increment n When n++ or ++n are single statements, same effect

n++;

++n;

It turns out that ++n can be fractionally faster for certain data types. (Doesn't need to copy original.)

#### ++n vs n++, example 1

```
void plus_plus_example_1()
{
    int n = 5;
    while (n < 20)
    {
       cout << ++n << " ";
       cout << n++ << endl;
    }
}</pre>
```

#### ++n vs n++, example 2

```
void plus plus example 2()
      int b[4];
      b[0] = 1; b[1] = 3; b[2] = 9; b[3] = 27;
      int n = 0;
      while (n < 4)
            cout << b[n++] << endl;
      n = 0;
      while (n < 4)
            cout << b[++n] << endl;
```

#### ++n vs n++, example 3

```
void plus plus example 3()
      int b[4];
      int* b ptr = &(b[0]);
      b[0] = 1; b[1] = 2; b[2] = 4; b[3] = 8;
      for (int i = 0; i < 4; i++)
      {
            cout << *(b ptr++) << endl;</pre>
```

### Recall the short but happy life of an integer at compile time

At the end of our function, just at the closing bracket }, that int a gets destroyed.

Destroying it means that we no longer keep that memory reserved on the stack for a. Now other variables can be written into a's former slots in the memory stack. We can't predict exactly when this will happen, but it's only a matter of time before something else writes data over this slot.

### Integers at compile time

In this example, a only exists inside the for loop; at the end of the for loop, just at the closing bracket }, that int a gets destroyed.

#### Integers at compile time

```
void example_loop_not_ok()
{
    for (int a = 5; a < 20; a++)
        {
            cout << a << endl;
        }
        cout << a << endl;
}</pre>
```

What error will this produce?

#### Input variables, by value

```
int triple_a_number_1(int starting_number)
{
    starting_number *= 3;
    return starting_number;
}
```

The variable starting\_number is passed in to the function; the compiler makes room for this integer in memory, just like it did for a in the previous slide.

What happens to this memory for starting\_number at the \?

#### Input variables, by value

```
int triple a number 1 (int starting number)
{
     starting number *= 3;
     return starting number;
int main()
     int lebowski = 9;
     cout << triple a number 1(lebowski) << endl;</pre>
     cout << lebowski;</pre>
```

### Input variables, by reference

```
int triple a number 2(int& starting number)
{
    starting number *= 3;
    return starting number;
}
int main()
    int bob = 9;
    cout << triple a number 2(bob) << endl;</pre>
    cout << bob;</pre>
```

### Input variables, by reference

```
int triple_a_number_2(int& starting_number)
{
    starting_number *= 3;
    return starting_number;
}
```

Here, we're passing in the address of the starting number.

That means we have access to the original variable—any changes we make in this function affect variables like bob outside the function.

```
int bob = 9;
cout << triple a number 2(bob) << endl;</pre>
```

It also means that we don't destroy anything at the end, unlike the previous example.

#### Input variables, by reference

```
int triple_a_number_2(int& starting_number)
{
    starting_number *= 3;
    return starting_number;
}
```

We know that starting\_number's passed in by address, which means it's sort of like a pointer. (But it's not exactly like a pointer.)

So why don't we have to dereference this thing?

(In some environments, it's done automatically.

Dissassembling the code would show you this. But please don't dereference any reference inputs yourself.)

### Input variables, by const reference

```
int triple_a_number_3(const int& starting_number)
{
    starting_number *= 3; // NO, compile error
    return starting_number;
}
```

Protects inputs from changing, while passing them by reference

Why do this? It's not a great idea for passing an int. But if you have a big variable that takes up a lot of room, this lets you avoid copying it like a value parameter, while still protecting the original ...

### Normal return by value

```
int get_a_number_1()
{
  int answer;
  cout << "Tell me a number: " << endl;
  cin >> answer;
  return answer;
}
```

#### Normal return by value

```
int get a number 1()
  int answer;
  cout << "Tell me a number: " << endl;</pre>
  cin >> answer;
  return answer;
int main()
  int number = get a number 1();
  cout << "You entered " << number << endl;</pre>
```

### Dangerous return by reference

```
int& get a number 2()
      int answer;
      cout << "Tell me a number: " << endl;</pre>
      cin >> answer;
      return answer;
    int main()
      int other number = get a number 2();
      cout << "You entered " << other number <<</pre>
endl;
```