

# **CS100**

# **Introduction to Programming**

**Lecture 29, Part II:**  
**Summary on C++**

# Basics

# Object-Oriented Programming

- in OOP, code and data are combined into a single entity called a ***class***
  - each ***instance*** of a given class is an ***object*** of that class type
- principles of Object-Oriented Programming
  - encapsulation
  - inheritance
  - polymorphism

# OOP: Encapsulation

- ***encapsulation*** is a form of information hiding and abstraction
- data and functions that act on that data are grouped together (inside a class)
- *ideal*: separate the interface/implementation so that you can use the former without any knowledge of the latter

# OOP: Inheritance

- *inheritance* allows us to create and define new classes from an existing class (i.e. sub-classes)
- this allows us to re-use code
  - faster implementation time
  - fewer errors
  - easier to maintain/update

# OOP: Polymorphism

- *polymorphism* is when a single name can have multiple meanings
  - normally used in conjunction with inheritance
  - ability to decide at runtime what will be done
- Different forms of polymorphism in C++
  - overloading functions
  - virtual functions
  - templates

# Basic C++ syntax

```
class Date {  
public:  
    int m_month;  
    int m_day;  
    int m_year;  
};
```

# Using Public, Private, Protected

- **public**
  - anything that has access to a **Date** object also has access to all public member variables and functions
- not normally used for variables;  
used for most functions
- need to have at least one item be public



# Using Public, Private, Protected

- **private**
  - private members variables and functions can only be accessed by *member functions* (cannot be accessed in main(), etc.)
- if not specified, members default to private
  - should specify anyway – good coding practices!

# Using Public, Private, Protected

- **protected**
  - protected member variables and functions can only be accessed by ***member functions***, and by member functions of any derived classes

# Member Function Types

- Many classifications.
- Example:
  - accessor functions
  - mutator functions
  - auxiliary functions

# Member Functions: Accessor

- *convention*: start with **Get**
- allow retrieval of private data members
- examples:  
`int GetMonth() ;`  
`int GetDay() ;`  
`int GetYear() ;`

# Member Functions: Mutator

- *convention*: start with **Set**
- allow changing the value of a private data member
- examples:  
    **void SetMonth(int m) ;**  
    **void SetDay(int d) ;**  
    **void SetYear(int y) ;**

# Member Functions: Auxiliary

- provide support for the operations
  - public if generally called outside function
  - private/protected if only called by member functions
- examples:
  - `void OutputMonth() ;` → `public`
  - `void IncrementDate() ;` → `private`

# Access Specifiers for Date Class

```
class Date {  
public:  
    void OutputMonth() ;  
    int  GetMonth() ;  
    int  GetDay() ;  
    int  GetYear() ;  
    void SetMonth(int m) ;  
    void SetDay  (int d) ;  
    void SetYear (int y) ;  
private:  
    int m_month ;  
    int m_day ;  
    int m_year ;  
};
```

# Constructors

- special *member functions* used to create (or “construct”) new objects
- automatically called when an object is created
  - implicit:       **Date today;**
  - explicit:       **Date today(10, 15, 2014);**
- initializes the values of all data members



# Overloading

- we can define multiple versions of the constructor – we can ***overload*** it
- different constructors for:
  - when all values are known
  - when no values are known
  - when some subset of values are known

# Example: Date Constructors

```
Date::Date (int m, int d, int y) ;
```

```
Date::Date (int m, int d) ;
```

```
Date::Date () ;
```

# Avoiding Multiple Constructors

- defining multiple constructors for different sets of known values is a lot of unnecessary code duplication
- we can avoid this by setting ***default parameters*** in our constructors

# Default Parameters

- in the ***function prototype*** only, provide default values you want the constructor to use

```
Date (int m = 10, int d = 15,  
      int y = 2014) ;
```

# Default Constructors

- a *default constructor* is provided by compiler

# Default Constructors

- **but**, if you create **any** other constructor, the compiler doesn't provide a default constructor
- so if you create a constructor, make a default constructor too, even if its body is just empty

```
Date::Date ()  
{  
    /* empty */  
}
```

# More on constructors

- When making a class instance, the default constructor of its fields are invoked

```
class Integer {
public:
    int m_val;
    Integer() {
        m_val = 0; printf("Integer default constructor\n");
    }
};

class IntegerWrapper {
public:
    Integer m_val;
    IntegerWrapper() {
        printf("IntegerWrapper default constructor\n");
    }
};

int main() {
    IntegerWrapper q;
}
```

## Output:

Integer default constructor  
IntegerWrapper default constructor

# Object Relationships

- Two types of object relationships
  - The “is-a” relationship
    - inheritance
  - The “has-a” relationship
    - composition
    - aggregation
- } both are forms of association



# Inheritance Relationship Code

```
class Car: public Vehicle {
```



Car inherits from  
the Vehicle class

```
} ;
```

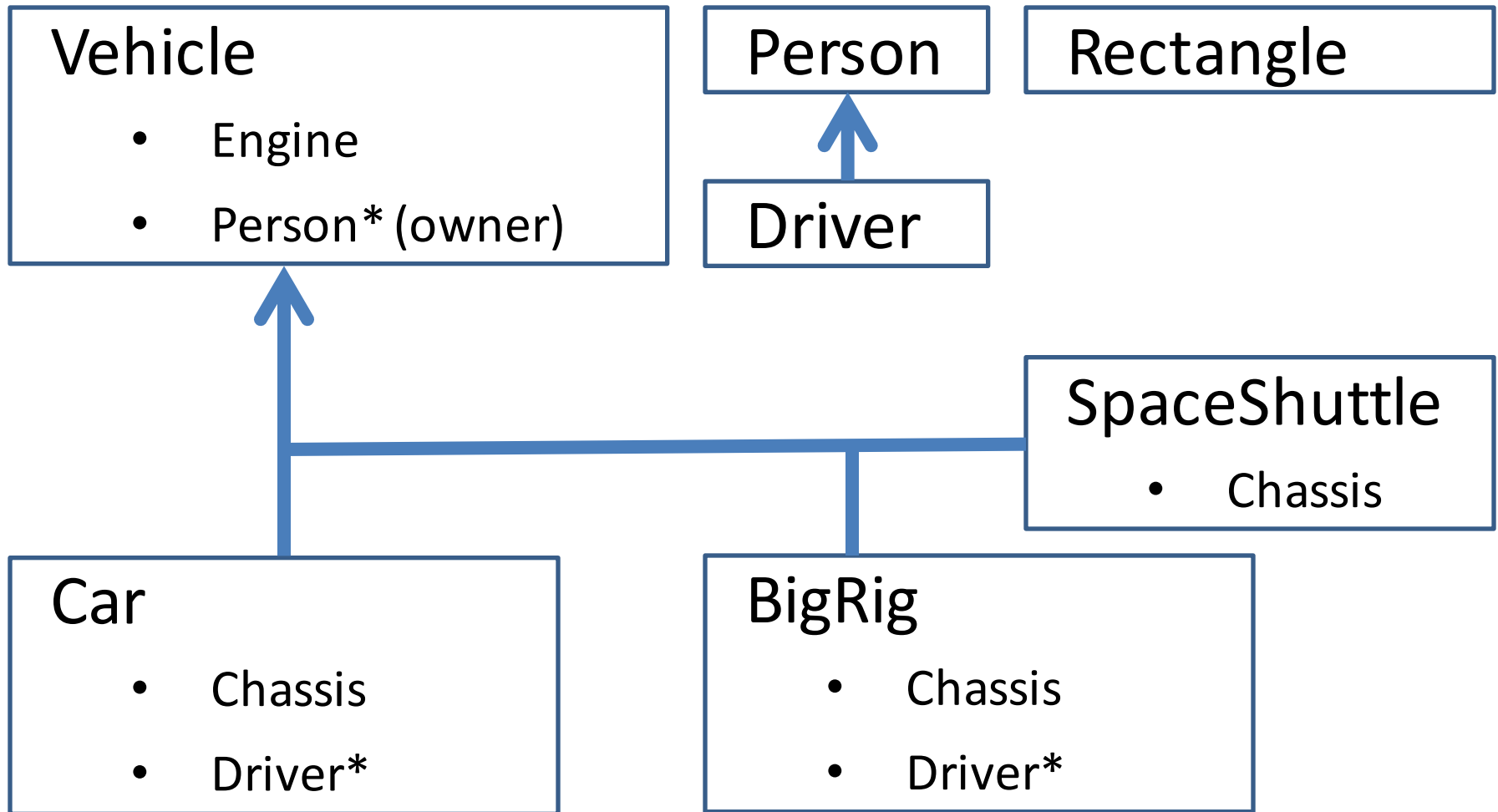
# Composition Relationship Code

```
class Car: public Vehicle {  
    public:  
        //functions  
    private:  
        // member variables, etc.  
  
        // has-a (composition)  
        Chassis m_chassis;  
}  
;
```

# Aggregation Relationship Code

```
class Car: public Vehicle {  
    public:  
        //functions  
    private:  
        // member variables, etc.  
  
        // has-a (aggregation)  
        Driver *m_driver;  
} ;
```

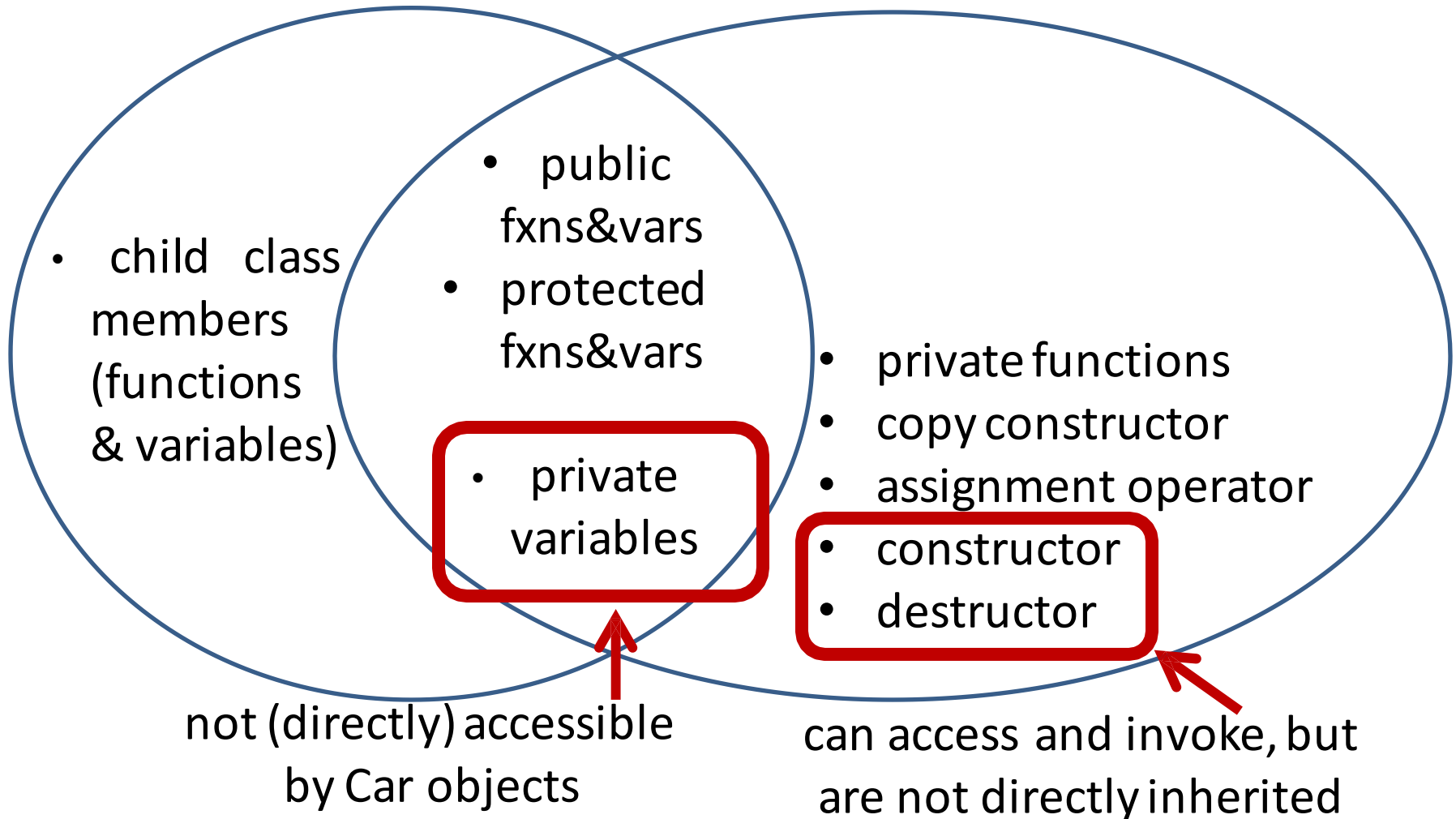
# Visualizing Object Relationships



# What is Inherited

**Car Class**

**Vehicle Class**



# Handling Access

- child class has access to parent class's:
  - public member variables/functions
  - protected member variables/functions
  - but *not* private member variables/functions
- how should we set the access modifier for parent member variables we want the child class to be able to access?

# Handling Access

- we should not make these variables protected!
- leave them private!
- instead, child class uses protected functions when interacting with parent variables
  - mutators
  - accessors

# Overloading vs Overriding

- ***overloading***
  - use the same function name, but with different parameters for each overloaded implementation
- ***overriding***
  - use the same function name and parameters, but with a different implementation
  - child class method “hides” parent class method
  - **only possible by using inheritance**



# Attempted Overloading Example

- Car class attempts to **overload** a function Move(double distance) with new parameters

```
void Car::Move(double distance,  
               double avgSpeed)
```

```
{
```

```
    // new overloaded Car-only code
```

```
}
```

- but this does something we weren't expecting!

# Precedence

- **overriding takes precedence over overloading**
  - instead of *overloading* the `Move()` function, the compiler assumes we are trying to *override* it
- declaring **`Car::Move (2 parameters)`**
- overrides **`Vehicle::Move (1 parameter)`**
- we no longer have access to the original **`Move ()`** function from the `Vehicle` class

# Overloading in Child Class

- to overload, we must have both original and overloaded functions in child class

```
void Car::Move(double distance) ;  
void Car::Move(double distance,  
                double avgSpeed) ;
```

- the “original” one parameter function can then explicitly call parent function

# What is Polymorphism?

- ability to manipulate objects in a **type-independent** way
- already done to an extent via ***overriding***
  - child class overrides a parent class function
- can take it further using subtyping,  
***AKA inclusion polymorphism***

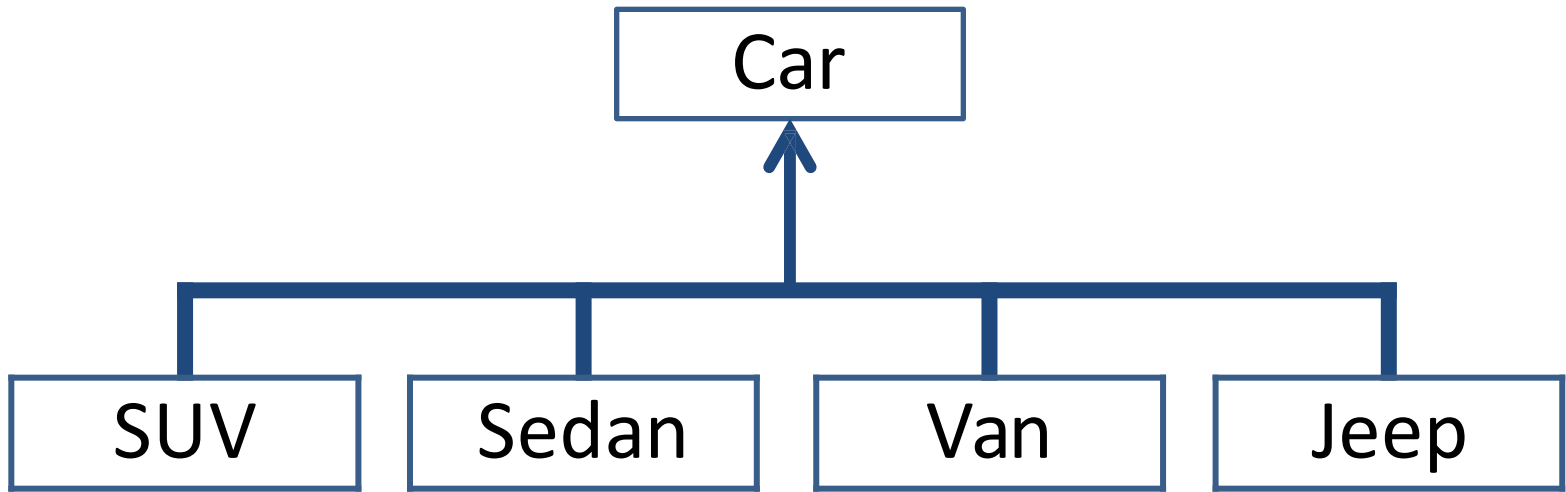
# Using Polymorphism

- a pointer of a parent class type can point to an object of a child class type

```
Vehicle *vehiclePtr = &myCar;
```

- why is this valid?
  - because **myCar** is-a **Vehicle**

# Car Example



```
class SUV:      public Car { /*etc*/ };
class Sedan:    public Car { /*etc*/ };
class Van:      public Car { /*etc*/ };
class Jeep:     public Car { /*etc*/ };
```

# Polymorphism: Car Rental

```
vector <Car*> rentalList;
```

vector of **Car\*** objects

SUV	SUV	Jeep	Van	Jeep	Sedan	Sedan	SUV
-----	-----	------	-----	------	-------	-------	-----

- can populate the vector with any of **Car**'s child classes

# Virtual Functions

- can grant access to child methods by using *virtual functions*
- virtual functions are how C++ implements *late binding*
  - used when the child class implementation is unknown or variable at parent class creation time



# Late Binding

- simply put, binding is determined at run time
  - as opposed to at compile time
- in the context of polymorphism, you're saying

I don't know for sure how this function is going to be implemented, so wait until it's used and then get the implementation from the object instance.

# Using Virtual Functions

- declare the function in the parent class with the keyword **virtual** in front

```
virtual void Drive ();
```

- only use **virtual** with the prototype

```
// don't do this
```

```
virtual void Vehicle::Drive ();
```

# Function Types – Virtual

```
virtual void Drive();
```

- parent class **must** have an implementation
  - even if it's trivial or empty
- child classes may override if they choose to
  - if not overridden, parent class definition used

# Function Types – Pure Virtual

```
virtual void Drive() = 0;
```

- denote pure virtual by the “ = 0” at the end
- the parent class has **no implementation** of this function
  - child classes **must** have an implementation
  - parent class is now an ***abstract class***

# Virtual Destructors

```
Vehicle *vehicPtr = new Car;  
delete vehicPtr;
```

- for any class with virtual functions, you must declare a virtual destructor as well
- non-virtual destructors will only invoke the base class's destructor

# C++ Templates

- Support generic programming
  - develop reusable software components (e.g. function, class)
- Template uses generic data type T
  - Replaced by concrete type at compile time
  - Enables “on-the-go” construction of a member of a family of functions and classes that perform the same operation on different data types
    - functions → function templates
    - classes → class templates

# Function Templates

- For functions of considerable importance which have to be used frequently with different data types
- Simple solution:
  - Many functions each operating on one data type only
- Better solution:
  - Defining one function template (i.e. generic function)
- Syntax:

```
template <class T, ... >
returntype function_name (arguments)
{
    /* Body of function */
}
```

# Class Templates

- Class template
  - generalized to hold/operate on different data types
- Syntax:

```
template <class T1, class T2, ....>
class class_name
{
...
    T1 m_data1;    // data items of template type
    // functions of template argument
    void func1 (T1 a, T2 & b);
    T1 func2 (T2 * x, T2 * y);
};
```



# Inheritance of Class Template

Through one of the following techniques:

- Derive a class template from a base class, which is a template class (more template parameters may be added)

```
template <class T1, ...>
class derivedclass : public baseclass<T1,...> {
    // member data and functions
};
```

- Derive a class from a base class, which is a template class and restrict the template feature, so that the derived class and its derivatives do not have the template feature

```
class derivedclass : public baseclass<T1,...> {
    // member data and functions
};
```

# Where to put templates?

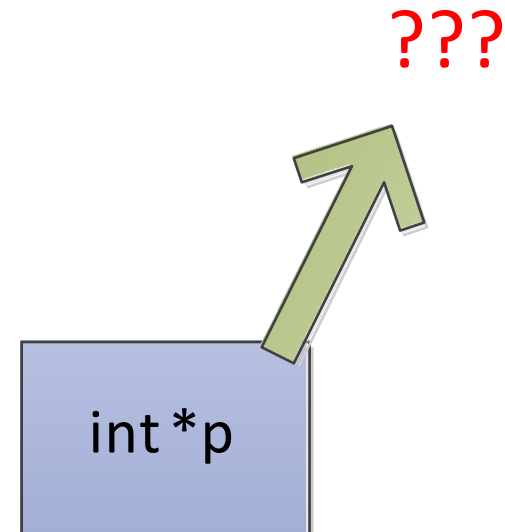
- Templates are no concrete implementations!
- They are just a template!
- Concrete implementations are derived on demand at compile (in the background)

→ Put templates into a header-files!

# Scoping and Memory

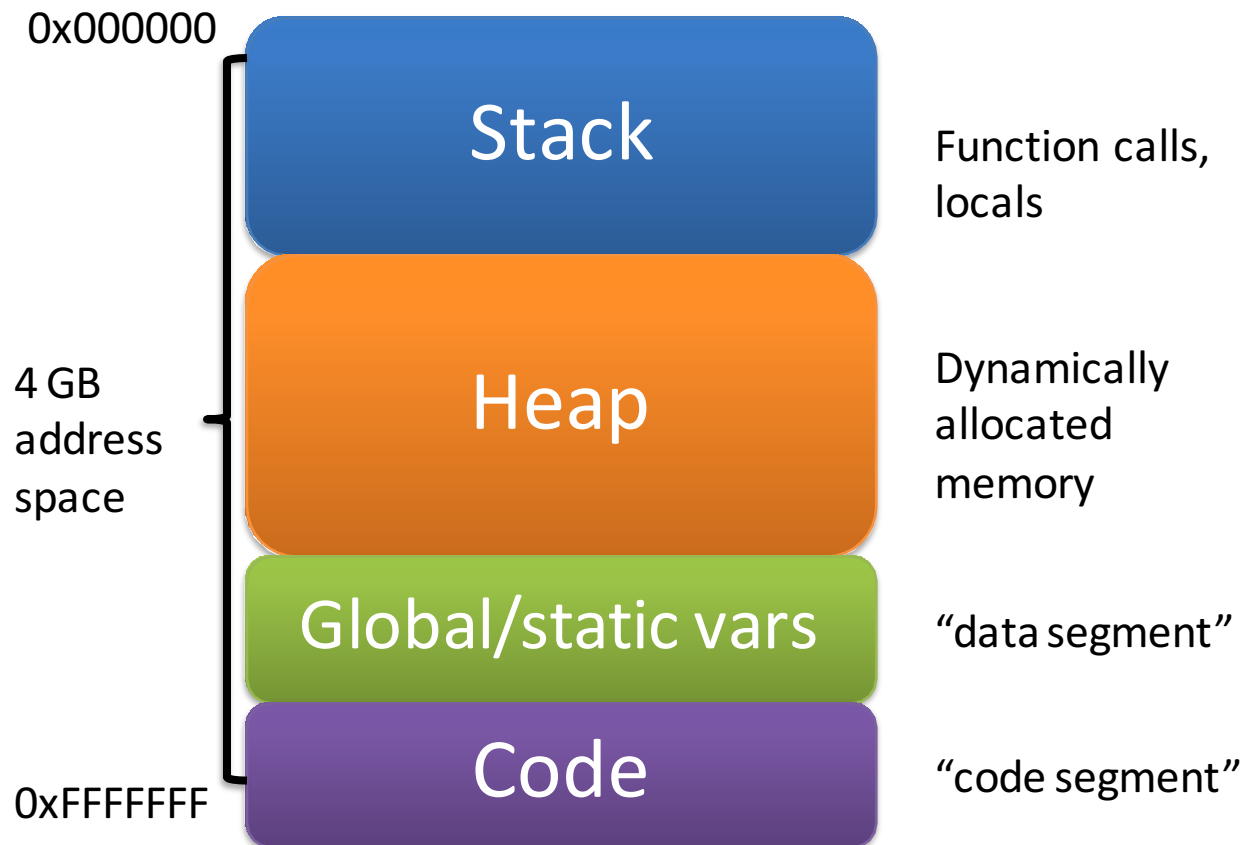
- When a variable goes out of scope, that memory is no longer guaranteed to store the variable's value
  - Here, p has become a **dangling pointer** (points to memory whose contents are undefined)

```
int main() {  
    int *p;  
    if (true) {  
        int x = 5;  
        p = &x;  
    }  
    printf("%d\n", *p); // ???  
}
```



# Memory Types

- each process gets its own memory chunk, or *address space*



# Stack Allocation

- memory allocated by the program as it runs
  - local variables
  - function calls
- fixed at compile time



Stack

# Heap Allocation

- dynamic memory allocation
  - memory allocated at run-time

An orange rounded rectangle with a slight gradient and a thin white border, containing the word "Heap" in white text.

Heap

# The new operator

- A way to allocate memory, where the memory will remain allocated until you manually de-allocate it
- Returns a pointer to the newly allocated memory:
  - If using **int x**; the allocation occurs on **the stack**
  - If using **new int**; the allocation occurs **the heap**

# The delete operator

- De-allocates memory that was previously allocated using **new**
- Takes a pointer to the memory location

```
int *x = new int;  
// use memory allocated by new  
delete x;
```

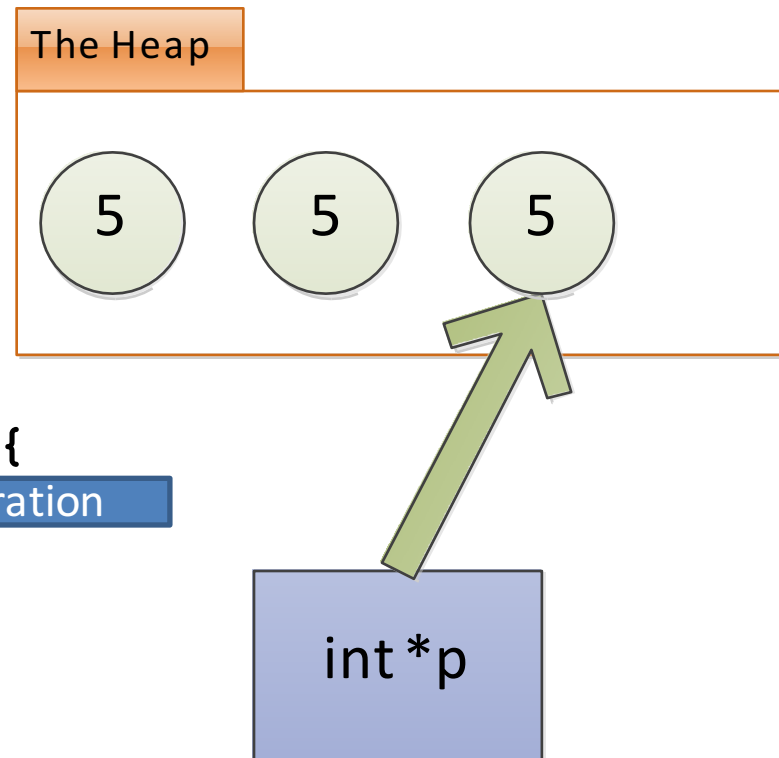


# Delete Memory When Done Using It

- When your program allocates memory but is unable to de-allocate it, this is a **memory leak**

```
int *getPtrToFive() {  
    int *x = new int;  
    *x = 5;  
    return x;  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    int *p;  
    for (int i = 0; i < 3; ++i) {  
        p = getPtrToFive();  
        printf("%d\n", *p);  
    }  
}
```



# Don't Use Memory After Deletion

(Segmentation fault)

incorrect

```
int *getPtrToFive() {  
    int *x = new int;  
    *x = 5;  
    return x;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int *x = getPtrToFive();  
    delete x;  
    printf("%d\n", *x); // ???  
}
```

correct

```
int *getPtrToFive() {  
    int *x = new int;  
    *x = 5;  
    return x;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int *x = getPtrToFive();  
    printf("%d\n", *x); // 5  
    delete x;  
}
```

# Don't delete memory twice

incorrect

```
int *getPtrToFive() {  
    int *x = new int;  
    *x = 5;  
    return x;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int *x = getPtrToFive();  
    printf("%d\n", *x); // 5  
    delete x;  
    delete x;  
}
```

correct

```
int *getPtrToFive() {  
    int *x = new int;  
    *x = 5;  
    return x;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int *x = getPtrToFive();  
    printf("%d\n", *x); // 5  
    delete x;  
}
```

# Only delete if memory was allocated by new

incorrect

```
int main() {  
    int x = 5;  
    int *xPtr = &x;  
    printf("%d\n", *xPtr);  
    delete xPtr;  
}
```

correct

```
int main() {  
    int x = 5;  
    int *xPtr = &x;  
    printf("%d\n", *xPtr);  
}
```

# Allocating Arrays

- If we use **new[]** to allocate arrays, they can have variable size
- De-allocate arrays with **delete[]**

```
int numItems;  
printf("how many items?\n");  
scanf("%d", &numItems);  
int *arr = new int[numItems];  
delete[] arr;
```

# Overriding the default copy constructor!

```
class IntegerArray {
public:
    int *m_data; int m_size;
    IntegerArray(int size) {
        m_data = new int[size];
        m_size = size;
    }
    IntegerArray(IntegerArray &o) {
        m_data = new int[o.m_size];
        m_size = o.m_size;
        for (int i = 0; i < m_size; ++i)
            m_data[i] = o.m_data[i];
    }
    ~IntegerArray() {
        delete[] m_data;
    }
};

int main() {
    IntegerArray a(2);
    a.m_data[0] = 4; a.m_data[1] = 2;
    if (true) {
        IntegerArray b = a;
    }
    printf("%d\n", a.m_data[0]); // 4
}
```

# Passing by reference

- Pass variable in C++ without copying

- Pass-by-reference:

```
void functionX( double & val ) {  
    val = ...; //no de-referencing  
}
```

# Passing by reference

- References are:
  - Valid types, just like pointers
  - Internally: just a pointer
  - Easier to manipulate
    - No de-referencing needed
- Safer
  - can only be initialized from a valid instance of an object



# Class member references

- Use an initializer list!

```
class Car {  
public:  
    Car( Driver & driver );  
private:  
    Driver & m_driver;  
};
```

```
Car::Car( Driver & driver ) : m_driver(driver)  
{ }
```



Initializer lists must be used for  
any members that do not have  
a default constructor!

# What are operators?

+		-	*	/	%	
^		&		~	!	&&
		++	--	<<	>>	,
<		<=	==	!=	>	>=
=		+=	-=	*=	/=	%=
&=	=	^=	<<=		>>=	
[]		()	->	new		delete

# What are operators?

- Example of an operator (global operator)

```
class Box {  
public:  
    Box (int v) : value(v) {}  
    int value;  
};  
  
// define meaning of comparison for boxes  
bool operator< (Box & left, Box & right) {  
    return left.value < right.value;  
}
```

- Binary comparison operator!

# The Increment and Decrement Operators

```
class Box {
public:
    Box (int v) : value(v) { }

    // prefix versions (++someBox)
    int operator++ () { value++; return value; }
    int operator-- () { value--; return value; }

    int operator++ (int) // postfix versions (someBox++)
    {
        int result = value; // step 1, save old value
        value++;           // step 2, update value
        return result;      // step 3, return original
    }
    int operator -- (int) {
        int result = value;
        value--;
        return result;
    }
private:
    int value;
};
```

## **Part 2: STL**

# Strings

- In C we used `char*` to represent a string.
- The C++ standard library provides a common implementation of a string class abstraction named `string`
- Need to understand basic string handling
  - Construction
  - Concatenation
  - Comparison ...

# Input/Output in C++

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
printf("test: %d\n", x);
```

```
cout << "test: " << x << endl;
```

```
scanf("%d", &x);
```

```
cin >> x;
```

# The << Operator

- insertion operator → used along with `cout`
- separate each “type” of thing we print out

```
int x = 3;
```

```
cout << "X is: " << x
```

```
<< "; squared "
```

```
<< x*x << endl;
```



# The >> Operator

- extraction operator → used with `cin`
  - returns a boolean for (un)successful read
- like `scanf` and `fscanf`, skips leading whitespace, and stops reading at next whitespace
- don't need to use ampersand on variables  
`cin >> firstName >> lastName >> age;`

# Reading In Files in C++

```
FILE *ifp;
```

```
ifstream inStream;
```

```
ifp = fopen("testFile.txt", "r");
```

```
inStream.open("testFile.txt");
```

```
if (ifp == NULL) { /* exit */ }
```

```
if (!inStream) { /* exit */ }
```

- Check to make sure file was opened

# Writing To Files in C++

- `ofstream outStream;`
  - Declare an output file variable
- `outStream.open("testFile.txt");`
  - Open a file for writing
- `if (!outStream) { /* exit */ }`
  - Check to make sure file was opened

# Using File Streams in C++

- once file is correctly opened, use your **ifstream** and **ostream** variables the same as you would use **cin** and **cout**

```
inStm >> firstName >> lastName;
```

```
outStm << firstName << " "  
<< lastName << endl;
```

# Finding EOF with ifstream

- use a “priming read”

```
inStream >> x;
```

```
while( !inStream.eof() )  
{  
    // do stuff with x  
  
    // read in next x  
    inStream >> x;  
}
```

# Using File Streams in C++

- Example of reading line-by-line, and element-by-element

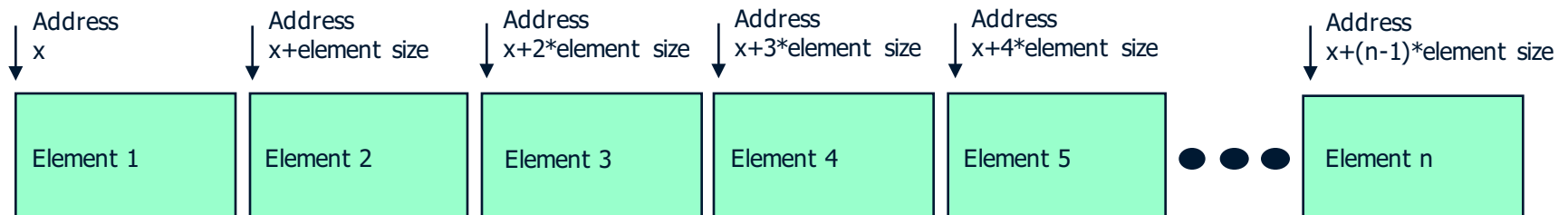
```
while( inStm.good() ) {  
    std::string oneLine;  
    std::getline( inStm, oneLine );  
  
    std::stringstream lineStm(oneLine);  
    while( lineStm.good() ) {  
        std::string copy;  
        lineStm >> copy;  
        std::cout << copy << " ";  
    }  
    std::cout << "\n";  
}
```

# Standard Template Library

- Uses template mechanism for generic ...
  - ... containers (classes)
    - Data structures that hold anything
    - Ex.: `list`, `vector`, `map`, `set`
  - ... algorithms (functions)
    - handle common tasks (searching, sorting, comparing, etc.)
    - Ex.: `find`, `merge`, `reverse`, `sort`, `count`, `random shuffle`, `remove`, `nth-element`, `rotate`, ...

# `std::vector<T>`

- Provides an alternative to the built in array
- A vector is self grown (dynamic in size)
- Use it instead of the built in array!
- Contiguous placement in memory
  - Constant-time look-up given known element size!
  - Expensive when adding/removing elements!





# Example

```
int main() {  
    int input;  
    vector<int> ivec;  
  
    // input  
    while (cin >> input )  
        ivec.push_back(input);  
  
    // sorting  
    sort(ivec.begin(), ivec.end());  
  
    // output  
    vector<int>::iterator it;  
    for ( it = ivec.begin();  
          it != ivec.end(); ++it ) {  
        cout << *it << " ";  
    }  
    cout << endl;  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Iterators

- Provide a **general way for accessing** each element in sequential (vector, list) or associative (map, set) containers

# Pointer Semantics

- Let `iter` be an iterator then :
  - `++iter` (or `iter++`)  
Advances the iterator to the next element
  - `*iter` returns element addressed by the iterator

# Begin and End

- Each container provide a **begin()** and **end()** member functions
  - **begin()** returns an iterator that addresses the first element of the container
  - **end()** returns an iterator that addresses 1 past the last element

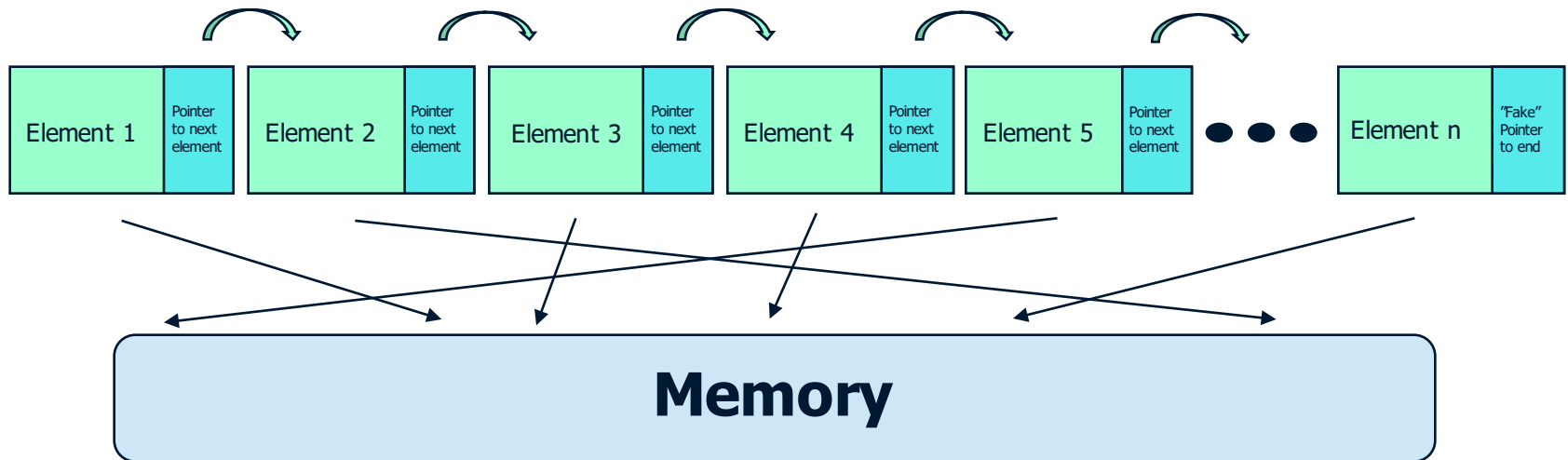
# Iterating Over Containers

- Iterating over the elements of any container type

```
for ( iter = container.begin() ;  
      iter != container.end() ;  
      ++iter )  
{  
    // do something with the element  
}
```

# `std::list<T>`

- Linked list
- Arbitrary location of elements in memory
  - Expensive to access  $n^{\text{th}}$  element (have to iterate)
  - Easy to add/remove elements!



# Example

```
int main() {
    int input;
    list<int> ilist;

    // input
    while (cin >> input )
        ilist.push_back(input);

    // sorting
    ilist.sort();

    // output
    list<int>::iterator it;
    for ( it = ilist.begin();
          it != ilist.end(); ++it ) {
        cout << *it << " ";
    }
    cout << endl;

    return 0;
}
```

# STL - Include files

```
#include <iostream>    // I/O
#include <list>         // container
#include <algorithm>    // sorting

using namespace std;
```



# vector vs list

Where are the bottlenecks?

- Sorting: needs easy access to  $n^{\text{th}}$  element  $\rightarrow$  use **vector**!
- Storing: number of elements unknown  $\rightarrow$  use **list**!

```
int main() {  
    int input;  
    vector<int> ivec;  
  
    // input  
    while (cin >> input )  
        ivec.push_back(input);  
  
    // sorting  
    sort(ivec.begin(), ivec.end());  
  
    // output  
    vector<int>::iterator it;  
    for ( it = ivec.begin();  
          it != ivec.end(); ++it ) {  
        cout << *it << " ";  
    }  
    cout << endl;  
  
    return 0;  
}
```



```
int main() {  
    int input;  
    list<int> ilist;  
  
    // input  
    while (cin >> input )  
        ilist.push_back(input);  
  
    // sorting  
    ilist.sort();  
  
    // output  
    list<int>::iterator it;  
    for ( it = ilist.begin();  
          it != ilist.end(); ++it ) {  
        cout << *it << " ";  
    }  
    cout << endl;  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

# vectors and unknown size

- What is the problem?
  - Needs to be continuous memory block!
  - If pushing back 1 element, and space is insufficient
    - → Entire vector is copied to different place
- How to prevent?
  - Reserve sufficient size upfront!

```
// input
ivec.reserve(100);
while (cin >> input )
    ivec.push_back(input);
```

# STL - Map

- **Solution:** Map – Associative Array
- We provide a key/value pair. The key serves as an index into the map, the value serves as the data to be stored
- Insertion/find operation:
  - $O(\log n)$

# Using Map

- Have a map, where the key will be the employee name and the value the employee object.

name —————> employee

string —————> Employee

```
map<string, Employee *> employees;
```

# Map Iterators

```
map<key, value>::iterator iter;
```

- What type of element iter does addresses?
  - The key ?
  - The value ?
- It addresses a key/value pair

# STL - Pair

- Stores a pair of objects, first of type T1, and second of type T2

```
template<class T1, class T2>
struct pair<T1, T2>
{
    T1 first;
    T2 second;
};
```

# Example: ordering employees

```
bool lessThen( pair<...> &p1, pair<...> &p2 ) { ... }

int main() {
    map<string, Employee *> employees;
    /* Populate the map. */

    vector< pair<string, Employee *> > employeeVec;
    copy( employees.begin(), employees.end(),
          back_inserter( employeeVec ) );

    sort( employeeVec.begin(), employeeVec.end(),
          lessThen );

    vector< pair<string, Employee *> >::iterator it;
    for ( it = ...; it != employeeVec.end(); ++it ) {
        cout << (it->second)->getName() << " "
              << (it->second)->getSalary() << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

# Ordering function

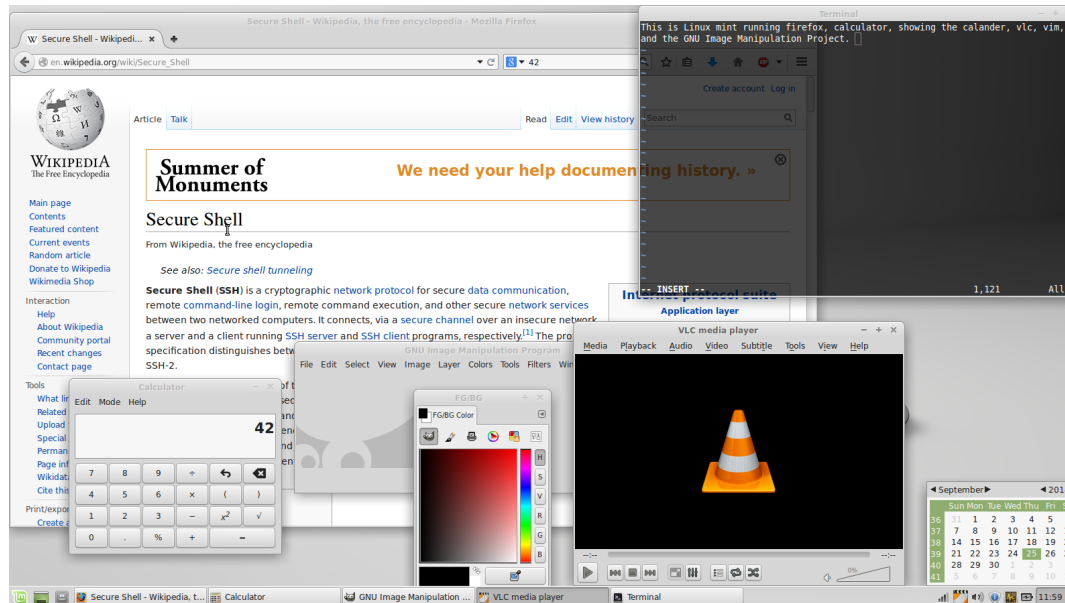
```
bool
```

```
lessThen (pair<string, Employee *> &l,  
         pair<string, Employee *> &r )  
{  
    return (l.second)->Salary() <  
           (r.second)->Salary()  
}
```



# Multi-tasking, Concurrency, and Parallel Computing

- What is multi-tasking?
  - Multi-tasking is one of the main functionalities supported by an operating system. It allows the quasi-parallel execution of multiple processes



Source:  
Wikipedia

# Multi-tasking, Concurrency, and Parallel Computing

- What is concurrency?
  - More general
  - Execution of several computations at overlapping times
  - Concurrency can happen at the level of:
    - Network (cloud computing)
    - Computer / OS (multi-tasking, multiple processes)
    - Program (multiple threads)

# Multi-tasking, Concurrency, and Parallel Computing

- What is parallel computing?
  - Strictly parallel execution of (possibly same) computations
  - Requires parallel computing hardware
    - Multi-core processor
    - Graphics Processing Unit (GPU)
    - Field Programmable Gate Array (FPGA)
    - Derived ASICs
    - Specialized software-programmable SoCs (Ambarella etc.)

# A process

- A process is ...
  - ... started at the operating system level
  - ... assigned a space of individual memory that is typically not shared with other processes
  - ... communicating with other processes via other interfaces (network, disk space, etc.)

# A thread

- A thread is ...
  - ... started at the process/program level
  - ... granted access to the memory space that has been allocated to the process
  - ... possibly sharing that memory space with other threads from the same process
  - ... able to communicate directly with other threads through the assigned memory
  - ... a means to realize parallel computing

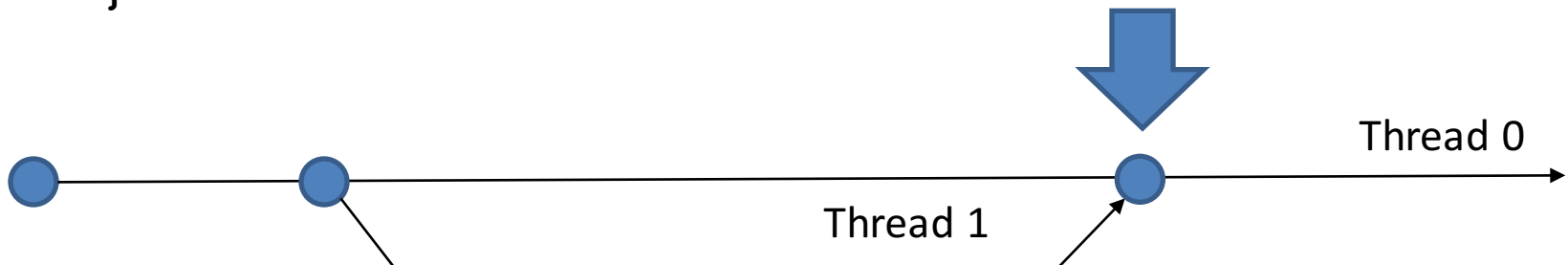
# Thread joining

- Main thread waits for other threads to finish!

```
#include <thread>
#include <iostream>

void threadFunction() {
    std::cout << "Hello from thread 1\n";
}

int main() {
    std::thread th(threadFunction);
    std::cout << "Hello from thread 0\n";
    th.join();
}
```



# What are critical sections?

- Data is usually shared between threads
- Problem:
  - Multiple threads access the same object at the same time
  - If operation is atomic (i.e. not divisible)
    - No other thread could read/operate on a partial result
    - It is safe!
  - If operation is not atomic (i.e. divisible into several steps)
    - Other threads could read/operate on partial result if switching happens in between
    - It is not safe!

# What are critical sections?

- Critical section
  - A piece of code that accesses/modifies a shared resource, and the access/modification is non-atomic
  - → Access must not be concurrent!
  - → Simultaneous access by multiple threads must be prevented
  - → Access needs to be mutually exclusive!



# Mutex

- How does it work?
  - Create a mutex by creating an instance of `std::mutex`
  - Lock it with a call to the member function `lock()`
  - Unlock it with a call to the member function `unlock()`

```
class Counter {  
public:  
    Counter() { m_value = 0; };  
  
    int getValue() { return m_value; };  
    void increment() {  
        m_mutex.lock();  
  
        ++m_value;  
        m_mutex.unlock();  
    };  
  
private:  
    int m_value;  
  
    std::mutex m_mutex;  
};
```

Output:  
**25000 every time!**

# Mutex

- How does it work?
  - A mutex does not directly lock a part of the code
  - A mutex is a resource (i.e. a lock), and we use it passively to protect a critical section
  - **lock ()** is blocking until it “has the lock”
  - **unlock ()** “releases the lock”
  - Only one at a time can have the lock
  - → Bound all critical sections (w.r.t. to the same data) by the same mutex

# **std::atomic**

- C++11 introduces atomic types as a generic template class that can be wrapped around any type

```
std::atomic<Type> object;
```

- Can be used with any type
- Makes the operations on that type atomic
- Locking technique depends on type, and can be very fast for small objects (faster than mutex!)

# Example atomic

- Back to our counter example

```
class Counter {  
public:  
    Counter() { m_value = 0; };  
  
    int getValue() { return m_value; };  
    void increment() {  
        m_mutex.lock();  
  
        ++m_value;  
        m_mutex.unlock();  
    };  
  
private:  
    int m_value;  
  
    std::mutex m_mutex;  
};
```

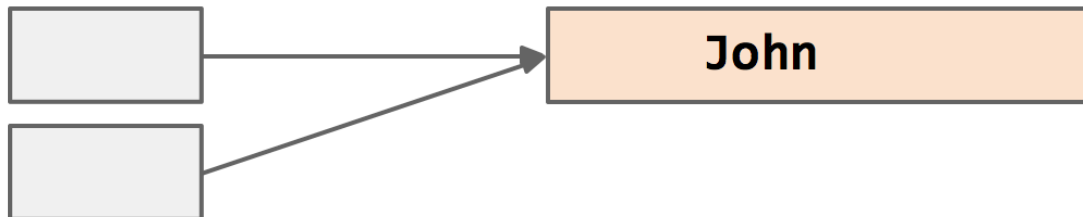
# `std::shared_ptr`

## Shared pointers:

- Provide shared ownership

- Many pointers may own the same object

- The last one to survive is responsible of its disposal through the deleter



# std::shared\_ptr

Shared pointers have a garbage collection mechanism based on a reference counter contained in a control block

Each new shared owner copies the pointer to the control block and increases the count by 1

