

CS319: Scientific Computing

**Function Overloading and Memory
Allocation**

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Slides and examples: <https://www.niallmadden.ie/2425-CS319>

0. Outline

- 1 Recall: Pass-by-value
- 2 Function overloading
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- 4 Arrays
- 5 Pointers
 - Pointer arithmetic
 - Warning!
- 6 Dynamic Memory Allocation
 - `new`
 - `delete`
- 7 Example: Quadrature 1

Slides and examples:

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1. Stuff...

See announcement...

1. Lab 2: due tomorrow at 10.
2. Class test - next week!

2. Recall: Pass-by-value

Last week we learned the following about C++:

- ▶ By default, an argument is **passed by value**. This means that the function gets a copy of the variable. So any changes to it are local to the function.
- ▶ If (say) `v` is a variable, then `&v` is (a reference to) the memory address of that variable.
- ▶ To pass the variable `v`'s **reference** to a function, refer to it as `&v` in the function header/prototype and definition.
- ▶ If a variable is passed by reference to a function, `f`, and its value changed in `f`, then it is also changed in the calling function.

2. Recall: Pass-by-value

Example

00PassByValueAndReference.cpp

```
void DoesNotChangeVar(int X);  
6 void DoesChangeVar(int &X);  
  
8 int main(void)  
{  
10     int q=34;  
    std::cout << "main: q=" << q << std::endl;  
12     std::cout << "main: Calling DoesNotChangeVar(q)...";  
    DoesNotChangeVar(q);  
14     std::cout << "\t Now q=" << q << std::endl;  
    std::cout << "main: Calling DoesChangeVar(q)...";  
16     DoesChangeVar(q);  
    std::cout << "\t And now q=" << q << std::endl;  
18     return(0);  
}  
  
void DoesNotChangeVar(int X){ X+=101; }  
22 void DoesChangeVar(int &X){ X+=101; }
```

2. Recall: Pass-by-value

Output

main: q=34

main: Calling DoesNotChangeVar(q)... Now q=34

main: Calling DoesChangeVar(q)... And now q=135

3. Function overloading

C++ has certain features of **polymorphism**: where a single identifier can refer to two (or more) different things. A classic example is when two different functions can have the same name, but different argument lists.

This is called **function overloading**.

There are lots of reasons to do this. For example, in Week 4 we wrote a function called `Swap()` that swapped the value of two `int` variables.

However, we can write a function that is also called `Swap()` to swap two `floats`, or two `strings`.

(Note: this can also be done with something called `templates`: we'll look at that in a few weeks.)

3. Function overloading

As a simple example, we'll write two functions with the same name: one that swaps the values of a pair of `ints`, and that other that swaps a pair of `floats`. (Really this should be done with `templates...`)

`01Swaps.cpp` (headers)

```
10 #include <iostream>

// We have two function prototypes with same name!
void Swap(int &a, int &b); // note use of references
void Swap(float &a, float &b);
```


3. Function overloading

01Swaps.cpp (main)

```
12 int main(void){  
    int a, b;  
    float c, d;  
  
    std::cout << "Enter two integers: ";  
    std::cin >> a >> b;  
    std::cout << "Enter two floats: ";  
    std::cin >> c >> d;  
  
    std::cout << "a=" << a << ", b=" << b <<  
22     ", c=" << c << ", d=" << d << std::endl;  
    std::cout << "Swapping ...." << std::endl;  
  
    Swap(a,b);  
    Swap(c,d);  
26  
28     std::cout << "a=" << a << ", b=" << b <<  
        ", c=" << c << ", d=" << d << std::endl;  
30     return(0);  
}
```

3. Function overloading

01Swaps.cpp (functions)

```
34 // Swap(): swap two ints
void Swap(int &a, int &b)
36 {
    int tmp;

    tmp=a;
    a=b;
    b=tmp;
40 }

// Swap(): swap two floats
46 void Swap(float &a, float &b)
{
48     float tmp;

    tmp=a;
    a=b;
    b=tmp;
52 }
}
```

3. Function overloading

What does the compiler take into account to distinguish between overloaded functions?

C++ distinguishes functions according to their signature. A signature is made up from:

- ▶ **Type of arguments**. So, e.g., `void Sort(int, int)` is different from `void Sort(char, char)`.
- ▶ **The number of arguments**. So, e.g., `int Add(int a, int b)` is different from `int Add(int a, int b, int c)`.

Examples:



3. Function overloading

However, the following to not impact signatures:

- ▶ **Return values**. For example, we cannot have two functions `int Convert(int)` and `float Convert(int)` since they have the same argument list.
- ▶ **user-defined types** (using `typedef`) that are in fact the same. See, for example, `020verloadedConvert.cpp`.
- ▶ **References**: we cannot have two functions `int MyFunction(int x)` and `int MyFunction(int &x)`

4. Detailed example

In the following example, we combine two features of C++ functions:

- ▶ Pass-by-reference,
- ▶ Overloading,

We'll write two functions, both called `Sort`:

- ▶ `Sort(int &a, int &b)` – sort two integers in ascending order.
- ▶ `Sort(int list[], int n)` – sort the elements of a list of length n .

The program will make a list of length 8 of random numbers between 0 and 39, and then sort them using **bubble sort**.

4. Detailed example

03Sort.cpp (headers)

```
6 #include <iostream>
  #include <stdlib.h> // contains rand() header
8 const int N=8; ← Ignore for now.
10 void Sort(int &a, int &b);
   void Sort(int list[], int length);
12 void PrintList(int x[], int n);
```

4. Detailed example

03Sort.cpp (main)

```
14 int main(void )  
15 {  
16     int i, x[N];  
17  
18     for (i=0; i<N; i++)  
19         x[i]=rand()%40;  
20  
21     std::cout << "The list is:\t\t";  
22     PrintList(x, N);  
23     std::cout << "Sorting..." << std::endl;  
24  
25     Sort(x,N);  
26  
27     std::cout << "The sorted list is:\t";  
28     PrintList(x, N);  
29     return(0);  
30 }
```

*x is an integer array:
x[0], x[1], ..., x[N-1].*
rand() is a pseudo-random number between 0 and "RAND_MAX".

*So
rand()%40
is a random
int between
0 & 39.*

4. Detailed example

03Sort.cpp (Sort two ints)

```
32 // Sort(a, b)
   // Arguments: two integers
34 // return value: void
   // Does: Sorts a and b so that  $a \leq b$ .
36 void Sort(int &a, int &b)
   {
38     if (a>b)
       {
40         int tmp;
           tmp=a;      a=b;      b=tmp;
42     }
   }
```


4. Detailed example

03Sort.cpp (Sort list)

```
46 // Sort(int [], int)
// Arguments: an integer array and its length
// return value: void
48 // Does: Sorts the first n elements of x
void Sort(int x[], int n)
50 {
    int i, k;
52     for (i=n-1; i>1; i--)
        for (k=0; k<i; k++)
54         Sort(x[k], x[k+1]);
56 }
```

$x = \{5, 0, 3, 7, 6\}$

$n = 5$

Step 1: $i = 4$.

Step 1.1 $k = 0$

Sort $x[0], x[1]$

$x = \{0, 5, 3, 7, 6\}$

Step 1.2 Sort $x[1], x[2]$

$x = \{0, 3, 5, 7, 6\}$

Step 1.3 " $x[2], x[3]$

$x = \{0, 3, 5, 7, 6\}$

Step 1.4 " $x[3], x[4]$

$x = \{0, 3, 5, 6, 7\}$

4. Detailed example

```
62 void PrintList(int x[], int n)
   {
64     for (int i=0; i<n; i++)
        std::cout << x[i] << " ";
66     std::cout << std::endl;
   }
```

The list is: 23 6 17 35 33 15 26 12

Sorting...

The sorted list is: 6 12 15 17 23 26 33 35

5. Arrays

Much of Scientific Computing involves working with data, and often collections of data are stored as **arrays**, which are list-like structures that stores a collection of values all of the same type.

Example: declare an array to store five floats:

```
2  float vals[5];  
   vals[0]=1.0;  
   vals[1]=2.1;  
4  vals[2]=3.14;  
   vals[3]=-21.0;  
6  vals[4]=-1.0;
```

5. Arrays

Consider the following piece of code:

04Array.cpp

```
10 float vals[3];  
   vals[0]=1.1; vals[1]=2.2; vals[2]=3.3;  
12 for (int i=0; i<3; i++)  
    std::cout << " vals["<<i<<"]=" << vals[i];  
14 std::cout << std::endl;  
   std::cout << "vals=" << vals << '\n';
```

The output I get looks like

```
1 vals[0]=1.1 vals[1]=2.2 vals[2]=3.3  
vals=0x7ffd9ab8ec9c
```

Can we explain the last line of output?

It is a hexadecimal number representing a memory address.

5. Arrays

So now it know that, if `vals` is the name of an array, then in fact the value stored in `vals` is the memory address of `vals[0]`.

We can check this with

```
std::cout << "vals=" << vals << '\n';  
2 std::cout << "&vals[0]=" << &vals[0] << '\n';  
std::cout << "&vals[1]=" << &vals[1] << '\n';  
4 std::cout << "&vals[2]=" << &vals[2] << '\n';
```

For me, this gives

```
vals=0x7ffc932b960c  
2 &vals[0]=0x7ffc932b960c  
&vals[1]=0x7ffc932b9610  
4 &vals[2]=0x7ffc932b9614
```

These are the same, and are the memory address of vals[0], the

first item in the array.

Can we explain?

There is a difference of 4 between addresses.

5. Arrays

And in the same piece of code, if I changed the first line from

```
float vals[3];
```

to

```
double vals[3];
```

we get something like

```
vals=0x7ffd361abdc0  
&vals[0]=0x7ffd361abdc0  
&vals[1]=0x7ffd361abdc8  
&vals[2]=0x7ffd361abdd0
```

} difference of 8

Can we explain?

because a double
is stored in 8 bytes
(= 64 bits).

5. Arrays

So now we understand why C++ (and related languages) index their arrays from 0:

- ▶ `vals[0]` is stored at the address in `vals`;
- ▶ `vals[1]` is stored at the address after the one in `vals`;
- ▶ `vals[k]` is stored at the k th address after the one in `vals`;

But there are numerous complications, not least that different data types are stored using different numbers of bytes. So the off-set depends on the data type.

To understand the subtleties, we need to know about **pointers**.

Finished here Wed @ 5pm