0. Annotated slides from Friday

CS319: Scientific Computing

Function Overloading and Memory Allocation

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Week 5: 12th and 14th of February, 2025

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

0. Outline

- 1 Recall: Pass-by-value
- 2 Function ever loading
- 3 Petailed example
- 4 Arrays
- 5 Pointers

- Pointer arithmetic
- Warning!
- 6 Dynamic Memory Allocation
 - new
 - delete
- 7 Example: Quadrature 1

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1. Stuff...

See announcement...

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

Next Fridas
"Sample Paper on Monday
Morning"

6. Pointers

To properly understand how to use arrays, we need to study **Pointers**.

- ► We already learned that if, say, x is a variable, then &x is its memory address.
- ▶ A pointer is a special type of variable that can store memory addresses. We use the * symbol before the variable name in the declaration.
- For example, if we declare int i; i is of type int int *p >> p is of type "pointer to int" then we can set p=&i.

 p con store the memory address of i

6. Pointers

05Pointers.cpp

```
10
    int a=-3, b=12;
    int *where;
   std::cout << "The variable 'a' stores " << a << std::endl;</p>
14
    std::cout << "The variable 'b' stores " << b << std::endl;
    std::cout << "'a' is stored at address " << &a << std::end1:
    std::cout << "'b' is stored at address " << &b << std::end1;
18
    where = &a:
    std::cout << "The variable 'where' stores "
               << (void *) where << std::endl;
    std::cout << "... and that in turn stores " <<
      *where << '\n';
   The variable 'a' stores -3 4 From line 13
   The variable 'b' stores 12
 -> 'a' is stored at address 0x7ffd192c6a48 (line 15)
   'b' is stored at address 0x7ffd192c6a4c
  The variable 'where' stores 0x7ffd192c6a48
   ... and that in turn stores -3
```

One can actually do calculations on memory addresses. This is called **pointer arithmetic**. One can't (for example) add two addresses, or compute their product, but you can, for example, increment them.

O6PointerArithmetic.cpp

```
int vals[3];
vals[0]=10; vals[1]=8; vals[2]=-4;

int *p;
p = vals;

(memory) address of the for (int i=0; i<3; i++)

std::cout << "p=" << p << ", *p=" << *p << "\n";
p++;
}

p = p+1
```

```
p=0x7ffcfe3df84c, *p=10
p=0x7ffcfe3df850, *p=8
p=0x7ffcfe3df854, *p=-4
```

6. Pointers Warning!

Being able to manipulate memory addresses is one of the reasons C++ is considered a very **powerful** language. It is possible to preform (low-level) operations in C++ that are impossible in, say, Python.

But it is also possible to write programmes that will crash, or even crash your computer, since memory addresses are not well protected.

7. Dynamic Memory Allocation

In all examples we've had so far, we've specified the size of an array at the time it is defined.

In many practical cases, we don't have that information. For example, we might need to read data from a file, but not know the file size in advance.

It would be useful if, on the fly, we could set the size of an array.

Furthermore, for efficiency, we may want to free up memory allocated.

To add this functionality, we will use two new (to us) C++ operators for dynamic memory allocation and deallocation:

- new and
- ▶ delete.

(There are also functions malloc(), calloc() and free() inherited from C, but we won't use them).

The $\underline{\text{new}}$ operator is used in C++ to allocate memory. The basic form is

```
var = new type
```

where type is the specifier of the object for which you want to allocate memory and var is a pointer to that type.

If insufficient memory is available then new will return a NULL pointer or generate an exception.

To dynamically allocate an array:

- First declare a pointer of the right type: int *data;
- ► Then use new data = new int[MAX_SIZE];

New returns a memory address which is stored in "data" When it is no longer needed, the operator delete releases the memory allocated to an object.

```
To "delete" an array we use a slightly different syntax:

delete [] array;

where array is a pointer to an array allocated with new.
```

In Week 4, we introduced the idea of **numerical integration** or **quadrature**.

We computed estimates for $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ by applying the Trapezium Rule:

- ▶ Choose the number of intervals N, and set h = (b a)/N.
- Define the quadrature points $x_0 = a$, $x_1 = a + h$, ... $x_N = b$. In general, $x_i = a + ih$.
- ► Set $y_i = f(x_i)$ for i = 0, 1, ..., N.

► Compute
$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \approx Q_{1}(f) := h(\frac{1}{2}y_{0} + \sum_{i=1:(N-1)} y_{i} + \frac{1}{2}y_{N}).$$

[Take notes for the next few slides]

O7TrapeziumRule.cpp 4 #include <iostream> $f(x) = e^{\alpha}$ is #include <cmath> // For exp() / the function to 6 #include <iomanip> 8 double f(double x) { return(exp(x)); } // definition double ans_true = exp(1.0)-1.0; // true value of integral double Quad1(double *x, double *y, unsigned int N); (> Prototype for Quad 1(); It takes 3 orguments: -> stores bare address of a roug of points. · pointer to double, called y
· An integer, N.

Next we skip to the function code...

```
N is number of intervals.
```

```
07TrapeziumRule.cpp

double Quad1(double *x, double *y, unsigned int N)

double h = (x[N]-x[0])/double(N);
double Q = 0.5*(y[0] + y[N]);
for (unsigned int i=1; i<N; i++)
Q += y[i];
Q *= h;
return(Q);
}
```

Source of confusion: * is used in two very different contexts here.

Next we skip to the function code...

O7TrapeziumRule.cpp

```
double Quad1(double *x, double *y, unsigned int N)

{
     double h = (x[N]-x[0])/double(N);
     double Q = 0.5*(y[0] + y[N]);
     for (unsigned int i=1; i<N; i++)

     Q += y[i];
     Q *= h;
     return(Q);
}</pre>
```

Source of confusion: * is used in two very different contexts here.

```
Note: 4x some as x[0], and y[i] some as x(y+i)
```

Back to the main function: declare the pointers, input N, and allocate memory.

O7TrapeziumRule.cpp

```
int main(void )
{
    unsigned int N;
    double a=0.0, b=1.0; // limits of integration
    double *x; // quadrature points
    double *y; // quadrature values

20    std::cout << "Enter the number of intervals: ";
    std::cin >> N; // not doing input checking

x = new double[N+1];
y = new double[N+1];

DMA
```

Initialise the arrays, compute the estimates, and output the error.

O7TrapeziumRule.cpp

```
double h = (b-a)/double(N);
26
    for (unsigned int i=0; i<=N; i++)</pre>
                                 initialize & ky.
28
      x[i] = a+i*h;
      y[i] = f(x[i]);
30
    double Est1 = Quad1(x,y,N);
32
    double error = fabs(ans true - Est1):
     std::cout << "N=" << N << ", Trap Rule="
34
               << std::setprecision(6) << Est1
               << ", error=" << std::scientific
36
               << error << std::endl;
```

Finish by de-allocating memory (optional, in this instance).

O7TrapeziumRule.cpp

```
38     delete [] x;
     delete [] y;
40     return(0);
}
```

Although this was presented as an application of using arrays in C++, some questions arise...

- 1. What value of N should we pick the ensure the error is less than, say, 10^{-6} ?
- 2. How could we predict that value if we didn't know the true solution?
- 3. What is the smallest error that can be achieved in practice? Why?
- 4. How does the time required depend on *N*? What would happen if we tried computing in two or more dimensions?
- 5. Are there any better methods? (And what does "better" mean?)

Some answers to those questions.

Answer to Q5:

A better method, such as

Simpson's Rule

would givs smaller Error

for some cost.