



# Plan of the day

**Functions**

**Pointers**

**More on functions**



# Functions

## Example function

```
double coulombsLaw(double q1, double q2, double r) {
// Coulomb's law for the force acting on two point charges
// q1 and q2 at a distance r.  MKS units are used.

    double k = 8.9875e9;        // nt-m**2/coul**2
    return k * q1 * q2 / (r * r);
}
int main() {
    cout << coulombsLaw(1.6e-19, 1.6e-19, 5.3e-11)
         << " newtons" << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

- first token is type of returned object
- second token is function name
- argument names are preceded by their type
- function body is within { }
- return statement can be expression or variable
- if keyword `void` is used as return type, then function is like Fortran SUBROUTINE
- if no arguments, `void` can be used or leave empty



# Function Prototypes

## Will this work?

```
int main() {
    cout << coulombsLaw(1.6e-19, 1.6e-19, 5.3e-11)
         << " newtons" << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

- C++ checks types and number of arguments
- does standard type conversions if necessary
- C++ checks return type
- can be compilation error if checks fail or type conversion is not possible

## Will this work?

```
extern double coulombsLaw(double q1, double q2, double r);
int main() {
    cout << coulombsLaw(1.6e-19, 1.6e-19, 5.3e-11)
         << " newtons" << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

- extern keyword says that the function is external and needs to be included in the link step
- statement ends with ; where body would have been



## Declarations and Definitions

**On the one hand, programs must be broken up into units which are compiled separately**

- standard functions compiled and put in libraries
- analysis code compiled and linked to library

**On the other hand, functions and other externals must be declared before their use.**

```
extern double sqrt(double);  
  
double x, y, z, r;  
//  
r = sqrt(x*x + y*y + z*z);
```

- `sqrt(double)` and `sqrt(double x)` are equivalent in the declaration statement

**What would happen if declaration we used did not correspond to function in the library?**

**To ensure consistency, we force the library function and the declaration we use to share same declaration**



## Header files used with definition

### In `math.h`, we have declarations

```
extern double sqrt(double);  
extern double sin(double);  
extern double cos(double);  
// and many more
```

### In `math.c`, we have definition

```
#include <math.h>  
double sqrt(double x) {  
    //  
    return result;  
}  
double sin(double x) {  
    //  
    return result;  
}
```

- `#include` is like Fortran include
- declaration in header files is used in compilation of the library function
- any mismatch between declaration and definition is flagged as error.



## Header files and user code

**In `math.h`, we have declarations**

```
extern double sqrt(double);  
extern double sin(double);  
extern double cos(double);  
// and many more
```

**in `user.c` we have definition of user code**

```
#include <math.h>  
  
double x, y, z, r;  
//  
r = sqrt(x*x + y*y + z*z);
```

- use same header file in user code
- user code then compiles correctly with implicit conversions as needed



# Extern Data Declarations

## Data can be external

```
extern double aNum;

int foo() {
    cout << aNum << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

- external data is like data in Fortran `COMMON` block
- rarely used feature in C and even less in C++

## Defining extern data

```
double aNum = 1234.5678;

int main() {
    foo();
    return 0;
}
```

- definition must only be done once
- definition is like those in Fortran `BLOCK DATA`



# Static Functions

## Static function declaration

```
#include <math.h>

static double exp_random(double mu) {
    return -mu * log(random());
}

void simulation1() {
    double x1 = exp_random(2.1);
    // ...
}
```

- `static` keyword means local in scope of file
- definition substitutes for declaration within file
- still must come before use





# Static Data

## Consider

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int counter() {
    static int count = 0;
    count++;
    return count;
}

int main() {
    int i;
    i = counter();
    cout << i << ", ";
    i = counter();
    cout << i << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

- static objects retains its value after return from function
- behaves like Fortran local data under VM or VMS
- like Fortran local data under UNIX with `SAVE` option
- rarely used feature



# Default Function Arguments

**One can specify the value of the arguments not given in the call to a function**

## Example

```
#include <math.h>
extern double log_of(double x, double base = M_E);
    // M_E in <math.h>
```

- can be used like

```
#include <ch5/logof.h>

x = log_of(y);           // base e
z = log_of(y, 10);      // base 10
```

- all arguments to the right of the first argument with default value must have default values
- once first default value is used, the remaining ones must also be used
- value of the default must be visible to the caller



## Functions in C

### Function declaration and prototype is the same in C except

- if header inclusion is missing in calling program, then C compiler gives warning and takes default argument types (long or double) and return type (int)
- if header file is included and there is a mismatch between arguments or return type, the C compiler only gives warnings
- you don't see the warnings unless you ask for them (see man pages for their flag)
- gcc gives excellent warnings with `-Wall` flag
- ignoring these warnings can be a disaster on some RISC machines
- no default arguments



# Header Files

**In a large program, it is possible that a header file might get included twice**

**Use C preprocessor to avoid to double inclusion**

```
#ifndef MATH_H
#define MATH_H
extern double sin(double x);
extern double cos(double x);
extern double tan(double x);
// etc
#endif // MATH_H
```

- `cpp` builds temporary file for compiler
- `#ifndef` is C preprocessor directive saying “if not defined”
- `MATH_H` is preprocessor macro variable and is upper case by convention
- `#define` defines a macro variable but in this case doesn't give it a value
- `#endif` ends the `#ifndef`
- this structure seen in all system header files
- same for C and C++



## namespace

**To avoid conflict of function names from different packages, encapsulate in namespace**

```
#ifndef MATH_H
#define MATH_H
namespace std {
extern double sin(double x);
extern double cos(double x);
extern double tan(double x);
// etc
} // end namespace
#endif // MATH_H
```

**Now to use, we must do one of following**

```
#include <cmath>

y = std::sin ( x ); // tedious
// or
using std::sin; // explicit
y = sin ( x );
// or
using namespace std; // sloppy
y = sin ( x );
```

**Good rule: never use `using` in header file, but ok in implementation file**



# The (dreaded) Pointers

**A pointer is an object that refers to another object**

**Declare it thus**

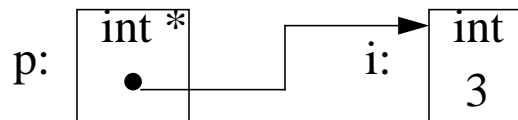
```
int* p;  
int *q;
```

- either form can be used; the later is preferred

**Assign a value to the pointer**

```
int i = 3;  
int *p = &i;
```

- read & as “address of”
- data model is thus



**Watch out!**

```
int *p, i;  
p = &i; // i is an int
```



# Dereferencing pointers

## Consider

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main() {
    int* p;
    int j = 4;
    p = &j;

    cout << *p << endl;

    *p = 5;
    cout << *p << " " << j << endl;

    if (p != 0) {
        cout << "Pointer p points at " << *p << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

- `*p` dereferences pointer to access object pointed at
- `*p` can be used on either side of assignment operator
- if `p` is equal to `0`, then pointer is pointing at nothing and is called a *null* pointer.
- dereferencing a null pointer causes a core dump :-)

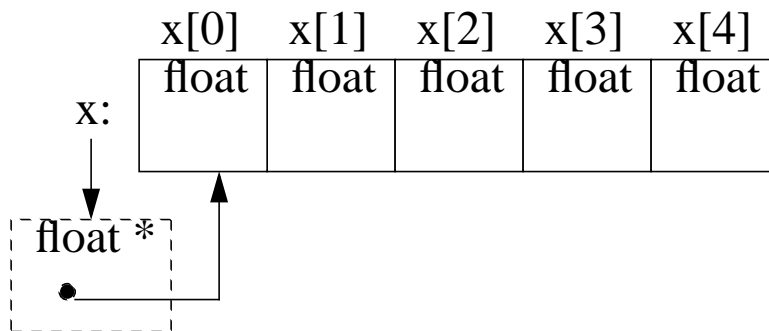


# Pointers and Arrays

## Consider

```
float x[5];
```

## Our memory model is



- what does the label `x` mean?
- in Fortran, `foo(x)` is the same as `foo(x(1))` is the same
- in C/C++, `x` is a pointer to the first element
- `*x` and `x[0]` are the same
- `x` and `&x[0]` are the same
- elements of an array can be accessed either way
- but `x` is a label to an array of object, not a pointer object





# Pointer Arithmetic

## A pointer can point to element of an array

```
float x[5];  
float *y = &x[0];  
float *z = x;
```

- $y$  is a pointer to  $x[0]$
- $z$  is also a pointer to  $x[0]$
- $y+1$  is pointer to  $x[1]$
- thus  $*(y+1)$  and  $x[1]$  access the same object
- $y[1]$  is shorthand for  $*(y+1)$
- integer add, subtract and relational operators are allowed on pointers



# Examples

## 1. Summing an array Fortran style

```
float  x[5];
double sum;
int    i;
// some code that fills x
sum = 0.0;
for (i = 0; i < 5; i = i + 1) {
    sum = sum + x[i];
}
```

## 2. Summing an array C++ style

```
float  x[5];
// some code that fills x
double sum = 0.0;
for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {
    sum += x[i];
}
```

- we declare `sum` just before we need it
- we initialize `sum` with the declaration
- we use `i++` to indicate increment
- we use `sum +=` to indicate accumulation



## More examples

### 3. Summing an array with pointer in Fortran style

```
float  x[5];
float  *y;
double sum;
int    i;
// code to fill x
sum = 0.0;
y = &x[0];
for (i = 0; i < 5; i = i + 1) {
    sum = sum + *y;
    y = y + 1;
}
```

### 4. Summing an array with pointer in C++ style

```
float  x[5];
// code to fill x
float  *y = x;
double sum = 0.0;
for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {
    sum += *y++;
}
```

- delay declaration until need
- use increment operator
- use += assignment operator



# Progression towards C++ style

## Fortran style

```
sum = sum + *y;  
y = y + 1;
```

## Use add-and-assign operator

```
sum += *y;  
y = y + 1;
```

## Use postfix increment operator

```
sum += *y;  
y++;
```

## Combine postfix and dereference

```
sum += *y++;
```

- it takes some time to get use to writing in this style
- be prepared to read code written by others in this style
- don't worry about performance issues yet



# Examples of Pointer Arithmetic

## Reverse elements of an array

```
float x[10];  
// ... initialize x ...  
float* left  = &x[0];  
float* right = &x[9];  
while (left < right) {  
    float temp = *left;  
    *left++    = *right;  
    *right--   = temp;  
}
```

## Set elements of an array to zero

```
float x[10];  
  
float* p = &x[10]; // uh?  
while (p != x) *--p = 0.0;
```

- this terse style is typical of experienced C/C++ programmers
- most HEP code will not be so terse
- in C++, we wouldn't use pointers as much as in C



# Runtime Array Size

**In C++, one can dynamically allocate arrays**

```
float* x = new float[n];
```

- `new` is an operator that returns a pointer to the newly created array
- note use of `n`; a variable
- not the same as Fortran's

```
SUBROUTINE F(X,N)  
DIMENSION X(N)
```

where the calling routine “owns” the memory

- in C, one does

```
float *x = (float *)malloc( n*sizeof(float) );
```

**In C++, to delete a dynamically allocated array one uses the `delete` operator**

```
delete [] x;
```

- in C one uses the `free()` function

```
free(x);
```



# Line fit example

## Part 1

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

void linefit() {
    // Create arrays with the desired number of elements
    int n;
    cin >> n;
    float* x = new float[n];
    float* y = new float[n];

    // Read the data points
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        cin >> x[i] >> y[i];
    }

    // Accumulate sums Sx and Sy in double precision
    double sx = 0.0;
    double sy = 0.0;
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        sx += x[i];
        sy += y[i];
    }
}
```

- note first declaration of `i` carries forward
- will need to change in future



## Line fit continued

### Part 2

```
// Compute coefficients
double sx_over_n = sx / n;
double stt = 0.0;
double b = 0.0;
for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
    double ti = x[i] - sx_over_n;

    stt += ti * ti;
    b += ti * y[i];
}
b /= stt;
double a = (sy - sx * b) / n;

delete [] x;
delete [] y;

cout << a << " " << b << endl;
}

int main() {
    linefit();
    return 0;
}
```





# Character Strings

**Character strings are special case of array and array initialization**

```
char hello1[] = { 'H', 'i' };
```

- dimension of `hello1` is 2

**The above is too tedious, so use double quotes**

```
char hello2[] = "Hi";
```

- the dimension of `hello2` is 3
- the characters are 'H', 'i', and '\0'
- all string functions in C/C++ library expect the last character to be '\0'
- one frequently uses pointers to walk thru a string

```
char hello2[] = "Hi";
int n = 0;
for (char *p = hello2; *p !=0; p++) {
    n++;
}
// n == 2
```



# Variable Scope, Initialization, and Lifetime

## Consider

```
void f() {
    float temp = 1.1;
    int a;
    int b;
    cin >> a >> b;

    if (a < b) {
        int temp = a; // This "temp" hides other one
        cout << 2 * temp << endl;
    } // Block ends; local "temp" deleted.
    else {
        int temp = b; // Another "temp" hides other one
        cout << 3 * temp << endl;
    }

    cout << a * b + temp << endl;
}
```

- every pair of { } defines a new scope
- even a pair with out function, if, for, *etc.*
- variables declared in a scope are deleted when execution leaves scope



# for-loop Scoping

## Consider

```
for(int i = 0; i < count; i++) {  
    if ( a[i] < 10 ) break;  
}  
cout << i << endl;
```

- note where `i` is declared
- the scope of `i` is the scope just outside the for-loop block
- used to work with many compilers

## Current draft standard

- scope of `i` is *inside* for-loop block
- will need to declare `i` before `for` statement for `i` to have meaning after loop termination
- if declared in `for` statement, will need to repeat it for each `for` statement that follows
- vendor compilers will (eventually) change
- gcc ok, Microsoft?



# Formal Arguments

## Consider

```
void f(int i, float x, float *a) {
    i = 100;
    x = 101.0;
    a[0] = 0.0;
}

int j = 1;
int k = 2;
float y[] = {3.0, 4.0, 5.0};
f(j, k, y);
```

- what's the value of `j` after calling `f()`?
- C/C++ pass arguments by value, thus `j` and `k` are left unchanged
- `i`, `x`, and `a` are formal arguments and in the scope of `f()`
- upon calling `f()`, it is as if the compiler generated this code to initialize the arguments

```
int i = j;
float x = k; // note type conversion
float *a = y; // init pointer to array
```

- thus `y[0]` does get set to 0.0



# References

## A way to reference the same location (C++ only)

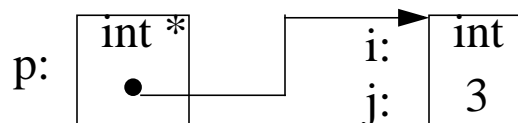
### Reference

```
float x = 12.1;  
float& a = x;  
float &b = x;
```

- a and b are called a *reference*
- a, b, and x are all labels for the same object
- the position of the “&” is optional
- Don’t confuse a reference and a pointer

```
int i = 3; // data object  
int &j = i; // reference to i  
int *p = &i; // pointer to i
```

- i *has* an address of a memory location containing 3
- j *has* the *same* address as i
- the contents of p *is* the address of i





# Reference arguments

## Consider

```
void swap( int &i1, int &i2) {
    int temp = i1;
    i1 = i2;
    i2 = temp;
}
int c = 3;
int d = 4;
swap(c, d);
// c == 4 and d == 3
```

- `swap()` has reference arguments
- upon calling `swap()`, it is as if the compiler generated this code to initialize its arguments

```
int &i1 = c;
int &i2 = d;
```

- thus `i1` and `i2`, the variables in `swap()`'s scope, are aliases for the caller's variables.
- `swap()` behaves like Fortran functions
- C does not have reference; instead you have to write

```
extern void swap(int *i1, int *i2);
swap(&c, &d);
```



# Homework

## Given this declaration

```
void swap( int &i1, int *i2);
```

- write the function
- show how it is called
- draw a data model showing type and value of the arguments



# Recursion

## A function can call itself

```
int stirling(int n, int k) {  
    if (n < k) return 0;  
    if (k == 0 && n > 0) return 0;  
    if (n == k) return 1;  
    return k * stirling(n-1, k) + stirling(n-1, k-1);  
}
```

- each block (function, if, for, *etc.*) creates new scope
- variables are declared and initialized in a scope and deleted when execution leaves scope

**Exercise: write a function that computes factorial of a number**





## More on declarations

### We have seen

```
int i;  
int j = 3;  
float x = 3.14;
```

### A `const` declaration

```
const float e = 2.71828;  
const float pi2 = 3.1415/2;
```

- a `const` variable can not be changed once it is initialized
- get compiler error if you try.

```
const float pi = 3.1415;  
pi = 3.0; // act of congress
```

### the following is obsolete

```
#define M_PI 3.1415;
```

- but maintained to be compatible with C
- it is C preprocessor macro (just string substitution)



## const Pointer

### Consider

```
const float pi = 3.1415;
float pdq = 1.2345;
const float *p = &pi;
float* const d = &pi; // WRONG
float* const q = &pdq;
const float *const r = &pi;

*p = 3.0; // WRONG
p = &pdq; // OK
*p = 3.0; // still WRONG

*q = 3.0; // OK
q = &pdq; // WRONG

*r = 3.0; // WRONG
r = &pdq; // WRONG AGAIN
```

- `const` qualifier can refer to what is pointed at (frequent usage)
- `const` qualifier can refer to pointer itself (rare usage)
- `const` qualifier can refer to both (infrequent usage)



## const function argument

### Consider

```
void f(int i, float x, const float *a) {  
    i = 100;  
    x = 101.0*a[0]; // OK  
    a[0] = 0.0;    // WRONG!  
}  
  
int j = 1;  
int k = 2;  
float y[] = {3.0, 4.0, 5.0};  
f(j, k, y);
```

- a `const` argument tells user of function that his data wouldn't be changed
- the `const` is enforced when attempting to compile function.
- first aspect of spirit of client/server interface



# Function Name Overloading

## Pre-Fortran 77 we had

```
INTEGER FUNCTION IABS(I)
INTEGER I
REAL*4 FUNCTION ABS(X)
REAL*4 X
REAL*8 FUNCTION DABS(X)
REAL*8 X
```

- separate functions had different names
- today, intrinsic functions have the same name
- programmer defined functions still must have different names

## In C++, one can have

```
int    sqr(int i);
float  sqr(float x);
double sqr(double x);
```

- separate functions with same name
- functions distinguished by their name, and the number and type of arguments
- *name mangling* occurs to create the external symbol seen by the linker



## Summary

**Now we covered enough C/C++ so that every thing you can do in Fortran you can now do in C/C++**

**You can also do more than you can do in Fortran**

**Next session we introduce classes and start on the road towards object-oriented programming.**