



## Outline

- 1 Function calls
- 2 Generic programming
- 3 Standard library algorithms
  - Algorithms
  - Insert iterators
- 4 Iterators
  - Different kinds of iterators
  - stream iterators
- 5 Algorithms and function objects

## Function calls and results

### Returning objects by value

- ▶ A function cannot return references to local variables
  - ▶ the object is destroyed at **return** – *dangling reference*
- ▶ How (in)efficient is it to return objects by value (a copy)?

## return value optimization (RVO)

The compiler may optimize away copies of objects on **return** from functions

- ▶ *return by value* often efficient, also for larger objects
- ▶ RVO allowed *even if the copy-constructor or destructor has side effects*
- ▶ avoid such side effects to make code portable

## Rules of thumb for function parameters

- ▶ Return by value more often
- ▶ Do not over-use call-by-value

### “reasonable defaults”

	cheap to copy	moderately cheap to copy	expensive to copy
<b>In</b>	f(X)	f(const X&)	
<b>In/Out</b>	f(X&)		
<b>Out</b>	X f()	f(X&)	

For results, if the cost of copying is

- ▶ small, or moderate (< 1k, contiguous): return by value (modern compilers do RVO: return value optimization)
- ▶ large : call by reference as *out parameter*
  - ▶ or maybe allocate with **new** and return pointer

## Call by reference or by value?

### Rules of thumb

For passing an object to a function when

- ▶ you may want *to change the value* of the object
  - ▶ reference: **void f(T&)**; or
  - ▶ pointer: **void f(T\*)**;
- ▶ you *will not* change it, it is *large* (or impossible to copy)
  - ▶ constant reference: **void f(const T&)**;
- ▶ otherwise, *call by value*
  - ▶ **void f(T)**;

## Call by reference or by value? Rules of thumb

- ▶ How big is "large"?
  - ▶ more than a few *words*
- ▶ When to use out parameters?

- ▶ prefer code that is obvious

Example: two functions:

```
void incr1(int& x)           int v = 0;
{
  ++x;
}
int incr2(int x)           ...
{
  return x + 1;
}
Use:
incr1(v);
...
v = incr2(v);
```

Here it is much clearer  
that v = incr2(v) changes v

- ▶ For multiple output values, consider returning a **struct**, a `std::pair` or a `std::tuple`

## reference or pointer?

- ▶ required parameter: pass reference
- ▶ optional parameter: pass pointer (can be `nullptr`)

```
void f(widget& w)
{
  use(w); //required parameter
}
void g(widget* w)
{
  if(w) use(w); //optional parameter
}
```

## Generic programming Templates (mallar)

- ▶ Uses *type parameters* to write more generic classes and functions
- ▶ No need to manually write a new class/function for each data type to be handled
- ▶ static polymorphism
- ▶ A template is *instantiated* by the compiler for the type(s) it is used for
  - ▶ each instance is a separate class/function
    - ▶ *different from java*: a `java.util.ArrayList<T>` holds `java.lang.Object` *references*
  - ▶ at compile-time: no runtime overhead
  - ▶ increases code size

## Templates Template compilation

- ▶ The compiler *instantiates* the template at the call site
- ▶ The entire *definition* of the template is needed
  - ▶ place template definitions in header files
- ▶ *Duck typing*: *if it walks like a duck, and quacks like a duck, it is a duck.*
  - ▶ cf. dynamically typed languages like python
- ▶ Requirements on the *use* of an object rather than its *type*
- ▶ instead of "class T must have a member function `operator++`"
- ▶ "for any object t, the expression `++t` is well-formed."
- ▶ Independent of class hierarchies

## Generic programming example: find an element in an int array

```
int* find(int* first, int* last, int val)
{
  while(first != last && *first != val) ++first;
  return first;
}
```

Generalize to any array (pointer to `int` type parameter T).

```
template <typename T>
T* find(T* first, T* last, const T& val)
{
  while(first != last && *first != val) ++first;
  return first;
}
```

## Generic programming Our class for a vector of doubles

```
class Vector{
public:
  explicit Vector(int s);
  ~Vector() {delete[] elem;}
  double& operator[](int i) {return elem[i];}
  int size() const {return sz;}
private:
  int sz;
  double* elem;
};
```

can be generalized to hold any type:

```
template <typename T>
class Vector{
public:
  ...
  T& operator[](int i) {return elem[i];}
private:
  int sz;
  T* elem;
};
```

## Generic programming example: find an element in a Vector

```
template <typename T>
T& find(Vector<T>& v, const T& val)
{
    if(v.size() == 0) throw std::invalid_argument("empty vector");
    for(int i=0; i < v.size(); ++i){
        if(v[i] == val) return v[i];
    }
    throw std::runtime_error("not found");
}
```

- ▶ specific to Vector
- ▶ returning a reference is problematic: cannot return null
  - ▶ special handling of empty vector
  - ▶ special handling of element not found

## Generic programming Iterators

The standard library uses an abstraction for an element of a collection – *iterator*

- ▶ “points to” an element
- ▶ can be dereferenced
- ▶ can be incremented (moved to the next element)
- ▶ can be compared to another iterator

and two functions

`begin()` get an iterator to the first element of a collection  
`end()` get an one-past-end iterator

## Generic programming example: find an element in a collection

### find using pair of pointers

```
template <typename T>
T* find(T* first, T* last, const T& val)
{
    while(first != last && *first != val) ++first;
    return first;
}
```

Pointers are iterators for built-in arrays.

### Find for any iterator range

```
template <typename Iter, typename T>
Iter find(Iter first, Iter last, const T& val)
{
    while(first != last && *first != val) ++first;
    return first;
}
```

## Generic programming A generic Vector class

### Example implementation of `begin()` and `end()`:

```
template <typename T>
class Vector{
public:
    ...
    int* begin() {return sz > 0 ? elem : nullptr;}
    int* end() {return begin()+sz;}
    const int* begin() const {return sz > 0 ? elem : nullptr;}
    const int* end() const {return begin()+sz;}
private:
    int sz;
    T* elem;
};
```

The standard function `std::begin()` has an overload for classes with `begin()` and `end()` member functions.

## Generic programming

### Generic user code

```
using std::begin;
using std::end;
void example1()
{
    int a[] {1,2,3,4,5,6,7};

    auto f5= find(begin(a), end(a), 5);
    if(f5 != end(a)) *f5 = 10;
}

void example2()
{
    Vector<int> a{1,2,3,4,5,6,7};

    auto f5= find(begin(a), end(a), 5);
    if(f5 != end(a)) *f5 = 10;
}
```

## Algorithms

### Standard library algorithms

```
#include <algorithm>
```

### Numeric algorithms:

```
#include <numeric>
```

### Random number generation

```
#include <random>
```

Appendix A.2 in Lippman gives an overview

## Standard algorithms

### Main categories of algorithms

- 1 Search, count
- 2 Compare, iterate
- 3 Generate new data
- 4 Copying and moving elements
- 5 Changing and reordering elements
- 6 Sorting
- 7 Operations on sorted sequences
- 8 Operations on sets
- 9 Numeric algorithms

## Standard algorithms

### Algorithm limitations

- ▶ Algorithms may *modify container elements*. E.g.,
  - ▶ `std::sort`
  - ▶ `std::replace`
  - ▶ `std::copy`
  - ▶ `std::remove` (sic!)
- ▶ No algorithm *inserts or removes container elements*.
  - ▶ That requires operating on the actual container object
  - ▶ or using an *insert iterator* that knows about the container (cf. `std::back_inserter`)

## Algorithms

### Exempel: `find`

```
template <class InputIterator, class T>
InputIterator find (InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                  const T& val);
```

### Exempel:

```
vector<std::string> s{"Kalle", "Pelle", "Lisa", "Kim"};
auto it = std::find(s.begin(), s.end(), "Pelle");

if(it != s.end())
    cout << "Found " << *it << endl;
else
    cout << "Not found"<< endl;
Found Pelle
```

## Algorithms

### Example: `find_if`

```
template <class InputIterator, class UnaryPredicate>
InputIterator find_if (InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                    UnaryPredicate pred);
```

### Exempel:

```
bool is_odd(int i) { return i % 2 == 1; }

void test_find_if()
{
    vector<int> v{2,4,6,5,3};

    auto it = std::find_if(v.begin(), v.end(), is_odd);

    if(it != v.end())
        cout << "Found " << *it << endl;
    else
        cout << "Not found"<< endl;
}

Found 5
```

*Function pointer*

## Algorithms

### `count` och `count_if`

Count elements, in a data structure, that satisfy some predicate

- ▶ `std::count(first, last, value)`
  - ▶ elements equal to value
- ▶ `std::count_if(first, last, predicate)`
  - ▶ elements for which predicate is true

## Algorithms

### Example: `copy` and `copy_if`

```
template <class InputIterator, class OutputIterator>
OutputIterator copy (InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                  OutputIterator result);
```

### Example:

```
vector<int> a(8,1);

print_seq(a);          length = 8: [1][1][1][1][1][1][1][1]

vector<int> b{5,4,3,2};

std::copy(b.begin(), b.end(), a.begin()+2);
print_seq(a);          length = 8: [1][1][5][4][3][2][1][1]
```

*copy\_if with predicate, as previous slide*

## Algorithms

remove / remove\_if

Remove elements equal to a value or matching a predicate.

- ▶ `std::remove` et al. do not actually remove anything. They
  - ▶ move the "retained" elements to the front
  - ▶ return an iterator to the first "removed" element
- ▶ To actually remove from a container, use the `erase` member function, e.g. `std::vector::erase()`

### The erase-remove idiom

```
auto new_end = std::remove_if(c.begin(), c.end(), pred);
c.erase(new_end, c.end());
```

or

```
c.erase(std::remove_if(c.begin(), c.end(), pred), c.end());
```

## Algorithms

Insert iterators (in `<iterator>`)

### Example:

```
vector<int> v{1, 2, 3, 4};

vector<int> e;
std::copy(v.begin(), v.end(), std::back_inserter(e));
print_seq(e);           length = 4: [1][2][3][4]

deque<int> e2;
std::copy(v.begin(), v.end(), std::front_inserter(e2));
print_seq(e2);          length = 4: [4][3][2][1]

std::copy(v.begin(), v.end(), std::inserter(e2, e2.end()));
print_seq(e2);          length = 8: [4][3][2][1][1][2][3][4]
```

## Requirements on iterators

The standard library algorithms put requirements on iterators. For instance, `std::find` requires its arguments to be

**CopyConstructible** (and **Destructible**) as it is passed by value  
**EqualityComparable** to have `operator!=`  
**Dereferencable** to have `operator*` (for reading)  
**Incrementable** to have `operator++`

The requirements are often specified using iterator concepts.

## Iterator concepts

- ▶ Input Iterator (`++ == !=`) (dereference as *rvalue*: `*a`, `a->`)
- ▶ Output Iterator (`++`) (dereference as *lvalue*: `*a=t`)
- ▶ Forward Iterator (Input- and Output Iterator, reusable)
- ▶ Bidirectional Iterator (as Forward Iterator with `--`)
- ▶ Random-access Iterator (`+=`, `--`, `a[n]`, `<`, `<=`, `>`, `>=`)

Different iterators for a container type (con is one of the containers `vector`, `deque`, or `list` with the element type `T`)

<code>con&lt;T&gt;::iterator</code>	runs forward
<code>con&lt;T&gt;::const_iterator</code>	runs forward, only for reading
<code>con&lt;T&gt;::reverse_iterator</code>	runs backwards
<code>con&lt;T&gt;::const_reverse_iterator</code>	runs backwards, only for reading

## Iterator validity

In general, if the structure an iterator is referring to is changed *the iterator is invalidated*. Example:

- ▶ insertion
  - ▶ sequences
    - ▶ `vector`, `deque*` : all iterators are invalidated
    - ▶ `list` : iterators are unaffected
  - ▶ associative containers (`set`, `map`)
    - ▶ iterators are unaffected
- ▶ removal
  - ▶ sequences
    - ▶ `vector` : iterators *after* the removed elements are invalidated
    - ▶ `deque` : all iterators invalidated (in principle)
    - ▶ `list` : iterators to the removed elements are invalidated
  - ▶ associative containers (`set`, `map`)
    - ▶ iterators are unaffected
- ▶ `resize`: as insertion/removal

## `istream_iterator<T>`

### `istream_iterator<T>` : constructors

```
istream_iterator(); // gives an end-of-stream istream iterator
istream_iterator(istream_type& s);
```

```
#include <iterator>
```

```
stringstream ss{"1 2 12 123 1234\n17\n\t42"};
```

```
istream_iterator<int> iit{ss};
istream_iterator<int> iit_end;
```

```
while(iit != iit_end) {
    cout << *iit++ << endl;
```

```
}
1
2
12
123
1234
17
42
```

Example: use to initialize a vector<int>:

```
stringstream ss{"1 2 12 123 1234\n17\n\r42"};
istream_iterator<double> iit{ss};
istream_iterator<double> iit_end;

vector<int> v{iit, iit_end};

for(auto a : v) {
    cout << a << " ";
}
cout << endl;
1 2 12 123 1234 17 42
```

Example: counting words in a string s:

#### Straight-forward counting

```
istringstream ss{s};
int words{0};
string tmp;
while(ss >> tmp) ++words;
```

#### Using the standard library

```
istringstream ss{s};
int words = distance(istream_iterator<string>{ss},
                    istream_iterator<string>{});
```

std::distance gives the distance (in number of elements) between two iterators. (UB if the second argument cannot be reached by incrementing the first.)

### istream\_iterator Handling errors

```
stringstream ss2{"1 17 kalle 2 nisse 3 pelle\n"};
istream_iterator<int> iit2{ss2};
while(!ss2.eof()) {
    while(iit2 != iit_end) { cout << *iit2++ << endl; }
    if(ss2.fail()){
        ss2.clear();
        string s;
        ss2 >> s;
        cout << "ss2: not an int: " << s << endl;
        iit2 = istream_iterator<int>(ss2); // create new iterator
    }
}
cout << boolalpha << "ss2.eof(): " << ss2.eof() << endl;
1
17
ss2: not an int: kalle
2
ss2: not an int: nisse
3
ss2: not an int: pelle
ss2.eof(): true
```

- ▶ on failure, the fail-bit is set in the stream
- ▶ the iterator is set to end
- ▶ if the stream is changed, a new iterator must be created

### ostream\_iterator and the algorithm copy

#### ostream\_iterator

```
ostream_iterator (ostream_type& s);
ostream_iterator (ostream_type& s, const char_type* delimiter);
```

```
stringstream ss{"1 2 12 1234\n17\n\r42"};

istream_iterator<double> iit{ss};
istream_iterator<double> iit_end;

cout << fixed << setprecision(2);
ostream_iterator<double> oit{cout, " <-> "};

std::copy(iit, iit_end, oit);
1.00 <-> 2.00 <-> 12.00 <-> 1234.00 <-> 17.00 <-> 42.00 <->
```

### transform and function objects

Iterate over a sequence, apply a function to each element and write the result to a sequence (cf. "map" in functional programming languages)

```
template < class InputIt, class OutputIt, class UnaryOperation >
OutputIt transform( InputIt first, InputIt last, OutputIt d_first,
                  UnaryOperation unary_op );

template < class InputIt1, class InputIt2, class OutputIt,
          class BinaryOperation >
OutputIt transform( InputIt1 first1, InputIt1 last1, InputIt2 first2,
                  OutputIt d_first, BinaryOperation binary_op );
```

A function object is an object that can be called as a function.,

- ▶ function pointers
- ▶ function objects ("functor")

The algorithm transform can handle both function pointers and functors.

### Function objects and transform

#### Example with function pointer

```
int square(int x) {
    return x*x;
}

vector<int> v{1, 2, 3, 5, 8};
vector<int> w; // w is empty!

transform(v.begin(), v.end(), inserter(w, w.begin()), square);

// w = {1, 4, 9, 25, 64}
```

## Function objects

A function object is an object that has `operator()`

### Previous example with a function object

```
struct {
    int operator() (int x) const {
        return x*x;
    }
} sq;

vector<int> v{1, 2, 3, 5, 8};
vector<int> ww; // ww empty!

transform(v.begin(), v.end(), inserter(ww, ww.begin()), sq);

// ww = {1, 4, 9, 25, 64}
```

*Anonymous struct* – the type has no name, only *the object*.

## Random numbers

<cstdlib>

### Example: dice with the C standard lib

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cstdlib>
#include <ctime>

using std::cout;
using std::endl;

int main()
{
    unsigned int seed = time(0);
    srand(seed);
    int n{20};
    for (int i=0; i<n; i++) {
        cout << rand()%6+1 << " ";
    }
    cout << endl;
}
```

## Random numbers

Better C++: encapsulate in an object – “function with state”

Assume that we have a class `Rand_int` giving random numbers in the interval  $[min, max]$ .

### with RandInt object

```
int main()
{
    unsigned long seed = time(0);
    Rand_int dice{1,6, seed};
    int n{20};
    for (int i = 0; i != n; ++i) {
        cout << dice() << " ";
    }
    cout << endl;
}
```

### The C version

```
int main()
{
    unsigned int seed = time(0);
    srand(seed);
    int n{20};
    for (int i=0; i<n; i++) {
        cout << rand()%6+1 << " ";
    }
    cout << endl;
}
```

## Random numbers

Example of a random integer class

### Example: Rand\_int

```
#include <random>

class Rand_int {
public:
    Rand_int(int low, int high) : dist{low,high} {}
    Rand_int(int low, int high, unsigned long seed)
        : re{seed}, dist{low,high} {}
    int operator()() {return dist(re);}
private:
    std::default_random_engine re;
    std::uniform_int_distribution<> dist;
};
```

## Suggested reading

References to sections in Lippman

[Function templates](#) 16.1.1

[Algorithms](#) 10 – 10.3.1, 10.5

[Iterators](#) 10.4

[Function objects](#) 14.8

[Random numbers](#) 17.4.1

## Next lecture

### Function templates

References to sections in Lippman

[Lambda capture](#) 10.3.4

[Binding arguments](#) 10.3.4

[Function objects](#) 14.8

[Class templates](#) 16.1.2

[Template argument deduction](#) 16.2–16.2.3