

## Week 1 : Lecture : 1

> Pointers is a special data type used to store and manipulate addresses of main memory

> Pointers are used to control and manage dynamic memory

> Pointers

Content: Address

Name : Any name

Size : Most pointers are of size 4 bytes (to store address of any data type)

Address : Random Address

> While declaring a variable of pointer type, there is no mention of pointer as we previously used int for integer, character.

> We can directly initialize a pointer to 0, NULL or nullptr.

>  $\text{int } * \text{ptr} = 34$  or any other number, then this will cause a runtime error & this is illegal.

### \* Address Operator

> Symbol: & (Ampersand)

> This is used to fetch address of any variable.

> This is used to assign the address of any variable to the pointer of the same type as the variable.

> Addresses of variable in hexadecimal type and they always start with 0X

ptr could be any name { int \*ptr;  
here nullptr is preferable { ptr = NULL/0/nullptr;  
int \* is type of ptr meaning that it can only store address of int variable  
ptr = &x;

> Assigning address of a r is a char type variable { char r = 'A'; Eg:2 }

variable of one type to ptr2 is int \* type pointer { int \*ptr2 = nullptr; the pointer of another int type pointer is assigned add { ptr2 = &r; type causes an error. of char variable }

The error will be compile time error.

> Compile time errors are pointed out before execution of the program. They dont let the program run

## \* Dereference Operator

> Symbol: \*

- > This operator needs a valid operator
- > It is used to print the content of the variable whose address is stored in a pointer
- > From eg: 1, cout << \*ptr; will print 10
- > From eg: 2, cout << \*ptr2; will print A if ptr2 is char type pointer
- > We previously said that it needs valid addresses, following are examples of invalid addresses

- Uninitialized Pointer:

```
int *ptr;
```

```
cout << *ptr;
```

This won't cause an error message, rather this will cause erroneous results.

- Null initialized Pointer:

```
char *ptr2=nullptr;
```

```
cout << *ptr2;
```

This will cause an error because there is no memory location labeled as/with the address (NULL) zero.

> char \*ptr2; } This will print a random CHARACTER.

```
cout << *ptr2;
```

> \*ptr = 50 } This is a valid statement.

If this is written after statements of eg: 1 then 50 will be stored in

- Pointers are used to both reading and writing purposes.

```
1: int x=50;
2: int *ptr=&x;
3: cout << *ptr; } Reading
4: *ptr=100; } Writing
```

If ptr is uninitialized and there is a statement like 4<sup>th</sup> statement then there will be an error as we may change value of some uninitialised memory location which might cause errors in future.

## Week 1: Lecture: 02

A variable can be assigned the largest possible value by  
int a;  
a = ~a;  
~ inverts the number, 000 becomes 111.

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

& Address operator

\* to declare a pointer / dereference operator

Everything is stored in computer in bits. Let it be address characters, integers, floating values or anything.

### Assignment Operation on Pointers

Compile-time error  $q = *p$  } This will cause an error... we can't assign integer to pointer

int \*p = 0;

Compile-time error  $*x = *q$ , } \*x is a constant. We can't assign a value to a constant

int \*q = 0;

You can't dereference a regular variable

int x = 50;

Dereference operators are for pointer

int y = 100;

This is used to assign a variable to a pointer

$p = &y;$

$q = &x;$

Here 40 is in y }  $*p = 40;$

Here y will have }  $y = *q;$

Copy contents of y into x }  $*q = *p;$

Now p, q will point to same variable }  $q = p;$

(They must be of same data type)

### Relational Operators

$==, !=$

Very useful (Used to compare if they have same address)

$>, >=, <, <=$  Rare use

int x = 10, y = 20;

int \*q = &x;

int \*p = &y;

cout << q == p; (if they point to different addresses)

cout << q != p; (Opposite than the above)

Not v. useful cout << q > p;

cout << \*q == \*p << \*q + \*p; (After dereferencing, you can perform any operation which is valid on q or p (i.e., their data type))

## Arithmetic Operators:

\* Only two valid arithmetic operations on pointers

Addition (+) [This acts like a jump]

Subtraction (-)

----- First 4 lines of last program -

⇒ Addition:

- We can only add an integer to a pointer.
- We can not add two pointers

`cout << p+1; } This won't display 006, this will display 009`

001	x	50
005	y	100
009		
002		
030	p	005
035	q	001

Now, the jump is determined by the type of variable.  
if it is int, the jump will be of 4 memory locations.  
If the type is character then jump will be of 1 memory location. Here each location is a byte.

- The integer here added means the number of variable's type size jump to be taken
- Increment operators can be used with pointers. Both pre and post increment operators are allowed.

• This is forward jump.

⇒ Subtraction:

- We can subtract two pointers.

- We can subtract from a pointer any integer value.

--- Considering above example (memory) ---

`cout << p-1; } This will display 001`

- Again, jump is determined by the (memory-type) of the variable as previously.

- Now, `cout << p-q;`  (Referencing to adj. fig)

$p \& q$  are integers

$$p-q/4 = 23$$

Now 23 bytes can possibly store 5 integers at max so ans will be

'5'

- Pre & Post decrement is also valid.

P	007
q	030

## Week 2: Lecture 1

### → Pointers & Functions

- pass pointers to a function
  - > by value
  - > by reference
- return from a function

#### Example:

```
int main()
```

```
{ int x = 10;
```

```
    int * p = &x;
```

```
    fun(p) By value
```

```
    fun(&x) *legal operation
```

```
    fun(10) Will cause errors
```

```
    fun(*p) *By reference
```

```
}
```

#### By Value

```
void fun(int *p)
```

```
{ cout << p ;
```

```
cout << *p ;
```

```
*p=100;
```

#### By Reference

```
void fun2(int *&p)
```

```
{ cout << p ;
```

```
cout << *p ;
```

```
*p=100;
```

\* with data type  
& with variable

Pointers by value or reference, but they make the data to be passed by reference.

### → Use of const with pointers

#### • Name constants

> These values do not change

> It is used to repeatedly use a complex value without typing it again and again.

> It is also used with parameters while defining a function so that the original value doesn't change.

## Use of const with pointers.

There are 4 variations of this type.

### 1) Non constant pointer to non-constant data

```
int x = 10;
```

```
int *p = &x;
```

```
p++; } Non-constant pointer,  
p=nullptr; } we can change its value.
```

```
(*p)++; } Non-constant data, the  
*p=500; } content can be modified  
through pointer.
```

### 2) Non-constant pointer to constant data

```
const int x=10;
```

```
const int *p:=&x; } p is a pointer to const integers.  
p++; } This is valid, pointers value can be changed  
p=NULL; }
```

```
(*p)++; } This is not valid, data is const so it can  
*p=500; } not be changed.
```

### 3) constant pointer to non-constant data

```
int x=10;
```

```
int * const p = &x;
```

```
p++; } This is not valid, as p is constant and it  
p=NULL; } will always point to x
```

```
(*p)++; } this is valid, the content can be changed  
*p=100; } since it is not constant.
```

#### 4) Constant pointer to constant data

```
const int x = 10;
```

```
const int *const p = &x;
```

$p++;$  } Not valid as pointer is constant  
 $p=NULL;$

$(*p)++;$  } Not valid as data is constant  
 $*p=100,$

#### Example:

```
int main() { void fun(const int *p) { Only Read
    { p++; } Valid
    int x=10; : Read
    : Write } (*p)++; } Invalid, data is const
    fun(&x); } }
```

#### Example:

```
int y=100;
```

```
int *p = &y; } read + write
```

```
const int *p = &y; } only read
```

#### Example:

```
const int y=100;
```

```
int *p = &y; } Type mismatch error
```

- p is int pointer

- y is const int

```
void fun(int *&const p)
```

- Address can't modify

- Data can change.

## Week 2 : Lecture 2

### Dynamic Memory:

- Also called as heap
- It is allocated through runtime.
- It is allocated during runtime and if it is no more required so it can be deallocated
- It has no name. It has size, content and address.
- It is not compiler dependent.
- It is process & destroyed (deallocated) through use of pointers

Operator: new  $\Rightarrow$  reserved word

- 'new' is used for allocation of dynamic memory.
- It will request system for allocation of memory (variable)
- On success, it will return address of allocated memory.

Eg: new int;  $\Rightarrow$  it will require to create a variable of 4 bytes in dynamic

$\Rightarrow$  This is going to return address of the variable in heap.

- The variable won't have any name.

Eg: int \*p = new int;  $\Rightarrow$  Address of dynamic memory is stored in p.

cout << p << \*p;  
                address      junk

$\Rightarrow$  We can initialize dynamic memory using following methods

1. int \*p = new int;

\*p = 100;

2. int \*p = new int(6)

Address allocation      creation, initialization.

### Operator:

- delete  $\Rightarrow$  reserved word
- 'delete' is used for deallocation of dynamic memory
- it requires a valid address of allocated memory on heap
- it can only be used for heap memory

Eg: int \*p = new int(6);

----- processing -----

delete p; The memory that we allocated previously now is free

- The pointer still has the address of that variable.

$\Rightarrow$  such a pointer is called dangling pointer and is dangerous.

- After deallocation, it is required to initialize pointer to 'nullptr'

Errors occur:

if  $\Rightarrow$  delete is used to deallocate same memory multiple times

if  $\Rightarrow$  delete is given address of stack memory

(1) int  $x=10$ ;      (2) int\* $p=\text{new int}(10)$ ;      (3) int \* $p=\text{new int}(15)$ ;

int \* $p=&x$

delete  $p$ ;

delete  $p$ ;

$p=nullptr$ ;

Runtime error  
stack memory can't  
be deallocated

Runtime error  
can't write into  
deallocated memory.

Runtime error  
can't delete a deallocated  
memory

### Dangling Pointers:

- Contains address of unallocated or deallocated memory
- It corrupts data
- Program terminates with runtime error.

Eg. of dangling pointers:

(1) int \* $p=\text{new int}(10)$ ;

$p++$

delete  $p$ ; ] It has unallocated  
memory

(3) int \* $q$ , \* $p$ ;

$p=\text{new int}(30)$ ;

$q=p$ ;

delete  $p$ ;

$p=nullptr$ ;

\* $q=500$ ; error

$q$  is dangling pointer

### Memory leaks

- A portion of memory which
  - $\Rightarrow$  cannot be used (accessed)
  - $\Rightarrow$  allocated for other process

Eg: (1) int \* $p=\text{new int}(100)$ ;

Either  
of  
these

{  $p=nullptr$ ;  
 $p=\text{new int}(30)$ ;  
 $p=&x$ ;

int \*p = new int(50);  
 int \*q = new int(100);  
 ④ \*q = \*q + \*p; Simple data change  
 (2) p++; move to unallocated memory  
 (3) p = p + \*q; "  
 (4) p++; "  
 \*p = \*q, \*q + \*p; changes in unallocated memory  
 (5) p = q; or q = p; then p and q will point to same memory.  
 (6) delete q; q is deallocated  
 q = p; q was dangling operator, now points to same app  
 p = nullptr; p is null  
 q = p; q & p points to same operator.

CODE:

return type

(int \*)

{ int \*p = new int(10); }

\*p = 20;

return p;

}

int main()

{ int \*q = fun(); }

}

## Week 3: Lecture 1

### Pointers and Arrays

1) An array name is a constant pointer

$\Rightarrow \text{int arr[5];}$

$\Rightarrow \text{cout} \ll \text{arr};$  This will print address of the first element in arr

$\Rightarrow \text{cout} \ll \&\text{arr[0]};$  This will do the same job as previous statement

2) Array data and processing is similar to the pointer

$\Rightarrow \text{arr[5]};$  This makes a jump of 5 from the base address

3)  $\text{int *ptr};$

$\Rightarrow$  Store address of single variable (Static/Dynamic)

$\Rightarrow$  Store the base address of an array.

4) Subscript Operator:

This has a natural/default dereferencing in it

$\text{cout} \ll \text{arr[1]};$

5) Offset Notation:

In this notation, we have to do dereferencing

$\text{cout} \ll *(\text{arr} + 1)$

Eg:  $\text{cout} \ll \text{arr};$  (base address of first element)

~~Similarities~~ =  $\text{cout} \ll \text{ptr};$  Here ptr is a pointer to first element of array

$\text{cout} \ll \text{arr[1]}; = \text{cout} \ll \text{ptr[1]}; \quad \} \text{ They have the same }$

$\text{cout} \ll *(\text{arr} + 1); = \text{cout} \ll *(\text{ptr} + 1); \quad \} \text{ operations}$

~~Difference~~ 6) Increment/Decrement of array name is illegal, however it is possible using pointer

Eg:  $\text{arr} = \text{arr} + 1;$  It is illegal

$\text{ptr} = \text{ptr} + 1;$  It will make a jump and will point to next element of the array.

• After increment,  $\text{cout} \ll \text{ptr[1]}$  and  $\text{cout} \ll \text{arr[1]};$  will give different values

7) A pointer can be used to point to any element of array

Eg:  $\text{int *ptr} \ 3 = \&\text{arr[5]}$

8) We can write data using pointer

Eg:  $\text{ptr[1]} = 50;$

## Dynamic Arrays:

→ They can be managed easily using pointers.

→ You have to do

- allocation

- deallocation

⇒ Dynamic Arrays have no name

### Allocation:

```
int *ptr = new int[5];
```

| int value  
 | named constant  
 | int variable **\*\***

- A dynamic array is treated in the same way like a static array.

- Data can be searched/sorted/ elements can be removed or any operation could be performed

### Deallocation:

- delete operator

It requires

- valid address

- allocated memory

- heap memory

- You can delete the dynamic array element by direct using a loop

Eg: 

```
for(int i=0; i<5; i++)  
    delete (ptr+i);
```

- You can use a single statement for deallocation of array

Eg: 

```
delete [] ptr;
```

## Week 3 : Lecture 2

### Misconceptions abt arrays:

- 1) If we change size variable, array's size will also change
- 2) deallocated any element from array will also remove it from array

### To resize an array:

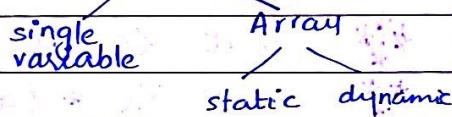
- 1) Create new array of smaller or larger accent.
- 2) Copy data from old array to new one element by element.
- 3) deallocate original array.
- 4) Update the pointer variable.

### function and dynamic 1D Array

→ pass to function [pointer → by reference/by value]

→ can return base address of array from function

→ data is always passed by reference through pointers.



### Shallow vs Deep Copy

```
int *p1, *p2;
```

```
p1 = new int [10];
```

$p2 = p1;$  ⇒ shallow copy created

```
delete [] p1;
```

```
p1 = nullptr;
```

#### Shallow copy

- Two pointers pointing to the same memory location. When memory is deleted using one pointer, both pointers become dangling and must be initialized.

#### Deep copy

- Two pointers pointing to 2 diff locations with the same content/elements.

## Week 4: Lecture 1

### 2D dynamic arrays:

To make a 2D dynamic array, you should know how to create an array of pointers.

Eg:

```
int *ptr;
```

a simple pointer

```
int *arrptr[5]; } an array of pointers is made
```

```
int x=10; } two simple variables
```

```
int y=30; }
```

```
arrptr[0] = &x; } pointers point to simple variables
```

```
arrptr[1] = &y; }
```

```
arrptr[2] = new int[100]; } pointer points to an array in dynamic memory
```

```
arrptr[3] = new int(5); } pointer points to a dynamic variable
```

```
int arr[3] = {1, 5, 9};
```

```
arrptr[4] = arr;
```

```
cout << *(arrptr[0]); } dereferencing an element in array of
```

```
cout << *(arrptr[2]); } pointer
```

cout << arrptr[2][1]; This will print 5

cout << \*(arrptr[2]+1); This acts the same way as abr statement

Now we can access the elements of array declared on arrptr[2] as follows

arrptr[2][0] = 1

arrptr[2][3] = 2

for a 2D dynamic array:

1. An array of pointers → On stack: Partially dynamic 2D array  
on heap: Completely dynamic array
2. Store 1D array at each index of arrays of pointers.

Eg:

```
const int s=10;
```

```
int *aptr[5] = {0}; All elements are initialized to nullptr.
```

```
aptr[0] = new int [5];
```

```
aptr[1] = new int [5];
```

```
aptr[2] = new int [5];
```

```
aptr[3] = new int [5];
```

```
aptr[4] = new int [5];
```

This can be done using a loop

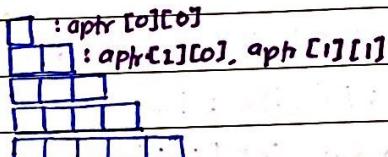
```
for (int i=0; i<s; i++)
```

```
    aptr[i] = new int [5];
```

We can also vary sizes of each array element i.e., row

```
for (int i=0; i<s; i++)
```

```
    aptr[i] = new int [i+1];
```



\* In this allocation, aptr[0][1] is invalid ✗

```
aptr[0][0] = *(aptr[0] + 0); = *(*(aptr + 0) + 0);
```

deallocations:

```
delete [] aptr[0];
```

```
: delete [] aptr[1];
```

```
for (int i=0; i<s; i++)
```

```
    delete [] aptr[i];
```

array of pointers:

- created on compile time

- we can't change or resize array of pointers (no. of rows can't be changed)

Multiple indirections:

```
int x = 10;
```

```
int *ptr = &x;
```

```
cout << x << *p;
```

direct indirection

```
int **dp = &p;
```

double asterisk  
aestrick

```
cout << dp << *dp << **dp;
```

Now there are 2 indirections

Also int \*\*\*tp = &dp 3 indirections

Eg:

```
const int s=10;
```

`int *aptr[5] = {0};` All elements are initialized to `nullptr`

`aptr[0] = new int [5];`

`aptr[1] = new int [5];`

`aptr[2] = new int [5];`

`aptr[3] = new int [5];`

`aptr[4] = new int [5];`

This can be done using a loop

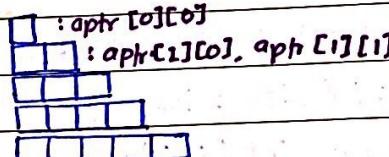
for (`int i=0; i<s; i++`)

`aptr[i] = new int [5];`

We can also vary sizes of each array element i.e., row

`for (int i=0; i<s; i++)`

`aptr[i] = new int [i+1];`



\* In this allocation, `aptr[0][1]` is invalid ✗

`aptr[0][0] = *(aptr[0] + 0); = *(*(aptr + 0) + 0);`

### deallocations

`delete [] aptr[0];`

`: delete [] aptr[1];`

`for (int i=0; i<s; i++)`

`delete [] aptr[i];`

### array of pointers:

- created on compile time

- we can't change or resize array of pointers (no. of rows can't be changed)

### Multiple indirections:

```
int x=10;
```

```
int *ptr = &x;
```

```
cout << x << *p;
```

direct indirection

```
int **dp = &p;
```

double asterisk  
indirection

```
cout << dp << *dp << **dp;
```

&p      &x      x=10  
Now there are 2 indirections

Also `int ***tp = &dp` → 3 indirections

## Week 4: Lecture 2

2D dynamic Array (Not partially dynamic)

- To move the 1D array of pointers to heap and then using it to get a 2D dynamic array, we will get to use multiple indirection.

`int ** dp = new int *;`

It can point to a single pointer or can point to a array of pointers.  $\hookrightarrow$  This could point to a single variable or array.

`int ** dp = new int *[constant];`

$\hookrightarrow$  This could be value, named const or integer variable.

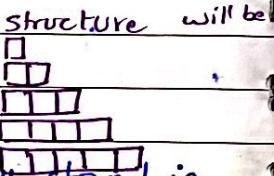
Example:

`int size = 5;`

`int ** arr = new int *[size];`

`for (int i=0; i < size; i++)`

`arr[i] = new int [i+1];`



- Dereferencing arr once, will give us base address of array stored in an element in array of pointers.
- Dereferencing arr twice, can help us to edit the data of the dynamic array. Eg: `**arr=10;` or `*(&arr+1)=30;`

### Operator's Precedence

Highest

subscript operator []

derefrence operator \*

addition +

Lowest

`arr[3][1] = *(*(arr+3)+1)`

$\underbrace{\quad\quad\quad}_{\text{They point to the same address}}$

- To deal with these arrays, it is better to store a sentinel value at the end of each row.
- U can increase/decrease no. of rows.

To resize array (either the rows or columns) (either to extend / shrink)

- Make new array of new size
  - Copy the data
  - Delete the old pointer
  - Update pointer

We have made a fun for that

void extend(int\*&arr, int &size);

→ This is only for columns.

void extend(int\*\*arr, int &size)

→ This is for rows.

Now we can resize all rows.

As

```
for (int i=0 ; i<size ; i++)
```

extended (arr[i], s[i]); s is an array to store size of each row.

## Week 5: Lecture 1

Multiple Indirection can be used to create multidimensional arrays.

Eg:

int \*\*\* p = new int \*\*[2];

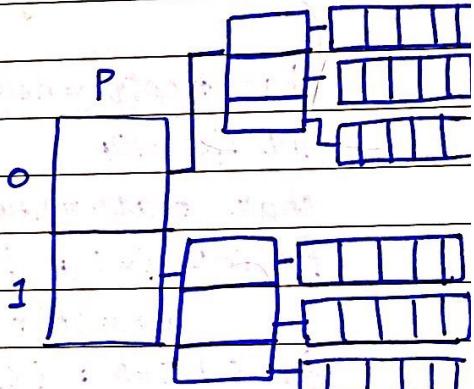
```
for (int i = 0 ; i < 2 ; i++)
```

in the fresh air.

`p[i] = new int * [3];`  
`for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)`

p[i][j] = new int [5];

3



## déallocation:

```
for (int i=0; i<2 ;i++)
```

{

for (int j=0; j<3; j++)

delete [ ]p[i];

delete [ ] p[i]

}

~~delete [ ]p;~~

$\rho = \text{multipl.}$

## Week 5: Lecture 2

- C Strings

- > Anything in double quotes
- > It is always null terminated

Relational Operators can be performed well with char pointers as well.  
eg: if(\*cptr1 > \*cptr2)

- > `char ch = 'A';`

```
cout << &ch;      ⇒ A.... junk value becz program considers it as an array and
char *cptr = &A;   finds null.
```

```
cout << cptr;
```

↓  
A..... junk

```
cout << &cptr;
```

↓  
correct address

- Character arrays & C-Strings

```
char *cptr = new char('#');
```

```
int size = 10;
```

```
char *carr = new char[size];
```

```
for (int i=0 ; i<size ; i++)
    carr = 'A' + i;
```

```
for (int i=0 ; i<size ; i++)
```

```
    cout << carr[i] << " ";
```

Output:

A B C D E F G H I J

```
delete []carr;
```

```
delete cptr;
```

```
cout << carr << endl;
```

↳ Remedy:

```
carr[10] = '\0';
```

(if size is also 11)

Output: ABCDEFHIJ.... till null is encountered

↳ To avoid this, add null at the end.

\* Aggregate only works for character array input and output  
 ↓  
 This gives data and not address.

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Taking null input from user adds character at the end.

`cin >> carr;` This takes input till space /tab/enter is encountered

To resolve this issue

`cin.getline(carr, 12)`  $\Rightarrow$  This automatically adds null at the end.

• `size()`  $\rightarrow$  gives no. of bytes

`strlen()`  $\rightarrow$  function for cstrings

• `carr++;`  $\rightarrow$  delete needs valid base address of allocated memory.  
`delete []carr;`  $\Rightarrow$  Trigger exception

In case of arrays give valid base addresses of allocated heap memory.

• `cout << (carr+1);` Output: BCDEF6HJ..... null encountered

• `cout << * (carr+1);` Output: B (carr[1])

## CStrings:

Character Arrays: Container to store characters.

Cstrings are immutable (cannot be modified).

$\Rightarrow$  Cstrings are constant. Cstrings are only like `carr = "Abeeda"`

character arrays  $\leftarrow$  single char  
 $\leftarrow$  char array  
 $\leftarrow$  cstring

According to miss, all processing that we have done above of `carr` is a character array and not cstrings

`carr = "Abeeda";`

\* Cannot deallocate cstrings: They act as static memory

\* Cannot input in cstrings: `cin >> carr;`  $\rightarrow$  Breakpoint

\* Cannot change modify cstring

\* `char * carr = "Fatimah"`

`carr[3] = 's';` Invalid

`cin >> carr;` Invalid

~~`delete []carr;`~~ Invalid

`carr = "beautiful";` Valid

Here miss said that Cstring is only when we define it like `carr = "Abeeda"` or `cout << "Lala"`

(\*)

⇒ Can copy in dynamic array also (Just like we were initializing `car` initially, `cstring` is a constant message → but not dynamic)

- `const char* cptr = new char('#')`

↳ cannot be changed.

↳ ~~Q10 & Q11 always point to the same location~~

↳ `cptr` can other locations as well

⇒ 2D Arrays: ⇒ however content (i.e., `#`) can't be changed.

```
int size = 5;
```

```
char ** dp = new char*[size];
```

```
for (int i=0 ; i<size ; i++)
```

```
{
```

```
    dp[i] = new char [size];
```

```
    for (int j=0 ; j<size ; j++)
```

```
        dp[i][j] = '0' + j;
```

```
    dp[i][size] = '\0';
```

```
}
```

### DEALLOCATION:

```
for (int i=0 ; i<size ; i++)
```

```
    delete [] dp[i];
```

```
delete [] dp;
```

```
dp = null ptr;
```

### Mutators:

- read data members
- write data members

⇒ By default, all functions are mutators

### Accessors:

- read data members

- can't write data members.

⇒ This requires adding const after function name

⇒ It is better to make getters as assessors

eg: int get x () const

{  
    return x;

}

\* Whenever an object of a class is created, it is not initialized.

### Constructors:

- used to initialize data at the time of creation
- name is same as class name
- they have no return type
- we don't call them, system does automatically.

⇒ Copy constructor is a const constructor who's passed by reference.