# **ALGORITHMS AND DATA STRUCTURES**

# POINTERS AND ARRAYS

# C++ MEMORY MODEL

- How information is stored in a computer?
  - Information is stored as combinations of bits
    - 1 bit [b] = contraction("binary digit")
      - takes two values: 0/1; off/on; false/true
    - ▶ 1 byte [B] = 8 bits 1B = 8b [= sizeof(char)]
    - ▶ 1 word [w] = sizeof(int) [= 4B or 8B], defined like that on most machines

# BINARY AND HEXADECIMAL REPRESENTATIONS

- Bits in an unsigned integer are encoded using binary notation, that is, 0's and 1's
  - What about signed int's? Two's complement arithmetic
- Booleans seem to be naturally represented by one single bit. Is this the case in modern computers?
- Hexadecimal notation is mostly used to refer to memory addresses in the RAM

# C++ MEMORY LAYOUT

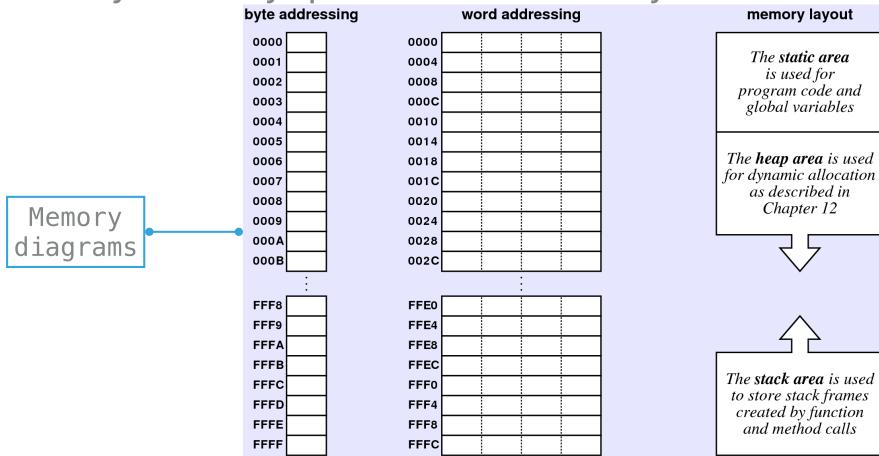
- Memory is usually specified in terms of bytes
- Memory is divided into three main regions. Can you name them?

# C++ MEMORY LAYOUT

- Memory is usually specified in terms of bytes
- Memory is divided into three main regions. Can you name them?
  - Static area: Code and global and static variables
  - ▶ <u>Heap area</u>: Dynamic allocation
  - Stack area: Stack frames, local variables

# C++ MEMORY LAYOUT

Memory is usually specified in terms of bytes



Roberts, Eric. (2013). *Programming Abstractions in C++*. Pearson.

## **ASSIGNING MEMORY TO VARIABLES**

Where is this variable stored?

```
const double PI = 3.15159;
```

0200 3.14159 PI

What about this one?

```
map<string, bool>::const_iterator it = mp.cbegin();
```

And this other one?

```
Complex pt = new Complex(3, 4);
```

## **EXAMPLE: POWERS OF TWO**

```
int main() {
    int limit;
    cout << "Enter exponent limit: ";</pre>
    cin >> limit;
    for (int i = 0; i <= limit; i++)</pre>
        cout << "2 ^ " << i << " = " << toPower(2, i) << endl;
    return 0;
int toPower(int n, int k) {
    int result = 1;
    for (int i = 0; i < k; i++) result *= n;
    return result;
```

## **EXAMPLE: POWERS OF TWO — MAIN**

```
int main() {
    int limit;
    cout << "Enter exponent limit: ";</pre>
    cin >> limit;
    for (int i = 0; i <= limit; i++)</pre>
        cout << "2 ^ " << i << " = " << toPower(2, i) << endl;</pre>
    return 0;
int toPower(int n, int k) {
    int result = 1;
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    return result;
```

# **EXAMPLE: POWERS OF TWO — MAIN**

```
int main() {
                                                     FFF4
                                                              8
                                                                    limit
    int limit;
                                                     FFF8
                                                              \mathbf{0}
    cout << "Enter exponent limit: ";</pre>
    cin >> limit;
    for (int i = 0; i <= limit; i++)</pre>
         cout << "2 ^ " << i << " = " << toPower(2, i) << endl;</pre>
    return 0;
int toPower(int n, int k) {
    int result = 1;
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    return result;
```

## **EXAMPLE: POWERS OF TWO — TWO POWER**

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int main() {
    int limit;
    cout << "Enter exponent limit: ";</pre>
    cin >> limit;
    for (int i = 0; i <= limit; i++)</pre>
        cout << "2 ^ " << i << " = " << toPower(2, i) << endl;
    return 0;
int toPower(int n, int k) {
    int result = 1;
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    return result;
```

## **EXAMPLE: POWERS OF TWO — TWO POWER**

```
int main() {
    int limit;
    cout << "Enter exponent limit: ";</pre>
    cin >> limit;
    for (int i = 0; i <= limit; i++)
         cout << "2 ^ " << i << " = " << toPower(2, i) << endl;
    return 0;
                                                    FFE0
                                                                 result
                                                    FFE4
                                                    FFE8
                                                           0
int toPower(int n, int k) {
                                                    FFEC
                                                           2
                                                                 n
    int result = 1;
    for (int i = 0; i < k; i++) result *= n;
                                                    FFF4
                                                           8
                                                                 limit
                                                    FFF8
                                                           0
    return result;
```

# **POINTERS**

- hold the address in memory of a variable
- are data items whose value is an address in memory
- have the same data type as the variable they have address
- allow you to refer to a large data structure in a compact way
- make it possible to manage and reserve memory during program execution
- can be used to record relationships among data items

## **DECLARING POINTERS VARIABLES**

▶ To declare a variable as a pointer use the asterisk '\*'

```
int * pointer;
char * cptr;
```

- declares pointer and cptr to be types pointer-to-int and pointer-to-char
- Syntactically, the '\*' belongs to the variable not the type
- What is the difference between these two statements?

```
double *ptr1, *ptr2;
double *ptr1, ptr2;
```

## **DECLARING POINTERS VARIABLES**

▶ To declare a variable as a pointer use the asterisk '\*'

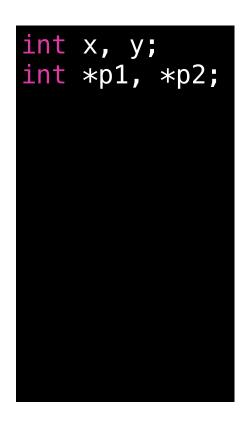
```
int * pointer;
char * cptr;
```

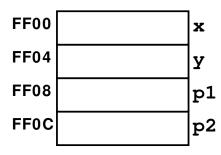
- declares pointer and cptr to be types pointer-to-int are distinct types, though they are represented as addresses
- Syntactically, the '\*' belongs to the variable not the type
- What is the difference between these two statements?

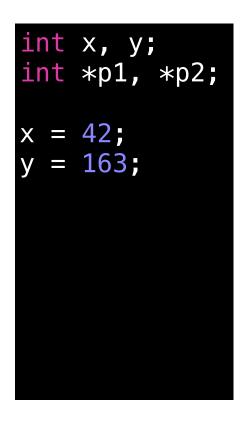
```
double *ptr1, *ptr2;
double *ptr1, ptr2;
```

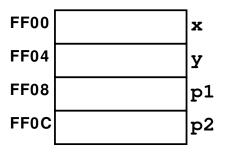
# ADDRESS-OF AND DEREFERENCING OPERATORS

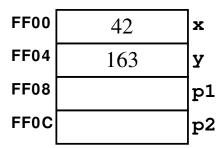
- '&': address-of
  - returns the memory address in which the value was stored
- '\*': value-pointed-to
  - returns the value to which the pointer points to
- > To understand these operators, consider the next example







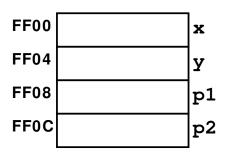




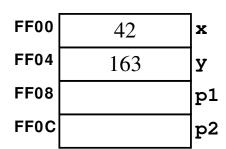
```
int x, y;
int *p1, *p2;

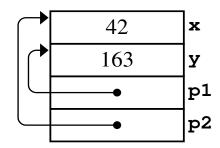
x = 42;
y = 163;

p1 = &y;
p2 = &x;
```



FF00	42	x
FF04	163	У
FF08	FF04	p1
FF0C	FF00	p2
		_



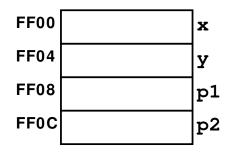


```
int x, y;
int *p1, *p2;

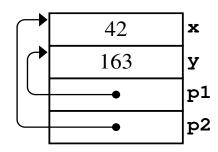
x = 42;
y = 163;

p1 = &y;
p2 = &x;

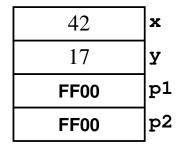
*p1 = 17;
```



FF00	42	x
FF04	163	У
FF08		p1
FF0C		p2



FF00	42	x
FF04	163	У
FF08	FF04	p1
FF0C	FF00	p2



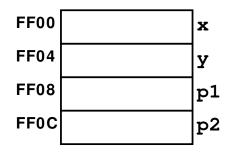
```
int x, y;
int *p1, *p2;

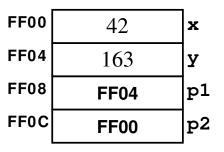
x = 42;
y = 163;

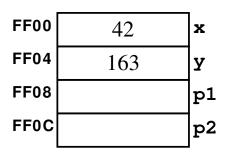
p1 = &y;
p2 = &x;

*p1 = 17;

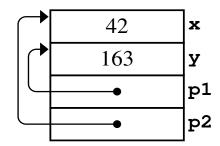
p1 = p2;
```

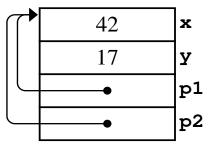




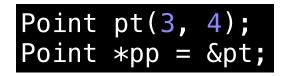


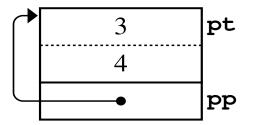
42	x
17	У
FF00	p1
FF00	p2





- Two local variables:
  - pt contains a Point object with the coordinate values 3 and 4
  - pp contains a pointer to that same Point object





- Two local variables:
  - pt contains a Point object with coordinate values (3, 4)
  - pp contains a pointer to that same Point object
- this: pointer to the current object
  - use to select instance variables

How to invoke methods and fields?

How to tell what is going on?

Operators organized into precedence groups							Associativity						
()	[]	->	٠.										left
unary	y oper	ators:	-	++		!	&	*	~	<b>(</b> type <b>)</b>	sizeof		right
*	/	%											left
+	-												left
<b>&lt;&lt;</b>	>>												left
<	<=	>	>=										left
==	!=												left
&													left
^													left
ı													left
& &													left
11													left
?:													right
=	op=												right

How to invoke methods and fields?

# '->': arrow operator

combines dereference and selection into a single operator

# THE NULL POINTER [OLD!]

- Pointer value that indicates that the pointer does <u>not</u> in fact refer to any valid memory address
- ▶ It is illegal to use the dereferencing operator (\*) on NULL
- Keyword: NULL
- Defined in the interface <cstddef>

```
Point * pointer_to_pt;
// some action done on pointer_to_pt
if (pointer_to_pt == NULL)
    cerr << "Somethin's NOT right. Check!"</pre>
```

# THE NULLPTR POINTER [NEW?]

- A null pointer does not point to any object
- Code can check whether a pointer is null before attempting to use it
- nullptr is a literal that has a special type that can be converted to any other pointer type

```
int *p1 = nullptr; // equivalent to int *p1 = 0;
// must #include <cstdlib>
int *p3 = NULL; // equivalent to int *p3 = 0;
/* avoid using NULL, modern C++ should use nullptr */
```

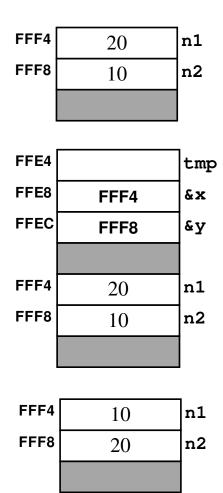
## PASSING BY REFERENCE

The stack frame stores a pointer to the location in the caller at which that value

resides

```
int main() {
    int n1 = 20, n2 = 10;
    if (n1 > n2) swap(n1, n2);
    cout << n1 << " " << n2 << endl;
    return 0;
}

void swap(int & x, int & y) {
    int tmp = x;
    x = y;
    y = tmp;
}</pre>
```



## PASSING BY REFERENCE

- Any changes are made to the target of the pointer, which means changes remain in effect after the function returns
- Equivalent implementation without address-of operator

```
void swap(int *px, int *py) {
    int tmp = *px;
    *px = *py;
    *py = tmp;
}

// function should be called like this swap(&n1, &n2);
```

# **ARRAYS**

- are low-level collections of individual data values
- are countable (count collection size)
- are homogeneous (same data type)

#### **Limitations**:

- Have a fixed, unchangeable size
- Offer no support for inserting/deleting elements
- There is no bound-choking procedure

## **ARRAY DECLARATION**

```
const int N_ELEMS = 1024;
// array declaration: type name[size];
int arrayI[10], intArray[N_ELEMS];
for (int i = 0; i < N_ELEMS; i++) {</pre>
    // array selection
    intArray[i] = 10 * i;
    cout << i << " " << intArray[i] << endl;</pre>
// static initialization
const int DIGITS[] = \{ 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 \};
     intArray
                                50
           10
                20
                     30
                           40
                                     60
                                          70
                                               80
                                                    90
      ()
                      3
                                5
       0
                           4
                                     6
```

# **POINTERS AND ARRAYS**

Array is synonymous with a pointer to its initial element

```
void sort(int array[], int n) {
    for (int lh = 0; lh < n; lh++) {</pre>
         int rh = lh;
         for (int i = lh + 1; i < n; i++)</pre>
             if (array[i] < array[rh]) rh = i;</pre>
         swap(array[lh], array[rh]);
void sort(int *array, int n) {
    // ...
```

# POINTER ARITHMETIC

Operators '+' and '-' can be applied to pointers

```
int array[10];
int *p, *q, k = 6;
// p and q point to the 1st address of array
p = array;
q = &array[0];
// p1 and p2 are equivalent
int *p1;
p1 = p + k;
int *p2 = \&array[k];
// increment and decrement of pointers
*p1--; // how to check what is this doing?
*p1++; // and that
```

# **ALGORITHMS AND DATA STRUCTURES**

# DYNAMIC MEMORY ALLOCATION

# STYLES OF MEMORY ALLOCATION

- There are three basic styles of allocation
  - ▶ **Static**: Global variables

# STYLES OF MEMORY ALLOCATION

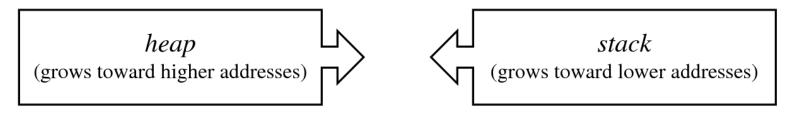
- There are three basic styles of allocation
  - Static: Global variables
  - Automatic: Local variables inside function

# STYLES OF MEMORY ALLOCATION

- There are three basic styles of allocation
  - Static: Global variables
  - Automatic: Local variables inside function
  - Dynamic: Require memory space as program runs
    - Allocate and free memory
    - Takes place in the heap (pool of available memory)

# DYNAMIC ALLOCATION AND THE HEAP

- C++ allows to allocate some of the unused storage to the program whenever your application needs more memory
- **Example**: If you need an array while the program is running, you can reserve part of the unallocated memory, leaving the rest for subsequent allocations
- The pool of unallocated memory available to a program is called the <a href="heap">heap</a>



# THE NEW OPERATOR

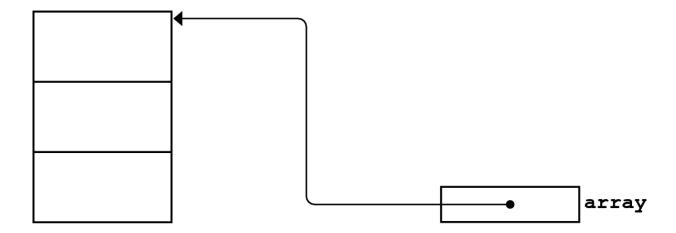
- is the way to allocate memory from the heap
- returns the address of a storage location in the heap
- once allocated in the heap, one can refer to that variable

 can be used to allocate objects and dynamic arrays on the heap

## **DYNAMIC ARRAYS**

- is an array allocated in the heap
- ▶ To allocate them use the following syntax

```
double *array = new double[3];
a[0] = a[1] = a[2] = 0.0;
```



# **DYNAMIC OBJECTS**

- With new can allocate general structures like objects
- ▶ To allocate a class use the following syntax

```
Rational *rp = new Rational;
Rational *rq = new Rational(2, 3);
cout << *rq << endl;</pre>
```



If supply arguments after the type name, C++ will call the matching version of the constructor

# THE DELETE OPERATOR

- takes a pointer allocated by new and frees the memory associated with that pointer
- If the heap memory is an array, you need to add square brackets after the delete
- Some languages support automatic memory freeing that is no longer in active use (garbage collection)

```
delete ip; // free memory occupied
delete[] array; // free allocated memory
```

## **DESTRUCTORS**

- C++ does not have garbage collector
- But, each class is allowed to specify what happens when an object of that class disappears
  - each class takes responsibility for its own heap storage
- Each class can define a <u>destructor</u>, which is called automatically when an object of that class disappears
  - Destructors can perform a variety of cleanup operations

# **DESTRUCTORS**

- cannot be overloaded
- ▶ are declared with a tilde '~' character
- do not have a return type like constructors
- ▶ Example 1: for a class Rational the destructor's prototype looks like ~Rational();.
- Example 2: The CharStack class has a destructor prototyped as ~CharStack();.