

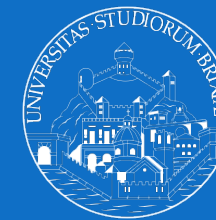
# Elementi Di Informatica E Programmazione

Prof. Andrea Loreggia



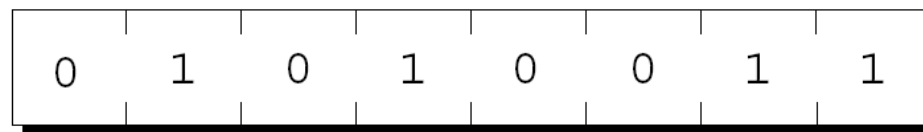
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# Variabili puntatore

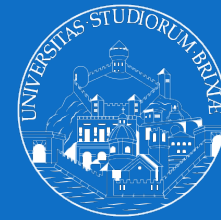


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- Il primo passo per comprendere i puntatori è visualizzare cosa rappresentano a livello macchina.
- Nella maggior parte dei computer moderni, la memoria principale è divisa in byte, con ciascun byte in grado di memorizzare otto bit di informazioni:



- Ogni byte ha un indirizzo univoco.



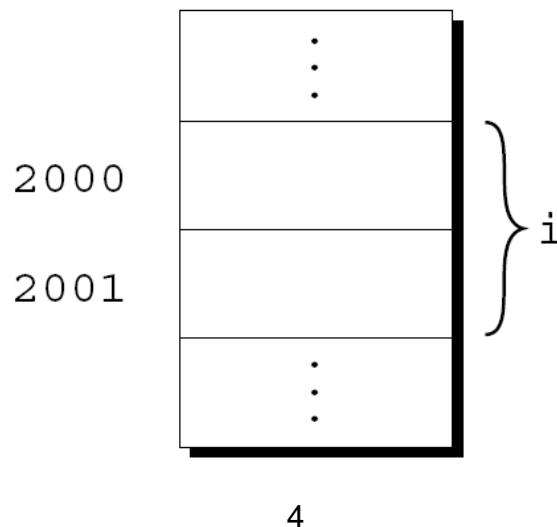
# Variabili puntatore

- Se ci sono  $n$  byte in memoria, possiamo pensare agli indirizzi come numeri che vanno da 0 a  $n - 1$ .

Address	Contents
0	01010011
1	01110101
2	01110011
3	01100001
4	01101110
	⋮
$n - 1$	01000011

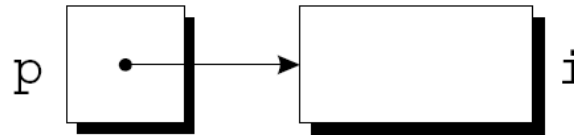
# Variabili puntatore

- Ogni variabile in un programma occupa uno o più byte di memoria.
- L'indirizzo del primo byte è considerato l'indirizzo della variabile.
- Nella figura seguente, l'indirizzo della variabile *i* è 2000:



# Variabili puntatore

- Gli indirizzi possono essere memorizzati in speciali variabili puntatore. Quando memorizziamo l'indirizzo di una variabile *i* nella variabile puntatore *p*, diciamo che *p* "punta a" *i*. Una rappresentazione grafica:





# Dichiarazione di variabili puntatore

- Quando viene dichiarata una variabile puntatore, il suo nome deve essere preceduto da un asterisco:

```
int *p;
```

- La variabile p è un puntatore capace di puntare a oggetti di tipo int. Usiamo il termine "oggetto" invece di "variabile" perché p potrebbe puntare a un'area di memoria che non appartiene a una variabile specifica.



# Dichiarazione di variabili puntatore

- Le variabili puntatore possono comparire nelle dichiarazioni insieme ad altre variabili. Ad esempio:

```
int i, j, a[10], b[20], *p, *q;
```

- In C, ogni variabile puntatore deve puntare solo a oggetti di un tipo specifico (il tipo riferito):

```
int *p;      /* points only to integers */
double *q;   /* points only to doubles */
char *r;     /* points only to characters */
```

- Non ci sono restrizioni su quale possa essere il tipo riferito da un puntatore, purché sia un tipo valido in C.

# Operatori di indirizzo e indirezione



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- In C, ci sono due operatori specificamente progettati per l'uso con i puntatori:
  - 1. Operatore & (indirizzo):** Per trovare l'indirizzo di una variabile, utilizziamo l'operatore & (indirizzo).
  - 2. Operatore \* (indirezione):** Per accedere all'oggetto a cui punta un puntatore, utilizziamo l'operatore \* (indirezione).





# The Address Operator

- La dichiarazione di una variabile puntatore riserva spazio per un puntatore ma non lo fa puntare a un oggetto specifico:

```
int *p; /* points nowhere in particular */
```

- È fondamentale inizializzare p prima di utilizzarlo per accedere o manipolare dati. Se un puntatore non viene inizializzato, il suo valore iniziale sarà indeterminato e potrebbe causare comportamenti imprevedibili quando si tenta di utilizzarlo per accedere a dati in memoria.

# The Address Operator

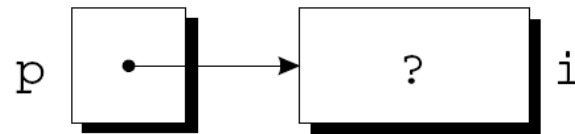
- Per inizializzare un puntatore, è possibile assegnargli l'indirizzo di una variabile esistente o utilizzare NULL se non si desidera farlo puntare a nulla:

```
int i, *p;
```

...

```
p = &i;
```

- Assegnare l'indirizzo di una variabile *i* alla variabile puntatore *p* fa sì che *p* punti a *i*.





# The Indirection Operator

- Una volta che una variabile puntatore punta a un oggetto, possiamo utilizzare l'operatore `*` (indirezione) per accedere a ciò che è memorizzato nell'oggetto puntato.

- Se `p` punta a `i`, possiamo stampare il valore di `i` come segue:

```
printf("%d\n", *p);
```

- Applicare `&` a una variabile produce un puntatore alla variabile stessa. Applicando `*` al puntatore, torniamo all'oggetto originale:

```
j = *&i;    /* same as j = i; */
```

# The Indirection Operator

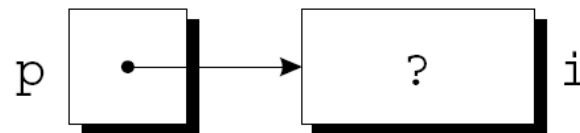


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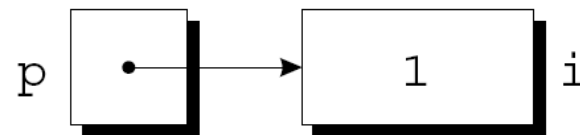
- Finché  $p$  punta a  $i$ ,  $*p$  è un alias per  $i$ .
  - $*p$  ha lo stesso valore di  $i$ .
  - Cambiare il valore di  $*p$  cambia il valore di  $i$ .
- L'esempio nella prossima diapositiva illustra l'equivalenza di  $*p$  e  $i$ .

# The Indirection Operator

```
p = &i;
```

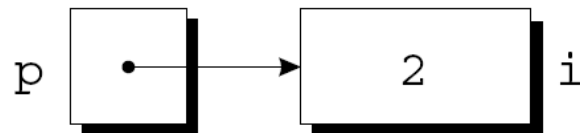


```
i = 1;
```



```
printf("%d\n", i);  
printf("%d\n", *p);  
*p = 2;
```

```
/* prints 1 */  
/* prints 1 */
```



```
printf("%d\n", i);  
printf("%d\n", *p);
```

```
/* prints 2 */  
/* prints 2 */
```



# The Indirection Operator

- Applicare l'operatore di indirizione a una variabile puntatore non inizializzata causa un comportamento non definito:

```
int *p;  
printf("%d", *p);    /*** WRONG ***/
```

- Assegnare un valore a \*p è particolarmente pericoloso nel caso in cui il puntatore p non sia stato inizializzato:

```
int *p;    /*p non yet initialized */  
*p = 1;    /*** WRONG ***/
```



# Pointer Assignment

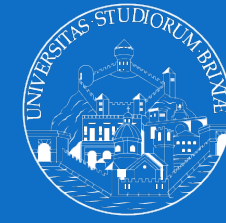
- In C, è consentito l'uso dell'operatore di assegnazione per copiare puntatori dello stesso tipo. Assumiamo che la seguente dichiarazione sia in vigore:

```
int i, j, *p, *q;
```

- Esempio di assegnazione di puntatore:

```
p = &i;
```

# Pointer Assignment

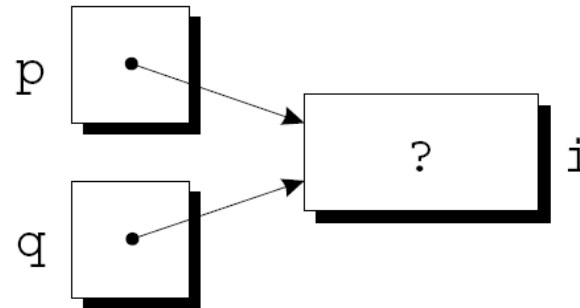


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- Un altro esempio di assegnazione di puntatore:

$q = p;$

- $q$  e  $p$  adesso puntano entrambi a  $i$ :

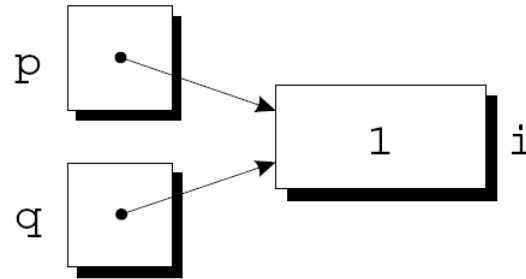




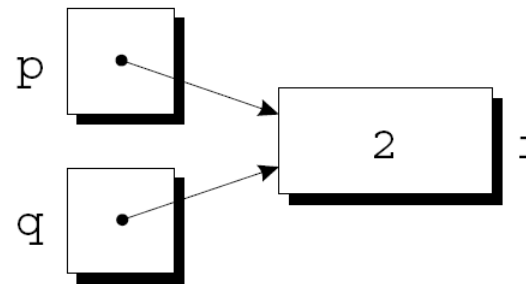
# Pointer Assignment

- Se  $p$  e  $q$  puntano entrambi a  $i$ , possiamo modificare  $i$  assegnando un nuovo valore sia a  $*p$  che a  $*q$ :

$*p = 1;$



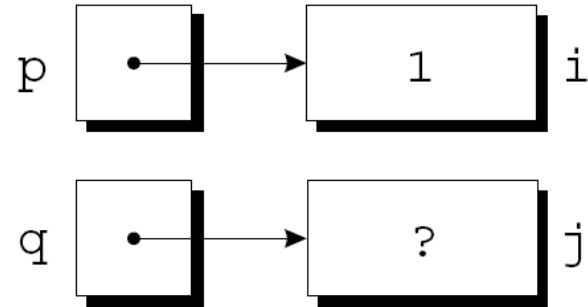
$*q = 2;$



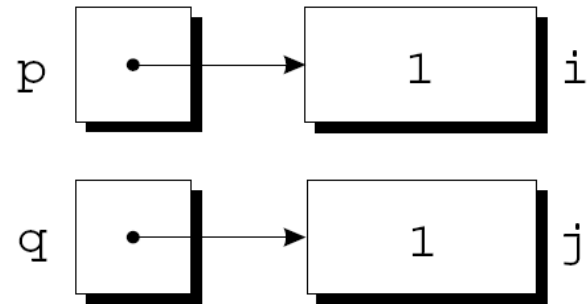
- In C, è possibile avere qualsiasi numero di variabili puntatore che puntano allo stesso oggetto

# ATTENZIONE: Pointer Assignment

```
p = &i;  
q = &j;  
i = 1;
```



```
*q = *p;
```



# Program: Finding the Largest and Smallest Elements in an Array



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- `max_min.c` will read 10 numbers into an array, pass it to the `max_min` function, and print the results:

Enter 10 numbers: 34 82 49 102 7 94 23 11 50 31

Largest: 102

Smallest: 7

# maxmin.c



```
/* Finds the largest and smallest elements in an array
*/
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
#define N 10
```

```
void max_min(int a[], int n, int *max, int *min);
```

```
int main(void)
```

```
{
```

```
    int b[N], i, big, small;
```

```
    printf("Enter %d numbers: ", N);
```

```
    for (i = 0; i < N; i++)
```

```
        scanf("%d", &b[i]);
```

```
max_min(b, N, &big, &small);
```

```
printf("Largest: %d\n", big);
```

```
printf("Smallest: %d\n", small);
```

```
return 0;
```

```
}
```



```
void max_min(int a[], int n, int *max, int *min)
{
    int i;

    *max = *min = a[0];
    for (i = 1; i < n; i++) {
        if (a[i] > *max)
            *max = a[i];
        else if (a[i] < *min)
            *min = a[i];
    }
}
```

- C allows us to perform arithmetic—addition and subtraction—on pointers to array elements.
- This leads to an alternative way of processing arrays in which pointers take the place of array subscripts.
- The relationship between pointers and arrays in C is a close one.
- Understanding this relationship is critical for mastering C.

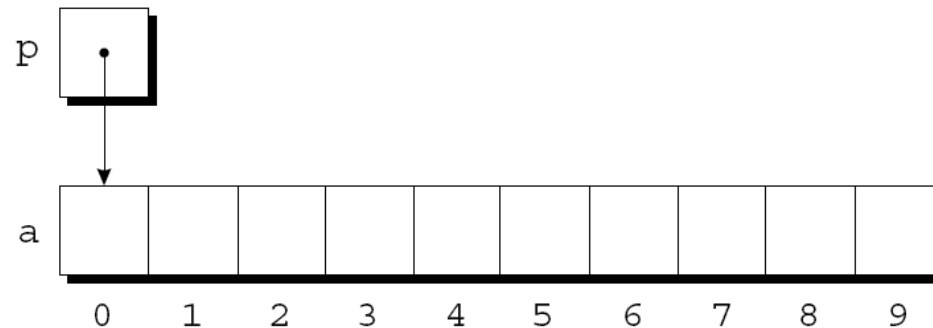
# Pointer Arithmetic

- Pointers can point to array elements:

```
int a[10], *p;
```

```
p = &a[0];
```

- A graphical representation:

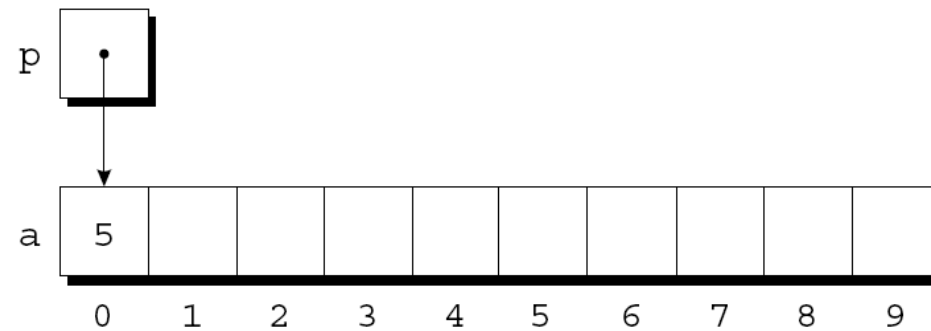


# Pointer Arithmetic

- We can now access `a[0]` through `p`; for example, we can store the value 5 in `a[0]` by writing

`*p = 5;`

- An updated picture:







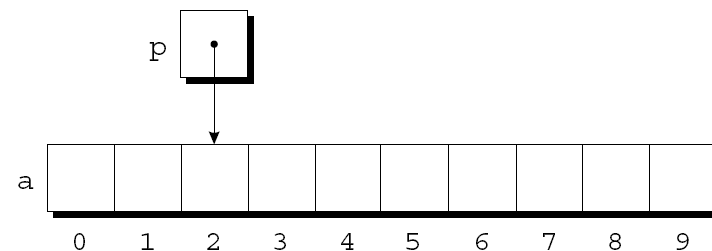
# Pointer Arithmetic

- If  $p$  points to an element of an array  $a$ , the other elements of  $a$  can be accessed by performing ***pointer arithmetic*** (or ***address arithmetic***) on  $p$ .
- C supports three (and only three) forms of pointer arithmetic:
  - Adding an integer to a pointer
  - Subtracting an integer from a pointer
  - Subtracting one pointer from another

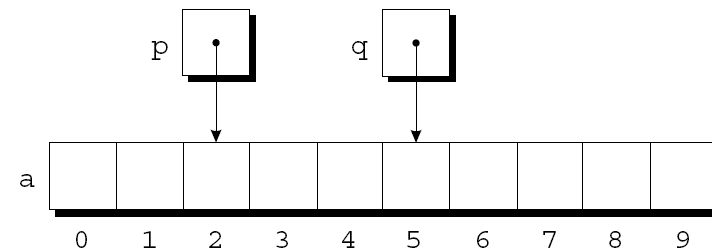
# Adding an Integer to a Pointer

- Example of pointer addition:

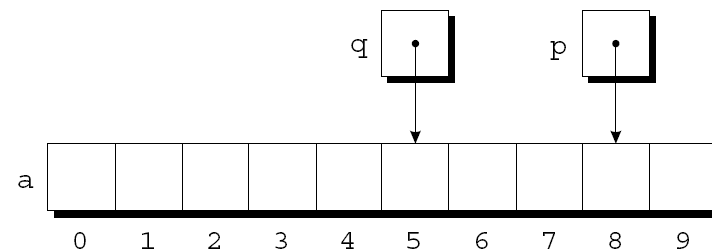
```
p = &a[2];
```



```
q = p + 3;
```



```
p += 6;
```

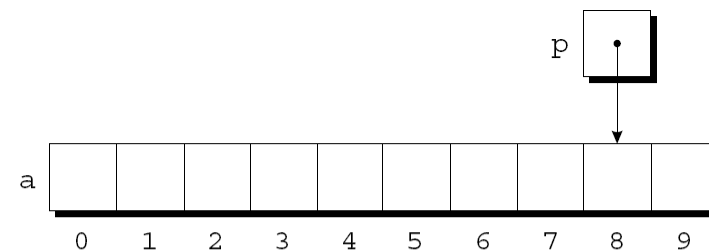


# Subtracting an Integer from a Pointer

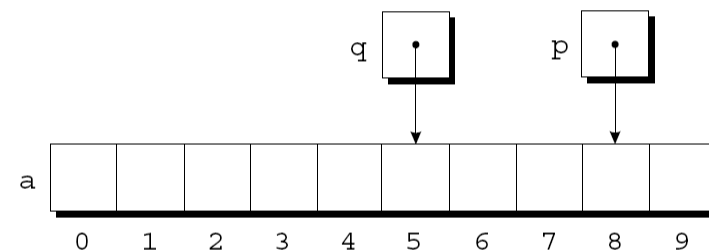
- If  $p$  points to  $a[i]$ , then  $p - j$  points to  $a[i - j]$ .

- Example:

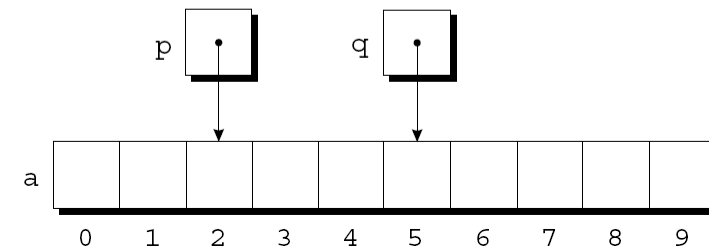
```
p = &a[8];
```



```
q = p - 3;
```



```
p -= 6;
```

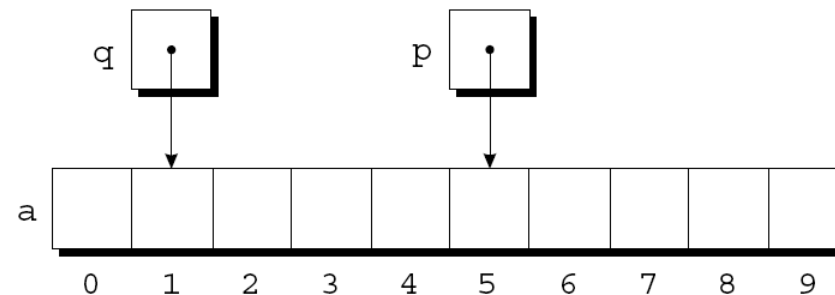


# Subtracting One Pointer from Another

- When one pointer is subtracted from another, the result is the distance (measured in array elements) between the pointers.
- If  $p$  points to  $a[i]$  and  $q$  points to  $a[j]$ , then  $p - q$  is equal to  $i - j$ .
- Example:

```
p = &a[5];  
q = &a[1];
```

```
i = p - q;    /* i is 4 */  
i = q - p;    /* i is -4 */
```





# Subtracting One Pointer from Another

- Operations that cause undefined behavior:
  - Performing arithmetic on a pointer that doesn't point to an array element
  - Subtracting pointers unless both point to elements of the same array



# Comparing Pointers

- Pointers can be compared using the relational operators ( $<$ ,  $<=$ ,  $>$ ,  $>=$ ) and the equality operators ( $==$  and  $!=$ ).
  - Using relational operators is meaningful only for pointers to elements of the same array.
- The outcome of the comparison depends on the relative positions of the two elements in the array.
- After the assignments

```
p = &a[5];  
q = &a[1];
```

the value of  $p <= q$  is 0 and the value of  $p >= q$  is 1.



# Using Pointers for Array Processing

- Pointer arithmetic allows us to visit the elements of an array by repeatedly incrementing a pointer variable.
- A loop that sums the elements of an array `a`:

```
#define N 10
```

```
...
```

```
int a[N], sum, *p;
```

```
...
```

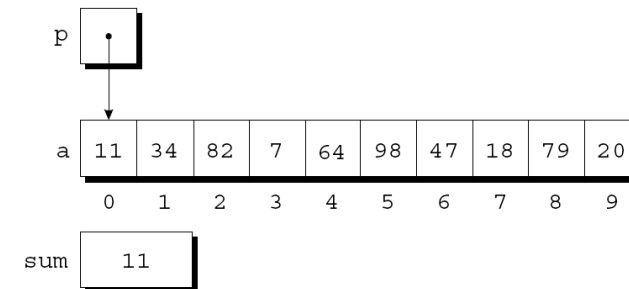
```
sum = 0;
```

```
for (p = &a[0]; p < &a[N]; p++)
```

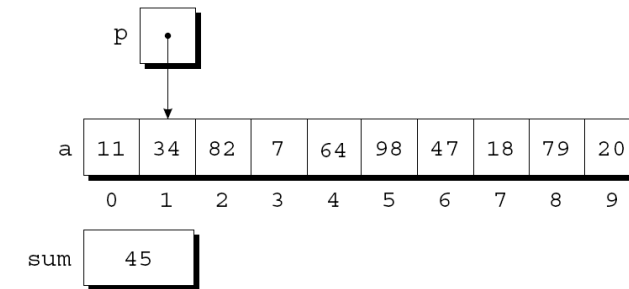
```
    sum += *p;
```

# Using Pointers for Array Processing

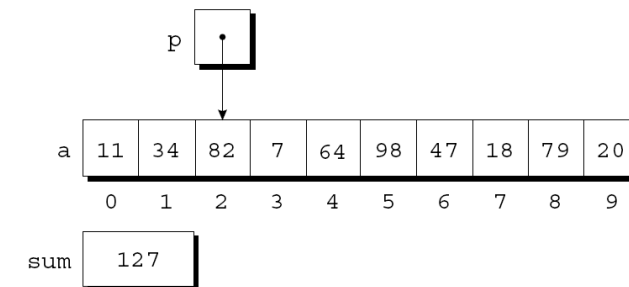
At the end of the first iteration:



At the end of the second iteration:



At the end of the third iteration:







# Using Pointers for Array Processing

- The condition  $p < \&a[N]$  in the `for` statement deserves special mention.
- It's legal to apply the address operator to  $a[N]$ , even though this element doesn't exist.
- Pointer arithmetic may save execution time.
- However, some C compilers produce better code for loops that rely on subscripting.



# Using an Array Name as a Pointer

- Pointer arithmetic is one way in which arrays and pointers are related.
- Another key relationship:  
*The name of an array can be used as a pointer to the first element in the array.*
- This relationship simplifies pointer arithmetic and makes both arrays and pointers more versatile.



# Using an Array Name as a Pointer

- Suppose that `a` is declared as follows:

```
int a[10];
```

- Examples of using `a` as a pointer:

```
*a = 7;    /* stores 7 in a[0] */
```

```
*(a+1) = 12; /* stores 12 in a[1] */
```

- In general, `a + i` is the same as `&a[i]`.
  - Both represent a pointer to element `i` of `a`.
- Also, `*(a+i)` is equivalent to `a[i]`.
  - Both represent element `i` itself.



# Using an Array Name as a Pointer

- The fact that an array name can serve as a pointer makes it easier to write loops that step through an array.

- Original loop:

```
for (p = &a[0]; p < &a[N]; p++)  
    sum += *p;
```

- Simplified version:

```
for (p = a; p < a + N; p++)  
    sum += *p;
```



# Using an Array Name as a Pointer

- Although an array name can be used as a pointer, it's not possible to assign it a new value.
- Attempting to make it point elsewhere is an error:

```
while (*a != 0)
    a++;                /* ** WRONG ** */
```

- This is no great loss; we can always copy `a` into a pointer variable, then change the pointer variable:

```
p = a;
while (*p != 0)
    p++;
```



# reverse3.c – Pointer arithmetic

```
/* Reverses a series of numbers (pointer version) */
#include <stdio.h>
#define N 10

int main(void){
    int a[N], *p;

    printf("Enter %d numbers: ", N);
    for (p = a; p < a + N; p++)
        scanf("%d", p);

    printf("In reverse order:");
    for (p = a + N - 1; p >= a; p--)
        printf(" %d", *p);
    printf("\n");

    return 0;
}
```



# Dynamic Storage Allocation

- C's data structures, including arrays, **are normally fixed in size.**
  - Fixed-size data structures can be a problem, since we're forced to choose their sizes when writing a program.
- Fortunately, C supports **dynamic storage allocation**
- the ability to allocate storage during program execution.
- **We can design data structures that grow (and shrink) as needed.**



# Memory Allocation Functions

- `<stdlib.h>` **header**

**malloc** —Allocates a block of memory but doesn't initialize it.

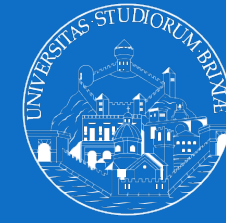
**calloc** —Allocates a block of memory and clears it.

**realloc** —Resizes a previously allocated block of memory.

- These functions return a value of type **void \***
  - a “generic” pointer



# Null Pointers



- If a memory allocation function can't locate a memory block of the requested size, it returns a **null pointer**.
  - A null pointer is a special value that can be distinguished from all valid pointers.
- After we've stored the function's return value in a pointer variable, we must test to see if it's a null pointer.



# Null Pointers

- If a memory allocation function can't locate a memory block of the requested size, it returns a **null pointer**.
  - A null pointer is a special value that can be distinguished from all valid pointers.
- After we've stored the function's return value in a pointer variable, **we must test to see if it's a null pointer**.
- An example: testing malloc's return value:

```
if ((p = malloc(10000)) == NULL) {  
    /* allocation failed; take appropriate action */  
}
```
- NULL is a macro (defined in various library headers) that represents the null pointer.

# Using malloc to Allocate Memory for a String



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- Dynamic storage allocation is often **useful for working with strings**.
  - Strings are stored in character arrays → hard to anticipate they need to be.
  - By allocating strings dynamically, we can postpone the decision
- Prototype for the malloc function:  
**void \*malloc(size\_t size);**
- malloc allocates a block of size bytes and returns a pointer to it.
- size\_t is an unsigned integer type defined in the library.

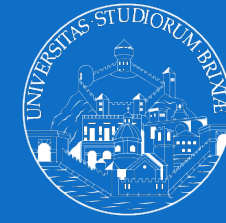


# Using malloc to Allocate Memory for a String

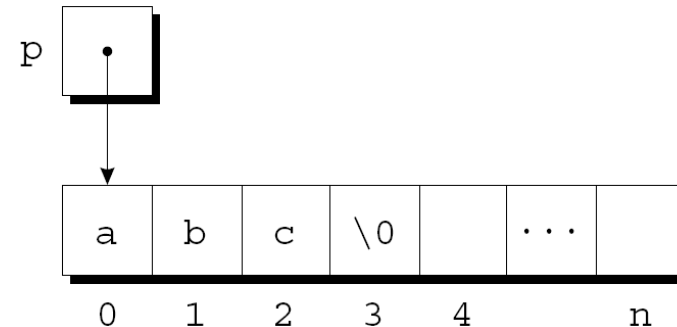
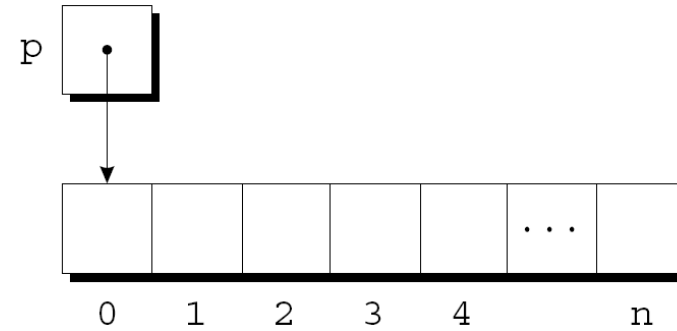
- A call of malloc that allocates memory for a string of n characters:  
`p = malloc(n + 1);`
- Each character requires one byte of memory; adding 1 to n leaves room for the null character.
- Some programmers prefer to cast malloc's return value, although the cast is not required:  
`p = (char *) malloc(n + 1);`

In this way p is a char \* pointer

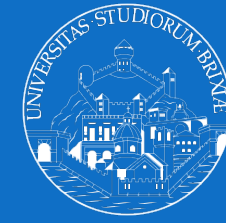
# Using malloc to Allocate Memory for a String



- Memory allocated using malloc isn't cleared, so p will point to an uninitialized array of  $n + 1$  characters:
- Calling strcpy is one way to initialize this array:  
`strcpy(p, "abc");`
  - The first four characters in the array will now be a, b, c, and `\0`:



# Using Dynamic Storage Allocation in String Functions



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A function that concatenates two strings without changing either one

```
char *concat(const char *s1, const char *s2){
    char *result;

    result = malloc(strlen(s1) + strlen(s2) + 1);
    if (result == NULL) {
        printf("Error: malloc failed in concat\n");
        exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
    }
    strcpy(result, s1);
    strcat(result, s2);
    return result;
}
```



# Dynamically Allocated Arrays

- **Dynamically allocated arrays** have the same advantages as dynamically allocated strings.
- The close relationship between arrays and pointers makes a dynamically allocated array as easy to use as an ordinary array.
- Although malloc can allocate space for an array, the **calloc function is sometimes used instead, since it initializes the memory that it allocates.**
- The realloc function allows us to make an array “grow” or “shrink” as needed.

# Using malloc to Allocate Storage for an Array

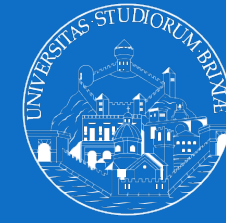


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- Suppose a program needs an **array of n integers**, where n is computed during program execution.
- We'll first declare a pointer variable:  
`int *a;`
- Once the value of n is known, the program can call malloc to allocate space for the array:  
`a = malloc(n * sizeof(int));`
- Always use the sizeof operator to calculate the amount of space required for each element.



# Using malloc to Allocate Storage for an Array



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- We can now **ignore the fact that a is a pointer and use it instead as an array name**, thanks to the relationship between arrays and pointers in C.
- For example, we could use the following loop to initialize the array that a points to:  

```
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)  
    a[i] = 0;
```
- We also have the option of using pointer arithmetic instead of subscripting to access the elements of the array.



# The calloc Function

- The **calloc** function is an alternative to malloc.
- Prototype for calloc:  
`void *calloc(size_t nmemb, size_t size);`
- Properties of calloc:
  - Allocates space for an array with nmemb elements, each of which is size bytes long.
  - Returns a null pointer if the requested space isn't available.
  - Initializes allocated memory by setting all bits to 0.



# The realloc Function

- The **realloc** function can resize a dynamically allocated array.
- Prototype for realloc:  
`void *realloc(void *ptr, size_t size);`
- ptr must point to a memory block obtained by a previous call of malloc, calloc, or realloc.
- size represents the new size of the block, which may be **larger or smaller** than the original size.

# The realloc Function

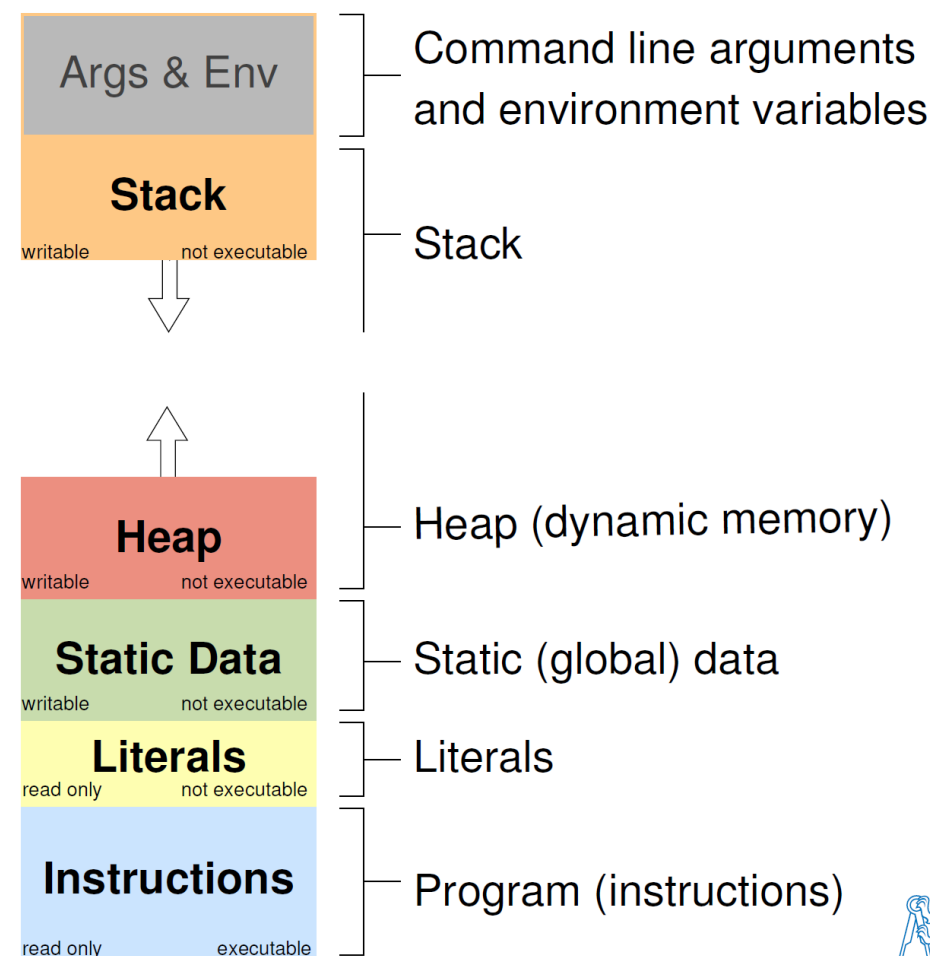


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- Properties of realloc:
  - When it expands a memory block, realloc doesn't initialize the bytes that are added to the block.
  - If for any reason realloc can't enlarge the memory block as requested, even after trying to reallocate it elsewhere → it can't do nothing than **returning a null** pointer
    - the data in the old memory block is unchanged.
  - If realloc is called with a null pointer as its first argument, it behaves like malloc
  - If realloc is called with 0 as its second argument, it frees the memory block

# Deallocating Storage

- malloc and the other memory allocation functions obtain memory blocks from a storage pool known as the **heap**.
- Calling these functions too often—or asking them for large blocks of memory—can exhaust the heap, causing the functions to return a null pointer.
- To make matters worse, a program may allocate blocks of memory and then lose track of them, thereby wasting space.

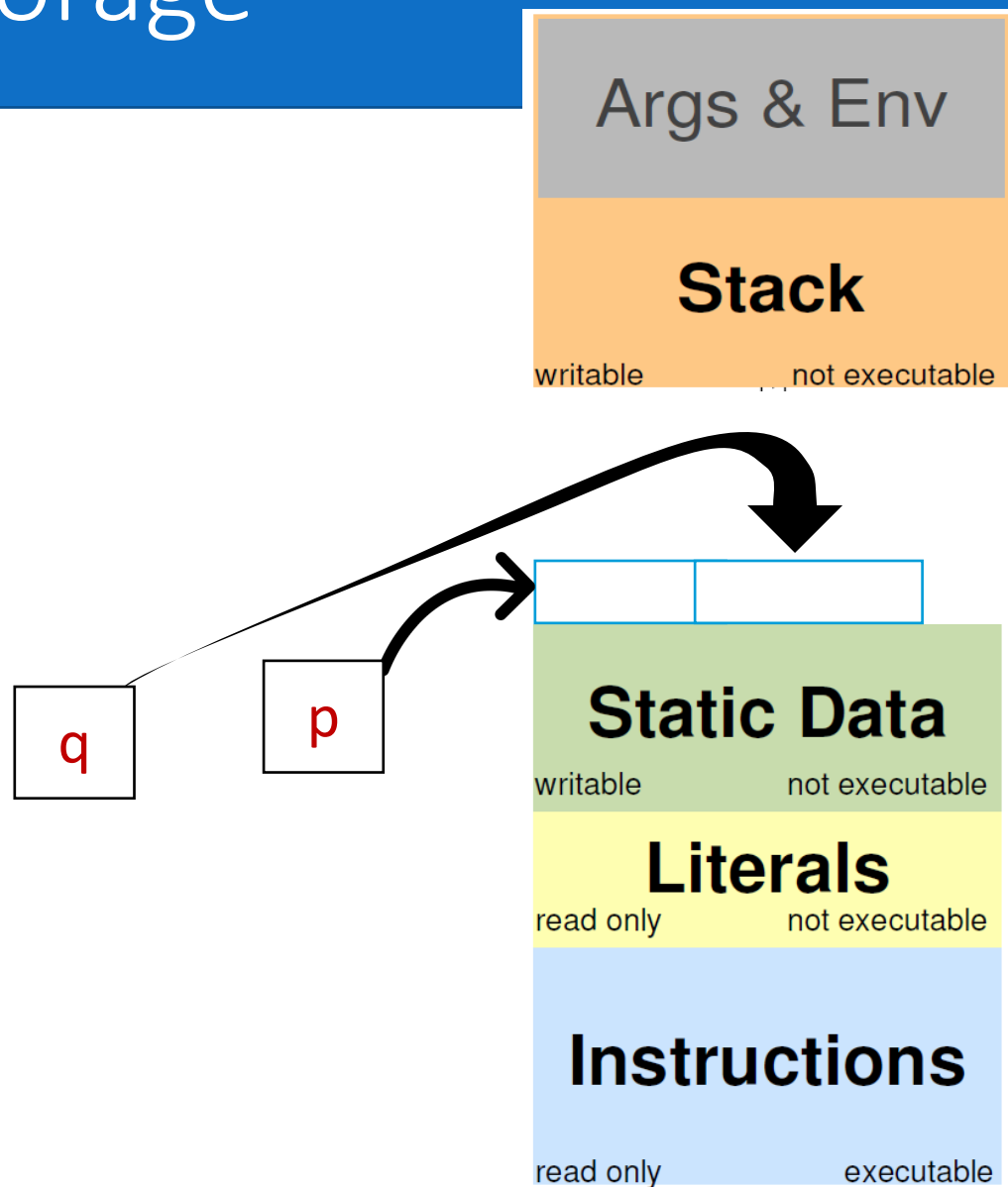


# Deallocating Storage

- Example:

`p = malloc(...);`

`q = malloc(...);`



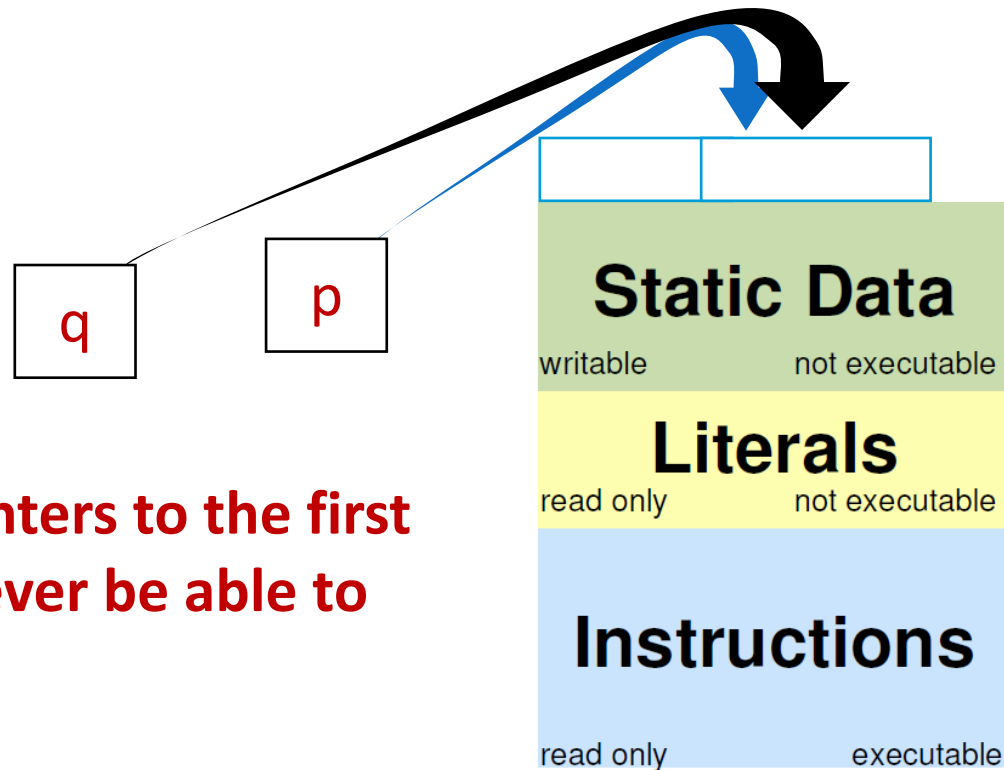
# Deallocating Storage

- Example:

`p = malloc(...);`

`q = malloc(...);`

`p = q;`



**There are no pointers to the first block, so we'll never be able to use it again.**

# Deallocating Storage



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- A block of memory that's no longer accessible to a program is said to be **garbage**
- A program that leaves garbage behind has a **memory leak**
- Some languages provide a **garbage collector** that automatically locates and recycles garbage
  - Java
  - Python
  - **but C doesn't.**
- Instead, **each C program is responsible for recycling its own garbage** by calling the free function to release unneeded memory.



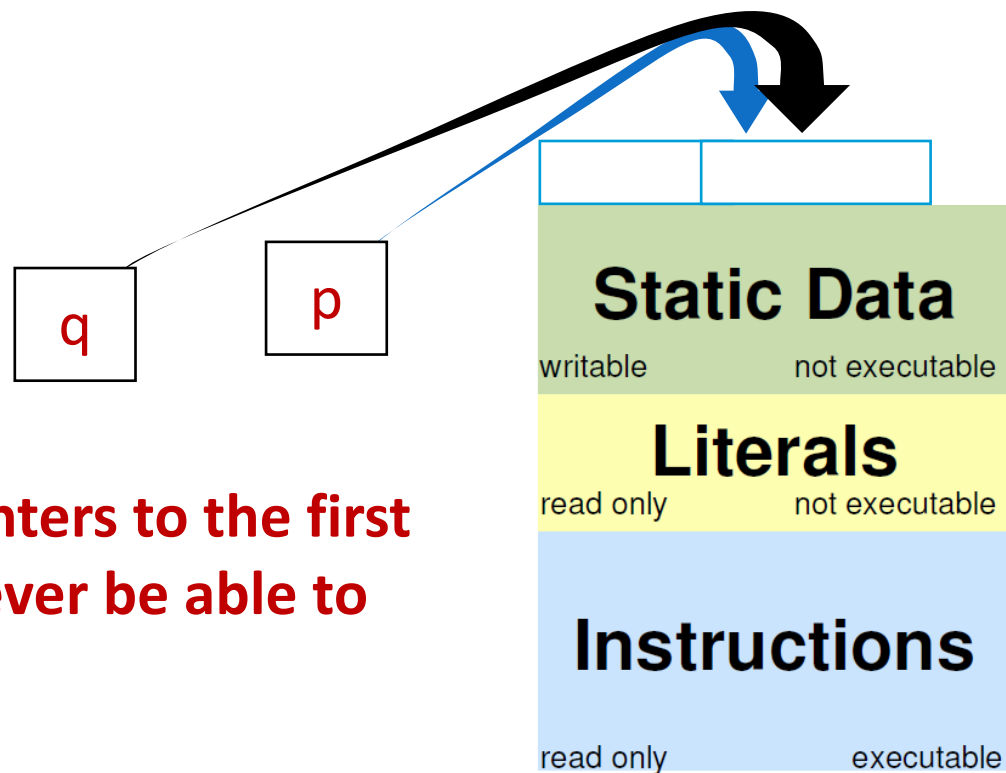
# Deallocating Storage

- Example:

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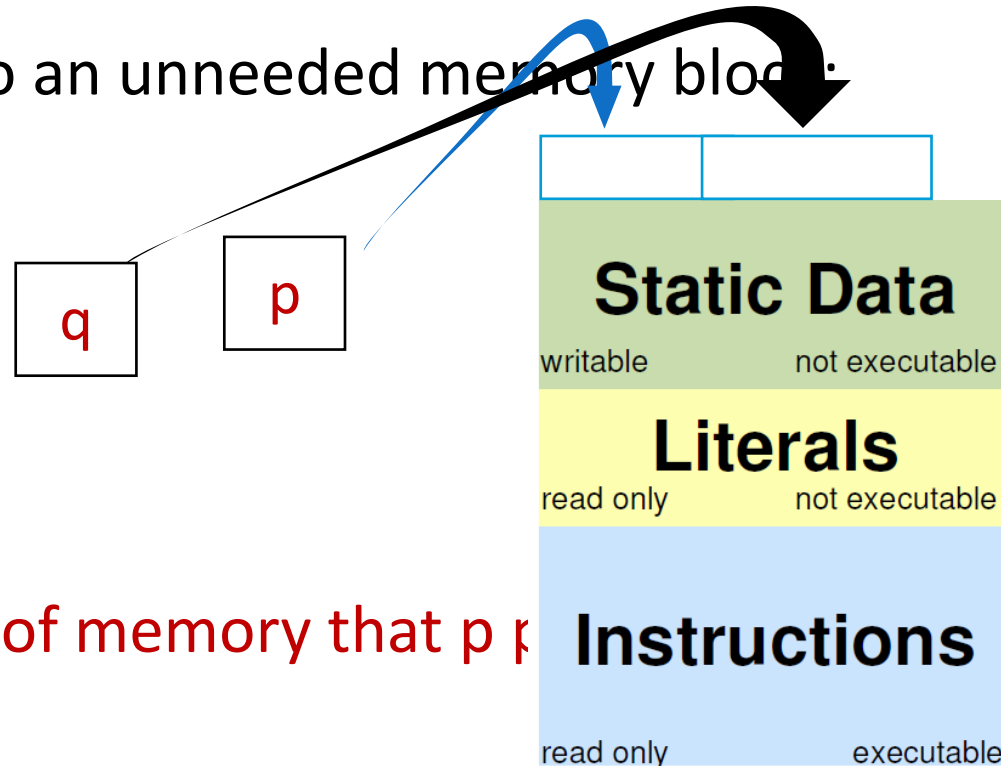
# The free Function

- Prototype for free:

```
void free(void *ptr);
```

- free will be passed a pointer to an unneeded memory block:

```
p = malloc(...);
q = malloc(...);
free(p);
p = q;
```



- Calling free releases the block of memory that p p



# The “Dangling Pointer” Problem

- Using free leads to a new problem: **dangling pointers**
- free(p) deallocates the memory block that p points to
  - **but doesn't change p itself.**
- If we forget that p no longer points to a valid memory block, chaos may ensue

```
char *p = malloc(4);  
...  
free(p);  
...  
strcpy(p, "abc"); /*** WRONG ***/
```

- Modifying the memory that p points to is a **serious error**.