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7.1. Pointers

Reminder: Variables and objects reside in memory.

Through the variable name, you can read and change the variable's value. Its type tells the compiler how.

```
/* reserving variables */
int main() {
  int myInteger = 12;  // store an integer
  char mySymbol;  // store one character
  float myFloat = 12.0f;  // store floating point
  bool myBoolean = true;  // store a boolean
  return 0;
}
```

```
Memory
myInteger=int
  9999
       0000
            0000
                  0000
  0000
       0000
            0000
                 1100
mySymbol=char
  0000
  0000
myFloat=float
  0100 | 0100 | 0000
                  9999
  0010
       0000
            0000
                  0000
myBoolean=bool
  0000
  0001
```





7.1. Pointers

Each memory location has a **memory address**— We assume here that one memory block occupies one byte.

```
/* reserving variables */
int main() {
  int myInteger = 12;  // store an integer
  char mySymbol;  // store one character
  float myFloat = 12.0f;  // store floating point
  bool myBoolean = true;  // store a boolean
  return 0;
}
```

```
Memory
myInteger=int
       0000 0000
  0000
                  0000
       0000
            0000
                 1100
mySymbol=char
  0000
  0000
myFloat=float
       0100
            0000
                  0000
       0000
            0000
                  0000
myBoolean=bool
 0000
  0001
```





7.1. Pointers

A pointer stores a memory address and its associated type

```
Memory
    myInteger=int
      0000
           0000
                 0000
                      0000
70
      0000
           0000
                 0000
                      1100
```





7.1. Pointers

A pointer stores a **memory address and its associated type.** Pointer variables are declared by using the * operator.

```
Memory
    myInteger=int
      0000
           0000
                0000
                      0000
70
      0000
           0000
                 0000
                      1100
    myIntPointer=int*
      0000
           0000
      0000
           0000
```





7.1. Pointers

Pointer variables can obtain the address of existing variables of that type using the & operator (returning the address of a variable)

```
Memory
    myInteger=int
      0000
           0000
                0000
                      0000
70
      0000
           0000
                0000
                     1100
    myIntPointer=int*
      0000
           0100
      0000
           0110
```





7.1. Pointers

Dereferencing a pointer means following the pointer's content (memory address) and accessing the variable of that type

```
Memory
    myInteger=int
      0000
           0000
                0000
                      0001
70
      0000
           0000
                0000
                      0001
    myIntPointer=int*
      0000
           0100
      0000
           0110
```





7.2. **new** and **delete**

A pointer assumes a memory address is reserved for a variable. Indicate that the pointer isn't pointing to a valid variable with **NULL** (or **nullptr** since C++11):

```
/* reserving variables through a pointer */
int main() {
   int * myIntPointer = NULL; // pointer to int
   myIntPointer = new int; // create the int
   *myIntPointer = 17; // the int now holds 17
   delete myIntPointer; // remove the pointer
   return 0;
}
```

```
Memory
myIntPointer=int*
 0000
       0000
 0000
       0000
```





7.2. new and delete

A pointer assumes a memory address is already reserved for a variable. We can create the variable of the correct type through the **new** keyword:

```
/* reserving variables through a pointer */
int main() {
  int * myIntPointer = NULL; // pointer to int
  myIntPointer = new int; // create the int
  *myIntPointer = 17; // the int now holds 17
  delete myIntPointer; // remove the pointer
  return 0;
}
```

```
Memory
    =int
                 0000
      0000
           0000
                       0000
70
      0000
           0000
                 0000
                      0000
    myIntPointer=int*
      0000
           0100
           0110
      0000
```





7.2. new and delete

A pointer assumes a memory address is already reserved for a variable. This variable can only through the pointer be read and changed:

```
/* reserving variables through a pointer */
int main() {
  int * myIntPointer = NULL; // pointer to int
  myIntPointer = new int; // create the int
  *myIntPointer = 17; // the int now holds 17
  delete myIntPointer; // remove the pointer
  return 0;
}
```

```
Memory
    =int
                 0000
      0000
           0000
                      0001
70
      0000
           0000
                 0000
                      0001
    myIntPointer=int*
      0000
           0100
      0000
           0110
```





7.2. **new** and **delete**

A pointer assumes a memory address is already reserved for a variable. This variable can only through the pointer be read and changed:

```
/* reserving variables through a pointer */
int main() {
   int * myIntPointer = NULL; // pointer to int
   myIntPointer = new int; // create the int
   *myIntPointer = 17; // the int now holds 17
   delete myIntPointer; // remove pointer's int
   return 0;
}
```

Memory myIntPointer=int* 0000 0100 0000 0110





7.2. new and delete

Forgetting to **delete** a reserved variable causes a memory leak, since the pointer is removed and the variable cannot be reached anymore (but is reserved).

```
void myFunction() {
   int * myIntPointer = new int; // create int
   *myIntPointer = 17;
}
int main() {
   myFunction();
   // after the above function ends, myIntPointer
   // is removed, but not the int variable
   return 0;
}
```

```
Memory
=int
  0000
       0000
             0000
                   0001
  0000
       0000
                   0001
             0000
```





7.2. **new** and **delete**

It is good practice to assign the pointer to **NULL** after **delete** (since the pointer still points to a non-reserved memory location, this is called a *dangling pointer*).

```
void myFunction() {
  int * myIntPointer = new int; // create int
  *myIntPointer = 17;
  delete myIntPointer; // remove pointer's int
  myIntPointer = NULL; // point to NULL
}
int main() {
  myFunction();
  return 0;
}
```

```
Memory
myIntPointer=int*
 0000
      0100
 0000
      0110
```





7.2. **new** and **delete**

It is good practice to assign the pointer to **NULL** after **delete** (since the pointer still points to a non-reserved memory location, this is called a *dangling pointer*).

```
void myFunction() {
   int * myIntPointer = new int; // create int
   *myIntPointer = 17;
   delete myIntPointer; // remove pointer's int
   myIntPointer = NULL; // point to NULL
}
int main() {
   myFunction();
   return 0;
}
```

```
Memory
myIntPointer=int*
 0000
       0000
 0000
       0000
```





7.3. Creating and deleting objects

Pointers can also point to classes' objects. These can similarly be created and deleted in memory, too.

```
void myFunction() {
   GPSCoord * coordPointer = new GPSCoord();
   coordPointer->set(0, 0); // access method
   delete coordPointer; // remove object
   coordPointer = NULL; // avoid dangling pointer
}
int main() {
   myFunction();
   return 0;
}
```

```
Memory
70
        lat
        lona
        elev
               setElevation()
        set()
        getLatitude()
        getLongitude()
     coordPointer=GPSCoord*
             1000
       0000 0110
```





7.3. Creating and deleting objects

Pointers can also point to classes' objects. These can similarly be created and deleted in memory, too. 70

Attributes & methods are accessed with -> operator

```
void myFunction() {
   GPSCoord * coordPointer = new GPSCoord();
   coordPointer->set(0, 0); // access method
   delete coordPointer; // remove object
   coordPointer = NULL; // avoid dangling pointer
}
int main() {
   myFunction();
   return 0;
}
```

```
Memory
  lat
  lona
  elev
         setElevation()
  set()
  getLatitude()
  getLongitude()
  la
     0
  lo 0
             set
coordPointer=GPSCoord*
        1000
 0000 0110
```





7.3. Creating and deleting objects

Pointers can also point to classes' objects. These can similarly be created and deleted in memory, too.

```
void myFunction() {
   GPSCoord * coordPointer = new GPSCoord();
   coordPointer->set(0, 0); // access method
   delete coordPointer; // remove object
   coordPointer = NULL; // avoid dangling pointer
}

int main() {
   myFunction();
}
```

```
Memory
70
        lat
        lona
        elev
               setElevation()
        set()
        getLatitude()
        getLongitude()
       la 0
       lo 0
                   set
     coordPointer=GPSCoord*
             1000
       0000 | 0110
```





7.3. Creating and deleting objects

Background: Heap and stack in memory

low addresses high addresses static stack code dynamic data heap data global & local program free storage (new/delete) static variables variables (functions) fixed size fixed size dynamic size dynamic size





7.4. Pointers and arrays

In C++, an array name is analogue to a pointer to the first element of the array:

```
char myName[4] = "Tim";
char * charPtr = NULL;
charPtr = myName; // myName == &myName[0]
// note that this is invalid: myName = charPtr;
std::cout << "1st: " << *(charPtr) << '\n';</pre>
// \rightarrow gives out 'T'
std::cout << "2nd: " << myName[1] << '\n';
// \rightarrow gives out 'i'
std::cout << "3rd: " << *(charPtr+2) << '\n';
// \rightarrow  gives out 'm'
```

```
Memory
    myName[0],..,myName[3]
      0101 | 0110 | 0110 |
38
                       0000
      0100 | 1001 | 1101 |
                       0000
    myName=char*
            0010
      0000 0110
```





7.4. Pointers and arrays

In C++, an array name is analogue to a pointer to the first element of the array:

```
char myName[4] = "Tim";
char * charPtr = NULL;
charPtr = myName; // myName == &myName[0]
// note that this is invalid: myName = charPtr;
std::cout << "1st: " << *(charPtr) << '\n';</pre>
// \rightarrow gives out 'T'
std::cout << "2nd: " << myName[1] << '\n';
// \rightarrow gives out 'i'
std::cout << "3rd: " << *(charPtr+2) << '\n';
// \rightarrow gives out 'm'
```

```
Memory
    myName[0],..,myName[3]
      0101 | 0110 | 0110 | 0000
38
      0100 | 1001 | 1101 |
                       0000
    charPtr=char*
      0000 0000
      0000 0000
    myName=char*
      0000 0010
      0000 0110
```





7.4. Pointers and arrays

In C++, an array name is analogue to a pointer to the first element of the array:

```
char myName[4] = "Tim";
char * charPtr = NULL;
charPtr = myName; // myName == &myName[0]
// note that this is invalid: myName = charPtr;
std::cout << "1st: " << *(charPtr) << '\n';</pre>
// \rightarrow gives out 'T'
std::cout << "2nd: " << myName[1] << '\n';
// \rightarrow gives out 'i'
std::cout << "3rd: " << *(charPtr+2) << '\n';
// \rightarrow gives out 'm'
```

```
Memory
    myName[0],..,myName[3]
      0101 | 0110 | 0110 | 0000
38
      0100 | 1001 | 1101 |
                      0000
      'T' 'i' 'm' 0
    charPtr=char*
      0000 0010
      0000 0110
    myName=char*
      0000 0010
      0000 0110
```





7.4. Pointers and arrays

Arrays can be dynamically allocated at run time with pointers:

```
// we receive a size variable here that we need an array around,
// but do not know how large it is at design time:
auto size = fileData.getSize();
// We CAN create an array of the required size:
GPSCoord * myRoute = new GPSCoord[size]; // a route is created as points
for (auto i = 0; i < size; i++) { // note range-based for loop wouldn't work</pre>
  fileData.readNext(); // read data from file, set these as route points:
 myRoute[i].set( fileData[0], fileData[1] );
 myRoute[i].setElevation( fileData[2] );
delete[] myRoute; // for dynamically created arrays, delete needs []
myRoute = NULL;
```





7.4. Pointers and arrays: Example 00 (difficulty level:)

```
/* Create an array for which the length is given at runtime through an argument
  of the executable. The main function in C++ can also have two parameters:
   argc: integer containing the count of arguments in argv
   argv: array of strings holding command-line arguments.
   argv[0] is the command itself, argv[1] is first argument */
#include <iostream>
int main(int argc, char * argv[]) { // executable's arguments are passed
 // if an argument given, assume it is a number and convert from string:
 if (argc > 1) {
    auto size = std::stoi(argv[1]);
   // add code to create an array of length size, and fill it with increasing
    // numbers from 1 till size, display these, and then delete the array
```





7.5. References

In C++, a reference is like an alias, or second name, for a variable. A reference can only be initialized, but never reassigned to another variable.

```
int myNumber = 7402312;
int & myPhone = myNumber; // & in this declaration
// shows that this is a reference. From here on,
// myNumber and myPhone name the same variable.
int myOtherNumber = 2718354;
myPhone = myOtherNumber;
// → Now all three variable names myNumber, myPhone,
// and myOthernumber, have the same value: 2718354
// &myPhone = myOtherNumber; is invalid
```

Memory myNumber,myPhone=int myOtherNumber=int





7.6. Call-by-Reference

Reminder: the swap function below is not going to work, because variables are **passed-by-value**

```
#include <iostream> // output to terminal
void swap(int x, int y){
  auto temp = 0;
  temp = x; x = y; y = temp;
int main() {
  auto a = 5, b = 10;
  swap(a, b);
  std::cout << a << ", " << b << '\n';
```

```
Memory
     10
temp
         swap
         main
```

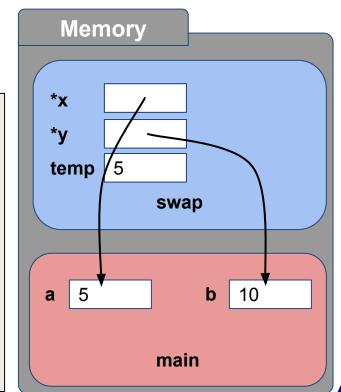




7.6. Call-by-Reference

In C++, parameters can also be pointers. These are passed *by reference*, allowing swap to work:

```
#include <iostream> // output to terminal
void swap(int * x, int * y)
  auto temp = 0;
  temp = *x; *x = *y; *y = temp;
int main() {
  auto a = 5, b = 10;
 swap(&a, &b);
  std::cout << a << ", " << b << '\n';
```



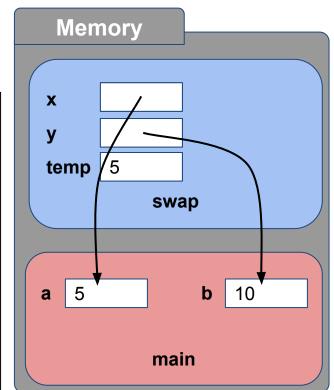




7.6. Call-by-Reference

References have the same effect: These allow swap to work, too, and are safer and more elegant:

```
#include <iostream> // output to terminal
void swap(int & x, int & y)
  auto temp = 0;
  temp = x; x = y; y = temp;
int main() {
  auto a = 5, b = 10;
  swap(a, b);
  std::cout << a << ", " << b << '\n';
```







7.6. Call-by-Reference

Calling by reference avoids copying, which is often preferred. When variables do not change, they can be passed as **const** references.

This is generally a clearer signature for developers calling our function/method:

```
#include <iostream> // output to terminal
[[nodiscard("Please handle this function's return value.")]]
auto printOut(const std::string & x, const std::string & y) {
  return x + ', ' + y + ' n';
int main() {
  std::string a = "5", b = "10";
  std::cout << printOut(a, b);</pre>
```





7.6. Call-by-Reference

Example 01 (difficulty level:)



```
/* Write a class, called Check, below to illustrate in the main function that
   the pointer to an object of class Check b is indeed pointing to the object of
   class Check a. */
#include <iostream>
// write the class Check here
int main() {
  Check a; // a is an object of class Check
  Check * b = &a; // assign address of a to pointer b to object of class Check
  if ( b->isThisMe( &a ) ) {
    std::cout << "&a is b \n";</pre>
```





7.6. Call-by-Reference

Functions / methods create copies of parameters (pass by value). This also is the case for objects.

```
#include <iostream> // output to terminal
struct Pair { int x, y; };
void swap(Pair p) {
  auto temp = 0;
  temp = p.x; p.x = p.y; p.y = temp;
int main() {
 Pair p; p.x = 5; p.y = 10;
  swap(p);
 std::cout << p.x << ", " << p.y << '\n';
```

```
Memory
       10
temp | 5
          swap
          main
```

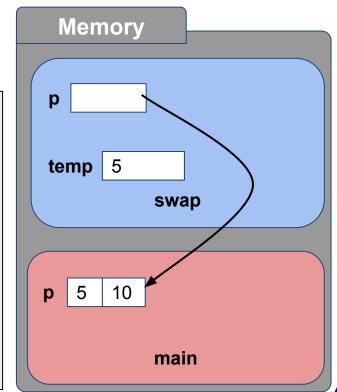




7.6. Call-by-Reference

Using a reference as function/method parameter allows the function to access the original object:

```
#include <iostream> // output to terminal
struct Pair { int x, y; };
void swap(Pair(&)p) {
  auto temp = 0;
  temp = p.x; p.x = p.y; p.y = temp;
int main() {
 Pair p; p.x = 5; p.y = 10;
  swap(p);
  std::cout << p.x << ", " << p.y << '\n';
```







7.7. Copy Constructors

So when passing an object, it gets automatically copied.

How can we implement this copying of objects?

```
void UTMCoord::from(GPSCoord coord) {
 // transforms from latitude-longitude to UTM coordinates
int main()
  GPSCoord place(50.88385, 8.02096);
  UTMCoord place2;
 place2.from( place ); // ← place is here copied into a new object
                              and passed
```





7.7. Copy Constructors

How can we implement the copying of objects? ⇒ With **copy constructors**

```
class GPSCoord { // GPS coordinate class
                                                                 GPSCoord, h
 public:
 GPSCoord() {} // default constructor
 GPSCoord(GPSCoord const & source); // copy constructor
 void set(double lat, double lng); // set latitude, longitude
 void setElevation(double elv);  // set elevation
 void print(); // output coordinates to console
 private:
  double lat, lng, elv; // latitude, longitude, elevation
};
GPSCoord::GPSCoord(GPSCoord const & source) {
                                                            in GPSCoord.cpp
  lat = source.lat; lng = source.lng; elv = source.elv;
```





7.7. Copy Constructors

A copy constructor makes an object from another object of the same class, so in our example, we "clone" our GPSCoord object.

The copy constructor is implicitly called:

- when an object is passed to a function or method by value, or
- when a function or method returns an object

If a class does not implement a copy constructor, the C++ compiler will provide a default copy constructor, performing a *member-wise copy* (also known as *shallow copy*)

So why do we ever have to implement a copy constructor ourselves?





7.7. Copy Constructors

An example of deep versus shallow copy:

```
class GPSTrace { // class for a GPS trace
 public:
  GPSTrace(uint16 t numPoints);
  ~GPSTrace();
 // add a new point to trace at position pos:
  void setPoint(GPSCoord newPoint, uint16 t pos);
  [[nodiscard]] int print(); // print trace, forces return handling
 private:
  GPSCoord *points; // pointer to GPS coordinates
  uint16 t numPoints;
};
```





7.7. Copy Constructors

An example of deep versus shallow copy:

```
GPSTrace::GPSTrace(uint16 t numpoints): numPoints(numpoints) {
  points = new GPSCoord[numPoints];
GPSTrace::~GPSTrace() {
  delete[] points; points = NULL; numPoints = 0;
void GPSTrace::setPoint(GPSCoord newPoint, uint16 t pos) {
  if (pos < numPoints) points[pos] = newPoint;</pre>
int GPSTrace::print() { // output trace to console
  for (auto i = 0; i < numPoints; i++) points[i].print();</pre>
  return 0;
```





7.7. Copy Constructors

Example 02 (difficulty level:)

```
/** An exercise illustrating shallow and deep copy: Add to the code of GPSTrace
    the necessary functionality that allows copying a GPSTrace and illustrate this
    in the main function below. */
#include <iostream> // terminal output
// Classes GPSCoord and GPSTrace come here
int main() {
 GPSTrace t(5);
  for (auto i = 0; i < 5; i++) { // fill in the GPS points
   GPSCoord point;
   point.set( i*1.2, i*3.4 ); point.setElevation( i*5.6 );
    t.setPoint( point, i );
  return t.print();
```

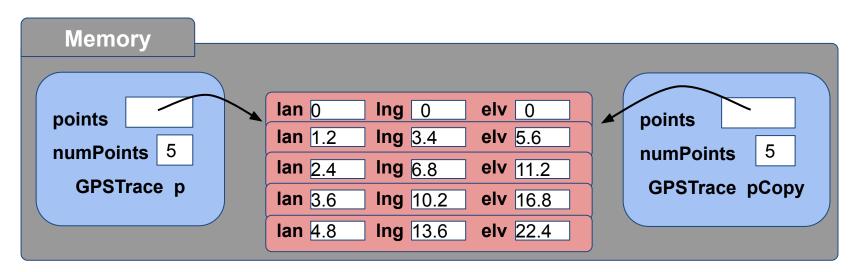




7.7. Copy Constructors

Example 02 (difficulty level:)

The standard (shallow) copy of p (e.g., pCopy) will result in this:



So the (deep) copy needs to be implemented in the copy constructor





7.8. const and const Pointers

Reminder: constants are defined with the **const** keyword, e.g.: **const int gpsTraceLength** = **150**; // **an integer constant**

- A constant can only be initialized, a new value can not be assigned to a constant once it is defined.
- Usually this is done to protect the constant from being changed later on when this isn't planned.





7.8. const and const Pointers

const pointers can come in various forms, what matters is that everything on the left of the **const** keyword is constant. If **const** is on the full left, what is on its right is constant. **const** pointers need to be directly initialized:





7.8. const and const Pointers

const pointers protect pointers from being changed later in the code.

```
This means that changes such as: *pointToConstInt = myInteger;, constPointToInt = &myInteger;, *cPointToCInt = myInteger;, and cPointToCInt = &myInteger; will all result in an error.
```

For example:

The **this** pointer in a class' methods is a **const** pointer to an object of the class, so cannot be changed to point to anywhere else but the current object.





7.8. **const** and **const** Pointers **const** member functions or methods (aka *const qualified*):

```
int GPSTrace::print() const; // output trace to console
```

const in the method's declaration *and* definition tells the compiler that the method should not modify the object (i.e., change the attributes)

- The compiler enforces this, and reports an error once the method's code tries to change its attributes
- Using const methods whenever possible will add guarantee that it will be used properly in the future





7.8. **const** and **const** Pointers

Example 03 (difficulty level:):

```
/** Print a mouse in the console, using a const pointer to avoid changes */
#include <iostream>
                       // terminal output
[[nodiscard]] auto * getBitmapAddress() {
    static auto bitmap[] = "(^. .^)~\n"; // "bitmap" created in static memory
    return bitmap; // return pointer to first element
int main() {
  // using a pointer to bitmap, and incrementing it, is possible:
  auto * mousePointer = getBitmapAddress();
  while ( *mousePointer != 0 ) std::cout << *(mousePointer++);</pre>
  // Here mousePointer has changed, it's hard to get the original pointer.
  // Modify the above by protecting the pointer with const, and looping twice.
```





7.9. Passing functions to functions: Passing pointer to function In C, functions can be passed as a parameter, which will be as a pointer to the function and is just the function's name:

```
#include <iostream> // terminal output
int addTwo(int x) { return x + 2; } // functions we can pass in callFunct
int timesFour(int x) { return x * 4; } // since they match the signature
// callFunct takes a pointer to a function:
int callFunct(int x, int (*funct)(int) ) { return funct(x); /* = (*funct)(x) */ }
int main() {
  std::cout << "addTwo(149) = " << callFunct(149, addTwo) << '\n';</pre>
  std::cout << "timesFour(4) = " << callFunct(4, timesFour) << '\n';</pre>
```





7.9. Passing functions to functions: The **std::function**In C++ 11 and onward, **std::function** can be used from **<functional>**(using templates, see later):

```
#include <iostream> // terminal output
#include <functional> // use std::function to pass functions as parameter
int addTwo(int x) { return x + 2; } // functions we can pass in callFunct
int timesFour(int x) { return x * 4; } // since they match the signature
// callFunction takes a pointer to a function:
int callFunct(int x, std::function<int(int)> func
) { return funct(x); }
int main() {
  std::cout << "addTwo(149) = " << callFunct(149, addTwo) << '\n';</pre>
  std::cout << "timesFour(4) = " << callFunct(4, timesFour) << '\n';</pre>
```





```
/** Define the class' methods below so that the main function makes sense */
#include <iostream> // terminal output
#include <functional> // use std::function to pass functions as parameter
class NumberSequence { // class for sequence of whole, positive numbers
 public:
  NumberSequence(uint16 t length = 10);
 // apply the function func() to all numbers:
 void forEach(std::function<uint16 t(uint16 t)> func);
 void print() const; // print all numbers to console
 private:
 const uint16_t length; // length of number sequence
  uint16 t *seq; // the numbers are stored as a dynamic array
```





7.9. Passing functions to functions: Passing pointer to function Example04 (difficulty level:):

```
// define all NumberSequence methods here
uint16 t times2(uint16 t n) { return n*2; }
int main() {
  NumberSequence s;
  s.print();
  s.forEach( &times2 ); // apply the function times2 to all numbers
  s.print();
```





7.9. Passing functions to functions: Passing pointer to function On the pointers behind functions and arrays:

```
#include <iostream>
int fun(int i) { return i+7; } // a function
int main() {
 int a[3] = \{1,2,3\}; // an array
 // conversion to function pointers defaults to a bool:
 std::cout << "fun: " << fun << '\n'; // will result in warning
 std::cout << "&fun: " << &fun << '\n';
 // Converting to a void pointer works:
 std::cout << "(void*)fun: " << (void*)fun << '\n';</pre>
 std::cout << "(void*)&fun:" << (void*)&fun << '\n';
 // The address of an array can be gotten by:
 std::cout << "&a[0]: " << &a[0] << '\n';
```





7.10. Smart Pointers in C++

Smart pointers are a wrapper class over pointers, to avoid memory leaks, wild (never initialized), or dangling (pointing to deleted memory) pointers.

They destroy themselves when they go out of scope, and can efficiently manage memory through extra functionality.

They are a part of the <memory> module (in <iostream>) and implement:

- auto_ptr: deprecated after C++11.
- unique_ptr: an exclusive pointer that cannot be copied (just moved) and cleans up after itself
- **shared_ptr:** a pointer that can be shared: Multiple pointers can point to the same object, and this is managed (and counted).
- weak ptr: beyond the scope of this course





7.10. Smart Pointers in C++

```
#include <iostream> // terminal output and smart pointers
struct Coordinate { // class for an x,y coordinate
  int x = 10, y = 20;
  void print() {
    std::cout << x << ',' << y << '\n';
int main() {
  std::unique ptr<Coordinate> p1(new Coordinate);
  std::unique_ptr<int> p2(new int[15]);
  p1->print();
 std::cout << p2.get() << '\n'; // display pointer p2's address</pre>
  // this would give a compiler error:
  // unique ptr<Coordinate> p3 = p1;
 // no need to delete p1 or p2 here, that is done for us
```