A C++ Idiom

Knowing pointer arithmetic helps you understand one of the most common idiomatic constructions in C++, which you'll find on line 4 of the previous example:

```
while (beg != end) { result += *beg++; }
```

Here's how to decode the expression *beg++:

- The * operator and the ++ operator compete for the operand beg. Because unary operators in C++ are right-associative, the ++ takes precedence over the *. The compiler interprets this as: *(beg++).
- The postfix ++ operator increments the value of beg so that it points to the next element, but returns the address that beg was pointing to prior to the increment operation. Since beg is a pointer, the increment operation uses pointer arithmetic; adding 1 to the address inside of beg creates a pointer to the next element in the array.
- If beg originally pointed to a[0], the increment causes it to point to a[1]. The
 address that is used for dereferencing *, is the address value it contained before
 the
 increment.

Thus, the expression *beg++ has the following meaning in English:

Dereference the pointer **beg** and return as an **lvalue** the object to which it currently points. As a side effect, increment the value of **beg** so that, if the original **lvalue** was an element in an array, the new value of **beg** points to the next element in that array.



Counting

Let's start with counting. To count all of the elements that match a condition:

```
counter <- 0
for each element in the array
if the element matches the condition then
counter <- counter + 1
```

Here's a **traditional implementation** of this that counts for exact matches to a value:

The iterator-based version of this algorithm, named count() is actually included in the standard library, in the header called <algorithm>. After including the header, you can call it like this:

```
#include <algorithm>
. . .
int a[] = {...};
. . .
cout << count(begin(a), end(a), value) << endl;</pre>
```



Cumulative Algorithms

Cumulative algorithms such as sum, average, standard deviation, and so on, visit each element in the array and then add, multiply or otherwise process it.

Here is an example which adds all of the **even numbers** in an array named **a**:

- The array a is const, since the elements won't be changed.
- The accumulator sum is double so it doesn't overflow.
- Only the **even** elements (those where n % 2 == 0) are added.

```
double addEvens(const int a[], size_t len)
{
    double sum{0};
    for (size_t i = 0; i < len; ++i)
    {
        if (a[i] % 2 == 0) { sum += a[i]; }
    }
    return sum;
}</pre>
```



This course content is offered under a <u>CC Attribution Non-Commercial</u> license. Content in this course can be considered under this license unless otherwise noted.

Extreme Values

The largest (or smallest) value in a collection is called an extreme value. Here is the algorithm for finding the largest in an array:



The algorithm for finding the **smallest** is similar. What if there is no first element? Then there is no largest or smallest element; **it is an error condition**.

For many algorithms, you not only want to know the largest (or smallest) value, but **where it is located**, either as an index or as a pointer. Click this link to look at both. We'll discuss the two functions in this example in the next section.



This course content is offered under a <u>CC Attribution Non-Commercial</u> license. Content in this course can be considered under this license unless otherwise noted.

Returning a Pointer

The biggest() function returns a pointer to the largest item in the array. We don't want to allow the element to change, and we don't want the pointer to be used to modify other elements, so the return type is const double* const.

When you call biggest(), you will dereference the returned pointer to get the value.

```
cout << *(biggest(da, 5)) << endl;</pre>
```

Let's **apply the steps** in the extreme values algorithm to this problem.

1. Save the first value as the largest. You need two variables to do this:

```
const double *p = a;
double largest = *p;
```

2. Now, loop through each **remaining element** like this:

```
for (size_t i = 1; i < len; ++i)...
```

3. Each time through the loop, check to see if the current element is larger than the saved value, and, if so, update the saved values. Because you want to return a pointer, you'll need to update **both largest** and p. Note the use of the address operator.

```
if (a[i] > largest) {
    p = &a[i];
    largest = a[i];
}
```

4. Finally, simply return the pointer **p**.

This is the same scheme used by the standard library algorithms min_element() and max_element(). When called using arrays, they return a pointer in exactly this manner.



This course content is offered under a <u>CC Attribution Non-Commercial</u> license. Content in this course can be considered under this license unless otherwise noted.

Returning an Index

Returning an index works almost the same as returning a pointer. Instead of the pointer, you need to keep track of the index. Here is the smaller() function which does that:



The Fencepost Algorithm

To print an array, you want to surround all of the elements with delimiters (for instance brackets [] or braces {}), and separate the elements from each other by a comma. This is called the fencepost algorithm.

Here's the algorithm, assuming you have selected values for the opening and closing delimiters as well as the size.

Print opening delimiter (, {, [, etc.
If array size is > 0 Then
Print first element
For every remaining element
Print separator
Print element
Print closing delimiter

Click on this link to see this algorithm implemented as a template function .



This course content is offered under a CC Attribution Non-Commercial license. Content in this course can be considered under this license unless otherwise noted.

A Reverse Fencepost

What if you want to use the same algorithm, but print the elements in reverse order? That's a little more difficult. Here is an "obvious" algorithm which does not work correctly:

```
cout << a[len - 1];
for (size_t i = len - 2; i >= 0; --i)
{
    cout << separator << a[i];
}</pre>
```

The loop variable type is <code>size_t</code>, so as soon as you print <code>a[0]</code> and decrement the control variable <code>i</code>, instead of becoming <code>-1</code>, it "wraps around" and becomes the <code>largest possible unsigned number</code>. Since array subscripts are **not range checked**, the loop prints at larger and larger indexes until the program crashes.

This example below **works correctly**. Notice the extra **if** statement:

```
if (len > 0)
{
    cout << a[len - 1];
    for (size_t i = len - 1; i > 0; --i)
    {
        cout << separator << a[i - 1];
    }
}</pre>
```



Searching Algorithms

Searching is a big part of everyday life today. When a friend asks,

"Who was the actress who starred in the movie the Parent Trap?" you're accustomed to having the answer at your finger tips. Out comes your phone and you ask Siri or Google or DuckDuckGo. How do they know the answer? The programs **search for it** among all of the pages on the Internet. (Of course, even Google can be wrong; I've never heard of Lindsay Lohan. It's supposed to be Haley Mills!).



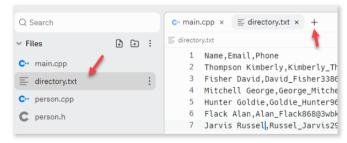
▶ Searching Algorithms: the Big Picture

So, how does searching work? In this lesson, we'll look at two different techniques for searching a list of data, such as the data in an array. Start by clicking on the "running man" to open a **Replit** project called **Searching**.



Fork the project so that you have your own copy.

When you open the project, click the plus sign to open a new tab in the editor and then click directory.txt to see the file that your program will process.



The text file contains a directory of a thousand people, in random order. Each line has three fields: the **name** (in last, first order), the person's **email**, and their **phone** number. Each of the fields is separated by commas.



The Starter Code

The file person.h contains the definition of a Person structure, with name, email and phone data members, as well as the prototypes for some functions and operators.

```
struct Person {
   std::string name;
   std::string email;
   std::string phone;
};
```

The main() function creates an array of 1000 Person variables, and then calls the load() function to read all of the data from the text file and put it into the array.

```
const int kSize = 1000;
Person directory[kSize];
load(directory, kSize);
```

Following the array declaration is a **do-while** loop which asks the user for a last name, and which then calls the **find()** function to retrieve the record number.

```
bool done = false;
do {
  cout << "Enter the last name to search for (q to quit): ";
  string last;
  cin >> last;
  if (last == "q") done = true;
  else
  {
    int pos = find(directory, kSize, last);
    if (pos >= 0) {
      cout << "\nFound: " << directory[pos] << endl;
    } else {
      cout << "\nCannot find " << last << endl;
    }
}
while (! done);</pre>
```

If the name is found in the directory, then the program prints out the full name, email and phone number. If the name could not be found, the program just prints "Not found" and allows the user to enter another name. The user can exit by entering "q" when asked for the last name.



The find() Function

Your job is to complete the find() function which searches the array. The function is already stubbed out for you, returning -1 to indicate that the name could not be found. Since the array is in no particular order, your find() function must check each element sequentially, until it finds a match or until it runs out of elements. This is called a linear-search.

Here is the pseudocode (as comments) that you should implement:

```
int find(const Person contacts[], int size, const string& key)
{
    // for each Person p in contacts
    // print a . to indicate the progress
    // if key == front part of p.name then
    // return the index of p
    return - 1; // Not found
}
```

Here are some notes on implementing this:

- Because this is inside a function, you can't use a range-based loop, even though
 I've written the pseudocode comment that way. In fact, since you need to return the
 index, a counter-controlled loop is more appropriate.
- Printing the "." is not really part of the algorithm, but is going to visually give you an indication of how efficient your search is.
- To compare the **key** to **p.name**, you'll need to use **substr()** and the size of the **key** in your comparison. Remember, the **name** data member includes both the last and first names, and you only want to compare against the last.



Linear Search

When you're finished, type make run in the Console tab, and enter in some last names to search for. Here's what happens when I run the program.

- I start with Thompson, the first name in the file, so the program immediately finds and prints the answer, displaying only two "dots" before the answer.
- When I look for Gilbert, the program needs to look through a little more than half of the array before finding Roger Gilbert.
- When I look for Smith, surprisingly there are no Smiths in the directory. The
 program has to look through every single element before it can report the fact that it
 failed.

So, what conclusions can we make from this experiment?



Linear Search Efficiency

One thing that we can tell from this short experiment is that if a name is not in the directory, we'll have to look through all 1,000 names to find that out. As a result, (assuming that the time to compare each name is constant), the running time of linear search grows proportionally with the size of the directory we're searching. If we had a directory of 10,000 names it would be roughly ten times slower than our version with 1,000 names.

However, that is the **worst case**. Most of the time you will find the name you are looking for and won't need to compare all one thousand names.

In the **best case**, the name you'll decide that you only need to look up **Kimberly Thompson**, the first name on the list, and your program will seem to run like lightning. **On average**, though, assuming the names are randomly distributed throughout the directory, you'll have to search through **500** names (or half of the total array) to find the one you want.

In Computer Science we have a particular terminology for discussing the runtime efficiency of algorithms. We say that **linear search** is an **O(n)** algorithm, (which mean **on the order of n**), because the time to find your element increases in a linear manner as the number of elements in the array (**n**) increases. This is known as **Big-O notation**.

Even more specifically, we can say that our implementation:

- Has a worst case of O(n). We will always have to search through the entire directory if a name is not found.
- Has a best case of O(1) meaning that if we always search for the first name on the list, we'll find it in constant time.
- Has an average case of (n/2), meaning that on average, we'll find the name by searching half of the the array. Some will be more, some less, but it will average out.



Improving Linear Search

We can improve our algorithm a little bit by putting the data in sorted order. To do that, just call the sort() function which I've supplied, immediately after you've loaded the data, like this:

```
const int kSize = 1000;
Person directory[kSize];
load(directory, kSize);
sort(directory, kSize);
```

Now, when you run the program and look for **Thompson**, it is not immediately found, since Kimberly is no longer at the beginning of the list, but much further down. So, that doesn't seem to be much of an improvement.

Remember, though, that before you sorted the data, you needed to **check every single element** before you could be sure that the name was not found. Now, **you can stop** whenever the name in the directory is greater than the name you are looking for. Just add this code at the end of your loop **do-while** loop:

```
if (contacts[i].name > key) return -1;
```

The average performance time is still O(n / 2), but the worst case time has improved from O(n) to O(n / 2) as well. In general it will take 500 comparisons to see if a name is missing, instead of the 1,000 comparisons you made earlier.

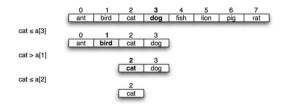
However, this is the best improvement we can make with linear search. To go faster, you'll **need a better algorithm**.



Binary Search

► Algorithm Walkthrough (Video)

Now that you know the elements are in alphabetical order, (sorted), you can adopt an more efficient approach: divide the array in half and compare the key you're trying to find (cat in the illustration below) against the element closest to the middle, using the order defined by ASCII, which is called lexicographic order.



If the key you're looking for **precedes** the middle element, then the key—if it exists at all —**must be** in the **first half**. If the key follows the middle element in alphabetic order, you only need to look at the elements **in the second half**.

Because you can discard half the possible elements at each step in the process, it is much more efficient than linear search. Binary-search is a **divide-and-conquer** algorithm which is **naturally recursive**.



Implementing Binary Search

Here's an implementation of binary search, named bfind():

```
int bfind(const Person data[], int first, int last,
2
              const string& key)
3
4
      cout << ".";
                                           // display comparisons
      if (last < first) {return -1;}</pre>
                                           // not found
      int mid = (first + last) / 2;
                                          // mid point
      if (key == data[mid].name.substr(0, key.size())) return mid;
9
      if (key < data[mid])</pre>
10
        return bfind(a, first, mid - 1, key); // look in left
11
      else
12
        return bfind(a, mid + 1, last, key); // look in right
13
```

Add this code **before** your **find()** function, and then comment out the body of **find()**, and add a call to bfind() in its place, like this:

```
return bfind(contacts, 0, size - 1, key);
```

Now, when you run the program, you'll see that even the worst case will take only about 10 or 11 comparisons, instead of 500 or 1000.

