Chapter 3: Strings, Vectors and Arrays

3.1 Namespace using Declaration

The *namespace* is a mechanism for putting names defined by a library into a single space.

Namespaces help avoid name clashes (抵觸). The names defined by the C++ library are in the namespace std. For example,

```
std::cout
```

A using declaration allows us to access a name from a *namespace* without the scope cumbersome prefix (std) and the resolution operator (::).

```
cout
```

nameSpaceExample1.cpp

Or usage of the entire std namespace:

nameSpaceExample2.cpp

```
#include <iostream>

// using declarations for the entire standard library
using namespace std;

int main()
{
   cout << "Enter two numbers:" << endl;</pre>
```

Inside .h header files, we should *always* use the fully qualified library names, that is, **DO NOT** use the using declaration for *namespaces*. Why? You might introduce name clashes for any file including this .h header file.

```
#ifndef COORDH
#define COORDH
using namespace std; // this is not good!!!!
struct Coord {
   double x;
   double y;
   double z;
   void print_x() {cout << x;}
};
#endif</pre>
```

3.2 Library string Type

The string type supports variable-length character strings. The library takes care of managing the memory and provides various useful operations.

string s1;	Default constructor; s1 is the empty string
string s2(s1);	Initialize s2 as a copy of s1
string s3("value");	Initialize s3 as a copy of the string literal
string s4(n, 'c');	Initialize s4 with n copies of the character 'c'

string input/output (I/O)

The following lines of code read and discard any leading whitespace (e.g., spaces, newlines, tabs), and then read characters until the next whitespace character is encountered.

```
string s;
cin >> s;
```

Example: StringIO.cpp

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>

using namespace std;

int main()
{
    string s;
    cin >> s;
    cout << s << endl;
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

Q: what are the outputs if we enter Hello World! from inputs?

A:

Hello

The following lines of code read the next line of input stream and store what it reads, not including the line break. In other words, the entire line of string.

```
string line;
getline(cin, line);
```

Example: StringGetLine.cpp

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    string line;
    getline(cin, line);
    cout << line << endl;
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

Q: what are the outputs if we enter Hello World! from inputs?

A:

```
Hello World!
```

The string I/O is often combined with the while loop to read strings:

StringIOEx1.cpp

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    string s;
    while (cin >> s) // CTRL+D to end loop
        cout << s << endl;
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

The program <u>read string or strings</u>. Print each string in its own line but discards any whitespace (e.g., spaces, newlines, tabs) before or after the string.

```
To be or not to be
To
be
or
not
to
be
```

On Linux/Unix, CTRL+D is the End of File (EOF) signal, and can be issued to stop the program. On a windows computer, it is the CTRL+Z. However, this closes the input stream, and you can no longer use it. A better approach is to use a sentinel value (such as "Q") to signal the end of inputs.

Exercise 3.1 In-class Coding Exercise

Ex31.cpp

Write a program to read lines from input and output the lines with a proper line number.

Below is a sample run:

```
TWO roads diverged in a yellow wood,
(Line 1) TWO roads diverged in a yellow wood,
And sorry I could not travel both
(Line 2) And sorry I could not travel both
And be one traveler, long I stood
(Line 3) And be one traveler, long I stood
And looked down one as far as I could
(Line 4) And looked down one as far as I could
```

Answer

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
using namespace std;
```

```
int main()
{
    string s;
    unsigned lineNo = 0;
    while (getline(cin, s)) // CTRL+D to end loop
        cout << "(Line " << ++lineNo <<") " << s << endl;
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

Table 3.2 string Operation

```
Writes s onto output stream os. Returns os.
OS << S
is >> s
                    Reads whitespace-separated string from is into s. Returns is.
                    Reads a line of input from is into s. Returns is.
getline(is, s)
                    Returns true if s is empty; otherwise returns false.
s.empty()
                    Returns the number of characters in s.
s.size()
                    Returns a reference to the char at position n in s; positions start at 0.
s[n]
                    Returns a string that is the concatenation of s1 and s2.
s1 + s2
s1 = s2
                    Replaces characters in s1 with a copy of s2.
                    The strings s1 and s2 are equal if they contain the same characters.
s1 == s2
s1! = s2
                    Equality is case-sensitive.
                    Comparisons are case-sensitive and use dictionary ordering.
<, <=, >, >=
```

string size Operation:

It might be logical to expect that s.size() returns an int or an unsigned. Instead, s.size() returns a string::size_type value. The reason is that the string class—and most other library types—defines several companion types. These companion types make it possible to use the library types in a machine independent manner. The type size_type is one of these companion types, and is a type for the number of elements in a container.

To use the size_type defined by string, we use the scope resolution operator to say that the name size_type is defined in the string class. Although we don't know the precise type of string::size_type, we do know that it is an unsigned (integer) type big enough to hold the size of any string.

It can be tedious to type string::size_type. We can ask the compiler to provide the appropriate type by using auto

```
string s = "I am a C++ string";
```

```
string::size_type len1 = s.size(); //C++98
auto len2 = s.size(); // len has type string::size type, C++11
```

There are more string functions in the string class¹. For example, we can use find:

Output is:

```
Pl**s*, r*pl*c* th* v*w*ls *n th*s s*nt*nc* by *st*r*sks.
```

3.2.3 Dealing with Characters in a string

We often need to manipulate or test each character in a string. The ctype.h from C (included through the cctype header in C++) provides useful utility functions to accomplish the tasks. For example, we can see how many characters are punctuations:

```
int punct_cnt = 0;
for (string::size_type index = 0; index != s.size(); ++index)
    if (ispunct(s[index])) ++punct cnt;
```

¹ More string functions and its definitions can be found: URL: http://www.cplusplus.com/reference/string/string/

```
for (auto index = 0; index != s.size(); ++index)
    if (ispunct(s[index])) ++punct_cnt;
```

Table 3.3 cctype Functions

```
true if c is a letter or a digit.
isalnum(c)
isalpha(c)
                 true if c is a letter.
                 true if c is a control character.
iscntrl(c)
isdigit(c)
                 true if c is a digit.
                 true if c is not a space but is printable.
isgraph(c)
islower(c)
                 true if c is a lowercase letter.
isprint(c)
                 true if c is a printable character (i.e., a space or a character that has a
                 visible representation).
                 true if c is a punctuation character (i.e., a character that is not a control
ispunct(c)
                 character, a digit, a letter, or a printable whitespace).
                 true if c is whitespace (i.e., a space, tab, vertical tab, return, newline, or
isspace(c)
                 formfeed).
isupper(c)
                 true if c is an uppercase letter.
isxdigit(c) true if c is a hexadecimal digit.
                 If c is an uppercase letter, returns its lowercase equivalent; otherwise
tolower(c)
                 returns c unchanged.
                 If c is a lowercase letter, returns its uppercase equivalent; otherwise returns
toupper(c)
                 c unchanged.
```

If we want to do something to every character in a string, we can use the range-for statement. This statement iterates through the elements in a given sequence and performs some operation on each value in that sequence. The syntactic form is

```
for (declaration : expression)
    statement
```

For example, the following code using the range-for statement to count the number of punctuations in a string

```
unsigned punct_cnt = 0;
for (auto e: s)
   if (ispunct(e)) ++punct_cnt;
```

Exercise 3.2 In-class Coding Exercise

Ex32.cpp

Write a program to read a line of strings from the standard input and change all the characters to lowercase. A sample run looks like:

```
Enter a line of strings: Hello World
The line in lowercase is: hello world
```

Answer:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
#include <cctype>

using namespace std;

int main()
{
    string line;
    cout << "Enter a line of strings: ";
    getline(cin, line);
    for (auto& c : line)
        c = tolower(c);
    cout << "The line in lowercase is: " << line << endl;
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

3.3.1 Defining and Initializing vectors

A vector is a collection of objects of a single type, each of which has an associated integer index. A vector is a **class template**. To declare a vector, we must supply what type of objects the vector will contain. We specify the type by putting it between a pair of angle brackets following the template's name:

```
vector<int> ivec;
vector<Sales_item> salesVec;
vector<vector<int> > matInt;
```

Table 3.4 The ways to Initialize a vector

```
vector that holds objects of type T. Default initialization;
vector<T>v1
                                v1 is empty.
vector<T>v2(v1)
                                v2 has a copy of each element in v1.
                                Equivalent to v2(v1), v2 is a copy of the elements in v1.
vector<T>v2=v1
vector<T> v3(n, val)
                                v3 has n elements with value val.
vector<T>v4(n)
                                v4 has n copies of a value-initialized object.
                                v5 has as many elements as there are initializers; elements
vector<T>v5{a,b,c...}
                                are initialized by corresponding initializers.
                                Equivalent to v5\{a,b,c...\}.
vector<T>v5 = \{a,b,c...\}
```

List each element in the following vector initialization

```
vector<int> ivec(10, -1);
vector<string> svec(10, "hi");

vector<int> ivec(10);
vector<int> ivec(10, 1);
vector<int> ivec{10, 1};

vector<string> svec(10);
vector<Sales item> salesVec(10);
```

Table 3.5 vector Operation

```
Returns true if v is empty; otherwise returns false.
v.empty()
                    Returns the number of elements in v.
v.size()
v.push_back(t) Adds an element with value t to end of v.
v[n]
                    Returns a reference to the element at position n in v.
                    Replaces the elements in v1 with a copy of the elements in v2.
v1 = v2
                    Replaces the elements in v1 with a copy of the elements in the
v1 = \{a, b, c...\}
                    comma-separated list.
                    v1 and v2 are equal if they have the same number of elements and each
v1 == v2
                    element in v1 is equal to the corresponding element in v2.
v1 != v2
                    Have their normal meanings using dictionary ordering.
<, <=, >, >=
```

Using push back member function

To store a new value in a vector, you should use the push_back member function. This function accepts a value as an argument and store it in a new element placed at the end of the vector. The value is "pushed" at the "back" of the vector. The memory for that element is arranged internally for the vector without you knowing it. For example,

```
vector<int> x;
x.push back(12);
```

Q: what happens?

A: This statement creates a new element holding 12 and places it at the end of x.

With the introduction of string and vector, we can easily store words from the standard input into a vector container and process these words upon request. For example, we can ask users to input a few words, store them in a vector and parse and print those words that are longer than 4 characters.

```
I think this is my mouse
^Z
The words longer than 4 characters are: think mouse
```

VectorStringEx.cpp

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
#include <vector>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    string word;
    vector<string> text;
    while (cin >> word) // CTRL+D to end loop
        text.push_back(word);
    for (auto s : text)
        if (s.size() > 4) cout << s << endl;
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

3.3.3 Other vector Operations

We can access the elements of a vector the same way as we access the characters in a string: vecEx1.cpp

```
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
using namespace std;

int main() {
   vector<int> v{ 1, 2, 3 };
   for (auto &i : v) // note: i is a reference
        i *= i; // square the element value
```

```
for (auto i : v) // for each element in v
     cout << i << " "; // print the element
cout << endl;
return 0;
}</pre>
```

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Quick Check on Concept: What is the difference between for (auto &i : v) and for (auto i : v)?

```
for (auto &i : v)
```

We define our control variable, i, as a reference so that we can use i to assign new values to the elements in v.

```
for (auto i : v)
```

Control variable, i, is a copy of an element in v. Any change in i will NOT affect the elements in v. Thus, we use this kind of range for for read only access in a container.

Subscript Operator []

We can obtain a given element in vector using the subscript operator [] as with strings. Subscripts for vector start at 0 (a typical C/C++ convention). For example, the previous code can now be modified as:

vecEx2.cpp

```
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
using namespace std;

int main() {
    vector<int> v{ 1, 2, 3 };
    for (decltype(v.size()) idx = 0; idx != v.size(); ++idx){
        v[idx] = v[idx] * v[idx];
        cout << v[idx] << " ";
    }
    cout << endl;
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

Exercise 3.3 In-class Coding Exercise

Ex33.cpp

Define and initialize a vector with 10 elements of 1 and print the contents. Modify all the even indices in the vector to 0 and print the modified contents. A sample output looks like:

(Answer)

```
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
using namespace std;
int main()
   vector<int> ivec(10,1);
   cout << "The original elements in the vector container are: "</pre>
         << " ";
   for (auto i: ivec)
      cout << i << " ";
   cout << endl;</pre>
   cout << "The modified elements in the vector container are: "</pre>
         << " ";
   for (decltype(ivec.size()) ix = 0; ix != ivec.size(); ++ix){
       if (ix % 2 == 0) ivec[ix] = 0;
       cout << ivec[ix] << " "; // print the element</pre>
   cout << endl;</pre>
   return 0;
```

3.4 Introducing Iterators

An iterator is a generalized pointer with a mechanism that lets us:

- identify the position and access the elements in a container
- navigate from one element to another

Except for vector, modern C++ programs tend to use iterators rather than subscripts to access container elements.

Some advantage of iterators include²

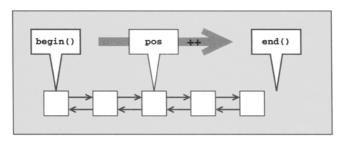
1) similarity to a pointer

² Details on iterators:

^{1.} URL: https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/introduction-iterators-c/

^{2.} URL: https://www.cprogramming.com/tutorial/stl/iterators.html

- 2) convenience to specify position and iterate through the container.
- 3) code reusability when you wish to switch containers.



Each container defines its own iterator type.

```
vector<int>::iterator iter;
vector<Sales_item>::iterator it;
set<double>::iterator it2;
```

Each container defines a pair of functions begin and end that return iterators and cbegin and cend that return const_iterators.



vec.end(): an iterator positioned "one past the end"

We can use auto for the type of the iterator

```
vector<int> vec; ...
auto b = vec.beign()
```

The iterator is similar to a pointer and it uses the dereference operator (the * operator) to access the element to which the iterator refers

```
*iter = 0;
```

Iterators use the increment operator (++) to advance an iterator to the next element in the container.

```
++iter;
```

Looping through a container using the iterator if you need to change values, and const_iterator for reading values only.

Looping through containers

```
The subscript operator []
  // reset all the elements in ivec to 0
  for (vector<int>::size type ix = 0; ix != ivec.size(); ++ix)
        ivec[ix] = 0;
C++11 way
  // reset all the elements in ivec to 0
  for (decltype(ivec.size()) ix = 0; ix != ivec.size(); ++ix)
       ivec[ix] = 0;
Iterator
  // using iterators to reset all the elements in ivec to 0
  for (vector<int>::iterator iter = ivec.begin(); iter !=
  ivec.end(); ++iter)
          *iter = 0; // set element to which iter refers to 0
<u>C++11 way</u>
  // using iterators to reset all the elements in ivec to 0
  for (auto iter = ivec.begin(); iter != ivec.end(); ++iter)
          *iter = 0; // set element to which iter refers to 0
```

const_iterator for reading but not writing to the elements in the container.

```
string word;
vector<string> text;
while (cin >> word) { // use CTRL+D to end while loop
    text.push_back(word);
}
for (auto iter = text.cbegin(); iter != text.cend(); ++iter)
    cout << *iter << endl;</pre>
```

Exercise 3.4 In-class Coding Exercise

Ex34.cpp

Rewrite Exercise 3.3 using iterator. Fill up the blank below.

Ans:

Key Concept: Generic Programming

Programmers coming to C++ from C or Java might be surprised that we use != rather than < in our for loops. In C++ STL, some iterators do not have the comparison operator. Only random access iterators are relationally comparable. **All of the library containers** have iterators that define the == and != operators. Most of those iterators do not have the < operator. By routinely using iterators and !=, we don't have to worry about the precise type of container we're processing. As a result, != is a more general way to write the code.

As we will learn later, only a few standard library types, vector and string being among them, have the subscript operator.

Iterator Operations

Standard iterators support only a few operations, which are listed below (Table 3.6).

*iter	Returns a reference to the element denoted by the iterator iter.
iter->mem	Dereferences iter and fetches the member named mem from the underlying element. Equivalent to (*iter).mem.
++iter	Increments iter to refer to the next element in the container.
iter	Decrements iter to refer to the previous element in the container.
	Compares two iterators for equality (inequality). Two iterators are equalify they denote the same element or if they are the off-the-end iterator for the same container.

Remark: We can compare two valid iterators using == or !=. Iterators are equal (1) if they denote the same element or (2) if they are both off-the-end iterators for the same container. Otherwise, they are unequal. For example, we can simply write a code fragment that will capitalize the first character of a string.

```
string s("some string");
if (s.begin() != s.end()) { // make sure s is not empty
   auto it = s.begin(); // it denotes the first character in s
   *it = toupper(*it); // make that character uppercase
}
```

Exercise 3.5 In-class Coding Exercise

Ex35.cpp

A text file input.txt contains sentences of text. A line with an empty string indicates a paragraph break. Write a program to store all the lines in a vector container and print the lines in the first paragraph. For example, if our input.txt has the following contents:

```
Two roads diverged in a yellow wood,
And sorry I could not travel both
And be one traveler, long I stood
And looked down one as far as I could
To where it bent in the undergrowth;
Then took the other, as just as fair,
And having perhaps the better claim
Because it was grassy and wanted wear,
Though as for that the passing there
Had worn them really about the same,
And both that morning equally lay
In leaves no step had trodden black.
Oh, I kept the first for another day!
Yet knowing how way leads on to way
I doubted if I should ever come back.
I shall be telling this with a sigh
Somewhere ages and ages hence:
Two roads diverged in a wood, and I,
```

```
I took the one less traveled by,
And that has made all the difference.

The Road Not Taken by Robert Frost
```

A sample output looks like:

```
The first paragraph of the input file is

Two roads diverged in a yellow wood,

And sorry I could not travel both

And be one traveler, long I stood

And looked down one as far as I could

To where it bent in the undergrowth;
```

Answer:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <fstream>
#include <vector>
#include <string>
using namespace std;
int main()
   ifstream fin;
   fin.open("input.txt");
   if (!fin)
       cerr << "cannot open input.txt" << endl;</pre>
       return -1;
   string line;
   vector<string> text;
   while (getline(fin, line)) {
       text.push back(line);
   }
   // print each line in text up to the first blank line
   cout << "The first paragraph of the input file is" << endl <<</pre>
endl;
   for (auto it = text.cbegin(); it != text.cend()
       && !it->empty(); ++it)
       cout << *it << endl;</pre>
   return 0;
}
```

3.4.2. Iterator Arithmetic

Iterators for string and vector support additional operations that can <u>move an iterator</u> <u>multiple elements at a time</u>. They also support all the relational operators. These operations, which are often referred to as <u>iterator arithmetic</u>, are described below (Table 3.7).

iter + n	Adding (subtracting) an integral value n to (from) an iterator yields an
iter - n	iterator that many elements forward (backward) within the container. The resulting iterator must denote elements in, or one past the end of, the same container.
iter1 += n	Compound-assignment for iterator addition and subtraction. Assigns to
iter1 -= n	iter1 the value of adding n to, or subtracting n from, iter1.
iter1 - iter2	Subtracting two iterators yields the number that when added to the right-hand iterator yields the left-hand iterator. The iterators must denote elements in, or one past the end of, the same container.
>, >=, <, <=	Relational operators on iterators. One iterator is less than another if it refers to an element that appears in the container before the one referred to by the other iterator. The iterators must denote elements in, or one past the end of, the same container.

3.5 Array

An array consists of a type specifier (such as int), an identifier (such as myArray, yourArray), and a dimension. The type specifier indicates what **type** the elements are stored in the array. The dimension specifies how many elements the array will contain.

```
int intArray[10]; // an array of 10 ints

Sales_item item[10]; // an array of 10 Sales_items
```

Unlike the vector, array has fixed size for better run-time performance (but at the cost of flexibility lost). The dimension must be a constant expression.

The **general form** for declaring an array is:

```
typeName arrayName[arraySize];
```

The expression arraySize, which is the number of elements, must be a constant expression (must be known at compile time).

```
int arr[10]; // array of ten ints
//
unsigned cnt = 42; // not a constant expression
string bad[cnt]; // error: cnt is not a constant expression
//
```

```
const unsigned s = 42; // constant expression
int *parr[s]; // array of 42 pointers to int
```

Variable length arrays (VLA) are by default allowed in many compilers, although it is NOT in the standard. To not allow this, compile with:

```
g++ -Werror=vla testArray.cpp
```

Initialization

```
int intArray[3] = {0, 1, 2}; // element initialization
int intArray[] = {0, 1, 2}; // element initialization
char ca1[] = {'C', '+', '+'}; // dim = 3
char ca2[] = {'C', '+', '+', '\0'}; // dim = 4
char ca3[] = "C++"; // {'C', '+', '+', '\0'}, dim = 4
```

The end of C++ char arrays is signaled by a special character: the *null character*, whose literal value can be written as '\0' (backslash, zero)³.

If we do not supply explicit initialization, elements in an array are default initialized⁴.

```
int intArray[3];
string sArray[3];
```

3.5.2. Accessing the Elements of an Array

As with the library vector and string types, we can use a range for or the subscript operator [] to access elements of an array.

When we use a variable to subscript an array, we normally should define that variable to have type <code>size_t</code>. <code>size_t</code> is a machine-specific unsigned type that is guaranteed to be large enough to hold the size of any object in memory. The <code>size_t</code> type is defined in the <code>cstddef</code> header, which is the C++ version of the <code>stddef.h</code> header from the C library. (you often do not need to explicitly include <code>cstddef</code> since many header files have likely included it already.)

³ More details on char array can be found: URL: http://www.cplusplus.com/doc/tutorial/ntcs/

⁴ indeterminate values URL: https://en.cppreference.com/w/c/language/array_initialization

(Example) suppose we have the following array defined,

```
const size_t array_size = 10;
int ia[array_size];
```

(a) How to assign value of each element equal to its index?

```
for (size_t i=0; i != array_size ; ++i)
    ia[i] = i;
```

(b) How to copy one array ia into the other ia2?

```
int ia2[array_size];
for (size_t i=0; i != array_size ; ++i)
    ia2[i] = ia[i];
```

We can use <u>range for loop</u> to access the element in an array as we did for string and vector.

arrAuto.cpp

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main() {
  const size_t array_size = 5;
  int ia[array_size] = {0, 1, 2, 3, 4};
  for (auto& i : ia)
        i += 2;
  for (auto i : ia)
       cout << i << " ";
  cout << endl;
  return 0;
}</pre>
```

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3.5.3. Pointers and Array

When we use the name of an array in an expression, that name is automatically converted into a pointer to the first element of the array:

```
int ia[] = {0,2,4,6,8};
int *ip = ia; // ip points to ia[0]
```

We can use pointer arithmetic to compute a pointer to an element by adding (or subtracting) an integral value to (or from) a pointer to another element in the array:

```
int *ip2 = ip+4; // ip2 points to ia[4]
```

Pointers are Iterators

Pointers to array elements support the same operations as iterators on vectors or strings. For example, we can use the increment operator to move from one element in an array to the next:

```
int arr[] = {0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9};
int *p = arr; // p points to the first element in arr
++p; // p points to arr[1]
```

(C++11) Library begin and end functions

To make it easier and safer to use pointers, the library includes two functions, named begin and end. These functions are defined in <iterator> and act like the similarly named container members.

```
int ia[] = {0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9}; // ia is an array of ten ints
int *beg = begin(ia); // pointer to the first element in ia
int *last = end(ia); // pointer one past the last element in ia
```

Quick Check: how to do the same thing in vector?

A:

```
#include <vector>
...
vector<int> v = {0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9};
auto beg = begin(v); // or v.begin();
auto last = end(v); // or v.end();
```

Using begin and end, it is rather easy to write a loop to process the elements in an array.

```
int arr[20];
int *pbeg = begin(arr), *pend = end(arr);
while (pbeg != pend) {
    //do something
    ++pbeg;
}
```

Quick Check: The following code assign value of each element equal to its index

arrayEx.cpp

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main(){
```

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```
const size_t array_size = 10;
int ia[array_size];
cout << "The contents are: ";
for (size_t ix = 0; ix < array_size; ++ix) {
   ia[ix] = ix;
   cout << ia[ix] << ' ';
}
cout << endl;
return 0;
}</pre>
```

The contents are: 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Rewrite the codes using begin and end.

A:

arrayExIter.cpp

```
#include <iterator>
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main() {
    const size_t array_size = 10;
    int ia[array_size];
    int *pbeg = begin(ia), *pend = end(ia);
    size_t cnt = 0;
    cout << "The contents are: ";
    while (pbeg != pend) {
        *pbeg = cnt++;
        cout << *pbeg++ << ' ';
    }
    cout << endl;
    return 0;
}</pre>
```