Programming Design Pointers

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Outline

- Basics of pointers
- Call by reference/pointer
- Arrays and pointer arithmetic
- Dynamic memory allocation (DMA)

Pointers

- A **pointer** is a variable which stores a **memory address**.
 - An array variable is a pointer.
- To declare a pointer, use *.

```
type pointed* pointer name;
```

type pointed *pointer name;

• Examples:

```
int *ptrInt;
```

double* ptrDou;

- These pointers will store addresses.
- These pointers will store addresses of **int/double** variables.
- We may point to any type.
- To point to different types, use different types of pointers.

Sizes of pointers

- All pointers have the same size.
 - In a 32-bit computer, a pointer is allocated 4 bytes.
 - In a 64-bit computer, a pointer is allocated 8 bytes.

```
int* p1 = 0;
cout << sizeof(p1) << endl; // 8
double* p2 = 0;
cout << sizeof(p2) << endl; // 8</pre>
```

- The length of pointers decides the maximum size of the memory space.
 - $32 \text{ bits: } 2^{32} \text{ bytes} = 4GB.$
 - 64 bits: 2^{64} bytes = ?

Pointer assignment

• We use the **address-of operator &** to obtain a variable's address:

```
pointer name = &variable name
```

- The address-of operator & returns the (beginning) address of a variable.
- Example:
 - ptr points to a, i.e., ptr stores the address of a.

```
int a = 5;
int* ptr = &a;
```

• When assigning an address, the two types must match.

```
int a = 5;
double* ptr = &a; // error!
```

Variables in memory

- int a = 5;
- double b = 10.5;
- int* aPtr = &a;
- double* bPtr = &b;
- cout << &a; // 0x20c644
- cout << &b; // 0x20c660
- cout << &aPtr; // 0x20c658
- cout << &bPtr; // 0x20c64c

Address	Identifier	Value
0x20c644	a	5
0x20c64c	bPtr	0 x 20c660
0x20c650		
0x20c658	aPtr	0x20c644
0 x 20c65c		
0x20c660	b	10.5
0x20c664		

Memory

Address operators

- There are two address operators.
 - &: The address-of operator. It returns a variable's address.
 - *: The dereference operator. It returns the pointed variable (not the value!).
- For int a = 5:
 - a equals 5.
 - &a returns an address (e.g., 0x22ff78).
- For int* ptrA = &a:
 - **ptrA** stores an address (e.g., 0x22ff78).
 - **EptrA** returns the pointer's address (e.g., 0x21aa74). This has nothing to do with the pointed variable **a**.
 - *ptrA returns a, the variable pointed by the pointer.

Address operators

• Example:

```
int a = 10;
int* p1 = &a;
cout << "value of a = " << a << endl;
cout << "value of p1 = " << p1 << endl;
cout << "address of a = " << &a << endl;
cout << "address of p1 = " << &p1 << endl;
cout << "address of p1 = " << &p1 << endl;
cout << "value of the variable pointed by p1 = " << *p1 << endl;</pre>
```

Address operators and NULL

- &: returns a variable's address.
 - We cannot use **&100**, **&(a++)** (because **a++** returns the value of **a**).
 - We can only perform & on a variable.
 - We cannot assign value to &x (&x is a value!).
 - We can get a usual variable's or a pointer variable's address.
- *: returns the pointed variable, **not** its value.
 - We can perform * on a pointer variable.
 - We cannot perform * on a usual variable.
 - We cannot change a variable's address. No operation can do this.
- A pointer pointing to nothing should be assigned **NULL** or **0**.

Address operators and NULL

• Examples:

```
int a = 10;
int* ptr = NULL;
ptr = &a;
cout << *ptr; // ?
*ptr = 5;
cout << a; // ?
a = 18;
cout << *ptr; // ?</pre>
```

```
int a = 10;
int* ptr1 = NULL;
int* ptr2 = NULL;
ptr1 = ptr2 = &a;
cout << *ptr1; // ?
*ptr2 = 5;
cout << *ptr1; // ?
(*ptr1)++;
cout << a; // ?</pre>
```

Address operators and NULL

• Dereferencing a null pointer shutdowns the program (a run-time error).

```
int* p2 = NULL;
cout << "value of p2 = " << p2 << endl;
cout << "address of p2 = " << &p2 << endl;
cout << "the variable pointed by p2 = " << *p2 << endl;</pre>
```

& and * cancel each other

- What is ***&x** if **x** is a variable?
 - &x is the address of x.
 - * (&x) is the variable stored in that address.
 - So \star (&x) is x.
- What is &*x if x is a pointer?
 - If \mathbf{x} is a pointer, \mathbf{x} is the variable stored at \mathbf{x} (\mathbf{x} stores an address!).
 - &*x is the address of *x, which is exactly x.
- What is &*x if x is not a pointer?

Good programming style

- Initialize a pointer variable as 0 or **NULL** if no initial value is available.
 - 0 is the standard in C++, while NULL is the standard in C. But they are the same for representing "null pointer".
 - By using **NULL**, everyone knows the variable must be a pointer, and you are not talking about a number or character.
- Without an initialization, a pointer points to **somewhere**... And we do not know where it is!
 - Accessing an unknown address results in unpredictable results.
- In general, when you get a run time error or different outcomes for multiple executions, check your arrays and pointers.

Good programming style

• As a bad example:

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

int main()
{
   int* ptrArray[10000];
   for(int i = 0; i < 10000; i++)
      cout << i << " " << *ptrArray[i] << "\n";
   return 0;
}</pre>
```

Good programming style

- When we use * in **declaring** a pointer, that * is not a dereference operator.
 - It is just a special syntax for declaring a pointer variable.
- I prefer to view **int*** as a type, which represents an "integer pointer".
- Therefore, I prefer "int* p" to "int *p".
- Be careful:

```
int* p, q; // p is int*, q is int
int *p, *q; // two pointers
int* p, *q; // two pointers
int* p, * q; // two pointers
```

• I use multiple statements to declare multiple pointers.

Outline

- The basics of pointers
- Call by reference/pointer
- Arrays and pointer arithmetic
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References and pointers

• Recall this example:

```
void swap (int x, int y);
int main()
  int a = 10, b = 20;
  cout << a << " " << b << endl;
  swap(a, b);
  cout << a << " " << b << endl;
void swap (int x, int y)
  int temp = x;
  x = y;
  y = temp;
```

References and pointers

- When invoking a function and passing parameters, the default scheme is to "call by value" (or "pass by value").
 - The function declares its own local variables, using a copy of the arguments' values as initial values.
 - Thus we swapped the two local variables declared in the function, not the original two we want to swap.
- To solve this, we can use "call by reference" or "call by pointer."
 - They are somewhat different, but the principle is the same.
 - It is enough to know and use only one of them.

Call by reference

- A reference is a variable's alias.
- The reference is another variable that refers to the variable.
- Thus, using the reference is the same as using the variable.

```
int c = 10;
int& d = c; // declare d as c's reference
d = 20;
cout << c << endl; // 20</pre>
```

- int& d = c is to declare d as c's reference.
 - This & is different from the & operator which returns a variable's address.
- int& d = 10 is an error.
 - A literal cannot have an alias!

Call by reference

- Now we know how to change a parameter's value:
 - Instead of declaring a usual local variable as a parameter, declare a reference variable.
- This is to "call by reference".

```
void swap (int& x, int& y);
int main()
  int a = 10, b = 20;
  cout << a << " " << b << endl;
  swap(a, b);
  cout << a << " " << b << endl;
void swap (int& x, int& y)
  int temp = x;
  x = y;
  y = temp;
```

Call by reference

- Thus we can call by reference and modify our parameters' value.
- When calling by reference, the only thing you have to do is to add an & in the parameter declaration in the function header.
- Mostly people use references only to call by reference.
- View the & in declaration as a part of type.

```
- I use int& a = b; instead of int &a = b;.
```

```
void swap (int& x, int& y);
int main()
{
  int a = 10, b = 20;
  swap(a, b);
}
```

Call by pointers

- To call by pointers:
 - Declare a pointer variable as a parameter.
 - Pass a pointer variable or an address (returned by &) at invokation.
- For the **swap ()** example:

```
void swap(int* ptrA, int* ptrB)
{
  int temp = *ptrA;
  *ptrA = *ptrB;
  *ptrB = temp;
}
```

• Invocation becomes swap (&a, &b);

Call by pointers

• How about the following implementation?

```
void swap(int* ptrA, int* ptrB)
{
  int* temp = ptrA;
  ptrA = ptrB;
  ptrB = temp;
}
```

- Invocation: swap (&a, &b);
- Will the two arguments be swapped? What really happens?

Call by pointers

- The principle behind calling by reference and calling by pointer is the same.
- You can view calling by reference as a special tool made by using pointers.
- Do not mix references and pointers!
 - E.g., we cannot pass a pointer variable or an address to a reference!
- You can use calling by reference in most situations, and it is clearer and more convenient than calling by pointer.
 - When you just want to modify arguments or return several values, call by reference.
 - When you really have to do something by pointers, call by pointer.

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Pointers and arrays

- An array variable is a pointer!
 - It records the address of the first element of the array.
 - When passing an array, we pass a pointer.
 - The array indexing operator [] indicates offsetting.
- To further understand this issue, let's study **pointer arithmetic**.
 - Using +, -, ++, and -- on pointers.

Pointer arithmetic

- Usually, one arbitrary address returned by performing arithmetic on a pointer variable is useless.
- The arithmetic is useful (and should be used) only when you can predict a variable's address.
 - In particular, when variables are stored consecutively.

```
int a = 10;
int* ptr = &a;
cout << ptr++;
   // just an address
   // we don't know what's here
cout << *ptr;
   // dangerous!</pre>
```

Pointer Arithmetic: ++ and --

- ++: Increment the pointer variable's value by the number of bytes occupied by a variable in this type (i.e., point to the **next** variable).
 - E.g., for integer pointers, the value (an address) increases by 4 (bytes).
- --: Decrement the pointer variable's value by the number of bytes a variable in this type occupies (i.e., point to the **previous** variable).

```
double a[3] = {10.5, 11.5, 12.5};
double* b = &a[0];
cout << *b << " " << b << endl; // 10.5
b = b + 2;
cout << *b << " " << b << endl; // 12.5
b--;
cout << *b << " " << b << endl; // 11.5</pre>
```

Pointer Arithmetic: -

- We cannot add two address.
- However, we can find the difference of two addresses.

```
double a[3] = {10.5, 11.5, 12.5};
double* b = &a[0];
double* c = &a[2];
cout << c - b << endl; // 2, not 16!</pre>
```

Pointers and arrays

• Changing the value stored in a pointer is dangerous:

```
int y[3] = {1, 2, 3};
int* x = y;
for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
   cout << *(x + i) << " "; // 1 2 3
for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
   cout << *(x++) << " "; // 1 2 3
for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
   cout << *(x + i) << " "; // unpredictable</pre>
```

Indexing and pointer arithmetic

• The array indexing operator [] is just an **interface** for doing pointer arithmetic.

```
int x[3] = {1, 2, 3};
for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
  cout << x[i] << " "; // x[i] == *(x + i)
for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
  cout << *(x++) << " "; // error!</pre>
```

- An array variable (e.g., x) stores an address, but ++ and -- work only on pointer variables.
- Interface: a (typically safer and easier) way of completing a task.
 - x[i] and *(x + i) are identical.
 - But using the former is safer and easier.

Example: insertion sort

- Consider the **insertion sort** taught last time.
 - Given a unsorted array A of length n, we first sort A[0:(n-2)], and then insert A[n-1] to the sorted part.
 - To complete this task, we do this **recursively**.
- What if we want to **first sort** A[1:(n-1)], and then insert A[0]?
- We will need to implement a function:
 - void insertionSort(int array[], const int n);
 - Given array, each time when we (recursively) invoke it, we pass a shorter array formed by elements from array[1] to array[n 1].
 - How?

Example: insertion sort

```
void insertionSort(int array[], const int n) {
  if(n > 1) {
    insertionSort(array + 1, n - 1);
    int num1 = array[0];
    int i = 1;
    for(; i < n; i++) {
      if(array[i] < num1)</pre>
        array[i - 1] = array[i];
      else
        break;
    array[i - 1] = num1;
```

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Static memory allocation

- In C/C++, we declare an array by specifying it's length as a constant variable or a literal.
 - int a[100];
- A memory space will be allocated to an array during the compilation time.
 - 400 bytes will be allocated for the above statement.
- This is called "static memory allocation".
- We may decide the length of an array "dynamically".
 - That is, during the **run** time.
- To do so, we must use a different syntax.
 - All types of variables may also be declared in this way.

Dynamic memory allocation

- The operator new allocates a memory space and returns the address.
 - In C, we use a different keyword **melloc**.
- **new int**; allocates 4 bytes without recording the address.
- int* a = new int; makes a store the address of the space.
- int* a = new int(5); makes the space contains 5 as the value.
- int* a = new int[5]; allocates 20 bytes (for 5 integers).
 - a points to the first integer.
- Dynamically allocated arrays **cannot be initialized** with a single statement.
 - A loop, for example, is needed.

Dynamic memory allocation

- All of these spaces are allocated during the **run time**.
- So we may write

```
int len = 0;
cin >> len;
int* a = new int[len];
```

• This allocates a space according to the input from users.

Dynamic memory allocation

- A space allocated during the run time has **no name!**
 - On the other hand, every space allocated during compilation time has a name.
- To access a dynamically-allocated space, we use a **pointer** to store its address.

```
int len = 0;
cin >> len; // 3
int* a = new int[len];
for (int i = 0; i < len; i++)
a[i] = i + 1;</pre>
```

Address	Identifier	Value
0x20c644	N/A	1
0x20c648		2
0x20c64c		3
0x20c650		
0x20c654		
0x20c658	len	3
0x20c65c		
0x20c660	a	0x20c644
0x20c664		

Memory

Example: Fibonacci sequence

- Recall the repetitive implementation of generating the Fibonacci sequence.
- After we get the value of sequence length *n*, we dynamically declare an array of length *n*.
- Then just use that array!

```
double fibRepetitive (int n)
{
  if (n = 1)
    return 1;
  else if (n = 2)
    return 1;
  double* fib = new double[n];
  fib[0] = 1;
  fib[1] = 1;
  for (int i = 2; i < n; i++)
    fib[i] = fib[i - 1] + fib[i - 2];
  double result = fib[n - 1];
  delete[] fib; // to be explained
  return result;
```

Memory leak

- For spaces allocated during the compilation time, the system will release these spaces automatically when the corresponding variables no longer exist.
- For spaces allocated during the **run** time, the system will **NOT** release these spaces unless it is asked to do so.
 - Because the space has no name!

```
void func (int a)
{
  double b;
} // 4 + 8 bytes are released
```

```
void func()
{
  int* bPtr = new int[10];
}
// 8 bytes for bPtr are released
// 40 bytes for integers are not
```

Memory leak

• Programmers must keep a record for all spaced allocated dynamically.

- This problem is called **memory leak**.
 - We lose the control of allocated spaces.
 - These spaces are wasted.
 - They will not be released unit the program ends.

Memory leak

- Try this carefully!
 - The outcome may be different on your computer.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
  for (int i = 0; i++)
    int* ptr = new int[10000];
    cout << i << "\n";
    // delete [] ptr;
  return 0;
```

Releasing spaces manually

• The **delete** operator will release a dynamically-allocated space.

• The **delete** operator will do nothing to the pointer. To avoid reuse the released space, set the pointer to **NULL**.

```
int* a = new int;
delete a; // a is still pointing to the address
a = NULL; // now a points to nothing
int* b = new int[5];
delete [] b; // b is still pointing to the address
b = NULL; // now b points to nothing
```

Good programming style

- Use DMA for arrays with **no predetermined** length.
 - Even though Dev-C++ (and many other compilers) converts

```
int a = 10;
int b[a];

to

int a = 10;
int* b = new int[a];
```

- To avoid memory leak:
 - Whenever you write a **new** statement, add a **delete** statement below immediately (unless you know you really do not need it).
 - Whenever you want to change the value of a pointer, check whether memory leak occurs.
 - Whenever you write a **delete** statement, set the pointer to **NULL**.

Two-dimensional dynamic arrays

- With static arrays, we may create matrices as two-dimensional arrays.
- An *m* by *n* two-dimensional array has:
 - *m* rows (single-dimensional arrays).
 - Each row has *n* elements.
- With dynamic arrays, we now may create matrices with different row lengths.
 - We may still have *m* rows.
 - Now each row may have different number of elements.
 - E.g., a lower triangular matrix.

Example: lower triangular arrays

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int print(int** arr, int r)
  for (int i = 0; i < r; i++)
    for (int j = 0; j < i; j++)
      cout << arr[i][j] << " ";
    cout << "\n";
```

```
int main()
  int r = 10;
  int** array = new int*[r];
  for(int i = 0; i < r; i++)
    array[i] = new int[i + 1];
    for (int j = 0; j \le i; j++)
      array[i][j] = j + 1;
  print(array, r);
  return 0;
```

A pointer for pointers

- int* array = new int[10]; declares a pointer for integers.
- int** array = new int*[10]; declares a pointer for integer pointers!
 - The type of array[0] is int*.
 - The type of array[1] is int*.
- Then each of these **int*** may point to one or multiple integers.
 - And their lengths can be different.

```
int r = 10;
int** array = new int*[r];
for(int i = 0; i < r; i++)
    array[i] = new int[i + 1];</pre>
```