Arrays & Pointers

Project One

- You should be working on this, if you're not already
- Due Friday, midnight-ish
- Any questions on this?

mehr Bericht!

- What are the three types of loops in C++?
- What does **break** do? **continue**?
- What does a C++ function look like?
- What does the **return** keyword do, and how is it used?
- What's in a header file?
- What is pass-by-reference?

```
#include <iostream>
int main()
\{int a = 10, b = 15;
  swap( a, b );
  return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
void swap( int a, int b )
\{int temp = a;
  a = b;b = temp;}
```
review:

What does this need to work?

Default Arguments

- This is a nifty way to specify defaults for some (or all) arguments to a function
- When you're calling that function, you don't have to specify every argument if there is a default
- Very handy, very widely used

Default Arguments Example

```
void printLetterOnScreen( char letter,
                            int xPos = 10, int yPos = 10,
                             int repeatCnt = 1 )
{
  // do stuff
}
```
printLetterOnScreen('g'); printLetterOnScreen('p', 15); printLetterOnScreen('w', 15, 42); printLetterOnScreen('x', 15, 42, 5); These are all valid ways to call this function:

Default Arguments Example

```
void printLetterOnScreen( char letter,
                            int xPos = 10, int yPos = 10,
                             int repeatCnt = 1 )
{
  // do stuff
}
```
- Only *trailing* arguments can have default values
	- If a argument has a default, *all* of the following arguments also need them
- When calling a function, "skipping" arguments is illegal

printLetterOnScreen('p', 15);

15 will be the value of xPos, not yPos or repeatCnt \cdot

Default Arguments and Function Prototypes

- By convention, default arguments usually go in the the function prototype
- They can also be put in the function definition itself - but *not* in both places
	- some compilers allow this, as long as the default arguments match - g++ doesn't

Function Overloading

- Don't be fooled by the scary-sounding name: function overloading is a *good* thing!
- The idea: multiple functions can be defined with the same name
- The compiler will automatically pick which function to call, based on the number and type of arguments

overloading examples which function gets called?

```
void blegh( char letter )
\left\{ \right.}
void blegh( char letter, int reps )
\{}
void blegh( int number )
\{}
void blegh( float realNum )
\{}
void blegh( bool maybe )
\left\{ \right.}
                                               blegh( 25 );
                                               blegh( 'a' );
                                               blegh( false );
                                               blegh( 'q', 5 );
                                               blegh(5 > 2);
                                               blegh( 97, 5 );
                                               blegh( 32.0 );
```
Ambiguity

- When the compiler can't figure out which version of an overloaded function to call, the function is said to be **ambiguous**
- This isn't always obvious, as you saw with the 32.0
- The previous example, now with a default parameter:

```
void blegh( char letter )
\mathcal{L}}
void blegh( char letter, int reps = 0 )
{
}
```
blegh('a'); goes to which function?

These are ambiguous, so you get a compiler error

Overloading and return types

• Overloaded functions need to have differing *parameters* - different *return types* is not enough

```
int doStuff()
{
  // ...
}
```

```
double doStuff()
{
  // ...
}
```
- This will cause a compiler error
- Why do you think this is?

The Problem:

- What if we wanted to store the first 8 elements of the Fibonacci sequence? (1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21)
- You could use variables, but that would be clumsy...

```
int fib1 = 1; // not good
int fib2 = 1;...
int fib8 = 21;
```


Arrays: a solution

- Data structure built into C++
- Arrays are a consecutive group of memory locations that have the same type, and are all referred to by the same name
	- i.e., 10 integers in a row, all referred to by the same name - listOfGrades
- Think of a list in everyday life except each element in the list has the same type

example with initialization:

int $listOfNumS[5] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};$

- What are the initial values of these?
- Size of the array has to be determined at compile time and can't be changed later (sort of)

Array Indices

- What is an array index? (starts at **0**, not **¹**!)
- Using the array name, along with the array index, an array location can be treated just like a variable:

```
int testArray[10];
// writing into an array
testArray[5] = 234;// reading from an array
cout << testArray[3*2] << endl;
```
• Example with a for loop...

Array Storage

- The elements of an array are stored *consecutively* in memory
- int listOfNums[5] = $\{10, -2, 13, 94, -25\}$;

How Arrays Work

- To figure out how to access an array element, the compiler/program needs:
	- the base address of the array in memory
	- the index of the element
	- the size of the data type in bytes

element address = base address + (data size $*$ index)

- This works because arrays are stored contiguously
- First element of an array is at **0**, not **1**!

Passing Arrays to Functions

• To pass an array to a function, you use this notation:

• Let's write this function...

Another example

• Let's write a function to determine and return the biggest and smallest value in an array of floats.

More about Arrays

- Arrays are passed by reference, *and here's why*:
	- What is actually getting passed is the *address* of the beginning of the chunk of memory the array's first value
- Can we make copies of an array like this? Why or why not?

```
int arrayOne[5] = {1,2,3,4,5};
int arrayTwo[5];
arrayTwo = arrayOne;
```
Multidimensional Arrays

- You can declare arrays with as many dimensions as you want
- All elements still are the same type, though

```
// declaring
int array[2][2] = { {1,2}, {3,4}} ;// using
cout << array[0][0] << endl;
cout \lt\lt array[1][1] \lt\lt endl;
```
Pointers!!!

Pointers!!!

- Pointers are one of the most powerful (and tricky) features of C/C++
- ^A**pointer** is a kind of variable that contains a memory location as its value
	- The pointer is "pointing" to whatever is in that memory location

int *pointer = NULL;

either make the pointer point somewhere, or assign NULL so it doesn't point somewhere unintended

name follows the standard C++ variable naming rules

***** lets the compiler know that this is a pointer variable

pointers must have a type - lets the compiler know that this pointer is pointing to an **int**, for example

Pointer Anatomy

declaring pointers

• The ***** modifies the variable name, not the type!

```
int* a, b;
int jennysNumber = 8675309;
```
- In this example, **a** is a pointer to an integer... **b** is just a plain old integer, not a pointer
- This will not compile.

Making the Pointer "Point" Somewhere

- Pointers store the *address* of a variable.
- You *get* the address of something with the reference (or address-of) operator: **&**

```
int count = 5;int *countPtr = &count;
```
• **&** is a unary operator that returns the memory address of its operand

NULL pointers

• A pointer that doesn't point to anything is known as a **null pointer**

• Pointers should *always* be initialized! Make them point somewhere, or make them a null pointer. (What happens if you don't?)

"Using Pointers"

• What does the following code output?

```
int count = 5;int *countPtr = &count;
cout << countPtr << endl;
```
- The numeric value of a pointer is almost never useful - we mainly care about what the pointer points to
- When *is* the numeric value useful?

"Using Pointers" 2 *(electric boogaloo)*

• Introducing: another use for the ***** symbol, this time known as a **dereference operator**

```
int count = 5;int *countPtr = &count;
cout << *countPtr << endl;
```
this code will print out **5**

• ***** in front of a pointer means: "return the value of what this is pointing to". This is known as *dereferencing* the pointer

One *, two meanings

• When you see $a * in a variable declaration$, after a type, then you are *declaring a pointer*.

```
int* thisIsAPointer;
char* lassie;
```
• When you see a * before variable (or expression) that's *not being declared*, it's a dereference.

```
cout << *pointer << endl;
number += *count;
```
Son of "Using Pointers" So:

& gets returns the address of a variable

and:

***** takes an address and returns the value of what is at that address

& and ***** are sort of each others' inverses:

int gazonk = 5; cout << *(&gazonk) << endl;

"Using Pointers" Strikes Back

- Dereferencing is what gets you into trouble if your pointers are somehow incorrect!
- This is the root cause of many, many, many bugs in software

what do these do?

int *ptr = NULL; cout << *ptr << endl;

int *ptr2; cout << *ptr2 << endl;

One more time...

```
int* var = 1234;
```
// what does this do? var = 89;

// how about this one? $*var = 89;$

Why do we care about any of this pointer stuff?

• Pointers allow:

- dynamic memory allocation of stuff
- complicated data structures
- iterating through strings
- ... and much much more

Pointers and Arrays

- Simply put:
	- an array **is** a pointer it points to the first element of the array.
	- A pointer can be used exactly like an array

```
int numbers[] = {4,8,15,16,23,42};int *array = numbers;
cout << numbers[2] << endl;
```
• At this point, numbers and array are basically equivalent!

Pointer Arithmetic

- Pointers are variables, and you can do math on them...
- ... but it's not the kind of math you're probably expecting.
- What would this do?

```
int quux = 42;int *ptr = &quux;
ptr *= 2;
```
Pointer Arithmetic 2

- Only addition and subtraction are allowed
	- The other arithmetic ops make no sense!
- The math doesn't work the way you'd expect:

```
int numbers[] = \{4, 8, 15, 16, 23, 42\};
int *ptr = numbers;
ptr++;
```
• If ptr was pointing to memory location 8064 before, where is it pointing now?

```
int numbers[] = \{4, 8, 15, 16, 23, 42\};
int *ptr = numbers;
ptr++;
```
- If ptr was pointing to memory location 8064 before, where is it pointing now?
- Pointer arithmetic units are the *same as the type size!*
- Aka, **int** pointers work in units of 4, because the size of an **int** is 4 bytes
- This is handy: in this example, what value is ptr pointing to now?

int numbers[] = $\{4, 8, 15, 16, 23, 42\}$; **int ***ptr = numbers;

What are some different ways to refer to the third element of this array, 15?

What would happen if we did this: ptr += 3;

Grokking Pointers

- How could we make a swap function with pointers instead of pass-by-reference?
- How would you declare (and use) a pointer to a pointer?
- Can you have two pointers that point to the same variable?

Pointer Quizlet

```
int main()
\{ float ff = 5.5;
   float* ptr = &ff;cout << " 1: " << &ff << endl;
   cout << " 2: " << ptr << endl;
    cout << " 3: " << &ptr << endl;
    cout << " 4: " << *ptr << endl;
    cout << " 5: " << ff << endl;
    cout << " 6: " << *&ff << endl;
    return 0;
}
```
Scope and Lifetime

- **Scope** is the context in which a C++ variable name exists.You can use the same variable name in two (or more) functions, because the functions will have different scopes.
- Scope is defined by curly brackets: $\{\}$

Local Scope

• Each function has its own scope - variables that are usable between the functions starting and ending curly brackets { }

```
int doSomething( int quux )
{ 
   int foo = 0;
   while( value < 10 )
    \mathbf{f}int count =0;
       ...
   }
    int baz; 
} {
                                         foo and quux
                                        are visible within
                                        this scope.What
                                           about baz?
```
Local Scope Part Deux

• A while loop (or *any* set of curly brackets) will create its own scope, and can have its own variables.

```
int doSomething( int quux )
\{int foo = 0;
    while( value < 10 )
    { 
        int count =0;
        ...
    }
    int baz; 
}
```
count is only visible within the scope of the while loop.

Local Scope #3

$$
for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
$$

$$
\{ \cdots \}
$$

what's the scope for **or** loop these variables?

functions and for loops have variables declared in their headers - the scope of those is the scope of the function

```
int doSomething( int quux )
\{...
}
```


Global Scope

- A function declaration in global scope: a global function
- A variable declaration in global scope: a global variable (or object)
- A global object is visible from everywhere: exists throughout the duration of the program

```
int GLOBAL = 42;int main()
\{ return 0;
}
```
Global Variables ==

- Mostly.
- Why? Using global variables in a function can hide the behavior of the function.
- Any function can modify a global variable changing the behavior of other functions that might use it.
- When are globals useful?

Lifetimes of Variables

- A lifetime is how long a variable "lives" how long the program keeps memory allocated for it
- Local variables are "born" when the program enters their scope.They "die" when when the program leaves their scope.
- What is the lifetime of a global variable?

Static Memory

- So far we've been dealing with **static memory** variables allocated statically, at compile time.
- Static memory is declared *on the stack*
- Static memory is very easy for the compiler to deal with:
	- amount of memory fixed at compile time
	- no chance of memory leaks
- Downside(s) of static memory?

Dynamic Memory

- **Dynamic memory** is more powerful you don't need to know the size until runtime
- Can be used as necessary
- Dynamic memory comes from *the heap* a pool of memory set aside for this
- Downside(s) of dynamic memory?

Dynamic Allocation

• Memory is dynamically allocated through...

• POINTERS!!!!!!!! (woo!)

introducing the new keyword:

```
int* foo = new int;
```
• This syntax allocates a *single int*. You can also do this for arrays:

 $int*$ baz = **new** $int[50]$;

Yet Another Review:

int* foo = **new int**;

foo is a dynamically allocated integer. How do we use it?

 $int*$ baz = **new** $int[50]$;

baz is a dynamically allocated *array* of integers. How do we use it?

How are these two things different?

dynamic arrays

- Arrays allocated via dynamic memory are used *exactly* the same way that arrays allocated statically are.
- Only one minor difference regarding the array pointer variable - anybody remember what it is?

Some Questions

- When does the life of a *statically* allocated variable end?
	- When does the life of a *dynamically* allocated variable end?

for(int $i = 0$; $i < 10$; $i++)$ $\left\{ \right.$ int array = new $int[15]$; ... }

Cleaning Up

- See the problem with the above code?
- Static variables get de-allocated right when they go out of scope dynamic variables *need to be deleted explicitly!*
- Otherwise you get memory leaks

Memory Leaks

- When you use a pointer to dynamically allocate memory...
- ... and the pointer goes out of scope before you have *deallocated* the memory...
- Then you have a memory leak.
- These are (usually) cleaned up by the operating system after the program exits, but the program can still run out of memory while it is running

Cleaning Up

• Single objects, allocated with **new**, get cleaned up with the keyword **delete**:

```
int* foo = new int;
...
delete foo;
```
• Arrays, allocated with **new** and **[]**, get cleaned up with the keyword **delete[]**:

```
int* baz = new int[10];
...
delete[] baz;
```


Fun with delete!

- What happens if we try and **delete** an *array* of dynamically allocated stuff?
- What if we try and **delete**^a pointer that has been assigned the address of a static variable?
- What if we try to **delete[]**^a pointer that has been allocated with a single **new**?

Useless Program Time!

Let's write a program that gets a number from the user, dynamically an array of that size, fills it with n powers of two, and prints 'em all out.

