

## 18. Dynamic Data Structures I

Dynamic Memory, Addresses and Pointers, Const-Pointer Arrays, Array-based Vectors

### Recap: `vector<T>`

- Can be initialised with arbitrary size `n`
- Supports various operations:

```
e = v[i];           // Get element
v[i] = e;           // Set element
l = v.size();        // Get size
v.push_front(e);     // Prepend element
v.push_back(e);      // Append element
...
```

- A vector is a *dynamic data structure*, whose size may change at runtime

### Our Own Vector!

- Today, we'll implement our own vector: `vec`
- Step 1: `vec<int>` (today)
- Step 2: `vec<T>` (later, only superficially)

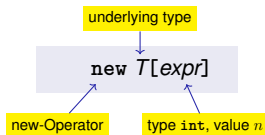
### Vectors in Memory

Already known: A vector has a *contiguous* memory layout



**Question:** How to *allocate* a chunk of memory of *arbitrary* size during runtime, i.e. *dynamically*?

## new for Arrays

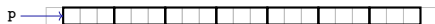
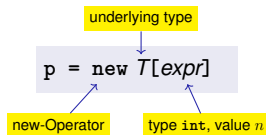


- **Effect:** new contiguous chunk of memory  $n$  elements of type  $T$  is allocated



- This chunk of memory is called an *array* (of length  $n$ )

## new for Arrays



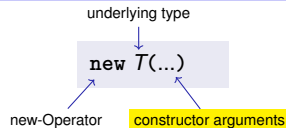
- **Type:** A pointer  $T^*$  (more soon)
- **Value:** the starting address of the memory chunk

## Outlook: new and delete

`new T[expr]`

- So far: memory (local variables, function arguments) "lives" only inside a function call
- But now: memory chunk inside vector must not "die" before the vector itself
- Memory allocated with `new` is *not* automatically deallocated (= released)
- Every `new` must have a matching `delete` that releases the memory explicitly → **in two weeks**

## new (Without Arrays)



- **Effect:** memory for a new object of type  $T$  is allocated ...
- ... and initialized by means of the matching constructor
- **Value:** address of the new  $T$  object, **Type:** Pointer  $T^*$
- Also true here: object "lives" until deleted explicitly (usefulness will become clearer later)

# Pointer Types

**T\*** Pointer type for base type T

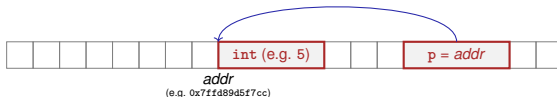
An expression of type T\* is called *pointer (to T)*

```
int* p; // Pointer to an int
std::string* q; // Pointer to a std::string
```

# Pointer Types

Value of a pointer to T is the *address* of an object of type T

```
int* p = ...;
std::cout << p; // e.g. 0x7ffd89d5f7cc
```



# Address Operator

*Question:* How to obtain an object's address?

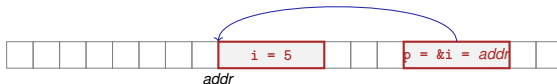
- 1 Directly, when creating a new object via **new**
- 2 For existing objects: via the *address operator* **&**

**&expr** ← I-value of type T

- **Value** of the expression: the *address* of object (I-value) *expr*
- **Type** of the expression: A pointer T\* (of type T)

# Address Operator

```
int i = 5; // i initialised with 5
int* p = &i; // p initialised with address of i
```



*Next question:* How to “follow” a pointer?

## Dereference Operator

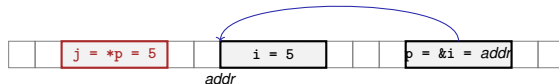
*Answer:* by using the *dereference operator* `*`

`*expr` ← r-value of type  $T^*$

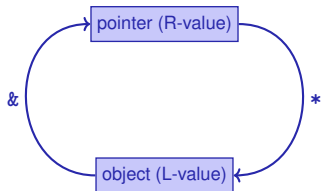
- **Value** of the expression: the *value* of the object located at the address denoted by *expr*
- **Type** of the expression:  $T$

## Dereference Operator

```
int i = 5;  
int* p = &i; // p = address of i  
int j = *p; // j = 5
```



## Address and Dereference Operator



## Pointer Types

A  $T^*$  must actually point to a  $T$

```
int* p = ...; // p points to an int  
double* q = p; // but q to a double → compiler error!
```

## Mnemonic Trick

The declaration

```
T* p; // p is of the type "pointer to T"
```

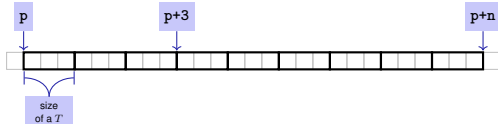
can be read as

```
T *p; // *p is of type T
```

Although this is legal, we do not write it like this!

## Pointer Arithmetic: Pointer plus `int`

```
T* p = new T[n]; // p points to first array element
```



How to point to rear elements? → *Pointer arithmetic*:

- `p` yields the *value* of the *first* array element, `*p` its *value*
- `*(p + i)` yields the value of the *i*th array element, for  $0 \leq i < n$
- `*p` is equivalent to `*(p + 0)`

## Null-Pointer

- Special pointer value that signals that no object is pointed to
- represented by the literal `nullptr` (convertible to `T*`)

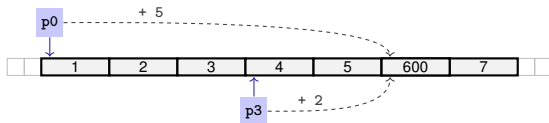
```
int* p = nullptr;
```

- Cannot be dereferenced (runtime error)
- Exists to avoid undefined behaviour

```
int* p; // p could point to anything  
int* q = nullptr; // q explicitly points nowhere
```

## Pointer Arithmetic: Pointer plus `int`

```
int* p0 = new int[7]{1,2,3,4,5,6,7}; // p0 points to 1st element  
int* p3 = p0 + 3; // p3 points to 4th element  
*(p3 + 2) = 600; // set value of 6th element to 600  
std::cout << *(p0 + 5); // output 6th element's value (i.e. 600)
```



## Pointer Arithmetic: Pointer minus int

- If  $ptr$  is a pointer to the element with index  $k$  in an array  $a$  with length  $n$
  - and the value of  $expr$  is an integer  $i$ ,  $0 \leq k - i \leq n$ ,
- then the expression

$ptr - expr$

provides a pointer to an element of  $a$  with index  $k - i$ .



## Pointer Operators

Description	Op	Arity	Precedence	Associativity	Assignment
Subscript	[ ]	2	17	left	R-value $\rightarrow$ L-value
Dereference	*	1	16	right	R-Wert $\rightarrow$ L-Wert
Address	&	1	16	rechts	L-value $\rightarrow$ R-value

Precedences and associativities of  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $++$  (etc.) as in Chapter 2

## Pointer Subtraction

- If  $p1$  and  $p2$  point to elements of the same array  $a$  with length  $n$
- and  $0 \leq k_1, k_2 \leq n$  are the indices corresponding to  $p1$  and  $p2$ , then

$p1 - p2$  has value  $k_1 - k_2$

Only valid if  $p1$  and  $p2$  point into the same array.

- The pointer difference describes “how far away the elements are from each other”

## Pointers are not Integers!

- Addresses can be interpreted as house numbers of the memory, that is, integers
- But integer and pointer arithmetic behave differently.

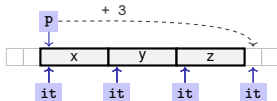
$ptr + 1$  is *not* the next house number but the *s*-next, where *s* is the memory requirement of an object of the type behind the pointer  $ptr$ .

- Integers and pointers are not compatible

```
int* ptr = 5; // error: invalid conversion from int to int*
int a = ptr;  // error: invalid conversion from int* to int
```

## Sequential Pointer Iteration

```
char* p = new char[3]{'x', 'y', 'z'};
```



```
for (char* it = p;   
    it != p + 3;   
    ++it) {   
    std::cout << *it << ' ';   
}
```

Annotations:   
- `it points to first element` (points to `it = p`)   
- `Abort if end reached` (points to `it != p + 3`)   
- `Advance pointer element-wise` (points to `++it`)   
- `Output current element: 'x'` (points to `*it`)

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## Random Access to Arrays

iteration over an array via indices and *random access*:

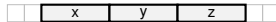
```
char* p = new char[3]{'x', 'y', 'z'};
```

```
for (int i = 0; i < 3; ++i)   
    std::cout << p[i] << ' ';
```

*But:* this is less *efficient* than the previously shown *sequential* access via pointer iteration

## Random Access to Arrays

```
char* p = new char[3]{'x', 'y', 'z'};
```

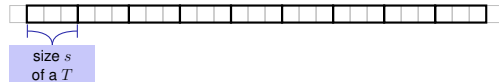


- The expression `*(p + i)`
- can also be written as `p[i]`
- E.g. `p[1] == *(p + 1) == 'y'`

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## Random Access to Arrays

```
T* p = new T[n];
```



- Access `p[i]`, i.e. `*(p + i)`, “costs” computation  $p + i \cdot s$
- Iteration via *random access* (`p[0]`, `p[1]`, ...) costs one addition and one multiplication per access
- Iteration via *sequential access* (`++p`, `++p`, ...) costs only one addition per access
- Sequential access is thus to be preferred for iterations

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## Reading a book ... with random access sequential access

### Random Access

- open book on page 1
- close book
- open book on pages 2-3
- close book
- open book on pages 4-5
- close book
- ....

### Sequential Access

- open book on page 1
- turn the page
- turn the page
- turn the page
- turn the page
- ...

... with

## Static Arrays

- `int* p = new int[expr]` creates a dynamic array of size `expr`
- C++ has inherited *static* arrays from its predecessor language C:  
`int a[cexpr]`
- Static arrays have, among others, the disadvantage that their size `cexpr` must be a constant. I.e. `cexpr` can, e.g. be 5 or `4*3+2`, but kein von der Tastatur eingelesener Wert `n`.
- A static array variable `a` can be used just like a pointer
- Rule of thumb: Vectors are better than dynamic arrays, which are better than static arrays

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## Arrays in Functions

C++ *convention*: arrays (or a segment of it) are passed using two pointers



- `begin`: Pointer to the first element
- `end`: Pointer *past* the last element
- `[begin, end)` Designates the elements of the segment of the array
- `[begin, end)` is empty if `begin == end`
- `[begin, end)` must be a *valid range*, i.e. a (pot. empty) array segment

## Arrays in (mutating) Functions: fill

```
// PRE: [begin, end) is a valid range
// POST: Every element within [begin, end) was set to value
void fill(int* begin, int* end, int value) {
    for (int* p = begin; p != end; ++p)
        *p = value;
}

...
int* p = new int[5];
fill(p, p+5, 1); // Array at p becomes {1, 1, 1, 1, 1}
```

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## Functions with/without Effect

- Pointers can (like references) be used for functions with effect.  
Example: `fill`
- But many functions don't have an effect, they only read the data
- $\Rightarrow$  Use of `const`
- So far, for example:

```
const int zero = 0;  
const int& nil = zero;
```

## Positioning of Const

Where does the `const`-modifier belong to?

`const T` is equivalent to `T const` (and can be written like this):

```
const int zero = ...  $\iff$  int const zero = ...  
const int& nil = ...  $\iff$  int const& nil = ...
```

Both keyword orders are used in praxis

## Const and Pointers

Read the declaration from right to left

<code>int const p;</code>	<code>p</code> is a constant integer
<code>int const* p;</code>	<code>p</code> is a pointer to a constant integer
<code>int* const p;</code>	<code>p</code> is a constant pointer to an integer
<code>int const* const p;</code>	<code>p</code> is a constant pointer to a constant integer

## Non-mutating Functions: `print`

There are also *non*-mutating functions that access elements of an array only in a read-only fashion

```
// PRE: [begin, end) is a valid range  
// POST: The values in [begin, end) were printed  
void print(  
    int const* const begin, ← Const pointer to const int  
    const int* const end) ← Likewise (but different keyword order)  
{  
    for (int const* p = begin; p != end; ++p)  
        std::cout << *p << ' ';  
}
```

Pointer, *not const*, to const int

Pointer `p` may itself not be `const` since it is mutated (`++p`)

## const is not absolute

- The value at an address can change even if a `const`-pointer stores this address.

### beispiel

```
int a[5];
const int* begin1 = a;
int*      begin2 = a;
*begin1 = 1;    // error *begin1 is const
*begin2 = 1;    // ok, although *begin will be modified
```

- `const` is a promise from the point of view of the `const`-pointer, not an absolute guarantee

## Wow – Palindromes!

```
// PRE: [begin end) is a valid range of characters
// POST: returns true if the range forms a palindrome
bool is_palindrome (const char* begin, const char* end) {
    while (begin < end)
        if (*(begin++) != *(--end)) return false;
    return true;
}
```



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## Arrays, new, Pointer: Conclusion

- Arrays are contiguous chunks of memory of statically unknown size
- `new T[n]` allocates a  $T$ -array of size  $n$
- `T* p = new T[n]`: pointer  $p$  points to the first array element
- Pointer arithmetic enables accessing rear array elements
- Sequentially iterating over arrays via pointers is more efficient than random access
- `new T` allocates memory for (and initialises) a single  $T$ -object, and yields a pointer to it
- Pointers can point to something (not) `const`, and they can be (not) `const` themselves
- Memory allocated by `new` is *not* automatically released (more on this soon)
- Pointers and references are related, both “link” to objects in memory. See also additional the slides `pointers.pdf`)

## Array-based Vector

- Vectors ... that somehow rings a bell



- Now we know how to allocate memory chunks of arbitrary size ...
- ... we can implement a vector, based on such a chunk of memory
- `avec` – an array-based vector of `int` elements

### Unser eigener Vektor!

- Wir implementieren unseren eigenen Vektor: `vec`
- Schritt 1: `vec<int>` (heute)
- Schritt 2: `vec<T>` (später, nur kurz angeschnitten)

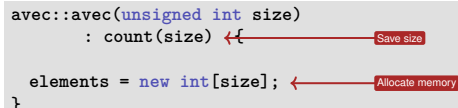
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## Array-based Vector `avec`: Class Signature

```
class avec {  
    // Private (internal) state:  
    int* elements; // Pointer to first element  
    unsigned int count; // Number of elements  
  
public: // Public interface:  
    avec(unsigned int size); // Constructor  
    unsigned int size() const; // Size of vector  
    int& operator[](int i); // Access an element  
    void print(std::ostream& sink) const; // Output elems.  
}
```

## Constructor `avec::avec()`

```
avec::avec(unsigned int size)  
    : count(size) {  
  
    elements = new int[size];  
}
```



Side remark: vector is not initialised with a default value

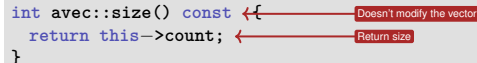
## Excursion: Accessing Member Variables

```
avec::avec(unsigned int size): count(size) {  
    this->elements = new int[size];  
}
```

- `elements` is a member variable of our `avec` instance
- That instance can be accessed via the *pointer* `this`
- `elements` is a shorthand for `(*this).elements`
- Dereferencing a pointer (`*this`) followed by a member access (`.elements`) is such a common operation that it can be written more concisely as `this->elements`
- Mnemonic trick: "Follow the pointer to the member variable"

## Function `avec::size()`

```
int avec::size() const {  
    return this->count;  
}
```




Usage example:

```
avec v = avec(7);  
assert(v.size() == 7); // ok
```

## Function `avec::operator[]`

```
int& avec::operator[](int i) {  
    return this->elements[i];  
}
```



Element access with index check:

```
int& avec::at(int i) const {  
    assert(0 <= i && i < this->count);  
  
    return this->elements[i];  
}
```

## Function `avec::operator[]` is needed twice

```
int& avec::operator[](int i) { return elements[i]; }  
const int& avec::operator[](int i) const { return elements[i]; }
```

- The first member function is *not const* and returns a *non-const* reference

```
avec v = ...; // A non-const vector  
std::cout << v.get[0]; // Reading elements is allowed  
v.get[0] = 123; // Modifying elements is allowed
```

- It is called on non-const vectors

## Function `avec::operator[]`

```
int& avec::operator[](int i) {  
    return this->elements[i];  
}
```

Usage example:

```
avec v = avec(7);  
std::cout << v[6]; // Outputs a "random" value  
v[6] = 0;  
std::cout << v[6]; // Outputs 0
```

## Function `avec::operator[]` is needed twice

```
int& avec::operator[](int i) { return elements[i]; }  
const int& avec::operator[](int i) const { return elements[i]; }
```

- The second member function *is const* and returns a *const* reference

```
const avec v = ...; // A const vector  
std::cout << v.get[0]; // Reading elements is allowed  
v.get[0] = 123; // Compiler error: modifications are not  
allowed
```

- It is called on const vectors

Also see the example

attached to this PDF

## Function `avec::print()`

Output elements using sequential access:

```
void avec::print(std::ostream& sink) const {  
    for (int* p = this->elements;   
         p != this->elements + this->count;   
         ++p)   
    {  
        sink << *p << ' ';  
    }  
}
```

Annotations:

- Pointer to first element (points to `elements`)
- Advance pointer element-wise (points to `++p`)
- Abort iteration if past last element (points to `p != this->elements + this->count`)
- Output current element (points to `*p`)

## Function `avec::print()`

Finally: overload output operator:

```
_____ operator<<((_____ sink,  
                    _____ vec) {  
    vec.print(sink);  
    return _____;  
}
```

```
std::ostream& operator<<(std::ostream& sink,  
                        const avec& vec) {  
    vec.print(sink);  
    return sink;  
}
```

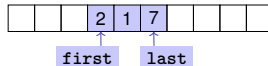
## Further Functions?

```
class avec {  
    ...  
    void push_front(int e)    // Prepend e to vector  
    void push_back(int e)    // Append e to vector  
    void remove(unsigned int i) // Cut out ith element  
    ...  
}
```

Commonalities: such operations need to change the vector's `size`

## Resizing arrays

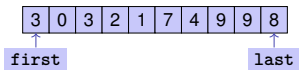
An allocated block of memory (e.g. `new int[3]`) cannot be resized later on



Possibility:

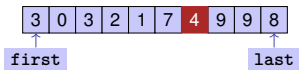
- Allocate more memory than initially necessary
- Fill from inside out, with pointers to first and last element

## Resizing arrays

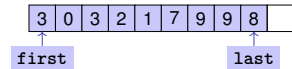


- But eventually, all slots will be in use
- Then unavoidable: Allocate larger memory block and copy data over

## Resizing arrays



Deleting elements requires shifting (by copying) all preceding or following elements



Similar: inserting at arbitrary position