

## 20. 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

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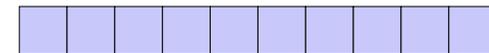
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### Our Own Vector!

- 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

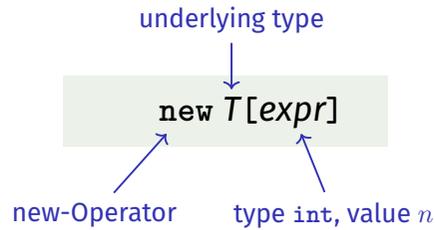


Question: How to *allocate* a chunk of memory of *arbitrary* size during runtime, i.e. *dynamically*?

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## new for Arrays



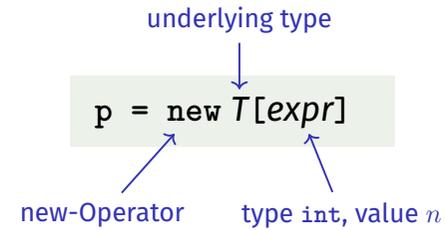
- **Effect:** new contiguous chunk of memory  $n$  elements of type  $T$  is allocated



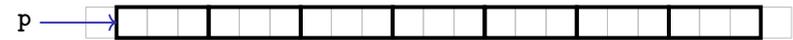
- This chunk of memory is called an *array* (of length  $n$ )

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## new for Arrays



- **Value:** the starting address of the memory chunk



- **Type:** A pointer  $T^*$  (more soon)

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## Outlook I: 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

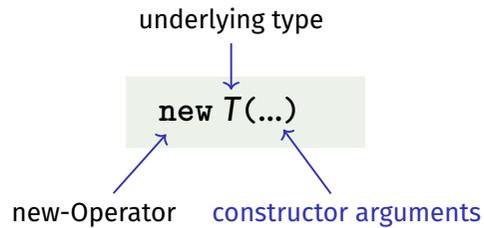
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## Outlook II: Today's Lecture

- Goal: understanding pointers and dynamic memory/dynamically allocated objects
- Running example: own vector
- Outline:
  1. *individual* dynamically allocated objects  
→ introduce pointers, explain basics
  2. *array* of dynamically allocated objects  
→ introduce pointer arithmetic, explain random and sequential access
  3. develop *vector class*, based on a dynamic array  
→ application of pointers in a nontrivial example; class design
- Course website: Experiment with the example code (e.g. Tiny Pointer Example 1/2), have a look at the slides on references vs. pointers (Additional Pointer Slides)

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## 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)

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## 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
```

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## Pointer Types

**$T^*$**  Pointer type for base type  $T$

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

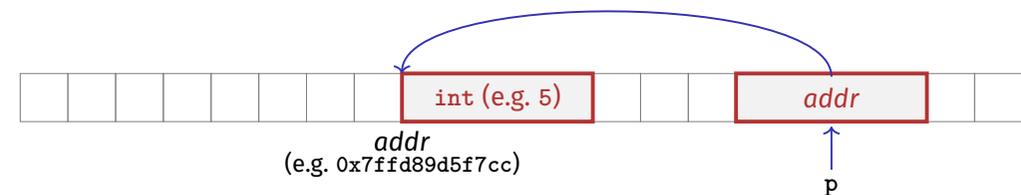
```
int* p = ...;
std::string* q = p; // compiler error!
```

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## 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
```



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# Address Operator

Question: How to obtain an object's address?

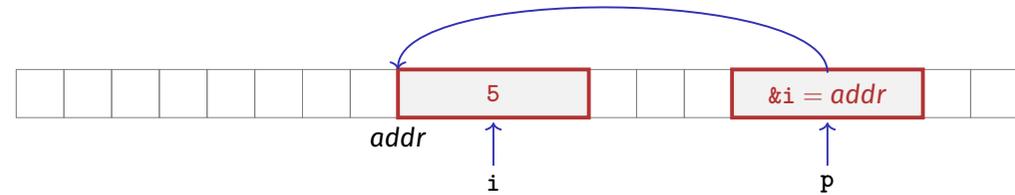
1. Directly, when creating a new object via `new`
2. For existing objects: via the *address operator* `&`

`&expr` ← `expr`: l-value of type `T`

- **Value** of the expression: the *address* of object (l-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?

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# Dereference Operator

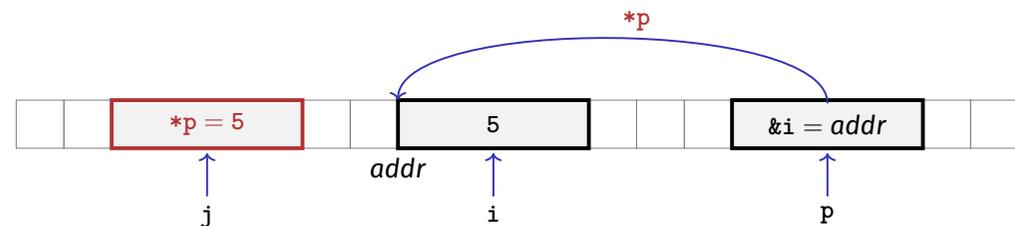
Answer: by using the *dereference operator* `*`

`*expr` ← `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

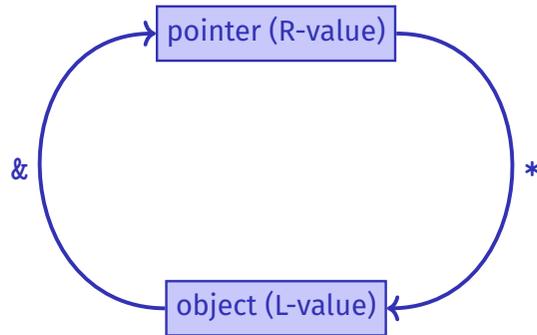
```
int i = 5;
int* p = &i; // p = address of i
int j = *p; // j = 5
```



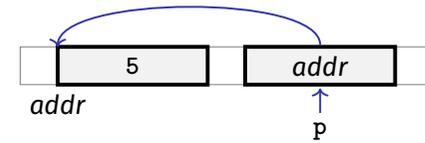
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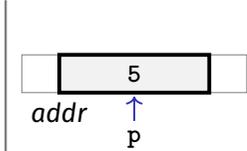
## Address and Dereference Operator



## Pointer Visualisations



- So far: technically precise visualisation *with indirection*
- p holds an address, only \*p yields the value/object that p conceptually points to



- New: simplified visualisation *without indirection*
- Address is only a “technical mean”; relevant is what p conceptually points to

## 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!

## Null-Pointer

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

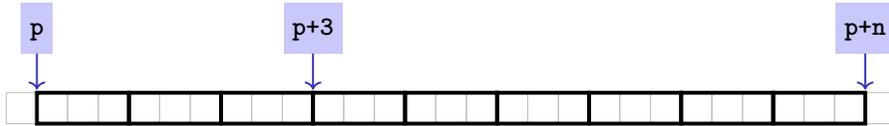
```
int* p = nullptr;
```

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

```
int* p; // Accessing p is undefined behaviour  
int* q = nullptr; // q explicitly points nowhere
```

## Pointer Arithmetic: Pointer plus `int`

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



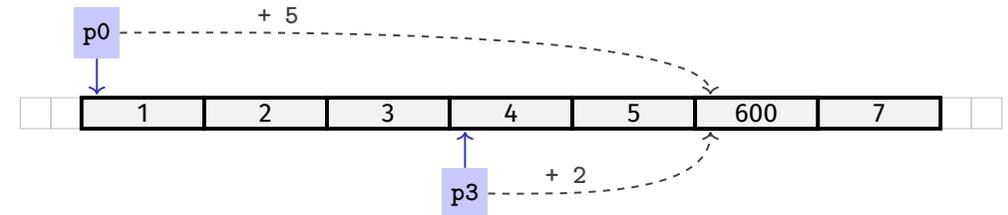
Question: How to point to rear elements? → via **Pointer arithmetic**:

- `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)`

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## 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)
```



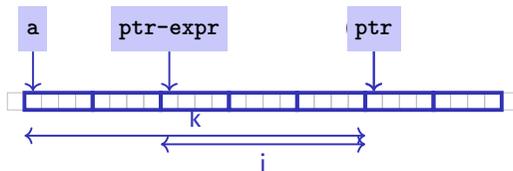
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## Pointer Arithmetic: Pointer minus `int`

- 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`.



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## 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 apart the elements are from each other in memory

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## Pointer Operators

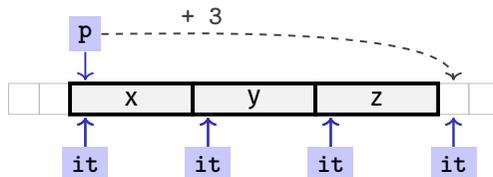
Description	Op	Arity	Precedence	Associativity	Assignment
Subscript	[]	2	17	left	R-value → L-value
Dereference	*	1	16	right	R-Wert → L-Wert
Address	&	1	16	rechts	L-value → R-value

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

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## Sequential Pointer Iteration

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



```
for (char* it = p; ← it points to first element
    it != p + 3; ← Abort if end reached
    ++it) ← Advance pointer element-wise {
    std::cout << *it << ' '; ← Output current element: 'x'
}
```

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## 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`.

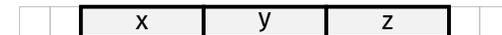
- Integers and pointers are not compatible

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

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## 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

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

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## Reading a book

### 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
- ....

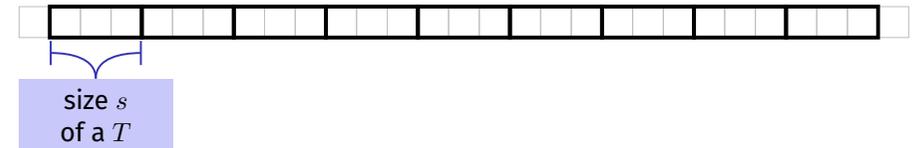
### Sequential Access

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

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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* ( $p[0], p[1], \dots$ ) costs one addition and one multiplication per access
- Iteration via *sequential access* ( $++p, ++p, \dots$ ) costs only one addition per access
- Sequential access is thus to be preferred for iterations

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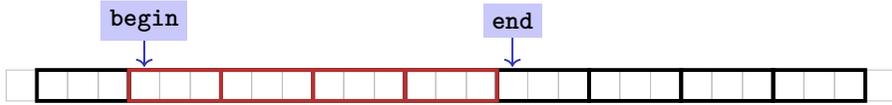
## Static Arrays

- `int* p = new int[expr]` creates a dynamic array of size *expr*
- C++ has inherited *static* arrays from its predecessor language C: `int a[expr]`
- Static arrays have, among others, the disadvantage that their size *expr* must be a constant. I.e. *expr* can, e.g. be 5 or  $4 \cdot 3 + 2$ , 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++ *covention*: 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

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## Functions with/without Effect

- Pointers can (like references) be used for functions with effect<sup>6</sup>. Example: `fill`
- But many functions don't modify but only read the data
- $\Rightarrow$  Use of `const`
- So far, for example:

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

<sup>6</sup>on the data specified by the pointer(intervals)

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## 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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## 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

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## Const and Pointers

Read the declaration from right to left

```
int const p1;           p1 is a constant integer
int const* p2;         p2 is a pointer to a constant integer
int* const p3;         p3 is a constant pointer to an integer
int const* const p4;   p4 is a constant pointer to a constant integer
```

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

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## const is not absolute

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

### Beispiel

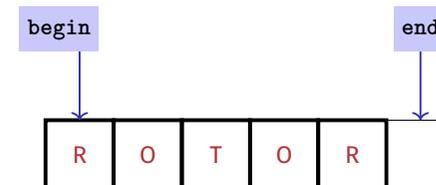
```
int a[5];
const int* begin1 = a;
int* begin2 = a;
*begin1 = 1; // error *begin1 is const
*begin2 = 1; // ok, although *begin will be modified
```

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

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## 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`)

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## 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.
}
```

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## Constructor `avec::avec()`

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

Attention: vector has not been initialised (with some default value, e.g. 0)

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## Function `avec::size()`

```
int avec::size() const ← {  
    return count; ←  
}
```

Doesn't modify the vector  
Return size

Usage example:

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

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## Function `avec::operator []`

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

Return ith element

Element access with index check:

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

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## Excursion: Accessing Member Variables

```
int avec::size() const {  
    return count;  
}  
  
avec v1 = ...;  
avec v2 = ...;  
std::cout << v1.size();
```

- Call `v1.size()`: `size()` returns value of the member variable `count` of `v1`
- Question: how can member function `size()` refer to *receiver object* `v1`?
- Via the special `this` pointer (briefly introduced last week)
- Three possibilities:
  - `return (*this).count` Explicit, but cumbersome syntax
  - `return this->count` Explicit, nicer syntax
  - `return count` Implicit
- Mnemonic trick: "Follow the pointer to the member variable"

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## Function `avec::operator []`

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

Usage example:

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

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## 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

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## 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

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## Function `avec::print()`

Output elements using sequential access:

```
void avec::print(std::ostream& sink) const {  
    for (int* p = this->elements;  Pointer to first element  
        p != this->elements + this->count;   
        ++p)  Advance pointer element - Abort iteration if past last element  
    {  
        sink << *p << ' ';  Output current element  
    }  
}
```

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## 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;  
}
```

Observations:

- Constant reference to `vec`, since unchanged
- But not to `vec`: Outputting elements equals change

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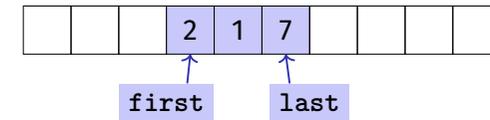
## Further Functions?

```
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

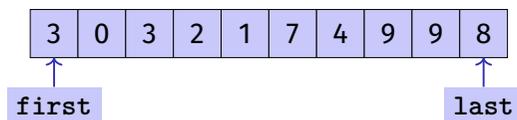
An allocated block of memory (e.g. `new int [3]`) cannot be resized later on



Possibility:

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

## Resizing arrays

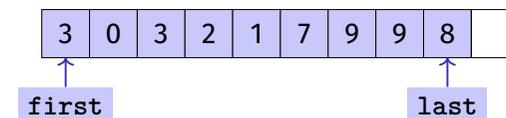


- But eventually, all slots will be in use
- Then unavoidable: Allocate larger memory block and copy data over

## Resizing arrays



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



Similar: inserting at arbitrary position