COMP322 - Introduction to C++

Lecture 03 - Pointers and references

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The struct (from last class)

A C++ struct contains a list of objects, like a database record.

```
struct Point2D {
   double x;
   double y;
};

Point2D origin;
```

We can then access the elements using the '.' operator:

```
origin.x = 0;
origin.y = 0;
```

Pointers

A *pointer* in C++ holds the address of another object.

We can declare pointers as follows:

```
int *p, *q; // p and q are pointers to base type 'int'
```

Generally, this syntax is a little confusing. I find it more natural to read:

```
int* p;
```

This now reads that the *type* of p is a pointer. (Careful though that int* p,q declares one int pointer and one int)

Inverse operators

In C++, for any type, one can work with either addresses OR "data." (In quotes because sometimes an address could be data still.)

There are two operators which are very useful to know:

- Unary '*': Dereference operator : Converts addresses to data

  ```
  int y = *p;  // Set 'y' equal to the int stored at 'p'
  ```

- Unary '&': "Address-of" operator : Converts data to addresses

  ```
  int x;
  int *p = &x; // Set 'p' equal to the address of 'x'
  ```

These operators are *inverses* of each other.

The standard library defines NULL as an illegal pointer value. It generally has the same bit pattern as zero.

Pointer arithmetic

Pointer operations are extremely powerful. Almost any object can have its address taken, and be assigned to a pointer.

In addition, we can do math on pointers in restricted ways:

- *pointer = pointer + integer*: Add an integer to a pointer, the result is a pointer.
- *pointer = pointer − integer*: Subtract an integer from a pointer, the result is a pointer.
- *integer = pointer − pointer*: Subtract two pointers to get the integral number of elements between them. Pointers *must* be of the same base type, and should point to the same vector.
- Pointer comparison using >,<,>=,<=,!=,==

Pointers and arrays

In C++, pointer and array expressions are often equivalent:

```cpp
int vec[10];
int *p = &vec[0];  // Points to the first element
int *q = &vec[10]; // Points past the last element
int *r = p+10;     // Identical to prior initialization
int x = vec[1];    // Get value of second element
int y = *(p+1);    // Ditto
int n = 1;
p = p + n;         // p == &vec[1]
q = q - 1;         // q == &vec[9]
x = *--r;          // r == &vec[9] and x == vec[9]
y = *p++;          // p == &vec[2] and y == vec[1]
```

Note also that the name of an array is equivalent to a pointer to the first element of the array:

```cpp
int vec[10];
int *p = vec;      // Legal, p == &vec[0]
```

Pointers as function arguments

We can modify function arguments by passing a pointer rather than the value.

```
void swap1(int a, int b) { // Non-working
  int tmp = a;
  a = b;
  b = tmp;
}

void swap2(int *a, int *b) { // Swap through pointers
  int tmp = *a;
  *a = *b;
  *b = tmp;
}

int main() {
  int x = 1, y = 2;
  swap1(x, y);   // x==1, y==2 after return
  swap2(&x, &y); // x==2, y==1 after return
}
```

Pointers to structs or unions

It's often useful to pass around pointers to large objects.

```
struct Example {
    int index;
    int data[100];
    char text[128];
};

Example exmpl;
//get the address of this variable and store into a pointer variab
Example *ex_p = &exmpl;

int n = (*ex_p).index;
```

The parentheses in the prior expression are necessary because of the relative precedence of '*' and '.'. To simplify this, C++ defines the -> operator:

```
int n = ex_p->index;
```

Pointers to structs continued

We can use struct pointers to defined linked lists, for example:

```
#include <cstdlib> // for NULL
struct LinkedList {
  LinkedList *link; // Recursive use is legal here
  int value;
};

LinkedList *
find_element(struct LinkedList *list, int value) {
  //start at head of linked list and traverse by following links
  LinkedList *ptr;
  for (ptr = list; ptr != NULL; ptr = ptr->link) {
    if (value == ptr->value)
      return ptr;
  }
  return NULL;
}
```

Remember the magic value NULL which is used to indicate an illegal pointer value.

Pointers to pointers

To add to our confusion, it is legal to have arrays of pointers, pointers to pointers, and so on, *ad infinitum*.

```
struct Symbol {
  Symbol *link; // Next in linked list
  int value;            // Value
  char name[32];        // Text name
};

Symbol *hashtable[100]; // Open hash table

#include <iostream>

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
  // argc is the number of arguments
  // argv is a list of char * (string) arguments
  for (int i = 0; i < argc; i++) {
    std::cout << *argv++ << std::endl; // Print arguments
  }
}
```

Pointer traps and pitfalls

Use of pointers routinely leads to a number of errors:

▶ Failure to initialize:
```
int *p;

*p = 1;      // Error - 'p' points to nothing
```

▶ Returning a pointer to a local variable:
```
Point *makept(int x, int y) {
  Point pt;
  pt.x=x;
  pt.y=y;
  return (&pt);   // Undefined upon return!
}
```

To solve the above, we need to use dynamic memory allocation via the new keyword.

▶ Misunderstanding pointer comparison
```
char *s1 = "apple";
char *s2 = "apple";
if (s1 == s2) {
  // This may nor may not be true!
}
```

Basics of memory allocation

Any variable you create inside a method will disappear when the method finishes (different block of code). This means that the data at the address the variable refers to will have no meaning:

```
Point *makept(int x, int y) {
  Point pt;
  pt.x=x;
  pt.y=y;
  return (&pt);  // Undefined upon return!
}
```

Although any *variable* will disappear, if you create data using the new keyword, the data will remain. So the address will still be valid.

Basics of memory allocation

Any variable you create inside a method will disappear when the method finishes (different block of code). This means that the address will have no meaning:

```
Point *makept(int x, int y) {
  //Create a point DYNAMICALLY. Store a pointer to it
  Point* pt = new Point;

  //Now that we have a pointer we need to dereference it
  //to set its value
  (*pt).x = x; //or equivalently pt->x = x;
  pt->y=y;
  return pt;  // still defined now!
}
```

Any data you create using `new` must be deleted using the `delete` keyword or else you will have a memory leak. This gets tricky and we'll spend a lot of next week discussing this.

References

C++ supports the creation of *references* to other data objects.
These references are essentially an alias for the named object.

```cpp
int x;              // Declare x
int & y = x;        // y is a reference to x

x = 1;
y = 2;
cout << x << endl;
// this will print 2 rather than 1
```

The definition of a reference must be initialized:

```cpp
int x;
int & y;            // Error!
```

A reference cannot be reassigned to a new object, and must
have the same type as its associated object. And we cannot
define a reference to a reference!

References as function parameters

The real utility of references occurs as an alternative method for function parameter passing.

```
void swap1 (int a , int b) { // Non - working
  int tmp = a ;
  a = b ;
  b = tmp ;
}

void swap3 (int &a , int &b) { // Does the right thing
  int tmp = a ;
  a = b ;
  b = tmp ;
}

int main () {
  int x = 1 , y = 2;
  swap1 (x , y);  // x ==1 , y ==2 after return
  swap3 (x , y);  // x ==2 , y ==1 after return
}
```

This swap looks more natural than the pointer version.

Reference parameters and efficiency

In traditional call by value, a complete copy of a data object is made. This may be inefficient when dealing with large objects.

```
struct Example {
    int value[100];
    char text[1024];
};

int get_vn1(Example ex, int n) { // Slow...
  return ex.value[n];
}

int get_vn2(const Example &ex, int n) { // Fast!!
  return ex.value[n];
}
```

Use of the const keyword prevents the function from modifying the contents of the structure.

Reference details

A reference parameter must be bound to a object of the same type, and the object must be an *lvalue*

```
void swap1 ( int a , int b ) { // Non-working
  int tmp = a ;
  a = b ;
  b = tmp ;
}

void swap3 ( int &a , int &b ) {
  int tmp = a ;
  a = b ;
  b = tmp ;
}

int main () {
  int a=1, b=2, vec [10];
  float c=3;

  swap1 (a,b+1);      // Legal but no effect
  swap3 (a,b+1);      // Error, 'b+1' is not an lvalue
  swap3 (vec [1], vec [2]); // OK
  swap1 (a,c);        // Legal but useless
  swap3 (a,c);        // Error!
}
```

But what is an lvalue?

In C++, an *lvalue* is an expression that yields a result at which another value can be stored.

Lvalues include variables, struct fields, and array or pointer derefererences.

```cpp
int x, array [10] , * intptr = &x;
struct point {
    unsigned int x, y;
} pt ;

// These are all legal as the lhs is an lvalue
x = 1;
pt . x = 2;
array [1] = 3;
* intptr = 4;
*( array +x) = 5;

x +1 = 1;        // Not an lvalue
pt . x /2 = 2;   // Not an lvalue
array = 3;       // Not an lvalue
func () = 4;     // Not usually an lvalue
```

References as return values

You can also return a reference from a function. This is useful in two situations:

- **To return a large object without copying it**
- To return an lvalue

```
struct Symbol {
   double value;
   char name[32];
} symtable[100];

int symnext = 0;

Symbol & alloc_sym(const char name[], double v) {
  Symbol *psym = &symtable[symnext++];
  strcpy(psym->name, name);
  psym->value = v;
  return *psym;
}
```

References as return values

You can also return a reference from a function. This is useful in two situations:

- ▶ To return a large object without copying it
- ▶ **To return an lvalue**

```
struct Point {
  int x,y;
};

int & ptx(struct Point &pt) {
  return pt.x;
}

int main() {
  Point p;

  ptx(p) = 10;  // ptx(p) is an lvalue here!
}
```