Computing and Statistical Data Analysis Lecture 5

Pointers

Strings

Introduction to classes and objects:

Declaring classes

A TwoVector class

Creating objects

Data members

Member functions

Constructors

Defining the member functions

Pointers to objects

Pointers

A pointer variable contains a memory address. It 'points' to a location in memory. To declare a pointer, use a star, e.g.,

```
int* iPtr;
double * xPtr;
char *c;
float *x, *y;
```

Note some freedom in where to put the star. I prefer the first notation as it emphasizes that *iPtr* is of type "pointer to *int*".

(But in int* iPtr, jPtr; only iPtr is a pointer--need 2 stars.)

Name of pointer variable can be any valid identifier, but often useful to choose name to show it's a pointer (suffix Ptr, etc.).

Pointers: the & operator

Suppose we have a variable i of type int:

int i = 3;

We can define a pointer variable to point to the memory location that contains i:

int* iPtr = &i;

Here & means "address of". Don't confuse it with the & used when passing arguments by reference.

Initializing pointers

A statement like

int* iPtr;

declares a pointer variable, but does not initialize it. It will be pointing to some "random" location in memory. We need to set its value so that it points to a location we're interested in, e.g., where we have stored a variable:

iPtr = &i;

(just as ordinary variables must be initialized before use).

Dereferencing pointers: the * operator

Similarly we can use a pointer to access the value of the variable stored at that memory location. E.g. suppose iPtr = &i; then

int iCopy = *iPtr; // now iCopy equals i

This is called 'dereferencing' the pointer. The * operator means "value stored in memory location being pointed to".

If we set a pointer equal to zero (or **NULL**) it points to nothing. (The address zero is reserved for null pointers.)

If we try to dereference a null pointer we get an error.

Why different kinds of pointers? Suppose we declare

<pre>int* iPtr;</pre>	//	type "pointer to int"
<pre>float* fPtr;</pre>	//	type "pointer to float"
<pre>double* dPtr;</pre>	//	type "pointer to double"

We need different types of pointers because in general, the different data types (int, float, double) take up different amounts of memory. If declare another pointer and set

int* jPtr = iPtr + 1;

then the +1 means "plus one unit of memory address for int", i.e., if we had int variables stored contiguously, jPtr would point to the one just after iPtr.

But the types float, double, etc., take up different amounts of memory, so the actual memory address increment is different.

Passing pointers as arguments

When a pointer is passed as an argument, it divulges an address to the called function, so the function can change the value stored at that address:

```
void passPointer(int* iPtr){
 *iPtr += 2; // note *iPtr on left!
}
....
int i = 3;
int* iPtr = &i;
passPointer(iPtr);
cout << "i = " << i << endl; // prints i = 5
passPointer(&i); // equivalent to above
cout << "i = " << i << endl; // prints i = 7</pre>
```

End result same as pass-by-reference, syntax different. (Usually pass by reference is the preferred technique.)

Pointers vs. reference variables

A reference variable behaves like an alias for a regular variable. To declare, place $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ after the type:

Passing a reference variable to a function is the same as passing a normal variable by reference.

```
void passReference(int& i) {
    i += 2;
}
passReference(j);
cout << "i = " << i << endl; // prints i = 9</pre>
```

What to do with pointers

You can do lots of things with pointers in C++, many of which result in confusing code and hard-to-find bugs.

One of the main differences between Java and C++: Java doesn't have pointer variables (generally seen as a Good Thing).

One interesting use of pointers is that the name of an array is a pointer to the zeroth element in the array, e.g.,

The main usefulness of pointers for us is that they will allow us to allocate memory (create variables) dynamically, i.e., at run time, rather than at compile time.

Strings (the old way)

A string is a sequence of characters. In C and in earlier versions of C++, this was implemented with an array of variables of type **char**, ending with the character $\0$ (counts as a single 'null' character):

char aString[] = "hello"; // inserts \0 at end

The cstring library (#include <cstring>) provides functions to copy strings, concatenate them, find substrings, etc. E.g.

char* strcpy(char* target, const char* source);

takes as input a string source and sets the value of a string target, equal to it. Note source is passed as const -- it can't be changed.

You will see plenty of code with old "C-style" strings, but there is now a better way: the string class (more on this later).

Example with **strcpy**

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cstring>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    char string1[] = "hello";
    char string2[50];
    strcpy(string2, string1);
    cout << "string2: " << string2 << endl;
    return 0;
}</pre>
```

```
No need to count elements when initializing string with " ".
Also \0 is automatically inserted as last character.
Program will print: string2 = hello
```

Classes

A class is something like a user-defined data type. The class must be declared with a statement of the form:

```
class MyClassName {
  public:
    public function prototypes and
    data declarations;
    ...
  private:
    private function prototypes and
    data declarations;
    ...
};
```

Typically this would be in a file called MyClassName.h and the definitions of the functions would be in MyClassName.cc. Note the semi-colon after the closing brace. For class names often use UpperCamelCase. A simple class: TwoVector

We might define a class to represent a two-dimensional vector:

```
class TwoVector {
  public:
    TwoVector();
    TwoVector(double x, double y);
    double x();
    double y();
    double r();
    double theta();
    void setX(double x);
    void setY(double y);
    void setR(double r);
    void setTheta(double theta);
  private:
    double m x;
    double m y;
};
```

Class header files

The header file must be included (#include "MyClassName.h") in other files where the class will be used.

To avoid multiple declarations, use the same trick we saw before with function prototypes, e.g., in TwoVector.h:

```
#ifndef TWOVECTOR_H
#define TWOVECTOR_H
class TwoVector {
   public:
        ...
   private:
        ...
};
```

Objects Recall that variables are instances of a data type, e.g., double a; // a is a variable of type double Similarly, objects are instances of a class, e.g., #include "TwoVector.h" int main() {

TwoVector v; // v is an object of type TwoVector

(Actually, variables are also objects in C++. Sometimes class instances are called "class objects" -- distinction is not important.)

A class contains in general both: variables, called "data members" and functions, called "member functions" (or "methods") Data members of a TwoVector object

The data members of a TwoVector are:

private: double m_x; double m_y;

Their values define the "state" of the object.

Because here they are declared private, a TwoVector object's values of m_x and m_y cannot be accessed directly, but only from within the class's member functions (more later).

The optional prefixes m____indicate that these are data members. Some authors use e.g. a trailing underscore. (Any valid identifier is allowed.)

The constructors of a **TwoVector**

The first two member functions of the TwoVector class are:

```
public:
  TwoVector();
  TwoVector(double x, double y);
```

These are special functions called constructors.

A constructor always has the same name as that of the class.

It is a function that is called when an object is created.

A constructor has no return type.

There can be in general different constructors with different signatures (type and number of arguments).

The constructors of a **TwoVector**, cont.

When we declare an object, the constructor is called which has the matching signature, e.g.,

```
TwoVector u; // calls TwoVector::TwoVector()
```

The constructor with no arguments is called the "default constructor". If, however, we say

```
TwoVector v(1.5, 3.7);
```

then the version that takes two double arguments is called.

If we provide no constructors for our class, C++ automatically gives us a default constructor.

Defining the constructors of a TwoVector In the file that defines the member functions, e.g., TwoVector.cc, we precede each function name with the class name and :: (the scope resolution operator). For our two constructors we have:

```
TwoVector::TwoVector() {
    m x = 0;
    m y = 0;
  }
  TwoVector::TwoVector(double x, double y) {
    m x = x;
    m y = y;
  }
The constructor serves to initialize the object.
If we already have a TwoVector v and we say
  TwoVector w = v;
```

this calls a "copy constructor" (automatically provided).

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The member functions of **TwoVector**

We call an object's member functions with the "dot" notation:

```
TwoVector v(1.5, 3.7); // creates an object v
double vX = v.x();
cout << "vX = " << vX << endl; // prints vX = 1.5
...</pre>
```

If the class had public data members, e.g., these would also be called with a dot. E.g. if m_x and m_y were public, we could say

double vX = v.m x;

We usually keep the data members private, and only allow the user of an object to access the data through the public member functions. This is sometimes called "data hiding".

If, e.g., we were to change the internal representation to polar coordinates, we would need to rewrite the functions x(), etc., but the user of the class wouldn't see any change.

Defining the member functions

Also in TwoVector.cc we have the following definitions:

```
double TwoVector::x() const { return m_x; }
double TwoVector::y() const { return m_y; }
double TwoVector::r() const {
   return sqrt(m_x*m_x + m_y*m_y);
}
double TwoVector::theta() const {
   return atan2(m_y, m_x); // from cmath
}
....
```

These are called "accessor" or "getter" functions.

They access the data but do not change the internal state of the object; therefore we include const after the (empty) argument list (more on why we want const here later).

More member functions

Also in TwoVector.cc we have the following definitions:

```
void TwoVector::setX(double x) { m_x = x; }
void TwoVector::setY(double y) { m_y = y; }
void TwoVector::setR(double r) {
   double cosTheta = m_x / this->r();
   double sinTheta = m_y / this->r();
   m_x = r * cosTheta;
   m_y = r * sinTheta;
}
```

These are "setter" functions. As they belong to the class, they are allowed to manipulate the private data members m_x and m_y.

To use with an object, use the "dot" notation:

Pointers to objects

Just as we can define a pointer to type int,

int* iPtr; // type "pointer to int"

we can define a pointer to an object of any class, e.g.,

TwoVector* vPtr; // type "pointer to TwoVector"

This doesn't create an object yet! This is done with, e.g.,

```
vPtr = new TwoVector(1.5, 3.7);
```

vPtr is now a pointer to our object. With an object pointer, we call member functions (and access data members) with -> (not with "."), e.g.,

```
double vX = vPtr->x();
cout << "vX = " << vX << endl; // prints vX = 1.5</pre>
```

Forgotten detail: the this pointer

Inside each object's member functions, C++ automatically provides a pointer called this. It points to the object that called the member function. For example, we just saw

```
void TwoVector::setR(double r) {
   double cosTheta = m_x / this->r();
   double sinTheta = m_y / this->r();
   m_x = r * cosTheta;
   m_y = r * sinTheta;
}
```

Here the use of this is optional (but nice, since it emphasizes what belongs to whom). It can be needed if one of the function's parameters has the same name, say, **x** as a data member. By default, **x** means the parameter, not the data member; this->x is then used to access the data member.

Wrapping up lecture 5

- We are now almost done with the part of C++ that resembles C, i.e., the part that doesn't deal with classes or objects.
- We've seen arrays (static and dynamic).
- We've introduced pointers (but not yet done much with them).
- We've seen briefly "C-style" strings.
- We've introduced classes -- these behave like a sort of user defined data type.
- Objects are instances of classes. In addition to holding data they have a set of functions that can act on the data. This is what distinguishes object-oriented programming from "procedural programming".