References, Arrays, and Pointers

Overview



So far, we have mostly worked with fundamental types

- void
- Arithmetic types such as int, float, etc.

Much of the power of C++ comes from the ability to define *compound types*

- Functions
- Classes (covered in the next lecture)
- References
- Arrays
- Pointers

Reference Declaration (1)



A reference declaration declares an alias to an already-existing object

- Lvalue reference: &declarator
- Rvalue reference: &&declarator
- declarator may be any other declarator, except another reference declarator
- Most of the time, declarator will simply be a name

References have some peculiarities

- There are no references to void
- References are immutable (although the referenced object may be mutable)
- References are not objects, i.e. they do not necessarily occupy storage

Since references are not objects

- There are no references or pointers to references
- There are no arrays of references

Reference Declaration (2)

The & or && tokens are part of the declarator, not the type

```
int i = 10;
int &j = i, k = i; // j is reference to int, k is int
```

However, we may omit or insert whitespaces before and after the & or && tokens

- Both int& j = i; and int &j = i; are valid C++
- By convention, we use the former notation (int& j = i;)
- To avoid confusion, statements should declare only one identifier at a time
- Very rarely, exceptions to this rule are necessary in the *init-statements* of if and switch statements as well as for loops

Reference Initialization



In general, a reference to a type T must be initialized to refer to a valid object

- An object of type T
- A function of type T
- An object implicitly convertible to T

Exceptions

- Function parameter declarations
- Function return type declarations
- Class member declarations
- With the extern specifier

Lvalue References (1)

As an alias for existing objects

Lvalue References (2)

To implement pass-by-reference semantics for function calls

Lvalue References (3)

To turn a function call into an Ivalue expression

```
int global0 = 0;
int global1 = 0;
int& foo(unsigned which) {
    if (!which)
        return global0;
    else
        return global1;
int main() {
    foo(0) = 42; // global0 == 42
    foo(1) = 14; // global1 == 14
```

Rvalue References (1)

Can not (directly) bind to Ivalues

```
int i = 10; int&& j = i; // ERROR: Cannot bind rvalue reference to lvalue int&& k = 42; // OK
```

Extend the lifetimes of temporary objects

Rvalue References (2)

Allow overload resolution to distinguish between Ivalues and rvalues

```
void foo(int& x);
void foo(const int& x);
void foo(int&& x);
int& bar();
int baz();
int main() {
    int i = 42;
    const int i = 84;
    foo(i); // calls foo(int&)
    foo(j); // calls foo(const int&)
    foo(123); // calls foo(int&&)
    foo(bar()) // calls foo(int&)
    foo(baz()) // calls foo(int&&)
```

References and CV-Qualifiers

References themselves cannot be cv-qualified

- However, the referenced type may be cv-qualified
- A reference to T can be initialized from a type that is less cv-qualified than T (e.g. const int& can be initialized from int)

Lvalue references to const also extend the lifetime of temporary objects

```
int i = 10;
int j = 32;
const int& k = i + j; // OK, but k is immutable
```

Dangling references



It is possible to write programs where the lifetime of a referenced object ends while references to it still exist.

- This mostly happens when referencing objects with automatic storage duration
- Results in dangling reference and undefined behavior

Example

```
int& foo() {
   int i = 42;
   return i;  // ERROR: Returns dangling reference
}
```

Array Declaration (1)



An array declaration declares an object of array type (also: C-style array)

- declarator[expression]
- declarator may be any valid declarator, surrounded by parentheses if it begins with *, &, or &&
- expression must be an expression which evaluates to an integral constant at compile time

For example: T a[N]; for some type T and compile-time constant N

- a consists of N contiguously allocated elements of type T
- Elements are numbered 0, ..., N 1
- Elements can be accessed with the subscript operator [], e.g. a[0], ..., a[N-1]
- Without an initializer, every element of a is uninitialized

Array Declaration (2)

Example

```
unsigned short a[10];
for (unsigned i = 0; i < 10; ++i)
    a[i] = i + 1;</pre>
```

Array objects are Ivalues, but they cannot be assigned to

```
unsigned short a[10];
unsigned short b[10];
a = b; // ERROR: a is an array
```

Arrays cannot be returned from functions

```
int[] foo(); // ERROR
```

Array Declaration (3)

Elements of an array are allocated **contiguously** in memory

- Given unsigned short a[10]; containing the integers 1 through 10
- Assuming a 2-byte unsigned short type
- · Assuming little-endian byte ordering



Arrays are just dumb chunks of memory

- Out-of-bounds accesses are not automatically detected, and do not necessarily lead to a crash
- May lead to rather weird bugs
- Exist mainly due to compatibility requirements with C

Array Declaration (4)

The elements of an array can be arrays themselves

```
unsigned short b[3][2];

for (unsigned i = 0; i < 3; ++i)
    for (unsigned j = 0; j < 2; ++j)
        b[i][j] = 3 * i + j;</pre>
```

Elements are still allocated contiguously in memory

- ullet b can be thought of as a 3 imes 2 matrix in row-major format
- The subscript operator simply returns an array object on the first level, to which the subscript operator can be applied again ((b[i])[j])

Array Initialization

Arrays can be default-initialized, in which case every element is default-initialized

```
unsigned short a[10] = {}; // a contains 10 zeros
```

Arrays can be list-initialized, in which case the size may be omitted

```
unsigned short a[] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10};
```

Multi-dimensional arrays may also be list-initialized, but only the first dimension may have unknown bound

```
unsigned short b[][2] = {
     {0, 1},
     {2, 3},
     {4, 5}
}
```

std::array



C-style arrays should be avoided whenever possible

- Use the std::array type defined in the <array> standard header instead
- Same semantics as a C-style array
- Optional bounds-checking and other useful features
- std::array is a *template type* with two template parameters (the element type and count)

Example

```
#include <array>
int main() {
    std::array<unsigned short, 10> a;
    for (unsigned i = 0; i < a.size(); ++i)
        a[i] = i + 1; // no bounds checking
}</pre>
```

std::vector (1)



std::array is inflexible due to compile-time fixed size

- The std::vector type defined in the <vector> standard header provides dynamically-sized arrays
- Storage is automatically expanded and contracted as needed
- Elements are still stored contiguously in memory

Useful functions

- push_back inserts an element at the end of the vector
- size queries the current size
- clear clears the contents
- resize change the number of stored elements
- The subscript operator can be used with similar semantics as for C-style arrays

Familiarize yourself with the reference documentation on std::vector

std::vector (2)

Example

```
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
int main() {
    std::vector<unsigned short> a;
    for (unsigned i = 0; i < 10; ++i)
        a.push back(i + 1);
    std::cout << a.size() << std::endl; // prints 10</pre>
    a.clear();
    std::cout << a.size() << std::endl; // prints 0</pre>
    a.resize(10); // a now contains 10 zeros
    std::cout << a.size() << std::endl; // prints 10</pre>
    for (unsigned i = 0; i < 10; ++i)
        a[i] = i + 1;
```

Range-For (1)



Execute a for-loop over a range

```
for (init-statement; range-declaration : range-expression)
    loop-statement
```

Explanation

- Executes init-statement once, then executes loop-statement once for each element in the range defined by range-expression
- range-expression may be an expression that represents a sequence (e.g. an array or an object for which begin and end functions are defined, such as std::vector)
- range-declaration should declare a named variable of the element type of the sequence, or a reference to that type
- init-statement may be omitted

Range-For (2)

Example

```
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
int main() {
    std::vector<unsigned short> a;
    // no range-for, we need the index
    for (unsigned i = 0; i < 10; ++i)
        a.push_back(i + 1);
    // range-for
    for (const unsigned short& e : a)
        std::cout << e << std::endl;</pre>
```

Storage of Objects

A "region of storage" has a physical equivalent

- Typically, objects reside in main memory, either on the stack or on the heap
- Up to now (and for some lectures to come), we have almost exclusively dealt with objects residing on the stack

Objects reside at some specific location in main memory

- As we have seen in the first lecture, this location can be identified by an address in main memory
- It is convenient to think of addresses as simple offsets from the beginning of the address space
- Pointers are a feature of C++ to obtain and interact with these addresses

Pointer Declaration (1)



Declares a variable of pointer type

- * cv declarator
- declarator may be any other declarator, except for a reference declarator
- cv specifies the cv-qualifiers of the pointer (not the pointed-to type), and may be omitted
- \bullet Analogous to reference declarations, the \star token is part of the declarator, not the type

Notes

- A pointer to an object represents the address of the first byte in memory that is occupied by that object
- As opposed to references, pointers are themselves objects
- Consequently, pointers to pointers are allowed

Pointer Declaration (2)

Examples of valid pointer declarations

Pointer-to-pointer declarations

Contraptions like the declaration of f are very rarely (if at all) necessary

The Address-Of Operator



In general, there is no meaningful conversion from the pointed-to type to a pointer type

- In order to obtain a pointer to an object, the built-in unary address-of operator & has to be used
- Given an object a, &a returns a pointer to the object
- The cv-qualification of a is retained

Example

The Indirection Operator



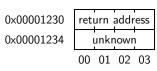
In general, there is no meaningful conversion from a pointer type to the pointed-to type

- In order to access the pointed-to object, the built-in unary indirection operator * has to be used
- Given an expression expr of pointer type, *expr returns a reference to the pointed-to object
- The cv-qualifiers of the pointed-to type are retained
- Applying the indirection operator is also called dereferencing a pointer

Example

What is Happening? (1)

```
int main() {
```

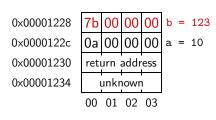


What is Happening? (2)

```
int main() {
    int a = 10;
```

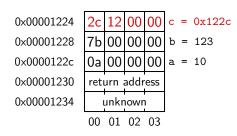
What is Happening? (3)

```
int main() {
    int a = 10;
    int b = 123;
```



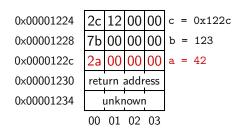
What is Happening? (4)

```
int main() {
    int a = 10;
    int b = 123;
    int* c = &a;
```



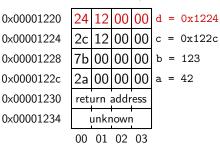
What is Happening? (5)

```
int main() {
    int a = 10;
    int b = 123;
    int* c = &a;
    *c = 42;
```



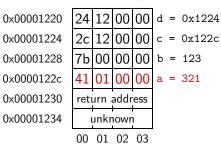
What is Happening? (6)

```
int main() {
    int a = 10;
    int b = 123;
    int* c = &a;
    *c = 42;
    int** d = &c;
```



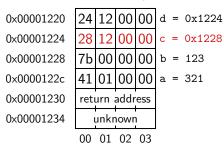
What is Happening? (7)

```
int main() {
    int a = 10;
    int b = 123;
    int* c = &a;
    *c = 42;
    int** d = &c;
    **d = 321;
```



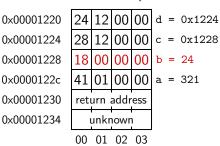
What is Happening? (8)

```
int main() {
    int a = 10;
    int b = 123;
    int* c = &a;
    *c = 42;
    int** d = &c;
    **d = 321;
    *d = \&b;
```



What is Happening? (9)

```
int main() {
    int a = 10;
    int b = 123;
    int* c = &a;
    *c = 42;
    int** d = &c;
    **d = 321;
    *d = \&b;
    **d = 24;
```



What is Happening? (10)

```
int main() {
    int a = 10;
    int b = 123;
    int* c = &a;
    *c = 42;
    int** d = &c;
    **d = 321;
    *d = \&b;
    **d = 24;
    return 0;
```

Stack Memory

0x00001234 unknown
00 01 02 03

Null Pointers



A pointer may not point to any object at all

- Indicated by the special value and corresponding literal nullptr
- Pointers of the same type which are both null pointers are considered equal
- It is undefined behavior to dereference a null pointer

Undefined behavior can lead to surprising results

```
foo.cpp
int foo(const int* ptr) {
  int v = *ptr;

  if (ptr == nullptr)
     return 42;

  return v;
}
```

```
foo.o

foo(int*):

movl (%rdi), %eax

ret
```

Array to Pointer Decay



Arrays and pointers have many similarities

- There is an implicit conversion from values of array type to values of pointer type
- The conversion constructs a pointer to the first element of an array
- The pointer type must be at least as cv-qualified as the array type

```
#include <iostream>
int main() {
   int array[3] = {123, 456, 789};
   const int* ptr = array;

   std::cout << "The first element of array is ";
   std::cout << *ptr << std::endl;
}</pre>
```

The Subscript Operator



The subscript operator is defined on pointer types

- Treats the pointer as a pointer to the first element of an array
- Follows the same semantics as the subscript operator on array types

```
#include <iostream>
int main() {
   int array[3] = {123, 456, 789};
   const int* ptr = array;

   std::cout << "The elements of array are";
   for (unsigned i = 0; i < 3; ++i)
        std::cout << " " << ptr[i];
   std::cout << std::endl;
}</pre>
```

Special Case: String Literals



String literals are another artifact of C compatibility

- String literals are immutable null-terminated character arrays
- That is, the type of a string literal with N characters is const char[N + 1]
- Most of the time, programmers take advantage of array-to-pointer decay and write const char* str = "foo";
- The character type can be controlled by the prefixes known from character literals (i.e. u8"string", u"string", or U"string")

C-style string literals should never be used!

- The C++ standard library provides the much safer std::string and std::string_view types
- Unfortunately, libraries or syscalls often require C-style string parameters
- If required, the standard library types can expose the C-style string representation

Arithmetic on Pointers (1)



Some arithmetic operators are defined between pointers and integral types

- Treats the pointer as a pointer to some element of an array
- Adding i to a pointer moves the it i elements to the right
- Subtracting i from a pointer moves it i elements to the left
- The increment and decrement operators are defined analogously

```
#include <iostream>
int main() {
   int array[3] = {123, 456, 789};
   const int* ptr = &array[1];

   std::cout << "The previous element is ";
   std::cout << *(ptr - 1) << std::endl;
   std::cout << "The next element is ";
   std::cout << *(ptr + 1) << std::endl;
}</pre>
```

Arithmetic on Pointers (2)

Special care has to be taken to only dereference valid pointers

 Especially important since it is valid to take the past-the-end pointer of an array or std::vector

```
int main() {
    std::vector<int> v;
    v.resize(10);

    const int* firstPtr = &v[0]; // OK: valid pointer
    const int* lastPtr = &v[10]; // OK: past-the-end pointer

    int last1 = *lastPtr; // ERROR, might segfault
    int last2 = v[10]; // ERROR, might segfault
}
```

Arithmetic on Pointers (3)

Subtraction is defined between pointers

- Treats both pointers as pointers to some elements of an array
- Computes the number of elements between these two pointers

```
#include <iostream>
int main() {
    int array[3] = {123, 456, 789};
    const int* ptr1 = &array[0];
    const int* ptr2 = &array[3]; // past-the-end pointer

    std::cout << "There are " << (ptr2 - ptr1) << " elements ";
    std::cout << "in array" << std::endl;
}</pre>
```

Comparisons on Pointers



The comparison operators are defined between pointers

- Interprets the addresses represented by the pointers as integers and compares them
- Only defined if the pointers point to elements of the same array

```
#include <iostream>
int main() {
    int array[3] = {123, 456, 789};

    std::cout << "The elements of array are"
    for (const int* it = &array[0]; it < &array[3]; ++it)
        std::cout << " " << *it;
    std::cout << std::endl;
}</pre>
```

Void Pointers



Pointers to void are allowed

- A pointer to an object of any type can implicitly be converted to a pointer to void
- The void pointer must be at least as cv-qualified as the original pointer
- The pointer value (i.e. the address) is unchanged

Usage

- Used to pass objects of unknown type
- Extensively used in C interfaces (e.g. malloc, qsort, ...)
- Only few operations are defined on void pointers (mainly assignment)
- In order to use the pointed-to object, one must cast the void pointer to the required type

static_cast (1)



The static_cast conversion is used to cast between related types

```
static_cast< new_type > ( expression )
```

Explanation

- Converts the value of expression to a value of new_type
- new_type must be at least as cv-qualified as the type of expression
- Can be used to convert void pointers to pointers of another type
- Many more use cases (see reference documentation)

static_cast (2)

Void pointers

```
int i = 42;
void* vp = &i;
int* ip = static_cast<int*>(vp);
```

Other related types

```
int sum(int a, int b);
double sum(double a, double b);

int main() {
   int a = 42;
   double b = 3.14;

   double x = sum(a, b);
   double y = sum(static_cast<double>(a), b); // OK
   int z = sum(a, static_cast<int>(b)); // OK
}
```

reinterpret_cast



The reinterpret_cast conversion is used to convert between unrelated types

```
reinterpret_cast < new_type > ( expression )
```

Explanation

- Interprets the underlying bit pattern of the value of expression as a value of new_type
- new_type must be at least as cv-qualified as the type of expression
- Usually does not generate any CPU instructions

Only a very restricted set of conversions is allowed

- A pointer to an object can be converted to a pointer to std::byte, char or unsigned char
- A pointer can be converted to an integral type (typically uintptr_t)
- Invalid conversions usually lead to undefined behavior

Strict Aliasing Rule (1)



It is undefined behavior to access an object using an expression of different type

- In particular, we are not allowed to access an object through a pointer to another type (pointer aliasing)
- Consequently, compilers typically assume that pointers to different types cannot have the same value
- There are very few exceptions to this rule

Strict Aliasing Rule (2)

```
static int foo(int* x, double* y) {
    *x = 42;
    *y = 3.0;
    return *x;
}

int main() {
    int a = 0;
    double* y = reinterpret_cast<double*>(&a);
    return foo(&a, y);
}
```

Compiling this with g++ -01 will result in the following assembly

```
main:
movl $0, %eax
ret
```

Strict Aliasing Rule (3)

```
static int foo(int* x, double* y) {
    *x = 42;
    *y = 3.0;
    return *x;
}
int main() {
    int a = 0;
    double* y = reinterpret_cast<double*>(&a);
    return foo(&a, y);
}
```

Compiling this with g++ -02 will result in the following assembly

```
main:
movl $42, %eax
ret
```

Examining the Object Representation (1)



Important exception to the strict aliasing rule

- Any pointer may legally be converted to a pointer to char, or unsigned char
- Any pointer may legally be converted to a pointer to std::byte (defined in <cstddef> header, requires C++17),
- Permits the examination of the object representation of any object as an array of bytes

std::byte behaves similarly to unsigned char

- Represents a raw byte without any integer or character semantics
- Only bitwise operators are defined on bytes

Examining the Object Representation (2)

Example (compile with g++ -std=c++17)

```
#include <iostream>
#include <iomanip>
#include <cstddef>
int main() {
    double a = 3.14:
    const std::byte* bytes = reinterpret_cast<const std::byte*>(&a);
    std::cout << "The object representation of 3.14 is 0x";
    std::cout << std::hex << std::setfill('0') << std::setw(2);</pre>
    for (unsigned i = 0; i < sizeof(double); ++i)</pre>
        std::cout << static_cast<unsigned>(bytes[i]);
    std::cout << std::endl;</pre>
```

uintptr_t



Any pointer may legally be converted to an integral type

- The integral type must be large enough to hold all values of the pointer
- Usually, uintptr_t should be used (defined in <cstdint> header)
- Useful in some cases, especially when building custom data structures

```
#include <cstddint>
#include <iostream>
int main() {
   int x = 42;
   uintptr_t addr = reinterpret_cast<uintptr_t>(&x);
   std::cout << "The address of x is " << addr << std::endl;
}</pre>
```

The size of Operator (1)



The size of operator queries the size of the object representation of a type

```
sizeof( type )
```

Explanation

- The size of a type is given in bytes
- sizeof(std::byte), sizeof(char), and sizeof(unsigned char) return 1 by definition
- Depending on the computer architecture, there may be 8 or more bits in one byte (as defined by C+++)

The size of Operator (2)

The size of an object and pointer arithmetics are closely related

```
___ foo.cpp ____
#include <iostream>
int main() {
    int array[3] = \{123, 456, 789\};
    std::cout << "sizeof(int) = " << sizeof(int) << std::endl;</pre>
    int* ptr0 = &arrav[0]:
    int* ptr1 = &array[1];
    uintptr_t uptr0 = reinterpret_cast<uintptr_t>(ptr0);
    uintptr t uptr1 = reinterpret cast<uintptr t>(ptr1);
    std::cout << "(ptr1 - ptr0) = " << (ptr1 - ptr0) << std::endl;
    std::cout << "(uptr1 - uptr0) = " << (uptr1 - uptr0) << std::endl;
```

The size of Operator (3)

On an x86-64 machine, the program might produce the following output

```
$ ./foo
sizeof(int) = 4
(ptr1 - ptr0) = 1
(uptr1 - uptr0) = 4
```

Interpretation

- One int occupies 4 bytes
- There is one int between ptr0 and ptr1
- There are 4 bytes (i.e. exactly one int) between ptr0 and ptr1

The alignof Operator



Queries the alignment requirements of a type

```
alignof( type )
```

Explanation

- Depending on the computer architecture, certain types must have addresses aligned to specific byte boundaries
- The alignof operator returns the number of bytes between successive addresses where an object of type can be allocated
- The alignment requirement of a type is always a power of two
- Important (e.g.) for SIMD instructions, where the programmer must explicitly ensure correct alignment
- Memory accesses with incorrect alignment lead to undefined behavior, e.g. SIGSEGV or SIGBUS (depending on architecture)

Usage Guidelines

When to use references

- Pass-by-reference function call semantics
- When it is guaranteed that the referenced object will always be valid
- When object that should be referenced is always the same

When to use pointers

- Only when absolutely necessary!
- When there may not be a pointed-to object (i.e. nullptr)
- When the pointer may change to a different object
- When pointer arithmetic is desired

We will revisit this discussion later during the lecture

- Decision is intricately related to ownership semantics
- We would actually like to avoid using raw pointers as much as possible
- There are standard library classes which encapsulate pointers

Troubleshooting

Pointers have a reputation of being highly error-prone

- It is very easy to obtain pointers that point to invalid locations
- Once such a pointer is dereferenced, a number of bad things can happen

Bad things that may happen

- The pointer pointed outside of the program's address space
 - The program will likely segfault immediately
- The pointer pointed outside of the intended memory region, but still inside the program's address space
 - The program might segfault immediately
 - ...or simply corrupt some memory, which might lead to problems later

With the right tools, debugging is not as daunting as it may seem

The Infamous Segfault (1)

Every C++ programmer will encounter a segfault eventually

- Raised by hardware in response to a memory access violation
- In most cases caused by invalid pointers or memory corruption

Obvious example

```
int main() {
   int* a;
   return *a; // ERROR: Dereferencing an uninitialized pointer
}
```

Executing this program might result in the following

```
$ ./foo
[1] 5128 segmentation fault (core dumped) ./foo
```

The Infamous Segfault (2)

Sometimes, the root cause may be (much) more difficult to determine

```
bar.cpp
int main() {
  long* ptr;
  long array[3] = {123, 456, 789};
  ptr = &array[0];
  array[3] = 987; // ERROR: off-by-one access
  return *ptr;
}
```

When compiled with g++ -fno-stack-protector, this will also segfault

- The off-by-one access array[3] = 987 actually changes the value of ptr
- Dereferencing this pointer in the return statement will result in a segfault
- The -fno-stack-protector option is required, because g++ will by default emit extra code to prevent such buffer overflows

The Infamous Segfault (3)

Use the address sanitizer!

```
$ g++ -g -fno-stack-protector -obar bar.cpp
$ ./bar
[1] 4199 segmentation fault (core dumped) ./bar
$ g++ -g -fno-stack-protector -fsanitize=address -obar bar.cpp
$ ./bar
==4229==ERROR: AddressSanitizer: stack-buffer-overflow on address [...]
WRITE of size 8 at 0x7fff536479d8 thread T0
    #0 0x5617976d529f in main (/tmp/bar+0x129f)
    #1 0x7f6a0fcc3022 in __libc_start_main (/usr/lib/libc.so.6+0x27022)
    #2 0x5617976d50ad in start (/tmp/bar+0x10ad)
Address 0x7fff536479d8 is located in stack of thread T0 at offset 56 in frame
    #0 0x5617976d5188 in main (/tmp/bar+0x1188)
    This frame has 1 object(s):
      [32, 56) 'array' (line 3) <== Memory access at offset 56 overflows this

    variable

[...]
==4229==ABORTING
```