

# Hello, World!

Stroustrup 2.2.1

# First Program

```
// smallest C++ program  
int main() {  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/db9oP8EMl>

Every C++ program must contain exactly one function named main.

This is where execution of the program starts.

# First Program

```
// smallest C++ program  
int main() {  
}
```

the return value

this main takes no arguments

# Better First Program

```
// second smallest C++ program
int main() {
    return 0;
}
```

Now we actually return an integer.

A return value of 0 indicates success.

Nonzero return values can encode different types of errors.

It is a good habit to always include the return 0 statement.

# Hello World

```
#include <iostream>

// Hello World
int main() {
    std::cout << "Hello World\n";
    return 0;
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/Inn6G5dar>

We can use a `cout` statement to write to the console.

`cout` is the standard output stream and is defined in the `iostream` library.

# Hello World

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
// Hello World
```

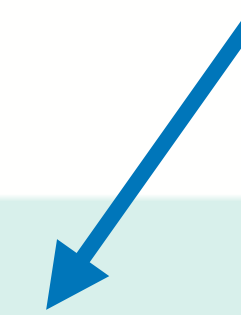
```
int main() {
```

```
    std::cout << "Hello World\n";
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

newline character



<https://godbolt.org/z/Inn6G5dar>

We can specify a string between double quotes.

The << is the insertion operator. It looks like a mouth shouting the string.

# Hello Again

```
// Hello Again  
int main() {  
    std::cout << "Hello" << " World\n";  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/Is46Tzedz>

We can concatenate outputs with the insertion operator.

Single characters can also be used, between single quotes.

```
std::cout << "Hello" << ' ' << "World\n";
```

# Built-In Types

Stroustrup 2.2.2

# Types

C++ offers some basic built-in types.

- `bool` a boolean value, true or false.
- `char` a character, for example 'a', '3' or '\n'.
- `int` an integer like 123 or -4000.
- `double` a double precision floating point number like 2.71828.
- `float` single precision floating point number.

# Size

How much memory a type uses can vary from machine to machine.

Typically:

`bool` and `char` use 8 bits or 1 byte.

`int` uses 4 bytes. This means an `int` can be in the range  $[-2^{31}, 2^{31} - 1]$

`double` uses 8 bytes.

`float` uses 4 bytes.

You can check this with the `sizeof` operator.

```
std::cout << sizeof(double);
```

The answer is given as a multiple of the size of the `char` type.

# Initializing Variables

Stroustrup 2.2.2

# Variables

```
int main() {  
    int x = 5;  
    std::cout << "the value of x is " << x << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/bjeM6Ml5M>

This prints out: **the value of x is 5**

The line `int x = 5` does two things:

- declares the name `x` to stand for an object of type `int` .
- initializes `x` with value 5.

# Watch Out! UB

```
int main() {  
    int x;  
    // Don't do this! The next line has undefined behavior.  
    std::cout << "the value of x is " << x << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

Here we declare the name `x` to stand for an `int` but we do not initialize it.

The compiler does not automatically initialize it for us. The value of `x` is whatever was already written to its spot in memory.

The result is **undefined behavior** (UB).

# Watch Out! UB

```
int main() {  
    int x;  
    // Don't do this! The next line has undefined behavior.  
    std::cout << "the value of x is " << x << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

The compiler does not automatically initialize it for us. The value of `x` is whatever was already written to its spot in memory.

This is done for performance reasons.

**Best Practice:** “Don’t introduce a name until you have a value for it”.

—Stroustrup

# Boolean Example

```
int main() {  
    bool b = true;  
    // std::cout << std::boolalpha;  
    std::cout << "This course is great: " << b << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/PnrzMP7rx>

Mild surprise, this prints out: **This course is great: 1**

If you want to print out true/false instead of 0/1, use the commented out line.

# Statically Typed

C++ is a statically typed language.

```
// Error! This code does not compile  
int x = 5;  
-----  
x = "hello";  
-----
```

Once `x` is declared to be an `int`, we cannot assign it to a value that can't be interpreted as an `int`.

# Implicit Conversions

If types don't match, the compiler may do an **implicit conversion** in order to make it work.

```
int main() {  
    int x = 5;  
    // this code compiles with no complaints  
    x = 3.14;  
    std::cout << "the value of x is " << x << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/sY53jMr7n>

In this case, an implicit conversion is done **with no warning!**

The value of `x` becomes 3.

# Terminology

```
int main() {  
    int x = 5;  
    x = 3;  
    return 0;  
}
```

The first line **initializes** `x` with the value 5.

The second line **assigns** `x` the value 3.

# Implicit Conversions

If types don't match, the compiler may do an **implicit conversion** in order to make it work.

```
int main() {  
    bool b = 53;  
    int x = 3.14;  
    std::cout << std::boolalpha;  
    std::cout << "b is " << b << " and x is " << x << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/6o5jqvoxT>

This prints: **b** is true and **x** is 3

# Implicit Conversions

`bool`

Zero is interpreted as `false`. Any **non-zero** numeric value is interpreted as `true`.

`int`

A floating point number is **truncated towards zero**.

Example:

```
int x = 3.99;    // x is 3  
int y = -3.99;  // y is -3
```

# Explicit Conversions

Best practice: if you want to use a conversion make it **explicit**.

We can do this with a **cast**.

```
int main() {  
    bool b = static_cast<bool>(53);  
    int x = static_cast<int>(3.14);  
    std::cout << std::boolalpha;  
    std::cout << "b is " << b << " and x is " << x << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/IdPezGdGT>

This tells people “I intend to do this conversion.”

# Brace Initialization

Initialization in C++ is surprisingly complicated.

**Brace initialization** was introduced in C++11 as a uniform initialization method.

```
int main() {  
    bool b {true};  
    int x {3};  
    std::cout << std::boolalpha;  
    std::cout << "b is " << b << " and x is " << x << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/Kd6coTf6q>

We put the value used to initialize the variable between braces.

# Brace Initialization: default

Empty brackets initialize to a default value.

```
int main() {  
    bool b {};  
    int x {};  
    std::cout << std::boolalpha;  
    std::cout << "b is " << b << " and x is " << x << "\n";  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/onETrP6Pb>

A `bool` defaults to false.

An `int` defaults to zero.

# Brace Initialization: conversion

A nice property of brace initialization is that it does not allow conversions.

`bool b {53}` ← this does not compile.

error: narrowing conversion of 53 from int to bool

`int x {3.14}` ← this does not compile.

error: narrowing conversion of 3.14 from double to int

**Best Practice:** Use brace initialization whenever possible.

# Tests and Loops

Stroustrup 2.2.4

# Tests



```
bool accept() {  
    std::cout << "Do you want to proceed (y or n)?\n";  
    char answer {}; // initializes with value 0  
    std::cin >> answer;  
    if (answer == 'y') {  
        std::cout << "yay\n";  
        return true;  
    }  
    return false;  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    accept();  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/3jxrhc51s>

Example adapted from Stroustrup 2.2.4

**Control code chart** [\[ edit \]](#)

Binary ↕	Oct ↕	Dec ↕	Hex	Abbreviation			Unicode Control Pictures <sup>[b]</sup>	Caret notation <sup>[c]</sup> ↕	C escape sequence <sup>[d]</sup> ↕	Name (1967) ↕
				1963 ↕	1965 ↕	1967 ↕				
000 0000	000	0	00	NULL	NUL		<small>NUL</small>	^@	\0	Null
000 0001	001	1	01	SOM	SOH		<small>SOH</small>	^A		Start of Heading
000 0010	002	2	02	EOA	STX		<small>STX</small>	^B		Start of Text
000 0011	003	3	03	EOM	ETX		<small>ETX</small>	^C		End of Text
000 0100	004	4	04	EOT			<small>EOT</small>	^D		End of Transmission
000 0101	005	5	05	WRU	ENQ		<small>ENQ</small>	^E		Enquiry
000 0110	006	6	06	RU	ACK		<small>ACK</small>	^F		Acknowledgement
000 0111	007	7	07	BELL	BEL		<small>BEL</small>	^G	\a	Bell
000 1000	010	8	08	FE0	BS		<small>BS</small>	^H	\b	Backspace <sup>[e][f]</sup>
000 1001	011	9	09	HT/SK	HT		<small>HT</small>	^I	\t	Horizontal Tab <sup>[g]</sup>
000 1010	012	10	0A	LF			<small>LF</small>	^J	\n	Line Feed
000 1011	013	11	0B	VTAB	VT		<small>VT</small>	^K	\v	Vertical Tab
000 1100	014	12	0C	FF			<small>FF</small>	^L	\f	Form Feed
000 1101	015	13	0D	CR			<small>CR</small>	^M	\r	Carriage Return <sup>[h]</sup>

ASCII table from <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ASCII>

# Tests



```
bool accept() {  
    std::cout << "Do you want to proceed (y or n)?\n";  
    char answer {};           // initializes with value 0  
    std::cin >> answer;  
    if (answer == 'y') {  
        std::cout << "yay\n";  
        return true;  
    }  
    return false;  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    accept();  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/3jxrhc51s>

Example adapted from Stroustrup 2.2.4

# Tests

```
bool accept() {  
    std::cout << "Do you want to proceed (y or n)?\n";  
    char answer {};           // initializes with value 0  
    std::cin >> answer;  
    if (answer == 'y') {  
        std::cout << "yay\n";  
        return true;  
    }  
    return false;  
}
```



```
int main() {  
    accept();  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/3jxrhc51s>

Example adapted from Stroustrup 2.2.4

# Loops

```
bool accept() {  
    std::cout << "Do you want to proceed (y or n)?\n";  
    char answer {};           // initializes with value 0  
    int tries {0};  
    while (tries < 4) {  
        std::cin >> answer;  
        if (answer == 'y') {  
            std::cout << "yay\n";  
            return true;  
        } else if (answer == 'n') {  
            std::cout << "bye bye\n";  
            return false;  
        }  
        ++tries;  
    }  
    return false;  
}
```



<https://godbolt.org/z/4ld43q3jK>


# Loops

```
bool accept() {
    std::cout << "Do you want to proceed (y or n)?\n";
    char answer {};           // initializes with value 0
    int tries {0};
    while (tries < 4) {
        std::cin >> answer;
        if (answer == 'y') {
            std::cout << "yay\n";
            return true;
        } else if (answer == 'n') {
            std::cout << "bye bye\n";
            return false;
        }
        ++tries;
    }
    return false;
}
```



<https://godbolt.org/z/4ld43q3jK>

# Loops



```
bool accept() {
    std::cout << "Do you want to proceed (y or n)?\n";
    char answer {};           // initializes with value 0
    for (int tries {0}; tries < 4; ++tries) {
        std::cin >> answer;
        if (answer == 'y') {
            std::cout << "yay\n";
            return true;
        } else if (answer == 'n') {
            std::cout << "bye bye\n";
            return false;
        }
    }
    return false;
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/Khndzhrvs>

# Question

Do you prefer the while loop solution or the for loop solution?

# While Loop

```
bool accept() {
    std::cout << "Do you want to proceed (y or n)?\n";
    char answer {};           // initializes with value 0
    int tries {0};
    while (tries < 4) {
        std::cin >> answer;
        if (answer == 'y') {
            std::cout << "yay\n";
            return true;
        } else if (answer == 'n') {
            std::cout << "bye bye\n";
            return false;
        }
        ++tries;
    }
    return false;
}
```

In the while loop, `tries` is still in scope after the while loop ends.

# For Loop

```
bool accept() {
    std::cout << "Do you want to proceed (y or n)?\n";
    char answer {};           // initializes with value 0
    for (int tries {0}; tries < 4; ++tries) {
        std::cin >> answer;
        if (answer == 'y') {
            std::cout << "yay\n";
            return true;
        } else if (answer == 'n') {
            std::cout << "bye bye\n";
            return false;
        }
    }
    return false;
}
```

The scope of `tries` is limited to the for loop itself.

# Warnings

# What does this code do?

```
int main() {  
    int x = 0;  
    if (x = 1) {  
        std::cout << "Hello, World!\n";  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/P91hdec8K>

# What does this code do?



```
int main() {  
    int x = 0;  
    if (x = 1) {  
        std::cout << "Hello, World!\n";  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/P91hdec8K>

This code prints out Hello, World!

# Compile with Warnings

```
int main() {  
    int x = 0;  
    if (x = 1) {  
        std::cout << "Hello, World!\n";  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

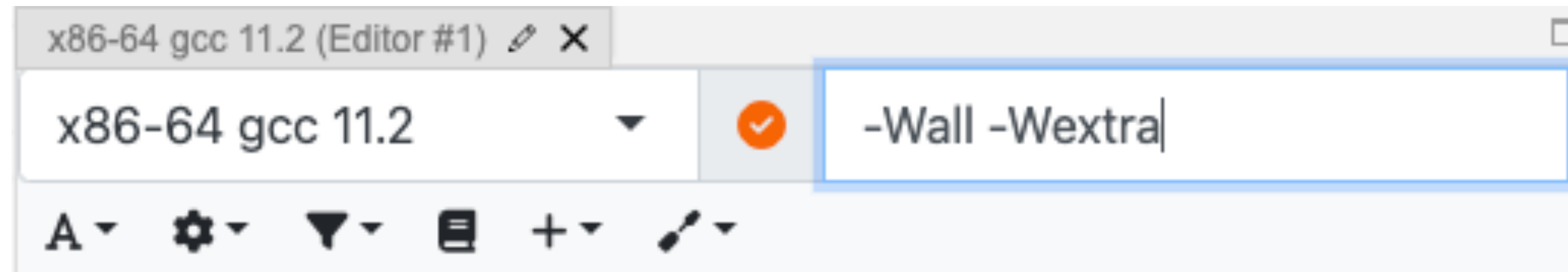
Typos happen. Get the compiler to help you out!

In this course we will always compile with the flags `-Wall -Wextra`

```
g++ -std=c++20 -Wall -Wextra main.cpp -o main
```

# Compile with Warnings

Godbolt has a box where we can add compiler flags.



<https://godbolt.org/z/IYzza74hc>

When we compile with these warnings the compiler tells us:

warning: suggest parentheses around assignment used as truth value.

# Compile with Warnings

```
int main() {  
    int x = 0;  
    if ((x = 1)) {  
        std::cout << "Hello, World!\n";  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

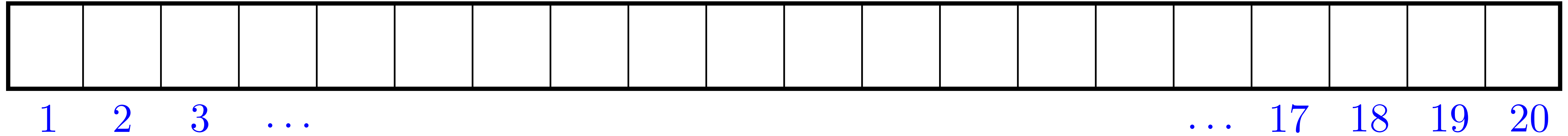
<https://godbolt.org/z/9xGssPvrX>

Now this compiles without a warning.

# Pointers

Stroustrup 2.2.4

# Memory



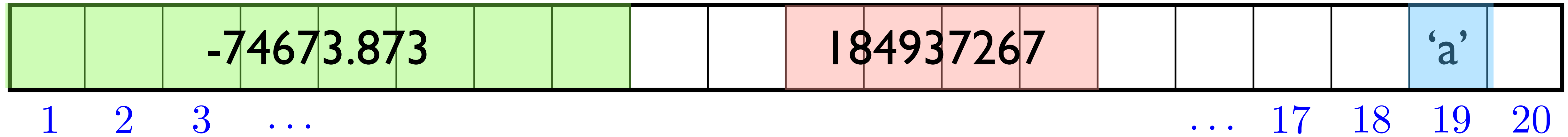
Imagine the memory as a long tape consisting of cells.

Each cell can hold 1 byte = 8 bits of information.

Each cell is labeled by an integer **address**.

On a 64 bit processor, memory addresses are 64 bit integers.

# Memory

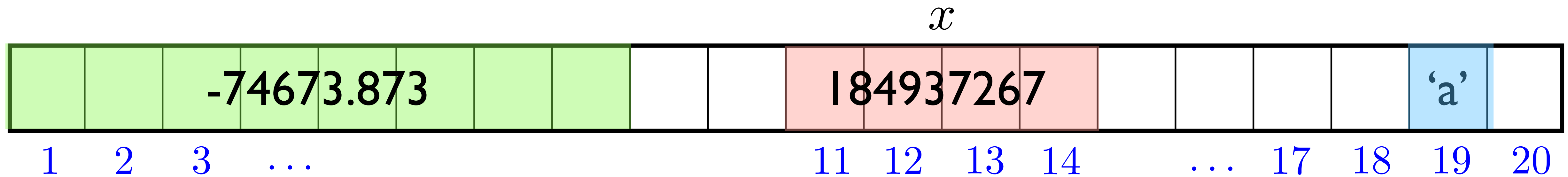


A `char` typically takes up a single cell.

An `int` typically takes up four cells.

A `double` typically takes up eight cells.

# Address Operator

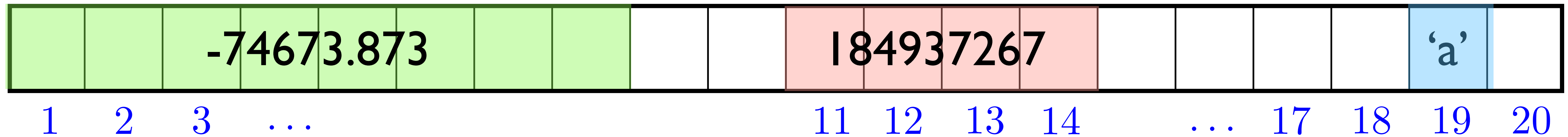


The `int 184937267` sits in cells 11 through 14.

We can see the address of a variable with the `&` operator.

This will return the address of the first byte the variable occupies, i.e. address 11 in our `int` example.

# Address Operator



We can see the address of a variable with the `&` operator.

```
int main() {  
    int x = 184937267;  
    std::cout << &x << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

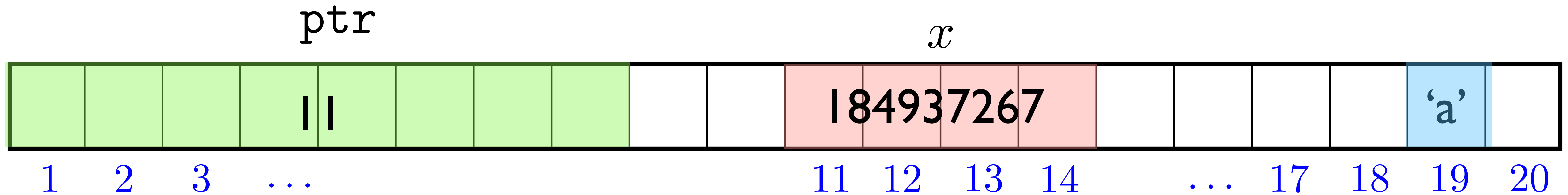
This will print out an address in hexadecimal like `0x7fffd34d1ffc`.

The `0x` indicates it is in hex, then 12 hex digits follow.

A hex digit can hold 4 bits of info.

<https://godbolt.org/z/IM9MvIW39>

# Pointers



A pointer is a variable holding an address.

```
int main() {  
    int x = 184937267;  
    int* ptr = &x;  
    std::cout << "ptr is " << ptr << '\n';  
    std::cout << sizeof(ptr) << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

If the pointer holds the address of an `int` its type is `int*`.

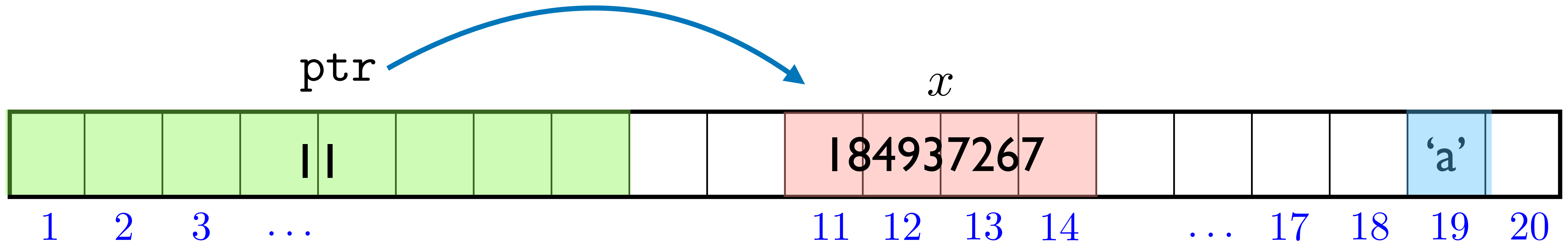
The star can go anywhere:

```
int * ptr
```

```
int * ptr
```

```
int * ptr
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/cxsa8Ke6M>



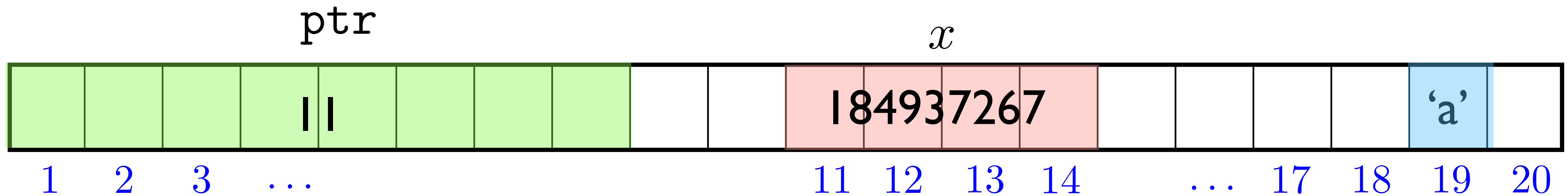
A pointer is a variable holding an address.

```
int main() {  
    int x = 184937267;  
    int* ptr = &x;  
    std::cout << "ptr is " << ptr << '\n';  
    std::cout << sizeof(ptr) << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

The name pointer arises because we think that it points at the memory location that is its value.

<https://godbolt.org/z/cxsa8Ke6M>

# Question



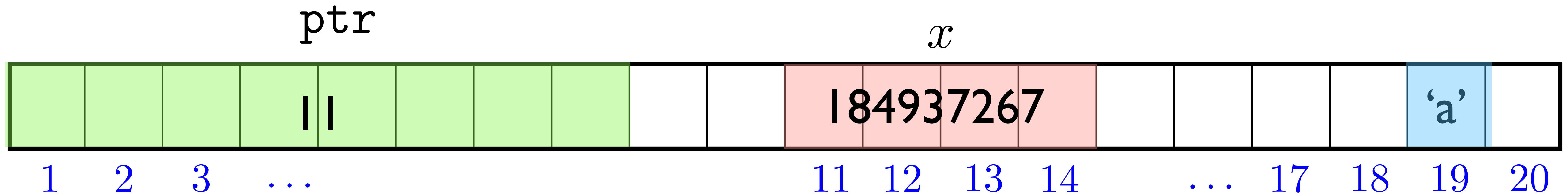
A pointer is a variable holding an address.

```
int main() {  
    int x = 184937267;  
    int* ptr = &x;  
    std::cout << "ptr is " << ptr << '\n';  
    std::cout << sizeof(ptr) << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

How many bytes is ptr ?

<https://godbolt.org/z/cxsa8Ke6M>

# Pointers



A pointer is a variable holding an address.

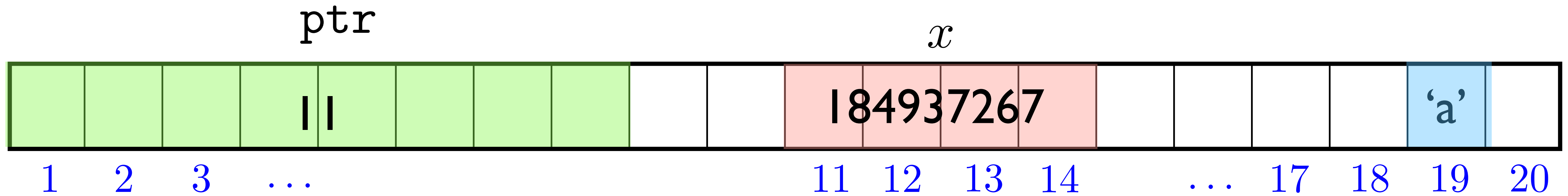
```
int main() {  
    int x = 184937267;  
    int* ptr = &x;  
    std::cout << "ptr is " << ptr << '\n';  
    std::cout << sizeof(ptr) << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

How many bytes is `ptr` ?

`ptr` holds an address so on a 64-bit arch it will be 8 bytes.

<https://godbolt.org/z/cxsa8Ke6M>

# Dereferencing



A pointer is a variable holding an address.

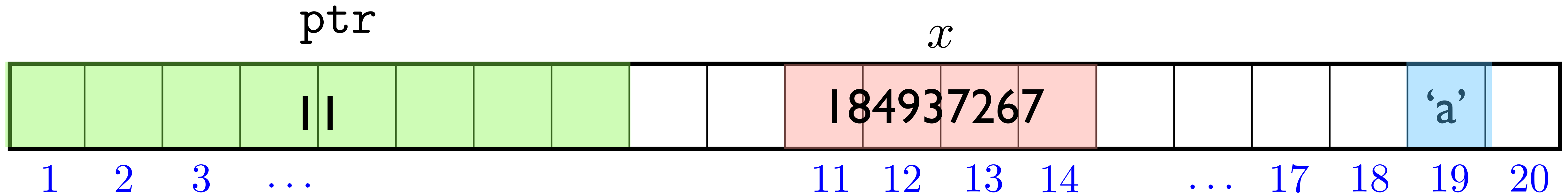
```
int main() {  
    int x = 184937267;  
    int* ptr = &x;  
    std::cout << "the value of x is " << *ptr << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

What is the difference between an `int*` and a `char*`?

We need to know the type to **dereference** a pointer.

<https://godbolt.org/z/vEnzKzb3q>

# Dereferencing



A pointer is a variable holding an address.

```
int main() {  
    int x = 184937267;  
    int* ptr = &x;  
    std::cout << "the value of x is " << *ptr << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

In the picture above

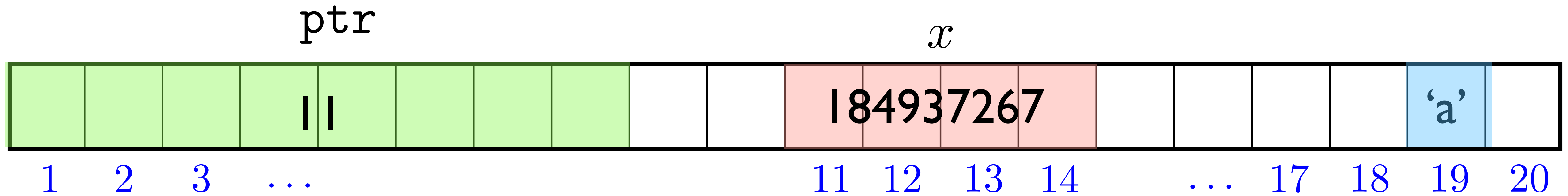
`ptr == 11`

`*ptr == 184937267`

What is the value of `&ptr`?

<https://godbolt.org/z/vEnzKzb3q>

# Pointer Address



A pointer is a variable holding an address.

```
int main() {  
    int x = 184937267;  
    int* ptr = &x;  
    std::cout << "the value of x is " << *ptr << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

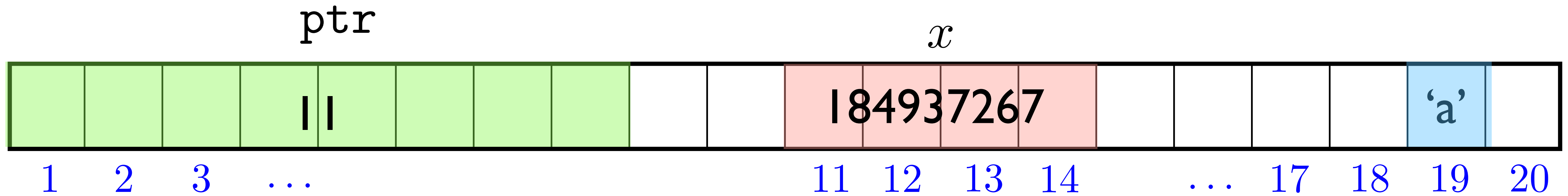
In the picture above

`&ptr == 1`

This is the address of the first byte of `ptr`.

<https://godbolt.org/z/vEnzKzb3q>

# Dereference Assignment



A pointer is a variable holding an address.

```
int main() {  
    int x = 184937267;  
    int* ptr = &x;  
    *ptr = 5;  
    std::cout << x << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/Ph8vE4z83>

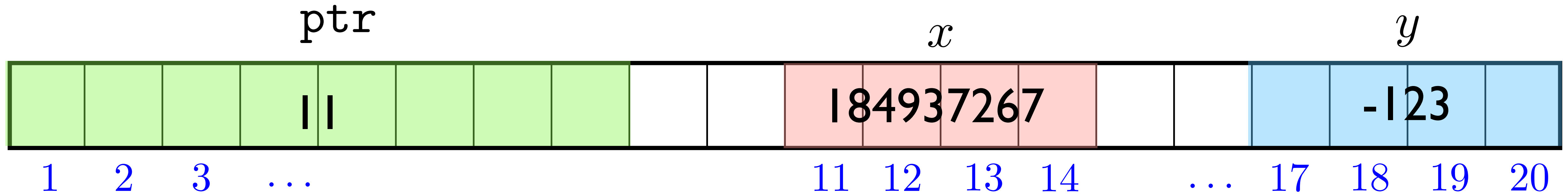
We can use a pointer to  $x$  to write to the address of  $x$ .

$*ptr = 5$

This writes the value 5 in the address stored in `ptr`.

The value of  $x$  is now 5.

# Pointer Assignment



A pointer is a variable holding an address.

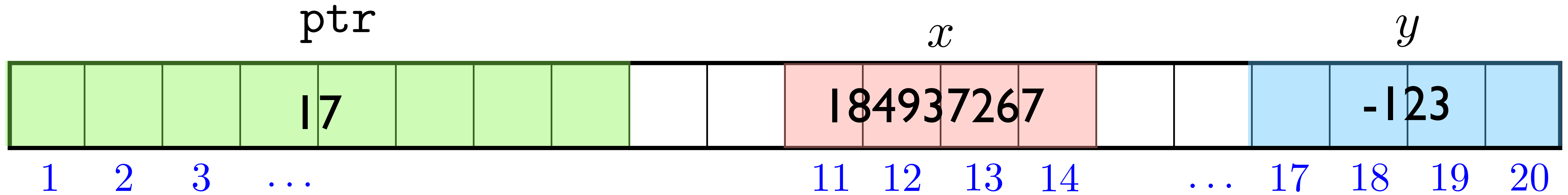
```
int main() {  
    int x = 184937267;  
    int y = -123;  
    int* ptr = &x;  
    ptr = &y;  
    *ptr = 5;  
    std::cout << x << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

→

On this line we change the value of `ptr`.

In the picture above, the value of `ptr` becomes 17.

# Pointer Assignment



A pointer is a variable holding an address.

```
int main() {  
    int x = 184937267;  
    int y = -123;  
    int* ptr = &x;  
    ptr = &y;  
    *ptr = 5;  
    std::cout << x << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

On this line we change the value of `ptr`.

In the picture above, the value of `ptr` becomes 17.

We can change the address a pointer points to.

<https://godbolt.org/z/4PrbTrEjr>

# Null Pointer

```
int main() {  
    int* ptr = 0;  
    // BAD EXAMPLE! Dereferencing memory address 0  
    // results in a segmentation fault.  
    std::cout << *ptr << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/q8vE3G4dd>

The memory address 0 is special.

A program is not allowed to read or write to memory address 0.

Accessing memory location 0 results in a segmentation fault.

# Null Pointer

```
int main() {  
    int* ptr = nullptr;  
    if (ptr != nullptr) {  
        std::cout << "do something with ptr\n";  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/cYTKaaqxq>

A pointer with address 0 is called a **null pointer**.

Null pointers are used as sentinel values.

C++11 introduced the `nullptr` keyword.

**Best practice:** Use `nullptr` instead of 0 or `NULL`.

# Null Pointer

```
int main() {  
    int* ptr = nullptr;  
    if (ptr != nullptr) {  
        std::cout << "do something with ptr\n";  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

`nullptr` is shared by all pointer types.

We can use this with an `int*` or `char*` or anything else.


<https://godbolt.org/z/cYTKaaqxq>

# Chasing Seg Faults

Compiling with the flag `-fsanitize=address` can help find seg faults and other memory errors.

When we add this flag to our seg fault example we get the following:

```
==1==ERROR: AddressSanitizer: SEGV on unknown address 0x000000000000
==1==The signal is caused by a READ memory access.
==1==Hint: address points to the zero page.
#0 0x401221 in main /app/example.cpp:7
#1 0x7f82b730a082 in __libc_start_main (/lib/x86_64-linux-gnu/libc.so.6)
#2 0x40111d in _start (/app/output.s+0x40111d)
```



<https://godbolt.org/z/Grc6jKeEa>

It identifies the line number that causes the seg fault.

# References

# References

A reference is an alias for another variable.

```
int main() {  
    int x = 184937267;  
    int& xRef = x;  
    // prints out 184937267  
    std::cout << xRef << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/jI sfcecGY>

`xRef` is a reference to an integer. In this context, ampersand is used to denote a reference type, it is not in the role of the address operator.

# References

```
int main() {  
    int x = 184937267;  
    int& xRef = x;  
    x = 5;  
    // xRef is now 5 too  
    std::cout << "xRef is " << xRef << '\n';  
    xRef = 10;  
    // x is now 10 too  
    std::cout << "x is " << x << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/P7nsGx4En>

# References

```
int main() {  
    int x = 184937267;  
    int& xRef = x;  
    std::cout << "the address of x is " << &x << '\n';  
    std::cout << "the address of xRef is " << &xRef << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/c89soEcqa>

These addresses are be the same.

# References vs Pointers

References are similar to pointers but there are a few key differences:

- References **must be initialized**: no reference analog of `int * ptr;`
- A reference is bound to the variable with which it is initialized. We cannot later let it stand for a different variable.
- There is no analog of a null pointer for references.

A big advantage of references is that the syntax is easier. You can act on a reference just like you do the variable it aliases.

# Arrays

Stroustrup 2.2.4

# Initializing an Array

```
int main() {  
    int arr1[3] {1,2,3};           // type int[3] holds 1,2,3  
    char arr2[] = {'a', 'b', 'c'}; // type char[3] holds 'a','b','c'  
    bool arr3[4] {false, true};   // type bool[4] holds false,true,false,false  
    int arr4[5] {};               // type int[5] holds 0,0,0,0,0  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/YsKnaK34W>

# Bad Example

When we explicitly state the size, the number of initializers cannot be larger than the size.

```
int main() {  
    int arr1[3] {1,2,3,4,5}; // does not compile  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/vhzqsE1v4>

# Dangerous Example

When we don't provide an initializer list the elements of the array are not initialized.

```
int main() {  
    int arr1[5];    // no initialization of elements  
    for (int x : arr1) {  
        std::cout << x << '\n';    //UNDEFINED BEHAVIOR  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```



range-based  
for loop

<https://godbolt.org/z/YKbjrYI sa>

# Range-Based For

```
int main() {  
    int arr[3] {1, 2, 3};  
    for (int x : arr) {  
        ++x;           // increments copy of array element  
    }  
    // prints 1 2 3  
    // array elements unchanged  
    for (int x : arr) {  
        std::cout << x << ' ';  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/aMPvasvM>

# Range-Based For

```
int main() {  
    int arr[3] {1, 2, 3};  
    // take elements of array by reference  
    for (int& x : arr) {  
        ++x;           // increments array element!  
    }  
    // prints 2 3 4  
    for (int x : arr) {  
        std::cout << x << ' ';  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/Po5zfEPTP>

# Arrays and Pointers

Arrays are closely related to pointers.

```
int main() {  
    int arr[3] {1, 2, 3};  
    // these print out the same thing  
    std::cout << arr << '\n';  
    std::cout << &arr[0] << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/bszeqzedj>

The name of the array is a synonym for the address of the first element.

# Contiguous Memory

Elements of an array are stored contiguously in memory

```
int main() {  
    bool arr[3] {true, false, true};  
    for (bool& x : arr) {  
        std::cout << &x << '\n';  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

output

```
0x7ffc1e76ca9d  
0x7ffc1e76ca9e  
0x7ffc1e76ca9f
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/rPf75T5WK>

Booleans take up one byte of memory. The elements of the array have adjacent addresses.

# Contiguous Memory

Elements of an array are stored contiguously in memory

```
int main() {  
    int arr[3] {1, 2, 3};  
    for (int& x : arr) {  
        std::cout << &x << '\n';  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

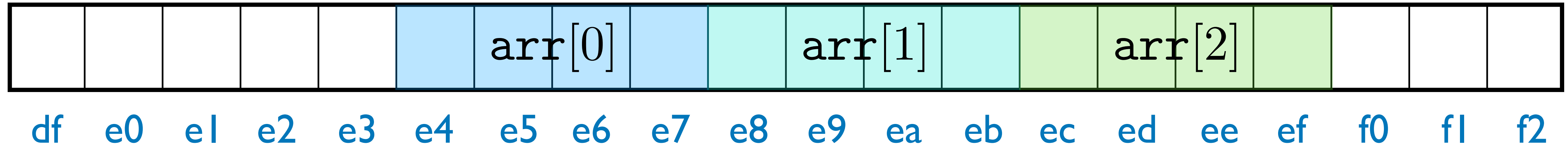
output

```
0x7fffcc364de4  
0x7fffcc364de8  
0x7fffcc364dec
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/P5IsYonKv>

Ints take 4 bytes of memory. Now the addresses increment by 4 each time.

# Picture



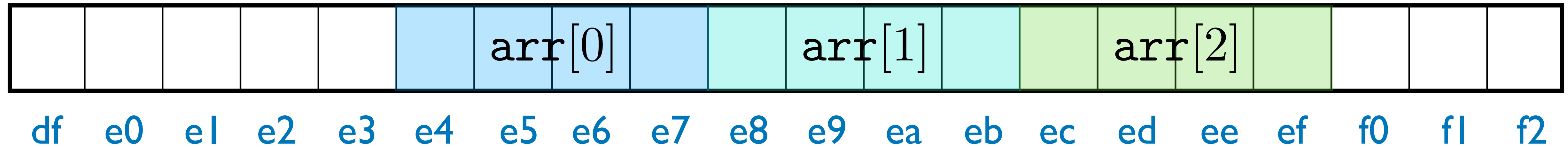
```
int main() {  
    int arr[3] {1, 2, 3};  
    for (int& x : arr) {  
        std::cout << &x << '\n';  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

output

```
&arr[0] 0x7fffcc364de4  
&arr[1] 0x7fffcc364de8  
&arr[2] 0x7fffcc364dec
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/P5IsYonKv>

# Pointer Arithmetic

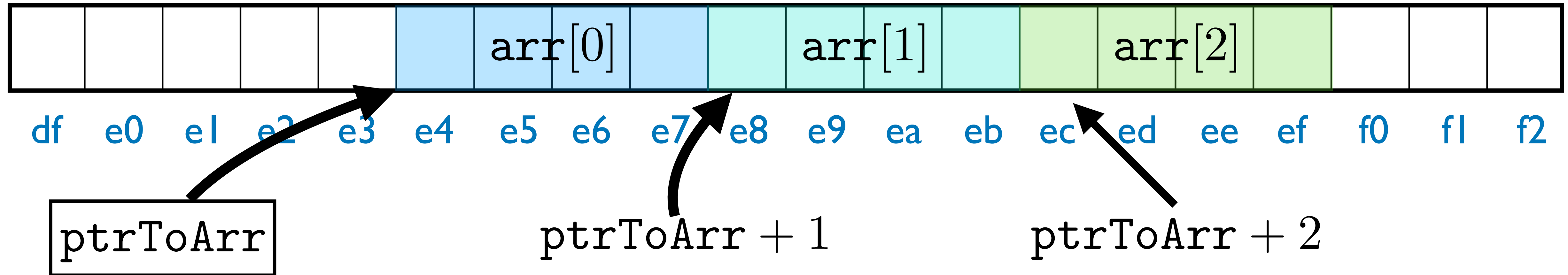


Pointers increment by the size of the type to which they point.

```
int main() {  
    int arr[3] {1, 2, 3};  
    int* ptrToArr = &arr[0];  
    std::cout << ptrToArr + 1 << '\n';  
    std::cout << &arr[1] << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/7hqYdTb4v>

# Pointer Arithmetic



```
int main() {  
    int arr[3] {1, 2, 3};  
    int* ptrToArr = &arr[0];  
    std::cout << ptrToArr + 1 << '\n';  
    std::cout << &arr[1] << '\n';  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/7hqYdTb4v>

# Iterate with Pointer

```
int main() {  
    int arr[3] {1, 2, 3};  
    int* ptrToArr = &arr[0];  
    for (int i = 0; i < 3; ++i) {  
        std::cout << *(ptrToArr + i) << '\n';  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/sMasWYqaf>

# Decay to Pointer

```
int main() {  
    int arr[3] {1, 2, 3};  
    for (int i = 0; i < 3; ++i) {  
        std::cout << *(arr + i) << '\n';  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/zGlb7GPno>

An array is not identical to a pointer to its first element, but it decays to a pointer to its first element in many contexts.

# C++ Trivia

`arr[i]` is syntactic sugar for `*(arr + i)`

```
int main() {  
    int arr[3] {1, 2, 3};  
    // perverse example  
    for (int i = 0; i < 3; ++i) {  
        std::cout << i[arr] << '\n';  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/h7PseqGWz>