

Fundamentals and Machine Model

Machine/Memory Model and the Function Call Stack

Object: a piece of data that's stored at a particular location in memory during runtime.

Variable: a *name* in source code that is associated with an object at compile time.

❗ Not all objects are associated with variables; e.g. dynamically-stored objects and string literals are not.

❗ The value stored by a variable's memory object may change, but the association between a variable and an object itself can only change when the variable goes out of **scope**.



Static objects "live" for essentially a program's runtime. Local objects' lifetimes are tied to scope (e.g. a block of code or pair of curly braces). Dynamic objects are manually created/destroyed.

❗ Objects declared in a loop body (between the {} are created/destroyed each time the loop repeats.

Atomic (primitive) types: types whose objects can't be subdivided into smaller objects; includes `int`, `double`, `bool`, `float`, `char`, and all pointer types. Atomic objects are default-initialized to undefined values.

```
1 // Four different ways to initialize an int to 5
2 int a = 5; int b(5); int c{5}; int d = {5};

1 // Explicitly cast an int 'd' to a double 'e'
2 double e = static_cast<double>(d);
```

The memory allocated to store a function's parameters and local variables during runtime is called a **stack frame** or activation record. The memory frame for the most-recently called function is added to the "top" of the **function call stack** and is destroyed when the function returns ("Last In First Out" ordering).

Procedural Abstraction and Program Design

Procedural Abstraction involves using functions to break down a complex procedure into sub-tasks and separate the interface of a procedure (what it does) from implementation (how it works).

Interface examples: declarations in `.h` files, valid/invalid inputs, RME statements, *signature* (function name and parameter types), return type, and ADT representation invariants.

Implementation examples: definitions in `.cpp` files and code/comments inside function bodies.

Pointers, Arrays and References

A **pointer** is a type of object that stores another object's memory address as its value.

❗ An `int*` pointer variable can *only* point to an `int`; an `int**` pointer variable can *only* point to an `int*`; and so on. (E.g. attempting to make an `int*` pointer point to a `double` will lead to a compile error.)

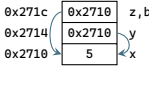
Dereferencing a pointer: getting the object at an address. Note that the star * operator is used both to declare pointers and to dereference them (and the & operator is used both to get an object's address and to declare a reference).

```
1 int x = 3; int y = 4;
2 int* p1 = &x; // p1 initialized to x's address
3 int* p2; // p2 initialized to undefined value
4 p2 = p1; // copies the address stored by p1 to p2
5 p1 = &y; // no star... assigns y's address to p1
6 *p1 = 6; // dereferences p1, now y == 6
7 *p2 = 2; // p2 still points to x, so now x == 2
```

❗ Printing a non-char pointer will print an address. (char pointers are special and get printed as C-strings.)

❗ A reference to a reference is really another reference for the "original" object.

```
1 int x = 5;
2 int* y = &x; // creates pointer to x
3 int* z = y; // creates another pointer to x
4 int* &b = z; // creates reference b to pointer z
5 cout << *b << endl; // Prints 5
6 cout << &y << endl; // prints 0x2714
7 cout << y << endl; // prints 0x2710
8 cout << &(x) << endl; // equiv. to cout << &x
9 cout << &(z) << endl; // equiv. to cout << z
```



Null pointer: a pointer that holds address `0x0` (which no object can be located at) and implicitly converts to false. Any pointer can be nullified; to do so, set it equal to `nullptr` (0 or `NULL` also work but are bad style).

Common Pointer/Reference Errors

❗ Dereferencing an uninitialized pointer results in undefined behavior, as (like all atomic objects) pointers that aren't explicitly initialized are default-initialized to an undefined value (*not* `nullptr`).

❗ Dereferencing a null pointer also leads to undefined behavior (almost always a program crash).

❗ Uninitialized references or references-to-non-const that are bound to "literal" values won't compile.

⚠ If a function returns a pointer or reference to one of its local variables (which die when the function returns), dereferencing that pointer or using that reference produces undefined behavior.

```
1 int* danglingPtr(int x) // BUG
2 { return &x; }

1 int& danglingRef(int x) // BUG
2 { return x; }

1 int* returnPtr(int& x)
2 { return &x; } // OK
```

Pointers vs References

References and pointers both enable working between stack frames (scopes) and indirection. Some ways they're different:

- References are simply aliases for existing objects, while pointers are themselves distinct objects with distinct values.
- Pointers must be dereferenced to access the objects they point at, while references are used "as-is".
- You can change the object that a (non-const) pointer points to, while a reference's binding to an object can't be changed.

Number Swap Function

```
1 void swap_nums(int *x, int *y) {
2     int tmp = *x;
3     *x = *y;
4     *y = tmp;
5 }
6
7 int main() {
8     int a = 1216, b = 1261;
9     swap_nums(&a, &b);
10 }
```

Arrays and Pointer Arithmetic

Arrays: fixed-size containers that store objects of the same type (and same size) in contiguous memory.

```
int A[3] = {1,2,3}; // {1,2,0}
int B[3] = { }; // {0,0,0}
int C[] = {1,2,3}; // size == 2

int D[2] = {1,2,3}; // {1,2,3,0}
int E[3] = {1,2,3}; // {1,2,3}
int F[3]; // CAUTION: uninitialized!

int G[]; // Unclear size
int H[2] = {1,2,3,4}; // Same
int I[] = { }; // Same
```

Array decay: using an array in a context where a value is required causes the compiler to convert the array into a pointer to its first element. Array decay is why it's necessary to pass an array's size separately from the array to a function (or to indicate the end of an array with a *sentinel character* like C-strings do).

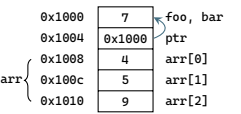
⚠ Dereferencing a pointer that goes past the bounds of an array results in undefined behavior. But merely *using* a pointer that goes just past the end of an array without dereferencing it is well-defined.

```
1 void add_five(int arr[], int size) {
2     for (int i = 0; i < size; i++) { arr[i] += 5; }
3 } // arr[i] += 5 is equiv. to *(arr + i) += 5
4
5 int main() {
6     int arr[] = { 10, 20, 30 };
7     add_five(arr, (sizeof(arr)) / sizeof(*arr));
8     cout << arr[1] << endl; // prints 25
9 } // i[arr] is equiv. to arr[i], but bad style
```

Passing `arr` by value passes a pointer to `arr[0]` by value. Also, `arr[i]` is shorthand for pointer arithmetic followed by a dereference, i.e., `arr[i] = *(arr + i)`.

❗ The `sizeof` operator returns the size of an object in *bytes*. In this example, `sizeof(arr)` alone would return 12, not 3.

```
1 int foo = 7;
2 int& bar = foo; // value of bar is foo (7)
3 int* ptr = &foo;
4 int arr[3] = { 4, 5, 9 };
5 cout << arr << endl; // prints 0x1008 (decay)
6 cout << (arr + 2) << endl; // prints 0x1010
7 cout << (&foo + 1) << endl; // prints 0x1004
```



Pointer arithmetic: adding an integer *n* to a pointer yields a pointer that is *n* objects forward in memory.

Pointer subtraction: Subtracting two pointers of the same type yields an integer (possibly a negative one) equal to the *number of objects* between them.

Pointer comparison: comparing pointers of the same type compares the addresses they store.

Pointer Operations

```
1 // Mainly for pointers into the same array
2 double arr[4] = { 2.5, 5.0, 8.0, 7.0 };
3 double* ptr1 = &arr[0], *ptr2 = &arr[3];
4 cout << *arr << endl; // prints 2.5
5 cout << (ptr2 - ptr1) << endl; // prints 3
6 cout << (ptr1 - ptr2) << endl; // prints -3
7 (ptr1 > ptr2); // equates to false (0)
8 ptr1 += 2; // ptr1 now points to arr[2]
```

Using the `&` operator on an array produces a pointer to the entire array, not a pointer to the first element or a pointer to a pointer (& does not require a value, so it doesn't cause decay).

```
1 int arr[4] = { 1, 2, 3, 4 };
2 char *ptr_a = acc->username; // pointer to entire array
3 cout << (*arr_ptr)[2] << endl; // prints 3
4 // *arr_ptr would increment by the size of 4 ints
```

Traversal By Pointer: arrays can be traversed by pointer (mostly used with C-strings and iterators).

Traversal By Pointer: Pattern 1

```
1 int const SIZE = 3;
2 int arr[SIZE] = {-1, 7, 2};
3 int *ptr = arr;
4 while (ptr < arr + SIZE;
5 // int end is just past the end of arr
6 while (ptr < end) {
7     cout << *ptr << endl;
8     ++ptr; // "Walk" ptr across arr
9 } // Alternative to while loop below
1 foo(C, ptr < end; ++ptr) { ... }
```

Traversal by Pointer: Pattern 2 (C-String Sanitization)

```
1 void sanitize_username(Account *acc, char to_remove) {
2     char *ptr_a = acc->username; *ptr_b = acc->username;
3     while (*ptr_a && *ptr_b) { // while not '\0'
4         if (*ptr_b != to_remove) {
5             *ptr_a = *ptr_b;
6             ++ptr_a; // ++ptr_a only when a char gets copied
7         }
8         ++ptr_b; // ++ptr_b every time the loop executes
9     }
10    *ptr_a = '\0'; // null-terminate string when done
11 }
```

The const Keyword

The `const` type qualifier stops objects from being modified after initialization. Note: `const` scalars must be explicitly-initialized to compile, and `const` class-type objects must have their data members initialized.

const pointers: pointers that can modify what they point at but cannot be re-pointed to different objects.

Pointer-to-const: read-only pointers; pointers that can be re-bound but can't modify what they point at.

❗ A `const` pointer must be initialized to compile, but a pointer-to-const doesn't need to be.

Reference-to-const: a read-only alias.

const array: an array of `const` elements. Note that the placement of `const` matters for arrays of pointers.

```
1 const int* A[] = { ... }; // ptr-to-const array
1 int* const B[] = { ... }; // const pointer array
```

const Conversions and Passing

The compiler treats every pointer-to-const as if they point to a `const` object and every reference-to-const as if they're aliased to a `const` object. It won't allow conversions that could bypass existing `const` protections (so, for example, you can assign a `const` pointer to a pointer-to-const, but the converse is *not* true).

```
1 int foo(int& a) { ... }
2 int bar(int b) { ... }
3 int func(const int c) { ... }
4 const int x = 3;
5 bar(x); func(&x); // both ok
6 int& ref = cref; // ERROR
```

```
1 const int x = 3;
2 int y = x; // OK
3 const int* cptr = &x; // OK
4 const int& cref = x; // OK
5 int* ptr = cref; // ERROR 1
6 int& ref = cref; // ERROR 2
```

```
1 int x = 2, y = 5;
2 const int *x_ptr = &x;
3 int *y_ptr = &y;
4 *y_ptr = *x_ptr; // OK
5 y_ptr = x_ptr; // ERROR (even
6 though x isn't const) */
```

- Pass by pointer/reference: if you need to modify the original object (as opposed to a local copy).
- Pass by value: if an object is small (e.g., an `int`) and you can't/don't need to modify the original.
- Pass by pointer/reference-to-const: if you want to pass a large object without modifying it.

Strings, Streams and I/O

Creating/Using C-Strings and Strings

```
1 const char* cstr = "abcd"; // Only works for string literals; use c_str() on string variables
2 char color[] = "002710C"; // Create 7-element array (including '\0') and copy a string literal to it
3 // Note: '\0' is the only char that evaluates to false (useful for traversal-by-pointer loops).
4 cout << cstr << " " << *cstr << " " << &cstr[0] << endl; // prints "abcd a bcd"
5 cout << (cstr + 1) << " " << (cstr + 1) << " " << (cstr + 1); // prints "bcd b 98" ('a' == 97)
6 string xyz = string(cstr); // Explicitly copy cstring to a string (implicit copy would work too)
```

	Length	Copy Value	Index	Concatenate	Compare
<string>	strlen(cstr);	strcpy(cstr1, cstr2);	cstr[1];	strcat(cstr1, cstr2);	strcmp(cstr1, cstr2);
<string>	str.length();	str1 = str2;	str[1];	str1 += str2;	str1 != str2;

Streams and File I/O

stdin Redirection	stdout Redirection	Pipeline	Combined Redirection
./main.exe < input.txt	./main.exe > output.txt	./output.exe input.exe	./main.exe < input.in > output.out

File I/O Ex 1: Print Lines From File

```
1 #include <fstream> // defines (if/of)stream objects
2 int main() {
3     ifstream inFS; // could also do inFS("file.txt");
4     inFS.open("file.txt");
5     if (!inFS.is_open()) { return 1; }
6     string my_string; // initialized to empty string
7     while (getline(inFS, my_string)) {
8         cout << my_string << endl;
9     } // could close inFS manually via inFS.close();
10 } // inFS also closes when scope ends/main returns
```

Ex 2: Copy One File's Contents to Another

```
1 #include <fstream> // defines stringstream
2 void copyFile(string file1, string file2) {
3     // C-string parameters would work too
4     ifstream inFS(file1);
5     ofstream outFS(file2);
6     string str; // a C-string would also work
7     while (inFS >> str) {
8         outFS << str << '\n';
9     }
10 } // Note: >> stops at first whitespace
```

istringstream: an object that "simulates" input with a string as its source. Note: an `istringstream`, an `ifstream` and `cin` can all be passed to a function with a `std::istream&` parameter.

ostringstream: an object that captures output and stores it in a string. Note: an `ostringstream`, an `ofstream` and `cout` can all be passed to a function with a `std::ostream&` parameter.

```
1 #include <sstream> // defines stringstream
2 void printPlusOne(istream& is, ostream& os) {
3     int num = 0;
4     while (is >> num) { os << (++num) << " "; }
5 } // Note: can't pass or return numbers by value
6 ...
7 istringstream inSS("1 3 5");
8 ostreamstream outSS;
9 printPlusOne(inSS, outSS);
10 cout << outSS.str() << endl; // Prints "2 4 6"
```

Command-Line Arguments

argc: an `int` parameter of `main` representing the number of a command's arguments.

argv: an array of the arguments passed to a program. (Technically, `argv` is an array of pointers that each point to the start of a C-string—so `argv` is passed to `main` as a pointer to an array of pointers to C-strings).

```
1 #include <string> // defines stoi()/stod()
2 int main(int argc, char* argv[]) { // char** argv also OK
3     if (string(argv[1]) != "add") {
4         int sum = 0;
5         for (int i = 2; i < argc; i++) { sum += stoi(argv[i]); }
6         cout << "Sum: " << sum << " , argc: " << argc << endl;
7     } // pay attention to where the "actual" arguments start
8 } // Also remember to use stoi()/string() when needed
```

```
Terminal
hugokin@ubuntu:~$ ./main.exe add 7 2
Sum: 9, argc: 4
hugokin@ubuntu:~$ ./main.exe add 1 2 3
Sum: 6, argc: 5
hugokin@ubuntu:~$ _
```

ADTs, Structs and Classes

C-Style Structs and ADTs

A **struct** is a class-type object composed of member subobjects (heterogeneous data). They're passed by value by default, and they support assignment and initialization via the `=` operator. A **struct** or **class** object can also be declared as `const`, which prevents it and all of its data members from being modified.

❗ You can't call non-const member functions on a `const` instance of a `class` or `struct`. Also, you can't call non-const member functions from within a `const` member function.

Arrow -> operator: shorthand for pointer dereferencing followed by member access. `(*ptr).x == ptr->x`;

❗ Without parentheses, the dot and arrow operators have greater precedence than dereferencing.

Abstract Data Type: a data type that separates its behavior and implementation. ADTs encompass both data and behaviors/functions that act upon it. Not all structs are ADTs, some are "plain old data".

⚠ Avoid accessing the member data of an ADT directly (even in tests) because it breaks the interface.

C++ Classes

In C++, the only real difference between classes and structs are that classes have private member access and private inheritance by default while structs default to public access/inheritance.

Constructors

- 1 The compiler implicitly creates a default ctor iff there are no user-defined ctors (same for dtors).
- 2 The order in which members are declared in a class is *always* the order they're initialized in.
- 3 Initialization values from a member init. list over-write initializations made during declarations.
- 4 Data members that aren't included in a ctor's member initializer list or initialized at declaration get default-initialized/constructed.
- 5 A delegating ctor must contain a call to the other ctor (and nothing else) in its member init. list.

```
Constructor Definition Example
1 class Animal {
2 private: string name;
3 public:
4   Animal(string name_in) // Non-default ctor
5     : name(name_in) { // Member init. list
6   Animal() // Default ctor (no arguments)
7     : Animal("Blank") { // ctor delegation
8   }; // Note the semicolon here!
9
10  class Bird : public Animal {
11 private: bool has_wings;
12 public: Bird(string name, bool wings_in)
13       : Animal(name), has_wings(wings_in) { }
14 }; // Derived class ctors must call base ctor
15
16  class Duck : public Bird {
17 private: string color;
18 public: Duck(string name, bool wings, string rgb)
19       : Bird(name, wings), color(rgb) { }
20 }; // Calling Bird ctor also calls Animal ctor
21
22 // This is how to define a ctor OUTSIDE of body
23 Duck::Duck(string name, bool wings, string rgb)
24 : Bird(name, wings), color(rgb) { }
```

Nested Classes and Constructors

To initialize a nested class object, initialize it with a valid argument for the nested class's ctor.

Nested class objects in a const class object are also const.

```
1 class Book {
2 public:
3   Book(double price_in)
4     : price(price_in) { }
5 // Note: no default Book ctor
6 private:
7   double price;
8 };
9
10 class Person {
11 public:
12   Person(string& n, double p)
13     : name(n), favBook(p) { }
14 private:
15   string name;
16   Book favBook;
17 };
18
```

Inheritance and Polymorphism

Function Overloading (Ad Hoc Polymorphism) and Operator Overloading

Function Overloading: using one name to refer to functions with *different signatures*. Functions can only be overloaded in the same scope (otherwise the "closer" scope takes priority). Note: const/non-const passing only alters the signature of functions with pointer/reference parameters (or implicit this-> pointers).

Operator Overloading: operators like +,-,<=, etc. must be "overloaded" either as a top-level or class member function to work properly with custom classes (at least 1 operand must be of class-type).

An operator must be overloaded as a top level function if the first operand is an atomic type or a class type whose definition we can't access (e.g. ostream). Also, the =, (), [] and -> operators can only be overloaded as member functions (along with overloads that need to access private members).

```
[] Overload Example (Member)
1 class IntSet {
2 ... // contains() is also a member function
3 public:
4   bool operator[](int v) const;
5 };
6
7 bool IntSet::operator[](int v) const {
8   return contains(v);
9 }
10
11 << and == Overload Examples (Top-Level)
12 class Line {...}; // start/end are public members
13
14 ostream& operator<<(ostream& os, Line line) {
15   return os << line.start << line.end;
16 } // os needs to be passed by non-const ref here
17
18 bool operator==(const Line &a, const Line &b) {
19   return (a.start == b.start && a.end == b.end);
20 } // Don't pass by non-const ref here
21
```

Inheritance and Derived Classes

All base class members (EXCEPT ctors and dtors) become implicit members of derived classes. So you can call any non-private base class function on a derived class object or access non-private inherited data members via (.)->

Creating a derived class object *always* calls a base class ctor. If you don't call one explicitly, the base class default ctor will be implicitly called (causing a compile error if it doesn't exist or isn't accessible). Also, a base class dtor is always called when a derived object dies.

Member name lookup via (.)-> starts in the "first" class scope; if no match is found, the base class scope (if one exists) is searched. Lookup stops at the first match; member access levels are checked after name lookup finishes.

Attempting to overload functions inherited from a base class will "hide" them, not overload them.

```
Indirect Access of Inherited Privates
1 class Base {
2 private:
3   int x = 5;
4 public:
5   int* x_ptr = &x;
6   int get_x() const { return x; };
7 };
8 class Derived : public Base { };
9
10 Derived d;
11 d.print(); // prints "D"
12 d.print_b(); // prints "B"
13 d.Base::print(); // prints "B"
14 Base b = d; // another way to un-hide
15 b->print(); // prints "B"
16
17 Summary: how access modifiers affect direct access
18
19 Modifier | Accessible to derived classes | Accessible out of scope
20 ----- | ----- | -----
21 public   | Yes | Yes
22 private | No  | No
23 protected | Yes | No
24
```

Destructors: special functions that are invoked when a class object's lifetime ends (e.g. when you delete a dynamic object or when a local object goes out of scope). They look like ctors with ~ before their name.

For derived class objects, constructors follow *top-down* behavior (i.e., the base class ctor is called first), while destructors are *bottom-up* (the derived class dtor is called first, and the base dtor is called last). Also, objects created on the stack are destroyed in the opposite order that they were created in.

Subtype Polymorphism and Class Casting

Subtype polymorphism allows a publicly-derived class object to be used in place of a base class object; to do this, a base class reference or pointer to a derived class object must be created.

```
1 class Bird { }; // Base class
2 class Chicken : public Bird { };
3 class Duck : public Bird { };
4 Bird b; Chicken c; Duck d;
5 b = c; // Legal, but "slices" c's data
6 Bird* b_ptr = &c; // Good, no slicing
7 c = b; // ERROR (illegal assignment)
8 Chicken* c_ptr = &b; // ERROR (downcast)
9 Duck* d_ptr = &c; // ERROR
10
11 C++ allows implicit upcasts (i.e. base pointers/refs to publicly derived objects), but all downcasts must be explicit via static_cast or (less preferably) dynamic_cast.
12
13 1 // Be careful - validity not checked at runtime:
14 2 Chicken* cPtr_a = static_cast<Chicken*>(bird_ptr);
15 3 // Bird needs at least 1 virtual function for this:
16 4 Chicken* cPtr_b = dynamic_cast<Chicken*>(bird_ptr);
17
```

Virtual Functions and the override Keyword

Here, the *receiver* of the call to talk() on line 13 has a **static type** known at compile time (Bird) and a **dynamic type** known at runtime (Duck). Member lookup starts in the static class, so Duck::talk won't hide Bird::talk. Instead, Bird::talk is declared as virtual to make it dynamically-bound.

Declare a function as virtual when a receiver's static and dynamic type are different and you want to use the dynamic version of the function.

override keyword: tells the compiler to verify that the function overrides a base-class virtual function with a matching signature (if no override is found, override causes a compile error).

Pure Virtual Functions and Abstract Classes

Pure virtual function: a virtual base-class function that has no meaning or implementation; they simply make up part of the interface for derived classes. To declare one, add = 0; to the end of a function's signature.

Abstract class: a class with at least one pure virtual member function. Note that derived classes of an abstract class will also be abstract unless they override (define) every pure virtual function they inherit.

Interface (pure abstract class): a class that contains nothing but pure virtual member functions.

```
1 class Bird {
2 ... // virtual can only be used in a class body
3   virtual void talk() const << "tweet";
4 };
5 // Note: ctors can't be virtual, but dtors can
6 class Duck : public Bird {
7 ... // "virtual" is optional/implicit here
8   void talk() const override { cout << "Quack"; }
9 }; // override = an optional "sanity check"
10 // override always goes at end of signature
11 Duck duck;
12 Bird* duck_ptr = &duck;
13 duck_ptr->talk(); // prints "Quack"
14 // Scope resolution operator can suppress virtual
15 duck_ptr->Bird::talk(); // prints "tweet"
16
```

```
1 class Abst { // Abstract Class
2 public: virtual void foo() = 0;
3 }; // Note the lack of empty braces
4
5 class Concrete : public Abst {
6 public: void foo() { cout << "foo"; }
7 }; // public/private doesn't matter here
8
9 Concrete c;
10 Abst* c_ptr = &c; Abst& c_ref = c; // ok
11 Abst abst_obj; // COMPILER ERROR
12 c.Abst::foo(); // RUNTIME ERROR (or U.B)
13
```

Don't call pure virtual functions or try to instantiate abstract classes.

Container ADTs and Templates (Array-Based Data Structures)

Container ADTs

static keyword: used to make one copy of a class data member "shared" between all instances of that class. A static data member has static storage duration but exists only within the scope of a class.

Vectors: resizable array-based container ADTs that store elements at the front and free space at the back.

stack: a container that's designed to operate in a LIFO order.

queue: a container designed to operate in a first-in/first-out (FIFO) order.

An efficient way to implement a queue is to create a vector with free space at both ends (a **ring/circular buffer**). To do so, keep track of the data using head (inclusive) and tail (exclusive) variables.

Container		Interface Operations - Optimal Implementations are All O(1)					
Stack	empty	size	back/top (next)	push_back	pop_back		
Queue	empty	size	front (next)	back (last)	push_back	pop_front	

Operation		Unsorted Set	Sorted Set	Stack	Queue	Array
insert, remove		O(n)	O(n)	O(1)*	O(1)*	O(n)
contains		O(n)	O(logn)	O(n)	O(n)	O(1)
access		O(1)	O(1)	O(n)	O(n)	O(1)

SortedIntSet::remove() Implementation
1 void remove(int v) {
2 int i = indexOf(v); // indexOf() is a member
3 if (i == -1) return;
4 for (; i < elts_size - 1; ++i) {
5 elts[i] = elts[i + 1];
6 }
7 --elts_size; // elts_size == cardinality
8 }

SortedIntSet::insert() Implementation
1 void insert(int v) {
2 if (indexOf(v) != -1) return;
3 int i = elts_size;
4 for (; (i > 0) && (elts[i-1] > v); i--)
5 elts[i] = elts[i - 1];
6 elts[i] = v;
7 ++elts_size;
8 }

Templates (Parametric Polymorphism)

Templates: flexible models for producing code that take a data type as a parameter to create an object or call a function that works with that type. They help reduce code duplication in container ADT interfaces.

A template can accept an invalid type argument during instantiation (leading to a runtime error).

```
Class Template Syntax
1 template <typename T>
2 class UnsortedSet {
3 public:
4   void insert(T my_val);
5   bool contains(T my_val) const;
6   int size() const;
7 private:
8   T elts[ELTS_CAPACITY];
9   int elts_size;
10 ...
11 }; // Syntax: UnsortedSet<type> s;
12
Function Template Syntax
1 template <typename T> // "T" = an arbitrary parameter name
2 // Note: "<class>" also works in place of "typename".
3 T maxVal(const T &valA, const T &valB) {
4   return valA > valA ? valA : valB; // Note: "?" = ternary
5 // This function returns the greater of valA and valB
6 // Syntax to call it: maxValues= int/double/etc(<...>);
7
Templated Class Member Function Syntax
1 template <typename T> // Necessary if outside class body
2 void UnsortedSet<T>::insert(T my_val) {...}
3
```

Iterators, Traversal By Iterator, and Range-Based Loops

Iterators: objects that have the same *interface* as pointers; they provide a general interface for traversing different types of container ADTs. To implement an iterator for a particular ADT, define them as a nested class within the container's class and overload the * (dereference), ++, ==, != operators.

std::begin() returns an iterator to the start of an STL container. std::end() returns an iterator that's 1 past the end of an STL container (the iterator returned by std::end() should not be dereferenced).

Using an *invalidated* iterator (e.g. an iterator pointing at a deleted element) causes undefined behavior.

Traversal By Iterator: a more general form of traversing a container data type by pointer.

```
1 vector<int> v(3, -1); // this syntax initializes v to {-1,-1,-1}
2 for (vector<int>::iterator it = v.begin(); it != v.end(); ++it)
3   cout << *it << endl; // ::const_iterator if const vector
4
```

Range-Based For Loop (Works on Any Sequence Traversable by Iterator)											
1 vector<int> v = {1, 2, 3, 4};	2 // Compiler translation of range-based-for loop	3 for (auto it = v.begin(); it != v.end(); ++it) {	4 cout << *it << endl;	5 }	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
2 // for (<type> <variable> : <sequence>) {...}	3 for (int item : v) { // works with arrays too	4 cout << item << endl;	5 } // could also declare item as const or a ref	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13

Time Complexity

We define **runtime complexity** in terms of *number of steps*, not literal runtime. Big-O notation represents an *upper-bound* of the magnitude of a function's growth rate with respect to input size (thus, all O(n) functions are also O(n²), O(n³), etc). Big-Θ and Big-Ω represent average and lower bounds, respectively.

O(1)	O(logn)	O(√n)	O(n)	O(n logn), O(log(n!))	O(n ²)	O(n ³)	O(2 ⁿ)	O(n!)	O(n ⁿ)	O(2 ^{n²})
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Functions in the same complexity class should have growth rates that differ by a constant factor as n → ∞. So O(2ⁿ) and O(8ⁿ) are NOT in the same complexity class, but O(log₂ n) and O(log₃ n) are.

Determining Asymptotic/Big-O Complexity

Constant coefficients: if they're not part of an exponent, ignore them. Ex: O(3n) = O(0.5n) = O(n).

Addition (sequential procedures): the highest-complexity term dominates. Ex: O(n² + n + log n) = O(n²).

Multiplication: multiply the individual terms' complexities. Ex: O(n × log n) = O(n log n).

Non-nested loops: sum the complexities of each operation *inside* the loop body, and then *multiply* that by the number of times the loop executes. Ex: a loop that runs from 0 to n with a O(log n) body is O(n log n).

Nested loops: start at the innermost loop and work outwards (the individual complexities of the loops should multiply). Ex: two nested O(n) loops will do n work n times, so they're O(n²).

Partitioning/repeated division: procedures that divide the "remaining steps" by a constant number each time they execute (e.g. binary search, for-loops that double the loop counter) are usually O(log n).

log(xy) = log(x) + log(y)	log($\frac{x}{y}$) = log(x) - log(y)	log(x ⁿ) = n log(x)	log _b (x) = $\frac{\log_2(x)}{\log_2(b)}$ = $\frac{1}{\log_2(b)}$
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