

## 11.1 Why pointers: A list example

A challenging and yet powerful programming construct is something called a *pointer*. This section describes one of many situations where pointers are useful.

A vector (or array) stores a list of items in contiguous memory locations. Storing in contiguous locations enables immediate access to any element of vector `v` by using `v.at(i)` (or `v[i]`), because the compiler just adds `i` to the starting address of `v` to access the element at index `i`. However, inserting an item requires making room by shifting higher-indexed items. Similarly, erasing an item requires shifting higher-indexed items to fill the gap. Shifting each item requires a few processor instructions. For vectors with thousands of elements, a single call to `insert()` or `erase()` can require thousands of instructions, so a program with many inserts or erases on large vectors may run very slowly, what we call the **vector insert/erase performance problem**.

### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

11.1.1: Vector insert performance problem.



### Animation captions:

1. Inserting an item at a specific location in a vector requires make room for the item by shifting higher-indexed items.

The following program demonstrates. The user inputs a vector size, and a number of operations (`numOps`) to perform. The program then resizes the vector, writes a value to each element, does `numOps` `push_backs`, does `numOps` `inserts`, and does `numOps` `erases`. The `<< flush` forces `cout` to **flush** any characters in its buffer to the screen before doing each task, otherwise the characters may be held in the buffer until after a later task completes. Running the program for `vectorSize` of 100000 and `numOps` 40000 shows that the writes and `push_backs` execute fast, but the `inserts` and `erases` are noticeably slow.

Figure 11.1.1: Program illustrating that vector inserts and erases can be slow.

```
Enter initial vector size: 100000
Enter number of operations: 40000
Resizing vector...done.
(fast)
Writing to each element...done.
(fast)
Doing 40000 pushbacks...done.
(fast)
Doing 40000 inserts...done.
(SLOW)
Doing 40000 erases...done.
(SLOW)
```

```

#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
using namespace std;

int main() {
    vector<int> tempValues; // Dummy vector to demo
vector ops
    int vectorSize = 0;    // User defined size
    int numOps = 0;        // Number of operations to
perform
    int i = 0;             // Loop index

    cout << "Enter initial vector size: ";
    cin >> vectorSize;

    cout << "Enter number of operations: ";
    cin >> numOps;

    cout << "  Resizing vector..." << flush;

    tempValues.resize(vectorSize);

    cout << "done." << endl;
    cout << "  Writing to each element..." << flush;

    for (i = 0; i < vectorSize; ++i) {
        tempValues.at(i) = 777; // Any value
    }

    cout << "done." << endl;
    cout << "  Doing " << numOps << " pushbacks..." <<
flush;

    for (i = 0; i < numOps; ++i) {
        tempValues.push_back(888); // Any value
    }

    cout << "done." << endl;
    cout << "  Doing " << numOps << " inserts..." <<
flush;

    for (i = 0; i < numOps; ++i) {
        tempValues.insert(tempValues.begin() + 0, 444);
    }
    cout << "done." << endl;
    cout << "  Doing " << numOps << " erases..." <<
flush;

    for (i = 0; i < numOps; ++i) {
        tempValues.erase(tempValues.begin() + 0);
    }

    cout << "done." << endl;

    return 0;
}

```

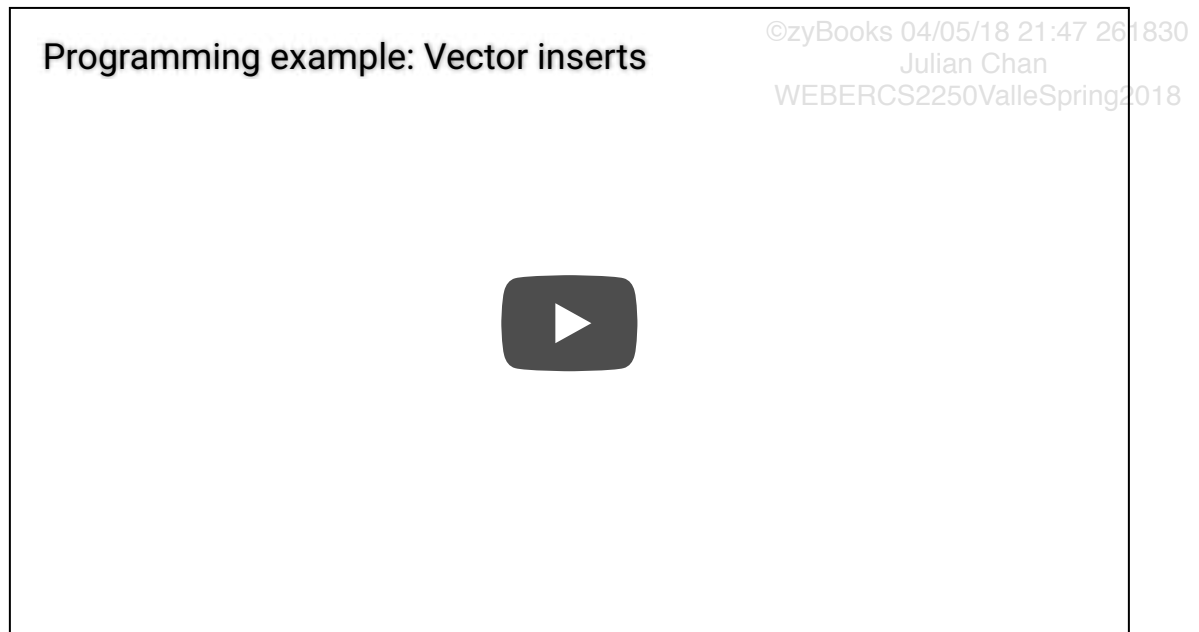
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The push\_backs are fast because they do not involve any shifting of elements, whereas each insert requires 100,000 elements to be shifted, one at a time. 40,000 inserts thus requires 4,000,000,000 shifts.

The video shows the program running for different vector sizes and number of operations; notice that for large values, the `resize`, `writes`, and `push_backs` all run quickly, but the `inserts` and `erases` take a noticeably long time.

### Video 11.1.1: Vector inserts.



#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

### 11.1.2: Vector insert/erase problem.



For each operation, how many elements must be shifted? Assume no new memory needs to be allocated. Questions are for vectors, but apply to arrays too.

- 1) Append an item to the end of a 999-element vector (e.g., using `push_back()`).



Check

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- 2) Insert an item at the front of a 999-element vector.



Check

Show answer

- 3) Delete an item from the end of a 999-element vector.



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Check

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- 4) Delete an item from the front of a 999-element vector.

Check

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One way to make inserts or erases faster is to use a different approach for storing a list of items. The approach does not use contiguous memory locations. Instead, each item contains a "pointer" to the next item's location in memory, as well as the data being stored. Thus, inserting a new item B between existing items A and C just requires changing A to point to B's memory location, and B to point to C's location, as shown in the following animation.

#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

11.1.3: A list avoids the shifting problem.

#### Animation captions:

1. List's first two items initially: (A, C, ...). Item A points to the next item at location 88. Item C points to next item at location 113 (not shown).
2. To insert new item B after item A, the new item B is first added to memory at location 90.
3. Item A is updated to point to location 90. Item B is set to point to location 88. New list is (A, B, C, ...). No shifting of items after C was required.

The initial list contains an item with data A followed by an item with C. Inserting item B did not require C to be shifted.

A **linked list** is a list wherein each item contains not just data but also a pointer—a *link*—to the next item in the list. Comparing vectors and linked lists:

- **Vector:** Stores items in contiguous memory locations. Supports quick access to  $i$ 'th element via `v.at(i)`, but may be slow for inserts or deletes on large lists due to necessary shifting of elements.
- **Linked list:** Stores each item anywhere in memory, with each item pointing to the next item in the list. Supports fast inserts or deletes, but access to  $i$ 'th element may be slow as the list must be traversed from the first item to the  $i$ 'th item. Also uses more memory due to storing a link for each item.

A vector/array is like people ordered by their seat in a theater row; if you want to insert yourself between two adjacent people, other people have to shift over to make room. A linked list is like people ordered by holding hands; if you want to insert yourself between two people, only those two people have to change hands, and nobody else is affected.

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## 11.1.4: Linked list inserts/deletes using pointers.



- 1) Appending an item at the end of a 999-item linked list requires how many items to be shifted?

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- 2) Inserting a new item between the 10th and 11th items of a 999-item linked list will require a few pointer changes. In addition, how many shifts will be required?

**Check****Show answer**

- 3) Finding the 500th item in a 999-item linked list requires visiting how many items? Correct answer is one of 0, 1, 500, and 999.

**Check****Show answer**

Exploring further:

- [Pointers tutorial](#) from cplusplus.com
- [Pointers article](#) from cplusplus.com

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## 11.2 Pointer basics

A **pointer** is a variable that contains a memory address, rather than containing data like most variables introduced earlier. The following program introduces pointers via example:

Figure 11.2.1: Introducing pointers via a simple example.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main() {
    int usrInt = 0; // User defined int value
    int* myPtr = nullptr; // Pointer to the user defined int value

    // Prompt user for input
    cout << "Enter any number: ";
    cin >> usrInt;

    // Output int value and address
    cout << "We wrote your number into variable usrInt." << endl;
    cout << "The content of usrInt is: " << usrInt << "." << endl;
    cout << "usrInt's memory address is: " << &usrInt << "." << endl;
    cout << endl << "We can store that address into pointer variable myPtr."
        << endl;

    // Grab address storing user value
    myPtr = &usrInt;

    // Output pointer value and value at pointer address
    cout << "The content of myPtr is: " << myPtr << "." << endl;
    cout << "The content of what myPtr points to is: "
        << *myPtr << "." << endl;

    return 0;
}
```

```
Enter any number: 555
We wrote your number into variable usrInt.
The content of usrInt is: 555.
usrInt's memory address is: 0x7fff5fbff718.

We can store that address into pointer variable myPtr.
The content of myPtr is: 0x7fff5fbff718.
The content of what myPtr points to is: 555.
```

The example demonstrates key aspects of working with pointers:

- Appending *\** after a data type in a variable declaration declares a pointer variable, as in `int* myPtr`. One might imagine that the programming language would have a type like *address* in addition to types like `int`, `char`, etc., but instead the language requires each pointer variable to indicate the type of data to which the address points. So valid pointer variable declarations are `int* myPtr1`, `char* myPtr2`, `double* myPtr3`, and even `Seat* myPtr4`; (where `Seat` is a class type); all such variables will contain memory addresses.
- Prepending *&* to any variable's name gets the variable's address. *&* is the reference operator that returns a pointer to a variable using the following form:

## Construct 11.2.1: Reference operator.

&amp;variableName

- Prepending `*` to a pointer variable's name in an expression gets the data to which the variable points, as in `*myPtr1`, an act known as **dereferencing** a pointer variable. `*` is the dereference operator that allows the program to access the value pointed to by the pointer using the form:

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## Construct 11.2.2: Dereference operator.

\*variableName

Observe the above program's output. For int variable `usrInt`, the statement `cout << &usrInt;` prints `usrInt`'s memory address, which is the large number `0x7fff5fbff718` in contrast to short memory addresses like `96` that have appeared in earlier animations. That large number is in hexadecimal or base 16 number, which you need not concern yourself with as you will not normally print or ever have to look at such memory addresses; the memory address is printed here just for illustration. The statement `myPtr = &usrInt;` will thus set `myPtr`'s contents to that large address. The statement `cout << myPtr;` will print `myPtr`'s contents, which is that large address. The statement `cout << *myPtr;` will instead go to that address and then print that address' contents.

The `*` (asterisk) symbol is used in two ways related to pointers. One purpose is to indicate that a variable is a pointer type, as in `int* myPtr`. The other purpose is to dereference a pointer variable, as in `cout << *myPtr`.

The pointer was initialized to `nullptr`. The **`nullptr`** keyword is a literal indicating a pointer points to nothing. A pointer assigned with `nullptr` is said to be null.

## Null pointer

*The `nullptr` keyword was added to the C++ language in version C++11. Before C++11, common practice was to use the literal `0` to indicate a null pointer. In C++'s predecessor language C, the macro `NULL` was used.*

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11.2.1: Simple pointer example.



## Animation captions:

1. The pointer variable `myPtr` is initialized to `nullptr`, which is a literal indicating a pointer points to nothing.

2. User enters 555, which is stored in `usrInt`.
3. `&usrInt` evaluates to the address of `usrInt`, which is 76.
4. `myPtr` is assigned with the address of `usrInt`, so `myPtr` now points to `usrInt`.
5. `*myPtr` dereferences the pointer variable, evaluating to the data to which `myPtr` points. The data pointed to by `myPtr` is the data stored at memory location 76, which is 555.

The `*` in a pointer variable declaration has some syntactical options. We wrote `int* myPtr`. However, also allowed is `int *myPtr`. Many programmers find the former option that groups the `int` and `*` more intuitive, suggesting `myPtr` is of type "integer pointer". On the other hand, note that `int* myPtr1, myPtr2` does *not* declare two pointers, but rather declares pointer variable `myPtr1`, and `int` variable `myPtr2`. For this reason, some programmers prefer the option that groups the `*` with the variable name, as in `int *myPtr1, *myPtr2`. Our advice: To reduce errors, it may be good practice to only declare one pointer per line, using the `int*` option.

#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 11.2.2: Using pointers.



The following provides an example (not useful other than for learning) of assigning the address of variable `vehicleMpg` to the pointer variable `valPtr`.

1. Run and observe that the two output statements produce the same output.
2. Modify the value assigned to `*valPtr` and run again.
3. Now uncomment the statement that assigns `vehicleMpg`. PREDICT whether both output statements will print the same output. Then run and observe the output; did you predict correctly?

[Load default template...](#)

Run

```

1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 int main() {
5     double vehicleMpg = 0.0;
6     double* valPtr = nullptr;
7
8     valPtr = &vehicleMpg;
9
10    *valPtr = 29.6; // Assigns the number to the variable
11                  // POINTED TO by valPtr.
12
13    // vehicleMpg = 40;    // Uncomment this later
14
15    cout << "Vehicle MPG = " << vehicleMpg << endl;
16    cout << "Vehicle MPG = " << *valPtr << endl;
17
18    return 0;
19 }
```

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#### PARTICIPATION

#### 11.2.3: Pointer basics.





## ACTIVITY

Assume variable `int numStudents = 12` is at memory address 99, and variable `int* myPtr` is at address 44. Answer "error" where appropriate.

- 1) What does `cout << numStudents` output?

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- 2) What does `cout << &numStudents` output?

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- 3) What does `cout << *numStudents` output?

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- 4) After `myPtr = &numStudents`, what does `cout << *myPtr` output?

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11.2.1: Printing with pointers.

Assign `numItems`' address to `numItemsPtr`, then print the shown text followed by the value to which `numItemsPtr` points. End with newline.

Items: 99

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```
1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 int main() {
```

```
5  int* numItemsPtr = nullptr;  
6  int numItems = 99;  
7  
8  /* Your solution goes here */  
9  
10 return 0;  
11 }
```

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Run

## 11.3 Operators: new, delete, and ->

### new: allocating memory

Sometimes memory should be allocated while a program is running and should persist independently of any particular function. The **new** operator allocates memory for the given type and returns a pointer (i.e., the address) to that allocated memory.

Construct 11.3.1: The new operator.

```
pointerVariable = new type;
```

The following animation illustrates using new to allocate memory of an int type. The int type is used for introduction; new is more commonly used to allocate memory for a class type.

#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

11.3.1: The new operator.

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### Animation captions:

1. myPtr is initialized to nullptr. nullptr is a language defined literal value, which is often the value of a null pointer. Printing a null pointer will output that value.
2. The new operator allocates space in memory for an int at location 75, and returns a pointer to that allocated memory. myPtr is assigned with that memory location's address.

3. The value of newly allocated memory is unknown, so outputting `*myPtr` will print whatever value happens to be in that memory location.
4. `*myPtr` dereferences the pointer, so the data pointed to by `myPtr` is assigned with 555. Thus, memory location 75 is assigned with 555.

The new operator returns a null pointer if the operator failed to allocate memory. Such failure could happen if a program has used up all memory available to the program.

The new operator is commonly used with class types, as in `new SimpleItem`, where `SimpleItem` is a class name. After new allocates memory for a class object, the object's constructor is called. Arguments may be provided after the class name to call a non-default constructor.

Figure 11.3.1: Using the new operator with a class type.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

class SimpleItem {
public:
    void PrintNums();
    SimpleItem(int initVal1 = -1, int initVal2 = -1);
private:
    int num1;
    int num2;
};

SimpleItem::SimpleItem(int initVal1, int initVal2) {
    num1 = initVal1;
    num2 = initVal2;

    return;
}

void SimpleItem::PrintNums() {
    cout << "num1: " << num1 << endl;
    cout << "num2: " << num2 << endl;

    return;
}

int main() {
    SimpleItem* myItemPtr1 = nullptr;
    SimpleItem* myItemPtr2 = nullptr;

    myItemPtr1 = new SimpleItem;
    (*myItemPtr1).PrintNums();
    cout << endl;

    myItemPtr2 = new SimpleItem(8, 9);
    (*myItemPtr2).PrintNums();

    return 0;
}
```

num1: -1
num2: -1
num1: 8
num2: 9

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->: member access operator

Accessing a class's member functions by first dereferencing a pointer, as in `(*myItemPtr1).PrintNums()`, is so common that the language includes a second **member access operator**, in particular the `->` operator that allows an alternative to `(*a).b`:

### Construct 11.3.2: Member access operator.

```
a->b    // Equivalent to (*a).b
```

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Thus the above program could have used: `myItemPtr1->PrintNums()`;

### delete: deallocating memory

The **delete** operator does the opposite of the new operator. The statement `delete pointerVariable;` deallocates a memory block pointed to by `pointerVariable`, which must have been previously allocated by new. If `pointerVariable` is null, delete has no effect.

### Construct 11.3.3: Delete operator.

```
delete pointerVariable;
```

After the delete, the program should not attempt to dereference `pointerVariable`, as `pointerVariable` points to a memory location that is no longer allocated for use by `pointerVariable`. Dereferencing a pointer whose memory has been deallocated is a common error, and may cause strange program behavior that is difficult to debug—if that memory had since been allocated to another variable, that variable's value could mysteriously change. Calling delete with a pointer that wasn't *previously* set by the new operator is also an error.

The following example illustrates a common use of new and delete in conjunction with a vector storing items of a class type. The new operator is used to allocate memory for a new item, which is then added to the vector. The delete operator deletes the memory for the item, before removing the item from the vector. The example implements a simple inventory management system in which items can be added or removed from an inventory list.

Figure 11.3.2: Inventory management with new and delete operators.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
#include <vector>
using namespace std;

class InventoryItem {
public:
    void PrintItem();
    InventoryItem(string initName = "", int initQty = 0);
private:
    string itemName; // Name of item
    int itemQuantity; // Number of items available
```

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```

};

// InventoryItem Constructor
InventoryItem::InventoryItem(string initName, int initQty) {
    itemName = initName;
    itemQuantity = initQty;

    return;
}

// InventoryItem function to print name/qty attributes
void InventoryItem::PrintItem() {
    cout << "name: " << this->itemName << ", " << "quantity: "
        << this->itemQuantity << endl;

    return;
}

// Displays all items currently stored in vector itemsInventory
void PrintAllItems(vector<InventoryItem*> itemsInventory) {
    int i = 0; // Loop index

    // For each item call class member function to print
    for (i = 0; i < itemsInventory.size(); ++i) {
        cout << i << " - ";
        (*itemsInventory.at(i)).PrintItem();
    }

    return;
}

// Displays user commands supported by program
void PrintCommands() {
    cout << "Valid commands are: add, print, remove, quit" << endl;

    return;
}

int main() {
    vector<InventoryItem*> storeInventory; // Vector of InventoryItem pointers
    string productName;                  // Name of item in inventory
    int productQuantity = 0;              // Quantity of item in inventory
    string userInput;                     // User command
    int listPos = 0;                      // Position of item in vector

    InventoryItem* newItem = nullptr;    // Pointer used to create an item
    InventoryItem* tmp = nullptr;         // Pointer used to lookup an item

    // Output user options
    PrintCommands();

    while (userInput != "quit") {
        // Prompt user for input
        cout << endl << "Your command: ";
        cin >> userInput;

        if (userInput == "add") { // Add new item name/qty to vector
            cout << "    New item name: ";
            cin >> productName;
            cout << "    New item quantity: ";
            cin >> productQuantity;
            newItem = new InventoryItem(productName, productQuantity);
            storeInventory.push_back(newItem);
        }
        else if (userInput == "print") { // Print current item name/qty in vector
            PrintAllItems(storeInventory);
        }
        else if (userInput == "remove") { // Remove item from vector
            cout << "    List position number: ";
            cin >> listPos;

```

```

    if (listPos < storeInventory.size()) {
        cout << "        Removed item " << listPos << "." << endl;
        tmp = storeInventory.at(listPos);
        delete tmp;
        storeInventory.erase(storeInventory.begin() + listPos);
    }
    else {
        cout << "        Error removing: Item "
              << listPos << " doesn't exist." << endl;
    }
}
else if (userInput != "quit"){ // Quit program
    PrintCommands();
}

return 0;
}

```

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```

Valid commands are: add, print, remove, quit

Your command: print

Your command: add
  New item name: shoes
  New item quantity: 16

Your command: add
  New item name: belt
  New item quantity: 33

Your command: print
0 - name: shoes, quantity: 16
1 - name: belt, quantity: 33

Your command: remove
  List position number: 0
  Removed item 0.

Your command: print
0 - name: belt, quantity: 33

Your command: quit

```

#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

11.3.2: The new, delete, and -> operators.



- 1) Declare a variable named "orange" as a pointer to class Fruit.



= nullptr;

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- 2) Write a statement that allocates memory for the new variable "orange" that points to class Fruit. Do not use parentheses.



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- 3) For a variable named orange, write a statement that calls the member function RemoveSeeds that returns void and accepts no parameters. Use the -> operator.

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- 4) Write a statement to deallocate memory pointed to by variable orange, which is a pointer to class Fruit.

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Exploring further:

- [operator new\[\] Reference Page](#) from cplusplus.com
- [More on operator new\[\]](#) from msdn.microsoft.com
- [operator delete\[\] Reference Page](#) from cplusplus.com
- [More on delete operator](#) from msdn.microsoft.com
- [More on -> operator](#) from msdn.microsoft.com

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11.3.1: Operators: new, delete, and ->.

Start

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Type the program's output.

```
Traveled: 75
Traveled: 85
```

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

class Car {
public:
    Car(int distanceToSet);
private:
    int distanceTraveled;
};

Car::Car(int distanceToSet) {
    distanceTraveled = distanceToSet;
    cout << "Traveled: " << distanceTraveled << endl;
    return;
}

int main() {
    Car* myCar1 = nullptr;
    Car* myCar2 = nullptr;

    myCar1 = new Car(75);
    myCar2 = new Car(85);

    return 0;
}
```

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1	2	3
---	---	---

Check

Next

### CHALLENGE ACTIVITY

## 11.3.2: Allocating memory



Allocate memory for houseHeight using the new operator.

```
1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 int main() {
5     double* houseHeight = nullptr;
6
7     /* Your solution goes here */
8
9     *houseHeight = 23;
10    cout << "houseHeight is " << *houseHeight;
11
12    delete houseHeight;
13    return 0;
14 }
15
```

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Run



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## 11.3.3: Deallocating memory



Deallocate memory for kitchenPaint using the delete operator.

```
1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 class PaintContainer {
5     public:
6         ~PaintContainer();
7         double gallonPaint;
8 };
9
10 PaintContainer::~PaintContainer() { // Covered in section on Destructors.
11     cout << "PaintContainer deallocated." << endl;
12     return;
13 }
14
15 int main() {
16     PaintContainer* kitchenPaint;
17
18     kitchenPaint = new PaintContainer;
19     kitchenPaint->gallonPaint = 26.3;
```

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Run

## 11.4 String functions with pointers

The C string library, introduced elsewhere, contains several functions for working with C strings. This section describes the use of char pointers in such functions. Recall that the C string library must first be included via: `#include <cstring>`

String functions accept a char pointer for a string argument. That pointer is commonly a char array variable, or a string literal (each of which is essentially a pointer to the 0th element of a char array), but could also be an explicit char pointer. Example of such functions are `strcmp()`, `strcpy()`, and `strchr()`, introduced elsewhere.

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Figure 11.4.1: String functions accept char pointers as arguments.

```

char string1[10] = "abcxyz";
char string2[10] = "xyz";
char newText[10] = "";
char* subStr = nullptr;

if (strcmp(string1, string2) == 0) { // abcxyz does not equal xyz
    ...
if (strcmp(&string1[3], "xyz") == 0) { // xyz equals xyz
    ...
subStr = &string1[3]; // Points to 'x' in string1
if (strcmp(subStr, string2) == 0) { // xyz equals xyz
    ...
strcpy(newText, subStr); // newText is now "xyz"

```

Table 11.4.1: Some C string modification functions.

Given:

```

char orgName[100] = "The Dept. of Redundancy Dept.";
char newText[100] = "";
char* subString = nullptr;

```

<b>strchr()</b>	<p><b>strchr(sourceStr, searchChar)</b></p> <p>Returns null pointer if searchChar does not exist in sourceStr. Else, returns pointer to first occurrence.</p>	<pre> if (strchr(orgName, 'D') != nullptr) {     // 'D' exists in orgName?     subString = strchr(orgName, 'D'); // Points to first 'D'     strcpy(newText, subString); // newText now "Dept. of Redundancy Dept." } if (strchr(orgName, 'Z') != nullptr) {     // 'Z' exists in orgName?     ... // Doesn't exist, branch not taken } </pre>
<b>strrchr()</b>	<p><b>strrchr(sourceStr, searchChar)</b></p> <p>Returns null pointer if searchChar does not exist in sourceStr. Else, returns pointer to LAST occurrence (searches in reverse, hence middle 'r' in name).</p>	<pre> if (strrchr(orgName, 'D') != nullptr) {     // 'D' exists in orgName?     subString = strrchr(orgName, 'D'); // Points to last 'D'     strcpy(newText, subString); // newText now "Dept." } </pre>
<b>strstr()</b>	<p><b>strstr(str1, str2)</b></p> <p>Returns char* pointing to first occurrence of string str2 within string str1. Returns null pointer if not found.</p>	<pre> subString = strstr(orgName, "Dept"); // Points to first 'D' if (subString != nullptr) {     strcpy(newText, subString); // newText now "Dept. of Redundancy Dept." } </pre>

The following example carries out a simple censoring program, replacing an exclamation point by a period and "Boo" by "---" (assuming those items are somehow bad and should be censored):

Figure 11.4.2: String searching example.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cstring>
using namespace std;

int main(void) {
    const int MAX_USER_INPUT = 100;    // Max input size
    char userInput[MAX_USER_INPUT] = ""; // User defined
    string
        char* stringPos = nullptr;      // Index into
    string

    // Prompt user for input
    cout << "Enter a line of text: ";
    cin.getline(userInput, MAX_USER_INPUT);

    // Locate exclamation point, replace with period
    stringPos = strchr(userInput, '!');

    if (stringPos != nullptr) {
        *stringPos = '.';
    }

    // Locate "Boo" replace with "---"
    stringPos = strstr(userInput, "Boo");

    if (stringPos != nullptr) {
        strncpy(stringPos, "---", 3);
    }

    // Output modified string
    cout << "Censored: " << userInput << endl;

    return 0;
}
```

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```
Enter a line of text: Hello!
Censored: Hello.
...
Enter a line of text: Boo hoo to
you!
Censored: --- hoo to you.
...
Enter a line of text: Booo!
Boooo!!!!
Censored: ---o. Boooo!!!!
```

Note above that only the first occurrence of "Boo" is replaced, as strstr() returns a pointer just to the first occurrence. (Additional code would be needed to delete all occurrences).

#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 11.4.1: Modifying and searching strings.



- 1) Declare a char\* variable named charPtr.

Check

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- 2) Assuming char\* firstR; is already declared, store in firstR a pointer to the



first instance of an 'r' in the char\* variable userInput.

[Check](#)[Show answer](#)

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- 3) Assuming `char* lastR;` is already declared, store in lastR a pointer to the last instance of an 'r' in the char\* variable userInput.

[Check](#)[Show answer](#)

- 4) Assuming `char* firstQuit;` is already declared, store in firstQuit a pointer to the first instance of "quit" in the char\* variable userInput.

[Check](#)[Show answer](#)

#### CHALLENGE ACTIVITY

#### 11.4.1: Find char in C string



Assign a pointer to any instance of searchChar in personName to searchResult.

```
1 #include <iostream>
2 #include <cstring>
3 using namespace std;
4
5 int main() {
6     char personName[100] = "Albert Johnson";
7     char searchChar = 'J';
8     char* searchResult = nullptr;
9
10    /* Your solution goes here */
11
12    if (searchResult != nullptr) {
13        cout << "Character found." << endl;
14    }
15    else {
16        cout << "Character not found." << endl;
```

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```

17     }
18
19     return 0;

```

Run

**CHALLENGE  
ACTIVITY**

11.4.2: Find C string in C string.

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Assign the first instance of The in movieTitle to movieResult.

```

1  #include <iostream>
2  #include <cstring>
3  using namespace std;
4
5  int main() {
6      char movieTitle[100] = "The Lion King";
7      char* movieResult = nullptr;
8
9      /* Your solution goes here */
10
11     cout << "Movie title contains The? ";
12     if (movieResult != nullptr) {
13         cout << "Yes." << endl;
14     }
15     else {
16         cout << "No." << endl;
17     }
18
19     return 0;

```

Run

## 11.5 A first linked list

A common use of pointers is to create a list of items such that an item can be efficiently inserted somewhere in the middle of the list, without the shifting of later items as required for a vector.

The following program illustrates how such a list can be created. A class is defined to represent each list item, known as a **list node**. A node is comprised of the data to be stored in each list item, in this case just one int, and a pointer to the next node in the list. A special node named head is created to represent the front of the list, after which regular items can be inserted.

Figure 11.5.1: A basic example to introduce linked lists.

```

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

class IntNode {
public:
    IntNode(int dataInit = 0, IntNode* nextLoc = nullptr);
    void InsertAfter(IntNode* nodePtr);
    IntNode* GetNext();
    void PrintNodeData();
private:
    int dataVal;
    IntNode* nextNodePtr;
};

// Constructor
IntNode::IntNode(int dataInit, IntNode* nextLoc) {
    this->dataVal = dataInit;
    this->nextNodePtr = nextLoc;

    return;
}

/* Insert node after this node.
 * Before: this -- next
 * After:  this -- node -- next
 */
void IntNode::InsertAfter(IntNode* nodeLoc) {
    IntNode* tmpNext = nullptr;

    tmpNext = this->nextNodePtr;    // Remember next
    this->nextNodePtr = nodeLoc;    // this -- node -- ?
    nodeLoc->nextNodePtr = tmpNext; // this -- node -- next

    return;
}

// Print dataVal
void IntNode::PrintNodeData() {
    cout << this->dataVal << endl;

    return;
}

// Grab location pointed by nextNodePtr
IntNode* IntNode::GetNext() {
    return this->nextNodePtr;
}

int main() {
    IntNode* headObj = nullptr; // Create intNode objects
    IntNode* nodeObj1 = nullptr;
    IntNode* nodeObj2 = nullptr;
    IntNode* nodeObj3 = nullptr;
    IntNode* currObj = nullptr;

    // Front of nodes list
    headObj = new IntNode(-1);

    // Insert nodes
    nodeObj1 = new IntNode(555);
    headObj->InsertAfter(nodeObj1);

    nodeObj2 = new IntNode(999);
    nodeObj1->InsertAfter(nodeObj2);

    nodeObj3 = new IntNode(777);
    nodeObj1->InsertAfter(nodeObj3);

    // Print linked list
    currObj = headObj;

```

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```

currObj = headObj;
while (currObj != nullptr) {
    currObj->PrintNodeData();
    currObj = currObj->GetNext();
}

return 0;
}

```

## PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

### 11.5.1: Inserting nodes into a basic linked list.

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## Animation captions:

1. The headObj pointer points to a special node that represents the front of the list. When the list first created, no list items exists, so the head node's nextNodePtr pointer is null.
2. To insert a node in the list, the new node nodeObj1 is first created with the value 555.
3. To insert the new node, tmpNext is pointed to the head node's next node, the head node's nextNodePtr is pointed to the new node, and the new node's nextNodePtr is pointed to tmpNext.
4. A second node nodeObj2 with the value 999 is inserted at the end of the list, and a third node nodeObj3 with the value 777 is created.
5. To insert nodeObj3 after nodeObj1, tmpNext is pointed to the nodeObj1's next node, the nodeObj1's nextNodePtr is pointed to the nodeObj3, and nodeObj3's nextNodePtr is pointed to tmpNext.

The most interesting part of the above program is the InsertAfter() function, which inserts a new node after a given node already in the list. The above animation illustrates.

## PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

### 11.5.2: A first linked list.



Some questions refer to the above linked list code and animation.

- 1) A linked list has what key advantage over a sequential storage approach like an array or vector?
  - ☐ An item can be inserted somewhere in the middle of the list without having to shift all subsequent items.
  - ☐ Uses less memory overall.
  - ☐ Can store items other than int variables.
- 2) What is the purpose of a list's head



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node?

- ☐ Stores the first item in the list.
- ☐ Provides a pointer to the first item's node in the list, if such an item exists.
- ☐ Stores all the data of the list.

3) After the above list is done having items inserted, at what memory address is the last list item's node located?

- ☐ 80
- ☐ 82
- ☐ 84
- ☐ 86

4) After the above list has items inserted as above, if a fourth item was inserted at the front of the list, what would happen to the location of node1?

- ☐ Changes from 84 to 86.
- ☐ Changes from 84 to 82.
- ☐ Stays at 84.

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In contrast to the above program that declares one variable for each item allocated by the new operator, a program commonly declares just one or a few variables to manage a large number of items allocated using the new operator. The following example replaces the above main() function, showing how just two pointer variables, currObj and lastObj, can manage 20 allocated items in the list.

To run the following figure, `#include <cstdlib>` was added to access the rand() function.

Figure 11.5.2: Managing many new items using just a few pointer variables.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cstdlib>
using namespace std;

class IntNode {
public:
    IntNode(int dataInit = 0, IntNode* nextLoc = nullptr);
    void InsertAfter(IntNode* nodePtr);
    IntNode* GetNext();
    void PrintNodeData();
private:
    int dataVal;
```

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```

    IntNode* nextNodePtr;
};

// Constructor
IntNode::IntNode(int dataInit, IntNode* nextLoc) {
    this->dataVal = dataInit;
    this->nextNodePtr = nextLoc;

    return;
}

/* Insert node after this node.
 * Before: this -- next
 * After:  this -- node -- next
 */
void IntNode::InsertAfter(IntNode* nodeLoc) {
    IntNode* tmpNext = nullptr;

    tmpNext = this->nextNodePtr;    // Remember next
    this->nextNodePtr = nodeLoc;    // this -- node -- ?
    nodeLoc->nextNodePtr = tmpNext; // this -- node -- next

    return;
}

// Print dataVal
void IntNode::PrintNodeData() {
    cout << this->dataVal << endl;
    return;
}

// Grab location pointed by nextNodePtr
IntNode* IntNode::GetNext() {
    return this->nextNodePtr;
}

int main() {
    IntNode* headObj = nullptr; // Create intNode objects
    IntNode* currObj = nullptr;
    IntNode* lastObj = nullptr;
    int i = 0;                // Loop index

    headObj = new IntNode(-1);    // Front of nodes list
    lastObj = headObj;

    for (i = 0; i < 20; ++i) {    // Append 20 rand nums
        currObj = new IntNode(rand());

        lastObj->InsertAfter(currObj); // Append curr
        lastObj = currObj;           // Curr is the new last item
    }

    currObj = headObj;           // Print the list

    while (currObj != nullptr) {
        currObj->PrintNodeData();
        currObj = currObj->GetNext();
    }

    return 0;
}

```

```

-1
16807
282475249
1622650073
984943658
1144108930
470211272
101027544
1457850878
1458777923
2007237709
823564440
1115438165
1784484492
74243042
114807987
1137522503
1441282327
16531729
823378840
143542612

```

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Finish the program so that it finds and prints the smallest value in the linked list.

[Load default template...](#)

Run

```

1 #include <iostream>
2 #include <cstdlib>
3 using namespace std;
4
5 class IntNode {
6 public:
7     IntNode(int dataInit = 0, IntNode* nextLoc = nullptr)
8     void InsertAfter(IntNode* nodePtr);
9     IntNode* GetNext();
10    void PrintNodeData();
11    int GetDataVal();
12 private:
13    int dataVal;
14    IntNode* nextNodePtr;
15 };
16
17 // Constructor
18 IntNode::IntNode(int dataInit, IntNode* nextLoc) {
19     this->dataVal = dataInit;

```

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Normally, a linked list would be maintained by member functions of another class, such as `IntList`. Private data members of that class might include the list head (a list node allocated by the list class constructor), the list size, and the list tail (the last node in the list). Public member functions might include `InsertAfter` (insert a new node after the given node), `PushBack` (insert a new node after the last node), `PushFront` (insert a new node at the front of the list, just after the head), `DeleteNode` (deletes the node from the list), etc.

Exploring further:

- [More on Linked Lists](#) from [cplusplus.com](#)

#### CHALLENGE ACTIVITY

11.5.1: Linked list negative values counting.

Assign `negativeCnt` with the number of negative values in the linked list.

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```

1 #include <iostream>
2 #include <cstdlib>
3 using namespace std;
4
5 class IntNode {
6 public:
7     IntNode(int dataInit = 0, IntNode* nextLoc = nullptr);
8     void InsertAfter(IntNode* nodePtr);
9     IntNode* GetNext();

```

```
10     int GetDataVal();
11 private:
12     int dataVal;
13     IntNode* nextNodePtr;
14 };
15
16 // Constructor
17 IntNode::IntNode(int dataInit, IntNode* nextLoc) {
18     this->dataVal = dataInit;
```

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Run

## 11.6 Memory regions: Heap/Stack

A program's memory usage typically includes four different regions:

- **Code** — The region where the program instructions are stored.
- **Static memory** — The region where global variables (variables declared outside any function) as well as static local variables (variables declared inside functions starting with the keyword "static") are allocated. The name "static" comes from these variables not changing (static means not changing); they are allocated once and last for the duration of a program's execution, their addresses staying the same.
- **The stack** — The region where a function's local variables are allocated during a function call. A function call adds local variables to the stack, and a return removes them, like adding and removing dishes from a pile; hence the term "stack." Because this memory is automatically allocated and deallocated, it is also called **automatic memory**.
- **The heap** — The region where the "new" operator allocates memory, and where the "delete" operator deallocates memory. The region is also called **free store**.

The following animation illustrates:

### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

11.6.1: Use of the four memory regions.



### Animation captions:

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1. The code regions stores program instruction. myGlobal is a global variable and is stored in the static memory region. Code and static regions last for the entire program execution.
2. Function calls push local variable on program stack. When main() is called, the variables myInt and myPtr are added on the stack.
3. new allocates memory on the heap for an int and returns the address of the allocated memory which is assigned to myPtr. delete deallocates memory from the heap.

4. Calling `MyFct()` grows the stack, pushing the functions locals variables on the stack. Those local variables are removed from the stack when the function returns.
5. When `main()` completes, main's local variable are removed from the stack.

## PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

### 11.6.2: Stack and heap definitions.

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**The stack****Static memory****Automatic memory****Free store****The heap****Code**

A function's local variables are allocated in this region while a function is called.

The memory allocation and deallocation operators affect this region.

Global and static local variables are allocated in this region once for the duration of the program.

Another name for "The heap" because the programmer has explicit control of this memory.

Instructions are stored in this region.

Another name for "The stack" because the programmer does not explicitly control this memory.

**Reset**

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## 11.7 Miscellaneous pointer issues

Recall that each member function of a class has an implicit local variable named "this", and that data members in a member function can be accessed using the notation `this->dataMember`.

The reason for the notation of "->" rather than "." to access the members should now be clear – "this" is a pointer to the class object for which the member function is being called.

Pass by reference parameters closely resemble pointers. The compiler implements such parameters using pointers, but those details are hidden from the programmer. In the C language, pass by reference parameters don't exist, and thus the programmer must explicitly use pointers to achieve the goal of allowing a function to modify an argument:

- `void MyFct(int* inputParm) { *inputParm = *inputParm + 1; return; }`
- `MyFct(&someValue); // Fct call`

The above code is valid for both C and C++. However, C++ introduced pass by reference parameters to avoid having to resort to pointers as above, and thus passing parameters as pointers can usually be avoided.

**PARTICIPATION  
ACTIVITY**

11.7.1: Pointer issues.

1) If myClass has data item num, then in a myClass member function, the statement `x = num;` is effectively the same as `x = this.num;`

- ☐ True  
☐ False

2) The key advantage of pass by reference over passing pointers is faster access.

- ☐ True  
☐ False

## 11.8 Memory leaks

A program that allocates memory but then loses the ability to access that memory, typically due to failure to properly destroy/free dynamically allocated memory, is said to have a **memory leak**. The program's available memory has portions leaking away and becoming unusable, much like a water pipe might have water leaking out and becoming unusable. A memory leak may cause a program to occupy more and more memory as the program runs. Such occupying of memory can slow program runtime, or worse can cause the program to fail if the memory becomes

completely full and the program is unable to allocate additional memory. The following animation illustrates.

PARTICIPATION  
ACTIVITY

11.8.1: Memory leak can use up all available memory.

Animation captions:

- 1. Memory is allocated for newVal each loop iteration, but the loop does not deallocate memory once done using newVal, resulting in a memory leak.
- 2. Each loop iteration allocates more memory, eventually using up all available memory, causing the program to fail.

Failing to free allocated memory when done using that memory, resulting in a memory leak, is a common error. Many programs that are commonly left running for long periods, such as web browsers, suffer from known memory leak problems – just do a web search for "<your-favorite-browser> memory leak" and you'll likely find numerous hits.

Some programming languages, such as Java, use a mechanism called **garbage collection** wherein a program's executable includes automatic behavior that at various intervals finds all unreachable allocated memory locations (e.g., by comparing all reachable memory with all previously-allocated memory), and automatically freeing such unreachable memory. Some C/C++ implementations include garbage collection but those implementations are not standard. Garbage collection can reduce the impact of memory leaks, at the expense of runtime overhead. Computer scientists debate whether new programmers should learn to explicitly free memory versus letting garbage collection do the work.

PARTICIPATION  
ACTIVITY

11.8.2: Memory Leaks.

Memory leak	Garbage collection	Unusable memory
		Memory locations that have been dynamically allocated but can no longer be used by a program.
		Occurs when a program allocates memory but loses the ability to access that memory.
		Automatic process of finding unreachable allocated memory

locations freeing that unreachable memory.

Reset

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## 11.9 Destructors

Objects of a class type may be created and destroyed during a program's execution. For example, a program may create an object of type `MyClass` using the "new" operator, which allocates memory for the object, and later destroy that object using the "delete" operator, which frees that memory so it can be used again later by the program. The **constructor** function of a class automatically initializes the object's data members. Sometimes the converse is necessary, namely a function that is automatically called when an object is destroyed, known as a **destructor**.

Destructors are needed when destroying an object should involve more work than simply freeing the object's memory. Such a need commonly arises when an object's data member, which we'll call a sub-object, had additional allocated memory. Freeing the object's memory without also freeing the sub-object's memory results in a problem wherein the sub-object's memory is no longer accessible but can't be used again by the program. The following animation illustrates.

### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

11.9.1: Lack of destructor yields memory leak.



### Animation captions:

1. `tempClassObj` is a pointer to object of type `MyClass`. `new` allocates memory for the object.
2. The constructor for the `MyClass` object is called. The constructor allocated memory for an `int`, using the pointer `subObj`.
3. Deleting `tempClassObj` frees the memory for the object, but not `subObj`. Memory location 78 is still allocated but nothing points to that memory allocation, resulting in a memory leak.

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(Note that the program is very simple to focus on the main point. In particular, the class's sub-object is just an integer pointer, but typically would be a pointer to a more complex type. Likewise, the object is created and then immediately destroyed, but typically something would have been done with that object. )

The `new MyClass` operation allocates memory for a new `MyClass` object and automatically calls `MyClass`'s constructor. While most constructors we've seen so far just initialize data

members, MyClass's constructor also *allocates memory for a sub-object*. The subsequent `delete MyClass` operation just frees the memory of the MyClass object, but does not also free the memory of the sub-object. That sub-object's memory is still allocated but is not pointed to by any object and is thus inaccessible.

The programmer, not the compiler, wrote the constructor function and thus knows that memory was allocated for a sub-object, and thus it makes sense that the programmer should also write a destructor function that frees that sub-object's memory.

The syntax for a class's destructor function is similar to a class's constructor function, but with a "~" (called a "tilde" character) prepended to the function name. A destructor has no parameters and no return value (not even void). The syntax for declaring and defining a destructor for a class named MyClass is:

### Construct 11.9.1: Class Destructor.

```
class MyClass {  
    public:  
        ...  
        ~MyClass();  
        ...  
};  
MyClass::~~MyClass() {  
    ...  
}
```

The following is simple class example with a destructor function. The destructor frees the sub-object's memory that was allocated by the constructor.

Figure 11.9.1: Simple class with a destructor.

Constructor called.  
Destructor called.



```

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

class MyClass {
public:
    MyClass();
    ~MyClass();
private:
    int* subObj;
};

MyClass::MyClass() {
    cout << "Constructor called." << endl;
    subObj = new int; // Allocate mem for data
    *subObj = 0;
    return;
}

MyClass::~~MyClass() {
    cout << "Destructor called." << endl;
    delete subObj;
    return;
}

int main() {
    MyClass* tempClassObj; // Create object of type MyClass

    tempClassObj = new MyClass; // Allocate mem for object
    delete tempClassObj; // No more memory leak
                                // Freed obj's mem, including subObj

    // Rest of program ...
    return 0;
}

```

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A destructor is typically needed whenever a constructor acquires resources. One common example of acquiring resources is when the constructor allocates memory, as above, in which case the destructor might free that memory. Another example is when a constructor opens a file, in which case the destructor might close that file.

**Destroying** an object occurs when the object:

- *Goes out of scope* — The object was allocated as a local object for a function or other block, and that function is now returning.
- *Is deleted* — The object was allocated using the "new" operator and is now being deleted using the "delete" operator.

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Destroying an object involves several steps that include:

1. *Calling the object's destructor* — The object's destructor function is called first. Not defining a destructor is equivalent to defining a destructor with no statements.
2. *Calling the destructor functions for each member* of the object.
3. *Calling the destructor function for each base class* of the object.

After the above, the object's own memory is freed.

Earlier examples involving classes did not include destructor functions, yet did not contain memory leaks. The reason is because those classes' members either were basic types like `int`, whose memory is part of the class object itself and that memory is freed with the object, or were abstract data types like `string` or `vector` whose destructors get called automatically when the object is destroyed (per step 2 above).

**PARTICIPATION  
ACTIVITY**

## 11.9.2: Destructors.

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- 1) Declare a destructor for class `EngineMap`.

```
EngineMap::  
( ) {  
  
    // destructor function  
    code  
  
}
```

**Check****Show answer**

- 2) Define a destructor for a class `mp3Info` that deletes `songTitle` then returns.

```
mp3Info::~~mp3Info() {  
  
      
  
    return;  
  
}
```

**Check****Show answer**

- 3) List the order in which the `IntNode` and `TwoIntsNode` destructors will be called after the statement `delete myNode;`. In your answer, use the class names only separated by commas.

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```

class IntNode {
public:
    IntNode(int data = 0, IntNode*
next = nullptr);
    ~IntNode();
    ...
};

class TwoIntsNode {
public:
    IntNode a;
    IntNode b;

    TwoIntsNode();
    ~TwoIntsNode();
    ...
};

int main() {
    TwoIntsNode myNode = new
TwoIntsNode();
    ...
    delete myNode;
    ...
}

```

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[Check](#)    [Show answer](#)

Exploring further:

- [More on Destructors](#) from msdn.microsoft.com
- [Order of Destruction](#) from msdn.microsoft.com

#### CHALLENGE ACTIVITY

11.9.1: Write a destructor



Write a destructor for the CarCounter class that outputs the following. End with newline.

**Destroying CarCounter**

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```

1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 class CarCounter {
5     public:
6         CarCounter();

```

```
7     ~CarCounter();
8     private:
9         int carCount;
10 };
11
12 CarCounter::CarCounter() {
13     carCount = 0;
14     return;
15 }
16
17 /* Your solution goes here */
18
```

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Run

## 11.10 Copy constructors

In the following code, `main()` creates `tempClassObj` of type `MyClass`; note from the output that the `MyClass` constructor is automatically called. `main()` then sets and prints a value for the data member `dataObj`, the value being 9. So far so good.

`main()` then calls `SomeFunction()`, where `tempClassObj` is passed by value, which creates a local copy of the argument. When `SomeFunction()` returns, the local copy of the object goes out of scope and `MyClass`' destructor is automatically called. `main()` then prints `tempClassObj`'s `dataObj` value again, which should have been 9, but is actually printed as 0.

Can you determine the problem?

Figure 11.10.1: Problem that can occur without copy constructor.

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```

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

class MyClass {
public:
    MyClass();
    ~MyClass();

    // Set member value dataObj
    void SetDataObj(const int setVal) {
        *dataObj = setVal;
    }

    // Return member value dataObj
    int GetDataObj() const {
        return *dataObj;
    }
private:
    int* dataObj; // Data member
};

// Default constructor
MyClass::MyClass() {
    cout << "Constructor called." << endl;
    dataObj = new int; // Allocate mem for data
    *dataObj = -1;

    return;
}

// Destructor
MyClass::~MyClass() {
    cout << "Destructor called." << endl;
    delete dataObj;

    return;
}

void SomeFunction(MyClass localObj) {
    // Do something with localObj
    return;
}

int main() {
    MyClass tempClassObj; // Create object of type MyClass

    // Set and print data member value
    tempClassObj.SetDataObj(9);
    cout << "Before: " << tempClassObj.GetDataObj() << endl;

    // Calls SomeFunction(), tempClassObj is passed by value
    SomeFunction(tempClassObj);

    // Print data member value
    cout << "After: " << tempClassObj.GetDataObj() << endl;

    return 0;
}

```

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```

Constructor called.
Before: 9
Destructor called.
After: 9
Destructor called.
error: pointer being freed was not allocated

```

The problem is that the local object copy automatically made during the call to `SomeFunction()` merely copied the pointer to `tempClassObj`'s `dataObj`, rather than making a copy of the `dataObj`. When `SomeFunction()` returns, while the local object was being destroyed, its destructor freed the `dataObj`'s memory, which was also being pointed to by `tempClassObj`. That memory no longer belonged to `tempClassObj`, and in this case happened to have gotten changed to 0 but may have stayed at 9 or been changed to another number.

Furthermore, note when `main()` returns, `tempClassObj` going out of scope causes the destructor to be called again, which tries to free `tempClassObj`'s `dataObj`'s memory but results in an error message (only part of which is shown) because that memory was already freed.

The solution is to create a new constructor that will be automatically called when a function call creates a local copy of an object, that constructor makes a new copy of the `dataObj`, known as a **deep copy** of the object. Recall that a **constructor** for a class is a special member function that is automatically called when an object of that class is created, the function initializing the object's members. Recall also **overloading** means to give multiple functions the same name but different parameter/return types, the compiler determining which function to call by a call's types. Among possible constructors for a class, two kinds are known by particular names:

- The **default constructor** can be called with no arguments. So that constructor might have no parameters, or may have parameters all with default values.
- The **copy constructor** can be called with a single pass by reference argument of the class type, representing an original object to be copied to the newly-created object. If the programmer doesn't define a copy constructor, then the compiler implicitly defines one with statements that perform a memberwise copy, which simply copies each member using assignment:  
`newObj.memberVal1 = origObj.memberVal1, newObj.memberVal2 = origObj.me`  
etc. That behavior works fine for many classes, but typically a deep copy is instead desired for a member that is a pointer.

Therefore, a programmer may define their own copy constructor, typically having the form:

### Construct 11.10.1: Copy constructor.

```
class MyClass {
public:
    ...
    MyClass(const MyClass& origClass);
    ...
};
```

A class's copy constructor will be called automatically when an object of the class type is passed by value to a function, and also when an object is initialized by copying another object during

declaration, as in:

```
MyClass classObj2 = classObj1; or obj2Ptr = new MyClass(classObj1);.
```

The following program adds a copy constructor to the earlier example, which makes a deep copy of the data member dataObj within the MyClass object. Note that the copy constructor is automatically called during the call to SomeFunction(). Destruction of the local object upon return from that function frees the newly created dataObj for that local object, leaving the original tempClassObj's dataObj untouched. Printing after the function call correctly still prints 9. And destruction of tempClassObj during the return from main() yields no error.

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Figure 11.10.2: Problem solved by creating a copy constructor that does a deep copy.

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```

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

class MyClass {
public:
    MyClass();
    MyClass(const MyClass& origClass); // Copy constructor
    ~MyClass();

    // Set member value dataObj
    void SetDataObj(const int setVal) {
        *dataObj = setVal;
    }

    // Return member value dataObj
    int GetDataObj() const {
        return *dataObj;
    }
private:
    int* dataObj; // Data member
};

// Default constructor
MyClass::MyClass() {
    cout << "Constructor called." << endl;
    dataObj = new int; // Allocate mem for data
    *dataObj = 0;

    return;
}

// Copy constructor
MyClass::MyClass(const MyClass& origClass) {
    cout << "Copy constructor called." << endl;
    dataObj = new int; // Allocate sub-object
    *dataObj = *(origClass.dataObj);

    return;
}

// Destructor
MyClass::~MyClass() {
    cout << "Destructor called." << endl;
    delete dataObj;

    return;
}

void SomeFunction(MyClass localObj) {
    // Do something with localObj
    return;
}

int main() {
    MyClass tempClassObj; // Create object of type MyClass

    // Set and print data member value
    tempClassObj.SetDataObj(9);
    cout << "Before: " << tempClassObj.GetDataObj() << endl;

    // Calls SomeFunction(), tempClassObj is passed by value
    SomeFunction(tempClassObj);

    // Print data member value
    cout << "After: " << tempClassObj.GetDataObj() << endl;

    return 0;
}

```

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Constructor called.  
 Before: 9  
 Copy constructor called.  
 Destructor called.  
 After: 9  
 Destructor called.

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Note that the above discussion uses a trivially-simple class having a dataObj whose type was just a pointer to an integer, to focus attention on the key issue. Real situations typically involve classes with multiple data members and with data objects whose types are pointers to class-type objects.

**PARTICIPATION  
ACTIVITY**

## 11.10.1: Determining which constructor will be called.



Given the following class declaration and variable declaration, determine which constructor will be called for each of the following statements.

```
class EncBlock {  
public:  
    EncBlock(); // Default constructor  
    EncBlock(const EncBlock& origObj); // Copy constructor  
    EncBlock(int blockSize); // Constructor with int parameter  
    ~EncBlock(); // Destructor  
    ...  
};  
  
EncBlock myBlock;
```

1) EncBlock\* aBlock = new EncBlock(5);



- ☐ EncBlock();
- ☐ EncBlock(const EncBlock& origObj);
- ☐ EncBlock(int blockSize);

2) EncBlock testBlock;



- ☐ EncBlock();
- ☐ EncBlock(const EncBlock& origObj);
- ☐ EncBlock(int blockSize);

3) EncBlock\* lastBlock = new  
EncBlock(myBlock);

- ☐ EncBlock();
- ☐ EncBlock(const EncBlock& origObj);
- ☐ EncBlock(int blockSize);

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4) EncBlock vidBlock = myBlock;

- ☐ EncBlock();
- ☐ EncBlock(const EncBlock& origObj);
- ☐ EncBlock(int blockSize);

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Exploring further:

- [More on Copy Constructors](#) from cplusplus.com

#### CHALLENGE ACTIVITY

11.10.1: Write a copy constructor.



Write a copy constructor for CarCounter that assigns origCarCounter.carCount to the constructed object's carCount. Sample output for the given program:

**Cars counted: 5**

```
1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 class CarCounter {
5     public:
6         CarCounter();
7         CarCounter(const CarCounter& origCarCounter);
8         void SetCarCount(const int count) {
9             carCount = count;
10        }
11        int GetCarCount() const {
12            return carCount;
13        }
14    private:
15        int carCount;
16 };
17
18 CarCounter::CarCounter() {
19     carCount = 0;
```

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**Run**

## 11.11 Copy assignment operator

Sometimes a programmer wishes to copy one already-created object to another already-created object. For example, given two MyClass objects `classObj1` and `classObj2`, a programmer might write `classObj2 = classObj1;`. The default behavior of the assignment operator "=" for classes or structs is to perform memberwise assignment, i.e., `classObj2.memberVal1 = classObj1.memberVal1`, `classObj2.memberVal2 = classObj1.memberVal2`, etc. Such behavior may work fine for members having basic types like `int` or `char`, but typically is not the desired behavior for a pointer member. The following animation illustrates a problem that can arise, for a trivially-simple class having just one member, which is an integer pointer (most classes have more members, and a pointer member would typically be to a more complex type than just an `int`).

### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

11.11.1: Basic assignment operation fails when pointer member involved.



### Animation captions:

1. Two MyClass objects, `classObj1` and `classObj2`, are created. `classObj1`'s `SetDataObj()` function assigns the memory location pointed to by `dataObj` with 9.
2. The assignment `classObj2 = classObj1;` copies the pointer for `classObj1`'s `dataObj`, resulting in `classObj1`'s `dataObj` and `classObj2`'s `dataObj` members both pointing to the same memory location.
3. Destroying `classObj1` frees that object's memory.
4. Destroying `classObj2` then tries to free that same memory, causing a program crash. A memory leak also occurs because neither object is pointing to location 81.

The problem is that the assignment of `classObj2 = classObj1;` merely copied the pointer for `dataObj`, resulting in `classObj1`'s `dataObj` and `classObj2`'s `dataObj` members both pointing to the same memory location. Printing `classObj2` prints 9 but for the wrong reason, and if `classObj1`'s `dataObj` value was later changed, `classObj2`'s `dataObj` value would seemingly magically change too. Additionally, destroying `classObj1` frees that `dataObj`'s memory; destroying `classObj2` then tries to free that same memory, causing a program crash. Furthermore, a memory leak has occurred because neither `dataObj` is pointing at location 81.

The solution is to overload the "=" operator by defining a new function, known as the **copy assignment operator** or sometimes just the **assignment operator**, that copies one class object to another. Such a function is typically defined as:

Construct 11.11.1: Overloading the class copy assignment operator.

```

class MyClass {
public:
    ...
    MyClass& operator=(const MyClass& objToCopy);
    ...
};

```

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The syntax may look odd but that's how a function can be defined to overload the assignment operator "=". The new assignment function should properly copy members, including allocating new memory for pointer members, known as a **deep copy**. The following program solves the above problem by introducing an assignment operator.

Figure 11.11.1: Assignment operator performs a deep copy.

```

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

class MyClass {
public:
    MyClass();
    ~MyClass();
    MyClass& operator=(const MyClass& objToCopy);

    // Set member value dataObj
    void SetDataObj(const int setVal) {
        *dataObj = setVal;
    }

    // Return member value dataObj
    int GetDataObj() const {
        return *dataObj;
    }
private:
    int* dataObj; // Data member
};

// Default constructor
MyClass::MyClass() {
    cout << "Constructor called." << endl;
    dataObj = new int; // Allocate mem for data
    *dataObj = 0;

    return;
}

// Destructor
MyClass::~MyClass() {
    cout << "Destructor called." << endl;
    delete dataObj;

    return;
}

MyClass& MyClass::operator=(const MyClass& objToCopy) {
    cout << "Assignment op called." << endl;

    if (this != &objToCopy) {
        // 1. Don't self-assign
        delete dataObj;
        // 2. Delete old dataObj
        // 3. All data is dataObj
    }
}

```

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```

Constructor called.
Constructor called.
Assignment op called.
obj1:1
obj2:9
Destructor called.
Destructor called.

```

```

        dataObj = new int; // 3. Allocate new dataObj
        *dataObj = *(objToCopy.dataObj); // 4. Copy dataObj
    }

    return *this;
}

int main() {
    MyClass tempClassObj1; // Create object of type MyClass
    MyClass tempClassObj2; // Create object of type MyClass

    // Set and print object 1 data member value
    tempClassObj1.SetDataObj(9);

    // Copy class object using copy assignment operator
    tempClassObj2 = tempClassObj1;

    // Set object 1 data member value
    tempClassObj1.SetDataObj(1);

    // Print data values for each object
    cout << "obj1:" << tempClassObj1.GetDataObj() << endl;
    cout << "obj2:" << tempClassObj2.GetDataObj() << endl;

    return 0;
}

```

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#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 11.11.2: Assignment operator.

- 1) Declare a copy assignment operator for a class named `EngineMap` using `inVal` as the input parameter name.

```
EngineMap& operator=(
    
);
```

Check

Show answer

- 2) Provide the return statement for the copy assignment operator for the `EngineMap` class.

Check

Show answer

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#### CHALLENGE ACTIVITY

#### 11.11.1: Write a copy assignment.

Write a copy assignment operator for `CarCounter` that assigns `objToCopy.carCount` to the new object's `carCount`, then returns `*this`. Sample output for the given program:

Cars counted: 12

```

1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 class CarCounter {
5     public:
6         CarCounter();
7         CarCounter& operator=(const CarCounter& objToCopy);
8         void SetCarCount(const int setVal) {
9             carCount = setVal;
10        }
11        int GetCarCount() const {
12            return carCount;
13        }
14    private:
15        int carCount;
16 };
17
18 CarCounter::CarCounter() {
19     carCount = 0;

```

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Run

## 11.12 Rule of three

We have seen that classes have several special member functions. One of them is:

- **Default constructor:** A constructor is a class member function that is automatically called immediately after memory is allocated for an object. The constructor's job is to initialize the object's members. A **default constructor** is a version of a constructor that can be invoked without arguments. The default constructor is automatically called when an object is defined as in `MyClass obj;` or allocated via the new operator as in `objptr = new MyClass;`.
  - If the programmer doesn't define a default constructor for a class, the compiler implicitly defines one having no statements, meaning the constructor does nothing.

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Good practice is always initializing variables. A programmer should similarly be explicit in defining a default constructor for a class, making sure to initialize each member.

Additional special member functions are:

- **Destructor:** A **destructor** is a class member function that is automatically called when an object of the class is destroyed, as when the object goes out of scope or is explicitly destroyed as in `delete obj;`.
  - If the programmer doesn't define a destructor for a class, the compiler implicitly defines one having no statements, meaning the destructor does nothing.
- **Copy constructor:** A **copy constructor** is another version of a constructor that can be called with a single pass by reference argument. The copy constructor is automatically called when an object is passed by value to a function such as for the function `SomeFunction(MyClass localObj)` and the call `SomeFunction(anotherObj);`, when an object is initialized when declared such as `MyClass classObj1 = classObj2;`, or when an object is initialized when allocated via "new" as in `obj1Ptr = new MyClass(classObj2);`.
  - If the programmer doesn't define a copy constructor for a class, then the compiler implicitly defines one whose statements do a memberwise copy, i.e.,  
`classObj2.memberVal1 = classObj1.memberVal1,`  
`classObj2.memberVal2 = classObj1.memberVal2,` etc.
- **Copy assignment operator:** The assignment operator "=" can be overloaded for a class via a member function, known as the **copy assignment operator**, that overloads the built-in function "operator=", the member function having a reference parameter of the class type and returning a reference to the class type.
  - If the programmer doesn't define a copy assignment operator, the compiler implicitly defines one that does a memberwise copy.

For each of those three special member functions, the implicitly-defined behavior is often sufficient. However, for some cases such as when a class has a pointer member and the default constructor allocates memory for that member, then the programmer likely needs to explicitly define the behavior for all three of those special member functions.

The **rule of three** describes a practice that if a programmer explicitly defines any one of those three special member functions (destructor, copy constructor, copy assignment operator), then the programmer should explicitly define all three. For this reason, those three special member functions are sometimes called **the big three**.

A good practice is to always follow the rule of three and define the big three (destructor, copy constructor, copy assignment operator) if any one of these functions are defined.

#### PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

#### 11.12.1: Rule of three.

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- 1) If the programmer does not explicitly define a copy constructor for a class, copying objects of that class will not be possible.

- ☐ True
- ☐ False



- 2) The big three member functions for classes include a destructor, copy constructor, and default constructor.

☐ True  
☐ False

- 3) If a programmer explicitly defines a destructor, copy constructor, or copy assignment operator, it is a good practice to define all three.

☐ True  
☐ False

- 4) Assuming `MyClass prevObj` has already been declared, the statement `MyClass obj2 = prevObj;` will call the copy assignment operator.

☐ True  
☐ False

- 5) Assuming `MyClass prevObj` has already been declared, the following variable declaration will call the copy assignment operator.

```
MyClass obj2;  
...  
obj2 = prevObj;
```

☐ True  
☐ False



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Exploring further:

- More on [Rule of Three in C++](#) from GeeksforGeeks.

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## 11.13 C++ example: Employee list using vectors



## PARTICIPATION

## ACTIVITY

## 11.13.1: Managing an employee list using a vector.



The following program allows a user to add to and list entries from a vector, which maintains a list of employees.

1. Run the program, and provide input to add three employees' names and related data.

Then use the list option to display the list.

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2. Modify the program to implement the deleteEntry function.
3. Run the program again and add, list, delete, and list again various entries.

```
1 #include <iostream>
2 #include <string>
3 #include <vector>
4 using namespace std;
5
6 // Add an employee
7 void AddEmployee(vector<string> &name, vector<string> &department,
8                 vector<string> &title) {
9     string theName = "";
10    string theDept = "";
11    string theTitle = "";
12
13    cout << endl << "Enter the name to add: " << endl;
14    getline(cin, theName);
15    cout << "Enter " << theName << "'s department: " << endl;
16    getline(cin, theDept);
17    cout << "Enter " << theName << "'s title: " << endl;
18    getline(cin, theTitle);
19
```

a  
Rajeev Gupta  
Sales

Run

Below is a solution to the above problem.

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## PARTICIPATION

## ACTIVITY

## 11.13.2: Managing an employee list using a vector (solution).



```
1 #include <iostream>
2 #include <string>
```

```
3 #include <vector>
4 using namespace std;
5
6
7 // Add an employee
8 void AddEmployee(vector<string> &name, vector<string> &department,
9                 vector<string> &title) {
10     string theName = "";
11     string theDept = "";
12     string theTitle = "";
13
14     cout << endl << "Enter the name to add: " << endl;
15     getline(cin, theName);
16     cout << "Enter " << theName << "'s department: " << endl;
17     getline(cin, theDept);
18     cout << "Enter " << theName << "'s title: " << endl;
```

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Run

## 11.14 Ch 8 Warm up: Contacts (C++)

*You will be building a linked list. Make sure to keep track of both the head and tail nodes.*

(1) Create three files to submit.

- ContactNode.h - Class declaration
- ContactNode.cpp - Class definition
- main.cpp - main() function

(2) Build the ContactNode class per the following specifications:

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- Parameterized constructor. Parameters are name followed by phone number.
- Public member functions
- InsertAfter() (2 pts)
- GetName() - Accessor (1 pt)
- GetPhoneNumber - Accessor (1 pt)

- getNext() - Accessor (1 pt)
- PrintContactNode()
- Private data members
- string contactName
- string contactPhoneNum
- ContactNode\* nextNodePtr

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Ex. of PrintContactNode() output:

```
Name: Roxanne Hughes
Phone number: 443-555-2864
```

(3) In main(), prompt the user for three contacts and output the user's input. Create three ContactNodes and use the nodes to build a linked list. (2 pts)

Ex:

```
Person 1
Enter name:
Roxanne Hughes
Enter phone number:
443-555-2864
You entered: Roxanne Hughes, 443-555-2864

Person 2
Enter name:
Juan Alberto Jr.
Enter phone number:
410-555-9385
You entered: Juan Alberto Jr., 410-555-9385

Person 3
Enter name:
Rachel Phillips
Enter phone number:
310-555-6610
You entered: Rachel Phillips, 310-555-6610
```

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(4) Output the linked list. (2 pts)

Ex:

## CONTACT LIST

Name: Roxanne Hughes

Phone number: 443-555-2864

Name: Juan Alberto Jr.

Phone number: 410-555-9385

Name: Rachel Phillips

Phone number: 310-555-6610

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11.14.1: Ch 8 Warm up: Contacts (C++)

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## Submission Instructions

## Deliverables

ContactNode.h

,

ContactNode.cpp

and

main.cpp

*You must submit these file(s)*

## Compile command

g++ ContactNode.cpp main.cpp -Wall -o a.out

*We will use this command to compile yo*

Submit your files below by dragging and dropping into the area or choosing a file on your hard drive

**ContactNode.h**Drag file here  
or[Choose on hard drive.](#)**Contac...e.cpp**Drag file here  
or[Choose on hard drive.](#)**main.cpp**

## Submit for grading

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## 11.15 Ch 8 Program: Playlist (C++)

*You will be building a linked list. Make sure to keep track of both the head and tail nodes.*

(1) Create three files to submit.

- PlaylistNode.h - Class declaration
- PlaylistNode.cpp - Class definition
- main.cpp - main() function

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Build the PlaylistNode class per the following specifications. Note: Some functions can initially be function stubs (empty functions), to be completed in later steps.

- Default constructor (1 pt)
- Parameterized constructor (1 pt)
- Public member functions
- InsertAfter() - Mutator (1 pt)
- SetNext() - Mutator (1 pt)
- GetID() - Accessor
- GetSongName() - Accessor
- GetArtistName() - Accessor
- GetSongLength() - Accessor
- GetNext() - Accessor
- PrintPlaylistNode()
- Private data members
- string uniqueID - Initialized to "none" in default constructor
- string songName - Initialized to "none" in default constructor
- string artistName - Initialized to "none" in default constructor
- int songLength - Initialized to 0 in default constructor
- PlaylistNode\* nextNodePtr - Initialized to 0 in default constructor

Ex. of PrintPlaylistNode output:

```
Unique ID: S123
Song Name: Peg
Artist Name: Steely Dan
Song Length (in seconds): 237
```

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(2) In main(), prompt the user for the title of the playlist. (1 pt)

Ex:

```
Enter playlist's title:
JAMZ
```

(3) Implement the PrintMenu() function. PrintMenu() takes the playlist title as a parameter and outputs a menu of options to manipulate the playlist. Each option is represented by a single character. Build and output the menu within the function.

If an invalid character is entered, continue to prompt for a valid choice. Hint: Implement Quit before implementing other options. Call PrintMenu() in the main() function. Continue to execute the menu until the user enters q to Quit. (3 pts)

Ex:

```
JAMZ PLAYLIST MENU
a - Add song
d - Remove song
c - Change position of song
s - Output songs by specific artist
t - Output total time of playlist (in seconds)
o - Output full playlist
q - Quit

Choose an option:
```

(4) Implement "Output full playlist" menu option. If the list is empty, output: **Playlist is empty** (3 pts)

Ex:

```
JAMZ - OUTPUT FULL PLAYLIST
1.
Unique ID: SD123
Song Name: Peg
Artist Name: Steely Dan
Song Length (in seconds): 237

2.
Unique ID: JJ234
Song Name: All For You
Artist Name: Janet Jackson
Song Length (in seconds): 391

3.
Unique ID: J345
Song Name: Canned Heat
```

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Artist Name: Jamiroquai  
Song Length (in seconds): 330

4.

Unique ID: JJ456  
Song Name: Black Eagle  
Artist Name: Janet Jackson  
Song Length (in seconds): 197

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5.

Unique ID: SD567  
Song Name: I Got The News  
Artist Name: Steely Dan  
Song Length (in seconds): 306

(5) Implement the "Add song" menu item. New additions are added to the end of the list. (2 pts)

Ex:

```
ADD SONG
Enter song's unique ID:
SD123
Enter song's name:
Peg
Enter artist's name:
Steely Dan
Enter song's length (in seconds):
237
```

(6) Implement the "Remove song" function. Prompt the user for the unique ID of the song to be removed.(4 pts)

Ex:

```
REMOVE SONG
Enter song's unique ID:
JJ234
"All For You" removed
```

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(7) Implement the "Change position of song" menu option. Prompt the user for the current position of the song and the desired new position. Valid new positions are 1 - n (the number of

nodes). If the user enters a new position that is less than 1, move the node to the position 1 (the head). If the user enters a new position greater than  $n$ , move the node to position  $n$  (the tail). 6 cases will be tested:

- Moving the head node (1 pt)
- Moving the tail node (1 pt)
- Moving a node to the head (1 pt)
- Moving a node to the tail (1 pt)
- Moving a node up the list (1 pt)
- Moving a node down the list (1 pt)

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Ex:

```
CHANGE POSITION OF SONG
Enter song's current position:
3
Enter new position for song:
2
"Canned Heat" moved to position 2
```

(8) Implement the "Output songs by specific artist" menu option. Prompt the user for the artist's name, and output the node's information, starting with the node's current position. (2 pt)

Ex:

```
OUTPUT SONGS BY SPECIFIC ARTIST
Enter artist's name:
Janet Jackson

2.
Unique ID: JJ234
Song Name: All For You
Artist Name: Janet Jackson
Song Length (in seconds): 391

4.
Unique ID: JJ456
Song Name: Black Eagle
Artist Name: Janet Jackson
Song Length (in seconds): 197
```

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(9) Implement the "Output total time of playlist" menu option. Output the sum of the time of the playlist's songs (in seconds). (2 pts)



Ex:

```
OUTPUT TOTAL TIME OF PLAYLIST (IN SECONDS)
Total time: 1461 seconds
```

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11.15.1: Ch 8 Program: Playlist (C++)

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## Submission Instructions

### Deliverables

`PlaylistNode.cpp` , `PlaylistNode.h` and `main.cpp` You must submit these file(s)

### Compile command

`g++ PlaylistNode.cpp main.cpp -Wall -o a.out` We will use this command to compile y

Submit your files below by dragging and dropping into the area or choosing a file on your hard drive

**Playli...de.cpp**

Drag file here  
or  
[Choose on hard drive.](#)

**PlaylistNode.h**

Drag file here  
or  
[Choose on hard drive.](#)

**main.cpp**

## Submit for grading

### Latest submission

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