

# Linked Data Representation in C++

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[with material from “Absolute C++”, by Savitch and Mock, Published by Addison Wesley, Copyright Addison Wesley]

# Objectives

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## Core Content:

- **A Program “Under the Hood”**
- **C++ Memory Model**
- **Classes and Dynamic Memory**
- **Dynamic Arrays**
- **Separate Compilation Units**

## Additional Information:

- Namespaces via `using` Directives
- Global and Unnamed Namespaces
- Nested Namespaces

MAN, I SUCK AT THIS GAME.  
CAN YOU GIVE ME  
A FEW POINTERS?

0x3A28213A  
0x6339392C,  
0x7363682E.

I HATE YOU.



# Levels of Program Code

- **High-level language**
  - Level of abstraction closer to problem domain
  - Provides for productivity and portability
- **Assembly language**
  - Textual representation of instructions
- **Hardware language**
  - Binary digits (bits)
  - Encoded instructions and data

High-level  
language  
program  
(in C)

```
swap(int v[], int k)
{int temp;
  temp = v[k];
  v[k] = v[k+1];
  v[k+1] = temp;
}
```

**C/C++, Java, Python, etc.**

Compiler

Assembly  
language  
program  
(for MIPS)

```
swap:
  muli $2, $5, 4
  add $2, $4, $2
  lw $15, 0($2)
  lw $16, 4($2)
  sw $16, 0($2)
  sw $15, 4($2)
  jr $31
```

Assembler

Binary machine  
language  
program  
(for MIPS)

```
0000000001010000100000000000011000
000000000000110000001100000100001
10001100011000100000000000000000
100011001111001000000000000000100
10101100111100100000000000000000
101011000110001000000000000000100
00000011111000000000000000001000
```

# Program /1

- A **program** boils down to a sequence of instructions that can be interpreted and executed by a computer
- **Fundamentally, a computer stores a program in memory, and the processor (CPU) runs the instructions one line at a time.**

```
instruction1  
instruction2  
instruction3  
instruction4  
...
```

Firefox.exe

ECE 350 LAB,LEC,TUT 0.50

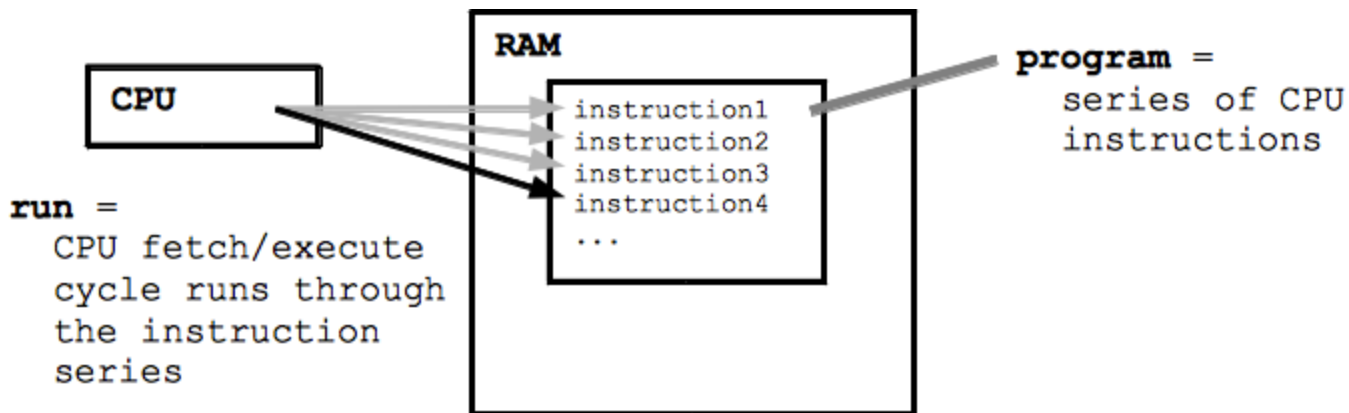
Course ID: 015297

## Real-Time Operating Systems

Memory/virtual memory and caching; I/O devices, drivers, and permanent storage management; process scheduling; queue management in the kernel; real-time kernel development. Aspects of multi-core operating systems. [Offered: F, W, first offered Fall 2020]

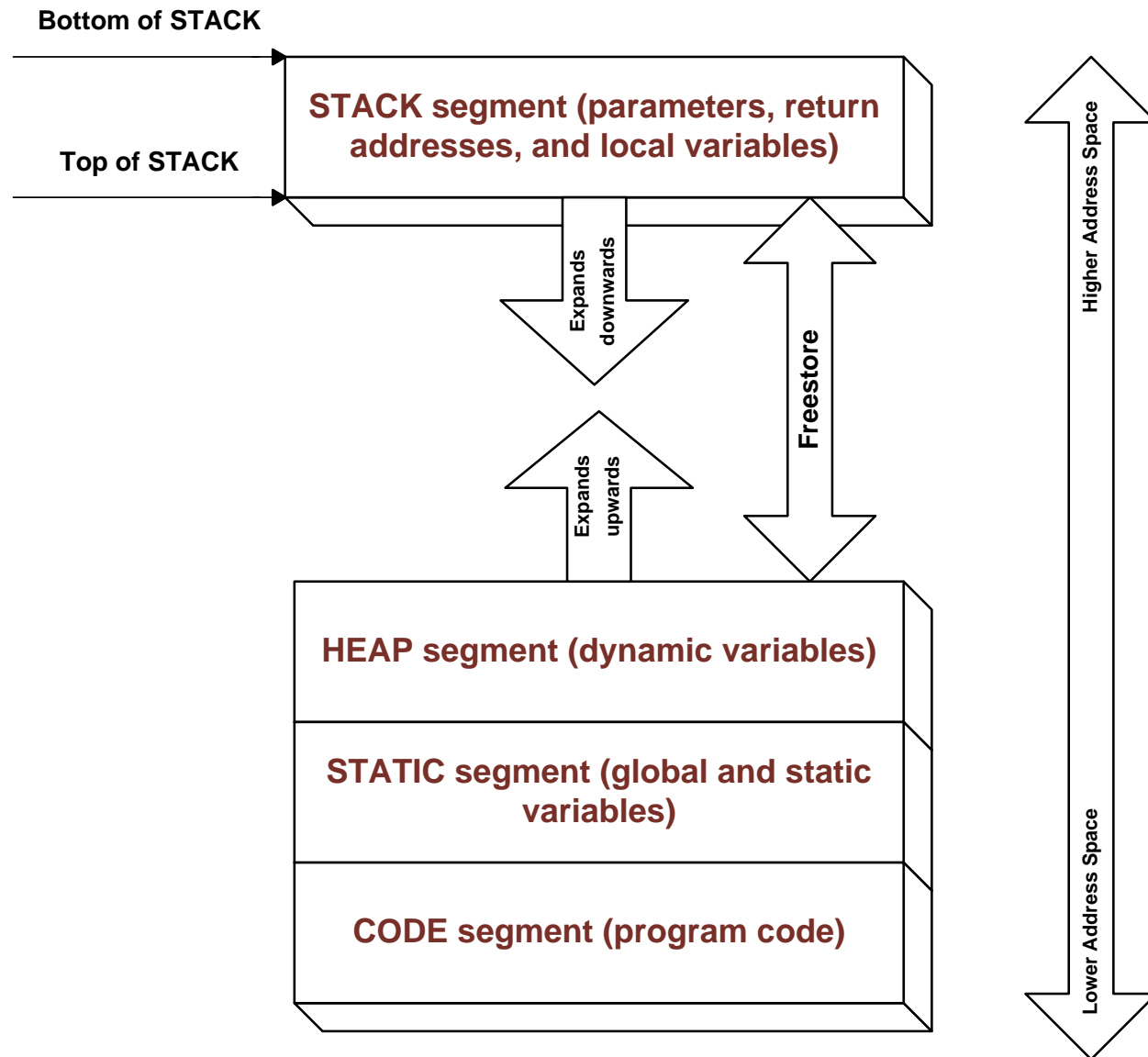
# Program /2

- What happens when you “run” a program
  - (Before: the program is **compiled** into machine code)
  - The operating system allocates a space in memory (RAM)
  - The program instructions are copied from storage (disk drive) to RAM.
  - The CPU is pointed at the first instruction (**main()**)



<https://web.stanford.edu/class/cs101/software-1.html>

# Program Memory Map



# Memory Management

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## ■ Memory Heap

- Reserved for dynamically-allocated variables
- All new dynamic variables consume memory in freestore
- If too many, they could use up all the freestore memory
- Future "**new**" operations will fail if freestore is full

## ■ Freestore size is typically large

- Most programs will not use up all the memory
- Memory management is still important
- Crucial software engineering principle
- Memory IS finite, regardless of how much of it is available

**Memory leak**



# Dynamic and Static/Local Variables

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## ■ **Dynamic variables**

- Created with **new** operator
- Created and destroyed while program runs

## ■ **Static/local variables**

- Declared within scope (e.g., function definition, class instance)
- Not dynamic
- Created at beginning of scope (e.g., function is called)
- Destroyed when program goes out of scope (e.g., function call completes)

# Static vs Dynamic – Example

```
void foo()  
{  
    int a;  
    Location loc; // an object  
    ...  
}
```

“}” signifies send of scope. “a” and “loc” are cleared (removed from stack).

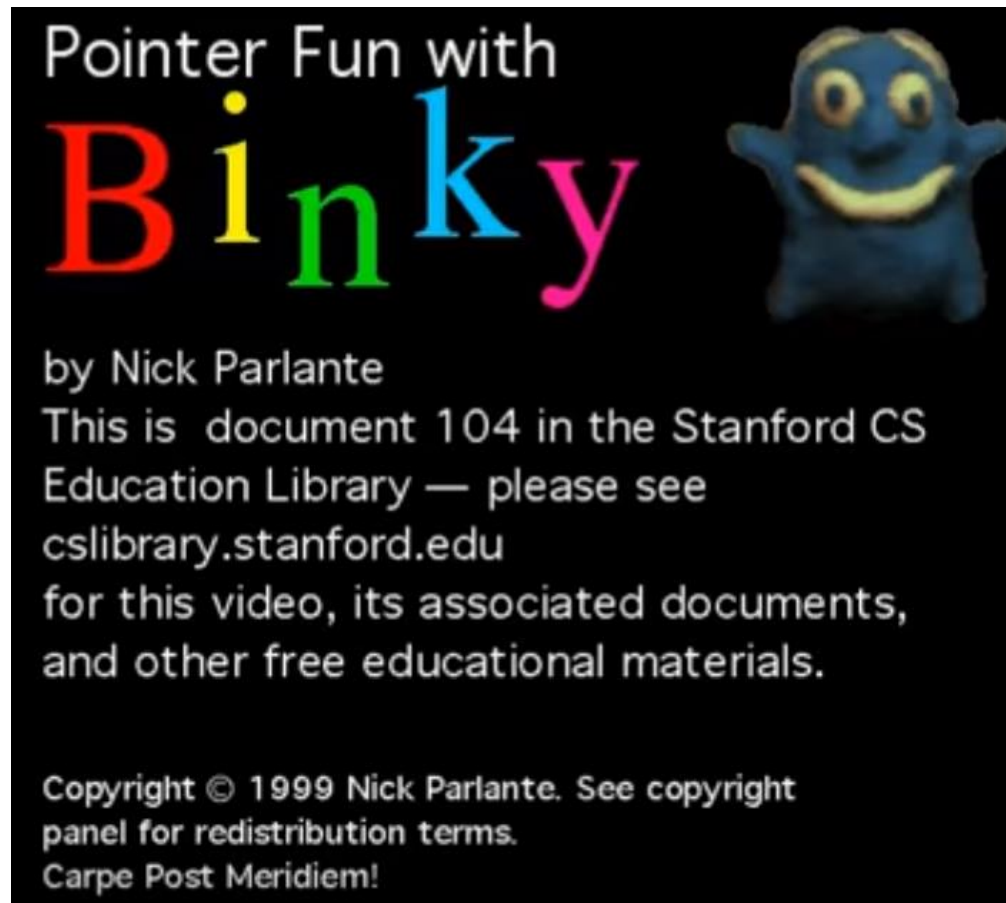


```
void foo()  
{  
    int a;  
    Location* loc = new Location(); // an object  
    ...  
    delete loc;  
}
```

“loc” was allocated in the heap, so we must explicitly delete it. “a” is still within the scope of the function, so it gets handled automatically in the stack.



# Pointers in C/C++



<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5VnDaHBi8dM>

# Pointers in C/C++

## ■ Pointer

- Memory address of a variable

## ■ Numbered memory locations

- Addresses used as name for variable

## ■ Pointers are typed and stored in a variable

- The variable does not store the value
- Instead, it stores a pointer to int, double, etc

Data	Address
01001101	0x107
01011010	0x106
00111011	0x105
00111001	0x104
10110101	0x103
11000101	0x102
01010111	0x101
...	0x100

## ■ Example:

- `double* p;`
- `p` is declared a "pointer to double" variable
- `p` can hold pointers to variables of type double

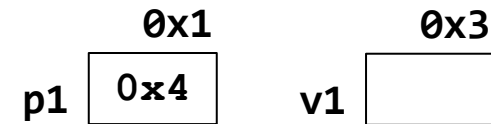
`double* p` vs `double *p`

# Addresses and Numbers

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- **Pointer is an address and address is an integer**
  - However, pointer is not an integer itself
- **C++ forces pointers be used as addresses**
  - Cannot be used as numbers
  - Even though they are numbers
- **Pointer terminology**
  - Talk of "pointing" and not "addresses"
  - Pointer variable "points to" an ordinary variable

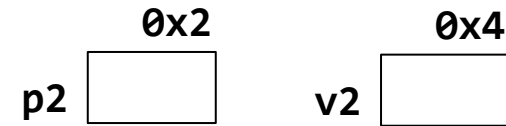
# Pointing to ...



## ■ Example:

- `int *p1, *p2, v1, v2;`  
`p1 = &v2;`

- Sets pointer variable p1 to point to int variable v1



## ■ Operator & determines the address of a variable

- Read as: "p1 equals address of v1" or "p1 points to v1"

## ■ Dereference operator, \*

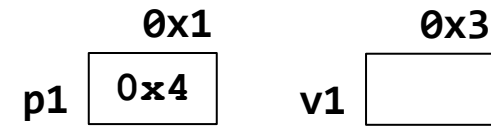
- Means: "Get data that p1 points to" (Binky's dereferencing wand)

## ■ Two ways to refer to v1 now:

- Using v1 itself: `cout << v1;`

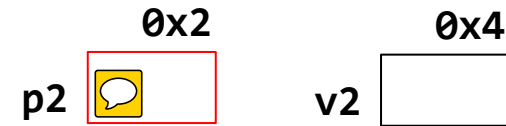
- Via pointer p1: `cout << *p1;`

# Pointer Assignments



- **Pointer variables can be assigned:**

- `p2 = p1;`
- Assigns one pointer to another
- Make p2 point to where p1 points

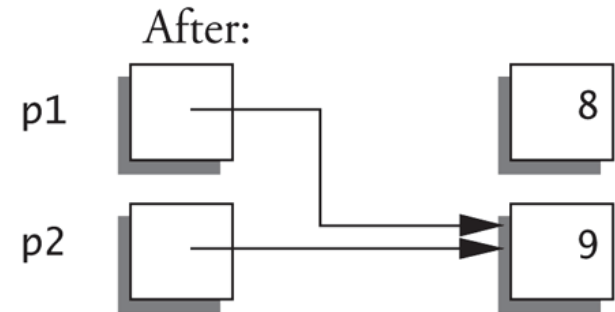
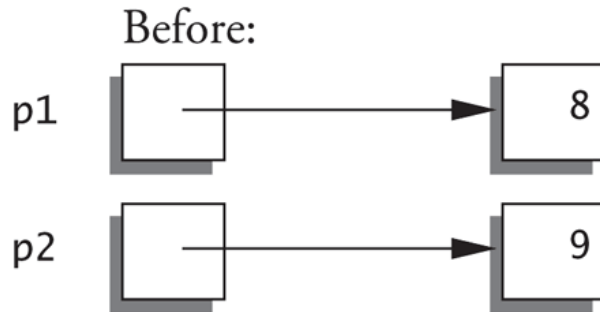


- **Do not confuse with: `*p1 = *p2;`**

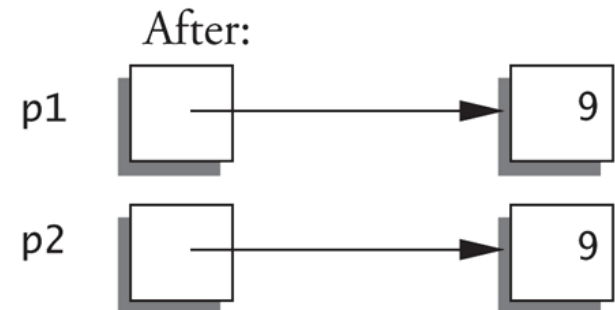
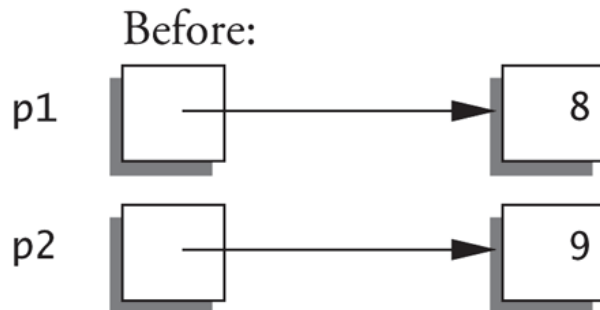
- Assigns p1 value to p2 value

# Pointer Assignments Visualized

`p1 = p2;`



`*p1 = *p2;`





# The new Operator

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- **Can dynamically allocate variables for pointers**
  - Operator **new** creates variables (in heap)
  - Operating system finds a suitable space in the heap, and returns the (starting) location in memory that you can use.
- **p1 = new int;**
  - Allocates space in the heap to store a single integer (4 bytes)
  - Assigns p1 to point to it
  - Can access with \*p1 and use it just like ordinary variable
  - **Need to clear the memory when you no longer need it to prevent memory leaks.**

# Basic Pointer Manipulations /1

```
1  //Program to demonstrate pointers and dynamic variables.
2  #include <iostream>
3  using std::cout;
4  using std::endl;

5  int main( )
6  {
7      int *p1, *p2;

8      p1 = new int;
9      *p1 = 42;
10     p2 = p1;
11     cout << "*p1 == " << *p1 << endl;
12     cout << "*p2 == " << *p2 << endl;

13     *p2 = 53;
14     cout << "*p1 == " << *p1 << endl;
15     cout << "*p2 == " << *p2 << endl;
```

# Basic Pointer Manipulations /2

```
16     p1 = new int;
17     *p1 = 88;
18     cout << "*p1 == " << *p1 << endl;
19     cout << "*p2 == " << *p2 << endl;

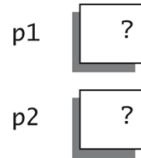
20     cout << "Hope you got the point of this example!\n";
21     return 0;
22 }
```

## SAMPLE DIALOGUE

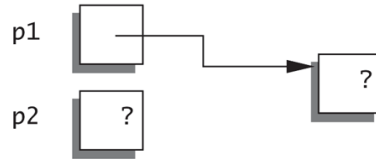
```
*p1 == 42
*p2 == 42
*p1 == 53
*p2 == 53
*p1 == 88
*p2 == 53
Hope you got the point of this example!
```

# Basic Pointer Manipulations /3

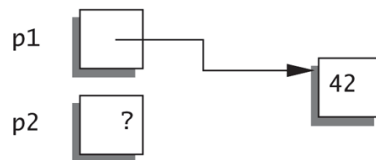
(a)  
`int *p1, *p2;`



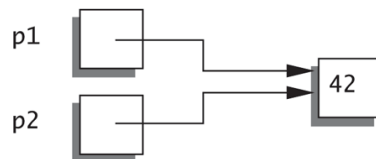
(b)  
`p1 = new int;`



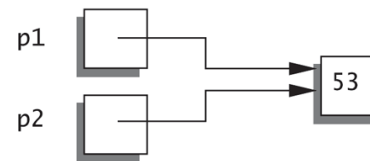
(c)  
`*p1 = 42;`



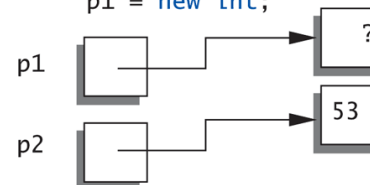
(d)  
`p2 = p1;`



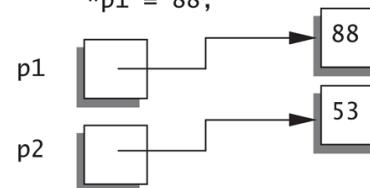
(e)  
`*p2 = 53;`



(f)  
`p1 = new int;`



(g)  
`*p1 = 88;`



# More on `new` Operator

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- **Allocates memory for new dynamic variable**
  - Returns pointer to the memory (heap)
- **If type is class type:**
  - Constructor is called for new object
  - Can invoke different constructor with different arguments:  

```
MyClass *mcPtr; // no constructor called yet  
mcPtr = new MyClass(32.0, 17);
```
- **Can still initialize non-class types:**
  - ```
int *n;  
n = new int(17); //Initializes *n to 17
```

# Pointers and Functions

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- **Pointers are full-fledged C++ types**

- Can be used just like other types
- Can be function parameters
- Can be returned from functions

- **Example:**

- `int* findOtherPointer(int* p);`
- This function declaration has "pointer to an int" parameter and it returns "pointer to an int" variable

# Checking new Success

- Test if new succeeded using try/catch block:

```
try {  
    string *p = new string("abc");  
} catch (bad_alloc& ba) {  
    cerr << "Bad memory allocation: " << ba.what() << endl;  
}
```

- Test if new succeeded using (nothrow) option:

```
string *p = new (nothrow) string("abc");  
if (!p) { // check if P is NULL  
    cerr << "Bad memory allocation occurred" << endl;  
}
```

# delete Operator

---

- **Deallocate dynamic memory when not needed**
  - Returns memory to freestore
  - Example:  
`int *p;`  
`p = new int(5);`  
`... //Some processing...`  
`delete p;`
  - Deallocates dynamic memory "pointed to by pointer p"

Is “delete” the best word?



# Dangling Pointers

---

- **delete p;**
  - Destroys dynamic memory
  - But p still points there; called "dangling pointer"
  - If p is then dereferenced using ( \*p ), this leads to unpredictable results
- **Avoid dangling pointers**
  - Assign pointer that may be used again to NULL after delete:
  - **delete p;**  
**p = NULL;**

# Define Pointer Types

---

- **Can name pointer types**
  - To be able to declare pointers like other variables
  - Eliminate need for "\*" in pointer declaration
- **Use: typedef int\* IntPtr;**
  - Defines a new type alias
  - Consider these declarations:  
**IntPtr p;**  
  
**OR**  
**int\* p;**
  - The two declarations above are equivalent

# Call-by-value Pointers Example /1

```
1  //Program to demonstrate the way call-by-value parameters
2  //behave with pointer arguments.
3  #include <iostream>
4  using std::cout;
5  using std::cin;
6  using std::endl;

7  typedef int* IntPtr;

8  void sneaky(IntPtr temp);

9  int main( )
10 {
11     IntPtr p;

12     p = new int;
13     *p = 77;
14     cout << "Before call to function *p == "
15          << *p << endl;
```

# Call-by-value Pointers Example /2

```
16     sneaky(p);

17     cout << "After call to function *p == "
18           << *p << endl;

19     return 0;
20 }
21 void sneaky(IntPointer temp)
22 {
23     *temp = 99;
24     cout << "Inside function call *temp == "
25           << *temp << endl;
26 }
```



## SAMPLE DIALOGUE

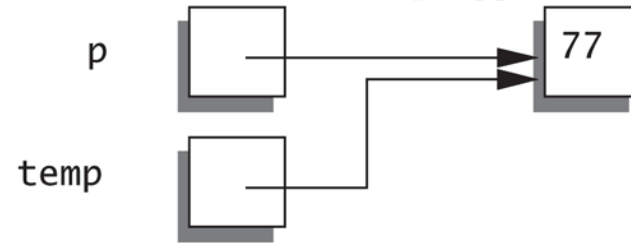
Before call to function \*p == 77  
Inside function call \*temp == 99  
After call to function \*p == 99

# Call-by-value Pointers Example /3

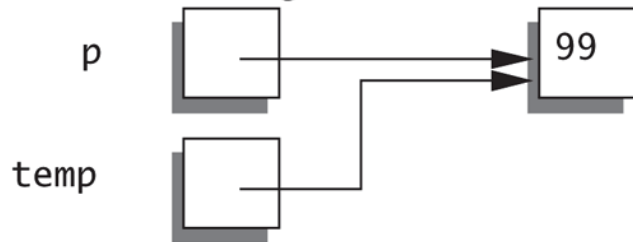
1. Before call to sneaky:



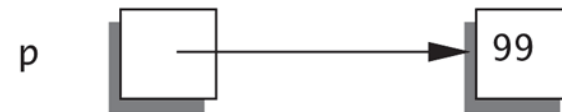
2. Value of `p` is plugged in for `temp`:



3. Change made to `*temp`:




4. After call to sneaky:



# Copy Constructors Revisited

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## ■ **Shallow Copy:**

- Copies only the member variables 
- Also known as member-wise copy
- Default for the assignment and copy constructors

## ■ **Deep Copy:**

- Pointers and dynamic memory are involved
- Hence, must dereference pointer variables to get to data that needs to be copied; compiler will not do this for you
- Write your own assignment overload and copy constructor in this case

# Destructors Revisited

---

- **Dynamically-allocated variables need to be deleted**
  - Private member data variables if defined as pointers have memory assigned to them dynamically
  - For instance, data is allocated in a constructor
  - Must have means to deallocate memory when object is destroyed
  - Write your own destructor that deletes/frees the dynamically allocated memory

# Classes Revisited /1

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- **The -> operator: represents shorthand notation**
  - Combines dereference \* operator and dot . operators
  - Specifies the member of class pointed to by a pointer
- **Example:**
  - `MyClass *p;`  
`p = new MyClass;`  
`p->grade = "A";`  
  
`OR`  
`(*p).grade = "A";`
  - The two assignments immediately above are equivalent



# Classes Revisited /2

- **Member methods might need to refer to the calling object**

- Use predefined “this” pointer if needed

- Automatically points to the calling object:

```
Class Simple {  
public:  
    void showStuff() const;  
private:  
    int stuff;  
};
```

- Two ways for member methods to access:

```
cout << stuff; // preferred method of use
```


```
// use *this if there are multiple stuff variables  
// such as, stuff as a local variable and stuff member  
cout << this->stuff;
```

- To return the object itself, use the following

```
return *this;
```

# Classes Revisited /3

## ■ Assignment operator for dynamic allocation — example:

```
StringClass& StringClass::operator=(  
    const StringClass& rtSide) {  
    // if the right side is same as the left side  
    if (this == &rtSide)  
        return *this;  
  
    else {  
        capacity = rtSide.length;  
        length = rtSide.length;  
        // free up old memory  
        delete [] a;   
        a = new char[capacity];  
        for (int i = 0; i < length; i++)  
            a[i] = rtSide.a[i];  
        return *this;  
    }  
}
```

# Array Variables as Pointers /1

- **Standard array is of fixed size**
  - Dynamic array's size not specified at programming time
  - It is instead determined while the program running
- **Array variable refers to first indexed variable**
  - Hence, array variable is a pointer variable
- **Example:**
  - `int a[10];`  
`typedef int* IntPtr;`  
`IntPtr p;`
  - a and p are pointer variables
  - `p = a; // valid; p points to the first item in a`
  - `a = p; // invalid; a is a const ptr`

# Array Variables as Pointers /2

- **Array variable: `int a[10];`**
  - Interpreted as "const int \*" type
  - Array was allocated in memory already
  - Variable "a" must point to the allocated memory and it cannot be changed
  - In contrast to ordinary pointers that can change
- **Static array limitations**
  - Must specify size first but the size may not be known until the program runs
  - Typically wastes memory space
- **Dynamic arrays**
  - Can grow and shrink as needed using dynamic memory

# Creating Dynamic Arrays

---

- **Use the “new” operator**
  - Dynamically allocate them with a pointer variable and then treat them like standard arrays
  
- **Example:**
  - `typedef double * DoublePtr;`  
`DoublePtr d;`  
`d = new double[size]; // size was already defined`
  - Creates dynamically allocated array variable d with the number of elements defined by the size variable

# Deleting Dynamic Arrays

---

- **Dynamic arrays are allocated at run-time**
  - So they should be destroyed at run-time too
- **Recall Example:**
  - `d = new double[size];`  
... `// processing`  
`delete [] d;`
  - De-allocates all memory for the dynamic array
  - Brackets indicate that an "array" is there
- **After deleting d's memory, d still points there**
  - If d may be used again, should set "d = NULL;" to avoid dangling pointers

# Function that Returns an Array

- **Array type is not allowed as return-type of function**
- **Example:**
  - `int[] someFunction(); // INVALID!`
  - Correction: return pointer to array base type
  - `int* someFunction(); // VALID!`
- **Practical considerations:**
  - Use `std::vector` instead of primitive arrays, even the dynamically created ones, for performance reasons
  - If using static arrays, use `<array>` (C++11) instead
  - `<array>` provides reflexivity of the array itself, including the `at()` function that allows you to safely query the array
  - The `at(index)` function throws an **out\_of\_range** exception if the specified index is out of the array range

# Pointer Arithmetic

- **Recall: One can perform arithmetic on pointers**
  - However, only addition and subtraction using integer values work on pointers
- **Example:**
  - `typedef double* DoublePtr;`  
`DoublePtr d;`  
`d = new double[10];`
  - `d` contains address of `d[0]`; `d + 1` evaluates to address of `d[1]`;  
`d + 2` evaluates to address of `d[2]`
  - Iterate through the array without indexing:  

```
for (int i = 0; i < arraySize; i++)  
    cout << *(d + i) << " " ;    // for demonstration
```
  - Equivalent to:  

```
for (int i = 0; i < arraySize; i++)  
    cout << d[i] << " " ;    // preferred way
```



# Multidimensional Dynamic Arrays

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- **Recall: Arrays of arrays**
  - `typedef int* IntArrayPtr;`  
`IntArrayPtr *m = new IntArrayPtr[3];`
  - The above creates an array of three pointers
  - `for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)`  
`m[i] = new int[4];`
  - Results in three-by-four dynamic array

# Final Topic: Class Separation

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- **Program parts are kept in separate files**
  - Compiled separately
  - Linked together before the program runs
- **Class Independence**
  - Independent class specification called class interface
  - Separated from the class implementation in another file
  - If the implementation changes, only the implementation file needs to be changed
  - Class specification does not need to change
  - Hence, the programs using the class do not need to change as the result of the class change

# Class Interface Files

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- **Interface File**
  - Contains class definition with function and operator declarations/prototypes
- **Class interface always in header file**
  - Use `.hpp` or `.h` naming convention
- **Programs that use the class will include it**
  - Use `#include "myclass.hpp"` in your `.cpp` code
  - Quotes indicate that it is a local header, and that it can be found in your working directory
  - `#include` is basically copy+paste
- **< > indicate predefined library header file**
  - To be found in the library directory (e.g., `#include <iostream>`)

# Using #ifndef in Class Interface Files

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- **Header file structure:**

- `#ifndef FNAME_HPP`  
`#define FNAME_HPP`  
`... // contents of the header file`  
`...`  
`#endif`
- FNAME typically name of file for consistency and readability
- This syntax avoids multiple definitions of header file

# Class Implementation Files

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- **Class implementation in .cpp file**
  - Typically give interface file and implementation file same name, such as myclass.hpp and myclass.cpp
  - All class member functions are defined in this file
  - Implementation file must `#include` class header file
- **.cpp files typically contain executable code**
  - Function definitions go into the class implementation file
  - The `main()` method and other program-specific code is typically located in the program file (e.g., myprogram.cpp)

# Aside: Smart Pointers

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- As you can probably tell, managing dynamic memory via pointers can get really tricky with larger programs.
- There have been initiatives to create “smart pointer” types that “automatically” delete (free) the memory when it’s out of scope.
  - Combines dynamic and local variable concepts
- Google has a good set of smart pointer types in their style guide:

[https://google.github.io/styleguide/cppguide.html#Ownership\\_and\\_Smart\\_Pointers](https://google.github.io/styleguide/cppguide.html#Ownership_and_Smart_Pointers)

<https://www.chromium.org/developers/smart-pointer-guidelines>

# Objectives

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## Core Content:

- Introduction to Virtual Address Space
- C++ Memory Model
- Classes and Dynamic Memory
- Dynamic Arrays
- Separate Compilation Units

## Additional Information:

- **Namespaces via `using` Directives**
- **Global and Unnamed Namespaces**
- **Nested Namespaces**

# Action Items

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- **Read:**
  - Chapter 2 (Linked Data Structures) from the course handbook
  
- **Additional Readings:**
  - Chapter 4 from “Data Structures and Other Objects Using C++” by Main and Savitch
  - Review Chapters 9 – 11 from “Absolute C++” by Savitch
    - Review the material discussed above in more detail



# Namespaces

---

- **Namespace:**
  - A collection of name definitions
  - That is, class definitions and variable declarations
- **Programs use many classes, functions**
  - Commonly these can have the same names
  - Namespaces help resolve name conflicts
- **Examples:**
  - `Person::firstName`
  - `Person::testAge`
  - `CS246Namespace::A5`

# Namespace std

---

- **Std namespace contains all names defined in many standard library files**
- **Example: #include <iostream>**
  - Places all name definitions (cin, cout, etc.) into std namespace
  - Must specify this namespace for program to access names
- **using namespace std;**
  - Makes all definitions in std namespace available
  - If one needs to redefine cout and cin, this statement should not be used
  - Reference cout and cin from std directly as **std::cout** and **std::cin**

# Global Namespace

---

- **All code goes in some namespace**
  - Unless specified, this is the global namespace
  - No need for the using directive since the global namespace always available
- **Multiple namespaces**
  - What if a name is defined in both namespace, such as global and std?
  - Name conflicts result in an error
  - Can still use both namespaces, but must specify which namespace is to be used at a particular time

# Specifying Namespaces

- **Given namespaces NS1, NS2**
  - Both have void function `myFunction()` defined differently
  - ```
{  
    using namespace NS1;  
    myFunction();  
}  
{  
    using namespace NS2;  
    myFunction();  
}
```
  - `using` directive has block scope

# Creating a Namespace

---

- **Use namespace grouping:**

- `namespace Name_Space_Name`  
`{`  
`// some code`  
`}`

- Places all names defined in `Some_Code` into namespace `Name_Space_Name`

- Can then be made available:  
`using namespace Name_Space_Name`

# Creating a Namespace Example

---

- **Name your namespace with a unique string**
  - Reduces chance of other namespaces with same name
  
- **Function Declaration:**
  - ```
namespace MTE140
{
    void greeting();
}
```
  
- **Function Definition:**
  - ```
namespace MTE140{
    void greeting() {
        cout << "Hello from MTE140" << endl;
    }
}
```

# using Declarations

---

- **Can specify individual names from namespace**
- **Example:**
  - Namespaces NS1 and NS2 exist
  - Each has functions **fun1()** and **fun2()**
  - Declaration syntax:  
**using Name\_Space::One\_Name;**
  - Specify which name from each namespace:  
**using NS1::fun1;**  
**using NS2::fun2;**

# Qualifying Names

---

- **Can specify where the name comes from**
  - Use qualifier and scope-resolution operator
- **Example:**
  - `NS1::fun1();` // specifies that fun()  
                  // comes from namespace NS1
- **Especially useful for parameters:**
  - `int getInput(std::istream inputStream);`
  - Parameter found in istream's std namespace
  - Eliminates need for the using directive



# Unnamed Namespaces

---

- **Compilation Unit Defined:**
  - A file along with all the files `#included` in it
- **Every compilation unit has unnamed namespace**
  - Written the same way but with no name
  - All names are then local to the compilation unit
  - Use unnamed namespace to keep things local
  - Scope of unnamed namespace is the compilation unit
- **Global vs. Unnamed Namespaces**
  - Global namespace: No namespace grouping; global scope
  - Unnamed namespace: Has namespace grouping, just no name; local scope

# Nested Namespaces

- Legal to nest namespaces

- ```
namespace S1
{
    namespace S2
    {
        void sample()
        {
            ...
        }
    }
}
```

- Qualify names twice:

- ```
S1::S2::sample();
```

# Hiding Helper Functions

---

- **Helper function:**
  - Typically a low-level utility function and not for public use
- **Two ways to hide helper function from public use:**
  - Place the function in the unnamed namespace if the function does not require access to the internals of the object
  - Make private member function if the function requires access to the internals of the object