

# **CSE 100 Notes**

Advanced Data Structures

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# 1 A Brief Introduction

In this course, we will primarily be building off of our prior knowledge of data structures (CSE 12). In particular, we will:

- Analyze data structures for both time and space complexity.
- Describe the strengths and weaknesses of a data structure.
- Implement complex data structures correctly and efficiently.

## 1.1 Data Structures vs. Abstract Data Types

When talking about data, we often hear about data structures and abstract data types.

Data Structures (DS)	Abstract Data Type (ADT)
<p>Data structures are collections that contain:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Data values.</li> <li>• Relationships among the data.</li> <li>• Operations applied to the data.</li> </ul> <p>It also describes how the data are organized and how tasks are performed. So, a data structure defines every single detail about anything relating to the data.</p>	<p>Abstract data types are defined primarily by its <u>behavior</u> from the view of the <u>user</u>. So, not necessarily how the operations are done, but rather what operations it must have from a completely abstract point of view.</p> <p>Specifically, it describes only what needs to be done, not how it's done.</p>

Consider the `ArrayList` (DS) vs. the `List` (ADT).

- A `List` will most likely have the following operations:
  - **add**: Adds an element to the list.
  - **find**: Does an element exist in the list?
  - **remove**: Remove an element from the list.
  - **size**: How many elements are in this list?
  - **ordered**: Each element should be ordered in the way we added it. For example, if we added 5, and *then* added 3, and *then* added 10, our list should look like: [5, 3, 10].

Of course, as an abstract data type, `List` isn't going to define how these operations work. It just lists all operations that any implementing data structure must have. In other words, we can think of `List`, or any abstract data type, as a *blueprint* for future data structures.

- An `ArrayList` is simply an array that is expandable. It is internally backed by an array. So, we can perform the following operations:
  - We can **add** an element to the `ArrayList`. In this case, we add the element to the next available slot in the array, expanding the array if necessary.
  - We can **find** an element in the `ArrayList`. In this case, we can search through each slot of the array until we find the array or we reach the end of the array.
  - We can **remove** an element from the `ArrayList`. In this case, we can simply move every element after the specified element back one slot.
  - We can get the **size** of the `ArrayList`. In this case, this is as simple as seeing how many elements are in this `ArrayList`.
  - And, we know that the `ArrayList` is **ordered**. In this case, this is already done via the **add** and **remove** methods.

Notice how **ArrayList** specifies how each operation defined by **List** works. In this sense, we say that **ArrayList** essentially implements **List** because we need to define *how* the tasks defined by **List** are performed.

So, the key takeaways are:

- An abstract data type (in our case, **List**) specifies what needs to be done without specifying how it's done.
- A data structure (in our case, **ArrayList**) actually defines **how** the data is organized, how the different operations are performed, and how exactly everything is represented.

## 2 Introduction to C++

Here, we will talk about C++, the programming language that we will use in this course.

### 2.1 Data Types

First, we'll compare the data types in Java and C++.

Data Type	Java	C++
byte	1 byte	1 byte
short	2 bytes	2 bytes
int	4 bytes	4 bytes
long	8 bytes	8 bytes
long long		16 bytes
float	4 bytes	4 bytes
double	8 bytes	8 bytes
boolean	Usually 1 byte	Usually 1 byte 1 byte
bool		
char	2 bytes	

It should be mentioned that:

- In Java, you can only have signed data types.
- In C++, you can have both signed and unsigned data types.
- `boolean` (Java) and `bool` (C++) are effectively the same thing: they represent either `true` or `false`.

### 2.2 Strings

There are some major differences between strings in Java and C++, which we will discuss below.

#### 2.2.1 Representation

In Java, strings are represented by the `String` class. In C++, strings are represented by the `string` type.

#### 2.2.2 Mutability

Strings in Java are immutable. The moment you create a string, you won't be able to modify them. The only way to change a string variable is by creating a new string and reassigning them.

In C++, strings are actually mutable. You can modify strings in-place.

#### 2.2.3 Concatenation

In Java, you can concatenate any type to a string. For example, the following is valid:

```
String a = "this is a string" + 123;
```

In C++, you can only concatenate strings with other strings. So, if you wanted to convert an integer (or any other type) to a string, you would have to *first* convert that integer to a string (or use a string stream).

### 2.2.4 Substring Method

In Java, we can take the substring of a string using the `substring` method. The method signature is:

```
String#substring(beginIndex, endIndex);
```

In C++, we can take the substring using the `substr` method. The method signature is:

```
string#substr(beginIndex, length);
```

An important distinction to make here is that Java's `substring` method takes in an **end index** for the second parameter, whereas C++'s `substr` method takes in a **length** for the second parameter.

## 2.3 Comparing Non-Primitive Objects

Suppose `a` and `b` are two non-primitive objects.

In Java, if we want to compare these two objects, we have to make use of the methods:

```
a.equals(b)
a.compareTo(b)
```

If we tried using the relational operators like `==` or `!=`, Java would compare the memory addresses of the two objects, which is often something that we aren't looking for.

In C++, even if `a` and `b` are objects, we can make use of the relational operators:

```
a == b      a != b
a < b       a <= b
a > b       a >= b
```

This is done through something called **operator overloading**, where we write a custom class and define how these operators should function.

## 2.4 Variables

Now, we will briefly discuss how variables function in both C++ and Java.

### 2.4.1 Initialization

In Java, variable initialization is **checked**. Consider the following code:

```
int fast;
int furious;
int fastFurious = fast + furious;
```

Because `fast` and `furious` aren't initialized, the Java compiler will throw a compilation error.

In C++, variable initialization is **not checked**. Consider the same code, which will compile:

```
int fast;
int furious;
int fastFurious = fast + furious;
```

Here, this would result in **undefined** behavior.

### 2.4.2 Narrowing

In Java, if we have a higher variable type and then try to cast this type to a smaller type, we would get a compilation error. Consider the following code:

```
int x = 40_000;
short y = x;
```

This code would result in a compilation error. If we didn't want a compilation error, we would have to explicitly *cast* the bigger variable type to the smaller type. The following Java code would compile just fine:

```
int x = 40_000;
short y = (short) x;
```

In C++, no compilation error would occur; that is, the following code would compile:

```
int x = 40_000;
short y = x;
```

What would actually happen is that `x` would get **truncated** when it is assigned to `y`, resulting in integer overflow.

### 2.4.3 Variable Declaration

In Java, variables **cannot** be declared outside of a class. The following Java code would result in a compile error:

```
// MyClass.java

int meaningOfLife = 42;
class MyClass {
    // some code
}
```

In order for this to compile, you have to put variable declarations inside the class space (as an instance variable) or in a method inside a class (as a local variable).

In C++, variables **can** be declared outside of a class. The following C++ code would compile completely fine:

```
// MyClass.cpp

int meaningOfLife = 42;
class MyClass {
    // some code
}
```

Here, `meaningOfLife` is a **global variable**. Anything in this file can access this variable. In general, it is considered poor practice to use global variables except in cases of constants.

## 2.5 Classes, Source Code, and Headers

Another thing that is important is the concept of classes (which leads to the topic of object-oriented programming). That being said, Java and C++ has some differences with regards to how classes function.

### 2.5.1 Class Declaration

There are some key differences in how methods and instance variables are laid out in Java and C++. In Java, a typical class would look like:

```
class Student {
    public static int numStudents = 0;
    private String name;

    public Student(String n) { /* Code */ }

    public void setName(String n) { /* Code */ }
    public String getName() { /* Code */ }
}
```

And in C++, a typical class would look like:

```
class Student {
    public:
        static int numStudents;

        Student(string n);

        void setName(string n);
        string getName() const;

    private:
        string name;
}

int Student::numStudents = 0;
Student::Student(string n) { /* Code */ }
void Student::setName(string n) { /* Code */ }
string Student::getName() const { /* Code */ }
```

There are several notable differences:

- **Modifiers:** In Java, if you want your method or instance variable to have an access modifier, you explicitly state the access modifier. In C++, you have a region for your access modifier. That is, there is a **public** region, **private** region, etc. Any methods or instance variables listed under these regions will take on that access modifier. For instance, **setName** is in the **public** region, so **setName** is public.
- **Implementation:** In Java, directly after declaring a method or constructor in a class, we need to provide the implementation code. In C++, we can “declare” the methods and the constructor, and then outside of the class we can implement the methods.

Now, consider the following C++ code:

```
class Point {
    private:
        int x;
        int y;

    public:
        Point(int i, int j);
}

Point::Point(int i, int j) {
```



```
        x = i;
        y = j;
    }
```

Here, we're initializing the `x` and `y` instance variables directly from the constructor implementation. However, we can initialize these instance variables directly like so:

```
class Point {
    private:
        int x;
        int y;

    public:
        Point(int i, int j);
}

Point::Point(int i, int j) : x(i), y(j) {}
```

This is called the **member initializer list**.

### 2.5.2 Source vs. Header Files

Consider the following class:

```
class Student {
    public:
        static int numStudents;
        Student(string n);

    private:
        string name;
}

int Student::numStudents = 0;
Student::Student(string n) : name(n) {
    numStudents++;
}
```

We can choose to break this up into two separate files; a **source** (usually `.cpp`) file and a **header** (usually `.h`) file. The header file contains the class and the method *declaration*; the source file contains the implementations for those methods. So, the above code can be written like so:

```
// The header file
// Student.h
class Student {
    public:
        static int numStudents;
        Student(string n);

    private:
        string name;
}

// The source file
// Student.cpp
int Student::numStudents = 0;
Student::Student(string n) : name(n) {
```

```

    numStudents++;
}

```

## 2.6 Memory Diagrams

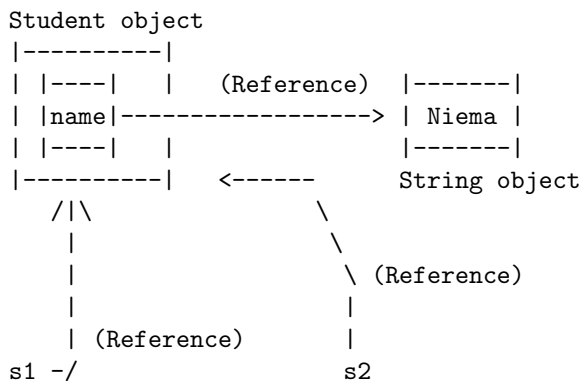
Consider the following Java code:

```

Student s1 = new Student("Niema");
Student s2 = s1;

```

Here, `s1` is a *reference* to a `Student` object. This `Student` object contains a *reference* to a `string` object with the content `Niema`. That is:



It also follows that `s2` is a reference to the same object that `s1` is referring to.

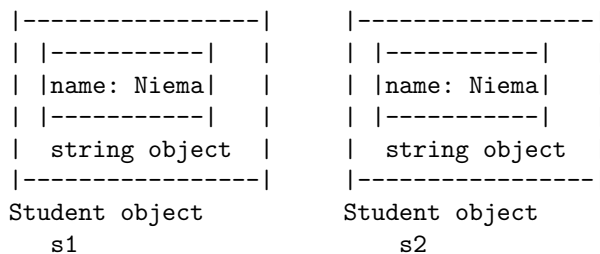
Now, consider the following C++ code:

```

Student s1("Niema");
Student s2 = s1;

```

Here, `s1` is a `Student object`. The `Student` object contains a `string` object with the content `Niema`. That is:



Additionally, when we assign `s1` to `s2`, we actually make a copy of said object. So, `s2` is its own object; it does not share a reference with `s1`.

In other words, in Java, `s1` and `s2` are both references to the same object; in C++, `s1` *is* the object and `s2` is *another* object.

### 2.6.1 References

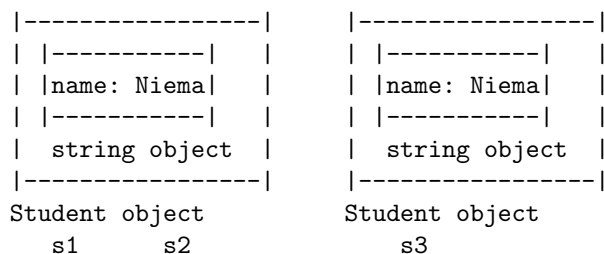
Consider the following C++ code:

```

Student s1 = Student("Niema");
Student & s2 = s1;
Student s3 = s2;

```

The memory diagram looks like this:



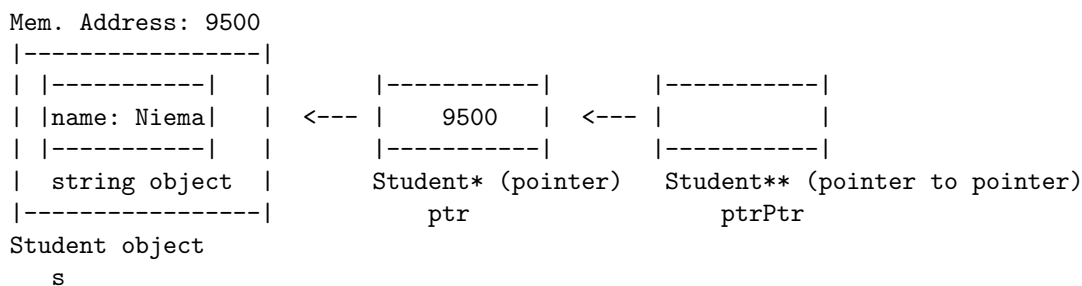
Here, `s2` can be seen as *another* way to call `s1` (think of `s2` as another name for `s1`). `s3` would be a copy of `s1`.

### 2.6.2 Pointers

Pointers are similar to Java references. Consider the following C++ code:

```
Student s = Student("Niema");
// * in this case means pointer
// & means memory address
// So, ptr stores a memory address to some object. In other words,
// it points to the object s.
Student* ptr = &s;
Student** ptrPtr = &ptr;
```

The memory diagram would look like:



If we wanted to access an object through a pointer, we can do this in several ways.

1. Dereferencing a pointer.

```
// * in this case dereferences the pointer
// Think of the * as following the arrow
(*ptr).name;
```

2. Arrow dereferencing.

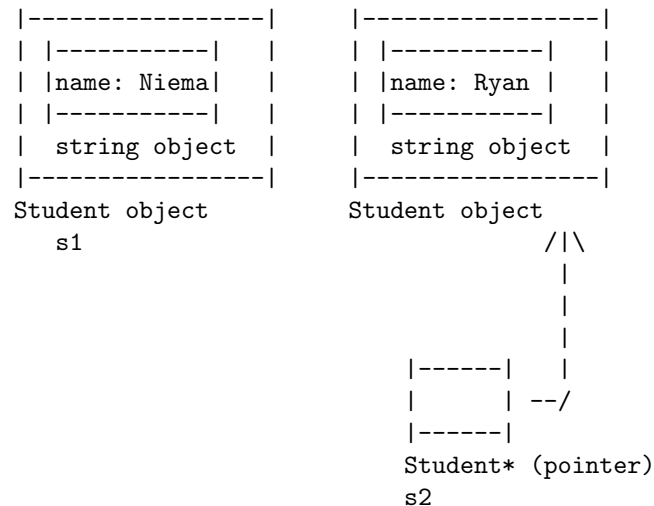
```
// ptr->x is the same thing as (*ptr).x
ptr->name;
```

### 2.6.3 Memory Management

Consider the following C++ code:

```
Student s1 = Student("Niema");
Student* s2 = new Student("Ryan");
```

The corresponding memory diagram is:



Here, `s1` is allocated on the *stack*; once the method returns, `s1` is automatically destroyed.

`s2` is allocated through the `new` keyword. This is known as dynamic memory allocation. So, `s2` is a pointer to the newly allocated memory. Because this object was created using the `new` keyword, we need to deallocate it ourselves. To do so, we need to explicitly call `delete` on this object:

```
delete s2;
```

`delete` takes in a memory address (i.e. pointer). This is very similar to `free` (in C). If we don't free this, we run into what is called a **memory leak**.

## 2.7 Constant Keyword

In C++, the `const` keyword means that the variable can never be reassigned. Consider the following:

```
const int a = 42;
int const b = 42;
```

If we tried reassigning `a` (e.g. `a = 41;`), we would get a compiler error.

The second line (`int const`) is identical to the first line.

### 2.7.1 const and Pointers

Consider the following C++ code:

```
int a = 42;
const int* ptr1 = &a;
const int* ptr2 = &a;
```