

Memory, Heap, Classes

Computer Systems Programming, Spring 2025

Instructor: Travis McGaha

Teaching Assistants:

Andrew Lukashchuk

Ashwin Alaparthi

Lobi Zhao

Angie Cao

Austin Lin

Pearl Liu

Aniket Ghorpade

Hassan Rizwan

Perrie Quek



pollev.com/tqm

❖ How are you?

Administrivia

- ❖ First Assignment (HW00 `simple_string`)
 - “Due” Friday 01/24
 - Extended to be due Wednesday the 28th (course selection period ends)
 - Mostly a C refresher

- ❖ Check-in 00
 - Releases tomorrow
 - Short unlimited attempt quiz
 - Extended to be due Wednesday the 28th (course selection period ends)

Administrivia

- ❖ Second Assignment (HW01 Vector)
 - Releases Friday
 - Due Friday 01/31
 - Implementing a simple C++ object

- ❖ Pre semester Survey
 - Anonymous
 - Due Wednesday the 28th

Lecture Outline

- ❖ **Hello World in C++**
- ❖ Memory
 - The heap
 - nullptr
 - Memory Layout & Diagrams
- ❖ C++ Classes
 - Syntax
 - Construction

Aside: Hello World in C++

helloworld.cpp

```
#include <iostream>    // for cout, endl
#include <cstdlib>      // for EXIT_SUCCESS

using namespace std;

int main() {
    cout << "Hello, World!" << endl;
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

- ❖ Looks simple enough...
 - Let's walk through the program step-by-step to highlight some differences

Aside: Hello World in C++

helloworld.cpp

```
#include <iostream> // for cout, endl
#include <cstdlib> // for EXIT_SUCCESS

using namespace std;

int main() {
    cout << "Hello, World!" << endl;
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

❖ `iostream` is part of the **C++** standard library

- Note: you don't write ".h" when you include C++ standard library headers
 - But you *do* for local headers (e.g. `#include "Deque.hpp"`)
- `iostream` declares stream *object* instances
 - e.g. `cin`, `cout`, `cerr`

Aside: Hello World in C++

helloworld.cpp

```
#include <iostream> // for cout, endl
#include <cstdlib> // for EXIT_SUCCESS

using namespace std;

int main() {
    cout << "Hello, World!" << endl;
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

- ❖ `cstdlib` is the **C** standard library's `stdlib.h`
 - Nearly all C standard library functions are available to you
 - For C header `math.h`, you should `#include <cmath>`
 - We include it here for `EXIT_SUCCESS`

Aside: Hello World in C++

helloworld.cpp

```
#include <iostream> // for cout, endl
#include <cstdlib> // for EXIT_SUCCESS
using namespace std;

int main() {
    cout << "Hello, World!" << endl;
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

- ❖ using namespace std;
 - It is there because I said so (can't use it in header files tho)
 - We include it here so that I can say cout instead of std::cout

```
#include <iostream> // for cout, endl
#include <cstdlib> // for EXIT_SUCCESS

int main() {
    std::cout << "Hello, World!" << std::endl;
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

Aside: Hello World in C++

helloworld.cpp

```
#include <iostream>    // for cout, endl
#include <cstdlib>      // for EXIT_SUCCESS

using namespace std;

int main() {
    cout << "Hello, World!" << endl;
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

- ❖ “cout” is an object instance declared by `iostream`, C++’s name for stdout
 - `std::cout` is an object of class `ostream`
 - <http://www.cplusplus.com/reference/ostream/ostream/>
 - Used to format and write output to the console
 - We use `<<` to send data to `cout` to get printed

Aside: Hello World in C++

helloworld.cpp

```
#include <iostream> // for cout, endl
#include <cstdlib> // for EXIT_SUCCESS

using namespace std;

int main() {
    cout << "Hello, World!" << endl;
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

- ❖ `endl` is a pointer to a “manipulator” function
 - This manipulator function writes newline (`' \n '`) to the `ostream` it is invoked on and then flushes the `ostream`'s buffer
 - This *enforces* that something is printed to the console at this point

Lecture Outline

- ❖ Hello World in C++
- ❖ **Memory**
 - **The heap**
 - **nullptr**
 - **Memory Layout & Diagrams**
- ❖ C++ Classes
 - Syntax
 - Construction

pollev.com/tqm

❖ What does this code print?

```
int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    int x = 5;
    int y = 10;
    int* z = &x;
    *z += 1;
    x += 1;

    z = &y;
    *z += 1;

    cout << "x: " << x << endl;
    cout << "y: " << y << endl;
    cout << "z: " << *z << endl;

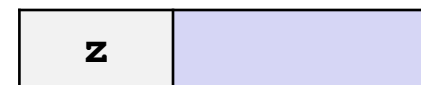
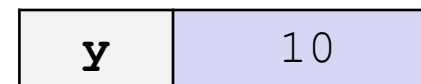
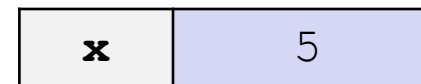
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

Pointers Reminder

Note: Arrow points to *next* instruction.

- ❖ A **pointer** is a variable containing an address
 - Modifying the pointer *doesn't* modify what it points to, but you can access/modify what it points to by *dereferencing*
 - These work the same in C and C++

```
int main(int argc, char** argv) {  
    int x = 5, y = 10;  
    int* z = &x;  
  
    *z += 1;  
    x += 1;  
  
    z = &y;  
    *z += 1;  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```

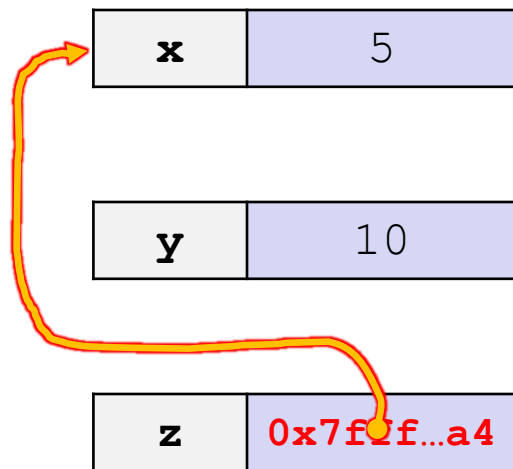


Pointers Reminder

Note: Arrow points to *next* instruction.

- ❖ A **pointer** is a variable containing an address
 - Modifying the pointer *doesn't* modify what it points to, but you can access/modify what it points to by *dereferencing*
 - These work the same in C and C++

```
int main(int argc, char** argv) {  
    int x = 5, y = 10;  
    int* z = &x;  
  
    *z += 1;  
    x += 1;  
  
    z = &y;  
    *z += 1;  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```

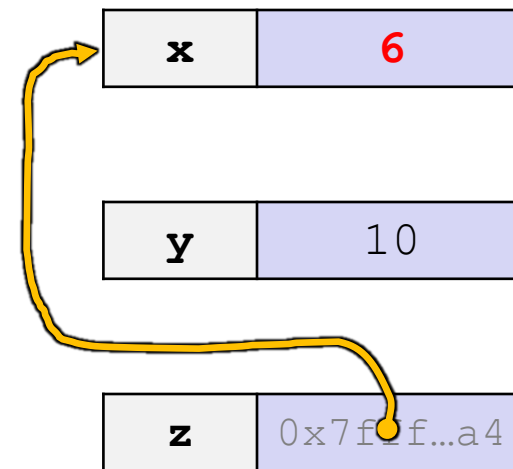


Pointers Reminder

Note: Arrow points to *next* instruction.

- ❖ A **pointer** is a variable containing an address
 - Modifying the pointer *doesn't* modify what it points to, but you can access/modify what it points to by *dereferencing*
 - These work the same in C and C++

```
int main(int argc, char** argv) {  
    int x = 5, y = 10;  
    int* z = &x;  
  
    *z += 1; // sets x to 6  
    x += 1;  
  
    z = &y;  
    *z += 1;  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```

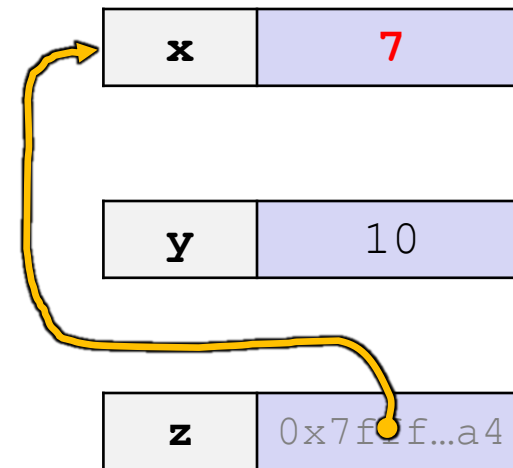


Pointers Reminder

Note: Arrow points to *next* instruction.

- ❖ A **pointer** is a variable containing an address
 - Modifying the pointer *doesn't* modify what it points to, but you can access/modify what it points to by *dereferencing*
 - These work the same in C and C++

```
int main(int argc, char** argv) {  
    int x = 5, y = 10;  
    int* z = &x;  
  
    *z += 1; // sets x to 6  
    x += 1; // sets x (and *z) to 7  
  
    z = &y;  
    *z += 1;  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```



Pointers Reminder

Note: Arrow points to *next* instruction.

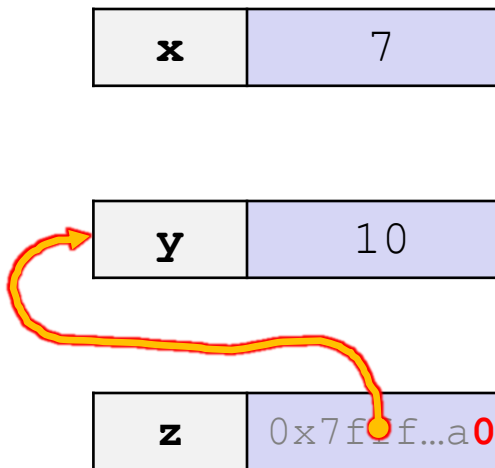
- ❖ A **pointer** is a variable containing an address
 - Modifying the pointer *doesn't* modify what it points to, but you can access/modify what it points to by *dereferencing*
 - These work the same in C and C++

```
int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    int x = 5, y = 10;
    int* z = &x;

    *z += 1; // sets x to 6
    x += 1; // sets x (and *z) to 7

    z = &y; // sets z to the address of y
    *z += 1;

    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```



Pointers Reminder

Note: Arrow points to *next* instruction.

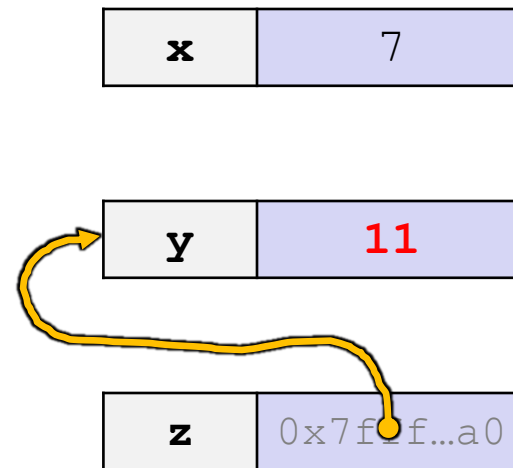
- ❖ A **pointer** is a variable containing an address
 - Modifying the pointer *doesn't* modify what it points to, but you can access/modify what it points to by *dereferencing*
 - These work the same in C and C++

```
int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    int x = 5, y = 10;
    int* z = &x;

    *z += 1; // sets x to 6
    x += 1; // sets x (and *z) to 7

    z = &y; // sets z to the address of y
    *z += 1; // sets y (and *z) to 11

    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```



C++ `nullptr`

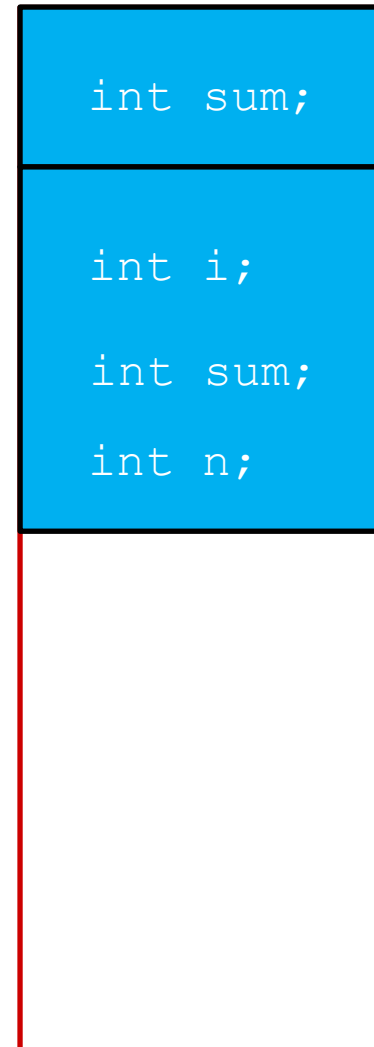
- ❖ C++ can have pointers that refer to nothing by assigning pointers the value `nullptr`
- ❖ `nullptr` is a useful indicator to indicate that the pointer is currently uninitialized or not in use.
- ❖ Trying to dereference or “access the value at” a pointer holding `nullptr`, will guarantee* your program to crash

Stack Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cstdlib>

→ int sum(int n) {
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        sum += i;
    }
    return sum;
}

int main() {
    int sum = sum(3);
    cout << "sum: " << sum;
    cout << endl;
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```



Stack frame for
main()

Stack frame for
sum()

Stack Example 1:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cstdlib>

int sum(int n) {
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        sum += i;
    }
    return sum;
}

int main() {
    int sum = sum(3);
    cout << "sum: " << sum;
    cout << endl;
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

int sum;

Stack frame for
`main()`

`sum()`'s stack frame
goes away after
`sum()` returns.

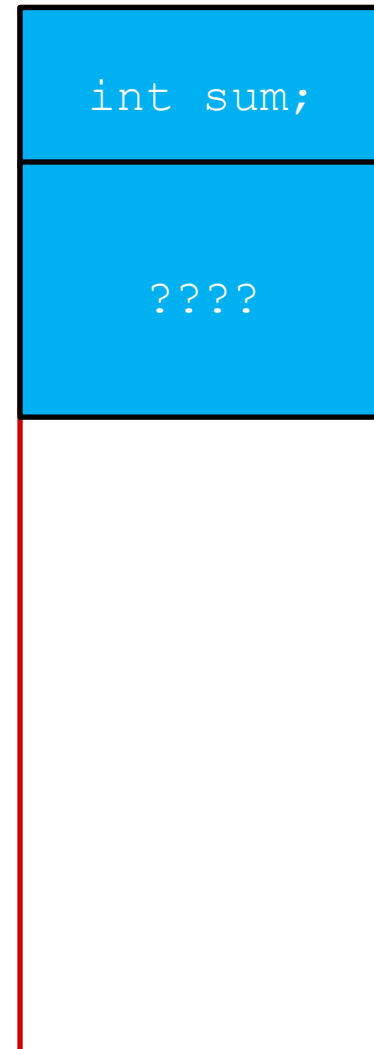
`main()`'s stack frame
is now top of the stack
and we keep executing
`main()`

Stack Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cstdlib>

int sum(int n) {
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        sum += i;
    }
    return sum;
}

int main() {
    int sum = sum(3);
    cout << "sum: " << sum;
    cout << endl;
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```



Stack frame for
main()

Stack frame for
cout << string

Stack

- ❖ Grows, but has a static max size
 - Can find the default size limit with the command `ulimit -all`
(May be a different command in different shells and/or linux versions. Works in bash on Ubuntu though)
 - Can also be found at runtime with `getrlimit(3)`

- ❖ Max Size of a stack can be changed
 - at run time with `setrlimit(3)`
 - At compilation time for some systems (not on Linux it seems)
 - (or at the creation of a thread)

pollev.com/tqm

❖ Does this function work as intended?

```
struct Point {  
    float x;  
    float y;  
};  
  
Point make_point() {  
    Point p;  
    p.x = 2.0f;  
    p.y = 1.0f;  
    return p;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    Point c = make_point();  
    cout << c.x << " " << c.y << endl;  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```

 **Poll Everywhere**pollev.com/tqm

- ❖ Does this function work as intended?

```
struct Point {
    float x;
    float y;
};

Point* make_point() {
    Point p;
    p.x = 2.0f;
    p.y = 1.0f;
    Point* ptr = &p;
    return ptr;
}

int main() {
    Point* c = make_point();
    cout << c->x << " " << c->y << endl;
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

pollev.com/tqm

❖ Does this function work as intended?

```
int* make_c_array() {
    int array[10];
    for (size_t i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
        array[i] = 10;
    }
    return array;
}

int main() {
    int* arr = make_c_array();
    cout << arr[0] << " " << arr[9] << endl;
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

Memory Allocation

❖ So far, we have seen two kinds of memory allocation:

```
int counter = 0; // global var  
  
int main() {  
    counter++;  
    cout << "count = " << counter;  
    cout << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

- counter is **statically**-allocated
 - Allocated when program is loaded
 - Deallocated when program exits

```
int foo(int a) {  
    int x = a + 1; // local var  
    return x;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int y = foo(10); // local var  
    cout << "y = " << y << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

- a, x, y are **automatically**-allocated
 - Allocated when function is called
 - Deallocated when function returns



What is Dynamic Memory Allocation?

- ❖ We want Dynamic Memory Allocation
 - **Dynamic means “at run-time”**
 - The compiler and the programmer don’t have enough information to make a final decision on how much to allocate or how long the data “should live”.
- ❖ **Dynamic memory can be of variable size:**
 - Your program explicitly requests more memory at run time
 - The language allocates it at runtime, probably with help of the OS
- ❖ **Dynamically allocated memory persists until either:**
 - A garbage collector collects it (automatic memory management)
 - Your code “explicitly” deallocates it (manual memory management)

The Heap

- ❖ The Heap is a large pool of available memory to use for Dynamic allocation
- ❖ This pool of memory is kept track of with a small data structure indicating which portions have been allocated, and which portions are currently available.

C++ keyword: new

- ❖ C++ keyword new is used to allocate space on the heap.
 - We specify a type and initial value which will be constructed and/or initialized for us.

```
int *get_heapy_int() {  
    int *greeting = new int(5);  
    return greeting;  
}  
  
int main(int argc, char** argv) {  
    int *s = get_heapy_int();  
    cout << *s << endl;  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```

Dynamic Memory Deallocation

- ❖ Dynamic memory has a dynamic “lifetime”
 - Stack data is deallocated when the function returns
 - Heap data is deallocated when our program deallocates it
- ❖ In high level languages like Java or Python, garbage collection is used to deallocate data
 - This has significant overhead for larger programs
- ❖ C requires you to manually manage memory
 - And so is easy to screw up
- ❖ C++ and Rust have RAII (more on this later next week)
 - Harder to screw-up, and much less overhead

Dynamic Memory Deallocation

- ❖ When is what we allocate deallocated?

```
int *get_heapy_int() {  
    int *greeting = new int(5);  
    return greeting;  
}  
  
int main(int argc, char** argv) {  
    int *s = get_heapy_int();  
    cout << *s << endl;  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```

C++ keyword: delete

- ❖ C++ keyword delete is used to deallocate space on the heap.

```
int *get_heapy_int() {  
    int *greeting = new int(5);  
    return greeting;  
}  
  
int main(int argc, char** argv) {  
    int *s = get_heapy_int();  
    cout << *s << endl;  
    delete s;  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```

The Heap

KEY TAKEAWAY: allocating on the heap is not free, it has overhead

- ❖ The Heap is a large pool of available memory to use for Dynamic allocation
- ❖ This pool of memory is kept track of with a small data structure indicating which portions have been allocated, and which portions are currently available.
- ❖ **new:**
 - searches for a large enough unused block of memory
 - marks the memory as allocated.
 - Returns a pointer to the beginning of that memory
- ❖ **delete:**
 - Takes in a pointer to a previously allocated address
 - Marks the memory as free to use.

Why would I use new?

- ❖ Consider our `simple_string` “object”, could we implement it without a pointer to the heap?

```
struct simple_string {  
    char* data;  
    size_t len;  
};
```

Why would I use new?

- ❖ Consider our `simple_string` “object”, could we implement it without a pointer to the heap?

```
struct simple_string {  
    char* data;  
    size_t len;  
};
```

- ❖ This doesn't work why?

```
struct simple_string {  
    char data[10];  
    size_t len;  
};
```

Why would I use new?

- ❖ Consider our `simple_string` “object”, could we implement it without a pointer to the heap?

```
struct simple_string {  
    char* data;  
    size_t len;  
};
```

- ❖ This doesn't work why?

```
simple_string make_simple_string(char* cstring) {  
    simple_string ret;  
    char arr[strlen(cstring) + 1];  
    for (size_t i = 0; i <= strlen(cstring); i++) {  
        arr[i] = cstring[i]  
    }  
    ret.data = arr;  
    ret.len = strlen(cstring);  
  
    return ret;  
}
```

Why would I use new?

- ❖ Consider our `simple_string` “object”, could we implement it without a pointer to the heap?

```
struct simple_string {  
    char* data;  
    size_t len;  
};
```

- ❖ No! We must dynamically allocate the data
 - To handle the fact that the string could be of variable length
 - So that the string characters don't get deallocated when a “constructor” returns

Why would I use new?

- ❖ In “real” or “modern” C++ code, you would not explicitly use new or delete yourself.
- ❖ In most cases, a string, vector or other data structure can be used, and you never have to allocate memory yourself
- ❖ Whenever you are using objects from the C++ standard library (more next week), those objects will do memory allocation.



Poll Everywhere

pollev.com/tqm

❖ Given this code, where are the following variables in memory? Assume the code is executing and is just about to finish the `init_arr` function.

- `res`
- `to_init`
- `new_len`
- `a`
- `a.data`
- `a.data[0]`
- `res.len`

```
struct arr {  
    int* data;  
    size_t len;  
};
```

```
void init_arr(arr* to_init, size_t new_len) {  
    arr res;  
    res.data = new int[new_len];  
    res.len = new_len;  
    for (size_t i = 0; i < new_len; i++) {  
        // 0 out the array  
        res.data[i] = 0;  
    }  
    *to_init = res;  
    // ← WE ARE RIGHT HERE. ABOUT TO RETURN  
}  
  
int main() {  
    arr a;  
    init_arr(&a, 3);  
    // ...  
}
```



Poll Everywhere

pollev.com/tqm

- ❖ If we wanted to make sure everything was properly deallocated, how many calls to delete do we need?

Where should we delete?

```
struct arr {  
    int* data;  
    size_t len;  
};
```

```
void init_arr(arr* to_init, size_t new_len) {  
    arr res;  
    res.data = new int[new_len];  
    res.len = new_len;  
    for (size_t i = 0; i < new_len; i++) {  
        // 0 out the array  
        res.data[i] = 0;  
    }  
  
    *to_init = res;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    arr a;  
    init_arr(&a, 3);  
    // ...  
}
```

Dynamic Memory Pitfalls

- ❖ Buffer Overflows (E.g. ask for 10 bytes, but write 11 bytes)
 - Could overwrite information needed to manage the heap
 - Common when forgetting the null-terminator on allocated strings
- ❖ Giving **delete** a pointer to the middle of an allocated region
 - Delete won't recognize the block of memory and probably crash
- ❖ **delete**-ing a pointer that has already been freed
 - Will interfere with the management of the heap and likely crash
- ❖ **new** does NOT initialize memory unless you give it an initial value
- ❖ Using the wrong **delete** (e.g. **delete** vs **delete []**)

Memory Leaks

- ❖ The most common Memory Pitfall
- ❖ What happens if we allocate something, but don't delete it?
 - That block of memory cannot be reallocated, even if we don't use it anymore, until it is `delete-d`
 - If this happens enough, we run out of heap space and program may slow down and eventually crash
- ❖ Garbage Collection
 - Automatically “frees” anything once the program has lost all references to it
 - Affects performance, but avoid memory leaks
 - Java has this, C++ doesn't
 - C++ has RAI which is VERY GOOD (but more on that next week)

Discuss: What is wrong with this code? (Multiple bugs)

You can assume this compiles.

```
int main() {
    char* literal = "Hello!";
    char* duplicate = dup_str(literal);
    char* sub = duplicate;
    size_t index = 0U;

    while (sub[0] != '\0') {
        cout << sub << endl;
        // print line is fine
        index += 1;
        sub = &(duplicate[index]);
    }

    delete duplicate;
    delete ptr;
    delete literal;
}
```

```
// assume this function works
size_t strlen(char* str) {
    size_t len = 0;
    while (str[len] != '\0') {
        len++;
    }
    return len;
}

char* dup_str(char* to_copy) {
    size_t len = str_len(to_copy);
    char* res = new char[len];
    for (size_t i = 0; i < len; i++) {
        res[i] = to_copy[i];
    }
    return res;
}
```

Lecture Outline

- ❖ Hello World in C++
- ❖ Memory
 - The heap
 - nullptr
 - Memory Layout & Diagrams
- ❖ **C++ Classes**
 - **Syntax**
 - **Construction**

Structs in C

❖ In C, we only had **structs**, which could only bundle together data fields

❖ Struct example definition:

```
struct Point { // Declare struct, usually used typedef
    // Declare fields & types here
    int x;
    int y;
};
```

❖ What is missing from this compared to objects/classes in languages other languages?

- Methods
- Access modifiers (public vs private)
- Inheritance

Classes in C++

- ❖ In C++, we have classes.
 - Think of these as C structs, but with methods, access modifiers, and inheritance.

- ❖ Class example definition: *Similar syntax for declaration*

```
class Point { // Declare class, typedef usually not used
public:
    Point(int x, int y); // constructor
    int get_x(); // getter } methods
    int get_y(); // getter
private:
    int x_; // fields } Fields
    int y_;
};
```

Access modifiers (points to public and private)

Fields (points to x_ and y_)

methods (points to get_x and get_y)

- ❖ In C++, we call fields and methods “members”

Classes Syntax

❖ Class definition syntax (in a `.hpp` file):

```
class Name {  
    public:  
        // public member definitions & declarations go here  
  
    private:  
        // private member definitions & declarations go here  
};
```

don't forget!

- Members can be functions (methods) or data (variables)

❖ Class member function definition syntax (in a `.cpp` file):

```
retType Name::MethodName(type1 param1, ..., typeN paramN) {  
    // body statements  
}
```

- (1) *define* within the class definition or (2) *declare* within the class definition and then *define* elsewhere

Class Definition (.hpp file)

Point.hpp

```
#ifndef POINT_HPP_
#define POINT_HPP_

class Point {
public:
    Point(int x, int y); // constructor
    int get_x() { return x_; } // inline member function
    int get_y() { return y_; } // inline member function
    double dot_prod(Point p); // member function
    void set_location(int x, int y); // member function

private:
    int x_; // data member
    int y_; // data member
}; // class Point

#endif // POINT_HPP_
```

Declarations

Inline definition ok for simple getters/setters

C++ naming conventions for data members

Class Member Definitions (.cpp file)

Point.cpp

```
#include "Point.hpp"

Point::Point(int x, int y) {
    x_ = x;
    this->y_ = y; // "this->" is optional unless name conflicts
}

double Point::dot_prod(Point p) {
    // We can access p's x_ and y_ variables either through the
    // get_x(), get_y() accessor functions or the x_, y_ private
    // member variables directly, since we're in a member
    // function of the same class.
    double prod = x_ * p.get_x();
    prod += (y_ * p.y_);
    return prod;
}

void Point::set_location(int x, int y) {
    x_ = x;
    y_ = y;
}
```

This code uses bad style for demonstration purposes

Equivalent to `y_=y;`

"this" is a `Point*` const

We have access to `x_`, could have used `x_` instead.

Class Usage (.cpp file)

usepoint.cpp

```
#include <iostream>
#include "Point.h"

using namespace std;

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    Point p1(1, 2); // construct a new Point on the Stack
    Point p2(4, 6); // construct a new Point on the Stack

    cout << p1.get_x() << endl;

    cout << p2.get_y() << endl;

    cout << "rod : " << p1.dot_prod(p2) << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

Calls constructor to define an object on the stack. (no "new" keyword)

Dot notation to call function (like java)

Constructors

- ❖ A **constructor** (**ctor**) initializes a newly-instantiated object
 - A class can have multiple constructors that differ in parameters
 - Which one is invoked depends on *how* the object is instantiated
 - A constructor is always invoked when creating a new instance of an object.
- ❖ Written with the class name as the method name:

```
Point(const int x, const int y);
```

 **Poll Everywhere**pollev.com/tqm

- ❖ There are a few bugs in this code that prevent it from compiling correctly. What are they?

```
class arr { // dynamic array object
public:
    arr(size_t len); // constructor

    // access an element at given index
    int at(size_t index);

    destroy(); // clean up this array
private:
    int* data_;
    size_t len_;
}
```

```
arr::arr(size_t len) {
    len_ = len;
    this->data = new int[len];
}

int at(size_t index) {
    // ignoring out of bounds for now
    return this->data[index]
}

destroy() {
    delete this->data;
}
```

Aside: std::string!

- ❖ `string` is part of the **C++** standard library
 - We still have to `#include` it
 - No more `char*` ! (sometimes we need a `char*`)

```
#include <iostream>    // for cout, endl
#include <cstdlib>      // for EXIT_SUCCESS
#include <string>      // for string

using namespace std;

int main() {
    string expected ("Travis");
    // ...
}
```

- ❖ This code constructs a string with the contents “Travis”
- ❖ You cannot use this in HW00. First I want you to make sure you understand how strings work, but we will use them soon 😊

Aside: Java “Object” variables

- ❖ Does this java compile?

```
public static String foo () {  
    return null;  
}
```

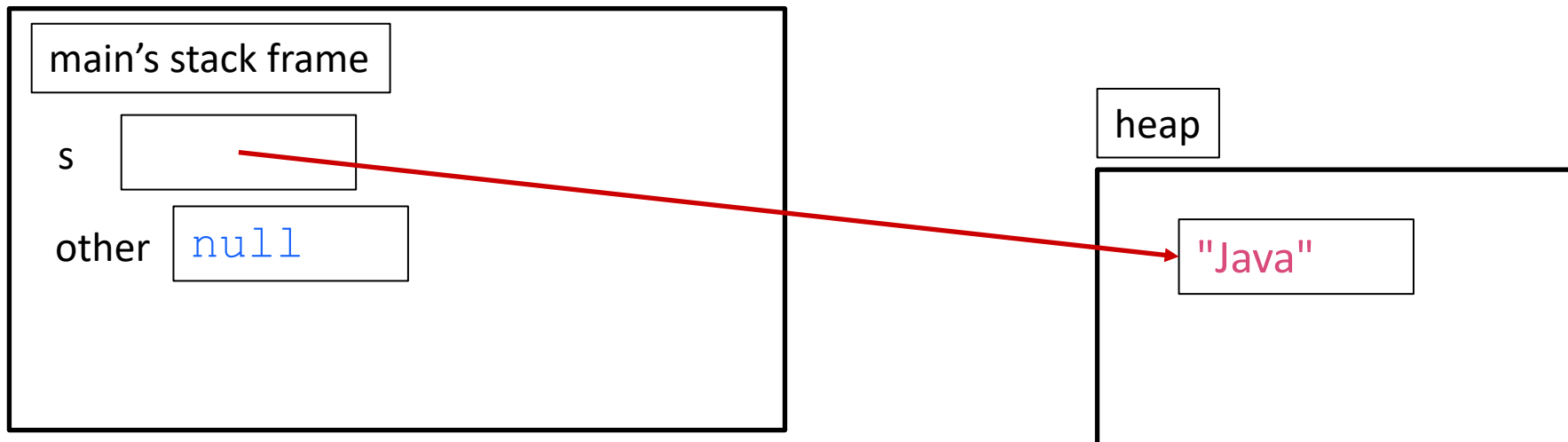
- ❖ What about this C++?

```
string foo () {  
    return nullptr;  
}
```


Aside: Java “Object” variables

- ❖ In high level languages (like java), object variables don’t actually contain an object, they contain a reference to an object.
 - References in these languages can be null

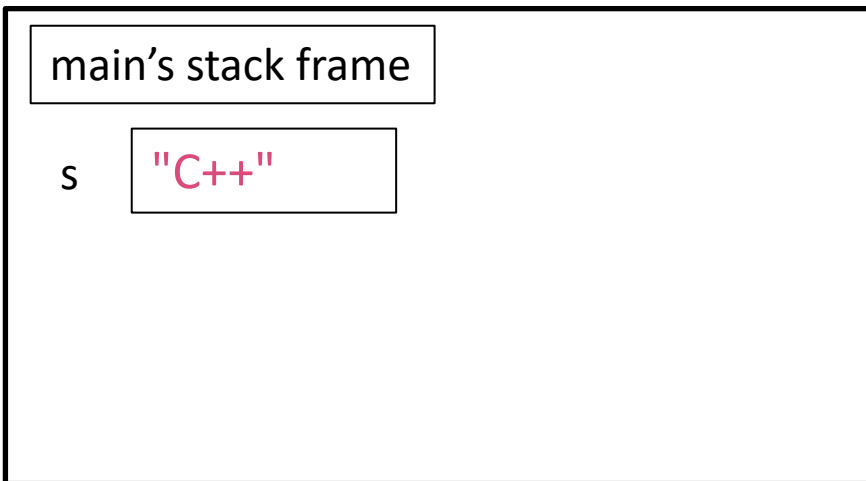
```
String s = new String("Java");  
String other = null;
```



Aside: Java “Object” variables

- ❖ In C++, a string variable is itself a string object

```
string s("C++");  
  
// below does not do what you think it  
// does. It will probably crash  
string other = nullptr;
```



The string object does store its characters on the heap (like we do in `simple_string`)

but the object containing the `char*` and `size_t` are on the stack

That's it for now!

❖ More next lecture 😊