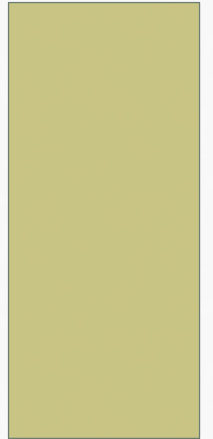
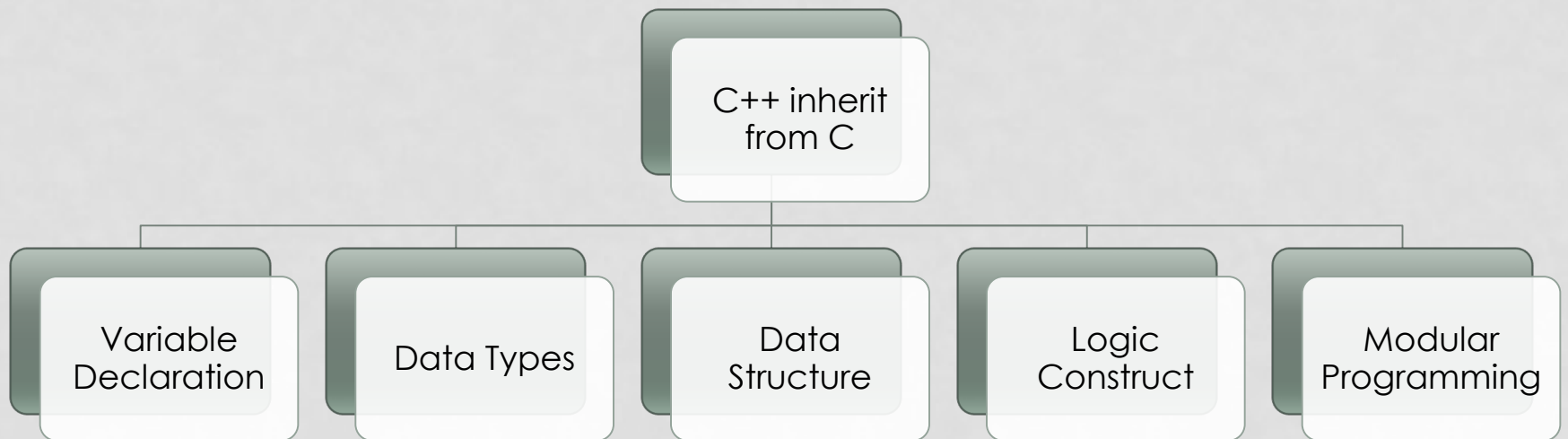


# TYPES, OVERLOADING, REFERENCES, DYNAMIC MEMORY

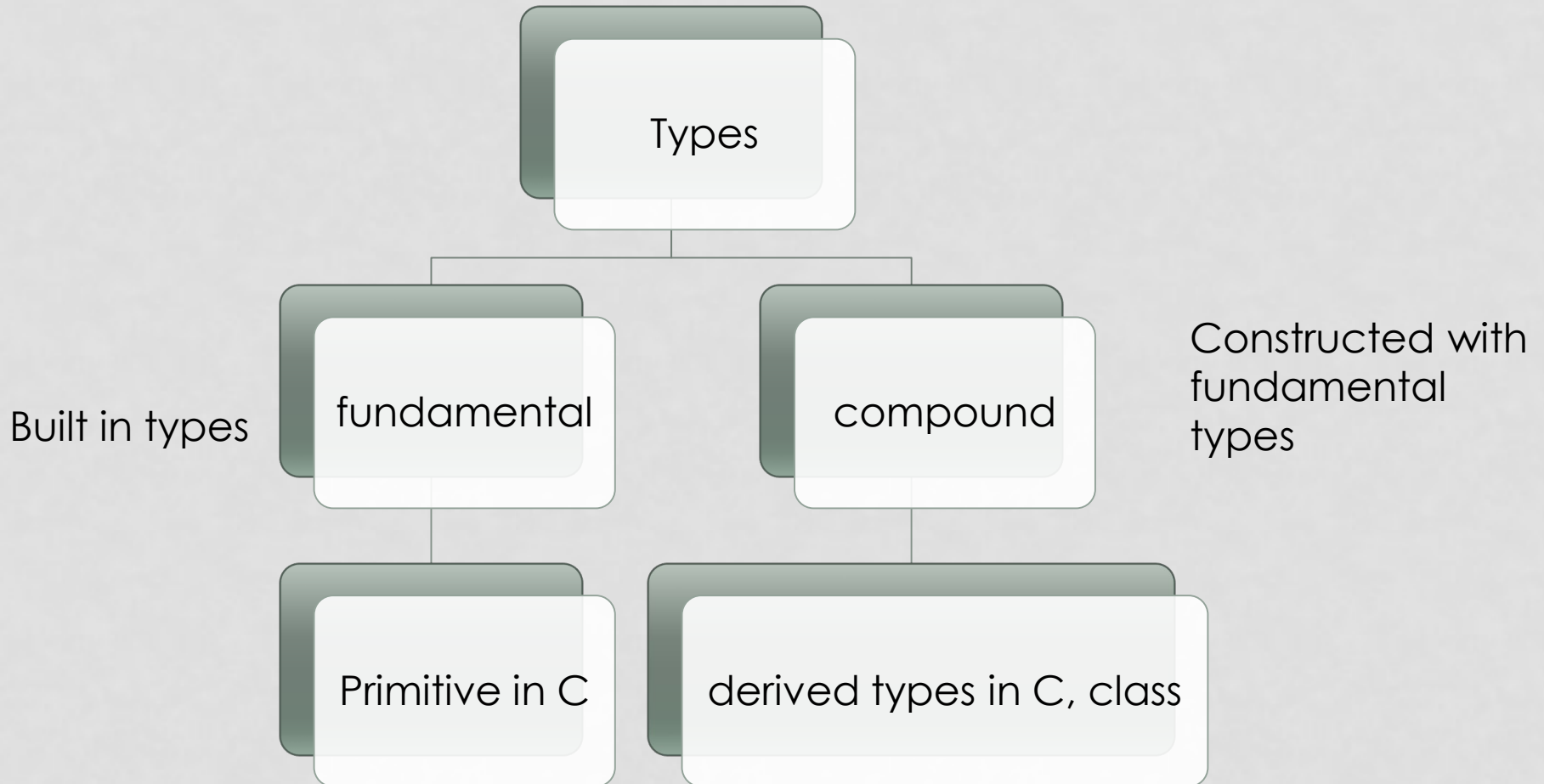
FOUNDATION



# TYPES



# C++ TYPES



# FUNDAMENTAL

- bool – not available in C
- char
- Int- short, long, long long
- float
- double – long double

# bool to int

- The bool type stores a logical value : **true** or **false**
- The **!** operator reverses value:
  - **!true** is **false** and **!false** is **true**.
- The **!** operator is self-inverting on **bool**, but **not self-inverting on other type**
- **!0 = 1**
- **!n = 0** , here n is any integer, except zero (0)
- **// produces a value of 0**

```
int x = 4;
```

```
cout << !x; // what is the output? 4 or 0 or 1
```

```
cout << !!x; // what is the output? 4 or 0 or 1
```

# COMPOUND TYPES

- A compound type is a type composed of other types
- Example

struct, class

- `// Modular Example`
- `// Transaction.h`

```
struct Transaction {  
    int acct; // account number  
    char type; // credit 'c' debit 'd'  
    double amount; // transaction amount  
};
```

# STRUCT IN “C” VS “C++”

## // Modular Example - C++

// Transaction.h

```
struct Transaction {  
    int acct;  
    char type;  
    double amount;  
};  
void enter(Transaction*);  
void display(const Transaction*);  
// ...
```

```
int main() {  
    Transaction tr;  
    // ...  
}
```

## // Modular Example - C

// Transaction.h

```
struct Transaction {  
    int acct;  
    char type;  
    double amount;  
};  
void enter(struct Transaction*);  
void display(const struct Transaction*);  
// ...
```

```
int main() {  
    struct Transaction tr;  
    // ...  
}
```

# STRUCT IN C VS C++

- In C++ struct behaves like a class with some exceptions (default access modifier is public)
- C has no class feature, so, do the struct.
- In C there is no function inside the structure while in C++ we can define function
- We can have both pointers and references to struct in C++, but only pointers to structs of C are allowed



# AUTO KEYWORD

- This keyword deduces the object's type directly from its initializer's type.
- We must provide the initializer in any **auto** declaration.

For example,

```
auto x = 4; // x is an int that is initialized to 4
```

```
auto y = 3.5; // y is a double that is initialized to 3.5
```

**auto** is quite useful: it simplifies our coding by using information that the compiler already has.

# DECLARATIONS -DEFINITIONS

- The C++ language distinguishes between declarations and definitions and stipulates the one-definition rule.
- To avoid conflicts or duplication, we need to design our header and implementation files accordingly.
  - Modular programming can result in multiple definitions

# DECLARATION

- Associating an entity (variable, object, function) with a type

```
int add(int , int )
```

- We have declared the add() function but did not specify any meaning to it.

```
struct Transaction;
```

- Forward declaration, something like function prototype (we have declared it but not defined yet)

# DEFINITION

- A definition is a declaration that associates a meaning

// definition of display

```
int add(int a, int b) {  
    int sum = 0;  
    sum = a + b ;  
    return sum;  
}
```

- In the C++ language, a definition may only appear once within its scope
  - One definition rule

# COMPARISON

- Forward declarations and function prototypes are declarations that are not definitions
- Associate an identifier with a type, but do not attach any meaning to that identifier.
- We may repeat such declarations several times within the same code block or translation unit.

# PROPER HEADER FILE INCLUSION

- `#include < ... >` - system header files
  - `#include " ... "` - other system header files
  - `#include " ... "` - your own header files
- 
- We insert namespace declarations and directives after all header file inclusions.

# SCOPE

- The *scope* of a declaration is the portion of a program over which that declaration is visible
  - global scope - visible to the entire program
  - file scope - visible to the source code within the file
  - function scope - visible to the source code within the function
  - class scope - visible to the member functions of the class
  - block scope - visible to the code block

# GOING OUT OF SCOPE

```
for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++) {  
    int j = 2 * i;  
    cout << "The value of j is " << j << endl;  
}
```

// j goes out scope just before the end of current iteration  
// j goes out of scope with each iteration  
// i out of scope after completion of the iteration



# SHADOWING

- **Variable shadowing** occurs when a variable declared within a certain scope (decision block, method, or inner class) has the same name as a variable declared in an outer scope

# SHADOWING

```
// scope.cpp
```

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

```
int main() {
    int i = 6;
    cout << i << endl;
    for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++) {
        int i = j * j;
        cout << i << endl;
    }
    cout << i << endl;
}
```

# FUNCTION OVERLOADING

- You can have multiple definitions for the same function name in the same scope.
- The definition of the function must differ from each other by the types and/or the number of arguments in the argument list. [Function Signature](#)
- You cannot overload function declarations that differ only by return type.

# OVERLOADING-EXAMPLE

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class printData {
public:
    void print(int i) {
        cout << "Printing int: " << i << endl; }
    void print(double f) {
        cout << "Printing float: " << f << endl;
    }
    void print(char* c) {
        cout << "Printing character: " << c <<
endl;
    }
};
```

```
#include <iostream>
int main(void) {
    printData pd;

    // Call print to print integer
    pd.print(5);
    // Call print to print float
    pd.print(500.263);

    // Call print to print character
    pd.print("Hello C++");

    return 0; }
When the above code is compiled
Printing int: 5
Printing float: 500.263
Printing character: Hello C++
```

# FUNCTION OVERLOADING

- Same function name (identifier) multiple meaning
- Different parameters and their orders

```
// Overloaded Functions
// overload.cpp
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

// prototypes
void display(int x);
void display(const int* x, int n);

int main() {
    auto x = 20;
    int a[] = {10, 20, 30, 40};
    display(x);
    display(a, 4);
}
```

```
}
// function definitions
//
void display(int x) {
    cout << x << endl;
}

void display(const int* x, int n) {
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
        cout << x[i] << ' ';
    cout << endl;
}
```

# DEFAULT PARAMETER VALUES

if the function logic is identical in every respect except for the values received by the parameters

```
// Default Parameter Values  
// default.cpp
```

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

```
void display(int, int = 5, int = 0);
```

```
int main() {  
  
    display(6, 7, 8);  
    display(6);  
    display(3, 4);  
}
```

```
void display(int a, int b, int c) {  
    cout << a << ", " << b << ", " << c  
<< endl;  
}
```

# PROTOTYPES

- A programming language may require a function declaration before any function call for type safety
- The declaration may be either a prototype or the function definition itself

```
// Compiler Error
```

```
int main() {  
printf("Hello C++\n");  
}
```

```
//with prototypes
```

```
#include <cstdio> // the prototype is in this header file  
using namespace std;  
int main() {  
printf("Hello C++\n");  
}
```

# REFERENCE

- Reference is an alias or an alternate name of an existing variable.
- Contains same address and values
- & has different meaning in declaration (reference variable value) and expression (address-of variable)
- It is mainly used to support pass-by-reference in function call



# REFERENCE

- `type& newName = existingName;`
- For example,

suppose we have the following example –

```
int i = 17;
```

We can declare reference variables for i as follows.

```
int& r = i;
```

# REFERENCE-EXAMPLE

```
include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main () {
// declare simple variables
    int i;
    double d;
// declare reference variables

    int& r = i;
    double& s = d;

    i = 5;
    cout << "Value of i : " << i << endl;
    cout << "Value of i reference : " << r << endl;

    d = 11.7;

    cout << "Value of d : " << d << endl;
    cout << "Value of d reference : " << s << endl;
    return 0; }
```

When the above code is compiled it produces the following result –

Value of i : 5

Value of i reference : 5

Value of d : 11.7

Value of d reference : 11.7

# HOW REFERENCING WORKS?

- Once a reference is initialized with a variable, either the variable name or the reference name may be used to refer to the variable.
- It is like pointer except
  - It is a name constant of an address
    - (once a reference is established you can not reference it to any other memory)
- Reference variables
  - Can not be null
  - Can not be changed once initialized to one object to another
  - Must be initialized
- Example: Note

# ARRAY OF POINTERS

- Arrays of pointers are data structures like arrays of values.
- Arrays of pointers contain addresses rather than values.
- We refer to the object stored at a particular address by dereferencing that address
- An array of pointers provides an efficient mechanism for processing the set

# ARRAY OF POINTERS

- Example, which makes use of an array of 3 integers

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;  
const int MAX = 3;
```

```
int main () {  
    int var[MAX] = {10, 100, 200};  
  
    for (int i = 0; i < MAX; i++) {  
  
        cout << "Value of var[" << i << "] = ";  
        cout << var[i] << endl;  
    }  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces the following result

Value of var[0] = 10  
Value of var[1] = 100  
Value of var[2] = 200

# ARRAY OF POINTERS

- There may be a situation, when we want to maintain an array, which can store pointers to an int or char or any other data type available
- array of pointers to an integer –

```
int *ptr[MAX];
```

- This declares **ptr** as an array of MAX integer pointers. Thus, each element in ptr, now holds a pointer to an int value.

# ARRAY OF POINTERS

//Array of pointers example

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
const int MAX = 3;
```

```
int main () {
```

```
    int var[MAX] = {10, 100, 200};
```

```
    int *ptr[MAX];
```

```
    for (int i = 0; i < MAX; i++) {
```

```
        ptr[i] = &var[i]; // assign the address of integer.
```

```
    }
```

```
    for (int i = 0; i < MAX; i++) {
```

```
        cout << "Value of var[" << i << "] = ";
```

```
        cout << *ptr[i] << endl;
```

```
    }
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

When the above code is compiled and executed

Value of var[0] = 10

Value of var[1] = 100

Value of var[2] = 200

# DYNAMIC MEMORY

- Memory required may depends on problem size
- Memory required may not know at compile-time



# STATIC MEMORY

- Compiler determines the amount of static memory (for each translation unit)
- Linker determines the static memory for entire application
- Fast, fixed, shared between variables and objects

# STATIC MEMORY-LIFETIME

```
// lifetime of a local variable or object
```

```
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {  
double x = 0; // lifetime of x starts here  
// ...  
} // lifetime of x ends here
```

```
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {  
double y = 4; // lifetime of y starts here  
// ...  
} // lifetime of y ends here
```

# DYNAMIC MEMORY

- During execution the application may request memory from OS
- Dynamic memory is allocated at run-time
- `new` and `delete` to `allocate` and `de-allocate` dynamic memory
- `allocated memory must be de-allocated within the scope of the pointer that holds its address`

# NEW

- The new operation returns a pointer to the memory allocated
- Dynamic allocation of arrays,  
    `pointer = new Type[size];`  
    `pointer = new Type; (single instance)`

```
int n;                // the number of students
Student* student = nullptr; // the address of the dynamic
array

cout << "How many students in this section? ";
cin >> n;

student = new Student[n]; // allocates dynamic memory
```

# DELETE

- Must deallocate the memory within the scope
- Delete [] pointer;
- delete pointer; (single instance)

```
delete [] student;  
student = nullptr; // optional
```

# A COMPLETE EXAMPLE

```
// Dynamic Memory Allocation  
// dynamic.cpp
```

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

```
struct Student {  
    int no;  
    float grade[2];  
};
```

```
int main( ) {  
    int n;  
    Student* student = nullptr;  
  
    cout << "Enter the number of students : ";  
    cin >> n;  
    student = new Student[n];  
  
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
```

```
        cout << "Student Number: ";  
        cin >> student[i].no;  
        cout << "Student Grade 1: ";  
        cin >> student[i].grade[0];  
        cout << "Student Grade 2: ";  
        cin >> student[i].grade[1];  
    }  
  
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {  
        cout << student[i].no << ": "  
            << student[i].grade[0] << ", " <<  
student[i].grade[1]  
            << endl;  
    }  
  
    delete [] student;  
    student = nullptr;  
}
```

# MEMORY ISSUES

- Memory Leaks (lose the address before de-allocate)
  - Pointer out of scope
  - Pointer memory value changes
- Insufficient memory (will throw exception and stop execution)

# QUIZ TWO

- Types, References and Overloading
- Dynamic Memory
- Member Functions and Privacy



# NEXT WORKSHOP

- Compiling modules
- Dynamic Memory

# QUESTIONS?

Thank You