

# CSE 374 Review



```
class Square : public Rectangle {  
public:  
    Square(); // default  
    // constructor, not conversion  
    explicit Square(int s);  
    // destructor  
    virtual ~Square();  
};
```

# Bank Account ex.

- **Static fields.** A bank account has an associated ID number, which is automatically generated when the account is created. So, we added a static field `accountCount_` to the `BankAccount` class. The "static" keyword means that there is only ONE variable for all objects of this class, not one per object like normal fields. We can use the `accountCount_` to generate a unique ID number in the constructor by using that count as the ID and then incrementing the count by 1.
- **Deleted constructors.** Remember C++ automatically generates a "copy constructor" for your class if you do not provide one. However, making copies of the account would be a really bad thing! So we can declare a copy constructor in the header file and set that constructor `"= delete;"`, which means we "delete" it and prevent it from being used anywhere in the code.
- **Pure virtual functions.** A "bank account" is a general concept; if you go into the bank and ask to open a bank account, they'll ask "what kind?" Each type of accounts has a slightly different implementation of withdrawal. All accounts do have the ability to withdraw, but since each type of account has a different implementation, we'll declare the `withdraw()` function but NOT provide an implementation. We do this as follows by declaring the function "virtual" and setting it equal to 0:

```
virtual void withdraw(int amount) = 0;
```

- This is called a "pure virtual" function, and it make this `BankAccount` class equivalent to Java's abstract class! Any subclass of `BankAccount` will have to implement the `withdraw()` function.

# Savings Account

- We provide a constructor that gives more information than just the BankAccount's constructor - a SavingsAccount also generates interest, so we have an interest rate associated with the account.
- The derived class can add additional functions, like getInterestRate().
- The derived class adds an implementation of the withdraw() function from the base class BankAccount. We mark this function "override" so the compiler verifies that we've done the overriding correctly.

# (Up) casting

- An **object** of a derived class *cannot* be cast to an object of a base class.
  - For the same reason a `struct T1 {int x,y,z;}` cannot be cast to type `struct T2 {int x,y;}` (different size)
- A **pointer** to an object of a derived class *can* be cast to a pointer to an object of a base class.
  - For the same reason a `struct T1*` can be cast to type `struct T2*` (pointers to a location in memory)
  - (Story not so simple with multiple inheritance)
- After such an **upcast**, field-access works fine (prefix)
  - but what do method calls mean in the presence of overriding? (see virtual)

## (Down) casting

- C pointer-casts: unchecked; be careful
- Java: checked; may raise `ClassCastException`
- New: C++ has “all the above” (several different kinds of casts)
  - If you use single-inheritance and know what you are doing, the C-style casts (same pointer, assume more about what is pointed to) should work fine for downcasts
  - Worth learning about the differences on your own

# C Datatypes

Variables in C have a type, which defines the size of the memory block and how to decode the memory

Primitive types (numerical)

Derived types (pointers / arrays)

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# C Datatypes

C11 std: `_Bool` defines booleans  
No `Bool` in old standards  
Use [`stdbool`](#), or  

```
typedef enum {false, true} bool;
```

## Primitive Datatypes:

- Integral types
  - Char (1 byte), short, int (2-4 bytes), long
  - 'Unsigned' removes negative, doubles maximum #  
[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Two%27s\\_complement](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Two%27s_complement)
- Floats, doubles, long doubles
- Type promotion - moved to a higher precision type / no dataloss. If cast to a lower precision type it is truncated.

Notice: in Bash,  
variables are untyped

Essentially every  
variable is a string

Can be cast to a  
number under some  
circumstances



# C Derived Types (made from primitive types)

Functions types (returns a type)

Pointer types (points to a type)

Array types (lists of a type)

Structure types (contains types)

Union types (holds different types)

(Pointers store an integer # (of size `uintptr_t`), the type dictates how operations on the pointer behave.

Array types point to the beginning of a list of values, they resolve to a pointer.

# Structures

Structures are containers for holding multiple variables together.

Organize data.

Facilitate passing and tracking data.

Have data type 'struct' with a 'tag' name.

```
struct fraction {  
    int numerator;  
    int denominator;  
};  
struct fraction weeks_left;  
weeks_left.numerator;  
  
struct fraction w1, w2; // declare two fractions  
w1.numerator = 2;  
w1.denominator = 7;  
w2 = w1; // copy struct  
  
struct fraction *w3;,  
(*f3).numerator = 4; OR f3->numerator = 4;  
Struct fraction *part = w3; // points to same  
address
```

# typedef

Introduces short-cut  
or alias to a data  
type.

```
typedef <type> <name>;
```

```
typedef struct fraction {  
    int numerator;  
    int denominator;  
} fraction;  
fraction x1;
```

```
typedef struct treenode {  
    int data;  
    struct treenode branches[9];  
} TreeNode;
```

```
typedef enum {false, true} bool;
```

# Dynamic memory allocation

```
void* malloc(size_t size)
```

Request a contiguous block of memory of the given size in the heap.

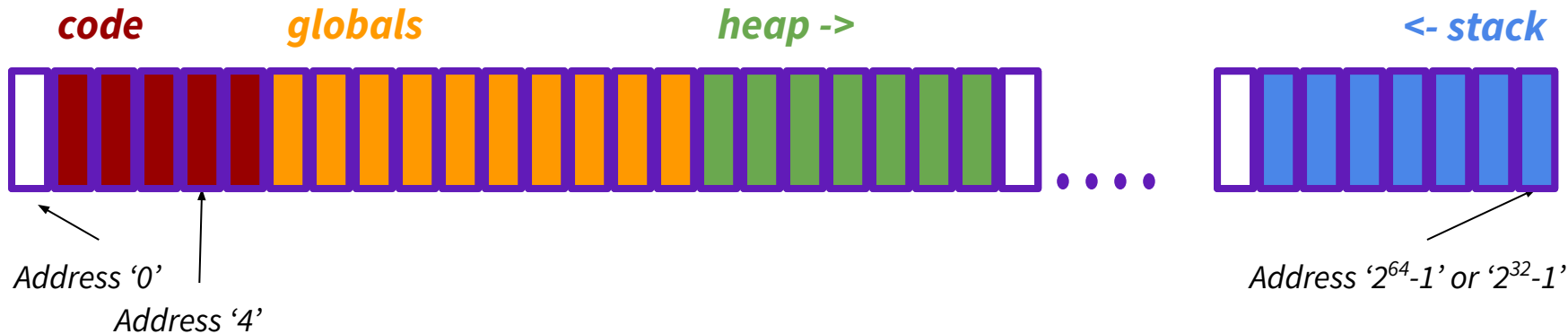
```
void free(void* block)
```

The mirror image of malloc() -- free takes a pointer to a heap block earlier allocated by malloc() and returns that block to the heap for re-use.

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# Memory sections

- Code & global memory allocated statically at start up
- Stack memory allocated as functions are called
  - Sizes must be known at compile time
- Heap memory is allocated dynamically (upon request)
  - Sizes can be determined at run time



# Using the Heap

- Do this when you don't know how much space you need in advance
  - Variable length arrays
  - Growing lists or trees
  - Making flexible structs
- Malloc
  - Requires an integer specifying the needed number of bytes (often an `uintptr_t`)
  - Returns an address (another `uintptr_t`)
  - Address can be cast to a pointer to a specific type
- Free
  - Takes an address, and returns the chunk to the available memory list

# Common problems

- Dangling pointers
  - Happens when you have an active pointer to freed memory
  - Stack memory in a popped frame
  - Freed heap memory
- Accessing a Null pointer
  - Happens when you try to use a pointer before it has been allocated
  - Or when allocation fails
- Forgetting to free memory
  - Causes a memory leak
  - Check struct de-allocation so that every dynamically allocated attribute is also freed
- Losing your pointer
  - Accidentally re-assigning your pointer to a new address
  - Use a current pointer to traverse a tree but be sure to keep a copy of the root unmodified

# Multi-file Projects

Modules & Makefiles

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# C Modules

- Module: smallest coherent unit of a C program
  - One \*.c file and \*.h file
  - Set of self-contained / closely related functions: clear functionality
  - `gcc -o foo-executable foo.c`
- Project: can be made of many modules
  - `gcc -o fooproject-executable foo.c bar.c`
  - Can also compile individual object files for each module, then link together
- Modules are connected to each other with header (.h) files

# Header Files

- Each Module has a .c file and a corresponding .h file
- Header files should always use include guards:
  - `#ifndef MODULE_H #define MODULE_H` and end with: `#endif`
- All declarations needed to use the module are in the header file
- Header file has only declarations and is included in the .c file
- Project-wide variables are declared with `extern` in header and defined in .c
- Internal declarations go in the .c file, not the header file
  - Declared with `static`
- Header file should include all other files needed by that header file
- Headers needed only for the .c file to compile go in the .c file
- Header files should compile on their own

Citation:<http://www.umich.edu/~eecs381/handouts/CHeaderFileGuidelines.pdf?#:~:text=The%20header%20file%20contains%20only%20declarations%2C%20and%20is%20included%20by%20the%20.&text=Put%20only%20structure%20type%20declarations,c%20file.>

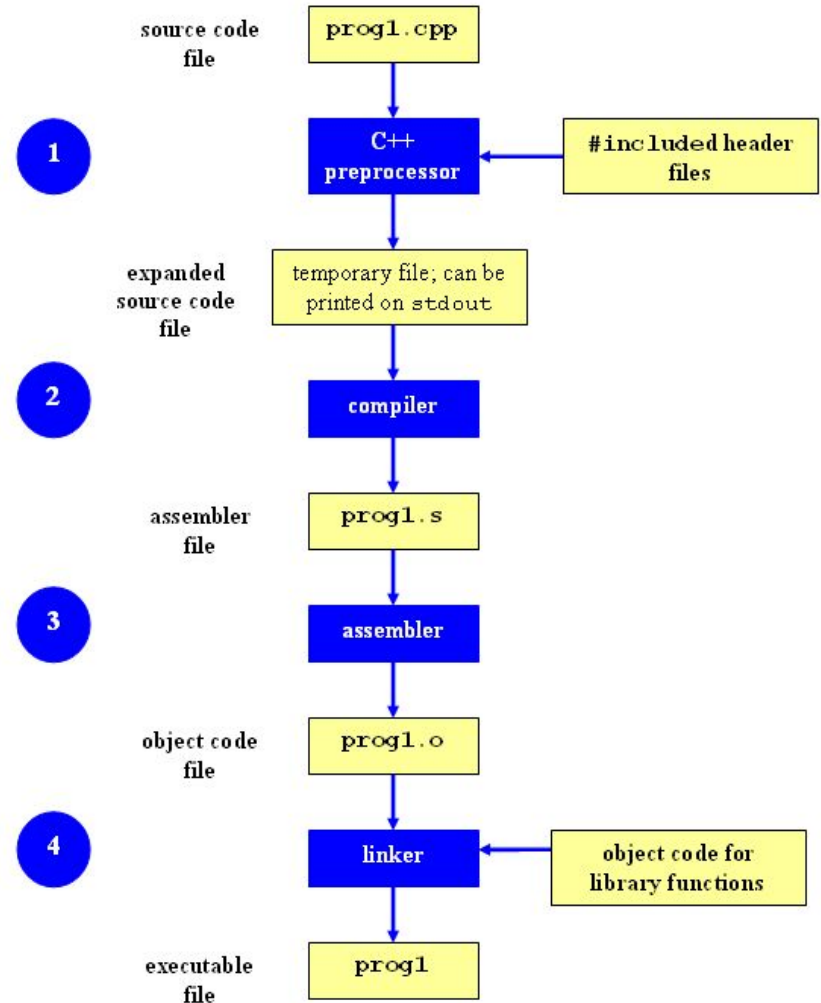
# Making Projects

Compiler actually runs in stages:

- a. Preprocessor
- b. Compiler
- c. Assembler
- d. Linker

There are other tools to manage this:

- IDEs
- Projects
- Ant



# Makefiles

- Figure out dependencies using gcc -MM
- Create targets for each module's object file
  - Using gcc -c
- Create target for project executable
  - Depends on all those object files
- Can also create different targets
  - Different builds
  - Project variations
  - Testing
  - Phony targets (clean)

```
# Makefile for mem memory system

CC = gcc
CARGS = -Wall -std=c11

all: bench

# basic build
bench: bench.o getmem.o freemem.o
      getmemstats.o printheap.o
      memutils.o
      $(CC) $(CARGS) -o bench $^

# object files
bench.o: bench.c mem.h
      $(CC) $(CARGS) -c bench.c

<... for all the object files ...>

debug: CARGS += -g
debug: bench

## Utility targets
test: debug
      ./bench 10 50

clean:
      rm *.o *~
```

# Miscellaneous Notes

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# shebang

`#!` - called 'shebang'

Use it in the **first line** of a script to indicate which program should be used to run

```
#!/bin/bash
```

Note: for our scripts 'bash' is the default program to run, so if this is missing they will still be executed by bash. However, specifying `/bin/bash` will ensure that bash is always used, even if the script is called from a different shell.

Clint.py has `#!/usr/bin/python` in the first line

Specifies that python is the program that is used to run the script

Change to `#!/usr/bin/python2` if you are having trouble using clint on a computer running python3.