

# EDAF30 – Programming in C++

## 3. *Classes*

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# Outline

- 1 Constants
  - const for objects and members
- 2 Classes
  - Constructors
  - the pointer `this`
  - Operator overloading
  - friend
  - Const overloading

# Data types

## Two kinds of constants

- ▶ A variable declared `const` must not be changed (`final` in Java)
  - ▶ Roughly: "I promise not to change this variable."
  - ▶ Is checked by the compiler
  - ▶ Use when specifying function interfaces
    - ▶ A function that does not change its (reference) argument
    - ▶ A member function ("method") that does not change the state of the object.
  - ▶ Important for function overloading
    - ▶ T and `const T` are different types
    - ▶ One can overload `int f(T&)` and `int f(const T&)` (for some type T)
- ▶ A variable declared `constexpr` must have a value that can be computed at compile time.
  - ▶ Use to specify constants
  - ▶ Functions can be `constexpr`
  - ▶ Introduced in C++-11

# Constant objects

- ▶ **const** means “I promise not to change this”
- ▶ Objects (variables) can be declared **const**
  - ▶ “I promise not to change the variable”
- ▶ References can be declared **const**
  - ▶ “I promise not to change the referenced object”
  - ▶ a **const&** can refer to a non-**const** object
  - ▶ common for function parameters
- ▶ Member functions can be declared **const**
  - ▶ “I promise that the function does not change the state of the object”
  - ▶ *technically: implicit declaration* **const T\* const this;**

# Constant objects

## Example

### const references and const functions

```
class Point{
public:
    Point(int xi, int yi) :x{xi},y{yi}{}
    int get_x() const {return x;}
    int get_y() const {return y;}
    void set_x(int xi) {x = xi;}
    void set_y(int yi) {y = yi;}
private:
    int x;
    int y;
};

void example(Point& p, const Point& o) {
    p.set_y(10);
    cout << "p: " << p.get_x() << ", " << p.get_y() << endl;

    o.set_y(10);
    cout << "o: " << o.get_x() << ", " << o.get_y() << endl;
}

passing 'const Point' as 'this' argument discards qualifiers
```

# User-defined types

## Concrete classes

### A concrete type

- ▶ “behaves just like a built-in type”
- ▶ its representation is part of its definition,  
That allows us to
  - ▶ place objects
    - ▶ on the stack (i.e., in local variables)
    - ▶ in other objects
    - ▶ in statically allocated memory (e.g., global variables)
  - ▶ copy objects
    - ▶ assignment of a variable
    - ▶ copy-constructing an object
    - ▶ value parameter of a function
  - ▶ refer to objects directly (not just using pointers or references)
  - ▶ initialize objects directly and completely (with a *constructor*)

## Default constructor

- ▶ A constructor that can be called without arguments
  - ▶ May have parameters that all have default values
- ▶ Automatically defined if *no constructor is defined* (in declaration: `=default`, cannot be called if `=delete`)
- ▶ If not defined, the type is *not default constructible*

## Default constructor with member initializer list.

```
class Bar {  
public:  
    Bar(int v=100, bool b=false) :value{v},flag{b} {}  
private:  
    int value;  
    bool flag;  
};
```

# Constructors

## Default constructor

### Default arguments

- ▶ If a constructor can be called without arguments, it is a default constructor.

```
class Komplextal {  
public:  
    Komplextal(float x=1):re(x),im(0) {}  
    //...  
};
```

gives the same default constructor as the explicit

```
Komplextal():re{1},im{0} {}
```



# Constructors

## Two ways of initializing members

### With member initializer list in constructor

```
class Bar {  
public:  
    Bar(int v, bool b) : value{v}, flag{b} {}  
private:  
    int value;  
    bool flag;  
};
```

### Members can have a *default initializer*, in C++11:

```
class Foo {  
public:  
    Foo() =default;  
private:  
    int value {0};  
    bool flag {false};  
};
```

- ▶ prefer default initializer to overloaded constructors or default arguments

# Constructors

## Initialization and assignment

It is (often) *possible* to write like in Java, but

- ▶ it is less efficient
- ▶ the members must be *assignable*

### Java-style: assignment in constructor

```
class Foo {  
public:  
    Foo(const Bar& v) {  
        value = v;  NB! assignment, not initialization  
    }  
private:  
    Bar value; is default constructed before the body of the constructor  
};
```

*An object is initialized before the body of the constructor is run*

# Constructors

## Member initialization rules

```
class Bar {  
public:  
    Bar() =default;  
    Bar(int v, bool b) :value{v},flag{b} {}  
private:  
    int value {0};  
    bool flag {true};  
};
```

- ▶ If a member has both *default initializer* and a member initializer in the constructor, the constructor is used.
- ▶ Members are initialized *in declaration order*. (Compiler warning if member initializers are in different order.)
- ▶ `Bar() =default;` is necessary to make the compiler generate a default constructor (as another constructor is defined)

# Constructors

## Prefer default member initializers

*Use default member initializers* if class member variables have default values.

### Default argument values and overloaded ctors: risk of inconsistency

```
class Simple {
public:
    Simple()                : a(1), b(2), c(3) {}
    Simple(int aa)         : a(aa), b(0), c(0) {}
    Simple(int aa, int bb, int cc=-1) : a(aa), b(bb), c(cc) {}
private:
    int a;
    int b;
    int c;
};
```

# Constructors

## Prefer default member initializers

*Use default member initializers* if class member variables have default values.

### With default initializers: consistent

```
class Simple {
public:
    Simple() =default;
    Simple(int aa)           :a(aa) {}
    Simple(int aa, int bb)   :a(aa), b(bb) {}
    Simple(int aa, int bb, int cc) :a(aa), b(bb), c(cc) {}
private:
    int a {-1};
    int b {-1};
    int c {-1};
};
```

# Constructors

## Default constructor and parentheses

In a variable declaration, the default constructor *cannot be called with empty parentheses*.

```
Bar b1;  
Bar b2{};  
Bar be(); // Not a variable declaration! "most vexing parse"  
Bar b3(25); // OK
```

```
Bar* bp1 = new Bar;  
Bar* bp2 = new Bar{};  
Bar* bp3 = new Bar(); //OK
```

NB! The compiler error will be at the *use* of `be` e.g.,

```
be.fun();
```

request for member 'fun' in 'be', which is of non-class type 'Bar()'

# Default constructor and initialization

- ▶ *automatically generated* default constructor (=default) *does not always* initialize members
  - ▶ *global variables* are initialized to 0 (or corresponding)
  - ▶ *local variables* are not initialized (*different meaning from Java*)

```
struct A { int x; };

int i; // i is initialized to 0 (global variable)
A a;   // a.x is initialized to 0 (global variable)

int main() {
    int j;           // j is uninitialized
    int k = int();  // k is initialized to 0
    int l{};        // l is initialized to 0

    A b;           // b.x is uninitialized
    A c = A();     // c.x is initialized to 0
    A d{};        // d.x is initialized to 0
}
```

# Default constructor and initialization

## Advice

- ▶ The *automatically generated* default constructor (`=default`) *does not always* initialize members
  
- ▶ To be on the safe side:
  - ▶ *always initialize variables*
  - ▶ *always implement default constructor (or `=delete`)*  
(incl. giving all members default initializers and use `=default`)



# Constructors

## Delegating constructors (C++11)

In C++11 a constructor can call another (like `this(...)` in Java).

```
struct Test{
    int val;

    Test(int v) :val{v} {}

    Test(int v, int scale) :Test(v*scale) {};    // delegation

    Test(int a, int b, int c) :Test(a+b+c) {};    // delegation
};
```

A delegating constructor call shall be *the only member-initializer*.  
( A constructor initializes an object *completely*.)

# Declarations

## Scope

A declaration introduces a *name* in a *scope*

**Local scope:** A name declared in a function is visible

- ▶ From the declaration
- ▶ To the end of the block (delimited by { })
- ▶ Parameters to functions are local names

**Class scope:** A name is called a *member* if it is declared *in a class*\*. It is visible in the entire class.

**Namespace scope:** A named is called a *namespace member* if it is defined *in a namespace*\*. E.g, `std::cout`.

A name declared outside of the above is called a *global name* and is in *the global namespace*.

\* outside a function, class or *enum class*.

# Declarations

## lifetimes

- ▶ The lifetime of an object is determined by its *scope*:
- ▶ An object
  - ▶ must be initialized (constructed) before it can be used
  - ▶ is destroyed *at the end of its scope*.
- ▶ a *local variable* only exists until the function returns
- ▶ *namespace objects* are destroyed when the program terminates
- ▶ an *object allocated with new* lives until destroyed with **delete**. (different from Java)
  - ▶ Manual memory management
  - ▶ **new** is not used as in Java
  - ▶ Avoid **new** except in special cases
  - ▶ more on this later

- ▶ *RAII Resource Acquisition Is Initialization*
- ▶ An object is initialized by a *constructor*
  - ▶ Allocates the needed resources
- ▶ When an object is destroyed, its *destructor* is executed
  - ▶ Free resources owned by the object

```
class Vector{  
    public:  
    Vector(int s) :elem{new double[s]}, sz{s} {} // constructor  
    ~Vector() {delete[] elem;} // destructor, delete the array  
    ...  
};
```

### Manual memory management

- ▶ Objects allocated with **new** must be freed with **delete**
- ▶ Objects allocated with **new[]** must be freed with **delete[]**
- ▶ otherwise, the program has a *memory leak*
- ▶ (much) more on this later

# The pointer `this`

## Self reference

In a member function, there is an implicit *pointer* `this`, pointing to the object the function was called on. (cf. `this` in Java).

- ▶ typical use: `return *this` for operations returning a reference to the object itself

# Operator overloading

*A user-defined type can behave like a built-in type*

- ▶ Operators can be overloaded
  - ▶ as member functions (sometimes)
  - ▶ as free functions

Syntax: `return_type operator⊗ (parameters...)`  
for an operator ⊗ e.g. `==` or `+`

E.g, `bool operator==(const Foo&, const Foo&);`

# Operator overloading

Most operators can be overloaded, except

`sizeof` `.` `.*` `::` `?:`

E.g., these operators can be overloaded

```
=  
+ - * / %  
^ & | ~  
<< >>  
&& || !  
!= == < >  
++ -- += *= .....  
( ) []  
-> ->*  
&  
new delete new[] delete[]
```

# Operator overloading

For classes, two possibilities:

- ▶ as a member function
  - ▶ for binary operators, if the order of operands is suitable
    - ▶ a binary operator takes *one argument*
    - ▶ **\*this** is the left operand,
    - ▶ the function argument is the right operand
- ▶ as a *free* function
  - ▶ if the public interface is enough, *or*
  - ▶ if the function is declared **friend**



Functions or classes with **access to all members in a class** without being members themselves

### Friend declaration in the class ComplexNumber

```
class ComplexNumber{
    //...
private:
    int re;
    int im;
    friend ostream& operator<<(ostream&, const ComplexNumber&);
};
```

### Definition of the free function operator<<

```
ostream& operator<<(ostream& o, const ComplexNumber& c) {
    return o << c.re << "+" << c.im << "i";
}
```

The free function `operator<<(ostream&, const ComplexNumber&)` can access private members in `ComplexNumber`.

Functions or classes with *full access to all members* in a class without being members themselves

- ▶ Free functions,
- ▶ member functions of other classes, or
- ▶ entire classes can be friends.
- ▶ cf. package visibility in Java
- ▶ A friend declaration is not part of the class interface, and can be placed *anywhere in the class definition*.

# Operator overloading as member function and as free function

## Example: declaration as member functions

```
class Komplex {  
public:  
    Komplex(double r, double i) : re(r), im(i) {}  
    Komplex operator+(const Komplex& rhs) const;  
    Komplex operator*(const Komplex& rhs) const;  
    // ...  
private:  
    double re, im;  
};
```

## Example: declaration of operator+ as friend

Declaration inside the class definition of Komplex:

```
friend Komplex operator+(const Komplex& l, const Komplex& r);
```

*Note the number of parameters*

# Operator overloading

Defining `operator+` in two ways:

- ▶ As member function (one parameter)

```
Komplex Komplex::operator+(const Komplex& rhs) const {  
    return Komplex(re + rhs.re, im + rhs.im);  
}
```

- ▶ As a free function (two parameters)

```
Komplex operator+(const Komplex& lhs, const Komplex& rhs) {  
    return Komplex(lhs.re + rhs.re, lhs.im + rhs.im);  
}
```

*NB! the `friend` declaration is only in the class definition*

# Operator overloading

Defining `operator+` in two ways:

- ▶ As member function

```
Komplex Komplex::operator+(const Komplex& rhs) const {  
    return Komplex(re + rhs.re, im + rhs.im);  
}
```

the right operand  
cannot be changed

the left operand  
cannot be changed

- ▶ As a free function

```
Komplex operator+(const Komplex& lhs, const Komplex& rhs){  
    return Komplex(lhs.re + rhs.re, lhs.im + rhs.im);  
}
```

*NB! the friend declaration is only in the class definition*

# Operator overloading

Another implementation of +, using +=

## Class definition

```
class Komplex {  
public:  
    Komplex& operator+=(const Komplex& z) {  
        re += z.re;  
        im += z.im;  
        return *this;  
    }  
    // ...  
};
```

## Free function, does not need to be friend

```
Komplex operator+(Komplex a, const Komplex& b) {  
    return a+=b;  
}
```

NB! *call by value*: we want to return *a copy*.

# Conversion and increment operators

## Exempel: Counter

### Conversion to int

```
struct Counter{
    Counter(int c=0) :cnt{c} {};
    operator int() const {return cnt;}
    Counter& operator++() {++cnt; return *this;}
    Counter operator++(int) {Counter res(cnt++); return res;}
private:
    int cnt;
};
```

Note: **operator** T().

- ▶ no return type in declaration (must obviously be T)
- ▶ can be declared **explicit**
  
- ▶ two overloads for **operator++**. Dummy int parameter for postincrement.

# Constant objects

## Example

Note **const** in the declaration (and definition!) of the member function **operator[](int) const**: (*“const is part of the name”*)

```
class Vector {
public:
    //...
    double operator[](int i) const;    // function declaration
    //...
private:
    double* elem;
    //...
};

double Vector::operator[](int i) const    // function definition
{
    return elem[i];
}
```



# Constant objects

## Example: `const` overloading

The functions `operator[](int)` and `operator[](int) const` *are different functions*.

### Example

```
class Vector {  
    double& operator[](int i)      {return elem[i];}  
    double  operator[](int i) const {return elem[i];}  
private:  
    double* elem;  
    //...  
};
```

- ▶ If `operator[]` is called on a
  - ▶ non-`const` object, a *reference* is returned
  - ▶ `const` object, a *copy* is returned
- ▶ The assignment `v[2] = 10;` only works on a non-`const` `v`.

# Suggested reading

References to sections in Lippman

Variable initialization 2.2.1

Classes 2.6, 7.1.4, 7.1.5

Constructors 7.5–7.5.4

(Aggregate classes) ("C structs" without constructors) 7.5.5

Operator overloading 14.1 – 14.3, 14.5 – 14.6

const, constexpr 2.4

this and const p 257–258

inline 6.5.2, p 273

friend 7.2.1

static members 7.6

## Next lecture

References to sections in Lippman

Iterators 3.4

Sequential containers 9.1 – 9.3

Algorithms 10.1

Associative containers chapter 11

Pairs 11.2.3

Tuples 17.1