Programming in C and C++

5. C++ — Overloading — Namespaces — Classes

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C++

To quote Bjarne Stroustrup:

"C++ is a general-purpose programming language with a bias towards systems programming that:

- ▶ is a better C
- supports data abstraction
- supports object-oriented programming
- supports generic programming."

Alternatively: C++ is "an (almost upwards-compatible) extension of C with support for: classes and objects (including multiple inheritance), operator overloading, exceptions and templates". [templates are a generalised form of generics] Much is familiar from Java, but with many subtle differences.

C++ fundamental types

- ► C++ has all the fundamental types C has
 - character literals (e.g. 'a') are now of type char
- ▶ In addition, C++ defines a new fundamental type, bool
- A bool has two values: true and false
- When cast to an integer, true→1 and false→0
- When casting from an integer, non-zero values become true and false otherwise
- ▶ This is also available in C (since C99) via the <stdbool.h> header

C++ enumeration

- ▶ Unlike C, C++ enumerations define a new type; for example enum flag {is_keyword=1, is_static=2, is_extern=4, ...}
- ► When defining storage for an instance of an enumeration, you use its name; for example: flag f = is_keyword
- ▶ Implicit type conversion is not allowed:

```
f = 5; //wrong f = flag(5); //right
```

- ► The maximum valid value of an enumeration is the enumeration's largest value rounded up to the nearest larger binary power minus one
- ► The minimum valid value of an enumeration with no negative values is zero
- ► The minimum valid value of an enumeration with negative values is the nearest least negative binary power

References

- ► C++ supports <u>references</u>, which provide an alternative name for a variable
- Generally used for specifying parameters to functions and return values as well as overloaded operators (more later)
- ▶ A reference is declared with the & operator; for example:

```
int i[] = {1,2}; int &refi = i[0];
```

- A reference must be initialised when it is defined
- A connection between a reference and what it refers to cannot be changed after initialisation; for example:

```
refi++; //increments value referenced
```

References in function arguments

When used as a function parameter, a referenced value is not copied; for example:

```
void inc(int& i) { i++;} //bad style?
```

- ▶ Declare a reference as const when no modification takes place
- ▶ It can be noticeably more efficient to pass a large struct by reference
- ► Implicit type conversion into a temporary takes place for a const reference but results in an error otherwise; for example:

```
1 float fun1(float&);
2 float fun2(const float&);
3 void test() {
4   double v=3.141592654;
5   fun1(v); //Wrong
6   fun2(v);
7 }
```

Cf. Fortran call-by-reference

Overloaded functions

- Functions doing different things should have different names
- ▶ It is possible (and sometimes sensible!) to define two functions with the same name
- Functions sharing a name must differ in argument types
- Type conversion is used to find the "best" match
- A best match may not always be possible:

```
void f(double);
void f(long);
void test() {
  f(1L); //f(long)
  f(1.0); //f(double)
  f(1); //Wrong: f(long(1)) or f(double(1)) ?
```

Scoping and overloading

► Functions in different scopes are not overloaded; for example:

```
void f(int);

void example() {
void f(double);
f(1); //calls f(double);
}
```

Default function arguments

- ▶ A function can have default arguments; for example: double log(double v, double base=10.0);
- ► A non-default argument cannot come after a default; for example: double log(double base=10.0, double v); //wrong
- ► A declaration does not need to name the variable; for example: double log(double v, double=10.0);
- ▶ Be careful of the lexical interaction between * and =; for example: void f(char*=0); //Wrong '*=' is assignment

Namespaces

Related data can be grouped together in a namespace:

```
namespace Stack { //header file
void push(char);
char pop();
}
```

```
namespace Stack { //implementation
const int max_size = 100;
char s[max_size];
int top = 0;

void push(char c) { ... }
char pop() { ... }
}
```

```
void f() { //usage
...
Stack::push('c');
...
}
```

Using namespaces

- ▶ A namespace is a scope and expresses logical program structure
- ▶ It provides a way of collecting together related pieces of code
- ► A namespace without a name limits the scope of variables, functions and classes within it to the local execution unit
- ▶ The same namespace can be declared in several source files
- ▶ The global function main() cannot be inside a namespace
- ► The use of a variable or function name from a different namespace must be qualified with the appropriate namespace(s)
 - ► The keyword using allows this qualification to be stated once, thereby shortening names
 - Can also be used to generate a hybrid namespace
 - ▶ typedef can be used: typedef Some::Thing thing;
- A namespace can be defined more than once
 - Allows, for example, internal and external library definitions

Example

```
1 namespace Module1 {int x;}
3 namespace Module2 {
    inline int sqr(const int& i) {return i*i;}
    inline int halve(const int& i) {return i/2;}
6 }
7
8 using namespace Module1; //"import" everything
9
10 int main() {
using Module2::halve; //"import" the halve function
x = halve(x);
sqr(x);
                           //Wrong
14 }
```

Linking C and C++ code

► The directive extern "C" specifies that the following declaration or definition should be linked as C, not C++ code:

```
extern "C" int f();
```

▶ Multiple declarations and definitions can be grouped in curly brackets:

```
1 extern "C" {
2   int globalvar; //definition
3   int f();
4   void g(int);
5 }
```

▶ Why do we need this? E.g. 'Name mangling' for overloaded functions.

Linking C and C++ code

► Care must be taken with pointers to functions and linkage:

User-defined types

- ▶ C++ provides a means of defining classes and instantiating objects
- Classes contain both data storage and functions which operate on storage
- Classes have access control: private, protected and public
- Classes are created with class or struct keywords
 - struct members default to public access; class to private
- ► The constructor syntax is a member function with the same name as the class
- ► The <u>destructor</u> syntax is a member function with the same name as the class, prefixed with a tilde (~)
- A constructor can be overloaded to provide multiple instantiation methods
- Can create static (i.e. per class) member variables

Example

```
1 class Complex {
    double re, im;
  public:
    Complex(double r=0.0L, double i=0.0L);
5 };
6
7 Complex::Complex(double r,double i) {
    re=r,im=i; // deprecated initialisation-by-assignment
9 }
10
11 int main() {
    Complex c(2.0), d(), e(1,5.0L);
12
    return 0;
13
14 }
```

Constructors and destructors

- ▶ A default constructor is a function with no arguments (or only default arguments)
- ▶ If no constructor is specified, the compiler will generate one
- ▶ The programmer can specify one or more constructors
- Only one constructor is called when an object is created
- There can only be one destructor
 - This is called when a stack-allocated object goes out of scope or when a heap-allocated object is deallocated with delete; this also occurs for stack-allocated objects deallocated during exception handling (more later).
 - Stack-allocated objects with destructors are a useful way to release resources on scope exit (similar effect as Java try-finally) – "RAII: Resource Allocation is Initialisation".

Copy constructor

▶ A new class instance can defined by assignment; for example;

```
Complex c(1,2);
Complex d = c;
```

- ▶ In this case, the new class instance is initialised with copies of all the existing class' non-static member variables; no constructor is called
- ► This behaviour may not always be desirable (e.g. consider a class with a pointer as a member variable)
 - ▶ In which case, define an alternative <u>copy constructor</u>: Complex::Complex(const Complex&) { ... }
- ▶ If a copy constructor is not wanted, make the copy constructor a private member function, or in C++11 use delete.

Assignment operator

By default an object is copied on assignment by overwriting all non-static member variables; for example:

```
1 Complex c(), d(1.0,2.3);
2 c = d; //assignment
```

- ▶ This behaviour may also not be desirable
- The assignment operator (operator=) can be defined explicitly:

```
1 Complex& Complex::operator=(const Complex& c) {
2   ...
3 }
```

Constant member functions

- ▶ Member functions can be declared const
- Prevents object members being modified by the function:

```
1 double Complex::real() const {
2   return re;
3 }
```

▶ Logically gives const Complex *this instead of Complex *this

Arrays and the free store

- An array of class objects can be defined if a class has a default constructor
- ▶ C++ has a new operator to place items on the heap:

```
Complex* c = new Complex(3.4);
```

▶ Items on the heap exist until they are explicitly deleted: delete c:

▶ Since C++ (like C) doesn't distinguish between a pointer to a single object and a pointer to an the first element of an array of objects, array deletion needs different syntax:

```
1 Complex* c = new Complex[5];
2 ...
3 delete[] c; //Cannot use "delete" here
```

- ▶ When an object is deleted, the object destructor is invoked. When an array is deleted, the object destructor is invoked on each element
- ► The C++ standard library provides std::vector or std::array, so raw arrays are rarely used

Exercises

1. Write an implementation of a class LinkList which stores zero or more positive integers internally as a linked list on the heap. The class should provide appropriate constructors and destructors and a method pop() to remove items from the head of the list. The method pop() should return -1 if there are no remaining items. Your implementation should override the copy constructor and assignment operator to copy the linked-list structure between class instances. You might like to test your implementation with the following:

```
1 int main() {
2   int test[] = {1,2,3,4,5};
3   LinkList l1(test+1,4), l2(test,5);
4   LinkList l3=12, l4;
5   14=11;
6   printf("%d %d %d\n",l1.pop(),l3.pop(),l4.pop());
7   return 0;
8 }
```

Hint: heap allocation & deallocation should occur exactly once!