# $\label{eq:CandC++} \mbox{C and C++}$ 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."

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## 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

## 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:

- ► 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

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### 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:

```
1 void f(int);
2
3 void example() {
4  void f(double);
5  f(1); //calls f(double);
6 }
```

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## 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');
...
}
```

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### 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

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# Example

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

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# 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 munging' for overloaded functions.

Linking C and C++ code

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

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### 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
- ► A member function with the same name as a class is called a constructor
- ► A member function with the same name as the class, prefixed with a tilde (~), is called a <u>destructor</u>
- A constructor can be overloaded to provide multiple instantiation
- ► Can create static (i.e. per class) member variables

Example

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#### 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)

### 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 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.

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### Assignment operator

 By default a class is copied on assignment by over-writing 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 \dots 3 }
```

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#### 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 }
```

 $\blacktriangleright$  Logically gives const Complex \*this instead of Complex \*this

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# 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

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:

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

 $\underline{\mathsf{Hint:}}\ \ \mathsf{heap}\ \ \mathsf{allocation}\ \ \&\ \ \mathsf{deallocation}\ \ \mathsf{should}\ \ \mathsf{occur}\ \ \mathsf{exactly}\ \ \mathsf{once!}$ 

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