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Programming-2 CS213 2018/2019

Classes

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1 Access specifiers

Access specifiers can be applied to data members and function members of a class. There are three different access specifiers: public, private, and protected. public members can be accessed from anywhere. private members can be accessed only from member functions of the same class, friend functions, and member functions of friend classes. protected members can be accessed from derived class members (which will be explained in the inheritance lecture) and from whatever can access private members.

The default access specifier for a class is private, while the default one for a struct is public. This is actually the only difference between class and struct in C++. Access specifiers apply to all members listed after them, until a new access specifier appears.

```
class A
 2
    {
 3
                   // private by default
       int r;
       void F() {this->r=1; this->b=2; this->G();} \checkmark
 4
                                                                       // private
 5
   private:
6
       void G() {r=1; d=2; c=3;}  
✓ // private
 7
       // same as: void G() { this ->r=1; this ->d=2; this ->c=3;} because there
 8
                      are no local variables or parameters with the same names
9
       int b;
                  // private
10
   public:
11
       int c;
                 // public
12
       void H() {r=5; b=6; c=7; G();} \checkmark // public
13
       // same as: void H() { this ->r=5; this ->b=6; this ->c=7; this ->G(); }
   private:
14
15
       int d;
                  // private
16
17
   friend int foo (A*); // foo() is friend of A, and not member in A
18
   friend class C; // class C is friend of A
19
   };
```

public members of class A can be accessed from anywhere. Member functions of class A can access its private members. The global function int foo (A*); can access private members of class A because it is declared as friend in class A. For the same reason, all member functions of class C can access private members of class A.

The following code illustrates the previous discussion:

```
void fun(A a)
 1
2
   {
3
      A t;
4
       a.F(); a.d=7; *
5
       a.H(); a.c=9; <
       t.F(); t.d=7; *
6
7
       t.H(); t.c=9; <
8
   }
9
10
   int foo(A* a)
11
   {
12
      A t;
13
      a - > F(); a - > d = 7; \checkmark
       a -> H(); a -> c = 9; \checkmark
14
15
      t.F(); t.d=7; <
16
       t.H(); t.c=9; <
17
       return 0;
18
   }
19
20
   class B
21
   {
22
      A t;
23
      void P(A a) {a.H(); t.c=9;} ✓
24
      void Q(A& a) {t.H(); a.c=2;} ✔
      void W(A* a) {a->H(); t.c=5;} 
25
26
       void E(A a) {t.G(); a.b=3;} *
27
   };
28
29
   class C
30
   {
31
      A t;
32
      void W(A* a) {a->H(); t.c=5;} 
33
      void P(A a) {t.G(); a.b=3;} ✔
34
   };
35
36
   int main()
37
38
      A* a=new A;
39
       a - > F(); a - > r = 7;
       a -> H(); a -> c = 9; \checkmark
40
41
       delete a;
42
       return 0;
43
```

2 Static members

A class may contain static data members. In contrast to ordinary data member, a static data member is allocated once before creating any object, and shared between all objects of this class. A static data member is the same as a global variable, except that it is accessed only through the class name, or through any object of the class. Similarly to global variables, static data members must be defined outside class, possibly initialized.

A class may contain static function members. In contrast to ordinary function member, a static function member is not related to a specific object of this class. Hence the keyword this can not be used inside such functions, and static member functions can not access non-static data members or non-static function members. A static function member is the same as a global function, except that it is accessed only through the class name, or through any object of the class.

```
1
   class S
 2
   {
 3
   private:
4
       int a;
5
       static int b;
6
7
      void F() {a=b+x+y+G();}
8
       static int G() {return b+y;}
9
       static int U() {return H()+x;}
10
11
   public:
12
       int x;
13
       static int y;
14
15
      void H() {a=b+x+y+G();}
16
       static int P() {return G()+b+y;}
17
       static int V() {return H()+x;}
18
   };
                   // Static data members must be defined outside class
19
   int S::b=4;
                     // Initialized to zero by default (as global variables)
20
   int S::y;
21
22
   int main()
23
   {
24
       S::b=5;
                                       S::y=7;
                 S::G(); *
                                                 S::P();
25
       S s, t;
26
       cout << S:: y << s. y << t. y << endl; // Prints: 777
27
       s.b=8; s.G();
                                       s.P(); <
28
       s.x=5; s.y=5; t.x=9; t.y=9;
       cout<<s.x<<s.y<<" "<<t.x<<t.y<<endl; // Prints: 59 99
29
30
       return 0;
31
   }
```

3 Constructors and destructors

A constructor of a class is a member function which is called whenever an object is created. A constructor is distinguished from other functions by having the same name of the class, and not having a return data type (not even void). A constructor may be overloaded, just as any other function. If the programmer does not define any constructor, the compiler provides a default empty constructor which does not take any parameters and has empty body. If the programmer defines at least one constructor, the compiler does not provide the default empty constructor.

When an object is created (as stack or heap object), its data members are constructed first, then the body of its constructor is called. It is possible to construct data members using non-zero argument constructors as will be shown in the following examples. A copy constructor is a one-argument constructor whose parameter is a reference to the same class (the parameter is possibly modified by const.). A copy constructor is invoked whenever an object is passed or returned by value. If the programmer does not define a default copy constructor, the compiler provides a default copy constructor which calls the copy constructors of the data members.

All basic data types except references (such as int and int*) have two constructors: empty constructor and copy constructor. A reference data type (such as int&) has only a one-argument constructor whose parameter is the type being referenced (such as int).

A destructor of a class is a member function which is called whenever an object is destroyed (by going out-of-scope for stack objects, and calling delete for heap objects). A destructor is distinguished from other functions by having the same name of the class preceded by a tilde, and not having a return data type (not even void). A destructor does not take any parameters and can not be overloaded. If and only if the programmer does not define any destructor, the compiler provides a default destructor which has empty body. When an object is destroyed, the body of the destructor is called, then the destructors of its data members are called.

The following example illustrates the usage of constructors and destructors:

```
class A
1
2
   {
3
   public:
4
      int v;
5
      A() {v=0; cout<<"A empty constructor"<<endl;}
      A(int x) {v=x; cout<<"A constructor (int) "<<endl;}
6
      A(A& a) {v=a.v; cout<<"A copy constructor"<<endl;}
7
      ~A() {cout<<"A destructor"<<endl;}
8
9
   };
10
   class B
11
   {
   public:
12
13
      A a;
14
      B() {cout << "B empty constructor" << endl; }
      ~B() {cout << "B destructor" << endl; }
15
16
   };
```

```
int main()
 1
2
    {
 3
        A x;
                   // Prints: A empty constructor
                           // Prints: A constructor (int)
4
        A r(4);
5
                            // Prints: A copy constructor
        Az(x);
                           // Prints: A empty constructor
6
        A \star w = new A;
        A* p=new A(); // Prints: A empty constructor
7
        p -> v = 5;
8
9
        A* q=new A (*p); // Prints: A copy constructor
        cout<<q->v<<endl; // Prints: 5</pre>
10
        delete w; // Prints: A destructor
11
12
        delete p; // Prints: A destructor
        delete q; // Prints: A destructor
13
                 // Prints: A empty constructor B empty constructor
14
        B t(s); // Prints: A copy constructor (calls the default copy constructor of B)
15
        return 0;// Prints: B destructor A destructor B destructor A destructor (for t,s)
16
17
    }
                            A destructor A destructor (for z, r, x)
```

The following example illustrates how to invoke the constructors of data members:

```
class C
 1
2
   {
3
   public:
4
       int a;
              float b;
5
6
       C(int x) : a(x), b(0) {}  // Similar to: C(int x) {a=x; b=0;}
7
       C(int x, float y) : a(x), b(y) {} // Similar to: C(int x) {a=x; b=y;}
8
   };
9
   class D
10
11
   {
12
   public:
13
      C c;
             int a;
14
15
      D(int i) : c(i), a(0) {}
16
       D(int i, float j) : c(i, j), a(0) {}
       D(int i, float j, int k) : c(i, j), a(k) {}
17
18
   };
```

It is possible to use $C(int x) \{a=x; b=0; \}$ in place of $C(int x) : a(x), b(0) \{\}$, because there is almost no difference between calling the copy constructor on int variables (by the statement int a(x); or int a=x;) and calling the assignment operator on int variables (by the statements int a; a=x;). But it is not possible to use $D(int i) \{c=i; a=0; \}$ in place of $D(int i) : c(i), a(0) \{\}$ because the first definition attempts to call the empty constructor and the assignment operator of class C which are not defined.