

# Custom Types — Session 4

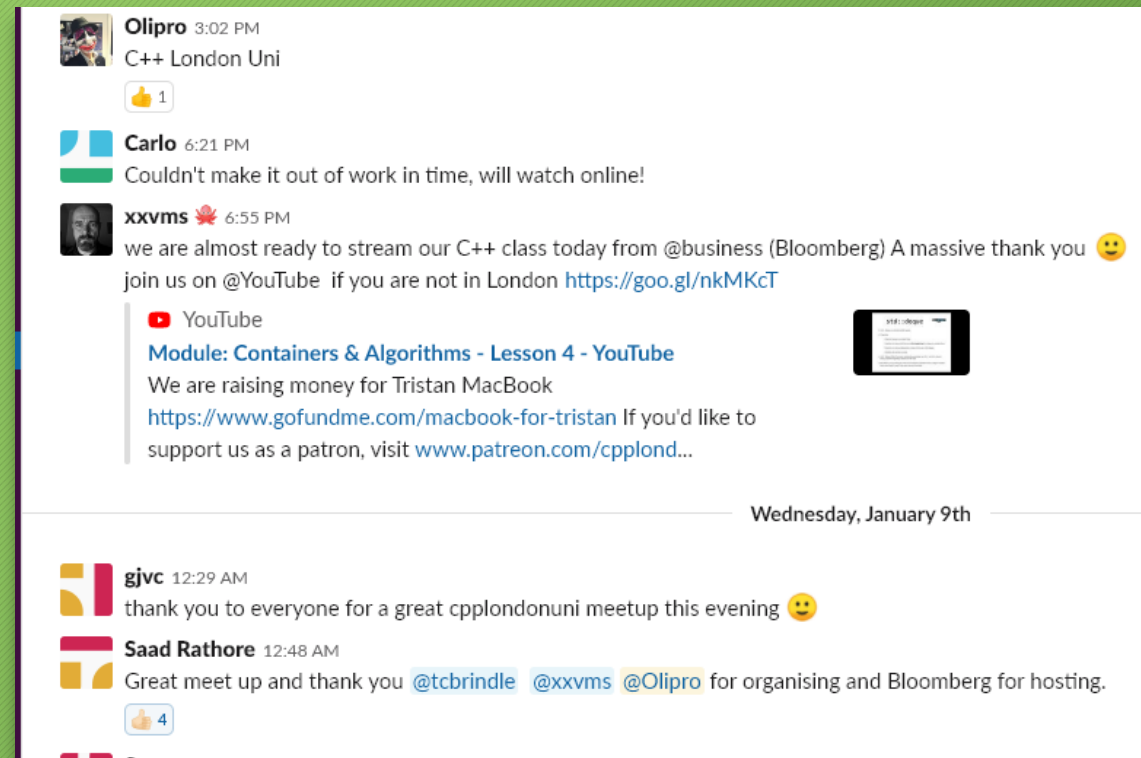


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# Feedback



- We'd love to hear from you!
- The easiest way is via the *CPPLang* Slack organisation. Our chatroom is `#cpplondonuni`
- If you already use Slack, don't worry, it supports multiple workgroups!
- Go to <https://slack.cpp.al> to register.



# Last session



- Member functions recap
- Function overloading in C++
- Intro to operator overloading



# This week



- Function overloading and operator overloading recap
- Class invariants and private data
- Introduction to constructors

# Homework from last time



- Grab the starter code from
- [https://github.com/CPPLondonUni/week12\\_point\\_exercise](https://github.com/CPPLondonUni/week12_point_exercise)
- (Don't worry about the bit that talks about "last week"!)
- Complete exercise 1 from the README file
- Solutions are on Github if you need them, but try not to cheat :)

# Solution



- Solution is on the “ex1\_solution” branch on Github
- [https://github.com/CPPLondonUni/week12\\_point\\_exercise/tree/ex1\\_solution](https://github.com/CPPLondonUni/week12_point_exercise/tree/ex1_solution)





# Revision: function overloading

- Unlike many programming languages, in C++ we are allowed to have multiple different functions with the *same name*, but which have differing *parameter lists*
- This is known as *function overloading*
- Function overloading is very useful to provide equivalent functionality for a variety of different types
- Both member functions and non-member functions may be overloaded



# Revision: function overloading

- For example, we could define two separate functions, both named `print`:

```
void print(int i) { std::cout << i << '\n'; }  
void print(float f) { std::cout << f << '\n'; }
```

- We can now call `print` on both `ints` and `floats`:

```
print(99); // calls print(int i)  
print(1.234f); // calls print(float f)
```

- When we call an overloaded function, the compiler examines the *types of the arguments* we provide, and selects the most appropriate overload
- This selection process is called *overload resolution*
  - The overload resolution rules are extraordinarily complex (even for C++), but in general “do what you want”

# Function overloading example

```
struct Circle {  
    float radius = 0.0f;  
};  
  
struct Rectangle {  
    float width = 0.0f;  
    float height = 0.0f;  
};  
  
float get_area(const Circle& circle)  
{  
    return M_PI * circle.radius * circle.radius;  
}  
  
float get_area(const Rectangle& rect)  
{  
    return rect.width * rect.height;  
}
```

```
int main()  
{  
    Circle circle{2.0f};  
    std::cout << get_area(circle) << '\n';  
  
    Rectangle rect{3, 4};  
    std::cout << get_area(rect) << '\n';  
}
```



# Revision: operator overloading

- When using built-in types like `int` and `float`, we can perform operations such as addition and subtraction using the common mathematical symbols `+` and `-`
- The `+` and `-` symbols are examples of *operators*
- C++ allows us to *define the meaning* of various operators for our own custom types
- This is called *operator overloading*
- With suitable operator overloads we can use the same “natural” syntax for our own types as we do for built-in types



# Operator overloading

- To implement an operator for a custom type, we write a function named `operatorXX`, where `XX` is the symbol for the operator
- For example, if we defined a function named `operator+` with two parameters both of type `Matrix`, then we would be able to use the natural mathematical notation of `matrix1 + matrix2` in our code
  - Note that unlike some languages, we cannot define new operators in C++

# Operator overloading example

```
struct Vec2 {  
    float x = 0.0f;  
    float y = 0.0f;  
};  
  
// Vector addition  
Vec2 operator+(const Vec2& lhs, const Vec2& rhs) {  
    return Vec2{lhs.x + rhs.x, lhs.y + rhs.y}  
}  
  
// Scalar multiplication  
Vec2 operator*(float lhs, const Vec2& rhs) {  
    return Vec2{lhs * rhs.x, lhs * rhs.y};  
}  
  
int main() {  
    Vec2 a = { 1.0f, 2.0f };  
    Vec2 b = { 3.0f, 4.0f };  
  
    Vec2 c = a + b; // calls operator+(Vec2, Vec2)  
  
    Vec2 d = 4.0f * c; // calls operator*(float, Vec2)  
}
```

# Operator overloading

- Operator overloading is an important way in which way can make our custom types behave like built-in types
- However, it also opens the door to doing many questionable things!

```
void operator==(const MyType& m1, const MyType& m2) {  
    fire_the_missiles(); // !!!  
}
```

- (Or, say, using the << operator for printing...)
- *Golden rule*: only provide operator overloads when there is a “natural” meaning of that operator for your type
  - “*Do as the ints do*”!





# Access control

- When using our own types, it's often the case that only certain values “make sense” for our data members
- For example, consider our familiar `Circle` struct:

```
struct Circle {  
    float radius = 0.0f;  
};
```

- Clearly, it doesn't make sense for a circle to have a negative radius!
- We say that our `Circle` type has an *class invariant* that its radius is always non-negative

# Access control

- We can try to *maintain our class invariant* by writing a member function which checks that the new value is valid before using it
- (Member functions like these are often called setters, for obvious reasons)
- Problem: users of our `Circle` type can still set the radius directly!
- Solution: `private` data!

```
struct Circle {  
    float radius = 0.0f;  
  
    void set_radius(float new_radius) {  
        if (new_radius < 0.0f) {  
            std::cerr << "Bad radius!\n";  
        } else {  
            radius = new_radius;  
        }  
    }  
};  
  
Circle c{};  
c.set_radius(10.0f); // okay  
c.radius = -100.0f; // Oh dear!
```



# Access control

- We can use the `private` keyword to prevent “unauthorised access” to members of our type
- After `private:` appears in a struct definition, everything that follows is *private to the type we are defining*
  - Note that this is slightly different from the Java/C# syntax
- Private members can only be accessed from within member functions of the same struct
- Attempting to access a private member from anywhere else in the code is a compile-time error

# Access control example

```
struct Circle {  
    // Setter  
    void set_radius(float new_radius) {  
        if (new_radius < 0.0f) {  
            std::cerr << "Bad radius!\n";  
        } else {  
            radius = new_radius;  
        }  
    }  
  
    // Getter  
    float get_radius() const {  
        return radius;  
    }  
  
private:  
    float radius = 0.0f;  
};
```

```
int main() {  
    Circle c{};  
  
    c.set_radius(10.0f);  
    // Okay  
    c.radius = 10.0f;  
    // ERROR, radius is a private!  
  
    std::cout << c.get_radius() << '\n';  
    // Okay  
    std::cout << c.radius << '\n';  
    // ERROR, radius is still private!  
}
```



# Access control

- There is a corresponding `public:` access level which says that the members that follow are accessible by everyone
- There is a third access level in C++, `protected`, which says that those members are only accessible from derived classes
  - We'll talk more about protected members later in the course
- We can mix and match sections with different access levels as much as we like
  - However, it's most common to list public members, followed by protected members (if any), followed by private members



# Structs and classes

- Remember how I said there was almost no difference between structs and classes in C++?
- The main difference is this:
  - `structs` default to `public` access (until we say otherwise)
  - `classes` default to `private` access (until we say otherwise)
- (The only other difference relates to the default inheritance level, which we'll talk about later)
- It's up to you whether you prefer the `struct` or `class` keyword!

# Structs and classes example

```
struct Circle {  
    // Setter  
    void set_radius(float new_radius) {  
        if (new_radius < 0.0f) {  
            std::cerr << "Bad radius!\n";  
        } else {  
            radius = new_radius;  
        }  
    }  
  
    // Getter  
    float get_radius() const {  
        return radius;  
    }  
  
private:  
    float radius = 0.0f;  
};
```

```
class Circle {  
public:  
    // Setter  
    void set_radius(float new_radius) {  
        if (new_radius < 0.0f) {  
            std::cerr << "Bad radius!\n";  
        } else {  
            radius = new_radius;  
        }  
    }  
  
    // Getter  
    float get_radius() const {  
        return radius;  
    }  
  
private:  
    float radius = 0.0f;  
};
```



# Exercise

- Write a struct `Student` with two (public) members, `first_name` and `surname`, both of type `std::string`
- Your `Student` type should have the invariants that *both the `first_name` and `surname` fields should be non-empty and start with a capital letter*
- Write getter and setter member functions both fields (four member functions in total)
- In the setters, reject any input where the first letter is not uppercase (HINT: the standard library function `std::isupper` may be useful here)
- Use the `public` and `private` keywords appropriately to prevent violation of the class invariants
- Change `Student` from a `struct` to a `class`. Update your use of `public` and `private` as appropriate.



# Solution

```
class Student {  
public:  
    std::string get_first_name() const { return first_name; }  
  
    void set_first_name(const std::string& new_name) {  
        if (new_name.size() > 0 && std::isupper(new_name[0])) {  
            first_name = new_name;  
        }  
    }  
  
    std::string get_surname() const { return surname; }  
  
    void set_surname(const std::string& new_name) {  
        if (new_name.size() > 0 && std::isupper(new_name[0])) {  
            surname = new_name;  
        }  
    }  
  
private:  
    std::string first_name = "Tom";  
    std::string surname = "Breza";  
};
```

# Constructors

- We can use private data to prevent other parts of our code from breaking our class invariants
- Problem: we can no longer set the radius when we initially construct a Circle:

```
Circle c{1.0f}; // Error, radius is private!
```

- Double problem: if we have a `const` Circle, we can never call `set_radius()` either!

```
const Circle c{}; // Okay  
c.set_radius(1.0); // ERROR!
```

- Solution: add a *constructor* to our Circle class

# Constructors

- A *constructor* is a special kind of member function which is automatically called when creating an instance of a type
- We can use constructors to *establish our class invariants*
- A constructor is written as a member function with the *same name* as the enclosing class, and *no return type*
- Within the body of the constructor, we can *modify member variables*, even if the object will be immutable once constructed



# Constructor example

```
class Circle {  
public:  
    // Constructor  
    Circle(float initial_radius)  
    {  
        std::cout << "Calling constructor!\n";  
        if (initial_radius >= 0.0f) {  
            radius = initial_radius;  
        }  
    }  
  
    /* ... getter and setter as before ... */  
  
private:  
    float radius = 0.0f;  
};
```

```
int main() {  
    Circle c{1.0f};  
    // prints "Calling constructor"  
  
    std::cout << c.get_radius() << '\n'  
    // prints 1  
  
    const Circle c2{-1.0};  
    // prints "Calling constructor"  
  
    std::cout << c2.get_radius() << '\n'  
    // prints 0  
}
```

# Exercise

- Write a constructor for your Student class taking two parameters, both of type `std::string`
- In the body of your constructor, set the first name and surname fields using the passed-in arguments
- Test your code to make sure you can construct a `const` Student
- Update the body of your new constructor to ensure that you are correctly *establishing your class invariants*

MERRY CHRISTMAS  
FROM EVERYONE AT  
C++ LONDON UNI! 🎅



# Thank You!

As usual, we will be going to the pub! Support us @ <https://patreon.com/CPPLondonUni>