Modern C++ Programming

7. Object-Oriented Programming I

CLASS CONCEPTS

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C++ Classes

C++ Classes

C Structure

A **C** structure (struct) is a collection of variables of the same or different data types under a single name

C++ Class

A class (class) extends the concept of structure to hold functions as members

struct vs. class in C++

Structures and classes are semantically equivalent in **C++**. However, the keywords should be used to distinguish between different semantics:

- struct represents passive objects, namely the physical state (set of data)
- class represents active objects, namely the logical state (data abstraction)

Class Members - Data and Function Members

Data Member

Data within a class are called data members or class fields

Function Member

Functions within a class are called function members or methods

RAII Idiom - Resource Acquisition is Initialization

Holding a resource is a <u>class invariant</u>, and is tied to object lifetime

RAII Idiom consists in three steps:

- Encapsulate a resource into a class (constructor)
- Use the resource via a local instance of the class
- The resource is automatically released when the object gets out of scope (destructor)

 $\underline{\text{Implication 1}} \colon \mathsf{C} + + \text{ programming language does not require the garbage collector!!}$

<u>Implication 2</u>: The programmer has the responsibility to manage the resources

struct/class Declaration and Definition

struct declaration and definition

class declaration and definition

struct/class Function Declaration and Definition

```
struct A {
   void g();  // function member declaration
   void f() {      // function member declaration
       cout << "f": // inline definition</pre>
};
void A::g() {      // function member definition
    cout << "g"; // out-of-line definition</pre>
```

struct/class Members

```
struct B {
    void g() { cout << "g"; } // function member</pre>
};
struct A {
    int x;
                            // data member
    B b;
              // data member
    void f() { cout << "f"; } // function member</pre>
};
Aa;
a.x;
a.f();
a.b.g();
```

Class Hierarchy

Child/Derived Class or Subclass

A new class that inheriting variables and functions from another class is called a **derived** or **child** class

Parent/Base Class

The *closest* class providing variables and functions of a derived class is called **parent** or **base** class

Extend a base class refers to creating a new class which retains characteristics of the base class and on top it can add (and never remove) its own members

Syntax:

```
class DerivedClass : [<inheritance attribute>] BaseClass {
```

Class Hierarchy

```
struct A { // base class
   int value = 3;
    void g() {}
};
struct B : A {      // B is a derived class of A (B extends A)
    int data = 4; // B inherits from A
   int f() { return data; }
};
A a:
B b;
a.value;
b.g();
```

Class Hierarchy

```
struct A {}:
struct B : A {};
void f(A a) {}  // copy
void g(B b) {} // copy
void f_ref(A& a) {} // the same for A*
void g_ref(B& b) {} // the same for B*
A a:
B b:
f(a); // ok, also f(b), f(ref(a)), g(ref(b))
g(b); // ok, also g_ref(b), but not g(a), g_ref(a)
A a1 = b; //ok, also A\& a2 = b
// B b1 = a; // compile error
```

Access specifiers

The access specifiers define the visibility of inherited members of the subsequent base class. The keywords <code>public</code>, <code>private</code>, and <code>protected</code> specify the sections of visibility

The goal of the *access specifiers* is to prevent direct access to the internal representation of the class for avoiding wrong usage and potential inconsistency (access control)

- public: No restriction (function members, derived classes, outside the class)
- protected: Function members and derived classes access
- private: Function members only access (internal)

struct has default public members class has default private members

Access specifiers

```
struct A1 {
    int value; // public (by default)
protected:
    void f1() {} // protected
private:
    void f2() {} // private
};
class A2 {
    int data; // private (by default)
};
struct B : A1 {
   void h1() { f1(); } // ok, "f1" is visible in B
// void h2() { f2(); } // compile error "f2" is private in A1
};
A1 a;
a.value; // ok
// a.f1() // compile error protected
// a.f2() // compile error private
```

The access specifiers are also used for defining how the visibility is propagated from the base class to a specific derived class in the inheritance

Member declaration		Inheritance		Derived classes
public protected private	\rightarrow	public	\rightarrow	public protected
public protected private	\rightarrow	protected	\rightarrow	protected protected
public protected private	\rightarrow	private	\rightarrow	private private

```
struct A {
    int var1; // public
protected:
    int var2; // protected
};
struct B : protected A {
    int var3; // public
};
B b;
// b.var1; // compile error, var1 is protected in B
// b.var2; // compile error, var2 is protected in B
b.var3; // ok, var3 is public in B
```

```
class A {
public:
    int var1;
protected:
   int var2;
};
class B1 : A {};  // private inheritance
class B2 : public A {}: // public inheritance
B1 b1;
// b1.var1; // compile error, var1 is private in B1
// b1.var2; // compile error, var2 is private in B1
B2 b2;
b2.var1; // ok, var1 is public in B2
```

When Use public/protected/private/ for Data Members?

When use protected/private data members:

- They are not part of the interface, namely the logical state of the object (not useful for the user)
- They must preserve the const correctness (e.g. for pointer), see Advanced Concepts I

When use public data members:

- They can potentially change any time
- const correctness is preserved for values and references, as opposite to pointers.

 Data members should be preferred to member functions in this case

Class Constructor

Class Constructor

Constructor [ctor]

A **constructor** is a *special* member function of a class that is executed when a new instance of that class is created

Goals: initialization and resource acquisition

Syntax: T(...) same named of the class and no return type

- A constructor is supposed to initialize <u>all</u> data members
- We can define multiple constructors with different signatures
- Any constructor can be constexpr

Default Constructor

Default Constructor

The **default constructor** T() is a constructor with no argument

Every class has always either an implicit, explicit, or deleted default constructor

```
struct A {
    A() {} // explicit default constructor
    A(int) {} // user-defined (non-default) constructor
};
struct A {
    int x = 3; // implicit default constructor
};
A a{}; // call the default constructor, equivalent to: A a;
```

Note: an implicit default constructor is constexpr

Default Constructor Examples

```
struct A {
   A() { cout << "A"; } // default constructor
};
A a1; // call the default constructor
// A a2(); // interpreted as a function declaration!!
A a3{};
             // ok, call the default constructor
                 // direct-list initialization (C++11)
A array[3]; // print "AAA"
A* ptr = new A[4]; // print "AAAA"
```

The *implicit* default constructor of a class is marked as **deleted** if (simplified):

It has any user-defined constructor

```
struct A {
     A(int x) {}
};
// A a; // compile error
```

It has a non-static member/base class of reference/const type

```
struct NoDefault { // deleted default constructor
   int& x;
   const int y;
};
```

It has a non-static member/base class which has a deleted (or inaccessible)
 default constructor

```
struct A {
    NoDefault var;  // deleted default constructor
};
struct B : NoDefault {}; // deleted default constructor
```

It has a non-static member/base class with a deleted or inaccessible destructor

Initializer List

The **Initializer list** is used for *initializing the data members* of a class or explicitly call the base class constructor <u>before</u> entering the constructor body (Not to be confused with std::initializer_list)

In-Class Member Initializer

C++11 In-class non-static data members initialization (NSDMI) allows initializing the data members where they are declared. A user-defined constructor can be used to override their default values

Data Member Initialization

const and reference data members $\underline{\text{must}}$ be initialized by using the *initialization list* or by using in-class brace-or-equal-initializer syntax (C++11)

```
struct A {
    int
              x;
   const char y; // must be initialized
    int& z; // must be initialized
    int& v = x; // equal-initializer (C++11)
    const int w{4}; // brace initializer (C++11)
    A() : x(3), y('a'), z(x) {}
};
```

Initialization Order

Class member initialization follows the <u>order of declarations</u> and *not* the order in the initialization list

```
struct ArrayWrapper {
    int* array;
    int size;
    ArrayWrapper(int user_size) :
        size{user size}.
        array{new int[size]} {}
        // wrong!!: "size" is still undefined
};
ArrayWrapper a(10);
cout << a.array[4]; // segmentation fault</pre>
```

Uniform Initialization for Objects

Uniform Initialization (C++11)

Uniform Initialization {}, also called *list-initialization*, is a way to fully initialize any object independently of its data type

- Minimizing Redundant Typenames
 - In function arguments
 - In function returns
- Solving the "Most Vexing Parse" problem
 - Constructor interpreted as function prototype

Minimizing Redundant Typenames

```
struct Point {
              int x, y;
              Point(int x1, int y1) : x(x1), y(y1) {}
          };
C++03
          Point add(Point a, Point b) {
              return Point(a.x + b.x, a.y + b.y);
          Point c = add(Point(1, 2), Point(3, 4));
          Point add(Point a, Point b) {
C + +11
              return { a.x + b.x, a.y + b.y }; // here
          auto c = add(\{1, 2\}, \{3, 4\}); // here
```

```
struct A {
   A(int) {}
};

struct B {
// A a(1); // compile error It works in a function scope
   A a{2}; // ok, call the constructor
};
```

```
struct A {};
struct B {
    B(A a) {}
   void f() {}
};
B b(A()); // "b" is interpreted as function declaration
            // with a single argument A (*)() (func. pointer)
// b.f() // compile error "Most Vexing Parse" problem
            // solved with B b{ A{} };
```

Constructors and Inheritance

Class constructors are never inherited

A *Derived* class <u>must</u> call *implicitly* or *explicitly* a *Base* constructor <u>before</u> the current class constructor

Class constructors are called $\underline{\text{in order}}$ from the top Base class to the most Derived class (C++ objects are constructed like onions)

```
struct A {
    A() { cout << "A" };
};
struct B1 : A { // call "A()" implicitly
    int y = 3; // then, "y = 3"
};
struct B2 : A { // call "A()" explicitly
    B2() : A() { cout << "B"; }
};
B1 b1; // print "A"
B2 b2; // print "A", then print "B"</pre>
```

Delegate Constructor

The problem:

Most constructors usually perform identical initialization steps before executing individual operations

C++11 A **delegate constructor** calls another constructor of the same class to reduce the repetitive code by adding a function that does all the initialization steps

```
struct A {
    int a:
    float b:
    bool c:
    // standard constructor:
    A(int a1, float b1, bool c1) : a(a1), b(b1), c(c1) {
        // do a lot of work
    A(int a1. float b1): A(a1, b1, false) {} // delegate construtor
    A(float b1)
                        : A(100, b1, false) {} // delegate construtor
                                                                                             34/66
};
```

explicit

The explicit keyword specifies that a constructor or conversion operator (C++11) does not allow implicit conversions or copy-initialization from single arguments or braced initializers

The problem:

explicit cannot be applied to copy/move-constructors

```
struct B {
struct A {
   A() {}
                                            explicit B() {}
   A(int) {}
                                            explicit B(int) {}
                                            explicit B(int, int) {}
   A(int, int) {}
                                        }:
}:
                                        void f(const B&) {}
void f(const A&) {}
A a1 = \{\}; // ok
                                        // B b1 = {}; // error implicit conversion
                                        B b2(2); // ok
A a2(2); // ok
                               // B b3 = 1; // error implicit conversion
A a3 = 1; // ok (implicit)
A a4{4, 5}; // ok. Selected A(int, int) B b4{4, 5}; // ok. Selected B(int. int)
A a5 = \{4, 5\}; // ok. Selected A(int. int) // B b5 = \{4, 5\}; // error implicit conversion
                                        B b6 = (B) 1; // OK: explicit cast
f({});
      // ok
f(1); // ok
                                        // f({}); // error implicit conversion
f(\{1\}); // ok
                                        // f(1); // error implicit conversion
                                        // f({1}); // error implicit conversion
                                                                             36/66
                                        f(B\{1\}); // ok
```

[[nodiscard]] and Classes

```
C++17 allows setting [[nodiscard]] for the entire class/struct
[[nodiscard]] struct A {}:
A f() { return A{}: }
auto x = f(); // ok
f(): // compiler warning
C++20 allows to set [[nodiscard]] for constructors
struct A {
    [[nodiscard]] A() {} // C++20 also allows [[nodiscard]] with a reason
}:
void f(A {})
A a\{\}: // ok
f(A{}); // ok
A{}; // compiler warning
                                                                                37/66
```

Copy Constructor

Copy Constructor

Copy Constructor

A copy constructor T(const T&) creates a new object as a deep copy of an existing object

```
struct A {
    A() {} // default constructor
    A(int) {} // non-default constructor
    A(const A&) {} // copy constructor \infty direct initialization
}
```

Copy Constructor Details

- Every class <u>always</u> defines an *implicit* or *explicit* copy constructor, potentially deleted
- The copy constructor implicitly calls the default Base class constructor
- Even the copy constructor is considered a user-defined constructor
- The copy constructor doesn't have template parameters, otherwise it is a standard member function
- The copy constructor must not be confused with the assignment operator

operator=

```
MyStruct x;

MyStruct y{x}; // copy constructor

y = x; // call the assignment operator=, not the copy constructor

// \rightarrow copy initialization, see next lecture
```

Copy Constructor Example

```
struct Array {
    int size;
    int* array;
    Array(int size1) : size{size1} {
        array = new int[size];
    // copy constructor, ": size{obj.size}" initializer list
    Array(const Array& obj) : size{obj.size} {
        arrav = new int[size];
        for (int i = 0; i < size; i++)</pre>
            array[i] = obj.array[i];
Array x{100}; // do something with x.array ...
Array y{x}; // call "Array::Array(const Array&)"
```

Copy Constructor Usage

The copy constructor is used to:

- <u>Initialize</u> one object from another one having the same type
 - Direct constructor
 - Assignment operator

```
A a1;
A a2(a1); // Direct copy initialization
A a3{a1}; // Direct copy initialization
A a4 = a1; // Copy initialization
A a5 = {a1}; // Copy list initialization
```

Copy an object which is passed by-value as input parameter of a function
 void f(A a);

Copy an object which is returned as <u>result</u> from a function*

```
A f() { return A(3); } // * see RVO optimization
```

Copy Constructor Usage Examples

```
struct A {
    A() \{ \}
    A(const A& obj) { cout << "copy"; }
};
void f(A a) {} // pass by-value
A g1(A& a) { return a; }
A g2() { return A(); }
A a:
A b = a; // copy constructor (assignment)
                                            "copy"
A c(b); // copy constructor (direct) "copy"
f(b); // copy constructor (argument) "copy"
g1(a); // copy constructor (return value) "copy"
A d = g2(); // * see RVO optimization (Advanced Concepts I)
```

Pass by-value and Copy Constructor

```
struct A {
    A() {}
    A(const A& obj) { cout << "expensive copy"; }
};
struct B : A {
    B() {}
    B(const B& obj) { cout << "cheap copy"; }</pre>
};
void f1(B b) {}
void f2(A a) {}
B b1:
f1(b1); // cheap copy
f2(b1); // expensive copy!! It calls A(const A&) implicitly
```

Deleted Copy Constructor

The *implicit* copy constructor of a class is marked as **deleted** if (simplified):

It has a non-static member/base class of reference/const type

```
struct NonDefault { int& x; }; // deleted copy constructor
```

It has a non-static member/base class which has a deleted (or inaccessible) copy constructor

```
struct B { // deleted copy constructor
    NonDefault a;
};
struct B : NonDefault {}; // delete copy constructor
```

- It has a non-static member/base class with a deleted or inaccessible destructor
- The class has the move constructor (next lectures)

Class Destructor

Destructor [dtor]

A **destructor** is a special member function that is executed whenever an object is out-of-scope or whenever the delete/delete[] expression is applied to a pointer of that class

Goals: resources releasing

Syntax: \sim T() same name of the class and no return type

- Any object has exactly one destructor, which is always implicitly or explicitly declared
- C++20 The *destructor* can be constexpr

```
struct Array {
    int* arrav;
    Array() { // constructor
       array = new int[10];
    ~Array() { // destructor
       delete[] array;
};
int main() {
  Array a; // call the constructor
  for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
       Array b; // call 5 times the constructor + destructor
} // call the destructor of "a"
```

Class destructor is <u>never</u> inherited. Base class destructor is invoked after the current class destructor

Class destructors are called in reverse order. From the most Derived to the top Base class

```
struct A {
    \simA() { cout << "A"; }
};
struct B {
    \simB() { cout << "B"; }
};
struct C : A {
    B b; // call \sim B()
    \simC() { cout << "C": }
};
int main() {
    C b; // print "C", then "B", then "A"
```

Defaulted Constructors. Destructor, and **Operators** (=default)

C++11 The compiler can automatically generate

default/copy/move constructors

```
A() = default
A(const A&) = default
A(A&&) = default
```

destructor

```
\sim A() = default
```

- copy/move assignment operators A& operator=(const A&) = default A& operator=(A&&) = default
- spaceship operator

```
auto operator<=>(const A&) const = default
```

= default implies constexpr, but not noexcept or explicit

When the compiler-generated constructors, destructors, and operators are useful:

- Change the visibility of non-user provided constructors and assignment operators (public, protected, private)
- Make visible the declarations of such members

The **defaulted** default constructor has a <u>similar</u> effect as a user-defined constructor with empty body and empty initializer list

When the compiler-generated constructor is useful:

- Any user-provided constructor disables implicitly-generated default constructor
- Force the default values for the class data members

```
struct B {
protected:
    B() = default; // now it is protected
};
```

Class Keywords

this Keyword

this

Every object has access to its own address through the pointer this

Explicit usage is not mandatory (and not suggested)

this is necessary when:

- The name of a local variable is equal to some member name
- Return reference to the calling object

```
struct A {
   int x;
   void f(int x) {
      this->x = x; // without "this" has no effect
   }
   const A& g() {
      return *this;
   }
}:
```

static Keyword

The keyword static declares members (fields or methods) that are not bound to class instances. A static member is shared by all objects of the class

```
struct A {
    int x:
    int f() { return x; }
    static int g() { return 3; } // q() cannot access 'x' as it is associated
}:
                                  // with class instances
A a{4}:
a.f(); // call the class instance method
A::g(); // call the static class method
a.g(); // as an alternative, a class instance can access static class members
```

Non-const static data members $\underline{\text{cannot}}$ be $\underline{\text{directly}}$ initialized inline (see Translation Units lecture)...before C++17

```
struct A {
// static int a = 4; // compiler error
  static int a; // ok, declaration only
   static inline int b = 4; // ok from C++17
   static int f() { return 2; }
   static int g();  // ok, declaration only
};
int A::a = 4;
                // ok, undefined reference without this definition
int A::g() { return 3; } // ok, undefined reference without this definition
```

```
struct A {
    static int x; // declaration
    static int f() { return x; }
    static int& g() { return x; }
};
int A::x = 3; // definition
A::f(); // return 3
A::x++:
A::f(); // return 4
A::g() = 7;
A::f(); // return 7
```

- A static member function can only access static class members
- A non-static member function can access static class members

```
struct A {
              x = 3;
    int
   static inline int v = 4:
    int f1() { return x: } // ok
// static int f2() { return x; } // compiler error, 'x' is not visible
    int g1() { return y; } // ok
    static int g2() { return y; } // ok
    struct B {
       int h() { return y + g2(); } // ok
   ; // 'x', 'f1()', 'g1()' are not visible within 'B'
};
```

Const member functions

Const member functions (inspectors or observers) are functions marked with const that are not allowed to change the object logical state

The compiler prevents from inadvertently mutating/changing the data members of observer functions \rightarrow All data members are marked const within an **observer** method, including the this pointer

- The physical state can still be modified, see mutable member functions →
- Member functions without a const suffix are called non-const member functions
 or mutators/modifiers

```
struct A {
    int x = 3;
    int* p;
    int get() const {
     //x = 2; // compile error class variables cannot be modified
     // p = nullptr; // compile error class variables cannot be modified
       p[0] = 3; // ok, p is 'int* const' -> its content is
                     // not protected
        return x:
};
```

A common case where const member functions are useful is to enforce const correctness when accessing pointers, see Advanced Concepts I, Const Correctness

const Keyword - const Overloading

The **const** keyword is part of the function signature. Therefore, a class can implement two similar methods, one which is called when the object is **const**, and one that is not

```
class A {
   int x = 3;
public:
   int& get1() { return x; } // read and write
   int get1() const { return x; } // read only
   int& get2() { return x; } // read and write
};
A a1:
cout << a1.get1(); // ok
cout << a1.get2(); // ok</pre>
a1.get1() = 4; // ok
const A a2;
cout << a2.get1(); // ok</pre>
// cout << a2.get2(); // compile error "a2" is const
//a2. qet1() = 5; // compile error only "qet1() const" is available
```

mutable Keyword

mutable

mutable data members of *const* class instances are modifiable. They should be part of the object *physical state*, but not of the *logical state*

- It is particularly useful if most of the members should be constant but a few need to be modified
- Conceptually, mutable members should not change anything that can be retrieved from the class interface

using Keyword for type declaration

The using keyword is used to declare a type alias tied to a specific class

```
struct A {
    using type = int;
};

typename A::type x = 3; // "typename" keyword is needed when we refer to types

struct B : A {};

typename B::type x = 4; // B can use "type" as it is public in A
```

using Keyword for Inheritance

The using keyword can be also used to change the *inheritance attribute* of member data or functions

```
struct A {
protected:
    int x = 3;
};
struct B : A {
public:
    using A::x;
};
B b;
b.x = 3; // ok, "b.x" is public
```

friend Class

A friend class can access the private and protected members of the class in which it is declared as a friend

Friendship properties:

- Not Symmetric: if class A is a friend of class B, class B is not automatically a friend of class A
- Not Transitive: if class A is a friend of class B, and class B is a friend of class C, class A is not automatically a friend of class C
- Not Inherited: if class Base is a friend of class X, subclass Derived is not
 automatically a friend of class X; and if class X is a friend of class Base, class X is
 not automatically a friend of subclass Derived

```
class B: // class declaration
class A {
    friend class B;
   int x; // private
};
class B {
    int f(A a) { return a.x; } // ok, B is friend of A
};
class C : B {
// int f(A \ a) { return a.x; } // compile error not inherited
};
```

friend Method

A <u>non-member</u> function can access the private and protected members of a class if it is declared a <u>friend</u> of that class

```
class A {
    int x = 3; // private
    friend int f(A a): // friendship declaration, no implementation
};
//'f' is not a member function of any class
int f(A a) {
    return a.x; // A is friend of f(A)
```

friend methods are commonly used for implementing the stream operator<<</pre>

delete Keyword

delete Keyword (C++11)

The delete keyword explicitly marks a member function as deleted and any use results in a compiler error. When it is applied to *copy/move constructor* or *assignment*, it prevents the compiler from implicitly generating these functions

The default copy/move functions for a class can produce unexpected results. The keyword delete prevents these errors

```
struct A {
    A() = default;
    A(const A&) = delete; // e.g. deleted because unsafe or expensive
};
void f(A a) {} // implicit call to copy constructor

A a;
// f(a); // compile error marked as deleted 66/66
```