

# Overloaded Operators

Object-Oriented Programming with C++

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# Overloading operators

- Allows user-defined types to act like *built-in* types.
- Another way to make a function call.

# Overloaded operators

- Unary and binary operators can be overloaded:

```
+    -    *    /    %    ^    &    |    ~  
=    <    >    +=   -=   *=   /=   %=  
^=   &=   |=   <<   >>   >>= <<= ==  
!=   <=   >=   !    &&   ||   ++   --  
,    ->*  ->   ()   []  
new   new[]  
delete delete[]
```

# Operators you can't overload

```
.      .*      ::      ?:  
sizeof typeid  
static_cast dynamic_cast  
const_cast reinterpret_cast
```

# Pointer to members

```
int main() {  
    MyClass obj;  
    obj.data = 42;  
  
    // Pointer to member variable  
    int MyClass::*ptrToData = &MyClass::data;  
  
    // Pointer to member function  
    void (MyClass::*ptrToFunc)() = &MyClass::display;  
  
    // Using an object instance and pointer to member variable  
    cout << obj.*ptrToData << endl; // Outputs 42  
  
    // Using an object instance and pointer to member function  
    (obj.*ptrToFunc)(); // Calls obj.display() which outputs 42  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

```
class MyClass {  
public:  
    int data;  
    void display() {  
        cout << data << endl; }  
};
```

# Restrictions

- Only existing operators can be overloaded (you can't create a `**` operator for exponentiation)
- Overloaded operators must
  - Preserve number of operands
  - Preserve precedence

# C++ overloaded operator

- Just a function with an operator name!
  - Use the `operator` keyword as a prefix to name  
`operator * (...)`

- Can be a member function
  - Implicit first argument

```
String String::operator+(const String& that);
```

- Can be a global (free) function
  - Both arguments explicit

```
String operator+(const String& l, const String& r);
```

# How to overload

- As member function
  - Implicit first argument
  - No type conversion performed on receiver



# Operators as member functions

```
class Integer
{
public:
    Integer( int n = 0 ) : i(n) {}
    Integer operator+(const Integer& n) const {
        return Integer(i + n.i);
    }
    ...
private:
    int i;
};
```

# Member functions

```
Integer x(1), y(5), z;  
x + y; // ==> x.operator+(y);
```

- Implicit first argument
- Developer must have access to class definition
- Members have full access to all data in class
- No type conversion performed on receiver

`z = x + y;` ✓

`z = x + 3;` ✓

~~`z = 3 + y;`~~

# Member functions...

- For binary operators (+, -, \*, etc) member functions require one argument.
- For unary operators (unary -, !, etc) member functions require no arguments:

```
Integer operator-() const {  
    return Integer(-i);  
}  
...  
z = -x; // z.operator=(x.operator-());
```

# How to overload

- As a global function
  - Explicit first argument
  - Type conversions performed on both arguments
  - Can be made a friend

# Operator as a global function

```
Integer operator+(const Integer& lhs, const Integer& rhs);  
Integer x, y;  
x + y // operator+(x, y);
```

- Explicit first argument
- Developer does not need special access to classes
- May need to be a friend
- Type conversions performed on both arguments

# Global operators (friend)

```
class Integer
{
    public:
        friend Integer operator+(const Integer&, const
Integer&);
        ...
    private:
        int i;
};

Integer operator+(const Integer& lhs, const Integer& rhs)
{
    return Integer( lhs.i + rhs.i );
}
```

# Global operators

- Binary operators require two arguments
- Unary operators require one argument
- Conversion:

```
z = x + y; // operator+(x, y)
```

```
z = x + 3; // operator+(x, Integer(3))
```

```
z = 3 + y; // operator+(Integer(3), y)
```

```
z = 3 + 7; // Integer(10)
```

- If you don't have access to private data members, then the global function must use the public interface (e.g. accessors)

# Tips: Members vs. Free functions

- Unary operators should be members
- `=` `()` `[]` `->` `->*` must be members
- All other binary operators as non-members



# Argument passing

- If it is read-only pass it in as a const reference (except built-ins)
- Make member functions const that don't change the class (boolean operators, +, -, etc)
- For global functions, if the left-hand side changes pass as a reference (stream inserters)

# Return values

- Select the return type depending on the expected meaning of the operator. For example,
  - For `operator+` you need to generate a new object. Return as a `const` object so the result cannot be modified as an `lvalue`.
  - Logical operators should return `bool` (or `int` for older compilers).

# The prototypes of operators

- `+ - * / % ^ & | ~`

```
const T operator X(const T& l, const T& r);
```

- `! && || < <= == >= >`

```
bool operator X(const T& l, const T& r);
```

- `[]`

```
E& T::operator [] (int index);
```

# Operators ++ and --

- How to distinguish postfix from prefix?
  - `i++` or `++i`
- Postfix forms take an int argument -- compiler will pass in 0 as that int

```
class Integer {
public:
    ...
    const Integer& operator++();    //prefix++
    const Integer operator++(int); //postfix++
    const Integer& operator--();    //prefix--
    const Integer operator--(int); //postfix--
    ...
};
```

# Operators ++ and --

```
const Integer& Integer::operator++() {  
    *this += 1;           // increment  
    return *this;         // fetch  
}  
  
// int argument not used so leave unnamed so  
// won't get compiler warnings  
const Integer Integer::operator++( int ){  
    Integer old( *this ); // fetch  
    ++(*this);           // increment  
    return old;           // return  
}
```

# Using the overloaded ++ and --

```
// decrement operators similar to increment
Integer x(5);
++x;      // calls x.operator++();
x++;      // calls x.operator++(0);
--x;      // calls x.operator--();
x--;      // calls x.operator--(0);
```

- User-defined prefix is more efficient than postfix.

# Relational operators

- implement `!=` in terms of `==`
- implement `>`, `>=`, `<=` in terms of `<`

```
class Integer {  
public:  
    ...  
    bool operator==( const Integer& rhs ) const;  
    bool operator!=( const Integer& rhs ) const;  
  
    bool operator<( const Integer& rhs ) const;  
    bool operator>( const Integer& rhs ) const;  
    bool operator<=( const Integer& rhs ) const;  
    bool operator>=( const Integer& rhs ) const;  
}
```

# Relational operators

```
bool Integer::operator==( const Integer& rhs ) const {  
    return i == rhs.i;  
}  
  
// implement lhs != rhs in terms of !(lhs == rhs)  
bool Integer::operator!=( const Integer& rhs ) const {  
    return !(*this == rhs);  
}  
  
bool Integer::operator<( const Integer& rhs ) const {  
    return i < rhs.i;  
}
```



# Relational operators...

```
// implement lhs > rhs in terms of lhs < rhs
bool Integer::operator>( const Integer& rhs ) const {
    return rhs < *this;
}

// implement lhs <= rhs in terms of !(rhs < lhs)
bool Integer::operator<=( const Integer& rhs ) const {
    return !(rhs < *this);
}

// implement lhs >= rhs in terms of !(lhs < rhs)
bool Integer::operator>=( const Integer& rhs ) const {
    return !(*this < rhs);
}
```

# Operator []

- Must be a member function
- Single argument
- Implies that the object acts like an array, so it should return a reference

```
Vector v(100);    // create a vector of size 100  
v[10] = 45;
```

Note: if returned a pointer you would need to do:

```
*v[10] = 45;
```

Example: vector.h and vector.cpp

# Copying vs. Initialization

```
MyType b;  
  
//copy constructor for Initialization  
MyType a = b;  
  
// assignment operator for copying  
a = b;
```

- Example: CopyingVsInitialization.cpp

# Automatic operator= creation

- The compiler will automatically create one if it's not explicitly provided.
- *memberwise assignment*
- Example: OperatorEquals.cpp

# Assignment operator

- Must be a member function
- Will be generated for you if you don't provide one
  - Same behavior as automatic copy ctor -- memberwise assignment
- Return a reference to `*this`  

```
A = B = C;  
// executed as A = (B = C) ;
```
- Be sure to assign to all data members: pointers...
- Check for self-assignment

# Assignment operator skeleton

```
T& T::operator=( const T& rhs ) {  
    // check for self assignment  
    if ( this != &rhs ) {  
        // perform assignment  
        ...  
    }  
    return *this;  
}
```

//This checks address, not value (\*this != rhs)

# Assignment operator

- For classes with *dynamically* allocated memory declare an assignment operator (and a copy constructor)
- To prevent assignment, explicitly declare `operator=` as private, or use `=delete;`
- Example: AssignmentExample.cpp

# Operator ( )

- A *functor*, which overloads the function call operator, is an object that acts like a function.

```
struct F {  
    void operator()(int x) const {  
        std::cout << x << "\n";  
    }  
}; // F is a functor  
  
F f;  
f(2); // calls f.operator()
```



# Value classes

- Appear to be primitive data types
- Passed to and returned from functions
- Have overloaded operators (often)
- Can be converted to and from other types
- Examples: Complex, Date, ...

# User-defined type conversions

- A conversion operator can be used to convert an object of one class into
  - an object of another class
  - a built-in type
- Compilers perform implicit conversions using:
  - Single-argument constructors
  - implicit type conversion operators

# Single argument constructors

```
class PathName {  
    string name;  
public:  
    // or could be multi-argument with defaults  
    PathName(const string&);  
    ~ PathName();  
};  
...  
string abc("abc");  
PathName xyz(abc); // OK!  
xyz = abc;         // OK abc => PathName
```

Example: AutomaticTypeConversion.cpp

# Prevent implicit conversions

- New keyword: `explicit`

```
class PathName {  
    string name;  
public:  
    explicit PathName(const string&);  
    ~ PathName();  
};  
...  
string abc("abc");  
PathName xyz(abc); // OK!  
xyz = abc;         // error!
```

Example: ExplicitKeyword.cpp

# Conversion operations

- Operator conversion
  - Function will be called automatically
  - Return type is the same as function name

```
class Rational {  
public:  
    ...  
    // Rational to double  
    operator double() const {  
        return numerator_/(double)denominator_;  
    }  
}  
Rational r(1,3); double d = 1.3 * r; // r=>double
```

# General form of conversion ops

- `X::operator T()`
  - Operator name is any type descriptor
  - No explicit arguments
  - No return type
  - Compiler will use it as a type conversion from  $X \Rightarrow T$

# C++ type conversions

- Built-in conversions

- Primitive

`char  $\Rightarrow$  short  $\Rightarrow$  int  $\Rightarrow$  float  $\Rightarrow$  double  
 $\Rightarrow$  int  $\Rightarrow$  long`

- Any type `T`

`T  $\Rightarrow$  T&`

`T&  $\Rightarrow$  T`

`T*  $\Rightarrow$  void*`

`T[]  $\Rightarrow$  T*`

`T*  $\Rightarrow$  T[]`

`T  $\Rightarrow$  const T`

- User-defined `T  $\Rightarrow$  C`

- if `c(T)` is a valid constructor call for `c`

- if `operator C()` is defined for `T`

- BUT

- See: `TypeConversionAmbiguity.cpp`

# Do you want to use them?

- In general, be careful!
  - Cause lots of problems when functions are called unexpectedly.
- Use explicit conversion functions. Instead of using the conversion operator, declare a member function in

```
class Rational:  
    double to_double() const;
```



# Overloading and type conversion

- C++ checks each argument for a "best match"
- Best match means cheapest
  - Exact match is cost-free
  - Matches involving built-in conversions
  - User-defined type conversions

# Overloading

- Just because you can overload an operator doesn't mean you should.
- Overload operators when it makes the code easier to read and maintain.

# Casting operators

- `static_cast<type>(expression)`
- `dynamic_cast<type>(expression)`
- `const_cast<type>(expression)`
- `reinterpret_cast<type>(expression)`

# static\_cast

- `static_cast<type>(expression)` explicit type conversion instead of implicit type conversion

```
char a = 'a';  
int b = static_cast<int>(a); //correct
```

```
double *c = new double;  
void *d = static_cast<void*>(c); //correct
```

```
int e = 10;  
const int f = static_cast<const int>(e); //correct
```

```
const int g = 20;  
int *h = static_cast<int*>(&g); //error: static_cast can  
not remove the const property
```

# static\_cast

- `static_cast<type>(expression)` is not safe when it is used to cast object pointer (compiler does not check this conversion)

```
Class A {public: virtual test() {...}}  
  
Class B: public A {public: virtual test() {...}}  
  
A *pA1 = new B();  
B *pB = static_cast<B*>(pA1); //downcast not safe
```

# dynamic\_cast

- `dynamic_cast<type>(expression)` checks whether a downcast of object pointer is safe

```
class A {public: virtual int test() {...}}
```

```
class B: public A {public: virtual int test() {...}}
```

```
class C {public: virtual int test() {...}}
```

```
A *pA1 = new B();
```

```
B *pB = dynamic_cast<B*>(pA1);    //safe downcast
```

```
C *pC = dynamic_cast<C*>(pA1);    //not safe, will return a  
NULL pointer
```

# const\_cast

- `const_cast<type>(expression)` is used to modify the const or volatile property.

```
const int g = 20;  
int *h = const_cast<int*>(&g); //correct
```

```
const int g = 20;  
int &h = const_cast<int &>(g); //correct
```

```
const char *g = "hello";  
char *h = const_cast<char *>(g); //correct
```

# reinterpret\_cast

- `reinterpret_cast<type>(expression)` is used to convert pointers or reference into integer or backforth.

```
int a, b;  
int *pA = &b;  
a = reinterpret_cast<int>(pA); //correct  
pA = reinterpret_cast<int*>(a); //correct  
  
b = reinterpret_cast<int>(a); //Error, cannot be used for  
converting between non-pointer variables of the same type  
(int to int).
```