# Modern C++ Programming

5. C++ Object Oriented Programming

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# Agenda

### C++ Classes

- Class hierarchy
- Inheritance attributes
- Class constructor
  - Default constructor
- Class initialization
- Copy constructor - default keyword
- Class destructor

#### Class keyword

- this
- static
- const
- mutable
- using
- friend
- delete

# **Polymorphism**

- Function binding
  - virtual method
  - override/final keywords
  - virtual common errors
- Pure virtual methods
- Abstract class and interface

# Operator Overloading

- Operator ≪
- Operator operator()
- Operator operator=

# Special Objects

- Aggregate
- Trivial class
- Standard-layout class
- Plain old data type

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# C++ Classes

#### C++ Classes

#### C++ Class

Classes extend the concept of data structures: they can contain data members and also functions as members

#### Class Member/Field

The <u>data</u> within a class are called *data members* or *class field*.

<u>Functions</u> within a class are called *function members* or *methods* of the class

#### struct vs. class

Structure and classes are *semantically* equivalent. In general, struct represents *passive* objects, while class *active* objects

#### C++ Classes

```
struct A; // class declaration (incomplete type)
class B {
    void g() { cout << "g"; } // function member definition</pre>
};
struct A { // class definition
   int x; // field/variable member
  void f(); // function member (declaration)
   B b; // b class is a field of A
   using T = B; // alias of B inside A
};
void A::f() { cout << "f"; } // function member definition</pre>
int main() {
    A a;
    std::cout << a.x;
    a.f();
    a.b.g();
    A:: T obj; // equal to B obj;
}
```

# 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 function of a derived class is called **parent** class

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

# Class Hierarchy

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
struct A { // base class
    int value = 3;
};
struct B: A { // B inherits from A (B extends A) (B is child of A)
    int data = 4;
    int f() { return data; }
};
struct C : B { // C extends B (C is child of B)
};
int main() {
    A base;
    B derived1;
    C derived2;
    cout << base.value; // print 3</pre>
    cout << derived1.data; // print 4</pre>
    cout << derived2.f(); // print 4</pre>
```

private, public, and protected inheritance

- public: The public members can be accessed without any restriction
- protected: The protected members of a base class can be accessed by its derived class
- private: The private members of a class can only be accessed by function members of that <u>class</u>

member declaration	inheritance	derived classes
public protected private	public	public protected \
public protected private	protected	protected protected
public protected private	private	private private \

- structs have default public members
- classes have default private members

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class A {
public:
    int var1 = 3;
    int f() { return var1; }
protected:
    int b;
};
class B : public A { // without public, B inherits
                     // the data member "var1" and f()
};
                     // as private members
int main() {
    B derived;
    cout << derived.f(); // print 3</pre>
// cout << derived.b; // compile error!! protected
```

# Constructor [ctor]

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

- A constructor is always named as the class
- A constructor have no return type
- A constructor is supposed to initialize all the data members of a class
- We can define multiple constructors (different signatures)

Class constructors are <u>never</u> inherited. *Derived* class must call a *Base* constructor before the current class constructor

Class constructors are called in order of declaration (C++ objects are constructed like onions)

```
#include <iostream>
class A {
    int x;
public:
    A(int x1) : x(x1) { // constructor}
       std::cout << "A";
};
class B : A {
public:
    B(int b1) : A(b1) { std::cout << "B"; }
};
int main() {
    A a(1); // print "A"
    B b(2); // print "A", then print "B"
    A c = {1}; // direct initialization, print "A"
    A d {1}; // uniform initialization (C++11), print "A"
```

# Default Constructor

A **default constructor** is a constructor with <u>no arguments</u>

Every class has <u>always</u> either an *implicit* or *explicit* default constructor

Note: in class the implicit default constructor is marked as private

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

- It has a member of reference/const type
- It has a user-defined constructor
- It has a member/base class which has a deleted (or inaccessible, or ambiguous) default constructor
- It has a base class which has a deleted (or inaccessible, or ambiguous) destructor

# Class Constructor (Examples)

```
struct A {}; // implicit-declared public default constructor
class B {}; // implicit-declared private default constructor
class C {
public:
   C() { // user-defined default constructor
       std::cout << "C";
};
struct D {
   int& a; // implicit-deleted default constructor
};
int main() {
   A a1; // call the default constructor
// A a2(); // interpreted as a function declaration!!
// B b; // compile error!! private
   C c; // ok, print "C"
   C array[3]; // print three times "C"
// D d; // compile error!! deleted
```

the initialization lists

(Any) Member data should be initialized by constructors with the initialization lists or by using brace-or-equal-initializer syntax const and reference data members must be initialized by using

```
struct A {
  char
       a:
  const float b;
  const int c = 3;  // default initialization
  int* ptr { nullptr }; // default initialization(C++11)
  A(char a1): a(a1), b(1.2f) {} // direct initilization
  A() : a('x'), b(1.2f) {} // uniform initialization(C++11)
//A():c('a') {}
                         // compile error!! "b" is const
                                                           13/77
};
```

#### C + +11

#### **Uniform Initialization**

**Uniform Initialization** is a way to fully initialize any object independently from its data type

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

To not confuse with narrowing conversion

#### Full details:

mbevin.wordpress.com/2012/11/16/uniform-initialization/

# Initialization List (Uniform Initialization)

```
struct A {
    int a1, a2;
};
class B {
   int b1, b2;
public:
   B(A a) {}
    B(int x1, int x2) : b1(x1), b2(x2) {}
};
A f() {
    return { 1, 2 }; // ok, works also for B (call B(int, int))
Bg(Aa) {
    B b( A() ); // interpreted as function declaration
// return b; // compile error!! "Most Vexing Parse" problem
               // solved with B b{ A{} };
struct C {
// B b (1, 2); // compile error (struct)! It works in a function scope
   B b { 1, 2 }; // ok, call the constructor
                                                                        15/77
};
```

#### C + +11

a constructor to be able to call another constructor of the same class

these constructors usually perform identical initialization steps before executing individual operations

reduce the repetitive code by adding a function that does all of the validation, but the code for CC would be easier to understand and maintain if one constructor could delegate some of the work to another on

```
C + +11
```

The explicit keyword specifies that a constructor or conversion function doesn't allow implicit conversions or copy-initialization

```
struct A {
                         int main() {
   A(int) {}
                            A a1 = 1; // ok (implicit)
   A(int, int) {}
                           A a2(2); // ok
                             A a3 {4, 5}; // ok. Selected A(int, int)
};
                             A a4 = \{4, 5\}; // ok. Selected A(int, int)
struct B {
   explicit B(int) {} // B b1 = 1; // error!! implit conversion
   explicit B(int, int) {} B b2(2); // ok
};
                            B b3 {4, 5}; // ok. Selected A(int, int)
                         // B b4 = {4, 5}; // error!! implit conversion
                             B b5 = (B)1; // OK: explicit cast
                         }
```

# **Copy Constructor**

A **copy constructor** is a constructor used to create a new object as a *copy* of an existing object

Every class <u>always</u> define an *implicit* or *explicit* copy constructors Note: in class the implicit copy constructor is marked as private

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

- Every non-static class type (or array of class type) member has a valid (accessible, not deleted, not ambiguous) copy constructor
- Every base classes has a valid (accessible, not deleted, not ambiguous) copy constructor
- It has a base class with a deleted or inaccessible destructor
- The class has no move constructor (next slides)

```
struct A {
    int size;
    int* array;
    A(int size1) : size(size1) {
        y = new int[size];
    A(const A& obj) : size(obj.size) {
        for (int i = 0; i < size; i++)</pre>
            array[i] = obj.array[i];
};
int main() {
    A x(100), y(10);
    x = y; // call "A::A(const AU)" copy constructor
```

```
struct A {
    int x;
    A(const A& obj) : x(obj.x) {} // user-defined copy constructor
                                  // -> delete default ctor
   A() {} // user-defined
};
struct B : A {
    int array[3];
   B() : A(), array{1, 2, 3} {}
// B(const B& obj) ... // implicitly-declared copy constructor
};
int main() {
   B x;
   By = x; // call "A" user-declared copy constructor, then
               // call "B" implicitly-declared copy constructor
// the value of y.array[0] is 1
   B z = B(); // ok, call "B" implicitly-declared copy ctor
                                                                  20/77
```

#### The copy constructor is used to:

- <u>Initialize</u> one object from another having the same type
  - Direct constructor
  - Assignment operator
- Copy an object which is passed by value as <u>input parameter</u> of a function
- Copy an object which is returned as <u>result</u> from a function

```
class A {
   public:
      A() {}
      A(const A& obj) {}
};

A c(b); // copy constructor (assignment)

void f(A a) {}

f(b); // copy constructor (argument)
      // copy constructor (return value)
A g() { return A(); };

A d = g(); // but see RVO optimization/77
}
```

In C++11, we can use the compiler-generated version of default/copy constructors

The **defaulted** default constructor has exactly the same effect as a user-defined constructor with empty body and empty initializer list

When compiler-generated constructor is useful:

- Define any constructor different from the <u>default</u> constructor disables implicitly-generated default constructor
- Default/copy constructors from classes are marked private

```
struct A {
  int v;
  A(int v1): v(v1){} // delete implicitly-defined default ctor
  A() = default; // now A has the default constructor
};
class B { // default/copy constructor marked private
public:
  B()
           = default; // default constructor now is public
  B(const B&) = default; // copy constructor now is public
};
             // "B() = default" equal to "B() : A() {}"
               // "B(const B&) = default" equal to
int main() { // "B(const B& b) : A(b.x) {}"
  B x, y;
  x.v = 4;
  y = x; // "y.x" has value 3
```

# Default vs. Copy Constructor

```
struct A{
   A() { std::cout << "default"; }
   A(const A&) { std::cout << "copy"; }
};
void f(A a) {}
void g(A& a) {}
A h() { return A(); } // default constructor "default"
int main() {
   A x, y; // default constructor "default"
   A z = x; // copy constructor "copy"
   x = y; // copy assignment operator (see next slides)
   f(x); // copy constructor "copy"
   g(x); // nothing
   A j = h(); // copy constructor, but RVO (copy elision)
```

# Destructor [dtor]

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

- A destructor will have exact same name as the class prefixed with a tilde  $(\sim)$
- A destructor does not have any return type
- Each object has exactly one destructor
- A destructor is useful for releasing resources before the class instance goes out of scope or it is deleted

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

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

# **RAII Idiom** - Resource Acquisition is Initialization

Holding a resource is a class invariant, and is tied to object lifetime.

 $\underline{ \mbox{ Implication 1: } C++ \mbox{ programming language does not require the garbage collector!!}$ 

<u>Implication2</u>: The programmer has the responsibility to manage the resources

### RAII Idiom consists in three steps:

- Encapsulate a resource into a class
- Use the resource via a local instance of the class
- The resource is automatically releases when the object gets out of scope

## \_\_\_\_\_

**Class Keywords** 

# this Keyword

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

The this const pointer an implicit variable added to any member function. In general, it is not needed

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 <u>all</u> objects of the class

- A static member function can access <u>only</u> static class members
- A non-static member function can access static class members
- All static data is initialized to zero/default useless if no user-initialization is provided
- It can be initialized (defined) only once
- Static data members cannot be inline initialized

```
struct A {
   int y = 2;
// static int x = 3; // compile error!! inline initialization
   static int x; // declaration
   static int z[];  // array declaration (incomplete type)
   static int g(); // function declaration
   static int f() { return x * 2; }
// static int f() { return y; } // error!! ("y" is non-static)
   int h() { return x; } // ok, ("x" is static)
};
int A::x = 3; // static variable definition
int A::z[] = {1, 2, 3};  // static array definition
int A::g() { return z[1]; } // static function definition
int main() {
   Aa;
   a.h(); // return 3;
   A::x++;
   cout << A::x; // print 4
   cout << A::f(); // print 8
```

#### Constant static members

If a static data member is declared as  $\verb|const||$  or  $\verb|constexpr||$ , then it can be initialized  $\underline{inline}|$  and only through a  $\underline{constant}|$  expression

```
constexpr int f(int a) { return a * 2}
struct A {
   static const int x = f(3); // ok
   static const float y;
                         // ok, declaration
// static const char* z = "ab"; // compile error!! "static const"
// static const int w[] = {1, 2}; // cannot be initilizaed "inline"
// static const float v = 3.3f; // with arrays, pointers,
                                   // and floating-point
   static constexpr char* z = "ab"; // ok, but must be initilized
   static constexpr int w[] = {1, 2}; // "inline"
   static constexpr float v = 3.3f; //
};
const float A::y = 3.3f; // ok, definition
                                                              32/77
```

#### **Const member functions**

**Const member functions**, or (**inspectors**), do not change the object state

Member functions without a const suffix are called *non-const member* functions or mutators

The compiler prevent callers from inadvertently mutating/changing the object data members with functions marked as const

The **const** keyword is part of the functions 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; }
   int get1() const { return x; }
   int get2() { return x; }
};
int main() {
  A a1:
   std::cout << a1.get1(); // ok
   std::cout << a1.get2(); // ok
  const A a2;
   std::cout << a2.get1(); // ok
// std::cout << a2.get2(); // compile error!! "a2" is const
```

## mutable Keyword

#### mutable

mutable members of const class instances are modifiable

Constant references or pointers to objects cannot modify that object in any way, except for data members marked mutable

- 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 your class interface

## using Keyword

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

```
class A {
protected:
   int x = 3;
};
class B : A {
public:
   using A::x;
};
int main() {
    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 A; // class declaration
class B {
    int y = 3; // private
    int f(A a);
};
class A {
    friend class B;
    int x = 3; // private
    int f(B b);
};
int B::f(A a) { return a.x; } // ok, B is friend of A
int A::f(B b) { return b.y; } // compile error!! (no symmetric)
class C : B {
    int f(A a) { return a.x; } // compile error!! (no inherited) 38/77
};
```

#### 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);
};

//'f' is not a member function of any class
int f(A a) {
   return a.x; // A is friend of f(A)
}
```

### delete Keyword

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(const A& a) = delete;
};

    // e.g. if a class uses heap memory
void f(A a) {} // the copy construct should be
    // written by the user -> expensive copy
int main() {
// f(A()); // compile error!! (marked as deleted)
}
```

# Polymorphism

## **Polymorphism**

## **Polymorphism**

In object-oriented programming, **polymorphism** (meaning "having multiple forms") is the capability of an object of *mutating* its behavior in accordance with a specific usage *context* 

- At <u>run-time</u>, objects of a derived class may be treated as objects of a base class
- Base classes may define and implement polymorphic (virtual) methods, and derived classes can override them, which means they provide their own implementations which are invoked at run-time depending on the context

**Overloading** is a form of static polymorphism (compile-time polymorphism) In C++ the term *polymorphic* is strongly associated with <u>dynamic polymorphism</u> (overriding)

```
struct A {
    void f() { std::cout << "A"; }</pre>
};
struct B : A { // B extends A (B does something more than A)
    void f() { std::cout << "B"; }</pre>
};
void g(A& a) { a.f(); } // accepts A and B
void h(B& b) { b.f(); } // accepts only B
int main() {
   A a; B b;
    g(a); // print "A"
    g(b); // print "A" not "B"!!!
// h(a); // compile error!!
   h(b); // print "B"
```

# **Function Binding**

Connecting the function call to the function body is called Binding

- In Early Binding or Static Binding or Compile-time Binding, the compiler identifies the type of object at compile-time
- In Late Binding or Dynamic Binding or Run-time binding, the compiler identifies the type of object at <u>run-time</u> and then matches the function call with the correct function definition

In C++ late binding can be can be achieved by declaring a virtual function

- Early binding: the program can jump directly to the function address
- Late binding: the program has to read the address held in the pointer and then jump to that address (less efficient since it involves an extra level of indirection)

```
struct A {
    virtual void f() { std::cout << "A"; }</pre>
}; // now "f()" is virtual, evaluated at run-time
struct B : A { // B extends A (B does something more than A)
   void f() { std::cout << "B"; }</pre>
}; // now "B::f()" override "A::f()", evaluated at run-time
void g(A\& a) \{ a.f(); \} // accepts A and B
void h(B& b) { b.f(); } // accepts only B
int main() {
    A a; B b;
    g(a); // print "A"
    g(b); // NOW, print "B"!!!
   h(b); // print "B"
```

#### When virtual works

```
struct A {
   virtual void f() { std::cout << "A"; }</pre>
   virtual void g() {} // see next slide
};
struct B : A {
   void f() { std::cout << "B"; }</pre>
};
void g(A a) { a.f(); }
void h(A& a) { a.f(); }
void p(A* a) { a->f(); }
int main() {
   Aa; Bb;
   a.f(); // print "A"
   b.f(); // print "B"
   A* ax1 = &b; // memory address conversion
   ax1->f(); // print "B"
   g(b); // print "A"
   h(b); // print "B"
   p(&b); // print "B"
```

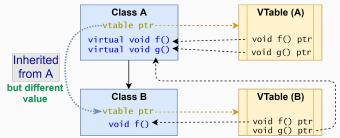
#### Virtual Table

#### vtable

The **virtual table** (vtable) is a lookup table of functions used to resolve function calls and support *dynamic dispatch* (late binding)

A virtual table contains one entry for each virtual function that can be called by objects of the class. Each entry in this table is simply a function pointer that points to the most-derived function accessible by that class

The compiler adds a *hidden* pointer to the base class which points to the virtual table for that class (sizeof considers the vtable pointer)



### **Virtual Method Notes**

virtual classes allocate one extra pointer (hidden)

```
class A {
   double x;
   virtual void f1();
   virtual void f2();
class B : A {
   virtual void f1();
sizeof(A) = sizeof(double) + 1 * sizeof(pointer) // 16
sizeof(B) = sizeof(A)
                                                  // 16
```

The virtual keyword is <u>not</u> <u>necessary</u> in <u>derived</u> classes, but it improves <u>readability</u> and clearly advertises the fact to the user that the function is virtual

## override Keyword

#### C + +11

#### override Keyword

The override keyword ensures that the function is virtual and is overriding a virtual function from a base class

It force the compiler to check the base class to see if there is a virtual function with this <u>exact</u> signature

override implies virtual (virtual should be omitted)

### final Keyword

#### C + +11

#### final Keyword

The **final** keyword prevent inheriting from classes or prevent overriding methods in derived classes

```
struct A {
   virtual void f(int a) final; // "final" method
};
struct B : A {
// void f(int a); // compile error!! f(int) is "final"
   void f(float a); // dangerous!! (still possible)
                     // "override" prevents these errors
};
struct C final { // cannot be extended
};
// struct D : C { // compile error!! C is "final"
// 7:
```

## Virtual Methods (Common Error 1)

# All classes with at least one virtual method should declare

a virtual destructor

```
struct A {
    ~A() { std::cout << "A"; } // <-- here the problem (not virtual)
    virtual void f(int a) {}
};
struct B : A {
    int* array;
    B() { array = new int[1000000]; }
    \simB() {
        delete[] array;
       std::cout << "B";
};
void g(A* a) {
    delete a; // call \sim A()
int main() {
    B* b = new B:
    g(b); // without virtual, \sim B() is not called
              // q() prints only "A" -> huge memory leak!!
```

## Virtual Methods (Common Error 2)

#### Don't call virtual methods in constructor and destructor

- Constructor: The derived class is not ready until constructor is completed
- Destructor: The derived class could be already destroyed

```
struct A {
   A() { f(); } // what instance is called? "B" is not ready
                  // it calls A::f(), even though A::f() is virtual
   virtual void f() { std::cout << "A"; }</pre>
};
struct B : A {
   B(): A() \{\} // call A() (A() call may be also implicit)
   void f() { std::cout << "B"; }</pre>
};
int main() {
   B b; // call B()
        // print "A", not "B"!!
```

## Virtual Methods (Common Error 3)

#### Don't use default parameters in virtual methods

Default parameters are not inherited

```
struct A {
    virtual void f(int i = 5) { std::cout << "A::" << i << "\n"; }</pre>
   virtual void g(int i = 5) { std::cout << "A::" << i << "\n"; }</pre>
};
struct B : A {
   void f(int i = 3) { std::cout << "B::" << i << "\n"; }</pre>
   void g(int i) { std::cout << "B::" << i << "\n"; }</pre>
};
int main() {
    A* a = new A();
    a->f(); // ok, print "A::5"
    B* b = new B();
    b->f(); // ok, print "B::3"
    A*zz = new B();
   zz->f(); // !!! print "B::5" // the virtual table of A
    A* ww = new B();
                                 // contains f(int \ i = 5) and
    ww->g(); // !!! print "B::5" // g(int i = 5) but it points
                                         // to B implementations
```

#### **Pure Virtual Method**

#### Pure Virtual Method

A **pure virtual method** is a function that <u>must</u> be implemented in derived classes (concrete implementation)

Pure virtual functions can have or not have a body

```
struct A {
    virtual void f(int x) = 0; // pure virtual without body
    virtual void g(int x) = 0; // pure virtual with body
};
void A::g(int x) {} // pure virtual implementation (body) for q()
struct B : A {
    void f(int x) {} // must be implemented
    void g(int x) {} // must be implemented
};
```

#### **Pure Virtual Method**

If a virtual method is not implemented in derived class, it is implicitly declared pure virtual

```
struct A {
    virtual void f(int x) = 0;
};
struct B : A {
// virtual void f(int x) = 0; // implicitly declared
};
struct C : B {
    void f(int x) override {} // implemented
};
int main() {
   Cc;
   c.f(3); // ok
```

#### **Abstract Class and Interface**

- A class is abstract if it has at least one pure virtual function
- A class is interface if it has <u>only</u> pure virtual functions and optionally (suggested) a virtual destructor. Interfaces don't have implementation or data

```
struct A { // INTERFACE
   virtual \sim A(); // to implement
   virtual void f(int x) = 0;
};
struct B { // ABSTRACT CLASS
  B() {} // abstract classes may have a contructor
  virtual void g(int x) = 0; // at least one pure virtual
protected:
  int x;
             // additional data
};
```

## Virtual Methods (Virtual Contructor)

Virtual Constructor is not supported in C++, but can be emulated by using other virtual methods

```
struct A {
  virtual \sim A() { } // A virtual destructor
  virtual A clone() const = 0; // Uses the copy constructor
  virtual A create() const = 0; // Uses the default constructor
};
struct B : A {
   B clone() const { // Covariant Return Types
       return B(*this); // (different from A::clone())
    }
   B create() const { // Covariant Return Types
       return B(); // (different from A::create())
};
void f(A& a) {
   B b = a.clone(): // ok
```

# **Operator Overloading**

# **Operator Overloading**

## **Operator Overloading**

**Operator overloading** is a specific case of polymorphism in which some operators are treated as polymorphic functions and have different behaviors depending on the type of its arguments

```
struct Point {
    int x, y;
    Point(int x1, int y1) : x(x1), y(y1) {}
    Point operator+(const Point& p) const {
        return Point(x + p.x, y + p.x);
};
int main() {
    Point a(1, 2);
    Point b(5, 3);
    Point c = a + b; // "c" is (6, 5)
```

# **Operator Overloading**

Syntax: operator@

Categories not in bold are rarely used in practice

Arithmetic:	+ - * \ % ++
Comparison:	== != < <= > >=
Bitwise:	& $^{\circ}$ $\sim$ << >>
Logical:	! &&
Compound assignment:	+= <<= *= , etc.
Subscript:	
Address-of, Reference, Dereferencing:	& -> ->* *
Memory:	<pre>new new[] delete delete[]</pre>
Comma:	2

#### **Notes**

Increment, Decrement: Prefix and Postfix notation

Array subscript operator accepts anything (not only integer)

```
struct A {
   int& operator[](char c); // read/write
   const int& operator[](char c) const; // read, "const A a;"
};
// A a; a['v'] = 3;
```

- Operators preserve <u>precedence</u> and <u>short-circuit</u> properties (e.g. ^)
- operator< is used in comparison procedures ( std::sort )  $_{59/7}$

# **Binary Operators**

## Binary Operators should be implemented as friend methods

```
class A {};
class B : public A {
    bool operator==(const A& x) { return true; }
};
class C : public A {
    friend bool operator == (const A& x, const A& y);
};
bool C::operator == (const A& x, const A& y); { return true; }
int main() {
    Aa; Bb; Cc;
    b == a: // ok
// a == b; // compile error!! // friend is useful to access
                               // private fields
    c == a; // ok
    a == c; // ok
```

## Special Operators (iostream operator<<)

The **stream operations** can be overloaded to perform input and output for user-defined types

```
#include <iostream>
struct Point {
    int x, y;
    // may be also directly defined inside Point
    friend std::ostream& operator<<(std::ostream& stream,
                                     const Point& point);
};
std::ostream& operator << (std::ostream& stream,
                         const Point& point) {
    stream << "(" << point.x << "," << point.y << ")";
    return stream;
int main() {
    Point point { 1, 2 };
    std::cout << point; // print "(1, 2)"
                                                                          61/77
```

# **Special Operators** (function call operator())

The **function call operator** is generally overloaded to create objects which behave like functions, or for classes that have a primary operation

Many algorithms (included std library) accept objects of such types to customize behavior

```
#include <iostream>
#include <numeric> // for std::accumulate
struct Multiply {
    int operator()(int a, int b) const {
        return a * b;
};
int main() {
    int array[] = { 2, 3,4 };
    int mul = std::accumulate(array, array + 3, 1, Multiply());
    std::cout << mul; // 24
```

# **Special Operators (conversion operator type())**

**Conversion operators** enable objects of a class to be either implicitly (coercion) or explicitly (casting) converted to another type

```
class MyBool {
    int a:
public:
    MyBool(int a1) : a(a1) {}
    operator bool()(const MyBool& b) const {
        return b.a == 0; // implicit return type
};
int main() {
    MyBool my_bool { 3 };
    bool b = my_bool; // b = false, call operator bool()
```

# Special Operators (conversion operator type() + explicit)

**Conversion operators** can be marked explicit to prevent implicit conversions:

```
struct A {
   operator bool() { return true; }
};
struct B {
    explicit operator bool() { return true; }
};
int main() {
   A a:
   B b;
    bool c = a;
// bool c = b; // compile error!! explicit
    bool c = static_cast<bool>(b);
```

## Special Operators (assignment operator=)

The assignment operator (operator=) is used to copy values from one object to another already existing object

```
#include <algorithm> //std::fill, std::copy
struct A {
    char* array;
    int size;
    A(int size1, char value) : size(size1) {
         array = new char[size];
         std::fill(array, array + size, value);
    \simA() { delete[] array; }
    A& operator=(const A& x) { .... } // see next slide
};
int main() {
     A obj(5, 'o'); // ["ooooo"]
     A a(3, 'b'); // ["bbb"]
    obj = a; //obj = ["bbb"]
```

# **Special Operators** (assignment operator=)

First option:

Second option (less intuitive):

```
A& operator=(A x) { // pass by value: need a copy constructor swap(this, x); // now we need a swap function for A return *this; // see next slide } // x is destroyed at the end
```

# Special Operators (assignment operator=)

Swap method:

```
friend void swap(A& x, A& y) {
   using std::swap;
   swap(x.size, y.size);
   swap(x.array, y.Array);
}
```

- why using std::swap? if swap(x, y) finds a better match, it will use that instead of std::swap
- why friend? it allows the function to be used from outside the structure/class scope

# C++ Special Objects

## **Aggregate**

An **aggregate** is a type which supports aggregate initialization (form of list-initialization) through curly braces syntax  $\{\}$ 

#### An aggregate is an array or a class with

- No user-provided constructors (all)
- No private/protected non-static data members
- No base classes
- No virtual functions (standard functions allowed)
- \* No  $\it brace-or-equal-initializers$  for non-static data members (until C++14)

#### No restrictions:

- Non-static data member (can be also not aggregate)
- Static data members

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# Aggregate (examples)

```
struct NotAggregate1 {
    NotAggregate1();  // No constructors
    virtual void f(); // No virtual functions
};
class NotAggregate2 : NotAggregate1 { // No base class
    int x; // x is private
};
struct Aggregate1 {
    int x;
    int y[3];
    int z { 3 };  // only C++14
};
struct Aggregate2 {
    Aggregate1() = default; // ok, defaulted constructor
    NotAggregate2 x; // ok, public member
    Aggregate2& operator=(const& Aggregate2 obj); // ok
private:
                                                // copy-assignment
    void f() {} // ok, private function (no data member)
};
```

```
struct Aggregate1 {
    int x;
    struct Aggregate2 {
        int a;
        int b[3];
   } y;
};
int main() {
    int array1[3] = { 1, 2, 3 };
    int array2[3] { 1, 2, 3 };
    Aggregate1 agg1 = { 1, { 2, { 3, 4, 5} } };
    Aggregate1 agg2 { 1, { 2, { 3, 4, 5} } };
    Aggregate1 agg3 = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
}
```

A **Trivial Class** is a class *trivial copyable* (supports memcpy)

#### Trivial copyable:

- No user-provided copy/move/default constructors and destructor
- No user-provided copy/move assignment operators
- No <u>virtual</u> functions (standard functions allowed) or virtual base classes
- No brace-or-equal-initializers for non-static data members
- All non-static members are trivial (recursively for members)

### No restrictions:

- Other user-declared constructors different from default
- Static data members
- Protected/Private members

```
struct NonTrivial1 {
    int y { 3 };  // brace-or-equal-initializers
    NonTrivial1(); // user-provided constructor
    virtual void f(); // virtual function
};
struct Trivial1 {
    Trivial1() = default; // defaulted constructor
   int x;
   void f();
private:
   int z; // ok, private
};
struct Trivial2 : Trivial1 { // base class is trivial
    int Trivial1[3];  // array of trivials is trivial
};
```

A **standard-layout class** is a class with the same memory layout of the equivalent C struct or union (useful for communicating with other languages)

#### Standard-layout class

- No virtual functions or virtual base classes
- Recursively on non-static members, base and derived classes
- Only one control access (public/protected/private) for non-static data members
- No base classes of the same type as the first non-static data member
- (a) No non-static data members in the *most derived* class and *at most one base* class with non-static data members
- (b) No base classes with non-static data members

```
struct StandardLayout1 {
    StandardLayout1(); // user-provided contructor
    int x:
   void f();  // non-virtual function
};
class StandardLayout2 : StandardLayout1 {
    int x, y; // both are private
    StandardLayout1 y; // can have members of base type
                      // if they are not the first
};
struct StandardLayout3 { } // empty
struct StandardLayout4 : StandardLayout2, StandardLayout3 {
    // can use multiple inheritance as long only
    // one class in the hierarchy has non-static data members
};
```

# Plain Old Data (POD)

$$C++11$$
,  $C++14$  Standard-Layout (s) + Trivial copyable (t)

- (t) No user-provided copy/move/default constructors and destructor
- (t) No user-provided copy/move assignment operators
- (t) No virtual functions or virtual base classes
- (t) No brace-or-equal-initializers for non-static data member
- (s) Recursively on non-static members, base and derived classes
- (s) Only one control access (public/protected/private) for non-static data members
- (s) No base classes of the same type as the first non-static data member
- (s)a No non-static data members in the *most derived* class and *at most one base* class with non-static data members
- (s)b No base classes with non-static data members

#### C++ std Utilities

C++11 provides three utilities to check if a type is POD, Trivial Copyable, Standard-Layout

- std::is\_pod checks for POD
- std::is\_trivially\_copyable checks for trivial copyable
- std::is\_standard\_layout checks for standard-layout

```
#include <type_traits>
struct A {
    int x;
private:
    int y;
};
int main() {
    std::cout << std::is_trivial_copyable<A>::value; // true
    std::cout << std::is_standard_layout<A>::value; // false
    std::cout << std::is_pod<A>::value; // false
}
```

# **Special Objects Hierarchy**

