COMP6771 Week 3.1

Object-Oriented Programming

Scope

- The scope of a variable is the part of the program where it is accessible
 - Scope starts at variable definition
 - Scope (usually) ends at next "}"
 - You're probably familiar with this even if you've never seen the term
- Define variables as close to first usage as possible
- This is the opposite of what you were taught in first year undergrad
 - Defining all variables at the top is especially bad in C++

Object Lifetimes

- An object is a piece of memory of a specific type that holds some data
 - All variables are objects
 - Unlike many other languages, this does not add overhead
- Object lifetime starts when it comes in scope
 - "Constructs" the object
 - Each type has 1 or more constructor that says how to construct it
- Object lifetime ends when it goes out of scope
 - "Destructs" the object
 - Each type has a different "destructor" which tells the compiler how to destroy it

Construction

- Eg. https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/container/vector/vector
- Generally use () to call functions, and {} to construct objects
- () can only be used for functions, and {} can be used for either
 - There are some rare occasions these are different
 - Sometimes it is ambiguous between a constructor and an initialize list

```
1 int main() {
2    std::vector<int> v11; // Calls 0-argument constructor. Creates empty vector.
3    // There's no difference between these:
4    // T variable = T{arg1, arg2, ...}
5    // T variable{arg1, arg2, ...}
6    std::vector<int> v12{}; // No different to first
7    std::vector<int> v13 = std::vector<int>(); // No different to the first
8    std::vector<int> v14 = std::vector<int>{}; // No different to the first
9
10    std::vector<int> v3{v2.begin(), v2.end()}; // constructed with an iterator
11    std::vector<int> v4{v3}; // Constructed off another vector
12
13    std::vector<int> v51{5, 2}; // Initialiser-list constructor {5, 2}
14    std::vector<int> v52(5, 2); // Count + value constructor (5 * 2 => {2, 2, 2, 2, 2})
15 }
```

Construction

- Also works for your basic types
 - But the default constructor has to be manually called
 - This potential bug can be hard to detect due to how function stacks work (variable may happen to be 0)
 - Can be especially problematic with pointers

```
int main() {
  int n; // not constructed (memory contains previous value)
  int n2{}; // Default constructor (memory contains 0)
  int n3{5};

  // This version is nice because it gives us an error.
  int n4{5.5};
  // You need to explictly tell it you want this.
  int n6{static_cast<int>(5.5)};

  // Not so nice. No error
  int n5 = 5.5;
}
```

Why are object lifetimes useful?

Can you think of a thing where you always have to remember to do something when you're done?

- What happens if we omit f.close() here (assume similar behavior to c/java/python)?
- How easy to spot is the mistake
- How easy would it be for a compiler to spot this mistake for us?
 - How would it know where to put the f.close()?

```
void ReadWords(const std::string& filename) {
   std::ifstream f{filename};
   std::vector<std::string> words;
   std::copy(std::istream_iterator<std::string>{f}, {}, std::back_inserter{words});
   f.close();
}
```

RAII

- Resource acquisition is initialisation
- A concept where we encapsulate resources inside objects
 - Acquire the resource in the constructor
 - Release the resource in the destructor
 - eg. Memory, locks, files
- Every resource should be owned by either:
 - Another resource (eg. smart pointer, data member)
 - The stack
 - A nameless temporary variable

Noexcept

- Exceptions will be covered in week 5, but the short version is that they are recoverable, but critical errors
- A noexcept-specified function tells the compiler not to generate recovery code
- An exception thrown in a noexcept function will terminate your program
- Use noexcept to guarantee that callers needn't worry about exceptionhandling.
- You can use noexcept to say that you don't mind your whole program ending if something goes wrong in this function.

Destructors

- Call when the object goes out of scope
 - What might this be handy for?
 - Does not occur for reference objects (why?)
- Marked noexcept (why?)
- Why might destructors be handy?

Destructors

- Called when the object goes out of scope
 - What might this be handy for?
 - Does not occur for reference objects (why?)
- Marked noexcept (why?)
- Why might destructors be handy?
 - Freeing pointers
 - Closing files
 - Unlocking mutexes (from multithreading)
 - Aborting database transactions

```
1 class MyClass {
2  ~MyClass() noexcept;
3 };
```

```
1 MyClass::~MyClass() noexcept {
2   // Definition here
3 }
```

What is OOP

- A class uses data abstraction and encapsulation to define an abstract data type:
 - Interface: the operations used by the user (an API)
 - Implementation: the data members the bodies of the functions in the interface and any other functions not intended for general use
 - Abstraction: separation of interface from implementation
 - Encapsulation: enforcement of this via information hiding
 - Example: Bookstore bookstore.h (interface), bookstore.cpp (implementation), user code (knows the interface).

C++ classes

- A class:
 - Defines a new type
 - Is created using the keywords class or struct
 - May define some members (functions, data)
 - Contains zero or more public and private sections
 - Is instantiated through a constructor
- A member function:
 - must be declared inside the class
 - may be defined inside the class (it is then inline by default)
 - may be declared const, when it doesn't modify the data members
- The data members should be private, representing the state of an object.

Abstraction and encapsulation

- Abstraction is separating the interface from the implementation
- Encapsulation is hiding details about class representation and implementation
 - An object's state can only be accessed/modified via the public interface

Advantages:

- Object state is protected from user-level errors
 - Users can't break invariants by changing something
- Class implementation may evolve over time
 - If you change a variable or a private function, users don't need to change anything

Incomplete types

- An incomplete type may only be used to define pointers and references, and in function declarations (but not definitions)
- Because of the restriction on incomplete types, a class cannot have data members of its own type.

```
1 struct Node {
2   int data;
3   // Node is incomplete - this is invalid
4   // This would also make no sense. What is sizeof(Node)
5   Node next;
6 };
```

 But the following is legal, since a class is considered declared once its class name has been seen:

```
1 struct Node {
2  int data;
3  Node* next;
4 };
```

Member access control

This is how we support encapsulation and information hiding in C++

```
1 class Foo {
   public:
   // Members accessible by everyone
     Foo();
    protected:
     // Will discuss this when we do advanced OOP in future weeks.
    private:
10
11
     void PrivateMemberFunction();
12
13
     int private data member ;
14
15
16
    public:
18 };
```

Classes and structs in C++

- A class and a struct in C++ are almost exactly the same
- The **only** difference is that:
 - All members of a struct are public by default
 - All members of a class are private by default
 - People have all sorts of funny ideas about this. This is the only difference
- We use structs only when we want a simple type with little or no methods and direct access to the data members (as a matter of style)
 - This is a semantic difference, not a technical one
 - A std::pair or std::tuple may be what you want, though

Friends

- A class may declare friend functions or classes
 - Those functions / classes are non-member functions that may access private parts of the class
 - This is, in general, a bad idea, but there are a few cases where it may be required
 - Nonmember operator overloads (will be discussing soon)
 - Related classes
 - A Window class might have WindowManager as a friend
 - A TreeNode class might have a Tree as a friend
 - Container could have iterator_t<Container> as a friend
 - Though a nested class may be more appropriate
 - Use friends when:
 - The data should not be available to everyone
 - There is a piece of code very related to this particular class

Class Scope

- Anything declared inside the class needs to be accessed through the scope of the class
 - Scopes are accessed using "::" in C++

```
1 // foo.h
2
3 class Foo {
4  public:
5    // Equiv to typedef int Age
6    using Age = int;
7
8    Foo();
9    Foo(std::istream& is);
10    ~Foo();
11
12    void MemberFunction();
13 };
```

```
1 // foo.cpp
2 #include "foo.h"
3
4 Foo::Foo() {
5 }
6
7 Foo::Foo(std::istream& is) {
8 }
9
10 Foo::~Foo() {
11 }
12
13 void Foo::MemberFunction() {
14 Foo::Age age;
15 }
```

This pointer

- A member function has an extra implicit parameter, named **this**
 - This is a pointer to the object on behalf of which the function is called
 - A member function does not explicitly define it, but may explicitly use it
 - The compiler treats an unqualified reference to a class member as being made through the this pointer.
 - The this pointer always has top-level const
- For the next few slides, we'll be taking a look at the BookSale example in the course repo

This pointer

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Const objects

- Member functions are by default only be possible on non-const objects
 - You can declare a const member function which is valid on const objects
 - A const member function may only modify mutable members
 - A mutable member should mean that the state of the member can change without the state of the object changing
 - Good uses of mutable members are rare
 - Mutable is not something you should set lightly
 - One example where it might be useful is a cache
- Let's make the BookSale class const correct

Are the following correct

Are the following correct?

```
1 Sales_data a{"Harry Potter"};
2 Sales_data b{"Harry Potter"};
3
4 a.combine(b).print(std::cout);
5 a.print(std::cout).combine(b);
```

Are the following correct

Are the following correct?

```
1 Sales_data a{"Harry Potter"};
2 Sales_data b{"Harry Potter"};
3
4 a.combine(b).print(std::cout);
5 a.print(std::cout).combine(b);
```

- The combine/print is fine
- The print/combine fails since print returns a const reference through which we cannot call a nonconst member
- Four possible ways to get it to compile. Discuss.
 - Make combine a const function
 - Make print a non-const function
 - Add an overload to print for non-const
 - Change the user code

Constructors

- Constructors define how class data members are initalised
- A constructor has the same name as the class and no return type
- Default initalisation is handled through the default constructor
- Unless we define our own constructors the compile will declare a default constructor
 - This is known as the synthesized default constructor

```
for each data member in declaration order
if it has an in-class initialiser
Initialise it using the in-class initialiser
else if it is of a built-in type (numeric, pointer, bool, char, etc.)
do nothing (leave it as whatever was in memory before)
else
Initialise it using its default constructor
```

The synthesized default constructor

- Is generated for a class only if it declares no constructors
- For each member, calls the in-class initialiser if present
 - Otherwise calls the default constructor (except for trivial types like int)
- Cannot be generated when any data members are missing both in-class initialisers and default constructors

```
1 class A {
2   int a_;
3 };
```

```
1 class C {
2   int i{0}; // in-class initialiser
3   int j; // Untouched memory
4   A a;
5   // This stops default constructor
6   // from being synthesized.
7   B b;
8 };
```

```
1 class B {
2   B(int b): b_{b} {}
3   int b_;
4 };
```

Constructor initialiser list

- The initialisation phase occurs before the body of the constructor is executed, regardless of whether the initialiser list is supplied
- A constructor will:
 - 1. Construct all data members **in order of member declaration** (using the same rules as those used to initialise variables)
 - 2. Execute the body of constructor: the code may **assign** values to the data members to override the initial values

Constructor initialiser list

```
1 class NoDefault {
     NoDefault(int i);
   class B {
     // Constructs s with value "Hello world"
     B(int& i): s {"Hello world"}, const {5}, no default{i}, ref {i} {}
     // Doesn't work - constructed in order of member declaration.
     B(int& i): s {"Hello world"}, const {5}, ref {i}, no default{ref } {}
     B(int& i) {
10
11
12
      // Extra work done (but may be optimised out).
13
       s = "Hello world";
14
      // Fails to compile
15
16
       const string = "Goodbye world";
       ref = i;
17
18
       // This is fine, but it can't construct it initially.
       no default = NoDefault{1};
19
20
21
22
     std::string s ;
     // All of these will break compilation if you attempt to put them in the body.
23
24
     const int const ;
25
     NoDefault no default;
     int& ref ;
26
27 };
```

Delegating constructors

- A constructor may call another constructor inside the initialiser list
 - Since the other constructor must construct all the data members, do not specify anything else in the constructor initialiser list
 - The other constructor is called completely before this one.
 - This is one of the few good uses for default values in C++
 - Default values may be used instead of overloading and delegating constructors

Static members

- Both data and function members may be declared static
- These are essentially globals defined inside the scope of the class
 - Use static members when something is associated with a class, but not a particular instance
 - Static data has global lifetime (program start to program end)

```
// For use with a database
class User {
    static std::string table_name;
    static std::optional<User> query(const std::string& username);

    void commit();
    std::string username;
}

User user = *User::query("Alice");
user.username = "Bob"
User::commit(); // fails to compile (commit is not static)
user.commit();

std::cout << User::table_name;
std::cout << User::username; // Fails to compile</pre>
```

Explicit type conversions

- If a constructor for a class has 1 parameter, the compiler will create an implicit type conversion from the parameter to the class
- This **may** be the behaviour you want

```
1 class Age {
2   Age(int age);
3 };
4
5 // Explicitly calling the constructor
6 Age age{20};
7 // Attempts to use an integer
8 // where an age is expected.
9 // Implicit conversion done.
10 // This seems reasonable.
11 Age age = 20;
```

```
class IntVec {
    // This one allows the implicit conversion
    IntVec(int length): vec_(length, 0);

    This one disallows it.
    explicit IntVec(int length): vec_(length, 0);

    std::vector<int> vec_;
    };

// Explictly calling the constructor.
IntVec container{20};

// Implicit conversion.
// Probably not what we want.
IntVec container = 20;
```

OOP design

- There are several special functions that we must consider when designing classes
- For each of these functions, ask yourself:
 - Is it sane to be able to do this?
 - Does it have a well-defined, obvious implementation
- If the answer to either of these is no, write "<function declaration> = delete;"
- Then ask yourself "is this the behaviour of the compiler-synthesized one"
 - If so, write "<function declaration> = default;"
 - If not, write your own definition
- Let's discuss these questions for these types over the next few slides:
 - std::vector
 - Mutex
 - Pointer

Copying constructor

- Constructs one object to be a copy of another
- The compiler-generated copy-constructor just calls each member's copy constructor in order of declaration

```
1 class T {
2  T(const T&);
3 };
```

Copying assignment

- Like a copy constructor, but the destination is already constructed
- Requires destroying the old data, and constructing the new data
- Copy-and-swap idiom is an elegant way of doing this
 - It constructs then destructs. Since construction might fail, it should go first
 - Requires move assignment to be defined
- Takes in an Ivalue
- Compiler-generated one performs memberwise copy-assignment operator

```
1 class T {
2    // A copy-assignment operator
3    T& operator=(const T& original);
4
5    // The copy-and-swap idiom
6    // This is also a copy-assignment operator
7    T& operator=(T copy) {
8        std::swap(*this, copy);
9        return *this;
10    }
11 };
```

```
1 MyClass base;
2 MyClass copy_constructed = base;
3
4 MyClass copy_assigned;
5 copy_assigned = base;
```

Rvalue references

- Rvalue references look like T&& (Ivalue is T&)
- An Ivalue denotes an object whose resource cannot be reused
 - Most objects (eg. variable, variable[0])
 - Once the Ivalue reference goes out of scope, it may still be needed
- An rvalue denotes an object whose resources can be reused
 - eg. Temporaries (MyClass object in f(MyClass{}))
 - When someone passes it to you, they don't care about it once you're done with it

```
1 void f(MyClass&& x);
```

- "The object that x binds to is YOURS. Do whatever you like with it, no one will care anyway"
- Like giving a copy to f... but without making a copy.

Rvalue references

```
1 void inner(int&& value) {
2     ++value;
3     std::cout << value << '\n';
4 }
5
6 void outer(int&& value) {
7     inner(value); // This fails? Why?
8     std::cout << value << '\n';
9 }
10
11 int main() {
12     f1(1); // This works fine.
13     int i;
14     f2(i); // This fails because i is an lvalue.
15 }</pre>
```

- An rvalue reference formal parameter means that the value was disposable from the caller of the function
 - If outer modified value, who would notice / care?
 - o The caller (main) has promised that it won't be used anymore
 - If inner modified value, who would notice / care?
 - The caller (outer) has never made such a promise.
 - An rvalue reference parameter is an Ivalue inside the function

std::move

```
1 // Looks something like this.
2 T&& move(T& value) {
3   return static_cast<T&&>(value);
4 }
```

- Simply converts it to an rvalue
 - This says "I don't care about this anymore"
 - All this does is allow the compiler to use rvalue reference overloads

```
1 void inner(int&& value) {
     ++value;
     std::cout << value << '\n';</pre>
 6 void outer(int&& value) {
   inner(std::move(value));
   // Value is now in a valid but unspecified state.
    // Don't access variables that were moved from, except to reconstruct them.
10
11
     std::cout << value << '\n';</pre>
12 }
13
14 int main() {
15
     f1(1); // This works fine.
   int i;
16
17
     f2(std::move(i));
18 }
```

Move constructor

- Always should be declared noexcept
- Unless otherwise specified, objects that have been moved from are in a valid but unspecified state
- Will likely be faster than the copy constructor
- Compiler-generated one performs memberwise move-construction

```
1 class T {
2  T(T&&) noexcept;
3 };
```

Move assignment

- Always should be declared noexcept
- Like the move constructor, but the destination is already constructed
- Compiler-generated one performs memberwise move-assignment

```
1 class T {
2   T& operator=(T&&) noexcept;
3 };
```

Object lifetimes

To create safe object lifetimes in C++, we always attach the lifetime of one object to that of something else

- A variable in a function is tied to its scope
- A data member is tied to the lifetime of the class instance
- An element in a std::vector is tied to the lifetime of the vector
- A heap object should be tied to the lifetime of whatever object created it
- Examples of bad programming practice
 - An owning raw pointer is tied to nothing
 - A C-style array is tied to nothing
- **Strongly recommend** watching the first 44 minutes of Herb Sutter's cppcon talk "Leak freedom in C++... By Default"

Constructing wrapper types

```
1 class MyClass {
    MyClass();
    MyClass(int);
    MyClass(const MyClass&);
    MyClass(MyClass&&);
    int GetValue();
 7 };
 9 // calls default constructor
10 std::optional<MyClass> opt1 = std::make optional<MyClass>();
11 // calls int constructor
12 std::optional<MyClass> opt2 = std::make optional<MyClass>(5);
13 // calls copy constructor
14 std::optional<MyClass> opt3 = *opt1;
15 // calls move constructor
16 std::optional<MyClass> opt4 = std::move(*opt1);
17 opt4->GetValue();
18
19 // Similar for make unique and make shared, but have to manually move / copy values
20 std::shared ptr<MyClass> sp1 = std::make shared<MyClass>();
21 std::shared ptr<MyClass> sp2 = sp1;
22 std::shared ptr<MyClass> sp3 = std::move(sp1);
23 MyClass* p2 = sp1.get();
24
25 std::unique ptr<MyClass> up1 = std::make unique<MyClass>(*sp1);
26 std::unique ptr<MyClass> up2 = *up1; // But have to manually move / copy values like above
27 std::unique ptr<MyClass> up3 = up1; // Fails (no copy constructor)
28 std::unique ptr<MyClass> up4 = std::move(up1);
29 MyClass* p1 = up1.get();
30 up1->GetValue();
```

Namespaces

- A namespace encapsulates a set of functions, classes, and other namespaces
- If I have a really big piece of code, with several external pieces of code, what are the chances of two functions / classes having the same name somewhere in the code?
- You've already seen one namespace used a lot, without knowing it (std)

```
1 // path/to/file.h
2
3 namespace path {
4 namespace to {
5
6 class MyClass {
7 }
8
9 void MyFn();
10
11 } // namespace to
12 } // namespace path
```

```
1 // main.cpp
2 #include "path/to/file.h"
3
4 int main() {
5    path::to::MyClass myClass;
6    path::to::MyFn();
7 }
```

```
1 // path/to/file.cpp
2
3 namespace path {
4 namespace to {
5
6 MyFn() {
7 }
8
9 } // namespace to
10 } // namespace path
```

The using keyword

- Several ways to use the using keyword
 - These are the two most important ways

Using declaration

```
1 #include "path/to/file.h"
2
3 int main() {
4    // Imports a single thing
5    // into the current scope.
6    using path::to::MyClass;
7    MyClass myClass;
8 }
```

Type alias

```
1 // Far cleaner than typedef, and the
2 // arguments are the right way around!
3 int main() {
4    using intvec = std::vector<int>;
5    intvec vec;
6
7    C::iterator_t it;
8 }
9
10 class IteratorC {
11 }
12
13 class C {
14    using iterator_t = IteratorC;
15 }
```

ADL

- Due to a feature of C++ called "Argument dependent lookup", use the using declaration for some specific functions
 - This is a complex topic to be discussed in later weeks
- This is only relevant when using non-standard types
- Use this for the following functions
 - std::swap
 - std::[cr]begin
 - std::[cr]end
 - std::empty
 - std::size
 - std::data

```
1 #include "myclass.h"
2
3 using std::begin;
4 using std::end;
5 using std::swap;
6
7 int main() {
8   std::vector<MyClass> vec{{}, {}};
9   swap(vec[0], vec[1]);
10   for (auto it = begin(vec); it != end(vec); ++it) {
11    std::cout << *it << '\n';
12   }
13 }</pre>
```

Argument dependent lookup

- When looking up an unqualified function, the compiler first looks at the namespace of the type of the arguments
 - If it contains a matching function declaration, it uses that
 - Otherwise, it falls back to the normal function lookup
- Use ADL for std::swap, std::begin, and std::end
 - You may write "using std::swap;"
 - Do not write "using namespace std;"

```
1 // myclass.h
2
3 namespace ns {
4
5 void MyClass {
6 }
7
8 void swap(MyClass&, MyClass&);
9
10 }
```

```
1 #include "myclass.h"
2
3 int main() {
4   ns::MyClass v1, v2;
5   std::swap(v1, v2); // Calls std::swap
6   {
7     // Import std::swap to the current scope
8     using std::swap;
9     int i, j;
10     swap(i, j); // calls std::swap
11     swap(v1, v2); // calls ns::swap
12   }
13 }
```