

תכנות מתקדם ושפת C++ מצגת 3

בניית מחלקה

נושאים

- מחלקה
- בניית המחלקה וקטור
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מחלקה

- מחלקה היא הרחבה של struct שבשפת C
- במחלקה ניתן להגדיר בנוסף למשתנים של struct גם פונקציות חברות במחלקה (Member Functions)
- **מחלקה מאפשרת:**
- **הפשטת נתונים (Data Abstraction)** התעלמות מפרטי המימוש של העצם והתרכזות במאפיינים שלו
- **כימוס (Encapsulation)** הסתרת פרטי המימוש מהמשתמש
- ניתן לקבוע הרשאות גישה לחברי המחלקה:
- חברי מחלקה המוגדרים private נגישים רק לפונקציות חברות במחלקה
- חברי מחלקה המוגדרים public נגישים גם לשאר פונקציות התכנית

בניית המחלקה וקטור

- וקטור הוא אחד המיכלים בספריה הסטנדרטית והשימושי ביותר
- וקטור בדומה למערך המובנה בשפה מכיל סדרה של נתונים מאותו סוג, אך יש לו תכונות נוספות, לדוגמה: אפשר להגדילו, להעתיקו, לדעת את גודלו
- פעולות שכיחות בוקטור:

```
vector<int> v = {1,2,3,4,5} // initialize with a list  
v[i] = 7; // access element i  
v.push_back(10); // add an element at end
```



מעבר על וקטור באמצעות אינדקס

```
int main() { // compute average temperatures
    vector<double> temps;
    double temp;
    // cin >> temp returns a reference to cin
    // if end of input it is converted to false
    while (cin >> temp) // idiom
        temps.push_back(temp);
    double sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < temps.size(); ++i)
        sum += temps[i];
    cout << "Average: " << sum/temps.size() << '\n';
}
```

מעבר על וקטור עם הוספות של C++11

```
// use list initialization
vector<int> v = {10,20,30,40,50,60,70,80,90,100};
for (vector<int>::size_type i = 0; i != 5; ++i)
    cout << v[i] << " ";

// use range for to process all the elements
for (int i : v) cout << i << " ";

// let auto deduce the type of i
for (auto i : v) sum += i;

// use decltype instead of vector<int>::size_type
for (decltype(v.size()) i = 5; i != 10; ++i)
    cout << v[i] << " ";
```

מעבר על וקטור באמצעות איטרטור

```
vector<int> v = {10, 20, 30, 40, 50};
```

```
vector<int>::iterator iter = v.begin();
```

```
decltype(v.end()) end_iter = v.end();
```

```
while (iter != end_iter) {
```

```
    cout << *iter << endl;
```

```
    ++iter;
```

```
}
```

```
for (auto it = v.cbegin(); it != v.cend(); ++it)
```

```
    cout << *it << endl;
```

מימוש בסיסי של וקטור

```
class Vector {
    int sz;          // the size
    double* elem;    // a pointer to the elements
public:
    using size_type = unsigned long;
    Vector(): sz{0}, elem{nullptr} {} //default constructor
    Vector(int s) // constructor (s is the element count)
        :sz{s}, elem{new double[s]} // initialize
        { for (int i = 0; i<sz; ++i) elem[i] = 0.0; }
    ~Vector()        // destructor
        { delete[] elem; }
    int size() { return sz; };
    Vector v1;       // use default constructor, not Vector v1();
    Vector v2(10);   // create a vector with 10 elements
```


nullptr

- We try to ensure that a pointer always points to an object, so that dereferencing it is valid
- When we don't have an object to point to, we give the pointer the value `nullptr`
- In older code, **0** or **NULL** is typically used, but . . .

```
void func(int n); void func(char *s); func( NULL );  
// which function is called? (int)
```

- using **nullptr** eliminates confusion between integers and pointers

```
func( nullptr ); // func(char *s) is called
```

```
double* pd = nullptr;
```

```
int x = nullptr; // error : nullptr is a pointer
```

בנאי ברירת מחדל (= default)

- If our class does not explicitly define any constructors, the compiler will implicitly define the default constructor for us
- It default-initializes the members
- Objects of builtin or compound type (such as arrays and pointers) that are defined inside a block have **undefined** value
- we can ask the compiler to generate the default constructor for us by writing = default

```
class Vector {  
    Vector() = default;  
}
```

- We are defining this constructor only because we want to provide other constructors

בנאי שמבצע המרה

- A constructor that takes a single argument defines a conversion from its argument type to its class, for example:

```
class complex {  
    complex(double, double);  
    complex(double); // defines double-to-complex  
                      // conversion  
    // . . .  
};  
  
complex z = complex{1.2, 3.4};  
z = 5.6; // OK, converts 5.6 to complex(5.6, 0)  
         // and assigns to z
```

explicit

- However, implicit conversions may cause unexpected effects:

```
Vector(int); // defined constructor with int parameter
Vector v = {2, 5, 8};
v = 10; // converts 10 to Vector(10) and assigns to v
void do_something(vector v);
do_something(7); // call with a vector of 7 elements
```

- A constructor defined **explicit** provides only the usual construction semantics and **not the implicit conversions**

```
class Vector {
    explicit Vector(int);
Vector v(10); // OK, explicit
v = 40; // error, no int-to-vector conversion
```

אתחול וקטור

- Initialize to default and then assign:

```
Vector v1(2); // error prone  
v1[0] = 1.2; v1[1] = 2.4; v1[2] = 7.8;
```

- Use push_back:

```
Vector v2; // tedious  
v2.push_back(1.2); v2.push_back(2.4); v2.push_back(7.8);
```

- push_back is useful for input:

```
Vector read(istream& is) {  
    Vector v; for(double d; is >> d;) v.push_back(d); return v  
}
```

- Best use { } delimited list of elements:

```
Vector v3 = {1.2, 7.89, 12.34}; // C++11
```

בנאי לאתחול מרשימה

- A { } delimited list of elements of type T is presented to the programmer as an object of type `initializer_list<T>`

```
class Vector {  
    int sz;           // the size  
    double* elem;     // a pointer to the elements  
public:  
    Vector(initializer_list<double> lst) // constructor  
        :sz{lst.size()}, elem{new double[sz]}  
        { copy( lst.begin(),lst.end(),elem); }  
        // copy using standard library algorithm  
};  
Vector v1(3);         // three elements  
vector v2{3};         // one element  
vector v3 = {3};      // one element
```

בנאי העתקה

- A constructor is the copy constructor if its first parameter is a reference to the class:

```
Vector(const Vector& rhs) ; // copy constructor
```

- copy constructor is used direct initialization and copy initialization:

```
string s(dots); // direct initialization
```

```
string dots(10, '.'); // direct initialization
```

```
string null_book = "99999"; // copy initialization
```

```
string nines = string(100, '9'); // copy initialization
```

- Copy initialization happens also when passing an object to a function or returning an object from a function

- if we use an initializer that requires conversion by an explicit constructor:

```
vector<int> v1(10); // ok: direct initialization
```

```
vector<int> v2 = 10; // error: constructor is explicit
```

```
void f(vector<int>); // f's parameter is copy initialized
```

```
f(10); // error: can't use an explicit constructor
```

```
f(vector<int>(10)); // ok: construct a temporary vector
```

בנאי העתקה (ברירת מחדל)

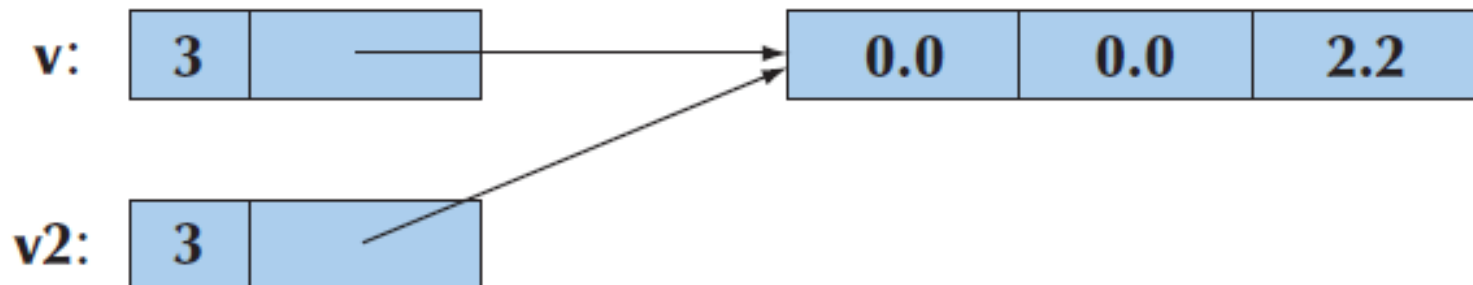
- The default meaning of copy is member-wise copy
- For the vector **pointer member** it means that after:

```
Vector v2 = v; // use copy constructor
```

- We have:

```
v.elem == v2.elem
```

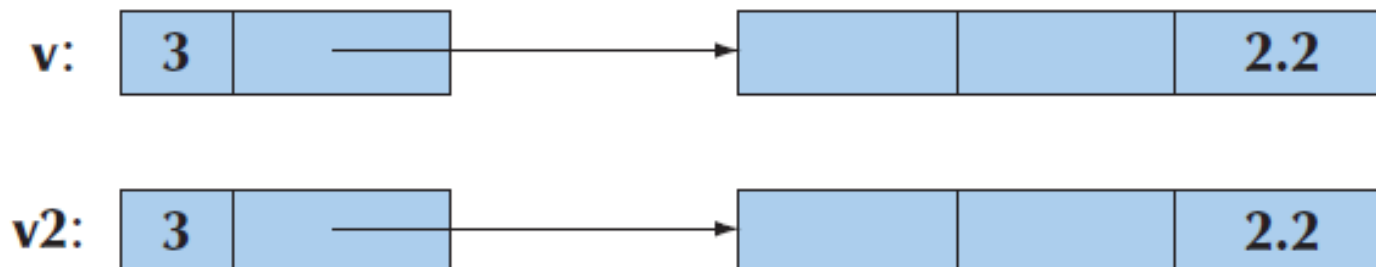
- **v2** doesn't have a **copy** of **v** elements as expected , but **shares v** elements
- When the destructors for **v** and **v2** are implicitly called, memory will be **freed twice**



בנאי העתקה שמעתיק כראוי

- The copy constructor **allocates** memory for the elements before copying

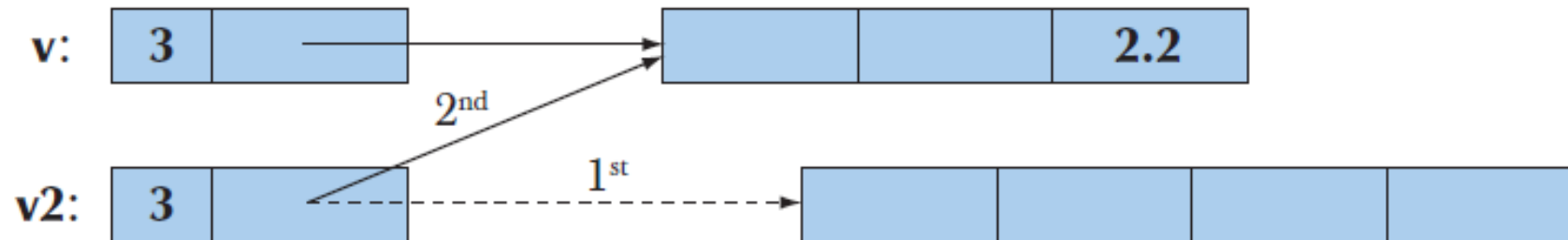
```
class Vector {  
    int sz;  
    double* elem;  
public:  
    Vector(const Vector& rhs) ; // copy constructor  
        :sz{rhs.sz}, elem{new double[rhs.sz]};  
    { copy(rhs.elem, rhs.elem+sz, elem); }
```



השמת העתקה (ברירת מחדל)

- As with copy initialization, the default meaning of copy assignment is member-wise copy
- Assignment will cause a **double deletion** and **memory leak**

```
Vector v(3);  
v.set(2, 2.2);  
Vector v2(4);  
v2 = v;
```

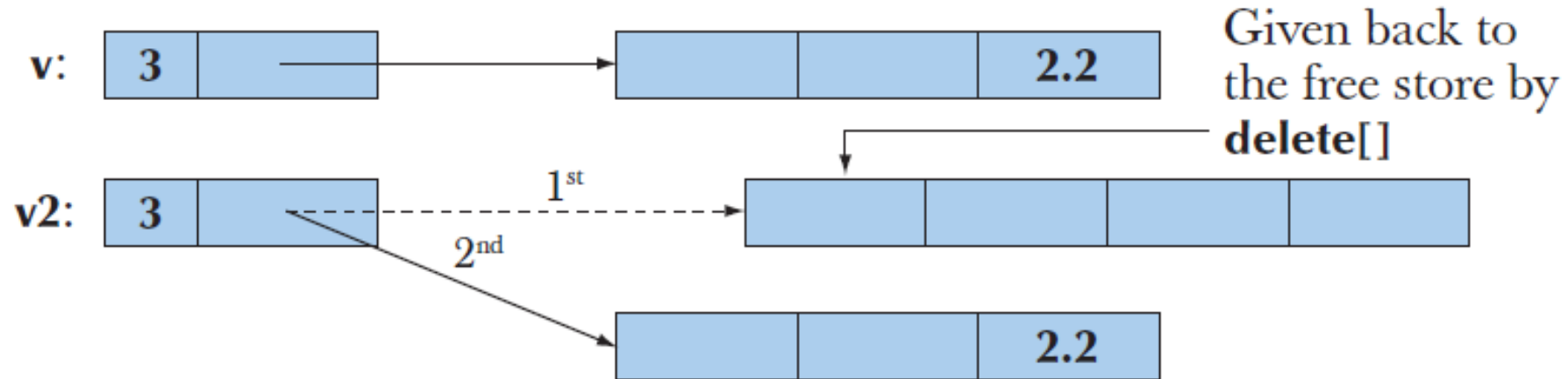


השמת העתקה שמעתיקה כראוי

```
class Vector {  
    Vector& operator=(const Vector&) ; // copy assignment  
    // . . .  
    Vector& Vector::operator=(const Vector& rhs)  
    {  
        double* p = new double[rhs.sz]; // allocate new space  
        copy(rhs.elem, rhs.elem+rhs.sz, p); // copy elements  
        delete[] elem; // deallocate old space  
        elem = p; // now we can reset elem  
        sz = rhs.sz;  
        return *this; // return a self-reference  
        // To be consistent with built-in types  
    }  
}
```

העתקה כראוי

- We make a copy of the elements from the source vector
- **Then** we free the old elements from the target vector
- Finally, we let elem point to the new elements
- The case of **self assignment** (`v = v;`) is handled correctly



- **Shallow copy** copies only a pointer so that the two pointers now refer to the same object
- **Deep copy** copies what a pointer points to so that the two pointers now refer to distinct objects

מניעת העתקה (= delete)

- we can prevent copies by defining the copy constructor and copy assignment operator as deleted functions:

```
struct NoCopy {  
    NoCopy() = default; // use the synthesized default constructor  
    NoCopy(const NoCopy&) = delete; // no copy  
    NoCopy &operator=(const NoCopy&) = delete; // no assignment  
    ~NoCopy() = default; // use the synthesized destructor  
    // other members  
};
```

lvalue and rvalue

- An **lvalue** can appear on the left side of an assignment operator
 - It is an object that **can be modified**
- An **rvalue** appears on the right side of an assignment expression
 - It is an expression that identifies something **temporary** that **can not be modified**
- In the assignment statements:

`y = x + 2;` // `y` is an lvalue, `x + 2` is an rvalue

`z = 7;` // `z` is an lvalue, `7` is an rvalue

`s = f(x);` // `f(x)` is an rvalue

`x + 2 = y;` // Error

`7 = z;` // Error

`f(x) = s;` // Error

rvalue references

- It is illegal to assign a temporary rvalue to a reference variable:

```
int& r = x + 3;    // Error  
int i = 42;  
int &r = i;    // ok: r refers to i
```

- The following function call is illegal:

```
int f(int& n) { return 10 * n; }  
x = f(x + 2);
```

- C++ **does** have an **rvalue reference**:

```
int&& r = x + 3;    // OK: note the two ampersands  
int &&rr = i;    // error: cannot reference an lvalue
```

- The following function call is OK:

```
int g(int&& n) { return 10 * n; }  
x = g(x + 2);
```

העמסת פונקציות עם & ו- &&

```
void ref(int& n) {  
    cout << "reference parameter: " << n << endl;  
}  
void ref(int&& n) {  
    cout << "rvalue reference parameter: " << n << endl;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int x = 10;  
    ref(x); // lvalue  
    ref(x + 10); // rvalue  
    ref(30); // rvalue  
    ref(std::move(x)); // lvalue cast to rvalue  
}
```


בנאי הזזה

```
Vector::Vector(Vector&& a)
    :sz{a.sz}, elem{a.elem} // move a.elem to elem
{
    a.sz = 0; // make a the empty vector
    a.elem = nullptr;
}
```

```
vector fill(istream& is) {
    vector res;
    for (double x; is>>x; ) res.push_back(x);
    return res;
}
```

```
vector vec = fill(cin);
```

- Copying `res` out of `fill()` and into `vec` could be expensive, the **move constructor** is implicitly used to implement the return

השמת הזזה

```
Vector& Vector::operator=(Vector&& a)
{
    delete[] elem; // deallocate old space
    elem = a.elem; // move a.elem to elem
    sz = a.sz;
    a.elem = nullptr; // make a the empty vector
    a.sz = 0;
    return *this; // return a self-reference
}
```

- If the caller passes an **rvalue**, the compiler generates code that invokes the **move constructor** or **move assignment** operator
- We want to avoid making a copy of the temporary

פעולות נדרשות במחלקה שתופסת משאבים

- A class needs a **destructor** if it **acquires resources**:
 - The obvious example is **memory** that you get from the free store (using **new**) and have to give back to the free store (using **delete** or **delete[]**)
 - Other resources are **files** (if you open one, you also have to close it), **locks**, **thread handles**, and **sockets** (for communication)
- If a class has a **destructor**, it is likely to need all the following functions:

<code>X(Sometype) ;</code>	<code>// ordinary constructor</code>
<code>X() ;</code>	<code>// default constructor</code>
<code>X(const X&) ;</code>	<code>// copy constructor</code>
<code>X(X&&) ;</code>	<code>// move constructor</code>
<code>X& operator=(const X&) ;</code>	<code>// copy assignment</code>
<code>X& operator=(X&&) ;</code>	<code>// move assignment</code>
<code>~X() ;</code>	<code>// destructor</code>

[] העמסת

```
double operator[] (int i) {  
    return elem[i];  
}
```

- However, letting the subscript operator return a value enables **reading** but not **writing** of elements:

```
Vector v(10);  
double x = v[2]; // fine  
v[3] = x;        // error, v[3] is not an lvalue
```

- We **have to return a reference** from the subscript operator:

```
double& operator[] (int n)  
{  
    return elem[n];  
}
```

העמסת [] לפי `const`

- The subscript operator defined so far has a problem, it cannot be invoked for a **const** vector.
- Only **const** member functions can be invoked for **const** objects
- For example:

```
void f(const vector& cv)
{
    double d = cv[1]; // Error, but should be fine
    cv[1] = 2.0;      // Error, as it should be
}
```

- The solution is to provide a version that is a **const** member function:

```
double& operator[] (int n);           // for non-const
const double& operator[] (int n) const; // for const
```

+ כללי העמסת

- we define the arithmetic and relational operators as nonmember functions
 - in order to allow conversions for either the left- or right-hand operand
- These operators need not change the state of either operand
 - so the parameters are ordinarily references to const
- Classes that define an arithmetic operator generally define the corresponding compound assignment operator as well
- It is usually more efficient to define the arithmetic operator to use compound assignment:

```
Sales_data  
operator+(const Sales_data &lhs, const Sales_data &rhs)  
{  
    Sales_data sum = lhs; // copy from lhs into sum  
    sum += rhs; // add rhs into sum  
    return sum;  
}
```

+ העמסת

```
Vector operator+(const Vector& a, const Vector& b)
{
    if (a.size() != b.size())
        throw Vector_size_mismatch{};
    Vector res(a.size());
    for (int i=0; i!=a.size(); ++i) res[i]=a[i]+b[i];
    return res;
}
```

```
Vector r;
r = x + y + z;
```

כללי העמסת אופרטור הפלט <<

- The first parameter of an output operator is a **reference** to a **nonconst** ostream object
 - **nonconst** because writing to the stream changes its state.
 - **reference** because we cannot copy an ostream object
- The second parameter should be a **reference** to **const** to avoid copying and to avoid change
- To be consistent with other output operators, operator<< **returns** its ostream parameter
- output operators **should not print a newline** in order to let users print descriptive text along with the object on the same line
- IO Operators must be **nonmember** functions, the left-hand operand cannot be an object of our class
- IO operators usually need to read or write the nonpublic data members, so they usually must be declared as **friends**

העמסת אופרטור הפלט <<

```
ostream& operator<<(ostream& os, const Vector& vec)
{
    os << '{';
    int n = vec.size();
    if (n > 0) { // Is the vector non-empty?
        os << vec[0]; // Send first element
        for (int i = 1; i < n; i++)
            os << ',' << vec[i];
    }
    os << '}';
    return os;
}

cout << vec1 << vec2 << endl;
```

>> העמסת אופרטור הקלט

- The first parameter is a reference to the stream from which it is to read
- The second parameter is a reference to the (nonconst) object into which to read, because the operator reads data into this object
- The operator usually returns a reference to its given stream

```
class Sales_data {  
    std::string bookNo;  
    unsigned units_sold = 0;  
    double price = 0;  
    double revenue = 0.0;
```

```
istream &operator>>(istream &is, Sales_data &item)  
{  
    is >> item.bookNo >> item.units_sold >> item.price;
```

>> כללי העמסת אופרטור הקלט

- Input operators must deal with the possibility that the input might fail
- we check once after reading all the data and before using those data:

```
if (is) // check that the inputs succeeded
    item.revenue = item.units_sold * item.price;
else
    item = Sales_data();
```

- If there was an error, we reset the entire object to the empty Sales_data

איטורים

```
class Vector {
    int sz;           // the size
    double* elem;     // a pointer to the elements
public:
    typedef double* iterator;
    typedef const double* const_iterator;

    iterator begin() { return elem; }
    const_iterator cbegin() const { return elem; }
    iterator end() { return elem+sz; }
    const_end cend() const { return elem+sz; }

    // . . .
};
```

תבנית

- We don't want just vectors of doubles, we want to specify the element type

```
template<typename T>
```

```
class Vector {
```

```
    T* elem; // elem points to an array of type T
```

```
    int sz;
```

```
public:
```

```
    explicit Vector(int s);
```

```
    T& operator[](int i);
```

```
    const T& operator[](int i) const;
```

```
};
```

```
template<typename T>
```

```
Vector<T>::Vector(int s) { . . . elem = new T[s]; . . . }
```

חריגות exceptions

- One effect of the modularity of a program, is that the point where a run-time error can be detected is separated from the point where it can be handled
- Consider a Vector, what ought to be done when we try to access an element that is out of range for the vector
 - The writer of Vector doesn't know what the user would like to do in this case
 - The user of Vector cannot consistently detect the problem
- The solution is for the Vector implementer to detect the attempted out-of-range access and then tell the user about it

throw

- `Vector::operator[]` can detect an attempted **out-of-range** access and throw an **out_of_range** exception

```
double& Vector::operator[](int i)
{
    if (i < 0 || i >= size())
        throw out_of_range{"Vector::operator[]"};
    return elem[i];
}
```

- The throw transfers control to a handler for exceptions of type **out_of_range** in some function that called `Vector::operator[]`
- The **out_of_range** type is defined in the standard library

try and catch

- The implementation will unwind the function call stack as needed to get back to the context of the caller that has expressed interest in handling that kind of exception
- The standard library does not throw `out_of_range` for subscript operator, but throws for `at()`

```
try { // exceptions are handled below
    // v[v.size()] = 7; // returns an undefined value
    v.at(v.size) = 7    // reports a bad index
}

catch (out_of_range) { // oops: out_of_range error
    // ... handle range error ...
}
```


push_back()

```
void Vector::push_back(const double& val)
{
    double* p = new double[sz+1];
    copy(elem, elem+sz, p);
    p[sz] = val;
    delete[] elem;
    elem = p;
    ++sz;
}
```

- Problem, for each `push_back()` we have to **copy** the whole vector

```
v.push_back(7); // need more space
```

```
v.push_back(8); // need more space
```

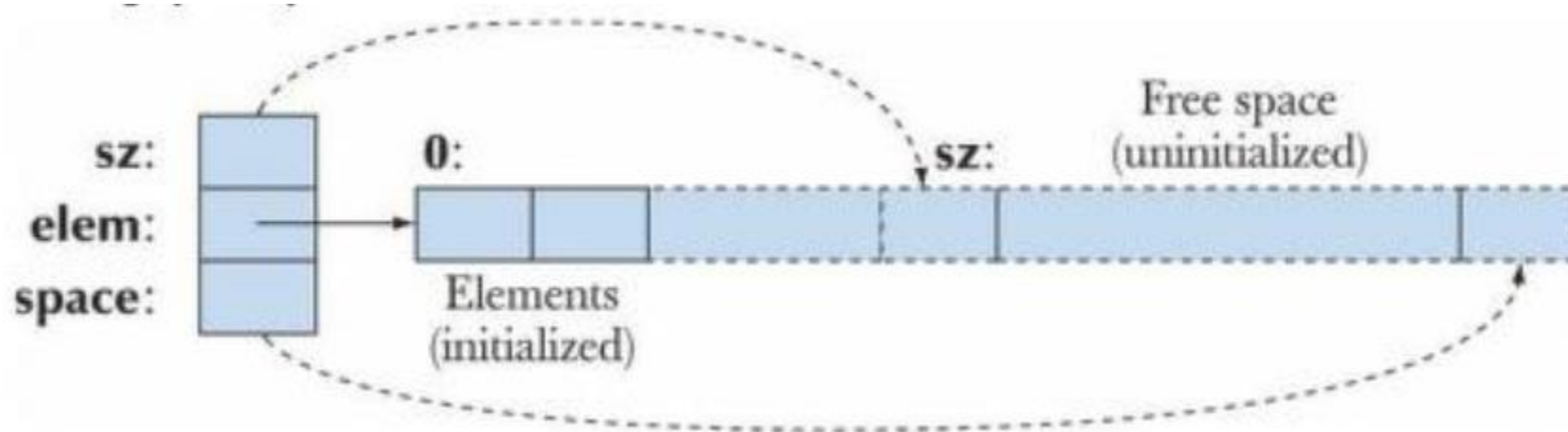
push_back()

- To avoid copying, we have to allocate extra space and keep track of both the **number of elements** and **amount of space** allocated

```
class vector {  
    int sz;          // one beyond the last vector element  
    int space;       // one beyond the last allocated element  
    double* elem;    // a pointer to the elements  
};
```

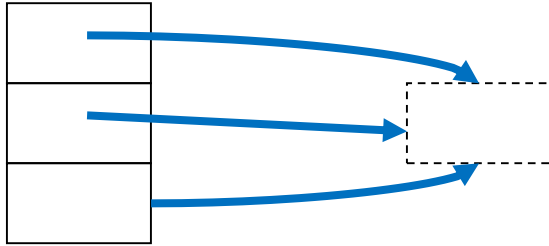
- The default constructor creates an empty vector:

```
vector():sz{0}, space{0}, elem{nullptr} {}
```

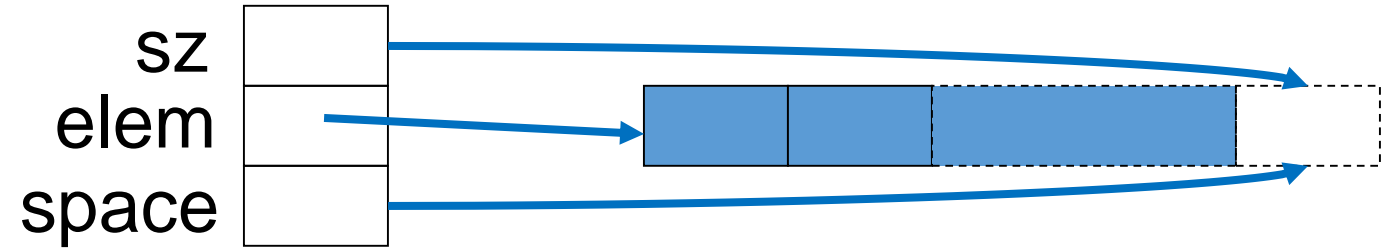


ייצוג וקטור

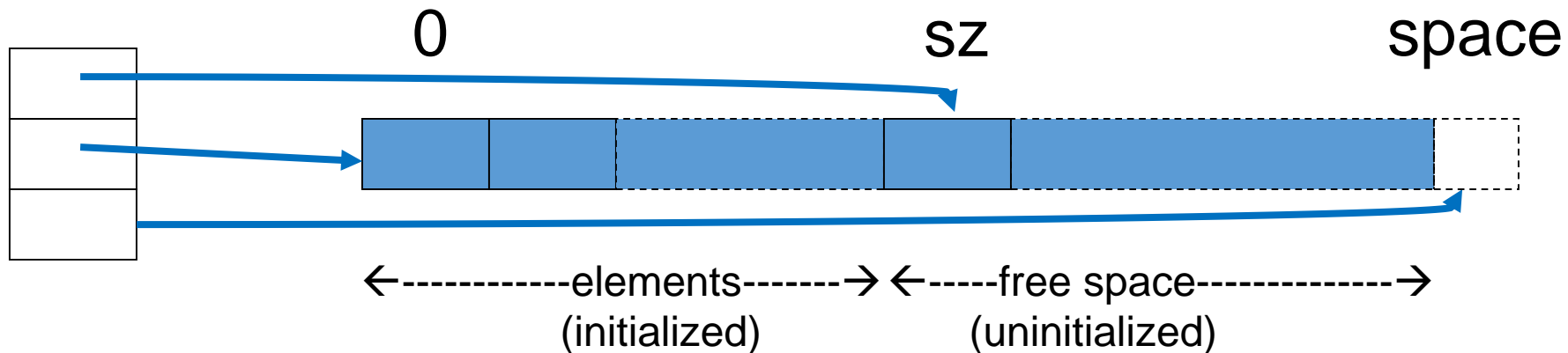
An empty vector (no free store use)



A vector(n) (no free space)



A vector(n) (free space)



push_back()

```
void Vector::reserve(int newalloc) {  
    if (newalloc <= space) return;  
    double* p new double[newalloc];  
    for (int i=0; i<sz; ++i) p[i] = elem[i];  
    delete[] elem;  
    elem = p;  
    space = newalloc;  
}  
void Vector::push_back(double val) {  
    if (space == 0) reserve(8);  
    else if (sz == space) reserve(2*space);  
    elem[sz] = val;  
    ++sz;  
}
```