

Classes and Structs

© University of Linz, Institute for System Software, 2004 published under the Microsoft Curriculum License

Contents of Classes and Structs



```
class C {
... fields, constants ...  // for object-oriented programming
... methods ...
... constructors, destructors ...

... properties ...  // for component-based programming
... events ...
... indexers ...  // for convenience
... overloaded operators ...

... nested types (classes, interfaces, structs, enums, delegates) ...
}
```

Classes



```
class Stack {
  int[] values;
  int top = 0;
  public Stack(int size) { ... }
  public void Push (int x) {...}
  public int Pop() {...}
}
```

- Objects are allocated on the heap (classes are reference types)
- Objects must be created with *new*

```
Stack s = new Stack(100);
```

- Classes can inherit from *one* other class (single code inheritance)
- Classes can implement multiple interfaces (multiple type inheritance)

Structs



```
struct Point {
  int x, y;
  public Point(int x, int y) { this.x = x; this.y = y; }
  public MoveTo (int x, int y) {...}
}
```

- Objects are allocated on the <u>stack</u> not on the heap (structs are value types)
 - + efficient, low memory consumption, no burden for the garbage collector.
 - live only as long as their container (not suitable for dynamic data structures)
- Can be allocated with new

```
Point p; // fields of p are not yet initialized
Point q = new Point();
```

Fields must not be initialized at their declaration

```
struct Point {
  int x = 0;  // compilation error
}
```

- Parameterless construcors cannot be declared
- Can neither inherit nor be inherited, but can implement interfaces

Visibility Modifiers (excerpt)



public visible where the declaring namespace is known

- Members of interfaces and enumerations are public by default.
- Types in a namespace (classes, structs, interfaces, enums, delegates) have default visibility *internal* (visible in the declaring assembly)

private

only visible in the declaring class or struct

- Members of classes and structs are private by default (fields, methods, properties, ..., nested types)

Example

Access to private Members



```
class B {
   private int x;
class C {
   private int x;
   public void F (C c) {
                           // method may access private members of this.
     x = ...;
                           // method of class C may access private members
     C.X = ...;
                            // of some other C object.
      Bb = ...;
      b.x = ...;
                           // error! method of class C must not access private members
                           // of some other class.
```

Fields and Constants



class C {

int value = 0;

Field

- initialization is optional
- initialization value must be computable at compile time
- fields of a struct must not be initialized

const long size = ((long)int.MaxValue + 1) / 4;

Constant

- must be initialized
- value must be computable at compile time

readonly DateTime date;

Read-only field

- must be initialized in their declaration or in a constructor
- value needs not be computable at compile time
- value must not be changed later
- occupies a memory location (like a field)

}

Access within C

... value ... size ... date ...

Access from other classes

```
C c = new C();
... c.value ... c.size ... c.date ...
```

Static Fields and Constants



Belong to a class, not to an object

```
class Rectangle {
    static Color defaultColor;  // once per class
    static readonly int scale;  // -- " --
    int x, y, width,height;  // once per object
    ...
}
```

Access within the class

Access from other classes

```
... defaultColor ... scale ... ... Rectangle.defaultColor ... Rectangle.scale ...
```

Constants must not be declared static

Methods



Example

```
class C {
  int sum = 0, n = 0;

public void Add (int x) {
    sum = sum + x; n++;
}

public float Mean() {
    return (float)sum / n;
}
// function (must return a value)
```

Access from class C

Access from other classes

```
Add(3); C c = new C(); float x = Mean(); c.Add(3); float x = c.Mean();
```

Static Methods



Operations on class data (static fields)

```
class Rectangle {
    static Color defaultColor;

    public static void ResetColor() {
        defaultColor = Color.white;
    }
}
```

Access from Rectangle

Access from other classes

ResetColor();

Rectangle.ResetColor();

Parameters



value parameters (input parameters)

```
void Inc(int x) {x = x + 1;}
void F() {
   int val = 3;
   Inc(val); // val == 3
}
```

ref parameters (input/output parameters)

```
void Inc(ref int x) { x = x + 1; }
void F() {
   int val = 3;
   Inc(ref val); // val == 4
}
```

out parameters (output parameters)

```
void Read (out int a, out int b) {
    a = Console.Read(); b = Console.Read();
}
void F() {
    int first, next;
    Read(out first, out next);
}
```

- "call by value"
- formal parameter is a copy of the actual parameter
- actual parameter can be an expression
- "call by reference"
- formal parameter is an alias for the actual parameter
 (address of actual parameter is passed)
- actual parameter must be a variable
- similar to ref parameters but no value is passed by the caller.
- must not be used in the method before it got a value.

Variable Number of Parameters



Last *n* parameters may be a sequence of values of a certain type.

```
keyword
params

void Add (out int sum, params int[] val) {
    sum = 0;
    foreach (int i in val) sum = sum + i;
}
```

params cannot be used for ref and out parameters

Usage

```
Add(out sum, 3, 5, 2, 9); // sum == 19
```

Another example

void Console.WriteLine (string format, params object[] arg) {...}

Method Overloading



Methods of a class may have the same name

- if they have different numbers of parameters, or
- if they have different parameter types, or
- if they have different parameter kinds (value, ref/out)

Examples

```
void F (int x) {...}
void F (char x) {...}
void F (int x, long y) {...}
void F (long x, int y) {...}
void F (ref int x) {...}
```

Calls

```
int i; long n; short s; F(i);  // F(int x) F('a');  // F(char x) F(i, n);  // F(int x, long y) F(n, s);  // F(long x, int y); F(i, s);  // ambiguous between F(int x, long y) and F(long x, int y); => compilation error F(i, i);  // ambiguous between F(int x, long y) and F(long x, int y); => compilation error
```

Overloaded methods must not differ only in their function types, in the presence of *params* or in *ref* versus *out*!

Method Overloading



Overloaded methods must not differ only in their function types

```
int F() {...}
string F() {...}

F(); // if the return value is ignored, the name F cannot be resolved
```

The following overloading is illegal as well

Reason for this restriction lies in the implementation of the CLR:

The CIL does not contain the address of the called method but a description of it, which is identical for both cases.

Constructors for Classes



Example

```
class Rectangle {
    int x, y, width, height;
    public Rectangle (int x, int y, int w, int h) {this.x = x; this.y = y; width = w; height = h; }
    public Rectangle (int w, int h) : this(0, 0, w, h) {}
    public Rectangle () : this(0, 0, 0, 0) {}
    ...
}
Rectangle r1 = new Rectangle();
Rectangle r2 = new Rectangle(2, 5);
```

Constructors can be overloaded.

Rectangle r3 = new Rectangle(2, 2, 10, 5);

- A constructor may call another constructor with *this* (specified in the constructor head, not in its body as in Java!).
- Before a constructor is called, fields are possibly initialized.

Default Constructor



If no constructor was declared in a class, the compiler generates a parameterless default constructor :

If a constructor was declared, no default constructor is generated:

```
class C {
  int x;
  public C(int y) { x = y; }
}

C c1 = new C();  // compilation error
C c2 = new C(3);  // ok
```

Constructor for Structs



Example

```
struct Complex {
    double re, im;
    public Complex(double re, double im) { this.re = re; this.im = im; }
    public Complex(double re) : this(re, 0) {}
    ...
}
```

```
Complex c0; // c0.re and c0.im uninitialized Complex c1 = new Complex(); // c1.re == 0, c1.im == 0 Complex c2 = new Complex(5); // c2.re == 5, c2.im == 0 Complex c3 = new Complex(10, 3); // c3.re == 10, c3.im == 3
```

- For <u>every</u> struct the compiler generates a parameterless default constructor (even if there are other constructors).
 - The default constructor zeroes all fields.
- Programmers must not declare a parameterless constructor for structs (for implementation reasons of the CLR).
- A constructor of a struct must initialize <u>all</u> fields.

Static Constructors



Both for classes and for structs

```
class Rectangle {
    ...
    static Rectangle() {
        Console.WriteLine("Rectangle initialized");
    }
}
struct Point {
    ...
    static Point() {
        Console.WriteLine("Point initialized");
}
```

- Must be <u>parameterless</u> (also for structs) and have <u>no public</u> or *private* modifier.
- There must be <u>just one</u> static constructor per class/struct.
- Is invoked <u>once</u> before this type is used for the first time.
- Used for initialization of static fields.

Destructors



```
class Test {
    ~Test() {
    ... cleanup actions ...
  }
}
```

- Correspond to finalizers in Java.
- Called for an object before it is removed by the garbage collector.
- Can be used, for example, to close open files.
- Base class destructor is called automatically at the end.
- No public or private.
- Is dangerous (object resurrection) and should be avoided
- Structs must not have a destructor (reason unknown).

Properties



Syntactic sugar for get/set methods

```
class Data {
    FileStream s;

public string FileName {
    set {
        s = new FileStream(value, FileMode.Create);
    }
    get {
        return s.Name;
    }
}
```

Used as "smart fields"

```
Data d = new Data();

d.FileName = "myFile.txt";  // calls set("myFile.txt")

string s = d.FileName;  // calls get()
```

JIT compilers often inline get/set methods → no efficiency penalty.

Properties (continued)



Properties can also be static

Properties work also with assignment operators

```
class C {
    private static int size;

public static int Size {
    get { return size; }
    set { size = value; }
  }
}

C.Size = 3;
C.Size += 2; // Size = Size + 2;
```

Properties (continued)



get or set can be omitted

```
class Account {
  long balance;

public long Balance {
    get { return balance; }
}

x = account.Balance; // ok
account.Balance = ...; // compiler reports an error
```

Why are properties a good idea?

- Allow read-only and write-only fields.
- Can validate a field when it is accessed.
- Interface and implementation of the data can differ.
- Substitute for fields in interfaces.

Indexers



Custom-defined operator for indexing a collection

```
class File { type of the FileStream s: indexed expression (always this) of the index value

public int this [int index] { get { s.Seek(index, SeekOrigin.Begin); return s.ReadByte(); } set { s.Seek(index, SeekOrigin.Begin); s.WriteByte((byte)value); } }
```

Usage

```
File f = ...;
int x = f[10]; // calls f.get(10)
f[10] = 'A'; // calls f.set(10, 'A')
```

- get or set method can be omitted (write-only / read-only)
- indexers can be overloaded with different index types
- .NET library has indexers for *string* (s[i]), *ArrayList* (a[i]), etc.

Indexers (another example)



```
class MonthlySales {
    int[] apples = new int[12];
    int[] bananas = new int[12];
    public int this[int i] {
                                     // set method omitted => read-only
       get { return apples[i-1] + bananas[i-1]; }
    public int this[string month] {
                                     // overloaded read-only indexer
       get {
          switch (month) {
             case "Jan": return apples[0] + bananas[0];
             case "Feb": return apples[1] + bananas[1];
MonthlySales sales = new MonthlySales();
Console.WriteLine(sales[1] + sales["Feb"]);
```

Operator Overloading



Static method for implementing a certain operator

```
struct Fraction {
  int x, y;
  public Fraction (int x, int y) {this.x = x; this.y = y; }

public static Fraction operator + (Fraction a, Fraction b) {
    return new Fraction(a.x * b.y + b.x * a.y, a.y * b.y);
  }
}
```

Usage

```
Fraction a = new Fraction(1, 2);
Fraction b = new Fraction(3, 4);
Fraction c = a + b; // c.x == 10, c.y == 8
```

- The following operators can be overloaded:
 - arithmetic: +, (unary and binary), *, /, %, ++, relational: ==, !=, <, >, <=, >=
 bit operators: &, |, ^
 others: !, ~, >>, <<, true, false
- Must always return a function result
- If == (<, <=, true) is overloaded,!= (>=, >, false) must be overloaded as well.

Overloading of && and //



In order to overload && and ||, one must overload &, |, true and false

```
class TriState {
   int state; // -1 == false, +1 == true, 0 == undecided
   public TriState(int s) { state = s; }
   public static bool operator true (TriState x) { return x.state > 0; }
   public static bool operator false (TriState x) { return x.state < 0; }
   public static TriState operator & (TriState x, TriState y) {
      if (x.state > 0 && y.state > 0) return new TriState(1);
      else if (x.state < 0 | y.state < 0) return new TriState(-1);
      else return new TriState(0);
   public static TriState operator | (TriState x, TriState y) {
      if (x.state > 0 || y.state > 0) return new TriState(1);
      else if (x.state < 0 && y.state < 0) return new TriState(-1);
      else return new TriState(0);
```

true and false are called implicitly

```
TriState x, y;

if (x) ... => if (TriState.true(x)) ...

x = x & y; => x = TriState.false(x) ? x : TriState.&(x, y);

x = x || y; => x = TriState.true(x) ? x : TriState.|(x, y)
```

Conversion Operators



Implicit conversion

- If the conversion is always possible without loss of precision
- e.g. long = int;

Explicit conversion

- If a run time check is necessary or truncation is possible
- e.g. int = (int) long;

Conversion operators for user-defined types

```
class Fraction {
   int x, y;
   ...
   public static implicit operator Fraction (int x) { return new Fraction(x, 1); }
   public static explicit operator int (Fraction f) { return f.x / f.y; }
}
```

Usage

```
Fraction f = 3; // implicit conversion, f.x == 3, f.y == 1 int i = (int) f; // explicit conversion, i == 3
```

Nested Types



```
class A {
   private int x;
   B b:
   public void Foo() { b.Bar(); }
   public class B {
      Aa;
      public void Bar() { a.x = ...; ... a.Foo(); }
class C {
   A a = new A();
   A.Bb = new A.B();
```

For auxiliary classes that should be hidden

- Inner class can access all members of the outer class (even private members).
- Outer class can access only public members of the inner class.
- Other classes can access an inner class only if it is public.

Nested types can also be structs, enums, interfaces and delegates.

Differences to Java



- No anonymous types like in Java
- Different default visibility for members

C#: private
Java: package

• Different default visibility for types

C#: internal Java: package