

Objects in C++

Classes and Data Abstraction

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C++ Object System

- Object-oriented features
 1. Classes and Data Abstraction
 2. Encapsulation
 3. Inheritance
 - Single and multiple inheritance
 - Public and private base classes
 4. Objects, with dynamic lookup of virtual functions
 5. Subtyping
 - Tied to inheritance mechanism

Abstraction

- **Abstraction** means that implementation details are hidden inside a program unit with a *specific interface*.
- For objects, **the interface** consists of a set of public functions (or methods) that manipulate hidden data.
- Abstraction involves restricting access to a program component according to its specified interface.

C++: Classes and Data Abstraction

- C++ supports Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)
- OOP models real-world objects with software counterparts
- OOP encapsulates data (attributes) and functions (behavior) into packages called objects
- Objects have the property of information hiding

C++: Classes and Data Abstraction

- Objects communicate with one another across interfaces
- The interdependencies between the classes are identified
 - makes use of
 - a part of
 - a specialisation of
 - a generalisation of
 - etc.

C and C++

- C programmers concentrate on writing functions
- C++ programmers concentrate on creating their own **user-defined types** called **classes**
- Classes in C++ are a natural evolution of the C notion of **struct**

A User-Defined Type **Time** with a Struct

```
// Create a structure, set its members, and print it
#include <iostream.h>
```

```
struct Time {      // structure definition
    int hour;       // 0-23
    int minute;     // 0-59
    int second;     // 0-59
};
```

```
void printMilitary(const Time &); // prototype
void printStandard(const Time &); // prototype
```

```
main()
{
    Time dinnerTime;    // variable of new type Time

    // set members to valid values
    dinnerTime.hour = 18;
    dinnerTime.minute = 30;
    dinnerTime.second = 0;

    cout << "Dinner will be held at";
    printMilitary(dinnerTime);    // 18:30:00
    cout << " military time,\nwhich is ";
    printStandard(dinnerTime);    // 6:30:00 PM
    cout << " standard time." << endl;
```



```
// set members to invalid values
dinnerTime.hour = 29;
dinnerTime.minute = 73;
dinnerTime.second = 103;

cout << "\nTime with invalid values: ";
printMilitary(dinnerTime); // 29:73:103 bad values!
cout << endl;

return 0;
} // end main
```

```
// Print the time in military format
void printMilitary(const Time &t)
{
    cout << (t.hour < 10 ? "0" : "") << t.hour << ":"
    << (t.minute < 10 ? "0" : "") << t.minute << ":"
    << (t.second < 10 ? "0" : "") << t.second;
}
```

```
// Print the time in standard format
void printStandard(const Time &t)
{
    cout << ((t.hour == 0 || t.hour == 12) ? 12 :
t.hour % 12)
    << ":" << (t.minute < 10 ? "0" : "") << t.minute
    << ":" << (t.second < 10 ? "0" : "") << t.second
    << (t.hour < 12 ? " AM" : " PM");
}
```

Comments

- Initialization is not required --> can cause problems
- A program can assign **bad** values to members of Time
- If the implementation of the `struct` is changed, all the programs that use the `struct` must be changed [No “interface”]

A Time Abstract Data Type with a Class

```
#include <iostream.h>
// Time abstract data type (ADT) definition
class Time {
public:
    Time();                // default constructor
    void setTime(int, int, int);
    void printMilitary();
    void printStandard();
private:
    int hour;              // 0 - 23
    int minute;            // 0 - 59
    int second;            // 0 - 59
};
```

```
// Time constructor initializes each data member to zero.
// No return value
// Ensures all Time objects start in a consistent state.
Time::Time() { hour = minute = second = 0; }

// Set a new Time value using military time.
// Perform validity checks on the data values.
// Set invalid values to zero (consistent state)
void Time::setTime(int h, int m, int s)
{
    hour = (h >= 0 && h < 24) ? h : 0;
    minute = (m >= 0 && m < 60) ? m : 0;
    second = (s >= 0 && s < 60) ? s : 0;
}
```

```
// Print Time in military format
```

```
void Time::printMilitary()
```

```
{
```

```
    cout << (hour < 10 ? "0" : "") << hour << ":"  
    << (minute < 10 ? "0" : "") << minute << ":"  
    << (second < 10 ? "0" : "") << second;
```

```
}
```

```
// Print time in standard format
```

```
void Time::printStandard()
```

```
{
```

```
    cout << ((hour == 0 || hour == 12) ? 12 : hour % 12)  
    << ":" << (minute < 10 ? "0" : "") << minute  
    << ":" << (second < 10 ? "0" : "") << second  
    << (hour < 12 ? " AM" : " PM");
```

```
}
```

```
// Driver to test simple class Time
main()
{
    Time t;    // instantiate object t of class Time

    cout << "The initial military time is ";
    t.printMilitary(); // 00:00:00
    cout << "\nThe initial standard time is ";
    t.printStandard(); // 12:00:00 AM

    t.setTime(13, 27, 6);
    cout << "\n\nMilitary time after setTime is ";
    t.printMilitary(); // 13:27:06
    cout << "\nStandard time after setTime is ";
    t.printStandard(); // 1:27:06 PM
}
```

```
t.setTime(99, 99, 99);  
// attempt invalid settings  
cout << "\n\nAfter attempting invalid settings:\n"  
      << "Military time: ";  
t.printMilitary(); // 00:00:00  
cout << "\nStandard time: ";  
t.printStandard(); // 12:00:00 AM  
cout << endl;  
  
return 0;  
} // end main
```


Output

- The initial military time is 00:00:00
- The initial standard time is 12:00:00 AM

- Military time after setTime is 13:27:06
- Standard time after setTime is 1:27:06 PM

- After attempting invalid settings:
 - Military time: 00:00:00
 - Standard time: 12:00:00 AM

Comments

- `hour`, `minute`, and `second` are **private** data members. They are normally **not** accessible outside the class. **[Information Hiding]**
- Use a **constructor** to initialize the data members. This ensures that the object is in a consistate state when created.
- Outside functions set the values of data members by calling the `setTime` method, which provides **error checking**.

Classes as User-Defined Types

- Once the class has been defined, it can be used as a type in declarations as follows:

```
Time sunset           //object of type Time
Time arrayOfTimes[5]  //array of Time objects
Time *pointerToTime   //pointer to a Time object
```

Using Constructors

- Constructors can be overloaded, providing several methods to initialize a class.

Interface

```
Time();           // default constructor  
Time(int hr);  
Time(int hr, int min, int sec);
```

Implementation

```
Time::Time() { hour = minute = second = 0; }  
Time::Time(int hr) { setTime(hr, 0, 0); }  
Time::Time(int hr, int min, int sec)  
    { setTime(hr, min, sec); }
```

Using Constructors

```
Time t1;
```

```
Time t2(08); // class_name object_name(values)
```

```
Time t2 = Time(08);
```

```
Time t2 = 08;
```

```
Time t2 = (Time) 08; // cast
```

```
Time t3(08,15,04);
```

```
Time t3 = Time(08,15,04);
```

Using Constructors and dynamic objects

```
Type_name * pointer_name;  
Pointer_name = new Type_name;
```

where Type is a Class or a primitive type

```
Int *ptr;  
ptr = new int;
```

```
Time *t;  
t = new Time;           // Time() is invoked  
t = new Time(08);       // Time(int) is invoked  
t = new Time(08,15,04); // Time(int, int, int)  
                        // is invoked
```

Using Constructors and array of objects

```
Time arrayOfTimes[5]; //Time() is invoked
```

Explicit array initialization:

```
//Only the first four elements are initialized  
//Time() (if any) is invoked for the other elements  
Time arrayOfTimes[8] = { 3, Time(05), Time(),  
    Time(01,12,03) }
```

Using Constructors and dynamic arrays

```
Time *t = new Time[8];
```

```
// Time() is invoked for each element
```

```
int i = 3;
```

```
Time (*t) [20] = new Time[3*i] [20];
```

```
// Multi-dimension array
```

```
// Time() is invoked for each element
```

In both cases, explicit initialization is not allowed!

The constructor initializer list

- A list of “**constructor calls**” that appears only **in the definition of the constructor** – after the argument list
- The initialization in the list is executed before any of the main constructor code.
- This is the place to put all **const** initializations, primitive type variables and object variables, **except arrays**.

```
class Info
private:
    const int i;
    double m;
    Time t;
Public:
    Info(); // default constructor
};
```

```
Info::Info(int j, double n) : i(j), m(n), t(i) {}
```

Destructors (1)

- To guarantee cleanup when using dynamic memory
- destroys objects by
 - calling the destructors of object member variables
 - calling superclass destructors (if virtual)
- the destructor is called
 - at the end of object lifetime
 - or during a call to delete
- normally, there is no need to call the destructor explicitly

Destructors (2)

- A public function member `~class_name` with no parameters and no return values

```
Class_name::~~class_name() {  
    //delete operations  
    ...  
}
```

- Operator `delete`

- can be called only for an object created by **new**

```
delete ptr;  
delete [] ptr;
```

new() and delete() (1)

for each `new` statement, you must provide exactly one corresponding `delete` statement

failing to do so causes memory and resource leaks and can cause undefined behaviour and very bad mood.

new() and delete() (2)

- allocating memory
 - `int* myInt = new int;`
 - `int* myIntArray = new int[10];`
- deallocating memory
 - `delete myInt;`
 - `delete[] myIntArray;`

Deleting zero pointers

**If the pointer you're deleting is zero,
nothing will happen.**

**For this reason, people often recommend setting
a pointer to zero immediately after you delete it,
to prevent deleting it twice.**

```
Int* myPtr = 0
```

**Deleting an object more than once
is definitely a bad thing to do,
and will cause problems.**

Function Declaration

- a function is declared by

```
returnType funcName(  
    typename arg1,  
    typename arg2,  
    ...,  
    typename argN);
```

- member functions may include a `const` modifier in their signature
 - `void HelloWorld::sayHello(void) const;`
- `private/protected/public` modifiers are not part of the function declaration

Function declaration: *Const* modifier

```
#include <iostream.h>
Class Car{
    private:
        int lenght;
        double weight;
    public:
        int fun_weight(double) const;
};

int Car::fun_weight(double new_weight) const
{
    // weight++; ERROR
    new_weigh += weight;
    return (int) new_weight;
}
```


Function Declaration Examples

```
double multiply(const double fac1,    pass-by-value  
               const double fac2);
```

pass-by-reference *

```
void addHeader(void* buf, const Date& date);
```

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]);
```

```
int main(int argc, char** argv);
```

pass-by-reference &

```
void doSomething(SomeBigObject bo);
```

```
void doSomething(SomeBigObject* bo);
```

```
void doSomething(SomeBigObject& bo);
```

In future!!

Call by value

- called function has its own local copy of the data
 - changes to the data are local and
 - will be discarded as soon as the namespace is left
- (highly) inefficient with large objects

Call by reference

- passes memory address of variables to the function (word-size variable)
 - very efficient
 - allows variable modification avoiding double-copy
 - Two possible realisations in C++
 - `void doSomething(Data* data) ;`
 - pointer-based
 - advantages and drawbacks of pointer approach
 - `void doSomething(Data& data) ;`
 - reference-based
 - no null-checking necessary
- pass-by-reference &
In future!!

Object Variable Classification (like in C)

- Extern variables **double x**
 - global variables, the prefix *extern* when declared by other files
- Static extern variables **static double x**
 - global variables, but can't be used by other files
 - are zero-initialized by default
- Automatic internal variables
 - defined within a function/block
- Static internal variables
 - like static external variables,
 - but defined within a function/block
 - retains its state between calls to that function

```
int
count_calls() {
    static int
    calls=0;

    //local static
    return ++calls;
}
```

Static member variables

- A *static variable*, member of a class, is a variable **shared by all objects** created from the class

```
Class Car{  
    private:  
        static int num_cars;  
    public:  
        ...  
};  
//Outside initialized, like an external variable,  
//even if private!  
int Car::num_cars = 22;
```

Static member functions (1)

- Executed in the same manner for all objects of the given class, e.g., to open a file or to set *static variables*.
- They can't:
 - access to non static variables,
 - invoke non static functions,
 - use the pointer *this*
 - be declared *virtual*
- Constructors and destructors can't be *static*

Static member functions (2)

```
#include <iostream.h>
class Car{
    private:
        static int num_cars;
    public:
        Car(); // default constructor
        static void new_car();
};
```

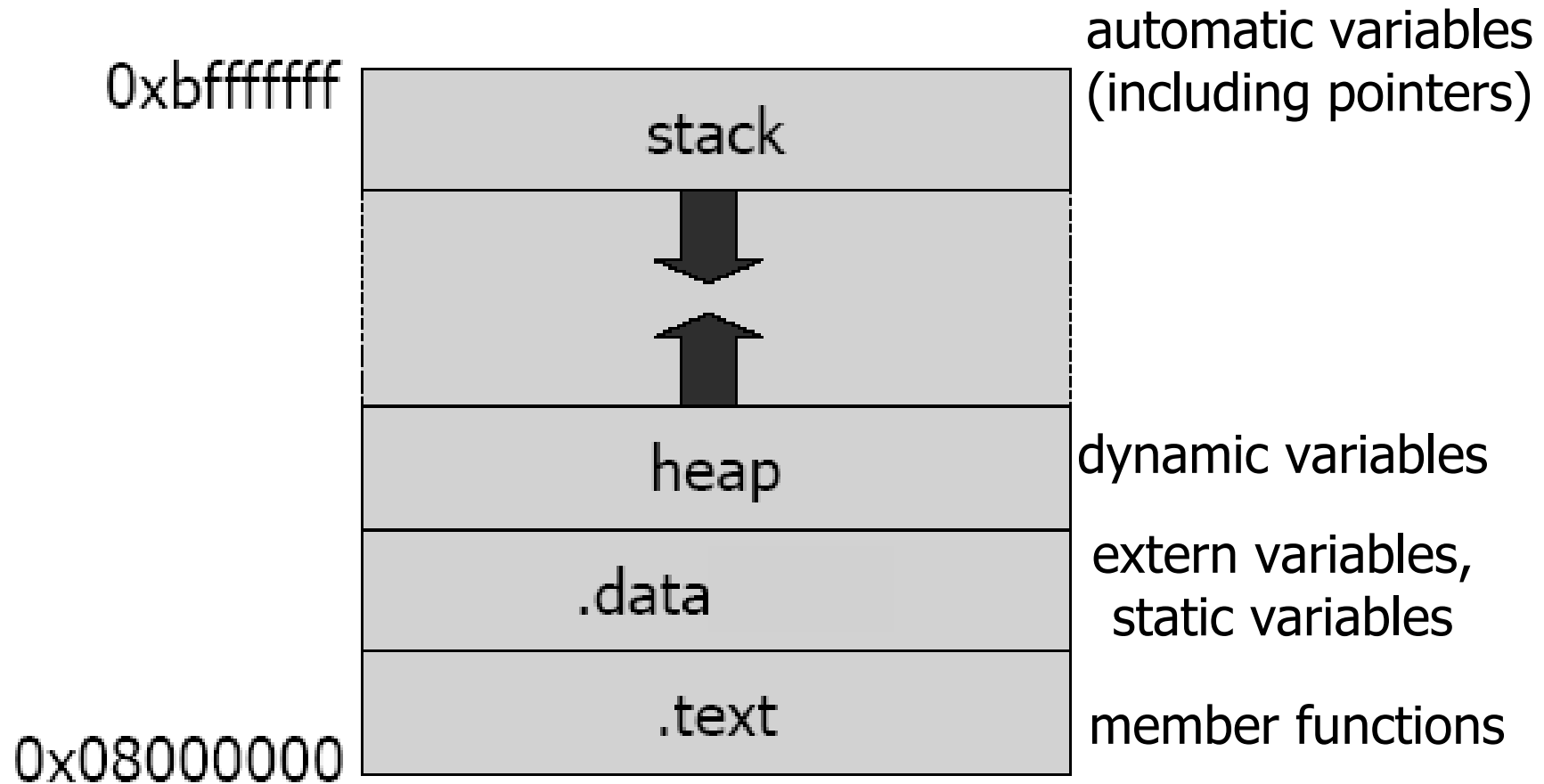
Static member functions (3)

```
Car::Car() { num_cars++; }
```

```
void Car::new_car() {cout << num_cars << '\n';}  
int Car::num_cars = 0; // Access to the static  
// private variable is allowed!
```

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[])  
{  
    //cout << Car::num_cars;    ERROR Access to a  
    //private variable!  
    Car a;  
    Car::new_car(); // or a.new_car() bad style!  
    return 0;  
}
```

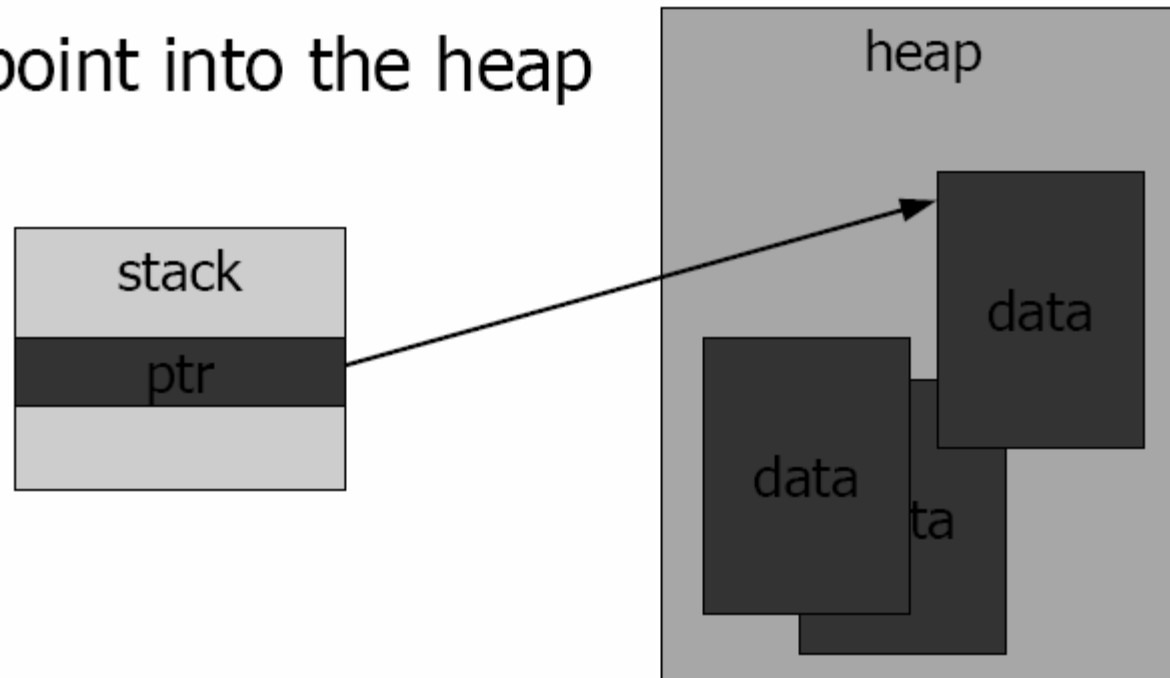

Memory layout (1)



Memory layout (2)

Pointer have a constant size of 1 word (16 or 32 bit)

- reside on the stack
- point into the heap



Inline functions

- Any function defined within a class body is automatically inline, but you can also make a non-class function inline by preceding it with the **inline** keyword.

```
inline int plusOne(int x) { return ++x; }
```

```
inline int plusOne(int x); //has no effect
```

- Any behavior you expect from an ordinary function, you get from an inline function.
- The only difference is that an inline function is **expanded in place**, like a preprocessor macro in C, so the overhead of the function call is eliminated.

C++ source structure

- header files (.h, .hpp)
 - dependencies (`#include` directives)
 - type declarations
 - type definitions
 - function declarations
 - inline functions
- implementation files (.cpp, .cc)
 - dependencies (`#include` directives)
 - function definitions
 - `main()` function

main()

- each C++ program needs exactly one main() function
- program entry point
- possible signatures are

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[], char* env[])  
int main(int argc, char* argv[])  
int main(void)
```

Exercises (1)

- Exercise I.1
 - learn how to use Dev-C++
 - write, compile and run a "Hello World!" console application
- Exercise I.2
 - create a console application which writes all its command line arguments to standard output (the screen), one per line
 - use index addressing
 - use a pointer directly

Exercises (2)

- Exercise I.3
 - create a console application which
 - takes exactly 5 command line arguments,
 - interprets them as integers,
 - hint: use `int i = atoi(char* str)` from `stdlib.h`
 - saves them into an integer array,
 - uses a bubble sort algorithm to sort the array and
 - writes the sorted array to standard output.

Default arguments

- When functions have long argument lists, it is tedious to write (and confusing to read) the function calls
 - when most of the arguments are the same for all the calls.
- A commonly used feature in C++ is called *default arguments*.
 - A *default argument* is one the compiler inserts if it isn't specified in the function call.

```
void f(int size, int initQuantity = 0);  
void g(int x, int = 0, float = 1.1);  
void h(int = 0, int x, float = 1.1); //ERROR
```


Function overloading

```
void f(int size, int initQuantity);  
void f(int size, double initQuantity);  
int f(int size, int initQuantity); //ERROR
```

- The compiler resolves the correct version of an overloaded function based on the number/type of arguments in each call
- Functions differing only in their return type cannot be overloaded.
 - Since the returned value may be implicitly converted, the compiler cannot resolve which version is intended to use
- An immediately useful place for overloading is in constructors.