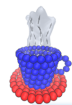


Object-oriented Programming in C++

Axel Arnold Olaf Lenz

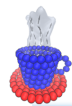
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Universität Stuttgart

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Outline

- Definition of classes
- Lifetime of objects
- Constructor, destructor
- Default and copy constructor
- Encapsulation: private, public
- Friends
- Function and operator overloading
- Inheritance
- Protected encapsulation
- Polymorphism and virtual functions
- Abstract base classes and pure virtual functions
- Multiple inheritance

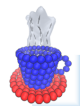


Definition of classes

Player
playerNum : int name : string
setPlayerNum(playerNum : num) getPlayerNum() : int doNextMove(piece : Piece, event : Event, out message : string)

becomes

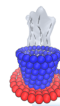
```
class Player {  
public:  
    int playerNum;  
    string name;  
    // setter and getter for the player number  
    void setPlayerNum(int playerNum);  
    int getPlayerNum();  
    // perform the next move  
    void doNextMove(Piece &piece, Event event, string &msg);  
};
```



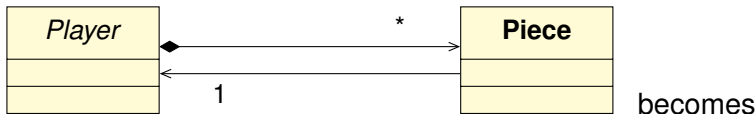
Definition of classes

```
class Player {  
public:  
    int playerNum;  
    string name;  
    // setter and getter for the player number  
    void setPlayerNum(int playerNum);  
    int getPlayerNum();  
    // perform the next move  
    void doNextMove(Piece &piece, Event event, string &msg);  
};
```

- **remember semicolon at the end of the definition!**
- **public** will be explained later
- output parameters translate to references (message)
- no separator between member functions and variables required
- good style to separate them

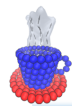


(Forward) declaration



```
class Player; // <-
class Piece {
    Player &player;
};
class Player {
    vector< Piece* > pieces;
};
```

- classes can be (forward) **declared** (here: Player)
- necessary if Piece uses Player and vice versa
- ok as long as only addresses are needed (pointers or references)
- usually, forward declare higher level classes

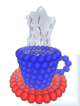


Declaration of member functions

Player.hpp

```
#ifndef PLAYER_HPP
#define PLAYER_HPP
class Player {
    void doNextMove(Piece &piece, Event ev, string &msg);
    int getPlayerNum() { return playerNum; }
};
#endif
```

- member functions are declared inside the class definition
- definition of *short* functions in class (**inline**)
- class definitions are usually placed in header file '*class.hpp*'
- preprocessor guards to avoid double definition of class



Definition of member functions

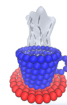
Player.hpp

```
class Player {  
    void doNextMove(Piece &piece, Event ev, string &msg);  
    int getPlayerNum() { return playerNum; }  
};
```

Player.cpp

```
void Player::doNextMove(Piece &piece, Event ev, string &msg) {  
    piece.tryStep(ev, msg);  
}
```

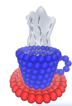
- full member identifier: `class::member`
- only one definition per member function (including inline def's)
- member function definitions in separate cpp-file '`class.cpp`'



Scope of member functions

```
class Player {  
    Piece *currentPiece;  
    void doNextMove(Piece &piece, Event ev, string &msg) {  
        currentPiece = &piece;  
        if (piece.tryStep(ev, msg))  
            currentPiece->doStep(ev, msg);  
    }  
};
```

- call member functions by `object.function()`
- also access to member variables, if public
- compare C struct syntax
- pointers can be dereferenced using `'->'` like in C
- only almost true due to operator overloading (later)



Referring to yourself: this

```
void Piece::register() {  
    board.addPiece(this);  
}  
void Piece::escape() {  
    board.removePiece(this);  
}
```

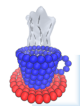
How can an object refer to “itself”?

Piece registers itself with the board

Answer

In a member function, **this** always points to the current object

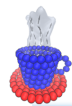
- **this** is a pointer, although guaranteed to be valid
- there is no reference to the current object, use ***this** if necessary



Creation and life time of objects

```
int test() {  
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) {  
        Piece piece;  
        piece.register();  
        // here, piece is destroyed automatically  
    }  
}
```

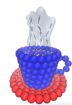
- objects are created like variables in C by giving type and name
- ...and die at the end of the scope (code block)
- exception: static variables like in C
- therefore, after the loop above, not a single piece exists



Creation and life time of objects

```
int test() {  
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) {  
        Piece *piecePtr = new Piece;  
        piecePtr->register();  
        delete piecePtr;  
        // without the older pieces remain, inaccessible  
    }  
}
```

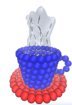
- objects can also be created by **new**
- these live till they are destroyed by explicitly calling **delete** *once*
- there should be *one* responsible object for destroying, the **owner**
- more than one owner leads to segmentation faults
- no owner (and therefore no **delete**) to memory leaks
- in OOP, ownership frequently changes, making things difficult



Constructor

```
class Game {  
    Board* board;  
    vector< Player* > players;  
public:  
    Game(int numPlayers = 2): board(0) {  
        for (int i = 0; i < numPlayers; ++i)  
            players.push_back(new Player);  
    }  
};
```

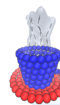
- constructor is a function initializing an object
- has the same name as the class (“Class::Class”)
- can take arguments that specify what to create
- there can be several constructors (see overloading)
- initialize member variables after colon (here: board)
- multiple variables separated by comma



Destructor

```
class Game {  
    Board* board;  
    vector< Player* > players;  
public:  
    ~Game() {  
        for (auto player: players) delete player;  
        delete board;  
    }  
};
```

- destructor is called right *before* unallocating the memory
- should clean up
- in particular destroy all owned objects
- inform other objects that have pointers to this object
- the destructor cannot take arguments



Default and copy constructor

```
class Game {  
public:  
    Game()      { /* call default constructors of all objects */ }  
    Game(const Game &src) { /* use copy constructors instead */ }  
};
```

■ two *predefined* constructors:

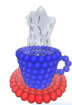
■ Default constructor `Class::Class()`

- only defined if no user-defined constructor declared
- initializes all objects using their default constructor
- plain old data types (char, int, ...) are uninitialized

■ Copy constructor `Class::Class(const Class &src)`

- copies all member variables from object `src`
- for pointers often a bad idea - duplicates ownership

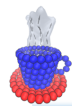
■ to avoid automatic generation, declare constructors *private*



Static class members

```
class CountOccurance {
    static int cnt;
public:
    CountOccurance() { ++cnt; }
    ~CountOccurance() { --cnt; }
    static int getCount() { return cnt; }
};
int CountOccurance::cnt = 0;
int main() {
    new CountOccurance();
    cout << CountOccurance::getCount() << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

- class members (functions and variables) can be static
- variable needs to be defined once somewhere (not in header!)
- static member functions are called with *class* prefix



Function overloading

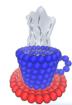
Tile

```
tryStep(piece : Piece, how : Event, out message : string)  
tryStep(monster : Monster, how : Event, out message : string)
```

becomes

```
class Tile {  
public:  
  void tryStep(Piece &piece, Event how, string &message);  
  void tryStep(Monster &monster, Event how, string &message);  
};
```

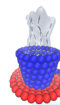
- several methods with same name but different signature
- signature is formed by the types of all taken arguments
- return value is *not* part of the signature
- also global (C-style) functions can be overloaded



Default arguments

```
class QGameBoard
{
public:
    QGameBoard(int tileSize = 20, QWidget *parent = 0);
    void setTileSize(int sizeX, int sizeY = 0);
};
```

- another kind of function overloading are default arguments
- values get predefined values if not specified when calling
- always starts from the back:
QGameBoard(30) is ok: parent = 0
QGameBoard(otherWidget) not: parent = 0, the pointer otherWidget is cast into an integer for tileSize
- here, this also overloads the default constructor QGameBoard()

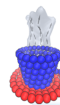


Operator overloading

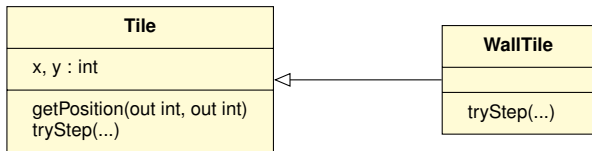
- most operators can be overloaded
- abuse can lead to *big* confusion
- obviously relies heavily on signatures

Some examples:

```
// output using ostream
ostream &operator<<(ostream &stream, const Class &a);
// assignment of any type:
Class &Class::operator=(OtherClass b);
// sum (product, difference, ... analogously):
RetClass Class::operator+(OtherClass b);
// ++object:
Class &Class::operator++();
// object++ (yes, they can differ):
Class Class::operator++(int); // int is a dummy argument!
// for objects representing functions:
RetClass Class::operator()(ParamClass a, ParamClass b, ...);
```



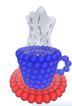
Inheritance



becomes

```
class Tile {
    int x, y;
    void getPosition(int x, int y);
    virtual void tryStep(Piece &piece, Event how, string &message);
};
class WallTile : public Tile {
    virtual void tryStep(Piece &piece, Event how, string &message);
};
```

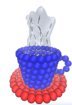
- derived classes declare super classes after class name and colon
- `getPosition` also exists in `WallTile` (**inherited** from `Tile`)



Constructor and base classes

```
class Tile {  
public:  
    Tile();  
    ~Tile();  
};  
class WallTile: public Tile {  
public:  
    WallTile(): Tile() { }  
    WallTile(int) { }  
    ~WallTile();  
};
```

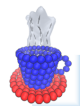
- base classes are initialized in constructor following colon (like member variables)
- using default constructors can be omitted (`WallTile(int)`)
- arguments to constructors can be computed freely
- base classes are automatically destroyed



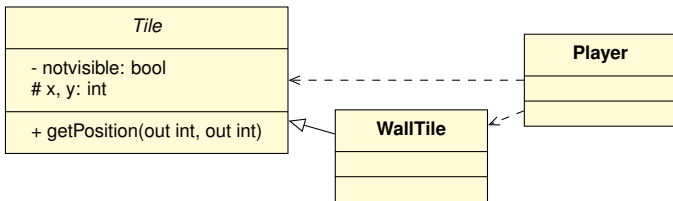
Constructor and base classes

```
class Tile {  
public:  
    Tile();  
    ~Tile();  
};  
class WallTile: public Tile {  
public:  
    WallTile(): Tile() { }  
    WallTile(int) { }  
    ~WallTile();  
};
```

- order follows matryoshka principle: from general to special
- base class constructors come *first*
- base class destructors come *last*

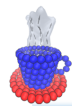


Encapsulation: private, public, protected



becomes

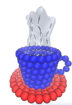
```
class Tile {
private:
    bool notvisible;
protected:
    int x, y;
public:
    void getPosition(int x, int y);
};
class WallTile : public Tile { };
```



Encapsulation: private, public, protected

```
class Tile {  
private:  
    bool notvisible;  
protected:  
    int x, y;  
public:  
    void getPosition(int x, int y);  
};  
class WallTile : public Tile { };
```

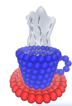
- **private** members are only accessible to members of the class
- **protected** is also accessible to members of derived classes
- **public** members are visible to all
- no difference between function and variable members
- a non-public destructor hinders destroying objects — rarely a good idea



Encapsulation: private, public, protected

```
class Tile {  
private:  
    bool notvisible;  
protected:  
    int x, y;  
public:  
    void getPosition(int x, int y);  
};  
class WallTile : public Tile { };
```

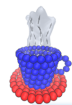
- notvisible is only accessible to Tile instances (**private**)
- x and !y! are accessible to instances of classes Tile and WallTile (**protected**)
- getPosition is visible to all, including e.g. Player instances (**public**)



Encapsulation: private, public, protected

```
class Tile {  
private:  
    bool notvisible;  
protected:  
    int x, y;  
public:  
    void getPosition(int x, int y);  
};  
class WallTile : public Tile { };
```

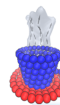
- base classes also have a visibility (private, protected or public)
- most stringent visibility applies
- private members never become protected or public
- protected members never become public



Encapsulation: private, public, protected

```
class Tile {  
private:  
    bool notvisible;  
protected:  
    int x, y;  
public:  
    void getPosition(int x, int y);  
};  
class WallTile : public Tile { };
```

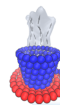
- objects are always also base class objects
(*a WallTile is a Tile, a Mammal an Animal*)
⇒ **base class (interface) should be public**
- ... if not strong reasons against
- Qt: \approx 2300 public inheritances, \approx 30 private and \approx 10 protected



Friends

```
class Hidden {  
private:  
    Hidden();  
    Hidden(const Hidden &);  
    ~Hidden();  
    friend ostream &operator<<(ostream &, const Hidden &);  
    friend class HiddenFactory;  
};
```

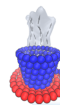
- **friend** overrides any visibility restrictions
- friends are declared in the class definition
⇒ you cannot inject friends
- friends can be classes or (member) functions
- common use is allowing the <<-operator to access inner parts
- here, it enforces to use HiddenFactory to create objects



Polymorphism: virtual functions

```
class Tile {  
    virtual string whatAmI() { return "tile"; }  
};  
class FloorTile: public Tile {  
    virtual string whatAmI() { return "floor tile"; }  
};  
void informMe(Tile &tile) {  
    cout << "this is a " << tile.whatAmI() << endl;  
}
```

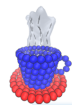
- without virtual, `informMe` always says “this is a tile”
- **virtual** declares a function to be **polymorph**
- acts differently depending on the *actual* type of the object
- `Tile::whatAmI` is different for a `Tile` and a `WallTile`
- forgetting to define a virtual function leads to undefined references to the ‘vtable for class’



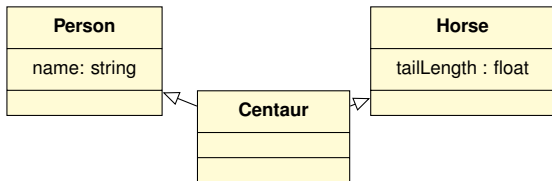
Pure virtual functions and abstract base classes

```
class Tile {  
    virtual string whatAmI() = 0;  
};  
class FloorTile: public Tile {  
    virtual string whatAmI() { return "floor tile"; }  
};  
int main() {  
    // Error! Abstract class, cannot be instantiated  
    Tile tile;  
}
```

- purely virtual (abstract) functions are only defined for derived classes
- classes with purely virtual functions are **abstract** classes
- you cannot create objects of abstract classes



Multiple inheritance

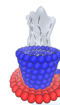


becomes

```
class Person {
    string name;
    Person(const string &n): name(n) {}
};

class Horse {
    float tailLength;
    Horse(float t): tailLength(t) {}
};

class Centaur: public Person, public Horse {
    Centaur(const string &n, float t) : Person(n), Horse(t) {}
};
```



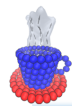
Multiple inheritance

```
class Person {
    string name;
    Person(const string &n): name(n) {}
};

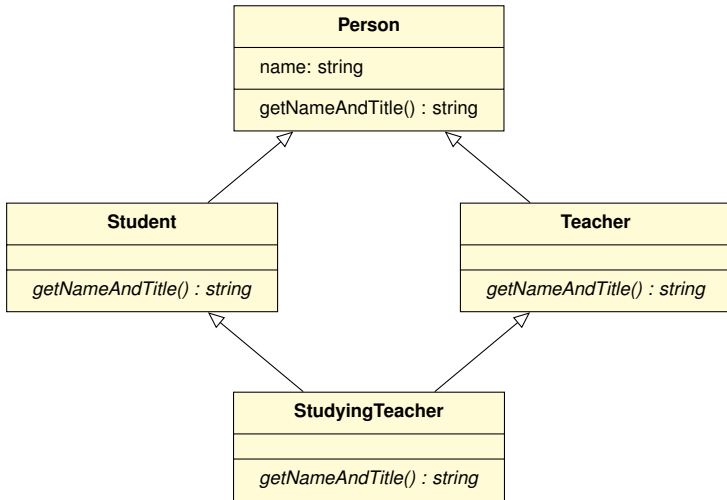
class Horse {
    float tailLength;
    Horse(float t): tailLength(t) {}
};

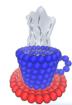
class Centaur: public Person, public Horse {
    Centaur(const string &n, float t) : Person(n), Horse(t) {}
};
```

- multiple base classes are separated by commas
- each carries a visibility (public, protected or private)
- class has member variables and functions of both base classes



The diamond problem

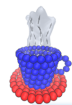




The diamond problem — solution in C++

```
class Person {
protected: string name;
public:    Person(const string &_name): name(_name) { }
         virtual string getNameAndTitle();
};
class Teacher: virtual public Person {
public:    Teacher(const string &_name): Person(_name) { }
         virtual string getNameAndTitle();
};
class Student: virtual public Person {
public:    Student(const string &_name): Person(_name) { }
         virtual string getNameAndTitle();
};
class StudyingTeacher
: virtual public Teacher, virtual public Student {
public:    StudyingTeacher(const string &n)
         : Person(n), Teacher(n), Student(n) {}
         virtual string getNameAndTitle();
};
```

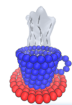
- declare base classes virtual
- requires also to initialize the common ancestor in the constructor
- initialization of ancestor in intermediate classes is skipped



constant objects — const

```
const int theNumber = 42;  
const char *nonConstantPtrToConstChar = "Hase";  
nonConstantPtrToConstChar = "Igel";  
const char * const constantPtrToConstChar = "Hase";  
const QPointF constantPoint(2, 3);
```

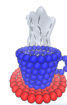
- **const** objects cannot be changed
- can be of any type (plain old data type, pointer, struct or class)
- the compiler generates code based on this assumption!
- be careful with pointers
 - **const** *on the left* binds to the data type pointed to — you cannot change the data, but point to different data
 - **const** *on the right* makes the address pointed to unchangeable
- C-string constants are of type **const char**, i.e. cannot be changed after compilation



constant objects — const

```
class Class {  
public:  
    const int myInitialValue;  
    Class(int n): myInitialValue(n) { }  
};
```

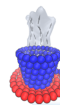
- classes can define constant member variables
- even if public, they cannot be changed by any object
- they have to be initialized in the initializer list of the constructor(s) (after the colon)



constant objects — const

```
class Class {  
    int myNumber;  
public:  
    Class(int n) { myNumber = n; }  
    void setMyNumber(int i) { myNumber = i; }  
    int getMyNumber() const { return myNumber; }  
};
```

- classes need to be **const-aware** to make use of constant objects
- on constant objects, only member functions declared **const** can be called
here, only getMyNumber, but not setMyNumber
- **const** functions can also called on non-const objects
- **const** member functions cannot change any member variables

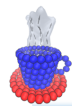


constant objects — const

```
class Class {  
public:  
    void test()      { cout << "nonconst" << endl; }  
    void test() const { cout << "const" << endl; }  
};  
Class changeable(1);  
const Class unchangeable(2);
```

- **const** is part of the *signature*
- **const** and non-**const** versions of the same function can exist
- here, `changeable.test()` will output “nonconst”,
`unchangeable.test()` will output “const”
- return values can differ (used frequently in STL)

```
class vector {  
    iterator      begin();  
    const_iterator begin() const;
```



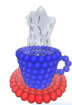
constant objects — const

Pros

- const-aware programs are less error-prone
- functions that should not change anything cannot do so
- allows the compiler to optimize more aggressively
- if writing libraries, const-awareness is necessary for others to be able to program const-aware

Cons

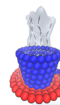
- hard to interface non-const-aware code (e.g. plain C)
- leads often to code duplication
- vector e.g. needs const and non-const iterators, which essentially do the same
- templates reduce programming overhead, but not code size



dynamic_cast and static_cast

```
class Tile {  
  
};  
class WallTile: public Tile { };  
  
int main() {  
    Tile *tile = new Tile;  
    WallTile *wall = new WallTile;  
    Tile *tilePtr = static_cast<Tile *>(wall);  
    WallTile *wallPtr = static_cast<WallTile *>(tile);  
}
```

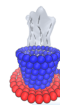
- **static_cast** on class pointers only checks compatibility (target class should be super or derived class)
- ends badly if a base object gets cast to a derived object
- here, wallPtr should not be used!
- still better than C-like casting, which **you shall not use!**



dynamic_cast and static_cast

```
class Tile {  
  
};  
class WallTile: public Tile { };  
  
int main() {  
    Tile *tile = new Tile;  
    WallTile *wall = new WallTile;  
    Tile *tilePtr = dynamic_cast<Tile *>(wall);  
    WallTile *wallPtr = dynamic_cast<WallTile *>(tile);  
}
```

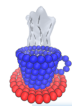
- **dynamic_cast** checks full compatibility
- here, the cast to WallTile for wallPtr causes a compiler error
- without polymorphism only casting to base classes possible



dynamic_cast and static_cast

```
class Tile {  
    virtual void makeMePolymorph() {};  
};  
class WallTile: public Tile { };  
  
int main() {  
    Tile *tile = new Tile;  
    WallTile *wall = new WallTile;  
    Tile *tilePtr = dynamic_cast<Tile *>(wall);  
    WallTile *wallPtr = dynamic_cast<WallTile *>(tile);  
    if (wallPtr) use(wallPtr);  
}
```

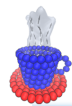
- on polymorphic classes (with at least one virtual function) **dynamic_cast** returns 0 if the cast is impossible
- here, the cast to `WallTile` for `wallPtr` is syntactically ok
- but `wallPtr` will be 0



Example of using `dynamic_cast`

```
for (auto it : content->items()) {  
    QGraphicsTextItem *item =  
        dynamic_cast<QGraphicsTextItem *>(it);  
    if (item)  
        item->setFont(QFont("Helvetica"));  
}
```

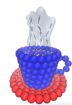
- working with lists of different items (e.g. `QGraphicsScene`)
- all elements are pointers to a common base class (here: `QGraphicsItem`)
- for each item, you can check whether it is e.g. a `QGraphicsTextItem` and then change the font



const – non-const conversion: const_cast

```
const char *unchangeable;  
char *changeable =  
    const_cast<char *>(unchangeable);  
  
char *changeable2;  
const char *unchangeable2 =  
    const_cast<const char *>(changeable2);
```

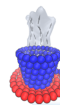
- **const_cast** converts between const and non-const variables
- if `unchangeable` points to a true C-string, writing to `changeable` will still cause a segmentation fault
- only use: interfacing with C-libraries that are not const-aware
- you need to know that the function doesn't change anything



Automatic type conversion

```
class String {
    string value;
public:
    String(const string &val): value(val) {}
};
int main()
{
    String s("Hallo");
}
```

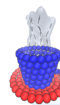
- this code works due to **automatic type conversion**
- compiler sees that String's constructor takes a `string` instance
- it tries to convert the `const char *` to a `string` using any `string`'s constructors



Automatic type conversion

```
class MyString {
public:
    MyString(const char *val);
};
class User {
public:
    User(MyString bla);
    User(string bla);
};
int main() {
    User user("Hallo");
}
```

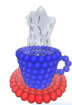
- creating user fails since the conversion is **ambiguous**
- the intermediate class could equally be MyString or string
- both are accepted by the User class
- both can be constructed from **const char ***



Automatic type conversion

```
class MyString {
public:
    explicit MyString(const char *val);
};
class User {
public:
    User(MyString bla);
    User(string bla);
};
int main() {
    User user("Hallo");
    User user2(MyString("Welt"));
}
```

- **explicit** excludes constructors from consideration for implicit conversion
- you can use them by explicitly (!) calling the constructor
- solves the ambiguity



The auto data type

```
void print(const vector<int> &v) {  
    for (auto value: v)  
        cout << value << endl;  
}  
const auto theNumber = 5;
```

- C++11 adds the data type **auto**
- determines the data type from the right hand sides datatype
- works if the right hand side has a unique type
 - constants and other variables
 - return values of functions (return value cannot be overloaded!)
- in particular useful with range-based for (see STL, Olaf)