

# C++ Overview (1)

COS320

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## Introduction

- Created by Bjarne Stroustrup
- Standards
  - C++98, C++03, C++07, C++11, and C++14
- Features
  - Classes and objects
  - Operator overloading
  - Templates
  - STL (Standard Template Library)
  - ...
- Still widely used in performance-critical programs
- [This overview assumes that you know C and Java](#)



## C++ is a Federation of Languages<sup>from [3]</sup>

- C
  - Mostly backward compatible with C
  - Blocks, statements, preprocessor, built-in data types, arrays, pointers, ...
- Object-Oriented C++
  - Classes, encapsulation, inheritance, polymorphism, virtual functions, ...
- Template C++
  - Paradigm for generic programming
- STL (Standard Template Library)
  - Generic library using templates
  - Containers, iterators, algorithms, function objects ...

## Topics

- [Today](#)
  - [Heap memory allocation](#)
  - [References](#)
  - [Classes](#)
  - [Inheritance](#)
- [Next time](#)
  - Operator overloading
  - I/O streams
  - Templates
  - STL
  - C++11

# Heap allocation: new and delete<sup>from [1]</sup>

- new/delete is a type-safe alternative to malloc/free
- new T allocates an object of type T on heap, returns pointer to it
  - Stack \*sp = new Stack();
- new T[n] allocates array of T's on heap, returns pointer to first
  - int \*stk = new int[100];
  - By default, throws exception if no memory
- delete p frees the single item pointed to by p
  - delete sp;
- delete[] p frees the array beginning at p
  - delete[] stk;
- new uses T's constructor for objects of type T
  - need a default constructor for array allocation
- delete uses T's destructor ~T()
- use new/delete instead of malloc/free and never mix new/delete and malloc/free

## Call-by-Reference

- Call-by-reference allows you to modify arguments
  - Now you can implement swap() function using call-by-reference

```
void swap(int *x, int *y) {  
    int temp;  
    temp = *x;  
    *x = *y;  
    *y = temp;  
}
```

```
swap (&a, &b);
```

```
void swap(int &x, int &y) {  
    int temp;  
    temp = x;  
    x = y;  
    y = temp;  
}
```

```
// pointers are implicit  
swap(a, b);
```

## References

- Controlled pointers
- When you need a way to access an object, not a copy of it
- In C, we used pointers
  - int var = 3;
  - int \*pvar = &var;
  - \*pvar = 5; // now var == 5
- In C++, references attach a name to an object
  - int var = 3;
  - int &rvar = var;
  - rvar = 5; // now var == 5
- Unlike pointers, you can't define a reference without an object it refers to
  - int &x; (X)

## Call-by-Value / Call-by-Reference

- Call-by-value
  - By default, C/C++'s uses call-by-value
  - If you pass an object using call-by-value, it causes the object to copy, which is inefficient if it is large
- Call-by-reference
  - In effect, you just pass the address of an object
  - Call-by-const-reference additionally guarantees that the object will not be modified during the call
    - Java function call is similar to call-by-reference
      - Java actually passes pointers internally

```
// call-by-reference  
void foo(Stack &s) {  
    ...  
}  
  
Stack s;  
foo(s); // s can be modified in foo
```

```
// call-by-const-reference  
void foo(const Stack &s) {  
    ...  
}  
  
Stack s;  
foo(s); // s is guaranteed to stay the same
```

# Constness

- Way to say something is not modifiable

from [3]

```
char greeting[] = "Hello";
char *p = greeting; // non-const pointer, non-const data
const char *p = greeting; // non-const pointer, const data
char * const p = greeting; // const pointer, non-const data
const char * const p = greeting; // const pointer, const data
```

```
// Objects 'a' references or 'b' points to cannot be modified in this function
void foo(const Stack &a, const Stack *b);
```

```
// For class member member method
// This does not modify any status of 'this' object
void Stack::size() const;
```

# Stack Class in C++

from [1]

```
// simple-minded stack class
class Stack {
public:
    Stack(); // constructor decl
    int push(int);
    int pop();
private: // default visibility
    int stk[100];
    int *sp;
};

Stack::Stack() { // constructor implementation
    sp = stk;
}

int Stack::push(int n) {
    return *sp++ = n;
}

int Stack::pop() {
    return *--sp;
}

Stack s1, s2; // calls constructors
s1.push(1); // method calls
s2.push(s1.pop());
```

# C++ Classes

from [1]

Don't miss  
';'

```
class Thing {
public:
    methods and variables accessible from all classes
protected:
    methods and variables accessible from this class and child classes
private:
    methods and variables only visible to this class
};
```

- defines a data type 'Thing'
  - can declare variables and arrays of this type, create pointers to them, pass them to functions, return them, etc.
- Object: an instance of a class variable
- Method: a function defined within the class

# Constructors

```
class Student {
public:
    Student(const string &n, double gpa) {
        name = n;
        this->gpa = gpa; // when a member variable name and a parameter name are the same
    }
private:
    string name;
    double gpa;
};
```

- Creates a new object
- Construction includes initialization, so in may be parameterized like other methods
  - You can have multiple constructors with different parameters
- If you don't define any constructors, a default constructor will be generated
  - Student() {}
- 'this' is a pointer – so you need '->' to refer to it

# Constructors

```
class MyClass {
public:
    MyClass(int arg) { ... }
    MyClass(int arg1, arg2) { ... }
    ...
};

// These call constructor and create objects on the stack
MyClass m1(100);
MyClass m2 = 100;
MyClass m3(100, 300);

// These call constructor and create objects on the heap
MyClass *m4 = new MyClass(100);
MyClass *m5 = new MyClass(100, 300);

// You can omit () when you call the default constructor (if there is one)
MyClass m6; // equivalent to 'MyClass m6();'
MyClass *m7 = new MyClass; // equivalent to 'MyClass *m7 = new MyClass();'
```

# 'explicit' Keyword

- Compiler does automatic type-conversion for one-argument constructors
  - When this is a constructor:
    - MyClass(int arg);
  - This creates a temporary object and assigns it to m
    - MyClass m = 5;
- It is sometimes not what we want; to prevent this, use 'explicit' keyword
  - explicit MyClass(int arg);

```
// When this can be desirable
class string {
public:
    string(const char *s);
};

string str = "Hello world"; // Good!
```

```
// When this is not desirable
class vector {
public:
    vector(int size);
};

vector v = 5; // Oh no! Use 'explicit'
```

# Inline Functions

- Inlined functions are copied into callers' body when compiled
  - Can prevent function call overhead
  - Can increase code size
- 'inline' directive suggests the function is to be inlined
  - So inline functions should be available at compile time (not link time) – they should exist in the same source file or any other header files included
  - But the final inlining decision is on compiler
- Member functions defined within a class have the same effect

|   |   |
|---|---|
| <pre>class Student { public:     void setGPA(double gpa) {         this-&gt;gpa = gpa;     }     ... };</pre> | <pre>class Student { public:     void setGPA(double gpa);     ... }; inline void setGPA(double gpa) {     this-&gt;gpa = gpa; }</pre> |
|---|---|

Two are Same!

# Accessors vs. Mutators

- Mutators can alter the state (= non-static member variables) of an object, while accessors cannot
- Accessors have 'const' at the end of the signature

```
class Student {
public:
    ...
    void setGPA(double gpa) { this->gpa = gpa; } // mutator
    double getGPA() const { return gpa; } // accessor
    ...
};
```

# Initializer Lists

|   |   |
|---|---|
| <pre>class Student { public:     // This calls default constructor for string     // first and then assigns new string 'n' to     // it again     Student(const string &amp;n, double gpa) {         name = n;         this-&gt;gpa = gpa;     } private:     string name;     double gpa; };</pre> | <pre>class Student { public:     // This calls constructor for string only     // once     Student(const string &amp;n, double gpa)         : name(n), gpa(gpa) {} private:     string name;     double gpa; };</pre> |
|---|---|

- Initialization lists are more efficient
  - Only call constructors once
  - Difference is small for primitive data types
- You have to use initializer lists for some variables
  - Class objects that do not have default (= no argument) constructors
  - Reference variables
    - They cannot be created without the target they refer to

# Default Parameters

- Specifies default values for function parameters
- Included in the function declaration

from [2]

```
void printInt(int n, int base=10);

printInt(50); // equivalent to 'printInt(5, 10);', outputs 50
printInt(50, 8); // outputs 62 (50 in octal)
```

# The Big Three

from [2]

- Copy Constructor
  - MyClass(const MyClass &rhs)
  - Special constructor to construct a new object as a copy of the same type of object
- operator=
  - operator=(const MyClass &rhs)
  - Copy assignment operator
  - Applied to two already constructed objects
- Destructor
  - ~MyClass()
  - Destroys an existing object
  - If you have some member variables that are 'new'ed, you should delete them here
  - Called when
    - An object on the stack goes out of scope ({} )
    - An object on the heap is deleted using 'delete'
- If you don't write these by yourself, default ones will be generated by compiler
  - Write these only if you want to do some additional tasks

# The Big Three

```
class Student {
public:
    // Normal constructor
    Student(const string &name, double gpa) : name(name), gpa(gpa) {
        someObj = new MyClass();
    }

    // Copy constructor
    Student(const Student &rhs) : name(rhs.name), gpa(rhs.gpa) {
        someObj = new MyClass();
    }

    // Destructor
    ~Student() { delete someObj; }

    // operator=
    operator=(const Student &rhs) {
        name = rhs.name;
        gpa = rhs.gpa;
        someObj = MyClass(rhs.someObj); // Calls copy constructor of MyClass
    }

private:
    string name;
    double gpa;
    MyClass *someObj;
};
```

## The Big Three

```
void someFunction() {  
  
    // Calls the normal constructor  
    Student jane("Jane", 3.0); // stack  
    Student *pJane = new Student("Jane", 3.0); // heap  
  
    // Calls the copy constructor  
    Student tom(jane); // stack  
    student *pTom = new Student(jane); // heap  
  
    // Calls the operator=()  
    tom = jane;  
    *pTom = *pJane;  
  
    // Calls the destructor for heap objects  
    delete pJane;  
    delete pTom;  
  
} // At this point the destructor for stack objects (jane and tom) are called
```

## Friends

- Way to grant private member access to specific classes/functions

from [2]

```
class ListNode {  
private:  
    int element;  
    ListNode *next;  
    ListNode(int element, ListNode *next=NULL) : element(element), next(next) {}  
  
    friend class List; // friend class  
    friend int someFunction(); // friend methods  
};  
  
class List {  
public:  
    List() {  
        head = new ListNode(); // can call ListNode's private constructor  
    }  
private:  
    ListNode *head;  
};  
  
int someFunction() { ... }
```

## The struct Type

- A class in which the members default to public
  - In a class, the members default to private
- Unlike C, you don't need a 'struct' keyword to refer to a struct type, because it is now a 'class'

```
struct MyClass {  
    MyClass(int arg) { ... }  
    ...  
};  
  
MyClass m(100);
```

## Namespaces

- C++ equivalent of Java packages

```
namespace myspace {  
    class Student { ... };  
    class Professor { ... };  
}  
  
// Refers to student class with the namespace name  
myspace::Student s;  
myspace::Professor p;  
  
// This allows you to use 'Student' without the namespace name  
using myspace::Student;  
Student s;  
myspace::Professor p;  
  
// This allows you to use everything in myspace without the namespace name  
using myspace;  
Student s;  
Professor p;
```

# Incomplete Class Declaration

- Unlike Java, the order of class declaration matters
  - If class B is declared after class A, class A does not know about class B
  - But sometimes class A needs to know (at least) the existence of class B
    - ex) A has B's pointer as a member and B has A's pointer too
- Solution: incomplete class declaration
  - We can incompletely declare class B before class A
  - The only thing class A knows about B is its existence; A does not know about B's members or B's object size because B's full declaration is below A

# Incomplete Class Declaration

```
class B; // incomplete class declaration

class A { // Now A knows B's existence
public:
    void foo1(B *b); // OK
    void foo2(B &b); // OK
    void foo3(B b); // (X) Not OK! A does not know B's object size

    void bar(B *b) {
        b->baz(); // (X) Not OK! A does not know about B's members
    }
    B *data1; // OK
    B &data2; // OK
    B data3; // (X) Not OK! A does not know B's object size
};

class B {
public:
    void baz() { ... }
    A *data;
};
```

# Inheritance

- Basic syntax
  - class Child : public Parent { ... };
  - Actually there are also private and protected inheritance – nevermind, you are not going to use them. Just don't forget to use 'public' keyword
- Calling base class constructor in initializer lists
  - Child(int arg1, int arg2)  
  : Parent(arg1), ... { ... }
- Calling base class functions
  - Parent::foo(...);

# Inheritance

from [2]

```
class Person {
public:
    Person(int ssn, const string &name) : ssn(ssn), name(name) {}
    const string &getName() const { return name; }
    int getSSN() const { return ssn; }
    void print() const { cout << ssn << ", " << name }

private:
    int ssn;
    string name;
};

class Student : public Person {
public:
    Student(int ssn, const string &name, double gpa) : Person(ssn, name), gpa(gpa) {}
    double getGPA() const { return gpa; }
    void print() const { Person::print(); cout << ", " << gpa; } // override

private:
    double gpa;
};
```

# Dynamic Dispatch

- Java always uses the runtime type to decide which method to use
- But C++ uses the static type by default

```
Student s(123456789, "Jane", 4.0);
s.print();           // calls Student::print

Person &p1 = s;       // p1 and s are same object
p1.print();          // calls Person::print!

Person *p2 = &s;      // p2 points to s
p2->print();          // calls Person::print!
```

# Virtual Functions

- You need a 'virtual' keyword to tell the compiler this function should use dynamic dispatch
- In Java, all functions are virtual functions

```
class Person {
public:
    ...
    virtual void print() const { cout << ssn << ", " << name; }
    ...
};

class Student : public Person {
public:
    ...
    virtual void print() const { Person::print(); cout << ", " << gpa; }
    ...
};
```

This can be omitted in child class

# The Big Three Revisited

from [2]

- In a subclass, the default Big Three are constructed if you don't explicitly define them
- Copy constructor
  - Invokes copy constructor on the base class(es)
  - And then invokes copy constructors on each of newly added members
- operator=
  - Invokes operator= on the base class(es)
  - And then invokes operator= on each of newly added members
- Destructor
  - Invokes destructors on each of newly added members
  - And then invokes destructor on the base class(es)

# Virtual Destructor

- In a base class, the destructor should be declared virtual
  - Otherwise the base class portion of the object will not be deleted if it is deleted through base class pointer/reference

```
class Person {
public:
    ...
    virtual ~Person() { ... }
    ...
};

Student *tom = new Student("123456", "Tom", 3.0);
Person *p = tom;

// If ~Person() is declared non-virtual, this will not delete the base class
// portion of the object
delete p;
```

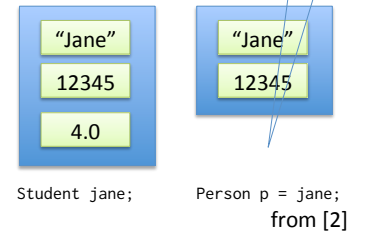


# Abstract Methods and Classes

- C++ equivalent of Java abstract methods and classes
  - Abstract classes cannot be instantiated
- In C++, a method is abstract if:
  - It is declared virtual
  - The declaration is followed by =0
  - ex) `virtual double area() const = 0;`
- In C++, a class is abstract if:
  - It has at least one abstract method

# Slicing

- You can access child classes by pointers and references of base classes
- But you can't use **base classes objects** to access child classes



```
Student jane(12345, "Jane", 4.0);
Person p(54321, "Bob");
p = jane; // object is sliced!
p.print();

void print(Person p) { p.print(); }
print(jane); // call-by-value, so object is sliced!
```

# Type Conversions

- C++-style casts
  - `static_cast`
    - Similar to C-style cast
  - `dynamic_cast`
    - Can only be used with pointers and references to classes (or with `void*`)
    - Performs a runtime check if the cast is correct; returns `NULL` if incorrect
  - `const_cast`
    - Manipulates the constness of the object pointed by a pointer, either to be set or to be removed
  - `reinterpret_cast`
    - Converts any pointer type to any other pointer type
    - Simple binary copy of the value from one pointer to the other
- LLVM-style casts
  - `cast`, `dyn_cast`, `cast_or_null`, `dyn_cast_or_null`

# Type Conversions

```
class Base {};
class Derived: public Base {};

Base *pb = new Base;

// C-style cast
Derived *pd = (Derived*) pb;

// static_cast
Derived *pd = static_cast<Derived*>(pb);

// dynamic_cast
Derived *pd = dynamic_cast<Derived*>(pb); // returns NULL if failed
if (!pd) cout << "Type casting failed!";

// const_cast
void printStr (char *str) {
    cout << str << '\n';
}
const char *c = "Hello world";
printStr(const_cast<char*>(c)); // removes constness to pass it to printStr
```

# Multiple Inheritance

- Don't use this unless you really need to...
  - Has many tricky aspects
  - You don't need to use this in your code in COS320
- We are not going to cover the details here

from [2]

```
class Person : public Printable, public Serializable { ... };  
class Student : virtual public Person { ... };  
class Employee : virtual public Person { ... };  
class StudentEmployee : public Student, public Employee { ... };
```

# References

- [1] Brian Kernighan, COS333 lecture notes, 2013.
- [2] Mark Allen Weiss, C++ for Java Programmers, Pearson Prentice Hall, 2004.
- [3] Scott Meyers, Effective C++ Third Edition, Addison-Wesley, 2005.