

Classes

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Reference Book: “The C++ Programming Language”, Bjarne Stroustrup.

Structure

```
struct Date {  
    int d, m, y;  
  
    void init(int dd, int mm, int yy); // initialize  
    void add_year(int n); // add n years  
    void add_month(int n); // add n months  
    void add_day(int n); // add n days  
};
```

```
Date my_birthday;  
  
void f()  
{  
    Date today;  
  
    today.init(16, 10, 1996);  
    my_birthday.init(30, 12, 1950);  
  
    Date tomorrow = today;  
    tomorrow.add_day(1);  
    // ...  
}
```

Reference Book: "The C++ Programming Language", Bjarne Stroustrup.

```
void Date::init(int dd, int mm, int yy)  
{  
    d = dd;  
    m = mm;  
    y = yy;  
}
```

when *Date::init()* is invoked for *today*, *m=mm* assigns to *today.m*.
when *Date::init()* is invoked for *my_birthday*, *m=mm* assigns to *my_birthday.m*.

Classes

```
class Date {  
    int d, m, y;  
public:  
    void init(int dd, int mm, int yy); // initialize  
  
    void add_year(int n); // add n years  
    void add_month(int n); // add n months  
    void add_day(int n); // add n days  
};
```

The *public* label separates the class body into two parts. The names in the first, *private*, part can be used only by member functions. The second, *public*, part constitutes the public interface to objects of the class. A *struct* is simply a *class* whose members are public by default functions can be defined and used exactly as before.

```

class Date {
    int d, m, y;
public:
    void init(int dd, int mm, int yy); // initialize

    void add_year(int n);             // add n years
    void add_month(int n);           // add n months
    void add_day(int n);             // add n days
};

```

```

inline void Date::add_year(int n)
{
    y += n;
}

```

```

void timewarp(Date& d)
{
    d.y -= 200; // error: Date::y is private
}

```

Constructors

The use of functions such as *init()* to provide initialization for class objects is inelegant and error-prone. Because it is nowhere stated that an object must be initialized, a programmer can forget to do so – or do so twice (often with equally disastrous results). A better approach is to allow the programmer to declare a function with the explicit purpose of initializing objects. Because such a function constructs values of a given type, it is called a *constructor*. A constructor is recognized by having the same name as the class itself. For example:

```
class Date {  
    // ...  
    Date(int, int, int);    // constructor  
};
```

It is often nice to provide several ways of initializing a class object. This can be done by providing several constructors. For example:

```
class Date {  
    int d, m, y;  
public:  
    // ...  
    Date(int, int, int);      // day, month, year  
    Date(int, int);        // day, month, today's year  
    Date(int);            // day, today's month and year  
    Date();               // default Date: today  
    Date(const char*);    // date in string representation  
};
```


Static members

A variable that is part of a class, yet is not part of an object of that class, is called a *static* member. There is exactly one copy of a *static* member instead of one copy per object, as for ordinary non-*static* members. Similarly, a function that needs access to members of a class, yet doesn't need to be invoked for a particular object, is called a *static* member function.

```
class Date {  
    int d, m, y;  
    static Date default_date;  
public:  
    Date(int dd =0, int mm =0, int yy =0);  
    // ...  
    static void set_default(int, int, int);  
};
```

```
Date::Date(int dd, int mm, int yy)  
{  
    d = dd ? dd : default_date.d;  
    m = mm ? mm : default_date.m;  
    y = yy ? yy : default_date.y;  
    // check that the Date is valid  
}
```

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We can change the default date when appropriate. A static member can be referred to like any other member. In addition, a static member can be referred to without mentioning an object. Instead, its name is qualified by the name of its class. For example:

```
void f()  
{  
    Date::set_default(4, 5, 1945);  
}
```

Static members – both function and data members – must be defined somewhere. For example:

```
Date Date::default_date(16, 12, 1770);  
void Date::set_default(int d, int m, int y)  
{  
    Date::default_date = Date(d, m, y);  
}
```

Now the default value is Beethoven's birth date – until someone decides otherwise.

Constant member functions

The *Date* defined so far provides member functions for giving a *Date* a value and changing it. Unfortunately, we didn't provide a way of examining the value of a *Date*. This problem can easily be remedied by adding functions for reading the day, month, and year:

```
class Date {  
    int d, m, y;  
public:  
    int day() const { return d; }  
    int month() const { return m; }  
    int year() const;  
    // ...  
};
```

Note the *const* after the (empty) argument list in the function declarations. It indicates that these functions do not modify the state of a *Date*.

Naturally, the compiler will catch accidental attempts to violate this promise. For example:

```
inline int Date::year() const
{
    return y++;    // error: attempt to change member value in const function
}
```

When a *const* member function is defined outside its class, the *const* suffix is required:

```
inline int Date::year() const    // correct
{
    return y;
}

inline int Date::year()    // error: const missing in member function type
{
    return y;
}
```

A *const* member function can be invoked for both *const* and non-*const* objects, whereas a non-*const* member function can be invoked only for non-*const* objects. For example:

```
void f(Date& d, const Date& cd)
{
    int i = d.year();    // ok
    d.add_year(1);      // ok

    int j = cd.year();  // ok
    cd.add_year(1);     // error: cannot change value of const cd
}
```

Self Reference

```
class Date {  
    // ...  
  
    Date& add_year (int n);    // add n years  
    Date& add_month (int n); // add n months  
    Date& add_day (int n);    // add n days  
};
```

Each (nonstatic) member function knows what object it was invoked for and can explicitly refer to it. For example:

```
Date& Date::add_year (int n)  
{  
    if (d==29 && m==2 && !leapyear (y+n) ) { // beware of February 29  
        d = 1;  
        m = 3;  
    }  
    y += n;  
    return *this;  
}
```

The expression **this* refers to the object for which a member function is invoked.

Most uses of *this* are implicit. In particular, every reference to a nonstatic member from within a class relies on an implicit use of *this* to get the member of the appropriate object. For example, the *add_year* function could equivalently, but tediously, have been defined like this:

```
Date& Date::add_year (int n)  
{  
    if (this->d==29 && this->m==2 && !leapyear (this->y+n) ) {  
        this->d = 1;  
        this->m = 3;  
    }  
    this->y += n;  
    return *this;  
}
```


Structures and Classes

By definition, a *struct* is a class in which members are by default public; that is,

```
struct s { ...
```

is simply shorthand for

```
class s { public: ...
```

The access specifier *private*: can be used to say that the members following are private, just as *public*: says that the members following are public. Except for the different names, the following declarations are equivalent:

```
class Date1 {  
    int d, m, y;  
public:  
    Date1 (int dd, int mm, int yy);  
    void add_year (int n);    // add n years  
};  
struct Date2 {  
private:  
    int d, m, y;  
public:  
    Date2 (int dd, int mm, int yy);  
    void add_year (int n);    // add n years  
};
```

Which style you use depends on circumstances and taste. I usually prefer to use *struct* for classes that have all data public. I think of such classes as “not quite proper types, just data structures.”

It is not a requirement to declare data first in a class. In fact, it often makes sense to place data members last to emphasize the functions providing the public user interface. For example:

```
class Date3 {  
public:  
    Date3(int dd, int mm, int yy);  
    void add_year(int n);    // add n years  
private:  
    int d, m, y;  
};
```

Reference Book: “The C++ Programming Language”, Bjarne Stroustrup.

```
class Date4 {  
public:  
    Date4(int dd, int mm, int yy);  
private:  
    int d, m, y;  
public:  
    void add_year(int n);    // add n years  
};
```

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In-Class function definitions

```
class Date { // potentially confusing
public:
    int day() const { return d; } // return Date::d
    // ...
private:
    int d, m, y;
};
```

This is perfectly good C++ code because a member function declared within a class can refer to every member of the class as if the class were completely defined before the member function bodies were considered. However, this can confuse human readers.

```
class Date {
public:
    int day() const;
    // ...
private:
    int d, m, y;
};

inline int Date::day() const { return d; }
```

Destructors

A constructor initializes an object. In other words, it creates the environment in which the member functions operate. Sometimes, creating that environment involves acquiring a resource – such as a file, a lock, or some memory – that must be released after use (§14.4.7). Thus, some classes need a function that is guaranteed to be invoked when an object is destroyed in a manner similar to the way a constructor is guaranteed to be invoked when an object is created. Inevitably, such functions are called *destructors*. They typically clean up and release resources. Destructors are called implicitly when an automatic variable goes out of scope, an object on the free store is deleted, etc.

The most common use of a destructor is to release memory acquired in a constructor. Consider a simple table of elements of some type *Name*. The constructor for *Table* must allocate memory to hold the elements. When the table is somehow deleted, we must ensure that this memory is reclaimed for further use elsewhere. We do this by providing a special function to complement the constructor:

```
class Name {  
    const char* s;  
    // ...  
};  
  
class Table {  
    Name* p;  
    size_t sz;  
public:  
    Table(size_t s = 15) { p = new Name[sz = s]; } // constructor  
    ~Table() { delete[] p; } // destructor  
  
    Name* lookup(const char *);  
    bool insert(Name*);  
};
```

Default Constructors

Because *consts* and references must be initialized (§5.5, §5.4), a class containing *const* or reference members cannot be default-constructed unless the programmer explicitly supplies a constructor (§10.4.6.1). For example:

```
struct X {  
    const int a;  
    const int& r;  
};  
X x; // error: no default constructor for X
```


Construction and Destruction

Consider the different ways an object can be created and how it gets destroyed afterwards. An object can be created as:

A named automatic object, which is created each time its declaration is encountered in the execution of the program and destroyed each time the program exits the block in which it occurs

A free-store object, which is created using the *new* operator and destroyed using the *delete* operator

A nonstatic member object, which is created as a member of another class object and created and destroyed when the object of which it is a member is created and destroyed

An array element, which is created and destroyed when the array of which it is an element is created and destroyed

A local static object, which is created the first time its declaration is encountered in the execution of the program and destroyed once at the termination of the program

A global, namespace, or class static object, which is created once “at the start of the program” and destroyed once at the termination of the program

A temporary object, which is created as part of the evaluation of an expression and destroyed at the end of the full expression in which it occurs

Local Variables

The constructor for a local variable is executed each time the thread of control passes through the declaration of the local variable. The destructor for a local variable is executed each time the local variable's block is exited. Destructors for local variables are executed in reverse order of their construction. For example:

```
void f(int i)
{
    Table aa;
    Table bb;
    if (i>0) {
        Table cc;
        // ...
    }
    Table dd;
    // ...
}
```

Copying Objects

If *t1* and *t2* are objects of a class *Table*, *t2=t1* by default means a memberwise copy of *t1* into *t2* (§10.2.5). Having assignment interpreted this way can cause a surprising (and usually undesired) effect when used on objects of a class with pointer members. Memberwise copy is usually the wrong semantics for copying objects containing resources managed by a constructor/destructor pair. For example:

```
void h ()
{
    Table t1;
    Table t2 = t1; // copy initialization: trouble
    Table t3;

    t3 = t2;      // copy assignment: trouble
}
```

Here, the *Table* default constructor is called twice: once each for *t1* and *t3*. It is not called for *t2* because that variable was initialized by copying. However, the *Table* destructor is called three times: once each for *t1*, *t2*, and *t3*! The default interpretation of assignment is memberwise copy, so *t1*, *t2*, and *t3* will, at the end of *h()*, each contain a pointer to the array of names allocated on the free store when *t1* was created.

Such anomalies can be avoided by defining what it means to copy a *Table*:

```
class Table {  
    // ...  
    Table (const Table&);           // copy constructor  
    Table& operator= (const Table&); // copy assignment  
};  
  
Table::Table (const Table& t)      // copy constructor  
{  
    p = new Name [sz=t.sz];  
    for (int i = 0; i<sz; i++) p [i] = t.p [i];  
}  
  
Table& Table::operator= (const Table& t) // assignment  
{  
    if (this != &t) { // beware of self-assignment: t = t  
        delete [] p;  
        p = new Name [sz=t.sz];  
        for (int i = 0; i<sz; i++) p [i] = t.p [i];  
    }  
    return *this;  
}
```

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