Object-Oriented Programming					
OBJECT-					
ORIENTED					
PROGRAMMING					
LANGUAGES					
C++		Classes C	const	Inherita	nce
Using C+ Classes	+	Automatic typed	ef	inline D	erived
Types Composition		Function Overloa	d	Reference types	
Scope Resolution Binding		tion	Type-safe link	new, delete	
Protection		Constructors	Containers	Virtual Functions	
friend Functions Operator Overloading			Destructors	Header 5	Files

THE C++ LANGUAGE

3 Developed by *Bjarne Stroustrup* starting in the early 1980's

3 Based on merging features of C and Simula-67 (developed in Scandinavia in 1967)

3 Originally called *C with Classes* since it involved adding Simula-67's *class* concept to C

3 *C with Classes* was later expanded by simply adding improvements to C (*not* to implement object orientation necessarily), so the concept of *the next step after C*, or *C*++ (the C increment operator is + +), evolved

OBJECT

3 Simula-67 Supports the cheation of simulations, and simulations of systems usually involve many discrete, independently operating entities

3 The authors of *Simula-67* called these entities *objects*

3 Rather than perform actions on objects in a simulation, *Simula-67* evolved the concept of *sending messages to objects*, and that's what *object-oriented programming (OOP)* entails

3 OOP later proved to be an easy way to think about many other types of problems, so a number of other objectoriented programming languages (OOPLs) were developed, most notably Smalltalk

3 These OOPLs provided many benefits, but the steep learning curve and significant period of limited productivity were drawbacks

AN OBJECT-ORIENTED

C++ 3 Developed to take advantage of the ease of programming provided by an OOPL

3 Developed to provide an easy learning path for C programmers

3 Developed to fix defects in C which allow certain kinds of bugs to slip through the compiler -- bugs which may go unnoticed until runtime

> C++ allows the programmer to focus on *concepts* rather than forcing him to concentrate on the code which implements those concepts

THE ANSI C++ STANDARD

3 ANSI committee X3J16 was created to produce an international standard for C++, which is still in development

3 Most of today's C++ compilers deviate from the standard in one way or another, so portability of code between different C++ compilers on different platforms tends to suffer today

3 GNU C++ is becoming a standard in its own right due to the fact that it is free and it runs on many platforms, including 386 PCs and workstations, but GNU C++ does not conform to the C++ standard exactly

THREE WAYS OF USING C++

3 Like C or C with extensions -- many C programs may be compiled with a C++ compiler with little or no modifications (mainly in the area of function prototypes)

3 Like C with enhanced data abstration capabilities -- more sophisticated data structures may be manipulated with greater ease in C++

3 Like an OOPL -- all the benefits of contemporary object-oriented programming may be achieved through C++

```
Object-Oriented
Programming
        TYPES = STRUCTS +
           A type UNCTStort Swith
        functions
  struct complex {
                 /* The C struct */
   float real part;
   float imag part;
  };
  struct complex { 9/29/22 The C++ struct
   float real_part;
   float imag_part;
   complex();
                   9/29/22 a constructor (discussed
later)
   void add (complex, complex); 9/29/22 operates on
object
  };
```

typedef FOR C++ STRUCTS IS AUTOMATIC

struct complex a, b; /* C form is supported
*/

complex x, y; 9/29/22 "struct" is not required

x.real_part = 2.2; x.imag_part = 3.3; y.real_part = 4.2; y.imag_part = 4.3; y.add(x, y); 9/29/22 y = x + y

5 - 8

SCOPE RESOLUTION OPERATOR

3 Member functions associated with a struct are declared as function prototypes in the struct

3 When *member functions* are *defined*, their associated struct is specified using the *scope resolution operator* (07:21:41 PM)

void struct_name07:21:41 PM
member_function_name() { /* body */ };

as in

void complex07:21:41 PMadd (complex left, complex right)

{ /* body */ };

SCOPE RESOLUTION OPERATOR, Continued

3 The scope resolution operator may be used whenever the compiler would not normally choose the desired name

```
int x;
void main() {
    int x;
    x = 2; 9/29/22 local X is
assigned
    07:21:41 PMx = 4; 9/29/22 global
X is assigned
    };
```

5 - 10

MEMBER FUNCTION

3 A member function may access any other member in the same struct, including both data and other member functions

```
void complex07:21:41 PMadd(complex left, complex
right) {
    real_part = left.real_part + right.real_part;
        9/29/22 note that the real_part left of the
        9/29/22 equal size refers to the real_part
        9/29/22 of the target object
    imag_part = left.imag_part + right.imag_part;
   };
```

DATA PROTECTION

Access to data and functions within a struct is controlled by the three *access specifiers* :

3 *private* -- prevents access except by other members

3 *protected* -- like *private*, except inherited classes also have access (inheritance is discussed later)

3 *public* -- permits everyone, including end users, to access the members

Access to *private* and *protected* members can be granted to non-member functions by using the <u>friend</u> keyword when declaring the non-member function inside a struct

Object-Oriented Programming public AND private WITH #define SIZE 10 friend struct int array { private: int a[SIZE]; public: void init(); 9/29/22 a member function friend void print (int array); 9/29/22 a friend function }; void print (int array x) { 9/29/22 not a member function for (int i=0; i<SIZE; i++) cout << x.a[i] << " ";</pre>

```
cout << "\n";</pre>
```

}

CLASSES

class

is the preferred keyword for defining new types in C++

3 *struct* defaults to *public* for the access of its members

3 *class* defaults to *private* for the access of its members

class typename { struct typename {
 9/29/22 private me mbers 9/29/22 public
members
 public: private:
 9/29/22 public members 9/29/22 private
members
 }; };

5 - 14

AUTOMATIC typedef The tag names of these entities are designated as reserved words within their scope automatically (similar to doing a typedef in C), and the form of their declarations and definitions are similar:

3 class
3 struct
3 union
3 enum

5 - 15

FUNCTION

3 Function Overloading allovs more than one function to be given the same name as long as all these functions have distinct argument lists

3 Function Overloading prevents name clashes when multiple libraries come into use

3 Function overloading works through *name mangling*, where the compiler-generated name for the function includes information on the types of its arguments

3 Examples of overloaded functions:

void print(int); void print(int, char); void print(double);

DEFAULT FUNCTION ARGUMENTS

3 Default arguments are used in a function's argument list when common values are to be automatically generated by the compiler rather than always forcing the programmer to specify them

3 Default arguments may be given only once, in the function declaration

3 Only *trailing arguments* may be given default values, and once default values are assigned, they must be assigned to the rest of the remaining arguments as well

to

TYPE-SAFE LINKAGF C++ was designed in part

eliminate problems found

3 C++

C++ performs strong type checking (type-safe 3 linkage), so if the arguments to a function when it is called are not the same types as when it was declared, the compiler will flag this error at compile time -- C does not

3 C++ does not always hold you to type-safe linkage because there are times when you may want to link in code generated by a C compiler; C++ lets you do this through an alternate linkage specification, which looks like this:

extern "C" {type function name(arg types); }

CONSTRUCTOR

3 A *constructor* is usate to initialize a variable based on a class when the variable is created

3 A constructor is a member function of the class that has the same name as the class

3 Constructor calls occur automatically at the point the variable is created, and the programmer cannot access the variable before the *constructor* is called

3 Constructor functions may be overloaded like other member functions so that various kinds of initialization may be done

3 Default arguments may also be used with constructor functions so long as ambiguities are not created

3 Constructor functions are not required by C++, but they are often very convenient

DESTRUCTOR

3 *Destructor functions* are used to ensure proper cleanup when a variable is destroyed

3 A *destructor function* is a member function with the same name as the class preceded by a <u>tilde</u>

3 Calls to *destructor functions* are automatic, occurring when a variable goes out of scope

3 *Destructor functions* may not have any arguments

3 Destructor functions are optional, like constructor functions

3 Unlike *constructor functions*, only one *destructor function* may be declared

const **AVOIDING THE** const replaces part of the function of the #define

3 preprocessor directive

const performs value substitution, adding type 3 checking and normal expression evaluation

const is placed in front of any variable definition, 3 indicating that --

1. the value cannot be changed

2. the compiler should try not to allocate storage, keeping the information in the symbol table instead

const float pi = 3.14159;

const IN ANSI C AND

- 3 const behaves differently in ANSI C and C++
- 3 Linkage -
 - u In C, const defaults to external linkage (global)
 - u In C++, const defaults to internal linkage (local)
- 3 Memory allocation -
 - u In C, const always allocates storage for the value

u In C++, const tries to store values in the symbol table

3 Constant expressions (like array definitions) --

u In C, *const* variables cannot be used in constant expressions (e.g., cannot be used in header files)

u In C++, const variables can be used in constant expressions if symbol table storage is possible (i.e., elaborate structures are not involved)

inline FUNCTIONS

FUNCTIONS 3 In C++, the user can create *inline* functions, where, when they are called, their code itself is placed at the point of the call rather than a subroutine call instruction

3 *inline* functions were created to replace the *macro* functions required in C to perform such code optimization

3 Functions defined within a class declaration are automatically *inline*

3 Global functions must use the *inline* keyword to become *inline*

3 Full C++ type checking is performed on *inline* functions, like any other functions

3 The prototype and function body of an *inline* function are stored in the *symbol table*

DEFINING

3 In C++, *object* (gariables) may be defined anywhere

Some variables cannot be initialized until code has been executed, so C++ allows a variable to be defined at any point in a scope; the *life* of such a variable extends from that point to the end of the scope

3 In C++, aggregate initialization is supported extensively

3 Storage is reserved at the beginning of a scope

Local storage usually comes off the stack, so C++ scans forward when a scope is entered

3 Initialization of an object takes place at the point of definition, even though the space has already been allocated

3 An *object* is not available until the point of definition

If the scope is left before the *constructor* is called, the *destructor* is not called 5 - 24

Goto's which skip variable initialization are

REFERENCE

3 As we have already segn, C++ supports pointers like C

3 C++ also supports the *reference* (or *reference type*), which is like a pointer except that the compiler automatically takes the address and dereferences it for you (allowing dot notation instead of arrow notation)

int& fct(float&);

```
int *ip;
float *fp;
ip = fct(*fp);
```

REFERENCES,

3 References are almost exclusively used as function arguments and return values

3 Inside a *member function*, the address of the current object is accessed with the keyword

this

```
3 Example of this :
```

```
class xint {
  int a, b;
  void init();
public:
  xint() { this->init(); }
};
```

REFERENCES,

3 References can be independent, acting like a normal variable except that they modify storage used by other variables

> int i = 100; int &ip = i; ip++; 9/29/22 changes the value of i to 101

STATIC CLASS MEMBERS IN

3 Class members (data or functions) that work with the class as a whole rather than individual objects are declared with the keyword *static*

3 Static members may be accessed by all members of a class, but the name of the static member is *hidden* within the scope of the class, so nothing outside the class may access it

3 Static data members only have one instance for all objects of a class

3 Defining and initializing static data is performed by a global definition that reserves storage and initializes the data

3 Static member functions also work with the entire class

3 The address of an object, referred to with the keyword *this*, is not passed into a static member function, so static member functions can only access static data members or call other static member functions

3 Static member functions may only be called with an object or by specifying the class and the scope resolution operator

DYNAMIC OBJECT CREATION

3 Dynamic object creation is built into the C++ language, through the keywords *new* and *delete* rather than being implemented only in library function calls such as *malloc()* and *free()*

3 Dynamic object creation lets the type and lifetime of an object be chosen at run time

malloc() AND

new

3 *malloc()* allocates space for an object given its size

3 *new* allocates space for an object given its type

3 *malloc()* does not initialize the space

3 *new* calls the associated *constructor* function to initialize the object

```
int *ip;
ip = (int
*)malloc(sizeof(int));
    /* done in C */
    ip = new int;
    9/29/22 done in C++
```

free() AND

- 3 *free()* deallocates space provided by malloc()
- 3 *delete* deallocates space provided by new

3 *free()* does no cleanup other than freeing the space

3 *delete* calls a destructor for the object

With the advent of *new* and *delete* in C++, there is no reasonable need for *malloc()* and *free()* except for compatibility with C

CONTAINER

CLASSES 3 Container classes, also called collections, are classes which hold objects created at run time

3 Container classes often hold groups of objects from other classess, making them a form of composite class

HEADER

3 In C++, a header file contains declarations only, not definitions

3 A header file includes:

- u class declarations
- u function declarations
- u const values

u anything else that is a part of the *public interface* to a class or library

3 A header file must be insulated so the compiler sees its contents only once when compiling a file; preprocessor statements, like those used before for STORABLE.H, should be used to perform this insulation

3 In essence, these preprocessor statements direct the header file to be skipped if it has already been included

INHERITANC

3 Inheritance:

u allows new classes to be built from existing classes

u supports code reuse without the need to rewrite

u does not entail modification to the code on which the new classes are based

u requires access to only the *header files* of the classes on which the new classes are based

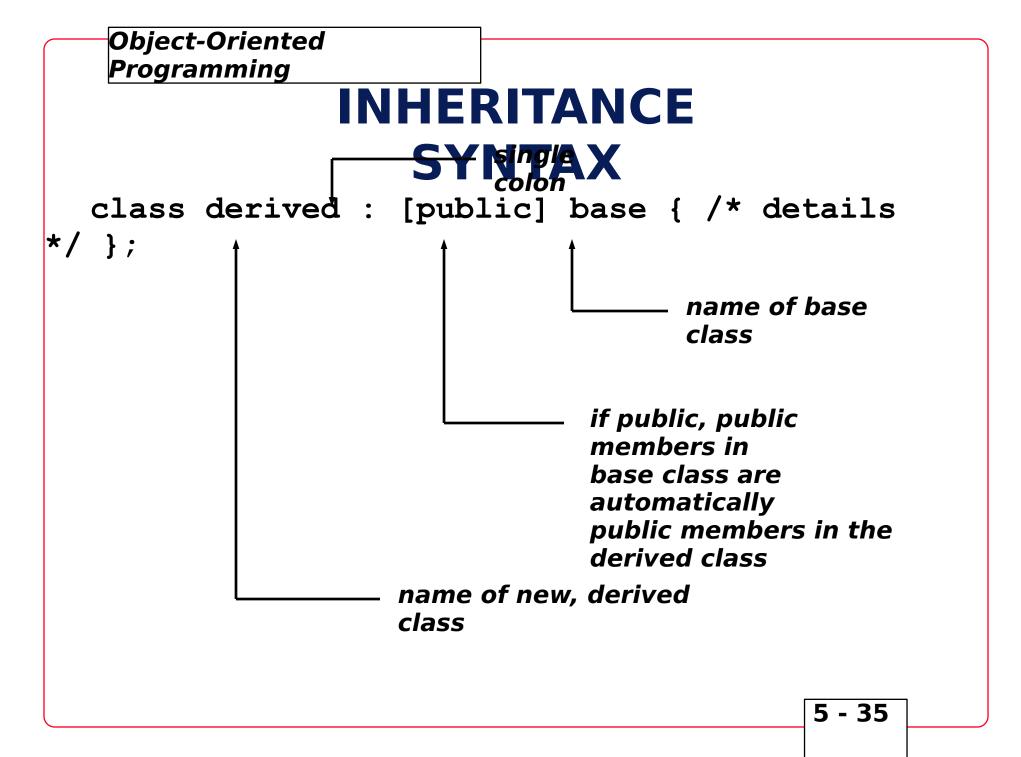
3 When a new class inherits from a base class:

u all of the public members of the base class can be public in the new class

u none of the public members of the base class can be public in the new class

u any combination of the above

u members of the same name as in the base may now have different meanings



INHERITANC

3 Inheritance requires a lot of design-oriented thought in order to be applied correctly

3 Use inheritance only when it makes sense -- is the derived class really an offspring of the base class, and does it make sense that the derived class should inherit capabilities from the base class?

3 Breaking a problem into classes has the effect of *partitioning* the problem

Object-Oriented Programming **BASE CLASS** CONSTRUCTORS Base class constructors are called in the 3 constructor initializer list, which was shown in **MULTINH.CPP:** derived07:21:41 PMderived() : base1(), base2() { } base class constructors derived class constructor 5 - 37

DERIVED CLASSES

3 The way C++ calls base class constructors ensures that all derived class constructors can depend on the base class being properly initialized

3 Up to one *destructor* may be defined for each class

3 Destructors are called automatically, and all destructors are called for an object, which includes the destructors for its base classes, their base classes, and so on

3 There is no *destructor* equivalent for the *constructor initializer list*

3 Destructors are called from the top down (the opposite to the order of constructor calls)

CREATING CLASSES WITH

3 the only way to clear the only set of the only way to clear the only set of the only way to clear the only set of the only way to clear the only set of the only way to clear the only set of the only way to clear the only set of the only way to clear the only set of the only way to clear the only set of the only way to clear the only set of the only way to clear the only set of the only way to clear the only set of the only

3 Composition is a method of building classes that contain objects of other classes; composition is sometimes said to represent a has-a relationship

A *car* is a type of *vehicle* inheritance

A car has an engine and four wheels composition

CREATING CLASSES WITH involves creating int

3 Composition involves creating instances of a class inside another case MPOSITION

3 If the objects have constructors which require arguments, those objects must be explicitly initialized in the *constructor initializer list*

3 The order of calls in a *constructor initializer list* is not necessarily the order in which they appear; instead, the base class constructor is called first, and so on, and the member object constructors are called in the order in which the objects are declared in the class

3 The *constructor initializer list* only determines the arguments given to the constructors, not the order of constructor calls

const AND enum INSIDE CLASSES

3 A *const* inside a class behaves differently from a *const* outside a class

3 A const in C++ must always be initialized when it is created

3 A C++ class declaration is not a definition (it does not reserve storage), so a const in a class must be given an initial value when the constructor is called

const AND enum,

3 Because *const* allocates storage, it can not be used in a constant expression, so the following is invalid:

```
class int_array {
   const sz;
   int array[sz]; 9/29/22 not a constant
   expression
     9/29/22 ...
};
```

3 A solution to this problem is to employ an *untagged enumeration* value as a const:

```
class int_array {
  enum { sz = 100 };
  int array[sz];
  9/29/22 ...
};
```

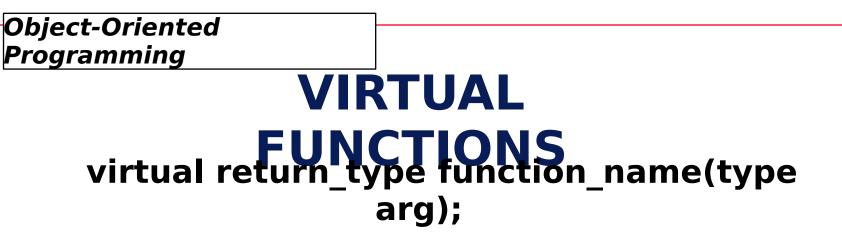
EARLY AND LATE BINDING

BINDING 3 Binding -- a linkage between a function call and a function definition

3 Compile-time, static, or early, binding -- those linkages resolved during the run of the compiler and linker

3 Run-time, dynamic, or late, binding -- linkages are resolved through a table of addresses of possible routines to call; this table is provided, and a particular table entry is selected during execution of the code

3 The virtual function is the particular C++ feature which supports late binding



3 The *virtual* keyword in C++ implements late binding

3 The *virtual* keyword causes a hidden pointer, called *VPTR*, to be created

3 The VPTR is assigned by the constructor to the address of the VTABLE, which in turn contains the addresses of all virtual functions

3 A *virtual* function call consists of code that indexes into the VTABLE through the VPTR

CREATING EXTENSIBLE PROGRAMS

3 The goal of *object-oriented design* is to identify the essential concepts and activities performed by the system (or program) and to translate them into types

u Humans organize the world as types

u C++ allows a programmer to organize a program as types

u Types in C++ provide models for the realworld types

u The program becomes an image, or model, of the problem being solved

3 A program has a single essential purpose or job it is trying to do

EXTENDING AN OBJECT-ORIENTED

3 Base classes generally represent the primary concepts of an object-oriented program

3 Most base classes are *abstract*, representing concepts rather than specific things, so it does not make sense to create objects of an *abstract base class*

3 C++ allows an abstract base class to contain pure *virtual* functions by assigning the function body to zero:

virtual void f() = 0;

3 No objects can be created of such a class; objects may be created only from classes derived from this *abstract base class*

3 These derived classes contain definitions for the *pure virtual functions* in the *base class*

EXTENDING A PROGRAM

1. Derive a new class from the *abstract base class*

The desired extensions are embodied by redefining the *virtual functions* in the *abstract base class*

2. Add new data structures and functions as necessary, including new constructor functions which invoke the base constructors as needed in the *constructor definition list*

The derived class is now taking on *attributes* and *behaviors* which distinguish it from the abstract base class

3. Add code at the point where new objects are created so the constructor for the new derived class is called

The new objects are created and properly initialized

OPERATOR

3 In C++, the meaning of almost any operator may be changed when that operator is used with variables of particular types

3 The meaning of an operator changes only when an operator is used with the indicated types

3 This permits the operators to be used as *infix* functions:

a + b;

3 In the above example, the function "+" is applied to the target object "a" with the argument "b", just like set() below is applied to the target object "A" with the argument "B":

A.set(B);

3 The syntax used for declaring the operator function for the "+" operator is:

return_type operator+ (type arg);

5 - 48