Classes and Functions: Design and Declaration

Declaring a new class in a program creates a new type: class design is type design. To design effective types, you have to understand the issues involved:

- **How should objects be created and destroyed?**
  Constructors and Destructors.
- **How does object initialization differ from object assignment?**
  Constructors vs. `operator=`.
- **What does it mean to pass objects of the new type by value?**
  Copy constructor.
- **What are the constraints on legal values for the new type?**
  Error checking.
- **Does the new type fit into an inheritance graph?**
  What functions to declare `virtual`.
- **What kind of type conversions are allowed?**
  Implicit vs explicit type conversions.
- **What operators and functions make sense for the new type?**
  What to declare in the class interface.
- **What standard operators and functions should be explicitly disallowed?**
  Declare them private.
- **Who should have access to the members of the new type?**
  Public vs protected vs private, friends.
- **How general is the new type?** Should it be a template?

What is wrong with the following code:

```cpp
class Person {
public:
    Person(...);
    ~Person();
    ...;
private:
    string name, address;
};

class Student :public Person {
public:
    Student(...);
    ~Student();
    Student returnStudent(Student s) { return s; }
private:
    string schoolName, schoolAddress;
};
```
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Prefer pass-by-reference to pass-by-value (Item 22).

The main problem with the code (aside from not having a virtual destructor in the Person class) in the previous slide is that it uses pass-by-value. Consider the following simple use of the previous classes:

Student plato;
returnStudent(plato);

How many times are string constructors/destructors called during the call to returnStudent?

The copy constructor for Student is called once for the parameter and once for the return value. Similarly for the destructor.

Each call to a constructor or destructor results in 4 calls to string constructors/destructors.

A total of 16 calls is made to string constructors/destructors.

An alternative implementation is:

const Student& returnStudent(const Student& s) {
    return s;
}

With this implementation, there are no calls to any constructors or destructors.

Passing by reference also avoids the so-called slicing problem:

When a derived class object is passed by value as a base class object, all the derived object features are “sliced” off and you’re left with a base class object.

Passing by reference does have some complications:

- Aliasing
- Sometimes it’s wrong to pass by reference.
- It is more efficient to pass small objects (such as int’s) by value.

What’s wrong with this code?

const Rational& operator* (const Rational& lhs, const Rational& rhs) {
    Rational result(lhs.num * rhs.num, lhs.den * rhs.den);
    return result;
}

The above code returns a reference to an object that no longer exists.

What’s wrong with this code?

const Rational& operator* (const Rational& lhs, const Rational& rhs) {
    Rational result(lhs.num * rhs.num, lhs.den * rhs.den);
    return result;
}

The above code returns a reference to an object that no longer exists.

What about the following fix?

const Rational& operator* (const Rational& lhs, const Rational& rhs) {
    Rational *result =
        new Rational(lhs.num * rhs.num, lhs.den * rhs.den);
    return *result;
}

Who will delete this memory? This is a guaranteed memory leak!
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_OK, how about this?

const Rational& operator*(const Rational& lhs, const Rational& rhs) {
    static Rational result;
    result.num = lhs.num * rhs.num;
    result.den = lhs.den * rhs.den;
    return result;
}

This looks promising, but what about the following code?

Rational a, b, c, d;
if ((a * b) == (c * d))
...

The if-condition is always true, regardless of the values of a, b, c, or d!

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Choose carefully between function overloading and parameter defaulting (Item 24).

Suppose you want to allow a function to be called with different numbers of arguments.

How do you decide between using parameter defaulting and function overloading?

If

1. there is a reasonable default value, and
2. you always want to use the same algorithm,

then use default parameters. Otherwise, use function overloading.

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Don’t try to return a reference when you must return an object (Item 23).

The right way to write this function is _not_ to use pass-by-reference in the return value:

const Rational operator*(const Rational& lhs, const Rational& rhs) {
    return Rational(lhs.n * rhs.n, lhs.d * rhs.d);
}

What’s wrong with this code?

void f(int x);
void f(string *ps);

f(NULL);

Depending on how NULL is defined, this will either call the first function (if NULL is defined as 0) or give a compile error (if NULL is defined as ((void*)0)).

This is probably not what you want to happen, and there is no easy way to fix it, so

Avoid overloading on a pointer and a numerical type (Item 25).
What is the potential problem with the following code?

```cpp
class B;
class A {
public:
    A(const B&);  // Constructor
};
class B {
public:
    operator A() const;  // Operator overloading
};
```

The problem is potential ambiguity. Consider the following code:

```cpp
void f(const A&);
B b;
f(b);
```

Because there are two ways to convert an object of type `B` to an object of type `A`, the compiler will complain.

Explicitly disallow use of implicitly generated member functions you don’t want (Item 27).

We talked about this a little bit last time. Suppose you want to create an array object but you don’t want to allow assignment of one array to another:

```cpp
template<class T>
class Array {
private:
    Array& operator=(const Array& rhs);
    ...  // Other members
};
```

Implicitly generated functions include default constructors, copy constructors, and assignment operators. Make sure you think about whether you want users of your class to have access to these functions.

Guard against potential ambiguity (Item 26).

There are other ways to generate ambiguity:

```cpp
void f(int);
void f(char);
double d = 6.02;
f(d);
```

Multiple inheritance can easily result in ambiguity:

```cpp
class Basel {
    int doit();
};
class Base2 {
    int doit();
};
class Derived : public Basel, public Base2 { ...
Derived d;
d.doIt();
```

Partition the global namespace (Item 28).

Namespaces allow you to safely combine your code with other peoples’ code without worrying about name collisions.

We won’t talk about it much in this class, partly because it shouldn’t be an issue for your projects.

Also, last time I checked, the C++ debugger `gdb` (we’ll talk more about it soon) has trouble with namespaces.

However, if you are working on a tool that you expect to provide as a library to clients, you should definitely use namespaces.
Classes and Functions: Implementation

Once you have a good interface, correctly implementing the member functions is usually straightforward.

However, there are a few pitfalls you need to watch for.

What is wrong with the following code?

```cpp
class String {
public:
  String(const char *value);
  ~String();
  operator char*() const;
private:
  char *data;
};
String::operator char*() const
{ return data; }
```

Avoid returning “handles” to internal data (Item 29).

The problem is that the `char*` operator function returns a handle to information that should be hidden.

As a result, a caller could modify the object, even if the object is `const`.

The same thing can happen with references:

```cpp
class String {
public:
  ... char &operator[](int index) const
  { return data[index]; }
private:
  char *data;
};
```

The general solution to these kinds of problems is either to make the function non-`const` or rewrite it so that no handle is returned (returning a `const` handle is often fine).

Even for non-`const` functions, returning handles is a bad idea because it violates abstraction and can lead to trouble, especially when temporary objects get involved.

Postpone variable definitions as long as possible (Item 32).

In C++, every non-basic variable that is declared requires a call to a constructor and a destructor.

If a particular run of the program does not need the variable, this is wasted effort.

Consider the following example:

```cpp
string encryptPassword(const string &password)
{
  string encrypted;
  if (!isValid(password)) {
    throw logic_error("Invalid Password");
  }
  encrypt(password, encrypted); // encrypt password
  return encrypted;
}
```

The string `encrypted` will not be used if there is an error. Therefore, it would be better to move the declaration of `encrypted` after the check for a valid password.
Use inlining judiciously (Item 33).

When is inlining a good idea?
- Very simple code (no loops).
- Function is performance-critical.

When is inlining a bad idea?
All the rest of the time. Why?
- *virtual* functions cannot be inlined.
- inlining can increase code size.
- inlining can make debugging harder.
- inlining can increase compilation dependencies (see next item).

Minimize compilation dependencies between files (Item 34).

If you’ve ever worked on a large project, you have probably had the experience of changing one line and having to wait for 10 minutes for everything to recompile.

C++ doesn’t do a very good job of separating interfaces from implementations: often implementation details get put in header files and changing these causes a chain reaction in compilation.

This can be partly minimized by using good design patterns like the bridge pattern.

Another key principle is:

*Make header files self-sufficient whenever it’s practical and when it’s not practical, make them dependent on class declarations, not class definitions.*

We will look at a few applications of this principle.

1. Avoid using objects when object references and pointers will do.

Consider the following definition:

```cpp
#include "object.h"
class Wrapper {
  private:
    Object x;
};
```

If you can reimplement this using a reference or pointer to Object, you don’t have to include `object.h`:

```cpp
class Object;
class Wrapper {
  private:
    Object& x;
};
```

2. Use class declarations instead of class definitions whenever you can.

In the last example, we were able to replace the class definition (found in the header file) with a class declaration because we changed the private data from an object to a reference to an object.

For member functions, we can do even better: you *never* need a class definition to declare a function using that class, even if the function passes or returns the class type by value:

```cpp
class Date;
class DateManager {
  public:
    Date getDate();
    void setDate(Date d);
  ...
};
```

Although you should question why `DateManager` isn’t passing by reference instead of by value, the point is that this code compiles fine with just a simple declaration of `Date`. 
3. Don’t include header files in your header files unless your headers won’t compile without them.

This point is related to the previous two. Just because you reference class A in your header file, doesn’t mean you need to include its definition.

Sometimes it can be tricky to figure out whether the definition is needed. Thus, the easy rule is that if it doesn’t compile without the definition, include it, otherwise, don’t.

This often means you will have to have more #include directives in your implementation files. That’s fine. That’s where they should be, not in your header files.