

Programming in C++

Session 3 – Overloading

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(based on slides originally produced by Dr Ross Paterson)



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Polymorphism

Code that works for many types.

ad-hoc polymorphism (overloading) – this session

The version executed is determined statically from the types of the arguments (Savitch 8.1; Stroustrup 7.4,11; Horstmann 13.4)

parametric polymorphism (genericity) – next session

A single version, parameterized by types, is used (Savitch 16.1–2; Stroustrup 13.2–3; Horstmann 13.5)

subtype polymorphism (dynamic binding) - session 7

The version executed is determined dynamically. (Savitch 14,15; Stroustrup 12; Horstmann 14)

Overloading

Term symbol is overloaded. . .

A single symbol has multiple meanings.

The meaning of a particular use is statically determined by the types of its arguments.

The following may be overloaded in C++:

- constructors (as in Java) – often useful.
- member functions (or methods, as in Java) – a dubious (and dangerous) feature.
- independent functions – ditto.
- operators – heavily used in the standard libraries.
Operator overloading makes for concise programs, but overuse may impair readability.

Implicit conversions and overloading

- Recall that numeric types may be implicitly converted, e.g. given a definition

```
void f(double x) { ... }
```

it is legal to write `f(1)`, because `1`, of type `int` can be implicitly converted to `double`. (Later: similar situation with inheritance of class types.)

- Now suppose there was another definition

```
void f(int n) { ... }
```

If we call `f(1)`, the best (most specific) definition is selected, i.e. the one closest to the call type.

So, to be explicit - say which you really want: `f(1.0)`
or even better `f(double(1))`

Ambiguity

Given the definitions

```
void f(int i, double y) { ... }
void f(double x, int j) { ... }
```

the following is rejected by the the compiler:

```
f(1, 2); // ambiguous!
```

We could get around this by also defining

```
void f(int i, int j) { ... }
```

Then every application would have a best match.

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We could get around this by also defining
void f(int i, int j) { ... }
Then every application would have a best match.

You're writing programs for PEOPLE first!

So, DOCUMENT THEM!

```
f( int(1), double(2) );
```

Overloading – Write fewer if's with OOP!

Overriding – compare:

```
void move(person p) {
if (p isA driver) {
} else if (p isA cyclist) {
} else if (p isA pilot) {
} else { /*DEFAULT* }
```

```
class person { /*DEFAULT*
void move() { ... } }
class driver : person {
void move() { ... } }
class cyclist : person {
void move() { ... } }
class pilot : person {
void move() { ... } }
```

Overloading – compare:

```
void f( x ) {
if (x isA double) {
} else if (x isA float) {
} else if (x isA int) {
} else { assert(0); } /*ERROR*
void f(double x) { ... }
void f(float x) { ... }
void f(int x) { ... }
/*NO* (runtime) *ERROR*!!!
```

They allow us to write if/then/else's better – the compiler does it!

Overloaded equality

In C++, we can compare values of built-in types:

```
int i;
if (i == 3) ... // [*]
```

We can also compare objects:

```
string s1, s2;
if (s1 == s2) ...
```

And similarly for **vectors**.

The == operator is **overloaded**:

special definitions have been given for **string**, **vector** and many other types.

[*] Prefer **(3 == i)**, because “if (i = 3)” is valid C++ (and it's always true...)

Expanding overloaded operators

An operator can be either an independent function or a member function, in each case with a special name starting with `operator`:

Binary operators An expression `a == b` could mean either of

- `operator==(a, b)` (independent function)
- `a.operator==(b)` (member function)

a is the implicit 1st argument!

Unary operators An expression `! a` could mean either of

- `operator!(a)` (independent function)
- `a.operator!()` (member function)

As with ordinary overloading, there must be a unique best match.

a.method(b, c, d) is in reality: method(a, b, c, d)

Comparing points

```
class point {
    int _x, _y;
public:
    point(int x, int y) : _x(x), _y(y) { }
    int x() const {return _x;} // p1.x(); p1 as if const
    int y() const {return _y;}
    // p1 == p2; stands for p1.operator==( p2 );
    bool operator==(const point &p) const {
        return _x == p._x && _y == p._y();
    } // methods can read private fields
};
```

- Use `const` as much as possible.
- Put it in by default, only remove it if you (*really*) need to.
- If you need a non-`const` version, see if you can also provide a `const` one (for use with constant objects).

An alternative definition

We could instead have defined an independent function:

```
// p1 == p2; now stands for operator==( p1, p2 );
bool operator==(const point &p1, const point &p2){
    return p1.x() == p2.x() && p1.y() == p2.y();
}
```

In either case we can then write

```
point p1, p2;
...
if (p1 == p2)
    ...
if (p1 == point(0, 0)) // temporary object
    // (only works if second parameter is *const*)
...

```

A note on types

- The language does not enforce any constraints on the argument types and return type of `operator==`, or any other operator.
- It is conventional that the arguments have the same type and the result type is `bool`.
- It is also conventional that the `==` operator should define an equivalence relation.
- Departing from these conventions is permitted by the language, but will be very confusing for anyone trying to understand your code (including a future you).

Equivalence Relation R :

Reflective $x R x$

Symmetric $x R y \rightarrow y R x$

Transitive $x R y \wedge y R z \rightarrow x R z$

Other comparison operators

The `<utility>` header file (which is included by `<string>`, `<vector>` and other data types) defines

- $a \neq b$ as $!(a == b)$
- $a > b$ as $b < a$
- $a \leq b$ as $!(b < a)$
- $a \geq b$ as $!(a < b)$

So usually we need only define `==` and `<`, but we can also define the others if required.

You need to declare:

```
using namespace std::rel_ops;
```

Operators available for overloading

Only built-in operators can be overloaded:

unary	~	!	+	-	&	*	++	--	++	--
binary	+	-	*	/	%	^	&		<<	>>
	+=	-=	*=	/=	%=	^=	&=	=	<<=	>>=
	==	!=	<	>	<=	>=	&&			
	=	,	->*	->	()	[]				

Their precedence and associativity can't be changed, so the expressions

$a + b + c * d$ $(a + b) + (c * d)$

are always equivalent, no matter how the operators are overloaded.

```
++a; is a.operator++();  
a++; is a.operator++(int); //dummy argument (ignored)
```

Output of built-in types

Consider

```
cout << "Total = " << sum << '\n';
```

This is equivalent to

```
((cout << "Total = ") << sum) << '\n';
```

- The operator `<<` is overloaded in `iostream`, not in the C++ language.
- It associates to the left.
- It is defined as a member function of `ostream`, and returns the modified `ostream`.

The << operator

- The built-in meaning of `<<` is bitwise left shift of integers, so that the expression $5 \ll 3$ is equal to 40.
- It associates to the left, so $5 \ll 2 \ll 1$ is also equal to 40.
- It was selected for stream output for its looks. Luckily it associated the right way.
- Different overloads of the same symbol need not have related meanings, or even related return types.

Bitwise left shift			
$5 \ll 0$	101	=	5
$5 \ll 1$	1010	=	10
$5 \ll 2$	10100	=	20
$5 \ll 3$	101000	=	40

$$x \ll y = x * 2^y$$
$$x \gg y = x * 2^{-y} = x / 2^y$$

The ostream class

```
class ostream {
public:
    ostream& operator<<(char c);
    ostream& operator<<(unsigned char c);
    ostream& operator<<(int n);
    ostream& operator<<(unsigned int n);
    ostream& operator<<(long n);
    ostream& operator<<(float n);
    ostream& operator<<(double n);
    ...
};
```

In the **string** header file an independent function:

```
ostream& operator<<(ostream &out, const string &s);
Why not define it as a member function???
ostream& operator<<(ostream &out);
```

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The ostream class

```
The ostream class
class ostream {
public:
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    ostream& operator<<(int n);
    ostream& operator<<(unsigned int n);
    ostream& operator<<(long n);
    ostream& operator<<(float n);
    ostream& operator<<(double n);
    ...
};
In the existing header file an independent function:
ostream& operator<<(ostream &out, const string &s);
Why not define it as a member function???
ostream& operator<<(ostream &out);
```

Why not define printing string objects as a member function?

The writer of the **string** class cannot modify the **ostream** class. So if they want to declare it as a member function they can only do so within the class **string**.

But then the meaning of the operator changes – instead of writing `cout << s`; we would have to write `s << cout`; – not what we want!

Do you understand why we'd have to write `s << cout`; to print a **string** `s` on `cout` if we'd have defined **operator<<** as a member function of class **string**?

If you do not, start reading again from slide "Expanding overloaded operators" (slide 8) – repeat until it's clear.

Output of a user-defined type

```
class point { int _x, _y;
public:
    point(x, y) : _x(x), _y(y) { }
    int x() const { return _x; }
    int y() const { return _y; }
};
```

The output operator for **points** is defined as a non-member function:

```
ostream& operator<<(ostream &s, const point &p) {
    return s << '(' << p.x() << ',' << p.y() << ')';
}
```

Again – why as a non-member function ???

Output of a user-defined type – ATTENTION!!!

- 1 Always output to the ostream parameter (**s**), NOT to **cout/cerr**!!!
 - **cout/cerr** might not exist!
 - May want to print to a socket, a **string** buffer...
- 2 Always return the stream received as parameter
 - To enable chaining: `cout << a << b`;
- 3 Return type and the parameters should all be references – the object should be a **const** reference.
 - We need to change the **ostream** (so a reference) and we want to avoid copying the object (so a **const** reference).
- 4 We NEVER print a newline at the end!
 - Some may need to print more things before the newline.
- 5 We output the bare minimum – nothing more!
Never print things such as:
"The point object is (3,4)"
- 6 We keep the output simple and easy to READ BACK.
 - We must be able to eat our own dog food!

Using various versions of the << operator

Suppose we have an expression $a \ll b$, where a has type **A**, and b has type **B**. Then the relevant definition of \ll could be either

- a method of class **A** taking one argument of type **B**:
`ReturnType A::operator<<(B x)`
- or an independent function (not a method in a class) taking two arguments of types **A** and **B**:
`ReturnType operator<<(A x, B y)`

For example the following uses a mixture of these:

```
point p(2,3);
cout << "The point is " << p << '\n';
```

Can you identify which occurrences of the \ll operator are independent functions and which are member functions?

(Hint: Think which types were already known to whomever wrote the *ostream* class.)

On accessing private state: Friend (or NOT)

An accidental consequence of the way operators are defined in C++:

- An operator defined as a member function has access to the private and protected fields of its first argument, but not its second (when the second is an object of a different class).
- Sometimes this is not what we want (e.g. for \ll and \gg of user-defined types).
- One work-around is to declare the operator as a **friend** of the second class.
- Even **better** to use a helper member function:

```
class point {
public:
    ostream& print_on(ostream &s) const { /* *CONST* !!!
        return s << ' (' << _x << ', ' << _y << ')'; }
};
ostream& operator<<(ostream &s, const point &p) {
    return p.print_on(s); }
```

Input of built-in types

Input is almost the mirror image of output:

```
int x, y, z;
cout << "Please type three numbers: ";
cin >> x >> y >> z;
```

- Again \gg is overloaded: it knows what to look for based on the type of its argument.
- It also associates to the left, and returns an **istream**.
- By default, \gg will skip white space before the item; in this mode you will not see a space, newline, etc.

The *istream* class

```
class istream : virtual public ios {
public:
    istream& operator>>(char &c);
    istream& operator>>(unsigned char &c);
    istream& operator>>(int &n);
    istream& operator>>(unsigned int &n);
    istream& operator>>(long &n);
    istream& operator>>(float &n);
    istream& operator>>(double &n);
    ...
};
```

In the **string** header file, as an **independent** function:

```
istream& operator>>(istream &in, string &s);
```

The state of an `istream`

The following methods of `istream` test its state:

`bool eof()` the end of the input has been seen.

`bool fail()` the last operation failed.

`bool good()` the next operation might succeed.
(Equivalent to `! eof() && ! fail()`.)

`bool bad()` the stream has been corrupted: data has been lost
(data was read but not stored in an argument).
(Implies `fail()`, but not vice-versa.)

A test “`if (s)`” is equivalent to “`if (! s.fail())`”

Input of a user-defined type

```
istream& operator>>(istream &s, point &p) {
    int x, y;
    char lpar, comma, rpar;
    if (s >> lpar) { //not met EOF (End Of File)
        if ((s >> x >> comma >> y >> rpar) &&
            (lpar == '(' && comma == ',' && rpar == ')'))
            p = point(x, y); // *constructor*, not setters!
        else
            s.setstate(ios::badbit); //read failed
    }
    return s;
}
```

When “`if (s >> lpar)`” fails, that means there is no more input.
We have not read any data so far, so have not corrupted the input.
Therefore, we simply return the input stream.

Input of a user-defined type – ATTENTION!!!

- ❶ Always read from the stream received as parameter – NEVER `cin`!
 - `cin` may not exist!
 - May want to read from a file/buffer/socket. . .
- ❷ Always return the stream received as parameter
 - To allow checking for input success.
 - To allow for chaining.
- ❸ Return and all parameters should be references (non-`const`).
- ❹ Set the badbit if there's a problem (*i.e.*, you've read something but cannot use it to set your object) – failing to read **anything at all** because of an EOF is NOT a problem.
- ❺ Always read what you print – always (so, keep the format simple!).
- ❻ NEVER use `getline()` – you're corrupting the stream!
- ❼ NEVER read into a `string` and parse that – stream corruption!
- ❽ NEVER, EVER print anything!
- ❾ Prefer constructors over setter member functions.
Avoid setters altogether – not very OO. Same with getters. . .

Getters/Setters – Why Not

- **Avoid getters**
 - Objects should be asked to do tasks themselves:
`point1.move(3,5);`
`shape2.scale(.5);`
`employee3.clock_in(log_register); etc.`
 - When you're using getters, you end up doing the task yourself using the state data you got.
But that's procedural, not OO programming. . .
- **Avoid setters** (OK, you can write *ForTran* in any language. . .)
 - Object's state should only change because of actions **they**'ve performed **on your behalf**, not because you've done a task and are now giving them the results.
Don't spoon-feed your objects – they can take care of themselves.
 - Setters need to preserve the class invariance.
Much easier to get this right once (in the constructors) and re-use the constructors from that point on.
- **Delegate!** “What can I ask an object of this class to do for me?”

Next session

- Genericity (parametric polymorphism)
- Template classes and functions in C++.
- Reading: Savitch 16.1–2; Stroustrup 13.2–3; Horstmann 13.5.
- Introducing the Standard Template Library: some container classes.
- Reading: Savitch 19.1; Stroustrup 16.2.3, 16.3; Horstmann 13.5.

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Next session

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- Introducing the Standard Template Library: some container classes.
- Reading: Savitch 19.1; Stroustrup 16.2.3, 16.3; Horstmann 13.5.

Final Notes

- `a + b`, can be either `a.operator+(b)` or `operator+(a, b)`. All methods receive the current object (`*this`) as their implicit first argument.
- Avoid friend functions – use helper methods.
“*Treat your friend as if he might become an enemy.*” – Publilius Syrus, 85-43 BC.
- Output: Read again slides 17–18. Repeat.
- Input: Read again slides 24–25. Repeat.
- More on Operators:
<https://www.cplusplus.com/doc/tutorial/operators/>
- More on Operator overloading:
<https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/language/operators>
- More on friends: <https://isocpp.org/wiki/faq/friends>