C++ Inheritance II, Casts (Wrap-up) CSE 333 Spring 2023

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Relevant Course Information

- Exercise 9 is due Wednesday (5/17)
- Homework 3 is due Thursday (5/18)
 - Suggestion: write index files to /tmp/, which is a local scratch disk and is very fast, but please clean up when you're done
- Lecture on "Intro to Networking" recording posted this evening
 - We'll start on IP/DNS/Client-side networking on Wednesday

Lecture Outline

- C++ Inheritance
 - Abstract Classes
 - Static Dispatch
 - Constructors and Destructors
 - Assignment
- C++ Casting
- C++ Conversions

* Reference: *C++ Primer*, Chapter 15

Abstract Classes

- Sometimes we want to include a function in a class but only implement it in derived classes
 - In Java, we would use an abstract method
 - In C++, we use a "pure virtual" function
 - Example: virtual string Noise() = 0;
- A class containing any pure virtual methods is abstract
 - You can't create instances of an abstract class
 - Extend abstract classes and override methods to use them
- A class containing only pure virtual methods is the same as a Java interface
 - Pure type specification without implementations

Reminder: virtual is "sticky"

- ❖ If X::F() is declared virtual, then a vtable will be created for class X and for all of its subclasses
 - The vtables will include function pointers for (the correct) F
- F() will be called using dynamic dispatch even if overridden in a derived class without the virtual keyword
 - Good style to help the reader and avoid bugs by using override
 - Style guide controversy, if you use override should you use virtual in derived classes? Recent style guides say just use override, but you'll sometimes see both, particularly in older code

What happens if we omit "virtual"?

- By default, without virtual, methods are dispatched statically
 - At <u>compile time</u>, the compiler writes in a call to the address of the class' method in the .text segment
 - Based on the compile-time visible type of the callee
 - This is different than Java

```
class Derived : public Base { ... };
int main(int argc, char** argv) {
  Derived d;
  Derived* dp = &d;
  Base* bp = &d;
  dp->Foo();
  bp->Foo();
  return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}

Derived::Foo()
  ...
Base::Foo()
  ...
```

Static Dispatch Example

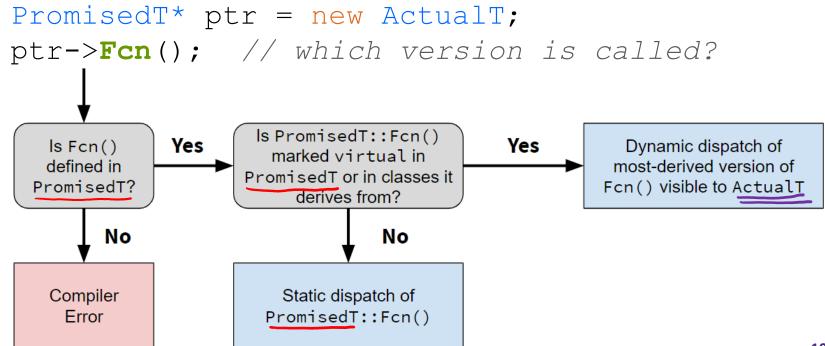
Removed virtual on methods: Stock.h double Stock::GetMarketValue() const; double Stock::GetProfit() const; defined in Stock, inherited by Dividend Stock, calls Get Market Value() DividendStock dividend(); DividendStock* ds = ÷nd; Stock* s = ÷nd; // Invokes DividendStock::GetMarketValue() ds->GetMarketValue(); // Invokes **Stock::**GetMarketValue() s->GetMarketValue(); // invokes Stock::GetProfit(). // Stock::GetProfit() invokes Stock::GetMarketValue(). s->GetProfit(); // invokes Stock::GetProfit(), since that method is inherited. // Stock::GetProfit() invokes Stock::GetMarketValue(). ds->GetProfit();

Why Not Always Use virtual?

- Two (fairly uncommon) reasons:
 - Efficiency:
 - Non-virtual function calls are a tiny bit faster (no indirect lookup)
 - A class with no virtual functions has objects without a vptr field
 - Control:
 - If F() calls G() in class X and G is not virtual, we're guaranteed to call X::G() and not G() in some subclass
 - Particularly useful for framework design
- In Java, all methods are virtual, except static class methods, which aren't associated with objects
- In C++ and C#, you can pick what you want
 - Omitting virtual can cause obscure bugs
 - (Most of the time, you want member function to be virtual)

Mixed Dispatch

- Which function is called is a mix of both compile time and runtime decisions as well as how you call the function
 - If called on an object (e.g., obj.Fcn()), usually optimized into a hard-coded function call at compile time
 - If called via a pointer or reference:



Mixed Dispatch Example

mixed.cc

```
class A {
     public:
      // m1 will use static dispatch
      void M1() { cout << "a1, "; }</pre>
      // m2 will use dynamic dispatch
      virtual void M2() { cout << "a2"; }</pre>
    };
    class B : public A {
     public:
      void M1() { cout << "b1, "; }</pre>
      // m2 is still virtual by default
(virtual) void M2() { cout << "b2"; }
```

```
statiz dispatch based on promised type dynamiz dispatch based on actual type
```

```
void main(int argc,
            char** argv) {
  A a;
  B b; promised
  A^* a ptr \underline{a} = \&a;
  A^* a ptr \underline{b} = &b;
 B* b ptr a = &a; //compiler error
  B^* \underline{b} ptr \underline{b} = \&b;
  a ptr a->M1(); //A::M1
  a ptr a\rightarrow M2(); //A::M2
  a ptr b->M1(); //A:M1
  a ptr b->M2(); //B::M2
  b ptr b->M1(); //B:M1
  b ptr b->M2(); //8::M2
```

Lecture Outline

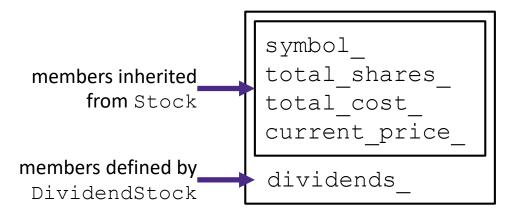
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❖ Reference: C++ Primer, Chapter 15

Derived-Class Objects

- A derived object contains "subobjects" corresponding to the data members inherited from each base class
 - No guarantees about how these are laid out in memory (not even contiguousness between subobjects)

Conceptual structure of DividendStock object:



Constructors and Inheritance

- A derived class does not inherit the base class' constructor
 - The derived class must have its own constructor
 - A synthesized default constructor for the derived class first invokes the default constructor of the base class and then initialize the derived class' member variables
 - Compiler error if the base class has no default constructor
 - The base class constructor is invoked before the constructor of the derived class
 - You can use the initialization list of the derived class to specify which base class constructor to use

Constructor Examples

badctor.cc

```
class Base { // no default ctor
public:
 Base(int yi) : y(yi) { }
 int y;
};
// Compiler error when you try to
// instantiate a Derl, as the
// synthesized default ctor needs
// to invoke Base's default ctor.
class Der1 : public Base {
publi
class Der2 : public Base {
public:
 Der2(int yi, int zi)
    : Base(yi), z(zi) { }
 int z; Cinvolces a specific constructor
};
```

goodctor.cc

```
// has default ctor
class Base {
public:
 int y;
};
// works now
class Der1 : public Base {
public:
 int z;
};
// still works
class Der2 : public Base {
public:
 Der2(int zi) : z(zi) { }
 int z;
```

Destructors and Inheritance



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- Destructor of a derived class:
 - First runs body of the dtor
 - Then invokes of the dtor of the base class
- Static dispatch of destructors is almost always a mistake!
 - Good habit to always define a dtor as virtual
 - Empty body if there's no work to do

```
class Base {
 public:
  Base() { x = new int; }
                            // statiz dispatch
  ~Base() { delete x; }
  int* x;
};
class Der1 : public Base {
 public:
  Der1() { y = new int; }
  ~Der1() { delete y; }
  int* y;
     bootr 1
b1ptrt
void Foo(
  Base* b0ptr = new Base;
  Base* b1ptr = new Der1;
  delete boptr; // deletes x
  delete b1ptr; // only deletes x - leaks y!
```

Assignment and Inheritance

- C++ allows you to assign the value of a derived class to an instance of a base class
 - Known as object slicing
 - It's legal since b = d
 passes type checking rules
 - But b doesn't have space for any extra fields in d

slicing.cc

```
class Base {
 public:
  Base(int xi) : x(xi) { }
  int x;
class Der1 : public Base {
 public:
  Der1(int yi) : Base(16), y(yi) { }
  int y;
void Foo() {
  Base b(1);
  Der1 d(2);
  d = b; // compiler error - not enough into b = d; // OK, but what happens to y?
```

STL and Inheritance

- Recall: STL containers store copies of values
 - What happens when we want to store mixes of object types in a single container? (e.g., Stock and DividendStock)
 - You get sliced ⊗

```
#include <list>
#include "Stock.h"
#include "DividendStock.h"

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
   Stock s;
   DividendStock ds;
   list<Stock> li;

   li.push_back(s); // OK
   li.push_back(ds); // OUCH!
   return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

STL and Inheritance

- Instead, store pointers to heap-allocated objects in STL containers
 vector < Stock*>
 - No slicing! © Struk Dividend Stock
 - sort() does the wrong thing (sorts on addresses by default
 - You have to remember to delete your objects before destroying the container ⁽³⁾
 - · Unless you use smart pointers! =9, vector (shared_ptr (Stock))

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Explicit Casting in C

- * Simple syntax: [lhs = (new_type) rhs;
- Used to:
 - Convert between pointers of arbitrary type (νοτλ *) my-ptr
 - Doesn't change the data, but treats it differently
 - Forcibly convert a primitive type to another (float) my-int
 - Actually changes the representation
- You can still use C-style casting in C++, but sometimes the intent is not clear
 - You should not use C-style casting in C++.

Casting in C++



- C++ provides an alternative casting style that is more informative:
 - static_cast<to_type>(expression)
 - dynamic_cast<to_type>(expression)
 - const cast<to type>(expression)
 - reinterpret cast<to type>(expression)
- Always use these in C++ code
 - Intent is clearer
 - Easier to find in code via searching

static_cast

- * static_cast can conversion
 - Pointers to classes of related type
 - Compiler error if classes are not related
 - Dangerous to cast down a class hierarchy
 - Casting between void* and T*
 - Non-pointer conversion
 - e.g., float to int
- * static_cast is
 checked at compile time

```
statiz-cast can
change the data
representation!
```

staticcast.cc

```
class A {
  public:
    int x;
};

class B {
  public:
    float x;
};

class C : public B {
    public:
    char x;
};
```

```
void Foo() {
    B b; C c;

// compiler error (unrelated)

A* aptr = static_cast<A*>(&b);

// OK (would have been done implicitly)

B* bptr = static_cast<B*>(&c);

// compiles, but dangerous

C* cptr = static_cast<C*>(&b);
}
```

dynamiccast.cc

dynamic_cast

- - Pointers to classes of related type
 - References to classes of related type
- dynamic cast is checked at both

compile time and run time

- Casts between unrelated classes fail at compile time
- Casts from base to derived fail at run time if the pointed-to object is not the derived type

```
class Base {
  public:
    virtual void Foo() { }
    float x;
};

class Der1 : public Base {
    public:
        char x;
};
```

```
void Bar() {
  Base b; Der1 d;
  // OK (run-time check passes)
  Base* bptr = dynamic cast<Base*>(&d);
  assert(bptr != nullptr);
  // OK (run-time check passes)
  Der1* dptr = dynamic cast<Der1*>(bptr);
  assert(dptr != nullptr);
  // Run-time check fails, returns nullptr
  bptr = \&b;
  dptr = dynamic cast<Der1*>(bptr);
  assert(dptr != nullptr);
```

const_cast

- const_cast adds or strips const-ness
 - Dangerous (!)

reinterpret_cast

- reinterpret_cast casts between incompatible types
 - Low-level reinterpretation of the bit pattern
 - e.g., storing a pointer in an int, or vice-versa
 - Works as long as the integral type is "wide" enough
 - Converting between incompatible pointers
 - Dangerous (!)
 - This is used (carefully) in hw3
 - Use any other C++ cast if you can!



Casting Style Considerations



- From the "Casting" and "Run-Time Type Information (RTTI)" sections of the Google C++ Style Guide:
 - When the logic of a program guarantees that a given instance of a base class is, in fact, an instance of a particular derived class, then a dynamic_cast may be used freely on the object.
 - Usually one can use a static_cast as an alternative in such situations
 - Only use reinterpret_cast if you know what you are doing and you understand the aliasing issues
 - For unsafe conversions of pointer types to and from integer and other pointer types, including void*

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Implicit Conversion

- The compiler tries to infer some kinds of conversions
 - When types are not equal and you don't specify an explicit cast,
 the compiler looks for an acceptable implicit conversion

```
void Bar(std::string x);

void Foo() {
  int x = 5.7;  // conversion, float -> int
  char c = x;  // conversion, int -> char
  Bar("hi");  // conversion, (const char*) -> string
}
```

Sneaky Implicit Conversions

- * (const char*) to string conversion?
 - If a class has a constructor with a single parameter, the compiler will exploit it to perform implicit conversions
 - At most, one user-defined implicit conversion will happen
 - Can do int → Foo, but not int → Foo → Baz

```
class Foo {
  public:
    Foo(int xi) : x(xi) { }
    int x;
};
int Bar(Foo f) {
    return f.x;
}
int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    return Bar(5); // equivalent to return Bar(Foo(5));
}
```

Avoiding Sneaky Implicits



- Declare one-argument constructors as explicit if you want to disable them from being used as an implicit conversion path
 - Usually a good idea

```
class Foo {
  public:
    explicit Foo(int xi) : x(xi) { }
    int x;
};

int Bar(Foo f) {
    return f.x;
}

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    return Bar(5); // compiler error — no longer allowed, but still do Bar(Foo(5)) instead
}
```

Extra Exercise #1

- Design a class hierarchy to represent shapes
 - *e.g.*, Circle, Triangle, Square
- Implement methods that:
 - Construct shapes
 - Move a shape (i.e., add (x,y) to the shape position)
 - Returns the centroid of the shape
 - Returns the area of the shape
 - Print(), which prints out the details of a shape

Extra Exercise #2

- Implement a program that uses Extra Exercise #1 (shapes class hierarchy):
 - Constructs a vector of shapes
 - Sorts the vector according to the area of the shape
 - Prints out each member of the vector

Notes:

- Avoid slicing!
- Make sure the sorting works properly!