

C++ Inheritance II, Casts

CSE 333 Autumn 2019

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About how long did Exercise 14 take?

- A. 0-1 Hours
- B. 1-2 Hours
- C. 2-3 Hours
- D. 3-4 Hours
- E. 4+ Hours
- F. I prefer not to say

Administrivia

- ❖ Quick poll: extra time for Exercise 14?
- ❖ Exercise 14a out today, due Friday
 - Practice with dynamic dispatch in C++
- ❖ HW3 due next Thursday 🙌🙌🙌
 - Remember to use `hw3fsck` to check your index file!

Lecture Outline

- ❖ C++ Inheritance
 - **Static Dispatch**
 - Dynamic Dispatch, Two Perspectives
 - Abstract Classes
 - Constructors and Destructors
- ❖ C++ Assignment,  Slicing , and Casts
 -  Slicing 
 - New-style Casts

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

What happens if we omit “virtual”?

- ❖ By default, without virtual, methods are dispatched *statically*
 - At compile time, the compiler writes in a `call` to the address of the class' method in the `.text` segment
 - Based on the compile-time promised 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;
```

```
DividendStock dividend;  
DividendStock *ds = &dividend;  
Stock *s = &dividend;  
  
// Invokes DividendStock::GetMarketValue()  
ds->GetMarketValue();  
  
// Invokes Stock::GetMarketValue()  
s->GetMarketValue();  
  
// invokes Stock::GetProfit(), since that method is inherited.  
// Stock::GetProfit() invokes Stock::GetMarketValue().  
ds->GetProfit();  
  
// invokes Stock::GetProfit().  
// Stock::GetProfit() invokes Stock::GetMarketValue().  
s->GetProfit();
```

Why Not Always Use `virtual`?

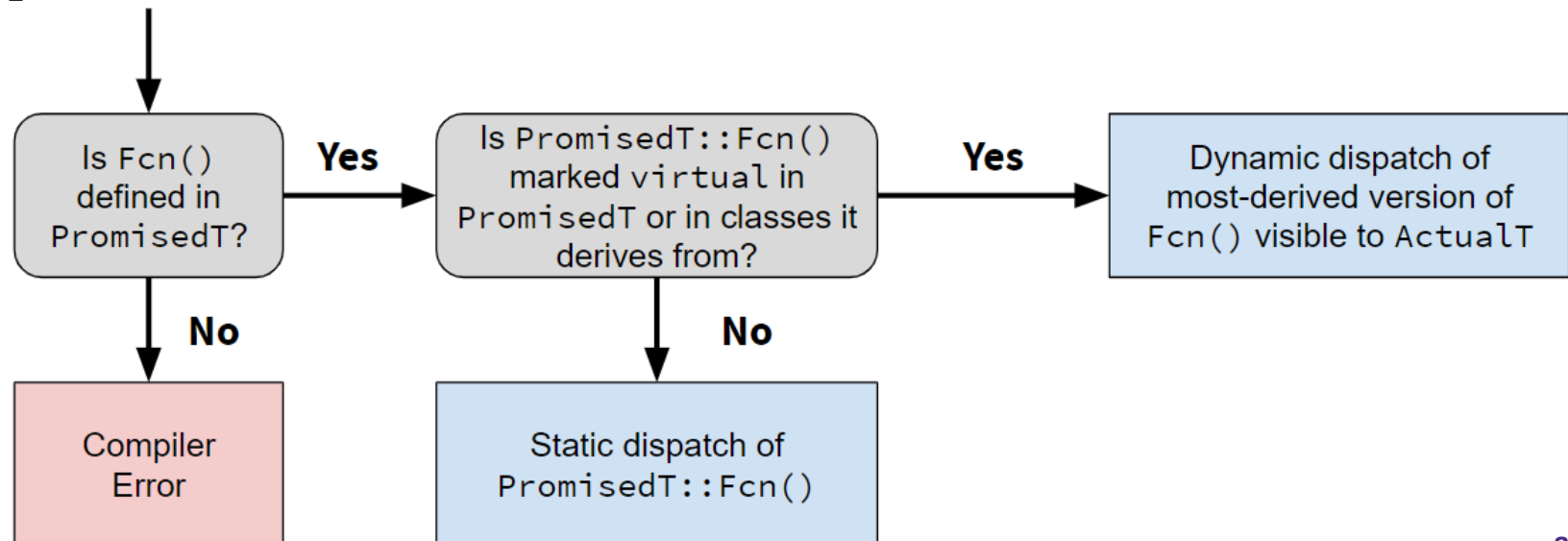
- ❖ Two (fairly uncommon) reasons:
 - Efficiency:
 - Non-virtual function calls are a tiny bit faster (no indirect lookup)
 - A class with no virtual functions has objects without a `vptr` field
 - Control:
 - If `f()` calls `g()` in class `X` and `g` is not virtual, we're guaranteed to call `X::g()` 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

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:

```
PromisedT *ptr = new ActualT;  
ptr->Fcn(); // which version is called?
```



Mixed Dispatch Example

mixed.cc

```
class A {
public:
    // m1 will use static dispatch
    void m1() { cout << "a1, "; }
    // m2 will use dynamic dispatch
    virtual void m2() { cout << "a2"; }
};

class B : public A {
public:
    void m1() { cout << "b1, "; }
    // m2 is still virtual by default
    void m2() { cout << "b2"; }
};
```

```
void main(int argc,
           char **argv) {
    A a;
    B b;

    A *a_ptr_a = &a;
    A *a_ptr_b = &b;
    B *b_ptr_a = &a;
    B *b_ptr_b = &b;

    a_ptr_a->m1(); //
    a_ptr_a->m2(); //

    a_ptr_b->m1(); //
    a_ptr_b->m2(); //

    b_ptr_b->m1(); //
    b_ptr_b->m2(); //
}
```

Mixed Dispatch Example

mixed.cc

```
class A {
public:
    // m1 will use static dispatch
    void m1() { cout << "a1, "; }
    // m2 will use dynamic dispatch
    virtual void m2() { cout << "a2"; }
};

class B : public A {
public:
    void m1() { cout << "b1, "; }
    // m2 is still virtual by default
    void m2() { cout << "b2"; }
};
```

```
void main(int argc,
           char **argv) {
    A a;
    B b;

    A *a_ptr_a = &a;
    A *a_ptr_b = &b;
B *b_ptr_a = &a;
    B *b_ptr_b = &b;

    a_ptr_a->m1(); // a1,
    a_ptr_a->m2(); // a2

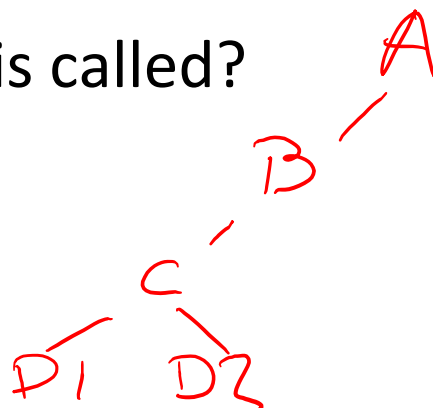
    a_ptr_b->m1(); // a1,
    a_ptr_b->m2(); // b2

    b_ptr_b->m1(); // b1,
    b_ptr_b->m2(); // b2
}
```

Poll Everywhere

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❖ Whose **Foo** () is called?



test.cc

- | | Q1 | Q2 |
|----|-----------------|----|
| A. | A | A |
| B. | A | B |
| C. | D1 | A |
| D. | D1 | B |
| E. | I'm not sure... | |

```

void Bar () {
    D1 d1;
    D2 d2;
    A *a_ptr = &d1;
    C *c_ptr = &d2;

    // Q1:
    a_ptr->Foo();

    // Q2:
    c_ptr->Foo();
}
  
```

```

class A {
public:
    void Foo();
};





class B : public A {
public:
    virtual void Foo();
};

class C : public B {
};

class D1 : public C {
public:
    void Foo();
};

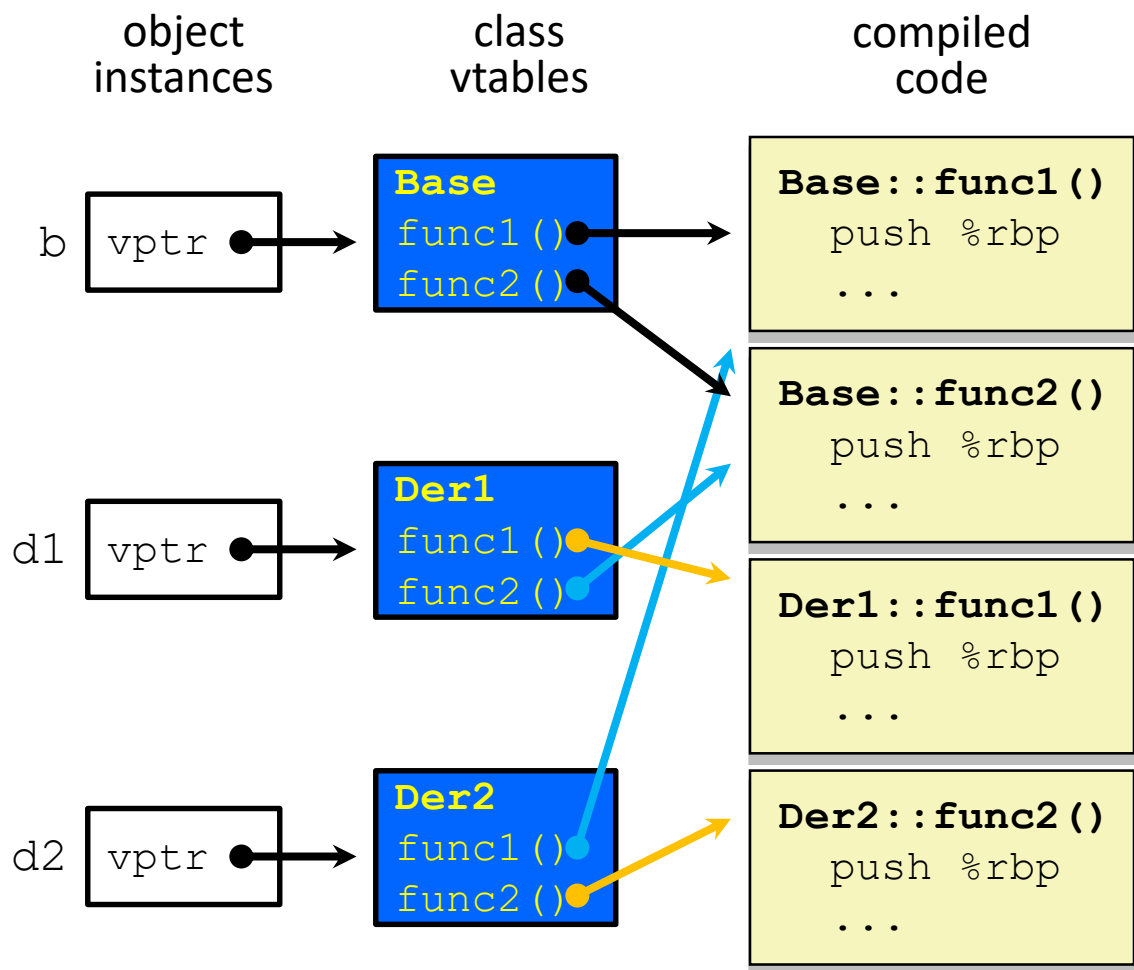
class D2 : public C {
};
  
```

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

Review: vtable/vptr



```

Base b;
Der1 d1;
Der2 d2;

Base *bptr = &d1;

bptr->func1();
// bptr -->
// d1.vptr -->
// Der1.vtable.func1
// -->
// Base::func1()

bptr = &d2;

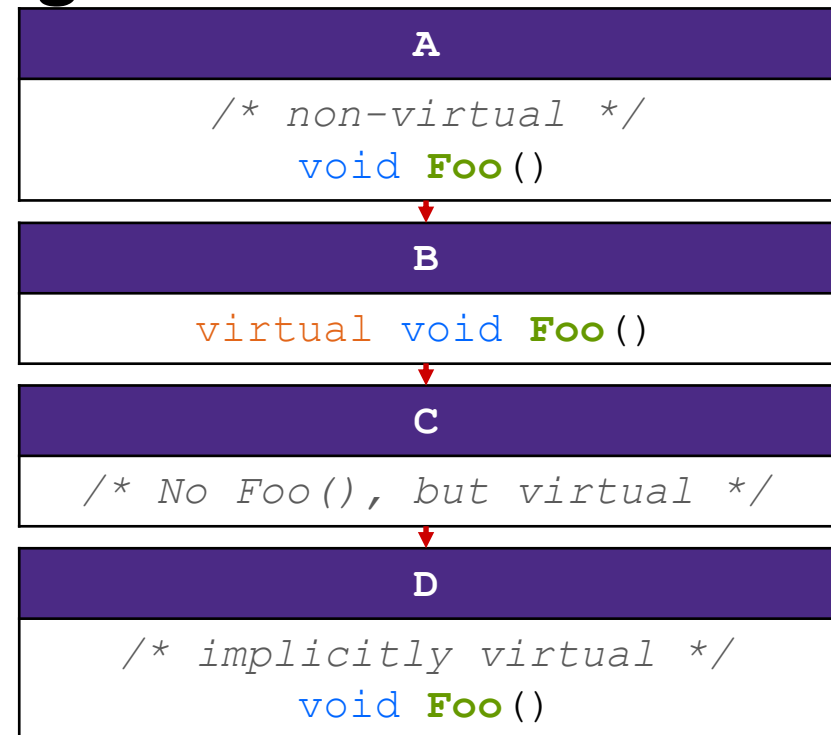
bptr->func1();
// bptr -->
// d2.vptr -->
// Der2.vtable.f1 -->
// Base::f1()
    
```

Two Perspectives on the Same Thing

- ❖ In the STL, “the spec” implies “the implementation”
 - Eg, “fast random access” => array impl for `std::vector`
- ❖ In dynamic dispatch, “the implementation” implies “the spec”
- ❖ This gives you two options for understanding dynamic dispatch
 - Though in both cases, you must access the object via indirection (eg, pointer or reference)

Perspective #1: Memorizing the Rules

1. `virtual` starts at the “highest” point in the inheritance tree, and applies to any of its descendents
 - Even if you “skip a level” or omit the `virtual` keyword
2. “virtualness” is decided by the compile-time `PromisedType`
3. The invoked method is decided by the runtime `ActualType`, found by walking up the tree until a method is found

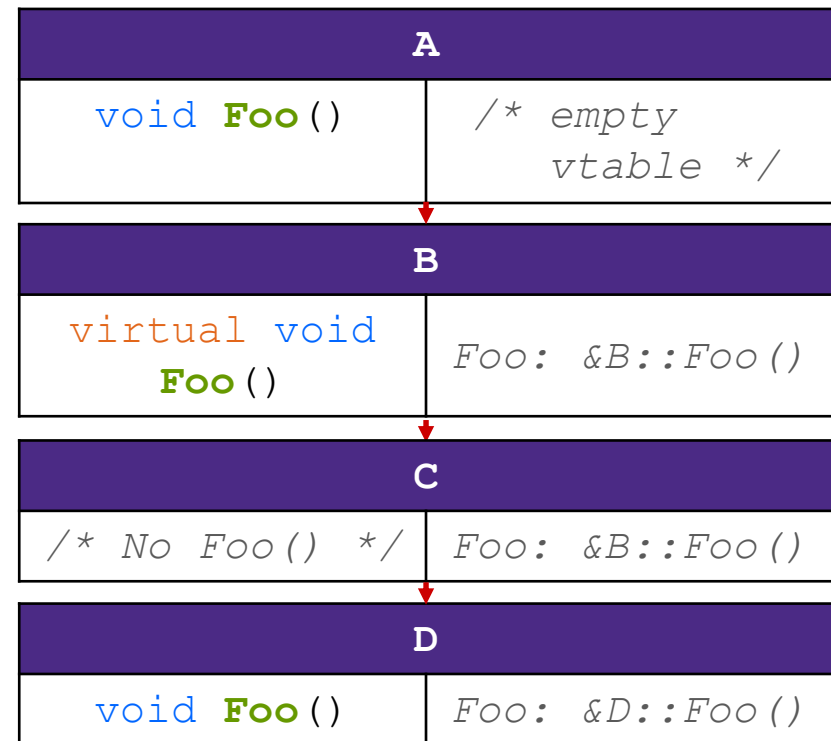


```

B b;
D d;
A *ap = &d; // ap->Foo(): A
B *bp = &d; // bp->Foo(): D
C *cp = &d; // cp->Foo(): D
ap = &b; // ap->Foo(): A
bp = &b; // bp->Foo(): B
  
```

Perspective #2: Understanding the Implementation





- Once `Foo()` has been declared `virtual`, it will always have an entry in its vtable and all of its descendents' vtables.
 - If you “skip a level”, the address of the parent’s entry is copied
- The *compiler* decides to use the vtable based on whether `Foo()` has an entry in `PromisedType`'s vtable
- The actual `method()` is decided at runtime by using the instance's `vp`tr, which points to `ActualType`'s vtable



```

B b;
D d;
A *ap = &d; // ap->Foo(): A
B *bp = &d; // bp->Foo(): D
C *cp = &d; // cp->Foo(): D
ap = &b; // ap->Foo(): A
bp = &b; // bp->Foo(): B
  
```


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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

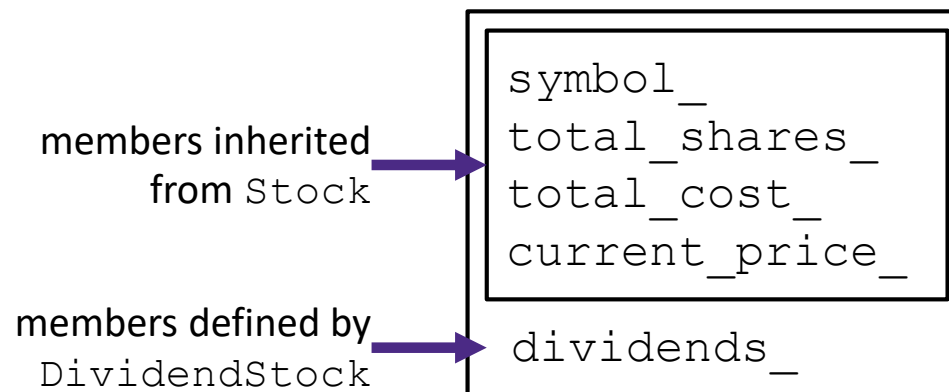
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Derived-Class Objects

- ❖ 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:



Initializing Sub-objects

- ❖ L17: “Except that constructors, destructors, copy constructor, and assignment operator are never inherited”
- ❖ L11: “Member variables are constructed in the order they are defined in the class ... [and] before [the] ctor body is executed”
 - Data members that don't appear in the initialization list are default initialized/constructed”

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Class Derivation List

- ❖ Comma-separated list of classes to inherit from:


```
#include "BaseClass.h"
class Name : public BaseClass {
    ...
};
```

 - Focus on **single inheritance**, but *multiple inheritance* possible
- ❖ Almost always you will want **public inheritance**
 - Acts like `extends` does in Java
 - Any member that is non-private in the base class is the same in the derived class; both *interface and implementation inheritance*
 - Except that constructors, destructors, copy constructor, and assignment operator are *never* inherited

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Initialization vs. Construction

```
class Point3D {
public:
    // constructor with 3 int arguments
    Point3D(int x, int y, int z : y_(y), x_(x)) {
        z_ = z;
    }
private:
    int x_, y_, z_; // data members
}; // class Point3D
```

First, initialization list is applied.

Next, constructor body is executed.

- Member variables are constructed in the order they are defined in the class, not by the initialization list ordering (!)
 - Member construction *always* happens before `ctor` body is executed
 - Data members that don't appear in the initialization list are *default initialized/constructed*
- **Initialization preferred to assignment** to avoid extra steps
 - Real code should never mix the two styles

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Constructors and Inheritance

- ❖ A derived class **does not inherit** the base class' ctor
 - The derived class must have its own ctor (possibly synthesized)
- ❖ The base class ctor is invoked *before* the derived's ctor
 - By default, the base class's default ctor is called
 - Compiler error if the base class doesn't have a default constructor!
 - Use the derived class's initialization list to specify which base class constructor to use
- ❖ Then the derived class' member variables are constructed
- ❖ Finally, the body of derived's ctor is invoked

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 Der1, as the
// synthesized default ctor needs
// to invoke Base's default ctor.
class Der1 : public Base {
public:
    int z;
};

class Der2 : public Base {
public:
    Der2(int yi, int zi)
        : Base(yi), z(zi) { }
    int z;
};
```

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

baddtor.cc

- ❖ 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; }
    ~Base() { delete x; }
    int *x;
};

class Der1 : public Base {
public:
    Der1() { y = new int; }
    ~Der1() { delete y; }
    int *y;
};

void foo() {
    Base *b0ptr = new Base;
    Base *b1ptr = new Der1;



    delete b0ptr; //
    delete b1ptr; //
}
```


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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;    //
    b = d;    //
}
```

STL and Inheritance: Problem

- ❖ 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: Solution

- ❖ Instead, store **pointers to heap-allocated objects** in STL containers
 - No slicing! 😊
 - `sort()` does the wrong thing 😞
 - You have to remember to `delete` your objects before destroying the container 😞
 - Smart pointers!

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Explicit Casting in C

- ❖ Simple syntax: `lhs = (new_type) rhs;`
- ❖ Used to:
 - Convert between pointers of arbitrary type
 - Don't change the data, but treat differently
 - Forcibly convert a primitive type to another
 - Actually changes the representation
- ❖ You *can* still use C-style casting in C++, but sometimes the intent is not clear

Casting in C++

- ❖ C++ provides an alternative casting style that signals the programmer's intent explicitly:
 - `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 convert:
 - Pointers to classes **of related type**
 - Compiler error if classes are not related
 - Dangerous to cast *down* a class hierarchy
 - Non-pointer conversion
 - e.g. `float` to `int`
- ❖ `static_cast` is checked at compile time

```
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
    A *aptr = static_cast<A*>(&b);
    // OK
    B *bptr = static_cast<B*>(&c);
    // compiles, but dangerous
    C *cptr = static_cast<C*>(&b);
}
```


dynamic_cast

- ❖ `dynamic_cast` can convert:
 - 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 (!)

```
void foo(int *x) {
    *x++;
}

void bar(const int *x) {
    foo(x); // compiler error
    foo(const_cast<int*>(x)); // succeeds
}

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    int x = 7;
    bar(&x);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

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

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(const std::string &x);

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

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 x) : x(x) { }
    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 Implicit

- ❖ 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 x) : x(x) { }
    int x;
};

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

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    return Bar(5); // compiler error
}
```

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!