### **C++ Inheritance II, Casting** CSE 333 Winter 2019

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# Administrivia

- Inheritance exercise out today, due Monday morning
- Makeup-lecture on smart pointers Monday night, 6:30 to ~7:45, ECE 125. Repeated Tuesday night, same time, in GWN 201.
  - Everyone should have a bit of practice with this stuff, i.e., an exercise. Will post on Monday after 1<sup>st</sup> performance. Due on ???
    - (Factor in that there will be a networking exercise posted after sections on Thur. 2/28 due the following Monday morning.)
- hw3 due next Thursday 2/28

# HW3 Tip

- HW3 writes some pretty big index files
  - Hundreds of thousands of write operations
  - No problem for today's fast machines and disks!!
- Except...
  - If you're running on attu or a CSE lab linux workstation, every write to your personal directories goes to a network file server(!)
    - ∴ Lots of slow network packets vs full-speed disks can take much longer to write an index to a server vs. a few sec. locally (!!)
    - Suggestion: write index files to /tmp/.... That's a local scratch disk and is very fast. But please clean up when you're done.

### **Lecture Outline**

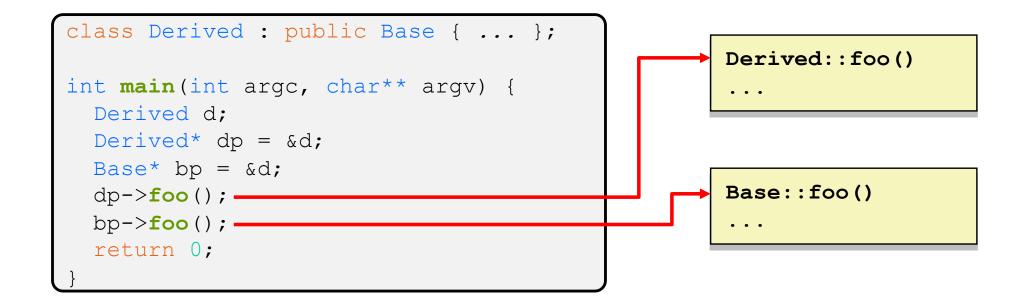
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- Static Dispatch
- Abstract Classes
- Constructors and Destructors
- Assignment
- C++ Casting

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

# 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



### **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();
```

## 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

# 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  ${\tt vptr}$  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 Example

	mixed.cc
class A {	
public:	
<pre>void m1() { cout &lt;&lt;</pre>	"a1"; }
<pre>virtual void m2() { cout &lt;&lt;</pre>	"a2"; }
};	
<pre>class B : public A {   public:     void m1() { cout &lt;&lt; "b1"; }     void m2() { cout &lt;&lt; "b2"; } };</pre>	

<pre>void main(int argc,</pre>	
<pre>A* a_ptr_a = &amp;a A* a_ptr_b = &amp;b <u>B* b_ptr_a = &amp;a</u> B* b_ptr_b = &amp;b</pre>	
a_ptr_a-> <b>m1</b> (); // a_ptr_a-> <b>m2</b> (); //	
a_ptr_b-> <b>m1</b> (); // a_ptr_b-> <b>m2</b> (); //	
<pre>b_ptr_b-&gt;m1(); // b_ptr_b-&gt;m2(); // }</pre>	

### Mixed Dispatch Example

mixed.cc	<pre>void main(int argc,</pre>
<pre>class A {   public:     // m1 will use static dispatch     void m1() { cout &lt;&lt; "a1, "; }     // m2 will use dynamic dispatch     virtual void m2() { cout &lt;&lt; "a2"; } };</pre>	A a; B b; $A^* a_ptr_a = \&a$ $A^* a_ptr_b = \&b$ $B^* b_ptr_a = \&a$ $B^* b_ptr_b = \&b$
<pre>class B : public A {   public:     void m1() { cout &lt;&lt; "b1, "; }     (( m2 is still since the base of family)</pre>	<pre>a_ptr_a-&gt;m1(); // a1 a_ptr_a-&gt;m2(); // a2 a ptr b-&gt;m1(); // a1</pre>
<pre>// m2 is still virtual by default void m2() { cout &lt;&lt; "b2"; } };</pre>	<pre>a_ptr_b &gt;m1(); // b2 a_ptr_b &gt;m2(); // b2 b_ptr_b &gt;m1(); // b1 b_ptr_b &gt;m2(); // b2</pre>

### Your Turn!

Whose Foo () is called?

Q1	Q2
Α	Α
B	В
D	D
???	

<pre>void Bar() {</pre>
Dd;
E e;
A* a_ptr = &d
C* c_ptr = &e
// Q1:
a_ptr-> <b>Foo</b> ();
_
// Q2:
c_ptr-> <b>Foo</b> ();
}

#### test.cc

```
class A {
public:
  void Foo();
};
class B : public A {
public:
 virtual void Foo();
};
class C : public B {
};
class D : public C {
public:
 void Foo();
};
class E : public C {
};
```

### **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

### **Lecture Outline**

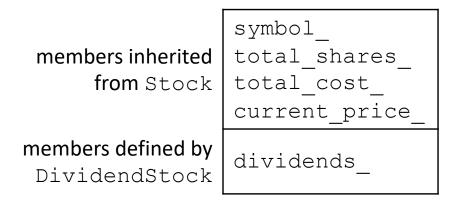
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### Reference: C++ Primer, Chapter 15

## **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 y) : y(y) \{ \}
 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 y, int z)
    : Base(y), z(z) { }
 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 z) : z(z) \{ \}
  int z;
};
```

## **Destructors and Inheritance**

- 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\* blptr = new Der1; delete b0ptr; // OK delete b1ptr; // leaks Der1::y

slicing.cc

# **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

```
class Base {
 public:
  Base(int x) : x (x) \{ \}
  int x ;
};
class Der1 : public Base {
public:
  Der1(int y) : Base(16), y_(y) { }
  int y ;
};
void foo() {
 Base b(1);
  Der1 d(2);
  d = b; // compiler error
  b = d; // 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 0;
}
```

### **STL and Inheritance**

- Instead, store pointers to heap-allocated objects in STL containers
  - No slicing! 🙂
  - $\operatorname{sort}()$  does the wrong thing  $\mathfrak{S}$
  - You have to remember to delete your objects before destroying the container <sup>(3)</sup>
    - Smart pointers!

### **Lecture Outline**

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

Reference: C++ Primer §4.11.3, 19.2.1

# **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 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

void foo() {

B b; C c;

#### staticcast.cc

# 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;
```

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

#### dynamiccast.cc

# dynamic\_cast

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

### <u>compile time</u> and <u>run time</u>

- 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

# **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
    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  $\rightarrow$  Foo, but not int  $\rightarrow$  Foo  $\rightarrow$  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 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 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!