About how long did Exercise 8 take you?

A. [0, 2) hours
B. [2, 4) hours
C. [4, 6) hours
D. [6, 8) hours
E. 8+ Hours
F. I didn’t submit / I prefer not to say
C++ Inheritance II, Casts
CSE 333 Winter 2023

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Relevant Course Information

- Exercise 9 released today, due Monday (holiday)
  - C++ smart pointers and inheritance

- Homework 3 is due next Thursday (2/23)
  - Suggestion: write index files to `/tmp/`, which is a local scratch disk and is very fast, but please clean up when you’re done

- Mid-quarter Survey ‘due’ tonight at 11:59 pm
  - Accepting submissions for a while longer
  - Feedback greatly appreciated!
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: \texttt{virtual string Noise() = 0;}

- A class containing \textit{any} pure virtual methods is \texttt{abstract}
  - You can’t create instances of an abstract class
  - Extend abstract classes and override methods to use them

- A class containing \textit{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 **compile time**, 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

```cpp
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;
}
```
Static Dispatch Example

- Removed `virtual` on methods:

```cpp
// Stock.h

double Stock::GetMarketValue() const;
double Stock::GetProfit() const;
```

```cpp
DividendStock dividend();
DividendStock* ds = &dividend;
Stock* s = &dividend;

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

Diagram:
- If `Is Fcn()` defined in `PromisedT`?
  - Yes → If `Is PromisedT::Fcnn()` marked virtual in `PromisedT` or in classes it derives from?
    - Yes → Dynamic dispatch of most-derived version of `Fcnn()` visible to `ActualT`
    - No → Static dispatch of `PromisedT::Fcnn()`
  - No → Compiler Error
# Mixed Dispatch Example

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();  //
}
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❖ C++ Casting

❖ C++ Conversions

❖ 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:

```
members inherited from Stock
symbol_
total_shares_
total_cost_
current_price_
```

```
members defined by DividendStock
dividends_
```
 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

```cpp
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;
    }

    badctor.cc
```

```cpp
// 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;
    }

goodctor.cc
```
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

```cpp
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; //
    delete blptr; //
}
```
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 \( d \)

```cpp
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

❖ 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 😞

```cpp
#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
  - No slicing! 😊
  - `sort()` does the wrong thing 😞
  - You have to remember to `delete` your objects before destroying the container 😞
    - Unless you use smart pointers!
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❖ Reference: *C++ Primer* §4.11.3, 19.2.1
Explicit Casting in C

- Simple syntax: \[ \text{lhs} = (\text{new\_type}) \text{rhs}; \]

- Used to:
  - Convert between pointers of arbitrary type
    - Doesn’t change the data, but treats it 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
  - 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 convert:
  - 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**
**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

```cpp
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 (!)

```cpp
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
  - 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

```cpp
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

- \((\text{const char}*)\) 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 \(\text{int} \rightarrow \text{Foo}\), but not \(\text{int} \rightarrow \text{Foo} \rightarrow \text{Baz}\)

```cpp
class Foo {
    public:
        Foo(int xi) : x(xi) {}  // constructor
        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

```cpp
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
}
```
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!