C++ Inheritance II, Casting CSE 333

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Poll Everywhere

Whose Foo() is called?

```
Q1 Q2
```

A. B

B. B D

C. C B

D. C D

E. We're lost...

```
void Bar() {
  B* b ptr;
  C c;
  D d;
  // 01:
 b ptr = &c;
  b ptr->Foo();
  // 02:
 b ptr = &d;
  b ptr->Foo();
```

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

Administrivia

- Back onto our exercise-per-lecture schedule
 - Ex 12 released: file I/O with C++
- HW3 due in a 2.5 weeks
 - Read the spec over the weekend
 - Starter code will be released over the weekend
 - Median completion time for 24sp: 19h
 - (but stddev was substantially larger than the comparable HW2)

Lecture Outline

- C++ Inheritance
 - Static and Mixed Dispatches
 - Abstract Classes
 - Constructors, Destructors, and 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 generated code .text segment
 - Based on the compile-time visible type of the called code (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 0;
}

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;
// Calls DividendStock::GetMarketValue()
ds->GetMarketValue();
// Calls Stock::GetMarketValue()
s->GetMarketValue();
// Calls Stock::GetProfit(), since that method is inherited.
// Stock::GetProfit() calls Stock::GetMarketValue().
ds->GetProfit();
// Calls Stock::GetProfit().
// Stock::GetProfit() calls 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

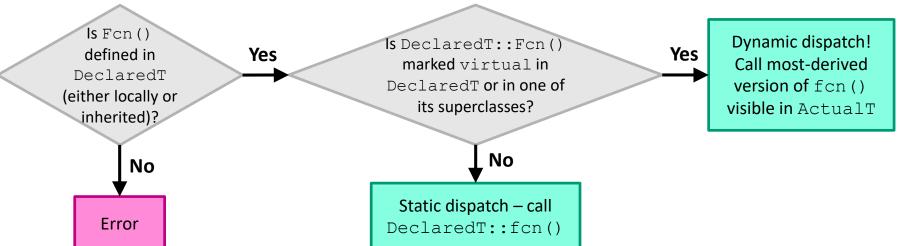
Why Not Always Use virtual?

- 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 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:

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



Mixed Dispatch Example

mixed.cc

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

```
void main(int argc,
          char** argv) {
  A a;
  B b;
  A^* a ptr a = &a;
  A^* a ptr b = &b;
 <del>-B* b ptr a - &a; -</del>
  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
```

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
  void m2() { cout << "b2"; }</pre>
```

```
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

1

Whose Foo () is called?



Q1 Q2

A A

A B

D A

D B

We're lost...

```
void Bar() {
   D d;
   E e;
   A* a_ptr = &d;
   C* c_ptr = &e;

// Q1:
   a_ptr->Foo();

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

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 {
```

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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:

```
members inherited from Stock from Stock 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 initializes 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 Derl, 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

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; // OK
  delete blptr; // leaks Der1::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 x) : 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! ⁽²⁾
 - **sort**() does the wrong thing 🕾
 - You have to remember to delete your objects before destroying the container ⁽³⁾
 - Smart pointers!

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* 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 that uses one notation for different purposes

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

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;
};
```

```
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);
}
```

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 → 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 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!