

EDAF30 – Programming in C++

8. Classes and polymorphism.

Sven Gestegård Robertz
Computer Science, LTH

2022



Outline

- 1 Polymorphism and inheritance
 - Concrete and abstract types
 - Virtual functions
 - Constructors and destructors
 - Accessibility
 - Inheritance without polymorphism
 - Pitfalls
- 2 Multiple inheritance

Polymorphism

| | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------|
| Overloading | <i>Static binding</i> |
| Generic programming (templates) | <i>Static binding</i> |
| Virtual functions | <i>Dynamic binding</i> |

Static binding: The meaning of a construct is decided *at compile-time*

Dynamic binding: The meaning of a construct is decided *at run-time*

Polymorphism

Static

```
void foo(int);  
void foo(double);  
  
foo(17);  
  
std::vector<int> v;  
  
std::sort(begin(v), end(v));
```

Dynamic

```
struct Animal{  
    virtual void speak();  
};  
  
struct Dog :public Animal{  
    void speak();  
};  
  
struct Cat :public Animal{  
    void speak();  
};  
  
void use(Animal& a)  
{  
    a.speak();  
}  
  
use(Dog{});
```

Concrete and abstract types

A *concrete type* behaves “just like built-in-types”:

- ▶ The *representation* is part of the *definition*¹
- ▶ Can be placed on the stack, and in other objects
- ▶ can be directly referred to
- ▶ Can be copied
- ▶ User code *must be recompiled* if the type is changed

An *Abstract types* isolates the user from implementation details

- ▶ Decouples the interface from the representation:
- ▶ The representation of objects (*incl. the size!*) is not known
- ▶ Cannot be instantiated (*only concrete subclasses can*)
- ▶ Can only be accessed through pointers or references
- ▶ Code using the abstract type *does not need to be recompiled* if the concrete subclasses are changed

¹can be private, but is known

Concrete and abstract types

A concrete type: Vector

```
class Vector {  
public:  
    Vector(int l = 0) : elem{new int[l]}, sz{l} {}  
    ~Vector() {delete[] elem;}  
    int size() const {return sz;}  
    int& operator[](int i) {return elem[i];}  
private:  
    int *elem;  
    int sz;  
};
```

Generalize: *extract interface*

```
class Container {  
public:  
    virtual int size() const;  
    virtual int& operator[](int o);  
};
```

Concrete and abstract types

Generalization: an abstract type, Container

```
class Container {  
public:  
    virtual int size() const =0;  
    virtual int& operator[](int o) =0;  
    virtual ~Container() =default;  
    // copy and move...  
};
```

- ▶ *pure virtual* function
- ▶ Abstract class
- ▶ or interface in Java

```
class Vector :public Container {  
public:  
    Vector(int l = 0) :p{new int[l]},sz{l} {}  
    ~Vector() {delete[] elem;}  
    int size() const override {return sz;}  
    int& operator[](int i) override {return elem[i];}  
private:  
    int *elem;  
    int sz;  
};
```

- ▶ extends (or implements) Container in Java
- ▶ **override** \Leftrightarrow @Override in Java (C++11)
- ▶ A polymorph type needs a virtual destructor

Destructors must be `virtual`

Polymorph types are used through base class pointers:

```
Container* c = new Vector(10);
```

```
// use...
```

```
delete c;
```

- ▶ The destructor is called through a `Container*`.
- ▶ `~Container()` is called.
- ▶ If not `virtual`, `~Vector()` is never called \Rightarrow memory leak.

Concrete and abstract types

Use of an abstract class

```
void fill(Container& c, int v)
{
    for(int i=0; i!=c.size(); ++i){
        c[i] = v;
    }
}
void print(const Container& c)
{
    for(int i=0; i!=c.size(); ++i){
        cout << c[i] << " ";
    }
    cout << endl;
}
void test_container()
{
    Vector v(10);

    print(v);
    fill(v,3);
    print(v);
}
```

Concrete and abstract types

Use of an abstract class

Assume that we have two other subclasses to Container

```
class MyArray : public Container { ...};  
class List : public Container { ...};
```

```
void test_container()  
{  
    Vector v(10);  
    print(v);  
    fill(v,7);  
    print(v);  
  
    MyArray a(5);  
    fill(a,0);  
    print(a);  
  
    List l{1,2,3,4,5,6,7};  
    print(l);  
}
```

- Dynamic binding of `Container::size()` and `Container::operator[]()`

Concrete and abstract types

Variant, without changing Vector

Instead of changing Vector we can use it in a new class:

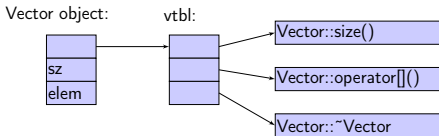
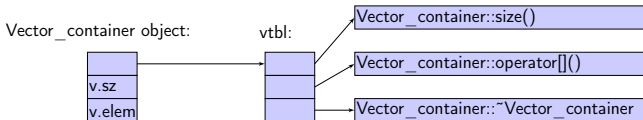
```
class Vector_container :public Container {
public:
    Vector_container(int l = 0) :v{1} {}
    ~Vector_container() =default;
    int size() const override {return v.size();}
    int& operator[](int i) override {return v[i];}
private:
    Vector v;
};
```

- ▶ Vector is a concrete class
- ▶ Note that v is a Vector object, not a reference
 - ▶ Different from Java
- ▶ The destructor of a member variable (here, v) is implicitly called by the default destructor

Dynamic binding

- ▶ virtual function table (*vtbl*)
 - ▶ contains pointers to the virtual functions of the object
 - ▶ each *class* with virtual member function(s) has a vtbl
 - ▶ each *object* of such a class has a *pointer* to the vtbl of the class
 - ▶ calling a virtual function (typically) < 25% more expensive

```
int example(Container& c)
{
    return c.size();
}
```



Constructors and inheritance

Rules for the base class constructor

- ▶ The default constructor of the base class is implicitly called
 - ▶ if it exists!
- ▶ Arguments to the base class constructor
 - ▶ are given in the *member initializer list* in the derived class constructor.
 - ▶ *the name of the base class* must be used.
(`super()` like in Java does not exist due to multiple inheritance.)

Constructors and inheritance

Order of initialization in a constructor (for a derived class)

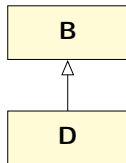
- 1 *The base class is initialized*: The base class ctor is called
- 2 *The derived class is initialized*: Data members (in the derived class) is initialized
- 3 The constructor body of the derived class is executed

Explicit call of base class constructor in the member initializer list

```
D::D(param...) :B(param...), ... {...}
```

Note:

- ▶ Constructors are not inherited
- ▶ *Do not call virtual functions in a constructor.*:
In the base class B, **this** is of type B*.



Constructors are not inherited

```
class Base{
public:
    Base(int i) :x{i} {}
    virtual void print() {cout << "Base: " << x << endl;}
private:
    int x;
};

class Derived :public Base {
};

void test_ctors()
{
    Derived b(5); //no matching function for call to
                //Derived::Derived(int)
    Derived b2; //use of deleted function Derived::Derived()
}
```

Constructors and inheritance

using: make the base class constructor visible (C++11)

```
class Base{
public:
    Base(int i) :x{i} {}
    virtual void print() {cout << "Base: " << x << endl;}
private:
    int x;
};

class Derived :public Base {
    using Base::Base;
};

void test_ctors()
{
    Derived b(5); // OK!
    Derived b2; //use of deleted function Derived::Derived()
    b.print();
}
```


Constructors and inheritance

Now with a default constructor

```
class Base{
public:
    Base(int i=0) :x{i} {}
    virtual void print() {cout << "Base: " << x << endl;}
private:
    int x;
};

class Derived :public Base {
    using Base::Base;
};

void test_ctors()
{
    Derived b;        // OK!
    b.print();
    Derived b2(5); // OK!
    b2.print();
}
```

Inherited constructors rules

- ▶ **using** makes all base class constructors inherited, except
 - ▶ those hidden by the derived class (with the same parameters)
 - ▶ default, copy, and move constructors
 - ⇒ *if not defined, synthesized as usual*
- ▶ default arguments in the super class gives multiple inherited constructors

Copying and inheritance

- ▶ The copy constructor shall copy *the entire object*
 - ▶ typically: call the base class copy-constructor
- ▶ The same applies to **operator=**
- ▶ Different from the destructor
 - ▶ A destructor shall only deallocate what has been allocated in the class itself. The base class destructor is implicitly called.
- ▶ The synthesized special member functions are *deleted in a derived class* if the corresponding function is *deleted in the base class*.
(i.e., **private** or **=delete**)
 - ▶ default constructor,
 - ▶ copy constructor,
 - ▶ copy assignment operator
 - ▶ (destructor, but avoid classes without a destructor)
- ▶ Base classes should define these **=default**

Destruction is done in reverse order:

Execution order in a destructor

- 1 The function body of the derived class destructor is executed
- 2 The members of the derived class are destroyed
- 3 The base class destructor is called

The base class destructor must be virtual

The different levels of accessibility

```
class C {  
public:  
    // Members accessible from any function  
protected:  
    // Members accessible from member functions  
    // in the class or a derived class  
private:  
    // Members accessible only from member functions  
    // in the class  
};
```

Accessibility and inheritance

```
class D1 : public B { // Public inheritance
    // ...
};

class D2 : protected B { // Protected inheritance
    // ...
};

class D3 : private B { // Private inheritance
    // ...
};
```

Accessibility and inheritance

| | Accessibility i _B | Accessibility through D |
|-----------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Public inheritance | public protected private | public protected private |
| Protected inheritance | public protected private | protected protected private |
| Private inheritance | public protected private | private private private |

The accessibility inside D is *not* affected by the type of inheritance

Function overloading and inheritance

Function overloading does not work as usual between levels in a class hierarchy

```
class C1 {
public:
    void f(int) {cout << "C1::f(int)\n";}
};

class C2 : public C1 {
public:
    void f(); {cout << "C2::f(void)\n";}
};

C1 a;
C2 b;
a.f(5); // Ok, calls C1::f(int)
b.f(); // Ok, calls C2::f(void)
b.f(2) // Error! C1::f is hidden!
b.C1::f(10); // Ok
```


Function overloading and inheritance

Make base class names visible with `using`

Function overloading between levels of a class hierarchy

```
class C1 {
public:
    void f(int); {cout << "C1::f(int)\n";}
};

class C2 : public C1 {
public:
    using C1::f;
    void f(); {cout << "C2::f(void)\n";}
};

//...
C1 a;
C2 b;
a.f(5); // Ok, calls C1::f(int)
b.f(); // Ok, calls C2::f(void)
b.f(2) // Ok, calls C1::f(int)
```

Inheritance and *scope*

- ▶ The *scope* of a derived class is *nested* inside the base class
 - ▶ Names in the base class are visible in derived classes
 - ▶ *if not hidden* by the same name in the derived class
- ▶ Use the *scope operator* `::` to access hidden names
- ▶ Name lookup happens at compile-time
 - ▶ *static type* of a pointer or reference determines which names are visible (like in Java)
 - ▶ Virtual functions must have the same parameter types in derived classes.
 - ▶ Use **override** to get help from the compiler with finding mistakes.

Inheritance without virtual functions

In C++ member functions are *not virtual unless declared so*.
(Difference from Java)

- ▶ It is possible to inherit from a class and *hide* functions.
- ▶ Base class functions can be called explicitly
- ▶ can be used to “extend” a function. (Add things before and after the function.)

Inheritance without virtual functions

Example

```
struct Clock{
    Clock(int h, int m, int s) :seconds{60*(60*h+m) + s} {}
    Clock& tick(); // NB! Not virtual
    int get_ticks() {return seconds;}
private:
    int seconds;
};

struct AlarmClock : public Clock {
    using Clock::Clock;
    void setAlarm(int h, int m, int s);
    AlarmClock& tick(); // hides Clock::tick()
    void soundAlarm();
private:
    int alarmTime;
};

AlarmClock& AlarmClock::tick()
{
    Clock::tick(); // explicit call of base class function
    if(get_ticks() == alarmTime) soundAlarm();
    return *this;
}
```

Pitfalls

- ▶ Type conversion
- ▶ Non-virtual destructor
- ▶ Copying objects of polymorph types

Type conversion and run-time type info

- ▶ Be careful with type casts
 - ▶ In particular (Derived*) base_class_pointer
 - ▶ and **static_cast**<Derived*>(base_class_pointer)
 - ▶ No safety net, no ClassCastException
- ▶ Use **dynamic_cast** (returns nullptr or throws if not OK)

```
Vector v;  
  
Container* c = &v;  
  
if(dynamic_cast<Vector*>(c)) {  
    cout << " *c instanceof Vector\n";  
}
```

- ▶ **typeid** corresponds to .getClass() comparison in Java

```
if(typeid(*c) == typeid(Vector)) {  
    cout << " *c is a Vector\n";  
}
```

Destructors must be virtual

Example: memory leak

```
struct Base {
    Base() = default;
    ~Base() = default;
    virtual void do_stuff();
    ...
};
struct Derived : public Base {
    Derived() :Base(), f{new Foo()} {}
    ~Derived() {delete f;}
    void do_stuff();
    ...
private:
    Foo* f
};
```

```
Base* p = new Derived();
...
delete p;
```

As `p` has static type `Base*`, the destructor `~Base()` is run when `delete p` is called. If that is not virtual, `~Derived()` is not run \Rightarrow memory leak. (The standard says Undefined Behaviour)

Object slicing

Example

```
class Point {...};  
class Point3d : public Point {...};
```

```
Point3d b;  
Point a = b;
```

Not dangerous, but a only contains the Point part of b

```
Point3d b1;  
Point3d b2;  
  
Point& point_ref = b2;  
point_ref = b1;
```

Wrong! b2 now contains the Point part of b1 and the Point3d part of its old value.

Object slicing

Example

```
struct Point{
    Point(int xi, int yi) :x{xi}, y{yi} {}
    virtual void print() const; // prints Point(x,y)
    int x;
    int y;
};

struct Point3d :public Point{
    Point3d(int xi, int yi, int zi) :Point(xi,yi), z{zi} {}
    virtual void print() const; // prints Point3d(x,y,z)
    int z;
};

void test_slicing() {
    Point3d q1{1,2,3};
    Point3d q2{3,4,5};

    q2.print();           Point3d(3,4,5)
    Point& pr = q2;

    pr = q1;
    q2.print();           Point3d(1,2,5)
}
```

solution: **virtual** operator=

Object slicing

Solution with virtual operator=

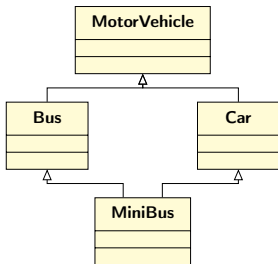
```
struct Point {
    ...
    virtual Point& operator=(const Point& p) =default;
};

struct Point3d :public Point{
    ...
    virtual Point3d& operator=(const Point& p);
};

Point3d& Point3d::operator=(const Point& p)
{
    Point::operator=(p);
    auto p3d = dynamic_cast<const Point3d*>(&p);
    if(p3d){
        z = p3d->z;
    } else {
        z = 0;
    }
    return *this;
}
```

Multiple inheritance

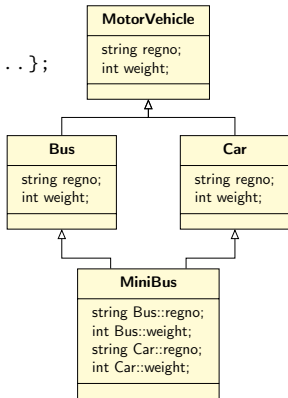
- ▶ A class can inherit from multiple base classes
- ▶ cf. implementing multiple interfaces in Java
 - ▶ Like in Java if at most one of the base classes have member variables
 - ▶ Can be tricky otherwise
- ▶ *The diamond problem*
 - ▶ How many MotorVehicle are there in a MiniBus?



Multiple inheritance

How many MotorVehicle are there in a MiniBus?

```
class MotorVehicle {  
    ...  
    std::string regno;  
    int weight;  
};  
class Bus : public MotorVehicle {...};  
class Car : public MotorVehicle {...};  
class MiniBus : public Bus, public Car {...};
```



Multiple inheritance

The diamond problem

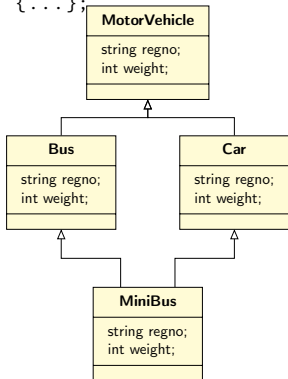
- ▶ A common base class is included multiple times
 - ▶ Multiple copies of member variables
 - ▶ Members must be accessed as `Base::name` to avoid ambiguity
- ▶ if *virtual inheritance* is not used

Multiple inheritance

Virtual inheritance

Virtual inheritance : Derived classes share the base class instance.
(The base class is only included once)

```
class MotorVehicle {...};  
class Bus : public virtual MotorVehicle {...};  
class Car : public virtual MotorVehicle {...};  
class MiniBus : public Bus, public Car {...};
```



Next lecture

References to sections in Lippman

Function templates 16.1.1

Class templates 16.1.2

Template arguments and deduction 16.2–16.2.2

Trailing return type 16.2.3

Templates and overloading 16.3

Suggested reading

References to sections in Lippman

Dynamic polymorphism and inheritance chapter 15 – 15.4

Accessibility and scope 15.5 – 15.6

Type conversions and polymorphism 15.2.3

Inheritance and resource management 15.7

Polymorph types and containers 15.8

Multiple inheritance 18.3

Virtual base classes 18.3.4 – 18.3.5