VE280 Programming and Elementary Data Structures

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Subtypes; Inheritance; Virtual Functions

















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Learning Objectives

- Understand what is a subtype and why they are useful
- Know how to create a subtype via inheritance
- Understand what is a virtual function and know how to realize polymorphism

Outline

- Introduction to Subtypes
- Creating Subtypes
- Creating Subtypes using C++ Inheritance Mechanism
- Introduction to Virtual Functions

Introduction

- Suppose we have two types, S and T.
- S is a **subtype** of T, written "S <: T", if:
 - For any instance where an object of type T is expected, an object of type S can be supplied without changing the correctness of the **original** computation.
 - <u>In other words, code written to correctly use T is still correct if it uses S.</u>
- This is called the "substitution principle".
- If S <: T, then we also say that "T is a **supertype** of S".

Example

- Supertype: Number
- Subtypes: Integer, rational number, real number, ...

```
Number double_val(Number x) {
    return x*2;
}
```

Example

- The function call add (inFile) is valid and works because ifstream is a **subtype** of istream
- ifstream can be supplied (substituted for istream) without changing the correctness.

Introduction

- Subtypes are different from the notion of "type-convertible".
 - For example, in any computation that expects a double, you can use an int.
 - However, the object isn't an int when it is used.
 - It is first "converted" to a double and its physical representation changes!
- However, if you use a subtype where a supertype is expected, it is **not converted** to the supertype
- Instead, it is used as-is.

Benefits of Subtyping

• Code reuse

```
void add(istream &source) {
  int n1, n2;
  source >> n1 >> n2;
  cout << n1+n2;
}</pre>
```



Select all correct answers:

- A. The type int, is not a subtype of double, but it is a subtype of long.
- **B.** The type string is a supertype of the type representing a C string.
- **C.** If C is a subtype of B and B is a subtype of A, then an instance of C can substitute to an instance of A.
- **D.** If C is a supertype of B and B is a supertype of A, then an instance of C can substitute to an instance of A.



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- Introduction to Subtypes
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Creating

- In an Abstract Data Type, there are three ways to create a subtype from a supertype:
- 1. Add one or more operations.
- 2. Strengthen the postcondition of one or more operations.
- 3. Weaken the precondition of one or more operations.

Creating by Adding New Methods

- The first way of creating a subtype is to add some new method to the subtype.
- Any code using the original supertype expects only the "old" methods, which are still available.
- The "new" method makes no difference.

Creating by Adding New Methods

- Example: we can create a subtype of IntSet, called MaxIntSet, by adding an operation max() that returns the maximum element in the set. The other part remains the same as IntSet.
 - Any code using IntSet can have IntSet be replaced with MaxIntSet. It won't call the max () method of MaxIntSet!

```
void foo(IntSet& is)
{
    ...
}
```

```
void main()
{
   MaxIntSet ms;
   foo(ms);
   ...
}
```

Creating by Strengthening Postcondition

- Second method: **Strengthen** the **postcondition** of one or more operations.
- The postconditions of a method are formed by two things:
 - The EFFECTS clause
 - Its return type
- One way of strengthening the postcondition is to strengthen the EFFECTS clause by promising everything you used to, plus extra.

Creating by Strengthening Postcondition

```
int A::f(int arg);
  // REQUIRES: arg is positive
  // and even.
  // EFFECTS: returns arg/2.
```

- We can create a subtype of A, called B, by only changing function f of A.
- We strengthen the effects clause of A:: f() by printing a message to the screen for each invocation, in addition to computing arg/2.

Creating by Strengthening Postcondition

- When A::f() is expected, we can also replace it with
 B::f(), since B::f() does all the things A::f() does
 with an extra message printing.
 - User's expectation is satisfied.
 - So B can substitute A.

```
int g(A& a)
{
  int arg = 2;
  return a.f(arg);
}

B::f(arg)

void main()
{
    B b;
    int c = g(b);
    ...
}
```

Creating

- Third method: **Weaken** the **precondition** of one or more operations.
- The preconditions of a method are formed by two things:
 - The REQUIRES clause
 - Its argument type
- One way of weakening the precondition is to weaken the REQUIRES clause.

Creating

```
int A::f(int arg);
   // REQUIRES: arg is positive and even.
   // EFFECTS: returns arg/2.
```

- You could weaken this REQUIRES clause by allowing:
 - Negative, even integers
 - Positive integers
 - All integers
 - ...

Why Weaken REQUIRES Create Subtype?

```
int A::f(int arg);
   // REQUIRES: arg is positive and even.
   // EFFECTS: returns arg/2.
```

 We can create a subtype of A, called B, which allows all integers for the function f of A.

```
int g(A& a) {
  int arg = 2;
  return a.f(arg);
}

B::f(arg)
```

```
void main() {
   B b;
   int c = g(b);
}
```



Why Weaken REQUIRES Create Subtype?

```
int A::f(int arg);
   // REQUIRES: arg is positive and even.
   // EFFECTS: returns arg/2.
```

- It is fine to call function g on an object b of subtype B.
 - When A::f() is expected, the argument (e.g., positive even integers) to A::f() is a subset of that to B::f() (e.g., integers). Then, that argument for A::f() works perfectly for B::f()!

```
int g(A& a) {
  int arg = 2;
  return a.f(arg);
}
```

```
void main() {
    B b;
    int c = g(b);
}
```

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Creating Subclasses using inheritance

- C++ has a mechanism to enable subtyping, called "subclassing", or sometimes inheritance.
- So, if we have some ADT class foo, and want to make a subtype class bar, we do so by saying:

```
class bar : public foo {
    ...
};
```

- This says: "bar is a foo, possibly with extra state, and possibly with new or redefined member functions."
- We say that bar is a derived class, and it is derived from foo.

Creating Subclasses using inheritance
 class bar : public foo {
 ...
};

- public means public inheritance. All public members of the base are also public in the derived class; all private members of the base are also private in the derived class
- We can also have **private inheritance**

```
class bar : private foo
```

- Then, all members of the base class are **private** in the derived class
- We normally use **public inheritance**. All the previous public member functions are still public

Creating Subclasses using inheritance

```
class MaxIntSet : public IntSet {
    // OVERVIEW: a set of integers,
    // where |set| <= MAXELTS
public:
    int max();
    // REQUIRES: set is non-empty
    // EFFECTS: returns largest element in set.
};</pre>
```

- This creates a new type that has all of the behavior of IntSet, **plus** one new operation.
- MaxIntSet <u>automatically inherits</u> all of the IntSet methods and data elements.

Creating Subclasses using inheritance

Conceptually, we have

MaxIntSet Object

```
IntSet members:
elts[], numElts,
insert(), remove(),...

New member of
MaxIntSet:
max()
```

Creating Subclasses using inheritance

• <u>Unfortunately, MaxIntSet::max()</u> is **not** a member of IntSet.

```
class IntSet {
   // data members plus indexOf
public:
   // the public interface to the class.
};
```

- All the data members are (by default) private. This means "they can be seen **only** by other members of **this** class".
- All of the data members of IntSet are inaccessible to the additional members of the derived class MaxIntSet, and specifically MaxIntSet::max().

Creating Subclasses using inheritance

• Thankfully, we still have access functions that are public and could write it this way:

```
int MaxIntSet::max() {
   int i;
   for (i=INT_MAX; i>=INT_MIN; i--) {
      if (query(i)) return i;
   }
}
```

- However, this function is inefficient!
- We'll have to query 2³¹ (i.e. ½ of 2³²) numbers <u>on average</u> to find the maximum element in a randomly-constructed set!

```
int MaxIntSet::max() {
   int i;
   for (i=INT_MAX; i>=INT_MIN; i--) {
      if (query(i)) return i;
   }
}
```

- C++ has a mechanism that allows us to get around this problem
 - The "protected" storage class.
- If a member is "protected", it means "can be seen by all members of this class and any derived classes".

```
class IntSet {
protected:
   // all of the data members plus indexOf
public:
   // the public interface to the class.
};
```

- Since MaxIntSet is derived from IntSet, the protected members of IntSet are visible to MaxIntSet.
- Other users of the IntSet class still **cannot** see the members.
- With this new structure, we can write max much more efficiently.

```
int MaxIntSet::max() {
  int so far = elts[0];
  for (int i = 1; i < numElts; i++) {
                                          Unsorted
    if (elts[i] > so far)
                                            Array
      so far = elts[i];
  return so far;
                                          Sorted
int MaxIntSet::max() {
                                           Array
return elts[numElts-1];
```

Consequences of protected

- If we expose IntSet's implementation to MaxIntSet, changing that implementation will break MaxIntSet.
- For example, if we switch IntSet from a sorted implementation to an unsorted one, MaxIntSet::max() will return the wrong value.
- Worse, it will compile correctly---you'll never know!

This shows the bad consequence of exposing detailed implementation

• Protected data members make derived classes extremely fragile, and it is a matter of taste as to whether it's worth doing.

- You can "extend" functionality in ways other than just adding methods you can also **change** an individual method.
- In order to create <u>subtype</u>, you can't change it arbitrarily though; your subtype must still adhere to the <u>substitution</u> principle.
 - The new method must do everything the old method did, but it is allowed to do more as well. strengthen the postconditions
 - It must require no more of the caller than the old method did,
 but it can require less.
 weaken the preconditions

```
class SafeMaxIntSet : public MaxIntSet {
    // OVERVIEW: a mutable set of integers,
    // where |set| <= MAXELTS

public:
    int max();
    // EFFECTS: if set is non-empty, returns largest
    // element in set
    // otherwise, returns INT_MIN.
};</pre>
```

• In this method, we've both **weakened** the preconditions AND **strengthened** the postconditions of "old" max.

```
class SafeMaxIntSet : public MaxIntSet {
    // OVERVIEW: a mutable set of integers,
    // where |set| <= MAXELTS

public:
    int max();
    // EFFECTS: if set is non-empty, returns largest
    // element in set
    // otherwise, returns INT_MIN.
};</pre>
```

- Preconditions: Old max required the set to be non-empty, new max doesn't.
- Postconditions: Old max returned the largest element of a nonempty set, new max does that, **plus** it returns <code>INT_MIN</code> for an empty set.

This new subtype correctly satisfies the **substitution principle**: Code that was correctly written to use a MaxIntSet will work unchanged if using a SafeMaxIntSet.

```
void foo(MaxIntSet a) {
   a.insert(1);
   ...
   cout << a.max();
   ...
}
...
MaxIntSet a;
foo(a);</pre>
```

```
void foo(MaxIntSet a) {
   a.insert(1);
   ...
   cout << a.max();
   ...
}
...
SafeMaxIntSet a;
foo(a)</pre>
```

```
class SafeMaxIntSet : public MaxIntSet {
    // OVERVIEW: a mutable set of integers,
    // where |set| <= MAXELTS

public:
    int max();
    // EFFECTS: if set is non-empty, returns largest
    // element in set
    // otherwise, returns INT_MIN.
};</pre>
```

- This defines a new class that is exactly like a MaxIntSet, except that it **replaces** or "**overrides**" the method max.
- The compiler decides which max to call by the type of the object to which we call max.

• So, if we declared one object of each type, calling the max method would give us the "right" one:

• The implementation of this new max is surprisingly simple:

```
int SafeMaxIntSet::max() {
   if (size())
     return MaxIntSet::max();
   else
     return INT_MIN;
}
```

- Most of the hard work is done by the "old" implementation of max (called MaxIntSet::max).
- This just covers the case that the set is empty.



Select all correct answers:

- **A.** An ADT can be implemented as a class in C++.
- **B.** A class in C++ is always an ADT.
- C. A subtype can be implemented as a subclass in C++.
- **D.** A subclass in C++ is always an ADT subtype.



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Leaving behind subtypes

• Finally, it is possible to create **subclasses** that are **NOT subtypes** and don't follow the substitution principle.

```
class PosIntSet : public IntSet {
  // OVERVIEW: a mutable set of positive integers
public:
 void insert(int v);
   // EFFECTS: if v is non-negative,
   //
               and s has room to include it,
   //
            s = s + \{v\}.
   //
               if v is negative throw int -1
   //
               if s is full thrown int MAXELTS
};
void PosIntSet::insert(int v) {
  if (v < 0) throw -1;
  IntSet::insert(v);
```

Leaving behind subtypes

• Finally, it is possible to create **subclasses** that are **NOT subtypes** and don't follow the substitution principle.

```
class PosIntSet : public IntSet {
  // OVERVIEW: a mutable set of positive integers
public:
                                Why is PosIntSet not a subtype?
  void insert(int v);
    // EFFECTS: if v is non-neg
                                   Because code that is
    //
                 and s has room
                                   correctly written to use
                 s = s + \{v\}.
                                   an IntSet could fail when
                 if v is negativ
                 if s is full th
    //
                                   using a PosIntSet, e.g.,
};
                                   when inserting a negative
void PosIntSet::insert(int v)
                                   number. It does not pass the
  if (v < 0) throw -1;
                                   substitution principle!
  IntSet::insert(v);
```

- Unfortunately, the rules of C++ allow a **subclass** to be used wherever a **superclass** is expected.
- For example, the following code is perfectly legal:

```
PosIntSet s;
IntSet* p = &s;
IntSet& r = s;
```

- Because PosintSet is a subclass of IntSet, it is perfectly legal to make these assignments.
- We have three variables: s is a PosIntSet, p is a pointer that points to precisely this PosIntSet, and r is a reference to this PosIntSet.

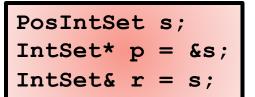
```
PosIntSet s;
IntSet* p = &s;
IntSet& r = s;
```

```
try {
    s.insert(-1);
} catch (int i) {
    cout << "Exception thrown\n";
}</pre>
This will do exactly what
you expect:
"Exception thrown\n";
}
```

```
try {
    r.insert(-1);
} catch (int i) {
    cout << "Exception thrown\n";
}</pre>
```

```
try {
   r.insert(-1);
} catch (int i) {
   cout << "Exception thrown\n";
}</pre>
```

- The type of r is declared to be "reference to an IntSet", but it refers to a PosintSet.
- **Apparent type**: the declared type of the reference. (IntSet)
- Actual type: the real type of the referent. (PosIntSet)
 - In this example, the **apparent type** and the **actual type** differ.
- In default situation, C++ chooses the method to run based on its apparent type.



Leaving behind subtypes

```
PosIntSet s;
IntSet* p = &s;
IntSet& r = s;
```

```
try {
    s.insert(-1);
} catch (int i) {
    cout << "Exception thrown\n";
}</pre>
This will do exactly what
you expect:
"Exception thrown\n";
}
```

```
try {
   r.insert(-1);
} catch (int i) {
   cout << "Except:
}</pre>
```

Answer: Because r's apparent type is "reference-to-IntSet", this code calls IntSet::insert(), which happily inserts -1.
The same thing happens if we use the pointer p.

```
PosIntSet s;
IntSet* p = &s;
IntSet& r = s;
```

```
try {
    s.insert(-1);
} catch (int i) {
    cout << "Exception thrown\n";
}</pre>
This will do exactly what
you expect:
"Exception thrown\n";
```

```
try {
    r.insert(-1);
} catch (int i) {
    cout << "Exception thrown\n";
}</pre>
This breaks the abstraction of the set s, which is <a href="Yery Bad">Yery Bad</a>.

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```

- There is a way to tell C++ to choose the <u>actual type</u>.
- In the class definition, we add the keyword **virtual** to the declaration of insert:

```
class IntSet {
    ...
public:
    ...
    virtual void insert(int v);
    ...
};
```

• This tells the compiler "someone might override my implementation: always check at run-time to see which version to call."

• You don't have to add virtual keyword when you **define** the function, i.e., the following is OK

```
void IntSet::insert(int v) { // OK
   ...
}
```

 You don't have to add the virtual keyword to PosIntSet's definition, since "virtualness" is inherited just like everything else class PosIntSet: public IntSet {

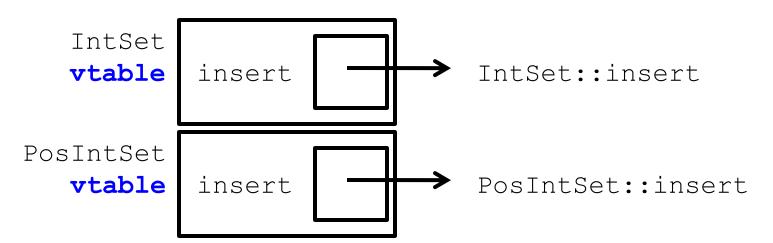
```
public:
   void insert(int v); // OK
   ...
};
```

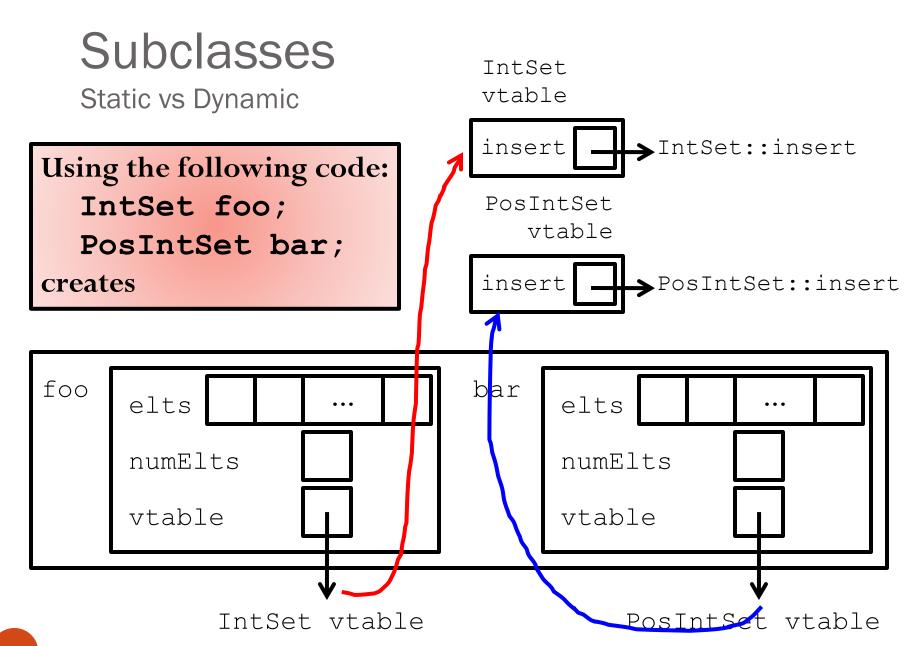
• Now consider:

```
PosIntSet s;
IntSet* p = &s;
IntSet& r = s;
p->insert(-1);
```

- p is declared as a pointer-to-IntSet, but it might really be pointing at some **derived class** type.
- The compiler will create code that checks the actual type of the object and calls the **right** function **at runtime**.

- Classes with virtual functions include information that allows you to figure out what type it is.
 - First, for each class with virtual functions, the compiler creates a **vtable** (or **virtual table**) with one function pointer for each virtual function initialized to the appropriate implementation.
 - Then, each instance of a class with virtual methods has both the class' state, plus a pointer to the appropriate vtable.





Static vs Dynamic

IntSet vtable

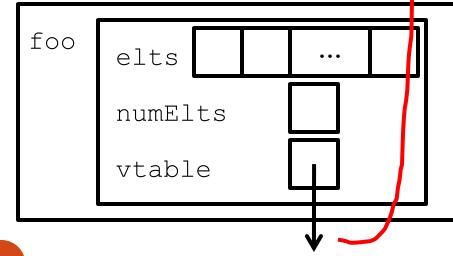
bar

So, the code

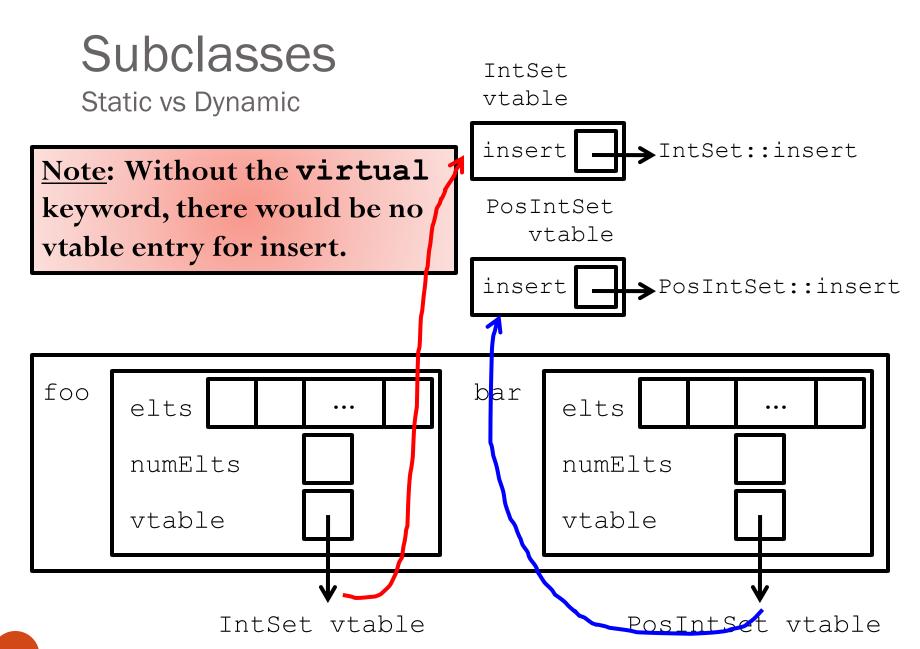
IntSet &r = bar;

r.insert(-1);

looks at bar's vtable, checks the insert
entry, and calls PosIntSet::insert,
rather than IntSet::insert.



elts ...
numElts
vtable



?

Class A has a non-virtual function f. Its child class B redefines f as a virtual function. Class C is a child class of B, which redefines f.

Select all the correct answers.

If pointer p of type A points to a value of type B, after p->f(),

- A. Function f of class B is called.
- **B.** Function f of class A is called.

If pointer p of type B points to a value of type C, after p->f(),

- C. Function f of class B is called.
- **D.** Function f of class C is called.



References

- **Problem Solving with C++ (8th Edition)**, by *Walter Savitch*, Addison Wesley Publishing (2011)
 - Chapter 10.4 Introduction to Inheritance
 - Chapter 15.1 Inheritance Basics
 - Chapter 15.3 Virtual Functions in C++