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Object Oriented Programming—C++ Lecture9 Class Keywords & Polymorphism

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- Class Keywords

- this
- static
- const
- mutable
- using
- friend
- delete

Class Keywords——this

this

Every object has access to its own address through the const pointer **this**

Explicit usage is not mandatory (and not suggested)

this is necessary when:

- The name of a local variable is equal to some member name
- Return reference to the calling object

```
struct A {  
    int x;  
    void f(int x) {  
        this->x = x; // without "this" has no effect  
    }  
    const A& g() {  
        return *this;  
    }  
};
```

Class Keywords——static

static

The keyword **static** declares members (fields or methods) that are not bound to class instances. A **static** member is shared by all objects of the class

- A **static** member function can only access **static** class members
- A non- **static** member function can access **static** class members
- Non-const **static** data members cannot be directly initialized inline...before C++17

Class Keywords——static-Initialization

Mutable `static` members

```
// "static" means the same value for all instances
struct A {
    // static int      a = 4;      // compiler error
    static int      a;           // ok, (declaration)
    static inline int b = 4;     // from C++17
};
int A::a = 4; // ok, without definition -> undefined reference
```

Constant `static` members

```
struct A {
    static const int      c = 4;    // also C++03
    // static const float    d = 4.2f; // only GNU extension (GCC)
    static constexpr float e = 4.2f; // ok, C++11
};
```

Class Keywords——static-Example

```
struct A {  
    int y = 2;  
    static int x; // declaration  
  
    static int f() { return x * 2; }  
    // static int f() { return y; } // compile error "y" is non-static  
    int h() { return x; } // ok, "x" is static  
};  
int A::x = 3; // definition  
  
//-----  
A a;  
a.h(); // return 3  
A::x++;  
cout << A::x; // print 4  
cout << A::f(); // print 8
```

Class Keywords——const

Const member functions

Const member functions (inspectors or observer) are functions marked with `const` that are not allowed to change the object state

Member functions without a `const` suffix are called non-const member functions or **mutators**. The compiler prevents from inadvertently mutating/changing the data members of observer functions

```
struct A {  
    int x = 3;  
  
    int get() const {  
        // x = 2;    // compile error class variables cannot be modified  
        return x;  
    }  
};
```

Class Keywords——const Overloading

The `const` keyword is part of the functions signature. Therefore a class can implement two similar methods, one which is called when the object is `const` , and one that is not

```
class A {
    int x = 3;
public:
    int& get1()      { return x; } // read and write
    int  get1() const { return x; } // read only
    int& get2()      { return x; } // read and write
};

A a1;
cout << a1.get1();    // ok
cout << a1.get2();    // ok
a1.get1() = 4;        // ok
const A a2;
cout << a2.get1();    // ok
// cout << a2.get2(); // compile error "a2" is const
//a2.get1() = 5;      // compile error only "get1() const" is available
```


Class Keywords——mutable

mutable

mutable members of *const* class instances are modifiable

Constant references or pointers to objects cannot modify objects in any way, except for data members marked **mutable**

- It is particularly useful if most of the members should be constant but a few need to be modified
- Conceptually, **mutable** members should not change anything that can be retrieved from the class interface

```
struct A {  
    int      x = 3;  
    mutable int y = 5;  
};  
const A a;  
// a.x = 3; // compiler error const  
a.y = 5;    // ok
```

Class Keywords——using for type declaration

The `using` keyword is used to declare a *type alias* tied to a specific class

```
struct A {  
    using type = int;  
};  
  
typename A::type x = 3; // "typename" keyword is needed when we refer to types  
  
struct B : A {};  
  
typename B::type x = 4; // B can use "type" as it is public in A
```

Class Keywords——using for Inheritance

The `using` keyword can be also used to change the inheritance attribute of member data or functions

```
struct A {  
protected:  
    int x = 3;  
};  
  
struct B : A {  
public:  
    using A::x;  
};  
  
B b;  
b.x = 3; // ok, "b.x" is public
```

friend Class

A **friend** class can access the private and protected members of the class in which it is declared as a friend

Friendship properties:

- **Not Symmetric**: if class A is a friend of class B, class B is not automatically a friend of class A
- **Not Transitive**: if class A is a friend of class B, and class B is a friend of class C, class A is not automatically a friend of class C
- **Not Inherited**: if class Base is a friend of class X, subclass Derived is not automatically a friend of class X; and if class X is a friend of class Base, class X is not automatically a friend of subclass Derived

Class Keywords——friend

```
class B;    // class declaration

class A {
    friend class B;
    int x;    // private
};

class B {
    int f(A a) { return a.x; } // ok, B is friend of A
};

class C : B {
    // int f(A a) { return a.x; } // compile error not inherited
};
```

Class Keywords——friend

friend Method

A *non-member function* can access the private and protected members of a class if it is declared a **friend** of that class

```
class A {  
    int x = 3;  // private  
  
    friend int f(A a); // friendship declaration, no implementation  
};  
  
// 'f' is not a member function of any class  
int f(A a) {  
    return a.x;  // A is friend of f(A)  
}
```

friend methods are commonly used for implementing the stream operator **operator<<**

Class Keywords——delete

delete Keyword (C++11)

The **delete** keyword explicitly marks a member function as deleted and any use results in a compiler error. When it is applied to *copy/move constructor* or *assignment*, it prevents the compiler from implicitly generating these functions

The default copy/move functions for a class can produce unexpected results. The keyword **delete** prevents these errors

```
struct A {  
    A()          = default;  
    A(const A&) = delete; // e.g. deleted because unsafe or expensive  
};  
void f(A a) {} // implicit call to copy constructor  
  
A a;  
// f(a);      // compile error marked as deleted
```

- Polymorphism

- virtual methods
- Virtual Table
- override keyword
- final keyword
- Common Errors
- Pure Virtual Method
- Abstract Class and Interface

Polymorphism

In Object-Oriented Programming (OOP), **polymorphism** (meaning “having multiple forms”) is the capability of an object of mutating its behavior in accordance with the specific usage *context*

- At run-time, objects of a *base class* behaves as objects of a *derived class*
- A **Base** class may define and implement polymorphic methods, and **derived** classes can **override** them, which means they provide their own implementations, invoked at run-time depending on the context

Polymorphism vs. Overloading

Overloading is a form of static polymorphism (compile-time polymorphism)

In C++, the term **polymorphic** is strongly associated with dynamic polymorphism (*overriding*)

```
// overloading example
void f(int a)    {}

void f(double b) {}

f(3);           // calls f(int)
f(3.3);         // calls f(double)
```

Function Binding

Connecting the function call to the function body is called *Binding*

- In **Early Binding** or Static Binding or Compile-time Binding, the compiler identifies the type of object at compile-time

- the program can jump directly to the function address

- In **Late Binding** or Dynamic Binding or Run-time binding, the run-time identifies the type of object at execution-time and then matches the function call with the correct function definition

- the program has to read the address held in the pointer and then jump to that address (less efficient since it involves an extra level of indirection)

C++ achieves **late binding** by declaring a **virtual** function

Polymorphism - The problem

```
struct A {  
    void f() { cout << "A"; }  
};  
  
struct B : A {  
    void f() { cout << "B"; }  
};  
  
void g(A& a) { a.f(); } // accepts A and B  
  
void h(B& b) { b.f(); } // accepts only B  
  
A a;  
B b;  
g(a);    // print "A"  
g(b);    // print "A" not "B"!!!
```

Polymorphism - virtual method

```
struct A {  
    virtual void f() { cout << "A"; }  
}; // now "f()" is virtual, evaluated at run-time  
  
struct B : A {  
    void f() { cout << "B"; }  
}; // now "B::f()" overrides "A::f()", evaluated at run-time  
  
void g(A& a) { a.f(); } // accepts A and B  
  
A a;  
B b;  
g(a); // print "A"  
g(b); // NOW, print "B"!!!
```

The `virtual` keyword is not necessary in derived classes, but it improves *readability* and clearly advertises the fact to the user that the function is virtual

When virtual works

```
struct A {  
    virtual void f() { cout << "A"; }  
};  
  
struct B : A {  
    void f() { cout << "B"; }  
};  
  
void f(A& a) { a.f(); } // ok, print "B"  
void g(A* a) { a->f(); } // ok, print "B"  
void h(A a) { a.f(); } // does not work!! print "A"  
  
B b;  
f(b); // print "B"  
g(&b); // print "B"  
h(b); // print "A" (cast to A)
```

Polymorphism Dynamic Behavior

```
struct A {  
    virtual void f() { cout << "A"; }  
};  
  
struct B : A {  
    void f() { cout << "B"; }  
};  
  
A* get_object(bool selectA) {  
    return (selectA) ? new A() : new B();  
}  
  
get_object(true)->f(); // print "A"  
get_object(false)->f(); // print "B"
```

Virtual Table

vtable

The **virtual table** (vtable) is a lookup table of functions used to resolve function calls and support *dynamic dispatch* (late binding)

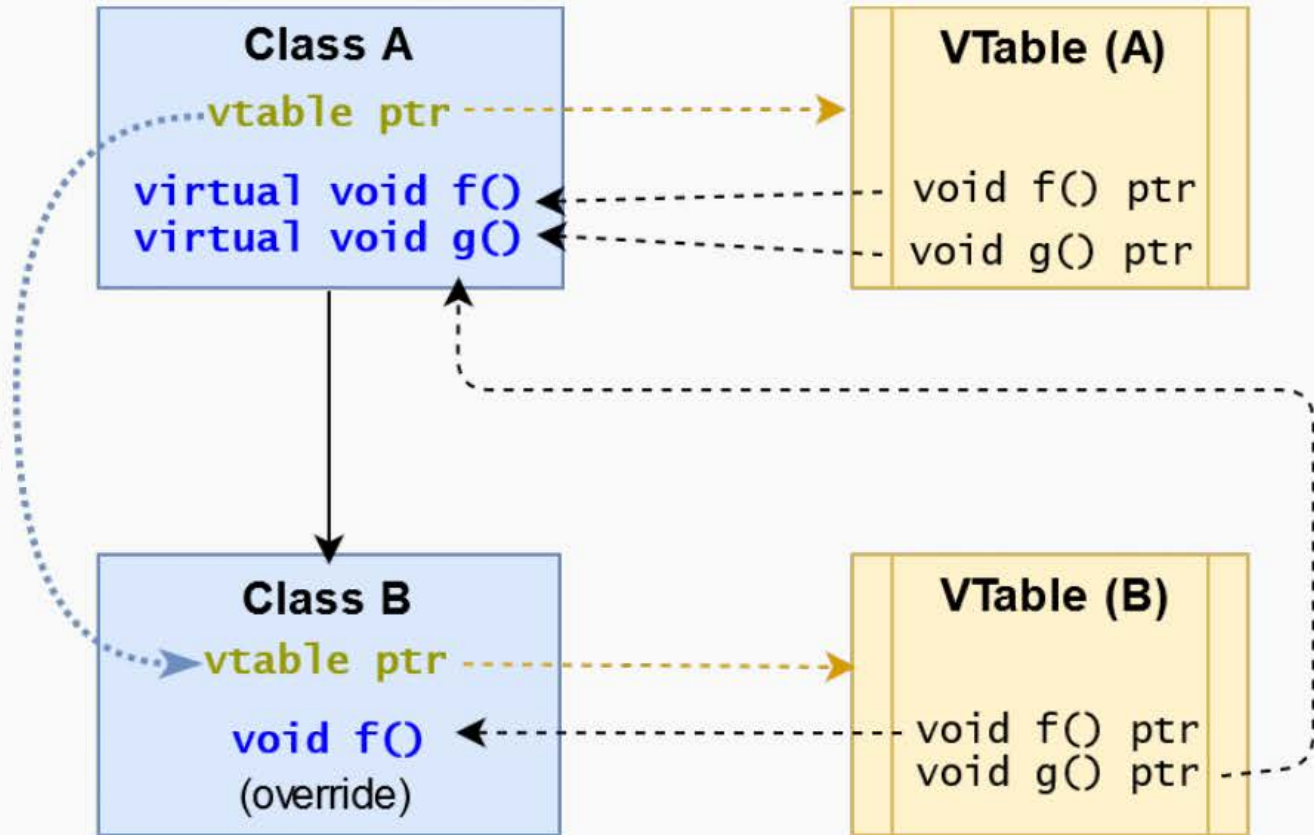
A *virtual table* contains one entry for each `virtual` function that can be called by objects of the class. Each entry in this table is simply a function pointer that points to the *most-derived* function accessible by that class

The compiler adds a *hidden* pointer to the base class which points to the virtual table for that class (`sizeof` considers the vtable pointer)

Virtual Table

```
struct A {  
    virtual void f();  
    virtual void g();  
};  
  
struct B : A {  
    void f();  
};
```

Inherited
from A
but different
value



Does the vtable really exist? (answer: YES)

```
struct A {  
    int x = 3;  
    virtual void f() { cout << "abc"; }  
};
```

```
A* a1 = new A;
```

```
A* a2 = (A*) malloc(sizeof(A));
```

```
cout << a1->x;    // print "3"
```

```
cout << a2->x;    // undefined value!!
```

```
a1->f();          // print "abc"
```

```
a2->f();          // segmentation fault 💀
```

Lesson learned: Never use malloc in C++

Virtual Method Notes

virtual classes allocate one extra pointer (hidden)

```
class A {  
    virtual void f1();  
    virtual void f2();  
}  
  
class B : A {};  
  
cout << sizeof(A); // 8 bytes (vtable pointer)  
cout << sizeof(B); // 8 bytes (vtable pointer)
```

override Keyword

override Keyword (C++11)

The **override** keyword ensures that the function is virtual and is overriding a virtual function from a base class

It forces the compiler to check the base class to see if there is a **virtual** function with this exact signature

override implies **virtual** (**virtual** should be omitted)

override Keyword

```
struct A {  
    virtual void f(int a);           // a "float" value is casted to "int"  
};                                   // ***  
  
struct B : A {  
    void f(int a) override;          // ok  
    void f(float a);                 // (still) very dangerous!!  
};                                   // ***  
  
// void f(float a) override;         // compile error not safe  
// void f(int a) const override;     // compile error not safe  
};  
  
// *** f(3.3f) has a different behavior between A and B
```

final Keyword

final Keyword (C++11)

The **final** keyword prevents inheriting from classes or overriding methods in derived classes

```
struct A {  
    virtual void f(int a) final; // "final" method  
};  
  
struct B : A {  
    // void f(int a); // compile error f(int) is "final"  
    void f(float a); // dangerous (still possible)  
}; // "override" prevents these errors  
  
struct C final { // cannot be extended  
};  
// struct D : C { // compile error C is "final"  
// };
```

Virtual Methods (Common Error 1)

All classes with at least one `virtual` method should declare a `virtual` destructor

```
struct A {  
    ~A() { cout << "A"; }    // <-- here the problem (not virtual)  
    virtual void f(int a) {}  
};  
struct B : A {  
    int* array;  
    B() { array = new int[1000000]; }  
    ~B() { delete[] array; }  
};  
//-----  
void destroy(A* a) {  
    delete a;    // call ~A()  
}  
B* b = new B;  
destroy(b); // without virtual, ~B() is not called  
            // destroy() prints only "A" -> huge memory leak!!
```

Virtual Methods (Common Error 2)

Do not call virtual methods in constructor and destructor

- *Constructor*: The derived class is not ready until constructor is completed
- *Destructor*: The derived class is already destroyed

```
struct A {  
    A() { f(); } // what instance is called? "B" is not ready  
               // it calls A::f(), even though A::f() is virtual  
    virtual void f() { cout << "Explosion"; }  
};  
struct B : A {  
    B() = default; // call A(). Note: A() may be also implicit  
  
    void f() override { cout << "Safe"; }  
};  
  
B b; // call B(), print "Explosion", not "Safe"!!
```


Virtual Methods (Common Error 3)

Do not use default parameters in virtual methods

Default parameters are not inherited

```
struct A {  
    virtual void f(int i = 5) { cout << "A::" << i << "\n"; }  
    virtual void g(int i = 5) { cout << "A::" << i << "\n"; }  
};  
struct B : A {  
    void f(int i = 3) override { cout << "B::" << i << "\n"; }  
    void g(int i)      override { cout << "B::" << i << "\n"; }  
};  
A a; B b;  
a.f();    // ok, print "A::5"  
b.f();    // ok, print "B::3"  
  
A& ab = b;  
ab.f();   // !!! print "B::5" // the virtual table of A  
                               // contains f(int i = 5) and  
ab.g();   // !!! print "B::5" // g(int i = 5) but it points  
                               // to B implementations
```

Pure Virtual Method

Pure Virtual Method

A **pure virtual method** is a function that must be implemented in derived classes (concrete implementation)

Pure virtual functions can have or not have a body

```
struct A {  
    virtual void f() = 0; // pure virtual without body  
    virtual void g() = 0; // pure virtual with body  
};  
void A::g() {} // pure virtual implementation (body) for g()  
  
struct B : A {  
    void f() override {} // must be implemented  
    void g() override {} // must be implemented  
};
```

Pure Virtual Method

A class with one *pure virtual function* cannot be instantiated

```
struct A {  
    virtual void f() = 0;  
};  
  
struct B1 : A {  
    // virtual void f() = 0; // implicitly declared  
};  
  
struct B2 : A {  
    void f() override {}  
};  
  
// A a; // "A" has a pure virtual method  
// B1 b1; // "B1" has a pure virtual method  
B2 b2;    // ok
```

Abstract Class and Interface

- A class is **interface** if it has only pure virtual functions and optionally (*suggested*) a virtual destructor. Interfaces do not have implementation or data
- A class is **abstract** if it has at least one pure virtual function

```
struct A {           // INTERFACE
    virtual ~A();    // to implement
    virtual void f() = 0;
};

struct B {           // ABSTRACT CLASS
    B() {}           // abstract classes may have a constructor
    virtual void g() = 0; // at least one pure virtual
protected:
    int x;            // additional data
};
```



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