COMP6771 Advanced C++ Programming

Week 9
Runtime Polymorphism

Key concepts

- Inheritance: ability to create new classes based on existing ones
 - Supported by class derivation
- Polymorphism: allows objects of a subclass to be used as if they were objects of a base class
 - Supported via virtual functions
- Dynamic binding: run-time resolution of the appropriate function to invoke based on the type of the object
 - Closely related to polymorphism
 - Supported via virtual functions

Tenets of C++

- Don't pay for what you don't use
 - C++ Supports OOP
 - No runtime performance penalty
 - C++ supports generic programming with the STL and templates
 - No runtime performance penalty
 - Polymorphism is extremely powerful, and we need it in C++
 - Do we need polymorphism at all when using inheritance?
 - Answer: sometimes
 - But how do we do so, considering that we don't want to make anyone who doesn't use it pay a performance penalty

Thinking about programming

- Represent concepts with classes
- Represent relations with inheritance or composition
 - Inheritance: A is also a B, and can do everything B does
 - "is a" relationship
 - A dog is an animal
 - Composition (data member): A contains a B, but isn't a B itself
 - "has a" relationship
 - A person has a name
 - Choose the right one!

Protected members

- Protected is a keyword we can use instead of public / private
- Protected members are accessible only to the class, or any subclass of it

Inheritance in C++

- To inherit off classes in C++, we use "class DerivedClass: public BaseClass"
- Visibility can be one of:
 - public (generally use this unless you have good reason not to)
 - If you don't want public, you should (usually) use composition
 - protected
 - private
- Visibility is the maximum visibility allowed
 - If you specify ": private BaseClass", then the maximum visibility is private
 - Any BaseClass members that were public or protected are now private

Inheritance and memory layout

This is very important, as it guides the design of everything we discuss this week

BaseClass object

int_member_
string_member_

BaseClass subobject

SubClass subobject

```
SubClass object
```

```
int_member_
string_member_
vector_member_
ptr_member_
```

```
1 class BaseClass {
2  public:
3   int get_int_member() { return int_member_; }
4   std::string get_class_name() {
5    return "BaseClass"
6  };
7  
8  private:
9   int int_member_;
10   std::string string_member_;
11 }
```

```
1 class SubClass: public BaseClass {
2  public:
3    std::string get_class_name() {
4      return "SubClass";
5   }
6
7  private:
8    std::vector<int> vector_member_;
9    std::unique_ptr<int> ptr_member_;
10 }
```

Polymorphism and values

- How many bytes is a BaseClass instance?
- How many bytes is a SubClass instance?
- One of the guiding principles of C++ is "You don't pay for what you don't use"
 - Let's discuss the following code, but pay great consideration to the memory layout

```
1 class BaseClass {
2  public:
3   int get_member() { return member_; }
4   std::string get_class_name() {
5    return "BaseClass";
6  };
7  
8  private:
9  int member_;
10 }
```

```
1 class SubClass: public BaseClass {
2  public:
3    std::string get_class_name() {
4     return "SubClass";
5   }
6
7  private:
8   int subclass_data_;
9 }
```

The object slicing problem

- If you declare a BaseClass variable, how big is it?
- How can the compiler allocate space for it on the stack, when it doesn't know how big it could be?
- The solution: since we care about performance, a BaseClass can only store a BaseClass, not a SubClass
 - If we try to fill that value with a SubClass, then it just fills it with the BaseClass subobject, and drops the SubClass subobject

```
1 class BaseClass {
2  public:
3   int get_member() { return member_; }
4   std::string get_class_name() {
5    return "BaseClass";
6  };
7  
8  private:
9  int member_;
10 }
```

```
class SubClass: public BaseClass {
  public:
    std::string get_class_name() {
      return "SubClass";
    }

private:
    int subclass_data_;
}
```

Polymorphism and References

- How big is a reference/pointer to a BaseClass
- How big is a reference/pointer to a SubClass
- Object slicing problem solved (but still another problem)
- One of the guiding principles of C++ is "You don't pay for what you don't use"
 - How does the compiler decide which version of GetClassName to call?
 - When does the compiler decide this? Compile or runtime?
 - How can it ensure that calling GetMember doesn't have similar overhead

```
1 class BaseClass {
2  public:
3   int get_member() { return member_; }
4   std::string get_class_name() {
5    return "BaseClass";
6  };
7  
8  private:
9  int member_;
10 }
```

```
class SubClass: public BaseClass {
  public:
    std::string get_class_name() {
      return "SubClass";
    }

private:
    int subclass_data_;
}
```

Virtual functions

- How does the compiler decide which version of GetClassName to call?
- How can it ensure that calling GetMember doesn't have similar overhead
 - Explicitly tell the compiler that GetClassName is a function designed to be modified by subclasses
 - Use the keyword "virtual" in the base class
 - Use the keyword "override" in the subclass

```
1 class BaseClass {
2  public:
3   int get_member() { return member_; }
4   virtual std::string get_class_name() {
5    return "BaseClass"
6  };
7
8  private:
9  int member_;
10 }
```

```
class SubClass: public BaseClass {
  public:
    std::string GetClassName() override {
      return "SubClass";
    }

private:
    int subclass_data_;
}
```

Override

- While override isn't required by the compiler, you should **always** use it
- Override fails to compile if the function doesn't exist in the base class. This helps with:
 - Typos
 - Refactoring
 - Const / non-const methods
 - Slightly different signatures

```
1 class BaseClass {
2  public:
3   int get_member() { return member_; }
4   virtual std::string get_class_name() {
5    return "BaseClass"
6  };
7
8  private:
9  int member_;
10 }
```

```
1 class SubClass: public BaseClass {
2  public:
3    // This compiles. But this is a
4    // different function to the
5    // BaseClass get_class_name.
6    std::string get_class_name() const {
7     return "SubClass";
8    }
9
10  private:
11    int subclass_data_;
12 }
```

Virtual functions

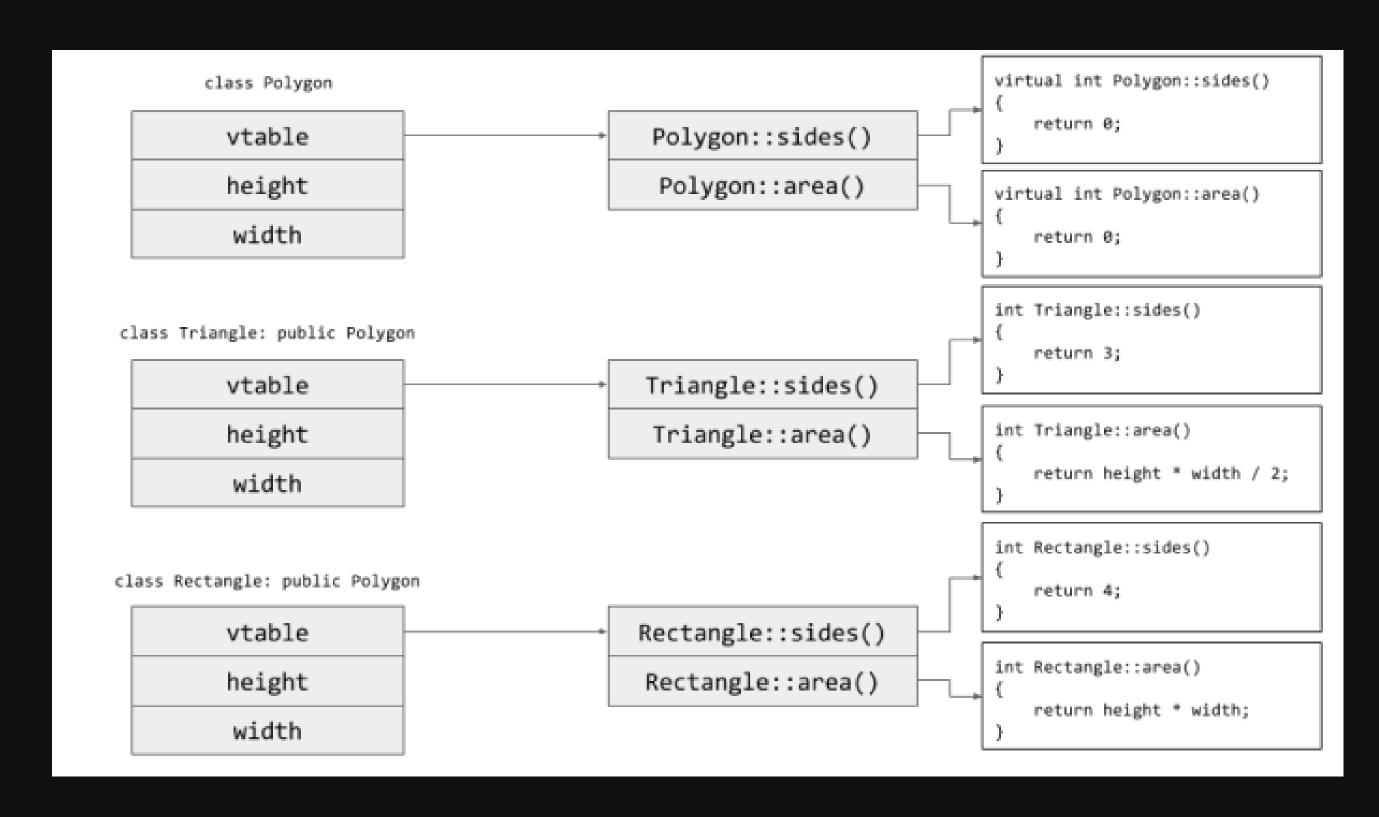
So what happens when we start using virtual members?

```
1 class BaseClass {
    public:
     virtual std::string get class name() {
       return "BaseClass";
     };
 6
    ~BaseClass() {
      std::cout << "Destructing base class\n";</pre>
 9
10
11
12 class SubClass: public BaseClass {
    public:
     std::string get_class_name() override {
14
       return "SubClass";
15
16
17
18
    ~SubClass() {
      std::cout << "Destructing subclass\n";</pre>
19
20
21 }
```

VTables

- Each class has a VTable stored in the data segment
 - A vtable is an array of function pointers that says which definition each virtual function points to for that class
- If the VTable for a class is non-empty, then every member of that class has an additional data member that is a pointer to the vtable
- When a virtual function is called on a reference or pointer type, then the program actually does the following
 - 1. Follow the vtable pointer to get to the vtable
 - 2. Increment by an offset, which is a constant for each function
 - 3. Follow the function pointer at vtable[offset] and call the function

VTable example



Final

- Specifies to the compiler "this is not virtual for any subclasses"
- If the compiler has a variable of type SubClass&, it now no longer needs to look it up in the vtable
- This means static binding if you have a SubClass&, but dynamic binding for BaseClass&

```
1 class BaseClass {
2  public:
3   int get_member() { return member_; }
4   virtual std::string get_class_name() {
5    return "BaseClass"
6  };
7
8  private:
9  int member_;
10 }
```

```
class SubClass: public BaseClass {
  public:
    std::string get_class_name() override final {
      return "SubClass";
    }

private:
    int subclass_data_;
}
```

Types of functions

Syntax	Name	Meaning
	pure virtual	Inherit interface only
,		Inherit interface with optional implementation
void fn() {}	nonvirtual	Inherit interface and mandatory implementation

Note: nonvirtuals can be hidden by writing a function with the same name in a subclass

DO NOT DO THIS

Abstract Base Classes (ABCs)

- Might want to deal with a base class, but the base class by itself is nonsense
 - What is the default way to draw a shape? How many sides by default?
 - A function takes in a "Clickable"
- Might want some default behaviour and data, but need others
 - All files have a name, but are reads done over the network or from a disk
- If a class has at least one "abstract" (pure virtual in C++) method, the class is abstract and cannot be constructed
 - It can, however, have constructors and destructors
 - These provide semantics for constructing and destructing the ABC subobject of any derived classes

Pure virtual functions

- Virtual functions are good for when you have a default implementation that subclasses may want to overwrite
- Sometimes there is no default available
- A pure virtual function specifies a function that a class
 must override in order to not be abstract

```
1 class Shape {
2    // Your derived class "Circle" may forget to write this.
3    virtual void draw(Canvas&) {}
5    // Fails at link time because there's no definition.
6    virtual void draw(Canvas&);
7    // Pure virtual function.
9    virtual void draw(Canvas&) = 0;
10 };
```

Creating polymorphic objects

- In a language like Java, everything is a pointer
 - This allows for code like on the left
 - Not possible in C++ due to objects being stored inline
 - This then leads to slicing problem
- If you want to store a polymorphic object, use a pointer

```
1 // Java-style C++ here
2 // Don't do this.
3
4 auto base = std::vector<BaseClass>();
5 base.push_back(BaseClass{});
6 base.push_back(SubClass1{});
7 base.push_back(SubClass2{});
```

```
1 // Good C++ code
2 // But there's a potential problem here.
3 // (*very* hard to spot)
4
5 auto base = std::vector<std::unique_ptr<BaseClass>>();
6 base.push_back(std::make_unique<BaseClass>());
7 base.push_back(std::make_unique<Subclass1>());
8 base.push_back(std::make_unique<Subclass2>());
```

Inheritance and constructors

- Every subclass constructor must call a base class constructor
 - If none is manually called, the default constructor is used
 - A subclass cannot initialise fields defined in the base class
 - Abstract classes must have constructors

```
1 class BaseClass {
    public:
     BaseClass(int member): int member {member} {}
    private:
     int int member ;
     std::string string member ;
 8 }
10 class SubClass: public BaseClass {
   public:
     SubClass(int member, std::unique_ptr<int>&& ptr): BaseClass(member), ptr_member_(std::move(ptr)) {}
13
     SubClass(int member, std::unique ptr<int>&& ptr): int member (member), ptr member (std::move(ptr)) {}
14
15
    private:
16
     std::vector<int> vector member ;
17
     std::unique ptr<int> ptr member ;
19 }
```

Destructing polymorphic objects

- Which constructor is called?
- Which destructor is called?
- What could the problem be?
 - What would the consequences be?
- How might we fix it, using the techniques we've already learnt?

```
1 // Simplification of previous slides code.
2
3 auto base = std::make_unique<BaseClass>();
4 auto subclass = std::make_unique<Subclass>();
```

Destructing polymorphic objects

- Whenever you write a class intended to be inherited from, **always** make your destructor virtual
- Remember: When you declare a destructor, the move constructor and assignment are not synthesized

```
1 class BaseClass {
2   BaseClass(BaseClass&&) = default;
3   BaseClass& operator=(BaseClass&&) = default;
4   virtual ~BaseClass() = default;
5 }
```

Static and dynamic types

- Static type is the type it is declared as
- Dynamic type is the type of the object itself
- Static means compile-time, and dynamic means runtime
 - Due to object slicing, an object that is neither reference or pointer always has the same static and dynamic type

Quiz - What's the static and dynamic types of each of these?

```
int main() {
   auto base_class = BaseClass();
   auto subclass = SubClass();
   auto sub_copy = subclass;
   // The following could all be replaced with pointers
   // and have the same effect.
   const BaseClass& base_to_base{base_class};
   // Another reason to use auto - you can't accidentally do this.
   const BaseClass& base_to_sub{subclass};
   // Fails to compile
   const SubClass& sub_to_base{base_class};
   const SubClass& sub_to_sub{subclass};
   // Fails to compile (even though it refers to at a sub);
   const SubClass& sub_to_base_to_sub{base_to_sub};
}
```

Static and dynamic binding

- Static binding: Decide which function to call at compile time (based on static type)
- Dynamic binding: Decide which function to call at runtime (based on dynamic type)
- (++
 - Statically typed (types are calculated at compile time)
 - Static binding for non-virtual functions
 - Dynamic binding for virtual functions
- Java
 - Statically typed
 - Dynamic binding

Up-casting

- Casting from a derived class to a base class is called up-casting
- This cast is always safe
 - All dogs are animals
- Because the cast is always safe, C++ allows this as an implicit cast
- One of the reasons to use auto is that it avoids implicit casts

```
1 auto dog = Dog();
2
3 // Up-cast with references.
4 Animal& animal = dog;
5 // Up-cast with pointers.
6 Animal* animal = &dog;
```

Down-casting

- Casting from a base class to a derived class is called down-casting
- This cast is not safe
 - Not all animals are dogs

```
1 auto dog = Dog();
2 auto cat = Cat();
3 Animal& animal_dog{dog};
4 Animal& animal_cat{cat};
5
6 // Attempt to down-cast with references.
7 // Neither of these compile.
8 // Why not?
9 Dog& dog_ref{animal_dog};
10 Dog& dog_ref{animal_cat};
```

How to down cast

- The compiler doesn't know if an Animal happens to be a Dog
 - If you know it is, you can use static_cast
 - Otherwise, you can use dynamic_cast
 - Returns null pointer for pointer types if it doesn't match
 - Throws exceptions for reference types if it doesn't match

```
1 auto dog = Dog();
2 auto cat = Cat();
3 Animal& animal_dog{dog};
4 Animal& animal_cat{cat};
5
6 // Attempt to down-cast with references.
7 Dog& dog_ref{static_cast<Dog&>(animal_dog)};
8 Dog& dog_ref{dynamic_cast<Dog&>(animal_dog)};
9 // Undefined behaviour (incorrect static cast).
10 Dog& dog_ref{static_cast<Dog&>(animal_cat)};
11 // Throws exception
12 Dog& dog_ref{dynamic_cast<Dog&>(animal_cat)};
```

```
1 auto dog = Dog();
2 auto cat = Cat();
3 Animal& animal_dog{dog};
4 Animal& animal_cat{cat};
5
6 // Attempt to down-cast with pointers.
7 Dog* dog_ref{static_cast<Dog*>(&animal_dog)};
8 Dog* dog_ref{dynamic_cast<Dog*>(&animal_dog)};
9 // Undefined behaviour (incorrect static cast).
10 Dog* dog_ref{static_cast<Dog*>(&animal_cat)};
11 // returns null pointer
12 Dog* dog_ref{dynamic_cast<Dog*>(&animal_cat)};
```

Covariants

- Read more about covariance and contravariance
- If a function overrides a base, which type can it return?
 - If a base specifies that it returns a LandAnimal, a derived also needs to return a LandAnimal
- Every possible return type for the derived must be a valid return type for the base

```
1 class Base {
2   virtual LandAnimal& get_favorite_animal();
3 };
4
5 class Derived: public Base {
6   // Fails to compile: Not all animals are land animals.
7   Animal& get_favorite_animal() override;
8   // Compiles: All land animals are land animals.
9   LandAnimal& get_favorite_animal() override;
10   // Compiles: All dogs are land animals.
11   Dog& get_favorite_animal() override;
12 };
```

Contravariants

- If a function overrides a base, which types can it take in?
 - If a base specifies that it takes in a LandAnimal, a LandAnimal must always be valid input in the derived
- Every possible parameter to the base must be a possible parameter for the derived

```
1 class Base {
2   virtual void use_animal(LandAnimal&);
3 };
4
5 class Derived: public Base {
6   // Compiles: All land animals are valid input (animals).
7   void use_animal(Animal&) override;
8   // Compiles: All land animals are valid input (land animals).
9   void use_animal(LandAnimal&) override;
10   // Fails to compile: Not All land animals are valid input (dogs).
11   void use_animal(Dog&) override;
12 };
```

Default arguments and virtuals

- Default arguments are determined at compile time for efficiency's sake
- Hence, default arguments need to use the **static** type of the function
- Avoid default arguments when overriding virtual functions

```
1 class Base {
 2 public:
 3 virtual ~Base() = default;
 4 virtual void print num(int i = 1) {
    std::cout << "Base " << i << '\n';</pre>
 6
 7 };
 9 class Derived: public Base {
10 public:
    void print num(int i = 2) override {
   std::cout << "Derived " << i << '\n';</pre>
12
13
14 };
15
16 int main() {
17 Derived derived;
    Base* base = &derived;
    derived.print num(); // Prints "Derived 2"
19
     base->print num(); // Prints "Derived 1"
21 }
```

Construction of derived classes

- Base classes are always constructed before the derived class is constructed
 - The base class ctor never depends on the members of the derived class
 - The derived class ctor may be dependent on the members of the base class

```
1 class Animal {...}
2 class LandAnimal: public Animal {...}
3 class Dog: public LandAnimals {...}
4
5 Dog d;
6
7 // Dog() calls LandAnimal()
8  // LandAnimal() calls Animal()
9    // Animal members constructed using initialiser list
10    // Animal constructor body runs
11    // LandAnimal members constructed using initialiser list
12    // LandAnimal constructor body runs
13    // Dog members constructed using initialiser list
14    // Dog constructor body runs
```

Virtuals in constructors

If a class is not fully constructed, cannot perform dynamic binding

```
1 class Animal {...};
 2 class LandAnimal: public Animal {
     LandAnimal() {
       Run();
     virtual void Run() {
       std::cout << "Land animal running\n";</pre>
10 };
11 class Dog: public LandAnimals {
     void Run() override {
       std::cout << "Dog running\n";</pre>
13
14
15 };
16
17 // When the LandAnimal constructor is being called,
18 // the Dog part of the object has not been constructed yet.
19 // C++ chooses to not allow dynamic binding in constructors
20 // because Dog::Run() might depend upon Dog's members.
21 Dog d;
```

Destruction of derived classes

Easy to remember order: Always opposite to construction order

```
1 class Animal {...}
2 class LandAnimal: public Animal {...}
3 class Dog: public LandAnimals {...}
4
5 auto d = Dog();
6
7 // ~Dog() destructor body runs
8 // Dog members destructed in reverse order of declaration
9 // ~LandAnimal() destructor body runs
10 // LandAnimal members destructed in reverse order of declaration
11 // ~Animal() destructor body runs
12 // Animal members destructed in reverse order of declaration.
```

Virtuals in destructors

- If a class is partially destructed, cannot perform dynamic binding
- Unrelated to the destructor itself being virtual

```
1 class Animal {...};
 2 class LandAnimal: public Animal {
     virtual ~LandAnimal() {
       Run();
     virtual void Run() {
       std::cout << "Land animal running\n";</pre>
10 };
11 class Dog: public LandAnimals {
     void Run() override {
       std::cout << "Dog running\n";</pre>
13
14
15 };
16
17 // When the LandAnimal constructor is being called,
18 // the Dog part of the object has already been destroyed.
19 // C++ chooses to not allow dynamic binding in destructors
20 // because Dog::Run() might depend upon Dog's members.
21 auto d = Dog();
```

Feedback

