

CSE 1325: Object-Oriented Programming

Lecture 19 / Chapters 17-19

Polymorphism

Mr. George F. Rice
george.rice@uta.edu

Based on material by Bjarne Stroustrup
www.stroustrup.com/Programming

ERB 402
Office Hours:
Tuesday Thursday 11 - 12
Or by appointment

Overview: Polymorphism

- Vectors revisited
- Pointers revisited
 - Delete and Destructors
 - Memory Leaks
 - `void*`
- Polymorphism
 - Inheritance
 - Virtual methods and overriding
 - References and pointers
 - Object memory layout



Review

Stack vs Heap

- **Stack** is “scratch memory” for a thread
 - LIFO (Last-In, First-Out) allocation and deallocation
 - Allocation when a scope is entered
 - Automatically deallocated when that scope exits
 - Simple to track and so rarely leaks memory
- **Heap** is memory shared by all threads for dynamic allocation
 - Allocation and deallocation can happen at any time – but only when *specifically* invoked!
 - Many algorithms trade speed vs fragmentation

Memory Layout



Assembly vs C++

- At the lowest level, assembly is simple and brutal
 - You have to program everything yourself
 - You have no type checking to help you
 - Run-time errors are found when data is corrupted or the program crashes
- We want to get to a higher level as quickly as we can
 - To become productive and reliable
 - To use a language “fit for humans”
- Chapters 17-19 basically show how vector is implemented
 - The alternative to understanding is to believe in “magic”
 - The techniques for building vector are the ones underlying all higher-level work with data structures

Vectors

- Vector is the “default” data structure
 - Like a Python list or Java LinkedList, it is incredibly handy for collecting random data
 - Particularly if we don’t know in advance how much data we’ll eventually collect
- Vector offers some neat features
 - Very efficient memory use and quick expansion
 - Optionally range checked
- How is vector implemented?

```
vector<double> age{4};  
age[0]=.33;    age[1]=22.0;  
age[2]=27.2;    age[3]=54.2;
```



age[0]: age[1]: age[2]: age[3]:

0.33	22.0	27.2	54.2
------	------	------	------

Vector v0.1

```
// a very simplified vector of doubles (like vector<double>):

class vector {
    int sz;          // the number of elements ("the size")
    double* elem;   // pointer to the first element
public:
    vector(int s); // constructor: allocate s elements,
                    // let elem point to them,
                    // store s in sz
    int size() const { return sz; } // the current size
};

// Note: new here does not initialize elements (but the standard vector does)
vector::vector(int s) : sz{s}, // store the size s in sz
    elem{new double[s]} // allocate s doubles on the free store
                    // store a pointer to those doubles in elem
{ }
```

Review Pointers and the Heap

- You request that memory be allocated on the heap with the ***new*** operator
 - “new” returns **a pointer** to the allocated memory
 - The pointer is to the address of the **first byte** of the memory
- For example
 - `int* n = new int; // allocate one uninitialized int`
 - `int y = *n; // assign random memory to y (don't do this)`
 - `int* p = new int{5}; // allocate one int initialized to 5`
 - `int* q = new int[7]; // allocate seven uninitialized ints`
 - `double* pd = new double[n]; // allocate n uninitialized doubles`
- A pointer points to an object of its specified type
- A pointer does **not** “know” how many elements it points to

Pointers and Arrays

- Array members on the heap are accessed just like those on the stack (mostly)
 - `int* q = new int[7]; // allocate seven uninitialized ints`
 - `q[0] = 42; // store 42 at the first address`
 - `q[1] = 13; // store 13 at the second address`
 - `int x = q[1]; // copy value from second address to x`
 - `int y = *q; // copy value from first address to y`
 - `y = q[0]; // ditto`
 - `int z = q[42]; // assign random memory to z (don't do this)`
 - `z = q[-4]; // ditto (don't do this!)`

Vector v0.2

```
// a very simplified vector of doubles:  
class vector {  
    int sz;      // the size  
    double* elem; // a pointer to the elements  
public:  
    vector(int s) :sz(s), elem(new double[s]) { } // constructor  
    double get(int n) const { return elem[n]; } // access: read  
    void set(int n, double v) { elem[n]=v; } // access: write  
    int size() const { return sz; } // the current size  
};  
  
vector v{10};  
for (int i=0; i<v.size(); ++i) { v.set(i,i); cout << v.get(i) << ' ';
```

Do you see the glaring error in the above code?

Memory Leaks

```
double* calc(int result_size, int max)
{
    double* p = new double[max];      // allocate another max doubles
                                       // i.e., get max doubles from the free store
    double* result = new double[result_size];
    // ... use p to calculate results to be put in result ...
    return result;
}

double* r = calc(200,100);
```

Memory Leaks

```
double* calc(int result_size, int max)
{
    double* p = new double[max];      // allocate another max doubles
                                       // i.e., get max doubles from the free store
    double* result = new double[result_size];
    // ... use p to calculate results to be put in result ...
    return result;
}

double* r = calc(200,100); // p was automatically deallocated from the stack
                           // when calc exited, "leaking" double[max] from heap!
```

- Lack of de-allocation (usually called “memory leaks”) can be a serious problem in real-world programs
- A program that must run for a long time can’t afford any memory leaks
 - It’s not a good idea even for short programs!

Fixing the Memory Leaks

```
double* calc(int result_size, int max)
{
    double* p = new double[max];      // allocate another max doubles
                                       // i.e., get max doubles from the free store
    double* result = new double[result_size];
    // ... use p to calculate results to be put in result ...
    delete[] p; // mark the heap array that p points to as free
    return result;
}

double* r = calc(200,100);
delete[] r;                         // this one is not at all obvious!
```

- “`delete`” de-allocates a simple variable or object
- “`delete[]`” de-allocates an array

Another Form of Memory Leak

```
void f()
{
    double* p = new double[27];    // allocate 27 doubles
    // ...
    p = new double[42];    // allocate 42 more
    // ...
    delete[] p;        // now delete the allocated heap memory
}
```

Another Form of Memory Leak

```
void f()
{
    double* p = new double[27];    // allocate 27 doubles
    // ...
    p = new double[42];    // allocate 42 more
    // ...
    delete[] p;        // now delete the allocated heap memory
}
```

- The second allocation overwrites the first pointer
- The `delete[]` only de-allocates the second allocation
 - The `double[27]` is leaked

Memory Leak Avoidance Strategies

- Don't use new and delete
 - Rely on vector and similar mature higher-level classes
- Use garbage collection
 - A scheme, e.g., reference counting, identifies allocations that are no longer in use
 - A language-provided daemon – the “garbage collector” – runs periodically to de-allocate what is no longer in use
 - Java and Python use garbage collection
 - It is still possible to leak memory in these languages – just harder
- Use destructors, smart pointers, and Gtk::manage to automate de-allocation

Allocation and Deallocation

Or, new and delete[]

- Allocate using new
 - “new” allocates an object on the heap, sometimes initializes it, and returns a pointer to it
 - `int* pi = new int; // default initialization (none for int)`
 - `char* pc = new char('a'); // explicit initialization`
 - `double* pd = new double[10]; // allocation of (uninitialized) array`
 - **New throws a `bad_alloc` exception if it can't allocate (out of memory)**
- Deallocate using delete and `delete[]`
 - `delete` and `delete[]` return the memory of an object allocated by `new` to the free store so that the free store can use it for new allocations
 - `delete pi; // deallocate an individual object`
 - `delete pc; // deallocate an individual object`
 - `delete[] pd; // deallocate an array`
 - Delete of a zero-valued pointer (“the null pointer”) does nothing
 - `char* p = nullptr; // new to C++11 - earlier version would “= 0”`
 - `delete p; // harmless`

Vector v0.3

```
// a very simplified vector of doubles:  
class vector {  
    int sz;          // the size  
    double* elem;   // a pointer to the elements  
public:  
    vector(int s) // constructor: allocates/acquires memory  
        :sz(s), elem{new double[s]} {}  
    ~vector()      // destructor: de-allocates/releases memory  
        { delete[] elem; }  
    // ...  
};
```

- Note: this is an example of a general, important technique:
 - Acquire resources in a constructor
 - Release them in the destructor
- Examples of resources: memory, files, locks, threads, sockets
- The textbook continues to improve the vector class, while we'll follow a rabbit trail for a bit instead

void*

- void* means “pointer to raw memory”
 - Very useful in embedded programming
- Use void* to transmit an address between pieces of code that really don't know each other's types – only the programmer knows
 - Example: the 2nd parameter of FLTK's Fl_Callback function
 - You can point to *any data* when you register for the callback
 - The callback function must “cast” the void* to the correct type, then access the data via ->
 - Very versatile, and more than a little scary!

A (Very) Little FLTK

FLTK defines its callbacks with an “any data goes here” void* parameter

```
// Handle sending commands to child when button pressed
void HandleButton_CB(Fl_Widget*, void* data) {
    std::cout << static_cast<string>(data) << std::endl;
}

class MyApp {
public:
    MyApp() {
        win = new Fl_Window(720, 486);
        Fl_Button a(10, 10, 20, 20, "A"); a.callback(HandleButton_CB, (void*)"a\n");
        Fl_Button b(30, 10, 20, 20, "B"); b.callback(HandleButton_CB, (void*)"b\n");
        Fl_Button c(50, 10, 20, 20, "C"); c.callback(HandleButton_CB, (void*)"c\n");
        Fl_Button q(70, 10, 20, 20, "q"); q.callback(CleanExit_CB, (void*)"q\n");
        win->end();
        win->show();
    }
};

// MAIN
int main() {
    MyApp app;
    return(Fl::run());
}
```

The handler must cast the void* to the same type as was registered to avoid a segfault

More on void*

- Any pointer to object can be assigned to a void*
 - `int* pi = new int;` `void* pv1 = pi;`
 - `double* pd = new double[10];` `void* pv2 = pd;`
- void* is rarely necessary – it's presence may indicate a poor software design
- **Important:** No objects of type “void” exist in C++
 - `void v;` // error – no such type
 - `void f();` // `f()` does not return anything
 // `f()` does not return an object of type void

C-style cast and static_cast

- To use the void* variable, we first “cast” a type

```
void f(void* pv) {  
    void* pv2 = pv; // copying is ok (copying is what void*s are for)  
    double* pd = pv; // error: can't implicitly convert void* to double*  
    *pv = 7; // error: you can't dereference a void*  
              // good! (The int 7 is not represented like the double 7.0)  
    pv[2] = 9; // error: you can't subscript a void*  
    pv++; // error: you can't increment a void*  
    int* pi_cast = (int*) pv; // ok: C-style cast  
    int* pi_scast = static_cast<int*>(pv); // ok: C++-style static cast  
}
```

- Most operations fail for void* variables
 - Key exceptions are assignment to another void* variable and casts
- Once cast to a non-void type, normal operations apply (assuming the void* really was that type!)

C-style cast vs static_cast

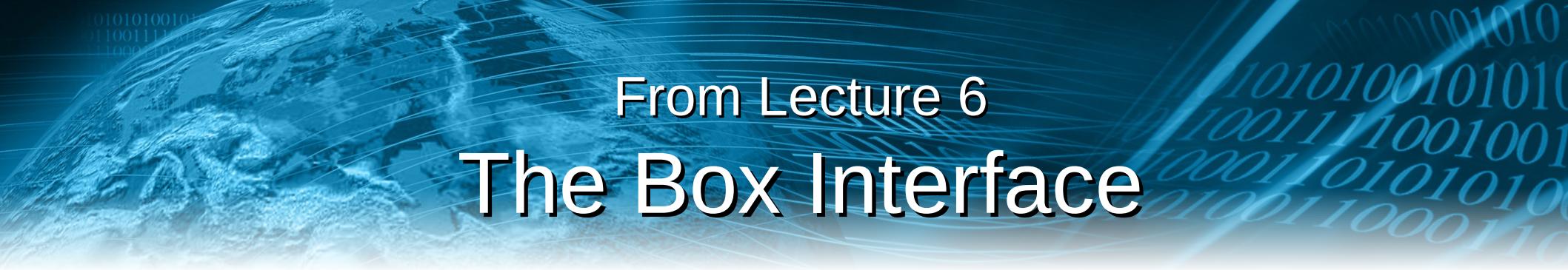
- static_cast performs *some* sanity checks

```
class A {};
class B {};

int main() {
    A* a = new A;
    B* b = static_cast<B*>(a); // ERROR - A and B are unrelated, so won't compile
    B* c = (B*)(a);           // Compiles, but nonsensical - this will not end well
}
```

ricegef@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19\$ g++ --std=c++14 casting.cpp
casting.cpp: In function 'int main()':
casting.cpp:6:27: error: invalid static_cast from type 'A*' to type 'B'
 B* b = static_cast<B*>(a);
 ^
ricegef@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19\$ █

- A C-style cast is powerful but easy to misuse (see nonsense above), and is not appropriate for a C++ program
- A static_cast more safely converts a void* to a pointer to object type – or more generally, a pointer of one type to a pointer of a compatible type
- We'll get to dynamic casts shortly



From Lecture 6

The Box Interface

- In Lecture 6, we created a Box class to demonstrate operator overloading
- We'll use a similar class for polymorphism

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

class Box {
public:
    Box (double len, double bre, double hei)
        : length(len), breadth(bre), height(hei) { }

    double get_volume(void) {return length * breadth * height;}
    std::string get_description() {return "Rectangular box";}

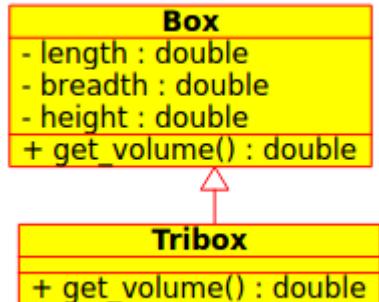
private:
    double length;      // Length of a box
    double breadth;     // Breadth of a box
    double height;      // Height of a box
};
```

Example: Inheriting the Box Interface

```
class Box {  
public:  
    Box (double len, double bre, double hei)  
        : length(len), breadth(bre), height(hei) { }  
  
    double get_volume(void) {return length * breadth * height;}  
    std::string get_description() {return "Rectangular box";}  
  
protected:  
    double length;      // Length of a box  
    double breadth;     // Breadth of a box  
    double height;      // Height of a box  
};  
  
class Tribox : public Box {  
public:  
    Tribox (double len, double bre, double hei)  
        : Box(len, bre, hei) { }  
  
    double get_volume(void) {return length * breadth * height / 2;}  
    std::string get_description() {return "Triangular box";}  
};
```

A “Tribox” is a triangular rather than rectangular box. Its volume is simply half that of a rectangular box of the same dimensions.

Since constructors don't inherit, we explicitly call the base constructor. We then (attempt to) override `getVolume`.



Protected is scoped between public (everyone sees it) and private (only this class and its friends see it) – useful for inheritance. Protected members are also visible to derived class members.



Testing Box and Tribox

```
// Test the Box base class
// and Tribox derived class

int main( ) {
    Box box1(6.0, 7.0, 5.0);
    Box box2(12.0, 13.0, 10.0);

    std::cout << box1.get_description() << std::endl;
    std::cout << "Box 1: volume " << box1.get_volume() << std::endl;
    std::cout << "Box 2: volume " << box2.get_volume() << std::endl << std::endl;

    Tribox tbox1(6.0, 7.0, 5.0);
    Tribox tbox2(12.0, 13.0, 10.0);

    std::cout << tbox1.get_description() << std::endl;
    std::cout << "Box 1: volume " << tbox1.get_volume() << std::endl;
    std::cout << "Box 2: volume " << tbox2.get_volume() << std::endl << std::endl;
}
```

```
ricegf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19$ g++ --std=c++14 box_nonpoly.cpp
ricegf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19$ ./a.out
Rectangular box
Box 1: volume 210
Box 2: volume 1560

Triangular box
Box 1: volume 105
Box 2: volume 780
```

Here we create objects of the derived class and use them directly. Some of the features of the base class inherit – the protected data, for example – and some do not – the `get_volume()` method. We could also add additional fields and methods to the derived class as needed.

Do the Tribox Methods Override?

```
class Box {  
public:  
    Box (double len, double bre, double hei)  
        : length(len), breadth(bre), height(hei) { }  
    double get_volume(void) {return length * breadth * height;}  
    std::string get_description() {return "Rectangular box";}  
  
protected:  
    double length;      // Length of a box  
    double breadth;     // Breadth of a box  
    double height;      // Height of a box  
};  
  
class Tribox : public Box {  
public:  
    Tribox (double len, double bre, double hei)  
        : Box(len, bre, hei) { }  
    double get_volume(void) override {return length * breadth * height / 2;}  
    std::string get_description() override {return "Triangular box";}  
};
```

Override – A derived class replacing its base class' implementation of a method

Question: Do Tribox::get_volume and Tribox::get_description *override* the same methods in the base class box, or are they distinct methods?

Non-Virtual Methods Don't Override in C++

```
class Box {  
public:  
    Box (double len, double bre, double hei)  
        : length(len), breadth(bre), height(hei) { }  
    double get_volume(void) {return length * breadth * height;}  
    std::string get_description() {return "Rectangular box";}  
  
protected:  
    double length;      // Length of a box  
    double breadth;     // Breadth of a box  
    double height;      // Height of a box  
};
```

```
class Tribox : public Box {  
public:  
    Tribox (double len, double bre, double hei)  
        : Box(len, bre, hei) { }  
    double get_volume(void) override {return length * breadth * height / 2;}  
    std::string get_description() override {return "Triangular box";}  
};
```

They are distinct methods.

```
ricegf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19$ g++ --std=c++14 box_nonpoly.cpp  
box_nonpoly.cpp:22:13: error: 'double Tribox::get_volume()' marked 'override', but does not override  
    double get_volume(void) override {return length * breadth * height / 2;}  
  
box_nonpoly.cpp:23:18: error: 'std::__cxx11::string Tribox::get_description()' marked 'override', but does not override  
    std::string get_description() override {return "Triangular box";}
```

Virtual Methods Override in C++

```
class Box {
public:
    Box (double len, double bre, double hei)
        : length(len), breadth(bre), height(hei) { }
    virtual double get_volume(void) {return length * breadth * height;}
    virtual std::string get_description() {return "Rectangular box";}

protected:
    double length;      // Length of a box
    double breadth;     // Breadth of a box
    double height;      // Height of a box
};

class Tribox : public Box {
public:
    Tribox (double len, double bre, double hei)
        : Box(len, bre, hei) { }
    double get_volume(void) override {return length * breadth * height / 2;}
    std::string get_description() override {return "Triangular box";}
};
```

In C++, we fix this by declared the base class methods to be *virtual*. This means access to those methods will be via a table of pointers (the “vtable”) rather than direct.

Virtual Methods Override in C++

```
class Box {  
public:  
    Box (double len, double bre, double hei)  
        : length(len), breadth(bre), height(hei) { }  
    virtual double get_volume(void) {return length * breadth * height;}  
    virtual std::string get_description() {return "Rectangular box";}  
  
protected:  
    double length;      // Length of a box  
    double breadth;     // Breadth of a box  
    double height;      // Height of a box  
};  
  
class Tribox : public Box {  
public:  
    Tribox (double len, double bre, double hei)  
        : Box(len, bre, hei) { }  
    double get_volume(void) override {return length * breadth * height / 2;}  
    std::string get_description() override {return "Triangular box";}  
};
```

They now override.

```
ricegf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19$  
ricegf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19$ g++ --std=c++14 box_override.cpp  
ricegf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19$ █
```

Storing a Derived Object in a Base Variable

```
int main( ) {
    Box box1(6.0, 7.0, 5.0);
    Box box2(12.0, 13.0, 10.0);

    std::cout << box1.get_description() << std::endl;
    std::cout << "Box 1: volume " << box1.get_volume() << std::endl;
    std::cout << "Box 2: volume " << box2.get_volume() << std::endl << std::endl;

    Tribox tbox1(6.0, 7.0, 5.0);
    Tribox tbox2(12.0, 13.0, 10.0);

    std::cout << tbox1.get_description() << std::endl;
    std::cout << "Box 1: volume " << tbox1.get_volume() << std::endl;
    std::cout << "Box 2: volume " << tbox2.get_volume() << std::endl << std::endl;

    box1 = tbox1; // Since a Tribox "isa" Box, this is a legal assignment
    box2 = tbox2; // But do box1 and box2 now contain boxes or triboxes?

    std::cout << box1.get_description() << std::endl;
    std::cout << "Box 1: volume " << box1.get_volume() << std::endl;
    std::cout << "Box 2: volume " << box2.get_volume() << std::endl << std::endl;
}
```

So what will the lines in red print?

Storing a Derived Object in a Base Variable

```
int main( ) {  
    Box box1(6.0, 7.0, 5.0);  
    Box box2(12.0, 13.0, 10.0)  
  
    std::cout << box1.get_description();  
    std::cout << "Box 1: volume " << box1.get_volume() << std::endl;  
    std::cout << "Box 2: volume " << box2.get_volume() << std::endl;  
  
    Tribox tbox1(6.0, 7.0, 5.0);  
    Tribox tbox2(12.0, 13.0, 10.0);  
  
    std::cout << tbox1.get_description();  
    std::cout << "Box 1: volume " << tbox1.get_volume() << std::endl;  
    std::cout << "Box 2: volume " << tbox2.get_volume() << std::endl << std::endl;  
  
    box1 = tbox1;  
    box2 = tbox2;  
  
    std::cout << box1.get_description() << std::endl;  
    std::cout << "Box 1: volume " << box1.get_volume() << std::endl;  
    std::cout << "Box 2: volume " << box2.get_volume() << std::endl << std::endl;  
}
```

```
ricegf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19$ g++ --std=c++14 box_nonpoly.cpp  
ricegf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19$ ./a.out  
Rectangular box  
Box 1: volume 210  
Box 2: volume 1560  
  
Triangular box  
Box 1: volume 105  
Box 2: volume 780  
  
Rectangular box  
Box 1: volume 210  
Box 2: volume 1560
```

tbox1 and tbox2 became Box objects when assigned to variables of type Box!

In C++, an object instanced from a derived type but *directly* assigned to a variable of the base class becomes an object of the base class. We'll explain why in a moment. This is different from other OO languages such as Java and Python, and may be counter-intuitive.

Review Pointers vs References

- A reference is...
 - An automatically dereferenced pointer
 - A constant pointer whose address can't change

```
int x = 7;
int y = 8;
int* p = &x; *p = 9;
p = &y; // ok
int& r = x; x = 10;
r = &y; // error
```

- An alias for another object

```
class View {
public:
    View(Model& model) : _model{model} { }
private:
    Model& _model;
}
```

Inheriting Outside the Box

```
void print_volume(Box b) {  
    std::cout << b.get_description() << " volume is " << b.get_volume() << std::endl;  
}  
  
Accept a copy of a Box and print its volume.
```

```
void print_volume_ref(Box& b) {  
    std::cout << b.get_description() << " volume is " << b.get_volume() << std::endl;  
}  
  
Accept a reference to a Box and print its volume.
```

```
void print_volume_p(Box* b) {  
    std::cout << b->get_description() << " volume is " << b->get_volume() << std::endl;  
}  
  
Accept a pointer to a Box and print its volume.
```

```
// Test the Box class  
int main( ) {  
    Box box1(6.0, 7.0, 5.0);  
    Tribox tbox1(6.0, 7.0, 5.0);  
  
    std::cout << "Access derived class methods directly:" << std::endl;  
    print_volume(box1);  
    print_volume(tbox1);  
  
    std::cout << "Access derived class methods via reference:" << std::endl;  
    print_volume_ref(box1);  
    print_volume_ref(tbox1);  
  
    std::cout << "Access derived class methods via pointers:" << std::endl;  
    print_volume_p(&box1);  
    print_volume_p(&tbox1);  
}
```

Direct variable version is first.

Reference variable version is second.

Pointer variable version is third.

Two out of Three Isn't Bad?

```
void print_volume(Box b) {  
    std::cout << b.get_descript:  
}  
  
void print_volume_ref(Box& b) {  
    std::cout << b.get_descript:  
}  
  
void print_volume_p(Box* b) {  
    std::cout << b->get_descript:  
}  
  
// Test the Box class  
int main( ) {  
    Box box1(6.0, 7.0, 5.0);  
    Tribox tbox1(6.0, 7.0, 5.0);  
  
    std::cout << "Access derived class methods directly:" << std::endl;  
    print_volume(box1);  
    print_volume(tbox1);  
  
    std::cout << "Access derived class methods via reference:" << std::endl;  
    print_volume_ref(box1);  
    print_volume_ref(tbox1);  
  
    std::cout << "Access derived class methods via pointers:" << std::endl;  
    print_volume_p(&box1);  
    print_volume_p(&tbox1);  
}
```

```
ricegf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19$ g++ --std=c++14 box_poly.cpp  
ricegf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19$ ./a.out  
  
Access derived class methods directly:  
Rectangular box volume is 210  
Rectangular box volume is 210  
  
Access derived class methods via reference:  
Rectangular box volume is 210  
Triangular box volume is 105  
  
Access derived class methods via pointers:  
Rectangular box volume is 210  
Triangular box volume is 105  
ricegf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19$ □
```

Direct variable version is first.

Access derived class methods directly:" << std::endl;

Reference variable version is second.

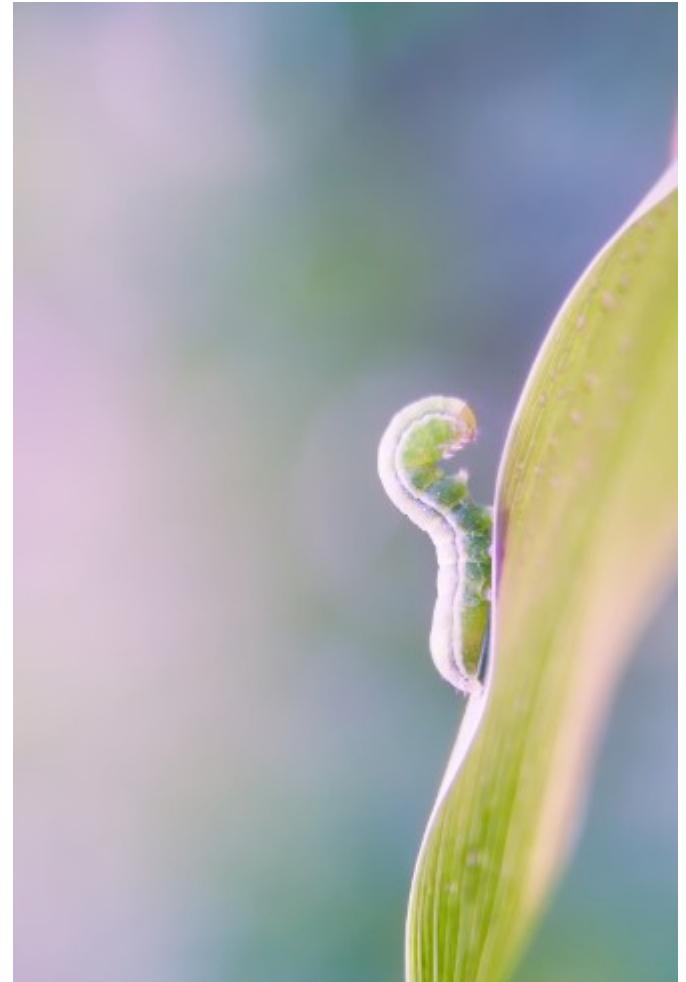
Access derived class methods via reference:" << std::endl;

Pointer variable version is third.

Access derived class methods via pointers:" << std::endl;

Polymorphism

- **Polymorphism** – The provision of a single interface to multiple derived classes, enabling the same method call to invoke different derived methods to generate different results.
- In C++, this requires:
 - Virtual methods in the base class to allow overriding
 - A base type variable referencing (or pointing to) an object of the derived type



Object Layout in Memory

```
class Parent{
public:
    int a, b;
    virtual void foo(){cout << "parent" << endl;}
};

class Child : public Parent{
public:
    int c, d;
    virtual void foo()
        {cout << "child" << endl;}
};

int main(){
    Parent p; p.foo();
    Child c; c.foo();

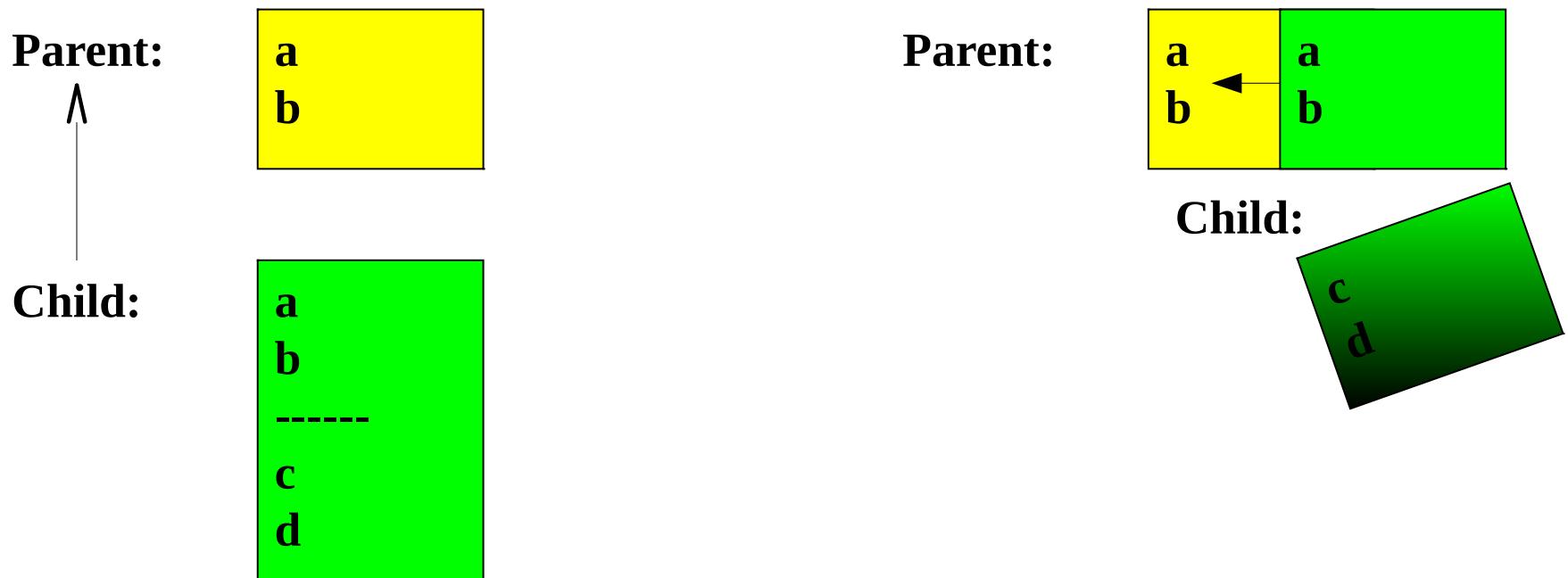
    cout << "Parent Offset a = " << (size_t)&p.a - (size_t)&p << endl;
    cout << "Parent Offset b = " << (size_t)&p.b - (size_t)&p << endl;

    cout << "Child Offset a = " << (size_t)&c.a - (size_t)&c << endl;
    cout << "Child Offset b = " << (size_t)&c.b - (size_t)&c << endl;
    cout << "Child Offset c = " << (size_t)&c.c - (size_t)&c << endl;
    cout << "Child Offset d = " << (size_t)&c.d - (size_t)&c << endl;
}
```

```
ricegf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/19$ g++ -o mem_layout mem_layout.cpp
ricegf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/19$ ./mem_layout
parent
child
Parent Offset a = 8
Parent Offset b = 12
Child Offset a = 8
Child Offset b = 12
Child Offset c = 16
Child Offset d = 20
ricegf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/19$ █
```

Object Layout - Copy

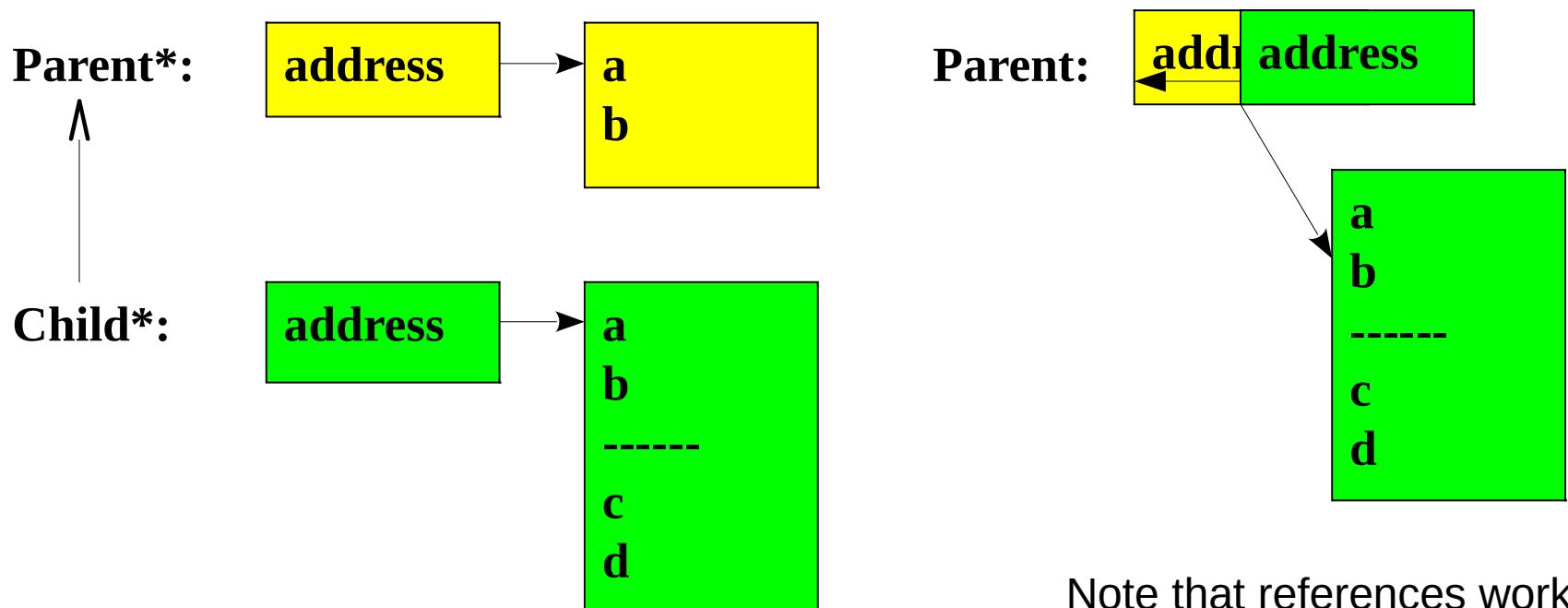
- The data members of a derived class are simply added at the end of its base class
- If a Child object is stored in a Parent variable, only enough memory exists to hold the Parent's fields, so (by default*) only those fields are copied – the rest are discarded



* We'll cover non-default options in a future lecture 37

Object Layout - Pointer

- When using a pointer or reference, only the Child object's address is copied to the Parent variable. None of the Child's data is lost.



C-style cast and static_cast dynamic_cast

- dynamic_cast performs additional sanity checks,
as long as the source type is polymorphic
 - If source type is not polymorphic, compiler error

```
casting.cpp:8:28: error: cannot dynamic_cast 'a' (of type 'class A*') to type 'class B*' (source type is not polymorphic)
    B* d = dynamic_cast<B*>(a);
```

```
#include <iostream>
class Parent {
public: virtual void hi() {std::cout << "Parent" << std::endl;}
};

class A : public Parent {
public: void hi() override {std::cout << "A" << std::endl;}
};

class B : public Parent {
public: void hi() override {std::cout << "B" << std::endl;}
};

// Continued on next page
```

dynamic_cast Example

```
// Continued from previous page
int main() {
    Parent* a = new A;

    A* a1 = (A*)(a);           // Compiles, perfectly valid
    if (a1 == nullptr) std::cout << "a1 is null" << std::endl;
    else a1->hi();

    A* a2 = static_cast<A*>(a); // Compiles, perfectly valid
    if (a2 == nullptr) std::cout << "a2 is null" << std::endl;
    else a2->hi();

    A* a3 = dynamic_cast<A*>(a); // Compiles, perfectly valid but a little slower
    if (a3 == nullptr) std::cout << "a3 is null" << std::endl;
    else a3->hi();

    B* b1 = (B*)(a);           // Compiles, but undefined - A is not a B
    if (b1 == nullptr) std::cout << "b1 is null" << std::endl;
    else b1->hi();

    B* b2 = static_cast<B*>(a); // Compiles, but undefined - A is not a B
    if (b2 == nullptr) std::cout << "b2 is null" << std::endl;
    else b2->hi();

    B* b3 = dynamic_cast<B*>(a); // ERROR - A is not a B, b3 is null
    if (b3 == nullptr) std::cout << "b3 is null" << std::endl;
    else b3->hi();
}
```

dynamic_cast Error Detection

```
// Continued from previous page
int main() {
    Parent* a = new A;

    A* a1 = (A*)(a);
    if (a1 == nullptr) std::cout << "a1 is null" << std::endl;
    else a1->hi();

    A* a2 = static_cast<A*>(a);
    if (a2 == nullptr) std::cout << "a2 is null" << std::endl;
    else a2->hi();

    A* a3 = dynamic_cast<A*>(a); // Compiles, perfectly valid but a little slower
    if (a3 == nullptr) std::cout << "a3 is null" << std::endl;
    else a3->hi();

    B* b1 = (B*)(a);           // Compiles, but undefined - A is not a B
    if (b1 == nullptr) std::cout << "b1 is null" << std::endl;
    else b1->hi();

    B* b2 = static_cast<B*>(a); // Compiles, but undefined - A is not a B
    if (b2 == nullptr) std::cout << "b2 is null" << std::endl;
    else b2->hi();

    B* b3 = dynamic_cast<B*>(a); // ERROR - A is not a B, b3 is null
    if (b3 == nullptr) std::cout << "b3 is null" << std::endl;
    else b3->hi();
}
```

ricecgf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19\$ g++ --std=c++14 dynamic_cast.cpp
ricecgf@pluto:~/dev/cpp/201801/19\$./a.out

A
A
A
A
A

b3 is null

Undefined (Error Not Detected)
Error Detected

Casting Bottom Line

- C-style casting is naïve
 - Not for use in C++ programs
- `static_cast` does some additional error checking
 - Preferred for C++ non-polymorphic types
- `dynamic_cast` does more extensive error checking, which takes some additional time, but the source type must be polymorphic
 - Preferred for C++ polymorphic types
- Other casts (e.g., `const_cast` and `reinterpret_cast`) exist, but those won't be covered this semester

Quick Review

- The provision of a single interface to multiple derived classes, enabling the same method call to invoke different derived methods to generate different results is called _____.
- In C++, this requires the _____ keyword for base class methods, and also the use of _____ or _____ for base class variables storing derived objects.
- The closest feature that C++ has to providing raw memory is the _____.
- Changing the type of an object is called a _____. Describe 3 types, and when each should be used in a C++ program.
- Define the difference between stack and heap memory, and how each is allocated.
 - If new cannot allocate memory (for example, because there is not enough memory available), what does C++ do?
- Give 2 examples of errors that may cause a memory leak.
- Identify 3 strategies to avoid memory leaks.
- _____ de-allocates arrays from the heap, while _____ de-allocates normal variables.

For Next Class

- (Optional) Read Chapters 17-19 in Stroustrup
 - Do the Drills!
- Next class we will discuss Templates and Iterators
- **Sprint #1 is due Thursday morning at 8 am**