Inheritance in C++

Rationale for inheritance

We have: circle class, nice features (encapsulation, protection).

We want rectangle class. Expanded features: translation and printing. Then we want to handle *shapes*. Rectangle and circle are shapes, shapes can be translated and printed. A shape is either circle or rectangle.

There is a shape module in our program, sub-modules are particular kind of shapes. We want the module to be expandable.

Abstract vs Concrete

Class:

- Abstract represent an abstraction, cannot be instantiated, has at least one abstract method.
- Concrete can be instantiated and has no asbtract method.

An abstract method is a method whose code cannot be given, is just declared and will be defined in sub-classes.

Thus shape is an abstraction, and is an abstract type representing several concrete types.

However an abstract class can have attributes and can provide methods with their definitions. (attributes \rightarrow a constructor)

Shape as a C++ abstract class:

- 1. shape has an interface
- 2. a constructor
- 3. a destructor
- 4. a translation method
- 5. an abstract print method
- 6. a "protected" accessibility area
- 7. a couple of hidden attributes.

virtual is a keyword for abstraction.

To make a method abstract in C++, its declaration starts with virtual and ends with "= 0".

```
1 virtual print() const = 0;
```

Calling print on a shape is valid, but shape::print cannot be coded.

An abstract class looks like a concrete one.

Definitions + playing with words

"is-a" relationship is known as sub-classing, then *circle* is a sub-class of *shape*, inherits from *shape*, derives from *shape* and extends *shape*.

A set of classes related by a "is-a" relationship is called a **class hierarchy**, usually a tree, depicted upside-down (superclasses at the top, subclasses at the bottom).

Subclassing

Circle as a C++ subclass:

- 8. knowing the base class of circle is required
- 9. the sub-class relationship is translated by **public**
- 10. **public** start the class interface
- 11. a constructor
- 12. a print definition tagged with override
- 13. new attributes

The class circle inherited from shape:

- · the translate method
- the couple of attributes (x, y)

except that is implicit.

so:

- a circle can be translated
- circle has three attributes

```
1 sizeof(circle) == 3 * sizeof(float) + sizeof(void*))
```

In .cc:

```
1 void circle::print() const // no "override", only in .hh
2 {
3    assert(r > 0.f_); // invariant
4    std::cout << '(' << x_ << "," << y_ << "," << r_ << ')' << std::endl;
5 }</pre>
```

Playing with types

Transtyping

The static type of the object is the type of the variable, known at compile-time.

The dynamic type of the object is its type at instantiation, "exact type", known at run-time.

```
void foo(const shape& s)
{
    s.print();
    }
}
```

static type of s is shape, but its dynamic type is unknown.

```
1 void foo(const shape& s)
2 {
3    s.print();
4 }
5
6 int main()
7 {
8    foo(circle{0, 0, 1});
9 }
```

s has circle has a dynamic type and shape has a static type.

Remark that we can "const reference" a temporary object!

We can write

```
1 circle* c = new circle{0, 0, 1};
2 shape* s = c;
```

This is a transtypage.

A pointer to a shape is expected (s), you give a pointer to a circle (c), the assignment is valid.

The same goes for references.

We cannot instantiate abstract class but we can manipulate instances of an abstract class.

We can then , with transtypage, promote constness, change the static type from a derived to a base class and

Accessibility

final means last override.

```
1 class A
2 {
3   virtual void foo() = 0;
4 }
5
6 class B : public A
7 {
8   void foo() override final;
9 }
10
11 class C : public B
12 {
13   // cannot override foo
14 }
```

In C++, copy on return are optimized, not in call.

C++ allow overloading.

Conclusion

We can only create instances of leaf classes of the hierarchy.

Object-orientaion = Object + Class hierarchies

```
1 class Base
2 {
3    // ...
4 }
5
6 class Derived : Base
7 {
8    // ...
9 }
```

```
1 derived::derived()
2 : base(),
3     d_(0) // ...
4 {
```

```
5  // ... allocate ressources when needed.
6 }
```

Please strictly follows idioms of slides

Smart pointers: Part I

(Raw) Pointers

- Pointers in C are a powerful means to play with memory.
- Pointers are an important means to refer to another place.
- Pointers are 0/1 containers.
- Pointers manage dynamically allocated memory

All this points are wrong in C++.

Ownership on pointers: point to (do not delete it) or hold some new'd object (do delete it).

Many OO languages offer only reference semantics, so everything is actually a pointer, Java, C#

Deletion comes back to ownership.

Smart pointers:

- looks like pointers
- behave like pointers
- · manage ownership
- make your programs more robust

Shared pointers

```
int main()
{
    using shape_ptr
    = const shape*;
    auto v
    = std::vector<shape_ptr>{};
    v.push_back(new circle{});
    v.emplace_back(new square{});
    for (auto s: v)
        s->print;
}
```

outputs:

```
1 virtual void circle::print() const
2 virtual void square::print() const
```

std::vector:

- a dynamic (resizable) array of shape_ptr
- emplace_back and push_back means "append"

```
1 int main()
2 {
3
  using shape_ptr
4
    = std::shared_ptr<const shape>;
5 auto v
6
    = std::vector<shape_ptr>{};
7 v.push_back(new circle{});
  v.emplace_back(new square{});
9
   for (auto s: v)
10
      s->print;
11 }
```

outputs:

```
virtual void circle::print() const
virtual void square::print() const
virtual shape::~shape()
virtual shape::~shape()
```

We have no more memory leaks

When a shared pointer is destroyed, it deletes the memory it points to only if it is the last shared pointer to points at this memory.

For shared pointers, do std::make_shared<Foo>(args)

Introducing auto and decltype

```
1 auto p = std::make_shared<test>();
2 p->noop();
3
4 decltype(p) p2 = p;
```

auto is often for not writing types

auto and decltype are also great to rely on the compiler