

[CS 225] Advanced C/C++

Lecture 3: Advanced Inheritance

Agenda

- Rationale behind inheritance
- Multiple inheritance
- Virtual inheritance
- Overriding vs. overloading
- Under-the-hood

Generalization

- Avoiding repetition by putting reusable code in common base class.
- Sharing a base type among multiple classes.

Specialization

- Extending existing implementation or interface.
- Overriding existing implementation to specialize it.

Realization

- Realization of interface classes in implementation classes.
- A relationship of public inheritance from an interface class.
- As *vptr* of an interface can be reused in a derived class; single inheritance from an interface class has no extra memory cost.

- An interface class is a special class:
 - Everything is public; no protected or private members.
 - All its member functions are pure virtual.
 - A destructor is virtual and has a default implementation.
 - No static members.
 - No data members.

Be careful: an interface class is commonly called *an interface* and it is easy to confuse it with *the interface* part of source code that is usually provided in header files (as opposed to the implementation in translation unit files).

Rationale

- Gaining benefits of inheritance from each base class individually
 - Using more than one generalized base class.
 - Specializing more than one base class.
 - Realizing more than one interface class.
- Most object-oriented programming languages support only realization with multiple inheritance as they clearly distinguish interface classes from implementation classes; C++ does not.

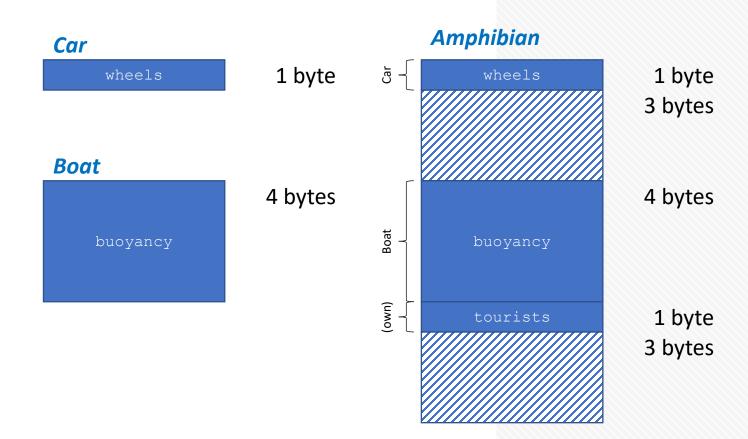
Construction and destruction

- All base classes are constructed in order of specification (not in order of appearing in the initialization list) before the rest of the initialization list and the body of a constructor of a derived class.
- Destruction is invoked in the reverse order.

Memory layout

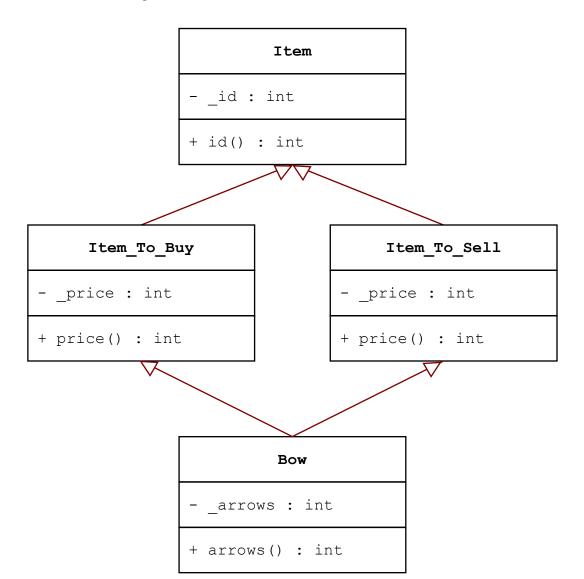
- Data members of the first base class are followed by data members of subsequent bases in order of specification.
- Own data member come last.
- Exception: virtual inheritance (covered later).

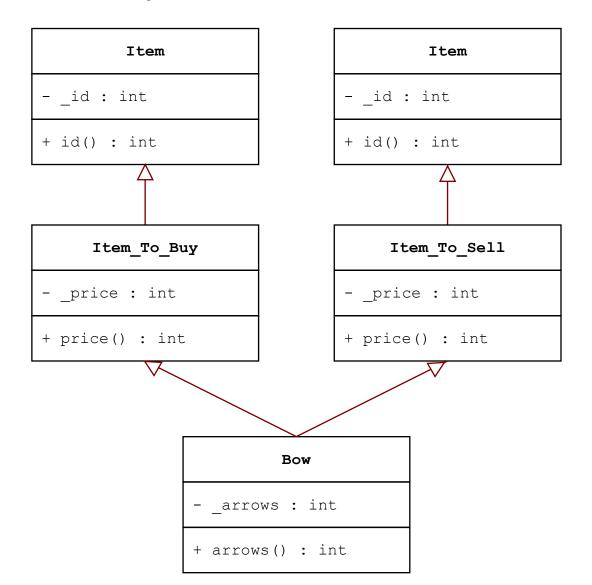
```
struct Car
  unsigned char wheels;
};
struct Boat
  float buoyancy;
};
struct Amphibian : Car, Boat
  unsigned char tourists;
};
```

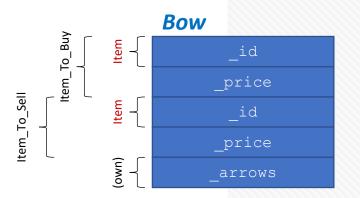


Challenges:

- Members with same names inherited from multiple bases are ambiguous. To access them:
 - 1. Qualify members with their scope in each access.
 - 2. Use base class pointers or base class references to access members unambiguously.
- A pointer to a base class differs from the pointer of a derived class for each but the first base class (this results from the memory layout and impacts cast operations).
- If multiple bases are inheriting from the same class, its members will be present in the most derived class multiple times.
- A class cannot inherit from a base class more than once.







4 bytes4 bytes4 bytes4 bytes

4 bytes

Rationale:

- Multiple inheritance without repeating base members.
- Creating derived class that inherit from base classes that share an instance of their own base class.

Benefits

- Simplifies class hierarchy.
- Removes duplication of data members.
- Removes ambiguity from casts.

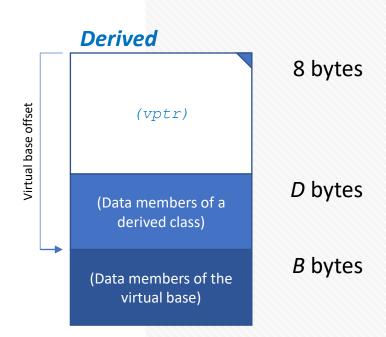
Cost

- Minor run-time cost (uses virtual tables).
- Often increases the size of derived classes as base classes contain additional *vptr* that enlarge objects directly and result in additional padding.
- Requires the programmer to remember about proper construction!

Virtual base 8 bytes (vptr) B bytes (Data members of the virtual base)

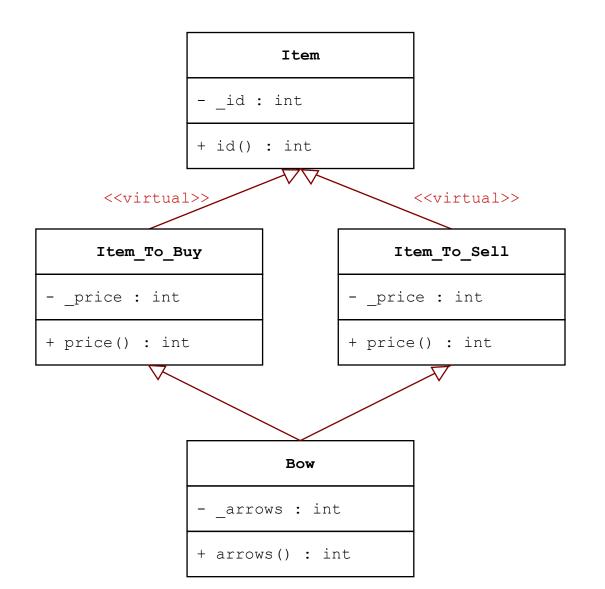
Layout

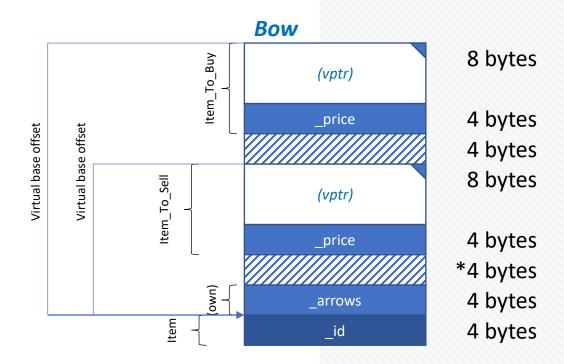
- Classes' own data members are located as expected, while data members of their shared virtual base class are located "somewhere else in the object".
- Each class contains *vptr* to its *vtable* that indicates a **virtual base offset** where the first data member of a virtual base class can be found.



Construction and destruction

- The most-derived class constructs all virtual base classes:
 - Own virtual bases and
 - Virtual bases of all classes in its inheritance hierarchy!
- Then all non-virtual base classes.
- Then the rest of the constructor's initializer list.
- Lastly, own constructor is executed.
- Destructors are invoked in the reverse order.





Compiler specific padding — if a compiler pads base classes, padding will be as indicated. Otherwise, data member may be shifted upwards in memory.

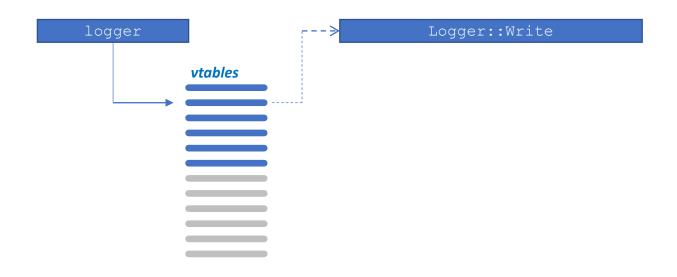
Overriding

Non-virtual member function call

Overriding

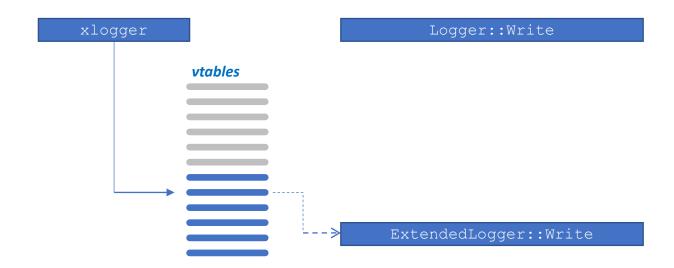
• Virtual member function call on a base class pointer or reference

```
logger.Write("ABC");
logger->vptr[index](&logger, "ABC");
```



Overriding

• Virtual member function call on a derived pointer or reference



Overriding

- Definition of a function with the same name and parameters (prototype) in the derived class.
- When a function overrides a **virtual** function, it facilitates dynamic (run-time) **polymorphic behavior**.
- When a function overrides a **non-virtual** function, it **hides** the overridden function. To avoid hiding you can:
 - 1. Implement a pass-through function in a derived class.
 - 2. Qualify member functions with their scope in each call.

```
struct Logger
{
  void Write(const std::string& x)
    { std::cout << x; }
};
struct ExtendedLogger : Logger
{
  void Write(const std::string& x)
    { std::cout << "[" << x << "]"; }
};</pre>
```

```
struct Logger
{
   virtual void Write(const std::string& x)
       { std::cout << x; }
};
struct ExtendedLogger : Logger
{
   void Write(const std::string& x) override
       { std::cout << "[" << x << "]"; }
};</pre>
```

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>

// Classes go here

int main()
{
          ExtendedLogger xlogger;
          xlogger.Write("ABC");

          Logger& logger = xlogger;
          logger.Write("ABC");
}
```

The classes above demonstrate a *hiding* behaviour because of the non-virtual override. We expect the following output:

[ABC]ABC

A base class below marks a function as virtual, and so this code results in the virtual override (virtual-ness of member functions is hereditary and it cannot be removed). The output will be:

[ABC][ABC]

- Definition of multiple functions with the same name and different parameters in the same scope.
- Feature allowing for static (compile-time) polymorphism.
- Works for global functions as well as member functions, but...

```
struct Logger
{
   void Write(const std::string& x);
   void Write(int x);
};
struct ExtendedLogger : Logger
{
   void Write(double x);
};
```

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>

// Classes go here

int main()
{
   ExtendedLogger logger;
   logger.Write("ABC");
}
```

- Definition of multiple functions with the same name and different parameters in the same scope.
- Feature allowing for static (compile-time) polymorphism.
- Works for global functions as well as member functions, but a member function overloaded in a derived class *hides* all functions with that identifier from the base class.

```
struct Logger
{
   void Write(const std::string& x);
   void Write(int x);
};
struct ExtendedLogger : Logger
{
   void Write(double x);
};
```

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>

// Classes go here

int main()
{
   ExtendedLogger logger;
   logger.Write("ABC"); // NC
}
```

- To avoid hiding and offer proper overloads, you can:
 - 1. Implement pass-through functions in a derived class.
 - 2. Qualify member functions with their scope in each call.
 - 3. Import identifiers to a derived class to properly overload them.

```
struct Logger
{
   void Write(const std::string& x);
   void Write(int x);
};
struct ExtendedLogger : Logger
{
   using Logger::Write; // 3
   void Write(double x);
};
```

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>

// Classes go here

int main()
{
    ExtendedLogger logger;
    logger.Logger::Write("ABC"); // 2
}
```

- Importing base identifiers with using Base::Identifier; also allows for changing access modifiers!
- Example: you can inherit members protected in a base class, and by importing them under public access modifier make them public in a derived class.