

# Modern C++ Programming

## 7. C++ OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING II

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# Polymorphism

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# Polymorphism

## Polymorphism

In object-oriented programming, **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 *derived class* may be treated as objects of a *base class*
- **Base** classes may define and implement polymorphic ( `virtual` ) methods, and **derived** classes can `override` them, which means they provide their own implementations which are invoked at run-time depending on the context

**Overloading** is a form of static polymorphism (compile-time polymorphism)  
In C++ the term *polymorphic* is strongly associated with dynamic polymorphism (overriding)

## Polymorphism (the problem)

```
struct A {
    void f() { std::cout << "A"; }
};

struct B : A { // B extends A (B does something more than A)
    void f() { std::cout << "B"; }
};

void g(A& a) { a.f(); } // accepts A and B

void h(B& b) { b.f(); } // accepts only B

int main() {
    A a; B b;
    g(a);    // print "A"
    g(b);    // print "A" not "B"!!!
    // h(a); // compile error!!
    h(b);    // print "B"
}
```

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

In C++ **late binding** can be achieved by declaring a `virtual` function

- *Early binding*: the program can jump directly to the function address
- *Late binding*: 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)

## Polymorphism (virtual method)

```
struct A {  
    virtual void f() { std::cout << "A"; }  
}; // now "f()" is virtual, evaluated at run-time  
  
struct B : A { // B extends A (B does something more than A)  
    void f() { std::cout << "B"; }  
}; // now "B::f()" override "A::f()", evaluated at run-time  
  
void g(A& a) { a.f(); } // accepts A and B  
  
void h(B& b) { b.f(); } // accepts only B  
  
int main() {  
    A a; B b;  
    g(a);    // print "A"  
    g(b);    // NOW, print "B"!!!  
    h(b);    // print "B"  
}
```

# When virtual works

```
struct A {
    virtual void f() { std::cout << "A"; }
    virtual void g() {} // see next slide
};
struct B : A {
    void f() { std::cout << "B"; }
};
void g(A a) { a.f(); }
void h(A& a) { a.f(); }
void p(A* a) { a->f(); }

int main() {
    A a; B b;
    a.f();           // print "A"
    b.f();           // print "B"
    A* ax1 = &b;    // memory address conversion
    ax1->f();        // print "B"
    g(b);           // print "A" (cast to A)
    h(b);           // print "B"
    p(&b);          // print "B"
}
```

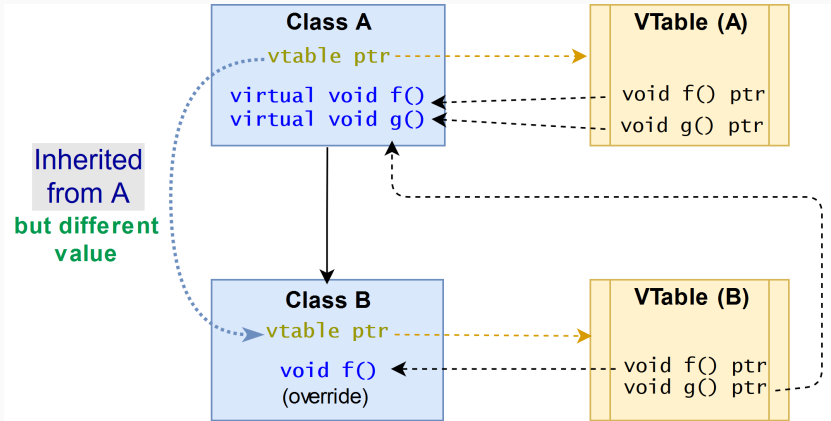


## vtable

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 Method Notes

`virtual` classes allocate one extra pointer (hidden)

```
class A {
    double x;
    virtual void f1();
    virtual void f2();
}

class B : A {
    virtual void f1();
}

sizeof(A) = sizeof(double) + 1 * sizeof(pointer) // 16
sizeof(B) = sizeof(A)                          // 16
```

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`

# override Keyword

## override Keyword

The `override` keyword (C++11) ensures that the function is virtual and is overriding a virtual function from a base class

It force 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)

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

# final Keyword

## final Keyword

The `final` keyword (C++11) prevent inheriting from classes or prevent 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() { std::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;
        std::cout << "B";
    }
};

void g(A* a) {
    delete a;    // call ~A()
}

int main() {
    B* b = new B;
    g(b);    // without virtual, ~B() is not called
}    // g() 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 could be 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() { std::cout << "A"; }  
};  
  
struct B : A {  
    B() : A() {} // call A()      (A() call may be also implicit)  
  
    void f() { std::cout << "B"; }  
};  
  
int main() {  
    B b; // call B()  
} // print "A", not "B"!!
```

## 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) { std::cout << "A::" << i << "\n"; }  
    virtual void g(int i = 5) { std::cout << "A::" << i << "\n"; }  
};  
struct B : A {  
    void f(int i = 3) { std::cout << "B::" << i << "\n"; }  
    void g(int i)      { std::cout << "B::" << i << "\n"; }  
};  
  
int main() {  
    A* a = new A();  
    a->f();           // ok, print "A::5"  
    B* b = new B();  
    b->f();           // ok, print "B::3"  
    A* bb = new B();  
    bb->f();          // !!! print "B::5" // the virtual table of A  
                       // contains f(int i = 5) and  
    bb->g();          // !!! print "B::5" // g(int i = 5) but it points  
                       // to B implementations  
}
```



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

If a virtual method is not implemented in derived class, it is implicitly declared pure virtual

```
struct A {
    virtual void f(int x) = 0;
};

struct B : A {
    // virtual void f(int x) = 0; // implicitly declared
};

struct C : B {
    void f(int x) override {} // implemented
};

int main() {
    C c;
    c.f(3); // ok
}
```

## Abstract Class and Interface

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

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

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

## Virtual Methods (Virtual Constructor)

Virtual Constructor is not supported in C++, but can be emulated by using other `virtual` methods

```
struct A {
    virtual ~A() { }           // A virtual destructor
    virtual A clone() const = 0; // Uses the copy constructor
    virtual A create() const = 0; // Uses the default constructor
};

struct B : A {
    B clone() const {         // Covariant Return Types
        return B(*this);    // (different from A::clone())
    }

    B create() const {      // Covariant Return Types
        return B();         // (different from A::create())
    }
};

void f(A& a) {
    B b = a.clone(); // ok
}
```

# Operator Overloading

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# Operator Overloading

## Operator Overloading

**Operator overloading** is a special case of polymorphism in which some *operators* are treated as polymorphic functions and have different behaviors depending on the type of its arguments

```
struct Point {
    int x, y;
    Point(int x1, int y1) : x(x1), y(y1) {}

    Point operator+(const Point& p) const {
        return Point(x + p.x, y + p.x);
    }
};

int main() {
    Point a(1, 2);
    Point b(5, 3);
    Point c = a + b; // "c" is (6, 5)
}
```

# Operator Overloading

Syntax: `operator@`

Categories not in bold are rarely used in practice

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**Arithmetic:**

`+ - * \ % ++ --`

**Comparison:**

`== != < <= > >=`

Bitwise:

`| & ^ ~ << >>`

Logical:

`! && ||`

**Compound assignment:**

`+= <<= *=`, etc.

**Subscript:**

`[]`

Address-of, Reference,  
Dereferencing:

`& -> ->* *`

Memory:

`new new[] delete delete[]`

Comma:

`,`

---

Operators which cannot be overloaded: `? . .* :: sizeof typeof` 20/39

- **Increment, Decrement:** *Prefix* and *Postfix* notation

```
struct A {
    A& operator++() { // prefix: ++obj
        ...
        return *this;
    }
    A operator++(A& a); // postfix: obj++
}; // NOTE: return the old copy of "this"
```

- **Array subscript** operator accepts anything (not only integer)

```
struct A {
    int& operator[](char c); // read/write
    const int& operator[](char c) const; // read, "const A a;"
};
// A a; a['v'] = 3;
```

- Operators preserve **precedence** and **short-circuit** properties (e.g. ^)
- `operator<` is used in comparison procedures ( `std::sort` )



# Binary Operators

Binary Operators should be implemented as friend methods

```
class A {}; class C {};  
  
struct B : public A {  
    bool operator==(const A& x) { return true; }  
};  
  
class D : public C {  
    friend bool operator==(const C& x, const C& y);  
};  
bool operator==(const C& x, const C& y); { return true; }  
  
int main() {  
    A a; B b; C c; D d;  
    b == a; // ok  
    // a == b; // compile error!! // friend is useful to access  
    // private fields  
  
    c == d; // ok  
    d == c; // ok  
}
```

## Special Operators (ostream operator<<)

The **stream operations** can be overloaded to perform input and output for user-defined types

```
#include <iostream>
struct Point {
    int x, y;

    // may be also directly defined inside Point
    friend std::ostream& operator<<(std::ostream& stream,
                                   const Point& point);
};

std::ostream& operator<<(std::ostream& stream,
                        const Point& point) {
    stream << "(" << point.x << "," << point.y << ")";
    return stream;
}

int main() {
    Point point { 1, 2 };
    std::cout << point; // print "(1, 2)"
}
```

## Special Operators (function call operator())

The **function call operator** is generally overloaded to create objects which behave like functions, or for classes that have a primary operation

Many algorithms (included std library) accept objects of such types to customize behavior

```
#include <iostream>
#include <numeric> // for std::accumulate
struct Multiply {
    int operator()(int a, int b) const {
        return a * b;
    }
};
int main() {
    int array[] = { 2, 3 ,4 };
    int mul = std::accumulate(array, array + 3, 1, Multiply());
    std::cout << mul; // 24
}
```

## Special Operators (conversion operator type())

**Conversion operators** enable objects of a class to be either implicitly (coercion) or explicitly (casting) converted to another type

```
class MyBool {
    int a;
public:
    MyBool(int a1) : a(a1) {}

    operator bool()(const MyBool& b) const {
        return b.a == 0;    // implicit return type
    }
};

int main() {
    MyBool my_bool { 3 };
    bool b = my_bool;    // b = false, call operator bool()
}
```

## Special Operators (conversion operator type() + explicit)

**Conversion operators** can be marked `explicit` to prevent implicit conversions:

```
struct A {
    operator bool() { return true; }
};

struct B {
    explicit operator bool() { return true; }
};

int main() {
    A a;
    B b;
    bool c = a;
    // bool c = b; // compile error!! explicit
    bool c = static_cast<bool>(b);
}
```

The **assignment operator** ( `operator=` ) is used to copy values from one object to another *already existing* object

```
#include <algorithm> //std::fill, std::copy
struct A {
    char* array;
    int size;

    A(int size1, char value) : size(size1) {
        array = new char[size];
        std::fill(array, array + size, value);
    }
    ~A() { delete[] array; }

    A& operator=(const A& x) { .... } // see next slide
};

int main() {
    A obj(5, 'o'); // ["ooooo"]
    A a(3, 'b'); // ["bbb"]
    obj = a; // obj = ["bbb"]
}
```

- First option:

```
A& operator=(const A& x) {  
    if (this == &x)          // Check for self assignment  
        return *this;  
    delete[] array;         // delete everything from this  
    array = new int[x.size];  
    std::copy(x.array, x.array + size, array); // copy  
    return *this;  
}
```

- Second option (less intuitive):

```
A& operator=(A x) { // pass by value: need a copy constructor  
    swap(this, x); // now we need a swap function for A  
    return *this; // see next slide  
} // x is destroyed at the end
```

- Swap method:

```
friend void swap(A& x, A& y) {  
    using std::swap;  
    swap(x.size, y.size);  
    swap(x.array, y.Array);  
}
```

- **why using std::swap?** if swap(x, y) finds a better match, it will use that instead of std::swap
- **why friend?** it allows the function to be used from outside the structure/class scope



# C++ Special Objects

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## Aggregate

An **aggregate** is a type which supports *aggregate initialization* (form of list-initialization) through curly braces syntax `{}`

An aggregate is an *array* or a *class* with

- No user-provided constructors (all)
- No private/protected non-static data members
- No base classes
- No virtual functions (standard functions allowed)
- \* No *brace-or-equal-initializers* for non-static data members (until C++14)

No restrictions:

- Non-static data member (can be also not aggregate)
- Static data members

```
struct NotAggregate1 {
    NotAggregate1();    // No constructors
    virtual void f();  // No virtual functions
};

class NotAggregate2 : NotAggregate1 { // No base class
    int x;              // x is private
};

struct Aggregate1 {
    int x;
    int y[3];
    int z { 3 };      // only C++14
};

struct Aggregate2 {
    Aggregate1() = default; // ok, defaulted constructor
    NotAggregate2 x;        // ok, public member
    Aggregate2& operator=(const& Aggregate2 obj); // ok
private:                  // copy-assignment
    void f() {} // ok, private function (no data member)
};
```

```
struct Aggregate1 {
    int x;
    struct Aggregate2 {
        int a;
        int b[3];
    } y;
};

int main() {
    int array1[3] = { 1, 2, 3 };
    int array2[3]  { 1, 2, 3 };
    Aggregate1 agg1 = { 1, { 2, { 3, 4, 5 } } };
    Aggregate1 agg2  { 1, { 2, { 3, 4, 5 } } };
    Aggregate1 agg3 = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
}
```

## Trivial Class

A **Trivial Class** is a class *trivial copyable* (supports memcopy)

### Trivial copyable:

- No user-provided copy/move/default *constructors* and *destructor*
- No user-provided copy/move *assignment* operators
- No virtual functions (standard functions allowed) or virtual base classes
- No *brace-or-equal-initializers* for non-static data members
- All non-static members are trivial (recursively for members)

### No restrictions:

- Other user-declared constructors different from default
- Static data members
- Protected/Private members

```
struct NonTrivial1 {
    int y { 3 };           // brace-or-equal-initializers

    NonTrivial1();       // user-provided constructor
    virtual void f();   // virtual function
};

struct Trivial1 {
    Trivial1() = default; // defaulted constructor
    int x;
    void f();
private:
    int z; // ok, private
};

struct Trivial2 : Trivial1 { // base class is trivial
    int Trivial1[3];        // array of trivials is trivial
};
```

## Standard-Layout

A **standard-layout class** is a class with the same memory layout of the equivalent C struct or union (useful for communicating with other languages)

### Standard-layout class

- No virtual functions or virtual base classes
  - Recursively on non-static members, base and derived classes
  - Only one control access (public/protected/private) for non-static data members
  - No base classes of the same type as the first non-static data member
- (a) No non-static data members in the *most derived* class and *at most one base* class with non-static data members
- (b) No base classes with non-static data members

```
struct StandardLayout1 {
    StandardLayout1(); // user-provided constructor
    int x;
    void f();          // non-virtual function
};

class StandardLayout2 : StandardLayout1 {
    int x, y;          // both are private
    StandardLayout1 y; // can have members of base type
                     // if they are not the first
};

struct StandardLayout3 { } // empty

struct StandardLayout4 : StandardLayout2, StandardLayout3 {
    // can use multiple inheritance as long only
    // one class in the hierarchy has non-static data members
};
```



## Plain Old Data (POD)

C++11, C++14 Standard-Layout (s) + Trivial copyable (t)

- (t) No user-provided copy/move/default constructors and destructor
- (t) No user-provided copy/move assignment operators
- (t) No virtual functions or virtual base classes
- (t) No *brace-or-equal-initializers* for non-static data member
- (s) Recursively on non-static members, base and derived classes
- (s) Only one control access (public/protected/private) for non-static data members
- (s) No base classes of the same type as the first non-static data member
- (s)a No non-static data members in the *most derived* class and *at most one base* class with non-static data members
- (s)b No base classes with non-static data members

# C++ std Utilities

C++11 provides three utilities to check if a type is POD, Trivial Copyable, Standard-Layout

- `std::is_pod` checks for POD
- `std::is_trivially_copyable` checks for trivial copyable
- `std::is_standard_layout` checks for standard-layout

```
#include <type_traits>
struct A {
    int x;
private:
    int y;
};
int main() {
    std::cout << std::is_trivially_copyable<A>::value; // true
    std::cout << std::is_standard_layout<A>::value; // false
    std::cout << std::is_pod<A>::value; // false
}
```

# Special Objects Hierarchy

