

C++ Workshop — Day 2 out of 5

Object-Orientation

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- 1 Rationale for inheritance
- 2 Inheritance in C++
- 3 Playing with types
- 4 Smart Pointers: Part I

Rationale for inheritance

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After day 1

We have

- a `circle` class
- nice features
 - encapsulation
 - information hiding
 - class / object
- a toy-like piece of software

We want rectangles!

We want to **extend** our program (to add some new feature).

We would like to ensure that

- extending does not lead to *modify* code
→ adding = a **non-intrusive** process
- we do not break the “type-safe” property
→ a new type is not really an unknown type!

Program features

Expected features:

- both circles and rectangles can be translated (moved)
- both circles and rectangles can be printed

So we want to handle *shapes*.

Shapes?

We can say:

- that a shape is **either** a circle **or** a rectangle
- that both circles and rectangles **are** shapes
- so every shapes can be processed

Please remember that!

Once again:

- a circle **is a** shape
- a rectangle **is a** shape
- if you hold/know/have a shape, it is *either* a circle *or* a rectangle
- actually a set of circles and rectangles is a set of shapes
- OK?

There is a shape **module** in our program:

- sub-modules are *particular* kinds of shapes
- this module can be extended with new sub-modules (what about triangles?)
- extension should be non-intrusive

There is a **type** (“shape”) to represent shapes:

- our context is a language with some kind of typing
 - “good” typing leads to “good” programs
 - compiler is our best friend
- Be honest to your friends. . . When you lie, they get revenge

- 1 Rationale for inheritance
- 2 Inheritance in C++**
 - Abstract Class and Abstract Method
 - Definitions + playing with words
 - Subclassing
- 3 Playing with types
- 4 Smart Pointers: Part I

Abstract Class and Abstract Method

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An **abstract class**...

- is a class that represents an abstraction
- cannot be instantiated
- has at least one abstract method

An **abstract method** is

- a method whose code cannot be given
- a method that is just declared
- a method that will be defined in other classes (some sub-classes)

A **concrete class** is

- a class that does not represent an abstraction thus not an abstract class!
- a class that can be instantiated
- a class with no abstract method

Abstractions

`shape` is an **abstraction** for both `circle` and `rectangle`
—an abstract type that represents several **concrete** types.

The code invoked by `shape::print` depends on which actual object we have to print; a `circle`? a `rectangle`? at that point we do not know.

However:

- an abstract class can have attributes
a `shape` have a center located at (x, y)
- an abstract class can provide methods with their definitions
attributes \Rightarrow a constructor
`shape::translate` can be written

Shape as a C++ abstract class (1/3)

```
class shape
{
public:                                // 1
    shape(float x, float y);          // 2
    virtual ~shape() {}               // 3
    void translate(float dx, float dy); // 4
    virtual void print() const = 0;    // 5
protected:                            // 6
    float x_, y_;                      // 7
};
```

- 1 shape has an interface
a public accessibility area
- 2 a constructor
initializing attributes is a safe behavior
- 3 a destructor
just write it (no explanations here sorry...)
- 4 a translation method
it will be defined in `shape.cc`
- 5 a printing method
just to say that we want to *print* shapes
- 6 a “protected” accessibility area
details are given later...
- 7 a couple of hidden attributes
so they are suffixed by `_`

Shape as a C++ abstract class (2/3)

To make a method abstract in C++, its declaration

- starts with “`virtual`”
- ends with “`= 0`”

Calling `print` on a shape is then valid:

```
#include "shape.hh"

shape* s = // ...
s->print(); // OK
           // conforms to the declaration of 'shape::print'
```


Shape as a C++ abstract class (3/3)

In `shape.cc` nothing to be surprised about:

```
#include "shape.hh"

shape::shape(float x, float y)
  : x_{x}, y_{y}
{}

void shape::translate(float dx, float dy)
{
  x_ += dx; // i.e., this->x_ += dx;
  y_ += dy;
}
```

Definitions + playing with words

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The “**is-a**” relationship between classes is known as **inheritance** or **sub-classing**.

A circle “*is-a*” shape so:

- circle *inherits* from shape
- circle is a *sub-class* of shape
shape is a *super-class* of circle

We also say that:

- circle derives from shape
circle is a *derived class* of shape
shape is a *base class* for circle
- circle extends shape

Class Hierarchy

A set of classes related by the “is-a” relationship is called a **class hierarchy**.

- usually a tree
- depicted upside-down
(superclasses at the top, subclasses at the bottom)

Practicing (not just for fun)

OK:

- a rabbit is-an animal
- a wine is-a drink
- a tulip is-a flower
- (as an exercise find more examples)

OK as anti-examples:

- a guinea pig is-not-a pig
- a piece of cake is-not-a cake
- a program is-not-a language
- (find more)

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Circle as a C++ subclass

```
#include "shape.hh"           // 8
class circle : public shape   // 9
{
public:                        // 10
    circle(float x, float y, float r); // 11
    void print() const override; // 12
private:
    float r_;                 // 13
};
```

8 knowing the class from which `circle` inherits is required

9 the inheritance relationship is translated by “: `public`”

10 “`public:`” starts the class interface

11 a constructor

12 a `print` definition, tagged with the “`override`” keyword.

13 a single attribute in a private area

When “inheritance” makes sense (1/4)

Actually the class `circle` has *really* inherited from `shape`:

- the `translate` method
- the couple of attributes `x_` and `y_`

except that it is *implicit*

so

- a `circle` can be translated
- `circle` has *three* attributes

indeed: `sizeof(circle) == 3 * sizeof(float) + sizeof(void*)`
(the 'void*' is related to type identification...)

When “inheritance” makes sense (2/4)

If inheritance were explicit in the class body, we would have:

```
class circle : public shape
{
public:
    circle(float x, float y, float r);
    virtual void print() const;
    void translate(float dx, float dy); // inherited!
private:
    float r_;
protected:
    float x_, y_; // inherited!
};
```

Circle as a C++ subclass (3/4)

In circle.cc:

```
#include "circle.hh"
#include <cassert>

circle::circle(float x, float y, float r)
    : shape{x, y}
{
    assert(0.f < r);           // precondition
    r_ = r;
}

void circle::print() const // kw 'override' in .hh only
{
    assert(0.f < r_);        // invariant
    std::cout << '(' << x_ << ", " << y_ << ", " << r_ << ')';
}
```

Circle as a C++ subclass (4/4)

A few remarks:

- the constructor of `circle` first calls the one of `shape`
having a new circle first means having a new shape...
- the attributes `x_` and `y_` can be accessed
as if they were defined in the `circle` class
- the “`virtual`” keyword must not appear in source file
only in the declaration of the method
- likewise with “`override`”
but `override` is not a keyword!
Yet, don't use it as a variable name, *please!*

Playing with types

1 Rationale for inheritance

2 Inheritance in C++

3 **Playing with types**

- Transtyping
- Accessibility
- Conclusion

4 Smart Pointers: Part I

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An object has two types!

Let us take a variable that contains an object.

The *static type* of the object

is the type of the variable that contains the object.

Always known at compile-time.

The *dynamic type* of the object, or *exact type*

is its type at instantiation.

Usually *unknown* at compile-time (but known at run-time).

Take a guess... (1/2)

In the following piece of code:

```
#include "shape.hh"

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

what is the static type of the object in `s`?

and what is its dynamic type?

Take a guess... (2/2)

and with:

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

int main()
{
    foo(circle{...});
}
```

can you answer?

Valid transtyping (1/2)

Since a circle is a shape, you can write:

```
circle* c = new circle{1, 6, 64};  
shape* s = c;
```

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

The same goes for references (see the previous slide).

Valid transtyping (2/2)

What you can do:

- promote constness:

```
circle* c = // init  
const circle* cc = c;
```

```
circle& c = // init  
const circle& cc = c;
```

- changing static type from a derived class to a base class:

```
circle* c = // init  
shape* s = c;
```

```
circle& c = // init  
shape& s = c;
```

- both at the same time:

```
circle* c = // init  
const shape* s = c;
```

```
circle& c = // init  
const shape& s = c;
```

Resolving a method call

In this program:

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

int main()
{
    foo(circle{1, 6, 64});
}
```

- which method is called by `foo`?
- which method is actually performed at run-time?
- why? (a “vtable” equips this hierarchy...)

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4 Smart Pointers: Part I

Three Kinds of Accessibility

- `public`
accessible from everybody everywhere
example: `circle::r_get() const`
- `private`
only accessible from the current class
example: `circle::r_`
- `protected`
accessible from the current class *and* from its sub-classes
example: `shape::x_`

These are called “access specifiers”. It’s about accessibility. Please, don’t use the word “visibility”, it’s something else.

- Sometimes you do not want to be derived from
- Even though you are a derived class
- `final` allows to flag such cases
- Sometimes, you'd like to help the compiler optimize your code
- Help it know a method will not be overridden

Final (1/2)

```
class A {  
    // ...  
    virtual void foo() = 0;  
};  
  
class B : public A {  
    // ...  
    void foo() override final; // <- final impl  
};  
  
class C : public B {  
    // ...  
    // B::foo cannot be overridden here  
};
```

Like for `virtual` and `override`, use only in declarations.

Final (2/2)

```
class A final { // <- now the class is final
    // ...
};

class B : public A {
    // ...
    // does NOT compile because A cannot be derived
};
```


Conclusion

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4 Smart Pointers: Part I

Dynamic Allocation & Deallocation

From C to C++:

```
C    circle* c = (circle*)malloc(sizeof(circle));  
      init_circle(c, 1, 6, 64);
```

```
C++  circle* c = new circle{1, 6, 64};
```

```
C    free(c);
```

```
C++  delete c;
```

```
C    int* buf = (int*)malloc(n * sizeof(int));
```

```
C++  int* buf = new int[n];
```

```
C    free(buf);
```

```
C++  delete[] buf;
```

Memory management is not easy.

An exercise from the real world

Printing a page means printing every shapes of this page:

```
void print(const page& p)
{
    for (const shape& s: p) // each shape s of p
        print(s);
}
```

How to make “print(s)” work properly?

Hint for beginners

You can avoid many problems by following this advice:

- an abstract class **can derive from an abstract class**
- a concrete class **should not derive from a concrete class**

sorry that's not argued in this material...

Much further readings

- *Modularité, Objets et Types* by Didier Rémy. Lecture Material; available from <http://cristal.inria.fr/~remy/poly/mot/>
- *Object-Oriented Software Construction*, second edition by Bertrand Meyer, Prentice Hall, 1997.

Smart Pointers: Part I

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- 4 Smart Pointers: Part I**
 - (Raw) Pointers
 - Shared Pointers

(Raw) Pointers

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Why Pointers?

- Pointers in C are a powerful means to play tricks with memory
 - Forget about forging an address from an integer
 - Forget about pointer arithmetic
- Pointers are an important means to refer to another place
 - They are “retargetable” references
 - These are “non-owning pointers”
- Pointers are 0/1 containers
 - `nullptr` for empty
 - Unclear ownership
 - C++ 17 promotes `std::optional` instead
- Pointers manage dynamically allocated memory
 - `new` “returns” a pointer
 - Clearly an owning pointer
 - However, in C++ we prefer value semantics
 - So this should be seldom used?

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Wrong!

Runtime Polymorphism

- We use pointers to get a “uniform handle” to objects
- But then again, what about ownership?
 - point to (or “reference to”)
 - holds some `new`'d object
- Note that many OO languages offer *only* reference semantics
- So everything is actually a pointer
- Java, C#, etc.
- And the GC deals with the details

Runtime Polymorphism

- We use pointers to get a “uniform handle” to objects
- But then again, what about ownership?
 - point to (or “reference to”) do not delete it!
 - holds some `new`'d object
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Runtime Polymorphism

- We use pointers to get a “uniform handle” to objects
- But then again, what about ownership?
 - point to (or “reference to”) do not delete it!
 - holds some `new`'d object do delete it!
- Note that many OO languages offer *only* reference semantics
- So everything is actually a pointer
- Java, C#, etc.
- And the GC deals with the details

The only question is:

`delete`, or not `delete`

The only question is:

`delete`, or not `delete`

owner, or not owner

Smart Pointers

- look like pointers
- behave like pointers
- **manage ownership**
- they make your programs more robust!

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Pointers and Containers

```
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>

#define PING() std::cerr << __PRETTY_FUNCTION__ << '\n'

struct shape
{
    virtual ~shape() { PING(); };
    virtual void print() const = 0;
};

struct circle: shape
{
    void print() const override { PING(); }
};

struct square: shape
{
    void print() const override { PING(); }
};
```

Pointers and Containers

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

- don't worry about `std::vector`
- we'll see that tomorrow
- a dynamic (resizable) array of `shape_ptr`
- `emplace_back` means “build and append”

Pointers and Containers

```
int main()
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```

- don't worry about `std::vector`
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- a dynamic (resizable) array of `shape_ptr`
- `emplace_back` means “build and append”

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

Pointers and Containers

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

Pointers and Containers

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

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


Pointers and Containers

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

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

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

Shared Ownership

```
for (unsigned i = 0; i < 10; ++i)
{
    unsigned n = rand() % 10; // bad quality random, but quick to write
    if (n < ss.size())
        ss.emplace_back(ss[n]);
    else if (n % 2)
        ss.emplace_back(new circle{});
    else
        ss.emplace_back(new square{});
}
for (auto s: ss)
    s->print();
```

Shared Ownership

```
for (unsigned i = 0; i < 10; ++i)
{
    unsigned n = rand() % 10; // bad quality random, but quick to write
    if (n < ss.size())
        ss.emplace_back(ss[n]);
    else if (n % 2)
        ss.emplace_back(new circle{});
    else
        ss.emplace_back(new square{});
}
for (auto s: ss)
    s->print();
```

Good luck with memory management...

Shared Ownership

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

Avoid `new`, prefer `make_shared`

- `shared_ptr<Foo>{new Foo{arg}}` **don't**
 - exception unsafe
 - two allocations
 - redundancy (twice `Foo`)
 - contains a `new` without its `delete`
- `std::make_shared<Foo>(arg)` **do**

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Part I

Appendix

5 A Hierarchy in C

Some Sugar

Introducing `auto` and `decltype`:

```
auto p = std::make_shared<test>();  
p->noop();  
  
decltype(p) p2 = p;  
std::cout << p.get() << ' ' << p2.get() << '\n'; // same addr  
std::cout << p.use_count() << '\n'; // 2
```

`auto` is often for

`you_dont_want_to_write_a_type_because_it_is_too_long_and_or_obvious`

`auto` and `decltype` are also great to rely on the compiler.

A Hierarchy in C

5 A Hierarchy in C

A first big problem

Think about the couple of sentences:

a *shape* is either a *circle* or a *rectangle*
and
an entity has exactly *one* type

In C that sounds like:

- we should use three types
- we have to resort to the C “cast” feature...

Shape type

First we need shapes, so:

```
typedef enum { circle_id = 0, rectangle_id = 1 } shape_id;  
  
typedef struct {  
    shape_id id;  
    float x, y;  
} shape;
```

Circle and rectangle types

With:

```
typedef struct {  
    shape_id id; // == circle_id  
    float x, y;  
    float r;     // radius  
} circle;
```

```
typedef struct {  
    shape_id id; // == rectangle_id  
    float x, y;  
    float w, h; // width and height  
} rectangle;
```

we can write something like:

```
circle* c = // malloc + init  
shape* s = (shape*)c;  
(void)printf("my shape: id=%d x=%f y=%f\n",  
             s->id, s->x, s->y);
```

Shape procedures (1/2)

We do not need `circle_translate(..)`-like routines since you have this one:

```
void shape_translate(shape* s, float dx, float dy)
{
    s->x += dx;  s->y += dy;
}
```

and a sample use is: `shape_translate(s, 16, 64);`
or: `shape_translate((shape*)c, 16, 64);`

Shape procedures (2/2)

Printing a shape depends on what the shape to be printed is:

```
void shape_print(const shape* s)
{
    assert(s != NULL);
    switch (s->id) {
        case circle_id:
            circle_print((const circle*)s);
            break;
        case rectangle_id:
            rectangle_print((const rectangle*)s);
            break;
        default:
            assert(0);
    }
}
```

What have we done? (1/3)

Given a circle `s` (the same goes for a rectangle):

- you can call `shape_print(s)` instead of `circle_print(s)`
- so you can use a single routine per feature

From a client (user of the *shape* module) point of view:

- she does not know that circles and rectangles exist
- she does not care about new types (triangle, etc.)

What have we done? (2/3)

You can write this sexy piece of code:

```
typedef struct
{
    shape** s;
    unsigned ns;
    /* ... */
} page;
```

```
void page_print(const page* p)
{
    assert(p != NULL);
    unsigned i;
    for (i = 0; i < p->ns; ++i)
        shape_print(p->s[i]);
}
```


What have we done? (3/3)

- we have introduced a new kind of type: *shape*
is it a “concrete” type?
- we can extend the shape module, yet in an intrusive way
just look at `shape_print...`
- we have factored some code
`shape_translate` is valid for any shape
- we have also factored some data
`x` and `y` are common to every shapes

and

- our program relies on casts such as: `circle* → shape*`

Think different

Actually we have formed:

```
typedef struct
{
    shape s;
    float r;
} circle;
```

```
typedef struct
{
    shape s;
    float w, h;
} rectangle;
```

So that any shape (e.g., a circle) is:

- first a shape
- an extension of a shape with its own features (r)