

# These are the main pain points to understand C++ [\*] (why did Java "simplify" them?) call-by-reference (session 1 and since) operator overloading (session 3) genericity or template classes (sessions 4–6) memory management • local allocation of objects (sessions 1-2 and since) pointers (sessions 5–6) dynamic allocation & de-allocation (sessions 8–9) multiple inheritance (this session) [\*] (and to answer in job interviews)

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#### Multiple Inheritance The simple case A common, simple, use of multiple inheritance to combine two essentially unrelated classes: • In many object-oriented languages, including C++ and Eiffel, a class read\_write : public reader, public writer { An IS-A relation. class may derive from more than one base class. Java supports a common special case: a class may extend only ... }; one class, but may implement any number of interfaces. • We can also combine classes using sub-objects: Multiple inheritance is very useful, but raises some questions: class chess\_game : public window { An IS-A relation. • What if both happen to *define* the same names? protected: What if both *derive* from a common class? board board; A HAS-A relation. Both these are *implementation* (code reuse) problems, }; nothing to do with the type hierarchies. Key question: should the new class be usable by clients of the old? That's why interfaces (i.e., abstract classes) don't have problems... That is, do we need an IS-A relation (yes) or a HAS-A relation (no) ? This question is about the type relation - nothing to do with code reuse.

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# An asymmetrical case

Often a class extends a concrete base class and an abstract one, using the concrete class to implement the undefined methods from the second class, and possibly a bit more:

Java supports only this special case.

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# Name clashes (ambiguity)

What if two base classes define the same name?

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Possible solutions

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- The language chooses one, using some rule (some LISP dialects).
- The language permits the programmer to rename methods of a base class in a derived class, thus avoiding the clash (Eiffel).
- The programmer must explicitly qualify the names with the class from which they come (C++).

Renaming the methods in the original classes is often not an option, as they may be part of a library or fixed interface.

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```
Ambiguity resolution by qualification
 In C++, ambiguous names must be qualified: t.ly/C90gP QUIZ now!
 class A { public: int f() {return 1; } };
 class B { public: int f() {return 2; } };
 class AB : public A, public B {
   public:
      int f() { return 3; }
      int g() {
        return A::f() + B::f() + f() + 1; // 7
      }
 1;
 void fa( A &a ) { cout << a.f() << endl; }</pre>
 void fb( B &b ) { cout << b.f() << endl; }</pre>
    . . .
 AB ab;
 fa(ab); // prints what? why?
 fb(ab); // prints what? why?
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```

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Ambiguity resolution by qualification

$$\label{eq:approximate} \begin{split} & Antipoly resolution by calification \\ & b(x) - wategoar means the satisfiet : 1, y) (with the satisfield : 1, y) (with the with the the with$$

- Will print 1 & 2 respectively, because f is NOT virtual!
- So there's no dynamic binding compiler chooses the appropriate f statically (at compilation time), by considering the interface of the object.
- If A's f() was virtual, then fa() would print 3 if its argument was of class AB...
- What if f was virtual only inside class A?

# Replicated base classes

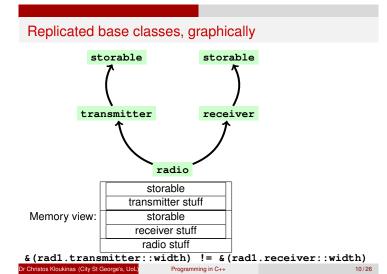
class storable { int width; ... };//I HAVE \*width\*!

class transmitter : public storable { ... };

class receiver : public storable { ... };

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- A radio object will contain *two* distinct storable components, and thus two versions of each member.
- All references to storable members in radio must be qualified with either transmitter or receiver.



# Virtual functions in the base class

```
class storable {
public:
            virtual void write() = 0;
};
class transmitter : public storable {
public:
            virtual void write() { ... }
};
class receiver : public storable {
public:
            virtual void write() { ... }
};
```

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# Overriding virtual methods

A virtual function in the replicated base class can be overridden:

```
class radio : public transmitter,
              public receiver {
public:
        virtual void write() {
                transmitter::write();
                receiver::write();
                // write extra radio stuff
        }
};
```

The use of the base class versions, plus a bit more, is common.



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Virtual inheritance (sharing)

win\_with\_menu

window

painter

win\_with\_border

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Suppose we want:

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Virtual base class	Virtual inher
If we write	
<pre>class window { };</pre>	
class win_with_border : public virtual window {}; class win_with_menu : public virtual window {};	
<pre>class painter : public win_with_border,</pre>	
Then a <b>painter</b> object includes <i>a single</i> <b>window</b> . Class <b>window</b> is a <b>virtual base class</b> of class <b>painter</b> .	
Virtual method – you have a pointer to the method.	
• Pure virtual method (= 0) means a nullptr pointer (no code)	

- $\Rightarrow$  Virtual base class you have a pointer to it!
- s uses indirection to real memory) (jus

(just like "virtual memo	ry" in OSs uses indi
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eritance – Memory view

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	shared window w	
Π	window *wptr = &w	
	win_with_menu stuff	
Π	window *wptr = &w	
	win_with_border stuff	
Γ	painter stuff	-

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### Constructors

```
class window {
public:
            window(int i) { ... }
};
class win_with_border : public virtual window {
public:
            win_with_border() : window(1) { ... }
};
class win_with_menu : public virtual window {
public:
            win_with_menu() : window(2) { ... }
};
```

 PROBLEM: The base classes of painter want to initialise the common window object in a different way – they don't know it's shared!

 SOLUTION: Ignore them – class painter is the one best placed to decide how the common window object should be initialised.

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# 

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# Ensuring other methods are called only once

When the virtual base class has a method redefined by each class?

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```
class window {
public:
            virtual void draw() {
                 // draw window
            }
};
```

# Drawing, first attempt

```
class win_with_border : public virtual window {
  public:
            virtual void draw() {
                window::draw();
                // draw border
            }
        ;;
      class win_with_menu : public virtual window {
      public:
            virtual void draw() {
                window::draw();
                // draw menu
            }
        ;;
      }
};
```

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```

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### Disaster!!!

```
But then if we write:
```

The window gets drawn twice!

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Solution: auxiliary methods

We put the drawing of the extra stuff in a method of its own:

```
class win_with_border : public virtual window {
  protected:
        void own_draw() { ... }
  public:
        virtual void draw() {
            window::draw();
            own_draw();
        }
};
```

And similarly for win\_with\_menu.

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Calling each method once

Then each part is drawn exactly once.

```
Virtual inheritance: Summary
```

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- Good news: Virtual inheritance is a rare case.
- Even better: Language ensures constructors called exactly once.
- *Bad: Code Re-use Kills* If a method is defined in the virtual base class and overridden in more than one derived class (a rare case), considerable care is required to ensure that each method is called exactly once.
- If a method is pure virtual in the virtual base class, the issue does not arise (because the derived versions cannot call it).
- If the method is overridden in only one branch, the issue does not arise (because only that version need be called).

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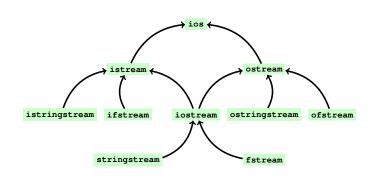
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### I/O stream classes

```
class ios {
    // private state
public:
    bool good() const { ... }
    bool eof() const { ... }
    bool fail() const { ... }
    bool bad() const { ... }
1:
class istream : virtual public ios { ... };
class ostream : virtual public ios { ... };
class iostream : public istream, public ostream {};
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```

### Stream class hierarchy



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The state of ios is not duplicated.

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Next session: memory management

- Both Java and C++ have dynamic/heap allocation (new), but In Java, heap objects are automatically recycled when no longer needed.
  - In C++, this is the programmer's responsibility.
- In C++, we can have these kinds of bugs (Java only #1):
  - Freeing too late: overusing memory
  - Porgetting to free: memory leak
  - 3 Freeing things twice: mysterious program crashes
  - (And freeing things prematurely...)
  - (And freeing things the wrong way...)
  - (And freeing things that were not created with new...)
- Alternative strategies:
  - Use local allocation instead (not always appropriate).
  - Use C++11 smart pointers:

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- unique\_ptr<T>, shared\_ptr<T>, weak\_ptr<T>
- Reading: Stroustrup section 10.4, Savitch 10.3, Horstmann 13.2.

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  - Next session: memory management

#### Final Notes - I:

- Multiple inheritance is a major difference between Java and C++.
  - Java doesn't allow it inheriting fields and code from multiple classes is problematic:
    - What if multiple parent classes define the same fields or functions?
    - What if multiple parent classes inherit from a common class themselves?

Both these problems are caused by code reuse, not by introducing a type hierarchy.

- That's why in Java you can inherit from only one class and ... multiple interfaces (that don't have any code).
- C++ allows multiple inheritance it gives you all the tools you need to solve the issues (enough rope to hang yourself...).
- Sometimes you can avoid inheritance altogether the key question to ask is:

Should class A be usable at all settings where class B is usable? If so, then A should inherit from B (A Is-A B). Otherwise A can simply contain a B (A Has-A B).

• Name ambiguity is resolved by qualification: ClassName::MemberName()

```
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                                                   00000
        Next session: memory management
```

#### Final Notes - II:

• Two types of multiple inheritance:

```
• Replicated inheritance:
 #include <cassert>
 // struct's a class with everything public.
 struct A {int x;};
 class B: public A {};
 class C: public A {};
 class D: public B, public C {};
 int main() {
   D d1;
   d1.B::x = 1; // assign d1's x from the B side
   d1.C::x = 2; // assign d1's x from the C side
   assert( &(d1.B::x) != &(d1.C::x) );
   assert( d1.B::x == 1 );
   assert( d1.C::x == 2 );
    // restricted view of d1 - B interface (B & ...)
   B & b_view_of_d1 = d1;
   // restricted view of d1 - C interface (C & ...)
   C & c_view_of_d1 = d1;
   assert( & (b_view_of_d1.x) != & (c_view_of_d1.x) );
   assert( b_view_of_d1.x == 1 );
   assert( c_view_of_d1.x == 2 );
          /* ALWAYS */
      assert( &(d1.B::x) == &(b_view_of_d1.x) );
     assert( &(d1.C::x) == &(c_view_of_d1.x) );
   return c_view_of_d1.x - b_view_of_d1.x; // 1
 3
 D contains two copies of A - one from the B side and one from the
 C side (like persons having two grandfathers - one from their
 mother's side and one from their father's side).
Virtual inheritance:
 #include <cassert>
 struct A {int x;};
 class B: virtual public A {}; // virtual public =
 class C: public virtual A {}; // public virtual
 class D: public B, public C {};
 int main() {
   D d1;
   d1.B::x = 1;
     assert( &(d1.B::x) == &(d1.C::x) && d1.B::x == 1 );
   d1.C::x = 2;
     assert( &(d1.B::x) == &(d1.C::x) && d1.B::x == 2 );
   B &b_view_of_d1 = d1;
   C &c view of d1 = d1;
   assert( &(b_view_of_d1.x) == &(c_view_of_d1.x) );
   assert( b_view_of_d1.x == 2 );
          /* ALWAYS */
      assert( &(d1.B::x) == &(b_view_of_d1.x) );
      assert( &(d1.C::x) == &(c_view_of_d1.x) );
   return c_view_of_d1.x - b_view_of_d1.x; // 0
```

D contains only one copy of A - the B and C side have virtual A's.

```
• Compiler ensures constructors work as expected (only called once).

    You need auxiliary methods to get this version of inheritance

  work for other methods.
```

```
    In Java, hesp objects are exampled
longer needed.
    In G++, this is the programmer's respon
to G++, etc. in heve these kinds of buss (b)

    Presing too take: overusing memory

    Presing too take: memory lask
       Next session: memory management
Checking if two objects are the same
As we saw in slide 10, to check if two objects are the same (and not
just equal to each other) we need to check their addresses in memory
Here's a simple example of that using int:
#include <cassert>
int main() {
  int i = 3, j = 3;
  assert( i == j ); // same values
  assert( &i != &j ); // BUT different objects
                             // (cause different addresses!)
  return 0:
}
Comparing addresses is closer to what the === operator does in
languages like JavaScript, which is (mainly) used to check if two
objects are the same (developer.mozilla.org/en-US/docs/
Web/JavaScript/Reference/Operators/Strict_equality).
In Java, the == operator when applied to Object references compares
the references directly (i.e., the pointers), so can be used to figure out
if two objects are the same. In Java we need to call equals () to
compare object contents instead.
public class SameObj {
  public int i = 1;
  public boolean equals(SameObj other) {
     return i == other.i;
  1
  public static void main(String[] args) {
     SameObj o1 = new SameObj(), o2 = new SameObj();
          // Comparing VALUES: .equals()
     if (o1.equals(o2))
        System.out.println("o1 & o2 are equal");
     else
        System.out.println("o1 & o2 are *not* equal");
          // Comparing POINTERS: ==
     if (o1 == o2)
      System.out.println("o1 & o2 are the same");
     else
      System.out.println("o1 & o2 are *not* the same"); /**/
```

```
if (o1 == o1) // should always be true
System.out.println("o1 & o1 are the same"); /**/
System.out.println("o1 & o1 are *not* the same");
```

```
}
}
```

else

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