



Object-Oriented Programming [Chapter 11]

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Introduction

- ◆ Classes have given us tremendous benefit
 - ◆ Encapsulation: make details of implementation and representation private
 - ◆ Classes help break down and organize the task of writing a program
- ◆ Classes are designed to enable other benefits
 - ◆ Inheritance (subclassing)
 - ◆ Dynamic dispatch (polymorphism)
- ◆ Two very powerful programming tools!
 - ◆ They help us write less code

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Classes Using Other Classes

- ◆ So far, we've seen one way that a class can make use of another class
 - ◆ Use an instance of that class as a member variable

```
class StudentCouncil
{
    Student president;
    Student minister_of_propaganda;
};
```

- ◆ We might call this a "has-a" relationship
 - ◆ A `StudentCouncil` "has-a" `Student`

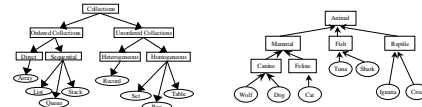
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Hierarchies of Organization

- ◆ Often, we classify things in a hierarchy from general to specific



- ◆ Objects have more of a "is-a-kind-of" relationship
 - ◆ A `Dog` "is-a-kind-of" `Canine`, a `Shark` "is-a-kind-of" `Animal`
 - ◆ A `Stack` "is-a-kind-of" `OrderedCollection`

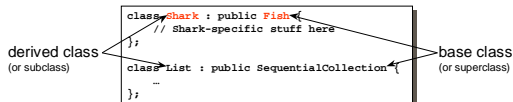
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Inheritance

- ◆ Inheritance is a way to encode the "is-a-kind-of" relation in OO languages
 - ◆ `Shark` declares that it "is-a-kind-of" `Fish` by inheriting from it
 - ◆ A derived class inherits from a base class by putting " : `public BaseClassName`" in the class declaration



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Example: A Point Class

- ◆ Let's say we had the following class
- ◆ We can use inheritance to store a colour field for points without changing this declaration!

```
class Point
{
public:
    Point( double x, double y );

    double getX();
    double getY();

    void print( ostream& os );

private:
    double xpos;
    double ypos;
};
```

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ColourPoint Without Inheritance

- ◆ This isn't inheritance
- ◆ This is the interface we want, but we'll have to redefine all `Point` methods
- ◆ Inheritance will let us write less code!

```
class ColourPoint
{
public:
    ColourPoint( double x, double y,
                Colour c );

    double getX();
    double getY();

    void print( ostream& os );

private:
    double xpos;
    double ypos;
    Colour colour;
};
```

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ColourPoint With Inheritance

- ◆ `ColourPoint` "is-a-kind-of" `Point`
- ◆ Therefore `ColourPoint` has to be able to do anything `Point` can
- ◆ All fields and methods of `Point` are "inherited" by `ColourPoint` - they are transparently included!
- ◆ Subclass can add new methods, fields
- ◆ Subclass can override superclass behaviour

```
class ColourPoint : public Point
{
public:
    ColourPoint( double x, double y,
                Colour c );

    // getX() is inherited from Point
    // getY() is inherited from Point

    // New accessor method for the
    // colour field
    Colour getColour();

    // We still need to redefine
    // the print method!
    void print( ostream& os );

private:
    // xpos is inherited from Point
    // ypos is inherited from Point
    Colour colour;
};
```

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Rules of Inheritance

- ◆ All data and methods in superclass are automatically inherited by subclass
 - ◆ As if you copied them into the subclass yourself
- ◆ Changes in superclass are automatically propagated into subclasses
- ◆ Public members of superclass visible to subclass and client of subclass
- ◆ Private members of superclass still not visible to subclass or its clients

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ColourPoint Implementation

```
ColourPoint::ColourPoint( double x, double y, Colour c )
: Point( x, y )
, colour( c )
{
}

Colour ColourPoint::getColour()
{
    return colour;
}

void ColourPoint::print( ostream& os )
{
    os << "(" << getX() << ", " << getY()
        << ")" << colour;
}
```

- ◆ Superclass is initialized using memberwise initialization on superclass name

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ColourPoint Client

```
Point p( 1.0, 0.0 );
ColourPoint cpl( 3.14, -45.5 );

// No problem: ColourPoint::print is defined
cpl.print( cout );

// No problem: calls Point::getX() and Point::getY()
// on Point subset of ColourPoint, they access private
// xpos and ypos fields
cout << cpl.getX() << " " << cpl.getY() << endl;

// Assign p to be the "Point slice" of cpl, the part
// of cpl's representation which was inherited from
// Point
Point p = cpl;
```

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Subclass Tips

- ◆ Add `": public BaseClassName"` to the first line of class declaration
- ◆ Add `": BaseClassName(arguments)"` to beginning of subclass constructor's definition
 - ◆ Only needed to invoke non-default constructor
 - ◆ Default constructor of base class is otherwise invoked automatically
- ◆ Don't rewrite inherited methods, instead inherit them!
- ◆ Don't change or re-declare inherited data members

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When to Use Inheritance?

- ◆ Most appropriate if all of the following are true:
 - ◆ The subclass A "is-a-kind-of" the base class B
 - ◆ Interface of derived class is superset of base class interface (all functions from base and then some)
 - ◆ Representation of derived class is superset of base class representation (all data from base and then some)
 - ◆ Subclass implementation is similar to implementation of base class

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When Not to Use Inheritance?

- ◆ Class B should not inherit from class A when
 - ◆ Derived class has the base class as a part
 - When B "has-a" A, or when A "is-part-of" B
 - A bird has-a wing, but is not a-kind-of wing
 - ◆ Derived class doesn't have same representation and/or interface as base class
 - Can often reorganize class hierarchy to fix the problem
 - Use different class as base class
 - Make small changes to other classes

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Subclasses And Private Data

- ◆ It seems unfair to restrict subclass access in the same way as client access
 - ◆ Subclasses are a kind of "priveleged" client of the superclass
- ◆ Sometimes, the superclass would like to give subclass access, but not clients
 - ◆ Public is too open, private is too closed
 - ◆ Need third access specifier!

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Protected Access

- ◆ In addition to `public:` and `private:`, there is a `protected:` access specifier
 - ◆ Visible to original class, visible in subclasses, still hidden from clients
 - ◆ Class declaration can have any number of public, protected and private sections

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Example Of Protected Access

```
class Point {
public:
    -
protected:
    double xpos;
    double ypos;
};

class ColourPoint : public Point {
public:
    void setTemperature( double deg );
    ...
protected:
    Colour colour;
};

void ColourPoint::setTemperature( double deg )
{
    colour = setColourFromTemperature( deg );
    ypos = (deg + 40.0) / 150.0; // OK now!
}
```

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Invoking Overriden Methods

- ◆ Observation: `ColourPoint::print` does the same thing as `Point::print`, and then prints out a colour
- ◆ So perhaps we can call `Point::print` from within `ColourPoint::print`
- ◆ What happens here?

```
void ColourPoint::print( ostream& os )
{
    print( os ); // trying to call print method in superclass
    os << " , " << colour;
}
```

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Scope Resolution To The Rescue!

- ◆ It turns out that the `::` operator allows us to explicitly call an overridden method from the superclass

```
void ColourPoint::print( ostream& os )
{
    Point::print( os );
    os << ", " << colour;
}
```

- ◆ `BaseClass::method(arguments)` can be used as long as `BaseClass` really is a superclass
- ◆ Remember that superclasses are "transitive"

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Inheritance and Constructors

- ◆ Constructors are not inherited!
 - ◆ Can't be, because their name specifies which class they're part of!
- ◆ Instead, constructor of base class is called automatically before constructor of derived class
 - ◆ Can call base class constructor explicitly to pass parameters (like in `ColouredPoint` example)
 - ◆ If omitted, default constructor of base class is called
 - ◆ Constructors are called in "inside-out" order

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Substituting Derived Classes

- ◆ Recall that an instance of a derived class can always be substituted for an instance of a base class

- ◆ Derived class guaranteed to have (at least) the same data and interface as base class

- ◆ But you probably don't get the behaviour you want!

```
Point p( 1.0, 9.0 );
ColourPoint cp( 6.0, 7.0, red );

p = cp;

void printPoint( Point pt )
{
    pt.print( cout );
}

printPoint( p );
printPoint( cp );
```

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Pointers And Inheritance

- ◆ You can also substitute a *pointer* to a derived class for a *pointer* to a base class

- ◆ There's still that guarantee about data and interface
- ◆ Also holds for reference types
- ◆ **No information disappears!!**

- ◆ Unfortunately, we still have the same problems...

```
Point *pptr = new Point( 1.0, 9.0 );
ColourPoint *cpPtr = new ColourPoint( 6.0, 7.0, red );
Point *fooptr = cpPtr;

void printPoint( Point *ptr )
{
    ofstream ofs( "point.out" );
    ptr->print( ofs );
    ofs.close();
}

printPoint( pptr );
printPoint( cpPtr );
```

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Static And Dynamic Types

- ◆ In C++, every variable has a static and a dynamic type
 - ◆ Static type is declared type of variable
 - ◆ Every variable has a single static type that never changes
 - ◆ Dynamic type is type of object the variable actually contains
 - ◆ Dynamic type can change during the program!
- ◆ Up to now, these have always been identical
 - ◆ But not any more!

```
Point *myPointPointer = new ColourPoint( 3.14, 2.78, green );
```

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Static Dispatch

- ◆ "Dispatching" is the act of deciding which piece of code to execute when a method is called
- ◆ Static dispatch means that the decision is made statically, *i.e.* at compile time
 - ◆ Decision made based on static type of receiver

```
Point *myPointPointer = new ColourPoint( 3.14, 2.78, green );
// myPointPointer is a Point*, so call Point::print
myPointPointer->print( cout );
```

- ◆ Idea: make the decision at runtime, based on the *dynamic type* of the receiver!

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Dynamic Dispatch

- ◆ C++ has a mechanism for declaring individual methods as dynamically dispatched
 - ◆ "Don't necessarily call this function; call the overriding version, if it exists"
- ◆ In base class, method is labeled with `virtual` keyword
 - ◆ Overriding versions in subclasses may or may not have the `virtual` keyword; but use consistently for better style
 - ◆ Rule of thumb: If you may ever need to override a method, make it `virtual`!

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Example Of Dynamic Dispatch

```
class Point {
public:
    virtual void print( ostream& os );
    ...
};

class ColourPoint : public Point {
public:
    virtual void print( ostream& os );
    ...
};

Point *p = new ColourPoint( 3.13, 5.66, ochre );
p->print( cout ); // It's alive! ALIVE!!!
```

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Another Example Of Dynamic Dispatch

```
class Gizmo {
public:
    virtual bool moveRay(Ray& r);
    ...
};

class FlashGizmo : public Gizmo {
public:
    virtual bool moveRay( Ray& r );
    ...
};

...
Gizmo **data = new Gizmo*[ 100 ];
data[ 13 ] = new FlashGizmo();
data[ 14 ] = new Gizmo();
...
data[ 13 ]->moveRay( ray );
data[ 14 ]->moveRay( ray );
...
```

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How Does It Work?

- ◆ It's a secret!

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How Does It Work!?!?

```
class Point {
public:
    Point( double x, double y );
    virtual void print( ostream& os );
private:
    double xpos;
    double ypos;
};

int main( void )
{
    cout << sizeof Point << endl;
    cout << sizeof( double ) + sizeof( double ) << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

- ◆ This program prints out 24 and 16!
- ◆ The compiler is automatically inserting extra information into the class: `__vfptr`

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Dynamically-Dispatched Method Calls

```
Point *p = new ColourPoint( 3.13, 5.66, ochre );
p->print( cout );
```

- ◆ The compiler notices that `Point::print` is defined as `virtual`
- ◆ Instead of just calling `Point::print`, it inserts extra code to look inside `Point`'s `__vfptr` to decide what function to call
- ◆ This is slightly slower than static dispatch
 - ◆ Major research area in programming languages
 - ◆ Probably not so much slower that you should worry about it

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A Practical Example

- ◆ Many user interface toolkits are implemented as class hierarchies
- ◆ Helps manage complexity
- ◆ Question: how should we implement `Widget::draw`?

```
class Widget {
public:
    void getPosition( int& x, int& y );
    virtual void draw( Screen& theScreen );
    ...
private:
    int xpos;
    int ypos;
};

class Button : public Widget {
public:
    virtual void draw( Screen& theScreen );
    ...
};

class Toolbar : public Widget {
public:
    virtual void draw( Screen& theScreen );
};
```

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Abstract Classes

- ◆ Some classes are so abstract that instances of them shouldn't even exist
 - ◆ What does it mean to have an instance of `Widget`? of `Collection`? of `Animal`?
- ◆ An *abstract class* is a class that should not or can not be instantiated
 - ◆ A *concrete class* can have instances
- ◆ Not every abstract class can be completely implemented
 - ◆ What would we write for `Widget::draw`?

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Pure Virtual Functions

- ◆ A pure virtual function is a placeholder that concrete subclasses must fill in
- ◆ Syntax: append "`= 0`" to method declaration

```
class Widget {
public:
    virtual void draw( Screen& theScreen ) = 0;
};
```

- ◆ Compiler guarantees that class with pure virtual functions cannot be instantiated
- ◆ But you can still call them!

```
Widget *w = new Button();
w->draw( myScreen );
```

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Summary

- ◆ Object-Oriented Programming
- ◆ Inheritance
 - ◆ Use for "is-a-kind-of", not "has-a" relations
 - ◆ Classification hierarchies
 - ◆ Superclass (base class), subclass (derived class)
 - ◆ Overriding functions
- ◆ Static and dynamic types
- ◆ Dynamic Dispatch
 - ◆ Virtual functions
 - ◆ Abstract classes, pure virtual functions

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