

EEE102

C++ Programming and Software Engineering II

Lecture 9 Polymorphism

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Outline

- Pointers to objects
 - Pointers to objects
 - Pointers to derived classes
- Polymorphism
 - Methods Overlapping
 - Introduction to Polymorphism
 - Static Binding
 - Dynamic Binding
 - Virtual Methods
 - Pure Virtual Methods
 - Virtual destructor



1.1 Pointers to objects

- A pointer can point to an object created by a class.

- Example:

```
complexClass cNum1;  
complexClass *ptr1;  
ptr1 = &cNum1;
```

- Call methods in two ways:

- dot operator (object):

```
cNum1.show();  
cNum1.set(5,10);
```

- arrow operator (object pointer):

```
ptr1->show();  
ptr1->set(5,10);
```



1.1 Pointers to objects

- Dynamic memory allocation for object

- Example:

```
complexClass *ptr1 = new complexClass;  
ptr1-> show();  
ptr1-> set(5,10);  
delete ptr1;
```

- Dynamic memory allocation for objects array

- Example:

```
int N=5;  
complexClass *ptr2 = new complexClass[N];  
ptr2[0].show();  
*(ptr2+1)->set(5,10);  
delete [] ptr2;
```



1.2 Pointers to derived classes (I)

- Pointers can be used to point not only base class objects but also objects of derived classes.
 - Pointers to objects of a base class are type-compatible with pointers to objects of a derived class.
 - Therefore, a single pointer variable can be made to point to objects belonging to different classes.

```
class clA
{public:
    int a;
    void show() {cout<<a;}
};

class clB: public clA
{public:
    int b;
    void show() {cout<<a<<b;}
};
```

```
clA *ptr1, obA;
clB obB;
ptr1 = &obA;
ptr1 = &obB;
```

```
clA *ptr2 = new clA;
clA *ptr3 = new clB;
clB *ptr4 = new clA;
```

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1.2 Pointers to derived classes (II)

- Problems:

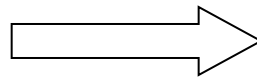
- 1. Pointer declared from derived class cannot point to object of base class;

```
clA p1;  
clB *ptr2 = &p1; X
```

```
clB p2;  
clA *ptr1 = &p2; ✓
```

- 2. Using **ptr1**, we can access only the members which are inherited from base class, but not the members originally defined in derived class.

```
clB p2;  
clA *ptr1 = &p2;
```



```
ptr1->a = 1; ✓  
ptr1->b = 1; X
```




1.2 Pointers to derived classes (III)

- Problems:
 - 3. In case a method of derived class has the same name as the method of base class, then any reference to that member by **ptr1** will always access the base class member.

```
class clA
{public:
    int a;
    void show() {cout<<a;}
};

class clB: public clA
{public:
    int b;
    void show() {cout<<a<<b;}
};
```

```
int main()
{
    clB p2;
    clA *ptr1 = &p2;
    ptr1-> show();
    return 0;
};
```



2.1 Methods Overlapping

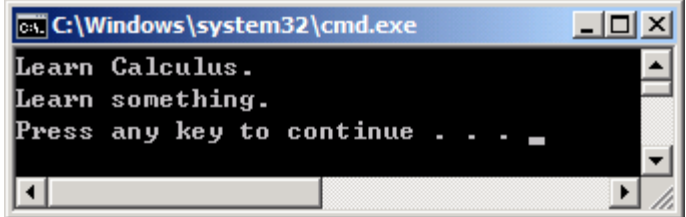
- Function member in base class and subclass can have same name, same parameter list.

Not overloading !!!

```
class student
{public:      .....
    void study()
    {cout<<"Learn something."<<endl;}
protected: .....
};

class undergraduate: public student
{public:      .....
    void study()
    {cout<<"Learn Calculus."<<endl;}
protected: .....
};
```

```
int main()
{
    undergraduate s1;
    s1.study();
    student s2;
    s2.study();
    return 0;
}
```



A screenshot of a Windows command prompt window titled "C:\Windows\system32\cmd.exe". The window shows the output of the program: "Learn Calculus." on the first line, "Learn something." on the second line, and "Press any key to continue" on the third line. The cursor is positioned at the end of the third line.



2.2 Introduction to Polymorphism

- Polymorphism is one of the crucial features of OOP
 - Polymorphism means a function in the derived class can have the same name as in the base class but does different things.
 - “One name, multiple forms”
- Types of polymorphism:
 - Compile time polymorphism
 - Run time polymorphism



2.2.1 Static Binding

- Overloaded functions and operators
 - Appropriate overloaded function are selected for invoking by matching arguments list;
 - Known to compiler at the compilation stage;
 - Called “early binding” “static binding” “compile time polymorphism”

```
class clA
{
    int x;
public:
    void show ();
    void show (int a);
};
```

```
int main()
{
    clA ob1;
    clA *ptr = &ob1;
    ptr->show();
    ptr->show(5);
    return 0;
};
```



The “methods overlap” is one kind of polymorphism.

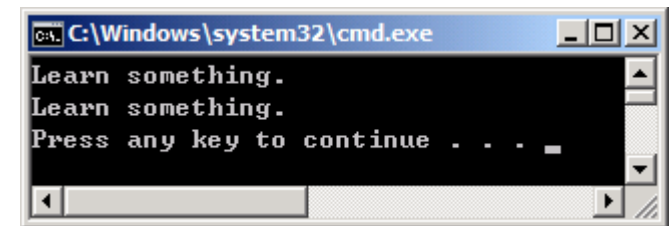
- Static binding:
 - to call the function of the base class from an object of the derived class
 - determined in compile time

```
class student
{public:
    .....
    void study()
    {cout<<"Learn something."<<endl;}
protected: .....
};

class undergraduate: public student
{public:
    .....
    void study()
    {cout<<"Learn Calculus."<<endl;}
protected: .....
};
```

Static Binding

```
int main()
{
    undergraduate s1;
    s1.student::study();
    student s2;
    s2.study();
    return 0;
}
```

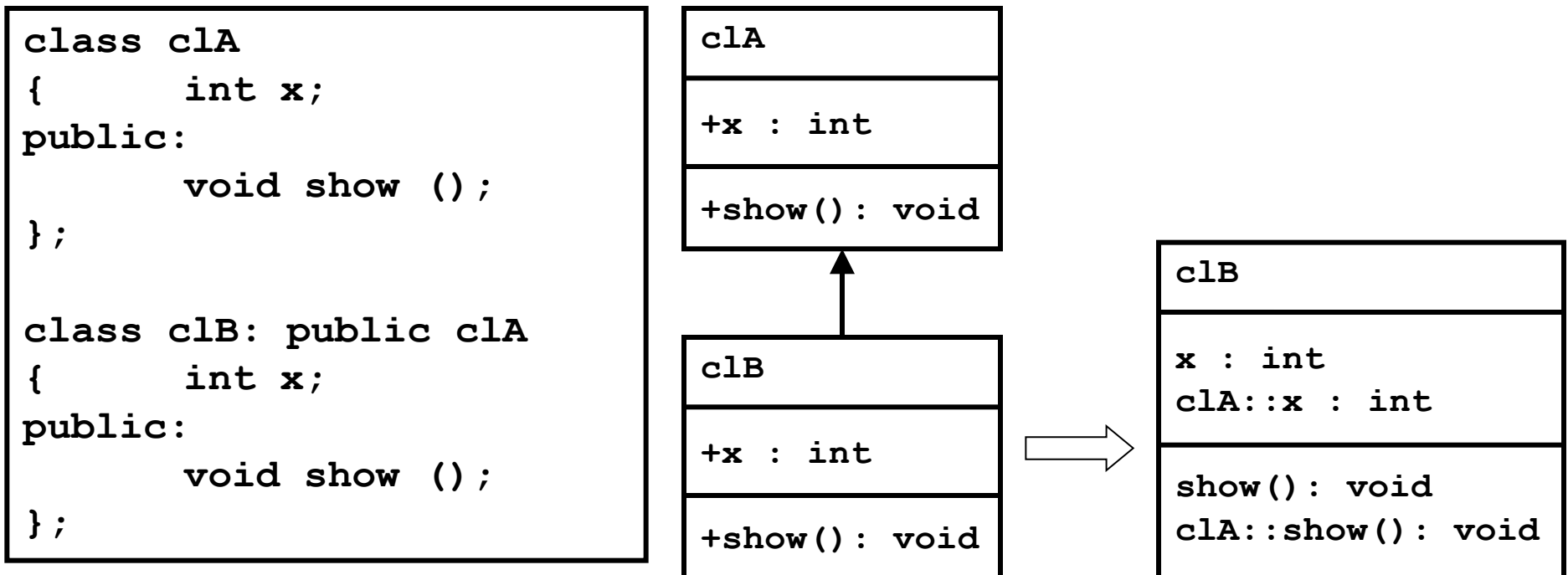


A screenshot of a Windows command prompt window titled "C:\Windows\system32\cmd.exe". The window shows the output of the program: "Learn something.", "Learn something.", and "Press any key to continue . . .". The cursor is positioned after the last line of output.



2.2.2 Dynamic Binding

- Dynamic Binding
 - Which function should be called will be decided during the execution of a programme.
 - Called “late binding” “run time polymorphism”



2.2.2 Dynamic Binding

```
clA ob1, *ptr;  
// ptr is a pointer pointing to the object of class clA  
  
clB ob2;  
  
//A pointer of a base class type can be used to point to a derived class  
if (.....)  
    ptr = &ob1;    // pointing to an object of the base class  
else  
    ptr = &ob2;.    // pointing to an object of the derived class  
  
ptr->show();
```

*Actually, since **ptr** is declared as a pointer for **clA** class, the method **show()** of **clA** is always called. Not **dynamic** !*

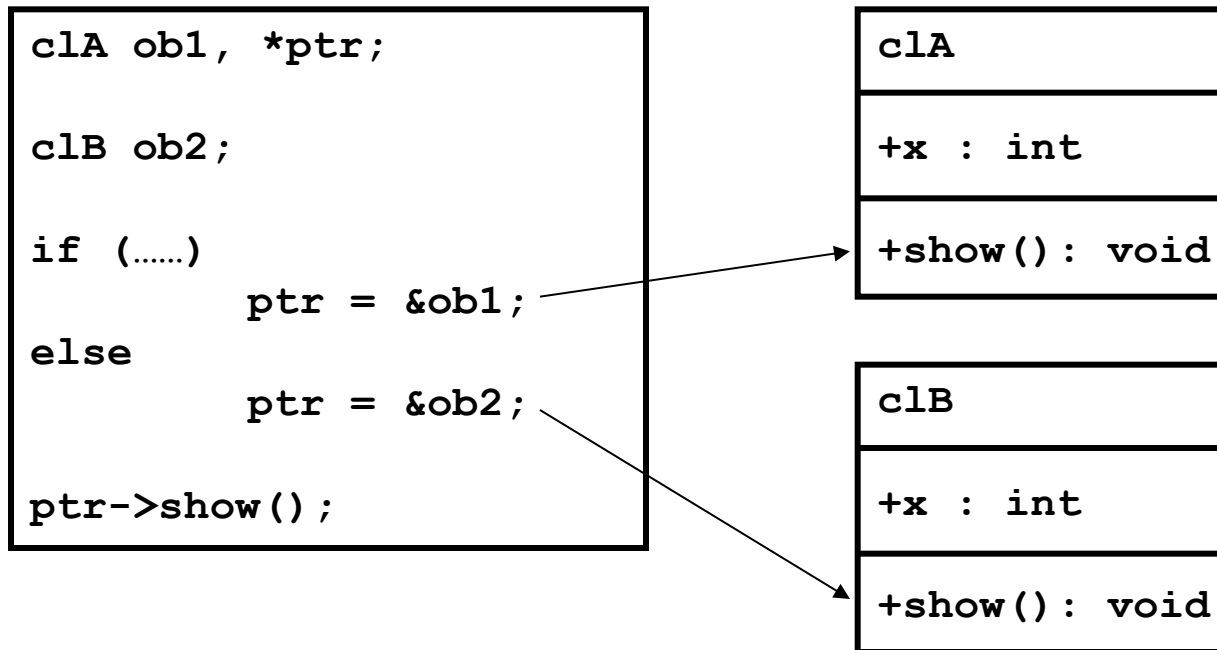
Which function will be called ?

Dynamic binding ---- which function should be called will be decided during the execution of a programme.



2.3 Virtual Methods

- Solution: Using “virtual methods” *In the base class*
 - add keyword “**virtual**” in front of the methods declaration.
 - Then the program will find out which methods should be called according to what object the pointer is pointing to.



2.3.1 Example

```
class student
{public: .....
    virtual void study()
    {cout<< "Learn something."<<endl;}
protected: .....
};

class undergraduate: public student
{public: .....
    void study()
    {cout<< "Learn Calculus."<<endl;}
protected: .....
};
```

```
int main()
{
    cout<<"Choose: \n";
    cout<<"1 for student; \n";
    cout<<"2 for undergraduate: \n";
    cin>>choice;
    student st1, *pst;
    undergraduate ust2;
    if (choice==1)
        pst=&st1;
    else
        pst=&ust2;
    pst->study();
    return 0;
}
```

C:\Windows\system32\cmd.exe

```
Choose:
1 for student;
2 for undergraduate:
1
Learn something.
Press any key to continue . . .
```

C:\Windows\system32\cmd.exe

```
Choose:
1 for student;
2 for undergraduate:
2
Learn Calculus.
Press any key to continue . . .
```

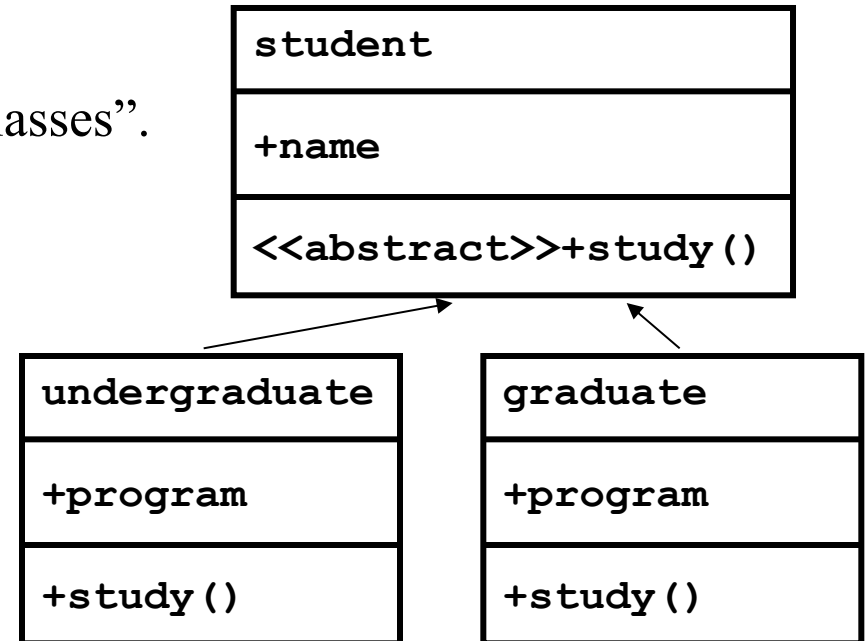
2.3.2 Rules for Virtual Methods

- Basic rules for “virtual methods”
 - The virtual functions must be members of some class;
 - They are accessed by using object pointers;
 - A virtual function can be a friend of another class;
 - A virtual function in a base class must be defined, even though it may not be used;
 - If a virtual function is defined in the base class, it need not be necessarily redefined in the derived class.
 - The prototypes of the base class version of a virtual function and all the derived class versions must be identical;
 - meaning “same name, same parameter list”
 - If different, they will be considered as “function overloading”



2.4 Pure Virtual Methods

- If the virtual function defined in base class doesn't perform any task, but only serves as a *placeholder*, it is a “do-nothing” function.
 - Such functions are called “pure virtual functions”.
 - Syntax:
virtual void study()=0;
- A class containing pure virtual functions cannot be used to declare any objects of its own.
 - Such classes are called “abstract base classes”.
 - The main objective of an abstract base class is
 - to provide some traits to the derived classes
 - to create a base pointer required for achieving run time polymorphism.



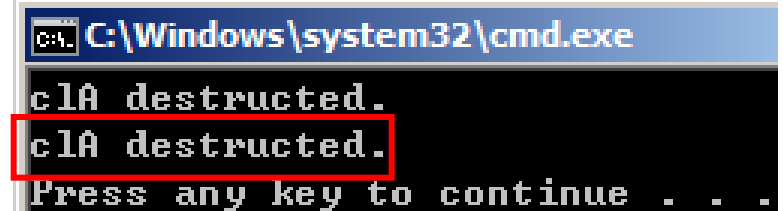
2.5 Virtual destructor

- It is a good policy to always make destructors virtual.
 - Why?
 - Example:

```
class clA
{public:
    ~clA()
    {cout<<"clA destructed.\n";}
};

class clB: public clA
{public:
    ~clB()
    {cout<<"clB destructed.\n";}
};
```

```
int main()
{
    clA *ptr1 = new clA;
    delete ptr1;
    clA *ptr2 = new clB;
    delete ptr2;
    return 0;
};
```



```
C:\Windows\system32\cmd.exe
clA destructed.
clA destructed.
Press any key to continue . . .
```



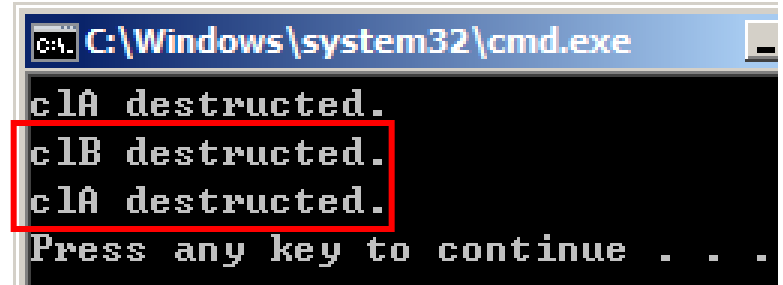
2.5 Virtual destructor

- It is a good policy to always make destructors virtual.
 - Why?
 - Example:

```
class clA
{public:
    virtual ~clA()
    {cout<<"clA destructed.\n";}
};

class clB: public clA
{public:
    ~clB()
    {cout<<"clB destructed.\n";}
};
```

```
int main()
{
    clA *ptr1 = new clA;
    delete ptr1;
    clA *ptr2 = new clB;
    delete ptr2;
    return 0;
};
```



```
C:\Windows\system32\cmd.exe
clA destructed.
clB destructed.
clA destructed.
Press any key to continue . . .
```



3. Example of Polymorphism

- Attack()



Swordsman



Archer



Magician

3. Example of Polymorphism

- A character is try to perform attack action, but the attack for all 3 jobs are different:
 - swordsman :: chop, damage should be determined by player's AP and enemy's DP
 - Archer :: shoot, damage should be determined by player's speed and enemy's DP
 - Magician :: fire ball, damage should be determined by player's intelligence
- Since which job the user is using will be determined according to user's choice, in execution stage. Therefore, the run-time polymorphism is needed here.



3. Example of Polymorphism

```
class player
{
public:
    virtual void attack();
};
```

```
class swordsman : public player
{
public:
    void attack(); // chop
};
```

```
class magician: public player
{
public:
    void attack(); // fireBall
};
```

```
class archer: public player
{
public:
    void attack(); // shoot
};
```



Summary

- Modern object-oriented programming (OOP) technique provide 3 capabilities:
 - *Encapsulation*: is the process of combining data and functions into a single unit called class.
 - *Inheritance*: a means of specifying hierarchical relationships between classes.
 - *Polymorphism*: is the ability to use an operator or function in different ways.

