

Object-Oriented Programming

- Object-oriented programming - many definitions
 - exploitation of class objects, with private data members and associated access functions (cf. concept of an abstract data type)
 - However, Ellis and Stroustrup give a more limited meaning:

‘The use of derived classes and virtual functions is often called object-oriented programming’

So, we need some more C++!

Object-Oriented Programming

Interface, Implementation, and Application Files

- Preferred practice for programs dealing with classes: 3 files
 - Interface
 - » between implementation and application
 - » Header File that declares the class type
 - » Functions are declared, not defined (except inline functions)
 - Implementation
 - » `#includes` the interface file
 - » contains the function definitions
 - Application ...

Object-Oriented Programming

Interface, Implementation, and Application Files

- Preferred practice for programs dealing with classes: 3 files
 - Interface
 - Implementation
 - Application
 - » `#includes` the interface file
 - » contains other (application) functions, including the `main` function

Object-Oriented Programming

Interface, Implementation, and Application Files

- When writing an application, we are class users
 - don't want to know about the implementation of the class (c.f ADTs)
 - Thus, the interface must furnish all the necessary information to use the class
 - Also, the implementation should be quite general (cf. reusability)

Object-Oriented Programming

A Class for Sets

- Required data type: sets of integers
- Required functions:
 - declaration, e.g.
`iset S, T=1000, U=T, V(1000);`
 - » S should be empty
 - » T, U, and V should contain just one element (1000)
 - adding an element, e.g.
`S += x`
 - removing an element, e.g.
`S -= x`
 - » must be valid even if x is not an element of S

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A Class for Sets

- Required data type: sets of integers
- Required functions:
 - Test if an element is included in the set, e.g.
`if (S(x)) ... // is x in set X`
 - Display all elements in increasing order, e.g.
`S.print();`
 - Set assignment, e.g.
`T = S`

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A Class for Sets

- Required data type: sets of integers
- Required functions:
 - Inquiring about the number of elements by converting to type int, e.g.
`cout << "S contains " << int(S) << "elements";`
 - Inquiring if the number of elements in the set is zero, e.g.
`if (S==0)`
`if (!S)`

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A Class for Sets

- Note that we have NOT specified how the set is to be represented or implemented (again, cf. ADTs)

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A Class for Sets - Application

```
// SETAPPL: Demonstration program for set operations
//          (application; file name: setappl.cpp)

#include "iset.h"

int main()
{
    iset S=1000, T, U=S;
    if (!T) cout << "T is empty.\n";
    if int(U) cout << "U is not empty.\n";
    S += 100; S += 10000;
    ((s += 10) +=1) += 20) += 200;
    cout << "There are " << int(S) << "elements in S\n";
    T += 50; T += 50;
    cout << "S: "; S.print();
    S -= 1000; cout << "1000 removed from S\n";
    if (S(1000))
        cout << "1000 belongs to S (error)\n";
    else
        cout << "1000 is no longer in S\n");
}
```

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A Class for Sets - Application

```
    if (S(100))
        cout << "100 still belongs to s\n";
    cout << "S: "; S.print();
    cout << "T: "; T.print();
    cout << "U: "; U.print();
    T = S;
    cout << "After assigning S to T, we have T: ";
    T.print();
    return 0;
}
```

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A Class for Sets - Application

Expected output

```
T is empty
U is not empty
There are 7 elements in S
S: 1 10 20 100 200 1000 10000
1000 removed from S
1000 is no longer in S
100 still belongs to S
S: 1 10 20 100 200 10000
T: 50
U: 1000
After assigning S to T, we have T:1 10 20 100 200 10000
```

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A Class for Sets - Application

```
// ISET.H:   Header file for set operations
//           (interface; file name:  iset.h)

#include "iostream.h"

class iset {
public:
    iset()                // constructor to begin
    {   a = NULL;         // with empty set
        n = 0;
    }
    iset(int x)           // constructor to begin
    {   a = NULL;         // with one element x
        *this += x;
        n = 1;
    }
    ~iset()              // destructor
    {   delete[] a;
    }
}
```

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A Class for Sets - Application

```
    iset &operator+=(int x); // adds x to the set
    iset &operator-=(int x); // removes x from the set
    int operator()(int x) const; // is x in the set?
    void print() const;          // prints all elements of
                                // the set on one line

    iset &operator=(iset S); // assignment operator
    iset (const iset &S);    // copy constructor NB
    operator int()           // convert iset to int
    { return n;
    }

private:
    int n, *a;
}
```

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A Class for Sets - Application

```
// ISET:  Implementation file for set operations;  
//        (implmentation; file name: iset.cpp)  
// Note:  
// using a relatively inefficient array representation  
  
#include "iset.h"  
  
const int blocksize=5;  // may be replaced with larger  
                        // value
```

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A Class for Sets - Application

```
static int *memoryspace(int *p0, int n0, int n1)

/* if p0 == NULL, allocate an area for n1 integers */
/* if p0 != NULL, increase or decrease old sequence */
/* p0[0], ... , p[n0-1] */
/* in either case, the resulting new sequence is */
/* p1[0], ..., p1[n1-1], and p1 is returned */

{
    int *p1 = new int[n1];
    if (p0 != NULL) // copy from p0 to p1:
    {
        for (int i=(n0<n1?n0:n1)-1; i>=0; i--)
            p1[i] = p0[i];
        delete p0;
    }
    return p1;
}
```

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A Class for Sets - Application

```
int binsearch(int x, int *a, int n)

/* The array a[0], ... , a[n-1] is searched for x
   Return value:
       0 if n == 0 or x <= a[0]
       n if x > a[n-1]
       i if a[i-1] < x <= a[i]
*/

{   int m, l, r;
    if (n == 0 || x <= a[0]) return 0;
    if (x > a[n-1]) return n;
    l = 0; r = n-1;
    while (r - l > 1)
    {   m = (l + r)/2;
        (x <= a[m] ? r : l) = m;    // ouch! real C!
    }
    return r;
}
```


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A Class for Sets - Application

```
iset &iset::operator+=(int x)
{  int i=binsearch(x, a, n), j;  // !!
   if (i >= n || x != a[i]) // x is not yet in set?
   {  if (n % blocksize == 0)
       a = memspace(a, n, n+ blocksize);
       for (j=n; j>i; j--)
           a[j] = a[j-1];
       n++;
       a[i] = x;
   }
   return *this;
}
```

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A Class for Sets - Application

```
iset &iset::operator-=(int x)
{
    int i=binsearch(x, a, n), j;    // !!
    if (i < n && x == a[i])
    {
        n--;
        for (j=i; j<n; j++)
            a[j] = a[j-1];
        if (n % blocksize == 0)
            a = memspace(a, n+1, n);    // release one
                                        // block
    }
    return *this;
}
```

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A Class for Sets - Application

```
void iset::print() const
{
    int i;
    for (i=0; i<n; i++)
        cout << a[i] << " ";
}
```

```
void iset::operator()(int x) const
{
    int i=binsearch(x, a, n);
    return i < n && x == a[i];
}
```

```
static int *newcopy(int n, int *a)
// copy a[0], ..., a[n-1] to a newly allocate area
// and return the new start address
{
    int *p = new int[n];
    for (int i=0; i<n; i++)
        p[i] = a[i];
    return p;
}
```

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A Class for Sets - Application

```
iset &iset::operator=(iset S) // assignment operator
{
    delete a;
    n = S.n;
    a = newcopy(n, S.a);
    return *this;
}
```

```
iset::iset(const iset &S) // copy constructor
{
    n = S.n;
    a = newcopy(n, S.a);
}
```

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Exercises

13. Implement and test `iset` class as defined

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Derived Classes and Inheritance

- Given a class B, we can derive a new one D
 - comprising all the members of B
 - and some new ones beside
- we simply refer to B in the declaration of D
 - B is called the base class
 - D is called the derived class
- the derived class inherits the members of the base class

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A Class for Sets - Application

```
/* Consider the new class object geom_obj */

#include <iostream.h>

class geom_obj {
public:
    geom_obj(float x=0, float y=0): xC(x), yC(y){}
    void printcentre() const
    {   cout << xC << " " << yC << endl;
    }
protected:    // new keyword
    float xC, yC;
};

/* not a lot we can do with this class as it stands */
/* we wish to extend it to deal with circles and */
/* squares */
```

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A Class for Sets - Application

```
/* define derived class objects circle and square */

class circle: public geom_obj { // base class
public:                          // inherit all public
    circle(float x_C, float y_C, float r)
        : geom_obj(x_C, y_C)
    { radius = r;
    }
    float area() const
    { return PI * radius * radius;
    }
private:
    float radius;
};
```

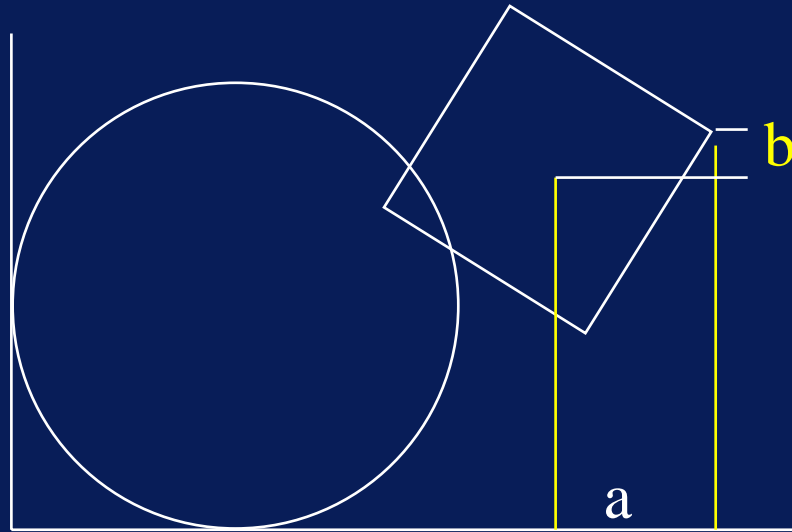

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A Class for Sets - Application

```
/* define derived class objects circle and square */
/* square defined by its centre and vertex          */
class square: public geom_obj { // base class
public: // inherit all public
    square(float x_C, float y_C, float x, float y)
        : geom_obj(x_C, y_C)
    {
        x1 = x;
        y1 = y;
    }
    float area() const
    {
        float a, b;
        a = x1 - x_C; b = y1 - y_C;
        return 2 * (a * a + b * b);
    }
private:
    float x1, y1;
};
```

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Derived Classes and Inheritance



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Derived Classes and Inheritance

- `circle` and `square` are extensions of their base class `geom_obj`
- the keyword `public` used in the declaration specifies that all public members of the base class `geom_obj` are also regarded as public members of the derived class
 - class `square` is publicly derived from `geom_obj`

```
square S(3, 3.5, 4.37, 3.85);  
S.printcentre();
```

 - » `printcentre()` is a public class member function of `geom_obj`

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Derived Classes and Inheritance

- `xC` and `yC` are protected members of the base class `geom_obj`
- but they are used in the `area` member function of `square`
- protected members are similar to private ones
 - except that a derived class has access to protected members of its base class
 - a derived class does not have access to private members of its base class

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Derived Classes and Inheritance

- User-defined assignment operators
 - if an assignment operator is defined as a member function of a base class, it is not inherited by any derived class

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Derived Classes and Inheritance

- Constructors and destructors of derived and base classes
 - When an object of (derived) class is created
 - » the constructor of the base class is called first
 - » the constructor of the derived class is called next
 - When an object of a (derived) class is destroyed
 - » the destructor of the derived class is called first
 - » the destructor of the base class is called next

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Derived Classes and Inheritance

- Constructors and destructors of derived and base classes
 - We can pass arguments from the constructor in a derived class to the constructor of its base class
 - » normally do this to initialize the data members of the base class
 - » **write a constructor initializer**

```
class square: public geom_obj {  
public:  
    square(float x_C, float y_C, float x, float y)  
        : geom_obj(x_C, y_C) // con. init.  
}
```

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Derived Classes and Inheritance

- » since the `geom_obj` constructor has default arguments, this initializer is not obligatory here
- » if we omit it, the constructor of `geom_obj` is called with its default argument values of 0
- » however, the initializer would really have been required if there had been no default arguments, i.e. if we had omitted the `=0` from the constructor:

```
class geom_obj {  
public:  
    geom_obj(float x=0, float y=0): xC(x), yC(y){}
```


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Derived Classes and Inheritance

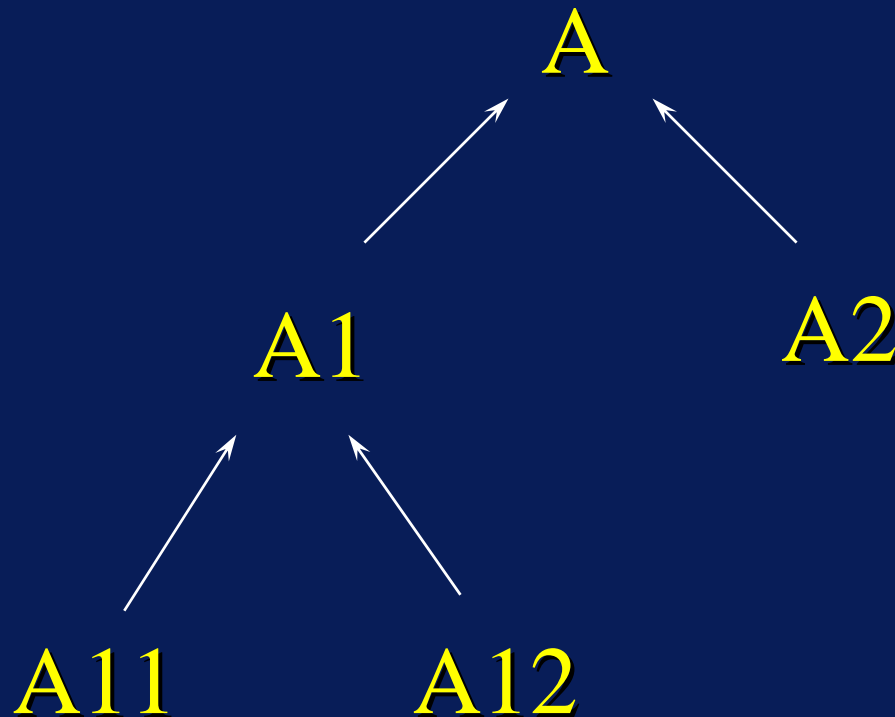
```
int main()
{
    circle C(2, 2.5, 2);
    square S(3, 3.5, 4.37, 3.85);
    cout << "Centre of circle: "; C.printcentre();
    cout << "Centre of square: "; S.printcentre();
    cout << "Area of circle:      " << C.area() << endl;
    cout << "Area of square:      " << S.area() << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

```
/* output */
```

```
Centre of circle: 2 2.5
Centre of square: 3 3.5
Area of circle:    12.5664
Area of square:    3.9988
```

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Derived Classes and Inheritance



A tree of (derived) classes

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Derived Classes and Inheritance

- Conversion from derived to base class
 - allowed: conversion from derived to base class
 - NOT allowed: conversion from base to derived
 - Same applies to corresponding pointer types
 - why? derived class objects may contain members that do not belong to the base class

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Derived Classes and Inheritance

```
/* code fragments to illustrate legal and illegal */
/* class conversions */

class B {...};           // base class B
class D: public B{ ...} // derived class D

...
B b, *pb;
D d, *pd;
...
b = d;           // from derived to base: OK
pb = pd;         // corresponding pointer types: OK
d = b;           // from base to derived: error
d = (D)b;        // even with a cast: error
pd = pb;         // corresponding pointer types: error
pd = (D*)b;      // with cast: technically OK but suspicious
```

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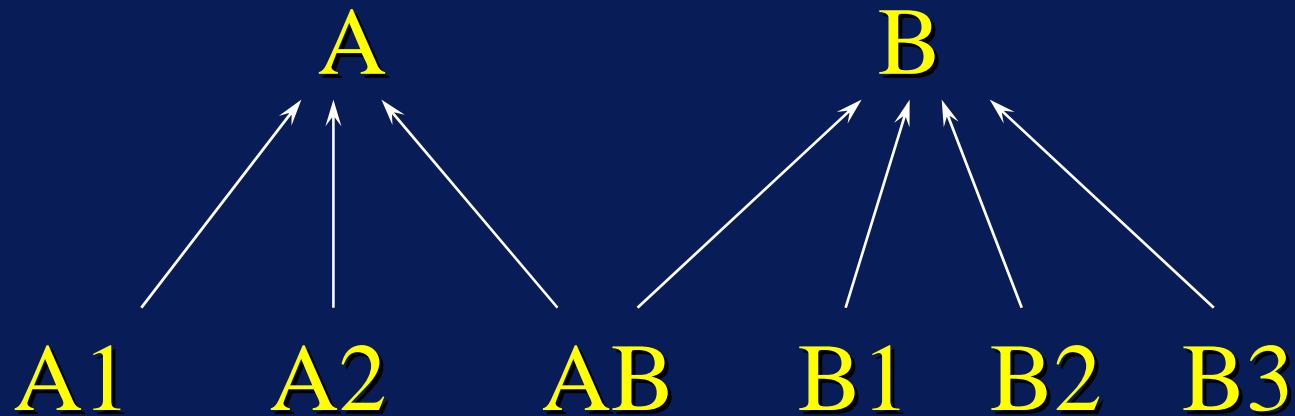
Derived Classes and Inheritance

- Multiple inheritance
 - a class can be derived from more than one base class
 - » C++ Release 2

```
class A {...}; // base class A
class B {...}; // base class B
class AB: public A, public B {
...
}
```

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Derived Classes and Inheritance



Multiple Inheritance

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Derived Classes and Inheritance

- Multiple inheritance
 - If AB has a constructor with parameters, we can pass these to each base class:

```
class AB {  
public:  
    AB(int n=0, float x=0, char ch='A')  
        :A(n, ch), B(n, x)  
    {  
        ...  
    }
```

- The creation of an object of class AB causes the three constructors for A, B, and AB, in that order, to be called.

Object-Oriented Programming

Virtual Functions and Late Binding

- Suppose we have declared class `ctype` as follows:

```
class ctype {  
public:  
    virtual void f()  
    { ...  
    }  
    ...  
};
```

- the keyword `virtual` is important if
 - » `ctype` has derived classes, e.g. `ctype1` and `ctype2`, (i.e. it is a base class for derived classes `ctype1` and `ctype2`)
 - » and we are using pointers to class objects

Object-Oriented Programming

Virtual Functions and Late Binding

- If we define only a pointer to the class and create the class object dynamically

```
ctype *p;  
...  
p = new ctype;
```

- the `ctype` object `*p` created in this way is only loosely related to `p`
 - » `p` can also point to the other `ctype` objects

Object-Oriented Programming

Virtual Functions and Late Binding

- Let's declare two derived classes

```
class ctype1: public ctype {  
public:  
    void f() {...}  
    ...  
};
```

```
class ctype2: public ctype {  
public:  
    void f() {...};  
};
```

```
ctype *p
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Virtual Functions and Late Binding

- since conversion of pointer to derived class to pointer to base class is allowed we can have:

```
p = new ctype1
```

```
/* or */
```

```
p = new ctype2
```

- the three class types `ctype`, `ctype1`, and `ctype2` have member functions with the same name (`f`)
 - `f` is a virtual function

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Virtual Functions and Late Binding

- $f()$ is a virtual function

- given the function call

- $p \rightarrow f()$

- the decision as to which of the three possible functions

- $c_{type}::f$

- $c_{type1}::f$

- $c_{type2}::f$

- is made at run-time on the basis of type of object pointed to by p

Object-Oriented Programming

Virtual Functions and Late Binding

- This run-time establishment of the link between the function f and the pointer p is called
 - late binding
 - dynamic binding

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Virtual Functions and Late Binding

- If the keyword `virtual` had been omitted from the definition of `f` in declaration of `cType`
- only the type of `p` would have been used to decide which function to call, *i.e.*,
`cType::f` would have been called
- This establishment of the link between the function `f` and the pointer `p` is made at compile time and is called
 - early binding
 - static binding

Object-Oriented Programming

Virtual Functions and Late Binding

```
// VIRTUAL: A virtual function in action
```

```
#include <iostream.h>
```

```
class animal {  
public:  
    virtual void print() const  
    {   cout << "Unknown animal type\n";  
    }  
protected:  
    int nlegs;  
};
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Virtual Functions and Late Binding

```
class fish: public animal {
public:
    fish(int n)
    { nlegs = n;
    }
    void print() const
    { cout << "A fish has " << nlegs << " legs\n";
    }
};
```


Object-Oriented Programming

Virtual Functions and Late Binding

```
class bird: public animal {  
public:  
    bird(int n)  
    { nlegs = n;  
    }  
    void print() const  
    { cout << "A bird has " << nlegs << " legs\n";  
    }  
};
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Virtual Functions and Late Binding

```
class mammal: public animal {
public:
    mammal(int n)
    { nlegs = n;
    }
    void print() const
    { cout << "A mammal has " << nlegs << " legs\n";
    }
};
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Virtual Functions and Late Binding

```
int main()
{
    animal *p[4];
    p[0] = new fish(0);
    p[1] = new bird(2);
    p[2] = new mammal(4);
    p[3] = new animal;
    for (int i=0; i<4; i++) // key statement
        p[i]->print();      // which print is called?
    return 0;               // fish::print
                            // bird::print
                            // mammal::print
                            // animal::print
                            // the choice is made at
                            // run-time
}
```

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Virtual Functions and Late Binding

```
/* output */
```

```
A fish has 0 legs
```

```
A bird has 2 legs
```

```
A mammal has 4 legs
```

```
Unknown animal type
```

- If print had not been defined as virtual, the binding would have been early (static ... at compile time) and the fourth output line would have been printed four times

Object-Oriented Programming

Virtual Functions and Late Binding

- Object-Oriented Programming
 - the use of virtual functions and derived classes
- The style of programming is also called **Polymorphism**
 - objects of different (derived) types
 - are accessed in the same way
- Member functions are sometimes called **methods**
 - calling an object's member function is referred to as **sending a message to an object**

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Virtual Functions and Late Binding

- Suppressing the virtual mechanism
 - in the following function call
`p[1]->print();`
 - the function calls the print function for the derived class bird
 - we can over-ride this with the scope resolution operator
`p[1]->animal::print();`
 - in which case the function calls the print function for the derived class animal

Object-Oriented Programming

Virtual Functions and Late Binding

- Pure virtual functions and abstract classes
 - We can declare the function `print` in the base class as a **pure virtual function** by writing

```
virtual void print() const = 0;
```
 - This has some important consequences
 - » the base class now becomes an abstract class
 - » an abstract class cannot be used to create objects (or this type)
 - » they can only be used for the declaration of derived classes

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Virtual Functions and Late Binding

- Pure virtual functions and abstract classes

- » So, for example, the following are illegal:

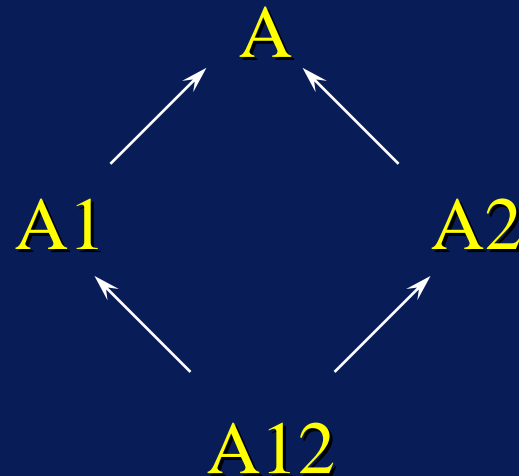
```
p[3] = new animal; // error
animal A;           // error
```

- Making the base class animal abstract makes it impossible to omit any of the print functions in the derived classes

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Virtual Functions and Late Binding

- Virtual base classes
 - assume we have a base class A
 - and derived classes A1 and A2
 - and a further derived class A12 with multiple inheritance



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Virtual Functions and Late Binding

- **Virtual base classes**
 - If base class A had a member a, then
 - Derived class A12 will inherit two members called a (one through A1 and one through A2)
 - Such duplication of indirectly inherited members can be suppressed by using the keyword `virtual` in the declarations of A1 and A2

```
class A { ... };  
class A1: virtual public A { ... };  
class A2: virtual public A { ... };  
class A12: public A1, public A2 { ... };
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Virtual Functions and Late Binding

- Virtual base classes
 - A derived class cannot **directly** inherit the members of a base class more than once

```
class A12: public A, public A2 { ... };  
// error
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Static Class Members

- **Static data members**
 - Normally, a data member of a class type is stored in every object of that type
 - If we use the keyword `static` for a class data member, however, there will be only one such member for the class, regardless of how many objects there are
 - » a static class member belongs to its class type rather than to the individual objects of that type

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Static Class Members

- **Static member functions**
 - cannot use any data members that are specific for objects
 - the this pointer is not available in static member functions

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Static Class Members

```
/* STATMEM: Using a static class member to count
           how many times the constructor person()
           is called                                */
```

```
#include <iostream.h>
```

```
#include <string.h>
```

```
class person {
```

```
public:
```

```
    person (char *str)
```

```
    {   strcpy(name, str);
```

```
        count++;    // increment the static counter
```

```
    }
```

```
void print() const
```

```
{   cout << name << endl;
```

```
}
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Static Class Members

```
static void printcount() // static function member
{   cout << "There are " << count
    << " persons." << endl;
}
private:
char name[20];
static int count; // static data member
};

int person::count=0; // must define (instantiate) the
                    // count member

int main()
{   person A("Mary"), B("Ciana"), C("Georgina"), *p;
    p = new person("Brighid");
    A.print(); B.print(); C.print(); p->print();
    person::printcount();
    return 0;
}
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Static Class Members

the output is as follows:

Mary

Ciana

Georgina

Brighid

There are 4 persons.

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Static Class Members

- **Static member functions - key points**
 - must define a static class member outside the class definition (to instantiate the member)

```
int person::count=0
```
 - since the static class member is associated with the class and not the object, we must reference the member with the class name and not an object name

```
person::count  
person::printcount()
```

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Pointers to Members

- To use pointers to class member functions
 - use the class name
 - followed by ::
 - as a prefix to the declaration of the pointer
 - which will point to the required class member function

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Static Class Members

```
class example {
public:
    example (int ii, int jj):i(ii), j(jj) {}
    int ivalue(){return i;}
    int jvalue(){return j;}
private:
    int i, j;
};

int (example::*p)(); // pointer to a member function in
                    // class example (no parameters
                    // and returning int

example u(1,2);
...

p = example::ivalue;
cout << (u.*p)(); // call *p for u ... output is 1
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

- Example to demonstrate the power and efficiency of object-oriented programming
 - Heterogeneous linked-list of geometric shapes
 - Begin with circles and lines
 - Extend to triangles
 - Use virtual function `print`
 - in an abstract class `element` from which we will derive the appropriate class for each geometry
 - » Lines: defined by two end points
 - » Circles: defined by centre and radius

Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

```
/* FIGURES.H: interface file to build linked-list    */
/*           for lines and circles                    */

#include <iostream.h>
#include <stdio.h>

class point {
public:
    float x, y;
    point(float xx=0, float yy=0):x(xx), y(yy) {}
}

class element {                                     // abstract class
public:
    element *next;
    virtual void print() const=0; // pure virtual fn.
}
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

```
class line: public element {
public:
    line (point &P, point &Q, element *ptr);
    void print() const;
private:
    point A, B;
};

class circle: public element {
public:
    circle (point &center, float radius, element *ptr);
    void print() const;
private:
    point C;
    float r;
};

void pr(const point &P, const char *str=" ", " ");
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

```
// FIGURES: Implementation file (figures.cpp) for
//          linked lists of circles and lines

#include "figures.h"

line::line(point &P, point &Q, element *ptr)
{
    A = P;
    B = Q;
    next = ptr;
}

void line::print() const
{
    cout << "Line: ";
    pr(A); pr(B, "\n");
}
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

```
circle::circle(point &center, float radius,
               element *ptr);
{
    C = center;
    r = radius;
    next = ptr;
}

void circle::print() const
{
    cout << "Circle: ";
    pr(C);
    cout << r << endl;
}

void pr(const point &P, const char *str)
{
    cout << "(" << P.x << ", " << P.y << ")" << str;
}
```


Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

```
// FIGURES: sample application file

#include "figures.h"

int main()
{
    element *start=NULL;
    start = new line(point(3,2), point(5,5)), start);
    start = new circle(point(4,4), 2, start);
}
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

- Some time later, we may wish to add a triangle type to our systems
- We then write a new interface file
- and a new implementation

Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

```
/* TRIANGLE.H: adding a triangle (interface file) */
/*      Class triangle is derived from class element */

class triangle: public element {
public:
    triangle(point &P1, point &P2, point &P3,
            element *ptr);
    void print() const;
private:
    point A, B, C;
}
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

```
// TRIANGLE: adding a triangle class
//          (implementation file for triangle.cpp)

#include "figures.h"
#include "triangle.h"

triangle::triangle(point &P1, point &P2, point &P3,
                  element *ptr)
{
    A = P1;
    B = P2;
    C = P3;
    next = ptr;
}

void triangle::print() const
{
    cout << "Triangle: ";
    pr(A); pr(B); pr(C, "\n");
}
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

- Later again, we may wish to add the ability to distinguish between lines of different thickness
- Instead of deriving a new class from the base class `element`, we can derive one from the class `line` for example `fatline`
- We then write a new interface file
- and a new implementation

Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

```
/* FATLINE.H: additional interface file for fat lines*/
```

```
class fatline: public line {  
public:  
    fatline(point &P, point &Q, float thickness,  
            element *ptr);  
    void print() const;  
private:  
    float w;  
}
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

```
// FATLINE: Implementation file (fatline.cpp) for
//          for thick lines

#include "figures.h"
#include "fatline.h"

fatline::fatline(point &P, point &Q, float thickness,
                element *ptr): line(P, Q, ptr)
    // note the constructor initializer
{
    w = thickness;
}

void fatline::print() const
{
    this->line::print();
    cout << "    Thickness: " << w << endl;
}
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

```
// DEMO: This program builds a heterogeneous linked
//      list in which data about a line, a circle,
// a triangle, and a 'fat' line are stored
// To be linked with FIGURES, TRIANGLE, and FATLINE
```

```
#include "figures.h"
#include "triangle.h"
#include "fatline.h"
```

```
int main()
{
    element *start=NULL, *p;
    // Build a heterogeneous linked list
    start = new line(point(3, 2), point(5, 5), start);
    start = new circle(point(4, 4), 2, start);
    start = new triangle(point(1, 1), point(6, 1),
                        point(3, 6), start);
    start = new fatline(point(2, 2), point(3, 3), 0.2, start);
}
```


Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

```
// DEMO: This program builds a heterogeneous linked
//      list in which data about a line, a circle,
// a triangle, and a 'fat' line are stored
// To be linked with FIGURES, TRIANGLE, and FATLINE
```

```
#include "figures.h"
#include "triangle.h"
#include "fatline.h"
```

```
int main()
{  element *start=NULL, *p;
  // Build a heterogeneous linked list
  start = new line(point(3, 2), point(5, 5), start);
  start = new circle(point(4, 4), 2, start);
  start = new triangle(point(1, 1), point(6, 1),
                      point(3, 6), start);
  start = new fatline(point(2, 2), point(3, 3), 0.2, start);
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Polymorphism and Reusability

```
for (p=start; p!=NULL; p = p->next)
    p->print(); // polymorphic data handling and
                // late binding!
}
```

Object-Oriented Programming

Exercises

14. Modify (and test) the `iset` class as follows

- replace the element addition `+=` with the addition operator `+`

```
S = S + x;
```

- replace the element removal `-=` with the assignment operator `-`

```
S = S - x;
```

- replace the null set check with the function `isempty()`

- add a set union operator `+`

- add a set intersection operation `*`

Object-Oriented Programming

Exercises

15. Modify (and test) the `iset` class as follows
- add a function `null` which removes all elements from the set and returns an empty set
 - replace the inclusion operator `s(x)` with the function `contains()` returning `TRUE` or `FALSE`

Object-Oriented Programming

Exercises

16. Modify (and test) the `iset` class
 - represent the set with a linear linked list and do insertions with an insertion sort
 - represent the set with a binary tree

Object-Oriented Programming

Exercises

17. Create a new set class for character strings
`string_set`