

# 面向对象分析与设计 Object-Oriented Analysis and Design

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## 1 A Tour of C++

- 1.1 What is the C++
- 1.2 Better C
- 1.3 Data Abstraction
- 1.4 Object-oriented Programming
- 1.5 Generic Programming

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### 1.1 What is the C++

- The C++ is a general-purpose programming language with a bias towards systems programming that:
  - is a **better C**
  - supports **data abstraction**
  - supports **object-oriented programming**
  - supports **generic programming**

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### 1.2 Better C(1)

```
//example 1.1
#include <iostream>           ///O stream base
using namespace std;         ///namespace
int min(int a,int b);         ///function declaration
int min(int a,int b,int c);   ///function overloading
int main()
{
    const int a=10;           ///constant
    const int &b=a;            ///reference
    cout<<min(a,b,4)<<endl;    ///output
    cout<<min(-2,a)<<endl;
}
```

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### 1.2 Better C(2)

```
//example 1.1
int min(int a,int b)           ///function overloading
{
    return a<b?a:b;
}
int min(int a,int b,int c)
{
    int t=min(a,b);
    return min(t,c);
}
```

Output:

4  
-2

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### 1.2 Better C(3)

- 1.2.1 Reference
- 1.2.2 Constant
- 1.2.3 Free Store
- 1.2.4 NameSpace
- 1.2.5 Function Overloading
- 1.2.6 Default Arguments
- 1.2.7 Inline Functions

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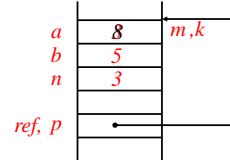
## 1.2.1 References(1)

- A reference is an **alternative name** for an object.
- Declaration (Definition)
  - A. **Type <reference name>(<variable>);**
  - B. **Type <reference name>=<variable>;**
- Usage
  - Must **initialize** the reference;
  - Using reference and variable are the same.
  - The value of a reference **cannot be changed** after initialization; it always refers to the object it was initialized to denote.

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## 1.2.1 References(2)

```
int a=3,b=5;
int &m=a;    //ok
int &m;      //error
int &m=b;    //error
int &k=m;
int n=m;
.....
int *p=&m;
int * &ref=p;
m=m+5;
```



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## 1.2.1 References(3)

```
//example 1.2
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int& f(int index,int a[]) {
    int &r=a[index];
    return r;
}
int main() {
    int a[]={1,3,5,7,9};
    f(2,a)=11;
    for(int i=0;i<5;i++)
        cout<<a[i]<<"\t";
}
```

Output:  
1   3   11   7   9

a[0]	1
	3
a[2]	11
	7
	9

r

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## 1.2.1 References(4)

```
//example 1.2
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int& f(int index,int a[]) {
    int r=a[index];
    return r;
}
int main() {
    int a[]={1,3,5,7,9};
    f(2,a)=11;
    for(i=0;i<5;i++)
        cout<<a[i]<<"\t";
}
```

a[0]	1
	3
a[2]	5
	7
	9

r

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## 1.2.1 References(5)

```
//example 1.3: passing by reference
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void swap3(int &x,int &y) {
    int temp;
    temp=x;
    x=y;
    y=temp;
    cout<<"x="<<x<<"", "<<"y="<<y<<endl;
}
int main() {
    int a(5),b(9);
    swap3(a,b);
    cout<<"a="<<a<<"", "<<"b="<<b<<endl;
}
```

a	5	--->	9	x
b	9	--->	5	y

```
int &x=a;
int &y=b;
```

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## 1.2.2 Constant(1)

- Declaration  
**const T <identifier> = <values>;**
- Usage
  - Must be **initialized**;
  - Ensure its value will **not change** within its scope;
- Eg:
  - const int model=90;      //model is a const
  - const int v[ ]={1,2,3,4};      //v[i] is a const
  - model=200;      //error
  - v[2]++;      //error

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## 1.2.2 Constant(2)

- `const int x;` //error: no initializer
- `double x=1.2;`
- `const double &v=x;` //constant reference
- `v=12.3;` //error
- Differences between symbolic constants & `#define`
  - `const double PI=3.14;`
    - PI has a double type and its value is 3.14.
  - `#define PI 3.14`
    - PI has no type and value. It is only a replacement.

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## 1.2.3 Free Store(1)

- Free Store Operators
  - `new/new[]`: creates dynamic objects.
  - `delete/delete[]`: destroy dynamic object.
- `new/new[]` operator
  - `new <type>(<initializer>);` //individual objects
  - `new <type>[<size>];` //arrays
  - `new/new[]` returns a pointer that points to type.
  - `new[]` does not initialize the memory returned.
  - when `new/new[]` can find no store to allocate, by default, the allocator throws a `bad_alloc` exception.

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## 1.2.3 Free Store(2)

- `delete/delete[]` operator
  - `delete <pointer name>;` //individual objects
  - `delete[] <pointer name>;` //arrays
  - An object created by `new` must be destroyed by `delete`.
  - The `delete/delete[]` operator may be applied only to a pointer returned by `new/new[]` or to zero.
  - A pointer can be destroyed by `delete/delete[]` only once.
  - Notice `delete[]`: Its ignored the dimension and size. There is only one `[]` pairs.

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## 1.2.3 Free Store(3)

//example 1.4

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main(){
    int *p;
    p=new int(5);
    cout<<"p<<endl;
    delete p;
    p=new int[5];
    for(int i=0;i<5;i++)
        *(p+i)=i;
    for(i=0;i<5;i++)
        cout<<"(p+i)<<"\t";
    delete[] p;
}
```

Output:

```
5
0 1 2 3 4
//individual object
//destroy individual object
//array
```

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## 1.2.4 Namespace(1)

- A namespace is a mechanism for expressing logical grouping and it is a scope.
- Declaration and Definition
 

```
namespace namespace-name {
    //declaration and definition
}

namespace Parser { //declaration&definition
    double prim(bool) { /*...*/ }
    double term(bool) { /*...*/ }
    double expr(bool) { /*...*/ }
}
```

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## 1.2.4 Namespace(2)

```
namespace Parser { //declaration
    double prim(bool);
    double term(bool);
    double expr(bool);
}

//definition
double Parser::prim(bool get) { /*...*/ }
double Parser::term(bool get) { /*...*/ }
double Parser::expr(bool get) { /*...*/ }
```

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## 1.2.5 Function Overloading(1)

- When some functions conceptually perform **the same task on objects of different types**, it can be more convenient to give them the same name.
- Using the **same name** for operations on different types is called **overloading**.

```
void print(double);
void print(long);
void f() {
    print(1L);           //print(long)
    print(1.0);          //print(double)
    print(1);            //error:ambiguous
}
```

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## 1.2.5 Function Overloading(2)

- The compiler must figure out which of the functions is to be invoked.
- Invoke the functions that is the **best match** on the arguments:
  - the **number** of the arguments;
  - the **type** of the arguments;
- If **no function** is the best match, the compiler will give a compile-time **error**.
- The overloading resolution is **independent** of the **order of declaration** of the functions considered.

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## 1.2.5 Function Overloading(3)

- A series of criteria of the best match in order:
  - Exact match**: match using no or only trivial conversions;
  - Match using promotions**: integral promotions and float to double;
  - Match using standard conversions**;
  - Match using user-defined conversions**;
  - Match using the ellipsis ...** in a function declaration.
- If **two matches** are found at the highest level where a match is found, the call is rejected as **ambiguous**.

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## 1.2.5 Function Overloading(4)

```
void print(int);
void print(const char*);
void print(double);
void print(long);
void print(char);
void h(char c, int i, short s, float f){
    print(c);           //exact match: print(char)
    print(i);           //exact match: print(int)
    print(s);           //integral promotion: print(int)
    print(f);           //float to double: print(double)
    print('c');         //exact match: print(char)
    print(49);          //exact match: print(int)
    print(0);           //exact match: print(int)
    print("a");         //exact match: print(const char*)
}
```

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## 1.2.5 Function Overloading(5)

- Notion
  - Return types** are **not** considered in overload resolution.
 

```
int add(int ,int);
void add(int,int);           //error: redefinition
```
  - The name of arguments** are **not** considered in overload resolution.
 

```
int add(int x,int y);
void add(int a,int b);       //error: redefinition
```

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## 1.2.5 Function Overloading(6)

- The body of functions** are **similar**.
 

```
int add(int x,int y) { return x+y; }
double add(double x,double y)
{ return x-y; }
```
- Functions declared in different non-namespaces scopes do not overload.
 

```
void f(int);
void g() {
    void f(double);
    f(1);           //call f(double)
}
```

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## 1.2.6 Default Arguments(1)

- Assignment
    - Default arguments can be assigned in the **function declaration** or **function definition**. But it must be assigned only once that is the **first time** the function appears.
- ```
int add(int x,int y=0);
int add(int x,int y=0) { //the body of function }
```
- Default arguments may be provided for **trailing arguments** only ( assignment must **from right to left**).
- ```
int add(int x=1,int y=5,int z); //error
//add(2,4); ⇔ add(1,2,4)? No, z is no value.
```

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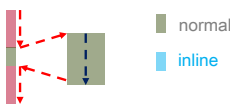
## 1.2.6 Default Arguments(2)

- ```
int add(int x=1,int y,int z=6); //error
//add(2); ⇔ add(1,2,6)? In fact, y is no value.
```
- How to Use Default Arguments?
    - If the number of actual arguments exact match formal arguments, we don't use default arguments;
    - Otherwise (**less than**), the compiler will complement actual arguments **from left to right** using default arguments.
- ```
int add(int x,int y=5,int z=6);
add(15); ⇔ add(15,5,6);
```

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## 1.2.7 Inline Functions(1)

- Objective:
  - When a function is called, it can improve its efficiency, especially those functions which has several lines code but can be called frequently.
- Solved Methods:
  - **Replacement**, that is, Increasing the number of code, saving time and improving efficiency.



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## 1.2.7 Inline Functions(2)

- Inline Function Definition
 

```
inline <type> <function name>(<formal arguments>)
{ //... }
```

```
inline int add(int x,int y,int z) {
    return x+y+z;
}
```

```
int main(){
    int a(1),b(2),c(3),sum(0);
    sum=add(a,b,c); //replaced by sum=1+2+3;
}
```

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## 1.2.7 Inline Functions(3)

<pre>#include &lt;iostream&gt; using namespace std; #define f(x) x*x  int main(){     int x(2);     cout&lt;&lt;f(x)&lt;&lt;endl;     cout&lt;&lt;f(x+1)&lt;&lt;endl; }</pre> <p>Output:</p> <pre>4 f(x) is replaced 2*2 5 f(x+1) is replaced 2+1*2+1</pre>	<pre>#include &lt;iostream&gt; using namespace std; <b>inline</b> int f(int x){     return x*x; }  int main(){     int x(2);     cout&lt;&lt;f(x)&lt;&lt;endl;     cout&lt;&lt;f(x+1)&lt;&lt;endl; }</pre> <p>Output:</p> <pre>4 f(x) is replaced 2*2 9 f(x+1) is replaced 3*3</pre>
---	--

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## 1.3 Data Abstraction(1)

```
//example 1.5
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
const int Max=100;

class IntSet { //class declaration
public: //public members
    IntSet(); //Constructor
    IntSet(int a[], int size);
    ~IntSet() { } //Destructor
    void Print(); //Member Functions
    IntSet Intersection(const IntSet& set);
private: //private members
```

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### 1.3 Data Abstraction(2)

```
//example 1.5
int element[Max];           //data members
int end;
};
IntSet::IntSet() {           //constructor definition
    for(int i=0;i<Max;i++)
        element[i]=-1;
    end=-1;
}
IntSet::IntSet(int a[ ],int size) {
    if(size>=Max)    end=Max-1;
    else              end=size-1;
```

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### 1.3 Data Abstraction(3)

```
//example 1.5
for(int i=0;i<=end;i++)
    element[i]=a[i];
}
//Member Functions definition
IntSet IntSet::Intersection(const IntSet& set) {
    int a[Max],size=0;
    for(int i=0;i<=end;i++)
        for(int j=0;j<=set.end;j++)
            if(element[i]==set.element[j]) {
                a[size++]=element[i];
                break;
```

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### 1.3 Data Abstraction(4)

```
//example 1.5
}
return IntSet(a,size);
}
void IntSet::Print() {
    for(int i=0;i<=end;i++)
        if((i+1)%20==0) cout<<element[i]<<endl;
        else            cout<<element[i]<<"\t";
    cout<<endl;
}
int main() {
    int a[ ]={1,2,3,45,8,10};
```

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### 1.3 Data Abstraction(5)

```
//example 1.5
int b[ ]={2,8,9,11,30,56,67};
IntSet set1(a,6),set2(b,7),set3;
set3=set1.Intersection(set2);           //objects
cout<<"set1: ";
set1.Print();
cout<<"set2: ";
set2.Print();
cout<<"set3: ";
set3.Print();
}
```

Output:

```
set1: 1 2 3 45 8 10
set2: 2 8 9 11 30 56 67
set3: 2 8
```

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### 1.3 Data Abstraction

- 1.3.1 Classes
- 1.3.2 Objects
- 1.3.3 Constructors and Destructors
- 1.3.4 The this Pointer
- 1.3.5 Static Members
- 1.3.6 Const Members
- 1.3.7 Friends
- 1.3.8 Member Objects

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#### 1.3.1 Classes(1)

- A class is a **user-defined data type**.
- The aim of the C++ class concept is to provide the programmer with a tool for creating new types that can be used **as conveniently as the built-in types**.

```
int x;
int x(5);
```

```
Date d;
Date d(2010,2,14);
```

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### 1.3.1 Classes(2)

Keyword **class** Date Name

```

class Date
{
public:
    void SetDate(int y,int m,int d);
    int IsLeapYear();
    void Print();
private:
    int year,month,day;
};
// member function's definition
//...
```

Access Specifiers

Member functions

Data Member

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### 1.3.1 Classes(3)

- Access Specifier
  - **public**
    - The "public" part constitutes the public **interface** to **objects** of the class.
  - **private**
    - The "private" part can be **used** only by **member functions** and **nonmember functions** are **barred** from using private members.
  - **protected**

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### 1.3.1 Classes(4)

```

class Date{
public:
    void SetDate(int y,int m,int d); //declaration
    int IsLeapYear(); //declaration
    void Print() //definition
    {cout<<year<<". "<<month<<". "<<day<<endl;}
private:
    int year,month,day;
};
void Date::SetDate(int y,int m,int n){ //definition
    year=y;
    month=m;
    day=d;
}
```

Scope Resolution Operator "::"

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### 1.3.2 Object(1)

- An object is an **entity** of the creating system.
- An object has three elements:
  - **name** Xmas
  - **state**
    - **attribute** year,month,day
    - **value** 2009,12,25
  - **action**
    - **methods** or **functions** SetDate,Print, IsLeapYear
- Eg. Date Xmas(2009,12,25);

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### 1.3.2 Object(2)

- Definition
 

```

<class-name> <objects-name>;
<class-name> <objects-name>(<initializer>);
```
- Examples
 

```

Date firstDay;
Date Xmas(2009,12,25);
Date *pDate;
Date &refDate=Xmas;
Date arrDate[ ]={firstDay, Xmas};
```

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### 1.3.3 Constructors & Destructor(1)

```

//date.h
class Date {
public:
    Date(int y,int m,int d) //constructor
    { cout<<"Constructor called. "<<endl; }
    ~Date() //destructor
    { cout<<"Destructor called. "<<endl; }
    void Print() {
        cout<<year<<'. '<<month<<'. '<<day<<'. '<<endl; }
private:
    int year,month,day;
};
```

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### 1.3.3 Constructors & Destructor(2)

A constructor is recognized by having the **same name** as the class itself.

A constructor can be **overloaded**.

A constructor has **not a return value**.

A destructor is recognized by having the same name as the class itself with the **complement symbol (~)**.

A destructor **has not formal arguments** and cannot be overloaded.

A destructor has **not a return value**.

### 1.3.2 Constructors & Destructor(3)

- Constructors
  - A constructor **initializes** objects and constructs values of a given type.
  - A constructor can be invoked automatically when an object is **created**.
- Destructors
  - A destructor **cleans up** and release resources.
  - A destructor can be invoked automatically when an object is **destroyed**.
- The destructors are called in the **reverse order** of construction.

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### 1.3.3 Constructors & Destructor(4)

- the **execution** of a constructor
  - initializer list
    - All items in the initializer list are called in the order in which items are **declared** in the class.
    - The initializer list(**item**) is still executed (**initialized**) although it has been **left out**.
  - the body of the constructor
    - All items in the body of the constructor are called in the order of **definition**.

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### 1.3.3 Constructors & Destructor(5)

- There is an efficiency advantage to using the initializer syntax. (Initialization & Assignment)

```
class Date {
public:
    // year is initialized with a copy of y
    Date(int y,int m,int d):month(m),year(y) {day=d;}
    // day is first initialized to a value, then a copy of
    // d is assigned
private:
    int year,month,day;
};
```

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### 1.3.4 The this Pointer(1)

- In a **non-static** member function, the keyword **this** is a **pointer to the object** for which the function **was invoked**.
- \*this** refers to the **object** for which a member function is invoked.
- In a non-static member function, this is the **first implicit formal argument**.
- Most used of this are **implicit**.

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### 1.3.4 The this Pointer(2)

```
Date& Date::AddOneMonth() {
    if(month==12) { year++; month=1; }
    else month++;
    return *this;
}

Date& Date::AddOneMonth() {
    if(this->month==12) {
        this->year++; this->month=1; }
    else this->month++;
    return *this;
}
```

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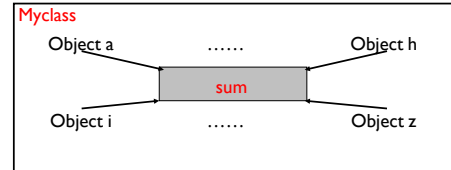
### 1.3.5 Static Members(1)

- The Objective
  - It can get the convenience of **data shares** without the encumbrance of a publicly accessible global variable.
- The features
  - static member is **part of a class**, yet is **not** part of **an object** of that class.
  - There is exactly **one copy** of a static member instead of one copy per object, as for ordinary non-static member.
- Declaration: **static** <members>;

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### 1.3.5 Static Members(2)

```
class MyClass { //...
private:
    static int sum;    //static data member
};
```



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### 1.3.5 Static Members(3)

- The usage of static members
  - **within** the class body, a static member can be referred to like any other member.
  - **outside** the class body  
**<class-name>::<static-member-name>**
- Static members has been created **before any objects** of its class has been created.
- Static members is independent of any objects.

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### 1.3.5 Static Members(4)

- static data members must be **initialized**.  
**<type> <class-name>::<member-name>=<value>**
  - static data members must be defined outside the class body.
  - Its initialization is independent of its access specifier.
  - There is **no static keyword** when static data member is initialized.
  - static data member outside the class body must be **qualified by the name of its class**.

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### 1.3.5 Static Members(5)

```
//example1.6
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class MyClass {
public:
    MyClass(int a,int b,int c) : x(a),y(b),z(c)
    { sum+=x+y+z; }
    void GetNumber();
    void GetSum() { cout<<"Sum="<<sum<<endl; }
private:
    int x,y,z;
    static int sum;    //static data member
};
```

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### 1.3.5 Static Members(6)

```
//example1.6
int MyClass::Sum=0;    //initialization
inline void MyClass::GetNumber() {
    cout<<"Number="<<x<<" "<<y<<" "<<z<<endl;
}

int main() {
    MyClass M(3,7,10),
               N(14,9,11);
    M.GetNumber();
    N.GetNumber();
    M.GetSum();
    N.GetSum();
}
```

Output:

```
Number=3,7,10
Number=14,9,11
Sum=54
Sum=54
```

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### 1.3.5 Static Members(7)

- A function that needs access to members of a class, yet **doesn't need to be invoked for a particular object**, is called a **static member function**.
- There is **no static** keyword when static member functions are defined outside the class body.
- A static member function can be accessed **static members** belonging to its class **directly** and cannot be accessed non-static members directly.
- A static member function can be accessed **non-static members** through **a object**.

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### 1.3.6 Const Members(1)

- Const Objects Definition  
`const <class-name> <object-name>(initializer);`  
`<class-name> const <object-name>(initializer);`
- ```

class Point {
public:
    Point(int i=0,int j=0) : x(i),y(j) { }
private:
    int x,y;
};
const Point origin;           //constant object
Point const vertex(3,4);      //constant object
  
```

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### 1.3.6 Const Members(2)

- Const Member Functions Declaration  
`<type> <function-name>(<arguments>) const;`
  - The **const after the argument list** in the function declarations.

```

class Date {
public:
    int GetDay() const { return day; }
    int GetMonth() const { return month; }
    int GetYear() const;
private:
    int year,month,day;
};
  
```

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### 1.3.6 Const Members(3)

- Const Member Functions Definition
  - When a const member function is defined **outside** its class, **the const suffix is required**.
 

```

inline int Date::GetYear() const {    //correct
    { return year; }
inline int Date::GetYear()           //error
    { return year; }
          
```
- A const member function indicates that it **does not modify the state** of an object.
 

```

inline int Date::GetYear() const
    { return year++; }           //error
      
```

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### 1.3.6 Const Members(4)

- Const data members must be **explicitly initialized** in a member initializer list in the definition of the constructor of the class.
- Because consts and references data members must be initialized, a class **containing const or reference members cannot be default-constructed** unless the programmer explicitly supplies a constructor.

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### 1.3.7 Friends(1)

- The keyword **friend** is a function specifier that gives a **non-member function** access to the **hidden members** of the class and provides a method to **improve efficiency**.
- A friend (function) must be **declared inside the class declaration** to which it is a friend.
- A friend cannot be inherited, commutated or transferred.
- It can be divided three kinds:
  - friend functions
  - friend member functions
  - friend class

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### 1.3.7 Friends(2)

```
//example1.7
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
using namespace std;
class Girl;           //forward declaration
class Boy {
public:
    Boy(char *str) {
        name=new char[strlen(str)+1];
        strcpy(name,str);
    }
    ~Boy() { delete[] name;}
    void Show(const Girl&); //member function
```

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### 1.3.7 Friends(3)

```
//example1.7
private:
    char *name;
};
class Girl {
public:
    Girl(char *str) {
        name=new char[strlen(str)+1];
        strcpy(name,str);
    }
    ~Girl() { delete[] name;}
    //friend member function
    friend void Boy::Show(const Girl&);
```

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### 1.3.7 Friends(4)

```
//example1.7
private:
    char *name;
};
void Boy::Show(const Girl & g) {
    cout<<"Boy's name is "<<name<<endl
    <<"Girl's name is "<<g.name<<endl;
}
int main() {
    Boy b("Bob");
    Girl g("Kitty");
    b.Disp(g);
}
```

Output:

```
Boy's name is Bob
Girl's name is Kitty
```

63

### 1.3.8 Member Objects(1)

```
//part.h
class Part {
public:
    Part();
    Part(int i);
    ~Part();
    void Print() const { cout<<val<<endl; }
private:
    int val;
};
```

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### 1.3.8 Member Objects(2)

```
//part.cpp
#include <iostream>
#include "part.h"
using namespace std;
Part::Part():val(0)
{ cout<<"Default Cons. of Part. "<<endl; }
Part::Part(int i):val(i)
{ cout<<"Constructor of Part "<<val<<endl; }
Part::~~Part()
{ cout<<"Destructor of Part "<<val<<endl; }
```

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### 1.3.8 Member Objects(3)

```
//whole.h
#include "part.h"
class Whole {
public:
    Whole();
    Whole(int i,int j,int k);
    ~Whole() {cout<<"Destructor of Whole. "<<endl;}
    void Print() const;
private:
    Part one,two; //member objects
    int date;
};
```

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### 1.3.8 Member Objects(4)

```
//whole.cpp
#include <iostream>
#include "whole.h"
using namespace std;
Whole::Whole():date(0)
{ cout<<"Default cons. of Whole. "<<endl; }
Whole::Whole(int i,int j,int k):two(i),one(j),date(k)
{ cout<<"Constructor of Whole. "<<endl; }
void Whole::Print() const {
    one.Print();        two.Print();
    cout<<date<<endl;
}
```

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### 1.3.8 Member Objects(5)

```
//example 1.8
#include "whole.h"
int main()
{
    Whole anObject(5,6,10);
    anObject.Print();
}
```

Output:

```
Constructor of Part 6.
Constructor of Part 5.
Constructor of Whole.
6
5
10
Destructor of Whole.
Destructor of Part 5.
Destructor of Part 6.
```

68

### 1.4 Object-oriented Programming(1)

```
//example 1.9
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class Animal
{
public:
    //virtual functions
    virtual char *getType() const { return "Animal"; }
    virtual char *getVoice() const { return "Voice"; }
};
class Dog : public Animal    //inheritance
{
```

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### 1.4 Object-oriented Programming(2)

```
//example 1.9
public:
    char *getType() const { return "Dog"; }
    char *getVoice() const { return "Woof"; }
};
class Cat : public Animal    //inheritance
{
public:
    char *getType() const { return "Cat"; }
    char *getVoice() const { return "Miaow"; }
};
```

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### 1.4 Object-oriented Programming(3)

```
//example 1.9
void type(Animal &a)
{
    cout<<a.getType();
}
void speak(Animal a)
{
    cout<<a.getVoice();
}
int main()
{
    Dog d;
```

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### 1.4 Object-oriented Programming(4)

```
//example 1.9
type(d);
cout<<" speak ";
speak(d);
cout<<endl;
Cat c;
type(c);
cout<<" speak ";
speak(c);
cout<<endl;
}
```

Output:

```
Dog speak Voice
Cat speak Voice
```

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## 1.4 Object-oriented Programming

- 1.4.1 Inheritance
- 1.4.2 Subtypes of Base Classes
- 1.4.3 Virtual Functions
- 1.4.4 Abstract Classes

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## 1.4.1 Inheritance

- 1.4.1.1 Base Classes and Derived Classes
- 1.4.1.2 Single Inheritance
- 1.4.1.3 Multiple Inheritance
- 1.4.1.4 Access Specifiers
- 1.4.1.5 Constructors and Destructors
- 1.4.1.6 Ambiguity Resolution

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### 1.4.1.1 Base Classes & Derived Classes(1)

```
class Employee {      //...
    string name;
    Date hiring_date;
};
class Manager{        //...
    Employee emp;      //manager's employee record
    short level;
};
class Manager : public Employee {
    short level;
    //...
};
```

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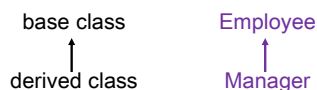
### 1.4.1.1 Base Classes & Derived Classes(2)

- Concepts
  - **base class**
  - **derived class**
  - **inheritance**
- the relation between base classes and derived classes
  - Base classes are **abstraction** of derived classes, and derived classes are **concretion** of base classes.
  - A derived class is **composition** of base classes.

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### 1.4.1.1 Base Classes & Derived Classes(3)

- A derived class can itself be a base class. (**hierarchy**)
- Derived classes has an object of the derived class represented **as an object of the base class**.
- Expression
  - DAG: directed acyclic graph

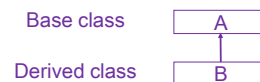


77

## 1.4.1.2 Single Inheritance

- A derived class has just **one immediately** base class.
- Declaration:
 

```
class <derived-class-name>
    :<access specifier> <base-class-name>
    {
        //derived class's new members
    };
```



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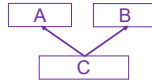
### 1.4.1.3 Multiple Inheritance

- A derived class has **more than one immediately** base class.

- Declaration:

```
class <derived-class-name>
: <access specifier> <base-class-name1> ,
: <access specifier> <base-class-name2>
//.....
```

```
{
    //derived class's Base class
    //new members Derived class
};
```



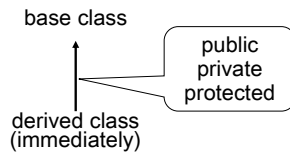
79

### 1.4.1.4 Access Specifiers(1)

- Access Specifiers
  - public
  - private
  - protected
- The access specifier for a base class **controls the access to members of the base class** and the conversion of pointers and references from the derived class type to the base class type.

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### 1.4.1.4 Access Specifiers(2)



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### 1.4.1.4 Access Specifiers(3)

Access ability to members belonging to base class

| Inheritance<br>Member | public | private    | protected    |
|-----------------------|--------|------------|--------------|
| private               | x      | x          | x            |
| public                | ✓      | ✓(private) | ✓(protected) |
| protected             | ✓      | ✓(private) | ✓            |

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### 1.4.1.4 Access Specifiers(4)

```
class Location {
public:
    void InitL(int i,int j);
    void Move(int xOff,int yOff);
    int GetX() { return x; }
    int GetY() { return y; }
private:
    int x,y;
};
void Location::InitL(int i,int j){
    x=i;
```

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### 1.4.1.4 Access Specifiers(5)

```
        y=j;
    }
    void Location::Move(int xOff,int yOff){
        x+=xOff;
        y+=yOff;
    }
    class Rectangle : public Location {
    public:
        void InitR(int i,int j,int k,int l);
        int GetH() { return h; }
```

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### 1.4.1.4 Access Specifiers(6)

```
int GetW() { return w; }
private:
    int h,w;
};
void Rectangle::InitR(int i,int j,int k,int l) {
    InitL(i,j);
    h=k;
    w=l;
}
```

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### 1.4.1.4 Access Specifiers(7)

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    Rectangle rect;
    rect.InitR(2,3,10,20);
    rect.Move(3,2);
    cout<<rect.GetX()<<" "<<rect.GetY()<<" "<<rect.GetH()<<" "<<rect.GetW()<<endl;
}
```

Output:  
5,5,10,20

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### 1.4.1.4 Access Specifiers(8)

```
//derived class
class V:public Rectangle {
public:
    void Function();
};
void V::Function() {
    Move(3,2); //correct
}
```

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### 1.4.1.4 Access Specifiers(9)

```
class Rectangle : private Location {
public:
    void InitR(int i,int j,int k,int l);
    int GetH() { return h; }
    int GetW() { return w; }
private:
    int h,w;
};
void Rectangle::InitR(int i,int j,int k,int l) {
    InitL(i,j); //correct
    h=k;
    k=l;
}
```

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### 1.4.1.4 Access Specifiers(10)

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    Rectangle rect;
    rect.InitR(2,3,10,20);
    rect.Move(3,2);
    cout<<rect.GetX()<<" "<<rect.GetY()<<" "<<rect.GetH()<<" "<<rect.GetW()<<endl;
}
```

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### 1.4.1.4 Access Specifiers(11)

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    Rectangle rect;
    rect.InitR(2,3,10,20);
    rect.Move(3,2);
    cout<<rect.GetX()<<" "<<rect.GetY()<<" "<<rect.GetH()<<" "<<rect.GetW()<<endl;
}
```

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### 1.4.1.4 Access Specifiers(12)

```
class Rectangle : private Location {
public:
    void InitR(int i,int j,int k,int l);
    void Move(int xOff,int yOff)
        { Location::Move(xOff,yOff); }
    void GetX() { Location::GetX(); }
    void GetY() { Location::GetY(); }
    int GetH() { return h; }
    int GetW() { return w; }
private:
    int h,w;
};
```

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### 1.4.1.4 Access Specifiers(13)

|                                                                                         |                                                                                                      |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <pre>class A { protected:     int x; }; int main() {     A a;     <b>a.x=5;</b> }</pre> | <pre>class B:public A { public:     void Function(); }; void B::Function() {     <b>x=5;</b> }</pre> |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

**wrong**, protected member cannot be accessed by object a for class A.

**right**, protected member can be accessed by derived B's member function.

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### 1.4.1.5 Constructors&Destructors(1)

- Arguments for **base** classes are specified in a **member initializer** list in the definition of the constructor of the derived class.
- The multiple base's constructor are called in the order in which the base class are **declared** in the class rather than the order in which the base class appear in the initializer list.
- If a base class has constructors, then a constructor must be invoked. **Default constructors** can be invoked **implicitly**.

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### 1.4.1.5 Constructors&Destructors(2)

```
//example1.10
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class M {
public:
    M():m1(0),m2(0) { }
    M(int i,int j);
    ~M();
    void Print() const { cout<<m1<<" "<<m2<<" "; }
private:
    int m1,m2;
};
```

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### 1.4.1.5 Constructors&Destructors(3)

```
//example1.10
M::M(int i,int j):m1(i),m2(j) {
    cout<<"M's constructor called. "
        <<m1<<" "<<m2<<endl;
}
M::~~M() {
    cout<<"M's destructor called. "
        <<m1<<" "<<m2<<endl;
}
class N:public M {
public:
    N():n(0) { }
```

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### 1.4.1.5 Constructors&Destructors(4)

```
//example1.10
N(int i,int j,int k);
~N();
void Print() const;
private:
    int n;
};
N::N(int i,int j,int k):M(i,j),n(k) {
    cout<<"N's costructor called. "<<n<<endl;
}
N::~~N() {
    cout<<"N's destructor called. "<<n<<endl;
}
```

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### 1.4.1.5 Constructors&Destructors(5)

//example1.10

```
void N::Print() const {
    M::Print();
    cout<<n<<endl;
}
int main()
{
    N n1(5,6,7),
      n2(-2,-3,-4);
    n1.Print();
    n2.Print();
}
```

Output:

```
M's constructor called.5,6
N's constructor called.7
M's constructor called.-2,-3
N's constructor called.-4
5,6,7
-2,-3,-4
N's destructor called.-4
M's destructor called.-2,-3
N's destructor called.7
M's destructor called.5,6
```

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### 1.4.1.6 Ambiguity Resolution(1)

- Two base classes may have member functions with the same name (multiple inheritance).

```
class Task {
    //...
    debug_info* get_debug();
};
class Displayed {
    //...
    debug_info* get_debug();
    void draw();
};
class Satellite : public Task, public Displayed {
    //...
    void draw();
};
```

98

### 1.4.1.6 Ambiguity Resolution(2)

- disambiguation:
  - `explicit` (scope resolution operator `::`)
  - defining a **new function** in the derived class

```
void f(Satellite* sp){
    debug_info* dip=sp->get_debug(); //error:
    dip=sp->Task::get_debug(); //ambiguous
    dip=sp->Displayed::get_debug(); //ok
    sp->draw(); //ok: Satellite::draw()
}
```

99

### 1.4.1.6 Ambiguity Resolution(3)

- If a derived class has two base classes, and these two bases have a common base class, there may be ambiguous. (a class act as a base twice)

```
struct Link { Link* next; };
class Task : public Link {
    //...
};
class Displayed : public Link {
    //...
};
class Satellite : public Task, public Displayed {
    //...
};
```

100

### 1.4.1.6 Ambiguity Resolution(4)

- Disambiguation
  - `explicit`
  - defining a **new function** in the derived class
  - virtual base class**

```
void mess_with_links(Satellite* p){
    p->next=0; //error:ambiguous(which Link?)
    p->Link::next=0; //error:ambiguous(which Link?)
    p->Task::next=0; //ok
    p->Displayed::next=0; //ok
}
```

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### 1.4.1.6 Ambiguity Resolution(5)

```
struct Link {
    Link* next;
};
```

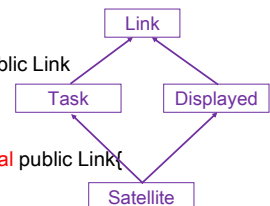
```
class Task : virtual public Link
```

```
{
    //...
```

```
};
class Displayed : virtual public Link{
    //...
```

```
};
class Satellite : public Task, public Displayed {
    //...
```

```
};
```



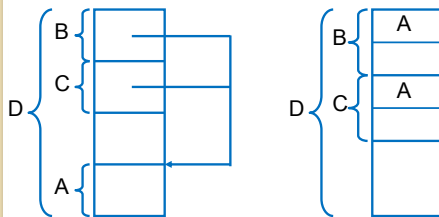
102

### 1.4.1.6 Ambiguity Resolution(6)

The layout of virtual and non-virtual base class

virtual base class

non-virtual base class



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### 1.4.2 Subtypes of Base Classes(1)

- In general, if a derived class has a **public** base class, then an object of a derived class can be treated as an object of its base class, especially when it manipulated through **pointers** and **references**.
- The opposite is **not** true.

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### 1.4.2 Subtypes of Base Classes(2)

- The **assignment relation** between derived classes and base classes:

derived d;  
base b;

```
b=d;           //ok
base &ref=d;    //ok
base *pb=&d;    //ok
```

105

### 1.4.2 Subtypes of Base Classes(3)

//example1.11

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class A {
public:
    A():x(0) { }
    A(int i):x(i) { }
    void Print() const { cout<<x<<endl; }
    int GetA() {return x;}
private:
    int x;
};
```

106

### 1.4.2 Subtypes of Base Classes(4)

//example1.11

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class B : class A {
public:
    B():y(0) { }
    B(int i,int j):A(i),y(j) { }
    void Print() const { A::Print(); cout<<y<<endl; }
private:
    int y;
};
```

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### 1.4.2 Subtypes of Base Classes(5)

//example1.11

```
void fun(A& d) { cout<<d.GetX()*10<<endl; }
int main(){
    B bb(9,5);
    A aa(5);
    aa=bb;
    aa.Print();
    A *pa=new A(8);
    B *pb=new B(1,2);
    pa=pb;
    pa->Print();
    fun(bb);
}
```

Output:

```
9
1
90
```

An object of a derived class can use **only the members of its base class**.

108

### 1.4.3 Virtual Functions(1)

```
//example1.12
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class Point{
public:
    Point(double i,double j):x(i),y(j) {}
    virtual double Area() const { return 0; }
private:
    double x,y;
};
class Rectangle:public Point {
public:
    Rectangle(int i,int j,int k,int l);
    virtual double Area() const { return w*h; }
```

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### 1.4.3 Virtual Functions(2)

```
//example1.12
private:
    double w,h;
};
Rectangle::Rectangle(int i,int j,int k,int l)
    :Point(i,j),w(k),h(l) {}
void fun(Point& s) {
    cout<<s.Area()<<endl;
}
int main(){
    Rectangle rect(3.0,5.2,15.0,25.0);
    fun(rect);
}
```

Output:

375

Calling Rectangle::Area()

110

### 1.4.3 Virtual Functions(3)

```
//example1.13
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class Point{
public:
    Point(double i,double j):x(i),y(j) {}
    double Area() const { return 0; }
private:
    double x,y;
};
class Rectangle:public Point {
public:
    Rectangle(int i,int j,int k,int l);
    double Area() const { return w*h; }
```

111

### 1.4.3 Virtual Functions(4)

```
//example1.13
private:
    double w,h;
};
Rectangle::Rectangle(int i,int j,int k,int l)
    :Point(i,j),w(k),h(l) {}
void fun(Point& s) {
    cout<<s.Area()<<endl;
}
int main(){
    Rectangle rect(3.0,5.2,15.0,25.0);
    fun(rect);
}
```

Output:

0

Calling Point::Area()

112

### 1.4.3 Virtual Functions(5)

- Virtual functions allow the programmer to declare functions in a base class that can be **redefined** in each derived class.
- The compiler and loader will guarantee the correct correspondence between objects and the functions applied to them.
- Virtual functions are **non-static** member functions.
- Declaration
 

```
virtual <type> <function-name>(<arguments>);
```

  - Keyword **virtual** can be used only in **declaration**.

113

### 1.4.3 Virtual Functions(6)

- Run-time Polymorphism
  - the derived class has the **public base class**
  - the **member functions** called must be **virtual**
  - objects must be manipulated through **pointers** or **references**.
    - When manipulating an object directly, rather than through a pointer or reference, its exact type is known by the compiler so that run-time polymorphism is not needed.

114

### 1.4.3 Virtual Functions(7)

```
//example1.14
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class Base {
public:
    Base() { cout<<1; }
    virtual void Print() { cout<<'B'; }
};
class Derived : public Base
{
public:
    Derived() { cout<<2; }
```

115

### 1.4.3 Virtual Functions(8)

```
//example1.14
    virtual void Print() { cout<<'D'; }
}
int main()
{
    Base *ptr=new Derived;
    ptr->Print();
    delete ptr;
}
```

Output:  
12D

116

### 1.4.4 Abstract Classes

1.4.4.1 Pure Virtual Functions

1.4.4.2 Abstract Classes

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#### 1.4.4.1 Pure Virtual Functions(1)

- If it is **not** possible to provide **sensible definitions** for its virtual functions in the base, the virtual functions can be **pure virtual functions**.
- A virtual function is "made pure" by the initializer "=0".  
**virtual <type> <func-name>(<arguments>)=0;**
  - **virtual void draw()=0;**
  - Differs from **virtual void draw() { }**
- The pure virtual functions provide a **consistent interface** for its class hierarchies.

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#### 1.4.4.1 Pure Virtual Functions(2)

```
//example1.15
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class Number{
public:
    Number(int i):val(i) { }
    virtual void show()=0;
protected:
    int val;
};
class Hextype:public Number{
public:
```

119

#### 1.4.4.1 Pure Virtual Functions(3)

```
//example1.15
    Hextype(int i):Number(i) { }
    virtual void show()
    { cout<<hex<<val<<dec<<endl; }
};
class Dectype:public Number{
public:
    Dectype(int i):Number(i) { }
    virtual void show()
    { cout<<dec<<val<<endl; }
};
void fun(Number& n){
```

120

### 1.4.4.1 Pure Virtual Functions(4)

//example1.15

```
n.show();
}
int main()
{
    Dectype d(50);
    fun(d);
    Hextype h(16);
    fun(h);
}
```

Output:

```
50
10
```

121

### 1.4.4.2 Abstract Classes(1)

- A class with one or more pure **virtual functions** is an **abstract class**.
- A pure virtual function that is not defined in a derived class remains a pure virtual function, so the derived class is also an abstract class.
- **No objects** of an abstract class can be created, but objects that point or refer to an abstract class can be defined.
- An abstract class can be used only as an **interface** without exposing any implementation details and as **a base for other classes**.

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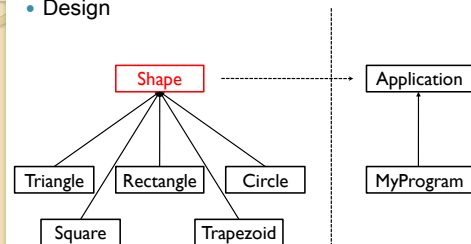
### 1.4.4.2 Abstract Classes(2)

- Problem
  - Five simple shapes are as following:
    - A triangle
    - A rectangle
    - A circle
    - A trapezoid
    - A square
  - Please sum the area of all above shapes.

123

### 1.4.4.2 Abstract Classes(3)

- Design



124

### 1.4.4.2 Abstract Classes(4)

//shape.h

```
#if !defined(_SHAPE_H)
#define _SHAPE_H
class Shape{
public:
    virtual double Area() const=0;
};
#endif
```

125

### 1.4.4.2 Abstract Classes(5)

//application.h

```
#if !defined(_PROGRAM_H)
#define _PROGRAM_H
#include "shape.h"
class Application {
public:
    double Compute(Shape *s[],int n) const;
};
#endif
```

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### 1.4.4.2 Abstract Classes(6)

```
//application.cpp
#include "application.h"
double Application::Compute(Shape *s[],
                           int n) const
{
    double sum=0;
    for(int i=0;i<n;i++)
        sum+=s[i]->Area();
    return sum;
}
```

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### 1.4.4.2 Abstract Classes(7)

```
//polygon.h
#include <iostream>
#include "shape.h"
using namespace std;
class Triangle:public Shape{
public:
    Triangle(double i,double j):high(i), width(j) { }
    double Area() const { return high*width*0.5; }
private:
    double high,width;
};
```

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### 1.4.4.2 Abstract Classes(8)

```
//polygon.h
class Rectangle:public Shape{
public:
    Rectangle(double i,double j):high(i),width(j) { }
    double Area() const { return high*width; }
private:
    double high,width;
};
class Circle:public Shape{
public:
    Circle(double i):radius(i) { }
```

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### 1.4.4.2 Abstract Classes(9)

```
//polygon.h
    double Area() const { return radius*radius*3.14; }
private:
    double radius;
};
class Trapezoid:public Shape{
public:
    Trapezoid(double i,double j,double k)
        :top(i),bottom(j),high(k) { }
    double Area() const {return (top+bottom)*high/2;}
private:
```

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### 1.4.4.2 Abstract Classes(10)

```
//polygon.h
private:
    double top,bottom,high;
};
class Square:public Shape{
public:
    Square(double):side(i) { }
    double Area() const { return side*side; }
private:
    double side;
};
```

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### 1.4.4.2 Abstract Classes(11)

```
//example1.16
#include <iostream>
#include "polygon.h"
#include "application.h"
using namespace std;
class MyProgram:public Application{
public:
    MyProgram();
    ~MyProgram();
    int Run();
private:
```

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### 1.4.4.2 Abstract Classes(12)

//example 1.16

```
Shape **s;
};
MyProgram::MyProgram(){
    s=new Shape* [5];
    s[0]=new Triangle(3.0,4.0);
    s[1]=new Rectangle(6.0,8.0);
    s[2]=new Circle(6.5);
    s[3]=new Trapezoid(10.0,8.0,5.0);
    s[4]=new Square(6.7);
}
```

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### 1.4.4.2 Abstract Classes(13)

//example 1.16

```
MyProgram::~MyProgram(){
    for(int i=0;i<5;i++)
        delete s[i];
    delete[] s;
}
int MyProgram::Run() {
    return Compute(s,4);
}
int main()
{cout<<"the sum of Area: "<<MyProgram().Run();}
```

Output:

the sum of Area: 276.618

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### 1.5 Generic Programming(1)

//example 1.17

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
const int size=10;
template <class Type>           //class template
class Stack
{
public:
    void Init() { pos=0; }
    void Push(Type ch);
    Type Pop();
    int GetPos() { return pos; }
```

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### 1.5 Generic Programming(2)

//example 1.17

```
private:
    Type obj[size];
    int pos;
};
template <class Type>           //function template
void Stack<Type>::Push(Type ch)
{
    if(pos==size)
    {
        cout<<"Stack is full."<<endl;
        return;
    }
```

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### 1.5 Generic Programming(3)

//example 1.17

```
obj[pos++]=ch;
}
template <class Type>           //member function template
Type Stack<Type>::Pop()
{
    if(pos==0)
    {
        cout<<"Stack is empty."<<endl;
        return -1;
    }
    return obj[--pos];
}
```

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### 1.5 Generic Programming(4)

//example 1.17

```
int main()
{
    Stack<char> s1;           //template class
    s1.Init();
    s1.Push('a');
    s1.Push('b');
    s1.Push('c');
    cout<<"Pop s1: ";
    int count=s1.GetPos();
    for(int i=0;i<count;i++)
        cout<<s1.Pop()<<"\t";
    cout<<endl;
```

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## 1.5 Generic Programming(5)

//example 1.17

```
Stack<int> s2;
s2.Init();
s2.Push(1);
s2.Push(2);
s2.Push(3);
cout<<"Pop s2: ";
count=s2.GetPos();
for(i=0;i<count;i++)
    cout<<s2.Pop()<<"\t";
cout<<endl;
```

//template class

Output:

```
Pop s1: c    b    a
Pop s2: 3    2    1
```

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## 1.5 Generic Programming(6)

### 1.5.1 Function Templates

### 1.5.2 Class Templates

### 1.5.3 Standard Template Library

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## 1.5.1 Function Templates(1)

- Declaration

```
template <type arguments>
<type> <function-name>(<formal arguments>)
{
    //the body of function
}
```

```
template <class T>
T max(T x, T y)
{
    return (x>y)?x:y;
}
```

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## 1.5.1 Function Templates(2)

- Type arguments

- Format

template <class T1, class T2, ...>

- T1,T2,... is type arguments. They are not any kinds of data types, but **similar** to any **data types**.

- It must be **instantiated** (**replaced**) by a data type when function templates are invoked.

- Formal arguments

- All **type arguments** must be **used** in the formal arguments list.

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## 1.5.1 Function Templates(3)

//example1.18

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
template <class T>
T max(T x,T y)
{
    return (x>y) ? x : y;
}
int main()
{
    int x1(1),y1(2);
```

//function template

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## 1.5.1 Function Templates(4)

//example1.18

```
double x2(3.4),y2(5.6);
char x3='a',y3='b';
//T is instantiated by int
cout<<max(x1,y1)<<endl;
//T is instantiated by double
cout<<max(x2,y2)<<endl;
//T is instantiated by char
cout<<max(x3,y3)<<endl;
```

}

Output:

```
2
5.6
b
```

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## 1.5.2 Class Templates(1)

- Declaration
 

```
template <type arguments>
class <class-name>
{
    //the body of class
}
```
- If member functions are defined **outside the class body** in a class template, it must be defined as the **function template**.

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## 1.5.2 Class Templates(2)

```
//test.h
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
template <class T>
class Test
{
public:
    Test():b(0) {}
    Test(T x,int y);
    int Getb() { return b; }
    void Print() const { cout<<a<<','<<b<<endl; }
```

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## 1.5.2 Class Templates(3)

```
//test.h
private:
    T a;
    int b;
};
//the constructor must be defined as function
//member
template <class T>
Test<T>::Test(T x,int y):a(x),b(y)
{
}
```

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## 1.5.2 Class Templates(4)

- The name of a class template followed by a type bracketed by **<>** is **the name of a class** (as defined by the template) and can be used exactly like other class names.

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## 1.5.2 Class Templates(5)

```
//example1.19
#include <iostream>
#include "test.h"
using namespace std;
int main(){
    Test<int> obj1(10,1);
    Test<char> obj2('A',2);
    obj1.Print();
    obj2.Print();
}
```

Output:

```
10,1
A,2
```

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## 1.5.3 Standard Template Library(1)

- Components
  - Containers
  - Algorithms
  - Iterators
  - Functors
  - Adaptors
  - Allocators
- Containers
  - Sequence Containers
    - vector, list, deque

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### 1.5.3 Standard Template Library(2)

- Associative containers
  - sset, multiset, map, multimap
- Container Adapters
  - queue, stack, priority queue
- Algorithms
  - A large number of algorithms to perform activities such as **searching** and **sorting** are provided in the STL.
- Iterators
  - Types: input, output, forward, bidirectional, random access

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### 1.5.3 Standard Template Library(3)

- Functors
  - The STL includes classes that overload the function call operator (operator()). Instances of such classes are called functors or function objects

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### 1.5.3 Standard Template Library(4)

```
//example1.20
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
using namespace std;
int main (){
    vector<int> v(100); // 100 is vector's size
    for (int i = 0; i < 100; ++i)
        v[i] = i;
    for (vector<int>::iterator p = v.begin();
        p != v.end(); ++p)
        cout << *p << "\t";
    cout << endl;
}
```

Output:

```
// 0    1    ...    9
// .....
// 90   91   ...   99
```

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### 1.5.3 Standard Template Library(5)

```
//example1.21
#include <iostream>
#include <list> // list container
#include <numeric> // for accumulate
using namespace std;
void print(list<double> &lst){
    list<double>::iterator p; // traverse iterator
    for (p = lst.begin(); p != lst.end(); ++p)
        cout << *p << "\t";
    cout << endl;
}
int main(){
```

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### 1.5.3 Standard Template Library(6)

```
//example1.22
double w[4] = { 0.9, 0.8, 88, -99.99 };
list<double> z;
for (int i = 0; i < 4; ++i)
    z.push_front(w[i]);
print(z);
z.sort();
print(z);
cout << "sum is "
    << accumulate(z.begin(), z.end(), 0.0)
    << endl; //algorithm
}
```

Output:

```
-99.99    88    0.8    0.9
-99.99    0.8    0.9    88
```

sum is -10.29

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