

UEE1303

Objective-Oriented Programming

C++_Lecture 12:

Polymorphism –

Virtual Functions and Abstract Base Class

C: How to Program 8th ed.

Agenda

- Concepts of Polymorphism (Chapter 20.1-20.3)
 - differences between static and dynamic bindings
 - virtual functions for run-time polymorphism
- Abstract base classes and Pure virtual functions (Chapter 20.5)
 - Case Study: Payroll System (Chapter 20.6)
- Inner Workings of Virtual Functions (Chapter 20.7)
- Extended Type Compatibility (Chapter 20.8)
- The importance of virtual destructors (Chapter 20.3)

Polymorphism

- Polymorphism is one of three keys in OOP and supports
 - *function overloading* and *operator overloading* at *compiler* time
 - *function overriding* at *run-time*
 - ⇒ associate many meanings to one function
- Run-time polymorphism
 - enable programmers to design a common interface that can be used on different but related objects
 - reduce complexity and development time

Example for Polymorphism

```
class CPoint    //base class: class CPoint
{
    double x, y;
public:
    CPoint(double a = 0, double b = 0):
        x(a), y(b) {}
    void SetPoint(double a=0, double b=0) {
        x = a; y = b;
    }
    double GetX() const { return x; }
    double GetY() const { return y; }
    friend ostream & operator << (ostream &,
                                   const CPoint&);
    string ToString() const {
        return "Cpoint";
    }
};
```

Example for Polymorphism (cont.)

```
class CRect: public CPoint
{
    //add new private data members
    double lg, wd;
public:
    //add new member functions
    CRect(double a, double b,
          double c, double d) : lg(c), wd(d)
    { SetPoint(a, b); }
    void SetRect(double a=0, double b=0
                 double c=0, double d=0) {
        SetPoint(a, b); lg = c; wd = d;
    }
    double GetL() const { return lg; }
    double GetW() const { return wd; }
    double Area() const { return lg*wd; }
    friend ostream & operator << (ostream &,
                                   const CRect &);
    string ToString() const {
        return "Crect";
    };
};
```

Example for Polymorphism (cont.)

```
ostream & operator << (ostream & out,  
    const CPoint& p) {  
    out << p.x << " " << p.y;  
    return out;  
}  
ostream & operator << (ostream & out,  
    const CRect& p) {  
    out << p.GetX() << " " << p.GetY()  
        << " area " << p.Area();  
    return out;  
}
```

Example for Polymorphism (cont.)

```
int main()  
{  
    CRect cr1(2,3,20,10);  
    cout << "old: " << cr1 << endl;  
    cr1.SetRect(5,5,9,7);  
    cout << "new: " << cr1 << endl;  
    CPoint &pRf = cr1;  
    cout << "pRf: " << pRf << endl;  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

```
old: 2 3 area 200  
new: 5 5 area 63  
pRef: 5 5
```

Another Example for Polymorphism

```
class CCuboid : public CRect {
protected:
    double ht; //ht for height
public:
    CCuboid(double a, double b,
            double c, double d, double e):
        CRect(a, b, c, d) { ht = e; }
    void SetHeight(double d = 1.0){ ht = d; }
    void GetHeight() const { return ht; }
    double Area() const {
        return (2*CRect::Area()+2*GetL()*ht
                +2*GetW()*ht);
    }
    friend ostream & operator << (ostream &,
                                   const CCuboid &);
    string ToString() const {
        return "Cuboid";
    }
};
```


Another Example for Polymorphism (cont.)

```
ostream & operator << (ostream & out,  
    const CCuboid& p) {  
    out << p.GetX() << " " << p.GetY() <<  
    " surface " << p.Area(); return out;}
```

```
int main()  
{  
    CCuboid cu1(2,3,20,10,5);  
    cout << "old: " << cu1 << endl;  
    cu1.SetRect(1,1,8,6);  
    cout << "new: " << cu1 << endl;  
    CPoint &pRef = cu1;  
    cout << "pRef: " << pRef << endl;  
    CRect &rRef = cu1;  
    cout << "rRef: " << rRef << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

Static vs. Dynamic Bindings

- Binding
 - compiler reserves a space in memory for all user-defined functions and keeps track of memory address for each function
 - a function name is bound with function address \Rightarrow the starting memory location for the function code
- **Static binding** (a.k.a. *early binding*)
 - Compiler binds all function calls to the addresses of function code at compile-time
- **Dynamic binding** (a.k.a. *late binding*)
 - function calls are resolved at run-time
 - order of function calls depends on the action taken by the user

Realizing Polymorphism

- Compile-time polymorphism
 - apply static binding
 - advantage of fast speed
 - realized by function overloading and operator overloading
- Run-time polymorphism
 - apply dynamic binding
 - advantage of enhanced flexibility
 - realized by inheritance and virtual functions
- In C++, redefining a virtual function in a derived class is called overriding a function

```
virtual <datatype> <fname> (<para_list>);
```

Example for Polymorphism (w/o Virtual)

- Given class CPoint, CRect, and CCuboid

```
void DisplayObject(const CPoint & p) {  
    cout << p.ToString() << endl;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    CPoint o1(5,7);  
    CRect o2(2,4,5,7);  
    CCuboid o3(1,3,5,7,9);  
    DisplayObject(o1);  
    DisplayObject(o2);  
    DisplayObject(o3);  
    return 0;  
}
```

CPoint

CPoint

CPoint

Example for Polymorphism (w/ Virtual)

```
virtual string ToString() const { ... }
```

```
void DisplayObject(const CPoint * p) {  
    cout << p->ToString() << endl;  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    CPoint o1(5,7);  
    CRect o2(2,4,5,7);  
    CCuboid o3(1,3,5,7,9);  
    DisplayObject(&o1);  
    DisplayObject(&o2);  
    DisplayObject(&o3);  
    return 0;  
}
```

CPoint

CRect

CCuboid

Virtual Functions

- Casting between the base class and the derived class
 - can assign a derived-class **object** to a base-class **object**
 - can copy the **address** of a derived-class object to a **pointer** of a base-class object
 - a derived-class object can be a **reference** to base-class object
 - ⇒ can only access members in the base class, not members in the derived class
- Virtual functions makes that a **pointer** or **reference** of a **base-class member** can be applied onto **derived-class members**

Virtual Functions (cont.)

- Virtual functions tell the compiler
 - don't know how function is implemented
 - wait until used in program
 - get implementation from object instance
 - call dynamic (late) binding
- If class `C1`, `C2`, ... are derived from `C0` which have a virtual function `f ()` (`public` or `protected`)
 - `f ()` can be redefined in `C1`, `C2`, and etc.
 - call by the base-class object or pointer to the base-class object
 - decide which `f ()` to call during run-time

More on Virtual Functions

- If a function $f()$ in the base class is virtual, then all $f()$'s in the derived classes are virtual
 - all redefined $f()$'s in the derived class $C1$, $C2$, and etc. have the same prototype
 - ⇒ **overriding** ≠ **overloading**
 - a virtual function must be a member function of a class ⇒ cannot be *global*, *static* or *friend*
 - *destructors* can be virtual but constructors cannot be virtual
- Major disadvantage: more storage overhead + running slower ⇒ should be used if not necessary

Example of Virtual Functions

```
class B0 {  
public: void ShowFun() { //not virtual  
    cout << "B0::ShowFun()" << endl; }  
};  
class C0 : public B0 {  
public: virtual void ShowFun() { //virtual  
    cout << "C0::ShowFun()" << endl; }  
};  
class C1 : public C0 {  
public: void ShowFun() { //virtual  
    cout << "C1::ShowFun()" << endl; }  
};  
class C2 : public C1 {  
public: void ShowFun() { //virtual  
    cout << "C2::ShowFun()" << endl; }  
};
```

Example of Virtual Functions (cont.)

```
void FunPtr(C0 *ptr) {  
    ptr->ShowFun( );  
}
```

```
//in main()  
    B0 w, *p; C0 x, *q;  
    C1 y; C2 z;  
    p = &w; p->ShowFun( );  
    p = &y; p->ShowFun( ); //what happen??  
    q = &x; FunPtr(q);  
    q = &y; FunPtr(q);  
    q = &z; FunPtr(q);
```

```
B0::ShowFun( )  
B0::ShowFun( )  
C0::ShowFun( )  
C1::ShowFun( )  
C2::ShowFun( )
```

More Example of Virtual Functions

```
class A {  
public: virtual void ShowFun() { //virtual  
    cout << "A::ShowFun()" << endl; } };  
class C : public A {  
public: void ShowFun(int i) { //not virtual  
    cout << "C::ShowFun()" << endl; } };
```

```
//in main()  
C c;  
A *pa = &c, &ra = c, a = c;  
a.ShowFun();  
pa->ShowFun();  
ra.ShowFun();
```

```
A::ShowFun()  
A::ShowFun()  
A::ShowFun()
```

More Example of Virtual Functions

```
class B {  
public: virtual void ShowFun(char c) {  
    cout << "B::ShowFun()" << endl; } };  
class D : public B {  
public: void ShowFun(int i) { //not virtual  
    cout << "D::ShowFun()" << endl; } };
```

```
//in main()  
D d;  
B *pb = &d, &rb = d, b = d;  
b.ShowFun(0);  
pb->ShowFun(0);  
rb.ShowFun(0);
```

```
B::ShowFun()  
B::ShowFun()  
B::ShowFun()
```

More Example of Virtual Functions

```
class B { public:
    void f() { cout << "Bf "; }
    virtual void g() { cout << "Bg "; }
    void h() { g(); f(); }
    virtual void m() { g(); f(); }
};

class D : public B { public:
    void f() { cout << "Df "; }
    void g() { cout << "Dg "; }
    void h() { f(); g(); }
};
```

```
//in main()
    D d; B *pB = &d;
    pB->f(); pB->g(); pB->h(); pB->m();
```

Bf Dg Dg Bf Dg Bf

Virtual Destructors

- If a base-class pointer to derived-class object is deleted, the base-class destructor will act on such object \Rightarrow what's wrong?

```
CBase *pB = new CDerived;  
...  
delete pB;
```

- deletion may not be through
- pointer to `CDerived` object but not free `CDerived` members
- Good to always have base-class destructors as virtual destructors
 - then appropriate destructors will be called

Example of Virtual Destructors

```
class B { public:
    ~B() { cout << "B::~~B()\n"; }
};
class D : public B {
    int * iary;
public:
    D(int i) { iary = new int [i]; }
    ~D() {
        delete iary;
        cout << "D::~~D()\n"; }
};
```

```
//in main()
    B *pB = new D(10);
    delete pB;
```

B::~~B()

Example of Virtual Destructors

```
class B { public:  
    virtual ~B() { cout << "B::~~B()\n"; }  
};  
class D : public B {  
    int * iary;  
public:  
    D(int i) { iary = new int [i]; }  
    ~D() {  
        delete iary;  
        cout << "D::~~D()\n"; }  
};
```

```
//in main()  
    B *pB = new D(10);  
    delete pB;
```

```
D::~~D()  
B::~~B()
```


Pure Virtual Functions

- Base class might not have meaningful definition for some of its members!
 - only for other classes to derive from
- Recall class `CPoint`
 - all other figures are objects of derived classes
 - rectangles, circles, triangles, etc.
 - class `CPoint` has no idea how to calculate area \Rightarrow a pure virtual function

```
virtual void Area()=0;
```

Abstract Base Classes

- Pure virtual functions require **no definition**
 - force each derived classes to define its own version
- Class with one ore more pure virtual functions \Rightarrow *abstract base class*
 - can only be used as **base class**
 - **no objects can ever be created** from it because it doesn't include complete definitions of all its members
- If one derived class fails to define all pure virtual functions, then
 - also an abstract base class

Example for Abstract Base Class

```
class CFig {  
protected:  
    double x, y;  
public:  
    void SetDim(double a=0, double b=0) {  
        x = a; y = b;  
        virtual void Area()=0; //pure virtual!  
    };  
class CRec: public CFig {  
public: void Area(int i) {  
        cout<< "Rec:" << x*y << "\n"; }  
};  
class CTri: public CFig {  
public: void Area() {  
        cout<< "Tri:" << x*y/2 << "\n"; }  
};
```

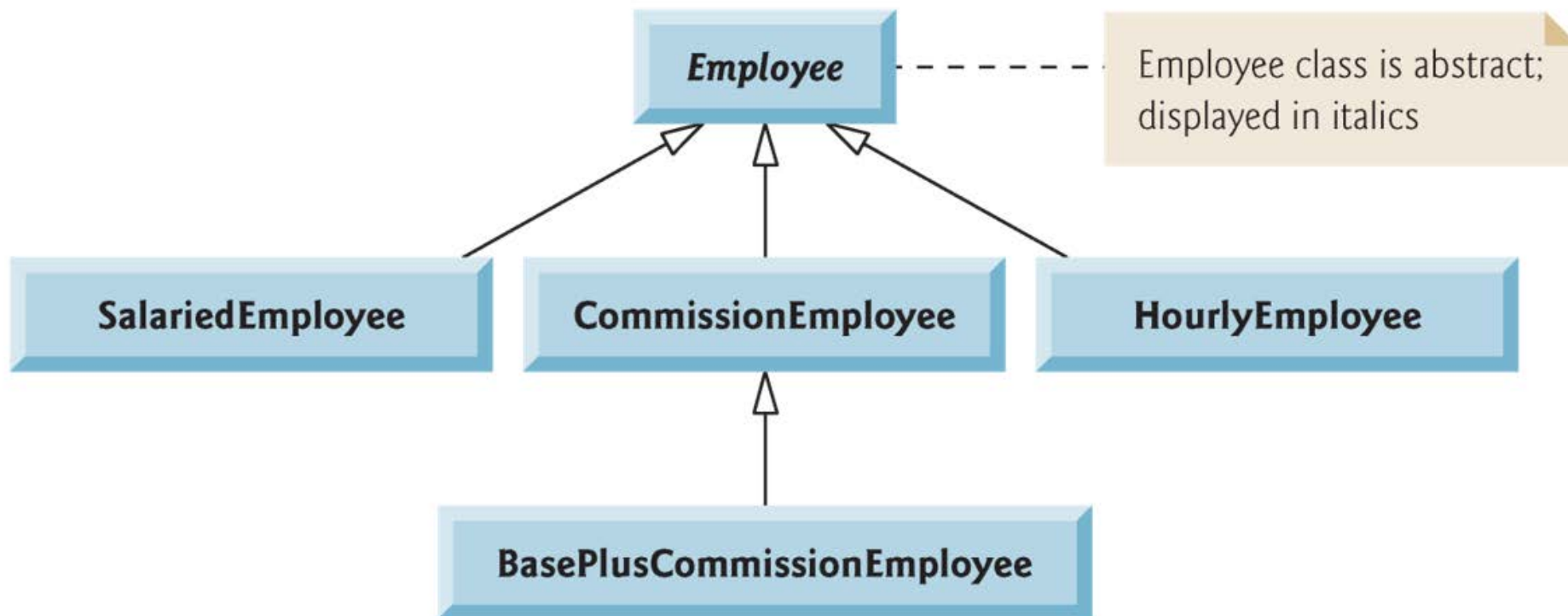
Example for Abstract Base Class (cont.)

```
int main() {  
    CFig *pF;  
    CFig f1; //what happen?  
    CRec r2; //what happen?  
    CTri t3;  
    t3.SetDim(7,5);  
    pF = &t3;  
    pF->Area();  
    CFig &rF = t3;  
    rF.SetDim(9,8);  
    rF.Area();  
    return 0;  
}
```

Tri:17.5

Tri:36

Case Study: Payroll System



Case Study: Payroll System (cont.)

	earnings	print
Employee	= 0	<i>firstName lastName</i> social security number: <i>SSN</i>
Salaried- Employee	weeklySalary	salaried employee: <i>firstName lastName</i> social security number: <i>SSN</i> weekly salary: <i>weeklSalary</i>
Hourly- Employee	If <i>hours</i> <= 40 <i>wage</i> * <i>hours</i> If <i>hours</i> > 40 (40 * <i>wage</i>) + ((<i>hours</i> - 40) * <i>wage</i> * 1.5)	hourly employee: <i>firstName lastName</i> social security number: <i>SSN</i> hourly wage: <i>wage</i> ; hours worked: <i>hours</i>
Commission- Employee	<i>commissionRate</i> * <i>grossSales</i>	commission employee: <i>firstName lastName</i> social security number: <i>SSN</i> gross sales: <i>grossSales</i> ; commission rate: <i>commissionRate</i>
BasePlus- Commission- Employee	<i>baseSalary</i> + (<i>commissionRate</i> * <i>grossSales</i>)	base salaried commission employee: <i>firstName lastName</i> social security number: <i>SSN</i> gross sales: <i>grossSales</i> ; commission rate: <i>commissionRate</i> ; base salary: <i>baseSalary</i>

Employee.h

```
// Fig. 21.13: Employee.h
// Employee abstract base class
#ifndef EMPLOYEE_H
#define EMPLOYEE_H
#include <string>
using namespace std;
class Employee
{
public:
    Employee (const string &, const string &, const string
&);
    void setFirstName(const string &); // set first name
    string getFirstName() const;
    void setLastName(const string &); // set last name
    string getLastName() const;
    void setSocialSecurityNumber(const string &); // set
SSN
    string getSocialSecurityNumber() const;
```

Employee.h (cont.)

```
// pure virtual function makes Employee abstract base
class
    virtual double earnings() const = 0; // pure virtual
    virtual void print() const; // virtual
private:
    string firstName;
    string lastName;
    string socialSecurityNumber;
}; // end class Employee
#endif
```


SalariedEmployee.h

```
// Fig. 21.15: SalariedEmployee.h
// SalariedEmployee class derived from Employee
#ifndef SALARIED_H
#define SALARIED_H
#include "Employee.h"
class SalariedEmployee : public Employee
{
public:
    SalariedEmployee (const string &, const string &,
const string &, double = 0.0);
    void setWeeklySalary(double); // set weekly salary
    double getWeeklySalary() const;
    // keyword virtual signals intent to override
    virtual double earnings() const; // calculate earnings
    virtual void print() const;
private:
    double weeklySalary;
}; // end class SalariedEmployee
#endif
```

Extended Type Compatibility

- Given: `CDerived` is derived class `CBase`
 - `CDerived` objects can be assigned to objects of type `CBase`
 - But **NOT** the other way!
- Example:

```
class Pet {  
public:  
    string name;  
    virtual void print() const;    };  
  
class Dog : public Pet {  
public:  
    string breed;  
    virtual void print() const;    };
```

Classes Pet and Dog

- Now given declarations:

```
Dog vdog;
```

```
Pet vpet;
```

- Member variables name and breed are public \Rightarrow for example, not typical
- Anything that “is a” dog “is a” pet:

```
vdog.name = "Tiny";
```

```
vdog.breed = "Maltese";
```

```
vpel = vdog;
```

- above are allowable
- a pet “is not a” dog (not necessarily)

Slicing Problem

- The value assigned to variable `vp` loses its breed field
 - ex: `cout << vp.breed;` \Rightarrow produce ERROR!
 - called **slicing problem**
- Might seem appropriate
 - `Dog` was moved to `Pet` variable, so it should be treated like a `Pet`
 - therefore not have `Dog` properties
 - make for interesting philosophic debate

Example for Slicing Problem

```
class Pet {  
public:  
    string name;  
    virtual void print() const;    };  
  
class Dog : public Pet {  
public:  
    string breed;  
    virtual void print() const;    };
```

```
Pet *ppet;  
Dog *pdog;  
pdog = new Dog;  
pdog->name = "Tiny";  
pdog->breed = "Maltese";  
ppet = pdog;  
cout << ppet->breed; //what happens?  
//cannot access breed => slicing problem
```

Example of Casting

- Consider

```
Pet vpet; //base-class object
Dog vdog; //derived-class object
vdog = static_cast<Dog>(vpet); //Illegal
```

- Cannot (down)cast a pet object to be a dog object, but

```
vpet = vdog; // Legal!
vpet = static_cast<Pet>(vdog); //Legal!
```

- **Upcasting** is **OK** and safe
 - from descendant type to ancestor type
 - but not the other way (downcasting)

Downcasting & `dynamic_cast`

- Downcasting is dangerous! (self-study)
 - casting from the ancestor type to the descendant type
 - assume more *additional* information
 - can be done with `dynamic_cast`

```
Pet *ppet;
```

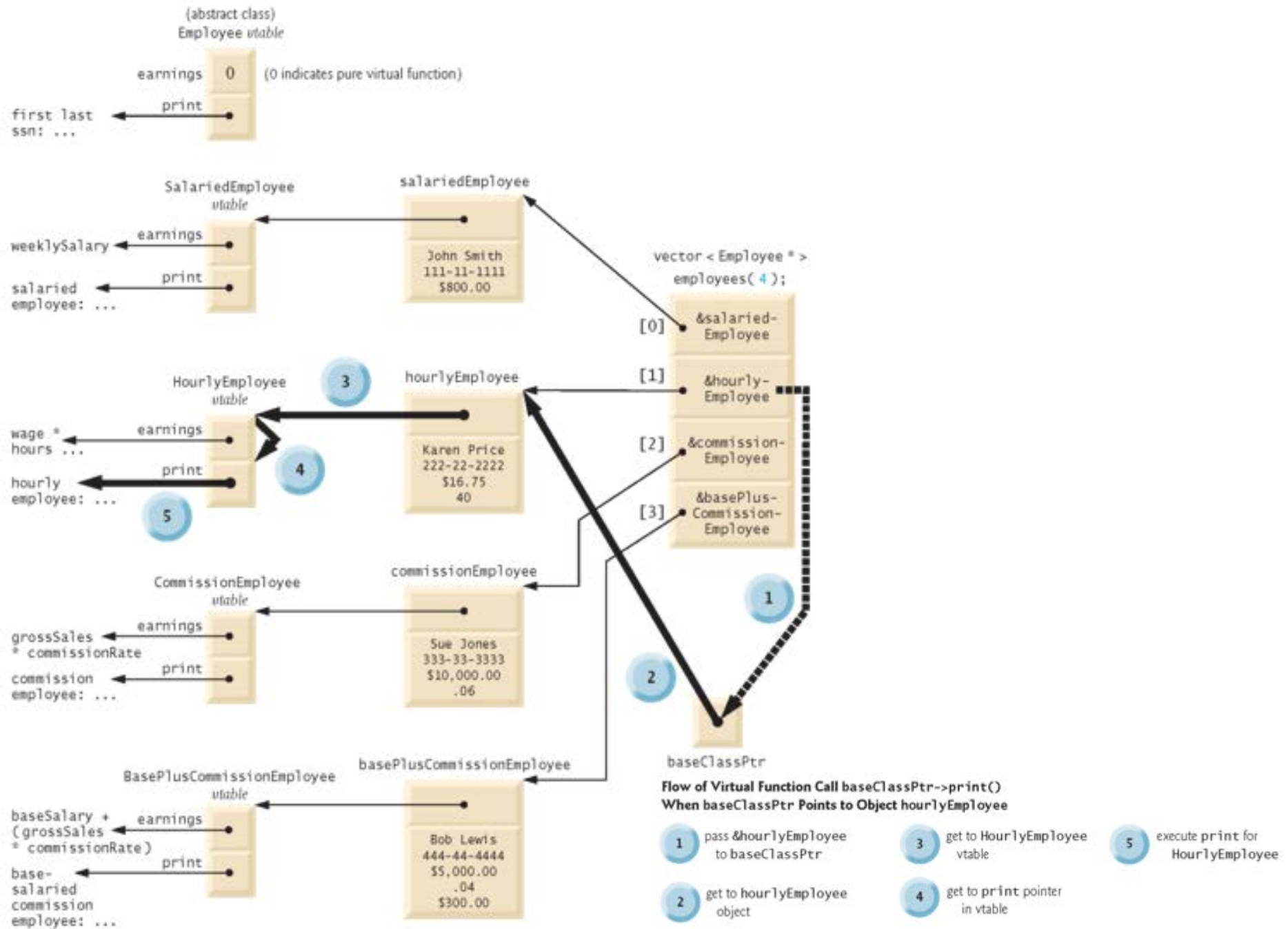
```
ppet = new Dog;
```

```
Dog *pdog = dynamic_cast<Dog*>(ppet);
```

- Legal, but dangerous
- Downcasting rarely done due to pitfalls
 - must track all information to be added
 - all member functions must be *virtual*

Inner Workings of Virtual Functions

- Don't need to know how to use it!
 - principle of information hiding
- Virtual function table
 - compiler creates it
 - has pointers for each virtual member function
 - points to location of correct code for that function
- Objects of such classes also have a pointer
 - point to virtual function table



Summary

- Late binding delays decision of which member function is called until run-time
 - in C++, virtual functions use late binding
- Pure virtual functions have no definition
 - classes with at least one are abstract
 - no objects can be created from abstract class
 - used strictly as base for others to derive

Summary (cont.)

- Derived class objects can be assigned to base class objects
 - base-class members are lost \Rightarrow slicing problem
- Pointer assignments and dynamic objects
 - allow “fix” to slicing problem
- Make all destructors virtual
 - good programming practice
 - Ensure memory correctly de-allocated

References

- Paul Deitel and Harvey Deitel, “C How to Program” Sixth Edition
 - Chapter 21
- Paul Deitel and Harvey Deitel, “C++ How to Program (late objects version)” Seventh Edition
 - Chapter 13
- W. Savitch, “Absolute C++,” Fourth Edition
 - Chapter 15