

# An Introduction to Programming through C++

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# About These Slides

- Based on Chapter 25 of the book *An Introduction to Programming Through C++* by Abhiram Ranade (Tata McGraw Hill, 2014)
- Original slides by Abhiram Ranade

# Categories and subcategories of objects

- Programs often have to deal with categories of objects, with some category itself containing subcategories.
- Example 1:
  - Category: Bank accounts
  - Subcategories: Savings accounts, current accounts.
  - Instances: specific accounts, e.g. my account
- Example 2:
  - Category: Geometric Shapes
  - Subcategories: Rectangles, Circles
  - Subcategory of Rectangles: Squares
  - Instances: specific shapes, e.g. circle with center (10,20) and radius 5.

# Should categories/subcategories be represented in programming?

- Natural to make Category = type/class.
  - Subcategory = type/class?
- Suppose we make subcategories also types.
  - Current accounts and Savings accounts will both have data member `balance`, and functions members `deposit` and `withdraw`.
  - The `deposit` function may have the same code in current accounts and savings accounts, but the `withdraw` function in current accounts may permit some overdraft, i.e. withdrawing more money than you have in your account.
- Key question: Can we give the common code just once?
  - Generally it is not desirable to replicate code, if the similarity is not accidental.

# Classes and subclasses

- C++ allows you to define **subclasses** of any class.
- If A is a subclass of B, then B is said to be the **superclass** of A.
- Subclass **inherits** the data and function members defined of its superclass
  - class called Account has data member balance, and member functions deposit and withdraw.
  - CurrentAccount: subclass of Account. balance, deposit, withdraw will be inherited.
  - But we can **override** implementation of Withdraw.
- One important gain: definitions and code are not duplicated.
- Other gains: later.
- Subclasses of a class can also have subclasses.
- A class can be defined as a subclass of several classes, in which case it inherits from all its superclasses.

# Another motivational example

- Design a class `mTurtle` which is like `Turtle`, but which in addition has a member function `distanceCovered` which will return the distance covered by the turtle since its creation.
- Here is an example of a main program that we would like to write.

```
int main(){
    initCanvas();
    mTurtle m;
    m.forward(100);
    m.right(90);
    m.forward(50);
    cout << m.distanceCovered() << endl;
}
```

- This program should print 150.

# Implementation using “Composition”

```
class mTurtleC{
    Turtle t;
    double distance;
public:
    mTurtleC(){ distance = 0; }

    forward(double d){
        distance += d;
        t.forward(d);
    }
    double distanceCovered(){ return distance; }
    void right(double angle){ t.right(angle); }
    void left(double angle){ t.left(angle); }
    // similar forwarding code for other functions
    // allowed on Turtle..
};
```

# Implementation using inheritance

```
class mTurtleI :
  public Turtle{
  float distance;
public:
  mTurtleI(){
    distance = 0;
  }
  void forward(float d){
    distance += d;
    Turtle::forward(d);
  }
  float distanceCovered(){
    return distance;
  }
};
```

- The definition of mTurtleI does not need to have code for right, this code is inherited from Turtle. All functions that are defined for Turtle are inherited. Also data members.
- The member function forward is defined explicitly in mTurtleI. This definition **overrides** the definition that would have been inherited from Turtle.
- The overridden member function can be accessed as Turtle::forward if needed.
- Detailed explanation of inheritance soon.



# Defining a class B as a subclass of class A

- The general form for this is:

```
class B : type-of-inheritance A {  
    // Body.  
    // describes how B is different from A.  
}
```

- `Type-of-inheritance`: described later.
- B will have all members of A.
- Additional members can be specified in `Body`.
- The function members in A can be overridden in the `Body`.

# Accessibility of members

- Definition of members is in sections named public, private, **protected**.
- Members in private sections can be accessed only in the current function definition.
- Members in public sections can be accessed outside of the class definition, and also in the subclass definitions.
- Members in protected sections can be accessed only in the current definition and subclass definitions.
- Is the definition of class B correct as per these rules?

```
class A{
    int p;
protected:
    int q;
    int getp(){ return p; }
public:
    int r;
    void init(){p=1;q=2;r=3;}
};

class B: public A{
    double s;
public:
    void print(){
        cout << p << q << r << getp();
    }
};
```

# Example (continued)

```
int main(){
    B b;
    b.init();
    cout << b.p      // error: p is private
         << b.q      // error: q is protected
         << b.r      // OK
         << b.getp()
                 // error: getp is protected.
         << endl;
    b.print();      // OK
}
// All errors will be flagged by the compiler.
```

# Action of constructors

- The constructors are not inherited.
- The constructor of a subclass B of class A can be defined as follows within the body of B:

```
B( constructor-arguments ) :  
    call-to-constructor-of-A, initialization-list  
{ constructor body }
```

- Execution order:
  - call-to-constructor-of-A. This initializes the members inherited into B from A.
  - Initialization of the members in B is as per the initialization list.
  - After that the constructor body is executed.
- call-to-constructor-of-A can be omitted in the code above; if so, the default constructor of A is called.

# Example

```
class A{
public:
    int p;
    A(int x){ p = x;}
};

class B: public A{
public:
    int q,r;
    B(int x) : A(x), q(x*x){
        r = 10;
    }
};

int main(){
    B b(5);
    cout << b.p << b.q << b.r << endl;
}

// Will print 52510.
```

# Destructors

- The destructor is not inherited.
- The destructor of a class is called, and it destroys the data members defined in the class by calling their destructors.
- After this the destructor of the superclass is called.
- As always, destructors should not be called explicitly.

# Other operations on subclass objects

- Assignment operators are also not inherited.
- As always a default assignment operator that does member-by-member copy is defined by the compiler. You may override this.

# Polymorphism: motivation

- Suppose I want to perform operation  $f$  on all objects of a certain category
  - Add interest to all accounts
  - Draw a set of shapes on the screen
- Natural implementation strategy
  - Store the objects in a list  $L$
  - Apply  $f$  to each element of  $L$
- Is  $L$  a list of class associated with the category or the subcategories?



# Types and inheritance

- If object  $x$  is of class  $X$  which is a subclass of  $Y$ , then  $x$  has type both  $X$  and  $Y$ !
- An object of a subclass can be assigned to a variable of its superclass. In this case only the members of the superclass get assigned (unless the assignment operator is explicitly overridden).
- The address of a subclass object can be stored in a pointer variable of the superclass. In this case only the superclass members of the object are accessible through the pointer by default.

# Example

```
class A{
    void f(){
        cout <<"a";
    }
};
class B: public A{
    void f(){
        cout <<"b";
    }
};

int main(){
    A *L[10];
    A a;
    B b;
    L[0] = &a;
    L[1] = &b;
    // allowed!
    for(int i=0;i<2;i++)
        L[i]->f();
    // Will print "aa".
}
```

# Motivation: Virtual functions

- The example shows that addresses of objects of a subclass can be stored in pointers of type superclass.
- When dereferenced, the definitions in the superclass get used.
- What if we want the definitions in the subclass to be used? This will often be convenient.
- Can be done by prefixing the function definition by the keyword **virtual**.

# Example - 2

```
class A{
    virtual
    void f(){
        cout <<"a";
    };
class B: public A{
    void f(){
        cout <<"b";
    }
};

int main(){
    A *L[10];
    A a;
    B b;
    L[0] = &a;
    L[1] = &b;
    // allowed!
    for(int i=0;i<2;i++)
        L[i]->f();
    // Will print "ab".
}
```

# Another example

```
class Flower{
public:
    void whoAmI(){ cout << name() << endl; }
    virtual string name(){ return "Flower"; }
};
```

```
class Rose: public Flower{
public:
    string name(){ return "Rose"; }
};
```

```
int main(){
    Flower a;
    Rose b;
    a.whoAmI(); // will print "Flower"
    b.whoAmI(); // will print "Rose"
}
```

# Remarks

- A pointer variable that can hold pointers to objects of a class or its subclasses is said to be **polymorphic**.
- If a reference can refer to objects of a class or its subclasses, it is also **polymorphic**.
- Because of polymorphism, we can consider the type of an object to be either its class, or its subclass.
- Because of polymorphism, we can effectively place objects of a class or its subclasses into a single queue.
  - Note: the queue must hold pointers to objects, not objects themselves.

# Abstract classes

- Sometimes we might define a class, which will have subclasses, but of which we do not expect to create instances.
- Example:
  - We may create a class `Account` and create subclasses of it called `currentAccount` and `savingsAccount`.
  - We may not wish to create instances of class `Account`; it may make sense only to create instances of classes `currentAccount` and `savingsAccount`.
- Classes of which we do not create instances are said to be **abstract**.
  - We can declare a class to be abstract by specifying at least one virtual member function definition as `= 0;`.

```
class Account{ virtual double withdraw(double amount) = 0;}
```

- If we just declare a member function in a class definition, it leaves open the possibility that its implementation will be specified outside the definition.
  - If such a definition is not given outside, then the linker will complain.
  - Defining a member function as `= 0;` tells the linker: the definition of this function will not be given outside of the body either. Knowing this case the linker will not complain.
  - Such a function must be virtual.

# Abstract classes - 2

- We can declare a class to be abstract by specifying at least one virtual member function definition as “= 0;”.

```
class Account{  
    virtual double withdraw(double amount) = 0;  
}
```

- “= 0” seems ugly. Why not just omit the implementation?
- Omitting the implementation is interpreted as: “implementation will be specified outside the definition”.
  - If such a definition is not given outside, then the linker will complain.
  - Defining a member function as = 0; tells the linker: the definition of this function will not be given outside of the body either. Knowing this case the linker will not complain.
  - Such a function must be virtual.



# Types of Inheritance

- `public` : What has been discussed so far.
- `protected`: The public and protected members of the superclass become protected members of the subclass.
- `private`: The public and protected members become private members of the subclass.
- Public inheritance is by far most common, so we will not discuss others in more detail.

# Concluding remarks

- Whenever your program deals with objects belonging to categories and subcategories, use classes and subclasses.
- If a member belongs to several subclasses, consider creating a superclass of them and declare the member in that superclass. If the same definition will work for all subclasses, then put the definition also in the superclass.
- The definition of a member function can be overridden in subclasses.
- Polymorphism can be obtained using virtual classes. This enables us to think of an object as belonging to its class, or its superclass, depending upon our convenience.
- The book gives more examples, and also discusses ideas such as multiple inheritance and virtual destructors.
- Chapter 26 also gives more examples.