CPSC 427: Object-Oriented Programming

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Lecture 16 March 29, 2016 Polymorphic Derivation

Polymorphic Derivation

Some uses for derived classes.

- ► Code reuse. A base class can contain one copy of code that is be used by several derived variants through inheritance.
- Modularity. The functionality provided by a base class can be extended in a derived class. Example: BSquare extends Square by adding board coordinates and clusters.
- Generic programming and isolation. Demo 17-Craps-extended contains a simulator for the gambling game "craps" that can use different dice implementations.
- Polymorphic collections. A company has different kinds of employees with different rules for calculating their pay, each represented by a derived class with its own calculatePay function appropriate to that kind of employee.

Type Hierarchies

Consider following simple type hierarchy:

We have a base class B and derived classes U and V.

A different method f() is defined in each.

Relationships: A U is a B (and more). A V is a B (and more).

A U can be used wherever a B is expected.

```
Example: Definition f(B\&x) ...; call Uz; f(z);
```

Inside of f(), only the B-part of z is visible. This is called **slicing**.

Pointers and slicing

```
Declare B* bp; U* up = new U; V* vp = new V.

Can write bp = up; or bp = vp;.
```

Why does this make sense?

- *up has an embedded instance of B.
- *vp has an embedded instance of B.

If bp = up, then bp points to the embedded B-instance of object *up. The rest of *up is inaccessible because of object slicing.

Ordinary derivation

In our previous example

bp can point to objects of type B, type U, or type V.

```
Want bp->f() to refer to U::f() if bp points to a U object. Want bp->f() to refer to V::f() if bp points to a V object.
```

However, with ordinary derivation, $bp \rightarrow f()$ always refers to B::f().

Polymorphic derivation

The keyword virtual allows for polymorphic derivation.

```
class B { public: virtual int f(); ... };
class U : B { virtual int f(); ... };
class V : B { virtual int f(); ... };
B* bp;
```

A virtual function is dispatched at run time to the class of the actual object.

```
bp->f() refers to U::f() if bp points to a U.
bp->f() refers to V::f() if bp points to a V.
bp->f() refers to B::f() if bp points to a B.
```

Here, the type refers to the allocation type.

Unions and type tags

We can regard bp as a pointer to the union of types B, U and V.

To know which of B::f(), U::f() or V::f() to use for the call bp->f() requires runtime type tags.

If a class has virtual functions, the compiler adds a type tag field to each object.

This takes space at run time.

The compiler also generates a vtable to use in dispatching calls on virtual functions.

Virtual destructors

Consider delete bp;, where bp points to a U but has type B*.

The U destructor will *not* be called unless destructor B:: "B() is declared to be virtual.

Note: The base class destructor is always called, whether or not it is virtual.

In this way, destructors are different from other member methods.

Conclusion: If a derived class has a non-empty destructor, the *base* class destructor should be declared virtual.

Uses of polymorphism

Some uses of polymorphism:

- ► To define an extensible set of representations for a class.
- ► To allow containers to store mixtures of different but related types of objects.
- To support run-time variability of within a restricted set of related types.

Multiple representations

Might want different representations for an object.

Example: A point in the plane can be represented by either Cartesian or Polar coordinates.

A Point base class can provide abstract operations on points. E.g., virtual int quadrant() const returns the quadrant of *this.

For Cartesian coordinates, quadrant is determined by the signs of the x and y coordinates of the point.

For polar coordinates, quadrant is determined by the angle θ .

Both Cartesian and Polar derived classes should contain a method for int quadrant() const.

Heterogeneous containers

One might wish to have a stack of Point objects.

The element type of the stack would be Point*.

The actual values would have type either Cartesian* or Polar*.

The automatically generated type tags and dynamic dispatching obviates the need to cast the result of pop() to the correct type.

Example:

```
Stack st; Point* p;
p = st.pop(); // no need to cast result
p->quadrant(); // automatic dispatch
```

Run-time variability

Two types are closely related; differ only slightly.

Example: Company has several different kinds of employees.

- Employee base class has a large and complicated payroll function.
- Payroll is same for all kinds of employees except for a function pay() that computes the actual weekly pay.
- ► Each employee kind has its own pay() function.
- Big payroll function is in base class.
- ▶ It calls pay() to get the actual pay for this Employee.

Pure virtual functions

Suppose we don't want B::f() and never create instances of B. We make B::f() into a pure virtual function by writing =0.

```
class B { public: virtual int f()=0; ... };
class U : B { virtual int f(); ... };
class V : B { virtual int f(); ... };
B* bp;
```

A pure virtual function is sometimes called a promise.

It tells the compiler that a construct like bp->f() is legal.

The compiler requires every derived class to contain a method f().

Abstract classes

An abstract class is a class with one or more pure virtual functions.

An abstract class cannot be instantiated. It can only be used as the base for another class.

The destructor can never be a pure virtual function but will generally be virtual.

A pure abstract class is one where all member functions are pure virtual (except for the destructor) and there are no data members,

Pure abstract classes define an interface à la Java.

An interface allows user-supplied code to integrate into a large system.