

Virtual Functions

Class derivation is even more valuable when combined with virtual functions--functions that are declared in a base class, but implemented differently in each derived class. Consider the `Shape` class: It will need a `grow` function so that every `Shape` can increase its size.

```
class Shape {
public:
    void grow( );
    ....
};
```

But the `grow` function must be different for each class derived from `Shape`. Thus we make `grow` a virtual function

```
class Shape {
public:
    virtual void grow ( );
    .....
};
```

The `Circle`, `Square` and `Triangle` classes will now provide their own custom versions of `grow`. The circle version might look like:

```
class Circle : public Shape {
public:
    void grow ( ) { radius++; }
    .....
private:
    int radius;      // radius of circle
    ....
}
```

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Consider, for example:

```
if (...)
    p = &c;
else
    p = &s;
p->grow( );      // calls either Circle :: grow
                // or Square :: grow
```

There is no way that the compiler can know how `p` will be set during execution.

Templates

These are "patterns" from which classes can be created. A template looks much like an ordinary class, except that part of the class definition is left unspecified. By this means the class is more general and easier to reuse.

Consider the `Stack` type from an earlier lecture. If we translate this type into a C++ class, we might end up with the following definition:

```
class Stack {
public:
    void make_empty( );
    boolean is_empty( );
    void push (int);
    int pop ( );
    ....
};
```

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If `c` is a `Circle` object, the call `c.grow()` increases the radius of `c`. When `grow()` is invoked through a pointer to a base class, the virtual function uses the correct `grow` function depending on the kind of object pointed to.

If `p` is a pointer to a `Shape` object, then since `Circle` and `Square` are derived from the `Shape` class, `p` could be pointing to either one of these classes. If `p` points to a `Circle` object then `Circle::grow` will be used, and conversely `Square::grow` if `p` points to a `Square` which has to be expanded.

```
Shape* p; Circle c; Square s;
```

```
p = &c;           // p points to a Circle
p->grow( );      // calls Circle :: grow
p = &s;           // p points to a Square
p->grow( );      // calls Square :: grow
```

Notice the use of `->` to call `grow`. Calling a member function from a pointer to an object requires `->` instead of the dot operator.

Many function calls--even overloaded ones--can be resolved by the compiler. Others can't and require dynamic binding by the loader (just how this is done is left to the operating systems course), but the need is clear.

But this `Stack` can only store integers. If we later need a stack that stores some other type of data (double values, perhaps, or a structure of some kind, or a pointer variable), then we would have to duplicate the code of `Stack` to form `Istack` and `Double_Stack` and so on. A tedious and error-prone process at best. C++ provides a better idea.

```
template <class T>
class Stack {
public:
    void make_empty( );
    boolean is_empty( );
    void push(T);
    T pop( );
    ....
};
```

The new, more general, template class looks much the same, but with the addition of

```
template <class T>
void Stack<T> :: push(T x)
{
    ....
}
```

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Notwithstanding the `<class T>` notation, `Stack` does not have to be a class, any C++ type will do. For example,

```
Stack<int> Istack;      // stack of integers
Stack<double> Dstack;  // stack of doubles
Stack<char> Cstack;    // stack of char values
Stack<Map*> Mstack;    // stack of map pointers
```

And for the push operation we would need something like:

```
Istack.push(10);      // put a 10 onto a int stack
Dstack.push(3.4);     // put 3.4 onto a double stack
Cstack.push('x');     // put an 'x' on a char stack
```

Thus from this you can see that C++ is quite a big and powerful language, which should lead to programs that are smaller and easier to debug and maintain! You now have enough to handle the last assignment, though I am sure that you will find Allen Supynuk's online notes most helpful, since there you will find some worked examples.

A good debugger will reduce the need for print statements, but you are still better off with a very small initial set of test data for your program, so that you can run through everything by hand and be sure you have caught all the careless errors.

I made plenty: using **sizeof** when I meant **strlen** (it takes a while before you note that long words have been truncated to 8 bytes!). Also, only with a small example can you be confident that things are working in exactly the right way.

Debugging and Testing

There are naturally many other tricky details for us to cover, but the framework for the discussion has been laid. It is easy sailing from now on. Even so you may wish to hammer out the last three labs this week and next, and perhaps strengthen your experience with **gdb** or **ddd**. Here your lab TA should be able to provide good advice on debugging practice.

Personally I still remember an earlier school of thought which builds very small working programs of the essential elements that illustrate the difficult parts, with the support of print statements.

Only after the ideas are straight are they embedded into the real program.

For example build a program for the last assignment that handles only one or two instructions. Keep the problem as small as possible so that print statements can be used freely and the whole program executes in a few statements. Then the debugger can keep everything in view for you. Once the basic framework is clear, then you can add the full suite of instructions, handle error conditions, and then handle the required form of the output.

Print statements may be preserved in the final version, but put under the control of compile-time debug flags (or better yet, command line parameters).

Returning to Allen Supynuk's C++ and OOP Notes

Why Abstract Data Types (ADTs)?

Abstract Data Types (ADTs) are a higher level way of looking at programming. Prototypical ADTs include lists, stacks, and sets.

Formal definition of ADT

An abstract data type (ADT) is a mathematical model with a collection of operations defined on it. [Aho, 1983]

Stacks

Suppose your program needs to keep track of a stack of things. You have at least two choices for ways of implementing stacks:

- * As an array
- * As a linked list

Each method has its advantages:

- * Arrays are very efficient on storage, but are difficult to extend, easy to implement
- * Linked lists have the overhead of a pointer for each item, are easy to extend, but are a bit harder to implement

Depending on the needs of your program, you will pick one of these methods. Unfortunately, you may not be able to determine which is the best method to use until the middle or end of a project.

The Stack ADT

Ignoring how you implement lists, what sorts of things do you want to do?

```
* void init (Stack S, unsigned int Nitems)
* void push (Stack S, Item x)
* Item pop (Stack S)
* bool isempty (Stack S)
* bool isfull (Stack S)
```

In the best case, you would like to be able to declare things to be of type STACK and ITEM, then choose at the last possible moment (perhaps when you are linking your final program together) which implementation to use.

This is precisely the abstraction in ADTs.

Note

- * classes look a lot like structs. In fact, C++ treats structs as a class whose members are by default public
- by default, members of classes are private. We could say private before int sz, if we want to be explicit

See also [class handout, with variations on a theme, and discussion.](#)

An array implementation of Istack

```
#include "mydefs1.h"
#include <assert.h>

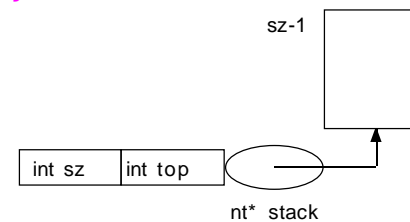
// Array implementation of stacks.
// Grow from high index towards 0.

void Istack :: init (int Nitems = 100) {
    sz = Nitems;
    stack = new int[sz];
    top = sz;      // Stack initially empty
}
```

For now, let's assume all items in the stack are integers. (We'll make our ADT more general when we cover the use of templates.)

Declaring the public interface

```
class Istack {
    int sz;      // stack size
    int top;     // location of top element
    int* stack; // pointer to origin of stack
public:
    // Prototype access functions
    void init (int Nitems = 100);
    void push (int x);
    int pop ( );
    bool isempty( );
    bool isfull( );
};
```



```
void Istack :: push (int x) {
    assert ( !isfull( ) );
    stack[--top] = x;
}
int Istack :: pop() {
    assert( !isempty( ) );
    return( stack[top++] );
}
bool Istack :: isempty( ) {
    return( top == sz );
}
bool Istack :: isfull( ) {
    return( top == 0 );
}
```

Notes

- * assert(exp) does nothing if exp is false, otherwise it prints a run-time error, See King Chapter 24.
- * We are using a default constructor.

The main thing about Istack

```
#include <iostream>
#include "mydefs2.h"

main()
{
    Istack s1, s2;
    int i;

    s1.init(500);
    s2.init( );           // Default, 100 cells

    for ( i = 0; i < 20; i++ ) {
        s1.push(i);
    }                    // try putting 501 elements!

    for ( i = 0; i < 20; i++ ) {
        cout << s1.pop( ) << ' ';    // pop and print
    }
    cout << endl;

    s2.push(10);        // Push a 10 onto s2
    i = s2.pop();       // Take it off into i
    // try s2.pop( );   here
}
```

Note:

- * It is short!
- * Tested by pushing 501 things onto s1 and by adding another s2.pop() before exiting
- * The (correct) output is:

19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0

- * If we forget to call init, we are in big trouble
- * We haven't provided a way to get rid of the stack

we don't have a destructor

A suitable basic destructor might be:

```
void Stack :: ~Stack ( ) { delete [ ] stack; }
```

The question is: does this get rid of just the top item on the linked stack, or the whole stack?