

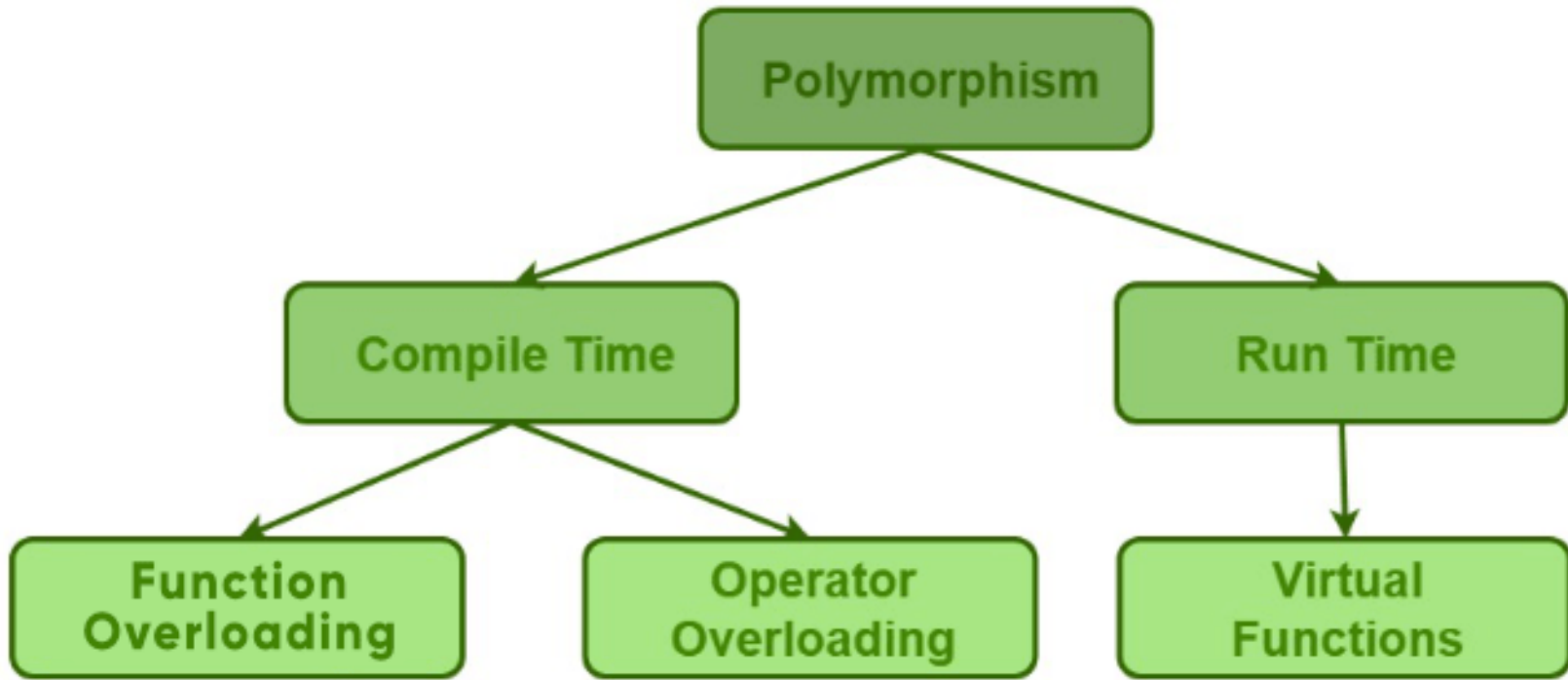


# Polymorphism

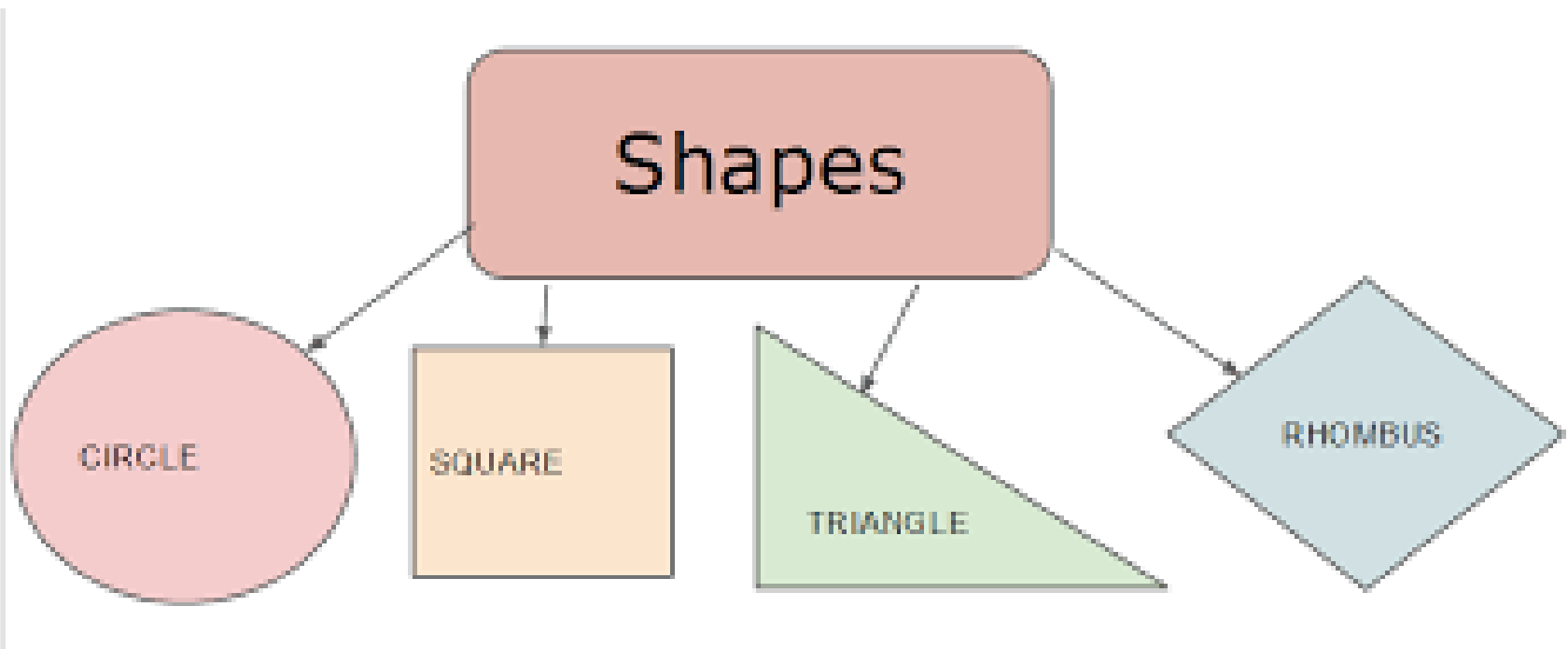
## Module -VII

# Polymorphism – An Introduction

- *noun, the quality or state of being able to assume different forms* - Webster
- An essential feature of an OO Language
- It builds upon Inheritance



# Polymorphism-Shapes



# A Real Time Example

- A real-life example of polymorphism, a person at the same time can have different characteristics. Like a man at the same time is a father, a husband, an employee.
- So the same person possesses different behavior in different situations. This is called polymorphism. Polymorphism is considered as one of the important features of Object Oriented Programming.

# Before we proceed....

- Inheritance - Basic Concepts
  - Class Hierarchy
    - Code Reuse, Easy to maintain
  - Type of inheritance : public, private
  - Function overriding

# Function Overriding

- Function overriding is a feature that allows us to have a same function in child class which is already present in the parent class.
- A child class inherits the data members and member functions of parent class, but when you want to override a functionality in the child class then you can use function overriding.
- It is like creating a new version of an old function, in the child class.

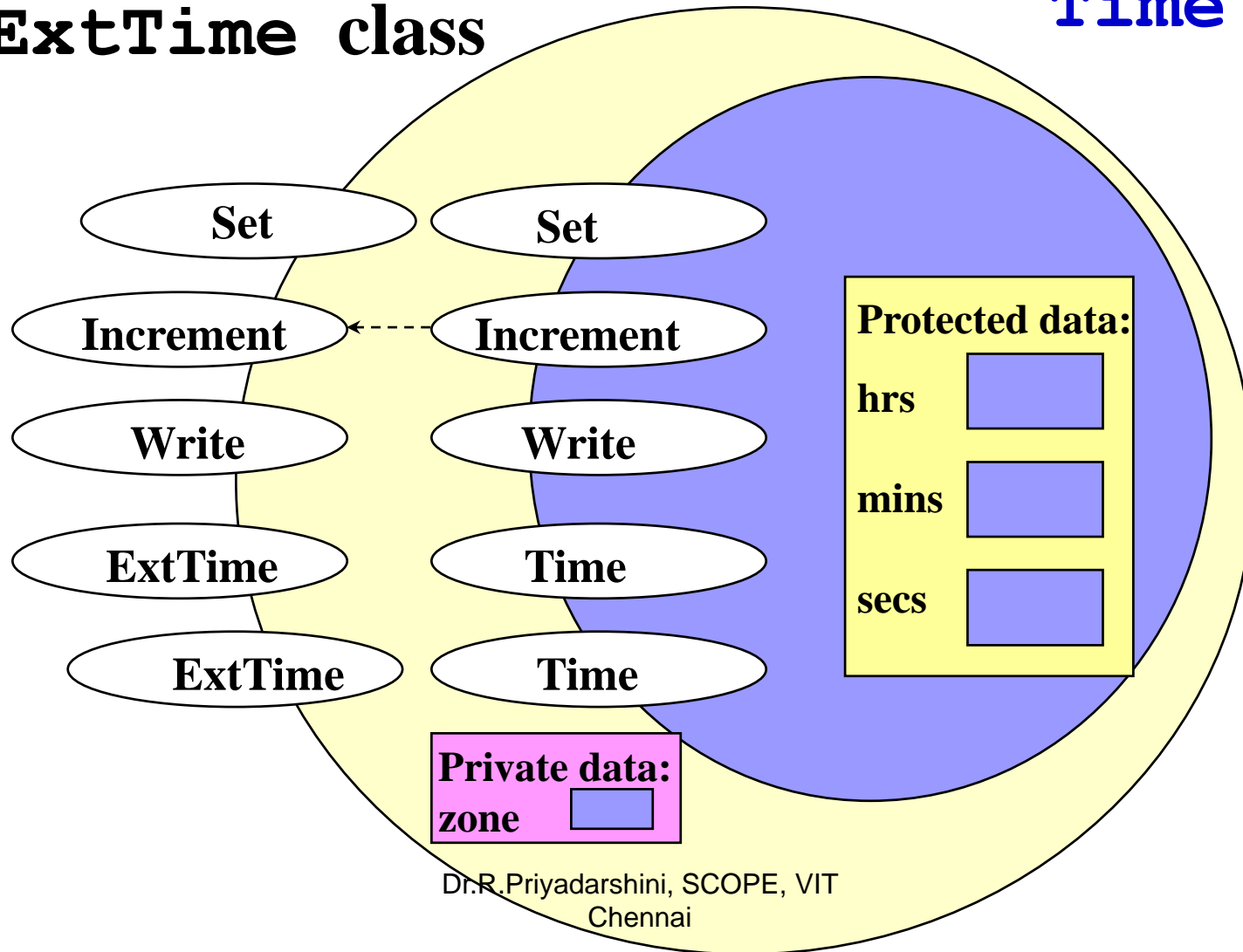
```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class BaseClass {
public:
    void disp(){
        cout<<"Function of Parent Class";
    }
};
class DerivedClass: public BaseClass{
public:
    void disp() {
        cout<<"Function of Child Class";
    }
};
int main() {
    DerivedClass obj = DerivedClass();
    obj.disp();
    return 0;
}
```



# Class Interface Diagram

**ExtTime class**

**Time class**



# Why Polymorphism?--Review: Time and ExtTime Example by Inheritance

```
void Print (Time  someTime ) //pass an object by value
{
    cout << "Time is " ;
    someTime.Write ( ) ;           // Time :: write()
    cout << endl ;
}
```

## CLIENT CODE

```
Time      startTime ( 8, 30, 0 ) ;
ExtTime   endTime (10, 45, 0, CST) ;

Print ( startTime ) ;
Print ( endTime ) ;
```

## OUTPUT

```
Time is 08:30:00
Time is 10:45:00
```

# Static Binding

- When the type of a formal parameter is a parent class, the argument used can be:
  - the same type as the formal parameter,
  - or,
  - any derived class type.
- Static binding is the **compile-time determination** of which function to call for a particular object based on the type of the formal parameter
- When pass-by-value is used, static binding occurs

# Can we do better?

```
void Print (Time someTime ) //pass an object by value
{
    cout << "Time is " ;
    someTime.Write ( ) ;           // Time :: write()
    cout << endl ;
}
```

```
Time    startTime ( 8, 30, 0 ) ;
ExtTime endTime (10, 45, 0, CST) ;

Print ( startTime ) ;
Print ( endTime ) ;
```

## OUTPUT

```
Time is 08:30:00
Time is 10:45:00
```

# Polymorphism – An Introduction

- *noun, the quality or state of being able to assume different forms* - Webster
- An essential feature of an OO Language
- It builds upon Inheritance
- Allows run-time interpretation of object type for a given class hierarchy
  - Also Known as "Late Binding"
- Implemented in C++ using virtual functions

# Dynamic Binding

- Is the **run-time determination** of which function to call for a particular object of a derived class based on the type of the argument
- Declaring a member function to be **virtual** instructs the compiler to generate code that guarantees dynamic binding
- Dynamic binding requires **pass-by-reference**

# Virtual Member Function


```
class Time
{
public :
    . . .
    virtual void Write ( ) ;           // for dynamic binding
    virtual ~Time();                 // destructor
private :
    int      hrs ;
    int      mins ;
    int      secs ;
} ;
```


# This is the way we like to see...

```
void Print (Time * someTime )  
{  
    cout << "Time is " ;  
    someTime->Write ( ) ;  
    cout << endl ;  
}
```

```
Time      startTime( 8, 30, 0 );  
ExtTime  endTime(10, 45, 0, CST);
```

```
Time *timeptr;  
timeptr = &startTime;  
Print ( timeptr );
```

```
timeptr = &endTime;  Time::write()  
Print ( timeptr );
```

```
 ExtTime::write()
```

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## OUTPUT

```
Time is 08:30:00  
Time is 10:45:00 CST
```



# Virtual Functions

- Virtual Functions overcome the problem of run time object determination
- Keyword **virtual** instructs the compiler to use late binding and delay the object interpretation
- How ?
  - Define a virtual function in the base class. The word **virtual** appears only in the base class
  - If a base class declares a virtual function, it **must implement** that function, even if the body is empty
  - Virtual function in base class stays virtual in all the derived classes
  - It can be overridden in the derived classes
  - But, a derived class is not required to re-implement a virtual function. If it does not, the base class version is used

# Polymorphism Summary:

- When you use virtual functions, compiler store additional information about the types of object available and created
- Polymorphism is supported at this additional overhead
- **Important :**
  - virtual functions work only with pointers/references
  - **Not** with objects even if the function is virtual
  - If a class declares any virtual methods, the destructor of the class should be declared as virtual as well.

```

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class base {
public:
virtual void print(){
    cout << "print base class" << endl;
}
void show(){
    cout << "show base class" << endl;
}
};
class derived : public base {
public:
void print(){
    cout << "print derived class" << endl;
}
void show(){
    cout << "show derived class" << endl;
}
};

```

```

int main(){
    base* bptr;
    derived d;
    bptr = &d;
    //calling virtual function
    bptr->print();
    //calling non-virtual
function
    bptr->show();
}
Output:
print derived class
show base class

```

# Abstract Classes & Pure Virtual Functions

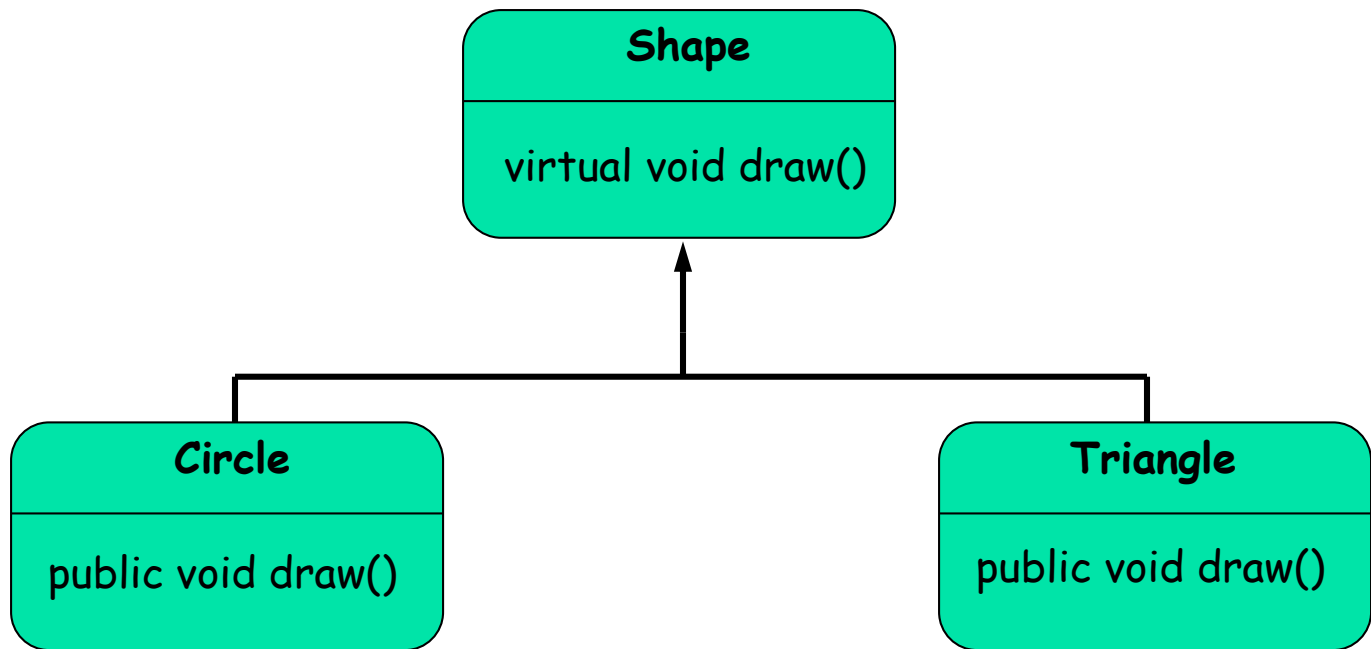
- Some classes exist logically but not physically.
- Example : Shape
  - `Shape s; // Legal but silly..!! : "Shapeless shape"`
  - Shape makes sense only as a base of some classes derived from it. Serves as a "category"
  - Hence instantiation of such a class must be prevented

```
class Shape //Abstract
{
public :
//Pure virtual Function
virtual void draw() = 0;
}
```

- A class with one or more pure virtual functions is an **Abstract Class**
- Objects of abstract class can't be created

`Shape s; // error : variable of an abstract class`

# Example



- A pure virtual function not defined in the derived class remains a pure virtual function.
- Hence derived class also becomes abstract

```
class Circle : public Shape { //No draw() - Abstract
    public :
    void print(){
        cout << "I am a circle" << endl;
    }
}
class Rectangle : public Shape {
    public :
    void draw(){ // Override Shape::draw()
        cout << "Drawing Rectangle" << endl;
    }
}
```

```
Rectangle r; // Valid
```

```
Circle c; // error : variable of an abstract class
```

# Pure virtual functions : Summary

- Pure virtual functions are useful because they make explicit the abstractness of a class
- Tell both the user and the compiler how it was intended to be used
- **Note** : It is a good idea to keep the common code as close as possible to the root of you hierarchy

# Summary ..continued

- It is still possible to provide definition of a pure virtual function in the base class
- The class still remains abstract and functions must be redefined in the derived classes, but a common piece of code can be kept there to facilitate reuse
- In this case, they can not be declared **inline**

```
class Shape { //Abstract
public :
    virtual void draw() = 0;
};

// OK, not defined inline
void Shape::draw() {
    cout << "Shape" << endl;
}
```

```
class Rectangle : public Shape
{
public :
    void draw() {
        Shape::draw(); //Reuse
        cout <<"Rectangle"<< endl;
    }
}
```



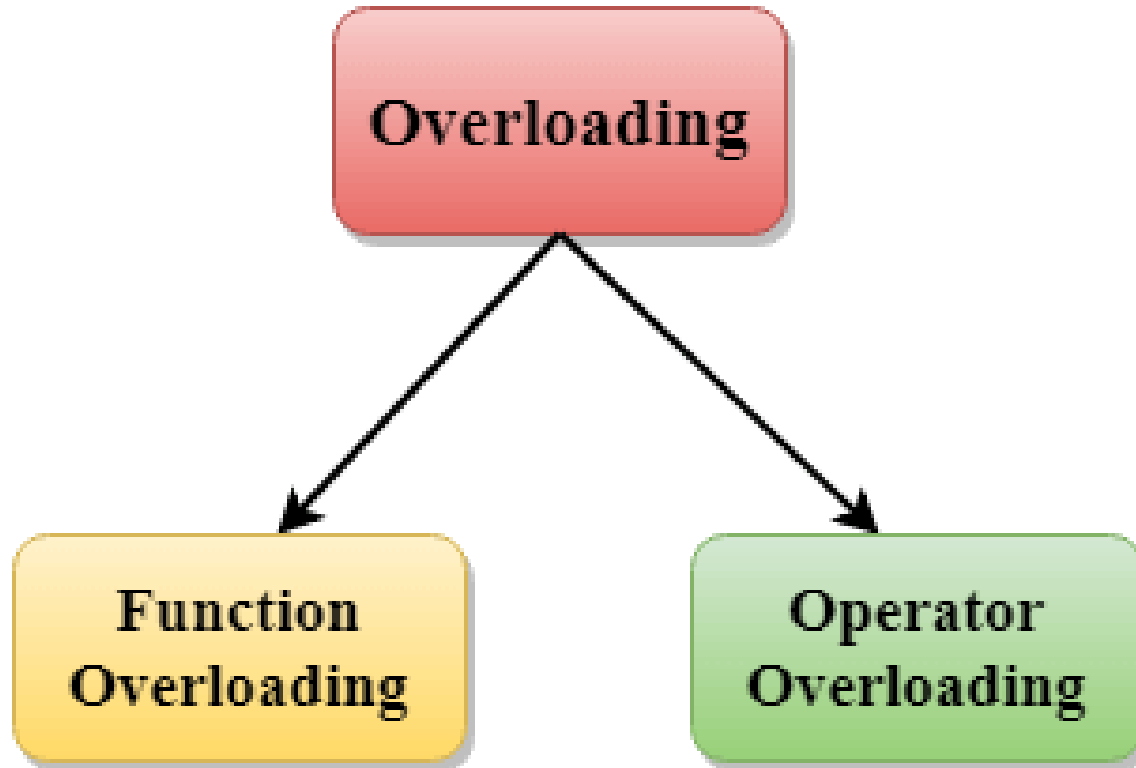
# Summary

- Polymorphism is built upon class inheritance
- It allows different versions of a function to be called in the same manner, with some overhead
- Polymorphism is implemented with virtual functions, and requires pass-by-reference

# Static Polymorphism

- C++ Overloading (Function and Operator)
- If we create two or more members having the same name but different in number or type of parameter, it is known as C++ overloading. In C++, we can overload:
  - methods,
  - constructors

# Types of overloading



# Function Overloading

- Function Overloading is defined as the process of having two or more function with the same name, but different in parameters is known as function overloading in C++.
- In function overloading, the function is redefined by using either different types of arguments or a different number of arguments.
- It is only through these differences compiler can differentiate between the functions.

# Advantages of Function Overloading

- The advantage of Function overloading is that it increases the readability of the program because you don't need to use different names for the same action.

```

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class Cal {
    public:
static int add(int a,int b){
    return a + b;
}
static int add(int a, int b, int c)
{
    return a + b + c;
}
};
int main(void) {
    Cal C;
    object declaration.
    cout<<C.add(10, 20)<<endl;
    cout<<C.add(12, 20, 23);
    return 0;
}

```

// class

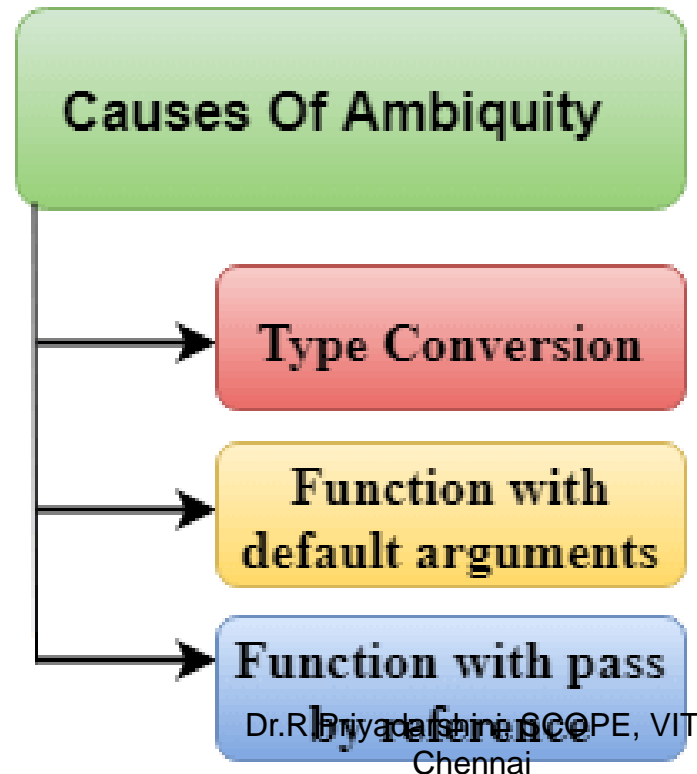
```

#include<iostream>
using namespace std;
int mul(int,int);
float mul(float,int);
int mul(int a,int b)
{
    return a*b;
}
float mul(double x, int y)
{
    return x*y;
}
int main()
{
    int r1 = mul(6,7);
    float r2 = mul(0.2,3);
    std::cout << "r1 is : " <<r1<< std::endl;
    std::cout <<"r2 is : " <<r2<< std::endl;
    return 0;
}

```

# Causes of Function Overloading:

- Type Conversion.
- Function with default arguments.
- Function with pass by reference.





# Type Conversion:

```
#include<iostream>
using namespace std;
void fun(int);
void fun(float);
void fun(int i)
{
    std::cout << "Value of i is : " <<i<< std::endl;
}
void fun(float j)
{
    std::cout << "Value of j is : " <<j<< std::endl;
}
int main()
{
    fun(12);
    fun(1.2);
    return 0;
}
```

```
#include<iostream>
using namespace std;
void fun(int);
void fun(int,int);
void fun(int i)
{
    std::cout << "Value of i is : " <<i<< std::endl;
}
void fun(int a,int b=9)
{
    std::cout << "Value of a is : " <<a<< std::endl;
    std::cout << "Value of b is : " <<b<< std::endl;
}
int main()
{
    fun(12);

    return 0;
}
```

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void fun(int);
void fun(int &);
int main()
{
int a=10;
fun(a); // error, which f()?
return 0;
}
void fun(int x)
{
std::cout << "Value of x is : " <<x<< std::endl;
}
void fun(int &b)
{
std::cout << "Value of b is : " <<b<< std::endl;
}
```



Operator that cannot be overloaded are as follows:

- Scope operator (::)
- Sizeof
- member selector(.)
- member pointer selector(\*)
- ternary operator(?:)

## ■ Rules of Operator Overloading

- Existing operators can only be overloaded, but the new operators cannot be overloaded.
- The overloaded operator contains at least one operand of the user-defined data type.
- We cannot use friend function to overload certain operators.
- When unary operators are overloaded through a member function take no explicit arguments
- When binary operators are overloaded through a member function takes one explicit argument.

# C++ Operators Overloading Example

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class Test
{
private:
    int num;
public:
    Test(): num(8){}
    void operator ++()    {
        num = num+2;
    }
    void Print() {
        cout<<"The Count is: "<<num;
    }
};
```

```
int main()
{
    Test tt;
    ++tt; // calling of a
function "void operator
++()"
    tt.Print();
    return 0;
}
```

Output

10

```

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class A
{
    int x;
    public:
    A(){}
    A(int i)
    {    x=i;
    }
    void operator+(A);
    void display();
};
void A :: operator+(A a)
{

    int m = x+a.x;
    cout<<"The result of the addition of two
objects is : "<<m;
}

```

```

int main()
{
    A a1(5);
    A a2(4);
    a1+a2;
    return 0;
}

```

Output  
9