

COMPOSITION AND INHERITANCE

Today

- Today we will look at:
 - Composition; and
 - Inheritance
- These are the cornerstones of object oriented programming.
- This material is taken from Pohl, Chapter 8.

An example

- Consider the program `rabbit.cpp` which you can download from the class web site (Unit IV).
- This models a small ecosystem which holds:
 - A rabbit
 - Some carrots
- The rabbit runs around looking for carrots and eating them.
- The class definition for the `rabbit` class is as follows

```
class rabbit {  
  
private:  
    point location;  
    int    consumed;  
  
public:  
    rabbit(){consumed = 0;};  
    int  getX() const;  
    int  getY() const;  
    void set(int x, int y);  
    void print() const;  
    void move();  
    void move(direction d);  
    void eat();  
    bool hungry();  
};
```

Composition

- The `rabbit` class includes a member of the `point` class, which we have played with before.
- We say that `rabbit` is related to `point` by *composition*.
- This just means what we see here — one class has an instance of another as a data member.
- Another example of composition in `rabbit.cpp` is that the class `world` contains instances of both `carrot` and `rabbit`.

- Several of the function members (methods) of `rabbit` look like those for `point`.
 - `getX()`
 - `getY()`
 - `set(int x, int y)`
- These data members provide a to alter the values of the attributes of the instance of `point` that is a member of `rabbit`.
- Since the data member `location` is `private` within `rabbit`, any program we write can't just use the function members of `point`.

- So this, for example:

```
rabbit peter;  
peter.location.getX( );
```

would not compile.

- Instead we have to write *accessor* functions like `rabbit::getX()` which calls `point::getX()`
- This is the reason behind the functions that look like they only exist to call similar functions in `point`.

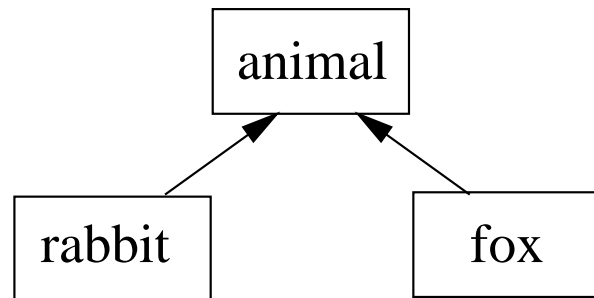
- Other methods are new:
 - `move ()`
 - `eat ()`
 - `hungry ()`
- These give us the functionality we want from `rabbit`, allowing it to move, to report whether it is hungry, and to eat.
- If you haven't done so already, you should run the program `rabbit` and see how it works.
- Now imagine that we want to extend the program to include a fox, which runs around the world and eats rabbits.
- One way we could do this is to write a `fox` class that looks like the following.

```
class fox {  
  
private:  
    point location;  
    int    consumed;  
  
public:  
    fox(){consumed = 0;};  
    int  getX() const;  
    int  getY() const;  
    void set(int x, int y);  
    void print() const;  
    void move();  
    void move(direction d);  
    void eat();  
    bool hungry();  
};
```

- This is exactly like the `rabbit` class since `fox` and `rabbit` are so similar.
- Both have a location in the world, move around, and eat things.
- Since they are so similar, writing both out seems a bit repetitive, and dull with it.
- It turns out that there is an alternative to doing this.
- The alternative is to use *inheritance* and this is considered better style than having lots of classes with (more or less) the same functionality.

Inheritance

- A program that handles the `fox` and `rabbit` example using *inheritance* is `rabbit3.cpp` on the class web page.
- The relationship between the classes is summarised by:



- That is the class `rabbit` and the class `fox` are both *subclasses* of the class `animal`.
- Alternatively, every instance of a `rabbit` is an instance of `animal` and every instance of `fox` is an instance of `animal`.

- We define fox as:

```
class fox : public animal {  
  
};
```

- This is the syntax for saying that fox has exactly the same members as animal.
- The keyword `public` indicates that all the `public` members of `animal` remain `public` in `fox`.
- If we replaced `public` with `private`, then all the `public` members of `animal` would become `private` in `fox`.
- We will say more about this next lecture.

- Normally we want to do more than have a subclass just be a copy of the superclass.
- What we often want to do is to have the subclass add things to the superclass.
- (In Java this is explicit. When we define a subclass it is by saying it extends the superclass).
- `rabbit` is an example of this.

```
class rabbit : public animal {  
  
private:  
  
    bool  eaten;  
  
public:  
  
    rabbit(){eaten = false;};  
    void beEaten();  
};  
  
void rabbit::beEaten(){  
    cout << "Drat that fox!" << endl;  
    eaten = true;  
}
```

- Here `rabbit` extends `animal` with:
 - A private data member `eaten`, which records whether the rabbit has been eaten by the fox; and
 - A public function member `beEaten` that takes appropriate action when the rabbit is eaten.
- Thus `rabbit` has all of the data members of `animal` as well as the additional ones listed here.
- As a result we can do this:

```
rabbit peter;  
peter.set(2, 3);
```

which calls the `set` method on the `rabbit peter`.

- `rabbit` *inherits* the `set` method from `animal`.

Overriding and inheritance

- A sub-class definition can re-define a function member defined in the super-class.
- This is called *overriding*.
- We can, for example, override the definition of move in fox.
- The program rabbit3.cpp has:

```
class fox : public animal {  
  
public:  
    void move( );  
    void move(direction d);  
  
};
```

giving new definitions for how the fox moves.

Aside: “protected”

- It turns out (as you can see in `rabbit3.cpp`) that we need to make the `animal` class a little different from the `rabbit` class that we started with.
- The problem is that to allow `move` to be overridden in `fox`, we have to change the value of `location` in `fox`.
- Now, `location` is `private` to `animal`, so `fox` cannot alter it.
- One answer is to make `location` not `private` but `protected`.
- `protected` data members sit somewhere between `public` members, which are accessible to any object, and `private` members, which are only accessible within that class.

- Roughly speaking, protected members are like private data members but are also accessible by members of derived classes.
- So a protected data member in `animal` is accessible by `rabbit` and `fox`, but not by `carrot`.
- In contrast, if we made `location` public, it would also be accessible by objects of class `carrot`.
- We will talk more about protected later on.

More inheritance

- Since `rabbit` is a subclass of `animal`, we can carry out any operation on a `rabbit` that we can on a `animal`.
- We already know that this is the case where the operations are function members of `animal` with simple parameters.
- Thus we can do:

```
rabbit peter;  
peter.set(2, 3);  
peter.move();
```

calling methods from `animal` on `rabbit`.

- It turns out we can go a bit further than this also.
- If we have:

```
bool animal::hungrier(animal a1, animal a2){  
    if(a1.consumed < a2.consumed){  
        return true;  
    }  
    else {  
        return false;  
    }  
}
```

we can pass this two rabbits, two foxes, or a rabbit and a fox.

- This is an example of *polymorphism*. We met this concept back in lecture II.2.

Summary

- This lecture has looked at a number of issues related to object oriented programming in C++.
- In particular we looked at:
 - Composition of classes
 - Inheritance
 - Overriding;
- We will continue with these ideas next time.