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https://www.tutorialspoint.com/csharp/

http://www.tutorialsteacher.com/csharp/csharp-tutorials

# Set-up Dev Environment

C# is used for server side execution for different kind of application like web, window forms or console etc. In order to use C# with your .Net application, you need two things, .NET Framework and IDE (Integrated Development Environment).

Visual Studion IDE has Nuget support for installing thrid party API/controls in the application

With Windows OS, .NET Framework is already installed in the PC.

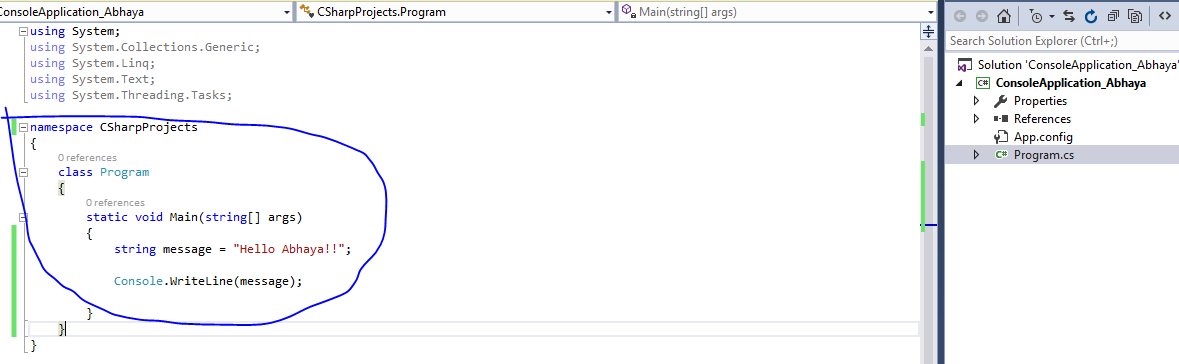
C# can be used in a window-based, web-based, or console application.

In Visual Studio File > New Project > Console Application and name the project and folder where it is to be stored. Program.cs will be created as default .cs file in Visual Studio where you can write your C# code in Program class.

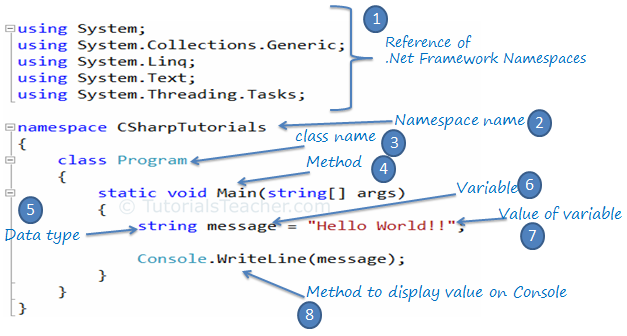
# First C# Program

Every console application starts from the Main() method of Program class. The following example code displays "Hello Abhaya!" on the console.

Edit the Program.cs file to add the code.



The following image illustrates the important parts of the above code:.

[](http://www.tutorialsteacher.com/Content/images/csharp/csharp-code-structure.png)C# Program

Explanation of above points:

1. Every .NET application takes the reference of the necessary .NET framework namespaces that it is planning to use with the "using" keyword e.g. *using System.Text*
2. Declare the namespace for the current class using the "namespace" keyword e.g. *namespace CSharpProjects*
3. We then declared a class using the "class" keyword: *class Program*
4. The Main() is a method of Program class which is the entry point of the console application.
5. String is a data type.
6. 'message' is a variable, that holds a value of a specified data type.
7. "Hello Abhaya!!" is the value of the message variable.
8. Console is a .NET framework class. WriteLine() is a method which you can use to display messages to the console.

Ctrl + F5 to build and run it.

# Key concepts about Class, Constructor and Methods

A class is like a blueprint of specific object. In the real world, every object has some color, shape and functionalities. For example, the luxury car Ferrari. Ferrari is an object of the luxury car type. The luxury car is a class that specify certain characteristic like speed, color, shape, interior etc. So any company that makes a car that meet those requirements is an object of the luxury car type. For example, every single car of BMW, lamborghini, cadillac are an object of the class called 'Luxury Car'. Here, 'Luxury Car' is a class and every single physical car is an object of the luxury car class.

Likewise, in object oriented programming, a class defines certain properties, fields, events, method etc. A class defines the kinds of data and the functionality their objects will have.

A class enables you to create your own custom types by grouping together variables of other types, methods and events. In C#, a class can be defined by using the class keyword.

Example: C# Class

public class MyClass

{

public string myField = string.Empty;

public MyClass()

{

}

public void MyMethod(int parameter1, string parameter2)

{

Console.WriteLine("First Parameter {0}, second parameter {1}",

parameter1, parameter2);

}

public int MyAutoImplementedProperty { get; set; }

private int myPropertyVar;

public int MyProperty

{

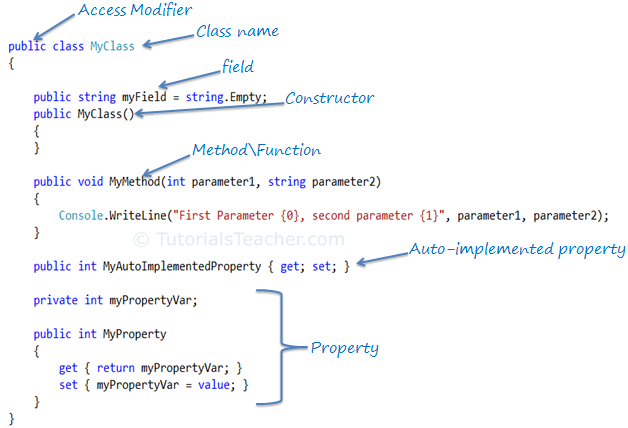
get { return myPropertyVar; }

set { myPropertyVar = value; }

}

}

The following image shows the important building blocks of C# class.

[](http://www.tutorialsteacher.com/Content/images/csharp/csharp-class.png)C# Class

Access Modifiers:

Access modifiers are applied on the declaration of the class, method, properties, fields and other members. They define the accessibility of the class and its members. **Public, private, protected and internal are access modifiers in C#.** We will learn about it in the [keyword](http://www.tutorialsteacher.com/csharp/csharp-keywords) section.

Field:

Field is a class level variable that can holds a value. Generally field members should have a private access modifier and used with a property.

Constructor:

A class can have parameterized or parameter less constructors. **The constructor will be called when you create an instance of a class.** Constructors can be defined by using an access modifier and class name: <access modifiers> <class name>(){ }

Example: Constructor in C#

class MyClass

{

public MyClass()

{

}

}

Method:

A method can be defined using the following template:

{access modifier} {return type} MethodName({parameterType parameterName})

Example: Method in C#

public void MyMethod(int parameter1, string parameter2)

{

// write your method code here..

}

Property:

**A property can be defined using getters and setters, as below**:

Example: Property in C#

private int \_myPropertyVar;

public int MyProperty

{

get { return \_myPropertyVar; }

set { \_myPropertyVar = value; }

}

**Property encapsulates a private field.** **It provides getters (get{}) to retrieve the value of the underlying field and setters (set{}) to set the value of the underlying field. In the above example, \_myPropertyVar is a private field which cannot be accessed directly. It will only be accessed via MyProperty. Thus, MyProperty encapsulates \_myPropertyVar.**

You can also apply some addition logic in get and set, as in the below example.

Example: Property in C#

private int \_myPropertyVar;

public int MyProperty

{

get {

return \_myPropertyVar / 2;

}

set {

if (value > 100)

\_myPropertyVar = 100;

else

\_myPropertyVar = value; ;

}

}

Auto-implemented Property:

From C# 3.0 onwards, property declaration has been made easy if you don't want to apply some logic in get or set.

The following is an example of an auto-implemented property:

Example: Auto implemented property in C#

public int MyAutoImplementedProperty { get; set; }

Notice that there is no private backing field in the above property example. The backing field will be created automatically by the compiler. You can work with an automated property as you would with a normal property of the class. Automated-implemented property is just for easy declaration of the property when no additional logic is required in the property accessors.

Namespace:

Namespace is a container for a set of related classes and namespaces. Namespace is also used to give unique names to classes within the namespace name. Namespace and classes are represented using a dot (.).

In C#, namespace can be defined using the namespace keyword.

Example: Namespace

namespace CSharpTutorials

{

class MyClass

{

}

}

In the above example, the fully qualified class name of MyClass is CSharpTutorials.MyClass.

A namespace can contain other namespaces. Inner namespaces can be separated using (.).

Example: Namespace

namespace CSharpTutorials.Examples

{

class MyClassExample

{

}

}

In the above example, the fully qualified class name of MyClassExample is CSharpTutorials.Example.MyClassExample

Points to Remember :

1. **C# Class** defines properties, fields, events, methods etc. An object is a instance of the class.
2. Access modifiers defines the accessbility of a class e.g. public, private, protected or internal.
3. **Namespace** can include one or more classes.

# C# Variables

In C#, a variable is always defined with a [data type](http://www.tutorialsteacher.com/csharp/csharp-data-types). The following is the syntax variable declaration and initialization.

Syntax:

<data type> <variable name>;

<datatype> <variable name> = <value>;

A variable can be declared and initialized later or it can be declared and initialized at the same time. In the following example, the first statement declares a variable called "message" without assigning any value to it. In the second statement, a value is assigned to the "message" variable.

Example: Variable declaration

string message;

// value can be assigned after it declared

message = "Hello World!!";

In the following example, variable is declared and initialized (a value is assigned to it) at the same time.

Example: Variable declaration & initialization

string message = "Hello World!!";

Multiple variables of the same data type can be declared and initialized in a single line separated by commas.

Example: Multiple variable declaration

int i, j, k, l = 0;

int amount, num;

When declaring multiple variables of the same data type, you can put them in multiple lines for the sake of readability; even if split across multiple lines, the compiler will consider it to be one statement, until it encounters a semicolon (;).

Example: Multi line variable declarations

int i, j,

k,

l = 0;

The value of a variable can be assigned to another variable of the same data type. However, a value must be assigned to a variable before using it.

Example: Variable assignment

int i = 100;

int j = i; // value of j will be 100

The following example would give a compile time error because string value cannot be assinged to a int type variable.

Example: Invalid Variable Assignment

string message = "Hello World!!";

int i = message; // compile time error

You must assign a value to a variable before using it otherwise the compiler will give an error. For example, in the following code, we have declared a variable called i without assigning any value to it. If we then try to display the value of the variable on the console, we will get a compile time error.

Example: Invalid Variable Assignment

int i;

//Following will give compile time error: "Use of unassigned local variable 'i'"

int j = i;

Console.WriteLine(j);

Points to Remember :

1. The variable is a name given to a data value.
2. A variable holds the value of specific data type e.g string, int, float etc.
3. A variable can be declared and initialized later or declared & initialized at the same time.
4. The value of a variable can be changed at any time throughout the program as long as it is accessible.
5. Multiple variables can be defined seperated by comma (,) in a single or multiple line till semicolon(;).
6. A value must be assigned to a variable before using it otherwise it will give compile time error.

# C# Data Types

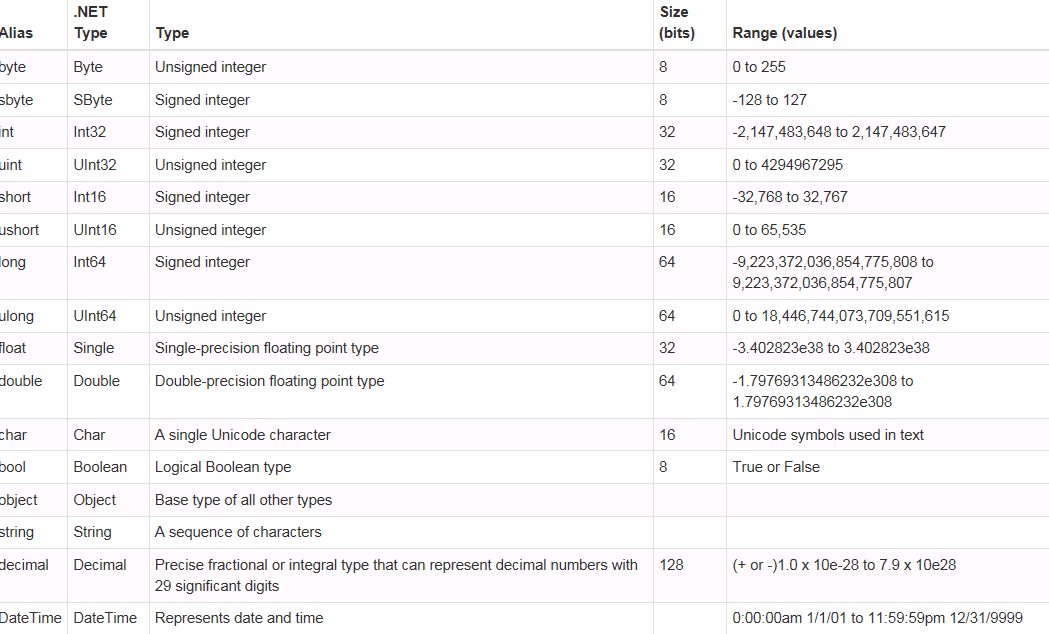
Example:

int intVar = 100;

float floatVar = 10.2f;

char charVar = 'A';

bool boolVar = true;



All data types are actually aliases referring to actual .NET types. For example, int is an alias for System.int32 type.

Data types are further classified as value type or reference type, depending on whether a variable of a particular type stores its own data or a pointer to the data in the memory.

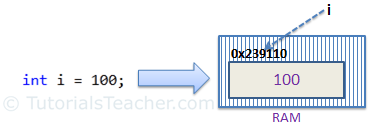
# C# Value and Reference Types

Value Type:

A data type is a value type if it holds a data value within its own memory space. It means variables of these data types directly contain their values. All the value types derive from System.ValueType, which in-turn, derives from System.Object.

For example, consider integer variable int i = 100;

The system stores 100 in the memory space allocated for the variable 'i'. The following image illustrates how 100 is stored at some hypothetical location in the memory (0x239110) for 'i':

[](http://www.tutorialsteacher.com/Content/images/csharp/value-type-memory-allocation.png)Memory allocation for Value Type

The following data types are all of value type:

* bool
* byte
* char
* decimal
* double
* enum
* float
* int
* long
* sbyte
* short
* struct
* uint
* ulong
* ushort

Passing by Value:

**When you pass a value type variable from one method to another method, the system creates a separate copy of a variable (in memory) in another method, so that if value got changed in the second method, it won't affect the variable in the first method.**

Example: Value type passes by value

static void ChangeValue(int x)

{

x = 200;

Console.WriteLine(x);

}

static void Main(string[] args)

{

int i = 100;

Console.WriteLine(i);

ChangeValue(i);

Console.WriteLine(i);

}

Output:

100   
200   
100

In the above example, variable i in Main() method remains unchanged even after we pass it to the ChangeValue() method and change its value there.

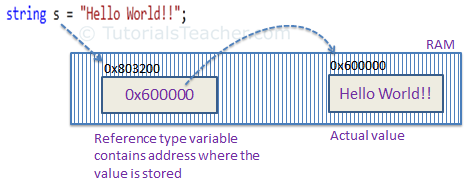
Reference type:

Unlike value types, a reference type doesn't store its value directly. Instead, it stores the address where the value is being stored. In other words, a reference type contains a pointer to another memory location that holds the data.

For example, consider following string variable:

string s = "Hello World!!";

The following image shows how the system allocates the memory for the above string variable.

[](http://www.tutorialsteacher.com/Content/images/csharp/raference-type-memory-allocation.png)

As you can see in the above image, the system selects a random location in memory (0x803200) for the variable 's'. The value of a variable s is 0x600000 which is the memory address of the actual data value. Thus, reference type stores the address of the location where the actual value is stored instead of value itself.

The following data types are of reference type:

* String
* All arrays, even if their elements are value types
* Class
* Delegates

Passing by Reference:

When you pass a reference type variable from one method to another, it doesn't create a new copy; instead, it passes the address of the variable. If we now change the value of the variable in a method, it will also be reflected in the calling method.

Example: Reference type variable passes by reference

static void ChangeReferenceType(Student std2)

{

std2.StudentName = "Steve";

}

static void Main(string[] args)

{

Student std1 = new Student();

std1.StudentName = "Bill";

ChangeReferenceType(std1);

Console.WriteLine(std1.StudentName);

}

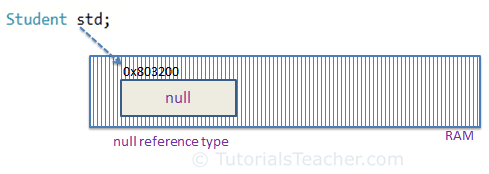
Output:

Steve

In the above example, since Student is an object, when we send the Student object std1 to the ChangeReferenceType() method, what is actually sent is the memory address of std1. Thus, when the ChangeReferenceType() method changes StudentName, it is actually changing StudentName of std1, because std1 and std2 are both pointing to the same address in memory. Therefore, the output is Steve.

null value:

Reference types have null value by default, when they are not initialized. For example, a string variable (or any other variable of reference type datatype) without a value assigned to it. In this case, it has a null value, meaning it doesn't point to any other memory location, because it has no value yet.

[](http://www.tutorialsteacher.com/Content/images/csharp/null.png)Null Reference type

A value type variable cannot be null because it holds a value not a memory address. However, value type variables must be assigned some value before use. The compiler will give an error if you try to use a local value type variable without assigning a value to it.

Example: Compile time error

void someFunction()

{

int i;

Console.WriteLine(i);

}

C# 2.0 introduced nullable types for value types so that you can assign null to a value type variable or declare a value type variable without assigning a value to it.

However, **value type field in a class can be declared without initialization** (field not a local variable in the function) . It will have a default value if not assigned any value, e.g., int will have 0, boolean will have false and so on.

Example: Value type field

class myClass

{

public int i;

}

myClass mcls = new myClass();

Console.WriteLine(mcls.i);

Output:

0

Points to Remember :

1. Value type stores the value in its memory space, whereas reference type stores the address of the value where it is stored.
2. Primitive data types and struct are of the 'Value' type. Class objects, string, array, delegates are reference types.
3. Value type passes byval by default. Reference type passes byref by default.
4. Value types and reference types stored in Stack and Heap in the memory depend on the scope of the variable.

# C# Keywords

C# contains reserved words that have special meaning for the compiler. These reserved words are called "keywords". Keywords cannot be used as a name (identifier) of a variable, class, interface, etc.

Keywords in C# are distributed under the following categories:

Modifier keywords:

Modifier keywords are certain keywords that indicate who can modify types and type members. Modifiers allow or prevent certain parts of programs from being modified by other parts.

| abstract,async,const,event,extern,new, override , partial , readonly ,sealed , static,unsafe ,virtual, |
| --- |

Access Modifier Keywords:

Access modifiers are applied on the declaration of the class, method, properties, fields and other members. They define the accessibility of the class and its members.

| **Access Modifiers** | **Usage** |
| --- | --- |
| public | The Public modifier allows any part of the program in the same assembly or another assembly to access the type and its members. |
| private | The Private modifier restricts other parts of the program from accessing the type and its members. Only code in the same class or struct can access it. |
| internal | The Internal modifier allows other program code in the same assembly to access the type or its members. This is default access modifiers if no modifier is specified. |
| protected | The Protected modifier allows codes in the same class or a class that derives from that class to access the type or its members. |

Statement Keywords:

Statement keywords are related to program flow.

| e.g. if ,else ,switch ,case ,do ,for ,foreach ,in, try,catch, finally ,checked ,unchecked ,fixed ,lock, while ,break ,continue ,default ,goto ,return ,yield ,throw. |
| --- |

Method parameter keywords:

These keywords are applied on the parameters of a method.

|  |
| --- |
| **params** |
| ref |
| out |

Namespace keywords:

These keywords are applied with namespace and related operators.

|  |
| --- |
| using |
| . operator |
| :: operator |
| extern alias |

Operator Keywords:

Operator keywords perform miscellaneous actions.

as ,await ,is ,new ,sizeof ,typeof ,stackalloc ,checked ,unchecked

Access keywords:

Access keywords are used to access the containing class or the base class of an object or class.

| **Access keywords** |
| --- |
| base |
| this |

Literal keywords:

Literal keywords apply to the current instance or value of an object e.g. null, false, true and void.

|  |
| --- |

Type keywords:

Type keywords are used for data types.

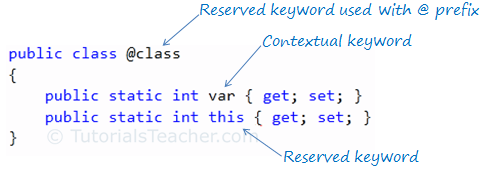
|  |
| --- |
| e.g. bool, int and datetime etc. |

Contextual Keywords:

Contextual keywords are considered as keywords, only if used in certain contexts. They are not reserved and so can be used as names or identifiers.

Examples: add, var, dynamic and global etc.

Contextual keywords are not converted into blue color (default color for keywords in visual studio) when used as an identifier in Visual Studio. For example, var in the below figure is not in blue color whereas color of this is blue color. So var is a contextual keyword.

[](http://www.tutorialsteacher.com/Content/images/csharp/keywords-in-vs.png)C# Keywords color in Visual Studio

Query keywords:

Query keywords are contextual keywords used in LINQ queries e.g. where. From, order by etc.

As mentioned above, keyword cannot be used as an identifier (name of variable, class, interface etc). However, they can be used with the prefix '@'. For example, class is a reserved keyword so it cannot be used as an identifier, but @class can be used as shown below.

Example: Keyword as identifier

public class @class

{

public static int MyProperty { get; set; }

}

public class Program

{

public static void Main()

{

@class.MyProperty = 100;

Console.WriteLine(@class.MyProperty);

}

}

Displays 100

Points to Remember :

1. Keywords are reserved words that cannot be used as name or identifier.
2. Prefix '@' with keywords if you want to use it as identifier.
3. C# includes various categories of keywords e.g. modifier keywords, access modifiers keywords, statement keywords, method param keywords etc.
4. Contextual keywords can be used as identifier.

# Interfaces

Interfaces in C# are provided as a replacement of multiple inheritance. Because C# does not support multiple inheritance, it was necessary to incorporate some other method so that the class can inherit the behavior of more than one class, avoiding the problem of name ambiguity that is found in C++. With name ambiguity, the object of a class does not know which method to call if the two base classes of that class object contain the same named method.

An interface in C# contains only the declaration of the methods, properties, and events, but not the implementation. It is left to the class that implements the interface by providing implementation for all the members of the interface. Interface makes it easy to maintain a program.

The most important thing to remember about interfaces is that the classes can only implement the methods defined in the interface because in C#, an interface is a built-in keyword that declares a reference type that includes method declarations. In addition to methods, interfaces can define properties, indexers, and events that will be discussed later in this article

In C#, an interface can be defined using the interface keyword. For example, the following is a simple interface for a logging string message:

Interface Declaration:

interface ILog

{

void Log(string msgToLog);

}

Now, different classes can implement ILog by providing an implementation of the Log() method, for example, the ConsoleLog class logs the string on the console whereas FileLog logs the string into a text file.

Implement interface using- : <interface name > syntax.

Interface implementation Example:

class ConsoleLog: ILog

{

public void Log(string msgToPrint)

{

Console.WriteLine(msgToPrint);

}

}

class FileLog :ILog

{

public void Log(string msgToPrint)

{

File.AppendText(@"C:\Log.txt").Write(msgToPrint);

}

}

Now, you can instantiate an object of either the ConsoleLog or FileLog class:

C#:

ILog log = new ConsoleLog();

//Or

ILog log = new FileLog();

Explicit Implementation:

You can implement interface explicitly by prefixing interface name with method name, as below:

C#:

class ConsoleLog: ILog

{

public void ILog.Log(string msgToPrint) // explicit implementation

{

Console.WriteLine(msgToPrint);

}

}

Explicit implementation is useful when class is implementing multiple interface thereby it is more readable and eliminates the confusion. It is also useful if interfaces have same method name coincidently.

Another Good Example with code snippets. In this example, we have taken two sub-classes of Mammal: Human and Whale. Because Human is the only subclass that has the characteristic of intelligence that distinguishes it from the other subclasses of Mammal, the Human class inherits both the class Mammal and an interface IIntelligent that selectively describes it as separated from the other classes of Mammal.



Points to Remember :

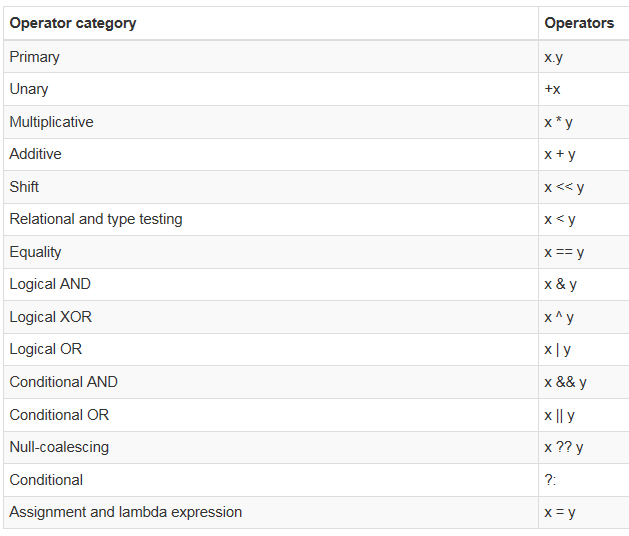
1. An **Interface** only contains declarations of method, events & properties.
2. An **Interface** can be implemented implicitly or explicitly.
3. An **Interface** cannot include private members. All the members are public by default.

Why is it used?

1. To allow a class to inherit multiple behaviors from multiple interfaces.
2. To avoid name ambiguity between the methods of the different classes as was in the use of multiple inheritance in C++.
3. To combine two or more interfaces such that a class needs to implement the combined result.
4. To allow Name hiding. Name hiding is the ability to hide an inherited member name from any code outside the derived class

<https://www.codeguru.com/csharp/csharp/cs_syntax/interfaces/article.php/c7563/Interfaces-in-C.htm>

# Operators



certain operators have different meanings based on the datatype of the operand. For example, if the + operator is used with numbers, it will add the numbers but if it is used with strings, it will concatenate the two strings.

When an operator does different things based on the datatype of the operands, it is called operator over loading.

static void Main(string[] args)

{

string message1 = "Hello";

string message2 = message1 + " World!!";

Console.WriteLine(message2);

int i = 10, j = 20;

int sum = i + j;

Console.WriteLine("{0} + {1} = {2}", i, j, sum);

}

# Encapsulation

**Encapsulation** is defined 'as the process of enclosing one or more items within a physical or logical package'. Encapsulation, in object oriented programming methodology, prevents access to implementation details.

Abstraction and encapsulation are related features in object oriented programming. Abstraction allows making relevant information visible and encapsulation enables a programmer to *implement the desired level of abstraction*.

Encapsulation is implemented by using **access specifiers**. An **access specifier** defines the scope and visibility of a class member. C# supports the following access specifiers −

* Public
* Private
* Protected
* Internal
* Protected internal

Public Access Specifier

Public access specifier allows a class to expose its member variables and member functions to other functions and objects. Any public member can be accessed from outside the class.

class Rectangle

{

//member variables

public double length;

public double width;

public double GetArea()

{

return length \* width;

}

public void Display()

{

Console.WriteLine("Length: {0}", length);

Console.WriteLine("Width: {0}", width);

Console.WriteLine("Area: {0}", GetArea());

}

}//end class Rectangle

class ExecuteRectangle

{

static void Main(string[] args)

{

Rectangle r = new Rectangle();

//can access length, width and methods because all are declared public

r.length = 4.5;

r.width = 3.5;

r.Display();

Console.ReadLine();

}

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces the following result −

Length: 4.5

Width: 3.5

Area: 15.75

In the preceding example, the member variables length and width are declared **public**, so they can be accessed from the function Main() using an instance of the Rectangle class, named **r**.

The member function *Display()* and *GetArea()* can also access these variables directly without using any instance of the class. The member functions *Display()* is also declared **public**, so it can also be accessed from *Main()* using an instance of the Rectangle class, named **r**.

Private Access Specifier

Private access specifier allows a class to hide its member variables and member functions from other functions and objects. Only functions of the same class can access its private members. Even an instance of a class cannot access its private members.

private double length;

private double width;

public double GetArea()

{

return length \* width;

}

public void Display()

{

Console.WriteLine("Length: {0}", length);

Console.WriteLine("Width: {0}", width);

Console.WriteLine("Area: {0}", GetArea());

}

// new method created and marked public so that main() can access it and retreive the length and width. Length and width are declared as private and can't be accessed from main() method.

public void Acceptdetails()

{

Console.WriteLine("Enter Length: ");

length = Convert.ToDouble(Console.ReadLine());

Console.WriteLine("Enter Width: ");

width = Convert.ToDouble(Console.ReadLine());

}

}//end class Rectangle

class ExecuteRectangle

{

static void Main(string[] args)

{

Rectangle r = new Rectangle();

**//can't access length and width because all are declared private**

r.Acceptdetails();

r.Display();

Console.ReadLine();

}

If you make Display() declared as private and try to use within main() method, you can’t build the solution. Syntax error.

The member variables length and width are declared **private**, so they cannot be accessed from the function Main(). The member functions *AcceptDetails()* and *Display()* can access these variables since they are part of the same class rectangle. Since the member functions *AcceptDetails()* and *Display()* are declared **public**, they can be accessed from *Main()* using an instance of the Rectangle class, named **r**.

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces the following result −

Length: 4.5

Width: 3.5

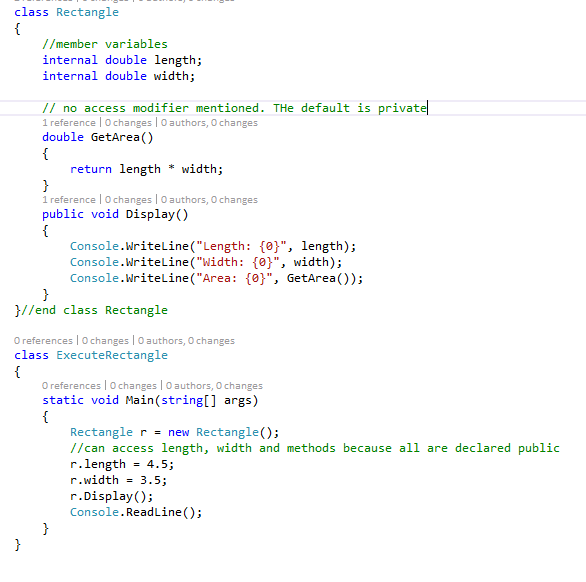
Area: 15.75

Protected Access Specifier

Protected access specifier allows a child class to access the member variables and member functions of its base class. This way it helps in implementing inheritance. More on this in iNheritance.

Internal Access Specifier

Internal access specifier allows a class to expose its member variables and member functions to other functions and objects in the current assembly. In other words, any member with internal access specifier can be accessed from any class or method defined within the application in which the member is defined.



Length and width have been defined internal and thus can be accessed from within ExecuteRectangle (in the same applicn / assembly).

There is no access modifier in GetArea(); it takes the default private. Display method can still access GetArea() since it is part of same class Rectangle. Also, main() can access length and width properties since they are declared internal in Rectangle class. No separate AccessDetails() method is defined here as in private access modifier example where length and width were declared private in Rectangle class.

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces the following result −

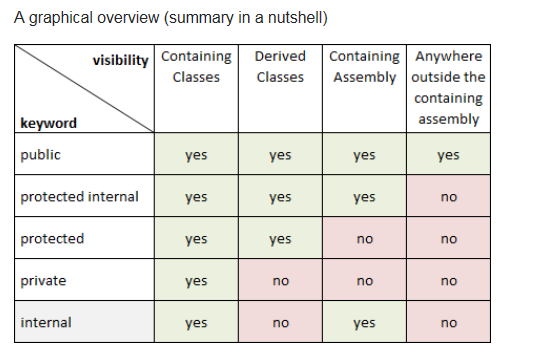
Length: 4.5

Width: 3.5

Area: 15.75

Protected Internal Access Specifier

The protected internal access specifier allows a class to hide its member variables and member functions from other class objects and functions, except a child class within the same application. This is also used while implementing inheritance.



# Type Conversion

Type conversion is converting one type of data to another type. It is also known as Type Casting. In C#, type casting has two forms −

* **Implicit type conversion** − These conversions are performed by C# in a type-safe manner. For example, are conversions from smaller to larger integral types and conversions from derived classes to base classes.
* **Explicit type conversion** − These conversions are done explicitly by users using the pre-defined functions. Explicit conversions require a cast operator.
* double d = 5673.74;
* int i;
* // cast double to int.
* i = (int)d;
* Console.WriteLine(i);

The above converts double to int. When the aboce code runs, the result is 5673.

Examples of Type Conversion Methods: ToBoolean (converts a type to Boolean if possible)

ToString (Converts a type to String), ToDateTime etc.

int i = 75;

float f = 53.005f;

double d = 2345.7652;

bool b = true;

Console.WriteLine(i.ToString());

Console.WriteLine(f.ToString());

Console.WriteLine(d.ToString());

Console.WriteLine(b.ToString());

The above produces the result below:

75

53.005

2345.7652

True

# C# Constants

The constants refer to fixed values that the program may not alter during its execution. These fixed values are also called literals. Constants can be of any of the basic data types like an integer constant, a floating constant, a character constant, or a string literal. There are also enumeration constants as well. The constants are treated just like regular variables except that their values cannot be modified after their definition.

Integer Literals

An integer literal can be a decimal, or hexadecimal constant. A prefix specifies the base or radix: 0x or 0X for hexadecimal, and there is no prefix id for decimal. An integer literal can also have a suffix that is a combination of U and L, for unsigned and long, respectively. The suffix can be uppercase or lowercase and can be in any order.

Here are some examples of integer literals −

212 /\* Legal \*/

215u /\* Legal \*/

0xFeeL /\* Legal \*/

Following are other examples of various types of Integer literals −

85 /\* decimal \*/

0x4b /\* hexadecimal \*/

30 /\* int \*/

30u /\* unsigned int \*/

30l /\* long \*/

30ul /\* unsigned long \*/

Floating-point Literals

A floating-point literal has an integer part, a decimal point, a fractional part, and an exponent part. You can represent floating point literals either in decimal form or exponential form.

Here are some examples of floating-point literals −

3.14159 /\* Legal \*/

314159E-5F /\* Legal \*/

Charatcer Constants

Character literals are enclosed in single quotes. For example, 'x' and can be stored in a simple variable of char type. A character literal can be a plain character (such as 'x'), an escape sequence (such as '\t'), or a universal character (such as '\u02C0').

There are certain characters in C# when they are preceded by a backslash. They have special meaning and they are used to represent like newline (\n) or tab (\t). Here, is a list of some of such escape sequence codes −

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| \n | Newline |
| \r | Carriage return |
| \t | Horizontal tab |
| \v | Vertical tab |
| \xhh . . . | Hexadecimal number of one or more digits |

e.g. Console.WriteLine("Hello\tWorld\n\n");

returns Hello World

String Literals

String literals or constants are enclosed in double quotes "" or with @"". A string contains characters that are similar to character literals: plain characters, escape sequences, and universal characters. You can break a long line into multiple lines using string literals and separating the parts using whitespaces.

Here are some examples of string literals. All the three forms are identical strings.

"hello, dear"

"hello, \

dear"

"hello, " "d" "ear"

@"hello dear"

Defining Constants

Constants are defined using the const keyword. Syntax for defining a constant is −

const <data\_type> <constant\_name> = value;

Example:

const double pi = 3.14159;

// constant declaration

double r;

Console.WriteLine("Enter Radius: ");

r = Convert.ToDouble(Console.ReadLine());

double areaCircle = pi \* r \* r;

Console.WriteLine("Radius: {0}, Area: {1}", r, areaCircle);

Console.ReadLine();

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces the following result −

Enter Radius:

3

Radius: 3, Area: 28.27431

Any attempt to change pi to some other value throws build errors.

# Decision Making

If

If-else

Nested if

Switch (case statements) and nested swith

?:

**conditional operator ? :** can be used to replace **if...else** statements. It has the following general form −

Exp1 ? Exp2 : Exp3;

Where Exp1, Exp2, and Exp3 are expressions. Notice the use and placement of the colon.

The value of a ? expression is determined as follows: Exp1 is evaluated. If it is true, then Exp2 is evaluated and becomes the value of the entire ? expression. If Exp1 is false, then Exp3 is evaluated and its value becomes the value of the expression.

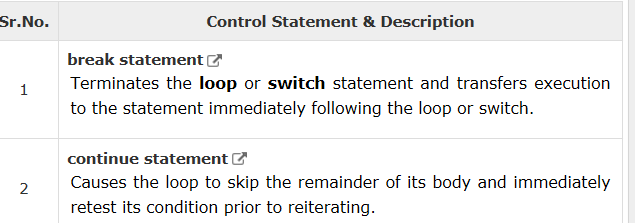
# Loops

While

Do .. while

For

Break and continue can be used to terminate a loop or go to next iteration of the loop



# Methods & Recursive Method Call

A method is a group of statements that together perform a task. Every C# program has at least one class with a method named Main.

To use a method, you need to −

* Define the method
* Call the method

When you define a method, you basically declare the elements of its structure. The syntax for defining a method in C# is as follows −

<Access Specifier> <Return Type> <Method Name>(Parameter List) {

Method Body

}

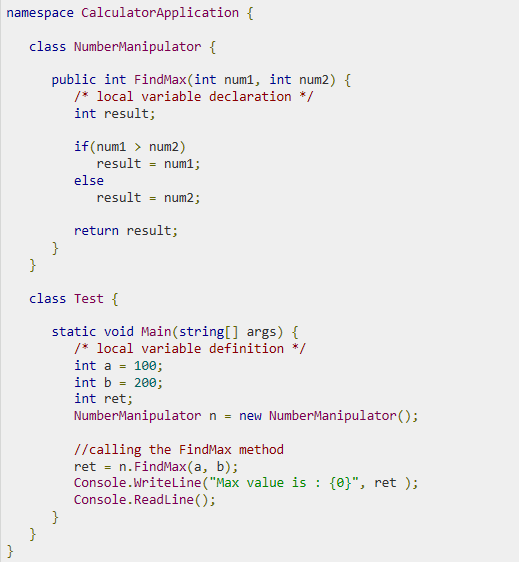
Following are the various elements of a method −

* Access Specifier − This determines the visibility of a variable or a method from another class.
* Return type − A method may return a value. The return type is the data type of the value the method returns. If the method is not returning any values, then the return type is void.
* Method name − Method name is a unique identifier and it is case sensitive. It cannot be same as any other identifier declared in the class.
* Parameter list − Enclosed between parentheses, the parameters are used to pass and receive data from a method. The parameter list refers to the type, order, and number of the parameters of a method. Parameters are optional; that is, a method may contain no parameters.
* Method body − It contains the set of instructions needed to complete the required activity.

Following code snippet shows a function FindMax that takes two integer values and returns the larger of the two. It has public access specifier, so it can be accessed from outside the class using an instance of the class.

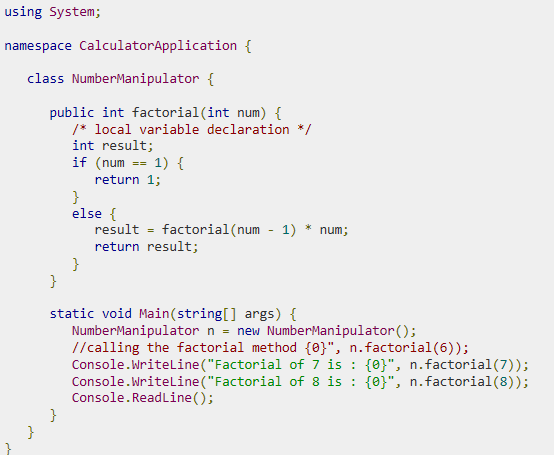
* class NumberManipulator {
* public int FindMax(int num1, int num2) {
* /\* local variable declaration \*/
* int result;
* if (num1 > num2)
* result = num1;
* else
* result = num2;
* return result;
* }
* ...
* }

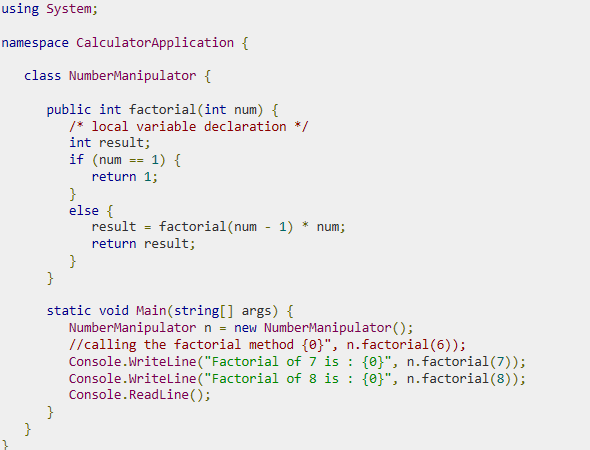
You can also call public method from other classes by using the instance of the class. For example, the method FindMax belongs to the NumberManipulator class, you can call it from another class Test.



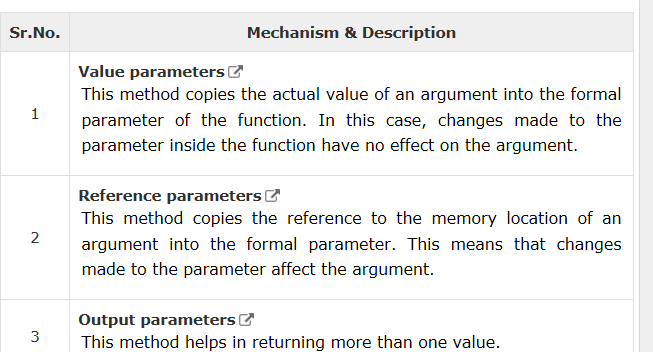
Recursive Method Calls

A method can call itself. This is known as recursion. Following is an example that calculates factorial for a given number using a recursive function –





When method with parameters is called, you need to pass the parameters to the method. There are three ways that parameters can be passed to a method



## Virtual Methods

The virtual keyword is used to modify a method, property, indexer, or event declaration and allow for it to be overridden in a derived class. For example, this method can be overridden by any class that inherits it:

public virtual double Area()

{

return x \* y; }

The implementation of a virtual member can be changed by an [overriding member](https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/dotnet/csharp/language-reference/keywords/override) in a derived class. By default, methods are non-virtual. You cannot override a non-virtual method.

When a virtual method is invoked, the run-time type of the object is checked for an overriding member. The overriding member in the most derived class is called, which might be the original member, if no derived class has overridden the member.

You cannot use the virtual modifier with the static, abstract, private, or override modifiers.

Virtual properties behave like abstract methods, except for the differences in declaration and invocation syntax.

* It is an error to use the virtual modifier on a static property.
* A virtual inherited property can be overridden in a derived class by including a property declaration that uses the override modifier

Example:

In this example, the Shape class contains the two coordinates x, y, and the Area() virtual method. Different shape classes such as Circle, Cylinder, and Sphere inherit the Shape class, and the surface area is calculated for each figure. Each derived class has it own override implementation of Area().

Notice that the inherited classes Circle, Sphere, and Cylinder all use constructors that initialize the base class, as shown in the following declaration.

In this example, the Shape class contains the two coordinates x, y, and the Area() virtual method. Different shape classes such as Circle, Cylinder, and Sphere inherit the Shape class, and the surface area is calculated for each figure. Each derived class has its own override implementation of Area().

Notice that the inherited classes Circle, Sphere, and Cylinder all use constructors that initialize the base class, as shown in the following declaration.

public Cylinder(double r, double h): base(r, h) {}

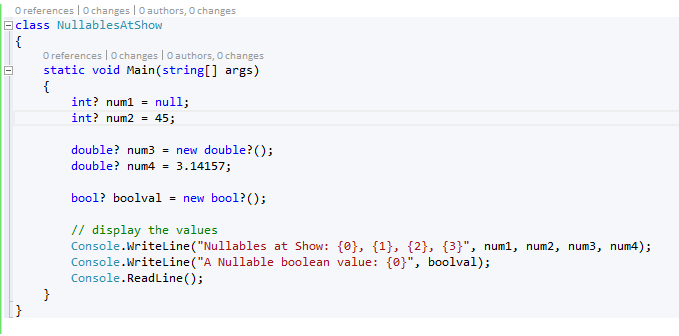
The following program calculates and displays the appropriate area for each figure by invoking the appropriate implementation of the Area() method, according to the object that is associated with the method.



# Nullables

C# provides a special data types, the nullable types, to which you can assign normal range of values as well as null values.

For example, you can store any value from -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647 or null in a Nullable<Int32> variable. Similarly, you can assign true, false, or null in a Nullable<bool> variable. Syntax for declaring a nullable type is as follows –



<data\_type> ? <variable\_name> = null;

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces the following result −

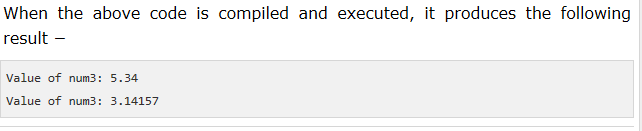
Nullables at Show: , 45, , 3.14157

A Nullable boolean value:

Null Coalescing Operator (??)

The null coalescing operator is used with the nullable value types and reference types. It is used for converting an operand to the type of another nullable (or not) value type operand, where an implicit conversion is possible.

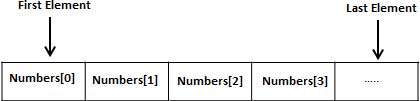
If the value of the first operand is null, then the operator returns the value of the second operand, otherwise it returns the value of the first operand. The following example explains this –



# Arrays

An array stores a fixed-size sequential collection of elements of the same type. An array is used to store a collection of data, but it is often more useful to think of an array as a collection of variables of the same type stored at contiguous memory locations.

All arrays consist of contiguous memory locations. The lowest address corresponds to the first element and the highest address to the last element.



Declaring Arrays

To declare an array in C#, you can use the following syntax −

datatype[] arrayName;

where,

* datatype is used to specify the type of elements in the array.
* [ ] specifies the rank of the array. The rank specifies the size of the array.
* arrayName specifies the name of the array.

For example,

int[] SSN;

Initializing Arrays

Declaring an array does not initialize the array in the memory. When the array variable is initialized, you can assign values to the array. Array is a reference type, so you need to use the new keyword to create an instance of the array. For example,

double[] balance = new double[10];

Assigning values to an array

You can assign values to individual array elements, by using the index number, like −

double[] balance = new double[10];

balance[0] = 4500.0;

You can assign values to the array at the time of declaration, as shown −

double[] balance = { 2340.0, 4523.69, 3421.0};

You can also create and initialize an array, as shown −

int [] marks = new int[5] { 99, 98, 92, 97, 95};

You may also omit the size of the array, as shown −

int [] marks = new int[] { 99, 98, 92, 97, 95};

You can copy an array variable into another target array variable. In such case, both the target and source point to the same memory location −

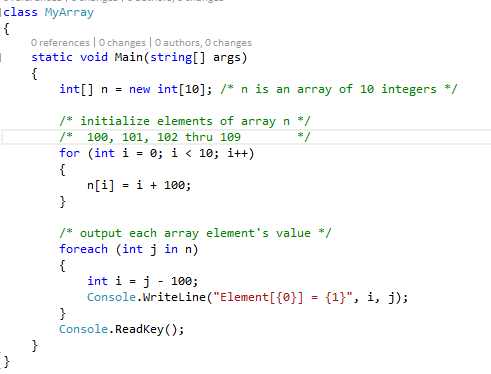
int [] marks = new int[] { 99, 98, 92, 97, 95};

int[] score = marks;

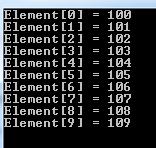
When you create an array, C# compiler implicitly initializes each array element to a default value depending on the array type. For example, for an int array all elements are initialized to 0.

Accessing array elements

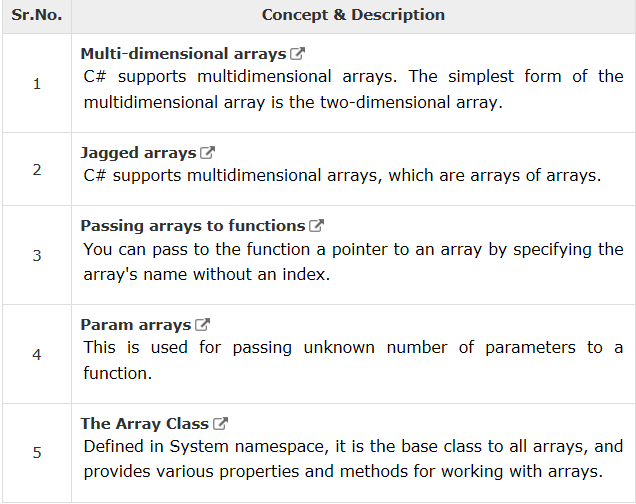
You can also use a foreach statement to iterate through an array.



Output



Important concepts about arrays:



# C# Strings

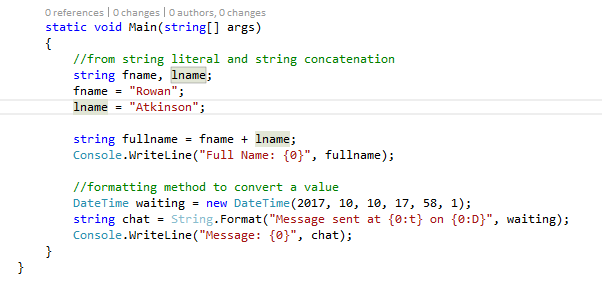
In C#, you can use strings as array of characters, However, more common practice is to use the string keyword to declare a string variable. The string keyword is an alias for the System.String class.

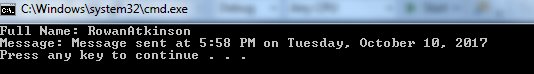
Creating a String Object

You can create string object using one of the following methods −

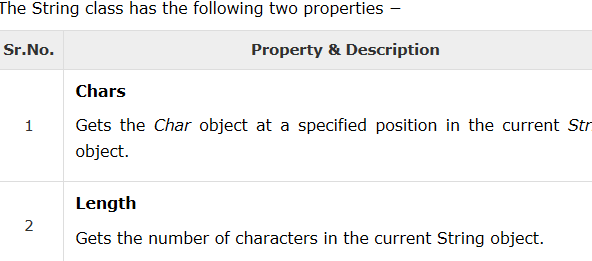
* By assigning a string literal to a String variable
* By using a String class constructor
* By using the string concatenation operator (+)
* By retrieving a property or calling a method that returns a string
* By calling a formatting method to convert a value or an object to its string representation

Example:





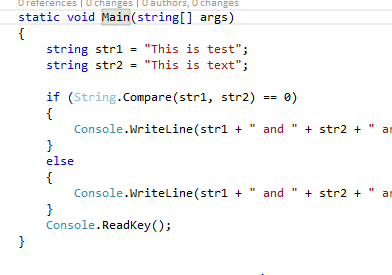
Properties of String Class



Methods of the String Class

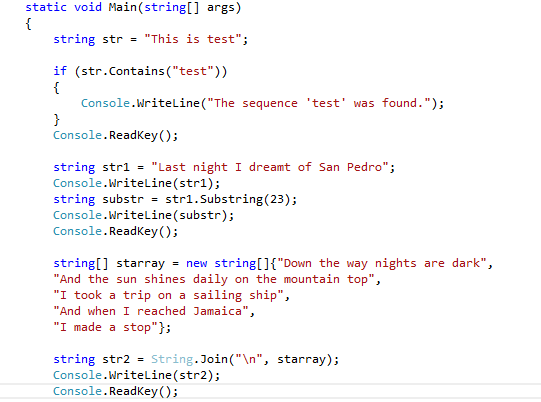
The String class has numerous methods that help you in working with the string objects. The following table provides some of the most commonly used methods –

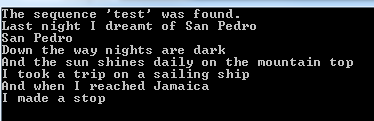
Compare method example:



Output: 

Substring, Contains and Join functions:



Output: 

# C# Structures

Defining a Structure

To define a structure, you must use the struct statement. The struct statement defines a new data type, with more than one member for your program.

For example, here is the way you can declare the Book structure −

The following program shows the use of the structure −

struct Books {

public string title;

public string author;

public string subject;

public int book\_id;

};

public class testStructure {

public static void Main(string[] args) {

Books Book1; /\* Declare Book1 of type Book \*/

Books Book2; /\* Declare Book2 of type Book \*/

/\* book 1 specification \*/

Book1.title = "C Programming";

Book1.author = "Nuha Ali";

Book1.subject = "C Programming Tutorial";

Book1.book\_id = 6495407;

/\* book 2 specification \*/

Book2.title = "Telecom Billing";

Book2.author = "Zara Ali";

Book2.subject = "Telecom Billing Tutorial";

Book2.book\_id = 6495700;

/\* print Book1 info \*/

Console.WriteLine( "Book 1 title : {0}", Book1.title);

Console.WriteLine("Book 1 author : {0}", Book1.author);

Console.WriteLine("Book 1 subject : {0}", Book1.subject);

Console.WriteLine("Book 1 book\_id :{0}", Book1.book\_id);

/\* print Book2 info \*/

Console.WriteLine("Book 2 title : {0}", Book2.title);

Console.WriteLine("Book 2 author : {0}", Book2.author);

Console.WriteLine("Book 2 subject : {0}", Book2.subject);

Console.WriteLine("Book 2 book\_id : {0}", Book2.book\_id);

Console.ReadKey();

}

}

Output: 

Features of C# Structures

Structures in C# are quite different from that in traditional C or C++. The C# structures have the following features −

* Structures can have methods, fields, indexers, properties, operator methods, and events.
* Structures can have defined constructors, but not destructors. However, you cannot define a default constructor for a structure. The default constructor is automatically defined and cannot be changed.
* Unlike classes, structures cannot inherit other structures or classes.
* Structures cannot be used as a base for other structures or classes.
* A structure can implement one or more interfaces.
* Structure members cannot be specified as abstract, virtual, or protected.
* When you create a struct object using the **New** operator, it gets created and the appropriate constructor is called. Unlike classes, structs can be instantiated without using the New operator.
* If the New operator is not used, the fields remain unassigned and the object cannot be used until all the fields are initialized.

Class versus Structure

Classes and Structures have the following basic differences −

* classes are reference types and structs are value types
* structures do not support inheritance
* structures cannot have default constructor

Now, the example can be rewritten as :

struct Books {

private string title;

private string author;

private string subject;

private int book\_id;

public void getValues(string t, string a, string s, int id) {

title = t;

author = a;

subject = s;

book\_id = id;

}

public void display() {

Console.WriteLine("Title : {0}", title);

Console.WriteLine("Author : {0}", author);

Console.WriteLine("Subject : {0}", subject);

Console.WriteLine("Book\_id :{0}", book\_id);

}

};

public class testStructure {

public static void Main(string[] args) {

Books Book1 = new Books(); /\* Declare Book1 of type Book \*/

Books Book2 = new Books(); /\* Declare Book2 of type Book \*/

/\* book 1 specification \*/

Book1.getValues("C Programming",

"Nuha Ali", "C Programming Tutorial",6495407);

/\* book 2 specification \*/

Book2.getValues("Telecom Billing",

"Zara Ali", "Telecom Billing Tutorial", 6495700);

/\* print Book1 info \*/

Book1.display();

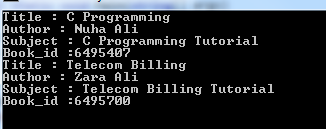
/\* print Book2 info \*/

Book2.display();

Console.ReadKey();

}

}

Output: 

# C# Enums

An enumeration is a set of named integer constants. An enumerated type is declared using the enum keyword. C# enumerations are value data type. In other words, enumeration contains its own values and cannot inherit or cannot pass inheritance.

Declaring Enum variable

The general syntax for declaring an enumeration is −

enum <enum\_name> {

enumeration list

};

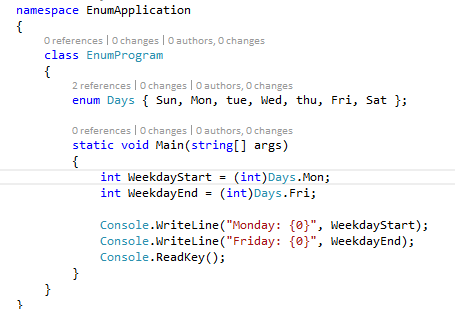
Where,

* The *enum\_name* specifies the enumeration type name.
* The *enumeration list* is a comma-separated list of identifiers.

Each of the symbols in the enumeration list stands for an integer value, one greater than the symbol that precedes it. By default, the value of the first enumeration symbol is 0. For example −

enum Days { Sun, Mon, tue, Wed, thu, Fri, Sat };

Example:



Output:



# C# Classes

A class is a construct that enables you to create your own custom types by grouping together variables of other types, methods and events. A class is like a blueprint. It defines the data and behavior of a type. If the class is not declared as static, client code can use it by creating objects or instances which are assigned to a variable. The variable remains in memory until all references to it go out of scope. At that time, the CLR marks it as eligible for garbage collection. If the class is declared as static, then only one copy exists in memory and client code can only access it through the class itself, not an instance variable. Unlike structs, classes support inheritance, a fundamental characteristic of object-oriented programming.

Declaring classes

Classes are declared by using the class keyword, as shown in the following example:

public class Customer

{

//Fields, properties, methods and events go here...

}

The class keyword is preceded by the access level. Because public is used in this case, anyone can create objects from this class. The name of the class follows the class keyword. The remainder of the definition is the class body, where the behavior and data are defined. **Fields, properties, methods, and events on a class are collectively referred to as class members.**

Creating Objects

Although they are sometimes used interchangeably, a class and an object are different things. A class defines a type of object, but it is not an object itself. An object is a concrete entity based on a class, and is sometimes referred to as an instance of a class. Objects can be created by using the new keyword followed by the name of the class that the object will be based on, like this:

Customer object1 = new Customer();

When an instance of a class is created, a reference to the object is passed back to the programmer. In the previous example, object1 is a reference to an object that is based on Customer class. This reference refers to the new object but does not contain the object data itself. In fact, you can create an object reference without creating an object at all:

Customer object2;

Microsoft doesn't recommend creating object references such as this one that don't refer to an object because trying to access an object through such a reference will fail at run time. However, such a reference can be made to refer to an object, either by creating a new object, or by assigning it to an existing object, such as this:

Customer object3 = new Customer();

Customer object4 = object3;

This code creates two object references that both refer to the same object. Therefore, any changes to the object made through object3 will be reflected in subsequent uses of object4 . Because objects that are based on classes are referred to by reference, classes are known as reference types.

Class Inheritance

Inheritance is accomplished by using a derivation, which means a class is declared by using a base class from which it inherits data and behavior. A base class is specified by appending a colon and the name of the base class following the derived class name, like this:

public class Manager : Employee

{

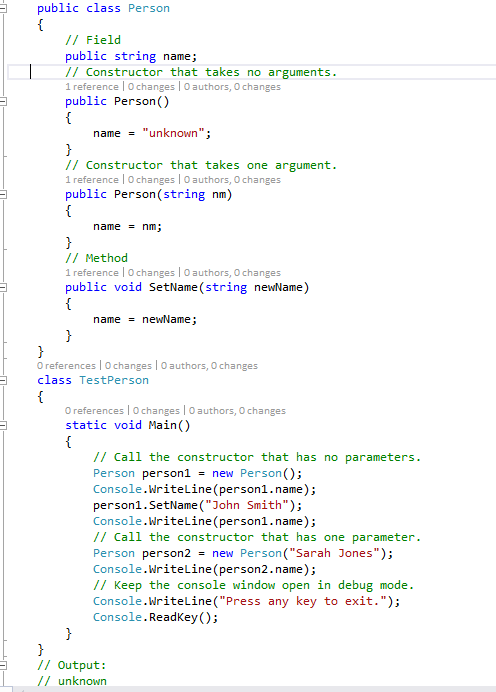
// Employee fields, properties, methods and events are inherited

// New Manager fields, properties, methods and events go here...

}

When a class declares a base class, it inherits all the members of the base class except the constructors. Unlike C++, a class in C# can only directly inherit from one base class. However, because a base class may itself inherit from another class, a class may indirectly inherit multiple base classes. Furthermore, a class can directly implement more than one interface. A class can be declared abstract. An abstract class contains abstract methods that have a signature definition but no implementation. Abstract classes cannot be instantiated. They can only be used through derived classes that implement the abstract methods. By contrast, a sealed class does not allow other classes to derive from it. Class definitions can be split between different source files (see Partial Classes and Methods).

Example In the following example, a public class that contains a single field, a method, and a special method called a constructor is defined. The class is then instantiated with the new keyword



.

## Abstract Base Classes

You can declare a class as abstract if you want to prevent direct instantiation by using the new keyword. If you do this, the class can be used only if a new class is derived from it. An abstract class can contain one or more method signatures that themselves are declared as abstract. These signatures specify the parameters and return value but have no implementation (method body). An abstract class does not have to contain abstract members; however, if a class does contain an abstract member, the class itself must be declared as abstract. Derived classes that are not abstract themselves must provide the implementation for any abstract methods from an abstract base class.

The abstract keyword enables you to create classes and class members that are incomplete and must be implemented in a derived class.

Classes can be declared as abstract by putting the keyword abstract before the class definition. For example: An abstract class cannot be instantiated. The purpose of an abstract class is to provide a common definition of a base class that multiple derived classes can share. For example, a class library may define an abstract class that is

used as a parameter to many of its functions, and require programmers using that library to provide their own implementation of the class by creating a derived class.

Abstract classes may also define abstract methods. This is accomplished by adding the keyword abstract before the return type of the method. For example:

public abstract class A

{

public abstract void DoWork(int i);

}

Abstract methods have no implementation, so the method definition is followed by a semicolon instead of a normal method block. Derived classes of the abstract class must implement all abstract methods. When an abstract class inherits a virtual method from a base class, the abstract class can override the virtual method with

an abstract method. For example:

// compile with: /target:library

public class D

{

public virtual void DoWork(int i)

{

// Original implementation.

}

}

public abstract class E : D

{

public abstract override void DoWork(int i);

}

public class F : E

{

public override void DoWork(int i)

{

// New implementation.

}

}

If a virtual method is declared abstract, it is still virtual to any class inheriting from the abstract class. A class inheriting an abstract method cannot access the original implementation of the method—in the previous example, DoWork on class F cannot call DoWork on class D. In this way, an abstract class can force derived classes

to provide new method implementations for virtual methods.

Abstract classes have the following features:

* An abstract class cannot be instantiated.
* An abstract class may contain abstract methods and accessors.
* It is not possible to modify an abstract class with the [sealed](https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/dotnet/csharp/language-reference/keywords/sealed) modifier because the two modifers have opposite meanings. The sealed modifier prevents a class from being inherited and the abstract modifier requires a class to be inherited.
* A non-abstract class derived from an abstract class must include actual implementations of all inherited abstract methods and accessors.

Use the abstract modifier in a method or property declaration to indicate that the method or property does not contain implementation.

Abstract methods have the following features:

* An abstract method is implicitly a virtual method.
* Abstract method declarations are only permitted in abstract classes.
* Because an abstract method declaration provides no actual implementation, there is no method body; the method declaration simply ends with a semicolon and there are no curly braces ({ }) following the signature. For example:
* public abstract void MyMethod();

The implementation is provided by an method [override](https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/dotnet/csharp/language-reference/keywords/override), which is a member of a non-abstract class.

* It is an error to use the [static](https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/dotnet/csharp/language-reference/keywords/static) or [virtual](https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/dotnet/csharp/language-reference/keywords/virtual) modifiers in an abstract method declaration.

Abstract properties behave like abstract methods, except for the differences in declaration and invocation syntax.

* It is an error to use the abstract modifier on a static property.
* An abstract inherited property can be overridden in a derived class by including a property declaration that uses the [override](https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/dotnet/csharp/language-reference/keywords/override) modifier.

## Sealed Classes

The sealed keyword enables you to prevent the inheritance of a class or certain class members that were previously marked virtual.

Classes can be declared as sealed by putting the keyword sealed before the class definition. For example:

public sealed class D

{

// Class members here.

}

A sealed class cannot be used as a base class. For this reason, it cannot also be an abstract class. Sealed classes prevent derivation. Because they can never be used as a base class, some run-time optimizations can make calling sealed class members slightly faster. A method, indexer, property, or event, on a derived class that is overriding a virtual member of the base class can declare that member as sealed. This negates the virtual aspect of the member for any further derived class. This is accomplished by putting the sealed keyword before the override keyword in the class member declaration. For example:

public class D : C

{

public sealed override void DoWork() { }

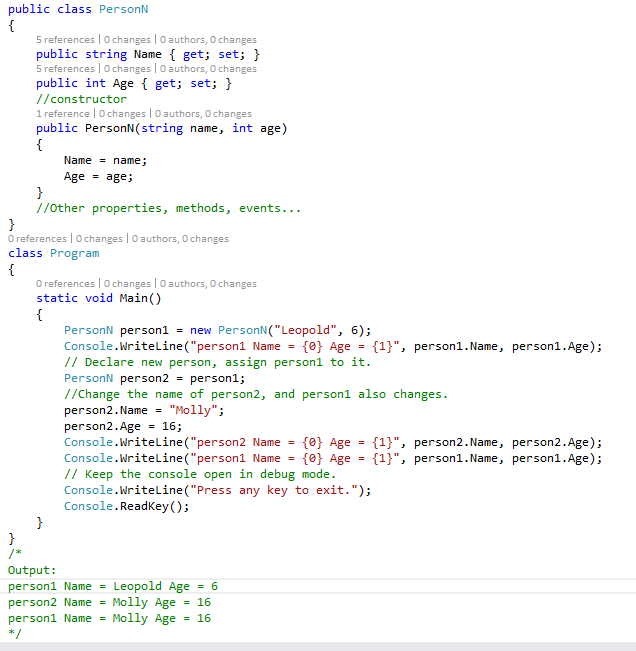
}

# C# Objects

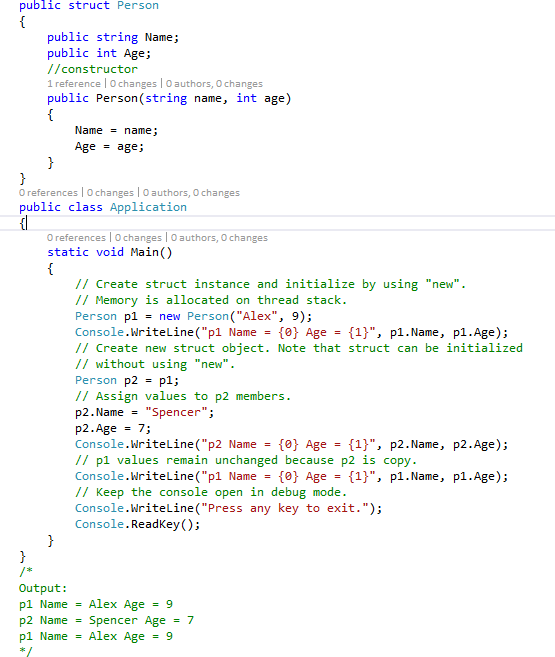
**A class or struct definition is like a blueprint that specifies what the type can do.** An object is basically a block of memory that has been allocated and configured according to the blueprint. A program may create many objects of the same class. Objects are also called instances, and they can be stored in either a named variable or in an array or collection. Client code is the code that uses these variables to call the methods and access the public properties of the object. In an object-oriented language such as C#, a typical program consists of multiple objects interacting dynamically.

Struct Instances vs Class Instances

Because classes are reference types, a variable of a class object holds a reference to the address of the object on the managed heap. If a second object of the same type is assigned to the first object, then both variables refer to the object at that address. Instances of classes are created by using the new operator. In the following example, Person is the type and person1 and person 2 are instances, or objects, of that type.



Because structs are value types, a variable of a struct object holds a copy of the entire object. Instances of structs can also be created by using the new operator, but this is not required, as shown in the following example:



An instance of the class is allocated in the heap that is garbage-collected (and hence could be lost is not referenced) while an instance of a struct (if not defined within a class) is allocated on thread stack (fixed).

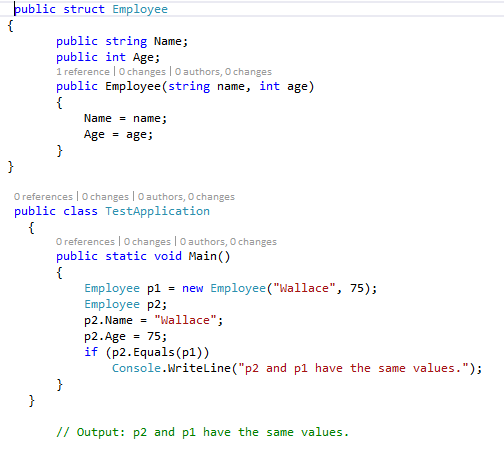
The memory for both p1 and p2 is allocated on the thread stack. That memory is reclaimed along with the type or method in which it is declared. This is one reason why structs are copied on assignment. By contrast, the memory that is allocated for a class instance is automatically reclaimed (garbage collected) by the common language runtime when all references to the object have gone out of scope. It is not possible to deterministically destroy a class object like you can in C++.

NOTE: The allocation and deallocation of memory on the managed heap is highly optimized in the common language runtime. In most cases there is no significant difference in the performance cost of allocating a class instance on the heap versus allocating a struct instance on the stack.

Object Identity vs Value Equality

When you compare two objects for equality, you must first distinguish whether you want to know whether the two variables represent the same object in memory, or whether the values of one or more of their fields are equivalent. If you are intending to compare values, you must consider whether the objects are instances of value types (structs) or reference types (classes, delegates, arrays).

* To determine whether two class instances refer to the same location in memory (which means that they have the same identity), use the static Equals method. (System.Object is the implicit base class for all value types and reference types, including user-defined structs and classes.)
* To determine whether the instance fields in two struct instances have the same values, use the ValueType.Equals method. Because all structs implicitly inherit from System.ValueType, you call the method directly on your object as shown in the following example:



The System.ValueType implementation of Equals uses reflection because it must be able to determine what the fields are in any struct. When creating your own structs, override the Equals method to provide an efficient equality algorithm that is specific to your type.

* To determine whether the values of the fields in two class instances are equal, you might be able to use the Equals method or the == operator. However, only use them if the class has overridden or overloaded them to provide a custom definition of what "equality" means for objects of that type. The class might also implement the IEquatable<T> interface or the IEqualityComparer<T> interface. Both interfaces provide methods that can be used to test value equality.

# Inheritance

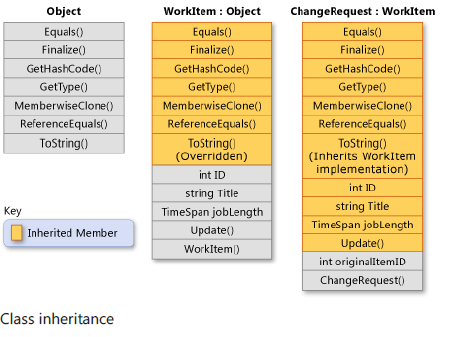
Inheritance, together with encapsulation and polymorphism, is one of the three primary characteristics of object-oriented programming. Inheritance enables you to create new classes that reuse, extend, and modify the behavior that is defined in other classes. The class whose members are inherited is called the base class, and the class that inherits those members is called the derived class. A derived class can have only one direct base class. However, inheritance is transitive. If ClassC is derived from ClassB, and ClassB is derived from ClassA, ClassC inherits the members declared in ClassB and ClassA.

Structs do not support inheritance, but they can implement interfaces.

Conceptually, a derived class is a specialization of the base class. For example, if you have a base class Animal, you might have one derived class that is named Mammal and another derived class that is named Reptile A Mammal is an Animal, and a Reptile is an Animal, but each derived class represents different specializations of the base class.

When you define a class to derive from another class, the derived class implicitly gains all the members of the base class, except for its constructors and finalizers. The derived class can thereby reuse the code in the base class without having to re-implement it. In the derived class, you can add more members. In this manner, the derived class extends the functionality of the base class.

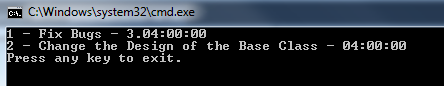
The following illustration shows a class WorkItem that represents an item of work in some business process. Like all classes, it derives from System.Object and inherits all its methods. WorkItem adds five members of its own. These include a constructor, because constructors are not inherited. Class ChangeRequest inherits from WorkItem and represents a particular kind of work item. ChangeRequest adds two more members to the members that it inherits from WorkItem and from Object. It must add its own constructor, and it also adds originalItemID . Property originalItemID enables the ChangeRequest instance to be associated with the original WorkItem to which the change request applies.



The following example shows how the class relationships demonstrated in the previous illustration are expressed in C#. The example also shows how WorkItem overrides the virtual method Object.ToString, and how the ChangeRequest class inherits the WorkItem implementation of the method.

Here is a code example and its output.





Abstract and Virtual Methods

When a base class declares a method as virtual, a derived class can override the method with its own implementation. If a base class declares a member as abstract, that method must be overridden in any non-abstract class that directly inherits from that class. If a derived class is itself abstract, it inherits abstract members without implementing them. Abstract and virtual members are the basis for polymorphism.

# Polymorphism

It is the ability of a class to share the same methods (actions) but implement them differently.

Polymorphism is often referred to as the third pillar of object-oriented programming, after encapsulation and inheritance. Polymorphism is a Greek word that means "many-shaped" and it has two distinct aspects:

* At run time, objects of a derived class may be treated as objects of a base class in places such as method parameters and collections or arrays. When this occurs, the object's declared type is no longer identical to its run-time type.
* Base classes may define and implement virtual *methods*, and derived classes can override them, which means they provide their own definition and implementation. At run-time, when client code calls the method, the CLR looks up the run-time type of the object, and invokes that override of the virtual method. Thus in your source code you can call a method on a base class, and cause a derived class's version of the method to be executed.

Virtual methods enable you to work with groups of related objects in a uniform way. For example, suppose you have a drawing application that enables a user to create various kinds of shapes on a drawing surface. You do not know at compile time which specific types of shapes the user will create. However, the application has to keep track of all the various types of shapes that are created, and it has to update them in response to user mouse actions. You can use polymorphism to solve this problem in two basic steps:

1. Create a class hierarchy in which each specific shape class derives from a common base class.

2. Use a virtual method to invoke the appropriate method on any derived class through a single call to the base class method.

First, create a base class called Shape , and derived classes such as Rectangle , Circle , and Triangle . Give the Shape class a virtual method called Draw , and override it in each derived class to draw the particular shape that the class represents. Create a List<Shape> object and add a Circle, Triangle and Rectangle to it. To update the

drawing surface, use a foreach loop to iterate through the list and call the Draw method on each Shape object in the list. Even though each object in the list has a declared type of Shape , it is the run-time type (the overridden version of the method in each derived class) that will be invoked.

Example:



## Polymorphism Overview

Virtual Members

When a derived class inherits from a base class, it gains all the methods, fields, properties and events of the baseclass. The designer of the derived class can choose whether to

* override virtual members in the base class,
* inherit the closest base class method without overriding it
* define new non-virtual implementation of those members that hide the base class implementations

A derived class can override a base class member only if the base class member is declared as virtual or abstract. The derived member must use the override keyword to explicitly indicate that the method is intended to participate in virtual invocation. The following code provides an example:

public class BaseClass

{

public virtual void DoWork() { }

public virtual int WorkProperty

{

get { return 0; }

}

}

public class DerivedClass : BaseClass

{

public override void DoWork() { }

public override int WorkProperty

{

get { return 0; }

}

}

Fields cannot be virtual; only methods, properties, events and indexers can be virtual. When a derived class overrides a virtual member, that member is called even when an instance of that class is being accessed as an instance of the base class (basically the memory location contains the overridden member).The following code provides an example:

DerivedClass B = new DerivedClass();

B.DoWork(); // Calls the new method.

BaseClass A = (BaseClass)B;

A.DoWork(); // Also calls the new method.

Virtual methods and properties enable derived classes to extend a base class without needing to use the base class implementation of a method. An

interface provides another way to define a method or set of methods whose implementation is left to derived classes.

Hiding Base class members with new members

If you want your derived member to have the same name as a member in a base class, but you do not want it to participate in virtual invocation, you can use the new keyword. The new keyword is put before the return type of a class member that is being replaced. The following code provides an example:

public class BaseClass

{

public void DoWork() { WorkField++; }

public int WorkField;

public int WorkProperty

{

get { return 0; }

}

}

public class DerivedClass : BaseClass

{

public new void DoWork() { WorkField++; } // NEW Memory location

public new int WorkField;

public new int WorkProperty

{

get { return 0; }

}

}

Hidden base class members can still be accessed from client code by casting the instance of the derived class to an instance of the base class. For example:

DerivedClass B = new DerivedClass();

B.DoWork(); // Calls the new method.

BaseClass A = (BaseClass)B;

A.DoWork(); // Calls the old method.

Preventing Derived Classes from Overriding Virtual Members

Virtual members remain virtual indefinitely, regardless of how many classes have been declared between the virtual member and the class that originally declared it. If class A declares a virtual member, and class B derives from A, and class C derives from B, class C inherits the virtual member, and has the option to override it, regardless of whether class B declared an override for that member. The following code provides an example:

public class A

{

public virtual void DoWork() { }

}

public class B : A

{

public override void DoWork() { }

}

A derived class can stop virtual inheritance by declaring an override as sealed. This requires putting the sealed keyword before the override keyword in the class member declaration. The following code provides an example:

public class C : B

{

public sealed override void DoWork() { }

}

In the previous example, the method DoWork is no longer virtual to any class derived from C. It is still virtual for instances of C, even if they are cast to type B or type A. **Sealed methods can be replaced by derived classes by using the new keyword**, as the following example shows:

public class D : C

{

public new void DoWork() { } // new memory location

}

In this case, if DoWork is called on D using a variable of type D, the new DoWork is called. If a variable of type C, B, or A is used to access an instance of D, a call to DoWork will follow the rules of virtual inheritance, routing those calls to the implementation of DoWork on class C. (// THE Latest update in the memory location)

Accessing Base Class Virtual Members from Derived Classes

A derived class that has replaced or overridden a method or property can still access the method or property on the base class using the base keyword. The following code provides an example:

public class Base

{

public virtual void DoWork() {/\*...\*/ }

}

public class Derived : Base

{

public override void DoWork()

{

//Perform Derived's work here

//...

// Call DoWork on base class

base.DoWork();

}

}

It is recommended that virtual members use base to call the base class implementation of that member in their own implementation. Letting the base class behavior occur enables the derived class to concentrate on implementing behavior specific to the derived class. If the base class implementation is not called, it is up to the derived class to make their behavior compatible with the behavior of the base class.

## Versioning with the Overide and New keywords