

UNIT: 01.

OOPS CONCEPTS

Syllabus: Introduction, Comparison b/w procedural programming paradigm and object oriented programming paradigm, features of object oriented programming : Encapsulation, class, object, Abstraction, Data hiding, polymorphism, and Inheritance.

Introduction of object oriented design

OOPS → OOP (Object oriented programming) in a programming approach that are based on classes and objects which contain data and code that manipulate that data.

→ OOPS promote the use of objects, encapsulation, inheritance, and polymorphism to create modular and maintainable code.

Aspect	Procedural programming	Object oriented programming
1. Focus	Procedures and functions.	Objects and their interaction.
2. Data and functions	Separated	Encapsulated within object (classes)
3. Organization	functions	classes and object
4. Data sharing	Global access	Controlled access within objects
5. Code reusability	Limited, function can be reused	Reuse code through inheritance and polymorphism.
Q.		

Pop



OPP

3

(1) Pop follow top down approach.

(1) OPP follow bottom up approach.

(2) It is less secure.

(1) It is highly secured.

(3) It deals with algorithm.

(2) It deals with data.

(4) It takes very less memory.

(4) It takes more memory than POP.

(5) There is no any access specifier.

(5) It has access specifier like public, private and protected etc.

(6) In POP, we can't perform overloading.

(6) In OPP overloading is possible.

(7) In POP, data hiding is not possible.

(7) In OPPs, data hiding is possible.

(8) Program is divided into small parts called functions.

(8) Program is divided into small parts called objects.

Example:

C, fortran, Pascal

etc.

Example:

C++, java, Python etc.

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Features of Object Oriented Programming

1. Encapsulation: It is a fundamental concept in OOP that promotes data protection and organization. It involves building the data (attributes or properties) and methods (functions or behaviours) that operate on that data into a single unit, the class.

The Meaning of Encapsulation, is to make sure that 'Sensitive data' is hidden from user. To achieve this you must declare a class variable/attribute as private (cannot be accessed from outside the class). If you want others to read or modify the value of a private member, you can provide public get and set method.

2. Class: A class in C++ is the building blocks that leads to object oriented programming.

A class is a user defined data type, which hold its own data members and member function, which can be used and accessed by creating an instance of this class.

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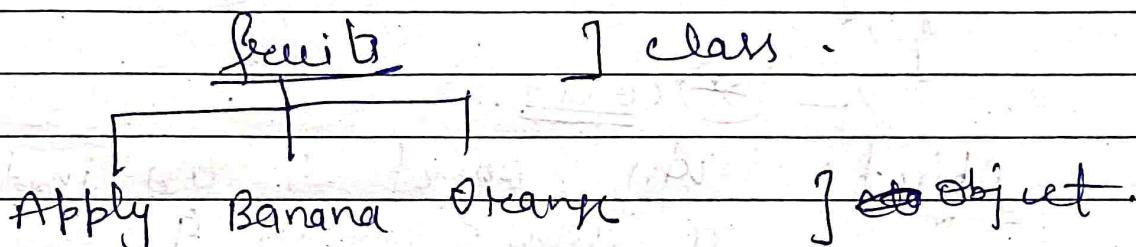
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- A C++ class is like a blueprint for an object.
- Class is a user defined data type which has data members and member functions.

class classname

Eg



~~Syntax~~
~~Very hard~~ ~~to define~~ ~~user defined data type~~

class classname

{

Access specifier: // Can be public, Private or protected

Data members;

// variable to be used

Member functions; // Methods to access data members

Body of function;

// class name end with semi colon

Eg

class Student

{

public:

int Roll no; } member data

string name; } member data
void show() } Member function

{

cout << " your name = " << name;

}

}

- ~~cont~~ cont.

Object: An object is an instance of a class. When a class is defined no memory is allocated but when it is initialized (such an object is created) memory is allocated.

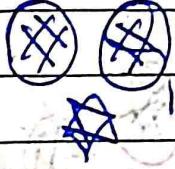
Declaring Object: When a class is defined, only the specification for the object is defined, no memory or storage is allocated.

To use data and access functions defined in the class, you need to create object.

Syntax

class name object name;

Access data members and Member functions.



The data member and member function of a class can be accessed using dot(.) operator with object.

Syntax:

Object name . membertype ;

Object name . memberfunction () ;

Eg

* →

int main()

{

Student ob;

ob. Rollno = 30 ;

ob. name = "Kailash" ;

ob. show();

return 0 ;

}

4. Abstraction: It is the process of simplifying complex object

by focusing on essential features while hiding unnecessary details.

Example:-

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

class Care {

};



```

        local struct Engine)
public:
    void start() {
        startEngine = true;
        cout << "Engine started :)" << endl;
    }
    void drive() {
        if (startEngine) {
            cout << "You are ready to drive!" << endl;
        } else {
            cout << "Can't drive the car!" << endl;
        }
    }
main() {
}

```

Care C:

C. start()

C. drive()

5. Data hiding: Data hiding is a concept in which the internal details or state of an object are hidden from the outside world. This is achieved by using access specifiers (e.g., private, protected) to

③ ④, ⑤

Date _____
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Control access to class member.



Polymorphism: It is a concept in which an object can be treated in different ways. It means that object of a class can be used as object of their ~~derived~~ derived classes.



Static \rightarrow Polymorphism.



Dynamic \rightarrow Polymorphism.



Eg

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;



Inheritance: In C++, it is possible to inherit attributes and methods from one class to another. We group the "inheritance concept" into two categories.



• derived class (child) — the class that inherit from another class

• Base class (Parent) — the class being inherited from.

To inherit the class we use : Symbol.

Why

① Reusability

Introduction to Object Oriented Design.

Object Oriented Design (OOD) is the process of designing a system or application using OOP principle.

It involves identifying classes, their relationships, and defining their attributes and methods.

Eg : when designing a Software systems for a Library, you'd use OOP to create classes for books, patrons and library operations.

You'd define how these classes interact to achieve tasks like checking out book or managing the library Catalog.

Chapter 1
is completed



UNIT: 08

DATA TYPE, OPERATORS, AND CONTROL STRUCTURES.

Syllabus:- Basic data type, Derived data type, keywords, identifiers, Constants and variables, Type Casting, operators, and operator precedence.
Control structures: if statement, switch case, for, while, and do-while loops, break and continue statement.

C++ Data type

① User defined type

- structure
- Union
- class
- enumeration

② Derived type

- Array
- function
- pointer
- reference.

③ Build in type

~~bitfield~~
primitive
type

Integral type

int

char

void

Floating type

float

double

Java Heo
Saturnus 12/9/23

Build in

④ void → To specify the return type of the function.

→ → to indicate an empty argument list for a function:

Integer: → int

→ 2 bytes

→ short, by sign + unsigned

→ range = -32768 to 32767

character: → char
 → 1 byte
 → short, long, signed, Unsigned.
 range = -128 to 127

* float: 4 byte
 range = 3.4×10^{-37} to 3.4×10^{37}

(*) double: 8 byte
 range = 1.7×10^{-308} to 1.7×10^{308} .

User Defined data type

1. class: Already discussed.

2. Structure: A structure is a collection of variables of different data type referenced under one name.

(*) eg:
 struct student

 int roll-no;

 char name[20];

 float marks;

 char grade;

}

;

3. Union: A Union is a memory location that is shared by two or more different variable, generally of different types at different times. Defining a Union is similar to defining a structure.

Eg:

Union Share

```
int a;  
char ch;  
};
```

Union Share C;

4. Enumeration: It is a user defined data type used to define a set of name integer constant. Enumeration are used to make our code more readable.

Eg

enum EnumName

```
Constant1,  
Constant2,  
Constant3;
```

//

3 /

Derived Data Type

1. Array: Array is a collection of elements of the same data type.

Eg: `int scores[5] = {90, 85, 85, 92, 103};`

2. Pointers: Pointers store memory addresses of variable.

Eg:

`int x = 10;`

`int *ptr = &x;` // ptr stores the address of x

3. Structures: Functions: Functions is a set of statements that take input performs some computation and produce output.

Eg:- `int add (int a, int b)`
 {
 return a+b;
}

4. References: References are aliases or alternative names for variable.

They provide an alternative way to access data stored in a variable.

Eg
`int x = 10;`
`int &ref X = x;` // Create a reference to x.

Keyword: Keyword is nothing but reserved word, whose meaning is already defined, on the compiler.

Note: (1) we can't use keyword as a variable and constant name.

(2) Keyword must be in lower case.

C++ Keyword List

break, short, for, void, this, do, while, enum, float, this, if etc

Eg: if → only used for conditional statement

else → used only in combination with "if".

for → used for looping statement.

Identifier: It refers to the name that is used to identify variable, function and so on.

→ They must start with a letter (uppercase or lowercase) or an underscore.

Variable: Variable is nothing but name of memory where we store the data.
 → Variable are symbol.

Note: (1) variable are case-sensitive in C++

(1) In C++, variable starts with either (a-z, A-Z) or underscore (-).

(2) we can't give extra space between the variable.

→ variable can hold different value at different time during the program's execution.

Ex: int count = 0;

Constant: Constant are values that remain unchanged during the execution

of a program. In C++, you can define constant by their ~~const~~ "Const" keyword.

→ constant are type of value.

Ex: Const int numberofMonth = 12;

Type Casting It is the process of converting a value from one data type to another

There are two types of typecasting

- ① Implicit Type Casting
- ② Explicit Casting

1. Implicit Typecasting: happens automatically when the compiler converts a value from one data type to another, typically to prevent data loss.

2. Explicit Type Casting: is when the programmer manually specifies the conversion from one data type to another using casting operators.

Example

```
#include <iostream>
int main()
```

{

// implicit type casting

```
int numInt = 5;
```

```
double numDouble = 2.5;
```

```
double result = numInt + numDouble;
```

~~Std::cout << "Implicit Result : " << result <<~~
~~Std::endl;~~

// Explicit type Casting .

double myDouble = 3.14;

int myInteger = static_cast<int>(myDouble);

~~Std::cout << "Explicit Result : " << myInteger << endl; Std::endl;~~

return 0;

4.

Operators

1. Arithmetic operators: +, -, *, /, %

2. Logical:

&& (AND) — Returns true, if both operands true

|| (OR) — True, if atleast one true

! (NOT) — Reverses the result

3. Relational:

<, >, <=, >=, ==, !=

4. Assignment: +=, -=, *=, /=, %=

5. Invert and decrement: ++, --

6. Bitwise:

& (bitwise AND), | (OR), ^ (XOR)
 ~ (NOT), << (left shift)
 >> (Right shift)

operators precedence: is the order in which operators are evaluated in an expression. Operator with higher operands are evaluated first.

- * / % are higher than +, -
- <, >, <=, >=, != are less than &, |, ^

Control structures

if

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
int main()
```

{

```
    int age; int a = 20;
```

age

```
    if ( a < 30 )
```

{

```
        cout << "True" << endl;
```

}

3 sections

if else,

{ int age;

cout << "enter your age";

cin >> age;

if (age >= 18)

{ cout << "adult";

y

else

{ cout << "not adult";

y return;

y

else if {

int score;

cout << "enter your score";

cin >> score;

if (score >= 90)

{ cout << "A";

y

else if (score >= 80)

{ cout << "B";

y

else if (Score >= 20)

{

cout << "C++";

y

else

{

cout << "F";

y

return 0;

y

Switch - Case It is used to perform
multi-way branching
based on the value of an expression.

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

int main()

{

int day = 4;

switch (day)

{

Case 1:

cout << "Monday";

break;



Case 2:

cout << "Tuesday";

break;

Case 3:

```
cout << "Wednesday";  
break;
```

Case 4:

```
cout << "Thursday";  
break;
```

default:

```
cout << "weekend";
```

y

```
autumn);
```

for loop: It is used for iterating a specific number of times.

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
int main()
```

{

```
    for (int i = 1; i <= 6; i++)
```

{

```
        cout << "Iteration " << i << endl;
```

}

```
    autumn)
```

}

while loop:

```
#include <iostream>
int main()
{
    int a = 4; j
    while (a < 10)
    {
        std::cout << "a:" << std::endl;
        a++;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Do while loop:

```
#include <iostream>
int main()
{
    int num = 1;
    do
    {
        std::cout << "number:" << num << std::endl;
        num++;
    } while (num <= 5);
    return 0;
}
```

ps Used in loop + switches Case

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Break statement: st in used to exit
a loop permanently.

#include <iostream>

int main()

{

 for (int i=1; i<=10; i++) ;

{

 if (i==5)

 break;

}

 std::cout << i << std::endl;

}

return 0;

?

~~outPut~~

12345

Continue statement: it wants to continue the
next iterations in the loop

#include <iostream>

int main()

{

 for (int i=1; i<=10; i++) ;

{

 if (i==3);

{

 continue;

}

~~outPut~~

123456

78910

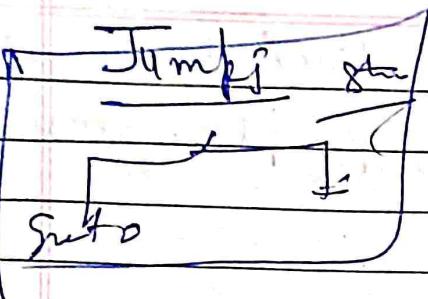
 std::cout << i << std::endl;

}

return 0;

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Transfer the program control
to a different part of
control



Jumping Statement

- go to
- break
- Continue
- return.

int main()

{
 a
 int ~~x~~;

 for (a = 1; a <= 10; a++)

 {
 if (a == 5)

 {
 go out
 }

 cout << num << endl;

}

 cout << "Hi There..."

 out:

 cout << "Hello Learner";

 output

, 1, 2, 3, 4, Hello Learner

return;

int add () {

 int a = 10, b = 20

 return a + b;

main () {

 cout << add ();

static data make function
and prevent such

UNIT: 03

CLASS AND OBJECTS.

Syllabus :→ Implementation of a class, Creating class object, operations on objects, Relationship among objects, Accessing class members, Access Specifiers, Constructors and destructor, Type of constructor, static members, Empty classes, Nested classes, Local classes, Abstract classes, Container classes.

Implementation of a class :

Class & object in OPP using C++

Class in OPP

A class is an entity that determines how an object will behave and what the object will contain.

In other words, it is a blue-print or a set of instruction to build a specific type of object.

→ The class + object are the most imp. features of C++.

→ A class is similar to structure but it provides more advanced features

④ → Keyword → 'class'

Syntax

Class : class_name {

 field ;

 method ;

}

Eg :

Class Test {

 private :

 int n = 10;

 public :

 void show ()

}

Output : The value of n : 10;

}

Object:

- This is the basic unit of object oriented programming.

Declaring

```
class-name object-name;
```

```
Test T;
```

Eg

color > is class

Red) - object initialization
Blue)

Programming

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
class Test {
```

```
private:
```

```
int n=10;
```

```
public:
```

```
void show();
```

```
}
```

```
cout << "The value of n: " << n <<
```

```
endl;
```

```
y
```

```
y,
```

main ()
{
 T t;

t.show(); // Declaring object

class data and Member function

- Access specifier label public and private.
- Function are public and data is private.
- Data is hidden so that it can be safe from accidental manipulation.
- Functions operates on data are public so they can be accessed from outside the class.

Member functions

- Member functions are functions that operate on the data encapsulated in the class.

- Public member function are the interface to the class.

→ define member function inside the class definition
or

define member function outside the class definition.

But they must be declared inside the function.

Function inside class body

Define a class of st. that has a roll no. This class should have a function that can be used to set the roll no.

```
class student {
    int rollno; //
```

sub class declared
public:
return type function name()
{ };

Function outside class body

```
class className {
    public:
```

3; return type function name();

Class Name : function name() { } ;

(#) \rightarrow Scope resolution
operator (#).

Program

Class Student {

 int rollNo;

public:

 void show (int a RollNo);

y,

 void student :: show (int a RollNo)

{

 rollNo = a RollNo;

y,

(#) Member function with a parameter (#).

(#) How to create input and output
Method in Class - in C++

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

Class Student

{

private:

 int roll no;

 char name [30];

public:

 void inputData () {

Cont << "Enter roll no.:";

Cin >> rollno;

Cont << "Enter name:";

Cin >> name;

}

} main()

student S;

Cont << "----- Input Data -----" << endl;

S.inputData();

✓

Ans

public:

void inputData() {

Cont << "Enter roll no.:";

Cin >> rollno;

Cont << "Enter name:";

Cin >> name;

}

void outputData() {

Cont << "Your roll no. is: " << rollno << endl;

Cont << "Your name is: " << name;

}

main() {

student S;

Cont << "----- Input Data -----" << endl;

S.inputData();

Count < 4 —— output data —— "read i;"

S. Output Data () ;

y.

Access specifier

access control rules

④ Access specifier in C++ class defines the

→ C++ has 3 new Keyword introduced, namely.

1. Public

2. Private

3. Protected

→ Access Specifier in the program, are followed by Colon.

→ You can use either one, two or all 3 three Specifier in the same class to set different boundaries for different Class members.

1. Public: Means all the class member declared under public will be available to everyone.

- Hence, there are chances that they might change them.
- So the key members must not be declared public.

Class Public Access

```
public : // public
```

```
int x; // Data member function
```

```
void display();
```

```
// Member function declaration
```

2. Private: Keyword, means that no one can access the class members declared private outside that class.

→ If someone tries to access the private member, they will get a Compile time error.

→ By default class variable and member functions are private.

Class private Access

{

Private: 1) Private access specifier
int x; // Data Member declaration
void display(); // Member function declaration

y

3. Protected: in the last access specifier,
and it is similar to
private, if makes class members
inaccessible outside the class.

But they can be accessed by any
subclasses of that class. (e.g. class A
is inherited by class B. Then class
B is the subclass of class A.)

Class protected Access

8

Protected:
int x;
void display();

9

(*)

Constructors

→ Simple object used to analyze the function

(*)

→ C++ recognizes a constructor call for each object it has created.

→ Constructors are special class functions which performs initialization of every object.

→ The compiler calls the constructor whenever an object is created.

→ If there were no constructor, the compiler provides a default constructor that is, a constructor with no parameters.

→ Name of constructor function is same as name of class.

Note

First, constructor name must be same as the name of class.

→ Way of compiler knowing they are constructor

Second, no return type is used for constructor.

3rd way to know of compiler.

Class Test {

 Private :

 int n;

 Public :

 Test() {

 n = 0;

 Class members

 Member functions

 and no return type

}

};

Type of Constructors

1. Default constructor
2. Parameterized Constructors
3. Copy constructors
4. Parameterized constructors
Dynamic.

Properties

1. Constructors have the same name as that of the class belonging to.
2. Constructors are executed when an object is declared;
3. Constructors have no return value nor void.
4. The main function of constructors is to initialize the object.
5. Constructors can have default values and can be overloaded.
6. Constructors without argument is called as default.
7. They cannot be inherited.

ProgramDestructor:

- ① Destructor is a special member function that is executed automatically when an object is destroyed that has been created by the constructor
- ② They are used for de-allocate the memory that has been allocated for the object by the constructor
- ③ A destructor declaration should always begin with the tilde (~) symbol as shown in the following Example.

Example of Const. & Det.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <conio.h>
```

```
Class test
```

```
{
```

```
Public :
```

```
test()
```

```
{
```

```
n = 10;
```

```
Cont<ng>
```

```
~ test()
```

```
{
```

Cont << "object destroyed" ;
y
};

Void main()

{
test ob;
getch();
y..

OR

Class a

{
int n; j
public:
a()
{

n=10;
Cont << n << endl;

y
in a()
{

{
cout << "destroyed object<< endl;
Cont << n << endl;
y

};
Void main()

{
class a(), a ob, ob1;
y getch();

Type of Constructors

1. Default constructor: A constructor with no parameters is called default constructor.

Syntax

Class-name()

{ // code
}

Program

```
#include <iostream.h>
#include <conio.h>
class A
{
```

 int a; // Private

public:

 A()

 {

 a = 100;

 cout << a;

}

 void main()

{

 A res();

 A obj;

 getch();

}

Q. Parametrized constructor: A constructor that accepts or receives parameter in called parametrized constructor.

Syntax :- Class name (¶ parameter, para2...)

Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <conio.h>
class A
{
    int a, b; // Private
public:
    A(int x, int y)
    {
        a = x; b = y;
    }
    void show()
    {
        cout << a << " " << b;
    }
};
void main()
{
    A obj(10, 20);
    obj.show();
    getch();
}
```

3. Copy constructor: A constructor that is used to copy or initialize the value of one object into another object is called Copy constructor.

Syntax:

Class name (class-name & ref)

{

 // code;

}

Example:

Class A

{

 int a, b ; // Private

 Public :

 A (int x, int y)

{

 a = x ; b = y ;

}

 A (A & ref) ; // copy w/

 a = ref . a ;

 b = ref . b ;

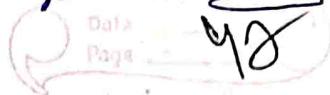
}

 void show ()

 { cout << "a = " << a << endl ;

}

Compile time \rightarrow static memory allocation
run time \rightarrow dynamic allocation



4.

void main()

{

class A;

A obj(10, 30);

A obj2 = obj;

obj.show();

~~obj2.show();~~

obj2.show();

getch();

4.

4. Dynamic constructor; It is used for allocating memory while creating object.

Example:

class integer

{

int *x

int *y

public:

integer()

{

integer(int x, int y)

{

xn = x;

xy = y;

}

void add()

{

int sum = x + y;

cout << "int sum is = " << sum;

y

};

void main()

{

integer obj(10, 20);

obj.add();

y

Constructor Overloading

If a class contains multiple constructor where each type of constructor have ~~to~~ different parameters
then it is called overloading.

Syntax:

class-name()

(1).

{
 // code
}

(2).

y
{
 // code
}

class-name(Param1, Param2...)

y -

Example

Class A

{

int a, b; // Private float c;

Public :

A() // Default Con

{

cout << "Enter two no. ";

cin >> a >> b;

cout << a << " " << b << endl;

y

A(int x, int y) // Param Con

{

a = x; b = y;

cout << a << " " << b << endl;

g

A(int x, float y)

{

a = x; c = y;

cout << a << " " << c << endl;

g

3; int main()

{

close();

A obj1, obj2(100, 200), obj3(10, 2, 3);

obj1.show();

3

Constructor

1. It allocates memory for an object.
2. The name of the constructor is the same name as the class name.
3. It is automatically called at the time of object declaration.
4. We can pass argument through constructor.
5. We can declare multiple constructors in a class.
6. They can be overloaded.
7. They ~~has to~~ are many types.

Syntax

```
class name (arg)
{
    }
    y =
```

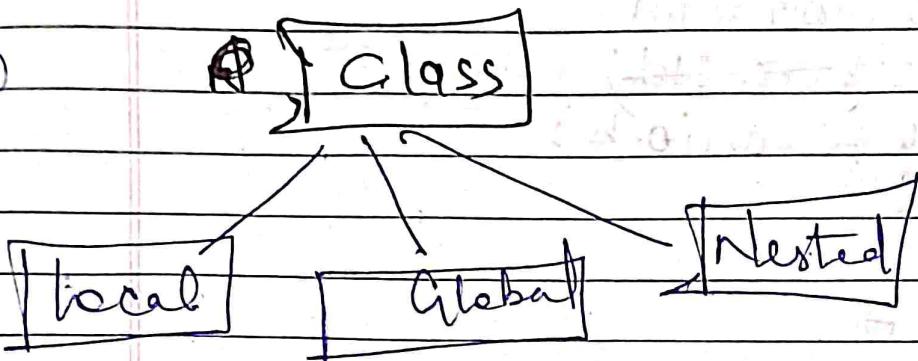
Destructor

1. It deallocates the memory of an object.
2. The name of destruction is the same name as the class name but preceding tilde sign (~).
3. It is automatically called at the time of object termination.
4. We can't pass any argument through destruction.
5. Only one destruction in a class.
6. But, overloading is not possible.
7. No type

~ class name ()
 {
 }
 y =

Jai Hoo Satmaryam

18/9/23



② Local Class: A class which is declared inside a function is called local class.

③ Syntax:

```
return-type function-name  
{  
    Class class-name  
}
```

 {

 }

 main()

{

 function-name ;

}

Example: #include <iostream>
using namespace std;
#include <conio.h>
void fun()
{

Class A

Reinelli:

int a, b;

public:

void show();

cout << "Enter the no";

cin >> a >> b;

cout << a << endl << b;

A obj;

obj.show();

void main()

clrscr();

fun();

getch();

Global Class ↗ A class which is declared
+ outside ~~the~~ of all the
function ~~as~~.

~~Structure~~ ↗ class class-name

{ Protected:

// Data Member

~~private~~ Public:

// Member function

}

class class-name : public 1

}

y ;

Example:

```
#include <iostream.h>
#include <conio.h>
class A
{
protected:
    int a, b;
public:
    void disp()
    {
        cout << "Enter two no: ";
        (cin >> a) >> b;
    }
    void show()
    {
        cout << a << " " << b << endl;
    }
};

class B : public A
{
public:
    void disp()
    {
        cout << a << " " << b;
    }
};
```

void main()

}

clear();

A obj; Bobj2;

Obj.input();

obj.show();

obj2 disp();

3.

Offset:

Enter this value:

34

56

34 56

1504 1480

Nested Class

: A class which is declared inside another class. called Nested class.

Syntax: class class-name {

{ public:

 class class-name2 // member variable

}

// Data Member

Public:

// member function

g;

g;

Example

```
#include <iostream>
#include <conio.h>
class A
{
public:
    Class B
    {
        int a, b;
    public:
        void input()
        {
            cout << "Enter two value: ";
            cin >> a >> b;
        }
        void show()
        {
            cout << a << " " << b << endl;
        }
    };
}
```

3j

Void main()

{

```
A :: B obj ;  
obj . input () ;  
obj . show () ;  
getch () ;
```

}

Output Enter two value :-

56

23

56 23

 [Empty class] : A class that does not contain any data members of int a, float b etc.

— However, a class can contain member function.

→ If we calculate the size of classes Output will be 1 byte.

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

class xyz

{

public;

void print()

{

cout << "HelloWorld"

y

y;

int main()

{

xyz obj;

obj.print();

cout << "Size of class is "

sizeof(obj))

return 0;

}

Output:- Size of class is 1

Abstract class: A class which contains at least one pure virtual function. we can't declare the object of abstract class.

Syntax: Class A

{
 public:

 Virtual void show() = 0;

}

Pure Virtual function: ① are virtual function which have no definition. They start with virtual keyword and end with equal to zero.

② If we don't override the pure virtual function in derive class, then derive class also become abstract class.

Eg:- #include <iostream>

#include <conio.h>

class A

{

public:

virtual void show() = 0;

void disp()

{

cout << "hi: i am base class";

y

g.

Class B: ~~public~~ A

{

public:

void show()

{

cout << "hi i am derived
class";

g.

(B) g.

void main()

{

cls1.show();

B* ob;

ob.disp()

getch()

out put

hi i am
base
class

Container class

is a data type
that is capable of
holding a collection of items.

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
class first
```

{

```
public:
```

```
first()
```

{

```
cout << "Hello first\n";
```

}

```
}; // Container class
```

```
class Second
```

{

```
// creating object of first
```

```
first f;
```

```
public:
```

```
Second()
```

{

```
cout << "Hello second\n";
```

}

```
int main()
```

```
{ // creating obj of secnd.
```

```
Second S;
```

}

Output

Hello first

Hello second



Access Class Members

Object-name . data-member

Object-name . member-function

Ex

Stu1 . a ;

Stu1 . getdata();

Stu1 . display();

Static Keyword

Static

Data
Member

Member
functions

1. Static Data Member: (i) when we declare a data member as a static either inside or outside of a class called static data member.
- (ii) There is only one copy of static data member even if there are many class object.
- (iii) It is always initialized with zero bcoz it's default value is zero.
- (iv) It is shared memory for all object of the class.
- (v) It retains its value.

2. Static member function: (i) If we create a member function of a class as a static is called static member function.

- (ii) It is accessible only static data members
 - (iii) It is also accessible if we don't have any object of the class.

Program: for static data & functions

Class A

S 2000

in

81

57

16

21

卷之三

• 100 •

—
—

—
—

~~8. RIBBON~~

2011-12

—
—

卷之三

— 8 —

3

—
—

二

2

2 -

400

45) Wiel

~~Volume M~~

10. 100

卷之三

class's initial one.

int A :: b = 0;

Void main()

{

A obj(10,20), obj 2(100,200);

obj . show(); // 10 20

obj2 . show(); // 100 200

A :: disp(); // 200

Obj . show(); // 10 200.

}.

UNIT: 04

FUNCTIONS, Arrays

AND STRING HANDLING

Syllabus: Function components, Default arguments, Passing parameter, function prototyping, Call by value, Call by reference, returns by reference, Inline function, friend functions, static functions, Recursion, Array iteration, type of Array, Array of object, String handling.

function:- It is a block of code which take input, processed it, and produce output in the form of result.

~~Note:-~~ function run only when it call.

Types :-

① User defined function (^{user-defined function} _{create our own})

|— add ()
|— sum()

② Pre-defined function.

|— strcpy()
|— strcmp() etc.

User defined function syntax :-

return-type fun-name (^{parameters} _{list})

Example: without parameters

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

main() { void say(); }

cout << "Hello" ; } " << endl ;

main() {

 say();
}

height parameter

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void say( string msg )
{
    cout << "Hello" << msg << endl;
}
main()
{
    say("How are you ?");
}
```

Recursive function

A function which calls itself is called recursive function.

Syntax: return-type function(Parameter)
{
 if (base condition)
 // code
 else
 function-name(Parameter);
}

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Example.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int fact (num int num)
{
    if (num == 0)
        return 1;
    else
        return num * fact (num - 1);
}
```

```
main()
{
    int num;
```

```
cout << "Enter a number: ";
cin > num;
```

```
int r = fact (num);
```

```
cout << "Factorial of " << num << " is "
     << r;
```

(*) (*) (*)

on

89

Call by Value: In Call by value
the actual value of
variable can't be changed, if you
change the value of function parameter
it is only changed ~~for~~ for current
function.

Syntax:

return-type fun-name(P₁, P₂)

{
 }
 ||
 y -

Example: #include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void changeValue (int num)

{
 num = num + 10

cout << num << endl;

y

main ()

{

 int num = 100;

 cout << num << endl;

 changeValue (num); // Calling
 cout << num;

y

Output

100	110
100	

89

2009

Call by address: It's used when you meant to modify a variable inside a function and meant that modification persist outside the function.

Syntax:

return-type fun-name (*P)

{
 //
}

Example:

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

void changeValue (int *P)

*P = *P + 10;

cout << "Pointer Value: " << *P

<endl>;

main ()

}

int num;

cout << "Enter Value: ";

cin >> num;

cout << "Original Value: " << num

<endl>;

changeValue (&num);

cout << "New Value: " << num

<endl>;

(B)

Output

Enter value: 100

Original value: 100

Pointer value: 110

New value: 110.

→ In call by reference, we passes the address of a variable

Call by reference: It is alias to an existing variable.

When you declare a reference, you create a new name for an existing variable and any changes done in reference is treated as if it were the original value.

* Example:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
main()
```

```
{ int a = 100;
```

```
cout << a << endl;
```

```
int &ref = a;
```

```
cout << ref << endl;
```

```
cout << +ref << endl;
```

```
cout << a;
```

Pointers :- If a is a variable that holds the memory address of another variable.

Example

```
int a = 10;  
int *ptr = &a;
```

Note:- While working with pointers we need to use unary operator.

Eg. $\&, *$

'Value of address operator'

Macro: Macro is a preprocessor directive that defines a name or a function like macros that can be used throughout the code.

Note 10 :- It replaces the name of Macro to the value of Macro.

② Macro is defined using the `#define` preprocessor directive.

① Syntax :- `#define macro-name macro-value`

Inline function :- If a function is inline, then the

Compiler places the copy of the function code in the place of the function call.

And this can speed up the program execution.

Syntax:

inline return-type fun-name
(parameter)

|
|| code.

Example:-

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
inline int fun(int a, int b)
```

```
{  
    return a+b;  
}
```

```
main()
```

```
{  
    int value = fun(30, 12);
```

```
    cout << value;
```

Output:- 42

Friend Functions

It is a function that is declared as a friend of a class not as a member of a class instead of that it can access private and protected members of class.

Syntax

Friend return-type fun-name (class1, class2)

Example :

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
class Ankit;
```

```
class Ankush;
```

```
}
```

```
private:
```

```
int money = 10;
```

```
friend void rohit (Ankit, Ankush);
```

```
}
```

```
Class Ankit
```

```
{
```

```
private:
```

```
int money = 20;
```

```
friend void rohit (Ankit, Ankush);
```

```
}
```

Void rohit (Ankit x1, Ankush x2)

{

cout << "sum" << r1.money + r2.money;

}

main()

{

Anush obj1; Ankit obj2;
rohit (obj2; obj1);

}

Friend class: is a class that
granted accessibility of
private and protected members of
another class.Syntax: class class_name(A)

* \$

{ Private:

public:

friend class.class_name;(B)

};

* \$

Properties

* \$

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

SPH

Class A

{

Private :

```
int a=10, b=20;
```

Public :

```
void show()
```

{

```
cout << a << " " << b << endl;
```

}

Friend class B ;

};

Class B

{

public :

```
void add (A &x)
```

{

```
int add = x.a + x.b;
```

```
cout << "Sum of A and B : " << add;
```

}

};

main()

{

```
A obj ; B obj2 ;
```

```
obj.show();
```

```
obj2.add(obj);
```

}

Output

10 20

Sum of A & B : 30

Array: It is a collection of homogeneous data type.

~~The~~ The index of the array always starts from start i.e. with 0.

Eg: arr[3] = {10, 20, 30}

→ Array stores element contiguously in memory.

Eg: arr[5] =

10	20	30	40	50
0	1	2	3	4

Eg:

Function Prototype: is simply the declaration of function which contains function name, parameters and return-type.

It doesn't contain function body.

Syntax: return-type function-name
(type arg)

Eg: void display(int a, int b)

Function definition: Contains the block of code to perform a specific code.

Syntax: return-type function-name (type arg)
g HII.

```
#include <iostream> // stream
```

```
#include <iomanip>
```

```
void max (int a, int b); // function prototype
```

```
void main()
```

}

class

```
max (19, 20); } // function call
```

```
greet();
```

y

```
void max (int a, int b)
```

{

if (a > b)

cout << "a is greater" << endl;

else

cout << "b is greater" << endl;

}

Function Components

- ① Function prototype / Function declaration
- ② Function definition
- ③ Function call

function Call: statement call the function by matching its name and argument(s). A function call can be made by using function name and providing the required parameters.

Syntax function_name (actual parameters)

Eg: int n=5, m=10;
 display(n, m);

Default Argument \Rightarrow a default argument is a default value provided for a function parameter.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int sum(int a, int b, int c=5);
{
    return a+b+c;
}
int main()
{
    int a=5, b=6;
    cout << sum(a, b);
    return 0;
}
```

Parameters: the variable that are defined during a function declaration or definition.

Argument: is a value, which is passed inside in a function when the function called.

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

int sum (int a, int b)

{
 return a+b; } Parameters

int main()
{ Argument

sum (5, 6);

return 0; }

Advantages of friend function

1. It Simplifies Complex algorithm and data structures.
2. ~~with~~ Selective access to private and protected members.

Disadvantages

1. Violate the principle of encapsulation
2. Increase code coupling

Return by

Reference

The type of the returned value,

To return a reference, the function definition must include an ampersand (&) after

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G1

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

~~int num()~~

```
int a; // Global Variable
```

```
int gnum()
```

```
{ return a;
```

```
}
```

```
int main()
```

```
{ num() = 26;
```

```
cout << a;
```

```
return 0;
```

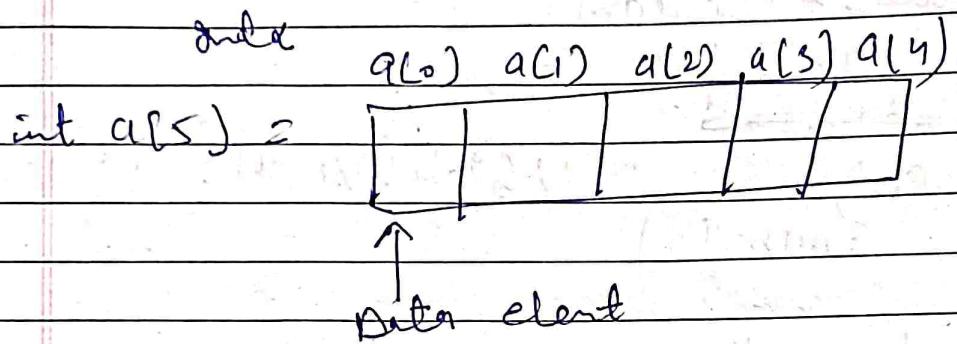
```
}
```

~~ANSWER~~

Arrays

In a collection of similar types of data elements.

e.g. `int a[5];`



Array of object

In array of object data elements are nothing but the objects of class.

Syntax

`Class name Obj [size];`

Example

~~(*)~~ `Student s[5];`

object

Roll

Percent

~~(*)~~ $s[0]$

~~(*)~~ $s[1]$

~~(*)~~ $s[2]$

~~(*)~~ $s[3]$

~~(*)~~ $s[4]$

~~(*)~~ $s[5]$

Calling function in array of object

For moral object

```
Student s1, s2;
s1.accept();
s2.accept();
```

For array of object

```
Student a[5];
for (i=0; i<5; i++)
{
    a[i].accept();
}
```

While calling
the function
you have to
maintain the
index variable

Q. Write a program to create class student having data member roll and percent. Accept and display the details for 5 students.

Code : #include <iostream>

#include <conio.h>

class student

{

private :

int roll;

float percent;

public :

void accept()

{
cout << "Enter the roll no and
percent":j

cin >> roll >> percent;

void display()

}

cout << "Student details":<< endl;

cout << "roll no.":<< roll << endl;

cout << "Percent":<< percent << endl;

}

int main()

{

student s[5];

class();

for (i=0; i<5; i++)

{

s[i].accept();

}

for (i=0; i<5; i++)

{

s[i].display();

}

getch();

return 0;

}

Output: Enter the roll no and percent 11

60

Enter the roll no and percent 12

70

Enter the roll no and percent 13.

90

Enter the roll no and percent 14

80 90

92 93

97.7.

— Student details —

Roll no = 11

Percent = 60

n = 92

n = 70

n = 13

n = 90

,

{

— Student detail —

Roll no = 18

Percent = 97.7.

String handling

is a class that defines object that can be represented as a stream of characters.

a sequence of characters as an object of an class.

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
#include <string>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
string str = "Hello, world";
```

```
cout << str.length();
```

```
cout << "Substring: " << str.substr(0, 5);
```

```
<endl>;
```

```
cout << "Character at index 7: " << str[7];
```

```
<endl>;
```

```
return 0;
```

Output

String length: 13

Substring: Hello

Character at index 7: w

One-D Array

```
int main()
{
    int numbers[] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
    for (int i=0; i<5; i++)
    {
        cout << numbers[i] << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

2-D Array

```
int main()
{
    int matrix[3][3] = {{1, 2, 3}, {4, 5, 6},
                        {7, 8, 9}};
    for (int i=0; i<3; i++)
    {
        for (int j=0; j<3; j++)
        {
            cout << matrix[i][j] << endl;
        }
    }
    return 0;
}
```

function overloading

when a

program

Contains more than one function
with same name different type
of parameter is called functions
overloading.

Syntax

Class class-name :

{

public:

void add()

{

}

void add(int a)

{

}

Example:

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

class A {

int num1=20, num2=20;

public:

void func()

```
int = num1 + num2;  
cout << "Addition" << sum << endl;  
void fun ( int a, int b )  
{
```

```
int Sub = a - b;
```

```
cout << "Subtraction" << sub << endl;
```

{

4)

```
int main ()
```

{

```
A- obj ;
```

```
obj . fun (); obj . fun ( 100, 50 );
```

```
return 0;
```

}



UNIT : 05

POLYMORPHISM AND TYPE CONVERSION.

Syllabus \Rightarrow Introduction, concept of binding -
 Early binding and late binding,
 virtual functions, pure virtual
 functions, operators overloading,
 Rules for overloading operators,
 Overloading of various operators,
 function overloading, constructor
 overloading, type conversion —
 Basic type to class type, class type
 to basic type, class type to
 another class type.

Type conversion :

1. Basic to class \Rightarrow In this type of conversion the source type is basic type and the destination type is class type. Means basic

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data type is converted into the class type.

Example

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
class Time1
```

```
{
```

```
    int hours;
```

```
    int minutes;
```

```
public:
```

```
    time1 (int t)
```

```
{
```

```
    hours = t / 60;
```

```
    minutes = t % 60;
```

```
}
```

```
void display()
```

```
{
```

```
cout << "The time is "
```

```
cout << hours << " hrs and "
```

```
minutes << " mnts "
```

```
,
```

```
y
```

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
    time1 t1(90);
```

int = 90

```
    t1.display();
```

↑

```
    return 0;
```

Basic data
type

```
y
```

2. Class to Basic ; \rightarrow In this type of conversion the source type is class type and the destination type is basic type. Means class data type is converted into the basic type.

Example:

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

Class time

{

int minutes;

int hours;

public:

time (int t)

{

hours = $t / 60$;

Minutes = $t \% 60$;

}

int add ()

{

cout << "The time is ";

cout << hours << "hrs and " <<

minutes << "mins ";

int m;

m = minutes;

return m;

}

3)

```
int main()
{
    int x = 90;
    time t1(n);
    int j;
    j = t1.add();
    cout << "the value of j is " << j;
    return 0;
}
```

3. Class to class \Rightarrow In this type of conversion both the type that is source type and the destination type are of class type.

Means the source type is class type and the destination type is also ~~get~~ called the class type.
In other words, one class data type is converted into the another class type.

Example

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

Class inherit 2;

Class inherit 1

{

```
int code;  
int item;  
float price;}
```

Public:

```
input ( int a, int b, float c )
```

{

```
code = a;  
item = b;  
price = c;
```

}

void put data ()

{

```
cout << "code : " << code << endl;
```

```
cout << "item : " << item << endl;
```

```
cout << "price : " << price << endl;
```

}

```
int getCode () { return code; }  
int getItem () { return item; }  
float getPrice () { return price; }
```

operator float () { return (item * price); }

};

Class Innt 2

{

int code;
float value;

Public:

~~int~~ Innt 2()

{

Code = 0;
Value = 0;

y

Innt 2 (int x, float y)

{

Code = x;
Value = y;

{

Void put data()

{

cout << "Code : " << code << endl;

cout << "Value : " << Value << endl;

(2)

y

~~Innt 2 (Innt 1) P~~

{

Code = P.getcode();

Value = P.getitem() & P.get price();

y

(2)

(2)

int main()

inner 1 SI(100,5,140.0);

innent 2 d1;

float + v;

$$+v = s1$$

~~8.0~~ · d1 = 51 · 11 class to day.

Cont < c 'Product' details - insert type';

S1. put data();

Cont << 4.1n stock value" << 4.1n" j

Count << Value << tr << "n" j

Cont L<9 product details - inner 2 syke's
L< "n";

di.putdata();

autumn o;

Output :- Product details — invent / type

Feele : 100

item : s

Beige: 140 m² sandblasted white

Stock value

value for

product details - inner 2 type

Code : 100 value : 700

Polymorphism \Rightarrow Polymorphism is a concept in which an object can be created in different ways. It means that objects of a class can be used as objects of their derived classes.

Polymorphism :-

- Static
- Dynamic

(* Compile time polymorphism *).

(By Using function overloading)

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void showInfo( int age )
```

```
{ cout << age << endl;
```

```
} else showInfo( string name )
```

```
{ cout << name << endl; }
```

Void showinfo (double salary)

{ Cont << Salary << endl;

} main()

Shows info { " Akhilesh ");

Shows info { 203);

Shows info { 5634.2);

| * Runtime Polymorphism *

{ Class A :

{ public :

{ virtual void disp() ;

{ Cont << " go to class A " ;

} Class B : public A {

public :

void disp() {

. Cont << " go to class B " ;

} main() {

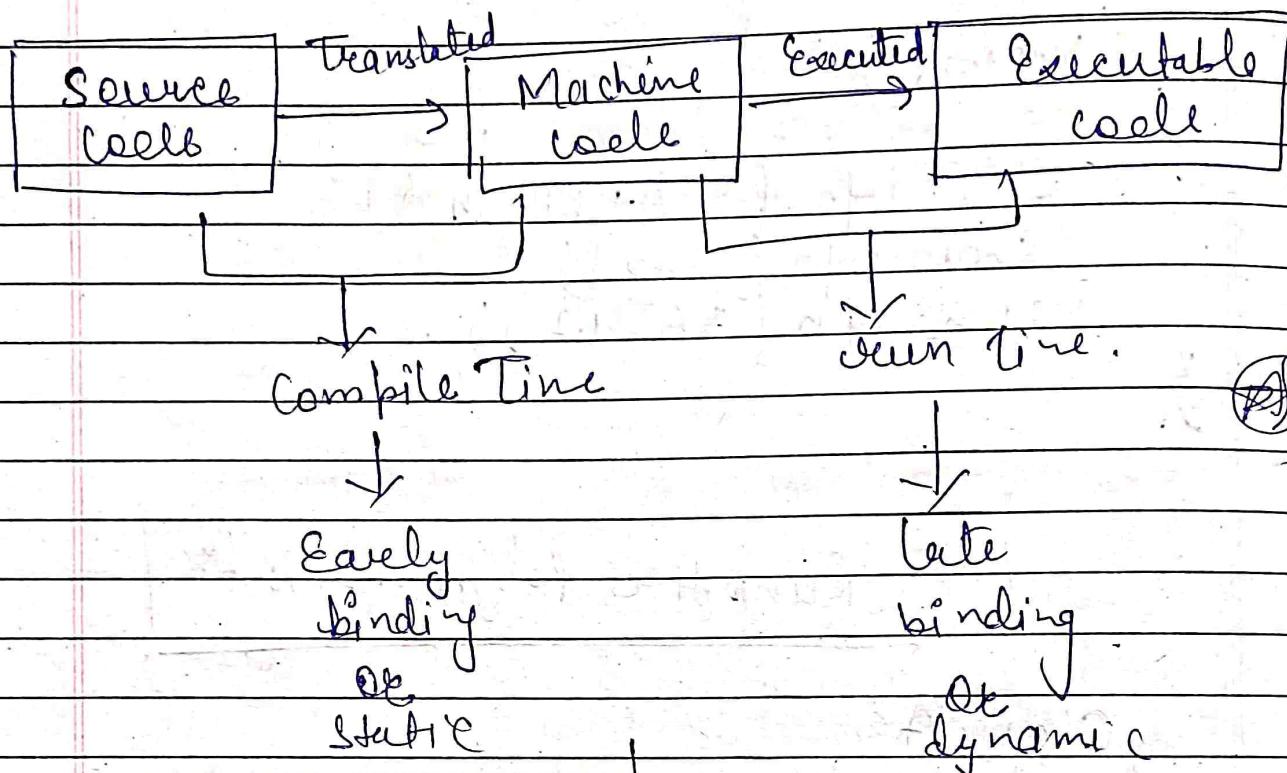
A *ptr ; B obj ;

ptr = &obj ;

} ptr -> disp();

*ptr
of class
B*

Concept of binding → Early binding and late binding.



- | | |
|---|---|
| ① Early binding happens at the compile time | ① Late binding happens at the time of running of the program. |
| ② Its type is static | ② Its type is dynamic |
| ③ Uses function overriding and operator overloading | ③ Uses virtual functions. |
| ④ This is called compile time polymorphism. | ④ This is called run time polymorphism. |

Pure Virtual functions

A virtual function that has no body in the base class, is known as pure virtual function.

This virtual function is ~~defined~~ inside its derived classes.

Syntax

virtual return-type function-name(argument);

class base

{ public:

 virtual void vfunc(); // Pure virtual
 };
 // function

Class derived : public base

{ public:

 void fun();

 // Overrides virtual function of
 // derived class

};

main()

{
 base *ptr;
 derived d;

 ptr = &d;

 ptr->vfunc(); // derived class

~~Must go this to one day~~ \$P



operator overloading \Rightarrow To assign more than one operation on same operator known as operator overloading.

To achieve operator overloading we have to write a special function known as operators().

Syntax

```
between type operator op( argument )  
{  
    body;  
}
```



You can write operator() in two ways:-

1. class function
2. friend function

List of operator that can't be overloaded - in operator overloading

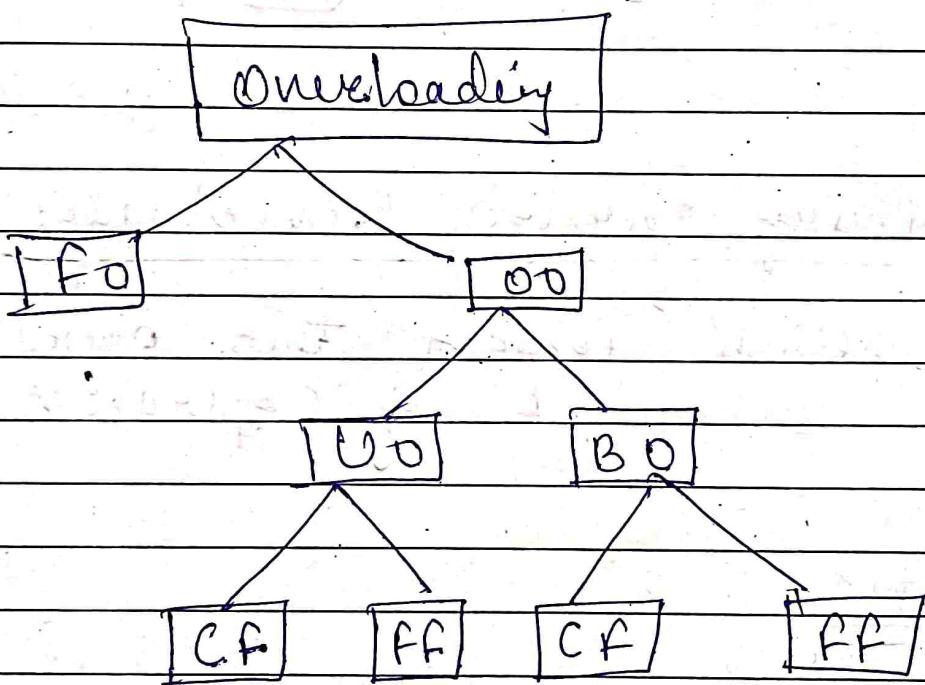
.	\rightarrow dot	but does in function overloading
::	\rightarrow Scope resolution.	
?:	\rightarrow Conditional	
size of ()		

Types of operator overloading

1. Unary operator overloading
2. Binary operator overloading.

Types of overloading

1. Function overloading
2. Operator overloading.



1. Unary Operator overloading :- A operator which contains only one operand is called Unary Operator Overloading.

Syntax

① class function :

```
return type operator op()
{
    body;
}
```

② friend body :

```
friend return type operator op(ay list);
```

2. Binary operator Overloading A operator

which contain two operands
is called Binary operator overloading

Syntax

① class function

```
return type operator op(ay list) || left
{
    body;
}
```

(11) friend function

friend return-type operator op (arg-list);

* we can pass only two argument.

(a)

(1) Unary Overloading:(1) Using class function:

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

class demo

int a, b;

public:

demo (int x, int y)

a = x;

b = y;

{}

void show()

{}

cout << "A" << a << "B" << b << endl;

void operator - ()

{}

a = -a;

b = -b;

{}

{}

Voice main()

{

```
demo ob(-10, 20);
```

```
ob.show();
```

```
-ob;
```

```
ob.show();
```

```
getch();
```

g.

A = -10 B = 20

A = 10 B = -20

(2)

Using friend function

Class Demo

{

```
int a, b;
```

```
public:
```

```
demo( int x, int y )
```

{

```
{ a=x; b=y }
```

{

Voice show()

{

```
cout << "A" << a << endl << "B" << b <<
```

```
endl;
```

friend void operator -(demo &obj)

{

```
obj.a = -obj.a;
```

g.

```
obj.b = -obj.b;
```



void main()

{

demo ob(10, -20);

ob.show();

ob;

ob.show();

}

(2) Binary Operator Overloading:

→ W.A.P. to add two no. by class function and friend functions.

Q. Class Functions!

#include <iostream.h>

using namespace std;

Class demo

{

int a, b;

public:

demo(int x, int y)

{

a = x;

b = y;

}

void show()

{

Q Conf C++ A : $a < a < b \& b < B : b \leq b \leq b$

P demo operator+(demo obj)

demo temp(0,0);

temp.a = a + obj.a;

temp.b = b + obj.b;

return temp;

Voice main()

demo ob(10,20), ob1(30,40), ob2(0,0);

obj2 = ob+ob1;

obj2.show();

getch();

Friend Function

This keyword :- when the name of instance variable and local variable both are same and if we initialize instance variable with the help of local variable then our compiler get confused that which one is local or one is instance variable.

12/25

To avoid this problem we use
this keyboard.

~~Ex~~

#include <iostream>
using namespace ~~std~~ std;
~~int main()~~

Class A

```
int a, b;
public:
```

```
A( int a, int b )
```

```
this->a = a; this->b = b;
```

{}

void show()

```
cout << a << " " << b << endl;
```

{}

void main()

```
A obj(10, 20);
```

```
obj.show();
```

```
return;
```

{}

(A)

Rules for operator overloading

1. Only existing operators can be overloaded.
2. The overloaded operator must have at least one operand, that is of user defined type.
3. We cannot change the basic meaning of an operator.
Like $4 + 5$ to subtract.
4. Overloaded operators follow the syntax rules of the original operator.
5. Some operations can not be overloaded.
6. We cannot use friend function to overload certain operators.
7. Unary operator, overloaded by means of a member function,
take no explicit argument & return no explicit values, but those overloaded by means of a friend function, take one reference argument.
8. Binary operator, overloaded through a member function take one explicit and those who are overloaded through a friend function take two explicit arguments.

V.Gnb: MAP to add two complex numbers using binary operator overloading.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

Class Complex

{

float x, y;

public:

Complex ()

{}

* Complex (float real , float imag)

{

x = real;

y = imag;

}

* friend Complex operator + (Complex , Complex);

void display ()

{

cout << "The sum is " << x << " + "

<< y ;

}

Complex operator + (Complex t1 , Complex t2)

{

Complex temp(0,0);

temp.x = t1.x + t2.x;

$$\text{temp} \cdot y = t1 \cdot y + t2 \cdot y$$

return (temp);

{}

int main()

{

Complex t1 (2.5, 3.5);

Complex t2 (1.6, 2.7);

Complex t3(0,0);

t3 = t1 + t2;

t1. display();

t2. display();

t3. display();

return 0;

{}

Binary operator overloading friend function

108
Add of ob.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

Class demo

{

```
int a, b;
public:
```

```
demo() : a(0), b(0) { }
```

}

a = x; b = y;

```
void show();
```

{

```
cout << "A = " << a << " " << "B = " << b
      << endl;
```

friend demo operator + (demo & obj,
 demo & obj2)

{

```
demo operator + (demo & obj, demo
& obj2)
```

{

```
demo temp(0, 0);
```

temp.a = obj.a + obj2.a;

temp.b = obj.b + obj2.b;

return temp;

y

void main()

{

demo ob(10,20); demo ob1(30,40);
demo ob2(0,0);

ob2 = ob + ob1

ob2 = ~~ob1~~.show();

return;

{

UNIT: 06.

INHERITANCE

Syllabus:- Introduction, defining derived class, Type of inheritance, Ambiguity in multiple and multi-level inheritance, virtual base class, object slicing, Overriding members functions, object composition and delegation.

Inheritance :- Inheritance allow a class to inherit the properties and behaviour from another class.

Example:

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

class father

public:

string surname = "Kushwaha";

class Son1 : Father

string name = "Akhilash";

public:

void show()

cout << name << " " << surname <<
endl;

class Son2 : Father

string name = "Ankush";

public:

void disp()

cout << name << " " << surname;

int main()

Son1 s1;

s1.show();

Son2 s2;

s2.disp();

Output:-

Akhilash Kushwaha

Ankush Kushwaha

Types

1. Single inheritance
2. Multiple inheritance
3. Multilevel inheritance
4. Hierarchical inheritance
5. Hybrid inheritance

base
↓
derived

① Single inheritance : A class which contains only one base class and one derived class is called Single inheritance.

Syntax

```
class base
{
    member of base class
};

class derived : public | private | protected
{
    member of derived class
};
```

Example :-

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
class base
```

```
{
```

```
private:
```

```
int a, b;
```

```
public:
```

Void input()

{
cout << "Enter values: " ;
cin >> a >> b ;
}

Void show()

{
cout << "a = " << a << " " << "b = " << b
};
<< endl;

;

Class derive : public base

{

Private :

int m, n;

public :

Void getData()

{

cout << "Enter values : " ;

cin >> m >> n ;

}

Void display()

{

cout << "m = " << m << " " << "n = " << n ;

}

;

Void main()

{

base obj;

derived obj;

obj. input();

obj. show();

obj. getData();

obj. display();

autono;

y.

base

derived

derived.

Q. Multilevel inheritance: \Rightarrow A class which contains only one base class and multiple derived classes is called multilevel inheritance.

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

Class base

{

private :

int a ;

public :

Void input()

{

cout << "Enter the value : " ;

Cin >> a ;

Void show()

cout << "a = " << a << endl ;

ys

y

class derive 1 : public base

{
 private:

 int b;

 public:

 Void input 1()

}

cout << " Enter the value of
derivative class: ";

 cin >> b;

}

 Void show 1()

{

 cout << " b = " << b << endl;

}

}

class derive 2 : public derive 1

{

 private:

 int c;

 public:

 Void input 2()

{

 cout << " enter value of derivative
 Class 2 class: ";

 cin >> c;

}

 Void show 2()

{

 cout << " c = " << c << endl;

}

}

void main()

{

base obj
obj.input();
obj.show();

derived1 obj;
obj1.input1();
obj1.show1();

derived2 obj2;
obj2.input2();
obj2.show2();

return;

3.

or

derived2 obj2;

obj2.input();

obj2.show();

obj2.input1();

obj2.show1();

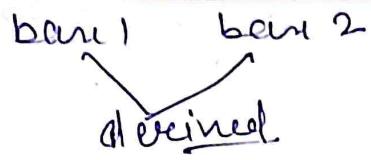
obj2.input2();

obj2.show2();

getch();

answering

2



3. Multiple Inheritance : A class which contains more base classes and only one derived class is called multiple inheritance.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
class base1
```

```
{
```

```
private:
```

```
int a, b, c;
```

```
public:
```

```
void input()
```

```
{
```

```
cout << "Enter the value of  
Base 1 class : ";
```

```
cin >> a >> b;
```

```
{
```

```
void show()
```

```
{
```

```
c = a + b;
```

```
cout << "sum = " << c << endl;
```

```
};
```

```
{
```

```
class base2
```

```
{
```

```
private:
```

```
int a, b, c;
```

```
public:
```

```
void input1()
```

```
{
```

Cont << "Enter Value of Base 2 class ";

cin >> a >> b;

{

void show1()

{

c = a - b;

cout << "Subtraction = " << c << endl;

{

{

Class derive : public base1, public base2

{

main :

int a, b, c;

public :

void input2()

{

cout << "Enter the value of derived

class : ";

cin >> a >> b;

{

void show2()

{

c = a * b;

cout << "Multiplication = " << c << endl;

{

void main()

{

*. base1 ob;

ob. input();

ob. show();

base 2 ob1();
ob1. input();
ob1. show1(); */

derived ob2;
ob2. input2();
ob2. show2();

ob2. input();
ob2. show();

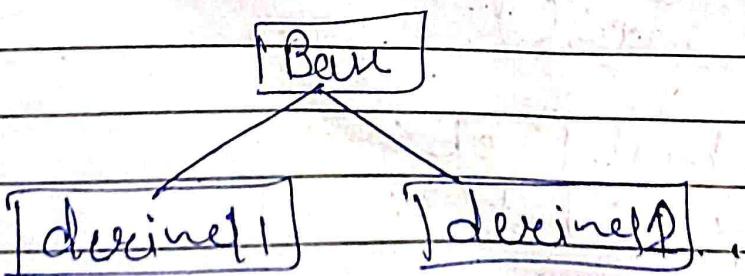
ob2. input1();
ob2. show1();

return 0;

}

4. Hierarchical Inheritance \Rightarrow A class

which contains only one base and multiple derived classes but each derived class can access base class in class called hierarchical inheritance.



```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

Class base

{

private:

```
int a, b;
```

public:

```
void input();
```

{

cout << "Enter the value of Base
class: ";

```
cin >> a >> b;
```

```
void show();
```

{

cout << "Sum" << a + b << endl;

{

};

Class derived: Public base

{

private

```
int n1;
```

public:

```
void input1();
```

{

cout << "Enter the value for derived1"

Class derived : n1;

```
cin >> n1;
```

{

```
void show();
```

{

```
cout << " n1 = " << n1 << endl;
```

```
} ;
```

Class derived 2: public base

```
{
```

Derivative:

```
int n2;
```

public:

```
void input2()
```

```
}
```

* cout << " enter the value of
derived2 class : " ;

```
cin >> n2 >> endl;
```

```
}
```

```
void show2()
```

```
{
```

```
cout << " n2 = " << n2 << endl;
```

```
}
```

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
derived1 obj;
```

```
derived2 obj2;
```

```
obj1. def obj1. input();
```

```
obj1. output show();
```

obj. infant();
obj. show();

return 0;

{

5. Hybrid inheritance \Rightarrow It is the combination of more than one type of inheritance is called hybrid inheritance.

Syntax:

Class A

{

Member of bare class

};

Class B: virtual public | private | protected A
member of derived 1 class

{

Class C: virtual public | private | protected A

{

member of derived 2 class

{

Class D: Public A

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

Class A

{

int n;

public:

void input()

}

cout << "Enter Value : ";

cin >> n;

}

void show()

{

cout << n << endl;

}

}

Class B : Virtual public A

{

}

Class C : Virtual public A

{

}

Class D : Public B , Public C

{

}

void main()

{

A obj ; B obj1 ; C obj2 ; D obj3 ;

Obj . input();
Obj . show();

Obj1 . input();
Obj1 . show();

Obj2 . input();
Obj2 . show();

Obj3 . input();
Obj3 . show();

return 0;

y.

Advantages of inheritance

1. Reusability of code.
2. Same time and effort.
3. Faster development, easier maintenance and easy to extend.
4. Capable of expressing the inheritance relationship.

Ambiguity in Multiple and Multi path inheritance

Ambiguity in inheritance

It Means when one class is derived from two or more base classes that there are chances that the base classes have functions with the same name. So Compiler get confuse . the derived class can access from which base class.

To resolve this we

- Scope resolution operator .
object class:: function()

Ambiguity in Multiple Inheritance

include <iostream>

using namespace std;

class A

Brinat:

int a,b,c;

Public:

void input

class A

Public:

void print message()

Cont << " class A print message " << endl;

Class B

Public:

void print message()

Cont << " class B print message " << endl;

Class AB : Public A, Public B

Public:

void print Message()

A:: print message();

B:: print message();

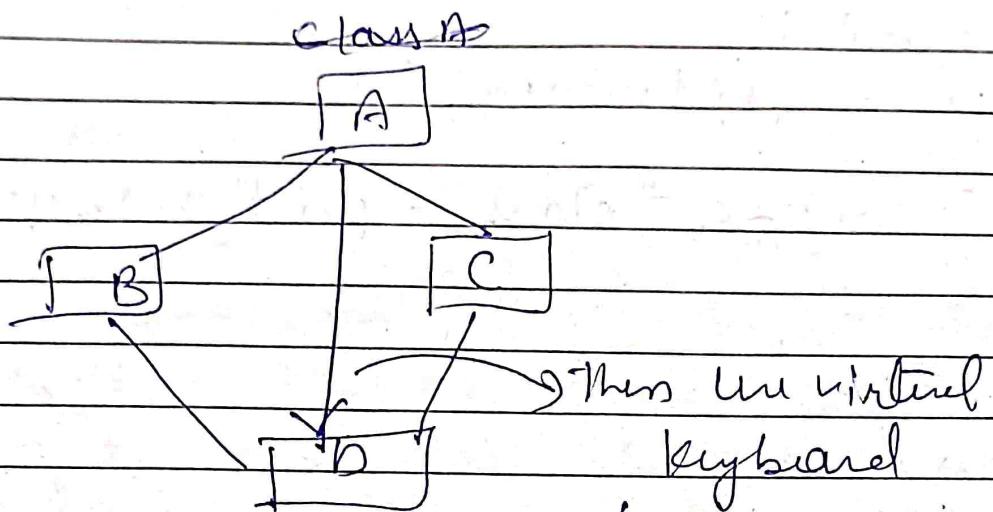
Cont << " class AB print message " << endl;

int main()

AB obj;

obj. print message();

Virtual base class



Thus in virtual
keyboard

(class is hybrid
inheritance)

Advantage

1. Get same space and avoid Ambiguity.

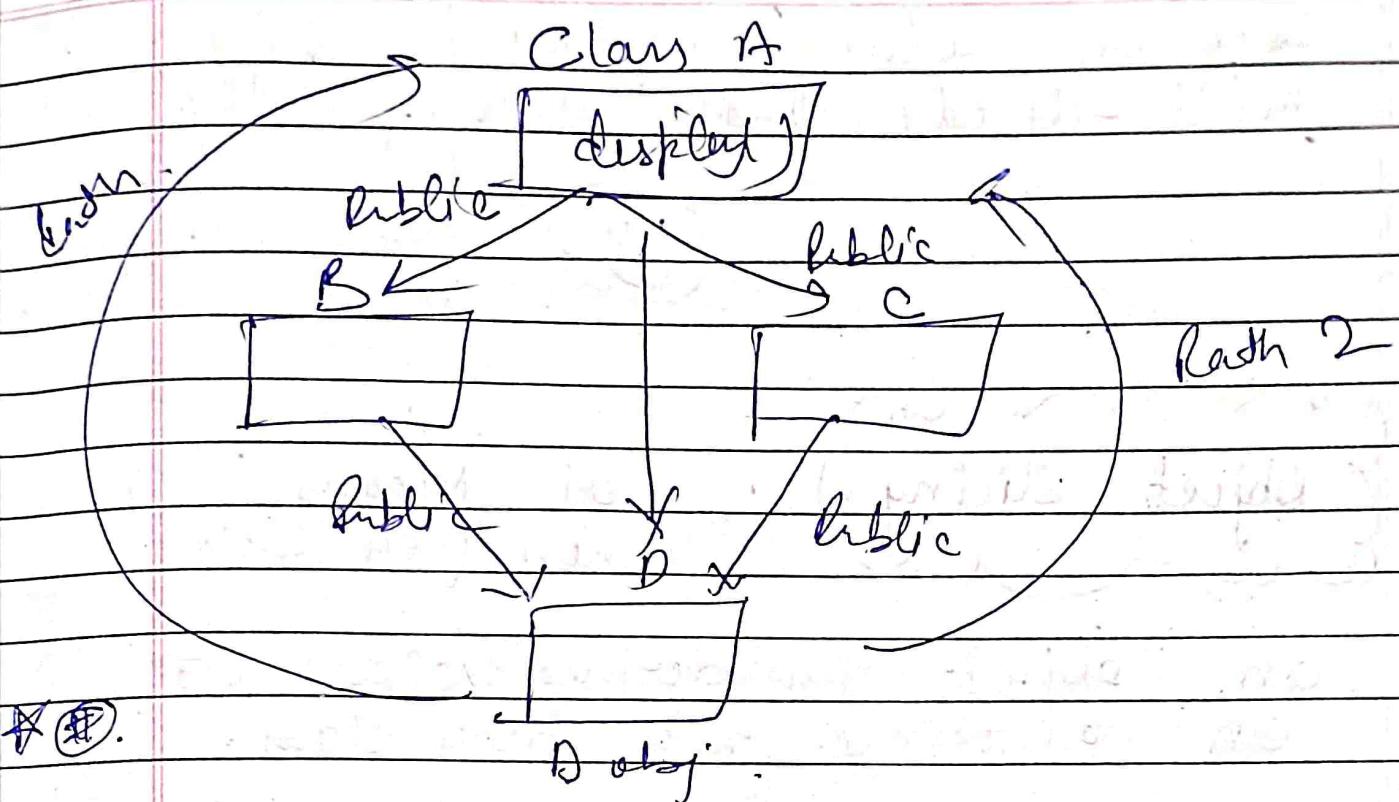
=> If we have class A has function name display.
And class A is base class
for two other classes

Now here the problem.

If we write
obj.display();

then compiler get confused

②



* Why?

* we have two paths to reach `display`.

* So we remove this confusion of conflict we will use virtual while Inherit.

* for ex:

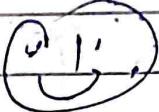
Class B: virtual Public A

{ }
}

Class C: virtual Public A

{ }
}

here By adding keyboard functions
will decide both automatically.



Object slicing:

It means when you assign

an object of a derived class to
an instance of a base class.

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

class A

{ int a, b;

public: A() { }

~~void show~~

A(int x, int y)

{

a = x;

b = y;

}

void show()

cout << "a: " << a;

cout << "b: " << b;

y)

Class B : Public A

{ int c;

Public:

{ B(int x, int y, int z) : A(x, y)

{ C = z

{ void display()

* ~~show()~~

* ~~cout << "C: " << c;~~

* ~~int main()~~

* ~~B ob(12, 10, 10);~~

* ~~A obl;~~

* ~~obl = ob;~~

* ~~obl. show();~~

* ~~return 0;~~

~~cout <<~~

a : 12

b : 10

function overriding: happens when writing function in base and deriving classes in such a way that function name, parameters must be same. Called as function overriding.

Example:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class A
{
public:
    void fun()
    {
        cout << "Inside A" << endl;
    }
}
```

Class B: public A

```
public:
    void fun()
    {
        cout << "Inside B" << endl;
    }
int main()
```

B obj ;

obj . A :: func () ;

return 0;

}.

or

int main ()

{

A *ptr ; B obj . j

ptr = &obj ;

ptr -> func () ;

return 0 ;

Object delegation : object delegation means using the object of another class as a class member of another class.

→ Delegation can be an alternative to inheritance.

→ Advantages

→ run time flexibility —

→ if you want to enhance class A , but A is final and can no further be sub-classed than via delegation

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
class A
```

```
{
```

```
public:
```

```
void func()
```

```
{
```

```
cout << "The delegation";
```

```
y
```

```
}
```

```
Class B
```

```
{
```

```
A a;
```

```
public:
```

```
void print()
```

```
{
```

```
a.func();
```

```
y
```

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
B b;
```

```
b.print();
```

```
return 0;
```

```
}
```

★ Output

The delegation

UNIT: 07.

DYNAMIC MEMORY

MANAGEMENT USING

POINTERS.

Syllabus :- Declaration and initializing
pointers, Accessing data through
pointers, Pointers arithmetic, Memory
allocation :- static and dynamic;
Dynamic memory management using new
and delete operator, pointer to an
object this pointee pointer
related problems — dangling pointer
pointer, null pointer assignment,
memory leak and allocation
failure.

Pointers: Data type which hold the address of other data type.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
int a = 5;
```

```
int* b = &a;
```

cout << "The address of a is " << b << endl;

cout << "The address of a is " << &a << endl;

cout << "The value at address b is " << *b << endl;

return 0;

// Pointer to Pointer

```
int** c = &b;
```

cout << "The ^{address} value of b is " << b << endl;

cout << "The value at address c : " << endl;

<< *c << endl;

Pointer arithmetic

- A pointer can be incremented or decremented.
- Any integer can be added or subtracted from a pointer.
- Any member can be added to an address.

New address = old address + number * size of data type

Program:

```
int main()
```

```
int *p = (int*) 2000;
```

```
p = p + 1; // 2000 + (1 * 2)
```

```
cout << p;
```

Output

2002

Ex:

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
int main()
```

```
int arr[] = {10, 20, 30, 40};
```

```
cout << arr;
```

```
cout << endl;
```

```
int *ptr;
```

```
ptr = arr;
```

```
ptr++;
```

```
cout << endl;
```

```
cout << *ptr << endl;
```

```
cout << "Value = " << *ptr;
```

```
return 0;
```

g

Memory Allocation

1. Dynamic Memory allocation (DMA):-

DMA allows you to set array size dynamically during run time rather than at compile time. This help when the program doesn't know in advance about the no. of items (variable value) to be stored.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    int size;
    int *ptr;
```

cout << "Enter the no. of values you want to store (size of array):"

```
Cin >> size;
```

~~also operator~~ → ptr = new int [size];

cout << "Enter values to be stored in the array: " << endl;

```
for (int i=0; i<size; i++)
```

```
Cin >> ptr[i];
```

y

Count << " values in the array are: " <<

```
for (int i = 0; i < size; i++)
```

{

}

```
cout << ptr[i] << endl;
```

* @.

```
return 0;
```

}

2. Static Memory allocation:

→ allocate size and location to a fixed variable.

Eg

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
int main()
```

```
{ int p;
```

```
char c;
```

```
int arr[100];
```

```
return 0;
```

}

Memos

stack

mb

Global

Program code

New operator: The new operator is used for allocating memory dynamically. It is allocated on heap.

Syntax: Pointer variable = new datatype
 $\text{int } * \text{p};$
 $\text{p} = \text{new int};$

Allocate block of memory:

Pointer variable = new datatype [size].

Delete operator: It is used for deallocating memory at runtime.

delete pointer variable.

* ~~(*)~~ [Dynamic memory allocation using 'new' and 'delete' operator]

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
```

 int *ptr;

 ptr = new int;

 cout << "Enter value: ";

 cin >> *ptr;

Cont << value. is " << &ptr ;)

delete ptr;

return 0 ;

(*)

*

y -

Freeing Array] (Already Discussed)

Pointer to an object ↗

— object pointer are useful in creating objects alternative.

— we can also use an object pointer to access the public member of an object.

Eg

Class items

{

int code;

float price;

public :

void getdata (int a, float b)

{

```
code = a;
price = b;
```

y

void show()

z

```
cout << "code : " << code;
```

y.)

```
cout << " price : " << price;
```

p

int main()

item x;

```
item *ptr = &x; // Pointer to object of class
```

x.getdata(100, 75.5);

x.show();

y

```
// ptr → getdata(100, 75.5);
```

```
1) (*ptr).getdata(100, 75.5)
```

```
// ptr → show();
```

```
// *ptr.show();
```

This pointer is kindly Refer P.no. 122.

Dangling Pointers: If a pointer variable holds the address of an active area location is called dangling pointers.

Example

int main()

{

 int *p;

}

 int a = 5;
 p = &a;

}

Null pointers: ① A pointer that is not initialised with any address is called null pointer.

② Null pointer is known as bad pointer because it holds the address of random memory location.

int main()

{

 int *p;

 cout << p;

}

Null pointer: A pointer variable that is initialized with the null value at the time of pointer declaration.

The null pointer that doesn't point to any memory location.

- It takes a value as zero.

Memory leak: (Refer Ref.)

Void leak()

int *ptr = new int;

int main()

leak();

return 0;

Allocation failure:

Valid fail pointer: is a pointer that has no associated data type with it.

Valid & Invalid

UNIT: 08

Exceptions Handling.

Syllabus:- Review of traditional error handling, basic of exception handling, Exception handling mechanism, Throwing mechanism, Catching mechanism, Rethrowing an exception, specifying exceptions.

Exception Handling:- An exception is unexpected/unwanted situation that occurred at runtime.

C++ provides a try-catch block for handling exceptions.

Syntax : try

```
  {  
    //  
    catch (exception type)  
  }
```

☆ (4)
☆ (5)

Data
Page

Example:

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
#include <stdexcept>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
main()
```

```
{ double bal = 1000.0;
```

```
try :
```

```
    double amt; // Deposit
```

```
    cout << "Enter deposit amount: ";
```

```
    cin >> amt;
```

```
    if (amt <= 0)
```

```
        throw invalid_argument ("Invalid Deposit Amount: ");
```

```
    bal = bal + amt;
```

```
    cout << "Available Amount: " << bal
```

```
<endl>;
```

```
// withdraw
```

```
    cout << "Enter withdraw amount: ";
```

```
    cin >> amt;
```

if (amt <= 0)

{

throw invalid_argument ("invalid
withdraw Amount: ");

y

if (amt > bal)

{

throw runtime_error ("insufficient
fund: ");

y

bal = bal - amt;

cout << " Available Amount: " << bal <<
endl;

y

Catch (exception & e)

{

cout << e.what();

y

y

Output:

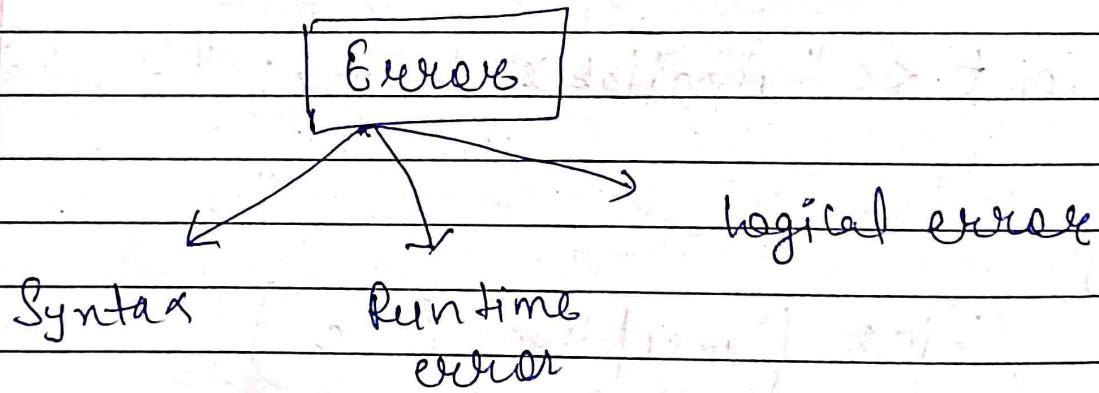
Enter deposit Amount : 300

Available Amount : 1300

Enter withdrawl amount : 1500

Insufficient fund :

Program Debugging: After writing a program the next step is to debug the program.



1. Syntax error :→ Syntax error occurs when we violate any grammatical rule of programming language -

Example :- { main()

Cont << "Enter";
cin >> n // Syntax error

{

2. Run time error :- Runtime error
in any error that causes abnormal program termination during execution.

Example :- main()
{
 int a;
 a = 10%; // Runtime error
 cout << a;

{

3. logical error :- A logical error simply an incorrect translation of either the problem statement or the algorithm.

Example :- main()
{
 int a = 2, b = 4, c = 0;
 float x;
 x = $\frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$;

{

Cont << x;

Throwing Mechanism : \rightarrow Already done.

Catching Mechanism : \rightarrow Already done

Rethrowing Mechanism : \rightarrow A handler can rethrow the exception caught without processing it.

Syntax : throw;

Example :

#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

void div(int x, int y)

cout << "Inside fun()"

try

if (y == 0)

throws y

else

cout << "div = " << x/y;

y

Catch (int a)

{

cout << "In Caught ^ inside fun();
y throw;"
g

int

cout << "In End of function;"
g
exit main();

{

cout << "In Inside main();"

try

{

div(10,5);

g

div(20,0);

Catch (int a)

{

cout << "In Caught int inside
main();"

g

cout << "In End of main();"

g

Specifying exceptions \Rightarrow It is possible to restrict a function to throw just only certain specific exceptions.

- Achieved by adding a 'throws' list^y clause to the function definition.

Syntax:

```
type function (arg list) throws (type list)  
{  
    ...  
}
```

— where type list

Specified the type of exceptions that may throw.

Example:

```
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std;  
void test (int x) throws (int, double)  
{  
    ...  
}
```

if ($x == 0$) throw x ,

else if ($x == -1$) throw 1.2;

{

int main()

{

try

{

int(0);

int(-1);

{

catch (int a)

{

cout << "Caught a int ";

{

catch (double b)

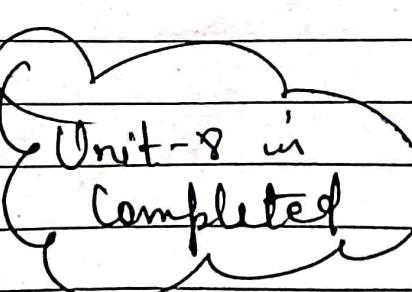
{

cout << "Caught a double";

{

{

{



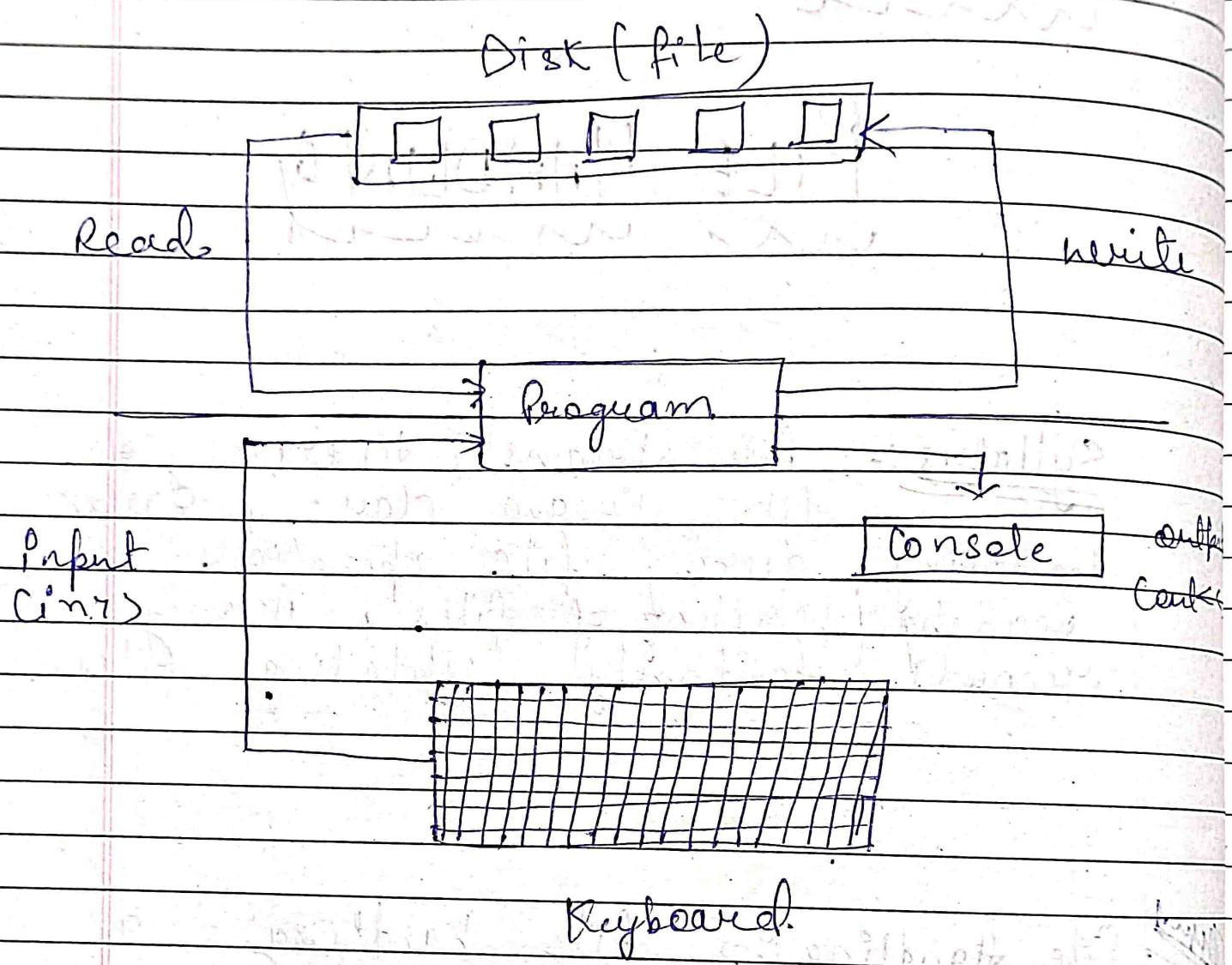
UNIT: 09

FILE HANDLING

Syllabus:- File streams, Hierarchy of file stream classes, Error handling during file operations, Reading (writing) of files, Accessing records randomly, updating files.

Topic: File Handling :- File handling is a process of reading and writing data to files. C++ file handling allows you to store output of a program in a file, and also read file data on console.

how C++ file handling works:-



File Handling operations

1. Create a file
2. open a file
3. read data
4. write data
5. delete file
6. copy file

Create file — ofstream

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
#include <fstream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
int main()
```

```
{ ofstream onfile;
```

```
onfile.open("C:/Users/Dell/Desktop/  
file.txt");
```

```
cout << "file created successfully";
```

```
onfile.close();
```

```
}
```

```
ofstream onfile;
```

```
onfile.open("C:/Users/Dell/Desktop/  
file.txt");
```

```
onfile << "Thanks U so much :)" ;
```

```
cout << "Data has been written in the  
file :)" ;
```

```
onfile.close();
```

```
y.
```

read data → if streams

main() {

ifstream infile; string str;
infile.open("C:/Users/Dell/Desktop/
file.txt");

while (getline(infile, str))

{
cout << str;
}

infile.close();

}

Copy of data from one file to another

main()

ifstream in_file;

ofstream on_file; char str;

in_file.open("C:/Users/Dell/Desktop/
file1.txt");

on_file.open("C:/Users/Dell/Desktop/
file2.txt");

while (in_file.get(str))

{
on_file.put(str);

cout << "Copied !!";

inFile.close();

onFile.close();

{

Delete file → input

{ main()

int value = remove ("C:\\Users\\Dell\\Desktop\\file.txt");

if (value == 0)

{ cout << "File deleted !!";

{ else

{ cout << "File not deleted !!";

{

Chapter 9th
file handling is completed

Input streams

If the direction of flow of bytes is from the device to the main memory then this process is called input.

If the direction of flow of bytes is opposite i.e. from main memory to device then this process is called output.

Static function: It is a member function that is used to access only static data members.

Q Program to find the length of Steady

Code :- #include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()

string str = "Jai Ho Sathyan"
cout << str.length () << endl;
return 0;

→ 15

Guru Puri

Jai Heo Satnayakan

28/11/2022

10)

#include <iostream>

#include <fstream>

using namespace std;

int main()

{

ofstream obj ("One.txt");

obj << "Hello world";

cout << obj. ~~tellp~~ () ;

obj. seekp (-5, ios::end);

cout << obj. tellp () ;

obj << "class";

ifstream inf ("One.txt");

cout << inf. tellg ();

inf. seekg (5, ios::beg);

cout << inf. tellg ();

char c;

while (!inf. eof ())

inf. get (c);

if (inf. eof ())

break;

cout << c;

y

inf. close ();



y



Q: Pure virtual function

(A) (D)

A. Abstraction

(D)

palind

reverse

(A)

(1234)

C++ To reverse of a number.

(A)

ans

(A)

(1) Error handling During file operations in C++

(D) C++ programming language provides several built-in functions to handle error, e.g. file open

(1) `int bad()` → return a non-zero value.

(2) `int fail()` → if an invalid operation is attempted

(3) `int fail()` → return a non-zero value when input or output operation has failed.

(4) `int good()` → it returns non-zero value when no. error has occurred

(A) ~~int good()~~

(A)

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①

Static

friend

① It cannot access any variable of its class except for static variable.

→ it can access public or private member of the class

→ It is denoted by placing a static keyword before the function name.

It is used in a friend keyword before it.

→ It is associated with class and not an object.

It is declared in class but not belong to the class.

(*)

(#)

(*)

(#)

(*)

(*)

(*)

(#)

(#)

File pointers :-

```
#include <iostream>
#include <fstream>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    ofstream obj ("one.txt");
    obj << "Hello world";
    cout << obj.tellp();
    obj.seekp(-5, ios::end);
    cout << obj.tellp();
    obj << "class";
    ifstream inf ("one.txt");
    cout << inf.tellg();
    inf.seekg(5, ios::beg);
    cout << inf.tellg();
    char c;
    while (!inf.eof())
    {
        inf.get(c);
        if (c == 'e')
            break;
        cout << c;
    }
    inf.close();
}
```

3

HP