

2023
SMTWTFS SMTWTFS
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UNI-II

WEDNESDAY

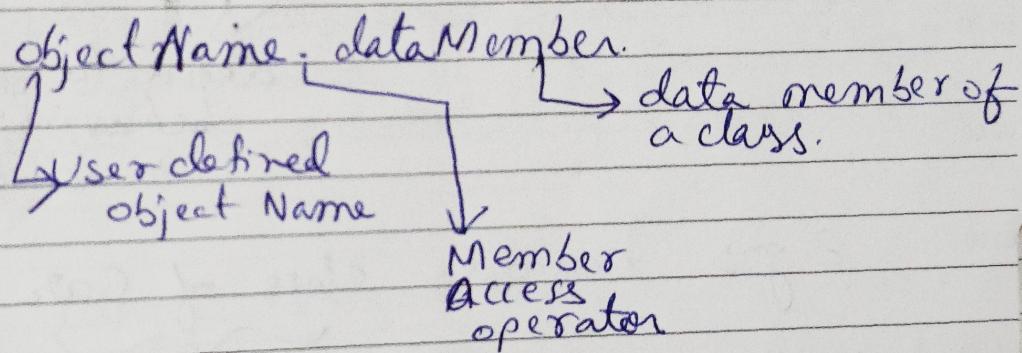
Week 38 / 263-102

|| 20
Sep 2023

Data members

- The class data members are declared in the same way as variables are declared.
- In general, all data members of a class are made private to that class. This is part of the way that encapsulation is achieved.
- If the data members are declared in the public section of the class they will be accessed using member access operator, dot (.)

Syntax :



Member Functions

Functions that are declared within a class are called member functions.

↳ Declared inside the class

→ Syntax for accessing member functions in a class

↳ objectName / functionName (Actual Arguments)

User defined object name

Name of the member function

↳ Arguments list to the function

C++ Classes and Objects-

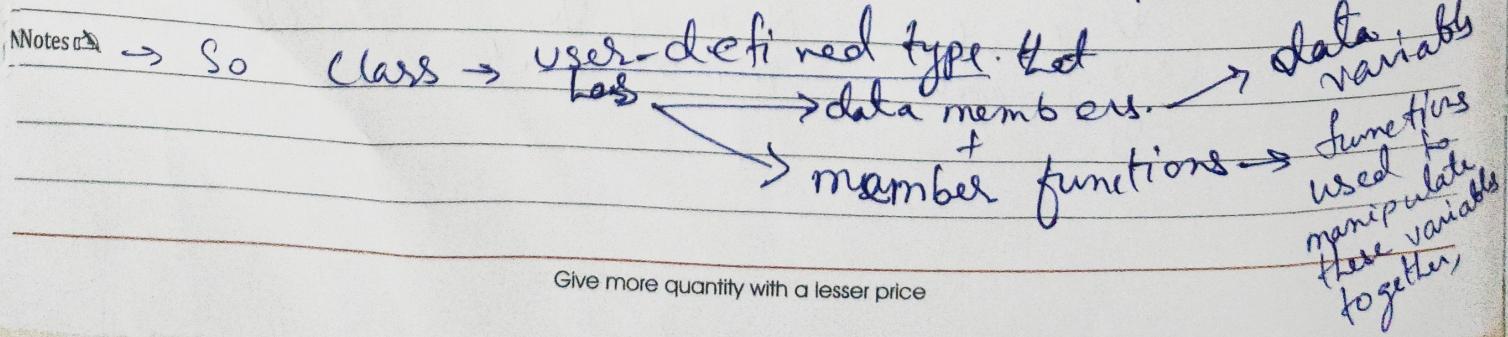
- 08.00 → Class in C++ is the building block that leads to OOP.
- 09.00 → Class is a user-defined data type that has data members and member functions.
- 10.00 → Data members are the data variables and member functions are the functions used to manipulate these variables together.
- 11.00 These data members and member functions
- 12.00
- 01.00
- 02.00
- define the properties and behaviour of the objects in a class

03.00 E.g. consider class of Car

Data Members

04.00 Shares diff. names & brand but all of them will share some common properties like 05.00 4 wheels, Speed Limit, Mileage range, etc.

06.00 So here Car is class and wheels, speed limits & mileage are their properties.



so class Cars

08.00 data members } speed limit
09.00 mileage,

member functions → applying brakes

→ Increasing speed, etc.

An Object is an instance of a Class.

When a class is defined, no memory is allocated but when it is instantiated (i.e. an object is created) memory is allocated).

Defining Class and Declaring Objects

@ ^{Keyword} class ^{User-defined name} Class Name

{ Access specifier; // can be private, public or protected

Data members; // Variables to be used

Member functions(); // Methods to access data members

}

// class name ends with a semicolon

}

Notes

Declaring Objects

08.00 Why do we need to create objects?

09.00 → When a class is defined, only the specification for the object is defined; no memory or storage is allocated. To use the data and access functions defined in the class, you need to create objects.

Syntax

Class Name Object Name;

01.00 → Accessing data members and member functions;

02.00 The data members and member functions of the class can be accessed using the `obj(:)` operator with the object.

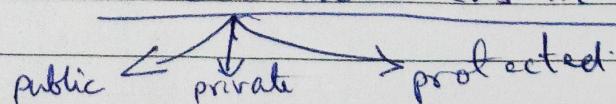
03.00 For ex → `obj` → object Name.

04.00 `printName()` → member function

05.00 `obj.printName()`

06.00 → The public data members are also accessed in the same way given however the private data members are not allowed to be accessed directly by the object.

Notes ↗ Accessing a data member depends solely on the access control of that data member. This access control is given by access modifiers in C++



1.8 →
 08.00 using namespace std;
 class Student {
 09.00 // Access specifier
 public:
 10.00 // Data Members
 11.00 string studentname;
 12.00 // Member Functions()
 void printname() { cout << "Student name is: " <<
 studentname; }
13.00 };
01.00
02.00 int main()
03.00 {
04.00 // Declare an object of class Student
05.00 Student obj1;
06.00 // Accessing data member
07.00 obj1.studentname = "XYZ";
08.00 // Accessing member function
09.00 obj1.printname();
10.00 return 0;
11.00 }
12.00
13.00 Student name is: XYZ

→ Member Functions in Classes

Notes ↗

There are 2 ways to define a member function:

- Inside class definition
- outside class definition.

To define a member function outside the class definition we have to use the scope resolution operator along with the class name and function name.

C++

// C++ program to demonstrate function declaration outside class.

using namespace std;

class Student

{

public:

string ~~getname~~ ^{studentName};

int id;

}

// printname is not defined inside class definition

void printname();

// printid is defined inside class definition

void printid()

{

] cout << "Student id is : " << id;

};

// Definition of print name using scope resolution operator ::

```
void Student :: printName()
```

```
{
```

```
cout << "Student name is : " << studentName;
```

```
}
```

```
int main()
```

```
Student obj1;
```

```
obj1.studentName = "XYZ";
```

```
obj1.id = 15;
```

```
// call printName()
```

```
obj1.printName();
```

```
cout << endl;
```

```
// call printId()
```

```
obj1.printId();
```

```
return 0;
```

```
y
```

O/P : Student Name is : XYZ

student id is : 15

Note :- → All the member functions defined inside the class definition are by default inline, but we can also make any non-class function inline by using the keyword inline with them.

→ Inline functions are actual functions which are copied everywhere during compilation, like pre-processor macro, so the overhead of function calling is reduced.

Note :- Declaring a friend function is a way to give private access to a non-member function.

Great genius has the shortest biographies

Constructors

- 08.00 - Constructors are special class members which
09.00 are called by the compiler every time an object
of that class is instantiated.
- 10.00 - constructor have the same name as the class and
11.00 may be defined inside or outside class
definition. There are 3 types of constructors
- 12.00 → Default Constructors
→ Parameterized Constructors
→ Copy Constructors

01.00

C++ program to demonstrate constructor.

02.00

using namespace std;

class Student

{

public:

int id;

06.00

// Default Constructor.

Student()

{

cout << " Default constructor called " << endl;
id = -1

No

Notes

// Parameterized Constructor.

Student (int x)

{

cout << " Parameterized constructor called " << endl;

He who serves the poor is great in the eyes of God

08.00 $i.d = x;$
 }
 };
 09.00 int main () {
 // obj1 will call Default constructor
 10.00 student obj1;
 cout << "student id is: " << obj1.id << endl;
 11.00
 // obj2 will call Parameterized constructor
 12.00 student obj2(21);
 cout << "~~student~~ id is: " << obj2.id << endl;
 01.00 return 0;
 }
 02.00
 O/P :- Default constructor called
 Student id is: -1
 Parameterized constructor called
 Student id is: 21.
 03.00
 04.00
 05.00
 → (1) A Copy Constructor creates a new object,
 which is an exact copy of the existing object. The
 compiler provides a default copy constructor to all
 the classes.
 Syntax :
 class-name (class-name &) { }
 Eg: ~~class-name~~ Sample (Sample & t)^{object} {
 }
 id = t.id;
 }
 Notes: (2) // copy constructor takes
 a reference to an
 object of the same
 class as an
 argument
 → In sample form, a constructor which creates an
 object by initializing it with an object of the same
 class, which has been created previously known as
 copy constructor

- * A destructor takes no arguments and has no return-type (not even void).
- * One cannot take its address.
- * One cannot declare destructors as const, volatile.
- * One can declare n in virtual or pure virtual.
- SATURDAY * Destructors are used to deallocate memory and other cleanup for an object and its members when the object is destroyed.

30 ||
Sep 2023

Week 39 / 273-092

SEPTEMBER 2023											
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Destructor

08.00 It is another special member function that is called by the compiler when the scope of the object ends.

09.00

class Student

10.00 }

public:

11.00 int id;

12.00

//Definition for Destructor

~Student()

01.00

}

cout << "Destructor called for id: " << id <<

endl;

02.00

}

03.00

int main()

04.00

}

05.00

Student obj1;

obj1.id = 7;

06.00

int i = 0;

EVE

while (i < 5)

Sunday 01

O/P: Destructor called for id: 0

Notes

" " " " "

" " " " "

" " " " "

" " " " "

Student obj2;

obj2.id = i;

i++;

}

// Scope for obj2 ends here

return 0;

}

// Scope for obj1 ends here

Also give 115 pages no-
destructor example

09.00 u u v - : 4
10.00 u u v - : 7

10.00 ~~Not (Rare known concept) → Fact.~~

11.00 Q:- Why do we give semicolon at the end
12.00 of class?

01.00 Data characteristics of Copy Constructor:-

- (1.) The copy constructor is used to initialize the members of a newly created object by copying the members of an already existing object.
- (2.) Copy constructor takes a reference to an object of the same class as an argument.

04.00 Sample (sample & {})

05.00 id = t.id;

}

06.00 (3) The process of initializing members of an object through a copy constructor is known as copy initialization.

EVE (4) It is also called member-wise initialization because the copy constructor initializes one object with the existing object, both belonging to the same class on a member-by-member copy basis.

Notes (5). The copy constructor can be defined explicitly by the programmer. If the programmer does not define the copy constructor, the compiler does it for us.

Copy Constructor & Destructor

Class Car

{

private :

```
int speed;  
int rpm;  
boolean start;
```

Public :

Car ()

{

```
    this.speed = 0;  
    this.rpm = 0;  
    this.start = false;
```

}

// default constructor

Car (int speed, int rpm, boolean start)

{

```
    this.speed = speed;  
    this.rpm = rpm;  
    this.start = start;
```

}

// Parameterized constructor

void startCar ()

{

```
    this.start = true;
```

}

void stopCar ()

{

```
    this.start = false;
```

}

Avoid increaseSpeedAndRpm (int speed, int rpm)

{

```
    this.rpm = rpm;
```

"this" represent
present object
Current object
Ex - if c1 object
Call a function
then "this" object
will represent
c1

this.speed = speed;

}

Void decreaseSpeedAndRpm (int speed, int rpm)

{

this.rpm = rpm;

this.speed = speed;

}

~car()

// destructor

{

cout << "destructor called" << endl;

}

*

car(car&c)

// copy constructor

{

this.speed = c.speed;

this.rpm = c.rpm;

this.start = c.start;

};

Void main()

{

line 1 car c1, c2(10, 1000, true);

~~c.start();~~

line 2 c1.start();

line 3 c1.increaseSpeedAndRpm(20, 1200);

line 4 c2.increaseSpeedAndRpm(25, 1400);

line 5 car c3(c1);

line 6 c3.increaseSpeedAndRpm(25, 1500);

Line 7 $c_1 \cdot \text{decreaseSpeedAndRpm}(0, 0);$
 Line 8 $c_2 \cdot \text{decreaseSpeedAndRpm}(0, 0);$
 Line 9 $c_3 \cdot \text{decreaseSpeedAndRpm}(0, 0);$
 Line 10 $c_1 \cdot \text{stopCar}();$
 Line 11 $c_2 \cdot \text{stopCar}();$
 Line 12 $c_3 \cdot \text{stopCar}();$
 Line 12 $\text{return } \varnothing;$

}

Main Method

With
P
E
C
th
Wi

Line 1 \rightarrow

c_1	speed	$\boxed{0}$
	rpm	$\boxed{0}$
	start	$\boxed{\text{false}}$

c_2	speed	$\boxed{10}$
	rpm	$\boxed{1000}$
	start	$\boxed{\text{true}}$

Line 2 $\rightarrow c_1$ will start the Car. and $q.start = \text{true}$

Line 3 $\rightarrow c_1$ will increase speed and rpm

$$c_1 \cdot \text{speed} = 20,$$

$$c_1 \cdot \text{rpm} = 1200;$$

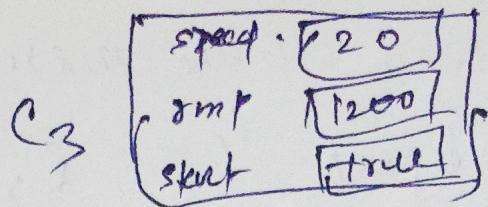
Line 4 $\rightarrow c_2$ will increase speed and rpm

$$c_2 \cdot \text{speed} = 25$$

$$c_2 \cdot \text{rpm} = 1400$$

this.rpm =
 this.rpm + rpm

line 5 \rightarrow



line 6 $\rightarrow c_3$ will increase the speed And Rpm

$$c_3 \cdot \text{speed} = 25;$$

$$c_3 \cdot \text{rpm} = 1500;$$

line 7 $\rightarrow c_1$ will decrease speed And Rpm;

$$c_1 \cdot \text{speed} = 0;$$

$$c_1 \cdot \text{rpm} = 0;$$

line 8 $\rightarrow c_2$ will decrease Speed And Rpm

$$c_2 \cdot \text{speed} = 0;$$

$$c_2 \cdot \text{rpm} = 0;$$

line 9 $\rightarrow c_3$ will decrease Speed And Rpm

$$c_3 \cdot \text{speed} = 0;$$

$$c_3 \cdot \text{rpm} = 0;$$

line 10 $\rightarrow c_1$ will stop car

start = false

line 11 $\rightarrow c_2$ will stop car

start = false

line 12 $\rightarrow c_3$ will stop car

start = false

line 13 \rightarrow will return 0;

~~the~~ then destructor will call for
 c_1 , c_2 and c_3

and clean all the memory allocated
for object c_1 , c_2 and c_3

~~Being~~ and will Print

destructor called

destructor called

destructor called

Difference Between Constructors and destructors

	Constructor	Destructor
1	Constructor is used to initialize the object and it allocate the memory	Where as destructor is used to destroy the instance or object and it will deallocate or free the memory
2	Constructor can either arguments or without arguments	Destructor can't have any arguments
3	A constructor will call when an object is created	A destructor will call when scope of a object will end
4	Constructor can be overloaded	Destructor can't be overloaded

5	The Constructor is declared with same name as class name	The Destructor is declared with same name as class name with (~) tilde symbol
6)	Constructor can be copy constructor	While here, there is no copy destructor
7)	Constructors are often called in successive order	Destructors are often called in reverse order

Ex

class Z

{

public :

Z()

{

cout << "Constructor Called" << endl;

3

~Z()

{

cout << "Destructor Called" << endl;

3

}

```
int main( )  
{  
    z z1, z2 ;
```

}

out put

Constructor Called

Constructor Called

Destructor Called

Destructor Called

Oct 2023

Week 40 / 279-086

cont << " \n p2.x = " << p2.get X() << " p2.y2 " <<
p2.get Y();

08.00 return 0;

}

09.00

O/P

p1.x = 10, p1.y = 15

p2.x = 10, p2.y = 15

11.00

12.00 * Encapsulation in C++

01.00 ↳ In C++, It is defined as the wrapping up of data and information in a single unit.

02.00 ↳ In OOP, Encapsulation is defined as binding together the data and the functions that manipulate them.

03.00 04.00 Eg, A real-life example of encapsulation,

05.00 company has diff. sections like accounts section,
06.00 finance section,
07.00 sales-section, etc.

Now, a situation may arise where when for some reason an official from the finance section needs all the data about sales in a particular month.

In this case, he is not allowed to directly access the data of the sales section. He will first have to contact some other officer in the sales section and then request him to give the particular data.

This is what Encapsulation is. Here the data of the sales section and the employees that can manipulate them are wrapped under a single name "sales section".

Two important property of Encapsulation.

1. Data Protection: Encapsulation protects the internal state of an object by keeping its data member private. Access to and modification of these data members is restricted to the class's public methods, ensuring controlled and secure data manipulation.

2. Information Hiding: Encapsulation hides the internal implementation details of a class from external code. Only the public interface of the class is accessible, providing abstraction and simplifying the usage of the class while allowing the internal implementation to be modified without impacting external code.

For example, if we give input, and output should be half of input.

Eg
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class temp
{
 int a;
 int b;
};

Sunday 08

public:

```
int solve(int input) {  
    08.00    a = input;  
    b = a/2;  
    09.00    return b;  
    }  
10.00 }
```

```
11.00 int main() {  
    01.00    int n;  
    12.00    cin >> n;  
    temp half;  
    ent ans = half.solve(n);  
    cout << ans << endl;  
    02.00 }  
03.00
```

Features of Encapsulation:

1. We can not access any function from the class directly.
We need an object to access that function i.e. using the member variables of that class.
2. The function which we are making inside the class must use only member variables, only then it is called encapsulation.
3. If we don't make a function inside the class which is using the member variable of the class then we don't call it encapsulation.
4. Encapsulation improves readability, maintainability and security by grouping data and methods together.
5. It helps to control the modification of our data members.

~~Encapsulation in C++~~

METHODS | variables
class

Encapsulation also leads to data abstraction
Using encapsulation also hides the data.

Ex - program explained in the other notebook.

Encapsulation

Data Protection

Class Student

{ private:

int rollNumber; // Data Protection

public: int age; // This is not Data Protection

void display()

{

cout << "roll Number: " << rollNumber;

// Information Hiding

}

Void main()

{

Student s;

s.display();

s.rollNumber = 1; // error because
it's private
member

s.age = 24;

// No error because
it's public member

return 0;

?

Not Encapsulation

Encapsulation

Class Student

{

private:

int rollNumber;

int age;

public:

student (int r, int a)

{

rollNumber = r;

age = a;

}

void display()

{

cout << "roll: " << rollNumber;

cout << "age: " << age;

}

int main()

{

student s1(1, 20), s2(2, 25);

s1.display();

if age = 25
it will give error
because it is a private
member.

return 0;

Note:-
S₁, don't know the information of
S₂ and vice versa that is called
information hiding.

Static Member Function & data members

Class Student

{

private:

~~static~~ int roll;

int age;

~~static string classofstu;~~

public:

string string classofstu; // static
data member

~~friend display~~

Student (int r) { r = age }

{

roll = r;

age = r;

}

void display()

{

cout << "Roll:" << roll;

cout << "Age:" << age;

cout << "Class:" << classofstu;

3

};

Static Void Print() // static Member function

{ }

cout << "Roll: " << roll; // error
cout << "Age: " << age; // error
cout << "Class: " << classofstu; // No error

}

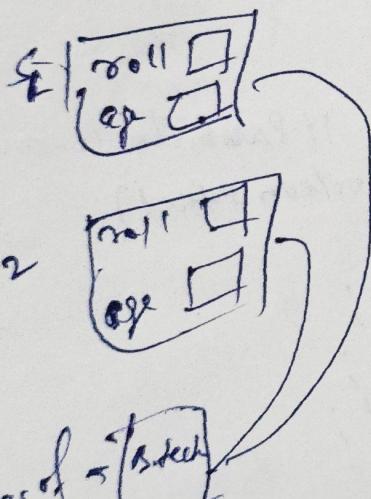


string student:: classofstu = "B.Tech"; // initial
ize the variable
L → scope resolution operator

int main()

{

student s₁(1, 24), s₂(2, 25);



s₁. display(); // No error

s₂. display(); // also error

s₁. print(); // No error

s₂. print(); // No error

student:: print(); // No error

Only can call static function using class name
Can't call non-static function using class name.

return 0;

}

Characteristics of an object

All individual objects possess three basic characteristics

- 1) Identity
- 2) state
- 3) behaviour

→ Identity

Each objects' name or identity, is unique and distinct from other objects

Note:- name of a object

→ State

It refers to the properties of an object
for Example, values of variables in the object
can contain data can added, changed or deleted.

Note:- all data member value can change, added, or delete

→ Behavior (functionality)

refer to actions that the object can take

Note:- All member function of class

Dynamic Memory Allocation & Deallocations

Difference between

How is it different from memory allocated to normal Variables

Static } int a; } Memory is automatically
Memory } char str[10]; } allocated and deallocated
Allocation } Car c; } ~~pushed~~

Dynamic Memory allocation
 `int *p = new int[10];`
 } Memory will allocate dynamically at run time.
~~`Car *c1 = new Car;`~~

`int **x = NULL; //not allocate memory`
 } Memory deallocation need
~~`x = new int;`~~
 } Allocate memory to be done manually

How is memory allocated / deallocated

- In C Uses the malloc() and calloc()
functions to allocate memory dynamically
and free() to allocate
 - In C++ all support malloc() and calloc()
free() function but also has two operators.

"new" to allocate memory "delete" to de-
allocate the memory

Syntax —

Pointer-Variable = new data-type ;

Example —

int *P = NULL; →

P = new int; →

or

int *P = new int; →

Car *C1 = NULL; →

C1 = new Car; →

or

Car *C1 = new Car; →

or

Car *C1 = new Car(10, 1200); →

Full Example —

```
class car
{
    int speed;
public:
    car() {
        this -> speed = 0;
    }
    car(int speed) {
        this -> speed = speed;
    }
    void print() {
        cout << this -> speed << endl;
    }
};

int main()
{
    int* x = new ent(10); // if no memory available
                           // then it give error and program will stop
    cout << "Value of x: " << *x << endl;
    delete x; // deallocate the memory
    int* y = new(nothrow) int; // if no memory available
                               // it will assign by null
    if (!y) {
        cout << "Memory allocation failed" << endl;
    } else {
        *y = 30;
        cout << "Value of y: " << *y << endl;
        delete y;
    }
}
```

For pointer object
we must use (\rightarrow) arrow
in place of ($*$) def

if no memory available
then it give error and program will stop

// deallocate the memory

// if no memory available
// it will assign by null

```
Car* var1 = new Car; // in order to access pointer  
variable we did this  
"this → "
```

// OR

```
// Car var1 = new Car();
```

```
var1 → print(); // it will print 0
```

```
Car* var = new Car(25);
```

```
var → print(); // it will print 25
```

```
delete var1, var; // deallocate the memory  
for both object.
```

```
return 0;
```

```
}
```

Dynamic Constructor.

- 08.00 - The constructor which allocates a block of memory that can be accessed by the objects at run time
09.00 is known as dynamic constructor.
10.00 In simple words, a Dynamic constructor is used to dynamically initialize the objects
11.00 that is memory is allocated at run time.
- 12.00 - Dynamic Constructor in C++

When allocation of memory is done dynamically using dynamic memory allocator new in a constructor, it is known as dynamic constructor. By using this, we can dynamically initialize the objects.

Ex-1: class Student {
04.00 const char* s;

05.00 public:

06.00 // default constructor
EVE Student ()

 }
 // allocating memory at runtime
 \$ = new char [10];
 \$ = "student";

Notes ↗
void display () { cout << s << endl; }
 };

2023

NOVEMBER

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THURSDAY

11 12

Week 41 / 006 term

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int main()

{ student obj;
obj display();

O/P: student

Explanation: In this, we point data member of type char which is allocated memory dynamically by new operator and when we delete dynamic memory within the constructor of class it is known as dynamic constructor.

Ex-2: class Student {
 int * s;

public:
 // default constructor
 student()
 {

 // Allocating memory at own time
 // and initializing

 s = new int[3] {1, 2, 3};

 for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++) {
 cout << s[i] << " ";

 }
 cout << endl;

} ; }

Notes

int main()

}

08.00 // five objects will be created

 // for each object

09.00 // default constructor would be called
10.00 and memory will be allocated to
 array dynamically

11.00 Student *ptr = new Student[5];

}

12.00 Output

123

01.00 123

123

02.00 123

123

03.00 123

Explanation: In this program we have created array
of object dynamically. The first object is ptr[0],
second is ptr[1] and so on. For each object creation
default constructor is called and for each object
memory is allocated to pointer type variable by
new operator.

EVE

Ex-3: class student {

 int * s;

 public:

 // default constructor

 Students()

}

 // allocating memory at run time

 s = new int;

Great oaks grow from little acorns

```

8.00 } *s = 0;
8.00
9.00 //parameterized constructor
9.00 Students (int n)
9.00 }
9.00     s = new int;
9.00     *s = n;
9.00 }
10.00 void display () {
10.00     cout << *s << endl;
10.00 }
10.00
11.00 //Deallocate the dynamically allocated memory
11.00 ~Students ()
11.00 }
11.00     delete s;
11.00 }
11.00 }
11.00 int main ()
11.00 }

Sunday 15
12.00 // default constructor would be called
12.00 Students obj1 = Students ();
12.00 obj1.display ();

13.00 // parameterized constructor would be called
13.00 Students obj2 = Students (7);
13.00 obj2.display ();
13.00 }

```

output: → 0
7

Explanation: In this integer type pointer variable is declared in class which is assigned memory dynamically when the constructor is called. When we create object obj1, the default constructor is called and memory is assigned dynamically to pointer type variable and initialized with value 0. And similarly when obj2 is created parameterized constructor is called and memory is assigned dynamically.

12:00

Type conversion in C++

08.00 A type cast is basically a conversion from one
09.00 type to another. There are two types of type
conversion:

10.00 1. Implicit Type Conversion: also known as '
automatic type conversion'.

- 11.00 - Done by the compiler on its own, without any external
trigger from the user.
- 12.00 - Generally takes place when in an expression more
than one data type is present. In such condition
type conversion (type promotion) takes place to
avoid loss of data.
- 01.00 - All the data types of the variables are
upgraded to the data type of the variable
with largest data type.

02.00
03.00
04.00
05.00
06.00
EVE

bool → char → short int → int →
unsigned int → long → unsigned →
long long → float → double → long double.

- It is possible for implicit conversion to
lose information, signs can be lost (when
signed is implicitly converted to unsigned),
and overflow can occur (when long long is
implicitly converted to float).

Notes  Example of Type Implicit Conversion:

```
// An example of implicit conversion  
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std.
```

Hope for the best and prepare for the worst

NOVEMBER

DECEMBER

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

08.00 int x = 10; //integer x

09.00 char y = 'a'; //character c

10.00 //y implicitly converted to int. ASCII

11.00 // value of 'a' is 97

12.00 x = x + y;

13.00 //x is implicitly converted to float

14.00 float z = x + 1.0;

15.00 cout << "x = " << x << endl

16.00 << "y = " << y << endl

17.00 << "z = " << z << endl;

18.00 return 0;

```
}
```

19.00 Output:

20.00 x = 107

21.00 y = a

22.00 z = 108.

23.00

Explicit Type Conversion:

EVE

Notes  This process is also called type casting and it is user-defined. Here the user can typecast the result to make it of a particular data type.

In C++, it can be done by two ways:

- Converting by assignment: This is done by explicitly defining the required type in front of

However long the right, the dawn will break

the expression in parenthesis. This can be also considered as forceful casting.

Syntax:

(type) expression

where type indicates the data type to which the final result is converted.

Ex:- // C++ program to demonstrate explicit type casting

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

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
double x = 1.2;
```

// Explicit conversion from double to int

```
int sum = (int)x + 1;
```

```
cout << "sum = " << sum;
```

```
return 0;
```

```
}
```

O/P: Sum = 2

- Conversion using Cast operators: A Cast operator is an unary operator which forces one data type to be converted into another data type.

C++ supports 4 types of casting:

1. Static Cast
2. Dynamic Cast
3. Const Cast
4. Reinterpret Cast.

Ex:

(int malay)

08:00

{

float f:3.5;

09:00

flusing cast operator

10:00

let b:estate cast <int>(f);
cast as b.

}

11:00

output :

12:00

b

01:00

Advantages of type conversion:

02:00

- This is done to take advantage of certain features of type hierarchies or type representations.

03:00

- It helps to compute expressions containing variables of diff. data types.

04:00

05:00

06:00

07:00

08:00

Operator Overloading in C++

Operator is a compile-time polymorphism. It is an idea of giving special meaning to an existing operator in C++ without changing its original meaning.

→ In C++, we can make operators work for user defined classes.

→ This means C++ has the ability to provide the operators with a special meaning for a data type, this ability is known as operator overloading.

→ For ex:- we can overload an operator '+' (in a class like String) so that we can concatenate two strings by just using +.

→ Other example classes where arithmetic operators may be overloaded are Complex Numbers, Fractional Numbers, Big integers etc.

Ex:- int a;

float b, sum;
sum = a + b;

Sunday 29

Here, variables "a" & "b" are of types "int" and "float", which are built-in data types. Hence the addition operator '+' can easily add the contents of "a" and "b". This is because the addition operator "+" is predefined to add variables of built-in data type only.

Ex:- // C++ Program to demonstrate the working logic behind Operator Overloading.

08.00

class A {
 statements;
};

10.00

int main ()
{

11.00

 A a1, a2, a3;

12.00

 a3 = a1 + a2;

01.00

 return 0;

}

02.00

In above program we've taken 3 variables of type "class A". Here, we're trying to add two objects of type class A (which is user-defined) using the '+' operator. This is not allowed because the addition operator "+" is predefined to operate only on built-in data types.

03.00

Since here "class A" is user-defined type so the compiler generates error. Thus, this is where the concept of "Operator Overloading" comes in.

04.00

EVE Now if the user wants to make the operator "+" add two class objects, the user has to redefine the meaning of the "+" operator such that it adds two class objects. This is done by using the concept of "Operator Overloading". So the main idea behind "operator overloading" is to use C++ operators with class variables or class objects.

Notes ↗

08.00 Redefining does not change the original meaning; instead, they have been given additional meaning along with their existing ones.

09.00 Complex-number = $x + iy$
10.00 real part / imaginary part
11.00 imaginary number

12.00 Ex> class Complex {
 private:
 int real, imag;
 public:
 Complex (int r=0, int i=0)
 {
 read = r;
 imag = i;
 }
}

05.00 // This is automatically called when '+' is used with between two Complex objects

06.00 Complex operator+ (Complex const& obj)

EVE

Redefining

Notes

{
 Complex res;
 res.real = real + obj.real;
 res.imag = imag + obj.imag;
 return res;

};
 void print () { cout << real << " + i " << imag << '\n'; }

If the blind leads the blind, both shall fall into the ditch

NOVEMBER

DECEMBER

int main()

}

08.00

Complex c1(10, 5), c2(2, 4);

09.00

Complex c3 = c1 + c2;

c3.print();

10.00

}

11.00

Output: 12 + 7i

12.00

Q:- What is the difference between operator functions and normal functions?

01.00

Operator functions are the same as normal functions. The only differences are, that the name of an operator function is always the "operator" keyword followed by the symbol of the operator, and operator functions are called when the corresponding operator is used.

05.00

class Complex {

06.00

private:

int real, imag;

public:

Complex (int r=0, int i=0)

{

real=r;

imag=i;

}

Notes ↗

void print()

{ cout << real << " + i" << imag << endl; }

He who trusts his secrets to a servant makes him master

11 The global operator function is made friend of this class so that it can access private members

11.00 Complex operator + (Complex const & c1, Complex const & c2)

```
12:00 }  
01.00 return Complex (c1.real + c2.real, c1.imag  
} + c2.imag);
```

02.00 int main ()

03.00 { complex c1 (10,5) c2 (2,4) ;

Complex C3

$\geq c_1$

+ c2); //An example call to "operator".

C3. print();

return 0;

06.00

3

EVE

Output: 12 + i9

- Can we overload all operators?

→ Almost all operators can be overloaded except a few. Following is the list of operators that cannot be overloaded.

sizeof
type id

08.00 Scope resolution (::)

Class member access operators (. (dot)),

09.00 Ternary or conditional (?:)

10.00 • Operators that can be overloaded

11.00 We can overload

- Unary operators
- Binary operators
- Special operators ([] , () etc.)

02.00 But among, there are some operators that cannot be overloaded. They are

- Scope resolution operator (::)
- Member selection operator
- Member selection through *
- Pointer to a member variable
- Conditional operator (?:)
- Sizeof operator sizeof()

06.00 Operators that can be overloaded

Examples

EVE Binary Arithmetic

+, -, *, /, %

Unary Arithmetic

+, -, ++, --

Assignment

=, +=, *=, /=, -=,

*/=

Notes Bitwise

&, |, <<, >>, ~
^

(→)

De-referencing

	Dynamic memory allocation,	New, delete
	De-allocation	
08.00 -	Subscript	[]
	- Function call	()
09.00 -	Logical	&, , !
	- Relational	>, <, !=, <=, >=
10.00		

Why can't the above-stated operators be overloaded?

11.00 1. sizeof - This returns the size of the object or datatype entered as the operand. This is evaluated by the compiler and cannot be evaluated during runtime. The proper incrementing of a pointer in an array of objects relies on the size of operator implicitly. Altering its meaning using overloading would cause a fundamental part of the language to collapse.

03.00
04.00 2. typeid: This provides a CPP program with the ability to recover the actually derived type of the object referred to by a pointer or reference. For this operator the whole point is to uniquely identify a type. If we want to make a user-defined type 'look' like another type; polymorphism can be used but the meaning of the typeid operator must remain unaltered, or else serious issues could arise.

→ typeid operator is to check the type of the variable.

Notes: Ex:- int main() {

int i, j;
char e;

// Get the type info using typeid operator

III deeds are doubled with an evil word

08.00 const type_info & ti1 = typeid(i);
 " " ti2 = typeid(j);
 " " ti3 = typeid(c);

09.00 // check if both types are same
if (ti1 == ti2)

10.00 cout << "i and j are of " << "similar type" << endl;
cout << "i and j are of " << "different type" << endl;

11.00 // check if both types are same

12.00 if (ti2 == ti3)

01.00 cout << "j and c are of " << "similar type" << endl;
cout << "j and c are of " << "different type" << endl;

02.00 return 0;

03.00 }

04.00 O/P: i and j are of similar type
 j and c are of different type

05.00 3. Scope resolution (::): This helps identify and
specify the context to which an identifier refers
06.00 by specifying a namespace. It is completely
evaluated at runtime and works on names
rather than values. The operands of scope
resolution are not expressions with data types
and CPP has no syntax for capturing them if
it were overloaded. So it is syntactically impossible
to overload this operator.

Notes ↗ 4. Class members access operators (. (dot), * (pointer to
member operators)): The importance and implicit use

In friendship there should be no pretense

of class member access operators can be understood through the following example:

Ex: 08.00 // C++ program to demonstrate operator overloading using
Ex- class dot operator.

09.00

class ComplexNumber {

10.00

private:

int real;

11.00

int imaginary;

public:

12.00

ComplexNumber (int real, int imaginary)

}

01.00

this → real = real;

02.00

this → imaginary = imaginary;

void print () } cout << real << " + i " << imaginary;

03.00

ComplexNumber operator+ (ComplexNumber c2)

}

04.00

ComplexNumber c3 (0,0);

05.00

c3.real = this → real + c2.real;

06.00

c3.imaginary = this → imaginary + c2.imaginary;

return c3;

}

EVE

int main()

}

ComplexNumber c1 (3,5);

ComplexNumber c2 (2,4);

ComplexNumber c3 = c1 + c2;

c3.print();

return 0;

}

Explanation: The statement Complex Number $c3 = c1 + c2$,
 is internally translated as Complex Number
 $c3 = c1.\text{operator} + (c2)$; in order to invoke the
 operator function. The argument $c1$ is implicitly
 passed using the '.' operator. The next
 statement also makes use of the dot operator to
 access the member function print and pass $c3$
 as an argument.

Besides, these operators also work on names
 and not values and there is no provision
 (syntactically) to overload them.

5. Ternary or conditional (? :): The ternary or
 conditional operator is a shorthand representation
 of an if-else statement. In the operator, the
 true/false expressions are only evaluated
 on the basis of the truth value of the
 conditional expression.

conditional statement ? expression1 (if statement is
 TRUE) : expression2 (else)

A function overloading the ternary operator for a
 class say ABC using the definition.

ABC operator ? : (bool condition, ABC trueExpr, ABC
 falseExpr);

Notes: would not be able to guarantee that only one of
 the expressions was evaluated. Thus, the ternary
 operator cannot be overloaded.

* Important points about operator overloading

08.00 (1) For operator overloading to work, at least one of the operands must be a user-defined class object.

09.00 (2) Assignment Operator: Compiler automatically creates a default assignment operator with every 10.00 class. The default assignment operator does 11.00 assign all members of the right side to the left side and works fine in most cases.

12.00 (3) Conversion Operator: We can also write conversion operators that can be used to convert one type to another type.

01.00 Example: # include <iostream>

02.00 using namespace std;

03.00 class Fraction {

04.00 private:

05.00 int num, den;

06.00 public:

07.00 Fraction (int n, int d)

08.00 }

09.00 num = n;

10.00 den = d;

11.00 }

EVE // conversion operator: return float value of fraction

operator float() const

12.00 }

13.00 return float(num) / float(den);

14.00 }

15.00 ;

Notes

int main()
{

08.00 Fraction f(2,5)
09.00 float val = f;
cont << val << '\n';
10.00 return 0;
}

11.00 O/P : 0.4

12.00 Overloaded conversion operators must be a member method. Other operators can either be the member method or the global method.

02.00 (4) Any constructor that can be called with a single argument works as a conversion constructor, which means it can also be used for implicit conversion to the class being constructed.

03.00
04.00 Ex. → class Point {

05.00 private:
06.00 int x, y;
public:
Point (int i=0, int j=0)

EVE
x=i;
y=j;

Notes ↗ void print()

{
cont << "x=" << x << ", y=" << y << '\n';
};

In victory the hero seeks the glory, not the prey

26 27 28 29 30 29 21 22 23 24 25

int main()
{

08.00

Point t(20, 20)

09.00

t.print();

10.00

t = 30; // Member n of t becomes 30

t.print();

11.00

return 0;

}

12.00

O/P:

x = 20, y = 20

x = 30, y = 0

01.00

02.00

Complete Example

```
# include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
class A
```

```
{
```

```
private:
```

```
    int x, y;
```

```
public:
```

```
    A ()
```

```
{
```

```
}
```

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

```
{
```

```
    x = a;
```

```
    y = b;
```

```
}
```

```
    A operator+ (A obj)
```

```
{
```

```
    A a3;
```

```
    a3.x = x + obj.x;
```

```
    a3.y = y + obj.y;
```

```
    return a3
```

```
}
```

A operator+(int r)

{

A a3 ;

a3.x = x + ~~y~~; // i;

a3.y = y + ~~x~~; // i;

return a3;

}

~~operator+(int r)~~

Void Print()

{

cout << "value of x:" << x << endl;

cout << "value of y:" << y << endl;

}

};

int main()

{

A a1(10, 20), a2(5, 15);

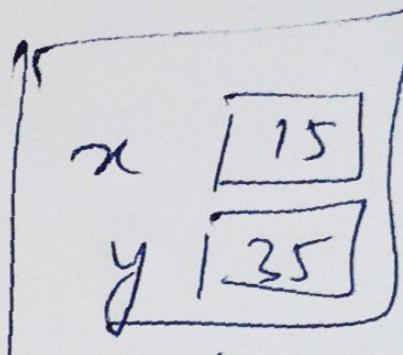
A a3 = a1 + a2;

a3.print();

A a4 = a1 + 10;

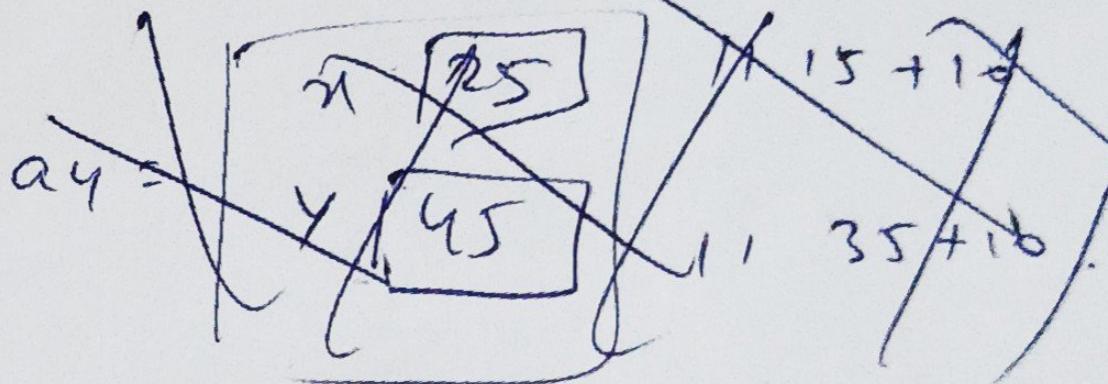
```
a4.print();  
return 0;
```

O/P:
a3



11 10+5

11 20+15



~~a4 =~~
a4 = x 10+10
y 20+10