

# C++ Class, Objects with array and pointer

Introduction to *Encapsulation* and *Inheritance* with array and pointer

## 10.1 Introduction to CLASS

The **class** is at the heart of many C++ features. The **class** is the mechanism that is used to create **objects**. A class is declared using the **class** keyword. The syntax of a class declaration is similar to that of a **structure** (actually *class is a kind of structure with more feature*). Its general form is shown here:

```
class class_name{
    /* private functions and variables */
public :
    /* public functions and variables */
} object_list ;
```

- Similar to a **structure** declaration in a **class** declaration, the **object-list** and **class\_name** are **optional**. From a practical point of view **class\_name** is virtually always needed. The reason for this is that the **class\_name** becomes a new **type name** that is used to declare **objects** of the **class**.

- **Private and public members : Functions and variables** declared **inside** a **class** declaration are said to be **members** of that **class**.

☞ By **default**, all **functions** and **variables** declared inside a **class** are **private** to that **class**. This means that they are accessible, **only by other members of that class**.

☞ To declare **public class members**, the **public** keyword is used, followed by a **colon**. All **functions** and **variables** declared after the **public specifier** are accessible both by **other members** of the **class** and by any **other part** of the **program** that contains the **class**. Here is a simple class declaration:

```
class myclass{
    /* private to myclass */
    int a;
public:
    void set_a(int num );    /* prototype */
    int get_a();             /* prototype */
};
```

- ⇒ This class has one **private** variable, called **a**, and two **public functions**, **set\_a()** and **get\_a()**. Functions that are declared to be part of a class are called **member functions**. Notice that **set\_a(int num );** and **int get\_a();** are **function prototype declaration inside the class**.
- ⇒ Since **a** is private, it is not accessible by any code **outside myclass**. since **set\_a()** and **get\_a()** are members of **myclass**, they **can directly access a**.
- ⇒ Further, **set\_a()** and **get\_a()** are declared as **public** members of **myclass** and can be called by **any other part** of the program that contains **myclass**.

- **Defining the member functions:** Although the **prototypes** of the functions **set\_a()** and **get\_a()** are **declared** by **myclass**, they are not yet **defined**.

☞ To **define** a **member function**, you must link the **type name** of the **class** with the **name of the function**. You do this by **preceding the function name with the class name followed by two colons**.

☞ The two colons are called the **scope resolution operator**.

☞ In **general**, to **define a member function** you must use this **form**:

```
ret_type class_name :: func_name ( parameter_list ) {
    /* body of function */
}
```

Here **class\_name** is the name of the **class** to which the **function belongs** and **ret\_type** is the **return type** of the function which **must be the same return type of the prototype** declared inside the **class**.

For example, here member functions **set\_a()** and **get\_a()** are defined:

```
void myclass :: set_a( int num ) {    a = num;    }
int myclass :: get_a() {    return a;    }
```

- **Crating object of a class :** This is similar to declaring a **structure variable** in C. Since **class** is similar to **structure** and **object** is similar to **variable**. The declaration of a **class** did not define any **objects** of type of that **class** - it only defines **the type of object** that will be created when one is **actually declared**.

To create an object, use the **class name** as a **type specifier**

```
class_name object_name1, object_name2, . . . , object_nameN;
```

For example, this line declares two **objects** of type **myclass**:

```
myclass ob1 , ob2 ;    /* these are objects of type myclass */
```

☞ A **class declaration** is a **logical abstraction** that defines a **new type**. It determines what **an object of that type will look like**,

☞ An **object declaration** creates a **physical entity** of that type. That is, an **object** occupies **memory space**, but a **type definition** does not.

☞ Like variables, there is **local objects** and **global objects**.

- ☞ **Accessing members of an object:** Once an **object** of a class has been created, your program can reference its **public** members by using the **dot (period) operator** in much the same way that **structure members** are **accessed**.

Assuming the preceding object declaration, the following statement calls **set\_a()** for objects **ob1** and **ob2**:

```
ob1.set_a(10); /* sets ob1's version of a to 10 */      ob2.set_a(99); /* sets ob2's version of a to 99 */
```

- ☞ **Each object of a class has its own copy of every variable declared within the class.** Previous statements set **ob1**'s copy of **a** to **10** and **ob2**'s copy to **99**. This means that **ob1**'s **a** is **distinct** and **different** from the **a** linked to **ob2**.

## 10.2 CONSTRUCTOR and DESTRUCTOR Functions

| General form of constructor  | General form of destructor  |
|--|---|
| <pre>class class_name{      /* private functions and variables */ public :              /* public functions and variables */     class_name(); /* constructor */ } object_list ;</pre> | <pre>class class_name{      /* private functions and variables */ public :              /* public functions and variables */     ~class_name();    /* destructor */ } object_list ;</pre> |

- ☐ **Object initialization using "constructor":** When applied to real problems, virtually every object you create will require some sort of **initialization**. To address this situation, C++ allows a **constructor function** to be included in a class declaration. A class's **constructor is called each time an object of that class is created**. Thus, any initialization that needs to be performed on an object can be done automatically by the constructor function.

- ☞ A **constructor** function has the **same name** as the **class** of which it is a part and **has no return type**. According to the C++ formal syntax rules, it is **illegal for a constructor to have a return type**.

- ☞ The **constructor** is called when the **object** is created. An **object** is created when that object's **declaration** statement is executed.

- ☞ For **global objects**, an object's constructor is called **once**, when the program first begins execution. For **local objects**, the constructor is called **each time** the declaration statement is executed. **Example:**

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

class myclass{int a;
public :
    myclass(); /* constructor */
    void show(); };

myclass :: myclass() {
    cout << "In constructor \n"; a = 10; }

void myclass :: show() {cout << a; }

int main() {
    myclass ob; /* object declaration */
    ob.show(); /* calling function */
    return 0;}
```

- ☐ **Destroy objects using "destructor":** The **complement of a constructor** is the **destructor**. This function is called when an object is destroyed. For example, an object that allocates memory when it is created will want to free that memory when it is destroyed. The **name of destructor-function** is the name of its **class**, preceded by a "tilde"~.

- ☞ It is not possible to take the **address** of either a **constructor** or a **destructor**.

- ☞ A class's **destructor** is called when an **object is destroyed**. **Local objects** are destroyed when they go out of **scope**. **Global objects** are destroyed when the program **ends**. **Example:**

```
class myclass{ int a;
public : myclass(); /* constructor */
        ~myclass(); /* destructor */
        void show(); };

myclass :: myclass() {
    cout << "In constructor \n";
    a = 10; }

myclass :: ~myclass() {
    cout << "Destructing. . . \n";}

void myclass :: show() {cout << a << "\n"; }

int main() { myclass ob; /* object declaration */
             ob.show(); /* calling function */
             return 0;}
```

- ☐ **Difference between variable and object declaration:** It is important to understand that in C++, a **variable declaration statement** is an **"action statement"**. When you are programming in C, it is easy to think of declaration statements as simply establishing variables. However, in C++, because an **object** might have a **constructor**, a variable (i.e. **object**) declaration statement may, in fact, cause a considerable **number of actions to occur**.

- ☐ **Other use Restriction:** Having a **constructor** or **destructor** perform actions not directly related to the **initialization** or **orderly destruction** of an object makes for very **poor programming style** and should be avoided. Technically, a **constructor** or a **destructor** can perform **any type of operation**. The code within these functions **does not have to initialize** or **reset** anything related to the class for which they are defined. For example, a constructor for the preceding examples could have computed pi to 100 places.

## 10.3 Constructors with Parameters

It is possible to pass **arguments** to a **constructor function**. To allow this, simply add the appropriate **parameters** to the constructor function's declaration and definition. Then, when you declare an **object**, specify the **arguments**. By **Constructors with Parameters** we can initialize **different objects with different values** as we want.

```
class class_name{      /* private functions and variables */
public :              /* public functions and variables */
    class_name(type p1, type p2, . . . type pN); /* constructor with parameter */
};                  /* no object list. Objects declared separately */

. . .

class_name object1(p1, p2, . . . , pN); /* passing arguments to constructor */
```

- ❑ Actually, the syntax for passing an **argument** to a **parameterized constructor** is shorthand for this longer form (which use constructor function):

```
class_name object1 = class_name(p1, p2, . . . , pN);
```

however the short-hand form is often used: **class\_name** **object1**(**p1**, **p2**, . . . , **pN**);

- ❑ **Destructor functions** cannot have parameters. The reason is there exists no mechanism by which to pass arguments to an object that is being destroyed.

**Example:**

```
class myclass{ int a;
               public :   myclass( int x ); /* constructor with parameter */
                       void show();    };

myclass :: myclass( int x ) { cout << "In constructor \n"; a = x; }

void myclass :: show() {cout << a <<"\n"; }

int main() {    myclass ob(4);    /* object with arguments to constructor */
               ob.show();        /* calling function */

               return 0;}
```

- ➡ Here the constructor for **myclass** takes one **parameter**.
- ➡ The value passed to **myclass()** is used to initialize **a**.
- ➡ **ob** is declared in **main()** with arguments **ob(4)**. The value **4**, specified in the **parentheses** following **ob**, is the **argument** that is passed to **myclass()**'s parameter **x**, which is used to initialize **a**.

**NOTE**

- [1] However, most C++ programmers use the short form. Actually, there is a slight technical difference between the two forms that relates to **copy constructors**.
- [2] You can pass an object's constructor **any valid expression**, including **variables**. Actually objects can be constructed as needed **to fit the exact situation** at the time of their creation.

## 10.4 Relation between STRUCTURES-UNIONS and CLASSES

- ❑ **Structures:** The **class** and the **structure** have virtually **identical capabilities**. In C++ structures include **member functions**, including **constructor** and **destructor** functions,. In fact, the only **difference** between a **structure and a class** is that, by default, the **members of a class are private** but the **members of a structure are public**. Because in C all structure members are public by default. General form of a **structure** in C++ :

```
struct type_name {
                               /* public function and data members */
               private :
                               /* private function and data members */
               } object_list ;
```

- ☞ In C++ both **struct** and **class** create new **class types**.
- ☞ Notice that a new keyword is introduced. It is **private**, and it tells the compiler that the member that follow are **private to that class** (applicable for both class and structure).

- ❑ **Unions:** In C++, a **union** defines a **class type** that can contain **both functions and data as members**. For a union all members are **public by default** until the **private** specifier is used.

- ☞ In a union, however, all data members share the **same memory location** (just as in C).
- ☞ Unions can contain **constructor** and **destructor** functions.
- ☞ The union's ability to **link code and data** allows you to create **class types** in which **all data uses a shared location**. This is something that you cannot do using a class.
- ☞ There are several **restrictions that apply to unions** as they relate to C++.
  - ★ First, they **cannot inherit** any other **class** and they **cannot be used** as a **base class** for any other type.
  - ★ Unions also **must not contain any object** that has a **constructor** or **destructor**. The union, **itself, can have a constructor and destructor though**.
  - ★ Unions must not have any **static** members.
  - ★ Finally, unions cannot have **virtual member** functions. (Virtual functions are described later.)

- ☞ **Anonymous union:** An anonymous union special type of union that **does not have a type name**, and **no variables can be declared** for this sort of union. Instead, it tells the compiler that its members will share the same memory location.

- ❖ However, in all other, respects, the members act and are treated like normal variables. That is, the members are **accessed directly, without the dot operator syntax**. For example, examine this fragment:

```
union { int i; char ch [4]; }; /* an anonymous union */
i = 10; ch [0] = 'X';          /* access i and ch directly */
```

Here **i** and **ch** are accessed directly because they are not part of any **object**. They share the same **memory space**.

- ❖ Anonymous union is that it gives you a simple way to tell the compiler that you want two or more variables to share the same memory location.
- ❖ Aside from this special attribute, members of an anonymous union behave like other variables.
- ❖ Anonymous unions have **all of the restrictions that apply to normal unions**, plus these additions.
  - A **global** anonymous union must be declared static.
  - An anonymous union cannot contain **private** members.
  - The names of the members of an anonymous union must not conflict with other identifiers within the same scope.

## NOTE

- [1] Although **structures** have the same capabilities as **classes**, most programmers **restrict** their use of structures to adhere to their *C-like form* and do not use them to include function members.
- [2] We reserve the use of **struct** for objects that have *no function members*.

## 10.5 In-Line Functions & Automatic In-Lining

❑ **IN-LINE FUNCTIONS:** In C++, it is possible to define functions that are *not actually called* but, rather, are *expanded in line*, at the point of each call. This is much the same way that a *C-like parameterized macro* works (re call 8.1).

- ☞ The **advantage** is, no overhead associated with the function *call and return* mechanism. This means that **in-line** functions can be executed much **faster** than normal functions. (Normal function call and return take time each time a function is called. If there are parameters, even more time overhead is generated.)
- ☞ The **disadvantages** of *in-line functions* is that if they are *too large* and called too often, your program *grows larger*. For this reason, in general *only short functions are declared as in-line functions*.
- ☞ *To declare an in-line function, simply precede the function's "definition" with the "inline" specifier.* For Example :

```
inline int even(int x) { return !(x%2); }
```

The function **even()**, which **returns true** if its argument is **even**, is declared as being **in-line**.

It means that, **if(even(x)) cout << "Even";** is functionally **equivalent** to: **if(!(x%2)) cout << " Even ";**

- ☞ An *in-line function* must be defined before it is first called. If it isn't, the compiler has no way to know that it is supposed to be expanded *in-line*. This is why **even()** was defined before **main()**.

```
inline int even(int x) { return !(x%2); }
int main(){ . . . . . }
```

- ☞ It is important to understand that the **inline** specifier is a **request, not a command**, to the compiler.
- ☞ If any *in-line restriction is violated*, the compiler is free to *generate a normal function* (i.e. the function is compiled as a normal function and the **inline** request is ignored.). Some compilers will *not in-line a function* if it contains a **static** variable, a **loop** statement, a **switch** or a **goto**, or if the function is **recursive**.

❑ **AUTOMATIC IN-LINING:** If a member function's definition is **short** enough, the definition can be included inside the **class declaration**. Doing so causes the function to *automatically become an in-line function*, if possible.

- ☞ When a function is defined *within a class declaration*, the **inline** keyword is *no longer necessary*.
- ☞ Of course if any *in-line restriction is violated*, the compiler is free to *generate a normal function*.
- ☞ For example, the **divisible()** is automatically in-lined as shown here:

```
class samp { int i, j;
public:
    samp (int a, int b);
                                /* divisible() is defined here and automatically in-lined. */
    int divisible() { return !(i%j); }
};
samp :: samp(int a, int b) { i = a; j = b; }
```

- ☑ As you can see, the code associated with **divisible()** occurs inside the declaration for the class **samp**. Further notice that *no other definition of divisible()* is *needed-or permitted*.
- ☑ Notice how **divisible()** *occurs all on one line*. This format is very common in C++ programs when a function is declared within a class declaration. It allows the declaration to be more **compact**.

## 10.6 Assigning Objects

One **object** can be assigned to **another** provided that *both objects are of the same type* (similar to structure). By default, when one object is assigned to another, a **bitwise copy** of all the data members is made.

❑ For **example**, the contents of object called **obj\_1** is assigned to another object called **obj\_2**, the contents of all of **obj\_1**'s data are copied into the equivalent members of **obj\_2**.

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

class myclass {
int a, b;
public :
void set(int i, int j) {a = i; b = j; }
void show() {cout << a << " " << b << "\n";}
};

int main(){ myclass obj_1 , obj_2;
            obj_1.set(10 , 4);

            /* assign obj_1 to obj_2 */
            obj_2 = obj_1;
            obj_1.show();
            obj_2.show();
            return 0;}
```

- ☑ Here, object **obj\_1** has its member variables **a** and **b** set to the values **10** and **4**, respectively. Next, **obj\_1** is assigned to **obj\_2**. This causes the current value of **obj\_1.a** to be assigned to **obj\_2.a** and **obj\_1.b** to be assigned to **obj\_2.b**.
- ☞ An assignment between two objects simply makes the data in those objects **identical**. The two objects are *still completely separate*. For example, after the assignment, calling **obj\_1.set()** to set the value of **obj\_1.a** has no effect on **obj\_2** or its a value.

- ❑ **Only objects of the same type** can be used in an assignment statement. If the objects are not of the same type, a **compile-time error** is reported. It is **not sufficient** that the types just be **physically similar**—their **type names must** be the **same**.

```

class myclass {
    int a, b;
public:
    void set(int i, int j) {a = i; b = j; }
    void show() {cout << a << ' ' << b << "\n";}
};

class yourclass {
    int a, b;
public:
    void set(int i, int j) {a = i; b = j; }
    void show() {cout << a << ' ' << b << "\n";}
};

int main(){
    myclass obj_1;
    yourclass obj_2;
    obj_1.set(10, 4);

    /* assign obj_1 to obj_2 */
    obj_2 = obj_1;          /* compile-time error will occur: not same type */
    obj_1.show(); obj_2.show();
    return 0;
}

```

In this case, even though **myclass** and **yourclass** are physically the same, because they have **different type names**, they are treated as differing types by the compiler.

- ❑ **All data members of one object** are assigned to another when an assignment is performed. This includes **compound data** such as **arrays**.

## 10.7 Object Pointers

It is possible to access a **member of an object** via **pointer** to that object. When a pointer is used, the **arrow operator** (**->**) rather than the **dot operator** is employed. (This is exactly the same way the arrow operator is used when given a **pointer to a structure**.) **However using the dot operator to access members of an object is the correct method.**

- ☞ You declare an object pointer just like you declare a pointer to any other variable. Specify its **class name**, and then precede the **variable name** with an **asterisk**.
- ☞ To obtain the **address** of an object, precede the object with **&** operator, just as you do when taking the address of any other type of variable.
- ☞ Just like pointers to other types, an object pointer, when incremented, will point to the next object of its type.
- ☞ It is important to understand that **creation of an object pointer does not create an object—it creates just a pointer to one**.

**For example**

```

int myclass::get() { return a; }
int main() { myclass ob(120); /* create object */
    myclass *p;             /* create pointer to object */
    p = &ob;                /* put address of ob into p */
    cout << " Value using object : " << ob.get();
    cout << "\n";
    cout << " Value using pointer : " << p->get();
    return 0; }

```

- ☑ Notice how the declaration **myclass \*p;** creates a pointer to an object of myclass.
- ☑ The address of **ob** is put into **p** by using this statement: **p = &ob;**
- ☑ Finally, the program shows how the members of an object can be accessed through a Pointer as using: **p->get()** .

- ❑ **Pointer arithmetic** using an **object pointer** is the same as it is for any other **data type**: it is performed relative to the type of the object. For example, when an object pointer is **incremented**, **it points to the next object**. When an object pointer is **decremented**, **it points to the previous object**.

```

class samp { int a, b;
/* inline function as constructor */
public: samp(int n, int m) { a=n; b=m; }
    int get_a() { return a; }
    int get_b() { return b; } };

int main() {
    samp ob[4] = {samp(1, 2), samp(3, 4),
                  samp(5, 6), samp(7, 8) };

    int i;
    samp *p;
    p = ob; /* get starting address of array */
    for (i=0; i < 4; i++){
        cout << p->get_a () << ' ';
        cout << p->get_b () << "\n";
        p++; /* advance to next object */ }
    . . . . . }

```

- ☐ Each time **p** is **incremented**, it points to the **next object** in the array.

## 10.8 The "this" pointer

C++ contains a special pointer that is called **this**. **this** is a pointer that is **automatically passed to any member function** when it is called, and it is a **pointer to the object** that generates the call (**this** works **implicitly**). For example, given this statement,

```
ob.f1(); /* accessing f1() member function from object ob */
```

the function **f1()** is automatically passed a pointer to **ob**—which is the object that **invokes** the call. This pointer is referred to as **this**.

- ☞ Only **member functions** are passed a **this** pointer. For example, a **friend** does not have a **this** pointer.

☞ When a member function refers to another member of a class, it does so directly without qualifying the member with either a class or an object specification. For example,

```
class inventory {      char item[20];      void inventory :: show(){
                        double cost ;      cout << item ;
                        int on_hand ;      cout << ": $" << cost ;
public :               cout << " On hand : " << on_hand <<
inventory( char *i, double c, int o) {    "\n"; }
    strcpy (item , i);
    cost = c;    on_hand = o; }
    void show (); };
```

Here, within the constructor **inventory()** and the member function **show()**, the member variables **item**, **cost**, and **on\_hand** are referred to **directly**.

```
class inventory {      char item[20];      void inventory :: show(){
                        double cost ;      /* use "this" to access members*/
                        int on_hand ;      cout << this->item ;
public :               cout << ": $" << this->cost ;
inventory( char *i, double c, int o) {    cout << " On hand : " << this->on_hand <<
/* accessing through "this" pointer */    "\n"; }
    strcpy (this->item , i);
    this->cost = c;
    this->on_hand= o; }
void show (); };
```

☑ Here the member variables are accessed explicitly through the this pointer.

☑ **Shorthand-form:** within **show()**, these two statements are equivalent:

```
cost = 123.23;
this -> cost = 123.23;
```

the **first** form is a **shorthand** for the **second**.

#### NOTE

- [1] By default, all member functions are **automatically passed** a pointer to the invoking object.
- [2] The **this** pointer has several uses, including aiding in **overloading operators**.

## 10.9 ARRAYS OF OBJECTS

☐ The syntax for **declaring** an **array of objects** is exactly like that used to declare an **array of any other type of variable**.

☐ **Arrays of objects** are accessed just like **arrays of other types of variables**.

**Example:**

```
class samp { int a;
public : void set_a(int n) { a = n; }
int get_a() { return a; } };

int main() { samp ob [4]; int i;
for (i=0; i<4; i++) ob[i].set_a(i);
for (i=0; i<4; i++) cout<< ob[i].get_a();
cout<< "\n";
return 0;}
```

This creates a **four-element array** of objects of type **samp** and then loads each element's **a** with a value between **0** and **3**. The **array name**, in this case **ob**, is indexed; then the **member access operator** is applied, followed by the name of the member function to be called.

☐ **Initialization list (short and long form) for array with constructor:** If a class type includes a constructor, an array of objects can be initialized. For example, here ob is an initialized array:

```
class samp { int a;
public : samp(int n) { a = n; } /* constructor for initialization*/
int get_a() { return a; } };

int main() { samp ob [4] = { -1, -2, -3, -4 };
. . . . . }
```

Actually, the syntax shown in the initialization list **samp ob [4] = { -1, -2, -3, -4 };** is shorthand for this longer form (first shown in 10.3):

```
samp ob[4] = {      samp( -1), samp( -2),
                  samp( -3), samp( -4)  };
```

However, the shorthand form used in the program is applicable when constructors take only one argument. For constructors with two or more argument (multidimensional arrays of objects) we have to use the longer form. For example,

```
class samp { int a, b;
public : samp(int n, int m) { a = n; b = m; } /* initialization for 2-D array */
int get_a() { return a; }
int get_b() { return b; } };

int main() { samp ob[4][2] = {      samp(1, 2),      samp(3, 4),
                                samp(5, 6),      samp(7, 8),
                                samp(9, 10),     samp(11, 12),
                                samp(13, 14),     samp(15, 16)  };
. . . . . }
```

- ☞ The reason is, the formal C++ syntax allows only one argument at a time in a *comma-separated list*. There is no way, for example, to specify two (or more) arguments per entry in the list.
- ☞ Therefore, when you initialize arrays of objects that have constructors that take *more than one argument*, you must use the "long form" initialization syntax rather than the "shorthand form."
- ☞ You can *always use the long form of initialization even if the object takes only one argument*.

## 10.10 PASSING objects to functions and RETURNING objects from function

- ☐ **PASSING objects to functions:** Objects can be *passed to functions* as **arguments** in just the same way that other types of data are passed. Simply *declare the function's parameter as a class type* and then use an **object** of that **class** as an **argument** when calling the function.

**type function\_name( class\_type obj\_1, class\_type obj\_2, . . . );**

- ☞ As with other types of data, by default all objects are *passed by value to a function*.

**Example:** in following program we *pass object to a function*

```
#include <iostream >
using namespace std;
class samp{ int i;
public :
    samp(int n) { i = n; }
    int get_i() { return i; }
};
/* Return square of obj.i i.e. square of I of an object obj */
int sqr_it(samp obj){
    return obj.get_i()*obj.get_i(); }
int main(){    samp a(10) , b(2) ;
    cout << sqr_it(a) << "\n";
    cout << sqr_it(b) << "\n";
    return 0;}
```

Here **sqr\_it()** takes an argument of type **samp** and returns the square of that object's **i** value.

- ☞ The default method of parameter passing in C++, including **objects**, is *by value*. This means that a **bitwise copy** of the **argument** is made and it is *this copy that is used by the function*. Therefore, changes to the object inside the function do not affect the calling (original) object. *Objects, like other parameters, are passed by value. Thus changes to the parameter inside a function have no effect on the object used in the call.* Example :

```
#include <iostream >
using namespace std;
class samp{ int i;
public :
    samp(int n) { i = n; }
    void set_i(int n) { i=n; }
    int get_i() {return i; } };
/* Set obj.i to its square. This has no effect on the
object used to call sqr_it() */
void sqr_it( samp obj) {
    obj.set_i( obj.get_i()*obj.get_i() );
    cout << "Square = Copy of a has i value of:" ;
    cout << obj.get_i(); }
int main(){    samp a(10); /*passed by value*/
    cout << "But, a.i is unchanged in main: ";
    cout << a.get_i();
    return 0;}
```

**output : Copy of a has i value of 100**  
**But, a.i is unchanged in main: 10**

- ☞ The **address of an object can be passed to a function** so that the argument used in the call can be **modified** by the function. That is, *changes to the object inside the function will affect the calling (original) object*. Let's consider the class of the previous example. If we change the **sqr\_it()** like below: it will **modify** the value of the object whose address is used in the call to **sqr\_it()**.

```
/* Set obj.i to its square. This affects the
object used to call sqr_it() */
void sqr_it( samp *obj) {
    obj->set_i( obj->get_i()*obj->get_i() );
    cout << "Square = Copy of a has i value of:" ;
    cout << obj->get_i(); }
int main(){    samp a(10); /*passed by value*/
    cout << "Now, a.i is changed in main: ";
    cout << a.get_i();
    return 0;}
```

**output : Copy of a has i value of 100**  
**Now, a.i is changed in main: 100**

- ☑ These two example reflects the **same thing that we've discussed in C's passing argument's address in function parameters (recall 5.3)**.

- ☞ When a **copy of an object** is created because it is used as an **argument** to a function, the **constructor function is not called**. However, when the copy is **destroyed** (by going out of scope when the function returns), the **destructor function is called**.

- ☑ The reason for not calling the constructor function is that, the **constructor** function is generally *used to initialize some aspect of an object*, it must not be called when making a copy of an already existing object passed to a function. Doing so would *alter the contents of the object*. When passing an object to a function, *you want the current state of the object, not its initial state*.

- ☑ **Destructor** function is *called* because the object might perform *some operation that must be undone* when it goes *out of scope*. For Example :

```
class samp { int i;
public :
    samp(int n) { i=n; /*constructor*/
        cout << "Constructing\n"; }
    ~samp() { /*destructor*/
        cout << "Destructing\n"; }
    int get_i() { return i; } };
/* Return square of obj.i */
int sqr_it( samp obj){
    return obj.get_i() * obj.get_i(); }
int main() {    samp a (10) ;
    cout << sqr_it (a) << "\n";
    return 0; }
```

**Outout :   Constructing  
              Destructing  
              100  
              Destructing**

As you can see, only one call to the **constructor** function is made. This occurs when **a** is created. However, two calls to the **destructor** are made. One is for the copy created when **a** is passed to **sqr\_it()**. The other is for **a** itself.

☞ **One important point :** when an object is passed to a function, a copy of that object is made. Further, when that function **returns**, the copy's **destructor** function is called. The fact that the **destructor** for the object that is the copy of the argument is executed when the function terminates can be a source of problems. *For example*, if the object used as the argument allocates dynamic memory and frees that memory when destroyed, **its copy will free the same memory when its destructor is called**. This will leave the original object **damaged** and effectively **useless**. This problem can be resolved in two ways : one, using **reference**. Two, using **copy-constructor**.

❑ **RETURNING OBJECTS FROM FUNCTIONS:** To return objects from a function,

[1] First declare the function as returning a **class type**.

[2] Second, **return** an **object** of *that type* using the normal return statement.

**ret\_class\_type function\_name( any\_type obj\_1, any\_type obj\_2, . . . );**

☞ Here is an example of a function that returns an object:

```
#include <iostream >
#include <cstring >
```

```
using namespace std;
class samp {char s[80];
public :
    void show() { cout << s << "\n"; }
    void set( char *str ) { strcpy(s, str ); } };
```

/\* Function **input()** return an object of type **samp** \*/

```
    samp input(){ char g[80];          /* it is a local variable. However s[80] used in book. Which have no
                                         connection with the private variable s[80] in the class samp */
    samp str ;                         /* declaring local object str */
    cout << " Enter a string : "; cin >> g;
    str.set(g);                        /* copying g to str.s */
    return str; }                     /* returning object */
```

```
int main(){    samp ob;
               ob = input();                /* assign returned object to ob */
               ob.show();
               return 0; }
```

In this example, **input()** creates a **local object** called **str** and then reads a string from the keyboard. This string is copied into **str.s** and then **str** is **returned** by the function. This object is then **assigned to ob** inside **main()** when it is **returned** by the call to **input()**. Notice in the book a private variable **s[80]** used in the function **input()**.

☞ **One important point is :** When an object is returned by a function, a **temporary object is automatically created** which holds the **return value**. It is this object that is actually **returned by the function**. After the value has been returned, this **object is destroyed**. The destruction of this **temporary object** might cause unexpected side effects in some situations (*This problem can be resolved in two ways : one, using reference. Two, using copy-constructor.*).

☑ You must be careful about returning objects from functions if those objects contain **destructor** functions because the returned object **goes out of scope** as soon as the value is returned to the **calling routine**. For example, if the object returned by the function has a destructor that frees dynamically allocated memory, that memory will be freed even though the object that is assigned the return value is still using it. Consider the program above with newly defined class, constructor and set()

```
#include <cstdlib>                                     /* we'll use allocation function malloc() and free() */
```

```
class samp {char *s;
public :
    samp() {s="\0";}                                /* "\0" means null */
    ~samp() {if(s) free(s); cout<< "freeing s \n";} /* freeing memory */
    void show() { cout << s << "\n"; }
    void set( char *str ); }

    /* load a string */
void samp :: set( char *str ){s=(char *)malloc(strlen(str)+1); /* allocating memory */
                           if(!s){cout<< "Allocation error \n"; exit(1);}
                           strcpy(s, str); }
```

In this case different error arise in different compiler. Here destructor called multiple times (In old compiler **three times** actually).

1. First, it is called when the local object **str** goes out of scope when **input()** returns.



2. The second time `~samp()` is called is when the temporary object returned by `input()` is destroyed. Remember, *when an object is returned from a function, an invisible (to you) temporary object is automatically generated which holds the return value.* In this case, this object is simply a copy of `str`, which is the return value of the function. Therefore, destructor is executed.
3. Finally, the destructor for object `ob`, inside `main()`, is called when the program **terminates**.

The trouble is that in this situation, the first time the destructor executes, the memory allocated to hold the string input by `input()` is freed. Thus, *not only do the other two calls to `samp`'s destructor try to free an already released piece of dynamic memory, but they destroy the dynamic allocation system in the process*, as evidenced by the run-time message "Null pointer assignment." (Depending upon your compiler, you may or may not see this message).

☑ **The key point** to be understood from this example is that when an **object** is **returned from** a function, the **temporary object** used to **effect** the return will have its **destructor** function called. Thus, **you should avoid returning objects in which this situation is harmful.** (However, it is possible to use a **copy constructor** to manage this situation.)

## 10.11 Memory allocation/release operators: `new`, `delete`

To **allocate** memory and to **free** the allocated memory we use the C's dynamic allocation functions `malloc()` and `free()` respectively (applicable in C++ also). These are the standard.

**Memory allocation/release operators:** C++ provides safer and more convenient **operators** (not functions): **`new`** and **`delete`** to **allocate** and **free** (delete) memory respectively. These operators take these general forms:

```
p_var = new type ;
delete p_var ;
```

Here **`type`** is the **type specifier** of the **object** for which you want to allocate memory and **`p_var`** is a **pointer** to that type.

☐ **`new`** is an **operator** that **returns a pointer** to dynamically allocated memory that is **large enough** to hold an **object** of type **`type`**.

☞ In Standard C++, the default behavior of **`new`** is to generate an **exception** when it **cannot satisfy** an allocation request. If this exception is not handled by your program, your program will be terminated. (**Exceptions** and **exception handling** are described later; loosely, an **exception is a run-time error that can be managed in a structured fashion.**)

☐ **`delete`** releases that memory when it is no longer needed. **`delete`** can be called only with an **invalid pointer**, the allocation system will be destroyed, possibly crashing your program.

☞ If there is **insufficient** available **memory** to fill an allocation request, one of two actions will occur. Either **`new`** will return a **null pointer** or it will generate an **exception**.

**Example:** // A simple example of `new` and `delete`.

```
# include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {int *p;
    p = new int; /* allocate room for an integer */
    if(!p) {cout << "Allocation error \n";
    return 1;}
    *p = 100;
    cout << "Here is integer at p:" << *p << "\n";
    delete p; /* release memory */
    return 0;}
```

☐ **Initializing dynamic variable:** **Dynamically allocated objects** can be given **initial values**. We can give a dynamically allocated object an initial value by using this form of the **`new`** statement:

```
p_var = new type( initial_value );
```

**Example 1:**

```
class samp { int i, j;
public :
    samp(int a, int b) { i=a; j=b; }
    int get_product() { return i*j; } };
int main() { samp *p;
p = new samp(6, 5); /* allocate object with initialization */
if(!p) { cout << " Allocation error \n"; return 1; } /*allocation check*/
delete p; /* release memory */
return 0; }
```

**Example 2:** To initialize an integer variable,

```
p = new int(9); /* give initial value of 9*/
if(!p) { cout << " Allocation error \n"; return 1; } /*always check if allocation is successful*/
. . . . . STATEMENTS. . . . .
delete p; /* release memory */
```

☐ **Dynamically allocate a one-dimensional array:** To dynamically allocate a **one-dimensional** array, use this form of **`new`**:

```
p_var = new type[ size ];
```

After this statement has executed, **`p_var`** will **point** to the **start of an array** of **`size`** elements of the **`type`** specified.

☞ For various technical reasons, it is **not possible** to **initialize** an array that is **dynamically allocated**.

☞ To **delete** a **dynamically allocated array**, use this form of **`delete`**:

```
delete [] p_var ;
```

This **syntax** causes the compiler to call the **destructor function** for **each element** in the array. It does not cause **`p_var`** to be freed **multiple times**. **`p_var`** is still freed only **once**.

**Example 3 :** to allocate an array of integers

```
int *p;
p = new int[5];      /* allocate room for 5 integers */
if(!p) { cout << " Allocation error \n"; return 1; } /*allocation check*/
. . . . . STATEMENTS. . . . .
delete [] p;
```

**Example 4 :** to allocate *object* array named "samp",

```
samp *p;
p = new samp[5];     /* allocate object array named "samp" */
if(!p) { cout << " Allocation error \n"; return 1; } /*allocation check*/
. . . . . STATEMENTS. . . . .
delete [] p;
```

## NOTE

- [1] **new** automatically allocates enough memory to hold an **object** of the **specified type**. You do not need to use **sizeof**, for example, to compute *the number of bytes* required. This reduces the possibility for error.
- [2] **new** automatically returns a **pointer** of the **specified type**. You do not need to use an **explicit type cast**.
  - ⇒ In C, no **type cast** is required when you are assigning the return value of **malloc()** to a **pointer** because the **void \*** returned by **malloc()** is **automatically converted into a pointer** compatible with the **type of pointer** on the *left side of the assignment*.
  - ⇒ However, this is not the case in C++, which requires an **explicit type cast** when you use **malloc()**. The reason for this difference is that *it allows C++ to enforce more rigorous type checking*.
- [3] Both **new** and **delete** can be **overloaded**, enabling you to easily implement your own custom allocation system.
- [4] It is possible to **initialize** a *dynamically allocated object*.
- [5] You **no longer** need to **include <cstdlib>** with your programs.

## 10.12 References

Reference a feature that is related to the **pointer**. A reference is an **implicit pointer** that for all intents and purposes acts like another name for a variable. There are three ways that a reference can be used.

- [1] First, a reference can be **passed** to a function.
- [2] Second, a reference can be **returned** by a function.
- [3] Finally, an **independent** reference can be **created**.

☐ **Reference as parameter :** The most important use of a reference is as a **parameter** to a function. Let's first start with a program that uses a **pointer** (not a **reference**) as a parameter:

```
void f(int *n);                /* use a pointer parameter */

int main() { int i = 0;
             f(&i);
             cout << " Here is i's new value : " << i << "\n";
             return 0; }

void f(int *n){ *n = 100; }     /* put 100 into the argument pointed to by n */
```

Here **f()** loads the value **100** into the integer pointed to by **n**. In this program, **f()** is called with the **address** of **i** in **main()**. Thus, after **f()** returns, **i** contains the value **100**.

This program demonstrates how a **pointer** is used as a **parameter** to manually create a **call-by-reference parameter-passing mechanism**. In a C program, this is the **only way to achieve a call-by-reference**.

☞ However, in C++ **reference parameter** completely **automate** this process. To see how, let's rework the previous program. Here is a version that uses a **reference parameter**:

```
void f(int &n);                /* declare a reference parameter */

int main() { int i = 0;
             f(i);
             cout << " Here is i's new value : " << i << "\n";
             return 0; }

/* using now the reference parameter. Notice that no * is needed in the following statement */

void f(int &n){ n = 100; }     /* put 100 into the argument pointed to by n */
```

☞ First, to declare a **reference variable or parameter**, you precede the variable's name with the **&**. This is how **n** is declared as a parameter to **f()**.

☞ Now that **n** is a **reference**, it is **no longer necessary-or even legal-to apply** (not allowed) the **\*** operator. Instead, each time **n** is used within **f()**, it is **automatically** treated as a **pointer to the argument** used to call **f()**. Within the function, the **compiler automatically** uses the variable pointed to by the **reference parameter**. This means that the statement **n = 100;** actually puts the value **100** into the **variable** used to call **f()**, which in this case, is **i**.

☞ Further, when **f()** is called, there is **no need** (in fact **not allowed**) to precede the argument with the **&**. Instead, because **f()** is declared as **taking a reference parameter**, the address to the argument is **automatically** passed to **f()**. When you use a **reference parameter**, the compiler automatically passes the address of the variable used as the argument. Thus, a reference parameter fully automates the **call-by-reference parameter-passing mechanism**.

☞ You *cannot change what a reference is pointing to*. For example, if the statement " `n++ ;` " were put inside `f()` in the preceding program, "`n`" would *still* be *pointing to i* in `main()`. Instead of *incrementing n*, this statement *increments the value of the variable being referenced* (in this case, `i`).

**Example:** The classic example of passing arguments by reference is a function that *exchanges the values of the two arguments* with which it is called. Here is an example called `swap_args()` that uses references *to swap its two integer arguments*.

| written using <b>references</b>   | written using <b>pointers</b> instead of references ( <i>recall 5.3</i> )             |
|---|---|
| <pre>void swap_args(int &amp;x, int &amp;y) {     int t;     t = x; x = y; y = t; }</pre> | <pre>void swap_args(int *x, int *y) {     int t;     t = *x; *x = *y; *y = t; }</pre> |

❑ **PASSING REFERENCES TO OBJECTS :** As you learned in **10.10**, when an object is passed to a function by use of *the default call-by-value parameter-passing mechanism*, a **copy** of that **object** is made. Although the parameter's *constructor function is not called*, its *destructor function is called* when the function **returns**.

☞ As you should recall, this can cause serious problems in some instances-when the destructor frees dynamic memory, for example. There is **two** way to solve this :

- ☑ One solution to this problem is to pass an object by reference.
- ☑ The other solution involves the use of copy constructors, which are discussed in Next chapter: **Function overloading**.

☞ When you pass the object by **reference**, *no copy is made*, and therefore its *destructor function is not called* when the function **returns**. Remember, however, that *changes made to the object inside the function affect the object used as the argument*.

☞ **NOTE:** It is critical to understand that a **reference is not a pointer**. Therefore, when an object is passed by **reference**, the *member access operator* remains the dot (`.`), not the arrow (`->`).

☞ **Example:** Lets first define **class** with **constructor** and **destructor**

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class myclass {
    int who ;
public : myclass (int n) { who = n;
                                cout << " Constructing " << who << "\n"; }
    ~ myclass () { cout << " Destructing " << who << "\n"; }
    int id() { return who; } };
```

| default <b>call-by-value parameter-passing mechanism</b>  | <b>call-by-reference parameter-passing mechanism</b>  |
|---|---|
| <pre>void f(myclass t){ /* t is passed by value */ cout &lt;&lt; "Received" &lt;&lt; t.id() &lt;&lt; "\n"; } int main(){ myclass x(1) ; f(x); return 0; }</pre> | <pre>void f(myclass &amp;t){ /* Now t is passed by reference */ cout &lt;&lt; "Received" &lt;&lt; t.id() &lt;&lt; "\n"; } /* still "." used */ int main(){ myclass x(1) ; f(x); return 0; }</pre> |
| Output :<br>Constructing 1<br>Received 1<br>Destructing 1<br>Destructing 1      /*Two time appears */   | Output :<br>Constructing 1<br>Received 1<br>Destructing 1   |
| Now we notice that the only difference between the two mechanism is " <b>8</b> " before <b>t</b> inside the function parameter .                                |   |

❑ **RETURNING REFERENCES :** A function can **return a reference**. The effect of this is both powerful and startling.

☞ Returning a reference can be very useful when you are **overloading** certain types of **operators**. (discussed in next chapter)

☞ However, it also can be employed to allow a function to be used on the **left side of an assignment** statement.

☞ **Example 1 :** here is a very simple program that contains a function that returns a reference.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int &f(); /* function declared that return a reference */
int x;
/* without global variable returning reference is meaningless */

int main(){ f() = 100; /* assign 100 to reference returned by f() */
cout << x << "\n";
return 0; }

int &f() { /* Return an int reference */
return x; } /* returns a reference to x */
```

- ☑ Here function `f()` returns a reference. So, `f()` is declared as *returning a reference* to an integer.
- ☑ Inside the body of the function, the statement " **return x;** " does not return the value of the **global** variable `x`, but rather, it automatically returns `x`'s **address** (in the form of a reference).
- ☑ When `f()` is used on the **left side** of the **assignment** statement, *it is this reference*, returned by `f()`, that *is being assigned to*. Thus, inside `main()`, the statement " `f() = 100;` " puts the value **100** into `x` because `f()` has returned a reference to `x`. thus `x` recives the value **100**.

☞ Be careful on **not go out of scope**. For example, here the reference returned by `f()` is **useless**:

```
int &f() { int x; /* x is now a local variable */
return x; } /* returns a reference to x */
```

In this case, `x` is now **local** to `f()` and will **go out of scope** when `f()` **returns**. This effectively means that the reference returned by `f()` is useless.

☞ **Example 2 :** One very good use of returning a reference is found when a bounded array type is created. In C++, you can create an **array class** that performs **automatic bounds checking**. An array class contains **two core functions**—one that **stores information into the array** and one that **retrieves information**. These functions can check, at run time, that the **array boundaries are not overrun**. The following program implements a bounds-checking array for characters:

```
// A simple bounded array example .
# include <iostream >
# include <cstdlib >
using namespace std;
class array{ int size ;
            char *p;
public:
    array(int num); /* constructor */
    ~array(){delete [] p;} /* destructor */
    char &put(int i);
    char &get(int i);    };

array :: array(int num) /* constructor define */
{p = new char [num]; /* array declaration */
if(!p){ cout << "Allocation error \n";
exit(1) ; } /* allocation check */
size = num ; } /* array size */

/* Put something into the array. */
char &array :: put(int i) /* &f() define */
{if(i<0 || i>=size ){
    cout << " Bounds error !!!\n n";
    exit(1);}
return p[i];} /* return reference to p[i]*/

/* Get something from the array.*/
char array :: get(int i)
{
if(i <0 || i >= size ){
    cout << " Bounds error !!!\n n";
    exit(1) ; }
return p[i];
}

int main() {
    array a(10) ;
    a.put (3) = 'X';
    a.put (2) = 'R';
    cout << a.get (3) << a.get (2) ;
    cout << "\n";

    /* now generate run - time boundary error */
    a.put (11) = '!';
    return 0;
}
```

- ☑ Notice that the **put()** function returns a reference to the array element specified by parameter **i**. This reference can then be used on the left side of an assignment statement to store something in the array—if the index specified by **i** is not out of bounds.
- ☑ The reverse is **get()**, which returns the value stored at the specified index if that index is within range.
- ☑ This approach to maintaining an array is sometimes referred to as a **safe array**.
- ☑ The array is allocated dynamically by the use of **new**. This allows arrays of differing length to be declared.
- ☑ If you need to have array boundaries verified at run time, this is one way to do it. However, remember that bounds checking slows access to the array. So use it when it really needed.

☐ **INDEPENDENT REFERENCES:** Although not commonly used, the independent reference is another type of reference. An independent reference is a reference variable that in all effects is simply another name for another variable.

☞ Because references cannot be assigned new values, an independent reference must be initialized when it is declared.

☞ **Example :**

```
int main(){ int x;
            int &ref = x; /* create an independent reference */

x = 10;      /* these two statements */
ref = 10;    /* are functionally equivalent */

ref = 100;

cout << x << ' ' << ref << "\n"; /* this prints 100 twice */
return 0; }
```

- ☑ In this program, the independent reference **ref** serves as a **different name** for **x**. From a practical point of view, **x** and **ref** are **equivalent**.

☞ An **independent reference** can refer to a constant. For example, **const int &ref = 10;** is valid.

☐ **RESTRICTIONS on using Reference :** There are a number of restrictions that apply to all types of references.

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>[1] You cannot <b>reference</b> another <b>reference</b>.</li> <li>[2] You cannot obtain the <b>address</b> of a <b>reference</b>.</li> <li>[3] You cannot create <b>arrays</b> of <b>references</b>.</li> <li>[4] You cannot <b>reference</b> a <b>bit-field</b>.</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>[5] References <b>must</b> be <b>initialized</b> unless they are members of a <b>class</b>, are <b>return values</b>, or are function <b>parameters</b>.</li> <li>[6] Remember, <b>references are similar to pointers, but they are not pointers</b>.</li> </ul> |
|--|---|

## NOTE

- [1] **Reference parameters** offer several advantages over their (more or less) equivalent **pointer alternatives**.
  - a. No longer need to remember to **pass the address of an argument**. When a **reference parameter** is used, the address is automatically passed.
  - b. Reference parameters offer a **cleaner**, more **elegant** interface than the rather clumsy **explicit pointer mechanism**.
  - c. When an **object** is passed to a function as a **reference**, **no copy is made**. This is one way to eliminate the **troubles associated with the copy of an argument** damaging something needed elsewhere in the program (recall **change** : destructor problem while passing object to a function) when its **destructor** function is called.