

OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING USING C++

CSCI 5448- Object Oriented Analysis and Design

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Fundamentals of OOP

- Class
- Object
- Encapsulation
- Abstraction
- Inheritance
- Polymorphism
- Reusability

C++ as an OOP language

- C++ : C with classes
- Multi-paradigm language
 - As Object oriented language, it offers bottom to top approach
 - As Procedural language, it offers top to bottom approach

Classes and objects (I)

- Class- user defined data type. Fundamental packaging unit of OOP technology
- Class declaration is similar to struct declaration
- Keyword 'class' followed by class name.
- Object is an instance of class
- Object combines data and functions
- Object is created as a variable of class type using class name
- Members of class
 - Data members / attributes
 - Member functions / methods

Classes and objects (II)

- Structure of C++ program with class

```
1 # include <iostream.h>
2
3 class demo          // class declaration
4 {
5     int x,y;         // data members
6     public:          // access specifier
7     void set()        // methods
8     { cin>>x>>y; }
9     void display()
10    {cout<<x<<y;}
11 };
12
13 void main()
14 {
15     Demo obj;        // object of class Demo is created
16     obj.set();        // calling methods with object obj
17     obj.display();
18 }
19
```

Data members

- Data members can be any of the following types
 - Primary data types : int, float, char, double, bool
 - Secondary data types : arrays, pointers, class objects etc.
- Data members classified into two groups
 - Regular : every object gets its own copy of data members
 - Static: all objects share the same copy of data member

Static Data Members

- Variable declaration preceded by keyword 'static'
- Only one copy of static variable is created. All the objects share the same copy
- Initialized to zero when first object is created. No other initialization permitted.
- Should be defined outside the class definition after declaring them inside the class in this way – `datatype classname :: varname`
- They are normally used to maintain values that are common to the entire class, e.g., to keep a count of number of objects created.

Methods (I)

- Function defined inside a class declaration is called as member function or method
- Methods can be defined in two ways - inside the class or outside the class using scope resolution operator (::)
- When defined outside class declaration, function needs to be declared inside the class

Methods (II)

Method defined inside the class

```
class demo
{
    int x,y;
    public:
    void set()
    { cin>>x>>y; }
    void display()    // method is defined inside the class
    {cout<<x<<y;}
};

void main()
{
    Demo obj;
    obj.set();
    obj.display();
}
```

Method defined outside the class

```
3 class Demo
4 {
5     int x,y;
6     public:
7     void set()
8     { cin>>x>>y; }
9     void display();    // method declared inside the class
10 };
1
2 void Demo :: display() // method defined outside the class
3 {cout<<x<<y;}         // using scope operator (::)
4
5 void main()
6 {
7     Demo obj;
8     obj.set();
9     obj.display();
10 }
```

Methods (III)

- Types of functions in a class
 - Regular functions
 - Overloaded functions
 - Inline functions
 - Friend functions
 - Static functions
 - Constructors
 - Destructors
 - Virtual functions

Inline Function (I)

- It is a function defined with a keyword 'inline'
- Compiler replaces the function call with function definition
- It can not be recursive
- It can not contain any types of loops
- It can not have switch cases or nested if's
- It can not have static variable or goto statements
- Main() can not be inline

Inline Function (II)

- All the inline functions must be defined before the call, because compiler needs to go through definition before the call

```
class Circle()
{
float r;
public:
void get()
{cin>>r;}
float area();           // function declaration
};

inline float Circle :: area() // function definition with keyword inline
{
return 3.14*r*r;
}

void main()
{
Circle c;
c.get();
float area= c.area();
cout<<"area of circle: "<<area;
}
```

Friend Function (I)

- Non-member function
- Has access to private and protected data of class. It gets the access through declaration in the class with keyword 'friend'
- It can be declared anywhere in class, i.e., private/public scope
- It has minimum one object of the class as its parameter because it accesses data members with the object name
- It can not be called by an object, because it is not a member function
- One function can be friend of any number of classes.

Friend Function (II)

- Friend function example

```
class Circle()
{
float r;
public:
void get()
{cin>>r;}
    friend float area(Circle a); // friend function declaration
};

float area(Circle a)           // function definition
{                               // at least one parameter of function is an object
return 3.14*a.r*a.r;
}

void main()
{
Circle c;
c.get();
float area= area(c);           // function is called without an object
cout<<"area of circle: "<<area;
}
```

Friend function (III)

- Uses of Friend function
 - Useful when overloading certain types of operators
 - Useful when two or more classes contain members that are interrelated to other parts of program
 - Enhances encapsulation. Only programmer who has access to the source code of class, can make a function friend of that class

Friend Classes

- They are used when two or more classes need to work together and need access of each other's data members without making them accessible by other classes.

```
class Circle()
{
float r;
public:
void get()
{cin>>r;}
    friend class Area;    //class Area is made friend of class Circle
};

class Area ()
{
    float getArea(Circle a)
    {return 3.14*a.r*a.r;}    // class Area can access private data members of class Circle
};

void main()
{
    Circle c;
    Area a;
    c.get();
    float area= a.getArea(c);    //object of class Circle is passed to function of class Area
    cout<<"area of circle: "<<area;
}
```


Static and Const Member Functions

- Static member functions-
 - Can have access to only static members of the same class
 - Can be called using class name as –
classname :: functionname ();
- Const member functions-
 - Function declaration followed by keyword 'const',
e.g., void put() const {statements.....}
 - It ensures that it will never modify any data members
 - Can be invoked for both const and non-const objects

Constructors (I)

- Special member function to initialize the objects of its class
- Automatically called when an object is created
- Data members can be initialized through constructors
- Have the same name of the class
- They can have any number of parameters
- Do not have return types, because they are called automatically by system
- A constructor can only be called by a constructor

Constructors (II)

- Three types of constructors-
 - Default constructors - constructor with no parameters. Compiler supplies default constructor by itself if not defined explicitly.
e.g. `Circle() {}` . In main function, `Circle c`.
 - Parameterized constructors- constructors with parameters. Used for initializing data members
e.g. `Circle(float x) {r =x;}` . In main function, `Circle c(3.5);`
 - Copy constructors- used when one object of the class initializes other object. It takes reference to an object of the same class as an argument.
e.g. `Circle (Circle &x) { r=x.r;}` .
in main function, `Circle c1(3.5); Circle c2=c1;`

Constructors (III)

- Ways of calling the constructors-
 - Implicit call – Calling the constructor by its object. we do not specify the constructor name (Circle(3.5))
e.g. `Circle c(3.5);`
 - Explicit call – constructor is called by its name with parameters
E.g. `Circle c = Circle(3.5);`
 - Dynamic initialization – first memory is allocated to the object using default constructor. Then parameterized constructor is called to initialize data members
E.g. `Circle c; float x; cin >> x;`
`c = Circle(x);`

Destructors

- Special member function that is called implicitly to de-allocate the memory of objects allocated by constructor
- Has same name of the class preceded by (~)sign
E.g. ~ Circle() {}
- Only one destructor in class
- Can never have parameters and cannot be called explicitly
- No return type
- Is called by itself when object goes outside its scope
- Called in reverse order of constructors

Function Overloading

- Functions with same name but different parameters
- All the functions are defined in the same class
- Binding is done during compile time

```
class Rectangle
{
float len, br;
public:
Rectangle()
{ len=2; br=2;}
Rectangle(float x, float y) //constructor overloading
{ len=x, br=y;}

void get()
{ cin>>len>>br; }
void get(float x, float y) //get() function overloaded
{ len=x, br=y; }

void getArea()
{ cout<<"area: "<<len*br;}
};

void main()
{
Rectangle a;           //default constructor called
a.getArea();
Rectangle b(2,5,4,5);  // parameterized constructor called
a.getArea();
Rectangle c;
c.get();               //get()without parameters definition called
c.getArea();
Rectangle d;
d.get(1.2,1);          //get() with parameters definition called
d.getArea();
}
```

Operator Overloading (I)

- Mechanism in which we give an additional meaning to existing operators when they are applied to user defined data types e.g. objects
- When an operator is overloaded, its original meanings are not lost
- Improves readability of code and increases scope of operator.

Operator overloading (II)

- General rules of operator overloading-
 - Only existing operators can be overloaded
 - Overloaded operator must have at least one user defined operator
 - Operator function can not have default arguments
 - All binary arithmetic overloaded operator functions explicitly return a value
 - Precedence of operators can not be altered. E.g. * has higher precedence over +

Unary Operator Overloading (I)

- Unary operator acts on single operand(++ , --)
- Can be overloaded either through non-static member function or friend function
 - Member function – takes no parameter. E.g. `x.operator++()`
 - Friend function - takes one parameter. E.g. `operator++(x)`
- Increment(++) and decrement(--) have two versions, prefix and postfix. To differentiate between them, a dummy parameter of type `int` is used in postfix

Unary Operator Overloading (II)

Member function

```
class Increment()
{
int a;
public:
Increment(){}           // default constructor
Increment(int x)        //parameterized constructor
{a=x;}

void operator++()        //prefix function
{++a;}

void operator++(int)     //postfix function
{a++;}

//with dummy parameter int
void display()
{cout<<a<<endl;}
};

void main()
{
Increment c(3);
++c;           //c.operator++(), call for prefix
c.display();
c++;           //c.operator++(); call for postfix
c.display();
}
```

Friend function

```
class Increment()
{
int a;
public:
Increment(){}           // default constructor
Increment(int x)        //parameterized constructor
{a=x;}

friend void operator++(Increment x);      //prefix function

friend void operator++(Increment x, int); //postfix function

void display()
{cout<<a<<endl;}
};

void operator++(Increment x)              //definitions
{++x.a;}

friend void operator++(Increment x, int)
{x.a++;}

void main()
{
Increment c(3);
++c;           //operator++(c), call for prefix
c.display();
c++;           //operator++(c); call for postfix
c.display();
}
```

Binary Operator Overloading (I)

- Binary operator is an operator that requires two operands e.g. +, -, =
- Member function –
 - takes one parameter e.g. `c.operator+(Circle x)`.
 - Left hand side operand becomes calling object. R.H.S. becomes passing object.
e.g. `c=c1+c2; -> c = c1.operator+(c2);`
 - Left hand operand can not be primary data type as it can not call the function
E.g. `c=100+c1; //error because c=100.operator+(c1) not possible`
- Friend function –
 - takes 2 parameters. One parameter has to be user-defined data type. Other can be either secondary or primary data type
e.g. `operator+(Circle c, int n)`
 - Both L.H.S and R.H.S. are passed as objects, L.H.S. as 1st parameter and R.H.S. as 2nd parameter
e.g. `c=c1+100; -> c= operator+(c1,100)`
 - In case of one of the operands being primary data type, object may appear on either left or right side of operator.
e.g. `C=100+c1; -> c=operator+(100,c1)`
- Return type in general is the object of the class

Binary Operator Overloading (II)

- Assignment operators – e.g. `=`, `+=`, `-=`, `*=` etc
- Assignment operator functions do not return any value. Changes are made in L.H.S. operand
- In case of friend function, first parameter must be an reference to the object
 - e.g. `Speed operator+=(Speed &x, Speed y)`
`s1+=s2; -> operator+=(s1,s2);`
- If an object is assigned to another object at the line of declaration, then copy constructor is called.
 - E.g. `Speed s1=s2;`
- If it is done on the next line of declaration, then `=` operator is called.
 - E.g. `Speed s1;`
`S1=s2;`

Inheritance (I)

- It is a concept in which the properties of one class are available to another
- The class that is being inherited is called as superclass or baseclass
- The class that inherits the properties and functions of base class is called as subclass or derived class
- Derived class inherits all the properties of baseclass without making any changes to it. So facilitates code reuse, hence *reusability*

Inheritance (II)

- An access specifier defines a boundary to member of a class.
- A class can have 3 types of member access specifiers:
 - Private: members of class accessible only by members & friends of class. By default, all members are private
 - Protected: members of class accessible only by members and friends of derived class.
 - Public: members of class accessible by any function in the application

```
class Demo
{
int a;    //by default, private. can be accessed only by members of class
protected:
int b;    //accessible only by derived class and members of class
public:
int c;    //accessible anywhere
};
```

Inheritance (III)

- Base-class access specifier determines access status of base class members inside derived class
- 3 types of base class access specifiers:
- Private – all public, protected members of base class become private in derived class. Inaccessible by derived class objects
- Protected – all public, protected members of base class become protected in derived class. Accessible only by members and friends of derived class
- Public – public members become public in derived class, hence accessible by derived class objects. Protected remain protected.

```
class A
{...
};

class B : public A //base class access specifier
{...
};
```

Inheritance (IV)

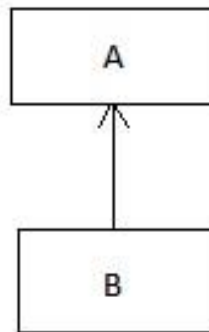
- Class can inherit properties of one or more classes or from more than one level.
- Depending on the number of base classes and number of levels, 5 Types of inheritance:
 - Single inheritance
 - Multilevel inheritance
 - Multiple inheritance
 - Hybrid inheritance
 - Hierarchical inheritance

Single Inheritance

- Derived class has only one base class
- All properties of base class are available in derived class.
But vice versa not true
- Object of derived class can access all public properties of base class

```
class A
{...
};

class B : public A
{...
};
```



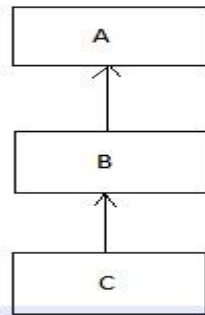
Multilevel Inheritance

- Derived class becomes base class to another class

```
class A
{...
};

class B : public A
{...
};

class C : public B
{...
};
```



- Here B is called intermediate base class
- All the public properties of A are available in C
- Private properties of A not accessible in C

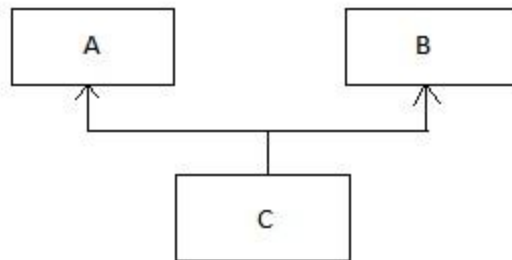
Multiple Inheritance

- Derived class has more than one base class
- Derived class has all the public and protected properties of all the base classes
- Each base class can be inherited with any visibility mode.
All are separated by a comma

```
class A
{...
};

class B
{...
};

class C : public A, public B
{...
};
```



Hybrid Inheritance

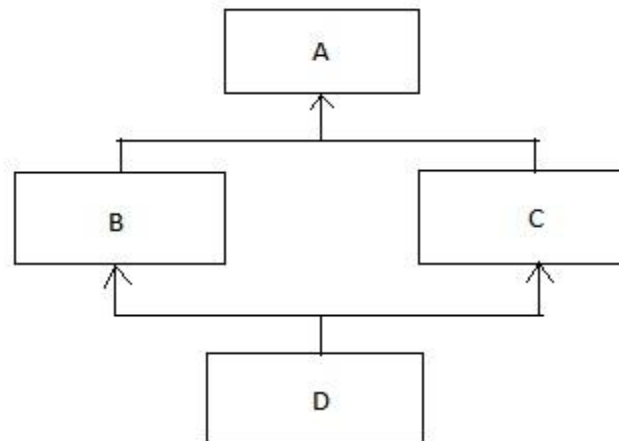
- Derived class has multiple base classes
- These intermediate base classes have a common base class
- To avoid getting multiple copies of common base class in the derived class, intermediate base classes inherit the base class as virtual
- Hence only one copy of base class will be given in derived class

```
class A
{...
};

class B : virtual public A
{...
};

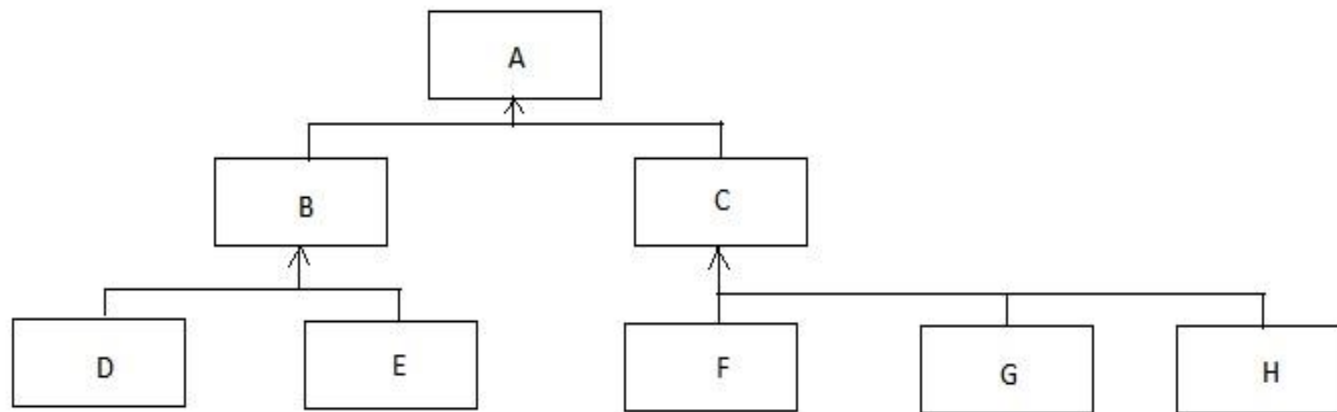
class C : virtual public A
{...
};

class D : public B, public C
{...
};
```



Hierarchical Inheritance

- Different derived class inherits one level of inheritance
- Additional members are added in each derived class to extend the capabilities of class
- Each derived class serves as base class for lower level of classes



Constructors and Destructors in Inheritance

- Single and multilevel inheritance – base class constructors are called first, then derived class constructors are called
 - E.g. class B : public A
 - Constructor of A is called first, then of B.
- Multiple inheritance – base class constructors are called from left to right as specified in derived class inheritance list. Then derived class constructors are called.
 - E.g. class C : public A, public B
 - Here constructor of A is called first, then constructor of B is called and then of derived class C
- Destructors are called in the reverse order of constructors

Encapsulation

- Means of data hiding
- Binds together code and data it manipulates and keeps both safe from outside interference.
- Tells exactly what user can access and can not access through public and private access specifiers
- Prevents hacking of code.

Function Overriding (I)

- Functions with same name and same parameters and same return type
- Defined in base class and derived classes
- When derived class object calls the function, it calls overridden function in the derived class
- When base class object calls the function, it calls the base class copy of the function

Function Overriding (II)

- Example of function overriding

```
class Base
{
public:
void display()
{ cout<<"I am base"<<endl;}
};

class Derived : public Base
{
public:
void Display()                //function overriding
{ cout<<"I am derived"<<endl;}
};

void main()
{
Base b;
b.display(); //base class definition called
            //o/p- I am base
Derived d;  //derived class definition called
d.display(); //o/p- I am derived
}
```

Virtual Functions (I)

- Member function preceded by keyword 'virtual' in base class and overridden in derived class
- If object of base class invokes virtual function, then copy of base class is invoked and if derived class object invokes it, then copy of derived class is invoked.
- Virtual functions are declared to specify late binding.
- When base class pointer points at derived class object, c++ determines which copy to be called depending upon the type of the object at run time
- They are resolved at run time not at compile time

Virtual Functions (II)

- General rules while defining virtual function:
 - Must be member of some class
 - Accessed using object pointers
 - Can be friend of another class
 - Prototype of base class and derived class virtual function must be identical
 - No need to use keyword 'virtual' in definition if its is defined outside the class
 - Can not be a static member

Polymorphism (I)

- Function overriding with base class function declared virtual
- Always needs to be called with base class pointer or reference
- When derived class object is assigned to base class pointer, base class pointer will access the overridden derived class function during run time
- This is know as run time polymorphism / dynamic binding

Polymorphism (II)

- Example of polymorphism

```
class Base
{
public:
virtual void display()           //function to be overridden declared as virtual
{ cout<<"I am base"<<endl;}
};

class Derived : public Base
{
public:
void display()                  //function overriding
{ cout<<"I am derived"<<endl;}
};

void main()
{
Base b;
Base *p;           //base class pointer
Derived d;
p=&d;              //derived class object assigned to base class pointer
b.display();       //base class function called
                  //o/p: I am base

p->display();       //derived class function called due to runtime polymorphism
                  //o/p: I am derived
}
```

Pure Virtual Function

- Virtual member function of base class without definition and forces derived class to give definition for it
- Should be overridden in all the derived classes
- Is initialized to 0. “=0” indicates that code for the function is null pointer.
 - E.g. class Shape

```
    { virtual void area() = 0;
      };
```
- If derived class fails to provide definition for the function, then it becomes an *abstract class* and instance of it can not be created then.

Abstract Class (I)

- Contains at least one pure virtual function
- Object of abstract class can not be created, because it contains one or more pure virtual functions without definition.
- A reference or pointer can be created to support run time polymorphism
- All the pure virtual functions of abstract class must be overridden in derived class.
- Can be used to create generic, extensible libraries for programmer to use in their own implementations

Abstract Class (II)

- Example of abstract class. Similarly, another sub class Triangle can also be added.

```
class Shape
{
protected:
float x,y;
public:
void get()
{ cin>>x>>y;}

virtual void area() = 0;    //pure virtual function
};                          // class becomes abstract class

class Rectangle : public Shape
{
public:
void area()                //pure virtual function is overridden
{
cout<<"area of rectangle: "<<x*y<<endl;
}
};

void main()
{
shape s;                  // error: object of abstract class can not be created
Shape *p;                 // base class pointer is created
Rectangle r;
p=&r;
p->get();                 // base class method called
p->area();                //overridden method in derived class is called
}
```


Overview

- We learnt the basics of object-oriented programming using C++ language
- Following key features were explained with examples:
 - Inline functions
 - Friend functions
 - Operator overloading
 - Inheritance
 - Encapsulation
 - Polymorphism
 - Virtual functions
 - Abstract class