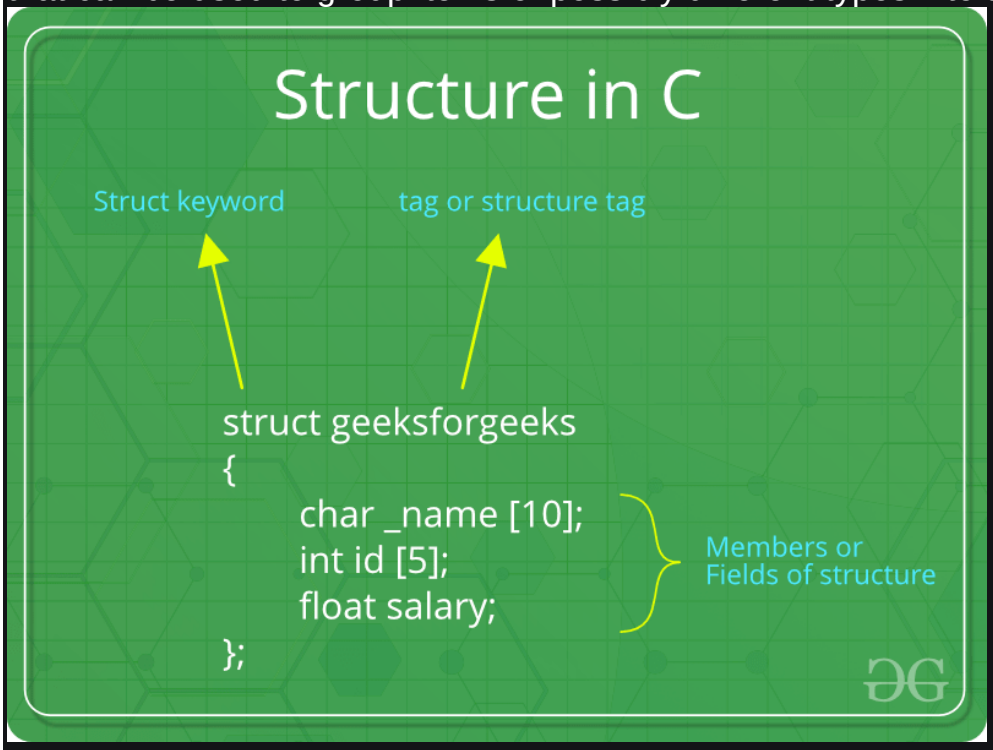
Structures in C

What is a structure?

A structure is a user defined data type in C/C++. A structure creates a data type that can be used to group items of possibly different types into a single type.



How to create a structure?

'struct' keyword is used to create a structure. Following is an example.

```
struct address
{
   char name[50];
   char street[100];
   char city[50];
   char state[20];
   int pin;
};
```

How to declare structure variables?

A structure variable can either be declared with structure declaration or as a separate declaration like basic types.

```
// A variable declaration with structure declaration.
struct Point
{
   int x, y;
} p1;  // The variable p1 is declared with 'Point'


// A variable declaration like basic data types
struct Point
{
   int x, y;
};

int main()
{
   struct Point p1;  // The variable p1 is declared like a normal variable
}
```

Note: In C++, the struct keyword is optional before in declaration of a variable. In C, it is mandatory.

How to initialize structure members?

Structure members **cannot be** initialized with declaration. For example the following C program fails in compilation.

```
struct Point
{
   int x = 0;  // COMPILER ERROR:  cannot initialize members here
   int y = 0;  // COMPILER ERROR:  cannot initialize members here
};
```

The reason for above error is simple, when a datatype is declared, no memory is allocated for it. Memory is allocated only when variables are created.

Structure members **can be** initialized using curly braces '{}'. For example, following is a valid initialization.

```
struct Point
{
   int x, y;
};

int main()
{
   // A valid initialization. member x gets value 0 and y
   // gets value 1.  The order of declaration is followed.
   struct Point p1 = {0, 1};
}
```

How to access structure elements?

Structure members are accessed using dot (.) operator.

```c
#include<stdio.h>

struct Point
{
   int x, y;
};

int main()
{
   struct Point p1 = {0, 1};

   // Accessing members of point p1
   p1.x = 20;
   printf ("x = %d, y = %d", p1.x, p1.y);

   return 0;
}
```

Output:

```
x = 20, y = 1
```

```
//bank.cpp
//demonstrates basic OOP syntax
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
class BankAccount
{
private:
double balance; //account balance
public:
//-----------------------------------------------------------
BankAccount(double openingBalance) //constructor
{
balance = openingBalance;
}
//-----------------------------------------------------------
void deposit(double amount) //makes deposit
{
balance = balance + amount;
}
//-----------------------------------------------------------
void withdraw(double amount) //makes withdrawal
{
balance = balance - amount;
}
//-----------------------------------------------------------
void display() //displays balance
{
cout << "Balance=" << balance << endl;
}
}; //end class BankAccount
////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
```

```
int main()
{
BankAccount ba1(100.00); //create account
cout << “Before transactions, “;
ba1.display(); //display balance
ba1.deposit(74.35); //make deposit
ba1.withdraw(20.00); //make withdrawal
cout << “After transactions, “;
ba1.display(); //display balance
return 0;
} //end main()
```

C++ Classes and Objects

The main purpose of C++ programming is to add object orientation to the C programming language and classes are the central feature of C++ that supports object-oriented programming and are often called user-defined types.

A class is used to specify the form of an object and it combines data representation and methods for manipulating that data into one neat package. The data and functions within a class are called members of the class.

C++ Class Definitions

When you define a class, you define a blueprint for a data type. This doesn't actually define any data, but it does define what the class name means, that is, what an object of the class will consist of and what operations can be performed on such an object.

A class definition starts with the keyword **class** followed by the class name; and the class body, enclosed by a pair of curly braces. A class definition must be followed either by a semicolon or a list of declarations. For example, we defined the Box data type using the keyword **class** as follows −

```
class Box {
   public:
      double length;   // Length of a box
      double breadth;  // Breadth of a box
      double height;   // Height of a box
};
```

The keyword **public** determines the access attributes of the members of the class that follows it. A public member can be accessed from outside the class anywhere within the scope of the class object. You can also specify the members of a class as **private** or **protected** which we will discuss in a sub-section.

Define C++ Objects

A class provides the blueprints for objects, so basically an object is created from a class. We declare objects of a class with exactly the same sort of declaration that we declare variables of basic types. Following statements declare two objects of class Box −

```
Box Box1;          // Declare Box1 of type Box
Box Box2;          // Declare Box2 of type Box
```

Both of the objects Box1 and Box2 will have their own copy of data members.

Accessing the Data Members

The public data members of objects of a class can be accessed using the direct member access operator (.). Let us try the following example to make the things clear −

```
#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

class Box {
   public:
      double length;   // Length of a box
      double breadth;  // Breadth of a box
      double height;   // Height of a box
};

int main() {
   Box Box1;        // Declare Box1 of type Box
   Box Box2;        // Declare Box2 of type Box
   double volume = 0.0;     // Store the volume of a box here

   // box 1 specification
   Box1.height = 5.0;
   Box1.length = 6.0;
   Box1.breadth = 7.0;

   // box 2 specification
   Box2.height = 10.0;
   Box2.length = 12.0;
   Box2.breadth = 13.0;

   // volume of box 1
   volume = Box1.height * Box1.length * Box1.breadth;
   cout << "Volume of Box1 : " << volume <<endl;

   // volume of box 2
   volume = Box2.height * Box2.length * Box2.breadth;
   cout << "Volume of Box2 : " << volume <<endl;
   return 0;
}
```

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

```
Volume of Box1 : 210
Volume of Box2 : 1560
```

It is important to note that private and protected members can not be accessed directly using direct member access operator (.). We will learn how private and protected members can be accessed.

Classes and Objects in Detail

So far, you have got very basic idea about C++ Classes and Objects. There are further interesting concepts related to C++ Classes and Objects which we will discuss in various sub-sections listed below −

Sr.No	Concept & Description
1	Class Member Functions A member function of a class is a function that has its definition or its prototype within the class definition like any other variable.
2	Class Access Modifiers A class member can be defined as public, private or protected. By default members would be assumed as private.
3	Constructor & Destructor A class constructor is a special function in a class that is called when a new object of the class is created. A destructor is also a special function which is called when created object is deleted.
4	Copy Constructor The copy constructor is a constructor which creates an object by initializing it with an object of the same class, which has been created previously.
5	Friend Functions A **friend** function is permitted full access to private and protected members of a class.
6	Inline Functions With an inline function, the compiler tries to expand the code in the body of the function in place of a call to the function.
7	this Pointer Every object has a special pointer **this** which points to the object itself.
8	Pointer to C++ Classes A pointer to a class is done exactly the same way a pointer to a structure is. In fact a class is really just a structure with functions in it.
9	Static Members of a Class Both data members and function members of a class can be declared as static.

C++ Inheritance

One of the most important concepts in object-oriented programming is that of inheritance. Inheritance allows us to define a class in terms of another class, which makes it easier to create and maintain an application. This also provides an opportunity to reuse the code functionality and fast implementation time.

When creating a class, instead of writing completely new data members and member functions, the programmer can designate that the new class should inherit the members of an existing class. This existing class is called the **base** class, and the new class is referred to as the **derived** class.

The idea of inheritance implements the **is a** relationship. For example, mammal IS-A animal, dog IS-A mammal hence dog IS-A animal as well and so on.

Base and Derived Classes

A class can be derived from more than one classes, which means it can inherit data and functions from multiple base classes. To define a derived class, we use a class derivation list to specify the base class(es). A class derivation list names one or more base classes and has the form −

```
class derived-class: access-specifier base-class
```

Where access-specifier is one of **public, protected,** or **private**, and base-class is the name of a previously defined class. If the access-specifier is not used, then it is private by default.

Consider a base class **Shape** and its derived class **Rectangle** as follows −

```
#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

// Base class
class Shape {
   public:
      void setWidth(int w) {
         width = w;
      }
      void setHeight(int h) {
         height = h;
      }

   protected:
      int width;
      int height;
};

// Derived class
class Rectangle: public Shape {
```

```
   public:
      int getArea() {
         return (width * height);
      }
};

int main(void) {
   Rectangle Rect;

   Rect.setWidth(5);
   Rect.setHeight(7);

   // Print the area of the object.
   cout << "Total area: " << Rect.getArea() << endl;

   return 0;
}
```

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

```
Total area: 35
```

Access Control and Inheritance

A derived class can access all the non-private members of its base class. Thus base-class members that should not be accessible to the member functions of derived classes should be declared private in the base class.

We can summarize the different access types according to - who can access them in the following way −

Access	public	protected	private
Same class	yes	yes	yes
Derived classes	yes	yes	no
Outside classes	yes	no	no

A derived class inherits all base class methods with the following exceptions −

- Constructors, destructors and copy constructors of the base class.
- Overloaded operators of the base class.
- The friend functions of the base class.

Type of Inheritance

When deriving a class from a base class, the base class may be inherited through **public, protected** or **private** inheritance. The type of inheritance is specified by the access-specifier as explained above.

We hardly use **protected** or **private** inheritance, but **public** inheritance is commonly used. While using different type of inheritance, following rules are applied −

- **Public Inheritance** − When deriving a class from a **public** base class, **public** members of the base class become **public** members of the derived class and **protected** members of the base class become **protected** members of the derived class. A base class's **private** members are never accessible directly from a derived class, but can be accessed through calls to the **public** and **protected** members of the base class.
- **Protected Inheritance** − When deriving from a **protected** base class, **public** and **protected** members of the base class become **protected** members of the derived class.
- **Private Inheritance** − When deriving from a **private** base class, **public** and **protected** members of the base class become **private** members of the derived class.

Multiple Inheritance

A C++ class can inherit members from more than one class and here is the extended syntax −

```
class derived-class: access baseA, access baseB....
```

Where access is one of **public, protected,** or **private** and would be given for every base class and they will be separated by comma as shown above. Let us try the following example −

```
#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

// Base class Shape
class Shape {
   public:
      void setWidth(int w) {
         width = w;
      }
      void setHeight(int h) {
         height = h;
      }

   protected:
      int width;
```

```
      int height;
};

// Base class PaintCost
class PaintCost {
   public:
      int getCost(int area) {
         return area * 70;
      }
};

// Derived class
class Rectangle: public Shape, public PaintCost {
   public:
      int getArea() {
         return (width * height);
      }
};

int main(void) {
   Rectangle Rect;
   int area;

   Rect.setWidth(5);
   Rect.setHeight(7);

   area = Rect.getArea();

   // Print the area of the object.
   cout << "Total area: " << Rect.getArea() << endl;

   // Print the total cost of painting
   cout << "Total paint cost: $" << Rect.getCost(area) << endl;

   return 0;
}
```

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

```
Total area: 35
Total paint cost: $2450
```

C++ Overloading (Operator and Function)

C++ allows you to specify more than one definition for a **function** name or an **operator** in the same scope, which is called **function overloading** and **operator overloading** respectively.

An overloaded declaration is a declaration that is declared with the same name as a previously declared declaration in the same scope, except that both declarations have different arguments and obviously different definition (implementation).

When you call an overloaded **function** or **operator**, the compiler determines the most appropriate definition to use, by comparing the argument types you have used to call the function or operator with the parameter types specified in the definitions. The process of selecting the most appropriate overloaded function or operator is called **overload resolution**.

Function Overloading in C++

You can have multiple definitions for the same function name in the same scope. The definition of the function must differ from each other by the types and/or the number of arguments in the argument list. You cannot overload function declarations that differ only by return type.

Following is the example where same function **print()** is being used to print different data types −

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

class printData {
   public:
      void print(int i) {
        cout << "Printing int: " << i << endl;
      }
      void print(double  f) {
        cout << "Printing float: " << f << endl;
      }
      void print(char* c) {
        cout << "Printing character: " << c << endl;
      }
};

int main(void) {
   printData pd;

   // Call print to print integer
   pd.print(5);

   // Call print to print float
   pd.print(500.263);
```

```
   // Call print to print character
   pd.print("Hello C++");

   return 0;
}
```

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

```
Printing int: 5
Printing float: 500.263
Printing character: Hello C++
```

Operators Overloading in C++

You can redefine or overload most of the built-in operators available in C++. Thus, a programmer can use operators with user-defined types as well.

Overloaded operators are functions with special names: the keyword "operator" followed by the symbol for the operator being defined. Like any other function, an overloaded operator has a return type and a parameter list.

```
Box operator+(const Box&);
```

declares the addition operator that can be used to **add** two Box objects and returns final Box object. Most overloaded operators may be defined as ordinary non-member functions or as class member functions. In case we define above function as non-member function of a class then we would have to pass two arguments for each operand as follows −

```
Box operator+(const Box&, const Box&);
```

Following is the example to show the concept of operator over loading using a member function. Here an object is passed as an argument whose properties will be accessed using this object, the object which will call this operator can be accessed using **this** operator as explained below −

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

class Box {
   public:
      double getVolume(void) {
         return length * breadth * height;
      }
      void setLength( double len ) {
         length = len;
      }
      void setBreadth( double bre ) {
         breadth = bre;
      }
      void setHeight( double hei ) {
         height = hei;
      }

      // Overload + operator to add two Box objects.
      Box operator+(const Box& b) {
         Box box;
         box.length = this->length + b.length;
         box.breadth = this->breadth + b.breadth;
         box.height = this->height + b.height;
         return box;
      }
```

```
   private:
      double length;      // Length of a box
      double breadth;     // Breadth of a box
      double height;      // Height of a box
};

// Main function for the program
int main() {
   Box Box1;                // Declare Box1 of type Box
   Box Box2;                // Declare Box2 of type Box
   Box Box3;                // Declare Box3 of type Box
   double volume = 0.0;     // Store the volume of a box here

   // box 1 specification
   Box1.setLength(6.0);
   Box1.setBreadth(7.0);
   Box1.setHeight(5.0);

   // box 2 specification
   Box2.setLength(12.0);
   Box2.setBreadth(13.0);
   Box2.setHeight(10.0);

   // volume of box 1
   volume = Box1.getVolume();
   cout << "Volume of Box1 : " << volume <<endl;

   // volume of box 2
   volume = Box2.getVolume();
   cout << "Volume of Box2 : " << volume <<endl;

   // Add two object as follows:
   Box3 = Box1 + Box2;

   // volume of box 3
   volume = Box3.getVolume();
   cout << "Volume of Box3 : " << volume <<endl;

   return 0;
}
```

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

```
Volume of Box1 : 210
Volume of Box2 : 1560
Volume of Box3 : 5400
```

Overloadable/Non-overloadableOperators

Following is the list of operators which can be overloaded −

+	-	*	/	%	^
&	|	~	!	,	=
<	>	<=	>=	++	--
<<	>>	==	!=	&&	||
+=	-=	/=	%=	^=	&=
|=	*=	<<=	>>=	[]	()
->	->*	new	new []	delete	delete []

Following is the list of operators, which can not be overloaded −

::	.*	.	?:

Operator Overloading Examples

Here are various operator overloading examples to help you in understanding the concept.

Sr.No	Operators & Example
1	Unary Operators Overloading
2	Binary Operators Overloading
3	Relational Operators Overloading
4	Input/Output Operators Overloading
5	++ and -- Operators Overloading
6	Assignment Operators Overloading
7	Function call () Operator Overloading
8	Subscripting [] Operator Overloading
9	Class Member Access Operator -> Overloading

Unary Operators Overloading in C++

The unary operators operate on a single operand and following are the examples of Unary operators −

- The increment (++) and decrement (--) operators.
- The unary minus (-) operator.
- The logical not (!) operator.

The unary operators operate on the object for which they were called and normally, this operator appears on the left side of the object, as in !obj, -obj, and ++obj but sometime they can be used as postfix as well like obj++ or obj--.

Following example explain how minus (-) operator can be overloaded for prefix as well as postfix usage.

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

class Distance {
   private:
      int feet;             // 0 to infinite
      int inches;           // 0 to 12

   public:
      // required constructors
      Distance() {
         feet = 0;
         inches = 0;
      }
      Distance(int f, int i) {
         feet = f;
         inches = i;
      }

      // method to display distance
      void displayDistance() {
         cout << "F: " << feet << " I:" << inches <<endl;
      }

      // overloaded minus (-) operator
      Distance operator- () {
         feet = -feet;
         inches = -inches;
         return Distance(feet, inches);
      }
};

int main() {
```

```
   Distance D1(11, 10), D2(-5, 11);

   -D1;                        // apply negation
   D1.displayDistance();       // display D1

   -D2;                        // apply negation
   D2.displayDistance();       // display D2

   return 0;
}
```

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

```
F: -11 I:-10
F: 5 I:-11
```

Hope above example makes your concept clear and you can apply similar concept to overload Logical Not Operators (!).

Binary Operators Overloading in C++

The binary operators take two arguments and following are the examples of Binary operators. You use binary operators very frequently like addition (+) operator, subtraction (-) operator and division (/) operator.

Following example explains how addition (+) operator can be overloaded. Similar way, you can overload subtraction (-) and division (/) operators.

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

class Box {
   double length;      // Length of a box
   double breadth;     // Breadth of a box
   double height;      // Height of a box

   public:

   double getVolume(void) {
      return length * breadth * height;
   }

   void setLength( double len ) {
      length = len;
   }

   void setBreadth( double bre ) {
      breadth = bre;
   }

   void setHeight( double hei ) {
      height = hei;
   }

   // Overload + operator to add two Box objects.
   Box operator+(const Box& b) {
      Box box;
      box.length = this->length + b.length;
      box.breadth = this->breadth + b.breadth;
      box.height = this->height + b.height;
      return box;
   }
};

// Main function for the program
int main() {
   Box Box1;                // Declare Box1 of type Box
   Box Box2;                // Declare Box2 of type Box
```

```
   Box Box3;                 // Declare Box3 of type Box
   double volume = 0.0;      // Store the volume of a box here

   // box 1 specification
   Box1.setLength(6.0);
   Box1.setBreadth(7.0);
   Box1.setHeight(5.0);

   // box 2 specification
   Box2.setLength(12.0);
   Box2.setBreadth(13.0);
   Box2.setHeight(10.0);

   // volume of box 1
   volume = Box1.getVolume();
   cout << "Volume of Box1 : " << volume <<endl;

   // volume of box 2
   volume = Box2.getVolume();
   cout << "Volume of Box2 : " << volume <<endl;

   // Add two object as follows:
   Box3 = Box1 + Box2;

   // volume of box 3
   volume = Box3.getVolume();
   cout << "Volume of Box3 : " << volume <<endl;

   return 0;
}
```

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

```
Volume of Box1 : 210
Volume of Box2 : 1560
Volume of Box3 : 5400
```

Relational Operators Overloading in C++

There are various relational operators supported by C++ language like (<, >, <=, >=, ==, etc.) which can be used to compare C++ built-in data types.

You can overload any of these operators, which can be used to compare the objects of a class.

Following example explains how a < operator can be overloaded and similar way you can overload other relational operators.

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

class Distance {
   private:
      int feet;             // 0 to infinite
      int inches;           // 0 to 12

   public:
      // required constructors
      Distance() {
         feet = 0;
         inches = 0;
      }
      Distance(int f, int i) {
         feet = f;
         inches = i;
      }

      // method to display distance
      void displayDistance() {
         cout << "F: " << feet << " I:" << inches <<endl;
      }

      // overloaded minus (-) operator
      Distance operator- () {
         feet = -feet;
         inches = -inches;
         return Distance(feet, inches);
      }

      // overloaded < operator
      bool operator <(const Distance& d) {
         if(feet < d.feet) {
            return true;
         }
         if(feet == d.feet && inches < d.inches) {
            return true;
         }
```

```
         return false;
      }
};

int main() {
   Distance D1(11, 10), D2(5, 11);

   if( D1 < D2 ) {
      cout << "D1 is less than D2 " << endl;
   } else {
      cout << "D2 is less than D1 " << endl;
   }

   return 0;
}
```

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

```
D2 is less than D1
```

Input/Output Operators Overloading in C++

C++ is able to input and output the built-in data types using the stream extraction operator >> and the stream insertion operator <<. The stream insertion and stream extraction operators also can be overloaded to perform input and output for user-defined types like an object.

Here, it is important to make operator overloading function a friend of the class because it would be called without creating an object.

Following example explains how extraction operator >> and insertion operator <<.

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

class Distance {
   private:
      int feet;             // 0 to infinite
      int inches;           // 0 to 12

   public:
      // required constructors
      Distance() {
         feet = 0;
         inches = 0;
      }
      Distance(int f, int i) {
         feet = f;
         inches = i;
      }
      friend ostream &operator<<( ostream &output, const Distance
&D ) {
         output << "F : " << D.feet << " I : " << D.inches;
         return output;
      }

      friend istream &operator>>( istream  &input, Distance &D ) {
         input >> D.feet >> D.inches;
         return input;
      }
};

int main() {
   Distance D1(11, 10), D2(5, 11), D3;

   cout << "Enter the value of object : " << endl;
   cin >> D3;
   cout << "First Distance : " << D1 << endl;
   cout << "Second Distance :" << D2 << endl;
   cout << "Third Distance :" << D3 << endl;
```

```
   return 0;
}
```

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

```
$./a.out
Enter the value of object :
70
10
First Distance : F : 11 I : 10
Second Distance :F : 5 I : 11
Third Distance :F : 70 I : 10
```

Overloading Increment ++ & Decrement --

The increment (++) and decrement (--) operators are two important unary operators available in C++.

Following example explain how increment (++) operator can be overloaded for prefix as well as postfix usage. Similar way, you can overload operator (--).

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

class Time {
   private:
      int hours;             // 0 to 23
      int minutes;           // 0 to 59

   public:
      // required constructors
      Time() {
         hours = 0;
         minutes = 0;
      }
      Time(int h, int m) {
         hours = h;
         minutes = m;
      }

      // method to display time
      void displayTime() {
         cout << "H: " << hours << " M:" << minutes <<endl;
      }

      // overloaded prefix ++ operator
      Time operator++ () {
         ++minutes;          // increment this object
         if(minutes >= 60) {
            ++hours;
            minutes -= 60;
         }
         return Time(hours, minutes);
      }

      // overloaded postfix ++ operator
      Time operator++( int ) {

         // save the orignal value
         Time T(hours, minutes);

         // increment this object
```

```
         ++minutes;

         if(minutes >= 60) {
            ++hours;
            minutes -= 60;
         }

         // return old original value
         return T;
      }
};

int main() {
   Time T1(11, 59), T2(10,40);

   ++T1;                    // increment T1
   T1.displayTime();        // display T1
   ++T1;                    // increment T1 again
   T1.displayTime();        // display T1

   T2++;                    // increment T2
   T2.displayTime();        // display T2
   T2++;                    // increment T2 again
   T2.displayTime();        // display T2
   return 0;
}
```

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

```
H: 12 M:0
H: 12 M:1
H: 10 M:41
H: 10 M:42
```

Assignment Operators Overloading in C++

You can overload the assignment operator (=) just as you can other operators and it can be used to create an object just like the copy constructor.

Following example explains how an assignment operator can be overloaded.

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

class Distance {
   private:
      int feet;             // 0 to infinite
      int inches;           // 0 to 12

   public:
      // required constructors
      Distance() {
         feet = 0;
         inches = 0;
      }
      Distance(int f, int i) {
         feet = f;
         inches = i;
      }
      void operator = (const Distance &D ) {
         feet = D.feet;
         inches = D.inches;
      }

      // method to display distance
      void displayDistance() {
         cout << "F: " << feet <<  " I:" <<  inches << endl;
      }
};

int main() {
   Distance D1(11, 10), D2(5, 11);

   cout << "First Distance : ";
   D1.displayDistance();
   cout << "Second Distance :";
   D2.displayDistance();

   // use assignment operator
   D1 = D2;
   cout << "First Distance :";
   D1.displayDistance();
```

```
   return 0;
}
```

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

```
First Distance : F: 11 I:10
Second Distance :F: 5 I:11
First Distance :F: 5 I:11
```

Function Call Operator () Overloading in C++

The function call operator () can be overloaded for objects of class type. When you overload ( ), you are not creating a new way to call a function. Rather, you are creating an operator function that can be passed an arbitrary number of parameters.

Following example explains how a function call operator () can be overloaded.

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

class Distance {
   private:
      int feet;             // 0 to infinite
      int inches;           // 0 to 12

   public:
      // required constructors
      Distance() {
         feet = 0;
         inches = 0;
      }
      Distance(int f, int i) {
         feet = f;
         inches = i;
      }

      // overload function call
      Distance operator()(int a, int b, int c) {
         Distance D;

         // just put random calculation
         D.feet = a + c + 10;
         D.inches = b + c + 100 ;
         return D;
      }

      // method to display distance
      void displayDistance() {
         cout << "F: " << feet << " I:" << inches << endl;
      }
};

int main() {
   Distance D1(11, 10), D2;

   cout << "First Distance : ";
   D1.displayDistance();
```

```
   D2 = D1(10, 10, 10); // invoke operator()
   cout << "Second Distance :";
   D2.displayDistance();

   return 0;
}
```

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

```
First Distance : F: 11 I:10
Second Distance :F: 30 I:120
```

Subscripting [] Operator Overloading in C++

The subscript operator [] is normally used to access array elements. This operator can be overloaded to enhance the existing functionality of C++ arrays.

Following example explains how a subscript operator [] can be overloaded.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
const int SIZE = 10;

class safearay {
   private:
      int arr[SIZE];

   public:
      safearay() {
         register int i;
         for(i = 0; i < SIZE; i++) {
           arr[i] = i;
         }
      }

      int &operator[](int i) {
         if( i > SIZE ) {
            cout << "Index out of bounds" <<endl;
            // return first element.
            return arr[0];
         }

         return arr[i];
      }
};

int main() {
   safearay A;

   cout << "Value of A[2] : " << A[2] <<endl;
   cout << "Value of A[5] : " << A[5]<<endl;
   cout << "Value of A[12] : " << A[12]<<endl;

   return 0;
}
```

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

```
Value of A[2] : 2
Value of A[5] : 5
Index out of bounds
Value of A[12] : 0
```

Class Member Access Operator (->) Overloading in C++

The class member access operator (->) can be overloaded but it is bit trickier. It is defined to give a class type a "pointer-like" behavior. The operator -> must be a member function. If used, its return type must be a pointer or an object of a class to which you can apply.

The operator-> is used often in conjunction with the pointer-dereference operator * to implement "smart pointers." These pointers are objects that behave like normal pointers except they perform other tasks when you access an object through them, such as automatic object deletion either when the pointer is destroyed, or the pointer is used to point to another object.

The dereferencing operator-> can be defined as a unary postfix operator. That is, given a class −

```
class Ptr {
   //...
   X * operator->();
};
```

Objects of class **Ptr** can be used to access members of class **X** in a very similar manner to the way pointers are used. For example −

```
void f(Ptr p ) {
   p->m = 10 ; // (p.operator->())->m = 10
}
```

The statement p->m is interpreted as (p.operator->())->m. Using the same concept, following example explains how a class access operator -> can be overloaded.

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

// Consider an actual class.
class Obj {
   static int i, j;

public:
   void f() const { cout << i++ << endl; }
   void g() const { cout << j++ << endl; }
};

// Static member definitions:
int Obj::i = 10;
int Obj::j = 12;

// Implement a container for the above class
class ObjContainer {
```

```
   vector<Obj*> a;

   public:
      void add(Obj* obj) {
         a.push_back(obj);  // call vector's standard method.
      }
      friend class SmartPointer;
};

// implement smart pointer to access member of Obj class.
class SmartPointer {
   ObjContainer oc;
   int index;

   public:
      SmartPointer(ObjContainer& objc) {
         oc = objc;
         index = 0;
      }

      // Return value indicates end of list:
      bool operator++() { // Prefix version
         if(index >= oc.a.size()) return false;
         if(oc.a[++index] == 0) return false;
         return true;
      }

      bool operator++(int) { // Postfix version
         return operator++();
      }

      // overload operator->
      Obj* operator->() const {
         if(!oc.a[index]) {
            cout << "Zero value";
            return (Obj*)0;
         }

         return oc.a[index];
      }
};

int main() {
   const int sz = 10;
   Obj o[sz];
   ObjContainer oc;

   for(int i = 0; i < sz; i++) {
      oc.add(&o[i]);
```

```
   }

   SmartPointer sp(oc); // Create an iterator
   do {
      sp->f(); // smart pointer call
      sp->g();
   } while(sp++);

   return 0;
}
```

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

```
10
12
11
13
12
14
13
15
14
16
15
17
16
18
17
19
18
20
19
21
```

Polymorphism in C++

The word **polymorphism** means having many forms. Typically, polymorphism occurs when there is a hierarchy of classes and they are related by inheritance.

C++ polymorphism means that a call to a member function will cause a different function to be executed depending on the type of object that invokes the function.

Consider the following example where a base class has been derived by other two classes −

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

class Shape {
   protected:
      int width, height;

   public:
      Shape( int a = 0, int b = 0){
         width = a;
         height = b;
      }
      int area() {
         cout << "Parent class area :" <<endl;
         return 0;
      }
};
class Rectangle: public Shape {
   public:
      Rectangle( int a = 0, int b = 0):Shape(a, b) { }

      int area () {
         cout << "Rectangle class area :" <<endl;
         return (width * height);
      }
};

class Triangle: public Shape {
   public:
      Triangle( int a = 0, int b = 0):Shape(a, b) { }

      int area () {
         cout << "Triangle class area :" <<endl;
         return (width * height / 2);
      }
};

// Main function for the program
int main() {
```

```
   Shape *shape;
   Rectangle rec(10,7);
   Triangle  tri(10,5);

   // store the address of Rectangle
   shape = &rec;

   // call rectangle area.
   shape->area();

   // store the address of Triangle
   shape = &tri;

   // call triangle area.
   shape->area();

   return 0;
}
```

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

```
Parent class area :
Parent class area :
```

The reason for the incorrect output is that the call of the function area() is being set once by the compiler as the version defined in the base class. This is called **static resolution** of the function call, or **static linkage** - the function call is fixed before the program is executed. This is also sometimes called **early binding** because the area() function is set during the compilation of the program.

But now, let's make a slight modification in our program and precede the declaration of area() in the Shape class with the keyword **virtual** so that it looks like this −

```
class Shape {
   protected:
      int width, height;

   public:
      Shape( int a = 0, int b = 0) {
         width = a;
         height = b;
      }
      virtual int area() {
         cout << "Parent class area :" <<endl;
         return 0;
      }
};
```

After this slight modification, when the previous example code is compiled and executed, it produces the following result −

```
Rectangle class area
```

```
Triangle class area
```

This time, the compiler looks at the contents of the pointer instead of it's type. Hence, since addresses of objects of tri and rec classes are stored in *shape the respective area() function is called.

As you can see, each of the child classes has a separate implementation for the function area(). This is how **polymorphism** is generally used. You have different classes with a function of the same name, and even the same parameters, but with different implementations.

Virtual Function

A **virtual** function is a function in a base class that is declared using the keyword **virtual**. Defining in a base class a virtual function, with another version in a derived class, signals to the compiler that we don't want static linkage for this function.

What we do want is the selection of the function to be called at any given point in the program to be based on the kind of object for which it is called. This sort of operation is referred to as **dynamic linkage**, or **late binding**.

Pure Virtual Functions

It is possible that you want to include a virtual function in a base class so that it may be redefined in a derived class to suit the objects of that class, but that there is no meaningful definition you could give for the function in the base class.

We can change the virtual function area() in the base class to the following −

```
class Shape {
   protected:
      int width, height;

   public:
      Shape(int a = 0, int b = 0) {
         width = a;
         height = b;
      }

      // pure virtual function
      virtual int area() = 0;
};
```

The = 0 tells the compiler that the function has no body and above virtual function will be called **pure virtual function**.

Data Abstraction in C++

Data abstraction refers to providing only essential information to the outside world and hiding their background details, i.e., to represent the needed information in program without presenting the details.

Data abstraction is a programming (and design) technique that relies on the separation of interface and implementation.

Let's take one real life example of a TV, which you can turn on and off, change the channel, adjust the volume, and add external components such as speakers, VCRs, and DVD players, BUT you do not know its internal details, that is, you do not know how it receives signals over the air or through a cable, how it translates them, and finally displays them on the screen.

Thus, we can say a television clearly separates its internal implementation from its external interface and you can play with its interfaces like the power button, channel changer, and volume control without having any knowledge of its internals.

In C++, classes provides great level of **data abstraction**. They provide sufficient public methods to the outside world to play with the functionality of the object and to manipulate object data, i.e., state without actually knowing how class has been implemented internally.

For example, your program can make a call to the **sort()** function without knowing what algorithm the function actually uses to sort the given values. In fact, the underlying implementation of the sorting functionality could change between releases of the library, and as long as the interface stays the same, your function call will still work.

In C++, we use **classes** to define our own abstract data types (ADT). You can use the **cout** object of class **ostream** to stream data to standard output like this −

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

int main() {
   cout << "Hello C++" <<endl;
   return 0;
}
```

Here, you don't need to understand how **cout** displays the text on the user's screen. You need to only know the public interface and the underlying implementation of ‘cout’ is free to change.

Access Labels Enforce Abstraction

In C++, we use access labels to define the abstract interface to the class. A class may contain zero or more access labels −

- Members defined with a public label are accessible to all parts of the program. The data-abstraction view of a type is defined by its public members.

- Members defined with a private label are not accessible to code that uses the class. The private sections hide the implementation from code that uses the type.

There are no restrictions on how often an access label may appear. Each access label specifies the access level of the succeeding member definitions. The specified access level remains in effect until the next access label is encountered or the closing right brace of the class body is seen.

Benefits of Data Abstraction

Data abstraction provides two important advantages −

- Class internals are protected from inadvertent user-level errors, which might corrupt the state of the object.
- The class implementation may evolve over time in response to changing requirements or bug reports without requiring change in user-level code.

By defining data members only in the private section of the class, the class author is free to make changes in the data. If the implementation changes, only the class code needs to be examined to see what affect the change may have. If data is public, then any function that directly access the data members of the old representation might be broken.

Data Abstraction Example

Any C++ program where you implement a class with public and private members is an example of data abstraction. Consider the following example −

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

class Adder {
   public:
      // constructor
      Adder(int i = 0) {
         total = i;
      }

      // interface to outside world
      void addNum(int number) {
         total += number;
      }

      // interface to outside world
      int getTotal() {
         return total;
      };

   private:
      // hidden data from outside world
      int total;
```

```
};

int main() {
   Adder a;

   a.addNum(10);
   a.addNum(20);
   a.addNum(30);

   cout << "Total " << a.getTotal() <<endl;
   return 0;
}
```

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

```
Total 60
```

Above class adds numbers together, and returns the sum. The public members - **addNum** and **getTotal** are the interfaces to the outside world and a user needs to know them to use the class. The private member **total** is something that the user doesn't need to know about, but is needed for the class to operate properly.

Designing Strategy

Abstraction separates code into interface and implementation. So while designing your component, you must keep interface independent of the implementation so that if you change underlying implementation then interface would remain intact.

In this case whatever programs are using these interfaces, they would not be impacted and would just need a recompilation with the latest implementation.

Data Encapsulation in C++

All C++ programs are composed of the following two fundamental elements −

- **Program statements (code)** − This is the part of a program that performs actions and they are called functions.
- **Program data** − The data is the information of the program which gets affected by the program functions.

Encapsulation is an Object Oriented Programming concept that binds together the data and functions that manipulate the data, and that keeps both safe from outside interference and misuse. Data encapsulation led to the important OOP concept of **data hiding**.

Data encapsulation is a mechanism of bundling the data, and the functions that use them and **data abstraction** is a mechanism of exposing only the interfaces and hiding the implementation details from the user.

C++ supports the properties of encapsulation and data hiding through the creation of user-defined types, called **classes**. We already have studied that a class can contain **private, protected** and **public** members. By default, all items defined in a class are private. For example −

```
class Box {
   public:
      double getVolume(void) {
         return length * breadth * height;
      }

   private:
      double length;      // Length of a box
      double breadth;     // Breadth of a box
      double height;      // Height of a box
};
```

The variables length, breadth, and height are **private**. This means that they can be accessed only by other members of the Box class, and not by any other part of your program. This is one way encapsulation is achieved.

To make parts of a class **public** (i.e., accessible to other parts of your program), you must declare them after the **public** keyword. All variables or functions defined after the public specifier are accessible by all other functions in your program.

Making one class a friend of another exposes the implementation details and reduces encapsulation. The ideal is to keep as many of the details of each class hidden from all other classes as possible.

Data Encapsulation Example

Any C++ program where you implement a class with public and private members is an example of data encapsulation and data abstraction. Consider the following example −

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

class Adder {
   public:
      // constructor
      Adder(int i = 0) {
         total = i;
      }

      // interface to outside world
      void addNum(int number) {
         total += number;
      }

      // interface to outside world
      int getTotal() {
         return total;
      };

   private:
      // hidden data from outside world
      int total;
};

int main() {
   Adder a;

   a.addNum(10);
   a.addNum(20);
   a.addNum(30);

   cout << "Total " << a.getTotal() <<endl;
   return 0;
}
```

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

```
Total 60
```

Above class adds numbers together, and returns the sum. The public members **addNum** and **getTotal** are the interfaces to the outside world and a user needs to know them to use the class. The private member **total** is something that is hidden from the outside world, but is needed for the class to operate properly.

Designing Strategy

Most of us have learnt to make class members private by default unless we really need to expose them. That's just good **encapsulation**.

This is applied most frequently to data members, but it applies equally to all members, including virtual functions.

Interfaces in C++ (Abstract Classes)

An interface describes the behavior or capabilities of a C++ class without committing to a particular implementation of that class.

The C++ interfaces are implemented using **abstract classes** and these abstract classes should not be confused with data abstraction which is a concept of keeping implementation details separate from associated data.

A class is made abstract by declaring at least one of its functions as **pure virtual** function. A pure virtual function is specified by placing "= 0" in its declaration as follows −

```
class Box {
   public:
      // pure virtual function
      virtual double getVolume() = 0;

   private:
      double length;      // Length of a box
      double breadth;     // Breadth of a box
      double height;      // Height of a box
};
```

The purpose of an **abstract class** (often referred to as an ABC) is to provide an appropriate base class from which other classes can inherit. Abstract classes cannot be used to instantiate objects and serves only as an **interface**. Attempting to instantiate an object of an abstract class causes a compilation error.

Thus, if a subclass of an ABC needs to be instantiated, it has to implement each of the virtual functions, which means that it supports the interface declared by the ABC. Failure to override a pure virtual function in a derived class, then attempting to instantiate objects of that class, is a compilation error.

Classes that can be used to instantiate objects are called **concrete classes**.

Abstract Class Example

Consider the following example where parent class provides an interface to the base class to implement a function called **getArea()** −

```
#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

// Base class
class Shape {
   public:
      // pure virtual function providing interface framework.
      virtual int getArea() = 0;
      void setWidth(int w) {
```

```
         width = w;
      }

      void setHeight(int h) {
         height = h;
      }

   protected:
      int width;
      int height;
};

// Derived classes
class Rectangle: public Shape {
   public:
      int getArea() {
         return (width * height);
      }
};

class Triangle: public Shape {
   public:
      int getArea() {
         return (width * height)/2;
      }
};

int main(void) {
   Rectangle Rect;
   Triangle  Tri;

   Rect.setWidth(5);
   Rect.setHeight(7);

   // Print the area of the object.
   cout << "Total Rectangle area: " << Rect.getArea() << endl;

   Tri.setWidth(5);
   Tri.setHeight(7);

   // Print the area of the object.
   cout << "Total Triangle area: " << Tri.getArea() << endl;

   return 0;
}
```

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

```
Total Rectangle area: 35
Total Triangle area: 17
```

You can see how an abstract class defined an interface in terms of getArea() and two other classes implemented same function but with different algorithm to calculate the area specific to the shape.

Designing Strategy

An object-oriented system might use an abstract base class to provide a common and standardized interface appropriate for all the external applications. Then, through inheritance from that abstract base class, derived classes are formed that operate similarly.

The capabilities (i.e., the public functions) offered by the external applications are provided as pure virtual functions in the abstract base class. The implementations of these pure virtual functions are provided in the derived classes that correspond to the specific types of the application.

This architecture also allows new applications to be added to a system easily, even after the system has been defined.

C++ Files and Streams

So far, we have been using the **iostream** standard library, which provides **cin** and **cout** methods for reading from standard input and writing to standard output respectively.

This tutorial will teach you how to read and write from a file. This requires another standard C++ library called **fstream**, which defines three new data types −

Sr.No	Data Type & Description
1	**ofstream** This data type represents the output file stream and is used to create files and to write information to files.
2	**ifstream** This data type represents the input file stream and is used to read information from files.
3	**fstream** This data type represents the file stream generally, and has the capabilities of both ofstream and ifstream which means it can create files, write information to files, and read information from files.

To perform file processing in C++, header files <iostream> and <fstream> must be included in your C++ source file.

Opening a File

A file must be opened before you can read from it or write to it. Either **ofstream** or **fstream** object may be used to open a file for writing. And ifstream object is used to open a file for reading purpose only.

Following is the standard syntax for open() function, which is a member of fstream, ifstream, and ofstream objects.

```
void open(const char *filename, ios::openmode mode);
```

Here, the first argument specifies the name and location of the file to be opened and the second argument of the **open()** member function defines the mode in which the file should be opened.

Sr.No	Mode Flag & Description
1	**ios::app** Append mode. All output to that file to be appended to the end.
2	**ios::ate** Open a file for output and move the read/write control to the end of the file.
3	**ios::in** Open a file for reading.
4	**ios::out** Open a file for writing.
5	**ios::trunc** If the file already exists, its contents will be truncated before opening the file.

You can combine two or more of these values by **OR**ing them together. For example if you want to open a file in write mode and want to truncate it in case that already exists, following will be the syntax −

```
ofstream outfile;
outfile.open("file.dat", ios::out | ios::trunc );
```

Similar way, you can open a file for reading and writing purpose as follows −

```
fstream  afile;
afile.open("file.dat", ios::out | ios::in );
```

Closing a File

When a C++ program terminates it automatically flushes all the streams, release all the allocated memory and close all the opened files. But it is always a good practice that a programmer should close all the opened files before program termination.

Following is the standard syntax for close() function, which is a member of fstream, ifstream, and ofstream objects.

```
void close();
```

Writing to a File

While doing C++ programming, you write information to a file from your program using the stream insertion operator (<<) just as you use that operator to output information to the screen. The only difference is that you use an **ofstream** or **fstream** object instead of the **cout** object.

Reading from a File

You read information from a file into your program using the stream extraction operator (>>) just as you use that operator to input information from the keyboard. The only difference is that you use an **ifstream** or **fstream** object instead of the **cin** object.

Read and Write Example

Following is the C++ program which opens a file in reading and writing mode. After writing information entered by the user to a file named afile.dat, the program reads information from the file and outputs it onto the screen −

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

int main () {
   char data[100];

   // open a file in write mode.
   ofstream outfile;
   outfile.open("afile.dat");

   cout << "Writing to the file" << endl;
   cout << "Enter your name: ";
   cin.getline(data, 100);

   // write inputted data into the file.
   outfile << data << endl;

   cout << "Enter your age: ";
   cin >> data;
   cin.ignore();

   // again write inputted data into the file.
   outfile << data << endl;

   // close the opened file.
   outfile.close();

   // open a file in read mode.
   ifstream infile;
```

```
   infile.open("afile.dat");

   cout << "Reading from the file" << endl;
   infile >> data;

   // write the data at the screen.
   cout << data << endl;

   // again read the data from the file and display it.
   infile >> data;
   cout << data << endl;

   // close the opened file.
   infile.close();

   return 0;
}
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces the following sample input and output −

```
$./a.out
Writing to the file
Enter your name: Zara
Enter your age: 9
Reading from the file
Zara
9
```

Above examples make use of additional functions from cin object, like getline() function to read the line from outside and ignore() function to ignore the extra characters left by previous read statement.

File Position Pointers

Both **istream** and **ostream** provide member functions for repositioning the file-position pointer. These member functions are **seekg** ("seek get") for istream and **seekp** ("seek put") for ostream.

The argument to seekg and seekp normally is a long integer. A second argument can be specified to indicate the seek direction. The seek direction can be **ios::beg** (the default) for positioning relative to the beginning of a stream, **ios::cur** for positioning relative to the current position in a stream or **ios::end** for positioning relative to the end of a stream.

The file-position pointer is an integer value that specifies the location in the file as a number of bytes from the file's starting location. Some examples of positioning the "get" file-position pointer are −

```
// position to the nth byte of fileObject (assumes ios::beg)
fileObject.seekg( n );
```

```
// position n bytes forward in fileObject
fileObject.seekg( n, ios::cur );

// position n bytes back from end of fileObject
fileObject.seekg( n, ios::end );

// position at end of fileObject
fileObject.seekg( 0, ios::end );
```