

Module - 3 Introduction to OOPS Programming

1.(1) What are the key differences between Procedural Programming and Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)?

| Feature | Procedural Programming | Object-Oriented Programming (OOP) |
|---------------------|---|--|
| Approach | Top-down | Bottom-up |
| Focus | Focuses on functions and procedures | Focuses on objects and classes |
| Data Handling | Data is global and can be accessed by any function | Data is encapsulated within objects and accessed through methods |
| Modularity | Uses functions to organize code | Uses classes and objects to organize code |
| Security | Less secure, as data is accessible globally | More secure, due to encapsulation and access control (public, private, protected) |
| Code Reusability | Limited reuse; functions can be reused but not data | High reusability through inheritance and polymorphism |
| Real-world Modeling | Harder to model real-world entities directly | Easier to model real-world entities using objects |
| Examples | C, Pascal, Fortran | C++, Java, Python (with OOP), C# |

(2)List and explain the main advantages of OOP over POP.

1. Encapsulation (Data Hiding)

OOP: Combines data and functions into a single unit (class), hiding internal details from the outside.

Advantage: Increases security and prevents accidental data modification.

Example: You can make variables private and control access using get() and set() methods.

2. Reusability (Using Inheritance)

OOP: Allows new classes to reuse properties and behavior of existing classes using **inheritance**.

Advantage: Saves development time and reduces code duplication.

Example: A Car class can inherit from a Vehicle class.

3. Modularity

OOP: Programs are divided into small, independent, reusable objects.

Advantage: Easy to understand, maintain, and debug. Each object can be developed and tested independently.

Example: You can update the User class logic without touching the rest of the system.

4. Polymorphism

OOP: Allows one function name or operator to behave differently based on context.

Advantage: Makes code more flexible and extensible.

Example: A draw() function can draw a circle, square, or triangle depending on the object.

5. Real-world Modeling

OOP: Directly represents real-world entities as objects.

Advantage: Easier to visualize, design, and map real-life problems into code.

Example: Student, BankAccount, Employee classes mirror real entities.

6. Maintainability and Scalability

OOP: Code is better organized and modular.

Advantage: Easier to maintain, extend, and scale large software systems.

7. Avoids Global Data Issues

OOP: Limits data access using access modifiers (private, protected, public).

Advantage: Prevents unwanted changes and reduces bugs due to shared data.

(3) Explain the steps involved in setting up a C++ development environment.

Steps to Set Up a C++ Development Environment:

1. Install a C++ Compiler

- **Windows:**
 - Install **MinGW** or **TDM-GCC** (GCC for Windows)
 - Or install **Microsoft Visual Studio** (includes MSVC compiler)
- **Linux:**
 - GCC is usually pre-installed
 - If not:

sudo apt update

```
sudo apt install g++
```

- **Mac:**
 - Install Xcode Command Line Tools:

```
xcode-select --install
```

2. Choose and Install a Code Editor or IDE

You can choose either a **simple code editor** or a **full IDE**:

- **Popular Editors:**
 - **Visual Studio Code** (VS Code)
 - **Sublime Text**
 - **Atom**
- **Popular IDEs:**
 - **Code::Blocks**
 - **Dev-C++**
 - **Eclipse CDT**
 - **Microsoft Visual Studio** (not VS Code — the full IDE)

IDEs have built-in compiler support, debugging tools, and GUI project management.

3. Configure the Compiler in Your Editor

- **For VS Code:**
 - Install C/C++ extension (by Microsoft)
 - Create tasks.json to define how to compile
 - Create launch.json for debugging
- **For Code::Blocks / Dev-C++:**
 - Compiler is pre-configured; just write code and run.

4. Write and Run Your First Program

Example: hello.cpp

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

int main() {
    cout << "Hello, World!" << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

To Compile and Run (Terminal):

```
g++ hello.cpp -o hello
./hello
```

5. Test and Debug Your Code

- Use the built-in debugger in IDEs like **Code::Blocks** or **Visual Studio**.
- In VS Code, install the **C++ Debugger Extension** and set up launch.json.

(4)What are the main input/output operations in C++? Provide examples.

In **C++**, the main **input/output (I/O)** operations are performed using:

- cin → for **input**
- cout → for **output**
- cerr → for **error messages**
- clog → for **log messages**

1. cout – Console Output

Used to display output on the screen.

Example:

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

int main() {
    cout << "Hello, World!" << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

endl is used to move to a new line.

2. cin – Console Input

Used to take input from the user.

Example:

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

```
int main() {
    int age;
    cout << "Enter your age: ";
    cin >> age;
    cout << "You entered: " << age << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

3. cerr – Error Output

Used to print **error messages**. Output is **unbuffered**, which means it's printed immediately.

Example:

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

int main() {
    cerr << "An error occurred!" << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

4. clog – Log Output

Used for **logging/debugging messages**. Output is **buffered** (may not display immediately).

Example:

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

int main() {
    clog << "This is a log message." << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

2.(1) What are the different data types available in C++? Explain with examples.

1. Basic (Primitive) Data Types

| Data Type | Description | Example |
|-----------|-----------------|-------------|
| int | Stores integers | int a = 10; |

| Data Type | Description | Example |
|-----------|---|---------------------|
| float | Stores decimal numbers (single precision) | float b = 3.14f; |
| double | Stores decimal numbers (double precision) | double c = 3.14159; |
| char | Stores a single character | char d = 'A'; |
| bool | Stores Boolean values (true/false) | bool e = true; |

2. Derived Data Types

| Type | Description | Example |
|------------------|--|-------------------------------|
| Array | Collection of fixed-size elements of same type | int arr[5] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}; |
| Pointer | Stores memory address of another variable | int* ptr = &a; |
| Function | Block of code that performs a task | int sum(int x, int y); |
| Reference | Alias for another variable | int& ref = a; |

3. User-Defined Data Types

| Type | Description | Example |
|--------|---|--|
| struct | Groups variables of different types | struct Student { int id; char name[20]; }; |
| class | Blueprint for objects (OOP) | class Car { public: int speed; }; |
| union | Stores one of many data types in same memory location | union Data { int i; float f; }; |
| enum | Enumerated constants | enum Color { RED, GREEN, BLUE }; |

4. Void Type

- **void** means no value or no return type.
- Commonly used in functions that don't return anything.

Example:

```
void display() {  
    cout << "Hello!" << endl;  
}
```

5. Modifiers for Data Types

Modifiers alter the size or range of basic data types:

| Modifier | Used with | Purpose |
|----------|-------------|----------------------------------|
| signed | int, char | Allows negative values (default) |
| unsigned | int, char | Only positive values |
| short | int | Smaller range |
| long | int, double | Larger range |

Example:

```
unsigned int x = 100;  
long double pi = 3.1415926535;
```

Example Code Using Various Types:

```
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std;  
  
int main() {  
    int age = 20;  
    float height = 5.9f;  
    char grade = 'A';  
    bool passed = true;  
    double marks = 85.67;  
  
    cout << "Age: " << age << endl;  
    cout << "Height: " << height << endl;  
    cout << "Grade: " << grade << endl;  
    cout << "Passed: " << passed << endl;  
    cout << "Marks: " << marks << endl;  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

(2) Explain the difference between implicit and explicit type conversion in C++.

1. Implicit Type Conversion

Also known as **automatic type conversion**, it happens **automatically** when:

- A smaller data type is assigned to a larger data type.
- There's no risk of data loss.

Example:

```
int a = 10;  
float b = a; // Implicit conversion from int to float
```

The compiler converts int to float automatically.

Characteristics of Implicit Conversion:

- Performed by the compiler.
- No need for programmer action.
- Usually goes from **lower to higher** precision (e.g., int → float → double).
- **Safe**, but can cause **precision loss** if not handled carefully.

2. Explicit Type Conversion

This happens **manually** using **cast operators**. You tell the compiler what type to convert to.

Example:

```
float f = 5.75;  
int x = (int)f; // Explicit conversion (type casting)
```

Or using C++ style:

```
int x = static_cast<int>(f);
```

Characteristics of Explicit Conversion:

- Performed **manually** by the programmer.
- Needed when:
 - You want to force conversion between incompatible types.
 - You want to avoid implicit conversion that might cause unexpected results.
- May result in **data loss** (e.g., truncating decimals when converting float to int).

(3) What are the different types of operators in C++? Provide examples of each.

1. Arithmetic Operators

Used for basic mathematical operations.

| Operator | Description | Example |
|----------|---------------------|---------|
| + | Addition | a + b |
| - | Subtraction | a - b |
| * | Multiplication | a * b |
| / | Division | a / b |
| % | Modulus (remainder) | a % b |

Example:

```
int a = 10, b = 3;  
cout << a + b; // Output: 13
```

2. Relational (Comparison) Operators

Used to compare values. Result is true or false.

| Operator | Description | Example |
|----------|--------------------------|---------|
| == | Equal to | a == b |
| != | Not equal to | a != b |
| > | Greater than | a > b |
| < | Less than | a < b |
| >= | Greater than or equal to | a >= b |
| <= | Less than or equal to | a <= b |

3. Logical Operators

Used to combine or invert Boolean expressions.

| Operator | Description | Example |
|----------|-------------|---------|
|----------|-------------|---------|

| | | |
|----|-------------|---|
| && | Logical AND | <code>a > 0 && b > 0</code> |
|----|-------------|---|

| | | |
|--|------------|---------------------|
| | Logical OR | <code>a b</code> |
|--|------------|---------------------|

| | | |
|---|-------------|--------------------------|
| ! | Logical NOT | <code>!(a > 0)</code> |
|---|-------------|--------------------------|

4. Assignment Operators

Used to assign values.

| Operator | Description | Example |
|----------|-------------|---------|
|----------|-------------|---------|

| | | |
|---|--------|--------------------|
| = | Assign | <code>a = 5</code> |
|---|--------|--------------------|

| | | |
|----|----------------|-----------------------------------|
| += | Add and assign | <code>a += 2; // a = a + 2</code> |
|----|----------------|-----------------------------------|

| | | |
|----|---------------------|----------------------|
| -= | Subtract and assign | <code>a -= 2;</code> |
|----|---------------------|----------------------|

| | | |
|----|---------------------|----------------------|
| *= | Multiply and assign | <code>a *= 2;</code> |
|----|---------------------|----------------------|

| | | |
|----|-------------------|----------------------|
| /= | Divide and assign | <code>a /= 2;</code> |
|----|-------------------|----------------------|

| | | |
|----|--------------------|----------------------|
| %= | Modulus and assign | <code>a %= 2;</code> |
|----|--------------------|----------------------|

5. Increment and Decrement Operators

| Operator | Description | Example |
|----------|-------------|---------|
|----------|-------------|---------|

| | | |
|----|----------------|-----------------------|
| ++ | Increment by 1 | <code>a++, ++a</code> |
|----|----------------|-----------------------|

| | | |
|----|----------------|-----------------------|
| -- | Decrement by 1 | <code>a--, --a</code> |
|----|----------------|-----------------------|

`++a` is **pre-increment**, `a++` is **post-increment**

6. Bitwise Operators

Operate at the binary level.

| Operator | Description | Example |
|----------|-------------|---------|
|----------|-------------|---------|

| | | |
|---|-----|-------|
| & | AND | a & b |
|---|-----|-------|

| | | |
|--|----|----|
| | OR | OR |
|--|----|----|

| | | |
|---|-----|-------|
| ^ | XOR | a ^ b |
|---|-----|-------|

| | | |
|---|-----|----|
| ~ | NOT | ~a |
|---|-----|----|

| | | |
|----|------------|--------|
| << | Left shift | a << 1 |
|----|------------|--------|

| | | |
|----|-------------|--------|
| >> | Right shift | a >> 1 |
|----|-------------|--------|

7. Conditional (Ternary) Operator

A shortcut for if-else.

(condition) ? value_if_true : value_if_false

Example:

```
int a = 10, b = 20;  
int max = (a > b) ? a : b; // max = 20
```

8. Sizeof Operator

Returns the size (in bytes) of a variable or data type.

Example:

```
cout << sizeof(int); // Output: usually 4
```

9. Type Cast Operator

Converts one type to another.

Example:

```
float f = 5.5;
int x = (int)f; // Explicit casting
```

10. Pointer Operators

Used with pointers.

| Operator | Description | Example |
|----------|----------------------|---------|
| * | Dereference operator | *ptr |
| & | Address-of operator | &var |

(4) Explain the purpose and use of constants and literals in C++.

Constants are variables whose **value is fixed** and **cannot be changed** after initialization.

Why Use Constants?

- Improves **code readability**.
- Prevents **accidental changes**.
- Makes code **easier to maintain**.

Declaring Constants:

1. Using *const* keyword

```
const int MAX_USERS = 100;
```

Once declared, MAX_USERS cannot be changed.

2. Using *#define* preprocessor directive

```
#define PI 3.14159
```

Preprocessor replaces all instances of PI before compilation.

What are Literals?

Literals are **fixed values** directly used in the code.

Example:

```
int a = 10;    // 10 is an integer literal
char ch = 'A'; // 'A' is a character literal
float pi = 3.14f; // 3.14f is a float literal
```

Types of Literals in C++

| Type | Example | Description |
|----------------|---------------|---|
| Integer | 10, 0x1F, 075 | Decimal, hexadecimal, octal |
| Floating-point | 3.14, 1.2e3 | Decimal or exponential form |
| Character | 'A', '9' | Enclosed in single quotes |
| String | "Hello" | Sequence of characters in double quotes |
| Boolean | true, false | Represents logical values |
| Null pointer | nullptr | Special literal for null pointer |

3.(1)What are conditional statements in C++? Explain the if-else and switch statements.

conditional statements allow your program to **make decisions** and **execute certain blocks of code** based on conditions. They **control the flow** of the program based on conditions (expressions that evaluate to true or false).

1. if Statement

Executes a block of code if a condition is true.

Syntax:

```
if (condition) {
    // Code to execute if condition is true
}
```

Example:

```
int age = 18;
if (age >= 18) {
    cout << "You are eligible to vote." << endl;
```

2. if-else Statement

Executes one block if the condition is true, and another if it's false.

Syntax:

```
if (condition) {  
    // Code if condition is true  
} else {  
    // Code if condition is false  
}
```

Example:

```
int marks = 40;  
if (marks >= 50) {  
    cout << "You passed." << endl;  
} else {  
    cout << "You failed." << endl;  
}
```

4. switch Statement

Selects one of many code blocks to be executed based on a **single variable's value** (typically int or char).

Syntax:

```
switch (expression) {  
    case value1:  
        // Code  
        break;  
    case value2:  
        // Code  
        break;  
    default:  
        // Code if no case matches  
}
```

Example:

```
int day = 3;
```

```
switch (day) {  
    case 1: cout << "Monday"; break;  
    case 2: cout << "Tuesday"; break;  
    case 3: cout << "Wednesday"; break;  
    default: cout << "Invalid day";  
}
```

(2)What is the difference between for, while, and do-while loops in C++?

1. for Loop

Use When:

You know **exactly how many times** you want to loop.

Syntax:

```
for (initialization; condition; update) {  
    // Code to repeat  
}
```

Example:

```
for (int i = 1; i <= 5; i++) {  
    cout << i << " ";  
}  
// Output: 1 2 3 4 5
```

2. while Loop

Use When:

You **don't know** how many times to loop and want to **check the condition first**.

Syntax:

```
while (condition) {  
    // Code to repeat  
}
```

Example:

```
int i = 1;
```

```
while (i <= 5) {  
    cout << i << " ";  
    i++;  
}  
// Output: 1 2 3 4 5
```

3. do-while Loop

Use When:

You want the loop to run **at least once**, even if the condition is false at the beginning.

Syntax:

```
do {  
    // Code to repeat  
} while (condition);
```

Example:

```
int i = 1;  
do {  
    cout << i << " ";  
    i++;  
} while (i <= 5);  
// Output: 1 2 3 4 5
```

(3)How are break and continue statements used in loops? Provide examples.

1. break Statement

Purpose:

Used to **immediately exit** the loop or switch block, regardless of the condition.

Syntax:

```
if (condition) {  
    break;  
}
```

Example (inside a loop):


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

int main() {
    for (int i = 1; i <= 10; i++) {
        if (i == 5)
            break; // Loop exits when i == 5
        cout << i << " ";
    }
    return 0;
}
// Output: 1 2 3 4
```

2. continue Statement

Purpose:

Skips the current iteration of the loop and moves to the **next iteration**.

Syntax:

```
if (condition) {
    continue;
}
```

Example:

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

int main() {
    for (int i = 1; i <= 5; i++) {
        if (i == 3)
            continue; // Skip when i == 3
        cout << i << " ";
    }
    return 0;
}
// Output: 1 2 4 5
```

(4) Explain nested control structures with an example.

Nested control structures are control statements (like if, for, while, switch) placed **inside one another**. This allows for **complex decision-making** or **multiple levels of iteration**.

Common Nested Structures:

- if inside if → **Nested if**
- if inside for, for inside for, etc.
- switch inside if, or vice versa

Example 1: Nested if Statement

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

int main() {
    int age = 20;
    char gender = 'M';

    if (age >= 18) {
        if (gender == 'M')
            cout << "You are an adult male." << endl;
        else
            cout << "You are an adult female." << endl;
    } else {
        cout << "You are a minor." << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Example 2: Nested for Loops (for printing a pattern)

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

int main() {
    for (int i = 1; i <= 3; i++) {
        for (int j = 1; j <= 4; j++) {
            cout << "* ";
        }
        cout << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

```
* * * *
* * * *
* * * *
```

Example 3: if inside a for Loop

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

int main() {
    for (int i = 1; i <= 10; i++) {
        if (i % 2 == 0)
            cout << i << " is even" << endl;
        else
            cout << i << " is odd" << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

4.(1)What is a function in C++? Explain the concept of function declaration, definition, and calling.

A **function** is a **block of code** that performs a **specific task**. It helps make programs **modular**, **reusable**, and **easier to manage**.

Purpose of Functions:

- Avoid code repetition
- Make code cleaner and easier to debug
- Divide a large problem into smaller manageable parts

Types of Functions:

1. **Predefined (Built-in) Functions** → e.g., `cout`, `sqrt()`, `strlen()`
2. **User-defined Functions** → Functions created by the programmer

Three Main Parts of a Function:

1. Function Declaration (Prototype)

Tells the compiler about the function's **name**, **return type**, and **parameters** (no body).

```
return_type function_name(parameter_list);
```

Example:

```
int add(int, int); // Declaration
```

2. Function Definition

Contains the **actual code** of the function.

```
return_type function_name(parameter_list) {  
    // Function body  
}
```

Example:

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

3. Function Call

Used to **execute** the function from `main()` or another function.

```
function_name(arguments);
```

Example:

```
int result = add(5, 3);
```

(2)What is the scope of variables in C++? Differentiate between local and global scope.

Scope refers to the **region of the program** where a variable is **accessible** (visible and usable). In C++, variable scope determines how and where variables can be used.

Types of Scope in C++:

1. Local Scope

2. Global Scope

Also includes **block scope**, **function scope**, and **class scope**, but the focus here is local vs global.

1. Local Variables

- Declared **inside a function**, block `{ }`, or loop.

- **Only accessible within that block.**
- Destroyed when the block ends.

Example:

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

void show() {
    int x = 5; // local to function 'show'
    cout << "Local x: " << x << endl;
}
```

x is **not accessible** outside show().

2. Global Variables

- Declared **outside all functions**, usually at the top.
- Accessible from **anywhere in the program** after declaration.
- Lives throughout the program's life.

Example:

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

int x = 10; // global variable

void display() {
    cout << "Global x: " << x << endl;
}

int main() {
    display();
    cout << "Main x: " << x << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

Both display() and main() can access x.

(3) Explain recursion in C++ with an example.

Recursion is a programming technique where a **function calls itself** to solve smaller instances of the same problem.

Recursion = **Breaking down a big problem into smaller sub-problems.**

Key Concepts:

1. **Base Case** – Condition to **stop** recursion (must have!)
2. **Recursive Case** – The part where the function **calls itself**

Example: Factorial Using Recursion

Code:

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

// Function to calculate factorial recursively
int factorial(int n) {
    if (n == 0)    // Base case
        return 1;
    else
        return n * factorial(n - 1); // Recursive case
}

int main() {
    int num = 5;
    cout << "Factorial of " << num << " is " << factorial(num) << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

Factorial of 5 is 120

(4) What are function prototypes in C++? Why are they used?

A **function prototype** is a **declaration** of a function **before its actual definition**. It tells the compiler:

- The **function name**
- **Return type**
- The **number and type of parameters**

But it **doesn't contain the body** of the function.

Syntax of a Function Prototype:

```
return_type function_name(parameter_list);
```

Example:

```
int add(int, int); // function prototype
```

Why Are Function Prototypes Used?

| Purpose | Explanation |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Inform the compiler | Allows calling a function before it's defined in the code |
| Enable modular programming | Keeps main code clean and organized |
| Type checking | Ensures correct number and type of arguments |
| Supports multiple files | Useful in large projects with multiple .cpp and .h files |

Example Without Function Prototype:

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

int main() {
    cout << add(5, 3); // Error: 'add' not declared yet
    return 0;
}

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

Example With Function Prototype:

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

// Function Prototype
```

```

int add(int, int);

int main() {
    cout << add(5, 3); // OK
    return 0;
}

// Function Definition
int add(int a, int b) {
    return a + b;
}

```

Output:

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5.(1) What are arrays in C++? Explain the difference between single dimensional and multi-dimensional arrays.

An **array** is a **collection of elements** of the **same data type**, stored in **contiguous memory locations**. Arrays allow storing **multiple values** under a single variable name, using **indexing**.

Declaring an Array

```
data_type array_name[size];
```

Example:

```

int numbers[5];    // declares an array of 5 integers
float marks[3] = {90.5, 85.2, 88.0}; // initializes array with values

```

Accessing Array Elements

Array elements are accessed using **zero-based indexing**:

```

cout << marks[0]; // prints 90.5
marks[1] = 92.3;  // updates second element

```

Types of Arrays

1. Single-Dimensional Array

2. Multi-Dimensional Array

1. Single-Dimensional Array

- A **linear list** of elements.
- One index is used to access elements.

Example:

```
int arr[4] = {10, 20, 30, 40};  
cout << arr[2]; // Output: 30
```

2. Multi-Dimensional Array

- Stores data in **tables, matrices, or grids**.
- Most common is the **2D array** (rows and columns).
- Accessed using **two or more indices**.

Declaration:

```
int matrix[2][3]; // 2 rows and 3 columns
```

Initialization:

```
int matrix[2][3] = {  
    {1, 2, 3},  
    {4, 5, 6}  
};
```

Access:

```
cout << matrix[1][2]; // Output: 6
```

(2) Explain string handling in C++ with examples.

In C++, **strings** are used to **store and manipulate text**. You can handle strings in **two ways**:

2. C++ string Class (Recommended)

Modern and easier way to handle strings using the `<string>` header.

Declaration:

```
#include <string>  
string name = "Alice";
```

Input/Output:

```
string fullName;  
getline(cin, fullName); // reads full line with spaces  
cout << fullName;
```

Useful string Member Functions:

| Function | Description | Example |
|----------------------|------------------|-------------------------|
| .length() or .size() | Length of string | str.length() |
| .append() | Add to end | str.append("XYZ") |
| .substr() | Get substring | str.substr(2, 3) |
| .find() | Find position | str.find("abc") |
| .replace() | Replace part | str.replace(0, 3, "Hi") |
| .compare() | Compare strings | str1.compare(str2) |

Example: C++ string Class

```
#include <iostream>  
#include <string>  
using namespace std;  
  
int main() {  
    string name = "C++ Programming";  
  
    cout << "Length: " << name.length() << endl;  
    cout << "Substring: " << name.substr(4, 6) << endl;  
    cout << "Position of 'gram': " << name.find("gram") << endl;  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

(3)How are arrays initialized in C++? Provide examples of both 1D and 2D arrays.

1. One-Dimensional (1D) Arrays

Syntax:

```
data_type array_name[size] = {value1, value2, ..., valueN};
```

Examples:

1.1 Initializing with values:

```
int numbers[5] = {10, 20, 30, 40, 50};
```

1.2 Partial initialization (rest become 0):

```
int scores[5] = {90, 80}; // scores[2], [3], [4] = 0
```

1.3 Letting compiler decide size:

```
int data[] = {1, 2, 3}; // size = 3 automatically
```

Accessing 1D Array:

```
for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++) {  
    cout << numbers[i] << " ";  
}
```

2. Two-Dimensional (2D) Arrays

A 2D array is like a **matrix**: rows × columns.

Syntax:

```
data_type array_name[rows][columns] = {  
    {row1_values},  
    {row2_values},  
    ...  
};
```

Examples:

2.1 Full initialization:

```
int matrix[2][3] = {  
    {1, 2, 3},  
    {4, 5, 6}  
};
```

2.2 Partial initialization:

```
int table[2][3] = {  
    {1}, // rest auto-filled with 0  
    {7, 8}  
};
```

Accessing 2D Array:

```
for (int i = 0; i < 2; i++) {  
    for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++) {  
        cout << matrix[i][j] << " ";  
    }  
    cout << endl;  
}
```

(4) Explain string operations and functions in C++.

2. C++ string Class

Header: #include <string>

Declaration:

string name = "OpenAI";

Useful String Operations:

| Operation | Function / Syntax | Example |
|------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Length | str.length() or str.size() | name.length() → 6 |
| Concatenation | + or .append() | str1 + str2 or str1.append(str2) |
| Substring | str.substr(pos, len) | name.substr(0, 4) → "Open" |
| Find | str.find("text") | name.find("AI") → 4 |
| Replace | str.replace(pos, len, "new") | Replace part of string |
| Compare | str1.compare(str2) | 0 if equal, >0 or <0 if different |
| Access character | str[index] | name[0] → O |
| Clear | str.clear() | Empties the string |

| Operation | Function / Syntax | Example |
|-----------|-------------------|---------------------------------|
| Empty | str.empty() | Returns true if string is empty |

Example:

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

int main() {
    string text = "C++ Programming";

    cout << "Length: " << text.length() << endl;
    cout << "Substring (4-6): " << text.substr(4, 6) << endl;
    cout << "Find 'gram': " << text.find("gram") << endl;

    text.replace(0, 3, "Java"); // Replace "C++" with "Java"
    cout << "After Replace: " << text << endl;

    return 0;
}
```

6.(1) Explain the key concepts of Object-Oriented Programming (OOP).

Object-Oriented Programming (OOP) is a programming paradigm based on the concept of “**objects**”, which contain **data (attributes)** and **functions (methods)**. OOP makes code more **modular, reusable, and maintainable**.

Four Main Pillars of OOP:

1. Encapsulation

Bundling of data and functions into a single unit (class), and **restricting direct access** to some components.

- Achieved using **classes** and **access specifiers** like private, public, and protected.
- Protects data from outside interference.

Example:

```
class Student {  
private:  
    int marks; // hidden from outside  
  
public:  
    void setMarks(int m) { marks = m; }  
    int getMarks() { return marks; }  
};
```

2. Abstraction

Hiding complex internal details and showing **only the necessary features**.

- Achieved using **classes**, **access specifiers**, and **abstract classes**.
- Simplifies usage and enhances security.

Example:

You drive a car using a steering wheel and pedals, but don't need to know how the engine works internally.

3. Inheritance

One class (**child**) can inherit **properties and methods** from another class (**parent**).

- Promotes **code reuse**.
- Types: single, multilevel, multiple, hierarchical, hybrid.

Example:

```
class Animal {  
public:  
    void eat() { cout << "Eating..."; }  
};  
  
class Dog : public Animal {  
public:  
    void bark() { cout << "Barking..."; }  
};
```

4. Polymorphism

Same function or method behaves **differently** based on context.

- **Compile-time (static)** polymorphism → Function overloading, Operator overloading

- **Run-time (dynamic)** polymorphism → Function overriding using virtual functions

Example:

```
class Shape {  
public:  
    virtual void draw() { cout << "Drawing shape\n"; }  
};  
  
class Circle : public Shape {  
public:  
    void draw() override { cout << "Drawing circle\n"; }  
};
```

(2) What are classes and objects in C++? Provide an example.

In **C++**, **classes and objects** are the core building blocks of **Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)**.

Class

A **class** is a **user-defined data type**. It acts as a **blueprint** for creating **objects**. It defines the **data members (variables)** and **member functions (methods)** that operate on that data.

Syntax:

```
class ClassName {  
public:  
    // data members  
    // member functions  
};
```

Object

An **object** is an **instance of a class**. It has its own copy of class data and can access class functions.

Example: Class and Object in C++

```
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std;  
  
// Class Declaration  
class Student {
```

```

public:
    // Data members
    string name;
    int age;

    // Member function
    void displayInfo() {
        cout << "Name: " << name << endl;
        cout << "Age: " << age << endl;
    }
};

int main() {
    // Object Creation
    Student s1;

    // Assigning values
    s1.name = "Ravi";
    s1.age = 20;

    // Function call using object
    s1.displayInfo();

    return 0;
}

```

Output:

```

Name: Ravi
Age: 20

```

(3)What is inheritance in C++? Explain with an example.

Inheritance in C++ is a key concept of **Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)** that allows a class (called a **derived class** or **child class**) to acquire the properties and behaviors (data members and member functions) of another class (called a **base class** or **parent class**).

This promotes **code reusability**, **hierarchical classification**, and **extensibility**.

Syntax of Inheritance:

```

class BaseClass {

```



```
// members of base class  
};
```

```
class DerivedClass : accessSpecifier BaseClass {  
    // members of derived class  
};
```

- accessSpecifier can be public, private, or protected.
 - Most commonly used: public

Example of Inheritance:

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

```
// Base class  
class Animal {  
public:  
    void eat() {  
        cout << "This animal eats food." << endl;  
    }  
};
```

```
// Derived class  
class Dog : public Animal {  
public:  
    void bark() {  
        cout << "The dog barks." << endl;  
    }  
};
```

```
int main() {  
    Dog myDog;  
    myDog.eat(); // Inherited from Animal class  
    myDog.bark(); // Defined in Dog class  
    return 0;  
}
```

Output:

This animal eats food.
The dog barks.

Types of Inheritance in C++:

1. **Single Inheritance** – One base and one derived class.
2. **Multiple Inheritance** – One derived class inherits from multiple base classes.
3. **Multilevel Inheritance** – A class is derived from a class which is also derived from another class.
4. **Hierarchical Inheritance** – Multiple derived classes from a single base class.
5. **Hybrid Inheritance** – Combination of multiple types.

(4)What is encapsulation in C++? How is it achieved in classes?

Encapsulation is one of the fundamental concepts in **Object-Oriented Programming (OOP)**. It refers to the **binding of data (variables)** and **functions (methods)** that operate on that data into a **single unit (class)**, and restricting direct access to some of the object's components.

This helps to:

- **Hide internal details** of how an object works (data hiding).
- **Protect data** from unauthorized access or modification.
- Promote **modularity and maintainability** of code.

How is Encapsulation Achieved in C++?

Encapsulation is achieved using **classes** and **access specifiers**:

- ****private****: Members are accessible only within the class.
- ****public****: Members are accessible from outside the class.
- ****protected****: Members are accessible in the class and its derived classes.

By keeping data **private** and providing **public methods (getters/setters)** to access or modify it, encapsulation is implemented.

Example of Encapsulation:

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

```
class Student {
private:
    int rollNo;
    string name;
```

```
public:
    // Setter for rollNo
```

```

void setRollNo(int r) {
    rollNo = r;
}

// Getter for rollNo
int getRollNo() {
    return rollNo;
}

// Setter for name
void setName(string n) {
    name = n;
}

// Getter for name
string getName() {
    return name;
}
};

int main() {
    Student s;
    s.setRollNo(101);
    s.setName("Vrushti");

    cout << "Roll No: " << s.getRollNo() << endl;
    cout << "Name: " << s.getName() << endl;

    return 0;
}

```

Output:

Roll No: 101
Name: Vrushti

Key Benefits of Encapsulation:

- **Data Security:** Prevents accidental changes to critical data.
- **Controlled Access:** Access to data is provided through public methods.
- **Code Maintainability:** Internal code can change without affecting external code using the class.