

# Basic Concepts of C++

System Platforms Group  
Training Program

# Objective

## What you should expect...

- an introduction to object programming paradigms
- a selected subset of C++ concepts useful for SystemC and transactional modeling

## What you should not expect...

- an exhaustive training on C++
- a training to make you a C++ expert overnight

# Prerequisite

- You should have minimal knowledge of C and C++ before tackling this training

# Outline

- [Module 1 - Introduction](#)
- [Module 2 - Objects and Classes](#)
- [Module 3 - C++ Basics](#)
- [Module 4 - C++ Functions & Overloading](#)
- [Lab 1](#)
- [Module 5 - Constructor and Destructor](#)
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- [Module 6 - Operator Overloading](#)
- [Module 7 - Inheritance](#)
- [Module 8 - Polymorphism](#)
- [Module 9 - Class and Function Templates](#)
- [Lab 3](#)
- [Module 10 - Advance Features](#)
- [Summary](#)



# Module 1 - Introduction



- Introduction to C++
- OOPS
- Organization of Data and Functions

# Introduction to C++

C++ is a general purpose programming language that

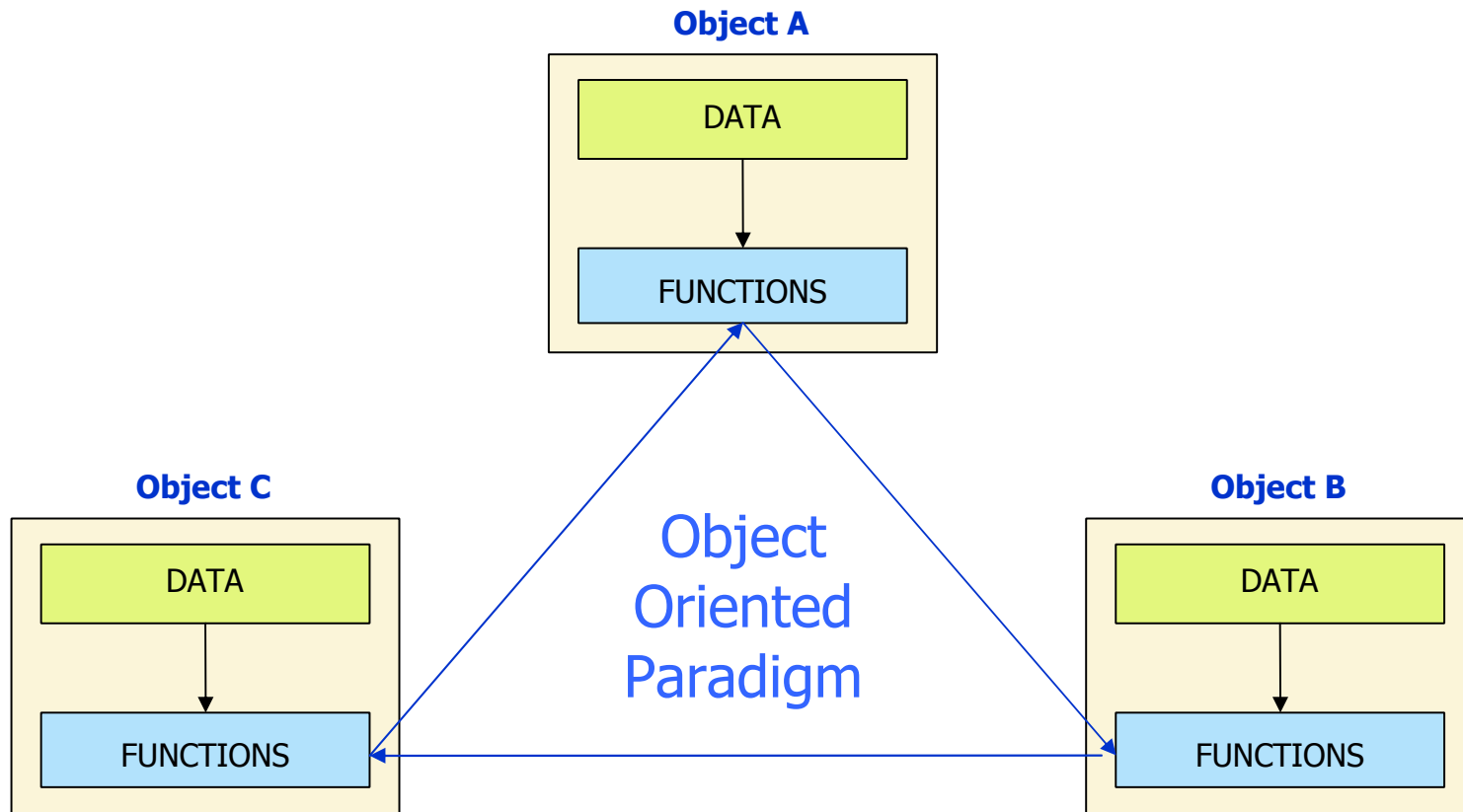
- is a superset of C
- supports data abstraction
- supports object-oriented programming (i.e. classes)
- supports new input/output interface
- supports references
- supports operator overloading
- supports generic types (i.e. templates), file operations, and exceptions

# OOPS - Object Oriented Programming

OOPS is characterized by the following features:

- emphasis is more on data rather than procedure
- programs are divided into objects
- data structures (classes) are designed in such a way that they characterize the objects
- data is hidden and cannot be accessed by external functions
- objects communicate with each other through functions
- bottom-up approach is adopted in program design

# Organization of Data and Functions



*Objects* interact with each other using *functions* in object oriented paradigm



# Module 2 - Objects and Classes



- Object
- Class
- Class vs. Struct

# Object

# OO Design and Programming

- Object-oriented design and programming methodology supports good software engineering by
  - promoting a thinking manner in which we model the way we think as we interact with the real world
- Example: Watching Television
  - The remote control is a physical object with properties as
    - weight, size, ability to send message to the television, etc
  - The television is also a physical object with various properties



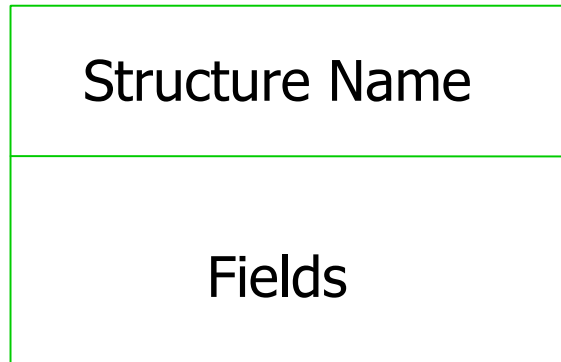
# Characteristics of Object

- An object is almost anything with the following characteristics:
  - Name
  - Properties
  - Ability to act upon receiving a message
    - Two basic message types
      - Directive message to perform an action
      - Request message to change one of the object properties

# Modeling Approach

## C vs. C++

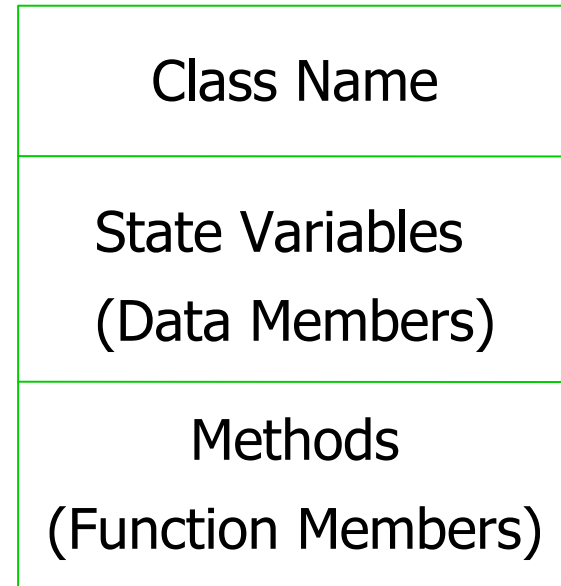
### C Approach



Functions

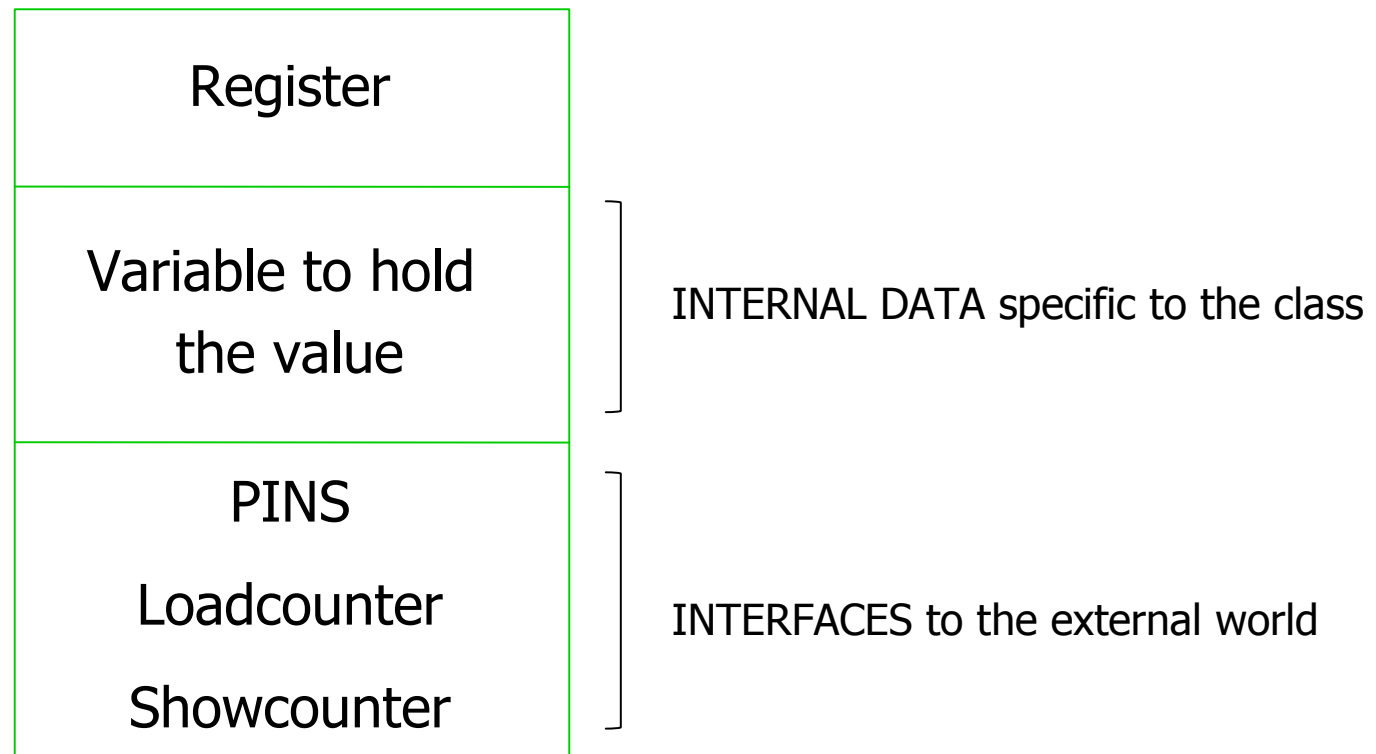
*compare*  
←-----→

### C++ Approach



# Idea of Class Modeling in C++

## C++ Modeling Approach



# Definition of Object

- Objects model real world entities that may represent a person, a place, a vector, time, a list, a hardware block, etc
- Each object can be defined to contain **data** and **functions** for manipulating the data

## *Defining an object*

<b>Object : STUDENT</b>
<b>DATA</b> 122 -- SSN "ted" – First name "Turner" – Second Name
<b>FUNCTIONS</b> Get_name() Print_name()

# Class



# Classes

- Classes are means to model objects with the followings:
  - attributes / data members
  - operations (i.e. member functions or methods)
- A look at the StudentRecord as a class:

```
class StudentRecord
{
    private:
        int SSN; // Attributes
        char first_name[20]; char last_name[20], int grade;

    public:
        void get_name(); // Methods: operations on attributes
        void print_name();
};
```

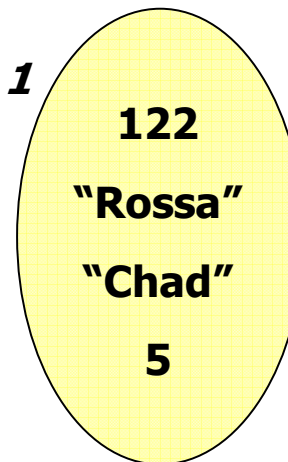
# Class Instances

## Class

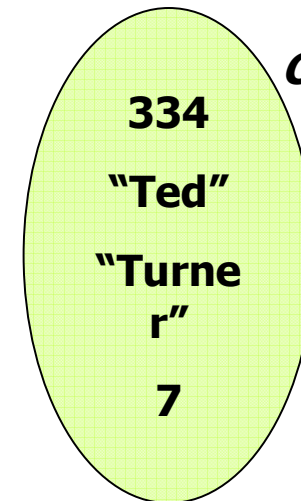
STUDENTRECORD
<code>int SSN;//ATTRIBUTES</code>
<code>char first_name[20];</code>
<code>char last_name[20],</code>
<code>int grade;</code>
<code>void get_name();</code> <code>//Methods</code>
<code>void print_name();</code>

## Objects (Instances of class)

*Object 1*



*Object 2*



# Modeling Advantages of C++ vs. C

- **Modular/User Defined Data Type** – Abstract hardware design concepts such as concurrency and bit vectors can be added using the class mechanism
- **Data Hiding** – Data hiding prevents users from changing data item and hides the implementation details from users
- **Code Reuse** - By encapsulating the details of data and methods within an object, C++ provides high degree of reusability
- **Hierarchical** - Users do not have to start their modeling effort from scratch but directly build upon the already-developed classes

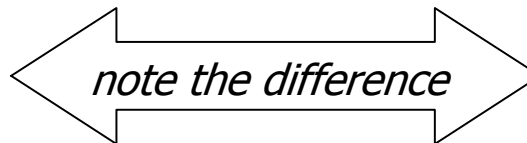
# Class vs. Struct

# Difference between Classes and Structs in C++

- The difference between C++ classes and C++ structures is just the default accessibility associated with the members of each (**warning**: *struct* in C++ != *struct* in pure C)

- In a class, all members are private by default unless otherwise stated

```
class a
{
    int x;
};
```



```
class b
{
    public:
        int y;
};
```

- In a struct, all members are public by default

```
struct b
{
    int y;
};
```

# Module 3 - C++ Basics



- First Glance at C++
- Member Function
- Assignment Operator
- *this* Pointer
- *New* & *Delete* Operators

# First Glance at C++

# A Simple Program - Greeting.cpp

```
// Program: Display greetings  
// Author(s): Ima Programmer  
// Date: 1/24/2001  
#include <iostream>  
#include <string>  
using namespace std;  
  
int main() {  
    cout << "Hello world!" << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

Preprocessor directives

Comments

Provides simple access

Function named main() indicates start of program

Ends executions of main() which ends program

Insertion statement

Function



# Comments

## ■ Objective

- Allow prose or commentary to be included in programs

## ■ Importance

- Programs are read far more often than they are written
- Programs need to be understood so that they can be maintained

## ■ C++ has two conventions for comments

- `//` single line comment (preferred)
- `/*` long comment `*/` (save for debugging)

## ■ Typical uses

- Identify programs and authors/programmer
- Record when programs are written
- Add descriptions of modifications

# A Program without Comments

- Can you identify the job done by each line in the program [\*hello\\_world.cc\*](#) shown below without comments?

```
#include <iostream.h>

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

# Same Program but with Comments

- With comments, we can tell quickly what each line of the program *hello\_world.cc* does

```
#include <iostream.h>
// Include a header file called iostream.h
// Header files contain some definitions that a program uses
// iostream.h has definitions for input/output, objects, etc
void main()
/* This indicates the beginning of the 'main' function same as
in C but in C++ every function must have return type */
{
    cout << "Hello World!" << endl;
    // Output "Hello World!" on screen
}
```

# Input/Output in C++

## ■ **cin**

- The standard input device that is normally the keyboard
- It replaces the `scanf()` statement in C

## ■ **cout**

- The standard output device that is normally the computer screen
- It replaces the `printf()` statement in C



*Note: The old C interface is still available*

# A Program with Input/Output

- A simple program with input/output, [age.cc](#), is given below

```
#include <iostream.h>

void main() {
    int age;
    cout << "Enter your age: ";
    cin >> age; //read the age
    cout << "You are " << age << "years old";
}
```

# Declaring Variables

- Variables can be initialized and declared in the middle of a program

- Example

```
int age;  
cout << "Enter your age: ";  
cin >> age; //read the age  
cout << "You are " << age << "years old" << endl;  
int x=10, y=5;  
char ch='a';  
float pi=3.1415;  
cout << "Pi value is: " << pi << endl;
```

*Declarations and  
initializations of variables*

# Class Types

## ■ Class Construct

- Allows programmers to define new data types for representing information, i.e. class types
- Class type objects can have both attribute components and behavior components
- Makes C++ an object-oriented programming language

# Terminology

## ■ Client

- A program using a class

## ■ Object Behavior

- Realized in C++ via member function, i.e. [method](#)
  - e.g. RectangleShapes can be drawn or resized

## ■ Object Attribute

- Known as [data member](#) in C++
  - e.g. RectangleShapes can have width, height, position, color, etc



# Member Function

# Role of Member Functions

- *Member functions* or *methods* provide a controlled interface to data members as well as object access and manipulation
- Three important roles of member functions include
  - creating objects of a class
  - inspecting, mutating, and manipulating objects of a class
  - keeping data members in a correct state
- Example: RectangleShapes may have the following methods
  - SetSize()
  - SetColor()
  - Draw()

# Constructor

- Constructors are member functions that initialize an object during its definition
- Example:
  - `RectangleShape R(W, x, y, c, w, h);`
- Factoid:
  - Constructors do not have a type for it is considered superfluous

# Inspector

- Inspectors are member functions that act as a messenger that returns the value of an attribute
- Example:
  - RectangleShapes may have an inspector GetColor()
    - `color CurrColor = R.GetColor();`

# Mutator

- Mutators are member functions that can change the value of an attribute
- Example:
  - RectangleShapes may have a mutator SetColor()
    - `R.SetColor(Black);`

# Facilitator

- Facilitators are member functions that cause an object to perform some action or service
- Example:
  - RectangleShapes may have a facilitator Draw()
    - `R.Draw( ) ;`

# Member Access Specifiers

- Member access specifiers can have public or private labels
- Data members or member functions of a class declared under the **public** access specifier are accessible wherever the program has access to an object of that class
- **Public functions** implement the services that a class offers to users, which are also referred to as **class interfaces**
- Data members or member functions of a class declared under the **private** access specifier can only be accessed by the member functions of the class

# Example of a Complete Class

■ Shown below is a complete class of *StudentRecord*:

```
class StudentRecord
{
    private:
        int SSN;
        char first_name[20], last_name[20], address[40],
            grade;

    public:
        void get_name();
        void put_name() { cout << first_name << " " <<
                        last_name; }

        void get_address(); // Reads from keyboard
        void put_address(); // Displays on screen
};
```



# Example of a Composite Class

## (cont.)

```
void StudentRecord :: get_address()           // Similar to C function prefixed
                                              // by the name of class
{
    cout << "Enter the address: ";
    cin >> address;                          // address can be accessed by the member function
                                              // get_address() as address is private
                                              // and get_address is a member function
}

void StudentRecord :: put_address()
{
    cout << "Address: ";
    cout << address;
}
...
void main()
{
    StudentRecord s;
    s.getname();                             //LEGAL because getname() is public
    cout << s.SSN;                           //ILLEGAL because SSN is private
    cout << s.address ;                      //ILLEGAL because address is private
}
```

# Assignment Operator

# Assignment Operator in C++ Classes

- The assignment operator "=" is used to assign an object to another object of the same class

- Example:

```
...  
StudentRecord r, s;  
  
...  
r.get_name();  
s = r;  
  
...
```

# *this* Operator

# *this* Pointer in C++ Classes

- The “*this*” pointer is used to point to an object itself
- Through “*this*” pointer, any member functions of an object can find out the address of the object

## ■ Example

```
void bind (signal s);          // Function taking an object of type
                               // signal as an argument

...
class signal
{
    void bindme( )
    {
        bind (*this); // *this is the current object which is of type signal
    }
}
```

# *this* Pointer in C++ Classes (cont.)

- The “**this**” pointer can also be used to distinguish state variables from arguments

- Example

```
class A
{
    int x = 3;
    void f (int x)
    {
        cout << "x= " << x << ", this->x= " << this->x << endl;
    }
};

int main()
{
    A instance;
    Instance(1); // x= 1, this->x= 3
}
```

# *New & Delete* Operators

# *New & Delete* Operators in C++

- *New* and *delete* operators are memory management operators in C++, which could be used on variables of any types (classes or not)

- *New* operator creates object of any type, e.g.

```
StudentRecord * p;  
p = new StudentRecord;  
cout << p->getname();
```



-> invokes methods and access to data members from a pointer on an object

- If *new* operation fails, an exception is raised (it may return NULL if exception handler is appropriately set)

- *Delete* operator destroys a data object created with *new* operator, e.g.

```
delete p;
```



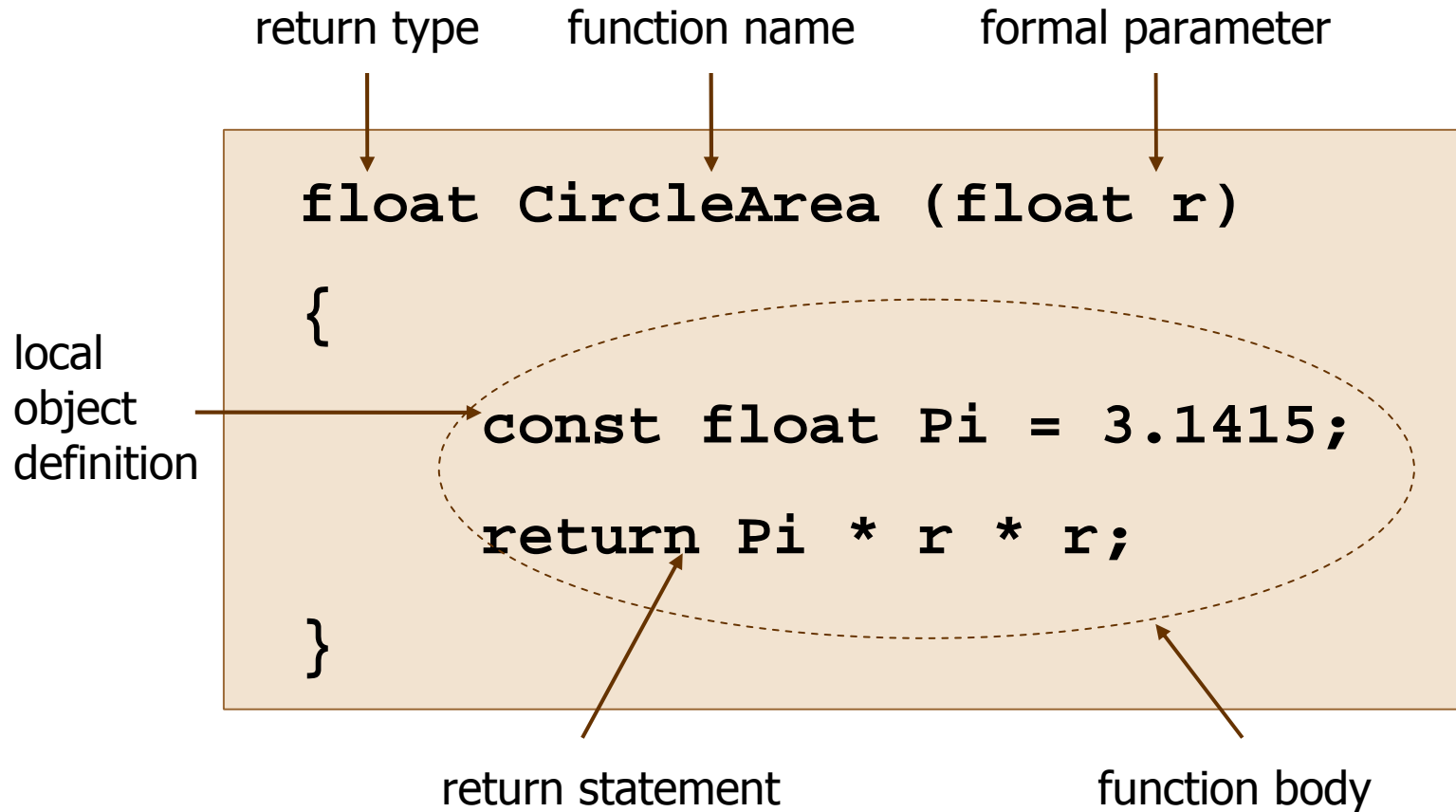
# Module 4 - C++ Functions & Overloading



- Definition of Function
- Functions in C++
- Function Overloading

# Definition of Function

# What to Define in a Function



# Functions in C++

# Passing Arguments in C++ Functions

- Arguments can be passed by three different ways in C++:
  - Value
  - Reference
  - Pointer
  
- So far in our discussion, arguments passed to functions do not change because whatever passed to the functions is only a copy
  - this method is called **pass-by-value**
  
- If you want the value of argument to change, there are two ways of to pass the arguments to functions:
  - **pass-by-reference**
  - **pass-by-pointer** (same as in C)

# Pass-by-Reference

- To pass an argument by reference, declare a function prototype as follows:

```
void someFunction (int& argByRef);
```

- To call the function:

```
int a;  
someFunction (a);
```

- The value of "a" can now be changed by the function

# Pass-by-Pointer

- To pass an argument by pointer, declare a function prototype as follows:

```
void someFunction (int* argByPtr);
```

- To call the function:

```
int a;  
someFunction (&a);
```

- The value of "a" can now be changed by the function

# Constant Parameters

- The `const` modifier can be applied to formal parameter declarations
- The `const` indicates that the function may not modify the parameter
- Example:

```
void PromptAndGet (int &n, const string &s)
{
    cout << s ;
    cin >> n ;
    s = "Got it"; // illegal assignment that compiler will catch
}
```

- Sample invocation:

```
int x;
PromptAndGet (x, "Enter number (n): ");
```



# Default Parameters

## ■ Observations

- Our functions up to this point require us to pass explicitly a value for each of the function parameters
- It would be convenient to define functions that accept a varying number of parameters

## ■ Solution: Default Parameters

- Allow programmers to define a default behavior
- The value for a parameter can be implicitly passed
- Reduce needs for similar functions that differ only in the number of parameters accepted

# Function Overloading

# What is Function Overloading?

- Overloading means using the same thing for different purposes
- C++ permits overloading of functions, i.e. we can use the same function name to create functions that perform various tasks
- This is known as *function polymorphism* in OOPS
- A family of functions can be designed with a single function name but of different argument lists
- The function would perform different operations depending on the argument list in the function call

# Example of Function Overloading in C++

## Example

- An overloaded add() function where the correct function to be invoked is determined by checking the number and type of argument

```
//Declarations
int add (int a,int b);           //prototype 1
int add (int a,int b,int c);    //prototype 2
int add (double a,int b);       //prototype 3

//Function calls
cout<<add(5,10)                  //uses
prototype 1
cout<<add(5,10,20)               //uses prototype 2
cout<<add(0.72,10)               //uses prototype 3
```

# Lab 1

## *Basic Features of C++*



Now, it is time to take a coffee break and work on your first lab!

*Notes: Please download lab notes and database from the SPG training center*

# Module 5 – Constructor and Destructor



- Constructor
- Destructor

# Constructor

# What does a Constructor do?

- When a class object is created, its members can be initialized by the constructor function of that class
- The constructor is executed whenever an object is declared or created dynamically using *new* operator
- Constructors
  - have the same name as the class itself
  - do not return values
  - cannot be called explicitly
  - can be passed arguments



# Example of Constructor

```
class StudentRecord
{
    private:
        int SSN; //Attributes
        char first_name[20], last_name[20],
            address[40], grade;

    public:
        StudentRecord (int SSN); //Constructor
        ...
};

StudentRecord :: StudentRecord (int SSN) //Constructor definition
{
    this->SSN = SSN;
}
```

# Passing Arguments to Constructors

Arguments can be passed to a constructor when:

- declaring an instance

```
ClassName instance(arg1, arg2, ...);
```

- using the *new* operator

```
ptr = new ClassName(arg1, arg2, ...);
```

# Destructor

# What does a Destructor do?

- Destructors are used to clean up an object when the object is about to be destroyed
- For instance, if your object has some pointers as its members, you might want to free the memory pointed by those pointers sometimes
- Such operations can be performed by destructors

# How to Use Destructors

- Destructors are called
  - by default for each class object at the end of a program
  - whenever the *delete* operation is called
- Example: the destructor for the class StudentRecord is

```
StudentRecord :: ~ StudentRecord( ) { ... } ;
```
- Destructors are similar in nature to constructors except that
  - they are executed when an object is about to be destroyed
  - you cannot pass arguments to destructors

# Lab 2

## *Classes and Objects in C++*



Now, it is time to take a coffee break and work on your second lab!

*Notes: Please download lab notes and database from the SPG training center*

# Module 6 – Operator Overloading



- Purpose
- Example
- Guidelines

# Purpose

- C++ has several operators such as `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, `%`, `++`, `--`, `=`, `+=`, etc
- Sometimes it is more meaningful and natural to use these operators on objects
- Illustration
  - Using `+` operator is more intuitive than using the `strcat` function if we want to add two strings
  - This is done by treating an operator as a function that takes two arguments (or one argument in the case of a unary operator)
  - For adding two strings, think of  $a = b+c$ ; as  $a = +(b, c)$ ;



# Example

```
// string.cc
// This is a memory efficient string class
// It allocates just enough memory to store the string passed to it!
// It demonstrates overloading the += operator
// This is overloaded as a MEMBER FUNCTION

#include <iostream.h>
#include <string.h>
class String {
    private:
        char *str;
    public:
        // Constructor
        String (char* ptr);
        // Member functions
        void print();
        // Overloaded operators
        const String& operator+=(const String& a);
};
```

# Example (cont.)

```
// constructor
String :: String (char *ptr) {
    str = new char [strlen (ptr) + 1];
    strcpy (str, ptr);
}
//print method implementation
void String :: print() {
    cout << str << endl;
}
//Overloading the += operator
const String& String :: operator+=(const String& a) {
    char *temp = str; // save the string in a temporary variable
    str = new char[strlen(temp) + strlen(a.str) + 1]; // allocate variable
    strcpy( str, temp); // with convenient size
    strcat( str, a.str); // concatenate strings
    delete temp;
    return *this;
}
//-----
void main(){
    String s1("We "); String s2("love "); String s3("C++");
    s1 += s2 += s3;
    s1.print();
}
```

*str is a data member of the class String*

# Guidelines

Guidelines for operator overloading are as follows:

- Some of the operators cannot be overloaded
  - `::` `sizeof`
- New operators cannot be created
- Unary operators can be overloaded
- Binary operators can be overloaded

# Module 7 - Inheritance



- Illustration: What is Inheritance?
- Inheritance in C++
- Features of Inheritance
- Examples of Inheritance

# Illustration: What is Inheritance?

# Inheritance in Programming

- Inheritance is a mechanism for deriving new classes from existing classes
- To illustrate the idea of inheritance, let us guide you through the analogy of bicycle family

# Think of a Bicycle



# Think of a Tandem Bike

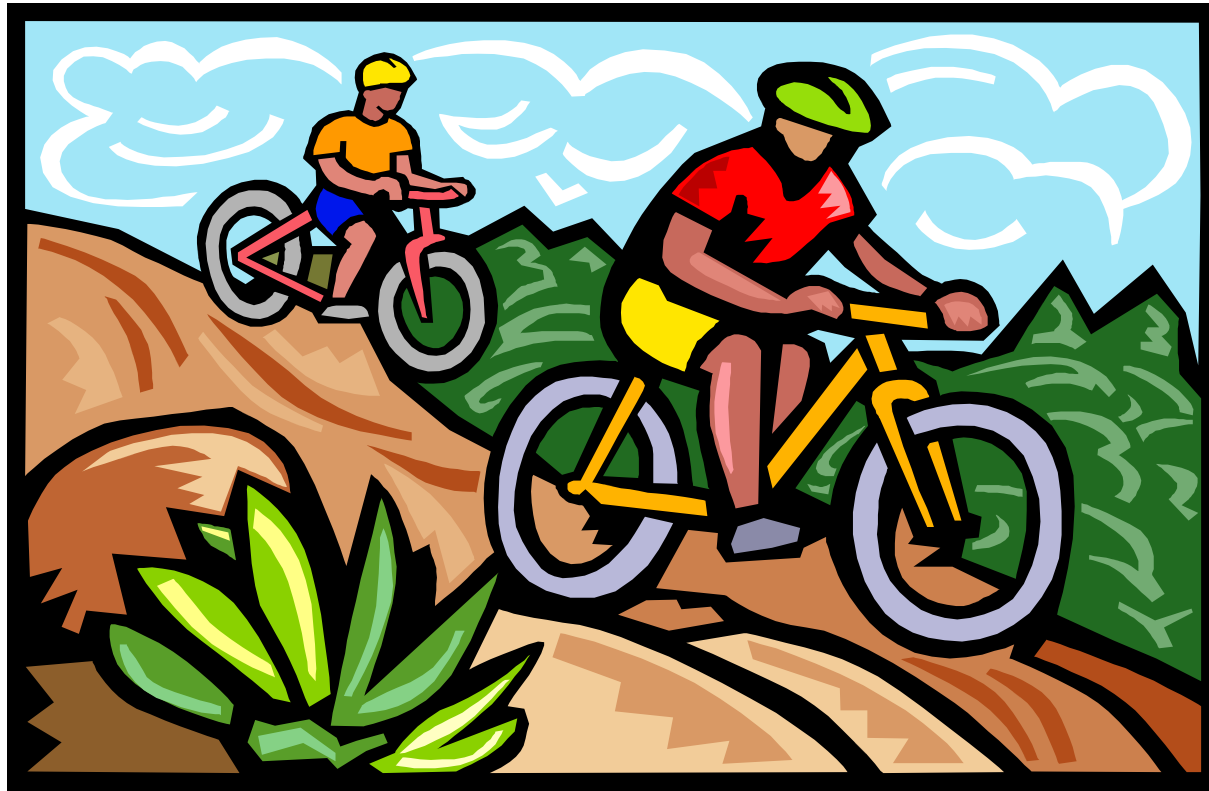




# Think of a Racing Bike



# Think of a Mountain Bike

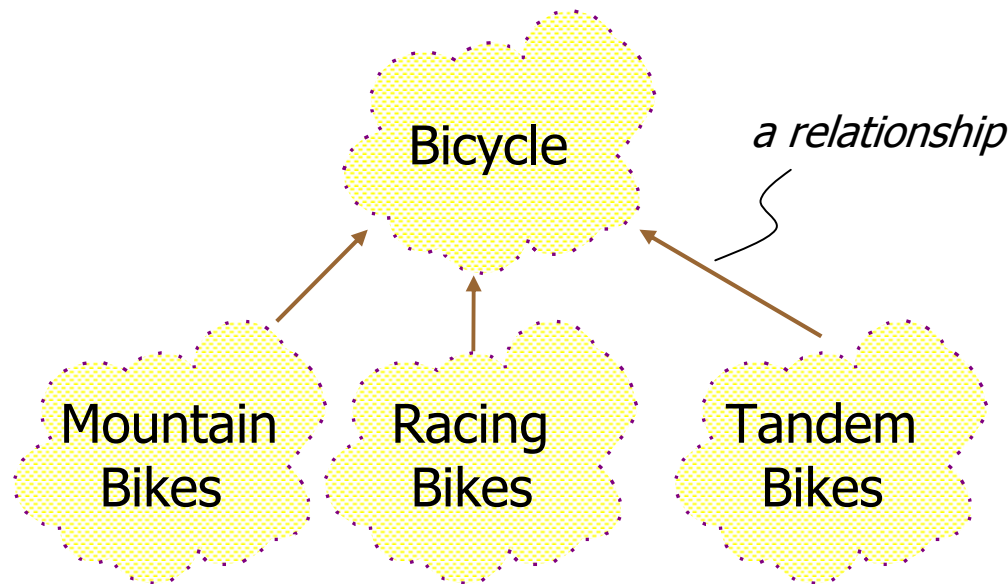


# Now, think of all these bicycles together

- A tandem bicycle *is a kind of bicycle*
  - Bicycle with two seats
- A mountain bicycle *is a kind of bicycle*
  - Bicycle with shock-proof
- A racing bicycle *is a kind of bicycle*
  - Bicycle with lightweight aerodynamic construction
- Tandem, mountain, and racing bicycles are all *specialized* bicycles

# Relationship in Bicycle Family

- We can conclude that there exists a *relationship* between each specialized type of bicycle and the basic bicycle



Now, think of how such relationship  
can be helpful in terms of  
programming ...

# Wouldn't it be nice...

... being able to  
create specialized  
program objects  
without starting  
from scratch?



*Yep! We can qualify the  
previous relationship as  
inheritance in C++!*

- Inheritance is the object-oriented programming mechanism for the object specialization
- For instance, you can create specialized objects from the class `Bicycle`, e.g.
  - Tandem bike
  - Racing bike
  - Mountain bike

# Inheritance in C++

# Definition

- Inheritance in C++ is the ability to define new classes from an existing parent class known as the base class
- Such ability is indeed a form of *software reusability* allowing new classes to be created from existing classes
- Each new class is a specialized version of the parent class that will inherit all attributes and behavior of the parent class
- The inherited properties can be overwritten if necessary



# Motive

There are good reasons to use inheritance in C++:

- Provide a natural way to reuse codes
- Save time through software reuse
- Encourage uses of proven software
- Foster programming by extension rather than reinvention

# Terminology

## ■ **Base Class**

- Original or existing parent class that is already well defined

## ■ **Derived Class**

- New class defined upon a base class

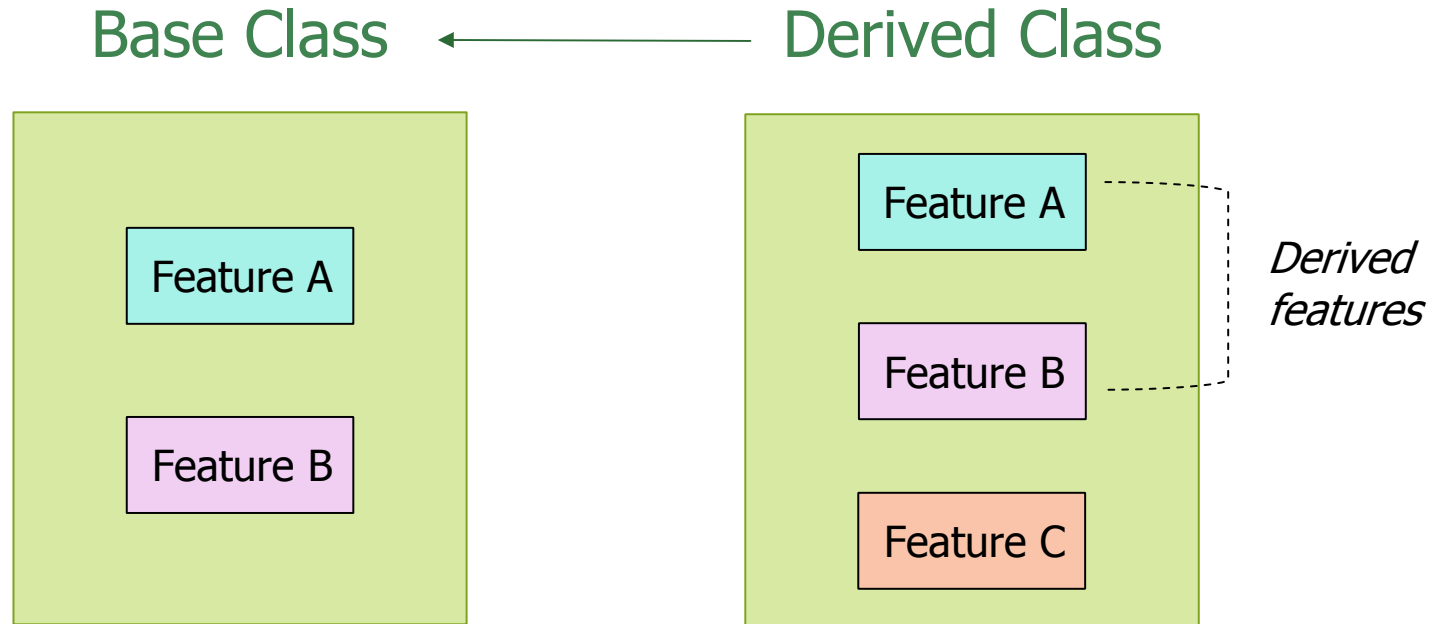
## ■ **Single Inheritance**

- Inheritance of a class derived from one single base class

## ■ **Multiple Inheritance**

- Inheritance of a class derived from more than one base class

# Graphical Representation



- Depicted above is the graphical representation (a-la UML) of class inheritance
- The derived class is related to the base class with an arrow, the head being oriented towards the base class

# Features of Inheritance

# Single and Multiple Inheritance

## ■ Recall that

- Single Inheritance – class derived from one base class
- Multiple Inheritance – class derived from several base classes

## ■ Example of multiple inheritance

```
class seaplane : public plane, public boat
{
    seaplane(...) : plane(...), boat(...) // constructor-chaining
    { ... }
};
```



*Multiple inheritance could be a dangerous feature if not properly understood!*

# Member Access Specifier

- Three types of members exist in a class
  - Public Member
  - Protected Member
  - Private Member
- Such characteristic is indicated by the member access specifier of **public**, **protected**, and **private**
- The member functions of a derived class can access public or protected members of the base class
- Private members of the base class are not accessible by derived class
- A protected member can be accessed by member functions of its own class or any derived class based on its own class

# Member Access Specifier (cont.)

- The table shown below summarizes the access right to a class member according to its different access specifiers

<b>Access Specifier</b>	<b>Accessible by its own class</b>	<b>Accessible by its derived classes</b>	<b>Accessible by objects of any other classes</b>
<b>Public</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>Yes</b>
<b>Protected</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>
<b>Private</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>No</b>

# Public and Private Inheritance

## ■ Public Inheritance

- Indicated by the keyword *public* in the derived class
- It specifies that objects of such derived class can access *public* and *protected* members of the base class but not the *private* members

## ■ Private Inheritance

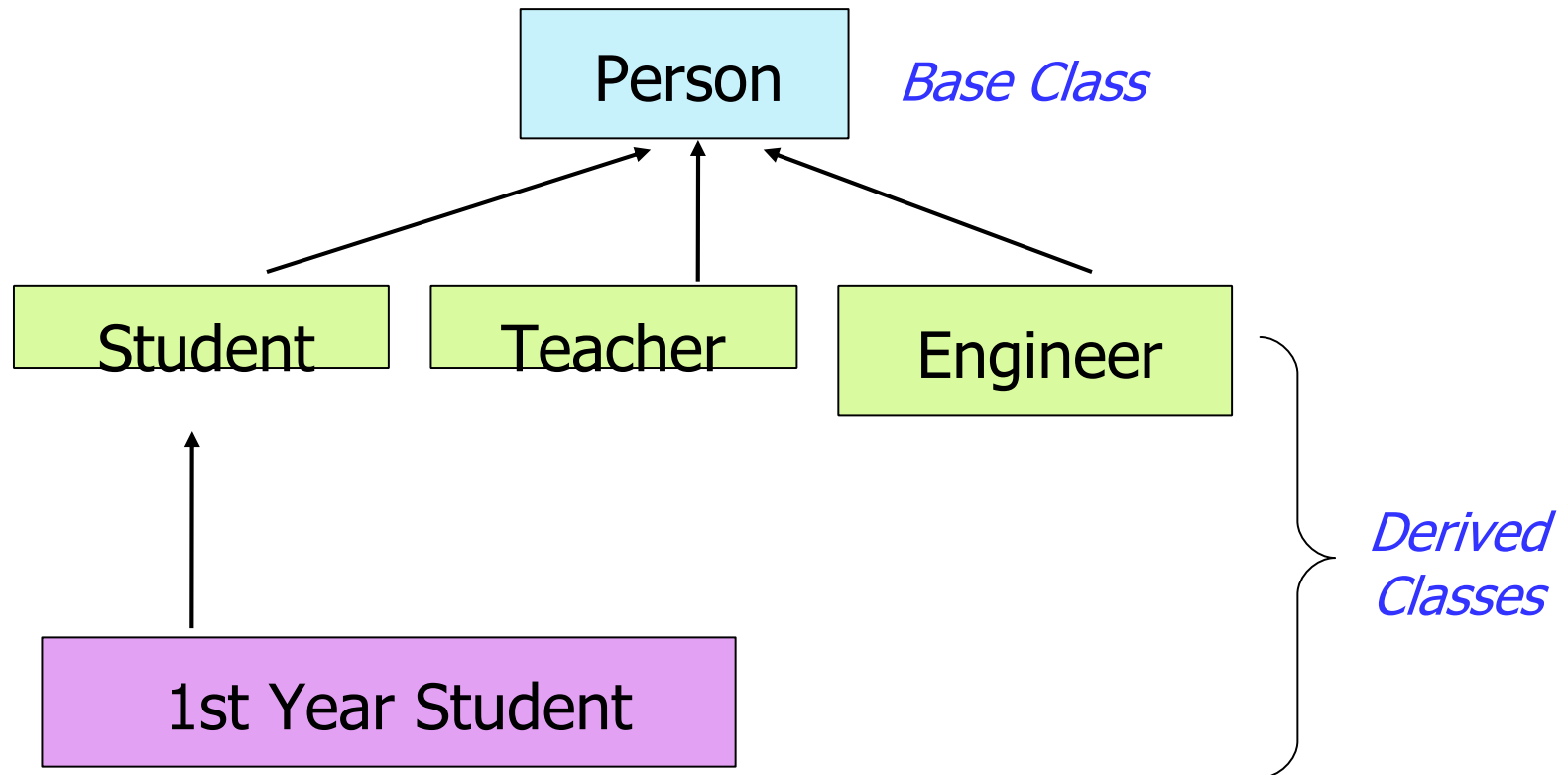
- Indicated by the keyword *private* in the derived class
- It specifies that *public* and *protected* members of the base class become *private* members in the derived class (*not recommended*), as usual *private* can not be access.

## ■ Examples

```
class student : public person {...};  
class student : private person {...};
```



# A Look at Class Hierarchy



# Examples of Inheritance

# *Base Class “Person” and Derived Class “Student”*

```
class Person { // Base Class
    private:
        char* name;
        int SSN;
    public:
        Person (const char* name, int SSN);
        void putDetails();
};

class Student : public Person { // Derived Class - a public inheritance
    private:
        char *univ;
        char grade;
    public:
        Student (const char* name, int SSN, const char* univ, char grade);
        void putDetails(); // Override the putDetails() of the base class
        void setGrade (char grade);
};
```

# Example (cont.)

## *Definition of Base Class “Person”*

```
// Definition of the base class "Person"

Person :: Person (const char* name, int SSN) { // constructor
    this->name = new char[strlen(name)+1];
    strcpy (this->name, name);
    this->SSN = SSN; // used here to distinguish the data member
                    // from the function parameter
}

void Person :: putDetails() {
    cout << name << " " << SSN << endl;
}
```

# Example (cont.)

## *Definition of Derived Class “Student”*

```
// Definition of the derived class "Student"

// constructor of the derived class
Student :: Student (const char* name, int SSN, const char* univ, char grade)
: Person (name, SSN)          // call constructor of the base class first
{
    this->univ = new char[strlen(univ)+1];
    strcpy (this->univ, univ);
    this->grade = grade;
}

void Student :: putDetails() {
    Person :: putDetails(); // call putDetails() of the base class
    cout << univ << " " << grade << endl;
}
```

# Module 8 - Polymorphism



- Concept of Polymorphism
- Virtual Function

# Concept of Polymorphism

# Definition

- Literally, the Greek word “polymorphism” means having many different forms
- In object-oriented programming, polymorphism means being able to assign different meaning or usage to a given item under different context
- Particularly, polymorphism allows an entity such as a variable, a function or an object to carry multiple forms
- The concept of polymorphism will be illustrated in the coming example



# Illustration

```
class Point {  
    protected :  
        int x, y;  
    public :  
        Point();  
        Point (int x, int y);  
        void printme ()  
};  
  
Point :: Point() {  
    x = 0; y = 0 ;  
}  
  
Point :: Point (int x, int y) {  
    (*this).x = x;  
    (*this).y = y;  
}  
  
void Point :: printme() {  
    cout<<"This is a point"<<endl;  
}
```

← Base class, *Point*

Base class methods

# Illustration (cont.)

```
class Circle : public Point {  
    double radius;  
    public:  
        // constructor  
        Circle (double r = 0.0, int x =0 , int y =0);  
        void printme();  
};  
  
Circle :: Circle( double r, int x, int y) : Point(x,y){  
    radius = r;  
}  
  
void Circle :: printme() {  
    cout << "This is a circle" << endl;  
}
```

← Derived  
class,  
*Circle*

Base class,  
*printme ()*,  
overridden  
← here as a  
derived class  
function

# Illustration (cont.)

Can you figure this out?

```
int main() {  
    Point p, *pPtr = &p;  
    Circle c, *cPtr = &c;  
  
    pPtr->printme();           // "This is a point"  
    cPtr->printme();           // "This is a circle"  
    cPtr->Point :: printme();  // "This is a point"  
    pPtr = &c;  
    pPtr->printme();           // Point or circle?  
}
```

# Analysis of Illustration

- Note that in the `main()` of the previous illustration:
  - a base class pointer, `pPtr`, points to a derived class object, `c`
  - `pPtr` is used to invoke the method, `printme()`, declared in the base class but overridden in the derived class
- The base class `printme()` is invoked even when `pPtr` points to `c`, an object of derived class `Circle`; hence
  - `pPtr->printme();` prints "This is a point"
- What if we want the derived class function to be called instead? The answer is virtual function as explained next

# Virtual Function

# Declaring a Virtual Function

- To call the derived class function in our last illustration, you simply need to declare the base class function as a “virtual” function
- The base class will be declared as a virtual function as follows:

```
class Point {  
    protected :  
    int x, y;  
    public :  
    Point ();  
    Point (int x, int y) ;  
    virtual void printme();  
};
```

- The rest of the individual method implementations remain the same

# Static and Dynamic Binding

## ■ Static Binding

- When a virtual function is called by referring a specific object via its name and using the dot member selection operator, the reference is resolved during compilation
- e.g. static binding for a virtual function *printme()* and an object *p* will look like *p.printme()*

## ■ Dynamic Binding

- If a base class pointer pointing to a derived class object is used to invoke a virtual function, say *printme()*, the program will dynamically choose the right *printme()* from the appropriate class

# Pure Virtual Function

- What if we do not want any code in the base class methods?
- What if the only reason we want to have a particular method in the base class is to override it in derived classes and then use base class pointers to dynamically call derived class implementations?
- In this case, we can make the base class method a pure virtual function by initializing it to 0 in the declaration, e.g.

```
class Drawable_object
{
    virtual int drawme () = 0;
};
```



# Abstract Class

- An abstract class is a class with one or more pure virtual functions
- Note that abstract classes cannot be instantiated
- The idea of abstract class demonstrates polymorphism in object-oriented programming, i.e.
  - the ability for objects of different classes, related by inheritance, to respond differently to the same message
- The virtual functions of abstract classes thus display different “forms” and hence the term polymorphism

# Module 9 - Class and Function Templates



- Class Template
- Function Template
- Notes

# Class Template

# Definition

- Class template is the idea of using the same class for different kinds of data types
- Example
  - Stacks are data structures where the last value stored on the stack will be the first value out of the stack (Last In First Out - LIFO structure)
  - We can now represent a stack as a class that consists of an array of elements, an integer indicating the current top of the stack, and its associated methods such as push and pop

# Purpose

- Class templates help us to create stacks of integers, doubles, floats, etc, without having to write the code more than once
- Example of Declaring a Class Template

```
template <class T> ← type parameter, T
class Stack
{
    T* array;
    int max, top;
public:
    T pop();
    void push (T element);
    Stack (int max=50);
};
```

*keywords indicating the declaration of a class template*

# Illustration: Problem

Imagine that you need two classes for two very similar jobs:  
a class using *int* for stack operations while another class  
using *string* for stack operations

```
Class stackInt
{
    Int SP;
    Push (int);
    Int pop ();
};
```

```
Class stackString
{
    Int SP;
    Push (string);
    string pop ();
};
```

# Illustration: Solution



You can avoid using two different classes in this case by simply applying class template!

A class template *stack* defined with the type parameter *T*



Since the template simply refers to an array of type *T*, we can create an actual class by specifying what *T* is in each declaration below:

```
Stack<int> iStack;  
Stack<string> fStack;
```

```
template class <T>  
Class stack  
{  
    Int SP;  
    Push (T);  
    T pop ();  
};
```

# Multiple Type Parameter

- We can create class templates with more than one type parameter

- Example

```
template <class X, class Y>
class SampleClass
{
    // code
};
```

- In this example, both X and Y must be specified when an object is created, e.g.

```
SampleClass <int, bool> S;
```



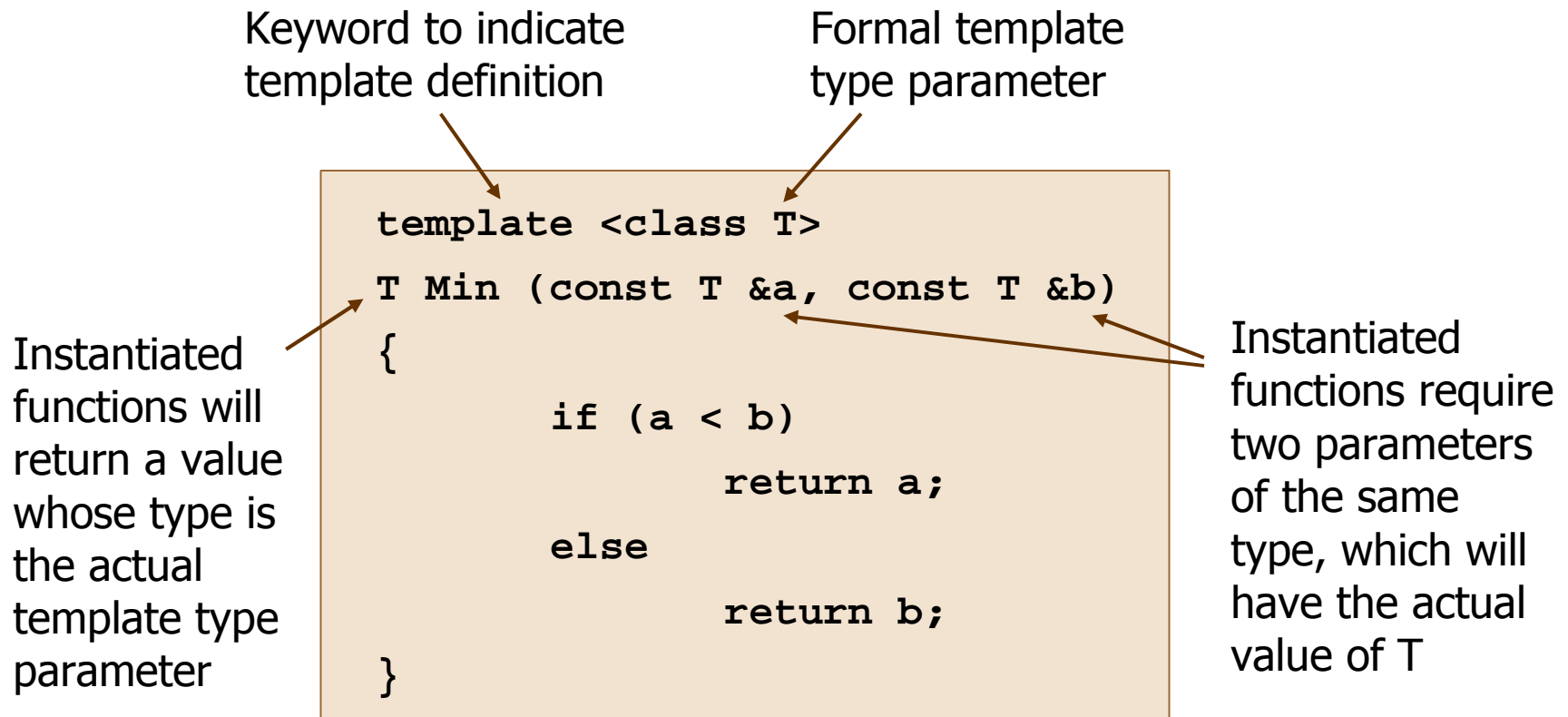
# Function Template

# Definition



*Function template is the idea of using the same function for different types of data*

# Who is who in a Function Template



# Example: General Usage

- We can declare a function template as follows:

```
template <class T>
T square (T x)
{ return x*x; }
```

- We can call the square function for different data types:

```
int a=5, b;
float c=10.99, d;
b = square (a);
d = square (c);
```

# Example: Printing an Array

- Consider the example below:

```
template <class T>
void printArray (T* array, int n)
{
    for (int j=0; j<n; j++)
        cout << array[j];
}
```

- This template function can be used to print arrays of any data type
- If the array contains user-defined objects, the << operator must be overloaded correctly

# Further on printArray ...

- What if an overloaded “printArray” function exists?

```
void printArray (char* array, int n);
```

- And there are also extra lines of code to be executed as below?

```
char array[5] = {'a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e'};  
printArray (array, 5);
```

- Which function will be called? Will there be any ambiguity?



Indeed, there will be no error. To print an array of characters, the *printArray* function specific to char will be called. C++ always looks for a template function as the last solution.

# Overloading Template Function

- We can overload template functions

- Example

```
template<class T>  
void printArray (T* a, int n);
```

```
template<class T>  
void printArray (T* a, int lower, int upper);
```

# Notes



# When to Use Templates

Templates are recommended for:

- expressing algorithms that apply to many argument types
- expressing containers
- replacing inheritance in certain cases because they could do better thanks to their compile-time mechanisms (however, templates cannot add new variants without recompilation)

# Lab 3

## *Finer Aspects of C++*



Now, it is time to take a coffee break and work on your third lab!

*Notes: Please download lab notes and database from the SPG training center*

# Module 10 - Advance Features



- Container Class
- Const Function and Object
- Friend Function
- File Operations
- Exception Handling

# Container Class

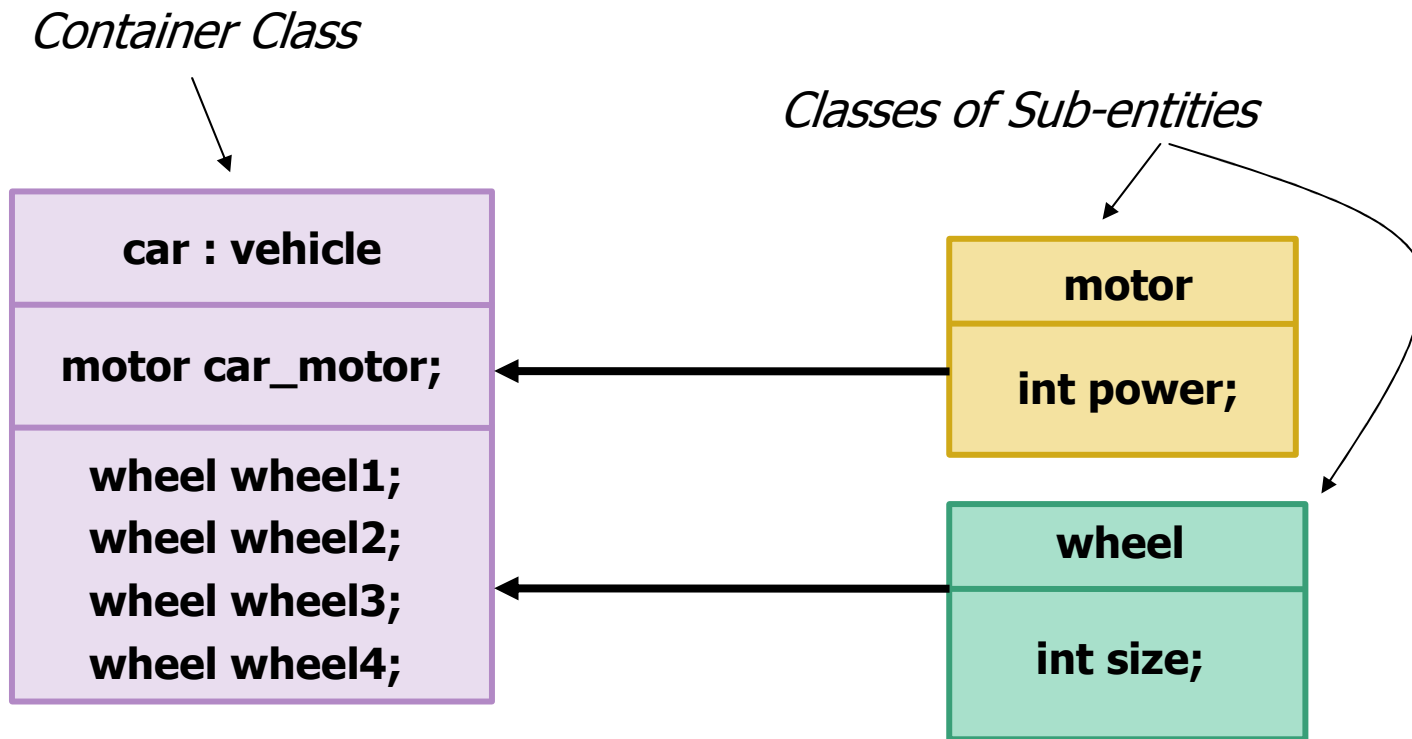
# Purpose

- We often need to model entities comprising several sub-entities with particular behavior, e.g.
  - A car is a vehicle composed of 4 wheels, a motor, etc, which have their own particularities
- In C++, container class can manage this concept

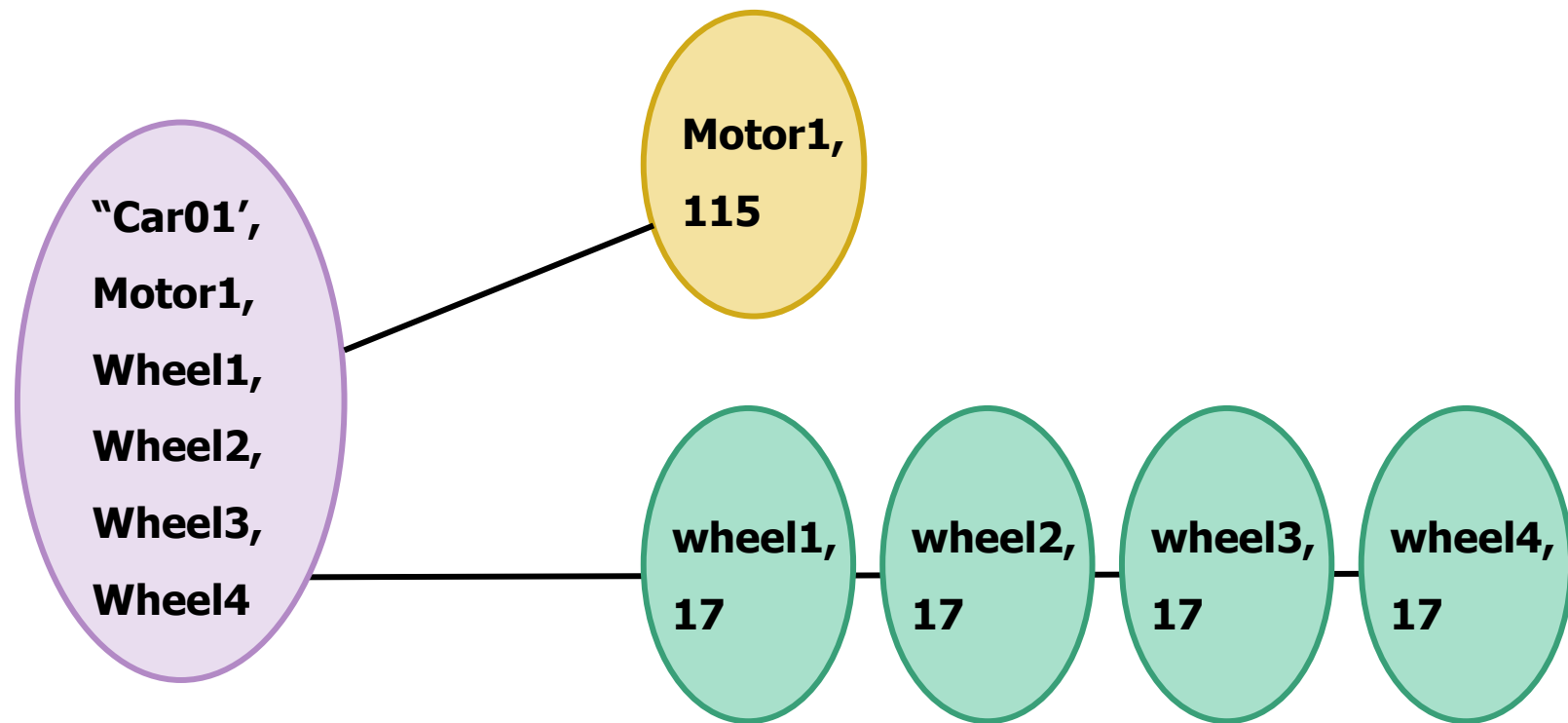
## Definition

*Container class is a class that can hold objects of other classes*

# Example: Car Container Class



# Example: Car Container Class (cont.)



# Const Function and Object



# Consider the *Time* Class

```
class Time
{
    private:
        int hh, mm, ss;
    public:
        Time (int Ihh, int Imm, int Iss);
        void getTime() const;
        void setTime(int Chh, int Cmm, int Css);
};
```

# Member Functions of *Time* Class

```
Time :: Time(int Ihh, int Imm, int Iss)
{
    hh = Ihh; mm = Imm; ss = Iss;
}

void Time :: getTime() const
{
    cout << hh << " " << mm << " " << ss;
}

void Time :: setTime(int Chh, int Cmm, int Css)
{
    hh = Chh; mm = Cmm; ss = Css;
}
```

# How to Handle *const* Objects

```
int main()
{
    const Time noon(12, 0, 0);
    Time now(10, 0, 0);

    noon.setTime(3, 30, 0);    // Not allowed: setTime is not
                               // a const function

    now.setTime(4, 0, 0);      // Allowed: now is not const

    noon.getTime();            // Allowed: getTime is a const
                               // function
}
```

# Conclusion

- You cannot call a non-constant function on a constant object
- However, constructors/destructors do not fall under this category
- A constructor can be used to initialize a constant class

# Friend Function

# What is a Friend Function?

- Friend functions can be considered as “ordinary” global functions, which can access private members of a class
- Friend functions are declared in a class as shown below:

```
class complex{  
    double re, im;  
public:  
    complex (double r, double i) {re=r; im=i;}  
    complex (double r) {re=r; im=0;}  
    complex() {re=im=0;}  
  
    friend complex operator+(complex,complex);  
}
```

# File Operations

# File Handling Methods

Listed are classes that define file handling methods in C++:

## ■ **ifstream**

- Provides input operations
- Contains `open()`, `get()`, `getline()`, `read()`, `seekg()`, `tellg()`

## ■ **ofstream**

- Provides output operations
- Contains `open()`, `put()`, `write()`, `seekp()`, `tellp()`

## ■ **fstream**

- Provides support for simultaneous input and output



# Open and Close Files

- Opening and closing files:

```
ofstream outfile ("result");
```

*or*

```
ofstream outfile;  
outfile.open ("result");  
outfile.close ();
```

# Multiple Files

```
#include<iostream.h>
#include<fstream.h>
main(){
    ofstream fout;
    fout.open("country");
    fout << "USA\n";
    fout.close();
    char line[80];
    ifstream fin;
    fin.open("country");
    while(fin){           // check end of file
        fin.getline(line,80);
        cout << line;
    }
    fin.close();
}                          // end of main
```

# *eof*, End of File

- End of file is signified as *eof*

- We can check for end of file by

`while(fin)     or     if (fin.eof()!=0)`

- Files can be opened in various file modes, e.g.

■ <code>ios::app</code>	-	append to end of file
■ <code>ios::in</code>	-	open file for reading only
■ <code>ios::out</code>	-	open file for writing only

# Example of Modes and I/O on char

```
main()
{
    char string[80];
    cin >> string;
    fstream file;
    file.open ("text", ios::in|ios::out);
    for (int i=0; i<80; i++)
        file.put(string[i]); //put a char to file
    file.seekg(0);           //go to beginning of file
    char ch;
    while(file){
        file.get(ch);        //get a character from the file
        cout << ch;
    }
}
```

- *seekg()* - moves get pointer to a location
- *seekp()* - moves put pointer to a location

# *read()* and *write()* as Binary Files

- Just as `put()` and `get()`, `read()` and `write()` can also read and write from/to a file but in binary form
- These features help to read and write objects or structures to a file
- Example

```
#include<iostream.h>
#include<fstream.h>
class Test{
    int a,b;
    public:
        void get_data();
        void write_data();
};
```

# Example of *read()* and *write()*

```
main(){
    float height[4]={12,12,15,17};
    ofstream outfile(filename);
    outfile.write((char *) &height,sizeof(height));
    outfile.close();

    Test test1[3]; //array of objects of class test
    fstream file;
    file.open("stock",ios::in|ios::out);
    for (int i=0;i<3;i++){
        test1[i].get_data();
        file.write((char *)&test1[i], sizeof(test1[i]));
    }
    file.seekg(0);
    for (i=0;i<3;i++){
        file.read((char*) &test1[i], sizeof(test1[i]));
        test1[i].write_data();
    }
    file.close();
}
```

*Notes: Objects are read and written in binary form*

# Exception Handling

# Purpose

- Exception handling provides means to detect and report an exception such as out of range or overflow (i.e. divided by zero during run time)
- Such mechanism suggests a separate error-handling code that performs the following tasks:
  - Find the problem => Hit the exception
  - Inform about error occurrence => Throw the exception
  - Receive error information => Catch the exception
  - Take corrective actions => Handle the exception



# Error Handling Process

- The error handling code has 3 segments: one to detect exception, one to throw exception, one to catch and handle exception

- Example

```
class DivideByZeroException {  
    char  message[80];  
    public:  
        DivideByZeroException() //constructor  
        {      strcpy (message, "Divide by Zero");      }  
        char * what()  
        {      return message;      }  
};
```



# Summary

# What You Have Learned

- Class and objects
- Data abstraction and encapsulation
  - Data Abstraction
    - Classes use this concept as they are defined as list of abstract variables, e.g. size, weight, cost, etc, along with methods to operate on these variables
  - Data Encapsulation
    - Encapsulation means wrapping of data and methods into a single class
- Data hiding and access mechanism
- Automatic initialization and clear-up of objects

# What You Have Learned (cont.)

## ■ Inheritance

- The objects of a class acquire the properties of another class

## ■ Polymorphism

- Different objects have the same external interface but different internal interface
- DAG

## ■ Dynamic binding

- The code associated with a given procedure call is not known until the time of its call during runtime

## ■ Dynamic initialization of variables

# Thank you for your attention!

You have successfully completed the training of "Basic Concepts of C++".

Should you have any questions or comments, send us an e-mail at [spg@st.com](mailto:spg@st.com)