



CSE 107: OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING LANGUAGE

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CLASSES

- C++ Classes are the logical abstraction or model of C++ Objects
- A Class declaration defines a new type
- It determines what an object of that type will look like
- It determines the nature of the data and functions of that type
- Classes must be defined before creating the objects, i.e., objects cannot be created without the classes
- Definition of a class does not create any physical objects rather a logical abstraction

CLASSES

- General syntax -

```
class class-name
{
    // private functions and variables
public:
    // public functions and variables
} object-list (optional);
```

CLASSES

- Member access specifiers
 - public:
 - can be accessed outside the class directly
 - The public stuff is *the interface*
 - private:
 - Accessible only to member functions of class
 - Private members and methods are for internal use only

CLASSES

```
class Rectangle{  
    int x, y;  
public:  
    void set_values (int,int);  
    int area() {return (x*y);}  
};  
  
void Rectangle::set_values (int a, int b) {  
    x = a;  
    y = b;  
}
```

CLASSES

```
class Circle{
    double radius;
public:
    void setRadius(double r) {radius = r;}
    double getDiameter() { return radius *2;}
    double getArea();
    double getCircumference();
};
double Circle::getArea()
{
    return radius * radius * (22.0/7);
}
double Circle:: getCircumference()
{
    return 2 * radius * (22.0/7);
}
```

CLASSES

- General syntax -

```
class class-name
{
    // private functions and variables
public:
    // public functions and variables
} object-list (optional);
```

CLASSES

- Member access specifiers
 - public:
 - Can be accessed outside the class directly
 - The public stuff is *the interface*
 - private:
 - Accessible only to member functions of class
 - Private members and methods are for internal use only

CLASSES

```
class Rectangle{  
    int height, width;  
public:  
    void set_values (int,int);  
    int area() {return (height*width);}  
};
```

```
void Rectangle::set_values (int a, int b) {  
    height = a;  
    width = b;  
}
```

CLASSES

```
class Circle{
    double radius;
public:
    void setRadius(double r) {radius = r;}
    double getDiameter() { return radius *2;}
    double getArea();
    double getCircumference();
};
double Circle::getArea()
{
    return radius * radius * (22.0/7);
}
double Circle:: getCircumference()
{
    return 2 * radius * (22.0/7);
}
```

C++ OBJECTS

- C++ Classes are used as the type specifier to create C++ Objects

Rectangle recta, rectb;

- An object declaration creates a physical entity of its class type, i.e., occupies memory space class type
- Each object has its own copy of data

C++ OBJECTS

```
int main () {  
  
    Rectangle recta, rectb;  
    recta.set_values (3,4);  
    rectb.set_values (5,6);  
  
    cout << "recta area: " << recta.area() << endl;  
    cout << "rectb area: " << rectb.area() << endl;  
  
    recta.height=5;  
  
    // Not possible, height is a private member  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

USING NEW AND DELETE

- C++ introduces two operators for dynamically allocating and deallocating memory
- **p_var = new type //type *p_var;**
 - new returns a pointer to dynamically allocated memory that is sufficient to hold a data of type
- **delete p_var**
 - releases the memory previously allocated by new
- Memory allocated by new must be released using delete

USING NEW AND DELETE

- In case of insufficient memory, *new* can report failure in two ways
 - By returning a null pointer
 - By generating an exception
- The reaction of *new* in this case varies from compiler to compiler

USING NEW AND DELETE

○ Advantages

- Automatically allocates enough memory to hold an object of the specified type, do not need to use sizeof operator
- Automatically returns a pointer of the specified type, do not to use an explicit type cast
- Both new and delete can be overloaded
- In case of objects, new dynamically allocates the object and calls its constructor
- In case of objects, delete calls the destructor of the object

CONSTRUCTOR

- Special member function
 - Public function member
 - Same name as class
 - No return type

- Indicate parameters in prototype:

Rectangle(double, double);

- Use parameters in the definition:

```
Rectangle::Rectangle(int a, int b){  
    height = a;  
    width = b;  
}
```

- Declare objects with parameters

Rectangle r(10, 5);

CONSTRUCTOR

- Automatically called when a new object is created (instantiated)
- Initialize data members
- Several constructors
 - Function overloading

Rectangle();

Rectangle(int);

Rectangle(int, int);

DEFAULT CONSTRUCTOR

- A constructor function with no parameter
`Rectangle();`
- Supplied by the compiler automatically if no constructor is defined by the programmer
 - Does not initialize the member variables to any default value
 - Contain garbage value after creation

CONSTRUCTOR

```
class Circle{  
    double radius;  
public:  
    Circle() { radius = 0.0;}  
    Circle(int r);  
    void setRadius(double r) {radius = r;}  
    double getDiameter() {return radius *2;}  
    double getArea();  
    double getCircumference();  
};
```

CONSTRUCTOR

```
Circle::Circle(int r)
{
    radius = r;
}
double Circle::getArea()
{
    return radius * radius * (22.0/7);
}
double Circle:: getCircumference()
{
    return 2 * radius * (22.0/7);
}
```

CONSTRUCTOR

```
int main()
{
    Circle c1, c2(7);

    c1.setRadius(5);

    cout<<"The area of c1:"<<c1.getArea()<<"\n";

    cout<<"The circumference of c1:"<< c1.getCircumference()<<"\n";

    cout<<"The Diameter of c2:"<<c2.getDiameter()<<"\n";

    return 0;
}
```

DESTRUCTOR

- Special member function
 - Public function member
 - Same name as class
 - Preceded with tilde (~),
 - e.g., `~Rectangle() { cout << "Destructor"; }`
 - No arguments
 - No return value
- Automatically called by the compiler when an object is destroyed
- Mainly used to de-allocate dynamic memory locations
- Cannot be overloaded

CONSTRUCTOR AND DESTRUCTOR

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

class Rectangle {
    int *width, *height;
public:
    Rectangle(int, int);
    ~Rectangle ();
    int area () {return (*width * *height);}
};

Rectangle::Rectangle (int a, int b) {
    width= new int;
    height = new int;
    *width = a;
    *height = b;
}
```

CONSTRUCTOR AND DESTRUCTOR

```
Rectangle::~~Rectangle () {  
    delete width;  
    delete height;  
}
```

```
int main () {  
    Rectangle recta (3,4), rectb (5,6);  
    cout << "recta area: " << recta.area() << endl;  
    cout << "rectb area: " << rectb.area() << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```


CONSTRUCTOR AND DESTRUCTOR

- For global objects, an object's constructor is called once, when the program first begins execution
- For local objects, the constructor is called each time the declaration statement is executed
- Local objects are destroyed when they go out of scope
- Global objects are destroyed when the program ends

OBJECT POINTER

- It is possible to access a member of an object via **a pointer to that object**
- Creation of an object pointer does not create an object
- We can take the address of objects using the address operator (&) and store it in object pointers
 - **A ob; A *p = &ob;**
- We have to use the arrow (->) operator instead of the dot (.) operator while accessing a member through an object pointer
 - **p->f1();** *// let f1 is public in A*
- Pointer arithmetic using an object pointer is the same as it is for any other data type
 - When incremented, it points to the next object
 - When decremented, it points to the previous object

OBJECT POINTER

```
int main () {  
    Rectangle a, *b, *c;  
  
    b= new Rectangle;  
    c= &a;  
  
    a.set_values (1,2);  
    b->set_values (3,4);  
  
    cout << "a area: " << a.area() << endl;  
    cout << "*b area: " << b->area() << endl;  
    cout << "*c area: " << c->area() << endl;  
  
    delete b;  
    return 0;  
}
```

ASSIGNING OBJECTS

- One object can be assigned to another provided that both objects are of the same type
- It is not sufficient that the types just be physically similar – their type names must be the same
- By default, when one object is assigned to another, a bitwise copy of all the data members is made, including compound data structures like arrays
- Creates problem when member variables point to dynamically allocated memory and destructors are used to free that memory

ASSIGNING OBJECTS

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

class Rectangle {
    int width, height;
public:
    Rectangle (int,int);
    int area () {return (width*height);}
};

Rectangle::Rectangle (int a, int b) {
    width = a; height = b;
}
```

```
int main () {
    Rectangle recta (3,4);
    Rectangle rectb (5,6);

    rectb=recta;

    cout << "recta area: " << recta.area()
    << endl;
    cout << "rectb area: " << rectb.area()
    << endl;

    return 0;
}
```

ASSIGNING OBJECTS

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

class Rectangle {
    int *width, *height;
public:
    Rectangle(int, int);
    ~Rectangle ();
    int area () {return (*width * *height);}
};

Rectangle::Rectangle (int a, int b) {
    width= new int;
    height = new int;
    *width = a;
    *height = b;
}
```

ASSIGNING OBJECTS

```
Rectangle::~~Rectangle () {  
    delete width;  
    delete height;  
}
```

```
int main () {  
    Rectangle recta (3,4), rectb (5,6);  
    recta=rectb;  
    cout << "recta area: " << recta.area() << endl;  
    cout << "rectb area: " << rectb.area() << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

PASSING OBJECTS TO FUNCTIONS

- Objects can be passed to functions as arguments in just the same way that other types of data are passed
- By default all objects are passed by value to a function
- Address of an object can be sent to a function to implement call by reference
- In call by reference, as no new objects are formed, constructors and destructors are not called
- But in call by value, while making a copy, constructors are not called for the copy but destructors are called

RETURNING OBJECTS FROM FUNCTIONS

- The function must be declared as returning a class type
- When an object is returned by a function, a temporary object (invisible to us) is automatically created which holds the return value
- While making a copy, constructors are not called for the copy but destructors are called
- After the value has been returned, this object is destroyed
- The destruction of this temporary object might cause unexpected side effects in some situations

PASSING OBJECTS TO FUNCTIONS/RETURNING OBJECTS FROM FUNCTIONS

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

class Rectangle {
    int width, height;
public:
    Rectangle (int,int);
    int area () {return (width*height);}
};

Rectangle::Rectangle (int a, int b) {
    width = a; height = b;
}
```

PASSING OBJECTS TO FUNCTIONS/RETURNING OBJECTS FROM FUNCTIONS

```
Rectangle larger(Rectangle recta, Rectangle rectb){
    if(recta.area()>rectb.area())
        return recta;
    else
        return rectb;
}

int main () {
    Rectangle recta (3,4);
    Rectangle rectb (5,6);
    Rectangle rect_larger(0,0);

    rect_larger=larger(recta, rectb);

    cout << "recta area: " << recta.area() << endl;
    cout << "rectb area: " << rectb.area() << endl;
    cout << "rect_larger area: " << rect_larger.area() << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

PASSING OBJECTS TO FUNCTIONS/RETURNING OBJECTS FROM FUNCTIONS

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

class Rectangle {
    int *width, *height;
public:
    Rectangle(int, int);
    ~Rectangle ();
    int area () {return (*width * *height);}
};

Rectangle::Rectangle (int a, int b) {
    width= new int;
    height = new int;
    *width = a;
    *height = b;
}
```

PASSING OBJECTS TO FUNCTIONS/RETURNING OBJECTS FROM FUNCTIONS

```
Rectangle::~~Rectangle () {  
    delete width;  
    delete height;  
}
```

```
Rectangle larger(Rectangle recta, Rectangle rectb){  
    if(recta.area()>rectb.area())  
        return recta;  
    else  
        return rectb;  
}
```

PASSING OBJECTS TO FUNCTIONS/RETURNING OBJECTS FROM FUNCTIONS

```
int main () {  
    Rectangle recta (3,4);  
    Rectangle rectb (5,6);  
    Rectangle rect_larger(0,0);  
  
    rect_larger=larger(recta, rectb); //this will cause the program to crash  
  
    cout << "recta area: " << recta.area() << endl;  
    cout << "rectb area: " << rectb.area() << endl;  
    cout << "rect_larger area: " << rect_larger.area() << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

IN-LINE FUNCTIONS

- Functions that are not actually called but, rather, are expanded in line, at the point of each call
- Advantage
 - Have no overhead associated with the function call and return mechanism
 - Can be executed much faster than normal functions
 - Safer than parameterized macros
- Disadvantage
 - If they are too large and called too often, the program grows larger

IN-LINE FUNCTIONS

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

int main()
{
    if(even(10)) cout << "10 is even\n";
    // becomes if(!(10%2))

    if(even(11)) cout << "11 is even\n";
    // becomes if(!(11%2))

    return 0;
}
```


IN-LINE FUNCTIONS

- The **inline** specifier is a *request*, not a command, to the compiler
- Some compilers will not in-line a function if it contains
 - A **static** variable
 - A **loop**, **switch** or **goto**
 - A **return** statement
 - If the function is **recursive**

AUTOMATIC IN-LINING

- Defining a member function inside the class declaration causes the function to automatically become an in-line function
- In this case, the **inline** keyword is no longer necessary
 - However, it is not an error to use it in this situation
- Same restrictions that apply to “normal” in-line function apply to automatic in-line function

AUTOMATIC IN-LINING

```
// Automatic in-lining
class myclass
{
    int a;
public:
    myclass(int n) { a = n; }
    void set_a(int n) { a = n; }
    int get_a() { return a; }
};
```

```
// Manual in-lining
class myclass
{
    int a;
public:
    myclass(int n);
    void set_a(int n);
    int get_a();
};
inline void myclass::set_a(int n)
{
    a = n;
}
```

IN-LINE FUNCTIONS

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
inline void increment(int n) { n = n + 1; }
```

```
int main() {  
    int n = 0;  
    increment(n);  
    std::cout << "Result " << n;  
}
```

IN-LINE FUNCTIONS

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

```
inline void set(int x, int y){
    x = y;
}
```

```
int main(){
    int a = 3, b = 5;
    cout << a << " " << b << endl;
    set(a,b); //I would think this is replaced by a = b;
    cout << a << " " << b << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

FRIEND FUNCTIONS

- A friend function is not a member of a class but still has access to its private elements
- A friend function can be
 - A **global function** not related to any particular class
 - A member function of another class
- Inside the class declaration for which it will be a friend, its prototype is included, prefaced with the keyword **friend**
- Why friend functions ?
 - Operator overloading
 - Certain types of I/O operations
 - Permitting **one function to have access to the private members of two or more different classes**

FRIEND FUNCTIONS

```
class MyClass
{
    int a; // private member
public:
    MyClass(int a1) {
        a = a1;
    }
    friend void ff1(MyClass obj);
};
```

```
// friend keyword not used
void ff1(MyClass obj)
{
    cout << obj.a << endl;
    MyClass obj2(100);
    cout << obj2.a << endl;
}

int main()
{
    MyClass o1(10);
    ff1(o1);
    return 0;
}
```

FRIEND FUNCTIONS

- A friend function is not a member of the class for which it is a friend
 - `MyClass obj(10), obj2(20);`
 - `obj.ff1(obj2); // wrong, compiler error`
- Friend functions need to access the members (private, public or protected) of a class through an object of that class
 - The object can be declared within or passed to the friend function
- A member function can directly access class members
- A function can be a member of one class and a friend of another

FRIEND FUNCTIONS

```
class YourClass; // a forward declaration
```

```
class MyClass {  
    int a; // private member  
public:  
    MyClass(int a1) { a = a1; }  
    friend int compare (MyClass obj1,  
                        YourClass obj2);  
};
```

```
class YourClass {  
    int a; // private member  
public:  
    YourClass(int a1) { a = a1; }
```

```
friend int compare (MyClass obj1,  
                    YourClass obj2);  
};
```

```
int main() {  
    MyClass o1(10); YourClass o2(5);  
    int n = compare(o1, o2); // n = 5  
    return 0;  
}
```

```
int compare (MyClass obj1, YourClass obj2)  
{  
    return (obj1.a - obj2.a);  
}
```

FRIEND FUNCTIONS // MAKING A FUNCTION OF OTHER CLASS A FRIEND

```
class YourClass; // a forward declaration
```

```
class MyClass {  
    int a; // private member  
public:  
    MyClass(int a1) { a = a1; }  
    int compare (YourClass obj);  
};
```

```
class YourClass {  
    int a; // private member  
public:  
    YourClass(int a1) { a = a1; }  
    friend int MyClass::compare (YourClass  
obj);  
};
```

```
int MyClass::compare (YourClass obj) {  
    return (a - obj.a);  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    MyClass o1(10); Yourclass o2(5);  
    int n = o1.compare(o2); // n = 5  
    return 0;  
}
```

ARRAYS OF OBJECTS

- Arrays of objects of class can be declared just like other variables
 - `class A{ ... };`
 - `A ob[4];`
 - `ob[0].f1();` *// let f1 is public in A*
 - `ob[3].x = 3;` *// let x is public in A*
- In this example, all the objects of the array are initialized using the default constructor of **A**

ARRAYS OF OBJECTS

- If a class type includes a constructor, an array of objects can be initialized
- Initializing array elements with the constructor taking an integer argument
 - *`class A{ public: int a; A(int n) { a = n; } };`*
 - *`A ob[2] = { A(-1), A(-2) };`*
 - *`A ob2[2][2] = { A(-1), A(-2), A(-3), A(-4) };`*
- In this case, the following shorthand form can also be used
 - *`A ob[2] = { -1, -2 };`*

ARRAYS OF OBJECTS

- If a constructor takes **two or more arguments**, then only the longer form can be used
 - *class A{ public: int a, b; A(int n, int m) { a = n; b = m; } };*
 - *A ob[2] = { A(1, 2), A(3, 4) };*
 - *Aob2[2][2] = { A(1, 1), A(2, 2), A(3, 3), A(4, 4) };*

ARRAYS OF OBJECTS

- We can also mix no argument, one argument and multi-argument constructor calls in a single array declaration.

```
class A
{
    public:
        A() { ... } // must be present for this example to be
compiled
        A(int n) { ... }
        A(int n, int m) { ... }
};
A ob[3] = { A(), A(1), A(2, 3) };
```

ARRAYS OF OBJECTS (PRACTICE)

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class Circle{
    double radius;
    double x;
    double y;
public:
    Circle(double r){radius=r; x=0; y=0;}
    Circle(double r, double c1, double c2)
    {radius=r; x=c1; y=c2;}

    double area(){return 3.14*radius*radius;}
}
```

```
int main(){

    Circle crls1[2]={7.44, 3.65};

    Circle crls2[2]={Circle(7.44, 0.0, 0.0),
                    Circle(3.65, 0.5, 2.5)};

    return 0;
}
```

THIS POINTER

- A special pointer in C++ that points to the object that generates the call to the method
- The compiler automatically adds a parameter whose type is “pointer to an object of the class” in every non-static member function of the class
 - *class A{ public: void f1() { ... } };*
 - *class A{ public: void f1(**A *this**) { ... } };*
- It also automatically calls the member function with the address of the object through which the function is invoked
 - *A ob; ob.f1();*
 - *A ob; ob.f1(**&ob**);*

THIS POINTER

- It is through this pointer that every non-static member function knows which object's members should be used

```
class A
{
    int x;
public:
    void f1()
    {
        x = 0; // this->x = 0;
    }
};
```

THIS POINTER

- this pointer is generally used to access member variables that have been hidden by local variables having the same name inside a member function

```
class A{  
    int x;  
public:  
    A(int x) {  
        x = x; // only copies local 'x' to itself; the member 'x' remains uninitialized  
        this->x = x; // now its ok  
    }  
};
```

MORE ABOUT NEW AND DELETE

- Dynamically allocated objects can be given initial values
 - `int *p = new int;`
 - Dynamically allocates memory to store an integer value which contains garbage value
 - `int *p = new int(10);`
 - Dynamically allocates memory to store an integer value and initializes that memory to 10
 - *Note the use of parenthesis () while supplying initial values*

MORE ABOUT NEW AND DELETE

- `class A{ int x; public: A(int n) { x = n; } };`
 - `A *p = new A(10);`
 - Dynamically allocates memory to store a A object and calls the constructor A(int n) for this object which initializes x to 10
 - `A *p = new A;`
 - It will produce **compiler error** because in this example class A does not have a default constructor

MORE ABOUT NEW AND DELETE

- We can also create dynamically allocated arrays using `new`
- But deleting a dynamically allocated array needs a slight change in the use of `delete`
- It is not possible to initialize an array that is dynamically allocated
 - `int *a= new int[10];`
 - Creates an array of 10 integers
 - All integers contain garbage values
 - *Note the use of square brackets []*
 - `delete [] a;`
 - Delete the entire array pointed by `a`
 - *Note the use of square brackets []*

MORE ABOUT NEW AND DELETE

- We can also create dynamically allocated arrays using `new`
- But deleting a dynamically allocated array needs a slight change in the use of `delete`
- It is not possible to initialize an array that is dynamically allocated
 - `int *a= new int[10];`
 - Creates an array of 10 integers
 - All integers contain garbage values
 - *Note the use of square brackets []*
 - `delete [] a;`
 - Delete the entire array pointed by `a`
 - *Note the use of square brackets []*

MORE ABOUT NEW AND DELETE

- It is not possible to initialize an array that is dynamically allocated
- In order to create an array of objects of a class, the class must have a default constructor

```
class A {  
    int x;  
public:  
    A(int n) { x = n; } };  
  
A *array = new A[10];  
// compiler error
```

```
class A {  
    int x;  
public:  
    A() { x = 0; }  
    A(int n) { x = n; } };  
A *array = new A[10]; // no error  
// use array  
delete [ ] array;
```

MORE ABOUT NEW AND DELETE

- **A *array = new A[10];**
 - The default constructor is called for all the objects.
- **delete [] array;**
 - Destructor is called for all the objects present in the array.

REFERENCES

- A reference is an **implicit pointer**
- Acts like another name for a variable
- Can be used in three ways
 - A reference can be passed to a function
 - **A reference can be returned by a function**
 - An independent reference can be created
- Reference variables are declared using the & symbol
 - **void f(int &n);**
- Unlike pointers, once a reference becomes associated with a variable, it cannot refer to other variables

REFERENCES

- Using pointer -

```
void f(int *n) {  
    *n = 100;  
}  
int main() {  
    int i = 0;  
    f(&i);  
    cout << i; // 100  
    return 0;  
}
```

- Using reference -

```
void f(int &n) {  
    n = 100;  
}  
int main() {  
    int i = 0;  
    f(i);  
    cout << i; // 100  
    return 0;  
}
```

REFERENCES

- A reference parameter fully automates the call-by-reference parameter passing mechanism
 - No need to use the address operator (&) while calling a function taking reference parameter
 - Inside a function that takes a reference parameter, the passed variable can be accessed without using the indirection operator (*)

REFERENCES (PRACTICE)

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void swapargs (int x, int y){
    int t;
    t=x;x=y;y=t;
}
int main(){
    int i, j;
    i=20; j=40;
    cout<<"i="<<i<<" "<<j<<endl;
    swapargs(i,j);
    cout<<"i="<<i<<" "<<j<<endl;
    return 0;
}
```

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void swapargs (int *x, int *y){
    int t;
    t=*x;*x=*y;*y=t;
}
int main(){
    int i, j;
    i=20; j=40;
    cout<<"i="<<i<<" "<<j<<endl;
    swapargs(&i,&j);
    cout<<"i="<<i<<" "<<j<<endl;
    return 0;
}
```

REFERENCES (PRACTICE)

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void swapargs (int *x, int *y){
    int t;
    t=*x;*x=*y;*y=t;
}
int main(){
    int i, j;
    i=20; j=40;
    cout<<"i="<<i<<" "<<j<<endl;
    swapargs(&i,&j);
    cout<<"i="<<i<<" "<<j<<endl;
    return 0;
}
```

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void swapargs (int &x, int &y){
    int t;
    t=x;x=y;y=t;
}
int main(){
    int i, j;
    i=20; j=40;
    cout<<"i="<<i<<" "<<j<<endl;
    swapargs(i,j);
    cout<<"i="<<i<<" "<<j<<endl;
    return 0;
}
```

PASSING REFERENCES TO OBJECTS

- We can pass objects to functions using references
- No copy is made, destructor is not called when the function ends
- As reference is not a pointer, we use the dot operator (.) to access members through an object reference

PASSING REFERENCES TO OBJECTS

```
class myclass {  
    int x;  
public:  
    myclass() {  
        x = 0;  
        cout << "Constructing\n";  
    }  
    ~myclass() {  
        cout << "Destructing\n";  
    }  
    void setx(int n) { x = n; }  
    int getx() { return x; }  
};
```

```
void f(myclass &o) {  
    o.setx(500);  
}  
int main() {  
    myclass obj;  
    cout << obj.getx() << endl;  
    f(obj);  
    cout << obj.getx() << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

Output:
Constructing
0
500
Destructing

RETURNING REFERENCES

- A function can return a reference
- Allows a functions to be used on the left side of an assignment statement
- But, the object or variable whose reference is returned must not go out of scope
- So, we should not return the reference of a local variable
 - For the same reason, it is not a good practice to return the pointer (address) of a local variable from a function

RETURNING REFERENCES

```
int x; // global variable
int &f() {
    return x;
}

int main() {
    x = 1;
    cout << x << endl;
    f() = 100;
    cout << x << endl;
    x = 2;
    cout << f() << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

1
100
2

REFERENCES

○ Advantages

- The address is automatically passed
- Reduces use of ‘&’ and ‘*’
- When objects are passed to functions using references, no copy is made
 - Hence destructors are not called when the functions ends
 - Eliminates the troubles associated with multiple destructor calls for the same object

INDEPENDENT REFERENCES

- Simply another name for another variable
- Must be initialized when it is declared
 - `int &ref; // compiler error`
 - `int x = 5; int &ref = x; // ok`
 - `ref = 100;`
 - `cout << x; // prints "100"`
- An independent reference can refer to a constant
 - `int &ref=10; // compile error`
 - `const int &ref = 10;`

RESTRICTIONS

- We cannot reference another reference
 - Doing so just becomes a reference of the original variable
- We cannot obtain the address of a reference
 - Doing so returns the address of the original variable
 - Memory allocated for references are hidden from the programmer by the compiler
- We cannot create arrays of references
- We cannot reference a bit-field
- References must be initialized unless they are members of a class, are return values, or are function parameters



Acknowledgement

<http://faizulbari.buet.ac.bd/Courses.html>

<http://mhkabir.buet.ac.bd/cse201/index.html>

THE END

Topic Covered: Chapters 2 (2.1, 2.2, 2.4, 2.6, 2.7), 3, 4