

C++ Programming Basics

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Overview of the Lecture

- Writing a Basic C++ Program
- Understanding Errors
- Comments, Keywords, Identifiers, Variables
- Control Structures
- Functions in C++
- Classes and Objects
- Arrays
- Inheritance
- Pointers
- Working with Files

All the concepts are accompanied by examples.

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C++ Programming Language

- C++ is a low-level, **Object-Oriented Programming** (OOP) language
- It is a superset of C programming language (not in true mathematical sense) and therefore supports **procedural programming** as well
- It has the provision of templates and hence supports **generic programming** too – more on this later

Summary of OOP Concepts

- Some basic concepts of OOP:
 - **Classes** are user-defined data types that hold data and methods
 - **Objects** are variables of type class
 - **Encapsulation** is wrapping up data and methods into a class
 - **Inheritance** is a process by which objects of one class acquire the properties of another class
 - **Polymorphism** helps in allowing objects having different internal structures share the same external interface

How to Create a C++ Program?

- Have an idea about what to program
- Write the source code using an editor or an Integrated Development Environment (IDE)
- Compile the source code and link the program by using the C++ compiler
- Fix errors, if any
- Run the program and test it
- Fix bugs, if any

Write the Source Code: firstCode.cc

```
#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

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

Write the Source Code: firstCode.cc

Preprocessor directive

*Name of the standard header
file to be included is specified
within angular brackets*

```
#include <iostream>
```

Required for resolving cout

```
using namespace std;
```

Function's return type

*Function name is followed by parentheses
– they can be empty when no arguments
are passed*

```
int main() {
```

*Output stream object for displaying information on the screen,
belongs to the namespace std, notice the insertion operator <<*

```
    cout << "Introduction to C++" << endl;
```

Keyword, command for returning function value

```
    return 0;
```

*The contents of the functions are placed
inside the curly braces*

```
}
```

Text strings are specified within "", every statement is terminated by ;

Namespaces

- Namespaces are used to group classes, objects and functions under a particular name – keyword **namespace**
- Helpful in creating “sub-scopes” with their own names
- Especially useful to avoid redefinition errors
- Keyword **using** is used to introduce a name from a namespace into the current declarative region
- Example:

```
using namespace std;
```

Save-Compile-Link-Run

- Save your program (source code) in a file having a “cc” extension.

Example, `firstCode.cc`

- Compile and Link your code (linking is done automatically by the `icc` compiler)

```
icpc -o firstCode firstCode.cc
```

- Run the program

```
./firstCode
```

Repeat the steps above every time you fix an error!

Different Compilers

- Different commands for different compilers (*e.g.*, **icpc** for intel compiler and **pgcpp** for pgi compiler)
 - GNU C program
g++ -o firstCode firstCode.cc
 - Intel C program
icpc -o firstcode firstCode.cc
 - PGI C program
pgcpp -o firstCode firstCode.cc
- To see a list of compiler options, their syntax, and a terse explanation, execute the compiler command with the -help or --help option

Summary of C++ Language Components Discussed So Far

- Keywords and rules to use the keywords
- Standard header files containing functions and objects like `cout`
- Preprocessor directives for including the standard header files
- Parentheses and braces for grouping together statements and parts of programs
- Punctuation like `;`
- Operators like `<<`
- All the above (and more that we would discuss later) make-up the syntax of C++

Pop-Quiz

(add the missing components)

```
_____ <iostream>

using namespace std;

int main()__

    cout << "Introduction to C++" << endl;

    cout << "Enjoy the Quiz" << endl;

    return 0;

_____
```

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Warnings, Errors and Bugs

- Compile-time warnings
 - Diagnostic messages
- Compile-time errors
 - Typographical errors: `cuot` , `$include`
- Link-time errors
 - Missing modules or library files
- Run-time errors
 - Null pointer assignment
- Bugs
 - Unintentional functionality

Find the Error: myError.cc

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    cout << "Find the error" << endl
    retrun 0;
}
```


Error Message

(compile-time error)

```
login4$ g++ -o myError myError.cc
myError.cc: In function `int main()':
myError.cc:7: error: expected `;' before
"retrun"
```

```
login4$ icpc -o myError myError.cc
myError.cc(7): error: expected a ";"
    retrun 0;
    ^
```

```
compilation aborted for myError.cc (code 2)
```

Find the Error: myError.cc

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    cout << "Find the error" << endl;
    retrun 0;
}
```

Error Message

(compile-time error)

```
login4$ g++ -o myError3 myError3.cc  
myError3.cc: In function `int main()':  
myError3.cc:7: error: `retrun' was not  
declared in this scope  
myError3.cc:7: error: expected `;' before  
numeric constant
```

Find the Error: myError2.cc

```
#include < iostream >
using namespace std;
int main(){
    cout << "Find the error" << endl;
    retrun 0;
}
```

Error Message

(compile-time error)

```
login4$ g++ -o myError2 myError2.cc
myError2.cc:1:22: iostream : No such file or directory
myError2.cc: In function `int main()':
myError2.cc:6: error: `cout' was not declared in this
scope
myError2.cc:6: error: `endl' was not declared in this
scope
```

```
login4$ icpc -o myError2 myError2.cc
myError2.cc(1): catastrophic error: could not open
source file " iostream "
    #include < iostream >
                ^
```

```
compilation aborted for myError2.cc (code 4)
```

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Comments and New Line: rules.cc

```
/*  
 * rules.c  
 * this is a multi-line comment  
 */  
  
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std;  
  
int main() {  
    cout << "Braces come in pairs.";  
    cout << "Comments come in pairs.";  
    cout << "All statements end with semicolon.";  
    cout << "Every program has a main function.";  
    return 0;  
}
```

Output of rules.cc

Braces come in pairs. Comments come in pairs. All statements end with a semicolon. Every program must have a main function.

Output looks odd! We want to see a new line of text for every `cout` statement.

Comments and New Line: rules.cc

```
/*  
 * rules.cc  
 * this is a multi-line comment  
 */  
  
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std;  
  
int main() {  
    /* notice the usage of endl - \n can also be used */  
    cout << "Braces come in pairs." << endl;  
    cout << "Comments come in pairs." << endl;  
    cout << "All statements end with semicolon." << endl;  
    cout << "Every program has a main function." << endl;  
    return 0;  
}  
  
//this is how single line comments are specified
```

Output of rules.c

Braces come in pairs.

Comments come in pairs.

All statements end with a semicolon.

Every program must have a main function.

The output looks better now!

Some C++ Language Keywords

Category	Keywords
Storage class specifiers	<code>auto register static extern typedef</code>
Structure & union specifiers	<code>struct union</code>
Enumerations	<code>enum</code>
Type-Specifiers	<code>char double float int long short signed unsigned void</code>
Access-Specifiers	<code>private protected public</code>
Type-Qualifier	<code>const volatile</code>
Control structures	<code>if else do while for break continue switch case default return goto</code>
Operator	<code>sizeof operator</code>
Other reserved C++ words	<code>asm bool friend inline new delete try catch throw class this template virtual this</code>

Variables

- Information-storage places
- Compiler makes room for them in the computer's memory
- Can contain string, characters, numbers *etc.*
- Their values can change during program execution
- All variables should be declared before they are used and should have a data type associated with them

Data Types

- Data types tell about the type of data that a variable holds
- Categories of data types are:
 - Built-in: **char double float long short signed unsigned void int**
 - User-defined: **struct union class enum**
 - Derived: **array function pointer**
- We have already seen an example code in which an integer data type was used to return value from a function: **int main()**
- Compiler-dependent range of values associated with each type
 - Example: an integer can have a value in the range
 - **-32768 to 32767** on a 16-bit computer or
 - **-2147483647 to 2147483647** on a 32-bit computer

Identifiers

- Each variable needs an identifier (or a name) that distinguishes it from other variables
- A valid identifier is a sequence of one or more alphabets, digits or underscore characters
- Keywords cannot be used as identifiers

Variable Declaration

- Declaration is a statement that defines a variable
- Variable declaration includes the specification of data type and an identifier. Example:

```
int number1;
```

```
float number2;
```

- Multiple variables can be declared in the same statement

```
int x, y, z;
```

- Variables can be signed or unsigned
- Signed types can represent both positive and negative values, whereas unsigned types can only represent positive values

```
signed double temperature;
```

Reading Keyboard Input: readInput1.cc

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    int number1;
    int number2;
    int sum;
    cout << "Enter first integer: ";
    cin >> number1;
    cout << "Enter the second integer: ";
    cin >> number2;
    sum = number1 + number2;
    cout << "The sum of two numbers is: " << sum << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

Output

```
Enter first integer: 1
Enter the second integer: 2
Sum of two numbers is: 3
```


Understanding readInput1.cc

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    int number1;
    int number2;
    int sum;
    cout << "Enter first integer: ";
    cin >> number1;
    cout << "Enter the second integer: ";
    cin >> number2;
    sum = number1 + number2;
    cout << "Sum of two numbers is: " << sum << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

This is a **variable declaration**. It provides storage for the information you enter.

This is input statement that causes the program to wait till the input is entered

cin is the predefined object in C++ that corresponds to the standard input stream and **>>** operator is extraction operator

Variable Initialization

- A variable can be assigned value at the time of its declaration by using assignment operator or by constructor initialization

```
int x = 10;
```

```
int x (0) ;
```

- More examples

```
int x = 10;
```

```
char x = 'a' ;
```

```
double x = 22250738585072014.e23;
```

```
float x = 10.11;
```

- **void** cannot be used to declare a regular variable but can be used as a return type of a function or as an argument of a function
- Variables can also be assigned values as : **cin >> myName ;**

Scope of Variables

- A variable can be either of global or local scope
 - Global variables are defined outside all functions and they can be accessed and used by all functions in a program file
 - A local variable can be accessed only by the function in which it's created
- A local variable can be further qualified as **static**, in which case, it remains in existence rather than coming and going each time a function is called
 - **static int x = 0;**
- A **register** type of variable is placed in the machine registers for faster access – compilers can ignore this advice
 - **register int x;**

Constants and Constant Expressions

- The value of a constant never changes
 - `const double e = 2.71828182;`
- Macros
 - `#define MAXRECORDS 100`
 - In the code, identifiers (`MAXRECORDS`) are replaced with the values (`100`)
 - Helps to avoid hard-coding of values at multiple places
- Expressions containing constants are evaluated at compile-time
 - Example: `char records[MAXRECORDS + 1];`
 - Can be used at any place where constants can be used
- Enumeration is a list of constant values
 - `enum boolean {NO, YES};`

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All the concepts are accompanied by examples.

Some Operators Common in C & C++

- Arithmetic: `+, -, /, *, %, ++, --, =`
- Relational: `a == b, a != b, a > b, a < b, a >= b, a <= b`
- Logical: `!a, a && b, a || b`
- Member
and Pointer: `a[], *a, &a, a->b, a.b`
- Others: **`sizeof`**
- Bitwise: `~a, a&b, a|b, a^b, a<<b, a>>b`

- More about operators and precedence:

<http://www.cplusplus.com/doc/tutorial/operators/>

Parentheses and Precedence:

checkParentheses.cc

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main(){
    int total;
    //multiplication has higher precedence than subtraction
    total=100-25*2;
    cout << "The total is: " << total << endl;
    //parentheses make a lot of difference!
    total=(100-25)*2;
    cout << "The total is: " << total << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

The total is: \$50

The total is: \$150

Operators in C++ But Not in C

- Scope resolution operator **::**
- Pointer-to-member declarator **::***
- Pointer-to-member operator **->***
- Pointer-to-member operator **.***
- Memory Release operator **delete**
- Line feed operator **endl**
- Memory allocation operator **new**
- Field width operator **setw**
- Insertion operator **<<**
- Extraction operator **>>**

Operator Overloading

- C++ allows to provide new definitions to some of the built-in operators
- This is called **operator overloading**.
- Example, the built-in definition of **<<** operator is for shifting bits but it is overloaded in **iostream.h** to display values of various data types

Using **sizeof** & **::** operator: testSize.cc

```
#include <iostream>

int main() {
    char c;
    int x;
    std::cout << "Size of c is: " << sizeof(c) << " bytes.\n";
    std::cout << "Size of x is: " << sizeof(x) << " bytes.\n";
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

```
Size of c is 1 bytes
Size of x is 4 bytes
```

Using **sizeof** & **::** operator: testSize.cc

```
#include <iostream>
```

Note: using namespace std; is missing

```
int main() {
```

```
    char c;
```

```
    int x;
```

Note: std::cout is used instead of cout

```
    std::cout << "Size of c is: " << sizeof(c) << " bytes.\n";
```

```
    std::cout << "Size of x is: " << sizeof(x) << " bytes.\n";
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

Note: sizeof operator is useful for finding byte sizes of variables

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Control Structures

- **Sequence Structure** is a sequence of statements
- **Selection Structure** used for branching
- **Loop Structure** used for iteration or repetition

Conditional Expressions

- Use **if-else** or ternary operator (**? :**)

```
if (a > b) {  
    z = a;  
} else {  
    z = b;  
}
```

```
z = (a > b) ? a : b ; //z = max (a, b)
```

If-else: Logical Expressions

```
if(temp > 75 && temp < 80) {  
    cout << "It's nice weather outside\n";  
}
```

```
if (value == 'e' || value == 'n' ) {  
    cout << "Exiting the program.\n";  
} else {  
    cout << "\nIn the program.\n";  
}
```

Decision Making, Multi-Way Decisions

- Decisions are expressed by **if-else** where the **else** part is optional

```
if (expression)
    statement1
else
    statement2
```

- Multi-way decisions are expressed using **else-if** statements

```
if (expression1)
    statement1
else if (expression2)
    statement2
else
    statement3
```


Multi-Way Decision

- The **switch** statement is a multi-way decision
- It tests whether an expression matches one of a number of constant integer values, and branches accordingly

```
switch (expression) {  
    case const-expression1: statements1  
    case const-expression2: statements2  
    default: statements3  
}
```

Multi-Way Decision Example: multiWay1.cc

```
char c;  
//other code  
cin >> c ;  
if(c == '1')  
    cout << "Beverage\nThat will be $8.00\n";  
else if(c == '2')  
    cout << "Candy\nThat will be $5.50\n";  
else if(c == '3')  
    cout << "Hot dog\nThat will be $10.00\n";  
else if(c == '4')  
    cout << "Popcorn\nThat will be $7.50\n" ;  
else{  
    cout << "That is not a proper selection.\n";  
    cout << "I'll assume you're just not hungry.\n";  
    cout << "Can I help whoever's next?\n";  
}
```

←--- the character read from the keyboard is stored in variable c

←--- If multiple statements depend upon a condition, use { }

//This is just a code snippet. For complete program, see file multiWay1.cc

Output of multiWay1.cc

Please make your treat selection:

1 - Beverage.

2 - Candy.

3 - Hot dog.

4 - Popcorn.

3 <enter>

Your choice: Hot dog

That will be \$10.00

Multi-Way Decision Example: multiWay2.cc

```
cin >> c;
switch(c){
case '1':
    cout << "Beverage\nThat will be $8.00\n";
    break;    ←--- Note the usage of break
case '2':
    cout << "Candy\nThat will be $5.50\n";
    break;
case '3':
    cout << "Hot dog\nThat will be $10.00\n";
    break;
case '4':
    cout << "Popcorn\nThat will be $7.50\n";
    break;
default:    ←--- Note the default case without break
    cout << "That is not a proper selection.\n";
    cout << "I'll assume you're just not hungry.\n";
    cout << "Can I help whoever's next?\n";
}
```

//This is just a code snippet. For complete program, see file multiWay2.c

Loops

- For repeating a sequence of steps/statements
- The statements in a loop are executed a specific number of times, or until a certain condition is met
- Three types of loops
 - **for**
 - **while**
 - **do-while**

for Loop

```
for (start_value; end_condition; stride)  
    statement;
```

```
for (start_value; end_condition; stride) {  
    statement1;  
    statement2;  
    statement3;  
}
```

for Loop Example: forLoop.cc

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    int i;
    for(i= 0; i<=10; i=i+2) {
        cout << "What a wonderful class!\n";
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

```
What a wonderful class!
What a wonderful class!
What a wonderful class!
What a wonderful class!
What a wonderful class!
What a wonderful class!
```

while Loop

- The while loop can be used if you don't know how many times a loop should run

```
while (condition_is_true){  
    statement (s) ;  
}
```

- The statements in the loop are executed till the loop condition is true
- The condition that controls the loop can be modified inside the loop (this is true in the case of **for** loops too!)

while Loop Example: whileLoop.cc

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main(){
    int counter, value;
    value = 5;
    counter = 0;
    while ( counter < value){
        counter++;
        cout << "counter value is: " << counter << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

```
counter value is: 1
counter value is: 2
counter value is: 3
counter value is: 4
counter value is: 5
```

do-while Loop

- This loop is guaranteed to execute at least once

```
do {  
    statement (s) ;  
}  
while (condition_is_true) ;
```

do-while Example: doWhile.cc

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    int counter, value;
    value = 5;
    counter = 0;
    do{
        counter++;
        cout << "counter value is: " << counter << endl;
    }while ( counter < value);←-- Note the ; at end of loop
    return 0;
}
```

Output same as that of the **while** loop program shown earlier

Keyword: **break**

- **break** is the keyword used to stop the loop in which it is present

```
for(i = 10; i > 0; i = i-1) {  
    cout << i << endl;  
    if (i < 5) {  
        break;  
    }  
}
```

Output:

```
10  
9  
8  
7  
6  
5  
4
```

`continue` Keyword : myContinue.cc

- `continue` is used to skip the rest of the commands in the loop and start from the top again
- The loop variable must still be incremented though

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    int i;
    i = 0;
    while ( i < 20 ) {
        i++;
        continue;
        cout << "Nothing to see\n";
    }
    return 0;
}
```

The `cout` statement is skipped, therefore no output on screen.

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Functions in C++ Language

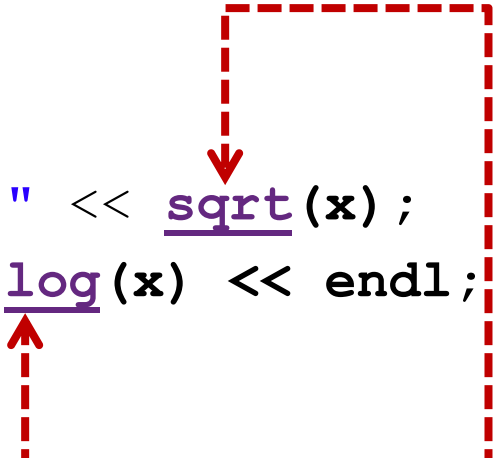
- Functions are self-contained blocks of statements that perform a specific task
- Written once and can be used multiple times
 - Promote code reuse
 - Make code maintenance easy
- Two types of functions
 - Standard Library
 - User-Defined
- Like operators, C++ functions can be overloaded too

Standard Functions

- These functions are provided to the user in library files
- In order to use the functions, the user should include the appropriate library files containing the function definition
- For example, following functions are available through the math library named `<cmath>`
 - `ceil(x)`
 - `cos(x)`
 - `exp(x)`
 - `log(x)`
 - `floor(x)`
- All these functions take double values

Standard Function Example: mathExample1.cc

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cmath> ←--- Note that the math library is included
using namespace std;
int main() {
    double x = 0;
    cout << "Enter a double value\n";
    cin >> x;
    cout << "Square root of " << x << " is " << sqrt(x) ;
    cout << "\nLog of " << x << " is " << log(x) << endl;
    return 0;
}
```



Output

```
Enter a double value
2.0
Square root of 2 is 1.41421
Log of 2 is 0.693147
```

*Standard functions available
through math library*

User-Defined Function: myFunction1.cc

```
#include <iostream>

using namespace std;----- Defining the function add
-->void add() {                                that does not return any
    int a, b, c;                               value - void
    cout << "\n Enter Any 2 Numbers : ";
    cin >> a >> b;
    c = a + b;
    cout << "\n Addition is : " << c;
}

int main() {
    add(); <----- Invoking the function add twice
    add(); <-----
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

```
Enter Any 2 Numbers : 1 2
Addition is : 3
Enter Any 2 Numbers : 4 5
Addition is : 9
```

Function Prototype: myPrototype.cc

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

Function Prototype or Declaration:

```
void add();
```

←--- useful when the function is invoked before its definition is provided

```
int main() {
    add();
    add();
    return 0;
}
```

←--- Invoking the function add

←-----

```
void add() {
    int a, b, c;
    cout << "\n Enter Any 2 Numbers : ";
    cin >> a >> b;
    c = a + b;
    cout << "\n Addition is : " << c;
}
```

←--- Function Definition

Output is same as that of myFunction.cc

Categories of Functions


- Functions that take no input, and return no output
- Functions that take input and use it but return no output
- Functions that take input and return output
- Functions that take no input but return output


Sending Input Values To Functions

- Determine the number of values to be sent to the function
- Determine the data type of the values that needs to be sent
- Declare variables having the determined data types as an argument to the function
- Use the values in the function
- Prototype the function if its definition is not going to be available before the place from where it is invoked
- Send the correct values when the function is invoked

Passing Values to Functions: passValue1.cc

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void add(int a, int b){
    int c;
    c = a + b;
    cout << "\n Addition is : " << c;
}
int main(){
    int a, b;
    cout << "\n Enter Any 2 Numbers : ";
    cin >> a >> b;
    add(a, b);
    return 0;
}
```

 **Formal Parameters: a, b**

 **Actual Parameters: a, b**

Note: The variables used as formal and actual parameters can have different names.

Passing Values to Functions: passValue2.cc

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cstdlib>
using namespace std;
void add(int a, int b){
    //code same as in passValue1.cc
}
int main(int argc, char *argv[]){
    int a, b;
    if ( argc != 3 ){
        cout << "\nInsufficient num. of arguments.\n";
        cout << "\nUsage:" << argv[0] << " <firstNum> <secondNum>";
    }else{
        a = atoi(argv[1]);
        b = atoi(argv[2]);
        add(a, b);
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Code Snippet From passValue2.cc

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]){
    int a, b;
    if ( argc != 3 ){
        cout << "\nInsufficient num. of arguments.\n";
        cout << "\nUsage:" << argv[0] << "<firstNum> <secondNum>";
    }else{
        a = atoi(argv[1]);
        b = atoi(argv[2]);
        add(a, b);
    }
    return 0;
}
```

----- Notice that main has two arguments

----- argc is the argument count

----- argv[1] holds the first number typed-in at the command-line. Notice the atoi function.

The atoi function converts the keyboard input, which is a string, into integer.

Passing Values to Functions: passValue3.cc

(1)

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cstdlib>
using namespace std;
int add(int a, int b) {  <!-- Notice the return type
    int c;
    c = a + b;
    return c;  <!-- Return value: c
}
...
```

Passing Values to Functions: passValue3.cc

(2)

...

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]){
    int a, b, c;
    if ( argc != 3 ){
        cout << "\nInsufficient num. of arguments.\n";
        cout << "\nUsage:" << argv[0]<<" <firstNum> <secondNum>";
    }else{
        a = atoi(argv[1]); ←----- String to integer
        b = atoi(argv[2]);          conversion
                                     Value returned from add is
        c = add(a,b); ←----- stored in c

        cout << "\n Addition is : " << c;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Passing Values to Functions: passValue3.cc

- Output:

```
Enter Any 2 Numbers : 5 6
```

```
Addition is : 11
```

```
a is: 5, b is: 6
```

Note that the values of a and b remain same before and after the function add is called.

More about functions on later slides

Function Overloading (or Polymorphism)

- Overloading refers to the use of same thing for different purposes
- Function overloading means that we can use the same function name to create functions that perform a variety of different tasks
- The function names are same but the signature is different – that is, different return type, different argument lists
- Example

```
int add(int a, int b) ;
```

```
int add(int a, int b, int c) ;
```

```
double add(double a, double b) ;
```

Function Overloading Example:

fctOverloading.cc (1)

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

//overloading volume
int volume (int); //prototype declaration
double volume (double, double); //prototype declaration
double volume (double, double, double); //prototype decl.

int main(){
    cout << "cube vol: " << volume(10) << endl;
    cout << "cylinder vol: " << volume(2.5, 8.5) << endl;
    cout << "cuboid vol: " << volume(100.5, 75.5, 15.5) << "\n";
    return 0;
}
...
```

Function Overloading Example:

fctOverloading.cc (2)

```
...  
//volume of a cube  
int volume(int s){  
    return s*s*s;  
}  
  
//volume of a cylinder  
double volume(double r, double h){  
    return (3.14519 * r * r * h);  
}  
  
//rectangular box or cuboid  
double volume(double l, double b, double h){  
    return (l*b*h);  
}
```

Output

cube vol: 1000

cylinder vol: 167.088

cuboid vol: 117610

Function Templates

- If the program logic and operations are identical for each data type, overloaded functions can be written more compactly using function templates
- A single function template definition is written
- By a single function template, you can define the whole family of overloaded functions

Function Templates: fctTemplate.cc (1)

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

template <class T>
T maximum(T value1, T value2, T value3){
    T maxValue = value1;
    if (value2 > maxValue){
        maxValue = value2;
    }
    if(value3 > maxValue){
        maxValue = value3;
    }
    return maxValue;
}

...
```


Function Templates: fctTemplate.cc (2)

...

```
int main(){
    int val1, val2, val3;
    double val4, val5, val6;
    cout << "\nEnter three integer values\n";
    cin >> val1 >> val2 >> val3;
    cout << "Maximum integer value is: " << maximum(val1, val2, val3);

    cout << "\nEnter three double values\n";
    cin >> val4 >> val5 >> val6;
    cout << "Maximum double value is: " << maximum(val4, val5, val6);
    return 0;
}
```

Function Templates: fctTemplate.cc (3)

Output:

```
Enter three integer values
```

```
2 3 4
```

```
Maximum integer value is: 4
```

```
Enter three double values
```

```
2.1 3.1 1.1
```

```
Maximum double value is: 3.1
```

Two New Types of Functions

- C++ introduces two new types of functions
 - **friend** function
 - **virtual** function
- They are defined to handle some specific tasks related to class objects
- We will skip their discussion in today's lecture

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- Comments, Keywords, Identifiers, Variables
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- **Classes and Objects**
- Arrays
- Inheritance
- Pointers
- Working with Files

All the concepts are accompanied by examples.

Classes and Objects

- A Class is a user-defined data type for holding data and functions

- Classes are declared using the keyword **class**

```
class class_name{
```

```
    access_specifier1:←
```

```
        member1;
```

```
    access_specifier2:←
```

```
        member2;
```

```
}
```

An access-specifier is one of the following three keywords:
private, public, protected

- An object is an instantiation of a class

```
int number1;
```

data type

variable

```
class_name object_name;
```

Example: `cout` *is an object of class* `ostream`

Class Example: gradeBook1.cc

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

```
class GradeBook{
public:
    void displayMessage() {
        cout << "Welcome to the Grade Book!" << endl;
    }
};
```

Note: Class definition begins with the keyword `class` and ends with a semi-colon. It contains a member function.

```
int main() {
    GradeBook myGradeBook;
    myGradeBook.displayMessage();
    return 0;
}
```

Name of the class: GradeBook

Name of the object: myGradeBook

Output:

Welcome to the Grade Book!

Class Example: gradeBook2.c (1)

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

class GradeBook{
public:
    void displayMessage(string nameOfCourse){
        cout << "Welcome to Grade Book for " << nameOfCourse << "!\n";
    }
};

int main(){
    string nameOfCourse;
    GradeBook myGradeBook;
    cout << "Enter the course name" << endl;
    getline(cin, nameOfCourse);
    myGradeBook.displayMessage(nameOfCourse);
    return 0;
}
```

Class Example: gradeBook2.c (2)

Output:

```
Enter the course name
```

```
CS101 Introduction to C++
```

```
Welcome to the Grade Book for CS101 Introduction to C++!
```

Note:

To obtain the course name, we did not use

```
cin >> nameOfCourse;
```

This is because reads the input until the first white-space character is reached. Thus cin will only read CS101. Therefore we used the following function that reads the input stream till it encounters a newline character:

```
getline(cin, nameOfCourse);
```


Notes Regarding Access-Specifiers

- **public** members can be accessed from outside the class also
- **private** data members can be only accessed from within the class
- **protected** data members can be accessed by a class and its subclass
- By default, access-specifier is **private**

Constructor & Destructor

- Every time an instance of a class is created the constructor method is called
- The constructor has the same name as the class and it doesn't return any type
- The destructor's name is defined in the same way as a constructor, but with a '~' in front
- The compiler provides a default constructor if none is specified in the program

Constructor & Destructor: constDest.cc (1)

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

class Point{
public:
    int x;
    int y;

    Point() {
        cout << "Default Constructor" << endl;
    }

    ~Point() {
        cout << "Default Destructor" << endl;
    }

};
```

Constructor & Destructor: constDest.cc (2)

```
int main() {  
    Point p;  
    p.x = 10;  
    p.y = 20;  
    cout << "Value of class variables x and y: ";  
    cout << p.x << ", " << p.y;  
    cout << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

Output:

Default Constructor

Value of class variables x and y: 10, 20

Default Destructor

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Arrays

- An array is a multivariable
- It allows you to store many different values of same data type in a single unit and in a contiguous memory locations
- You can have arrays of objects as well
- Arrays are declared just like other variables, though the variable name ends with a set of square brackets
 - `int myVector[3];`
 - `int myMatrix[3][3];`

Arrays Example: arrayExample.cc

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main(){
    int i;
    int age[4];
    age[0]=23; ←-----
    age[1]=34;
    age[2]=65;
    age[3]=74;
    for(i=0; i<4; i++){
        cout <<"Element: " << i <<" Value of age: " << age[i] <<"\n";
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Note: The number in the square brackets is the position number of a particular array element. The position numbers begins at 0

Output:

```
Element: 0 Value of age: 23
Element: 1 Value of age: 34
Element: 2 Value of age: 65
Element: 3 Value of age: 74
```

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Class Inheritance

- New classes can be defined in terms of existing classes
- When a subclass inherits from a parent class, it includes the definitions of all the data and operations that the parent class defines
- Objects that are instances of a subclass will contain all data defined by the subclass and its parent classes
- Objects of a subclass are able to perform all operations defined by the subclass and its parents.

Inheritance Example: inherit1.cc (1)

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

class Mother {
public:
    Mother () {
        cout << "Mother: no parameters\n";
    }
    Mother (int a) {
        cout << "Mother: int parameter\n";
    }
};

class Daughter : public Mother {
public:
    Daughter (int a) {
        cout << "Daughter: int parameter\n\n";
    }
};
```

Inheritance Example: inherit1.cc (2)

```
class Son : public Mother {
public:
    Son (int a): Mother (0){
        cout << "Son: int parameter\n\n";
    }
    Son () {
        cout << "none";
    }
};

int main () {
    Daughter Cynthia (0);
    Son Daniel(0);
    Son none;
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

Mother: no parameters
Daughter: int parameter

Mother: int parameter
Son: int parameter

Mother: no parameters
none

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Pointers

- A pointer is a variable that stores an address in memory - address of other variable or value
- For instance, the value of a pointer may be 42435. This number is an address in the computer's memory which is the start of some data
- We can dereference the pointer to look at or change the data
- Just like variables, you have to declare pointers before you use them
- The data type specified with pointer declaration is the data type of the variable the pointer will point to

Revisiting Variable Declaration

- Consider the declaration

```
int i = 3;
```

- This declaration tells the C compiler to:
 - Reserve space in memory to hold the integer value
 - Associate the name `i` with this memory location
 - Store the value `3` at this location

`i` ←----- Location name



6485 ←----- Location number
(Address)

'Address of' Operator

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    int i=3;
    cout << "\nAddress of i = " << &i;
    cout << "\nValue of i = " << i;
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

Address of i = 0x22ff0c

Value of i = 3

--- & operator is
'address of
operator'
↓

Note:

**&i Returns the
address of variable i**


'Value at Address' Operator

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main(){
    int i=3;
    cout << "\nAddress of i = " << &i;
    cout << "\nValue of i = " << i;
    cout << "\nValue of i = " << *(&i);
    return 0;
}
```

**& operator is
'address of'
operator**



*** operator is
'value at address
of' operator**



Output:

```
Address of i = 2293532
Value of i = 3
Value of i = 3
```

Note:

&i returns the address of
variable **i**

***(&i)** returns the value at
address of **i**

Summary of Pointers

- Declaring a pointer

```
int* myIntPtr;
```

- Getting the address of a variable

```
int value = 3;
```

```
myIntPtr = &value;
```

- Dereferencing a pointer

```
*myIntPtr = 2;
```

Pointers Example: ptrExample.cc

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    int myValue;
    int *myPtr;
    myValue = 15;
    myPtr = &myValue;
    cout << "myValue is equal to " << myValue << endl;
    *myPtr = 25;
    cout << "myValue is equal to :  " << myValue << endl;
}
```

Output:

myValue is equal to : 15

myValue is equal to : 25

Pointers and Arrays

- The square-bracket array notation is a short cut to prevent you from having to do pointer arithmetic

```
char array[5];
```

```
array[2] = 12;
```


array is a pointer to **array[0]**


`array[2] = 12;` is therefore equivalent to

```
* (array+2) = 12;
```

Passing Address to Function: passValue4.cc

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int addUpdate(int *a, int *b) {
    int c;
    c = *a + *b;
    cout << "Addition is : " << c << endl;
    *a = c;
    *b = c;
    return c;
}
int main() {
    int a, b, c;
    cout << "Enter Any 2 Numbers : ";
    cin >> a >> b;
    cout << "a is: " << a << ", b is: " << b << endl;
    c = addUpdate(&a, &b);
    cout << "a is: " << a << ", b is: " << b << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

----- Notice the pointer

----- Notice &a, &b

Note: The values of **a** and **b** changed in **addUpdate** function .

Output of passValue4.cc

- Output:

Enter Any 2 Numbers : 2 8

a is: 2, b is: 8

Addition is : 10

a is: 10, b is: 10

Dynamic Memory Allocation

- C++ enables programmers to control the allocation and deallocation of memory in a program for any built-in type or user-defined type
- This is dynamic memory management and is accomplished by the operators `new` and `delete`
- These operators can be used as a substitute of `malloc` and `free`

Note: When we use arrays, static memory allocation takes place.

Comparing `malloc/free` & `new/delete`

```
//Using malloc and free functions  
int* ip;  
ip = (int*)malloc(sizeof(int) * 100);  
...  
free((void*)ip);
```

```
//Using new and delete operators
```

```
int* ip;  
ip = new int[100];  
...  
delete ip;
```

malloc and free: dynMemAlloc.cc (1)

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cstdlib>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    int numStudents, *ptr, i;
    cout << "Enter the num of students : ";
    cin >> numStudents;
    ptr=(int *)malloc(numStudents*sizeof(int)) ;
    if(ptr== NULL) {
        cout << "\n\nMemory allocation failed!";
        exit(1);
    }
    for (i=0; i<numStudents; i++) {
        cout << "\nEnter the marks of student_" << i +1 << " ";
        cin >> *(ptr+i);
    }
}
```

. . .

dynMemAlloc.cc (2)

. . .

```
for (i=0; i<numStudents; i++){
    cout <<"student_"<< i+1 <<" has "<< *(ptr + i);
    cout << " marks\n";
}
return 0;
}
```

Output:

Enter the num of students : 2

Enter the marks of student_1 21

Enter the marks of student_2 22

student_1 has 21 marks

student_2 has 22 marks

new & delete Example: newDelete.cc

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

class myclass {
public:
    myclass() {cout <<"myclass constructed\n";}
    ~myclass() {cout <<"myclass destroyed\n";}
};

int main () {
    myclass * pt;
    pt = new myclass[3];
    delete[] pt;
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

```
myclass constructed
myclass constructed
myclass constructed
myclass destroyed
myclass destroyed
myclass destroyed
```

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User-Defined Header Files

- Useful in multi-module, multi-person software development effort
- Save the following code in a file named head.h and don't compile/run it

```
/* This is my header file named myHead.h */  
#ifndef MYHEAD_H_ ←- Header Guards are used in order  
#define MYHEAD_H_ to avoid the inclusion of a  
  
#define FRIEND 3 header file multiple times  
#define FOE 5  
#define LIMIT 4  
  
#endif /* MYHEAD_H_ */
```

User-Defined Header Files:

testInclude.cc

```
#include <iostream>
#include "myHead.h" ←-- Notice the quotes around file name
using namespace std;

int main () {
    if (FRIEND < LIMIT && FOE > LIMIT) {
        cout << "Go, socialize more!";
        cout << "\nYou have friends less than " << LIMIT << endl;
        cout << "\nYour foes are greater than " << LIMIT << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

```
Go, socialize more!
You have friends less than 4

Your foes are greater than 4
```

File I/O

- C++ provides the following classes to perform output and input of characters to/from files:

ofstream: Stream class to write on files

ifstream: Stream class to read from files

fstream: Stream class to both read and write from/to files.

- Objects of these classes are associated to a real file by opening a file as:

open (filename, mode);

Modes of Files

Mode is an optional parameter with a combination of the following flags – there are few more flags:

- `ios::in` Open for input operations
- `ios::out` Open for output operations
- `ios::app` All output operations are performed at the end of the file

More information:

<http://www.cplusplus.com/doc/tutorial/files/>

Write to a file: fileWrite.cc

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

int main () {
    ofstream myfile;
    myfile.open ("example.txt");
    myfile << "Writing this to a file.\n";
    myfile.close();
    return 0;
}
```

Stream class to both read and write from/to files

Notice that the mode in which the file should be opened is not specified. Default mode is `ios::in` or `ios::out`

This code creates a file called `example.txt` and inserts a sentence into it in the same way we are used to do with `cout`, but using the file stream `myfile` instead.

Write to a file: fileAppend.cc

```
#include <iostream>                                     Stream class to both read
                                                         and write from/to files
#include <fstream> ←-----
using namespace std;

int main () {                                           Notice that the mode in which the
                                                         file should be opened is ios::app
    ofstream myfile;
    myfile.open ("example.txt", ios::app); ←-----
    myfile << "Writing this to a file.\n";
    myfile.close();
    return 0;
}
```

This code creates a file called `example.txt` and inserts a sentence into it in the same way we are used to do with `cout`, but using the file stream `myfile` instead.

Reading From File & Writing to Console:

fileReadScreenWrite.cc

```
#include <iostream>
#include <fstream>
#include <string>
using namespace std;
int main () {
    string line;
    ifstream myfile ("example.txt");
    if (myfile.is_open()){
        while ( myfile.good() ){
            getline (myfile,line);
            cout << line << endl;
        }
        myfile.close();
    } else
        cout << "Unable to open file";
    return 0;
}
```



*The function **myfile.good()** will return true in the case the stream is ready for input/output operations, false when end of file is reached*

Checking State Flags

bad() returns true if a reading or writing operation fails.

fail() returns true in the same cases as **bad()**, but also in the case that a format error happens

eof() returns true if a file open for reading has reached the end

good() is the most generic state flag: it returns false in the same cases in which calling any of the previous functions would return true

References

- C++ How to Program, Dietel & Associates
- <http://cplusplus.com>
- C for Dummies, Dan Gookin