

# OOPS & C++

## 1. Why C++ is faster than Python

- 1) C++ is static typed compiled language. C++ code is directly compiled in machine code. The compiled binary is typically optimized for speed and directly run on hardware.  
Python is interpreted language. Python code is executed line by line it is more overhead.
- 2) C++ is static typed. types are checked at compile time  
Python is dynamic typed. types are checked at runtime  
This flexibility comes the cost of performance, as the interpreter needs to determine the type of variable and object dynamically during execution.
- 3) C++ memory allocation and deallocation can be explicitly controlled by programmer (new, delete)  
In Python automatic memory management via garbage collection. This introduce overhead due to memory that garbage collector take
- 4) In C++ compilers are highly optimized and perform extensive optimizations during compilation. This include loop unrolling, inlining functions  
In Python improving with each release through bytecode optimizations
- 5) C++ require more lines of code and explicit memory management which can slow down development compared to Python  
Python simplicity and readability often result in faster development times, making it ideal for

prototyping, scripting and scenarios where rapid development and ease of maintenance are priorities

6) C++ widely used in performance-critical applications such as games engines, system software, embedded systems, and high-frequency trading platforms, where speed and control over hardware are crucial.

Python excels in areas such as web development, data analysis, scientific computing and machine learning

## 2. Diff b/w C++ and java

- 1) C++ is multi-paradigm language, object-oriented, and generic programming paradigms. It allows low-level memory manipulation and direct hardware access making it suitable for system programming.  
Java is primarily an object-oriented language with support of concurrent programming (via threads).  
write once run anywhere
- 2) C++ memory allocation and deallocation can be explicitly controlled by programmer (`new`, `delete`) which leads to efficient memory usage but also increase the risk of memory leak and segmentation faults.  
In Java automatic memory management via garbage collection. This is introduced due to memory that garbage collector take.
- 3) C++ uses `try`, `catch`, `throw` keywords for exception handling.  
It supports both checked exceptions (which must be caught or declared) and unchecked exceptions (which do not need to be explicitly caught).  
Java uses `try`, `catch`, `throw` keyword. It primarily supports unchecked exception (`RuntimeExceptions`) and checked exception (`IoExceptions`, `SQLExceptions`) which must be caught or declared in the method signature.
- 4) C++ provide Standard Template Library (STL)  
Java provide a rich set of libraries in its Java Standard Library (Java API) covering networking, I/O, utilities, GUI
- 5) C++ Supports pointers, which are variables that store memory address. Pointers allow direct manipulation of memory and can lead to more efficient code.

but also increase the risk of bugs like null pointer dereferencing and memory leaks.

Java does not support pointers. Instead all objects are accessed through reference which are automatically managed by the JVM. Java references are safer than C++ pointers but do not provide low-level memory control.

6) C++ provides operator overloading

Java does not provide operator overloading

7) C++ provides multiple inheritance of classes

Java does not provide multiple inheritance of classes

### 3. Difference b/w C and C++

- 1) C is procedural programming language. It provides structure approach to programming.  
C++ is multi-paradigm language - It supports procedural, object-oriented and generic programming paradigms.  
• In addition to functions it introduces classes and objects for data abstraction and encapsulation.
- 2) C does not support classes and objects.  
C++ introduces classes which are user-defined types that bind data and methods together. Objects are instances of classes, allowing for data abstraction and encapsulation.
- 3) C does not support object-oriented programming concepts like inheritance, polymorphism and encapsulation.  
C++ provides OOPS concepts such as inheritance (both single and multiple), polymorphism (via operator overloading, virtual function, function overloading), encapsulation (data hiding within classes), and abstraction (separation of interface and implementation).
- 4) C uses malloc, calloc, free for dynamic memory allocation and deallocation.  
C++ supports new, delete and automatic memory management (via destructor and smart pointers).
- 5) C does not support function overloading.  
C++ supports function overloading.
- 6) C provides stdio.h, stdlib.h for input/output, memory allocation etc.  
C++ supports STL that have additional components.

like vector, map, sorting, searching, iterators  
it uses iostream

- 7) C++ is not directly compatible with C libraries unless they are specifically written to be compatible or use technique like 'extern "C"'.
- 8) C uses traditional error handling technique like return codes (e.g. return -1, errno)  
C++ have try, catch, throw keywords for error handling
- 9) C does not provide namespaces - All global identifiers share the same global namespace.  
C++ introduces namespaces, which allows grouping identifiers (variables, functions, classes) into named scopes to avoid naming conflicts
- 10) C does not support operator overloading  
C++ supports operator overloading

4. What is polymorphism and how it is achieved in c++

It refers to the ability of diff classes to be treated as instance of the same class through a common interface. It allow objects of different types to be handled using a uniform interface, providing flexibility and extensibility in code design.

Types of polymorphism

1) Compile time :- operator overloading  
function overloading  
Templates

2) Run time :- function Overriding  
virtual function

1) operator Overloading

C++ allow operator overloading meaning you can redefine how operator behave for user-defined type (classes and structure)

2) Function overloading

You can define multiple function with same name but diff parameter list. Compiler determines which fun to call based on no and types of arguments passed at compile time.

3) Templates

Templates allows generic programming in c++ enabling you to write fun and classes that can handle diff data types without having to rewrite the code for

each special types.

## 1) Function overriding

Inheritance in C++ allows derived classes to provide specific implementations of methods that are already defined in their base classes. This is achieved using virtual functions.

The correct function to call is determined at runtime based on the type of object being referred to (dynamic dispatch).

```
1 #include<iostream>
2 #include<string>
3 using namespace std;
4 class Animal
5 {
6     public:
7     int height;
8     int size;
9     int weight;
10    string color;
11    // constructor can't be declared as virtual
12    // constructor can be private
13    Animal()
14    {
15        cout<<"I Am In The Animal Class"<<endl;
16    }
17};
18
19 class cat:public Animal
20 {
21     public:
22     int height;
23     string color;
24     cat()
25     {
26         cout<<"I Am In The Cat Class"<<endl;
27     }
28};
29
30 int main()
31 {
32     // upstreaming
33     // firstly we use cat class and cat obj
34     // when we make obj of cat than firstly animal constructor than cat constructor is called
35     // dynamically allocate memory for an object of type cat and initialize a pointer to this object.
36     // cat * c=new cat;
37
38
39     // upstreaming
```

```

37
38
39     // //upstreaming
40     // //here we use Animal class and Animal obj
41     // //when we make animal obj than it call only animal constructor
42     // dynamically allocate memory for an object of type Animal and initialize a pointer to this object.
43     // Animal * c=new Animal;
44
45
46     // //upstreaming
47     // //here we use Animal class and cat obj
48     // //when we make the Animal class obj than it call firstly Animal constructor than call cat constructor
49     // Animal * c=new cat;
50
51
52     // //downstreaming
53     // //here we use cat class and Animal class as object
54     // //it give error when we use previous method for downstreaming
55     // //cat * c=new Animal;
56     // //for downstreaming we use this
57     // //when we make the cat class object than it call only Animal constructor
58     // cat* c=(cat*) new Animal;
59     // Animal* a = new cat(); // Correct upcasting, cat is a type of Animal it calls animal constructor
60     // cat* c = dynamic_cast<cat*>(a); // Safe downcasting it calls cat constructor
61
62
63
64 }

```

## 2) virtual function

Virtual functions are functions in base classes that are overridden in derived classes. They enable dynamic dispatch and allow the correct function to be called for objects of derived classes when accessed through pointers or references of base class type.

```

class Shape {
public:
    virtual void draw() {
        cout << "Drawing shape" << endl;
    }
};

class Circle : public Shape {
public:
    void draw() override {
        cout << "Drawing circle" << endl;
    }
};

int main() {
    Shape* shape = new Circle();
    shape->draw(); // Calls Circle's draw() due to dynamic dispatch
    delete shape;
    return 0;
}

```

5. What are Abstract classes and interfaces and what is the diff b/w the two

### Abstract classes

An abstract class in C++ is a class that can't be instantiated on its own. It is meant to serve as a base class (or superclass) for other classes. Abstract classes often contain one or more pure virtual functions. These pure virtual functions act as placeholders for functions that must be implemented by any concrete subclasses.

### Interfaces

An interface in C++ is a class that only contains pure virtual fun<sup>n</sup>. It defines a contract that concrete classes can choose to implement. Interfaces do not have member variables or concrete fun<sup>n</sup> implementations.

### Diff b/w Abstract class and Interfaces

#### 1. Purpose

Abstract class provides a partial implementation and can have data members and implemented fun<sup>n</sup> along with pure virtual fun<sup>n</sup>.

Interfaces does not contain any implementation, only pure virtual fun<sup>n</sup>.

#### 2. Member Variables

Abstract class can have member variables  
Interface can't have member variables

#### 3. Virtual fun<sup>n</sup>

Abstract class have both pure virtual fun<sup>n</sup> and implemented virtual fun<sup>n</sup>

Interface contains only pure virtual fun

#### 7. Inheritance

Abstract class inherited to provide a common interface along with some default behaviour.

Interface inherited but to enforce the implementation of certain behaviour without any default behaviour or data.

6. if you can define method in interfaces also, then what's the need of abstract classes?

Abstract class can provide concrete (non-pure) methods along with pure virtual methods. This allows them to define default behaviours can be inherited by subclasses. Subclasses have the option to override these methods if needed but are not required to do so.

Interfaces (typically represented by classes with only pure virtual functions in C++) can't contain any default implementations. They strictly define a contract that derived classes must implement.

## 7. What is abstraction in C++?

Data abstraction is one of more essential & imp feature.  
it means display only essential info and hiding the details  
Data abstraction refers to providing only essential  
info about the data to the outside world, hiding the  
background details or implementation  
eg:- Car :- all its implementation is hidden from  
the driver

### Types of abstraction

1. Data Abstraction :- This type only shows the required  
info about the data and hides  
the unnecessary data.

2. Control abstraction :- This type only shows the required  
info about the implementation and  
hides unnecessary info.

### Abstraction in Header files

We import header files but we don't know what data  
on it and what implementation are there

### Abstraction using Access specifiers

These are the main pillars of implementing abstraction in  
C++ we can use access specifiers to restrictions on  
class members

Public :- access anywhere

Private :- access only within the class

Protected :- access only within the class with privately

## Advantages of Data abstraction

- Helps the user to avoid writing the low-level code
- Avoid code duplication and increases reusability
- Can change the internal implementation of class independently without affecting the user
- Helps to increase the security of an application or program as only imp details are provided to the user
- It reduces the complexity as well as the redundancy of code, therefore increase the readability.

## Abstraction through interface

Interfaces in C++ are often defined using abstract classes (classes contain pure virtual fun) or pure virtual fun within regular classes . They define a contract that derived classes must adhere to by implementing the abstract method.

## 8. what is method hiding in C++

when derived class defines a method with the same name as a method in its base class the derived class method hides or "shadows" the base class method This means when you call the method on an object of the derived class the derived class's method is invoked - The base class's method remains available but is not directly accessible through the derived class unless explicitly qualified To access the hidden base class method you must qualify the call with the base class name

Base className :: function();

9. what is regular languages

Regular language are a class of languages that can be described by regular expression and recognized by finite automata.

1. Finite Automata:- Regular language can be recognized by finite automata , which are abstract machines with a finite number of states.

There are 2 types of Finite Automata

Deterministic Finite Automata (DFA) :- Each state has exactly one transition for each symbol in the alphabet.

Non-deterministic Finite Automata (NFA) :- States may have zero, one, or multiple transitions for each symbol and the machine can be in multiple states at once.

2. Regular Expressions like union('1') , concatenation, (\*)

3. Closure Expressions:- Union, intersection, complement, Concatenation, Kleene Star

4. Regular Grammars.

5. Closure Under homomorphism.

6. Decidability :- To take decision

Practical Applications - Text processing, Lexical Analysis, Network protocol

Lexical Analysis :- This is first phase of a compiler or interpreter where the input source code is processed to produce a sequence of tokens.

Tokens :- Keywords, identifiers, operators, literals, punctuation (;, :)

## 10. what is virtual classes

Virtual inheritance ensure that only one instance of a base class is inherited by a derived class in a multiple inheritance hierarchy. This is crucial when you have a diamond-shaped inheritance pattern where base class is inherited through multiple paths.

### Diamond problem

The diamond problem occurs when a class inherits from two classes that both derive from a common base class. This can lead to ambiguity and duplicate of base class's members.

```
cpp
#include <iostream>

class Base {
public:
    void show() {
        std::cout << "Base class" << std::endl;
    }
};

class Derived1 : public Base {
};

class Derived2 : public Base {
};

class Final : public Derived1, public Derived2 {
};

int main() {
    Final obj;
    obj.show(); // Error: Ambiguous call to Base::show
    return 0;
}
```

To solve this problem we use virtual inheritance  
By declaring the base class as a virtual base class  
C++ ensures that there is only one instance of the  
base class, no matter how many paths lead to it

```
#include <iostream>

class Base {
public:
    Base() {
        std::cout << "Base constructor" << std::endl;
    }

    void show() {
        std::cout << "Base class" << std::endl;
    }
};

class Derived1 : virtual public Base {
public:
    Derived1() {
        std::cout << "Derived1 constructor" << std::endl;
    }
};

class Derived2 : virtual public Base {
public:
    Derived2() {
        std::cout << "Derived2 constructor" << std::endl;
    }
};

class Final : public Derived1, public Derived2 {
public:
    Final() {
        std::cout << "Final constructor" << std::endl;
    }
};
```

Remember one thing you must initialize the virtual  
base class explicitly in the most derived class's

```
cpp
class Final : public Derived1, public Derived2 {
public:
    Final() : Base() { // Explicitly initialize Base
        std::cout << "Final constructor" << std::endl;
    }
};
```

 Copy code

11. What is diff b/w the static , auto, extern , register .

static :- static variable inside the function maintain its value b/w fun call . it is accessible only within the function

static variable outside the function we can use this static variable during whole file we can't use it in another file that we (link internally)

extern :- extern is used to declare a variable or fun that is defined in another file . this allow you to share global variables and functions across multiple files.

It provide external linkage , meaning the variable or function can be accessed from other files.

extern is often used in header files to declare variables or functions that are defined in corresponding .cpp or .c file

```
cpp                                         Copy code

// In file1.cpp
int globalVar = 10; // Definition of the global variable

// In file2.cpp
extern int globalVar; // Declaration of the global variable
```

auto :- By default local variables in C++ are auto (automatic) variables , meaning they are automatically created and destroyed when they come in and out of scope.

The storage duration of auto variables is limited to the scope they are defined in (usually a fun or a block). They are destroyed once the scope ends.

Register:- The scope of a register variable is local to the block in which it is defined.  
its scope is in within the block

The register keyword is a request to the compiler to store the variable in a CPU register instead of RAM for faster access. However the compiler may ignore this request based on availability and optimization strategies

You can't take the address of a register variable (e.g. '&variable' is not allowed)

Typically, the compiler has final say on whether a variable is placed in a register, regardless of the 'register' keyword

It is used for performance-critical variables that are frequently accessed such as loop counters

```
void func()  
{  
    register int i;  
    for (i=0; i<1000; i++)  
    {
```

//Fast access to i

we can't declare register variable as globally

```
register int globalVar; // Invalid
```

12. Compilation stages of C program?

1. Preprocessing :- input - Source file (.c)  
output - Preprocessed source code  
(expanded source file) (.i)

It handle header files #include, #define,  
#if, macro substitution

2. Compilation :- input - Preprocessed source code (.i file)  
output - Assembly code (.s file)

Compiler perform syntax checking, semantic analysis, and optimization during this phase and convert code to Assembly code

3. Assembly :- input - Assembly code (.s file)  
output - Object code (.o or .obj file)  
(binary format)

It convert it in machine code but is not yet a complete executable. The obj file includes machine instructions, as well as info about external references (e.g. fun<sup>n</sup> or variables defined in other files)

Linking :- input - object code (.o file) and libraries  
output - exe file (a.out, a.exe etc.)

here all necessary libraries (standard C library, math library) are combine to object file and

make executable file

There are 2 types of linking

Static linking:- All the required libraries are included in the final executable file.

Dynamic linking:- Only references to shared libraries are included and actual linking happen at runtime

loading (Runtime) :-  
input - Executable file  
output - Running program in memory

once the executable is created the operating system loader loads the program into memory and start execution. If dynamic linking is used , the necessary shared libraries are loaded at this time as well.

## 12. What is Conditional Compilation

Condition compilation allow sections of code to be compiled or ignored depending on certain conditions, which is useful for platform-specific code , debugging, and configuration options

This is controlled by preprocessor directives like #if, #ifdef, #ifndef, #else, #elif and #endif

14. If we have static fun in a class then we make 10 obj of that class . how many static fun copies will be made in memory.

Static member fun do not operate on a specific instance of the class, therefore they do not have access to non-static member variables or non-static member fun. They can only access static member variables and other static member fun. They are shared along all instances of the class.

Even if you have 10 objects of a class only one copy of each static fun will be made in memory.

## 15. What is diff b/w inline and macro

1) inline :- Compiler replace fun call with the function code

macro :- Preprocessor handles these. This is textually replaced wherever the macro is used.

2) inline :- Compiler checks whether to replace it so it is efficient or not. If it is not efficient then the fun still has all features of a normal fun like type checking, scope etc.

macro :- The preprocessor replaces the macro with the defined code before the compilation phase. This is purely a text substitution, with no type checking or scope rules applied.

3) Inlines :- They are safe because they are type-checked by the compiler, scope rules etc.

Macro :- They are less safe they are not type-checked, scope rule, especially if you do not carefully parenthesize the macro parameter.

4) Inlines :- Easy debug

Macro :- difficult to debug because they do not generate separate code they expanded inline as text. Debuggers typically do not show macro expansion, making it harder to

trace issues related to macros.

5) Inline :- Inline fun respect scope. They are defined within the scope of a class or namespace and behave accordingly.

Macro :- Macro do not respect scope. Once defined, a macro is available globally in the code that follows its definition, which can lead to naming conflicts or accidental redefinitions.

## 16. Dynamic memory allocation in C

### 1. malloc()

Purpose :- Allocates a block of memory of the specified size (in bytes). The contents of the allocated memory are uninitialized, meaning they will contain garbage values.

Return :- A pointer to the allocated memory  
NULL if allocation fails.

```
int * pte = (int*) malloc(sizeof(int)*5);
```

```
if (pte == NULL)
```

```
{
```

```
// Handle exception failures
```

```
}
```

### 2. calloc()

Purpose :- Allocates memory for an array of elements and initializes all bytes to zero. This can be useful if you need zero-initialized memory.

Return:- A pointer to the allocated memory  
NULL if the allocation fails

```
int * ptr = (int*) malloc (s, sizeof(int));  
if (ptr == NULL)  
{  
    // Handle allocation failure  
}
```

## 2. realloc()

Purpose:- Resize a previously allocated memory block allocating it to grow or shrink. The content of the block are preserved up to the minimum of the old and new sizes.

Return:- A pointer to the reallocated memory  
NULL if the reallocation fails. The original block remains intact if reallocation fails.

Note:- if ptr is NULL, realloc() behaves like malloc(),

if size is 0 and ptr is not NULL the memory is freed.

if the new size is larger the additional memory is uninitialized

```
ptr = (int*) realloc (ptr, sizeof(int) * 10);  
if (ptr == NULL)  
{  
    // Handle reallocation failure  
}
```

if one memory from 1000 to 1012 and other memory from 1013 to 1025 when we resize first memory so it can't increase because after 1012 other memory is allocated.

So it allocate new resized memory in other place copy prev content to new add and free old address

#### 4. free()

Purpose:- Deallocates the memory that was previously allocated by 'malloc()', 'calloc()', 'realloc()'

free(pter)

ptr = NULL // Good practice to avoid dangling pointer

Note:- Always free dynamically allocated memory when it is no longer needed to avoid memory leaks

#### Heap Vs Stack

Heap Memory :- Dynamic memory is allocated on the Heap, which is a region of memory that provides storage for variables whose size and lifetime are not known at compile-time.

Stack Memory :- Local variables with functions are typically allocated on the stack. Stack memory is automatically managed and released when the fun exits.

Issues :-

Memory leak :- when dynamically allocated memory is not freed causing a program to consume more and more over time

Dangling Pointers :- Occur when a pointer is used after the memory it points to has been freed.

Double free :- Occur when a program attempts to free the same memory block more than once leading to undefined behaviour.

Buffer Overflow :- Occur when a program writes more data to a memory block than it was allocated for, potentially corrupting adjacent memory.



12. When we declare a pointer to a class that has some integers and an object of another class as a member then how the memory is allocated to the variables?