

Object Oriented Programming using C++

CSE-III
CSE206-OOP

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UNIT I: INTRODUCTION

What is object-oriented programming? Comparison of procedural programming and Object-Oriented Programming - Characteristics of Object-Oriented Languages - C++ Programming Basics: Basic Program Construction - Data Types, Variables, Constants - Type Conversion, Operators, Library Functions - Loops and Decisions, Structures - Functions: Simple Functions, passing arguments, Returning values, Reference Arguments. - Recursion, Inline Functions, Default Arguments - Storage Classes - Arrays, Strings, Addresses, and pointers. Dynamic Memory management. Linked lists in C++.

Course Plan

Unit No.	Unit Name	Required Hours
Unit 1	INTRODUCTION	9
1	Understanding the Object-Oriented World View, A way of viewing world – Agents and Communities, messages and methods, Responsibilities, Classes, Objects, and Methods.	1
2	OOP principles	1
3	An overview of C++, basic program construction - data types, variables, constants - type conversion, operators.	1
4	Decision making and looping constructs	1
5	Arrays, strings and pointers	2
6	Functions, passing arguments, Returning values, Reference Arguments	1
7	Storage Classes	1
8	Dynamic memory management in C++	1

Introduction

- The C programming language: Developed in Bell Labs by Dennis Ritchi.
- It was developed as a system implementation language for nascent Unix operating System.
- It is a high-level language.

Origins of C++

- C++ developed in 1979 by Bjarne Stroustrup, while working on Simula.
- It is the first language to support Object Oriented Programming.
- His objective was to include OOP features in software development, but Simula cannot be used because of slow speed.
- So, he worked on C language and included OOP features (“initially termed as C with Classes”).
- C was one of the most liked and widely used professional programming languages in the world, the invention of C++ was necessitated by one major programming factor: increasing complexity.

Why Use a Language Like C++?

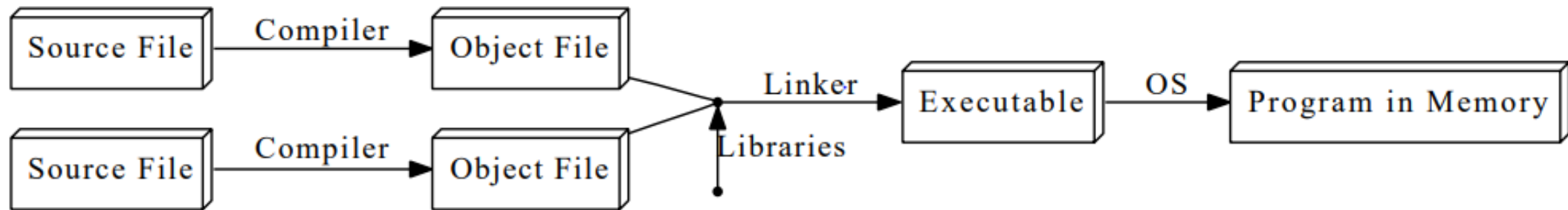
- **Conciseness:** programming languages allow us to express common sequences of commands more concisely. C++ provides some especially powerful short hands.
- **Maintainability:** modifying code is easier when it entails just a few text edits, instead of rearranging hundreds of processor instructions. C++ is object oriented, which further improves maintainability.
- **Portability:** different processors make different instructions available. Programs written as text can be translated into instructions for many different processors; one of C++'s strengths is that it can be used to write programs for nearly any processor.

Why Use a Language Like C++?

- C++ is a high-level language: when you write a program in it, the shorthands are sufficiently expressive that you don't need to worry about the details of processor instructions.
- C++ does give access to some lower-level functionality than other languages (e.g. memory addresses).

The Compilation Process

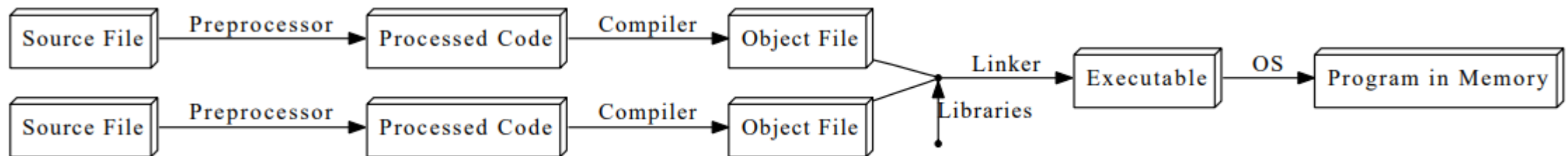
A program goes from text files (or source files) to processor instructions as follows:



- Object files are intermediate files that represent an incomplete copy of the program: each source file only expresses a piece of the program, so when it is compiled into an object file, the object file has some markers indicating which missing pieces it depends on.
- The linker takes those object files and the compiled libraries of predefined code that they rely on, fills in all the gaps, and spits out the final program, which can then be run by the operating system (OS).

The Compilation Process

- The **compiler** and **linker** are just regular programs.
- The step in the compilation process in which the compiler reads the file is called **parsing**. In C++, all these steps are performed ahead of time, before you start running a program.
- In some languages, they are done during the execution process, which takes time. This is one of the reasons C++ code runs far faster than code in many more recent languages.
- C++ actually adds an extra step to the compilation process: the code is run through a **preprocessor**, which applies some modifications to the source code, before being fed to the compiler. Thus, the modified diagram is:



Evolution of C++

■ C++98 (1998):

- Templates
- Standard Template Library (STL) with containers and algorithms
- Stings
- I/O streams

■ C++11 (2011):

- Multi-threading
- Smart pointers
- Hash tables
- Smart pointers

Evolution of C++

■ C++14 (2014):

- Reader-writer locks
- Generic lambda functions

■ C++17 (2017):

- Fold expressions
- Structured binding
- Parallel algorithms

■ C++20 (2020):

- Coroutines
- Modules
- Ranges Library

Benefits of C++

- Highly portable language and is a language of choice for multi-device, multi-platform application development.
- Supports OOP features like classes, inheritance, polymorphism, data-abstraction, and encapsulation.
- Has a rich function library (e.g. STL).
- Allows exception handling, function and operator overloading.
- C++ is a very powerful, efficient and fast language that supports wide range of general/GUI applications, 3D graphics for games and real-time mathematical simulations.

Summary: C++ is immensely popular, particularly for applications that require speed and/or access to some low-level features.

C++ for Competitive programming

- C++ is a very fast and evolving language. It has many standards such as C++ 11, 14, 17, and 20.
- C++ 20 has many new features to solve problems, e.g. three way comparison operator, co-routines, modules, etc.
- STL: Standard Template Library, a collection of C++ templates to help programmers handle basic data structure and functions such as Lists, stacks, arrays, containers classes, iterators, etc, that are very helpful in competitive programming.
- Ease of learning, fast, efficient, and concise in comparison to Java.

C++ Scope in industry

- Companies like Microsoft and Adobe mostly use C++ to create desktop applications. Popular C++ coded applications are Adobe reader, office 365, etc.
- In general, C++ is used to create Native apps that are platform dependent, but can execute in a stand alone mode, without internet connectivity.
- Major trading/Fintech. companies like Tower research, Graviton research, that are specialised in Algorithmic trading (requiring very low latency) heavily rely on implementing their trading platforms in C++ .
- Hardware companies such as Samsung, Intel, Qualcomm, etc, use C/C++ for designing embedded systems. Here, they need to work at very low level and work around the memory structure, writing custom device drivers, or writing low level code that directly executes on the bare metal.

C++ vs Java/Python

pidigits

source	secs	mem	gz	busy	cpu load
<u>Java</u>	<u>0.79</u>	35,568	764	0.84	99% 3% 3% 1%
<u>C++ g++</u>	<u>0.60</u>	4,944	986	2.38	100% 100% 98% 100%

fannkuch-redux

source	secs	mem	gz	busy
<u>Java</u>	<u>11.00</u>	34,104	1282	43.42
<u>C++ g++</u>	<u>8.08</u>	1,900	980	31.45

mandelbrot

source	secs	mem	gz	busy	cpu load
<u>C++ g++</u>	<u>0.84</u>	34,604	3542	3.28	98% 99% 98% 95%
<u>Python 3</u>	<u>172.58</u>	12,216	688	689.62	100% 100% 100% 100%

n-body

source	secs	mem	gz	busy
<u>C++ g++</u>	<u>4.09</u>	1,800	1808	4.13
<u>Python 3</u>	<u>586.17</u>	8,012	1196	589.84

Source: <https://benchmarksgame-team.pages.debian.net/benchmarksgame/fastest/java.html>

C++ vs Java

Comparison Index	C++	Java
Platform-independent	Platform-dependent.	Platform-independent.
Mainly used for	Mainly used for system programming.	Mainly used for application programming. It is widely used in Windows-based, web-based, enterprise, and mobile applications.
Design Goal	Designed for systems and applications programming.	Java was designed and created as an interpreter for printing systems but later extended as a support network computing.
Multiple inheritance	C++ supports multiple inheritance.	Java doesn't support multiple inheritance through class. It can be achieved by using interfaces in java .
Operator Overloading	C++ supports operator overloading .	Java doesn't support operator overloading.
Pointers	C++ supports pointers . You can write a pointer program in C++.	Java supports pointer internally. However, you can't write the pointer program in java. It means java has restricted pointer support in java.

C++ vs Java

Compiler and Interpreter	Uses compiler only. C++ is compiled and run using the compiler which converts source code into machine code so, C++ is platform dependent.	Uses both compiler and interpreter . Java source code is converted into bytecode at compilation time. The interpreter executes this bytecode at runtime and produces output. Java is interpreted that is why it is platform-independent.
Call by Value and Call by reference	Supports both call by value and call by reference.	Java supports call by value only. There is no call by reference in java.
Structure and Union	Supports structures and unions.	Doesn't support structures and unions.
unsigned right shift >>>	C++ doesn't support >>> operator.	Java supports unsigned right shift >>> operator that fills zero at the top for the negative numbers.
Inheritance Tree	C++ always creates a new inheritance tree.	Java always uses a single inheritance tree because all classes are the child of the Object class in Java. The Object class is the root of the inheritance tree in java.
Hardware	C++ is nearer to hardware.	Java is not so interactive with hardware.

C++ vs JAVA/Python

- <https://benchmarksgame-team.pages.debian.net/benchmarksgame/fastest/cpp.html>
- <https://benchmarksgame-team.pages.debian.net/benchmarksgame/fastest/gpp-java.html>
- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UCYqPvYsOz4>

Why is OOP popular ?

- OOP become a popular since it provide a better programming style, you don't need to write code which you really need to run anytime you need (such as in structured programming and assembler).
- You just make a class of object and you may call/instantiate the **class** and use it from any part of your application.
- It is reusable. Compiler provide a library of those class, and you just use it, no need to write the codes.
- For most of OOP languages like C++, there are increasingly large number of libraries that assist in the development of ubiquitous applications.

Why is OOP popular ?

- Your application mostly concern on managing the interaction among object, not write a command for any specific jobs.
- OOP is an evolutionary idea and thus scales very well, from very trivial set of problems to complex tasks.
- It provides a form of abstraction that resonates with techniques people use to solve problems in their day-to-day life.

Thinking Object Oriented

- It defines a way of viewing the world, how we might go about handling a real-world situation and how we could make the computer more closely model the techniques employed.
- Suppose, **Alice** wish to send a flower to **Bob**, who lives in a city miles away. Physically, it is not possible for **Alice** to pick the flower and carry to his home.
- Feasible solution: **Alice** merely goes to the local florist (say **Jay**), tell her the variety and quantity of flowers she wishes to gift **Bob**.
- Here, firstly **Alice** finds an agent (i.e. **Jay**) to solve his problem and pass a request to **Jay** (message) containing his request.

Thinking Object Oriented

- It is the responsibility of **Jay** to satisfy **Alice's** request. Here, **Jay** uses some method, some algorithm or set of operations to accomplish that.
- Moreover, Alice needn't to know the particular method **Jay** used to transfer the flowers. This information is often hidden from **Alice**.
- For instance, **Jay** may in turn use his subordinates to make the flower arrangement, then transfers a message for the delivery person, and so on.
- **Observation**: Here, the solution to the problem required the help of many individuals.

Thinking Object Oriented

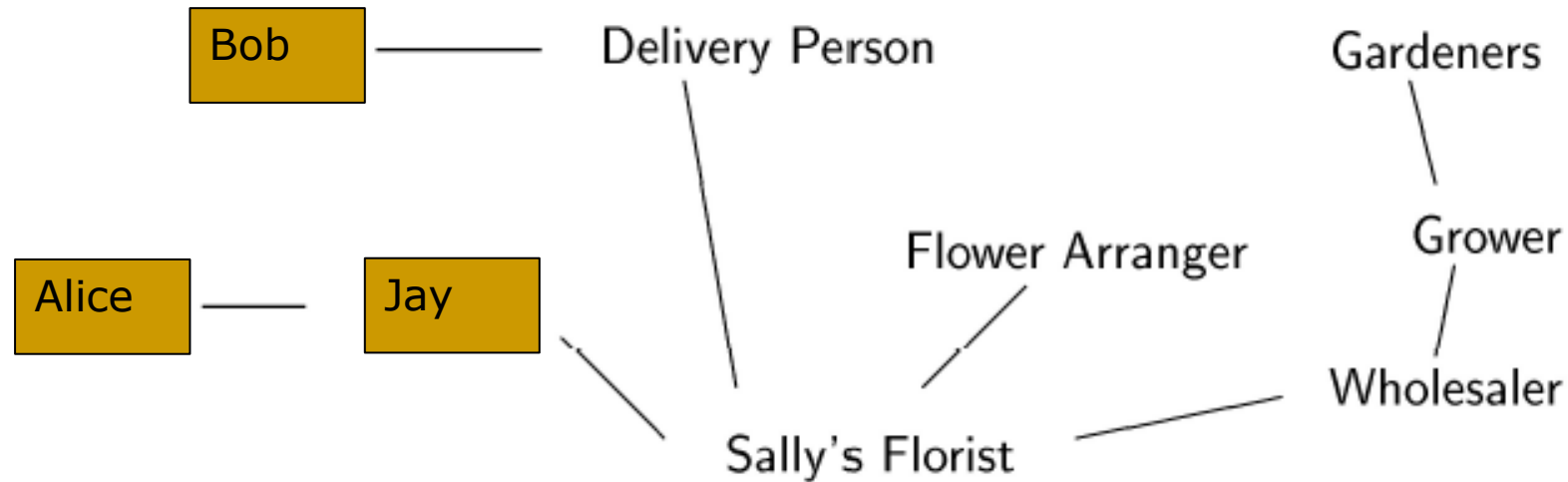


Figure: The community of agents (objects) helping Bob

Thinking Object Oriented

- Definition 1: An object oriented program is structured as a community of interacting agents, called **Objects**. Each object has a role to play. Each object provides a service, or performs an action, that is used by other members of the community.
- Design and development using **modular approach**.
- **Bottom-Up approach**: Combining small components together to give rise to solutions to complex problems.
- Responsibilities: A fundamental concept in OOP is to describe the behaviour in terms of **responsibilities**. Alice's request for an action indicates only the desired outcome (sending flowers to Bob). Jay is free to pursue any technique that achieve the desired objective and is not hampered/effected by any interference from Alice.
- By discussing any problem in terms of responsibilities, we increase the level of **abstraction**. This permits greater independence between objects.

Thinking Object Oriented

- **Classes, Objects, and Instances:** Although I have only dealt with Jay, a few times, I have a little idea of the *behaviour* I can expect when I go to his shop and present him with my request. However, I can make certain assumptions from the information I have about the florists in general, and I expect that Jay being an *instance* of this (florist) category, will fit the general pattern.
- In other words, we can use the term Florist to represent the category (*Class*) of all florists. Thus,
- All *objects* (agents) are *instances* of a class. The *method* invoked by an object in response to a *message* is determined by the *class* of the receiver. All objects of a given class use the same method in response to similar messages.

Summary

- **Alan Kay, considered as father of OOP, identified the following characteristics as fundamental to OOP:**
 - ❑ Everything is an object.
 - ❑ Computation is performed by objects communicating with each other. Objects communicate by sending and receiving messages
 - ❑ Each object has its own memory, which consists of other objects.
 - ❑ Every object is an instance of a class (which must be an object). A class simply represents a grouping of similar objects.
 - ❑ The class is the repository for behavior associates with an object, i.e. all objects that are instances of the same class can perform the same actions.
 - ❑ Classes are organized into a single rooted tree structure, called the inheritance tree. The memory and behavior associated with instances of a class are automatically available to any class associated with a descendent in this tree structure.

OOP vs Procedural Languages

Procedural Oriented Programming

In procedural programming, program is divided into small parts called **functions**.

Procedural programming follows **top down approach**.

There is **no access specifier** in procedural programming.

Adding new data and function is not easy.

Procedural programming does not have any proper way for hiding data so it is **less secure**.

In procedural programming, **overloading** is not possible.

In procedural programming, **function is more important** than data.

Procedural programming is based on **unreal world**.

Examples: C, FORTRAN, Pascal, Basic etc.

Object Oriented Programming

In object oriented programming, program is divided into small parts called **objects**.

Object oriented programming follows **bottom up approach**.

Object oriented programming have **access specifiers** like private, public, protected etc.

Adding new data and function is easy.

Object oriented programming provides data hiding so it is **more secure**.

Overloading is possible in object oriented programming.

In object oriented programming, **data is more important** than function.

Object oriented programming is based on **real world**.

Examples: C++, Java, Python, C# etc.

C++ as OOP language

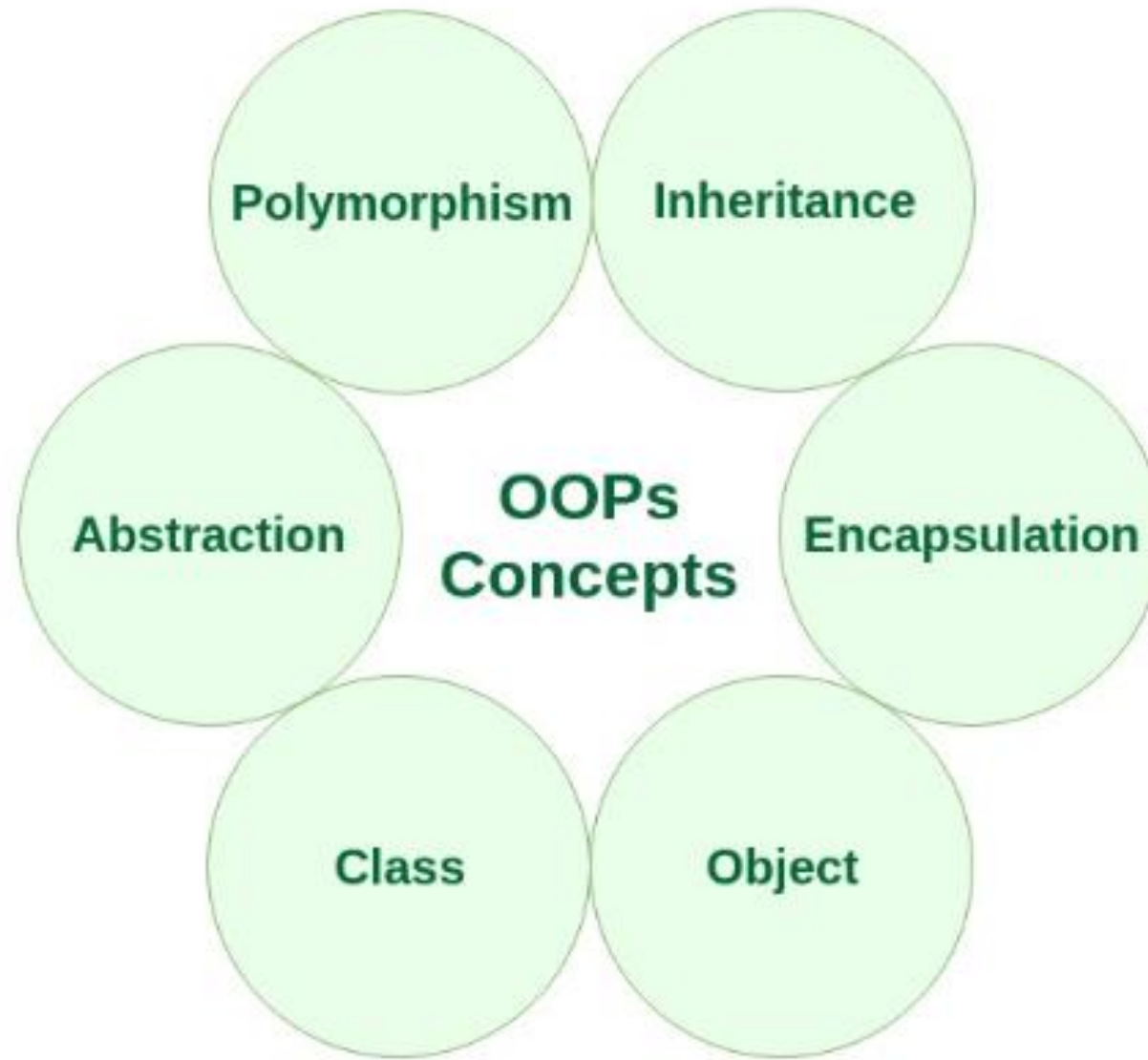
- C++ is an object-oriented, general purpose programming language derived from C.
- Existing code on C can be used with C++ (mode compatible). Even existing pre-compiled libraries can be used with new C++ code.
- Major improvements over C:
 - a. Stream I/O
 - b. In-lining
 - c. Parameter passing by reference.
 - d. Default argument values.
 - e. OOP features.

OOP principles

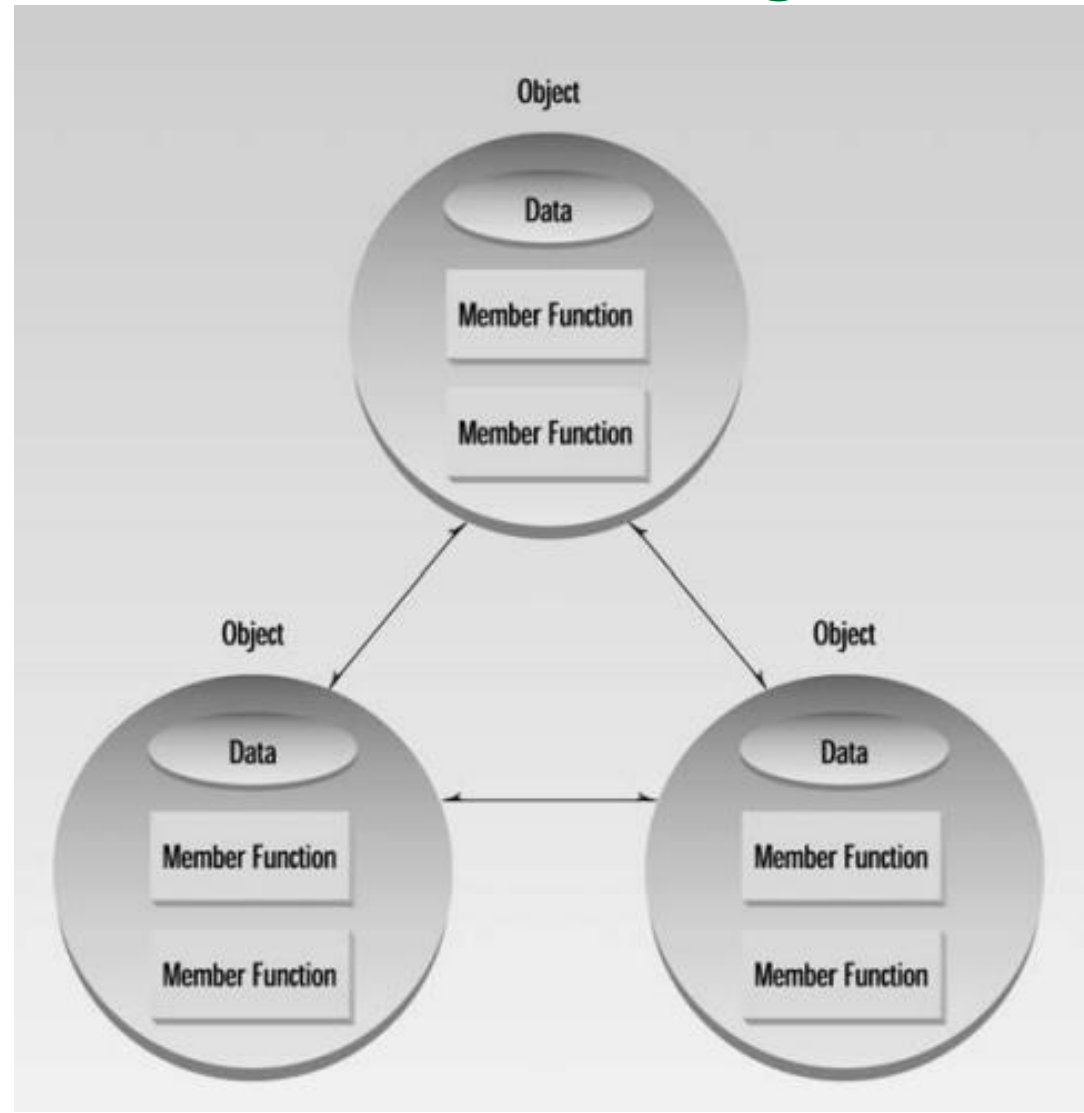
- **Encapsulation:** It is the process of hiding data members (variables, properties) and member functions (methods) into a single unit. Best example: Class.
- **Abstraction:** Refers to represent necessary features without including more details or explanation. Data abstraction relies on the separation of interface and implementation.
- **Inheritance:** The mechanism of deriving a new class from an old class is called inheritance.
- **Polymorphism:** Ability of object to take more than one form.

The Object-Oriented Approach

- The fundamental idea behind object-oriented languages is to **combine into a single unit both *data* and the *functions that operate on that data***. Such a unit is called an *object*.
- An **object's functions**, called *member functions* in C++, typically provide the only way to **access its data**. If you want to read a data item in an object, you call a member function in the object. It will access the data and return the value to you. You can't access the data directly.
- The data is *hidden*, so it is safe from accidental alteration. Data and its functions are said to be *encapsulated* into a single entity. *Data encapsulation* and *data hiding* are key terms in the description of object-oriented languages.
- If you want to modify the data in an object, **you know exactly what functions interact with it: the member functions in the object**. No other functions can access the data. This simplifies writing, debugging, and maintaining the program



The object-oriented paradigm.



Characteristics of Object-Oriented Languages- Objects

What kinds of things become objects in object-oriented programs?

■ **Physical objects**

- ❑ Automobiles in a traffic-flow simulation
- ❑ Electrical components in a circuit-design program
- ❑ Countries in an economics model
- ❑ Aircraft in an air traffic control system

■ **Elements of the computer-user environment**

- ❑ Windows
- ❑ Menus
- ❑ Graphics objects (lines, rectangles, circles)
- ❑ The mouse, keyboard, disk drives, printer

■ **Data-storage constructs**

- ❑ Customized arrays
- ❑ Stacks
- ❑ Linked lists
- ❑ Binary trees

■ **Human entities**

- ❑ Employees
- ❑ Students
- ❑ Customers
- ❑ Salespeople

An object is often called an “instance” of a class.

Characteristics of Objects

- **Identity:** makes an object different from other objects created from the same class.
- **State:**
 - defined by the contents of an object's attributes.
 - Objects state vary during the execution of program.
- **Behavior:** Defined by the messages (functions/methods) an object provides.

Object Life Cycle

- Object Creation
- Object Usage
- Object Disposal

Object Creation

- **Objects are created by instantiating a class.**

ClassName object = **new** ClassName();

- **Object creation involves three actions:**

- **Declaration:** Declaring the type of data
- **Instantiation:** Creating a memory space to store the object
- **Initialization:** Initializing the attributes in the object.

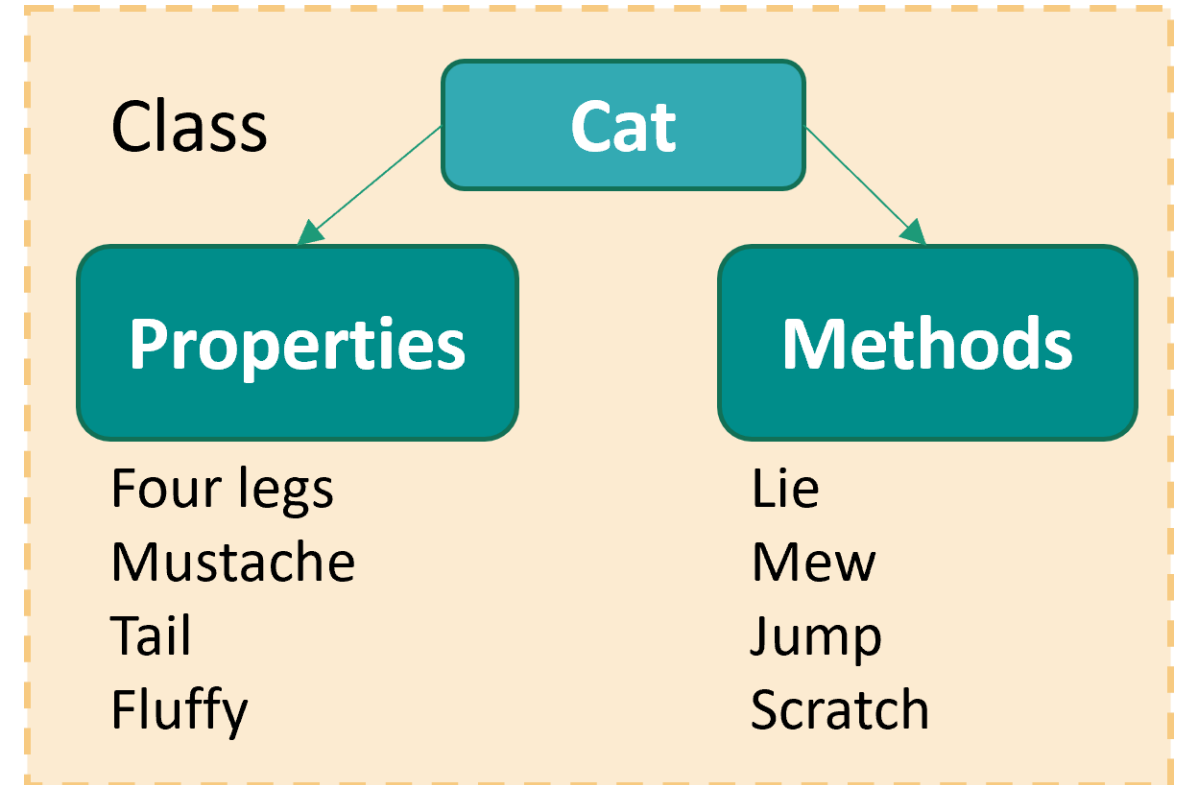
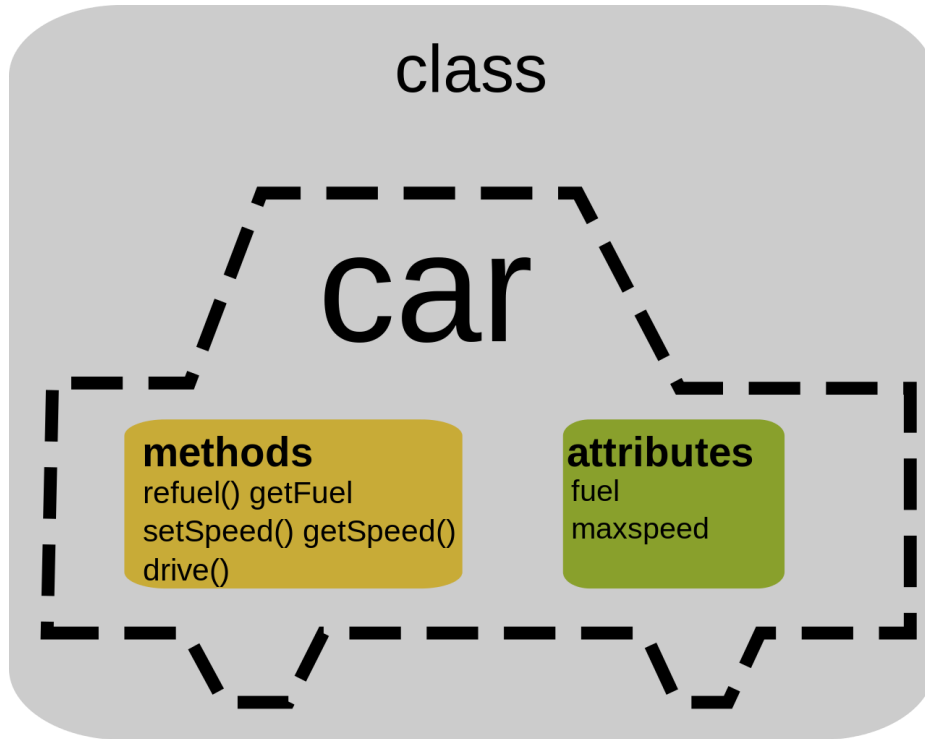
Characteristics of Object-Oriented Languages- Classes

- It is a user-defined data type, which holds its own data members and member functions, which can be accessed and used by creating an instance of that class. A C++ class is like a blueprint for an object.
- For Example: Consider the Class of **Cars**. There may be many cars with different names and brand but all of them will share some common properties like all of them will have *4 wheels, Speed Limit, Mileage range* etc. So here, **Car is the class and wheels, speed limits, mileage are their properties.**
- A Class is a **user defined data-type** which has **data members** and **member functions**.

Characteristics of Object-Oriented Languages- Classes

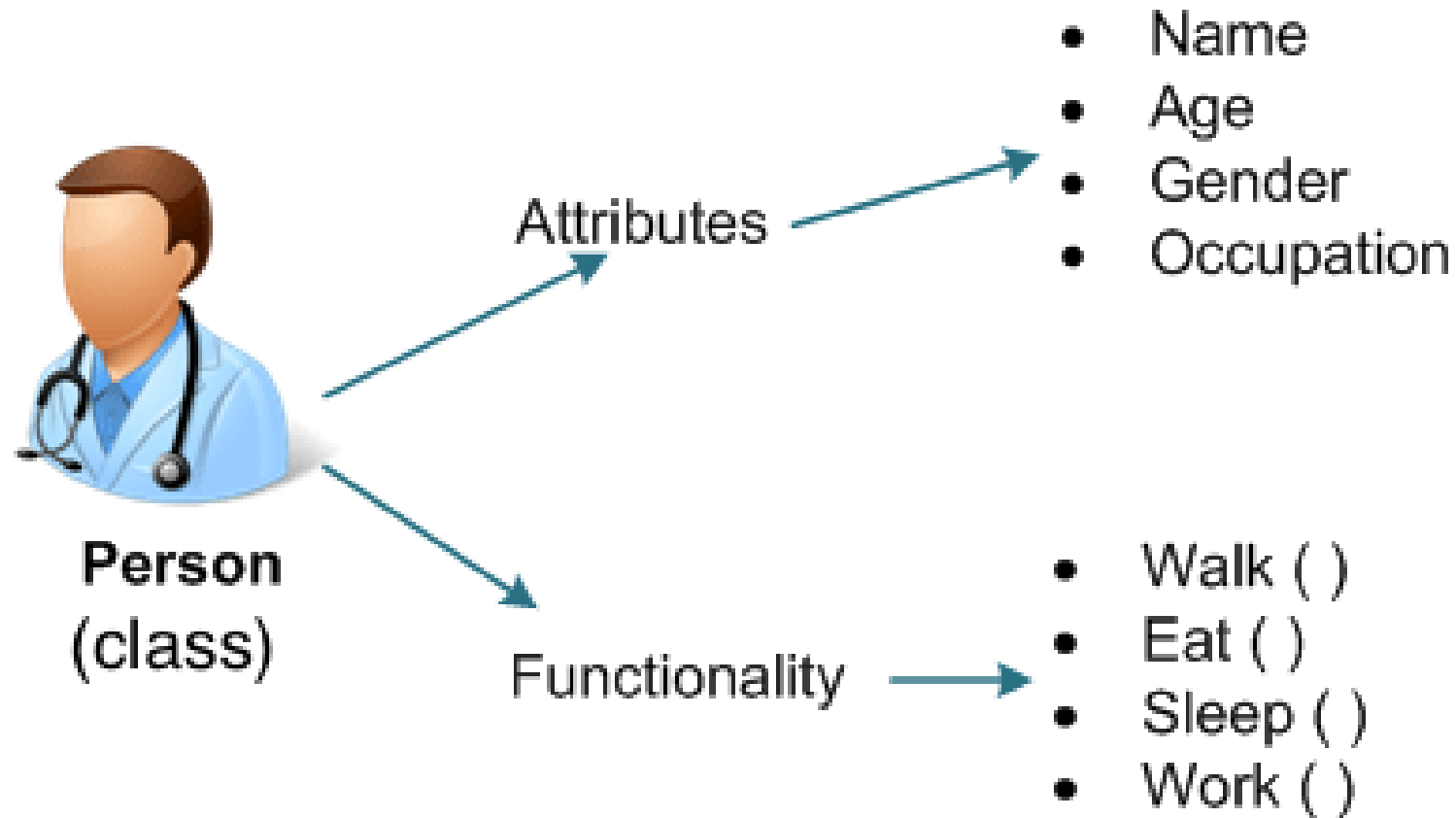
- Data members are the data variables and member functions are the functions used to manipulate these variables and together these data members and member functions defines the properties and behavior of the objects in a Class.
- In the above example of class *Car*, the data member will be *speed limit, mileage* etc. and member functions can be *apply brakes, increase speed* etc.
- Class serves as a plan, or blueprint. It specifies what data and what functions will be included in objects of that class.
- A class is thus a description of a number of similar objects.

Example of class:



Class Vs Object

- A class is a **template/blueprint** that describes the behaviors/states that object of its type support. It is a piece of the program's source code that describes a particular type of objects. OO programmers write class definitions.
- No memory is allocated for a class.
- Written by a programmer.
- Specifies the structure (the number and types) of its objects' attributes — the same for all of its objects.
- Specifies the possible behaviors of its objects.
- An object is an instance of a class. A program can create and use more than one object (instance) of the same class.
- An entity in a running program.
- Created when the program is running (by the main method or a constructor or another method). Object is real and each object has its own memory.
- Holds specific values of attributes; these values can change while the program is running.
- Behaves appropriately when called upon.



C++ Programming Basics: Basic Program Construction

#include <iostream> //preprocessor directive

using namespace std; //"using" directive

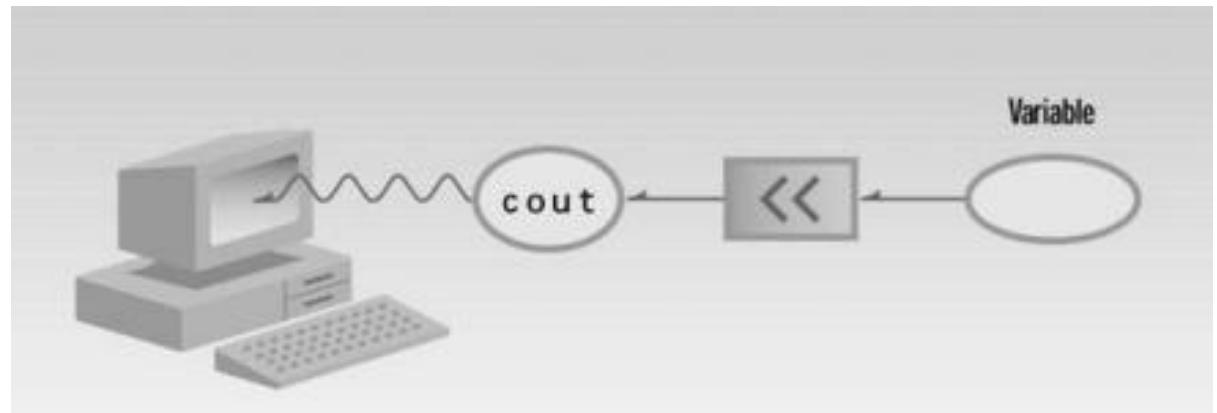
int main() //function name "main"

{ //start function body

cout << "Have a nice day!\n"; //statement std::cout << "Have a nice day!\n";

return 0; //statement

} //end function body



Writing first C++ program : Hello World example

// Header file for input output functions.

```
#include<iostream>
using namespace std;
// main function
int main()
{
    // prints hello world
    cout<<"Hello World";
    return 0;
}
```

```
#include<iostream>
int main()
{
    // prints hello world
    std::cout<<"Hello World";
    return 0;
}
```

- The **#include** directive tells the compiler to include a file. It tells the compiler to include the standard iostream file which contains declarations of all the standard input/output library functions.
- The built in C++ library routines are kept in the standard namespace. That includes stuff like cout, cin, string, vector, map, etc. Because these tools are used so commonly, it's popular to add "using namespace std" at the top of your source code so that you won't have to type the std:: **prefix** constantly.
- In C++ input and output is performed in the form of a sequence of bytes or more commonly known as **streams**.
 - **Input Stream:** If the direction of flow of bytes is from device to the main memory then this process is called input.
 - **Output Stream:** If the direction of flow of bytes is opposite, i.e. from main memory to device then this process is called output.

-
- >> (insertion operator)
 - << (extraction operator)
 - Even if your compiler accepts “void main()” avoid it, or risk being considered ignorant by C and C++ programmers.
 - namespace is a declarative region that provides a scope to the identifiers (names of the types, function, variables etc) inside it.
-

Writing a Simple C++ Program

- Every C++ program contains one or more functions, one of which must be named main. The operating system runs a C++ program by calling main.

```
int main()    //Function name
{
return 0;     //Return value
}             //Function body.
```

- return is a statement that terminates a function.
- When a return statement includes a value, the value returned must have a type that is compatible with the return type of the function.

Compiling and executing the program

- Save the program using suffix conventions such as .cc, .cxx, .cpp, .cp, and .C
- Assuming that we are compiling the program in a console window on a Linux system, we use `$ gcc prog1.c` to compile the program.
- Here, the Linux compiler put the executables in files named `a.out`. Thus, to run an executable on UNIX (Linux), we use the full file name, including the file extension: `$ a.out`
- If we need to specify the file's location, we'd use a "." followed by a forward slash to indicate that our executable is in the current directory: `$./a.out`

Input/Output (IO)

- C++ includes an extensive standard library that provides IO (and many other facilities).
- Generally, `iostream` library is used for handling input and output. Fundamental to the `iostream` library are two types named `istream` and `ostream`, which represent input and output streams, respectively. (A stream is a sequence of characters read from or written to an IO device.)
- The `iostream` library The library defines four IO objects.
- To handle input, we use an object of type `istream` named `cin`
- To handle input we use an `ostream` object named `cout`

Input/Output - Example

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "Enter two numbers:" << std::endl;
    int v1 = 0, v2 = 0; //int is the data type of variables
    std::cin >> v1 >> v2;
    std::cout << "The sum of " << v1 << " and " << v2
                << " is " << v1 + v2 << std::endl;
    return 0;
}
```

Input/Output - Example

- **#include <iostream>** tells the compiler that we want to use the iostream library. Every program that uses a library facility must include its associated header. Typically, we put all the #include directives for a program at the beginning of the source file.
- **<<** is an output operator. The left-hand operand must be an **ostream** object; the right-hand operand is a value to print.
- **std::cout << "Enter two numbers:" << std::endl;** can be replaced by:
 - `std::cout << "Enter two numbers:";`
 - `std::cout << std::endl;`
- The second operator prints **endl**, which is a special value called a **manipulator**. Writing **endl** has the effect of ending the current line and flushing the buffer associated with that device. Flushing the buffer ensures that all the output the program has generated so far is actually .

- In this program we use `std::cout` and `std::endl` rather than just `cout` and `endl`. The prefix `std::` indicates that the names `cout` and `endl` are defined inside the **namespace named `std`**. Namespaces allow us to avoid inadvertent collisions between the names we define and uses of those same names inside a library. All the names defined by the standard library are in the `std` namespace.
- One side effect of the library's use of a namespace is that when we use a name from the library, we must say explicitly that we want to use the name from the `std` namespace. Writing `std::cout` uses the scope operator (the `::` operator) to say that we want to use the name `cout` that is defined in the namespace `std`.
- The statement `std::cin >> v1 >> v2` is equivalent to:

```
std::cin >> v1;  
std::cin >> v2;
```

Exercise

- Write a program to print Hello, World on the standard output.
- The previous program used the addition operator, +, to add two numbers. Write a program that uses the multiplication operator, *, to print the product instead.

Creating Class

To create a class, use the **class** keyword.

```
class Student {  
    int roll_number; // Attribute  
  
    string Name; // Attribute  
  
};
```

Creating an object

- An object is created from a class.
- To create an object, specify class name followed by the object name.
- To access the class attributes, use the dot (.) syntax on the object.

```
Student Obj1; // Create an object of Student class
```

```
Obj1.roll_number = 10;
```

```
Obj1.Name = "Alice";
```

Class methods - Defining a method: 1

- Methods are functions that belongs to the class. They define the behavior/action taken by the object.

```
class Student
{
    public: // Access specifier (will be explained in Unit-II)
        void Method1()
        { // defining the method
            cout<<"Hello World";
        }
};
```

Class methods - Defining a method: 1

```
class Student
```

```
{  
    public: // Access specifier (will be explained in Unit-II)  
    void Method1();    // Method declaration  
};
```

```
void Student::Method1() // Defining outside of the class  
{  
    cout<<"Hello World";  
}
```


Class Methods: Example

```
class Student{  
Public:  
    // Declaration of state/properties.  
    string name;      //instance variable  
    int roll_number;  //instance variable  
    static int age;   //instance variable  
    // Declaration of Actions  
    void display_details()  
    { // Instance method.  
    //Method Body  
    }  
};
```

Class work- Create a class and its members for the following scenario.

1. Create a class that captures students. Each student has a first name, last name, class year, and major. Create two examples of students.
2. Create a class that captures planets. Each planet has a name, a distance from the sun, and its gravity relative to Earth's gravity. For distance and gravity, use the type double which captures real numbers. Make objects for Earth and your favorite non-earth planet.

Self practice- Create a class and its members for the following scenario.

Object- Person

State/Properties:

Black hair

5.10 height

Weighs 70 kg

Behaviour/Action:

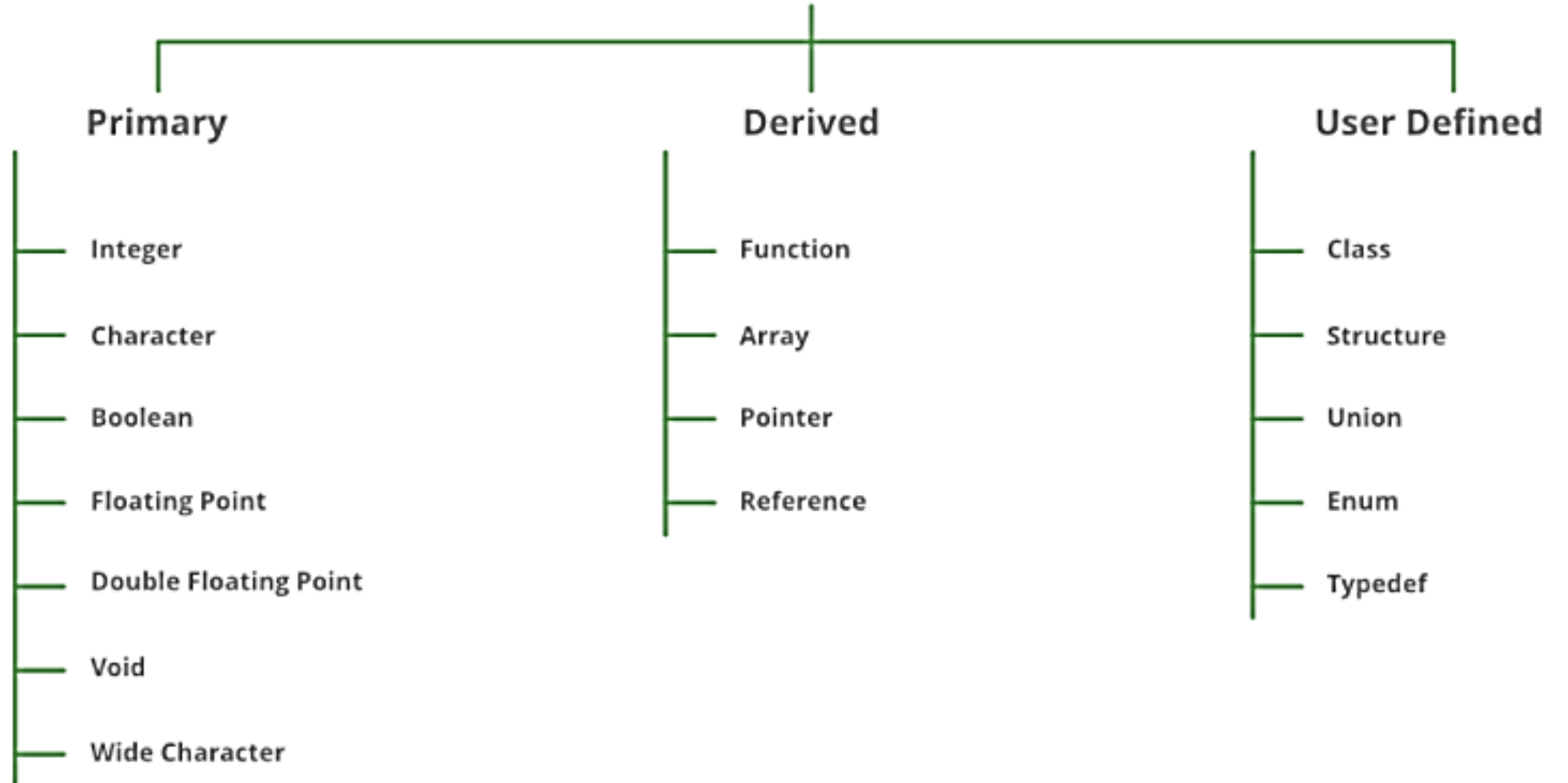
Eat

Sleep

Run

Datatypes

DataTypes in C / C++



Datatypes

- **Integer:** Keyword used for integer data types is int. Integers typically requires 4 bytes of memory space and ranges from -2147483648 to 2147483647.
- **Character:** Character data type is used for storing characters. Keyword used for character data type is char. Characters typically requires 1 byte of memory space and ranges from -128 to 127 or 0 to 255.
- **Boolean:** Boolean data type is used for storing boolean or logical values. A boolean variable can store either true or false. Keyword used for boolean data type is bool.
- **Floating Point:** Floating Point data type is used for storing single precision floating point values or decimal values. Keyword used for floating point data type is float. Float variables typically requires 4 byte of memory space.

Datatypes

- **Double Floating Point:** Double Floating Point data type is used for storing double precision floating point values or decimal values. Keyword used for double floating point data type is **double**. Double variables typically requires 8 byte of memory space.
- **void:** Void means without any value. void datatype represents a valueless entity. Void data type is used for those function which does not returns a value.
- **Wide Character:** Wide character data type is also a character data type but this data type has size greater than the normal 8-bit datatype. Represented by **wchar_t**. It is generally 2 or 4 bytes long.

Datatype Modifiers

Modifiers in C++



Data Type	Size (in bytes)	Range
short int	2	-32,768 to 32,767
unsigned short int	2	0 to 65,535
unsigned int	4	0 to 4,294,967,295
int	4	-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647
long int	4	-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647
unsigned long int	8	0 to 4,294,967,295
long long int	8	-(2 ⁶³) to (2 ⁶³)-1
unsigned long long int	8	0 to 18,446,744,073,709,551,615
signed char	1	-128 to 127
unsigned char	1	0 to 255
float	4	
double	8	
long double	12	
wchar_t	2 or 4	1 wide character

C++ Variables

type variable = value;

- Variables are containers for storing data values.
 - **int** - stores integers (whole numbers), without decimals, such as 123 or -123
 - **double** - stores floating point numbers, with decimals, such as 19.99 or -19.99
 - **char** - stores single characters, such as 'a' or 'B'. Char values are surrounded by single quotes
 - **string** - stores text, such as "Hello World". String values are surrounded by double quotes
 - **bool** - stores values with two states: true or false

```
int myNum = 5;           // Integer (whole number)
float myFloatNum = 5.99; // Floating point number
double myDoubleNum = 9.98; // Floating point number
char myLetter = 'D';     // Character
bool myBoolean = true;   // Boolean
string myText = "Hello"; // String
```

C++ Constants/Literals

- Constants refer to fixed values that the program may not alter and they are called **literals**.
- Constants can be of any of the basic data types and can be divided into Integer Numerals, Floating-Point Numerals, Characters, Strings and Boolean Values.
- Again, constants are treated just like regular variables except that their values cannot be modified after their definition.
- There are two simple ways in C++ to define constants –
- Using **#define** preprocessor. `#define identifier value`
- Using **const** keyword. `const type variable = value;`

C++ Constants/Literals

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
#define LENGTH 10
#define WIDTH 5
#define NEWLINE '\n'
int main()
{
    int area;
    area = LENGTH * WIDTH;
    cout << area;
    cout << NEWLINE;
    return 0;
}
```

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    const int LENGTH = 10;
    const int WIDTH = 5;
    const char NEWLINE = '\n';
    int area;
    area = LENGTH * WIDTH;
    cout << area;
    cout << NEWLINE;
    return 0;
}
```

Type Conversion in C++

- A **type cast** is basically a conversion from one type to another. There are two types of type conversion:
- **Implicit Type Conversion/Automatic type conversion**
 - Done by the compiler on its own, without any external trigger from the user.
 - Generally, takes place when in an expression more than one data type is present. In such condition type conversion (type promotion) takes place to avoid lose of data.
 - All the data types of the variables are upgraded to the data type of the variable with largest data type.
bool -> char -> short int -> int -> unsigned int -> long -> unsigned -> long long -> float -> double -> long double
 - It is possible for implicit conversions to lose information, signs can be lost (when signed is implicitly converted to unsigned), and overflow can occur (when long long is implicitly converted to float).

Type Conversion in C++

Explicit Type Conversion: This process is also called type casting and it is user-defined. Here the user can typecast the result to make it of a particular data type. It can be done by two ways:

Converting by assignment: This is done by explicitly defining the required type in front of the expression in parenthesis. This can be also considered as forceful casting.

- Syntax: (type) expression

Conversion using Cast operator: A Cast operator is an **unary operator** which forces one data type to be converted into another data type.

C++ supports four types of casting:

- Static Cast
- Dynamic Cast
- Const Cast
- Reinterpret Cast

Example

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{int x = 10; // integer x
char y = 'a'; // character c
// y implicitly converted to int. ASCII value of
// 'a' is 97
x = x + y; // x is implicitly converted to float
float z = x + 1.0;
cout << "x = " << x << endl<< "y = " << y <<
endl<< "z = " << z << endl;
return 0;
}
```

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    double x = 1.2;
    // Explicit conversion from double
    // to int
    int sum = (int)x + 1;
    cout << "Sum = " << sum;
    return 0;
}
```

Operators

Operators

- Arithmetic Operators
- Relational Operators
- Logical Operators
- Bitwise Operators
- Assignment Operators
- sizeof operator

Arithmetic Operators

Operator	Description
+ addition operator	Adds to operands.
- subtraction operator	Subtracts 2 nd operand from 1 st operand.
* multiplication operator	Multiplies 2 operands.
/ division operator.	Divides numerator by denominator.
% modulus operator	Returns remainder after division.
++ increment operator	Increases an integer value by 1.
-- decrement operator.	Decreases an integer value by 1.

Program to demonstrate Arithmetic Operators

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    int a = 11;
    int b = 5;
    int c;
    cout << "a + b is :" << a+b << endl; //11+5
    cout << "a - b is :" << a-b << endl; //11-5
    cout << "a * b is :" << a*b << endl; //11*5
    cout << "a / b is :" << a/b << endl; //11/5
    cout << "a % b is :" << a%b << endl; //11%5
    cout << "a++ is :" << a++ << endl; //11++
    cout << "a-- is :" << a-- << endl; //12--
    return 0;
}
```

Relational Operators

Operator	Description
== equal to operator.	Checks equality of two operand values.
!= not equal to operator	Checks equality of two operand values.
> great than operator	Checks whether value of left operand is greater than value of right operand.
< less than operator.	Checks whether value of left operand is less than value of right operand.
>= greater than or equal to operator	Checks whether value of left operand is greater than or equal to value of right operand.
<= less than or equal to operator.	Checks whether value of left operand is less than or equal to value of right operand.

Program to demonstrate Relational Operators

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    int a = 11;
    int b = 5;
    cout << "a=11, b=5" << endl;
    if (a == b) {
        cout << "a == b is true" << endl;
    }
    else {
        cout << " a == b is false" << endl;
    }
}
```

```
    if (a < b) {
        cout << "a < b is true" << endl;
    }
    else {
        cout << "a < b is false" << endl;
    }
    if (a > b) {
        cout << "a > b is true" << endl;
    }
    else {
        cout << "a > b is false" << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Logical Operators

Operator	Description
&& logical AND operator.	The condition is true if both operands are not zero.
logical OR operator.	The condition is true if one of the operands is non-zero.
! logical NOT operator.	It reverses operand's logical state. If the operand is true, the ! operator makes it false.

Program to demonstrate Relational Operators

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    int a = 5, b = 2, c = 6, d = 4;
    if (a == b && c > d)
        cout << "a equals to b AND c is greater than d\n";
    else
        cout << "AND operation returned false\n";
    if (a == b || c > d)
        cout << "a equals to b OR c is greater than d\n";
    else
        cout << "Neither a is equal to b nor c is greater than d\n";
    if (!b)
        cout << "b is zero\n";
    else
        cout << "b is not zero";
    return 0;
}
```

Bitwise Operators

Operator	Description
& (bitwise AND).	It takes 2 numbers (operands) then performs AND on each bit of two numbers. If both are 1, AND returns 1, otherwise 0.
(bitwise OR)	Takes 2 numbers (operands) then performs OR on every bit of two numbers. It returns 1 if one of the bits is 1.
^ (the bitwise XOR)	Takes 2 numbers (operands) then performs XOR on every bit of 2 numbers. It returns 1 if both bits are different.
<< (left shift)	Takes two numbers then left shifts the bits of the first operand. The second operand determines total places to shift.
>> (right shift)	Takes two numbers then right shifts the bits of the first operand. The second operand determines number of places to shift.
~ (bitwise NOT).	Takes number then inverts all its bits.

Program to demonstrate Bitwise Operators

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    unsigned int p = 60;    // 60 = 0011 1100
    unsigned int q = 13;    // 13 = 0000 1101
    int z = 0;
    z = p & q;
    cout << "p&q is : " << z << endl; // 12 = 0000 1100
    z = p | q;
    cout << "p|q is : " << z << endl; // 61 = 0011 1101
    z = p ^ q;
    cout << "p^q is : " << z << endl; // 49 = 0011 0001
    z = ~p;
    cout << "~p is : " << z << endl; // -61 = 1100 0011
    z = p << 2;
    cout << "p<<2 is: " << z << endl; // 240 = 1111 0000
    z = p >> 2;
    cout << "p>>2 is : " << z << endl; // 15 = 0000 1111
    return 0;
}
```


Program to demonstrate sizeof operator

This operator determines a variable's size. Use `sizeof` operator to determine the size of a data type.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    cout<<"Size of int : "<< sizeof(int) << "\n";
    cout<<"Size of char : " << sizeof(char) << "\n";
    cout<<"Size of float : " << sizeof(float) << "\n";
    cout<<"Size of double : " << sizeof(double) << "\n";
    return 0;
}
```

Program to demonstrate conditional/ternary operator

Condition ? Expression1 : Expression2;

- The Condition is the condition that is to be evaluated.
- Expression1 is the expression to be executed if condition is true.
- Expression2 is the expression to be executed if condition is false.
- This operator evaluates a condition and acts based on the outcome of the evaluation.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    int a = 1, b;
    b = (a < 10) ? 2 : 5;
    cout << "value of b: " << b << endl;
    return 0;
}
```