

UNIT: 01.

OOPs CONCEPTS

Syllabus: Introduction, Comparison b/w procedural programming paradigm and object oriented programming paradigm, features of object oriented programming: Encapsulation, class, object, Abstraction, data hiding, polymorphism, and inheritance.
Introduction of object oriented design.

Oops :- OOP (Object oriented programming) is a programming approach that are based on class and objects which contain data and code that manipulate that data.

→ oops promote the use of objects, encapsulation, inheritance, and polymorphism to create modular and maintainable code.

Aspect

Procedural programming

Object oriented programming

1. Focus	Procedures and functions.	Objects and their interaction.
2. Data and functions	Separated	Encapsulated within object (classes)
3. Organization	Functions	Classes and object
4. Data sharing	Global access	Controlled access within objects.
5. Code reusability	Limited, function can be reused	Reusable code access through inheritance and polymorphism.

Q.

POP

OOP

- ① POP follow top down approach.
- ② It is less secure
- ③ It deal's with algorithm.
- ④ It take very less memory.
- ⑤ There is no any access specifier.
- ⑥ In POP, we can't perform overloading.
- ⑦ In POP, data hiding is not possible.
- ⑧ Program is divided into small parts called functions.

- ① OOP follow bottom up approach.
- ② It is high secured.
- ③ It deals with data.
- ④ It take more memory than POP.
- ⑤ It have access specifier like public, private and protected etc.
- ⑥ In OOP overloading is possible.
- ⑦ In OOPs, data hiding is possible.
- ⑧ Program is divided into small parts called objects.

Examples:

C, Fortran, Pascal, etc.

Example:

C++, Java, Python etc.

Features of Object Oriented programming

1. Encapsulation : It is a fundamental concept in OOP that promotes data protection and organization. It involves building the data (attribute or properties) and methods (function or behaviours) that operate on that data into a single unit, the class.

The meaning of Encapsulation, is to make sure that 'sensitive data' is hidden from users. To achieve this you must declare a class variable/attribute as private (cannot be accessed from outside the class). If you want others to read or modify the value of a private member, you can provide public get and set methods.

2. Class : A class in C++ is the building blocks that leads to object oriented programming.

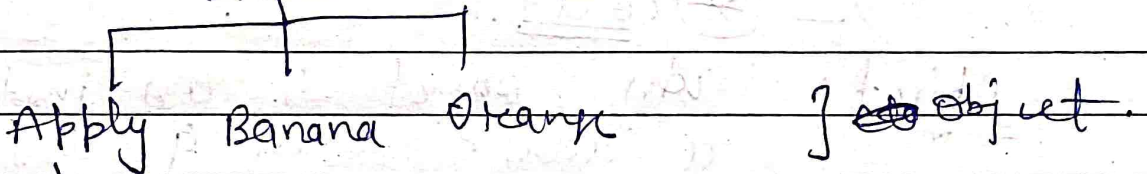
- class is a user defined data type which hold its own data members and member function, which can be used and accessed by creating an instance of that class.

- A C++ class is like a blueprint for an object
- Class is a user defined data type which has data members and member function.

~~class classname~~

Eg

fruit] class .



Syntax key word

↓ class classname ← user defined data type

↓

Access specifier: // Can be public, Private or protected

Data Member ; // variable to be used

Member function() // Methods to access data Member

Body of function ;

}; // class name end with semi colon

#

#

#

#

#

#

#

#

eg

class student

{

public:

int Roll no;
string name;
void show();

?
member data
Member function.

}

cout << "your name = " << name;

}
}

Control

Object: An object is an instance of a class. When a class is defined no memory is allocated but when it is instantiated (such an object is created) memory is allocated.

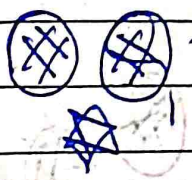
Declaring object: When a class is defined, only the specification for the object is defined, no memory or storage is allocated.

To use data and access functions defined in the class, you need to create object.

Syntax

class name object name;

Access data member and Member functions;



The data member and member function of a class can be accessed using dot(.) operator. with object:

Syntax:

```
Object name . member data ;
Object name . member function ( ) ;
```

Eg

```
* ->
int main()
{
```

```
    Student obj;
    ob. Rollno = 30;
    ob. name = "Kailash";
    ob. show();
```

#

```
return 0;
}
```

4. Abstraction: It is the process of simplifying complex object by focusing on essential features while hiding unnecessary details.

☆ # #

Example:-

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

☆ #

☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆

⊙

```

    bool startEngine()
    public:
    void start() {
        startEngine = true;
        cout << "Engine started :)" << endl;
    }
    void drive()
    {
        if (startEngine)
        {
            cout << "you r ready to drive :)" ;
        }
        else
        {
            cout << "Can't drive the car" ;
        }
    }
};

int main() {
    Car c;
    c.start();
    c.drive();
}

```

5. Data hiding: Data hiding is a concept in which the internal details or state of an object are hidden from the outside world. This is achieved by using access specifiers (eg, private, protected) to



5

3, 4, 5

Control access to class members.



Polymorphism: It is a concept in which an object can be treated in different ways. It means that object of a class can be used as object of their ~~derived~~ derived classes.



- (1) Static } Polymorphism.
- (2) Dynamic }

(5)

Eg

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



Inheritance: In C++, it is possible to inherit attributes and methods from one class to another. We group the "inheritance concept" into two categories.



- derived class (child) — the class that inherit from another class
- Base class (parent) — the class being inherited from.

To inherit the class we use : Symbol.

Why?
Reusability

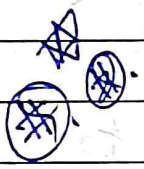


Introduction of Object Oriented Design.

Object Oriented Design (OOD) is the process of designing a system or application using oop principle. It involves identifying classes, their relationships, and defining their attributes and methods.

Eg: when designing a software systems for a library, you'd use oop to create classes for books, patrons, and library operation.

You'd define how these classes interact to achieve task like checking out book or managing the library Catalog.



Chapter 1
is completed

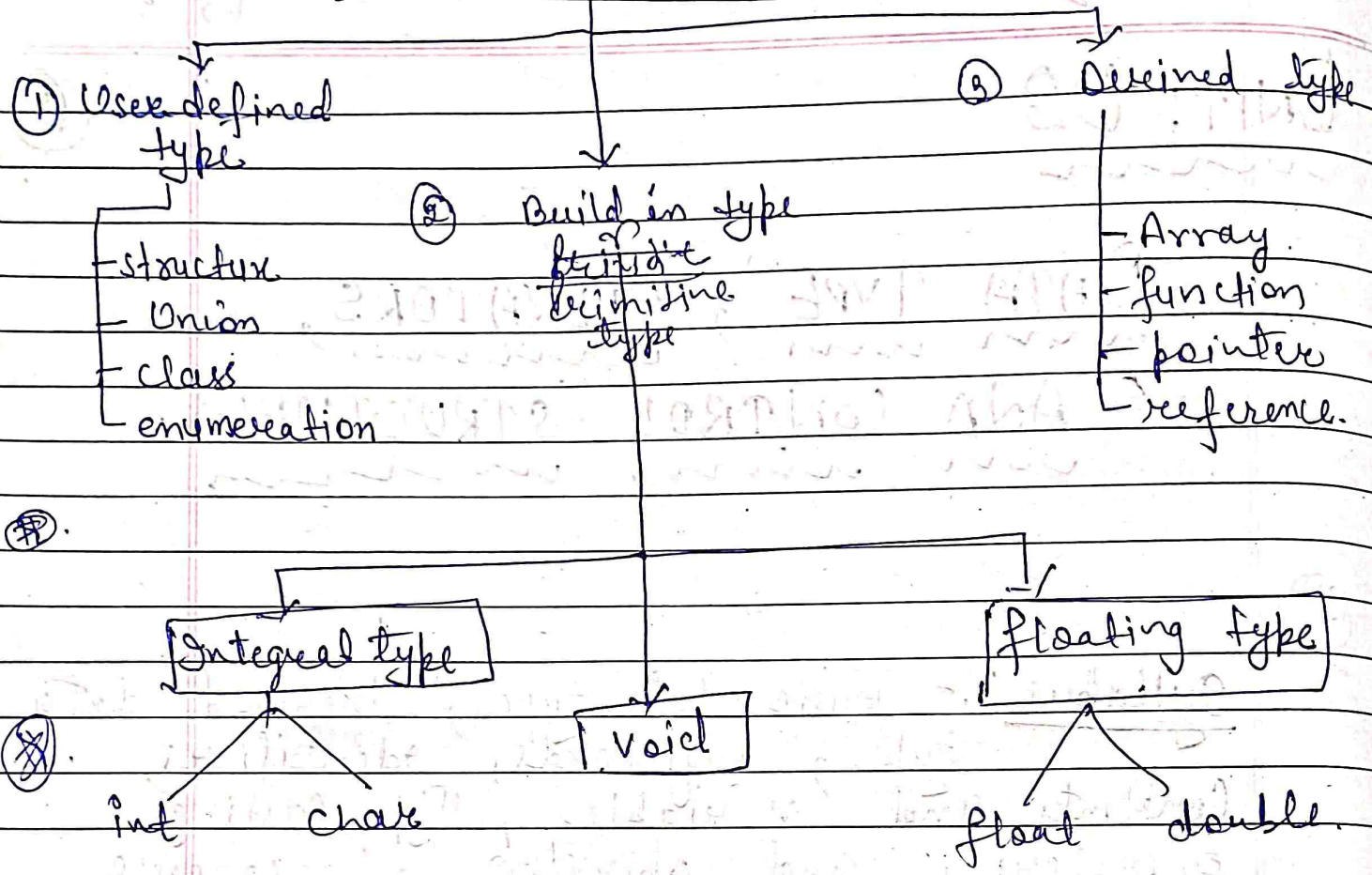


UNIT: 02

DATA TYPE , OPERATORS,
AND CONTROL STRUCTURES.

Syllabus :- Basic data type, received data type, keywords, identifiers, constants and variables, Type Casting, operators, and operator precedence. Control structure: if statement, switch-case, for, while, and do-while loops, break and continue statement.

C++ Data type



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Satnam Singh 12/9/23

Built in

void -> To specify the return type of the function.

-> @ to indicate an empty argument list in a function.

Integer: -> int
 -> 2 bytes
 -> short, long, signed & unsigned
 -> range = -32768 to 32767

character: → char
→ 1 byte
→ short, long, signed, unsigned.
range = -128 to 127

* float: 4 byte
range = 3.4×10^{-37} to 3.4×10^{37}

⊗ Double: 8 byte
range = 1.7×10^{-308} to 1.7×10^{308}

User Defined data type

1. class: Already discussed.

2. Structure: A structure is a collection of variables of different data type referenced under one name.

⊗ Eg struct student

⊗ {
⊗ int roll-no;
⊗ char name [20];
⊗ float marks;
⊗ char grade;

};

⊗

⊗

3. Union: A Union is a memory location that is shared by two or more different variables, generally of different types at different times. Defining a Union is similar to defining a structure.

Eg

```
Union share  
{  
    int a;  
    char ch;  
};
```

```
Union share C;
```

4. Enumeration: It is a user defined data type used to define a set of name integer constants. Enumerations are used to make the code more readable.

Eg

```
enum EnumName  
{  
    constant 1,  
    constant 2,  
    constant 3;  
};
```

Derived Data Type

1. Array: Array is a collection of element of the same data type.

Eg: `int scores [5] = {90, 85, 85, 92, 10};`

2. Pointers: Pointers store memory addresses of variable.

Eg:
`int x = 10;`
`int * ptr = &x; // ptr store the address of x`

3. Structures: Functions: Functions is a set of statement that take input ~~provide~~ perform some computation and produce output.

Eg:
`int add (int a, int b)`
`{`
`return a+b;`
`}`

4. References: References are aliases or alternative names for variable.

They provide an alternative way to access data stored in a variable.

Eg:
`int x = 10;`
`int &ref x = x; // create a reference to x.`

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Keyword: Keyword is nothing but reserved word, whose meaning already defined, on the the compiler.

Note: (1) we can't use keyword as a variable and constant name.

(2) keyword must be in lower case.

C++ Keyword list

break, short, for, void, this, do, while, enum, float, this, if etc

Eg: if → only used for conditional statement

else → used only in combination with "if".

for → used for looping statement.

Identifiers: It refers to the name that is used to identify variable, function and so on.

→ they must start with a letter (uppercase or lowercase) or an underscore.

Variable: Variable is nothing but name of name of memory where we store the data.

→ variable are symbol.

Note: (i) variable are case-sensitive in C++

(1) In C++, variable starts with either (a-z, A-Z) or underscore (_).

(2) we can't give extra space between the variable.

→ variable can hold different values at different time during the program's execution.

Ex: `int count = 0;`

Constant: Constant are values that remain unchanged during the execution of a program. In C++ you can define constant by the keyword "const" keyboard.

→ constant are type of value.

Ex: `const int numberOfMonths = 12;`

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Type Casting It is the process of converting a value from one data type to another.

There are two types of typecasting

- ① Implicit Type Casting
- ② Explicit Casting

1. Implicit Typecasting: happens automatically when the compiler convert a value from one data type to another, typically to prevent data loss.

2. Explicit Type Casting: is when the programmer manually specifies the conversion from one data type to another using casting operators.

Example

```
#include <iostream>
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
// implicit type casting
```

```
int numInt = 5;
```

```
double numDouble = 2.5;
```

```
double result = numInt + numDouble;
```

```
std::cout << "Implicit Result : " << result <<
std::endl;
```

// Explicit type casting.

```
double myDouble = 3.14;
int myInteger = static_cast <int> (myDouble);
```

```
std::cout << "Explicit Result : " << myInteger
<< std::endl;
```

return 0;

4.

Operators

1. Arithmetic operators: +, -, *, /, %

2. Logical:

&& (AND) — Returns true, if both operands true

|| (OR) — True, if atleast one true

! (NOT) — Reverses the result

3. Relational:

<, >, <=, >=, ==, !=

4. Assignment: +=, -=, *=, /=, %-

5. Increment and decrements: ++, --

6. Bitwise: & (Bitwise AND), | (OR), ^ (XOR)
~ (NOT), << (left shift), >> (Right shift)

Operator precedence: is the order in which operators are evaluated in an expression. operator with higher operands are evaluated first.

- *, /, % higher than +, -
- <, >, <=, >=, ==, != than &, ||, !

Control structures

if

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    int age; int a=20;
    age = if (a < 30)
    {
        cout << "True" << endl;
    }
}
```

```
if else,  
{  
  int age;  
  cout << "enter your age";  
  cin >> age;
```

```
  if (age >= 18)  
  {  
    cout << "adult";
```

```
  }  
  else  
  {  
    cout << "not adult";  
  }  
  return 0;  
}
```

```
else if {  
  int score;  
  cout << "enter your score";  
  cin >> score;
```

```
  if (score >= 90)  
  {  
    cout << "A";
```

```
  }  
  else if (score >= 80)  
  {  
    cout << "B";
```

```
else if (score >= 70)
{
    cout << "C";
}
else
{
    cout << "F";
}
return 0;
}
```

Switch Case It is used to perform multi-way branching based on the value of an expression.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    int day = 4;
    switch (day)
    {
        case 1:
            cout << "Monday";
            break;

        case 2:
            cout << "Tuesday";
            break;
    }
}
```



```
Case 3:  
cout << "Wednesday";  
break;
```

```
Case 4:  
cout << "Thursday";  
break;
```

```
default:  
    cout << "weekend";  
}  
return 0;
```

for loop: It is used for iterating a specific number of times.

```
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std;  
int main()  
{  
    for (int i = 1; i <= 6; i++)  
    {  
        cout << "iteration " << i << " ";  
    }  
    return 0;  
}
```

while loop:

```
#include <iostream>
int main()
{
    int a = 4;
    while (a < 10)
    {
        std::cout << "a:" << a << std::endl;
        a++;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

do while loop:

```
#include <iostream>
int main()
{
    int num = 1;
    do
    {
        std::cout << "Number:" << num << std::endl;
        num++;
    } while (num <= 5);
    return 0;
}
```


used in loop + switch case

Break statement: It is used to exit a loop prematurely.

```

#include <iostream>
int main()
{
  for (int i=1; i<=10; i++)
  {
    if (i==5)
    {
      break;
    }
  }
  cout << i << endl;
  return 0;
}

```

Output
1 2 3 4

used in loop only


Continue statement: It is used to continue the next iteration in the loop

```

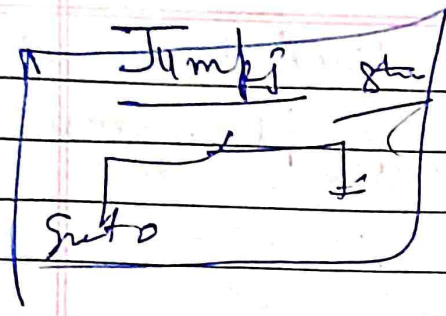
#include <iostream>
int main()
{
  for (i=1; i<=10; i++)
  {
    if (i==3)
    {
      continue;
    }
  }
  cout << i << endl;
  return 0;
}

```

Output
1 2 4 5 6
7 8 9 10

3- return 0; 

Transfer the program control
 ↓ to a different part of program
 continue



Jumping statement

- go to
- break
- continue
- return.

```

int main()
{
    int a;
    for (a=1; a<=10; a++)
    {
        if (a==5)
        {
            goto out;
        }
        cout << num << endl;
    }
    cout << "Hi Mitesh ...";
out:
    cout << "hello learner";
}

```

output : 1, 2, 3, 4, hello learner

return

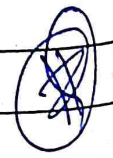
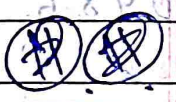
```

int add() {
    int a=10, b=20;
    return a+b;
}

main() {
    cout << add();
}

```

↳ it's data type and number which



UNIT: 03

CLASS AND OBJECTS.

Syllabus :-> Implementation of a class, Creating class object, operations on objects, Relationship among objects, Accessing class members, Access specifiers, Constructors and destructor, Type of Constructors, Static members, Empty classes, nested classes, Local classes, Abstract classes, Container classes.

Implementation of a class?

Class + object in OOP using C++

Class in OOP

A class is an entity that determine how an object will behave and what the object will contain.

In other words, it is a blueprint or a set of instructions to build a specific type of ~~obj~~ object.

→ The class + object are the most imp. features of C++.

→ A class is similar to structure but it provides more advanced features.

⊕. → Keyword → "class"

Syntax

```
class class_name {
```

```
    field;
```

```
    method;
```

```
};
```

Eg:

```
class Test {
```

```
    private:
```

```
    int n = 10;
```

```
    public:
```

```
    void show();
```

```
};
```

cout << "The value of n: " << n;

```
};
```

object:

- This is the basic unit of object oriented programming.
-

Declaring

```
class-name object-name;
Test T;
```

Eg color } is class
 Red }
 Blue } - object

Programming

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class Test {
private:
    int n = 10;
public:
    void show();
};
cout << "The value of n: " << n << endl;
};
```

```
main ()  
{  
    Test T; // Declaring object  
    T.show();  
}
```

class data and Member function

- Access specifier label public and private.
- Function are public and data is private.
- Data is hidden so that it can be safe from accidental manipulation.
- Functions operates on data are public so they can be accessed from outside the class.

Member functions

- Member functions are functions that operate on the data encapsulated in the class.
- Public member function are the interface to the class.

→ define member function inside the class definition
or

define member functions outside the class definition.

↳ But they must be declared inside the function.

Function inside class body

Define a class of st. that has a roll no. This class should have a function that can be used to set the roll no.

⊗

```
class student {
    int rollno;
public:
    void set (int rollno) {
        rollno = rollno;
    }
};
```

```
int classclass {
public:
    return type function name()
    { }
};
```

⊗

⊗

⊗

Function outside class body

```
class classname {
public:
    Return type function name();
};
```

⊗

⊗

```
class name:: function name () { } ⊗
```

∴ → scope resolution operator

Program

700639

```

class student {
    int rollNo;
public:
    void show (int a rollNo);
};

void student::show (int a rollNo)
{
    rollNo = a rollNo;
}

```

Member function with a parameter

How to create input and output Method in Class - in C++

```

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class student
{
private:
    int roll no;
    char name [30];
public:
    void inputData () {

```



```

cout << "Enter roll no. ";
cin >> roll no;
cout << "Enter name: ";
cin >> name;

```

```

main() {

```

```

    student S;

```

```

    cout << " ----- Input Data ----- " << endl;

```

```

    S.inputData();
}

```

Ans

public :

```

void inputData() {

```

```

    cout << "Enter roll no. ";

```

```

    cin >> roll no;

```

```

    cout << "Enter name: ";

```

```

    cin >> name;
}

```

```

void outputData() {

```

```

    cout << "Your roll no. is: " << roll no << endl;

```

```

    cout << "Your name is: " << name;
}

```

```

main() {

```

```

    student S;

```

```

    cout << " ----- Input Data ----- " << endl;

```

```

    S.inputData();
}

```

Cont < 4 --- output data --- read |

S. output Data ()

y

Access specifier

⊕. Access specifier in C++ class defines the access control rules

→ C++ has 3 new keywords introduced, namely.

1. Public
2. Private
3. Protected

→ Access specifier in the program, are followed by colon.

→ You can use either one, two or all 3 these specifier in the same class to set different boundaries for different class members.

1. Public: Means all the class member declared under public will be available to everyone.

→ Hence, there are chances that they might change them.

→ So the key members must not be declared public

Class public Access

```

{
  public: // public
  int x; // Data Member function
  void display(); // Member function declarator
}

```

2. Private: Keyword, means that no one can access the class members declared private outside that class.

→ If someone tries to access the private member, they will get a compile time error.

→ By default class variable and member function are private.

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Class privateAccess

{

private: // private access specifier
int x; // data member declaration
void display(); // mem. func. dec-

}

3. Protected: in the last access specifier, and it is similar to private, it makes class members inaccessible outside the class.

But they can be accessed by any subclass of that class. (If class A is inherited by class B, then class B is the subclass of class A.)

Class protectedAccess

{

protected:
int x;
void display();

}

Constructors

→ Simple object used to analyze the functions

→ C++ requires a constructor call for each object it has created.

→ Constructors are special class functions which performs initialization of every object.

→ The compiler call the constructors when ever an object is created.

→ If there were no constructor, the compiler provides a default constructor that is, a constructor with no parameters.

→ Name of constructor function is same as name of class.

Note

First, constructor name must be same as the name of class.

↳ way of compiler know they are constructor.

Second, no return type is used for constructors.

↳ 2nd way to know of compiler.

```
class Test {  
    Private :  
        int n;  
    Public :  
        Test() {  
            n=0;  
        }  
};
```

Annotations:
- "class Test" is labeled as "Class name".
- "Test()" is labeled as "Member function".
- A note says "And no return type".

Type of Constructors

1. Default Constructors
2. Parametrized Constructors
3. Copy Constructors
4. ~~Parametrized~~ Dynamic Constructors

Properties

1. Constructors have the same name as that of the class belong to.
2. Constructors are executed when an object is declared;
3. Constructors have no return value nor void.
4. The main function of constructors is to initialize the object.
5. Constructors can have default values and can be overloaded.
6. Constructors without argument is called as default.
7. They cannot be inherited.

Program

Destructor:

- ① Destructor is a special member function that is executed automatically when an object is destroyed that has been created by the constructor
- ② They are used for de-allocate the memory that has been allocated for the object by the constructor
- ③ A destructor declaration should always begin with the tilde (~) symbol as shown in the following example.

Example of Const. & Destructors

```
#include <iostream>
#include <conio.h>
class test
{
public:
    test()
    {
        n = 10;
        cout << n;
    }
    ~test()
    {
```

```
}  
    cout << " object destroyed ";  
}  
};  
  
void main()  
{  
    test ob;  
    getch();  
}
```

OR

```
class a  
{  
    int n;  
    public:  
    a()  
    {  
        n = 10;  
        cout << n << endl;  
    }  
    ~a()  
    {  
        cout << " destroyed object << endl;  
        cout << n << endl;  
    }  
};  
  
void main()  
{  
    class a, a ob, ob1;  
    getch();  
}
```


Type of Constructors

1. Default constructor: A constructor with no parameters is called default constructor.

Syntax

```
Class - name ()  
{  
    // code  
}
```

Program

```
#include <iostream.h>  
#include <conio.h>  
class A  
{  
    int a; // Private  
public:  
    A ()  
    {  
        a = 100;  
        cout << a;  
    }  
};  
void main ()  
{  
    clrscr ();  
    A obj;  
    getch ();  
}
```

g. Parametrized constructor : A constructor that accepts one or more parameters is called parametrized constructor.

Syntax :- class name (parameter, para2 ...)
 {
 }
 }

Example :

```
#include <iostream>
#include <conio.h>
class A
{
    int a, b; // private
public:
    A(int x, int y)
    {
        a = x; b = y;
    }
    void show()
    {
        cout << a << " " << b;
    }
};

void main()
{
    A obj; A obj(10, 20);
    obj.show();
    getch();
}
```

3. Copy constructor: A constructor that copy or initialized the value of one object into another object is called Copy constructor.

Syntax:

```

class name ( class-name &ref )
{
    // code ;
}
    
```

Example:

```

class A
{
    int a, b ; // Private
    Public :
    A (int x, int y)
    {
        a = x ; b = y ;
    }
    A (A &ref) // copy ref
    {
        a = ref.a ;
        b = ref.b ;
    }
    void show()
    {
        cout << a << " " << b << endl ;
    }
}
    
```

Compiler → Static memory allocated
runtime → dyn

4;

```
void main()  
{
```

```
    class A;  
    A obj(10, 30);  
    A obj2 = obj;  
    obj.show();  
obj2.show();  
    obj2.show();  
    getch();  
}
```

4.

4;

4. Dynamic constructor; It is used for allocating memory while creating object.

Example

```
class integer  
{  
    int *x;  
    int *y;  
public:  
    integer ()  
    {  
        integer (int x, int y)  
        {  
            *x = x;  
            *y = y;  
        }  
    }  
}
```

```

void add()
{
    int sum = x + y;
    cout << "int sum is = " << sum;
}

void main()
{
    integer obj(10, 20);
    obj.add();
}

```

Constructor overloading

If a class contains multiple constructors where each type of constructor have different parameters then it is called constructor overloading.

Syntax :-

```
class-name()
```

```
{
```

```
}
```

```
class-name(param, param...)
```

```
}
```

```
}
```

Example

Class A

{

int a, b; // Private float c;

Public:

A() // default constructor

{

cout << "Enter two no. ";

cin >> a >> b;

cout << a << " " << b << endl;

}

A(int x, int y) // Parameterized constructor

{

a = x; b = y;

cout << a << " " << b << endl;

}

A(int x, float y)

{

a = x; c = y;

cout << a << " " << c << endl;

}

3. int main()

{

class A;

A obj1(100, 200), obj2(10, 2.3);

obj1.print();

}

#

#

#

Copy

Constructor

1. It allocates memory to an object.
2. The name of the constructor is the same name as the class name.
3. It is been automatically called at the time of object declaration.
4. We can pass argument through constructor.
5. We can declare multiple construction in a class.
6. They can be overloaded.
7. They ~~has~~ are many types.

Syntax

```
class - name (arg)
{
  =
  =
}
```

Destructor

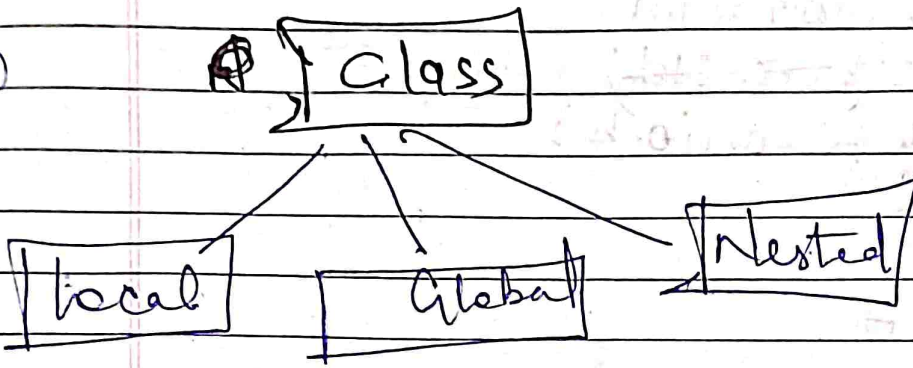
1. It deallocate the memory of an object.
2. The name of destruction is the same name as the class name but preceding tilde sign (~).
3. It is automatically called at the time of object termination.
4. We can't pass any argument through destruction.
5. Only one destruction in a class.

6. But, overload is not possible.
7. No type

Syntax - ~ class name ()
{
 =
 =
}

Jai Hoo Satnam

18/9/22



Local Class: A class which is declared inside a function is called local class.

Syntax: return-type function name

{
class class-name

{
=====
}

};

{

main()

{

function-name;

}


```
Example: #include <iostream>
using namespace std;
#include <conio.h>
void fun()
```

⊗

class A

{

private:

int a, b;

public:

void show()

{

cout << "Enter two no";

cin >> a >> b;

cout << a << " < b";

}

};

A obj;

obj.show();

}

void main()

{

clrscr();

fun();

getch();

}

Global Class :- A class which is declared outside of all the function.

```
Syntax :-  
class class-name  
{  
    Protected:  
    // Data Member  
Private Public:  
    // Member function  
}
```

```
class class-name : public  
{
```

```
};
```



Example:

```
#include <iostream.h>
```

```
#include <conio.h>
```

```
class A
```

```
{
```

```
protected:
```

```
int a, b;
```

```
public:
```

```
void disp()
```

```
{
```

```
cout << "Enter two no: ";
```

```
(cin >> a) >> b;
```

```
}
```

```
void show()
```

```
{
```

```
cout << a << " " << b << endl;
```

```
}
```

```
};
```

```
class B : Public A,
```

```
{
```

```
public:
```

```
void disp()
```

```
{
```

```
cout << a << " " << b;
```

```
}
```

```
};
```

void main()

{

class C;

A obj ; Bobj 2;

obj . input ();

obj . show ();

obj 2 . disp ();

}

Output :-

Enter two value:

34

56

34 56

1304 148

Nested class

: A class which is declared inside another class. called nested class.

Syntax :-

class class-name 1

{ public:

class class-name 2

{

// Data member

// member ~~subsets~~ variable

Public:

// member function

};

};

Example

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
#include <conio.h>
```

```
class A
```

```
{
```

```
public:
```

```
class B
```

```
{
```

```
int a, b;
```

```
public:
```

```
void input()
```

```
{
```

```
cout << "Enter two values: ";
```

```
cin >> a >> b;
```

```
}
```

```
void show()
```

```
{
```

```
cout << a << " " << b << endl;
```

```
}
```

```
};
```

```
};
```

```
void main()  
{  
    A::B obj;  
    obj.input();  
    obj.show();  
    getch();  
}
```

Output Enter two value: -
56
23
56 23

⊕ **Empty class**: A class that does not contain any data members of int a, float b etc.

— However, a class can contain member function.

→ If we calculate the size of classes Output will be 1 byte.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class xyz
{
public;
void print()
{
cout << "welcome id 4";
}
};
```

```
int main()
{
xyz obj;
obj.print();
cout << "size of class is " <<
size of (obj);
return 0;
}
```

output :- size of class is 1.

Syn
④
②
Ex
④
④
④

Abstract class: A class which contains at least one pure virtual function. we can't declare the object of abstract class.

Syntax:

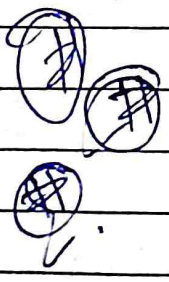
```
class A  
{  
    public:  
    virtual void show() = 0;  
};
```

Pure Virtual function: ① are virtual function which has no definition. They start with virtual keyword and end with equal to zero.

② If we don't override the pure virtual function in derive class, then derive class also become abstract class.

Bg:

```
#include <iostream>  
#include <conio.h>  
class A  
{
```



public:

virtual void show() = 0;

void disp()

{

cout << "hi: i am base class";

}

ⓧ

}

Class B: ~~public~~ public A

{

public:

void show()

{

cout << "hi i am derive class";

}

ⓧ

void main()

{

cls u.c;

B ob;

ob.disp();

getch();

}

output

hi i am
base

class

Container class is a data type that is capable of holding a collection of items.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class first
{
public:
    first ()
    {
        cout << "Hello first \n";
    }
}; // container class
```

```
class second
{
    // create object of first
    first f;
public:
    second ()
    {
        cout << "Hello second \n";
    }
};
```

```
int main ()
{
    // create obj of second
    second s;
}
```

Output
 Hello first
 Hello second



Access class Members

obje - name . data - member

obje - name . member - function -

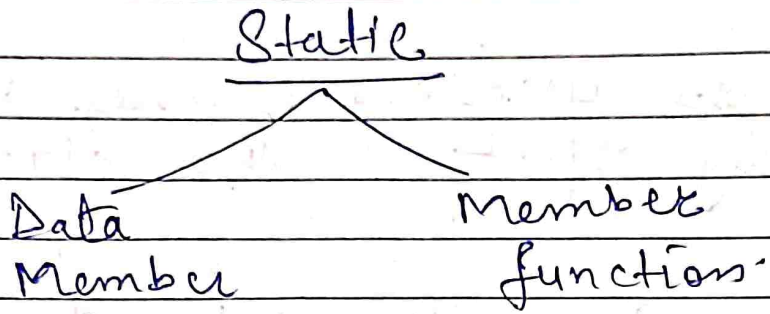
Ex

Stul . a ;

Stul . get data () ;

Stul . display () ;

Static Keyword



1. Static data Member : (i) when we declare a data member as a static either inside or outside of a class called static data member.

(ii) There is only one copy of static data member even if there are many class objects.

(iii) It is always initialized with zero because its default value is zero.

(iv) It is shared memory for all objects of the class.

(v) It retains its value.

2. Static member function : (i) if we create a member function of a class as a static is called static member function.

(ii) It is access only static data members

(iii) It is also accessible if we don't have any object of the class.

Program: for static data & function

```
Class A  
{
```

```
int a :  
static int b;
```

static data mem

```
Public :
```

```
A (int x , int y)
```

```
{
```

```
a = x ; b = y ;
```

```
}
```

```
void show ()
```

Member function

```
{
```

```
cout << a << " " << b;
```

```
}
```

```
static void display ()
```

static mem

```
{
```

```
cout << b ; // a is not accessible
```

```
}
```

```
}
```

⊗
⊗
⊗
⊗
⊗

⊗

class initial krē si.

```
int A :: b = 0 ;  
void main()  
{
```

```
    A obj (10, 20), Obj 2 (100, 200);  
    obj.show(); // 10 20  
    obj2.show(); // 100 200  
    A::disp(); // 200  
    Obj.show(); // 10 200.
```

4.

UNIT: 04

FUNCTIONS, Arrays

AND STRING HANDLING

Syllabus: Function components, default arguments, Passing parameter, function prototyping, Call by value, Call by reference, return by reference, Inline function, friend functions, static functions, recursion, Array declaration, Type of Array, Array of object, String handling.

Function:- It is a block of code which take input, processed it, and produce output in the form of result.

Note: function run only when it call.

Types :

① User defined function (294 function create krni)
├─ add ()
└─ sum ()

② Pre defined function.
├─ strcpy ()
└─ strcmp () etc.

User defined function syntax :-

return-type fun-name (parameter list)
{
 //
}

Example:

without parameter (1)

(#)

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
main void say ( )
{
  cout << "hello" ; } << endl;
}
main ( ) {
  say ( );
}
```


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with parameter

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void say ( string msg )
{
    cout << "Full" << msg << endl;
}
main() {
    say ( "now r u ?? " );
}

```

Recursive function

A function which call itself is called recursive function.

Syntax:

```
return-type function ( parameter )
{
    if ( base condition )
    {
        // code
    }
    else
    {
        function-name ( parameter );
    }
}

```

Example

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int fact (num int num)
```

```
{
    if (num == 0)
    {
        return 1;
    }
    else
    {
        return num * fact (num - 1);
    }
}
```

```
main()
{
```

```
    int num;
```

```
    cout << "enter a number: ";
```

```
    cin >> num;
```

```
    int r = fact (num);
```

```
    cout << "factorial of " << num << " is "
```

```
    << r;
```

```
}
```

⊗ ⊗ ⊗

⊗

⊗

an

Call by value: In call by value the actual value of variable can't be changed, if you change the value of function parameter it is only changed ~~for~~ for current function.

Syntax

return-type fun-name (P₁, P₂)

```
{
  //
}
```

Example:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void changeValue (int num)
{
  num = num + 10;
  cout << num << endl;
}
```

```
main ()
```

```
{
  int num = 100;
  cout << num << endl;
  changeValue (num); // Call
  cout << num;
}
```

output

```
100
110
100
```

Handwritten symbols and scribbles on the left margin, including several circled hash symbols (#).

Call by address : It is used when you want to modify a variable inside a function and want that modifications persist outside the function.

Syntax :

```
return-type fun_name (*p)
{
  //
}
```

Example

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void change_value (int *p)
{
  *p = *p + 10;
  cout << " pointer value : " << *p
  << endl;
}

main ()
{
  int num;
  cout << " enter value : ";
  cin >> num;
  cout << " original value : " << num
  << endl;
  change_value (&num);
  cout << " pointer new value : " << num
  << endl;
}
```

13

output

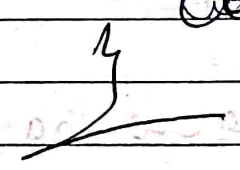
Enter value: 100
Original value: 100
Printer value: 110
New value: 110.

→ In call by reference, we pass the address of a variable

Call by reference: It is alias to an existing variable. When you declare a reference, you create a new name for an existing variable and any changes done in reference is treated as if it were the original value.

Example:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
main()
{
  int a = 100;
  cout << a << endl;
  int &ref = a;
  cout << ref << endl;
  cout << ++ref << endl;
  cout << a;
}
```



~~Star~~
~~Hash~~
~~Star~~
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~~Star~~
~~Hash~~
~~Hash~~

~~Hash~~ - ~~Star~~

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Page _____

Pointer \Rightarrow It is a variable that holds the memory address of another variable

Example

```
int a = 10;  
int *ptr = &a;
```

Note: - While working with pointer we need two \odot unary operator

e.g. $\&$, $*$

\uparrow 'value at address operator'

Macro: Macro is a preprocessor directive that defines a name or a function like macros that can be used throughout the code.

Note (1) It replace the name of Macro to the value of Macro

(2) Macro is defined using the #define preprocessor directive

(3) Syntax - #define macro-name macro-value

★
④

Inline function \Rightarrow If a function is inline, then the compiler places the copy of the function code in the place of the function call.

And this can speed up the program execution.

Syntax:

```
inline return-type fun-name
(parameters)
{
    // code.
}
```

Example :-

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
inline int fun(int a, int b)
{
    return a+b;
}
int main()
{
    int value = fun(30, 12);
    cout << value;
}
```

Output :- 42



Friend Function is a function that is declared as a friend of a class not as a member of a class instead of that it can access private and protected members of class.

Syntax

Friend return-type fun-name (class ref)

Example :

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class Ankur;
class Ankit {
private:
    int money = 10;
    friend void rohit (Ankit, Ankur);
};
```

```
class Ankit {
private:
    int money = 20;
    friend void rohit (Ankit, Ankur);
};
```

void rohit (Ankit r1, Ankur r2)

(0) (1) (2) ✓

```

    }
    cout << "sum" << r1.money + r2.money;
    }
    main()
    {
        Ankush obj1;   Rohit obj2;
        rohit (obj2, obj1);
    }
  
```

Friend class: is a class that granted accessibility of private and protected member of another class.

Syntax: class class_name (A)

{ private:

public:

friend class class_name; (B)

};

Preprocessor

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

~~SA~~

Class A

```
{
    Private:
    int a=10, b=20;
    Public:
    void show()
    {
        cout << a << " " << b << endl;
    }
    friend class B;
};
```

class B

```
{
    public:
    void add (A x)
    {
        int add = x.a + x.b;
        cout << "Sum of A and B: " << add;
    }
};
```

main()

```
{
    A obj1, B obj2;
    obj1.show();
    obj2.add(obj1);
};
```

output

10 20

Sum of A & B: 30

Array: It is a collection of homogeneous data type.

Note: The index of the array always starts with 0.

Eg: $arr[3] = \{10, 20, 30\}$

→ Array stored element contiguously in memory.

Eg: $arr[5] = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 10 & 20 & 30 & 40 & 50 \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \hline \end{array}$

Eg:

Function prototype: is simply the declaration of function which contains function name, parameters and return-type. It doesn't function body.

Syntax: return-type function-name
(type arg)
void display (int a, int b)

Function definition: Contains the block of code to perform a specific code.

Syntax: return type function-name (type arg)

```
#include < stdio iostream>
#include < conio.h>
void max (int a, int b); // function
void main() // prototype
{
    clrscr
    max (19, 20); // func call
    getch();
}
```

```
void max (int a, int b) // function
{ // defn
    if (a > b)
        cout << "a is greater" << endl;
    else
        cout << "b is greater" << endl;
}
```

Function Components

- ① function prototype / function declaration
- ② function definition
- ③ function call



Function Call: statement call the function by matching its name and arguments. A function call can be made by using function name and providing the required parameters.

Syntax function_name (actual parameters)

Eg: int n=5, m=10;
display(n, m);

Default Argument :- A default argument is a default value provided for a function parameter.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int sum(int a, int b, int c=5)
{
    return a+b+c;
}
int main()
{
    int a=5, b=6;
    cout << sum(a, b);
    return 0;
}
```

Parameters: the variables that are defined during a function declaration or definition.

Argument: is a value, which is passed when in a function when the function is called.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int sum (int a, int b)
{
    return a+b;
}
```

Parameter

* #

```
int main()
{
    sum (0, 1);
    return 0;
}
```

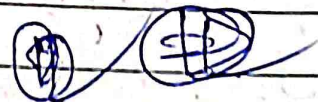
Argument

Advantages of friend function

1. It simplifies complex algorithms and data structures.
2. ~~with~~ selective access to private and protected members.

Disadvantages

1. Violate the principle of encapsulation
2. Increase loose coupling



Return by Reference

To return a reference, the function definition must include an ampersand (&) after the type of the returned value.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int num()
int a; // Global Variable
int &num()
{
    return a;
}

int main()
{
    num() = 26;
    cout << a;
    return 0;
}
```

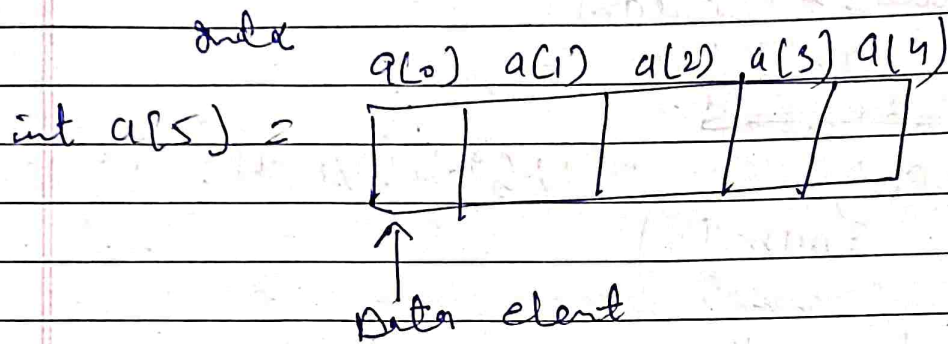
⊗
⊗
⊗
⊗
⊗
⊗
⊗
⊗
⊗
⊗

⊗

Arrays

is a collection of similar type of data elements.

eg int a[5];



Array of object

In array of object data elements are nothing but the objects of class.

Syntax

class name obj [size];

Example

Student s[5];

object

Roll

Percent

s[0]

s[1]

s[2]

s[3]

s[4]

s[5]

object	Roll	Percent
s[0]		
s[1]		
s[2]		
s[3]		
s[4]		
s[5]		

Calling function in array of object

For normal object

```
Student s1, s2;  
s1.accept();  
s2.accept();
```

For array of object

```
Student a[5];  
for (i=0; i<5; i++)  
{  
    a[i].accept();  
}
```

while calling the function you have to maintain the index variable

Q. 1

Q. write a program to create class student having data member roll and percent. Accept and display the details for 5 students.

Code

```
#include <iostream>  
#include <conio.h>  
class student  
{  
private:  
    int roll;  
    float percent;  
public:  
    void accept();
```

Q. 2

```
}  
cout << "Enter the roll no and  
percent";
```

```
}  
cin >> roll >> percent;
```

```
}  
void display()
```

```
{
```

```
cout << "Student details" << endl;
```

```
cout << "roll no. " << roll << endl;
```

```
cout << "percent " << percent << endl;
```

```
}
```

```
}
```

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
student s[5];
```

```
clear();
```

```
for (i=0; i<5; i++)
```

```
{
```

```
s[i].accept();
```

```
}
```

```
for (i=0; i<5; i++)
```

```
{
```

```
s[i].display();
```

```
}
```

```
getch();
```

```
return 0;
```

```
}
```

Output: Enter the roll no and percent 11
60

Enter the roll no and percent 12
70

Enter the roll no and percent 13.
90

Enter the roll no and percent 14
~~90~~ 90

~~90~~ 90
97.7.

— Student details —

Roll no = 11
Percent = 60

" = 92

" = 70

" = 13

" = 90

{

— Student detail

Roll no = 18
Percent = 97.7

String handling

is a class that defines object that can be represented as a stream of characters.

is a sequence of characters as an object of a class.

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

int main()
{
    string str = "hello, world";
    cout << "string length: " << str.length() << endl;
    cout << "Substring: " << str.substr(0, 5) << endl;
    cout << "character at index 7: " << str[7] << endl;

    return 0;
}
```

Output

String length: 13
Substring: hello
character at index 7: ,



One-D Array

```

int main()
{
  int numbers[5] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
  for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
  {
    cout << numbers[i] << " ";
  }
  return 0;
}

```

2-D Array

```

int main()
{
  int matrix[3][3] = { {1, 2, 3}, {4, 5, 6}, {7, 8, 9} };
  for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
  {
    for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++)
    {
      cout << matrix[i][j] << " ";
    }
    cout << endl;
  }
  return 0;
}

```

Function overloading

when a program

contains more than one function with same name different type of parameter is called function overloading.

Syntax

```
class class-name.  
{  
    public:  
    void add() ;  
    void add(int a) ;  
}
```

Example:

```
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std ;  
class A {  
    int num1 = 20, num2 = 20 ;  
    public:  
    void func() ;  
}
```

```
int = num1 + num2;  
cout << "Addition" << endl;
```

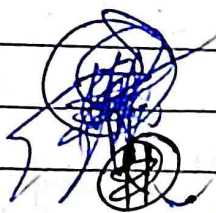
```
void fun (int a, int b)  
{
```

```
int sub = a - b;  
cout << "Substraction" << endl;
```

};

```
int main ()
```

```
{  
A - obj;  
obj.fun (); obj.fun (100, 50);  
return 0;
```



UNIT : 05

POLYMORPHISM AND
TYPE CONVERSION.

Syllabus => Introduction, concept of binding -
Early binding and late binding,
virtual functions, pure virtual
functions, operators overloading,
Rules for overloading operators, 'f',
overloading of various operators,
Function overloading, constructor
overloading, Type Conversion -
Basic type to class type, class type
to basic type, class type to
another class type.

★
Ⓝ

Type Conversion :

1. Basic to class => In this type of
conversion the source
type is basic type and the destination
type is class type. Means basic

20/10/23
10/10/23
2/10/23
Ⓝ
Ⓝ
Ⓝ
Ⓝ

data type is converted into the class type.

Example

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class Time1
{
    int hours;
    int minutes;
public:
    Time1 (int t)
    {
        hours = t/60;
        minutes = t%60;
    }
    void display ()
    {
        cout << " The time is ";
        cout << hours << " hrs. and " <<
            minutes << " mnts ";
    }
};

int main ()
{
    Time1 t1(90);
    t1.display ();
    return 0;
}
```

int = 90
↑
Basic data type.

2. Class to Basic :-> In this type of conversion the source type is class type and the destination type is basic type. Means class data type is converted into the basic type

Example:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class time
{
    int minutes;
    int hours;
public:
    time (int t)
    {
        hours = t/60;
        minutes = t%60;
    }
    int add ()
    {
        cout << "The line is ";
        cout << hours << "hrs and " <<
            minutes << "mnts ";
    }
    int m;
    m = minutes;
    return m;
};
```

```

int main()
{
    int x = 90;
    time t1(x);
    int j;
    j = t1.add();
    cout << "the value of j is " << j;
    return 0;
}

```

3. Class to class \Rightarrow In this type of conversion both the type that is source type and the destination type are of class type.

Means the source type is class type and the destination type is also ~~class~~ called the class type. In other words, one class data type is converted into the another class type.

Example

```

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

```

class inherit 2;

class inherit 1

{

int code;
int item;
float price;

public:

inherit (int a, int b, float c)

{

code = a;
item = b;
price = c;

}

void put data ()

{

cout << "code : " << code << endl;
cout << "item : " << item << endl;
cout << "price : " << ~~code~~ price << endl;

}

int get code () { return code; }
int get item () { return item; }
float get price () { return price; }

operator float () { return (item * price); }

};

```
class innt 2
```

```
{  
    int code;  
    float value;
```

```
public:
```

```
    int innt 2()
```

```
{  
    code = 0;  
    value = 0;
```

```
}  
    innt 2 (int x, float y)
```

```
{  
    code = x;  
    value = y;  
}
```

```
void put data()
```

```
{  
    cout << "code : " << code << endl;  
    cout << "value : " << value << endl;  
}
```

⊗

```
innt 2 (innt 1 p)
```

```
{  
    code = p.getcode();  
    value = p.getitem() & p.getprice();  
}
```

```
};
```

⊗

```
int main()  
{  
    innt 1 s1 (100, 5, 140.0);  
    innt 2 d1;  
    float tv;  
    tv = s1;  
    s1 d1 = s1; // class to class  
    cout << "Product details - innt 1 type";  
    s1.put data ();  
  
    cout << "\n Stock value" << "\n";  
    cout << "value" << tv << "\n";  
    cout << "Product details - innt 2 type"  
        << "\n";  
    d1.put data ();  
    return 0;  
}
```

Output :- Product details - innt 1 type
code : 100
item : 5
price : 140

Stock value
value 700
Product details - innt 2 type
code : 100 value : 700

Polymorphism :-> Polymorphism is a concept in which an object can be created in different ways. It means that objects of a class can be used as objects of their derived classes.

Polymorphism :-

- Static
- Dynamic

/* Compile time polymorphism */

(By using function overloading)

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void showInfo (int age)
{
    cout << age << endl;
}
void showInfo (string name)
{
    cout << name << endl;
}
```

```

void showinfo ( double salary)
{
    cout << "Salary << endl;
}

```

```

main()
{
    showinfo (" AKhilesh ");
    showinfo ( 203 );
    showinfo ( 5634.2 );
}

```

* Runtime Polymorphism *

```

class A
{
    public:
        virtual void display()
        {
            cout << " I'm class A ";
        }
}

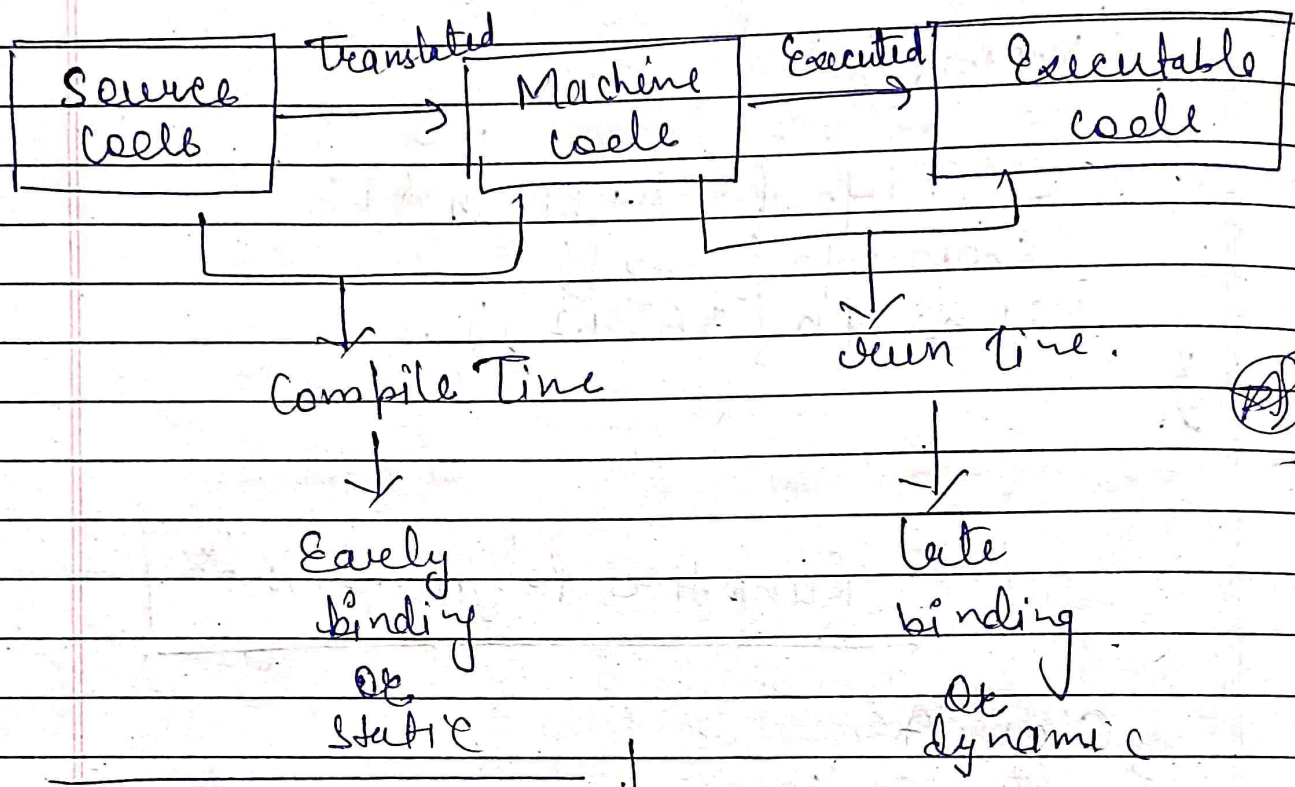
class B : public A
{
    public:
        void display()
        {
            cout << " I'm class B ";
        }
}

main()
{
    A *ptr; B obj;
    ptr = &obj;
    ptr -> display();
}

```

obj
of class
B

Concept of binding - Early binding and late binding



① Early binding happens at the compile time

② Its type is static

③ One function overload-
ing and operator overloading

④ This is called
compile time
polymorphism.

① Late binding happens at the time of running of the program.

② Its type is dynamic

③ One virtual functions.

④ This is called
a runtime
polymorphism.

Pure Virtual function

A virtual function that has no body in the base class, is known as pure virtual function.

This virtual function is ~~defined~~ ^{defined} inside its derived class.

Syntax

```

virtual return_type function_name(argument);
}
class base
{
public:
    virtual void vfunc() = 0; // Pure virtual function
}
class derived: public base
{
public:
    void func()
    {
        cout << endl << "virtual function of derived class."
    }
}
main()
{
    base *ptr;
    derived d;
    ptr = &d;
    ptr->vfunc(); // derived class
}

```

Most 96 this is overloading (\$\$).

operator overloading :- To assign more than one operations on an same operator known as operator overloading.

To achieve operator overloading we have to write a special function known as operators().

Syntax

return type operator op(argument)
{
 body;
}



You can write operators() in two ways:-

- 1. class function
- 2. friend function

List of operators that can't be overloaded - in operator overloading

• → dot
:: → Scope resolution.
?: → Conditional
Size of ()

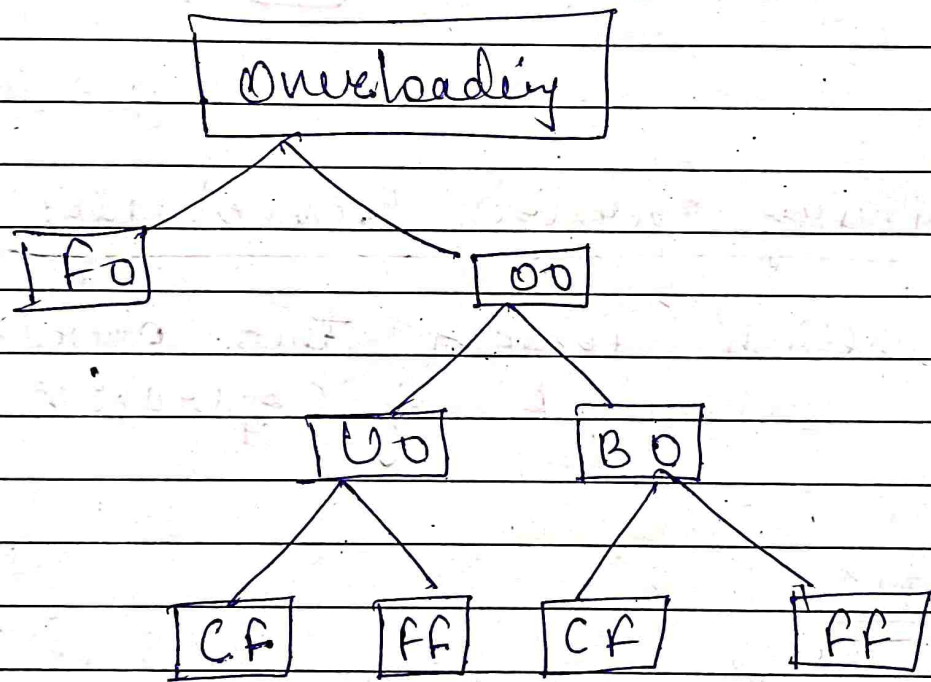
} but done in function overloading

Types of operator overloading

1. Unary operator overloading
2. Binary operator overloading.

Types of overloading

1. function overloading
2. operator overloading.



1. Unary operator overloading :- An operator which contains only one operand is called unary operator overloading.

Syntax

① class function :

```
return type operator op ( )  
{  
    body;  
}
```

② friend body :

```
friend return type operator op ( arg list );
```

2. Binary operator overloading A operator which contain two operands is called binary operator overloading

Syntax

① class function

```
return type operator op ( arg list ) // left arg.  
{  
    body  
}
```

⑪ friend function

friend return type operator of (arg list);

* // we can pass only two argument.

① Unary overloading:

① Using class function

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

```
{  
    int a, b;  
    public:  
    demo ( int x, int y)
```

```
{  
    a = x;  
    b = y;
```

```
void show ()
```

```
{  
    cout << "A" << a << " " << b << endl;
```

```
void operator - ()
```

```
{  
    a = -a;  
    b = -b;
```

```
};
```

void main()

{

demo ob (-10, 20);

ob.show();

-ob;

ob.show();

getch();

}

A = -10 B = 20

A = 10 B = -20

Q2

Using friend function

Class Demo

{

int a, b;

public:

demo (int x, int y)

{

a = x; b = y;

}

void show();

}

cout << "A" << a << "\n" << "B" << b <<

endl;

}

friend void operator -(demo &obj)

{

obj.a = -obj.a;

obj.b = -obj.b;

}

```
void main()
{
    demo ob(10, -20);
    ob.show();
    -ob;
    ob.show();
}
```

② Binary operator Overload:

① → W.A.P to add two no. using class function and friend functions.

③ Class function:

```
#include <iostream.h>
using namespace std;
class demo
{
    int a, b;
public:
    demo(int x, int y)
    {
        a = x;
        b = y;
    }
    void show()
    {
```

④
3/10/23

⑤


```
Cont << "A : " << a << " " << "B : " << b << endl  
}  
demo operator + (demo obj)  
{  
    demo temp (0, 0);  
    temp.a = a + obj.a;  
    temp.b = b + obj.b;  
    return temp;  
}  
};
```

```
void main()  
{  
    demo ob (10, 20), ob1 (30, 40), ob2 (0, 0);  
    obj2 = ob + ob1;  
    obj2.show();  
    getch();  
}
```

~~Special function~~

⊕

This keyword :- when the name of instance variable and local variable both are same and if we initialize instance variable with the help of local variable then our compiler get confused that which one is local or one is instance variable.

To avoid this problem we use this keyboard.

```

3/11
#include <iostream>
using namespace std std;
int main()
{
    class A
    {
        int a, b;
        public:
        A ( int a ; int b )
        {
            this -> a = a ;      this -> b = b ;
        }
        void show ()
        {
            cout << a << " " << b << endl ;
        }
    };
    void main ()
    {
        A obj ( 10, 20 );
        obj -> show ();
        return 0 ;
    }
}

```



Rules for operator overloading

1. Only existing operators ~~can~~ can be overloaded.
2. The overloaded operator must have at least one operand, that is of user defined type.
3. We cannot change the basic meaning of an operator.
Like $4 + 13$ to subtract.
4. Overloaded operator follows the syntax rules of the original operator.
5. Some operators can not be overloaded.
6. We cannot use friend function to overload certain operators.
7. Unary operator, overloaded by means of a member function,
 - *⊕ take no explicit argument & returns no explicit values, but
 - *⊕ those overloaded by means of a friend function, take one reference argument.
8. Binary operator, overloaded through a member function take one explicit and those who are overloaded through a friend function take two explicit arguments.

v.gnb:

MAP to add two complex numbers using binary operators overloading.

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

```
{
```

```
float x, y;
```

```
public:
```

```
Complex ()
```

```
{
```

```
Complex (float real, float imag)
```

```
{
```

```
x = real;
```

```
y = imag;
```

```
}
```

```
friend Complex operator + (Complex, Complex);
```

```
void display ();
```

```
}
```

```
cout << "In the sum is" << x << " + i" << y;
```

```
<< y;
```

```
}
```

```
Complex operator + (Complex t1, Complex t2)
```

```
{
```

```
Complex temp (0, 0);
```

```
temp.x = t1.x + t2.x;
```

temp.y = t1.y + t2.y;

return (temp);

}

int main()

{

Complex t1 (2.5, 3.5);

Complex t2 (1.6, 2.7);

Complex t3 (0, 0);

t3 = t1 + t2;

t1.display();

t2.display();

t3.display();

return 0;

}



Binary operator using friend function

★
④

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class demo
{
    int a, b;
public:
    demo(int x, int y)
    {
        a = x; b = y;
    }
    void show()
    {
        cout << "A = " << a << " " << "B = " <<
            b << endl;
    }
    friend demo operator + (demo &obj1,
        demo &obj2)
    {
        demo temp(0, 0);
        temp.a = obj1.a + obj2.a;
        temp.b = obj1.b + obj2.b;
        return temp;
    }
};
```

y

```
void main()
```

```
{
```

```
    demo ob(10, 20); demo ob1(30, 40);
```

```
    demo ob2(0, 0);
```

```
    ob2 = ob + ob1
```

```
    ob2 = ob.show();
```

```
    return;
```

```
}
```

UNIT: 06.

INHERITANCE

Syllabus :- Introduction, defining derived class, Type of inheritance, Ambiguity in multiple and multiple inheritance, virtual base class, object slicing, Overriding members functions, object composition and delegation.

(#)

Inheritance \Rightarrow Inheritance allow a class to inherit the properties and behaviour from another class.

Example :

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

}

int main :

```
{
    string surname = "Rushwaha";
}
```



```

class Son1 : Father
{
    string name = "Akhilash";
    public:
        void show()
        {
            cout << name << " " << surname << endl;
        }
};

```

```

class Son2 : Father
{
    string name = "Ankush";
    public:
        void disp()
        {
            cout << name << " " << surname;
        }
};

```

```

int main()
{
    Son1 s1;
    s1.show();

    Son2 s2;
    s2.disp();
}

```

Output:-
 Akhilash Kushnaha
 Ankush Kushnaha

Types

1. Single inheritance
2. Multiple inheritance
3. Multilevel inheritance
4. Hierarchical inheritance
5. Hybrid inheritance

base
↓
derived.

① Single inheritance :-> A class which contains only one base class and one derived class is called single inheritance.

Syntax

```
class base  
{  
    member of base class  
};  
class derived : public/private/protected  
{  
    member of derived class  
};
```

Example :-

```
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std;  
class base  
{  
    private:  
    int a, b;  
    public:
```

```
void input()
{
    cout << "Enter values: ";
    cin >> a >> b;
}
```

```
void show()
{
    cout << "a = " << a << " " << "b = " << b
    << endl;
}
```

};

class derive : public base

```
{
    private:
    int m, n;
    public:
    void getdata()
    {
        cout << "Enter values: ";
        cin >> m >> n;
    }
```

```
void display()
{
    cout << "m = " << m << " " << "n = " << n;
}
```

};

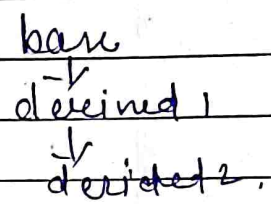
void main()

```
{
    base ob1;
    derived ob2;
```

```
ob. input();  
ob. show();
```

```
obl. getdata();  
obl. display();
```

```
y. return no;
```



2. Multilevel inheritance → A class which contain only one base class and multiple derive class is called multilevel inheritance.

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

{

```
private :  
int a ;  
public :  
void input ()
```

```
{  
cout << "Enter the value : ";  
cin >> a ;  
}
```

```
void show ()  
{  
cout << "a = " << a << endl ;
```

}

class derive 1 : public base

{

private:

int b;

public:

void input 1()

{

cout << " Enter the value of
derive class : "

cin >> b;

}

void show 1()

{

cout << " b = " << b << endl;

}

};

class derive 2 : public derive 1

{

private:

int c;

public:

void input 2()

{

cout << " enter value of derive 1
class 2 class : "

cin >> c;

}

void show 2()

{

cout << " c = " << c << endl;

}

};

```
void main()
{
    base obj;
    obj.input();
    obj.show();

    derived1 obj1;
    obj1.input1();
    obj1.show1();

    derived2 obj2;
    obj2.input2();
    obj2.show2();

    return 0;
}
```

3.

OE

```
derived2 obj2;
obj2.input();
obj2.show();

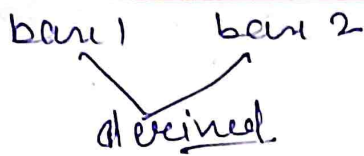
obj2.input1();
obj2.show1();

obj2.input2();
obj2.show2();

getch();
```

Save and fly

2



3. Multiple Inheritance \rightarrow A class which contains more than one base class and only one derived class is called multiple inheritance.

```

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class base 1

```

{

```

private:
int a, b, c;

```

```

public:
void input ()

```

{

```

cout << "Enter the value of
Base 1 class : ";

```

```

cin >> a >> b;

```

}

```

void show ()

```

{

```

c = a + b;

```

```

cout << "Sum = " << c << endl;

```

}

};

```

class base 2

```

{

```

private:

```

```

int a, b, c;

```

```

public:

```

```

void input ()

```

{

```
    cout << "Enter value of Base 2 class ";  
    cin >> a >> b;  
}  
void show1() {  
    c = a - b;  
    cout << "Subtraction = " << c << endl;  
};
```

Class derive : public base1, public base2

```
private :  
    int a, b, c;  
public :  
    void input2() {  
        cout << "Enter the value of derived  
        class : ";  
        cin >> a >> b;  
    }  
    void show02() {  
        c = a * b;  
        cout << "Multiplication = " << c << endl;  
    }  
};  
void main() {  
    /* base1 ob;  
    ob.input1();
```



```
ob.show();
```

```
base b; ob1();
```

```
ob1.input1();
```

```
ob1.show1(); */
```

```
derived ob2;
```

```
ob2.input2();
```

```
ob2.show2();
```

```
ob2.input();
```

```
ob2.show();
```

```
ob2.input1();
```

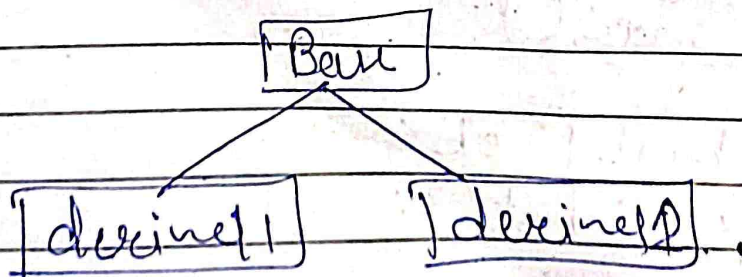
```
ob2.show1();
```

```
return 0;
```

}

4. Hierarchical Inheritance \Rightarrow A class

which contain only one base and multiple derive class but each derive class can access base class is called hierarchical inheritance.



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

```
{  
private:  
int a, b;  
public:  
void input ()
```

```
{  
cout << "enter the value of Base  
class : ";
```

```
cin >> a >> b;
```

```
void show ()
```

```
{  
cout << "sum" << a + b << endl;
```

};

```
class derived1: public base
```

```
{  
private  
int n1;  
public;  
void input1 ()
```

```
{  
cout << "enter the value of derived1  
class : ";
```

```
cin >> n1;
```

```
void show ()
```

```
}
```

```
        cout << "n1 = " << n1 << endl;
    }
};

class derived2: public base
{
    private:
    int n2;
    public:
    void input2()
    {
        cout << "Enter the value of  
derived2 class : ";
        cin >> n2 >> endl;
    }
    void show2()
    {
        cout << "n2 = " << n2 << endl;
    }
};
```

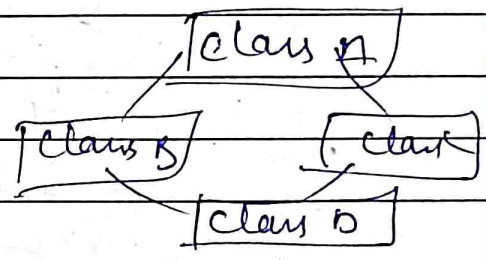
```
int main()
{
    derived1 ob1;
    ob1 derived2 ob2;

    derived1 ob1.input();
    ob1.input show();
}
```

```
obj2.inpnt();  
obj2.show();  
  
return 0;  
}
```

5. Hybrid inheritance \Rightarrow It is the combination of more than one type of inheritance is called hybrid inheritance.

Syntax:



```
class A  
{  
    member of base class  
};  
  
class B: virtual public / private / protected A  
{  
    member of derived 1 class  
};  
  
class C: virtual public / private / protected A  
{  
    member of derive 2 class  
};  
  
class D: public A .
```

Date _____
Page _____

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

```
{
```

```
    int n;
```

```
    public:
```

```
    void input()
```

```
{
```

```
    cout << "Enter value: ";
```

```
    cin >> n;
```

```
}
```

```
    void show()
```

```
{
```

```
    cout << n << endl;
```

```
}
```

```
};
```

```
class B : virtual public A
```

```
{
```

```
};
```

```
class C : virtual public A
```

```
{
```

```
};
```

```
class D : public B, public C
```

```
{
```

```
};
```

```
int  
void main()
```

```
{
```

```
A obj ; B obj1 ; C obj2 ; D obj3 ;
```

```
obj . input() ;  
obj . show() ;
```

```
obj1 . input() ;  
obj1 . show() ;
```

```
obj2 . input() ;  
obj2 . show() ;
```

```
obj3 . input() ;  
obj3 . show() ;  
return 0 ;
```

y .

Advantages of inheritance

1. Reusability of code.
2. Save time and effort
3. Faster development, easier maintenance and easy to extend.
4. Capable of expressing the inheritance relationship.

Ambiguity in Multiple and Multipath Inheritance

Ambiguity in Inheritance

It means when one class is derived for two or more base classes that there are changes that the base classes have functions with the same name. So compiler get confuse. the derived class can access from which base class.

to resolve this we

- scope resolution operator.
- object class :: function();

Ambiguity in Multiple Inheritance

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

```
private:
int a;
public:
void input
```

```
class A  
{  
    public:  
    void print message ()  
    {  
        cout << " class A print message " << endl;  
    }  
};
```

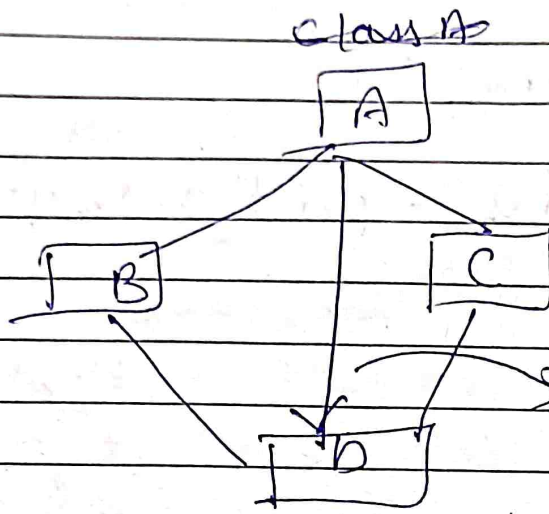
```
class B  
{  
    public:  
    void print message ()  
    {  
        cout << " class B print message " << endl;  
    }  
};
```

```
class AB : public A , public B  
{  
    public:  
    void print Message ()  
    {  
        A:: print message ();  
        B:: print message ();  
        cout << " class AB print message " << endl;  
    }  
};
```

```
int main ()  
{  
    AB obj;  
    obj. print message ();  
}
```



Virtual base class



→ This is virtual
inheritance
(differs in hybrid
inheritance)

Advantage

- 1. It saves space and avoid ambiguity.

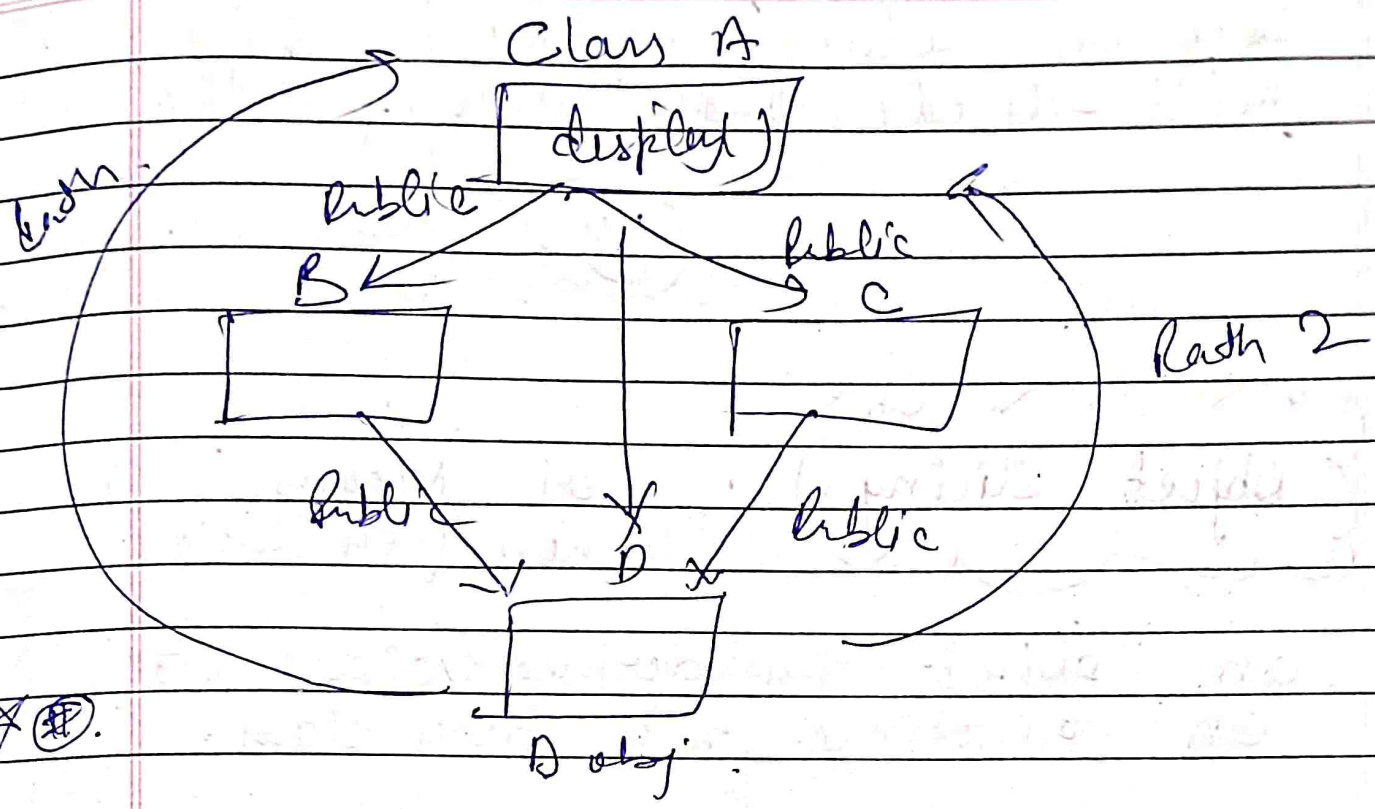
⇒ If we have class A has a function name display and class A is base class for two other classes

Now here the problem.

if we write obj.display();

then compiler get confused

(1/2)



Why?

we have two paths to reach display.

So we remove this confusion of compiler we will write virtual while inheriting 😊

for ex:

```

class B: virtual public A
{
}
class C: virtual public A
{
}
  
```

here By adding virtual keyword compiler will decide path automatically.



Object slicing

It means when you assign

an object of a derived class to an instance of a base class.

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

```
{
    int a, b;
public: A() { }
```

```
void show
    A(int x, int y)
```

```
{
    a = x;
    b = y;
}
```

```
void show()
```

```
{
    cout << "a: " << a;
    cout << "b: " << b;
}
```

```
};
```


Function overriding: whenever we writing function in base and derive class in such a way that function name, parameter must be same called as function overriding.

Example:

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

```
{
public:
    void fun ()
    {
        cout << "Ankit" << endl;
    }
};
```

```
class B: public A
```

```
{
public:
    void fun ()
    {
        cout << "Ankush" << endl;
    }
};

int main ()
{
```

B obj ;

obj.A :: func() ;

return 0 ;

}
By Obj
Scope
resolution

}

or

int main()

{

A *ptr ; B obj ;

ptr = &obj ;

ptr -> func() ;

return 0 ;

}
By Obj
Pointer

Object delegation : object delegation means using the object of another class as a class member of another class.

→ Delegation can be an alternative to inheritance.

Advantages

→ run time flexibility

→ If you want to enhance class A, but A is final and can no further be sub-classed, then we use delegation

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

```
{
    public:
        void fun1()
        {
            cout << "The delegation ^";
        }
};
```

```
class B
```

```
{
    A a;
    public:
        void print()
        {
            a.fun1();
        }
};
```

```
int main()
```

```
{
    B b;
    b.print();
    return 0;
}
```

Output The delegation

UNIT: 07.

DYNAMIC MEMORY MANAGEMENT USING POINTERS.

Syllabus \Rightarrow Declaring and initializing pointers, Accessing data through pointers, pointer arithmetic, memory allocation :- static and Dynamic, Dynamic memory management using new and delete operator, pointer to an object, this pointer, pointer related problems — dangling/wild pointer, null pointer assignment, memory leak and allocation failure.

Date _____
Page _____

Pointers: Data type which hold the address of other data type.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
    int a = 3;
    int* b = &a;
```

```
    cout << "The address of a is" << b << endl;
```

```
    cout << "The address of a is" << &a << endl;
```

```
    cout << "The value at address b is"
         << *b << endl;
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

// Pointer to pointer

```
int** c = &b;
```

```
cout << "The address value of b is" << &b << endl;
```

```
cout << "The value at address c :"  
     << *c << endl;
```

Pointer arithmetic

- A pointer can be incremented or decremented.
- Any integer can be added or subtracted from a pointer.
- Any member can be added to an address.

New address = old address + number * size of data type

Program:

```
int main()  
{  
    int *p = (int*) 2000;  
    p = p + 1; // 2000 + (1 * 2)  
    cout << p;  
}
```

Output

2000



Ex:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
```

```
{
    int arr[] = {10, 20, 30, 40};
```

```
    cout << arr;
    cout << endl;
```

```
    int *ptr;
    ptr = arr;
```

```
    ptr++;
```

```
    cout << endl;
```

```
    cout << ptr << endl;
```

```
    cout << "value = " << *ptr;
```

```
    return 0;
}
```

Memory Allocation

1. Dynamic Memory Allocation (DMA): -

DMA allows you to set array size dynamically during run time rather than at compile time. This help when the program doesn't know in advance about the no. of items (variable value) to be stored.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
```

```
int size;
int * ptr;
```

```
cout << "Enter the no. of value you want to store (size of array);
```

```
cin >> size;
```

new operator

```
→ ptr = new int [size];
```

cout << "Enter value to be stored in the array 1 << endl;

```
for (int i = 0; i < size; i++)
```

```
{
```

```
cin >> ptr[i]
```

```
}
```

cout << " values in the array are: " << endl;

```
for (int i = 0; i < size; i++)
```

```
{
```

```
    cout << ptr[i] << endl;
```

```
}
```

return 0;

```
}
```

2. Static memory allocation: It allocate size and location to a fixed variable.

eg

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
    int p;
```

```
    char c;
```

```
    int arr [100];
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

Memory

Stack

Heap

Global

Program code

New operator: The new operator is used for allocating memory dynamically. It is allocated on heap.

Syntax: Pointer variable = new datatype
int *p;
p = new int;

Allocate block of memory =

Pointer variable = new datatype [size].

Delete operator: It is used for deallocating memory at runtime.

delete pointer variable..

[Dynamical Memory allocation using new and delete operator]

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
```

```
int *Ptr;
```

```
Ptr = new int;
```

```
cout << "Enter value";
```

```
cin >> *Ptr;
```

Can't << 4 value. is " << &ptr ;

delete ptr;

return 0;

* (A) g-

With Array (Already Discussed.)

Pointer to an object :->

— object pointer are useful in creating objects alternative.

— we can also use an object pointer to access the public member of an object.

Eg

Class item

{

int code;

float price;

public :

. void get data (int a, float b)

```
{  
    code = a;  
    price = b;  
}
```

```
void show()
```

```
{  
    cout << "code : " << code;  
    cout << " price : " << price;  
}
```

```
int main()
```

```
{  
    item x;  
    item *ptr = &x; // pointer to  
                    // object of class
```

```
x.getdata(100, 75.5);  
x.show();  
}
```

```
// ptr -> getdata(100, 75.5);  
// (*ptr).getdata(100, 75.5);  
  
// ptr -> show();  
// *ptr.show();
```



This pointer is Kindly Refer P.no. 122

Dangling pointers: If a pointer variable holds the address of an active area location is called dangling pointer.

Example

```

int main()
{
    int *p;
    int a = 5;
    p = &a;
}
    
```

(Note: There are circled 'X' marks next to the pointer variable declarations and assignments in the original image.)

Wild pointer ① A pointer that is not initialised with any address is called wild pointer.

② wild pointer is known as bad pointer because it holds the address of random memory location.

```

int main()
{
    int *p;
    cout << p;
    cout << *p;
}
    
```

Null pointer :- A pointer variable that is initialize with the null value at the time of pointer declaration.

The null pointer that doesn't point to any memory location.

— It takes a value as zero.

Memory leak: (Refer Rdf)

```

void leak()
{
    int *ptr = new int;
}

```

```

int main()
{
    leak();
}
return 0;

```

Allocation failures:

Void pointer :- is a pointer that has no associated data type with it.

void * ptr
in

UNIT: 08

Exceptions Handling

#

*

⊕ ⊗ ⊙ ⊚

⊛ ⊜

⊕

⊕

Syllabus :- Review of traditional error handling, basic of exception handling, Exception handling mechanism, Throwing mechanism, Catching mechanism, Rethrowing an exception, specifying exceptions.

Exception Handling :- An exception is unexpected/unwanted situation that occurred at runtime.

— C++ provides a try-catch block for handling exceptions.

Syntax :

```
try  
{  
    //  
}  
catch (exception type)  
{  
    //  
}
```

Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
using namespace std;
main()
{
    double bal = 1000.0;
    try
    {
        double amt; // Deposit
        cout << "Enter deposit Amount: ";
        cin >> amt;

        if (amt <= 0)
            throw invalid_argument("Invalid
            Deposit Amount: ");

        bal = bal + amt;

        cout << "Available Amount: " << bal
            << endl;

        // withdraw

        cout << "Enter withdraw amount: ";
        cin >> amt;
```

```
if (amt <= 0)  
{  
    throw invalid_argument ("invalid  
withdraw Amount: ");  
}
```

```
if (amt > bal)  
{  
    throw runtime_error ("insufficient  
fund: ");  
}
```

```
bal = bal - amt;
```

```
cout << " Available Amount: " << bal <<  
endl;
```

```
}  
catch (exception & e)
```

```
{  
    cout << e.what();  
}
```

```
}  
}
```

Output :

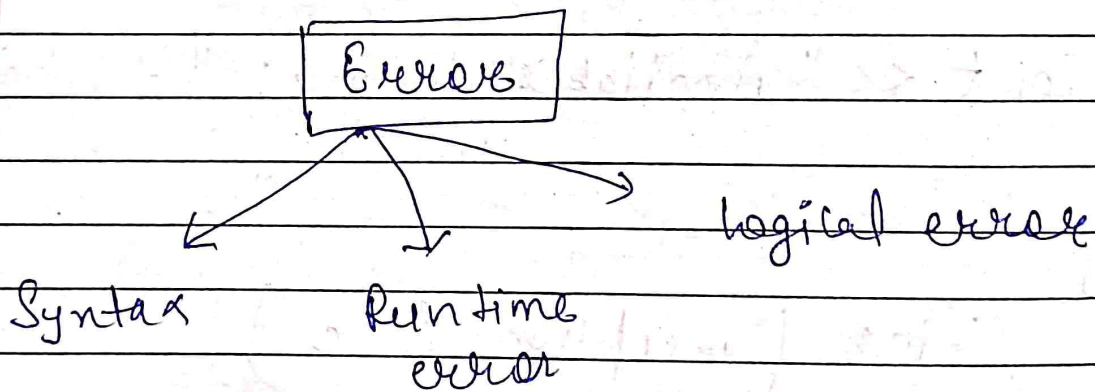
Enter deposit Amount : 300

Available Amount : 1300

Enter withdrawal Amount : 1500

Insufficient fund :

Program Debugging : After writing a program the next step is to debug the program.



1. Syntax error :- Syntax error occurs when we violate any grammatical rule of programming language -

Example :-

```
main ( )
```

```

cout << "Enter n";
cin >> n // syntax error ;
}

```

2. Run time error :- Run time error is any error that causes abnormal program termination during execution.

Example :-

```

main()
{
    int a;
    a = 10%; // Runtime error
}

```

3. Logical error :- A logical error simply an incorrect translation of either the problem statement or the algorithm.

Example :-

```

main()
{
    int a = 2, b = 4, c = 0;
    float x;
    x = -b ± sqrt(b * b - 4 * a * c) / 2a;
}

```

Throwing Mechanism \rightarrow Already done

Catching Mechanism \rightarrow Already done

Rethrowing Mechanism \rightarrow A handler
can rethrow
the exception caught
without
processing it.

Syntax : throw;

Example :

```
* #include <iostream>
* using namespace std;
* void div (int x, int y)
* {
*     cout << "\n Inside fun()";
*     try
*     {
*         if (y == 0)
*             throw y;
*     }
*     else
*         cout << "\n div = " << x/y;
```



```
Catch (int a)
```

```
{
```

```
    cout << "In Caught int inside func();
```

```
};
```

```
    cout << "In End of function";
```

```
};
```

```
int main() {
```

```
{
```

```
    cout << "In inside main()";
```

```
    try {
```

```
        div(10, 5);
```

```
        div(20, 0);
```

```
    } catch (int a)
```

```
{
```

```
    cout cout << "In Caught int inside  
main()";
```

```
};
```

```
    cout << "In End of main()";
```

```
};
```

★
Ⓝ

Specifying exceptions \Rightarrow It is possible to restrict a function to throw only certain specified exceptions!

— Achieved by adding a "throw list" clause to the function definition —

Syntax:

```
type function (arg list) throw (type list)  
{  
}  
}
```

— where type list

↑
specified the type of exceptions that may throw.

Example

```
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std;  
void test (int x) throw (int, double)  
{  
}
```

```
if (x == 0) throw x,  
else if (x == -1) throw 1.2;  
}  
it main()  
{  
    try  
    {  
        test (0);  
        test (-1);  
    }  
    catch (int a)  
    {  
        cout << "\n Caught a int " << a << endl;  
    }  
    catch (double b)  
    {  
        cout << "\n Caught a double " << b << endl;  
    }  
}
```

Unit-8 is
Completed

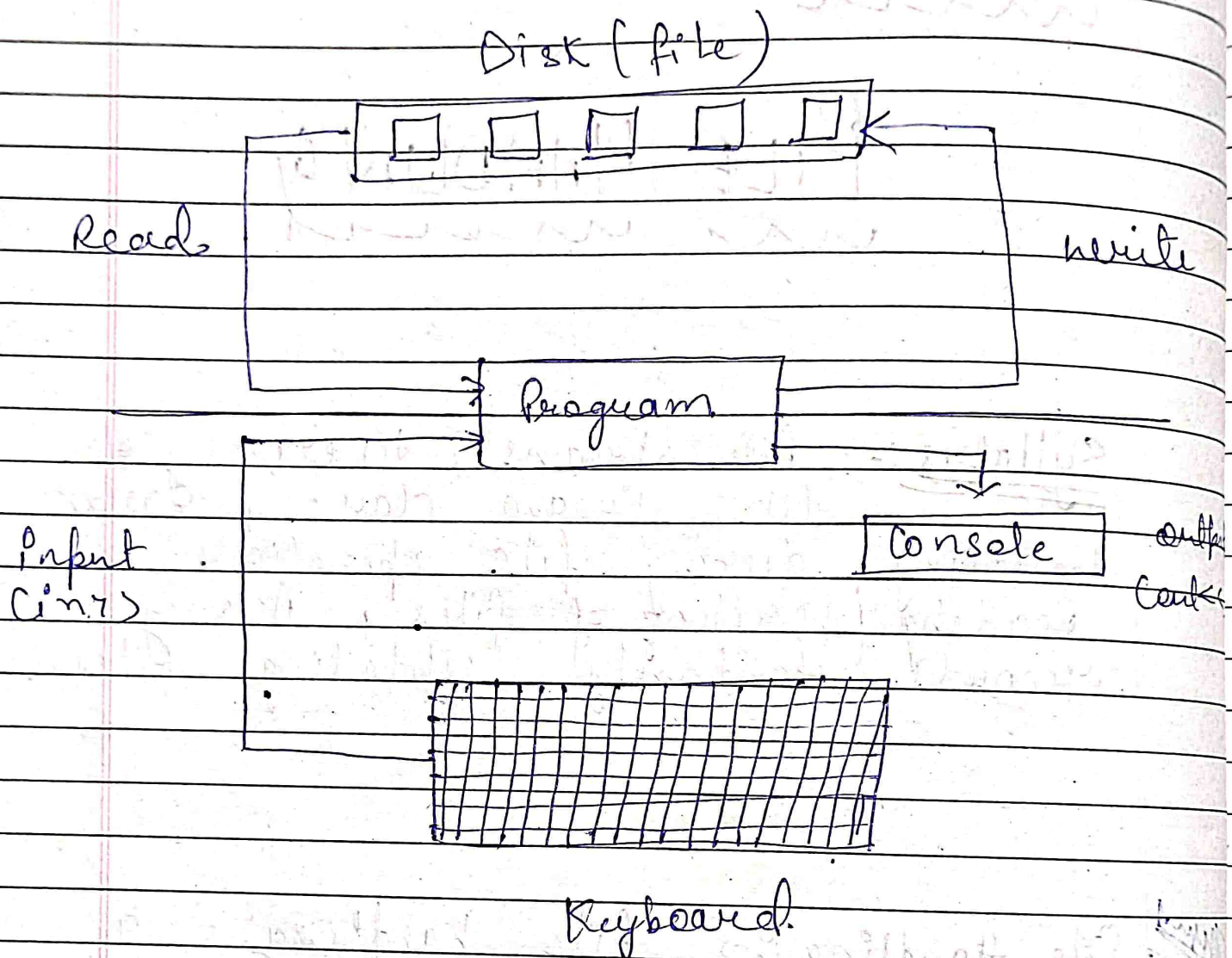
UNIT: 09

FILE HANDLING

Syllabus :- File streams, hierarchy of file stream classes, Error handling during file operations, Reading/Writing of files, Accessing records randomly, Updating files.

File Handling :- File handling is a process of reading and writing data into files.
C++ file handling allows you to store output of a program in a file, and also read file data on console.

how C++ file handling works:-



File Handling operations

1. Create a file
2. open a file
3. read data
4. write data
5. delete file
6. copy file

Create file — of stream

```
#include <iostream>
#include <fstream>
using namespace std;
int main()
```

```
ofstream onFile;
onFile.open("C:\\Users\\Dell\\Desktop\\
file.txt");
```

```
cout << "file created successfully";
```

```
onFile.close();
```

write data — of stream

```
ofstream onFile;
onFile.open("C:\\Users\\Dell\\Desktop\\
file.txt");
```

```
onFile << "Thank U so much :)";
cout << "Data has been written in the
file :)";
```

```
onFile.close();
```

read data → if streams

```
main() {
```

```
    ifstream inFile; string str;  
    inFile.open("C:\\User\\Bell\\Desktop\\  
    file.txt");
```

```
    while (getline (inFile, str) )  
    {
```

```
        cout << str;  
    }
```

```
    inFile.close();  
}
```

Copy of data from one file to another

```
main()
```

```
    ifstream in file;  
    ofstream on file; char str;  
    in file . open ("C:\\Users\\Bell\\Desktop\\  
    file1.txt");
```

```
    on file . open ("C:\\Users\\Bell\\Desktop\\  
    file2.txt");
```

```
    while ( in file . get (str);
```

```
        on file . put (str);
```

```
cout << "Copied !! \n";
```

```
inFile.close();  
onFile.close();
```

```
}
```

Delete file → program

```
{  
main()
```

```
int value = remove ("C:\\Users\\Bell\\  
Desktop\\file.txt");
```

```
if (value == 0)  
{  
cout << "File deleted !! \n";
```

```
}
```

```
else
```

```
{  
cout << "File not deleted !! \n";
```

```
}
```

```
}
```

Chapter 9th
file handling is completed

Input stream:

If the direction of flow of bytes is from the device to the main memory then this process is called input.

If the direction of flow of bytes is opposite i.e. from main memory to device then this process is called output.

Static function: It is a member function that is used to access only static data members.

Program to find the length of string

```
Code :- #include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main()
```

```
{
    string str = "Jai Hoo Satnaryan"
    cout << str.length() << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

↳ 15

19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30

Jai Hoo Satnaryan V

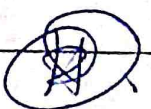
File.cpp Jai Ho Satnamyanam

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101

```
#include <iostream>
#include <fstream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    ofstream obj ("one.txt");
    obj << "Hello world";
    cout << obj.tellp();
    obj.seekp (-5, ios::end);
    cout << obj.tellp();
    obj << "class";
    ifstream inf ("one.txt");
    cout << inf.tellg();
    inf.seekg (5, ios::beg);
    cout << inf.tellg();
    char c;
    while (!inf.eof())
    {
        inf.get(c)
        if (inf.eof())
            break;
        cout << c;
    }
    inf.close();
}
```



}



Q: pure virtual function

(A) (B)

A. Abjij. A.
(B)

palind

revers

(A)

(1234)

C++ To reverse of a number.

(A)

(A)
200

(i) Error handling during file operations in C++

(ii) C++ programming lang. provides several built-in functions to handle error, by file operat

(1) int bad() — return a non zero value.

(2) ~~int fail()~~ — if an invalid operation is attempted.

(3) int fail() → return a non-zero value when input or output operation has failed.

(4) int good() → It returns a non-zero value when no error has occurred.

~~(5) int eof()~~

(A) (B) (C) (D) (E)

(1) Static

friend

It cannot access any variable of its class except for static variable

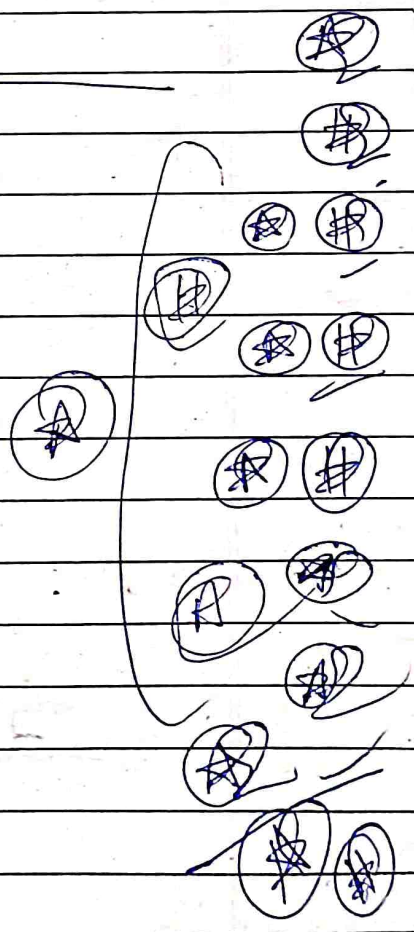
It can access public or private member of the class

It is denoted by placing a static keyword before the function's name.

It is ~~is~~ a special keyword before is

It is associated with class and not an object.

It is declared in class but not belong to the class



File pointers

```
#include <iostream>
#include <fstream>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
    ofstream obj ("one.txt");
    obj << "Hello world";
    cout << obj.tellp();
    obj.seekp (-5, ios::end);
    cout << obj.tellp();
    obj << "class";
    ifstream inf ("one.txt");
    cout << inf.tellg();
    inf.seekg (5, ios::beg);
    cout << inf.tellg();
    char c;
    while (!inf.eof())
    {
        inf.get(c);
        if (inf.eof())
            break;
        cout << c;
    }
    inf.close();
}
```

#