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## Object-Oriented Programming Programming Language Concepts

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# Object Oriented Programming

- Over time, data abstraction has become essential as programs became complicated.
- Benefits:
  1. Reduce conceptual load (minimum detail).
  2. Fault containment.
  3. Independent program components.  
(difficult in practice).
- Code reuse possible by extending and refining abstractions.

# Object Oriented Programming

- A methodology of programming
- Four (Five ?) major principles:
  1. Data Abstraction.
  2. Encapsulation.
  3. Information Hiding.
  4. Polymorphism (dynamic binding).
  5. Inheritance. (particular case of polymorphism ?)

Will describe these using C++, because ...

# The C++ language

- An object-oriented, general-purpose programming language, derived from C (C++ = C plus classes).
- C++ adds the following to C:
  1. Inlining and overloading of functions.
  2. Default argument values.
  3. Argument pass-by-reference.
  4. Free store operators `new` and `delete`, instead of `malloc()` and `free()`.
  5. Support for object-oriented programming, through classes, information hiding, public interfaces, operator overloading, inheritance, and templates.

# Design Objectives in C++

- Compatibility. Existing code in C can be used. Even existing, pre-compiled libraries can be linked with new C++ code.
- Efficiency. No additional cost for using C++. Overhead of function calls is eliminated where possible.
- Strict type checking. Aids debugging, allows generation of efficient code.
- C++ designed by Bjarne Stroustrup of Bell Labs (now at TAMU).
- Standardization: ANSI, ISO.

# Non Object-Oriented Extensions to C

- Major improvements over C.
  1. Stream I/O.
  2. Strong typing.
  3. Parameter passing by reference.
  4. Default argument values.
  5. Inlining.

We've discussed some of these already.

# Stream I/O in C++

- Input and output in C++ is handled by streams.
- The directive `#include <iostream.h>` declares 2 streams: `cin` and `cout`.
- `cin` is associated with standard input. Extraction: `operator>>`.
- `cout` is associated with standard output. Insertion: `operator<<`.
- In C++, input is line buffered, i.e. the user must press `<RTN>` before any characters are processed.

# Example of Stream I/O in C++

A function that returns the sum of the numbers in the file `Number.in`

```
int fileSum();
{
    ifstream infile("Number.in");
    int sum = 0;
    int value;
    //read until non-integer or <eof>
    while(infile >> value)
        sum = sum + value;
    return sum;
}
```

# Example of Stream I/O in C++

Example 2: A function to copy `myfile` into `copy.myfile`

```
void copyfile()  
{  
    ifstream source("myfile");  
    ofstream destin("copy.myfile");  
    char ch;  
    while (source.get(ch))  
        destin<<ch;  
}
```

# Line-by-line textfile concatenation

```
int ch;
// Name1, Name2, Name3 are strings
ifstream f1 (Name1);
ifstream f2 (Name2);
ofstream f3 (Name3);
while ((ch = f1.get()) != -1 )
    if (ch == '\n')
        while ((ch = f2.get()) != -1) {
            f3.put(ch);
            if (ch == '\n') break;
        }
    else f3.put(ch);
}
```

# Why use I/O streams ?

- Streams are type safe -- the type of object being I/O'd is known statically by the compiler rather than via dynamically tested '%' fields.
- Streams are less error prone:
  - Difficult to make robust code using `printf`.
- Streams are faster: `printf` interprets the language of '%' specs, and chooses (at runtime) the proper low-level routine. C++ picks these routines statically based on the actual types of the arguments.

## Why use I/O streams ? (cont'd)

- Streams are extensible -- the C++ I/O mechanism is extensible to new user-defined data types.
- Streams are subclassable -- ostream and istream (C++ replacements for FILE\*) are real classes, and hence subclassable. Can define types that look and act like streams, yet operate on other objects. Examples:
  - A stream that writes to a memory area.
  - A stream that listens to external port.

# C++ Strong Typing

- There are 6 principal situations in which C++ has stronger typing than C.
  1. The empty list of formal parameters means "no arguments" in C++.
    - In C, it means "zero or more arguments", with no type checking at all. Example:

```
char * malloc();
```

## C++ Strong Typing (cont'd)

2. In C, it's OK to use an undefined function; no type checking will be performed. In C++, undefined functions are not allowed.

Example:

```
main()
f( 3.1415 );
// C++: error, f not defined
// C: OK, taken to mean int f()
```

# C++ Strong Typing (cont'd)

3. A C function, declared to be value-returning, can fail to return a value. Not in C++. Example:

```
double foo() {
    /* ... */
    return;
}
main() {
    if ( foo() ) { ... }
    ...
}
// C : OK
// C++: error, no return value.
```

## C++ Strong Typing (cont'd)

4. In C, assigning a pointer of type `void*` to a pointer of another type is OK. Not in C++. Example:

```
int i = 1024;
void *pv = &i;
// C++: error,
// explicit cast required.
// C   : OK.
char *pc = pv;
int len = strlen(pc);
```

## C++ Strong Typing (cont'd)

5. C++ is more careful about initializing arrays: Example:

```
char A[2]="hi";  
// C++: error,  
// not enough space for '\0'  
// C : OK, but no '\0' is stored.
```

It's best to stick with `char A[] = "hi";`

## C++ Strong Typing (cont'd)

6. Free store (heap) management. In C++, we use `new` and `delete`, instead of `malloc` and `free`.
  - `malloc()` doesn't call constructors, and `free` doesn't call destructors.
  - `new` and `delete` are type safe.

# Object-Oriented Programming

Object-oriented programming is a programming methodology characterized by the following concepts:

1. Data Abstraction: problem solving via the formulation of abstract data types (ADT's).
2. Encapsulation: the proximity of data definitions and operation definitions.
3. Information hiding: the ability to selectively hide implementation details of a given ADT.
4. Polymorphism: the ability to manipulate different kinds of objects, with only one operation.
5. Inheritance: the ability of objects of one data type, to inherit operations and data from another data type. Embodies the "*is a*" notion: a horse is a mammal, a mammal is a vertebrate, a vertebrate is a lifeform.

# O-O Principles and C++ Constructs

O-O Concept

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C++ Construct(s)

Abstraction

Classes

Encapsulation

Classes

Information Hiding

Public and Private Members

Polymorphism

Operator overloading,  
templates, virtual functions

Inheritance

Derived Classes

# O-O is a different Paradigm

- Central questions when programming.
  - Imperative Paradigm:
    - What to do **next** ?
  - Object-Oriented Programming
    - What does the **object** do ? (vs. how)
- Central activity of programming:
  - Imperative Paradigm:
    - Get the **computer** to do something.
  - Object-Oriented Programming
    - Get the **object** to do something.

# C vs. C++, side-by-side

C Code:

```
-----  
#include <stdio.h>  
#define STACK_SIZE 10  
  
struct Stack {  
    int items[STACK_SIZE];  
    int sp;  
};  
  
typedef struct Stack Stack;  
  
void Print(Stack *s) {  
    int i;  
    printf("Stack:\n");  
    for (i=0; i<=s->sp; i++)  
        printf("%d\n", s->items[i]);  
}
```

C++ Code:

```
-----  
#include <iostream.h>  
const int STACK_SIZE=10;  
  
class Stack {  
private:  
    int items[STACK_SIZE];  
    int sp;  
public:  
    Stack();  
    ~Stack();  
    void Push(int i);  
    int Pop();  
    int Top() const;  
  
    friend ostream& operator<<  
        (ostream& o, const Stack& s)  
        { int i; o<<"Stack:"<<endl;  
          for (i=0; i<=s.sp; i++)  
              o<<s.items[i]<<endl;  
          return o;  
        };  
};
```

# C vs. C++, side-by-side (cont'd)

In C++, methods can appear inside the class definition (better encapsulation)

```
void Initialize(Stack *s) {  
    s->sp=-1;  
}
```

```
void Push(Stack *s, int i) {  
    s->items[++s->sp]=i;  
}
```

```
int Pop(Stack *s) {  
    return s->items[s->sp--];  
}
```

```
int Top(struct Stack *s) {  
    return s->items[s->sp];  
}
```

```
Stack::Stack() {sp=-1;}  
Stack::~~Stack() {}
```

```
void Stack::Push(int i) {  
    items[++sp]=i;  
}
```

```
int Stack::Pop() {  
    return items[sp--];  
}
```

```
int Stack::Top() const {  
    return items[sp];  
}
```

## C vs. C++, side-by-side (cont'd)

In C++, no explicit referencing.

Could have overloaded <<, >> for Stacks:

```
s << 1; s >> i;
```

```
main() {  
    Stack s;  
    int i;  
    Initialize(&s);  
    Push(&s, 1);  
    Push(&s, 2);  
    Print(&s);  
    i=Pop(&s);  
    Print(&s);  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    Stack s;  
    int i;  
    s.Push(1);  
    s.Push(2);  
    cout << s;  
    i=s.Pop();  
    cout << s;  
}
```

# Structures and Classes in C++

- Structures in C++ differ from those in C in that members can be functions.
- A special member function is the “constructor”, whose name is the same as the structure. It is used to initialize the object:

```
struct buffer {  
    buffer()  
        {size=MAXBUF+1; front=rear=0;}  
    char buf[MAXBUF+1];  
    int size, front, rear;  
}
```

# Structures and Classes in C++

The idea is to add some operations on objects of type `buffer`:

```
struct buffer {  
    buffer() {size=MAXBUF+1;front=rear=0;}  
    char buf[MAXBUF+1];  
    int size, front, rear;  
    int succ(int i) {return (i+1)%size;}  
    int enter(char);  
    char leave();  
}
```

# Structures and Classes in C++

The definition (body) of a member function can be included in the structure's declaration, or may appear later. If so, use the name resolution operator (::)

```
int  buffer::enter(char x) {  
    // body of enter }  
char buffer::leave() {  
    // body of leave }
```

# Public and Private Members

Structures and classes are closely related in C++:

```
struct x { <member-decls> };
```

is equivalent to

```
class x { public: <member-decls>;
```

Difference: by default, members of a structure are public; members of a class are private. So,

```
class x { <member-decls> };
```

is the same as

```
struct x { private: <member-decls> };
```

# Header File Partitioning

```
----- buf.h -----  
  
const int MAXBUF = 4;  
  
// Declaration of class 'buffer', with two  
// public functions, enter and leave, and five  
// private members: vector buf, data size,  
// front and rear, and an increment operation.  
  
class buffer {  
  
public:  
    buffer () { size=MAXBUF+1; front=rear=0; }  
        // default constructor  
    int  enter (char);  
    char leave ();  
  
private:  
    char buf [MAXBUF+1];  
    int  size, front, rear;  
    int  succ (int i) { return (i+1)%size }  
};
```

# Header File Partitioning (cont'd)

```
----- buf.c -----  
  
#include "buf.h"  
  
// Definitions of the two functions in  
// class buffer. We use the name resolution  
// operator (::)  
  
int buffer::enter(char x) {  
    if (succ(rear) == front) return 0;  
    buf[rear] = x; rear = succ(rear);  
    return 1;  
}  
  
char buffer::leave () {  
    if (front == rear) return '\0';  
    int x = buf[front]; front = succ(front);  
    return x;  
}
```

# Header File Partitioning (cont'd)

```
----- bufctest.c -----  
  
//          Main Program  
  
#include "buf.h"  
#include <stdio.h>  
#include <math.h>  
  
main () {  
    buffer b;  
    // common mistake: buffer b();  
    int ch, nextch = getchar();  
    while (nextch != EOF ) {  
        if ( frand() >= 0.5 &&  
            ((ch=b.leave()) != '\0') )  
            cout.put(ch);  
        else if (b.enter(nextch) )  
            nextch = cin.get();  
    }  
    while ((ch=b.leave()) != '\0' )  
        cout.put(ch);  
    return 0;  
}
```