

# Εισαγωγή στις γλώσσες C και C++

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## Βασικά Στοιχεία Γλωσσών

- Οι γλώσσες προγραμματισμού αποτελούν εργαλεία για την ανάπτυξη πακέτων λογισμικού (προγράμματα).
- Πρόγραμμα = Υλοποίηση Αλγορίθμων + Υλοποίηση Δομών Δεδομένων

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## Διαχωρισμός Γλωσσών

- Δομημένες Γλώσσες Προγραμματισμού, όπως Pascal, C
- Γλώσσες Βασισμένες στα Αντικείμενα (object-oriented), C++, Java.

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## 'Ενα Απλό Παράδειγμα C

```
# include <stdio.h>
main ( )
{
    int x, y;
    x = 5;
    y=4;
    printf ("x + y = %d", x+y);
}
```

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## Χαρακτηριστικά της C

- Γλώσσα μετρίου επιπέδου
- Οικονομία στην έκφραση (λιτή και περιεκτική)
- Σχετικά χαλαρό σύστημα τύπων
- Φιλοσοφία: ο προγραμματιστής έχει πλήρη έλεγχο και ευθύνεται για τα σφάλματά του

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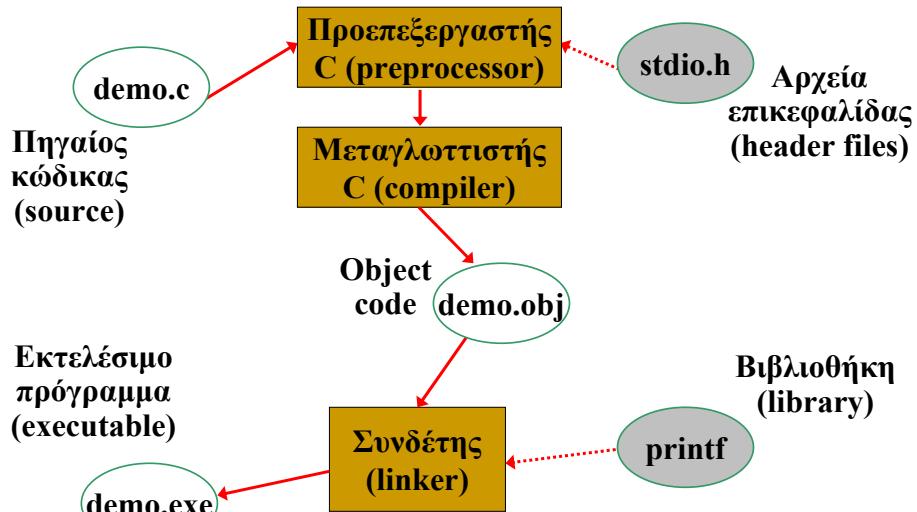
## Χαρακτηριστικά της C

- Ιδιαίτερα δημοφιλής στην πράξη
- Έχει χρησιμοποιηθεί για τον προγραμματισμό ευρέως φάσματος συστημάτων και εφαρμογών
- Έχει χρησιμοποιηθεί ως βάση για πληθώρα άλλων γλωσσών: C++, Java

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## Εκτέλεση Προγραμμάτων



## Πιο Σύνθετο Παράδειγμα C

```
#include <stdio.h>

void main ()
{
    int celcius;
    double farenheit;

    printf("Give the temperature (C): ");
    scanf("%d", &celcius);
    farenheit = 9.0 * celcius / 5.0 + 32.0;
    printf("%d degrees Celcius "
           "is %lf degrees Farenheit",
           celcius, farenheit);
}
```

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## Βασικοί Τύποι Δεδομένων

```
char, signed char, unsigned char  
signed short int, unsigned short int  
signed int , unsigned int  
signed long int , unsigned long int  
float, double, long double
```

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## Μεταβλητές

```
int x;  
int x, y, z;  
double r;  
unsigned long abc;  
  
int x = 1;  
int x, y = 0, z = 2;  
double r = 1.87;  
unsigned long abc = 42000000;
```

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## Σταθερές

### ■ ακέραιες σταθερές

42	0	-1	δεκαδικές
037			οκταδικές
0x1f			δεκαεξαδικές
42U	42L	42UL	unsigned & long

### ■ σταθερές κινητής υποδιαστολής

42.0	-1.3	δεκαδικές
2.99e8		με δύναμη του 10
42.0F	42.0L	float & long double

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## Σταθερές (συνέχεια)

### ■ χαρακτήρα

'a'            '0'            '\$'

### ■ ειδικοί χαρακτήρες

\n	αλλαγή γραμμής
\'	απόστροφος
\\	χαρακτήρας \ (backslash)
\t	αλλαγή στήλης (tab)
\"	εισαγωγικό
\0	χαρακτήρας με ASCII = 0 (null)
\037	» με ASCII = 37 (οκταδικό)
\x1f	» με ASCII = 1f (δεκαεξαδικό)

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## Σταθερές (συνέχεια)

- συμβολοσειρές

```
"abc"    "Hello world!\n"  "a\"51\""
```

- δηλώσεις σταθερών

```
const int size = 10, num = 5;  
const double pi = 3.14159;  
const char newline = '\n';
```

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## printf (): εκτύπωση

- απλοί τύποι δεδομένων

- int              %d
- char            %c
- double        %lf
- string        %s

- παράδειγμα

```
printf("%d %lf %c %s\n",
       42, 1.2, 'a', "aloha");
```

- αποτέλεσμα

```
42 1.200000 a aloha
```

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## scanf ( ): ανάγνωση

- ίδιοι κωδικοί για τους απλούς τύπους
- Παράδειγμα

```
int n;  
double d;  
char c;  
scanf("%d", &n);  
scanf("%lf", &d);  
scanf("%c", &c);
```

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## Τελεστές και Εκφράσεις

- αριθμητικοί τελεστές  
+ - \* / %
- σχεσιακοί τελεστές  
== != < > <= >=
- λογικοί τελεστές  
&& λογική σύζευξη (και)  
|| λογική διάζευξη (ή)  
! λογική άρνηση (όχι)
- ΤΠ.χ. (x % 3 != 0) && !finished

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## Τελεστές και Εκφράσεις (συνέχεια)

### ■ τελεστές bit προς bit (bitwise)

& σύζευξη bit	(AND)
διάζευξη bit	(OR)
^ αποκλειστική διάζευξη bit	(XOR)
~ άρνηση	(NOT)
<<	ολίσθηση bit αριστερά
>>	ολίσθηση bit δεξιά

### ■ παράδειγμα

```
(0x0101 & 0xffff0) << 2  
⇒ 0x0400
```

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## Τελεστές και Εκφράσεις (συνέχεια)

### ■ τελεστής συνθήκης

`(a >= b) ? a : b`

### ■ τελεστής παράθεσης

`a-1, b+5`

### ■ τελεστές ανάθεσης

`a = b+1`

`a += x`      ισοδύναμο με

`a = a + x`

### ■ τελεστές αύξησης και μείωσης

`a++ a--`

τιμή πριν τη μεταβολή

`++a --a`

τιμή μετά τη μεταβολή

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## Έλεγχος Ροής Προγράμματος

### ■ Εντολή if

```
if (a >= b)
    max = a;
else
    max = b;
```

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## Έλεγχος Ροής Προγράμματος

### ■ Σύνθετη εντολή

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

### ■ Ορίζει νέα εμβέλεια

```
if (x < y) {
    int temp = x;
    x = y;
    y = temp;
}
```

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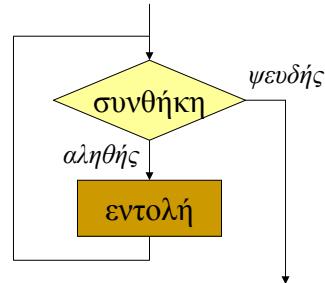
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## Έλεγχος Ροής Προγράμματος

**while** (συνθήκη)  
εντολή

### ■ Εντολή while

```
int i = 1, s = 0;  
while (i <= 10) {  
    s += i;  
    i++;  
}
```



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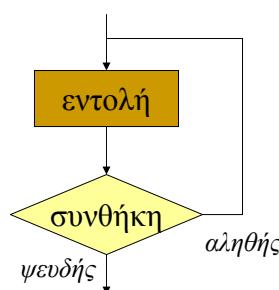
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## Έλεγχος Ροής Προγράμματος

**do**  
εντολή  
**while** (συνθήκη);

### ■ Εντολή do-while

```
int i = 1, s = 0;  
do  
{  
    s += i++;  
} while (i <= 10);
```



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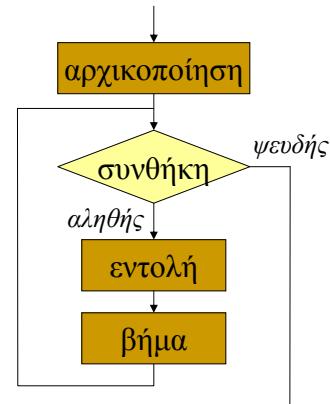
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## Έλεγχος Ροής Προγράμματος

```
for (αρχικοποίηση ;  
      συνθήκη ;  
      βήμα)  
    εντολή
```

### ■ Εντολή for

```
int i, s;  
for (i=1, s=0; i <= 10; i++)  
    s += i;
```



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## Εντολή break

```
int s;  
for (i=0, s=0; i < 10; i++) {  
    int x;  
    scanf("%d", &x);  
    if (x < 0)  
        break;  
    s += x;  
}  
printf("Sum is: %d\n", s);
```

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## Εντολή continue

```
int s;
for (i=0, s=0; i < 10; i++) {
    int x;
    scanf("%d", &x);
    if (x < 0)
        continue;
    s += x;
}
printf("Sum is: %d\n", s);
```

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## Εντολή switch

```
switch (ch) {
    case 'a':
        printf("alpha\n");
        break;
    case 'b':
    case 'c':
        printf("beta or c\n");
        break;
    default:
        printf("other\n");
}
```

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## Εντολή goto

```
int i = 1, s = 0;  
  
loop:    ←  
        s += i++;  
        if (i < 10)  
            goto loop;  
  
printf("The sum is %d\n", s);
```

- Οχι goto: δομημένος προγραμματισμός!

## Αντικειμενοστρεφής Προγραμματισμός

### Τι είναι:

Μοντέλο προγραμματισμού -> Ένας τρόπος σκέψης

### Τυπικός ορισμός:

Η αντικειμενοστρέφεια (object-orientation) είναι μία προσέγγιση στην ανάπτυξη λογισμικού που οργανώνει τόσο το πρόβλημα όσο και τη λύση του ως μία συλλογή από διακριτά **αντικείμενα**.

### Τα αντικείμενα αλληλεπιδρούν για την επίλυση του προβλήματος

## Αντικειμενοστρεφής Προγραμματισμός

1967: **Simula67** (Νορβηγία) -> πρώτη αντικειμενοστρεφής γλώσσα

'70: **Smalltalk** (Palo Alto, CA) -> κάθε στοιχείο ένα αντικείμενο

Αρχές '80: ο αντικειμενοστρεφής τρόπος σκέψης εισάγεται σε ακαδημαϊκούς κύκλους

'80: **C++** (Stroustrup, AT&T): σοβαρή, αποδοτική γλώσσα, πρότυπο στη βιομηχανία

1995: **JAVA**, Sun Microsystems

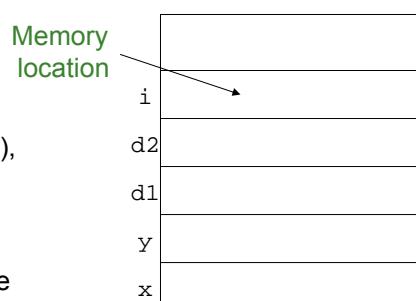
## C++ Review

## Outline

- C++ basic features
  - Programming paradigm and statement syntax
- Class definitions
  - Data members, methods, constructor, destructor
  - Pointers, arrays, and strings
  - Parameter passing in functions
  - Templates
  - Friend
  - Operator overloading
- I/O streams
  - An example on file copy
- Makefile

## Functions & Memory

- Every function needs a place to store its local variables.  
Collectively, this storage is called the *stack*
- This storage (memory aka “RAM”), is a series of storage spaces and their numerical addresses
- Instead of using raw addresses, we use variables to attach a name to an address
- All of the data/variables for a particular function call are located in a *stack frame*



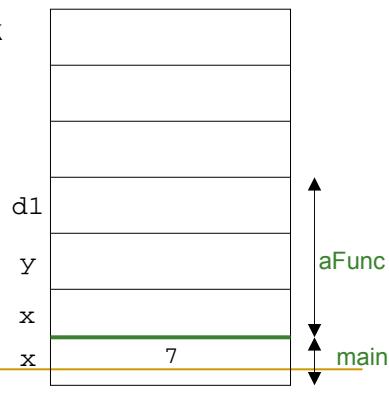
```
void aFunc(int x, int y)
{
    double d1, d2;
    int i;
```

## Functions & Memory (cont)

- When a function is called, a new stack frame is set aside
- Parameters and return values are passed *by copy* (ie, they're copied into and out of the stack frame)
- When a function finishes, its stack frame is reclaimed

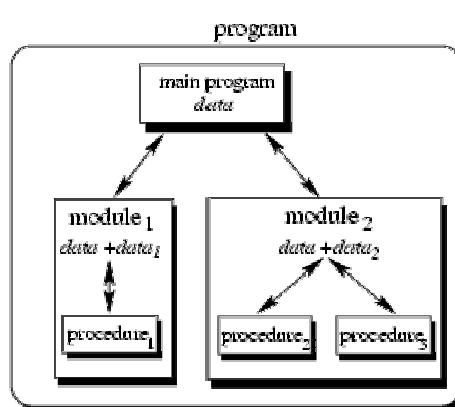
```
void aFunc(int x, int y) {  
    double d1 = x + y;  
}  
int main(int argc,  
         const char * argv[]) {  
    int x = 7;  
    aFunc(1, 2);  
    aFunc(2, 3);  
    return 0;  
}
```

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## Programming Paradigm: Modular Concept



- The main program coordinates calls to procedures in separate modules and hands over appropriate data as parameters

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## Modular Concept - Problems

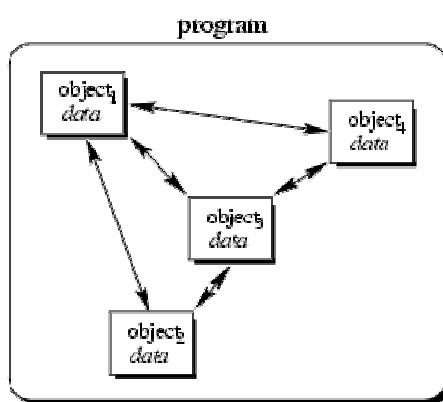
### ■ Decoupled Data and Operations

- The resulting module structure is oriented on the operations rather than the actual data
- The defined operations specify the data to be used.

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## Object-Oriented Concept (C++)



- Objects of the program interact by sending messages to each other

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## Basic C++

- Inherit all C syntax
  - Primitive data types
    - Supported data types: int, long, short, float, double, char, bool, and enum
    - The size of data types is platform-dependent
  - Basic expression syntax
    - Defining the usual arithmetic and logical operations such as +, -, /, %, \*, &&, !, and |
    - Defining bit-wise operations, such as &, |, and ~
  - Basic statement syntax
    - If-else, for, while, and do-while

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## Basic C++ (cont)

- Add a new comment mark
  - // For 1 line comment
  - /\*... \*/ for a group of line comment
- New data type
  - Reference data type "&". Much like pointer

```
int ix; /* ix is "real" variable */
int & rx = ix; /* rx is "alias" for ix */
ix = 1; /* also rx == 1 */
rx = 2; /* also ix == 2 */
```
- *const* support for constant declaration, just like C

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## Class Definitions

- A C++ class consists of *data members* and *methods* (*member functions*).

```
class IntCell
{
    public:
        explicit IntCell( int initialValue = 0 )
            : storedValue( initialValue ) {}

        int read( ) const
        {
            return storedValue;
        }

        void write( int x )
        {
            storedValue = x;
        }

    private:
        int storedValue;
}
```

Above code annotated with callouts:

- Avoid implicit type conversion**: Points to the `explicit` keyword.
- Initializer list: used to initialize the data members directly.**: Points to the constructor's initializer list.
- Member functions**: Points to the `read()` and `write()` methods.
- Indicates that the member's invocation does not change any of the data members.**: Points to the `const` keyword in the `read()` method.
- Data member(s)**: Points to the `storedValue` variable.

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## Information Hiding in C++

- Two labels: `public` and `private`
  - Determine visibility of class members
  - A member that is `public` may be accessed by any method in any class
  - A member that is `private` may only be accessed by methods in its class
- Information hiding
  - Data members are declared `private`, thus restricting access to internal details of the class
  - Methods intended for general use are made `public`

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## Constructors

- A *constructor* is a special method that describes how **an instance of the class** (called **object**) is constructed
- Whenever an instance of the class is created, its constructor is called.
- C++ provides a *default constructor* for each class, which is a constructor with no parameters. But, one can define multiple constructors for the same class, and may even redefine the default constructor

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## Destructor

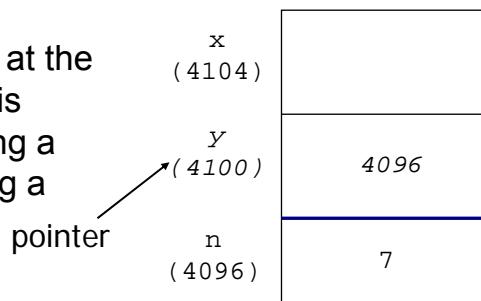
- A *destructor* is called when an object is deleted either implicitly, or explicitly (using the *delete* operation)
  - The destructor is called whenever an object goes out of scope or is subjected to a *delete*.
  - Typically, the destructor is used to free up any resources that were allocated during the use of the object
- C++ provides a *default destructor* for each class
  - The default simply applies the destructor on each data member. But we can redefine the destructor of a class. A C++ class can have only one destructor.
  - One can redefine the destructor of a class.
- A C++ class can have only **one** destructor

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## Pointers

- A *pointer* is a variable which contains addresses of other variables
- Accessing the data at the contained address is called “dereferencing a pointer” or “following a pointer”



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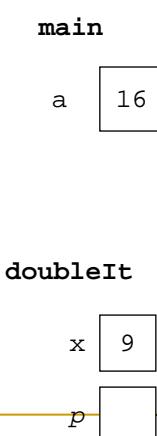
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## A Pointer Example

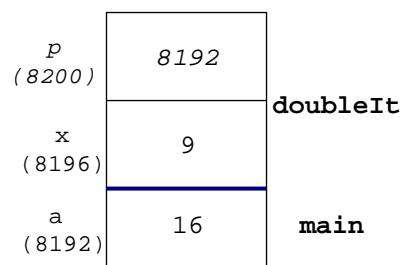
### The code

```
void doubleIt(int x,
              int * p)
{
    *p = 2 * x;
}
int main(int argc,
         const char * argv[])
{
    int a = 16;
    doubleIt(9, &a);
    return 0;
}
```

### Box diagram



### Memory Layout



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## Interface and Implementation

- In C++ it is more common to separate the *class interface* from its *implementation*.
- The *interface* lists the class and its members (data and functions).
- The *implementation* provides implementations of the functions.

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```
class IntCell
{
public:
    explicit IntCell( int initialValue = 0 );
    int read( ) const;
    void write( int x );
private:
    int storedValue;
}                                IntCell.h
```

```
IntCell::IntCell( int initialValue )
    : storedValue( initialValue ) { }

int IntCell::read( ) const
{ return storedValue; }

void IntCell::write( )
{ storedValue = x; }
```

*IntCell.cpp*

The interface is typically placed in a file that ends with *.h*. The member functions are defined as:

ReturnType FunctionName(parameterList);

The implementation file typically ends with *.cpp*, *.cc*, or *.C*. The member functions are defined as follows:

ReturnType ClassName::FunctionName(parameterList)
{ ..... }

*Scoping operator*

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## Object Pointer Declaration

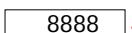
### ❑ Declaration

```
IntCell * p; //defines a pointer to an object of  
              class IntCell
```

- The \* indicates that *p* is a pointer variable; it is allowed to point at an *IntCell* object.
- The *value* of *p* is the address of the object that it points at
- *P* is uninitialized at this point
- The use of uninitialized pointers typically crashes programs

## Dereferencing Pointers

### ❑ Dynamic object creation

*p = new IntCell;*      *p*   

In C++ *new* returns a pointer to the newly created object.

### ❑ Garbage collection

- C++ does not have garbage collection
- When an object that is **allocated by new** is no longer referenced, the *delete* operation must be applied to the object  
*delete p;*

## Dereferencing Pointers (cont)

### □ Using a pointer

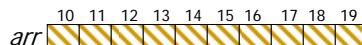
We can get the value of the object pointed at by a pointer either by using operator `*`, or by using operator `->`

```
IntCell a;  
int b;  
.....  
a = *p; //variable a gets the value of object pointed at by p  
b = p->read(); //the value of the data member storedValue of  
// the object pointed at by p is assigned  
to b
```

## Array Declaration

- An **array** is a collection of objects with same type stored **consecutively** in memory
- Declaring an array

```
IntCell arr[10]; //an array consisting of 10 IntCell objects
```



- The size of the array must be known at compile time.
- **arr** actually is a constant pointer. The value of **arr** **cannot** be changed.  

```
IntCell * p = new IntCell[10];
arr = p; // invalid
```
- The  $(i+1)$ -st object in the array **arr** can be accessed either by using **arr[i]**, or by **`*(arr+i)`**.
- There is no index range checking for arrays in C++
- Cannot be copied with =
- Arrays are *not* passed by copy. Instead, the address of the first element is passed to the function

```
int sumOfArray( int values[], int numValues )
```

## Strings

- ❑ Built-in C-style strings are implemented as an array of characters.
- ❑ Each string ends with the special null-terminator '\0'.
- ❑ `strcpy`: used to copy strings  
`strcmp`: used to compare strings  
`strlen`: used to determine the length of strings
- ❑ Individual characters can be accessed by the array indexing operator

```
char s1[] = "fool";           10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19  
                                f o o l \0 f o o \0 \0  
                                S1          S2  
  
char s2[] = "fool";           50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59  
                                a b c d e f 9 \0 \0  
                                S  
  
char s[] = "abcdefg";         10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19  
                                a b c d e f 9 \0 \0 \0  
                                S  
  
strcpy(s1, s);  
//copy s to s1  
//((s1 must have enough size)  
Δομές Δεδομένων including \0
```

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## Function Call by Value

```
int f(int x) { cout << "value of x = " << x << endl;  
               x = 4; }  
main() { int v = 5;  
         f(v);  
         cout << "value of v = " << v << endl; }
```

**Output:** Value of x = 5  
Value of v = 5

- ❑ When a variable *v* is passed *by value* to a function *f*, its value is copied to the corresponding variable *x* in *f*
- ❑ Any changes to the value of *x* does **NOT** affect the value of *v*
- ❑ Call by value is the default mechanism for parameter passing in C++

## Function Call by Reference

```
int f(int &x) { cout << "value of x = " << x << endl;
                  x = 4; }
main() { int v = 5;
          f(v);
          cout << "value of v = " << v << endl; }
```

*Output:* Value of x = 5

Value of v = 4

- ❑ When a variable *v* is passed *by reference* to a parameter *x* of function *f*, *v* and the corresponding parameter *x* refer to the same variable
- ❑ Any changes to the value of *x* **DOES** affect the value of *v*

## Function Call by Constant Reference

```
int f( const int &x ) { cout << "value of x = " << x <<
                           endl;
                           x = 4; // invalid
                         }
main() { int v = 5;
          f(v);
          cout << "value of v = " << v << endl;
        }
```

- Passing variable *v* *by constant reference* to parameter *x* of *f* will **NOT** allow any change to the value of *x*.
- It is appropriate for passing large objects that should **not** be changed by the called function.

## Usage of Parameter Passing

- **Call by value** is appropriate for **small** objects that should **not** be changed by the function
- **Call by constant reference** is appropriate for **large** objects that should **not** be changed by the function
- **Call by reference** is appropriate for all objects that may be changed by the function

## Reference Variables

- Reference and **constant reference** variables are commonly used for parameter passing to a function
- They can also be used as local variables or as class data members
- A reference (or **constant reference**) variable serves as an alternative name for an object.

```
int m = 10;
int & j = m;
cout << "value of m = " << m << endl; //value of m
      printed is 10
j = 18;
cout << "value of m = " << m << endl; //value of m
      printed is 18
```

## Reference Variables (cont)

- A reference variable is different from a pointer
  - A pointer need **NOT** be initialized while defining, but a reference variable should always refer to some other object.

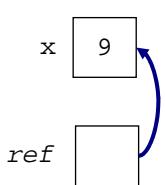
```
int * p;  
int m = 10;  
int & j = m; //valid  
int & k; //compilation error
```

## References (Summary)

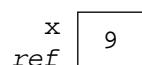
*References are an additional name to an existing memory location*

If we wanted something called “`ref`” to refer to a variable `x`:

Pointer:



Reference:



## Pointer vs. Reference

- ❑ A **pointer** can be assigned a new value to point at a different object, but a **reference variable** always refers to the same object. **Assigning a reference variable with a new value actually changes the value of the referred object.**

```
int * p;
int m = 10;
int & j = m; //valid
p = &m; //p now points at m
int n = 12;
j = n; // the value of m is set to 12. But j still refers to m,
       not to n.
cout << "value of m = " << m << endl; //value of m printed is 12
n = 36;
Cout << "value of j = " << j << endl; //value of j printed is
       12
p = &n;
```

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## Pointer vs. Reference (cont)

- ❑ A **constant reference variable** *v* refers to an object whose value cannot be changed through *v*.

```
int m = 8;
const int & j = m;
m = 16; //valid
j = 20; //compilation error
```

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## C++ - Template

### ■ Template is a generic types

```
template <class T, int size>
class Stack {
    T _store[size];

public:
    ...
};

Stack<int,128> mystack;
```

- The **template** in C++ is a way to achieve type-independent algorithms

## Template Details

### ■ Function templates

- A *function template* is not an actual function, but instead is a **pattern** for what could become a function.

```
template <class Comparable>           int main( )
const Comparable & findMax( const      {
    vector<Comparable> & a )           {
{
    int maxIndex = 0;
    for (int j=1; j < a.size( ); j++ )
        if ( a[maxIndex] < a[j] )
            maxIndex = j;
    return a[maxIndex];
}
}
vector<int>      v1(37);
vector<string>   v2(60);
vector<IntCell>  v3(75);
.....
cout<<findMax(v1)<<endl;//OK:Comparable=int
cout<<findMax(v2)<<endl;//OK:Comparable=string
cout<<findMax(v3)<<endl;//Illegal
//operator< undefined
```

- The **template argument** can be replaced by any type to generate a function.
- Since the function returns a reference, `const Comparable &` is to make sure that the array element returned would not be changed by the call such as `findMax(a) = 10`
- When deciding on parameter-passing and return-passing conventions, it should be assumed that template arguments are not primitive types.

## Return by reference

```
int & foo(int &b){  
    return b;  
}  
  
main(){  
    int j;  
    int a = 5;  
  
    j=foo(a); //j is 5  
    j=3; // a is still 5  
  
    foo(a) = 10; //a is now 10  
}  
  
const int & foo(int &b){  
    return b;  
}  
  
main(){  
    int j;  
    int a = 5;  
  
    j=foo(a); //j is 5  
    j=3; // a is still 5  
  
    foo(a)= 10; // invalid  
}
```

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## C++ Advanced Features

### ■ C++ allow function overloading

```
#include <stdio.h>  
  
int max(int a, int b) {  
    if (a > b) return a;  
    return b;  
}  
  
char *max(char *a, char * b) {  
    if (strcmp(a, b) > 0) return a;  
    return b;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    printf("max(19, 69) = %d\n", max(19, 69));  
    // cout << "max(19, 69) = " << max(19, 69) << endl;  
    printf("max(abc, def) = %s\n", max("abc", "def"));  
    // cout << "max(\"abc\", \"def\") = " << max("abc", "def") << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

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## A C++ Example

### ■ point.h

```
class Point {  
private:  
    int _x, _y;           // point coordinates  
  
public:                 // begin interface section  
    void setX(const int val);  
    void setY(const int val);  
    int getX() { return _x; }  
    int getY() { return _y; }  
};  
  
Point apoint;
```

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## Class and Objects

### ■ point.cc, point.cpp

```
void Point::setX(const int val) {  
    _x = val;  
}  
  
void Point::setY(const int val) {  
    _y = val;  
}
```

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## Main program

### ■ main.cc, main.cpp

```
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    Point apoint;

    apoint.setX(1);      // Initialization
    apoint.setY(1);

    //
    // x is needed from here, hence, we define it here
    // and
    // initialize it to the x-coordinate of apoint
    //

    int x = apoint.getX();
}
```

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## Constructor and Destructor

```
class Point {
private :
    int _x, _y;
public:
    Point() {
        _x = _y = 0;
    }
    Point(const int x, const int y);
    Point(const Point &from);
    ~Point() {void}

    void setX(const int val);
    void setY(const int val);
    int getX() { return _x; }
    int getY() { return _y; }
};
```

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## Constructor and Destructor

```
Point::Point(const int x, const int y) : _x(x), _y(y) {  
}  
  
Point::Point(const Point &from) {  
    _x = from._x;  
    _y = from._y;  
}  
  
Point::~Point(void) {  
    /* nothing to do */  
}
```

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## C++ Operator Overloading

```
class Complex {  
    ...  
public:  
    ...  
    Complex operator +(const Complex &op) {  
        double real = _real + op._real,  
               imag = _imag + op._imag;  
        return(Complex(real, imag));  
    }  
    ...  
};
```

In this case, we have made operator + a member of class Complex.  
An expression of the form

c = a + b;

is translated into a method call

c = a.operator +(a, b);

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## Operator Overloading

- The overloaded operator may not be a member of a class: It can rather defined outside the class as a normal overloaded function.  
For example, we could define operator + in this way:

```
class Complex {  
    ...  
public:  
    ...  
    double real() { return _real; }  
    double imag() { return _imag; }  
  
    // No need to define operator here!  
};  
Complex operator +(Complex &op1, Complex &op2) {  
    double real = op1.real() + op2.real(),  
          imag = op1.imag() + op2.imag();  
    return(Complex(real, imag));  
}
```

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## Friend

- We can define functions or classes to be friends of a class to allow them direct access to its private data members

```
class Complex {  
    ...  
public:  
    ...  
    friend Complex operator +(  
        const Complex &,  
        const Complex &  
    );  
};  
Complex operator +(const Complex &op1, const Complex &op2) {  
    double real = op1._real + op2._real,  
          imag = op1._imag + op2._imag;  
    return(Complex(real, imag));  
}
```

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## Standard Input/Output Streams

- Stream is a sequence of characters
- Working with cin and cout
- Streams convert internal representations to character streams
- >> input operator (extractor)
- << output operator ( inserter)

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## Reading Data >>

- Leading white space skipped
- Newline character <nwln> also skipped
- Until first character is located  
`cin >> ch;`
- Also read character plus white space as a character
  - `get` and `put` functions

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## CountChars.cpp

### Program Output

```
Enter a line or press CTRL-Z: This is the first
line.
This is the first line.
Number of characters in line 1 is 23
Enter a line or press CTRL-Z: This is the second
line.
This is the second line.
Number of characters in line 2 is 24
Enter a line or press CTRL-Z: ← <CTRL-Z>
Number of lines processed is 2
Total number of characters is 47
```

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## CountChars.cpp (Header)

```
// File: CountChars.cpp
// Counts the number of characters and lines in
// a file

#include <iostream>
#include <string>

using namespace std;

#define ENDFILE "CTRL-Z"      //ENDFILE is a string
```

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## CountChars.cpp (Setup)

```
int main()
{
    const char NWLN = '\n'; // newline character

    char next;
    int charCount;
    int totalChars;
    int lineCount;

    lineCount = 0;
    totalChars = 0;

    cout << "Enter a line or press "
        << ENDFILE << ":";
```

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## CountChars.cpp (Main Loop)

```
while (cin.get(next)) {    // a new line, if user hits
    ^Z,
                // cin.get returns 0
    charCount = 0;
    while (next != NWLN && !cin.eof()){
        cout.put(next);
        charCount++;
        totalChars++;
        cin.get(next);
    } // end inner while to get a line
    cout.put(NWLN);
    lineCount++;
    cout << "Number of characters in line "
        << lineCount << " is " << charCount << endl;
    cout << "Enter a line or press " << ENDFILE << ":";
}
} // end outer while
```

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## CountChars.cpp (Output)

```
cout << endl << endl
    << "Number of lines processed is "
    << lineCount << endl;
cout << "Total number of characters is "
    << totalChars << endl;
return 0;
}
```

## File I/O

- Declare the stream to be processed:

```
#include <iostream>
ifstream ins; // input stream
ofstream outs; // output stream
```

- Need to open the files

```
ins.open(inFile);
outs.open(outFile);
```

## Files

- `#define` associates the name of the stream with the actual file name
- `fail()` function - returns nonzero if file fails to open
- Program `CopyFile.cpp` demonstrates the use of the other `fstream` functions
  - `get`, `put`, `close` and `eof`
  - Copy from one file to another

## CopyFile.cpp

### Program Output

Input file copied to output file.  
37 lines copied.

## CopyFile.cpp (Header)

```
// File: CopyFile.cpp
// Copies file InData.txt to file OutData.txt

#include <cstdlib>
#include <fstream>

using namespace std;

// Associate stream objects with external file
// names
#define inFile "InData.txt"
#define outFile "OutData.txt"
```

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## CopyFile.cpp (Declarations)

```
// Functions used ...
// Copies one line of text
int copyLine(ifstream&, ofstream&);

int main()
{
    // Local data ...
    int lineCount;
    ifstream ins;
    ofstream outs;
```

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## CopyFile.cpp (Opening Input File)

```
// Open input and output file, exit on any
// error.
ins.open(inFile);
if (ins.fail ())
{
    cerr << "*** ERROR: Cannot open " <<
        inFile << " for input." << endl;
    return EXIT_FAILURE; // failure return
} // end if
```

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## CopyFile.cpp (Opening Output File)

```
outs.open(outFile);
if (outs.fail()) {
    cerr << "*** ERROR: Cannot open " << outFile
        << " for output." << endl;
    return EXIT_FAILURE; // failure return
} // end if
```

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## CopyFile.cpp (Copy Line by Line)

```
// Copy each character from inData to outData.  
lineCount = 0;  
do{  
    if (copyLine(ins, outs) != 0)  
        lineCount++;  
} while (!ins.eof());  
// Display a message on the screen.  
cout << "Input file copied to output file."  
     << endl;  
cout << lineCount << " lines copied." << endl;  
ins.close();  
outs.close();  
return 0;           // successful return  
}
```

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## CopyFile.cpp (copyLine procedure)

```
// Copy one line of text from one file to  
// another  
// Pre: ins is opened for input and outs for  
//       output.  
// Post:   Next line of ins is written to outs.  
//          The last character processed from  
//          ins is <nwln>;  
//          the last character written to outs  
//          is <nwln>.  
// Returns: The number of characters copied.
```

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## CopyFile.cpp (Character Reading)

```
int copyLine (ifstream& ins, ofstream& outs){  
    // Local data ...  
    const char NWLN = '\n';  
    char nextCh;  
    int charCount = 0;  
  
    // Copy all data characters from stream ins to  
    // stream outs.  
    ins.get(nextCh);  
    while ((nextCh != NWLN) && !ins.eof()) {  
        outs.put(nextCh);  
        charCount++;  
        ins.get (nextCh);  
    } // end while
```

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## CopyFile.cpp (Detection of EOF)

```
// If last character read was NWLN write it  
// to outs.  
if (!ins.eof())  
{  
    outs.put(NWLN);  
    charCount++;  
}  
return charCount;  
} // end copyLine
```

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