

PART –A

1. Define Inheritance

Inheritance is one of the core feature of an object-oriented programming language. It allows software developers to derive a new class from the existing class. The derived class inherits the features of the base class (existing class).

Syntax

The basic syntax of inheritance is:

```
class DerivedClass : accessSpecifier BaseClass
```

2. Explain This pointers.

Every object in C++ has access to its own address through an important pointer called this pointer. The this pointer is an implicit parameter to all member functions. Therefore, inside a member function, this may be used to refer to the invoking object.

Friend functions do not have a this pointer, because friends are not members of a class. Only member functions have a this pointer.

1. Each object gets its own copy of the data member.
2. All access the same function definition as present in the code segment.

3. What do you mean by input stream?

C++ uses a convenient abstraction called streams to perform input and output operations in sequential media such as the screen, the keyboard or a file. A stream is an entity where a program can either insert or extract characters to/from.

If the direction of flow of bytes is from device(for example: Keyboard) to the main memory then this process is called input.

4. Give the importance of End-of-file.

C++ provides a special function, eof(), that returns nonzero (meaning TRUE) when there are no more data to be read from an input file stream, and zero (meaning FALSE) otherwise.

Rules for using end-of-file (eof()):

1. Always test for the end-of-file condition before processing data read from an input file stream.
 - a. use a priming input statement before starting the loop
 - b. repeat the input statement at the bottom of the loop body
2. Use a while loop for getting data from an input file stream. A for loop is desirable only when you know the exact number of data items in the file, which we do not know.

5. List three types of containers.

C++ contains three types of containers:

- Sequential Containers
- Associative Containers
- Unordered Containers

6. What is prototyping?

A function prototype is a declaration of the function that tells the program about the type of the value returned by the function and the number and type of arguments. Function prototyping is one very useful feature of C++ function. A function prototype describes the function interface to the compiler by giving details such as the number and type of arguments and the type of return values.

7.Explain pointer in C++.

A pointer is a variable whose value is the address of another variable. Like any variable or constant, you must declare a pointer before you can work with it. The general form of a pointer variable declaration is –

```
type *var-name;
```

Here, type is the pointer's base type; it must be a valid C++ type and var-name is the name of the pointer variable. The asterisk you used to declare a pointer is the same asterisk that you use for multiplication.

Following are the valid pointer declaration

```
int *ip; // pointer to an integer
double *dp; // pointer to a double
```

8.Define virtual function.

A virtual function a member function which is declared within base class and is re-defined (Overriden) by derived class. When you refer to a derived class object using a pointer or a reference to the base class, you can call a virtual function for that object and execute the derived class's version of the function.

- Virtual functions ensure that the correct function is called for an object, regardless of the type of reference (or pointer) used for function call.
- They are mainly used to achieve Runtime polymorphism
- Functions are declared with a virtual keyword in base class.
- The resolving of function call is done at Run-time.

9.What is an iostream class?

This file defines the cin, cout, cerr and clog objects, which correspond to the standard input stream, the standard output stream, the un-buffered standard error stream and the buffered standard error stream, respectively.

10.Explain the classes for file stream operation.

C++ provides the following classes to perform output and input of characters to/from files:

- ofstream: Stream class to write on files
- ifstream: Stream class to read from files
- fstream: Stream class to both read and write from/to files.

These classes are derived directly or indirectly from the classes istream and ostream.

11.Explain containers.

Containers or container classes store objects and data. There are in total seven standard “first-class” container classes and three container adaptor classes and only seven header files that provide access to these containers or container adaptors.

- Sequence Containers
- Associative containers
- Unordered associative containers
- Container adaptors

12.What are the structured components of STL?

The Standard Template Library (STL) is a set of C++ template classes to provide common programming data structures and functions such as lists, stacks, arrays, etc.

STL has four components

1. Algorithms
- 2.Containers
3. Functions
4. Iterators

13.What is a pure function?

A function is called pure function if it always returns the same result for same argument values and it has no side effects like modifying an argument (or global variable) or outputting something. The only result of calling a pure function is the return value.

Examples : strlen(), pow(), sqrt() etc.

14.What is derived class?

Inheritance is one of the important feature of OOP which allows us to make hierarchical classifications of classes. In this, we can create a general class which defines the most common features. Other more specific classes can inherit this class to define those features that are unique to them. In this case, the classes which inherit from other classes, is referred as derived class.

For example, a general class vehicle can be inherited by more specific classes car and bike. The classes car and bike are derived classes in this case.

15.What are the functions for opening and closing a data file?

To open an input stream you must declare the stream to be of class ifstream. To open an output stream, it must be declared as class ofstream. A stream that will be performing both input and output operations must be declared as class fstream.

Open a file for reading and writing purpose as follows

```
xyst.open("test",ios::in | ios::out);
```

To close a file, use the member function close().

```
xyst.close();
```

16.What is the meaning of random access?

Random file access enables us to read or write any data in our disk file without having to read or write every piece of data before it. We can Quickly search for data, Modify data, delete data in a random-access file.

In Random Access file, we can:

- » We Can Read from Anywhere from the file.
- » We Can Write to Anywhere in the file.
- » We can Modify our record
- » We can Search any Record from file
- » And we can Delete Any record from file

17.Explain iterators.

An iterator is an object (like a pointer) that points to an element inside the container. We can use iterators to move through the contents of the container. They can be visualised as something similar to a pointer pointing to some location and we can access content at that particular location using them.

18.What is the necessity for exception handling?

C++ provides following specialized keywords for this purpose.

try: represents a block of code that can throw an exception.

catch: represents a block of code that is executed when a particular exception is thrown.

throw: Used to throw an exception. Also used to list the exceptions that a function throws, but doesn't handle itself.

- 1) Separation of Error Handling code from Normal Code
- 2) Functions/Methods can handle any exceptions they choose
- 3) Grouping of Error Types

PART –B

1.a) What is meant by Inheritance? Write the syntax with example.

One of the most important concepts in object-oriented programming is that of inheritance. Inheritance allows us to define a class in terms of another class, which makes it easier to create and maintain an application.

When creating a class, instead of writing completely new data members and member functions, the programmer can designate that the new class should inherit the members of an existing class. This existing class is called the base class, and the new class is referred to as the derived class.

Implementing inheritance in C++:

For creating a sub-class which is inherited from the base class we have to follow the below syntax.

Syntax:

```
class subclass_name : access_mode base_class_name
{
    //body of subclass
};
```

Ex:

```
// C++ program to demonstrate implementation of Inheritance
```

```
#include <bits/stdc++.h>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
class Parent
```

```
{
    public:
    int id_p;
};
```

```
class Child : public Parent
```

```
{
    public:
    int id_c;
};
```

```
int main()
```

```
{
    Child obj1;
    obj1.id_c = 7;
    obj1.id_p = 91;
    cout << "Child id is " << obj1.id_c << endl;
    cout << "Parent id is " << obj1.id_p << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

```
Child id is 7
```

```
Parent id is 91
```

In the above program the ‘Child’ class is publicly inherited from the ‘Parent’ class so the public data members of the class ‘Parent’ will also be inherited by the class ‘Child’.

1.b) What is Virtual function? Write the syntax with example.

A virtual function is a member function which is declared within a base class and is re-defined (Overridden) by a derived class. When you refer to a derived class object using a pointer or a reference to the base class, you can call a virtual function for that object and execute the derived class's version of the function.

- Virtual functions ensure that the correct function is called for an object, regardless of the type of reference (or pointer) used for function call.
- They are mainly used to achieve Runtime polymorphism
- Functions are declared with a virtual keyword in base class.
- The resolving of function call is done at Run-time.

Syntax :

```
class Base {
public:
    virtual arbitrary_return_type virt0( /*...arbitrary params...*/ );
    virtual arbitrary_return_type virt1( /*...arbitrary params...*/ );
    //...
};
```

Ex:

// CPP program to illustrate concept of Virtual Functions

```
#include<iostream>
using namespace std;
class base
{
public:
    virtual void print ()
    { cout<< "print base class" <<endl; }
    void show ()
    { cout<< "show base class" <<endl; }
};
class derived:public base
{
public:
    void print ()
    { cout<< "print derived class" <<endl; }
    void show ()
    { cout<< "show derived class" <<endl; }
};
int main()
{
    base *bptr;
    derived d;
    bptr = &d;
    bptr->print();
    bptr->show();
}
```

Output:

```
print derived class
show base class
```

2.a) Write short notes on function template.

Function templates are special functions that can operate with generic types. This allows us to create a function template whose functionality can be adapted to more than one type or class without repeating the entire code for each type.

In C++ this can be achieved using template parameters. A template parameter is a special kind of parameter that can be used to pass a type as argument: just like regular function parameters can be used to pass values to a function, template parameters allow to pass also types to a function. These function templates can use these parameters as if they were any other regular type.

The format for declaring function templates with type parameters is:

```
template <class identifier> function_declaration;  
template <typename identifier> function_declaration;
```

The only difference between both prototypes is the use of either the keyword class or the keyword typename. Its use is indistinct, since both expressions have exactly the same meaning and behave exactly the same way.

To use this function template we use the following format for the function call:

```
function_name <type> (parameters);
```

Example:

```
// function template  
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std;  
template <class T>  
T GetMax (T a, T b)  
{  
    T result;  
    result = (a>b)? a : b;  
    return (result);  
}  
int main ()  
{  
    int i=5, j=6, k;  
    long l=10, m=5, n;  
    k=GetMax<int>(i,j);  
    n=GetMax<long>(l,m);  
    cout << k << endl;  
    cout << n << endl;  
    return 0;  
}
```

2.b) Explain exception handling with syntax and example.

An exception is a problem that arises during the execution of a program. A C++ exception is a response to an exceptional circumstance that arises while a program is running, such as an attempt to divide by zero.

C++ exception handling is built upon three keywords:

1.Try 2.catch 3.throw.

throw – A program throws an exception when a problem shows up. This is done using a throw keyword.

catch – A program catches an exception with an exception handler at the place in a program where you want to handle the problem. The catch keyword indicates the catching of an exception.

try – A try block identifies a block of code for which particular exceptions will be activated. It's followed by one or more catch blocks.

The syntax for using try/catch as follows

```
try
{
    // protected code
}
catch( ExceptionName e1 )
{
    // catch block
}
catch( ExceptionName e2 )
{
    // catch block
}
catch( ExceptionName eN )
{
    // catch block
}
```

You can list down multiple catch statements to catch different type of exceptions in case your try block raises more than one exception in different situations.

Throwing Exceptions

Exceptions can be thrown anywhere within a code block using throw statement. The operand of the throw statement determines a type for the exception and can be any expression and the type of the result of the expression determines the type of exception thrown.

Catching Exceptions

The catch block following the try block catches any exception. You can specify what type of exception you want to catch and this is determined by the exception declaration that appears in parentheses following the keyword catch.

Ex:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
double division(int a, int b)
{
    if( b == 0 )
    {
        throw "Division by zero condition!";
    }
    return (a/b);
}
int main ()
{
    int x = 50;
    int y = 0;
    double z = 0;
    try
```

```

{
    z = division(x, y);
    cout << z << endl;
}
catch (const char* msg)
{
    cerr << msg << endl;
} return 0;
}

```

Result : Division by zero condition!

3.a) Write short notes on Standard template library(STL).

The Standard Template Library (STL) is a set of C++ template classes to provide common programming data structures and functions such as lists, stacks, arrays, etc. It is a library of container classes, algorithms, and iterators. It is a generalized library and so, its components are parameterized. A working knowledge of template classes is a prerequisite for working with STL.

STL has four components

1.Algorithms 2. Containers 3. Functions 4.Iterators

Algorithms

The header algorithm defines a collection of functions especially designed to be used on ranges of elements.They act on containers and provide means for various operations for the contents of the containers.

- Algorithm
 - Sorting
 - Searching
 - Important STL Algorithms
 - Useful Array algorithms
 - Partition Operations
- Numeric
 - valarray class

Containers

Containers or container classes store objects and data. There are in total seven standard “first-class” container classes and three container adaptor classes and only seven header files that provide access to these containers or container adaptors.

- **Sequence Containers:** implement data structures which can be accessed in a sequential manner.
 1. vector 2. list 3.deque 4. arrays 5.forward_list
- **Container Adaptors :** provide a different interface for sequential containers.
 - 1.queue 2. priority_queue 3. stack
- **Associative Containers :** implement sorted data structures that can be quickly searched.
- **Unordered Associative Containers :** implement unordered data structures that can be quickly searched.

Functions

The STL includes classes that overload the function call operator. Instances of such classes are called function objects or functors. Functors allow the working of the associated function to be customized with the help of parameters to be passed.

- Functors

Iterators

As the name suggests, iterators are used for working upon a sequence of values. They are the major feature that allow generality in STL.

- Iterators

3.b) Write short notes on application of container classes.

There are three most popular containers namely,

- 1) Vector
- 2) List
- 3) Map

1.Vector :

Vectors are same as dynamic arrays with the ability to resize itself automatically when an element is inserted or deleted, with their storage being handled automatically by the container. Vector elements are placed in contiguous storage so that they can be accessed and traversed using iterators. In vectors, data is inserted at the end. Inserting at the end takes differential time, as sometimes there may be a need of extending the array. Removing the last element takes only constant time because no resizing happens. Inserting and erasing at the beginning or in the middle is linear in time.

Certain functions associated with the vector are:

Iterators

`begin()` – Returns an iterator pointing to the first element in the vector.

`end()` – Returns an iterator pointing to the theoretical element that follows the last element in the vector.

`rbegin()` – Returns a reverse iterator pointing to the last element in the vector (reverse beginning). It moves from last to first element.

`rend()` – Returns a reverse iterator pointing to the theoretical element preceding the first element in the vector .

`cbegin()` – Returns a constant iterator pointing to the first element in the vector.

`cend()` – Returns a constant iterator pointing to the theoretical element that follows the last element in the vector.

`crbegin()` – Returns a constant reverse iterator pointing to the last element in the vector (reverse beginning). It moves from last to first element.

`crend()` – Returns a constant reverse iterator pointing to the theoretical element preceding the first element in the vector .

2.List

Lists are sequence containers that allow non-contiguous memory allocation. As compared to vector, list has slow traversal, but once a position has been found, insertion and deletion are quick. Array and Vector are contiguous containers, i.e they store their data on continuous memory, thus the insert operation at the middle of vector/array is very costly (in terms of number of operation and process time) because we have to shift all the elements, linked list overcome this problem. Linked list can be implemented by using the list container.

Syntax for creating a new linked list using list template is:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <list>
int main()
{
    std::list<int> l;
}
```

Functions used with List:

front() – Returns the value of the first element in the list.

back() – Returns the value of the last element in the list .

push_front(g) – Adds a new element ‘g’ at the beginning of the list .

push_back(g) – Adds a new element ‘g’ at the end of the list.

pop_front() – Removes first element of the list, and reduces size of the list by 1

pop_back() – Removes the last element of the list, and reduces size of the list by 1

list::begin() and list::end() in C++ STL– begin() function returns an iterator pointing to the first element of the list

end()– end() function returns an iterator pointing to the theoretical last element which follows the last element.

3. Maps

Maps are associative containers that store elements in a mapped fashion. Each element has a key value and a mapped value. No two mapped values can have same key values.

Some basic functions associated with Map:

begin() – Returns an iterator to the first element in the map.

end() – Returns an iterator to the theoretical element that follows last element in the map.

size() – Returns the number of elements in the map.

max_size() – Returns the maximum number of elements that the map can hold

empty() – Returns whether the map is empty.

pair insert(keyvalue, mapvalue) – Adds a new element to the map.

erase(iterator position) – Removes the element at the position pointed by the iterator.

erase(const g)– Removes the key value ‘g’ from the map.

clear() – Removes all the elements from the map.

4.a) Explain the uses of Pointers in C++.

1. To pass arguments by reference. Passing by reference serves two purposes

(i) To modify variable of function in other. Example to swap two variables;

(ii) For efficiency purpose. Example passing large structure without reference of the structure.

would create a copy

2. For accessing array elements. Compiler internally uses pointers to access array elements.

3. To return multiple values.

Example returning square and square root of numbers.

4. Dynamic memory allocation : We can use pointers to dynamically allocate memory.

The advantage of dynamically allocated memory is, it is not deleted until we explicitly Delete it.

5. To implement data structures.

Example linked list, tree, etc. We cannot use C++ references to implement these data structures because references are fixed to a location .

6. To do system level programming where memory addresses are useful.

For example shared memory used by multiple threads. For more examples, see IPC through shared memory, Socket Programming in C/C++, etc.

7. Reduces the storage space and complexity of the program.

8. Reduces the execution time of the program.

9. Pointers help us to build complex data structures like linked lists, queues, stacks, trees, graphs etc.

4.b) Write a suitable program explain the working of inheritance.

Inheritance is one of the feature of Object Oriented Programming System(OOPs), it allows the child class to acquire the properties (the data members) and functionality (the member functions) of parent class.

// C++ program to demonstrate implementation of Inheritance

```
#include <bits/stdc++.h>
using namespace std;
class Parent
{
public:
int id_p;
};
class Child : public Parent
{
public:
int id_c;
};
int main()
{
Child obj1;
obj1.id_c = 7;
obj1.id_p = 91;
cout << "Child id is " << obj1.id_c << endl;
cout << "Parent id is " << obj1.id_p << endl;
return 0;
}
```

Output:

Child id is 7

Parent id is 91

5.a) Write short notes on class template.

A class implementation that is same for all classes, only the data types used are different. Normally, you would need to create a different class for each data type or create different member variables and functions within a single class.

This will unnecessarily bloat your code base and will be hard to maintain, as a change in one class/function should be performed on all classes/functions. However, class templates make it easy to reuse the same code for all data types.

Declaration :

```
template <class T>
class className
{
    ... ..
public:
    T var;
    T someOperation(T arg);
    ... ..
};
```

In the above declaration, T is the template argument which is a placeholder for the data type used. Inside the class body, a member variable var and a member function someOperation() are both of type T.

create a class template object?

```
className<dataType> classObject;
```

Example for simple calculator using class template

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
template <class T>
class Calculator
{
private:
    T num1, num2;
public:
    Calculator(T n1, T n2)
    {
        num1 = n1;
        num2 = n2;
    }
    void displayResult()
    {
        cout << "Numbers are: " << num1 << " and " << num2 << "." << endl;
        cout << "Addition is: " << add() << endl;
        cout << "Subtraction is: " << subtract() << endl;
        cout << "Product is: " << multiply() << endl;
        cout << "Division is: " << divide() << endl;
    }
};
```

```

T add() { return num1 + num2; }
T subtract() { return num1 - num2; }
T multiply() { return num1 * num2; }
T divide() { return num1 / num2; }
};
int main()
{
Calculator<int> intCalc(2, 1);
Calculator<float> floatCalc(2.4, 1.2);
cout << "Int results:" << endl;
intCalc.displayResult();
cout << endl << "Float results:" << endl;
floatCalc.displayResult();
return 0;
}

```

Output

Int results:

Numbers are: 2 and 1.

Addition is: 3

Subtraction is: 1

Product is: 2

Division is: 2

Float results:

Numbers are: 2.4 and 1.2.

Addition is: 3.6

Subtraction is: 1.2

Product is: 2.88

Division is: 2

5.b) Explain about unformatted input output function with suitable example.

Unformatted Input/Output is the most basic form of input/output. Unformatted input/output transfers the internal binary representation of the data directly between memory and the file.

The following are operations of unformatted console input / output operations:

A) void get()

It is a method of cin object used to input a single character from keyboard. But its main property is that it allows wide spaces and newline character.

Syntax: char c=cin.get();

B) void put()

It is a method of cout object and it is used to print the specified character on the screen or monitor.

Syntax: cout.put(variable / character);

C) getline(char *buffer,int size)

This is a method of cin object and it is used to input a string with multiple spaces.

Syntax:

```
char x[30];  
cin.getline(x,30);
```

D) write(char * buffer, int n)

It is a method of cout object. This method is used to read n character from buffer variable.

Syntax:

```
cout.write(x,2);
```

E) cin

It is the method to take input any variable / character / string.

Syntax:

```
cin>>variable / character / String / ;
```

F) cout

This method is used to print variable / string / character.

Syntax:

```
cout<< variable / character / string;
```

Ex:

//C++ program to demonstrate getline() and write() functions

```
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std;  
int main()  
{  
char str[30];  
cin.getline(str, 10);  
cout.write(str, 10);  
return 0;  
}
```

Input: C++ rocks

Output of the above program is: C++ rocks

6.a) Explain the steps in Object Oriented Design.

Object Oriented Design is the concept that forces programmers to plan out their code in order to have a better flowing program. After the analysis phase, the conceptual model is developed further into an object-oriented model using object-oriented design (OOD).

In OOD, the technology-independent concepts in the analysis model are mapped onto implementing classes, constraints are identified, and interfaces are designed, resulting in a model for the solution domain. In a nutshell, a detailed description is constructed specifying how the system is to be built on concrete technologies.

The stages for object-oriented design can be identified as

- Definition of the context of the system
- Designing system architecture
- Identification of the objects in the system
- Construction of design models
- Specification of object interfaces

Object Oriented Design is defined as a programming language that has 5 conceptual tools to aid the programmer. These programs are often more readable than non-object oriented programs, and debugging becomes easier with locality.

Encapsulation

A tight coupling or association of data structures with the methods or functions that act on the data. This is called a class, or object (an object is often the implementation of a class).

Data Protection

The ability to protect some components of the object from external entities. This is realized by language keywords to enable a variable to be declared as private or protected to the owning class.

Inheritance

The ability for a class to extend or override functionality of another class. The so called child class has a whole section that is the parent class and then it has it's own set of functions and data.

Interface

A definition of functions or methods, and their signatures that are available for use to manipulate a given instance of an object.

Polymorphism

The ability to define different functions or classes as having the same name but taking different data types.

6.b) Explain the steps in Object Oriented Analysis.

The three analysis techniques that are used in conjunction with each other for object-oriented analysis are object modelling, dynamic modelling, and functional modelling.

Object Modelling

Object modelling develops the static structure of the software system in terms of objects. It identifies the objects, the classes into which the objects can be grouped into and the relationships between the objects. It also identifies the main attributes and operations that characterize each class.

The process of object modelling can be visualized in the following steps –

- Identify objects and group into classes
- Identify the relationships among classes
- Create user object model diagram
- Define user object attributes

- Define the operations that should be performed on the classes
- Review glossary

Dynamic Modelling

After the static behavior of the system is analyzed, its behavior with respect to time and external changes needs to be examined. This is the purpose of dynamic modelling.

Dynamic Modelling can be defined as “a way of describing how an individual object responds to events, either internal events triggered by other objects, or external events triggered by the outside world”.

The process of dynamic modelling can be visualized in the following steps –

- Identify states of each object
- Identify events and analyze the applicability of actions
- Construct dynamic model diagram, comprising of state transition diagrams
- Express each state in terms of object attributes
- Validate the state–transition diagrams drawn

Functional Modelling

Functional Modelling is the final component of object-oriented analysis. The functional model shows the processes that are performed within an object and how the data changes as it moves between methods. It specifies the meaning of the operations of object modelling and the actions of dynamic modelling. The functional model corresponds to the data flow diagram of traditional structured analysis.

The process of functional modelling can be visualized in the following steps –

- Identify all the inputs and outputs
- Construct data flow diagrams showing functional dependencies
- State the purpose of each function
- Identify constraints
- Specify optimization criteria

7.a) Explain multilevel inheritances with example.

When a class is derived from a class which is also derived from another class, i.e. a class having more than one parent classes, such inheritance is called Multilevel Inheritance. The level of inheritance can be extended to any number of level depending upon the relation. Multilevel inheritance is similar to relation between grandfather, father and child.

Syntax:

```
class base_classname
{
    properties;
    methods;
};
```

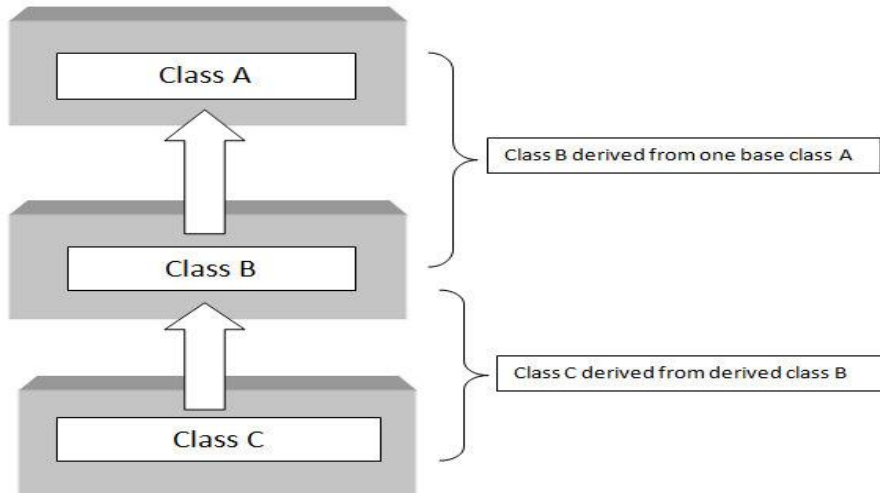
```
class intermediate_classname:visibility_mode base_classname
{
    properties;
    methods;
};
```



```

class child_classname:visibility_mode intermediate_classname
{
    properties;
    methods;
};

```



```

#include <iostream>
#include <conio.h>
using namespace std;
class person
{
    char name[100];
public:
    void getdata()
    {
        cout<<"Name: ";
        fflush(stdin);
        gets(name);
    }
    void display()
    {
        cout<<"Name: "<<name<<endl;
    }
};
class employee: public person
{
    float salary;
public:
    void getdata()
    {
        person::getdata();
        cout<<"Salary: Rs.";
        cin>>salary;
    }
    void display()
    {
        person::display();
        cout<<"Salary: Rs."<<salary<<endl;
    }
};

```

```

};
class programmer: public employee
{
    int number;
    public:
        void getdata()
        {
            employee::getdata();
            cout<<"Phone number : ";
            cin>>number;
        }
        void display()
        {
            employee::display();
            cout<<"Phone number is : "<<number;
        }
};
int main()
{
    programmer p;
    p.getdata();
    p.display();
    getch();
    return 0;
}

```

7.b) Explain pure virtual function with syntax and example.

- A pure virtual function is a function which has no definition in the base class. Its definition lies only in the derived class i.e it is compulsory for the derived class to provide definition of a pure virtual function. Since there is no definition in the base class, these functions can be equated to zero.
- The general form of pure virtual function is :
virtual type func-name(parameter-list) = 0;
- Consider the following example of base class Shape and classes derived from it viz Circle, Rectangle, Triangle etc.

Ex:

```

class Shape
{
    int x, y;
    public:
        virtual void draw() = 0;
};
class Circle: public Shape
{
    public:
        draw()
        {
            //Code for drawing a circle
        }
};

```

```

class Rectangle: public Shape
{
    Public:
        void draw()
        {
            //Code for drawing a rectangle
        }
};
class Triangle: public Shape
{
    Public:
        void draw()
        {
            //Code for drawing a triangle
        }
};

```

Thus, base class Shape has pure virtual function draw(); which is overridden by all the derived classes.

8.a) Discuss about how to open and close files in C++.

Opening of files can be achieved in the following two ways :

- Using the constructor function of the stream class.
- Using the function open().

The first method is preferred when a single file is used with a stream.

Opening File Using Constructors

We know that a constructor of class initializes an object of its class when it is being created. Same way, the constructors of stream classes (ifstream, ofstream, or fstream) are used to initialize file stream objects with the filenames passed to them. This is carried out as explained here:

To open a file named myfile as an input file, we shall create a file stream object of input type i.e., ifstream type.

Example:

```
ifstream fin("myfile", ios::in);
```

The above given statement creates an object, fin, of input file stream. After creating the ifstream object fin, the file myfile is opened and attached to the input stream, fin. This stream object will be used using the getfrom operator (">>").

Example:

```

char ch;
fin >> ch ;
float amt ;
fin >> amt ;

```

When you want a program to write a file i.e., to open an output file.

- creating ofstream object to manage the output stream

- associating that object with a particular file

Example,

```
ofstream fout("secret" ios::out) ;
```

Now, to write something to it, you can use << (put to operator) in familiar way.

Example,

```
int code = 2193 ;
fout << code << "xyz" ;
```

The connections with a file are closed automatically when the input and the output stream objects expires i.e., when they go out of scope. Also, we can close a connection with a file explicitly by using the close() method :

- fin.close() ;
- fout.close() ;

Closing such a connection does not eliminate the stream; it just disconnects it from the file.

Opening Files Using Open() Function

There may be situations requiring a program to open more than one file. If the situation requires simultaneous processing of two files, then you need to create a separate stream for each file. However, if the situation demands sequential processing of files then you can open a single stream and associate it with each file in turn. To use this approach, declare a stream object without initializing it, then use a second statement to associate the stream with a file.

For example,

```
ifstream fin;
fin.open("Master.dat", ios::in);
fin.close();
fin.open("Tran.dat", ios::in);
fin.close();
```

Closing a File in C++

A file is closed by disconnecting it with the stream it is associated with. The close() function accomplishes this task and it takes the following general form :

```
stream_object.close();
```

For example, if a file Master is connected with an ofstream object fout.

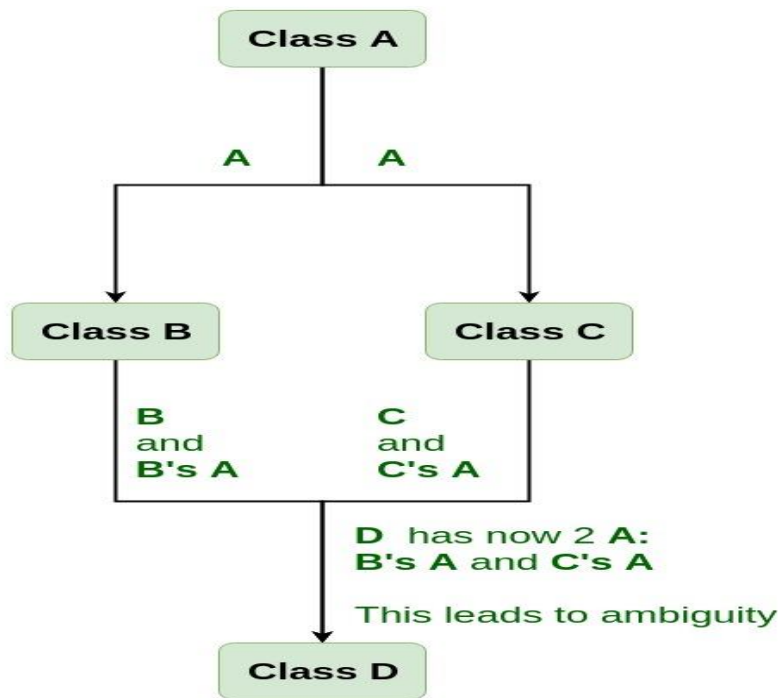
```
fout.close() ;
```

8.b) Discuss briefly about virtual base class with example.

Virtual base classes are used in virtual inheritance in a way of preventing multiple “instances” of a given class appearing in an inheritance hierarchy when using multiple inheritances.

Need for Virtual Base Classes:

Consider the situation where we have one class **A** .This class is **A** is inherited by two other classes **B** and **C**. Both these class are inherited into another in a new class **D** as shown in figure below.



As we can see from the figure that data members/function of class **A** are inherited twice to class **D**. One through class **B** and second through class **C**. When any data / function member of class **A** is accessed by an object of class **D**, ambiguity arises as to which data/function member would be called? One inherited through **B** or the other inherited through **C**. This confuses compiler and it displays error.

Example :

```

#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class A
{
public:
int a;
A() // constructor
{
a = 10;
}
};
class B : public virtual A
{
};
class C : public virtual A
{
};
class D : public B, public C
{
};
int main()
{
D object; // object creation of class d
cout << "a = " << object.a << endl;
return 0;
}

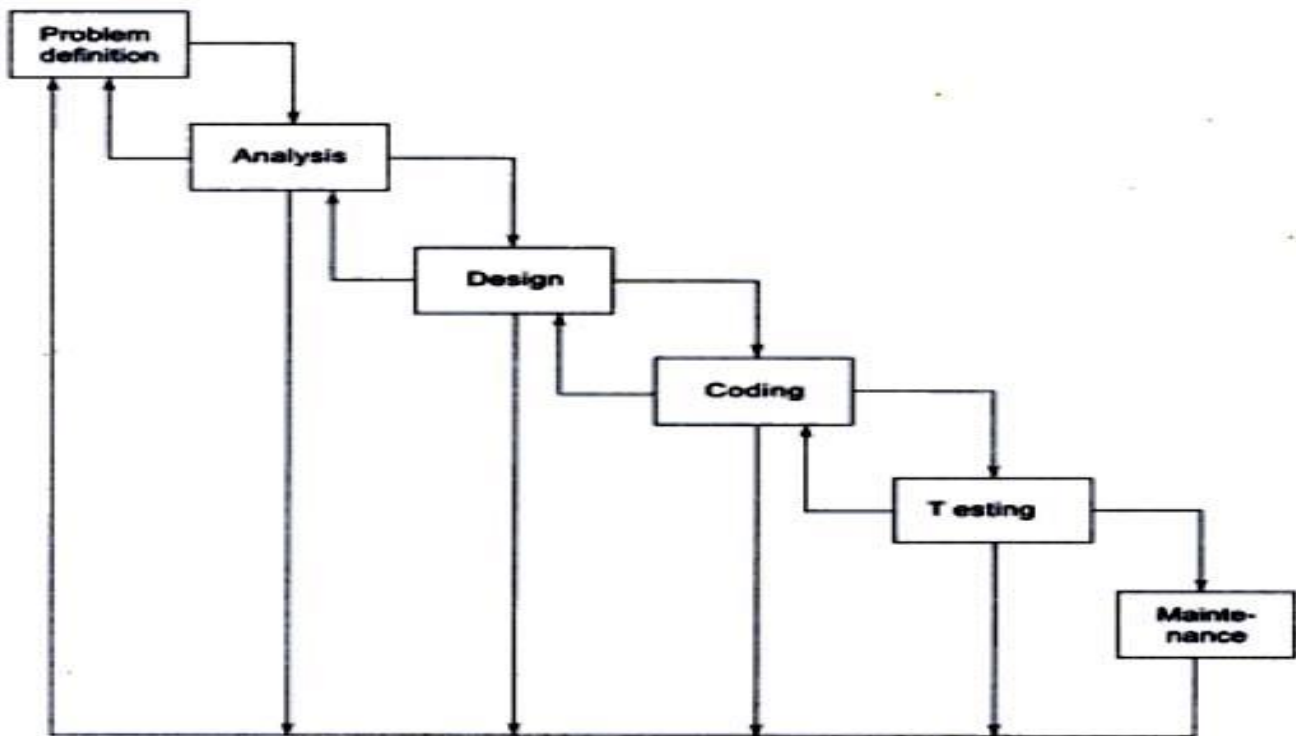
```

9.a) Explain about procedure oriented paradigm.

Software development is usually categorized by a series of stages depicting the various tasks involved in the development process.

The classic life cycle model is based on an underlying model, commonly referred to as the “Water-fall” Model. This model attempts to break up the identifiable activities into series of actions, each of which must be completed before the next begins. The activities include

- Problem definition
- Requirement analysis
- Design
- Coding
- Testing And Maintenance



Further refinements to this model include iteration back to the previous stages in order to incorporate any changes or missing links.

Problem Definition: This activity requires a precise definition of the problem in user terms. A clear statement of the problem is crucial to the success of the software. It helps not only the developer but also the user to understand the problem better.

Analysis: this covers a detailed study of both the user and software. This activity is basically concerned with what of the system such as

- What are the inputs to the system?
- What are the processes required?
- What are the outputs expected?
- What are the constraints?

Design: the design phase with various concepts of system design such as data structure, software architecture, and algorithms, this phase translates the requirements into a representation of the software. This stage answers the questions of how.

Coding : Coding refers to the translation of the design into machine – readable form. The more detailed the design, the easier is the coding, and better its reliability.

Testing: after the software has been installed, it may undergo some changes, this may occur due to a change in the users requirements, a change in the operating environment, or an error in the software that has not been fixed during the testing. Maintenance ensures that these changes are incorporated wherever necessary.

Each phase of the life cycle has its own goals and outputs. The output of one phase acts as an input to the next phase.

9.b) Write a C++ program to compare two strings.

```
#include<iostream.h>
#include<string.h>
using namespace std;
int main ()
{
    char str1[50], str2[50];
    cout<<"Enter string 1 : ";
    gets(str1);
    cout<<"Enter string 2 : ";
    gets(str2);
    if(strcmp(str1, str2)==0)
        cout << "Strings are equal!";
    else
        cout << "Strings are not equal.";
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

Case 1 :

```
Enter string 1 : hi
Enter string 2 : hello
Strings are not equal.
```

Case 2 :

```
Enter string 1 : 12345
Enter string 2 : 12345
Strings are equal!
```

PART – C

10. What are abstract classes? Explain their uses.

C++ Abstract class is used in situation, when we have partial set of implementation of methods in a class. For example, consider a class have four methods. Out of four methods, we have an implementation of two methods and we need derived class to implement other two methods. In these kind of situations, we should use abstract class.

The purpose of an abstract class (often referred to as an ABC) is to provide an appropriate base class from which other classes can inherit. Abstract classes cannot be used to instantiate objects and serves only as an interface. Attempting to instantiate an object of an abstract class causes a compilation error.

A virtual function will become pure virtual function when you append "=0" at the end of declaration of virtual function.

A class with at least one pure virtual function or abstract function is called abstract class.

Characteristics of Abstract Class

- Abstract class cannot be instantiated, but pointers and references of Abstract class type can be created.
- Abstract class can have normal functions and variables along with a pure virtual function. Abstract classes are mainly used for upcasting, so that its derived classes can use its interface.
- Classes inheriting an Abstract Class must implement all pure virtual functions, or else they will become Abstract too.

We can't create an object of abstract class because it has partial implementation of methods.

Example:

```
#include<iostream.h>
#include<conio.h>
class BaseClass    //Abstract class
{
    public:
    virtual void Display1()=0;    //Pure virtual function or abstract function
    virtual void Display2()=0;    //Pure virtual function or abstract function
    void Display3()
    {
        cout<<"\n\tThis is Display3() method of Base Class";
    }
};
class DerivedClass : public BaseClass
{
    public:
    void Display1()
    {
        cout<<"\n\tThis is Display1() method of Derived Class";
    }
    void Display2()
    {
        cout<<"\n\tThis is Display2() method of Derived Class";
    }
};
void main()
{
    DerivedClass D;
    D.Display1();    // This will invoke Display1() method of Derived Class
    D.Display2();    // This will invoke Display2() method of Derived Class
    D.Display3();    // This will invoke Display3() method of Base Class
}
```


Output :

This is Display1() method of Derived Class

This is Display2() method of Derived Class

This is Display3() method of Base Class

11. What is exception handling? Explain the basics of exception handling with example.

Exceptions allow a method to react to exceptional circumstances and errors (like runtime errors) within programs by transferring control to special functions called handlers. For catching exceptions, a portion of code is placed under exception inspection. Exception handling technology offers a securely integrated approach to avoid the unusual predictable problems that arise while executing a program.

There are two types of exceptions:

- Synchronous exceptions
- Asynchronous exceptions

Errors such as: out of range index and overflow fall under the category of synchronous type exceptions. Those errors that are caused by events beyond the control of the program are called asynchronous exceptions.

The main motive of the exceptional handling concept is to provide a means to detect and report an exception so that appropriate action can be taken. This mechanism needs a separate error handling code that performs the following tasks:

- Find and hit the problem (exception)
- Inform that the error has occurred (throw exception)
- Receive the error information (Catch the exception)
- Take corrective actions (handle exception)

The error handling mechanism basically consists of two parts. These are:

- To detect errors
- To throw exceptions and then take appropriate actions

Exception handling in C++ is built on three keywords:

- Try
- catch and
- throw.

try :A try block identifies a block of code for which particular exceptions will be activated. It's followed by one or more catch blocks

throw: A program throws an exception when a problem is detected which is done using a keyword "throw".

catch: A program catches an exception with an exception handler where programmers want to handle the anomaly. The keyword catch is used for catching exceptions.

The Catch blocks catching exceptions must immediately follow the try block that throws an exception. The general form of these two blocks is as follows:

```
try
{
    throw exception;
}
catch(type arg)
{
    //some code
}
```

If the try block throws an exception then program control leaves the block and enters into the catch statement of the catch block. If the type of object thrown matches the argument type in the catch statement, the catch block is executed for handling the exception. Divided-by-zero is a common form of exception generally occurred in arithmetic based programs.

Ex:

```
#include<iostream>
using namespace std;
double division(int var1, int var2)
{
    if (var2 == 0)
    {
        throw "Division by Zero.";
    }
    return (var1 / var2);
}
int main()
{
    int a = 30;
    int b = 0;
    double d = 0;
    try
    {
        d = division(a, b);
        cout << d << endl;
    }
    catch (const char* error)
    {
        cout << error << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Output :

Division by zero

12. Explain the phases in object oriented development.

We know that the Object-Oriented Modelling (OOM) technique visualizes things in an application by using models organized around objects. Any software development approach goes through the following stages –

- Analysis,
- Design, and
- Implementation.

In object-oriented software engineering, the software developer identifies and organizes the application in terms of object-oriented concepts, prior to their final representation in any specific programming language or software tools.

Phases in Object-Oriented Software Development

The major phases of software development using object-oriented methodology are object-oriented analysis, object-oriented design, and object-oriented implementation.

Object–Oriented Analysis

In this stage, the problem is formulated, user requirements are identified, and then a model is built based upon real–world objects. The analysis produces models on how the desired system should function and how it must be developed. The models do not include any implementation details so that it can be understood and examined by any non–technical application expert.

Object–Oriented Design

Object-oriented design includes two main stages, namely, system design and object design.

System Design

In this stage, the complete architecture of the desired system is designed. The system is conceived as a set of interacting subsystems that in turn is composed of a hierarchy of interacting objects, grouped into classes. System design is done according to both the system analysis model and the proposed system architecture. Here, the emphasis is on the objects comprising the system rather than the processes in the system.

Object Design

In this phase, a design model is developed based on both the models developed in the system analysis phase and the architecture designed in the system design phase. All the classes required are identified. The designer decides whether –

- new classes are to be created from scratch,
- any existing classes can be used in their original form, or
- new classes should be inherited from the existing classes.

Class: A class is a collection of similar objects. It is a template where certain basic characteristics of a set of objects are defined. The class defines the basic attributes and the operations of the objects of that type. Defining a class does not define any object, but it only creates a template. For objects to be actually created instances of the class are created as per the requirement of the case.

Abstraction: Classes are built on the basis of abstraction, where a set of similar objects are observed and their common characteristics are listed. Of all these, the characteristics of concern to the system under observation are picked up and the class definition is made. The attributes of no concern to the system are left out. This is known as abstraction.

The abstraction of an object varies according to its application. For instance, while defining a pen class for a stationery shop, the attributes of concern might be the pen color, ink color, pen type etc., whereas a pen class for a manufacturing firm would be containing the other dimensions of the pen like its diameter, its shape and size etc.

Inheritance: Inheritance is another important concept in this regard. This concept is used to apply the idea of reusability of the objects. A new type of class can be defined using a similar existing class with a few new features. For instance, a class vehicle can be defined with the basic functionality of any vehicle and a new class called car can be derived out of it with a few modifications. This would save the developers time and effort as the classes already existing are reused without much change.

The associations between the identified classes are established and the hierarchies of classes are identified. Besides, the developer designs the internal details of the classes and their associations, i.e., the data structure for each attribute and the algorithms for the operations.

Object–Oriented Implementation and Testing

In this stage, the design model developed in the object design is translated into code in an appropriate programming language or software tool. The databases are created and the specific hardware requirements are ascertained. Once the code is in shape, it is tested using specialized techniques to identify and remove the errors in the code. There are all the benefits of using the Object Orientation. Some of these are:

Reusability - The classes once defined can easily be used by other applications. This is achieved by defining classes and putting them into a library of classes where all the classes are maintained for future use. Whenever a new class is needed the programmer looks into the library of classes and if it is available, it can be picked up directly from there.

Inheritance - The concept of inheritance helps the programmer use the existing code in another way, where making small additions to the existing classes can quickly create new classes.

Data Hiding - Encapsulation is a technique that allows the programmer to hide the internal functioning of the objects from the users of the objects. Encapsulation separates the internal functioning of the object from the external functioning thus providing the user flexibility to change the external behaviour of the object making the programmer code safe against the changes made by the user.

13.Describe the role of keywords try, catch and throw in exception handling.

Exceptions provide a way to transfer control from one part of a program to another. C++ exception handling is built upon three keywords: try, catch, and throw.

try – A try block identifies a block of code for which particular exceptions will be activated. It's followed by one or more catch blocks.

Syntax of try statement

```
try
{
statement 1;
statement 2;
}
```

throw – A program throws an exception when a problem shows up. This is done using a throw keyword.

Syntax of throw statement

```
throw (excep);
throw excep;
throw // re-throwing of an exception
```

catch – A program catches an exception with an exception handler at the place in a program where you want to handle the problem. The catch keyword indicates the catching of an exception.

Syntax of catch statement

```
try
{
Statement 1;
Statement 2;
}
catch ( argument)
{
statement 3; // Action to be taken
}
```

When an exception is found, the catch block is executed. The catch statement contains an argument of exception type, and it is optional. When an argument is declared, the argument can be used in the catch block. After the execution of the catch block, the statements inside the blocks are executed. In case no exception is caught, the catch block is ignored, and if a mismatch is found, the program is terminated.

Ex:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
double division(int a, int b)
{
    if( b == 0 )
    {
        throw "Division by zero condition!";
    }
    return (a/b);
}
int main ()
{
    int x = 50;
    int y = 0;
    double z = 0;
    try
    {
        z = division(x, y);
        cout << z << endl;
    }
    catch (const char* msg)
    {
        cerr << msg << endl;
    } return 0;
}
```

Result : Division by zero condition!

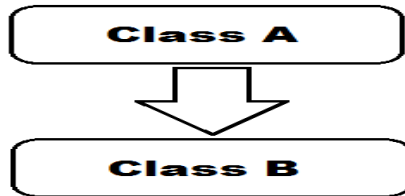
14. Discuss about different types of inheritance with example.

There are different types of inheritance:

1. Single Inheritance
2. Multiple Inheritance
3. Multilevel Inheritance
4. Hierarchical Inheritance
5. Hybrid (Virtual) Inheritance

1. Single Inheritance

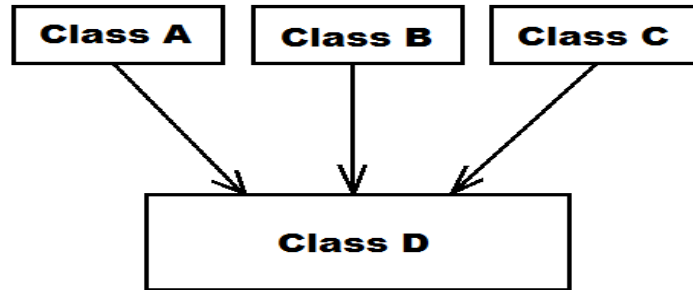
Single inheritance represents a form of inheritance when there is only one base class and one derived class.



```
Ex:#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class base
{
    public:
        int x;
        void getdata()
        {
            cin >> x;
        }
};
class derive : public base
{
    private:
        int y;
    public:
        void readdata()
        {
            cin >> y;
        }
        void product()
        {
            cout << x * y;
        }
};
int main()
{
    derive a;
    a.getdata();
    a.readdata();
    a.product();
    return 0;
}
```

2. Multiple Inheritance

Multiple inheritance represents a kind of inheritance when a derived class inherits properties of **multiple** classes. For example, there are three classes A, B and C and derived class is D as shown below:

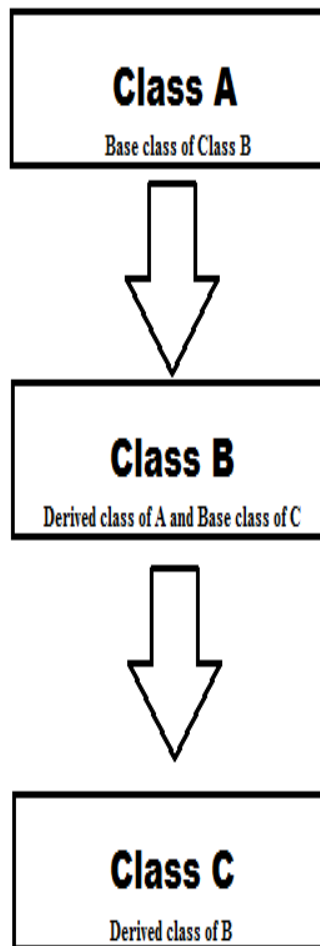


If you want to create a class with multiple base classes, you have to use following syntax:

```
Class DerivedClass: accessSpecifier BaseClass1, BaseClass2, ..., BaseClassN
```

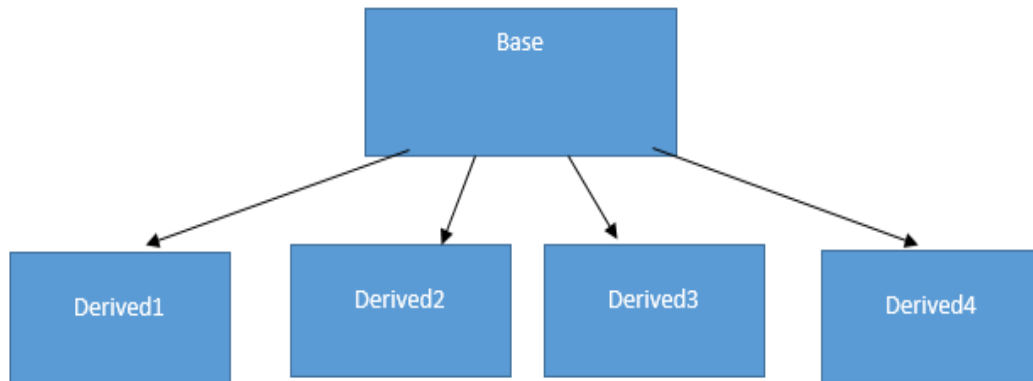
3. Multilevel Inheritance

Multilevel inheritance represents a type of inheritance when a Derived class is a base class for another class. In other words, deriving a class from a derived class is known as multi-level inheritance. Simple multi-level inheritance is shown in below image where Class A is a parent of Class B and Class B is a parent of Class C



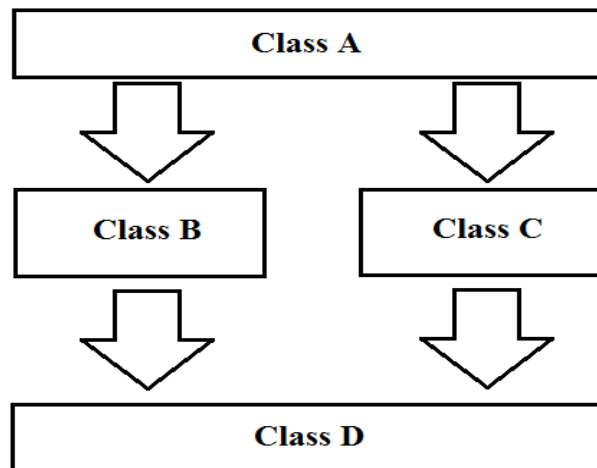
4.Hierarchical Inheritance

When there is a need to create multiple Derived classes that inherit properties of the same Base class is known as Hierarchical inheritance.



5.Hybrid (Virtual) Inheritance

Combination of Multi-level and Hierarchical inheritance will give you Hybrid inheritance.



15. Describe about manipulating strings in C++.

C++ supports a wide range of functions that manipulate null-terminated strings –

Sr.No	Function & Purpose
	strcpy(s1, s2); copies string s2 into string s1.
	strcat(s1, s2); concatenates string s2 onto the end of string s1.
	strlen(s1); returns the length of string s1.
	strcmp(s1, s2); returns 0 if s1 and s2 are the same; less than 0 if s1<s2; greater than 0 if s1>s2.
	strchr(s1, ch); returns a pointer to the first occurrence of character ch in string s1.
	strstr(s1, s2); returns a pointer to the first occurrence of string s2 in string s1.

Following example makes use of few of the above-mentioned functions –

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cstring>
using namespace std;
int main () {
char str1[10] = "Hello";
char str2[10] = "World";
char str3[10];
int len ;
strcpy( str3, str1);
cout << "strcpy( str3, str1) : " << str3 << endl;
strcat( str1, str2);
cout << "strcat( str1, str2): " << str1 << endl;
len = strlen(str1);
cout << "strlen(str1) : " << len << endl;
return 0;
}
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces result something as follows –

```
strcpy( str3, str1) : Hello
strcat( str1, str2): HelloWorld
strlen(str1) : 10
```

The String Class in C++

The standard C++ library provides a **string** class type that supports all the operations mentioned above, additionally much more functionality. Let us check the following example –

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
using namespace std;
int main ()
{
    string str1 = "Hello";
    string str2 = "World";
    string str3;
    int len ;
    str3 = str1;
    cout << "str3 : " << str3 << endl;
    str3 = str1 + str2;
    cout << "str1 + str2 : " << str3 << endl;
    len = str3.size();
    cout << "str3.size() : " << len << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

When the above code is compiled and executed, it produces result something as follows –

```
str3 : Hello
str1 + str2 : HelloWorld
str3.size() : 10
```

16. What is pointer to a function? Explain the situations in which such a concept is used.

In normal function call (call by value), the parameters of a function are xerox copies of the arguments passed to the function. It is like we are passing xerox copies. So altering them won't affect the real values.

But in call by reference, we pass the address of variables to the function. Passing address is like passing original 'x' and 'y'. Altering the parameters will alter the real values also.

Ex:

swap two numbers i.e., interchange the values of two numbers.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void swap( int *a, int *b )
{
    int t;
    t = *a;
    *a = *b;
```

```

    *b = t;
}
int main()
{
    int num1, num2;
    cout << "Enter first number" << endl;
    cin >> num1;
    cout << "Enter second number" << endl;
    cin >> num2;
    swap( &num1, &num2);
    cout << "First number = " << num1 << endl;
    cout << "Second number = " << num2 << endl;
    return 0;
}

```

Output :

```

Enter first number
2
Enter second number
4
First number = 4
Second number = 2

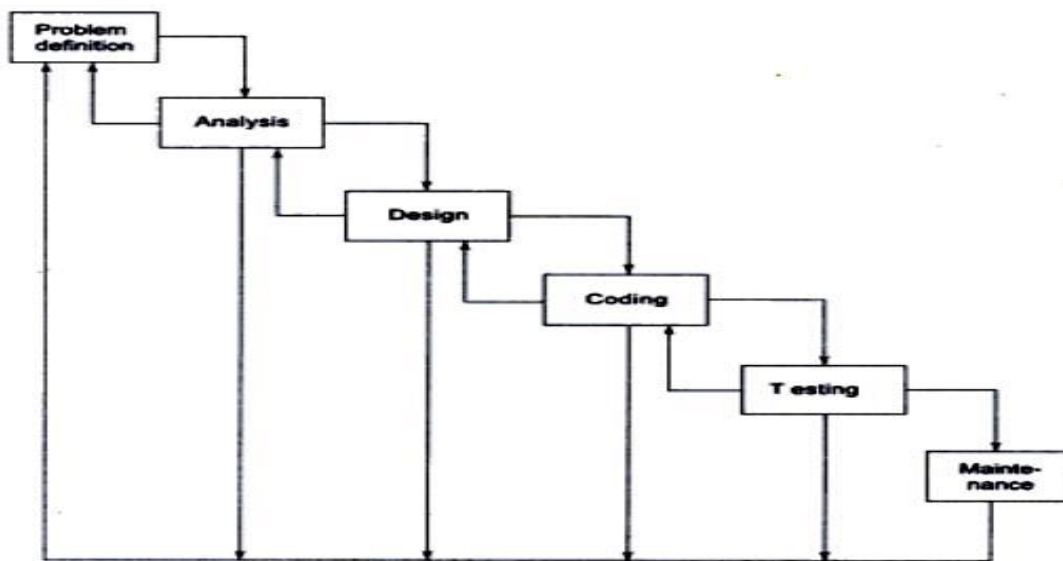
```

17. Discuss in detail procedure oriented Paradigms and Object Oriented Paradigms.

Software development is usually categorized by a series of stages depicting the various tasks involved in the development process.

The classic life cycle model is based on an underlying model, commonly referred to as the “Water-fall” Model. This model attempts to break up the identifiable activities into series of actions, each of which must be completed before the next begins. The activities include

- Problem definition
- Requirement analysis
- Design
- Coding
- Testing And Maintenance



Further refinements to this model include iteration back to the previous stages in order to incorporate any changes or missing links.

Problem Definition: This activity requires a precise definition of the problem in user terms. A clear statement of the problem is crucial to the success of the software. It helps not only the developer but also the user to understand the problem better.

Analysis: this covers a detailed study of both the user and software. This activity is basically concerned with what of the system such as

- What are the inputs to the system?
- What are the processes required?
- What are the outputs expected?
- What are the constraints?

Design: the design phase with various concepts of system design such as data structure, software architecture, and algorithms, this phase translates the requirements into a representation of the software. This stage answers the questions of how.

Coding : Coding refers to the translation of the design into machine – readable form. The more detailed the design, the easier is the coding, and better its reliability.

Testing: after the software has been installed, it may undergo some changes, this may occur due to a change in the users requirements, a change in the operating environment, or an error in the software that has not been fixed during the testing. Maintenance ensures that these changes are incorporated wherever necessary.

Each phase of the life cycle has its own goals and outputs. The output of one phase acts as an input to the next phase.

Object Oriented Paradigm

Object-oriented programming (OOP) is a programming paradigm based upon objects (having both data and methods) that aims to incorporate the advantages of modularity and reusability. Objects, which are usually instances of classes, are used to interact with one another to design applications and computer programs.

The important features of object–oriented programming are –

- Bottom–up approach in program design
- Programs organized around objects, grouped in classes
- Focus on data with methods to operate upon object’s data
- Interaction between objects through functions
- Reusability of design through creation of new classes by adding features to existing classes

Some examples of object-oriented programming languages are C++, Java, Smalltalk, Delphi, C#, Perl, Python, Ruby, and PHP.

18. Discuss about sequential input and output operations on files in C++.

The file stream classes support a number of member functions for performing the input and output operations on files. The functions `get()` and `put()` are capable of handling a single character at a time. The function `getline()` lets you handle multiple characters at a time. Another pair of functions i.e., `read()` and `write()` are capable of reading and writing blocks of binary data.

The `get()`, `getline()` and `put()` Functions

The functions `get()` and `put()` are byte-oriented. That is, `get()` will read a byte of data and `put()` will write a byte of data. The `get()` has many forms, but the most commonly used version is shown here, along with `put()` :

```
istream & get(char & ch) ;
```

```
ostream & put(char ch) ;
```

The `get()` function reads a single character from the associated stream and puts that value in `ch`. It returns a reference to the stream. The `put()` writes the value of `ch` to the stream and returns a reference to the stream.

The following program displays the contents of a file on the screen. It uses the `get()` function :

```
/* C++ Sequential Input/Output Operations on Files */
```

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

```
#include<stdlib.h>
```

```
#include<fstream.h>
```

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

```
void main()
```

```
{
```

```
char fname[20], ch;
```

```
ifstream fin; // create an input stream
```

```
clrscr();
```

```
cout<<"Enter the name of the file: ";
```

```
cin.get(fname, 20);
```

```
cin.get(ch);
```

```
fin.open(fname, ios::in);
```

```
if(!fin)
```

```
{
```

```
cout<<"Error occurred in opening the file..!!\n";
```

```
cout<<"Press any key to exit...\n";
```

```
getch();
```

```
exit(1);
```

```
}
```

```
while(fin)
```

```
{
```

```
fin.get(ch);
```

```
cout<<ch;
```

```
}
```

```
cout<<"\nPress any key to exit...\n";
```

```
fin.close();
```

```
getch();
```

```
}
```

when the end-of-file is reached, the stream associated with the file becomes zero. Therefore, when `fin` reaches the end of the file, it will be zero causing the while loop to stop.

Other Forms of get() Function

In addition to the form shown earlier, there are several other forms of get() function. Two most commonly used form shave the following prototypes :

```
istream & get(char * buf, int num, char delim = '\n') ;
```

```
int get() ;
```

The getline() Function

Another member function that performs input is getline() whose prototype is :

```
istream & getline(char * buf, int num, char delim = '\n') ;
```

The function getline() also reads characters from input stream and puts them in the array pointed to by buf until either num character have been read, or the character specified by delim is encountered. If not mentioned, the default value of delim is newline character.

The read() and write() Functions

Another way of reading and writing blocks of binary data is to use C++'s read() and write() functions. Their prototypes are :

```
istream & read( (char *) & buf, int sizeof(buf) ) ;
```

```
ostream & write( (char *) & buf, int sizeof(buf) ) ;
```

The read() function reads sizeof(buf) (it can be any other integer value also) bytes from the associated stream and puts them in the buffer pointed to by buf. The write() function writes sizeof(buf) (it can be any other integer value also) bytes to the associated stream from the buffer pointed to by buf.