

Internal Assessment Test III - January 2020

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|-------|---------------------------------------|-----------|---------|------------|----|------|-------|---------|-----|
| Sub: | Object Oriented Programming Using C++ | | | | | | Code: | 18MCA11 | |
| Date: | 13.01.2020 | Duration: | 90 mins | Max Marks: | 50 | Sem: | I | Branch: | MCA |

| | | Marks | OBE CO | RBT |
|------------------|--|-------|-----------|-----|
| Part - I | | | | |
| 1. | Explain STL container classes. | [10] | CO4 | L2 |
| OR | | | | |
| 2. | What is Exception? Explain the use of try, catch and throw with example. Write a program for the exception division by zero. | [10] | CO3 | L2 |
| Part - II | | | | |
| 3. (a) | Explain manipulators. Write a Program to create your own manipulators. | [6] | CO4 | L3 |
| (b) | Explain setw and setfill manipulators with example. | [4] | CO4 | L2 |
| OR | | | | |
| 4. | Explain how can we catch all exception, restrict exception and rethrow exception with example | [10] | CO3 | L2 |
| Part -III | | | | |
| 5. | What is stream? Discuss the four streams which are automatically opened when a C++ Program begins execution. | [10] | CO3 | L2 |
| 6. | What is iterator? Write a simple C++ program to store and display integer elements using STL Vector class. | [10] | CO4 | L2 |
| Part - IV | | | | |
| 7. | What is STL? List and explain the three types of containers in STL. | [10] | CO4 | L2 |
| OR | | | | |
| 8. (a) | Write a C++ program to create a template function for Bubble Sort and demonstrate sorting of integers and doubles | [6] | CO3 | L3 |
| (b) | How are the Object Oriented Programming different from procedure Oriented Programming? | [4] | CO1 | L2 |
| Part - V | | | | |
| 9. | Create an abstract base class EMPLOYEE with data members: Name, EmpID and BasicSal and a pure virtual function Cal_Sal(). Create two derived classes MANAGER (with data members: DA and HRA and SALESMAN (with data members: DA, HRA and TA). Write appropriate constructors and member functions to initialize the data, read and write the data and to calculate the net salary. The main() function should create array of base class pointers/references to invoke overridden functions and hence to implement run | [10] | CO3 | L3 |
| OR | | | | |
| 10. | Write a program to implement FILE I/O operations on characters. I/O operations includes inputting a string, Calculating length of the string, Storing the string in a file, fetching the stored characters from it, etc. | [10] | CO3 | L3 |

Internal Assessment Test III – January 2020 – 13/01/2020
Answer Key

| Sub: | Object Oriented Programming Using C++ | Code: 18MCA11 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------|---|-----------------|-------------|-----------------|--------|----------------|----------|-------|-----------------------|---------|------|----------------|--------|-----|--|-------|----------|---|-------|----------|--|-------|----------------|-------------------|---------|-------|----------|---------|-----|--|-------|-------|----------|---------|--------|------------------|----------|------|--|
| 1. | <p align="center">Part - I</p> <p>Explain STL container classes. Containers</p> <p>Containers are objects that hold other objects, and there are several different types. For example, the vector class defines a dynamic array, deque creates a double-ended queue, and list provides a linear list. These containers are called sequence containers</p> <p>It also defines associative containers, which allow efficient retrieval of values based on keys. For example, a map provides access to values with unique keys. Each container class defines a set of functions that may be applied to the container. For example, a list container includes functions that insert, delete, and merge elements.</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="236 629 997 1137"> <thead> <tr> <th>Container</th> <th>Description</th> <th>Required Header</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>bitset</td> <td>A set of bits.</td> <td><bitset></td> </tr> <tr> <td>deque</td> <td>A double-ended queue.</td> <td><deque></td> </tr> <tr> <td>list</td> <td>A linear list.</td> <td><list></td> </tr> <tr> <td>map</td> <td>Stores key /value pairs in which each key is associated with only one value.</td> <td><map></td> </tr> <tr> <td>multimap</td> <td>Stores key /value pairs in which one key may be associated with two or more values.</td> <td><map></td> </tr> <tr> <td>multiset</td> <td>A set in which each element is not necessarily unique.</td> <td><set></td> </tr> <tr> <td>priority_queue</td> <td>A priority queue.</td> <td><queue></td> </tr> <tr> <td>queue</td> <td>A queue.</td> <td><queue></td> </tr> <tr> <td>set</td> <td>A set in which each element is unique.</td> <td><set></td> </tr> <tr> <td>stack</td> <td>A stack.</td> <td><stack></td> </tr> <tr> <td>vector</td> <td>A dynamic array.</td> <td><vector></td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>Table 24-1. The Containers Defined by the STL</p> <p>Ex:</p> <pre>#include <vector> #include <iostream> int main() { using namespace std; vector<int> vect; for (int nCount=0; nCount < 6; nCount++) vect.push_back(10 - nCount); // insert at end of array for (int nIndex=0; nIndex < vect.size(); nIndex++) cout << vect[nIndex] << " "; cout << endl; }</pre> | Container | Description | Required Header | bitset | A set of bits. | <bitset> | deque | A double-ended queue. | <deque> | list | A linear list. | <list> | map | Stores key /value pairs in which each key is associated with only one value. | <map> | multimap | Stores key /value pairs in which one key may be associated with two or more values. | <map> | multiset | A set in which each element is not necessarily unique. | <set> | priority_queue | A priority queue. | <queue> | queue | A queue. | <queue> | set | A set in which each element is unique. | <set> | stack | A stack. | <stack> | vector | A dynamic array. | <vector> | [10] | |
| Container | Description | Required Header | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| bitset | A set of bits. | <bitset> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| deque | A double-ended queue. | <deque> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| list | A linear list. | <list> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| map | Stores key /value pairs in which each key is associated with only one value. | <map> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| multimap | Stores key /value pairs in which one key may be associated with two or more values. | <map> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| multiset | A set in which each element is not necessarily unique. | <set> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| priority_queue | A priority queue. | <queue> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| queue | A queue. | <queue> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| set | A set in which each element is unique. | <set> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| stack | A stack. | <stack> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| vector | A dynamic array. | <vector> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. | <p>What is Exception? Explain the use of try, catch and throw with example. Write a program for the exception division by zero.</p> <p><i>Exception means run time errors. Exception handling allows you to manage run-time errors in an orderly fashion. Using exception handling, your program can automatically invoke an error-handling routine when an error occurs.</i></p> <p>C++ exception handling is built upon three keywords: try, catch, and throw. In the most general terms, program statements that you want to monitor for exceptions are contained in a try block. If an exception (i.e., an error) occurs within the try block, it is thrown (using throw). The exception is caught, using catch, and processed. The</p> | [10] | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

following discussion elaborates upon this general description.

Code that you want to monitor for exceptions must have been executed from within a **try** block. (Functions called from within a **try** block may also throw an exception.) Exceptions that can be thrown by the monitored code are caught by a **catch** statement, which immediately follows the **try** statement in which the exception was thrown. The general form of **try** and **catch** are shown here.

```
try {  
// try block  
}  
catch (type1 arg) {  
// catch block  
}  
catch (type2 arg) {  
// catch block  
}  
catch (type3 arg) {  
// catch block  
}...  
catch (typeN arg) {  
// catch block  
}
```

The **try** can be as short as a few statements within one function or as all-encompassing as enclosing the **main()** function code within a **try** block (which effectively causes the entire program to be monitored).

When an exception is thrown, it is caught by its corresponding **catch** statement, which processes the exception. There can be more than one **catch** statement associated with a **try**. Which **catch** statement is used is determined by the type of the exception. That is, if the data type specified by a **catch** matches that of the exception, then that **catch** statement is executed (and all others are bypassed). When an exception is caught, *arg* will receive its value. Any type of data may be caught, including classes that you create. If no exception is thrown (that is, no error occurs within the **try** block), then no **catch** statement is executed.

The general form of the **throw** statement is shown here:

```
throw exception;
```

Example

```
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std;  
void divide(double a, double b);  
int main()  
{  
double i, j;  
do {  
cout << "Enter numerator (0 to stop): ";  
cin >> i;  
cout << "Enter denominator: ";  
cin >> j;  
divide(i, j);  
} while(i != 0);  
return 0;  
}  
void divide(double a, double b)  
{  
try {  
if(!b) throw b; // check for divide-by-zero  
cout << "Result: " << a/b << endl;  
}  
catch (double b) {  
cout << "Can't divide by zero.\n";  
}  
}
```

Part - II

[6]

3. (a) Explain manipulators. Write a Program to create your own manipulators.

Manipulator functions are special stream functions that change certain characteristics of the input and output. They change the format flags and values for a stream. The main advantage of using manipulator functions is that they facilitate that formatting of input and output streams.

The following are the list of standard manipulator used in a C++ program. To carry out the operations of these manipulator functions in a user program, the header file `input and output manipulator <iomanip.h>` must be included.

| Manipulator | Purpose | Input/Output |
|--------------------------|--|--------------|
| <code>boolalpha</code> | Turns on boolalpha flag. | Input/Output |
| <code>dec</code> | Turns on dec flag. | Input/Output |
| <code>endl</code> | Output a newline character and flush the stream. | Output |
| <code>ends</code> | Output a null. | Output |
| <code>fixed</code> | Turns on fixed flag. | Output |
| <code>flush</code> | Flush a stream. | Output |
| <code>hex</code> | Turns on hex flag. | Input/Output |
| <code>internal</code> | Turns on internal flag. | Output |
| <code>left</code> | Turns on left flag. | Output |
| <code>noboolalpha</code> | Turns off boolalpha flag. | Input/Output |
| <code>noshowbase</code> | Turns off showbase flag. | Output |
| <code>noshowpoint</code> | Turns off showpoint flag. | Output |
| <code>noshowpos</code> | Turns off showpos flag. | Output |

Table 20-1. *The C++ Manipulators*

| Manipulator | Purpose | Input/Output |
|---|--|--------------|
| <code>noskipws</code> | Turns off skipws flag. | Input |
| <code>nounitbuf</code> | Turns off unitbuf flag. | Output |
| <code>nouppercase</code> | Turns off uppercase flag. | Output |
| <code>oct</code> | Turns on oct flag. | Input/Output |
| <code>resetiosflags (fmtflags f)</code> | Turn off the flags specified in <i>f</i> . | Input/Output |
| <code>right</code> | Turns on right flag. | Output |
| <code>scientific</code> | Turns on scientific flag. | Output |
| <code>setbase(int base)</code> | Set the number base to <i>base</i> . | Input/Output |
| <code>setfill(int ch)</code> | Set the fill character to <i>ch</i> . | Output |
| <code>setiosflags(fmtflags f)</code> | Turn on the flags specified in <i>f</i> . | Input/output |
| <code>setprecision (int p)</code> | Set the number of digits of precision. | Output |
| <code>setw(int w)</code> | Set the field width to <i>w</i> . | Output |
| <code>showbase</code> | Turns on showbase flag. | Output |
| <code>showpoint</code> | Turns on showpoint flag. | Output |
| <code>showpos</code> | Turns on showpos flag. | Output |
| <code>skipws</code> | Turns on skipws flag. | Input |
| <code>unitbuf</code> | Turns on unitbuf flag. | Output |
| <code>uppercase</code> | Turns on uppercase flag. | Output |
| <code>ws</code> | Skip leading white space. | Input |

Table 20-1. *The C++ Manipulators (continued)*

| | | |
|-----|---|------|
| | <p>Ex:</p> <pre>#include <iostream> #include <iomanip> using namespace std; int main() { cout << hex << 100 << endl; cout << setfill('?') << setw(10) << 2343.0; return 0; } This displays 64 ?????2343</pre> <p>Creating our own inserter: All parameterless manipulator output functions have this skeleton:</p> <pre>ostream &manip-name(ostream &stream) { // your code here return stream; } #include <iostream> #include <iomanip> using namespace std; // A simple output manipulator. ostream &sethex(ostream &stream) { stream.setf(ios::showbase); stream.setf(ios::hex, ios::basefield); return stream; } int main() { cout << 256 << " " << sethex << 256; return 0; } O/P : 256 0x100</pre> | |
| (b) | <p>Explain setw and setfill manipulators with example.</p> <p>setfill(int <i>ch</i>) Set the fill character to <i>ch</i>. <i>It is used to format an Output.</i></p> <p>setw(int <i>w</i>) Set the field width to <i>w</i>. <i>It is used to format an Output.</i></p> <pre>#include <iostream> #include <iomanip> using namespace std; int main() { cout << hex << 100 << endl; cout << setfill('?') << setw(10) << 2343.0; return 0; } This displays 64 ?????2343</pre> | [4] |
| 4. | <p>Explain how can we catch all exception, restrict exception and rethrow exception with example</p> <p>Catching All Exceptions</p> <p>In some circumstances you will want an exception handler to catch all exceptions instead of just a certain type. This is easy to accomplish. Simply use this form of catch.</p> | [10] |

```
catch(...) {  
    // process all exceptions  
}
```

Here, the ellipsis matches any type of data. The following program illustrates **catch(...)**.

```
// This example catches all exceptions.  
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std;  
void Xhandler(int test)  
{  
    try{  
        if(test==0) throw test; // throw int  
        if(test==1) throw 'a'; // throw char  
        if(test==2) throw 123.23; // throw double  
    }  
    catch(...) { // catch all exceptions  
        cout << "Caught One!\n";  
    }  
}  
int main()  
{  
    cout << "Start\n";  
    Xhandler(0);  
    Xhandler(1);  
    Xhandler(2);  
    cout << "End";  
    return 0;  
}
```

This program displays the following output.

```
Start  
Caught One!  
Caught One!  
Caught One!  
End
```

Rethrowing an Exception

If you wish to rethrow an expression from within an exception handler, you may do so by calling **throw**, by itself, with no exception. This causes the current exception to be passed on to an outer **try/catch** sequence. The most likely reason for doing so is to allow multiple handlers access to the exception. For example, perhaps one exception handler manages one aspect of an exception and a second handler copes with another. An exception can only be rethrown from within a **catch** block (or from any function called from within that block). When you rethrow an exception, it will not be recaptured by the same **catch** statement. It will propagate outward to the next **catch** statement. The following program illustrates rethrowing an exception, in this case a **char *** exception.

```
// Example of "rethrowing" an exception.  
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std;  
void Xhandler()  
{  
    try {  
        throw "hello"; // throw a char *  
    }  
    catch(const char *) { // catch a char *  
        cout << "Caught char * inside Xhandler\n";  
        throw ; // rethrow char * out of function  
    }  
}  
int main()  
{  
    cout << "Start\n";
```

```

try{
Xhandler();
}
catch(const char *) {
cout << "Caught char * inside main\n";
}
cout << "End";
return 0;
}

```

This program displays this output:

Start

Caught char * inside Xhandler

Caught char * inside main

End

Restricting Exceptions

You can restrict the type of exceptions that a function can throw outside of itself. In fact, you can also prevent a function from throwing any exceptions whatsoever. To accomplish these restrictions, you must add a **throw** clause to a function definition. The general form of this is shown here:

```

ret-type func-name(arg-list) throw(type-list)
{
// ...
}

```

Here, only those data types contained in the comma-separated *type-list* may be thrown by the function. Throwing any other type of expression will cause abnormal program termination. If you don't want a function to be able to throw *any* exceptions, then use an empty list.

Attempting to throw an exception that is not supported by a function will cause the standard library function **unexpected()** to be called. By default, this causes **abort()** to be called, which causes abnormal program termination.

The following program shows how to restrict the types of exceptions that can be thrown from a function.

```

// Restricting function throw types.
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
// This function can only throw ints, chars, and doubles.
void Xhandler(int test) throw(int, char, double)
{
if(test==0) throw test; // throw int
if(test==1) throw 'a'; // throw char
if(test==2) throw 123.23; // throw double
}
int main()
{
cout << "start\n";
try{
Xhandler(0); // also, try passing 1 and 2 to Xhandler()
}
catch(int i) {
cout << "Caught an integer\n";
}
catch(char c) {
cout << "Caught char\n";
}
catch(double d) {
cout << "Caught double\n";
}
}

```

```
cout << "end";
return 0;
}
```

Part –III

5.

What is stream? Discuss the four streams which are automatically opened when a C++ Program begins execution.

[10]

A stream is a logical device that either produces or consumes information. A stream is linked to a physical device by the I/O system. All streams behave in the same way even though the actual physical devices they are connected to may differ substantially. Because all streams behave the same, the same I/O functions can operate on virtually any type of physical device.

| Template Class based Class | Character-based class | Wide-Character- |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|
| basic_streambuf | streambuf | wstreambuf |
| basic_ios | ios | wios |
| basic_istream | istream | wistream |
| basic_ostream | ostream | wostream |
| basic_iostream | iostream | wiostream |
| basic_fstream | fstream | wfstream |
| basic_ifstream | ifstream | wifstream |
| basic_ofstream | ofstream | wofstream |

When a C++ program begins execution, four built-in streams are automatically opened.

They are:

| Stream | Meaning | Default Device |
|--------|--------------------------|----------------|
| cin | Standard input | Keyboard |
| cout | Standard output | Screen |
| cerr | Standard error output | Screen |
| clog | Buffered version of cerr | Screen |

By default, the standard streams are used to communicate with the console. However, in environments that support I/O redirection (such as DOS, Unix, OS/2, and Windows), the standard streams can be redirected to other devices or files.

The standard input stream (cin):

The predefined object **cin** is an instance of **istream** class. The cin object is said to be attached to the standard input device, which usually is the keyboard. The **cin** is used in conjunction with the stream extraction operator, which is written as >>

```
#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

int main( )
{
    char name[50];

    cout << "Please enter your name: ";
    cin >> name;
    cout << "Your name is: " << name << endl;
```



```
}
```

The standard output stream (cout):

The predefined object **cout** is an instance of **ostream** class. The cout object is said to be "connected to" the standard output device, which usually is the display screen. The **cout** is used in conjunction with the stream insertion operator, which is written as <<

Ex:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main( )
{
    char str[] = "Hello C++";
    cout << "Value of str is : " << str << endl;
}
```

The standard error stream (cerr):

The predefined object **cerr** is an instance of **ostream** class. The cerr object is said to be attached to the standard error device, which is also a display screen but the object **cerr** is un-buffered and each stream insertion to cerr causes its output to appear immediately.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main( )
{
    char str[] = "Unable to read...";
    cerr << "Error message : " << str << endl;
}
```

The standard log stream (clog):

The predefined object **clog** is an instance of **ostream** class. The clog object is said to be attached to the standard error device, which is also a display screen but the object **clog** is buffered. This means that each insertion to clog could cause its output to be held in a buffer until the buffer is filled or until the buffer is flushed

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main( )
{
    char str[] = "Unable to read...";
    clog << "Error message : " << str << endl;
}
```

| | | |
|----|---|------|
| 6. | <p>What is iterator? Write a simple C++ program to store and display integer elements using STL Vector class.</p> <p><i>Iterators</i> are objects that act, more or less, like pointers. They give you the ability to cycle through the contents of a container in much the same way that you would use a pointer to cycle through an array. There are five types of iterators:</p> <p>Iterator Access Allowed</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Random Access Store and retrieve values. Elements may be accessed randomly. • Bidirectional Store and retrieve values. Forward and backward moving. • Forward Store and retrieve values. Forward moving only. • Input Retrieve, but not store values. Forward moving only. • Output Store, but not retrieve values. Forward moving only. <pre>#include <iostream> #include <vector> using namespace std; int main() { // create a vector to store int vector<int> vec; int i; // display the original size of vec cout << "vector size = " << vec.size() << endl; // push 5 values into the vector for(i = 0; i < 5; i++){ vec.push_back(i); } // display extended size of vec cout << "extended vector size = " << vec.size() << endl; // access 5 values from the vector for(i = 0; i < 5; i++){ cout << "value of vec [" << i << "] = " << vec[i] << endl; } return 0; }</pre> | [10] |
|----|---|------|

Part – IV

| | | |
|----|--|------|
| 7. | <p>What is STL? List and explain the three types of containers in STL.</p> <p>At the core of the standard template library are three foundational items: <i>containers</i>, <i>algorithms</i>, and <i>iterators</i>. These items work in conjunction with one another to provide off-the-shelf solutions to a variety of programming problems.</p> <p>Containers</p> <p><i>Containers</i> are objects that hold other objects, and there are several different types. For example, the vector class defines a dynamic array, deque creates a double-ended queue, and list provides a linear list. These containers are called <i>sequence containers</i> because in STL terminology, a sequence is a linear list. In addition to the basic containers, the STL also defines <i>associative containers</i>, which allow efficient retrieval of values based on keys. For example, a map provides access to values with unique keys. Thus, a map stores a key/value pair and allows a value to be retrieved given its key. Each container class defines a set of functions that may be applied to the container. For example, a list container includes functions that insert, delete, and merge elements. A stack includes functions that push and pop values.</p> <p>Algorithms</p> <p><i>Algorithms</i> act on containers. They provide the means by which you will manipulate the contents of containers. Their capabilities include initialization, sorting, searching, and transforming the contents of</p> | [10] |
|----|--|------|

containers. Many algorithms operate on a *range* of elements within a container.

Iterators

Iterators are objects that act, more or less, like pointers. They give you the ability to cycle through the contents of a container in much the same way that you would use a pointer to cycle through an array.

There are five types of iterators:

| Iterator | Access | Allowed |
|---------------|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Random Access | Store and retrieve values. | Elements may be accessed randomly. |
| Bidirectional | Store and retrieve values. | Forward and backward moving. |
| Forward | Store and retrieve values. | Forward moving only. |
| Input | Retrieve, but not store values. | Forward moving only. |
| Output | Store, but not retrieve values. | Forward moving only. |

Container Classes:

Vectors

Perhaps the most general-purpose of the containers is **vector**. The **vector** class supports a dynamic array. This is an array that can grow as needed. As you know, in C++ the size of an array is fixed at compile time. While this is by far the most efficient way to implement arrays, it is also the most restrictive because the size of the array cannot be adjusted at run time to accommodate changing program conditions. A vector solves

this problem by allocating memory as needed. Although a vector is dynamic, you can still use the standard array subscript notation to access its elements. The template specification for **vector** is shown here:

```
template <class T, class Allocator = allocator<T> > class vector
```

Some of the most commonly used member functions are **size()**, **begin()**, **end()**, **push_back()**, **insert()**, and **erase()**. The **size()** function returns the current size of the vector. This function is quite useful because it allows you to determine the size of a vector at run time. Remember, vectors will increase in size as needed, so the size of a vector must be determined during execution, not during compilation. The **begin()** function returns an iterator to the start of the vector. The **end()** function returns an iterator to the end of the vector. As explained, iterators are similar to pointers, and it is through the use of the **begin()** and **end()** functions that you obtain an iterator to the beginning and end of a vector. The **push_back()** function puts a value onto the end of the vector. If necessary, the vector is increased in length to accommodate the new element. You can also add elements to the middle using **insert()**. A vector can also be initialized. In any event, once a vector contains elements, you can use array subscripting to access or modify those elements. You can remove elements from a vector using **erase()**

List

The list class supports a bidirectional, linear list. Unlike a vector, which supports random access, a list can be accessed sequentially only. Since lists are bidirectional, they may be accessed front to back or back to front.

A list has this template specification:

```
template <class T, class Allocator = allocator<T> > class list
```

Here, T is the type of data stored in the list. The allocator is specified by Allocator, which defaults to the standard allocator. It has the following constructors:

```
explicit list(const Allocator &a = Allocator( ));
```

```
explicit list(size_type num, const T &val = T( ),
```

```
const Allocator &a = Allocator( ));
```

```
list(const list<T, Allocator> &ob);
```

```
template <class InIter>list(InIter start, InIter end, const Allocator &a = Allocator( ));
```

The first form constructs an empty list. The second form constructs a list that has num elements with the value val, which can be allowed to default. The third form constructs a list that contains the same elements as ob. The fourth form constructs a list that contains the elements in the range specified by the iterators start and end.

Maps

The map class supports an associative container in which unique keys are mapped with values. In essence, a key is simply a name that you give to a value. Once a value has been stored, you can retrieve it by using its key. Thus, in its most general sense, a map is a list of key/value pairs. The power of a map is that you can look up a value given its key. For example, you could define a map that uses a person's name as its key and stores that person's telephone number as its value. Associative containers are becoming more popular in programming.

As mentioned, a map can hold only unique keys. Duplicate keys are not allowed. To create a map that

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| | <p>allows nonunique keys, use multimap. The map container has the following template specification: template <class Key, class T, class Comp = less<Key>, class Allocator = allocator<pair<const key, T> > class map</p> | |
| 8. (a) | <p>Write a C++ program to create a template function for Bubble Sort and demonstrate sorting of integers and doubles</p> <pre> #include<iostream> using namespace std; #define Max 100 template <class T> void sort(T a[],int n) { int i,j; for(i=0;i<n-1;i++) { for(j=0;j<n- i- 1;j++) { if(a[j]>a[j+1]) { T temp=a[j]; a[j]=a[j+1]; a[j+1]=temp; } } } } int main() { int a[Max],i,n; double d[Max]; cout<<"enter array size\n\n"; cin>>n; cout<<"enter array integer elements\n\n"; for(i=0;i<n;i++) cin>>a[i]; cout<<"enter array double elements\n\n"; for(i=0;i<n;i++) cin>>d[i]; cout<<"integer part\n\n"; sort(a,n); for(i=0;i<n;i++) cout<< a[i]<<"\n"; cout<<"double part\n\n"; sort(d,n); for(i=0;i<n;i++) cout<<d[i]<<"\n"; return 0; } </pre> | [6] |

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| (b) | <p>How are the Object Oriented Programming different from procedure Oriented Programming?</p> <p>Definition</p> <p>OOP stands for Object-oriented programming and is a programming approach that focuses on data rather than the algorithm, whereas POP, short for Procedure-oriented programming, focuses on procedural abstractions.</p> <p>Programs</p> <p>In OOP, the program is divided into small chunks called objects which are instances of classes, whereas in POP, the main program is divided into small parts based on the functions.</p> <p>Accessing Mode</p> <p>Three accessing modes are used in OOP to access attributes or functions – ‘Private’, ‘Public’, and ‘Protected’. In POP, on the other hand, no such accessing mode is required to access attributes or functions of a particular program.</p> <p>Focus</p> <p>The main focus is on the data associated with the program in case of OOP while POP relies on functions or algorithms of the program.</p> <p>Execution</p> <p>In OOP, various functions can work simultaneously while POP follows a systematic step-by-step approach to execute methods and functions.</p> <p>Data Control</p> <p>In OOP, the data and functions of an object act like a single entity so accessibility is limited to the member functions of the same class. In POP, on the other hand, data can move freely because each function contains different data.</p> <p>Security</p> <p>OOP is more secure than POP, thanks to the data hiding feature which limits the access of data to the member function of the same class, while there is no such way of data hiding in POP, thus making it less secure.</p> <p>Ease of Modification</p> <p>New data objects can be created easily from existing objects making object-oriented programs easy to modify, while there’s no simple process to add data in POP, at least not without revising the whole program.</p> <p>Process</p> <p>OOP follows a bottom-up approach for designing a program, while POP takes a top-down approach to design a program.</p> <p>Examples</p> <p>Commonly used OOP languages are C++, Java, VB.NET, etc. Pascal and Fortran are used by POP.</p> | [4] |
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Part - V

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| 9. | <p>Create an abstract base class EMPLOYEE with data members: Name, EmpID and BasicSal and a pure virtual function Cal_Sal(). Create two derived classes MANAGER (with data members: DA and HRA and SALESMAN (with data members: DA, HRA and TA). Write appropriate constructors and member functions to initialize the data, read and write the data and to calculate the net salary. The main() function should create array of base class pointers/references to invoke overridden functions and hence to implement run</p> | [10] |
|----|---|------|

```

#include<iostream>
#define Max 20
using namespace std;

class EMPLOYEE {
    public:
    char name[Max];
    int empid;
    float basic;
    EMPLOYEE()
    {

    }
    void read()
    {
        cout<<"\n enter employee number:";
        cin>>empid;
        cout<<endl<<"Enter employee name:";
        cin>>name;
        cout<<endl<<"Enter the basic salary:";
        cin>>basic;
    }
    void putinfo()
    {
        cout << " Employee number is : " << empid;
        cout << "\nName : " << name;
        cout << "\nbasic : " << basic << "\n";
    }
    virtual void calsal() = 0; // Pure virtual function ie why EMPLOYEE becomes a abstract
base class
};

class MANAGER:public EMPLOYEE
{
    float da,it,hra,netsal,gross;
    public:
    MANAGER()
    {
        da=it=hra=netsal=gross=0;
    }
    void calsal()
    {
        da=basic*0.52;
        hra=basic*0.65;
        gross=basic+hra+da;
        it=gross*0.3;
        netsal=gross-it;
        cout<<"Manager Details:"<<endl;
        EMPLOYEE::putinfo();
        cout << "DA : " << da;
        cout << "\nHRA : " << hra;
        cout << "\nGROSS : " << gross ;
        cout<<"\n IT : " <<it;
        cout<<"\n NETSAL : "<<netsal;
    }
};

class SALESMAN:public EMPLOYEE

```

```

{
    float da,it,hra,netsal,gross,ta;
    public:
        SALESMAN()
        {
            da=it=ta=hra=netsal=gross=0;
        }
        void calsal()
        {
            da=basic*0.42;
            hra=basic*0.52;
            ta=basic*0.32;
            gross=basic+da+hra+ta;
            it=gross*0.3;
            netsal=gross-it;
            cout<<" Salesman Details:"<<endl;
            EMPLOYEE::putinfo();
            cout << "DA : " << da;
            cout << "\nHRA : " << hra;
            cout<<"\n TA :"<<ta;
            cout << "\nGROSS : " << gross ;
            cout<<"\n IT : " <<it;
            cout<<"\n NETSAL :"<<netsal;
        }
};

int main()
{
    // base class pointer
    MANAGER m;
    SALESMAN s;
    EMPLOYEE *p[]={
        &m,&s
    };

    cout<<"\nEnter manager details\n";
    p[0]->read();

    cout<<"\nEnter salesman details\n";
    p[1]->read();

    for(int i=0;i<2;i++)
        p[i]->calsal();
    return 0;
}

```

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| 10. | <p>Write a program to implement FILE I/O operations on characters. I/O operations includes inputting a string, Calculating length of the string, Storing the string in a file, fetching the stored characters from it, etc.</p> <pre> #include <iostream> #include <vector> using namespace std; int main() { // create a vector to store int vector<int> vec; int i; </pre> | [10] |
|-----|---|------|

```
// display the original size of vec
cout << "vector size = " << vec.size() << endl;

// push 5 values into the vector
for(i = 0; i < 5; i++){
    vec.push_back(i);
}

// display extended size of vec
cout << "extended vector size = " << vec.size() << endl;

// access 5 values from the vector
for(i = 0; i < 5; i++){
    cout << "value of vec [" << i << "] = " << vec[i] << endl;
}
return 0;
}
```

O/P:

vector size = 0

extended vector size = 5

value of vec [0] = 0

value of vec [1] = 1

value of vec [2] = 2

value of vec [3] = 3

value of vec [4] = 4