# **5.3 Overloaded Functions**

An overloaded function appears to perform different activities depending on the kind of data sent to it. It performs one operation on one kind of data but another operation on a different kind.

# **5.3.1 Different Numbers of Arguments Example:**

The starline() function printed a line using 45 asterisks.

The repchar() function used a character and a line length that were both specified when the function was called.

The charline() function that always prints 45 characters but that allows the calling program to specify the character to be printed.

These three functions—starline(), repchar(), and charline() perform similar activities but have different names.

For programmers using these functions, that means three names to remember and three places to look them up if they are listed alphabetically in an application's.

It would be better to use the same name for all three functions, even though they each have different arguments.

Here's a program, OVERLOAD, that makes this possible:

```
#include <iostream.h>
void repchar(); //declarations
void repchar(char);
void repchar(char, int);
int main()
{ repchar();
 repchar('=');
 repchar('+', 20);
 return 0;
ł
void repchar()
for(int j=0; j<45; j++)
cout << `*'; // always prints asterisk</pre>
cout << endl;
}
void repchar(char ch)
for(int j=0; j<45; j++) // always loops 45 times
cout << ch; // prints specified character
cout << endl;</pre>
}
// repchar()
// displays specified number of copies of specified character
```

\_\_\_\_\_

The compiler, seeing several functions with the same name but different numbers of arguments. Which one of these functions will be called depends on the number of arguments supplied in the call. Figure below shows this process:



### **5.3.3 Different Kinds of Arguments**

In the OVERLOAD example we created several functions with the same name but different numbers of arguments. The compiler can also distinguish between overloaded functions with the same number of arguments, provided their type is different. Here's a program, that uses an overloaded function to display a quantity in feet-and-inches format. The single argument to the function can be either a structure of type Distance or a simple variable of type float. Different functions are used depending on the type of argument.

#include <iostream.h>
struct Distance
{ int feet; float inches; };
void engldisp( Distance );
void engldisp( float );
int main()
{
Distance d1; float d2;

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```
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```

```
cout << "\nEnter feet: ";</pre>
cin >> d1.feet;
cout << "Enter inches: ";</pre>
cin >> d1.inches;
cout << "Enter distance in inches:";</pre>
cin >> d2;
cout << "\nd1 = ";
engldisp(d1);
cout << "\nd2 = ";
engldisp(d2);
cout << endl;</pre>
return 0;
}
void engldisp( Distance dd ) //parameter dd of type Distance
{ cout << dd.feet << "\'-" << dd.inches << "\""; }
void engldisp( float dd ) //parameter dd of type float
{
int feet = static_cast<int>(dd / 12):
float inches = dd - feet*12;
cout << feet << "\"-" << inches << "\"";
Here's some sample interaction with the program:
Enter feet: 5
Enter inches: 10.5
Enter entire distance in inches: 76.5
d1 = 5'-10.5"
d2 = 6'-4.5''
```

# 5.4 Scope and Storage Class

The scope of a variable determines which parts of the program can access it, and its storage class determines how long it stays in existence. Two different kinds of scope are important here: local and file.

• Variables with local scope are visible only within a block.

• Variables with file scope are visible throughout a file.

A block is the code between an opening brace and a closing brace. Thus a function body is a block.

There are two storage classes: automatic and static.

• Variables with storage class automatic exist during the lifetime of the function in which they're defined.

• Variables with storage class static exist for the lifetime of the program.

# **5.4.1 Local Variables**

All the variables we've used in example programs have been defined inside the function in which they are used: (That is, the definition occurs inside the braces that delimit the function body). void somefunc()

{ int somevar; //variables defined within the function body

float othervar;

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}

Variables may be defined inside main() or inside other functions; the effect is the same, since main() is a function. Variables defined within a function body are called local variables

because they have local scope. However, they are also sometimes called automatic variables, because they have the automatic storage class.

# 5.4.2 Scope

A variable's scope, also called visibility, describes the locations within a program from which it can be accessed. It can be referred to in statements in some parts of the program; but in others, attempts to access it lead to an unknown variable error message. The scope of a variable is that part of the program where the variable is visible. Variables defined within a function are only visible, meaning they can only be accessed, from within the function in which they are defined.

```
Suppose you have two functions in a program:
void somefunc()
{
int somevar; //local variables
float othervar;
somevar = 10; //OK
othervar = 11; //OK
nextvar = 12; //illegal: not visible in somefunc()
}
void otherfunc()
{
int nextvar; //local variable
somevar = 20; //illegal: not visible in otherfunc()
othervar = 21; //illegal: not visible in otherfunc()
nextvar = 22; //OK
}
```

The variable nextvar is invisible in function somefunc(), and the variables somevar and othervar are invisible in otherfunc().

# **5.4.3 Global Variables**

The next kind of variable is global. While local variables are defined within functions, global variables are defined outside of any function. A global variable is visible to all the functions in a file. More precisely, it is visible to all those functions that follow the variable's definition in the listing. Usually you want global variables to be visible to all functions, so you put their declarations at the beginning of the listing.

```
Here's a program, in which three functions all access a global variable.
// demonstrates global variables
#include <iostream.h>
#include <conio.h> //for getch()
char ch = 'a'; //global variable ch
void getachar();
void putachar();
int main()
{ while( ch != '\r' ) //main() accesses ch
{ getachar();
 putachar();
}
cout << endl;</pre>
return 0;
ł
void getachar() //getachar() accesses ch
{ ch = getch(); }
void putachar() //putachar() accesses ch
{ cout << ch; }
```

### 5.5 Fundamentals

This program, REPLAY, creates an array of four integers representing the ages of four people. It then asks the user to enter four values, which it places in the array. Finally, it displays all four values.

Here's a sample interaction with the program: Enter an age: 44 Enter an age: 16 Enter an age: 23 Enter an age: 68 You entered 44 You entered 16 You entered 23 You entered 68

## **5.5.1 Defining Arrays**



Syntax of array definition

## **5.5.2 Array Elements**

The items in an array are called elements (in contrast to the items in a structure, which are called members). As we noted, all the elements in an array are of the same type; only the values vary. Figure bellow shows the elements of the array age.



Array elements.

### **5.5.3 Accessing Array Elements**

In the REPLAY example we access each array element twice. The first time, we insert a value into the array, with the line cin >> age[j];

The second time, we read it out with the line

cout << "\nYou entered " << age[j];</pre>

In both cases the expression for the array element is age[j].This consists of the name of the array, followed by brackets delimiting a variable j. Which of the four array elements is specified by this expression depends on the value of j; age[0] refers to the first element, age[1] to the second, age[2] to the third, and age[3] to the fourth. The variable (or constant) in the brackets is called the array index.

### **5.5.4 Averaging Array Elements**

Here's another example of an array at work. This one, SALES, invites the user to enter a series of six values representing widget sales for each day of the week (excluding Sunday), and then calculates the average of these values. We use an array of type double so that monetary values can be entered.

// sales.cpp
// averages a weeks's widget sales (6 days)
#include <iostream.h>
int main()

const

#### {

```
const int SIZE = 6; //size of array
double sales[SIZE]; //array of 6 variables
cout << "Enter widget sales for 6 days\n";</pre>
for(int j=0; j<SIZE; j++) //put figures in array
cin >> sales[j];
double total = 0;
for(j=0; j<SIZE; j++) //read figures from array</pre>
total += sales[j]; //to find total
double average = total / SIZE; // find average
cout << "Average = " << average << endl;</pre>
return 0;}
Here's some sample interaction with SALES:
Enter widget sales for 6 days
352.64
867.70
781.32
867.35
746.21
189.45
Average = 634.11
A new detail in this program is the use of a const variable for the array size and
loop limits. This variable is defined at the start of the listing:
int SIZE = 6;
```

# 5.6 Arrays as Class Member Data

Arrays can be used as data items in classes. Let's look at an example that models a common computer data structure: the stack. A stack works like the spring-loaded devices that hold travs in cafeterias. When you put a tray on top, the stack sinks down a little; when you take a tray off, it pops up. The last tray placed on the stack is always the first tray removed.



### A stack

```
#include <iostream.h>
class Stack
{
private:
enum { MAX = 10 }; //(non-standard syntax)
int st[MAX]; //stack: array of integers
int top; //number of top of stack
public:
Stack() //constructor
\{ top = 0; \}
void push(int var) //put number on stack
{ st[++top] = var; }
int pop() //take number off stack
{ return st[top--]; }
};
int main()
{
Stack s1;
s1.push(11);
s1.push(22);
cout << "1: " << s1.pop() << endl; //22
cout << "2: " << s1.pop() << endl; //11
s1.push(33);
s1.push(44);
s1.push(55);
s1.push(66);
cout << "3: " << s1.pop() << endl; //66
cout << "4: " << s1.pop() << endl; //55
cout << "5: " << s1.pop() << endl; //44
cout << "6: " << s1.pop() << endl; //33
return 0;}
The size of the array used for the stack is specified by MAX, in the
statement
```

enum { MAX = 10 };

In keeping with the philosophy of encapsulation, it's preferable to define constants that will be used entirely within a class, as MAX is here, within the class. Thus the use of global const variables for this purpose is nonoptimal. Standard C++ mandates that we should be able to declare MAX within the class as static const int MAX = 10; This means that MAX is constant and applies to all objects in the class. Unfortunately, some compilers, including the current version of Microsoft Visual C++, do not allow this newly approved construction.

Here's the output:

1: 22 2: 11 3: 66 4: 55 5: 44

6: 33

## 5.6.1 Arrays of Objects

We've seen how an object can contain an array. We can also reverse that situation and create an array of objects. We'll look at two situations: an array of English distances and a deck of cards.

### **5.6.2 Arrays of English Distances**

The next program, ENGLARAY, demonstrates an array of such objects. #include <iostream.h> class Distance //English Distance class {private: int feet; float inches; public: void getdist() //get length from user {cout << "\n Enter feet: "; cin >> feet; cout << " Enter inches: "; cin >> inches;} void showdist() const //display distance { cout << feet << "\"-" << inches << '\""; } }; int main() {Distance dist[100]; //array of distances int n=0; //count the entries char ans; //user response ('y' or 'n') cout << endl; do { //get distances from user cout << "Enter distance number " << n+1;</pre> dist[n++].getdist(); //store distance in array cout << "Enter another (v/n)?: ";</pre> cin >> ans; } while( ans != 'n' ); //quit if user types 'n' for(int j=0; j<n; j++) //display all distances {cout << "\nDistance number " << j+1 << " is ";</pre> dist[j].showdist();} cout << endl;</pre> return 0; } Here's a sample interaction when the user enters three distances: **Enter distance number 1** Enter feet: 5 **Enter inches: 4** Enter another (y/n)? y **Enter distance number 2** 

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Enter feet: 6 Enter inches: 2.5 Enter another (y/n)? y Enter distance number 3 Enter feet: 5 Enter inches: 10.75 Enter another (y/n)? n Distance number 1 is 5'-4" Distance number 2 is 6'-2.5" Distance number 3 is 5'-10.75"

## 5.6.3 Accessing Objects in an Array

Here's how the showdist() member function of the jth element of the array dist is invoked: dist[j].showdist();

As you can see, a member function of an object that is an array element is accessed using the dot operator: The array name followed by the index in brackets is joined, using the dot operator, to the member function name followed by parentheses. This is similar to accessing a structure (or class) data member, except that the function name and parentheses are used instead of the data name. Notice that when we call the getdist() member function to put a distance into the array, we take the opportunity to increment the array index n: dist[n++]. getdist();



Array of objects.

### 5.7 String Variables

As with other data types, strings can be variables or constants. We'll look at these two entities before going on to examine more complex string operations. Here's an example that defines a single string variable. It asks the user to enter a string, and places this string in the string variable. Then it displays the string. Here's the listing for STRINGIN:

#include <iostream.h>
int main()
{const int MAX = 80; //max characters in string
char str[MAX]; //string variable str
cout << "Enter a string: ";
cin >> str; //put string in str
cout << "You entered: " << str << endl;
return 0;}</pre>

The definition of the string variable str looks like (and is) the definition of an array of type char:

char str[MAX];

We use the extraction operator >> to read a string from the keyboard and place it in the string variable str. This operator knows how to deal with strings; it understands that they are arrays of characters. If the user enters the string "Amanuensis" (one employed to copy manuscripts) in this program, the array str will look something like Figure bellow:



String stored in string variable.

# **5.7.1 String Constants**

You can initialize a string to a constant value when you define it. Here's an example, STRINIT,

### that does just that (with the first line of a Shakespearean sonnet):

#include <iostream.h>

int main()

{char str[] = "Farewell! thou art too dear for my possessing.";

```
cout << str << endl;
return 0;}</pre>
```

# **5.7.2 Reading Embedded Blanks**

If you tried the STRINGIN program with strings that contained more than one word, you may have had an unpleasant surprise. Here's an example:

Enter a string: Law is a bottomless pit.

You entered: Law

Wher/e did the rest of the phrase (a quotation from the Scottish writer John Arbuthnot, 1667–1735) go? It turns out that the extraction operator >> considers a space to be a terminating character. Thus it will read strings consisting of a single word, but anything typed after a space is thrown away. To read text containing blanks we use another function, cin.get(). This syntax means a member function get() of the stream class of which cin is an object. The following example, BLANKSIN, shows how it's used.

#include <iostream.h>
int main()
{
 const int MAX = 80; //max characters in string
 char str[MAX]; //string variable str
 cout << "\nEnter a string: ";
 cin.get(str, MAX); //put string in str
 cout << "You ontered: " << str << ond!;
}</pre>

cout << "You entered: " << str << endl; return 0; }

The first argument to cin::get() is the array address where the string being input will be placed. The second argument specifies the maximum size of the array, thus automatically avoiding buffer overrun. Using this function, the input string is now stored in its entirety.

Enter a string: Law is a bottomless pit.

You entered: Law is a bottomless pit.

# **5.8 Strings as Class Members**

Strings frequently appear as members of classes. The next example, uses a string to hold the name of the widget part.

// strpart.cpp
// string used in widget part object

#include <iostream.h>

#include <cstring.h> //for strcpy()

class part

{private:

char partname[30]; //name of widget part

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```
int partnumber; //ID number of widget part
double cost; //cost of part
public:
void setpart(char pname[], int pn, double c)
{strcpy(partname, pname);
partnumber = pn;
cost = c;
void showpart() //display data
{cout << "\nName=" << partname;</pre>
cout << ", number=" << partnumber;</pre>
cout << ", cost=$" << cost;}</pre>
};
int main()
{
part part1, part2;
part1.setpart("handle bolt", 4473, 217.55); //set parts
part2.setpart("start lever", 9924, 419.25);
cout << "\nFirst part: "; part1.showpart(); //show parts</pre>
cout << "\nSecond part: "; part2.showpart();</pre>
cout << endl;</pre>
return 0;
}
```

This program defines two objects of class part and gives them values with the setpart() member function. Then it displays them with the showpart() member function. Here's the output:

```
First part:
Name=handle bolt, number=4473, cost=$217.55
Second part:
Name=start lever, number=9924, cost=$419.25
```