

C++ Overview

C++ Techniques

Relevant techniques include:

1. C++ classes, with *private* and *public* members
2. Function and operator name overloading to give "natural" function calls
3. Templates to allow the same code to be used on a variety of different data types
4. A clean built-in I/O interface, which itself involves overloading the input and output operators

Learning these techniques is much of what C++ is all about.

Outline

1. **Classes : constructors, destructors, clean interface**
2. **Default arguments**
3. **Function and operator overloading**
4. **Use of `const`**
5. **Rule of three: copy constructor, assignment, destructor**
6. **Templates: function and class templates**
7. **C++ Error Handling**
8. **STL: `vector` class**

Constructors

- A constructor is a method that executes when an object of a class is declared and sets the initial state of the new object.
- A constructor
 - has the same name with the class,
 - no return type
 - has zero or more parameters (the constructor without an argument is the *default constructor*)
- There may be more than one constructor defined for a class.
- If no constructor is explicitly defined, one that initializes the data members using language defaults is automatically generated.

Class syntax - Example

```
// A class for simulating an integer memory cell


class IntCell
{
    public:
        IntCell( )
        { storedValue = 0; }

        IntCell(int initialValue )
        { storedValue = initialValue; }

        int read( )
        { return storedValue; }

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

    private:
        int storedValue;
};
```



constructors

Extra Constructor Syntax

```
// A class for simulating an integer memory cell
```

```
class IntCell
```

```
{
```

```
    public:
```

```
        IntCell( int initialValue = 0 )
```

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

} Single
constructor
(instead of
two)

```
    int read( )
```

```
        { return storedValue; }
```

```
    void write( int x )
```

```
        { storedValue = x; }
```

```
    private:
```

```
        int storedValue;
```

```
};
```

Destructor

- Performs termination housekeeping before the system reclaims the object's memory
- Complement of the constructor
- An **automatic default destructor** is added to your class if no other destructor is defined.
- The only action of the automatic default destructor is to call the default destructor of all member objects.

Automatic Default Destructor

A destructor should never be called directly. Instead, it is automatically called when the object's memory is being reclaimed by the system:

- If the object is on the **stack**, when the function returns
- If the object is on the **heap**, when **delete** is used

Custom Destructor

To add custom behavior to the end-of-life of the function, a custom destructor can be defined:

- A custom destructor is a member function.
- Its name is tilde (~) followed by the class name
 - e.g. `~IntCell () ;`
`~Cube () ;`
- Receives no parameters, returns no value
- One destructor per class.

Custom destructor

A custom destructor is essential when an object allocates an external resource that must be closed or freed when the object is destroyed. Examples:

- Heap memory
- Open files

Custom Destructor Example

```
class IntCell{
    public:
        IntCell(int initialValue=0){
            storedValue = new int (initialValue);
        }
        ~IntCell() {
            delete storedValue;
        }
        int read( ){
            return *storedValue;
        }
        void write( int x ){
            *storedValue = x;
        }
    private:
        int *storedValue;
}
```

Separation of Interface and Implementation

- Large-scale projects put the interface and implementation of classes in different files.
 - For small amount of coding it may not matter.
- *Header File*: contains the interface of a class. Usually ends with `.h` (an include file)
- *Source-code file*: contains the implementation of a class. Usually ends with `.cpp`
 - `.cpp` file includes the `.h` file with the **preprocessor** command `#include`.
 - Example: `#include "myclass.h"`

C++ header file (.h)

It defines the interface to the class, which includes the declaration of **all** member variables and functions.

```
#ifndef _IntCell_H_
#define _IntCell_H_

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

IntCell class Interface in the file *IntCell.h*

C++ Implementation File (.cpp)

It contains the code to implement the class (or other C++ code)

```
#include <iostream>
#include "IntCell.h"
using std::cout;

//Construct the IntCell with initialValue
IntCell::IntCell( int initialValue)
    : storedValue( initialValue) {}

//Return the stored value.
int IntCell::read( ) const
{
    return storedValue;
}

//Store x.
void IntCell::write( int x )
{
    storedValue = x;
}
```

Scope operator ::
ClassName :: member



A client program

```
#include <iostream>
#include "IntCell.h"
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    IntCell m;    // or IntCell m(0);

    m.write (5);
    cout << "Cell content : " << m.read() << endl;

    return 0;
}
```

A program that uses `IntCell` in file *TestIntCell.cpp*

Another Example: Complex Class

```
#ifndef _Complex_H
#define _Complex_H

using namespace std;
class Complex
{
    float re, im; // by default private
public:
    Complex(float x = 0, float y = 0)
        : re(x), im(y) { }

    Complex operator*(Complex rhs);
    float modulus();
    void print();
};

#endif
```


Implementation of Complex Class

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cmath>
#include "Complex.h"

Complex Complex::operator*(Complex rhs)
{
    Complex prod;
    prod.re = (re*rhs.re - im*rhs.im);
    prod.im = (re*rhs.im + im*rhs.re);
    return prod;
}

float Complex::modulus()
{
    return sqrt(re*re + im*im);
}

void Complex::print()
{
    std::cout << "(" << re << "," << im << ")" << std::endl;
}
```

Using the class in a client program

```
#include <iostream>
#include "Complex.h"
int main()
{
    Complex c1, c2(1), c3(1,2);
    float x;
    // overloaded * operator!!
    c1 = c2 * c3 * c2;

    // mistake! The compiler will stop here, since the
    // re and im parts are private.
    x = sqrt(c1.re*c1.re + c1.im*c1.im);

    // OK. Now we use an authorized public function
    x = c1.modulus();

    c1.print();
    return 0;
}
```

A program that uses Complex in file *TestComplex.cpp*

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8. **STL: **vector** class**

Default Arguments

- In C++, functions can have default arguments
- This is specified in the function declaration;

```
int foo(int x = 1, int y = 2, int z = 3);
```

```
foo(); // all parameters use the default value
```

```
foo(5); // y and z use the default value
```

```
foo(5,8); // z uses the default value
```

```
foo(5,8,9); // default values are not used
```

Default Arguments

- Note that it is impossible to supply a user-defined value for z without also supplying a value for x and y. That is the following does not work:

```
foo(,,9); // compile error
```

- For this reason the default parameters must be the rightmost ones:

```
int foo(int x = 1, int y = 2, int z); // WRONG  
int foo(int z, int x = 1, int y = 2); // CORRECT
```

Function Overloading

- Functions with same name and different parameters
- Overloaded functions should perform similar tasks (otherwise it would be confusing):
- Function to square `ints` and function to square `floats`

```
int square( int x) {return x * x;}
```

```
float square(float x) { return x * x;}
```

- Compiler chooses based on the actual parameter types:

```
square(4); // calls the integer version
```

```
square(4.0f); // calls the float version
```

Function Overloading

- Functions that only differ by return type cannot be overloaded:

```
int square(int x);  
float square(int x); // Compile error
```

Overloaded Operators

- An operator with more than one meaning is said to be *overloaded*.

$2 + 3$ $3.1 + 3.2$ \rightarrow $+$ is an overloaded operator

- To enable a particular operator to operate correctly on instances of a class, we may define a new meaning for the operator.
 \rightarrow we may overload it

Operator Overloading

- Operator overloading allows us to use existing operators for user-defined classes.
- The following operators can be overloaded:

+	-	*	/	%	^	&	
~	!	,	=		=		
++	--	<<	>>	==	!=	&&	
+=	-=	/=	%=	^=	&=	=	*=
<<=	>>=	[]	()	->	->*	new	delete

- Note that the precedence, associativity, and arity of the operators cannot be changed!

Operator Overloading

- Format
 - Write function definition as normal
 - Function name is keyword **operator** followed by the symbol for the operator being overloaded.
 - `operator+` would be used to overload the addition operator (+)
- No new operators can be created
 - Use only existing operators
- Built-in types
 - Cannot overload operators
 - You cannot change how two integers are added

Overloaded Operators -- Example

What if we want to multiply a complex number with a scalar?
Define another function with the same name but different parameters.

```
class Complex
{
    ...

    Complex operator*(Complex rhs) const;
    Complex operator*(float k) const;

    ...
};
```

Implementation of Complex Class

```
Complex Complex::operator*(Complex rhs) const
{
    Complex prod;
    prod.re = (re*rhs.re - im*rhs.im);
    prod.im = (re*rhs.im + im*rhs.re);
    return prod;
}
```

```
Complex Complex::operator*(float k) const
{
    Complex prod;
    prod.re = re * k;
    prod.im = im * k;
    return prod;
}
```

Using the class in a Driver File

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

int main()
{
    Complex c1, c2(1), c3(1,2);

    c1 = c2 * c3 * c2;
    c1.print();

    c1 = c1 * 5; // translated to c1.operator*(5)
    c1.print();

    // How about this?
    c1 = 5 * c1; // CANNOT translate to 5.operator*(c1)

    return 0;
}
```

A program that uses Complex in file *TestComplex.cpp*

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const keyword in C++

- Constant is something that doesn't change.
- In C language and C++ we use the keyword `const` to make program elements constant.
- `const` keyword can be used in many contexts in a C++ program. It can be used with:
 - Variables
 - Pointers
 - Function arguments and return types
 - Class Data members
 - Class Member functions
 - Objects

Example uses of keyword `const`

We may encounter `const` in the following cases:

1. Const reference parameter:

```
Complex operator*(const Complex& rhs);
```

In this case it means the parameter cannot be modified in the function.

2. Const member function:

```
Complex operator*(Complex& rhs) const;
```

In this case it means the function cannot modify class members.

3. Const object/variable:

```
const Complex c1(3, 4);
```

In this case it means the object cannot be modified.

Pointers with `const` keyword in C++

- Either we can make the pointer itself a constant or we can apply `const` to what the pointer is pointing to.
- E.g. constant pointer:

```
int * const p = &i; // must be initialized
*p = 6; // it is O.K.
p = &j;    // NOT O.K.
```

Pointer to a `const` variable

- E.g. making what the pointer is pointing to, constant :

```
int i;
```

```
const int * p = &i;
```

```
*p = 6;  // it is NOT O.K., because i is  
          //treated as constant when accessed by p.
```

- However, it can be changed independently:

```
i = 6;  // It is O.K.
```

- It is also possible to declare a `const` pointer to a constant value:

```
const int n = 5;
```

```
const int * const p = &n;
```

const Reference

- A `const` reference will not let you change the value it references:

- Example:

```
int n = 5;  
const int & rn = n;
```

```
rn = 6;    // error!!
```

- `const` reference is like a `const` pointer to a `const` object.

Parameter Passing

- **Call by value**
 - Copy of data passed to function
 - Changes to copy do not change original
- **Call by reference**
 - Uses &
 - Avoids a copy and allows changes to the original
- **Call by constant reference**
 - Uses `const&`
 - Avoids a copy and guarantees that actual parameter will not be changed

Example

```
int squareByValue( int ); // pass by value
void squareByReference( int & ); // pass by reference
int squareByConstReference ( const int & ); // const ref.
```

Example (cont.)

```
int squareByValue( int a ){  
    return a *= a;    // caller's argument not modified  
}
```

```
void squareByReference( int &a ){  
    a *= a;    // caller's argument modified  
}
```

```
int squareByConstReference (const int& a ){  
    // a *= a;    not allowed (compiler error)  
    return a * a;  
}
```

Example

```
int squareByValue( int ); // pass by value
void squareByReference( int & ); // pass by reference
int squareByConstReference ( const int & ); // const ref.

int main()
{   int x = 2, z = 4, r1, r2;

    r1 = squareByValue(x);
    squareByReference( z );
    r2 = squareByConstReference(x);

    cout << "x = " << x << " z = " << z << endl;
    cout << "r1 = " << r1 << " r2 = " << r2 << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

Improving the Complex Class

```
#ifndef _Complex_H
#define _Complex_H

using namespace std;
class Complex
{
    float re, im; // by default private
public:
    Complex(float x = 0, float y = 0)
        : re(x), im(y) { }

    Complex operator*(const Complex& rhs) const;
    float modulus() const;
    void print() const;
};

#endif
```


Improving the Complex Class

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cmath>
#include "Complex.h"

Complex Complex::operator*(const Complex& rhs) const
{
    Complex prod;
    prod.re = (re*rhs.re - im*rhs.im);
    prod.im = (re*rhs.im + im*rhs.re);
    return prod;
}

float Complex::modulus() const
{
    return sqrt(re*re + im*im);
}

void Complex::print() const
{
    std::cout << "(" << re << ", " << im << ")" <<
    std::endl;
}
```

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Rule of Three

- Whenever you need to define
 - a copy constructor,
 - assignment operator, or
 - the destructor,you must define all three of them
- This is known as the rule of three
- In general, for every class that contains pointer members you must define all three functions

Copy Constructor

- In C++, a **copy constructor** is a special constructor that exists to make a copy of an existing object.

Object:



Automatic Copy constructor

- If we do not provide a custom copy constructor, the C++ compiler provides an **automatic default copy constructor** for our class for free!
- The automatic copy constructor will copy the contents of all member variables.
 - Note that compiler provided copy constructor performs *member-wise copying* of the elements of the class (i.e. **Shallow copy**).

Custom Copy Constructor

A custom copy constructor is:

- A class constructor
- Has exactly one argument
 - The argument must be const reference of the same type as the class.

Example:

```
IntCell(const IntCell & obj)
```

- Note that the parameter must be a const reference.

Copy Constructor Invocation

Often, copy constructors are invoked automatically:

- Passing an object as a parameter (by value)
- Returning an object from a function (by value)
- Initializing a new object

Example

```
//The following is a copy constructor  
//for Complex class. Since it is same  
//as the compiler's default copy  
//constructor for this class, it is  
//actually redundant.
```

```
Complex::Complex(const Complex & C )  
{  
    re = C.re;  
    im = C.im;  
}
```


Another Example

```
class MyString
{
    public:
        MyString(const char* s = "");
        MyString(const MyString& s);
        ...
    private:
        char* str;
        int length;
};
```

Example (cont.)

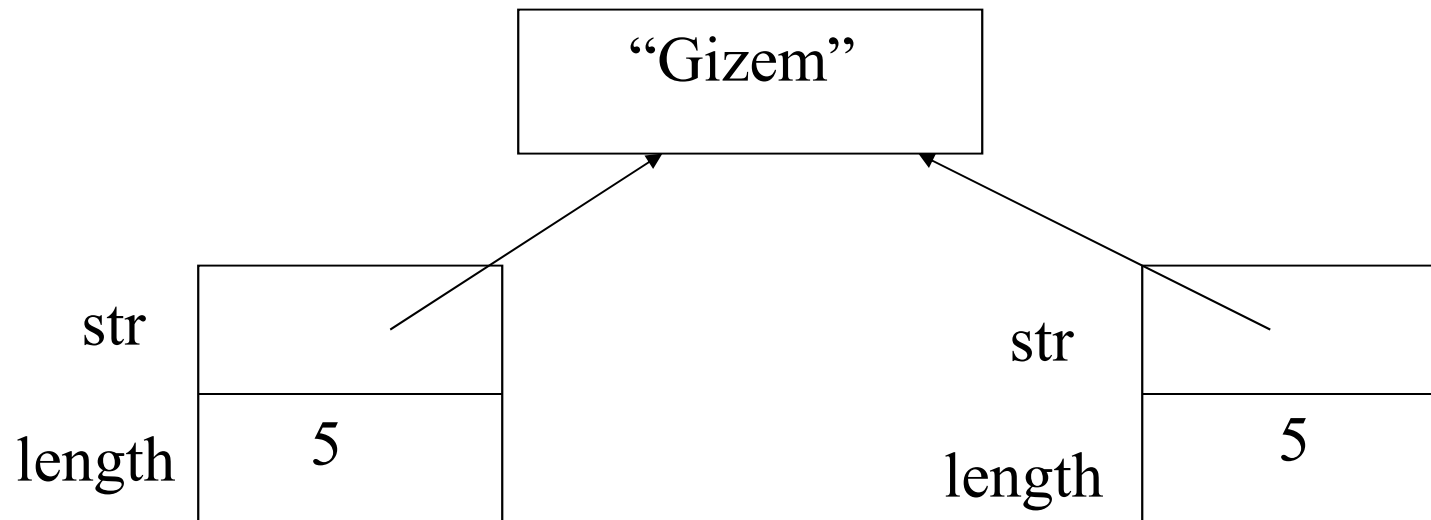
```
MyString::MyString(const MyString& s)
{
    length = s.length;
    str = new char[length + 1];
    strcpy(str, s.str);
}
```

- What is the compiler's default copy constructor?

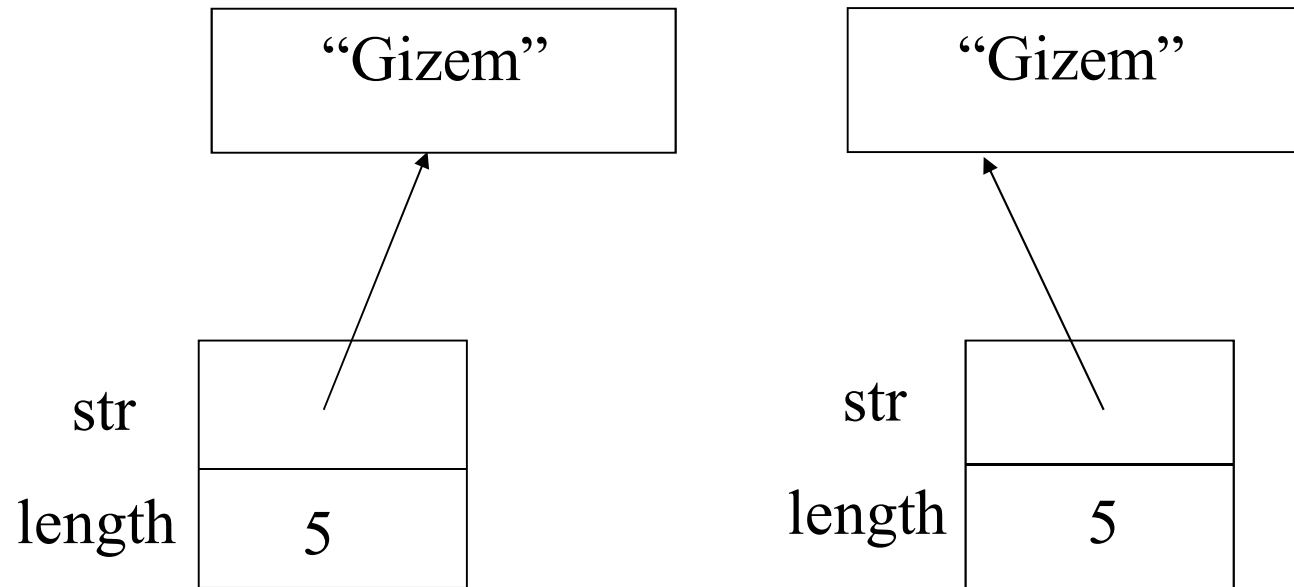
Shallow versus Deep copy

- Shallow copy is a copy of pointers rather than data being pointed at.
- A deep copy is a copy of the data being pointed at rather than the pointers.

Shallow copy: only pointers are copied



Deep copy: the actual data are copied



Deep copy semantics

- How to write the copy constructor in a class that has dynamically allocated memory:
 1. Dynamically allocate memory for data of the calling object.
 2. Copy the data values from the passed-in parameter into corresponding locations in the new memory belonging to the calling object.
 3. A constructor which does these tasks is called a *deep copy constructor*.

Calling the copy constructor

- Automatically called:

```
A x(y);    // Where y is of type A.  
f(x);      // A copy constructor is called  
           // for value parameters.  
x = g();    // A copy constructor is called  
           // for value returns.
```

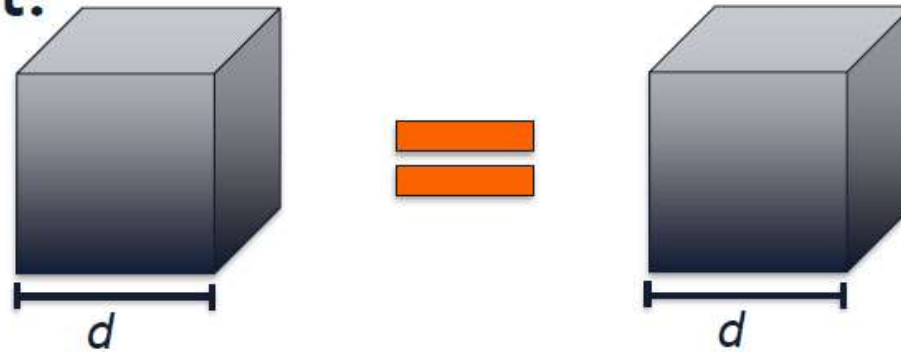
- More examples:

```
MyObject a;           // default constructor call  
MyObject b(a);        // copy constructor call  
MyObject bb = a;      // identical to bb(a) : copy  
                      // constructor call  
MyObject c;           // default constructor call  
c = a;                // assignment operator call
```

Assignment operator

- In C++, an **assignment operator** defines the behavior when an object is copied using the assignment operator `=`.

Object:



Copy Constructor vs Assignment

A copy constructor **creates a new object** (constructor).

An assignment operator assigns a **value to an existing object**.

- An assignment operator is always called on an object that has already been constructed.

Automatic Assignment Operator

If an assignment operator is not provided, the C++ compiler provides an automatic assignment operator.

The automatic assignment operator will copy the contents of all member variables.

- **by default - memberwise copy :**
 - Sets variables equal, i.e., $x = y$;
 - Memberwise copy — member by member copy

`myObject1 = myObject2;`
- This is *shallow copy*.

Custom Assignment Operator

A custom assignment operator is:

- Is a public member function of the class.
- Has the function name **operator=**.
- Has a return value of a reference of the class' type.
- Has exactly one argument
- The argument must be constreference of the class' type.

Example:

```
IntCell & operator=(const IntCell & obj )
```

Deep vs Shallow Assignment

- Same kind of issues arise in the assignment.
- For shallow assignments, the default assignment operator is OK.
- For deep assignments, you have to write your own *overloaded* assignment operator (`operator=`)
 - The copy constructor is not called when doing an object-to-object assignment.

this Pointer

- Each class object has a pointer which automatically points to itself. The pointer is identified by the keyword `this`.
- Another way to think of this is that each member function has an implicit first parameter; that parameter is `this`, the pointer to the object calling that function.

Example: overloading operator=

```
// defining an overloaded assignment operator
Complex & Complex::operator=(const Complex & rhs )
{
    // don't assign to yourself!
    if ( this != &rhs )    // note the "address of" rhs
    {
        this -> Re = rhs.Re; // correct but redundant
                             // it means Re = rhs.Re
        this -> Imag = rhs.Imag;
    }
    return *this;          // return the calling class object
                           // enables cascading
}
```

Another Example

```
MyString& MyString::operator=(const MyString& rhs)
{
    if (this != &rhs) {
        delete[] this->str; // donate back useless memory

        this->length = rhs.length;

        // allocate new memory
        this->str = new char[this->length + 1];

        strcpy(this->str, rhs.str); // copy characters
    }
    return *this;    // return self-reference
}
```

Copy constructor and assignment operator

- Note that the copy constructor is called when a **new** object is being created
- The assignment operator is called when an **existing** object is assigned to a new state.

```
class MyObject {
public:
    MyObject();           // Default constructor
    MyObject(const MyObject &a); // Copy constructor
    MyObject& operator=(const MyObject& a) // Assignment op.
};

MyObject a;              // constructor called
MyObject b = a;          // copy constructor called
b = a;                   // assignment operator called
```


Destructor

- For classes with pointers we also need to define a destructor to avoid memory leaks

```
class MyString {  
    public:  
        MyString(const char* s = "");  
        MyString(const MyString& s);  
        ~MyString(); // destructor  
        MyString& operator=(const MyString& s);  
        ...  
    private:  
        int length;  
        char* str;  
};
```

Destructor

- For classes with pointers we also need to define a destructor to avoid memory leaks

```
MyString::~~MyString()  
{  
    delete[] str;  
}
```

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Templates

- Templates allow us to write routines that work for arbitrary types without having to know what these types will be.
- Two types of templates:
 - Function templates
 - Class templates

Function Templates

- A function template **is not an actual function**; instead it is a design (or pattern) for a function.
- The compiler creates the actual function based on the actual types used in the program.

```
// swap function template.  
  
template < class T>  
void swap( T &lhs, T &rhs )  
{  
    T tmp = lhs;  
    lhs = rhs;  
    rhs = tmp;  
}
```

The `swap` function template

Using a template

- Instantiation of a template with a particular type, logically creates a new function.
- Only one instantiation is created for each parameter-type combination.

```
int main()
{
    int x = 5, y = 7;
    double a = 2, b = 4;
    swap(x,y); //instanties an int version of swap
    swap(x,y); //uses the same instantiation
    swap(a,b); //instantiates a double version of swap

    cout << x << " " << y << endl;
    cout << a << " " << b << endl;

    // swap(x, b); // Illegal: no match
    return 0;
}
```

Class templates

- Class templates are used to define generic classes:
 - e.g. it may be possible to use a class that defines several operations on a collection of integers to manipulate a collection of real numbers.

```
template <class T>
class TemplateTest
{
    // this class can use T as a generic type
    public:
        void f(T a);
        T g();
        ...
    private:
        T x, y, z;
        ...
};
```

Implementation

- Each member function must be declared as a template.
- All member functions must be implemented in the **header file** (so that the compiler can find their definition and replace “T” with the actual parameter type)

```
// Typical member implementation.  
template <class T>  
void TemplateTest<T>::f(T a)  
{  
    // Member body  
}
```


Object declarations using template classes

Form:

class-name <*type*> *an-object*;

Interpretation:

- *Type* may be any defined data type. *Class-name* is the name of a template class. The object *an-object* is created when the arguments specified between < > replace their corresponding parameters in the template class.

Example

```
// Memory cell interface (MemoryCell.h)
```

```
template <class T>
class MemoryCell
{
    public:
        MemoryCell(const T& initVal = T());
        const T& read( ) const;
        void write(const T& x);

    private:
        T storedValue;
};
```

Class template implementation

```
// Implementation of class members as template functions
```

```
template <class T>
MemoryCell<T>::MemoryCell(const T& initVal) :
    storedValue(initVal) { }
```

```
template <class T>
const T& MemoryCell<T>::read() const
{
    return storedValue;
}
```

```
template <class T>
void MemoryCell<T>::write(const T& x)
{
    storedValue = x;
}
```

A simple test routine

```
int main()
{
    MemoryCell<int> m; // instantiate int version
    MemoryCell<float> f; // instantiate float version
    MemoryCell<int> m2; // use the previously created class

    m.write(5);
    m2.write(6);
    f.write(3.5);
    cout << "Cell content: " << m.read() << endl;
    cout << "Cell content: " << m2.read() << endl;
    cout << "Cell content: " << f.read() << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

Outline

1. Classes : constructors, destructors, clean interface
2. Default arguments
3. Function and operator overloading
4. Use of const
5. Rule of three: copy constructor, assignment, destructor
6. Templates: function and class templates
7. **C++ Error Handling**
8. **STL: `vector` class**

C++ Error Handling

- In C, errors are reported by returning error codes from functions:

```
int read(const char* filename, char data[])
{
    FILE* fp = fopen(filename, "r");
    if (fp == NULL)
        return -1; // indicate error

    // read file contents into data
    ...
}
```

C++ Error Handling

- In C++, we have a more advanced mechanism called **exceptions**
- It uses three keywords: **throw**, **catch**, **try**
- The function that encounters an error throws an exception:

```
int read(const char* filename, char data[])
{
    FILE* fp = fopen(filename, "r");
    if (fp == NULL)
        throw "file open error"; // indicate error

    // otherwise read file contents into data
    ...
}
```

C++ Error Handling

- This exception must be caught, otherwise the program will abnormally terminate:

```
int main()
{
    char data[128];
    try {
        read("test.txt", data);
        ... // possibly some other code
    }
    catch(const char* error) {
        // if read function throws an exception,
        // program will continue executing from here
        cout << "Error message: " << error << endl;
    }
}
```


C++ Error Handling

- Note that we throw an object or a variable, and we catch an object or a variable. These types should match for the exception to be caught
- In the previous example we threw a `const char*` and caught a `const char*`, so it was correct

Another Example

- We can also throw an object of a user defined class:

```
class FileReadError
{
};

int read(const char* filename, char data[])
{
    FILE* fp = fopen(filename, "r");
    if (fp == NULL)
        throw FileReadError(); // indicate error

    // read file contents into data
    ...
}
```

C++ Error Handling

- Then we must update the catch code as well:

```
int main()
{
    char data[128];
    try {
        read("test.txt", data);
    }
    catch (FileReadError error) {
        // if read throws an exception,
        // we will come here
    }
}
```

C++ Error Handling

- There are many details of exception handling
- In this class, you should only know that the destructors of the local objects will be called when an exception is thrown:

```
class A {
public:
    ~A() { cout << "destructor called" << endl; }
};

int read(const char* filename, char data[]) {
    A a;
    FILE* fp = fopen(filename, "r");
    if (fp == NULL)
        throw "file open error"; // a's destructor will be called
    ...
}
```

Standard Template Library

- I/O Facilities: `iostream`
- Garbage-collected `String` class
- Containers
 - `vector`, `list`, `queue`, `stack`, `map`, `set`
- Numerical
 - `complex`
- General algorithms
 - `search`, `sort`

Using the vector

- Vector: Dynamically growing, shrinking array of elements
- To use it include library header file:

```
#include <vector>
```

- Vectors are declared as

```
vector<int> a(4); //a vector called a,  
                //containing four integers  
vector<int> b(4, 3); //a vector of four  
                // elements, each initialized to 3.  
vector<int> c;    // 0 int objects
```

- The elements of an integer vector behave just like ordinary integer variables

```
a[2] = 45;
```

Manipulating vectors

- The **size()** member function returns the number of elements in the vector.
`a.size()` returns a value of 4.
- The **operator=** can be used to assign one vector to another.
- e.g. `v1 = v2`, so long as they are vectors of the same type.
- The **push_back()** member function allows you to add elements to the end of a vector.

push_back() and pop_back()

```
vector<int> v;  
v.push_back(3);  
v.push_back(2);  
// v[0] is 3, v[1] is 2, v.size() is 2  
v.pop_back();  
int t = v[v.size()-1];  
v.pop_back();
```