

# C++

## C++ for Fortran programmers

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# C++

## Part 0: C++ Syntax: Basics

# C++

- C++ is a compiled programming language, like Fortran.
- It contains a range of very similar data types, control statements, and input/output facilities.
- It also includes a range of modern programming features, in particular:
  - Dynamic memory allocation (F90)
  - Namespaces
  - **Object orientation**

# C++

```
integer i
real n, s, t
n = 3.0

s = 1.0
10 continue
    t = s
    s = (t+n/t)/2.0
if (abs(s-t).lt.0.01) goto 10

write (*,*)s
```

```
int i;
float n, s, t;
n = 3.0;

s = 1.0;
loop:
    t = s;
    s = (t+n/t)/2.0;
if (abs(s-t)<0.01) goto loop;

std::cout << s;
```

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- Basic concepts (variables etc.) very similar:
  - Types have different names.
  - In C++, statements separated by ';', not newline.
  - 'goto' is labelled. (But this is the last time you'll see it!)

# C++

```
real mat(3,3),x(3),y(3)
integer i,j

C  initialise mat
C  initialise x

do i = 1,3
  y(i) = 0.0
  do j = 1,3
    y(i) = y(i) + mat(i,j)*x(j)
  enddo
enddo
```

```
float mat[3][3],x[3],y[3]; C++
int i,j;

// initialise mat
// initialise x

for ( i=0; i<3; i++ ) {
  y[i] = 0.0;
  for ( j=0; j<3; j++ ) {
    y[i] = y[i] + mat[i][j]*x[j];
  }
}
```

- C/C++ arrays are different:
  - Indices in '[' ]'
  - Indices start at zero.
  - Only 1-d, but for multidimensional use an array of arrays!
- Loop syntax different, loop body enclosed in '{ }'.
- Comments use //

# C++

- Built in types:

real	float	C++
double precision	double	
integer	int	
character, character()	char, char[]	
complex	but also std::string std::complex	
logical	bool	

The built in types are very similar.

But in addition to the built in types, C++ has a library called STL of much richer extensions: `std::*`,

for example strings, complex numbers, *resizable arrays*.

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- Built in types: One *big* difference:
  - In C++ (not C), variables may be declared at any point in a function. It is normal not to declare a variable until you are about to use it. (Improves readability, saves memory)
  - Variables stay in scope until the end of the block ( '{ ... }' ) in which they were declared. This can be a function, or the body of a loop/conditional, or just a self contained group of statements.

Note also: we can initialise on declaration.

```
int i = 9;
{
    int j;
    j = i; //ok
}
i = j; //error
```

# C++

- Control statements: 'if'

```
if ( ... ) statement
```

```
if ( ... ) then
```

```
    statements
```

```
else
```

```
    statements
```

```
endif
```

C++

```
if ( ... ) statement;
```

```
if ( ... ) statement;
```

```
else      statement;
```

Conditionals are similar, but in C/C++, only one statement (ending with ';') follows the condition. Hence no 'endif'.

How do we handle conditions containing multiple statements?

*Wherever you can use a single statement, you can also use a list of statements enclosed in '{ }'.*



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- Control statements: 'if'

```
if ( i.lt.0 ) i = 0
```

```
if ( i.gt.6 ) then  
    i = 0  
    j = 1  
endif
```

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```
if ( i < 0 ) i = 0;
```

```
if ( i > 6 ) {  
    i = 0;  
    j = 1;  
}
```

Note also that the conditions are different:

Beware:

'=' for assignment

'==' for comparison

You will get this wrong!

.lt.

.gt.

.ne.

.eq.

<

>

!=

==

# C++

- Control statements: **'for'**

```
do i=1,n  
  statement  
enddo
```

```
do i=1,n  
  statement  
  statement  
enddo
```

```
for (i=1;i<=n;i++) C++  
  statement;
```

```
for (i=1;i<=n;i++) {  
  statement;  
  statement;  
}
```

Basic loop syntax very different, but it follows the same rules as 'if' for the contents:

The loop contains one statement, which may be

- a simple statement followed by ';' or
- a compound statement in '{ }'.

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- Control statements: **'for'**

Do this between each iteration of the loop  
Do the loop as long as this is true  
Do this before the loop starts

```
for ( i = 1; i <= n; i++ )
```

Note: 'i++'

is shorthand for 'i += 1',

which is shorthand for 'i = i + 1'

In C/C++ we usually count from zero, hence:

```
for ( i = 0; i < n; i++ )
```

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- Control statements: other loops

```
10  if (!cond) goto 20
    statement
    goto 10
20  continue

10  statement
    if (cond) goto 10
```

```
while ( condition ) {
    ...
}

do {
    ...
} while ( condition )
```

Note:

'do' and 'while' loops also available.

Can use for single statements or blocks.

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- Control statements: **'break'**

```
do i = 0,n-1
  ...
  if (err) goto 20
  ...
enddo
20 continue
```

```
for ( i=0; i<n; i++ ) {
  ...
  if (err) break;
  ...
}
```

A 'break' statement breaks out of the nearest loop (for/do/while) above it.  
(It ignores any intervening non-loop blocks).

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- Operators and functions:
  - Most operators are the same.
  - Especially:
    - Parentheses
    - Precedence.
    - Trig and log functions.

+	+
-	-
*	*
/	/
f**g	pow(x,y)
mod(i,j)	i%j
mod(f,g)	mod(f,g)
.lt.	<
.le.	<=
.gt.	>
.ge.	>=
.ne.	!=
.eq.	==
.and.	&&
.or.	
.not.	!
abs(i)	abs(i)
abs(f)	fabs(f)

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- Arrays:
  - C++ arrays indexed from 0
  - Declare and index with '[' ]'
  - Multidimensional arrays are arrays of arrays.
- But:
  - In C++, we only use arrays for special purposes where we know size is fixed. Otherwise we use more flexible objects.

```
integer i(3)  
real m(10,10)  
character c(20)
```

```
i(3) = i(1)  
m(1,1) = 1.0
```

```
int i[3];  
float m[10][10];  
char c[20];
```

```
i[2] = i[0];  
m[0][0] = 1.0;
```

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- **Functions:**

```
integer function fact(n)
integer n
integer i, j
j = 1
do i = 2, n
    j = j * i
enddo
fact = j
return
end
```

```
int fact(int n)
{
    int i, j;
    j = 1;
    for (i=2; i<=n; i++) {
        j = j * i;
    }

    return j;
}
```

- Define argument types in the function definition.
- Enclose the body of the function in '{ }'.
- Use 'return' to return result (if any).
  - Arguments are copied – the function cannot change them in the calling program (in general).



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- Functions: (Subroutines)

```
subroutine fact(n,m)
integer n,m
integer i
m = 1
do i = 2,n
    m = m * i
enddo
return
end
```

```
void fact(int n, int& m)
{
    int i;
    m = 1;
    for (i=2;i<=n;i++) {
        m = m * i;
    }
}
```

- This is an ugly example!
- If there is no return value, return type is 'void'.
- You can pass arguments to be modified by adding '&' after the type.  
i.e. Don't copy the value, just pass a reference to it.

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- Functions: (Subroutines)

```
void fact(int n, int& m)
```

```
void fact(const int& n, int& m)
```

- We can pass a reference even when we don't want to return something through it.
- The keyword 'const' indicates it will not be changed.
- We passing a complex *object* (rather than a variable), passing a 'const' reference saves a lot of copying.

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- Input/Output:

```
integer x
character s(20)
write (*,*)s, " scored ",x
```

```
int x;
char s[20];
std::cout << s << " scored " << x;
```

- `std::cout` does free format output.
- `std::cin` (using '>>') does free format input.
- Use `#include <iostream>` at the start of the program.

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- Formatted Input/Output:

```
integer x
character s(20)
write (*,10)s,x
10 format (a20," scored ",i4)
```

```
int x;
char s[20];
printf("%20c scored %4i \n",x,s);
```

- '\n' means 'new line'. You can put it in any string.
- Use '#include <stdio>' at the start of the program.

# C++

- Main program:

```
program myprog
```

```
...
```

```
stop
```

```
end
```

```
int main( int argc, char** argv ) {
```

```
...
```

```
}
```

- In C/C++, we write a function called 'main'.
- It receives parameters from the OS, which are the number of command line arguments, and the array of arguments.

# C++

- Main program:

```
#include <iostream>

int main( int argv, char** argc ) {
    for ( int i = 0; i < argv; i++ )
        std::cout << argc[i] << "\n";
}
```

- We won't go into the 'char\*\*' notation, but it translates roughly as 'char argc[][]'.
- This program prints out a list of all the command line arguments.

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- Putting it all together:
  - Write a program which makes a table of numbers with their factorials.
  - Just add one more technique: since we can define variables anywhere, we can define a loop variable in the 'for' statement.

# C++

- Putting it all together:

```
#include <iostream>

int fact(int n)
{
    int j = 1;
    for ( int i=2; i<=n; i++ )
        j = j * i;
    return j;
}

int main( int argc, char** argv ) {
    for ( int i=1; i<=10; i++ )
        std::cout << i << " factorial is "
                    << fact(i) << "\n";
}
```



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## Other features:

- C/C++ have other features, which we will avoid using:
  - Pointers: Refer to a variable by its address in memory.
    - `int *x; float *y;`
  - Memory allocation:
    - C-style (malloc/free)
    - C++-style (new/delete)
- C++ is a huge language, with several ways of doing anything. We are focusing on a small, well defined, modern subset, based on the standard library STL.

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## Part 1: C++ Syntax: Advanced concepts

# C++

## Namespaces:

- Problem: if we include many libraries in our program, we will eventually get name collisions.
- One solution is to include the library name in every function. Example:
  - `Cmtz_read_file("filename")`
  - `MMDB_read_file("filename")`
  - `Jpeg_read_file("filename")`
- But it is tedious to retype names when we don't need to (e.g. When a library calls itself).
- Solution: namespaces

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## Namespaces:

- We can hide functions, data, types etc. inside a namespace, to avoid name clashes.
- They can then have obvious short names, with which they refer to one another.
- Anything else outside the namespace must add the name of the namespace before the function (or whatever) name.
  - But if we use something really frequently, we can declare the whole namespace, or individual members, to be available.

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- Namespaces:

```
namespace ccp4 { // begin namespace

    int func1( int n ) {
        return 2*n;
    }

    void func2() {
        int i = func1(6); // 12
    }

} // end of namespace

int func1( int n ) {
    return -n;
}

void main() {
    int i1 = func1( 6 ); // -6
    int i2 = ccp4::func1( 6 ); // 12
}
```

# C++

- Namespaces:

```
namespace ccp4 { // begin namespace

    int func1( int n ) {
        return 2*n;
    }

} // end of namespace

using namespace ccp4; // use this
using ccp4::func1; // or this

void main() {
    int i1 = func1( 6 ); // 12
}
```

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## Overloading

- Overloading allows us to define several functions with the same name.
- The functions differ only in what arguments they accept. The function to be run is chosen by the compiler on the basis of what arguments are provided.
  - Note: you cannot overload on the basis of return value!

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## Overloading

- e.g. Three 'minimum' functions:

```
// minimum of two integers
int min( int x, int y ) {
    if ( x < y ) return x;
    else      return y;
}

// minimum of two floats
float min( float x, float y ) {
    if ( x < y ) return x;
    else      return y;
}

// minimum of three floats
float min( float x, float y, float z ) {
    if ( x < y && x < z ) return x;
    else if ( y < z )      return y;
    else                  return z;
}
```



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## Overloading

- Note: we will also encounter something called ‘operator overloading’. This allows use to redefine how operators like ‘+’ work under special cases.

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- Looking forward:

C++ has some better ways of doing even simple, non-object oriented tasks.

- `std::string` - an advanced string class.
- `std::vector<>` - a resizable array class.

# C++

- Looking forward:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>

std::string s = "hello";
std::string t = s.substr(1,3);
int p = s.find("ell");
std::cout << s << "\n";           // hello
std::cout << s.length() << "\n";  // 5
std::cout << t << "\n";           // ell
std::cout << p << "\n";           // 1
```

- Strings have many useful methods.

# C++

- Looking forward:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>

std::vector<float> x(6);
std::cout << x.size() << "\n"; // 6
x[0] = 1.0;
x[5] = 3.142;
x.append( 2.718 );
std::cout << x.size() << "\n"; // 7
x.resize( 1000 );
std::cout << x.size() << "\n"; // 1000
```

- You can also insert into the middle and delete from the middle of the array.
- If this is performance critical, use `std::list<>` instead.

# C++

## Part 2: Object Orientation: practice

# C++

Object orientation is a programming paradigm. Its aim is to allow the creation of more modular, reusable, maintainable code.

It achieves this by many means, including:

- Allowing the code to better reflect the terms of the problem.
- Separating interfaces (APIs) from implementations.
- Allowing existing implementations to be overridden or extended.
- Allowing algorithms to be generic across many data types, even unknown ones.

# C++

We will follow the development of programming language features stepwise to arrive at our first objects.

Next, we will look at the ideas of object orientation in a more general way.

Finally, we will bring these things together.

Starting point: data structures.

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- Most languages (except F77) allow us to define new, more complex data types. In OO languages, these are called 'classes'. (In C they are 'struct's').
- A class is a new type, which is added to the language.
- We can declare classes just as we would declare a variable of any built in type.
- A class may contain one or more 'member variables' of any type – including other classes.
  - And a whole lot more... later.



# C++

- Example: A class for unit cell parameters.

```
class Cell {
public:
    double a,b,c;
    double alpha,beta,gamma;
};
...
Cell c1, c2; // make 2 cell objects
c1.a = 10.0;
c1.b = 15.0;
c1.c = 20.0;
c1.alpha = c1.beta = c1.gamma = pi/2;

c2 = c1
c2.a = 30.0;
std::cout << c2.a << c2.b << c2.c; // 30 15 20
```

# C++

- Example: A class for unit cell parameters.

```
class Cell {  
    public:  
        double a,b,c;  
        double alpha,beta,gamma;  
};
```

- We define a new type, called 'Cell'.  
(Begins with capital letter, by convention)
- It has 6 members (all double), which are publicly accessible (see later).
- Note: at this stage it is not unlike a Fortran common block. But, we can only have one instance of a common block in a program, but we can have many instances of a class.

# C++

- Example: A class for unit cell parameters.

```
Cell c1, c2; // make 2 cell objects
c1.a = 10.0;
c1.b = 15.0;
c1.c = 20.0;
c1.alpha = c1.beta = c1.gamma = pi/2;
```

- We create two 'objects' of class 'Cell': c1 and c2.  
Just like making two int-s or float-s.
- We access the parameters of c1 by using the name of the object, a dot, and then the name of the member.
- The other object, c2, is unaffected.

# C++

- Example: A class for unit cell parameters.

```
c2 = c1  
c2.a = 30.0;  
std::cout << c2.a << c2.b << c2.c; // 30 15 20
```

- We can copy all the members of `c1` into `c2` using a simple assignment.
- We then change just one of the members.  
`c1` is unaffected.
- Objects can also be passed to or from functions as arguments or return values.

# C++

## Terminology:

- An **object** is an instance of a **class**.
- A **class** defines the type of an **object**.
- A class contains **members**:
  - **Member variables**. (*members*)
  - **Member functions**. (*methods*)

# C++

## Member functions (methods):

- A member function is a function which is defined as part of a class.
- It is used on an object of that class, and operates on the member variables of that object and any arguments passed to the function.
- The result of the function may be returned as a return value, or may modify the member variables, or both.

# C++

## Member functions (methods):

```
class Cell {  
    public:  
    double a,b,c;  
    double alpha,beta,gamma;  
  
    double volume() {  
        return a*b*c*sin(beta); // wrong!  
    }  
};
```

- The function 'volume' is defined inside the class.
- We don't need to pass the cell parameters, because they are already members of the class.

# C++

## Member functions (methods):

```
...  
    std::cout << c1.volume(); // 10x15x20 = 3000  
    std::cout << c2.volume(); // 30x15x20 = 9000
```

- We call the member function by giving the name of the object, a dot, the name of the function, and then any arguments.
- We get a different result depending on which object we use, because they have different parameters.



# C++

## Class design:

- Once we have member functions, we can then 'hide' the member variables.
- Instead, we provide accessor functions to allow the member variables to be read or modified.
- The result is a class which has a well defined external interface which completely hides the internal implementation. We can then change how the class works internally without affecting the rest of the program.

This is a huge benefit! Use it!

# C++

## Class design:

```
class Cell {
public:
    double a() { return a1; } // accessors
    double b() { return b1; }
    double c() { return c1; }
    double alpha() { return alpha1; }
    double beta() { return beta1; }
    double gamma() { return gamma1; }
    double volume() {
        return a1*b1*c1*sin(beta1); // wrong!
    }
private:
    double a1, b1, c1, alpha1, beta1, gamma1;
};
```

- We make the member variables private.
- There is no performance cost - the compiler optimizes.

# C++

## Class design:

```
class Cell {  
    public:  
        double a() const { return a1; } // accessors  
  
    private:  
        double a1, b1, c1, alpha1, beta1, gamma1;  
};
```

- Methods can be declared as 'const',  
i.e. They don't change the state of the object.  
*(The compiler will check this for us).*
- Doing this for one accessor doesn't make much  
difference, but if we do it *everywhere* then the  
compiler can do a huge amount of checking for us.

# C++

## Class design:

- Now that the members are private, how do we set the contents of the object? 3 options...
  - We can define a constructor.
  - We can define 'set' accessors ('setters').
  - For simple cases where the representation is unambiguous, we can return references to the members.

# C++

## Class design:

```
class Cell {
public:

    Cell() {}

    Cell( double a, double b, double c,
          double alpha, double beta, double gamma ) {
        a1 = a; b1 = b; c1 = c;
        alpha1 = alpha; beta1 = beta; gamma1 = gamma;
    }

private:
    double a1, b1, c1, alpha1, beta1, gamma1;
};
```

- Constructor has same name as class.
- Also define null constructor, so we can create an object without initialising it.

# C++

## Class design:

```
...  
    // construct and initialise  
    Cell c1( 10.0, 15.0, 20.0, pi/2, pi/2, pi/2 );  
    // construct uninitialised  
    Cell c2;  
    // construct on-the-fly and assign  
    c2 = Cell( 30.0, 15.0, 20.0, pi/2, pi/2, pi/2 );
```

- We can use the new constructor in two ways -
  - On declaring the object.
  - On the fly, to create a cell object in the middle of an expression.

# C++

## Class design:

```
class Cell {
public:
    void set_cell_parameters
        ( double a, double b, double c,
          double alpha, double beta, double gamma ) {
        a1 = a; b1 = b; c1 = c;
        alpha1 = alpha; beta1 = beta; gamma1 = gamma;
    }

    void set_a( double a ) {
        a1 = a;
    }

private:
    double a1,b1,c1,alpha1,beta1,gamma1;
};
```

- 'Set' accessors may set one or many members.
- Can also perform calculations.

# C++

## Class design:

- One last detail: Destructors

```
class Cell {
public:
    // Constructor
    Cell( double a, double b, double c, ... ) {
        ...
    }

    // Destructor
    ~Cell() {
        ...
    }

    ...
};
```

- Called automatically when a class is destroyed.
- Clean up any memory allocation, i.e. Do not use!



# C++

## Class design: Summary

- We can build up compound objects containing collections of built-in data types and other objects.
- We can use these objects wherever we would use a built-in type.
- The objects can also contain relevant functions for manipulating the data.
- In the interests of maintaining a stable API, it is best to only allow access to the members of the object through accessor functions.

# C++

## Part 3: Object Orientation: theory

# C++

## Object orientation:

- By making objects which describe the objects in our problem domain, we achieve a better match between the program and the problem.
- Interactions between objects in the real world become methods of objects in the program.
- Even in completely abstract problems, we still have a benefit: the abstraction of the API.

# C++

## Object orientation:

- How do we chose objects? One approach:
  - Write down a description of the problem, then underline all the nouns.
  - Simple things may become properties of objects (i.e. Member variables).
  - More complex things may become objects.
  - Others are abstract or uninteresting or processes and will be ignored or take other forms.
- e.g. Crystal, cell, space-group, coordinate, map, density, FFT, likelihood.

# C++

## Object Orientation concepts:

- Encapsulation:
  - Hiding the details of data representation behind some interface. (We've seen this already).
- Inheritance:
  - Allows us to customise existing classes to suite our purposes.
- Polymorphism:
  - Allows us to make methods and classes which will work on any of a range of different data types.

# C++

## **Inheritance:**

- Inheritance provides an efficient way to re-use code.
  - If we want to make a new class which is similar to an existing class, we can use ‘inheritance’ to do this without touching the original class.
  - The new class is called a ‘sub-class’ or ‘derived-class’. It inherits from its ‘super-class’, or ‘base-class’.
  - The new class has all the members and methods of the parent class, plus any more that are defined.

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## Inheritance:

- e.g. The unit cell class: a real example:
  - Phil wants to use my Cell class, but he needs a different orthogonalization convention in reciprocal space.
  - So he makes a new class, Cell\_cambridge, which inherits from my Cell class.
  - My class has a method which returns the reciprocal orthogonalization matrix.
    - Phil overrides this method with a new method of his own.
    - He can also add completely new methods, and members.

# C++

## Inheritance:

- e.g. The unit cell class: a real example:

```
class Cell {
public:
    ...
    Mat33 mat_reci_orth() const { return ... ; }
    ...
};

class Cell_cambridge : public Cell {
public:
    Mat33 mat_reci_orth() const { return ... ; }
};
```

- The 'derivation' comes after the class name.
- Any changes are included in the class body.



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## Inheritance:

- Properly used, inheritance aids code re-use:
  - Define ‘base classes’ which are generic.
  - Derive more specific classes, have more details.
  - e.g.

```
Class Atom
  { double x,y,z,occ; };

Class Atom_isotropic : public Atom
  { double u_iso; };

Class Atom_anisotropic : public Atom
  { double u11,u22,u33,u12,u13,u23; };
```

# C++

## Inheritance:

- Properly used, inheritance aids code re-use:
  - At first, spotting how to use inheritance can be tricky.
  - One (inefficient) approach while learning:
    - Write all the specific classes  
(using cut and paste for any shared code).
    - Look for any members and method code which can be shared.
    - Implement a base class containing the common features.
  - Even for experienced programmers, class design evolves after the first implementation.

# C++

## Polymorphism:

- Polymorphism is the ability of classes, methods, and functions to work on a range of different data types, even types which did not exist when the library was written.
- Two forms:
  - Runtime polymorphism: You can use a derived class wherever you can use its base class.
  - Templates [*C++/Java only*]: You can write *template* classes and functions which can take **any** type of data.

# C++

## Polymorphism: (runtime)

- e.g. Suppose our `Atom` class implements a method `'density_at_xyz(x, y, z)'`, for a stationary atom.
  - `Atom_isotropic` and `Atom_anisotropic` will override this method with methods appropriate to atoms with thermal motion.
  - A method for calculating electron density might take a list of atoms, not caring what type of atom is involved.
  - A later developer may then add another atom type (e.g. `Atom_disordered`) with a clever method for calculating density. The electron density calculation will still work!

# C++

## **Polymorphism:** (runtime)

- Problems: there are (small) memory and performance overheads:
  - Therefore in C++, runtime polymorphism only occurs for classes which have *virtual* methods, and then only those methods of a class which are explicitly declared as ‘virtual’ (i.e. Can be overridden).
  - Polymorphism only occurs when handling a reference (*or pointer*) to a class which contains virtual methods.
- It’s useful, but in C++, it has limitations.
  - (Clipper uses it, but you don’t need to know any more.)

# C++

## **Polymorphism:** (templates)

- Templates are a second form of polymorphism, implemented in C++, which has no performance or memory overheads.
- Template polymorphism occurs at compile time.
- Template polymorphism works on any class (which has the right sort of *API*), whether or not there is an inheritance relationship involved.

# C++

## **Polymorphism:** (templates)

- e.g. `std::vector`: a resize-able array of data of some type.
  - Incredibly useful: use it whenever you want an array whose size isn't absolutely immutable.
  - Makes memory allocation (and therefore memory leaks) obsolete.
  - There are also a whole range of related types, e.g. Singly and doubly linked lists, associative arrays, etc.
- Part of STL: the Standard Template Library.

# C++

## Polymorphism: (templates)

- e.g. `std::vector`:

```
int n = 10;
std::vector<int> i;
std::vector<float> f( 6 );
std::vector<double> d( n, 1.0 );
std::vector<Cell> c;
```

- The type of data comes in angle brackets `<>` after the class name. This tells the compiler to compile a vector for that type of member.
- The data type can be any built-in or user defined type or class.
- We can optionally define initial size, and value.



# C++

## Polymorphism: (templates)

- e.g. `std::vector`:

```
// get the current size
int old_size = d.size();

// resize the list
d.resize( 20 );
```

- The `std::vector` class has a method 'size' which returns the current size of the list.
- The `std::vector` class has a method 'resize' which changes the current size of the list.

# C++

## Polymorphism: (templates)

- e.g. `std::vector`:

```
// sum the values in a list
double sum = 0;
for ( int i = 0; i < d.size(); i++ )
    sum = sum + d[i];
```

- The `std::vector` class has a method which looks like standard array subscription (i.e. overrides the bracket operator `[]`), which allows us to get at the data as if it were in a normal array.

# C++

## Polymorphism: (templates)

- e.g. `std::vector`:

```
// add to the end of the vector
d.push_back( 3.142 );

// remove from the end of the vector
double x = d.pop_back();
```

- The `std::vector` class has methods which add to or remove from the back of an array.
- Performance is good – it is not uncommon to build up a large array one element at a time.

# C++

## Polymorphism: (templates)

- e.g. `std::vector`:

```
// insert at 3 from the front
d.insert( d.begin()+3, 2.718 );

// delete from three from the end
d.delete ( d.end()-2 )
```

- The `std::vector` class has methods to insert and deletes at arbitrary positions in the list.
- (There are performance overheads of course – a linked list may be better).

# C++

## Polymorphism: (templates)

- e.g. `std::vector`:

```
// sort the list
std::sort( d.begin(), d.end() );
```

- The `std::sort` algorithm is the most efficient algorithm known.
- We usually want to sort by key: Make `std::vector<std::pair<keytype, datatype> >` containing the list of keys and data, and apply a `std::sort`.

# C++

## Polymorphism: (templates)

- Crystallographic examples from Clipper:
  - A crystallographic map can contain any sort of data:

```
Xmap<float>
```

```
Xmap<int>
```

```
Xmap<Histogram>
```

- Reflection data can be of any one of a range or predefined or user-defined types, e.g.

```
HKL_data<F_sigF<float> >
```

```
HKL_data<F_phi<double> >
```

```
HKL_data<ABCD<float> >
```

# C++

## Part 4: Odds and ends.

# C++

## Nested classes:

- A class can be defined inside another class. This is useful for:
  - Classes which are only used internally by another class.
  - Classes which are only used in conjunction with another class.
  - Template programming, when you want to use a bundle of classes for a template type, you can put them inside another class.



# C++

## Nested classes:

- Outer class is treated like a namespace:

```
Class Outer {  
    ...  
    Class Inner {  
        ...  
    };  
    ...  
};  
  
Outer x;  
Outer::Inner y;
```

# C++

- Do:
  - Use encapsulation, const etc.
  - Use STL (standard template library) data structures.
  - Use STL algorithms.
- Don't:
  - Use memory allocation. As soon as you start using memory allocation, your program can develop memory leaks.
    - new/delete
    - malloc/free
    - If there is no usable STL data structure, write one of your own and test it to destruction.
  - Use pointers, except where absolutely necessary.
    - Encapsulate in STL style template classes.