## What's new in C++11/14?

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Object-Oriented Programming Projects

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## A Short History of C++

- 1979 Bjarne Stroustrup develops **C** with classes.
- 1983 First version of C++.
- 1998 First ISO **standard** (C++98, regular or old C++).
- 2003 Small fixes.
- 2011 **C++11** brings significant changes and new features.
- 2014 Small fixes.
- 2017 New features and library cleanup.
- 2020 Next major version, lots of proposed additions.

## C++11 most important changes are

- New syntax to make code more legible.
- New semantics to make code more efficient/flexible.
- Extensions of the standard library, including:
  - new/improved containers;
  - new algorithms;
  - built-in threading support;
  - smart pointers to ease memory management.
- More powerful templates.

#### How to use it

### clang++/g++

C++11 might already be the default.

If in doubt, or for reliability, specify:

- -std = c++98 to ensure C++98 compatibility.
- -std = c + +11 for C + +11.
- -std = c + +14 for C + +14.

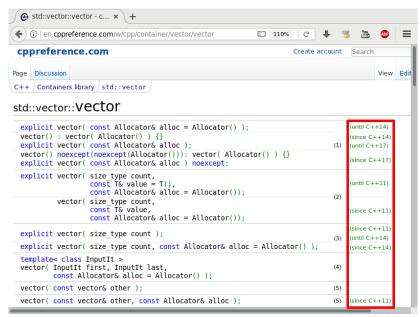
Older g++ versions might require c++0x or c++1y instead.

Look the documentation for other compilers, to check:

- which arguments to use;
- if C++11/14 is supported at all, and with which features!

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### RTFM: Read The Fine Manual



## auto keyword for compiler-inferred types

With auto, the compiler deduces variable's type from the right-hand side:

```
auto i = 42; // i has int type
auto l = 42L; // l has long int type
```

Pointers can be deduced, or specified explicitly:

```
auto p1 = new MyClass(); // p1 has type MyClass*
auto *p2 = new MyClass(); // p2 also has type MyClass*
```

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auto p1 = new MyClass(); // p1 has type MyClass*
auto *p2 = new MyClass(); // p2 also has type MyClass*
```

... but references are **not** picked up!

```
int& f();
auto i = f(); // i has type int, not int@
auto & j = f(); // j has type int@
```

## auto preserves constness only for references

#### const is not picked up:

```
const int foo();
auto i = foo(); // i has type int, not const int
   i = 42; // Legal
const auto j = foo(); // j has type const int
   j = 1984; // Compiler error
```

#### ... except for references:

```
int& foo();
const int& bar();
auto &i = foo(); // i has type int&
i = 42; // Legal
auto &j = bar(); // j has type const int&
j = 1984; // Compile error
```

## auto can make code more compact and more legible

```
C++98
for (std::list<MyClass>::const_iterator it = xs.begin();
    it != xs.end(); ++it) {
    sum += it->value();
}
```

```
C++11
for (auto it = xs.cbegin(); it != xs.cend(); ++it) {
    sum += it->value();
}
Note the addition of cbegin/cend to disambiguate between
iterator and const_iterator.
```

C++14 allows even more type deduction using auto.

## auto simplifies generic programming

```
C++98
template<typename Builder, typename Built>
void process(Builder& builder) {
    Built val = builder.make();
    // Do some more things with val
}
Built type can be deduced from Builder type, but must be specified explicitly.
```

```
C++11
template<typename Builder>
void process(Builder& builder) {
   auto val = builder.make();
   // Do some more things with val
}
```

## Suffix return type syntax

```
T someFunc(int i, const MyObject *myObject);
can now also be written
auto someFunc(int i, const MyObject *myObject) -> T;
```

## decltype extracts the type from an expression

```
for (decltype(v.size()) i = 0; i < v.size(); ++i) {
    // Process v[i]
}</pre>
```

This is especially useful with templates, in conjunction with suffix return type syntax:

```
template<typename Builder>
auto process(Builder& builder) -> decltype(builder.make())
{
    auto val = builder.make();
    // Do some more things with val
    return val;
}
```

Why is the suffix return type syntax needed here?

## decltype extracts the type from an expression

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for (decltype(v.size()) i = 0; i < v.size(); ++i) {
    // Process v[i]
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This is especially useful with templates, in conjunction with suffix return type syntax:

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template<typename Builder>
auto process(Builder& builder) -> decltype(builder.make())
{
    auto val = builder.make();
    // Do some more things with val
    return val;
}
```

Why is the suffix return type syntax needed here? builder would not be in scope in usual return type position!

## Ranged for loops

```
C++98
for (std::list<int>::const_iterator it = xs.begin();
    it != xs.end(); ++it) {
    doSomethingWithInt(*it);
}
```

```
C++11
for (auto i : xs) {
    doSomethingWithInt(i);
}
```

#### Beware

```
What are the problems here?
std::list<MyBigHeavyObject> xs;
for (auto x : xs)
    x.modifyElement();
```

## Beware of implicit copies when using auto

```
One slow copy per iteration
std::list<MyBigHeavyObject> xs;
for (auto x : xs)
    x.modifyElement();
```

- x is a **copy** of corresponding element of xs.
- Copying can be slow.
- The original element is **not modified**!

## Beware of implicit copies when using auto

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    x.modifyElement();
```

- x is a **copy** of corresponding element of xs.
- Copying can be slow.
- The original element is **not modified!**

```
Use a reference to modify element
for (auto &x : xs)
    x.modifyElement();
```

```
Use a const reference to avoid copying
for (const auto &x : xs)
    x.someNonModifyingOperation();
```

#### override indicates that a function overrides another one

```
struct A {
       virtual void foo();
       void bar();
   };
5
   struct B : A {
       void foo() const override; // Error: A::foo is not const
                                    // (signature mismatch)
8
       void foo() override; // OK: B::foo overrides A::foo
       void bar() override; // Error: A::bar is not virtual!
10
   };
11
```

- Makes developer intent clear.
- Allows compiler to detect errors.

### final forbids overrides in derived classes

```
struct Base {
       virtual void foo();
   };
3
4
   struct A : Base {
       // Base::foo is overridden and it is the final override
6
       void foo() final;
7
8
       // Error: non-virtual function cannot be final
      void bar() final;
9
   };
10
11
   struct B final : A // struct B is final
12
13
       void foo() override;
14
       // Error: cannot be overridden as it's final in A
15
   };
16
17
   struct C: B // Error: B is final
18
19
   };
20
```

### Type-safe enums

```
enum class Gender { Female, Male, Undetermined };
Gender gender = Gender::Male;
switch (gender) {
    case Gender::Female:
        break;
    case Gender::Male:
        break;
// Warning: unhandled case Undetermined
}
```

#### Scoped enums are

type-safe:

```
int i = Gender::Undetermined; // Type error
Gender g = 1; // Type error
```

■ scoped: the enum introduces a new namespace for its variants.

You can specify underlying representation if needed:

enum class MyEnum : uint8\_t { FortyTwo = 42, Other };

#### List initialization

```
C++98
vector<int> v;
v.push_back(1);
v.push_back(2);
v.push_back(3);
```

```
C++11
vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3 };
```

Available for your own objects too, just implement a constructor with initializer\_list:

```
template<typename T> struct MyVector {
    vector<T> v;
    MyVector(initializer_list<T> xs) {
        v.insert(back_inserter(v), xs.begin(), xs.end());
    }
};
```

#### Uniform initialization

You can now use {} instead of ().

- Beware that if an initializer\_list constructor is present, it will be called!
- {} forbids narrowing conversions.
- Can solve the *most-vexing-parse* problem.
- Don't mix with auto, would infer initializer\_list type.

```
struct Point { Point(double x, double y, double z); /* ... */ };
    Point p { 4.2, 19.84, 3.14 };
3
    vector<int> v(5); // v contains 0 five times, i.e. { 0, 0, 0, 0, 0 }
    vector<int> w{5}; // Calls initializer list constructor, w is just { 5 }
5
6
    int i(3.14); // Compiles fine, number is truncated
    int j{3.14}; // Error: narrowing conversion
8
    int xs[] = { 1, 2, 3.4 }; // Error: narrowing conversion, BREAKING CHANGE!
9
10
    A a(B()); // Most-vexing parse: this is a function declaration!
11
    a.f(): // Error!
12
    A a{B()}; // Calls B constructor, and pass B object to A constructor
13
```

#### Lambdas

#### Lambda functions

- can be inlined (contrarily to function pointers);
- can be defined on-the-fly, and anonymous;
- can capture variables in the enclosing block;
- can be stored;
- are useful for manipulation of data structures.

[captures] (arguments) -> ReturnType { body }

```
vector<int> xs = { 1, 2, 3, 4 };
int offset = 42;
for_each(begin(xs), end(xs), [offset](int &x) { x += offset; });
for_each(begin(xs), end(xs), [](int x) { cout << x << endl; });

vector<int> ys;
auto isEven = [](int n) -> bool { return (n % 2 == 0); };
copy_if(begin(xs), end(xs), back_inserter(ys), isEven);
```

## Lambda capture modes

Captured variables can be captured **by value** or by (possibly const) **reference**.

```
double sum = 0.0;
auto addToSum = [&sum](double x) { sum += x; };
for_each(begin(xs), end(xs), addToSum);
```

You can also specify a default capture mode, which is used for all variables that are not explicitly specified:

- = captures by value.
- & captures by reference.

```
double sum = 0.0;
for_each(begin(xs), end(xs), [&](double x) { sum += x; });
```

Generally avoid default capture by reference, which is dangerous.

## constexpr allows compile-time constant expressions

A constexpr can only refer to literal constants, and other constexprs.

## Move semantics

A common problem: functions creating output.

```
C++98 ways to multiply matrices
    Matrix operator*(const Matrix& lhs, const Matrix& rhs);
1
    // Ouch! Full matrix copy on return => slow!
3
    void matMul(const Matrix& lhs, const Matrix& rhs, Matrix& output);
4
    // Cumbersome syntax, mixes inputs and outputs.
5
    // User needs to pre-allocate output matrix, with the right size!
6
    Matrix* operator*(const Matrix& lhs, const Matrix& rhs);
8
    // User needs to remember deleting the output matrix.
9
    // Well, unless it is not a temporary static buffer he should copy!
10
11
12
    boost::shared_ptr<Matrix>
13
        operator*(const Matrix& lhs, const Matrix& rhs);
    // Clear intent, no manual memory management, but added overhead.
14
```

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    Matrix* operator*(const Matrix& lhs, const Matrix& rhs);
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    boost::shared_ptr<Matrix>
13
        operator*(const Matrix& lhs, const Matrix& rhs);
    // Clear intent. no manual memory management, but added overhead.
14
```

```
C++11

Matrix operator*(const Matrix& lhs, const Matrix &rhs);

// Returned matrix is no more copied, it is MOVED!
```

#### Move constructors

&& denotes a reference to a r-value.

```
class Matrix {
    // ...
     virtual ~Matrix() { delete[] data: }
      Matrix(Matrix&& origin) : data(origin.data),
              nRows(origin.nRows), nColumns(origin.nColumns)
5
      {
          origin.data = nullptr;
          origin.nRows = origin.nColumns = 0;
      }
10
   private:
11
        double *data;
12
        unsigned nRows;
13
        unsigned nColumns;
14
   };
15
```

Similarly, there is now also a **move assignment** operator.

#### r-values from l-values: std::move

- Move semantics are not just for return values.
- You can write functions expecting moved arguments.
- But how to pass them regular (i.e. I-value) objects?
- Using std::move.

```
void takeResponsibilityFor(MyBigHeavyObject&& moved) {

// ...

MyBigHeavyObject heavy;
takeResponsibilityFor(heavy); // Error: heavy is a l-value!
takeResponsibilityFor(std::move(heavy));
// Move heavy into argument
```

- A value should not be used anymore in original scope after being moved.
- Good object design will enforce that (see unique\_ptr for example).

# unique\_ptr replaces unsafe and deprecated auto\_ptr

- It represents exclusive ownership.
- The ownership model is enforced though move semantics.
- Apart from that, it is used like a regular pointer.
- Very light-weight wrapper, mostly no performance cost.

```
unique_ptr<MyObject> p1(new MyObject());
1
    unique_ptr<MyObject> p2 = p1; // Error: cannot copy unique pointers!
    unique_ptr<MyObject> p3 = move(p1);
    // p1 is now nullptr, and should not be used anymore
5
    // Custom destructor (built-in RAII)
6
    unique_ptr<FILE, decltype(&fclose)> f(fopen("file.txt", "r"), &fclose);
    // fclose will be called automatically before f is destroyed
8
9
    // Safer and cleaner alternative with C++14
10
    auto p = make_unique<MyObject>();
11
```

## share\_ptr allows shared ownership

- It uses reference counting to know when to delete the pointed-to object.
- Always use make\_shared to create shared pointers (also in C++11).
- You can use weak\_ptr to break cycles. A weak\_ptr keeps a reference to the object, but won't prevent deletion.
- When using a weak\_ptr, call lock() to transform it into a share\_ptr (avoid premature deletion).

#### Modern C++ avoids new/delete

The smart pointers can replace most, if not all use cases for explicit new and delete.

### You can now call other constructors from a constructor

### You can now use initializers for non-static fields

```
C + +98
   struct C {
     C() : c('a'), i(42), d(3.14159265) \{ \}
     C(bool flag) : c('a'), i(42), d(3.141593) { /* ... */ }
3
   char c;
   int i;
     double d;
  };
   Violates the DRY principle: tedious and error-prone.
```

```
C++11
struct C {
C() { }
 C(bool flag) { /* ... */ }
c = 'a';
i = 42:
  d = 3.14159265:
};
```

## default, delete and delegated constructors

- = delete will delete a constructor.
- = default will synthesize default for a constructor/destructor.
- You can inherit parent class constructor with using Parent::Parent.

```
struct Parent {
    Parent() = default;
    virtual ~Parent() = default;
    Parent(int i) { /* ... */ }

};
struct Child : Parent {
    using Parent::Parent; // Inherits parent constructors
    Child& operator=(const Child&) = delete;
    // Disable assignment operator
    Child(const Child&) = delete; // Disable copy constructor
};
```

## Nested templates gain a nicer syntax

No more space needed between the right angle brackets!

## nullptr is like 0 and NULL, but has only pointer type

```
void f(int); // #1
void f(const char *); // #2

f(0); // Which is called, #1 or #2?
f(nullptr); // Unambiguously call #2

int i = nullptr; // Compile error
nullptr can only be converted to a pointer type, or to bool.
```

### explicit conversion constructors

We already saw explicit in the lecture about objects-as-values, but it is only available since C++11. What does it do?

### explicit conversion constructors

We already saw explicit in the lecture about objects-as-values, but it is only available since C++11. What does it do? explicit disables implicit conversions using conversion constructors or operators.

```
C++98

struct MyType {
    MyType(int i) { /* ... */ }
};

void f(MyType);
f(42); // Silently pass MyType(42) to f()
```

```
C++11

1 struct MyType {
2  explicit MyType(int i) { /* ... */ }
3 };
4 void f(MyType);
5 f(42); // Error: f() expects MyType, not int!
6 f(MyType(42)); // Still fine
```

## There is a lot more going on

- Perfect forwarding, move semantics on steroids.
- Variadic templates.
- Threading interface built into the language.
- New containers.
- New algorithms.
- New string literals.
- User-defined literals.
- Regular expressions.
- static\_assert, compile-time assertions.
- Type traits (e.g. has\_virtual\_destructor).
- using can replace typedef.
- . . . .

### C++17 and C++20

nested namespaces

C++17

- de-structuring bindings
- improved constexpr
- UTF-8 character literals
- std::variant typesafe union
- std::optional
- std::filesystem
- std::byte to avoid implicit conversion hasard
- constexpr, consteval, constinit

C++20

- modules replace CPP (no more #include)
- concepts make template assumptions explicit
- ranges and views improve on iterators
- python-like string formatting
- coroutines? async, await, yield