

# C++ for Rustaceans

Tianyi Shi

2020-11-14



# Contents

<b>Disclaimer</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>About this Book</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>Prerequisites</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>1 Hello C++</b>	<b>11</b>
1.1 Hello world . . . . .	11
1.2 Data Types . . . . .	12
1.3 Variables . . . . .	13
1.4 Functions . . . . .	15
1.5 Pointers and References . . . . .	17
1.6 Control Flow . . . . .	19
Exercise . . . . .	27
<b>2 Enumerations</b>	<b>29</b>
2.1 The Plain <code>enum</code> . . . . .	29



# Disclaimer

I am neither a pro in Rust nor in C++. It is possible that some of my conceptual understandings are wrong, and it is very likely that some examples, especially C++ ones, are not the best practice. I could only promise that all programs should compile and run without safety issues. If you spot anything that could be improved, please submit a PR!



# About this Book

I'm a biochemistry student wishing to specialize in computational biology, and I need a fast (specifically, no-GC) language for implementing algorithms. Since the decision was made in April 2020, I naturally chose Rust. Soon I fell in love with it. Cargo, rustdoc, crates.io, clippy etc. just makes Rust so nice—even better than Python. However, I have to face the reality: the majority of bioinformatics algorithms to date are written in C or C++ (either as pure C or C++ libraries or as extensions to Python or R), and most labs are still developing on them. It turns out that some C and C++ literacy is necessary for me.

While there is a project called `r4cppp` that introduces Rust to C++ programmers, I haven't found any `cpp4r`, so I started this one. I'm not an expert in Rust and C++ and I'm writing this book while learning them, so it'll be more like a personal notebook than a professional guide. I'll try to make it readable, though.





# Prerequisites

I'm assuming you're an intermediate-level Rustacean. You should understand the majority of the concepts in *The Book* and also the basics of raw pointers.

You'll need a C++ compiler. I recommend using `clang++` on Linux & MacOS because it generally gives better error message than `g++`. On Windows you should use `msvc`.



# Chapter 1

## Hello C++

In this chapter, we'll learn the very basics of C++.

### 1.1 Hello world

This is a hello world program in C++:

```
#include <iostream>
int main()
{
    std::cout << "Hello C++!" << std::endl;
    return 0;
}
```

Write the above code in `hello.cpp`, then you can compile it with `g++ hello.cpp -o hello` and run `./hello` (you can replace `g++` with `clang++` or any other compiler).

A couple of things to note here:

Every C++ executable (as opposed to library) must have a `main()` function that returns `int`. Returning 0 signifies that the program terminates without errors. The final `return 0;` statement can be omitted in the `main()` function.

`#include` is a preprocessor. We'll meet more preprocessors in the future, for now just accept that they are “naive macros” that are “expanded” before the actual compilation. Here `#include` copies the content of file called `iostream`, which has tens of thousands lines, and pastes it here. Yes, it literally does so, and you can check this by running `g++ -E main.c`, which “expands” all preprocessor statements.

`iostream` contains definitions of functions and objects such as `std::cout` and `std::endl`, which are used for IO manipulations. `cout` stands for “character output”, and `endl` stands for “endline” (it appends `\n` and flushes the buffer). `<<` is the bitwise left shift operator, and the designers of C++ decided that overloading bitwise shift operators for `cout` and `cin` can make C++ look fancy from the beginning. That’s why we need to learn yet another special syntax.

Fortunately (or unfortunately), there’s another way to do exactly the same thing:

```
printf("Hello from printf\n");
```

Now you might begin to wonder, why isn’t `std::cout` called `std::iostream::cout`, and why `printf` can be called without any prefix. This is because in C++ filenames have no relationships to `namespaces` by default. `namespace` is similar to Rust’s `mod`, but more flexible. In this case, the `iostream` file contains something conceptually like this:

```
void printf(...);

namespace std {
    class cout {}
    class endl {}
}
```

`printf` isn’t placed inside `std` because it is a heritage from C. Many other C functions are also available in C++, and they can be distinguished by the absence of the `std::` prefix.

## 1.2 Data Types

### 1.2.1 Integer Types

The following table summarises the relationship between Rust’s and C++’s integer data types:

Rust	C++	C & C++
i8	int8_t	char
i16	int16_t	short
i32	int32_t	int
i64	int64_t	long
i128		
u8	uint8_t	unsigned char

Rust	C++	C & C++
u16	uint16_t	unsigned short
u32	uint32_t	unsigned int
u64	uint64_t	unsigned long
u128		
isize		
usize	size_t	

While the equivalence between the first column and the second column always holds true, the third column depends on the platform and here I'm assuming you're on a modern, 64-bit system.

While the relationships described in the table are always true, C++'s integer types are much more complex. The types above are fixed width integer types, and there are additional integer types whose width is dependent on the implementation. These include C-compatible ones (i.e. `char`, `short`, `int`, `long`, `long long`), and other C++ artifacts such as `int_fast16_t` and `int_least32_t`. You can learn about them at [cppreference](#).

## 1.2.2 Floating Point Numbers

For floating numbers, `f32` and `f64` correspond to `float` and `double`, respectively (stand for single-precision and double-precision floating point numbers).

## 1.3 Variables

Like in Rust, creating a variable requires two steps, declaration and initialization. In C++, there are usually more than one syntax to do any task, and these two basic operations are no exception.

The traditional syntax for declaration and initialization is `<type> <var name> = <value>;`, and these two steps can be separated:

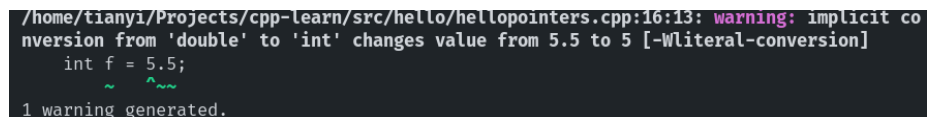
```
int a = 5;
char b;
b = 'A';
```

The above syntax is compatible with C, which has a problem: if you initialize an `int` with a float:

```
int a = 5.5;
assert(a == 5);
```

The value will be implicitly converted. Instead of giving a warning or simply disallowing this (recent compilers DO give a warning; see Figure 1.1), the designers of C++ decided to invent another syntax for declaration and initialization, using curly braces:

```
int a{5};
```

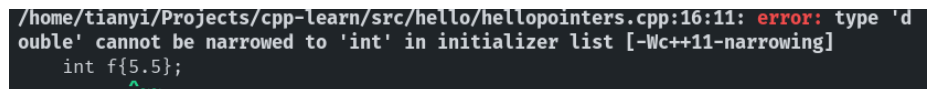


```
/home/tianyi/Projects/cpp-learn/src/hello/hellopointers.cpp:16:13: warning: implicit co
nversion from 'double' to 'int' changes value from 5.5 to 5 [-Wliteral-conversion]
    int f = 5.5;
           ~ ^~~
1 warning generated.
```

Figure 1.1: When implicit conversion occurs, a decent modern C++ compiler will give a warning.

If you try `int a{5.5};` with this syntax, the compiler will give an error and abort (Figure 1.2 ). In addition, you can't separate the two parts:

```
// not allowed
int a;
a{5}
```



```
/home/tianyi/Projects/cpp-learn/src/hello/hellopointers.cpp:16:11: error: type 'd
ouble' cannot be narrowed to 'int' in initializer list [-Wc++11-narrowing]
    int f{5.5};
           ^~~
```

Figure 1.2: The uniform initialization syntax.

### 1.3.1 Mutability

Variables are mutable by default. If you want to create an immutable variable, use the `const` keyword.

```
// Rust
let a = 5;
let mut b = 10;
```

is equivalent to

```
//C++
const auto a = 5;
auto b = 10;
```

If `const` is used to create an immutable variable, how to create a real “constant” that’s evaluated at compile time? The answer is `constexpr`.

```
// Rust
const LIGHT_SPEED: f64 = 2.99792458e8;
```

is equivalent to

```
constexpr double LIGHT_SPEED = 2.99792458e8;
```

What about constant strings? Well, like Rust, you can’t use the dynamically allocated `std::string`.

```
// Rust
const NAME: String = "Hideyo".to_string(); // not allowed!
const NAME: &'static str = "Hideyo";      // good
```

```
//C++
constexpr std::string NAME = "Hideyo"; // not allowed!
constexpr char NAME[] = "Hideyo";      // good
```

So you have to use an array of characters. Well, it’s technically closer to `const NAME: &[u8] = b"Hideyo";`. Then, if you need to use the `std::string`, you need explicit conversion:

```
#include <iostream>

constexpr char NAME[] = "Hideyo";
constexpr char NAME_UTF8[] = " 英世";

int main()
{
    const std::string NAME_STRING(NAME);
    const std::string NAME_UTF8_STRING(NAME_UTF8);
    // thank god UTF8 works! If you were in C you would have a hard time.
    std::cout << NAME_UTF8_STRING << " " << NAME_STRING << std::endl;
}
```

## 1.4 Functions

Functions are declared and defined in the following way:

```
<return_type> <function_name>(<params>) {  
    // do something  
    return something;  
}
```

For example:

```
#include <iostream>  
  
float square(float a)  
{  
    return a * a;  
}  
  
int main()  
{  
    float x = 2.5;  
    std::cout << "square of " << x << "is" << square(x) << std::endl;  
}
```

Note that a function must be *declared* before it can be used. This means the following won't work:

```
#include <iostream>  
  
// float square(float);  
  
int main()  
{  
    float x = 2.5;  
    std::cout << "square of " << x << "is" << square(x) << std::endl;  
}  
  
float square(float a)  
{  
    return a * a;  
}
```

However, by uncommenting the third line, it works. When you use a function, the compiler must know the signature, but not necessarily the *definition* of the function. This is why in C++ (and in C) people split their functions into signatures which go into header files, and definitions which go into .cpp files. This practice, coupled with C's macro system (inherited by C++), leads to



many pitfalls and confusing situations.<sup>1</sup> In particular, it can be difficult to just find the definition of a function without a decent and properly configured IDE. I'll get back to header files later. For now we'll be working with single-file programs without splitting declaration and definitions.

## 1.5 Pointers and References

Syntaxes related to pointers and references in C++ are...interesting.

In Rust, when you take a reference to a type `T`, the type of the reference is `&T`. The syntax can't be more natural: you add `&` to both LHS and RHS:

```
let a: i32 = 5;
let p_a: &i32 = &5; // type annotations are not required; this is just for demonstration
```

and when you dereference, you use `*`. Just remembering that `*` is the reverse of `&`, everything is natural as well. Every `*` just removes one `&` from both LHS and RHS:

```
let p_a: &i32 = &5;
let a: i32 = *p_a;
let a: i32 = **&&a
```

In C++, this is how you make a pointer:

```
int a = 5;
int *p_a = &5;
// or
int * p_a = &5;
// or
int* p_a = &5;
```

and to dereference a pointer:

```
int b = *p_a;
```

You add `&` to RHS, but you add `*` to LHS. Weird. What's worse, despite the fact that the variable name really is `p_a`, not `*p_a`, and the type really is `int*`, most people and formatters prepend the asterisk before the variable name, which looks like you're declaring an `int` which is clearly not true. So why are people doing that? There are some discussion on StackOverflow.

<sup>1</sup><https://softwareengineering.stackexchange.com/questions/180904/are-header-files-actually-good>

But wait, how did people learn this weird convention in the first place? On cppreference, and in Bjarne Stroustrup's *A Tour of C++*, the `int* p_a = &5` style is always used, so just...why? Why are people sticking to the anti-standard?

Anyway, you can choose whichever form you like when you write your code, but you need to be able to read all forms so that you can read others' code.

Since pointers are a heritage from C, it is not surprising that the *creative* C++ designers invented yet another similar syntax for achieving almost the same task: references. You create and read a reference like this:

```
int l = 5;
int& m = l;
assert(m == 5); // not `*m` !
```

Note that you can directly create a pointer, but not a reference to a literal, that is to say:

```
int* i = &5; // is valid
int& j = 5;  // is not allowed
```

You do not need to (and cannot) use the dereference operator (\*) on a reference to access the value of the referent. In addition, a reference cannot be re-assigned to refer to another value. Apart from these two rules, references are effectively the same as pointers. It can be helpful to see a reference as an *alias* to a *named variable*. Indeed, a reference shares the same memory address as its referent.

Since we are Rustaceans, we are sensitive to mutability. Are there any difference between pointers and references in terms of mutability? The answer is no. Both can be used to mutate the referent.

```
#include <iostream>
int main()
{
    int a{5};
    int &r_a = a; // create a reference
    int *p_a = &a; // create a pointer
    printf("| a|r_a|*p_a|    p_a    |\n");
    a = 10; // mutate the value
    printf("|%d| %d|  %d|p|\n", a, r_a, *p_a, p_a);
    r_a = 15; // mutate via reference; no asterisk!
    printf("|%d| %d|  %d|p|\n", a, r_a, *p_a, p_a);
    *p_a = 20; // mutate via pointer
    printf("|%d| %d|  %d|p|\n", a, r_a, *p_a, p_a);
}
```

```
| a|r_a|*p_a|      p_a      |
|10| 10| 10|0x7ffe09e40404|
|15| 15| 15|0x7ffe09e40404|
|20| 20| 20|0x7ffe09e40404|
```

I think it would be helpful to make a line-by-line comparison of some common tasks in Rust and in C++:

#### 1.5.0.1 Reading The Value Without Mutation with A Pointer or Reference

step	C++ (pointer)	C++ (reference)	Rust	Rust (raw pointer)
init referent	<code>const int a = 5</code>	<code>const int a = 5</code>	<code>let a = 5</code>	<code>let a = 5</code>
make ptr/ref	<code>const int* p = &amp;a</code>	<code>const int&amp; r = a</code>	<code>let r: &amp;i32 = &amp;a</code>	<code>let p: *const i32 = &amp;a;</code>
read referent value	<code>*p</code>	<code>r</code>	<code>*r</code>	<code>*p</code>

#### 1.5.0.2 Mutating the Value of the Referent with A Pointer or Reference

step	C++ (pointer)	C++ (reference)	Rust	Rust (raw pointer)
init referent	<code>int a = 5</code>	<code>int a = 5</code>	<code>let mut a = 5</code>	<code>let mut a = 5</code>
make ptr/ref	<code>int* p = &amp;a</code>	<code>int* r = &amp;a</code>	<code>let r: &amp;mut i32 = &amp;mut a</code>	<code>let p: *mut i32 = &amp;mut a;</code>
mutate	<code>*p = 10</code>	<code>r = 10</code>	<code>*r = 10</code>	<code>*p = 10</code>

## 1.6 Control Flow

C++ offers 5 types of control flow statements. `if...else`, `for` loop and `while` loop are pretty much the same as in Rust, but the `switch` statement is much less powerful than Rust’s `match`. Additionally there is a `goto` statement which performs unconditional jump and is notorious for leading to “unmaintainable spaghetti code” (however, people are still using them, and you’ll see why in a minute).

If you have experience in Javascript or Java, most of C++'s control flow syntax will be familiar to you. The conditional test associated with `if`, `for`, `while` and `switch` must be surrounded by parentheses.

### 1.6.1 `if...else`

Like Rust, C++ offers `if` and `else` keywords to work with conditionals. Unlike Rust, C++ is not expression-oriented, so you *cannot* write:

```
int a = if (true) { 5 } else { 10 };
```

But this kind of conditional assignment is a very common pattern, so C++ invented yet another syntax specifically designed for this single task: the ternary operator. So, instead of writing:

```
int a;  
if (true) { a = 5; } else { a = 10; };
```

you could write:

```
int a = true ? 5 : 10;
```

### 1.6.2 `while` Loop

The `while` loop in C++ has nothing different from Rust, just remember to wrap the test expression with parentheses.

```
#include <iostream>  
int i = 10;  
while (i > 0)  
{  
    i--;  
    if (i == 8)  
    {  
        continue;  
    }  
    if (i == 5)  
    {  
        break;  
    }  
    std::cout << i << std::endl;  
}
```

### 1.6.3 for Loop

A traditional C-style for loop looks like this (you'll be familiar with this if you code Javascript or Java):

```
for (<initializationStatement>; <testExpression>; <updateStatement>)
{
    // do something
}
```

For example:

```
#include <iostream>
printf("|i|j|\n");
for (int i = 0; i < 2; i++)
{
    for (int j = 0; j < 3; j++)
    {
        printf("|%d|%d|\n", i, j);
    }
}
```

C++11 introduced the range-based for statement, which is also known as a `for...in` loop in most other languages (Rust, Swift, Python, Ruby, ...). The syntax itself is easy but knowing the relationship between the element and the iterable can be tricky. Fortunately, we are Rustaceans, so an easy way for me to illustrate and for you to understand is to write a few equivalent examples in Rust and C++.

#### 1.6.3.1 Scenario 1: Copying (Cloning)

```
// Rust
let v = vec!["a".to_string(), "b".to_string(), "c".to_string()];
for e.clone() in &v {
    println!("{}", e);
}
```

```
// C++
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
std::vector<std::string> a{"a", "b", "c"};
for (auto s : a) // s has type `std::string`
{
```

```
std::cout << s << std::endl;
}
```

Note how Rust makes it crystal clear that copying during iteration and using `String` for instead of `&str` for static strings are anti-patterns and how C++ makes it easy to write such inefficient code.

### 1.6.3.2 Scenario 2: As Reference (Borrowing)

```
// Rust
let v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4, 5];
for e in &v {
    println!("{}", *e);
}
```

```
// C++
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
std::vector<int> a{1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
for (auto& num : a)
{
    printf("%d ", num); // no asterisk!
}
```

### 1.6.3.3 Scenario 3: Mutation

```
// Rust
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4, 5];
for e in &mut v {
    *e = e + 1;
}
assert_eq!(v, vec![2, 3, 4, 5, 6]);
```

```
// C++
#include <vector>
#include <cassert>
std::vector<int> a{1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
for (auto &num : a)
{
    num++;
}
assert(a == (std::vector<int>{2, 3, 4, 5, 6}));
```

Note the parentheses surrounding the second argument of `assert`, without which we would get an error. This is because `assert` is a so called `#define` macro, which simply parses its arguments as comma-separated identifiers and does text replacement. Since `std::vector<int>{2, 3, 4, 5, 6}` contains commas, it has to be escaped with parentheses.<sup>2</sup> This macro is actually defined in `assert.h` which is part of C's std, and its more or less copied verbatim into C++'s `cassert`. Theoretically I think it is possible to implement C++'s own `assert` or `#define` that removes the need for adding parentheses here and there. However, the C++ committee never cares about ergonomics.

### 1.6.4 goto Statement and Breaking outer Loops

Rust, like Java and Python, allows you to break an outer loop from an inner loop:

```
for i in 0..3 {
    'for_j: for j in 0..3 {
        for k in 0..3 {
            if i == 1 {
                break 'for_j;
            }
            println!("{}", i, j, k);
        }
    }
}
```

C++ doesn't support this natively, so people are using `goto` to achieve this:

```
#include <iostream>
printf("Break outer loop using goto:\n");
std::cout << "ijk " << std::endl;
for (int i = 0; i < 3; ++i)
{
    for (int j = 0; j < 3; ++j)
    {
        for (int k = 0; k < 3; ++k)
        {
            if (i == 1)
            {
                goto for_j_end;
            }
            std::cout << i << j << k << std::endl;
        }
    }
    for_j_end:
}
```

<sup>2</sup>Related to this stackoverflow question: <https://stackoverflow.com/questions/38030048>

```

    }
}
for_j_end:
{
}
}

```

Using `goto` sounds like I am joking. I'm not. People really suggest doing this<sup>3</sup>. It's a consensus that `goto` statements are error-prone, but there really aren't better ways to do this when you absolutely need to break an outer loop. The C++ committee never solves really problems.

Alternatively you can use a flag, which is more verbose, and I think this is even less readable:

```

printf("Break outer loop using flag:\n");
std::cout << "ijk " << std::endl;
bool i_is_1{false};
for (int i = 0; i < 3; ++i)
{
    for (int j = 0; j < 3; ++j)
    {
        for (int k = 0; k < 3; ++k)
        {
            if (i == 1)
            {
                i_is_1 = true;
                break;
            }
            else
            {
                i_is_1 = false;
            }
            std::cout << i << j << k << std::endl;
        }
        if (i_is_1)
        {
            break;
        }
    }
}
}

```

<sup>3</sup><https://stackoverflow.com/questions/1257744/can-i-use-break-to-exit-multiple-nested-for-loops>



There is another cleaner way, using the lambda trick (but why the hell should I use a lambda for such a basic task??):

```
printf("Break outer loop using lambda:\n");
std::cout << "ijk " << std::endl;
for (int i = 0; i < 3; ++i)
{
    [&] {
        for (int j = 0; j < 3; ++j)
        {
            for (int k = 0; k < 3; ++k)
            {
                if (i == 1)
                {
                    return;
                }
                std::cout << i << j << k << std::endl;
            }
        }
    }();
}
```

I'll get back to lambdas later. For now just accept that they are roughly equivalent to Rust's closures.

### 1.6.5 switch

C++'s `switch` is essentially a shortcut for a series of `if...else if...else if...else` statements. Well, often they are actually more *verbose* than the `if...else` chain.

The following C++ code

```
int d = 5;
if (d == 0) {
    printf("It's Sunday!\n");
} else if (d == 6) {
    printf("It's Saturday!\n");
} else {
    printf("It's weekday.\n");
}
```

is equivalent to:

```
switch (d)
{
case 0:
    printf("It's Sunday!\n");
    break;
case 6:
    printf("It's Saturday!\n");
    break;
default:
    printf("It's weekday.\n");
    break;
}
```

(I'll start to omit headers from now on.)

Note the **break** statement at the end of each **case**, without which the **default** branch will always be triggered, which is clearly not you meant to do. Oh, if the proper usage requires that **break**; needs to be appended to every case, why isn't the C++ language designed so that the **breaks** happen implicitly<sup>4</sup>? Are there any **switch**- or **match**-like statements in other languages uglier than this? (Sorry there really is, that's bash's **case** statement.)

You can group several values into a single branch:

```
int d = 5;
switch (d)
{
case 0:
    printf("It's Sunday!\n");
    break;
case 6:
    printf("It's Saturday!\n");
    break;
case 1:
case 2:
case 3:
case 4:
case 5:
    printf("It's weekday.\n");
    break;
default:
    printf("Not a valid day of week!\n");
}
```

---

<sup>4</sup>We're not the only ones to spot this problem; see this [StackOverflow question](#). But if this is merely a design mistake in C and is inherited by C++, why don't Java and Javascript take the opportunity to break from this ugly semantics? (Stockholm syndrom, I know)

```
    break;  
}
```

This is all about `switch` in C++. Forget everything about the fancy pattern matching in Rust!

## Exercise

### 1. Pointers and references.

```
int x = 5;  
int y = 10;  
int* px = &x;  
int* py = &y;  
px = py;  
// what are the values of x, y, *px and *py now?  
  
int i = 5;  
int j = 10;  
int& ri = i;  
int& rj = j;  
ri = rj;  
// what are the values of i, j, ri and rj now?
```



## Chapter 2

# Enumerations

Like Rust, C++ has `enums`. Unlike Rust, their `enums` are much less powerful. C++'s enumeration comes in two flavors: the plain, C-compatible `enum`, and the `enum class`. Generally, you should always use an `enum class`, but you should also learn about the plain `enum` in order to read others' code.

### 2.1 The Plain `enum`

#### 2.1.1 Defining an Enum

The syntax for defining an `enum` in C++ is similar to Rust. In addition, like in Rust, enum variants are represented as integers at the low level, and by default the value starts from 0.

```
enum LogLevel
{
    Debug,    // 0
    Info,     // 1
    Warning,  // 2
    Error     // 3
};
```

You can also manually assign values to the variants (also valid in Rust):

```
enum LogLevel
{
    Debug    = 0x12,
    Info     = 0xd1,
```

```
Warning = 0x7c,
Error   = 0x0a,
};
```

Unlike Rust, C++ by default uses the `int` type to represent the variants, even though most of the time the number of variants won't exceed 256. To use a more compact representation, you can do:

```
enum MyEnum : uint8_t
// or `enum Foo : char` (remember that `char` is an integer type)
{
    Foo,
    Bar,
};
```

### 2.1.2 Using an Enum

Unlike Rust, a C++ `enum` does not create a namespace, which means you cannot write `LogLevel::Info` to refer to the `Info` variant of the `LogLevel` enum defined in the previous subsection. You should write `Info` directly.

A enum is implicitly converted to an integer. Which means it can be directly compared to an integer (but don't actually do this) and can be pushed to `std::cout` directly.

```
LogLevel lvl = Info;
assert(Info == 1);
assert(Warning > 1);
assert(Error > Debug);
std::cout << lvl << std::endl;
```

However, an integer cannot be converted implicitly into an enum, but can be done so explicitly:

```
LogLevel lvl = 2;           // won't work
LogLevel lvl = (LogLevel)2; // OK, but don't actually do this
```

You can reassign the identifier `Info` to another value

```
int Info = 999;
```

...but can you set another `LogLevel` to `Info`?

```
LogLevel m = Info; // Error!
```

No you can't. C++ generally forbids re-defining variables, but in the case of enums you are allowed to re-bind a enum variant identifier (`Info`) to another value (999), then you just can't use that enum variant.

To avoid this and other kinds of conflicts, it had been a common practice to enum variants with part of the enum name. For example, the `LogLevel` enum may be rewritten as:

```
enum LogLevel
{
    LevelDebug,
    LevelInfo,
    LevelWarning,
    LevelError
};
```

...which is yet another way in which C++ has been promoting the violation of the DRY rule To solve this problem. Instead of allowing using enum variant either with or without a namespace (which MSVC allows), the C++ committee invented yet another way to work with enums, known as the `enum class`.