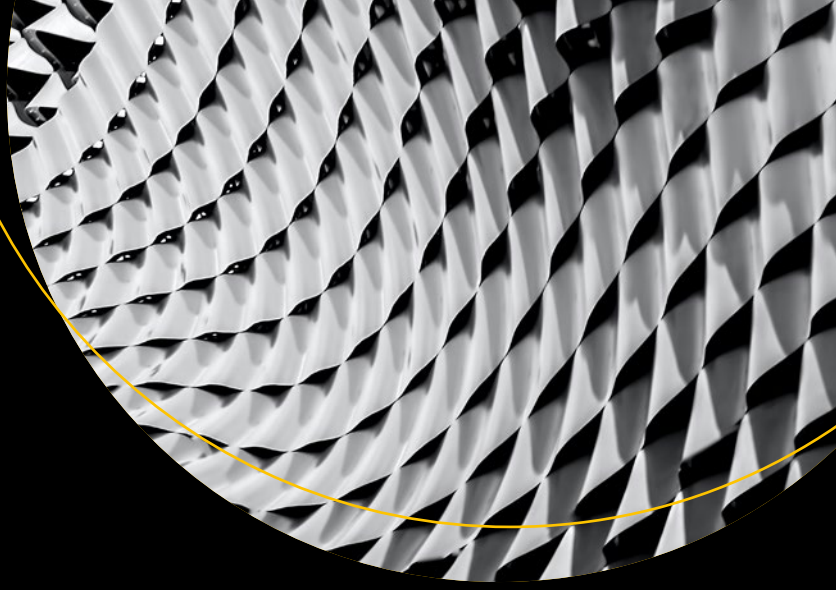

Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners

A Friendly Introduction to C++ Programming Language and C++11 to C++20 Standards

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Slobodan Dmitrović

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Slobodan Dmitrović
Belgrade, Serbia

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Printed on acid-free paper

To M. R., whose work is an inspiration to me.

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About the Author

Slobodan Dmitrović is a software development consultant and an author from Serbia. He specializes in C++ training, technical analysis, and software architecture. He is a highly visible member of the SE European C++ community and a StackOverflow contributor. Slobodan has gained international experience working as a software consultant in Denmark, Poland, Croatia, China, and the Philippines. Slobodan maintains a website at `www.cppandfriends.com`.

About the Technical Reviewer

Chinmaya Patnayak is an embedded software developer at NVIDIA and is skilled in C++, CUDA, deep learning, Linux, and file systems. He has been a speaker and instructor for deep learning at various major technology events across India. Chinmaya holds an M.Sc. degree in physics and B.E. in electrical and electronics engineering from BITS Pilani. He has previously worked with Defence Research and Development Organization (DRDO) on encryption algorithms for video streams. His current interest lies in neural networks for image segmentation and applications in biomedical research and self-driving cars. Find more about him at `chinmayapatnayak.github.io`.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Dear Reader,

Congratulations on choosing to learn the C++ programming language, and thank you for picking up this book. My name is Slobodan Dmitrović, I am a software developer and a technical writer, and I will try to introduce you to a beautiful world of C++ to the best of my abilities.

This book is an effort to introduce the reader to a C++ programming language in a structured, straightforward, and friendly manner. We will use the "just enough theory and plenty of examples" approach whenever possible.

To me, C++ is a wonderful product of the human intellect. Over the years, I have certainly come to think of it as a thing of beauty and elegance. C++ is a language like no other, surprising in its complexity, yet wonderfully sleek and elegant in so many ways. It is also a language that cannot be learned by guessing, one that is easy to get wrong and challenging to get right.

In this book, we will get familiar with the language basics first. Then, we will move onto standard-library. Once we got these covered, we will describe the modern C++ standards in more detail.

After each section, there are source code exercises to help us adopt the learned material more efficiently. Let us get started!

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CHAPTER 2

What is C++?

C++ is a programming language. A standardized, general-purpose, object-oriented, compiled language. C++ is accompanied by a set of functions and containers called the C++ Standard-Library. Bjarne Stroustrup created C++ as an extension to a C programming language. Still, C++ evolved to be a completely different programming language.

Let us emphasize this: C and C++ are two different languages. C++ started as "C with classes," but it is now a completely different language. So, C++ is not C; C++ is not C with classes; it is just C++. And there is no such thing as a C/C++ programming language.

C++ is widely used for the so-called systems programming as well as application programming. C++ is a language that allows us to *get down to the metal* where we can perform low-level routines if needed, or soar high with abstraction mechanisms such as templates and classes.

2.1 C++ Standards

C++ is governed by the ISO C++ standard. There are multiple ISO C++ standards listed here in chronological order: C++03, C++11, C++14, C++17, and the upcoming C++20 standard.

Every C++ standard starting with the C++11 onwards is referred to as "Modern C++." And modern C++ is what we will be teaching in this book.

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CHAPTER 3

C++ Compilers

C++ programs are usually a collection of C++ code spread across one or multiple source files. The C++ compiler compiles these files and turns them into object files. Object files are linked together by a linker to create an executable file or a library. At the time of the writing, some of the more popular C++ compilers are:

- The g++ frontend (as part of the GCC)
- Visual C++ (as part of the Visual Studio IDE)
- Clang (as part of the LLVM)

3.1 Installing C++ Compilers

The following sections explain how to install C++ compilers on Linux and Windows and how to compile and run our C++ programs.

3.1.1 On Linux

To install a C++ compiler on Linux, type the following inside the terminal:

```
sudo apt-get install build-essential
```

To compile the C++ source file **source.cpp**, we type:

```
g++ source.cpp
```

This command will produce an executable with the default name of **a.out**. To run the executable file, type:

```
./a.out
```


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To compile for a C++11 standard, we add the -std=c++11 flag:

```
g++ -std=c++11 source.cpp
```

To enable warnings, we add the -*Wall* flag:

```
g++ -std=c++11 -Wall source.cpp
```

To produce a custom executable name, we add the -*o* flag followed by an executable name:

```
g++ -std=c++11 -Wall source.cpp -o myexe
```

The same rules apply to the Clang compiler. Substitute *g++* with *clang++*.

3.1.2 On Windows

On Windows, we can install a free copy of Visual Studio.

Choose *Create a new project,* make sure the *C++* language option is selected, and choose - *Empty Project* – click *Next* and click *Create*. Go to the Solution Explorer panel, right-click on the project name, choose *Add – New Item – C++ File (.cpp)*, type the name of a file (**source.cpp**), and click *Add*. Press F5 to run the program.

We can also do the following: choose *Create a new project,* make sure the *C++* language option is selected, and choose – *Console App* – click *Next* and click *Create*.

If a *Create a new project* button is not visible, choose *File – New – Project* and repeat the remaining steps.

CHAPTER 4

Our First Program

Let us create a blank text file using the text editor or C++ IDE of our choice and name it *source.cpp*. First, let us create an empty C++ program that does nothing. The content of the *source.cpp* file is:

```
int main(){}
```

The function `main` is the main program entry point, the start of our program. When we run our executable, the code inside the `main` function body gets executed. A function is of type `int` (and returns a result to the system, but let us not worry about that just yet). The reserved name `main` is a function name. It is followed by a list of parameters inside the parentheses `()` followed by a function body marked with braces `{}`. Braces marking the beginning and the end of a function body can also be on separate lines:

```
int main()
{

}
```

This simple program does nothing, it has no parameters listed inside parentheses, and there are no statements inside the function body. It is essential to understand that this is the main program signature.

There is also another `main` function signature accepting two different parameters used for manipulating the command line arguments. For now, we will only use the first form .

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4.1 Comments

Single line comments in C++ start with double slashes // and the compiler ignores them. We use them to comment or document the code or use them as notes:

```
int main()
{
    // this is a comment
}
```

We can have multiple single-line comments:

```
int main()
{
    // this is a comment
    // this is another comment
}
```

Multi-line comments start with the /* and end with the */. They are also known as C-style comments. Example:

```
int main()
{
    /* This is a
    multi-line comment */
}
```

4.2 Hello World Example

Now we are ready to get the first glimpse at our "Hello World" example. The following program is the simplest "Hello World" example. It prints out Hello World. in the console window:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "Hello World.";
}
```

Believe it or not, the detailed analysis and explanation of this example is 15 pages long. We can go into it right now, but we will be no wiser at this point as we first need to know what headers, streams, objects, operators, and string literals are. Do not worry. We will get there.

A brief(ish) explanation

The `#include <iostream>` statement includes the `iostream` header into our source file via the `#include` directive. The `iostream` header is part of the standard library. We need its inclusion to use the `std::cout` object, also known as a standard-output stream. The `<<` operator inserts our Hello World string literal into that output stream. String literal is enclosed in double quotes `""`. The `;` marks the end of the statement. Statements are pieces of the C++program that get executed. Statements end with a semicolon `;` in C++. The `std` is the standard-library namespace and `::` is the scope resolution operator. Object `cout` is inside the `std` namespace, and to access it, we need to prepend the call with the `std::`. We will get more familiar with all of these later in the book, especially the `std::` part.

A brief explanation

In a nutshell, the `std::cout <<` is the natural way of outputting data to the standard output/console window in C++.

We can output multiple string literals by separating them with multiple `<<` operators:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "Some string." << " Another string.";
}
```

To output on a new line, we need to output a new-line character `\n` literal. The characters are enclosed in single quotes `'\n'`.

Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "First line" << '\n' << "Second line.";
}
```

The \ represents an escape sequence, a mechanism to output certain special characters such as new-line character `'\n'`, single quote character `'\''` or a double quote character `'\"'`.

Characters can also be part of the single string literal:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "First line\nSecond line.";
}
```

Do not use using namespace std;

Many examples on the web introduce the entire std namespace into the current scope via the `using namespace std;` statement only to be able to type `cout` instead of the `std::cout`. While this might save us from typing five additional characters, it is **wrong** for many reasons. We do not want to introduce the entire *std* namespace into the current scope because we want to avoid name clashes and ambiguity. Good to remember: do not introduce the entire `std` namespace into a current scope via the `using namespace std;` statement. So, instead of this wrong approach:

```
#include <iostream>

using namespace std; // do not use this

int main()
{
    cout << "A bad example.";
}
```

use the following:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "A good example.";
}
```

For calls to objects and functions that reside inside the `std` namespace, add the `std::` prefix where needed.

CHAPTER 5

Types

Every entity has a type. What is a type? A type is a set of possible values and operations. Instances of types are called objects. An object is some region in memory that has a value of particular type (not to be confused with an instance of a class which is also called object).

5.1 Fundamental Types

C++ has some built-in types. We often refer to them as fundamental types. A declaration is a statement that introduces a name into a current scope.

5.1.1 Boolean

Let us declare a variable `b` of type `bool`. This type holds values of `true` and `false`.

```
int main()
{
    bool b;
}
```

This example declares a variable `b` of type `bool`. And that is it. The variable is not initialized, no value has been assigned to it at the time of construction. To initialize a variable, we use an assignment operator = followed by an initializer:

```
int main()
{
    bool b = true;
}
```


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We can also use braces {} for initialization:

```
int main()
{
    bool b{ true };
}
```

These examples declare a (local) variable `b` of type `bool` and initialize it to a value of `true`. Our variable now holds a value of `true`. All local variables should be initialized. Accessing uninitialized variables results in Undefined Behavior, abbreviated as UB. More on this in the following chapters.

5.1.2 Character Type

Type `char`, referred to as *character type*, is used to represent a single character. The type can store characters such as `'a'`, `'Z'` etc. The size of a character type is exactly one byte. Character literals are enclosed in single quotes `''` in C++. To declare and initialize a variable of type `char`, we write:

```
int main()
{
    char c = 'a';
}
```

Now we can print out the value of our char variable:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    char c = 'a';
    std::cout << "The value of variable c is: " << c;
}
```

Once declared and initialized, we can access our variable and change its value:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    char c = 'a';
    std::cout << "The value of variable c is: " << c;
    c = 'Z';
    std::cout << " The new value of variable c is: " << c;
}
```

The size of the `char` type in memory is usually one byte. We obtain the size of the type through a `sizeof` operator:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "The size of type char is: " << sizeof(char)
    << " byte(s)";
}
```

There are other character types such as `wchar_t` for holding characters of Unicode character set, `char16_t` for holding UTF-16 character sets, but for now, let us stick to the type `char`.

A character literal is a character enclosed in single quotes. Example: `'a'`, `'A'`, `'z'`, `'X'`, `'0'` etc.

Every character is represented by an integer number in the character set. That is why we can assign both numeric literals (up to a certain number) and character literals to our `char` variable:

```
int main()
{
    char c = 'a';
    // is the same as if we had
    // char c = 97;
}
```

We can write: `char c = 'a';` or we can write `char c = 97;` which is (probably) the same, as the `'a'` character in ASCII table is represented with the number of `97`. For the most part, we will be using character literals to represent the value of a char object.

5.1.3 Integer Types

Another fundamental type is `int` called integer type. We use it to store integral values (whole numbers), both negative and positive:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    int y = -256;
    std::cout << "The value of x is: " << x << ", the value of y is: "
    << y;
}
```

Here we declared and initialized two variables of type `int`. The size of `int` is usually 4 bytes. We can also initialize the variable with another variable. It will receive a copy of its value. We still have two separate objects in memory:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    int y = x;
    std::cout << "The value of x is: " << x << " ,the value of y is: " << y;
    // x is 123
    // y is 123
    x = 456;
    std::cout << "The value of x is: " << x << " ,the value of y is: " << y;
    // x is now 456
    // y is still 123
}
```

Once we declare a variable, we access and manipulate the variable name by its name only, without the type name.

Integer literals can be decimal, octal, and hexadecimal. Octal literals start with a prefix of `0`, and hexadecimal literals begin with a prefix of `0x`.

```
int main()
{
    int x = 10;     // decimal literal
    int y = 012;    // octal literal
    int z = 0xA;    // hexadecimal literal
}
```

All these variables have been initialized to a value of `10` represented by different integer literals. For the most part, we will be using decimal literals.

There are also other integer types such as `int64_t` and others, but we will stick to `int` for now.

5.1.4 Floating-Point Types

There are three floating-point types in C++: `float`, `double`, `long double`, but we will stick to type `double` (double-precision). We use it for storing floating-point values / real numbers:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    double d = 3.14;
    std::cout << "The value of d is: " << d;
}
```

Some of the floating-point literals can be:

```
int main()
{
    double x = 213.456;
    double y = 1.;
    double z = 0.15;
```

```
    double w = .15;
    double d = 3.14e10;
}
```

5.1.5 Type void

Type `void` is a type with no values. Well, what is the purpose of such type if we can not objects of that type? Good question. While we can not have objects of type `void`, we can have functions of type `void`. Functions that do not return a value. We can also have a `void` pointer type marked with `void*`. More on this in later chapters when we discuss pointers and functions.

5.2 Type Modifiers

Types can have modifiers. Some of the modifiers are `signed` and `unsigned`. The `signed` (the default if omitted) means the type can hold both positive and negative values, and `unsigned` means the type has unsigned representation. Other modifiers are for the size: `short` - type will have the width of at least 16 bits, and `long` - type will have the width of at least 32 bits. Furthermore, we can now combine these modifiers:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    unsigned long int x = 4294967295;
    std::cout << "The value of an unsigned long integer variable is: " << x;
}
```

Type `int` is `signed` by default.

5.3 Variable Declaration, Definition, and Initialization

Introducing a name into a current scope is called a *declaration*. We are letting the world know there is a name (a variable, for example) of some type, from now on in the current scope. In a declaration, we prepend the variable name with a type name. Declaration examples:

```
int main()
{
    char c;
    int x;
    double d;
}
```

We can declare multiple names on the same line:

```
int main()
{
    int x, y, z;
}
```

If there is an initializer for an object present, then we call it an *initialization*. We are declaring and initializing an object to a specific value. We can initialize an object in various ways:

```
int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    int y{ 123 };
    int z = { 123 };
}
```

A variable definition is setting a value in memory for a name. The definition is making sure we can access and use the name in our program. Roughly speaking, it is a declaration followed by an initialization (for variables) followed by a semicolon. The definition is also a declaration. Definition examples:

```
int main()
{
    char c = 'a';
    int x = 123;
    double d = 456.78;
}
```

CHAPTER 6

Exercises

6.1 Hello World and Comments

Write a program that has a comment in it, outputs "Hello World." on one line, and "C++ rocks!" on a new line.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    // this is a comment
    std::cout << "Hello World." << '\n';
    std::cout << "C++ rocks!";
}
```

6.2 Declaration

Write a program that declares three variables inside the `main` function. Variables are of `char`, `int`, and type `double`. The names of the variables are arbitrary. Since we do not use any input or output, we do not need to include the <iostream> header.

```
int main()
{
    char mychar;
    int myint;
    double mydouble;
}
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_6

6.3 Definition

Write a program that defines three variables inside the `main` function. The variables are of `char`, `int`, and type `double`. The names of the variables are arbitrary. The initializers are arbitrary.

```
int main()
{
    char mychar = 'a';
    int myint = 123;
    double mydouble = 456.78;
}
```

6.4 Initialization

Write a program that defines three variables inside the `main` function. The variables are of `char`, `int`, and type `double`. The names of the variables are arbitrary. The initializers are arbitrary. The initialization is performed using the initializer list. Print the values afterward.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    char mychar{ 'a' };
    int myint{ 123 };
    double mydouble{ 456.78 };
    std::cout << "The value of a char variable is: " << mychar << '\n';
    std::cout << "The value of an int variable is: " << myint << '\n';
    std::cout << "The value of a double variable is: " << mydouble << '\n';
}
```

CHAPTER 7

Operators

7.1 Assignment Operator

The assignment operator = assigns a value to a variable / object:

```
int main()
{
    char mychar = 'c';    // define a char variable mychar
    mychar = 'd';         // assign a new value to mychar

    int x = 123;          // define an integer variable x
    x = 456;              // assign a new value to x
    int y = 789;          // define a new integer variable y
    y = x;                // assing a value of x to it
}
```

7.2 Arithmetic Operators

We can do arithmetic operations using arithmetic operators. Some of them are:

```
+ // addition
- // subtraction
* // multiplication
/ // division
% // modulo
```


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Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    int y = 456;
    int z = x + y; // addition
    z = x - y; // subtraction
    z = x * y; // multiplication
    z = x / y; // division
    std::cout << "The value of z is: " << z << '\n';
}
```

The integer division, in our example, results in a value of `0`. It is because the result of the integer division where both operands are integers is *truncated towards zeros*. In the expression `x / y`, `x` and `y` are operands and `/` is the operator.

If we want a floating-point result, we need to use the type `double` and make sure at least one of the division operands is also of type `double`:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    double y = 456;
    double z = x / y;
    std::cout << "The value of z is: " << z << '\n';
}
```

Similarly, we can have:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    double z = 123 / 456.0;
    std::cout << "The value of z is: " << z << '\n';
}
```

and the result would be the same.

7.3 Compound Assignment Operators

Compound assignment operators allow us to perform an arithmetic operation and assign a result with one operator:

```
+= // compound addition
-= // compound subtraction
*= // compound multiplication
/= // compound division
%= // compound modulo
```

Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    x += 10;    // the same as x = x + 10
    x -= 10;    // the same as x = x - 10
    x *= 2;     // the same as x = x * 2
    x /= 3;     // the same as x = x / 3
    std::cout << "The value of x is: " << x;
}
```

7.4 Increment/Decrement Operators

Increment/decrement operators increment/decrement the value of the object. The operators are:

```
++x // pre-increment operator
x++ // post-increment operator
--x // pre-decrement operator
x-- // post-decrement operator
```

A simple example:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    x++;    // add 1 to the value of x
    ++x;    // add 1 to the value of x
    --x;    // decrement the value of x by 1
    x--;    // decrement the value of x by 1
    std::cout << "The value of x is: " << x;
}
```

Both pre-increment and post-increment operators add `1` to the value of our object, and both pre-decrement and post-decrement operators subtract one from the value of our object. The difference between the two, apart from the implementation mechanism (very broadly speaking), is that with the pre-increment operator, a value of `1` is added first. Then the object is evaluated/accessed in expression. With the post-increment, the object is evaluated/accessed first, and after that, the value of `1` is added. To the next statement that follows, it does not make a difference. The value of the object is the same, no matter what version of the operator was used. The only difference is the timing in the expression where it is used.

CHAPTER 8

Standard Input

C++ provides facilities for accepting input from a user. We can think of the *standard input* as our keyboard. A simple example accepting one integer number and printing it out is:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "Please enter a number and press enter: ";
    int x = 0;
    std::cin >> x;
    std::cout << "You entered: " << x;
}
```

The `std::cin` is the standard input stream, and it uses the `>>` operator to extract what has been read into our variable. The `std::cin >> x;` statement means: *read from a standard input into a x variable*. The `cin` object resides inside the `std` namespace. So, `std::cout <<` is used for outputting data (to a screen) and `std::cin >>` is used for inputting the data (from the keyboard).

S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_8

We can accept multiple values from the standard input by separating them with multiple >> operators:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "Please enter two numbers separated by a space and press
    enter: ";
    int x = 0;
    int y = 0;
    std::cin >> x >> y;
    std::cout << "You entered: " << x << " and " << y;
}
```

We can accept values of different types:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "Please enter a character, an integer and a double: ";
    char c = 0;
    int x = 0;
    double d = 0.0;
    std::cin >> c >> x >> d;
    std::cout << "You entered: " << c << ", " << x << " and " << d;
}
```

CHAPTER 9

Exercises

9.1 Standard Input

Write a program that accepts an integer number from the standard input and then print that number.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "Please enter a number: ";
    int x;
    std::cin >> x;
    std::cout << "You entered: " << x;
}
```

9.2 Two Inputs

Write a program that accepts two integer numbers from the standard input and then prints them.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "Please enter two integer numbers: ";
    int x;
    int y;
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_9

```
    std::cin >> x >> y;
    std::cout << "You entered: " << x << " and " << y;
}
```

9.3 Multiple Inputs

Write a program that accepts three values of type `char`, `int`, and `double` respectfully from the standard input. Print out the values afterward.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "Please enter a char, an int and a double: ";
    char c;
    int x;
    double d;
    std::cin >> c >> x >> d;
    std::cout << "You entered: " << c << ", " << x << ", and " << d;
}
```

9.4 Inputs and Arithmetic Operations

Write a program that accepts two `int` numbers, sums them up, and assigns a result to a third integer. Print out the result afterward.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "Please enter two integer numbers: ";
    int x;
    int y;
    std::cin >> x >> y;
    int z = x + y;
    std::cout << "The result is: " << z;
}
```

9.5 Post-Increment and Compound Assignment

Write a program that defines an `int` variable called `x` with a value of `123`, post-increments that value in the next statement, and adds the value of `20` in the following statement using the compound assignment operator. Print out the value afterward.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    x++;
    x += 20;
    std::cout << "The result is: " << x;
}
```

9.6 Integral and Floating-point Division

Write a program that divides numbers `9` and `2` and assigns a result to an `int` and a `double` variable. Then modify one of the operands, so that is of type `double` and observe the different outcomes of a floating-point division where at least one of the operands is of type `double`. Print out the values afterward.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 9 / 2;
    std::cout << "The result is: " << x << '\n';
    double d = 9 / 2;
    std::cout << "The result is: " << d << '\n';
    d = 9.0 / 2;
    std::cout << "The result is: " << d;
}
```

CHAPTER 10

Arrays

Arrays are sequences of objects of the same type. We can declare an array of type `char` as follows:

```
int main()
{
    char arr[5];
}
```

This example declares an array of 5 characters. To declare an array of type `int` which holds five elements, we would use:

```
int main()
{
    int arr[5];
}
```

To initialize an array, we can use the initialization list {}:

```
int main()
{
    int arr[5] = { 10, 20, 30, 40, 50 };
}
```

Initialization list in our example `{ 10, 20, 30, 40, 50 }` is marked with braces and elements separated by commas. This initialization list initializes our array with the values in the list. The first array element now has a value of `10`; the second array element now has a value of `20` etc. The last (fifth) array element now has a value of `50`.

S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_10

We can access individual array elements through a subscript [ ] operator and an index. The first array element has an index of 0, and we access it via:

```
int main()
{
    int arr[5] = { 10, 20, 30, 40, 50 };
    arr[0] = 100; // change the value of the first array element
}
```

Since the indexing starts from 0 and not 1, the last array element has an index of 4:

```
int main()
{
    int arr[5] = { 10, 20, 30, 40, 50 };
    arr[4] = 500; // change the value of the last array element
}
```

So, when declaring an array, we write how many elements we want to declare, but when accessing array elements, we need to remember that the indexing starts from 0 and ends with the *number-of-elements – 1*. That being said, in modern C++, we should prefer the `std::array` and `std::vector` containers to raw arrays. More on this in later chapters.

CHAPTER 11

Pointers

Objects reside in memory. And so far, we have learned how to access and manipulate objects through *variables*. Another way to access an object in memory is through pointers. Each object in memory has its type and an address. This allows us to access the object through a pointer. So, pointers are types that can hold the address of a particular object. For illustrative purposes only, we will declare an unutilized pointer that can point to an `int` object:

```
int main()
{
    int* p;
}
```

We say that `p` is of type `int*`.

To declare a pointer that points to a `char` (object) we declare a pointer of type `char*`:

```
int main()
{
    char* p;
}
```

In our first example, we declared a pointer of type `int*`. To make it point to an existing `int` object in memory, we use the address-of operator `&`. We say that `p` *points to* `x`.

```
int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    int* p = &x;
}
```


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In our second example we declared a pointer of type `char*` and similarly, we have:

```
int main()
{
    char c = 'a';
    char* p = &c;
}
```

To initialize a pointer that does not point to any object we can use the `nullptr` literal:

```
int main()
{
    char* p = nullptr;
}
```

It is said that p is now a *null pointer*.

Pointers are variables/objects, just like any other type of object. Their value is the address of an object, a memory location where the object is stored. To access a value stored in an object pointed to by a pointer, we need to *dereference a pointer*. Dereferencing is done by prepending a pointer (variable) name with a dereferencing operator `*`:

```
int main()
{
    char c = 'a';
    char* p = &c;
    char d = *p;
}
```

To print out the value of the dereferenced pointer, we can use:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    char c = 'a';
    char* p = &c;
    std::cout << "The value of the dereferenced pointer is: " << *p;
}
```

Now, the value of the dereferenced pointer *p is simply 'a'.

Similarly, for an integer pointer we would have:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    int* p = &x;
    std::cout << "The value of the dereferenced pointer is: " << *p;
}
```

And the value of the dereferenced pointer, in this case, would be 123.

We can change the value of the pointed-to object through a dereferenced pointer:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    int* p = &x;
    *p = 456; // change the value of pointed-to object
    std::cout << "The value of x is: " << x;
}
```

We will talk about pointers, and especially about **smart pointers** when we cover the concepts such as dynamic memory allocation and lifetime of an object.

CHAPTER 12

References

Another (somewhat) similar concept is a *reference type*. A reference type is an alias to an existing object in memory. References must be initialized. We describe a reference type as `type_name` followed by an ampersand `&`. Example:

```
int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    int& y = x;
}
```

Now we have two different names that refer to the same `int` object in memory. If we assign a different value to either one of them, they both change as we have one object in memory, but we are using two different names:

```
int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    int& y = x;
    x = 456;
    // both x and y now hold the value of 456
    y = 789;
    // both x and y now hold the value of 789
}
```


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Another concept is a const-reference, which is a read-only alias to some object. Example:

```
int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    const int& y = x; // const reference
    x = 456;
    // both x and y now hold the value of 456
}
```

We will discuss references and const-reference in more detail when we learn about functions and function parameters. For now, let us assume they are an alias, a different name for an existing object.

It is important not to confuse the use of * in a pointer type declaration such as `int* p;` and the use of * when dereferencing a pointer such as `*p = 456.` Although the same star character, it is used in two different contexts.

It is important not to confuse the use of ampersand & in reference type declaration such as `int& y = x;` and the use of ampersand as an address-of operator `int* p = &x.s` The same literal symbol is used for two different things.

CHAPTER 13

Introduction to Strings

Earlier, we mentioned printing out a string literal such as "Hello World." to standard output via:

```
std::cout << "Hello World.";
```

We can store these literals inside std::string type. C++ standard library offers a compound type called string or rather std::string as it is part of the std namespace. We use it for storing and manipulating strings.

13.1 Defining a String

To use the std::string type, we need to include the <string> header in our program:

```
#include <string>

int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello World.";
}
```

To print out this string on the standard output we use:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello World.";
    std::cout << s;
}
```


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13.2 Concatenating Strings

We can add a string literal to our string using the compound operator +=:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello ";
    s += "World.";
    std::cout << s;
}
```

We can add a character to our string using the += operator:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello";
    char c = '!';
    s += c;
    std::cout << s;
}
```

We can add another string to our string using the + operator. We say we *concatenate* the strings:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s1 = "Hello ";
    std::string s2 = "World.";
    std::string s3 = s1 + s2;
    std::cout << s3;
}
```

Type `string` is the so-called *class-template.* It is implemented using templates, which we will discuss later on. For now, we will just mention that this string class offers some functionality (member functions) for working with strings.

13.3 Accessing Characters

Individual characters of a string can be accessed through a subscript operator [] or via a member function *.at(index)*. The index starts at `0`. Example:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello World.";
    char c1 = s[0];         // 'H'
    char c2 = s.at(0);      // 'H';

    char c3 = s[6];         // 'W'
    char c4 = s.at(6);      // 'W';

    std::cout << "First character: " << c1 << ", sixth character: " << c3;
}
```

13.4 Comparing Strings

A string can be compared to string literals and other strings using the equality `==` operator. Comparing a string to a string literal:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s1 = "Hello";
    if (s1 == "Hello")
```

```
    {
        std::cout << "The string is equal to \"Hello\"";
    }
}
```

Comparing a string to another string is done using the equality operator ==:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s1 = "Hello";
    std::string s2 = "World.";
    if (s1 == s2)
    {
        std::cout << "The strings are equal.";
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "The strings are not equal.";
    }
}
```

13.5 String Input

Preferred way of accepting a string from the standard input is via the `std::getline` function which takes `std::cin` and our string as parameters:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s;
    std::cout << "Please enter a string: ";
```

```
    std::getline(std::cin, s);
    std::cout << "You entered: " << s;
}
```

We use the `std::getline` because our string can contain white spaces. And if we used the `std::cin` function alone, it would accept only a part of the string.

The `std::getline` function has the following signature: `std::getline(read_from, into);` The function reads a line of text from the standard input (`std::cin`) into a string (`s`) variable.

A rule of thumb: if we need to use the `std::string` type, include the `<string>` header explicitly.

13.6 A Pointer to a String

A string has a member function .c_str() which returns a pointer to its first element. It is also said it returns a pointer to a null-terminated character array our string is made of:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello World.";
    std::cout << s.c_str();
}
```

This member function is of type `const char*` and is useful when we want to pass our `std::string` variable to a function accepting a `const char*` parameter.

13.7 Substrings

To create a substring from a string, we use the *.substr()* member function. The function returns a substring that starts at a certain position in the main string and is of a certain length. The signature of the function is: *.substring(starting_position, length)*. Example:

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

```
int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello World.";
    std::string mysubstring = s.substr(6, 5);
    std::cout << "The substring value is: " << mysubstring;
}
```

In this example, we have the main string that holds the value of "Hello World." Then we create a substring that only has the "World" value. The substring starts from the sixth character of the main string, and its length is five characters.

13.8 Finding a Substring

To find a substring in a string, we use the *.find()* member function. It searches for the substring in a string. If the substring is found, the function returns the position of the first found substring. This position is the position of a character where the substring starts in the main string. If the substring is not found, the function returns a value that is *std::string::npos*. The function itself is of type *std::string::size_type*.

To find a substring "Hello" inside the "This is a Hello World string" string, we write:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s = "This is a Hello World string.";
    std::string stringtofind = "Hello";
    std::string::size_type found = s.find(stringtofind);
    if (found != std::string::npos)
    {
        std::cout << "Substring found at position: " << found;
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "The substring is not found.";
    }
}
```

Here we have the main string and a substring we want to find. We supply the substring to the .find() function as an argument. We store the function's return value to a variable *found*. Then we check the value of this variable. If the value is not equal to *std::string::npos*, the substring was found. We print the message and the position of a character in the main string, where our substring was found

CHAPTER 14

Automatic Type Deduction

We can automatically deduce the type of an object using the `auto` specifier. The auto specifier deduces the type of an object based on the object's initializer type.

Example:

```
auto c = 'a';    // char type
```

This example deduces `c` to be of type `char` as the initializer `'a'` is of type `char`.

Similarly, we can have:

```
auto x = 123;    // int type
```

Here, the compiler deduces the `x` to be of type `int` because an integer literal `123` is of type `int`.

The type can also be deduced based on the type of expression:

```
auto d = 123.456 / 789.10;    // double
```

This example deduces `d` to be of type `double` as the type of the entire `123.456 / 789.10` expression is `double`.

We can use `auto` as part of the reference type:

```
int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    auto& y = x; // y is of int& type
}
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_14

or as part of the constant type:

```
int main()
{
    const auto x = 123; // x is of const int type
}
```

We use the *auto* specifier when the type (name) is hard to deduce manually or cumbersome to type due to the length.

CHAPTER 15

Exercises

15.1 Array Definition

Write a program that defines and initializes an array of five doubles. Change and print the values of the first and last array elements.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    double arr[5] = { 1.23, 2.45, 8.52, 6.3, 10.15 };
    arr[0] = 2.56;
    arr[4] = 3.14;
    std::cout << "The first array element is: " << arr[0] << '\n';
    std::cout << "The last array element is: " << arr[4] << '\n';
}
```

15.2 Pointer to an Object

Write a program that defines an object of type double. Define a pointer that points to that object. Print the value of the pointed-to object by dereferencing a pointer.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    double d = 3.14;
    double* p = &d;
    std::cout << "The value of the pointed-to object is: " << *p;
}
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_15

15.3 Reference Type

Write a program that defines an object of type double called `mydouble`. Define an object of reference type called `myreference` and initialize it with `mydouble`. Change the value of `myreference`. Print the object value using both the reference and the original variable. Change the value of `mydouble`. Print the value of both objects.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    double mydouble = 3.14;
    double& myreference = mydouble;

    myreference = 6.28;
    std::cout << "The values are: " << mydouble << " and " << myreference
    << '\n';

    mydouble = 9.45;
    std::cout << "The values are: " << mydouble << " and " << myreference
    << '\n';
}
```

15.4 Strings

Write a program that defines two strings. Join them together and assign the result to a third-string. Print out the value of the resulting string.

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

int main()
{
    std::string s1 = "Hello";
    std::string s2 = " World!";
    std::string s3 = s1 + s2;
    std::cout << "The resulting string is: " << s3;
}
```

15.5 Strings from Standard Input

Write a program that accepts the first and the last name from the standard input using the `std::getline` function. Store the input in a single string called `fullname`. Print out the string.

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

int main()
{
    std::string fullname;
    std::cout << "Please enter the first and the last name: ";
    std::getline(std::cin, fullname);
    std::cout << "Your name is: " << fullname;
}
```

15.6 Creating a Substring

Write a program that creates two substrings from the main string. The main string is made up of first and last names and is equal to "John Doe." The first substring is the first name. The second substring is the last name. Print the main string and two substrings afterward.

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

int main()
{
    std::string fullname = "John Doe";
    std::string firstname = fullname.substr(0, 4);
    std::string lastname = fullname.substr(5, 3);
    std::cout << "The full name is: " << fullname << '\n';
    std::cout << "The first name is: " << firstname << '\n';
    std::cout << "The last name is: " << lastname << '\n';
}
```

15.7 Finding a single Character

Write a program that defines the main string with a value of "Hello C++ World." and checks if a single character 'C' is found in the main string.

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

int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello C++ World.";
    char c = 'C';
    auto characterfound = s.find(c);
    if (characterfound != std::string::npos)
    {
        std::cout << "Character found at position: " << characterfound <<
        '\n';
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "Character was not found." << '\n';
    }
}
```

15.8 Finding a Substring

Write a program that defines the main string with a value of "Hello C++ World." and checks if a substring "C++" is found in the main string.

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

int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello C++ World.";
    std::string mysubstring = "C++";
    auto mysubstringfound = s.find(mysubstring);
```

```
    if (mysubstringfound != std::string::npos)
    {
        std::cout << "Substring found at position: " << mysubstringfound <<
        '\n';
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "Substring was not found." << '\n';
    }
}
```

Both the 'C' character and the "C++" substring start at the same position in our main string. That is why both examples yield a value of 6.

Instead of typing the lengthy *std::string::size_type* type for our *characterfound* and *mysubstringfound* variables, we used the *auto* specifier to deduce the type for us automatically.

15.9 Automatic Type Deduction

Write a program that automatically deduces the type for `char`, `int`, and `double` objects based on the initializer used. Print out the values afterward.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    auto c = 'a';
    auto x = 123;
    auto d = 3.14;

    std::cout << "The type of c is deduced as char, the value is: "
    << c << '\n';
    std::cout << "The type of x is deduced as int, the value is: "
    << x << '\n';
    std::cout << "The type of d is deduced as double, the value is: "
    << d << '\n';
}
```

CHAPTER 16

Statements

Earlier, we described statements as commands, pieces of code that are executed in some order. Expressions ending with a semicolon are statements. C++ language comes with some built-in statements. We will start with the selection statements.

16.1 Selection Statements

Selection statements allow us to check to use conditions, and based on that condition, execute the appropriate statements.

16.1.1 if Statement

When we want to execute a statement or more statements based on some condition, we use the `if`-statement. `if`-statement has the format of:

```
if (condition) statement
```

The `statement` executes only if the condition is `true`. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    bool b = true;
    if (b) std::cout << "The condition is true.";
}
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_16

To execute multiple statements if the condition is `true`, we use the block scope {}:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    bool b = true;
    if (b)
    {
        std::cout << "This is a first statement.";
        std::cout << "\nThis is a second statement.";
    }
}
```

Another form is the `if-else` statement:

```
if (condition) statement else statement
```

If the condition is `true`, the first statement executes, otherwise the second statement after the `else` keyword executes. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int m.ain()
{
    bool b = false;
    if (b) std::cout << "The condition is true.";
    else std::cout << "The condition is false.";
}
```

To execute multiple statements in either `if` or `else` branch, we use brace-enclosed blocks {}:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    bool b = false;
    if (b)
```

```
    {
        std::cout << "The condition is true.";
        std::cout << "\nThis is the second statement.";
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "The condition is false.";
        std::cout << "\nThis is the second statement.";
    }
}
```

16.1.2 Conditional Expression

A simple *if statement* can also be written as a *conditional expression*. The following is a simple if-statement:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    bool mycondition = true;
    int x = 0;

    if (mycondition)
    {
        x = 1;
    }
    else
    {
        x = 0;
    }
    std::cout << "The value of x is: " << x << '\n';
}
```

To rewrite the previous example using a *conditional expression*, we write:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    bool mycondition = true;
    int x = 0;
    x = (mycondition) ? 1 : 0;
    std::cout << "The value of x is: " << x << '\n';
}
```

The conditional expression is of the following syntax:

```
(condition) ? expression_1 : expression_2
```

The *conditional expression* uses the unary *?* operator, which checks the value of the condition. If the condition is true, it returns *expression_1*. If the condition is false, it returns *expression_2*. It can be thought of as a way of replacing a simple if-else-statement with an oneliner.

16.1.3 The Logical Operators

The logical operators perform logical *and, or,* and *negation* operations on their operands. The first is the && operator, which is a logical AND operator. The result of a logical AND condition with two operands is `true` if both operands are `true`. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    bool a = true;
    bool b = true;
    if (a && b)
    {
        std::cout << "The entire condition is true.";
    }
```

```
    else
    {
        std::cout << "The entire condition is false.";
    }
}
```

The next operator is `||`, which is a logical OR operator. The result of a logical OR expression is always `true` except when both operands are `false`. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    bool a = false;
    bool b = false;
    if (a || b)
    {
        std::cout << "The entire condition is true.";
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "The entire condition is false.";
    }
}
```

The next logical operator is the negation operator represented by a `!`. It negates the value of its only right-hand-side operand. It turns the value of `true` to `false` and vice-versa. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    bool a = true;
    if (!a)
    {
        std::cout << "The condition is true.";
    }
```

```
    else
    {
        std::cout << "The condition is false.";
    }
}
```

16.1.3.1 Comparison operators

Comparison operators allow us to compare the values of operands. Comparison operators are less than <, less than or equal to <=, greater than >, greater than or equal to >=, equal to ==, not equal to !=.

We can use the equality operator == to check if the values of operands are equal:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 5;
    if (x == 5)
    {
        std::cout << "The value of x is equal to 5.";
    }
}
```

Use-case for other comparison operators:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 10;
    if (x > 5)
    {
        std::cout << "The value of x is greater than 5.";
    }
```

```
    if (x >= 10)
    {
        std::cout << "\nThe value of x is greater than or equal to 10.";
    }
    if (x != 20)
    {
        std::cout << "\nThe value of x is not equal to 20.";
    }
    if (x == 20)
    {
        std::cout << "\nThe value of x is equal to 20.";
    }
}
```

Now, we can use both logical and comparison operators in the same condition:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 10;
    if (x > 5 && x < 15)
    {
        std::cout << "The value of x is greater than 5 and less than 15.";
    }
    bool b = true;
    if (x >5 && b)
    {
        std::cout << "\nThe value of x is greater than 5 and b is true.";
    }
}
```

Any literal, object or an expression implicitly convertible to `true` or `false` can be used as a condition:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    if (1) // literal 1 is convertible to true
    {
        std::cout << "The condition is true.";
    }
}
```

If we used an integer variable with a value other than `0`, the result would be `true`:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 10; // if x was 0, the condition would be false
    if (x)
    {
        std::cout << "The condition is true.";
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "The condition is false.";
    }
}
```

It is good practice to use the code blocks {} inside the `if`-statement branches, even if there is only one statement to be executed.

16.1.4 switch Statement

The switch statement is similar to having multiple if-statements. It checks the value of the condition (which must be integral or enum value) and, based on that value, executes the code inside one of a given set of case labels. If none of the case statements is equal to the condition, the code inside the default label is executed. General syntax:

```
switch (condition)
{
case value1:
    statement(s);
    break;
case value2etc:
    statement(s);
    break;
default:
    statement(s);
    break;
}
```

A simple example that checks for the value of integer x and executes the appropriate case label:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 3;
    switch (x)
    {
    case 1:
        std::cout << "The value of x is 1.";
        break;
    case 2:
        std::cout << "The value of x is 2.";
        break;
```

```
    case 3:
        std::cout << "The value of x is 3."; // this statement will be
        // executed
        break;
    default:
        std::cout << "The value is none of the above.";
        break;
    }
}
```

The `break` statement exits the switch statement. If there were no break statements, the code would *fall-through* to the next case statement and execute the code there regardless of the x value. We need to put breaks in all the *case:* and *default:* switches.

16.2 Iteration Statements

If we need some code to execute multiple times, we use the iteration statements. Iteration statements are statements that execute some code in a loop. The code in the loop executes 0, 1, or multiple times, depending on the statement and the condition.

16.2.1 for Statement

The `for`-statement executes code in a loop. The execution depends on the condition. General syntax of the `for`-statement is: `for (init_statement; condition; iteration_expression) { // execute some code }`. A simple example:

```
#include <iostream>

int ma.in()
{
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    {
        std::cout << "The counter is: " << i << '\n';
    }
}
```

This example executes the code inside the `for` loop ten times. The `init_statement` is `int i = 0;` We initialize the counter to `0`. The `condition` is: `i < 10;` and the `iteration_expression` is `i++;`

A simple explanation:

Initialize a counter to `0`, check if the counter is less than 10, execute the `std::cout << "The counter is: " << i << '\n';` statement inside the code-block and increment the counter `i` by 1. So, the code inside the code block will continue executing as long as the `i < 10` condition is `true`. Once the counter becomes `10`, the condition is no longer `true`, and the `for`-loop terminates.

If we wanted something to execute 20 times, we would set a different condition:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    for (int i = 0; i < 20; i++)
    {
        std::cout << "The counter is: " << i << '\n';
    }
}
```

16.2.2 while Statement

The `while`-statement executes code until the condition becomes `false`. The syntax for the `while`-loop is:

```
while (condition) { // execute some code }
```

As long as the condition is `true`, the `while`-loop will continue executing the code. When the `condition` becomes `false`, the `while` loop terminates. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 0;
    while (x < 10)
```

```
    {
        std::cout << "The value of x is: " << x << '\n';
        x++;
    }
}
```

The code in this example executes ten times. After each iteration, the condition `x < 10` is evaluated, and as long as it is equal to `true`, the code in the code block will keep executing. Once the condition becomes `false`, the `while` loop terminates. In this example, we increment the value of `x` in each iteration. And once it becomes `10`, the loop terminates.

16.2.3 do Statement

The `do`-statement is similar to `while`-statement, but the condition comes after the body. The code inside the `do`-statement is guaranteed to execute at least once. The syntax is:

```
do { // execute some code } while (condition);
```

If we used the previous example, the code would be:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 0;
    do
    {
        std::cout << "The value of x is: " << x << '\n';
        x++;
    } while (x < 10);
}
```

The `do`-statement is rarely used and better avoided.

Please note that there is also an iteration statement called *the range-for statement*. We will talk about it when we get to containers later on.

CHAPTER 17

Constants

When we want to have a read-only object or promise not to change the value of some object in the current scope, we make it a constant. C++ uses the `const` type qualifier to mark the object as a read-only. We say that our object is now *immutable*. To define an integer constant with a value of 5, for example, we would write:

```
int main()
{
    const int n = 5;
}
```

We can now use that constant in places such as an array size:

```
int main()
{
    const int n = 5;
    int arr[n] = { 10, 20, 30, 40, 50 };
}
```

Constants are not modifiable, attempt to do so results in a compile-time error:

```
int main()
{
    const int n = 5;
    n++; // error, can't modify a read-only object
}
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_17

An object declared const cannot be assigned to; it needs to be initialized. So, we can't have:

```
int main()
{
    const int n;       // error, no initializer
    const int m = 123; // OK
}
```

Worth noticing is that const modifies an entire type, not just the object. So, const int and int are two different types. The first one is said to be const-qualified.

Another const qualifier is the constant expression named constexpr. It is a constant that can be evaluated at compile-time. Initializers for constant expressions can be evaluated at compile-time and must themselves be constant expressions. Example:

```
int main()
{
    constexpr int n = 123;          //OK, 123 is a compile-time constant
                                    // expression
    constexpr double d = 456.78;    //OK, 456.78 is a compile-time constant
                                    // expression
    constexpr double d2 = d;        //OK, d is a constant expression
    int x = 123;
    constexpr int n2 = x;           //compile-time error
                                    // the value of x is not known during
                                    // compile-time
}
```

CHAPTER 18

Exercises

18.1 A Simple if-statement

Write a program that defines a boolean variable whose value is false. Use the variable as the condition inside the if-statement.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    bool mycondition = false;
    if (mycondition)
    {
        std::cout << "The condition is true." << '\n';
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "The condition is not true." << '\n';
    }
}
```

18.2 Logical Operators

Write a program that defines a variable of type int. Assign the value of 256 to the variable. Check if the value of this variable is greater than 100 and less than 300. Then, define a boolean variable with a value of true. Check if the int number is greater than 100, or the value of a bool variable is true. Then define a second bool variable whose value will be the negation of the first bool variable.

S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_18

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 256;
    if (x > 100 && x < 300)
    {
        std::cout << "The value is greater than 100 and less than 300."
        << '\n';
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "The value is not inside the (100 .. 300) range."
        << '\n';
    }

    bool mycondition = true;
    if (x > 100 || mycondition)
    {
        std::cout << "Either x is greater than 100 or the bool variable is
        true." << '\n';
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "x is not greater than 100 and the bool variable is
        false." << '\n';
    }

    bool mysecondcondition = !mycondition;
}
```

18.3 The switch-statement

Write a program that defines a simple integer variable with a value of 3. Use the switch statement to check if the value is inside the [1..4] range.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 3;
    switch (x)
    {
    case 1:
        std::cout << "The value is equal to 1." << '\n';
        break;
    case 2:
        std::cout << "The value is equal to 2." << '\n';
        break;
    case 3:
        std::cout << "The value is equal to 3." << '\n';
        break;
    case 4:
        std::cout << "The value is equal to 4." << '\n';
        break;
    default:
        std::cout << "The value is not inside the [1..4] range." << '\n';
        break;
    }
}
```

18.4 The for-loop

Write a program that uses a for-loop to print out the counter 15 times. The counter starts at 0.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    for (int i = 0; i < 15; i++)
```

```
    {
        std::cout << "The counter is now: " << i << '\n';
    }
}
```

18.5 Array and the for-loop

Write a program that defines an array of 5 integers. Use the for-loop to print the array elements and their indexes.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int arr[5] = { 3, 20, 8, 15, 10 };
    for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
    {
        std::cout << "arr[" << i << "] = " << arr[i] << '\n';
    }
}
```

Explanation: here, we defined an array of 5 elements. Arrays are indexed starting from zero. So the first array element 3 has an index of 0. The last array element of 10 has an index of 4. We used the for-loop to iterate over array elements and print both their indexes and values. Our for-loop starts with a counter of 0 and ends with a counter of 4.

18.6 The const Type Qualifier

Write a program that defines three objects of type const int, const double and const std::string, respectively. Define a fourth const int object and initialize it with a value of the first const int object. Print out the values of all the variables.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    const int c1 = 123;
    const double d = 456.789;
    const std::string s = "Hello World!";
    const int c2 = c1;

    std::cout << "Constant integer c1 value: " << c1 << '\n';
    std::cout << "Constant double d value: " << d << '\n';
    std::cout << "Constant std::string s value: " << s << '\n';
    std::cout << "Constant integer c2 value: " << c2 << '\n';
}
```

CHAPTER 19

Functions

19.1 Introduction

We can break our C++ code into smaller chunks called functions. A function has a return type, a name, a list of parameters in a declaration, and an additional function body in a definition. A simple function definition is:

```
type function_name(arguments) {
    statement;
    statement;
    return something;
}
```

19.2 Function Declaration

To declare a function, we need to specify a return type, a name, and a list of parameters, if any. To declare a function called `myfunction` of type `void` that accepts no parameters, we write:

```
void myvoidfunction();

int main()
{

}
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_19

Type `void` is a type that represents *nothing*, an empty set of values. To declare a function of type `int` accepting one parameter, we can write:

```
int mysquarednumber (int x);

int main()
{

}
```

To declare a function of type `int`, which accepts, for example, two `int` parameters, we can write:

```
int mysum(int x, int y);

int main()
{

}
```

In function declaration only, we can omit the parameter names, but we need to specify their types:

```
int mysum(int, int);

int main()
{

}
```

19.3 Function Definition

To be called in a program, a function must be defined first. A function definition has everything a function declaration has, plus the body of a function. Those are a return type, a function name, a list of function parameters, if any, and a function body. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

void myfunction(); // function declaration

int main()
{

}
```

```
// function definition
void myfunction() {
    std::cout << "Hello World from a function.";
}
```

To define a function that accepts one parameter, we can write:

```
int mysquarednumber(int x); // function declaration

int main()
{

}

// function definition
int mysquarednumber(int x) {
    return x * x;
}
```

To define a function that accepts two parameters, we can write:

```
int mysquarednumber(int x); // function declaration

int main()
{

}

// function definition
int mysquarednumber(int x) {
    return x * x;
}
```

To call this function in our program, we specify the function name followed by empty parentheses as the function has no parameters:

```
#include <iostream>

void myfunction(); // function declaration
```

```
int main()
{
    myfunction(); // a call to a function
}

// function definition
void myfunction() {
    std::cout << "Hello World from a function.";
}
```

To call a function that accepts one parameter, we can use:

```
#include <iostream>

int mysquarednumber(int x); // function declaration

int main()
{
    int myresult = mysquarednumber(2); // a call to the function
    std::cout << "Number 2 squared is: " << myresult;
}

// function definition
int mysquarednumber(int x) {
    return x * x;
}
```

We called a function `mysquarednumber` by its name and supplied a value of `2` in place of function parameter and assigned the result of a function to our `myresult` variable. What we pass into a function is often referred to as a *function argument*.

To call a function that accepts two or more arguments, we use the function name followed by an opening parenthesis, followed by a list of arguments separated by commas and finally closing parentheses. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int mysum(int x, int y);
```

```
int main()
{
    int myresult = mysum(5, 10);
    std::cout << "The sum of 5 and 10 is: " << myresult;
}

int mysum(int x, int y) {
    return x + y;
}
```

19.4 Return Statement

Functions are of a certain type, also referred to as a *return type,* and they must return a value. The value returned is specified by a `return`-statement. Functions of type `void` do not need a `return` statement. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

void voidfn();

int main()
{
    voidfn();
}

void voidfn()
{
    std::cout << "This is void function and needs no return.";
}
```

Functions of other types (except function main) need a `return`-statement:

```
#include <iostream>

int intfn();

int main()
{
    std::cout << "The value of a function is: " << intfn();
}
```

```
int intfn()
{
    return 42; // return statement
}
```

A function can have multiple return-statements if required. Once any of the return-statement is executed, the function stops, and the rest of the code in the function is ignored:

```
#include <iostream>

int multiplereturns(int x);

int main()
{
    std::cout << "The value of a function is: " << multiplereturns(25);
}

int multiplereturns(int x)
{
    if (x >= 42)
    {
        return x;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

19.5 Passing Arguments

There are different ways of passing arguments to a function. Here, we will describe the three most used.

19.5.1 Passing by Value/Copy

When we pass an argument to a function, a copy of that argument is made and passed to the function if the function parameter type is not a reference. This means the value of the original argument does not change. A copy of the argument is made. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

void myfunction(int byvalue)
{
    std::cout << "Argument passed by value: " << byvalue;
}

int main()
{
    myfunction(123);
}
```

This is known as passing an argument *by value* or passing an argument *by copy*.

19.5.2 Passing by Reference

When a function parameter type is a reference type, then the actual argument is passed to the function. The function can modify the value of the argument. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

void myfunction(int& byreference)
{
    byreference++; // we can modify the value of the argument
    std::cout << "Argument passed by reference: " << byreference;
}

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    myfunction(x);
}
```

Here we passed an argument of a reference type `int&`, so the function now works with the actual argument and can change its value. When passing by reference, we need to pass the variable itself; we can't pass in a literal representing a value. Passing by reference is best avoided.

19.5.3 Passing by Const Reference

What is preferred is passing an argument by *const reference,* also referred to as a *reference to const*. It can be more efficient to pass an argument by reference, but to ensure it is not changed, we make it of const reference type. Example:

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

void myfunction(const std::string& byconstreference)
{
    std::cout << "Arguments passed by const reference: " <<
    byconstreference;
}

int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello World!";
    myfunction(s);
}
```

We use passing by const reference for efficiency reasons, and the `const` modifier ensures the value of an argument will not be changed.

In the last three examples, we omitted the function declarations and only supplied the function definitions. Although a function definition is also a declaration, you should provide both the declaration and a definition as in:

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

void myfunction(const std::string& byconstreference);

int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello World!";
    myfunction(s);
}
```

```
void myfunction(const std::string& byconstreference)
{
    std::cout << "Arguments passed by const reference: " <<
    byconstreference;
}
```

19.6 Function Overloading

We can have multiple functions with the same name but with different parameter types. This is called *function overloading*. A simple explanation: when the function names are the same, but the parameter types differ, then we have overloaded functions. Example of a function overload declarations:

```
void myprint(char param);
void myprint(int param);
void myprint(double param);
```

Then we implement function definitions and call each one:

```
#include <iostream>

void myprint(char param);
void myprint(int param);
void myprint(double param);

int main()
{
    myprint('c');        // calling char overload
    myprint(123);        // calling integer overload
    myprint(456.789);    // calling double overload
}

void myprint(char param)
{
    std::cout << "Printing a character: " << param << '\n';
}
```

```
void myprint(int param)
{
    std::cout << "Printing an integer: " << param << '\n';
}

void myprint(double param)
{
    std::cout << "Printing a double: " << param << '\n';
}
```

When calling our functions, a proper overload is selected based on the type of argument we supply. In the first call to `myprint('c')`, a `char` overload is selected because literal `'c'` is of type `char`. In a second function call `myprint(123)`, an integer overload is selected because the type of an argument `123` is `int`. And lastly, in our last function call `myprint(456.789)`, a double overload is selected by a compiler as the argument `456.789` is of type `double`.

Yes, literals in C++ also have types, and the C++ Standard precisely defines what type that is. Some of the literals and their corresponding types:

```
'c'      -    char
123      -    int
456.789  -    double
true     -    boolean
"Hello"  -    const char[6]
```

CHAPTER 20

Exercises

20.1 Function Definition

Write a program that defines a function of type `void` called `printmessage()`. The function outputs a `"Hello World from a function."` message on the standard output. Call the function from `main`.

```
#include <iostream>

void printmessage()
{
    std::cout << "Hello World from a function.";
}

int main()
{
    printmessage();
}
```

20.2 Separate Declaration and Definition

Write a program that declares and defines a function of type `void` called `printmessage()`. The function outputs a `"Hello World from a function."` message on the standard output. Call the function from `main`.

S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_20

```
#include <iostream>

void printmessage(); // function declaration

int main()
{
    printmessage();
}

// function definition
void printmessage()
{
    std::cout << "Hello World from a function.";
}
```

20.3 Function Parameters

Write a program which has a function of type `int` called `multiplication` accepting two `int` parameters by value. The function multiplies those two parameters and returns a result to itself. Invoke the function in main and assign a result of the function to a local `int` variable. Print the result in the console.

```
#include <iostream>

int multiplication(int x, int y)
{
    return x * y;
}

int main()
{
    int myresult = multiplication(10, 20);
    std::cout << "The result is: " << myresult;
}
```

20.4 Passing Arguments

Write a program which has a function of type `void` called `custommessage`. The function accepts one parameter by reference to `const` of type `std::string` and outputs a custom message on the standard output using that parameter's value. Invoke the function in main with a local string.

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

void custommessage(const std::string& message)
{
    std::cout << "The string argument you used is: " << message;
}

int main()
{
    std::string mymessage = "My Custom Message.";
    custommessage(mymessage);
}
```

20.5 Function Overloads

Write a program that has two function overloads. The functions are called `division`, and both accept two parameters. They divide the parameters and return the result to themselves. The first function overload is of type `int` and has two parameters of types `int`. The second overload is of type `double` and accepts two parameters of type `double`. Invoke the appropriate overload in `main`, first by supplying integer arguments and then the `double` arguments. Observe different results.

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

int division(int x, int y)
{
    return x / y;
}
```

```
double division(double x, double y)
{
    return x / y;
}

int main()
{
    std::cout << "Integer division: " << division(9, 2) << '\n';
    std::cout << "Floating point division: " << division(9.0, 2.0);
}
```

CHAPTER 21

Scope and Lifetime

When we declare a variable, its name is valid only inside some sections of the source code. And that section (part, portion, region) of the source code is called *scope*. It is the region of code in which the name can be accessed. There are different scopes:

21.1 Local Scope

When we declare a name inside a function, that name has a *local scope*. Its scope starts from the point of declaration till the end of the function block marked with }.

Example:

```
void myfunction()
{
    int x = 123; // Here begins the x's scope
} // and here it ends
```

Our variable `x` is declared inside a `myfunction()` body, and it has a local scope. We say that name `x` is local to `myfunction()`. It exists (can be accessed) only inside the function's scope and nowhere else.

21.2 Block Scope

The block-scope is a section of code marked by a block of code starting with { and ending with }. Example:

```
int main()
{
    int x = 123; // first x' scope begins here
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_21

```
    {
        int x = 456; // redefinition of x, second x' scope begins here
    } // block ends, second x' scope ends here
      // the first x resumes here
} // block ends, scope of first x's ends here
```

There are other scopes as well, which we will cover later in the book. It is important to introduce the notion of scope at this point to explain the object's lifetime.

21.3 Lifetime

The lifetime of an object is the time an object spends in memory. The lifetime is determined by a so-called *storage duration*. There are different kinds of storage durations.

21.4 Automatic Storage Duration

The automatic storage duration is a duration where memory for an object is automatically allocated at the beginning of a block and deallocated when the code block ends. This is also called a *stack memory*; objects are allocated on the *stack*. In this case, the object's lifetime is determined by its scope. All local objects have this storage duration.

21.5 Dynamic Storage Duration

The dynamic storage duration is a duration where memory for an object is manually allocated and manually deallocated. This kind of storage is often referred to as *heap memory*. The user determines when the memory for an object will be allocated, and when it will be released. The lifetime of an object is not determined by a scope in which the object was defined. We do it through operator *new* and *smart pointers*. In modern C++, we should prefer the smart pointer facilities to operator new.

21.6 Static Storage Duration

When an object declaration is prepended with a `static` specifier, it means the storage for a static object is allocated when the program starts and deallocated when the program ends. There is only one instance of such objects, and (with a few exceptions) their lifetime ends when a program ends. They are objects we can access at any given time during the execution of a program. We will talk about static specifier and static initialization later in the book.

21.7 Operators new and delete

We can dynamically allocate and deallocate storage for our object and have pointers point to this newly allocated memory.

The operator `new` allocates space for an object. The object is allocated on the *free-store*, often called *heap* or *heap memory*. The allocated memory must be deallocated using operator `delete`. It deallocates the memory previously allocated memory with an operator `new`. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int* p = new int;
    *p = 123;
    std::cout << "The pointed-to value is: " << *p;
    delete p;
}
```

This example allocates space for one integer on the free-store. Pointer `p` now points to the newly allocated memory for our integer. We can now assign a value to our newly allocated integer object by dereferencing a pointer. Finally, we free the memory by calling the operator `delete`.

If we want to allocate memory for an array, we use the operator new[]. To deallocate a memory allocated for an array, we use the operator `delete[]`. Pointers and arrays are similar and can often be used interchangeably. Pointers can be dereferenced by a subscript operator []. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int* p = new int[3];
    p[0] = 1;
    p[1] = 2;
    p[2] = 3;
    std::cout << "The values are: " << p[0] << ' ' << p[1] << ' ' << p[2];
    delete[] p;
}
```

This example allocates space for three integers, an array of three integers using operator `new[].` Our pointer `p` now points at the first element in the array. Then, using a subscript operator [], we dereference and assign a value to each array element. Finally, we deallocate the memory using the operator `delete[]`. Remember: always `delete` what you `new`-ed and always `delete[]` what you `new[]`-ed.

Remember: prefer *smart pointers* to operator `new`. The lifetime of objects allocated on the free-store is not bound by a scope in which the objects were defined. We manually allocate and manually deallocate the memory for our object, thus controlling when the object gets created and when it gets destroyed.

CHAPTER 22

Exercises

22.1 Automatic Storage Duration

Write a program that defines two variables of type `int` with automatic storage duration (placed on the stack) inside the `main` function scope.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    int y = 456;
    std::cout << "The values with automatic storage durations are: " << x
    << " and " << y;
}
```

22.2 Dynamic Storage Duration

Write a program which defines a variable of type `int*` which points to an object with dynamic storage duration (placed on the heap) :

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int* p = new int{ 123 };
    std::cout << "The value with a dynamic storage duration is: " << *p;
    delete p;
}
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_22

Explanation

In this example, the object p only points at the object with dynamic storage duration. The p object itself has an automatic storage duration. To delete the object on the heap, we need to use the *delete* operator.

22.3 Automatic and Dynamic Storage Durations

Write a program that defines a variable of type int called x, automatic storage duration, and a variable of type int* which points to an object with dynamic storage duration. Both variables are in the same scope:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123; // automatic storage duration
    std::cout << "The value with an automatic storage duration is: " << x
    << '\n';
    int* p = new int{ x }; // allocate memory and copy the value from x to it
    std::cout << "The value with a dynamic storage duration is: " << *p <<
    '\n';
    delete p;
} // end of scope here
```

CHAPTER 23

Classes - Introduction

Class is a user-defined type. A class consists of members. The members are data members and member functions. A class can be described as data and some functionality on that data, wrapped into one. An instance of a class is called an object. To only declare a class name, we write:

```
class MyClass;
```

To define an empty class, we add a class body marked by braces {}:

```
class MyClass{};
```

To create an instance of the class, an object, we use:

```
class MyClass{};

int main()
{
    MyClass o;
}
```

Explanation

We defined a class called `MyClass`. Then we created an object `o` of type `MyClass`. It is said that `o` is an *object*, a *class instance*.

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23.1 Data Member Fields

A class can have a set of some data in it. These are called *member fields*. Let us add one member field to our class and make it of type `char`:

```
class MyClass
{
    char c;
};
```

Now our class has one data member field of type `char` called `c`. Let us now add two more fields of type `int` and `double`:

```
class MyClass
{
    char c;
    int x;
    double d;
};
```

Now our class has three member fields, and each member field has its name.

23.2 Member Functions

Similarly, a class can store functions. These are called *member functions*. They are mostly used to perform some operations on data fields. To declare a member function of type void called `dosomething()`, we write:

```
class MyClass
{
    void dosomething();
};
```

There are two ways to define this member function. The first is to define it inside the class:

```
class MyClass
{
    void dosomething()
    {
        std::cout << "Hello World from a class.";
    }
};
```

The second one is to define it outside the class. In that case, we write the function type first, followed by a class name, followed by a scope resolution :: operator followed by a function name, list of parameters if any and a function body:

```
class MyClass
{
    void dosomething();
};

void MyClass::dosomething()
{
    std::cout << "Hello World from a class.";
}
```

Here we declared a member function inside the class and defined it outside the class.

We can have multiple members functions in a class. To define them inside a class, we would write:

```
class MyClass
{
    void dosomething()
    {
        std::cout << "Hello World from a class.";
    }
    void dosomethingelse()
    {
        std::cout << "Hello Universe from a class.";
    }
};
```

To declare members functions inside a class and define them outside the class, we would write:

```
class MyClass
{
    void dosomething();
    void dosomethingelse();
};

void MyClass::dosomething()
{
    std::cout << "Hello World from a class.";
}

void MyClass::dosomethingelse()
{
    std::cout << "Hello Universe from a class.";
}
```

Now we can create a simple class that has both a data member field and a member function:

```
class MyClass
{
    int x;
    void printx()
    {
        std::cout << "The value of x is:" << x;
    }
};
```

This class has one data field of type `int` called `x`, and it has a member function called `printx()`. This member function reads the value of x and prints it out. This example is an introduction to member access specifiers or class member visibility.

23.3 Access Specifiers

Wouldn't it be convenient if there was a way we could disable access to member fields but allow access to member functions for our object and other entities accessing our class members? And that is what access specifiers are for. They specify access for class members. There are three access specifiers/labels: public, protected, and private:

```
class MyClass
{
public:
    // everything in here
    // has public access level
protected:
    // everything in here
    // has protected access level
private:
    // everything in here
    // has private access level
};
```

Default visibility/access specifier for a class is `private` if none of the access specifiers is present:

```
class MyClass
{
    // everything in here
    // has private access by default
};
```

Another way to write a class is to write a `struct`. A struct is also a `class` in which members have `public` access by default. So, a `struct` is the same thing as a `class` but with a `public` access specifier by default:

```
struct MyStruct
{
    // everything in here
    // is public by default
};
```

For now, we will focus only on `public` and `private` access specifiers. Public access members are accessible anywhere. For example, they are accessible to other class members and to objects of our class. To access a class member from an object, we use the dot . operator.

Let's define a class where all the members have public access. To define a class with public access specifier, we can write:

```
class MyClass
{
public:
    int x;
    void printx()
    {
        std::cout << "The value of x is:" << x;
    }
};
```

Let us instantiate this class and use it in our main program:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    int x;
    void printx()
    {
        std::cout << "The value of data member x is: " << x;
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o;
    o.x = 123;    // x is accessible to object o
    o.printx();   // printx() is accessible to object o
}
```

Our object o now has direct access to all member fields as they are all marked public. Member fields always have access to each other regardless of the access specifier. That is why the member function printx() can access the member field x and print or change its value.

Private access members are accessible only to other class members, not objects. Example with full commentary:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
private:
    int x; // x now has private access
public:
    void printx()
    {
        std::cout << "The value of x is:" << x; // x is accessible to
        // printx()
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o;    // Create an object
    o.x = 123;    // Error, x has private access and is not accessible to
                  // object o
    o.printx();   // printx() is accessible from object o
}
```

Our object o now only has access to a member function printx() in the public section of the class. It cannot access members in the private section of the class.

If we want the class members to be accessible to our object, then we will put them inside the public: area. If we want the class members not to be accessible to our object, then we will put them into the private: area.

We want the data members to have private access and function members to have public access. This way, our object can access the member functions directly but not the member fields. There is another access specifier called protected: which we will talk about later in the book when we learn about inheritance.

23.4 Constructors

A constructor is a member function that has the same name as the class. To initialize an object of a class, we use constructors. Constructor's purpose is to initialize an object of a class. It constructs an object and can set values to data members. If a class has a constructor, all objects of that class will be initialized by a constructor call.

23.4.1 Default Constructor

A constructor without parameters or with default parameters set is called a *default constructor*. It is a constructor which can be called without arguments:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    MyClass()
    {
        std::cout << "Default constructor invoked." << '\n';
    }
};
int main()
{
    MyClass o; // invoke a default constructor
}
```

Another example of a default constructor, the one with the default arguments:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    MyClass(int x = 123, int y = 456)
    {
        std::cout << "Default constructor invoked." << '\n';
    }
```

```
};
int main()
{
    MyClass o; // invoke a default constructor
}
```

If a default constructor is not explicitly defined in the code, the compiler will generate a default constructor. But when we define a constructor of our own, the one that needs parameters, the default constructor gets removed and is not generated by a compiler.

Constructors are invoked when object initialization takes place. They can't be invoked directly.

Constructors can have arbitrary parameters; in which case we can call them *user-provided* constructors:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    int x, y;
    MyClass(int xx, int yy)
    {
        x = xx;
        y = yy;
    }
};
int main()
{
    MyClass o{ 1, 2 }; // invoke a user-provided constructor
    std::cout << "User-provided constructor invoked." << '\n';
    std::cout << o.x << ' ' << o.y;
}
```

In this example, our class has two data fields of type `int` and a constructor. The constructor accepts two parameters and assigns them to data members. We invoke the constructor with by providing arguments in the initializer list with `MyClass o{ 1, 2 };`

Constructors do not have a return type, and their purposes are to initialize the object of its class.

23.4.2 Member Initialization

In our previous example, we used a constructor body and *assignments* to assign value to each class member. A better, more efficient way to initialize an object of a class is to use the constructor's *member initializer list* in the definition of the constructor:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    int x, y;
    MyClass(int xx, int yy)
        : x{ xx }, y{ yy } // member initializer list
    {

    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o{ 1, 2 }; // invoke a user-defined constructor
    std::cout << o.x << ' ' << o.y;
}
```

A member initializer list starts with a colon, followed by member names and their initializers, where each initialization expression is separated by a comma. This is the preferred way of initializing class data members.

23.4.3 Copy Constructor

When we initialize an object with another object of the same class, we invoke a copy constructor. If we do not supply our copy constructor, the compiler generates a default copy constructor that performs the so-called shallow copy. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
private:
    int x, y;
public:
    MyClass(int xx, int yy) : x{ xx }, y{ yy }
    {
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o1{ 1, 2 };
    MyClass o2 = o1; // default copy constructor invoked
}
```

In this example, we initialize the object `o2` with the object `o1` of the same type. This invokes the default copy constructor.

We can provide our own copy constructor. The copy constructor has a special parameter signature of `MyClass(const MyClass& rhs).` Example of a user-defined copy constructor:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
private:
    int x, y;
public:
    MyClass(int xx, int yy) : x{ xx }, y{ yy }
    {
    }

    // user defined copy constructor
    MyClass(const MyClass& rhs)
```

```
        : x{ rhs.x }, y{ rhs.y } // initialize members with other object's
        // members
    {
        std::cout << "User defined copy constructor invoked.";
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o1{ 1, 2 };
    MyClass o2 = o1; // user defined copy constructor invoked
}
```

Here we defined our own copy constructor in which we explicitly initialized data members with other objects data members, and we print out a simple message in the console / standard output.

Please note that the default copy constructor does not *correctly* copy members of some types, such as pointers, arrays, etc. In order to properly make copies, we need to define our own copy logic inside the copy constructor. This is referred to as a *deep copy*. For pointers, for example, we need both to create a pointer and assign a value to the object it points to in our user-defined copy constructor:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
private:
    int x;
    int* p;
public:
    MyClass(int xx, int pp)
        : x{ xx }, p{ new int{pp} }
    {
    }

MyClass(const MyClass& rhs)
        : x{ rhs.x }, p{ new int {*rhs.p} }
```

```
    {
        std::cout << "User defined copy constructor invoked.";
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o1{ 1, 2 };
    MyClass o2 = o1; // user defined copy constructor invoked
}
```

Here we have two constructors, one is a user-provided regular constructor, and the other is a user-defined copy constructor. The first constructor initializes an object and is invoked here: `MyClass o1{ 1, 2 };` in our `main` function.

The second, the user-defined copy constructor is invoked here: `MyClass o2 = o1;` This constructor now properly copies the values from both `int` and `int*` member fields.

In this example, we have pointers as member fields. If we had left out the user-defined copy constructor, and relied on a default copy constructor only the `int` member field would be properly copied, the pointer would not. In this example, we rectified that.

In addition to copying, there is also a *move semantic*, where data is moved from one object to the other. This semantic is represented through a *move constructor* and a *move assignment* operator.

23.4.4 Copy Assignment

So far, we have used copy constructors to initialize one object with another object. We can also copy the values to an object after it has been initialized/created. We use a *copy assignment* for that. Simply, when we initialize an object with another object using the = operator on the same line, then the copy operation uses the copy constructor:

```
MyClass copyfrom;

MyClass copyto = copyfrom; // on the same line, uses a copy constructor
```

When an object is created on one line and then assigned to in the next line, it then uses the *copy assignment* operator to copy the data from another object:

```
MyClass copyfrom;
```

```
MyClass copyto;
copyto = copyfrom; // uses a copy assignment operator
```

A copy assignment operator is of the following signature:

```
MyClass& operator=(const MyClass& rhs)
```

To define a user-defined copy assignment operator inside a class we use:

```
class MyClass
{
public:
    MyClass& operator=(const MyClass& rhs)
    {
        // implement the copy logic here
        return *this;
    }
};
```

Notice that the overloaded = operators must return a dereferenced this pointer at the end. To define a user-defined copy assignment operator outside the class, we use:

```
class MyClass
{
public:
    MyClass& operator=(const MyClass& rhs);
};

MyClass& MyClass::operator=(const MyClass& rhs)
{
    // implement the copy logic here
    return *this;
}
```

Similarly, there is a *move assignment* operator, which we will discuss later in the book. More on operator overloading in the following chapters.

23.4.5 Move Constructor

In addition to copying, we can also move the data from one object to the other. We call it a *move semantics*. Move semantics is achieved through a move constructor and move assignment operator. The object from which the data was moved, is left in some valid but unspecified state. The move operation is efficient in terms of speed of execution, as we do not have to make copies.

Move constructor accepts something called *rvalue reference* as an argument.

Every expression can find itself on the left-hand side or the right-hand side of the assignment operator. The expressions that can be used on the left-hand side are called lvalues, such as variables, function calls, class members, etc. The expressions that can be used on the right-hand side of an assignment operator are called rvalues, such as literals, and other expressions.

Now the move semantics accepts a reference to that rvalue. The signature of an rvalue reference type is *T&&,* with double reference symbols. So, the signature of a move constructor is:

```
MyClass (MyClass&& rhs)
```

To cast something to an rvalue reference, we use the *std::move* function. This function casts the object to an rvalue reference. It does not move anything. An example where a move constructor is invoked:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass { };

int main()
{
    MyClass o1;
    MyClass o2 = std::move(o1);
    std::cout << "Move constructor invoked.";
    // or MyClass o2{std::move(o1)};
}
```

In this example, we define an object of type `MyClass` called `o1`. Then we initialize the second object o2 by moving everything from object `o1` to `o2.` To do that, we need to cast the `o2` to rvalue reference with `std::move(o1)`. This, in turn, invokes the `MyClass` move constructor for `o2`.

If a user does not provide a move constructor, the compiler provides an implicitly generated default move constructor.

Let us specify our own, user-defined move constructor:

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

class MyClass
{
private:
    int x;
    std::string s;
public:
    MyClass(int xx, std::string ss) // user provided constructor
        : x{ xx }, s{ ss }
    {}

    MyClass(MyClass&& rhs) // move constructor
        :
        x{ std::move(rhs.x) }, s{ std::move(rhs.s) }
    {
        std::cout << "Move constructor invoked." << '\n';
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o1{ 1, "Some string value" };
    MyClass o2 = std::move(o1);
}
```

This example defines a class with two data members and two constructors. The first constructor is some user-provided constructor used to initialize data members with provided arguments.

The second constructor is a user-defined move constructor accepting an rvalue reference parameter of type `MyClass&&` called `rhs`. This parameter will become our `std::move(o1)` argument/object. Then in the constructor initializer list, we also use the `std::move` function to move the data fields from `o1` to `o2`.

23.4.6 Move Assignment

Move assignment operator is invoked when we declare an object and then try to assign an rvalue reference to it. This is done via the *move assignment* operator. The signature of the move assignment operator is: `MyClass& operator=(MyClass&& otherobject)`.

To define a user-defined move assignment operator inside a class we use:

```
class MyClass
{
public:
    MyClass& operator=(MyClass&& otherobject)
    {
        // implement the copy logic here
        return *this;
    }
};
```

As with any assignment operator overloading, we must return a dereferenced this pointer at the end. To define a move assignment operator outside the class, we use:

```
class MyClass
{
public:
    MyClass& operator=(const MyClass& rhs);
};

MyClass& MyClass::operator=(const MyClass& rhs)
{
    // implement the copy logic here
    return *this;
}
```

Move assignment operator example adapted from a move constructor example would be:

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

class MyClass
```

```
{
private:
    int x;
    std::string s;
public:
    MyClass(int xx, std::string ss) // user provided constructor
        : x{ xx }, s{ ss }
    {}

    MyClass& operator=(MyClass&& otherobject) // move assignment operator
    {
        x = std::move(otherobject.x);
        s = std::move(otherobject.s);
        return *this;
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o1{ 123, "This is currently in object 1." };
    MyClass o2{ 456, "This is currently in object 2." };
    o2 = std::move(o1); // move assignment operator invoked
    std::cout << "Move assignment operator used.";
}
```

Here we defined two objects called `o1` and `o2`. Then we try to move the data from object `o1` to `o2` by assigning an rvalue reference (of object `o1`) using the `std::move(o1)` expression to object `o2`. This invokes the move assignment operator in our object o2. The move assignment operator implementation itself uses the `std::move()` function to cast each data member to an rvalue reference.

23.5 Operator Overloading

Objects of classes can be used in expression as operands. For example, we can do the following:

```
myobject = otherobject;
myobject + otherobject;
myobject / otherobject;
myobject++;
++myobject;
```

Here objects of a class are used as operands. To do that, we need to *overload* the operators for complex types such as classes. It is said that we need to overload them to provide a meaningful operation on objects of a class. Some operators can be overloaded for classes; some cannot. We can overload the following operators:

Arithmetic operators, binary operators, boolean operators, unary operators, comparison operators, compound operators, function and subscript operators:

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

Each operator carries its signature and set of rules when overloading for classes. Some operator overloads are implemented as member functions, some as none member functions. Let us overload a unary **prefix** ++ operator for classes. It is of signature `MyClass& operator++()`:

```
#include <iostream>
class MyClass
{
private:
    int x;
    double d;

public:
    MyClass()
        : x{ 0 }, d{ 0.0 }
    {
    }

    // prefix operator ++
    MyClass& operator++()
    {
        ++x;
        ++d;
```

```
        std::cout << "Prefix operator ++ invoked." << '\n';
        return *this;
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass myobject;
    // prefix operator
    ++myobject;
    // the same as:
    myobject.operator++();
}
```

In this example, when invoked in our class, the overloaded prefix increment ++ operator increments each of the member fields by one. We can also invoke an operator by calling a `.operator`***`actual_operator_name`***`(`*`parameters_if_any`*`);` such as `.operator++();`

Often operators depend on each other and can be implemented in terms of other operators. To implement a postfix operator ++, we will implement it in terms of a prefix operator:

```
#include <iostream>
class MyClass
{
private:
    int x;
    double d;

public:
    MyClass()
        : x{ 0 }, d{ 0.0 }
    {
    }

    // prefix operator ++
    MyClass& operator++()
    {
```

```
        ++x;
        ++d;
        std::cout << "Prefix operator ++ invoked." << '\n';
        return *this;
    }

    // postfix operator ++
    MyClass operator++(int)
    {
        MyClass tmp(*this); // create a copy
        operator++();       // invoke the prefix operator overload
        std::cout << "Postfix operator ++ invoked." << '\n';
        return tmp;         // return old value
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass myobject;

    // postfix operator
    myobject++;
    // is the same as if we had:
    myobject.operator++(0);
}
```

Please do not worry too much about the somewhat *inconsistent* rules for operator overloading. Remember, each (set of) operator has its own rules for overloading.

Let us overload a binary operator +=:

```
#include <iostream>
class MyClass
{
private:
    int x;
    double d;
```

```
public:
    MyClass(int xx, double dd)
        : x{ xx }, d{ dd }
    {
    }

    MyClass& operator+=(const MyClass& rhs)
    {
        this->x += rhs.x;
        this->d += rhs.d;
        return *this;
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass myobject{ 1, 1.0 };
    MyClass mysecondobject{ 2, 2.0 };
    myobject += mysecondobject;
    std::cout << "Used the overloaded += operator.";
}
```

Now, `myobject` member field `x` has a value of 3, and a member field `d` has a value of 3.0.

Let us implement arithmetic + operator in terms of += operator:

```
#include <iostream>
class MyClass
{
private:
    int x;
    double d;

public:
    MyClass(int xx, double dd)
        : x{ xx }, d{ dd }
    {
    }
```

```
    MyClass& operator+=(const MyClass& rhs)
    {
        this->x += rhs.x;
        this->d += rhs.d;
        return *this;
    }

    friend MyClass operator+(MyClass lhs, const MyClass& rhs)
    {
        lhs += rhs;
        return lhs;
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass myobject{ 1, 1.0 };
    MyClass mysecondobject{ 2, 2.0 };
    MyClass myresult = myobject + mysecondobject;
    std::cout << "Used the overloaded + operator.";
}
```

Summary:

When we need to perform arithmetic, logic, and other operations on our objects of a class, we need to overload the appropriate operators. There are rules and signatures for overloading each operator. Some operators can be implemented in terms of other operators. For a complete list of rules of operator overloading rules, please refer to C++ reference at https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/language/operators.

23.6 Destructors

As we saw earlier, a constructor is a member function that gets invoked when the object is initialized. Similarly, a destructor is a member function that gets invoked when an object is destroyed. The name of the destructor is tilde ~ followed by a class name:

```
class MyClass
{
public:
    MyClass() {}    // constructor
    ~MyClass() {}   // destructor
};
```

Destructor takes no parameters, and there is one destructor per class. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    MyClass() {}    // constructor
    ~MyClass()
    {
        std::cout << "Destructor invoked.";
    }    // destructor
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o;
}   // destructor invoked here, when o gets out of scope
```

Destructors are called when an object goes out of scope or when a pointer to an object is deleted. We should not call the destructor directly.

Destructors can be used to clean up the taken resources. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
private:
    int* p;
public:

    MyClass()
        : p{ new int{123} }
    {
        std::cout << "Created a pointer in the constructor." << '\n';
    }
    ~MyClass()
    {
        delete p;
        std::cout << "Deleted a pointer in the destructor." << '\n';
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o; // constructor invoked here
} // destructor invoked here
```

Here we allocate memory for a pointer in the constructor and deallocate the memory in the destructor. This style of resource allocation/deallocation is called RAII or Resource Acquisition is Initialization. Destructors should not be called directly.

Important The use of `new` and `delete`, as well as the use of raw pointers in Modern C++, is **discouraged**. We should use **smart pointers** instead. We will talk about them later in the book. Let us do some exercises for the class's introductory part.

CHAPTER 24

Exercises

24.1 Class Instance

Write a program that defines an empty class called *MyClass* and makes an instance of *MyClass* in the main function.

```
class MyClass
{

};

int main()
{
    MyClass o;
}
```

24.2 Class with Data Members

Write a program that defines a class called *MyClass* with three data members of type `char`, `int`, and `bool`. Make an instance of that class inside the main function.

```
class MyClass
{
    char c;
    int x;
    bool b;
};
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_24

```
int main()
{
    MyClass o;
}
```

24.3 Class with Member Function

Write a program that defines a class called `MyClass` with one member function called `printmessage()`. Define the `printmessage()` member function inside the class and make it output the "Hello World" string. Create an instance of that class and use the object to call the class member function.

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    void printmessage()
    {
        std::cout << "Hello World.";
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o;
    o.printmessage();
}
```

24.4 Class with Data and Function Members

Write a program that defines a class called `MyClass` with one member function called `printmessage()`. Define the `printmessage()` member function outside the class and have it output the `"Hello World."` string. Create an instance of that class and use the object to call the member function.

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    void printmessage();
};

void MyClass::printmessage()
{
    std::cout << "Hello World.";
}

int main()
{
    MyClass o;
    o.printmessage();
}
```

24.5 Class Access Specifiers

Write a program that defines a class called `MyClass` with one private data member of type `int` called *x* and two member functions. The first member function called `setx(int myvalue)` will set the value of *x* to its parameter `myvalue`. The second member function is called `getx()`, is of type `int` and returns a value of *x*. Make an instance of the class and use the object to access both member functions.

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
private:
    int x;
public:
    void setx(int myvalue)
    {
        x = myvalue;
    }
```

```
    int getx()
    {
        return x;
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o;
    o.setx(123);
    std::cout << "The value of x is: " << o.getx();
}
```

24.6 User-defined Default Constructor and Destructor

Write a program that defines a class called `MyClass` with a user-defined default constructor and user-defined destructor. Define both constructor and destructor outside the class. Both member functions will output a free to choose the text on the standard output. Create an object of a class in function main.

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    MyClass();
    ~MyClass();
};

MyClass::MyClass()
{
    std::cout << "Constructor invoked." << '\n';
}

MyClass::~MyClass()
{
```

```
    std::cout << "Destructor invoked." << '\n';
}

int main()
{
    MyClass o;
}
```

24.7 Constructor Initializer List

Write a program that defines a class called `MyClass`, which has two private data members of type `int` and `double`. Outside the class, define a user-provided constructor accepting two parameters. The constructor initializes both data members with arguments using the initializer. Outside the class, define a function called `printdata()` which prints the values of both data members.

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
private:
    int x;
    double d;
public:
    MyClass(int xx, double dd);
    void printdata();
};

MyClass::MyClass(int xx, double dd)
    : x{ xx }, d{ dd }
{

}
```

```
void MyClass::printdata()
{
    std::cout << " The value of x: " << x << ", the value of d: "
    << d << '\n';
}

int main()
{
    MyClass o{ 123, 456.789 };
    o.printdata();
}
```

24.8 User-defined Copy Constructor

Write a program that defines a class called `MyClass` with arbitrary data fields. Write a user-defined constructor with parameters that initializes data members. Write a user-defined copy constructor which copies all the members. Make one object of the class called o1 and initialize it with values. Make another object of a class called o2 and initialize it with object o. Print data for both objects.

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
private:
    int x;
    double d;
public:
    MyClass(int xx, double dd);    // user-provided constructor
    MyClass(const MyClass& rhs);   // user-defined copy constructor
    void printdata();
};

MyClass::MyClass(int xx, double dd)
    : x{ xx }, d{ dd }
{}
```

```
MyClass::MyClass(const MyClass& rhs)
    : x{ rhs.x }, d{ rhs.d }
{}

void MyClass::printdata()
{
    std::cout << "X is: " << x << ", d is: " << d << '\n';
}

int main()
{
    MyClass o1{ 123, 456.789 }; // invokes a user-provided constructor
    MyClass o2 = o1; // invokes a user-defined copy constructor
    o1.printdata();
    o2.printdata();
}
```

24.9 User-defined Move Constructor

Write a program that defines a class with two data members, a user-provided constructor, a user-provided move constructor, and a member function that prints the data. Invoke the move constructor in the main program. Print the moved-to object data fields.

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

class MyClass
{
private:
    double d;
    std::string s;
public:
    MyClass(double dd, std::string ss) // user-provided constructor
        : d{ dd }, s{ ss }
    {}
```

```
    MyClass(MyClass&& otherobject) // user-defined move constructor
        :
        d{ std::move(otherobject.d) }, s{ std::move(otherobject.s) }
    {
        std::cout << "Move constructor invoked." << '\n';
    }

    void printdata()
    {
        std::cout << "The value of doble is: " << d << ", the value of
        string is: " << s << '\n';
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o1{ 3.14, "This was in object 1" };
    MyClass o2 = std::move(o1); // invokes the move constructor
    o2.printdata();
}
```

24.10 Overloading Arithmetic Operators

Write a program that overloads arithmetic operator – in terms of a compound arithmetic operator -=. Print out the values of the resulting object member fields.

```
#include <iostream>
class MyClass
{
private:
    int x;
    double d;

public:
    MyClass(int xx, double dd)
        : x{ xx }, d{ dd }
```

```
    {
    }

    void printvalues()
    {
        std::cout << "The values of x is: " << x << ", the value of d is: "
        << d;
    }

    MyClass& operator-=(const MyClass& rhs)
    {
        this->x -= rhs.x;
        this->d -= rhs.d;
        return *this;
    }

    friend MyClass operator-(MyClass lhs, const MyClass& rhs)
    {
        lhs -= rhs;
        return lhs;
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass myobject{ 3, 3.0 };
    MyClass mysecondobject{ 1, 1.0 };
    MyClass myresult = myobject - mysecondobject;
    myresult.printvalues();
}
```

CHAPTER 25

Classes – Inheritance and Polymorphism

In this chapter, we discuss some of the fundamental building blocks of object-oriented programming, such as inheritance and polymorphism.

25.1 Inheritance

We can build a class from an existing class. It is said that a class can be *derived* from an existing class. This is known as *inheritance* and is one of the pillars of object-oriented programming, abbreviated as OOP. To derive a class from an existing class, we write:

```
class MyDerivedClass : public MyBaseClass {};
```

A simple example would be:

```
class MyBaseClass
{

};

class MyDerivedClass : public MyBaseClass
{

};

int main()
{

}
```

In this example, `MyDerivedClass` **inherits** the `MyBaseClass`.

S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_25

Let us get the terminology out of the way. It is said that `MyDerivedClass` *is derived* from `MyBaseClass`, or `MyBaseClass` is a *base class* for `MyDerivedClass`. It is also said that `MyDerivedClass` *is* `MyBaseClass`. They all mean the same thing.

Now the two classes have some sort of *relationship*. This relationship can be expressed through different naming conventions, but the most important one is *inheritance*. Derived class and objects of a derived class can access `public` members of a base class:

```
class MyBaseClass
{
public:
    char c;
    int x;
};

class MyDerivedClass : public MyBaseClass
{
    // c and x also accessible here
};

int main()
{
    MyDerivedClass o;
    o.c = 'a';
    o.x = 123;
}
```

The following example introduces the new access specifier called `protected:`. The derived class itself can access `protected` members of a base class. The `protected` access specifier allows access to the base class and derived class, but not to objects:

```
class MyBaseClass
{
protected:
    char c;
    int x;
};
```

```
class MyDerivedClass : public MyBaseClass
{
    // c and x also accessible here
};

int main()
{
    MyDerivedClass o;
    o.c = 'a';    // Error, not accessible to object
    o.x = 123;    // error, not accessible to object
}
```

The derived class cannot access `private` members of a base class:

```
class MyBaseClass
{
private:
    char c;
    int x;
};

class MyDerivedClass : public MyBaseClass
{
    // c and x NOT accessible here
};

int main()
{
    MyDerivedClass o;
    o.c = 'a';    // Error, not accessible to object
    o.x = 123;    // error, not accessible to object
}
```

The derived class inherits public and protected members of a base class and can introduce its own members. A simple example:

```
class MyBaseClass
{
public:
    char c;
    int x;
};

class MyDerivedClass : public MyBaseClass
{
public:
    double d;
};

int main()
{
    MyDerivedClass o;
    o.c = 'a';
    o.x = 123;
    o.d = 456.789;
}
```

Here we inherited everything from the `MyBaseClass` class and introduced a new member field in `MyDerivedClass` called `d`. So, with `MyDerivedClass`, we are extending the capability of `MyBaseClass`. The field `d` only exists in `MyDerivedClass` and is accessible to derived class and its objects. It is not accessible to `MyBaseClass` class as it does not exist there.

Please note that there are other ways of inheriting a class such as through protected and private inheritance, but the public inheritance such as `class MyDerivedClass : public MyBaseClass` is the most widely used, and we will stick to that one for now.

A derived class itself can be a base class. Example:

```
class MyBaseClass
{
public:
    char c;
    int x;
};
```

```
class MyDerivedClass : public MyBaseClass
{
public:
    double d;
};

class MySecondDerivedClass : public MyDerivedClass
{
public:
    bool b;
};

int main()
{
    MySecondDerivedClass o;
    o.c = 'a';
    o.x = 123;
    o.d = 456.789;
    o.b = true;
}
```

Now our class has everything `MyDerivedClass` has, which includes everything `MyBaseClass` has, plus an additional `bool` field. It is said the inheritance produces a particular *hierarchy* of classes.

This approach is widely used when we want to extend the functionality of our classes.

The derived class is compatible with a base class. A pointer to a derived class is compatible with a pointer to a base class. This allows us to utilize *polymorphism,* which we will talk about in the next chapter.

25.2 Polymorphism

It is said that the derived class *is* a base class. Its type is compatible with the base class type. Also, a pointer to a derived class is compatible with a pointer to the base class. This is important, so let's repeat this: a pointer to a derived class is compatible with a pointer to a base class. Together with inheritance, this is used to achieve the functionality known

as polymorphism. Polymorphism means the object can morph into different types. Polymorphism in C++ is achieved through an interface known as virtual functions. A virtual function is a function whose behavior can be overridden in subsequent derived classes. And our pointer/object *morphs* into different types to invoke the appropriate function. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyBaseClass
{
public:
    virtual void dowork()
    {
        std::cout << "Hello from a base class." << '\n';
    }
};

class MyDerivedClass : public MyBaseClass
{
public:
    void dowork()
    {
        std::cout << "Hello from a derived class." << '\n';
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyBaseClass* o = new MyDerivedClass;
    o->dowork();
    delete o;
}
```

In this example, we have a simple inheritance where `MyDerivedClass` is derived from `MyBaseClass`.

The `MyBaseClass` class has a function called `dowork()` with a `virtual` specifier. Virtual means this function can be overridden/redefined in subsequent derived classes, and the appropriate version will be invoked through a polymorphic object. The derived

class has a function with the same name and same type of arguments (none in our case) in the derived class.

In our main program, we create an instance of a `MyDerivedClass` class **through** a base class pointer. Using the arrow operator `->` we invoke the appropriate version of the function. Here the o object *morphs* into different types to invoke the appropriate function. Here it invokes the derived version. That is why the concept is called *polymorphism*.

If there were no `dowork()` function in the derived class, it would invoke the base class version:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyBaseClass
{
public:
    virtual void dowork()
    {
        std::cout << "Hello from a base class." << '\n';
    }
};

class MyDerivedClass : public MyBaseClass
{
public:

};


int main()
{
    MyBaseClass* o = new MyDerivedClass;
    o->dowork();
delete o;
}
```

Functions can be *pure virtual* by specifying the `= 0;` at the end of the function declaration. Pure virtual functions do not have definitions and are also called interfaces. Pure virtual functions must be re-defined in the derived class. Classes having at least

one pure virtual function are called *abstract classes* and cannot be instantiated. They can only be used as base classes. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyAbstractClass
{
public:
    virtual void dowork() = 0;
};

class MyDerivedClass : public MyAbstractClass
{
public:
    void dowork()
    {
        std::cout << "Hello from a derived class." << '\n';
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyAbstractClass* o = new MyDerivedClass;
    o->dowork();
delete o;
}
```

One important thing to add is that a base class must have a `virtual` destructor if it is to be used in a polymorphic scenario. This ensures the proper deallocation of objects accessed through a base class pointer via the inheritance chain:

```
class MyBaseClass
{
public:
    virtual void dowork() = 0;
    virtual ~MyBaseClass() {};
};
```

Please remember that the use of operator *new* and raw pointers is discouraged in modern C++. We should use smart pointers instead. More on this, later in the book.

So, three pillars of object-oriented programming are:

- Encapsulation
- Inheritance
- Polymorphism

Encapsulation is grouping the fields into different visibility zones, hiding implementation from the user, and exposing the interface, for example.

Inheritance is a mechanism where we can create classes by inheriting from a base class. Inheritance creates a certain class hierarchy and relationship between them.

Polymorphism is an ability of an object to morph into different types during runtime, ensuring the proper function is invoked. This is achieved through inheritance, virtual and overridden functions, and base and derived class pointers.

CHAPTER 26

Exercises

26.1 Inheritance

Write a program that defines a base class called Person. The class has the following members:

- A data member of type *std::string* called *name*
- A single parameter, user-defined constructor which initializes the *name*
- A getter function of type *std::string* called *getname(),* which returns the *name's* value

Then, write a class called *Student,* which inherits from the class *Person*. The class *Student* has the following members:

- An integer data member called *semester*
- A user-provided constructor that initializes the *name* and *semester* fields
- A getter function of type *int* called *getsemester(),* which returns the *semester's* value

In a nutshell, we will have a base class *Person* and extend its functionality in the derived *Student* class:

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

class Person
{
private:
    std::string name;
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_26

```
public:
    explicit Person(const std::string& aname)
        : name{ aname }
    {}

    std::string getname() const { return name; }
};

class Student : public Person
{
private:
    int semester;
public:
    Student(const std::string& aname, int asemester)
        : Person::Person{ aname }, semester{ asemester }
    {}

    int getsemester() const { return semester; }

};

int main()
{
    Person person{ "John Doe." };
    std::cout << person.getname() << '\n';

    Student student{ "Jane Doe", 2 };
    std::cout << student.getname() << '\n';
    std::cout << "Semester is: " << student.getsemester() << '\n';
}
```

Explanation: We have two classes, one is a base class (Person), and the other (Student) is a derived class. Single parameter constructors should be marked with `explicit` to prevent the compiler from making implicit conversions. This is the case with *Person*'s user-provided single parameter constructor:

```
 explicit Person(const std::string& aname)
        : name{ aname }
    {}
```

Member functions that do not modify the member fields should be marked as *const*. The const modifier in member functions promises the functions will not modify the data members and are easier for compiler to optimize the code. This is the case with both *getname()*:

```
std::string getname() const { return name; }
```

and *getsemester()* member functions:

```
int getsemester() const { return semester; }
```

The *Student* class inherits from the *Person* class and ads additional data field *semester* and member function *getsemester()*. The *Student* class has everything a base class has, plus it extends the functionality of a base class by adding new fields. The *Student*'s user provided constructor uses the base class constructor in its initializer list to initialize a name field:

```
Student(const std::string& aname, int asemester)
        : Person::Person{ aname }, semester{ asemester }
    {}
```

In the main() program, we instantiate both classes:

```
Person person{ "John Doe." };
```

and:

```
Student student{ "Jane Doe", 2 };
```

And call their member functions:

```
person.getname();
```

and:

```
student.getname();
student.getsemester();
```

Important We will make a polymorphism exercise later in the book, when we cover the smart pointers. This is because we want to depart from the use of `new` and `delete` and raw pointers.

CHAPTER 27

The static Specifier

The `static` specifier says the object will have a *static storage duration*. The memory space for static objects is allocated when the program starts and deallocated when the program ends. Only one instance of a static object exists in the program. If a local variable is marked as static, the space for it is allocated the first time the program control encounters its definition and deallocated when the program exits.

To define a local static variable inside a function we use:

```
#include <iostream>

void myfunction()
{
    static int x = 0; // defined only the first time, skipped every other
    // time
    x++;
    std::cout << x << '\n';
}

int main()
{
    myfunction(); // x == 1
    myfunction(); // x == 2
    myfunction(); // x == 3
}
```

This variable is initialized the first time the program encounters this function. The value of this variable is preserved across function calls. What does this mean? The last changes we made to it *stays*. It will not get initialized to 0 for every function call, only the first time.

This is convenient as we do not have to store the value inside some global variable x.

S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_27

We can define static class member fields. Static class members are not part of the object. They live independently of an object of a class. We declare a static data member inside the class and define it outside the class only once:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    static int x; // declare a static data member
};

int MyClass::x = 123; // define a static data member


int main()
{
    MyClass::x = 456; // access a static data member
    std::cout << "Static data member value is: " << MyClass::x;
}
```

Here we declared a static data member inside a class. Then we defined it outside the class. When defining a static member outside the class, we do not need to use the static specifier. Then, we access the data member by using the `MyClass::data_member_name` notation.

To define a static member function, we prepend the function declaration with the *static* keyword. The function definition outside the class does not use the *static* keyword:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    static void myfunction(); // declare a static member function
};
```

```
// define a static member function
void MyClass::myfunction()
{
    std::cout << "Hello World from a static member function.";
}

int main()
{
    MyClass::myfunction(); // call a static member function
}
```

CHAPTER 28

Templates

Templates are mechanisms to support the so-called *generic programming*. Generic broadly means we can define a function or a class without worrying about what types it accepts.

We define those functions and classes using some generic type. And when we instantiate them, we use a concrete type. So, we can use templates when we want to define a class or a function that can accept almost any type.

We define a template by typing:

```
template <typename T>
// the rest of our function or class code
```

Which is the same as if we used:

```
template <class T>
// the rest of our function or class code
```

T here stands for a type name. Which type? Well, any type. Here T means, *for all types T*.

Let us create a function that can accept any type of argument:

```
#include <iostream>

template <typename T>
void myfunction(T param)
{
    std::cout << "The value of a parameter is: " << param;
}

int main()
{

}
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_28

To instantiate a function template, we call a function by supplying a specific type name, surrounded by angle brackets:

```
#include <iostream>

template <typename T>
void myfunction(T param)
{
    std::cout << "The value of a parameter is: " << param;
}

int main()
{
    myfunction<int>(123);
    myfunction<double>(123.456);
    myfunction<char>('A');
}
```

We can think of T as a placeholder for a specific type, the one we supply when we instantiate a template. So, in place of T, we now put our specific type. Neat, ha? This way, we can utilize the same code for different types.

Templates can have more than one parameter. We simply list the template parameters and separate them using a comma. Example of a function template that accepts two template parameters:

```
#include <iostream>

template <typename T, typename U>
void myfunction(T t, U u)
{
    std::cout << "The first parameter is: " << t << '\n';
    std::cout << "The second parameter is: " << u << '\n';
}

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    double d = 456.789;
    myfunction<int, double>(x, d);
}
```

To define a class template, we use:

```
#include <iostream>

template <typename T>
class MyClass {
private:
    T x;
public:
    MyClass(T xx)
        :x{ xx }
    {
    }

    T getvalue()
    {
        return x;
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass<int> o{ 123 };
    std::cout << "The value of x is: " << o.getvalue() << '\n';

    MyClass<double> o2{ 456.789 };
    std::cout << "The value of x is: " << o2.getvalue() << '\n';
}
```

Here, we defined a simple class template. The class accepts types T. We use those types wherever we find appropriate in our class. In our main function, we instantiate those classes with concrete types `int` and `double`. Instead of having to write the same code for two or more different types, we simply use a template.

To define a class template member functions outside the class, we need to make them templates themselves by prepending the member function definition with the appropriate template declaration. In such definitions, a class name must be called with a template argument. Simple example:

```
#include <iostream>

template <typename T>
class MyClass {
private:
    T x;
public:
    MyClass(T xx);
};

template <typename T>
MyClass<T>::MyClass(T xx)
    : x{xx}
{
    std::cout << "Constructor invoked. The value of x is: " << x << '\n';
}

int main()
{
    MyClass<int> o{ 123 };
    MyClass<double> o2{ 456.789 };
}
```

Let us make it simpler. If we had a class template with a single void member function, we would write:

```
template <typename T>
class MyClass {
public:
    void somefunction();
};

template <typename T>
void MyClass<T>::somefunction()
```

```
{
    // the rest of the code
}
```

If we had a class template with a single member function of type T, we would use:

```
template <typename T>
class MyClass {
public:
    T genericfunction();
};

template <typename T>
T MyClass<T>::genericfunction()
{
    // the rest of the code
}
```

Now, if we had both of them in a single class and we want to define both of them outside the class scope, we would use:

```
template <typename T>
class MyClass {
public:
    void somefunction();
    T genericfunction();
};

template <typename T>
void MyClass<T>::somefunction()
{
    // the rest of the code
}

template <typename T>
T MyClass<T>::genericfunction()
{
    // the rest of the code
}
```

Template specialization

If we want our template to behave differently for a specific type, we provide the so-called template specialization. In case the argument is of a certain type, we sometimes want a different code. To do that, we prepend our function or a class with :

```
template <>
// the rest of our code
```

To specialize our template function for type *int*, we write:

```
#include <iostream>

template <typename T>
void myfunction(T arg)
{
    std::cout << "The value of an argument is: " << arg << '\n';
}

template <>
// the rest of our code
void myfunction(int arg)
{
    std::cout << "This is a specialization int. The value is: " << arg <<
    '\n';
}

int main()
{
    myfunction<char>('A');
    myfunction<double>(345.678);
    myfunction<int>(123); // invokes specialization
}
```

CHAPTER 29

Enumerations

Enumeration, or *enum* for short, is a type whose values are user-defined named constants called *enumerators*.

There are two kinds of enums: the *unscoped enums* and *scoped enums*. The unscoped enum type can be defined with:

```
enum MyEnum
{
    myfirstvalue,
    mysecondvalue,
    mythirdvalue
};
```

To declare a variable of enumeration type `MyEnum` we write:

```
enum MyEnum
{
    myfirstvalue,
    mysecondvalue,
    mythirdvalue
};

int main()
{
    MyEnum myenum = myfirstvalue;
    myenum = mysecondvalue; // we can change the value of our enum object
}
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_29

Each enumerator has a value of underlying type. We can change those:

```
enum MyEnum
{
    myfirstvalue = 10,
    mysecondvalue,
    mythirdvalue
};
```

These unscoped enums have their enumerators *leak* into an outside scope, the scope in which the enum type itself is defined. Old enums are best avoided. Prefer *scoped enums* to these old-school, unscoped enums. Scoped enums do not leak their enumerators into an outer scope and are not implicitly convertible to other types. To define a scoped enum, we write:

```
enum class MyEnum
{
    myfirstvalue,
    mysecondvalue,
    mythirdvalue
};
```

To declare a variable of type enum class (scoped enum) we write:

```
enum class MyEnum
{
    myfirstvalue,
    mysecondvalue,
    mythirdvalue
};

int main()
{
    MyEnum myenum = MyEnum::myfirstvalue;
}
```

To access an enumerator value, we prepend the enumerator with the enum name and a scope resolution operator :: such as `MyEnum::myfirstvalue, MyEnum::mysecondvalue`, etc.

With these enums, the enumerator names are defined only within the enum internal scope and implicitly convert to underlying types. We can specify the underlying type for scoped enum:

```
enum class MyCharEnum : char
{
    myfirstvalue,
    mysecondvalue,
    mythirdvalue
};
```

We can also change the initial underlying values of enumerators by specifying the value:

```
enum class MyEnum
{
    myfirstvalue = 15,
    mysecondvalue,
    mythirdvalue = 30
};
```

Summary: prefer enum class enumerations (scoped enums) to old plain unscoped enums. Use enumerations when our object is to have one value out of a set of predefined named values.

CHAPTER 30

Exercises

30.1 Static variable

Write a program that checks how many times a function was called from the main program. To do this, we will use a static variable inside a function which will be incremented each time the function is called in main():

```
#include <iostream>

void myfunction()
{
    static int counter = 0;
    counter++;
    std::cout << "The function is called " << counter << " time(s)." <<
    '\n';
}

int main()
{
    myfunction();
    myfunction();
    for (int i = 0; i < 5; i++)
    {
        myfunction();
    }
}
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_30

30.2 Static data member

Write a program that defines a class with one static data member of type std::string. Make the data member public. Define the static data member outside the class. Change the static data member value from the main() function:

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

class MyClass
{
public:
    static std::string name;
};

std::string MyClass::name = "John Doe";

int main()
{
    std::cout << "Static data member value: " << MyClass::name << '\n';
    MyClass::name = "Jane Doe";
    std::cout << "Static data member value: " << MyClass::name << '\n';
}
```

30.3 Static member function

Write a program that defines a class with one static member function and one regular member function. Make the functions public. Define both member functions outside the class. Access both functions in the main():

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

class MyClass
{
public:
    static void mystaticfunction();
    void myfunction();

};
```

```
void MyClass::mystaticfunction()
{
    std::cout << "Hello World from a static member function." << '\n';
}

void MyClass::myfunction()
{
    std::cout << "Hello World from a regular member function." << '\n';
}

int main()
{
    MyClass::mystaticfunction();
    MyClass myobject;
    myobject.myfunction();
}
```

30.4 Function Template

Write a program that defines a template for a function that sums two numbers. Numbers are of the same generic type T and are passed to function as arguments. Instantiate the function in main() using int and double types:

```
#include <iostream>

template <typename T>
T mysum(T x, T y)
{
    return x + y;
}

int main()
{
    int intresult = mysum<int>(10, 20);
    std::cout << "The integer sum result is: " << intresult << '\n';
    double doubleresult = mysum<double>(123.456, 789.101);
    std::cout << "The double sum result is: " << doubleresult << '\n';
}
```

30.5 Class Template

Write a program that defines a simple class template that has one data member of a generic type, a constructor, a getter function of a generic type, and a setter member function. Instantiate a class in the main() function for int and double types:

```
#include <iostream>

template <typename T>
class MyClass
{
private:
    T x;
public:
    MyClass(T xx)
        : x{ xx }
    {}

    T getx() const
    {
        return x;
    }

    void setx(T ax)
    {
        x = ax;
    }

};

int main()
{
    MyClass<int> o{123};
    std::cout << "The value of the data member is: " << o.getx() << '\n';
    o.setx(456);
    std::cout << "The value of the data member is: " << o.getx() << '\n';

    MyClass<double> o2{ 4.25 };
    std::cout << "The value of the data member is: " << o2.getx() << '\n';
```

```
    o2.setx(6.28);
    std::cout << "The value of the data member is: " << o2.getx() << '\n';
}
```

30.6 Scoped Enums

Write a program that defines a scoped enum representing days of the week. Create an object of that enum, assign it a value, check if the value is *Monday*, if it is, change the object value to another enum value:

```
#include <iostream>

enum class Days
{
    Monday,
    Tuesday,
    Wednesday,
    Thursday,
    Friday,
    Saturday,
    Sunday
};

int main()
{
    Days myday = Days::Monday;
    std::cout << "The enum value is now Monday." << '\n';

    if (myday == Days::Monday)
    {
        myday = Days::Friday;
    }
    std::cout << "Nobody likes Mondays. The value is now Friday.";
}
```

30.7 Enums in a switch

Write a program that defines an enum. Create an object of that enum as use it in a switch statement. Use the switch statement to print the value of an object:

```
#include <iostream>

enum class Colors
{
    Red,
    Green,
    Blue
};

int main()
{
    Colors mycolors = Colors::Green;
    switch (mycolors)
    {
    case Colors::Red:
        std::cout << "The color is Red." << '\n';
        break;
    case Colors::Green:
        std::cout << "The color is Green." << '\n';
        break;
    case Colors::Blue:
        std::cout << "The color is Blue." << '\n';
        break;
    default:
        break;
    }
}
```

CHAPTER 31

Organizing code

We can split our C++ code into multiple files. By convention, there are two kinds of files into which we can store our C++ source: *header files* (headers) and *source files*.

31.1 Header and Source Files

Header files are source code files where we usually put various declarations. Header files usually have the *.h* (or *.hpp*) extension. Source files are files where we can store our definitions and the main program. They usually have the *.cpp* (or *.cc*) extension.

Then we include the header files into our source files using the `#include` preprocessor directive. To include a standard library header, we use the `#include` statement followed by a header name without an extension, enclosed in angle brackets `<headername>`. Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
// etc
```

To include user-defined header files, we use the #include statement, followed by a full header name with extension enclosed in double-quotes. Example:

```
#include "myheader.h"
#include "otherheader.h"
// etc
```

The realistic scenario is that sometimes we need to include both standard-library headers and user-defined headers:

```
#include <iostream>
#include "myheader.h"
// etc
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_31

The compiler *stitches* the code from the header file and the source file together and produces what is called a *translation unit*. The compiler then uses this file to create an object file. A linker then links object files together to create a program.

We should put the declarations and constants into header files and put definitions and executable code in source files.

31.2 Header Guards

Multiple source files might include the same header file. To ensure that our header is included only once in the compilation process, we use the mechanism called header guards. It ensures that our header content is included only once in the compilation process. We surround the code in our header file with the following macros:

```
#ifndef MY_HEADER_H
#define MY_HEADER_H

// header file source code
// goes here

#endif
```

This approach ensures the code inside a header file is included only once during the compilation phase.

31.3 Namespaces

So far, we have seen how to group parts of our C++ code into separate files called *headers* and *source files*. There is another way we can logically group parts of our C++, and that is through *namespaces*. A namespace is a scope with a name. To declare a namespace, we write:

```
namespace MyNameSpace
{

}
```

To declare objects in a namespace, we use:

```
namespace MyNameSpace
{
    int x;
    double d;
}
```

To refer to these objects outside the namespace, we use their fully qualified names. This means we use the *namespace_name::our_object* notation. An example where we define the objects outside the namespace they were declared in:

```
namespace MyNameSpace
{
    int x;
    double d;
}

int main()
{
    MyNameSpace::x = 123;
    MyNameSpace::d = 456.789;
}
```

To introduce an entire namespace into the current scope, we can use the `using` -directive:

```
namespace MyNameSpace
{
    int x;
    double d;
}

using namespace MyNameSpace;

int main()
{
    x = 123;
    d = 456.789;
}
```

If we have several separate namespaces with the same name in our code, this means we are extending that namespace. Example:

```
namespace MyNameSpace
{
    int x;
    double d;
}

namespace MyNameSpace
{
    char c;
    bool b;
}

int main()
{
    MyNameSpace::x = 123;
    MyNameSpace::d = 456.789;
    MyNameSpace::c = 'a';
    MyNameSpace::b = true;
}
```

We now have x, d, c, and b inside our `MyNameSpace` namespace. We are *extending* the `MyNameSpace`, not redefining it.

A namespace can be spread across multiple files, both headers and source files. We will often see production code wrapped into namespaces. It is an excellent mechanism to group the code into namespaces logically.

Two namespaces with different names can hold an object with the same name. Since every namespace is a different scope, they now declare two different unrelated objects with the same name. It prevents name clashes:

```
#include <iostream>

namespace MyNameSpace
{
    int x;
}
```

```
namespace MySecondNameSpace
{
    int x;
}

int main()
{
    MyNameSpace::x = 123;
    MySecondNameSpace::x = 456;
    std::cout << "1st x: " << MyNameSpace::x << ", 2nd x: " <<
    MySecondNameSpace::x;
}
```

CHAPTER 32

Exercises

32.1 Header and Source Files

Write a program that declares an arbitrary function in a header file. The header file is called *myheader.h* Define this function inside the main program source file called *source.cpp*. The `main` function is also located inside a *source.cpp* file. Include the header into our source file and invoke the function.

myheader.h:

```
void myfunction();  //function declaration
```

source.cpp:

```
#include "myheader.h" //include the header
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    myfunction();
}

// function definition
void myfunction()
{
    std::cout << "Hello World from multiple files.";
}
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_32

32.2 Multiple Source Files

Write a program that declares an arbitrary function in a header file. The header file is called *mylibrary.h* Define a function inside the source file called *mylibrary.cpp*. The `main` function is inside a second source file called *source.cpp* file. Include the header in both source files and invoke the function.

mylibrary.h:

```
void myfunction();  //function declaration
```

mylibrary.cpp:

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

// function definition
void myfunction()
{
    std::cout << "Hello World from multiple files.";
}
```

source.cpp:

```
#include "mylibrary.h"


int main()
{
    myfunction();
}
```

Explanation:

This program has three files:

- A header file called *mylibrary.h* where we put our function declaration.
- A source file called *mylibrary.cpp* where we put our function definition. We include the header file *mylibrary.h* into *mylibrary.cpp* source file.
- A source file called *source.cpp* where the main program is. We also include the *mylibrary.h* header file into this source file.

Since our header file is included in multiple source files, we should put header guard macros into it. The *mylibrary.h* file now looks like:

```
#ifndef MY_LIBRARY_H
#define MY_LIBRARY_H

void myfunction();

#endif // !MY_LIBRARY_H
```

To compile a program that has multiple source files, with g++ we use:

```
g++ source.cpp mylibrary.cpp
```

Visual Studio IDE automatically handles the multiple file compilation.

32.3 Namespaces

Write a program that declares a function inside a namespace and defines the function outside the namespace. Invoke the function in the main program. Namespace and function names are arbitrary.

```
#include <iostream>

namespace MyNameSpace
{
    void myfunction();
}

void MyNameSpace::myfunction()
{
    std::cout << "Hello World from a function inside a namespace.";
}

int main()
{
    MyNameSpace::myfunction();
}
```

32.4 Nested Namespaces

Write a program that defines a namespace called A, and another namespace called B, nested inside the namespace A. Declare a function inside a namespace B and define the function outside both namespaces. Invoke the function in the main program. Then, introduce the entire namespace B to the current scope and invoke the function.

```
#include <iostream>

namespace A
{
    namespace B
    {
        void myfunction();
    }
}

void A::B::myfunction()
{
    std::cout << "Hello World from a function inside a nested namespace."
    << '\n';
}

int main()
{
    A::B::myfunction();
    using namespace A::B;
    myfunction();
}
```

CHAPTER 33

Conversions

Types can be converted to other types. For example, built-in types can be converted to other built-in types. Here we will discuss the implicit and explicit conversions.

33.1 Implicit Conversions

Some values can be implicitly converted into each other. This is true for all the built-in types. We can convert `char` to `int`, `int` to `double`, etc. Example:

```
int main()
{
    char mychar = 64;
    int myint = 123;
    double mydouble = 456.789;
    bool myboolean = true;

    myint = mychar;
    mydouble = myint;
    mychar = myboolean;
}
```

We can also implicitly convert `double` to `int`. However, some information is lost, and the compiler will warn us about this. This is called *narrowing conversions:*

```
int main()
{
    int myint = 123;
    double mydouble = 456.789;

    myint = mydouble; // the decimal part is lost
}
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_33

When *smaller* integer types such as `char` or `short` are used in arithmetic operations, they get promoted/converted to integers. This is referred to as *integral promotion.* For example, if we use two chars in an arithmetic operation, both get converted to an integer, and the whole expression is of type int. This conversion happens only inside the arithmetic expression:

```
int main()
{
    char c1 = 10;
    char c2 = 20;

    auto result = c1 + c2; // result is of type int
}
```

Any built-in type can be converted to boolean. For objects of those types, any value other than 0, gets converted to a boolean value of `true`, and values equal to 0, implicitly convert to a value of `false`. Example:

```
int main()
{
    char mychar = 64;
    int myint = 0;
    double mydouble = 3.14;
    bool myboolean = true;

    myboolean = mychar;    // true
    myboolean = myint;     // false
    myboolean = mydouble;  // true
}
```

Conversely, a boolean type can be converted to `int`. The value of `true` converts to integer value 1 and the value of `false` converts to integer value of 0.

A pointer of any type can be converted to `void*` type. An example where we convert an integer pointer to void pointer:

```
int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    int* pint = &x;
    void* pvoid = pint;
}
```

While we can convert any data pointer to a void pointer, we can not dereference the void pointer. To be able to access the object pointed to by a void pointer, we need to cast the void pointer to some other pointer type first. To do that, we can use the explicit cast function `static_cast` described in the next chapter:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    int* pint = &x;
    void* pvoid = pint; // convert from int pointer
    int* pint2 = static_cast<int*>(pvoid); // cast a void pointer to int
    // pointer
    std::cout << *pint2; // dereference a pointer
}
```

Arrays are implicitly convertible to pointers. When we assign an array name to the pointer, the pointer points at the first element in an array. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int arr[5] = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    int* p = arr; // pointer to the first array element
    std::cout << *p;
}
```

In this case, we have an implicit conversion of type *int[]* to type *int**.

When used as function arguments, the array gets converted to a pointer. More precisely, it gets converted to a pointer to the first element in an array. In such cases, the array loses its dimension, and it is said it *decays* to a pointer. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

void myfunction(int arg[])
{
    std::cout << arg;
}
```

```
int main()
{
    int arr[5] = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    myfunction(arr);
}
```

Here, the *arr* argument gets converted to a pointer to the first element in an array. Since arg is now a pointer, printing it outputs a pointer value similar to the *012FF6D8*. Not the value it points to To output the value it points to we need to dereference the pointer:

```
#include <iostream>

void myfunction(int arg[])
{
    std::cout << *arg;
}

int main()
{
    int arr[5] = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    myfunction(arr);
}
```

That being said, it is important to adopt the following: **prefer** *std:vector* and *std::array* containers to raw arrays and pointers.

33.2 Explicit Conversions

We can explicitly convert the value of one type to another. Let us start with the `static_cast` function. This function converts between implicitly convertible types. A signature of the function is:

```
static_cast<type_to_convert_to>(value_to_convert_from)
```

If we want to convert from a `double` to `int` we write:

```
int main()
{
    auto myinteger = static_cast<int>(123.456);
}
```

Prefer this verbose function to implicit conversions, as the `static_cast` is the idiomatic way of converting between convertible types. This function performs a compile-time conversion.

The following explicit conversion functions should be used **rarely** and carefully. They are `dynamic_cast` and `reintepret_cast`. The `dynamic_cast` function converts pointers of base class to pointers to derived class and vice versa up the inheritance chain. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyBaseClass {
public:
    virtual ~MyBaseClass() {}
};
class MyDerivedClass : public MyBaseClass {};

int main()
{
    MyBaseClass* base = new MyDerivedClass;
    MyDerivedClass* derived = new MyDerivedClass;

    // base to derived
    if (dynamic_cast<MyDerivedClass*>(base))
    {
        std::cout << "OK.\n";
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "Not convertible.\n";
    }
```

```
    // derived to base
    if (dynamic_cast<MyBaseClass*>(derived))
    {
        std::cout << "OK.\n";
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "Not convertible.\n";
    }

    delete base;
    delete derived;
}
```

If the conversion succeeds, the result is a pointer to a base or derived class, depending on our use-case. If the conversion cannot be done, the result is a pointer of value `nullptr`.

To use this function, our class must be polymorphic, which means our base class should have at least one virtual function. To try to convert some unrelated class to one of our classes in the inheritance chain we would use:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyBaseClass {
public:
    virtual ~MyBaseClass() {}
};
class MyDerivedClass : public MyBaseClass {};
class MyUnrelatedClass {};

int main()
{
    MyBaseClass* base = new MyDerivedClass;
    MyDerivedClass* derived = new MyDerivedClass;
    MyUnrelatedClass* unrelated = new MyUnrelatedClass;

    // base to derived
    if (dynamic_cast<MyUnrelatedClass*>(base))
```

```
    {
        std::cout << "OK.\n";
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "Not convertible.\n";
    }
    // derived to base
    if (dynamic_cast<MyUnrelatedClass*>(derived))
    {
        std::cout << "OK.\n";
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "Not convertible.\n";
    }

    delete base;
    delete derived;
    delete unrelated;
}
```

This would fail as the `dynamic_cast` can only convert between related classes inside the inheritance chain. In reality, we would hardly ever have to use `dynamic_cast` in the real world.

The third and most dangerous cast is `reintrepret_cast.` This one is best avoided as it does not offer guarantees of any kind. With that in mind, we will skip its description and move on to the next chapter.

Important: the `static_cast` function is probably the only cast we will be using most of the time.

CHAPTER 34

Exceptions

If an error occurs in our program, we want to be able to handle it in some way. One way to do this is through *exceptions*. Exceptions are mechanisms where we try to execute some code in the try{} block, and if an error occurs, an exception is thrown. The control is then transferred to a catch clause, which handles that exception. A structure of a try/catch block would be:

```
int main()
{
    try
    {
        // your code here
        // throw an exception if there is an error
    }
    catch (type_of_the_exception e)
    {
        // catch and handle the exception
    }
}
```

A simple try/catch example would be:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    try
    {
        std::cout << "Let's assume some error occurred in our
        program." << '\n';
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_34

```
        std::cout << "We throw an exception of type int, for
        example." << '\n';
        std::cout << "This signals that something went wrong." << '\n';
        throw 123;    // throw an exception if there is an error
    }
    catch (int e)
    {
        // catch and handle the exception
        std::cout << "Exception raised!." << '\n';
        std::cout << "The exception has a value of " << e <<  '\n';
    }
}
```

Explanation: here we try to execute code inside the `try` block. If an error occurs, we throw an exception that signals something went wrong. The exception in our case is of type int, but it can be of any type. When the exception is thrown, the control is transferred to a `catch` clause, which handles the exception. In our case, it handles the exception of type `int`.

We can throw an exception of a different type, `std::string` for example:

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

int main()
{
    try
    {
        std::cout << "Let's assume some error occured in our program."
        << '\n';
        std::cout << "We throw an exception of type string, for example."
        << '\n';
        std::cout << "This signals that something went wrong." << '\n';
        throw std::string{ "Some string error" };    // throw an exception
        // if there is an error
    }
    catch (const std::string& e)
    {
```

```
        // catch and handle the exception
        std::cout << "String exception raised!." << '\n';
        std::cout << "The exception has a value of: " << e << '\n';
    }
}
```

We can have/raise multiple exceptions. They can be of different types. In this case, we have one try and multiple catch blocks. Each catch block handles a different exception.

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

int main()
{
    try
    {
        throw 123;
        // the following will not execute as
        // the control has been transferred to a catch clause
        throw std::string{ "Some string error" };
    }
    catch (int e)
    {
        std::cout << "Integer exception raised! The value is " << e << '\n';
    }
    catch (const std::string& e)
    {
        // catch and handle the exception
        std::cout << "String exception raised!." << '\n';
        std::cout << "The exception has a value of: " << e << '\n';
    }
}
```

Here we throw multiple exceptions in the try block. The first is of type `int`, and the second is of `std::string` type. The moment the first exception is thrown, the control of the program is transferred to a catch clause. This means that the remainder of the code inside the try block will not be executed.

A more realistic scenario would be:

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

int main()
{
    try
    {
        bool someflag = true;
        bool someotherflag = true;
        std::cout << "We can have multiple throw exceptions." << '\n';
        if (someflag)
        {
            std::cout << "Throwing an int exception." << '\n';
            throw 123;
        }
        if(someotherflag)
        {
            std::cout << "Throwing a string exception." << '\n';
            throw std::string{ "Some string error" };
        }
    }
    catch (int e)
    {
        // catch and handle the exception
        std::cout << "Integer exception raised!." << '\n';
        std::cout << "The exception has a value of: " << e << '\n';
    }

    catch (const std::string& e)
    {
        // catch and handle the exception
        std::cout << "String exception raised!." << '\n';
        std::cout << "The exception has a value of: " << e << '\n';
    }
}
```

Here we throw multiple exceptions inside the try block. They depend on some *if conditions* for illustrative purposes. When a first exception is encountered, the control is transferred to an appropriate catch clause.

CHAPTER 35

Smart Pointers

Smart pointers are pointers that own the object they point to and automatically destroy the object they point to and deallocate the memory once the pointers go out of scope. This way, we do not have to manually delete the object like it was the case with the new and delete operators.

Smart pointers are declared in the `<memory>` header. We will cover the following smart pointers – unique and shared.

35.1 Unique Pointer

A unique pointer called `std::unique_ptr` is a pointer that owns an object it points to. The pointer can not be copied. Unique pointer deletes the object and deallocates memory for it, once it goes out of scope. To declare a unique pointer to a simple int object, we write:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <memory>

int main()
{
    std::unique_ptr<int> p(new int{ 123 });
    std::cout << *p;
}
```

This example creates a pointer to an object of type `int` and assigns a value of `123` to the object. A unique pointer can be dereferenced in the same way we as a regular pointer using the `*p` notation. The object gets deleted once p goes out of scope, which in this case, is at the closing brace }. No explicit use of delete operator is required.

S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_35

A better way to initialize a unique pointer is through an `std::make_unique<some_type>(some_value)` function, where we specify the type for the object in angle brackets and the value for the object pointer points at in parentheses:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <memory>

int main()
{
    std::unique_ptr<int> p = std::make_unique<int>(123);
    std::cout << *p;
}
```

The `std::make_unique` function was introduced in the C++14 standard. Make sure to compile with the *-std=c++14* flag to be able to use this function.

We can create a unique pointer that points to an object of a class and then use its -> operator to access object members:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <memory>

class MyClass
{
public:
    void printmessage()
    {
        std::cout << "Hello from a class.";
    }
};

int main()
{
    std::unique_ptr<MyClass> p = std::make_unique<MyClass>();
    p->printmessage();
}
```

The object gets destroyed once p goes out of scope. So, prefer a unique pointer to raw pointer and their new-delete mechanism. Once p goes out of scope, the pointed-to object of a class gets destroyed.

We can utilize polymorphic classes using a unique pointer:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <memory>

class MyBaseClass
{
public:
    virtual void printmessage()
    {
        std::cout << "Hello from a base class.";
    }
};

class MyderivedClass: public MyBaseClass
{
public:
    void printmessage()
    {
        std::cout << "Hello from a derived class.";
    }
};

int main()
{
    std::unique_ptr<MyBaseClass> p = std::make_unique<MyderivedClass>();
    p->printmessage();
}
```

Neat ha? No need to explicitly delete the allocated memory, the smart pointer does it for us. Hence the *smart* part.

35.2 Shared Pointer

We can have multiple pointers point to a single object. We can say that all of them own our pointed-to object, that is, our object has *shared ownership*. And only when last of those pointers get destroyed, our pointed to object gets deleted. This is what a shared

pointer is for. Multiple pointers pointing to a single object, and when all of them get out of scope, the object gets destroyed.

Shared pointer is defined as `std::shared_ptr<some_type>`. It can be initialized using the `std::make_shared<some_type>(some_value)` function. Shared pointers can be copied. To have three shared pointers pointing at the same object we can write:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <memory>

int main()
{
    std::shared_ptr<int> p1 = std::make_shared<int>(123);
    std::shared_ptr<int> p2 = p1;
    std::shared_ptr<int> p3 = p1;
}
```

When all pointers get out of scope, the pointed-to object gets destroyed, and the memory for it gets deallocated.

The main differences between unique and shared pointers are:

- With unique pointers, we have one pointer pointing at and owning a single object, whereas with shared pointers we have multiple pointers pointing at and owning a single object.
- Unique pointers can not be copied, whereas shared pointers can.

If you wonder which one to use, let us say that 90% of the time, you will be using the *unique pointer*. Shared pointers can be used to represent data structures such as graphs.

Smart pointers are class templates themselves, meaning they have member functions. We will just briefly mention they can also accept custom deleters, a code that gets executed when they get out of scope.

Notice that with smart pointers, we do not need to specify the `<some_type*>`, we just need to specify the `<some_type>`.

Important!

Prefer **smart pointers** to raw pointers. With smart pointers, we do not have to worry if we properly matched calls to `new` with calls to `delete` as we do not need them. We let the smart pointer do all the heavy lifting.

CHAPTER 36

Exercises

36.1 static_cast Conversion

Write a program that uses a static_cast function to convert between fundamental types.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    double d = 456.789;
    bool b = true;

    double doubleresult = static_cast<double>(x);
    std::cout << "Int to double: " << doubleresult << '\n';

    int intresult = static_cast<int>(d); // double to int
    std::cout << "Double to int: " << intresult << '\n';

    bool boolresult = static_cast<bool>(x); // int to bool
    std::cout << "Int to bool: " << boolresult << '\n';
}
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_36

36.2 A Simple Unique Pointer:

Write a program that defines a unique pointer to an integer value. Use the std::make_unique function to create a pointer.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <memory>

int main()
{
    std::unique_ptr<int> p = std::make_unique<int>(123);
    std::cout << "The value of a pointed-to object is: " << *p << '\n';
}
```

36.3 Unique Pointer to an Object of a Class

Write a program that defines a class with two data members, a user-defined constructor, and one member function. Create a unique pointer to an object of a class. Use the smart pointer to access the member function.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <memory>

class MyClass
{
private:
    int x;
    double d;
public:
    MyClass(int xx, double dd)
        : x{ xx }, d{ dd }
    {}
    void printdata()
    {
        std::cout << "Data members values are: " << x << " and: " << d;
    }
};
```

```
int main()
{
    std::unique_ptr<MyClass> p = std::make_unique<MyClass>(123, 456.789);
    p->printdata();
}
```

36.4 Shared Pointers Exercise

Write a program that defines three shared pointers pointing at the same object of type *int*. Create the first pointer through an *std::make_shared* function. Create the remaining pointers by copying the first pointer. Access the pointed-to object through all the pointers.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <memory>

int main()
{
    std::shared_ptr<int> p1 = std::make_shared<int>(123);
    std::shared_ptr<int> p2 = p1;
    std::shared_ptr<int> p3 = p1;

    std::cout << "Value accessed through a first pointer: " << *p1 << '\n';
    std::cout << "Value accessed through a second pointer: " << *p2 << '\n';
    std::cout << "Value accessed through a third pointer: " << *p3 << '\n';
}
```

36.5 Simple Polymorphism

Write a program that defines a base class with a pure virtual member function. Create a derived class that overrides a virtual function in the base class. Create a polymorphic object of a derived class through a unique pointer to a base class. Invoke the overridden member function through a unique pointer.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <memory>

class BaseClass
{
public:
    virtual void dowork() = 0;
    virtual ~BaseClass() {}
};

class DerivedClass : public BaseClass
{
public:
    void dowork() override
    {
        std::cout << "Do work from a DerivedClass." << '\n';
    }
};

int main()
{
    std::unique_ptr<BaseClass> p = std::make_unique<DerivedClass>();
    p->dowork();
} // p1 goes out of scope here
```

Here the *override* specifier explicitly states that the *dowork()* function in the derived class overrides the virtual function in the base class.

Here we used the unique pointer to create and automatically destroy the object and deallocate the memory one the pointer goes out of scope in the *main()* function.

36.6 Polymorphism II

Write a program that defines a base class with a pure virtual member function. Derive two classes from the base class and override the virtual function behavior. Create two unique pointers of base class type to objects of these derived classes. Use the pointers to invoke the proper polymorphic behavior.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <memory>

class BaseClass
{
public:
    virtual void dowork() = 0;
    virtual ~BaseClass() {}
};

class DerivedClass : public BaseClass
{
public:
    void dowork() override
    {
        std::cout << "Do work from a DerivedClass." << '\n';
    }
};

class SecondDerivedClass : public BaseClass
{
public:
    void dowork() override
    {
        std::cout << "Do work from a SecondDerivedClass." << '\n';
    }
};

int main()
{
    std::unique_ptr<BaseClass> p = std::make_unique<DerivedClass>();
    p->dowork();

    std::unique_ptr<BaseClass> p2 = std::make_unique<SecondDerivedClass>();
    p2->dowork();
} // p1 and p2 go out of scope here
```

36.7 Exception Handling

Write a program that throws and catches an integer exception. Handle the exception and print its value:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    try
    {
        std::cout << "Throwing an integer exception with value of 123..."
        << '\n';
        int x = 123;
        throw x;
    }
    catch (int ex)
    {
        std::cout << "An integer exception of value: " << ex << " caught
        and handled." << '\n';
    }
}
```

36.8 Multiple Exceptions

Write a program that can throw integer and double exceptions in the same try block. Implement the exception handling blocks for both exceptions.

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    try
    {
        std::cout << "Throwing an int exception..." << '\n';
        throw 123;
```

```
        std::cout << "Throwing a double exception..." << '\n';
        throw 456.789;
    }
    catch (int ex)
    {
        std::cout << "Integer exception: " << ex << " caught and handled."
        << '\n';
    }
    catch (double ex)
    {
        std::cout << "Double exception: " << ex << " caught and handled."
        << '\n';
    }
}
```

CHAPTER 37

Input/Output Streams

We can convert our objects to streams of bytes. We can also convert streams of bytes back to objects. The I/O stream library provides such functionality.

Streams can be *output streams* and *input streams*.

Remember the std::cout and std::cin? Those are also streams. For example, the std::cout is an output stream. It takes whatever objects we supply to it and converts them to a byte stream, which then goes to our monitor. Conversely, std::cin is an input stream. It takes the input from the keyboard and converts that input to our objects.

There are different kinds of I/O streams, and here we will explain two kinds: *file streams* and *string streams*.

37.1 File Streams

We can read from a file, and we can write to a file. The standard-library offers such functionality via file streams. Those files streams are defined inside the `<fstream>` header, and they are:

a. `std::ifstream` – read from a file

b. `std::ofstream` – write to a file

c. `std::fstream` – read from and write to a file

The `std::fstream` can both read from and write to a file, so let us use that one. To create an `std::fstream` object we use:

```
#include <fstream>

int main()
{
    std::fstream fs{ "myfile.txt" };
}
```


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_37

This example creates a file stream called `fs` and associates it with a file name `myfile.txt` on our disk. To read from such file, line-by-line, we use:

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

int main()
{
    std::fstream fs{ "myfile.txt" };
    std::string s;
    while (fs)
    {
        std::getline(fs, s); // read each line into a string
        std::cout << s << '\n';
    }
}
```

Once associated with a file name, we use our file stream to read each line of text from and print it out on a screen. To do that, we declare a string variable s which will hold our read line of text. Inside the *while-loop,* we read a line from a file to a string. This is why the `std::getline` function accepts a file stream and a string as arguments. Once read, we output the text line on a screen. The while loop terminates once we reach the end of the file.

To read from a file, one character at the time we can use file stream's >> operator:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <fstream>

int main()
{
    std::fstream fs{ "myfile.txt" };
    char c;
    while (fs >> c)
    {
        std::cout << c;
    }
}
```

This example reads the file contents one character at the time into our char variable. By default, this skips the reading of white spaces. To rectify this, we add the `std::noskipws` manipulator to the above example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <fstream>

int main()
{
    std::fstream fs{ "myfile.txt" };
    char c;
    while (fs >> std::noskipws >> c)
    {
        std::cout << c;
    }
}
```

To write to a file, we use file stream << operator:

```
#include <fstream>

int main()
{
    std::fstream fs{ "myoutputfile.txt", std::ios::out };
    fs << "First line of text." << '\n';
    fs << "Second line of text" << '\n';
    fs << "Third line of text" << '\n';
}
```

We associate an `fs` object with an output file name and provide an additional `std::ios::out` flag which opens a file for writing and overwrites any existing `myoutputfile.txt` file. Then we output our text to a file stream using the << operator.

To append text to an existing file, we include the `std::ios::app` flag inside the file stream constructor:

```
#include <fstream>

int main()
{
    std::fstream fs{ "myoutputfile.txt", std::ios::app };
    fs << "This is appended text" << '\n';
    fs << "This is also an appended text." << '\n';
}
```

We can also output strings to our file using the file stream's << operator:

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

int main()
{
    std::fstream fs{ "myoutputfile.txt", std::ios::out };
    std::string s1 = "The first string.\n";
    std::string s2 = "The second string.\n";
    fs << s1 << s2;
}
```

37.2 String Streams

Similarly, there is a stream that allows us to read from and write to a string. It is defined inside the `<sstream>` header, and there are three different string streams:

a. `std::stringstream` - the stream to read from a string

b. `std::otringstream` - the stream to write to a string

c. `std::stringstream` - the stream to both read from and write to a string

We will describe the `std::stringstream` class template as it can both read from and write to a string. To create a simple string stream, we use:

```
#include <sstream>

int main()
{
    std::stringstream ss;
}
```

This example creates a simple string stream using a default constructor. To create a string stream and initialize it with a string literal, we use:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <sstream>

int main()
{
    std::stringstream ss{ "Hello world." };
    std::cout << ss.str();
}
```

Here we created a string stream and initialized it with a string literal in a constructor. Then we used the string stream's `.str()` member function to print the content of the stream. The `.str()` member function gets the string representation of the stream. To initialize a string stream with a string we use:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <sstream>

int main()
{
    std::stringstream ss;
    ss << "Hello World.";
    std::cout << ss.str();
}
```

We use the string stream's member function `.str()` to assign the string stream's content to a string variable:

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

int main()
{
    std::stringstream ss{ "Hello World from a string stream." };
    std::string s = ss.str();
    std::cout << s;
}
```

To insert data into a string stream, we use the *formatted output operator* <<:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello World.";
    std::stringstream ss{ s };
    std::cout << ss.str();
}
```

We can also insert values of fundamental types into a string stream using the formatted output operator <<:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <sstream>

int main()
{
    char c = 'A';
    int x = 123;
    double d = 456.78;
    std::stringstream ss;
```

```
    ss << c << x << d;
    std::cout << ss.str();
}
```

To make the output more readable, we can insert text between the variables:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <sstream>

int main()
{
    char c = 'A';
    int x = 123;
    double d = 456.78;
    std::stringstream ss;
    ss << "The char is: " << c << ", int is: "<< x << " and double is: " << d;
    std::cout << ss.str();
}
```

To output data from a stream into an object, we use the >> operator:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s = "A 123 456.78";
    std::stringstream ss{ s };
    char c;
    int x;
    double d;
    ss >> c >> x >> d;
    std::cout << c << ' ' << x << ' ' << d << ' ';
}
```

This example reads/outputs data from a string stream into our variables. String streams are useful for formatted input/output and when we want to convert from built-in types to a string and from a string to built-in types.

CHAPTER 38

C++ Standard Library and Friends

C++ language is accompanied by a library called *the C++ Standard Library*. It is a collection of containers and useful functions that we access by including the proper header file. The containers and functions inside the C++ standard library are defined in the std namespace. Remember the std::string type mentioned earlier? It is also a part of the standard library. The standard library is implemented through class templates. Long story short: prefer using the standard-library to user-provided libraries for everyday tasks.

Some functionalities explained in this chapter, such as range-based for loop and lambda expressions are part of the language itself, not the standard-library. The reason we put them here is they are mostly used in conjunction with standard-library facilities.

38.1 Containers

A container is a place where we store our objects. There are different categories of containers, here we mention the two:

- Sequence containers
- Associative containers

Sequential containers store objects in a sequence, one next to the other in memory.

S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_38

38.1.1 std::vector

Vector is a container defined in `<vector>` header. A vector is a sequence of contiguous elements. Of what type, you may ask? Of any type. A vector and all other containers are implemented as class templates allowing for storage of (almost) any type. To define a vector, we use the following: `std::vector<some_type>.` A simple example of initializing a vector of 5 integers:

```
#include <vector>

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
}
```

Here, we defined a vector, called `v`, of 5 integer elements, and we initialized a vector using the brace initialization. Vector can grow and shrink on its own as we insert and delete elements into and from a vector. To insert an element at the end of the vector, we use the vector's .push_back() member function. Example:

```
#include <vector>

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    v.push_back(10);
}
```

This example inserts a value of 10 at the end of our vector. Now we have a container of 6 elements: *1 2 3 4 5 10*.

Vector elements are indexed, the first element has an index of 0. Individual elements can be accessed via the subscript operator `[element_index]` or a member function `at(element_index)`:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    std::cout << "The third element is:" << v[2] << '\n';
    std::cout << "The fourth element is:" << v.at(3) << '\n';
}
```

Vector's size as a number of elements, can be obtained through a `.size()` member function:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    std::cout << "The vector's size is: " << v.size();
}
```

A vector is a sequential container. It stores elements in a sequence. Other sequential containers are:

a. `std::list` – A doubly linked list

b. `std::forward_list` – A singly linked list

c. `std::deque` – A double-ended queue

So, which one to use? When in doubt, use a std::vector. Each of these containers has different insertions and lookup times, and each one serves a different purpose. Nevertheless, as far as sequence containers go, the `std::vector` is the container we want to be using most of the time.

38.1.2 std::array

The *std::array* is a thin wrapper around a C-style array. Arrays get converted to pointers when used as function arguments, and we should prefer *std::array* wrapper to old C-style arrays. The std::array is of the following signature: *std::array<type_name, array_size>;* A simple example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <array>

int main()
{
    std::array<int, 5> arr = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    for (auto el : arr)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

This example creates an array of 5 elements using a std::array container and prints them out. Let us emphasizes this once again: prefer std::array or std::vector to old/raw C-style arrays.

38.1.3 std::set

Set is a container that holds unique, sorted objects. It is a binary tree of sorted objects. To use a set, we must include the `<set>` header. To define a set we use the `std::set<type> set_name` syntax. To initialize a set of 5 integers, we can write:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <set>

int main()
{
    std::set<int> myset = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    for (auto el : myset)
    {
```

```
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

To insert an element into a set, we use the set's `.insert(value)` member function. To insert two new elements, we use:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <set>

int main()
{
    std::set<int> myset = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    myset.insert(10);
    myset.insert(42);
        for (auto el : myset)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

Since the set holds unique values, the attempt to insert duplicate values will not succeed.

38.1.4 std::map

The map is an associative container that holds key-value pairs. Keys are sorted and unique. A map is also implemented as a balanced binary tree/graph. So now, instead of one value per element, we have two. To use a map, we need to include the header. To define a map, we use the `std::map<type1, type2> map_name` syntax. Here the `type1` represents the type of the key, and `type2` represents the type of a value. To initialize a map of `int char` pairs, for example, we can write:

```
#include <map>

int main()
{
    std::map<int, char> mymap = { {1, 'a'}, {2, 'b'}, {3,'z'} };
}
```

In this example, integers are keys, and the characters are the values. Every map element is a pair. The pair's first element (the key) is accessed through a first() member variable, the second element (the value) is accessed through a second member ~~function~~ variable. To print out our map, we can use:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <map>

int main()
{
    std::map<int, char> mymap = { {1, 'a'}, {2, 'b'}, {3,'z'} };
    for (auto el : mymap)
    {
        std::cout << el.first << ' ' << el.second << '\n';
    }
}
```

We can also construct a map through its default constructor and some help from its key subscript operator []. If the key accessed through a subscript operator does not exist, the entire key-value pair gets inserted into a map. Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <map>

int main()
{
    std::map<int, char> mymap;
    mymap[1] = 'a';
    mymap[2] = 'b';
    mymap[3] = 'z';

    for (auto el : mymap)
    {
        std::cout << el.first << ' ' << el.second << '\n';
    }
}
```

To insert into a map, we can use the `.insert()` member function:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <map>

int main()
{
    std::map<int, char> mymap = { {1, 'a'}, {2, 'b'}, {3,'z'} };
    mymap.insert({ 20, 'c' });

    for (auto el : mymap)
    {
        std::cout << el.first << ' ' << el.second << '\n';
    }
}
```

To search for a specific key inside a map, we can use the map's `.find(key_value)` member function, which returns an iterator. If the key was not found, this function returns an iterator with the value of `.end()`. If the key was found, the function returns the iterator pointing at the pair containing the searched-for key:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <map>

int main()
{
    std::map<int, char> mymap = { {1, 'a'}, {2, 'b'}, {3,'z'} };
    auto it = mymap.find(2);
    if (it != mymap.end())
    {
        std::cout << "Found: " << it->first << " " << it->second << '\n';
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "Not found.";
    }
}
```

Iterator now points at a map element. Map elements are pairs that consist of the first element - the key and the second element – the value. To access these using an iterator, first we must dereference an iterator using the arrow operator `->`. Then we call the pair's `first` member variable for a key and `second` for a value.

38.1.5 std::pair

The *std::pair* class template is a wrapper that can represent a pair of values. To use the std::pair, we need to include the <*utility*> header. To access the first value in a pair, we use the *.first* member variable. To access the second value in a pair, we use the *.second* member variable. Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <utility>

int main()
{
    std::pair<int, double> mypair = { 123, 3.14 };
    std::cout << "The first element is: " << mypair.first << '\n';
    std::cout << "The second element is: " << mypair.second << '\n';
}
```

Another way to create a pair is through a *std::make_pair* function:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <utility>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    double d = 3.14;

    std::pair<int, double> mypair = std::make_pair(x, d);
    std::cout << "The first element is: " << mypair.first << '\n';
    std::cout << "The second element is: " << mypair.second << '\n';
}
```

38.1.6 Other Containers

There are other, less used containers in the standard library as well. We will mention a few of them:

a. std::forward_list – a singly linked list

b. std::list – a doubly linked list

c. std::deque – a double ended container that allows insertion and deletion at both ends

38.2 The Range-Based for Loop

Now is an excellent time to introduce the range-based `for` loop, which allows us to iterate over the container/range content. The range-based `for` loop is of the following syntax:

```
for (some_type element_name : container_name)
{

}
```

We read it as: for each `element_name` of `some_type` inside the `container_name` (do something inside the code block {}). To iterate over the elements of a vector, we can use:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    v.push_back(10);

    for (int el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

The el name represents a copy of each of the vector's elements. If we want to operate on the actual vector elements, we use a reference type:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    v.push_back(10);

    for (int& el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

Now, el is the actual vector element, so any changes we do on el will be the changes to actual vector elements.

We can also use the auto specifier and let the compiler deduce the type of the elements in the container:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    v.push_back(10);

    for (auto el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

To iterate over a vector of strings, we would use a const auto& specifier, as we should pass strings via const reference for performance reasons:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<std::string> v = { "Hello", "World,", "C++"};
    v.push_back("Is great!");

    for (const auto& el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

38.3 Iterators

Containers have iterators. Iterators are like pointers to container elements. Iterator pointing at the first element of a vector is expressed through a `.begin()` member function. Iterator pointing at the (not the last but) one past the last element is expressed through a `.end()` member function. Iterators can be incremented or decremented. Let us print a vector content using iterators:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    for (auto it = v.begin(); it!=v.end(); it++)
    {
        std::cout << *it << '\n';
    }
}
```

As long as our vector's iterator `it` is not equal to `v.end()`, we continue iterating through a vector. When a current iterator `it` becomes equal to v.end(), the `for`-loop terminates. v.end() is a signal that the end of the container (not the last element, it is one past last) has been reached. One learns to appreciate the ease of use of range-based for loops instead of this old-school iterator usage in a for-loop.

Now that we know about iterators, we can use them to erase elements from a vector. Let us say we want to erase the third element. We position the iterator to a third element and use the `.erase(iterator_name)` member function:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    auto it = v.begin() + 3;
    v.erase(it);

    for (auto el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

We also mentioned another group of containers called *associative containers*. These containers are implemented as binary trees. They allow for quick search times, and the data in these containers is sorted. These associative containers are *std::set* and *std::map*. Set holds unique values. Map holds pairs of key-value elements. Maps hold unique keys. Please note that there is also another group of associative containers that allow for duplicate values. They are *std::multi_set* and *std::multi_map*.

38.4 Algorithms and Utilities

C++ standard library provides a set of useful functions located in the `<algorithm>` header. These functions allow us to perform various operations on our containers.

38.4.1 std::sort

For example, if we want to sort our container, we can use the `std::sort` function. To sort our vector in ascending order, we use:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 5, 2, 15, 3, 10 };
    std::sort(v.begin(), v.end());

    for (auto el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

The `std::sort` function sorts a range of elements. It accepts arguments representing the start and the end of the range (one past the end of the range, to be exact). Here we passed in the entire vector's range, where `v.begin()` represents the beginning and `v.end()` represents one past the end of the range.

To sort a container in descending order, we pass in an additional argument called a *comparator*. There is a built-in comparator called `std::greater`, which does the comparisons using the operator > and allows the std::sort function to sort the data in ascending order. Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
#include <algorithm>
#include <functional>

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 5, 2, 15, 3, 10 };
    std::sort(v.begin(), v.end(), std::greater<int>());
```

```
    for (auto el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

Comparator or a comparison function is a so-called *function object* defined inside the `<functional>` header. We can define our custom function object via the so-called unnamed functions called *lambda functions* or *lambdas*. More on this later in the book.

The third parameter of the `std::sort` function is often called a *predicate*. A predicate is a function or a function object returning `true` or `false`. Standard-library functions such as the std::sort accept predicates as one of their arguments. Yes, it is a lot of text and theory, but do not worry about it for the moment. Just remember there are built-in functions in the standard library, and learning how to use them is the catch. It will all become clear through examples.

38.4.2 std::find

To find a certain element by value and return an iterator pointing at that element, we use the *std::find* function. To search for a value of 5 in our vector, we use:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 5, 2, 15, 3, 10 };
    auto result = std::find(v.begin(), v.end(), 5);

    if (result!=v.end())
    {
        std::cout << "Element found: " << *result;
    }
    else
    {
```

```
        std::cout << "Element not found.";
    }
}
```

If the element is found, the function returns an iterator pointing at the first found element in the container. If the value is not found the function returns an `.end()` iterator.

Instead of using container's `.begin()` and `.end()` member functions, we can also use a freestanding `std::begin(container_name)` and `std::end(container_name)` functions:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
#include <algorithm>
#include <iterator>

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 5, 2, 15, 3, 10 };
    auto result = std::find(std::begin(v), std::end(v), 5);

    if (result!=std::end(v))
    {
        std::cout << "Element found: " << *result;
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "Element not found.";
    }
}
```

There is also a conditional `std::find_if` function which accepts a predicate. Depending on the predicate value, the function performs a search on elements for which the predicate returns `true`. More on this when we discuss *lambda-expressions* in later chapters.

38.4.3 std::copy

The *std::copy* function copies the elements from one container to another. It can copy a range of elements marked with [*starting_poisition_iterator*, *ending_position_iterator*) from the starting container to a specific position marked with (*destination_position_iterator*) in the destination container. The function is declared inside the <*algorithm*> header. Before we copy the elements, we need to reserve enough space in the destination vector by supplying the size to a vector's constructor. Example:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> copy_from_v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    std::vector<int> copy_to_v(5); // reserve the space for 5 elements

    std::copy(copy_from_v.begin(), copy_from_v.end(), copy_to_v.begin());

    for (auto el : copy_to_v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

Explanation: we define a source vector called *copy_from_v* and initialize it with some values. Then we define a *copy_to_v* destination vector and reserve enough space for it to hold 5 elements by supplying the number 5 to its constructor. Then we copy all the elements from the beginning to an end of a source vector to the (beginning of) destination vector.

To copy only the first 3 elements, we would use the appropriate range marked with *copy_from_v.begin()* and *copy_from_v.begin() + 3*. And we only need to reserve the space for 3 elements in the destination vector:

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

```
int main()
{
    std::vector<int> copy_from_v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    std::vector<int> copy_to_v(3);

    std::copy(copy_from_v.begin(), copy_from_v.begin() + 3, copy_to_v.
    begin());

    for (auto el : copy_to_v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

38.4.4 Min and Max Elements

To find the greatest element in the container, we use the *std::max::element* function declared in the `<algorithm>` header. This function returns an iterator to the max element in the container:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    auto it = std::max_element(std::begin(v), std::end(v));
    std::cout << "The max element in the vector is: " << *it;
}
```

Similarly, to find the smallest element in the container, we use the *std::min_element* function, which returns an iterator to the min element in the container or a range:

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

```
int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    auto it = std::min_element(std::begin(v), std::end(v));
    std::cout << "The min element in the vector is: " << *it;
}
```

38.5 Lambda Expressions

Lambda expressions, or lambdas for short, are the so-called: *anonymous function objects*. A function object, or a *functor*, is an object of a class that can be called as a function. To be able to call an object like a function, we must overload the *function call operator ()* for our class:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    void operator()()
    {
        std::cout << "Function object called." << '\n';
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass myobject;
    myobject(); // invoke the function object
}
```

The function object can have one or more parameters; in this case, there is one parameter called x:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    void operator()(int x)
    {
        std::cout << "Function object with a parameter " << x << "
        called.";
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass myobject;
    myobject(123); // invoke the function object
}
```

The function object can also return a value. For example, the following function object checks if the parameter is even number:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    bool operator()(int x)
    {
        if (x % 2 == 0)
        {
            return true;
        }
        else
        {
            return false;
        }
    }
};
```

```
int main()
{
    MyClass myobject;
    bool isEven = myobject(123);
    if (isEven)
    {
        std::cout << "The number is even." << '\n';
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "The number is odd." << '\n';
    }
}
```

It is said that function objects carry their values. Since they are objects of a class, they can have data members they carry with them. This separates them from regular functions.

As we can see, overloading operator () and writing the entire class can be somewhat cumbersome if all we want is a simple function object. That is where the lambda expressions come into play. Lambda expressions are anonymous/unnamed function objects. Lambda expression signature is:

```
[captures](parameters){lambda_body};
```

To define and invoke a simple lambda, we use:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    auto mylambda = []() {std::cout << "Hello from a lambda"; };
    mylambda();
}
```

Here, we assign the result of a lambda expression: `[]() {std::cout << "Hello from a lambda";}` to a variable `mylambda`. Then we invoke this lambda by using the function call operator `()`. Since lambdas are unnamed functions, here we gave it the name of `mylambda`, to be able to invoke the code from the lambda expression itself.

To be able to use the variables in the scope in which the lambda was defined, we need to *capture* them first. The capture section marked by [ ] can *capture* local variables by copy:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    auto mylambda = [x]() { std::cout << "The value of x is: " << x; };
    mylambda();
}
```

Here, we captured the local variable x by value and used it inside our lambda body. Another way to capture variables is by reference, where we use the [&name] notation. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    auto mylambda = [&x]() {std::cout << "The value of x is: " << ++x; };
    mylambda();
}
```

To capture more than one variable, we use the comma operator in the capture list: [var1, var2]. For example, to capture two local variables by value, we use:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    int y = 456;
    auto mylambda = [x, y]() {std::cout << "X is: " << x << ", y is:
    " << y; };
    mylambda();
}
```

To capture both local variables by reference, we use:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    int y = 456;
    auto mylambda = [&x, &y]() {std::cout << "X is: " << ++x << ", y is: "
    << ++y; };
    mylambda();
}
```

Lambdas can have optional parameters inside the parenthesis: `[](param1, param2) {}`. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    auto mylambda = [](int x, int y)
    {
        std::cout << "The value of x is: " << x << ", y is: " << y;
    };
    mylambda(123, 456);
}
```

Lambdas are most often used as predicates inside the standard-library algorithm functions. For example, if we want to count the number of even elements in the container, we would supply a lambda to a `std::count_if` function. Example:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 20, 30 };
    auto counteven = std::count_if(std::begin(v), std::end(v),
```

```
        [](int x) {return x % 2 == 0; });
    std::cout << "The number of even vector elements is: " << counteven;
}
```

Here we have a lambda function that checks if an argument is an even number and returns `true` if it is. This lambda is then used as a predicate inside the `std::count_if` function. This function only counts the numbers for which the predicate (our lambda expression) returns `true`. The `std::count_if` function iterates through all the vector elements, and each element becomes a lambda argument.

We can use lambdas in other standard-library algorithm functions accepting expressions named *callables*. Examples of callables are lambdas and function objects.

By using lambdas, we can more clearly express ourselves, and we do not have to write the verbose class function objects. Lambdas were introduced in the C++11 standard.

CHAPTER 39

Exercises

39.1 Basic Vector

Write a program that defines a vector of integers. Insert two elements into a vector. Print out the vector content using the range-based loop.

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 10, 5, 8, 4, 1, 2 };
    v.push_back(15); // insert the value 15
    v.push_back(30); // insert the value of 30

    for (auto el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

39.2 Deleting a Single Value

Write a program that defines a vector of integers. Erase the second element from the vector. Print out the vector content using the range-based loop.

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


S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_39

```
int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 10, 5, 8, 4, 1, 2 };
    v.erase(v.begin() + 1); // erase the second element which is 5

    for (auto el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

39.3 Deleting a Range of Elements

Write a program that defines a vector of integers. Erase the range of 3 elements starting from the beginning of the vector. Print out the vector content using the range-based loop.

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 10, 5, 8, 4, 1, 2 };
    v.erase(v.begin(), v.begin() + 3); // erase the first 3 elements

    for (auto el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

In this case the .erase() function overload accepts two arguments. One is the beginning of the range to be deleted. In our case, it is marked with v.begin(). The second argument is the end of the range to be deleted.In our case, it is the v.begin() + 3 iterator. Please note that instead of .begin() member function we could have used a freestanding std::begin(v) function.

39.4 Finding Elements in a Vector

Write a program that searches for a vector element using the std::find() algorithm function. If the element has been found, delete it. Print out the vector content.

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 10, 5, 8, 4, 1, 2 };
    int findnumber = 4;

    auto foundit = std::find(std::begin(v), std::end(v), findnumber);
    if (foundit != std::end(v))
    {
        std::cout << "Element found. Deleting the element." << '\n';
        v.erase(foundit);
        std::cout << "Element deleted." << '\n';
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "Element not found." << '\n';
    }

    for (auto el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

39.5 Basic Set

Write a program that defines a set of integers. Print out the set content and observe the following: the data is sorted, regardless of how we defined the set. This is because internally, std::set is a sorted container that holds unique values.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <set>

int main()
{
    std::set<int> myset = { -10, 1, 3, 5, -20, 6, 9, 15 };
    for (auto el : myset)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

39.6 Set Data Manipulation

Write a program that defines a set and inserts two new values using the set's .insert() member function. Then, delete one arbitrary value from a set using the set's .erase() member function. Print out the set content afterward.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <set>

int main()
{
    std::set<int> myset = { -10, 1, 3, 5, 6, 9, 15 };
    myset.insert(-5); // inserts a value of -5
    myset.insert(30); // inserts a value of 30

    myset.erase(6); // deletes a value of 6
    for (auto el : myset)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

39.7 Set Member Functions

Write a program that defines a set of integers and utilizes the set's member function to check the set's size, check whether it is empty and clear the set's content.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <set>

int main()
{
    std::set<int> myset = { -10, 1, 3, 5, 6, 9, 15 };
    std::cout << "The set's size is: " << myset.size() << '\n';
    std::cout << "Clearing the set..." << '\n';
    myset.clear(); // clear the set's content
    if (myset.empty())
    {
        std::cout << "The set is empty." << '\n';
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "The set is not empty." << '\n';
    }
}
```

39.8 Search for Data in a Set

Write a program that searches for a particular value in a set using the set's .find() member function. If the value is found, delete it. Print out the set content.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <set>

int main()
{
    std::set<int> myset = { -10, 1, 3, 5, 6, 9, 15 };
    int findvalue = 5;
    auto foundit = myset.find(findvalue);
```

```
    if (foundit != myset.end())
    {
        std::cout << "Value found. Deleting the value..." << '\n';
        myset.erase(foundit);
        std::cout << "Element deleted." << '\n';
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "Value not found." << '\n';
    }

    for (auto el : myset)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

39.9 Basic Map

Write a program that defines a map where keys are of type char and values are of type int. Print out the map content.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <map>

int main()
{
    std::map<char, int> mymap = { {'a', 1}, {'b', 5}, {'e', 10}, {'f', 10}
};
    for (auto el : mymap)
    {
        std::cout << el.first << ' ' << el.second << '\n';
    }
}
```

Explanation. Map elements are key-value pairs. These pairs are represented by an *std::pair* class template which can store a pair. So the type of a map element is *std::pair<char, int>*.In a map container, keys are unique, and values do not have to be unique. We initialize the map with our key-value pairs inside the initializer list {}. Using a ranged-based for loop, we iterate over map elements. To access the key in a pair, we use the pair's *.first* member function, which represents the first element in a pair, in our case – the key. Similarly, we access the second element using the pair's *.second* member function, which represents the map element value.

39.10 Inserting Into Map

Write a program that defines a map of strings and integers. Insert an element into a map using the map's *.insert()* member function. Then use the map's operator [] to insert another key-value element into a map. Print the map content afterward.

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

int main()
{
    std::map<std::string, int> mymap = { {"red", 1}, {"green", 20},
    {"blue", 15} };
    mymap.insert({ "magenta", 4 });
    mymap["yellow"] = 5;

    for (const auto& el : mymap)
    {
        std::cout << el.first << ' ' << el.second << '\n';
    }
}
```

When using the map's [] operator, there are two scenarios. The key inside the [] operator exists in the map. This means we can use it to change the value of an element. The key does not exist. In this case, when using the map's operator [], the key-value gets inserted into the map. This was the case with our: `mymap["yellow"] = 5;` statement.

Remember, maps are graphs, and the map's elements are sorted based on a key. And since our keys are strings, the order does not necessarily need to be the one we provided in the initializer list.

If, for example, we have a map of ints and strings, and we provide sorted int keys in the initializers list, the order would be the same when printing out the elements:

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

int main()
{
    std::map<int, std::string> mymap = { {1, "First"}, {2, "Second"},
    {3, "Third"}, {4, "Fourth"} };

    for (const auto& el : mymap)
    {
        std::cout << el.first << ' ' << el.second << '\n';
    }
}
```

39.11 Searching and Deleting From a Map

Write a program that defines a map of integers and strings. Search for an element by key using the map's *.find()* member function. If the element is found, delete it. Print out the map content.

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

int main()
{
    std::map<int, std::string> mymap = { {1, "First"}, {2, "Second"},
    {3, "Third"}, {4, "Fourth"} };
    int findbykey = 2;
    auto foundit = mymap.find(findbykey);
```

```
    if (foundit != mymap.end())
    {
        std::cout << "Key found." << '\n';
        std::cout << "Deleting the element..." << '\n';
        mymap.erase(foundit);
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "Key not found." << '\n';
    }

    for (const auto& el : mymap)
    {
        std::cout << el.first << ' ' << el.second << '\n';
    }
}
```

39.12 Lambda Expressions

Write a program that defines a vector of integers. Sort the vector in a descending order using the *std::sort* function, and a user-provided lambda function as a predicate.

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 5, 10, 4, 1, 3, 15 };
    std::sort(std::begin(v), std::end(v), [](int x, int y) {return x > y; });

    for (const auto& el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

Write a program that defines a vector of integers. Use the *std::count_if* function and a user-provided lambda function to count only even numbers.

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 5, 10, 4, 1, 3, 8 };
    int mycount = std::count_if(std::begin(v), std::end(v), [](int x)
    {return x % 2 == 0; });
    std::cout << "The number of even numbers is: " << mycount;
}
```

Write a program that defines a local lambda expression that can capture and modify the variable defined inside the main() function:

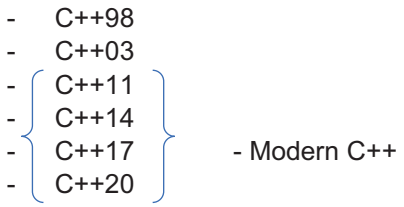
```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int x = 123;
    std::cout << "The value of a local variable is: " << x << '\n';
    auto mylambda = [&x](){ x++; };
    mylambda();
    std::cout << "Lambda captured and changed the local variable to: "
    << x << '\n';
}
```

CHAPTER 40

C++ Standards

C++ is an ISO standardized programing language. There are different C++ standards:



Everything starting with C++11 is referred to as "Modern C++." These standards define the language in great technical detail. They also serve as manuals for C++ compiler writers. It is a mind-boggling set of rules and specifications. The C++ standards can be bought, or a draft version can be downloaded for free. These drafts closely resemble the final C++ standard. When C++ code can be successfully transferred and compiled on different platforms (machines or compilers), and when C++ implementation closely follows the standard, we say that the code is *portable*. This is often referred to as *portable C++*.

The standards surrounded by braces represent the so-called "Modern C++." Each standard describes the language and introduces new language and library features. It may also introduce changes to the existing rules. We will describe notable features in each of these standards.

40.1 C++11

C++11 is an ISO C++ standard, published in 2011. To compile for this standard, add the *-std=c++11* flag to a command-line compilation string if compiling with g++ or clang. If using Visual Studio, choose *Project / Options / Configuration Properties / C/C++ / Language / C++ Language Standard* and choose *C++11*. New Visual Studio versions already support this standard out of the box. We have already described the notable C++11 features in previous chapters, and here we will briefly go through them once again and introduce a few new ones:

S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0_40

40.1.1 Automatic Type Deduction

This standard introduces the `auto` keyword which deduces the type of the variable based on the variable's initializer:

```
int main()
{
    auto mychar = 'A';
    auto myint = 123 + 456;
    auto mydouble = 456.789;
}
```

40.1.2 Range-based Loops

The range-based loops allow us to iterate over the range, such as C++ standard-library containers:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 10, 20, 40, 5, -20, 75 };
    for (auto el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

The range-based for loop is of the following form: `for (type element : container)`. This is read as *for each element in a container* (do something).

40.1.3 Initializer Lists

Initializer lists, represented by braces { } allow us to initialize objects in a *uniform way*. We can initialize single objects:

```
int main()
{
    int x{ 123 };
    int y = { 456 };
    double d{ 3.14 };
}
```

And containers:

```
#include <vector>

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
}
```

List initialization also prevents narrowing conversions. If we tried to initialize our integer object with a double value inside the initializer list, the compilation would fail:

```
int main()
{
    int x = { 123.45 }; // Error, does not allowing narrowing
}
```

When initializing our objects, we should prefer initializer lists {} to old-style parentheses ().

40.1.4 Move Semantics

C++ 11 standard introduces the move semantics for classes. We can initialize our objects by moving the data from other objects. This is achieved through move constructors and move assignment operators. Both accept the so-called *rvalue reference* as an argument. *Lvalue* is an expression that can be used on the left-hand side of the

assignment operation. *rvalues* are expressions that can be used on the right-hand side of an assignment. The rvalue reference has the signature of *some_type&&*. To cast an expression to an rvalue reference, we use the *std::move* function. A simple move constructor and move assignment signature are:

```
class MyClass
{
public:
    MyClass(MyClass&& otherobject) // move constructor
    {
        //implement the move logic here
    }

    MyClass& operator=(MyClass&& otherobject) // move assignment operator
    {
        // implement the copy logic here
        return *this;
    }
};
```

40.1.5 Lambda Expressions

Lambda expressions are anonymous function objects. They allow us to write a short code snippet to be used as a standard-library function predicate. Lambdas have a capture list, marked by [ ] where we can capture local variables by reference or copy, parameter list with optional parameters marked with ( ), and a lambda body, marked with { }. An empty lambda looks like [] () {};. A simple example of counting only the even numbers in a set using the lambda as a predicate:

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

```
int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    auto counteven = std::count_if(std::begin(v), std::end(v),
        [](int x) {return x % 2 == 0; }); // lambda expression
    std::cout << "The number of even vector elements is: " << counteven;
}
```

40.1.6 The constexpr Specifier

The constexpr specifier promises the variable or a function can be evaluated during compile-time. If the expression can not be evaluated during compile-time, the compiler emits an error:

```
int main()
{
    constexpr int n = 123;          //OK, 123 is a compile-time constant
                                    // expression
    constexpr double d = 456.78;    //OK, 456.78 is a compile-time constant
                                    // expression
    constexpr double d2 = d;        //OK, d is a constant expression
    int x = 123;
    constexpr int n2 = x;           //compile-time error
                                    // the value of x is not known during
                                    // compile-time
}
```

40.1.7 Scoped Enumerators

The C++11 standard introduces the scoped enumerators. Unlike the old enumerators, the scoped enumerators do not *leak* their names into the surrounding scope. Scoped enums have the following signature: *enum class Enumerator_Name {value1, value2 etc}* signature. A simple example of a scoped enum is:

```
enum class MyEnum
{
    myfirstvalue,
    mysecondvalue,
    mythirdvalue
};

int main()
{
    MyEnum myenum = MyEnum::myfirstvalue;
}
```

40.1.8 Smart Pointers

Smart pointers point to objects, and when the pointer goes out of scope, the object gets destroyed. This makes them *smart* in the sense that we do not have to worry about manual deallocation of allocated memory. The smart pointers do all the heavy lifting for us.

There are two kinds of smart pointers, the unique pointer with an *std::unique_ptr<type>* signature and a shared pointer with an *std::shared_ptr<type>* signature. The difference between the two is that we can have only one unique pointer pointing at the object. In contrast, we can have multiple shared pointers pointing at an object. When the unique pointer goes out of scope, the object gets destroyed, and the memory is deallocated. When the last of the shared pointers pointing at our object goes out of scope, the object gets destroyed. The memory gets deallocated.

A unique pointer example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <memory>

int main()
{
    std::unique_ptr<int> p(new int{ 123 });
    std::cout << *p;
} // p goes out of scope here, the memory gets deallocated, the object gets
// destroyed
```

A unique pointer can not be copied, only moved. To have multiple shared pointers pointing at the same object, we would write:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <memory>

int main()
{
    std::shared_ptr<int> p1(new int{ 123 });
    std::shared_ptr<int> p2 = p1;
    std::shared_ptr<int> p3 = p1;
} // when the last shared pointer goes out of scope, the memory gets
// deallocated
```

Shared pointers can be copied. It is said they *share ownership* of the object. When the last shared pointer gets out of scope, the pointed-to object gets destroyed, and the memory gets deallocated.

40.1.9 std::unordered_set

The std::unordered_set is a container that allows for constant time insertion, searching, and removal of elements. This container is implemented as an array of buckets of linked lists. The hash value of each element is calculated, and the object is placed into an appropriate bucket based on the hash value. The object themselves are not sorted in any particular order. To define an unordered set, we need to include the `<unordered_set>` header. Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <unordered_set>

int main()
{
    std::unordered_set<int> myunorderedset = { 1, 2, 5, -4, 7, 10 };
    for (auto el : myunorderedset)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

The values are not sorted but are unique. To insert single or multiple values into an unordered_set, we use the .insert() member function:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <unordered_set>

int main()
{
    std::unordered_set<int> myunorderedset = { 1, 2, 5, -4, 7, 10 };
    myunorderedset.insert(6); // insert a single value
    myunorderedset.insert({ 8, 15, 20 }); // insert multiple values
    for (auto el : myunorderedset)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

To delete a value from an unordered set, we use the .erase() member function:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <unordered_set>

int main()
{
    std::unordered_set<int> myunorderedset = { 1, 2, 5, -4, 7, 10 };
    myunorderedset.erase(-4); // erase a single value
    for (auto el : myunorderedset)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

40.1.10 std::unordered_map

Similar to std::unordered_set, there is also an std::unordered_map, an unordered container of key-value pairs with unique keys. This container also allows for fast insertion, searching, and removal of elements. The container is also data is also

implemented as buckets. What element goes into what bucket depends on the element's key hash value. To define an unordered map, we include the <unordered_map> header. Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <unordered_map>

int main()
{
    std::unordered_map<char, int> myunorderedmap = { {'a', 1}, {'b', 2},
    {'c', 5} };
    for (auto el : myunorderedmap)
    {
        std::cout << el.first << ' '<< el.second << '\n';
    }
}
```

Here we initialize an unordered map with key-value pairs. In the range-based for loop, we print both the key and the value. Map elements are pairs. Pairs have member functions *.first* for accessing a key and *.second* for accessing a value. To insert an element into a map we can use the member function .insert() member function:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <unordered_map>

int main()
{
    std::unordered_map<char, int> myunorderedmap = { {'a', 1}, {'b', 2},
    {'c', 5} };
    myunorderedmap.insert({ 'd', 10 });

    for (auto el : myunorderedmap)
    {
        std::cout << el.first << ' '<< el.second << '\n';
    }
}
```

We can also use the map's operator [] to insert an element. Normally, this operator is used to access an element value by key. However, if the key does not exist, the operator inserts a new element into the map:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <unordered_map>

int main()
{
    std::unordered_map<char, int> myunorderedmap = { {'a', 1}, {'b', 2},
    {'c', 5} };
    myunorderedmap['b'] = 4; // key exists, change the value
    myunorderedmap['d'] = 10; // key does not exist, insert the new element
    for (auto el : myunorderedmap)
    {
        std::cout << el.first << ' ' << el.second << '\n';
    }
}
```

40.1.11 std::tuple

While *std::pair* can hold only two values, the *std::tuple* wrapper can hold more than two values. To use tuples, we need to include the <*tuple*> header. To access a certain tuple element, we use the *std::get<index_of_an_element>(tuple_name)* function:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <utility>
#include <tuple>

int main()
{
    std::tuple<char, int, double> mytuple = { 'a', 123, 3.14 };
    std::cout << "The first element is: " << std::get<0>(mytuple) << '\n';
    std::cout << "The second element is: " << std::get<1>(mytuple) << '\n';
    std::cout << "The third element is: " << std::get<2>(mytuple) << '\n';
}
```

We can create a tuple using the *std::make_tuple* function:

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

int main()
{
    auto mytuple = std::make_tuple<int, double, std::string>(123, 3.14,
    "Hello World.");
    std::cout << "The first tuple element is: " << std::get<0>(mytuple)
    << '\n';
    std::cout << "The second tuple element is: " << std::get<1>(mytuple)
    << '\n';
    std::cout << "The third tuple element is: " << std::get<2>(mytuple)
    << '\n';
}
```

Instead of typing a lengthy tuple type, which is *std::tuple<int, double, std::string>*, we used the *auto* specifier to deduce the type name for us.

40.1.12 static_assert

The *static_assert* directive checks a static (constexpr) condition during compile time. If the condition is false, the directive fails the compilation and displays an error message. Example:

```
int main()
{
    constexpr int x = 123;
    static_assert(x == 456, "The constexpr value is not 456.");
}
```

Here the static_assert checks if the value of x is equal to 456 during compile time. Since it is not, the compilation will fail with a `"The constexpr value is not 456."` message. We can think of the static_assert as a way of testing our code during compile time. It is also a neat way of testing if the value of a constexpr expression is what we expect it to be.

40.1.13 Introduction to Concurrency

C++11 standard introduces facilities for working with threads. To enable threading, we need to add the *-pthreads* flag when compiling with g++ and clang on the command line. Example:

```
g++ -std=c++11 -Wall -pthread source.cpp
```

With clang it will be:

```
clang++ -std=c++11 -Wall -pthread source.cpp
```

When we compile and link our source code program, an executable file is produced. When we start the executable, the program gets loaded into memory and starts running. This running program is called a *process*. When we start multiple executable files, we can have multiple processes. Each process has its memory, its own address space. Within a process, there can be multiple threads. What are the threads? Threads or threads of execution are an OS mechanism that allows us to execute multiple pieces of code concurrently/simultaneously.

For example, we can execute multiple functions concurrently using threads. In a broader sense, concurrently can also mean *in parallel*. A thread is part of the process. A process can spawn one or more threads. Threads share the same memory and thus can communicate with each other using this shared memory.

To create a thread object, we use the *std::thread* class template from a <*thread*> header file. Once defined, the thread starts executing. To create a thread that executes a code inside a function, we supply the function name to the thread constructor as a parameter. Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <thread>

void function1()
{
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    {
        std::cout << "Executing function1." << '\n';
    }
}
```

```
int main()
{
    std::thread t1{ function1 }; // create and start a thread
    t1.join(); // wait for the t1 thread to finish
}
```

Here we have defined a thread called *t1* that executes a function *function1*. We supply the function name to the std::thread constructor as a first parameter. In a way, our program now has a main thread, which is the *main()* function itself, and the t1 thread, which was created from the main thread. The *.join()* member function says: "*hey, main thread, please wait for me to finish my work before continuing with yours.*" If we left out the .join() function, the main thread would finish executing before the t1 thread has finished its work. We avoid this by *joining* the child thread to the main thread.

If our function accepts parameters, we can pass those parameters when constructing the std::thread object:

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

void function1(const std::string& param)
{
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    {
        std::cout << "Executing function1, " << param << '\n';
    }
}

int main()
{
    std::thread t1{ function1, "Hello World from a thread." };
    t1.join();
}
```

We can spawn multiple threads in our program/process by constructing multiple std::thread objects. An example where we have two threads executing two different functions concurrently/simultaneously:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <thread>

void function1()
{
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    {
        std::cout << "Executing function1." << '\n';
    }
}

void function2()
{
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    {
        std::cout << "Executing function2." << '\n';
    }
}

int main()
{
    std::thread t1{ function1 };
    std::thread t2{ function2 };

    t1.join();
    t2.join();
}
```

This example creates two threads executing two different functions concurrently.

The *function1* code executes in a thread *t1,* and the *function2* code executes in a separate thread called *t2*.

We can also have multiple threads executing code from the same function concurrently:

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

void myfunction(const std::string& param)
{
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    {
        std::cout << "Executing function from a " << param << '\n';
    }
}

int main()
{
    std::thread t1{ myfunction, "Thread 1" };
    std::thread t2{ myfunction, "Thread 2" };

    t1.join();
    t2.join();
}
```

Threads sometimes need to access the same object. In our example, both threads are accessing the global *std::cout* object in order to output the data. This can be a problem. Accessing the *std::cout* object from two different threads at the same time allows one thread to write a little to it, then another thread jumps in and writes a little to it, and we can end up with some strange text in the console window:

Executi.Executingng function1.Executing function2.

This means we need to synchronize the access to a shared *std::cout* object somehow. While one thread is writing to it, we need to ensure that the thread does not write to it.

We do so by locking and unlocking mutex-es. A mutex is represented by *std::mutex* class template from a <*mutex*> header. A mutex is a way to synchronize access to shared objects between multiple threads. A thread owns a mutex once it locks the mutex, then performs access to shared data and unlocks the mutex when access to shared data is no longer needed. This ensures only one thread at the time can have access to a shared object, which is *std::cout* in our case.

Here is an example where two threads execute the same function and guard access to std::cout object by locking and unlocking mutexes:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <thread>
#include <string>
#include <mutex>

std::mutex m; // will guard std::cout

void myfunction(const std::string& param)
{
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    {
        m.lock();
        std::cout << "Executing function from a " << param << '\n';
        m.unlock();
    }
}

int main()
{
    std::thread t1{ myfunction, "Thread 1" };
    std::thread t2{ myfunctiosn, "Thread 2" };

    t1.join();
    t2.join();
}
```

We can forget to unlock the mutex manually. A better approach is to use the *std::lock_guard* function instead. It locks the mutex, and once it goes out of scope, it automatically unlocks the mutex. Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <thread>
#include <string>
#include <mutex>
```

```
std::mutex m; // will guard std::cout

void myfunction(const std::string& param)
{
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    {
        std::lock_guard<std::mutex> lg(m);
        std::cout << "Executing function from a " << param << '\n';
    } // lock_guard goes out of scope here and unlocks the mutex
}

int main()
{
    std::thread t1{ myfunction, "Thread 1" };
    std::thread t2{ myfunction, "Thread 2" };

    t1.join();
    t2.join();
}
```

40.1.14 Deleted and Defaulted Functions

If we do not supply a default constructor, the compiler will generate one for us so that we can write:

```
class MyClass
{

};

int main()
{
    MyClass o; // OK, there is an implicitly defined default constructor
}
```

However, in certain situations, the default constructor will not be implicitly generated. For example, when we define a copy constructor for our class, the default constructor is implicitly deleted. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    MyClass(const MyClass& other)
    {
        std::cout << "Copy constructor invoked.";
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o; // Error, there is no default constructor
}
```

To force the instantiation of a default, compiler-generated constructor, we provide the =*default* specifier in its declaration. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    MyClass() = default; // defaulted member function
    MyClass(const MyClass& other)
    {
        std::cout << "Copy constructor invoked.";
    }
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o; // Now OK, the defaulted default constructor is there
    MyClass o2 = o; // Invoking the copy constructor
}
```

The =*default* specifier, when used on a member function, means: whatever the language rules, I want this default member function to be there. I do not want it to be implicitly disabled.

Similarly, if we want to disable a member function from appearing, we use the =*delete* specifier. To disable the copy constructor and copy assignment, we would write:

```
#include <iostream>

class MyClass
{
public:
    MyClass()
    {
        std::cout << "Default constructor invoked.";
    }
    MyClass(const MyClass& other) = delete; // delete the copy constructor
    MyClass& operator=(const MyClass& other) = delete; // delete the copy
    // assignment operator
};

int main()
{
    MyClass o; // OK
    MyClass o2 = o; // Error, a call to deleted copy constructor
    MyClass o3;
    o3 = o; // Error, a call to deleted copy assignment operator
}
```

These specifiers are mostly used in situations where we want to:

a. force or the instantiation of implicitly defined member functions such as constructors and assignment operators, when we use the =*default;* expression

b. disable the instantiation of implicitly defined member functions using the =*delete;* expression

These expressions can also be used on other functions as well.

40.1.15 Type Aliases

A type alias is a user-provided name for the existing type. If we want to use a different name for the existing type, we write: *using my_type_name = existing_type_name;*
Example:

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

using MyInt = int;
using MyString = std::string;
using MyVector = std::vector<int>;

int main()
{
    MyInt x = 123;
    MyString s = "Hello World";
    MyVector v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
}
```

40.2 C++14

C++14 is an ISO C++ standard published in 2014. It brings some additions to the language and the standard library, but mainly complements and fixes the C++11 standard. When we say we want to use the C++11 standard, what we actually want is the C++14 standard. Below are some of the new features for C++14.

To compile for C++14, add the *-std=c++14* flag to a command-line compilation string if using g++ or clang compiler. In Visual Studio, choose *Project / Options / Configuration Properties / C/C++ / Language / C++ Language Standard* and choose *C++14*.

40.2.1 Binary Literals

Values are represented by literals. So far, we have mentioned three different kinds of binary literals: decimal, hexadecimal, and octal as in the example below:

```
int main()
{
    int x = 10;
    int y = 0xA;
    int z = 012;
}
```

These three variables have the same value of 10, represented by different number literals. C++14 standard introduces the fourth kind of integral literals called *binary literals*. Using binary literals, we can represent the value in its binary form. The literal has a `0b` prefix, followed by a sequence of ones and zeros representing a value. To represent the number 10 as a binary literal, we write:

```
int main()
{
    int x = 0b101010;
}
```

The famous number 42 in binary form would be:

```
int main()
{
    int x = 0b1010;
}
```

Important to remember Values are values; they are some sequence of bits and bytes in memory. What can be different is the value *representation*. There are decimal, hexadecimal, octal, and binary representations of the value. These different forms of the same thing can be relevant to us humans. To a machine, it is all bits and bytes, transistors, and electrical current.

40.2.2 Digits Separators

In C++14, we can separate digits with a single quote to make it more readable:

```
int main()
{
    int x =100'000'000;
}
```

The compiler ignores the quotes. The separators are only here for our benefit, for example, to split a large number into more readable sections.

40.2.3 Auto for Functions

We can deduce the function type based on the return statement value:

```
auto myintfn() // integer
{
    return 123;
}

auto mydoublefn() // double
{
    return 3.14;
}

int main()
{
    auto x = myintfn(); // int
    auto d = mydoublefn(); // double
}
```

40.2.4 Generic Lambdas

We can use auto parameters in lambda functions now. The type of the parameter will be deduced from the value supplied to a lambda function. This is also called a *generic lambda*:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    auto mylambda = [](auto p) {std::cout << "Lambda parameter: " << p <<
    '\n'; };
    mylambda(123);
    mylambda(3.14);
}
```

40.2.5 std::make_unique

C++14 introduces a *std::make_unique* function for creating unique pointers. It is declared inside a <memory> header. Prefer this function to raw new operator when creating unique pointers:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <memory>

class MyClass
{
private:
    int x;
    double d;
public:
    MyClass(int xx, double dd)
        : x{ xx }, d{ dd }    {}
    void printdata() { std::cout << "x: " << x << ", d: " << d; }
};
```

```
int main()
{
    auto p = std::make_unique<MyClass>(123, 456.789);
    p->printdata();
}
```

40.3 C++17

The C++17 standard introduces new language and library features and changes some of the language rules.

40.3.1 Nested Namespaces

Remember how we said we could have nested namespaces? We can put a namespace into another namespace. We used the following the nest namespaces:

```
namespace MyNameSpace1
{
    namespace MyNameSpace2
    {
        namespace MyNameSpace3
        {
            // some code
        }
    }
}
```

The C++17 standard allows us to nest namespaces using the namespace resolution operator. The above example can now be rewritten as:

```
namespace MyNameSpace1::MyNameSpace2::MyNameSpace3
{
    // some code
}
```

40.3.2 Constexpr Lambdas

Lambdas can now be a constant expression, meaning they can be evaluated during compile-time:

```
int main()
{
    constexpr auto mylambda = [](int x, int y) { return x + y; };
    static_assert(mylambda(10, 20) == 30, "The lambda condition is not
    true.");
}
```

An equivalent example where we put the `constexpr` specifier in the lambda itself, would be:

```
int main()
{
    auto mylambda = [](int x, int y) constexpr { return x + y; };
    static_assert(mylambda(10, 20) == 30, "The lambda condition is not
    true.");
}
```

This was not the case in earlier C++ standards.

40.3.3 Structured Bindings

Structured binding binds the variable names to elements of compile-time known expressions, such as arrays or maps. If we want to have multiple variables taking values of expression elements, we use the structured bindings. The syntax is:

```
auto [myvar1, myvar2, myvar3] = some_expression;
```

A simple example where we bound three variables to be aliases for three array elements would be:

```
int main()
{
    int arr[] = { 1, 2, 3 };
    auto [myvar1, myvar2, myvar3] = arr;
}
```

Now we have defined three integer variables. These variables have array elements values of 1, 2, 3, respectively. These variables are copies of array elements. Making changes to variables does not affect the array elements themselves:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int arr[] = { 1, 2, 3 };
    auto [myvar1, myvar2, myvar3] = arr;
    myvar1 = 10;
    myvar2 = 20;
    myvar3 = 30;
    for (auto el : arr)
    {
        std::cout << el << ' ';
    }
}
```

We can make structured bindings of reference type by using the auto& syntax. This means the variables are now references to array elements and making changes to variables also changes the array elements:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int arr[] = { 1, 2, 3 };
    auto& [myvar1, myvar2, myvar3] = arr;
    myvar1 = 10;
    myvar2 = 20;
    myvar3 = 30;
    for (auto el : arr)
    {
        std::cout << el << ' ';
    }
}
```

It is an excellent way of introducing and binding multiple variables to some container-like expression elements.

40.3.4 std::filesystem

The std::filesystem library allows us to work with files, paths, and folders on our system. The library is declared through a <filesystem> header. Paths can represent paths to files and paths to folders. To check if a given folder exists, we use:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <filesystem>

int main()
{
    std::filesystem::path folderpath = "C:\\MyFolder\\";
    if (std::filesystem::exists(folderpath))
    {
        std::cout << "The path: " << folderpath << " exists.";
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "The path: " << folderpath << " does not exist.";
    }
}
```

Similarly, we can use the std::filesystem::path object to check if a file exists:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <filesystem>

int main()
{
    std::filesystem::path folderpath = "C:\\MyFolder\\myfile.txt";
    if (std::filesystem::exists(folderpath))
    {
        std::cout << "The file: " << folderpath << " exists.";
    }
```

```
    else
    {
        std::cout << "The file: " << folderpath << " does not exist.";
    }
}
```

To iterate over folder elements, we use the *std::filesystem::directory_iterator* iterator:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <filesystem>

int main()
{
    auto myfolder = "C:\\MyFolder\\";
    for (auto el : std::filesystem::directory_iterator(myfolder))
    {
        std::cout << el.path() << '\n';
    }
}
```

Here we iterate over the directory entries and print each of the elements full path using the .path() member function.

For Linux, we need to adjust the path and use the following instead:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <filesystem>

int main()
{
    auto myfolder = "MyFolder/";
    for (auto el : std::filesystem::recursive_directory_iterator(myfolder))
    {
        std::cout << el.path() << '\n';
    }
}
```

To iterate over folder elements recursively, we use the *std::filesystem::recursive_directory_iterator*. This allows us to iterate recursively over all subfolders in a folder. On Windows, we would use:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <filesystem>

int main()
{
    auto myfolder = "C:\\MyFolder\\";
    for (auto el : std::filesystem::recursive_directory_iterator(myfolder))
    {
        std::cout << el.path() << '\n';
    }
}
```

On Linux and similar OS-es, we would use the following path:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <filesystem>

int main()
{
    auto myfolder = "MyFolder/";
    for (auto el : std::filesystem::directory_iterator(myfolder))
    {
        std::cout << el.path() << '\n';
    }
}
```

Below are some useful utility functions inside the std::filesystem namespace:

- `std::filesystem::create_directory` for creating a directory
- `std::filesystem::copy` for copying files and directories
- `std::filesystem::remove` for removing a file or an empty folder
- `std::filesystem::remove_all` for removing folders and subfolders

40.3.5 std::string_view

Copying data can be an expensive operation in terms of CPU usage. Passing substrings as function parameters would require making a copy of substrings. This is a costly operation. The string_view class template is an attempt to rectify that.

The string_view is a non-owning view of a string or a substring. It is a reference to something that is already there in the memory. It is implemented as a pointer to some character sequence plus the size of that sequence. With this kind of structure, we can parse strings efficiently.

The std::string_view is declared inside the `<string_view>` header file. To create a string_view from an existing string, we write:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello World.";
    std::string_view sw(s);
    std::cout << sw;
}
```

To create a string_view for a substring of the first five characters, we use the different constructor overload. This string_view constructor takes a pointer to the first string element and the length of the substring:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello World.";
    std::string_view sw(s.c_str() , 5);
    std::cout << sw;
}
```

Once we create a string_view, we can use its member functions. To create a substring out of a string_view, we use the `.substr()` member function. To create a substring, we supply the starting position index and length. To create a substring of the first five characters, we use:

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

int main()
{
    std::string s = "Hello World";
    std::string_view sw(s);
    std::cout << sw.substr(0, 5);
}
```

A string_view allows us to parse (not change) the data that is already in the memory, without having to make copies of the data. This data is owned by another string or character array object.

40.3.6 std::any

The std::any container can hold a single value of any type. This container is declared inside the header file. Example:

```
#include <any>

int main()
{
    std::any a = 345.678;
    std::any b = true;
    std::any c = 123;
}
```

To access the value of an std::any object in a safe manner, we cast it to a type of our choice using the *std::any_cast* function:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <any>

int main()
{
    std::any a = 123;
    std::cout << "Any accessed as an integer: " << std::any_cast<int>(a)
    << '\n';
    a = 456.789;
    std::cout << "Any accessed as a double: " << std::any_cast<double>(a)
    << '\n';
    a = true;
    std::cout << "Any accessed as a boolean: " << std::any_cast<bool>(a)
    << '\n';
}
```

Important, the *std::any_cast* will throw an exception if we try to convert, for example, 123 to type double. This function performs only the type-safe conversions.Another *std::any* member function is *.has_value()* which checks if the *std::any* object holds a value:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <any>

int main()
{
    std::any a = 123;
    if (a.has_value())
    {
        std::cout << "Object a contains a value." << '\n';
    }
```

```
    std::any b{};
    if (b.has_value())
    {
        std::cout << "Object b contains a value." << '\n';
    }
    else
    {
        std::cout << "Object b does not contain a value." << '\n';
    }
}
```

40.3.7 std::variant

There is another type of data in C++ called *union*. A union is a type whose data members of different types occupy the same memory. Only one data member can be accessed at a time. The size of a union in memory is the size of its largest data member. The data members overlap in a sense. To define a union type in C++, we write:

```
union MyUnion
{
    char c;        // one byte
    int x;         // four bytes
    double d;      // eight bytes
};
```

Here we declared a union type that can hold characters or integers or doubles. The size of this union is the size of its largest data member double, which is probably eight bytes, depending on the implementation. Although the union declares multiple data members, it can only hold a value of one member at any given time. This is because all the data members share the same memory location. And we can only access the member that was the last written-to. Example:

```
#include <iostream>

union MyUnion
{
```

```
    char c;        // one byte
    int x;         // four bytes
    double d;      // eight bytes
};

int main()
{
    MyUnion o;
    o.c = 'A';
    std::cout << o.c << '\n';
    // accessing o.x or o.d is undefined behavior at this point
    o.x = 123;
    std::cout << o.c;
    // accessing o.c or o.d is undefined behavior at this point
    o.d = 456.789;
    std::cout << o.c;
    // accessing o.c or o.x is undefined behavior at this point
}
```

C++17 introduces a new way of working with unions using the *std::variant* class template from a <*variant*> header. This class template offers a type-safe way of storing and accessing a union. To declare a variant using a *std::variant*, we would write:

```
#include <variant>

int main()
{
    std::variant<char, int, double> myvariant;
}
```

This example defines a variant that can hold three types. When we initialize or assign a value to a variant, an appropriate type is chosen. For example, if we initialize a variant with a character value, the variant will currently hold a char data member. Accessing other members at this point will throw an exception. Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <variant>

int main()
{
    std::variant<char, int, double> myvariant{ 'a' }; // variant now holds
    // a char

    std::cout << std::get<0>(myvariant) << '\n'; // obtain a data member by
    // index
    std::cout << std::get<char>(myvariant) << '\n'; // obtain a data member
    // by type

    myvariant = 1024; // variant now holds an int
    std::cout << std::get<1>(myvariant) << '\n'; // by index
    std::cout << std::get<int>(myvariant) << '\n'; // by type

    myvariant = 123.456; // variant now holds a double
}
```

We can access a variant value by index using the *std::get<index_number>(variant_name)* function. Or we can access the variant value by a type name using: *std::get<type_namer>(variant_name)*. If we tried to access a wrong type or wrong index member, an exception of type *const std::bad_variant_access&* would be raised. Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <variant>

int main()
{
    std::variant<int, double> myvariant{ 123 }; // variant now holds an int
    std::cout << "Current variant: " << std::get<int>(myvariant) << '\n';

    try
    {
        std::cout << std::get<double>(myvariant) << '\n'; // exception is
        // raised
    }
```

```
    catch (const std::bad_variant_access& ex)
    {
        std::cout << "Exception raised. Description: " << ex.what();
    }
}
```

We define a variant that can hold either int or double. We initialize the variant with a 123 literal of type int. So now our variant holds an int data member. We can access that member using the index of 0 or a type name which we supply to the std::get function. Then we try to access the wrong data member of type double. An exception is raised. And the particular type of that exception *is std::bad_variant_access*. In the catch block, we handle the exception by parsing the parameter we named *ex*. A parameter is of type *std::bad_variant_access,* which has a *.what()* member function that provides a short description of the exception.

40.4 C++20

The C++ 20 standard promises to bring some big additions to the language. Its impact on the existing standards is said to be as big as the C++11 was to a C++98/C++03 standard. At the time of writing, the C++20 standard is to be ratified around May 2020. The full implementation and the support in the compilers should follow. Some of the following things may, at first glance, seem intimidating, especially when beginning C++. However, do not worry. At the time of writing, none of the compilers fully support the C++20 standard, but that is about to change. Once the compilers fully support the C++20 standard, trying out the examples will be much easier. With that in mind, let us go through some of the most exciting C++20 features.

40.4.1 Modules

Modules are the new C++20 feature, which aims to eliminate the need for the separation of code into header and source files. So far, in traditional C++, we have organized our source code using headers files and source files. We keep our declarations/interfaces in header files. We put our definitions/implementations in source files. For example, we have a header file with a function declaration:

mylibrary.h

```
#ifndef MYLIBRARY_H
#define MYLIBRARY_H

int myfunction();

#endif // !MYLIBRARY_H
```

Here we declare a function called `myfunction()`. We surround the code with header guards, which ensures the header file is not included multiple times during the compilation. And we have a source file with the function definition. This source file includes our header file:

mylibrary.cpp

```
#include "mylibrary.h"

int myfunction()
{
    return 123;
}
```

In our *main.cpp* file we also include the above header file and call the function:

```
#include "mylibrary.h"

int main()
{
    int x = myfunction();
}
```

We include the same header multiple times. This increases compilation time. Modules are included only once, and we do not have to separate the code into interface and implementation. One way is to have a single module file, for example, *mymodule.cpp* where we provide the entire implementation and export of this function.

To create a simple module file which implements and exports the above function, we write:

mymodule.cpp:

```
export module mymodule;

export int myfunction() { return 123; }
```

Explanation: the `export module mymodule;` line says there is a module called *mymodule* in this file. In the second line, the *export* specifier on the function means the function will be visible once the module is imported into the main program.

We include the module in our main program by writing the `import mymodule;` statement.

main.cpp:

```
import mymodule;

int main()
{
    int x = myfunction();
}
```

In our main program, we import the module and call the exported `myfunction()` function.

A module can also provide an implementation but does need to export it. If we do not want our function to be visible to the main program, we will omit the export specifier in the module. This makes the implementation private to the module:

```
export module mymodule;

export int myfunction() { return 123; }
int myprivatefunction() { return 456; }
```

If we have a module with a namespace in it, and a declaration inside that namespace is exported, the entire namespace is exported. Within that namespace, only the exported functions are visible Example:

mymodule2.cpp:

```
export module mymodule2;

namespace MyModule
{
    export int myfunction() { return 123; }
}
```

main2.cpp:

```
import mymodule2;

int main()
{
    int x = MyModule::myfunction();
}
```

40.4.2 Concepts

Remember the class templates and function templates providing generic types T? If we want our template argument T to satisfy certain requirements, then we use concepts. In other words, we want our T to satisfy certain compile-time criteria. The signature for a concept is:

```
template <typename T>
concept concept_name = requires (T var_name) { reqirement_expression; };
```

The second line defines a concept name followed by a reserved word `requires`, followed by an optional template argument T and a local var_name, followed by a `requirement_expression` which is a constexpr of type bool.

In a nutshell, the concept predicate specifies the requirements a template argument must satisfy in order to be used in a template. Some of the requirements we can write ourselves, some are already pre-made.

We can say that concepts constrain types to certain requirements. They can also be seen as a sort of compile-time assertions for our template types.

For example, if we want a template argument to be incrementable by one, we will specify the concept for it:

```
template <typename T>
concept MustBeIncrementable = requires (T x) { x += 1; };
```

To use this concept in a template, we write:

```
template<MustBeIncrementable T>
void myfunction(T x)
{
    // code goes in here
}
```

Another way to include the concept into our template is:

```
template<typename T> requires MustBeIncrementable <T>
void myfunction(T x)
{
    // code goes in here
}
```

A full working example would be:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <concepts>

template <typename T>
concept MustBeIncrementable = requires (T x) { x ++; };

template<MustBeIncrementable T>
void myfunction(T x)
{
    x += 1;
    std::cout << x << '\n';
}

int main()
{
    myfunction<char>(42); // OK
    myfunction<int>(123); // OK
    myfunction<double>(345.678); // OK
}
```

This concept ensures our argument x of type T must be able to accept operator ++, and the argument must be able to be incremented by one. This check is performed during the compile-time. The requirement is indeed true for types `char`, `int`, and `double`. If we used a type for which the requirement is not fulfilled, the compiler would issue a compile-time error.

We can combine multiple concepts. Let us, for example, have a concept that requires the T argument to be an even or an odd number.

```
template <typename T>
concept MustBeEvenOrOdd = requires (T x) { x % 2; };
```

Now our template can include both the `MustBeIncrementable` and `MustBeEvenOrOdd` concepts:

```
template<typename T> requires MustBeIncrementable<T> &&
MustBeEvenNumber<T>;
void myfunction(T x)
{
    // code goes in here
}
```

The keyword `requires` is used both for the expression in the concept and when including the concept into our template class/function.

The complete program, which includes both concept requirements, would be:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <concepts>

template <typename T>
concept MustBeIncrementable = requires (T x) { x++; };

template <typename T>
concept MustBeEvenOrOdd = requires (T x) { x % 2; };

template<typename T> requires MustBeIncrementable<T> && MustBeEvenOrOdd<T>
void myfunction(T x)
{
    std::cout << "The value conforms to both conditions: " << x << '\n';
}
```

```
int main()
{
    myfunction<char>(123); // OK
    myfunction<int>(124); // OK
    myfunction<double>(345); // Error, a floating point number is not even
    // nor odd
}
```

In this example, the template will be instantiated if both concept requirements are evaluated to true during compile time. Only the `myfunction<char>(123);` and `myfunction<int>(124);` functions can be instantiated and pass the compilation. The arguments of types char and int are indeed incrementable and can be either even or odd. However, the statement `myfunction<double>(345);` does not pass a compilation. The reason is that the second requirement `MustBeEvenOrOdd` is not fulfilled as floating-point numbers are neither odd nor even.

Important! Both concepts say: for every x of type T, the statement inside the code-block { } compiles and nothing more. It just compiles. If it compiles, the requirement for that type is fulfilled.

If we want our type T to have a member function, for example, *.empty()* and we want the result of that function to be convertible to type bool, we write:

```
template <typename T>
concept HasMemberFunction requires (T x)
{
    { x.empty() } -> std::convertible_to(bool);
};
```

There are multiple predefined concepts in the C++20 standard. They check if the type fulfills certain requirements. These predefined concepts are located inside the <concepts> header. Some of them are:

a. std::integral – specifies the type should be an integral type

b. std::boolean – specifies the type can be used as a boolean type

c. std::move_constructible – specifies that the object of a particular type can be constructed using the move semantics

d. std::movable – specifies that the object of a certain type T can be moved

e. std::signed_integral – says the type is both integral and is a signed integral

40.4.3 Lambda Templates

We can now use template syntax in our lambda functions. Example:

```
auto mylambda = []<typename T>(T param)
{
    // code
};
```

For example, to printout the generic type name, using a templated lambda expression, we would write:

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

int main()
{
    auto mylambda = []<typename T>(T param)
    {
        std::cout << typeid(T).name() << '\n';
    };

    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    mylambda(v); // integer

    std::vector<double> v2 = { 3.14, 123.456, 7.13 };
    mylambda(v2); // double
}
```

40.4.4 [likely] and [unlikely] Attributes

If we know that some paths of execution are more likely to be executed than others, we can help the compiler optimize the code by placing *attributes*. We use the *[[likely]]* attribute before the statement that is more likely to be executed. We can also put the *[[unlikely]]* attribute before the statement that is unlikely to be executed. For example, the attributes can be used on *case* branches inside the *switch* statement:

```
#include <iostream>

void mychoice(int i)
{
    switch (i)
    {
    [[likely]] case 1:
        std::cout << "Likely to be executed.";
        break;
    [[unlikely]] case 2:
        std::cout << "Unlikely to be executed.";
        break;
    default:
        break;
    }
}
int main()
{
    mychoice(1);
}
```

If we want to use these attributes on the if-else branches, we write:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    bool choice = true;
    if (choice) [[likely]]
```

```
    {
        std::cout << "This statement is likely to be executed.";
    }
    else [[unlikely]]
    {
        std::cout << "This statement is unlikely to be executed.";
    }
}
```

40.4.5 Ranges

A range, in general, is an object that refers to a range of elements. The new C++20 ranges feature is declared inside a <ranges> header. The ranges themselves are accessed via the *std::ranges* name. With classic containers such as an std::vector, if we want to sort the data, we would use:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    std::sort(v.begin(), v.end());

    for (auto el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

The std::sort function accepts vector's *.begin()* and *end()* iterators. With ranges, it is much simpler, we just provide the name of the range, without iterators:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <ranges>
#include <vector>
#include <algorithm>
```

```
int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 3, 5, 2, 1, 4 };
    std::ranges::sort(v);

    for (auto el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

Ranges have a feature called adaptors. One of the range adaptors is *views*. The views adaptors are accessed via `std::ranges::views`. Views are not owning. They cannot change the values of the underlying elements. It is also said they are lazily executed. This means the code from the views adaptors will not be executed until we iterate over the result of such views.

Let us create an example which uses range views to filter-out even numbers and print only the odd numbers from a vector by creating a range view:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <ranges>
#include <vector>
#include <algorithm>

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };

    auto oddnumbersview = v | std::views::filter([](int x) { return x % 2
    == 1; });
    for (auto el : oddnumbersview)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

Explanation: we have a simple vector with some elements. Then we create a view range adaptor on that vector, which filters the numbers in the range. For this, we use the pipe operator |. Only the numbers for which the predicate is true are included. In our case, this means the even numbers are excluded. Then we iterate over the filtered view and print out the elements.

Important to note, the underlying vector's elements are unaffected as we are operating on a view, not on a vector.

Let us create an example which creates a view that returns only numbers greater than 2:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <ranges>
#include <vector>
#include <algorithm>

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };

    auto greaterthan2view = v | std::views::filter([](int x) { return x >
    2; });
    for (auto el : greaterthan2view)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

Now, let us combine the two views into one big view by separating them with multiple pipe | operators:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <ranges>
#include <vector>
#include <algorithm>
```

```
int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };

    auto oddandgreaterthan2 = v | std::views::filter([](int x) { return x %
                                  2 == 1; })
                               | std::views::filter([](int x) { return x >
                                  2; });
    for (auto el : oddandgreaterthan2)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

This example creates a view range adaptor containing odd numbers greater than two. We create this view by combining two different range views into one.

Another ranges adaptors are *algorithms*. The idea is to have the algorithms overload for ranges. To call an algorithm adaptor we use: `std::ranges::algorithm_name(parameters)`. Example using the std::ranges::reverse() algorithm:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <ranges>
#include <vector>
#include <algorithm>

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    std::ranges::reverse(v);
    for (auto el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

Unlike views, the ranges algorithms modify the actual vector content.

40.4.6 Coroutines

A coroutine is a function that can be suspended and be resumed. The ordinary function is a coroutine if it uses any of the following operators in its function body:

a. co_await – suspends the execution of the coroutine until some other computation is performed, that is until the coroutine itself resumes

b. co_yield – suspends a coroutine and return a value to the caller

c. co_return – returns from a coroutine and stops its execution

40.4.7 std::span

Some containers and types store their elements in a sequence, one next to the other. This is the case for arrays and vectors. We can represent such containers with a pointer to their first element plus the length of the container. A *std::span* class template from a <*span*> header is just that. A reference to a span of contiguous container elements. One reason to use the std::span, is that it is cheap to construct and copy. Span does not own a vector or an array it references. However, it can change the value of the elements. To create a span from a vector we use:

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

int main()
{
    std::vector<int> v = { 1, 2, 3 };
    std::span<int> myintspan = v;
    myintspan[2] = 256;

    for (auto el : v)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

Here, we created a span that references vector elements. Then we used the span to change the vector's third element. With span, we do not have to worry about passing a pointer and a length around, and we just use the neat syntax of a span wrapper. Since the size of the vector can change, we say our span has a *dynamic extent*. We can create a fixed-size span from a fixed-sized array. We say our span now has a *static extent*. Example:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <span>

int main()
{
    int arr[] = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
    std::span<int, 5> myintspan = arr;
    myintspan[4] = 10;

    for (auto el : arr)
    {
        std::cout << el << '\n';
    }
}
```

40.4.8 Mathematical Constants

C++20 standard introduces a way to represent some of the mathematical constants. To use them, we need to include the <*numbers*> header. The constants themselves are inside the *std::numbers* namespace. The following example shows how to use numbers *pi* and *e*, results of logarithmic functions and square roots of numbers 2 and 3:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <numbers>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "Pi: " << std::numbers::pi << '\n';
    std::cout << "e: " << std::numbers::e << '\n';
    std::cout << "log2(e): " << std::numbers::log2e << '\n';
```

```
    std::cout << "log10(e): " << std::numbers::log10e << '\n';
    std::cout << "ln(2): " << std::numbers::ln2 << '\n';
    std::cout << "ln(10): " << std::numbers::ln10 << '\n';
    std::cout << "sqrt(2): " << std::numbers::sqrt2 << '\n';
    std::cout << "sqrt(3): " << std::numbers::sqrt3 << '\n';
}
```

Summary and Advice

Dear reader, congratulations on finishing this book. Hopefully, by now, you are familiar with the C++ language, the standard library, and various C++ standards basics and features. Learning C++ is no small task. But, it is an achievable and rewarding task. My goal was to present a language and standard library backbone, something every aspiring C++ developer should know.

Where to go from here? I will recommend a few resources and books I feel are essential for every C++ professional.

The go-to Reference

The go-to reference for the C++ language and the standard library is the *cppreference* at:

`https://www.cppreference.com`

It is the number one resource when it comes to C++ and the library. It is an exceptionally well written, community-driven, wiki-style C++ reference packed with theory and examples. It is even said the *cppreference* is *unofficial C++ documentation*. The *cppreference* should be your number one reference resource.

StackOverflow

StackOverflow is a community-driven programming Q & A site. It has a wealth of up to date information on a plethora of languages, including C++:

`https://stackoverflow.com/questions/tagged/c%2b%2b`

S. Dmitrović, *Modern C++ for Absolute Beginners*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4842-6047-0

Other Online Resources

The Standard C++ Foundation has a C++ super FAQ page at:

https://isocpp.org/faq

This resource has some great articles for C++11, C++14, and the language in general. It also features a list of nice C++ blogs.

Other C++ Books

StackOverflow maintains a list of C++ books called "The Definitive C++ Book Guide and List" at:

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/388242/the-definitive-c-book-guide-and-list

From this collection, I highly recommend the following three books:

- "The C++ Programming Language" by Bjarne Stroustrup
- "Effective C++" by Scott Meyers
- "Effective Modern C++" by Scott Meyers

I think every C++ Developer should read these three books. Scott's books are what interested me in this wonderful language in the first place.

Advice

To quote my good friend and a fellow C++ developer: "C++ is a fountain of constant learning." So, do not get intimidated by the language complexity in the beginning. C++ is a tool first and foremost. Take from it what you need at first. You do not need to know every language feature or every language quirk to be a successful developer or an engineer. Get a 9 to 5 C++ job. Aim to be around knowledgeable people. Get a mentor and learn from existing, elegant C++ frameworks. Attend C++ conferences if able. And enjoy yourself. Being a C++ developer is a good career choice. It gets you places, pays well, and is rewarding in so many ways.

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