

# C++11 BLWS (Monday 1)

## Some Fundamentals

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Short breaks will be inserted as convenient.

# C++11 – Syntax Cleanups

Maybe the most important syntax cleanup – for some, while others may consider it minor – allows to write adjacent *less-than* signs as closing angle brackets for template argument lists:\*

```
map<string, vector<int>> wordposlist;
```

While some compilers (like Visual Studio) since long handled the above according to the C++11 rules, others (like GCC) required

```
map<string, vector<int> > wordposlist;
```

and some extra-careful developers even wrote:

```
map<string, vector<int>/**/> wordposlist;
```

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\*: It should be noted that this change breaks previously valid code that used the right-shift operator in an expression to specify a template value argument. Therefore g++ changes its behaviour depending on the option `-std=c++11` (or `-std=c++0x` for less recent versions). Old code with shift operators as part of a template value argument must put the expression in parentheses.

# C++11: auto-typed Variables

The old C keyword `auto` has changed its meaning with C++11:

- It now specifies that the type for some variable is deduced from its initializing expression.
- Note that type modifiers may be added but also might be stripped from the initializing expression.\*

```
auto x = 3;           // x has type int
auto y = 0uL;        // y has type unsigned long
auto p1 = &x;        // p1 has type int*
auto *p2 = &x;        // p2 has type int* too (!)
const auto cx = 42;   // cx has type const int BUT ...
auto ncx = cx;        // ... ncx has type int (NOT const int)
int &ri = x;          // ri has type int& BUT ...
auto nri = x;         // ... nri has type int (NOT int&)
```

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\*: The rules are very close to the rules applied when for template functions types are deduced from actual arguments.

# C++11: Builtin decltype

The compiler-builtin `decltype` is now available to

- determine the type of a variable or
- an expression (which will not be evaluated!)

```
// continuing the example from the previous page
... decltype(x) ...           // represents type int
... decltype(ri) ...          // represents type int&
... decltype(x+y) ...         // represents type unsigned long
... decltype(std::sqrt(-1)) ... // represents type double
```



One main use for `decltype` is in templates to determine the result of an operation with operands of a dependant type.\*

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\*: If the type is necessary for the result of a function the new suffix return type syntax of C++11 comes in handy.

# Boost: Type-of

Also `Boost.Typeof` provides extensions similar to `auto` and `decltype`.

As these had to be implemented as library functionality\* they

- are much more limited and clumsy to use,
- result in less readable code.

Therefore it can be expected that such parts of Boost become obsolete as soon as C++11 is implemented by all compilers relevant for productive use with a software project's code base.

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\*: Of course, where C++98 compilers provided useful non-standard extensions the Boost functions made use thereof.

# C++11: Uniform Initialization

C++ traditionally had many forms of initialization, some of which were limited to certain contexts:

```
int x = 0; // traditional style
const std::string greet("hi"); // constructor style
struct s {
    int a;
    char z;
} v = { 42, '!' }; // aggregate initialization
std::string empty(); // INVALID (as initialization)
unsigned u = unsigned(); // not common but valid (in C++)
```

Since C++11 curly braces may be used in any initialization context:\*

```
int x{0}; // explicit zero initialization
const std::string greet{"hi"}; // initialization by constructor
string empty{}; // valid for default constructor
unsigned u{}; // implicit zero initialization
```

---

\*: Compared to classic initialization some rules have slightly changed: E.g. if the value of the initializing expression cannot be represented in the initialized variable, this is a compile time error.

# C++11: Initializer Lists

Initializer lists are sequences of comma-separated values enclosed in curly braces.

- They are valid wherever a function accepts an argument of type `std::initializer_list`.
- This includes many constructors for standard containers:\*



A few usage forms introduced ambiguities for which C++11 defined disambiguating rules – sometimes little intuitive ones.

```
vector<short> primes({ 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29 });
const map<string, string> words = {
    { "zero", "null" }, { "one", "eins" }, { "two", "zwei" },
    ...
};
vector<int> x{3}; // A vector initialized with a "list" just
                 // holding a single 3?
                 // Or rather a vector sized to 3 elements
                 // that shall be default-initialized?
```

# Boost: Value Initialized

Using the correct initialization syntax can pose a problem\* at times:

```
template<typename T> void foo() {
    T local = ... // ???
    ...
}
```

- A plain `T local;` would default initialize classes but leaves basic types uninitialized.
- Classic style `T local = 0;` would only zero-initialize basic types.\*

[Boost.Value\\_initialized](#) provides a utility template, causing either zero or default initialization, depending on the type of T:

```
value_initialized<T> local; // uniform use of the Boost solution
T local = T();             // a (somewhat lesser known) C++98 solution
T local{};                 // C++11 uniform initialization as solution
```

---

\*: Actually the state of affairs is a bit more complicated: The above would also work if T were a class with a (non-explicit) constructor taking an argument type to which 0 can be converted. Besides all arithmetic types this include `bool` (0 converted to `false`) and any pointer type (0 converted to `nullptr`).



# Boost: Container Initialization

[Boost.Assign](#) provides some operator overloading to allow a more readable initialization syntax for sequential and associative containers.

Overloaded operator, and operator+= help with sequential containers:

```
vector<int> primes;  
primes += 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29;
```

For associative containers there is a somewhat tricky overload of operator() (function call):

```
map<string, string> words;  
words(("one")("eins"))  
      (("two")("zwei"))  
      ...  
      (("nine")("neun"))  
      ;
```

Compared to [C++11 initializer lists](#) the above not only looks clumsy but also has the draw-back that no const-qualifiers are possible.

# C++11: Range-Based for Loops

C++11 supports a new and uniform syntax to loop over all elements in a collection:

```
vector<int> primes;  
...  
for (auto v : primes)  
    ... // access element through v
```

Nothing changes if `primes` were any other sequential or associative container<sup>\*</sup>, a built-in array, or even an `std::initializer_list`:

```
for (auto v : { 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29 })  
    ... // access element through v
```

It is only little effort – if there is no standard iterator interface anyway – to make user-supplied containers iterable with range based loops.

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<sup>\*</sup>: For maps the placeholder variable will be an `std::pair` to access the key via `v.first` and the associated value via `v.second`.

# Boost: Foreach

Like some other third party libraries\* [Boost.Foreach](#) tries to outwit C++98 with a macro – called `BOOST_FOREACH` in this case – that mimics what has become a built-in in C++11:

```
vector<int> primes;  
...  
BOOST_FOREACH(int v, primes)  
    ... // access elements via v
```

---

\*: An assembler code analysis of `BOOST_FOREACH` is still pending on behalf of the author of this text. But it was done for the Qt version once, and in that case the result was a convincing argument **against** using such trickery ... at least when code efficiency is the primary target: For built-in types Qt's for-each produced as much as ten times the amount of code compared to a classic for loop!

# C++11: Move Semantics

Move semantics provide the solution to two problems that could not (always) be avoided in C++98:

- Efficient use of *value types as function return values*, e.g. if they represent large containers.
- Implementing types that are *movable* but not *copyable*.<sup>\*</sup>



Even before C++11 in many practical cases the leeway given to a compiler to apply **RVO** and **NRVO** could achieve much to **return large data structures by value efficiently**.

But as there is no guarantee in this respect, the usual recommendation for C++98 was to hand-out large containers via reference arguments, not by return value – and this recommendation should possibly be followed even in C++11.

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<sup>\*</sup>: With C++98 there is no real solution to the problem to differentiate between moveable and copyable types. Even if `operator=` stays undefined and overloaded global functions `assign` and `move` were used consequently, especially in type-generic code of template implementations something in the vein of **Perfect Forwarding** could not be achieved, at least not with as little code as can now.

# C++11: Rvalue References

Move semantics heavily build on **Rvalue References** defined with a double ampersand:

```
void foo(const T &classic_reference) { ... } //first
void foo(T &&rvalue_reference) { ... } //second
```

With the above two overloads C++11 would bind

- the first `foo` to arguments that are plain variables (including `const` qualified variables),
- the second `foo` to arguments that are temporaries which will be destroyed soon after use.\*

```
T a; const T b; extern T bar();
foo(a);      // calls first
foo(b);      // calls first
foo(bar());  // calls second
foo(a+a);    // calls second -- provided T supports operator+
```

---

\*: Such as function calls, but also including constants and expressions (with some reasonable exemptions).

# Copyable and Movable Types

Instances of the following class will be both, copyable and movable:

```
class MyClass {  
    ...  
public:  
    MyClass(const MyClass &); // classic copy constructor and ...  
    const MyClass& operator=(const MyClass &); // copy assignment  
    ...  
    MyClass(MyClass &&);      // C++11 move constructor and ...  
    const MyClass& operator=(MyClass &&); // move assignment  
}
```

By supplying both of move and copy support, or only the one or the other, or none at all, instances of MyClass can easily be made

- **Copyable** and **Movable**,
- **Copyable** but not **Movable**,
- not **Copyable** but **Movable**, or
- neither **Copyable** nor **Movable**.

# C++11: default-ed and delete-d Operations

C++11 furthermore provides a particular syntax to request or forbid compiler generated constructors and assignments, making it easy to write a class that supports the required behavior:

```
class MyClass {  
    ...  
public:  
    MyClass(const MyClass &)           = delete;  
    const MyClass& operator=(const MyClass &) = delete;  
    ...  
    MyClass(MyClass &&)               = default;  
    const MyClass& operator=(MyClass &&) = default;  
};
```

It is probably easy to spot that instances of the above class will be moveable but not copyable and what needs to be changed if that should be different.

In case the default implementation provided for the above operations is not appropriate, then of course a specific implementation can be supplied.

# Boost: Noncopyable

As C++ always generates a copy constructor when none is specified,<sup>\*</sup> the usual technique is to *declare-but-not-implement* the unwanted operation.

Via deriving from `boost::noncopyable` the intent can be made more obvious (and code a bit more compact):

```
class MyClass : boost::noncopyable {  
    ...  
    ... // whatever (but no need any more to define  
    ... // operations that never get implemented)  
    ...  
};
```

---

<sup>\*</sup>: Note that with C++11 the rules changed in so far as **no default copy-constructor will be provided if a move-constructor is provided**, and the same holds for copy- and move-assignment. The reasoning behind that rule is that as soon as a specific behavior is necessary for one, copy or move, it will probably also be the case for the other.



# C++11: Static Assertions

With C++11 compile time checks can be expressed that will abort a compilation if they fail. They are possible (and mainly used) inside

- code blocks (mixed with code to execute at runtime) and
- class definitions (typically for templates).

```
template<typename T, size N>
class RingBuffer {
    static_assert(N < 1000, "unreasonable large size");
    ...
};
```



For more complicated tests static assertions may want to move the actual calculations to a [constexpr Function](#).

# Boost: Static Assert

Static assertions are also available from Boost via

- `BOOST_STATIC_ASSERT`

but as prior to C++11 such assertions had somehow to "be turned into ordinary syntax errors" the error messages finally issued tended to be less indicative of the problem or even slightly misleading.\*

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\*: A common technique was to turn the assertion into the definition of an array with a zero or negative size, which is illegal in C and C++.

# C++11: constexpr Functions

If a function is marked with the new `constexpr` keyword it will – given it adheres to certain limitations – be "compiled inside the compiler" and hence be callable at compile time.

Besides possible performance improvements for functions called with compile-time constants as arguments anyway, the result of such functions can be used in any context that requires a compile-time constant.\*

```
constexpr bool is_powrof2(unsigned v) {
    return v != 0 && (v == 1 || (!(v & 1) && is_powrof2(v >> 1)));
}

...
const unsigned N = 4095; // should always be some 2^n - 1
static_assert(!is_powrof2(N+1), "N is not some 2^n - 1");
```

---

\*: With the cases of practical importance being array dimensions, template value arguments, static assertions, or in turn arguments to call other `constexpr` functions.

# Compile-Time Calculations with Templates

Prior to C++11 compile-time calculations had to be carried out using meta-programming techniques based on templates:\*

```
template<unsigned long long v>
struct is_pwrof2 {
    static const bool result = !(v & 1)
                                && is_pwrof2<(v >> 1)>::result;
};
template<> struct is_pwrof2<0uLL> {
    static const bool result = false;
};
template<> struct is_pwrof2<1uLL> {
    static const bool result = true;
};
```

The "call syntax" for such a function\* – when N is another compile-time constant – will be: ... is\_pwrof2<N>::result ...

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\*: Differently from constexpr functions, which will be also available with a run-time version to be called with non-constant arguments, a function implemented with meta-programming techniques via a template could of course not be called in a loop for testing purposes!

# Support for Meta-Programming in Boost

Though `constexpr` functions provide a nice alternative to template-based techniques when non-trivial calculations have to be carried out, there are numerous other applications of meta-programming with templates.

In such cases there will most probably be the need

- to "*operate on types*" (single ones or lists thereof)
- as "*input to*" and "*output from*" a metaprogram.\*

**Boost.MPL** is a *Library for Meta-Program-Developers* with STL-like containers and algorithms – besides a lot of other useful things.

As **Meta-Programming with Templates** is a large and demanding topic that alone could fill some days in a course like this, it will not be covered any further, except on special demand.

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\*: In meta-programming dominant type calculations may be mixed with occasional value-based calculations. A "meta-programmer" may therefore have to *cross the compile-time to run-time borderline*. Nevertheless it should be understood that the MPL does not work with values but with *types* to be *stored* in MPL containers and *processed* with MPL algorithms.

# C++11: Template Typedefs

Despite the name<sup>\*</sup> this new C++11 syntax is not limited to templates – instead it can fully replace the classic typedef syntax:

```
// old style typedef-syntax:      // new style using-syntax:
typedef unsigned long METER;      using METER = unsigned long;
typedef void *pointer_type;      using pointer_type = void*;
typedef const char *(*CV)(int);  using CV = char* (int);
```

Finally the motivating (and name-giving) example:

```
template<typename CharType, std::size_t AllocSize>
class basic_fstring {
    ...
};
template<std::size_t N> using fstring = basic_fstring<char, N>;
template<std::size_t N> using wstring = basic_fstring<wchar_t, N>;
```

---

<sup>\*</sup>: The name is a relict from the motivation finally leading to the syntax shown here, which provided a more general solution than originally was aimed for.