

C++11 supplementary

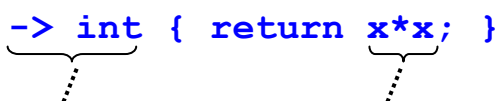
Lambda expression

- A lambda expression denotes an anonymous function.
- Basic syntax

`[capture] (parameters) -> return-type { body }`

Example

```
[](int x) -> int { return x*x; }
```



In case the trailing return type is omitted, the type of `x*x` is the return type.

- A lambda expression creates a function object of a unique class type – called the *closure type* – that supports `operator()`.
- Example

```
int main()
{
    cout << [](int x){ return x*x; }(3);
    cout << [](int x){ return x*x; }.operator()(3);
}
```

- The name of the closure type of each lambda expression is uniquely generated by the compiler.
E.g. the two lambda expressions in preceding example are of distinct type.
- To give a lambda expression a name, the name of its closure type must be known. To this end, we may resort to `auto`, `decltype`, template argument deduction, etc.

- Example

```
int main()
{
    auto f = [] (int x){ return x*x; }
    decltype(f) g = f;
    cout << f(3) << g(3);
    int a[7]={1,2,3,4,5,6,7}; // C++ as a better C, p63
    cout << accumulate(a,a+7,0,
                       [] (int x,int y){ return x+y; });
}
```

Use template argument deduction to deduce its type.

- A lambda expression with free variables is meaningless.
For example, what is the meaning of this lambda expression?

```
[](int x){ return x+y; }
```

y is a free variable

- Free variables must be captured by value (copy) or reference.
- Example

```
int main()      may be omitted
{
    int x=2,y=3;
    auto f = [x,y] () { return x+y; }; // value
    auto g = [&x,&y] () { return x+y; }; // reference
    x=4; y=5;
    cout << f() << g(); // 59
}
```

Comments

```
[=]{ return x+y; }; // default capture by value
[&]{ return x+y; }; // default capture by reference

// both capture x by value and y by reference
[=,&y]{ return x+y; }
[&,x]{ return x+y; }
```

- Example

```
#include <algorithm>           // for for_each
int main()
{
    int a[7]={1,2,3,4,5,6,7};
    int sum=0;
    for_each(a,a+7,[&sum](int x)->void{ sum+=x; });
    cout << sum;
}                               // may be omitted
```

Note that the call to `for_each` essentially executes the loop:

```
for (int* it=a;it!=a+7;++it)
    [&sum](int x){ sum+=x; }(*it);
```

- Example (May be skipped on first reading)

```
int main()
{
    int x=2,y=3;
    auto f = [x,&y]{ return x+y; };
    x=4; y=5;
    cout << f();
}
```

is compiled to something like

```
int main()
{
    int x=2,y=3;
    class I_have_no_name {
    public:
        I_have_no_name(int a,int& b) : x(a),y(b) {}
        int operator()() const { return x+y; }
    private:
        int x,&y;
    };
    auto f = I_have_no_name(x,y);
    x=4; y=5;
    cout << f();
}
```

Polymorphic function wrapper

- The `function` class template provides polymorphic wrappers that encapsulate arbitrary callable objects.
- Example

The type

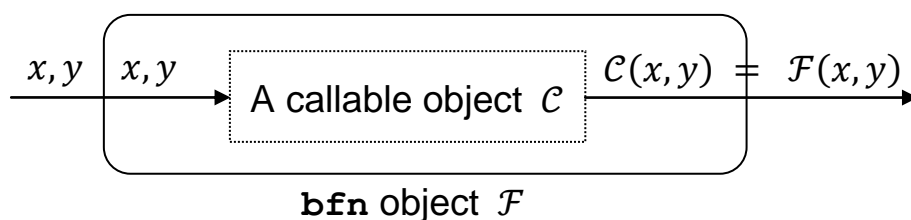
```
std::function<int(int,int)>
```

encapsulates all callable objects that have the call signature `int(int,int)`.

```
#include <functional>
int add(int x,int y) { return x+y; }
int main()
{
    typedef function<int(int,int)> bfn;
    bfn f = [] (int x,int y){ return x+y; };
    bfn g[2] = {plus<int>(),add};
    cout << f(2,3) << g[0](2,3) << g[1](2,3);
}
```

Comment

A `bfn` object holds a callable object and supports a call operation that forwards to that object.



```
int bfn::operator() (int x,int y) const
{
    return  $\mathcal{C}$ (x,y);      //  $\mathcal{F}$  forwards  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  to  $\mathcal{C}$ 
}
```

Notice that , for $\mathcal{C} = \text{plus}<\text{int}>()$, \mathcal{F} forwards \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} to \mathcal{C} by reference. (This is OK.)

For the other two cases, \mathcal{F} forwards \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} to \mathcal{C} by value.

- Example – Function composition (C++ as a better C, p65)

// Version A

```
function<int(int)> c(int f(int),int g(int))
{
    return [f,g](int x){ return f(g(x)); };
}
int f(int x) { return x+x; }
int g(int x) { return x*x; }
int main()
{
    cout << c(f,g)(3) << endl;
}
```

// Version B – File comp.cpp

```
#include <iostream>
#include <functional>
using namespace std;
typedef function<int(int)> ufn;
ufn c(ufn f,ufn g)
{
    return [f,g](int x){ return f(g(x)); };
}
int main()
{
    cout << c([](int x){ return x+x; },
               [](int x){ return x*x; })(3);
    cout << endl;
}
```

Note: Use GNU C++ compiler to compile the file comp.cpp.

bsd2> g++47 -std=c++11 -rpath=/usr/local/lib/gcc47 comp.cpp

bsd2> ./a.out

18 for GLIBCXX_3.4.14

auto specifier

- `auto` is no longer is storage class specifier, e.g.

```
void p()  
{  
    auto int x;          // error in C++11  
    static int y;  
}
```
- `auto` is now a type specifier, signifying that
 - 1 the type of a variable being declared shall be deduced from its initializer using template argument deduction, or
 - 2 a function declarator shall include a *trailing-return-type*.

- Example

```
void p()  
{  
    auto x=3;             // x has type int  
    const auto* y=&x;     // y has type const int*  
    static auto z=x;      // z has type int  
}
```

Trailing return type

- Trailing-return-types are convenient when the return type of a function is complex.
- Example (C++ as a better C, p65)

```
auto msg() -> void { cout << "hello\n"; }  
auto mkmsg() -> void (*)() { return msg; }  
auto main() -> int { mkmsg()(); (*mkmsg())(); }
```

List-initialization

- List-initialization is the initialization of an object from a braced initializer list.
- Narrowing conversions are not allowed at the top level in list-initializations.
- Example

```
// variable initialization
int a[2]={1,2};           // ok, as usual
int b[2]={1,2.0};         // error in C++11, narrowing
int c[2]={1,(int)2.0};    // ok, not a top-level narrowing
int d[2]{1,2};            // new in C++11
int e[2]{};              // default to 0,0

struct X { int x,y; };
X a={1,2};
X d{1,2};
X f({1,2});
// Only class type can parenthesize a braced initializer list

int a={2};
int d{2};
// Q: Which is ill-formed?
// int x={2.0},y{2.0},z=2.0,w(2.0);

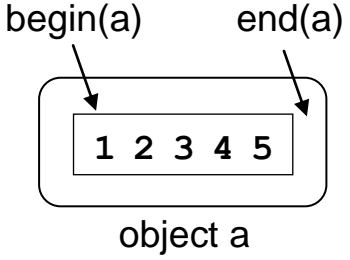
// assignment
d={3};

// new expression
int* a=new int{2};
int* b=new int[3]{1,2,3};
X* c=new X[3]{{1,2},{3,4},{5,6}};
int n=2;
int* d=new int[n]{1,2,3};
// Warning, unable to verify the length of initializer list
int* e=new (operator new(sizeof(int))) int{2};
```

- Example (Cont'd)

```
// return statement
#include <utility>
pair<int,int> f() { return {1,2}; }

// function argument
#include <initializer_list>
int sum(initializer_list<int> a)
{
    int s=0;
    for (const int* it=begin(a); it!=end(a); ++it)
        s+=*it;
    return s;
}
int main()
{
    cout << sum({1,2,3,4,5});
}
```



The diagram shows a rounded rectangle labeled 'object a' at the bottom. Inside it is a smaller rectangle containing the numbers '1 2 3 4 5'. An arrow labeled 'begin(a)' points to the first element '1', and another arrow labeled 'end(a)' points to the last element '5'.

Comment

An object of type `initializer_list<T>` provides access to an array of objects of type `const T`.

Range-based for statement

- Syntax

```
for ( for-range-declaration : expression ) statement
for ( for-range-declaration : braced-init-list ) statement
```

- Example

The preceding `for` loop may be written as:

```
for (int i : a) s+=i;

int array[5] = {1,2,3,4,5};
for (int& i : array) i++;
for (int i : {1,2,3,4,5}) cout << i;
for (char c : "Snoopy") cout << c;
```


Resource stealing and move semantics

Lvalue reference and rvalue reference

- Syntax and semantics

cv **T&** lvalue reference
cv **T&&** rvalue reference

Except where explicitly noted, they are semantically equivalent (e.g. they must be initialized, the binding can't be altered, etc) and commonly referred to as references.

- Example

```
int x=2;
int& y=x;           // int& y=2;      x
const int& z=2;
int&& z=2;           // int&& z=x;     x
```

Reference binding and overload resolution rules

- The table below summarizes the binding and resolution rules.

Expression Reference type	const T rvalue	T rvalue	const T lvalue	T lvalue	Priority
const T&	O	O	O	O	low
T&				O	
const T&&	O	O			high
T&&		O			

- Comments

- 1 Lvalues prefer lvalue references, whereas rvalues prefer rvalue references.
- 2 **const T&&**
This type is hardly used.

Name rule

- Named rvalue references are treated as lvalues.
Unnamed rvalue references are treated as rvalues.

- Example

```
string::string(const char*);    // ctor
string::string(string&&);        // move ctor
string::string(const string&);  // copy ctor

void q(string y) {}

void p(string&& x)               // x is bound to an rvalue
{
    q(x);                       // x is an lvalue; call copy ctor
    // x is visible here
}

p(string("Pluto"));
q(string("Pluto"));             // call move ctor, may be elided
```

Comment

Copy elision: the copy/move ctor may be elided by RVO.
Copy elision is more efficient than resource stealing.

Comment

If **x** were treated as an rvalue inside the function **p**, it would be moved to **y** by move constructor and the rest of the function would see a modified **x**, violating the guarantee that resource stealing does not visibly modify anything.

- Example

```
const int& x=2;
x++;                // error
int&& y=2;
y++;                // y is an lvalue
```

Moving from lvalues

- `std::move` is a function that turns its argument into an rvalue without doing anything else.

- Here is a simplified version of `move` that works only for lvalues:

```
template<typename T>
T&& move(T& a)
{
    return static_cast<T&&>(a);
}
```

- Example (Cont'd)

To steal the resource bound to `x`, we have to write

```
void p(string&& x)
{
    q(move(x));    // move(x) is an rvalue; call move ctor
}
```

Put another way, `move(x)` is an unnamed rvalue reference, hence it is an rvalue.

- Example

```
string s("Snoopy");
string t(s);           // call copy ctor
string u(move(s));     // call move ctor
```

Even if `s` isn't a temporary, we may steal its resource.

- Example

```
int s(2);
int t(s);           // copy
int u(move(s));     // copy, too

s=2;                // lvalue, ok
move(s)=2;          // rvalue, no
```

- The simplified version of `move` can't be called on an rvalue, e.g. `move(2)`

is illegal.

However, although redundant, `std::move` actually works fine when called on an rvalue.

```
int t(2);           // copy
int u(std::move(2)); // copy, too
```

Here is the complete definition:

```
template<typename T>
typename remove_reference<T>::type&&
std::move(T&& a)
{
    typedef typename remove_reference<T>::type X;
    return static_cast<X&&>(a);
}
```

For it to work, there are [special template argument deduction rule for T&&](#) and [reference collapsing rules](#).

- Example

```
template<typename T>
void std::swap(T& x, T& y)
{
    T z=std::move(x);
    x=std::move(y);
    y=std::move(z);
}
```

Comments

- 1 If `T` is a non-class type, `swap<T>` has no harm.
- 2 If `T` is a class type with callable move constructor and move assignment operator, say,

```
T::T(T&&);
```

```
T& T::operator=(T&&);
```

they will be invoked; otherwise, `T` shall have callable copy constructor and copy assignment operator, say,

```
T::T(const T&);           // must be const
```

```
T& T::operator=(const T&); // must be const
```

- Example (C++ as a better C, p24)

```
template<typename T>
int partition(T* a,int l,int h)
{
    T x=a[h]; T x=std::move(a[h]);
    int i=l-1;
    for (int j=l;j<h;j++)
        if (a[j]<x) {
            i++; T z=a[i]; a[i]=a[j]; a[j]=z;
            std::swap(a[i],a[j]);
        }
    a[h]=a[i+1]; a[h]=std::move(a[i+1]);
    a[i+1]=x; a[i+1]=std::move(x);
    return i+1;
}
```

- Example (Combination generation)

```
// Version A – Call by constant lvalue reference
// Cf. C++ as a better C, pp.72~73
int c(int n,int k,const stack<int>& s)
{
    if (k==0||n==k) {
        for (int i=1;i<=k;i++) cout << i << ' ';
        stack<int> t(s);
        while (!t.empty()) {
            cout << t.top() << ' '; t.pop();
        }
        cout << endl;
        return 1;
    } else {
        const_cast<stack<int>&>(s).push(n);
        int r=c(n-1,k-1,s);
        const_cast<stack<int>&>(s).pop();
        return r+c(n-1,k,s);
    }
}

std::move(s)
unnecessary, but harmless
```

- Example (Cont'd)

```
int c(int m,int n)
{
    return c(m,n,stack<int>());
}
```

// Version B – Call by rvalue reference

```
int c(int n,int k,stack<int>&& s)
{
    if (k==0||n==k) {
        // same as version A
    } else {
        s.push(n);
        int r=c(n-1,k-1,std::move(s)); // a must
        s.pop();
        return r+c(n-1,k,std::move(s)); // a must
    }
}
```

// Version C – Call by value (copy + move)

// Generate elements in stack *s* + any *k*-permutation of {1, ..., *n*}

```
int c(int n,int k,stack<int> s)
{
    if (k==0||n==k) {
        // similar to version A, except that no stack copy
        // is needed – just display stack s
    } else {
        s.push(n);
        int r=c(n-1,k-1,s); // copy; can't be moved
        s.pop();
        return r+c(n-1,k,s); // copy → move
    } // for efficiency
}

std::move(s)
```

The stack *s* is no longer needed, so move it!

Copy/move constructor

- Moving (or move-assigning) object **rhs** to object ***this** should satisfy the following properties.

- 1 The value of ***this** should be the same as the original value of **rhs**.
- 2 The stolen object **rhs** should be left in a state where it can be correctly manipulated thereafter.

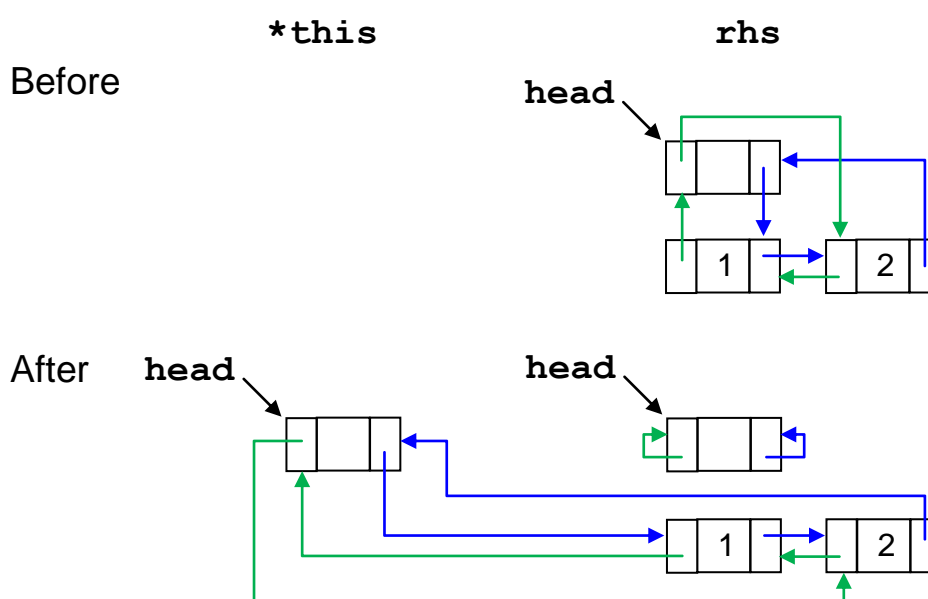
N.B. The object **rhs** may not be a temporary.

- Example

```
template<typename T>
class deque {
public:
    // other members omitted
    deque(deque&& rhs);           // move ctor
    void push_front(const T&);
private:
    node *head;                  // point to a doubly linked list with
};                               // a header node
```

How to define the move ctor?

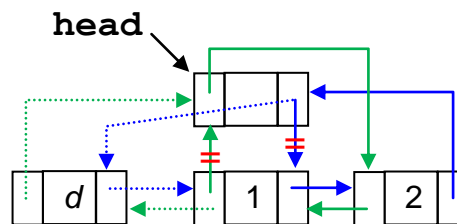
Method A – Steal all but the header node



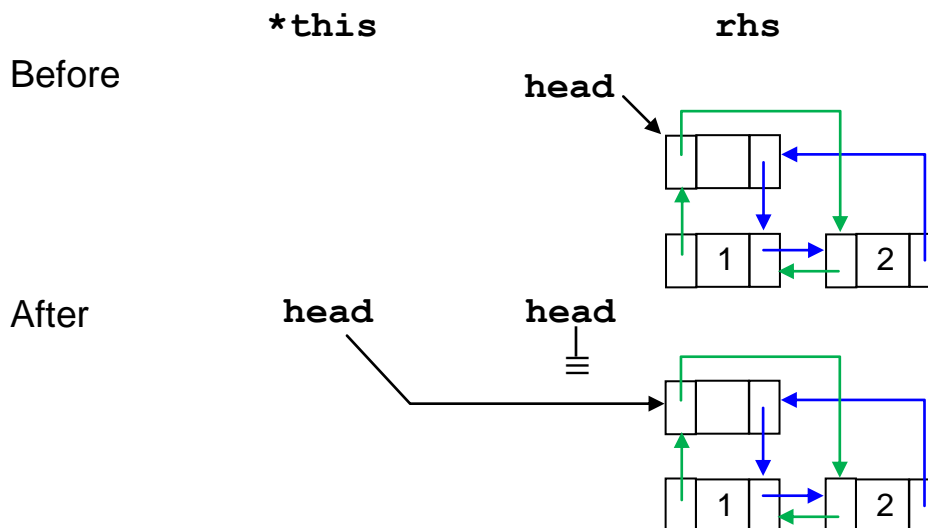
- Example (Cont'd)

Since every object has a header node, all deque operations, e.g. `push_front()`, may be defined with this in mind:

```
template<typename T>
void deque<T>::push_front(const T& d)
{
    head->succ=new node(d,head,head->succ);
    head->succ->succ->pred=head->succ;
}
```



Method B – Steal the header node, too



Since not every object has a header node, all deque operations have to detect it.

```
template<typename T>
void deque<T>::push_front(const T& d)
{
    if (head==nullpr) // allocate a header node
        // same as above
}
```

Tradeoff: temporary one-node saving vs permanent detection

- If a class doesn't declare a copy ctor, one is implicitly declared as defaulted iff
 - there is no user-declared move ctor
 - there is no user-declared move assignment operator

Such an implicit declaration is deprecated if

- there is a user-declared copy assignment operator
 - there is a user-declared dtor
- If a class doesn't declare a move ctor, one is implicitly declared as defaulted iff
 - there is no user-declared copy ctor
 - there is no user-declared copy assignment operator
 - there is no user-declared move assignment operator
 - there is no user-declared dtor
 - The implicitly-defined copy/move ctor performs a memberwise copy/move of its members.
 - Example

```
template<typename T,typename Container=deque<T> >
class stack {
public:
    // use Container's puch_back(), pop_back(), etc to
    // define stack's push(), pop(), etc.
private:
    Container c;
};
```

The implicitly-defined copy/move ctor below needn't be explicitly defined, since the class doesn't dynamically allocate memory.

```
template<typename T,typename Container>
stack<T,Container>::stack(const stack& rhs)
: c(rhs.c) {}

template<typename T,typename Container>
stack<T,Container>::stack(stack&& rhs)
: c(std::move(rhs.c)) {}
```

N.B. VC++ fails to implicitly generate the move ctor.

Copy/move assignment operator

- If a class doesn't declare a copy assignment operator, one is implicitly declared as defaulted iff
 - there is no user-declared move ctor
 - there is no user-declared move assignment operator

Such an implicit declaration is deprecated if

- there is a user-declared copy ctor
 - there is a user-declared dtor
- If a class doesn't declare a move assignment operator, one is implicitly declared as defaulted iff
 - there is no user-declared copy ctor
 - there is no user-declared move ctor
 - there is no user-declared copy assignment operator
 - there is no user-declared dtor
 - The implicitly-defined copy/move assignment operator performs a memberwise copy/move assignment of its members.
 - Example (Cont'd)

// implicitly-defined copy ctor

```
template<typename T,typename Container>
typename stack<T,Container>&
stack<T,Container>::operator=(const stack& rhs)
{
    if (this!=&rhs) c=rhs.c;
    return *this;
}
```

// implicitly-defined move ctor

```
template<typename T,typename Container>
typename stack<T,Container>&
stack<T,Container>::operator=(stack&& rhs)
{
    if (this!=&rhs) c=std::move(rhs.c);
    return *this;
}
```

Initializer-list constructor

- List-initialization for class **T**

```
T x={a1, a2, ..., an};           // copy initialization
T x ({a1, a2, ..., an});           // direct initialization
T x{a1, a2, ..., an};           // direct initialization
```

Basically, they are semantically equivalent unless explicit ctors are involved.

- If {} is empty, call **T**: :**T**()
- If **T** has an initializer-list ctor, call **T**: :**T** ({*a*₁, *a*₂, ..., *a*_{*n*}});
otherwise, call **T**: :**T** (*a*₁, *a*₂, ..., *a*_{*n*})

- Example

```
struct X {
    X(int y=0) : x(y) {}
    int x;
};
x a(2);           // call x(2)
x b={2};          // call x(2), but error with explicit ctor
x b({2});         // call x(2)
x b{2};           // call x(2)
x c{2,3,4};       // error, no callable ctor
```

- Example

```
#include <initializer_list>
#include <numeric>
struct X {
    X(int y=0) : x(y) {}           // 1
    X(initializer_list<int> a)       // 2
    : x(accumulate(begin(a),end(a),0,
                    [](int x,int y){return x+y;})) {}
    int x;
};
x a(2);           // call x(2)
x b{2};           // call x({2})
x c{2,3,4};       // call x({2,3,4})
```

- Example

```
string::string(initializer_list<char> a)
:   _size(a.size()),
    _capacity(_cap(_size)),
    _data(new char[_capacity+1])
{
    char* p=_data;
    const char* it=begin(a);
    while (it!=end(a)) *p++=*it++;
    *p='\0';
}
```

Deleted definitions

- Example (Class and ADT, p65)

```
class X {
public:
    void p() { X a,b; a=b; }           // compile error
private:                               // redundant
    X& operator=(const X&) = delete;
};
void q() { X a,b; a=b; }               // compile error
```

Comments

- 1 x isn't copy-assignable (by members and non-members).
- 2 Obviously, the accessibility of a deleted member function is immaterial.
- 3 A function must be deleted on its first declaration.

```
struct Y { Y(); };
Y::Y() = delete;           // error, not first declaration
int main() {}
```

N.B. VC++ doesn't yet support `delete`. GNU C++ fails to detect this error.

Name this program `Y.cpp` and check it on clang++.

```
bsd2> clang++ -std=c++11 Y.cpp
```

- A deleted function also participates in overload resolution.
- Example

```
void p(int) {} // 1
void p(double) = delete; // 2, enforce int invocation

p(2); // case 1: select 1
p('2'); // case 1
p(2.3); // case 2: select 2, but error
p(2.3f); // case 2
p(2u); // case 3: ambiguous
```

Case 1: $T \rightarrow \text{int}$ identity or integral promotion

Case 2: $T \rightarrow \text{double}$ identity or floating promotion

Case 3: $T \rightarrow \text{int} \wedge T \rightarrow \text{double}$ both are conversions

Comment

Overload resolution has a higher priority than availability and accessibility, i.e.

Overload resolution \rightarrow Deleted? Accessible?

- Example (Cont'd)

```
class X {
public:
    void p(int) {} // 1
private:
    void p(double) {} // 2
};

x().p(2); // case 1: select 1
x().p('2'); // case 1
x().p(2.3); // case 2: select 2, but error
x().p(2.3f); // case 2
x().p(2u); // case 3: ambiguous
```

Explicitly-defaulted functions

- Only special member functions can be explicitly-defaulted.
N.B. They are originally implicitly declared as defaulted.
- Example

```
class X {  
public:  
    void p() { X a,b; a=b; }      // ok  
private:  
    X& operator=(const X&) = default;  
};  
void q() { X a,b; a=b; }          // compile error
```

Comments

- 1 **x** is copy-assignable by members only.
- 2 An explicitly-defaulted special member function is implicitly defined if it is odr-used.
- 3 The accessibility of an explicitly-defaulted special member function is material.
- 4 An explicitly-defaulted special member function needn't be declared so on its first declaration.

```
struct Y { Y(); };  
inline Y::Y() = default;      // ok
```