

Extensions of the C language in the C++ language

There are two types of *extensions* of the C language:

- adding some facilities that *are not related* to object-oriented programming paradigm (reference type, in-line substitution of the functions, etc.)
- adding elements in order *to provide support* for object-oriented programming paradigm (class, inheritance, polymorphism, etc.)

A. A short history of C++

- The history of the C++ language can be divided in 3 periods:
 - **Early C++**, starting to 1979, when **Bjarne Stroustrup** worked for his Ph.D. thesis on the **Simula** language (which was too slow for practical use)
 - The first language developed by Stroustrup was called “**C with classes**” – a **superset of the C language**, which:
 - includes some **object-oriented concepts** (**classes**, **inheritance**, ...)
 - can produce **high speed programs**
 - In 1983 the name of the language was changed in **C++**, and new features were added (**virtual functions** and **polymorphism**, **function overloading**, **lvalue references**, **new** and **delete** operators, ...)
 - In 1989 other new features were added (**multiple inheritance**, **abstract classes**, ...)
 - In 1990, **The Annotated C++ Reference Manual** was released. This book described the language, including some features (**namespaces**, **exception handling**, **nested classes**, **templates**)

○ *Classical C++:*

- In 1991: ISO C++ Committee was founded
- In 1992: *Standard Template Library* (STL) was implemented
- In 1998, *the first ISO standard* for C++ was published (*C++98*)
 - New features were added (*RTTI, covariant return types, cast operators, mutable, bool*)
 - It includes the *Standard Template Library* (*containers, algorithms, iterators, function objects*)
- The *second standard* was *C++03*
 - This was a minor revision of C++98

○ *Modern C++:*

- In 2011, the *third standard* was published: *C++11*:
 - A large number of changes were introduced (*auto* and *decltype*, *defaulted* and *deleted* functions, *final* and *override*, *trailing return type*, *rvalue references*, *move semantics*, *constexpr*, *nullptr*, *long long*, *variadic templates*, *lambda expressions*, *range for*, ...)

- In 2014, the *fourth standard* was published: **C++14**:
 - A minor revision of the C++11 standard
 - Some new features were added (*variable templates, polymorphic lambdas, return type deduction for functions, aggregate initialization*)
- In 2017, the *fifth standard* was published: **C++17**:
 - Some new features were introduced (*fold-expressions, class template argument deduction, auto non-type template parameters, compile-time if constexpr, inline variables, structured bindings, initializers for if and switch, ...*)
- The next major revision of the C++ standard: **C++20** ...

B. Classical C++

B1. New data types

□ C++ has additional *built-in data types*

a) The `bool` datatype

- represents *logical values* (boolean),
 - uses two predefined *constants*: `true` and `false`.
- There is a *similarity* with the **Pascal** language (`Boolean` datatype), and with the **Java** language (`boolean` datatype).
- There is *compatibility* between the data type `bool` and *arithmetic data types*.
- The `bool` variables can be assigned with integer values because any C++ compiler *automatically converts* integer values to the `bool` value.

Example. For the following sequence :

```
bool boolVar;  
int intVar;  
// ...  
boolVar = intVar;
```

the C++ compiler generates an equivalent expression :

```
boolVar = intVar ? true : false;
```

□ Similarly, there is also an *automatic conversion* from the **bool values** to the **integer values**. For example:

```
intVal = boolVal ? 1 : 0;
```

□ Using the **bool** data type allows writing code with a simpler and intuitive meaning. For example:

```
bool BelongsTo(double x, double a, double b);
```

b) The `wchar_t` datatype (**wide character**)

- It is an extension of the datatype **char**;
- It allows to using characters represented internally on *two bytes* (for example the **Unicode** set of characters).
- Usually, for Windows, `sizeof(wchar_t)=2`, allowing to use sets of characters having more than 64000 characters, while for Linux the size is 4 bytes.
- To assign a character to `wchar_t` type a letter “L” is added in front of the character:

```
wchar_t wc = L'c' ;
```

B2. Variable declaration and namespaces

- In the C++ language the *local declarations* can be appear anywhere **within a block** (unlike the C language).
- The *scope* of such local declared variables starts to the line of the declaration and it ends at the end of the current block.
- All the variables used in different modules of a C program are related to the whole program.
 - So, the variables with the *same name* declared in *different modules* of a program access the same memory zone and *represent the same variables*.
- The C++ language attaches the variables to a *namespace*, which allows the variables with the *same name* but in *different modules* to represent *distinct variables*.

- All the variables declared in the standard libraries of the C++ language have a *predefined namespace*, denoted by **std**.
- For using a namespace different to the current compilation unit, the *directive using* is used:

```
using namespace std;
```
- For example, for working with the input/output operations the following sequence should be used:

```
#include <iostream>  
using namespace std;
```

Remark.

- *Header files* related to the standard library of the C++ language *do not contain* the suffix “.h” as in the C language.
- All header files related to the standard library of the C language are *rewritten* in the C++ language, and their names have the character ‘c’ as prefix. For example:

```
#include <alloc.h>
```

is equivalent with:

```
#include <calloc>  
using namespace std;
```

- However, in order to keep the *compatibility* with the C programs, the *syntax for including* the standard header files of the C language *can be also used* in the C++ programs.

B3. Lvalue references

- The C language allows *only one way of passing the parameters* when calling a function, *call by value*, which requires using pointers in the case when a function modifies the value of a certain parameter.
- The C++ language adds the notion of *lvalue reference*. A reference is an alternative name (*alias*) for a variable.
- The *reference type* is a *compound* type, which is realized by using the operator **&**. For example:
T&
represents the reference type derived from the base type *T*.
- The values of *reference types* are similar to *pointers*, in the sense that a reference has as value the memory address of a variable belonging to a base type.

□ However, there are some important *differences between pointers and references*:

a) A reference *must be always initialized* at the declaration. For example:

```
int k;  
int &r = k;
```

b) References are *automatically dereferenced* when using them in a program.

For example :

```
int k = 5, &r = k, *p;  
p = &k;  
r = r + 1; //that means k = k + 1  
*p = *p + 1;
```

□ The main way to use the reference mechanism is related to *passing parameters* in functions.

Example. Swapping two values:

```
void Swap1(int *a, int *b) {
    int c = *a;
    *a = *b;
    *b = *c;
}

void Swap2(int &a, int &b) {
    int c = a;
    a = b;
    b = c;
}

void Process() {
    int x = 7, y = 5;
    Swap1(&x, &y);
    printf("%d%d", x, y);
    x = 7; y = 5;
    Swap2(x, y);
}
```

B4. Inline functions

- Initially In the case of *small functions* (with small number of statements):
 - the *calling mechanism can be significant* in respect with the execution time of the function,
 - the *execution time* of the program *can increase* and its efficiency decreases.

- The C++ language offers the possibility to expand *inline* these small functions.

- When the *inline* function is called whole code of the inline function *gets inserted or substituted* at the point of inline *function call*.

- Declaring an **inline** function can be made either:
 - a) *for non-members functions* of classes: by *using* the keyword **inline** before its definition;
 - b) *for a member function of a class*: by *including* the implementation of the function block in the class declaration.

Example:

```
inline int minim(int a, int b) {  
    return ((a < b) ? a : b);  
}
```

- In the case of the *inline functions*, the compiler tries to place an instance of the calling function in the same code segment as the called function, but this fact *is generally not guaranteed*.
- For *complex* functions (recursive functions, or functions having repetitive statements) the **inline** mechanism is *not performed*.
- In general, the using of *inline functions* *is more efficient than usual functions*, but it is *less efficient than the using of macros*.
- **Remark.** An *inline* function can be defined inside of a header file.

- In this case, each *translation unit*, which include this header will contain the same function that will be inlined.
- In this way, the compiler allows the definition of a function to be visible in multiple translation units (that include the header file)

Example.

```
// head.h
inline int f(int n) {
    return 2 * n;
}
```

```
// pr1.cpp
#include "head.h"
static int a = 10;
int g1(int k) {
    return a * f(k);
}
```

```
// pr1.cpp
#include "head.h"
```

```
static int a = 20;
int g2(int k) {
    return a * f(k);
}
```

```
// main.cpp
extern int g1(int);
extern int g2(int);
int main() {
    cout << "g1 = " << g1(4);
    cout << "g2 = " << g2(4);
    return 0;
}
```

- In the C++ language it is better to use inline function than macros:

- Inline functions are managed by the compiler, while macros are managed by the pre-processor
- C++ compiler checks the argument types of inline functions and necessary conversions are performed correctly. The preprocessor is not able of doing this for macros
- Macro cannot access private members of class

B5. Default arguments for function parameters

- Usually, an important rule for many programming languages imposes the *same number of parameters* both for the function *definition* and for the function *call*.
- The C language allows the definition (quite difficult) of some functions with *variable number of parameters*, with the help of the operator ‘...’.
- In addition to the C language, the C++ language provides a *simpler* and *more efficient* method for functions with a variable number of parameters: ***functions with default values for parameters***.
- A parameter with ***a default value*** is declared as usually through a name and a data type, but *in addition* it is *initialized* with an appropriate *value*.
- If the function call contains an actual parameter, this value is used as initialization; if the actual parameter is missing, the actual value is considered as the initialization value.

Example.

```
double Distance(double x, double y,  
    double x0 = 0, double y0 = 0)  
{  
    return sqrt((x-x0)*(x-x0)+(y-y0)*(y-y0)) ;  
}  
  
void Processing() {  
    double x1 = 3, y1 = 5, x2 = 4, y2 = 6, d1, d2 ;  
    //distance between(x1,y1) and origin  
    d1 = Distance(x1, y1);  
    //distance between (x1, y1) and (x2, y2)  
    d2 = Distance(x1, y1, x2, y2);  
    // ...  
}
```

Remarks :

- a) A parameter with a default value can be initialized only with *a constant expression*, which *can be evaluated during compilation*;
- b) A function *can have more parameters with default values*, but in this case, they must take the *last positions* (because otherwise the current values of the parameters cannot be determined when calling the function)

B6. Function overloading

- *Overloading of the functions name* means the existence of *two or more functions* with the *same name* which perform *different tasks*.
- The C++ language allows the definition of overloaded functions. For example, the definitions of two functions with the same name *add* :

```
double add(double a, double b) {
    return a + b;
}

char* add(char *a, char *b) {
    strcat(a, b); return a;
}

void Processing() {
    double s = add(1.5, 8.4);
    char *s1 = "abc", *s2 = "xyz";
    char *s3 = add(s1, s2) ;
    // ...
}
```

Remarks.

- a) For defining two different overloaded functions they must have *different number of parameters* or at least the *data type of one of its parameters*.
- b) Two overloaded functions *can not differ only by the type of the returned value*, because the type of the returned value is not verified by the compiler.
- c) The compiler *determines the effective function* which will be called depending of *types of the actual parameters and their number*.

B7. Operators for memory handling

- The C++ language has in addition to the C language two operators represented by the keywords *new* and *delete*. The used syntax is:

```
<pointer> = new [ '(' ] <type> [ ')' ] [ (<expression> ) ];  
delete <pointer>;
```

Example :

```
int *p = new int(4);  
double *p = new(double);  
struct point { double x, y; };  
struct point *p = new struct point;
```

- These operators can be used also for memory allocation/deallocation for *compound elements*. In the case of arrays, the length of the array must be explicitly specified.

- In the case of the **delete** operator, if *the number of the components is not specified*, this number is *automatically determined* by the compiler. The used syntax is:

```
<pointer> = new <type> '[' <dimension> '];  
delete '[' [<dimension>] ']' <pointer>;
```

Example:

```
int *p, *q, *r;  
*p = new int[10];  
*q = new int[10];  
*r = new int[10];  
  
// Not O.K. Only the first element is deallocated  
delete p;  
  
// O.K. 10 elements are deallocated  
delete[10] p;  
  
// O.K. All elements are deallocated  
delete[] p;
```


- The operator **new** can be used in addition for the *creation of multi-dimensional arrays*. In this case all the dimensions of the array must be specified. For example, the following expression:

```
new int[2][3][4]
```

allocates the memory for two arrays of the type:

```
int [3][4]
```

and it returns a pointer to the first array, that is a pointer of the following type:

```
int (*) [3][4]
```

- Regardless the *number of the dimensions* of an array that is allocated by the operator **new**, the *syntax for deallocation* of this array by using the operator **delete** is the same (only one pair of brackets).

Example:

```
int a[2][4] = {1, 2, 3, 4}, (*p)[4];
p = new int[2][4];
for (int i=0; i<2; i++)
    for (int j=0; j<4; j++)
        p[i][j] = a[i][j];
// ...
delete[] p;
```

Remarks:

- a) The operator *new* calls by default a constructor the class if the data type is an instance of certain class.
- b) The operator *delete* calls by default the class destructor, if the pointer indicates an instance of a certain class.

B8. Template functions

- The C++ language offers support for *data abstraction* and parameterization:
 - *template functions*
 - *template classes*.

- A *template function* contains at least a *generic (unspecified)* data type.

- The syntax for defining a template function impose the presence of the following construction before the header of the function:

```
template '<' class <name> '>'
```

where **<name>** represents the name of the data, which is a parameter for the template function, and it can be used inside the block of the function.

- A *template function* describes a set of functions having similar code but different data types. It can be *instantiated*, each *instance* of a template function being a *usual function*.
- The syntax to instantiate a template function is similar to a function call. In addition, the *actual name* of the used data type must be specified in *angle brackets*.

Example.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

template <class T>
void Swap(T & a, T & b) {
    T temp;
    temp = b;
    b = a;
    a = temp;
}
```

```
void main() {
    int a=3, b=5;
    double x=33, y=55;
    Swap<int>(a, b);
    cout << a << " " << b << endl;
    Swap<double>(x, y);
    cout << x << " " << y << endl;
}
```

Remark. In the above example the two calls of *Swap* can be replaced also by the following sequence:

```
Swap (a ,b) ;
```

```
Swap (x ,y) ;
```

because the compiler can detect automatically the data types **int** and **double** to which *T* will be instantiated

C. Modern C++

C1. New datatypes and syntax

a) The `long long int` datatype

- It is an **integer type** whose values are stored at least 64 bits;
 - The exact dimension depends on the compiler;
- The **limits** values are defined in the header file **`climits`**:
 - For `long long int`:
 - **`LLONG_MIN`**: $(-2^{63}+1)$ or less
 - **`LLONG_MAX`**: $(2^{63}-1)$ or greater
 - For `unsigned long long int`:
 - **`ULLONG_MAX`**: $(2^{64}-1)$ or greater

b) The `auto` keyword

- In C++11, the meaning of the `auto` keyword has changed
- When initializing a variable, `auto` is used to tell the compiler to **infer** the **type** of them **variable** from the **type** of the **initializer**.
- This is called *type inference*

Examples:

- For a **variable**:

```
auto x = 7.5; // double
auto n = 7;   // int
```

- For the **return values from functions**:

```
int triple (int a) {
    return 3 * a;
}

int processing() {
    auto n = triple(4);
    return n;
}
```

- When **auto** sets the type of a declared variable from its initializing expression, it proceeds as follows:
 - If the initializing expression is a reference, the reference is ignored.
 - If, after the above step 1 has been performed, there is a top-level **const** and/or **volatile** qualifier, it is ignored

□ **Example:**

```
const int c = 0;
auto rc = c;    // type of rc is int
rc = 44;       // OK
```

- **Remark.** The reference **auto&** related to a **const** value does not remove the **const** qualifier

```
const int c = 0;
auto& rc = c;   // type of rc is const int&
rc = 44; // error: const qualifier was not removed
```


- Starting to C++14, the auto keyword was extended to infer the **return type of a function**:

```
auto triple (int n) {          // int
    return 3 * n;
}
```

c) Trailing return type syntax

- C++11 also added a **trailing return syntax**, where the **return type** is specified after the rest of the **function prototype**

- The following function declaration:

```
int triple (int a);
```

could be equivalently written as:

```
auto triple (int a) -> int;
```

- In this case, **auto** does not perform **type inference**, it is just part of the syntax to **use a trailing return type**;
- This rare C++ feature was added to aid **writing of generic code** and to **provide consistency** (will be later discussed)

d) The null pointer

- Before C++11, for the null pointer was used the **NULL** macro:
 - It was typically defined as `(void *)0`
 - Conversion of **NULL** to integral types is **allowed** (and is **implicit**)
- For this reason, the using of **NULL** can be ambiguous.

- For **example**, for two overloaded functions:

```
void f(int n) {
    cout << "int";
}

void f(char* s) {
    cout << "char *";
}

int main() {
    f(NULL);    // error: call of f(NULL) is ambiguous
    return 0;
}
```

- For solving this problem, the literal `nullptr` was introduced:
 - It has the type `nullptr_t`
 - Like `NULL`, `nullptr` is implicitly convertible to any pointer type
 - Unlike `NULL`, it is not implicitly convertible to integral types
- For the above example:

```
void f(int n) {  
    cout << "int";  
}  
  
void f(char* s) {  
    cout << "char*";  
}  
  
int main() {  
    f(nullptr);    // is called f(char*)  
    return 0;  
}
```

e) Type alias

- In **C++11** another variant to *rename* a data type was added
- An *alias declaration* is used to declare a *name* to use as a *synonym* for a *previously declared type*, similar to **typedef** from the *C language*:

```
using <identifier> = <type>;
```

Examples:

```
using counter = long;  
typedef long counter; // is similar
```

- Aliases also work with function pointers, but are much more readable than the equivalent typedef:

```
using func = void(*) (int);  
typedef void (*func) (int);
```

- A limitation of **typedef** is that it doesn't work with *templates*. However, the *type alias* syntax in C++11 enables the creation of *alias templates*:

```
template<typename T> using Ptr = T*;  
// Ptr<T>' is an alias for a pointer to T  
Ptr<int> ptrInt;
```

f) Uniform initialization

- **Uniform initialization** is a feature in **C++11** that allows the usage of a **consistent** syntax to initialize **variables** and **objects** ranging from **primitive type** to **aggregates**
- It introduces **brace-initialization** that uses braces { } to enclose **initializer values**
- **Syntax:**
`<type> <variable> {<argument list>;`

Examples.

I. Classical syntax:

```
int i;      // uninitialized built-in type
int j=5;    // initialized built-in type
int k(5);   // initialized built-in type
int a[]={1, 2, 3, 4}; // array initialization
```

II. New syntax

```
int i{};           // uninitialized built-in type
int j{5};         // initialized built-in type
int a[]{1, 2, 3, 4}; // array initialization
```

- **Aggregate initialization** initializes an *aggregate* from a *braced-init-list*
- An *aggregate* is one of the following types:
 - *array* type
 - *class* type:
 - *struct* or *union* that has no *private* or *protected* data members

Examples (for arrays):

```
int a[]{1, 2, 3, 4}; // array initialization
char a[] = "abc";    // classic character array
// char a[4] = {'a', 'b', 'c', '\0'};
char b[]{"abc"};    // aggregate initialization
// char b[4] = {'a', 'b', 'c', '\0'};
char c[5>{"abc"};   // aggregate initialization
// char b[5] = {'a', 'b', 'c', '\0', '\0'};
```

Examples (for structures):

```
struct S { char c; double x; int n; };  
// aggregate initialization with initializer list  
S a{'t', 2.5, 2};  
S b{'u', 1.5}; // OK - incomplete initializer list  
// S b{'u', 1.5, 0};  
  
struct A {  
    int n;  
    struct B { int i; int j; int a[3]; } b;  
};  
  
A a1 = {1, {2, 3, {4, 5, 6}}}; // classical  
A a2 = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}; // same, brace elision  
// same, direct-list-initialization syntax  
A a3{1, {2, 3, {4, 5, 6}}};  
// until C++14, error:  
// brace-elision only allowed with equals sign  
A a4{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6};
```

g) Structured bindings

- Starting to **C++17**, *structured bindings* allows a way define *several objects* instead of *one*, in a *more natural way* than in the previous versions of C++
- **Structured bindings** gives the ability to declare *multiple variables initialized* from a *composite object* (an *array*, a *struct*, or a *tuple*)
 - Like a *reference*, a **structured binding** is an *alias* to an *existing object*
 - Unlike a reference, the *type* of a **structured binding** does not have to be a *reference type*
- **Syntax** can have 3 forms:

```
auto [<identifier-list>] = <expression>;  
auto [<identifier-list>] {<expression>;  
auto [<identifier-list>] (<expression>;
```

where:

- **<identifier-list>** : a list of comma separated *variable names*
- **<expression>** : an expression that *does not have the comma operator at the top level*, and has *either array* or *non-union class type*

- The **auto** keyword can optional be followed by a *reference operator* (**&** for *lvalue references*, or **&&** for *rvalue references*)
- **Inference type deduction**. Let **E** denote the *type of the initializer expression*. Then:
 - if **E** is an *array* type,
 - then the *names* are *bound* to *the array elements*
 - if **E** supports **tuple_size<E>** and provides **get<N>()** function (*tuples* from *STL* library or other *containers* similar to tuple: *pair*, ...),
 - then the “*tuple-like*” *binding protocol* is used
 - if **E** contains only *non static, public members*,
 - then the *names* are *bound* to the *accessible data members* of **E**

Examples:

□ Case 1: *binding an array*:

```
int a[3] = {1, 2, 3};  
// x is a copy of a[0], y is a copy of a[1], ...  
auto [x, y, z] = a;    // x==1, y==2, z==3  
auto& [u, v, t] = a;  // u==a[0], v==a[1], t==a[2]
```

□ Case 2: *binding a tuple-like type*:

```
#include <tuple>  
#include <string>  
tuple<int, double, string> tp(5, 1.2, "abc");  
auto [n, x, s] = tp; // n==5, x==1.2, s=="abc"
```

□ Case 3: *binding to data members*:

```
struct Point {  
    int x;  
    int y;  
};  
Point p{3, 5};  
auto [xp, yp] = p;    // xp==3, yp==5
```

Example. A more practical example for using the *structured bindings*: *iterating* over a *compound collection*.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <utility>      // for pair container
#include <map>          // map container
using namespace std;
typedef pair<double, double> Coord;      // geog. coord.
int main() {
    map<string, Coord> cities;    // map of cities
    Coord c1(44.339241, 23.796380);
    Coord c2(44.434053, 26.120410);
    Coord c3(45.670482, 25.575787);
    // insert in the map
    cities["Craiova"] = c1;
    cities["Bucharest"] = c2;
    cities["Brasov"] = c3;
    // iterating over the map
    for (auto& [name, coord] : cities) {
        cout << "City: " << name << endl;
        cout << "lat. = " << coord.first << endl;
        cout << "long. = " << coord.second << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

h) Binary literals (since C++14)

- A *binary literal* is compound by the character sequence **0b** or **0B**, followed by one or more binary digits (0, 1)
- The *data type* of a binary literal is *integer*

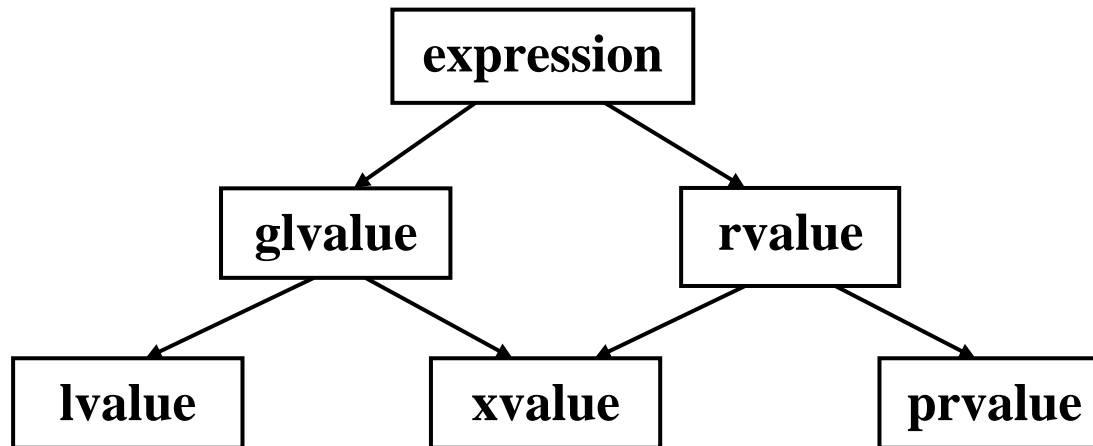
Example.

```
int b1 = 0b101011;    // 43
long int b2 = 0B101010; // 42
```

C2. Expressions

a) Type of expressions

- Before C++11, the expressions were of two types: *lvalue* and *rvalue*
- Starting to C++11 there are several types for expressions:
 - *glvalue*, *rvalue*
 - *lvalue*, *xvalue*, *prvalue*



- The reason is the introduction of new concepts such as *move semantics*, *move constructor*, *move assignment operator* and *rvalue reference*

- The main types are:
 - *lvalue* (*Left value*, as before): designates an object, a location in memory
 - *xvalue* (*eXpiring value*): an object towards the end of its' lifetime (typically used in move semantics)
 - *prvalue* (*Pure rvalue*): represents an actual value (which is temporary)
- *glvalue* means *Generalized lvalue*, which is a *lvalue* or a *xvalue*
- The meaning of *rvalue* (*Right value*) has evolved with the introduction of *move semantics*, and it represents a *xvalue* or a *prvalue*

b) `decltype` specifier

- Yields the type of its operand, which is not evaluated
- For a construct `decltype (expr)`:
 - If the operand `expr` is a class member access without any additional parentheses, then `decltype (expr)` is the declared type of the member accessed

Example:

```
struct S {
    int x = 42;
};
const S s;
decltype(s.x) y;
// Equivalent: int y,
// even though s.x is const
```

- In all other cases, **decltype(expr)** yields both the *type* and the *value category* of the expression **e**, as follows:
 - If **expr** is a *lvalue* of type **T**, then **decltype(expr)** is **T&**
 - If **expr** is a *xvalue* of type **T**, then **decltype(expr)** is **T&&**
 - If **expr** is a *prvalue* of type **T**, then **decltype(expr)** is **T**
- If the name of an object is parenthesized, it is treated as an ordinary *lvalue* expression

- **Remark.** `decltype` does not drop the *reference* and the `const` qualifier.

Example:

```
const int cx = 42;
const int& crx = x;
auto a = cx;    // a is int
auto b = crx;  // b is int
typedef decltype(cx) cx_type;    // cx_type is const int
typedef decltype(crx) crx_type;  // crx_type is const int&
```

- **Some examples:**

```
int x = 0;
int y = 0;
const int c1 = 42;
const int c2 = 43;
double d1 = 3.14;
double d2 = 2.72;

// the type of the product is int,
// the product is a prvalue => type of xy_type is int
typedef decltype(x * y) xy_type;
// the type of the product is int (not const int),
// the product is a prvalue => type of c1c2_type is int
typedef decltype(c1 * c2) c1c2_type;
```



```

// the type of expression is double,
// expression is a lvalue => type of cond_type is double&
typedef decltype(d1 < d2 ? d1 : d2) cond_type;
// the type of expression is double,
// the expression is a prvalue,
// because for translating x to a double,
// a temporary object has to be created
// => type of cond_type1 is double
typedef decltype(x < d2 ? x : d2) cond_type1;
auto c = 0;           // c has type int
auto d = c;          // d has type int
decltype(c) e;       // e has type int, the type of c
// f has type int&, because (c) is a lvalue
decltype((c)) f = c;
// g has type int, because 0 is a rvalue
decltype(0) g;

int f() { return 42; }
int& g() { static int x = 42; return x; }
int x = 42;
decltype(f()) a = f(); // a has type int
decltype(g()) b = g(); // b has type int&

```

- Since C++14, the special form **decltype(auto)** :
 - deduces the type of a variable from its initializer, or the return type of a function from the **return** statements in its definition,
 - using the type deduction rules of **decltype** rather than those of **auto**

□ **Example:**

```
const int x = 123;
auto y = x;          // y has type int
// z has type const int, the declared type of x
decltype(auto) z = x;
```

c) **constexpr** specifier

- Initially **constexpr** was a feature added in C++11 for performance improvement of programs:
 - Performing computations at *compile time* rather than *run time*
 - It is better to spend time in compilation and save time at run time

- Mainly, **constexpr** specifies that the value of a *variable* (C++11) or a *function* (C++14) *can* be evaluated at **compile time** and the expression can be used in other *constant expressions*
- A **constexpr variable** must satisfy the following requirements:
 - It must be immediately *initialized* (as in the **const** case)
 - The *initialization* expression must be a *constant expression*
- A **constexpr function** must satisfy the following requirements:
 - It must consist of single **return** statement
 - It can call only other **constexpr** functions
 - It can reference only **constexpr** global variables

Example. Consider the following program:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
constexpr long long int fib(int n) {
    return (n <= 1)? n : fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);
}
```

```
int main () {
    const long long int v = fib(50);
    cout << v;
    return 0;
}
```

□ Running on some *mingw* compiler the above program takes **0.187 seconds**

□ Replacing

```
const long long int v = fib(50);
```

by

```
long long int v = fib(50);
```

on the same compiler the program takes **123.864 seconds**

□ The compiling time is reverse: 12 seconds / 1 second

□ Because a **constexpr** function must have only one return statement, in the case of recursive functions, the *conditional* operator has to be used

□ The keywords **constexpr** and **const** serve different purposes:

- **constexpr** is mainly for *optimization*

- while **const** is for defining *constant* objects

- The principal difference between **const** and **constexpr** is the time when their initialization values are evaluated:
 - while the values of **const** variables can be evaluated at both compile time and runtime,
 - **constexpr** are always evaluated at compile time.
- For **example**:

```
int t = rand();           // t is generated at runtime
const int x1 = 10;       // OK - known at compile time
const int x2 = t;        // OK - known only at runtime
constexpr int x3 = 10;   // OK - known at compile time
constexpr int x4 = t;    // ERROR - known only at runtime
```

- There is some similarity between **constexpr** functions and *template metaprogramming* (*compile-time programming, static metaprogramming*)
- Example of a **constexpr** function for factorial:

```
constexpr int factorial (unsigned int n) {
    return (n <= 1 ? n : n * factorial(n-1));
}
```

```
int main () {
    const int f = factorial(10);
    cout << f; }
```

- And the same action by using the *template metaprogramming*:

```
template <int N>
struct Factorial {
    static const int res = N * Factorial<N-1>::res;
};

template <>
struct Factorial<0> {
    static const int res = 1;
};

int main () { cout << Factorial<10>::res; }
```

C3. Inline variables (C++17)

- Global variables, and static variable can be declared as **inline**
- The same rules applied to **inline functions** are applied to **inline variables**:
 - There can be *more than one* definition of an **inline** variable
 - The definition of an **inline** variable must be present in the *translation unit*, in which it is used
 - A *global inline* variable must be declared inline in every translation unit and *has the same address in every compilation unit*
- As a general benefit, an **inline** variable can be defined into a header file and included them more than once in other translation units
- If there is a need to declare *global variables* that are *shared* between several *compilation units*, declaring them as **inline** variables in a *header file* is simple and avoids some problems with pre-C++17 workarounds
- For example, one workaround is to use the Scott Meyer *singleton* with an **inline** function, which has some drawbacks in terms of performance:

```

// head.h
inline int& instance() {
    static int globalVar;
    return globalVar;
}

// pr1.cpp
#include "head.h"
int a = instance();

// pr2.cpp
#include "head.h"
int a = instance();    // the same global variable

```

- With inline variables, this variable can be directly declared, without getting a multiple definition linker error:

```

// head.h
inline int a;

// pr1.cpp
#include "head.h"
int b = a;

// pr2.cpp
#include "head.h"
int c = a;    // the same global variable

```


C4. Statements

a) Range-based for loop

- Executes a for *loop* over a *range*
- Used as a *more readable* equivalent to the traditional for loop operating over a *range of values*, such as all elements in a *container*
- Syntax:

for (*range_declaration* : *range_expression*) *loop_statement*

- ***range_declaration***: a declaration of a *named variable*, whose type is the type of the element of the sequence represented by *range_expression*, or a *reference* to that type; often uses the **auto** specifier for automatic type deduction
- ***range_expression***: any expression that represents a suitable *sequence*, or a *braced-init-list* (a list of elements between braces)

□ Examples:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
#include <vector>
using namespace std;

int main() {
    // Iterating over array
    int a[] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
    for (auto n : a)
        cout << n << ' ';

    // Iterationg over string characters
    string str = "Language";
    for (auto c : str)
        cout << c << ' ';

    // Iterating over an array
    vector<int> v = {10, 11, 12, 13, 14};
    for (auto i : v)
        cout << i << ' ';
}
```

b) `if` statement with `constexpr` and `init` statement

- Since **C++17** the syntax of the `if` statement was modified:

```
if [constexpr] ( [<init-statement>;] <condition> )
    <statement-true>    //Discarded if condition is false
[else
    <statement-false>  //Discarded if condition is true
]
```

- The keyword `constexpr` is *optional*. If it is used:
 - The *condition* is evaluated at *compile time*
 - *Determines* which of the two sub-statements *to compile*, *discarding* the other
 - This means that one *branch* can be *rejected* at *compile time*, and thus *will never get compiled*

Example. A function `get` that works in a similar way as in the case of STL `tuple` container.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
using namespace std;
struct triple {
    int n;
    double x;
    string s;
};
template <size_t I>
auto& get(triple& t) {
    if constexpr (I == 0)
        return t.n;
    else if constexpr (I == 1)
        return t.x;
    else if constexpr (I == 2)
        return t.s;
}
int main() {
    triple t{5, 5.5, "string"};
    cout << get<0>(t) << ", " << get<1>(t) << endl;
}
```

- The `<init-statement>` is optional. It is similar to the *init* expression from the `for` statement.
- The following code:

```
<init-statement>;  
if (<condition>)  
    <statement-true>;  
else  
    <statement-false>;
```

is similar to:

```
if (<init-statement>; <condition>)  
    <statement-true>;  
else  
    <statement-false>;
```

- The *scope* of the *conditioned variable* is *limited* to the *current if-else block*
 - This also allows us to *reuse* the same named identifier in *another conditional block*.
 - Which in turn *avoids variable leaking* outside the scope

Example.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <ctime>
#include <cstdlib>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    srand((unsigned)time(NULL));
    if (int rn = rand(); rn % 2 == 0) {
        cout << rn << " is an even number\n";
    } else {
        cout << rn << " is an odd number\n";
    }
    return 0;
}
```

c) `switch` statement with `init` statement

□ Similar to the `if` statement (`<init-statement>` is optional):

```
switch ( [<init-statement>;] <condition> )  
    <statement>
```

Example.

```
int integerType(const string &s) {  
    // determine the type of an integer literal  
    // returns:  
    // 1: decimal type (ex. 183)  
    // 2: octal type (ex. 017)  
    // 3: hexadecimal type (ex. 0x1a3, 0X27c)  
    // 4: binary type (ex. 0b101, 0B11)  
    // 5: unknown type  
    // Implement this function  
}
```

```
void printIntegerType(const string &s) {
    switch(auto t = integerType(s); t) {
    case 1:
        cout << "decimal type\n";
        break;
    case 2:
        cout << "octal type\n";
        break;
    case 3:
        cout << "hexadecimal type\n";
        break;
    case 4:
        cout << "binary type\n";
        break;
    default:
        cout << "unknown type\n";
    }
}
```


C5. Lambda functions

- Will be discussed later