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## A Tour of C++: The Basics

*The first thing we do, let's  
kill all the language lawyers.  
– Henry VI, part II*

- Introduction
- The Basics
  - Hello, World!; Types, Variables, and Arithmetic; Constants; Tests and Loops; Pointers, Arrays, and Loops
- User-defined Types
  - Structures; Classes; Enumerations
- Modularity
  - Separate Compilation; Namespaces; Error Handling
- Postscript
- Advice

### 2.1 Introduction [tour1.intro]

The aim of this chapter and the next three is to give you an idea of what C++ is, without going into a lot of details. This chapter informally presents the notation of C++, C++'s model of memory and computation, and the basic mechanisms for organizing code into a program. These are the language facilities supporting the styles most often seen in C and sometimes called procedural programming. Chapter 3 follows up by presenting C++'s abstraction mechanisms. Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 give examples of standard-library facilities.

The assumption is that you have programmed before. If not, please consider reading a textbook, such as *Programming: Principles and Practice using C++* [Stroustrup, 2009],

before continuing here. Even if you have programmed before, the language you used or the applications you wrote may be very different from the style of C++ presented here. If you find this “lightning tour” confusing, skip to the more systematic presentation starting in Chapter 6.

This chapter and the next three save us from a strictly bottom-up presentation of language and library facilities by enabling the use of a rich set of facilities even in early chapters. For example, loops are not discussed in detail until Chapter 10, but they will be used in obvious ways long before that. Similarly, the detailed description of classes, templates, free-store use and the standard library are spread over many chapters, but standard-library types, such as `vector`, `string`, `complex`, `map`, `unique_pointer`, and `ostream`, are used freely where needed to improve code examples.

As an analogy, think of a short sightseeing tour of a city, such as Copenhagen or New York. In just a few hours, you are given a quick peek at the major attractions, told a few background stories, and usually given some suggestions about what to see next. You do *not* know the city after such a tour. You do *not* understand all you have seen and heard. To really know a city, you have to live in it, often for years. However, with a bit of luck, you will have gained a bit of an overview, a notion of what might be special about the city, and ideas of what might be of interest to you. After the tour, the real exploration can begin.

## 2.2 The Basics [tour1.basics]

C++ is a compiled language. That means that for a program to run, its source text has to be processed by a compiler, producing object files, which are combined by a linker yielding an executable program. A C++ program typically consists of many source code files (typically simply called “source files”). An executable program is created for a specific hardware/system combination; it is not portable, say, from a Mac to a Windows PC. When we talk about portability of C++ programs, we usually mean portability of source code; that is, the source code can be successfully compiled and run on a variety of systems.

The ISO C++ standard defines two kinds of entities:

- *Core language features*, such as built-in types (e.g., `char` and `int`) and loops (e.g., `for`-statements and `while`-statements)
- *Standard-library components*, such as containers (e.g., `vector` and `map`) and I/O operations (e.g., `<<` and `getline()`)

The standard-library components are mostly perfectly ordinary C++ code that happens to be provided by every C++ implementation. That is, the C++ standard library can be implemented in C++ itself (and is with very minor uses of machine code for things such as thread context switching). This implies that C++ is sufficiently expressive and efficient for the most demanding systems programming tasks.

C++ is a statically typed language. That is, the type of every entity (e.g., object, value, name, and expression) must be known to the compiler at its point of use. The type of an object determines the set of operations applicable to it.

## 2.2.1 Hello, World! [tour1.hello]

The minimal C++ program is

```
int main() {}           // the minimal C++ program
```

This defines a function called `main`, which takes no arguments and does nothing (§15.4).

Curly braces, `{ }`, express grouping in C++. Here, they indicate the start and end of the function body. The double slash, `//`, begins a comment that extends to the end of the line. A comment is for the human reader; the compiler ignores comments.

Every C++ program must have exactly one global function named `main()`. The program starts by executing that function. The `int` value returned by `main()`, if any, is the program's return value to "the system." If no value is returned, the system will receive a value indicating successful completion. A nonzero value from `main()` indicates failure. Not every operating system and execution environment make use of that return value: Linux/Unix-based environments often do, but Windows-based environments rarely do.

Typically, a program produces some output. Here is a program that writes `Hello, World!`:

```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    std::cout << "Hello, World!\n";
}
```

The line `#include <iostream>` instructs the compiler to *include* the declarations of the standard stream I/O facilities as found in `iostream`. Without these declarations, the expression

```
std::cout << "Hello, World!\n"
```

would make no sense. The operator `<<` ("put to") writes its second argument onto its first. In this case, the string literal `"Hello, World!\n"` is written onto the standard output stream `std::cout`. A string literal is a sequence of characters surrounded by double quotes. In a string literal, the backslash character `\` followed by another character denotes a single "special character." In this case, `\n` is the newline character, so that the characters written are `Hello, World!` followed by a newline.

The `std::` specifies that the name `cout` is to be found in the standard-library namespace (§2.4.2, Chapter 14).

Essentially all executable code is placed in functions and called directly or indirectly from `main()`. For example:

```
#include <iostream>

double square(double x) // square a double precision floating-point number
{
    return x*x;
}
```

```

void print_square(double x)
{
    std::cout << "the square of " << x << " is " << square(x) << '\n';
}

int main()
{
    print_square(1.234); // print: the square of 1.234 is 1.52276
    print_square(5.555); // print: the square of 5.555 is 30.858
}

```

A “return type” `void` indicates that a function does not return a value.

## 2.2.2 Types, Variables, and Arithmetic [tour1.var]

Every name and every expression has a type that determines the operations that may be performed on it. For example, the declaration

```
int inch;
```

specifies that `inch` is of type `int`; that is, `inch` is an integer variable.

A *declaration* is a statement that introduces a name into the program. It specifies a type for the named entity:

- A *type* defines a set of possible values and a set of operations (for an object).
- An *object* is some memory that holds a value of some type.
- A *value* is a set of bits interpreted according to a type.
- A *variable* is a named object.

C++ offers a variety of fundamental types, which correspond directly to hardware facilities. For example:

```

bool    // Boolean, possible values are true and false
char    // character, for example, 'a', 'z', and '9'
int     // integer, for example, 1, 42, and 1066
double  // double-precision floating-point number, for example, 3.14 and 299793.0

```

Each of the fundamental types has a fixed size that determines the range of values that can be stored in them (for integers) or the precision and range of those values (for floating point numbers). A `char` variable is of the natural size to hold a character on a given machine (typically an 8-bit byte), and the sizes of other types are quoted in multiples of the size of a `char`. The size of a type is implementation defined (i.e., it can vary among different machines) and can be obtained by the `sizeof` operator; for example `sizeof(char)` equals 1 and `sizeof(int)` is often 4. We can represent sizes graphically:

bool:

char:

int:

double:

The arithmetic operators can be used for appropriate combinations of these types:

```
x+y    // plus
+x     // unary plus
x-y    // minus
-x     // unary minus
x*y    // multiply
x/y    // divide
x%y    // remainder (modulus) for integers
```

So can the comparison operators:

```
x==y   // equal
x!=y   // not equal
x<y    // less than
x>y    // greater than
x<=y   // less than or equal
x>=y   // greater than or equal
```

In assignments and in arithmetic operations, C++ performs all meaningful conversions (§10.5.3) between the basic types so that they can be mixed freely:

```
void some_function() // function that doesn't return a value
{
    double d = 2.2; // initialize floating-point number
    int i = 7;      // initialize integer
    d = d+i;       // assign sum to d
    i = d*i;       // assign product to i (truncating the double to an int)
}
```

Note that `=` is the assignment operator and `==` tests equality.

C++ offers a variety of notations for expressing initialization, such as the `=` used above, and a universal form based on curly brace delimited initializer lists:

```
double d1 = 2.3;
double d2 {2.3};
```

```

complex<double> z = 1;           // a complex number with double-precision floating-point scalars
complex<double> z2 {d1,d2};
complex<double> z3 = {1,2};     // the = is optional with { ... }

vector<int> v {1,2,3,4,5,6};    // a vector of ints

```

The = form is traditional and dates back to C, but if in doubt, use the general {}-list form (§6.3.5.2). If nothing else, it saves you from conversions that lose information (narrowing conversions; §10.5):

```

int i1 = 7.2;           // i1 becomes 7
int i2 {7.2};          // error: floating-point to integer conversion

```

A constant (§2.2.3) cannot be left uninitialized and a variable should only be left uninitialized in extremely rare circumstances. Don't introduce a name until you have a suitable value for it. User-defined types (such as, `string`, `vector`, `Matrix`, and `Orc`) can be defined to be implicitly initialized (§3.2.1.1).

When defining a variable, you don't actually need to state its type explicitly when it can be deduced from the initializer:

```

auto b = true;          // a bool
auto ch = 'x';          // a char
auto i = 123;           // an int
auto d = 1.2;           // a double
auto z = sqrt(y);       // z has the type of whatever sqrt(y) returns

```

With `auto`, we use the = syntax because there is no type conversion involved that might cause problems (§6.3.6.2).

We use `auto` where we don't have a specific reason to mention the type explicitly. "Specific reasons" include

- The definition is in a large scope where we want to make the type clearly visible to readers of our code
- We want to be explicit about a variable's range or precision (e.g., `long double` rather than `double`).

Using `auto`, we avoid redundancy and typing long type names. This is especially important in generic programming where the exact type of an object can be hard for the programmer to know and the type names can be quite long (§4.5.1).

In addition to the conventional arithmetic and logical operators (§10.3), C++ offers more specific operations for modifying a variable:

```

x+=y      // x = x+y
++x       // increment: x = x+1
x-=y      // x = x-y
--x       // decrement: x = x-1
x*=y      // scaling: x = x*y
x/=y      // scaling: x = x/y
x%=y      // x = x%y

```

These operators are concise, convenient, and very frequently used.

### 2.2.3 Constants [tour1.const]

C++ supports two notions of immutability (§7.5):

- **const**: meaning roughly “I promise not to change this value” (§7.5). This is used primarily to specify interfaces, so that data can be passed to functions without fear of it being modified. The compiler enforces the promise made by **const**.
- **constexpr**: meaning roughly “to be evaluated at compile time” (§10.4). This is used primarily to specify constants, to allow placement of data in memory where it is unlikely to be corrupted, and for performance.

For example:

```
double sum(const vector<double>&);           // sum will not modify its argument
const int dmv = 17;                       // dmv is a named constant
constexpr double max1 = 1.4*square(dmv);  // OK if square(17) is a constant expression
const double max2 = 1.4*square(dmv);      // OK, may be evaluated at run time
vector<double> v { 1.2, 3.4, 4.5 };       // v is not a constant
const double s1 = sum(v);                 // OK: evaluated at run time
constexpr double s2 = sum(v);            // error: sum(v) not constant expression
```

For a function to be useful in a *constant expression*, that is, in an expression that will be evaluated by the compiler, it must be defined **constexpr**. For example,

```
constexpr double square(double x) { return x*x; }
```

To be **constexpr** a function must be rather simple: just a return statement computing a value. A **constexpr** function can be used for non-constant arguments, but when that is done the result is not a constant expression. We allow a **constexpr** function to be called with non-constant-expression arguments in contexts that do not require constant expressions, so that we don’t have to define essentially the same function twice: once for constant expressions and once for variables.

In a few places, constant expressions are required by language rules (e.g., array bounds (§2.2.5, §7.3), case labels (§2.2.4, §9.4.2), and some template arguments (§25.2). In other cases, compile-time evaluation is important for performance. Independently of performance issues, the notion of immutability (of an object with an unchangeable state) is an important design concern (§10.4).

### 2.2.4 Tests and Loops [tour1.loop]

C++ provides a conventional set of statements for expressing selection and looping. For example, here is a simple function that prompts the user and returns a Boolean indicating the response:

```
bool accept()
{
    cout << "Do you want to proceed (y or n)?\n"; // write question

    char answer = 0;
    cin >> answer; // read answer
```

```

    if (answer == 'y') return true;
    return false;
}

```

To match the << output operator (“put to”), the >> operator (“get from”) is used for input; `cin` is the standard input stream. The type of the right-hand operand of >> determines what input is accepted and its right-hand operand is the target of the input operation. The `\n` character at the end of the output string represents a newline (§2.2.1).

The example could be slightly improved by taking an `n` (for “no”) answer into account:

```

bool accept2()
{
    cout << "Do you want to proceed (y or n)?\n"; // write question

    char answer = 0;
    cin >> answer; // read answer

    switch (answer) {
    case 'y':
        return true;
    case 'n':
        return false;
    default:
        cout << "I'll take that for a no.\n";
        return false;
    }
}

```

A `switch`-statement tests a value against a set of constants. The case constants must be distinct, and if the value tested does not match any of them, the `default` is chosen. The programmer need not provide a `default`. If there is no `default`, no action is taken if the value doesn't match any case constant.

Few programs are written without loops. In this case, we might like to give the user a few tries:

```

bool accept3()
{
    int tries = 1;
    while (tries<4) {
        cout << "Do you want to proceed (y or n)?\n"; // write question
        char answer = 0;
        cin >> answer; // read answer
    }
}

```



```

        switch (answer) {
        case 'y':
            return true;
        case 'n':
            return false;
        default:
            cout << "Sorry, I don't understand that.\n";
            ++tries; // increment
        }
    }
    cout << "I'll take that for a no.\n";
    return false;
}

```

The `while`-statement executes until its condition becomes `false`.

## 2.2.5 Pointers, Arrays and Loops [tour1.ptr]

An array of elements of type `char` can be declared like this:

```
char v[6]; // array of 6 characters
```

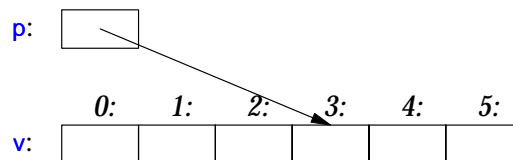
Similarly, a pointer can be declared like this:

```
char* p; // pointer to character
```

In declarations, `[]` means “array of” and `*` means “pointer to.” All arrays have `0` as their lower bound, so `v` has six elements, `v[0]` to `v[5]`. The size of an array must be a constant expression (§2.2.3). A pointer variable can hold the address of an object of the appropriate type:

```
char* p = &v[3]; // p points to v's fourth element
int x = *p; // read the value of what p points to
```

In an expression, prefix unary `*` means “contents of” and prefix unary `&` means “address of.” We can represent the result of that initialized definition graphically:



Consider copying ten elements from one array to another:

```

void copy_fct()
{
    int v1[10];
    int v2[10] = {0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9};
}

```

```

    for (auto i=0; i<10; ++i)
        v1[i]=v2[i];
    // ...
}

```

This `for`-statement can be read as “set `i` to zero; while `i` is less than 10, copy the `i`th element and increment `i`.” When applied to an integer variable, the increment operator `++` simply adds 1. C++ also offers a simpler `for`-statement, called a range-`for`-statement, for loops that traverse a sequence in the simplest way:

```

void print()
{
    int v[] = {0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9};

    for (auto x : v)           // for each x in v
        cout << x << '\n';

    for (auto x : {10,21,32,43,54,65})
        cout << x << '\n';
    // ...
}

```

This range-`for`-statement can be read as “for every element of `v`, from the first to the last, place a copy in `x` and print it.” Note that we don’t have to specify an array bound when we initialize it with a list. The range-`for`-statement can be used for any sequence of elements (§3.4.1).

If we didn’t want to copy the values from `v` into the variable `x`, but rather just have `x` refer to an element, we could write:

```

void increment()
{
    int v[] = {0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9};

    for (auto& x : v)
        ++x;
    // ...
}

```

In a declaration, the unary suffix `&` means “reference to.” A reference is similar to a pointer, except that you don’t need to use a prefix `*` to get to the value referred to by the reference. When used in declarations, operators (such as `*` and `[]`) are called *declarator operators*:

```

T a[n];    // T[n]: array of n Ts (§7.3)
T* p;     // T*: pointer to T (§7.2)
T& r;     // T&: reference to T (§7.7)
T f(A);   // T(A): function taking an argument of type A returning a result of type T (§2.2.1)

```

We try to ensure that a pointer always points to an object, so that dereferencing it is valid. When we don’t have an object to point to or if we need to represent the notion of “no object available” (e.g. for an end of a list), we give the pointer the value `nullptr` (“the null

pointer”). There is only one `nullptr` shared by all pointer types:

```
double* pd = nullptr;
Link<Record>* lst = nullptr;
```

It is often wise to check whether a pointer argument actually points to something:

```
int count_x(char* p, char x)    // count the number of occurrences of x in p[]
    // p is assumed to point to a zero-terminated array of char (or to nothing)
{
    if (p==nullptr) return 0;

    int count = 0;
    for (; *p!=0; ++p)
        if (*p==x)
            ++count;
    return count;
}
```

Note how we can move a pointer to point to the next element of an array using `++` and that we can leave out the initializer in a `for`-statement if we don’t need it.

The definition of `count_x()` assumes that the `char*` is a *C-style string*; that is, that the pointer points to a zero-terminated array of `char`.

In older code, `0` or `NULL` is typically used instead of `nullptr` (§7.2.2). However, using `nullptr` eliminates potential confusion between integers (such as `0` or `NULL`) and pointers, (such as `nullptr`).

## 2.3 User-defined Types [tour1.udt]

We call the types that can be built out of the fundamental types (§2.2.2), the `const` modifier (§2.2.3), and the declarator operators (§2.2.5) *built-in types*. C++’s set of built-in types and operations is rich, but deliberately low-level. They directly and efficiently reflect the capabilities of conventional computer hardware. However, they don’t provide the programmer with high-level facilities to conveniently write advanced applications. Instead, C++ augments the built-in types and operations with a sophisticated set of *abstraction mechanisms* out of which programmers can build such high-level facilities. The C++ abstraction mechanisms are primarily designed to let programmers design and implement their own types, with suitable representations and operations, and for programmers to simply and elegantly use such types. Types built out of the built-in types using C++’s abstraction mechanisms are called *user-defined types*. They are referred to as classes and enumerations. Most of this book is devoted to the design, implementation, and use of user-defined types. The rest of this chapter presents the simplest and most fundamental facilities for that. Chapter 3 is a more complete description of the abstraction mechanisms and the programming styles they support. Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 present an overview of the standard library, and since the standard library mainly consists of user-defined types, they provide examples of what can be built using the language facilities and programming techniques presented in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3.

### 2.3.1 Structures [tour1.struct]

The first step in building a new type is often to organize the elements it needs into a data structure, a `struct`:

```
struct Vector {
    int sz;           // number of elements
    double* elem;    // pointer to elements
};
```

This `Vector` consists of an `int` and a `double*`. A variable of type `Vector` can be defined like this:

```
Vector v;
```

However, by itself that is not of much use because the `elem` pointer doesn't point to any elements. To be useful, we must give `v` some elements to point to. For example, we can construct a `Vector` like this:

```
void vector_init(Vector& v, int s)
{
    v.elem = new double[s]; // allocate an array of s doubles
    v.sz = s;
}
```

That is, `v`'s `elem` member gets a pointer produced by the `new` operator and `v`'s `sz` member gets the number of elements. The `&` in `Vector&` indicates that we pass `v` by non-`const` reference; that way, `vector_init()` can modify the vector passed to it.

The `new` operator allocates memory from an area called “the free store” (also known as “dynamic memory” and “heap”; §11.2).

A simple use of `Vector` looks like this:

```
double read_and_sum(int s)
{
    Vector v;
    vector_init(v,s); // allocate s elements for v
    for (int i=0; i<s; ++i)
        cin>>v.elem[i]; // read into elements

    double sum = 0;
    for (int i=0; i<s; ++i)
        sum+=v.elem[i]; // take the sum of the elements
    return sum;
}
```

There is a long way to go before our `Vector` is as elegant and flexible as the standard-library `vector`. In particular, a user of `Vector` has to know every detail of `Vector`'s representation. The rest of this chapter and the next gradually improve `Vector` as an example of language features and techniques, Chapter 4 presents the standard-library `vector`, which contains all the nice improvements and more, and Chapter 31 presents the complete `vector` in the context of other standard-library facilities.

I use `vector` and other standard-library components as examples

- to illustrate language features and design techniques
- to help you learn and use the standard-library components.

Don't re-invent standard-library components, such as `vector` and `string`, use them.

We use `.` (dot) to access `struct` members through a name (and through a reference) and `->` to access `struct` members through a pointer. For example:

```
void f(Vector v, Vector& rv, Vector* pv)
{
    int i1 = v.sz;
    int i2 = rv.sz;
    int i3 = (*pv).sz;    // * means "contents of" (§2.2.5)
    int i4 = pv->sz;
    int i5 = (&v)->sz;   // & means "address of" (§2.2.5)
}
```

### 2.3.2 Classes [tour1.class]

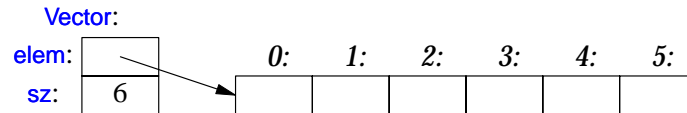
Having the data specified separately from the operations on it has advantages, such as the ability to use the data in arbitrary ways. However, a tighter connection between the representation and the operations is needed for a user-defined type to have all the properties expected of a "real type." In particular, we often want to keep the representation inaccessible to users, so as to ease use, guarantee consistent use of the data, and allow us to later improve the representation. To do that we have to distinguish between the interface to a type (to be used by all) and its implementation (which has access to the otherwise inaccessible data). The language mechanism for that is called a *class*. A class is defined to have a set of *members*, which can be data, function, or type members. The interface is defined by the `public` members of a class and `private` members are accessible only through that interface. For example:

```
class Vector {
public:
    Vector(int s) : elem{new double[s]}, sz{s} { } // construct a Vector
    double& operator[](int i) { return elem[i]; } // element access: subscripting
    int size() { return sz; }
private:
    double* elem; // pointer to the elements
    int sz;      // the number of elements
};
```

Given that, we can define a variable of our new type `Vector`:

```
Vector v(6); // a Vector with six elements
```

We can illustrate a `Vector` object graphically:



Basically, the `Vector` object is a “handle” containing a pointer to the elements (`elem`) plus the number of elements (`sz`). The number of elements (6 in the example) can vary from `Vector` object to `Vector` object, and a `Vector` object can have a different number of elements at different times. However, the `Vector` object itself is always the same size. This is the basic technique for handling varying amounts of information in C++: a fixed-sized handle referring to a variable amount of data “elsewhere” (e.g., on the free store allocated by `new`; §11.2). How to design and use such objects is the main topic of Chapter 3.

Here, the representation of a `Vector` (the members `elem` and `sz`) is accessible only through the interface provided by the `public` members: `Vector()`, `operator[]()`, and `size()`. For example:

```
double read_and_sum(int s)
{
    Vector v(s);                // make a vector of s elements
    for (int i=0; i<v.size(); ++i) cin>>v[i];    // read into elements

    double sum = 0;
    for (int i=0; i<v.size(); ++i) sum+=v[i];    // take the sum of the elements
    return sum;
}
```

A “function” with the same name as its class is called a *constructor*; that is, a function used to construct objects of a class. So, the constructor, `Vector()`, replaces `vector_init()` from §2.3.1. Unlike an ordinary function, a constructor is guaranteed to be used to initialize objects of its class. Thus, defining a constructor eliminates the problem of uninitialized variables for a class.

`Vector(int)` defines how objects of type `Vector` are constructed. In particular, it states that it needs an integer to do that. That integer is used as the number of elements. The constructor initializes the `Vector` members using a member initializer list:

```
:elem{new double[s]}, sz{s}
```

That is, we first initialize `elem` with a pointer to `s` elements of type `double` obtained from the free store. Then, we initialize `sz` to `s`.

Access to elements are provided by a subscript function, called `operator[]`. It returns a reference to the appropriate element.

The `size()` function is supplied to give users the number of elements.

Obviously, error handling is completely missing, but we’ll return to that in §2.4.3. Similarly, we did not provide a mechanism to “give back” the array of `doubles` acquired by `new`; §3.2.1.2 shows how to use a destructor to elegantly do that.

### 2.3.3 Enumerations [tour1.enum]

In addition to classes, C++ supports a simple form of user-defined type for which we can enumerate the values:

```
enum class Color { red, blue, green };
enum class Traffic_light { green, yellow, red };
```

```
Color col = Color::red;
Traffic_light light = Traffic_light::red;
```

Note that enumerators (e.g., `red`) are in the scope of their `enum class`, so that they can be used repeatedly in different `enum classes` without confusion. For example, `Color::red` is `Color`'s `red` which is different from `Traffic_light::red`.

Enumerations are used to represent small sets of integer values. They are used to make code more readable and less error-prone than it would have been had the symbolic (and mnemonic) enumerator names not been used.

An enumeration is a user-defined type so we can define operators for it:

```
Traffic_light& operator++(Traffic_light& t) // prefix increment: ++
{
    switch (t) {
        case Traffic_light::green: return t=Traffic_light::yellow;
        case Traffic_light::yellow: return t=Traffic_light::red;
        case Traffic_light::red: return t=Traffic_light::green;
    }
}
```

```
Traffic_light next = ++light; // next becomes Traffic_light::green
```

By default, an `enum class` has only assignment, initialization, and comparisons (e.g., `==` and `<`; §2.2.2) defined. The `class` after the `enum` specifies that an enumeration is strongly typed and that its enumerators are scoped. Being separate types, `enum classes` help prevent accidental misuses of constants. In particular, we cannot mix `Traffic_light` and `Color` values:

```
Color x = red; // error: which red?
Color y = Traffic_light::red; // error: that red is not a Color
Color z = Color::red; // OK
```

Similarly, we cannot implicitly mix `Color` and integer values:

```
int i = Color::red; // error: Color::red is not an int
Color c = 2; // error: 2 is not a Color
```

If you don't want to explicitly qualify enumerator names and want enumerator values to be `ints` (without the need for an explicit conversion), you can remove the `class` from `enum class` to get a "plain `enum`" (§8.4.2).

## 2.4 Modularity [tour1.module]

A C++ program consists of many separately-developed parts, such as functions (§2.2.1, Chapter 12), user-defined types (§2.3, §3.2, Chapter 16), class hierarchies (§3.2.5, Chapter 20), and templates (§3.4, Chapter 23). The key to managing this is to clearly define the interactions among those parts. The first and most important distinction is between the interface to a part and its implementation. At the language level, C++ represents interfaces by declarations. A *declaration* specifies all that’s needed to use a function or a type. For example:

```
double sqrt(double); // the square root function takes a double and returns a double

class Vector {
public:
    Vector(int s);
    double& operator[](int i);
    int size();
private:
    double* elem; // elem points to an array of sz doubles
    int sz;
};
```

The key point here is that the function bodies, the function *definitions*, are “elsewhere.” For this example, we might like for the representation of `Vector` to be “elsewhere” also, but we will deal with that later (abstract types; §3.2.3). The definition of `sqrt()` will look like this:

```
double sqrt(double d) // definition of sqrt()
{
    // ... algorithm as found in math textbook ...
}
```

For `Vector`, we need to define all three functions:

```
Vector::Vector(int s) // definition of the constructor
    :elem(new double[s]), sz{s}
{
}

double& Vector::operator[](int i) // definition of subscripting
{
    return elem[i];
}

int Vector::size() // definition of size()
{
    return sz;
}
```

The `Vector` functions are the ones we define, but the `sqrt()` is part of the standard library. However, that makes no difference: a library is simply some “other code we happen to be



using” written using same language facilities as we use.

### 2.4.1 Separate Compilation [tour1.comp]

C++ supports a notion of separate compilation where user code sees only declarations of types and functions used. The definitions of those types and functions are in separate source files and compiled separately. This can be used to organize a program into a set of semi-independent fragments.

Typically, we place the declarations that specify the interface to a module in a file with a name indicating its intended use. For example:

```
// Vector.h:

class Vector {
public:
    Vector(int s);
    double& operator[](int i);
    int size();
private:
    double* elem; // elem points to an array of sz doubles
    int sz;
};
```

This declaration would be placed in a file `Vector.h`, and users will *include* that file, called a *header file*, like this to access that interface:

```
// user.cpp:

#include "Vector.h" // get the interface
#include "math.h" // get the interface including sqrt()

double f(Vector& v)
{
    double sum = 0;
    for (int i=0; i<v.size(); ++i)
        sum+=sqrt(v[i]);
    return sum;
}
```

To help the compiler ensure consistency, the `.cpp` file providing the implementation of `Vector` will also include the `.h` file providing its interface:

```
// Vector.cpp:

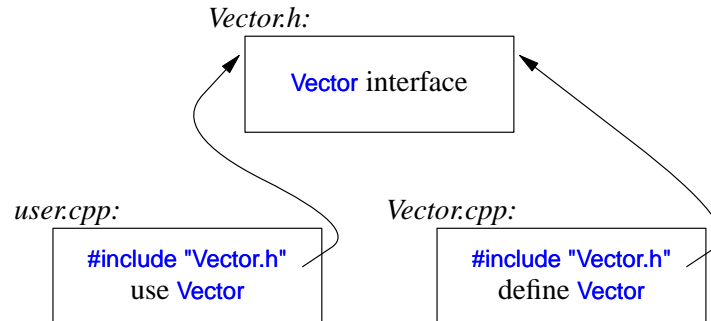
#include "Vector.h" // get the interface

Vector::Vector(int s) :elem(new double[s]), sz{s} { }
```

```
double& Vector::operator[](int i) { return elem[i]; }
```

```
int Vector::size() { return sz; }
```

The code in `user.cpp` and `Vector.cpp` shares the `Vector` interface information presented in `Vector.h`, but the two files are otherwise independent and can be separately compiled. Graphically, the program fragments can be represented like this:



Strictly speaking, using separate compilation isn't a language issue; it is an issue of how best to take advantage of a particular language implementation. However, it is of great practical importance. The best approach is to maximize modularity, represent that modularity logically through language features, and then exploit the modularity physically through files for effective separate compilation (Chapter 14, Chapter 15).

## 2.4.2 Namespaces [tour1.namespace]

In addition to functions (§2.2.1, Chapter 12), classes (Chapter 16), and enumerations (§2.3.3, §8.4), C++ offers *namespaces* (Chapter 14) as a mechanism for expressing that some declarations belong together and that their names shouldn't clash with other names. For example, I might want to experiment with my own complex number type (§3.2.1.1, §18.3, §39.4):

```
namespace My_code {
    class complex { /* ... */ };
    complex sqrt(complex);
    // ...
    int main();
}

int My_code::main()
{
    complex z {1,2};
    auto z2 = sqrt(z);
    std::cout << '{' << z2.real() << ',' << z2.imag() << ")\n";
    // ...
};
```

```
int main()
{
    return My_code::main();
}
```

By putting my code into the namespace `My_code`, I make sure that my names do not conflict with the standard-library names in namespace `std` (§4.1.2). The precaution is wise, because the standard library does provide support for `complex` arithmetic (§3.2.1.1, §39.4).

The simplest way to access a name in another namespace is to qualify it with the namespace name (e.g., `std::cout` and `My_code::main`). The “real `main()`” is defined in the global namespace; that is, not local to a defined namespace, class, function, etc. To gain access to all the names in the standard-library namespace, we can use a `using`-directive (§14.2.3):

```
using namespace std;
```

Namespaces are primarily used to organize larger program components, such as libraries. They simplify the composition of a program out of separately developed parts.

### 2.4.3 Error Handling [tour1.error]

Error handling is a large and complex topic with concerns and ramifications that go far beyond language facilities into programming techniques and tools. However, C++ provides a few features to help. The major tool is the type system itself. Instead of painstakingly building up our applications from the built-in types (e.g. `char`, `int`, and `double`) and statements (e.g., `if`, `while`, and `for`), we build more types that are appropriate for our application (e.g. `string`, `map`, and `regex`) and algorithms (e.g., `sort()`, `find_if()`, and `draw_all()`). Such higher level constructs simplify our programming, limit our opportunities for mistakes (e.g., you are unlikely to try to apply a tree traversal to a dialog box) and increase the compiler’s chances to catch such errors. The majority of C++ constructs are dedicated to the design and implementation of elegant and efficient abstractions (e.g., user-defined types and algorithms using them). One effect of this modularity and abstraction (in particular, the use of libraries) is that the point where a run-time error can be detected is separated from the point where it can be handled. As programs grow, and especially when libraries are used extensively, standards for handling errors become important.

#### 2.4.3.1 Exceptions [tour1.exception]

Consider again the `Vector` example. What *ought* to be done when we try to access an element that is out of range for the vector from §2.3.2?

- The writer of `Vector` doesn’t know what the user would like to have done in this case (the writer of `Vector` typically doesn’t even know in which program the vector will be running).
- The user of `Vector` cannot consistently detect the problem (if the user could, the out-of-range access wouldn’t happen in the first place).

The solution is for the `Vector` implementer to detect the attempted out-of-range access and then tell the user about it. The user can then take appropriate action. For example,

`Vector::operator[]()` can detect an attempted out-of-range access and throw an `out_of_range` exception:

```
double& Vector::operator[](int i)
{
    if (i<0 || size()<=i) throw out_of_range{"Vector::operator[]"};
    return elem[i];
}
```

The `throw` transfers control to a handler for exceptions of type `out_of_range` in some function that directly or indirectly called `Vector::operator[]()`. To do that, the implementation will unwind the function call stack as needed to get back to the context of that caller (§13.5.1). For example:

```
void f(Vector& v)
{
    // ...
    try { // exceptions here are handled by the handler defined below

        v[v.size()] = 7; // try to access beyond the end of v
    }
    catch (out_of_range) { // oops: out_of_range error
        // ... handle range error ...
    }
    // ...
}
```

We put code for which we are interested in handling exceptions into a `try`-block. That attempted assignment to `v[v.size()]` will fail. Therefore, the `catch`-clause providing a handler for `out_of_range` will be entered. The `out_of_range` type is defined in the standard library and is in fact used by some standard-library container access functions.

Use of the exception-handling mechanisms can make error handling simpler, more systematic, and more readable. See Chapter 13 for further discussion, details, and examples.

### 2.4.3.2 Invariants [tour1.invariant]

The use of exceptions to signal out-of-range access is an example of a function checking its argument and refusing to operate because a basic assumption, a *precondition*, didn't hold. Had we formally specified `Vector`'s subscript operator, we would have said something like “the index must be in the `[0:size())` range,” and that was in fact what we tested in our `operator[]()`. Whenever we define a function, we should consider what its preconditions are and if feasible test them (see §12.4, §13.4).

However, `operator[]()` operates on objects of type `Vector` and nothing it does makes any sense unless the members of `Vector` have “reasonable” values. In particular, we did say “*elem points to an array of sz doubles*” but we only said that in a comment. Such a statement of what is assumed to be true for a class is called a class invariant, or simply an *invariant*. It is the job of a constructor to establish the invariant for its class (so that the member functions can rely on it) and for the member functions to make sure that the

invariant holds when they exit. Unfortunately, our `Vector` constructor only partially did its job. It properly initialized the `Vector` members, but it failed to check that the arguments passed to it made sense. Consider:

```
Vector v(-27);
```

This is likely to cause chaos. Here is a more appropriate definition:

```
Vector::Vector(int s)
{
    if (s<0) throw length_error{};
    elem = new double[s];
    sz = s;
}
```

I use the standard-library exception `length_error` to report a non-positive number of elements because some standard-library operations use that exception to report problems of this kind. If operator `new` can't find memory to allocate, it throws a `std::bad_alloc`. We can now write

```
void test()
{
    try {
        Vector v(-27);
    }
    catch (std::length_error) {
        // handle negative size
    }
    catch (std::bad_alloc) {
        // handle memory exhaustion
    }
}
```

You can define your own classes to be used as exceptions and have them carry arbitrary information from a point where an error is detected to a point where it can be handled (§13.5).

Often, a function has no way of completing its assigned task after an exception is thrown. Then, “handling” an exception simply means doing some minimal local cleanup and rethrowing the exception (§13.5.2.1).

The notion of invariants is central to the design of classes and preconditions serve a similar role in the design of functions:

- It helps us to understand precisely what we want.
- It forces us to be specific; that gives us better chance of getting our code correct (after debugging and testing).

More concretely, the notion of invariants underlies C++’s notions of resource management supported by constructors (§2.3.2) and destructors (§3.2.1.2, §5.2). See also §13.4, §16.3.1, and §17.2.

### 2.4.3.3 Static Assertions [tour1.assert]

Exceptions report errors found at run time. If an error can be found at compile time, it is usually preferable to do so. That's what much of the type system and the facilities for specifying the interfaces to user-defined types are for. However, we can also perform simple checks on other properties that are known at compile time and report failures as compiler error messages. For example:

```
static_assert(4<=sizeof(int), "integers are too small"); // check integer size
```

This will write `integers are too small` if `4<=sizeof(int)` does not hold; that is, if an `int` on this system does not have at least 4 bytes. Such statements of expectations are called *assertions*.

The `static_assert` mechanism can be used for anything that can be expressed in terms of constant expressions (§2.2.3, §10.4). For example:

```
constexpr double C = 299792.458;           // km/s

void f(double speed)
{
    const double local_max = 160*60*60;    // 160 km/h

    static_assert(speed<C,"can't go that fast"); // error: speed must be a constant
    static_assert(local_max<C,"can't go that fast"); // OK

    // ...
}
```

In general, `static_assert(A,S)` prints `S` as a compiler error message if `A` is not `true`.

The most important uses of `static_cast` come when we to make assertions about types used as parameters in generic programming (§5.4.2, §24.3).

## 2.5 Postscript [tour1.postscript]

The topics covered in this chapter roughly correspond to the contents of Part II (Chapters 5-15). Those are the parts of C++ that underlie all programming techniques and styles supported by C++. Experienced C and C++ programmers, please note that this foundation does not closely correspond to the C or C++98 subsets of C++ (that is, C++11).

## 2.6 Advice [tour1.advice]

- [1] Don't panic! All will become clear in time; §2.1.
- [2] You don't have to know every detail of C++ to write good programs; §1.3.1.
- [3] Focus on programming techniques, not on language features; §2.1.