

## C++ abridged syntax-only reference card v.0.25

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## 1 Basic considerations

### 1.1 Notation

$\langle \bullet \rangle$  indicates that the programmer must provide an appropriate replacement.

For example  $\langle \text{expr} \rangle$  can be replaced by  $10.0 * \sin(\pi/6)$

$[\bullet]$  indicates that the programmer can either provide a replacement or opt to omit it.

For example  $\langle T \rangle \langle aT \rangle [= \langle \text{expr} \rangle]$  can be replaced by either double d or double d=3.0

$\bullet | *$  indicates an option for the programmer.

For example const  $\langle T \rangle \langle aT \rangle = \langle \text{expr} \rangle | (\langle \text{expr} \rangle)$  can be replaced by either const bool b=true or const bool b(x==3).

Case-sensitivity, continuation indicators and semicolon: C++ is case-sensitive, there are no continuation lines and the end of a statement (except a block statement) is marked with a semicolon (;

### 1.2 Comments and main segment

```
// comment terminating with a new-line character
/* comment terminating with the symbol */

int main()                      // argument-free main segment
{ $\langle \text{statements} \rangle$ }          // corresponding statement block
int main(int argc, char **argv) // main segment with arguments, argc is the number of arguments passed to program and, if not zero,
                                  // char[0]..char[argc-1] are pointers to character sequences containing command-line arguments
{ $\langle \text{statements} \rangle$ }          // corresponding statement block
```

Premature termination can be forced by using the function exit() included in the header #include<cstdlib>.  
System command can be executed by using the function system("⟨command⟩") in the header #include<cstdlib>.  
Assertions can be established by using the macro assert(⟨boolean\_expr⟩) included in the header #include<cassert>.

### 1.3 File inclusion and namespace use

```
#include <⟨system_header⟩>      // inclusion of a system header
#include "⟨file⟩"                 // inclusion of a user header (the extension .hpp is common for ⟨file⟩)
using namespace ⟨namespace_name⟩; // provides access to the scope of a given namespace (in this case ⟨namespace_name⟩)
For example:
using namespace std;           // provides access to the Standard namespace
#pragma once                   // ensures that the corresponding header is included once (non-standard but usually accepted)
Source code files of a struct:
⟨file⟩.cpp                     // contains source code with (other extensions possible!)
                                // function definitions and struct implementations
⟨file⟩.hpp                     // header file contains struct definitions and
                                // function declarations (other extensions possible!)
extern "C" {...}              // functions compiled by C are enclosed by the curly braces
```

For example:

```
extern "C" {int mult(int* i,int* j);} // example of a C function prototype
extern "C" { #include "header.h" } // example of a C header
```

## 2 Types and declarations

### 2.1 Fundamental types

$\langle C \rangle$  is either a fundamental type or type introduced by the user<sup>1</sup>.

Common fundamental types:

void, char, int, unsigned int, bool, double, float

auto: in the context of variable initialization, lets the compiler infer the type

For sizes of containers, the header #include<cstdlib> includes the type size\_t.

Type use: The keyword decltype can be used to determine the type of an expression:

```
decltype(⟨expr⟩) ⟨avariable⟩;
decltype((⟨expr⟩)) ⟨areference⟩=⟨expr⟩;
```

For example:

```
typename vector⟨int⟩::iterator aiterator=v.begin() // can be replaced by auto aiterator=v.begin()2
decltype(adouble) anotherdouble;                  // make use of an existing type
decltype((adouble)) adoublereference=adouble;    // another use of an existing type
```

Examples of declarations:

```
int      ⟨aint⟩;           // integer variable declaration
unsigned int ⟨aunsigned⟩;  // non-negative integer variable declaration
char     ⟨achar⟩;          // character variable declaration
float   ⟨afloat⟩;          // real (32 bits in many implementations) variable declaration
double  ⟨adouble⟩;         // real (64 bits in many implementations) variable declaration
bool    ⟨abool⟩;           // boolean variable declaration (values are either true or false)
auto    ⟨aauto⟩=⟨expr⟩;     // the type is inferred by the compiler from the type of ⟨expr⟩
```

<sup>1</sup>In this context, only struct and enum

## 2.2 Typical declaration in the stack

```
[static] <T> <aT> [(<LE>)|=<C>()|=<Expr>]; // declares a type where <C>() invokes the default constructor
Examples:
static int aint(10); // global int variable initialized with the value 10; aint lasts for the duration of the program
double adouble=double(); // local double variable initialized with the default value, 0.0
complex<class> acomplex(0.0,1.0); // local complex number initialized as a unit imaginary
<T> is given as
[const] <C> [♣ [const]]
The above keywords are:
static // maintains the variable value after leaving the scope of declaration
const // qualifier that, as prefix, forces the variable to hold a constant value
       // (attempts to change the value by de-referencing are flagged as errors at compile time)
const // qualifier that, as suffix, declares the address stored in the pointer to be constant
```

Warning: Temporary variables are made constant (const) by the compiler

The symbol ♣ is one of the following:<sup>3</sup>

```
* // pointer, when an address (and type) of a variable is stored, only use for 'new' and when a 0 can be returned
& // reference, when an alias of a given variable is stored, requires initialization
&& // rvalue reference, similar to & but allowing the assignment of temporaries
*& // reference of a pointer, when an address stored at a pointer is allowed to change,
   // useful to pass pointers to functions with new and delete operations
```

The list of sent expressions <LE> is an ordered comma-separated set of N expressions<sup>4</sup>.

If N==0 parenthesis are omitted around <LE>.

For N expressions, with N≠0,

<LE>≡ <expr\_0>, <expr\_1>, ..., <expr\_N-1>

Examples:

```
const double adouble(3.0); // declares a constant double with the value 3
const int* apint=&aint; // declares a pointer to a constant integer
double* const apdouble=new double(); // declares a constant pointer to a double
bool& abool2=abool1; // declares and initializes a boolean reference
const bool& abool3=false; // declares and initializes a constant boolean reference
```

## 2.3 Array in the stack

```
<T> <array>[<n>]; // declares an array containing, sequentially, <n> elements of type <T>. For large arrays, heap allocation
   // allows large <n>. Multidimensional arrays are also possible, but not needed.
```

## 2.4 Heap space management

Space in the heap will have to be accessed by variables which are declared in a given local scope.

<var> and <array> are pointers of type <T> and their declarations are:

```
<T>* <apT>=0; // declares a pointer to <T> and sets it to 0
<T>* <arrayT>=0; // also declares a pointer to <T> but additional space will be reserved, the heap space is managed as:
<apT>=new <T>[(<LE>)]; // reserves space for a variable of type <T>
...
// uses <apT>
delete <apT>; // frees the space which was previously reserved
<apT>=0 // do not free twice, set to zero after deletion
<arrayT>=new <T>[<n>]; // reserves space for an array of type <T> with <n> elements
...
// uses <arrayT>
delete[] <arrayT>; // frees the space which was previously reserved
<arrayT>=0 // do not free twice, set to zero after deletion
```

Smart pointers (`#include<memory>`):

```
unique_ptr<T> <aumpT>=new <T>[(<LE>)]; // declares a single-owned smart pointer (no need to free), container-friendly
scoped_ptr<T> <ascpT>=new <T>[(<LE>)]; // declares a single-owned smart pointer with transference on copy
shared_ptr<T> <ashpT>=new <T>[(<LE>)]; // declares a reference-counted smart pointer (no need to free), container-friendly
```

Destroy utility function:

```
template<typename T> inline void destroy(<T>*& <apT>){delete <apT>; <apT>=0;}
```

## 2.5 Type synonyms

```
typedef <T> <Tsynonym> // this specifier declares the identifier <Tsynonym> as a synonym of <T>
An example of use of synonyms:
typedef int* pint; // pointer to int also identified as pint
pint apint=new int; // typical use of pint: allocation in the heap
```

## 2.6 Enumerations

Enumerations are objects which can have a finite number of values, for which synonyms are defined.

Definition of a enumeration:

```
enum <E>
{
<name_0> [=<integer_expr_0>],
<name_1> [=<integer_expr_1>],
...
};
```

<sup>3</sup>Strictly, double, triple, etc pointers, \*\*, \*\*\*, also exist but are not necessary with C++ since Standard Library containers can be nested and are always preferable.

<sup>4</sup>The (<LE>) option may fail in certain odd cases, in that case an extra set of parenthesis must be added.

Declaration and use of a enum object:

```
<E> <a_enum>;  
<a_enum>=<integer_expr_I>;
```

## 2.7 Unions

Unions are amalgamations of data. Memory sharing is allowed for certain data types (C++0x).

Definition of a union:

```
union <U>  
{  
    <C_0> <aC_0>;  
    <C_1> <aC_1>;  
    ...  
};
```

Declaration and use of a union object:

```
<U> <a_union>;  
<a_union>=<compatible_expression>;
```

## 2.8 Type identification during run time

The header <typeinfo> provides the functions typeid(<T>) and typeid(<expr>). This should only be used for comparisons.

Examples of application:

```
if(typeid(complex)!=typeid(notacomplex))cout<<"Not a complex";  
cout<<typeid(complex).name()<<endl; // compiler-dependent name
```

## 3 Operators and expressions

### 3.1 Nomenclature of Rexpr and Lexpr

```
<Lexpr>           // an expression that, const apart, can be used either in the left or right-hand-side of an attribution  
<Rexpr>           // an expression which cannot be used, even if non-constant, in the left-hand-side of an attribution  
<expr>            // a general expression, either <Rexpr> or <Lexpr>  
<boolean_expr>   // an expression which has a boolean value or one that can be implicitly converted to a bool  
<integer_expr>   // an expression which has an integer value
```

### 3.2 Typical operations (<a>, <b> and <c> are appropriate expressions and <i> is an integer expression)

```
<a>=<b>;                                // assignment, the value stored in <a> will lose its value and  
                                              // will now contain <b>'s value  
++<a>, --<a>, <a>++, <a&gt--          // pre-increment, pre-decrement, post-increment and post-decrement  
!<a>, <a>||<b>, <a>&&<b>;        // negation, "or" and "and". The result is a boolean  
<a>==<b>, <a>!=<b>;                 // equal, not equal  
<a>>=<b>, <a><=<b>, <a><<b>, <a>><b>; // greater than or equal, less than or equal, less than, greater than  
<a>+<b>, <a>-<b>, -<a>, +<a>;    // addition, subtraction, unary minus, unary plus  
<a>*<b>, <a>/<b>, <a>%<b>;       // multiplication, division, remainder  
<a>@<b>;                           // composition of attribution and any binary operator @ this is <a>=<a>@<b>;  
<a>(<b>);                         // use of () in a function invocation  
<a>*<(b>+<c>);                   // use of () in expression grouping  
<a>. <b>;                        // access to a member variable  
<a>. <b>(<c>);                   // access to a member function  
<a>-><b>(<c>);                  // access to a member function when <a> is a pointer  
*<a>;                            // value of <a>: contents stored at address <a>  
&<a>;                           // address of <a>  
<a>[<i>] or *(<a>+<i>) or <i>[<a>]; // accesses the contents stored at address <a>+<i>
```

### 3.3 Block statement

When one statement is expected and there is the need of inserting more than one, we can use curly braces {} to create a block statement.

For N statements, the block statement has the form:

```
{<statement_0>;<statement_1>;...;<statement_N-1>;}
```

Example:

```
if(a!=b)a=b;           // one statement expected from the if condition  
if(a!=b)  
{ a=b;  
c=b; }                // when two or more statements are needed, a block statement must be used
```

### 3.4 Type-cast operators

To set or unset the const qualifier of a pointer or reference we can use the const\_cast operator:

```
<Lexpr>=const_cast<<C>>(<expr>);
```

```
<Lexpr>=const_cast<const <C>>(<expr>);
```

Examples:

```
const int* i=new int(3);  
int j=***const_cast<int*>(i);
```

In pointers of structures (or classes), in particular when inheritance is involved, (struct <C2>:<C1>) and have virtual functions the dynamic\_cast operator can be used:

```
<C1>* <aPC1C1>=new <C1>; // base allocated as base
```

```
<C1>* <aPC1C2>=new <C2>; // base allocated as derived
```

```
<aPC2C2>=dynamic_cast<<C2>>(<aPC1C2>); // note that <aPC2C2> can result 0 if no cast was performed
```

In other cases for pointers of structures, for example from void\* to another pointer, we can use the less-safe static\_cast operator:

`<Expr>=static_cast<<C>>(<expr>);`

This cast operator can invoke the overloaded cast operator if it is defined for a given struct or class. Type conversion operations are performed at compile-time

For low-level bitwise casting, the `reinterpret_cast` operator is used:

`<Expr>=reinterpret_cast<<C>>(<expr>);`

### 3.5 Sizeof operator

`sizeof(<T>)` // returns the number of bytes of type `<T>`  
`sizeof(<expr>)` // returns the number of bytes resulting from the evaluation of `<expr>`

Examples:

`sizeof(double)` // returns 8 in most cases  
`float f=3.0;`  
`sizeof(f-33.0)` // returns 4 in most cases

### 3.6 Conditional (ternary) operator

`<boolean_expr>?<expr_1>:<expr_2>;` // returns `<expr_1>` if `<boolean_expr>` evaluates to true and `<expr_2>` if not  
// note that `<expr_1>` and `<expr_2>` evaluations may be, in general, of different types

For example:

`apint==0?int():*apint` // returns the default value of int if apint is 0 or returns the value stored at apint's address.

## 4 Functions

### 4.1 Prototype and definition

```
<T> <name>(<LP>); // function prototype or declaration
[inline], <T> <name>(<LR>) // definition (note the difference between <LR> and <LP> and the lack of semicolon)
{// ← beginning of the function block
<statements>
[return(<expr>);] // return of <expr> only if <T> is not void
}// ← end of the function block
```

`<LR>` is the list of N received variables

If N==0 parenthesis are not omitted.

For N arguments, `<LR>` is given as:

`<T_0> <var_0> [=<expr_0>], <T_1> <var_1> [=<expr_1>], ..., <T_N-1> <var_N-1> [=<expr_N-1>]`

`<LP>` is the list of N received types

If N==0 parenthesis are not omitted.

For N arguments, `<LP>` is given as:

`<T_0>, <T_1>, ..., <T_N-1>`

In `<LR>`, the expressions `<expr_i>` provide the default value of the corresponding argument, and must satisfy:

If `<expr_i>` is present then `<expr_i+1>` must also be present. Strict reference arguments (&) cannot have default values. Avoid too many default values.

Examples<sup>5</sup>:

```
void test(const int&,char*,const double&); // declaration of a function named test
void test(const int& i,char* c,const double& d=100.0) // definition of test
{...}
double* newvector(unsigned dim=10)
{...
    return(new double[dim]); // with return value
}
```

### 4.2 Overloading

We can declare and define functions with the same name but with different lists of received types.

For example:

```
void print(const int& val) // will be invoked when an int is used in <LE>
void print(const double& val) // will be invoked when a double is used in <LE>
```

### 4.3 Argument passing

Each `<T_I>` in `<LP>` and `<LR>` should have one of the following forms:

```
<C> // passing by value, can receive any <expr> and will
      // not modify the argument (avoid except with reference-counting smart pointers)
const <C>& // passing by constant reference, can receive any <expr> and the expression will not be modified
<C>& // passing by reference, can only receive <Expr> and the expression can be modified
<C>&& // passing by rvalue reference, can receive any <expr>, and the expression can be modified if it is a <Expr>
<C>*& // a reference to pointer, for new and delete operations inside the function, also <Expr>
<C>* // a pointer (not recommended), also <Expr>
```

### 4.4 Return value

The return value (`<T>`) can be:

```
<C> // a copy of the calculated object is returned to the caller
[const] <C>& // a reference to an argument or to a static or heap object is returned
[const] <C>* // a pointer to an argument or to a heap variable defined inside the function is returned
```

<sup>5</sup>One can declare a function inline to improve performance, but this is better left to the compiler

## 4.5 Invocation

[`<Expr>=`] `<name>(<LE>);` // invocation of a function with a list of expressions  
The list of sent N expressions, `<LE>`, can be written as:  
`<expr_0>, <expr_1>, ..., <expr_N-1>`  
when N==0 then parenthesis cannot be omitted in the invocation.  
each of the expressions must be `<Expr>` if the corresponding type in `<LP>` is either `<C>&` or `<C>*&` (see previous sub-section)  
when default values are defined, then the corresponding argument can be omitted in the invocation.

## 4.6 Function pointers and references

Using pointers:

```
<T> (*<name>)(<LP>);           // declares <name> as a pointer to a function with <T> as return type
                                    // and <LP> as list of received arguments
<name>=&<name_of_function>;    // assigns an existing function (the & is not required)
[<Expr>=](*<name>)(<LE>);      // invokes the function
```

Using references:

```
<T> (&<name>)(<LP>)=<name_of_function>; // function reference
[<Expr>=](<name>)(<LE>);                  // invokes the function
```

With type synonyms:

```
typedef <T> (*<name>)(<LP>);           // this allows the direct use of name as a function name:
<name> <var>;                         // declares <var> as a pointer to function
```

## 4.7 Template function

Templatization provides type parametrization (i.e. types will also be arguments)

Declaration and definition formats:

```
template <typename Typ1[=<T1>], typename Typ2[=<T2>], ...> // note that Typ1 and Typ2 are type parameters
<T> <name>
{...// Typ1 and Typ2 can now be used as types }
invocation: <name>< <T1>, <T2>, ...>(<LE>); where <T1>, <T2>, ... are types.
The compiler is often able to determine the types, so that usage may also be:
<name>(<LE>);
```

## 5 Statements

### 5.1 Condition (if)

```
if(<boolean_expr>)<statement>; // the shortest version of the "if" condition
if(<boolean_expr>)           // with a else branch
<statement_0>;             // executes an statement if the <boolean_expr> is true
else                         // executes another statement if not
<statement_1>;

if(<boolean_expr_0>)          // if..else if..else version
<statement_0>;
else if(<boolean_expr_1>)
<statement_1>;
else if(<boolean_expr_2>)
<statement_2>;
...
else
<statement_N>;
```

### 5.2 Selection (switch)

```
switch(<integer_expression>)
{
case <const_integer_0>:
<statement_0>;
break;
case <const_integer_1>:
<statement_1>;
break;
default: // this branch will be executed when none of the above are satisfied
<default_statement>;
}
```

### 5.3 Loop (while)

```
while(<boolean_expression>)
<statement>;
```

### 5.4 Loop (do while)

```
do
<statement>;
while(<boolean_expression>)
```

### 5.5 Loop (for)

```
for([<initialization>]; [<continuation_condition>]; [<incrementation>])
<statement>;
```

Note that **initialization** and **incrementation** can have multiple statements separated by commas.

Examples:

```
for(int i(0);i!=n;++i)      // classical loop (note the prefix increment)
{...}

int i(1);                  // with separated initialization
for(;(i<n)&&(j>=0);++i,--j)
{...}

for(;;)                   // infinite loop with break condition
{...
if(i<n)break;}
```

## 5.6 Loop alterations

```
break;          // breaks out of the loop
continue;       // skips the remaining part of the loop
goto <label>; // goes to a line marked with a label
<label>:      // this marks a line with a label
```

# 6 Structs and classes

## 6.1 General considerations

Structs are user-defined types (user-defined **<C>**). Each struct definition should be valid for both const and non-const objects. Struct may contain type synonyms, enumerations, variables and member functions. Struct and class are similar: however, they have distinct default access for members and inheritance (public in struct and private in class).

Often, we have to use pointers or references to a struct before it is defined. A forward declaration can then be used:

```
struct <name_of_used_struct>; // forward declaration of a struct
struct <name_struct>
{... // use of pointers or references6 of objects of type <name_of_used_struct> }
```

## 6.2 Definition of a structure

```
struct <name_struct> [:[virtual] <name_ancestor_struct_1>],..., [virtual] <name_ancestor_struct_m>
// struct name and ancestor inheritance (virtual keyword indicates merging of the ancestors)
{ // ← beginning of the struct member declaration and definition
/* friend structs and functions will have full access to the contents of the structure (they are not inherited) */
friend struct <name_of_another_struct>;                                // friend struct declaration
friend <T> <name_of_a_function>(<LP>);                               // friend function declaration
/* typedef is a new type synonym defined by the class and can be accessed as <name_struct>::<type_name> */
typedef <T> <type_name>;
/* enumerations can also be defined in the class, such as <E>, and can be accessed as <name_struct>::<E> */
enum <E>
{ ... };
/* now the member variable and functions subsequent to access specifiers */
[public:|protected:|private:]                                         // access specifier
[mutable] <T> <var>;                                              // object variable
[virtual] <T> <name_of_function>(<LR>) [const] [=0][{...}|];        // member function
[virtual] <T> operator @(<LR>) [const] [=0][{...}|];                // member operator
using <name_ancestor_struct>::<name_of_function>;                  // access to ancestor member
/* classical constructor and destructor */
[explicit] <name_struct>(<LR>)[:<LI>]{...}                         // constructor, <LI> is the initialization list
[virtual] ~<name_struct>[=0]{...}                                     // destructor - should be virtual with polymorphic structs
/* static variables and functions */
static <T> <var_static>;                                           // static variable (instead use a
                                                               // static function with a reference)
static <T> <name_static>(<LR>){...}                                 // static function
}; // ← end of the struct member declaration and definition
<T> <name_struct>::<var_static>=<expr>;                         // static variable initialization
```

Note that the Lazyc++ tool simplifies the process of struct creation and allows the initiation of static variables in the struct definition.

In the struct, we have:

<LR> as the list of received variables  
<LP> as the list of received types and  
<LI> as the initialization list with the general form:  
<I1>, <I2>, <I3>, ...

Where each item <IJ> is either  
<varJ>(<LE\_J>) or  
<name\_ancestor\_struct>(<LE>) where the constructor of the ascending structure is used. Note that the compiler interprets the initialization list from the last to the first item.  
In <varJ>(<LE\_J>), <varJ> must be an object variable and <LE\_J> is the list of arguments of a corresponding constructor.

Access specifiers:

<sup>6</sup>Variables are not allowed

public: Access is granted to member functions and variables under this scope  
protected: Access is only granted to functions and variables from structs publicly derived <sup>7</sup>from the present one  
private: Access is only granted to functions and variables of objects of the same struct

#### In addition:

The virtual specifier indicates that the function is dynamically determined in a struct hierarchy, when the =0 suffix is used (it requires the virtual keyword), the function must be redefined by the descendants when needed.

#### It only needs to be identified in the base struct.

#### The post const keyword:

post const means that the function cannot alter non-mutable variables. Objects declared with the const keyword will only be able to invoke the const version of member functions. The mutable keyword indicates that the member variable is allowed to be changed by a const function. Mutator functions can alter the values of a given object and inspector functions cannot. The latter should have the const keyword.

#### Explicit keyword in the constructor:

the explicit keyword removes automatic type conversion effected by constructors that accept a single-argument, therefore eliminating possible cast ambiguities

#### Not inherited:

Constructors, destructors and the copy operator overload are not inherited by derived structs

#### Invoked by inheritance:

Default constructor and destructor

#### Virtual inheritance:

When the virtual keyword is used before the ancestor name, the following structs inheriting from more than one of the 'virtual-inheritance' structs will have a common base struct. The common base struct is called base node, the two or more 'virtual-inheritance' structs are called derived and the most derived class is the join struct.

## 6.3 Access to functions

```
<name_ancestor_struct>::<name_of_function>(<LE>);           // access to ancestor function  
Access to virtual member functions:  
<name_struct> <aname_struct>;                                // declaration of a object of a struct  
                                                               // (does not allow use of polymorphism)  
<name_ancestor_struct> * <pname_struct>=&<aname_struct>;  
<pname_struct>-><name_of_function>(<LE>);                // invokes name_struct virtual function or  
<name_ancestor_struct> * <pname_struct>=new <name_struct>; // the same effect with heap allocation
```

## 6.4 "this" pointer

```
this-><name_of_a_function>(<LE>);      // invokes a function on the given object  
this-><var>;                            // accesses a variable of a given object  
return(*this);                          // returns the object
```

## 6.5 Use of a structure

```
<name_struct> <aname_struct>(<LE>);          // object declaration  
<name_struct_base>*<pname_struct>=new <name_struct>(<LE>); // heap declaration of a pointer to base  
<name_struct>::<var_static>=...;             // use of a static variable  
<name_struct>::<name_static>(<LE>);        // invocation of a static function  
<name_struct>::<T> <aTinnname_struct>;     // use of a struct type synonym in a declaration of a variable;  
<name_struct>::<E> <aEinname_struct>;       // use of a struct enumeration in a declaration of a variable;  
<aname_struct>.<name_of_function>(<LE>);    // invocation of a function by an object  
<aname_struct>.operator@(<LE>);            // a form of invocation of a operator by an object  
<pname_struct>-><name_of_function>(<LE>); // invocation of a function by a pointer, same as  
                                                               // (* <pname_struct>).<name_of_function>(<LE>);  
typename <name_struct>::<type_name> <atypeinname_struct>; // use of a structure typedef
```

## 6.6 Other typical functions and operators

```
#include<iostream>                                         // includes the input/output library  
using namespace std;                                       // and uses the standard namespace  
struct... (see above) {  
friend ostream& operator<<(ostream&<out>,const <name_struct> *& <rhs>); // insertion operator (defined only in the base  
                                                               // should invoke a virtual function  
                                                               // for each derived struct, similar for binary)  
friend istream& operator>>(istream&<in>,<name_struct> *& <rhs>); // extraction operator (defined only in the base  
                                                               // should invoke a virtual function  
                                                               // for each derived struct, similar for binary)  
bool operator==(const <name_struct>& <other>) const {...}; // equality comparison  
bool operator!=(const <name_struct>& <other>) const {...}; // inequality comparison  
bool operator<(const <name_struct>& <other>) const {...}; // less-than comparison  
[virtual] <T>& operator[](unsigned index){...}           // access operator, non-constant  
[virtual] const <T>& operator[](unsigned index) const {...} // access operator, constant  
[virtual] <T>& operator()(<LR>) {...}                  // invocation operator  
[virtual] const <T>& operator()(<LR>) const {...}       // invocation operator (constant version)  
[virtual] <name_struct>* to<name_struct>{return(this);} // avoid dynamic_cast, requires the same  
                                                               // function in the base class  
<name_struct>(){...}                                     // default constructor  
explicit <name_struct>(<LR>):<LI> {...}           // constructor with initialization list  
operator <T>() const{}                                 // type cast (conversion) operator  
                                                               // will explicitly be invoked when a static_cast is used  
<name_struct>(const <name_struct>& <other>){...}        // copy constructor  
<name_struct>(<name_struct>&& <other>){...}        // move constructor, will subtract the resources of other  
[virtual] void swap(<name_struct>&){...}                 // swap function to be used in copy constructor  
[virtual] <name_struct>* clone() const[=0]{...}           // virtual clone (uses copy constructor)
```

```

[virtual] <name_struct>* create() const [=0]{...}
<name_struct>& operator=(const <name_struct>& <other>)
{if(this!=&<other>){...<name_ancestor_struct>::operator= (<other>);}
return(*this);}

<name_struct>& operator++(){...}
<name_struct> operator++(int trash){...}

<name_object>& operator*(){...}
const <name_object>& operator*() const {...}

<name_object>* operator->(){...}
const <name_object>* operator->() const {...}
friend const <name_struct> operator+
(const <name_struct>& first,const <name_struct>& second){...};

// virtual create (uses default constructor)
// assignment operator (don't forget self-assignment
// and ancestor assignment)
// the assignment operator is not inherited
// prefix increment
// suffix increment (a dummy int argument is used)
// dereference (*) operator
// dereference (*) operator, constant
// dereference (->) operator
// dereference (->) operator, constant
// addition operator as friend function
// other binary operators can also be friend functions

```

## 6.7 Synthesized member functions

- Default constructor (empty)
- Copy constructor (copies all member variables)
- Destructor (by default non-virtual if the base class does not possess a virtual destructor)
- Assignment operator (copies all member variables)
- Dereference operators

## 6.8 Template structs

Basic declaration and usage:

```

template <typename Typ1,typename Typ2,...> // note that Typ1 and Typ2 are type parameters
struct <name_struct>{                      // Typ1 and Typ2 can now be used as types}
usage: <name_struct><<T1>,<T2>,...> <var>; where <T1>, <T2>, ... are types

```

Specialization. When a specific instantiation of a template for type <T> is needed:

```

template <typename Typ>
struct <name_struct>{...};                  // general template
template <>
struct <name_struct> <<T>> {...};        // specialized template

```

## 6.9 Downcast to access functions in derived structs

```

<base>* <abase>=new <derived>;           // declares <abase> as a pointer to a base
                                                // struct and initializes as derived
<derived>* <aderived>=dynamic_cast< <derived>*>(<abase>); // casts to a pointer to a derived struct (<aderived> can result 0)
<aderived>-><name_of_function>(<LE>);    // accesses a function declared (and defined) in derived and
                                                // not declared in base

```

## 6.10 Pointer to struct members

We can use a variable to select which member function to invoke. The syntax is:

```

typedef <T> <name_struct>::*<synonym_pointer>;          // defines <synonym_pointer> as a pointer to a member variable
typedef <T> (<name_struct>::*<synonym_pointer>)(<LP>)[const]; // defines <synonym_pointer> as a pointer to a member function:
<synonym_pointer> <apointer>;                          // declares <apointer> as a pointer to a member function
<apointer>=&<name_struct>::<name_member_function>;      // assigns a specific member functions to <apointer>
[<Lexpr>=] (<name>.*<apointer>)(<LE>);            // with <name> being an
                                                       // object of type <name_struct>, invokes a member function
[<Lexpr>=] (<name>->*<apointer>)(<LE>);          // with <name> being a pointer to an
                                                       // object of type <name_struct>, invokes a member function

```

Invocation macro (to avoid the previous syntax):

```
#define INVOKE_MEMBER(name,apointer) ((name).*(apointer))
```

## 7 User-defined namespaces

To define a scope spanning one file or more, the user can create a named namespace:

```
namespace <namespace_name>{ <contents> } // <contents> is composed of typedefs, variables, structs, etc
```

The scope operator :: is used to access the contents of a namespace. For example, if a struct point was declared in namespace custom, a variable can be declared as:

```
custom::point var;
```

In alternative, we can use the keyword using:

```
using namespace custom;
```

```
point var;
```

Specific <contents> use can also be prescribed:

```
using custom::point;
```

```
point var;
```

Global variables and functions can be used with the global scope operator ::

```
::var; // in alternative, they can be inserted in a unnamed namespace.
```

## 8 Exceptions

```
try
{ // code that may throw exceptions or invocation of such code
throw <expr> }
catch(<T> <var>) // catches the type returned by a previous <expr>
{ // code that will be invoked according to the value of <var>}
catch(...) // catches any throw
{ // code that will be invoked to handle any exception }
```

## 9 Tools

Tool to generate header and source from a .lzz file (LazyC++): <http://www.lazycplusplus.com/>  
Tool to improve the source-code readability: <http://astyle.sourceforge.net/>

## 10 Additional information

Scott Meyers, Effective C++, Third Edition, Addison-Wesley 2005  
ISO/IEC 14882:2003(E) Second Edition International Standard, Programming Languages - C++