C# 7.0 Pocket Reference

When you need answers for programming with C# 7.0, this tightly focused reference tells you exactly what you need to know—without long introductions or bloated examples. Easy-to-browse and ideal as a quick reference, this guide will help experienced C#, Java, and C++ programmers get up to speed with the latest version of the C# language.

All programs and code snippets in this book are available as interactive samples in LINQPad. You can edit these samples and instantly see the results without needing to set up projects in Visual Studio. Written by the authors of C# 7.0 in a Nutshell, this pocket reference covers C# 7.0 without skimping on detail, including:

- All of C#'s fundamentals
- Features new to C# 7.0, including tuples, pattern matching, and destructors
- Advanced topics: operator overloading, type constraints, iterators, nullable types, operator lifting, lambda expressions, and closures
- LINQ: sequences, lazy execution, standard query operators, and query expressions
- Unsafe code and pointers, custom attributes, preprocessor directives, and XML documentation

Joseph Albahari, coauthor of C# 7.0 in a Nutshell and LINQ Pocket Reference, also wrote LINQPad, the popular code scratchpad and LINQ querying utility.

Ben Albahari, coauthor of C# 7.0 in a Nutshell, is a former Program Manager on the Entity Framework team at Microsoft.

oreilly.com, Twitter: @oreillymedia
# Table of Contents

## C# 7.0 Pocket Reference
- Conventions Used in This Book 2
- Using Code Examples 3
- O’Reilly Safari 3
- How to Contact Us 4
- A First C# Program 5
- Syntax 8
- Type Basics 11
- Numeric Types 20
- Boolean Type and Operators 28
- Strings and Characters 29
- Arrays 34
- Variables and Parameters 38
- Expressions and Operators 46
- Null Operators 52
- Statements 54
- Namespaces 63
- Classes 67
- Inheritance 82
| The object Type | 91 |
| Structs | 95 |
| Access Modifiers | 96 |
| Interfaces | 98 |
| Enums | 101 |
| Nested Types | 104 |
| Generics | 105 |
| Delegates | 114 |
| Events | 120 |
| Lambda Expressions | 126 |
| Anonymous Methods | 131 |
| try Statements and Exceptions | 132 |
| Enumeration and Iterators | 140 |
| Nullable Types | 146 |
| Extension Methods | 151 |
| Anonymous Types | 153 |
| Tuples (C# 7) | 154 |
| LINQ | 156 |
| Dynamic Binding | 182 |
| Operator Overloading | 191 |
| Attributes | 194 |
| Caller Info Attributes | 198 |
| Asynchronous Functions | 199 |
| Unsafe Code and Pointers | 209 |
| Preprocessor Directives | 213 |
| XML Documentation | 215 |
| Index | 219 |
C# is a general-purpose, type-safe, object-oriented programming language. The goal of the language is programmer productivity. To this end, the language balances simplicity, expressiveness, and performance. The C# language is platform-neutral, but it was written to work well with the Microsoft .NET Framework. C# 7.0 targets .NET Framework 4.6/4.7.

NOTE

The programs and code snippets in this book mirror those in Chapters 2 through 4 of *C# 7.0 in a Nutshell* and are all available as interactive samples in LINQPad. Working through these samples in conjunction with the book accelerates learning in that you can edit the samples and instantly see the results without needing to set up projects and solutions in Visual Studio.

To download the samples, click the Samples tab in LINQPad and click “Download more samples.” LINQPad is free — go to [http://www.linqpad.net](http://www.linqpad.net).
Conventions Used in This Book

The following typographical conventions are used in this book:

*Italic*
Indicates new terms, URLs, email addresses, filenames, and file extensions.

*Constant width*
Used for program listings, as well as within paragraphs to refer to program elements such as variable or function names, databases, data types, environment variables, statements, and keywords.

*Constant width bold*
Shows commands or other text that should be typed literally by the user.

*Constant width italic*
Shows text that should be replaced with user-supplied values or by values determined by context.

---

**TIP**
This element signifies a tip or suggestion.

---

**NOTE**
This element signifies a general note.

---

**WARNING**
This element indicates a warning or caution.
**Using Code Examples**

The programs and code snippets in this book are all available as interactive samples in LINQPad. To download the samples, go to [http://bit.ly/linqpad_csharp7_samples](http://bit.ly/linqpad_csharp7_samples).

This book is here to help you get your job done. In general, if example code is offered with this book, you may use it in your programs and documentation. You do not need to contact us for permission unless you’re reproducing a significant portion of the code. For example, writing a program that uses several chunks of code from this book does not require permission. Selling or distributing a CD-ROM of examples from O’Reilly books does require permission. Answering a question by citing this book and quoting example code does not require permission. Incorporating a significant amount of example code from this book into your product’s documentation does require permission.

We appreciate, but do not require, attribution. An attribution usually includes the title, author, publisher, and ISBN. For example: “C# 7.0 Pocket Reference by Joseph Albahari and Ben Albahari (O’Reilly). Copyright 2017 Joseph Albahari, Ben Albahari, 978-1-491-98853-4.”

If you feel your use of code examples falls outside fair use or the permission given above, feel free to contact us at permissions@oreilly.com.

**O’Reilly Safari**

Safari (formerly Safari Books Online) is a membership-based training and reference platform for enterprise, government, educators, and individuals.

For more information, please visit http://oreilly.com/safari.

How to Contact Us

Please address comments and questions concerning this book to the publisher:

O’Reilly Media, Inc.
1005 Gravenstein Highway North
Sebastopol, CA 95472
800-998-9938 (in the United States or Canada)
707-829-0515 (international or local)
707-829-0104 (fax)

We have a web page for this book, where we list errata, examples, and any additional information. You can access this page at http://bit.ly/csharp_7_pocketref.

To comment or ask technical questions about this book, send email to bookquestions@oreilly.com.

For more information about our books, courses, conferences, and news, see our website at http://www.oreilly.com.

Find us on Facebook: http://facebook.com/oreilly

Follow us on Twitter: http://twitter.com/oreillymedia

Watch us on YouTube: http://www.youtube.com/oreillymedia
A First C# Program

Here is a program that multiplies 12 by 30 and prints the result, 360, to the screen. The double forward slash indicates that the remainder of a line is a comment.

```csharp
using System;                 // Importing namespace

class Test                    // Class declaration
{
    static void Main()          // Method declaration
    {
        int x = 12 * 30;          // Statement 1
        Console.WriteLine (x);    // Statement 2
    }                           // End of method
}                             // End of class
```

At the heart of this program lie two statements. Statements in C# execute sequentially and are terminated by a semicolon. The first statement computes the expression 12 * 30 and stores the result in a local variable, named x, which is an integer type. The second statement calls the Console class’s WriteLine method to print the variable x to a text window on the screen.

A method performs an action in a series of statements, called a statement block—a pair of braces containing zero or more statements. We defined a single method named Main.

Writing higher-level functions that call upon lower-level functions simplifies a program. We can refactor our program with a reusable method that multiplies an integer by 12, as follows:

```csharp
using System;

class Test
{
    static void Main()
    {
        Console.WriteLine (FeetToInches (30));    // 360
        Console.WriteLine (FeetToInches (100));   // 1200
    }

    static int FeetToInches (int feet)
    {
```
int inches = feet * 12;
    return inches;
}
}

A method can receive input data from the caller by specifying parameters, and output data back to the caller by specifying a return type. We defined a method called FeetToInches that has a parameter for inputting feet, and a return type for outputting inches, both of type int (integer).

The literals 30 and 100 are the arguments passed to the FeetToInches method. The Main method in our example has empty parentheses because it has no parameters, and is void because it doesn’t return any value to its caller. C# recognizes a method called Main as signaling the default entry point of execution. The Main method may optionally return an integer (rather than void) in order to return a value to the execution environment. The Main method can also optionally accept an array of strings as a parameter (that will be populated with any arguments passed to the executable). For example:

```
static int Main (string[] args) {...}
```

---

**NOTE**

An array (such as string[]) represents a fixed number of elements of a particular type (see “Arrays” on page 34).

---

Methods are one of several kinds of functions in C#. Another kind of function we used was the * operator, which performs multiplication. There are also constructors, properties, events, indexers, and finalizers.

In our example, the two methods are grouped into a class. A class groups function members and data members to form an object-oriented building block. The Console class groups members that handle command-line input/output functionality, such as the WriteLine method. Our Test class groups two
methods—the Main method and the FeetToInches method. A class is a kind of type, which we will examine in “Type Basics” on page 11.

At the outermost level of a program, types are organized into namespaces. The using directive makes the System namespace available to our application to use the Console class. We could define all our classes within the TestPrograms namespace as follows:

```csharp
using System;

namespace TestPrograms
{
    class Test {...}
    class Test2 {...}
}
```

The .NET Framework is organized into nested namespaces. For example, this is the namespace that contains types for handling text:

```csharp
using System.Text;
```

The using directive is there for convenience; you can also refer to a type by its fully qualified name, which is the type name prefixed with its namespace, such as System.Text.StringBuilder.

**Compilation**

The C# compiler compiles source code, specified as a set of files with the .cs extension, into an assembly. An assembly is the unit of packaging and deployment in .NET. An assembly can be either an application or a library. A normal console or Windows application has a Main method and is an .exe file. A library is a .dll and is equivalent to an .exe without an entry point. Its purpose is to be called upon (referenced) by an application or by other libraries. The .NET Framework is a set of libraries.
The name of the C# compiler is \texttt{csc.exe}. You can use either an IDE such as Visual Studio to compile, or call \texttt{csc} manually from the command line. To compile manually, first save a program to a file such as \texttt{MyFirstProgram.cs}, and then go to the command line and invoke \texttt{csc} (located in \%ProgramFiles(X86)\%\msbuild\14.0\bin) as follows:
\[
csc MyFirstProgram.cs
\]
This produces an application named \texttt{MyFirstProgram.exe}.

To produce a library (.dll), do the following:
\[
csc /target:library MyFirstProgram.cs
\]

\textbf{WARNING}

Peculiarly, .NET Framework 4.6 and 4.7 ship with the C# 5 compiler. To obtain the C# 7 command-line compiler, you must install Visual Studio 2017 or MSBuild 15.

\textbf{Syntax}

C# syntax is inspired by C and C++ syntax. In this section, we will describe C#'s elements of syntax, using the following program:
\[
\begin{verbatim}
using System;

class Test
{
    static void Main()
    {
        int x = 12 * 30;
        Console.WriteLine (x);
    }
}
\end{verbatim}
\]
Identifiers and Keywords

Identifiers are names that programmers choose for their classes, methods, variables, and so on. These are the identifiers in our example program, in the order in which they appear:

System   Test   Main   x   Console   WriteLine

An identifier must be a whole word, essentially made up of Unicode characters starting with a letter or underscore. C# identifiers are case-sensitive. By convention, parameters, local variables, and private fields should be in camel case (e.g., myVariable), and all other identifiers should be in Pascal case (e.g., MyMethod).

Keywords are names that mean something special to the compiler. These are the keywords in our example program:

using   class   static   void   int

Most keywords are reserved, which means that you can’t use them as identifiers. Here is the full list of C# reserved keywords:

abstract   double   interface   ref   ulong
as   else   internal   return   unchecked
base   enum   is   sbyte   unsafe
bool   event   lock   sealed   ushort
break   explicit   long   short   using
byte   extern   namespace   sizeof   virtual
case   false   new   stackalloc   void
catch   finally   null   static   while
char   fixed   object   string
checked   float   operator   struct
class   for   out   switch
case   foreach   override   this
continue   goto   params   throw
decimal   if   private   true
default   implicit   protected   try
delegate   in   public   typeof
do   int   readonly   uint
Avoiding conflicts

If you really want to use an identifier that clashes with a reserved keyword, you can do so by qualifying it with the @ prefix. For instance:

```csharp
class class {...}      // Illegal
class @class {...}      // Legal
```

The @ symbol doesn’t form part of the identifier itself. So @myVariable is the same as myVariable.

Contextual keywords

Some keywords are contextual, meaning they can also be used as identifiers—without an @ symbol. These are:

```
add       equals       join       select
ascending from     let       set
async     get         nameof     value
await     global      on        var
by        group      orderby     when
descending in     partial     where
dynamic   into       remove     yield
```

With contextual keywords, ambiguity cannot arise within the context in which they are used.

Literals, Punctuators, and Operators

`Literals` are primitive pieces of data lexically embedded into the program. The literals in our example program are 12 and 30. `Punctuators` help demarcate the structure of the program. The punctuators in our program are {, }, and ;.

The braces group multiple statements into a `statement block`. The semicolon terminates a (nonblock) statement. Statements can wrap multiple lines:

```csharp
Console.WriteLine
    (1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7 + 8 + 9 + 10);
```
An operator transforms and combines expressions. Most operators in C# are denoted with a symbol, such as the multiplication operator, *. The operators in our program are:

. () * =

A period denotes a member of something (or a decimal point with numeric literals). The parentheses, in our example, appear where we declare or call a method; empty parentheses mean that the method accepts no arguments. The equals sign performs assignment (the double equals, ==, performs equality comparison).

Comments

C# offers two different styles of source code documentation: single-line comments and multiline comments. A single-line comment begins with a double forward slash and continues until the end of the current line. For example:

```csharp
int x = 3;   // Comment about assigning 3 to x
```

A multiline comment begins with /* and ends with */. For example:

```csharp
int x = 3;   /* This is a comment that spans two lines */
```

Comments may embed XML documentation tags (see “XML Documentation” on page 215).

Type Basics

A type defines the blueprint for a value. In our example, we used two literals of type int with the values 12 and 30. We also declared a variable of type int whose name was x.

A variable denotes a storage location that can contain different values over time. In contrast, a constant always represents the same value (more on this later).
All values in C# are an instance of a specific type. The meaning of a value, and the set of possible values a variable can have, is determined by its type.

**Predefined Type Examples**

Predefined types (also called built-in types) are types that are specially supported by the compiler. The int type is a predefined type for representing the set of integers that fit into 32 bits of memory, from \(-2^{31}\) to \(2^{31} - 1\). We can perform functions such as arithmetic with instances of the int type as follows:

```csharp
int x = 12 * 30;
```

Another predefined C# type is string. The string type represents a sequence of characters, such as “.NET” or “http://oreilly.com”. We can work with strings by calling functions on them as follows:

```csharp
string message = "Hello world";
string upperMessage = message.ToUpper();
Console.WriteLine(upperMessage);  // HELLO WORLD

int x = 2015;
message = message + x.ToString();
Console.WriteLine(message);       // Hello world2015
```

The predefined bool type has exactly two possible values: true and false. The bool type is commonly used to conditionally branch execution flow with an if statement. For example:

```csharp
bool simpleVar = false;
if (simpleVar)
    Console.WriteLine("This will not print");

int x = 5000;
bool lessThanAMile = x < 5280;
if (lessThanAMile)
    Console.WriteLine("This will print");
```
NOTE

The System namespace in the .NET Framework contains many important types that are not predefined by C# (e.g., DateTime).

Custom Type Examples

Just as we can build complex functions from simple functions, we can build complex types from primitive types. In this example, we will define a custom type named UnitConverter—a class that serves as a blueprint for unit conversions:

```csharp
using System;

public class UnitConverter
{
    int ratio;                     // Field

    public UnitConverter (int unitRatio)  // Constructor
    {
        ratio = unitRatio;
    }

    public int Convert (int unit)          // Method
    {
        return unit * ratio;
    }
}

class Test
{
    static void Main()
    {
        UnitConverter feetToInches = new UnitConverter(12);
        UnitConverter milesToFeet = new UnitConverter(5280);

        Console.Write (feetToInches.Convert(30));   // 360
        Console.Write (feetToInches.Convert(100));  // 1200
        Console.Write (feetToInches.Convert (milesToFeet.Convert(1)));  // 63360
    }
}
```
Members of a type

A type contains data members and function members. The data member of UnitConverter is the field called ratio. The function members of UnitConverter are the Convert method and the UnitConverter’s constructor.

Symmetry of predefined types and custom types

A beautiful aspect of C# is that predefined types and custom types have few differences. The predefined int type serves as a blueprint for integers. It holds data—32 bits—and provides function members that use that data, such as ToString. Similarly, our custom UnitConverter type acts as a blueprint for unit conversions. It holds data—the ratio—and provides function members to use that data.

Constructors and instantiation

Data is created by instantiating a type. We can instantiate predefined types simply by using a literal such as 12 or "Hello world".

The new operator creates instances of a custom type. We started our Main method by creating two instances of the UnitConverter type. Immediately after the new operator instantiates an object, the object’s constructor is called to perform initialization. A constructor is defined like a method, except that the method name and return type are reduced to the name of the enclosing type:

```csharp
public UnitConverter (int unitRatio)   // Constructor
{
    ratio = unitRatio;
}
```

Instance versus static members

The data members and function members that operate on the instance of the type are called instance members. The UnitConverter’s Convert method and the int’s ToString method
are examples of instance members. By default, members are instance members.

Data members and function members that don’t operate on the instance of the type, but rather on the type itself, must be marked as static. The Test.Main and Console.WriteLine methods are static methods. The Console class is actually a static class, which means that all of its members are static. You never actually create instances of a Console—one console is shared across the entire application.

Let’s contrast instance with static members. In the following code, the instance field Name pertains to an instance of a particular Panda, whereas Population pertains to the set of all Panda instances:

```csharp
public class Panda
{
    public string Name;           // Instance field
    public static int Population; // Static field

    public Panda (string n)       // Constructor
    {
        Name = n;                   // Assign instance field
        Population = Population+1;  // Increment static field
    }
}
```

The following code creates two instances of the Panda, prints their names, and then prints the total population:

```csharp
Panda p1 = new Panda ("Pan Dee");
Panda p2 = new Panda ("Pan Dah");

Console.WriteLine (p1.Name);      // Pan Dee
Console.WriteLine (p2.Name);      // Pan Dah
Console.WriteLine (Panda.Population);   // 2
```

The public keyword

The public keyword exposes members to other classes. In this example, if the Name field in Panda were not marked as public, it would be private and the Test class could not access it. Mark-
ing a member public is how a type communicates: “Here is what I want other types to see—everything else is my own private implementation details.” In object-oriented terms, we say that the public members *encapsulate* the private members of the class.

**Conversions**

C# can convert between instances of compatible types. A conversion always creates a new value from an existing one. Conversions can be either *implicit* or *explicit*: implicit conversions happen automatically, whereas explicit conversions require a *cast*. In the following example, we *implicitly* convert an *int* to a *long* type (which has twice the bitwise capacity of an *int*) and *explicitly* cast an *int* to a *short* type (which has half the bitwise capacity of an *int*):

```csharp
int x = 12345;       // int is a 32-bit integer
long y = x;          // Implicit conversion to 64-bit int
short z = (short)x;  // Explicit conversion to 16-bit int
```

In general, implicit conversions are allowed when the compiler can guarantee they will always succeed without loss of information. Otherwise, you must perform an explicit cast to convert between compatible types.

**Value Types Versus Reference Types**

C# types can be divided into *value types* and *reference types*.

*Value types* comprise most built-in types (specifically, all numeric types, the *char* type, and the *bool* type) as well as custom *struct* and *enum* types. *Reference types* comprise all class, array, delegate, and interface types.

The fundamental difference between value types and reference types is how they are handled in memory.
Value types

The content of a value type variable or constant is simply a value. For example, the content of the built-in value type `int` is 32 bits of data.

You can define a custom value type with the `struct` keyword (see Figure 1):

```csharp
public struct Point { public int X, Y; }
```

![Figure 1. A value type instance in memory](image)

The assignment of a value type instance always copies the instance. For example:

```csharp
Point p1 = new Point();
p1.X = 7;

Point p2 = p1;            // Assignment causes copy

Console.WriteLine (p1.X);  // 7
Console.WriteLine (p2.X);  // 7

p1.X = 9;                  // Change p1.X
Console.WriteLine (p1.X);  // 9
Console.WriteLine (p2.X);  // 7
```

Figure 2 shows that `p1` and `p2` have independent storage.

![Figure 2. Assignment copies a value type instance](image)
Reference types

A reference type is more complex than a value type, having two parts: an object and the reference to that object. The content of a reference type variable or constant is a reference to an object that contains the value. Here is the Point type from our previous example rewritten as a class (see Figure 3):

```csharp
public class Point { public int X, Y; }
```

![Figure 3. A reference type instance in memory](image)

Assigning a reference type variable copies the reference, not the object instance. This allows multiple variables to refer to the same object—something that is not ordinarily possible with value types. If we repeat the previous example, but with Point now a class, an operation via p1 affects p2:

```csharp
Point p1 = new Point();
p1.X = 7;

Point p2 = p1; // Copies p1 reference
Console.WriteLine (p1.X); // 7
Console.WriteLine (p2.X); // 7
p1.X = 9; // Change p1.X
Console.WriteLine (p1.X); // 9
Console.WriteLine (p2.X); // 9
```

Figure 4 shows that p1 and p2 are two references that point to the same object.
Null

A reference can be assigned the literal null, indicating that the reference points to no object. Assuming Point is a class:

```
Point p = null;
Console.WriteLine (p == null);  // True
```

Accessing a member of a null reference generates a runtime error:

```
Console.WriteLine (p.X);  // NullReferenceException
```

In contrast, a value type cannot ordinarily have a null value:

```
struct Point {...}
...
Point p = null;  // Compile-time error
int x = null;    // Compile-time error
```

---

NOTE

C# has a special construct called nullable types for representing value type nulls (see “Nullable Types” on page 146).

---

Predefined Type Taxonomy

The predefined types in C# are:

Value types
- Numeric
— Signed integer (sbyte, short, int, long)
— Unsigned integer (byte, ushort, uint, ulong)
— Real number (float, double, decimal)

- Logical (bool)
- Character (char)

Reference types
- String (string)
- Object (object)

Predefined types in C# alias .NET Framework types in the System namespace. There is only a syntactic difference between these two statements:

```csharp
int i = 5;
System.Int32 i = 5;
```

The set of predefined value types excluding `decimal` are known as primitive types in the Common Language Runtime (CLR). Primitive types are so called because they are supported directly via instructions in compiled code, which usually translates to direct support on the underlying processor.

## Numeric Types

C# has the following predefined numeric types:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C# type</th>
<th>System type</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Size</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sbyte</td>
<td>SByte</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>(-2^7 \text{ to } 2^7 - 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>Int16</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>(-2^{15} \text{ to } 2^{15} - 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
<td>Int32</td>
<td></td>
<td>32</td>
<td>(-2^{31} \text{ to } 2^{31} - 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>Int64</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>(-2^{63} \text{ to } 2^{63} - 1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

20 | C# 7.0 Pocket Reference
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C# type</th>
<th>System type</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Size</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>byte</td>
<td>Byte</td>
<td></td>
<td>8 bits</td>
<td>0 to $2^8-1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ushort</td>
<td>UInt16</td>
<td></td>
<td>16 bits</td>
<td>0 to $2^{16}-1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uint</td>
<td>UInt32</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>32 bits</td>
<td>0 to $2^{32}-1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ulong</td>
<td>UInt64</td>
<td>UL</td>
<td>64 bits</td>
<td>0 to $2^{64}-1$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the integral types, int and long are first-class citizens and are favored by both C# and the runtime. The other integral types are typically used for interoperability or when space efficiency is paramount.

Of the real number types, float and double are called floating-point types and are typically used for scientific and graphical calculations. The decimal type is typically used for financial calculations, where base-10-accurate arithmetic and high precision are required. (Technically, decimal is a floating-point type too, although it’s not generally referred to as such.)

**Numeric Literals**

Integral-typed literals can use decimal or hexadecimal notation; hexadecimal is denoted with the 0x prefix (e.g., 0x7f is equivalent to 127). From C# 7, you can also use the 0b prefix for binary literals. Real literals may use decimal or exponential notation such as 1E06.

From C# 7, underscores may be inserted within a numeric literal to improve readability (e.g., 1_000_000).
Numeric literal type inference

By default, the compiler infers a numeric literal to be either of type double or an integral type:

- If the literal contains a decimal point or the exponential symbol (E), it is a double.
- Otherwise, the literal’s type is the first type in this list that can fit the literal’s value: int, uint, long, and ulong.

For example:

```
Console.WriteLine(1.0.GetType()); // Double (double)
Console.WriteLine(1E06.GetType()); // Double (double)
Console.WriteLine(1.GetType()); // Int32 (int)
Console.WriteLine(0xF0000000.GetType()); // UInt32 (uint)
Console.WriteLine(0x100000000.GetType()); // Int64 (long)
```

Numeric suffixes

The numeric suffixes listed in the preceding table explicitly define the type of a literal:

```
decimal d = 3.5M;   // M = decimal (case-insensitive)
```

The suffixes U and L are rarely necessary because the uint, long, and ulong types can nearly always be either inferred or implicitly converted from int:

```
long i = 5;     // Implicit conversion from int to long
```

The D suffix is technically redundant, in that all literals with a decimal point are inferred to be double (and you can always add a decimal point to a numeric literal). The F and M suffixes are the most useful and are mandatory when you’re specifying fractional float or decimal literals. Without suffixes, the following would not compile, because 4.5 would be inferred to be of type double, which has no implicit conversion to float or decimal:

```
float f = 4.5F;       // Won't compile without suffix
decimal d = -1.23M;   // Won't compile without suffix
```
Numeric Conversions

Integral to integral conversions

Integral conversions are *implicit* when the destination type can represent every possible value of the source type. Otherwise, an *explicit* conversion is required. For example:

```c
int x = 12345;       // int is a 32-bit integral type
long y = x;          // Implicit conversion to 64-bit int
short z = (short)x;  // Explicit conversion to 16-bit int
```

Real to real conversions

A float can be implicitly converted to a double, given that a double can represent every possible float value. The reverse conversion must be explicit.

Conversions between `decimal` and other real types must be explicit.

Real to integral conversions

Conversions from integral types to real types are implicit, whereas the reverse must be explicit. Converting from a floating-point to an integral type truncates any fractional portion; to perform rounding conversions, use the static `System.Convert` class.

A caveat is that implicitly converting a large integral type to a floating-point type preserves *magnitude* but may occasionally lose *precision*:

```c
int i1 = 100000001;
float f = i1;      // Magnitude preserved, precision lost
int i2 = (int)f;   // 100000000
```

Arithmetic Operators

The arithmetic operators (+, -, *, /, %) are defined for all numeric types except the 8- and 16-bit integral types. The `%` operator evaluates the remainder after division.
Increment and Decrement Operators

The increment and decrement operators (++, --) increment and decrement numeric types by 1. The operator can either precede or follow the variable, depending on whether you want the variable to be updated before or after the expression is evaluated. For example:

```csharp
int x = 0;
Console.WriteLine (x++);   // Outputs 0; x is now 1
Console.WriteLine (++x);   // Outputs 2; x is now 2
Console.WriteLine (--x);   // Outputs 1; x is now 1
```

Specialized Integral Operations

Division

Division operations on integral types always truncate remainders (rounding toward zero). Dividing by a variable whose value is zero generates a runtime error (a DivideByZeroException). Dividing by the literal or constant 0 generates a compile-time error.

Overflow

At runtime, arithmetic operations on integral types can overflow. By default, this happens silently—no exception is thrown and the result exhibits wraparound behavior, as though the computation were done on a larger integer type and the extra significant bits discarded. For example, decrementing the minimum possible int value results in the maximum possible int value:

```csharp
int a = int.MinValue; a--;
Console.WriteLine (a == int.MaxValue); // True
```

The checked and unchecked operators

The checked operator tells the runtime to generate an OverflowException rather than overflowing silently when an integral-typed expression or statement exceeds the arithmetic limits of that type. The checked operator affects expressions with the ++,
You can use checked around either an expression or a statement block. For example:

```csharp
int a = 1000000, b = 1000000;

int c = checked (a * b);   // Checks just the expression
checked                    // Checks all expressions
{
    c = a * b;
    ...
}
```

You can make arithmetic overflow checking the default for all expressions in a program by compiling with the /checked+ command-line switch (in Visual Studio, go to Advanced Build Settings). If you then need to disable overflow checking just for specific expressions or statements, you can do so with the unchecked operator.

**Bitwise operators**

C# supports the following bitwise operators:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Sample expression</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>~</td>
<td>Complement</td>
<td>~0xFU</td>
<td>0xfffffffff0U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>And</td>
<td>0xF0 &amp; 0x33</td>
<td>0x30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Or</td>
<td>0xF0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>^</td>
<td>Exclusive Or</td>
<td>0xFF00 ^ 0x0ff0</td>
<td>0x0f0f0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;&lt;</td>
<td>Shift left</td>
<td>0x20 &lt;&lt; 2</td>
<td>0x80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt;</td>
<td>Shift right</td>
<td>0x20 &gt;&gt; 1</td>
<td>0x10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**8- and 16-Bit Integral Types**

The 8- and 16-bit integral types are byte, sbyte, short, and ushort. These types lack their own arithmetic operators, so C#
implicitly converts them to larger types as required. This can cause a compilation error when trying to assign the result back to a small integral type:

```csharp
short x = 1, y = 1;
short z = x + y;          // Compile-time error
```

In this case, `x` and `y` are implicitly converted to `int` so that the addition can be performed. This means that the result is also an `int`, which cannot be implicitly cast back to a `short` (because it could cause loss of data). To make this compile, we must add an explicit cast:

```csharp
short z = (short) (x + y);   // OK
```

### Special Float and Double Values

Unlike integral types, floating-point types have values that certain operations treat specially. These special values are NaN (Not a Number), \(+\infty\), \(-\infty\), and \(-0\). The `float` and `double` classes have constants for NaN, \(+\infty\), and \(-\infty\) (as well as other values including `MaxValue`, `MinValue`, and `Epsilon`). For example:

```csharp
Console.Write (double.NegativeInfinity);   // -Infinity
```

Dividing a nonzero number by zero results in an infinite value:

```csharp
Console.WriteLine ( 1.0 /  0.0);   //  Infinity
Console.WriteLine (−1.0 /  0.0);   // -Infinity
Console.WriteLine ( 1.0 / −0.0);   // -Infinity
Console.WriteLine (−1.0 / −0.0);   //  Infinity
```

Dividing zero by zero, or subtracting infinity from infinity, results in a NaN:

```csharp
Console.Write ( 0.0 / 0.0);                 //  NaN
Console.Write ((1.0 / 0.0) − (1.0 / 0.0));  //  NaN
```

When you use `==`, a NaN value is never equal to another value, even another NaN value. To test whether a value is NaN, you must use the `float.IsNaN` or `double.IsNaN` method:

```csharp
Console.WriteLine (0.0 / 0.0 == double.NaN);    // False
Console.WriteLine (double.IsNaN (0.0 / 0.0));   // True
```
When you use `object.Equals`, however, two NaN values are equal:

```csharp
bool isTrue = object.Equals(0.0/0.0, double.NaN);
```

## double Versus decimal

double is useful for scientific computations (such as computing spatial coordinates). decimal is useful for financial computations and values that are “man-made” rather than the result of real-world measurements. Here’s a summary of the differences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>double</th>
<th>decimal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal representation</td>
<td>Base 2</td>
<td>Base 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision</td>
<td>15–16 significant figures</td>
<td>28–29 significant figures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>±(−10^{−324} to 10^{308})</td>
<td>±(−10^{−28} to 10^{28})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special values</td>
<td>+0, −0, +∞, −∞, and NaN</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>Native to processor</td>
<td>Non-native to processor (about 10 times slower than double)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Real Number Rounding Errors

float and double internally represent numbers in base 2. For this reason, most literals with a fractional component (which are in base 10) will not be represented precisely:

```csharp
float tenth = 0.1f;                     // Not quite 0.1
float one   = 1f;
Console.WriteLine (one - tenth * 10f);  // -1.490116E-08
```

This is why float and double are bad for financial calculations. In contrast, decimal works in base 10 and so can precisely represent fractional numbers such as 0.1 (whose base-10 representation is nonrecurring).
Boolean Type and Operators

C#’s `bool` type (aliasing the `System.Boolean` type) is a logical value that can be assigned the literal `true` or `false`.

Although a Boolean value requires only one bit of storage, the runtime will use one byte of memory because this is the minimum chunk that the runtime and processor can efficiently work with. To avoid space inefficiency in the case of arrays, the Framework provides a `BitArray` class in the `System.Collections` namespace that is designed to use just one bit per Boolean value.

Equality and Comparison Operators

`==` and `!=` test for equality and inequality of any type, and always return a `bool` value. Value types typically have a very simple notion of equality:

```csharp
int x = 1, y = 2, z = 1;
Console.WriteLine (x == y);      // False
Console.WriteLine (x == z);      // True
```

For reference types, equality, by default, is based on `reference`, as opposed to the actual `value` of the underlying object. Therefore, two instances of an object with identical data are not considered equal unless the `==` operator for that type is specially overloaded to that effect (see “The object Type” on page 91 and “Operator Overloading” on page 191).

The equality and comparison operators, `==`, `!=`, `<`, `>`, `>=` and `<=`, work for all numeric types, but should be used with caution with real numbers (see “Real Number Rounding Errors” on page 27 in the previous section). The comparison operators also work on `enum` type members, by comparing their underlying integral values.

Conditional Operators

The `&&` and `||` operators test for `and` and `or` conditions. They are frequently used in conjunction with the `!` operator, which
expresses *not*. In this example, the `UseUmbrella` method returns true if it’s rainy or sunny (to protect us from the rain or the sun), as long as it’s not also windy (because umbrellas are useless in the wind):

```csharp
static bool UseUmbrella (bool rainy, bool sunny,
    bool windy)
{
    return !windy && (rainy || sunny);
}
```

The `&&` and `||` operators *short-circuit* evaluation when possible. In the preceding example, if it is windy, the expression `(rainy || sunny)` is not even evaluated. Short-circuiting is essential in allowing expressions such as the following to run without throwing a `NullReferenceException`:

```csharp
if (sb != null && sb.Length > 0) ...
```

The `&` and `|` operators also test for *and* and *or* conditions:

```csharp
return !windy & (rainy | sunny);
```

The difference is that they do *not* short-circuit. For this reason, they are rarely used in place of conditional operators.

The ternary conditional operator (simply called the *conditional operator*) has the form `q ? a : b`, where if condition `q` is true, `a` is evaluated, else `b` is evaluated. For example:

```csharp
static int Max (int a, int b)
{
    return (a > b) ? a : b;
}
```

The conditional operator is particularly useful for Language Integrated Query (LINQ) tasks.

## Strings and Characters

C#’s `char` type (aliasing the `System.Char` type) represents a Unicode character and occupies two bytes. A `char` literal is specified inside single quotes:

```csharp
char c = 'A';       // Simple character
```
*Escape sequences* express characters that cannot be expressed or interpreted literally. An escape sequence is a backslash followed by a character with a special meaning. For example:

```csharp
cchar newline = '\n';
cchar backslash = '\\';
```

The escape sequence characters are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Char</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>\</td>
<td>Single quote</td>
<td>0x0027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Double quote</td>
<td>0x0022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\</td>
<td>Backslash</td>
<td>0x005C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\0</td>
<td>Null</td>
<td>0x0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\a</td>
<td>Alert</td>
<td>0x0007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\b</td>
<td>Backspace</td>
<td>0x0008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\f</td>
<td>Form feed</td>
<td>0x000C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\n</td>
<td>New line</td>
<td>0x000A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\r</td>
<td>Carriage return</td>
<td>0x000D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\t</td>
<td>Horizontal tab</td>
<td>0x0009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\v</td>
<td>Vertical tab</td>
<td>0x000B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The `\u` (or `\x`) escape sequence lets you specify any Unicode character via its four-digit hexadecimal code:

```csharp
cchar copyrightSymbol = '\u00A9';
cchar omegaSymbol     = '\u03A9';
cchar newline         = '\u000A';
```

An implicit conversion from a `char` to a numeric type works for the numeric types that can accommodate an unsigned `short`. For other numeric types, an explicit conversion is required.
String Type

C#'s string type (aliasing the System.String type) represents an immutable sequence of Unicode characters. A string literal is specified inside double quotes:

```csharp
string a = "Heat";
```

---

**NOTE**

string is a reference type, rather than a value type. Its equality operators, however, follow value type semantics:

```csharp
string a = "test", b = "test";
Console.Write (a == b); // True
```

The escape sequences that are valid for char literals also work inside strings:

```csharp
string a = "Here's a tab:\t";
```

The cost of this is that whenever you need a literal backslash, you must write it twice:

```csharp
string a1 = "\\server\fileshare\helloworld.cs";
```

To avoid this problem, C# allows verbatim string literals. A verbatim string literal is prefixed with @ and does not support escape sequences. The following verbatim string is identical to the preceding one:

```csharp
string a2 = @"\\server\fileshare\helloworld.cs";
```

A verbatim string literal can also span multiple lines. You can include the double-quote character in a verbatim literal by writing it twice.

### String concatenation

The + operator concatenates two strings:

```csharp
string s = "a" + "b";
```
One of the operands may be a nonstring value, in which case
ToString is called on that value. For example:

```csharp
    string s = "a" + 5;  // a5
```

Using the + operator repeatedly to build up a string can be inef-
ficient: a better solution is to use the System.Text.String
Builder type—this represents a mutable (editable) string, and
has methods to efficiently Append, Insert, Remove, and Replace
substrings.

**String interpolation**

A string preceded with the $ character is called an *interpolated
string*. Interpolated strings can include expressions inside
braces:

```csharp
    int x = 4;
    Console.Write ($"A square has \{x\} sides");
    // Prints: A square has 4 sides
```

Any valid C# expression of any type can appear within the
braces, and C# will convert the expression to a string by calling
its ToString method or equivalent. You can change the format-
ting by appending the expression with a colon and a *format
string* (we describe format strings in Chapter 6 of *C# 7.0 in a
Nutshell*):

```csharp
    string s = "$255 in hex is \{byte.MaxValue:X2\}"
    // Evaluates to "255 in hex is FF"
```

Interpolated strings must complete on a single line, unless you
also specify the verbatim string operator. Note that the $ oper-
tor must come before @:

```csharp
    int x = 2;
    string s = $@"this spans \{\n    x\} lines";
```

To include a brace literal in an interpolated string, repeat the
desired brace character.
**String comparisons**

String does not support `<` and `>` operators for comparisons. You must instead use string’s `CompareTo` method, which returns a positive number, a negative number, or zero, depending on whether the first value comes after, before, or alongside the second value:

```csharp
Console.Write("Boston".CompareTo("Austin")); // 1
Console.Write("Boston".CompareTo("Boston")); // 0
Console.Write("Boston".CompareTo("Chicago")); // -1
```

**Searching within strings**

String’s indexer returns a character at a specified position:

```csharp
Console.Write("word"[2]); // r
```

The `IndexOf` and `LastIndexOf` methods search for a character within the string. The `Contains`, `StartsWith`, and `EndsWith` methods search for a substring within the string.

**Manipulating strings**

Because string is immutable, all of the methods that “manipulate” a string return a new one, leaving the original untouched:

- `Substring` extracts a portion of a string.
- `Insert` and `Remove` insert and remove characters at a specified position.
- `PadLeft` and `PadRight` add whitespace.
- `TrimStart`, `TrimEnd`, and `Trim` remove whitespace.

The string class also defines `ToUpper` and `ToLower` methods for changing case, a `Split` method to split a string into substrings (based on supplied delimiters), and a static `Join` method to join substrings back into a string.
Arrays

An array represents a fixed number of elements of a particular type. The elements in an array are always stored in a contiguous block of memory, providing highly efficient access.

An array is denoted with square brackets after the element type. The following declares an array of five characters:

```csharp
char[] vowels = new char[5];
```

Square brackets also index the array, accessing a particular element by position:

```csharp
vowels[0] = 'a'; vowels[1] = 'e'; vowels[2] = 'i';

Console.WriteLine (vowels [1]);      // e
```

This prints “e” because array indexes start at 0. We can use a for loop statement to iterate through each element in the array. The for loop in this example cycles the integer `i` from 0 to 4:

```csharp
for (int i = 0; i < vowels.Length; i++)
    Console.Write (vowels [i]);            // aeiou
```

Arrays also implement `IEnumerable<T>` (see “Enumeration and Iterators” on page 140), so you can also enumerate members with the foreach statement:

```csharp
foreach (char c in vowels) Console.Write (c);  // aeiou
```

All array indexing is bounds-checked by the runtime. An `IndexOutOfRangeException` is thrown if you use an invalid index:

```csharp
vowels[5] = 'y';   // Runtime error
```

The `Length` property of an array returns the number of elements in the array. Once an array has been created, its length cannot be changed. The `System.Collection` namespace and subnamespaces provide higher-level data structures, such as dynamically sized arrays and dictionaries.
An array initialization expression lets you declare and populate an array in a single step:

```csharp
char[] vowels = new char[] {'a','e','i','o','u'};
```
or simply:

```csharp
char[] vowels = {'a','e','i','o','u'};
```

All arrays inherit from the `System.Array` class, which defines common methods and properties for all arrays. This includes instance properties such as `Length` and `Rank`, and static methods to:

- Dynamically create an array (`CreateInstance`)
- Get and set elements regardless of the array type (`GetValue/SetValue`)
- Search a sorted array (`BinarySearch`) or an unsorted array (`IndexOf`, `LastIndexOf`, `Find`, `FindIndex`, `FindLastIndex`)
- Sort an array (`Sort`)
- Copy an array (`Copy`)

## Default Element Initialization

Creating an array always preinitializes the elements with default values. The default value for a type is the result of a bitwise zeroing of memory. For example, consider creating an array of integers. Because `int` is a value type, this allocates 1,000 integers in one contiguous block of memory. The default value for each element will be 0:

```csharp
int[] a = new int[1000];
Console.Write (a[123]);            // 0
```

With reference type elements, the default value is `null`.

An array itself is always a reference type object, regardless of element type. For instance, the following is legal:

```csharp
int[] a = new int[1000];
```
Multidimensional Arrays

Multidimensional arrays come in two varieties: *rectangular* and *jagged*. Rectangular arrays represent an $n$-dimensional block of memory, and jagged arrays are arrays of arrays.

Rectangular arrays

To declare rectangular arrays, use commas to separate each dimension. The following declares a rectangular two-dimensional array, where the dimensions are $3 \times 3$:

```csharp
int[,] matrix = new int[3, 3];
```

The `GetLength` method of an array returns the length for a given dimension (starting at 0):

```csharp
for (int i = 0; i < matrix.GetLength(0); i++)
    for (int j = 0; j < matrix.GetLength(1); j++)
        matrix[i, j] = i * 3 + j;
```

A rectangular array can be initialized as follows (to create an array identical to the previous example):

```csharp
int[,] matrix = new int[,] {
    {0,1,2},
    {3,4,5},
    {6,7,8}
};
```

(The code shown in boldface can be omitted in declaration statements such as this.)

Jagged arrays

To declare jagged arrays, use successive square bracket pairs for each dimension. Here is an example of declaring a jagged two-dimensional array, where the outermost dimension is 3:

```csharp
int[][] matrix = new int[3][];
```
The inner dimensions aren’t specified in the declaration because, unlike a rectangular array, each inner array can be an arbitrary length. Each inner array is implicitly initialized to null rather than an empty array. Each inner array must be created manually:

```csharp
for (int i = 0; i < matrix.Length; i++)
{
    matrix[i] = new int[3];       // Create inner array
    for (int j = 0; j < matrix[i].Length; j++)
        matrix[i][j] = i * 3 + j;
}
```

A jagged array can be initialized as follows (to create an array identical to the previous example, but with an additional element at the end):

```csharp
int[][] matrix = new int[][]
{ 
    new int[] {0,1,2},
    new int[] {3,4,5},
    new int[] {6,7,8,9}
};
```

(The code shown in boldface can be omitted in declaration statements such as this.)

**Simplified Array Initialization Expressions**

We’ve already seen how to simplify array initialization expressions by omitting the `new` keyword and type declaration:

```csharp
char[] vowels = new char[] {'a','e','i','o','u'};
char[] vowels =            {'a','e','i','o','u'};
```

Another approach is to omit the type name after the `new` keyword, and have the compiler infer the array type. This is a useful shortcut when you’re passing arrays as arguments. For example, consider the following method:

```csharp
void Foo (char[] data) { ... }
```

We can call this method with an array that we create on the fly, as follows:
This shortcut is essential in creating arrays of anonymous types, as we’ll see later.

**Variables and Parameters**

A variable represents a storage location that has a modifiable value. A variable can be a local variable, parameter (value, ref, or out), field (instance or static), or array element.

**The Stack and the Heap**

The stack and the heap are the places where variables and constants reside. Each has very different lifetime semantics.

**Stack**

The stack is a block of memory for storing local variables and parameters. The stack logically grows and shrinks as a function is entered and exited. Consider the following method (to avoid distraction, input argument checking is ignored):

```csharp
static int Factorial (int x)
{
    if (x == 0) return 1;
    return x * Factorial (x-1);
}
```

This method is recursive, meaning that it calls itself. Each time the method is entered, a new int is allocated on the stack, and each time the method exits, the int is deallocated.

**Heap**

The heap is a block of memory in which objects (i.e., reference type instances) reside. Whenever a new object is created, it is allocated on the heap, and a reference to that object is returned. During a program's execution, the heap begins filling up as new objects are created. The runtime has a garbage collector that periodically deallocates objects from the heap so that your pro-
gram does not run out of memory. An object is eligible for deallocation as soon as it’s not referenced by anything that’s itself alive.

Value type instances (and object references) live wherever the variable was declared. If the instance was declared as a field within a class type or as an array element, that instance lives on the heap.

NOTE
You can’t explicitly delete objects in C#, as you can in C++. An unreferenced object is eventually collected by the garbage collector.

The heap also stores static fields and constants. Unlike objects allocated on the heap (which can get garbage-collected), these live until the application domain is torn down.

Definite Assignment
C# enforces a definite assignment policy. In practice, this means that outside of an unsafe context, it’s impossible to access uninitialized memory. Definite assignment has three implications:

- Local variables must be assigned a value before they can be read.
- Function arguments must be supplied when a method is called (unless marked optional—see “Optional parameters” on page 44).
- All other variables (such as fields and array elements) are automatically initialized by the runtime.
For example, the following code results in a compile-time error:

```csharp
static void Main()
{
    int x;
    Console.WriteLine(x);     // Compile-time error
}
```

However, if `x` were instead a field of the containing class, this would be legal and would print 0.

### Default Values

All type instances have a default value. The default value for the predefined types is the result of a bitwise zeroing of memory, and is `null` for reference types, 0 for numeric and `enum` types, '\0' for the `char` type, and `false` for the `bool` type.

You can obtain the default value for any type with the `default` keyword (in practice, this is useful with generics, as we'll see later). The default value in a custom value type (i.e., `struct`) is the same as the default value for each field defined by the custom type.

### Parameters

A method has a sequence of parameters. Parameters define the set of arguments that must be provided for that method. In this example, the method `Foo` has a single parameter named `p`, of type `int`:

```csharp
static void Foo (int p)     // p is a parameter
{
    ...
}
static void Main() { Foo (8); }   // 8 is an argument
```

You can control how parameters are passed by using the `ref` and `out` modifiers:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter modifier</th>
<th>Passed by</th>
<th>Variable must be definitely assigned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Going in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ref</td>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>Going in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out</td>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>Going out</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Passing arguments by value**

By default, arguments in C# are *passed by value*, which is by far the most common case. This means that a copy of the value is created when it is passed to the method:

```csharp
static void Foo (int p)
{
    p = p + 1;                // Increment p by 1
    Console.WriteLine (p);    // Write p to screen
}
static void Main()
{
    int x = 8;
    Foo (x);                  // Make a copy of x
    Console.WriteLine (x);    // x will still be 8
}
```

Assigning `p` a new value does not change the contents of `x`, because `p` and `x` reside in different memory locations.

Passing a reference type argument by value copies the *reference*, but not the object. In the following example, `Foo` sees the same `StringBuilder` object that `Main` instantiated, but has an independent *reference* to it. In other words, `sb` and `fooSB` are separate variables that reference the same `StringBuilder` object:

```csharp
static void Foo (StringBuilder fooSB)
{
    fooSB.Append ("test");
    fooSB = null;
}
static void Main()
{
    StringBuilder sb = new StringBuilder();
    Foo (sb);
    Console.WriteLine (sb.ToString());    // test
}
```
Because fooSB is a *copy* of a reference, setting it to null doesn’t make sb null. (If, however, fooSB was declared and called with the ref modifier, sb *would* become null.)

**The ref modifier**

To *pass by reference*, C# provides the ref parameter modifier. In this example, p and x refer to the same memory locations:

```csharp
static void Foo (ref int p)
{
    p = p + 1;
    Console.WriteLine (p);
}
static void Main()
{
    int x = 8;
    Foo (ref x);               // Pass x by reference
    Console.WriteLine (x);     // x is now 9
}
```

Now, assigning p a new value changes the contents of x. Notice how the ref modifier is required both when writing and calling the method. This makes it very clear what’s going on.

---

**NOTE**

A parameter can be passed by reference or by value, regardless of whether the parameter type is a reference type or a value type.

---

**The out modifier**

An out argument is like a ref argument, except it:

- Need not be assigned before going into the function
- Must be assigned before it comes *out* of the function

The out modifier is most commonly used to get multiple return values back from a method.
Out variables and discards (C# 7)

From C# 7, you can declare variables on the fly when calling methods with `out` parameters:

```csharp
int.TryParse ("123", out int x);
Console.WriteLine (x);
```

This is equivalent to:

```csharp
int x;
int.TryParse ("123", out x);
Console.WriteLine (x);
```

When calling methods with multiple `out` parameters, you can “discard” any that you’re uninterested in with an underscore. Assuming that `SomeBigMethod` has been defined with five `out` parameters, we can ignore all but the third, as follows:

```csharp
SomeBigMethod (out _, out _, out int x, out _, out _);
Console.WriteLine (x);
```

The params modifier

The `params` modifier may be specified on the last parameter of a method so that the method accepts any number of arguments of a particular type. The parameter type must be declared as an array. For example:

```csharp
static int Sum (params int[] ints)
{
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < ints.Length; i++) sum += ints[i];
    return sum;
}
```

We can call this as follows:

```csharp
Console.WriteLine (Sum (1, 2, 3, 4));    // 10
```

You can also supply a `params` argument as an ordinary array. The preceding call is semantically equivalent to:

```csharp
Console.WriteLine (Sum (new int[] { 1, 2, 3, 4 } ));
```
Optional parameters

Starting with C# 4.0, methods, constructors, and indexers can declare optional parameters. A parameter is optional if it specifies a default value in its declaration:

```csharp
void Foo (int x = 23) { Console.WriteLine (x); }
```

You may omit optional parameters when calling the method:

```csharp
Foo(); // 23
```

The default argument of 23 is actually passed to the optional parameter x—the compiler bakes the value 23 into the compiled code at the calling side. The preceding call to Foo is semantically identical to:

```csharp
Foo (23);
```

because the compiler simply substitutes the default value of an optional parameter wherever it is used.

---

**WARNING**

Adding an optional parameter to a public method that’s called from another assembly requires recompilation of both assemblies—just as though the parameter were mandatory.

---

The default value of an optional parameter must be specified by a constant expression or a parameterless constructor of a value type. Optional parameters cannot be marked with ref or out.

Mandatory parameters must occur before optional parameters in both the method declaration and the method call (the exception is with params arguments, which still always come last). In the following example, the explicit value of 1 is passed to x, and the default value of 0 is passed to y:

```csharp
void Foo (int x = 0, int y = 0)
{
    Console.WriteLine (x + ", " + y);
}
```
To do the converse (pass a default value to x and an explicit value to y), you must combine optional parameters with *named arguments*.

**Named arguments**

Rather than identifying an argument by position, you can identify an argument by name. For example:

```csharp
void Foo (int x, int y)
{
    Console.WriteLine (x + ", " + y);
}
void Test()
{
    Foo (x:1, y:2);  // 1, 2
}
```

Named arguments can occur in any order. The following calls to Foo are semantically identical:

```csharp
Foo (x:1, y:2);
Foo (y:2, x:1);
```

You can mix named and positional arguments, as long as the named arguments appear last:

```csharp
Foo (1, y:2);
```

Named arguments are particularly useful in conjunction with optional parameters. For instance, consider the following method:

```csharp
void Bar (int a=0, int b=0, int c=0, int d=0) { ... }
```

We can call this, supplying only a value for d, as follows:

```csharp
Bar (d:3);
```

This is particularly useful when you’re calling COM APIs.
var—Implicitly Typed Local Variables

It is often the case that you declare and initialize a variable in one step. If the compiler is able to infer the type from the initialization expression, you can use the word var in place of the type declaration. For example:

```csharp
var x = "hello";
var y = new System.Text.StringBuilder();
var z = (float)Math.PI;
```

This is precisely equivalent to:

```csharp
string x = "hello";
System.Text.StringBuilder y =
    new System.Text.StringBuilder();
float z = (float)Math.PI;
```

Because of this direct equivalence, implicitly typed variables are statically typed. For example, the following generates a compile-time error:

```csharp
var x = 5;
x = "hello";    // Compile-time error; x is of type int
```

In the section “Anonymous Types” on page 153, we describe a scenario where the use of var is mandatory.

Expressions and Operators

An expression essentially denotes a value. The simplest kinds of expressions are constants (such as 123) and variables (such as x). Expressions can be transformed and combined with operators. An operator takes one or more input operands to output a new expression:

```csharp
12 * 30   // * is an operator; 12 and 30 are operands.
```

Complex expressions can be built because an operand may itself be an expression, such as the operand (12 * 30) in the following example:

```csharp
1 + (12 * 30)
```
Operators in C# can be classed as *unary*, *binary*, or *ternary*—depending on the number of operands they work on (one, two, or three). The binary operators always use *infix* notation, where the operator is placed *between* the two operands.

Operators that are intrinsic to the basic plumbing of the language are called *primary*; an example is the method call operator. An expression that has no value is called a *void expression*:

```csharp
Console.WriteLine (1)
```

Because a void expression has no value, it cannot be used as an operand to build more complex expressions:

```csharp
1 + Console.WriteLine (1)      // Compile-time error
```

### Assignment Expressions

An assignment expression uses the `=` operator to assign the result of another expression to a variable. For example:

```csharp
x = x * 5
```

An assignment expression is not a void expression. It actually carries the assignment value; thus, it can be incorporated into another expression. In the following example, the expression assigns 2 to `x` and 10 to `y`:

```csharp
y = 5 * (x = 2)
```

This style of expression can be used to initialize multiple values:

```csharp
a = b = c = d = 0
```

The *compound assignment operators* are syntactic shortcuts that combine assignment with another operator. For example:

```csharp
x *= 2    // equivalent to x = x * 2
x <<= 1   // equivalent to x = x << 1
```

(A subtle exception to this rule is with *events*, which we describe later: the `+=` and `-=` operators here are treated specially and map to the event’s `add` and `remove` accessors.)
Operator Precedence and Associativity

When an expression contains multiple operators, *precedence* and *associativity* determine the order of their evaluation. Operators with higher precedence execute before operators of lower precedence. If the operators have the same precedence, the operator’s associativity determines the order of evaluation.

Precedence

The expression \( 1 + 2 \times 3 \) is evaluated as \( 1 + (2 \times 3) \) because \( \times \) has a higher precedence than \( + \).

Left-associative operators

Binary operators (except for assignment, lambda, and null coalescing operators) are *left-associative*; in other words, they are evaluated from left to right. For example, the expression \( 8/4/2 \) is evaluated as \( (8/4)/2 \) due to left associativity. Of course, you can insert your own parentheses to change evaluation order.

Right-associative operators

The *assignment and lambda operators*, null coalescing operator, and (ternary) conditional operator are *right-associative*; in other words, they are evaluated from right to left. Right associativity allows multiple assignments such as \( x=y=3 \) to compile: it works by first assigning 3 to \( y \), and then assigning the result of that expression (3) to \( x \).

Operator Table

The following table lists C#’s operators in order of precedence. Operators listed under the same subheading have the same precedence. We explain user-overloadable operators in the section “Operator Overloading” on page 191.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator symbol</th>
<th>Operator name</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Overloadable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.</td>
<td>Member access</td>
<td>x.y</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-&gt;</td>
<td>Pointer to struct (unsafe)</td>
<td>x-&gt;y</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>()</td>
<td>Function call</td>
<td>x()</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>Array/index</td>
<td>a[x]</td>
<td>Via indexer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>++</td>
<td>Post-increment</td>
<td>x++</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--</td>
<td>Post-decrement</td>
<td>x--</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>new</td>
<td>Create instance</td>
<td>new Foo()</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stackalloc</td>
<td>Unsafe stack allocation</td>
<td>stackalloc(10)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>typeof</td>
<td>Get type from identifier</td>
<td>typeof(int)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nameof</td>
<td>Get name of identifier</td>
<td>nameof(x)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>checked</td>
<td>Integral overflow check on</td>
<td>checked(x)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unchecked</td>
<td>Integral overflow check off</td>
<td>unchecked(x)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>default</td>
<td>Default value</td>
<td>default(char)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Unary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator symbol</th>
<th>Operator name</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Overloadable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>await</td>
<td>Await</td>
<td>await myTask</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sizeof</td>
<td>Get size of struct</td>
<td>sizeof(int)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>? .</td>
<td>Null-conditional</td>
<td>x?.y</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>Positive value of</td>
<td>+x</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>Negative value of</td>
<td>-x</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Expressions and Operators | 49
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator symbol</th>
<th>Operator name</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Overloadable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>!</td>
<td>Not</td>
<td>!x</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>~</td>
<td>Bitwise complement</td>
<td>~x</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>++</td>
<td>Pre-increment</td>
<td>++x</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--</td>
<td>Post-increment</td>
<td>-x</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>()</td>
<td>Cast</td>
<td>(int)x</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>Value at address (unsafe)</td>
<td>*x</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>Address of value (unsafe)</td>
<td>&amp;x</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Multiplicative**

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>Multiply</td>
<td>x * y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/</td>
<td>Divide</td>
<td>x / y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>Remainder</td>
<td>x % y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Additive**

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>Add</td>
<td>x + y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>Subtract</td>
<td>x - y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Shift**

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;&lt;</td>
<td>Shift left</td>
<td>x &lt;&lt; 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt;</td>
<td>Shift right</td>
<td>x &gt;&gt; 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Relational**

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;</td>
<td>Less than</td>
<td>x &lt; y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;</td>
<td>Greater than</td>
<td>x &gt; y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;=</td>
<td>Less than or equal to</td>
<td>x &lt;= y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operator symbol</td>
<td>Operator name</td>
<td>Example</td>
<td>Overloadable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;=</td>
<td>Greater than or equal to</td>
<td>x &gt;= y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is</td>
<td>Type is or is subclass of</td>
<td>x is y</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as</td>
<td>Type conversion</td>
<td>x as y</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Equality</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>==</td>
<td>Equals</td>
<td>x == y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!=</td>
<td>Not equals</td>
<td>x != y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Logical And</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>And</td>
<td>x &amp; y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Logical Xor</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>^</td>
<td>Exclusive Or</td>
<td>x ^ y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Logical Or</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Or</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Conditional And</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;&amp;</td>
<td>Conditional And</td>
<td>x &amp;&amp; y</td>
<td>Via &amp;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Conditional Or</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Conditional Or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Conditional (ternary)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>? :</td>
<td>Conditional</td>
<td>isTrue ? then This : elseThis</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Assignment and lambda (lowest precedence)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>Assign</td>
<td>x = y</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*=</td>
<td>Multiply self by</td>
<td>x *= 2</td>
<td>Via *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/=</td>
<td>Divide self by</td>
<td>x /= 2</td>
<td>Via /</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+=</td>
<td>Add to self</td>
<td>x += 2</td>
<td>Via +</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Null Operators

C# provides two operators to make it easier to work with nulls: the null coalescing operator and the null-conditional operator.

Null Coalescing Operator

The ?? operator is the null coalescing operator. It says “If the operand is non-null, give it to me; otherwise, give me a default value.” For example:

```csharp
string s1 = null;
string s2 = s1 ?? "nothing"; // s2 evaluates to "nothing"
```

If the lefthand expression is non-null, the righthand expression is never evaluated. The null coalescing operator also works with nullable value types (see “Nullable Types” on page 146).

Null-Conditional Operator

The ? . operator is the null-conditional, or “Elvis,” operator, and was introduced in C# 6. It allows you to call methods and access members just like the standard dot operator, except that if the operand on the left is null, the expression evaluates to null instead of throwing a NullReferenceException:
System.Text.StringBuilder sb = null;
string s = sb?.ToString();    // No error; s is null

The last line is equivalent to:

string s = (sb == null ? null : sb.ToString());

Upon encountering a null, the Elvis operator short-circuits the remainder of the expression. In the following example, s evaluates to null, even with a standard dot operator between ToString() and ToUpper():

System.Text.StringBuilder sb = null;
string s = sb?.ToString().ToUpper();    // No error

Repeated use of Elvis is necessary only if the operand immediately to its left may be null. This expression is robust to both x being null and x.y being null:

x?.y?.z

and is equivalent to the following (except that x.y is evaluated only once):

x == null ? null
  : (x.y == null ? null : x.y.z)

The final expression must be capable of accepting a null. The following is illegal because int cannot accept a null:

System.Text.StringBuilder sb = null;
int length = sb?.ToString().Length;    // Illegal

We can fix this with the use of nullable value types (see “Nullable Types” on page 146):

int? length = sb?.ToString().Length;    // OK : int? can be null

You can also use the null-conditional operator to call a void method:

someObject?.SomeVoidMethod();

If someObject is null, this becomes a “no-operation” rather than throwing a NullReferenceException.
The null-conditional operator can be used with the commonly used type members that we describe in “Classes” on page 67, including methods, fields, properties, and indexers. It also combines well with the null coalescing operator:

```csharp
System.Text.StringBuilder sb = null;
string s = sb?.ToString() ?? "nothing";  // s evaluates to "nothing"
```

**Statements**

Functions comprise statements that execute sequentially in the textual order in which they appear. A statement block is a series of statements appearing between braces (the `{}` tokens).

**Declaration Statements**

A declaration statement declares a new variable, optionally initializing the variable with an expression. A declaration statement ends in a semicolon. You may declare multiple variables of the same type in a comma-separated list. For example:

```csharp
bool rich = true, famous = false;
```

A constant declaration is like a variable declaration, except that it cannot be changed after it has been declared, and the initialization must occur with the declaration (more on this in “Constants” on page 78):

```csharp
const double c = 2.99792458E08;
```

**Local variable scope**

The scope of a local variable or local constant variable extends throughout the current block. You cannot declare another local variable with the same name in the current block or in any nested blocks.
Expression Statements

*Expression statements* are expressions that are also valid statements. In practice, this means expressions that “do” something; in other words, expressions that:

- Assign or modify a variable
- Instantiate an object
- Call a method

Expressions that do none of these are not valid statements:

```csharp
string s = "foo";
s.Length;          // Illegal statement: does nothing!
```

When you call a constructor or a method that returns a value, you’re not obliged to use the result. However, unless the constructor or method changes state, the statement is useless:

```csharp
new StringBuilder();     // Legal, but useless
x.Equals (y);            // Legal, but useless
```

Selection Statements

*Selection statements* conditionally control the flow of program execution.

The if statement

An if statement executes a statement if a bool expression is true. For example:

```csharp
if (5 < 2 * 3)
    Console.WriteLine ("true");       // true
```

The statement can be a code block:

```csharp
if (5 < 2 * 3)
{
    Console.WriteLine ("true");       // true
    Console.WriteLine ("...");
}
```
The else clause

An if statement can optionally feature an else clause:

```csharp
if (2 + 2 == 5)
    Console.WriteLine("Does not compute");
else
    Console.WriteLine("False"); // False
```

Within an else clause, you can nest another if statement:

```csharp
if (2 + 2 == 5)
    Console.WriteLine("Does not compute");
else
    if (2 + 2 == 4)
        Console.WriteLine("Computes"); // Computes
```

Changing the flow of execution with braces

An else clause always applies to the immediately preceding if statement in the statement block. For example:

```csharp
if (true)
    if (false)
        Console.WriteLine();
    else
        Console.WriteLine("executes");
```

This is semantically identical to:

```csharp
if (true)
{
    if (false)
        Console.WriteLine();
    else
        Console.WriteLine("executes");
}
```

We can change the execution flow by moving the braces:

```csharp
if (true)
{
    if (false)
        Console.WriteLine();
}
else
    Console.WriteLine("does not execute");
```
C# has no “elseif” keyword; however, the following pattern achieves the same result:

```csharp
static void TellMeWhatICanDo (int age)
{
    if (age >= 35)
        Console.WriteLine ("You can be president!");
    else if (age >= 21)
        Console.WriteLine ("You can drink!");
    else if (age >= 18)
        Console.WriteLine ("You can vote!");
    else
        Console.WriteLine ("You can wait!");
}
```

The switch statement

Switch statements let you branch program execution based on a selection of possible values that a variable may have. Switch statements may result in cleaner code than multiple if statements because switch statements require an expression to be evaluated only once. For instance:

```csharp
static void ShowCard (int cardNumber)
{
    switch (cardNumber)
    {
        case 13:  // Any other cardNumber
            Console.WriteLine ("King");
            break;
        case 12:
            Console.WriteLine ("Queen");
            break;
        case 11:
            Console.WriteLine ("Jack");
            break;
        default:
            Console.WriteLine (cardNumber);
            break;
    }
}
```

The values in each case expression must be constants, which restricts their allowable types to the built-in integral types; the bool, char, and enum types, as well as the string type. At the
end of each case clause, you must say explicitly where execution is to go next, with some kind of jump statement. Here are the options:

- break (jumps to the end of the switch statement)
- goto case \( x \) (jumps to another case clause)
- goto default (jumps to the default clause)
- Any other jump statement—namely, return, throw, continue, or goto label

When more than one value should execute the same code, you can list the common cases sequentially:

```csharp
switch (cardNumber)
{
    case 13:
    case 12:
    case 11:
        Console.WriteLine ("Face card");
        break;
    default:
        Console.WriteLine ("Plain card");
        break;
}
```

This feature of a switch statement can be pivotal in terms of producing cleaner code than multiple if-else statements.

**The switch statement with patterns (C# 7)**

From C# 7, you can switch based on type:

```csharp
static void TellMeTheType (object x)
{
    switch (x)
    {
    case int i:
        Console.WriteLine ("It's an int!");
        break;
    case string s:
        Console.WriteLine (s.Length); // We can use s
        break;
    case bool b when b == true // Fires when b is true
```
Console.WriteLine ("True");
break;
case null:  // You can also switch on null in C# 7
    Console.WriteLine ("null");
    break;
}

(The object type allows for a variable of any type—see “Inheritance” on page 82 and “The object Type” on page 91.)

Each case clause specifies a type upon which to match, and a variable upon which to assign the typed value if the match succeeds. Unlike with constants, there’s no restriction on what types you can use. The optional when clause specifies a condition that must be satisfied for the case to match.

The order of the case clauses is relevant when you’re switching on type (unlike when you’re switching on constants). An exception to this rule is the default clause, which is executed last, regardless of where it appears.

You can stack multiple case clauses. The Console.WriteLine in the following code will execute for any floating-point type greater than 1,000:

```csharp
switch (x)
{
    case float f when f > 1000:
    case double d when d > 1000:
    case decimal m when m > 1000:
        Console.WriteLine ("f, d and m are out of scope");
        break;
}
```

In this example, the compiler lets us consume the variables f, d, and m, only in the when clauses. When we call Console.WriteLine, it’s unknown as to which one of those three variables will be assigned, so the compiler puts all of them out of scope.

**Iteration Statements**

C# enables a sequence of statements to execute repeatedly with the while, do-while, for, and foreach statements.
while and do-while loops

While loops repeatedly execute a body of code while a boolean expression is true. The expression is tested before the body of the loop is executed. For example, the following writes 012:

```csharp
int i = 0;
while (i < 3) // Braces here are optional
    {         // Braces here are optional
    Console.Write (i++);
    }
```

do-while loops differ in functionality from while loops only in that they test the expression after the statement block has executed (ensuring that the block is always executed at least once). Here's the preceding example rewritten with a do-while loop:

```csharp
int i = 0;
do{
    Console.WriteLine (i++);
}while (i < 3);
```

for loops

For loops are like while loops with special clauses for initialization and iteration of a loop variable. A for loop contains three clauses as follows:

```csharp
for (init-clause; condition-clause; iteration-clause)
    statement-or-statement-block
```

The init-clause executes before the loop begins and typically initializes one or more iteration variables.

The condition-clause is a boolean expression that is tested before each loop iteration. The body executes while this condition is true.

The iteration-clause is executed after each iteration of the body. It’s typically used to update the iteration variable.
For example, the following prints the numbers 0 through 2:

```csharp
for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
    Console.WriteLine (i);
```

The following prints the first 10 Fibonacci numbers (where each number is the sum of the previous two):

```csharp
for (int i = 0, prevFib = 1, curFib = 1; i < 10; i++)
{
    Console.WriteLine (prevFib);
    int newFib = prevFib + curFib;
    prevFib = curFib; curFib = newFib;
}
```

Any of the three parts of the `for` statement may be omitted. You can implement an infinite loop such as the following (though `while(true)` may be used instead):

```csharp
for (;;); Console.WriteLine ("interrupt me");
```

**foreach loops**

The `foreach` statement iterates over each element in an enumerable object. Most of the types in C# and the .NET Framework that represent a set or list of elements are enumerable. For example, both an array and a string are enumerable. Here is an example of enumerating over the characters in a string, from the first character through to the last:

```csharp
foreach (char c in "beer")
    Console.WriteLine (c + " ");  // b e e r
```

We define enumerable objects in “Enumeration and Iterators” on page 140.

**Jump Statements**

The C# jump statements are `break`, `continue`, `goto`, `return`, and `throw`. We cover the `throw` keyword in “try Statements and Exceptions” on page 132.
The break statement

The break statement ends the execution of the body of an iteration or switch statement:

```csharp
int x = 0;
while (true)
{
    if (x++ > 5) break; // break from the loop
}
// execution continues here after break
...
```

The continue statement

The continue statement forgoes the remaining statements in the loop and makes an early start on the next iteration. The following loop skips even numbers:

```csharp
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
{
    if ((i % 2) == 0) continue;
    Console.Write (i + " "); // 1 3 5 7 9
}
```

The goto statement

The goto statement transfers execution to a label (denoted with a colon suffix) within a statement block. The following iterates the numbers 1 through 5, mimicking a for loop:

```csharp
int i = 1;
startLoop:
if (i <= 5)
{
    Console.Write (i + " "); // 1 2 3 4 5
    i++;
    goto startLoop;
}
```

The return statement

The return statement exits the method and must return an expression of the method’s return type if the method is non-void:
static decimal AsPercentage (decimal d)
{
    decimal p = d * 100m;
    return p;     // Return to calling method with value
}

A return statement can appear anywhere in a method (except in a finally block).

**Namespaces**

A namespace is a domain within which type names must be unique. Types are typically organized into hierarchical namespaces—both to avoid naming conflicts and to make type names easier to find. For example, the RSA type that handles public key encryption is defined within the following namespace:

```
System.Security.Cryptography
```

A namespace forms an integral part of a type's name. The following code calls RSA's Create method:

```
    System.Security.Cryptography.RSA.Create();
```

### NOTE

Namespaces are independent of assemblies, which are units of deployment such as an .exe or .dll.

Namespaces also have no impact on member accessibility—public, internal, private, and so on.

The `namespace` keyword defines a namespace for types within that block. For example:

```
namespace Outer.Middle.Inner
{
    class Class1 {}
```
The dots in the namespace indicate a hierarchy of nested namespaces. The code that follows is semantically identical to the preceding example:

```csharp
namespace Outer
{
    namespace Middle
    {
        namespace Inner
        {
            class Class1 {}
            class Class2 {}
        }
    }
}
```

You can refer to a type with its fully qualified name, which includes all namespaces from the outermost to the innermost. For example, we could refer to `Class1` in the preceding example as `Outer.Middle.Inner.Class1`.

Types not defined in any namespace are said to reside in the global namespace. The global namespace also includes top-level namespaces, such as `Outer` in our example.

### The using Directive

The `using` directive imports a namespace and is a convenient way to refer to types without their fully qualified names. For example, we can refer to `Class1` in the preceding example as follows:

```csharp
using Outer.Middle.Inner;

class Test    // Test is in the global namespace
{
    static void Main()
    {
        Class1 c;    // Don't need fully qualified name
        ...
    }
}
```
A using directive can be nested within a namespace itself to limit the scope of the directive.

**using static**

From C# 6, you can import not just a namespace, but a specific type by using the `using static` directive. All static members of that type can then be used without being qualified with the type name. In the following example, we call the `Console` class's `WriteLine` method:

```csharp
using static System.Console;

class Test
{
    static void Main()
    {
        WriteLine("Hello");
    }
}
```

The `using static` directive imports all accessible static members of the type, including fields, properties, and nested types. You can also apply this directive to enum types (see “Enums” on page 101), in which case their members are imported. Should an ambiguity arise between multiple static imports, the C# compiler is unable to infer the correct type from the context, and will generate an error.

**Rules Within a Namespace**

**Name scoping**

Names declared in outer namespaces can be used unqualified within inner namespaces. In this example, `Class1` does not need qualification within `Inner`:

```csharp
namespace Outer
{
    class Class1 {}
}

namespace Inner
{
```
```csharp
class Class2 : Class1 {}
}
}
```

If you want to refer to a type in a different branch of your namespace hierarchy, you can use a partially qualified name. In the following example, we base `SalesReport` on `Common.Report Base`:

```csharp
namespace MyTradingCompany
{
    namespace Common
    {
        class ReportBase {}
    }
    namespace ManagementReporting
    {
        class SalesReport : Common.ReportBase {}
    }
}
```

### Name hiding

If the same type name appears in both an inner and an outer namespace, the inner name wins. To refer to the type in the outer namespace, you must qualify its name.

---

**NOTE**

All type names are converted to fully qualified names at compile time. Intermediate Language (IL) code contains no unqualified or partially qualified names.

---

### Repeated namespaces

You can repeat a namespace declaration, as long as the type names within the namespaces don’t conflict:

```csharp
namespace Outer.Middle.Inner { class Class1 {} }
namespace Outer.Middle.Inner { class Class2 {} }
```

The classes can even span source files and assemblies.
The global:: qualifier

Occasionally, a fully qualified type name may conflict with an inner name. You can force C# to use the fully qualified type name by prefixing it with global:: as follows:

    global::System.Text.StringBuilder sb;

Aliasing Types and Namespaces

Importing a namespace can result in type–name collision. Rather than importing the whole namespace, you can import just the specific types you need, giving each type an alias. For example:

    using PropertyInfo2 = System.Reflection.PropertyInfo;
    class Program { PropertyInfo2 p; }

An entire namespace can be aliased, as follows:

    using R = System.Reflection;
    class Program { R.PropertyInfo p; }

Classes

A class is the most common kind of reference type. The simplest possible class declaration is as follows:

    class Foo
    {
    }

A more complex class optionally has the following:

Preceding the keyword class

Attributes and class modifiers. The non-nested class modifiers are public, internal, abstract, sealed, static, unsafe, and partial.

Following Your ClassName

Generic type parameters, a base class, and interfaces.

Within the braces

Class members (these are methods, properties, indexers, events, fields, constructors, overloaded operators, nested types, and a finalizer).
Fields

A field is a variable that is a member of a class or struct. For example:

```csharp
class Octopus
{
    string name;
    public int Age = 10;
}
```

A field may have the readonly modifier to prevent it from being modified after construction. A read-only field can be assigned only in its declaration or within the enclosing type’s constructor.

Field initialization is optional. An uninitialized field has a default value (0, \0, null, false). Field initializers run before constructors in the order in which they appear.

For convenience, you may declare multiple fields of the same type in a comma-separated list. This is a convenient way for all the fields to share the same attributes and field modifiers. For example:

```csharp
static readonly int legs = 8, eyes = 2;
```

Methods

A method performs an action in a series of statements. A method can receive input data from the caller by specifying parameters, and send output data back to the caller by specifying a return type. A method can specify a void return type, indicating that it doesn’t return any value to its caller. A method can also send output data back to the caller via ref and out parameters.

A method’s signature must be unique within the type. A method’s signature comprises its name and parameter types in order (but not the parameter names, nor the return type).
Expression-bodied methods

A method that comprises a single expression, such as:

```csharp
int Foo(int x) { return x * 2; }
```

can be written more tersely as an **expression-bodied method** (from C# 6). A fat arrow replaces the braces and **return** keyword:

```csharp
int Foo(int x) => x * 2;
```

Expression-bodied functions can also have a **void** return type:

```csharp
void Foo(int x) => Console.WriteLine(x);
```

Overloading methods

A type may overload methods (have multiple methods with the same name), as long as the parameter types are different. For example, the following methods can all coexist in the same type:

```csharp
void Foo(int x);
void Foo(double x);
void Foo(int x, float y);
void Foo(float x, int y);
```

Local methods (C# 7)

From C# 7, you can define a method inside another method:

```csharp
void WriteCubes()
{
    Console.WriteLine(Cube(3));

    int Cube(int value) => value * value * value;
}
```

The local method (Cube, in this case) is visible only to the enclosing method (WriteCubes). This simplifies the containing type and instantly signals to anyone looking at the code that Cube is used nowhere else. Local methods can access the local variables and parameters of the enclosing method. This has a number of consequences, which we describe in “Capturing Outer Variables” on page 128.
Local methods can appear inside other function kinds, such as property accessors, constructors, and so on, even inside other local methods. Local methods can be iterators or asynchronous. The static modifier is invalid for local methods; they are implicitly static if the enclosing method is static.

**Instance Constructors**

Constructors run initialization code on a class or struct. A constructor is defined like a method, except that the method name and return type are reduced to the name of the enclosing type:

```csharp
public class Panda
{
    string name;              // Define field
    public Panda (string n)   // Define constructor
    {
        name = n;               // Initialization code
    }
}
...  
Panda p = new Panda ("Petey");   // Call constructor
```

From C# 7, single-statement constructors can be written as expression-bodied members:

```csharp
public Panda (string n) => name = n;
```

A class or struct may overload constructors. One overload may call another, using the `this` keyword:

```csharp
public class Wine
{
    public Wine (decimal price) {...}
    public Wine (decimal price, int year)
        : this (price) {...}
}
```

When one constructor calls another, the *called constructor* executes first.

You can pass an *expression* into another constructor as follows:

```csharp
public Wine (decimal price, DateTime year)
    : this (price, year.Year) {...}
```
The expression itself cannot make use of the this reference, for example, to call an instance method. It can, however, call static methods.

**Implicit parameterless constructors**

For classes, the C# compiler automatically generates a parameterless public constructor if and only if you do not define any constructors. However, as soon as you define at least one constructor, the parameterless constructor is no longer automatically generated.

**Nonpublic constructors**

Constructors do not need to be public. A common reason to have a nonpublic constructor is to control instance creation via a static method call. The static method could be used to return an object from a pool rather than creating a new object, or return a specialized subclass chosen based on input arguments.

**Deconstructors (C# 7)**

Whereas a constructor typically takes a set of values (as parameters) and assigns them to fields, a deconstructor does the reverse and assigns fields back to a set of variables. A deconstruction method must be called Deconstruct, and have one or more out parameters:

```csharp
class Rectangle
{
    public readonly float Width, Height;

    public Rectangle(float width, float height)
    {
        Width = width; Height = height;
    }

    public void Deconstruct(out float width, out float height)
    {
        width = Width; height = Height;
    }
}
```
To call the deconstructor, we use the following special syntax:

```csharp
var rect = new Rectangle(3, 4);
(float width, float height) = rect;
Console.WriteLine(width + " " + height);    // 3 4
```

The second line is the deconstructing call. It creates two local variables and then calls the Deconstruct method. Our deconstructing call is equivalent to:

```csharp
rect.Deconstruct(out var width, out var height);
```

Deconstructing calls allow implicit typing, so we could shorten our call to:

```csharp
(var width, var height) = rect;
```

Or simply:

```csharp
var (width, height) = rect;
```

If the variables into which you’re deconstructing are already defined, omit the types altogether; this is called a deconstructing assignment:

```csharp
(width, height) = rect;
```

You can offer the caller a range of deconstruction options by overloading the Deconstruct method.

---

**NOTE**

The Deconstruct method can be an extension method (see “Extension Methods” on page 151). This is a useful trick, if you want to deconstruct types that you did not author.
Object Initializers

To simplify object initialization, the accessible fields or properties of an object can be initialized via an object initializer directly after construction. For example, consider the following class:

```csharp
public class Bunny
{
    public string Name;
    public bool LikesCarrots, LikesHumans;

    public Bunny () {}
    public Bunny (string n) { Name = n; }
}
```

Using object initializers, you can instantiate Bunny objects as follows:

```csharp
Bunny b1 = new Bunny {
    Name="Bo",
    LikesCarrots = true,
    LikesHumans = false
};

Bunny b2 = new Bunny ("Bo") {
    LikesCarrots = true,
    LikesHumans = false
};
```

The this Reference

The this reference refers to the instance itself. In the following example, the Marry method uses this to set the partner’s mate field:

```csharp
public class Panda
{
    public Panda Mate;

    public void Marry (Panda partner)
    {
        Mate = partner;
        partner.Mate = this;
    }
}
The this reference also disambiguates a local variable or parameter from a field. For example:

```csharp
public class Test
{
    string name;
    public Test (string name) { this.name = name; }
}
```

The this reference is valid only within nonstatic members of a class or struct.

## Properties

Properties look like fields from the outside, but internally they contain logic, like methods do. For example, you can’t tell by looking at the following code whether `CurrentPrice` is a field or a property:

```csharp
Stock msft = new Stock();
msft.CurrentPrice = 30;
msft.CurrentPrice -= 3;
Console.WriteLine (msft.CurrentPrice);
```

A property is declared like a field, but with a get/set block added. Here’s how to implement `CurrentPrice` as a property:

```csharp
public class Stock
{
    decimal currentPrice;  // The private "backing" field

    public decimal CurrentPrice    // The public property
    {
        get { return currentPrice; }
        set { currentPrice = value; }
    }
}
```

get and set denote property *accessors*. The get accessor runs when the property is read. It must return a value of the property’s type. The set accessor runs when the property is assigned. It has an implicit parameter named value of the property’s type.
that you typically assign to a private field (in this case, current Price).

Although properties are accessed in the same way as fields, they differ in that they give the implementer complete control over getting and setting its value. This control enables the implementer to choose whatever internal representation is needed, without exposing the internal details to the user of the property. In this example, the set method could throw an exception if value was outside a valid range of values.

NOTE
Throughout this book, we use public fields to keep the examples free of distraction. In a real application, you would typically favor public properties over public fields to promote encapsulation.

A property is read-only if it specifies only a get accessor, and it is write-only if it specifies only a set accessor. Write-only properties are rarely used.

A property typically has a dedicated backing field to store the underlying data. However, it need not—it may instead return a value computed from other data.

```csharp
decimal currentPrice, sharesOwned;

public decimal Worth
{
    get { return currentPrice * sharesOwned; }
}
```

Expression-bodied properties

From C# 6, you can declare a read-only property, such as the preceding one, more tersely as an expression-bodied property. A fat arrow replaces all the braces and the get and return keywords:
C# 7 extends this further by allowing set accessors to be expression-bodied, too:

```csharp
public decimal Worth
{
    get => currentPrice * sharesOwned;
    set => sharesOwned = value / currentPrice;
}
```

### Automatic properties

The most common implementation for a property is a getter and/or setter that simply reads and writes to a private field of the same type as the property. An automatic property declaration instructs the compiler to provide this implementation. We can improve the first example in this section by declaring CurrentPrice as an automatic property:

```csharp
public class Stock
{
    public decimal CurrentPrice { get; set; }
}
```

The compiler automatically generates a private backing field of a compiler-generated name that cannot be referred to. The set accessor can be marked private or protected if you want to expose the property as read-only to other types.

### Property initializers

From C# 6, you can add a property initializer to automatic properties, just as with fields:

```csharp
public decimal CurrentPrice { get; set; } = 123;
```

This gives CurrentPrice an initial value of 123. Properties with an initializer can be read-only:

```csharp
public int Maximum { get; } = 999;
```

Just as with read-only fields, read-only automatic properties can also be assigned in the type’s constructor. This is useful in creating immutable (read-only) types.
get and set accessibility

The get and set accessors can have different access levels. The

```
private decimal x;
public decimal X
{
    get         { return x;  }
    private set { x = Math.Round (value, 2); }
}
```

Notice that you declare the property itself with the more per-

Indexers

Indexers provide a natural syntax for accessing elements in a
class or struct that encapsulate a list or dictionary of values.
Indexers are similar to properties, but are accessed via an index
argument rather than a property name. The string class has an
indexer that lets you access each of its char values via an int
index:

```
string s = "hello";
Console.WriteLine (s[0]);  // 'h'
Console.WriteLine (s[3]);  // 'l'
```

The syntax for using indexers is like that for using arrays,
except that the index argument(s) can be of any type(s). You
can call indexers null-conditionally by inserting a question
mark before the square bracket (see “Null Operators” on page

```
string s = null;
Console.WriteLine (s?[0]);  // Writes nothing; no error.
```

Implementing an indexer

To write an indexer, define a property called this, specifying
the arguments in square brackets. For instance:
class Sentence
{
    string[] words = "The quick brown fox".Split();

    public string this [int wordNum] // indexer
    {
        get { return words [wordNum];  }
        set { words [wordNum] = value; }
    }
}

Here’s how we could use this indexer:

    Sentence s = new Sentence();
    Console.WriteLine (s[3]);       // fox
    s[3] = "kangaroo";
    Console.WriteLine (s[3]);       // kangaroo

A type may declare multiple indexers, each with parameters of different types. An indexer can also take more than one parameter:

    public string this [int arg1, string arg2]
    {
        get { ... } set { ... }
    }

If you omit the set accessor, an indexer becomes read-only, and expression-bodied syntax may be used (introduced in C# 6) to shorten its definition:

    public string this [int wordNum] => words [wordNum];

Constants

A constant is a static field whose value can never change. A constant is evaluated statically at compile time and the compiler literally substitutes its value whenever used (rather like a macro in C++). A constant can be any of the built-in numeric types, bool, char, string, or an enum type.

A constant is declared by using the const keyword and must be initialized with a value. For example:

    public class Test
    {
    

A constant is much more restrictive than a static readonly field, both in the types you can use and in field initialization semantics. A constant also differs from a static readonly field in that the evaluation of the constant occurs at compile time. Constants can also be declared local to a method:

```csharp
static void Main()
{
    const double twoPI = 2 * System.Math.PI;
    ...
}
```

### Static Constructors

A static constructor executes once per *type*, rather than once per *instance*. A type can define only one static constructor, and it must be parameterless and have the same name as the type:

```csharp
class Test
{
    static Test() { Console.Write("Type Initialized"); }
}
```

The runtime automatically invokes a static constructor just prior to the type being used. Two things trigger this: instantiating the type and accessing a static member in the type.

---

**WARNING**

If a static constructor throws an unhandled exception, that type becomes *unusable* for the life of the application.

---

Static field initializers run just *before* the static constructor is called. If a type has no static constructor, field initializers will execute just prior to the type being used—or *anytime earlier* at the whim of the runtime.
Static Classes

A class can be marked static, indicating that it must be composed solely of static members and cannot be subclassed. The `System.Console` and `System.Math` classes are good examples of static classes.

Finalizers

Finalizers are class-only methods that execute before the garbage collector reclaims the memory for an unreferenced object. The syntax for a finalizer is the name of the class prefixed with the ~ symbol:

```csharp
class Class1
{
    ~Class1() { ... }
}
```

C# translates a finalizer into a method that overrides the `Finalize` method in the `object` class. We discuss garbage collection and finalizers fully in Chapter 12 of *C# 7.0 in a Nutshell*.

From C# 7, single-statement finalizers can be written with expression-bodied syntax.

Partial Types and Methods

Partial types allow a type definition to be split—typically across multiple files. A common scenario is for a partial class to be autogenerated from some other source (e.g., a Visual Studio template) and for that class to be augmented with additional hand-authored methods. For example:

```csharp
// PaymentFormGen.cs - autogenerated
partial class PaymentForm { ... }

// PaymentForm.cs - hand-authored
partial class PaymentForm { ... }
```

Each participant must have the partial declaration.
Participants cannot have conflicting members. A constructor with the same parameters, for instance, cannot be repeated. Partial types are resolved entirely by the compiler, which means that each participant must be available at compile time and must reside in the same assembly.

A base class may be specified on a single participant or on multiple participants (as long as the base class that you specify is the same). In addition, each participant can independently specify interfaces to implement. We cover base classes and interfaces in “Inheritance” on page 82 and “Interfaces” on page 98.

Partial methods

A partial type may contain partial methods. These let an autogenerated partial type provide customizable hooks for manual authoring. For example:

```csharp
partial class PaymentForm // In autogenerated file
{
    partial void ValidatePayment (decimal amount);
}

partial class PaymentForm // In hand-authored file
{
    partial void ValidatePayment (decimal amount)
    {
        if (amount > 100) Console.Write ("Expensive!");
    }
}
```

A partial method consists of two parts: a definition and an implementation. The definition is typically written by a code generator, and the implementation is typically manually authored. If an implementation is not provided, the definition of the partial method is compiled away (as is the code that calls it). This allows autogenerated code to be liberal in providing hooks, without having to worry about bloat. Partial methods must be void and are implicitly private.
The nameof Operator

The `nameof` operator (introduced in C# 6) returns the name of any symbol (type, member, variable, and so on) as a string:

```csharp
int count = 123;
string name = nameof(count);       // name is "count"
```

Its advantage over simply specifying a string is that of static type checking. Tools such as Visual Studio can understand the symbol reference, so if you rename the symbol in question, all of its references will be renamed, too.

To specify the name of a type member such as a field or property, include the type as well. This works with both static and instance members:

```csharp
string name = nameof(StringBuilder.Length);
```

This evaluates to "Length". To return "StringBuilder.Length", you would do this:

```csharp
nameof(StringBuilder) + "." + nameof(StringBuilder.Length);
```

Inheritance

A class can *inherit* from another class to extend or customize the original class. Inheriting from a class lets you reuse the functionality in that class instead of building it from scratch. A class can inherit from only a single class but can itself be inherited by many classes, thus forming a class hierarchy. In this example, we begin by defining a class called `Asset`:

```csharp
public class Asset { public string Name; }
```

Next, we define classes called `Stock` and `House`, which will inherit from `Asset`. `Stock` and `House` get everything an `Asset` has, plus any additional members that they define:

```csharp
public class Stock : Asset       // inherits from Asset
{
    public long SharesOwned;
}
```
public class House : Asset // inherits from Asset
{
    public decimal Mortgage;
}

Here's how we can use these classes:

Stock msft = new Stock { Name="MSFT",
    SharesOwned=1000 };

Console.WriteLine (msft.Name);         // MSFT
Console.WriteLine (msft.SharesOwned);  // 1000

House mansion = new House { Name="Mansion",
    Mortgage=250000 };

Console.WriteLine (mansion.Name);      // Mansion
Console.WriteLine (mansion.Mortgage);  // 250000

The subclasses, Stock and House, inherit the Name property from the base class, Asset.

Subclasses are also called derived classes.

### Polymorphism

References are polymorphic. This means a variable of type $x$ can refer to an object that subclasses $x$. For instance, consider the following method:

```csharp
public static void Display (Asset asset)
{
    System.Console.WriteLine (asset.Name);
}
```

This method can display both a Stock and a House, since they are both Assets. Polymorphism works on the basis that subclasses (Stock and House) have all the features of their base class (Asset). The converse, however, is not true. If Display were rewritten to accept a House, you could not pass in an Asset.
Casting and Reference Conversions

An object reference can be:

- Implicitly \textit{upcast} to a base class reference
- Explicitly \textit{downcast} to a subclass reference

Upcasting and downcasting between compatible reference types performs \textit{reference conversions}: a new reference is created that points to the \textit{same} object. An upcast always succeeds; a downcast succeeds only if the object is suitably typed.

\textbf{Upcasting}

An upcast operation creates a base class reference from a subclass reference. For example:

\begin{verbatim}
Stock msft = new Stock();    // From previous example
Asset a = msft;              // Upcast
\end{verbatim}

After the upcast, variable \( a \) still references the same \textit{Stock} object as variable \( msft \). The object being referenced is not itself altered or converted:

\begin{verbatim}
Console.WriteLine (a == msft);        // True
\end{verbatim}

Although \( a \) and \( msft \) refer to the same object, \( a \) has a more restrictive view on that object:

\begin{verbatim}
Console.WriteLine (a.Name);           // OK
Console.WriteLine (a.SharesOwned);    // Error
\end{verbatim}

The last line generates a compile-time error because the variable \( a \) is of type \textit{Asset}, even though it refers to an object of type \textit{Stock}. To get to its \textit{SharesOwned} field, you must \textit{downcast} the \textit{Asset} to a \textit{Stock}.

\textbf{Downcasting}

A downcast operation creates a subclass reference from a base class reference. For example:
Stock msft = new Stock();
Asset a = msft; // Upcast
Stock s = (Stock)a; // Downcast
Console.WriteLine (s.SharesOwned); // <No error>
Console.WriteLine (s == a); // True
Console.WriteLine (s == msft); // True

As with an upcast, only references are affected, not the underlying object. A downcast requires an explicit cast because it can potentially fail at runtime:

House h = new House();
Asset a = h; // Upcast always succeeds
Stock s = (Stock)a; // Downcast fails: a is not a Stock

If a downcast fails, an InvalidCastException is thrown. This is an example of runtime type checking (see “Static and Runtime Type Checking” on page 93).

The as operator

The as operator performs a downcast that evaluates to null (rather than throwing an exception) if the downcast fails:

Asset a = new Asset();
Stock s = a as Stock; // s is null; no exception thrown

This is useful when you’re going to subsequently test whether the result is null:

if (s != null) Console.WriteLine (s.SharesOwned);

The as operator cannot perform custom conversions (see “Operator Overloading” on page 191) and it cannot do numeric conversions.

The is operator

The is operator tests whether a reference conversion would succeed—in other words, whether an object derives from a specified class (or implements an interface). It is often used to test before downcasting:

if (a is Stock) Console.Write (((Stock)a).SharesOwned);
The is operator also evaluates to true if an unboxing conversion would succeed (see “The object Type” on page 91). However, it does not consider custom or numeric conversions.

From C# 7, you can introduce a variable while using the is operator:

```csharp
if (a is Stock s)
    Console.WriteLine (s.SharesOwned);
```

The variable that you introduce is available for “immediate” consumption and remains in scope outside the is expression:

```csharp
if (a is Stock s && s.SharesOwned > 100000)
    Console.WriteLine ("Wealthy");
else
    s = new Stock();   // s is in scope

    Console.WriteLine (s.SharesOwned);  // Still in scope
```

### Virtual Function Members

A function marked as virtual can be overridden by subclasses wanting to provide a specialized implementation. Methods, properties, indexers, and events can all be declared virtual:

```csharp
public class Asset
{
    public string Name;
    public virtual decimal Liability => 0;
}
```

(Liability => 0 is a shortcut for `{ get { return 0; } }`. See “Expression-bodied properties” on page 75 for more details on this syntax.) A subclass overrides a virtual method by applying the override modifier:

```csharp
public class House : Asset
{
    public decimal Mortgage;

    public override decimal Liability => Mortgage;
}
```
By default, the Liability of an Asset is 0. A Stock does not need to specialize this behavior. However, the House specializes the Liability property to return the value of the Mortgage:

```csharp
House mansion = new House { Name="Mansion", Mortgage=250000 }; Asset a = mansion;
Console.WriteLine (mansion.Liability); // 250000
Console.WriteLine (a.Liability);        // 250000
```

The signatures, return types, and accessibility of the virtual and overridden methods must be identical. An overridden method can call its base class implementation via the base keyword (see “The base Keyword” on page 88).

**Abstract Classes and Abstract Members**

A class declared as abstract can never be instantiated. Instead, only its concrete subclasses can be instantiated.

Abstract classes are able to define abstract members. Abstract members are like virtual members, except they don’t provide a default implementation. That implementation must be provided by the subclass, unless that subclass is also declared abstract:

```csharp
public abstract class Asset
{
    // Note empty implementation
    public abstract decimal NetValue { get; }
}
```

Subclasses override abstract members just as though they were virtual.

**Hiding Inherited Members**

A base class and a subclass may define identical members. For example:

```csharp
public class A { public int Counter = 1; }
public class B : A { public int Counter = 2; }
```
The Counter field in class B is said to hide the Counter field in class A. Usually, this happens by accident, when a member is added to the base type after an identical member was added to the subtype. For this reason, the compiler generates a warning, and then resolves the ambiguity as follows:

- References to A (at compile time) bind to A.Counter.
- References to B (at compile time) bind to B.Counter.

Occasionally, you want to hide a member deliberately, in which case you can apply the new modifier to the member in the subclass. The new modifier does nothing more than suppress the compiler warning that would otherwise result:

```csharp
public class A { public int Counter = 1; }
public class B : A { public new int Counter = 2; }
```

The new modifier communicates your intent to the compiler—and other programmers—that the duplicate member is not an accident.

### Sealing Functions and Classes

An overridden function member may seal its implementation with the sealed keyword to prevent it from being overridden by further subclasses. In our earlier virtual function member example, we could have sealed House’s implementation of Liability, preventing a class that derives from House from overriding Liability, as follows:

```csharp
public sealed override decimal Liability { get { ... } }
```

You can also seal the class itself, implicitly sealing all the virtual functions, by applying the sealed modifier to the class itself.

### The base Keyword

The base keyword is similar to the this keyword. It serves two essential purposes: accessing an overridden function member from the subclass, and calling a base class constructor (see the next section).
In this example, House uses the base keyword to access Asset’s implementation of Liability:

```csharp
public class House : Asset
{
    ...
    public override decimal Liability => base.Liability + Mortgage;
}
```

With the base keyword, we access Asset’s Liability property nonvirtually. This means we will always access Asset’s version of this property—regardless of the instance’s actual runtime type.

The same approach works if Liability is hidden rather than overridden. (You can also access hidden members by casting to the base class before invoking the function.)

**Constructors and Inheritance**

A subclass must declare its own constructors. For example, if we define Baseclass and Subclass as follows:

```csharp
public class Baseclass
{
    public int X;
    public Baseclass () { }
    public Baseclass (int x) { this.X = x; }
}
public class Subclass : Baseclass { }
```

the following is illegal:

```csharp
Subclass s = new Subclass (123);
```

Subclass must “redefine” any constructors it wants to expose. In doing so, it can call any of the base class’s constructors with the base keyword:

```csharp
public class Subclass : Baseclass
{
    public Subclass (int x) : base (x) { ... }
}
```
The base keyword works rather like the this keyword, except that it calls a constructor in the base class. Base class constructors always execute first; this ensures that base initialization occurs before specialized initialization.

If a constructor in a subclass omits the base keyword, the base type's parameterless constructor is implicitly called (if the base class has no accessible parameterless constructor, the compiler generates an error).

**Constructor and field initialization order**

When an object is instantiated, initialization takes place in the following order:

1. From subclass to base class:
   a. Fields are initialized.
   b. Arguments to base class constructor calls are evaluated.

2. From base class to subclass:
   a. Constructor bodies execute.

**Overloading and Resolution**

Inheritance has an interesting impact on method overloading. Consider the following two overloads:

```csharp
static void Foo (Asset a) { }
static void Foo (House h) { }
```

When an overload is called, the most specific type has precedence:

```csharp
House h = new House (...);
Foo(h);                     // Calls Foo(House)
```

The particular overload to call is determined statically (at compile time) rather than at runtime. The following code calls Foo(Asset), even though the runtime type of a is House:
Asset a = new House (...);
Foo(a);                 // Calls Foo(Asset)

NOTE

If you cast Asset to dynamic (see “Dynamic Binding” on page 182), the decision as to which overload to call is deferred until runtime and is based on the object’s actual type.

The object Type

object (System.Object) is the ultimate base class for all types. Any type can be implicitly upcast to object.

To illustrate how this is useful, consider a general-purpose stack. A stack is a data structure based on the LIFO principle—“last in, first out.” A stack has two operations: push an object on the stack, and pop an object off the stack. Here is a simple implementation that can hold up to 10 objects:

```csharp
public class Stack
{
    int position;
    object[] data = new object[10];
    public void Push (object o) { data[position++] = o; }
    public object Pop() { return data[--position]; }
}
```

Because Stack works with the object type, we can Push and Pop instances of any type to and from the Stack:

```csharp
Stack stack = new Stack();
stack.Push("sausage");
string s = (string) stack.Pop();  // Downcast
Console.WriteLine (s);            // sausage
```

object is a reference type by virtue of being a class. Despite this, value types such as int can also be cast to and from object. To make this possible, the CLR must perform some
special work to bridge the underlying differences between value and reference types. This process is called *boxing* and *unboxing*.

---

**NOTE**

In “Generics” on page 105, we’ll describe how to improve our Stack class to better handle stacks with same-typed elements.

---

**Boxing and Unboxing**

Boxing is the act of casting a value type instance to a reference type instance. The reference type may be either the object class or an interface (see “Interfaces” on page 98). In this example, we box an int into an object:

```csharp
int x = 9;
object obj = x;  // Box the int
```

Unboxing reverses the operation by casting the object back to the original value type:

```csharp
int y = (int)obj;  // Unbox the int
```

Unboxing requires an explicit cast. The runtime checks that the stated value type matches the actual object type, and throws an *InvalidCastException* if the check fails. For instance, the following throws an exception because long does not exactly match int:

```csharp
object obj = 9;  // 9 is inferred to be of type int
long x = (long)obj;  // InvalidCastException
```

The following succeeds, however:

```csharp
object obj = 9;
long x = (int)obj;
```

As does this:

```csharp
object obj = 3.5;  // 3.5 inferred to be type double
int x = (int)(double)obj;  // x is now 3
```
In the last example, (double) performs an unboxing and then (int) performs a numeric conversion.

Boxing copies the value type instance into the new object, and unboxing copies the contents of the object back into a value type instance:

```csharp
int i = 3;
object boxed = i;
i = 5;
Console.WriteLine(boxed);    // 3
```

### Static and Runtime Type Checking

C# checks types both statically (at compile time) and at runtime.

Static type checking enables the compiler to verify the correctness of your program without running it. The following code will fail because the compiler enforces static typing:

```csharp
int x = "5";
```

Runtime type checking is performed by the CLR when you downcast via a reference conversion or unboxing:

```csharp
object y = "5";
int z = (int) y;       // Runtime error, downcast failed
```

Runtime type checking is possible because each object on the heap internally stores a little type token. You can retrieve this token by calling the `GetType` method of `object`.

### The `GetType` Method and typeof Operator

All types in C# are represented at runtime with an instance of `System.Type`. There are two basic ways to get a `System.Type` object: call `GetType` on the instance or use the `typeof` operator on a type name. `GetType` is evaluated at runtime; `typeof` is evaluated statically at compile time.

`System.Type` has properties for such things as the type’s name, assembly, base type, and so on. For example:
int x = 3;

Console.Write (x.GetType().Name);       // Int32
Console.Write (typeof(int).Name);        // Int32
Console.Write (x.GetType().FullName);    // System.Int32
Console.Write (x.GetType() == typeof(int)); // True

System.Type also has methods that act as a gateway to the runtime's reflection model. For detailed information, see Chapter 19 of *C# 7.0 in a Nutshell*.

**Object Member Listing**

Here are all the members of object:

```csharp
public extern Type GetType();
public virtual bool Equals (object obj);
public static bool Equals (object objA, object objB);
public static bool ReferenceEquals (object objA,
                                    object objB);

public virtual int GetHashCode();
public virtual string ToString();
protected override void Finalize();
protected extern object MemberwiseClone();
```

**Equals, ReferenceEquals, and GetHashCode**

The Equals method in the object class is similar to the == operator, except that Equals is virtual, whereas == is static. The following example illustrates the difference:

```csharp
object x = 3;
object y = 3;
Console.WriteLine (x == y);        // False
Console.WriteLine (x.Equals (y));  // True
```

Because x and y have been cast to the object type, the compiler statically binds to object’s == operator, which uses reference type semantics to compare two instances. (And because x and y are boxed, they are represented in separate memory locations and thus are unequal.) The virtual Equals method, however, defers to the Int32 type’s Equals method, which uses value type semantics in comparing two values.
The static `object.Equals` method simply calls the virtual `Equals` method on the first argument—after checking that the arguments are not null:

```csharp
object x = null, y = 3;
bool error = x.Equals(y);   // Runtime error!
bool ok = object.Equals(x, y); // OK (false)
```

`ReferenceEquals` forces a reference type equality comparison (this is occasionally useful on reference types where the `==` operator has been overloaded to do otherwise).


To customize a type’s equality semantics, you must at a minimum override `Equals` and `GetHashCode`. You would also usually overload the `==` and `!=` operators. For an example of how to do both, see “Operator Overloading” on page 191.

### The `ToString` Method

The `ToString` method returns the default textual representation of a type instance. The `ToString` method is overridden by all built-in types:

```csharp
string s1 = 1.ToString();      // s1 is "1"
string s2 = true.ToString();   // s2 is "True"
```

You can override the `ToString` method on custom types as follows:

```csharp
public override string ToString() => "Foo";
```

### Structs

A `struct` is similar to a class, with the following key differences:

- A struct is a value type, whereas a class is a reference type.
• A struct does not support inheritance (other than implicitly deriving from object, or more precisely, System.ValueType).

A struct can have all the members a class can, except for a parameterless constructor, field initializers, a finalizer, and virtual or protected members.

A struct is appropriate when value type semantics are desirable. Good examples are numeric types, where it is more natural for assignment to copy a value rather than a reference. Because a struct is a value type, each instance does not require instantiation of an object on the heap; this can incur useful savings when you’re creating many instances of a type. For instance, creating an array of a value type requires only a single heap allocation.

Struct Construction Semantics

The construction semantics of a struct are as follows:

• A parameterless constructor that you can’t override implicitly exists. This performs a bitwise-zeroing of its fields.

• When you define a struct constructor (with parameters), you must explicitly assign every field.

• You can’t have field initializers in a struct.

Access Modifiers

To promote encapsulation, a type or type member may limit its accessibility to other types and other assemblies by adding one of five access modifiers to the declaration:

public
   Fully accessible. This is the implicit accessibility for members of an enum or interface.
internal

Accessible only within the containing assembly or friend assemblies. This is the default accessibility for non-nested types.

private

Accessible only within the containing type. This is the default accessibility for members of a class or struct.

protected

Accessible only within the containing type or subclasses.

protected internal

The union of protected and internal accessibility (this is more permissive than protected or internal alone, in that it makes a member more accessible in two ways).

In the following example, Class2 is accessible from outside its assembly; Class1 is not:

class Class1 {}         // Class1 is internal (default)
public class Class2 {}  

ClassB exposes field x to other types in the same assembly; ClassA does not:

class ClassA { int x;          }  // x is private
class ClassB { internal int x; }  

When you’re overriding a base class function, accessibility must be identical on the overridden function. The compiler prevents any inconsistent use of access modifiers—for example, a subclass itself can be less accessible than a base class, but not more.

Friend Assemblies

In advanced scenarios, you can expose internal members to other friend assemblies by adding the System.Runtime.CompilerServices.InternalsVisibleTo assembly attribute, specifying the name of the friend assembly as follows:

[assembly: InternalsVisibleTo ("Friend")]

If the friend assembly is signed with a strong name, you must specify its full 160-byte public key. You can extract this key via
a LINQ query—an interactive example is given in LINQPad’s free sample library for *C# 7.0 in a Nutshell*.

**Accessibility Capping**

A type caps the accessibility of its declared members. The most common example of capping is when you have an *internal type* with *public members*. For example:

```csharp
class C { public void Foo() {} }
```

*C*'s (default) *internal* accessibility caps *Foo*’s accessibility, effectively making *Foo internal*. A common reason *Foo* would be marked *public* is to make for easier refactoring, should *C* later be changed to *public*.

**Interfaces**

An *interface* is similar to a class, but it provides a specification rather than an implementation for its members. An interface is special in the following ways:

- Interface members are *all implicitly abstract*. In contrast, a class can provide both abstract members and concrete members with implementations.
- A class (or struct) can implement *multiple* interfaces. In contrast, a class can inherit from only a *single* class, and a struct cannot inherit at all (aside from deriving from `System.ValueType`).

An interface declaration is like a class declaration, but it provides no implementation for its members, because all of its members are implicitly abstract. These members will be implemented by the classes and structs that implement the interface. An interface can contain only methods, properties, events, and indexers, which noncoincidentally are precisely the members of a class that can be abstract.
Here is a slightly simplified version of the IEnumerator interface, defined in System.Collections:

```csharp
public interface IEnumerator
{
    bool MoveNext();
    object Current { get; }
}
```

Interface members are always implicitly public and cannot declare an access modifier. Implementing an interface means providing a public implementation for all its members:

```csharp
internal class Countdown : IEnumerator
{
    int count = 11;
    public bool MoveNext() => count-- > 0 ;
    public object Current => count;
}
```

You can implicitly cast an object to any interface that it implements:

```csharp
IEnumerator e = new Countdown();
while (e.MoveNext())
    Console.Write (e.Current); // 109876543210
```

**Extending an Interface**

Interfaces may derive from other interfaces. For instance:

```csharp
public interface IUndoable { void Undo(); }
public interface IRedoable : IUndoable { void Redo(); }
```

IRedoable “inherits” all the members of IUndoable.

**Explicit Interface Implementation**

Implementing multiple interfaces can sometimes result in a collision between member signatures. You can resolve such collisions by explicitly implementing an interface member. For example:

```csharp
interface I1 { void Foo(); }
interface I2 { int Foo(); }
```
```csharp
public class Widget : I1, I2
{
    public void Foo() // Implicit implementation
    {
        Console.Write("Widget's implementation of I1.Foo");
    }

    int I2.Foo() // Explicit implementation of I2.Foo
    {
        Console.Write("Widget's implementation of I2.Foo");
        return 42;
    }
}
```

Because both I1 and I2 have conflicting Foo signatures, Widget explicitly implements I2’s Foo method. This lets the two methods coexist in one class. The only way to call an explicitly implemented member is to cast to its interface:

```csharp
    Widget w = new Widget();
    w.Foo(); // Widget's implementation of I1.Foo
    ((I1)w).Foo(); // Widget's implementation of I1.Foo
    ((I2)w).Foo(); // Widget's implementation of I2.Foo
```

Another reason to explicitly implement interface members is to hide members that are highly specialized and distracting to a type’s normal use case. For example, a type that implements ISerializable would typically want to avoid flaunting its ISerializable members unless explicitly cast to that interface.

### Implementing Interface Members Virtually

An implicitly implemented interface member is, by default, sealed. It must be marked `virtual` or `abstract` in the base class in order to be overridden; calling the interface member through either the base class or the interface then calls the subclass’s implementation.

An explicitly implemented interface member cannot be marked `virtual`, nor can it be overridden in the usual manner. It can, however, be `reimplemented`. 
Reimplementing an Interface in a Subclass

A subclass can reimplement any interface member already implemented by a base class. Reimplementation hijacks a member implementation (when called through the interface) and works whether or not the member is virtual in the base class.

In the following example, TextBox implements IUndo.Undo explicitly, and so it cannot be marked as virtual. To “override” it, RichTextBox must reimplement IUndo’s Undo method:

```csharp
public interface IUndoable { void Undo(); }

public class TextBox : IUndoable
{
    void IUndoable.Undo()
    => Console.WriteLine("TextBox.Undo");
}

class RichTextBox : TextBox, IUndoable
{
    public new void Undo()
    => Console.WriteLine("RichTextBox.Undo");
}
```

Calling the reimplemented member through the interface calls the subclass’s implementation:

```csharp
    RichTextBox r = new RichTextBox();
    r.Undo();           // RichTextBox.Undo
    ((IUndoable)r).Undo();  // RichTextBox.Undo
```

In this case, Undo is implemented explicitly. Implicitly implemented members can also be reimplemented, but the effect is nonpervasive in that calling the member through the base class invokes the base implementation.

Enums

An enum is a special value type that lets you specify a group of named numeric constants. For example:

```csharp
    public enum BorderSide { Left, Right, Top, Bottom }
```
We can use this enum type as follows:

```csharp
BorderSide topSide = BorderSide.Top;
bool isTop = (topSide == BorderSide.Top);  // true
```

Each enum member has an underlying integral-type value. By default, the underlying values are of type `int`, and the enum members are assigned the constants 0, 1, 2... (in their declaration order). You may specify an alternative integral type, as follows:

```csharp
public enum BorderSide : byte { Left, Right, Top, Bottom }
```

You may also specify an explicit integer value for each member:

```csharp
public enum BorderSide : byte
{    Left=1, Right=2, Top=10, Bottom=11 }
```

The compiler also lets you explicitly assign some of the enum members. The unassigned enum members keep incrementing from the last explicit value. The preceding example is equivalent to:

```csharp
public enum BorderSide : byte
{    Left=1, Right, Top=10, Bottom }
```

**Enum Conversions**

You can convert an `enum` instance to and from its underlying integral value with an explicit cast:

```csharp
int i = (int) BorderSide.Left;
BorderSide side = (BorderSide) i;
bool leftOrRight = (int) side <= 2;
```

You can also explicitly cast one enum type to another; the translation then uses the members’ underlying integral values.

The numeric literal 0 is treated specially, in that it does not require an explicit cast:

```csharp
BorderSide b = 0;  // No cast required
if (b == 0) ...
```

In this particular example, `BorderSide` has no member with an integer value of 0. This does not generate an error: a limitation
of enums is that the compiler and CLR do not prevent the assignment of integrals whose values fall outside the range of members:

```csharp
BorderSide b = (BorderSide) 12345;
Console.WriteLine (b);              // 12345
```

**Flags Enums**

You can combine enum members. To prevent ambiguities, members of a combinable enum require explicitly assigned values, typically in powers of two. For example:

```csharp
[Flags]
public enum BorderSides
{
    None=0, Left=1, Right=2, Top=4, Bottom=8
}
```

By convention, a combinable enum type is given a plural rather than singular name. To work with combined enum values, you use bitwise operators, such as `|` and `&`. These operate on the underlying integral values:

```csharp
BorderSides leftRight =
    BorderSides.Left | BorderSides.Right;

if (((leftRight & BorderSides.Left) != 0)
    Console.WriteLine ("Includes Left"); // Includes Left

string formatted = leftRight.ToString(); // "Left, Right"

BorderSides s = BorderSides.Left;
s |= BorderSides.Right;
Console.WriteLine (s == leftRight);      // True
```

The `Flags` attribute should be applied to combinable enum types; if you fail to do this, calling `ToString` on an enum instance emits a number rather than a series of names.

For convenience, you can include combination members within an enum declaration itself:

```csharp
[Flags] public enum BorderSides
{
    None=0,
    Left=1, Right=2, Top=4, Bottom=8,
```
Enum Operators

The operators that work with enums are:

\[
= \quad == \quad != \quad < \quad > \quad <= \quad >= \quad + \quad - \quad ^\wedge \quad & \quad | \quad ~
\]

+=  -=  ++  -  sizeof

The bitwise, arithmetic, and comparison operators return the result of processing the underlying integral values. Addition is permitted between an enum and an integral type, but not between two enums.

Nested Types

A nested type is declared within the scope of another type. For example:

```csharp
public class TopLevel
{
    public class Nested { } // Nested class
    public enum Color { Red, Blue, Tan } // Nested enum
}
```

A nested type has the following features:

- It can access the enclosing type’s private members and everything else the enclosing type can access.
- It can be declared with the full range of access modifiers rather than just public and internal.
- The default accessibility for a nested type is private rather than internal.
- Accessing a nested type from outside the enclosing type requires qualification with the enclosing type’s name (like when you’re accessing static members).
For example, to access `Color.Red` from outside our `TopLevel` class, we’d have to do this:

```csharp
TopLevel.Color color = TopLevel.Color.Red;
```

All types can be nested; however, only classes and structs can nest.

**Generics**

C# has two separate mechanisms for writing code that is reusable across different types: *inheritance* and *generics*. Whereas inheritance expresses reusability with a base type, generics express reusability with a “template” that contains “placeholder” types. Generics, when compared to inheritance, can increase type safety and reduce casting and boxing.

**Generic Types**

A *generic type* declares *type parameters*—placeholder types to be filled in by the consumer of the generic type, which supplies the *type arguments*. Here is a generic type, `Stack<T>`, designed to stack instances of type `T`. `Stack<T>` declares a single type parameter `T`:

```csharp
public class Stack<T>
{
    int position;
    T[] data = new T[100];
    public void Push (T obj) => data[position++] = obj;
    public T Pop()           => data[--position];
}
```

We can use `Stack<T>` as follows:

```csharp
var stack = new Stack<int>();
stack.Push (5);
stack.Push (10);
int x = stack.Pop();        // x is 10
int y = stack.Pop();        // y is 5
```
NOTE

Notice that no downcasts are required in the last two lines, avoiding the possibility of a runtime error and eliminating the overhead of boxing/unboxing. This makes our generic stack superior to a nongeneric stack that uses object in place of T (see “The object Type” on page 91 to see an example of this).

Stack<int> fills in the type parameter T with the type argument int, implicitly creating a type on the fly (the synthesis occurs at runtime). Stack<int> effectively has the following definition (substitutions appear in bold, with the class name hashed out to avoid confusion):

```csharp
public class ###
{
    int position;
    int[] data;
    public void Push (int obj) => data[position++] = obj;
    public int Pop()           => data[--position];
}
```

Technically, we say that Stack<T> is an open type, whereas Stack<int> is a closed type. At runtime, all generic type instances are closed—with the placeholder types filled in.

Generic Methods

A generic method declares type parameters within the signature of a method. With generic methods, many fundamental algorithms can be implemented in a general-purpose way only. Here is a generic method that swaps the contents of two variables of any type T:

```csharp
static void Swap<T> (ref T a, ref T b)
{
    T temp = a; a = b; b = temp;
}
```
Swap\(<T>\) can be used as follows:

```csharp
int x = 5, y = 10;
Swap(ref x, ref y);
```

Generally, there is no need to supply type arguments to a generic method, because the compiler can implicitly infer the type. If there is ambiguity, generic methods can be called with the type arguments as follows:

```csharp
Swap<int> (ref x, ref y);
```

Within a generic type, a method is not classed as generic unless it introduces type parameters (with the angle bracket syntax). The Pop method in our generic stack merely consumes the type’s existing type parameter, \(T\), and is not classed as a generic method.

Methods and types are the only constructs that can introduce type parameters. Properties, indexers, events, fields, constructors, operators, and so on cannot declare type parameters, although they can partake in any type parameters already declared by their enclosing type. In our generic stack example, for instance, we could write an indexer that returns a generic item:

```csharp
public T this[int index] { get { return data[index]; } }
```

Similarly, constructors can partake in existing type parameters, but cannot introduce them.

**Declaring Type Parameters**

Type parameters can be introduced in the declaration of classes, structs, interfaces, delegates (see “Delegates” on page 114), and methods. A generic type or method can have multiple parameters:

```csharp
class Dictionary<TKey, TValue> {...}
```

Here’s how to instantiate:

```csharp
var myDic = new Dictionary<int,string>();
```
Generic type names and method names can be overloaded as long as the number of type parameters differs. For example, the following three type names do not conflict:

```csharp
class A {}
class A<T> {}
class A<T1,T2> {}
```

---

**NOTE**

By convention, generic types and methods with a single type parameter name their parameter `<T>`, as long as the intent of the parameter is clear. With multiple type parameters, each parameter has a more descriptive name (prefixed by `<T>`).

---

**typeof and Unbound Generic Types**

Open generic types do not exist at runtime: open generic types are closed as part of compilation. However, it is possible for an unbound generic type to exist at runtime—purely as a `Type` object. The only way to specify an unbound generic type in C# is with the `typeof` operator:

```csharp
class A<T> {}
class A<T1,T2> {}
...

Type a1 = typeof (A<>);     // Unbound type
Type a2 = typeof (A<,>);    // Indicates 2 type args
Console.WriteLine (a2.GetGenericArguments().Count());      // 2
```

You can also use the `typeof` operator to specify a closed type:

```csharp
Type a3 = typeof (A<int,int>);
```

or an open type (which is closed at runtime):

```csharp
class B<T> { void X() { Type t = typeof (T); } }
```
The default Generic Value

The default keyword can be used to get the default value for a generic type parameter. The default value for a reference type is null, and the default value for a value type is the result of bitwise-zeroing the type's fields:

```csharp
static void Zap<T> (T[] array)
{
    for (int i = 0; i < array.Length; i++)
        array[i] = default(T);
}
```

Generic Constraints

By default, a type parameter can be substituted with any type whatsoever. Constraints can be applied to a type parameter to require more specific type arguments. There are six kinds of constraint:

- where $T : \text{base-class}$ // Base class constraint
- where $T : \text{interface}$ // Interface constraint
- where $T : \text{class}$ // Reference type constraint
- where $T : \text{struct}$ // Value type constraint
- where $T : \text{new()}$ // Parameterless constructor
- where $U : T$ // Naked type constraint

In the following example, GenericClass<T,U> requires $T$ to derive from (or be identical to) SomeClass and implement Interface1, and requires $U$ to provide a parameterless constructor:

```csharp
class SomeClass {}
interface Interface1 {}

class GenericClass<T,U> where T : SomeClass, Interface1
    where U : new()
{
    ...
}
```

Constraints can be applied wherever type parameters are defined, whether in methods or in type definitions.
A base class constraint specifies that the type parameter must subclass (or match) a particular class; an interface constraint specifies that the type parameter must implement that interface. These constraints allow instances of the type parameter to be implicitly converted to that class or interface.

The class constraint and struct constraint specify that T must be a reference type or a (non-nullable) value type, respectively. The parameterless constructor constraint requires T to have a public parameterless constructor and allows you to call new() on T:

```csharp
static void Initialize<T> (T[] array) where T : new()
{
    for (int i = 0; i < array.Length; i++)
        array[i] = new T();
}
```

The naked type constraint requires one type parameter to derive from (or match) another type parameter.

## Subclassing Generic Types

A generic class can be subclassed just like a nongeneric class. The subclass can leave the base class's type parameters open, as in the following example:

```csharp
class Stack<T> {...}  
class SpecialStack<T> : Stack<T> {...}
```

Or the subclass can close the generic type parameters with a concrete type:

```csharp
class IntStack : Stack<int>  {...}
```

A subtype can also introduce fresh type arguments:

```csharp
class List<T> {...}  
class KeyedList<T, TKey> : List<T> {...}
```

## Self-Referencing Generic Declarations

A type can name itself as the concrete type when closing a type argument:
public interface IEquatable<T> { bool Equals (T obj); }

public class Balloon : IEquatable<Balloon>
{
    public bool Equals (Balloon b) { ... }
}

The following are also legal:

class Foo<T> where T : IComparable<T> { ... }
class Bar<T> where T : Bar<T> { ... }

**Static Data**

Static data is unique for each closed type:

class Bob<T> { public static int Count; }
...
Console.WriteLine (++Bob<int>.Count);     // 1
Console.WriteLine (++Bob<int>.Count);     // 2
Console.WriteLine (++Bob<string>.Count);  // 1
Console.WriteLine (++Bob<object>.Count);  // 1

**Covariance**

---

**NOTE**

Covariance and contravariance are advanced concepts. The motivation behind their introduction into C# was to allow generic interfaces and generics (in particular, those defined in the .NET Framework, such as IEnumerable<T>) to work *more as you’d expect*. You can benefit from this without understanding the details behind covariance and contravariance.

---

Assuming that A is convertible to B, X has a covariant type parameter if X<A> is convertible to X<B>.

(With C#’s notion of variance, “convertible” means convertible via an *implicit reference conversion*—such as A subclassing B, or A
implementing B. Numeric conversions, boxing conversions, and custom conversions are not included.)

For instance, type IFoo<T> has a covariant T if the following is legal:

```csharp
IFoo<string> s = ...;
IFoo<object> b = s;
```

From C# 4.0, interfaces (and delegates) permit covariant type parameters. To illustrate, suppose that the Stack<T> class that we wrote at the beginning of this section implements the following interface:

```csharp
public interface IPoppable<T> { T Pop(); }
```

The `out` modifier on T indicates that T is used only in output positions (e.g., return types for methods) and flags the type parameter as covariant, permitting the following code:

```csharp
// Assuming that Bear subclasses Animal:
var bears = new Stack<Bear>();
bears.Push (new Bear());

// Because bears implements IPoppable<Bear>,
// we can convert it to IPoppable<Animal>:
IPoppable<Animal> animals = bears;   // Legal
Animal a = animals.Pop();
```

The cast from bears to animals is permitted by the compiler—by virtue of the interface’s type parameter being covariant.

---

**NOTE**

The IEnumerator<T> and IEnumerable<T> interfaces (see “Enumeration and Iterators” on page 140) are marked with a covariant T from .NET Framework 4.0. This allows you to cast IEnumerable<string> to IEnumerable<object>, for instance.
The compiler will generate an error if you use a covariant type parameter in an *input* position (e.g., a parameter to a method or a writable property). The purpose of this limitation is to guarantee compile-time type safety. For instance, it prevents us from adding a `Push(T)` method to that interface, which consumers could abuse with the seemingly benign operation of pushing a camel onto an `IPoppable<Animal>` (remember that the underlying type in our example is a stack of bears). To define a `Push(T)` method, `T` must in fact be *contravariant*.

---

**NOTE**

C# supports covariance (and contravariance) only for elements with *reference conversions*—not *boxing conversions*. So, if you wrote a method that accepted a parameter of type `IPoppable<object>`, you could call it with `IPoppable<string>`, but not `IPoppable<int>`.

---

**Contravariance**

We previously saw that, assuming that `A` allows an implicit reference conversion to `B`, a type `X` has a covariant type parameter if `X<A>` allows a reference conversion to `X<B>`. A type is *contravariant* when you can convert in the reverse direction—from `X<B>` to `X<A>`. This is supported on interfaces and delegates when the type parameter appears only in *input* positions, designated with the `in` modifier. Extending our previous example, if the `Stack<T>` class implements the following interface:

```csharp
public interface IPushable<in T> { void Push(T obj); }
```

we can legally do this:

```csharp
IPushable<Animal> animals = new Stack<Animal>();
IPushable<Bear> bears = animals;  // Legal
bears.Push(new Bear());
```
Mirroring covariance, the compiler will report an error if you try to use a contravariant type parameter in an output position (e.g., as a return value, or in a readable property).

## Delegates

A delegate wires up a method caller to its target method at runtime. There are two aspects to a delegate: type and instance. A delegate type defines a protocol to which the caller and target will conform, comprising a list of parameter types and a return type. A delegate instance is an object that refers to one (or more) target methods conforming to that protocol.

A delegate instance literally acts as a delegate for the caller: the caller invokes the delegate, and then the delegate calls the target method. This indirection decouples the caller from the target method.

A delegate type declaration is preceded by the keyword delegate, but otherwise it resembles an (abstract) method declaration. For example:

```csharp
delegate int Transformer (int x);
```

To create a delegate instance, you can assign a method to a delegate variable:

```csharp
class Test
{
    static void Main()
    {
        Transformer t = Square; // Create delegate instance
        int result = t(3);        // Invoke delegate
        Console.Write (result);  // 9
    }
    static int Square (int x) => x * x;
}
```

Invoking a delegate is just like invoking a method (given that the delegate’s purpose is merely to provide a level of indirection):

```csharp
t(3);
```
The statement Transformer t = Square is shorthand for:

```
Transformer t = new Transformer (Square);
```

And t(3) is shorthand for:

```
t.Invoke (3);
```

A delegate is similar to a callback, a general term that captures constructs such as C function pointers.

**Writing Plug-In Methods with Delegates**

A delegate variable is assigned a method at runtime. This is useful for writing plug-in methods. In this example, we have a utility method named Transform that applies a transform to each element in an integer array. The Transform method has a delegate parameter for specifying a plug-in transform.

```csharp
public delegate int Transformer (int x);

class Test
{
    static void Main()
    {
        int[] values = { 1, 2, 3 };
        Transform (values, Square);
        foreach (int i in values)
            Console.Write (i + " ");    // 1 4 9
    }

    static void Transform (int[] values, Transformer t)
    {
        for (int i = 0; i < values.Length; i++)
            values[i] = t (values[i]);
    }

    static int Square (int x) => x * x;
}
```

**Multicast Delegates**

All delegate instances have multicast capability. This means that a delegate instance can reference not just a single target
method, but also a list of target methods. The + and += operators combine delegate instances. For example:

```csharp
SomeDelegate d = SomeMethod1;
d += SomeMethod2;
```

The last line is functionally the same as:

```csharp
d = d + SomeMethod2;
```

Invoking `d` will now call both `SomeMethod1` and `SomeMethod2`. Delegates are invoked in the order they are added.

The - and -= operators remove the right delegate operand from the left delegate operand. For example:

```csharp
d -= SomeMethod1;
```

Invoking `d` will now cause only `SomeMethod2` to be invoked.

Calling + or += on a delegate variable with a null value is legal, as is calling -= on a delegate variable with a single target (which will result in the delegate instance being null).

---

**NOTE**

Delegates are immutable, so when you call += or -=, you’re in fact creating a new delegate instance and assigning it to the existing variable.

---

If a multicast delegate has a nonvoid return type, the caller receives the return value from the last method to be invoked. The preceding methods are still called, but their return values are discarded. In most scenarios in which multicast delegates are used, they have void return types, so this subtlety does not arise.

All delegate types implicitly derive from `System.MulticastDelegate`, which inherits from `System.Delegate`. C# compiles +, -, +=, and -= operations made on a delegate to the static `Combine` and `Remove` methods of the `System.Delegate` class.
Instance Versus Static Method Targets

When an instance method is assigned to a delegate object, the latter must maintain a reference not only to the method, but also to the instance to which the method belongs. The System.Delegate class's Target property represents this instance (and will be null for a delegate referencing a static method).

Generic Delegate Types

A delegate type may contain generic type parameters. For example:

```csharp
public delegate T Transformer<T> (T arg);
```

Here's how we could use this delegate type:

```csharp
static double Square (double x) => x * x;
static void Main()
{
    Transformer<double> s = Square;
    Console.WriteLine (s (3.3));        // 10.89
}
```

The Func and Action Delegates

With generic delegates, it becomes possible to write a small set of delegate types that are so general they can work for methods of any return type and any (reasonable) number of arguments. These delegates are the Func and Action delegates, defined in the System namespace (the in and out annotations indicate variance, which we will cover shortly):

```csharp
delegate TResult Func <out TResult> ();
delegate TResult Func <in T, out TResult> (T arg);
delegate TResult Func <in T1, in T2, out TResult> (T1 arg1, T2 arg2);
... and so on, up to T16

delegate void Action ();
delegate void Action <in T> (T arg);
```
delegate void Action <in T1, in T2> (T1 arg1, T2 arg2);
... and so on, up to T16

These delegates are extremely general. The Transformer delegate in our previous example can be replaced with a Func delegate that takes a single argument of type T and returns a same-typed value:

```csharp
public static void Transform<T> (T[] values, Func<T,T> transformer)
{
    for (int i = 0; i < values.Length; i++)
        values[i] = transformer (values[i]);
}
```

The only practical scenarios not covered by these delegates are ref/out and pointer parameters.

**Delegate Compatibility**

Delegate types are all incompatible with one another, even if their signatures are the same:

```csharp
delegate void D1(); delegate void D2();
...
D1 d1 = Method1;
D2 d2 = d1;            // Compile-time error
```

The following, however, is permitted:

```csharp
D2 d2 = new D2 (d1);
```

Delegate instances are considered equal if they have the same type and method target(s). For multicast delegates, the order of the method targets is significant.

**Return type variance**

When you call a method, you may get back a type that is more specific than what you asked for. This is ordinary polymorphic behavior. In keeping with this, a delegate target method may return a more specific type than described by the delegate. This is *covariance*, and has been supported since C# 2.0:
delegate object ObjectRetriever();
...
static void Main()
{
    ObjectRetriever o = new ObjectRetriever (GetString);
    object result = o();
    Console.WriteLine (result);      // hello
}
static string GetString() => "hello";

The ObjectRetriever expects to get back an object; rather, it is an object subclass will also do because delegate return types are covariant.

**Parameter variance**

When you call a method, you can supply arguments that have more specific types than the parameters of that method. This is ordinary polymorphic behavior. In keeping with this, a delegate target method may have less specific parameter types than described by the delegate. This is called *contravariance*:

delegate void StringAction (string s);
...
static void Main()
{
    StringAction sa = new StringAction (ActOnObject);
    sa ("hello");  // Writes "Hello"
}
static void ActOnObject (object o) => Console.Write (o);

---

**NOTE**

The standard event pattern is designed to help you leverage delegate parameter contravariance through its use of the common EventArgs base class. For example, you can have a single method invoked by two different delegates, one passing a MouseEventArgs and the other passing a KeyEventArgs.
Type parameter variance for generic delegates

We saw in “Generics” on page 105 how type parameters can be covariant and contravariant for generic interfaces. The same capability also exists for generic delegates from C# 4.0. If you’re defining a generic delegate type, it’s a good practice to:

- Mark a type parameter used only on the return value as covariant (out).
- Mark any type parameters used only on parameters as contravariant (in).

Doing so allows conversions to work naturally by respecting inheritance relationships between types. The following delegate (defined in the System namespace) is covariant for TResult:

```
delegate TResult Func<out TResult>();
```

allowing:
```
Func<string> x = ...;
Func<object> y = x;
```

The following delegate (defined in the System namespace) is contravariant for T:

```
delegate void Action<in T> (T arg);
```

allowing:
```
Action<object> x = ...;
Action<string> y = x;
```

**Events**

When you’re using delegates, two emergent roles commonly appear: broadcaster and subscriber. The broadcaster is a type that contains a delegate field. The broadcaster decides when to broadcast, by invoking the delegate. The subscribers are the method target recipients. A subscriber decides when to start and stop listening, by calling += and -= on the broadcaster’s delegate. A subscriber does not know about, or interfere with, other subscribers.
Events are a language feature that formalizes this pattern. An event is a construct that exposes just the subset of delegate features required for the broadcaster/subscriber model. The main purpose of events is to prevent subscribers from interfering with one another.

The easiest way to declare an event is to put the event keyword in front of a delegate member:

```csharp
public class Broadcaster
{
    public event ProgressReporter Progress;
}
```

Code within the Broadcaster type has full access to Progress and can treat it as a delegate. Code outside of Broadcaster can perform only `+=` and `-=` operations on the Progress event.

In the following example, the Stock class fires its PriceChanged event every time the Price of the Stock changes:

```csharp
public delegate void PriceChangedHandler (decimal oldPrice, decimal newPrice);

public class Stock
{
    string symbol; decimal price;

    public Stock (string symbol) { this.symbol = symbol; }

    public event PriceChangedHandler PriceChanged;

    public decimal Price
    {
        get { return price; }
        set
        {
            if (price == value) return;
            // Fire event if invocation list isn't empty:
            if (PriceChanged != null)
                PriceChanged (price, value);
            price = value;
        }
    }
}
```
If we remove the event keyword from our example so that PriceChanged becomes an ordinary delegate field, our example would give the same results. However, Stock would be less robust, in that subscribers could do the following things to interfere with one another:

- Replace other subscribers by reassigning PriceChanged (instead of using the += operator).
- Clear all subscribers (by setting PriceChanged to null).
- Broadcast to other subscribers by invoking the delegate.

Events can be virtual, overridden, abstract, or sealed. They can also be static.

**Standard Event Pattern**

The .NET Framework defines a standard pattern for writing events. Its purpose is to provide consistency across both Framework and user code. Here’s the preceding example refactored with this pattern:

```csharp
public class PriceChangedEventArgs : EventArgs
{
    public readonly decimal LastPrice, NewPrice;

    public PriceChangedEventArgs (decimal lastPrice, decimal newPrice)
    {
        LastPrice = lastPrice; NewPrice = newPrice;
    }
}

public class Stock
{
    string symbol; decimal price;

    public Stock (string symbol) { this.symbol = symbol; }

    public event EventHandler<PriceChangedEventArgs> PriceChanged;

    protected virtual void OnPriceChanged
```
At the core of the standard event pattern is `System.EventArgs`: a predefined .NET Framework class with no members (other than the static `Empty` property). `EventArgs` is a base class for conveying information for an event. In this example, we subclass `EventArgs` to convey the old and new prices when a `PriceChanged` event is fired.

The generic `System.EventHandler` delegate is also part of the .NET Framework and is defined as follows:

```csharp
public delegate void EventHandler<TEventArgs>
    (object source, TEventArgs e)
    where TEventArgs : EventArgs;
```

**NOTE**

Before C# 2.0 (when generics were added to the language) the solution was to instead write a custom event-handling delegate for each `EventArgs` type as follows:

```csharp
delegate void PriceChangedEventArgsHandler
    (object sender,
     PriceChangedEventArgs e);
```

For historical reasons, most events within the Framework use delegates defined in this way.
A protected virtual method, named `On-event-name`, centralizes firing of the event. This allows subclasses to fire the event (which is usually desirable) and also allows subclasses to insert code before and after the event is fired.

Here’s how we could use our Stock class:

```csharp
static void Main()
{
    Stock stock = new Stock("THPW");
    stock.Price = 27.10M;

    stock.PriceChanged += stock_PriceChanged;
    stock.Price = 31.59M;
}

static void stock_PriceChanged(object sender, PriceChangedEventArgs e)
{
    if ((e.NewPrice - e.LastPrice) / e.LastPrice > 0.1M)
        Console.WriteLine("Alert, 10% price increase!");
}
```

For events that don’t carry additional information, the .NET Framework also provides a nongeneric `EventHandler` delegate. We can demonstrate this by rewriting our Stock class such that the `PriceChanged` event fires after the price changes. This means that no additional information need be transmitted with the event:

```csharp
public class Stock
{
    string symbol; decimal price;

    public Stock(string symbol) {this.symbol = symbol;}

    public event EventHandler PriceChanged;

    protected virtual void OnPriceChanged(EventArgs e)
    {
        if (PriceChanged != null) PriceChanged(this, e);
    }

    public decimal Price
    {
```
get { return price; }
set {
    if (price == value) return;
    price = value;
    OnPriceChanged (EventArgs.Empty);
}
}

Note that we also used the EventArgs.Empty property—this saves instantiating an instance of EventArgs.

**Event Accessors**

An event’s *accessors* are the implementations of its `+=` and `-=` functions. By default, accessors are implemented implicitly by the compiler. Consider this event declaration:

```csharp
public event EventHandler PriceChanged;
```

The compiler converts this to the following:

- A private delegate field
- A public pair of event accessor functions, whose implementations forward the `+=` and `-=` operations to the private delegate field

You can take over this process by defining *explicit* event accessors. Here’s a manual implementation of the `PriceChanged` event from the previous example:

```csharp
EventHandler priceChanged; // Private delegate
public event EventHandler PriceChanged
{
    add { priceChanged += value; }
    remove { priceChanged -= value; }
}
```

This example is functionally identical to C#’s default accessor implementation (except that C# also ensures thread safety around updating the delegate). By defining event accessors our-
selves, we instruct C# not to generate default field and accessor logic.

With explicit event accessors, you can apply more complex strategies to the storage and access of the underlying delegate. This is useful when the event accessors are merely relays for another class that is broadcasting the event, or when explicitly implementing an interface that declares an event:

```csharp
public interface IFoo { event EventHandler Ev; }
class Foo : IFoo
{
    EventHandler ev;
    event EventHandler IFoo.Ev
    {
        add { ev += value; } remove { ev -= value; }
    }
}
```

**Lambda Expressions**

A *lambda expression* is an unnamed method written in place of a delegate instance. The compiler immediately converts the lambda expression to one of the following:

- A delegate instance.
- An *expression tree*, of type `Expression<TDelegate>`, representing the code inside the lambda expression in a traversable object model. This allows the lambda expression to be interpreted later at runtime (we describe the process in Chapter 8 of *C# 7.0 in a Nutshell*).

Given the following delegate type:

```csharp
delegate int Transformer (int i);
```

we could assign and invoke the lambda expression `x => x * x` as follows:

```csharp
Transformer sqr = x => x * x;
Console.WriteLine (sqr(3));    // 9
```
NOTE

Internally, the compiler resolves lambda expressions of this type by writing a private method and then moving the expression’s code into that method.

A lambda expression has the following form:

\[(\text{parameters}) \Rightarrow \text{expression-or-statement-block}\]

For convenience, you can omit the parentheses if and only if there is exactly one parameter of an inferable type.

In the example, there is a single parameter, \(x\), and the expression is \(x \times x\):

\[x \Rightarrow x \times x;\]

Each parameter of the lambda expression corresponds to a delegate parameter, and the type of the expression (which may be \(\text{void}\)) corresponds to the return type of the delegate.

In the example, \(x\) corresponds to parameter \(i\), and the expression \(x \times x\) corresponds to the return type \(\text{int}\), therefore being compatible with the Transformer delegate.

A lambda expression’s code can be a statement block instead of an expression. We can rewrite our example as follows:

\[x \Rightarrow \{ \text{return } x \times x; \};\]

Lambda expressions are used most commonly with the Func and Action delegates, so you will most often see our earlier expression written as follows:

\[
\text{Func<int,int>} \text{sqr} = x \Rightarrow x \times x;
\]

The compiler can usually infer the type of lambda parameters contextually. When this is not the case, you can specify parameter types explicitly:

\[
\text{Func<int,int>} \text{sqr} = (\text{int } x) \Rightarrow x \times x;
\]
Here's an example of an expression that accepts two parameters:

```csharp
Func<string,string,int> totalLength =
    (s1, s2) => s1.Length + s2.Length;

int total = totalLength ("hello", "world");  // total=10;
```

Assuming Clicked is an event of type EventHandler, the following attaches an event handler via a lambda expression:

```csharp
obj.Clicked += (sender,args) => Console.Write ("Click");
```

### Capturing Outer Variables

A lambda expression can reference the local variables and parameters of the method in which it's defined (outer variables). For example:

```csharp
static void Main()
{
    int factor = 2;
    Func<int, int> multiplier = n => n * factor;
    Console.WriteLine (multiplier (3));           // 6
}
```

Outer variables referenced by a lambda expression are called captured variables. A lambda expression that captures variables is called a closure. Captured variables are evaluated when the delegate is actually invoked, not when the variables were captured:

```csharp
int factor = 2;
Func<int, int> multiplier = n => n * factor;
factor = 10;
Console.WriteLine (multiplier (3));           // 30
```

Lambda expressions can themselves update captured variables:

```csharp
int seed = 0;
Func<int> natural = () => seed++;
Console.WriteLine (natural());           // 0
Console.WriteLine (natural());           // 1
Console.WriteLine (seed);                // 2
```
Captured variables have their lifetimes extended to that of the delegate. In the following example, the local variable seed would ordinarily disappear from scope when `Natural` finished executing. But, because seed has been *captured*, its lifetime is extended to that of the capturing delegate, `natural`:

```csharp
static Func<int> Natural()
{
    int seed = 0;
    return () => seed++;       // Returns a closure
}
static void Main()
{
    Func<int> natural = Natural();
    Console.WriteLine (natural()); // 0
    Console.WriteLine (natural()); // 1
}
```

**NOTE**

Variables can also be captured by anonymous methods and local methods. The rules for captured variables, in these cases, are the same.

**Capturing iteration variables**

When you capture an iteration variable in a `for` loop, C# treats the iteration variable as though it was declared *outside* the loop. This means that the *same* variable is captured in each iteration. The following program writes 333 instead of writing 012:

```csharp
Action[] actions = new Action[3];
for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
    actions[i] = () => Console.Write (i);
foreach (Action a in actions) a();   // 333
```

Each closure (shown in bold) captures the same variable, `i`. (This actually makes sense when you consider that `i` is a variable whose value persists between loop iterations; you can even
explicitly change i within the loop body if you want.) The con-
sequence is that when the delegates are later invoked, each del-
egate sees i’s value at the time of invocation—which is 3. The
solution, if we want to write 012, is to assign the iteration vari-
oble to a local variable that’s scoped inside the loop:

```csharp
Action[] actions = new Action[3];
for (int i = 0; i < 3; i++)
{
    int loopScopedi = i;
    actions[i] = () => Console.Write (loopScopedi);
}
foreach (Action a in actions) a();     // 012
```

This causes the closure to capture a different variable on each
iteration.

---

**WARNING**

foreach loops used to work in the same way, but the rules
have since changed. Starting with C# 5.0, you can safely
close over a foreach loop’s iteration variable without
needing a temporary variable.

---

**Lambda Expressions Versus Local Methods**

The functionality of C# 7’s local methods (see “Local methods
(C# 7)” on page 69) overlaps with that of lambda expressions.
Local methods have the advantages of allowing for recursion
and avoiding the clutter of specifying a delegate. Avoiding the
indirection of a delegate also makes them slightly more effi-
cient, and they can access local variables of the containing
method without the compiler having to “hoist” the captured
variables into a hidden class.

However, in many cases you need a delegate, most commonly
when calling a higher-order function (i.e., a method with a
delegate-typed parameter):

```csharp
public void Foo (Func<int,bool> predicate) { ... }
```
In such cases, you need a delegate anyway, and it’s precisely in these cases that lambda expressions are usually terser and cleaner.

**Anonymous Methods**

Anonymous methods are a C# 2.0 feature that has been mostly subsumed by lambda expressions. An anonymous method is like a lambda expression, except that it lacks implicitly typed parameters, expression syntax (an anonymous method must always be a statement block), and the ability to compile to an expression tree. To write an anonymous method, you include the delegate keyword followed (optionally) by a parameter declaration and then a method body. For example, given this delegate:

```csharp
delegate int Transformer (int i);
```

we could write and call an anonymous method as follows:

```csharp
Transformer sqr = delegate (int x) {return x * x;};
Console.WriteLine (sqr(3));         // 9
```

The first line is semantically equivalent to the following lambda expression:

```csharp
Transformer sqr = (int x) => {return x * x;};
```

Or simply:

```csharp
Transformer sqr = x  => x * x;
```

A unique feature of anonymous methods is that you can omit the parameter declaration entirely—even if the delegate expects it. This can be useful in declaring events with a default empty handler:

```csharp
public event EventHandler Clicked = delegate { };  
```

This avoids the need for a null check before firing the event. The following is also legal (notice the lack of parameters):

```csharp
Clicked += delegate { Console.Write ("clicked"); };  
```
Anonymous methods capture outer variables in the same way lambda expressions do.

**try Statements and Exceptions**

A try statement specifies a code block subject to error-handling or cleanup code. The try block must be followed by a catch block, a finally block, or both. The catch block executes when an error occurs in the try block. The finally block executes after execution leaves the try block (or if present, the catch block), to perform cleanup code, whether or not an error occurred.

A catch block has access to an Exception object that contains information about the error. You use a catch block to either compensate for the error or rethrow the exception. You rethrow an exception if you merely want to log the problem or if you want to rethrow a new, higher-level exception type.

A finally block adds determinism to your program by always executing no matter what. It's useful for cleanup tasks such as closing network connections.

A try statement looks like this:

```csharp
try
{
    ... // exception may get thrown within execution of
    // this block
}
catch (ExceptionA ex)
{
    ... // handle exception of type ExceptionA
}
catch (ExceptionB ex)
{
    ... // handle exception of type ExceptionB
}
finally
{
    ... // cleanup code
}
```
Consider the following code:

```csharp
int x = 3, y = 0;
Console.WriteLine (x / y);
```

Because `y` is zero, the runtime throws a `DivideByZeroException`, and our program terminates. We can prevent this by catching the exception as follows:

```csharp
try
{
    int x = 3, y = 0;
    Console.WriteLine (x / y);
}
catch (DivideByZeroException ex)
{
    Console.Write ("y cannot be zero. ");
}
// Execution resumes here after exception...
```

---

**NOTE**

This is a simple example to illustrate exception handling. We could deal with this particular scenario better in practice by checking explicitly for the divisor being zero before calling `Calc`.

Exceptions are relatively expensive to handle, taking hundreds of clock cycles.

---

When an exception is thrown, the CLR performs a test:

*Is execution currently within a try statement that can catch the exception?*

- If so, execution is passed to the compatible catch block. If the catch block successfully finishes executing, execution moves to the next statement after the try statement (if present, executing the finally block first).
• If not, execution jumps back to the caller of the function, and the test is repeated (after executing any finally blocks that wrap the statement).

If no function in the call stack takes responsibility for the exception, an error dialog is displayed to the user, and the program terminates.

The catch Clause

A catch clause specifies what type of exception to catch. This must either be `System.Exception` or a subclass of `System.Exception`. Catching `System.Exception` catches all possible errors. This is useful when:

• Your program can potentially recover regardless of the specific exception type.
• You plan to rethrow the exception (perhaps after logging it).
• Your error handler is the last resort, prior to termination of the program.

More typically, though, you catch specific exception types in order to avoid having to deal with circumstances for which your handler wasn’t designed (e.g., an `OutOfMemoryException`).

You can handle multiple exception types with multiple catch clauses:

```csharp
try
{
    DoSomething();
}
catch (IndexOutOfRangeException ex) { ... }
catch (FormatException ex)          { ... }
catch (OverflowException ex)        { ... }
```

Only one catch clause executes for a given exception. If you want to include a safety net to catch more general exceptions
(such as System.Exception), you must put the more specific handlers first.

You can catch an exception without specifying a variable, if you don’t need to access its properties:

```csharp
catch (OverflowException)     // no variable
{ ... }
```

Furthermore, you can omit both the variable and the type (meaning that all exceptions will be caught):

```csharp
catch { ... }
```

### Exception filters

From C# 6.0, you can specify an exception filter in a catch clause by adding a when clause:

```csharp
catch (WebException ex) when (ex.Status == WebExceptionStatus.Timeout)
{
   ...
}
```

If a WebException is thrown in this example, the Boolean expression following the when keyword is then evaluated. If the result is false, the catch block in question is ignored, and any subsequent catch clauses are considered. With exception filters, it can be meaningful to catch the same exception type again:

```csharp
catch (WebException ex) when (ex.Status == something)
{
   ...
}
catch (WebException ex) when (ex.Status == somethingelse)
{
   ...
}
```

The Boolean expression in the when clause can be side-effecting, such as a method that logs the exception for diagnostic purposes.

### The finally Block

A finally block always executes—whether or not an exception is thrown and whether or not the try block runs to completion. Finally blocks are typically used for cleanup code.
A finally block executes either:

- After a catch block finishes
- After control leaves the try block because of a jump statement (e.g., return or goto)
- After the try block ends

A finally block helps add determinism to a program. In the following example, the file that we open always gets closed, regardless of whether:

- The try block finishes normally.
- Execution returns early because the file is empty (EndOfStream).
- An IOException is thrown while the file is being read.

For example:

```csharp
static void ReadFile()
{
    StreamReader reader = null; // In System.IO namespace
    try
    {
        reader = File.OpenText("file.txt");
        if (reader.EndOfStream) return;
        Console.WriteLine(reader.ReadToEnd());
    }
    finally
    {
        if (reader != null) reader.Dispose();
    }
}
```

In this example, we closed the file by calling Dispose on the StreamReader. Calling Dispose on an object within a finally block is a standard convention throughout the .NET Framework and is supported explicitly in C# through the using statement.
The using statement

Many classes encapsulate unmanaged resources, such as file handles, graphics handles, or database connections. These classes implement System.IDisposable, which defines a single parameterless method named Dispose to clean up these resources. The using statement provides an elegant syntax for calling Dispose on an IDisposable object within a finally block.

The statement:

```csharp
using (StreamReader reader = File.OpenText ("file.txt"))
{
    ...
}
```

is precisely equivalent to:

```csharp
{
    StreamReader reader = File.OpenText ("file.txt");
    try
    { ...
    } finally
    { if (reader != null) ((IDisposable)reader).Dispose(); }
}
```

Throwing Exceptions

Exceptions can be thrown either by the runtime or in user code. In this example, Display throws a System.ArgumentNullException:

```csharp
static void Display (string name)
{
    if (name == null)
        throw new ArgumentNullException (nameof (name));

    Console.WriteLine (name);
}
```
throw expressions (C# 7)

Prior to C# 7, throw was always a statement. Now it can also appear as an expression in expression-bodied functions:

```csharp
public string Foo() => throw new NotImplementedException();
```

A throw expression can also appear in a ternary conditional expression:

```csharp
string ProperCase (string value) =>
    value == null ? throw new ArgumentException("value") :
    value == "" ? "" :
    char.ToUpper(value[0]) + value.Substring(1);
```

Rethrowing an exception

You can capture and rethrow an exception as follows:

```csharp
try { ... }
catch (Exception ex)
{
    // Log error
    ...
    throw;        // Rethrow same exception
}
```

Rethrowing in this manner lets you log an error without swallowing it. It also lets you back out of handling an exception should circumstances turn out to be outside what you expected.

---

NOTE

If we replaced throw with throw ex, the example would still work, but the StackTrace property of the exception would no longer reflect the original error.

---

The other common scenario is to rethrow a more specific or meaningful exception type:
try
{
    ... // parse a date of birth from XML element data
}
catch (FormatException ex)
{
    throw new XmlException ("Invalid date of birth", ex);
}

When rethrowing a different exception, you can populate the
InnerException property with the original exception to aid
debugging. Nearly all types of exceptions provide a constructor
for this purpose (such as in our example).

**Key Properties of System.Exception**

The most important properties of System.Exception are the
following:

**StackTrace**
A string representing all the methods that are called from
the origin of the exception to the catch block.

**Message**
A string with a description of the error.

**InnerException**
The inner exception (if any) that caused the outer excep‐
tion. This, itself, may have another InnerException.

**Common Exception Types**

The following exception types are used widely throughout the
CLR and the .NET Framework. You can throw them yourself
or use them as base classes for deriving custom exception types.

**System.ArgumentException**
Thrown when a function is called with a bogus argument.
This generally indicates a program bug.

**SystemArgumentNullException**
Subclass of ArgumentException that's thrown when a func‐
tion argument is (unexpectedly) null.
System.ArgumentOutOfRangeException
Subclass of ArgumentException that’s thrown when a (usually numeric) argument is too big or too small. For example, this is thrown when you pass a negative number into a function that accepts only positive values.

System.InvalidOperationException
Thrown when the state of an object is unsuitable for a method to successfully execute, regardless of any particular argument values. Examples include reading an unopened file or getting the next element from an enumerator where the underlying list has been modified partway through the iteration.

System.NotSupportedException
Thrown to indicate that a particular functionality is not supported. A good example is calling the Add method on a collection for which IsReadOnly returns true.

System.NotImplementedException
Thrown to indicate that a function has not yet been implemented.

System.ObjectDisposedException
Thrown when the object upon which the function is called has been disposed.

Enumeration and Iterators

Enumeration

An enumerator is a read-only, forward-only cursor over a sequence of values. An enumerator is an object that implements either System.Collections.IEnumerator or System.Collections.Generic.IEnumerator<T>.

The foreach statement iterates over an enumerable object. An enumerable object is the logical representation of a sequence. It is not itself a cursor, but an object that produces cursors over itself. An enumerable either implements IEnumerable/IEnumerable<T> or has a method named GetEnumerator that returns an enumerator.
The enumeration pattern is as follows:

```csharp
class Enumerator // Typically implements IEnumerator<T>
{
    public IteratorVariableType Current { get {...} }
    public bool MoveNext() {...}
}

class Enumerable // Typically implements IEnumerable<T>
{
    public Enumerator GetEnumerator() {...}
}
```

Here is the high-level way to iterate through the characters in the word `beer` using a `foreach` statement:

```csharp
foreach (char c in "beer") Console.WriteLine (c);
```

Here is the low-level way to iterate through the characters in `beer` without using a `foreach` statement:

```csharp
using (var enumerator = "beer".GetEnumerator())
    while (enumerator.MoveNext())
    {
        var element = enumerator.Current;
        Console.WriteLine (element);
    }
```

If the enumerator implements `IDisposable`, the `foreach` statement also acts as a `using` statement, implicitly disposing the enumerator object.

### Collection Initializers

You can instantiate and populate an enumerable object in a single step. For example:

```csharp
using System.Collections.Generic;
...

List<int> list = new List<int> {1, 2, 3};
```

The compiler translates the last line into the following:

```csharp
List<int> list = new List<int>();
list.Add (1); list.Add (2); list.Add (3);
```
This requires that the enumerable object implements the `System.Collections.IEnumerable` interface, and that it has an `Add` method that has the appropriate number of parameters for the call. You can similarly initialize dictionaries (types that implement `System.Collections.IDictionary`), as follows:

```csharp
var dict = new Dictionary<int, string>()
{
    { 5, "five" },
    { 10, "ten" }
};
```

Or, more succinctly:

```csharp
var dict = new Dictionary<int, string>()
{
    [3] = "three",
    [10] = "ten"
};
```

The latter is valid not only with dictionaries, but with any type for which an indexer exists.

**Iterators**

Whereas a `foreach` statement is a *consumer* of an enumerator, an *iterator* is a *producer* of an enumerator. In this example, we use an iterator to return a sequence of Fibonacci numbers (where each number is the sum of the previous two):

```csharp
using System;
using System.Collections.Generic;

class Test
{
    static void Main()
    {
        foreach (int fib in Fibs(6))
            Console.Write (fib + " ");
    }

    static IEnumerable<int> Fibs(int fibCount)
    {
        for (int i = 0, prevFib = 1, curFib = 1;
             i < fibCount;
             i++);
        yield return i;
    }
}
```
i++)
{
    yield return prevFib;
    int newFib = prevFib+curFib;
    prevFib = curFib;
    curFib = newFib;
}
}

OUTPUT: 1 1 2 3 5 8

Whereas a return statement expresses, “Here’s the value you asked me to return from this method,” a yield return statement expresses, “Here’s the next element you asked me to yield from this enumerator.” On each yield statement, control is returned to the caller, but the callee’s state is maintained so that the method can continue executing as soon as the caller enumerates the next element. The lifetime of this state is bound to the enumerator such that the state can be released when the caller has finished enumerating.

---

**NOTE**

The compiler converts iterator methods into private classes that implement IEnumerable<T> and/or IEnumerator<T>. The logic within the iterator block is “inverted” and spliced into the MoveNext method and the Current property on the compiler-written enumerator class, which effectively becomes a state machine. This means that when you call an iterator method, all you’re doing is instantiating the compiler-written class; none of your code actually runs! Your code runs only when you start enumerating over the resultant sequence, typically with a foreach statement.

---

**Iterator Semantics**

An iterator is a method, property, or indexer that contains one or more yield statements. An iterator must return one of the
following four interfaces (otherwise, the compiler will generate an error):

```csharp
System.Collections.IEnumerable
System.Collections.IEnumerator
System.Collections.Generic.IEnumerable<T>
System.Collections.Generic.IEnumerator<T>
```

Iterators that return an `enumerator` interface tend to be used less often. They’re useful when you’re writing a custom collection class: typically, you name the iterator `GetEnumerator` and have your class implement `IEnumerable<T>`.

Iterators that return an `enumerable` interface are more common—and simpler to use because you don’t have to write a collection class. The compiler, behind the scenes, writes a private class implementing `IEnumerable<T>` (as well as `IEnumerator<T>`).

**Multiple yield statements**

An iterator can include multiple `yield` statements:

```csharp
static void Main()
{
    foreach (string s in Foo())
        Console.Write(s + " ");    // One Two Three
}

static IEnumerable<string> Foo()
{
    yield return "One";
    yield return "Two";
    yield return "Three";
}
```

**yield break**

The `yield break` statement indicates that the iterator block should exit early, without returning more elements. We can modify `Foo` as follows to demonstrate:
```csharp
static IEnumerable<string> Foo(bool breakEarly)
{
    yield return "One";
    yield return "Two";
    if (breakEarly) yield break;
    yield return "Three";
}
```

**WARNING**

A return statement is illegal in an iterator block—you must use yield break instead.

---

**Composing Sequences**

Iterators are highly composable. We can extend our Fibonacci example by adding the following method to the class:

```csharp
static IEnumerable<int> EvenNumbersOnly (IEnumerable<int> sequence)
{
    foreach (int x in sequence)
    if ((x % 2) == 0)
        yield return x;
}
```

We can then output even Fibonacci numbers as follows:

```csharp
foreach (int fib in EvenNumbersOnly (Fibs (6)))
    Console.Write (fib + " ");   // 2 8
```

Each element is not calculated until the last moment—when requested by a MoveNext() operation. **Figure 5** shows the data requests and data output over time.
The composability of the iterator pattern is essential in building LINQ queries.

**Nullable Types**

Reference types can represent a nonexistent value with a null reference. Value types, however, cannot ordinarily represent null values. For example:

```csharp
string s = null;    // OK - reference type.
int i = null;       // Compile error - int cannot be null.
```

To represent null in a value type, you must use a special construct called a *nullable type*. A nullable type is denoted with a value type followed by the `?` symbol:
int? i = null;  // OK - Nullable Type
Console.WriteLine (i == null);    // True

**Nullable<T> Struct**

T? translates into System.Nullable<T>. Nullable<T> is a lightweight immutable structure, having only two fields, to represent Value and HasValue. The essence of System.Nullable<T> is very simple:

```csharp
public struct Nullable<T> where T : struct
{
    public T Value {get;}
    public bool HasValue {get;}
    public T GetValueOrDefault();
    public T GetValueOrDefault (T defaultValue);
    ...
}
```

The code:

```csharp
int? i = null;
Console.WriteLine (i == null);              // True
```

translates to:

```csharp
Nullable<int> i = new Nullable<int>();
Console.WriteLine (! i.HasValue);           // True
```

Attempting to retrieve Value when HasValue is false throws an InvalidOperationException. GetValueOrDefault() returns Value if HasValue is true; otherwise, it returns new T() or a specified custom default value.

The default value of T? is null.

**Nullable Conversions**

The conversion from T to T? is implicit, and from T? to T is explicit. For example:

```csharp
int? x = 5;        // implicit
int y = (int)x;    // explicit
```
The explicit cast is directly equivalent to calling the nullable object’s `Value` property. Hence, an `InvalidOperationException` is thrown if `HasValue` is false.

**Boxing/Unboxing Nullable Values**

When `T?` is boxed, the boxed value on the heap contains `T`, not `T?`. This optimization is possible because a boxed value is a reference type that can already express null.

C# also permits the unboxing of nullable types with the `as` operator. The result will be `null` if the cast fails:

```csharp
object o = "string";
int? x = o as int?;
Console.WriteLine (x.HasValue);  // False
```

**Operator Lifting**

The `Nullable<T>` struct does not define operators such as `<`, `>`, or even `==`. Despite this, the following code compiles and executes correctly:

```csharp
int? x = 5;
int? y = 10;
bool b = x < y;       // true
```

This works because the compiler borrows or “lifts” the less-than operator from the underlying value type. Semantically, it translates the preceding comparison expression into this:

```csharp
bool b = (x.HasValue && y.HasValue)
  ? (x.Value < y.Value)
  : false;
```

In other words, if both `x` and `y` have values, it compares via `int`’s less-than operator; otherwise, it returns `false`.

Operator lifting means you can implicitly use `T`’s operators on `T?`. You can define operators for `T?` in order to provide special-purpose null behavior, but in the vast majority of cases, it’s best to rely on the compiler automatically applying systematic nullable logic for you.
The compiler performs null logic differently depending on the category of operator.

**Equality operators (==, !=)**

Lifted equality operators handle nulls just like reference types do. This means two null values are equal:

```csharp
Console.WriteLine (null == null);  // True
Console.WriteLine ((bool?)null == (bool?)null);  // True
```

Further:

- If exactly one operand is null, the operands are unequal.
- If both operands are non-null, their Values are compared.

**Relational operators (<, <=, >=, >)**

The relational operators work on the principle that it is meaningless to compare null operands. This means comparing a null value to either a null or a non-null value returns false.

```csharp
bool b = x < y;    // Translation:

bool b = (x == null || y == null)
  ? false
  : (x.Value < y.Value);

// b is false (assuming x is 5 and y is null)
```

**All other operators (+, −, *, /, %, &, |, ^, <<, >>, +, ++, --, !, ~)**

These operators return null when any of the operands are null. This pattern should be familiar to SQL users.

```csharp
int? c = x + y;    // Translation:

int? c = (x == null || y == null)
  ? null
  : (int?) (x.Value + y.Value);

// c is null (assuming x is 5 and y is null)
```
An exception is when the & and | operators are applied to bool?, which we will discuss shortly.

**Mixing nullable and non-nullable operators**

You can mix and match nullable and non-nullable types (this works because there is an implicit conversion from T to T?):

```csharp
int? a = null;
int b = 2;
int? c = a + b;  // c is null - equivalent to a + (int?)b
```

**bool? with & and | Operators**

When supplied operands of type bool?, the & and | operators treat null as an *unknown value*. So, null | true is true, because:

- If the unknown value is false, the result would be true.
- If the unknown value is true, the result would be true.

Similarly, null & false is false. This behavior would be familiar to SQL users. The following example enumerates other combinations:

```csharp
bool? n = null, f = false, t = true;
Console.WriteLine (n | n);    // (null)
Console.WriteLine (n | f);    // (null)
Console.WriteLine (n | t);    // True
Console.WriteLine (n & n);    // (null)
Console.WriteLine (n & f);    // False
Console.WriteLine (n & t);    // (null)
```

**Nullable Types and Null Operators**

Nullable types work particularly well with the ?? operator (see “Null Coalescing Operator” on page 52). For example:

```csharp
int? x = null;
int y = x ?? 5;  // y is 5
```
int? a = null, b = null, c = 123;
Console.WriteLine (a ?? b ?? c);  // 123

Using ?? on a nullable value type is equivalent to calling GetValueOrDefault with an explicit default value, except that the expression for the default value is never evaluated if the variable is not null.

Nullable types also work well with the null-conditional operator (see “Null-Conditional Operator” on page 52). In the following example, length evaluates to null:

```csharp
System.Text.StringBuilder sb = null;
int? length = sb?.ToString().Length;
```

We can combine this with the null coalescing operator to evaluate to zero instead of null:

```csharp
int length = sb?.ToString().Length ?? 0;
```

**Extension Methods**

*Extension methods* allow an existing type to be extended with new methods, without altering the definition of the original type. An extension method is a static method of a static class, where the this modifier is applied to the first parameter. The type of the first parameter will be the type that is extended. For example:

```csharp
public static class StringHelper
{
    public static bool IsCapitalized (this string s)
    {
        if (string.IsNullOrEmpty (s)) return false;
        return char.IsUpper (s[0]);
    }
}
```

The IsCapitalized extension method can be called as though it were an instance method on a string, as follows:

```csharp
Console.Write ("Perth".IsCapitalized());
```

An extension method call, when compiled, is translated back into an ordinary static method call:
Console.Write (StringHelper.IsCapitalized ("Perth"));

Interfaces can be extended, too:

```csharp
public static T First<T> (this IEnumerable<T> sequence)
{
    foreach (T element in sequence)
        return element;
    throw new InvalidOperationException ("No elements!");
}
...
Console.WriteLine ("Seattle").First();    // S
```

## Extension Method Chaining

*Extension methods*, like instance methods, provide a tidy way to chain functions. Consider the following two functions:

```csharp
public static class StringHelper
{
    public static string Pluralize (this string s) {...}
    public static string Capitalize (this string s) {...}
}
```

x and y are equivalent and both evaluate to "Sausages", but x uses extension methods, whereas y uses static methods:

```csharp
string x = "sausage".Pluralize().Capitalize();

string y = StringHelper.Capitalize (StringHelper.Pluralize ("sausage"));
```

## Ambiguity and Resolution

### Namespaces

An extension method cannot be accessed unless the namespace is in scope (typically imported with a using statement).

### Extension methods versus instance methods

Any compatible instance method will always take precedence over an extension method—even when the extension method’s parameters are more specifically type-matched.
Extension methods versus extension methods

If two extension methods have the same signature, the extension method must be called as an ordinary static method to disambiguate the method to call. If one extension method has more specific arguments, however, the more specific method takes precedence.

Anonymous Types

An anonymous type is a simple class created on the fly to store a set of values. To create an anonymous type, you use the `new` keyword followed by an object initializer, specifying the properties and values the type will contain. For example:

```csharp
var dude = new { Name = "Bob", Age = 1 };  // Error!
```

The compiler resolves this by writing a private nested type with read-only properties for `Name` (type `string`) and `Age` (type `int`). You must use the `var` keyword to reference an anonymous type, because the type’s name is compiler-generated.

The property name of an anonymous type can be inferred from an expression that is itself an identifier. For example:

```csharp
int Age = 1;
var dude = new { Name = "Bob", Age };  // Error!
```

is equivalent to:

```csharp
var dude = new { Name = "Bob", Age = Age };  // Error!
```

You can create arrays of anonymous types as follows:

```csharp
var dudes = new[]  // Error!
{  // Error!
    new { Name = "Bob", Age = 30 },  // Error!
    new { Name = "Mary", Age = 40 }
};  // Error!
```

Anonymous types are used primarily when you’re writing LINQ queries.
Tuples (C# 7)

Like anonymous types, tuples provide a simple way to store a set of values. The main purpose of tuples is to safely return multiple values from a method without resorting to out parameters (something you cannot do with anonymous types). The simplest way to create a tuple literal is to list the desired values in parentheses. This creates a tuple with unnamed elements:

```csharp
var bob = ("Bob", 23);
Console.WriteLine (bob.Item1);   // Bob
Console.WriteLine (bob.Item2);   // 23
```

**WARNING**

C# 7’s tuple functionality relies on a set of supporting generic structs named `System.ValueTuple<...>`. These are not part of .NET Framework 4.6, and are contained in an assembly called `System.ValueTuple`, available in a NuGet package of the same name. If you’re using Visual Studio with .NET Framework 4.6, you must download this package explicitly. (If you are using LINQPad, the required assembly is included automatically.)


Unlike with anonymous types, `var` is optional and you can specify a *tuple type* explicitly:

```csharp
(string,int) bob = ("Bob", 23);
```

This means that you can usefully return a tuple from a method:

```csharp
static (string,int) GetPerson() => ("Bob", 23);

static void Main()
{
    (string,int) person = GetPerson();
    Console.WriteLine (person.Item1);   // Bob
}
Console.WriteLine (person.Item2);  // 23
}

Tuples play well with generics, so the following types are all legal:

Task<(string,int)>
Dictionary<(string,int),Uri>
IEnumerable<(int ID, string Name)>  // See below...

Tuples are value types with mutable (read/write) elements. This means that you can modify Item1, Item2, and so on, after creating a tuple.

**Naming Tuple Elements**

You can optionally give meaningful names to elements when creating tuple literals:

```csharp
var tuple = (Name:"Bob", Age:23);
Console.WriteLine (tuple.Name);  // Bob
Console.WriteLine (tuple.Age);   // 23
```

You can do the same when specifying tuple types:

```csharp
static (string Name, int Age) GetPerson() => ("Bob",23);
```

---

**NOTE**

Tuples are syntactic sugar for using a family of generic structs called ValueTuple<T1> and ValueTuple<T1,T2>, which have fields named Item1, Item2, and so on. Hence (string,int) is an alias for ValueTuple<string,int>. This means that “named elements” exist only in the source code—and the imagination of the compiler—and mostly disappear at runtime.
Deconstructing Tuples

Tuples implicitly support the deconstruction pattern (see “Deconstructors (C# 7)” on page 71), so you can easily deconstruct a tuple into individual variables. So, instead of this:

```csharp
var bob = ("Bob", 23);
string name = bob.Item1;
int age = bob.Item2;
```

you can do this:

```csharp
var bob = ("Bob", 23);
(string name, int age) = bob;   // Deconstruct bob into
                                // name and age.

Console.WriteLine (name);
Console.WriteLine (age);
```

The syntax for deconstruction is confusingly similar to the syntax for declaring a tuple with named elements. The following highlights the difference:

```csharp
(string name, int age) = bob; // Deconstructing
(string name, int age) bob2 = bob; // Declaring tuple
```

LINQ

LINQ, or Language Integrated Query, allows you to write structured type-safe queries over local object collections and remote data sources.

LINQ lets you query any collection implementing `IEnumera\ble<>`, whether it’s an array, list, XML DOM, or remote data source (such as a table in SQL Server). LINQ offers the benefits of both compile-time type checking and dynamic query composition.
NOTE

A good way to experiment with LINQ is to download LINQPad (www.linqpad.net). LINQPad lets you interactively query local collections and SQL databases in LINQ without any setup and is preloaded with numerous examples.

LINQ Fundamentals

The basic units of data in LINQ are sequences and elements. A sequence is any object that implements the generic IEnumerable interface, and an element is each item in the sequence. In the following example, names is a sequence, and Tom, Dick, and Harry are elements:

```csharp
string[] names = { "Tom", "Dick", "Harry" };
```

A sequence such as this we call a local sequence because it represents a local collection of objects in memory.

A query operator is a method that transforms a sequence. A typical query operator accepts an input sequence and emits a transformed output sequence. In the Enumerable class in System.Linq, there are around 40 query operators, all implemented as static extension methods. These are called standard query operators.

NOTE

LINQ also supports sequences that can be dynamically fed from a remote data source such as SQL Server. These sequences additionally implement the IQueryable<> interface and are supported through a matching set of standard query operators in the Queryable class.
A simple query

A query is an expression that transforms sequences with one or more query operators. The simplest query comprises one input sequence and one operator. For instance, we can apply the Where operator on a simple array to extract those names whose length is at least four characters, as follows:

```csharp
string[] names = { "Tom", "Dick", "Harry" };

IEnumerable<string> filteredNames =
    System.Linq.Enumerable.Where(
        names, n => n.Length >= 4);

foreach (string n in filteredNames)
    Console.Write(n + "|");            // Dick|Harry|
```

Because the standard query operators are implemented as extension methods, we can call Where directly on names—as though it were an instance method:

```csharp
IEnumerable<string> filteredNames =
    names.Where(n => n.Length >= 4);
```

(For this to compile, you must import the System.Linq namespace with a using directive.) The Where method in System.Linq.Enumerable has the following signature:

```csharp
static IEnumerable<TSource> Where<TSource>
    (IEnumerable<TSource> source,
    Func<TSource,bool> predicate)
```

source is the input sequence; predicate is a delegate that is invoked on each input element. The Where method includes all elements in the output sequence, for which the delegate returns true. Internally, it’s implemented with an iterator—here’s its source code:

```csharp
foreach (TSource element in source)
    if (predicate(element))
        yield return element;
```
Projecting

Another fundamental query operator is the Select method. This transforms (projects) each element in the input sequence with a given lambda expression:

```csharp
string[] names = { "Tom", "Dick", "Harry" };

IEnumerable<string> upperNames =
    names.Select (n => n.ToUpper());

foreach (string n in upperNames)
    Console.Write (n + "|" );   // TOM|DICK|HARRY|
```

A query can project into an anonymous type:

```csharp
var query = names.Select (n => new {
    Name = n,
    Length = n.Length
});

foreach (var row in query)
    Console.WriteLine (row);
```

Here's the result:

```csharp
{ Name = Tom, Length = 3 }
{ Name = Dick, Length = 4 }
{ Name = Harry, Length = 5 }
```

Take and Skip

The original ordering of elements within an input sequence is significant in LINQ. Some query operators rely on this behavior, such as Take, Skip, and Reverse. The Take operator outputs the first \( x \) elements, discarding the rest:

```csharp
int[] numbers  = { 10, 9, 8, 7, 6 };
IEnumerable<int> firstThree = numbers.Take (3);
// firstThree is { 10, 9, 8 }
```

The Skip operator ignores the first \( x \) elements, and outputs the rest:

```csharp
IEnumerable<int> lastTwo = numbers.Skip (3);
```
Element operators

Not all query operators return a sequence. The `element` operators extract one element from the input sequence; examples are First, Last, Single, and ElementAt:

```csharp
int[] numbers = { 10, 9, 8, 7, 6 };
int firstNumber = numbers.First(); // 10
int lastNumber = numbers.Last(); // 6
int secondNumber = numbers.ElementAt(2); // 8
int firstOddNum = numbers.First(n => n % 2 == 1); // 9
```

All of these operators throw an exception if no elements are present. To get a null/empty return value instead of an exception, use `FirstOrDefault`, `LastOrDefault`, `SingleOrDefault`, or `ElementAtOrDefault`.

The `Single` and `SingleOrDefault` methods are equivalent to `First` and `FirstOrDefault` except that they throw an exception if there’s more than one match. This behavior is useful when you’re querying a database table for a row by primary key.

Aggregation operators

The `aggregation` operators return a scalar value, usually of numeric type. The most commonly used aggregation operators are `Count`, `Min`, `Max`, and `Average`:

```csharp
int[] numbers = { 10, 9, 8, 7, 6 };
int count = numbers.Count(); // 5
int min = numbers.Min(); // 6
int max = numbers.Max(); // 10
double avg = numbers.Average(); // 8
```

`Count` accepts an optional predicate, which indicates whether to include a given element. The following counts all even numbers:

```csharp
int evenNums = numbers.Count(n => n % 2 == 0); // 3
```

The `Min`, `Max`, and `Average` operators accept an optional argument that transforms each element prior to it being aggregated:

```csharp
int maxRemainderAfterDivBy5 = numbers.Max
                               (n => n % 5); // 4
```
The following calculates the root-mean-square of numbers:

double rms = Math.Sqrt(numbers.Average(n => n * n));

**Quantifiers**

The *quantifiers* return a *bool* value. The quantifiers are *Contains*, *Any*, *All*, and *SequenceEquals* (which compares two sequences):

```csharp
int[] numbers = { 10, 9, 8, 7, 6 };

bool hasTheNumberNine = numbers.Contains(9);    // true
bool hasMoreThanZeroElements = numbers.Any();    // true
bool hasOddNum = numbers.Any(n => n % 2 == 1);  // true
bool allOddNums = numbers.All(n => n % 2 == 1); // false
```

**Set operators**

The *set* operators accept two same-typed input sequences. *Concat* appends one sequence to another; *Union* does the same but with duplicates removed:

```csharp
int[] seq1 = { 1, 2, 3 }, seq2 = { 3, 4, 5 };

IEnumerable<int>
concat = seq1.Concat(seq2),   // { 1, 2, 3, 3, 4, 5 }
union  = seq1.Union(seq2),    // { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 }
```

The other two operators in this category are *Intersect* and *Except*:

```csharp
IEnumerable<int>
commonality = seq1.Intersect(seq2),    // { 3 }
difference1 = seq1.Except(seq2),        // { 1, 2 }
difference2 = seq2.Except(seq1);        // { 4, 5 }
```

**Deferred Execution**

An important feature of many query operators is that they execute not when constructed, but when *enumerated* (in other words, when *MoveNext* is called on its enumerator). Consider the following query:

```csharp
var numbers = new List<int> { 1 };
```
IEnumerable<int> query = numbers.Select (n => n * 10);
numbers.Add (2);    // Sneak in an extra element

foreach (int n in query)
    Console.Write (n + "|");          // 10|20|

The extra number that we sneaked into the list after constructing the query is included in the result, because it’s not until the foreach statement runs that any filtering or sorting takes place. This is called deferred or lazy evaluation. Deferred execution decouples query construction from query execution, allowing you to construct a query in several steps as well as making it possible to query a database without retrieving all the rows to the client. All standard query operators provide deferred execution, with the following exceptions:

- Operators that return a single element or scalar value (the element operators, aggregation operators, and quantifiers)
- The conversion operators ToArray, ToList, ToDictionary, and ToLookup

The conversion operators are handy, in part, because they defeat lazy evaluation. This can be useful to “freeze” or cache the results at a certain point in time, to avoid reexecuting a computationally intensive or remotely sourced query such as a LINQ to SQL table. (A side effect of lazy evaluation is that the query gets reevaluated should you later reenumerate it.)

The following example illustrates the ToList operator:

```csharp
var numbers = new List<int>() { 1, 2 };;

List<int> timesTen = numbers
    .Select (n => n * 10)
    .ToList();    // Executes immediately into a List<int>

numbers.Clear();
Console.WriteLine (timesTen.Count);      // Still 2
```
WARNING

Subqueries provide another level of indirection. Everything in a subquery is subject to deferred execution—including aggregation and conversion methods, because the subquery is itself executed only lazily upon demand. Assuming names is a string array, a subquery looks like this:

```csharp
names.Where (
    n => n.Length == 
    names.Min (n2 => n2.Length))
```

### Standard Query Operators

The standard query operators (as implemented in the System.Linq.Enumerable class) can be divided into 12 categories, summarized in Table 1.

**Table 1. Query operator categories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Deferred execution?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Filtering</td>
<td>Returns a subset of elements that satisfy a given condition</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Projecting</td>
<td>Transforms each element with a lambda function, optionally expanding subsequences</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joining</td>
<td>Meshes elements of one collection with another, using a time-efficient lookup strategy</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordering</td>
<td>Returns a reordering of a sequence</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grouping</td>
<td>Groups a sequence into subsequences</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set</td>
<td>Accepts two same-typed sequences, and returns their commonality, sum, or difference</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Element</td>
<td>Picks a single element from a sequence</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggregation</td>
<td>Performs a computation over a sequence, returning a scalar value (typically a number)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tables 2–13 summarize each query operator. The operators shown in bold have special support in C# (see “Query Expressions” on page 169).

Table 2. Filtering operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Where</td>
<td>Returns a subset of elements that satisfy a given condition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take</td>
<td>Returns the first $x$ elements, and discards the rest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skip</td>
<td>Ignores the first $x$ elements, and returns the rest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TakeWhile</td>
<td>Emits elements from the input sequence until the given predicate is true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SkipWhile</td>
<td>Ignores elements from the input sequence until the given predicate is true, and then emits the rest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distinct</td>
<td>Returns a collection that excludes duplicates</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Projection operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Select</td>
<td>Transforms each input element with a given lambda expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SelectMany</td>
<td>Transforms each input element, then flattens and concatenates the resultant subsequences</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 4. Joining operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Join</td>
<td>Applies a lookup strategy to match elements from two collections, emitting a flat result set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GroupJoin</td>
<td>As above, but emits a hierarchical result set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zip</td>
<td>Enumerates two sequences in step, returning a sequence that applies a function over each element pair</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 5. Ordering operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OrderBy, ThenBy</td>
<td>Returns the elements sorted in ascending order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OrderByDescending, ThenByDescending</td>
<td>Returns the elements sorted in descending order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reverse</td>
<td>Returns the elements in reverse order</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 6. Grouping operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GroupBy</td>
<td>Groups a sequence into subsequences</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 7. Set operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Concat</td>
<td>Concatenates two sequences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Union</td>
<td>Concatenates two sequences, removing duplicates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intersect</td>
<td>Returns elements present in both sequences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Except</td>
<td>Returns elements present in the first sequence, but not the second</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8. Element operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First, FirstOrDefault</td>
<td>Returns the first element in the sequence, or the first element satisfying a given predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Last, LastOrDefault</td>
<td>Returns the last element in the sequence, or the last element satisfying a given predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single, SingleOrDefault</td>
<td>Equivalent to First/FirstOrDefault, but throws an exception if there is more than one match</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ElementAt, ElementAtOrDefault</td>
<td>Returns the element at the specified position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DefaultIfEmpty</td>
<td>Returns a single-value sequence whose value is null or default(TSource) if the sequence has no elements</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9. Aggregation operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Count, LongCount</td>
<td>Returns the total number of elements in the input sequence, or the number of elements satisfying a given predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min, Max</td>
<td>Returns the smallest or largest element in the sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum, Average</td>
<td>Calculates a numeric sum or average over elements in the sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggregate</td>
<td>Performs a custom aggregation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 10. Qualifiers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contains</td>
<td>Returns <code>true</code> if the input sequence contains the given element.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Returns <code>true</code> if any elements satisfy the given predicate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>Returns <code>true</code> if all elements satisfy the given predicate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SequenceEqual</td>
<td>Returns <code>true</code> if the second sequence has identical elements to the input sequence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 11. Conversion operators (import)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OfType</td>
<td>Converts <code>IEnumerable</code> to <code>IEnumerable&lt;T&gt;</code>, discarding wrongly typed elements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cast</td>
<td>Converts <code>IEnumerable</code> to <code>IEnumerable&lt;T&gt;</code>, throwing an exception if there are any wrongly typed elements.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 12. Conversion operators (export)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ToArray</td>
<td>Converts <code>IEnumerable&lt;T&gt;</code> to <code>T[]</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ToList</td>
<td>Converts <code>IEnumerable&lt;T&gt;</code> to <code>List&lt;T&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ToDictionary</td>
<td>Converts <code>IEnumerable&lt;T&gt;</code> to <code>Dictionary&lt;TKey,TValue&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ToLookup</td>
<td>Converts <code>IEnumerable&lt;T&gt;</code> to <code>ILookup&lt;TKey,TElement&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AsEnumerable</td>
<td>Downcasts to <code>IEnumerable&lt;T&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AsQueryable</td>
<td>Casts or converts to <code>IQueryable&lt;T&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13. Generation operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Empty</td>
<td>Creates an empty sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeat</td>
<td>Creates a sequence of repeating elements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>Creates a sequence of integers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chaining Query Operators

To build more complex queries, you chain query operators together. For example, the following query extracts all strings containing the letter *a*, sorts them by length, and then converts the results to uppercase:

```csharp
string[] names = { "Tom","Dick","Harry","Mary","Jay" };
IEnumerable<string> query = names
    .Where (n => n.Contains("a"))
    .OrderBy (n => n.Length)
    .Select  (n => n.ToUpper());
foreach (string name in query)
    Console.Write(name + "|");
// RESULT: JAY|MARY|HARRY|
```

Where, OrderBy, and Select are all standard query operators that resolve to extension methods in the `Enumerable` class. The `Where` operator emits a filtered version of the input sequence; `OrderBy` emits a sorted version of its input sequence; `Select` emits a sequence where each input element is transformed or *projected* with a given lambda expression (`n.ToUpper()`, in this case). Data flows from left to right through the chain of operators, so the data is first filtered, then sorted, then projected. The end result resembles a production line of conveyor belts, as illustrated in Figure 6.
Deferred execution is honored throughout with operators, so no filtering, sorting, or projecting takes place until the query is actually enumerated.

## Query Expressions

So far, we've written queries by calling extension methods in the `Enumerable` class. In this book, we describe this as *fluent syntax*. C# also provides special language support for writing queries, called *query expressions*. Here's the preceding query expressed as a query expression:

```csharp
IEnumerable<string> query =
    from n in names
    where n.Contains("a")
    orderby n.Length
    select n.ToUpper();
```

A query expression always starts with a `from` clause, and ends with either a `select` or `group` clause. The `from` clause declares a *range variable* (in this case, `n`), which you can think of as traversing the input collection—rather like `foreach`. *Figure 7* illustrates the complete syntax.
NOTE

If you’re familiar with SQL, LINQ’s query expression syntax—with the from clause first and the select clause last—might look bizarre. Query expression syntax is actually more logical because the clauses appear in the order they’re executed. This allows Visual Studio to prompt you with IntelliSense as you type, as well as simplifying the scoping rules for subqueries.
The compiler processes query expressions by translating them to fluent syntax. It does this in a fairly mechanical fashion—much like it translates foreach statements into calls to GetEnumerator and MoveNext:

```csharp
IEnumerable<string> query = names
    .Where (n => n.Contains("a"))
    .OrderBy (n => n.Length)
    .Select  (n => n.ToUpper());
```

The Where, OrderBy, and Select operators then resolve using the same rules that would apply if the query were written in fluent syntax. In this case, they bind to extension methods in the Enumerable class (assuming you’ve imported the System.Linq namespace) because names implements IEnumerable<string>. The compiler doesn’t specifically favor the Enumerable class, however, when translating query syntax. You can think of the compiler as mechanically injecting the words Where, OrderBy, and Select into the statement, and then compiling it as though you’d typed the method names yourself. This offers flexibility in how they resolve—the operators in LINQ to SQL and Entity Framework queries, for instance, bind instead to the extension methods in the Queryable class.

**Query expressions versus fluent queries**

Query expressions and fluent queries each have advantages.

Query expressions support only a small subset of query operators, namely:

- Where, Select, SelectMany
- OrderBy, ThenBy, OrderByDescending, ThenByDescending
- GroupBy, Join, GroupJoin

For queries that use other operators, you must either write entirely in fluent syntax or construct mixed-syntact queries; for instance:

```csharp
string[] names = { "Tom","Dick","Harry","Mary","Jay" };

IEnumerable<string> query =
    from n in names
```
where  n.Length == names.Min (n2 => n2.Length)
select n;

This query returns names whose length matches that of the shortest (“Tom” and “Jay”). The subquery (in bold) calculates the minimum length of each name, and evaluates to 3. We have to use fluent syntax for the subquery because the Min operator has no support in query expression syntax. We can, however, still use query syntax for the outer query.

The main advantage of query syntax is that it can radically simplify queries that involve the following:

- A let clause for introducing a new variable alongside the range variable
- Multiple generators (SelectMany) followed by an outer range variable reference
- A Join or GroupJoin equivalent, followed by an outer range variable reference

The let Keyword

The let keyword introduces a new variable alongside the range variable. For instance, suppose we want to list all names whose length, without vowels, is greater than two characters:

```csharp
string[] names = { "Tom","Dick","Harry","Mary","Jay" };
IEnumerable<string> query =
    from n in names
    let vowelless = Regex.Replace (n, "[aeiou]", "")
    where vowelless.Length > 2
    orderby vowelless
    select n + " - " + vowelless;
```

The output from enumerating this query is:

```
Dick - Dck
Harry - Hrry
Mary - Mry
```
The let clause performs a calculation on each element, without losing the original element. In our query, the subsequent clauses (where, orderby, and select) have access to both \( n \) and `vowelless`. A query can include any multiple let clauses, and they can be interspersed with additional where and join clauses.

The compiler translates the let keyword by projecting into a temporary anonymous type that contains both the original and transformed elements:

```csharp
IEnumerable<string> query = names
    .Select (n => new
    {
        n = n,        vowelless = Regex.Replace (n, "[aeiou]", "")
    })
    .Where (temp0 => (temp0.vowelless.Length > 2))
    .OrderBy (temp0 => temp0.vowelless)
    .Select (temp0 => ((temp0.n + " - ") + temp0.vowelless))
```

**Query Continuations**

If you want to add clauses after a select or group clause, you must use the into keyword to “continue” the query. For instance:

```csharp
from c in "The quick brown tiger".Split()
select c.ToUpper() into upper
where upper.StartsWith ("T")
select upper
```

// RESULT: "THE", "TIGER"

Following an into clause, the previous range variable is out of scope.

The compiler translates queries with an into keyword simply into a longer chain of operators:

"The quick brown tiger".Split()
    .Select (c => c.ToUpper())
    .Where (upper => upper.StartsWith ("T"))
(It omits the final `Select(upper=>upper)` because it’s redundant.)

**Multiple Generators**

A query can include multiple generators (from clauses). For example:

```csharp
int[] numbers = { 1, 2, 3 };
string[] letters = { "a", "b" };

IEnumerable<string> query = from n in numbers
from l in letters
select n.ToString() + l;
```

The result is a cross product, rather like you’d get with nested foreach loops:

"1a", "1b", "2a", "2b", "3a", "3b"

When there’s more than one from clause in a query, the compiler emits a call to `SelectMany`:

```csharp
IEnumerable<string> query = numbers.SelectMany(
    n => letters,
    (n, l) => (n.ToString() + l));
```

`SelectMany` performs nested looping. It enumerates every element in the source collection (`numbers`), transforming each element with the first lambda expression (`letters`). This generates a sequence of subsequences, which it then enumerates. The final output elements are determined by the second lambda expression (`n.ToString()+l`).

If you subsequently apply a where clause, you can filter the cross product and project a result akin to a join:

```csharp
string[] players = { "Tom", "Jay", "Mary" };

IEnumerable<string> query =
    from name1 in players
    from name2 in players
    where name1.CompareTo(name2) < 0
    orderby name1, name2
    select name1 + " vs " + name2;
```
The translation of this query into fluent syntax is more complex, requiring a temporary anonymous projection. The ability to perform this translation automatically is one of the key benefits of query expressions.

The expression in the second generator is allowed to use the first range variable:

```csharp
string[] fullNames = 
    { "Anne Williams", "John Fred Smith", "Sue Green" };

IEnumerable<string> query =
    from fullName in fullNames
    from name in fullName.Split()
    select name + " came from " + fullName;

Anne came from Anne Williams
Williams came from Anne Williams
John came from John Fred Smith
```

This works because the expression `fullName.Split` emits a sequence (an array of strings).

Multiple generators are used extensively in database queries, to flatten parent-child relationships and to perform manual joins.

### Joining

LINQ provides three *joining* operators, the main ones being `Join` and `GroupJoin`, which perform keyed lookup-based joins. `Join` and `GroupJoin` support only a subset of the functionality you get with multiple generators/`SelectMany`, but they are more performant with local queries because they use a hashtable-based lookup strategy rather than performing nested loops. (With LINQ to SQL and Entity Framework queries, the joining operators have no advantage over multiple generators.)

`Join` and `GroupJoin` support *equi-joins* only (i.e., the joining condition must use the equality operator). There are two meth-
ods: Join and GroupJoin. Join emits a flat result set, whereas GroupJoin emits a hierarchical result set.

The query expression syntax for a flat join is:

```csharp
from outer-var in outer-sequence
join inner-var in inner-sequence
  on outer-key-expr equals inner-key-expr
```

For example, given the following collections:

```csharp
var customers = new[]
{                  
  new { ID = 1, Name = "Tom" },                  
  new { ID = 2, Name = "Dick" },                  
  new { ID = 3, Name = "Harry" }                  
};
var purchases = new[]
{                  
  new { CustomerID = 1, Product = "House" },                  
  new { CustomerID = 2, Product = "Boat" },                  
  new { CustomerID = 2, Product = "Car" },                  
  new { CustomerID = 3, Product = "Holiday" }                  
};
```

we could perform a join as follows:

```csharp
IEnumerable<string> query =
  from c in customers
  join p in purchases on c.ID equals p.CustomerID
  select c.Name + " bought a " + p.Product;
```

The compiler translates this to:

```csharp
customers.Join (                // outer collection
  purchases,                    // inner collection
  c => c.ID,                    // outer key selector
  p => p.CustomerID,            // inner key selector
  (c, p) =>                     // result selector
    c.Name + " bought a " + p.Product
);
```

Here’s the result:

```
Tom bought a House
Dick bought a Boat
Dick bought a Car
Harry bought a Holiday
```
With local sequences, Join and GroupJoin are more efficient at processing large collections than SelectMany because they first preload the inner sequence into a keyed hashtable-based lookup. With a database query, however, you could achieve the same result equally efficiently, as follows:

```csharp
from c in customers
from p in purchases
where c.ID == p.CustomerID
select c.Name + " bought a " + p.Product;
```

**GroupJoin**

GroupJoin does the same work as Join, but instead of yielding a flat result, it yields a hierarchical result, grouped by each outer element.

The query expression syntax for GroupJoin is the same as for Join, but is followed by the into keyword. Here's a basic example, using the customers and purchases collections we set up in the previous section:

```csharp
IEnumerable<IEnumerable<Purchase>> query =
    from c in customers
    join p in purchases on c.ID equals p.CustomerID
    into custPurchases
    select custPurchases; // custPurchases is a sequence
```

**NOTE**

An into clause translates to GroupJoin only when it appears directly after a join clause. After a select or group clause it means query continuation. The two uses of the into keyword are quite different, although they have one feature in common: they both introduce a new query variable.

The result is a sequence of sequences, which we could enumerate as follows:
foreach (IEnumerable<Purchase> purchaseSequence in query)
    foreach (Purchase p in purchaseSequence)
        Console.WriteLine (p.Description);

This isn’t very useful, however, because outerSeq has no reference to the outer customer. More commonly, you’d reference the outer range variable in the projection:

    from c in customers
    join p in purchases on c.ID equals p.CustomerID
    into custPurchases
    select new { CustName = c.Name, custPurchases };

We could obtain the same result (but less efficiently, for local queries) by projecting into an anonymous type that included a subquery:

    from c in customers
    select new
    {
        CustName = c.Name,
        custPurchases =
            purchases.Where (p => c.ID == p.CustomerID)
    }

**Zip**

Zip is the simplest joining operator. It enumerates two sequences in step (like a zipper), returning a sequence based on applying a function over each element pair. For example:

    int[] numbers = { 3, 5, 7 };  
    string[] words = { "three", "five", "seven", "ignored" };  
    IEnumerable<string> zip =
        numbers.Zip (words, (n, w) => n + "=" + w);

produces a sequence with the following elements:

    3=three  
    5=five  
    7=seven

Extra elements in either input sequence are ignored. Zip is not supported when you are querying a database.
Ordering

The `orderby` keyword sorts a sequence. You can specify any number of expressions upon which to sort:

```csharp
string[] names = { "Tom","Dick","Harry","Mary","Jay" };

IEnumerable<string> query = from n in names
    orderby n.Length, n
    select n;
```

This sorts first by length and then by name, so the result is:

```
Jay, Tom, Dick, Mary, Harry
```

The compiler translates the first `orderby` expression to a call to `OrderBy`, and subsequent expressions to a call to `ThenBy`:

```csharp
IEnumerable<string> query = names
    .OrderBy (n => n.Length)
    .ThenBy (n => n)
```

The `ThenBy` operator refines rather than replaces the previous sorting.

You can include the `descending` keyword after any of the `orderby` expressions:

```csharp
orderby n.Length descending, n
```

This translates to:

```csharp
.OrderByDescending (n => n.Length).ThenBy (n => n)
```

---

**NOTE**

The ordering operators return an extended type of `IEnumerable<T>` called `IOrderedEnumerable<T>`. This interface defines the extra functionality required by the `ThenBy` operator.
**Grouping**

GroupBy organizes a flat input sequence into sequences of groups. For example, the following groups a sequence of names by their length:

```csharp
string[] names = { "Tom","Dick","Harry","Mary","Jay" };

var query = from name in names
             group name by name.Length;
```

The compiler translates this query into:

```csharp
IEnumerable<IGrouping<int,string>> query =
    names.GroupBy (name => name.Length);
```

Here's how to enumerate the result:

```csharp
foreach (IGrouping<int,string> grouping in query)
{
    Console.Write ("
    Length=" + grouping.Key + ":");
    foreach (string name in grouping)
    {
        Console.Write (" " + name);
    }
}
```

Length=3: Tom Jay
Length=4: Dick Mary
Length=5: Harry

Enumerable.GroupBy works by reading the input elements into a temporary dictionary of lists so that all elements with the same key end up in the same sublist. It then emits a sequence of groupings. A grouping is a sequence with a Key property:

```csharp
public interface IGrouping <TKey, TElement>
    : IEnumerable<TElement>, IEnumerable
{
    // Key applies to the subsequence as a whole
    TKey Key { get; }
}
```

By default, the elements in each grouping are untransformed input elements, unless you specify an elementSelector argument. The following projects each input element to uppercase:

```csharp
from name in names
    group name.ToUpper() by name.Length
```
which translates to this:

```csharp
names.GroupBy (
    name => name.Length,
    name => name.ToUpper() )
```

The subcollections are not emitted in order of key. `GroupBy` does no sorting (in fact, it preserves the original ordering). To sort, you must add an `OrderBy` operator (which means first adding an `into` clause because `group by` ordinarily ends a query):

```csharp
from name in names
    group name.ToString().ToUpper() by name.Length into grouping
    orderby grouping.Key
    select grouping
```

Query continuations are often used in a `group by` query. The next query filters out groups that have exactly two matches in them:

```csharp
from name in names
    group name.ToString().ToUpper() by name.Length into grouping
    where grouping.Count() == 2
    select grouping
```

---

**NOTE**

A `where` after a `group by` is equivalent to `HAVING` in SQL. It applies to each subsequence or grouping as a whole rather than the individual elements.

---

**OfType and Cast**

`OfType` and `Cast` accept a nongeneric `IEnumerable` collection and emit a generic `IEnumerable<T>` sequence that you can subsequently query:

```csharp
var classicList = new System.Collections.ArrayList();
classicList.AddRange ( new int[] { 3, 4, 5 } );
IEquatable<int> sequence1 = classicList.Cast<int>();
```
This is useful because it allows you to query collections written prior to C# 2.0 (when IEnumerable<T> was introduced), such as ControlCollection in System.Windows.Forms.

Cast and OfType differ in their behavior when encountering an input element that's of an incompatible type: Cast throws an exception, whereas OfType ignores the incompatible element.

The rules for element compatibility follow those of C#'s is operator. Here's the internal implementation of Cast:

```csharp
public static IEnumerable<TSource> Cast<TSource>(IEnumerable source)
{
    foreach (object element in source)
    yield return (TSource)element;
}
```

C# supports the Cast operator in query expressions—simply insert the element type immediately after the from keyword:

```csharp
from int x in classicList ...
```

This translates to:

```csharp
from x in classicList.Cast<int>() ...
```

**Dynamic Binding**

*Dynamic binding* defers binding—the process of resolving types, members, and operations—from compile time to runtime. Dynamic binding was introduced in C# 4.0 and is useful when at compile time you know that a certain function, member, or operation exists, but the compiler does not. This commonly occurs when you are interoperating with dynamic languages (such as IronPython) and COM and in scenarios when you might otherwise use reflection.

A dynamic type is declared with the contextual keyword dynamic:

```csharp
dynamic d = GetSomeObject();
d.Quack();
```
A dynamic type tells the compiler to relax. We expect the run‐
time type of d to have a Quack method. We just can’t prove it statically. Because d is dynamic, the compiler defers binding Quack to d until runtime. Understanding what this means requires distinguishing between static binding and dynamic binding.

**Static Binding Versus Dynamic Binding**

The canonical binding example is mapping a name to a specific function when compiling an expression. To compile the following expression, the compiler needs to find the implementation of the method named Quack:

```csharp
d.Quack();
```

Let’s suppose the static type of d is Duck:

```csharp
Duck d = ...
d.Quack();
```

In the simplest case, the compiler does the binding by looking for a parameterless method named Quack on Duck. Failing that, the compiler extends its search to methods taking optional parameters, methods on base classes of Duck, and extension methods that take Duck as its first parameter. If no match is found, you’ll get a compilation error. Regardless of what method gets bound, the bottom line is that the binding is done by the compiler, and the binding utterly depends on statically knowing the types of the operands (in this case, d). This makes it static binding.

Now let’s change the static type of d to object:

```csharp
object d = ...
d.Quack();
```

Calling Quack gives us a compilation error because, although the value stored in d can contain a method called Quack, the compiler cannot know it given that the only information it has is the type of the variable, which in this case is object. But let’s now change the static type of d to dynamic:
A dynamic type is like object—it’s equally nondescriptive about a type. The difference is that it lets you use it in ways that aren’t known at compile time. A dynamic object binds at runtime based on its runtime type, not its compile-time type. When the compiler sees a dynamically bound expression (which in general is an expression that contains any value of type dynamic), it merely packages up the expression such that the binding can be done later at runtime.

At runtime, if a dynamic object implements IDynamicMetaObjectProvider, that interface is used to perform the binding. If not, binding occurs in almost the same way as it would have had the compiler known the dynamic object’s runtime type. These two alternatives are called custom binding and language binding.

**Custom Binding**

Custom binding occurs when a dynamic object implements IDynamicMetaObjectProvider (IDMOP). Although you can implement IDMOP on types that you write in C#, and this is useful to do, the more common case is that you have acquired an IDMOP object from a dynamic language that is implemented in .NET on the Dynamic Language Runtime (DLR), such as IronPython or IronRuby. Objects from those languages implicitly implement IDMOP as a means to directly control the meanings of operations performed on them. Here’s a simple example:

```csharp
using System;
using System.Dynamic;

public class Test
{
    static void Main()
    {
        dynamic d = new Duck();
        d.Quack();       // Quack was called
    }
}
```
d.Waddle();       // Waddle was called
}
}

public class Duck : DynamicObject
{
    public override bool TryInvokeMember (InvokeMemberBinder binder, object[] args, out object result)
    {
        Console.WriteLine (binder.Name + " was called");
        result = null;
        return true;
    }
}

The Duck class doesn’t actually have a Quack method. Instead, it uses custom binding to intercept and interpret all method calls. We discuss custom binders in greater detail in Chapter 20 of C# 7.0 in a Nutshell.

Language Binding

*Language binding* occurs when a dynamic object does not implement IDynamicMetaObjectProvider. Language binding is useful when you are working around imperfectly designed types or inherent limitations in the .NET type system. For example, the built-in numeric types are imperfect in that they have no common interface. We have seen that methods can be bound dynamically; the same is true for operators:

```
static dynamic Mean (dynamic x, dynamic y) => (x+y) / 2;
```

```
static void Main()
{
    int x = 3, y = 4;
    Console.WriteLine (Mean (x, y));
}
```

The benefit is obvious—you don’t have to duplicate code for each numeric type. However, you lose static type safety, risking runtime exceptions rather than compile-time errors.
Dynamic binding circumvents static type safety but not runtime type safety. Unlike with reflection, you cannot circumvent member accessibility rules with dynamic binding.

By design, language runtime binding behaves as similarly as possible to static binding, had the runtime types of the dynamic objects been known at compile time. In our previous example, the behavior of our program would be identical if we hardcoded `Mean` to work with the `int` type. The most notable exception in parity between static and dynamic binding is for extension methods, which we discuss in “Uncallable Functions” on page 190.

Dynamic binding also incurs a performance hit. Because of the DLR’s caching mechanisms, however, repeated calls to the same dynamic expression are optimized—allowing you to efficiently call dynamic expressions in a loop. This optimization brings the typical overhead for a simple dynamic expression on today’s hardware down to less than 100 ns.

If a member fails to bind, a `RuntimeBinderException` is thrown. You can think of this like a compile-time error at runtime:

```csharp
dynamic d = 5;
d.Hello(); // throws RuntimeBinderException
```

The exception is thrown because the `int` type has no `Hello` method.
Runtime Representation of dynamic

There is a deep equivalence between the dynamic and object types. The runtime treats the following expression as true:

    typeof (dynamic) == typeof (object)

This principle extends to constructed types and array types:

    typeof (List<dynamic>) == typeof (List<object>)
    typeof (dynamic[]) == typeof (object[])

Like an object reference, a dynamic reference can point to an object of any type (except pointer types):

    dynamic x = "hello";
    Console.WriteLine (x.GetType().Name);  // String

    x = 123;  // No error (despite same variable)
    Console.WriteLine (x.GetType().Name);  // Int32

Structurally, there is no difference between an object reference and a dynamic reference. A dynamic reference simply enables dynamic operations on the object it points to. You can convert from object to dynamic to perform any dynamic operation you want on an object:

    object o = new System.Text.StringBuilder();
    dynamic d = o;
    d.Append ("hello");
    Console.WriteLine (o);  // hello

Dynamic Conversions

The dynamic type has implicit conversions to and from all other types. For a conversion to succeed, the runtime type of the dynamic object must be implicitly convertible to the target static type.

The following example throws a RuntimeBinderException because an int is not implicitly convertible to a short:

    int i = 7;
    dynamic d = i;
    long l = d;       // OK - implicit conversion works
    short j = d;      // throws RuntimeBinderException
var Versus dynamic

The `var` and `dynamic` types bear a superficial resemblance, but the difference is deep:

- `var` says, “Let the compiler figure out the type.”
- `dynamic` says, “Let the runtime figure out the type.”

To illustrate:

```csharp
dynamic x = "hello";  // Static type is dynamic
var y = "hello";      // Static type is string
int i = x;            // Runtime error
int j = y;            // Compile-time error
```

Dynamic Expressions

Fields, properties, methods, events, constructors, indexers, operators, and conversions can all be called dynamically.

Trying to consume the result of a dynamic expression with a `void` return type is prohibited—just as with a statically typed expression. The difference is that the error occurs at runtime.

Expressions involving dynamic operands are typically themselves dynamic because the effect of absent type information is cascading:

```csharp
dynamic x = 2;
var y = x * 3;       // Static type of y is dynamic
```

There are a couple of obvious exceptions to this rule. First, casting a dynamic expression to a static type yields a static expression. Second, constructor invocations always yield static expressions—even when called with dynamic arguments.

In addition, there are a few edge cases where an expression containing a dynamic argument is static, including passing an index to an array and delegate creation expressions.
Dynamic Member Overload Resolution

The canonical use case for dynamic involves a dynamic receiver. This means that a dynamic object is the receiver of a dynamic function call:

```csharp
dynamic x = ...;
x.Foo(123); // x is the receiver
```

However, dynamic binding is not limited to receivers: the method arguments are also eligible for dynamic binding. The effect of calling a function with dynamic arguments is to defer overload resolution from compile-time to runtime:

```csharp
static void Foo(int x) => Console.WriteLine("1");
static void Foo(string x) => Console.WriteLine("2");

static void Main()
{
    dynamic x = 5;
    dynamic y = "watermelon";

    Foo(x); // 1
    Foo(y); // 2
}
```

Runtime overload resolution is also called multiple dispatch and is useful in implementing design patterns such as visitor.

If a dynamic receiver is not involved, the compiler can statically perform a basic check to see whether the dynamic call will succeed: it checks that a function with the right name and number of parameters exists. If no candidate is found, you get a compile-time error.

If a function is called with a mixture of dynamic and static arguments, the final choice of method will reflect a mixture of dynamic and static binding decisions:

```csharp
static void X(object x, object y) => Console.Write("oo");
static void X(object x, string y) => Console.Write("os");
static void X(string x, object y) => Console.Write("so");
static void X(string x, string y) => Console.Write("ss");

static void Main()
```
The call to `X(o, d)` is dynamically bound because one of its arguments, `d`, is `dynamic`. But because `o` is statically known, the binding—even though it occurs dynamically—will make use of that. In this case, overload resolution will pick the second implementation of `X` due to the static type of `o` and the runtime type of `d`. In other words, the compiler is “as static as it can possibly be.”

**Uncallable Functions**

Some functions cannot be called dynamically. You cannot call:

- Extension methods (via extension method syntax)
- Any member of an interface (via the interface)
- Base members hidden by a subclass

This is because dynamic binding requires two pieces of information: the name of the function to call, and the object upon which to call the function. However, in each of the three uncallable scenarios, an *additional type* is involved, which is known only at compile time. And there is no way to specify these additional types dynamically.

When you are calling extension methods, that additional type is an extension class, chosen implicitly by virtue of using directives in your source code (which disappear after compilation). When calling members via an interface, you communicate the additional type via an implicit or explicit cast. (With explicit implementation, it’s in fact impossible to call a member without casting to the interface.) A similar situation arises when you are calling a hidden base member: you must specify an additional type via either a cast or the `base` keyword—and that additional type is lost at runtime.
Operator Overloading

Operators can be overloaded to provide more natural syntax for custom types. Operator overloading is most appropriately used for implementing custom structs that represent fairly primitive data types. For example, a custom numeric type is an excellent candidate for operator overloading.

The following symbolic operators can be overloaded:

```
+   -   *   /   ++   --   !   ~   %   &   |   ^
==  !=  <   <<  >>   >
```

Implicit and explicit conversions can also be overridden (with the `implicit` and `explicit` keywords), as can the literals `true` and `false`, and the unary `+` and `-` operators.

The compound assignment operators (e.g., `+=` and `/=`) are automatically overridden when you override the noncompound operators (e.g., `+` and `/`).

Operator Functions

To overload an operator, you declare an `operator function`. An operator function must be static, and at least one of the operands must be the type in which the operator function is declared.

In the following example, we define a struct called `Note` representing a musical note, and then overload the `+` operator:

```csharp
public struct Note
{
    int value;

    public Note (int semitonesFromA)
    => value = semitonesFromA;

    public static Note operator + (Note x, int semitones)
    {
        return new Note (x.value + semitones);
    }
}
```
This overload allows us to add an int to a Note:

```
Note B = new Note(2);
Note CSharp = B + 2;
```

Because we overrode +, we can use += too:

```
CSharp += 2;
```

Just as with methods and properties, C# 6 and later allow operator functions comprising a single expression to be written more tersely with expression-bodied syntax:

```
public static Note operator + (Note x, int semitones) => new Note(x.value + semitones);
```

### Overloading Equality and Comparison Operators

Equality and comparison operators are often overridden when writing structs, and in rare cases with classes. Special rules and obligations apply when these operators are overridden:

**Pairing**

The C# compiler enforces that operators that are logical pairs are both defined. These operators are (== !=), (< >), and (<= >=).

**Equals and GetHashCode**

If you overload == and !=, you will usually need to override object’s Equals and GetHashCode methods so that collections and hashtables will work reliably with the type.

**IComparable and IComparable<T>**

If you overload < and >, you would also typically implement IComparable and IComparable<T>.

Extending the previous example, here’s how we could overload Note’s equality operators:

```
public static bool operator == (Note n1, Note n2) => n1.value == n2.value;

public static bool operator != (Note n1, Note n2) => !(n1.value == n2.value);

public override bool Equals (object otherNote)
```
Custom Implicit and Explicit Conversions

Implicit and explicit conversions are overloadable operators. These conversions are typically overloaded to make converting between strongly related types (such as numeric types) concise and natural.

As explained in the discussion on types, the rationale behind implicit conversions is that they should always succeed and not lose information during conversion. Otherwise, explicit conversions should be defined.

In the following example, we define conversions between our musical `Note` type and a `double` (which represents the frequency in hertz of that note):

```csharp
// Convert to hertz
public static implicit operator double (Note x) => 440 * Math.Pow(2, (double) x.value / 12);

// Convert from hertz (accurate to nearest semitone)
public static explicit operator Note (double x) => new Note((int)(0.5 + 12 * (Math.Log(x / 440) / Math.Log(2))));
...

Note n = (Note)554.37; // explicit conversion
double x = n; // implicit conversion
```

NOTE

This example is somewhat contrived: in real life, these conversions might be better implemented with a `ToFrequency` method and a (static) `FromFrequency` method.
Custom conversions are ignored by the as and is operators.

**Attributes**

You’re already familiar with the notion of attributing code elements of a program with modifiers such as `virtual` or `ref`. These constructs are built into the language. Attributes are an extensible mechanism for adding custom information to code elements (assemblies, types, members, return values, and parameters). This extensibility is useful for services that integrate deeply into the type system, without requiring special keywords or constructs in the C# language.

A good scenario for attributes is serialization—the process of converting arbitrary objects to and from a particular format. In this scenario, an attribute on a field can specify the translation between C#’s representation of the field and the format’s representation of the field.

**Attribute Classes**

An attribute is defined by a class that inherits (directly or indirectly) from the abstract class `System.Attribute`. To attach an attribute to a code element, specify the attribute's type name in square brackets, before the code element. For example, the following attaches the `ObsoleteAttribute` to the `Foo` class:

```
[ObsoleteAttribute]
public class Foo {...}
```

This attribute is recognized by the compiler and will cause compiler warnings if a type or member marked obsolete is referenced. By convention, all attribute types end with the word `Attribute`. C# recognizes this and allows you to omit the suffix when attaching an attribute:

```
[Obsolete]
public class Foo {...}
```

`ObsoleteAttribute` is a type declared in the `System` namespace as follows (simplified for brevity):
public sealed class ObsoleteAttribute : Attribute {...}

Named and Positional Attribute Parameters

Attributes may have parameters. In the following example, we apply `XmlElementAttribute` to a class. This attribute tells `XmlSerializer` (in `System.Xml.Serialization`) how an object is represented in XML and accepts several `attribute parameters`. The following attribute maps the `CustomerEntity` class to an XML element named `Customer`, belonging to the `http://oreilly.com` namespace:

```csharp
[XmlElement("Customer", Namespace="http://oreilly.com")]
public class CustomerEntity { ... }
```

Attribute parameters fall into one of two categories: positional or named. In the preceding example, the first argument is a positional parameter; the second is a named parameter. Positional parameters correspond to parameters of the attribute type's public constructors. Named parameters correspond to public fields or public properties on the attribute type.

When specifying an attribute, you must include positional parameters that correspond to one of the attribute's constructors. Named parameters are optional.

Attribute Targets

Implicitly, the target of an attribute is the code element it immediately precedes, which is typically a type or type member. You can also attach attributes, however, to an assembly. This requires that you explicitly specify the attribute's target. Here's an example of using the `CLSCompliant` attribute to specify Common Language Specification (CLS) compliance for an entire assembly:

```csharp
[assembly:CLSCompliant(true)]
```
Specifying Multiple Attributes

Multiple attributes can be specified for a single code element. Each attribute can be listed either within the same pair of square brackets (separated by a comma) or in separate pairs of square brackets (or a combination of the two). The following two examples are semantically identical:

```csharp
[Serializable, Obsolete, CLSCompliant(false)]
public class Bar {...}

[Serializable] [Obsolete] [CLSCompliant(false)]
public class Bar {...}
```

Writing Custom Attributes

You can define your own attributes by subclassing System.Attribute. For example, we could use the following custom attribute for flagging a method for unit testing:

```csharp
[AttributeUsage (AttributeTargets.Method)]
public sealed class TestAttribute : Attribute
{
    public int Repetitions;
    public string FailureMessage;

    public TestAttribute () : this (1) { }  
    public TestAttribute (int repetitions) => Repetitions = repetitions;
}
```

Here’s how we could apply the attribute:

```csharp
class Foo
{
    [Test]
    public void Method1() { ... }

    [Test(20)]
    public void Method2() { ... }

    [Test(20, FailureMessage="Debugging Time!")]
    public void Method3() { ... }
}
```
AttributeUsage is itself an attribute that indicates the construct (or combination of constructs) that the custom attribute can be applied to. The AttributeTargets enum includes such members as Class, Method, Parameter, and Constructor (as well as All, which combines all targets).

Retrieving Attributes at Runtime

There are two standard ways to retrieve attributes at runtime:

- Call GetCustomAttributes on any Type or MemberInfo object.
- Call Attribute.GetCustomAttribute or Attribute.GetCustomAttributes.

These latter two methods are overloaded to accept any reflection object that corresponds to a valid attribute target (Type, Assembly, Module, MemberInfo, or ParameterInfo).

Here’s how we can enumerate each method in the preceding Foo class that has a TestAttribute:

```csharp
foreach (MethodInfo mi in typeof (Foo).GetMethods())
{
    TestAttribute att = (TestAttribute) Attribute.GetCustomAttribute
                             (mi, typeof (TestAttribute));

    if (att != null)
        Console.WriteLine ("{0} will be tested; reps={1}; msg={2}",
                           mi.Name, att.Repetitions, att.FailureMessage);
}
```

Here’s the output:

```
Method1 will be tested; reps=1; msg=
Method2 will be tested; reps=20; msg=
Method3 will be tested; reps=20; msg=Debugging Time!
```
Caller Info Attributes

From C# 5.0, you can tag optional parameters with one of three *caller info attributes*, which instruct the compiler to feed information obtained from the caller’s source code into the parameter’s default value:

- `[CallerMemberName]` applies the caller’s member name.
- `[CallerFilePath]` applies the path to the caller’s source code file.
- `[CallerLineNumber]` applies the line number in the caller’s source code file.

The `Foo` method in the following program demonstrates all three:

```csharp
using System;
using System.Runtime.CompilerServices;

class Program {
    static void Main() => Foo();

    static void Foo (  
        [CallerMemberName] string memberName = null,
        [CallerFilePath] string filePath = null,
        [CallerLineNumber] int lineNumber = 0)
    {
        Console.WriteLine (memberName);
        Console.WriteLine (filePath);
        Console.WriteLine (lineNumber);
    }
}
```

Assuming that our program resides in `c:\source\test\Program.cs`, the output would be:

```
Main
  c:\source\test\Program.cs
  6
```
As with standard optional parameters, the substitution is done at the calling site. Hence, our `Main` method is syntactic sugar for this:

```csharp
static void Main()
    => Foo ("Main", @"c:\source\test\Program.cs", 6);
```

Caller info attributes are useful for writing logging functions, and for implementing change notification patterns. For instance, we can call a method such as the following from inside a property’s set accessor—without having to specify the property’s name:

```csharp
void RaisePropertyChanged (  
    [CallerMemberName] string propertyName = null)  
{
    ...
}
```

## Asynchronous Functions

The `await` and `async` keywords (introduced in C# 5) support *asynchronous programming*, a style of programming where long-running functions do most or all of their work *after* returning to the caller. This is in contrast to normal *synchronous* programming, where long-running functions *block* the caller until the operation is complete. Asynchronous programming implies *concurrency* because the long-running operation continues *in parallel* to the caller. The implementer of an asynchronous function initiates this concurrency either through multithreading (for compute-bound operations) or via a callback mechanism (for I/O-bound operations).

---

**NOTE**

Multithreading, concurrency, and asynchronous programming are large topics. We dedicate two chapters to them in *C# 7.0 in a Nutshell*, and discuss them online at [http://albahari.com/threading](http://albahari.com/threading).
For instance, consider the following *synchronous* method, which is long-running and compute-bound:

```csharp
int ComplexCalculation()
{
    double x = 2;
    for (int i = 1; i < 100000000; i++)
        x += Math.Sqrt(x) / i;
    return (int)x;
}
```

This method blocks the caller for a few seconds while it runs, before returning the result of the calculation to the caller:

```csharp
int result = ComplexCalculation();
// Sometime later:
Console.WriteLine(result); // 116
```

The CLR defines a class called `Task<TResult>` (in `System.Threading.Tasks`) to encapsulate the concept of an operation that completes in the future. You can generate a `Task<TResult>` for a compute-bound operation by calling `Task.Run`, which tells the CLR to run the specified delegate on a separate thread that executes in parallel to the caller:

```csharp
Task<int> ComplexCalculationAsync()
{
    return Task.Run(() => ComplexCalculation());
}
```

This method is *asynchronous* because it returns immediately to the caller while it executes concurrently. However, we need some mechanism to allow the caller to specify what should happen when the operation finishes and the result becomes available. `Task<TResult>` solves this by exposing a `GetAwaiter` method that lets the caller attach a *continuation*:

```csharp
Task<int> task = ComplexCalculationAsync();
var awaiter = task.GetAwaiter();
awaiter.OnCompleted(() =>
    // Continuation
    {
        int result = awaiter.GetResult();
        Console.WriteLine(result); // 116
    });
```
This says to the operation, “When you finish, execute the specified delegate.” Our continuation first calls GetResult, which returns the result of the calculation. (Or, if the task faulted—threw an exception—calling GetResult rethrows that exception.) Our continuation then writes out the result via Console.WriteLine.

The await and async Keywords

The await keyword simplifies the attaching of continuations. Starting with a basic scenario, the compiler expands:

```csharp
var result = await expression; statement(s);
```

into something functionally similar to:

```csharp
var awaiter = expression.GetAwaiter();
awaiter.OnCompleted (() =>
{
    var result = awaiter.GetResult();
    statement(s);
});
```

NOTE

The compiler also emits code to optimize the scenario of the operation completing synchronously (immediately). A common reason for an asynchronous operation completing immediately is if it implements an internal caching mechanism, and the result is already cached.

Hence, we can call the ComplexCalculationAsync method we defined previously, like this:

```csharp
int result = await ComplexCalculationAsync();
Console.WriteLine (result);
```

To compile, we need to add the async modifier to the containing method:
```csharp
async void Test()
{
    int result = await ComplexCalculationAsync();
    Console.WriteLine (result);
}
```

The `async` modifier tells the compiler to treat `await` as a keyword rather than an identifier should an ambiguity arise within that method (this ensures that code written prior to C# 5.0 that might use `await` as an identifier will still compile without error). The `async` modifier can be applied only to methods (and lambda expressions) that return `void` or (as we’ll see later) a `Task` or `Task<TResult>`.

---

**NOTE**

The `async` modifier is similar to the `unsafe` modifier in that it has no effect on a method’s signature or public metadata; it affects only what happens inside the method.

Methods with the `async` modifier are called *asynchronous functions*, because they themselves are typically asynchronous. To see why, let’s look at how execution proceeds through an asynchronous function.

Upon encountering an `await` expression, execution (normally) returns to the caller—rather like with `yield return` in an iterator. But before returning, the runtime attaches a continuation to the awaited task, ensuring that when the task completes, execution jumps back into the method and continues where it left off. If the task faults, its exception is rethrown (by virtue of calling `GetResult`); otherwise, its return value is assigned to the `await` expression.
The CLR’s implementation of a task awaiter’s `OnCompleted` method ensures that by default, continuations are posted through the current *synchronization context*, if one is present. In practice, this means that in rich-client UI scenarios (WPF, UWP, and Windows Forms), if you `await` on a UI thread, your code will continue on that same thread. This simplifies thread safety.

The expression upon which you `await` is typically a task; however, any object with a `GetAwaiter` method that returns an *awaitable object*—implementing `INotifyCompletion.OnCompleted` and with an appropriately typed `GetResult` method (and a `bool IsCompleted` property that tests for synchronous completion)—will satisfy the compiler.

Notice that our `await` expression evaluates to an `int` type; this is because the expression that we awaited was a `Task<int>` (whose `GetAwaiter().GetResult()` method returns an `int`).

Awaiting a nongeneric task is legal and generates a void expression:

```csharp
await Task.Delay (5000);
Console.WriteLine ("Five seconds passed!");
```

`Task.Delay` is a static method that returns a `Task` that completes in the specified number of milliseconds. The *synchronous* equivalent of `Task.Delay` is `Thread.Sleep`.

`Task` is the nongeneric base class of `Task<TResult>` and is functionally equivalent to `Task<TResult>` except that it has no result.

### Capturing Local State

The real power of `await` expressions is that they can appear almost anywhere in code. Specifically, an `await` expression can appear in place of any expression (within an asynchronous
function) except for inside a catch or finally block, a lock expression, an unsafe context, or an executable’s entry point (main method).

In the following example, we await inside a loop:

```csharp
async void Test()
{
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    {
        int result = await ComplexCalculationAsync();
        Console.WriteLine(result);
    }
}
```

Upon first executing `ComplexCalculationAsync`, execution returns to the caller by virtue of the `await` expression. When the method completes (or faults), execution resumes where it left off, with the values of local variables and loop counters preserved. The compiler achieves this by translating such code into a state machine, like it does with iterators.

Without the `await` keyword, the manual use of continuations means that you must write something equivalent to a state machine. This is traditionally what makes asynchronous programming difficult.

## Writing Asynchronous Functions

With any asynchronous function, you can replace the `void` return type with a `Task` to make the method itself *usefully* asynchronous (and awaitable). No further changes are required:

```csharp
async Task PrintAnswerToLife()
{
    await Task.Delay(5000);
    int answer = 21 * 2;
    Console.WriteLine(answer);
}
```

Notice that we don’t explicitly return a task in the method body. The compiler manufactures the task, which it signals upon
completion of the method (or upon an unhandled exception). This makes it easy to create asynchronous call chains:

```csharp
async Task Go()
{
    await PrintAnswerToLife();
    Console.WriteLine("Done");
}
```

(And because Go returns a Task, Go itself is awaitable.) The compiler expands asynchronous functions that return tasks into code that (indirectly) leverages TaskCompletionSource to create a task that it then signals or faults.

**NOTE**

TaskCompletionSource is a CLR type that lets you create tasks that you manually control, signaling them as complete with a result (or as faulted with an exception). Unlike Task.Run, TaskCompletionSource doesn’t tie up a thread for the duration of the operation. It’s also used for writing I/O-bound task-returning methods (such as Task.Delay).

The aim is to ensure that when a task-returning asynchronous method finishes, execution can jump back to whoever awaited it, via a continuation.

**Returning Task<TResult>**

You can return a Task<TResult> if the method body returns TResult:

```csharp
async Task<int> GetAnswerToLife()
{
    await Task.Delay(5000);
    int answer = 21 * 2;
    // answer is int so our method returns Task<int>
    return answer;
}
```
We can demonstrate `GetAnswerToLife` by calling it from `PrintAnswerToLife` (which is, in turn, called from `Go`):

```csharp
async Task Go()
{
    await PrintAnswerToLife();
    Console.WriteLine("Done");
}
async Task PrintAnswerToLife()
{
    int answer = await GetAnswerToLife();
    Console.WriteLine(answer);
}
async Task<int> GetAnswerToLife()
{
    await Task.Delay(5000);
    int answer = 21 * 2;
    return answer;
}
```

Asynchronous functions make asynchronous programming similar to synchronous programming. Here's the synchronous equivalent of our call graph, for which calling `Go()` gives the same result after blocking for five seconds:

```csharp
void Go()
{
    PrintAnswerToLife();
    Console.WriteLine("Done");
}
void PrintAnswerToLife()
{
    int answer = GetAnswerToLife();
    Console.WriteLine(answer);
}
int GetAnswerToLife()
{
    Thread.Sleep(5000);
    int answer = 21 * 2;
    return answer;
}
```

This also illustrates the basic principle of how to design with asynchronous functions in C#, which is to write your methods
synchronously, and then replace *synchronous* method calls with *asynchronous* method calls, and *await* them.

**Parallelism**

We’ve just demonstrated the most common pattern, which is to *await* task-returning functions right after calling them. This results in sequential program flow that’s logically similar to the synchronous equivalent.

Calling an asynchronous method without awaiting it allows the code that follows to execute in parallel. For example, the following executes `PrintAnswerToLife` twice, concurrently:

```csharp
var task1 = PrintAnswerToLife();
var task2 = PrintAnswerToLife();
await task1; await task2;
```

By awaiting both operations afterward, we “end” the parallelism at that point (and rethrow any exceptions from those tasks). The `Task` class provides a static method called `WhenAll` to achieve the same result slightly more efficiently. `WhenAll` returns a task that completes when all of the tasks that you pass to it complete:

```csharp
await Task.WhenAll (PrintAnswerToLife(),
                   PrintAnswerToLife());
```

`WhenAll` is called a *task combinator*. (The `Task` class also provides a task combinator called `WhenAny`, which completes when *any* of the tasks provided to it complete.) We cover the task combinators in detail in *C# 7.0 in a Nutshell*.

**Asynchronous Lambda Expressions**

Just as ordinary named methods can be asynchronous:

```csharp
async Task NamedMethod()
{
    await Task.Delay (1000);
    Console.WriteLine ("Foo");
}
```
so can *unnamed* methods (lambda expressions and anonymous methods), if preceded by the `async` keyword:

```csharp
Func<Task> unnamed = async () =>
{
    await Task.Delay (1000);
    Console.WriteLine ("Foo");
};
```

We can call and await these in the same way:

```csharp
await NamedMethod();
await unnamed();
```

We can use asynchronous lambda expressions when attaching event handlers:

```csharp
myButton.Click += async (sender, args) =>
{
    await Task.Delay (1000);
    myButton.Content = "Done";
};
```

This is more succinct than the following, which has the same effect:

```csharp
myButton.Click += ButtonHandler;
...
async void ButtonHander (object sender, EventArgs args)
{
    await Task.Delay (1000);
    myButton.Content = "Done";
};
```

Asynchronous lambda expressions can also return `Task<TResult>`:

```csharp
Func<Task<int>> unnamed = async () =>
{
    await Task.Delay (1000);
    return 123;
};
int answer = await unnamed();
```
Unsafe Code and Pointers

C# supports direct memory manipulation via pointers within blocks of code marked unsafe and compiled with the /unsafe compiler option. Pointer types are primarily useful for interoperaibility with C APIs, but may also be used for accessing memory outside the managed heap or for performance-critical hotspots.

Pointer Basics

For every value type or reference type \(V\), there is a corresponding pointer type \(V^*\). A pointer instance holds the address of a variable. Pointer types can be (unsafely) cast to any other pointer type. The table that follows lists the main pointer operators:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>The address-of operator returns a pointer to the address of a variable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>The dereference operator returns the variable at the address of a pointer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-&gt;</td>
<td>The pointer-to-member operator is a syntactic shortcut, in which (x-&gt;y) is equivalent to ((*x).y).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Unsafe Code

By marking a type, type member, or statement block with the unsafe keyword, you’re permitted to use pointer types and perform C++-style pointer operations on memory within that scope. Here is an example of using pointers to quickly process a bitmap:

```csharp
unsafe void BlueFilter (int[,] bitmap)
{
    int length = bitmap.Length;
    fixed (int* b = bitmap)
    {
        int* p = b;
        for (int i = 0; i < length; i++)
        {
            // Process pixel
        }
    }
}
```
Unsafe code can run faster than a corresponding safe implementation. In this case, the code would have required a nested loop with array indexing and bounds checking. An unsafe C# method may also be faster than calling an external C function because there is no overhead associated with leaving the managed execution environment.

The fixed Statement

The fixed statement is required to pin a managed object such as the bitmap in the previous example. During the execution of a program, many objects are allocated and deallocated from the heap. To avoid unnecessary waste or fragmentation of memory, the garbage collector moves objects around. Pointing to an object is futile if its address could change while referencing it, so the fixed statement tells the garbage collector to “pin” the object and not move it around. This may have an impact on the efficiency of the runtime, so fixed blocks should be used only briefly, and heap allocation should be avoided within the fixed block.

Within a fixed statement, you can get a pointer to a value type, an array of value types, or a string. In the case of arrays and strings, the pointer will actually point to the first element, which is a value type.

Value types declared inline within reference types require the reference type to be pinned, as follows:

```csharp
class Test
{
    int x;
    unsafe static void Main()
    {
        Test test = new Test();
        fixed (int* p = &test.x)   // Pins test
        {
            *p = 9;
        }
    }
}
```
The Pointer-to-Member Operator

In addition to the & and * operators, C# also provides the C++-style -> operator, which can be used on structs:

```csharp
struct Test
{
    int x;
    unsafe static void Main()
    {
        Test test = new Test();
        Test* p = &test;
        p->x = 9;
        System.Console.WriteLine (test.x);
    }
}
```

Arrays

The `stackalloc` keyword

You can allocate memory in a block on the stack explicitly with the `stackalloc` keyword. Since it is allocated on the stack, its lifetime is limited to the execution of the method, just as with any other local variable. The block may use the `[]` operator to index into memory:

```csharp
int* a = stackalloc int[10];
for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i)
    Console.WriteLine (a[i]); // Print raw memory
```

Fixed-size buffers

To allocate a block of memory within a struct, use the `fixed` keyword:

```csharp
unsafe struct UnsafeUnicodeString
{
    public short Length;
    public fixed byte Buffer[30];
}
```
unsafe class UnsafeClass
{
    UnsafeUnicodeString uus;

    public UnsafeClass (string s)
    {
        uus.Length = (short)s.Length;
        fixed (byte* p = uus.Buffer)
        for (int i = 0; i < s.Length; i++)
            p[i] = (byte) s[i];
    }
}

The fixed keyword is also used in this example to pin the object on the heap that contains the buffer (which will be the instance of UnsafeClass).

void*

A void pointer (void*) makes no assumptions about the type of the underlying data and is useful for functions that deal with raw memory. An implicit conversion exists from any pointer type to void*. A void* cannot be dereferenced, and arithmetic operations cannot be performed on void pointers. For example:

unsafe static void Main()
{
    short[] a = {1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34,55};
    fixed (short* p = a)
    {
        //sizeof returns size of value-type in bytes
        Zap (p, a.Length * sizeof (short));
    }
    foreach (short x in a)
        System.Console.WriteLine (x);  // Prints all zeros
}

unsafe static void Zap (void* memory, int byteCount)
{
    byte* b = (byte*) memory;
    for (int i = 0; i < byteCount; i++)
        *b++ = 0;
}
Preprocessor Directives

Preprocessor directives supply the compiler with additional information about regions of code. The most common preprocessor directives are the conditional directives, which provide a way to include or exclude regions of code from compilation. For example:

```csharp
#define DEBUG
class MyClass
{
    int x;
    void Foo()
    {
        #if DEBUG
        Console.WriteLine("Testing: x = {0}", x);
        #endif
    }
    ...
}
```

In this class, the statement in `Foo` is compiled as conditionally dependent upon the presence of the `DEBUG` symbol. If we remove the `DEBUG` symbol, the statement is not compiled. Preprocessor symbols can be defined within a source file (as we have done), and they can be passed to the compiler with the `/define:symbol` command-line option.

With the `#if` and `#elif` directives, you can use the `||`, `&&`, and `!` operators to perform `or`, `and`, and `not` operations on multiple symbols. The following directive instructs the compiler to include the code that follows if the `TESTMODE` symbol is defined and the `DEBUG` symbol is not defined:

```csharp
#if TESTMODE && !DEBUG
...
```

Bear in mind, however, that you’re not building an ordinary C# expression, and the symbols upon which you operate have absolutely no connection to `variables`—static or otherwise.
The `#error` and `#warning` symbols prevent accidental misuse of conditional directives by making the compiler generate a warning or error given an undesirable set of compilation symbols.

**Table 14** describes the complete list of preprocessor directives.

**Table 14. Preprocessor directives**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preprocessor directive</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>#define symbol</code></td>
<td>Defines symbol.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>#undef symbol</code></td>
<td>Undefined symbol.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| `#if symbol[operator symbol2]...` | Conditional compilation (operators are `==`, `!`, `
\&\&`, and `|`). |
| `#else`                | Executes code to subsequent `#endif`. |
| `#elif symbol[operator symbol2]` | Combines `#else` branch and `#if` test. |
| `#endif`               | Ends conditional directives. |
| `#warning text`        | Text of the warning to appear in compiler output. |
| `#error text`          | Text of the error to appear in compiler output. |
| `#line [number["file"]| hidden]` | `number` specifies the line in source code; `file` is the filename to appear in computer output; `hidden` instructs debuggers to skip over code from this point until the next `#line` directive. |
| `#region name`         | Marks the beginning of an outline. |
| `#endregion`           | Ends an outline region. |
| `#pragma warning`      | See the next section. |

**Pragma Warning**

The compiler generates a warning when it spots something in your code that seems unintentional. Unlike errors, warnings don’t ordinarily prevent your application from compiling.

Compiler warnings can be extremely valuable in spotting bugs. Their usefulness, however, is undermined when you get false...
warnings. In a large application, maintaining a good signal-to-noise ratio is essential if the “real” warnings are to get noticed.

To this effect, the compiler allows you to selectively suppress warnings with the `#pragma warning` directive. In this example, we instruct the compiler not to warn us about the field `Message` not being used:

```csharp
public class Foo
{
    static void Main() { }

    #pragma warning disable 414
    static string Message = "Hello";
    #pragma warning restore 414
}
```

Omitting the number in the `#pragma warning` directive disables or restores all warning codes.

If you are thorough in applying this directive, you can compile with the `/warnaserror` switch—this tells the compiler to treat any residual warnings as errors.

**XML Documentation**

A documentation comment is a piece of embedded XML that documents a type or member. A documentation comment comes immediately before a type or member declaration, and starts with three slashes:

```csharp
/// <summary>Cancels a running query.</summary>
public void Cancel() { ... }
```

Multiline comments can be done either like this:

```csharp
/// <summary>
/// Cancels a running query
/// </summary>
public void Cancel() { ... }
```

or like this (notice the extra star at the start):

```csharp
/**
 * <summary> Cancels a running query. </summary>
 */
```
public void Cancel() { ... }

If you compile with the /doc directive, the compiler extracts and collates documentation comments into a single XML file. This has two main uses:

- If placed in the same folder as the compiled assembly, Visual Studio automatically reads the XML file and uses the information to provide IntelliSense member listings to consumers of the assembly of the same name.
- Third-party tools (such as Sandcastle and NDoc) can transform the XML file into an HTML help file.

**Standard XML Documentation Tags**

Here are the standard XML tags that Visual Studio and documentation generators recognize:

```xml
<summary>
    <summary>...</summary>

    Indicates the tool tip that IntelliSense should display for the type or member. Typically a single phrase or sentence.
</summary>

<remarks>
    <remarks>...</remarks>

    Additional text that describes the type or member. Documentation generators pick this up and merge it into the bulk of a type or member’s description.
</remarks>

<param>
    <param name="name">...</param>

    Explains a parameter on a method.
</param>

<returns>
    <returns>...</returns>

    Explains the return value for a method.
</returns>
```
<exception>
    <exception cref="type">...
</exception>
Lists an exception that a method may throw (cref refers to the exception type).

<permission>
    <permission cref="type">...
</permission>
Indicates an IPermission type required by the documented type or member.

<example>
    <example>...
</example>
Denotes an example (used by documentation generators). This usually contains both description text and source code (source code is typically within a <c> or <code> tag).

<c>
    <c>...
</c>
Indicates an inline code snippet. This tag is usually used inside an <example> block.

<code>
    <code>...
</code>
Indicates a multiline code sample. This tag is usually used inside an <example> block.

<see>
    <see cref="member">...
</see>
Inserts an inline cross-reference to another type or member. HTML documentation generators typically convert this to a hyperlink. The compiler emits a warning if the type or member name is invalid.

<seealso>
    <seealso cref="member">...
</seealso>
Cross-references another type or member. Documentation generators typically write this into a separate “See Also” section at the bottom of the page.
References a parameter from within a `<summary>` or `<remarks>` tag.

```
<list type=[ bullet | number | table ]>
    <listheader>
        <term>...</term>
        <description>...</description>
    </listheader>
    <item>
        <term>...</term>
        <description>...</description>
    </item>
</list>
```

Instructs documentation generators to emit a bulleted, numbered, or table-style list.

```
<para>
    <para>...</para>
```

Instructs documentation generators to format the contents into a separate paragraph.

```
<include>
    <include file='filename' path='tagpath[@name="id"]'>
        ...
    </include>
```

Merges an external XML file that contains documentation. The path attribute denotes an XPath query to a specific element in that file.
Symbols

! (not operator), 28, 213
!= (inequality operator), 28, 149
" (double quotes), 31
#elif directive, 213
#error symbol, 214
#if directive, 213
#pragma warning directive, 214
#warning symbol, 214
$ (string interpolation character), 32
% operator, 23
&(address-of operator), 209
&(AND operator), 25, 103, 150
&& (conditional AND operator), 28, 213
() (parentheses)
casting and conversions, 84
in lambda expressions, 127
method parameters, 11
* (dereference operator), 209
* (multiplication operator), 6, 23
*/ character, 11
+ operator, 23, 31, 116
++ (increment operator), 24
+= operator, 116
add to self operator, 48
custom event accessor, 125
event subscription, 120
- operator, 23, 116
-- (decrement operator), 24
-= operator
custom event accessor, 125
event unsubscription, 120
remove delegate instance, 116
subtract from self operator, 48
-> (pointer-to-member operator), 209, 211
. (period), 11
.cs files, 7
dll files, 7
exe files, 7
.NET Framework
assemblies in, 7
common exception types in, 139
libraries in, 7
namespaces in, 7
standard event pattern in, 122
System namespace in, 13, 20
/ (division operator), 23
*/ character (comments), 11
// (comments), 5, 11
/doc directive, 216
16-bit integral types, 25
8-bit integral types, 25
; (semicolon), 5, 10, 54
< (less-than operator), 28, 149
<< (shift left operator), 25
<= operator, 28, 149
= (assignment operator), 11
== (equality operator), 11, 28, 94
operator lifting and, 149
overloading, 192
=> (fat arrows)
expression-bodied properties, 75, 78
lambda expressions, 126
> (greater than operator), 28
>= (greater than or equal to operator), 28, 149
>> (shift right operator), 25
^ (xor operator), 25
{} (curly braces), 5, 10
| (OR operator), 25, 103, 150
|| (conditional OR operator), 28, 213
~ (complement operator), 25
~ symbol (finalizers), 80

A
abstract classes, 87
abstract members, 87
access modifiers, 96-98
accessibility capping, 98
friend assemblies, 97
accessibility capping, 98
accessors, event, 125
Action delegates, 117
aggregation operators (LINQ), 160
aliasing, 67
AND operator (&), 25, 103, 150
and/or operators (&& ||), 28
anonymous methods, 131
anonymous types, 153
arguments
named, 45
passing by reference, 42
passing by value, 41
(see also parameters)
arithmetic operators, 23
array initialization expression, 35
arrays, 34-38
default element initialization, 35
fixed-size buffers, 211
jagged, 36
multidimensional, 36
rectangular, 36
simplified initialization expressions, 37
stackalloc keyword, 211
unsafe code and, 211
as operator, 85
assembly, 7
assignment expressions, 47
assignment operator ( = ), 11
associativity of operators, 48
async keyword, 201-204
asynchronous functions, 199-208
about, 199-201
await and async keywords, 201-203
capturing local state, 203
lambda expressions, 207
parallelism, 207
returning Task<TResult>, 205-207
writing, 204-207
attributes, 194-197
caller info attributes, 198
classes, 194
custom, 196
named/positional parameters, 195
retrieving at runtime, 197
specifying multiple, 196
targets, 195
automatic properties, 76
await keyword, 201-203
conditional operators, 28
equality and comparison operators, 28
boxing
nullable values, 148
object type, 92
braces, changing the flow of execution with, 56
braces/brackets
curly ({}), 5, 10
square ([ ]), 34, 211
break statement, 62
built-in types, 12

C
C#, sample program, 5-8
caller info attributes, 198
capping, accessibility, 98
captured variables, 128
carriage return character (\r), 30
case keyword (see switch statements)
Cast operator (LINQ), 181
casting, 84-86
(see also boxing)
as operator, 85
downcasting, 84
is operator, 85
upcasting, 84
catch block, 132
catch clause, 134-135
char (character) type, 29
checked operator, 24
class constraint, 110
classes, 67-82
abstract, 87
constants, 78
deconstructors, 71
finalizers, 80
indexers, 77
inheritance (see inheritance)
named/positional parameters, 195
retrieving at runtime, 197
specifying multiple, 196
targets, 195
automatic properties, 76
await keyword, 201-203
conditional operators, 28
equality and comparison operators, 28
boxing
nullable values, 148
object type, 92
braces, changing the flow of execution with, 56
braces/brackets
curly ({}), 5, 10
square ([ ]), 34, 211
break statement, 62
built-in types, 12

C
C#, sample program, 5-8
caller info attributes, 198
capping, accessibility, 98
captured variables, 128
carriage return character (\r), 30
case keyword (see switch statements)
Cast operator (LINQ), 181
casting, 84-86
(see also boxing)
as operator, 85
downcasting, 84
is operator, 85
upcasting, 84
catch block, 132
catch clause, 134-135
char (character) type, 29
checked operator, 24
class constraint, 110
classes, 67-82
abstract, 87
constants, 78
deconstructors, 71
finalizers, 80
indexers, 77
inheritance (see inheritance)
named/positional parameters, 195
retrieving at runtime, 197
specifying multiple, 196
targets, 195
automatic properties, 76
await keyword, 201-203
conditional operators, 28
equality and comparison operators, 28
boxing
nullable values, 148
object type, 92
braces, changing the flow of execution with, 56
braces/brackets
curly ({}), 5, 10
square ([ ]), 34, 211
break statement, 62
built-in types, 12

B
backspace character (\b), 30
base class constraint, 110
base keyword, 88
binary operators, 47
binding
custom, 184
dynamic (see dynamic binding)
language, 185
static vs. dynamic, 183
bitwise operators, 25, 25
bool type, 28
bool? type, 150
Boolean operators, 28

Index | 221
partial methods, 81
partial types, 80
properties, 74-77
sealing, 88
static classes, 80
subclassesing generic types, 110
this reference, 73
collection initializers, 141
comments, 5
comments, syntax for, 11
comparison operators, 28, 192
comparisons, string, 33
compilation
basics, 7
pragma warning, 214
complement operator (~), 25
compound assignment operators, 47
concatenation (strings), 31
conditional operators, 28
const keyword, 78
constants, 11, 78
constraints, generics, 109
constructors, 14
and field initialization order, 90
implicit parameterless, 71
inheritance and, 89
instance constructors, 70
nonpublic, 71
static, 79
contextual keywords, 10, 182
continue statement, 62
contravariance
delegate, 119
generics, 113
type parameter variance for
generic delegates, 120
conversions
between instances of types, 16
enums, 102
nullable, 147
of numeric types, 23
covariance
delegate return type variance, 118
generics, 111-113
type parameter variance for
generic delegates, 120
csc.exe (C# compiler), 8
curly braces ({}), 5, 10
custom binding, 184
D
data members, 14
decimal class, double class vs., 26
declaration statements, 54
deconstruction, tuple, 156
deconstructors, 71
decrement operator (--), 24
default keyword, 109
default values
for generic type parameter, 109
initializing arrays with, 35
variables and, 40
defered execution, 161
definite assignment, 39
delegate keyword, 114
delegates, 114-120
Action, 117
compatibility, 118-120
Func, 117
generic types, 117
instance vs. static method targets, 117
multicast, 115
parameter variance, 119
return type variance, 118
type parameter variance for
generic delegates, 120
types and instances, 114
writing plug-in methods with, 115
dereference operator (*), 209
derived classes (see subclasses)
discards, 43
division
  operator (/), 23
division operations, 24
do-while loops, 60
documentation comments, 215-218
double forward slash (/), 5, 11
double quotes ('), 31
double type, 26
downcasting, 84
  as operator, 85
  is operator, 85
dynamic binding, 182-190
  conversions, 187
  custom binding, 184
  dynamic expressions, 188
  dynamic member overload resolution, 189
language binding, 185
runtime representation of dynamic reference, 187
RuntimeBinderException, 186
static binding vs., 183
uncallable functions, 190
var vs. dynamic types, 188
dynamic keyword, 182
operator lifting and, 149
overloading, 192
strings and, 31
Equals() method, 94
escape sequences, 30
event keyword, 121
events, 120-126
  accessors, 125
  declaring, 121
  standard pattern, 122-125
exception filters, 135
exceptions
  catch clause and, 134-135
  (see also try statements)
common types, 139
finally block, 135
key properties of System.Exception, 139
rethrowing, 138
RuntimeBinderException, 186
throw expressions, 138
throwing, 137-140
exclusive OR operator, 25
explicit conversions
  between instances of types, 16
  overloading, 193
explicit interface implementation, 99
exponential symbol (E), 22
expression statements, 55
expression-bodied methods, 69
expression-bodied properties, 75
expressions, 46-48
  assignment, 47
  dynamic, 188
expression-bodied properties, 75
  assignment, 47
  dynamic, 188
extension methods, 151-153
  ambiguity and resolution, 152
  chaining functions with, 152
  instance methods vs., 152
  namespaces, 152

E
E (exponential symbol), 22
else clause, 56
“elseif” keyword, 57
Elvis (null-conditional operator), 52
element operators (LINQ), 160
equality operator (==), 11, 28, 94
operator precedence/associativity, 48
enums, 101-104
  conversions, 102
  Flags attribute, 103
  operators, 104
extension methods, 151-153
  ambiguity and resolution, 152
  chaining functions with, 152
  instance methods vs., 152
  namespaces, 152
F
fat arrows (=>)
  expression-bodied methods, 69
  expression-bodied properties, 75, 78
  lambda expressions, 126
fields, 68
finalizers, 80
finally block, 135
  and using statement, 137
  defined, 132
fixed keyword, 211
fixed statement, 210
Flags attribute, 103
float type, 26
floating-point types, 21, 26
fluent queries, query expressions vs., 171
for loops, 60
foreach loops, 61
form feed character (\f), 30
friend assemblies, 97
from clause, 174
fully qualified name, 64
Func delegates, 117
function members, 14, 86
functions
  asynchronous (see asynchronous functions)
  sealing, 88
G
generics, 105-114
  constraints, 109
  contravariance, 113
  covariance, 111-113
  declaring type parameters, 107
  default generic value, 109
  inheritance vs., 105
  methods, 106
  self-referencing declarations, 110
  static data, 111
  type parameter variance for generic delegates, 120
  typeof operator and unbound generic types, 108
get accessors, 77
GetHashCode() method, 95
GetType() method, 93
global namespaces, 64
global:: qualifier, 67
goto statement, 62
GroupBy operator, 180
GroupJoin operator, 177
H
heap, 38
horizontal tab character (\t), 30
I
identifiers, defined, 9
if statement, 55
implicit conversions
  between instances of types, 16
  dynamic binding, 187
  overloading, 193
implicit parameterless constructor(s), 71
implicitly typed local variables, 46
increment operator (++), 24
indexers, 77
indexing an array, 34
inequality operator (!=), 28, 149
inheritance, 82-91
  abstract classes/members, 87
  base keyword, 88
  casting and reference conversions, 84-86
  constructors and, 89
  generics vs., 105
  hiding inherited members, 87
overloading and resolution, 90
polymorphism, 83
sealing functions/classes, 88
virtual function members, 86
initialization
array default elements, 35
collection initializers, 141
constructors and field initialization order, 90
fields, 68
object initializers, 73
property initializers, 76
simplified expressions for arrays, 37
instance constructors, 70
instance members, 14
instantiation of type, 14
integral types, 21
8- and 16-bit, 25
conversions, 23
overflow, 24
integral-typed literals, 21
interfaces, 98-101
explicit implementation, 99
extending, 99
reimplementing in subclass, 101
virtual implementation, 100
interpolated string, 32
interpolation, string, 32
is operator, 85
iteration statements, 59-61
do-while loops, 60
for loops, 60
foreach loops, 61
while loops, 60
iteration variables, lambda expressions and, 129
iterators, 142-146
composing sequences, 145
multiple yield statements, 144
yield break statement, 144

J
jagged arrays, 36
joining operators, LINQ, 175-178
   GroupJoin, 177
   Zip, 178
jump statements, 61
   break statement, 62
   continue statement, 62
   goto statement, 62
   return statement, 62

K
keywords, 9-10
   (see also specific keywords)
   avoiding conflicts with, 10
   contextual, 10

L
lambda expressions, 126-131
   anonymous methods and, 131
   asynchronous, 207
   capturing iteration variables, 129
   capturing outer variables, 128-130
   local methods vs., 130
left-associative operators, 13
let keyword, 172
LINQ (Language Integrated Query), 156-182
   aggregation operators, 160
   Cast operator, 181
   chaining query operators, 168
   deferred execution, 161
   element operators, 160
   friend assemblies and, 97
   fundamentals, 157-161
   grouping, 180
   GroupJoin operator, 177
   joining operators, 175-178
   let keyword, 172
   multiple generators, 174
OfType operator (LINQ), 181
orderby keyword, 179
projecting (LINQ), 159
quantifiers, 161
query continuations, 173
query expressions, 169-172
set operators, 161
decimal query, 158
Skip operator, 159
standard query operators, 163
Take operator (LINQ), 159
literals, 10
local methods
about, 69
lambda expressions vs., 130

M
methods, 68
anonymous, 131
expression-bodied, 69
generic, 106
local, 69
overloading, 69
partial, 81
multicast delegates, 115
multidimensional arrays, 36
multiline comments, 11
multiple dispatch, 189
multiplication operator (*), 6, 23

N
naked type constraint, 110
named arguments (methods), 45
named parameters (attributes), 195
nameof operator, 82
namespace keyword, 63
namespaces, 63-67
aliasing, 67
extension methods and, 152
global:: qualifier, 67
importing, 67
name hiding, 66
name scoping, 65
repeated, 66
using directive, 64
using static directive, 65
nested types, 104
new keyword, 153
newline character (\n), 30
not operator (!), 28
null coalescing operator (??), 52, 150
null operators
about, 52
nullable types and, 150
null-conditional operator (?.), 52
nullable types, 146-151
bool? with & and | operators, 150
boxing/unboxing nullable values, 148
conversions, 147
Nullable<T> struct, 147
operator lifting, 148-150
nullable values, boxing/unboxing, 148
Nullable<T> struct, 147
numeric conversions, 23
numeric literals, 21
and numeric suffixes, 22
type inference, 22
numeric suffixes, 22
numeric types, 20-27
8- and 16-bit integral types, 25
arithmetic operators for, 23
conversions, 23
double vs. decimal, 26
increment/decrement operators, 24
numeric literals, 21
real number rounding errors, 27
special float and double values, 26
specialized integral operations, 24

O
object initializers, 73
object type, 91-95
boxing and unboxing, 92
Equals method, 94
GetType method, 93
ReferenceEquals() method, 95
static/runtime type checking, 93
ToString method, 95
typeof operator, 93
OfType operator, 181
operator functions (custom), 191
operator lifting, 148-150
operator overloading, 191-194
custom implicit/explicit conversions, 193
operator functions and, 191
overloading equality and comparison operators, 192
operators
defined, 11, 46
(see also specific operators)
in order of precedence, 48-52
left-associative, 48
lifting (see operator lifting) null, 52
overloading (see operator overloading)
precedence and associativity, 48
right-associative, 48
optional parameters, 44
OR operator (|), 25, 103, 150
orderby keyword, 179
out parameter modifier, 42
outer variables, 128-130
overflow, arithmetic operations on integral types, 24
overloading
constructors, 70
methods, 69
operator (see operator overloading)

P
parallelism, asynchronous functions and, 207
parameterless constructor constraint, 110
parameters, 40-45
delegate parameter variance, 119
named arguments, 45
optional, 44
out modifier, 42
out variables and discard, 43
params modifier, 43
passing arguments by value, 41
ref modifier, 42
params modifier, 43
parentheses ()
casting and conversions, 84
in lambda expressions, 127
method parameters, 11
partial methods, 81
passing
by reference, 42
by value, 41
period (.), 11
plug-in methods, 115
pointer-to-member operator (->), 209
pointers, 209-212
basics, 209
fixed statement, 210
pointer-to-member operator
(->), 211
void*, 212
polymorphism, 83
positional parameters, 195
pragma warning, 214
precedence of operators, 48
predefined types
examples, 12
symmetry with custom types, 14
taxonomy, 19
preprocessor directives, 213-215
primary operators, 47
primitive types, 20
projecting (LINQ), 159
properties, 74-77
  automatic, 76
  expression-bodied, 75
  get/set accessibility, 77
  property initializers, 76
property initializers, 76
public keyword, 15
punctuators, 10, 10
Q
quantifiers, 161
queries (see LINQ)
query continuations, 173
query expressions
  fluent queries vs., 171
  LINQ, 169-172
query operators
  chaining in LINQ, 168
  defined, 157
  list of LINQ, 163
R
real literals, 21
real number types, 21
  conversions, 23
  rounding errors, 27
rectangular arrays, 36
ref parameter modifier, 42
reference conversions, 84-86
  downcasting, 84
  is operator, 85
  upcasting, 84
reference types
  defined, 18
  null, 19
  value types vs., 16-19
ReferenceEquals() method, 95
reimplementing an interface, 101
relational operators, 149, 149
remainder operator (%), 23
rethrowing exceptions, 138
return statement, 62
Reverse operator, 159
right-associative operators, 48
rounding errors, 27
runtime overload resolution, 189
runtime type checking, 93
RuntimeBinderException, 186
S
sealed keyword, 88
searching within strings, 33
Select method (LINQ), 159
selection statements, 55-59
  changing the flow of execution with braces, 56
  else clause, 56
  if statement, 55
  switch statement, 57-59
semicolon (;), 5, 10, 54
sequences, LINQ, 157
serialization, 194
set accessors, 77
set operators, 161
shift left operator (<<), 25
shift right operator (>>, 25
short-circuiting, 29
signature method, 68
single-line comments, 11
Skip operator, 159
specialized integral operations, 24
square brackets ([]), 34, 211
stack, defined, 38, 91
stackalloc keyword, 211
statement block, 54
statements, 54-63
declaration statements, 54
expression statements, 55
iteration statements, 59-61
jump statements, 61
selection statements, 55-59
try statements, 132-140
static binding, dynamic binding vs., 183
static classes, 80
static constructors, 79
static data, 111
static members, 15
static type checking, 93
string type, 31-33
comparisons, 33
concatenation, 31
interpolation, 32
manipulation of, 33
searching within strings, 33
struct generic constraint, 110
structs
construction semantics, 96
declared, 95
Nullable<T>, 147
subclasses
constructors, 89
reimplementing interfaces in, 101
subclassing generic types, 110
subscribers, 120
switch statements, 57-59
about, 57
with patterns, 58
syntax, 8-11
comments, 11
identifiers, 9
keywords, 9-10
literals, 10
operators, 11
punctuators, 10
System namespace, 20
System.Exception
common exception types, 139
key properties, 139
T
Take operator, 159
targets, attribute, 195
Task<TResult>, 205-207
this keyword, 70
this reference, 73
throw expressions, 138
throwing exceptions (see exceptions)
tilde symbol (~), 25, 80
ToString() method, 95
try statements, 132-140
catch clause, 134-135
finally block, 135
throwing exceptions, 137-140
tuples, 154-156
destructuring, 156
naming elements, 155
type inference, 22
type parameters, declaring, 107
typeof() operator, 93, 108
types, 11-38
aliasing, 67
anonymous, 153
arrays and, 34-38
basics, 11-20
constructors and instantiation, 14
conversions, 16
custom examples, 13-16
instance vs. static members, 14
members, 14
nested, 104
nullable (see nullable types)
numeric, 20–27
partial, 80
predefined type taxonomy, 19
value types vs. reference
types, 16–19
var vs. dynamic, 188

U
unbound generic types, 108
unboxing
nullable values, 148
object type, 92
unchecked operator, 24
unsafe code, 209–212
about, 209
arrays, 211
fixed statement, 210
fixed-size buffers, 211
stackalloc keyword, 211
unsafe keyword, 209
upcasting, 84
using directive, 64
using statement, 137
using static directive, 65

V
value types
and null values, 19
defined, 16
numeric types, 20–27
reference types vs., 16–19
var (implicitly typed local vari-
able)

about, 46
dynamic types vs., 188
var keyword, 153
variables, 38–46
default values, 40
defined, 11
definite assignment, 39
implicitly typed, 46
verbatim string literals, 31
vertical tab character (\v), 30
virtual function members, 86
void expression, 47
void pointer (void*), 212

W
when clauses, 135
WhenAll method, 207
Where operator, 158
while loops, 60

X
XML documentation, 215–218
xor operator (^), 25

Y
yield breaks, 144
yield statements, 144

Z
Zip (LINQ joining operator), 178
About the Authors

Joseph Albahari is the author of the past four editions of C# 7.0 in a Nutshell and C# 7.0 Pocket Reference. He also wrote LINQPad—the popular code scratchpad and LINQ querying utility.

Ben Albahari is cofounder of Auditionist, a casting website for actors in the UK. He was a Program Manager at Microsoft for five years, where he worked on several projects, including the .NET Compact Framework and ADO.NET.

He was the cofounder of Genamics, a provider of tools for C# and J++ programmers, as well as software for DNA and protein sequence analysis. He is a coauthor of C# Essentials, the first C# book from O’Reilly, and of previous editions of C# in a Nutshell.