Some Programming Myths Revisited

Patrice Roy

Patrice.Roy@USherbrooke.ca

CeFTI, Université de Sherbrooke

Patrice.Roy@clg.qc.ca

Collège Lionel-Groulx

Who am I?

- Father of five (four girls, one boy), ages 24 to 6
- Feeds and cleans up after a varying number of animals
 - Look for « Paws of Britannia » with your favorite search engine
- Used to write military flight simulator code, among other things
 - CAE Electronics Ltd
- Full-time teacher since 1998
 - Collège Lionel-Groulx, Université de Sherbrooke
 - Works a lot with game programmers
- Incidentally, WG21 and WG23 member (although I've been really busy recently)
 - Involved in SG12 and SG14, among other study groups
 - Occasional WG21 secretary
- And so on...

• We have been taught, or we ourselves have taught, things that we took for granted as being "good practice" in programming

- We have been taught, or we ourselves have taught, things that we took for granted as being "good practice" in programming
- Such things often stem from the "wisdom of the ancients"...
- ...and are in effect part of our "myths"

- We have been taught, or we ourselves have taught, things that we took for granted as being "good practice" in programming
- Such things often stem from the "wisdom of the ancients"...
- ...and are in effect part of our "myths"
 - Computer science being young as sciences come, some of the "ancients" are still among us and thriving today, and we're *so* lucky to have them!
 - We take part in a fun and awesome scientific endeavor!

• However, being as grounded in the science-that-there-was as these recommendations are, our ideas have evolved, so have our programming languages

- However, being as grounded in the science-that-there-was as these recommendations are, our ideas have evolved, so have our programming languages
- It can be interesting to revisit some of these taken-forgranted ideas

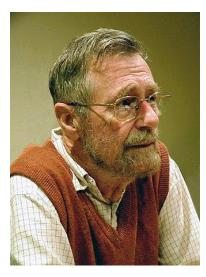
• In C++, particularly in what some call "modern C++", we find a language that is different enough from its forebears to make revisiting our "myths" interesting

- In C++, particularly in what some call "modern C++", we find a language that is different enough from its forebears to make revisiting our "myths" interesting
- How do such things as "goto considered harmful" or "only one return per function", for example, hold as "wisdom" with respect to modern C++?
 - Do they still help us write better programs?
 - Should be "rethink" them under the light of modern languages and practice?

• The aim of this talk is to examine what some commonly heard / commonly taught recommendations or advices with respect to programming practice mean in the context of "modern" C++

- The aim of this talk is to examine what some commonly heard / commonly taught recommendations or advices with respect to programming practice mean in the context of "modern" C++
- We will take a small set of such advices, present them in context, show how well (or how badly) they suit today's C++, and try to rephrase them if this seems advantageous

- We owe this formulation to Edsger W. Dijkstra
 - Go To Statement Considered Harmful, Communications of the ACM, Vol. 11, No. 3, March 1968, pp. 147-148.
 - Rather short paper, but what impact!



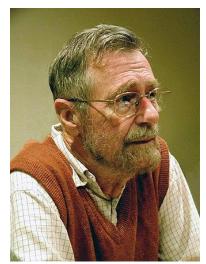
(taken from Wikipedia)

- In a note to the editor:
 - "For a number of years I have been familiar with the observation that the quality of programmers is a decreasing function of the density of go to statements in the programs they produce. More recently I discovered why the use of the go to statement has such disastrous effects, and I became convinced that the go to statement should be abolished from all "higher level" programming languages (i.e. everything except, perhaps, plain machine code) [...]"



(taken from Wikipedia)

- In a note to the editor (my emphasis):
 - "For a number of years I have been familiar with the observation that the quality of programmers is a decreasing function of the density of go to statements in the programs they produce. More recently I discovered why the use of the go to statement has such disastrous effects, and I became convinced that the **go to statement** should be abolished from all "higher level" programming languages (i.e. everything except, perhaps, plain machine *code*) [...]"



(taken from Wikipedia)

• That seems reasonable, even for trivial programs

```
#include <iostream>
int main() {
   int sum = 0;
   int i = 1;
   while (i <= 10) {
      sum += i;
      ++i;
   std::cout << sum; // 55
```

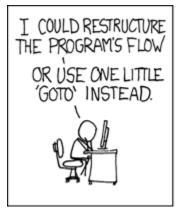
```
#include <iostream>
int main() {
   int sum = 0;
   int i = 1;
test:
   if (i > 10) goto end;
   sum += i;
   ++i;
   goto test;
end:
   std::cout << sum; // 55
```

- Same effect, similar generated code
 - Without goto: https://godbolt.org/z/9bwLhe
 - With goto: https://godbolt.org/z/xJxX49
- Note that writing a goto-based loop is "kind of" like trying to second-guess your compiler...
 - You might win some battles, but you're likely to lose most of them

- One implementation (the goto-less one!) more directly expresses intent than the other
 - Debuggability
 - Teachability
 - Ease of maintenance
 - etc.
- Thinking at a higher level of abstraction is the key point of Dijkstra's recommendation
 - In C++, the for, while, do, if... are translated into the equivalent of goto statements, but bring more *structure* to source code
 - Structured programming!

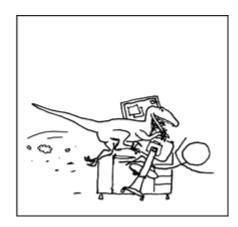
• Everyone agreed...

• Everyone agreed...









http://imgs.xkcd.com/comics/goto.png (Randall Munroe)

• Everyone agreed... Right?

- Structured Programming with go to Statements, Donald E.
 Knuth
 - Computing Surveys, Vol. 6, Number 4, December 1974, pp.261-301. Copyright © 1974, Association for Computing Machinery, Inc.
 - Much bigger paper!



(taken from Wikipedia)

- From the introduction:
 - "[...] This study focuses largely on two issues: (a) improved syntax for iterations and error exits, making it possible to write a larger class of programs clearly and efficiently without go to statements; (b) a methodology of program design, beginning with readable and correct, but possibly inefficient programs that are systematically transformed if necessary into efficient and correct, but possibly less readable code. The discussion brings out opposing points of view about whether or not go to statements should be abolished; some merit is found on both sides of this question"



(taken from Wikipedia)

- From the introduction (my emphasis):
 - "[...] This study focuses largely on two issues: (a) improved syntax for iterations and error exits, making it possible to write a larger class of programs clearly and efficiently without go to statements; (b) a methodology of program design, beginning with readable and correct, but possibly inefficient programs that are systematically transformed if necessary into efficient and correct, but possibly less readable code. The discussion brings out opposing points of view about whether or not go to statements should be abolished; some merit is found on both sides of this question"



(taken from Wikipedia)

- Knuth brings more than one consideration to the discussion
 - Early exit from a function is one
 - We'll return to that later
 - Let's take a look at some of these considerations

- Knuth mentions the simplification of some algorithmic constructs
 - Today, we would probably examine his examples under the light of nesting reduction

```
// ... Lots of nesting
while(!done) {
   if (A) {
      // work that depends on A
      if(B) {
         // work that depends on A and B
         if(C) {
            // work that depends on A && B && C
```

```
// ... More linear structure
test:
while(!done) {
   if (!A) goto test;
   // work that depends on A
   if (!B) goto test;
   // work that depends on A and B
   if (!C) goto test;
   // work that depends on A && B && C
```

```
// ... More linear structure (using
// more ... acceptable mechanisms?)
while(!done) {
   if (!A) continue;
   // work that depends on A
   if (!B) continue;
   // work that depends on A and B
   if (!C) continue;
   // work that depends on A && B && C
```

```
// ... Not necessarily a mechanical
// transformation
while(!done) {
   if (A) {
      X x0; // x0 ctor
      // work that depends on A
      if(B) {
         Y y0; // y0 ctor
         // work that depends on A and B
      } // y0 dtor
   } // x0 dtor
```

```
// ...
test:
while(!done) {
   if (!A) goto test;
   X x0; // x0 ctor
   // work that depends on A
   // maybe surprising : Ok, x0 dtor will
   // be called even if branch is taken
   if (!B) goto test;
   Y y0; // y0 ctor
   // work that depends on A and B
} // y0 dtor then x0 dtor
// ...
```

```
// ... This form of goto has a standard
// incarnation
while(!done) {
   if (!A) continue;
   X x0; // x0 ctor
   // work that depends on A
   if (!B) continue;
   Y y0; // y0 ctor
   // work that depends on A and B
} // y0 dtor then x0 dtor
// ...
```

```
#include <cstdio>
struct X {
   X() { puts("X::X()"); }
   ~X() { puts("X::~X()"); }
int main() {
   int i = 0;
here:
   X \times 0;
   if (++i < 5) goto here;
} // x0 ctor and x0 dtor called 5 times
```

```
// however, skipping construction is not allowed
// if initialization is non-vacuous
#include <cstdio>
#include <cstdlib>
using std::rand;
bool maybe skip() { return rand() % 10 != 0; }
struct X {
   X() { puts("X::X()"); }
   ~X() { puts("X::~X()"); }
};
int main() {
   // illegal, might skip x0 ctor
   if (maybe skip()) goto here;
   X \times 0;
here:
```

```
// however, skipping construction is not
// allowed if initialization is non-vacuous
// (so this one compiles... Sorry!)
#include <cstdlib>
using std::rand;
bool maybe skip() {
   return rand() % 10 != 0;
int main() {
   if (maybe skip()) goto here;
   int n; // potential warning
          // (variable not initialized)
here:
```

• Knuth was also interested in efficient ways to perform early exit from loops

```
// late exit from loop
template <class T, int N>
bool contains (T && x, const T (&arr)[N]) {
   // inefficient (goes through all
   // elements even when we know we
   // have our answer
   bool result = false;
   for (auto & obj : arr)
      if (obj == x)
         result = true;
   return result;
```

```
// early exit from loop (slow, painful)
template <class T, int N>
bool contains (T &&x, const T(&arr)[N]) {
   // also inefficient (three tests
   // per iteration for loop control)
   bool result = false;
   for (int i = 0; !result && i != N; ++i)
      if (arr[i] == x)
         result = true;
   return result;
```

```
// early exit from loop
template <class T, int N>
bool contains (T && x, const T (&arr)[N]) {
   // more efficient (could be better)
   bool result = false;
   for(auto & obj : arr)
      if (obj == x) {
         result = true;
         goto done;
done:
   return result;
```

```
// early exit from loop (formalized)
template <class T, int N>
bool contains (T && x, const T (&arr)[N]) {
   // more efficient (could be better)
   bool result = false;
   for(auto & obj : arr)
      if (obj == x) {
         result = true;
         break;
   return result;
```

- If your code uses break or continue in loops, then you're already using structured forms of goto
 - Of course, since there is a formalization of these code structures, use them: prefer break and continue to goto for such cases
 - Facilitates reasoning
 - Simplifies object lifetime management

- Knuth was also concerned about an important use case:
 error handling
 - In general, error handling tends to obscure code with artefacts not entirely relevant to "normal" processing
 - Knuth suggested to direct these unusual situations in some other location of the program
 - This is reminiscent of on error goto... statements such as those found in pre-.NET Visual Basic

• Paraphrased as C++, his example: char memory[SIZE]; int cur = 0;void *p; // ... allocate a block of n bytes if(cur + n >= SIZE) goto mem overflow; p = &memory[cur];cur += n;// ... use p ... // . . . mem overflow: // ... handle out of memory error

 This can be seen as having been formalized through exception handling: char memory[SIZE]; int cur = 0; void *p; // ... allocate a block of n bytes try { if(cur + n >= SIZE) throw bad alloc{}; p = &memory[cur];cur += n;// ... use p ... // ... } catch(bad alloc&) { // ... handle out of memory error

- Another interesting use case of goto is... the switch statement
 - That form is even called GOTO in Fortran 77 (this is considered obsolete in Fortran 95)

- Another interesting use case of goto is... the switch statement
 - That form is even called GOTO in Fortran 77 (this is considered obsolete in Fortran 95)
- The switch statement in C++ does not have the same... structured-programming-ness as if, while, for or do statements

```
// simple factorial implementation
unsigned long long facto(int n) {
  auto fac = 1ULL;
  for(int i = 2; i <= n; ++i)
     fac *= i;
  return fac;
}</pre>
```

```
// manual loop unrolling inspired by Duff's Device
unsigned long long factorial(int n) {
   auto fac = 1ULL;
   if (n == 0) return 1;
   if (n % 4 == 0) fac *= n--;
   int i = 1;
   switch (4 - n % 4) {
      do {
   case 0: fac *= i++; [[fallthrough]];
   case 1: fac *= i++; [[fallthrough]];
   case 2: fac *= i++; [[fallthrough]];
   case 3: fac *= i++;
      } while (i <= n);</pre>
   return fac:
```

```
// manual loop unrolling inspired by Duff's Device
unsigned long long factorial(int n) {
   auto fac = 1ULL;
   if (n == 0) return 1;
   if (n % 4 == 0) fac *= n--;
                                         Suppose we call
   int i = 1;
                                        factorial(5)
   switch (4 - n % 4) {
      do {
   case 0: fac *= i++; [[fallthrough]];
   case 1: fac *= i++; [[fallthrough]];
   case 2: fac *= i++; [[fallthrough]];
   case 3: fac *= i++;
      } while (i \le n);
   return fac:
```

```
// manual loop unrolling inspired by Duff's Device
unsigned long long factorial(int n) {
   auto fac = 1ULL;
   if (n == 0) return 1;
   if (n % 4 == 0) fac *= n--;
                                              4 - (5 \% 4) == 4 - 1
   int i = 1;
                                            Thus we jump to case 3...
   switch (4 - n % 4) {
      do {
   case 0: fac *= i++; [[fallthrough]];
   case 1: fac *= i++; [[fallthrough]]:
   case 2: fac *= i++; [[fallthrough]] ... where we do the first
   case 3: fac *= i++;
                                               multiplication +
      } while (i <= n);</pre>
                                               incrementation
   return fac:
```

```
// manual loop unrolling inspired by Duff's Device
unsigned long long factorial(int n) {
   auto fac = 1ULL;
   if (n == 0) return 1;
   if (n % 4 == 0) fac *= n--;
   int i = 1;
   switch (4 - n % 4) {
      do {
   case 0: fac *= i++; [[fallthrough]];
   case 1: fac *= i++; [[fallthrough]];
   case 2: fac *= i++; [[fallthrough]];
   case 3: fac *= i++;
                                            ... only then do we do the
      } while (i <= n);</pre>
                                            test, and only do once per
                                           four computations thereafter
   return fac:
```

- Amusingly (!), such tricks as Duff's Device cannot be done naturally in C# or Java
 - Relies on fallthrough behavior
 - In C# for example, break statements are mandatory...
 - ... even in default!
 - (you can circumvent this issue... with a goto to the next label!)
- If you sometimes use Switch statements in your code, you are in fact using goto statements

goto

static void F(int n)

• In C# for example,

statements are mandatory...

- ... even in default!
- (you can circumvent this issue... with a goto to the next label!)
- If you sometimes use Switch statements in your code, you are in fact using goto statements

```
// compiles (probably with a warning)
struct X {
   X() { cout << "X::X()" << endl; }
   ~X() { cout << "X::~X()" << endl; }
};
int main() {
   srand(static cast<</pre>
      unsigned int
   >(time(nullptr)));
   switch(rand() % 2) {
       X x; // warning : will never be reached
```

```
// compiles (probably with a warning)
struct X {
   X() { cout << "X::X()" << endl; }
   ~X() { cout << "X::~X()" << endl; }
};
int main() {
   srand(static cast<</pre>
      unsigned int
   >(time(nullptr)));
   switch(rand() % 2) {
       X x; break; // likewise
```

```
// compiles just fine (I know...)
struct X {
   X() { cout << "X::X()" << endl; }
   ~X() { cout << "X::~X()" << endl; }
};
int main() {
   srand(static cast<</pre>
      unsigned int
   >(time(nullptr)));
   switch(rand() % 2) {
   case 0:
       X x;
```

```
// switch statements cannot "cross" object
// initialization
struct X {
  X() { cout << "X::X()" << endl; }
   ~X() { cout << "X::~X()" << endl; }
};
int main() {
   srand(static cast<unsigned int>(time(nullptr)));
   switch(rand() % 2) {
   case 0:
      X x;
   case 1: // illegal (x would be accessible but not
       ; // initialized)
```

```
// switch statements cannot "cross" object
// initialization
struct X {
  X() { cout << "X::X()" << endl; }
   ~X() { cout << "X::~X()" << endl; }
};
int main() {
   srand(static cast<unsigned int>(time(nullptr)));
   switch(rand() % 2) {
   case 0:
       X x; break; // still illegal (same reason)
   case 1:
       ; // x would exist and be reachable here
```

```
// switch statements cannot "cross" object initialization
struct X {
   X() { cout << "X::X()" << endl; }
   ~X() { cout << "X::~X()" << endl; }
};
int main() {
   srand(static cast<unsigned int>(time(nullptr)));
   switch(rand() % 2) {
   case 0:
     X x;
   case 1: // Ok (x's scope avoids the problem)
```

- Dijkstra had a (solid!) point
 - Structured programming raises the level of discourse
 - Leads to better code in so many ways
- Knuth also had a point
 - There are some "well-behaved" goto-inspired structures, which have been given names
 - break, continue, switch...
 - Even try ... catch, in a sense
 - Other are discussed
 - break label; for example, which exists in Java

- There are a number of things one cannot do with goto statements in C++
 - They cannot skip non-vacuous initialization
 - They cannot jump in or out of functions
 - They cannot be used in constexpr functions http://eel.is/c++draft/dcl.constexpr#3
 - They cannot jump *into* try or catch statements http://eel.is/c++draft/except#3
 - They can be used to jump *out* of such statements, though, just like continue and break

• Am I saying « use goto in your code »?

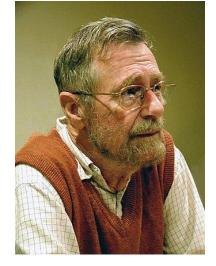
- Am I saying « use goto in your code »?
 - Not really
 - I am saying « you're probably using goto or gotoinspired statements in your code », though
 - The point is to use higher-level abstractions as much as possible

- Am I saying « use goto in your code »?
 - Not really
 - I am saying « you're probably using goto or gotoinspired statements in your code », though
 - The point is to use higher-level abstractions as much as possible
 - I'd also say « if you're using it to second-guess your compiler...
 You probably shouldn't »
 - And if you use goto for optimization, measure
 - Before and after
 - ... and measure **regularly**. Some optimizations tend to go stale as optimizers get better at their game

- This one is also inspired from Edsger W. Dijkstra
 - Notes on structured programming, Technological University Eindhoven, The Netherlands, Department of Mathematics, T.H.-Report 70-WSK-03

• http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/EWD/ewd02xx/EWD249.

<u>PDF</u>



(taken from Wikipedia)

- This one is also inspired from Edsger W. Dijkstra... but takes its roots from an earlier article from Corrado Böhm and Giuseppe Jacopin
 - Böhm, C. and Jacopin, G., Flow Diagrams, Turing Machines And Languages With Only Two Formation Rules, Communications of the ACM, volume 9, number 5, pp.366-371, May 1966
 - http://www.cs.unibo.it/~martini/PP/bohm-jac.pdf



Corrado Böhm (taken from Wikipedia)

- "[...] every Turing machine is reducible into, or in a determined sense is equivalent to, a program written in a language which admits as formation rules only composition and iteration" (from the article)
 - https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Structured_program_theorem
 - Special thanks to Dan Saks, wise among the wise, for pointing me to that paper



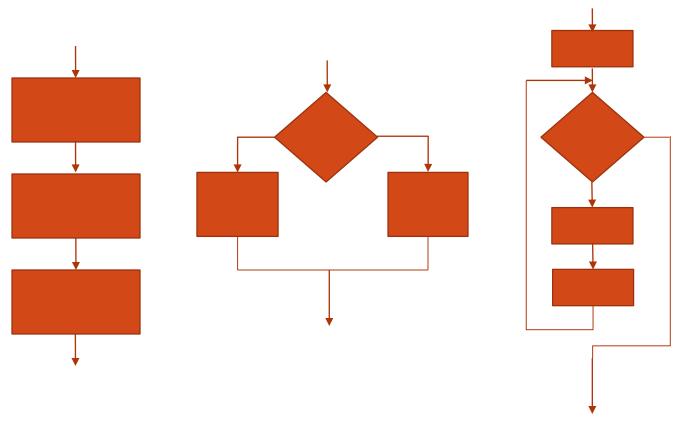
Corrado Böhm (taken from Wikipedia)

• In https://crivelloappendini.wordpress.com/2012/10/05/
the-theorem-of-bohm-jacopini/, one can read "In fact [the article] has contributed to the criticism of the injudicious use of the instructions go to is the definition of guidelines of structured programming that we have had around 1970."

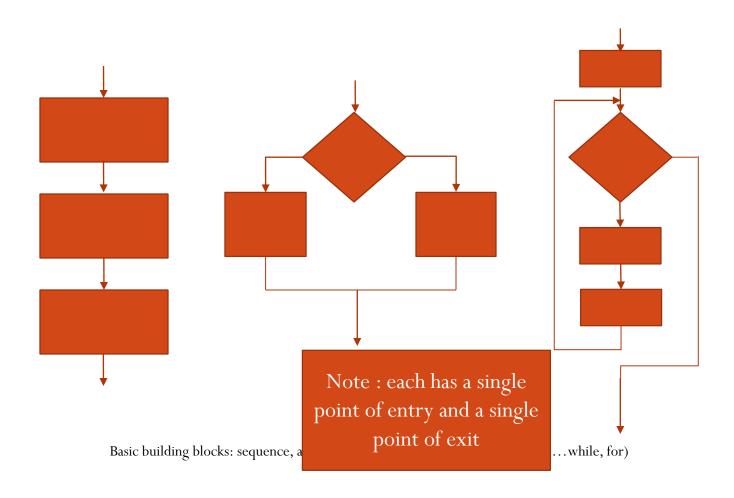


Corrado Böhm (taken from Wikipedia)

- The idea stems from a formalization of programs
 - Complex units are composed of a sequence of smaller, simpler units
 - These units are arranged in a sequence of operations
 - To achieve such a sequence, each complex operation in the sequence needs to have a single entry point and a single exit point

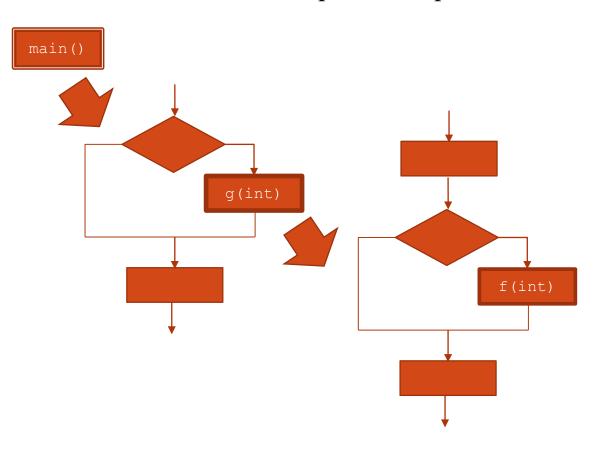


Basic building blocks: sequence, alternative (if-else) and repetitive (while, do...while, for)



• Under this perspective, functions are composite sequences

```
int f(int n) {
   return n * n;
int g(int n) {
   int result = 1;
   if(n < 0)
      result = f(n);
   return result;
int main() {
   if (int n; cin >> n)
      n = q(n);
   return n;
```



- There are languages where the concept of « return statement » does not exist
 - This group comprises many « Wirth languages », e.g. Pascal or Modula
 - One « sets » the return value by « assigning to the function name »
 - This does *not* conclude the function
 - When the function actually concludes, the last value written there is the actual return value

- There are languages where the concept of « return statement » does not exist
 - This group comprises many « Wirth languages », e.g. Pascal or Modula
 - One « sets » the return value by « assigning to the function name »
 - This does *not* conclude the function
 - When the function actual there is the actual return begin

```
function factorial(n: integer): integer;
begin
  if n>1 then
    factorial:=n*factorial(n-1)
  else
    factorial:=1;
end;
```

- The single entry point, single exit point is a *reasonable* formalism
 - It helps *reason* about (structured programming) programs essentially based on their shape
 - As we have seen, however, it's not always practical to express algorithms through strict application of such a formalism
 - That does not mean one should be lax about it
 - As with many "accepted bits of wisdom", there's a lot of upsides to this one

```
// valid, but long in a way that does not
// convey useful meaning
bool is even(int n) {
   bool result;
   if (n % 2 == 0)
      result = true;
   else
      result = false;
   return result;
```

```
// valid, but long in a way that does not
// convey useful meaning (not better than
// the previous one, and a bit slower on
// average)
bool is even(int n) {
   bool result = false;
   if (n % 2 == 0)
      result = true;
   return result;
```

```
// valid, maybe faster, but clumsy...
// uses two exit points, but this
// provides no real upside and does
// not make code clearer in any way
bool is even(int n) {
   if (n % 2 == 0)
      return true;
   else
      return false;
```

```
// lean, clean, direct. Single exit
bool is_even(int n) {
   return n % 2 == 0;
}
```

```
// early exit from loop (slow, painful)
template <class T, int N>
bool contains (T &&x, const T(&arr)[N]) {
   // also inefficient
   bool result = false;
   for (int i = 0; !result && i != N; ++i)
      if (arr[i] == x)
         result = true;
   return result;
```

```
// early exit from function
template <class T, int N>
bool contains (T &&x, const T(&arr)[N]) {
   for (auto & obj : arr)
      if (obj == x)
         // we have our answer
         return true;
   return false; // ok, it wasn't there
```

- There are many good reasons to try to achieve the single exit point principle in general
 - Among other things, this might save one from nasty bugs

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string view>
using namespace std;
enum Color { Red, Green, Blue };
auto f(Color c) {
   switch(c) {
   case Red: return "Red"sv;
   case Green: return "Green"sv;
   case Blue: return "Blue"sv;
} // probable warning here (and it's justified)
int main() {
   cout << f(Green); // what about f(10)?
```

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string view>
using namespace std;
enum Color { Red, Green, Blue };
auto f(Color c) {
   auto res = "Oops"sv;
   switch(c) {
   case Red: res = "Red"sv; break;
   case Green: res = "Green"sv; break;
   case Blue: res = "Blue"sv; break;
   return res;
} // Ok
int main() {
   cout << f(Green);</pre>
```

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string view>
using namespace std;
enum Color { Red, Green, Blue };
auto f(Color c) {
   switch(c) {
   case Red: return "Red"sv;
   case Green: return "Green"sv;
   case Blue: return "Blue"sv;
   default: return "Oops"sv;
} // Ok
int main() {
   cout << f(Green);</pre>
```

- One nice trick to reduce the temptation of using multiple return statements in a function is to write smaller functions
 - One function, one vocation
 - Sometimes, it's not quite practical to do so

```
// single vocation, many cases to cover
// (looks and feels like a flowchart)
bool is leap year(int year) {
  bool result;
   if (year % 400 == 0)
      result = true;
   else if (year % 100 == 0)
      result = false;
   else if (year % 4 == 0)
      result = true;
   else
      result = false;
   return result; // single exit point
```

```
// alternatively (similar)
bool is leap year(int year) {
   bool result = false;
   if (year % 400 == 0)
      result = true;
   else if (year % 100 != 0 &&
            year % 4 == 0)
      result = true;
   return result; // single exit point
```

```
// single vocation, many cases to cover
bool is leap year (int year) {
   if (year % 400 == 0)
      return true;
   else if (year % 100 == 0)
      return false;
   else if (year % 4 == 0)
      return true;
   else
      return false;
} // multiple exit points, nested
```

```
// single vocation, many cases
// to cover
bool is leap year (int year) {
   if (year % 400 == 0) return true;
   if (year % 100 == 0) return false;
   if (year % 4 == 0) return true;
   return false;
} // multiple exit points, flatter
  // (somewhat simpler to understand
  // and to debug)
// note : you can write it as a single
// return statement, but it's painful
// to read and understand
```

- When the return value from a function is a type with nontrivial constructors and assignment, it can be particularly useful to use multiple return statements from a function
 - std::variant is the posterchild for this
 - Let's examine a more complex use case

```
enum class MsgType : uint16 t { Info, Warning };
ostream & operator << (ostream & os,
                    const MsqType &type) {
   return os << static cast<
      underlying type t<MsgType>
   >(type);
istream &operator>>(istream &is, MsgType &type) {
   if (!is) return is;
   if (underlying_type t<MsgType> val; is >> val)
      type = static cast<MsgType>(val);
   return is;
```

```
// ...
enum class Severity: uint16 t { Low, Medium, High };
ostream & operator << (ostream & os,
                    const Severity &severity) {
   return os << static cast<
      underlying type t<Severity>
   >(severity);
istream &operator>>(istream &is, Severity &severity) {
   if (!is) return is;
   if (underlying type t<Severity> val; is >> val)
      severity = static cast<Severity>(val);
   return is;
```

```
// ...
struct MsgInfo {
   string info{};
  MsqInfo() = default;
   MsgInfo(string view info) : info{ begin(info), end(info) } {
};
ostream & operator << (ostream & os, const MsgInfo & msg info) {
   return os << quoted(msg info.info);</pre>
istream &operator>>(istream &is, MsgInfo &msg info) {
   if (!is) return is;
   if (string info; is >> quoted(info))
      msg info = MsgInfo{ info };
   return is;
```

```
// ...
struct MsgWarning {
   string warning{};
   Severity severity{ Severity::Low };
   MsqWarning() = default;
   MsgWarning(string view warning, Severity severity)
      : warning { begin (warning), end (warning) }, severity { severity } {
};
ostream & operator << (ostream & os, const MsgWarning & msg warning) {
   return os << quoted (msg warning.warning) << ' ' << msg warning.severity;
istream &operator>>(istream &is, MsgWarning &msg warning) {
   if (!is) return is;
   if (string warning; is >> quoted(warning))
      if (Severity severity; is >> severity)
         msq warning = { warning, severity };
   return is:
```

- Note that multiple exit points are typical of I/O functions
 - Particularly true of input functions
 - There's typically no reason to continue when a stream is found to be corrupted

```
template <class ... Ts>
struct Overload : Ts... {
   Overload(Ts ... ts) : Ts{ ts }... {
   using Ts::operator()...;
};
template <class ... Ts>
Overload(Ts...) ->Overload<Ts...>;
using Msg = variant<</pre>
   monostate, MsgInfo, MsgWarning
>;
// ...
```

```
// ...
ostream & operator << (ostream & os, const Msg & msg) {
   return visit(Overload{
      // should never happen
      [&os] (monostate) -> ostream & { return os; },
      [&os](const MsgInfo & msg info) -> ostream& {
         return os << MsqType::Info << ' ' << msg info;</pre>
      },
      [&os] (const MsgWarning & msg warning) -> ostream& {
         return os << MsgType::Warning << ' ' << msg warning;</pre>
   }, msq);
```

```
// ...
Msg consume(istream &is) {
   assert(!!is);
  Msg msg; // default ctor (costs something, no added value)
   if (MsgType type; is >> type) {
      switch (type) {
      case MsqType::Info:
         if (MsqInfo info; is >> info)
            msg = info; // replace the dummy default
         break:
      case MsqType::Warning:
         if (MsgWarning warning; is >> warning)
            msg = warning; // replace the dummy default
         break;
   return msg; // single exit point, but could be monostate :/
               // (requires added validation at call site)
```

- By imposing ourselves a single point of exit, we incur costs
 - Added complexity
 - Time to construct a dummy, empty object that would normally never be needed
 - Assign to that object with the actual objects consumed
 - This means destroying the unnecessary default object and replacing it with the object that should have been there in the first place

```
// ...
Msq consume(istream &is) {
   assert(!!is);
   if (MsgType type; is >> type) {
      switch (type) {
      case MsqType::Info:
         if (MsgInfo info; is >> info)
            return { info };
      case MsqType::Warning:
         if (MsgWarning warning; is >> warning)
            return { warning };
   return {}; // stream was corrupted
```

```
// ...
class unknown message type{};
Msg consume(istream &is) {
   assert(!!is);
   if (MsgType type; is >> type) {
      switch (type) {
      case MsgType::Info:
         if (MsgInfo info; is >> info)
            return { info };
      case MsgType::Warning:
         if (MsgWarning warning; is >> warning)
            return { warning };
   throw unknown message type{}; // we can get rid of monostate!
```

- By allowing multiple points of exit, we
 - Reduce source code complexity somewhat
 - Only construct objects that are actually needed
 - Pay the costs for a default object only when this is meaningful

- This is not a recommendation to spread functions with multiple return statements thoughtlessly
 - Writing small functions tends to reduce the temptation to resort to this approach
 - It also generally leads to better codegen!

Only One Exit Point per Function

- This is not a recommendation to spread functions with multiple return statements thoughtlessly
 - Writing small functions tends to reduce the temptation to resort to this approach
 - It also generally leads to better codegen!
 - However, having multiple exit points in a function is not inherently bad
 - Can lead to more efficient code
 - Can save unnecessary construction of dummy objects
 - Can make code easier to understand and debug

- This is typically seen as good practice
 - Enforces encapsulation by putting the object in control of its internal states

```
class invalid name{};
class invalid age{};
class Person {
   string name ;
   short age ;
   // business logic (used to enforce class invariants)
   static constexpr auto validate name(string view name) {
      return name.empty()? throw invalid name{} : name;
   static constexpr auto validate age(short age) {
      return age < 0? throw invalid age{} : age;</pre>
public:
   Person(string view name, short age)
      : name_{ validate_name(name) }, age {validate age(age) } {
   string name() const { return name ; }
   short age() const { return age ; }
} ;
```

```
class invalid name{};
class invalid age{};
class Person {
public:
   string name; // publicly accessible (no way to enforce
   short age; // class invariants without discipline...)
private:
   // business logic (used to enforce class invariants)
   static constexpr auto validate name(string view name) {
      return name.empty()? throw invalid name{} : name;
   static constexpr auto validate age(short age) {
      return age < 0? throw invalid age{} : age;</pre>
public:
   // false sense of security
   Person(string view name, short age)
      : name{ validate name(name) }, age{validate age(age) } {
};
```

```
class invalid name{};
class invalid age{};
struct Person {
   string name; // publicly accessible (no way to enforce
   short age; // class invariants without discipline...)
private:
   // business logic (used to enforce class invariants)
   static constexpr auto validate name(string view name) {
      return name.empty()? throw invalid name{} : name;
   static constexpr auto validate age(short age) {
      return age < 0? throw invalid age{} : age;</pre>
public:
   // false sense of security
   Person(string view name, short age)
      : name{ validate name(name) }, age{validate age(age) } {
} ;
```

- This is typically seen as good practice
 - Enforces encapsulation by putting the object in control of its internal states
 - However, not all types have invariants to enforce

```
class Point {
   int x_{\{\}}, y_{\{\}}, z_{\{\}};
public:
   Point() = default;
   // note : all possible states are
   // acceptable
   constexpr Point(int x, int y, int z)
      : x_{x}, y_{y}, z_{z}
   int x() const noexcept { return x ; }
   int y() const noexcept { return y ; }
   int z() const noexcept { return z ; }
   // ...
```

```
struct Point {
   int x\{\}, y\{\}, z\{\};
   Point() = default;
   // note : all possible states are
   // acceptable (no invariants)
   constexpr Point(int x, int y, int z)
      : x{ x }, y{ y }, z{ z } {
   // ...
```

- This is typically seen as good practice
 - Enforces encapsulation by putting the object in control of its internal states
 - However, not all types have invariants to enforce
- A case could be made for "thinking ahead", and making it easier to add invariants later
 - This comes at the cost of added complexity
 - Very non-YAGNI (You Ain't Gonna Need It)
 - C# or Delphi-like properties could help somewhat here, but C++ does not currently support such a feature

- There's a simple trick here: think the design through
 - Try to write simpler classes
 - Document invariants
 - Make data members private in general
- Public data members work well for classes that...
 - Have no invariants to enforce
 - Are mutable
 - Are final
 - Inheriting from such a class should probably only be done through private inheritance
 - Otherwise, prefer composition over inheritance

• Note that this: struct Error { const string message; Error(string view msg) : message{ begin(msg), end(msg) }{ } }; • ... is not a semantic equivalent for that: class Error { string msg; public: Error(string view msg) : msg{ begin(msg), end(msg) } { } string message() const { return msg; };

• ... as there are consequences that might surprise one going from one to the other

```
int n;
float f;
string s;
vector<X> v;
• ... go for:
int n = 0;
float f = 0.0f;
string s = "";
vector < X > v = vector < X > ();
```

```
int n;
float f;
string s;
vector<X> v;
• ... or go for:
int n = \{\};
float f = \{\};
string s = \{\};
vector < X > v = {};
```

```
int n;
float f;
string s;
vector<X> v;
• ... or go for:
int n { };
float f {};
string s {};
vector<X> v { };
```

```
int n;
float f;
string s;
vector<X> v;
• ... but do not go for this:
int n(); // do you see it?
float f();
string s();
vector<X> v();
```

```
int n;
float f;
string s;
vector<X> v;
• ... or go for:
int n { };
float f {};
string s; // Ok, implicit default ctor
vector<X> v; // likewise
• ... unless writing generic code, of course
```

- One of the key tenets of C++ is "You do not pay for what you do not use"
 - We strive hard to keep it that way
 - There are still some costs inherent to contemporary C++, but we're working on it
 - Now, is this...

```
int n = 0;
```

• ... really more costly than this?

```
int n;
```

- One of the key tenets of C++ is "You do not pay for what you do not use"
 - We strive hard to keep it that way
 - There are still some costs inherent to contemporary C++, but we're working on it
 - Now, is this...

```
int n = 0;
```

• ... really more costly than this?

```
int n;
```

- Actually, it sometimes is
 - ...and C++ has users that cannot tolerate such costs

• C++ distinguishes declaration from definition

```
void f(); // declaration
void f(); // Ok, declaration can be repeated
struct X {
   friend void f(); // declaration, still Ok
};
extern X x; // declaration
X x; // definition (object is created)
void f() { } // definition
// not Ok (would be an ODR violation)
// X x;
// not Ok (would be an ODR violation)
// void f() {} // not Ok (likewise)
```

- Some languages "enforce" a rule about object initialization
 - In C#, this does not compile:

```
// zeroed but conceptually uninitialized
int n;
// error, n not initialized (the equivalent
// code would compile but be UB in C++)
Console.WriteLine(n);
```

• However, in C#, this does compile:

```
// zeroed, technically and conceptually
int [] ns = new int[10];
// compiles, prints 0
Console.WriteLine(ns[3]);
```

• There's really no point to doing this...

```
int n = 0; // ...why?
if (cin >> n) // ...we're writing to n here
  f(n); // only reached if input succeeded
```

• ... instead of doing this:

```
int n; // unitialized
if (cin >> n) // ... might be initialized
  f(n); // ... only if it is initialized
```

• ... or even better (if the scope of n is the if statement), this:

```
if (int n; cin >> n)
   f(n);
```

- The point of this principle is to avoid leaving uninitialized variables lying around in the code
 - ... for good reason!
- Many languages have traditionally imposed the definition of variables at the beginning of blocks
- However, languages that support object orientation lead us to think about initialization costs
 - Constructors are often not free
- Variables that are initialized somewhere, but used far away are actually bad code smells!
 - ... and a sign that the function is too big!

```
class Person {
   // ...
public:
   Person(string view name, short age);
   //
   friend istream& operator>>(istream &is, Person &p) {
      string name; // bad, might not be
      short age; // needed in practice
      if (!is) return is;
      if (is >> name >> age)
         p = \{ name, age \};
      return is;
};
```

```
class Person {
   // ...
public:
   Person(string view name, short age);
   //
   friend istream& operator>>(istream &is, Person &p) {
      if (!is) return is;
      string name; // better
      short age; // a bit early (but trivial ctor)
      if (is >> name >> age)
         p = \{ name, age \};
      return is;
};
```

```
class Person {
   // ...
public:
   Person(string view name, short age);
   //
   friend istream& operator>>(istream &is, Person &p) {
      if (!is) return is;
      short age; // a bit early (but trivial ctor)
      if (string name; is >> name >> age)
         p = \{ name, age \};
      // note : age still exists here... why?
      return is;
};
```

```
class Person {
   // ...
public:
   Person(string view name, short age);
   //
   friend istream& operator>>(istream &is, Person &p) {
      if (!is) return is;
      // better still (scopes are shorter)
      if (string name; is >> name)
         if(short age; is >> age)
            p = \{ name, age \};
      return is;
};
```

- When facing a two-step initialization, consider encapsulating it in a factory function
 - This avoids leaking the uninitialized objet into client code

```
class TwoStepThing {
   // ...
public:
   void Init() { // must be called only once *this is fully constructed
      // ...
protected:
   TwoStepThing() = default;
   friend TwoStepThing create two step();
   // ...
};
TwoStepThing create two step() {
   TwoStepThing thing; // probably uninitialized
   thing.Init(); // now probably Ok
   // ...
   return thing; // return fully initialized object
}
int main() {
   auto thing = create two step();
```

• This "don't declare variables before you need them" rule is also true of languages such as Java or C# where objects are only accessed indirectly

• Given this function: static X makeX(/* args */) { /* ... */ } • Something like this Java code: static void useX() { X x; // uninitialized (null by default) // ... do things; x remains uninitialized (bad!)... x = makeX(/* args */);// would be much better as static void useX() { // ... do things ... $X \times = makeX(/* args */); // declared when needed$ // ...

- The usual tricks apply in this case
 - Think before you code
 - Write small functions
 - Declare objects only when... and where needed
- Keeping objects close to point of use tends to reduce the tendency to use superfluous initialization
 - So does accepting some unusual control flow constructs
 - Occasionally
 - So does accepting multiple points of exit in a function
 - When justified

- Avoid goto unless you can justify it
 - There are probably goto-like things in your code base, though
 - It's not that dirty
 - ... but it is a code smell
- Keep your code at a higher level of abstraction

- Multiple returns from a function are not that bad
 - Keep your functions small, their vocation clear
 - Make sure these multiple exits have a (documented) reason for being
 - Do things for a reason, not just for laziness

- No, you don't need to initialize all variables at their point of definition
 - Sometimes wasteful
 - Define them when needed only
 - That way, if they are initialized-after-definition, they don't stay uninitialized for long
 - If you need two-step initialization, encapsulate it in a factory

So...

- No, you don't need to make all member variables private
 - It eases refactoring, though
 - ... but it's really useful when you have invariants to enforce
 - No, protected member variables are not better than public ones
 - Or if they are, it's just barely

Questions?

Some Other Myths (if there's time)

- There's a bunch of speed-related myths, e.g.:
 - Vector slower than dynamically allocated array
 - Objects slower than functions
 - Smart pointers slower than raw pointers

- Vector slower than dynamically allocated array?
- It depends
 - Construction (if done properly)
 - http://quick-bench.com/AguBHmz3EJatWDP8j8x9pWMvHil

- Vector slower than dynamically allocated array?
- It depends
 - Construction (if done properly)
 - http://quick-bench.com/AguBHmz3EJatWDP8j8x9pWMvHiI
 - vector distinguishes allocation and initialization
 - Can be made to do the minimum effort easily
 - ... and is safer!

```
// calls T::T() n times (conceptually, size
  // and capacity of the array are both n)
  T *p = new T[n];
  // ... hope no exception gets thrown here!
  delete [] p;
  // calls T::T() n times (v.size()==n; v.capacity()==n)
  vector<T> v(n);
  // ...
} // resources freed no matter what happens
  vector<T> v; // no call to T::T() (much faster if non-vacuous!)
  v.reserve(n); // v.size() == 0; v.capacity() == n
  // ... add T elements through push back()/emplace back() when ready
```

- Vector slower than dynamically allocated array?
- It depends
 - Construction (if done properly)
 - http://quick-bench.com/AguBHmz3EJatWDP8j8x9pWMvHiI
 - Construction and initialization (if done properly)
 - http://quick-bench.com/ToZLo4zagY2Z-U-vER2kVik5hlg

```
// calls T::T() n times (wasteful!)
T *p = new T[n];
fill(p, p + n, value); // calls T::operator= n times!
// ...
delete [] p;
// calls T::T() n times (v.size()==n; v.capacity()==n)
vector<T> v(n);
fill(begin(v), end(v), value); // calls T::operator= n times!
// ...
vector<T> v; // no call to T::T() (much faster if non-vacuous!)
v.reserve(n); // v.size() == 0; v.capacity() == n
fill n(back inserter(v), n, value); // calls T::T(const T&) n times
```

• To do the equivalent of this code by hand, with an array...

```
vector<T> v;
v.reserve(n);
fill_n(back_inserter(v), n, value);
// ...
```

```
• ... one has to get one's hands slightly dirty:
T *p = reinterpret cast<T*>(
   new /*(align val t{ alignof(T) })*/
      char[n * sizeof(T)]
);
int i = 0;
try {
   for(; i != n; ++i)
      new (static cast<void*>(p + i)) T{value};
} catch(...) {
   for(int j = i; --j >= 0;)
       (p + i) -> \sim T();
   delete [] reinterpret cast<char*>(p);
   throw;
```

• ... a bit less painful with algorithms: T *p = reinterpret cast<T*>(new /*(align val t{ alignof(T) })*/ char[n * sizeof(T)] try { uninitialized fill(p, p + n, value); } catch(...) { delete [] reinterpret cast<char*>(p); throw;

• ... a bit less painful with algorithms and a smart pointer:

```
unique ptr<T[], function<void(T*)>> p{
   reinterpret cast<T *>(
      new /*(align val t{ alignof(T) })*/
         char[n * sizeof(T)]
   [](T * p) {
      delete[]reinterpret cast<char *>(p);
};
uninitialized fill(&p[0], &p[n], value);
```

• ... a bit less painful with algorithms and a smart pointer: unique ptr<T[], function<void(T*)>> p{ reinterpret cast<T *>(new /*(align val t{ alignof(T) })*/ char[n * sizeof(T)] [](T * p) { delete[]reinterpret cast<char *>(p); **}**; uninitialized fill(&p[0], &p[n], value); • But really: use vector, please!

- Vector slower than dynamically allocated array?
- It depends
 - Construction (if done properly)
 - http://quick-bench.com/AguBHmz3EJatWDP8j8x9pWMvHil
 - Construction and initialization (if done properly)
 - http://quick-bench.com/ToZLo4zagY2Z-U-vER2kVik5hlg
 - It's always better to measure, but in general you can trust your compiler vendors and your library writers
 - Lots of *very* smart people there!

• Objects slower than functions?

- Objects slower than functions?
 - It depends
 - Applying equivalent operations many times: http://quick-bench.com/l-3FPjpStsMfFhOu5EzMhw8ghXs
 - Again: it's always better to measure, but you in general, can trust your compiler vendors and your library writers
 - Lots of very smart people there!
 - Compilers are very, very good
 - Functors are very, very useful
 - Lambdas are just awesome

• Smart pointers slower than raw pointers?

- Smart pointers slower than raw pointers?
 - It depends

```
int main() {
  int *p = new int{ 3 };
  int n = *p;
  delete p;
  return n;
}
```

- -O0 with gcc: https://godbolt.org/z/xHc9Ei
- -O2 with gcc: https://godbolt.org/z/CtQOcQ
- -O0 with clang: https://godbolt.org/z/xQBZZy
- -O2 with clang: https://godbolt.org/z/XWuSQK (no joke!)

- Smart pointers slower than raw pointers?
 - It depends

```
int main() {
   unique_ptr<int> p { new int{ 3 } };
   return *p;
}
```

- -O0 with gcc: https://godbolt.org/z/I9JBhb
- -O2 with gcc: https://godbolt.org/z/QCW37v
- -O0 with clang: https://godbolt.org/z/ih2LGa
- -O2 with clang: https://godbolt.org/z/m3YuQN (no joke!)

- Smart pointers slower than raw pointers?
 - It depends
 - unique_ptr costs essentially nothing in time or space (apart from a few, niche details) with respect to raw pointers
 - One additional operation on movement
 - Space overhead to store the custom delete when it's a function pointer

- Smart pointers slower than raw pointers?
 - It depends
 - unique_ptr costs essentially nothing in time or space (apart from a few, niche details) with respect to raw pointers
 - One additional operation on movement
 - Space overhead to store the custom delete when it's a function pointer
 - shared ptr costs a lot more, but has a very specific niche
 - You should not be using it much
 - If you use it, on the other hand, it's probably much better than anything you could hand-write (it's very tricky code)

- Smart pointers slower than raw pointers?
 - It depends
 - Again and again: it's always better to measure, but you in general, can trust your compiler vendors and your library writers
 - Lots of very smart people there!

So... 168

So...

- Use vector
- Use functors
- Use lambdas
 - ... measure, but give your standard library tools and your compiler a chance
- ... and enjoy C++!

Questions?