

# ADVANCED C++ FEATURES

Bùi Tiến Lên

2022



KHOA CÔNG NGHỆ THÔNG TIN  
TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC KHOA HỌC TỰ NHIÊN

# Contents

---



1. **Memory Management**
2. **Exception Handling**
3. **Smart Pointers**
4. **Move Constructor and Move Assignment Operator**
5. **Workshop**

# C++ Is Software System



- C++ is a high-level general-purpose programming language created by Bjarne Stroustrup in 1985
- C++ development

Year	C++ Standard	Informal name
1998	ISO/IEC 14882:1998	C++98
2003	ISO/IEC 14882:2003	C++03
2011	ISO/IEC 14882:2011	C++11
2014	ISO/IEC 14882:2014	C++14
2017	ISO/IEC 14882:2017	C++17
2020	ISO/IEC 14882:2020	C++20



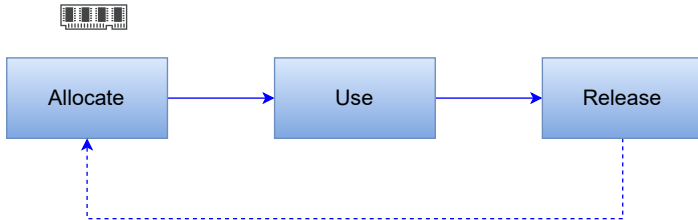
# Memory Management

# Overview



In C++,

- when we create variables, objects, or anything you can think of, the machine allocates memory for this
- when we don't need them, release them.



# The memory heap and stack

---



C++ uses two common places to store objects

- Stack memory
- Heap memory

# Stack: Static memory allocation



- Stack memory is used to store static data such as local variables and parameters where C++ knows at compile time.

```
int age=10;  
int speed=20;  
Person tom = Person;
```

## Stack memory

tom=Person

speed=20

age=10

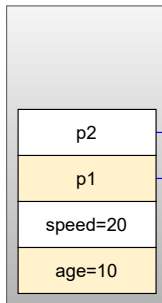
# Heap: Dynamic memory allocation



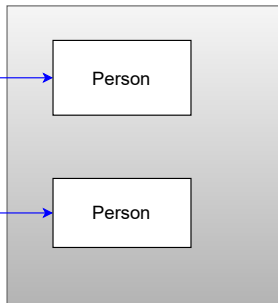
- Heap memory is used to store dynamic data such as dynamic objects.

```
int age=10;  
int speed=20;  
Person *p1 = new Person;  
Person *p2 = new Person;
```

**Stack memory**



**Heap memory**







# Exception Handling

- Mechanism
- Function-try-block
- Throwing Exception
- Catching Exception
- Standard Exception Classes
- Exception and Resource

# Introduction



## Concept 1

**Exception** is unexpected something that has occurred or been detected

There are two types of exception:

- **Synchronous exceptions**
  - The exceptions which occur during the program execution due to some fault in the input data are known as synchronous exceptions.
  - For example: errors such as out of range, overflow, underflow.
- **Asynchronous exceptions**
  - The exceptions caused by events or faults unrelated (external) to the program and beyond the control of the program are called asynchronous exceptions.
  - For example: errors such as keyboard interrupts, hardware malfunctions, disk failure.

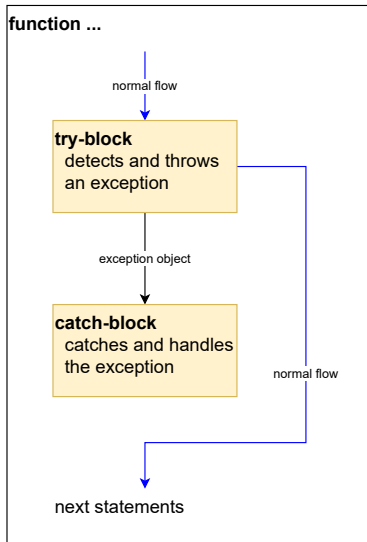
# Exception Handling Mechanism



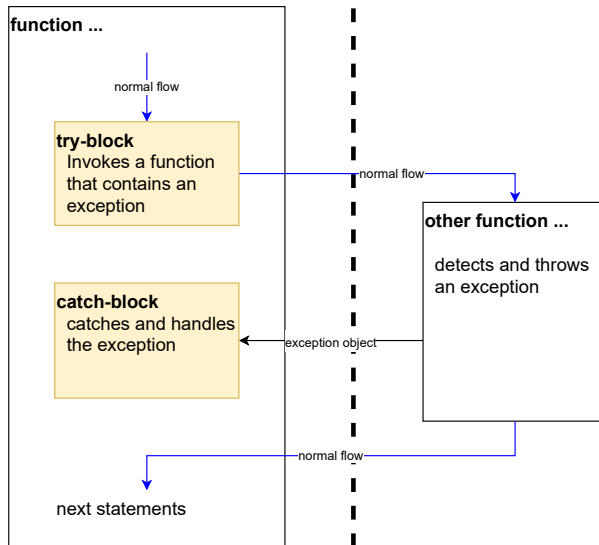
The exception handling mechanism is built upon three keywords:

- **try**-block  
A try block is used to preface a block of statements which may generate exceptions.
- **catch**-block  
A catch block catches the exception thrown by the throw statement in the try block and handles it appropriately.  
**One/multiple catch blocks** can be associated with a try block
- **throw**  
When an exception is detected, it is thrown using a throw statement.

# Exception Thrown Inside



# Exception Thrown by Other Function



# Exceptions – Flow of Control



1. If the function which is called from within a try block throws an exception, the function terminates and the try block is immediately exited.
  - If **automatic objects** were created in the try block and an exception is thrown, they are **destroyed**.
2. A catch block to process the exception is searched for in the source code immediately following the try block.
3. If a catch block is found that matches the exception thrown, it is executed. If no catch block that matches the exception is found, the program terminates.

# Try/Catch Syntax



- try/catch block

```
try {  
    ...  
}  
catch( ) {  
    ...  
}
```

- nested try/catch blocks

```
try {  
    ...  
    try {  
        ...  
    }  
    catch( ) {  
        ...  
    }  
    ...  
}  
catch( ) {  
    ...  
}
```

# Function-try-block



## Concept 2

Function-try-block establishes an exception handler around the body of a function and the member initializer list (if used in a constructor) as well.

```
class Person {  
private:  
    ...  
    Date dob;  
public  
    Person(int d, int m, int y)  
    try : dob(d, m, y)  
    { ... }  
    catch (...)  
    { ... }  
};
```



# Throwing Exception



- When an exception is desired to be handled is detected, it is thrown using the throw statement.
- Throw statement has one of the following forms:  

```
throw (exception);  
throw exception;  
throw;
```
- The operand object exception may be of any type, including constants.

# Exception classes



- One of the major problems with using basic data types (such as int) as exception types is that they are inherently vague.
- One way to solve this problem is to use exception classes. An exception class is just a normal class that is designed specifically to be thrown as an exception.

```
class MyException {  
private:  
    string msg;  
public:  
    MyException(string msg) {  
        this->msg = msg;  
    }  
    string getInfo() {  
        return msg;  
    }  
};
```

```
void main() {  
    try {  
        ...  
        if(b == 0)  
            throw MyException("Divided by zero");  
        cout << "a/b=" << a/b;  
    }  
    catch(MyException& ex) {  
        cout << ex.getInfo();  
    }  
}
```

# Catching Exception



- A catch block looks like a function definition:

```
catch(type exception) { // catch by value
    // statements for handling exceptions.
}
```

```
catch(type& exception) { // catch by reference
    // statements for handling exceptions.
}
```

- The type indicates the type of exception that catch block handles.
- The catch statement catches an exception whose type matches with the type of catch argument.

# Catching Exception (cont.)



- Catch exceptions by reference in order to:
  - avoid copying
  - avoid slicing
  - allow exception object to be modified and then rethrown
- A catch statement can also force to catch all exceptions instead of a certain type alone.

```
catch(...) {  
    // statements for handling all exceptions.  
}
```

# Re-throwing an Exception



- A handler can re-throw the exception caught without processing it.
- This can be done using `throw` without any arguments.
- Every time when an exception is re-thrown it will not be caught by the same catch statements rather it will be caught by the catch statements outside the try/catch block.

# Listing 1



```
int gcd(int a, int b) {  
    if(a <= 0 || b <= 0)  
        throw string("error");  
  
    while(a != b)  
        if(a > b) a -= b;  
        else b -= a;  
  
    return a;  
}
```

```
void main() {  
    ...  
    try {  
        u = gcd(a, b);  
        cout << u;  
    }  
    catch(string ex) {  
        cout << ex;  
    }  
}
```

# Exception and Inheritance



- Consider the following program

```
class Base {};  
class Derived: public Base {};  
void main() {  
    try {  
        throw Derived();  
    }  
    catch (Base &base) {  
        cout << "caught Base";  
    }  
    catch (Derived &derived) {  
        cout << "caught Derived";  
    }  
}
```

# Standard Exception Classes

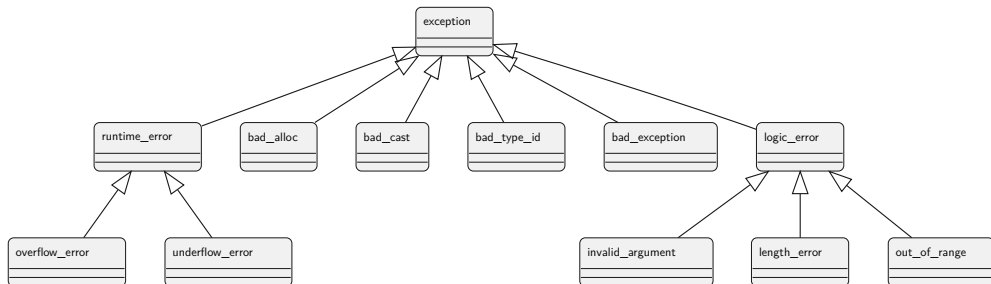


- All exception classes in standard library derived (directly or indirectly) from `std::exception` class
- Exception classes derived from `std::exception` class

Type	Description
<code>logic_error</code>	faulty logic in program
<code>runtime_error</code>	error caused by circumstances beyond scope of program
<code>bad_type_id</code>	invalid operand for typeid operator
<code>bad_cast</code>	invalid expression for dynamic_cast
<code>bad_weak_ptr</code>	bad weak_ptr given
<code>bad_function_call</code>	<i>function</i> has no target
<code>bad_alloc</code>	storage allocation failure
<code>bad_exception</code>	use of invalid exception type in certain contexts
<code>bad_variant_access</code>	<i>variant</i> accessed in invalid way



# Standard Exception Classes (cont.)



# Listing 2



```
#include <iostream>
#include <exception> // include this to catch exception bad_alloc
using namespace std;
int main() {
    cout << "Enter number of integers you wish to reserve: ";
    try {
        int Input = 0;
        cin >> Input;
        // Request memory space and then return it
        int* pReservedInts = new int [Input];
        delete[] pReservedInts;
    }
    catch (std::bad_alloc& exp) {
        cout << "Exception encountered: " << exp.what() << endl;
        cout << "Got to end, sorry!" << endl;
    }
    catch(...) {
        cout << "Exception encountered. Got to end, sorry!" << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

# Exception and Resource



- Consider the following function

```
int fibo(int n) {  
    int *a = new int[n+2];  
    if(n > 46) throw "overflow";  
    a[0] = 1;  
    a[1] = 1;  
    for(int i=2; i<=n; i++) a[i] = a[i-1] + a[i-2];  
    int re = a[n];  
    delete[] a;  
    return re;  
}
```

- It leaks the memory if  $n > 46$

# Exception and Resource (cont.)

---



## Solution

1. Rewrite the function or
2. Use *Resource Acquisition Is Initialization*

# Resource Acquisition Is Initialization



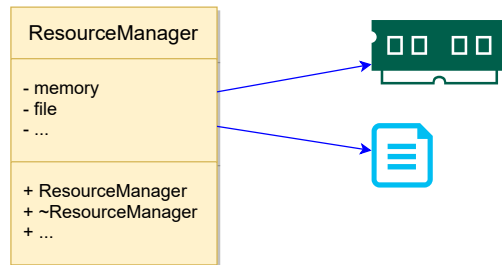
*Resource Acquisition Is Initialization* (RAII), a C++ programming technique proposed by Bjarne Stroustrup

- encapsulate each resource (allocated heap memory, thread of execution, open socket, open file, locked mutex, disk space, database connection) into a class, where
  - **the constructor acquires** the resource and establishes all class invariants or throws an exception if that cannot be done
  - **the destructor releases** the resource and never throws exceptions
- **it binds** the life cycle of a resource to the lifetime of an object; always use the resource via an instance of a RAII-class that either
  - has automatic storage duration or temporary lifetime itself, or
  - has lifetime that is bounded by the lifetime of an automatic or temporary object

# Resource Acquisition Is Initialization (cont.)



- Most smart pointers
- Many wrappers for
  - memory
  - files
  - mutexes
  - network sockets
  - graphic ports





# Smart Pointers

- Types of Smart Pointers
- Standard Smart Pointers

# Introduction



## Concept 3

**A smart pointer** in C++ is a class with overloaded operators, which behaves like a **conventional pointer**.

- C++ supplies full flexibility to the programmer in memory allocation, deallocation, and management. Unfortunately, this flexibility is a double-edged sword.
- It can memory-related problems, such as memory leaks, when dynamically allocated objects are not correctly released.



# The Problem with Using Conventional Pointers



In the following line of code, there is no obvious way to tell whether the memory pointed to by pData

- Was allocated on the heap, and therefore eventually needs to be deallocated?
- Is the responsibility of the caller to deallocate?
- Will automatically be destroyed by the object's destructor?

```
CData *pData = mObject.GetData();  
/*  
Questions: Is object pointed by pData dynamically allocated  
           using new?  
Who will perform delete: caller or the called?  
Answer: No idea!  
*/  
pData->Display();
```

# How Do Smart Pointers Help?



- The programmer can choose a smarter way to allocate and manage dynamic data by adopting the use of smart pointers in his programs:

```
smart_pointer<CData> spData = mObject.GetData();  
  
// Use a smart pointer like a conventional pointer!  
spData->Display();  
(*spData).Display();  
  
// Don't have to worry about de-allocation  
// (the smart pointer's destructor does it for you)
```

- Smart pointers behave like conventional pointers but supply useful features via their *overloaded operators* and *destructors* to ensure that dynamically allocated data is destroyed in a timely manner.

# How Are Smart Pointers Implemented?



```
template <typename T>
class smart_pointer {
private:
    T* m_pRawPointer;
public:
    // constructor
    smart_pointer (T* pData) : m_pRawPointer (pData) {}
    // destructor
    ~smart_pointer () {delete pData;}
    // copy constructor
    smart_pointer (const smart_pointer & anotherSP) {...}
    // copy assignment operator
    smart_pointer& operator= (const smart_pointer& anotherSP) {...}
    T& operator* () const {           // dereferencing operator
        return *(m_pRawPointer);
    }
    T* operator-> () const {          // member selection operator
        return m_pRawPointer;
    }
};
```



# Types of Smart Pointers

---

Classification of smart pointers is actually a classification of their memory resource management strategies. These are

- Deep copy
- Copy on Write (COW)
- Reference counted
- Reference linked
- Destructive copy

# Deep Copy



- In a smart pointer that implements deep copy, every smart pointer instance holds a complete copy of the object that is being managed.
- Whenever the smart pointer is copied, the object pointed to is also copied (thus, deep copy).
- When the smart pointer goes out of scope, it releases the memory it points to (via the destructor).

# Listing 3



```
template <typename T>
class deepcopy_smart_pointer {
private:
    T* m_pObject;
public:
    // ... other functions
    // copy constructor of the deepcopy pointer
    deepcopy_smart_pointer (const deepcopy_smart_pointer& source)    {
        // Clone() is virtual: ensures deep copy of Derived class object
        m_pObject = source->Clone ();
    }
    // copy assignment operator
    deepcopy_smart_pointer& operator= (const deepcopy_smart_pointer& source) {
        if (m_pObject)
            delete m_pObject;
        m_pObject = source->Clone ();
    }
};
```

# Copy on Write Mechanism



- *Copy on Write* (COW as it is popularly called) attempts to optimize the performance of deep-copy smart pointers by sharing pointers until the first attempt at writing to the object is made.
- On the first attempt at invoking a non-const function, a COW pointer typically creates a copy of the object on which the non-const function is invoked, whereas other instances of the pointer continue sharing the source object.
- COW has its fair share of fans. For those that swear by COW, implementing operators (\*) and (->) in their const and non-const versions is key to the functionality of the COW pointer. The latter creates a copy.

# Reference-Counted Smart Pointers



- Reference counting in general is a mechanism that keeps a count of the number of users of an object.
- When the count reduces to zero, the object is released.
- So, reference counting makes a very good mechanism for sharing objects without having to copy them.
- Reference counting suffers from the problem caused by cyclic dependency.

There are at least two popular ways to keep this count:

- Reference count maintained in the object being pointed to
- Reference count maintained by the pointer class in a shared object



# Reference-Linked Smart Pointers



- *Reference-linked* smart pointers are ones that don't proactively count the number of references using the object; rather, they just need to know when the number comes down to zero so that the object can be released.
- They are called *reference-linked* because their implementation is based on a double-linked list.
- When a new smart pointer is created by copying an existing one, it is appended to the list.
- When a smart pointer goes out of scope or is destroyed, the destructor de-indexes the smart pointer from this list.
- Reference linking also suffers from the problem caused by cyclic dependency, as applicable to reference-counted pointers.

# Destructive Copy



- *Destructive copy* is a mechanism where a smart pointer, when copied, transfers complete ownership of the object being handled to the destination and resets itself.

# Listing 4



```
template <typename T>
class destructivecopy_pointer {
private:
    T* pObject;
public:
    destructivecopy_pointer(T* pInput):pObject(pInput) {}
    ~destructivecopy_pointer() { delete pObject; }
    // copy constructor
    destructivecopy_pointer(destructivecopy_pointer& source) {
        // Take ownership on copy
        pObject = source.pObject;
        // destroy source
        source.pObject = 0;
    }
    // copy assignment operator
    destructivecopy_pointer& operator= (destructivecopy_pointer& rhs) {
        if (pObject != source.pObject) {
            delete pObject;
            pObject = source.pObject;
            source.pObject = 0;
        }
    }
};
```

# Introduction



- Since C++ 11, we can use smart pointers to dynamically allocate memory and not worry about deleting the memory when we are finished using it.

- Must `#include` the memory header file

```
#include <memory>
```

- Three types of smart pointer

```
unique_ptr
```

```
shared_ptr
```

```
weak_ptr
```

# Listing 5



```
#include <iostream>
#include <memory> // include this to use std::unique_ptr
using namespace std;
class Fish {
public:
    Fish() {cout << "Fish: Constructed!" << endl;}
    ~Fish() {cout << "Fish: Destructed!" << endl;}
    void Swim() const {cout << "Fish swims in water" << endl;}
};
void MakeFishSwim(const unique_ptr<Fish>& inFish) {
    inFish->Swim();
}
int main() {
    unique_ptr<Fish> smartFish (new Fish);
    smartFish->Swim();
    MakeFishSwim(smartFish); // OK, as MakeFishSwim accepts reference
    unique_ptr<Fish> copySmartFish;
    // copySmartFish = smartFish; // error: operator= is private
    return 0;
}
```

# Move Constructor and Move Assignment Operator



# Introduction

---



## Concept 4

The **move constructor** and the **move assignment operators** are performance optimization features that have become a part of the standard in C++11, ensuring that **temporary values** (**rvalues** that don't exist beyond the statement) are not unnecessarily copied.

# The Problem of Unwanted Copy Steps



```
class MyString {  
    ...  
    MyString operator+ (const MyString& AddThis) {  
        MyString NewString;  
        if (AddThis.Buffer != NULL) {  
            // copy into NewString  
        }  
        return NewString;  
    }  
    ...  
}
```



# The Problem of Unwanted Copy Steps (cont.)



```
1 MyString Hello("Hello ");
2 MyString World("World ");
3 MyString CPP("of C++");
4 MyString sayHello(Hello + World + CPP);
5 MyString sayHelloAgain("overwrite this");
6 sayHelloAgain = Hello + World + CPP;
```

- Line 4: operator+, copy constructor
- Line 6: operator+, copy constructor, copy assignment operator=

# Declaring a Move Constructor and Move Assignment Operator



## Syntax

```
class ClassName
    // move constructor
    ClassName(ClassName&& moveSource);
    // move assignment operator
    ClassName& operator= (ClassName&& moveSource);
```

# Listing 5



```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
class MyString {
private:
    char* Buffer;
    // private default constructor
    MyString(): Buffer(NULL) {
        cout << "Default constructor called" << endl;
    }
public:
    // Destructor
    ~MyString() {
        if (Buffer != NULL)
            delete [] Buffer;
    }
    int GetLength() {
        return strlen(Buffer);
    }
    operator const char*() {
        return Buffer;
    }
    MyString operator+ (const MyString& AddThis) {
        cout << "operator+ called: " << endl;
        MyString NewString;
        if (AddThis.Buffer != NULL) {
            NewString.Buffer = new char[GetLength() + strlen(AddThis.Buffer) + 1];
        }
    }
};
```

# Listing 5 (cont.)



```
        strcpy(NewString.Buffer, Buffer);
        strcat(NewString.Buffer, AddThis.Buffer);
    }
    return NewString;
}
// constructor
MyString(const char* InitialInput) {
    cout << "Constructor called for: " << InitialInput << endl;
    if(InitialInput != NULL) {
        Buffer = new char [strlen(InitialInput) + 1];
        strcpy(Buffer, InitialInput);
    }
    else
        Buffer = NULL;
}
// Copy constructor
MyString(const MyString& CopySource) {
    cout<<"Copy constructor to copy from: "<<CopySource.Buffer<<endl;
    if(CopySource.Buffer != NULL) {
        // ensure deep copy by first allocating own buffer
        Buffer = new char [strlen(CopySource.Buffer) + 1];
        // copy from the source into local buffer
        strcpy(Buffer, CopySource.Buffer);
    }
    else
        Buffer = NULL;
}
```

# Listing 5 (cont.)



```
}  
// Copy assignment operator  
MyString& operator= (const MyString& CopySource) {  
    cout<<"Copy assignment operator to copy from: "<<CopySource.Buffer<< endl;  
    if ((this != &CopySource) && (CopySource.Buffer != NULL)) {  
        if (Buffer != NULL)  
            delete[] Buffer;  
        // ensure deep copy by first allocating own buffer  
        Buffer = new char [strlen(CopySource.Buffer) + 1];  
        // copy from the source into local buffer  
        strcpy(Buffer, CopySource.Buffer);  
    }  
    return *this;  
}  
// move constructor  
MyString(MyString&& MoveSource) {  
    cout << "Move constructor to move from: " << MoveSource.Buffer << endl;  
    if(MoveSource.Buffer != NULL) {  
        Buffer = MoveSource.Buffer; // take ownership i.e. 'move'  
        MoveSource.Buffer = NULL;   // free move source  
    }  
}  
// move assignment operator  
MyString& operator= (MyString&& MoveSource) {  
    cout<<"Move assignment operator to move from: "<<MoveSource.Buffer<<endl;  
    if((MoveSource.Buffer != NULL) && (this != &MoveSource)) {
```

# Listing 5 (cont.)



```
        delete Buffer; // release own buffer
        Buffer = MoveSource.Buffer; // take ownership i.e. 'move'
        MoveSource.Buffer = NULL;   // free move source
    }
    return *this;
}
};

int main() {
    MyString Hello("Hello ");
    MyString World("World");
    MyString CPP(" of C++");
    MyString sayHelloAgain("overwrite this");
    sayHelloAgain = Hello + World + CPP;
    return 0;
}
```



# Workshop



# Quiz



1. What is `std::exception`?

.....

.....

.....

2. What type of exception is thrown when an allocation using `new` fails?

.....

.....

.....

3. Is it alright to allocate a million integers in an exception handler (catch block) to back up existing data for instance?

.....

.....

.....





## Quiz (cont.)



4. How would you catch an exception object of type class `MyException` that inherits from `std::exception`?

.....

.....

.....

5. Would a smart pointer slow down your application significantly?

.....

.....

.....

6. Where can reference-counted smart pointers hold the reference count data?

.....

.....

.....



# Exercises



## 1. Point out the bug in this code:

```
std::auto_ptr<SampleClass> pObject (new SampleClass ());  
std::auto_ptr<SampleClass> pAnotherObject (pObject);  
pObject->DoSomething ();  
pAnotherObject->DoSomething();
```

2. Use the `unique_ptr` class to instantiate a `Carp` that inherits from `Fish`. Pass the object as a `Fish` pointer and comment on slicing, if any.
3. Point out the bug in this code:

```
std::unique_ptr<Tuna> myTuna (new Tuna);  
unique_ptr<Tuna> copyTuna;  
copyTuna = myTuna;
```

# References

---



Deitel, P. (2016).

*C++: How to program.*

Pearson.



Gaddis, T. (2014).

*Starting Out with C++ from Control Structures to Objects.*

Addison-Wesley Professional, 8th edition.



Jones, B. (2014).

*Sams teach yourself C++ in one hour a day.*

Sams.