

# C++

March 12, 2015

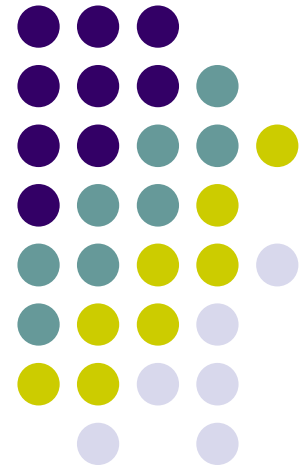
Mike Spertus

[mike\\_spertus@symantec.com](mailto:mike_spertus@symantec.com)



# New and Old Best Practices

---



# Guard against multiple inclusion



- If the same header is included multiple times, you may get multiply-defined symbol errors
- The following preprocessor idiom prevents that from happening
  - Sometimes the preprocessor is helpful!
- ```
#ifndef FOO_H
#   define FOO_H
...
#endif
```

# Always put headers in a namespace



- Also use an “`#ifndef ...`” to guard against multiple inclusions
- ```
#ifndef FOO_H
#   define FOO_H
namespace mpcs51044 {
int f();
...
}
#endif
```

# Never “use” a namespace in a header



- Leaks entire namespace to any file that includes the header.
- E.g., when in a header file, say  
`using std::accumulate`  
instead of  
`using namespace std;`  
or just explicitly call `std::accumulate`  
without a `using` statement at all
- When in a “.cpp” file, choose whichever you prefer.

# Prefer the C++ versions of standard C headers



- `#include <stdio.h> // Bad`  
`#include <cstdio> // Better`
- The C versions will sort-of work, but the C++ versions will more properly define signatures, so overload resolution, type-checking, etc. will be more robust
- If you have a C header with no C++-specific version (e.g., `unistd.h`), then of course use the C version

# Prefer C++-style casts to C style casts



- `A *a = (A *)&b; // bad`
- `A *a = dynamic_cast<A *>(&b);`

# Prefer C++-style casts to C style casts -- Rationale



- Let's look at two cases where they differ

```
struct X {...};
struct Y {...};
X *xp = new X;
Y *yp = (X *) (xp); // Nonsense
yp = dynamic_cast<Y *>(xp); // 0 shows cast failed
```

```
struct Z : public X {...};
struct W : public X {...};
struct A : public Z, public W {...};
W *wp = new A;
X *xp = wp; // OK. Inheritance
A *ap = (A *)xp; // Oops! Points in middle of A
ap = dynamic_cast<A *>(xp); // Adjusts for
                           // multiple inheritance
```

- In both cases, C++-style casts are better when they disagree



# Put const and volatile after type names



- “int const” is better and more consistent than “const int”
- Bjarne Stroustrup disagrees
- However, Dan Sachs’ ACCU “Truthiness” keynote argues this is the only rational conclusion one can reach, as it is both more logical and studies show that it leads to fewer bugs.

# Use nullptr instead of 0 to indicate a null pointer



- C++ adds a new literal `nullptr` of type `nullptr_t` that represents (surprise) a null pointer. Automatically converts to pointer types (and bool)

```
void f(char *) { /* ... */ }  
void f(int) { /* ... */ }
```

```
f(0); // OK. Calls f(int)
```

```
f(nullptr); // OK. Calls f(char *)
```

- Always prefer the type-correct `nullptr` over the type-incorrect `0` or `NULL` to avoid calling the wrong function/method.

# Define symmetric binary operators as global functions



- Don't use the member form of `operator+()`
  - Because both arguments should be treated the same
- However, do define `operator+=()` as a member
  - We don't want to `+=` to assign to a compiler-generated temporary

# Think about types inferred by templates



- What does this print?

```
double dp[] = { 0.1, 0.2, 0.3 };  
cout << accumulate(dp, dp + 3, 0);
```

# Think about types inferred by templates



- If you're accumulating doubles with `std::accumulate` use an initial value of `0.0` instead of `0`
  - Or you'll accumulate integers
- E.g.,

```
double dp[] = { 0.1, 0.2, 0.3 };  
cout << accumulate(dp, dp + 3, 0);
```

(surprisingly) prints 0

# Beware of Dependent base classes



- What does the following print?

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int f() { return 0; }
template<class T>
struct C : public T {
    C() { cout << f() << endl; }
};
struct A {
    int f() { return 1; }
};
int main()
{
    C<A> c;
}
```

# Dependent base classes: Surprising answer



- Microsoft Visual C++ prints 1
- g++ prints 0
- g++ is correct
- T is a “dependent base class”
  - A base class that depends on the template parameter
- Symbols are not looked up in dependent base classes, so templates are not surprised by unexpected inheritance

# Correct use of dependent base classes



- To see symbols in a dependent base class, reference it explicitly:

```
template<class T>
struct C : public T {
    C() { cout << T::f() << endl; }
};
```

- Alternatively

```
template<class T>
struct C : public T {
    using T::f;
    C() { cout << f() << endl; }
};
```

- Tristan's choice

```
template<class T>
struct C : public T {
    C() { cout << this->f() << endl; }
};
```

- If you want the global symbol:

```
template<class T>
struct C : public T {
    C() { cout << ::f() << endl; }
};
```





# Watch out for method hiding

```
struct B {  
    void f(bool i) { cout << "bool" << endl; }  
};  
  
struct D : public B {  
    // Fix with "using B::f"  
    void f(int b) { cout << "int" << endl; }  
};  
  
int main()  
{  
    D d;  
    d.f(true); // Prints "int"  
}
```

# Use override and final to indicate intent



- ```
struct Base {  
    virtual void func() = 0;  
    virtual void misspelledFunc() = 0;  
};  
struct Derived : public Base {  
    virtual void func() final {}  
    // This will give a useful error  
    // because we aren't actually  
    // overriding  
    virtual void misspelledFunc() override {}  
};  
struct MostDerived : public Derived {  
    // Error! Can't override final  
    virtual void func() { /*...*/ }  
};
```
- This will catch a lot of “method hiding” errors

# Throw exceptions by value catch them by (const) &



- ```
struct MyException : public exception {  
    MyException(string s)  
        : myS("My "+s), exception(s) {}  
    virtual char const *override what() {  
        return myS.c_str();  
    }  
    string myS;  
};  
void f() {  
    try {  
        throw MyException("foo");  
    } catch (exception e) { // Bad!  
//} catch (exception const &e) { // Better  
        cout << e.what(); // May crash due to slicing  
    }
```

# Never have a destructor throw an exception



- Does the following catch “In A” or “in f”?

```
struct A {  
    ~A() { throw runtime_error("In A"); }  
};  
void f()  
{  
    try {  
        A a;  
        throw runtime_error("in f");  
    } catch (exception const &) {  
    }  
}
```

- No good answer, so the runtime just calls `std::terminate` to end your program



# Use const appropriately

- Const methods should be const
- Const & arguments should be const
- The “const” keyword should go after the type
- ```
class A {  
    public:  
        void f(int const &i) const;  
};
```

# Use const appropriately-rationale



- Ignoring const is no longer an option
- ```
int seven() { return 7; }  
void pr_int(int &i) { cout << i; }  
void pr_int_const(int const &i) { cout << i; }  
pr_int(7); // Error  
pr_int(seven()); // Error on newer compilers  
pr_int_const(seven()); // OK
```
- Putting const on right prevents ambiguity
  - `const int *` looks like a constant “`int *`” but isn’t
  - `int const *` could only mean one thing
  - Studies show programmers make fewer mistakes with this rule



# Don't slice objects

- D inherits from B
- `D d;`  
`B b = d; // Almost certainly wrong`

# Use virtual destructors when you inherit



- ```
class A {  
    public:  
        // virtual ~A() {}  
};  
class B : public A {  
    public:  
        ~B() { ... }  
};  
A *ap = new B;  
delete ap; // Doesn't call B's dest
```





# Prefer templates to macros

- e.g., `min` should be a template but Microsoft Visual C++ defines it as a macro

# Don't make tricky assumptions about order of evaluation



```
struct S {  
    S(int i) : a(i), b(i++) {  
        f(i, i++) // Undefined behavior  
    }  
    int b;  
    int a;  
};
```

# Remember that primitive types have trivial constructors



```
void  
f()  
{  
    int i;  
    /* int i{}; // Fix with */  
    cout << i; // i contains garbage  
}
```

# Don't return a reference/pointer to a local variable



- ```
int &
f()
{
    int i = 3;
    return i; // Bad!
}
```

# Best practice—Prefer range member functions to their single-element counterparts



- Item 5 of Meyer's Effective STL
- Given two vectors, v1 and v2, what's the easiest way to make v1's contents be the same as the second half of v2's?
  - Don't worry whether v2 has an odd number of elements



# Worst (but common)

- `vector<Widget> v1, v2`  
...  
`for (vector<Widget>::const_iterator ci`  
    `= v2.begin() + v2.size() / 2;`  
    `ci != v2.end();`  
    `++ci) {`  
    `v1.push_back(*ci);`  
}

# Better



- `copy(v2.begin() + v2.size()/2, v2.end(), back_inserter(v1));`



# Better yet

- ```
v1.resize(v2.size() - v2.size()/2);  
  copy(v2.begin() + v2.size()/2,  
        v2.end(),  
        v1.begin());
```





# Even better

- `v1.insert`  
    `(v1.end(),`  
        `v2.begin() + v2.size() / 2,`  
        `v2.end());`

# Best



- `v1.assign(v2.begin() + v2.size()/2, v2.end());`

# Best Practice: Prefer `empty()` to `size() == 0`



- Suppose `l` is a `list<int>`
- Which is better?
  - `if (l.empty()) { ... }`
  - `if (l.size() == 0) { ... }`
- Prefer the `l.empty()`
- Calculating `size()` can take a long time
- Effective STL Item 4

# Recall the difference between virtual and non-virtual



- Review slides 32-35 of lecture 2
- This *will* be on the final

# Always use a smart pointer to manage the lifetime of an object



- `unique_ptr` if it has only one owner `shared_ptr` if it has multiple owners
- ```
Foo *fp(new Foo); // Bad  
unique_ptr<Foo> upfp(new Foo); // Good  
...  
delete fp; // May be missed if exception occurred
```
- More generally, use RAI to ensure resources get destroyed when they are no longer needed



# Avoid using “new ...”

- The problem with saying “`new A()`” is that it returns an owning raw pointer to the new object, violating the preceding best practice
- Prefer using `make_unique` and `make_shared` **instead**
- `auto ap = make_unique<Foo>(); // Best`



# Use RAII to manage locks

- Just like using smart pointers for objects, use a scoped locking class whose destructor releases the lock to make sure locks get released even when exceptions bypass normal control flow
  - Typically, this means to use the `std::lock_guard` class, like we do in the false sharing example
  - At work, I (Mike) just had a critical customer defect this week because manual unlocking code was bypassed by an exception.
    - Moral: Don't rely on manual unlocking code!



# Lock ordering

- If you want to avoid deadlocks, you want to acquire locks in the same order!
  - Suppose thread 1 acquires lock A and then lock B
  - Suppose thread 2 acquires lock B and then lock A
  - There is a window where we could deadlock with thread 1 owning lock A and waiting for lock B while thread 2 owns lock B and is waiting for lock A forever
- The usual best practice is to document an order on your locks and always acquire them consistent with that order
- See  
<http://www.ddj.com/hpc-high-performance-computing/204801163>



# Memory model best practices



- Here are the takeaways
  - Try to avoid sharing data between threads except when necessary
  - When you share data between threads, always use locks or atomics to ensure both threads have a coherent view of the shared data
- A good reference
  - Boehm, Adve, “*You Don’t Know Jack about Shared Variables of Memory Models: Data Races are Evil*” Communications of the ACM 55, 2 Feb. 2012
  - <http://queue.acm.org/detail.cfm?id=2088916>



# Make mutex members mutable

- ```
struct A {  
    int f() const {  
        lock_guard<mutex> lck(mtx);  
        return i + j;  
    }  
    int i;  
    int j;  
    // So const methods can lock  
    mutex mutable mtx;  
};
```



# Final

- Open book
- Open notes
- You can look at posted sample files, lecture notes, your past HW submissions and the standard
  - You will definitely want to have ready access to the best practice list above
- Do not use a compiler
- Do not use any other resources or google for answers to questions