

# CS11 – Introduction to C++

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Winter 2011-2012

Lecture 6

# How To Report Errors?

- C style of error reporting: return values
  - ❑ For C Standard Library/UNIX functions, 0 usually means success,  $< 0$  means error
  - ❑ Same for Windows API (**HRESULT** data type)
  - ❑ Additional error details must be stored elsewhere
- Not very informative!
  - ❑ Not all errors have the same details
- Propagating internal errors is also not clean
  - ❑ Enclosing function must explicitly pass along error
  - ❑ May accidentally mangle useful error information

# C++ Exception Handling

- A mechanism for handling errors at runtime
- Code that can detect a problem, but might not know how to handle it, can *throw* an exception.
  - The “exception” is a value describing what happened.
- Code that knows how to handle the problem *catches* the exception.
  - Could be the immediate caller of the function, but it doesn't have to be.
  - Caught exception specifies what happened to cause the problem.
- Complementary to other error-handling approaches, e.g. assertions.

# Throwing Exceptions

- An exception is a value describing the error
  - Could be any object, or even a primitive!
  - Usually a specific class (or set of classes) is used for representing errors
    - C++ Standard Library provides exception classes
    - People often create their own, too
  - Exception's *type* usually indicates the general kind of error
- Example:

```
double computeValue(double x) {  
    if (x < 3.0)  
        throw invalid_argument("x must be >= 3.0");  
  
    return 0.5 * sqrt(x - 3.0);  
}
```

# Catching Exceptions

- To catch an exception, use a try-catch block

```
double x;  
cout << "Enter value for x:  ";  
cin >> x;  
try {  
    double result = computeValue(x);  
    cout << "Result is " << result << endl;  
}  
catch (invalid_argument) {  
    cout << "An invalid value was entered." << endl;  
}
```

- ❑ Code within `try` block *might* throw exceptions
- ❑ Specify what kind of exception can be handled at start of `catch` block

# Using Caught Exceptions

- Can name the caught exception:

```
double x;  
cout << "Enter value for x:  ";  
cin >> x;  
try {  
    double result = computeValue(x);  
    cout << "Result is " << result << endl;  
}  
catch (invalid_argument &e) {  
    cout << "Error:  " << e.what() << endl;  
}
```

- This is better – can pass details of error in the exception
- All C++ standard exception classes have **what()** function

# More Exception Details

```
try {  
    double result = computeValue(x);  
    cout << "Result is " << result << endl;  
}  
catch (invalid_argument &e) {  
    cout << "Error:  " << e.what() << endl;  
}
```

- If `computeValue()` throws, execution transfers *immediately* to `catch` handler
  - “Result is...” operation is skipped.
- Usual variable scoping rules apply to `try` and `catch` blocks
  - Scope of `result` is only within `try` block
    - `catch`-block cannot refer to variables declared within `try`-block
  - Scope of `e` is only within `catch` block

# Catching Multiple Exceptions

- Can specify multiple catch blocks after a single try block

```
try {  
    performTask(config);  
}  
catch (invalid_argument &ia) {    // Invalid args.  
    cout << ia.what() << endl;  
}  
catch (bad_alloc &ba) {           // Out of memory.  
    cout << "Ran out of memory." << endl;  
}  
catch (exception &e) {           // Something else???  
    cout << "Caught another standard exception:  "  
        << e.what() << endl;  
}
```

- Order matters! *First* matching catch-block is chosen.
- *Only one* catch block is executed.



# Handlers that Throw

- **catch** blocks can also throw exceptions, if necessary

```
try {  
    runOperation();  
}  
catch (ProcessingError &pe) {  
    if (!recover())  
        throw FatalError("Couldn't recover!");  
}  
catch (FatalError &fe) {  
    // Called when runOperation() throws, but  
    // not when a previous catch block throws.  
    cerr << "Couldn't compute!" << endl;  
}
```

- If **ProcessingError** catch-block throws *another* exception, it propagates out of entire try/catch block
  - Only exceptions thrown within the **try** block are handled

# Catching Everything...

- To catch *everything*, use `...` for the exception type

```
try {  
    doSomethingRisky();  
}  
catch (...) { // Catches ANY kind of exception  
    cout << "Hmm, caught something..." << endl;  
}
```
- Problem: no type information about the exception!
  - Limits its general usefulness
- Usually used when code needs to guarantee that *no* exceptions can escape from the **try**-block
- Also used in test code, for verifying exception-throwing behavior of functions

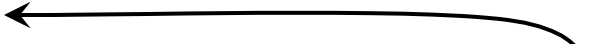
# Exception Propagation

```
Obj3D * findObject(int objID) {  
    Obj3D *pObj = ...    // Find the object  
    if (pObj == 0)  
        throw BadObjectID(objID);  
    return pObj;  
}  
  
void rotateObject(int objID, float angle) {  
    Matrix m;  
    // This could throw, but let the exception propagate  
    Obj3D *pObj = findObject(objID);  
    m.setRotateX(angle);  
    pObj->transform(m);  
}
```

- If `findObject()` throws an exception:
  - The function stops executing where the exception is thrown
  - Its local variables are cleaned up automatically

# Exception Propagation (2)

```
Obj3D * findObject(int objID) {  
    Obj3D *pObj = ...    // Find the object  
    if (pObj == 0)  
        throw BadObjectID(objID);  
    return pObj;  
}
```

```
void rotateObject(int objID, float angle) {  
    Matrix m;   
    // This could throw, but let the exception propagate  
    Obj3D *pObj = findObject(objID);  
    m.setRotateX(angle);  
    pObj->transform(m);  
}
```

m's destructor is called  
automatically when an  
exception is thrown

- `rotateObject()` doesn't try to catch any exceptions!
  - If `findObject()` throws, it will propagate out of `rotateObject()`
  - `rotateObject()` will also stop executing where exception occurs

# Exceptions and Functions

- If an exception is not caught within a function, that function terminates.
  - Local variables go out of scope...
  - They are cleaned up via destructor calls, as usual
- If the calling function doesn't handle the exception, it also terminates.
  - ...and so forth, all the way up the stack...
  - This is called “stack unwinding”
- If **main()** doesn't handle the exception, the entire program terminates.

# Catching Exceptions

- Catch a *reference* to the exception
  - Exceptions are passed *by-value* if **catch**-block doesn't use a reference

```
try {  
    riskyBusiness();  
}  
catch (MyException e) {  
    ...  
}
```
  - The exception is copied into **e** when it is caught
  - Using “**MyException &e**” passes the exception by reference
- Several other good reasons to catch by reference!
  - See More Effective C++, Item 13, for even more details...

# Exceptions and Destructors

- Arrays of objects:

  - `MyClass *array = new MyClass[100];`

  - Individual objects are initialized using default constructor
  - `delete[] array;`
  - `MyClass` destructor is called on each object, then array memory is reclaimed

- What happens if one of the destructor calls throws an exception?

  - Entire clean-up process is derailed! Memory leaks!

- Class destructors should *never* throw exceptions.

  - If any code in destructor *could* throw, wrap with `try/catch` block. Don't let it propagate out of the destructor!
  - (C++ standard says `delete` and `delete[]` won't throw.)

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# Other Exception Tips

- Exceptions are usually *not* caught by the same function that they are thrown in
    - Exceptions are usually used to signal *to the function's caller* when an operation fails
  - If you have a function that throws exceptions to itself
    - The function may be too large and should probably be broken into several functions
    - Or, exceptions may not be appropriate for what you are doing!
  - Exception handling is a complex subject
    - Only scratched the surface here...
    - Take Advanced C++ track, and/or get some good books!
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# Exceptions vs. Assertions

- When to use exceptions instead of assertions?
  - ...and when assertions instead of exceptions?
- Assertions are usually only available during *your* software development
  - Usually compiled out of a program or library before it is given to customers/peers/etc.
  - Diagnosing an assertion failure requires access to the source code – not always possible, or even desirable!
- Exceptions are part of a program's *public interface*
  - They are *not* compiled out of a program before others use your code
  - Other people developing against your code may want or need to handle your exceptions

# Exceptions vs. Assertions (2)

- Use assertions when:
  - ❑ Checking for your own programming bugs
  - ❑ Checking arguments for internal/private functions
  - ❑ No third party will ever call your API or want to know about the errors being detected
- Use exceptions when:
  - ❑ You are releasing a public API for others to use
  - ❑ Third parties may want/need to handle your API's errors
- Always document what exceptions are thrown, and the situations that cause them to be thrown!
  - ❑ Just as important as documenting what functions do, and what their arguments are for!

# Generic Programming

- A lot of concepts are independent of data type
  - Example: your **SparseVector** class
  - How to use it with **float**, **double**, ... data?
  - Or, another class data type, like **complex**?
- One “solution” – copy the code.
  - **FloatSparseVector**, **ComplexSparseVector**, ...
  - A maintenance nightmare!
- The C solution: use untyped pointers – **void\***
  - Can point to a value of any type, but all type-checking disappears!

# C++ Templates

- C++ introduces templates
  - Allows a class or function to be parameterized on types and constants
- A template isn't itself a class or function...
  - More like a *pattern* for classes or functions
- To use a template, you instantiate it by supplying the template parameters
  - The result is a class or a function
  - “Generating a class/function from the template.”

# A Simple Template Example

- Our **Point** class, which uses **double** values

```
class Point {  
    double x_coord, y_coord;  
public:  
    Point() : x_coord(0), y_coord(0) {}  
    Point(double x, double y) : x_coord(x), y_coord(y) {}  
    double getX() const { return x_coord; }  
    void setX(double x) { x_coord = x; }  
    ...  
};
```

- Want to have points with **int** coordinates, or **float** coordinates, or ...
- Let's make it a template!

# The **Point** Class-Template

```
template<typename T> class Point {  
    T x_coord, y_coord;  
public:  
    Point() : x_coord(0), y_coord(0) {}  
    Point(T x, T y) : x_coord(x), y_coord(y) {}  
    T getX() const { return x_coord; }  
    void setX(T x) { x_coord = x; }  
    ...  
};
```

- Parameterized on coordinate-type, named **T**
  - Instead of **double**, just say **T** instead
  - “**typename T**” means any type – primitives or classes
  - Can use **class** instead of **typename** (means same thing)
    - “**class**” is a bit confusing since it also allows primitives

# Where Templates Live

- Templates generally live *entirely* in **.hh** files
  - Unlike normal classes, *no* code in **.cc** files
  - Code that uses a template must see the entire template definition
  - C++ compilers treat them like big macros...
    - ...with type-checking and many other capabilities.
- So, **Point** template goes into **Point.hh**
  - *All* **Point** code goes into **Point.hh**
  - No more **Point.cc**, now that it's a template

# Using Our **Point** Template

- Using the template is just as easy:

```
Point<float> pF(3.2, 5.1); // Float coordinates
```

- “**T** means **float** everywhere in **Point** template”
- The class’ name is **Point<float>**

- Now we want a **Point** with integers

```
Point<int> pInt(15, 6); // Integer coordinates
```

- “**T** means **int** everywhere in **Point** template”
- The class’ name is **Point<int>**

- C++ makes a whole new class for each unique template instantiation



# What Types Can **Point** Use?

```
template<typename T>
class Point {
    T x_coord, y_coord;
public:
    Point() : x_coord(0), y_coord(0) {}
    Point(T x, T y) : x_coord(x), y_coord(y) {}
    T getX() const { return x_coord; }
    void setX(T x) { x_coord = x; }
    ...
};
```

- In *this* template, can only use certain types for **T**!
  - ❑ **T** must support initialization to 0
  - ❑ **T** must support copy-construction
  - ❑ **T** must support assignment

# Enhancing the **Point** Template

- Now let's add the `distanceTo()` function.

```
template<typename T>
class Point {
    ...
    T distanceTo(const Point<T> &other) const {
        T dx = x_coord - other.getX();
        T dy = y_coord - other.getY();
        return (T) sqrt((double) (dx * dx + dy * dy));
    }
};
```

- Now, *what else* must **T** support??
  - Addition, subtraction, and multiplication!
  - Casting from **T** to **double**, and casting from **double** to **T**
  - The types we can use for **T** are pretty constrained now.

# Template Gotcha #1

- A major problem with templates:
  - You can't *explicitly* state the requirements of what operations  $\mathbb{T}$  must support.
- If someone uses a template with a type that doesn't support the required operations:
  - You just see a bunch of cryptic compiler errors.
- When you write templates:
  - Clearly document what operations the template-parameters must support.
- If you use STL much, you will learn these things. 😊

# Other Template Parameters

## ■ Can parameterize on constant values

```
template<int size> class CircularQueue {  
    char buf[size]; // Static allocation  
    int head, tail;  
public:  
    CircularQueue() : head(0), tail(0) {}  
    ...  
};
```

- ❑ **size** is a constant value, known at compile-time
- ❑ Can declare different size circular queues

```
CircularQueue<1024> bigbuf;  
CircularQueue<16> tinybuf;
```
- ❑ No dynamic memory management
  - Faster, smaller, easier to maintain

# Multiple Template Parameters

- Can specify multiple parameters

```
template<typename T, int size>
class CircularQueue {
    T buffer[size];
    int head, tail;
    ...
};
```

- Parameters can also refer to previous parameters

```
template<typename T, T default> class SparseVector {
    ...
    // Return value at index, or default value.
    T getElem(int index) {...}
};
```

- Now 0 doesn't have to be the default value

# Large Functions in Templates

- Sometimes template-class functions are big
  - Can put them after template-class declaration
  - (Just like an inline member function declaration)
  - Must still declare like a template

```
template<typename T> class Point {  
    ...  
    T distanceTo(const Point<T> &other) const;  
};  
  
template<typename T> inline  
T Point<T>::distanceTo(const Point<T> &other) const {  
    ...  
}
```

# Templates of Templates

- A template param can be another template

- A vector of 20 Points:

- ```
vector<Point<float> > pointVect(20);
```

- Note the space between two > characters!

- Compilers usually barf if there isn't a space:

- ```
vector<Point<float>> pointVect(20); // BAD!!!
```

- g++ is nice about it, though:

- ```
error: `>>' should be `> >' within a nested template  
argument list
```

# This Week's Lab

- Create a C++ class template from a collection written in C
- Report illegal uses by throwing exceptions
  - Internally, code will still use assertions to check for correctness issues
- Write some simple test code
  - Do some basic testing of template's correctness
  - Verify exception-handling behavior with test code
  - Try storing objects in your template too