

Queens' College Cambridge

# Programming in C and C++



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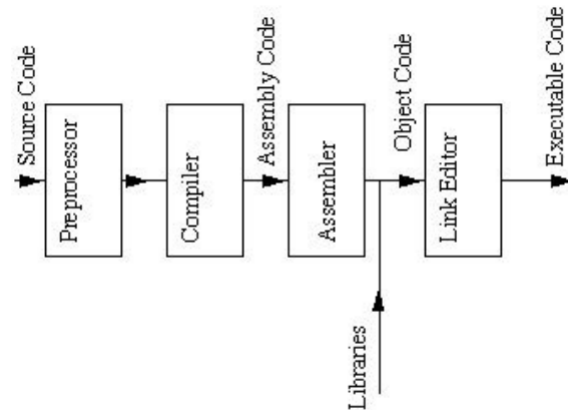
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# 1 The C Language

## 1.1 The C Compiler



### 1.1.1 The Pre-Processor

- Performs purely *string-based* operations on C source code using *pre-processor* directives.
- `#define` directive:
  - Syntax:  

```
#define <macro_name> <replacement>
```
  - All occurrences of `<macro_name>` (not in strings) are replaced w/ `<replacement>`.

- **Note:** Brackets for expressions. `do/while(0)` trick for statements.
- `#undef` directive:
  - Syntax: `#undef <macro_name>`
  - Undefines a macro w/ name `<macro_name>`
  - Used for *local* macros
- `#include` directive:
  - Syntax: `#include location where location ::= filepath | <filepath>`
  - `filepath` is a *relative filepath* from *current file*. `<filepath>` is a filepath from an *include directory* predefined via `-I` option (used for `stdlib` + project headers).
  - Copies contents from file w/ `filepath` into current file.
- Conditional directives:
  - `#if e ... #endif` directives: `e` is a constant expression (compile-time evaluated) of integer type. If `e` evaluates to non-zero integer  $\implies$  retain text between `#if` and `#endif` directives.
  - `defined(<macro_name>)` predicate: returns non-zero if `<macro_name>` is defined (in current scope).

$\#ifdef\ <macro\_name>\triangleq\ \#if\ defined(<macro\_name>)$  $\#ifndef\ <macro\_name>\triangleq\ \#if\ !defined(<macro\_name>)$
- `#include-pattern`:
  - Define header file:

```
// header.h
#ifndef HEADER_H
#define HEADER_H

...

#endif // HEADER_H
```

- Prevents double-declaration when using includes.

- Error control:

- `#error "<string>"` directive: raises a preprocessor error if executed.
- `__LINE__` and `__FILE__` store the current line and filename. Used for debugging. e.g:

```
#define panic(...) kernel_panic(__FILE__, __LINE__,  
                                __func__, ##__VA_ARGS__)
```

- String manipulation:

- Stringizing operator `#`: applied to `#define`-d macro parameters in `<replacement>` creates string containing parameter source-code e.g.

```
#define PRINT_EXPR(e) printf("%s = %d.", #e, eval(e))
```

- Token-pasting operator `##`: concatenates tokens together:

```
#define JOIN(a, b) (a ## b)
```

- Consecutive string literals are concatenated:

```
"Hello" "World"
```

### 1.1.2 Object Files

**Definition 1.1.1. (Object File)** An object file is the output of a compiler/assembler containing *position independent assembly/machine code*

- Output of the assembler phase of C compiler.
- Compiled code but contains metadata for linking to an *executable file*.
- *Segmentation*: object files split into sections. Sections are used by *loader* and *linker*.
  - **header**: Contains descriptive information for object file w/ offsets to other segments.

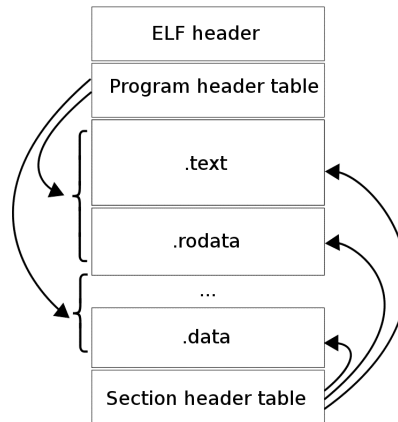
- `.text` segment: Contains the compiled assembly w/ position independent labels
- `.data` segment: Initialized `static` / `global` variables.
- `.rodata` segment: Initialized `const static` variables / constants
- `.bss` segment: Uninitialized `static` variables
- `.strtab` segment: Stores string literals
- `.symtab` segment: Stores visibility of each declaration, declaration name (pointer to `.strtab` section), section index and virtual address (in section).

### 1.1.3 Linking

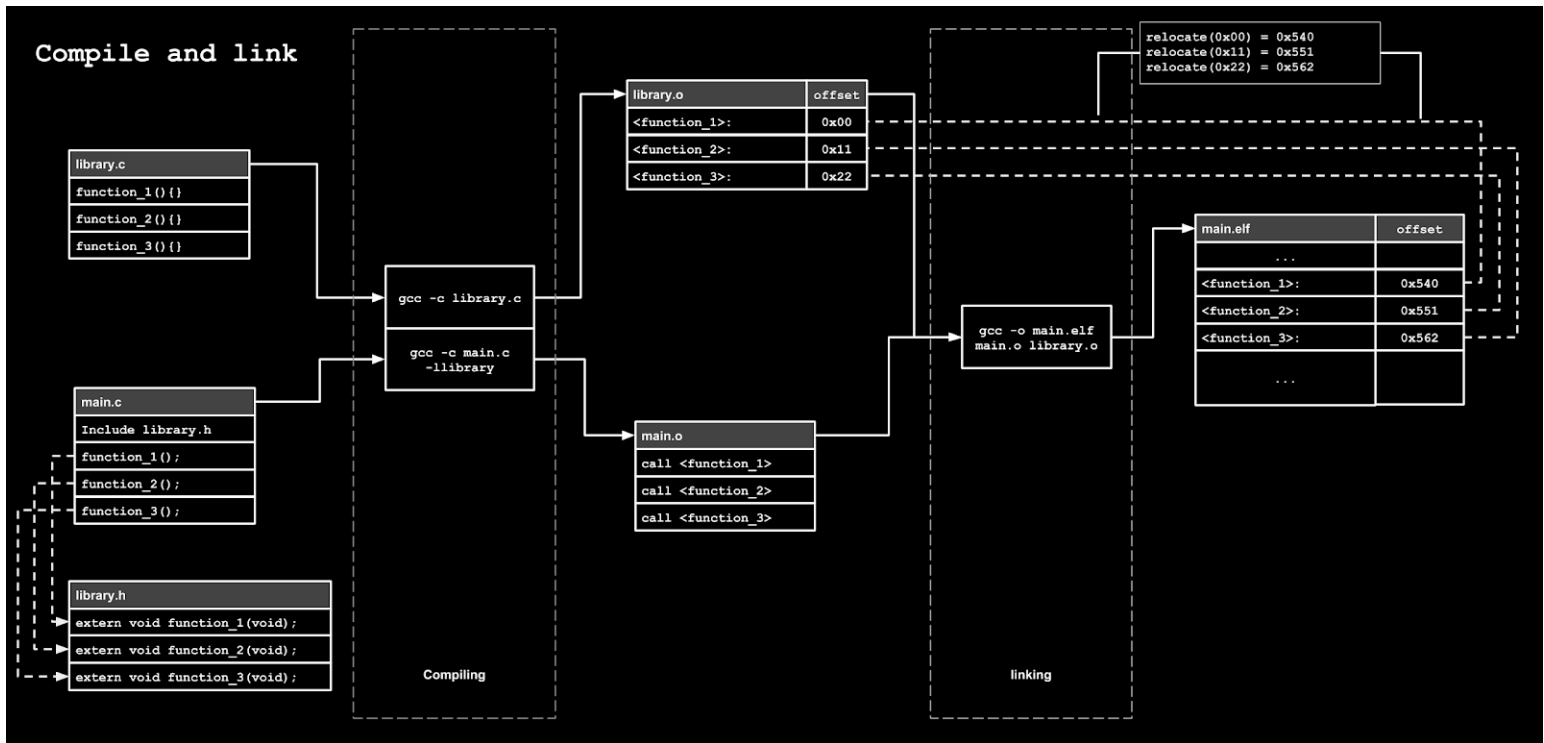
- Compiling multiple files  $\implies$  multiple separate *object files*.

**Definition 1.1.2. (Linking)** Linking is the process of combining (*linking*) many object files to form an *executable* (binary).

- ELF (Executable and Linkable Format): standard UNIX representation of C object files (and executables)



- Segmentation approach: merge individual approach (calculating linked addresses)

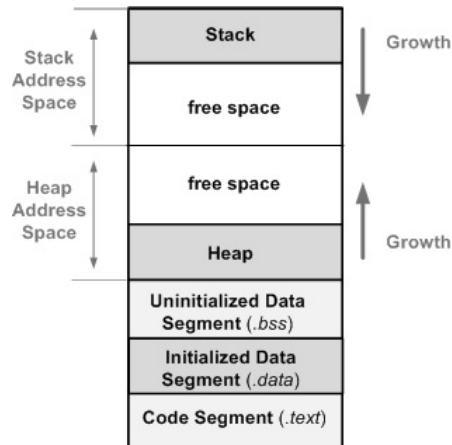


- Linking `.text`:
  - Object containing `main` function is placed w/ offset 0 in linked `.text` section
  - Other `.text` sections relocated w/ offsets after `main .text` section. `.symtab` is used to determine offsets (and addresses) of external labels.

### 1.1.4 Runtime Memory Layout

- A *loader* loads an executable into a process address space w/ the following layout:





- **Note:** The stack grows down and the heap grows up.

## 1.2 Syntax and Semantics

### 1.2.1 Primitive Types and Modifiers

- C has 4 primitive types:

Primitive Types	Size	Description
char	$\geq 8$ bits	Smallest data type
int	$\geq 16$ bits	Stores <i>integers</i> (and characters using ASCII)
float	<i>unspecified</i> ( $\sim 32$ -bit)	Basic integer type, stores integers in range $[-2^{15}, 2^{15} - 1]$
double	<i>unspecified</i> ( $\sim 64$ -bit)	Single precision floating point type
		Double precision floating point type

- C has 4 *type* modifiers: **signed**, **unsigned**, **short** and **long**

Type	Size	Description
signed char	$\geq 8$ bits	Stores integers in range $[-127, 127]$
unsigned char	$\geq 8$ bits	Stores integers in range $[0, 255]$
short short int signed short signed short int	$\geq 16$ bits	Short integer, stores integers in range $[-2^{15}, 2^{15} - 1]$
unsigned short unsigned short int	$\geq 16$ bits	Stores integers in range $[0, 2^{16}]$
long long int signed long signed long int	$\geq 32$ bits	Long signed integers. Stores integers in range $[-2^{31}, 2^{31} - 1]$
unsigned long unsigned long int	$\geq 32$ bits	Long unsigned integers. Stores integers in range $[0, 2^{32}]$
long long long long int signed long long signed long long int	$\geq 64$ bits	Long long signed integers. Stores integers in range $[-2^{63}, 2^{63} - 1]$
unsigned long long unsigned long long int	$\geq 64$ bits	Long long unsigned integers. Stores integers in range $[0, 2^{64}]$
long double	<i>unspecified</i> ( $\sim 98$ , or 128 bits)	Extended precision floating point

- `long` widens the types. `short` narrows the types.
- C99 standard defines fixed-width integer types `<stdint.h>`:
  - `intn_t` and `uintn_t` for  $n \in \{8, 16, 32, 64\}$
  - `intptr_t` and `uintptr_t`
  - `intmax_t` and `uintmax_t`
- Literals:

Type	Literals	Examples
<code>char</code>	See <code>int</code>	
<code>int</code>	Decimal, ASCII, hexadecimal, binary or octal	12, 'a', 0x34
<code>long</code>	Add L suffix	12L
<code>float</code>	Uses . or e/E with f suffix	12.0f
<code>double</code>	Uses . or e/E	12.0

## 1.2.2 Variables and Modifiers

**Definition 1.2.1. (Declaration and Definition)** A *declaration* provides a variables *type* and *identifier*. A definition reserves a memory location for a *declaration*

- Variables (and functions) are *declared* before use and *defined once*.
- C variables are often declared and defined simulatenously:

```
// In global scope: declares and defines x
int64_t x;

// In local scope: declares and defines y
void main() {
    int64_t y;
}
```

- Variables may be optionally *initialized*:

```
int64_t x = 1;
```

- C variables have 4 variable modifiers:
  - 2 scoping modifiers: `extern` and `static`
  - 2 optimization modifiers: `const`, `volatile`

`extern`:

- Declares the variable *but* doesn't define it. Used for code reuse between object files.
- If the linker cannot find a unique definition for declared variable  $\implies$  linker error.
- *All declarations in global scope are implicitly `extern`.*

```
// global scope: declares variable x
extern int x;

void main() {
    // declares variable x (points to global definition)
    extern int x;
    ...
}
```

`static`:

- In global scope: `static` limits the variable declaration to the *current* object file. (not placed in symbol table after compilation). Like a `private` modifier.
  - In local scope: `static` variable values persist between function invocations (unlike non-static variables whose values are lost after `return`). Like `static` modifier from Java. Similar to global variable, however scope is limited to the function.
  - Stored in `.data` segment (or `.bss` if uninitialized)
- `const`: Value of variable cannot change during runtime. Initialized once. Used for optimization (and function parameters that indicate immutability).
  - `volatile`: Value of variable can be modified by *non-local* code (or hardware) e.g. MMIO / Kernel. Used to prevent *unsound optimizations*.

### 1.2.3 Operators

- C has arithmetic, bitwise and boolean (logical) operators.
- Infix notation is used  $\implies$  precedence (and associativity)

Precedence	Associativity	Operator	Description
0	Left	<code>++ --</code>	Postfix increment and decrement
		<code>()</code>	Function call
		<code>[]</code>	Array subscripting
		<code>.</code>	Structure / union member access
		<code>-&gt;</code>	Structure / union member access via pointer
1	Right	<code>++ --</code>	Prefix increment and decrement
		<code>+ -</code>	Unary positive / negation
		<code>! ~</code>	Boolean and bitwise <b>not</b>
		<code>(<math>\tau</math>) e</code>	Type casting
		<code>* &amp;</code>	Dereference and Address-of
		<code>sizeof</code>	Size-of type
2	Left	<code>* / %</code>	Multiplication, Division and modulo
3	Left	<code>+ -</code>	Addition and subtraction
4	Left	<code>&lt;&lt; &gt;&gt;</code>	Bitwise left and right shifts
5	Left	<code>&lt; &lt;=</code>	<code>&lt;</code> and <code><math>\leq</math></code> relations
		<code>&gt; &gt;=</code>	<code>&gt;</code> and <code><math>\geq</math></code> relations
6	Left	<code>== !=</code>	<code>=</code> and <code><math>\neq</math></code> relations
7	Left	<code>&amp;</code>	Bitwise and
7	Left	<code>^</code>	Bitwise xor
8	Left	<code> </code>	Bitwise or
9	Left	<code>&amp;&amp;</code>	Logical and
10	Left	<code>  </code>	Logical or

- If operators have the same precedence then associativity is used to determine AST w/ left-to-right parsing. (See compilers)
- Closure of operators over variables  $V \implies$  set of expressions (denoted  $e$ ).
- Assignment `=` is an expression: returns value assigned.

- Sequential expressions:

$$e_1, \dots, e_n$$

Evaluates  $e_1$  to  $e_n$  (left to right order), evaluating to value of  $e_n$ .

- Ternary operator:

$$e_1 \text{ ? } e_2 \text{ : } e_3$$

Evaluates  $e_1$ , if non-zero then evaluate to  $e_2$  else  $e_3$ .  $e_1$  has an integer type.

### 1.2.4 Statements and Control Flow

- Statements (denoted  $s$ ) :

- An *expression statement* is of the form:  $s ::= e$ ;
- An *compound or block statement* is of the form:

$$s ::= \{ (s \mid \text{declaration } d;)* \}$$

- Control flow also defines the set of expressions.

- if-statements:

- Syntax:

$$\text{if } (e) \ s_1 \ \text{else } s_2$$

where  $s_1$  is the *then*-statement and  $s_2$  is the *else*-statement.

- $e$  must have an integer type.  $s_1$  is executed if  $e$  evaluates to a non-zero integer.

- switch-statements:

- Syntax:

```
switch (e) {
    case  $e'_1$ :  $s_1$ 
    ...
    case  $e'_n$ :  $s_n$ 
    default:  $s_d$ 
}
```

$e$  has an integer type.  $e'_i$  are *constant expressions* (evaluated at compile time).

- Evaluate  $e$ . Match  $e$  w/ case compile-time evaluated  $e'_i$  (value  $v_i$ ), then execute case statement  $s_i$ . If no matches, execute  $s_d$  (default case).
- Statement **break**:: breaks out of the enclosing **switch**. Fall-through behavior implemented: No break in  $s_i \implies$  other case statements  $s_j$   $j > i$  are executed.

- while-loops:

- Syntax:

**while** ( $e$ )  $s$

- $e$  has integer type. Evaluate  $e$ , if non-zero execute  $s$  and repeat.
- Statement **break**; breaks out of the enclosing **while**-loop
- Statement **continue**; Jumps to the end of the loop body.

- for-loops:

$$\text{for } (e_1; e_2; e_3) s \triangleq \begin{array}{l} e_1; \\ \text{while } (e_2) \{ \\ \quad s; \\ \quad e_3; \\ \} \end{array}$$

- do-while-loops:

$$\text{do } s \text{ while } (e); \triangleq \begin{array}{l} s \\ \text{while } (e) s \end{array}$$

- goto

- Syntax:

**goto**  $l$ ;

$l$  is a label. Label statements:  $s ::= \ell$ :

- Unconditional jump to statements prefixed by label statement  $l$  .:

## 1.2.5 Arrays and Strings

**Definition 1.2.2. (Array)** An array  $\tau\ x[n]$  is a block of memory of size  $\text{sizeof}(\tau) * n$

- Array declaration:  
 $\tau\ x[n];$
- Array definition:
  - In global scope: allocated to `.data` (if initialized w/ `{ ... } / "..."`) (or `.bss`).
  - In local scope: allocated on the *stack*
- If uninitialized *and* in local scope: *must* zero the array using `memset`.
- Indexing:
  - Indexed at 0. No runtime bounds checking
  - $x[e]$  where  $e$  has integer type.

**Definition 1.2.3. (String)** A string is a *null terminated character array*

- String syntax: `"Hello World"` (standard escape chars).
- String declaration:  

```
char_t str[] = "Hello World"
char_t str[n] = "Hello"
```

  
where  $n \geq 6 = 5 + 1$ .
- String functions defined in `<string.h>`: `strcpy`, `strcat`, `strlen`, `strcmp`.
- Pre-Processor supports additional string manipulation. See section ??.



## 1.2.6 Pointers

**Definition 1.2.4. (Pointer)** A pointer is an address to memory.

- $\text{sizeof}(\tau^*)$  = width of the address bus in bytes.
- Address-of operator:  $\&x$ , address of variable / function.
- Dereference operator:  $*e$ ,  $e$  has a pointer type.
- Pointer declaration:

$\tau$  \* modifiers  $x$ ;

where **modifiers** ::= **const** | **volatile** .  $*$  binds to the variable and modifiers, *not the type*  $\tau$ .

- **Pointer Arithmetic:**

- Pointer operators: ++ -- + -
- Arithmetic:

$\text{ptr\_}x \oplus e = (\tau^*)((\text{int})\text{ptr\_}x \oplus e * \text{sizeof}(\tau))$

Units are known as  $\tau$ -positions.

- Pointers may be compared using operators:

== != > >= < <=

- **Function Pointers:**

- Functions have pointer types w/ declaration:

$\tau$  (\* $x$ )( $\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n$ );

Type definitions:

typedef  $\tau$  (\*function\_t)( $\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n$ );

- Invoking function pointer:

(\* $x$ )( $e_1, \dots, e_n$ )

- **Relation to Arrays:**

- Pointers used to implement array operations:

$$\tau \ x[n];$$

$$x \triangleq \&x[0]$$

$$x[e] \triangleq *(x + e) \equiv *(\&x[0] + e)$$

- **Distinction:** Array refers to the block of memory. Identifier of the array  $x$  is a *pointer* to the start of the block of memory  $\implies$  “pass-by-reference” implementation for arrays (via pointers implicitly).

- Void pointers:

- All pointers may be (implicitly) converted to `void` pointers.
- `void*` denotes a pointer to object of *unknown type*. Used to implement “unsafe polymorphic” / allocator functions.

- Null pointers:

- Pointers without an *initialized* address.
- Special value `NULL` (typically 0) (trapped by the OS).

### 1.2.7 Functions

**Definition 1.2.5. (Function)** A function is a *labelled* block code that returns a value

- Declaration:

$$\tau \ x(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n);$$

*Optional identifiers in declaration for parameters*

- Definition:

$$\tau \ x(\tau_1 \ x_1, \dots, \tau_n \ x_n) \ s$$

- Call-by-value (“pass-by-value”) *semantics* (w/ the exception of arrays (which implicitly used *pointers*))

- `void` is used to denote:
  - no return type. Used to implement *procedures*
  - no arguments

```
// no return
void foo(int x);
```

```
// no arguments
int zero(void);
```

- **Note:** `()` denotes *no type checking* applied to function declaration / definition parameters.
- Variable arguments use `...` syntax. See `<stdarg.h>`.

## 1.2.8 Structures, Unions and Enumerations

**Definition 1.2.6. (Structure)** A structure in C is a collection of one or more members (associated w/ a field) defined as a single block of memory referenced by a single variable.

- Declaration:

```
struct x {
     $\tau_1$   $x_1$ ;
    ...
};
```

Tag  $x$  declares a *new type* `struct x`:

```
// variable  $y$  w/ struct  $x$  type
struct x  $y$ ;
```

- Definition: allocated as a contiguous block of memory of size `sizeof(struct x)` bytes.

$$\text{sizeof}(\text{struct } x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{sizeof}(\tau_i)$$

Struct types may be used *anonymously* (inlined) in declarations:

```

struct {
     $\tau_1$   $x_1$ ;
    ...
}  $y$ ;

```

- Initialization:

```

struct foo { int  $y$  };

struct foo  $x$  = { 1 }; // compound literals
struct foo  $x$  = { . $y$ =1 }; // or

struct foo  $x$ ;
foo_init(& $x$ , 1); // constructor like procedure

```

- Common to use pointers to structs: `struct foo * $x$ ;`
- Operators:

– Member access:  $e.x$ :

```

struct foo  $x$  = { 1 };
 $x.y$ ; // evaluates to 1

```

– Member access via pointer:  $e \rightarrow x$ .  $e$  has a pointer type.

$$e \rightarrow x \triangleq (*e).x$$

- Structs may be recursive (via pointers):

```

typedef struct tree {
    int label;
    struct tree *left;
    struct tree *right;
} tree_t;

```

**Definition 1.2.7. (Typedef Declaration)** A typedef declaration provides a way of declaring a *type-alias*

- Declaration:

```
typedef  $\tau$  x_t;
```

$x\_t$  is an alias of  $\tau$ .

- **Bit Fields:**

- `struct` fields may have a defined *bit length*:

```
struct {
    ...
     $\tau$  x: n
}
```

$n$ -bit field of type  $\tau$ .

- Used for low-level representations. Useful for limited memory.
- Bit field members have *no address* (since fields are not byte aligned).
- Padding is often used by the compiler  $\implies$  dangerous to use bit fields (use macros w/ shifts)

**Definition 1.2.8. (Union Type)** A union type is a type that may have several types  $\{\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n\}$ .

A value of a union type represents a value of type  $\tau_i$ . This value (and member type  $\tau_i$ ) may change during the runtime of the program.

- Declaration:

```
union x {
     $\tau_1$  x1; // member
    ...
}
```

Tag adds `union x` type. (Union types may also be inlined).

- All members of a union are mapped to the same address:  $\&(x.x_i) == \&(x.x_j)$
- Definition: All members of the union share the same block of memory of size `sizeof(union x)`:

$$\text{sizeof}(\text{union } x) = \max \{ \text{sizeof}(\tau_i) : 1 \leq i \leq n \}$$

- Address mapping  $\implies$  altering value of 1 member alters value of all other members.
- Programs must ensure unions are handled w/ correct type conversion  $\implies$  tagged union structure:

```
typedef struct {
    tagged_union_type_t type;

    union {
        struct {
             $\tau_{11}$   $x_{11}$ ;
            ...
        }
        ...
    }
} tagged_union_t
```

**Definition 1.2.9. (Enum Type)** An enumeration type is a type whose values have an underlying *integer* representation.

- Declaration:

```
enum x {
     $x_1=e_1$ , // notice comma
    ...
}
```

$x_i$  constant identifier.  $e_i$  is a *constant expression* (compile type evaluated).  $e_i$  are optional  $\implies x_i$  is assign value enumeration value  $i - 1$  (starting at 0).

$x_i$  must be *distinct* but  $e_i$  may be equal.

- `bool` is a enum type (C has no primitive `bool` type):

```
typedef enum {
    false,
    true
} bool;
```

## 1.3 Unspecified and Undefined Behavior

**Definition 1.3.1. (Unspecified Behavior)** Unspecified behavior is defined as behavior, for a well-formed program w/ correct data, the *depends* on the *implementation* of the C Compiler.

- *or* the C standard provides two or more possibilities, *but* does not impose requirements on which behavior should be implemented.
- Unspecified behavior  $\implies$  compiler implementers have more platform specific freedom. e.g. ability to utilize parallelism etc.
- Unspecified behavior makes the C standard more adoptable for different platforms
- **Examples:** Order of evaluation of infix operators e.g.  $f() + g()$ . Order of evaluation of function arguments.
- C compiler implementation documents the *implementation-defined behavior* (not necessary for *unspecified behavior*).

**Definition 1.3.2. (Undefined Behavior)** Undefined behavior is behavior, for a erroneous program (or data), that depends on the implementation of the C compiler.

- Undefined behavior is due to platform dependent features e.g. arithmetic
- Undefined behavior *is specified* by the C standard  $\implies$  compilers may optimize code w/ undefined behavior. e.g.  $(\text{INT\_MAX} + 1) < 0$  is optimized to 0.
- **Examples:** Integer overflow. Dereferencing a null pointer.

## 2 Assorted C Topics

### 2.1 Dynamic Memory Allocation

- C Dynamic Memory Allocation (<stdlib.h>):

```
// Allocates contiguous block of size bytes. Returning pointer to start.  
// Warning: Block is not initialized (use memset)  
// Returns null pointer if error  
void* malloc(size_t size);
```

```
// Frees a previously allocated block.  
// Warning: if ptr doesn't point to allocated block  $\implies$  undefined behavior  
// If ptr is NULL  $\implies$  no effect  
void free(void* ptr);
```

*Implemented by OS (see TinyOS)*

- Each pointer `ptr` can only be freed *once* (otherwise undefined behavior)
- *Dangling pointers* (pointers to freed memory) must not be used after being freed.
- **Problem:** Memory leaks, ensuring programs free all allocated memory.

#### 2.1.1 The Arena Pattern

- **Solution:** arena pattern.
- An *arena* is a block based allocator in which each arena is only freed once.

```
typedef struct arena {  
    size_t size;
```



```
    size_t current_size;
    void* block;

} arena_t;

void* arena_init(size_t size) {
    arena_t* arena = malloc(sizeof(arena_t));
    if (!arena) return NULL;

    arena->size = size;
    arena->current_size = 0;

    // Allocate block of managed memory to arena
    arena->block = malloc(size * sizeof(node_type));
    if (!arena->block) { free(arena); return NULL; }

    return arena;
}

void* arena_malloc(arena_t* arena, size_t size) {
    arena_t* prev = arena;
    do {
        if((arena->size - arena->current_size) >= size) {
            arena->current_size += size;

            // Calculate pointer using offset (initial current_size)
            return (void*)((uintptr_t)arena->block
                + (arena->current_size - size));
        }

        // Failed to allocate, repeat
        prev = arena;
    } while ((arena = arena->next) != NULL);

    // Failed to allocate, allocate new arena
    size_t arena_size = max(DEFAULT_ARENA_SIZE, size);
    arena_t* next = arena_init(arena_size);
```

```

        // Add linked list pointer
        prev->next = next;

        // Allocate in new arena
        next->current_size += size;
        return next->block;
    }

void arena_free(arena_t* arena) {
    arena_t *next, *prev = arena;
    do {
        next = prev->next;

        // free block and arena header
        free(prev->block);
        free(prev);

        prev = next
    } while (next != NULL);
}

```

- **Problems:**

- Explicit freeing. Programmer must ensure arena is freed after use (otherwise Memory leak)
- Increasing working set sizes and memory inefficiency

## 2.2 Garbage Collection

- **Problem:** Memory leaks

- **Solution:** Automatically managed memory  $\implies$  Garbage collectors.

**Definition 2.2.1. (Heap Graph)** A heap graph is a graph  $G = (V, E, R)$  where  $V$  is the set of vertices modelling nodes on the heap, edges  $(u, v) \in E$  denote a pointer from  $u$  to  $v$  and  $R \subseteq V$  is the set of root nodes, the set of nodes w/ pointers stores in registers / on the stack.

- A node  $v \in V$  is *garbage* iff there does not exist  $u \in R$  s.t  $u \rightarrow^* v$ .

### 2.2.1 Reference Counting

- **Idea:** For each heap node  $v \in V$ , store *reference count*  $\rho(v)$ , the number of *pointers* to the node. We free  $v \in V$  if  $\rho(v) = 0$ , propagating a new reference count (recursively).
- **Example:** A reference counted binary tree `tree_t`:

```
typedef struct tree {
    size_t  $\rho$ ;
    int value;
    struct tree *left;
    struct tree *right;
} tree_t;

tree_t* tree_empty = NULL;
tree_t* tree_init(int value, tree_t* left, tree_t* right) {
    tree_t* t = malloc(sizeof(tree_t));
    if (!t) return NULL;

    // Reference count initialized to 1 since
    // t is a pointer to the tree node ( $\implies$  a reference)
    t-> $\rho$  = 1;
    t->value = value;

    // New reference to left, so increment
    t->left = left;
    inc(left);

    ...

    return t;
}

void inc(tree_t* t) {
    if (t != NULL) t-> $\rho$  += 1;
}
```

```

}

void dec(tree_t* t) {
    if (t != NULL) return;

    if (t-> $\rho$  > 1) {
        t-> $\rho$  -= 1;
    } else {
        // Decrement count  $\rho(v) = 0 \implies$  free!
        dec(t->left);
        dec(t->right);
        free(t);
    }
}

```

- **Problem:** Management / responsibility of incrementing reference counts.
- **Solution:** (Partial) Encapsulation via setters and getters manage the reference counts:

```

tree_t* get_left(tree_t* t)
void set_left(tree_t* t, tree_t* left);

```

Still requires explicit `decs` after `gets`.

- **Problem:** Reference counting cannot free *garbage cycles*  $\implies$  memory leaks.
- **Solutions:** Mark and Sweep, cyclic reference counting, etc

### 2.2.2 Mark and Sweep

- **Idea:** Traverse the heap graph  $G$  from the root set  $R$ , marking accessible nodes  $v \in V$ , denoted  $\rho(v) = 1$ . Iterate over  $V$ , freeing vertices  $v \in V$  w/  $\rho(v) = 0$  (inaccessible).
- **Example:**

```

typedef struct {
    ...

```

```
    list_node_t list_node;
} tree_t

void mark_tree(tree_t* t) {
    if (t != NULL && !t-> $\rho$ ) {
        t-> $\rho$  = true;
        mark_tree(t->left);
        mark_tree(t->right);
    }
}

void mark(heap_t* h) {
    list_node_t* iterator;
    list_for_each(iterator, &h->roots) {
        mark_tree(LIST_VALUE(tree_t, list_node, iterator));
    }
}

void sweep(heap_t* h) {
    list_node_t *next, *prev = list_head(&h->nodes);
    do {
        next = prev->next;

        if (!(prev-> $\rho$ )) {
            list_delete(&h->nodes, prev);
            free(LIST_VALUE(tree_t, list_node, prev));
        } else {
            prev-> $\rho$  = false;
        }

        prev = next;
    } while (next != h->nodes.nil);
}

void gc(heap_t* h) {
    mark(h);
    sweep(h);
}
```

- Periodically execute `gc(h)`.
- **Problems:**
  - Requires the program to stop (concurrency issues) to mark and sweep
  - Inefficient (compared to reference counting).

	Reference Counting	Mark and Sweep
Collection	Incremental	Batch
Cost Per Assignment	High	Low
Delays	Short	Long
Collects Cycles	No	Yes

## 2.3 Tooling and Optimization

### 2.3.1 Tooling

- Address Sanitizer (*ASan*):
  - Adds additional runtime checks to detect errors:
    - \* Out-of-bounds array access
    - \* Double-freeing
    - \* Using stack stored data once popped
    - \* Memory leaks
  - Compiler option: `-fsanitize=address`
  - **Problems:**  $\times 2$  performance slowdown due to additional checks  
Doesn't catch all uninitialized memory access (*undefined behavior*).
- Memory Sanitizer (*MSan*):
  - Adds runtime checks for uninitialized memory accesses.
  - Compiler option: `-fsanitize=memory`
  - **Problems:**  $\times 3$  performance slowdown

- Undefined Behavior Sanitizer (*UBSan*):
  - Adds runtime checks for undefined behavior. e.g. integer overflow, dereferencing null pointers, etc
  - Compiler option: `-fsanitize=undefined`
  - **Problems:**  $\times 1/5$  performance slowdown. Doesn't catch all undefined behavior.
- ASan, MSan and UBSan augment the compiler  $\implies$  requires source code to add checks.
- Valgrind:
  - Adds runtime checks to *compiled executables*.
  - `valgrind` procedure is invoked when runtime check fails.
  - **Problems:** Substantial overhead.

### 2.3.2 Cache Optimizations

- **Problem:** Pointers introduce indirection  $\implies$  breaks principle of locality. Increases cache misses.

- Generic list representation:

```
typedef struct node {  
    void *head;  
    struct node *tail;  
} list_t;
```

`list_t` has 2 pointers  $\implies$  increases cache miss rate.

- **Solutions:**

- Intrusive lists: Add `list_node_t` to list item struct (See TinyOS):

```
typedef struct {  
    double x;  
    double y;  
    list_node_t list_node;  
} point_t
```

Removes `void* head` pointer. `tail` pointer still may result in cache miss + overhead of `list_node_t`  $\implies$  decreases data density and increases miss rate.

- Arrays of `structs`:

```
typedef point_t* point_array_t;
```

No-longer stores tail pointers. Contiguous block of elements. However, cannot incrementally build lists (since array size must be known).

- `struct` of arrays:

```
typedef struct {  
    double* xs;  
    double* ys;  
} point_vector_t
```

`xs` and `ys` are contiguous arrays that may each have separate cache lines.

Array of `structs` and `struct` of arrays are resizable via a *dynamic array implementation*.



## 3 The C++ Language

- An extension of C with OOP features

### 3.1 C++ Features

#### 3.1.1 Lifetime, Storage Modifiers and Temporaries

**Definition 3.1.1. (Lifetime)** All values  $v$  in C++ have a *lifetime*  $[t_1, t_2]$ , the point of execution where the value  $v$  is allocated  $t_1$ , and where it is freed  $t_2$ .

- Storage modifiers dictate the lifetime and allocation of values in C++ (See section ??)
- Extends storage modifiers as C: `static`, `extern`, `register`, `auto` with small semantic differences and `thread_local`:
  - `auto`:
    - \* Automatic linking storage (on the stack). Only applicable in function body scope.
    - \* Adds *basic* type inference support e.g. `auto x = 'a';`.
  - `thread_local`:
    - \* Each thread has a local copy of the value during the threads execution.
    - \* Lifetime defined by thread's lifetime (and other storage modifiers).
  - `register`: Removed by C++.

**Definition 3.1.2. (Temporary)** A temporary is an unnamed value (the result of some types of expressions).

- The temporary's lifetime is defined by the execution times of the expression.

```
string a("Hello"), b("World");
const char *s1 = (a + b).c_str(); // Bad

// s1 is a pointer, however, the pointed too memory location
// has been freed since the lifetime of the temporary (a + b)
// ended after (a + b).c_str() was evaluated.
```

- Temporaries often lead to *bugs* due to implicit lifetimes.
- Temporary value creation (focused on *objects*):
  - Passing an object by value to a function. Uses the *copy constructor* to create a temporary on the stack.
  - Returning a object by value from a function.
  - During the evaluation of an expression in assignment. (See above)

### 3.1.2 Types, structs, unions and enums

- C++ primitive types extend C's: `char`, `int`, `float`, `double` w/ type modifiers `signed`, `unsigned`, `short`, `long` with the following differences:
  - Character literals `'a'` are of type `char` (not `int`).
  - `bool` primitive type added w/ literals `false`, `true`:

Boolean Literal	Casting to <code>int</code>	Casting from <code>int</code>
<code>false</code>	0	0
<code>true</code>	1	non-zero integers

- `struct`, `enum` and `union` declarations with tag `x` adds a type `x` into the current scope (instead of adding type `struct x`, etc).
- `enums` are a distinct type (instead of an alias for integer constants):
  - Declaration: `enum x :  $\tau$  {  $x_1 = e_1, \dots$  }` where  $e_i$  are constant expressions of type  $\tau$ , an integer type.

- Bitmap pattern: allocate `enum` constants w/ powers of 2:

```
enum x :  $\tau$  {  $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, \dots, x_n = 2^{n-1}$  }
```

Defines an `enum` integer range of  $[0, 2^n - 1]$ .

Integer values  $y \in [0, 2^n - 1]$  s.t  $y = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} k_i 2^i$  where  $k_i \in [0, 1]$  represent the set of enum constants  $\{x_i : k_i \neq 0\}$

```
// access's integer range [0, 7]
enum access : int { r = 1, w = 2, x = 4 }
```

```
access rwx = (access)7; // represents enum constants r, w and x
```

For unsigned constants: lower bound is 0. For signed: least negative power of 2.

### 3.1.3 Casts

- Explicit type conversions (casts) have the syntax:

```
( $\tau$ ) e
 $\tau$  (e)
```

$\tau(e)$  is a *functional cast expression* and is syntactic sugar:  $\tau(e) \triangleq (\tau)e$ .

- C++ casts:

- `dynamic_cast< $\tau$ >(e)`:  $e$  has a pointer / reference type to an *object* type.

Adds runtime-checks using run-time type information (RTTI) w/ casting within an (up or down) inheritance hierarchy.

Returns `nullptr` if the cast fails (for pointers) and throws a `bad_cast` exception (for references).

- `static_cast< $\tau$ >(e)`: C-style cast semantics. May perform upcasts and downcasts on object pointers/references. Also implements `void*` casting and `int`, `float`, `double` and `enum` casting.
- `reinterpret_cast< $\tau$ >(e)`:  $e$  has a pointer/reference type. Casts *any* pointer type to any other pointer type. Casts pointers to integers (and vice versa).

- `const_cast< $\tau$ >(e)`: Modifies the `const` modifiers of a pointer.  
e.g. pass a `const` pointer to a non-`const` pointer argument.
- C++ compiler typically *attempts* to compile C-style casts into C++ casts.

### 3.1.4 References

- **Idea:** Safer pointers  $\implies$  references

**Definition 3.1.3. (References)** A reference is an *alias* to an already existing value with automatic dereferencing.

- Implemented using `const` pointers (addresses to the value)

	References	Pointers
Initialization	<pre>// Correct int x = 10; int&amp; y = x;</pre> <pre>// Incorrect int&amp; y; y = x;</pre> <p>References <i>must</i> be initialized when declared.</p>	<pre>// Correct int x = 10; int *y = &amp;x;</pre> <pre>// Correct int *y; y = &amp;x;</pre>
Null	References cannot be NULL	Pointers can be assigned to NULL
Dereferencing	<p>References are automatically dereferenced</p> <pre>y++</pre>	<p>Pointers must be dereferenced w/ the * operator</p> <pre>(*y)++;</pre>
Reassignment	References cannot be reassigned	<p>Pointers may be reassigned:</p> <pre>int x = 5, y = 6; int* z = &amp;x; z = &amp;y;</pre>
Arithmetic	References cannot be manipulated using arithmetic operators	Pointer arithmetic. See section ??

### 3.1.5 Functions and Operators

- Functions may be *overloaded*: several functions in the same scope with the same name but different type parameter prototypes (signature).
- Overload resolution: Uses the most specific type parameter prototype. If a unique match cannot be determined, a compiler error is raised.

- Integer type implicit conversion is used.

```
void f(long x);
```

```
f(1) // 1 (int) is promoted to long
```

- Operators may also be overloaded:

```
class A {  
    bool operator==(const A &b) const { ... }  
}
```

- Functions may also have *default parameter values* w/ declaration:  $\tau \ x=e$  where  $e$  is a constant expression.

- **Problem:** Non-default parameters must be *before* default parameters:

```
// Good  
int foo(int a, int b=10);
```

```
// Bad  
int foo(int a=10, int b);
```

### 3.1.6 Scope resolution ::, new and delete Operators

- Scope resolution operator :: used for qualified variables: `namespace::name`  
Empty namespace is the *global namespace scope*.

```
int x;  
void foo() {  
    int x;  
    x = 5; // local reference  
    ::x = 10; // global reference  
}
```

- `::` is also used to lookup *class/struct/union* names.
- C++ runtime replaces `malloc` and `free` w/ the `new` and `delete` operators.
- `new`  $\tau$ :
  - Syntactic sugar: `new`  $\tau \triangleq \text{malloc}(\text{sizeof}(\tau))$ .
  - Returns a *pointer*. Null pointer if unable to allocate the block (null check required).
- `delete`:
  - Syntactic sugar: `delete`  $e \triangleq \text{free}(e)$ .
  - No effect if  $e$  is a null pointer.
- Additional operators: `new`  $\tau[n]$  and `delete[]`  $e$  used for arrays.
- Initializers:
  - Arrays: Compound literal initializer used for array of undefined length. e.g. `new int[]{1,2,3}`
  - Classes/Structs: Constructor arguments used w/ `new` operator. e.g. `new FooBar(1, 2);`.

### 3.1.7 Namespaces and C Libraries

**Definition 3.1.4. (Namespace)** A namespace is scope prefixed by a *namespace name*.

- Used for larger projects (avoids prefixing all functions) and expressing the structure of the project.
- Declarations:
 

```
// Defines a namespace in the defining scope w/ namespace name  $x$ 
namespace  $x$  {
    declarations
    ...
}
```

```
// Defines a namespace in defining scope and adds an implicit
// using-directive "using x" in the defining scope
inline namespace x {
    declarations
    ...
}

// Anonymous namespace. Compiler adds a unique namespace name x
// and implicit using-directive "using x" in the defining scope.
// Note: namespace is not accessible via :: operator
namespace {
    declarations
    ...
}

// Namespace alias. x is a alias for the qualified namespace
// name y.
namespace x = y
```

- Namespaces may be *extended* (so-called *extending namespaces*) if the same name for two distinct namespace declarations is used. Compiler compiles into a single namespace (accessible via `using`)

- `using-directive`:

- Directive: `using namespace x`
- Implicitly qualifies all available declarations from *x* in the current scope.
- **Note:** Doesn't *add* any *declarations* to the current scope. Just provides access.
- `using-directive` is *transitive*:

```
namespace D {
    int d1;
    void f(char c);
}
using namespace D; // Adds D::d1, D::d2, E::e1 to global scope
```



```
// namespace definition "lifting"
```

```
namespace E {  
    int e1;  
}  
namespace D { // extending namespace  
    int d2;  
    using namespace E; // adds transitivity  
}
```

- **using-declaration:**

- Declaration: `using x1, ..., xn`; where  $x_i$  are qualified namespace declarations.
- Adds the declarations for  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  to the current scope.

```
namespace B {  
    using A::foo; // adds declaration for foo in ns B  
}
```

- May be used in body local scopes  $\implies$  declarations *not* added.

- Linking C code w/ C++ requires a `extern "C"` modifier.
- C library headers (used by C++ code) use the preprocessor pattern:

```
#ifdef __cplusplus  
extern "C" {  
#endif
```

```
...
```

```
#ifdef __cplusplus  
}  
#endif
```

- Required due to “name munging” for overloading functions and differing calling sequence semantics.

## 3.2 Objects and Classes

### 3.2.1 Classes and Structures

- C++ extends **structs**:

- Declaration:

```
struct x {
     $\tau_1$   $x_1$  // member fields
    ...

     $\tau_1^f$   $f_1(\tau_{11} \ x_{11}, \dots)$ ; // member functions
    ...
}
```

Defines a type  $x$  in the defining scope w/ fields and *methods*.

- Definition: Struct member fields are allocated storage. Struct member functions (*methods*) are resolved *statically*.

- C++ adds **classes**. Identical to **structs**. However, the default access modifier for **structs** is **public** and the default for **classes** is **private**
- Access modifiers: **private**, **protected** and **public**.
- Storage modifiers: **static** fields.
- Member function (methods) definitions may be provided outside the declaration using `::` operator, or inside the declaration.
- Methods may be *overloaded*.
- **Constructor**:

- A constructor is a special non-static method used to initialize objects w/ declaration:

```
class x {
    ...
     $x(\tau_1 \ x_1, \dots)$ ;
}
```

and definition:

```
x( $\tau_1$  x1, ...)
: initializer_list { body }
```

- All classes have a *default constructor* (performs minimal initialization via `bzero`) if no explicit constructor.
- **private** constructors prevent external instantiation (Singleton pattern)
- Constructors may be overloaded.

- **Destructor:**

- A destructor is a special non-static method executed at the end of an object's lifetime w/ declaration:

```
class x {
    ...
    ~x();
}
```

- Destructors may be *virtual* (required with inheritance)
- Called at end of lifetime. e.g.
  - \* Out of scope (assuming `auto` storage modifier)
  - \* `delete` operator
  - \* Stack unwinding (exceptions)

- **friend** access modifier:

- **Problem:** Some classes are tightly connected  $\implies$  require `public` / `const` getters for internal class state.

- **Solution:** `friends`.

- Declaration:

```
//  $\tau$  is (class|struct) type.  $\tau$  has access to private and
// protected members
friend (class|struct)  $\tau$ ;
```

```
//  $f$  is a qualified function (not a member of current class)
```

```
// f has access to private and protected members.
// Could share w/ specific class method e.g. y::g or
// non-member function e.g. main
friend  $\tau$  f( $\tau_1$   $x_1$ , ...);
```

### 3.2.2 Objects

**Definition 3.2.1. (Object)** An object in C++ is an instance of a `class/struct`

- **Note:** Difference between Java and C++, objects don't have implicit references to heap.

- Declaration:

```
//  $\tau$  is an object type w/ constructor parameters  $e_1$ , ...
 $\tau$  x( $e_1$ , ...);
```

- Definition:

```
// Allocated statically (e.g. stack / .data. See storage modifiers)
 $\tau$  x( $e_1$ , ...);
```

```
// Allocated at runtime (on heap)
new  $\tau$ ( $e_1$ , ...);
```

- Members may be accessed via the `.` operator via a class/struct value (or `->` for pointers).
- **this** pointer: An implicit non-static method parameter of type  $x^*$  for class  $x$ .
- Definitions of non-static methods resolve non-static member fields  $x$  of the class (or subclass) w/ transformation  $x \triangleq \text{this}->x$ .

```
struct S {
    int n;
    void f();
}
void S::f() {
    n = 1; // transformed into this->n = 1
}
```

- **const methods:** Adds a `const` qualifier to the implicit `this` pointer. Prevents modifying object members. Only `const` member functions may be used by a `const` object.

```
struct Array {
    int *data;
    Array(size_t size) : data(new int[size]) {}

    // const member function
    int operator[](int i) const {
        return data[i];
    }

    // non-const member function. Overloadable due to const difference
    int& operator[](int i) {
        return data[i];
    }
}

Array x(1); const Array y(1);
x[0] = 0; // Good. type of x[0] is int&
y[0] = 0; // Bad. type of y[0] is int. Not lvalue.
```

### 3.2.3 Special Member functions

- **Copy constructor:**
  - A copy constructor of class  $x$  is a constructor whose first parameter of type  $x\&$ :

```
class x {
    ...
    x(x& src); // typically add const modifier
}
```
  - Executed:
    - \* Initialization  $x \ a = b$  or  $x \ a(b)$  where  $b : x$ .
    - \* Object pass-by-value:  $f(a)$  w/ declaration `void f(x b)` and  $a : x$ .

- \* Returning an object
- Default copy constructor: initializes object w/ copies of all non-static member fields of `src`.

- **Assignment operator:**

- A copy assignment operator of class  $x$  is a non-static method w/ name `operator=` whose first parameter is of type  $x$  or  $x\&$ :

```
class x {
    ...
    x& operator=(x src);
    // or
    x& operator=(x& src); // typically add const modifier
}
```

- `x& operator=(x src)` refers to a copy-and-swap assignment operator.
- Executed whenever an object is on the left side of an assignment expression (lvalue)
- Default assignment operator: overwrites of all non-static member fields of `this` w/ `src`'s fields

### 3.2.4 Inheritance

- A derived class (or struct) inherit all of the members of it's base class.
- Declaration:

```
class d : b {
     $\tau_1$   $x_1$ ;
    ...
}
```

declares a derived class  $d$  from class  $b$ .

- Definition: Class  $d$  is allocated storage of size:

$$\text{sizeof}(d) = \text{sizeof}(b) + \sum_{i=1}^n \text{sizeof}(\tau_i)$$

Additional storage is required for **derived** objects, allocated for **derived**'s member fields and **base**'s member fields.

(Not implemented using *pointers*, unlike Java)

- All **protected**, **public** members of *b* are accessible inside *d*. All public members of *b* are accessible outside of *d*.
- Access modifiers of base class:
  - **public** *b*: Inherited **public**, **protected** members of *b* remain **public**, **protected** in *d*
  - **private** *b*: Inherited **public**, **protected** members of *b* are **private** in *d*
- Default modifiers: **class** uses **private**. **struct** uses **public**.
- Constructors and Destructors:
  - Derivation chain: The base class constructor is executed before the derived class constructor. (vice versa for destructors):

```

struct A {
    A() {
        std::cout << "A's constructor was called" << std::endl;
    }
    ~A(){
        std::cout << "A's destructor was called" << std::endl;
    }
}

struct B : A{
    B() {
        std::cout << "B's constructor was called" << std::endl;
    }
    ~B() {
        std::cout << "B's destructor was called" << std::endl;
    }
}

B b();

```

```
// cout: A's constructor was called
// cout: B's constructor was called
```

- Access modifiers: If the derived class cannot access constructor (`private`)  $\implies$  compiler error
- Constructors w/ parameters may be explicitly used via an initializer list:

```
Derived::Derived( $\tau$  x)
    : Base(x) { ... } // passes parameter x to constructor of Base
                      // constructor body of Derived is executed on Base
```

- Methods of the derived *and* base class are resolved statically.
- **Problem:** Dynamic polymorphism not possible via static resolution of methods.

### 3.2.5 Virtual Methods

- **Solution:** Virtual methods.
- Declaration:

```
class x {
    ...
    virtual  $\tau$  f( $\tau_1$  x1, ...);
}
```

declares the non-static method  $f$  as *virtual* and supports dynamic polymorphism (dispatch)

- Definition: Allows derived classes to override behavior of virtual methods (**override** modifier). Non-virtual methods are resolved statically.

Virtual methods are resolved dynamically (at runtime) using a *virtual table* (or *vtable*), stored by each derived class object (including base class) IMAGE

Dynamic dispatch procedure:

- Fetch `vtable` pointer



- Lookup address  $a$  of virtual function call
- Jump to  $a$

- **Problem:** Pointer indirection adds additional runtime overhead.
- `vtable` also stores Runtime Type Information (RTTI) e.g. `typeid` (See `<typeinfo>`)
- `override`-modifier:

$\tau$   $f(\tau_1 \ x_1, \dots)$  `override`;

Override modifier ensures non-static method is *virtual* and matches the overridden signature.

- Virtual methods allow for *abstract classes*:

```
class b {
    public:
        virtual  $\tau$   $f(\tau_1 \ x_1, \dots)$  = 0;
}
```

- Classes w/ default virtual methods (*an abstract method*) cannot be instantiated.
- Virtual destructors:

- Required when dynamic polymorphism is used, otherwise the base class destructor is statically resolved.

```
struct Base {
    virtual ~Base() { ... }
};
```

```
struct Derived : Base {
    ~Derived() { ... }
}
```

```
Base* d = new Derived;
delete d; // vtable lookup to Derived::~~Derived()
          // releases resources of Derived class
          // then calls Base destructor
```

### 3.2.6 Multiple Inheritance

- C++ classes may inherit multiple base classes.
- Declaration:

```
class d : b1, ..., bn {
    ...
}
```

- Explicit field name required if there is a field name clash:

```
d.bi::x // statically resolves to member x in inherited bi in d
d.bi::f() // statically resolves to method f() in inherited bi in d
```

- Diamond problem: base classes have a common base class:

```
class A { ... }
class B : public A { ... }
class C : public A { ... }
class D : public B, public C { ... }
```

By default, *D* will have two instances of *A*:

```
d.B::A // B's A object
d.C::A // C's A object
```

- virtual base classes:

- Declaration:

```
class d : virtual b { ... }
```

*b* is a virtual base class of *d*.

- Definition: ensures the derived class *d* only contains one base class *b* sub-object. Even if *b* occurs multiple times in the inheritance hierarchy (provided it is inherited **virtual** every time)

```
struct A { int n; }
struct X : virtual A {};
struct Y : A {};
```

```

struct XY : X, Y {};
XX xx;
xx.X::n = 1; // modifies the virtual A subobject
xx.Y::n = 2; // modifies the non-virtual A subobject

```

## 3.3 Exceptions and Templates

### 3.3.1 Exceptions

**Definition 3.3.1. (Exception)** An object that may be thrown and caught. Used to implement improved error handling.

- C++ provides exceptions to communicate errors (instead of error codes)
- `throw` expressions:

– Declaration:

```
throw e
```

– Definition:

1. Evaluates  $e$  of type  $\tau$  to  $v$ , uses value  $v$  to initialize an *exception object*
2. Passes exception object to *exception handler* w/ matching type  $\tau$ .

- Exception handler chaining may be used via `throw;`. Rethrows the currently handled exception
- Stack is unwound until we reach the matching exception handler. Destructors for `auto` objects are invoked w/ stack frames being popped.

- try-blocks:

– Declaration:

```

try { ... } catch ( $\tau$  e) { ... }
try { ... } catch (...) { ... }

```

A catch-clause that matches any exception w/ type  $\tau$ , binding to parameter  $e$ , and a catch-clause that matches *any exception*

- Multiple catch blocks may be used to catch different errors (searched in order).
- **Note:** implicit reference conversion on matching types:

```
try { throw 1; }
catch (const int& e) {
    std::cout << e << std::endl;
}
```

### 3.3.2 Template Metaprogramming

- Templates support *metaprogramming* (compile time evaluation) and *generic programming* (parametric polymorphism).
- Templates are *turing complete*.
- Template specification:

```
template < $p_1$ , ...,  $p_n$ >  $d$ 
```

where parameters  $p_i$  are either:

- Non-type parameters of the form:  $\tau x$ .
- Type parameters of the `typename  $x$`  or `class  $x$` .

```
template <typename  $T$ >
struct List { ... }
```

- Template parameters may be dependent:

```
template <typename  $T$ ,  $T$  min> ...
```

- Templates may be specialized. Specialized templates must appear after the non-specialized template declaration. Specialized templates provide the same declaration w/ a reduced parameter specification:

```
template<typename  $T$ > struct A { ... }
template<> struct A<int> { ... } // specialization
```

- **Advantages:**

- Improves type safety (generic programming, avoiding `void*`)
- **Disadvantage:**
  - Template expansion results in larger executables