#### **Advanced Topics**

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Spring 2019



#### **Pointers**



### Simple example

#### Code: class HasX { private: double x; public: $HasX(double x) : x(x) \{\};$ auto &val() { return x; }; }; int main() { auto X = make\_shared<HasX>(5); cout << X->val() << endl;</pre> X -> val() = 6;cout << X->val() << endl;</pre>

```
Output [pointer] pointx:
```

5 6



## Reference counting illustrated

We need a class with constructor and destructor tracing:

```
class thing {
public:
  thing() { cout << ".. calling constructor\n"; };
  ~thing() { cout << ".. calling destructor\n"; };
};</pre>
```



#### Pointer overwrite

Let's create a pointer and overwrite it:

#### Code:

# Output [pointer] ptr1:

```
set pointer1
.. calling constructor
overwrite pointer
.. calling destructor
```



### Pointer copy

#### Code:

# Output [pointer] ptr2:

```
set pointer2
.. calling constructor
set pointer3 by copy
overwrite pointer2
overwrite pointer3
.. calling destructor
```



#### Linked list code

```
node *node::prepend_or_append(node *other) {
  if (other->value>this->value) {
    this->tail = other;
    return this;
} else {
    other->tail = this;
    return other;
};
```

Can we do this with shared pointers?



## A problem with shared pointers

```
shared_pointer<node> node:prepend_or_append
    ( shared_ptr<node> other ) {
    if (other->value>this->value) {
        this->tail = other;

So far so good. However, this is a node*, not a shared_ptr<node>, so
    return this;
```

returns the wrong type.



#### Solution: shared from this

It is possible to have a 'shared pointer to this' if you define your node class with (warning, major magic alert):

```
class node : public enable_shared_from_this<node> {
```

This allows you to write:

```
return this->shared_from_this();
```



### Namespaces



### You have already seen namespaces

Safest:

```
#include <vector>
int main() {
  std::vector<stuff> foo;
Drastic:
                             Prudent:
#include <vector>
                             #include <vector>
using namespace std;
                             using std::vector;
int main() {
                             int main() {
 vector<stuff> foo;
                               vector<stuff> foo;
                             }
```



### Why not 'using namespace std'?

This compiles, but should not:

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

int main() {
  int i=1,j=2;
  swap(i,j);
  cout << i << endl;
  return 0;
}</pre>
```

This gives an error:

```
#include <iostream>
using std::cout;
using std::endl;
int main() {
  int i=1, j=2;
  swap(i,j);
  cout << i << endl;
  return 0:
}
```



# **Defining a namespace**

You can make your own namespace by writing

```
namespace a_namespace {
   // definitions
   class an_object {
   };
```



### Namespace usage

```
a_namespace::an_object myobject();
or
using namespace a_namespace;
an_object myobject();
or
using a_namespace::an_object;
an_object myobject();
```



#### **Templates**



## **Templated type name**

If you have multiple routines that do 'the same' for multiple types, you want the type name to be a variable. Syntax:

```
template <typename yourtypevariable>
// ... stuff with yourtypevariable ...
```



### **Example:** function

#### Definition:

```
template<typename T>
void function(T var) { cout << var << end; }

Usage:
int i; function(i);
double x; function(x);

and the code will behave as if you had defined function twice,</pre>
```

once for int and once for double.



#### Exercise 1

Machine precision, or 'machine epsilon', is sometimes defined as the smallest number  $\epsilon$  so that  $1+\epsilon>1$  in computer arithmetic.

Write a templated function epsilon so that the following code prints out the values of the machine precision for the float and double type respectively:

#### Code:

# Output [template] eps:

```
Epsilon float: 1.0000e-07
Epsilon double: 1.0000e-15
```



#### **Templated vector**

the Standard Template Library (STL) contains in effect

```
template<typename T>
class vector {
private:
    // data definitions omitted
public:
    T at(int i) { /* return element i */ };
    int size() { /* return size of data */ };
    // much more
}
```



## **Exceptions**



## **Exception throwing**

Throwing an exception is one way of signalling an error or unexpected behaviour:

```
void do_something() {
  if ( oops )
    throw(5);
}
```



# **Catching an exception**

It now becomes possible to detect this unexpected behaviour by *catching* the exception:

```
try {
  do_something();
} catch (int i) {
  cout << "doing something failed: error=" << i << endl;
}</pre>
```



# **Exception classes**

```
class MyError {
public:
  int error_no; string error_msg;
  MyError( int i,string msg )
  : error_no(i),error_msg(msg) {};
}
throw(MyError(27, "oops");
try {
 // something
} catch ( MyError &m ) {
  cout << "My error with code=" << m.error_no</pre>
    << " msg=" << m.error_msg << endl;</pre>
```

## Multiple catches

You can multiple catch statements to catch different types of errors:

```
try {
   // something
} catch ( int i ) {
   // handle int exception
} catch ( std::string c ) {
   // handle string exception
}
```



## Catch any exception

Catch exceptions without specifying the type:

```
try {
   // something
} catch ( ... ) { // literally: three dots
   cout << "Something went wrong!" << endl;
}</pre>
```



### More about exceptions

- Functions can define what exceptions they throw:
   void func() throw( MyError, std::string );
   void funk() throw();
- Predefined exceptions: bad\_alloc, bad\_exception, etc.
- An exception handler can throw an exception; to rethrow the same exception use 'throw;' without arguments.
- Exceptions delete all stack data, but not new data. Also, destructors are called; section ??.
- There is an implicit try/except block around your main.
   You can replace the handler for that. See the exception header file.
- Keyword noexcept: void f() noexcept { ... };
- There is no exception thrown when dereferencing a nullptr.



#### **Destructors and exceptions**

The destructor is called when you throw an exception:

#### Code:

```
class SomeObject {
public:
  SomeObject() { cout <<
    "calling the constructor"
    << endl; };
  ~SomeObject() { cout <<
    "calling the destructor"
    << endl; };
};
  /* ... */
  try {
    SomeObject obj;
    cout << "Inside the nested scope"</pre>
    << endl:
    throw(1);
  } catch (...) {
    cout << "Exception caught" << endl;</pre>
```

# Output [object] exceptobj:

calling the constructor Inside the nested scope calling the destructor Exception caught



#### **Auto**



### Type deduction

In:

```
std::vector< std::shared_ptr< myclass >>*
  myvar = new std::vector< std::shared_ptr< myclass >>
                 ( 20, new myclass(1.3) );
the compiler can figure it out:
auto myvar =
  new std::vector< std::shared_ptr< myclass >>
            ( 20, new myclass(1.3) );
auto result = someobject.somemethod();
```



# Type deduction in functions

```
Return type can be deduced in C++17:
auto equal(int i,int j) {
  return i==j;
};
```



## Auto and references, 1

auto discards references and such:

#### Code:

```
A my_a(5.7);
auto get_data = my_a.access();
get_data += 1;
my_a.print();
```

# Output [auto] plainget:

data: 5.7



### Auto and references, 2

```
Combine auto and references:
```

#### Code:

```
A my_a(5.7);
auto &get_data = my_a.access();
get_data += 1;
my_a.print();
```

# Output [auto] refget:

data: 6.7



#### Auto and references, 3

#### For good measure:

#### Code:

```
A my_a(5.7);
const auto &get_data = my_a.
    access();
get_data += 1;
my_a.print();
```

#### Output [auto] constrefget:

```
const auto &get_data = my_a. make[4]: *** No rule to make target 'e
access():
```



#### **Auto iterators**

```
vector<int> myvector(20);
for ( auto copy_of_int : myvector )
  s += copy_of_int;
for ( auto &ref_to_int : myvector )
  ref_to_int = s;
// short for:
for ( std::iterator it=myvector.begin() ;
      it!=myvector.end(); ++it )
  s += *it ; // note the deref
```

Can be used with anything that is iteratable (vector, map, your own classes!)

