Templates, Exceptions, Namespaces Raymond Klefstad, Ph.D.

Templates

- C++ is strongly typed
- sometimes it is useful to have genericity
 - o generic containers
 - generic algorithms
- templates allow such genericity
- EG

```
int min( int a, int b )
{
  return a < b ? a : b;
}
double min( double a, double b )
{
  return a < b ? a : b;
}</pre>
```

_

C solution

```
\# define min(a,b) ((a) < (b) ? (a) : (b))
```

but may have problems with side effects

```
int i = min(j++, k++);
```

- and you must be careful to fully parenthesize to avoid precedence problems
- templates avoid these problems and allow programmers to specify algorithms once

Template Functions

template function definition

```
template
  < typename Type >
inline Type min( Type a, Type b )
{
  return a < b ? a : b;
}</pre>
```

- Type becomes a type for the template definition
- template function use

```
int main()
{
  int x = min( 10,20 ); // OK: Type is int
  double y = min( 10.5, 20.8 ); // OK: Type is double
}
```

General Template Form

syntax

```
template
  < templateParameterList >
functionOrMethodOrClassDefinition
```

templateParameterList is comma separated list of

```
typename identifier // useful for containers of elements class identifier // same as typename, but deprecated int value // useful for array sizes, or defaults
```

Specializing a Template Function

- templates are typically general for any type
- sometimes this general case is inappropriate (or inefficient) for a special case
- e.g., min for two character strings
- you can specialize by defining the specialized function

```
char * min( char * a, char * b )
{
  return strcmp( a, b ) < 0 ? a : b;
}</pre>
```

- this function will be used for arguments of type char *
- template will be used for any other type

Function Resolution Algorithm

- get all nontemplate functions matching the call
- if more than one, ambiguity error
- if there is exactly one, return it
- if none, examine all template instances
- if more than one, ambiguity error
- if exactly one match, if it is instantiated, return it, else instantiate and return it
- if none, reexamine all non templates to see if there is a match via conversion

Parameter Matching

- non-const formal cannot match to a const actual
- const formal can match to const or non-const actual
- const & formal can match to non-const or const (it creates anonymous object for literals)
- & formal can match to I-value

Template Classes

- useful for containers and more
- usually best to start by writing a specialized class first
- then, after testing, convert it into a template

```
• E.g.,
  class Stack
    int len;
    int top;
    int * buf;
  public:
    Stack( int capacity = 100 )
       : len( capacity ), top( 0 ),
        buf( new int [capacity] )
     {
    }
    ~Stack()
      delete[] buf;
    void push( int x )
      buf[top++] = x;
    int pop()
      return buf[--top];
    int size()
      return len;
  };
```

now make it into a template

```
template
  < typename Type >
class Stack
{
  int len;
  int top;
  Type * buf;
public:
  Stack( int capacity = 100 )
    : len( capacity ), top( 0 ),
      buf( new Type [capacity] )
  {
  }
  ~Stack()
  {
   delete[] buf;
```

```
}
void push( Type x )
{
  buf[top++] = x;
}
Type pop()
{
  return buf[--top];
}
int size()
{
  return len;
}
};
```

Defining Template Methods

- defining methods outside class can be painful
- we want to move methods to separate .cpp file
- must prefix each method with template parameter specification
- must qualify each name with Stack<Type>::

```
Stack.h file
```

```
template
  < typename Type >
class Stack
{
   int max;
   int len;
   Type * buf;
public:
   Stack( int capacity = 100 );
   ~Stack();
   void push( Type x );
   Type pop();
   int size();
};
```

Stack.cpp file

```
template
  < typename Type >
Stack<Type>::Stack( int capacity = 100 )
  : max( capacity ), len( 0 ),
    buf( new Type [capacity] )
{
}
template
  < typename Type >
```

```
Stack<Type>::~Stack()
{
   delete[] buf;
}
template
   < typename Type >
void Stack<Type>::push( Type x )
{
   buf[len++] = x;
}
template
   < typename Type >
Type Stack<Type>::pop()
{
   return buf[--len];
}
template
   < typename Type >
int Stack<Type>::size()
{
   return len;
}
```

Uses of the Template

auxiliary definitions

```
#include <iostream>
#include "Stack.h"
#define ArrayLength(a) (sizeof(a) / sizeof(*a))
using namespace std;
typedef Stack<int> intStack;
typedef Stack<char> charStack;
typedef Stack<double> doubleStack;
template
  < typename T >
void fill( Stack<T> & stk, T * a, int len )
  for ( int i=0; i < len; ++i )
    stk.push( a[i] );
template
 < typename T >
void empty( Stack<T> & stk )
  while (stk.size() > 0)
    cout << stk.pop() << ' ';
  cout << endl;</pre>
```

The main

```
int main()
{
    doubleStack dstack;
    charStack cstack;
    intStack istack;
    static double dlist [] = { 1.5, 2.5, 3.5, 4.5, 6.5, 9.98 };
    static char clist [] = "Hello";
    static int ilist [] = { 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 };
    fill( dstack, dlist, ArrayLength( dlist ) );
    fill( istack, ilist, ArrayLength( ilist ) );
    fill( cstack, clist, ArrayLength( clist ) );
    empty( dstack );
    empty( istack );
    empty( cstack );
}
```

the output

```
9.98 6.5 4.5 3.5 2.5 1.5 10 9 8 7 6 4 3 2 1 0 o l l e H
```

Template Parameter Defaults

- similar to default function parameters
- hypothetical example

```
template
  < typename charType = char, int capacity = 100 >
class basic_string
{
    // can have a string of wchar_t too,
    // but default is char String
};
```

Member Templates

- member functions (of non-template classes) may be templates
- often used for writing type conversion operators
- wouldn't it be cool if they had defined the following:

```
class ostream
{
  ostream & operator << ( const int & item )// for primitive types
  {
     // ...
}
  // ... rest of specializations for fundamental (built-in) types
  template
     < class T >
```

```
ostream & operator << ( const T & item)
{
  item.print( *this );
  return *this;
}
</pre>
```

- then we could just write method print on our new class and get operator << for free
- member functions of template classes may be also be nested templates

Non-type Template Parameters

Specializing a class Template

- specializations can be defined, usually for improved efficiency
- EG

```
template
  < typename indexType, typename valueType >
class map
{
    // implemented as a balanced search tree
};
template
    < int, typename valueType >
class map
{
    // implemented as an array
};
```

Partial Template Instantiation

you can specialize part or all of the template

```
template
  < typename T, typename U >
class The Class { .... };
```

partial template specialization

```
template
  < typename U >
class The Class<int,U> { ... };
```

full template specialization

```
template
     <>
class The_Class<int, short> { ... };
```

- pay attention to the empty formal argument list!
- partial template instantiation is used in the STL, EG

```
template
  < typename T, typename Allocator = allocator<T> >
class vector
{
    // lots of stuff here, dynamic array of Ts
};
```

- partial template specialization for bool
- the idea is to use one bit per entry, but it is tricky...

```
template
  < typename Allocator = allocator<T> >
class vector<bool, Allocator>
{
    // lots of stuff here, bits packed in words
};
```

Explicit Template Instantiation

- you can control where a specific template instantiation is created
- classes can be explicitly instantiated

```
template
    < typename T >
class List { ... };
...
template class List<int>; // creates List<int>
```

template functions can be explicitly instantiated

```
template
    < typename T >
T max( T const & x, T const & y ) { ... }
...
template int max( int const &, int const & );
```

Exceptions

- can be viewed as the run-time analog to the compile-time type checking
- they are designed to support run-time error handling
- they handle only synchronous exceptions such as array range checks
- they don't handle asynchronous ones like GUI events, interrupts, or signals
- they are also a non-local alternative to the return statement, but should be used with care

Exception Specifications

used to declare which exceptions a function may throw

```
void f()
  throw(std::bad_alloc, std::bad_cast)
{
  if (blah)
    throw std::bad_alloc;
  if (blah)
    throw std:: bad_cast;
}
```

default is that function may throw any exception

```
void g()
  // implied throw(...)
{
}
```

to declare that a method throws no exceptions

```
void h()
  throw()
{
}
```

- violation of exception specification calls unexpected()
- unexpected() usually calls terminate(), unless std::bad_exception is in the spec, then it re-throws std::bad_exception
- a function never throws an exception not listed in its specification
- you can define unexpected() as a handler

Example definition

class Vector (yet again!)

```
class Vector
{
  int * buf;
  int size;
protected:
  bool inbounds(int i)
```

```
return 0 <= i && i < size;
public:
  static const max = 100;
  class BaseException {};
  class RangeException : public BaseException {};
  class SizeException : public BaseException {};
  Vector( int newSize )
    throw(SizeException)
    if ( newSize < 0 || newSize > max )
      throw SizeException();
    size = newSize;
    buf = new int[newSize];
    for (int i=0; i < newSize; ++i )
      buf[i] = 2 * i;
  int & operator [] ( int i )
    throw( RangeException )
    if (!inbounds(i))
      throw RangeException();
    return buf[i];
  }
};
Use of Vector
int getInt( char * prompt )
  // implies throw( ... )
  cout << prompt << ": ";</pre>
  int i;
  cin >> i;
  if (i < 0)
    throw "Hello"; // throws a char *
  return i;
Use of Vector (cont.)
void testExceptions()
  throw() // says we throw no exceptions
{
  for (;;)
    try {
      int size = getInt( "Enter a size" );
      Vector v1(size);
```

```
int index = getInt( "Enter an index" );
    cout << v1[index];
}
catch ( Vector :: RangeException & e )
{
    cout << "Index out of bounds\n";
}
catch ( Vector :: SizeException & e )
{
    cout << "Size out of range 0..max\n";
}
catch ( ... )
{
    cout << "Got some unknown exception\n";
    throw; // rethrows the current exception
}
// calls unexpected() which calls terminate()</pre>
```

Use of Vector (cont.)

```
int main()
{
  while (true)
    try {
     testExceptions();
  }
  catch ( Vector :: BaseException & e )
  {
     cout << "Got some kind of BaseException\n";
  }
}</pre>
```

Namespaces

- allows organization of the global name space (scope)
- necessary because of development of many standard libraries
- EG

```
namespace mySpace
{
  class Stack;
  ostream & operator << ( ostream & out, const Stack & stk );
  void myStackFunction( Stack s );
}</pre>
```

a namespace may be split across files - they are cumulative

```
namespace mySpace
{
  void myTopLevelFunction(); // adds to mySpace
```

• all C++ standard library identifiers are in namespace std

Using Namespaces

• qualified use of entities in a namespace

```
mySpace::Stack stk;
mySpace::myTopLevelFunction();
myStackFunction( stk ); // OK: argument is a mySpace::stk
std::cout << stk; // OK: stk is of type mySpace::stk</pre>
```

• un-qualified use of entities in a namespace

```
using mySpace::Stack;
using std::cout;
Stack stk;
myStackFunction( stk ); // OK: argument is a mySpace::stk
cout << stk; // OK: both arguments are directly visible</pre>
```

open up a namespace (everything is directly visible)

```
using namespace std;
using namespace mySpace;
Stack stk;
myTopLevelFunction();
myStackFunction( stk );
cout << stk;</pre>
```

- never use "using" when the context isn't clear
 - o in a .h file
 - o or in another namespace (makes them part of that namespace)