

# EDAF30 – Programming in C++

## *7. Error handling*

Sven Gestegård Robertz  
*Computer Science, LTH*

2021



# Outline

- 1 Error handling
  - Exceptions
  - Catching exceptions
  - Throwing exceptions
  - Exceptions and resource management
  - Specification of exceptions
  - Static assert
  - assert
- 2 type casts
- 3 Multidimensional arrays
- 4 Namespaces and ADL

# Error handling

## Three levels of error handling

- 1 Directly handle the error locally and continue execution
- 2 Categorize and pass error to another module that is expected to handle it
- 3 Identify the error, give an error message, and crash the program (*“fail-fast”, e.g., assert*)

Level 2: exceptions (or return values)

# Throwing exceptions

## Example: checking arguments in the Vector class

```
Vector::Vector(int size) {  
    if(size < 0) throw length_error("negative size");  
    elem = new double[size];  
    sz = size;  
}  
  
int& Vector::operator[] (int i) {  
    if (i<0 || i>=sz) throw out_of_range("Vector::operator[]");  
    return elem[i];  
}
```

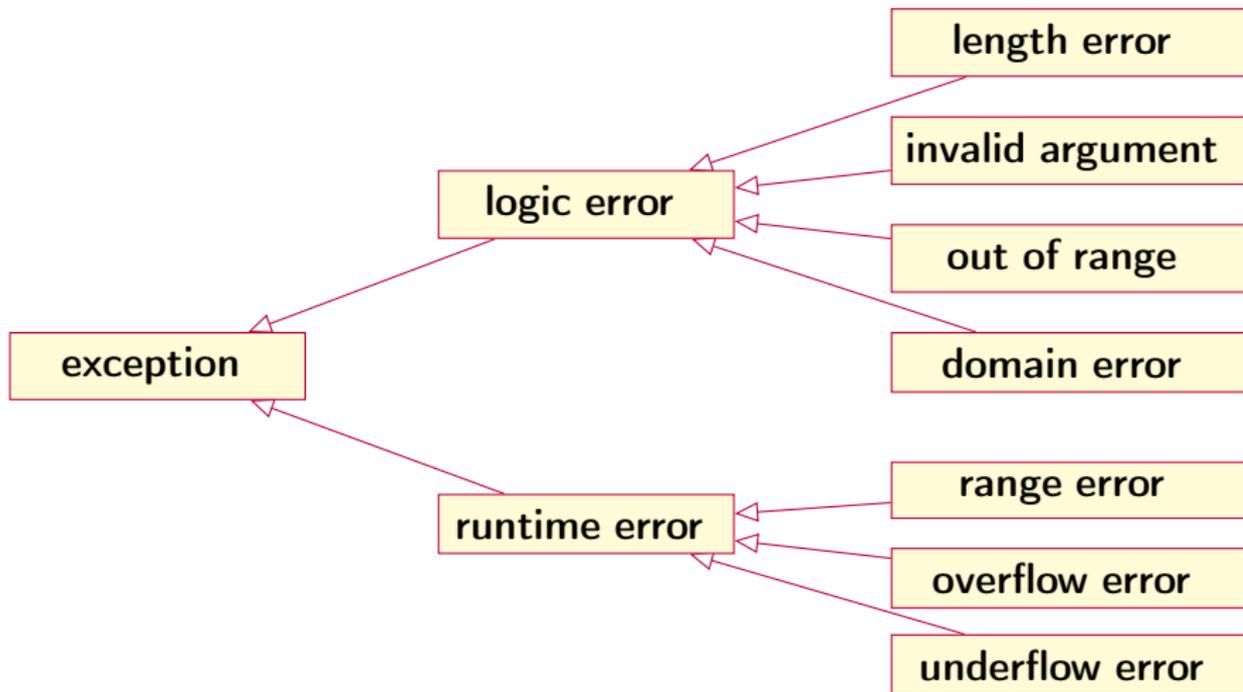
- ▶ *NB: to allow checking arguments, we use a signed integer type for values that should always be positive*
- ▶ Vector cannot reasonably handle the error locally, only the caller can know why it passed a certain argument
- ▶ `std::vector::operator[]` does no checks (`at()` does)

# Exceptions

- ▶ Error handling is done with `throw` and `catch`. Like Java.
- ▶ *“stack unwinding”* until a matching `catch` is found.
- ▶ When an exception is thrown, activation records are popped off the stack until a function containing a matching `catch` is found. (*“stack unwinding”*)
- ▶ If an exception is not caught, the program crashes. (by calling `std::terminate()`.)
- ▶ Standard classes for exceptions: `#include <stdexcept>`

# The exception classes of the standard library

Class hierarchy for classes in `<stdexcept>`



# Error handling

## Catching exceptions

```
try {  
    // Code that may throw  
}  
catch (some_exception&) {  
    // Code handling some_exception  
}  
catch (another_exception&) {  
    // Code handling another_exception  
}  
catch (...) {  
    // default/generic exception handling  
}
```

The first `catch` clause with a matching type is selected.  
⇒ Catch derived classes before the base class.

... is valid C++, matches anything

# Catching exceptions

## Example:

```
try {
    cout << "Enter a number: ";
    int i;
    if (cin >> i) {
        int r = f(i);
        cout << "Result: " << r << endl;
    }
}
catch(std::overflow_error&) {
    cout << "Overflow error\n");
}
catch(std::exception& e) {
    cout << typeid(e).name() << ": " << e.what() << endl;
}
```

# Catching exceptions

## Example:

```
try {
    cout << "Enter a number: ";
    int i;
    if (cin >> i) {
        int r = f(i);
        cout << "Result: " << r << endl;
    }
}
catch(std::overflow_error&) {
    cout << "Overflow error\n");
}
catch(std::exception& e) {
    cout << typeid(e).name() << ": " << e.what() << endl;
}
```

predefined function in the class exception

# Catching exceptions

## ... and rethrowing

```
try{
    do_something();
}
catch {std::length_error& le) {
    // handle length error
}
catch {std::out_of_range&) {
    // handle out_of_range
}
catch (...) {
    throw;    // default: pass on
}
```

# Throwing exceptions

## Creating own exceptions as subclasses

```
#include <stdexcept>

class communication_error : public runtime_error {
public:
    communication_error(const string& mess = "")
        : runtime_error(mess) {}
};
```

## Throwing

```
throw communication_error("Checksum error");
```

# Throwing exceptions

## Creating custom exceptions

```
struct MyOwnException{  
    MyOwnException(const std::string& msg, int val)  
        : m{msg},v{val} {}  
    std::string m;  
    int v;  
};
```

## Using custom exceptions

```
void f() {  
    throw MyOwnException("An error occurred", 17);  
}  
  
void test1() {  
    try{  
        f();  
    } catch(MyOwnException &e) {  
        cout << "Exception: " << e.m << " - " << e.v << endl;  
    }  
}
```

# Catching exceptions

## Resource management: destructors and “*stack unwinding*”

```
struct Foo {
    int x;
    Foo(int ix) :x{ix} {
        cout << "Foo("<<x<<")\n";
    }
    ~Foo() {
        cout << "~Foo("<<x<<")\n";
    }
};

void test(int i)
{
    Foo f(i);
    if(i == 0) {
        throw std::out_of_range("noll?");
    } else {
        Foo g(100+i);
        test(i-1);
        cout << "after call to test("
            << i-1 << ")\n";
    }
}
```

```
int main() {
    Foo f(42);
    try{
        Foo g(17);
        test(2);
    } catch(std::exception& e) {
        cout<<e.what()<< endl; }
}

Foo(42)
Foo(17)
Foo(2)
Foo(102)
Foo(1)
Foo(101)
Foo(0)
~Foo(0)
~Foo(101)
~Foo(1)
~Foo(102)
~Foo(2)
~Foo(17)
noll?
~Foo(42)
```

# Catching exceptions

## Resource management: destructors and “*stack unwinding*”

```
struct Foo {
    int x;
    Foo(int ix) :x{ix} {
        cout << "Foo("<<x<<")\n";
    }
    ~Foo() {
        cout << "~Foo("<<x<<")\n";
    }
};

void test(int i)
{
    Foo f(i);
    if(i == 0) {
        throw std::out_of_range("noll?");
    } else {
        Foo g(100+i);
        test(i-1);
        cout << "after call to test("
            << i-1 << ")\n";
    }
}
```

```
int main() {
    Foo f(42);
    try{
        Foo g(17);
        test(2);
    } catch(std::exception& e) {
        cout<<e.what()<< endl; }
}

Foo(42)
Foo(17)
Foo(2)
Foo(102)
Foo(1)
Foo(101)
Foo(0)
~Foo(0)
~Foo(101)
~Foo(1)
~Foo(102)
~Foo(2)
~Foo(17)
noll?
~Foo(42)
```

# Catching exceptions

## Resource management: destructors and “*stack unwinding*”

```
struct Foo {
    int x;
    Foo(int ix) :x{ix} {
        cout << "Foo("<<x<<")\n";
    }
    ~Foo() {
        cout << "~Foo("<<x<<")\n";
    }
};

void test(int i)
{
    Foo f(i);
    if(i == 0) {
        throw std::out_of_range("noll?");
    } else {
        Foo g(100+i);
        test(i-1);
        cout << "after call to test("
            << i-1 << ")\n";
    }
}
```

```
int main() {
    Foo f(42);
    try{
        Foo g(17);
        test(2);
    } catch(std::exception& e) {
        cout<<e.what()<< endl; }
}

Foo(42)
Foo(17)
Foo(2)
Foo(102)
Foo(1)
Foo(101)
Foo(0)
~Foo(0)
~Foo(101)
~Foo(1)
~Foo(102)
~Foo(2)
~Foo(17)
noll?
~Foo(42)
```

# Catching exceptions

## Resource management: destructors and “*stack unwinding*”

```
struct Foo {
    int x;
    Foo(int ix) :x{ix} {
        cout << "Foo("<<x<<")\n";
    }
    ~Foo() {
        cout << "~Foo("<<x<<")\n";
    }
};

void test(int i)
{
    Foo f(i);
    if(i == 0) {
        throw std::out_of_range("noll?");
    } else {
        Foo g(100+i);
        test(i-1);
        cout << "after call to test("
            << i-1 << ")\n";
    }
}
```

```
int main() {
    Foo f(42);
    try{
        Foo g(17);
        test(2);
    } catch(std::exception& e) {
        cout<<e.what()<< endl; }
}

Foo(42)
Foo(17)
Foo(2)
Foo(102)
Foo(1)
Foo(101)
Foo(0)
~Foo(0)
~Foo(101)
~Foo(1)
~Foo(102)
~Foo(2)
~Foo(17)
noll?
~Foo(42)
```

# Catching exceptions

## Resource management: destructors and “*stack unwinding*”

```
struct Foo {
    int x;
    Foo(int ix) :x{ix} {
        cout << "Foo("<<x<<")\n";
    }
    ~Foo() {
        cout << "~Foo("<<x<<")\n";
    }
};

void test(int i)
{
    Foo f(i);
    if(i == 0) {
        throw std::out_of_range("noll?");
    } else {
        Foo g(100+i);
        test(i-1);
        cout << "after call to test("
            << i-1 << ")\n";
    }
}
```

```
int main() {
    Foo f(42);
    try{
        Foo g(17);
        test(2);
    } catch(std::exception& e) {
        cout<<e.what()<< endl; }
}

Foo(42)
Foo(17)
Foo(2)
Foo(102)
Foo(1)
Foo(101)
Foo(0)
~Foo(0)
~Foo(101)
~Foo(1)
~Foo(102)
~Foo(2)
~Foo(17)
noll?
~Foo(42)
```

# Catching exceptions

## Resource management: destructors and “*stack unwinding*”

```
struct Foo {
    int x;
    Foo(int ix) :x{ix} {
        cout << "Foo("<<x<<")\n";
    }
    ~Foo() {
        cout << "~Foo("<<x<<")\n";
    }
};

void test(int i)
{
    Foo f(i);
    if(i == 0) {
        throw std::out_of_range("noll?");
    } else {
        Foo g(100+i);
        test(i-1);
        cout << "after call to test("
            << i-1 << ")\n";
    }
}
```

```
int main() {
    Foo f(42);
    try{
        Foo g(17);
        test(2);
    } catch(std::exception& e) {
        cout<<e.what()<< endl; }
}

Foo(42)
Foo(17)
Foo(2)
Foo(102)
Foo(1)
Foo(101)
Foo(0)
~Foo(0)
~Foo(101)
~Foo(1)
~Foo(102)
~Foo(2)
~Foo(17)
noll?
~Foo(42)
```

# Catching exceptions

## Resource mangement: destructors and “*stack unwinding*”

```
struct Foo {
    int x;
    Foo(int ix) :x{ix} {
        cout << "Foo("<<x<<")\n";
    }
    ~Foo() {
        cout << "~Foo("<<x<<")\n";
    }
};

void test(int i)
{
    Foo f(i);
    if(i == 0) {
        throw std::out_of_range("noll?");
    } else {
        Foo g(100+i);
        test(i-1);
        cout << "after call to test("
            << i-1 << ")\n";
    }
}
```

```
int main() {
    Foo f(42);
    try{
        Foo g(17);
        test(2);
    } catch(std::exception& e) {
        cout<<e.what()<< endl; }
}

Foo(42)
Foo(17)
Foo(2)
Foo(102)
Foo(1)
Foo(101)
Foo(0)
~Foo(0)
~Foo(101)
~Foo(1)
~Foo(102)
~Foo(2)
~Foo(17)
noll?
~Foo(42)
```

# Specifying exceptions in C++11

The keyword **noexcept** specifies if a function may throw or not. No specification is equal to **noexcept(false)**.

## In the function declaration

```
struct Foo {  
    void f();  
    void g() noexcept;  
};
```

## and in the function definition

```
#include <stdexcept>  
void Foo::f() {  
    throw std::runtime_error("f failed");  
}  
void Foo::g() noexcept {  
    throw std::runtime_error("g lied and failed");  
}
```

# Exception specification

## Example usage

```
#include <typeinfo> // for typeid

void test_noexcept()
{
    Foo f;

    try {
        f.f();
    } catch (std::exception &e) {
        cout << typeid(e).name() << ": " << e.what() << endl;
    }
    try {
        f.g();
    } catch (std::exception &e) {
        cout << typeid(e).name() << ": " << e.what() << endl;
    }
    cout << "done\n";
}

St13runtime_error: f failed
terminate called after throwing an instance of 'std::runtime_error'
what(): g lied and failed
```

## Exception specification older C++, do not use

Older C++ had “exception lists” for a function: the types of exceptions that may be generated by the function are specified with the keyword **throw**.

### Example of exception list:

```
int f(int) throw(typ1, typ2, typ3) {  
    //...  
    throw typ1("Error of type 1 occurred");  
    //...  
    throw typ2("Error of type 2 occurred");  
    //...  
    throw typ3("Error of type 3 occurred");  
}
```

No list  $\Rightarrow$  Any type of exception may be thrown  
Empty list (`throw()`)  $\Rightarrow$  No exceptions may be thrown

# Rules of thumb for exceptions

- ▶ Consider error handling early in the design process
- ▶ Use specific exception types, not built-in types.  
(do not `throw 17;`, `throw false;` , etc. )
- ▶ “Throw by value, catch by reference”
- ▶ If a function should not throw, declare `noexcept`.
- ▶ Specify *invariants* for your types
  - ▶ The constructor establishes the invariant, or throws.
  - ▶ Member functions can rely on the invariant.
  - ▶ Member functions must not break the invariant.
  - ▶ Example: `Vector`
    - ▶ the size `sz` is a positive number
    - ▶ the array `elem` points to has size `sz`
    - ▶ if the allocation of the array fails `std::bad_alloc` is thrown

If something can be checked at compile-time, use `static_assert`.

# Static assert

If something can be checked at compile-time, use `static_assert`.

```
static_assert ( bool_constexpr , message )      (since C++11)
    message can be omitted.                    (since C++17)
```

```
constexpr int some_param = 10;
```

```
int foo(int x)
```

```
{
```

```
    static_assert(some_param > 100, "");
```

```
    return 2*x;
```

```
}
```

```
int main()
```

```
{
```

```
    int x = foo(5);
```

```
    std::cout << "x is " << x << std::endl;
```

```
    return 0;
```

```
}
```

```
error: static assertion failed:
```

```
    static_assert(some_param > 100, "");
```

# Static assert

## Type traits

The standard library provides (meta)functions to query properties of types.

```
#include <type_traits>

template <class T>
T foo(const T& t)
{
    static_assert(std::is_copy_constructible<T>::value &&
                  std::is_copy_assignable<T>::value,
                  "foo requires copying");

    ... // the code of the function
}
```

# assert

in <cassert>

A C standard macro for *fail fast* (at run-time).

```
void assert(some expression);
```

Prints an error message and calls `std::abort()` if the value of the expression is **false**.

## Example

```
#include <cassert>

std::vector<int> create_vector(int i)
{
    assert(i>=0);

    return std::vector<int>(i);
}
```

Typically only used during development.  
If `NDEBUG` is defined, it generates no code.

# Type casts

## Implicit conversions

### Automatic conversions

- ▶ Expressions of the type  $x \odot y$ , for some binary operator  $\odot$   
E.g.: `double + int ==> double`  
`float + long + char ==> float`
- ▶ Assignments and initialization: The value of the right-hand-side is converted to the type of the left-hand-side
- ▶ Conversion of an argument to the type of the (formal) parameter
- ▶ Expressions in `if` statements, etc.  $\Rightarrow$  `bool`
- ▶ built-in array  $\Rightarrow$  pointer (*array decay*)
- ▶ `0`  $\Rightarrow$  `nullptr` (empty pointer in C++11, previously the constant `NULL` was defined)

- ▶ `static_cast<new_type> (expr)`
  - convert between compatible types (*does not do range check*)
  - “the inverse of a *standard* implicit conversion” (mostly)
- ▶ `reinterpret_cast<new_type> (expr)`
  - no safety net, same as C-style cast
- ▶ `const_cast<new_type> (expr)` - add or remove **const**
- ▶ `dynamic_cast<new_type> (expr)` - use for pointers to objects in class hierarchies. Uses *run-time type info*, like `instanceof` in Java.

### Example

```
char c;           // 1 byte
int *p = (int*) &c; // pointer to int: 4 bytes

*p = 5; // undefined behaviour, stack corruption

int *q = static_cast<int*> (&c); // compiler error
```

# Type casting

## Explicit type casts, C style

### Syntax in C and in C++, like in Java

(type) expression , e.g. `(float) 10`

- ▶ Greater risk of mistakes - use named casts
  - ▶ makes the code clearer, e.g., `const_cast` can only change `const`
  - ▶ easy to search for: casts are among the first to look for when debugging
- ▶ Warning in GCC: `-Wold-style-casts`
- ▶ Common in older code

### Alternative syntax in C++

```
type(expression)
```

type must be *a single word*,

`int *(...)` eller i.e., `unsigned long(...)` is not OK.

# Data types and variables

- ▶ some concepts:
  - ▶ a *type* defines the set of possible values and operations (for an *object*)
  - ▶ an *object* is a place in memory that holds a *value*
  - ▶ a *value* is a sequence of bits interpreted according to a *type*.

*A typecast changes the **value** of a particular memory location by changing how **it should be interpreted**.*

# Type casts

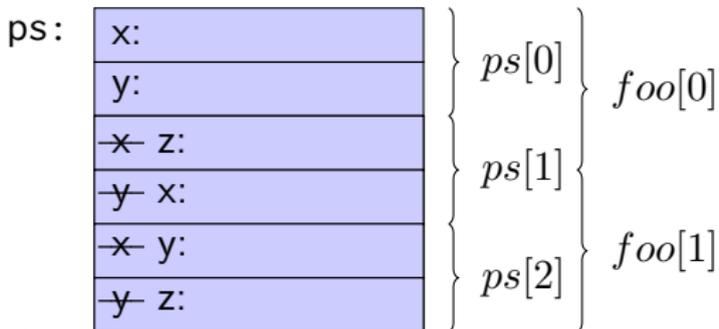
## Warning example

```
struct Point{  
    signed char x;  
    signed char y;  
};
```

```
Point ps[3];
```

```
struct Point3d{  
    signed char x;  
    signed char y;  
    signed char z;  
};
```

```
Point3d* foo = (Point3d*) ps;
```



With *named casts*, this requires a `reinterpret_cast<Point3d*>`

With `static_cast<Point3d*>` the compiler gives the error  
**invalid static\_cast from type 'Point[3]' to type 'Point3d\*'**

## special case: `void` pointer

A `void*` can point to an object of any type

In C a `void*` is implicitly converted to/from any pointer type.

In C++ a `T*` is implicitly converted to `void*`. The other direction requires an explicit *type cast*.

## multi-dimensional arrays

- ▶ Does not (really) exist in C++
  - ▶ are arrays of arrays
  - ▶ Look like in Java
- ▶ Java: array of *references to arrays*
- ▶ C++: two alternatives
  - ▶ Array of arrays
  - ▶ Array of *pointers* (to the first element of an array)

# Multi-dimensional arrays

## Representation of arrays in memory

An array `T array[3]` is represented in memory by a sequence of three elements of type `T`:  
`| T | T | T |`

An array `int a1[4]` is represented as  
`| int | int | int | int |`

Thus, `int a2[3][4]` is represented as three `int[4]` objects:  
`| int | int |`

# Multi-dimensional arrays

Initializing a matrix with an initializer list:

3 rows, 4 columns

```
int a[3][4] = {  
    {0, 1, 2, 3} , /* initializer list for row 0 */  
    {4, 5, 6, 7} , /* initializer list for row 1 */  
    {8, 9, 10, 11} /* initializer list for row 2 */  
};
```

Instead of nested lists one can write the initialization as a single list:

```
int a[3][4] = {0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11};
```

- ▶ Multi-dimensional arrays are stored like an array in memory.
- ▶ The dimension *closest to the name* is the size of the array
- ▶ The remaining dimensions belong to the element type

# Multi-dimensional arrays

## Examples

```
int m[2][3]; // A 2x3-matrix
```

```
m[1][0] = 5;
```

```
int* e = m; // Error! cannot convert 'int [2][3]' to 'int*'
```

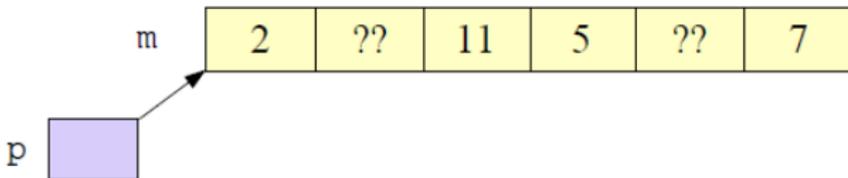
```
int* p = &m[0][0];
```

```
*p = 2;
```

```
p[2] = 11;
```

```
int* q=m[1]; // OK: int[3] decays to int*
```

```
q[2] = 7;
```



# Multi-dimensional arrays

## Parameters of type multi-dimensional arrays

```
// One way of declaring the parameter
void printmatr(int (*a)[4], int n);

// Another option
void printmatr(int a[][4], int n) {
{
    for (int i=0;i<n;++i) {
        for (const auto& x : a[i]) { The elements of a are int[4]
            cout << x << " ";
        }
        cout << endl;
    }
}
}
```

# Multi-dimensional arrays

## Initialization and function call

```
int a[3][4] {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12};  
int b[3][4] {{1,2,3,4},{5,6,7,8},{9,10,11,12}};  
  
printmatr(a,3);  
cout << "-----" << endl;  
printmatr(b,3);
```

1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12

-----

1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12

# Argument Dependent Lookup (ADL)

Name lookup is done in *enclosing scopes*, but...

```
namespace test{
    struct Foo{
        Foo(int v) :x{v} {}
        int x;
    };
    std::ostream& operator<<(std::ostream& o, const Foo& f) {
        return o << "Foo(" << f.x << ")";
    }
} // namespace test

int main()
{
    test::Foo f(17);
    std::cout << f << '\n';
}
```

- ▶ The function `operator<<(ostream&, const Foo&)` is not visible in `main()`.
- ▶ Through ADL it is found in the namespace of its argument (`test`).

# Argument Dependent Lookup (ADL)

```
namespace test{
    struct Foo;
    std::ostream& operator<<(std::ostream& o, const Foo& f);
    using std::cout;
    void print(const Foo& f)
    {
        cout << f << '\n';
    }
    void print(int i)
    {
        cout << i << '\n';
    }
} // namespace test

int main()
{
    test::Foo f(17);

    print(f);
    print(17);
    test::print(17);
}
```

- ▶ The functions `test::operator<<()` and `test::print(const Foo&)` are found through ADL.
- ▶ The function `test::print(int)` is not found.
- ▶ unless `using test::print`.

# Suggested reading

References to sections in Lippman

Error handling, exceptions (5.6, 18.1.1)

Namespaces 18.2

static assert *not in Lippman*

assert 6.5.3

Type casts 4.11

const\_cast and const overloading 6.2 (p 232–233)

Multi-dimensional arrays 3.6

## Next lecture

References to sections in Lippman

Dynamic polymorphism and inheritance chapter 15 – 15.4

Accessibility and scope 15.5 – 15.6

Type conversions and polymorphism 15.2.3

Inheritance and resource management 15.7

Polymorph types and containers 15.8

Multiple inheritance 18.3

Virtual base classes 18.3.4 – 18.3.5