

#### DYNAMIC CASTING, ERROR HANDLING, EXCEPTIONS, NAMESPACES

#### Review

```
void swap( int& a, int& b )
{
    int temp = a;
    a = b;
    b = temp;
}
```

 How do we turn these code bits into a template function/class?

```
class ReadOnly
    public:
       Data( int v )
          val = v;
       int getVal()
          return val;
    private:
       int v;
};
```

#### STL review

- Write a simple program that uses the STL vector class:
  - Adds some random integers
  - Sorts them
    - sort( iterator, iterator );
  - Prints them all out using iterators

### Pointer Problem



- Let's say we have an Animal\*.
- We want a Shark\*, where Shark is a class derived from Animal\*.
- rampage() is a method defined only in Shark.
- Will this work?

```
Animal* a = (some random Animal ptr)
Shark* s = (Shark*)a;
Shark->rampage();
```

#### Fish/Shark/Boom

- Yes but this will **only** work if the pointer is **actually** a Shark!
- This will cause Very Bad Things to happen:

```
Animal* a = new Fish();
Shark* s = (Shark*)a;
s->rampage();
```

 a is **not** a Shark, so there is no rampage method in a! ... Boom.

# Casting and Type Errors

- This is a *type error* : we're trying to turn a pointer into something it's not
- The C casting operator lets you do this, which is why its use is not encouraged with classes
- Instead, we have something new: the dynamic\_cast operator thingy

#### Introducing: dynamic\_cast

- dynamic\_cast attempts to convert the parameter (a) into the requested type (Shark\*)
- If successful it returns a valid pointer
- If not, it returns NULL!

```
Animal* a = new Fish();
Shark* s = dynamic_cast<Shark*>(a);
if( s )
   s->rampage();
```

#### Asserts

- C/C++ includes a function called assert(), which is widely used in debugging
  - **assert** is called with a condition: we want the condition to be true
- If the condition is true, assert() does nothing; if the condition is false, assert() prints a message and ends the program

- Here's an example:
- We want to make sure a pointer is not NULL
- While debugging, we use assert; if the pointer is NULL when assert is called, the program will terminate with a helpful message
- very helpful, but for "real" programs you often want better debugging can this!

```
// get the first node in the list
Node* ptr = list.getFirstNode();
```

```
// this should always return a valid ptr
assert( ptr != NULL );
```

# Error Handling

 With simple programs, we assume everything is going to work... but programs sometimes have errors!

#### **Example:**

deleteFile( "c:\\temp.txt" );

- the file might not exist
- It might not be delete-able
- something else might go wrong



### Return Codes

- By convention, C functions use return values to indicate success/failure (sometimes known as return codes)
- This can be a pain, because you may have to sometimes check for multiple different errors every time you call a function

```
int returnVal = deleteFile( "c:\\temp.txt" );
if( returnVal == ERR_FILE_DOES_NOT_EXIST )
    cout << "File Does Not Exist";
else if( returnVal == ERR_FILE_NOT_WRITEABLE )
    cout << "File not writable!";
// ... etc.</pre>
```

# Introducing C++ Exceptions

- So... we can't ignore error checking and just assume everything is going to work
- But error-checking every single function is a pain
- C++ introduced an alternative mechanism, called exceptions



### Exceptions

- Basic idea: you *try* to do something in C++, specifically the sorts of things that might fail
  - opening a file, requesting memory, etc.
- If that fails, your code *throws* an exception: a small object, an integer, etc.
- Your code *catches* that exception, and deals with it in an *exception handler*
- If nothing goes wrong, none of the error handing code gets called - the program proceeds normally and all handlers are ignored

### **Exception Structure**

 We arrange code that uses exceptions in try/catch blocks:

```
try
{
   // Do something that could cause an error
   // throw an exception on error
}
catch( exception )
{
   // handle the error: print a
   // message, quit the program...
   // whatever.
}
```

# **Throwing Exceptions**



# Try/Catch Blocks

- Every **try** block requires at least one **catch** (there can be more than one).
- Each **catch** block needs to accept a single parameter of a specific type:
- The appropriate exception handler will get called, depending on what kind of exception gets thrown

```
catch( int e )
{
    cout << "INT:" << e;
}
catch( MadCow e )
{
    cout << "MOO!" << e.moo();
}</pre>
```

### Catch-all Block

- We can also define a *catch-all* exception handler: this will get called if none of the other exception handlers "match"
- There's no parameter to the catch-all! (why not?)



```
catch( int e ) {}
catch( MadCow e ) {}
catch( ... ) // catchall handler
{
    cout << "default!" << endl;
}</pre>
```

```
int main()
   cout << "1";
   try
   {
      cout << "2";
      throw 42;
      cout << "3";
   catch(...)
      cout << "BOOM!";</pre>
   cout << "4";
   return 0;
}
```

# Code Flow

- After an exception is thrown and caught, execution picks up again after the exception handler!
- It does **not** start again after the throw statement
- What is the output of this program?

# Nesting Exceptions

- You can have multiple levels of **try/catch** blocks (much like if/else statements)
- If an exception is thrown:
  - The first matching exception handler in the current level is called
  - If there isn't one, higher levels are tried
  - If no matching handler is found at any level, the program terminates
  - This is also what happens if you **throw** outside a try/catch block!

```
cout << "1";
try
   cout << "2";
   try
      cout << "3";
      throw 42.3f;
      cout << "4";
   }
   catch( int a )
      cout << "boom one;</pre>
   cout << "5";
catch( float f )
   cout << "boom two;</pre>
cout << "6";
```

# Example

- What is the output of this impressively dense chunk of code?
- Remember: after an exception has been handled, the next code to be executed is the code after the handler



## What Do We Throw?

- Most any type (object, built-in, etc) can be thrown
- Often there will be a special exception class:
  - C++ has a standard base class for exceptions called **exception** that can be used as a base class

```
class myexception: public exception
{
    virtual const char* what() const
    {
        return "My exception happened";
    }
}
```

# Putting This Into Context

• Earlier we used the (fictional) **deleteFile** function as an example:

```
int returnVal = deleteFile( "c:\\temp.txt" );
if( returnVal == ERR_FILE_DOES_NOT_EXIST )
    cout << "File Does Not Exist";
else if( returnVal == ERR_FILE_NOT_WRITEABLE )
    cout << "File not writable!";
// ... etc.</pre>
```

• If we rewrite this to use exceptions, we can make the code cleaner to read



- Since we're catching a *reference* to an **exception**, we can catch derived classes too (such as FileException)
- Also note that exceptions can be thrown by functions (aka code *outside* of this function)

# **Exceptions Philosophy**

```
try
   One();
   Two();
   Three();
   Four();
   Five();
}
catch( ... )
   cout << "err";</pre>
}
```

- There's disagreement on how widely exceptions should be used...
- ... they sometimes make it hard to tell whether code will be executed
- Can you tell whether Two() will be executed just by looking?
- Three()? Four()?

# Goodly Exceptions

- When using exceptions:
  - Use them for exceptional circumstances -
  - don't have your code <u>depend</u> on them!
    - one reason: exceptions are expensive
  - try to structure your code so that exceptions are only used when needed
    - helps keep things readable



#### Problem...

#### vendorone.h

#### vendortoo.h

```
class Data
```

```
// contents ignored
```

```
};
```

```
class Data
{
    // contents ignored
};
```

#### code.cpp

```
#include "vendorone.h"
#include "vendortoo.h"
int main()
{
    return 0;
}
```

- This code is problematic.
- What kind(s) of error(s) is it going to cause?
- What is the scope of these classes?

# Namespaces

- Namespaces are a new(ish) C++ feature designed to solve this problem by "grouping" symbols so they don't clash with each other
- We've been using this all semester: we can use cout two different ways:
  - using namespace std; cout << "hello";</pre>
  - std::cout << "hello" << endl;</pre>

# Applying Namespaces

#### vendorone.h

```
namespace VendorOne
{
    class Data
    {
        // contents ignored
    };
}
```

vendortoo.h

```
namespace VendorToo
{
    class Data
    {
        // contents ignored
    };
}
```

- A namespace introduces a scope...
- Neither **Data** class is now in the global scope, so they can both co-exist happily
- Their names are now VendorOne::Data and VendorToo:Data

## **Declaring Namespaces**

- Namespaces can be declared more than once
- The contents of a namespace are the accumulation of all the declarations the compiler has seen so far

```
namespace bob
   int x;
   int y;
}
// at this point bob
// contains x and y
namespace bob
   int z;
}
// at this point bob
// contains x, y, and z
```

### Using Namespace'd Items

• We have a few options to use the Data class:

```
#include "VendorOne.h"
int main()
{
    VendorOne::Data bob;
}
```

```
#include "VendorOne.h"
using namespace VendorOne;
int main()
{
    Data bob;
```

• The **using** keyword makes everything from that namespace available in the global scope

}

• What happens if we do this...

using namespace VendorOne
using namespace VendorToo;

# **Conflicting Namespaces**

- This isn't a problem unless we try and use the Data class
- If we do, then there's a conflict!

```
#include "VendorOne.h"
#include "VendorToo.h"
using namespace VendorOne;
using namespace VendorToo;
int main()
{
    Data bob;
}
```

• How do you fix this?

# The using keyword

- As we've seen, the **using** keyword can make an entire namespace available for us
- It can also make *individual pieces* of a namespace available

```
#include "VendorOne.h"
using VendorOne::Data;
int main()
{
    Data bob;
}
```

- This makes only the Data class from VendorOne available - not anything else in that namespace
- You can use this to import functions, too, and even class member functions

## Unnamed Namespaces

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
namespace
{
   int x;
}
namespace
{
   int q;
}
int main()
{
   q = 0;
   cout << ::x;</pre>
   return 0;
}
```

- A namespace without a name is (duh) called an **unnamed namespace**
- Elements in an unnamed namespace can be accessed with or without the scope resolution operator
- Internally, an unnamed namespace has a privately generated name
- Can't clash with unnamed namespaces from other source files!



# A new thing...

• We often find ourselves doing stuff like this:

```
int bob;
if( someConditionIsTrue )
    bob = 17;
else
    bob = 96;
```

 ... where we just want to execute a single statement based on the outcome of some condition (here, setting a value).

#### A Shortcut:

- C++ provides us a nifty shortcut to do this sort of thing:
- The ternary operator!
  - (what does ternary mean?)

# An Example

#### This unwieldy piece of code:

int bob;

```
if( someCondition )
    bob = 17;
else
    bob = 96;
```

#### can be reduced to this:

int bob = someCondition ? 17 : 96;

# Anatomy of the Ternary Operator

#### condition ? truePart : falsePart

this would go in the if statement



the single statement that gets executed if **condition** is false



# Usages

- What is this good for?
- Shortening code

```
int max( int a, int b )
{
    return a > b ? a : b;
}
```



• Assigning const values conditionally

```
bool correct = getValue();
const int PI = correct ? 3.14 : 92.8;
```



### Question

- Hopefully you should know the answer to this by now...
- Why might the ternary operator not always be a good idea?

### Bad Code!

- On the other end of the conditional execution scale:
- When you are testing a single value against a lot of conditions, you get a lot of hard-to-read code
- Like this!

```
int input = getInput();
if( input == 0 )
   doStuff();
else if( input == 1 )
   doSomethingElse();
else if( input == 2 )
   doAThirdThing();
else if( input == 3 )
   playSpades();
else if( input == 4 )
   watchScrubs();
else if( input == 5 )
   goBirdWatching();
else if( input == 6 )
   eatHamburger();
```

## the switch statement

}

- The switch statement is often a more elegant, sometimes faster way to do this
- **switch** tests a single integer variable against a large number of conditions
- Here we're checking input against 0 - 6

```
int input = getInput();
switch( input )
   case 0: doStuff();
            break;
   case 1: doSomethingElse();
            break;
   case 2: doAThirdThing();
            break;
   case 3: playSpades();
            break;
   case 4: watchScrubs();
            break;
   case 5: goBirdWatching();
            break;
   case 6: eatHamburger();
            break;
```





#### Case Statements

- When the input value is equal to a case value, everything until the next
   break is executed
- Even code in other case statements!
  - this is called falling through
- Any code that can go in a function can go in a case statement

```
char grade = getGrade();
switch( grade )
{
    case 'A': callMom();
               cout << "yay!";</pre>
               postOnFridge();
               break;
    case 'D': sigh();
    case 'F': grumble();
               cout << "boo.";</pre>
               studyHarder();
               break;
}
```

#### Default Statements

- Code in the default statement is executed if none of the case statements are true
- There can be only one of these per switch statement



```
char grade = getGrade();
switch( grade )
Ł
    case 'A': callMom();
               cout << "yay!";</pre>
               postOnFridge();
               break;
    case 'D': sigh();
    case 'F': grumble();
               cout << "boo.";</pre>
               studyHarder();
               break;
    default: cout << "meh.";</pre>
               eatHamburger();
               break;
}
```

#### A Random Note About C++ Conditionals

```
bool one()
{
   cout << "one()" << endl;</pre>
   return false;
}
bool two()
{
   cout << "two()" << endl;</pre>
   return false;
}
int main()
{
    if( one() && two() )
         cout << "true" << endl;</pre>
    return 0;
}
```

What is the output of this program?

### Minimal Evaluation

- C++ uses a strategy called minimal evaluation or short circuit evaluation to avoid doing unnecessary work
- This comes into play with the && operator, which is evaluated left-to-right:



## Minimal Evaluation

- Keep minimal evaluation in mind when writing conditional expressions
- This can actually be really handy!

```
if( ptr && ptr->value == 42 )
{
    // do stuff
}
```

 Here, we won't access ptr->value unless ptr is non-null

