



# Efficient C++ Programming

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INFN-CNAF

ESC24 — Bertinoro, 15–24 October 2024

<https://agenda.infn.it/event/40488>



# Outline

Introduction

Algorithms and functions

Containers

Compile-time computation

Resource management

Move semantics

Additional material

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- efficient (*“you don’t pay for what you don’t use”*)
- standard

- Start from
  - <https://isocpp.org/>
  - <https://cppreference.com/>
  - <https://isocpp.github.io/CppCoreGuidelines/CppCoreGuidelines>
- Main C++ conferences
  - <https://github.com/cppcon>,  
<https://youtube.com/cppcon>
  - <https://github.com/boostcon>,  
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# Standards

- A new standard is published every three years.
- *Working drafts*, almost the same as the final published document

C++03 <https://wg21.link/n1905>

C++11 <https://wg21.link/std11>

C++14 <https://wg21.link/std14>

C++17 <https://wg21.link/std17>

C++20 <https://wg21.link/std20>

C++23 <https://wg21.link/std23>

$\text{\LaTeX}$  sources at <https://github.com/cplusplus/draft>,  
rendered as HTML at <https://eel.is/c++draft/>

- *Working papers* at

<http://www.open-std.org/jtc1/sc22/wg21/docs/papers/>

# Compilers

- The ESC machines provide many compilers: use gcc 12.3 (see instructions on how to enable it)
- You can also edit and try your code online with multiple compilers at
  - <https://godbolt.org/>
  - <https://coliru.stacked-crooked.com/>
  - <https://wandbox.org/>

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# The C++ standard library

- The standard library contains components of general use
  - containers (data structures)
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  - random numbers
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- But templates are everywhere

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Numeric `iota` `accumulate` `inner_product` `partial_sum`  
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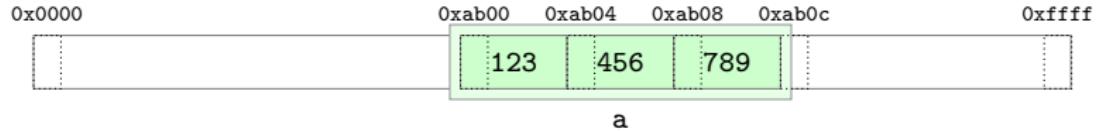
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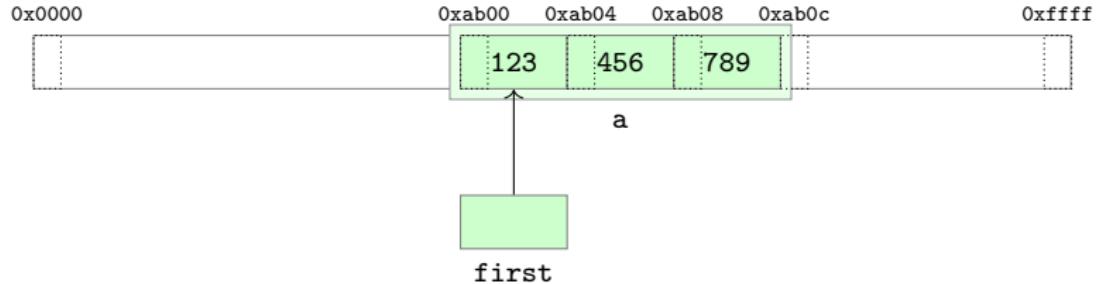
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- C++20 introduced **ranges**, a new library of *concepts* and components for dealing with ranges of objects (not discussed here)

# Range (cont.)



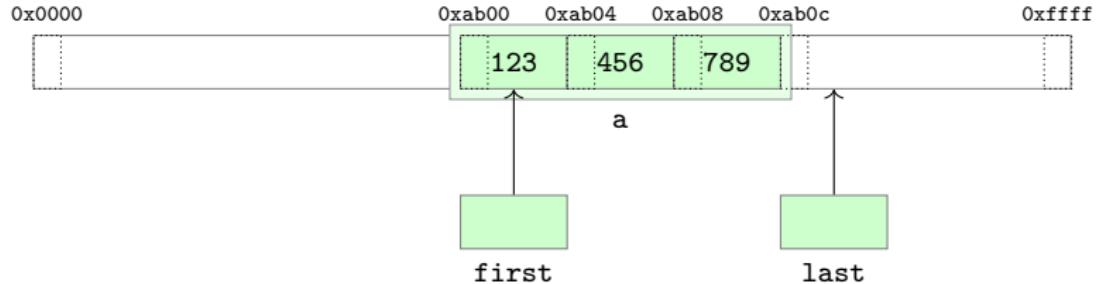
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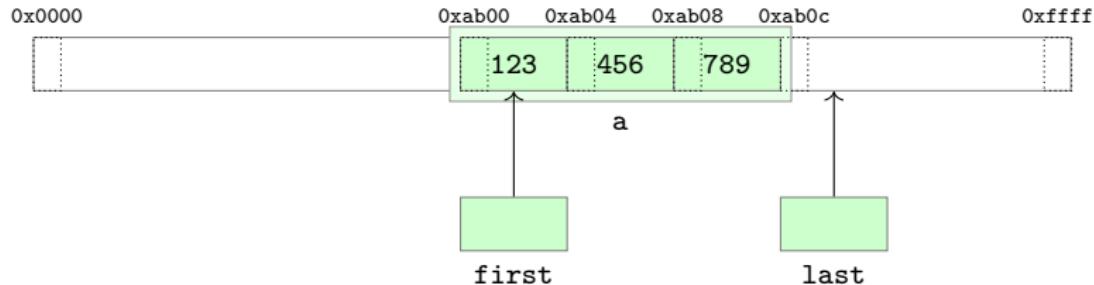
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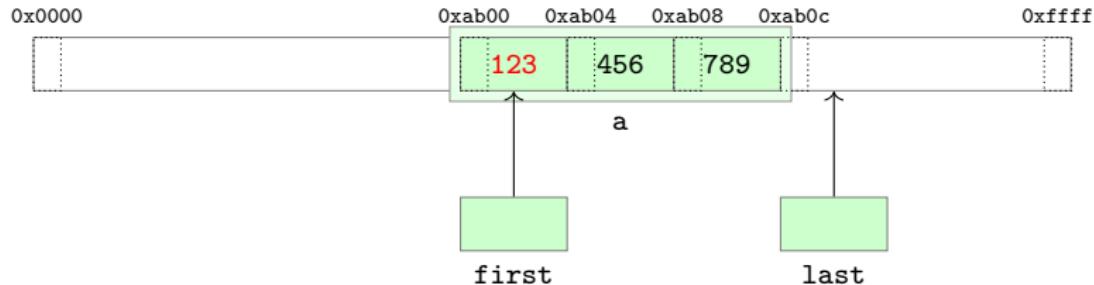
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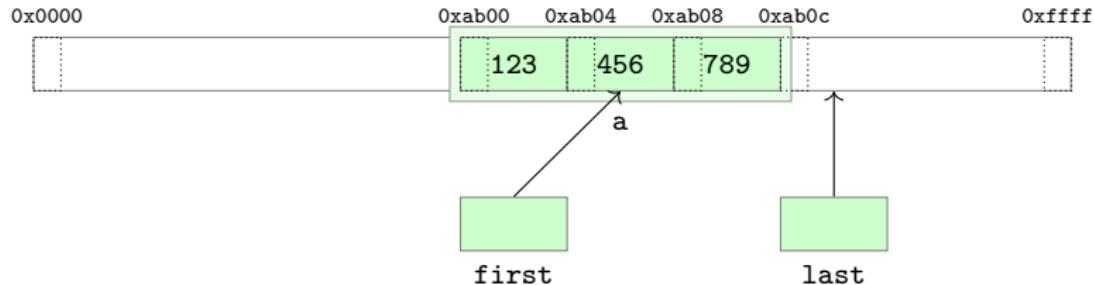
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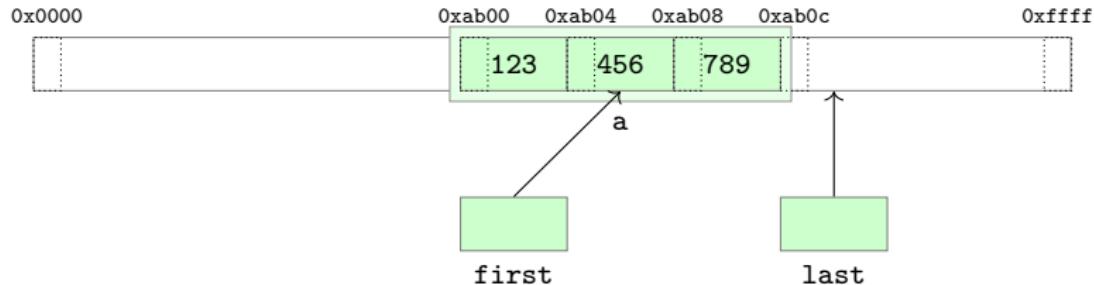
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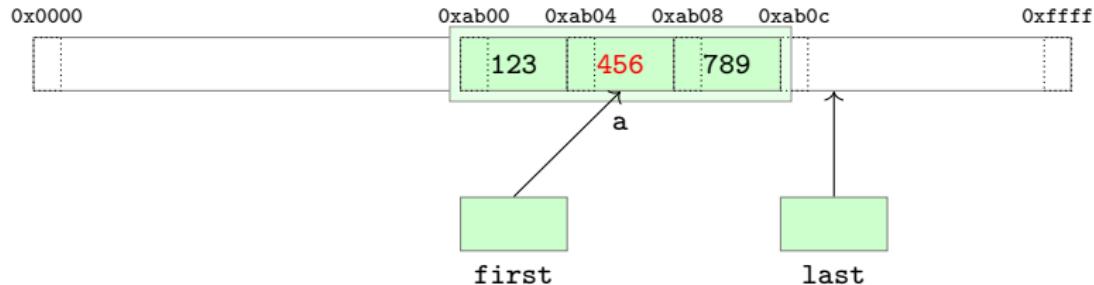
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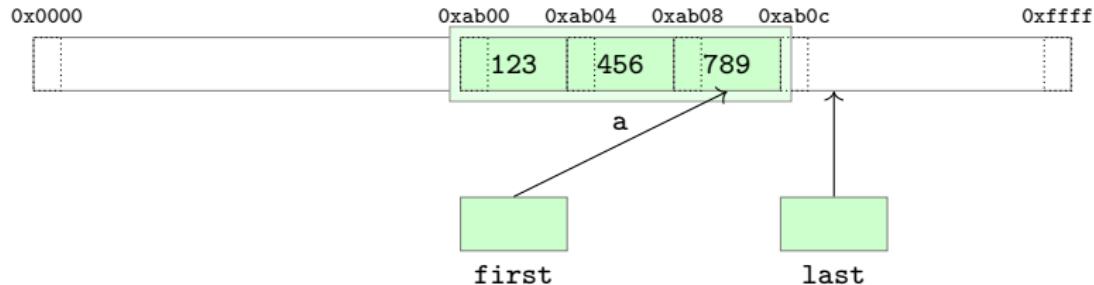
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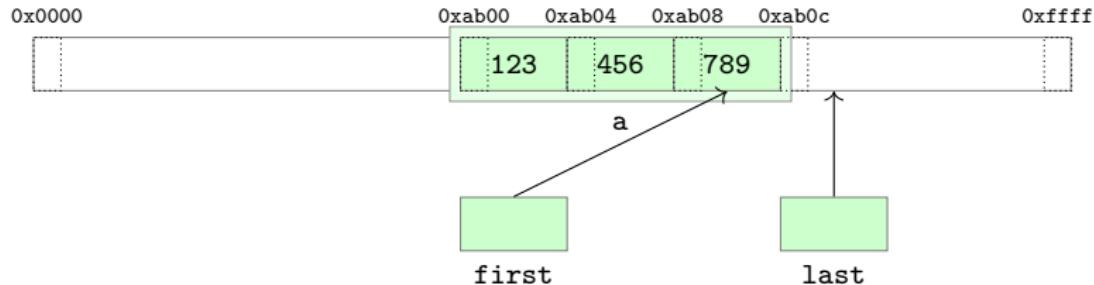
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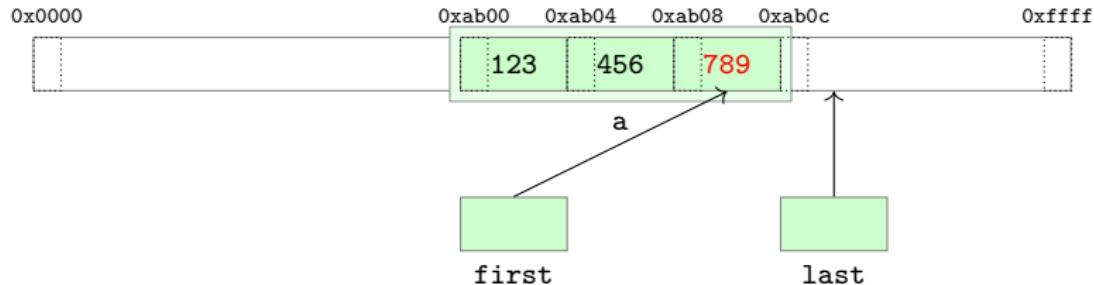
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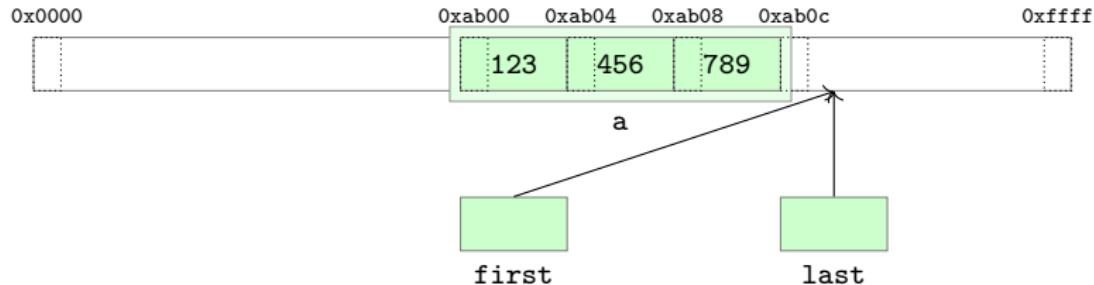
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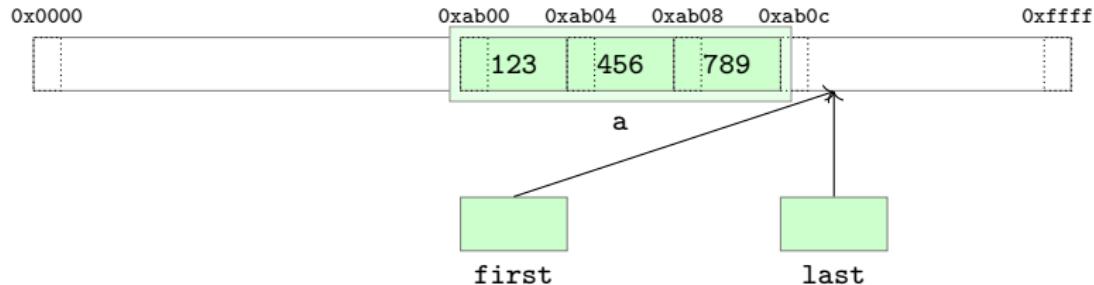
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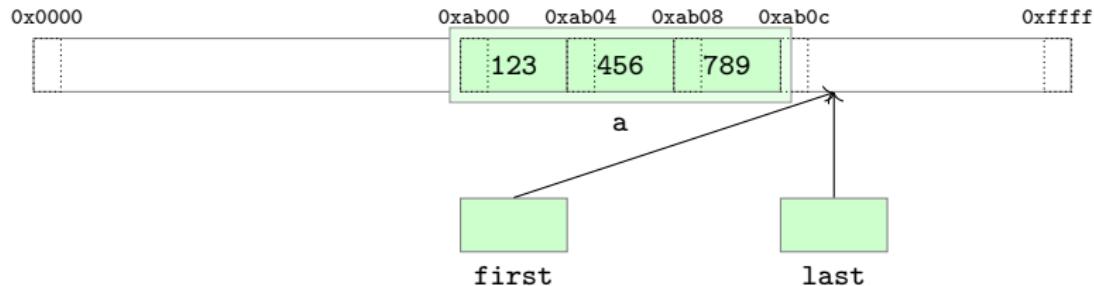
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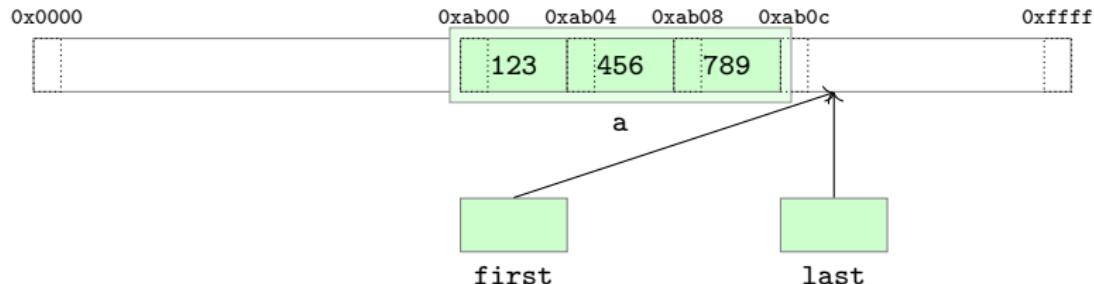
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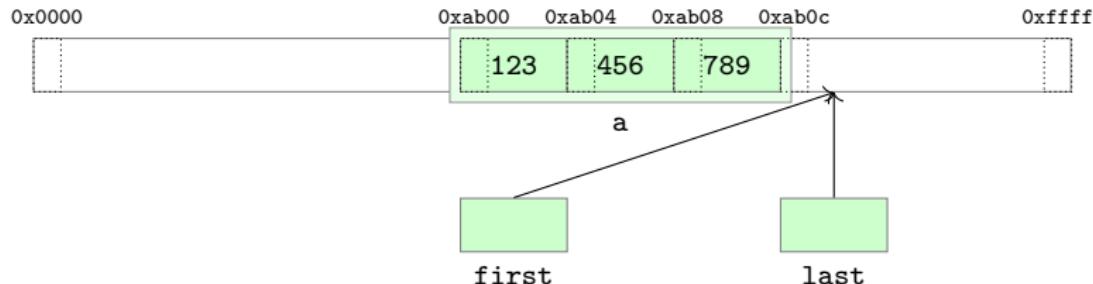
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template <class Iterator, class T>
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find(Iterator first, Iterator last, const T& value)
{
    for (; first != last; ++first)
        if (*first == value)
            break;
    return first;
}
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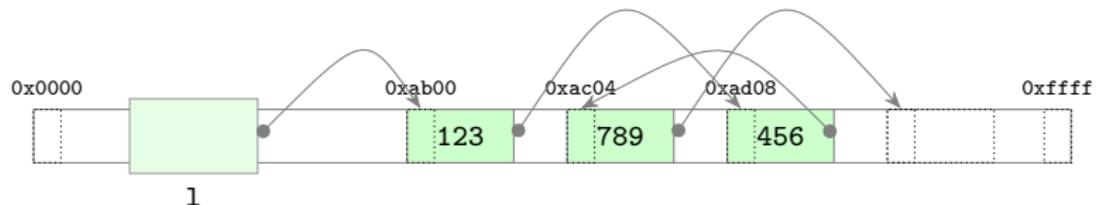
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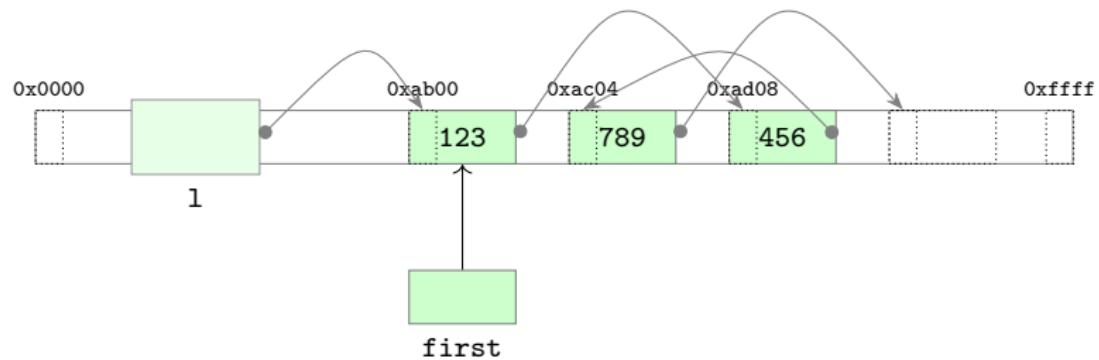
- A concept is a set of requirements that a type needs to satisfy
  - e.g. supported expressions, nested types, memory layout, ...

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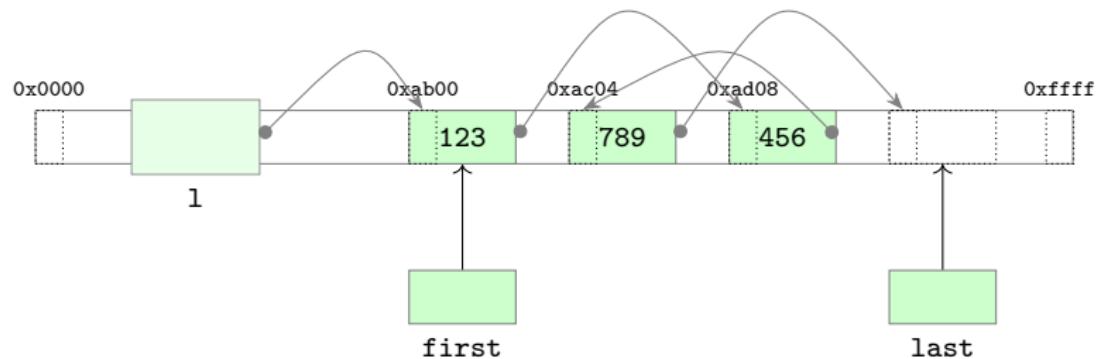
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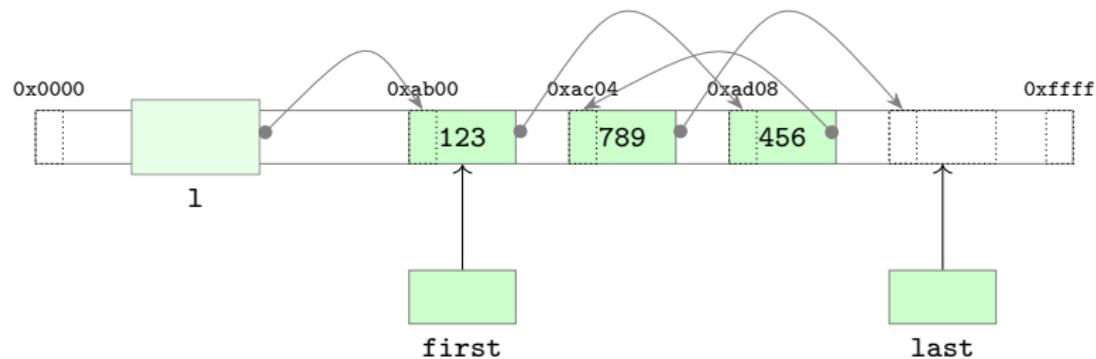
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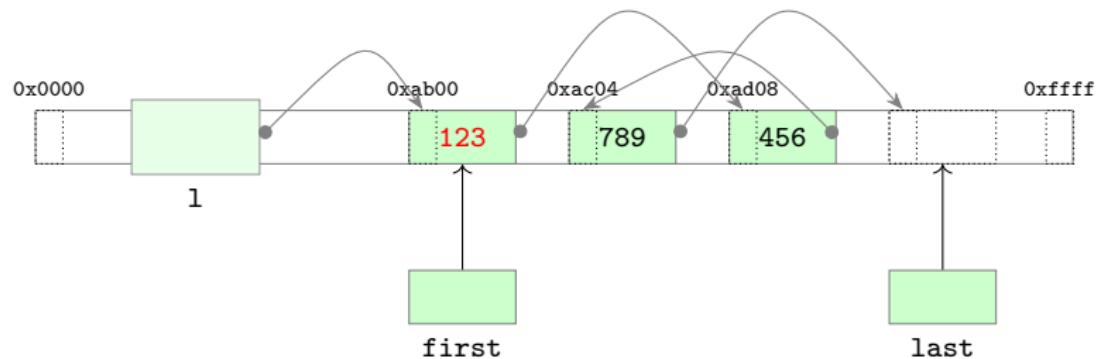
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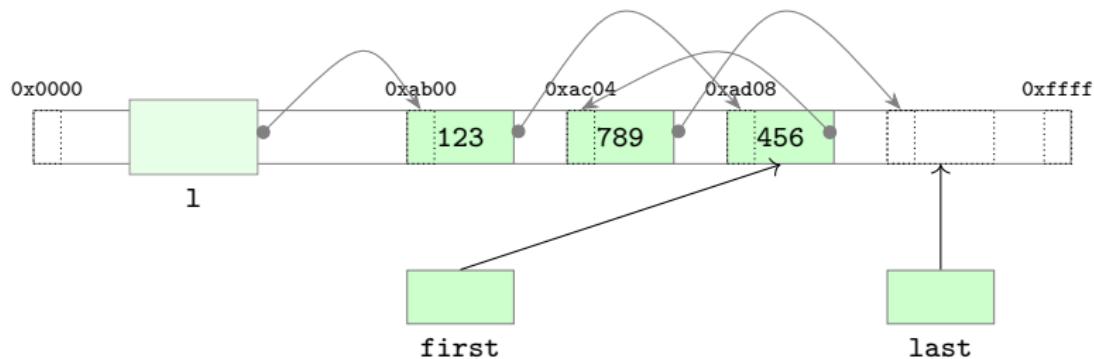
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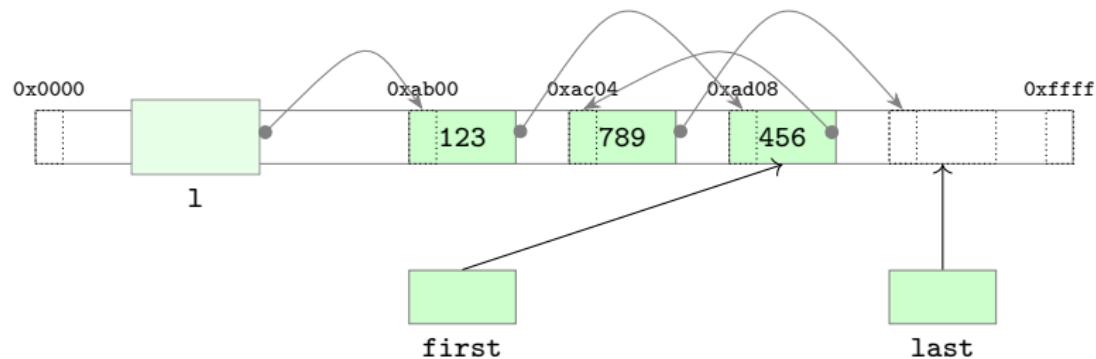
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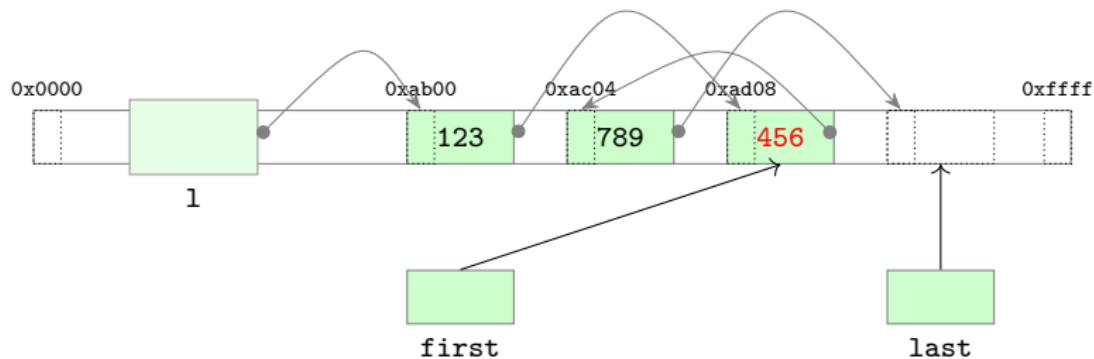
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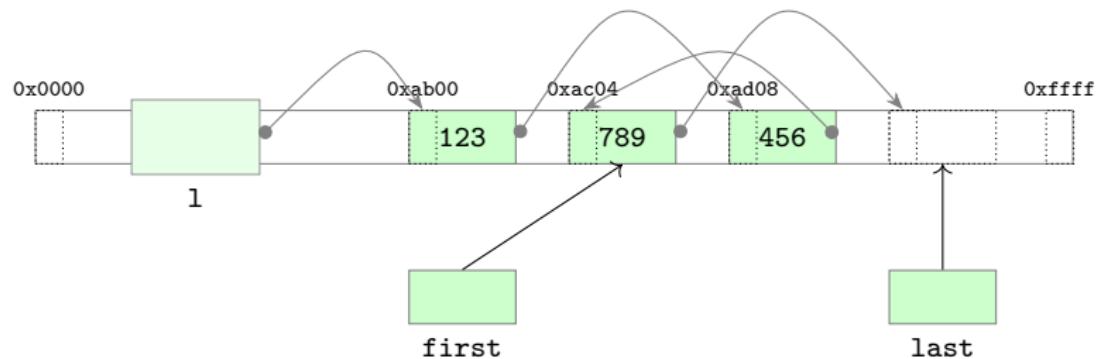
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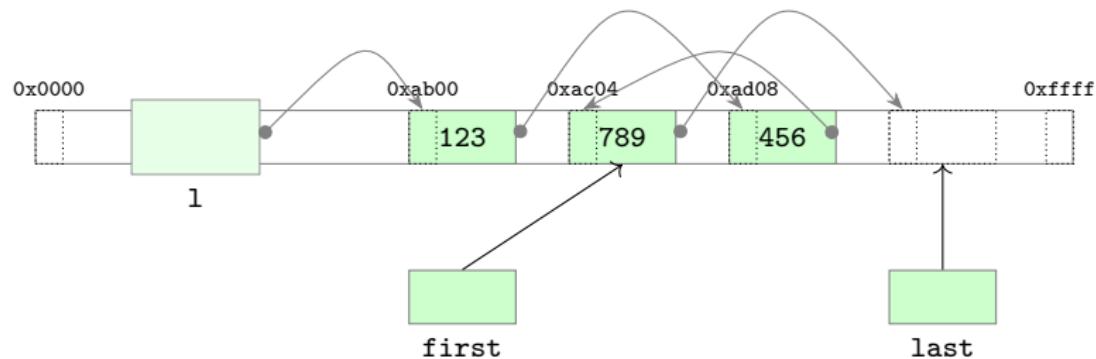
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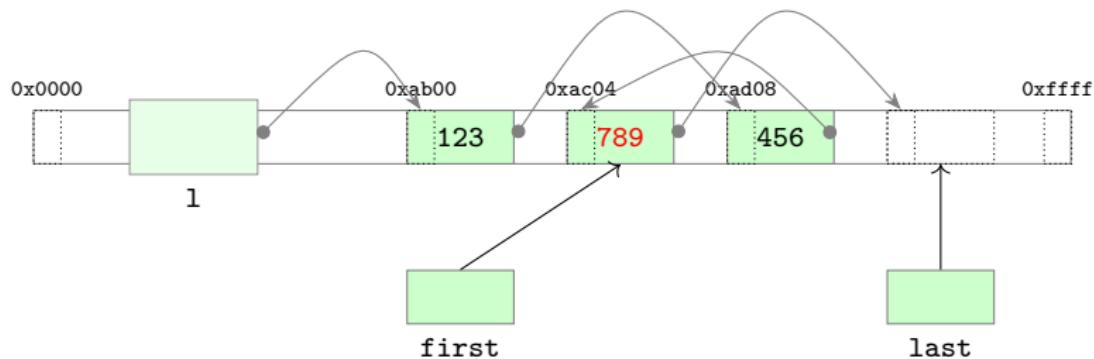
```
std::forward_list<int> l{123, 456, 789};  
auto first = l.begin();  
auto const last = l.end();  
while (first != last) {  
    ... *first ...;  
    ++first;  
}
```

## Range (cont.)



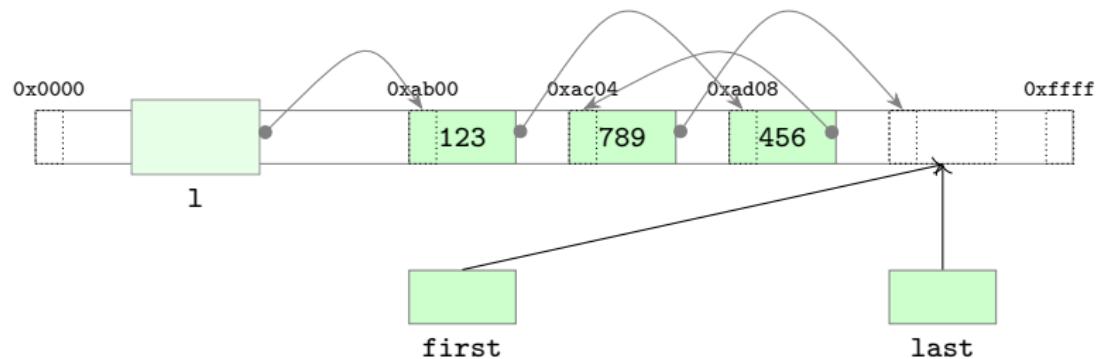
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```

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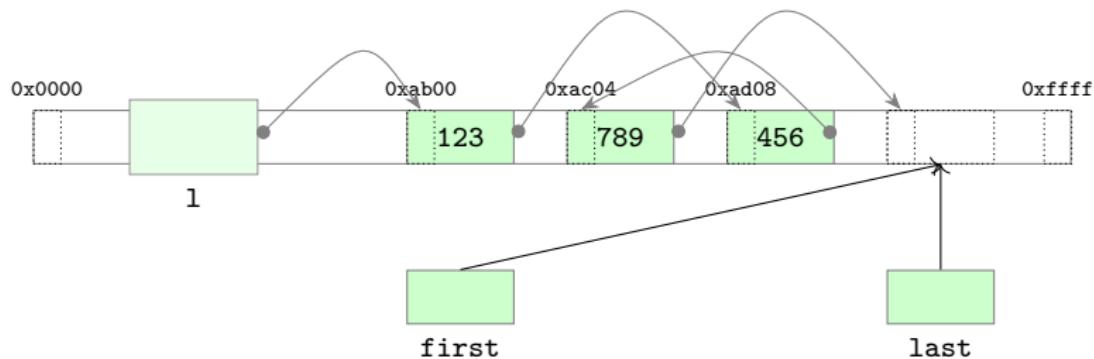
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    ... *first ...;  
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}
```

## Range (cont.)



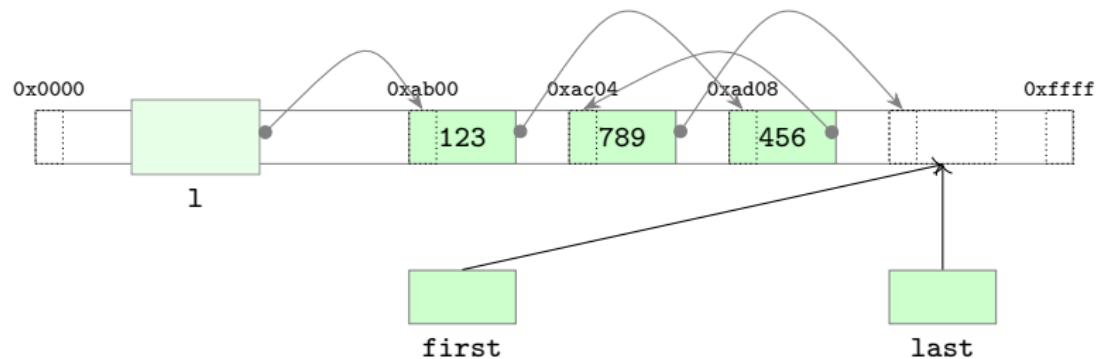
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auto first = l.begin();  
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}
```

## Range (cont.)



```
std::forward_list<int> l{123, 456, 789};  
auto first = l.begin();  
auto const last = l.end();  
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    ++first;  
}
```

## Range (cont.)



```
std::forward_list<int> l{123, 456, 789};  
auto first = l.begin();  
auto const last = l.end();  
while (first != last) {  
    ... *first ...;  
    ++first;  
}
```

- `std::forward_list<T>::iterator` models the *ForwardIterator* concept

# Algorithms and ranges

- Examples

```
std::vector v{ 23, 54, 41, 0, 18 };

// sort the vector in ascending order
std::sort(std::begin(v), std::end(v));

// sum up the vector elements, initializing the sum to 0
auto s = std::accumulate(std::begin(v), std::end(v), 0);
auto r = std::reduce(std::begin(v), std::end(v));

// append the partial sums of the vector elements into a list
std::list<int> l;
std::partial_sum(std::begin(v), std::end(v), std::back_inserter(l));

// find the first element with value 42
auto it = std::find(std::begin(v), std::end(v), 42);
```

- Some algorithms are customizable passing a function

```
auto it = std::find_if(v.begin(), v.end(), filter);
```

# Hands-on

- C++ → Algorithms
- Starting from algo.cpp and following the hints, write code to
  - sum all the elements of the vector
  - compute the average of the first half and of the second half of the vector
  - remove duplicate elements
  - move the three central numbers to the beginning
  - ...

# Why using standard algorithms

- They are correct

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- They express intent more clearly than a raw `for` loop
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```
#include <execution>

std::vector<int> v{ ... };
std::sort(std::execution::par, v.begin(), v.end());
auto it = std::find(std::execution::par, v.begin(), v.end(), 42);
```

# Computational complexity

- A measure of how many resources a computation will need for a given input size
  - Typically the resource is time but can be space (memory)
  - For example: how many comparisons does the sort algorithm do for a range of one million elements?
- Of typical interest are the average case and the worst case

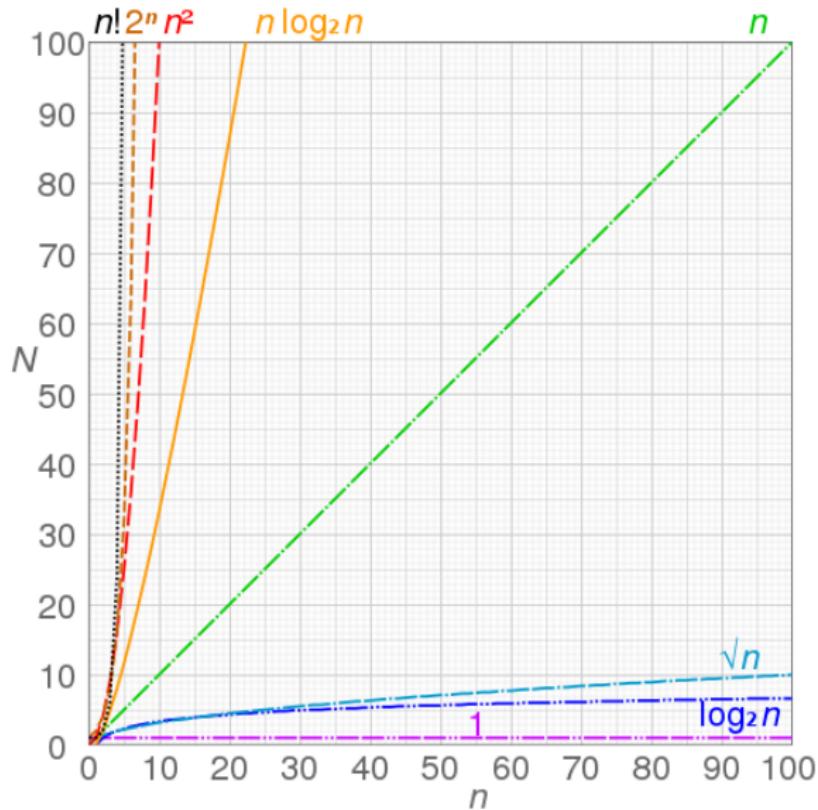
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- The complexity is a function  $f$  of the input size  $n$ , but usually only the asymptotic behaviour is given
  - Big-O notation
  - $\mathcal{O}(g(n))$  means that, for a large  $n$ ,  $f(n) \leq cg(n)$ , for some constant  $c$
  - Note how constant factors don't matter in big-O notation

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  - Note how constant factors don't matter in big-O notation
- For example
  - `std::vector<T>::push_back` is (amortized)  $\mathcal{O}(1)$
  - `std::binary_search` is  $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$
  - `std::find` is  $\mathcal{O}(n)$
  - `std::sort` is  $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$

# Computational complexity (cont.)



# Hands-on

- C++ → Algorithms
- Starting from `algo_par.cpp` and following the hints, write code to
  - sum all the elements of the vector, with and without parallelization
  - sort the vector, with and without parallelization
  - ...

and compare the execution times.

# Functions

- A function associates a sequence of statements (the function *body*) with a name and a list of zero or more parameters
- A function may return a value
- Multiple functions can have the same name → *overloading*
  - different parameter lists

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- A function associates a sequence of statements (the function *body*) with a name and a list of zero or more parameters
- A function may return a value
- Multiple functions can have the same name → *overloading*
  - different parameter lists
- A function returning a bool is called a *predicate*

```
bool less(int n, int m) { return n < m; }
```

# Algorithms and functions

```
template <class Iterator, class T>
Iterator find(Iterator first, Iterator last, const T& value)
{
    for (; first != last; ++first)
        if (*first == value)
            break;
    return first;
}

auto it = find(v.begin(), v.end(), 42);
```

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template <class Iterator, class Predicate>
Iterator find_if(Iterator first, Iterator last, Predicate pred)
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    for (; first != last; ++first)
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{
    for (; first != last; ++first)
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            break;
    return first;
}

bool lt42(int n) { return n < 42; }

auto it = find_if(v.begin(), v.end(), lt42);
auto it = find_if(v.begin(), v.end(), [](int n) { return n < 42; } );
```

Some algorithms are customizable passing a function

# Function objects

A mechanism to define *something-callable-like-a-function*

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auto lt42(int n)
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```
auto lt42(int n)
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auto b = lt42(32); // true

std::vector v {61,32,51};
auto it = std::find_if(
    v.begin(), v.end(),
    lt42
); // *it == 32
```

# Function objects

A mechanism to define *something-callable-like-a-function*

- A class with an operator()

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```
struct LessThan42 {
    auto operator()(int n) const
    {
        return n < 42;
    }
};
```

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```
struct LessThan42 {
    auto operator()(int n) const
    {
        return n < 42;
    }
};

LessThan42 lt42{};
```

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    auto operator()(int n) const
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LessThan42 lt42{};
// or: auto lt42 = LessThan42{};
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struct LessThan42 {
    auto operator()(int n) const
    {
        return n < 42;
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};

LessThan42 lt42{};
// or: auto lt42 = LessThan42{};
auto b = lt42(32); // true

std::vector v {61,32,51};
auto it = std::find_if(
    v.begin(), v.end(),
    lt42 // or directly: LessThan42{}
); // *it == 32
```

## Function objects (cont.)

A function object, being the instance of a class, can have state

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A function object, being the instance of a class, can have state

```
class LessThan {  
    int m_;  
public:  
    explicit LessThan(int m) : m_{m} {}  
    auto operator()(int n) const {  
        return n < m_;  
    }  
};
```

## Function objects (cont.)

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class LessThan {  
    int m_;  
public:  
    explicit LessThan(int m) : m_{m} {}  
    auto operator()(int n) const {  
        return n < m_;  
    }  
};  
  
LessThan lt42 {42};  
auto b1 = lt42(32); // true
```

## Function objects (cont.)

A function object, being the instance of a class, can have state

```
class LessThan {  
    int m_;  
public:  
    explicit LessThan(int m) : m_{m} {}  
    auto operator()(int n) const {  
        return n < m_;  
    }  
};  
  
LessThan lt42 {42};  
auto b1 = lt42(32); // true  
  
LessThan lt24 {24};  
auto b2 = lt24(32); // false
```

# Function objects (cont.)

A function object, being the instance of a class, can have state

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public:  
    explicit LessThan(int m) : m_{m} {}  
    auto operator()(int n) const {  
        return n < m_;  
    }  
};  
  
LessThan lt42 {42};  
auto b1 = lt42(32); // true  
  
LessThan lt24 {24};  
auto b2 = lt24(32); // false  
  
std::vector v {61,32,51};  
auto i1 = std::find_if(..., lt42); // *i1 == 32  
  
auto i2 = std::find_if(..., lt24); // i2 == v.end(), i.e. not found
```

## Function objects (cont.)

A function object, being the instance of a class, can have state

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class LessThan {  
    int m_;  
public:  
    explicit LessThan(int m) : m_{m} {}  
    auto operator()(int n) const {  
        return n < m_;  
    }  
};  
  
LessThan lt42 {42};  
auto b1 = lt42(32); // true  
// or: auto b1 = LessThan{42}(32);  
LessThan lt24 {24};  
auto b2 = lt24(32); // false  
// or: auto b2 = LessThan{24}(32);  
  
std::vector v {61,32,51};  
auto i1 = std::find_if(..., lt42); // *i1 == 32  
// or: auto i1 = std::find_if(..., LessThan{42});  
auto i2 = std::find_if(..., lt24); // i2 == v.end(), i.e. not found  
// or: auto i2 = std::find_if(..., LessThan{24});
```

# Function objects (cont.)

An example from the standard library

```
#include <random>

// random bit generator
std::default_random_engine eng;

// generate N 32-bit unsigned integer numbers
for (int n = 0; n != N; ++n) {
    std::cout << eng() << '\n';
}

// generate N floats distributed normally (mean: 0., stddev: 1.)
std::normal_distribution<float> dist;
for (int n = 0; n != N; ++n) {
    std::cout << dist(eng) << '\n';
}

// generate N ints distributed uniformly between 1 and 6 included
std::uniform_int_distribution<> roll_dice(1, 6);
for (int n = 0; n != N; ++n) {
    std::cout << roll_dice(eng) << '\n';
}
```

## Exercise: Let's implement std::default\_random\_engine

`std::default_random_engine` usually is an alias for a *linear congruential generator*. Let's consider `minstd_rand0`, which produces a sequence according to

$$x_{n+1} = 16807x_n \mod (2^{31} - 1)$$

Write a class `LinearCongruential` whose constructor initializes the sequence with a seed (with a default value of 1) and an `operator()` that updates the internal value (the  $x_n$ ) and returns it. The type of the numbers involved in the computations is `unsigned long int`.

Print a few numbers and check that they correspond to what is produced by `std::default_random_engine`.

# Lambda expression

- A concise way to create an unnamed function object
- Useful to pass actions/callbacks to algorithms, threads, frameworks, ...

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```
struct LessThan42 {  
    auto operator()(int n)  
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        return n < 42;  
    }  
};  
  
class LessThan {  
    int m_;  
public:  
    explicit LessThan(int m)  
        : m_{m} {}  
    auto operator()(int n) const  
    {  
        return n < m_;  
    }  
};
```

```
std::find_if(..., LessThan42{});  
  
std::find_if(..., LessThan{m});
```

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};  
  
class LessThan {  
    int m_;  
public:  
    explicit LessThan(int m)  
        : m_{m} {}  
    auto operator()(int n) const  
    {  
        return n < m_;  
    }  
};
```

```
std::find_if(..., LessThan42{});  
  
std::find_if(..., [](int n) {  
    return n < 42;  
});  
  
std::find_if(..., LessThan{m});
```

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    }  
};  
  
class LessThan {  
    int m_;  
public:  
    explicit LessThan(int m)  
        : m_{m} {}  
    auto operator()(int n) const  
    {  
        return n < m_;  
    }  
};
```

```
std::find_if(..., LessThan42{});  
  
std::find_if(..., [](int n) {  
    return n < 42;  
});  
  
std::find_if(..., LessThan{m});  
  
auto m = ...;  
std::find_if(..., [=](int n) {  
    return n < m;  
});
```

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struct LessThan42 {  
    auto operator()(int n)  
    {  
        return n < 42;  
    }  
};  
  
class LessThan {  
    int m_;  
public:  
    explicit LessThan(int m)  
        : m_{m} {}  
    auto operator()(int n) const  
    {  
        return n < m_;  
    }  
};
```

```
std::find_if(..., LessThan42{});  
  
std::find_if(..., [](int n) {  
    return n < 42;  
});  
  
std::find_if(..., LessThan{m});  
  
auto m = ...;  
std::find_if(..., [=](int n) {  
    return n < m;  
});  
std::find_if(..., [m = ...](int n) {  
    return n < m;  
});
```

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The evaluation of a lambda expression produces an unnamed function object (a *closure*)

- The operator() corresponds to the code of the body of the lambda expression
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```
auto lt = [ ]
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
  
public:  
  
    auto operator() const  
  
};  
  
auto lt = SomeUniqueName{ };
```

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```
auto lt = [ ](int n)
    { return n < v; }
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {

public:

    auto operator()(int n) const
    { return n < v; }
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auto lt = SomeUniqueName{ };
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auto v = 42;  
  
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class SomeUniqueName {  
  
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auto v = 42;  
  
auto lt = [v](int n)  
          { return n < v; }
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
    int v;  
public:  
    explicit SomeUniqueName(int v)  
        : v{v} {}  
    auto operator()(int n) const  
    { return n < v; }  
};  
  
auto v = 42;  
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```
auto v = 42;

auto lt = [v](int n)
    { return n < v; }

auto r = lt(5); // true
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {
    int v;
public:
    explicit SomeUniqueName(int v)
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    auto operator()(int n) const
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auto v = 42;
auto lt = SomeUniqueName{v};
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    auto operator()(int n) const
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};

auto v = 42;
auto lt = SomeUniqueName{v};
auto r = lt(5); // true
```

- Two lambda expressions produce objects of different types, even if they are identical

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  - [k] capture k by value
  - [&] capture all (what is needed) by reference
  - [&k] capture k by reference

```
auto v = 3;  
auto l = [&v] {};
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
    int& v;  
public:  
    explicit SomeUniqueName(int& v)  
        : v{v} {}  
    ...  
};  
  
auto l = SomeUniqueName{v};
```

# Lambda capture

- Automatic variables used in the body of the lambda need to be captured
  - [] capture nothing
  - [=] capture all (what is needed) by value
  - [k] capture k by value
  - [&] capture all (what is needed) by reference
  - [&k] capture k by reference
  - [=, &k] capture all by value but k by reference
  - [&, k] capture all by reference but k by value

```
auto v = 3;  
auto l = [&v] {};
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
    int& v;  
public:  
    explicit SomeUniqueName(int& v)  
        : v{v} {}  
    ...  
};  
  
auto l = SomeUniqueName{v};
```

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```
auto v = 3;  
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```

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
    int& v;  
public:  
    explicit SomeUniqueName(int& v)  
        : v{v} {}  
    ...  
};  
  
auto l = SomeUniqueName{v};
```

- Global variables are available without being captured

# Lambda explicit return type

- The return type of the call operator can be explicitly specified

```
[=](int n) -> bool { return n < v; }
```

becomes

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
    ...  
    bool operator()(int n) const  
    { return n < v; }  
};
```

# Generic lambda

- If a parameter of the lambda expression is `auto`, the lambda expression is *generic*
- The call operator is a template

```
[](auto n) { ... }
```

becomes

```
class SomeUniqueName {
...
template<typename T>
auto operator()(T n) const { ... }
};
```

# Lambda: const and mutable

- By default the call to a lambda is `const`
  - Variables captured by value are not modifiable

[i]

```
{... ++i ...}
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
    int i;  
    ...  
    auto operator()() const {... ++i ...}  
};
```

# Lambda: const and mutable

- By default the call to a lambda is `const`
  - Variables captured by value are not modifiable
- A lambda can be declared `mutable`
  - The parameter list is mandatory

```
[i] () mutable
```

```
{... ++i ...}
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
    int i;  
    ...  
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};
```

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  - Variables captured by value are not modifiable
- A lambda can be declared `mutable`
  - The parameter list is mandatory
- If present, the explicit return type goes after `mutable`

```
[i] () mutable -> bool {... ++i ...}
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
    int i;  
    ...  
    bool operator()() {... ++i ...}  
};
```

# Lambda: const and mutable

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- A lambda can be declared `mutable`
  - The parameter list is mandatory
- If present, the explicit return type goes after `mutable`

```
[i]() mutable -> bool {... ++i ...}
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
    int i;  
    ...  
    bool operator()() {... ++i ...}  
};
```

- Variables captured by reference can be modified
  - There is no way to capture by `const&`

```
int v{3};  
[&v] { ++v; } (); // NB the lambda is immediately invoked  
assert(v == 4);
```

# Lambda: dangling reference

- Be careful not to have dangling references in a closure
- It's similar to a function returning a reference to a local variable

```
auto make_lambda() // auto here is unavoidable
{
    int v{3};
    return [&] { return v; }; // return a closure
}

auto l = make_lambda();
auto d = l(); // the captured variable is dangling here
```

# Lambda: dangling reference

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- It's similar to a function returning a reference to a local variable

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    int v{3};
    return [&] { return v; }; // return a closure
}

auto l = make_lambda();
auto d = l(); // the captured variable is dangling here
```

- Capture by reference only if the lambda closure doesn't survive the current scope

# Hands-on

- C++ → Algorithms
- Starting from `algo_functions.cpp` and following the hints, write code to
  - multiply the elements of the vector
  - compute the mean and the standard deviation
  - sort the vector in descending order
  - move the even numbers to the beginning
  - create another vector with the squares of the numbers in the first vector
  - find the first multiple of 3 or 7
  - erase from the vector all the multiples of 3 or 7
  - ...

## std::function

- *Type-erased* wrapper that can store and invoke any callable entity with a certain signature
  - function, function object, lambda, member function

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- *Type-erased* wrapper that can store and invoke any callable entity with a certain signature
  - function, function object, lambda, member function

```
#include <functional>

using Function = std::function<int(int,int)>; // signature

Function f1 { std::plus<int>{} };
Function f2 { [](int a, int b) { return a * b; } };
Function f3 { [](auto a, auto b) { return std::gcd(a,b); } };
```

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```

- Some space and time overhead, so use only if a template parameter is not satisfactory

```
std::vector<Function> functions { f1, f2, f3 };

for (auto& f : functions) {
    std::cout << f(121, 42) << '\n'; // 163 5082 1
}
```

# Outline

Introduction

Algorithms and functions

Containers

Compile-time computation

Resource management

Move semantics

Additional material

# Dynamic memory allocation

It's not always possible to know at compile time which type of objects is needed or how many of them

# Dynamic memory allocation

It's not always possible to know at compile time which type of objects is needed or how many of them

- run-time polymorphism

```
struct Shape { ... };
struct Rectangle : Shape { ... };
struct Circle : Shape { ... };

Shape* s=nullptr;
char c; std::cin >> c;
switch (c) {
    case 'r': s = new Rectangle; break;
    case 'c': s = new Circle; break;
}
```

# Dynamic memory allocation

It's not always possible to know at compile time which type of objects is needed or how many of them

- run-time polymorphism

```
struct Shape { ... };
struct Rectangle : Shape { ... };
struct Circle : Shape { ... };

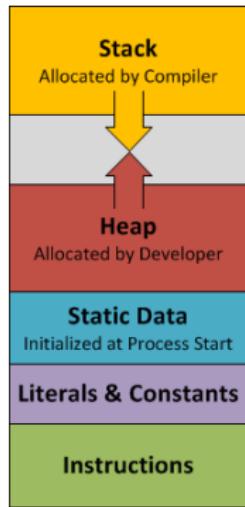
Shape* s=nullptr;
char c; std::cin >> c;
switch (c) {
    case 'r': s = new Rectangle; break;
    case 'c': s = new Circle; break;
}
```

- dynamic collections of objects

```
int n; std::cin >> n;
std::vector<Particle> v;
for (int i = 0; i != n; ++i) {
    v.emplace_back(...);
}
```

# Memory layout of a process

- A process is a running program
- When a program is started the operating system brings the contents of the corresponding file into memory according to well-defined conventions
  - Stack
    - function local variables
    - function call bookkeeping
  - Heap
    - dynamic allocation
  - Global data
    - literals and variables
    - initialized and uninitialized (set to 0)
  - Program instructions

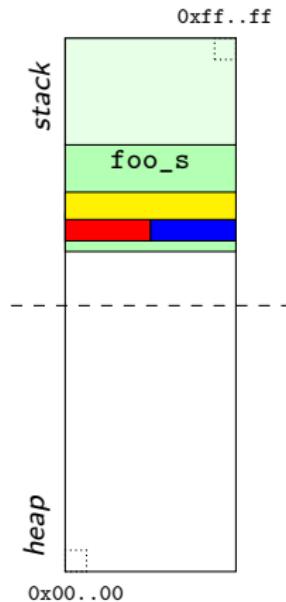


# Stack vs Heap: space

```
struct S {  
    int    n;  
    float  f;  
    double d;  
};
```

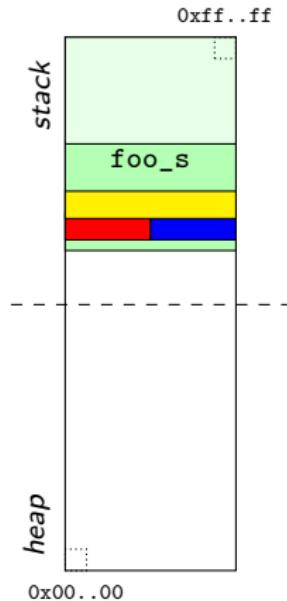
# Stack vs Heap: space

```
struct S {  
    int     n;  
    float   f;  
    double  d;  
};  
  
auto foo_s() {  
    S s;  
    ...  
}
```



# Stack vs Heap: space

```
struct S {  
    int     n;  
    float   f;  
    double  d;  
};  
  
auto foo_s() {  
    S s;  
    ...  
}
```

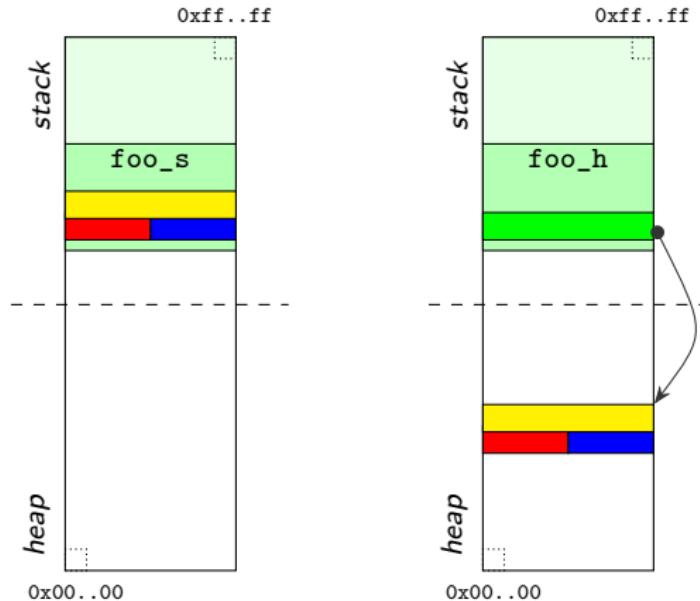


Occupancy:

- `sizeof(S)`

# Stack vs Heap: space

```
struct S {  
    int     n;  
    float   f;  
    double  d;  
};  
  
auto foo_s() {  
    S s;  
    ...  
}  
  
auto foo_h() {  
    S* s = new S;  
    ...  
}
```

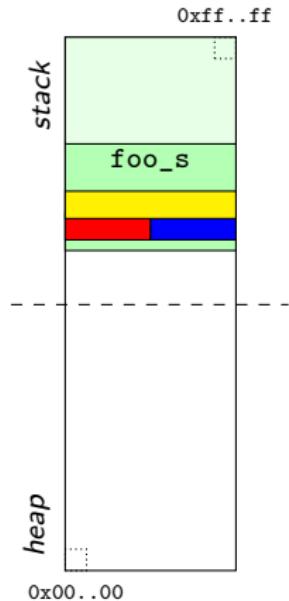


Occupancy:

- `sizeof(S)`

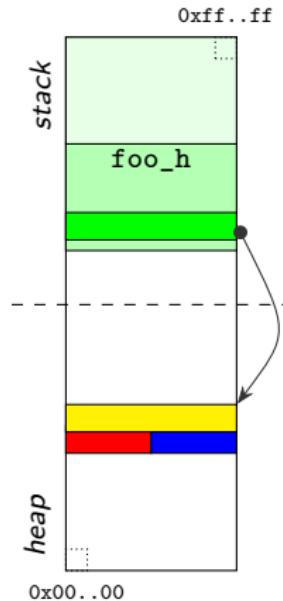
# Stack vs Heap: space

```
struct S {  
    int     n;  
    float   f;  
    double  d;  
};  
  
auto foo_s() {  
    S s;  
    ...  
}  
  
auto foo_h() {  
    S* s = new S;  
    ...  
}
```



Occupancy:

- `sizeof(S)`



Occupancy:

- `sizeof(S) + sizeof(S*)`
- plus new internal space overhead

# Stack vs Heap: time

Stack

```
void stack()
{
    int m{123};
    ...
}
```

Heap

```
void heap()
{
    int* m = new int{123};
    ...
    delete m;
}
```

# Stack vs Heap: time

## Stack

```
void stack()
{
    int m{123};
    ...
}
```

## Heap

```
void heap()
{
    int* m = new int{123};
    ...
    delete m;
}
```

```
stack():
    subq %4, %rsp
    movl $123, (%rsp)
    ...
    addq $4, %rsp
    ret
```

# Stack vs Heap: time

## Stack

```
void stack()
{
    int m{123};
    ...
}
```

## Heap

```
void heap()
{
    int* m = new int{123};
    ...
    delete m;
}
```

```
stack():
    subq %4, %rsp
    movl $123, (%rsp)
    ...
    addq $4, %rsp
    ret
```

```
heap():
    subq $8, %rsp
    movl $4, %edi
    call operator new(unsigned long)
    movl $123, (%rax)
    movq %rax, (%rsp)
    ...
    movl $4, %esi
    movq %rax, %rdi
    call operator delete(void*, unsigned long)
    addq $8, %rsp
    ret
```

# Stack vs Heap: time

## Stack

```
void stack()
{
    int m{123};
    ...
}
```

## Heap

```
void heap()
{
    int* m = new int{123};
    ...
    delete m;
}
```

```
stack():
    subq %4, %rsp
    movl $123, (%rsp)
    ...
    addq $4, %rsp
    ret
```

```
heap():
    subq $8, %rsp
    movl $4, %edi
    call operator new(unsigned long)
    movl $123, (%rax)
    movq %rax, (%rsp)
    ...
    movl $4, %esi
    movq %rax, %rdi
    call operator delete(void*, unsigned long)
    addq $8, %rsp
    ret
```

```
$ g++ -O3 heap.cpp && ./a.out
100000000 iterations: 14 ns
```

i.e. 14 ns just to allocate/deallocate an int

# Google Benchmark

- <https://github.com/google/benchmark>

```
static void BM_Stack(benchmark::State& state) {
    while (state.KeepRunning()) {
        int m{123};
    }
}
BENCHMARK(BM_Stack);

static void BM_Heap(benchmark::State& state) {
    while (state.KeepRunning()) {
        auto m = new int{123};
        delete m;
    }
}
BENCHMARK(BM_Heap);
```

- Hands-on

- start from

- [https://quick-bench.com/q/h\\_mTt5vkhekwyGJ880BXLoF2KQg](https://quick-bench.com/q/h_mTt5vkhekwyGJ880BXLoF2KQg)

- note the use of `benchmark::DoNotOptimize()`

- play with the optimization level and the code

# STL Containers

- Objects that contain and own other objects
- Different characteristics and operations, some common traits
- Implemented as class templates

**Sequence** The client decides where an element gets inserted

- `array`, `deque`, `forward_list`, `list`, `vector`

**Associative** The container decides where an element gets inserted

**Ordered** The elements are sorted

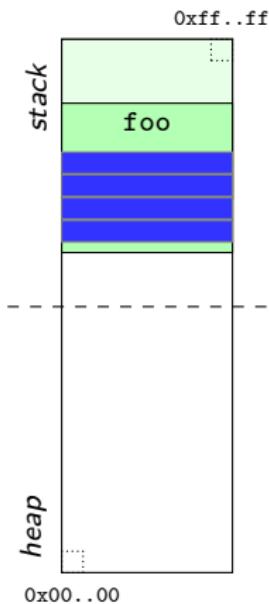
- `map`, `multimap`, `set`, `multiset`

**Unordered** The elements are hashed

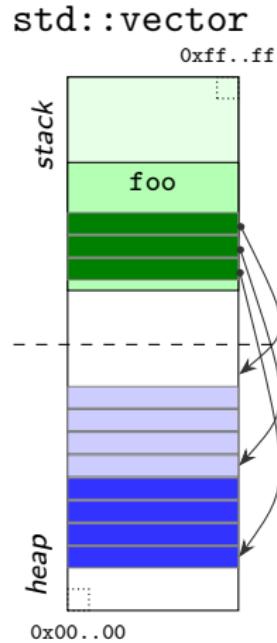
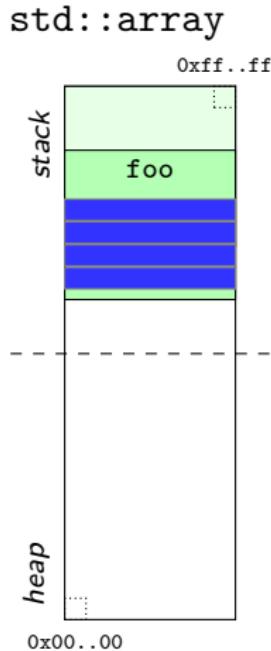
- `unordered_*`

# Sequence containers

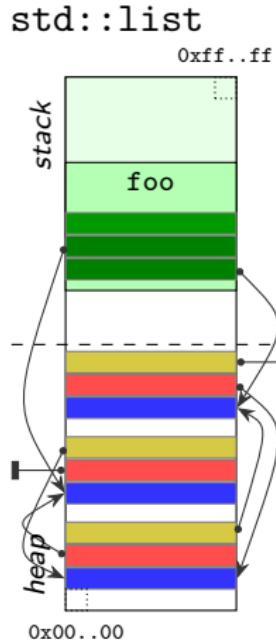
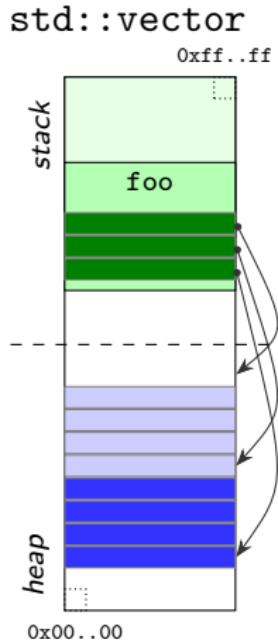
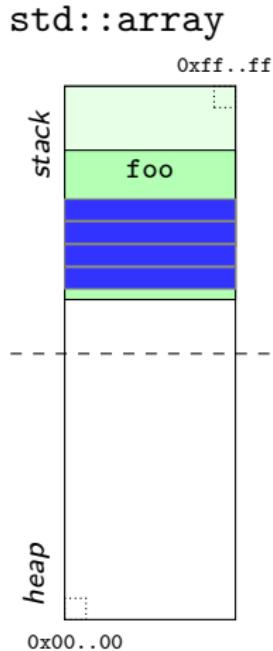
`std::array`



# Sequence containers



# Sequence containers

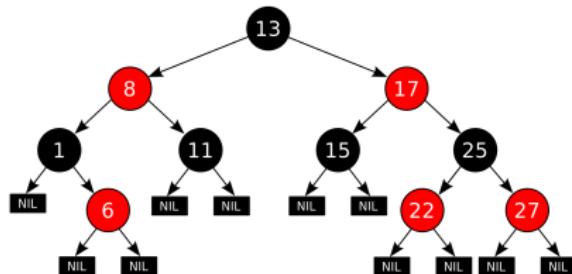


## Associative ordered containers

- They contain ordered values (`set` and `multiset`) or key-value pairs (`map` and `multimap`)
- Search, removal and insertion have logarithmic complexity

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- Typically implemented as balanced (red-black) trees

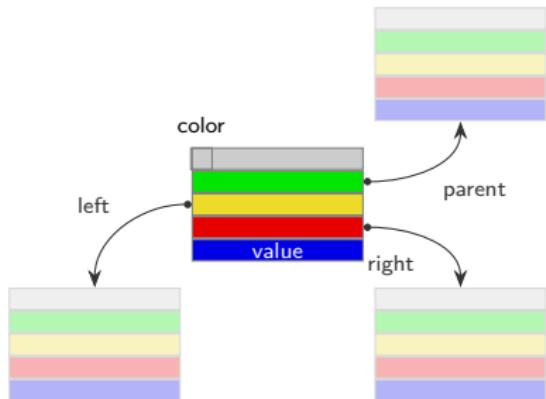
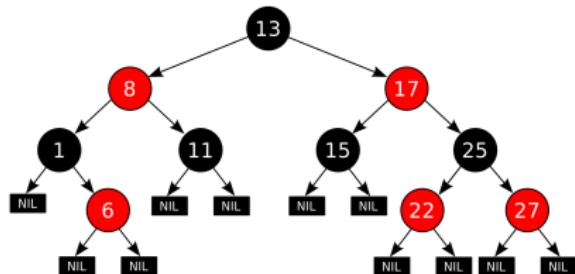


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# Hands-on

- C++ → Containers
- Inspect, build and run `containers.cpp`, also using `perf`
- Extend it to manage an `std::list`
- Compare the performance obtained with the two containers

# Outline

Introduction

Algorithms and functions

Containers

Compile-time computation

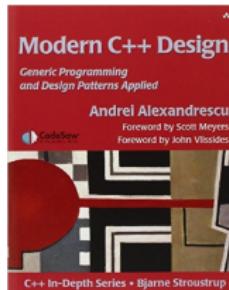
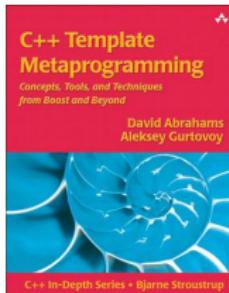
Resource management

Move semantics

Additional material

# Doing things at compile-time

- C++ has always been very strong in compile-time manipulation of program entities
- Thanks mainly to its support for templates



- Waiting for **reflection**, let's see three use cases
  - Type introspection
  - Computation
  - Concepts

# Type introspection

Query the type system to get information about types:

- how big is this type? `sizeof(T)`
- is this type default constructible?  
`is_default_constructible_v<T>`
- is this type move-assignable? `is_move_assignable_v<T>`
- can the move assignment throw?  
`is_nothrow_move_assignable_v<T>`
- are these two types the same? `is_same_v<T1, T2>`
- what's the common type for these types? `common_type_t<int, unsigned, float>`
- and many more

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- what's the common type for these types? `common_type_t<int, unsigned, float>`
- and many more

```
template<typename T>
class uniform_real_distribution {
    static_assert(std::is_floating_point_v<T>);
    ...
};
```

## Iterator traits

`std::iterator_traits` is a class template that provides properties about an iterator in terms of member types

- `difference_type` is a signed integer to identify the distance between iterators
- `value_type` is the type obtained dereferencing an iterator
- `pointer` is the type of pointer to `value_type`
- `reference` is the type of reference to `value_type`
- `iterator_category` is one of input, output, forward, bidirectional, random-access

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- `iterator_category` is one of `input`, `output`, `forward`, `bidirectional`, `random-access`

```
template<typename T>
struct iterator_traits<T*> // specialization for a pointer
{
    typedef random_access_iterator_tag iterator_category;
    typedef T                         value_type;
    typedef ptrdiff_t                 difference_type;
    typedef T*                        pointer;
    typedef T&                       reference;
};
```

# Iterator traits

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# Tag dispatching

```
template<class It>
typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type
distance(It first, It last) {

}
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```

# Tag dispatching

```
template<class It>
typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type
__distance(It first, It last) { // for random-access iterators
    return last - first;
}

template<class It>
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}
```

# Tag dispatching

```
template<class It>
typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type
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    return last - first;
}

template<class It>
typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type
__distance(It first, It last) { // for input iterators
    typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type n = 0;
    while (first != last) { ++first; ++n; }
    return n;
}

template<class It>
typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type
distance(It first, It last) {

}
```

# Tag dispatching

```
template<class It>
typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type
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    typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type n = 0;
    while (first != last) { ++first; ++n; }
    return n;
}

template<class It>
typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type
distance(It first, It last) {
    return __distance(first, last); // which one?
}
```

# Tag dispatching

```
template<class It>
typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type
__distance(It first, It last, random_access_iterator_tag tag) {
    return last - first;
}

template<class It>
typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type
__distance(It first, It last, input_iterator_tag tag) {
    typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type n = 0;
    while (first != last) { ++first; ++n; }
    return n;
}

template<class It>
typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type
distance(It first, It last) {
    return __distance(first, last,
                      typename iterator_traits<It>::iterator_category{});
}
```

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    return n;
}

template<class It>
typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type
distance(It first, It last) {
    return __distance(first, last,
                      typename iterator_traits<It>::iterator_category{});
}
```

# Tag dispatching

```
template<class It>
auto
__distance(It first, It last, random_access_iterator_tag tag) {
    return last - first;
}

template<class It>
auto
__distance(It first, It last, input_iterator_tag tag) {
    typename iterator_traits<It>::difference_type n = 0;
    while (first != last) { ++first; ++n; }
    return n;
}

template<class It>
auto
distance(It first, It last) {
    return __distance(first, last,
                      typename iterator_traits<It>::iterator_category{});
}
```

# Compile-time computation

- Compute values to be used in contexts where a constant expression is required:
  - boolean condition in a `static_assert`
  - size of an `std::array`
  - ...
- Statically initialize constant objects
- Reduce as much as possible the computation needed at runtime
- ...

# Compile-time computation

- Compute values to be used in contexts where a constant expression is required:
  - boolean condition in a `static_assert`
  - size of an `std::array`
  - ...
- Statically initialize constant objects
- Reduce as much as possible the computation needed at runtime
- ...

Let's compute the factorial of a number at compile time

# Factorial with templates

Using a class template and non-type template parameters

```
template<int N>
struct F
{
    static const int value = ; // calculate factorial here
};

static_assert(F<5>::value == 120);
```

# Factorial with templates

Using a class template and non-type template parameters

```
template<int N>
struct F
{
    static const int value = N * F<N-1>::value;
};

static_assert(F<5>::value == 120);
```

# Factorial with templates

Using a class template and non-type template parameters

```
template<int N>
struct F          // general (recursive) case
{
    static const int value = N * F<N-1>::value;
};

template<>
struct F<0>      // base case
{
    static const int value = 1;
};

static_assert(F<5>::value == 120);
```

# Factorial with templates

Using a class template and non-type template parameters

```
template<int N>
struct F          // general (recursive) case
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struct F<0>      // base case
{
    static const int value = 1;
};

static_assert(F<5>::value == 120);
std::array<char, F<5>::value> buffer;
```

# Factorial with a function

## Iterative function

```
int factorial(int N) {  
    int r = 1;  
    while (N > 0) { r *= N--; }  
    return r;  
}
```

## Recursive function

```
int factorial(int N) {  
    return N == 0 ? 1 : N * factorial(N-1);  
}
```

# Factorial with a function

## Iterative function

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}
```

## Recursive function

```
int factorial(int N) {  
    return N == 0 ? 1 : N * factorial(N-1);  
}
```

```
static_assert(factorial(5) == 120);      // error  
std::array<char, factorial(5)> buffer; // error
```

## constexpr

- The `constexpr` specifier specifies that the value of a variable or function can appear in a constant expression

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  - plus a few other constraints

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- A function can be evaluated at compile-time only if the arguments are known at compile-time
  - plus a few other constraints

```
constexpr int factorial(int N) { // iterative
    int r = 1;
    while (N > 0) { r *= N--; }
    return r;
}

constexpr int factorial(int N) { // recursive
    return N == 0 ? 1 : N * factorial(N-1);
}

static_assert(factorial(5) == 120);
constexpr auto f5 = factorial(5);
std::array<char, f5> buffer;
```

if `constexpr`

Factorial using a function template with a *constexpr-if*

## if constexpr

Factorial using a function template with a *constexpr-if*

```
template<int N>
constexpr auto Factorial()
{
    if constexpr (N > 0) {
        return N * Factorial<N-1>();
    } else {
        return 1;
    }
}
```

## if constexpr

Factorial using a function template with a *constexpr-if*

```
template<int N>
constexpr auto Factorial()
{
    if constexpr (N > 0) {
        return N * Factorial<N-1>();
    } else {
        return 1;
    }
}

static_assert(Factorial<5>() == 120);
constexpr auto f5 = Factorial<5>();
std::array<char, f5> buffer;
```

## if constexpr (cont.)

Alternative distance implementation based on *constexpr-if*

```
template <class It>
auto distance(It first, It last) {
    if constexpr (std::is_base_of_v<
                    std::random_access_iterator_tag,
                    typename std::iterator_traits<It>::iterator_category
                >) {
        return last - first;
    } else {
        typename std::iterator_traits<It>::difference_type n = 0;
        while (first != last) {
            ++first;
            ++n;
        }
        return n;
    }
}
```

# Concepts

- A *concept* is a set of requirements that a type needs to satisfy at compile time
  - e.g. supported expressions, nested typedefs, memory layout

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# Concepts

- A *concept* is a set of requirements that a type needs to satisfy at compile time
  - e.g. supported expressions, nested typedefs, memory layout
- Concepts constrain the types that can be used as template arguments
  - Implicit until C++20, based on how those types are syntactically used in a class/function template definition
  - C++20 introduces a specific syntax to better express the semantics of concepts

```
template<class T> concept Incrementable = requires(T t) { ++t; };

template<Incrementable T> auto advance(T& t) { ++t; }

int i {42};
advance(i); // ok, int is a model of Incrementable

struct S {};
S s;
advance(s); // error, S is not a model of Incrementable
```

## Concepts (cont.)

- There are several equivalent alternative forms to specify concept requirements for a class or function template

```
template<class T>
concept Incrementable = requires(T t) { ++t; };

template<Incrementable T>
auto advance(T& t) { ++t; }

template<class T>
  requires Incrementable<T>
auto advance(T& t) { ++t; }

auto advance(Incrementable auto& t) { ++t; }
```

- C++20 includes also a set of generally useful concepts
  - integral, floating\_point, derived\_from, regular, swappable, equality\_comparable, invokable, ...

## Hands-on

- Take the `pi` function in `pi_time.cpp` and make it `constexpr`
- Implement a `constexpr` function that checks if a number is prime
- Take `containers_assoc.cpp` and extend it to cover also the use of the `std::set` and `std::unordered_set` associative containers. To fill the associative containers you can simply insert all the numbers from 0 to  $N$ , without random generation and without advancing. In order to dispatch to the correct implementation you can use the `is_associative` trait already included in that file, using it either as a tag or in a *constexpr-if*.
- Construct a compile-time table corresponding to a **Pascal's Triangle** of  $N$  rows, where  $N$  is a compile-time constant.

# Outline

Introduction

Algorithms and functions

Containers

Compile-time computation

Resource management

Move semantics

Additional material

# Weaknesses of a T\*

- Critical information is not encoded in the type
  - Am I the owner of the pointee? Should I delete it?
  - Is the pointee an object or an array of objects? of what size?
  - Was it allocated with `new`, `malloc` or even something else (e.g. `fopen` returns a `FILE*`)?

```
T* p = create_something();
```

## Weaknesses of a T\*

- Critical information is not encoded in the type
- Owning pointers are prone to leaks and double deletes

```
{  
    T* p = new T{};  
    ...  
    // ops, forgot to delete p  
}  
{  
    T* p = new T;  
    ...  
    delete p;  
    ...  
    delete p; // ops, delete again  
}
```

# Weaknesses of a T\*

- Critical information is not encoded in the type
- Owning pointers are prone to leaks and double deletes
- Owning pointers are unsafe in presence of exceptions

```
{  
T* p = new T;  
... // potentially throwing code  
delete p;  
}
```

# Weaknesses of a T\*

- Critical information is not encoded in the type
- Owning pointers are prone to leaks and double deletes
- Owning pointers are unsafe in presence of exceptions
- Runtime overhead
  - dynamic allocation/deallocation
  - indirection

# Debugging memory problems

- Valgrind is a suite of debugging and profiling tools for memory management, threading, caching, etc.
- Valgrind Memcheck can detect
  - invalid memory accesses
  - use of uninitialized values
  - memory leaks
  - bad frees
- It's precise, but slow

# Debugging memory problems

- Valgrind is a suite of debugging and profiling tools for memory management, threading, caching, etc.
- Valgrind Memcheck can detect
  - invalid memory accesses
  - use of uninitialized values
  - memory leaks
  - bad frees
- It's precise, but slow

```
$ g++ leak.cpp
$ valgrind ./a.out
==18331== Memcheck, a memory error detector
...
```

## Debugging memory problems (cont.)

- *Address Sanitizer* (ASan)
- The compiler instruments the executable so that at runtime ASan can catch problems similar, but not identical, to valgrind
- Faster than valgrind

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- *Address Sanitizer (ASan)*
- The compiler instruments the executable so that at runtime ASan can catch problems similar, but not identical, to valgrind
- Faster than valgrind

```
$ g++ -fsanitize=address leak.cpp
$ ./a.out

=====
==18338==ERROR: LeakSanitizer: detected memory leaks
...
...
```

# Hands-on

- C++ → Memory issues
- Get familiar with Valgrind (if available) and memory sanitizers
- Inspect, compile, run directly and run through valgrind or memory sanitizers (not both together)
  - non\_owning\_pointer.cpp
  - array\_too\_small.cpp
  - leak.cpp
  - double\_delete.cpp
  - missed\_delete.cpp
- Try and fix the problems

# When to use a T\*

- To represent a *link* to an object when
  - the object is not owned, and
  - the link may be null or the link can be re-bound
- Mutable and immutable scenarios
  - T\* vs T const\*

# When not to use a T\*

- To represent a link to an object when
  - the object is owned, or
  - the link can never be null, and the link cannot be re-bound
- Alternatives
  - use a copy
  - use a (const) reference

```
T& tr = t1; // tr is an alias for t1
tr = t2;    // doesn't re-bind tr, assigns t2 to t1
```

```
T* tp = &t1; // tp points to t1
tp = &t2;    // re-binds tp, it now points to t2
```

- use a resource-managing object
  - std::array, std::vector, std::string, *smart pointers*, ...

# Resource management

- Dynamic memory is just one of the many types of resources manipulated by a program:
  - thread, mutex, socket, file, ...
- C++ offers powerful tools to manage resources
  - "*C++ is my favorite garbage collected language because it generates so little garbage*"

# Smart pointers

- Objects that behave like pointers, but also manage the lifetime of the pointee

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- Leverage the RAII idiom
  - Resource Acquisition Is Initialization
  - Resource (e.g. memory) is acquired in the constructor
  - Resource (e.g. memory) is released in the destructor

# Smart pointers

- Objects that behave like pointers, but also manage the lifetime of the pointee
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  - Resource (e.g. memory) is acquired in the constructor
  - Resource (e.g. memory) is released in the destructor
- Importance of how the destructor is designed in C++
  - deterministic: guaranteed execution at the end of the scope
  - order of execution opposite to order of construction

# Smart pointers

- Objects that behave like pointers, but also manage the lifetime of the pointee
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  - Resource (e.g. memory) is released in the destructor
- Importance of how the destructor is designed in C++
  - deterministic: guaranteed execution at the end of the scope
  - order of execution opposite to order of construction
- Guaranteed no leak nor double release, even in presence of exceptions

## Smart pointers (cont.)

```
template<typename Pointee>
class SmartPointer {
    Pointee* m_p;
public:
    explicit SmartPointer(Pointee* p): m_p{p} {}
    ~SmartPointer() { delete m_p; }

};

class Histo { ... };

{
    SmartPointer<Histo> sp{new Histo{}};

}
```

At the end of the scope (i.e. at the closing `}`) `sp` is destroyed and its destructor deletes the pointee

## Smart pointers (cont.)

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template<typename Pointee>
class SmartPointer {
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};

class Histo { ... };

{
    SmartPointer<Histo> sp{new Histo{}};
    sp->fill();
    (*sp).fill();
}
```

At the end of the scope (i.e. at the closing }) sp is destroyed and its destructor deletes the pointee

## Smart pointers (cont.)

```
template<typename Pointee>
class SmartPointer {
    Pointee* m_p;
public:
    explicit SmartPointer(Pointee* p): m_p{p} {}
    ~SmartPointer() { delete m_p; }
    Pointee* operator->() { return m_p; }
    Pointee& operator*() { return *m_p; }

};

class Histo { ... };

{
    SmartPointer<Histo> sp{new Histo{}};
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    Pointee& operator*() { return *m_p; }
    ...
};

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## `std::unique_ptr<T>`

### Standard smart pointer

- Exclusive ownership
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- Non-copyable, movable

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```
class Histo { ... };

void take(std::unique_ptr<Histo> ph);
```

## std::unique\_ptr<T>

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```
class Histo { ... };

void take(std::unique_ptr<Histo> ph);

std::unique_ptr<Histo> ph{new Histo{} }; // explicit new
```

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```
class Histo { ... };

void take(std::unique_ptr<Histo> ph);

std::unique_ptr<Histo> ph{new Histo{} }; // explicit new
auto ph = std::make_unique<Histo>(); // better
```

# std::unique\_ptr<T>

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```
class Histo { ... };

void take(std::unique_ptr<Histo> ph);

std::unique_ptr<Histo> ph{new Histo{} }; // explicit new
auto ph = std::make_unique<Histo>();      // better
take(ph);
```

## std::unique\_ptr<T>

### Standard smart pointer

- Exclusive ownership
- No space nor time overhead
- Non-copyable, movable

```
class Histo { ... };

void take(std::unique_ptr<Histo> ph);      // by value

std::unique_ptr<Histo> ph{new Histo{} };    // explicit new
auto ph = std::make_unique<Histo>();        // better
take(ph);                                    // error, non-copyable
```

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- No space nor time overhead
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```
class Histo { ... };

void take(std::unique_ptr<Histo> ph);

std::unique_ptr<Histo> ph{new Histo{} };           // explicit new
auto ph = std::make_unique<Histo>();               // better
take(ph);                                         // error, non-copyable
take(std::move(ph));
```

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take(std::move(ph));                            // ok, movable
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take(ph);                                         // error, non-copyable
take(std::move(ph));                            // ok, movable
```

NB: std::move doesn't actually move anything. It just signals to the compiler that it's ok to move the object

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- Some space and time overhead
  - for the management, not for access
- Copyable and movable

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class Histo { ... };

void take(std::shared_ptr<Histo> px);
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take(std::move(px));
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```

# Using smart pointers

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  - You can always move a `unique_ptr` into a `shared_ptr`
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- Access to the raw pointer is available
  - e.g. to pass to legacy APIs
  - `smart_ptr<T>::get()`
    - returns a **non-owning** `T*`
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    - returns a **non-owning** `T*`
  - `unique_ptr<T>::release()`
    - returns an **owning** `T*`
    - must be explicitly managed
- Arrays are supported

```
std::unique_ptr<int[]> p{new int[n]}; // destructor calls 'delete []'
```

## *smart\_ptr* and functions

Pass a smart pointer to a function only if the function needs to rely on the smart pointer itself

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- by value of a `unique_ptr`, to transfer ownership

```
void take(std::unique_ptr<Histo> u);
auto u = std::make_unique<Histo>();
take(u);           // error
take(std::move(u)); // ok
```

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Pass a smart pointer to a function only if the function needs to rely on the smart pointer itself

- by value of a `unique_ptr`, to transfer ownership

```
void take(std::unique_ptr<Histo> u);
auto u = std::make_unique<Histo>();
take(u);           // error
take(std::move(u)); // ok
```

- by value of a `shared_ptr`, to keep the resource alive

```
auto s = std::make_shared<Histo>();
std::thread t{[=] { do_something_with(s); }};
```

## *smart\_ptr* and functions

Pass a smart pointer to a function only if the function needs to rely on the smart pointer itself

- by value of a `unique_ptr`, to transfer ownership

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void take(std::unique_ptr<Histo> u);
auto u = std::make_unique<Histo>();
take(u);           // error
take(std::move(u)); // ok
```

- by value of a `shared_ptr`, to keep the resource alive

```
auto s = std::make_shared<Histo>();
std::thread t{[=] { do_something_with(s); }};
```

- by reference, to interact with the smart pointer itself

```
void print_count(std::shared_ptr<Histo> const& s) {
    std::cout << s.use_count() << '\n';
}
auto s = std::make_shared<Histo>();
print_count(s);
```

## *smart\_ptr* and functions (cont.)

- Otherwise pass the pointee by (const) reference/pointer

## *smart\_ptr* and functions (cont.)

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```
auto s = make_shared<Histo>();
```

## *smart\_ptr* and functions (cont.)

- Otherwise pass the pointee by (const) reference/pointer

```
void fill(std::shared_ptr<Histo> s) { if (s) s->fill(); }
```

```
auto s = make_shared<Histo>();
fill(s);
```

## *smart\_ptr* and functions (cont.)

- Otherwise pass the pointee by (const) reference/pointer

```
void fill(std::shared_ptr<Histo> s) { if (s) s->fill(); }
void fill(Histo* t)                  { if (t) t->fill(); } // better

auto s = make_shared<Histo>();
fill(s);
fill(s.get());
```

## *smart\_ptr* and functions (cont.)

- Otherwise pass the pointee by (const) reference/pointer

```
void fill(std::shared_ptr<Histo> s) { if (s) s->fill(); }
void fill(Histo* t)                  { if (t) t->fill(); } // better
void fill(Histo& t)                { t.fill(); }           // better

auto s = make_shared<Histo>();
fill(s);
fill(s.get());
if (s) fill(*s);
```

## *smart\_ptr* and functions (cont.)

- Otherwise pass the pointee by (const) reference/pointer

```
void fill(std::shared_ptr<Histo> s) { if (s) s->fill(); }
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auto s = make_shared<Histo>();
fill(s);
fill(s.get());
if (s) fill(*s);
```

- Return a *smart\_ptr* from a function if the function has dynamically allocated a resource that is passed to the caller

```
auto factory() { return std::make_unique<Histo>(); }
```

## *smart\_ptr* and functions (cont.)

- Otherwise pass the pointee by (const) reference/pointer

```
void fill(std::shared_ptr<Histo> s) { if (s) s->fill(); }
void fill(Histo* t)                      { if (t) t->fill(); } // better
void fill(Histo& t)                     { t.fill(); }          // better

auto s = make_shared<Histo>();
fill(s);
fill(s.get());
if (s) fill(*s);
```

- Return a *smart\_ptr* from a function if the function has dynamically allocated a resource that is passed to the caller

```
auto factory() { return std::make_unique<Histo>(); }

auto u = factory();      // std::unique_ptr<Histo>
std::shared_ptr<Histo> s = std::move(u);
```

## *smart\_ptr* and functions (cont.)

- Otherwise pass the pointee by (const) reference/pointer

```
void fill(std::shared_ptr<Histo> s) { if (s) s->fill(); }
void fill(Histo* t)                      { if (t) t->fill(); } // better
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- Return a *smart\_ptr* from a function if the function has dynamically allocated a resource that is passed to the caller

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auto factory() { return std::make_unique<Histo>(); }

auto u = factory();      // std::unique_ptr<Histo>
std::shared_ptr<Histo> s = std::move(u);

std::shared_ptr<Histo> s = factory();
```

## *smart\_ptr* custom deleter

- *smart\_ptr* is a general-purpose resource handler
- The resource release is not necessarily done with `delete`
- `unique_ptr` and `shared_ptr` support a *custom deleter*

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FILE* f = std::fopen(...);  
...  
std::fclose(f);
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FILE* f = std::fopen(...);  
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```

Usual problems:

- Who owns the resource?
- Forgetting to release
- Releasing twice
- Early return/throw

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- The resource release is not necessarily done with `delete`
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```
FILE* f = std::fopen(...);  
...  
std::fclose(f);
```

```
auto f = std::shared_ptr<FILE>{  
    std::fopen(...),  
    [](auto p) { std::fclose(p); }  
};
```

Usual problems:

- Who owns the resource?
- Forgetting to release
- Releasing twice
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## *smart\_ptr* custom deleter

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FILE* f = std::fopen(...);  
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```

```
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};
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- Wrap the deallocation function in a lambda to be safe in presence of multiple overloads

## *smart\_ptr* custom deleter

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- The resource release is not necessarily done with `delete`
- `unique_ptr` and `shared_ptr` support a *custom deleter*

```
FILE* f = std::fopen(...);  
...  
std::fclose(f);
```

```
auto f = std::shared_ptr<FILE>{  
    std::fopen(...),  
    [](auto p) { std::fclose(p); }  
};
```

Usual problems:

- Who owns the resource?
- Forgetting to release
- Releasing twice
- Early return/throw
- Wrap the deallocation function in a lambda to be safe in presence of multiple overloads
- A bit more involved for `unique_ptr`

# Hands-on

- C++ → Memory issues
  - Adapt the exercises to use smart pointers, when applicable
  - Remember to compile with `-fsanitize=address`
- C++ → Managing resources
- Adapt `c_alloc.cpp` to manage memory via a smart pointer.
- Starting from `dir.cpp` and following the hints in the file, write code to:
  - create a smart pointer managing a DIR resource obtained with the `opendir` function call
  - associate a deleter to that smart pointer
  - implement a function to read the names of the files in that directory
  - check if the deleter is called at the right moment
  - hide the creation of the smart pointer behind a factory function
  - populate a vector of FILEs, properly wrapped in a smart pointer, obtained opening the regular files in that directory
  - ...

# Outline

Introduction

Algorithms and functions

Containers

Compile-time computation

Resource management

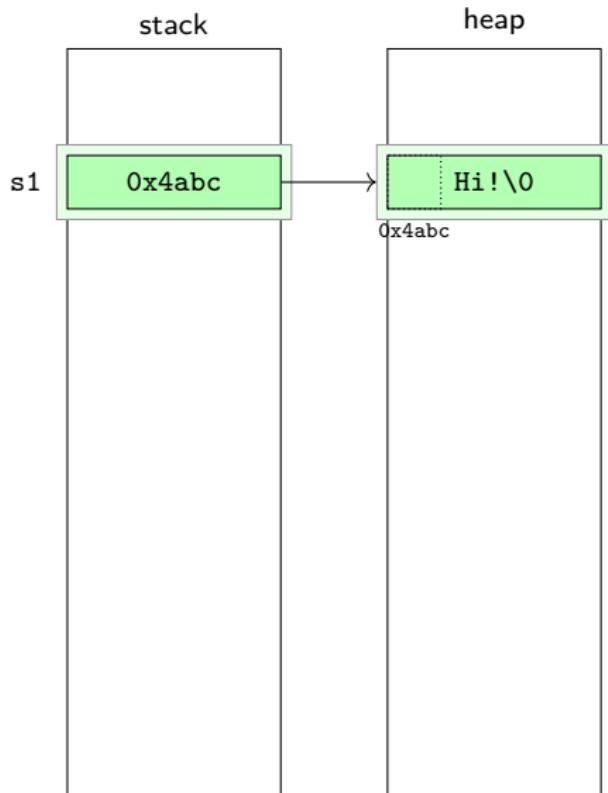
**Move semantics**

Additional material

# We can do better than copying

```
class String {  
    char* s_;  
    ...  
};
```

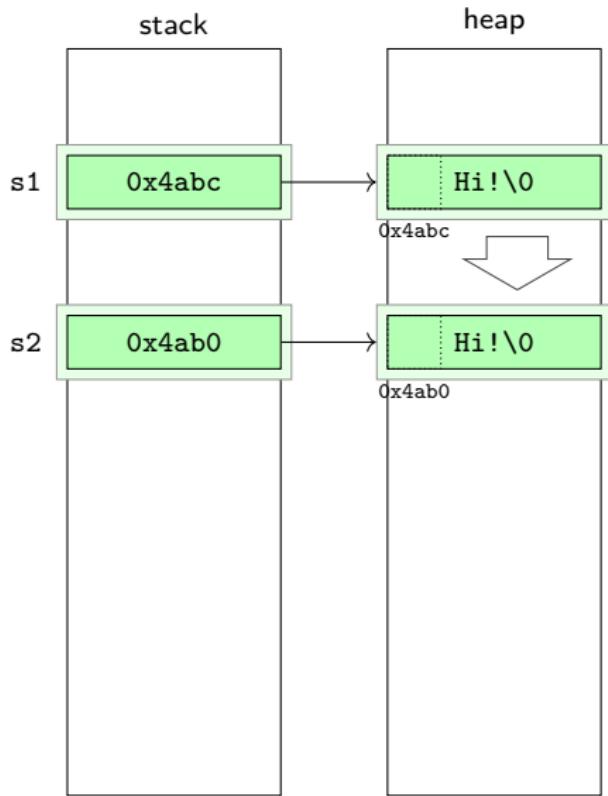
```
String s1{"Hi!"};
```



# We can do better than copying

```
class String {  
    char* s_;  
    ...  
};
```

```
String s1{"Hi!"};  
String s2{s1};
```

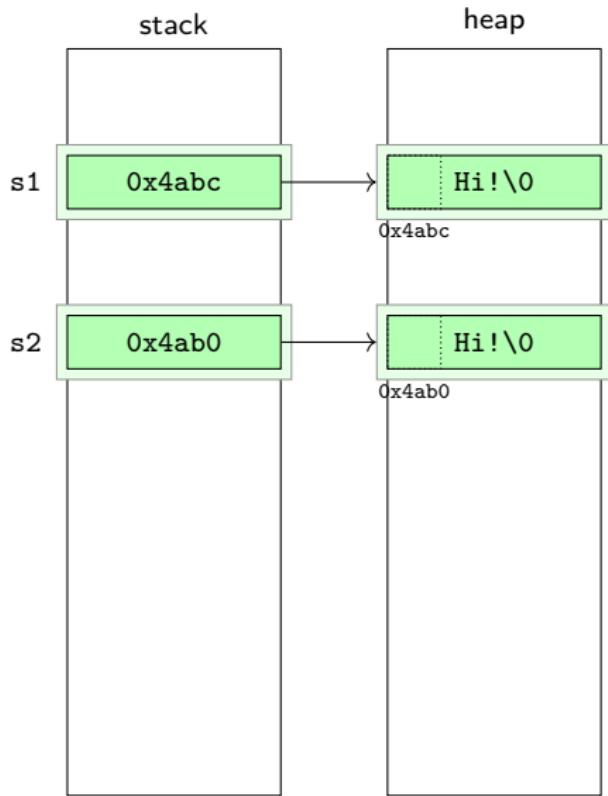


# We can do better than copying

```
class String {  
    char* s_;  
    ...  
};
```

```
String s1{"Hi!"};  
String s2{s1};
```

- Both `s1` and `s2` exist at the end
- The “deep” copy is needed



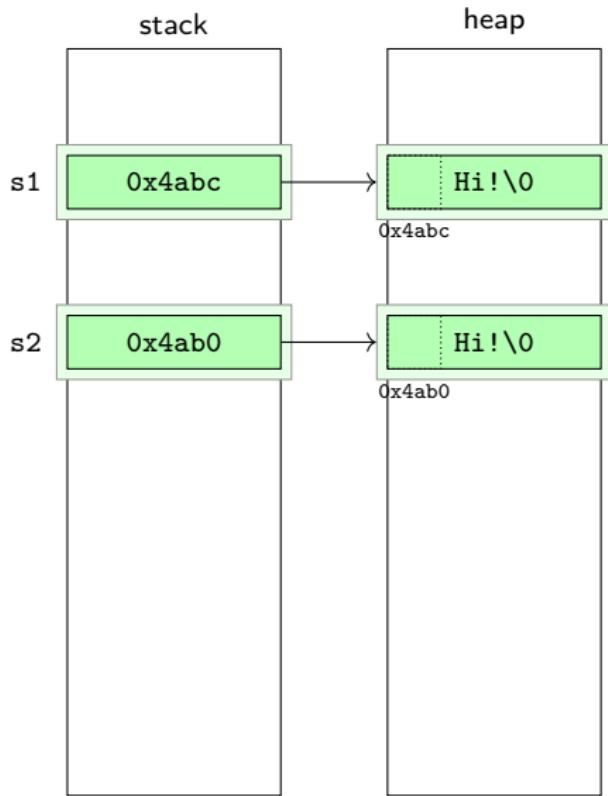
# We can do better than copying

```
class String {  
    char* s_;  
    ...  
};
```

```
String s1{"Hi!"};  
String s2{s1};
```

- Both `s1` and `s2` exist at the end
- The “deep” copy is needed

```
String get_string() { return "Hi!"; }  
String s3{get_string()};
```



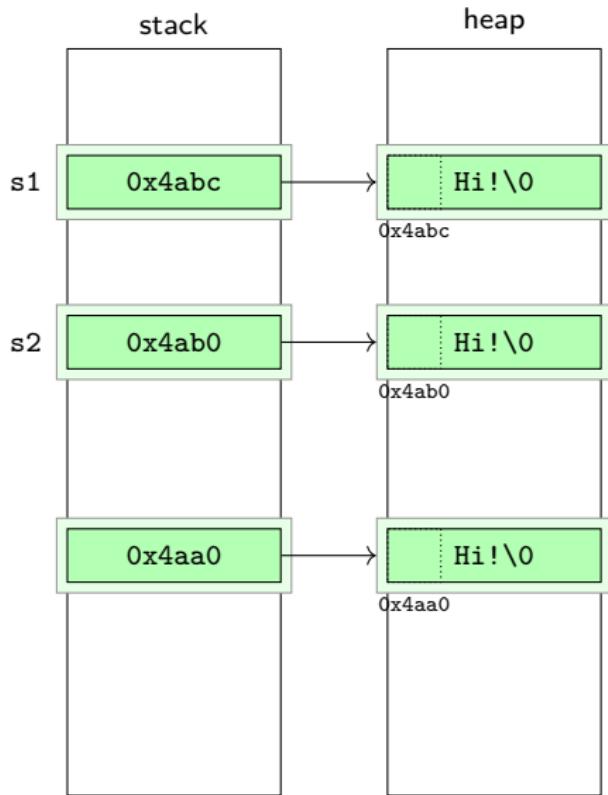
# We can do better than copying

```
class String {  
    char* s_;  
    ...  
};
```

```
String s1{"Hi!"};  
String s2{s1};
```

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```
String get_string() { return "Hi!"; }  
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```



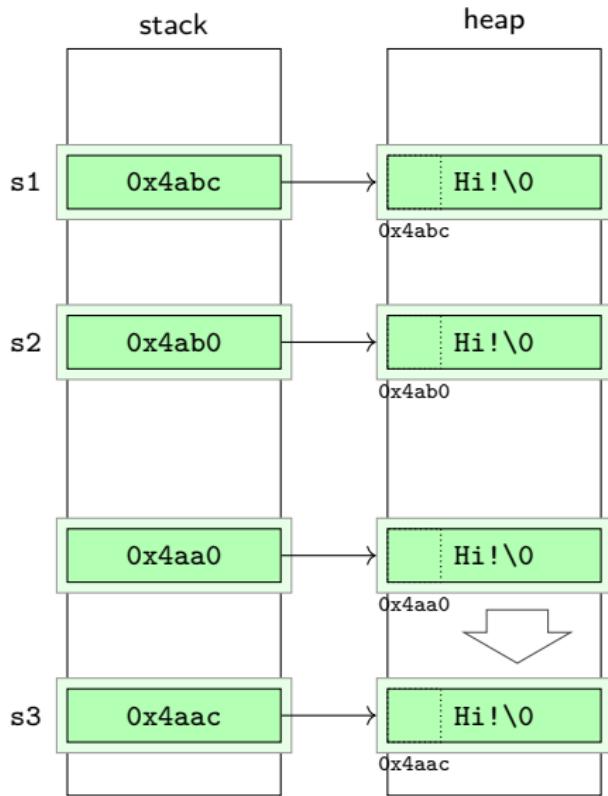
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class String {  
    char* s_;  
    ...  
};
```

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String s1{"Hi!"};  
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```
String get_string() { return "Hi!"; }  
String s3{get_string()};
```



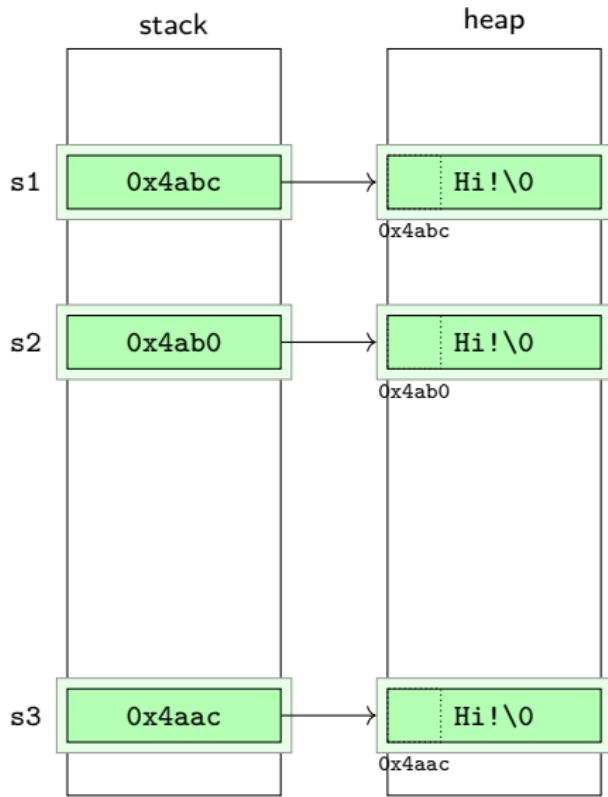
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class String {  
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    ...  
};
```

```
String s1{"Hi!"};  
String s2{s1};
```

- Both s1 and s2 exist at the end
- The “deep” copy is needed

```
String get_string() { return "Hi!"; }  
String s3{get_string()};
```



# We can do better than copying

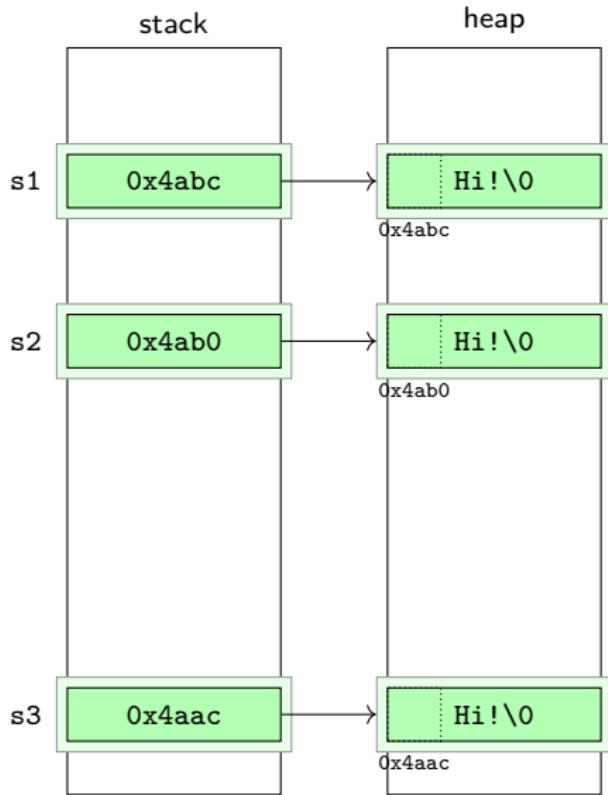
```
class String {  
    char* s_;  
    ...  
};
```

```
String s1{"Hi!"};  
String s2{s1};
```

- Both s1 and s2 exist at the end
- The “deep” copy is needed

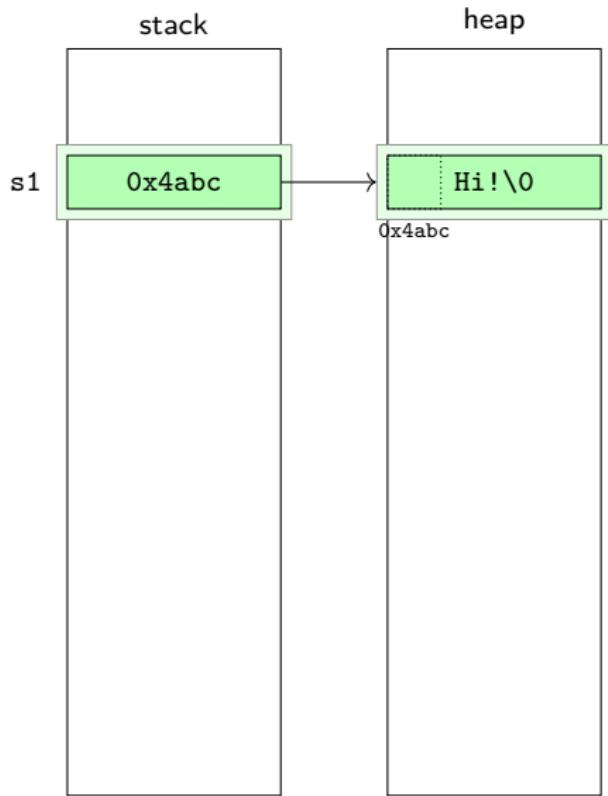
```
String get_string() { return "Hi!"; }  
String s3{get_string()};
```

- Only s3 exists at the end
- The “deep” copy is a waste



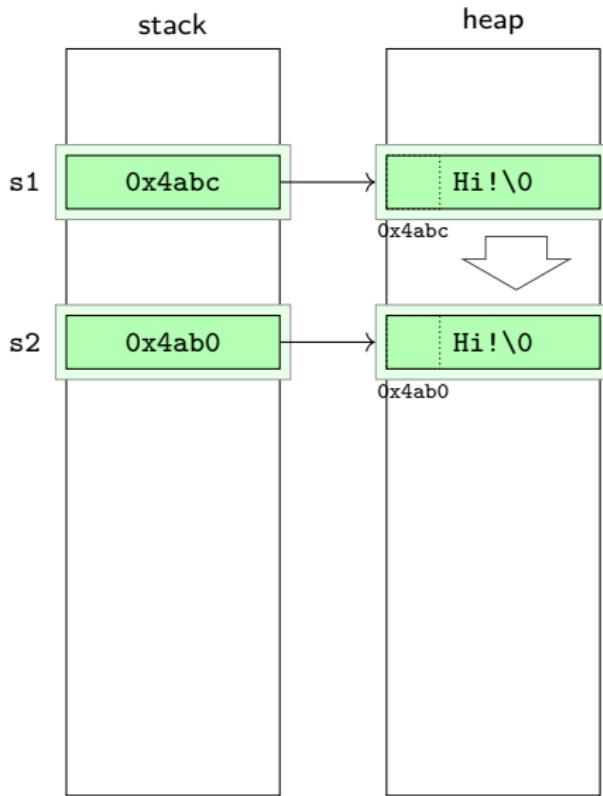
# Copy vs move

```
class String {  
    char* s_;  
public:  
    String(char const* s) {  
        size_t size = strlen(s) + 1;  
        s_ = new char[size];  
        memcpy(s_, s, size);  
    }  
    ~String() { delete [] s_; }  
};  
  
String s1{"Hi!"};
```



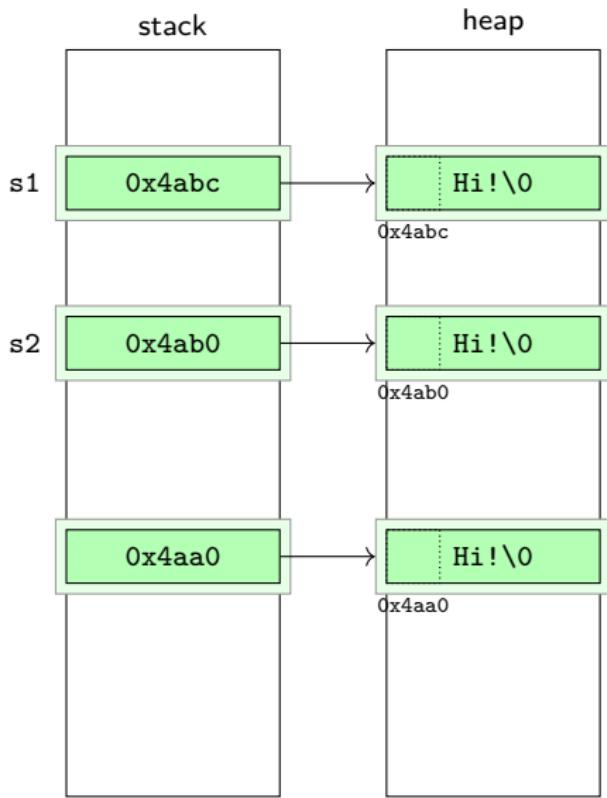
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```
class String {  
    char* s_;  
public:  
    String(char const* s) {  
        size_t size = strlen(s) + 1;  
        s_ = new char[size];  
        memcpy(s_, s, size);  
    }  
    ~String() { delete [] s_; }  
    // copy  
    String(String const& other) {  
        size_t size = strlen(other.s_) + 1;  
        s_ = new char[size];  
        memcpy(s_, other.s_, size);  
    }  
    ...  
};  
  
String s1{"Hi!"};  
String s2{s1};
```



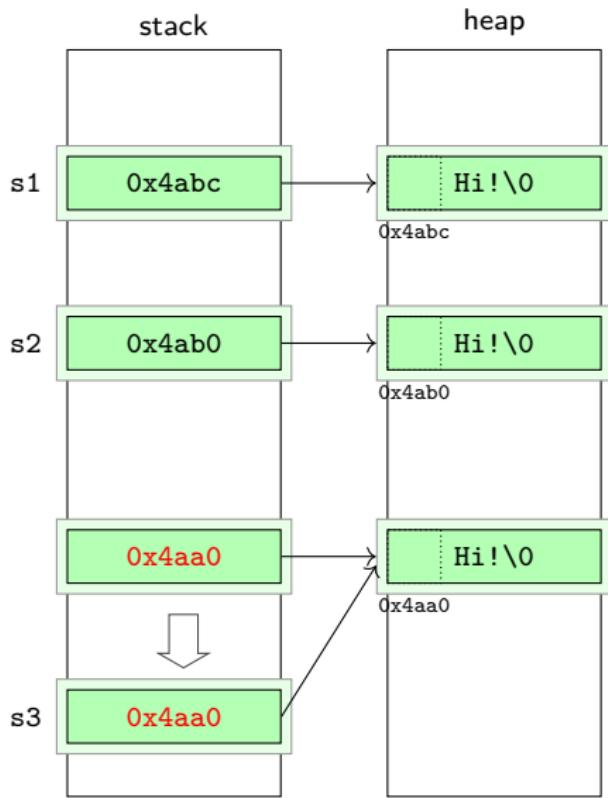
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        s_ = new char[size];  
        memcpy(s_, s, size);  
    }  
    ~String() { delete [] s_; }  
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    String(String const& other) {  
        size_t size = strlen(other.s_) + 1;  
        s_ = new char[size];  
        memcpy(s_, other.s_, size);  
    }  
    ...  
};  
  
String s1{"Hi!"};  
String s2{s1};  
String s3{get_string()};
```



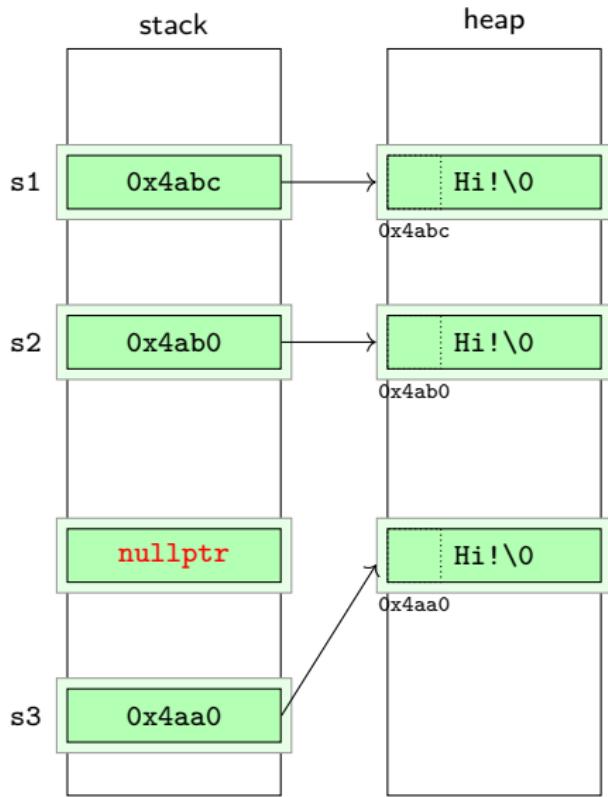
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    String(char const* s) {  
        size_t size = strlen(s) + 1;  
        s_ = new char[size];  
        memcpy(s_, s, size);  
    }  
    ~String() { delete [] s_; }  
    // copy  
    String(String const& other) {  
        size_t size = strlen(other.s_) + 1;  
        s_ = new char[size];  
        memcpy(s_, other.s_, size);  
    }  
    // move  
    String(??? tmp): s_(tmp.s_) {  
    }  
    ...  
};  
  
String s1{"Hi!"};  
String s2{s1};  
String s3{get_string();}
```



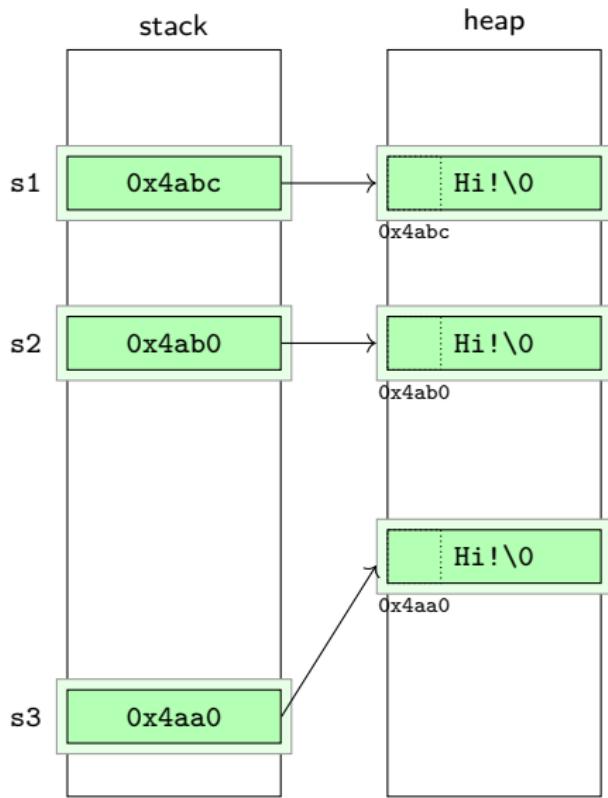
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class String {  
    char* s_;  
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    String(char const* s) {  
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        s_ = new char[size];  
        memcpy(s_, s, size);  
    }  
    ~String() { delete [] s_; }  
    // copy  
    String(String const& other) {  
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        s_ = new char[size];  
        memcpy(s_, other.s_, size);  
    }  
    // move  
    String(??? tmp): s_(tmp.s_) {  
        tmp.s_ = nullptr;  
    }  
    ...  
};  
  
String s1{"Hi!"};  
String s2{s1};  
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```



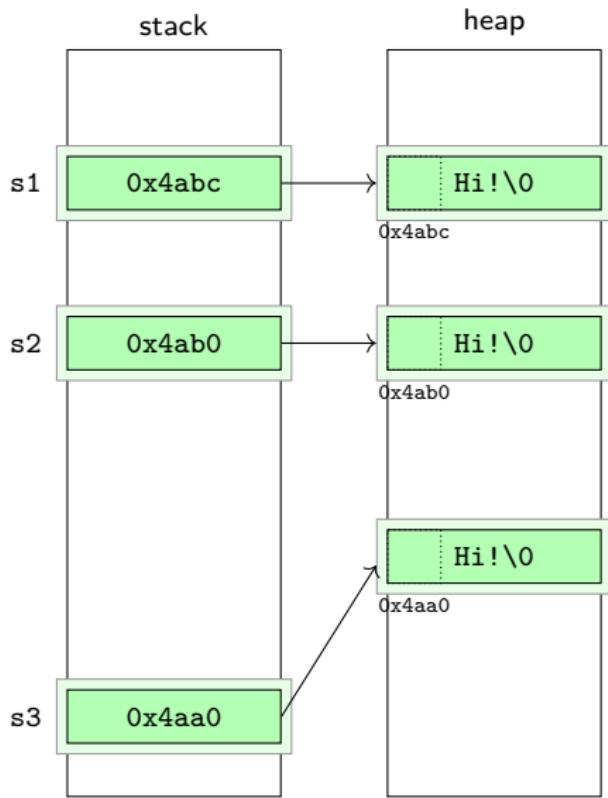
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        size_t size = strlen(s) + 1;  
        s_ = new char[size];  
        memcpy(s_, s, size);  
    }  
    ~String() { delete [] s_; }  
    // copy  
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        s_ = new char[size];  
        memcpy(s_, other.s_, size);  
    }  
    // move  
    String(??? tmp): s_(tmp.s_) {  
        tmp.s_ = nullptr;  
    }  
    ...  
};  
  
String s1{"Hi!"};  
String s2{s1};  
String s3{get_string();}
```



# Copy vs move

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public:  
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        s_ = new char[size];  
        memcpy(s_, s, size);  
    }  
    ~String() { delete [] s_; }  
    // copy  
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        s_ = new char[size];  
        memcpy(s_, other.s_, size);  
    }  
    // move  
    String(??? tmp): s_(tmp.s_) {  
        tmp.s_ = nullptr;  
    }  
    ...  
};  
  
String s1{"Hi!"};  
String s2{s1};  
String s3{get_string();}
```



# lvalues vs rvalues

- The taxonomy of values in C++ is complex
  - glvalue, prvalue, xvalue, lvalue, rvalue
- We can assume

**lvalue** A named object

- for which you can take the address
- **l** stands for “left” because it used to represent the left-hand side of an assignment

**rvalue** An unnamed (temporary) object

- for which you can't take the address
- **r** stands for “right” because it used to represent the right-hand side of an assignment

# Rvalue reference

- A **T&&** is an rvalue reference
  - introduced in C++11
- It binds to rvalues but not to lvalues

# Rvalue reference

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  - introduced in C++11
- It binds to rvalues but not to lvalues

```
class String {  
    // copy constructor  
    String(String const& other) { ... }  
    // move constructor  
    String(String&& tmp) { ... }  
};
```

# Rvalue reference

- A `T&&` is an rvalue reference
  - introduced in C++11
- It binds to rvalues but not to lvalues

```
class String {  
    // copy constructor  
    String(String const& other) { ... }  
    // move constructor  
    String(String&& tmp) { ... }  
};  
  
String s2{s1};           // call String::String(String const&)
```

# Rvalue reference

- A `T&&` is an rvalue reference
  - introduced in C++11
- It binds to rvalues but not to lvalues

```
class String {  
    // copy constructor  
    String(String const& other) { ... }  
    // move constructor  
    String(String&& tmp) { ... }  
};  
  
String s2{s1};           // call String::String(String const&)   
String s3{get_string()}; // call String::String(String&&)
```

# Special member functions

- A class has five special member functions
  - Plus the default constructor

```
class Widget {  
    Widget(Widget const&);           // copy constructor  
    Widget& operator=(Widget const&); // copy assignment  
    Widget(Widget&&);             // move constructor  
    Widget& operator=(Widget&&);   // move assignment  
    ~Widget();                     // destructor  
};
```

# Special member functions

- A class has five special member functions
  - Plus the default constructor

```
class Widget {  
    Widget(Widget const&);           // copy constructor  
    Widget& operator=(Widget const&); // copy assignment  
    Widget(Widget&&);             // move constructor  
    Widget& operator=(Widget&&);   // move assignment  
    ~Widget();                     // destructor  
};
```

- The compiler can generate them automatically according to some convoluted rules
  - The behavior depends on the behavior of data members

# Special member functions

- A class has five special member functions
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class Widget {  
    Widget(Widget const&);           // copy constructor  
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    Widget& operator=(Widget&&);   // move assignment  
    ~Widget();                     // destructor  
};
```

- The compiler can generate them automatically according to some convoluted rules
  - The behavior depends on the behavior of data members

- Rules of thumb

Rule of zero Don't declare them and rely on the compiler

Rule of five If you need to declare one, declare them all

- Consider = default and = delete

## Hands-on

- C++ → Move operations
- Open the program `string.cpp` and complete the existing code to:
  - Complete the set of the special member functions so that `String` is copyable and movable
  - Instead of a raw pointer, keep a `unique_ptr` in the private part of `String`
  - ...

## Return a value from a function

- Returning a large value from a function is often perceived as slow

## Return a value from a function

- Returning a large value from a function is often perceived as slow
  - Return “by pointer”

```
std::unique_ptr<LargeObject> make_large_object() {  
    return std::make_unique<LargeObject>();  
}  
  
auto lo = make_large_object();  
lo->...; // use the object, via a pointer
```

## Return a value from a function

- Returning a large value from a function is often perceived as slow
  - Return “by pointer”

```
std::unique_ptr<LargeObject> make_large_object() {
    return std::make_unique<LargeObject>();
}

auto lo = make_large_object();
lo->...; // use the object, via a pointer
```

- Use “out” arguments

```
void make_large_object(LargeObject& o) {
    o = LargeObject{ }; // requires copy assignment
}

LargeObject lo; // requires default constructor
make_large_object(lo);
lo.... // use the object
```

## Return a value from a function (cont.)

- There are very few reasons for not doing the obvious

```
LargeObject make_large_object() {  
    return LargeObject{};  
}  
  
auto lo = make_large_object(); // possibly auto const  
lo....                      // use the object
```

- In fact the compiler is allowed or even obliged in some circumstances to elide the copy of the returned value into the final destination
  - (N)RVO – (Named) Return Value Optimization
- If (N)RVO is not applied, a move is done, if available
- If the move is not available, copy

# Return value optimization

## Unnamed

```
Widget make_widget()
{
    if (...) {
        return Widget{};
    }
    return Widget{};
}

auto w = make_widget();
```

## Named

```
Widget make_widget()
{
    Widget result;
    if (...) {
        result = Widget{};
    }
    return result;
}

auto w = make_widget();
```

# Return value optimization

## Unnamed

```
Widget make_widget()
{
    if (...) {
        return Widget{};
    }
    return Widget{};
}

auto w = make_widget();
```

## Named

```
Widget make_widget()
{
    Widget result;
    if (...) {
        result = Widget{};
    }
    return result;
}

auto w = make_widget();
```

- Try not to mix named and unnamed `returns` in the same function
- Avoid `return std::move(result)`, unless necessary

# Hands-on

- C++ → Return Value Optimization
- Open the program `rvo.cpp`. Implement variations of the `make_vector` function so that:
  - the result is returned from the function
  - the result is passed to the function as an output parameter (by reference or by pointer)
- Measure the time it takes to execute them. Discuss the results.

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# auto

Let the compiler deduce the type of a variable from the initializer

```
auto i = 0;           // int
auto u = 0U;          // unsigned int
auto p = &i;           // int*
auto d = 1.;          // double
auto c = 'a';         // char
auto s = "a";         // char const*
```

auto

Let the compiler deduce the type of a variable from the initializer

```
auto i = 0;           // int
auto u = 0U;          // unsigned int
auto p = &i;           // int*
auto d = 1.;          // double
auto c = 'a';          // char
auto s = "a";          // char const*
auto t = std::string{"a"}; // std::string
std::vector<std::string> v;
auto it = std::begin(v); // std::vector<std::string>::iterator
```

auto

Let the compiler deduce the type of a variable from the initializer

```
auto i = 0;           // int
auto u = 0U;          // unsigned int
auto p = &i;           // int*
auto d = 1.;          // double
auto c = 'a';          // char
auto s = "a";          // char const*
auto t = std::string{"a"}; // std::string
std::vector<std::string> v;
auto it = std::begin(v); // std::vector<std::string>::iterator
using namespace std::chrono_literals;
auto u = 1234us;        // std::chrono::microseconds
```

auto

Let the compiler deduce the type of a variable from the initializer

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auto i = 0;           // int
auto u = 0U;          // unsigned int
auto p = &i;           // int*
auto d = 1.;          // double
auto c = 'a';          // char
auto s = "a";          // char const*
auto t = std::string{"a"}; // std::string
std::vector<std::string> v;
auto it = std::begin(v); // std::vector<std::string>::iterator
using namespace std::chrono_literals;
auto u = 1234us;        // std::chrono::microseconds
auto e;                 // error
```

# auto and references

- auto never deduces a reference
- if needed, & must be added explicitly

```
T v;  
  
auto v1 = v;      // T - v1 is a copy of v  
auto& v2 = v;    // T& - v2 is an alias of v  
auto v3 = v2;    // T - v2 is a copy of v
```

# auto and const

- auto makes a mutable copy
- auto const (or const auto) makes a non-mutable copy
- auto& preserves const-ness

```
T v;
```

```
auto      v1 = v; // T      - v1 is a mutable copy of v
auto const  v2 = v; // T const - v2 is a non-mutable copy of v
auto&     v3 = v; // T&     - v3 is a mutable alias of v
auto const& v4 = v; // T const& - v4 is a non-mutable alias of v
```

```
T const v;
```

```
auto      v1 = v; // T      - v1 is a mutable copy of v
auto const  v2 = v; // T const - v2 is a non-mutable copy of v
auto&     v3 = v; // T const& - v3 is a non-mutable alias of v
auto const& v4 = v; // T const& - v4 is a non-mutable alias of v
```

# How to check the deduced type?

- Trick by S. Meyers

```
template<typename T> struct D;

auto k = 0U;
D<decltype(k)> d; // error: aggregate 'D<unsigned int> d'...

auto const o = 0.;
D<decltype(o)> d; // error: aggregate 'D<const double> d'...

auto const& f = 0.f;
D<decltype(f)> d; // error: aggregate 'D<const float&> td'...

auto s = "hello";
D<decltype(s)> d; // error: aggregate 'D<const char*> d'...

auto& t = "hello";
D<decltype(t)> d; // error: aggregate 'D<const char (&)[6]> d'...
```

- decltype returns the type of an expression
  - at compile time

## Lambda: closure

The evaluation of a lambda expression produces an unnamed function object (a *closure*)

- The operator() corresponds to the code of the body of the lambda expression
- The data members are the captured local variables

# Lambda: closure

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```
auto l = []
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
public:  
  
    auto operator()  
};  
  
auto l = SomeUniqueName{ };
```

# Lambda: closure

The evaluation of a lambda expression produces an unnamed function object (a *closure*)

- The operator() corresponds to the code of the body of the lambda expression
- The data members are the captured local variables

```
auto l = [](int i)
{ return i + v; }
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {

public:

    auto operator()(int i)
    { return i + v ; }

};

auto l = SomeUniqueName{ };
```

# Lambda: closure

The evaluation of a lambda expression produces an unnamed function object (a *closure*)

- The operator() corresponds to the code of the body of the lambda expression
- The data members are the captured local variables

```
int v = 3;

auto l = [](int i)
{ return i + v; }
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {

public:

    auto operator()(int i)
    { return i + v ; }

};

int v = 3;
auto l = SomeUniqueName{ };
```

# Lambda: closure

The evaluation of a lambda expression produces an unnamed function object (a *closure*)

- The operator() corresponds to the code of the body of the lambda expression
- The data members are the captured local variables

```
int v = 3;  
  
auto l = [=](int i)  
{ return i + v; }
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
    int v_;  
public:  
    explicit SomeUniqueName(int v)  
        : v_{v} {}  
  
    auto operator()(int i)  
    { return i + v_; }  
};  
  
int v = 3;  
auto l = SomeUniqueName{v};
```

# Lambda: closure

The evaluation of a lambda expression produces an unnamed function object (a *closure*)

- The operator() corresponds to the code of the body of the lambda expression
- The data members are the captured local variables

```
int v = 3;

auto l = [=](int i)
{ return i + v; }

auto r = l(5); // 8
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {
    int v_;
public:
    explicit SomeUniqueName(int v)
        : v_{v} {}

    auto operator()(int i)
    { return i + v_; }
};

int v = 3;
auto l = SomeUniqueName{v};
auto r = l(5); // 8
```

# Lambda: closure

The evaluation of a lambda expression produces an unnamed function object (a *closure*)

- The operator() corresponds to the code of the body of the lambda expression
- The data members are the captured local variables

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auto l = [v = 3](int i)
{ return i + v; }

auto r = l(5); // 8
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {
    int v_;
public:
    explicit SomeUniqueName(int v)
        : v_{v} {}

    auto operator()(int i)
    { return i + v_; }
};

int v = 3;
auto l = SomeUniqueName{v};
auto r = l(5); // 8
```

# Lambda: closure

The evaluation of a lambda expression produces an unnamed function object (a *closure*)

- The operator() corresponds to the code of the body of the lambda expression
- The data members are the captured local variables

```
auto l = [v = 3](auto i)
{ return i + v; }

auto r = l(5); // 8
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {
    int v_;
public:
    explicit SomeUniqueName(int v)
        : v_{v} {}
    template<typename T>
    auto operator()(T    i)
    { return i + v_; }
};

int v = 3;
auto l = SomeUniqueName{v};
auto r = l(5); // 8
```

# Lambda: closure

The evaluation of a lambda expression produces an unnamed function object (a *closure*)

- The operator() corresponds to the code of the body of the lambda expression
- The data members are the captured local variables

```
auto l = [v = 3](auto i) -> int
{ return i + v; }

auto r = l(5); // 8
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {
    int v_;
public:
    explicit SomeUniqueName(int v)
        : v_{v} {}
    template<typename T>
    int operator()(T i)
    { return i + v_; }
};

int v = 3;
auto l = SomeUniqueName{v};
auto r = l(5); // 8
```

# Lambda: capturing

- Automatic variables used in the body need to be captured
  - [] capture nothing
  - [=] capture all by value
  - [k] capture k by value
  - [&] capture all by reference
  - [&k] capture k by reference
  - [=, &k] capture all by value but k by reference
  - [&, k] capture all by reference but k by value

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  - [&k] capture k by reference
  - [=, &k] capture all by value but k by reference
  - [&, k] capture all by reference but k by value

```
int v = 3;  
auto l = [v] {};
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
    int v_;  
public:  
    explicit SomeUniqueName(int v)  
        : v_{v} {}  
    ...  
};  
  
auto l = SomeUniqueName{v};
```

# Lambda: capturing

- Automatic variables used in the body need to be captured
  - [] capture nothing
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  - [k] capture k by value
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  - [&k] capture k by reference
  - [=, &k] capture all by value but k by reference
  - [&, k] capture all by reference but k by value

```
int v = 3;  
auto l = [&v] {};
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
    int& v_;  
public:  
    explicit SomeUniqueName(int& v)  
        : v_{v} {}  
    ...  
};  
  
auto l = SomeUniqueName{v};
```

# Lambda: capturing

- Automatic variables used in the body need to be captured
  - [] capture nothing
  - [=] capture all by value
  - [k] capture k by value
  - [&] capture all by reference
  - [&k] capture k by reference
  - [=, &k] capture all by value but k by reference
  - [&, k] capture all by reference but k by value

```
int v = 3;  
auto l = [&v] {};
```

```
class SomeUniqueName {  
    int& v_;  
public:  
    explicit SomeUniqueName(int& v)  
        : v_{v} {}  
    ...  
};  
  
auto l = SomeUniqueName{v};
```

- Global variables are available without being captured

# Lambda: const and mutable

- By default the call to a lambda is `const`
  - Variables captured by value are not modifiable

```
[] {};
```

```
struct SomeUniqueName {  
    auto operator()() const {}  
};
```

# Lambda: const and mutable

- By default the call to a lambda is `const`
  - Variables captured by value are not modifiable
- A lambda can be declared `mutable`

```
[]() mutable {};
```

```
struct SomeUniqueName {  
    auto operator()() {}  
};
```

# Lambda: const and mutable

- By default the call to a lambda is `const`
  - Variables captured by value are not modifiable
- A lambda can be declared `mutable`

```
[]() mutable -> void {};
```

```
struct SomeUniqueName {  
    void operator()() {}  
};
```

# Lambda: const and mutable

- By default the call to a lambda is `const`
  - Variables captured by value are not modifiable
- A lambda can be declared `mutable`

```
[]() mutable -> void {};
```

```
struct SomeUniqueName {  
    void operator()() {}  
};
```

- Variables captured by reference can be modified
  - There is no way to capture by `const&`

```
int v = 3;  
[&v] { ++v; }();  
assert(v == 4);
```

# Lambda: dangling reference

Be careful not to have dangling references in a closure

- It's similar to a function returning a reference to a local variable

```
auto make_lambda()
{
    int v = 3;
    return [&] { return v; }; // return a closure
}

auto l = make_lambda();
auto d = l(); // the captured variable is dangling here
```

```
auto start_in_thread()
{
    int v = 3;
    return std::async([&] { return v; });
}
```

# Rvalue reference

- A `T&&` is an rvalue reference
  - introduced in C++11
- It binds to rvalues but not to lvalues

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```
class Thing;  
Thing make_thing();  
  
Thing t;
```

# Rvalue reference

- A `T&&` is an rvalue reference
  - introduced in C++11
- It binds to rvalues but not to lvalues

```
class Thing;  
Thing make_thing();  
  
Thing t;  
  
Thing      & r = t;
```

# Rvalue reference

- A `T&&` is an rvalue reference
  - introduced in C++11
- It binds to rvalues but not to lvalues

```
class Thing;
Thing make_thing();

Thing t;

Thing      & r = t;           // ok
```

# Rvalue reference

- A `T&&` is an rvalue reference
  - introduced in C++11
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```
class Thing;
Thing make_thing();

Thing t;

Thing      & r = t;           // ok
Thing      && r = t;
```

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```
class Thing;
Thing make_thing();

Thing t;

Thing      & r = t;           // ok
Thing      && r = t;          // error
```

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class Thing;
Thing make_thing();

Thing t;

Thing      & r = t;           // ok
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Thing      & r = make_thing();
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Thing      & r = make_thing(); // error
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class Thing;
Thing make_thing();

Thing t;

Thing      & r = t;           // ok
Thing      && r = t;          // error
Thing      & r = make_thing(); // error
Thing      && r = make_thing();
```

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class Thing;
Thing make_thing();

Thing t;

Thing      & r = t;           // ok
Thing      && r = t;          // error
Thing      & r = make_thing(); // error
Thing      && r = make_thing(); // ok
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class Thing;
Thing make_thing();

Thing t;

Thing      & r = t;           // ok
Thing      && r = t;          // error
Thing      & r = make_thing(); // error
Thing      && r = make_thing(); // ok
Thing const& r = make_thing();
```

# Rvalue reference

- A `T&&` is an rvalue reference
  - introduced in C++11
- It binds to rvalues but not to lvalues

```
class Thing;
Thing make_thing();

Thing t;

Thing      & r = t;           // ok
Thing      && r = t;          // error
Thing      & r = make_thing(); // error
Thing      && r = make_thing(); // ok
Thing const& r = make_thing(); // ok (!)
```

# Rvalue reference

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  - introduced in C++11
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class Thing;
Thing make_thing();

Thing t;

Thing      & r = t;           // ok
Thing      && r = t;          // error
Thing      & r = make_thing(); // error
Thing      && r = make_thing(); // ok
Thing const& r = make_thing(); // ok (!)

Thing const&& r = make_thing();
```

# Rvalue reference

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  - introduced in C++11
- It binds to rvalues but not to lvalues

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class Thing;
Thing make_thing();

Thing t;

Thing      & r = t;           // ok
Thing      && r = t;          // error
Thing      & r = make_thing(); // error
Thing      && r = make_thing(); // ok
Thing const& r = make_thing(); // ok (!)

Thing const&& r = make_thing(); // ok, but what for?
```

# Rvalue reference

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  - introduced in C++11
- It binds to rvalues but not to lvalues

```
class Thing;
Thing make_thing();

Thing t;

Thing      & r = t;           // ok
Thing      && r = t;          // error
Thing      & r = make_thing(); // error
Thing      && r = make_thing(); // ok
Thing const& r = make_thing(); // ok (!)

Thing const&& r = make_thing(); // ok, but what for?
```

```
class String {
    // move constructor
    String(String&& tmp) : s_(tmp.s_) {
        tmp.s_ = nullptr;
    }
};

String s2{s1};           // call String::String(String const&)
String s3{get_string()}; // call String::String(String&&)
```

# Rvalue reference (cont.)

- Any function can accept rvalue references

```
void foo(String&&);  
  
foo(get_string());  
foo(String{"hello"});
```

- lvalues can be explicitly transformed into rvalues

```
String s;  
foo(s);           // error  
foo(std::move(s)); // ok, I don't care any more about s  
s.size();         // dangerous
```

# Overloading on &&

- A function can be overloaded for temporaries
  - useful if there are significant opportunities of optimization

```
void foo(Widget const&) {...}
void foo(Widget&&) {...}

Widget w{...};
foo(w);           // calls foo(Widget const&)
foo(Widget{...}); // calls foo(Widget&&)
```

# Overloading on &&

- A function can be overloaded for temporaries
  - useful if there are significant opportunities of optimization

```
void foo(Widget const&) {...}
void foo(Widget&&) {...}

Widget w{...};
foo(w);           // calls foo(Widget const&)
foo(Widget{...}); // calls foo(Widget&&)
```

- For more than one parameter it becomes less desirable
  - consider pass by value, if move is cheap
  - especially useful for "sinks", e.g. in constructors

```
struct S {
    T1 t1_; T2 t2_;
    S(T1 t1, T2 t2) : t1_(std::move(t1)), t2_(std::move(t2)) {...}
};

T1 t1; T2 t2;
S s{t1, make_t2()};
S s{make_t1(), t2};
```

# Copy operations

```
class Widget {  
    ...  
    Widget(Widget const& other);  
    Widget& operator=(Widget const& other);  
};
```

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class Widget {  
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**copy constructor** Allows the **construction** of an object as a copy of another object

```
Widget w1;  
Widget w2{w1};
```

**copy assignment** Allows to change the value of an **existing** object as a copy of another object

```
Widget w1, w2;  
w2 = w1;
```

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class Widget {  
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Widget w1;  
Widget w2{w1};
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**copy assignment** Allows to change the value of an **existing** object as a copy of another object

```
Widget w1, w2;  
w2 = w1;
```

- The two objects are/remain distinct
- The copied-from object is not changed
- After the copy the two objects should compare equal

# Move operations

```
class Widget {  
    ...  
    Widget(Widget&& other);  
    Widget& operator=(Widget&& other);  
};
```

# Move operations

```
class Widget {  
    ...  
    Widget(Widget&& other);  
    Widget& operator=(Widget&& other);  
};
```

**move constructor** Allows the **construction** of an object stealing the internals of another object

```
Widget w{make_widget();}
```

**move assignment** Allows to change the value of an **existing** object stealing the internals of another object

```
Widget w;  
w = make_widget();
```

# Move operations

```
class Widget {  
    ...  
    Widget(Widget&& other);  
    Widget& operator=(Widget&& other);  
};
```

**move constructor** Allows the **construction** of an object stealing the internals of another object

```
Widget w{make_widget();}
```

**move assignment** Allows to change the value of an **existing** object stealing the internals of another object

```
Widget w;  
w = make_widget();
```

- The two objects are/remain distinct
- The moved-from object is usually changed
  - to a *valid but unspecified* state
  - it must be at least destructible and possibly reassignable

## On move

- A move is typically cheaper than a copy, but it can be as expensive

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- If the *Return Value Optimization* is not applied, the return value of a function is moved, not copied, into destination

## On move

- A move is typically cheaper than a copy, but it can be as expensive
- If the *Return Value Optimization* is not applied, the return value of a function is moved, not copied, into destination
- `operator=(T&&)` can assume that the argument is a temporary, hence different from this
  - There is no need to check for self-assignment
  - But be sure that in such event there is no crash
  - Rule of thumb: `std::swap` must work

```
template<typename T>
void swap(T& a, T& b) {
    T t{std::move(a)};
    a = std::move(b);
    b = std::move(t);
}
```

= default

- Explicitly tell the compiler to generate a special member function according to the default implementation

## = default

- Explicitly tell the compiler to generate a special member function according to the default implementation

```
class Widget {  
    int i = 0;  
public:  
    Widget(Widget const&);  
  
};  
  
static_assert(std::is_copy_constructible<Widget>::value);  
static_assert(!std::is_default_constructible<Widget>::value);
```

= default

- Explicitly tell the compiler to generate a special member function according to the default implementation

```
class Widget {  
    int i = 0;  
public:  
    Widget(Widget const&);  
    Widget() = default;  
};  
  
static_assert(std::is_copy_constructible<Widget>::value);  
static_assert(std::is_default_constructible<Widget>::value);
```

## = delete

- A function can be declared as *deleted*, marking it with  
`= delete`

```
template<typename P>
class SmartPointer {
    ...
    SmartPointer(SmartPointer const&) = delete;
    SmartPointer& operator=(SmartPointer const&) = delete;
};
```

## = delete

- A function can be declared as *deleted*, marking it with `= delete`
- For example, a class can be made **non copyable** deleting its copy operations

```
template<typename P>
class SmartPointer {
    ...
    SmartPointer(SmartPointer const&) = delete;
    SmartPointer& operator=(SmartPointer const&) = delete;
};

using SPI = SmartPointer<int>

static_assert(!std::is_copy_constructible<SPI>::value);
static_assert(!std::is_copy_assignable<SPI>::value);
```

## = delete

- A function can be declared as *deleted*, marking it with `= delete`
- For example, a class can be made **non copyable** deleting its copy operations
- Calling a deleted functions causes a compilation error

```
template<typename P>
class SmartPointer {
    ...
    SmartPointer(SmartPointer const&) = delete;
    SmartPointer& operator=(SmartPointer const&) = delete;
};

using SPI = SmartPointer<int>

static_assert(!std::is_copy_constructible<SPI>::value);
static_assert(!std::is_copy_assignable<SPI>::value);

SPI sp1, sp2;
SPI sp3{sp1}; // error
```

## = delete

- A function can be declared as *deleted*, marking it with `= delete`
- For example, a class can be made **non copyable** deleting its copy operations
- Calling a deleted functions causes a compilation error

```
template<typename P>
class SmartPointer {
    ...
    SmartPointer(SmartPointer const&) = delete;
    SmartPointer& operator=(SmartPointer const&) = delete;
};

using SPI = SmartPointer<int>

static_assert(!std::is_copy_constructible<SPI>::value);
static_assert(!std::is_copy_assignable<SPI>::value);

SPI sp1, sp2;
SPI sp3{sp1}; // error
sp2 = sp1;    // error
```

## = delete

- A function can be declared as *deleted*, marking it with `= delete`
- For example, a class can be made **non copyable** deleting its copy operations
- Calling a deleted functions causes a compilation error
- Any function can be deleted

```
template<typename P>
class SmartPointer {
    ...
    SmartPointer(SmartPointer const&) = delete;
    SmartPointer& operator=(SmartPointer const&) = delete;
};

using SPI = SmartPointer<int>

static_assert(!std::is_copy_constructible<SPI>::value);
static_assert(!std::is_copy_assignable<SPI>::value);

SPI sp1, sp2;
SPI sp3{sp1}; // error
sp2 = sp1;    // error
```

# Mechanisms for error management

The sooner the errors are identified, the better

- `static_assert`
  - Logical assertion that must be valid at compile time
- `assert`
  - Logical assertion that must be valid at run time
- Exceptions
  - To express an error condition happening at run time, typically related to a lack of resource
- C-style error codes
  - They can be ignored (but they should not!)
- ...

## static\_assert

Check that a certain constant boolean expression is satisfied during compilation

- If not, fail compilation with the specified message

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Check that a certain constant boolean expression is satisfied during compilation

- If not, fail compilation with the specified message

```
#include <type_traits>

struct C {
    C(C const&) = default;
    C& operator=(C const&) = delete;
};

static_assert(!std::is_default_constructible<C>::value, "");
static_assert( std::is_copy_constructible_v<C> );
static_assert( !std::is_copy_assignable_v<C> );
static_assert( std::is_move_constructible_v<C> );
static_assert( !std::is_move_assignable_v<C> );
static_assert( std::is_destructible_v<C> );
static_assert(sizeof(C) == 1);
```

## static\_assert

Check that a certain constant boolean expression is satisfied during compilation

- If not, fail compilation with the specified message

```
#include <type_traits>

struct C {
    C(C const&) = default;
    C& operator=(C const&) = delete;
};

static_assert(!std::is_default_constructible<C>::value, "");
static_assert( std::is_copy_constructible_v<C> );
static_assert( !std::is_copy_assignable_v<C> );
static_assert( std::is_nothrow_move_constructible_v<C> );
static_assert( !std::is_move_assignable_v<C> );
static_assert( std::is_destructible_v<C> );
static_assert(sizeof(C) == 1);
```

## static\_assert

Check that a certain constant boolean expression is satisfied during compilation

- If not, fail compilation with the specified message

```
#include <type_traits>

struct C {
    C(C const&) = default;
    C& operator=(C const&) = delete;
};

static_assert(!std::is_default_constructible<C>::value, "");
static_assert( std::is_copy_constructible_v<C> );
static_assert(!std::is_copy_assignable_v<C> );
static_assert( std::is_nothrow_move_constructible_v<C> );
static_assert(!std::is_move_assignable_v<C> );
static_assert( std::is_destructible_v<C> );
static_assert(sizeof(C) == 1);
```

A static assertion declaration can appear practically anywhere

- There is no effect, hence no overhead, at run time

## assert

Check that a certain boolean expression is satisfied at run time

- If not satisfied, it means that the state of the program is corrupted → better to close the program as soon as possible (calling `std::abort`)

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Check that a certain boolean expression is satisfied at run time

- If not satisfied, it means that the state of the program is corrupted → better to close the program as soon as possible (calling std::abort)

```
template<class T> class Vector {  
    T* p;  
    ...  
    T& operator[](int n) {  
  
        return p[n];  
    }  
};
```

## assert

Check that a certain boolean expression is satisfied at run time

- If not satisfied, it means that the state of the program is corrupted → better to close the program as soon as possible (calling std::abort)

```
template<class T> class Vector {  
    T* p;  
    ...  
    T& operator[](int n) {  
        assert(p != nullptr);           // class invariant (sort of)  
        return p[n];  
    }  
};
```

# assert

Check that a certain boolean expression is satisfied at run time

- If not satisfied, it means that the state of the program is corrupted → better to close the program as soon as possible (calling std::abort)

```
template<class T> class Vector {  
    T* p;  
    ...  
    T& operator[](int n) {  
        assert(p != nullptr);           // class invariant (sort of)  
        assert(n >= 0 && n < size()); // function pre-condition  
        return p[n];  
    }  
};
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```

Useful during testing/debugging

- Can be disabled for performance reasons (-DNDEBUG)
- Avoid side effects in asserts

# Exceptions

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    if (!success(res)) {

    }
    return Thing{res};
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class Thing {...};  
class Exception {...};  
  
auto make_thing() {  
    auto res = acquire_resources_to_build_thing();  
    if (!success(res)) {  
        Exception e{...};  
        throw e;  
    }  
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Note that all local variables (e.g. `res`) are properly destroyed when exiting the function, be it via `return` or via `throw`

# Exception propagation

```
auto high() {  
    mid();  
}  
  
auto mid() {  
    low();  
}  
  
auto low() {  
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auto high() {  
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# Exception propagation

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auto high() {
    try {
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        mid();
    } catch (E& e) {
        }
}

auto mid() {
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auto low() {
    // this part is executed
    throw E{};
    // this part is not executed
}
```

# Exception propagation

```
auto high() {
    try {
        // this part is executed
        mid();
        // this part is not executed
    } catch (E& e) {
        // use e
    }
}

auto mid() {
    T t; // this part is executed
    low();
    // this part is not executed
    // T is properly destroyed
}

auto low() {
    // this part is executed
    throw E{};
    // this part is not executed
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# Exception propagation

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auto high() {
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    } catch (E& e) { // by reference
        // use e
    }
}

auto mid() {
    T t; // this part is executed
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```

- An exception is propagated up the stack of function calls until a suitable catch clause is found
- If no suitable catch clause is found the program is terminated
- During stack unwinding all automatic objects are properly destroyed
  - Remember smart pointers!

# Exception safety

Different levels of safety guarantees (for member functions):

**basic** If an exception is thrown, no resource is leaked and the object is left in a *valid but unspecified* state

- the object should be at least safely assignable and destroyable
- every class should provide at least the basic guarantee

**strong** Transaction semantics: if an exception is thrown, the object's state is as it was before the function was called

**no-throw** The operation is always successful and no exception leaves the function

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    Handle(Handle&& o) noexcept : ... { ... }  
    ...  
};
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    Handle(Handle&& o) noexcept : ... { ... }  
    ...  
};
```

- Declaring functions (not only member functions) `noexcept` helps the compiler to optimize the code
- If move operations, especially the constructor, are `noexcept` the compiler/library can apply **significant** optimizations
  - E.g. in order to provide the strong guarantee  
`std::vector::push_back` must copy, not move, objects, if the move can throw

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  - Rely on the `noexcept`-ness of data members' move-assignments
- `T::T(T&& tmp)` may be more difficult
  - Start with one object (`tmp`), end up with two (`*this` and `tmp`)
  - Can rely on `T::T()` being `noexcept` as well
  - Which is not obvious if a resource has to be acquired

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class Thing {
    ~Thing()
{
    try {
        :
    } catch (...) { // catch all exceptions
        // e.g. log something, provided logging doesn't throw
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};
```

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class Thing {
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{
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        :
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```

- It's always possible to declare a destructor, like any other function, `noexcept(false)`