Containers & Iterators
Notes on Assignment 2
Error Handling

CS 311 Data Structures and Algorithms
Lecture Slides
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Glenn G. Chappell
Department of Computer Science
University of Alaska Fairbanks
CHAPPELLEG@member.ams.org

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Unit Overview
Advanced C++ & Software Engineering Concepts

Major Topics: Advanced C++
- The structure of a package
- Parameter passing
- Operator overloading
- Silently written & called functions
- Pointers & dynamic allocation
- Managing resources in a class
- Templates
  - Containers & iterators
  - Error handling
  - Introduction to exceptions
  - Introduction to Linked Lists

Major Topics: S.E. Concepts
- Abstraction
- Invariants
- Testing
- Some principles

DONE
Example class: holds one int

```cpp
class SingleValue {
public:
    int & val()
    { return theValue_; }
    const int & val() const { return theValue_; }
private:
    int theValue_; 
};
```

Example class template: holds one of anything

```cpp
template <typename ValueType>
class SingleValue {
public:
    ValueType & val()
    { return theValue_; }
    const ValueType & val() const { return theValue_; }
private:
    ValueType theValue_; 
};
```

Usage of class template
- Need to specify the template parameter.

```
SingleValue<double> sd;
```
When you write a template with a type as a template parameter, **document** the requirements on that type.

- Include things that the compiler checks (unlike in invariants).
- In this course, put this information in a comment.

```cpp
// cubeIt
// Returns the cube of the given number.
// Requirements on types:
// Num must have a copy ctor and binary operator*.
// Pre: None.
// Post:
// return == n*n*n.
template <typename Num>
Num cubeIt(Num n)
{
    return n*n*n;
}
```

What has to be true about type `Num` for this template to be compiled and used successfully?
Containers & Iterators
Introduction — Generic Containers

A **container** is a data structure that can hold multiple items, usually all of the same type.

- Sometimes people talk about a “container” holding a single item.

A **generic container** is a container that can hold items of a client-specified type.

One kind of generic container is: an array.

```cpp
MyType myArray[8];
```

Other generic container types are part of the C++ Standard Library.

- In particular, the **Standard Template Library** (STL), contains templates for many data structures and algorithms that can hold or deal with arbitrary types.
Containers & Iterators
Introduction — Kinds of Data

When we deal with containers (and things that look like containers [think “data abstraction”]) the following broad categories of data are important:

- **Random Access**
  - Random-access data can be dealt with in any order. We can efficiently skip from one item to any other item in the data set.

- **Sequential Access**
  - Sequential-access data is data that can only be dealt with (or only dealt with efficiently) in order. We begin with some item, then proceed to the next, etc.
  - Sequential access data may be **one-way**, accessible only in forwards order. Or it may be **two-way**, accessible in both forwards and backwards order.
Containers & Iterators
Introduction — What is Wrong with Arrays?

C++ arrays are not **first-class types**.
- They have no copy or assignment operations.
  - When an array is passed by value, it **decays** to a pointer to its first item.

```cpp
int a[10];
func(a);
func(&a[0]); // Same as above; func does not know size of array
```

C++ arrays have few operations defined on them. In fact, C++ array types have **no member functions at all**, not even ctors.
- The following does not call a `MyClass[]` constructor, since there is no such thing. Instead, it makes 7 calls to the `MyClass` default constructor.

```cpp
MyClass arr[7];
```

In general (not just in C++), arrays perform poorly when doing some operations: for example, inserting a new item in the middle.
Containers & Iterators
Smart Arrays & std::vector — What are They?

A smart array:

- Works pretty much like a regular array, except ...
- It is a first-class type.
  - It can be copied, etc.
- It knows its size.
- It can change its size, maybe?

The C++ STL includes a smart array: std::vector.

- Declared in the standard header <vector>.
- Is a class template, not a class.

```cpp
std::vector v1;       // DOES NOT COMPILE!
std::vector<int> v2;  // vector of ints
```
Containers & Iterators
Smart Arrays & **std::vector** — Using **vector** [1/2]

A **vector** works much like an array:

```cpp
std::vector<int> v3(20);  // Like int array[20];
cout << v3[5] << endl;
v3[19] = 7;
```

However it is a first-class type:

```cpp
void func1(std::vector<int> x);
```

```cpp
v3 = v2;
func1(v2);
```

Note: The above is legal; however, for efficiency we usually pass **vectors** and other objects by reference-to-const or reference.
A vector knows its size.

```cpp
std::vector<int> v4;
cout << v4.size() << endl;
```

A default-constructed vector has size 0. But there are other ctors.

```cpp
std::vector<Blug> v5(20); // Holds 20 default-constructed Blugs
std::vector<double> v6(30, 7.2); // Holds 30 doubles, all 7.2
```

We can change the size of a vector:

```cpp
Blug b;
v5.push_back(b); // Adds new item at the end; sets it to b
v5.pop_back(); // Eliminates last item
v5.resize(10); // v5 now has size 10
```
Containers & Iterators
Loops — Types of Loops

You are familiar with **counter-controlled loops** ("for" loops):

```cpp
for (int i = 0; i < 100; ++i)
    cout << i * i << endl;
```

Do something a certain number of times, or iterate over a sequence of numbers.

... and **condition-controlled loops**: ("while" loops):

```cpp
while (!infile.eof())
{
    readFrom(infile);
    if (!infile) break;
}
```

Iterate until something happens.

Now we look at a third kind: **iterator-controlled loops**: ("for-each" loops):

```cpp
std::vector<int> v;
std::vector<int>::iterator it;
for (it = v.begin(); it != v.end(); ++it)
    *it = 6;
```

Iterate over the items in a container or range ("for each item ...").
Containers & Iterators
Loops — Iterator-Controlled Loops

Iterator-Controlled Loops
- With an array:

```c
int array[7];
for (int * p = array; p != array+7; ++p)
    *p = 6;
```

- With a `std::vector`:

```c
std::vector<int> v(7);
for (std::vector<int>::iterator it = v.begin(); it != v.end(); ++it)
    *it = 6;
```

- As above, but using `typedef`:

```c
typedef std::vector<int> IVec;
IVec v(7);
for (IVec::iterator it = v.begin(); it != v.end(); ++it)
    *it = 6;
```
“Iterator” is a slightly vague term.

- Generally, an **iterator** is a variable that *acts like* a pointer, particularly as pointers are used in the following:

```cpp
for (int * p = array; p != array+7; ++p)
    *p = 6;
```

**Iterators:**

- Refer to items in containers.
  - Or they act like it, anyway.
  - Think “data abstraction”.
- Usually allow (at least) rudimentary pointer-arithmetic-style operations and manipulation.
  - Default ctor, Big Three, equality tests (==, !=), increment (++), dereference (*).
- **Do not involve ownership** of what they point to.
Containers & Iterators
Iterator Basics — Examples

As we have seen, **pointers** can be used as iterators. STL containers have associated **iterator types**.

```
std::vector<int>::iterator iter; // Like normal pointer
std::vector<int>::const_iterator citer; // Like pointer-to-const
*iter = 3; // Okay
*citer = 3; // DOES NOT COMPILE!
cout << *citer; // Okay
```

An iterator can be a **wrapper** around data, to make it look like a container.

```
#include <iterator>
std::ostream_iterator<int> myCoolNewIterator(std::cout, "\n");
```

- Now the following two lines do the same thing:

```
std::cout << 3 << "\n";
*myCoolNewIterator++ = 3; // Same as above
```
Why do we want to have many kinds of iterators?

- This allows us to access different kinds of data using the same interface.
- Write an algorithm to take an iterator, and it can deal with any kind of data.
- This is part of what is called “generic programming”.

Example

- Algorithm `std::copy`, defined in `<algorithm>`, copies one range to another.

```cpp
#include <algorithm>
int arr1[20];
int arr2[20];
std::copy(arr1, arr1+20, arr2);  // Copy arr1 to arr2.

std::vector<int> v(20);
std::copy(v.begin(), v.end(), arr2);  // Copy v to arr2.

std::copy(v.begin(), v.end(), myCoolNewIterator);
    // Print the items in v, one on each line!
```
Containers & Iterators
Iterator Basics — Specifying Ranges [1/2]

To specify a range, we use two iterators:
- An iterator to the first item in the range.
- An iterator to just past the last item in the range.

Examples

```cpp
#include <algorithm>
int arr3[100];
std::sort(arr+27, arr+90); // Sort arr3[27..89].
std::sort(v.begin(), v.end()); // Sort all of vector v.
```
More Examples

#include <algorithm>

int arr3[100], arr4[30];

std::copy(arr3+4, arr3+17, arr4+10);
    // Copy arr3[4..16] to arr4, starting at arr4[10].
    // That is, copy arr3[4..16] to arr4[10..22].

void printInt(int n)
{ cout << n << endl; }

std::for_each(v.begin(), v.end(), printInt);
    // Print the items in v, each on a separate line.
    // Note that std::for_each is a function template,
    // not a language flow-of-control structure.
Containers & Iterators
Iterator Basics — Iterators and Kinds of Data

Operations available on an iterator match the underlying data.
- Iterators for one-way sequential-access data have the ++ operation.
  - Such an iterator is called a **forward iterator** (example of an iterator category).

```cpp
++forwardIterator;
```

- Iterators for two-way sequential-access data also have the -- operation.
  - These are **bidirectional iterators**.

```cpp
++bidirectionalIterator;
--bidirectionalIterator;
```

- Iterators for random-access data have all the pointer arithmetic operations.
  - These are **random-access iterators**.

```cpp
++randomAccessIter;
--randomAccessIter;
randomAccessIter += 7;
cout << randomAccessIter[5];
std::ptrdiff_t dist = randomAccessIter2 - randomAccessIter1;
```
Containers & Iterators
Wrap-Up: Three STL Algorithms to Know

Be familiar with the following STL algorithms (all in `<algorithm>`):

- **Copying**: `std::copy`
  
  ```cpp
  std::copy(v.begin(), v.end(), v2.begin());
  // Copy items in v to v2 (which must have space!)
  ```

- **For-each loop**: `std::for_each`
  
  ```cpp
  std::for_each(v.begin(), v.end(), myFunc);
  // Call myFunc on each item in v
  ```

- **Sorting**: `std::sort`
  
  ```cpp
  std::sort(v.begin(), v.end());
  // Arrange items in v in ascending order
  ```
Notes on Assignment 2
Overview of Ideas

This ends the material that Assignment 2 covers. Shortly, we will begin looking at error handling and exceptions. You do not need to worry about these on Assignment 2.

You do need to be concerned with:

- Pointers & dynamic allocation.
  - Are you doing your dynamic allocation correctly? When you allocate something, is it always freed?

- Managing resources in a class.
  - Class KSArray should use RAII. This affects how you write it, and how you document it.

- Templates.
  - Class KSArray is a template. Write and document it appropriately.

- Containers & iterators.
  - Class KSArray is a generic container. Its member functions begin and end return iterators.
Your header file should be structured like this:

```
// ksarray.h
...
#endif
```

```
#define KSARRAY_H
...
```

```
template<typename T>

class KSArray {
...
};
```
Notes on Assignment 2  
Thoughts [2/8] — Value Type

The template parameter ("T" in the code here) is the class’s **value type**: the type of all items stored in the container.

- However, you cannot use the template parameter outside the class definition. Make a **typedef**, so that you can.

```cpp
template <typename T> 
class KSArray { 
    ... 

public:
    typedef T value_type; 
    ... 

private:
    value_type * arrayPtr_; 
    ... 
};
```

This lets you say “**value_type**” anywhere you mean “the type of the items in the container”. For example, **here**.

Other data member(s)?
Notes on Assignment 2
Thoughts [3/8] — Constructors

Array items are always default-constructed in C++. You cannot set their values to anything else in an initializer. Therefore, the copy ctor will need a loop* in the function body.

```cpp
// copy ctor
KSArray(const KSArray & other) :
    arrayPtr_(new ... ), ...
{ ... } // Initialize array items with a loop* here.
...
value_type * arrayPtr_;  
...
```

*Or maybe one of the generic algorithms from the STL? (Hint, hint ... )
Remember:
- The copy ctor **creates a new object**, which is a copy of some existing object.
- The copy assignment operator **sets an existing object** equal to a copy of some other existing object.

In your copy assignment operator:
- Check for self-assignment.
- If this is not self-assignment, then (1) **deallocation the old array**, (2) do essentially what the copy ctor does.
- Regardless, at the end, return the object assigned.

```cpp
KSArray & operator=(const KSArray & rhs) {
    if (this != &rhs) {
        delete [] arrayPtr_; ...
    }
    return *this;
}
```

Code very similar to the copy ctor (except that the copy ctor, being a ctor, can use an initializers, while this cannot).

Note: Later in the semester, we will discuss copy operations further.
A const KSArray is supposed to have non-modifiable data. Therefore, if a member function gives access to internal data in a modifiable form, then you will need to write two versions of it.

```cpp
... operator[]( ... )
{ ... }
... operator[]( ... ) const
{ ... }

... begin()
{ ... }
... begin() const
{ ... }

... end()
{ ... }
... end() const
{ ... }
```

In each pair, the two functions should be essentially identical, except for (1) the const at the end of the first line, and (2) the return method.
Member functions `begin` and `end` are to return iterators.

- These can be pointers. Do not write a separate iterator class.
- Function `begin` returns an iterator to the first array item. You already have a pointer to the first array item (think ...); use it.
- Function `end` returns an iterator to just past the last array item. Add a number to the return value of `begin` (what number? ...).

```cpp
... begin()
{ return ...; }
...
... end()
{ return ...; }
```
Notes on Assignment 2
Thoughts [7/8] — Global Functions

If a global function is to use \texttt{KSArray} in its full generality, then \textit{that function} will need to be a template.

- For example, your \texttt{operator==}, \texttt{operator<}, etc. should be able to compare \textit{any} kind of \texttt{KSArray} (as long as the value type has the proper operator(s) defined). So make your \texttt{operator==}, \texttt{operator<}, etc. class templates.

\begin{verbatim}
template <typename T>
bool operator==(... KSArray<T> ..., ... KSArray<T> ...)
{ ... }

template <typename T>
bool operator<(... KSArray<T> ..., ... KSArray<T> ...)
{ ... }
\end{verbatim}

These go \textbf{outside} the class definition.

...
We still need **preconditions** and **postconditions** for all functions and **class invariants** for all classes.

In addition, we need **requirements on types** for all templates.
- This means class `KSArray` and all global functions; they will all be templates.

```cpp
// Invariants: ...

// Requirements on Types: T must have ...
template <typename T>
class KSArray {
    ...
};

// Pre: ...
// Post: ...

// Requirements on Types: T must have ...
template <typename T>
bool operator==( ... )
{ ...
}
```

What has to be true about type `T` for this template to be compiled and used successfully? Typically: List member functions or associated global functions that `T` needs to have.
Error Handling
Error Conditions

An *error condition* (often simply “error”) is a condition occurring during runtime that cannot be handled by the normal flow of execution. An error condition is not the same as a bug in the code.

- So we are not referring to compilation errors.
- But *some* error conditions are caused by bugs.
- However, in our discussion of error handling, we will usually assume that our code is properly written.

An error condition does not mean that the user did something wrong.

- Although *some* error conditions are caused by user mistakes.

Example

- Suppose we have a function `copyFile`, which opens a file, reads its contents into a buffer, and writes them to another file.
- Function `copyFile` is called in order to read a file on a device that is accessed via a network.
- Halfway through reading the file, the network goes down.
- The function is supposed to read the file. This is now impossible. The normal flow of execution cannot handle this. We have an error condition.
Error Handling
Dealing with Possible Error Conditions

Sometimes we can **prevent errors**:
- Write a precondition that requires the caller to keep a certain problem from happening.
- Example: Insisting on a non-zero parameter, to prevent a division-by-zero error condition.

Sometimes we can **contain errors**, by handling them ourselves:
- If something does not work, fix it.
- Example: To run a fast algorithm, we need a large buffer. Memory is low, and we cannot allocate the buffer. So we run a slower algorithm that needs no buffer.

But sometimes we can do neither of these ...

Then we must **signal the client code**.
- Rule of thumb: Signal the client code when the function is unable to fulfill its postconditions.
- Example: The earlier file-reading example.
Error Handling
Goals and Guarantees (Preview)

In situations in which the client code might need to be informed of errors, there are three things we would like to happen:

- First, we want to be sure that an error will not “mess up” our program. It should be able to continue to run, and, later, to terminate properly. Objects must still be usable. Also, resources should not be leaked.
- In addition, we would like it if, when we want to perform an operation, either the operation completes successfully with no errors, or, if there is an error, no change is made to the program’s data.
- Best of all, we would like it the client never needs to be informed of an error at all.

Later in the class, we will formalize these as “safety guarantees”.

- The first idea above is the fundamental standard that all quality code must meet. We will call it the “Basic Guarantee”.
- The second is preferred, although sometimes we do not achieve it. We will call it the “Strong Guarantee”.
- The third is mostly wishful thinking. Errors happen, and sometimes the client needs to be informed. But in special cases (often involving “finishing things up”), we may need to insure that the client never needs to be informed of an error. We will call this the “No-Throw Guarantee”, or “No-Fail Guarantee”.

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Error Handling
Flagging Errors

When we cannot prevent or contain an error, we must signal the client code. **How?**

Method 1: Returning an error code
- Here we indicate an error by our return value (or a reference parameter).
- The old “C” I/O library uses this method:

```c
int c = getc(myFile); if (c == EOF) printf("End of file\n");
```

Method 2: Setting a flag to be checked by a separate error-checking function
- Here the caller uses some other function to check whether there was an error.
- C++ file streams use this method by default:

```cpp
char c; myFileStream >> c; if (myFileStream.eof()) cout << "End of file" << endl;
```
Error Handling
Need for Another Method

Return codes and separate error-checking functions are both fine methods for flagging errors, but they do have problems.

- They can be difficult to use in places where a value cannot be returned, or an error condition cannot be checked for.
  - Constructors & destructors. Also bracket operator, etc.
  - In the middle of an expression.
  - When you call someone else’s function, and that calls your function, which needs to signal an error condition.
    - Call-back functions, templates, etc.

- They can lead to complicated code.
  - A function calls a function, which calls a function ... and an error occurs. To handle the error, we have to back out of all of these. Lots of if’s.

To deal with these problems, a third method was developed.

Method 3: **Throwing an exception**

- Exceptions are available in many languages (C++, Java, Python, Ruby, Javascript, etc.), and are generally associated with OOP.
- Shortly, we will look at exception handling in C++.