

ΕΛΛΗΝΙΚΗ ΔΗΜΟΚΡΑΤΙΑ ΠΑΝΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΙΟ ΚΡΗΤΗΣ

Εισαγωγή στον Προγραμματισμό Introduction to Programming

Διάλεξη 15: Διανύσματα και Ελεύθερη Αποθήκευση

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Ευρωπαϊκή Ένωση Ευρωπαϊκό Κοινωνικό Ταμείο





Με τη συγχρηματοδότηση της Ελλάδας και της Ευρωπαϊκής Ένωσης

ΡΕΣΙΑ ΔΙΑΧΕΙΡΙΣΗΣ

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ΗΥ-150 Προγραμματισμός CS-150 Programming

Lecture 15: Vector and Free store

G. Papagiannakis



Abstract

- Vector is not just the most useful standard container,
 - it is also provides examples of some of the most important/powerful/ interesting implementation techniques.
 - In this and the following lectures, we go through a series of increasingly sophisticated vector implementations,
 - seeing classical problems related to use of memory and providing solutions.
 - Here, we discuss free store (heap storage) management, and pointers.

Overview

Vector revisited

- How are they implemented?
- Pointers and free store
 - Allocation (new)
 - Access
 - Arrays and subscripting: []
 - Dereferencing: *
 - Deallocation (delete)
- Destructors
- Copy constructor and copy assignment
- Arrays
- Array and pointer problems
- Changing size
- Templates
- Range checking and exceptions

Vector

- Vector is the most useful container
 - Simple
 - Compactly stores elements of a given type
 - Efficient access
 - Expands to hold any number of elements
 - Optionally range-checked access
- How is that done?
 - That is, how is vector implemented?
 - We'll answer that gradually, feature after feature
- Vector is the default container
 - prefer vector for storing elements unless there's a good reason not to

Building from the ground up

The hardware provides memory and addresses

- Low level
- Untyped
- Fixed-sized
- No checking
- As fast as the hardware architects can make it

The application builder needs something like a vector

- Higher-level operations
- Type checked
- Size varies (as we get more data)
- Run-time checking
- Close-to optimally fast

Building from the ground up

- At the lowest level, close to the hardware, life's simple and brutal
 - You have to program everything yourself
 - You have no type checking to help you
 - Run-time errors are found when data is corrupted or the program crashes
- We want to get to a higher level as quickly as we can
 - To become productive and reliable
 - To use a language "fit for humans"
- Chapter 17-19 basically shows all the steps needed
 - The alternative to understanding is to believe in "magic"
 - The techniques for building vector are the ones underlying all higher-level work with data structures

Vector

- A vector
 - Can hold an arbitrary number of elements
 - Up to whatever physical memory and the operating system can handle
 - That number can vary over time
 - E.g. by using **push_back(**)
 - Example

vector<double> age(4);

age[0]=.33; age[1]=22.0; age[2]=27.2; age[3]=54.2;



Vector

II a very simplified vector of doubles (like vector<double>): class vector {

II the number of elements ("the size") int sz; **double* elem;** *// pointer to the first element* public:

vector(int s);

Il constructor: allocate s elements, // let elem point to them // store s in sz. int size() const { return sz; } // the current size

};

- * means "pointer to" so double* is a "pointer to double"
 - What is a "pointer"?
 - how do we make a pointer "point to" elements? •
 - How do we "allocate" elements?

Pointer values

- Pointer values are memory addresses
 - Think of them as a kind of integer values
 - The first byte of memory is 0, the next 1, and so on



- A pointer points to an object of a given type
 - E.g. a double* points to a double, not to a string
- A pointer's type determines how the memory referred to by the pointer's value is used
 - E.g. what a double* points to can be added not, say, concatenated

Vector (constructor)

vector::vector(int s)
 :sz(s),
 elem(new double[s])

// vector's constructor
// store the size s in sz,
// allocate s doubles on the free store
// store a pointer to those doubles in elem

II Note: new does not initialize elements (but the standard vector does)



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The computer's memory

- As a program sees it
 - Local variables "lives on the stack"
 - Global variables are "static data"
 - The executable code are in "the code section"

itatic data
ree store
itack

The free store

(sometimes called "the heap")

- You request memory "to be allocated" "on the free store" by the **new** operator
 - The **new** operator returns a pointer to the allocated memory
 - A pointer is the address of the first byte of the memory
 - For example
 - **int*** **p** = **new int**;
 - int* q = new int[7];
- // allocate one uninitialized int
 // int* means "pointer to int"
- **7];** *II allocate seven uninitialized ints // "an array of 7 ints"*
- double* pd = new double[n]; // allocate n uninitialized doubles
- A pointer points to an object of its specified type
- A pointer does not know how many elements it points to

p:

q:

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Individual elements
 int* p1 = new int;
 int* p2 = new int(5);

int x = *p2;

// get (allocate) a new uninitialized int
// get a new int initialized to 5

// get/read the value pointed to by p2
// (or "get the contents of what p2 points to")
// in this case, the integer 5

int y = *p1;

// undefined: y gets an undefined value; don't do that

Access



Arrays (sequences of elements) int* p3 = new int[5]; // get (allocate) 5 ints

// array elements are numbered 0, 1, 2, ...

p3[0] = 7; // write to ("set") the 1st element of p3

p3[1] = 9;

int $x^2 = p^3[1]$; // get the value of the 2nd element of p³

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Why use free store?

To allocate objects that have to outlive the function that creates them:

■For example

{

}

double* make(int i)

return new double[i];

Another example: vector's constructor

Pointer values

- Pointer values are memory addresses
 - Think of them as a kind of integer values
 - The first byte of memory is 0, the next 1, and so on



// you can see pointer value (but you rarely need/want to):
char* p1 = new char('c'); // allocate a char and initialize it to 'c'
int* p2 = new int(7); // allocate an int and initialize it to 7
cout << ''p1=='' << p1 << '' *p1=='' << *p1 << ''\n''; // p1==??? *p1==c
cout << ''p2=='' << p2 << '' *p2=='' << *p2 << ''\n''; // p2==??? *p2=7</pre>

Access

A pointer does not know the number of elements that it's pointing to (only the address of the first element)
double* p1 = new double;



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Access

A pointer does *not* know the number of elements that it's pointing to p1: double* p1 = new double; double* p2 = new double[100]; [0]: [99]: p2: **p1**[17] = 9.4; // error (obviously) (after the assignment) p1 = p2; // assign the value of p2 to p1p1:

p1[17] = 9.4; // now ok: **p1** now points to the array of 100 doubles

Access

- A pointer *does* know the type of the object that it's pointing to
 - int* pi1 = new int(7);
 - int* pi2 = pi1; // ok: pi2 points to the same object as pi1
 - double* pd = pi1; // error: can't assign an int* to a double*
 - char* pc = pi1; // error: can't assign an int* to a char*
 - There are no implicit conversions between a pointer to one value type to a pointer to another value type
 - However, there are implicit conversions between value types:

pi1: /*pc = 8; // ok: we can assign an int to a char *pc = *pi1; // ok: we can assign an int to a char pc:

Pointers, arrays, and vector

- Note
 - With pointers and arrays we are "touching" hardware directly with only the most minimal help from the language. Here is where serious programming errors can most easily be made, resulting in malfunctioning programs and obscure bugs
 - Be careful and operate at this level only when you really need to
 - vector is one way of getting almost all of the flexibility and performance of arrays with greater support from the language (read: fewer bugs and less debug time).

Vector (construction and primitive access)

II a very simplified vector of doubles:

class vector {

int sz; // the size

double* elem; // a pointer to the elements

public:

vector(int s) :sz(s), elem(new double[s]) { }
double get(int n) { return elem[n]; }
void set(int n, double v) { elem[n]=v; }
int size() const { return sz; }

// constructor
// access: read
// access: write
// the current size

};

```
vector v(10);
```

for (int i=0; i<v.size(); ++i) { v.set(i,i); cout << v.get(i) << ' '; }

→0.0 1.0 2.0 3.0 4.0 5.0 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0

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A problem: memory leak

```
double* calc(int result_size, int max)
```

```
double* r = calc(200,100);
```

ł

// oops! We "forgot" to give the memory
// allocated for p back to the free store

- Lack of de-allocation (usually called "memory leaks") can be a serious problem in real-world programs
- A program that must run for a long time can't afford any memory leaks

A problem: memory leak

```
double* calc(int result_size, int max)
{
  int* p = new double[max];
                                    II allocate another max doubles
                                    II i.e., get max doubles from the free store
  double* result = new double[result_size];
  // ... use p to calculate results to be put in result ...
  delete[]p;
                                    II de-allocate (free) that array
                                    II i.e., give the array back to the free store
  return result;
}
double* r = calc(200,100);
// use r
```

delete[]r;

Il easy to forget

Memory leaks

- A program that needs to run "forever" can't afford any memory leaks
 - An operating system is an example of a program that "runs forever"
- If a function leaks 8 bytes every time it is called, how many days can it run before it has leaked/lost a megabyte?
 - Trick question: not enough data to answer, but about 130,000 calls
- All memory is returned to the system at the end of the program
 - If you run using an operating system (Windows, Unix, whatever)
- Program that runs to completion with predictable memory usage may leak without causing problems
 - *i.e.*, memory leaks aren't "good/bad" but they can be a problem in specific circumstances

Memory leaks



Il 1st array (of 27 doubles) leaked

Memory leaks

- How do we systematically and simply avoid memory leaks?
 - don't mess directly with new and delete
 - Use vector, etc.
 - Or use a garbage collector
 - A garbage collector is a program the keeps track of all of your allocations and returns unused free-store allocated memory to the free store (not covered in this course; see http://www.research.att.com/~bs/C++.html)
 - Unfortunately, even a garbage collector doesn't prevent all leaks

A problem: memory leak

void f(int x)

vector v(x);

// define a vector
// (which allocates x doubles on the free store)

// ... use v ...

}

// give the memory allocated by v back to the free store
// but how? (vector's elem data member is private)

Vector (destructor)

};

- Note: this is an example of a general and important technique:
 - acquire resources in a constructor
 - release them in the destructor
- Examples of resources: memory, files, locks, threads, sockets

A problem: memory leak

void f(int x)

ł

}

int* p = new int[x]; // allocate x ints
vector v(x); // define a vector (which allocates another x ints)
// ... use p and v ...
delete[]p; // deallocate the array pointed to by p
// the memory allocated by v is implicitly deleted here by vector's destructor

- The delete now looks verbose and ugly
 - How do we avoid forgetting to **delete[] p**?
 - Experience shows that we often forget
- Prefer deletes in destructors

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Free store summary

- Allocate using **new**
 - New allocates an object on the free store, sometimes initializes it, and returns a pointer to it
 - int* pi = new int;
 // default initialization (none for int)
 - char* pc = new char('a');
 // explicit initialization
 - double* pd = new double[10]; // allocation of (uninitialized) array
 - New throws a **bad_alloc** exception if it can't allocate
- Deallocate using delete and delete[]
 - **delete** and **delete**[] return the memory of an object allocated by **new** to the free store so that the free store can use it for new allocations
 - delete pi; // deallocate an individual object
 - delete pc;// deallocate an individual object
 - delete[] pd; // deallocate an array
 - Delete of a zero-valued pointer ("the null pointer") does nothing
 - char* **p** = 0;
 - delete p; // harmless

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void*

- **void*** means "pointer to some memory that the compiler doesn't know the type of"
- We use **void*** when we want to transmit an address between pieces of code that really don't know each other's types so the programmer has to know
 - Example: the arguments of a callback function
- There are no objects of type void
 - void v; // error
 - void f(); // f() returns nothing -f() does not return an object of type void
- Any pointer to object can be assigned to a void*
 - int* pi = new int;
 - double* pd = new double[10];
 - void* pv1 = pi;
 - void* pv2 = pd;

void*

• To use a **void*** we must tell the compiler what it points to

- A static_cast can be used to explicitly convert to a pointer to object type
 - "static_cast" is a deliberately ugly name for an ugly (and dangerous) operation use it only when absolutely necessary

void*

- void* is the closest C++ has to a plain machine address
 - Some system facilities require a void*
 - Remember FLTK callbacks?
 - Address is a void*:
 - typedef void* Address;
 - void Lines_window::cb_next(Address,Address)

Pointers and references I

- Think of a reference as an automatically dereferenced pointer
 - Or as "an alternative name for an object"
 - A reference must be initialized
 - The value of a reference cannot be changed after initialization int x = 7;

int y = 8;

int* p = &x;

p = 9;** ///*I*use ** to assign to x through p

p = &y; // ok

int& r = x; x = 10;

r = &y; *II error (and so is all other attempts to change what r refers to)*

Pointers and references II

• Pointers example

int x = 10;	
int* p = &x	// you need & to get a pointer
*p = 7;	// use * to assign to x through p
int x2 = *p;	// read x through p
int* p2 = &x2	// get a pointer to another int
p2 = p;	// p2 and p both point to x
p = &x2	// make p point to another objec

• Equivalent references example

int y = 10; int& r = y; // the & is in the type, not in the initializer r = 7; // assign to y through r (no * needed) int y2 = r; // read y through r (no * needed) int& r2 = y2; // get a reference to another int r2 = r; // the value of y is assigned to y2 r = &y2; // error: you can't change the value of a reference // (no assignment of an int* to an int&)

Next lecture

• The next lecture discusses copying and arrays

Acknowledgements

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Programming -- Principles and Practice Using C++

http://www.stroustrup.com/Programming/

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Thank you!





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