

# Programmazione e Calcolo Scientifico

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## More on constructors

In the last class we discussed the **default constructor** for the stack class.

```
#define STACK_SIZE 8
```

```
class stack {  
    int    data[STACK_SIZE];  
    int    top;  
public:  
    stack();  
    void   push(int value);  
    int    pop();  
    bool   empty();  
    bool   full();  
};
```

When we declare a new stack with  
stack s;

the default constructor (stack::stack()) gets called and s.top gets initialized to zero.

Question: what if we want to copy a stack?

# The copy constructor

The **copy constructor** is invoked when you copy an object.

```
#define STACK_SIZE 8
```

```
class stack {  
    int    data[STACK_SIZE];  
    int    top;  
public:  
    stack();  
    stack(const stack& other);  
    void    push(int value);  
    int     pop();  
    bool    empty();  
    bool    full();  
};
```

For example:

```
stack s1;  
s1.pop(42);  
s1.pop(70);  
stack s2 = s1; // copy constructor called  
stack s3(s1);  // copy constructor called
```

- The compiler generates a **default copy constructors** which **copies** your objects **byte-by-byte**
- The copy constructor needs to be redefined only if that is not what you want (typically when you manage some dynamic memory)

# User defined constructors

Let's imagine you want to build a class to model the elements of  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

```
class rational {  
    int    numerator;  
    int    denominator;  
public:  
    rational();  
    rational(int num, int den);  
};
```

```
rational::rational() {  
    numerator = 0;  
    denominator = 1;  
}
```

```
rational::rational(int num, int den) {  
    numerator = num;  
    denominator = den;  
}
```

```
rational r1; // default constructor called  
           // and r1 initialized to 0
```

```
rational r2(7,3); // user defined constr.  
                  // called, r2 = 7/3
```

# Destructor

The destructor gets called just before an object goes out of scope.

```
struct object {  
    object();  
    ~object(); // destructor  
};
```

- The destructor is a method with the same name of the class and prefixed with a tilde
- You usually need to define it when you manage dynamical resources and you need to release them

```
int f(double x) {  
    object o1;  
    while (x > 10) {  
        object o2;  
        /* stuff */  
        // o2 destroyed here  
    }  
    /* stuff */  
    // o1 destroyed here  
}
```

## Exercise to do at home

In order to understand when constructors and destructors get called, I suggest the following exercise:

```
struct object {  
    object();  
    object(const object&);  
    object(int, int);  
    ~object();  
};  
  
object::object() {  
    cout << "default constructor\n";  
}  
  
object::object(const object &) {  
    cout << "copy constructor\n";  
}
```

```
object::object(int, int) {  
    cout << "user defined constructor\n";  
}  
  
object::~~object() {  
    cout << "destructor\n";  
}
```

- Create a program with different functions/blocks
- Create some objects of type object
- Observe what gets printed

# The Standard Template Library

The C++ standard library is called STL (Standard Template Library). It provides you

- Data structures (`<vector>`s, `<list>`s, `<set>`s, associative arrays, ...)
- Algorithms (sort, search, ...) in `<algorithm>`
- Input/output (we already discussed streams)
- Thread and concurrency support (`<thread>`, `<atomic>`, `<mutex>`, ...)

Take a look to <https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp>.

# Dynamic vectors

The first data structure we will study is the dynamic vector.

- `std::vector<T>` with `T` the type of the contained elements
- Declared in `<vector>`, so remember to `#include <vector>`
- In C++ parlance, `std::vector` is a **container**
- Take a look to <https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/container/vector>

```
std::vector<int>          int_v;      // empty vector of ints
std::vector<double>       dbl_v;      // empty vector of doubles
std::vector<meteo_data>   md_v;       // empty vector of meteo_data
std::vector<float>        flt_v(50);  // vector of 50 floats
```



# Operations on vectors

Let `vec` be a `std::vector<T>` for some `T`.

- `resize()` change the size of the vector
- `operator[]` allows to access elements
- `at()` bound-checked element access

```
int size = 10;
std::vector<int> vec; // vec is empty
vec.resize(size);    // vec is resized to 10 elements

for (size_t i = 0; i < size; i++)
    vec[i] = i+10; // initialize elements

std::cout << vec[5] << "\n"; // OK, print 6th element
std::cout << vec[50] << "\n"; // error: program crashes unpredictably
std::cout << vec.at(50) << "\n"; // error: program crashes predictably
```

# More operations on vectors

Let `vec` be a `std::vector<T>` for some `T`.

- `size()` get the current **size** of the vector
- `push_back()` add an element to the end of the vector
- `reserve()` reserve space for a certain number of elements (elements are not initialized), so the size of the vector does not change
- `capacity()` get the current **capacity** of the vector

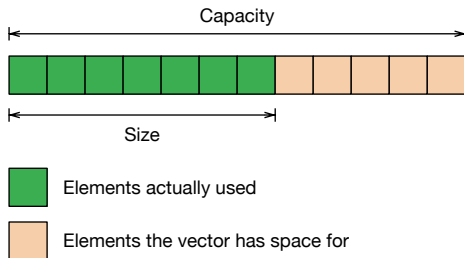
Size and capacity are two **very different** things:

- `size()/resize()` are related to the **actual** elements contained in the vector
- `capacity()/reserve()` are related to the space the vector has available to store elements
- `size() ≤ capacity()`
- `resize()`, `reserve()` and `push_back()` are potentially **expensive** operations

Here is where we must study and understand dynamic memory allocation.

## Size vs. capacity

When you ask for a vector of  $N$  elements, `std::vector` could not ask to the system the exact quantity of memory needed, but a little more.  $N$  is the size, “ $N + \text{little more}$ ” is the capacity.



- This **does not mean** that you are allowed to access elements outside  $[0, N)$ .

# The `resize()` operation

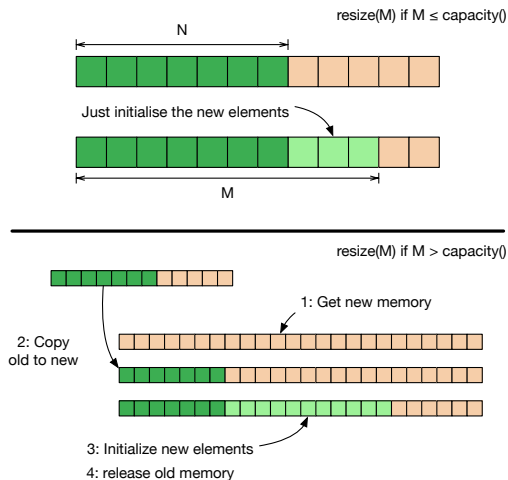
The `resize()` operates as follows:

- If there is sufficient capacity, the `resize()` operation just initializes the additional elements (needs to call default constructor)
- Otherwise, it must allocate new memory, move the existing elements, initialize the new ones and release old memory

Complexity:

$$\begin{cases} \max(0, \mathcal{O}(M - N)) & \text{if } M \leq \text{capacity}() \\ \mathcal{O}(M - N) + \text{reallocation} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

With `push_back()` the reasoning is similar.





## Warning!



C++ provides us with facilities to request memory to the system and release it.

- Basic memory management in C++ is completely manual
- If you ask for memory, you have to remember to release it when you're done
- You must also be sure to not release the same memory twice...
- And you have to pay attention to not lose the pointers to your dynamic memory...

Memory management in languages like C and C++ is one of the most dangerous things. That's the reason why many people is moving to Rust.

**In modern C++, if you end up doing manual memory management most probably you are doing the wrong thing. Use the data structures provided by the STL.**

So why study it? Because otherwise impossible to fully understand what is going on under the hood.

# Memory allocation

Dynamic memory is allocated using `new` and `new[]`.

```
int* is = new int[50]; // allocate 50 integers
meteo_data* md = new meteo_data; // allocate a single meteo_data
meteo_data* mds = new meteo_data[20]; // allocate 20 meteo_data
```

Each pointer points to the beginning of the newly allocated memory.

- Until now we used pointers only to point to single elements of a certain type
- How to access to the 8th `meteo_data` or the 36th `int` above?

## Memory allocation - II

On pointers you can use []. Therefore, `mds[7]` is the 8th `meteo_data` and `is[35]` 36th `int`.

The job of `x[n]` with `x` pointer of type `T`, is to take the address in `x`, to compute `x + n*sizeof(T)` and dereference the result.

```
is[5] = 42;           // write to the 6th element
int y = is[8];        // get the 9th element
```

Note that pointers remain just pointers: they **do not carry any information** about allocation size. It is up to you to remember it.

The block of memory you get from `new` is just a block of memory with **no additional structure**. No `resize()`, no `push_back()`, nothing. Much better to use `std::vector`.

**Note:** some people tells you that you shouldn't use `std::vector` because it is slow, and you have to allocate/deallocate arrays exclusively using `new/delete`. Those people do not have a clue about C++, so don't listen to them. Think with your own brain.

# Memory release

Dynamic memory is released using `delete` and `delete[]`.

```
int* is = new int[50]; // allocate 50 integers
meteo_data* md = new meteo_data; // allocate a single meteo_data
meteo_data* mds = new meteo_data[20]; // allocate 20 meteo_data

/* your code... */

delete [] is;
delete md;
delete [] mds;
```

Notice the use of `[]`. The version `delete[]` is used to release array-like stuff, whereas `delete` is used to release element-like stuff. Using `delete[]` to release element-like stuff and `delete` to release array-like stuff is **undefined behaviour**.

- <https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/memory/new>
- <https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/language/delete>



# Dangers of manual memory management

```
class int_vector {  
    int* data;  
    int size;  
public:  
    int_vector();  
    int_vector(int sz);  
    void resize(int);  
    ~int_vector();  
}  
  
int_vector::int_vector() {  
    data = nullptr; size = 0;  
}  
  
int_vector::int_vector(int sz) {  
    data = new int[sz]; size = sz;  
}
```

```
int_vector::resize(int sz) {  
    if (data) {  
        delete [] data;  
        data = nullptr; size = 0;  
    }  
    data = new int[sz]; size = sz;  
}  
  
int_vector::~int_vector(int sz) {  
    delete [] data;  
    data = nullptr; size = 0;  
}  
  
int_vector v1;  
v1.resize(10);  
int_vector v2 = v1; // boom  
// v1 and v2 point to the same memory
```

# Suggestions

For the next class, try to digest this stuff. In particular:

- Understand how constructors/destructors work
- Take some time to understand `new/delete` and their relation with pointers.

In the next class we will need these ingredients to discuss a fully dynamic data structure.