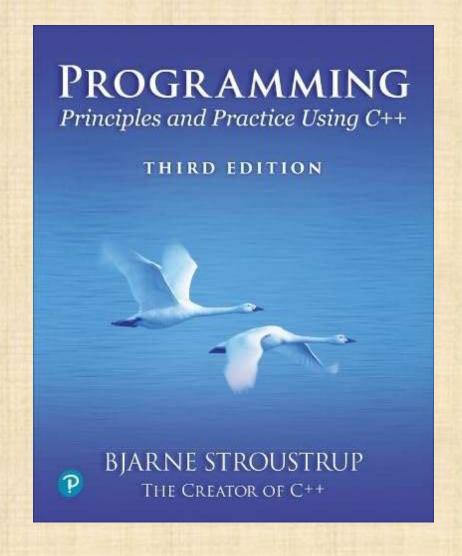
Chapter 15 - **vector** and Free Store



Use vector as the default!

– Alex Stepanov

Overview: evolving a vector type

(and spanning the low-level/high-level language gap in the process)

- Chapter 15
 - Dealing with "raw" memory: pointers and free store
 - Destructors
- Chapter 16
 - Arrays and pointers
 - Pointers and references
 - C-style strings
 - Alternatives to low level facilities: span, array, and string
- Chapter 17
 - Copying and moving
 - Essential operations for managing object lifecycles
- Chapter 18
 - Templates and generic programming
 - Exceptions and scope-based resource management and error handling (RAII)
 - Resource management pointers: unique_ptr and shared_ptr

Vector

- vector is the most useful container
 - ISO standard
 - Simple to use
 - Compactly stores elements of a given type
 - Efficient access
 - Expands to hold any number of elements
 - Optionally range-checked access
 - the PPP version is range checked
- How is that done?
 - That is, how is vector implemented?
 - · We'll answer that gradually, feature after feature
- 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 chunks of memory
- 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 range checking
- Close to optimally fast

Building from the ground up

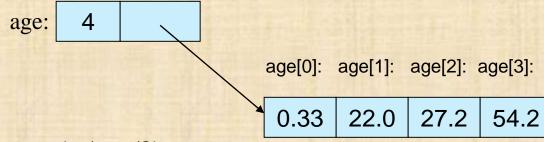
- At the lowest level, close to the hardware, life's simple and brutal
 - You have to program everything yourself
 - You have no type checking to help you
 - Run-time errors are found when data is corrupted or the program crashes
- We want to get to a higher level as quickly as we can
 - To become productive and reliable
 - To use a language "fit for humans"
- Chapters 15-18 basically show 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

- Our Vector will gradually be improved to approximate the standard 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;
```

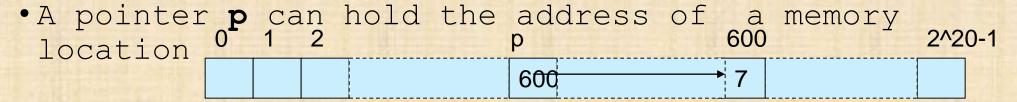


Vector

- * 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?

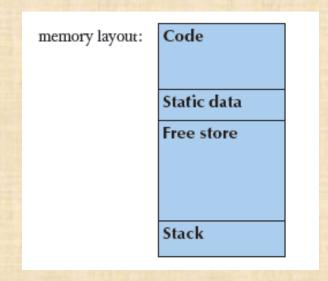
Pointer values

- 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 but not, say, concatenated

The computer's memory

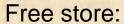


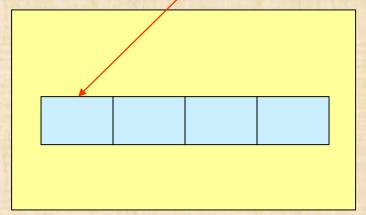
- ·As a program sees it
 - •Local variables "live on the stack" (including function arguments)
 - Global variables are "static data"
 - The executable code is in "the code section"

Vector (constructor)

```
Vector::Vector(int s) // Vector's constructor
                                                                     elem:
                                                                SZ:
                              // store the size s in sz
      :sz(s),
      elem(new double[s]) // allocate s doubles on the free
                        // store a pointer to those doubles in elem
      // Note: new does not initialize elements (but the standard vector
 does)
```

- **new** allocates memory from the free store and returns a pointer to the allocated memory
- We use new to allocate objects that have to outlive the function that creates them



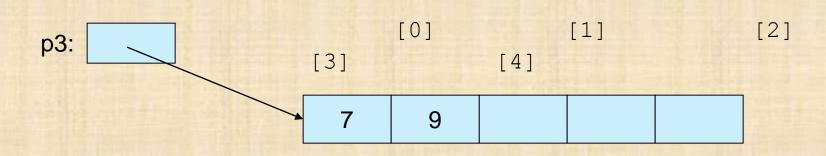


The free store (sometimes called "the heap" or "dynamic memory")

- 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

 - int* q = new int[7]; // 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:



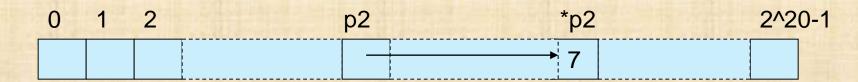


```
    Arrays (sequences of elements)

  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 x2 = p3[1];
                  // get the value of the 2^{nd} element of p3
  int x3 = *p3;
                               // we can also use the dereference
   operator * for an arra Stroustrup/Programming/2024/Chapter15
                      // to 2 manna m 2 [ 0 ] ( and === an == 1
```

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 does **not** know the number of elements that it's pointing to (only the address of the first element)

```
double* p1 = new double;
                         p1:
*p1 = 7.3;
               // ok
p1[0] = 8.2;
            // ok
p1[-4] = 2.4;
          // ouch! Another undetected error
double* p2 = new double[100];
*p2 = 7.3;
               // ok
p2[17] = 9.4; // ok
                                   7.3
p2[-4] = 2.4;
          // ouch! Undetected error
```

• Fortunately, we have word trup frog a romaning 2024/Cypapte usch errors

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

• A pointer *does* know the type of the object that it's pointing to int* pil = 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 types:

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

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

7
```

pc:

The null pointer

• Sometimes, we need to say "this pointer doesn't point to anything just now"

- nullptr is commonly used to indicate
 - End of a linked list
 - No pointer value available just now Stroustrup/Programming/2024/Chapter15
 - No object to return a pointer to

A problem: memory leak

```
double* calc(int result size, int max)
     double* p = new double[max];
                                         // allocate max doubles on free
 store
     double* result = new double[result size];
      // ... use p to calculate results to be put in result ...
     return result;
double* r = calc(200,100); // oops!
```

- •We "forgot" to give the memory allocated by **new** back to the free store
 - That doesn't happen automatically ("no garbage collection")
 - Lack of de-allocation (usually called "memory leaks") can be a serious problem in restous work of rapping 1024/105 fapter 15
 - A program that must run for a long time can't afford any moments

```
We can give memory back to the free store: detete
```

```
double* calc1(int result size, int max)
      double* tmp = new double[max];  // allocate max doubles on free
 store
      double* result = new double[result size];
      // ... use tmp to calculate results to be put in result ...
                                         // return the memory pointed to by
      delete[] tmp;
 tmp to the free store
      return result;
double* r = calc1(200,100); // oops!
// ... use r ...
delete[]r;
                              // return the memory pointed to by r to the
 free store
```

Memory leaks - resource 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 major problem in specific circumstances
- Memory leaks is a major real-world problem
- Memory leaks is just a special case of resource leaks
 - E.g., files, locks, sockstrogstrup/Programming/2024/Chapter15

Memory leaks

```
    Another way to get a memory

 leak
                                                   1st value
  void f()
                                       p:
    double* p = new double[27];
    // ...
                                                 2<sup>nd</sup> value
   p = new double[42];
   // ...
    delete[] p;
  // 1<sup>st</sup> array (of 27 doubles)
    leaked
```

Memory leaks

- •How do we systematically and simply avoid memory leaks?
 - Use resource handles
 - Use vector, etc.
 - · don't mess directly with new and delete
 - 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 common in C++
 - not covered in this course; see http://www.stroustrup.com/C++.html
 - Unfortunately, a garbage collector doesn't prevent all resource leaks
 - Only memory leaks

A problem: memory leak

Vector (destructor)

```
// a very simplified Vector of doubles:
class Vector {
 int sz;
                       // the size
                        // a pointer to the elements
 double* elem;
public:
 Vector(int s) :sz(s), elem(new double[s]) { } // constructor:
 allocates/acquires memory
 ~Vector() { delete[] elem; }
                                                // destructor: de-
 allocates/releases memory
     // ...
```

- 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

Implicitly give memory back to the free store

```
Vector<double> calc2(int result size, int max)
      Vector<double> tmp(max);
                                             // allocate max doubles
 on free store
      Vector<double> result(result size);
      // ... use tmp to calculate results to be put in result ...
      return result;
                                                Simpler and probably more efficient
} // tmp destroyed upon return
                                                than using new and delete explicitly
                                                 (yes, we can avoid copying a result
void user()
                                                - Next lecture)
 // ...
 auto res = calc2(200,100); // oops!
 // ... use r ...
} // res destroyed upon return
                            Stroustrup/Programming/2024/Chapter15
```

Free store summary

- · Allocate using new
 - New allocates an object on the free store, sometimes initializes it, and returns a pointer to it

- New throws a **bad_alloc** exception if it can't allocate (out of memory)
- 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-value \$trquetriup/Pregram(ding/2024/Qtapter15) ointer") does nothing 29

Avoid "naked new" and "naked delete"

- Manual resource allocation and deallocation is error-prone
 - We forget to hand resources back (Ask any librarian)
 - We use pointers after the memory they point to has been deleted
 - Use of "raw pointers" to manage memory leads to overuse of pointers
- Using **vector** leads to simpler code
 - Compare calc1() and calc2()
 - See the following lectures and chapters

Generated destructors

• If a member of a class has a destructor, then that destructor will be called when the object containing the member is destroyed.

```
struct Customer {
    string name;
    vector<string> addresses;
    // ...
};

void some_fct()
{
    Customer fred { "Fred", {"17 Oak St.", "232 Rock Ave."}};
    // ... use fred ...
}
```

- That saves us a lot sofus Work for samming /2024/Chapter 15
 - And avoid a lot of bugs

Virtual destructors

```
• Destructors work correctly in class hierarchies
  • Provided you declare the destructor virtual
  Shape* fct()
      Text tt {Point{200,200}, "Anya"};
                                                      // local Text variable
      // ...
                                                             // Text object
      return new Text{Point{100,100}, "Courtney"};
  on the free store
  void user()
      Shape* q = fct();
      // ... use the Shape without caring exactly which kind of shape it
  is ...
  delete q; // Shape's destructor is virtual so Text::~Text() is called if q is a Text
```

But, what about "no naked deletes"?

```
• Use "resource-manegement" pointers ()
   unique_ptr<Shape> fct()
        Text tt {Point{200,200},"Annemarie"};
                                                                       // local Text variable
        // ...
        return make_unique<Text>(Point{100,100},"Nicholas");
                                                                       // Text object on the free store
   void user()
        unique_ptr<Shape> q = fct();
        // ... use the Shape without caring exactly which kind of shape it is ...
```

• Equivalent to the previous example, but simpler

Access to elements

• But our Vector doesn't have access operations

```
• So, let's add very simple ones
class Vector {
                    // a very simplified vector of doubles
public:
     Vector(int s) :sz{s}, elem{new double[s]} { /* ... */ }
                                                                  II constructor
     ~Vector() { delete[] elem; }
                                                                  II destructor
     int size() const { return sz; }
                                                                  II the current size
     double get(int n) const { return elem[n]; }
                                                                  Il access: read
     void set(int n, double v) { elem[n]=v; }
                                                                  Il access: write
private:
                               // the size
     int sz;
     double* elem;
                               // a pointer to the elements
```

Access to elements

Reminder

- •Why look at the **Vector** implementation?
 - To see how the standard library vector really works
 - To introduce basic concepts and language features
 - Free store (heap)
 - Copying
 - Dynamically growing data structures
 - To see how to directly deal with memory
 - To introduce the techniques and concepts we need to understand C
 - Including the dangerous ones (and see how to avoid those in C++)
 - To demonstrate class design techniques
 - To see examples of "neat" code and good design

Next lecture

• We'll see how we can change our **Vector**'s implementation to better allow for changes in the number of elements. Then we'll modify **Vector** to take elements of an arbitrary type and add range checking. That'll imply looking at templates and revisiting exceptions.