

Dynamic Memory Management

COSC1076

Semester 1 2019

Week 03

Admin

► Assignment 1

- Discussed today
- Due, end of week 5
- Search the forum to see if your questions have already been asked

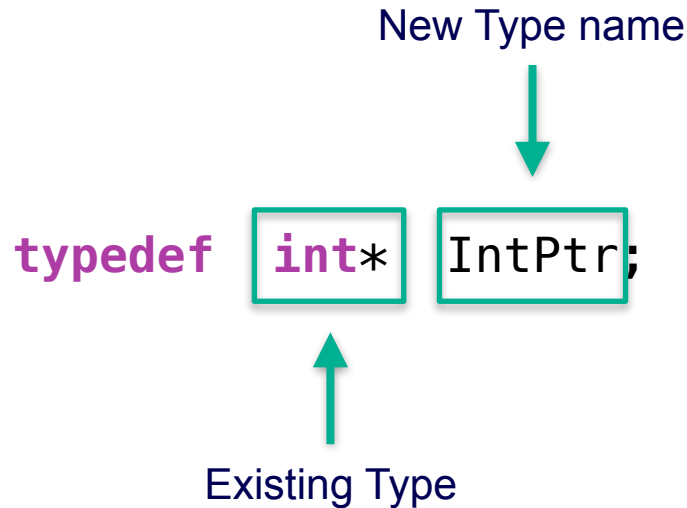
► Extra-Help Session

- 1-hour sessions, BOYD
- Times, announced on course forum
- Register interest
 - If not enough attendance, will be cancelled

Typedef

Typedef

- ▶ A **typedef** is a user-defined type that is a **synonym** for another type
- ▶ Generally, typedefs are used for:
 - Program Clarity
 - Abstraction
 - Truncation

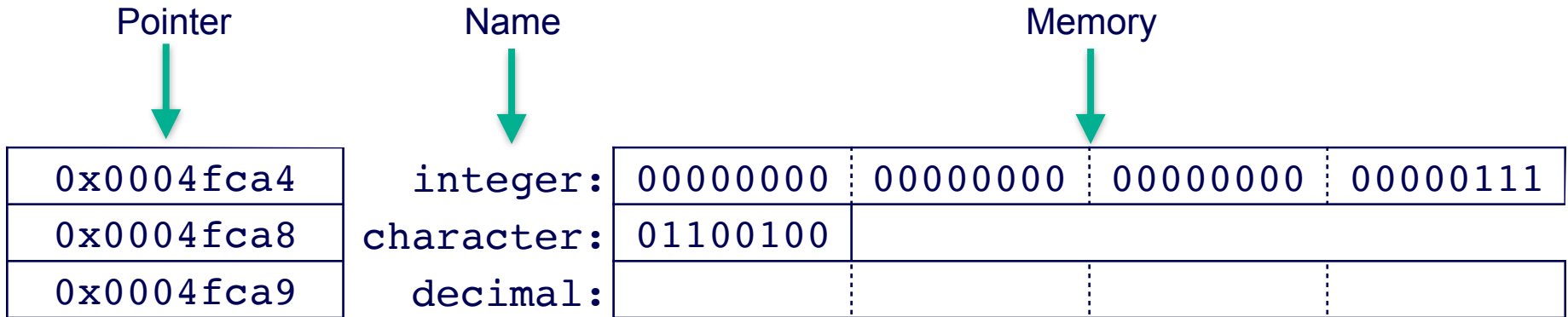


Pointers & References

The most important topic in the course!

Computer Memory

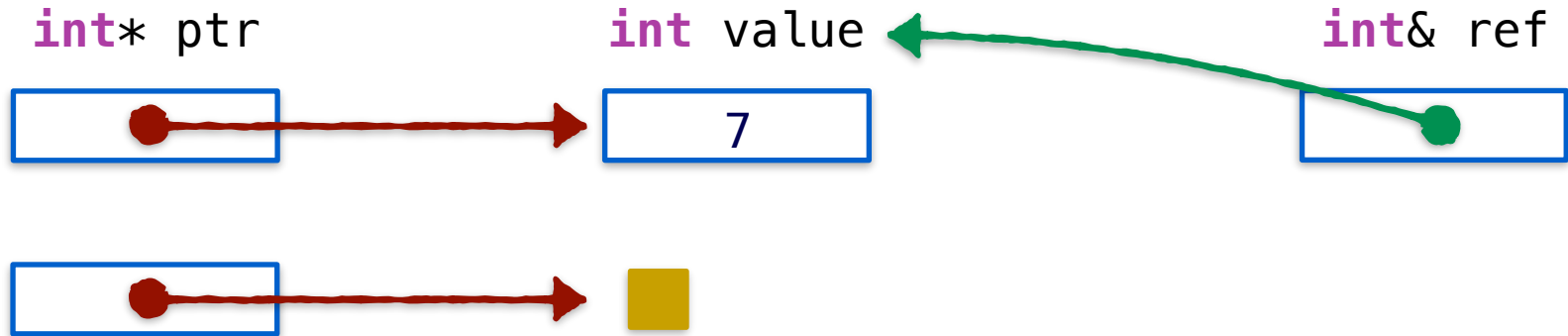
- Each **byte** has a unique **address**
- This is how a computer can find a piece of memory
 - Addresses are stored in hex, and adjacent memory locations are sequential



Pointers & References

► A reference type is denoted in syntax using a '&'

```
int value = 7;  
int* ptr = &value;  
int& ref = value;  
ptr = NULL;
```



Classes

Classes Declaration

► C++ Class *Declaration*

Public, Protected, & Private Scopes

```
class Example {  
    public:  
        Example(int value);  
        void publicMethod();  
    protected:  
        int protectedVariable;  
        int protectedMethod(double param);  
    private:  
        double privateArray[LENGTH];  
        void privateMethod(int* ptr, double& ref);  
};
```

Class Name

Constructor

Method

Field

Fields can be arrays or other classes

Don't forget ';

Class Method Definitions

- C++ Class method definitions provide the implementation of each method
- Definitions provided individually
 - Scope is not relevant to the definition
 - The Class name creates a namespace!

Return Type Class Name Method Name Parameters

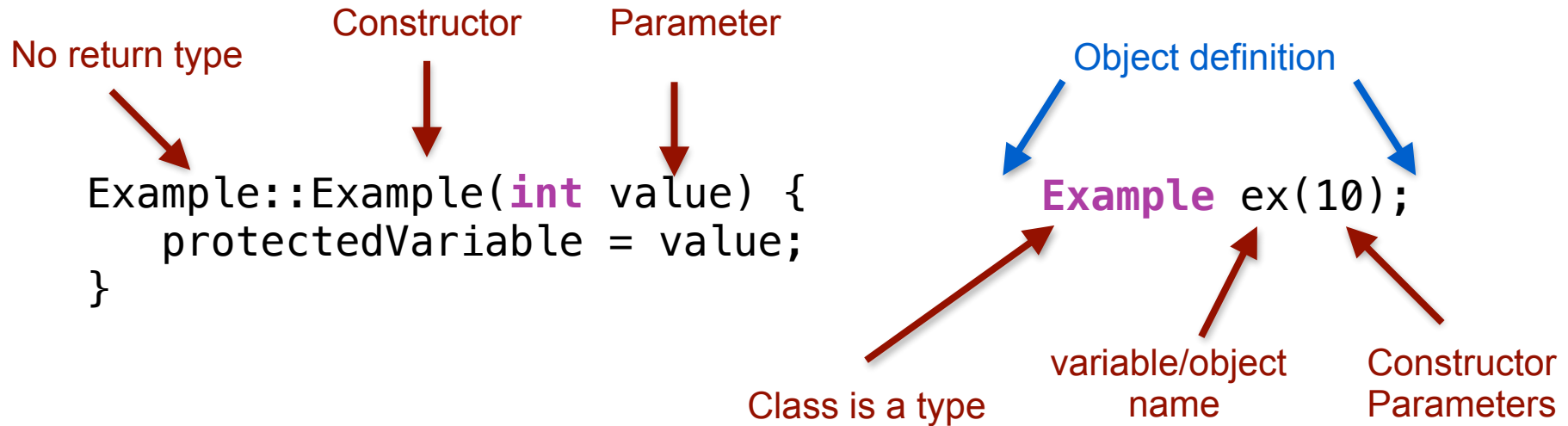
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```
int Example::protectedMethod(double param) {  
    return 0;  
}
```

Namespace separator

Class Initialisation

- Objects (variables of a given class) can be created like any other variable
 - Does not need to be “new’ed”
- The constructor is called when defining the variable
 - Use bracket notation to provide the parameters to a class object



Access Class Members

- ▶ Class members (variables and methods) are accessed using dot '.' Syntax

Example `ex(10);`
`ex.publicMethod();`

- ▶ For pointers to object, arrow syntax '->' is a shortcut for dereferencing

Example* `ptrEx = &ex;`
`(*ex).publicMethod();`
`ex->publicMethod();`

- ▶ Class members can only be accessed from the correct scope
 - Public members are always accessible
 - Private members are only accessible only from within the class
 - Protected members can be accessed from this class and all children

Class & Functions

▶ Pass classes to functions either by

- Pointer
- Reference

▶ Passing the class directly:

- Is possible
- BUT!
 - Requires a special constructor (called a copy constructor)
 - We will cover this in future week(s)

Arrays are pointers?

Arrays in Memory

- Unsurprisingly in memory, an array is a **sequence of adjacent memory cells**
- The address of each array location is based on the arrays type

```
int array[10]
```

0x0004fca4
0x0004fca8
0x0004fcab
...

array[0]:
array[1]:
array[2]:
...

00000000	00000000	00000000	00000111
00000000	00000000	00010101	00010101
00000000	00000000	00000000	1001110
...

Arrays in Memory

► How does an array actually work?

- That is, how does a compiler or program access the correct cell in memory?

- Static access:

```
int array[10] = {1};  
array[0] = 2;
```

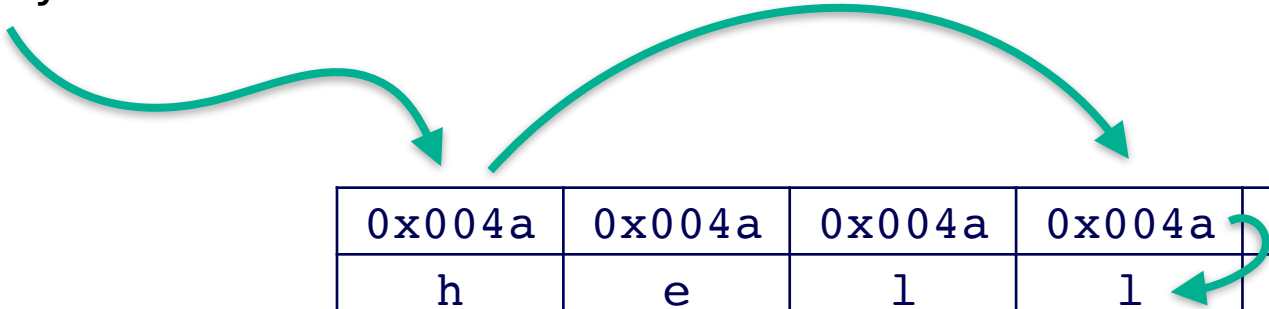
- Dynamic access:

```
int i = 2;  
array[i] = -1;
```


Arrays as Pointers

- ▶ An array is actually an **abstraction for using pointers**!
- ▶ The actual array “variable” is a pointer to the first element of the array
- ▶ The square-bracket lookup notation is short-hand for:
 - Go to the memory location of the array
 - Go to the ‘ith’ memory location from this
 - Dereference that memory address

array[3]



0x004a	0x004a	0x004a	0x004a	0x004a	0x004a
h	e	l	l	o	!

Arrays as Pointers

► In C/C++, a pointer type is another way to represent an array

```
int array[10]  
int* array;
```

- BUT!
- The first version actually *set's aside the memory* for the array
- The second *can be interpreted* as an array, but only sets aside memory for a single pointer

► The “pointer form” of an array is often used in functions and methods

Arrays with Functions

- ▶ Arrays being a pointer is the reason why arrays are passed-by-reference
 - They are actually “pass-by-value on the pointer to the start of the array”

```
void foo(int array[]);
```

- ▶ The “pointer form” of an array is often used in functions and methods

```
void foo(int* array);
```

- Both of these function prototypes achieve the same functionality

Multi-Dimensional Arrays

► Multi-dimensional arrays are *“pointers-to-pointers”*

- They use multiple star's for short-hand

```
int array2D[ROWS][COLS];
```

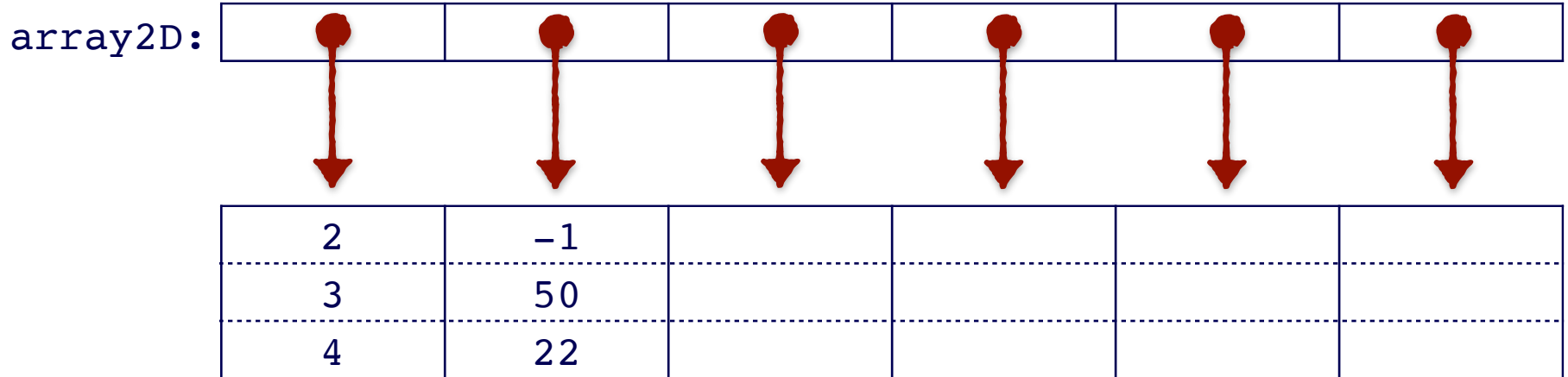
```
int** array2D;
```

Multi-Dimensional Arrays

► The best way to think of them, is as an *“array-of-arrays”*

- At the first layer, is an array
- Each element of this is another array

```
int array2D[ROWS][COLS];
```



Multi-File Programs

File Types

▶ C/C++ has two types of files:

- Header files (.h / .hpp)
- Source files (c.cpp)



Header Files

- ▶ Header files contain definitions, such as
 - Function prototypes
 - Class descriptions
 - Typedef's
 - Common #define's
- ▶ Header files do not contain any code implementation
- ▶ The purpose of the header files is to describe to source files all of the information that is required in order to implement some part of the code

Source Files

- ▶ Code files have source code definitions / implementations
 - In a single combined program, every function or class method may only have a single implementation
- ▶ To successfully provide implementations, the code must be given all necessary declarations to fully describe all types and classes that are being used
 - Definitions in header files are included in the code file

```
#include "header.h"
```

 - For local header files, use double-quotes
 - Use *relative-path* to the header file from the code file

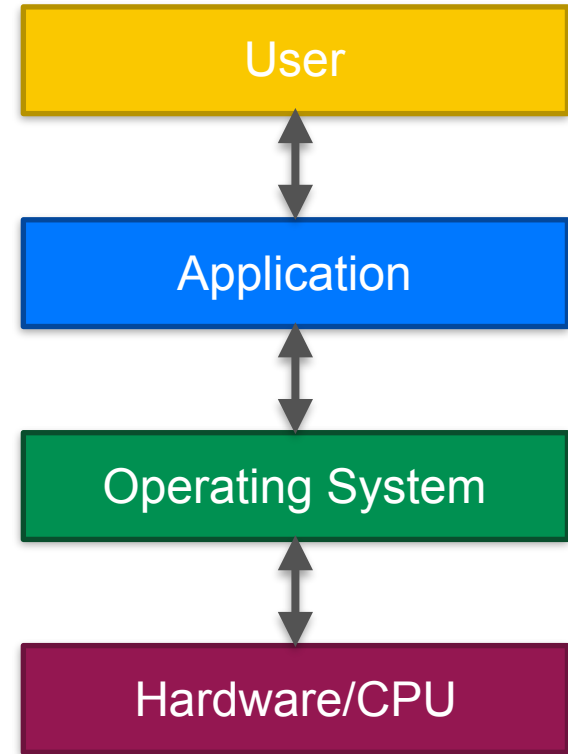
Program Memory Management

How does a program manage memory?

► We have informally discussed things like:

- The program “setting aside memory”
- Declaring a variable, “creates memory”
- Seen array overflow, that is, “reading beyond the end of an array”
- Mentioned that the “operating system does stuff”

► The question, is what is happening?



Application Structure

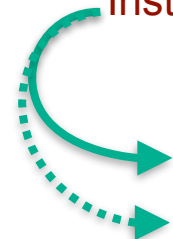
► There are two general components to an application/program that we are concerned with:

- Program code loaded into computer memory
- Allocated memory for storing program data, such as
 - Variables
 - Function parameters
 - Program control information

Program Code

- ▶ Each line of code is converted into assembly instructions
- ▶ An assembly instruction is a single operation that the CPU can execute
- ▶ To run a program, the assembly instructions are loaded into memory
 - Thus, every instruction has an associated memory address
 - The operating system uses an *instruction pointer* (memory address) to track the instruction in a program that it is up to

Instruction Pointer



0x004a	ADD x y
0x004b	SUB x b
0x004c	JUMP 0x004a
...	...

Memory Structure

- ▶ In a typical program, memory is managed in two forms
 - Automatic memory allocation
 - Dynamic, programmer controlled, memory allocation
- ▶ Automatic memory allocation is managed through the programming language compiler (C/C++) or interpreter (Java)
 - The typical method for this is the **Program (or Call) Stack**
- ▶ Dynamic memory allocation, is maintained by the programmer through the programming language
 - This is typically done on the **Heap** (or **Free Store**)
- ▶ Operating Systems and CPUs provide

Program/Call Stack

- ▶ The C++ compiler automatically handles allocating and de-allocating of memory for variables and function calls.
 - The compiler generates CPU instructions for memory management
 - A data structure called a **stack**
- ▶ In the stack
 - As memory is required, a block (of the correct size) is allocated by being **pushed** onto the stack
 - Once memory is no-longer required, blocks are de-allocated by being **popped** off the stack
 - This forms an ordered structure, using FILO (first-in, last-out)
 - That is, the first allocated block is the last to be de-allocated

Program/Call Stack

- ▶ A stack is used, because of how memory is allocated
- ▶ Memory allocation has two components
 1. Variable allocation
 2. Function call

Highest
address



Lowest
address

Variables (function 2)
Return address (function 2)
Parameters (function 2)
<i>Return Value (function 2)</i>
Variables (function 1)
Return address (function 1)
Parameters (function 1)
<i>Return Value (function 1)</i>
Variables (of main)

Bottom of stack (main)

Program/Call Stack - Local Variables

```
int main (void) {  
    int a = 7;  
    int b = 8;  
    int c = 9;  
    int d = 10;  
    int array[2] = {11, 12};  
  
    int* ptr = &a;  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```

ptr
array[0]
array[1]
d
c
b
a

	0x00..... (&a)
	11
	12
	10
	9
	8
	7

Bottom of stack (main)

Program/Call Stack - Scoping

```
int main (void) {  
→ int array[2] = {11, 12};  
  
    for(int i = 0; i < 2; ++i) {  
        cout << array[i] << endl;  
    }  
  
    int a = 10;  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```

array[0]

11

array[1]

12

Bottom of stack (main)

Program/Call Stack - Scoping

```
int main (void) {  
    int array[2] = {11, 12};  
    → for(int i = 0; i < 2; ++i) {  
        cout << array[i] << endl;  
    }  
  
    int a = 10;  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```

i	0
array[0]	11
array[1]	12

Bottom of stack (main)

Program/Call Stack - Scoping

```
int main (void) {  
    int array[2] = {11, 12};  
  
    for(int i = 0; i < 2; ++i) {  
        cout << array[i] << endl;  
    }  
→ int a = 10;  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```

i	4
array[0]	11
array[1]	12

Bottom of stack (main)

Program/Call Stack - Scoping

```
int main (void) {  
    int array[2] = {11, 12};  
  
    for(int i = 0; i < 2; ++i) {  
        cout << array[i] << endl;  
    }  
  
→ int a = 10;  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```

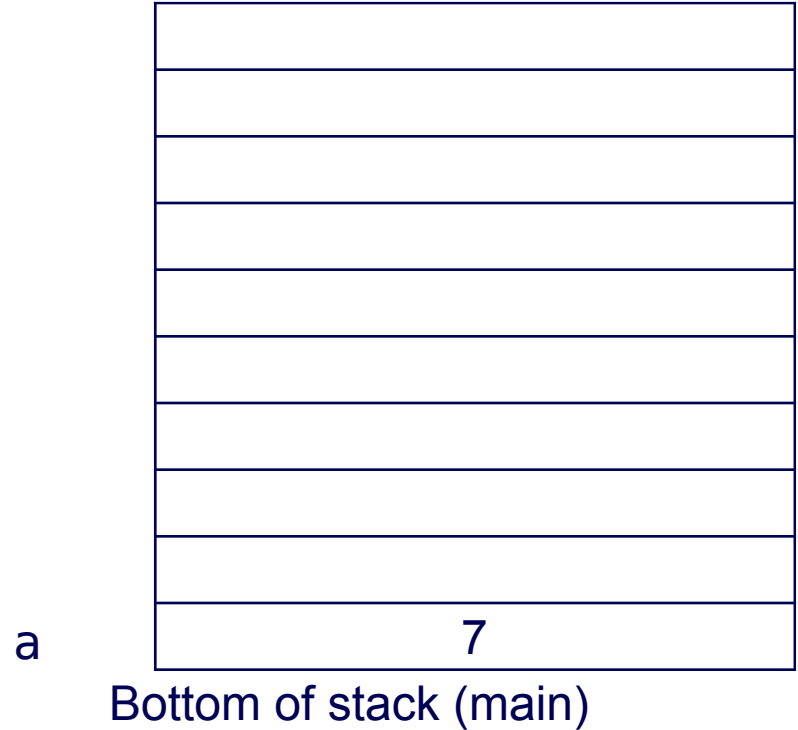
a	11
array[0]	11
array[1]	12

Bottom of stack (main)

Program/Call Stack - Function Call



```
int main (void) {  
→ int a = 7;  
  
    int b = 0;  
    b = foo(a);  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}  
  
int foo(int x) {  
    int y = 3;  
    return x + y;  
}
```



Program/Call Stack - Function Call

```
int main (void) {  
    int a = 7;  
  
    int b = 0;  
    b = foo(a);  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```

```
int foo(int x) {  
    int y = 3;  
    return x + y;  
}
```

y	3
ret addr	0x001a... (return to main)
x	7
ret val	?
b	0
a	7

Bottom of stack (main)

Program/Call Stack - Function Call

```
int main (void) {  
    int a = 7;  
  
    int b = 0;  
    b = foo(a);  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}  
  
int foo(int x) {  
    int y = 3;  
    return x + y;  
}
```

y	3
ret addr	0x001a... (return to main)
x	7
ret val	10
b	0
a	7

Bottom of stack (main)

Program/Call Stack - Function Call

```
int main (void) {  
    int a = 7;  
  
    int b = 0;  
    b = foo(a);  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}  
  
int foo(int x) {  
    int y = 3;  
    return x + y;  
}
```

y	3
ret addr	0x001a... (return to main)
x	7
ret val	10
b	0
a	7

Bottom of stack (main)

Program/Call Stack - Function Call

```
int main (void) {  
    int a = 7;  
  
    int b = 0;  
    → b = foo(a);  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}  
  
int foo(int x) {  
    int y = 3;  
    return x + y;  
}
```

y	3
ret addr	0x001a... (return to main)
x	7
ret val	10
b	10
a	7

Bottom of stack (main)

Program/Call Stack

- The operating system determines and manages the location of the program stack in physical memory. The OS may
- Limit the total size of the stack
 - Randomly position the stack
 - Clear (set to zero) all stack memory locations

Heap (Free Store)

▶ The programmer manages the allocation and de-allocation of memory on the *heap*

▶ In Java, objects are allocated on the heap

```
Object obj = new Object();
```

- The “new” keyword creates the object
- The object is stored on the heap

Heap - De-allocation

- ▶ Any memory that is allocated, should be **de-allocated**
 - Also called **“freeing”** or **“deleting”** memory
 - By de-allocating memory, a program can re-use it for another purpose
 - If memory is not “cleaned-up”, the Operating System is not aware that memory is no longer needed
 - Any new memory that a program requires, must be allocated elsewhere
- ▶ Java has automated garbage collection, so the programmer does not have to be concerned with de-allocating the memory
 - In C++, **You (the programmer) MUST** de-allocate all memory
- ▶ Only when a program is terminated, will the operating system reclaim all memory that was not de-allocated

Call Stack vs Heap

- ▶ The operating system determines the size and location in physical memory of:
 - Program Store
 - Call Stack
 - Heap
- ▶ Generally, the heap is significantly larger than the call stack
 - The call stack should be used to store small, short-lived, scoped data
 - The heap is good for storing data that is not bounded within the scope of a single function or method
- ▶ In Java:
 - Objects are placed on the Heap
 - Local variable are placed on the stack
- ▶ In C++, we will operate with a similar model

Dynamic Memory Management


Dynamic Memory Management

- ▶ Dynamic Memory Management is about managing memory on the heap
- ▶ The key principle: *Everything you create, you must delete*

Allocating Memory on the Heap

► In C/C++ memory is allocated on the heap using the 'new' keyword

```
int* a = new int;
```



Returns a
pointer

"new" memory

Type of memory
to generate

- The "new" returns a pointer to the allocated memory
- The allocated memory is not initialised
 - This can be done separately
- The compiler/OS will set aside enough memory based on the type

Allocating Memory on the Heap

► The allocated memory may also be initialised inline, using “bracket” notation

```
int* a = new int(7);
```



Initialise

- Use of this is dependent on the type
 - Some types do not support inline allocation and initialisation.
- As with all other memory, the allocated memory must be initialised!

Deleting Memory on the Heap

► Memory is de-allocated using the “delete” keyword

delete a;



“delete” memory delete on pointer

- Delete is called on the pointer (not dereference)
- Once a pointer has been deleted, that memory location cannot be used
- Best practice is to set any deleted pointer to NULL

Issues with Memory Management

► Memory Leaks

- If you loose a pointer to any allocated memory, you can't get it back
- That memory is lost, and cannot be re-allocated
- The only way to get the memory back is to terminate the program
- This is the largest cause of programs using up too much memory

► Double delete

- Deleting the same location twice, results in a memory error

► Delete on NULL

- Not possible
- May cause an error on some operating systems - so be careful!

Primitive Types

- ▶ All primitive types can be allocated using the type keyword.

```
int* a = new int;  
double* d = new double;  
char* c = new char;
```

- ▶ Primitive types can be initialised inline.

```
int* a = new int(7);  
double* d = new double(7.5);  
char* c = new char('a');
```

- ▶ Delete operates as already shown

```
delete a;
```

Pointers to other Types

- Pointers to types can be allocated

```
int** a = new int*;  
double** d = new double*;  
char** c = new char*;
```

- Do not forget the use double reference

- Pointers can be initialised inline.

- Delete operators as per usual

```
delete a;
```

Arrays

- ▶ Arrays can be allocated using square brackets

```
int* array = new int[LENGTH];
```

- ▶ Arrays cannot be initialised inline

- ▶ A special delete operator is required

```
delete[] array;
```

- This does not need to be given the length
 - This is because of how “new []” is implemented in C++
 - Strictly this is an operator

Multi-dimensional Arrays

- ▶ A Multi-Dimensional array cannot be allocated in a single statement
 - This is a limitation of C++ and the way in which arrays are represented
- ▶ Requires a multi-step allocation process:
 1. Allocate the first array dimension, as pointers

```
int** array2d = new int*[LENGTH];  
for (int i = 0; i != LENGTH; ++i) {  
    array2d[i] = new int[LENGTH/2];  
}
```
- ▶ Delete requires a similar multi-step process

Classes - allocating

- Allocating memory for a Class *creates an object* of that class

Example* `ex(10);`

- Creating an object calls a constructor of the class

- A constructor must always be called
- Even if that constructor is empty (takes no parameters)

Example* `ex();`

- If a class defines no constructors, C++ will generate a default empty constructor

Classes - deallocating

- ▶ When an object is deleted, a special method is called
 - This method is the **destructor**
 - The destructor is denoted with a tilde (~)
- ▶ The destructor must clean up all memory, objects, or entities that are used by the object
 - If the object has allocated it's own memory, this should be deleted
 - An object failing to clean-up after itself is one of the most common causes of memory leaks!

Classes - deallocating

► When an object is deleted, a special method is called

- This method is the **destructor**
 - The destructor is denoted with a tilde (~)
 - It always takes no parameters

```
class Example {  
public:  
    Example(int value);  
    ~Example();  
};
```

Destructor

```
Example::~~Example() {  
    // cleanup  
}
```

Destructor
Implementation

```
Example* ex(10);  
delete ex;
```

Calls destructor

Assignment 1

