

6. Resource management

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Outline

- 1 Resource management
 - Memory allocation
 - Stack allocation
 - Heap allocation: new and delete
- 2 Smart pointers
- 3 Classes, resource management
 - Rule of three
 - copy assignment
- 4 Function calls

Resource management

A *resource* is

- ▶ something that must be *allocated*
- ▶ and later *released*

Example:

- ▶ memory
- ▶ file handles
- ▶ sockets
- ▶ locks
- ▶ ...

Resource handles

Organize resource management with classes that *own* resources

- ▶ allocates resources in the constructor
- ▶ releases resources in the destructor
- ▶ *RAII* User-defined types that behave like built-in types

Memory Allocation

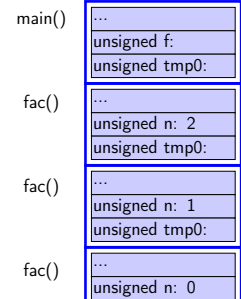
Two kinds of memory allocation:

- ▶ on the *stack* - automatic variables. Are destroyed when the program exits the *block* where they are declared.
- ▶ on the *heap* - dynamically allocated objects. Live until explicitly destroyed.

Memory allocation
stack allocation

```
unsigned fac(unsigned n)
{
    if(n == 0)
        return 1;
    else return n * fac(n-1);
}

int main()
{
    unsigned f = fac(2);
    cout << f;
    return 0;
}
```



Memory allocation

Dynamic memory, allocation "on the *heap*", or "*free store*"

- ▶ Dynamically allocated memory
 - ▶ is allocated on the *heap*, with **new** (like in Java)
 - ▶ does not belong to a *scope*
 - ▶ remains in memory until deallocated with **delete** (difference from Java)

Memory Allocation

Dynamic memory, allocation "on the *heap*", or "*free store*"

Space for dynamic objects is allocated with **new**

```
double* pd = new double;           // allocate a double
*pd = 3.141592654;                 // assign a value
float* px;                          // uninitialized pointers
float* py;
px = new float[20];                // allocate an array
py = new float[20] {1.1, 2.2, 3.3}; // allocate and initialize
```

Memory is released with **delete**

```
delete pd;
delete[] px; // [] is required for an array
delete[] py;
```

Memory Allocation

Warning! be careful with parentheses

Allocating an array: `char[80]`

```
char* c = new char[80];
```

Almost the same...

```
char* c = new char(80);
```

Almost the same...

```
char* c = new char{80};
```

The latter two allocate *one byte*

and *initializes* it with the value 80 ('P').

```
char* c = new char('P');
```

Memory Allocation

Mistake: not allocating memory

```
char name[80];
*name = 'Z'; // OK, name allocated on the stack. name[0]='Z'

char *p;     // Uninitialized pointer
             // No compiler warning

*p = 'Z';    // Error! 'Z' written to an undefined memory address
cin.getline(p, 80); // (almost) certain error during execution
                  // ("Segmentation fault") or memory corruption
```

modern C++: **auto** is safer

```
auto q = new char[80]; // auto --> cannot be uninitialized
```

Memory Allocation

Example: failed `read_line` function

```
char* read_line() {
    char temp[80];
    cin.getline(temp, 80);
    return temp;
}

void exempel () {
    cout << "Enter your name: ";
    char* name = read_line();

    cout << "Enter your town: ";
    char* town = read_line();

    cout << "Hello " << name << " from " << town << endl;
}
```

"Dangling pointer": pointer to object that no longer exists

Memory Allocation

Partially corrected version of `read_line`

```
char* read_line() {
    char temp[80];
    cin.getline(temp, 80);
    size_t len=strnlen(temp,80);
    char *res = new char[len+1];
    strncpy(res, temp, len+1);
    return res; // dynamically allocated: survives
}

void exempel () {
    cout << "Enter your name: ";
    char* name = read_line();
    cout << "Enter your town: ";
    char* town = read_line();
    cout << "Hello " << name << " from " << town << endl;
}
```

Works, but memory leak !

Memory Allocation

Further corrected version of read_line

```
char* read_line() {
    char temp[80];
    cin.getline(temp, 80);
    size_t len=strnlen(temp,80);
    char *res = new char[len+1];
    strncpy(res, temp, len+1);
    return res; Dynamically allocated: survives
}

void exempel () {
    cout << "Enter your name: ";
    char* name = read_line(); NB! calling function takes ownership
    cout << "Enter your town ";
    char* town = read_line();
    cout << "Hello " << name << " from " << town << endl;

    delete[] name; Deallocate strings
    delete[] town;
}
```

Use std::string

Simpler and safer with std::string

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>

using std::cin;
using std::cout;
using std::string;

void example()
{
    cout << "Name:";
    string name = read_line();
    cout << "Town:";
    string town = read_line();

    cout << "Hello, " << name <<
        " from " << town << endl;
}

string read_line()
{
    string res;
    getline(cin, res);
    return res;
}
```

- ▶ std::string is a *resource handle*
- ▶ *RAII*
- ▶ Dynamic memory is rarely needed (in user code)

Memory Allocation ownership of resources

For dynamically allocated objects, *ownership* is important

- ▶ An object or a function can *own* a resource
- ▶ *The owner* is responsible for deallocating the resource
- ▶ If you have a pointer, you must know *who owns the object it points to*
- ▶ Ownership *can be transferred* by a function call
 - ▶ but is often not
 - ▶ be clear about owning semantics

Every time you write `new` you are responsible for that someone will do a `delete` when the object is no longer in use.

Classes RAII

- ▶ *RAII Resource Acquisition Is Initialization*
- ▶ An object is initialized by a *constructor*
 - ▶ Allocates the resources needed ("*resource handle*")
- ▶ When an object is destroyed, its *destructor* is executed
 - ▶ Free the resources owned by the object
 - ▶ Example: Vector: delete the array elem points to

```
class Vector{
private:
    double elem*; // pointer to an array
    int sz; // the size of the array
public:
    Vector(int s) :elem{new double[s]}, sz{s} {} // ctor
    ~Vector() {delete[] elem;} // dtor, delete the array
};
```

Manual memory management

- ▶ Objects allocated with `new` must be deallocated with `delete`
- ▶ Objects allocated with `new[]` must be deallocated with `delete[]`
- ▶ otherwise the program will *leak memory*

Classes Resource management, representation

```
struct Vector {
    Vector(int s) :sz{s},elem{new double(sz)} {}
    ~Vector() {delete[] elem;}
    double& operator[](int i) {return elem[i];}
    int sz;
    double* elem;
};

void test()
{
    Vector vec(5);
    vec[2] = 7;
}
```

Vector vec:

sz: 5
elem

 →

		7		
--	--	---	--	--

- ▶ *Resource handle* – Vector owns its `double[]`
- ▶ the object: pointer + size, the array is on the heap

Dynamic memory, example Error handling

```
void f(int i, int j)
{
    X* p=new X; // allocate new X
    //...
    if(i<99) throw E{}; // may throw an exception
    if(j<77) return; // may return "early"
    //
    p->do_something(); // may throw
    //
    delete p;
}
```

Will leak memory if `delete p` is not called

Memory allocation C++: Smart pointers

The standard library `<memory>` has two “smart” pointer types (C++11):

- ▶ `std::unique_ptr<T>` – a *single owner*
- ▶ `std::shared_ptr<T>` – *shared ownership*

that are *resource handles*:

- ▶ their destructor deallocates the object they point to.

- ▶ Other examples of *resource handles*:

- ▶ `std::vector<T>`
- ▶ `std::string`

`shared_ptr` contains a *reference counter*: when the *last* `shared_ptr` to an object is destroyed, the object is destroyed. Cf. *garbage collection* in Java.

Smart pointer, example

```
void f(int i, int j)
{
    unique_ptr<X> p(new X); // allocate new X and give to unique_ptr
    //...
    if(i<99) throw E();    // may throw an exception
    if(j<77) return;      // may return "early"
    //
    p->do_something();    // may throw
}
```

The destructor of `p` is always executed: no leak

Smart pointer, example Dynamic memory is rarely needed

```
void f(int i, int j)
{
    X x{};

    if(i<99) throw E();    // may throw an exception
    if(j<77) return;      // may return "early"

    x.do_something();    // may throw
}
```

Use local variables when possible

read_line with unique_ptr

```
unique_ptr<char[]> read_line()
{
    char temp[80];
    cin.getline(temp, 80);
    int size = strlen(temp)+1;
    char* res = new char[size];
    strncpy(res, temp, size);
    return unique_ptr<char[]>(res);
}

void example()
{
    cout << "Enter name: ";
    unique_ptr<char[]> name = read_line();
    cout << "Enter town: ";
    unique_ptr<char[]> town = read_line();
    cout << "Hello " << name.get() << " from " << town.get() << endl;
}
```

- ▶ To get a `char*` we call `unique_ptr<char[]>::get()`.

read_line with unique_ptr with no explicit new and delete (C++14)

```
unique_ptr<char[]> read_line()
{
    char temp[80];
    cin.getline(temp, 80);
    int size = strlen(temp)+1;
    auto res = std::make_unique<char[]>(size);
    strncpy(res.get(), temp, size);
    return res;
}
```

Smart pointers Vector from previous examples

```
class Vector{
public:
    Vector(int s) :elem(new double[s]), sz{s} {}
    double& operator[](int i) {return elem[i];}
    int size() {return sz;}
private:
    std::unique_ptr<double[]> elem;
    int sz;
};
```

- ▶ All member variables are of RAII types
- ▶ The default *destructor* works
- ▶ The object cannot be copied (no default functions generated)
 - ▶ A `unique_ptr` cannot be copied – it is *unique*

Smart pointers

Vector from previous examples

```
class Vector{
public:
    Vector(int s) :elem{new double[s]}, sz{s} {}
    double& operator[](int i) {return elem[i];}
    int size() {return sz;}
private:
    std::unique_ptr<double[]> elem;
    int sz;
};
```

- ▶ To make the type possible to copy
 - ▶ Define a copy constructor
 - ▶ Define a copy assignment operator

Memory allocation

C++: Smart pointers

Rules of thumb for pointer parameters to functions:

if ownership is not transferred

- ▶ Use "raw" pointers
- ▶ Use `std::unique_ptr<T> const &`

if ownership is transferred

- ▶ Use *by-value* `std::unique_ptr<T>`
(then `std::move()` must be used)

- ▶ This is an orientation about smart pointers.
- ▶ "Raw" pointers are common; you must master them.

C++: Smart pointers

Coarse summary

"Raw" ("naked") pointers:

- ▶ The programmer takes all responsibility
- ▶ Risk of memory leaks
- ▶ Risk of *dangling pointers*

Smart pointers:

- ▶ No (less) risk of memory leaks
- ▶ (minor) Risk of *dangling pointers* if used incorrectly
(e.g., more than one `unique_ptr` to the same object)

Common pitfall

Default copying

For classes containing *owning pointers*, the default copying does not work.

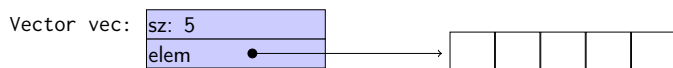
Example: Vector

- ▶ call by value
- ▶ copying pointer values
(both objects point to the same resource)
- ▶ the destructor is executed on **return**
- ▶ *dangling pointer*
- ▶ *double delete*

Classes

Example: Copying the Vector class

```
class Vector{
public:
    Vector(int s) :elem{new double[s]}, sz{s} {}
    ~Vector() {delete[] elem;}
    double& operator[](int i) {return elem[i];}
    int size() {return sz;}
private:
    double* elem;
    int sz;
};
```



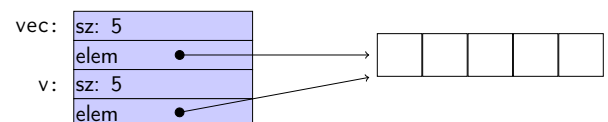
No copy constructor defined => default generated.

Classes

Default copy construction: shallow copy

```
void f(Vector v);

void test()
{
    Vector vec(5);
    f(vec); // call by value -> copy
}
```



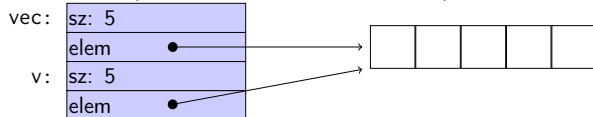
- ▶ The parameter v is default copy constructed: the value of each member variable is copied
- ▶ When f() returns, the destructor of v is executed:
(`delete[] elem;`)
- ▶ The array pointed to *by both copies* is deleted. Disaster!

Copying objects

the *copy assignment operator*: `operator=`

The *copy assignment operator* is implicitly defined

- ▶ with the type `T& T::operator=(const T&)`
- ▶ if no `operator=` is declared for the type
- ▶ if all member variables can be copied
 - ▶ i.e., define a copy-assignment operator
- ▶ If all members are of built-in (and RAII) types the default variant works (same problems as with copy ctor).



- ▶ For *owning pointers*, the copy member functions must be implemented

"Rule of three"

Canonical construction idiom

IF a class owns a resource, it shall implement a

- 1 Destructor
- 2 Copy constructor
- 3 Copy assignment operator

in order not to leak memory. E.g. the class `Vector`

Rule:

If you define *any* of these, you should define *all*.

Copy control Example: Vector

Copy constructor

```
Vector::Vector(const Vector& v) : elem(new double[v.sz]), sz(v.sz)
{
    for(int i=0; i < sz; ++i) {
        elem[i] = v[i];
    }
}
```

Copy control Example: Vector

Copy assignment

```
Vector& Vector::operator=(const Vector& v) {
    if (this != &v) {
        auto tmp = new double[v.sz];
        for (int i=0; i < v.sz; i++)
            tmp[i] = v.elem[i];
        sz = v.sz;
        delete[] elem;
        elem = tmp;
    }
    return *this;
}
```

- 1 check "self assignment"
- 2 allocate new resources
- 3 copy values
- 4 free old resources

Only **delete** if allocation succeeded.

Function calls and results Returning objects by value

- ▶ A function cannot return references to local variables
 - ▶ the object is destroyed at **return** – *dangling reference*
- ▶ How (in)efficient is it to return objects by value (a copy)?

return value optimization (RVO)

The compiler may optimize away copies of objects on **return** from functions

- ▶ *return by value* often efficient, also for larger objects
- ▶ RVO allowed *even if the copy-constructor or destructor has side effects*
- ▶ avoid such side effects to make code portable

Rules of thumb for function parameters

- ▶ Return by value more often
- ▶ Do not over-use call-by-value

“reasonable defaults”

	cheap to copy	moderately cheap to copy	expensive to copy
In	f(X)	f(const X&)	
In/Out	f(X&)		
Out	X f()	f(X&)	

For results, if the cost of copying is

- ▶ small, or moderate (< 1k, contiguous): return by value (modern compilers do RVO: return value optimization)
- ▶ large : call by reference as *out parameter*
 - ▶ or maybe allocate with **new** and return pointer

Call by reference or by value? Rules of thumb

For passing an object to a function when

- ▶ you may want to *change the value* of the object
 - ▶ reference: **void f(T&);** or
 - ▶ pointer: **void f(T*);**
- ▶ you *will not* change it, it is *large* (or impossible to copy)
 - ▶ constant reference: **void f(const T&);**
- ▶ otherwise, *call by value*
 - ▶ **void f(T);**

reference or pointer?

- ▶ required parameter: pass reference
- ▶ optional parameter: pass pointer (can be nullptr)

```
void f(widget& w)
{
    use(w); //required parameter
}

void g(widget* w)
{
    if(w) use(w); //optional parameter
}
```

Call by reference or by value? Rules of thumb

- ▶ How big is “large”?
 - ▶ more than a few *words*
- ▶ When to use out parameters?
 - ▶ prefer code that is obvious

Example: two functions:

```
void incr1(int& x)
{
    ++x;
}

int incr2(int x)
{
    return x + 1;
}
```

Use:

```
int v = 0;
...
incr1(v);
...
v = incr2(v);
```

Here it is much clearer that `v = incr2(v)` changes `v`

- ▶ For multiple output values, consider returning a **struct**, a `std::pair` or a `std::tuple`

Next lecture: Error handling

References to sections in Lippman
Error handling, exceptions (5.6, 18.1.1)
static assert *not in Lippman*
assert 6.5.3

Suggested reading

References to sections in Lippman
Dynamic memory and smart pointers 12.1
Dynamically allocated arrays 12.2.1
Classes, resource management 13.1, 13.2