Informatics 3. Lecture 3: Dynamic memory handling

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Previously

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int *p = &a;

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int a, b, c; int *p = &a; *p = 5

• Every pointer is an array and every array is a pointer:

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- We can manually allocate memory with the **new** keyword. This returns a pointer that points to the newly allocated memory:

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int *p = new int;
*p = 5;
cout << "pointer: " << p << " mem: " << *p << endl;
// pointer: 0xa000004d0 mem: 5
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- The above uses the C++ style output. We will no longer use stdio.h, printf or scanf from now on.
- There is dynamic memory handling in C as well. However it is more complicated so we'll stick to C++ from now on.

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• Almost everything works the same way.

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- Almost everything works the same way.
- Those who work in editors/IDEs (Codeblocks, Visual Studio, etc.) should use the .cpp file extension instead of .c from now on.
- Those who work in a command line should use \mathbf{g} ++ instead of gcc.

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- The output, cout doesn't require output types either and it can be "chained":

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int a = 5;
float f = 6.4;
cout << "a: " << a << endl << "f: " << f << endl;</pre>
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• endl is a new line (end line).

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- A complete program showing cin and cout:
- 1 #include <iostream>
- 2 using namespace std;
- 3 int main(void) {
- 4 float x;

```
_5 cin >> x;
```

6 cout << "value of x: " << x << endl;

```
7 return 0;
```

```
8 }
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- 8 }
 - The using namespace std line will come up later. For now let's just copy and paste it after iostream always.

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t = new int[3];
t[0] = 5; t[1] = 6; t[2] = 7;
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```
4 t = new int[n];
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5 for(int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
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```
6 t[i] = i * i;
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```

```
5 for(int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
```

```
6 t[i] = i * i;
```

```
7 }
```

• New feature: we can define the cycle variable in for.

```
int* fv() {
1
      int t[] = \{1, 2, 5\};
2
     return t;
3
4 }
   int main(void) {
5
      int *a = fv();
6
      for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++) {</pre>
7
        cout << a[i] << endl;</pre>
8
      }
9
      return 0;
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11 }
```

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 • This leads to the Segmentation Fault error.
```

• Let's try to return an array in a function.

```
int* fv() {
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      int t[] = \{1, 2, 5\}:
2
      return t;
3
4 }
   int main(void) {
5
      int *a = fv():
6
      for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++) {</pre>
7
        cout << a[i] << endl;</pre>
8
      }
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    This leads to the Segmentation Fault error.
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• The array t is destroyed once the fv function ends, like all other local variables.

```
int* fv() {
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      int t[] = \{1, 2, 5\};
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      return t;
3
4 }
   int main(void) {
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      int *a = fv():
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      for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++) {</pre>
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        cout << a[i] << endl;</pre>
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      }
9
      return 0;
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```

- This leads to the Segmentation Fault error.
- The array t is destroyed once the fv function ends, like all other local variables.
- The true return value of the function is a copy of t as a pointer.

• Everything dynamically allocated will still exist even outside its scope.

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- This means the following works:

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int* fv() {
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  int *t = new int[3];
2
     t[0] = 1; t[1] = 2; t[2] = 5;
3
      return t;
4
5 }
    int main(void) {
6
7
   int *a;
     a = fv();
8
      for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++) {</pre>
9
        cout << a[i] << endl;</pre>
10
      }
11
      return 0;
12
13 }
```

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- Everything dynamically allocated will still exist even outside its scope.
- This means the following works:

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     return t;
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5 }
   int main(void) {
6
7
   int *a;
a = fv():
9 for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++) {
       cout << a[i] << endl;</pre>
10
     }
11
     return 0;
12
13
  }
```

• In truth, if something is dynamically allocated it can exist for as long as the program runs.

```
• What's the issue here?
```

```
int* fv() {
1
     int *t = new int[3];
2
     t[0] = 1; t[1] = 2; t[2] = 5;
3
    int *t_sqr = new int[3];
4
     for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++) {</pre>
5
     t_sqr[i] = t[i] * t[i];
6
     }
7
8
     return t_sqr;
9 }
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• The dynamically allocated t array stays in the memory after the function ends. But we won't have any way to access it.

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- The dynamically allocated t array stays in the memory after the function ends. But we won't have any way to access it.
- If we execute the function 100 times, then it will be present in the memory 100 separate times uselessly.

Freeing memory

• Dynamically allocated things have to be manually freed (removed from the memory).

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- Dynamically allocated things have to be manually freed (removed from the memory).
- That's what the **delete** keyword is for:

```
int p* = new int;
*p = 5;
delete p;
```

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- Dynamically allocated things have to be manually freed (removed from the memory).
- That's what the **delete** keyword is for:

```
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delete p;
```

• And for dynamically allocated arrays the delete[] keyword:

```
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      }
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      delete[] t:
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      return t_sqr;
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10
```

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• Since the function fv returns with a dynamically allocated array, it is the responsibility of the caller to free this array (the caller is the main fucntion here):

```
1 int main(void) {
```

```
int *a;
2
   a = fv();
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      for(int i = 0; i < 3; i++) {</pre>
4
        cout << a[i] << endl;</pre>
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• The way we should think about this is that every dynamical allocation has to have its freeing pair.

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- What we did so far:
 - Using pointers we returned more than 1 value with a function.
 - We could handle arrays as pointers (though it's not that useful).
 - We can use pointers to store the pointer of the dynamically allocated memory.
 - We can directly return an array with a function.
- Now we'll use pointers to create a new data structure.

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- Develop a data structure the can hold as many elements as we want (or as much as our computer's memory permits).
- What we want is a similar data structure as the list in python. The following or something similar should work:
- 1 int x; // auxiliary variable
- 2 list 1; // our new data type
- $_{\rm 3}$ append(1, 5) // we append 5 at the end of ;
- 4 append(1, 4) // now 4

```
5 \text{ cin } >> x;
```

```
_{6} while(x != 0) { // while we do not get a 0
```

```
7 append(1, x) // add elements to l
```

```
s cin >> x; // read the next element
```

9 }

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Array expansion idea

First idea:

- Let's use a dynamically allocated array.
- Store the current length of it in a variable
- Should we need more space we can just create a bigger array and copy all elements to this new and larger array. Then we can free the original array.

Array expansion idea

First idea:

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- Should we need more space we can just create a bigger array and copy all elements to this new and larger array. Then we can free the original array.

Issues:

- It's still limited in size. That's because int has a limit, a so called "int max". There would be no way to index the array past this number.
- During every expansion we'll need to do a lot of copying. At one point this will simply take too long.
- At this point we could just as well create an int array the size of "int max" and we would be in the same boat.

Minimalist array expansion implementation (just for show)

```
(The x->y command is equivalent to
(*x).y. We'll talk about it later.)
struct list {
    int *a;
    int n;
    int max;
};
void append(struct list *1, int e) {
    if(1->n >= 1->max) {
```

t[i] = 1 - a[i]:

 $1 - \max = 1 - \max + 100;$

delete[] 1->a;

1 - a = t:

1 - a[1 - n] = e;1 - n++;

3

}

}

int *t = new int[l->max + 100]:

for(int i = 0; i < 1->n; i++) {

```
int main(void) {
   struct list l;
   l.a = new int[1];
   l.n = 0;
   l.max = 1;
   append(&l, 1);
   append(&l, 5);
   append(&l, -2);
   for(int i = 0; i < l.n; i++) {
      cout << l.a[i] << endl;
   }
   delete[] l.a;
   return 0;
}</pre>
```

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- This is how the elements would look like:

```
struct list_e {
    int num;
    struct list_e *next;
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- Let's use the trick from C strings where we had the terminal zero character '\0'.
- NULL is a special pointer value. We can use this to express if something doesn't actually point anywhere:



• Now we just need to store the first element's pointer in a variable and we're basically done:



- Let's implement this in C++. We want to make this **main** function work:
- 1 int main(void) {

10 }

```
struct list_e *start = NULL; // pointer of the first eleme
2
    append(start, 1); // add the first element
3
    append(start, 5); // then the second
4
    append(start, -2); // and a third
5
    for(;;) { // we'll have to iterate over this list someh
6
     // print the elements of the list here
7
    }
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    return 0;
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 - Let's start writing the **append** function in small steps.
 - Since we'll be going step by step there wll be moments when the code contains errors. I'll let you know each time.
 - Let's use the previously defined **struct list_e** type.

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• The very first thing we need to do is to add the first element. At this point start is still NULL, since we're not storing anything yet.

```
void append(struct list_e *start, int n) {
```

```
struct list_e *e = new struct list_e;
```

```
(*e).num = n;
```

```
4 (*e).next = NULL;
```

```
5 start = e;
```

```
6 }
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```

```
6 }
```

- Dynamically create the element, so that it remains after the function returns.
- If you try this with only 1 append call it will still not be okay
- Since we're trying to change the **start** pointer, not its stored stuff in the memory. So we'll have to use a pointer pointer.

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• I only changed the pointer of a pointer part:

```
void append(struct list_e **start, int n) {
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  }
```

• This works. We can add 1 element to the list.
• I only changed the pointer of a pointer part:

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void append(struct list_e **start, int n) {
  struct list_e *e = new struct list_e;
  (*e).num = n;
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```

- This works. We can add 1 element to the list.
- However the notation (*x).y would quickly become infuriating. Thankfully there's a solution. It means the same as the x->y expression.

```
• Only replaced with x->y
1 void append(struct list_e **start, int n) {
2 struct list_e *e = new struct list_e;
3 e->num = n;
4 e->next = NULL;
5 *start = e; // now we need *start
6 }
```

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• This is how the memory looks now:



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6 }
```

• This is how the memory looks now:



• However if we were to call **append** again (to append an element) then it wouldn't work and it's easy to see why. We would only change the first element to this new element.

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• Let's do a condition based on whether we're appending the first element or not:

```
void append(struct list_e **start, int n) {
1
2
      struct list_e *e = new struct list_e;
3
      e - num = n;
      e->next = NULL:
4
      if (*start == NULL) {
5
6
       *start = e:
      } else {
7
        (*start)->next = e;
8
      }
9
    }
10
```

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```
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2
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        *start = e:
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         (*start)->next = e:
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       3
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```

Now the memory looks like this:



• It's easy to see again that this still isn't right. When we use append-et, we always change the next of the start element.

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• Let's stop for a moment and think about how we would navigate to the last element. Since that's the element whose **next** we need to set.

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- We can borrow from C strings again. We parsed a string there until we encountered the '\0' terminal zero. In a linked list the equivalent would be the NULL pointer:

```
for(struct list_e *e = start; e != NULL; e = e->next) {
  cout << e->num << endl;
}</pre>
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- If you think about it this is just a regular for loop:
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 - We step onto the next element.

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- If you think about it this is just a regular for loop:
 - We initialize the cycle variable (e) with the first element.
 - Stopping condition is almost the same as with C strings.
 - We step onto the next element.
- We can use this in the main function to print the linked list's elements.

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Let's see how this iteration over the linked list would work in our (theoretical) complete implementation of a linked list.

```
for(struct list_e *e = start; e != NULL; e = e->next) {
   cout << e->num << endl;
}</pre>
```

Where we are: before the loop



Output:

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```
for(struct list_e *e = start; e != NULL; e = e->next) {
   cout << e->num << endl;
}</pre>
```

Where we are: initialization happened



Output:

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```
for(struct list_e *e = start; e != NULL; e = e->next) {
   cout << e->num << endl;
}</pre>
```

Where we are: end of the first loop



Output:

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```
for(struct list_e *e = start; e != NULL; e = e->next) {
   cout << e->num << endl;
}</pre>
```

Where we are: beginning of the second loop



Output:

▲ 同 ▶ ▲ 三 ▶

- ∢ ≣ →

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```
for(struct list_e *e = start; e != NULL; e = e->next) {
   cout << e->num << endl;
}</pre>
```

Where we are: end of the second loop



Output: 1 5

(4 同) (1 日) (1 日)

Let's see how this iteration over the linked list would work in our (theoretical) complete implementation of a linked list.

```
for(struct list_e *e = start; e != NULL; e = e->next) {
   cout << e->num << endl;
}</pre>
```

Where we are: end of the third loop



Output: 1 5

-2

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Let's see how this iteration over the linked list would work in our (theoretical) complete implementation of a linked list.

```
for(struct list_e *e = start; e != NULL; e = e->next) {
   cout << e->num << endl;
}</pre>
```

Where we are: end of the forth loop



Output:

- 5
- -2
- 15

- 4 同 1 - 4 回 1 - 4 回 1

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Let's see how this iteration over the linked list would work in our (theoretical) complete implementation of a linked list.

```
for(struct list_e *e = start; e != NULL; e = e->next) {
   cout << e->num << endl;
}</pre>
```

Where we are: end of the forth loop and the step also happened



Output:

- 5
- -2
- 15

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Let's see how this iteration over the linked list would work in our (theoretical) complete implementation of a linked list.

```
for(struct list_e *e = start; e != NULL; e = e->next) {
   cout << e->num << endl;
}</pre>
```

Where we are: end of the loop, the condition was false



Output:

- 5
- -2
- 15

▲ 同 ▶ ▲ 三 ▶

- 4 ∃ →

• Let's go back to the implementation and use what we learned: void append(struct list_e **start, int n) { 1 2 struct list_e *e = new struct list_e; 3 e - num = n: 4 e->next = NULL: if (*start == NULL) { 5 6 *start = e: // most már *start kell } else { 7 8 struct list_e *p = NULL; for(p = *start; p->next != NULL; p = p->next){} 9 p->next = e; 10 7 11 } 12

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- Here we want to stop when we've reached the last element.

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- There is no command in the inner part of the loop. We only need to set the p pointer to the last element.

3

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4

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- Here we want to stop when we've reached the last element.
- We know we're at the last element when the element's next is NULL.
- There is no command in the inner part of the loop. We only need to set the p pointer to the last element.
- This truly implements a dynamically expanding data structure that might even fill the whole memory.

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Implementation of linked lists (complete code)

```
int main(void) {
                          struct list e *start = NULL:
#include <iostream>
                          append(&start, 1);
                          append(&start, 5);
using namespace std;
                          append(&start, -2);
                          append(&start, 15);
struct list e {
                          for(struct list e *e = start: e != NULL: e = e->next) {
  int num;
                            cout << e->num << endl;</pre>
                          }
  struct list_e *next;
};
                          return 0:
                        3
void append(struct list_e **start, int n) {
  struct list e *e = new struct list e:
  e - num = n;
  e->next = NULL:
  if (*start == NULL) {
    *start = e;
  } else {
    struct list_e *p = NULL;
    for(p = *start; p->next != NULL; p = p->next){}
    p - > next = e;
  }
}
                                                     イロト イポト イヨト イヨト
```

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Where to now

Where to next?

• We need a way to free the dynamically created linked list.

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- We need a way to free the dynamically created linked list.
- It would be confusing in the long run if we used **append** and similarly named functions (we would need an append_list, append_dictionary, append_set, etc.). The solution to this will be classes.

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- We can't store everything in one file. Once we start using more structures like this we'll need to start using more source files and header files.
- We can't implement everything ourselves. We'll start using already implemented data structure from libraries at some point.

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Pop quiz questions

- Draw a schematic representation of a linked list in memory.
- What is the NULL pointer?
- Show an example of dynamically creating an array.
- What is delete and delete[] used for?