

# Heap-Allocated Memory and Structs



# Lecture Outline

## ❖ Heap-allocated Memory

- `malloc()`, `calloc()`, `realloc()` and `free()`
- Memory leaks

## ❖ `structs` and `typedef`

# Memory Allocation So Far

❖ So far, we have seen two kinds of memory allocation:

```
int counter = 0;    // global var

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    counter++;
    printf("count = %d\n", counter);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

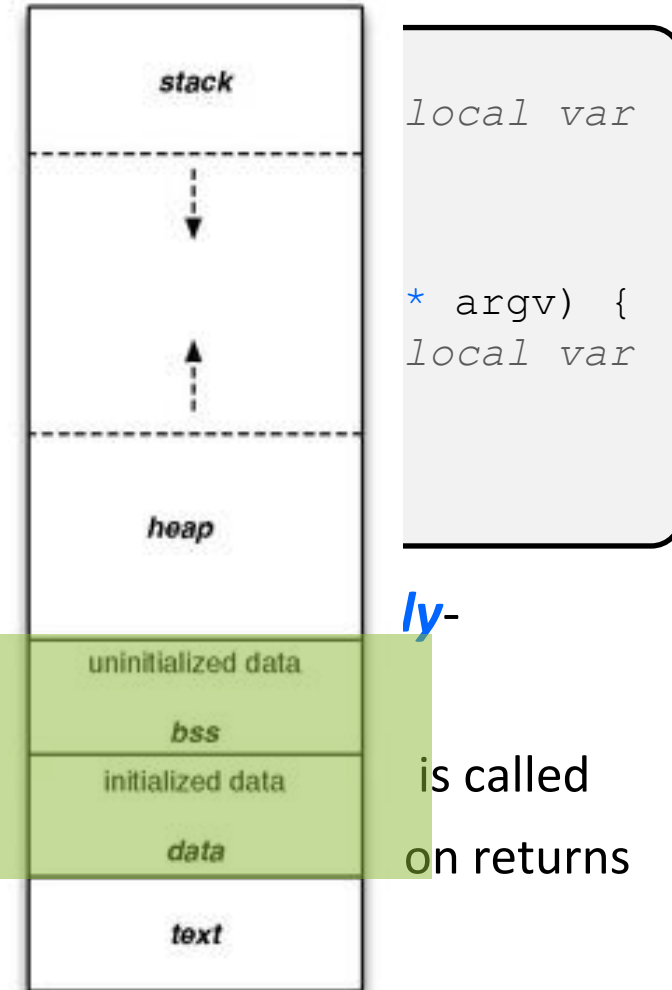
- counter is **statically**-allocated
  - Allocated when program is loaded
  - Deallocated when process gets reaped
  - Stored in the data Segment

```
int foo(
    int x
    return

int main
    int y
    printf
    return

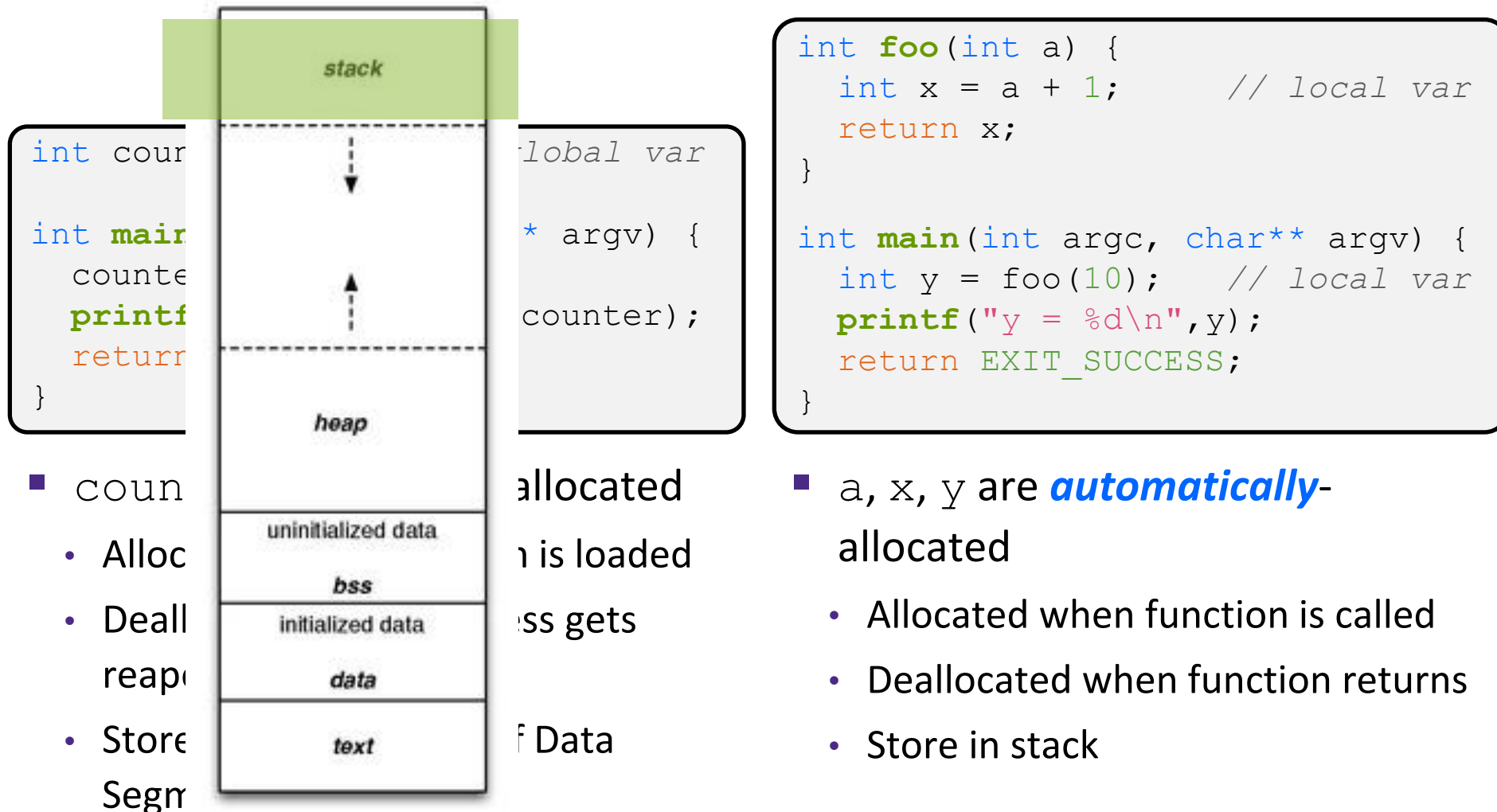
}
```

- a, x, y are **locally**-allocated
  - Allocated when function is called
  - Deallocated when function returns



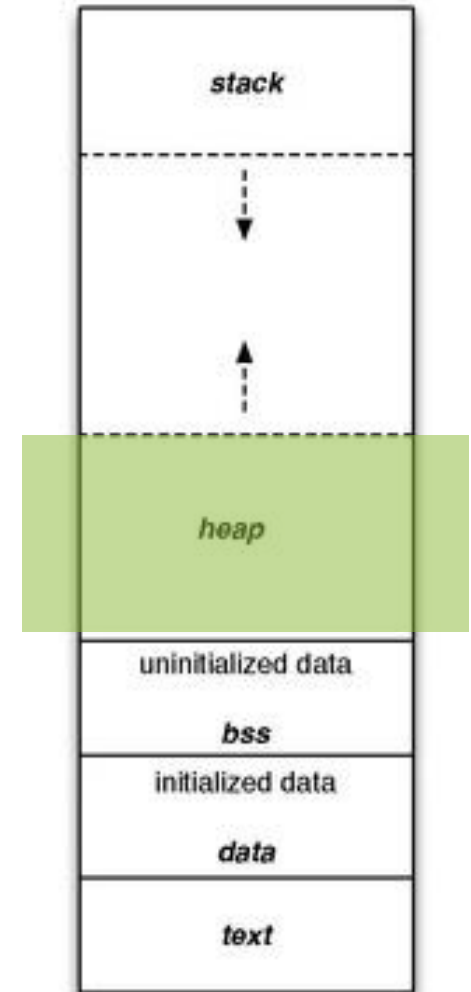
# Memory Allocation So Far

❖ So far, we have seen two kinds of memory allocation:



# Dynamic Allocation

- ❖ Situations where static and automatic allocation aren't sufficient:
  - We need memory that persists across multiple function calls but not the whole lifetime of the program
  - We need more memory than that can fit on the Stack
  - We need memory whose size is not known in advance to the caller



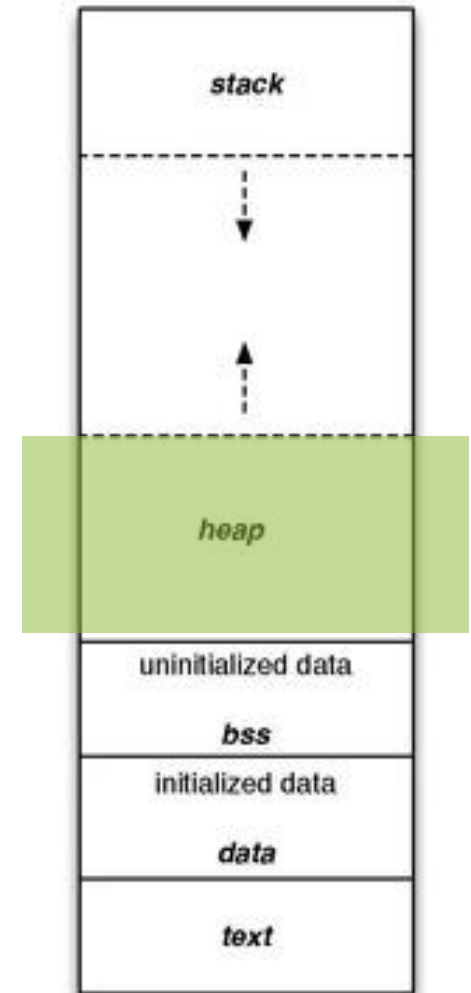
# Dynamic Allocation

- ❖ Situations where static and automatic allocation aren't sufficient:
  - We need memory that persists across multiple function calls but not the whole lifetime of the program
  - We need more memory than that can fit on the Stack
  - We need memory whose size is not known in advance to the caller

```
// this is pseudo-C code
char* ReadFile(char* filename) {
    int size = GetFileSize(filename);
    char* buffer = AllocateMem(size);

    ReadFileIntoBuffer(filename, buffer);
    return buffer;
}
```

**Example:** Reading from a file, which has an unknown size at compilation time.



# Dynamic Allocation

- ❖ What we want is *dynamically*-allocated memory
  - Your program explicitly requests a new block of memory
    - The language allocates it at runtime, perhaps with help from OS
  - Dynamically-allocated memory persists until either:
    - Your code explicitly deallocated it (manual memory management)
    - A garbage collector collects it (automatic memory management)
- ❖ C requires you to manually manage memory
  - Gives you more control, but causes headaches

# Where is it going to be stored?

```
int i;  
int main()  
{  
    int j;  
    int *k = (int *) malloc (sizeof(int));  
}
```

i is global variable and it is uninitialized so it is stored in Data Section

j is local in main() so it is stored in stack frame

\*k is dynamically allocated so it is stored on Heap Segment



# Aside: NULL

- ❖ `NULL` is a memory location that is **guaranteed to be invalid**
  - In C on Linux, `NULL` is `0x0` and an attempt to dereference `NULL` *causes a segmentation fault*
- ❖ Useful as an indicator of an uninitialized (or currently unused) pointer or allocation error

```
int* p = NULL;
```

# malloc()

❖ General usage: `var = (type*) malloc(size in bytes)`

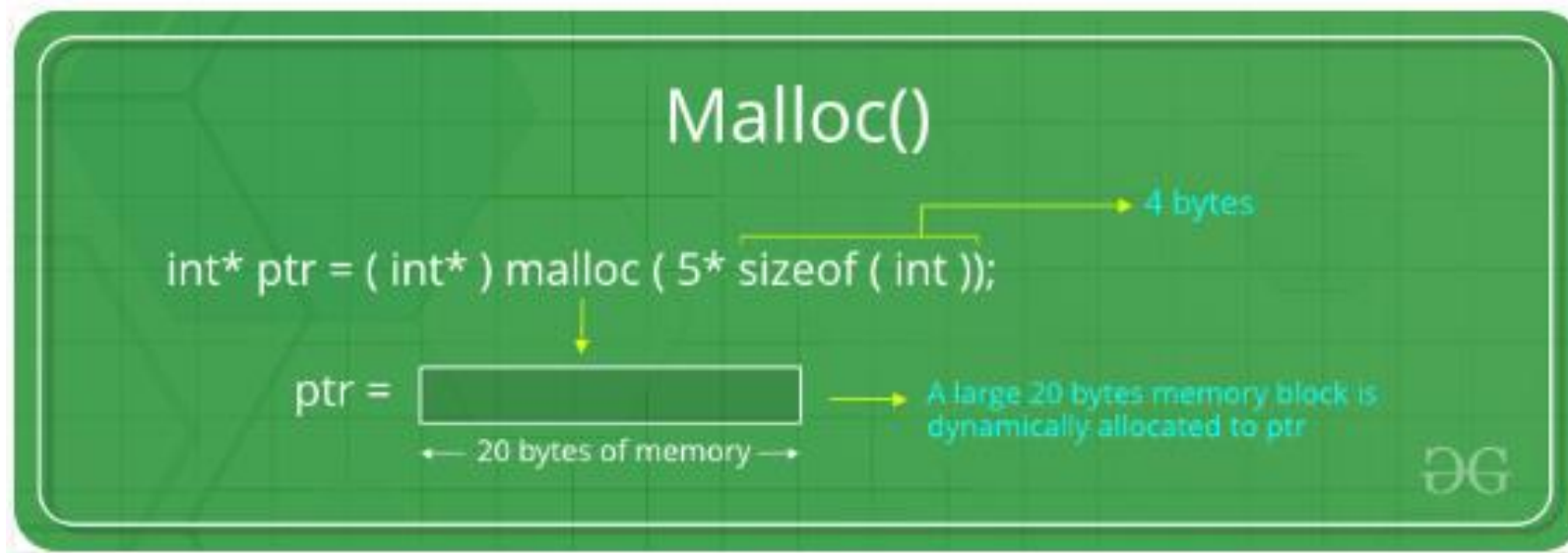
– Malloc returns void\*. It is a good practice to explicitly cast.

❖ **malloc** allocates a block of memory of the requested size

- Returns a pointer to the first byte of that memory
  - And **returns NULL** if the memory allocation failed!
- You should assume that the memory initially contains garbage
- You'll typically use **sizeof** to calculate the size you need

```
// allocate a 10-float array
float* arr = (float*) malloc(10*sizeof(float));
if (arr == NULL) {
    // print error message
}
...    // do stuff with arr
```

# malloc()



- ❖ <https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/dynamic-memory-allocation-in-c-using-malloc-calloc-free-and-realloc/>
- ❖ will allocate 20 bytes of memory.
- ❖ the pointer ptr holds the address of the first byte in the allocated memory
- ❖ Example: <https://ide.geeksforgeeks.org/beIOPag6jV>

# calloc()

- ❖ General usage:

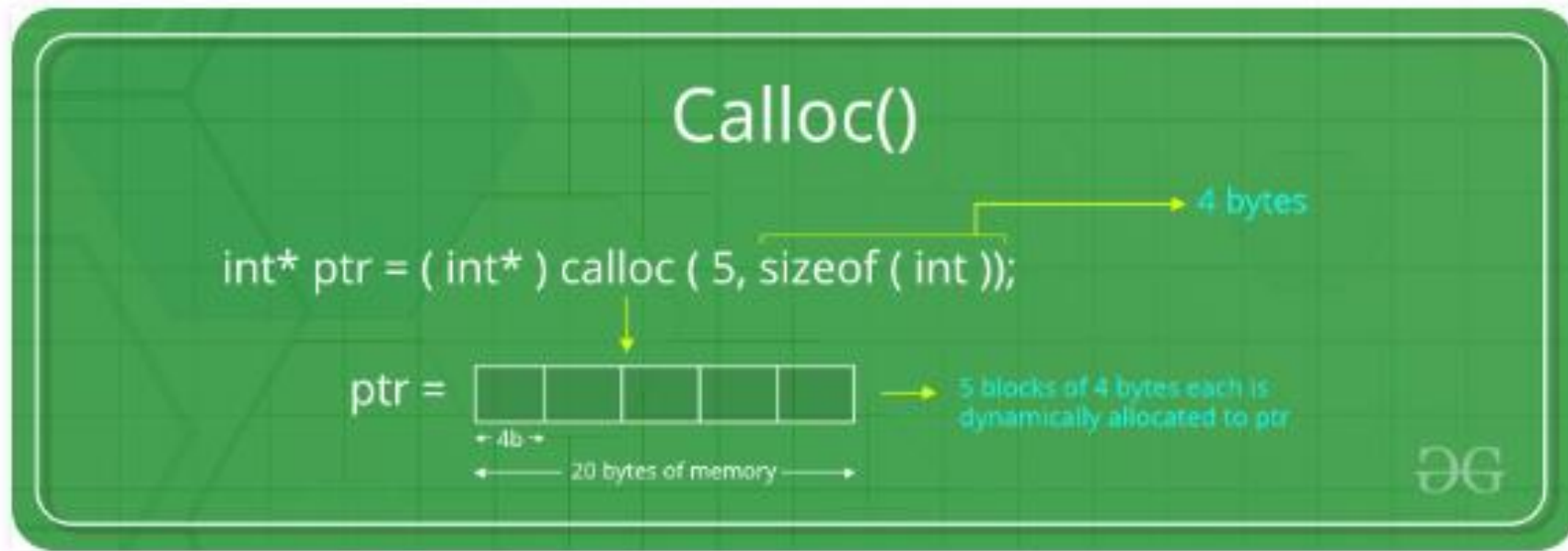
```
var = (type*) calloc(num, bytes per element)
```

- ❖ Like **malloc**, but also zeros out the block of memory

- Helpful when zero-initialization wanted
- Slightly slower; but useful for non-performance-critical code
- **malloc** and **calloc** are found in `stdlib.h`

```
// allocate a 10-double array
double* arr = (double*) calloc(10, sizeof(double));
if (arr == NULL) {
    //error
}
... // do stuff with arr
```

# calloc()



<https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/dynamic-memory-allocation-in-c-using-malloc-calloc-free-and-realloc/>

```
ptr = (float*) calloc(5, sizeof(float));
```

allocates contiguous space in memory for 5 elements each with the size of float and initializes to 0

Example: <https://ide.geeksforgeeks.org/oadeFmYcaS>

# What is the return type of malloc() or calloc()

- ❖ (A) void \*
- (B) Pointer
- (C) void \*\*
- (D) int \*

# realloc()

- ❖ General usage:

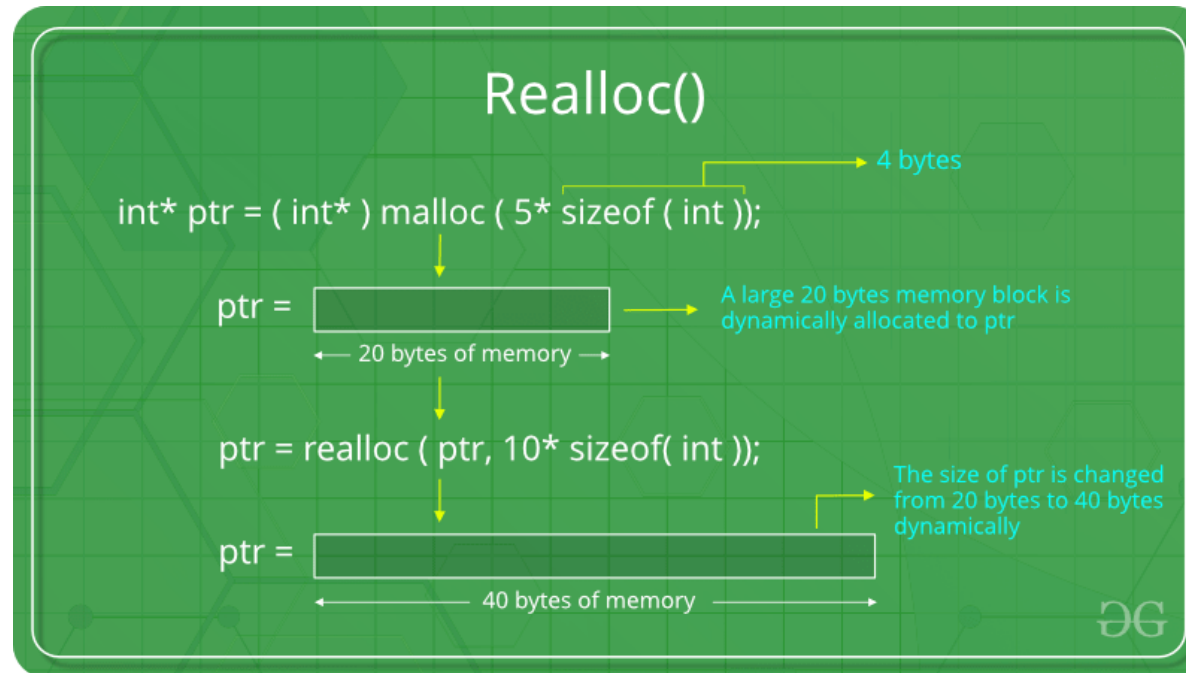
```
var = (type*) realloc(ptr, newSize)
```

- ❖ ptr is reallocated with the newsize 'newSize'

- Helpful when size of previously allocated memory is no more sufficient.

```
// allocate a 10-double array  
// Dynamically re-allocate memory using realloc()  
float* arr = (float*) malloc(10*sizeof(float));  
arr = (float*) realloc(arr, 20 * sizeof(float);  
// do stuff with arr
```

# realloc()



<https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/dynamic-memory-allocation-in-c-using-malloc-calloc-free-and-realloc/>

ptr = realloc(ptr, newSize);

where ptr is reallocated with new size 'newSize'

Example: <https://ide.geeksforgeeks.org/SY5zO9TBDU>

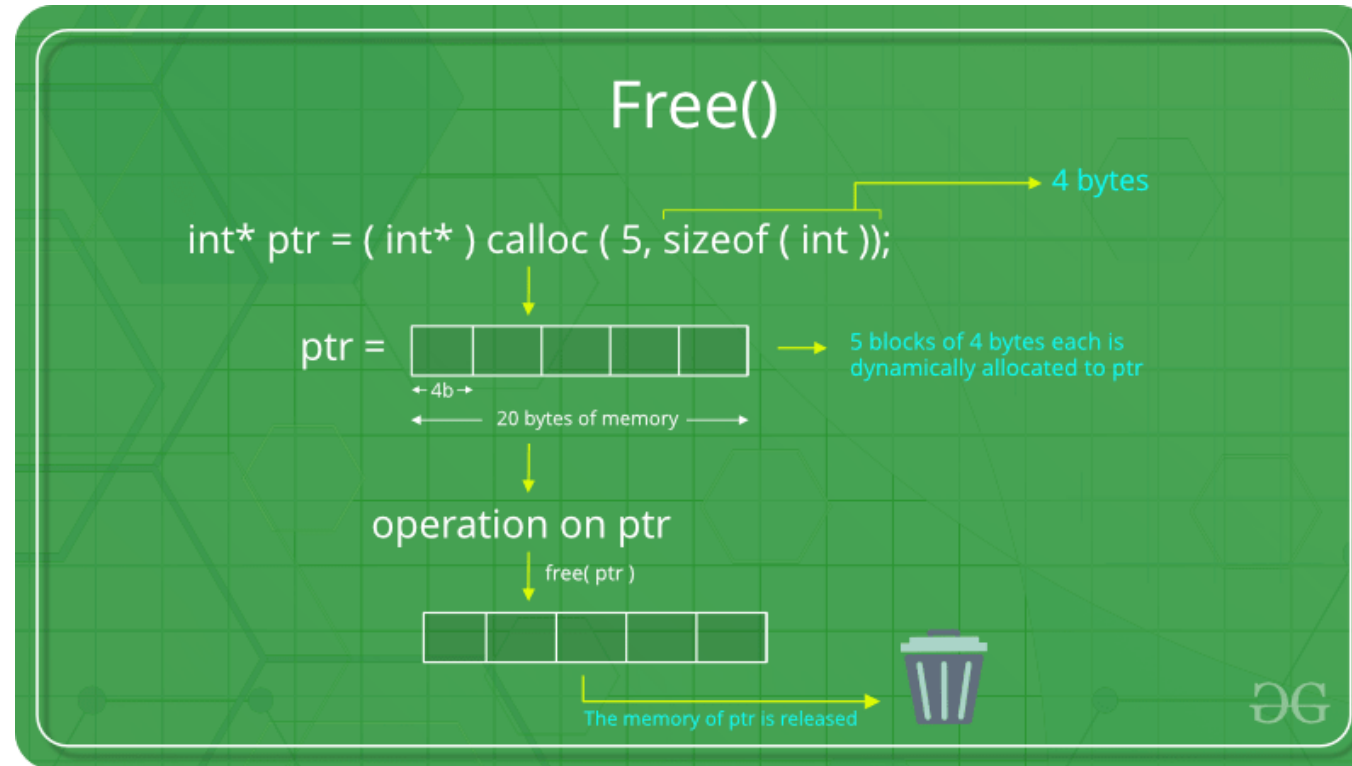


# free()

- ❖ Usage: `free(pointer);`
- ❖ Deallocates the memory pointed-to by the pointer
  - Pointer *must* point to the first byte of heap-allocated memory (*i.e.* something previously returned by `malloc` or `calloc`)
  - Freed memory becomes eligible for future allocation
  - Pointer is unaffected by call to free (Still pointing to same memory locations, which is now free for future allocation)

```
float* arr = (float*) malloc(10*sizeof(float));  
if (arr == NULL)  
    return errcode;  
...           // do stuff with arr  
free(arr);  
arr = NULL;   // OPTIONAL but good practice
```

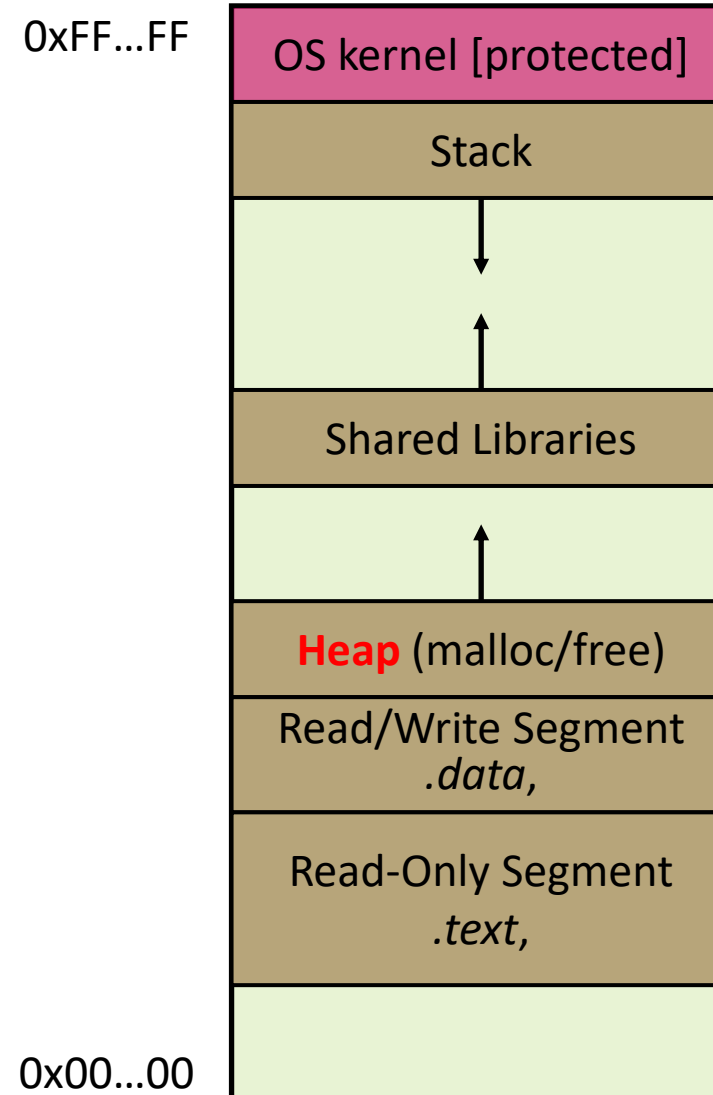
# free()



- ❖ <https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/dynamic-memory-allocation-in-c-using-malloc-calloc-free-and-realloc/>
- ❖ free(ptr);
- ❖ ptr keeps pointing to the same memory, but memory is made available for future allocation.

# The Heap

- ❖ The Heap is a large pool of available memory used to hold dynamically-allocated data
  - **malloc** allocates chunks of data in the Heap;
  - **free** deallocates those chunks
  - **malloc** maintains bookkeeping data in the Heap to track allocated blocks



# Heap and Stack Example

Note: Arrow points  
to *next* instruction.

arraycopy.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>

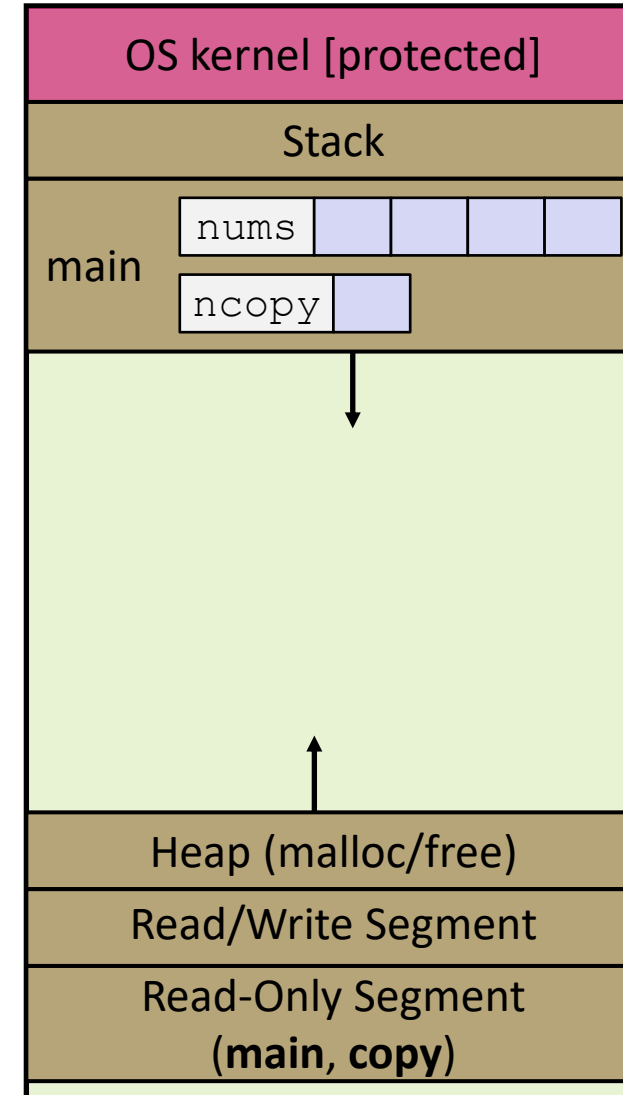
int* copy(int a[], int size) {
    int i, *a2;

    a2 = (int*)malloc(size*sizeof(int));
    if (a2 == NULL)
        return NULL;

    for (i = 0; i < size; i++)
        a2[i] = a[i];

    return a2;
}

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    int nums[4] = {1, 2, 3, 4};
    int* ncopy = copy(nums, 4);
    // .. do stuff with the array ..
    free(ncopy);
    return 0;
}
```



# Heap and Stack Example

arraycopy.c

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#include <stdlib.h>

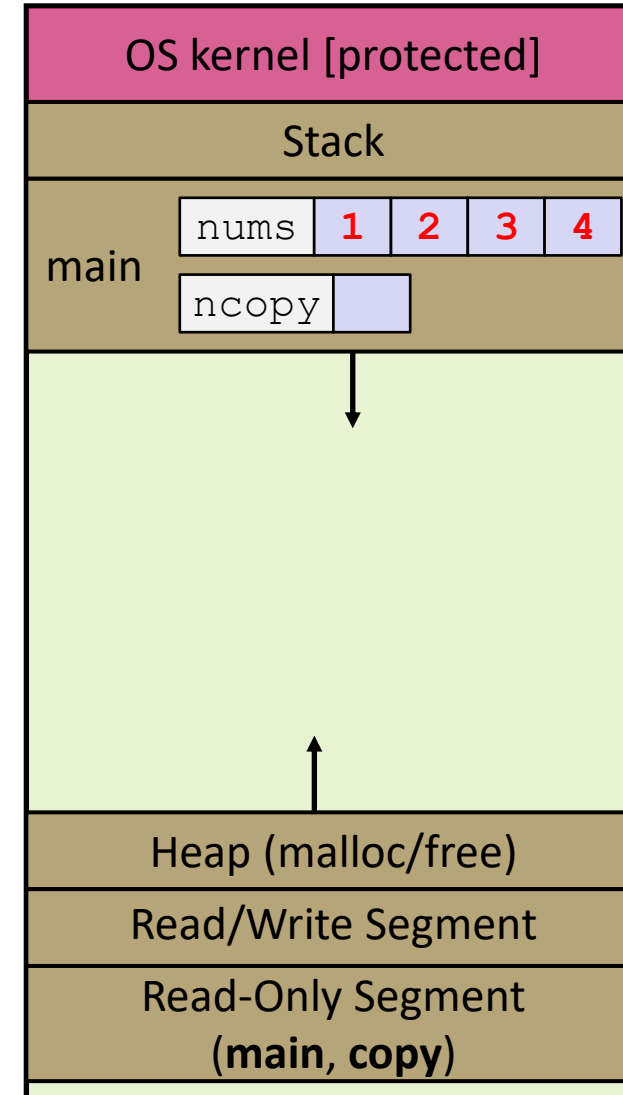
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    int i, *a2;

    a2 = (int*) malloc(size*sizeof(int));
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        a2[i] = a[i];

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int main(int argc, char** argv) {
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    free(ncopy);
    return 0;
}
```



# Heap and Stack Example

arraycopy.c

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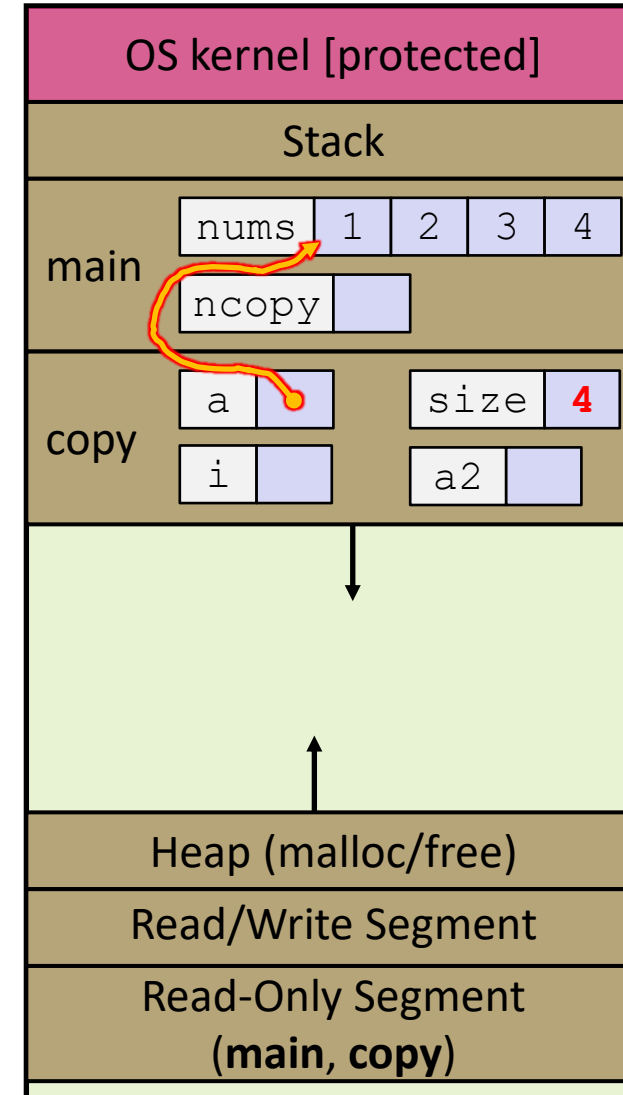
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# Heap and Stack Example

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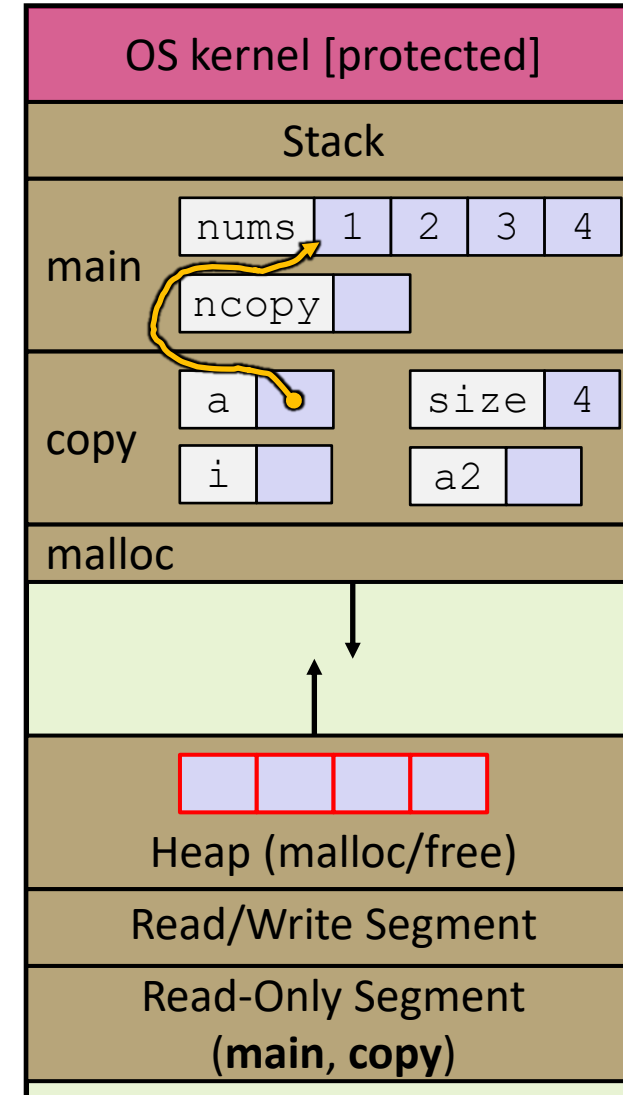
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        a2[i] = a[i];

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# Heap and Stack Example

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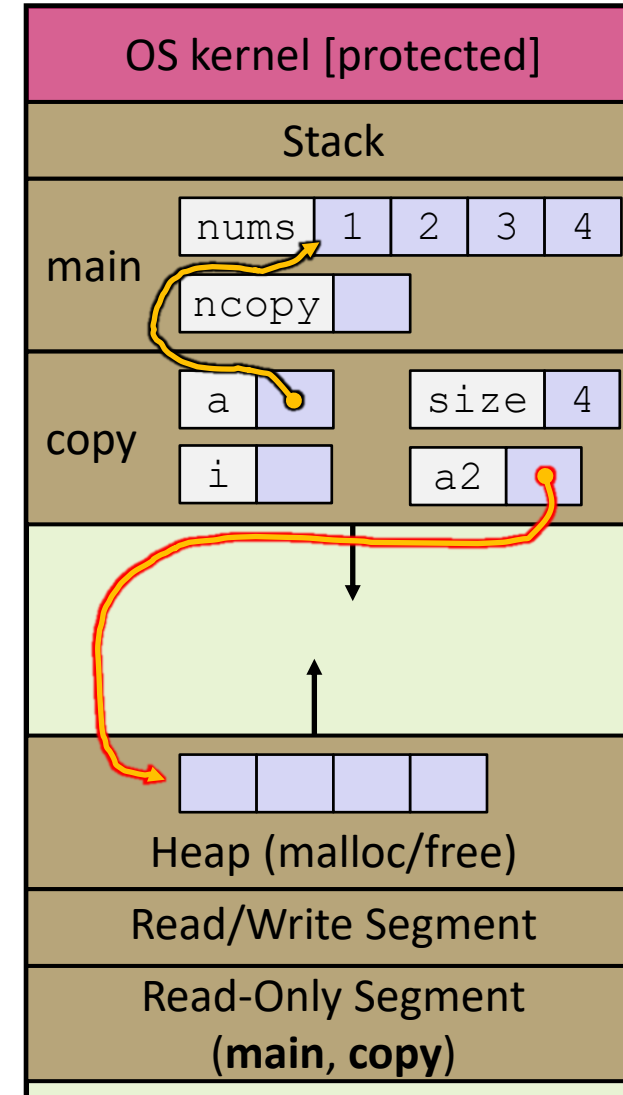
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    for (i = 0; i < size; i++)
        a2[i] = a[i];

    return a2;
}

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# Heap and Stack Example

arraycopy.c

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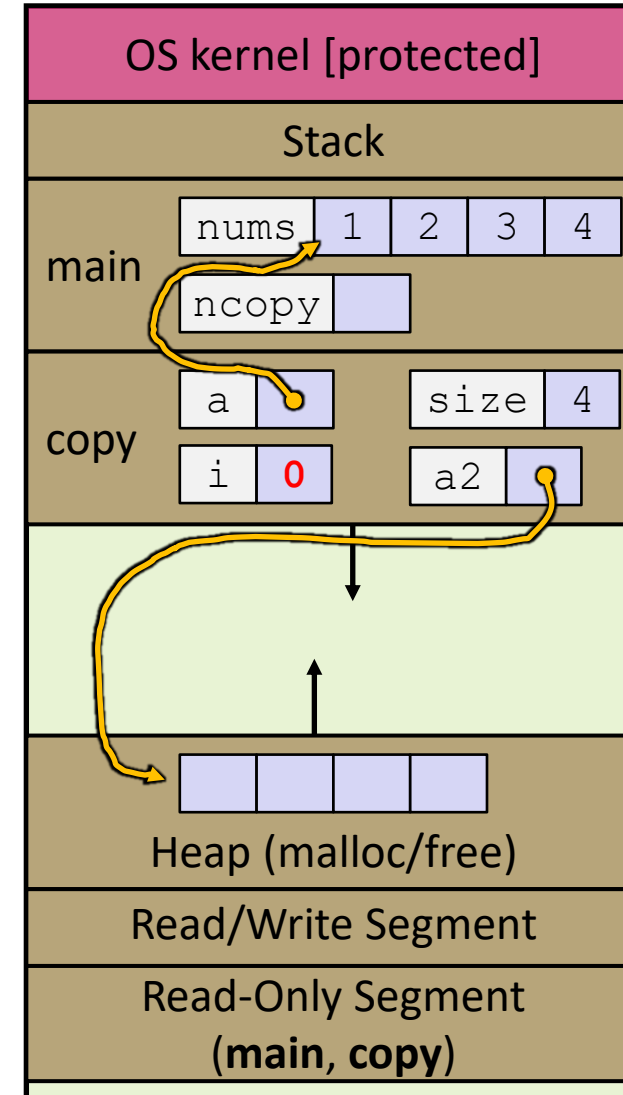
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# Heap and Stack Example

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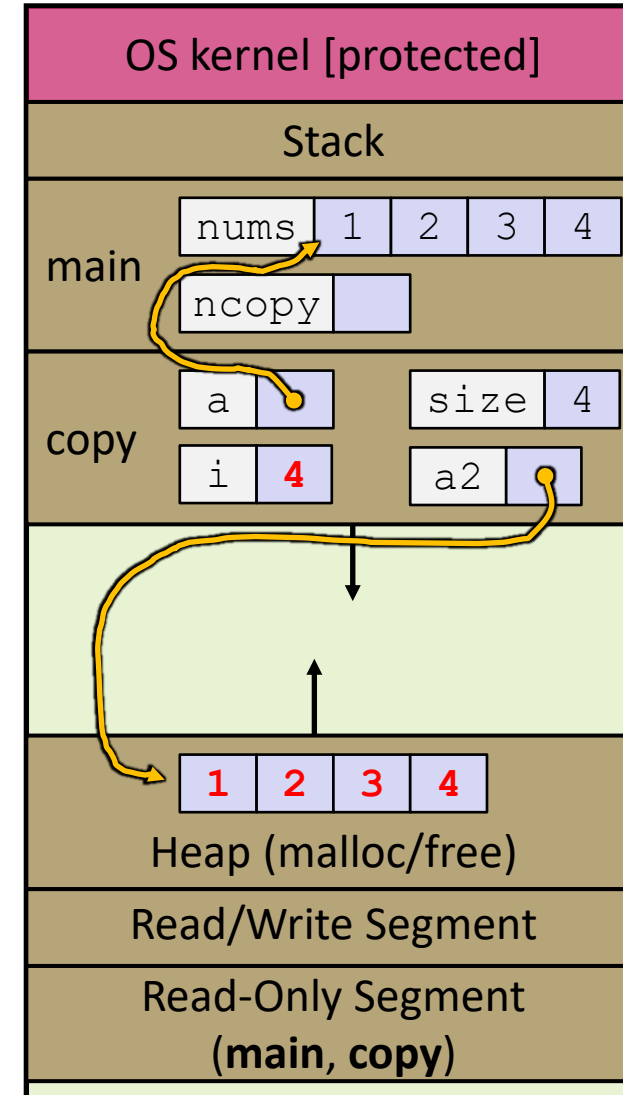
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# Heap and Stack Example

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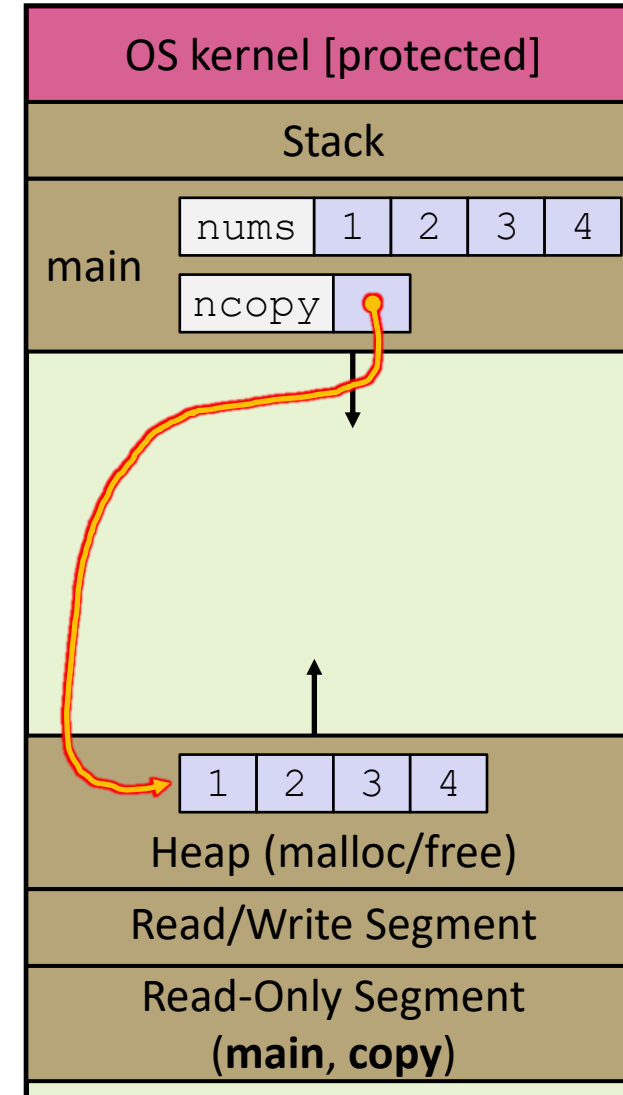
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# Heap and Stack Example

arraycopy.c

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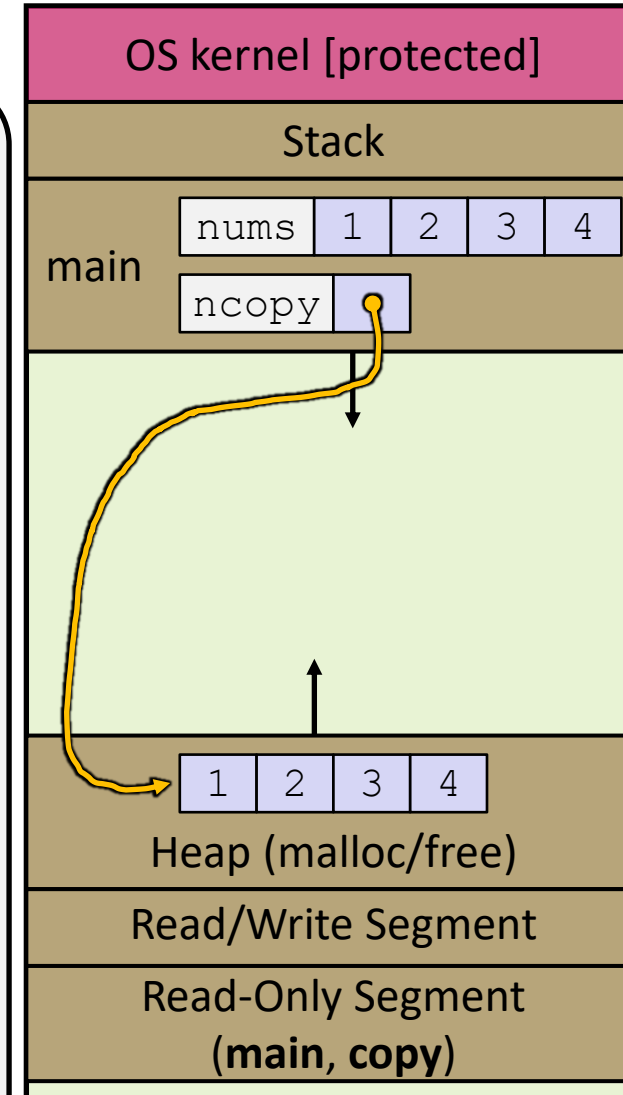
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# Heap and Stack Example

arraycopy.c

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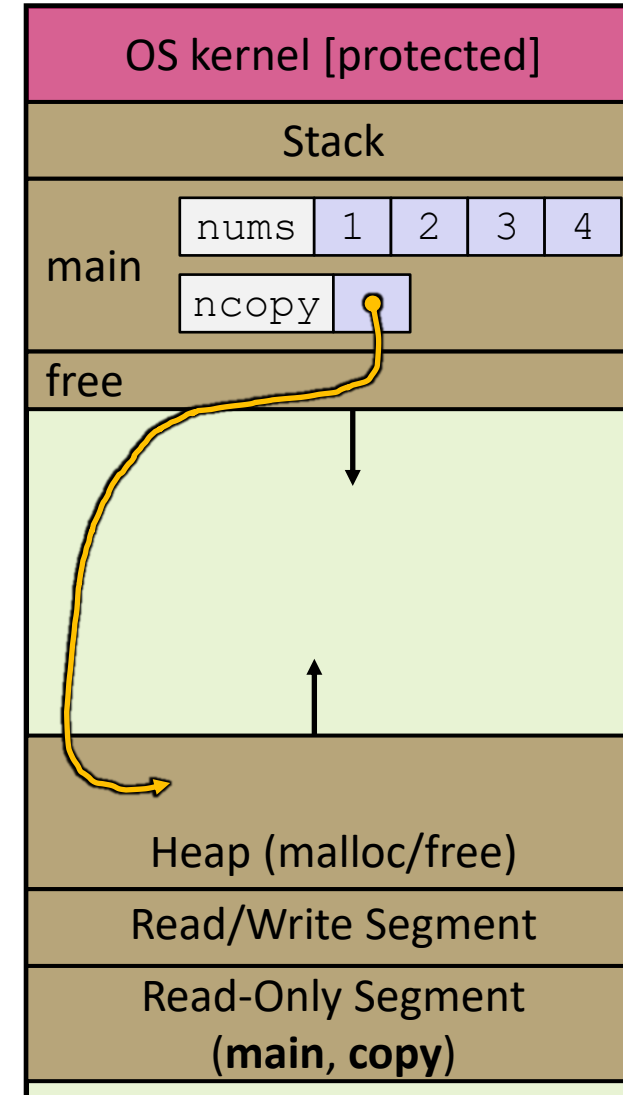
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    return a2;
}

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# Heap and Stack Example

arraycopy.c

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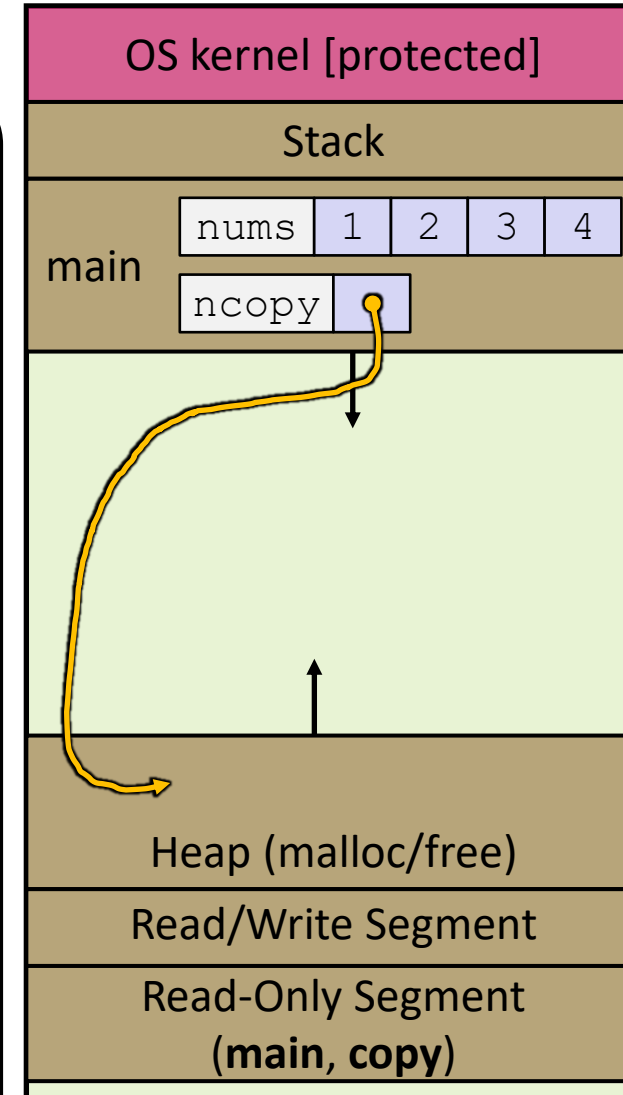
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    return 0;
}
```



# Memory Corruption

- ❖ There are all sorts of ways to corrupt memory in C

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    int a[2];
    int* b = malloc(2*sizeof(int));
    int* c;

    a[2] = 5;    // assign past the end of an array (a[2])
    b[0] += 2;   // assume malloc zeros out memory, using garbage values
    c = b+3;     // pointer pass allocated block(b[3])
    free(&(a[0])); // free something not malloc'ed (in stack)
    free(b);
    free(b);     // double-free the same block (memory management data
//structure corrupts.
    b[0] = 5;    // use a freed pointer

    return 0;
}
```

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    c = b+3;     // pointer pass allocated block(b[3])
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    free(b);
    free(b);     // double-free the same block (memory management data
//structure corrupts.
    b[0] = 5;    // use a freed pointer

    return 0;
}
```



# Memory Leak

- ❖ A **memory leak** occurs when code fails to deallocate dynamically-allocated memory that is no longer used
  - e.g. forget to **free** malloc-ed block, lose/change pointer to malloc-ed block
- ❖ What happens: program's VM footprint will keep growing
  - This might be OK for *short-lived* program, since all memory is deallocated when program ends
  - Usually has bad repercussions for *long-lived* programs
    - Might slow down over time (e.g. lead to VM thrashing)
    - Might exhaust all available memory and crash
    - Other programs might get starved of memory

# Memory leak example

```
/* Function with memory leak */  
#include <stdlib.h>  
  
void f()  
{  
    int *ptr = (int *) malloc(sizeof(int))  
  
    /* Do some work */  
  
    return; /* Return without freeing ptr*  
}
```

---

# Fixing memory leak

```
/* Function without memory leak */  
#include <stdlib.h>  
  
void f()  
{  
    int *ptr = (int *) malloc(sizeof(int))  
  
    /* Do some work */  
    free(ptr);  
    return;  
}
```

# Lecture Outline

## ❖ Heap-allocated Memory

- `malloc()`, `calloc()`, `realloc()` and `free()`
- Memory leaks

## ❖ Structs, Unions, Enumerations and typedef

# Structured Data

❖ A `struct` is a C datatype that contains a set of fields

- Similar to a Java class, but with no methods or constructors
- Useful for defining new structured types of data
- Behave similarly to primitive variables

❖ Generic declaration:

```
struct tagname {  
    type1 name1;  
    ...  
    typeN nameN;  
};
```

```
// the following defines a new  
// structured datatype called  
// a "struct Point"  
struct Point {  
    float x, y;  
};  
  
// declare and initialize a  
// struct Point variable  
struct Point origin = {0.0, 0.0};
```

# How to declare structure variables

```
// A variable declaration with structure declaration.  
struct Point  
{  
    int x, y;  
} p1; // The variable p1 is declared with 'Point'
```

- ❖ With structure declaration

```
// A variable declaration like basic data types  
struct Point  
{  
    int x, y;  
};
```

```
int main()  
{  
    struct Point p1; // The variable p1 is declared like a normal variable  
}
```

- ❖ As separate declaration

# How to not initialize structure members?

- ❖ Structure members cannot be initialized within declaration
  - There is no memory allocated yet when a datatype is declared
  - Memory is allocated when variables are created

```
struct Point
{
    int x = 0;    // COMPILER ERROR
    int y = 0;    // COMPILER ERROR
};
```

# Initializing structure members?

```
3 struct Point
4 {
5     int x, y;
6 }p1 = {0,1}, p2 = {2,3};
7
8 int main()
9 {
10     printf ("p1.x = %d, p1.y = %d\n", p1.x, p1.y);
11     printf ("p2.x = %d, p2.y = %d", p2.x, p2.y);
12     return 0;
13 }
```

p1.x = 0, p1.y = 1  
p2.x = 2, p2.y = 3

<https://ide.geeksforgeeks.org/M4eruAvq89>



# Designated Initialization

- ❖ Designated Initialization allows structure members to be initialized in any order. This feature has been added in C99 standard

```
#include<stdio.h>

struct Point
{
    int x, y, z;
};

int main()
{
    // Examples of initialization using designated initialization
    struct Point p1 = {.y = 0, .z = 1, .x = 2};
    struct Point p2 = {.x = 20};

    printf ("x = %d, y = %d, z = %d\n", p1.x, p1.y, p1.z);
    printf ("x = %d", p2.x);
    return 0;
}
```

```
x = 2, y = 0, z = 1
x = 20
```

# Array of structures

- ❖ we can create an array of structures.

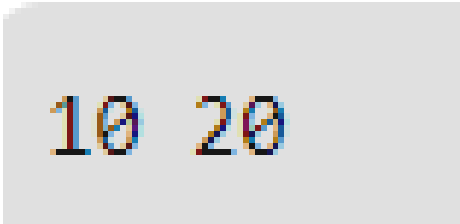
```
#include<stdio.h>

struct Point
{
    int x, y;
};

int main()
{
    // Create an array of structures
    struct Point arr[10];

    // Access array members
    arr[0].x = 10;
    arr[0].y = 20;

    printf("%d %d", arr[0].x, arr[0].y);
    return 0;
}
```



10 20

<https://ide.geeksforgeeks.org/3lbz1OgkB>  
f

# Structure Pointers

- ❖ If we have a pointer to structure, members are accessed using arrow ( -> ) operator.

```
#include<stdio.h>

struct Point
{
    int x, y;
};

int main()
{
    struct Point p1 = {1, 2};

    // p2 is a pointer to structure p1
    struct Point *p2 = &p1;

    // Accessing structure members using structure pointer
    printf("%d %d", p2->x, p2->y);
    return 0;
}
```



1 2

<https://ide.geeksforgeeks.org/8cCdU7Ypi8>

# Structure Pointers

- ❖ Use “.” to refer to a field in a struct
- ❖ Use “->” to refer to a field from a struct pointer
  - Dereferences pointer first, then accesses field

```
struct Point {  
    float x, y;  
};  
  
int main(int argc, char** argv) {  
    struct Point p1 = {0.0, 0.0}; // p1 is stack allocated  
    struct Point* p1_ptr = &p1;  
  
    p1.x = 1.0;  
    p1_ptr->y = 2.0; // equivalent to (*p1_ptr).y = 2.0;  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Copy by Assignment

- ❖ You can assign the value of a struct from a struct of the same type – *this copies the entire contents!*

```
struct Point {  
    float x, y;  
};  
  
int main(int argc, char** argv) {  
    struct Point p1 = {0.0, 2.0};  
    struct Point p2 = {4.0, 6.0};  
  
    printf("p1: {%f,%f}  p2: {%f,%f}\n", p1.x, p1.y, p2.x, p2.y);  
    p2 = p1;  
    printf("p1: {%f,%f}  p2: {%f,%f}\n", p1.x, p1.y, p2.x, p2.y);  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Nested Structures

- ❖ Structure can be used inside another structure as a member.

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2  struct date
3  {
4      int day;
5      int month;
6      int year;
7  };
8
9  struct Employee
10 {
11     char ename[20];
12     int ssn;
13     float salary;
14     struct date dob;
15 };
```

```
17 int main()
18 {
19     struct Employee Ahmet;
20     Ahmet.dob.day = 1;
21     Ahmet.dob.month = 10;
22     Ahmet.dob.year = 1000;
23
24     printf("%d / %d / %d",
25           Ahmet.dob.day, Ahmet.dob.month, Ahmet.dob.year );
26 }
```

1 / 10 / 1000

<https://ide.geeksforgeeks.org/z5Z5q4SnxK>

# Structures can also be declared as nested

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2
3  struct Employee
4  {
5      char ename[20];
6      double salary;
7      struct date
8      {
9          int date;
10         int month;
11         int year;
12     }dob;
13 }emp = {"Ahmet",1000,{1,1,1000}};
14
15 int main(int argc, char *argv[])
16 {
17     printf("\nEmployee Name   : %s",emp.ename);
18     printf("\nEmployee Salary  : %f",emp.salary);
19     printf("\nEmployee DOB      : %d/%d/%d", \
20         emp.dob.date,emp.dob.month,emp.dob.year);
21     return 0;
22 }
```

Employee Name : Ahmet  
Employee Salary : 1000.000000  
Employee DOB : 1/1/1000

<https://ide.geeksforgeeks.org/MgUB1l10ao>

# What can we use as members of structures?

- ❖ Any primitive data type (char, unsigned, int, float, etc.)
- ❖ Other structures
- ❖ Arrays
- ❖ Pointers
- ❖ Unions



# Pointers as struct members

1

```
void main(){
    struct msg{
        char *p1;
        char *p2;
    } myptrs;

    myptrs.p1 = "Teach Yourself C";
    myptrs.p2 = "SAMS";
}
```

2

```
void main(){
    struct msg{
        char *p1;
        char *p2;
    } myptrs;

    myptrs.p1 = malloc(20*sizeof(char));
    myptrs.p1 = "Teach Yourself C";
    myptrs.p1 = malloc(10*sizeof(char));
    myptrs.p2 = "SAMS";
}
```

3

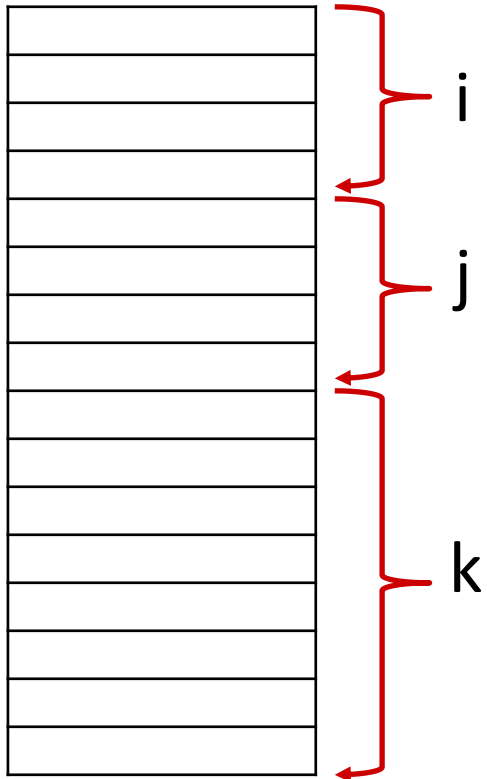
```
void main(){
    struct msg{
        char p1[20];
        char p2[10];
    } myptrs = {"Teach Yourself C", "SAMS"};
}
```

# Unions

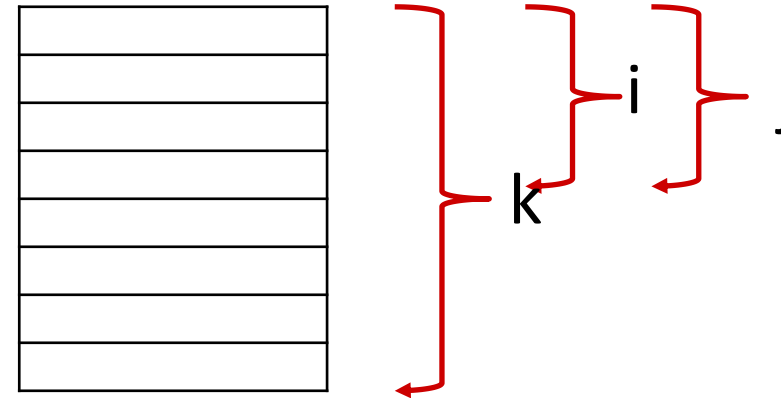
- ❖ Unions look like structures however compiler allocates only enough space for the largest of the members.
- ❖ Assigning a new value to one member alters the values of other members as well

# Struct vs union

```
struct {  
    int i;  
    int j;  
    double k;  
} u;
```



```
union {  
    int i;  
    int j;  
    double k;  
} u;
```



# Use of Unions

- ❖ Maybe used to save space for some data structures
- ❖ Creating mixed data structures, e.g. Creating an array, where each element is a different type.
  - Still will not know for each element which variable is initialized
- ❖ Solution: put union in a struct and create a “tag field”

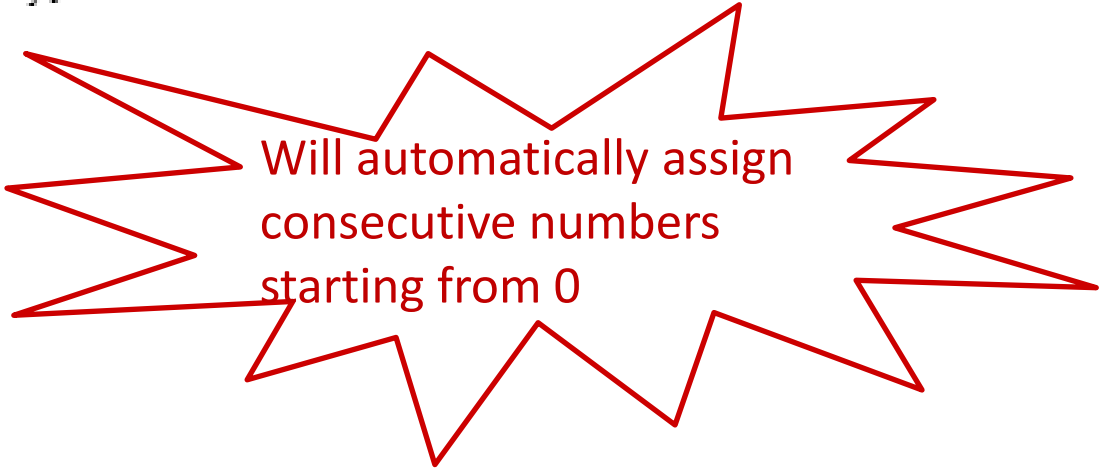
```
struct data{  
    int kind; //tag field  
    union {  
        int i;  
        double d;  
    } u;  
} number;
```

# Enumeration

- ❖ Allows you to associate integral constants with names

```
1 // Another example program to demonstrate working
2 // of enum in C
3 #include<stdio.h>
4
5 enum year{Jan, Feb, Mar, Apr, May, Jun, Jul,
6           Aug, Sep, Oct, Nov, Dec};
7
8 int main()
9 {
10  int i;
11  for (i=Jan; i<=Dec; i++)
12      printf("%d ", i);
13
14  return 0;
15 }
```

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11



Will automatically assign  
consecutive numbers  
starting from 0

<https://ide.geeksforgeeks.org/L5L1TZke0h>

# Enumeration

- ❖ Two enum names can have same value.

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 enum State {Working = 1, Failed = 0, Freezed = 0};
3
4 int main()
5 {
6     printf("%d, %d, %d", Working, Failed, Freezed);
7     return 0;
8 }
9
```

1, 0, 0

Manual assignment

<https://ide.geeksforgeeks.org/usZeYBb69S>

# Enumerations as “Tag Fields”

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2 int main()
3 {
4     struct data{
5         enum {INT_KIND, DOUBLE_KIND} kind; //tag field
6         union {
7             int i;
8             double d;
9         } u;
10
11     } number;
12
13
14     number.kind =DOUBLE_KIND;
15     number.u.d = 2.3;
16
17     if(number.kind == DOUBLE_KIND)
18         printf("Number is: %lf", number.u.d);
19 }
```

Number is: 2.300000

<https://ide.geeksforgeeks.org/MMaqUwXYEP>

# typedef

- ❖ Generic format: `typedef type name;`
- ❖ Allows you to define new data type *names/synonyms*
  - Both `type` and `name` are usable and refer to the same type
  - Be careful with pointers – `*` before name is part of type!

```
// make "superlong" a synonym for "unsigned long long"
typedef unsigned long long superlong;

// make "str" a synonym for "char*"
typedef char* str;

// make "Point" a synonym for "struct point_st { ... }"
// make "PointPtr" a synonym for "struct point_st*"
typedef struct point_st {
    superlong x;
    superlong y;
} Point, *PointPtr; // similar syntax to "int n, *p;"

Point origin = {0, 0};
```



# Typedef extended example

<https://onlinegdb.com/B1LkDkyNI>

# When you should define your own types

- ❖ you are working on a system that
  - will have a lot of code ...
  - last a long time ...
  - need to be ported ...
  - have multiple revisions ...
  - have a maintenance life time ...
  - rely on standards ...
- ❖ System-specific types afford you flexibility to alter the foundational data structures and types quickly and apply to large code bases.

# Dynamically-allocated Structs

- ❖ You can **malloc** and **free** structs, just like other data type
  - **sizeof** is particularly helpful here

```
typedef struct point_st {  
    superlong x;  
    superlong y;  
} Point, *PointPtr;  
  
PointPtr AllocComplex(superlong x, superlong y) {  
    PointPtr retval = (PointPtr) malloc(sizeof(Point));  
    if (retval != NULL) {  
        retval->x = x;  
        retval->y = y;  
    }  
    return retval;  
}
```

# Structs as Arguments

- ❖ Structs are passed by value, like everything else in C
  - Entire struct is copied – where?
  - To manipulate a struct argument, pass a pointer instead

```
typedef struct point_st {  
    int x, y;  
} Point, *PointPtr;  
  
void DoubleXBroken(Point p)    { p.x *= 2; }  
  
void DoubleXWorks(PointPtr p) { p->x *= 2; }  
  
int main(int argc, char** argv) {  
    Point a = {1,1};  
    DoubleXBroken(a);  
    printf("( %d, %d) \n", a.x, a.y);    // prints: ( 1 , 1 )  
    DoubleXWorks(&a);  
    printf("( %d, %d) \n", a.x, a.y);    // prints: ( 2 , 1 )  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Pass Copy of Struct or Pointer?

- ❖ Value passed: passing a pointer is cheaper and takes less space unless struct is small
- ❖ Field access: indirect accesses through pointers are a bit more expensive and can be harder for compiler to optimize
- ❖ For small structs passing a copy of the struct can be faster and often preferred if function only reads data; for large structs use pointers

# Structs vs Java Classes

- ❖ No Data Hiding: C Structures do not permit data hiding. Structure members can be accessed by any function, anywhere in the scope of the Structure.
- ❖ Functions inside Structure: C structures do not permit functions inside Structure
- ❖ Static Members: C Structures cannot have static members inside their body
- ❖ Access Modifiers: C Programming language do not support access modifiers. So they cannot be used in C Structures.
- ❖ Construction creation in Structure: Structures in C cannot have constructor inside Structures

# Extra Exercise

- ❖ Write a program that defines:
  - A new structured type Point
    - Represent it with `floats` for the x and y coordinates
  - A new structured type Rectangle
    - Assume its sides are parallel to the x-axis and y-axis
    - Represent it with the bottom-left and top-right Points
  - A function that computes and returns the area of a Rectangle
  - A function that tests whether a Point is inside of a Rectangle

# Detecting memory leaks, other memory issues

- ❖ We will use Valgrind at the lab. Don't forget to use `-g` option when building your program, otherwise Valgrind will not be able to provide useful information.
- ❖ <https://valgrind.org/>

```
HEAP SUMMARY:
  in use at exit: 40 bytes in 1 blocks
  total heap usage: 1 allocs, 0 frees, 40 bytes allocated

40 bytes in 1 blocks are definitely lost in loss record 1 of 1
at 0x4C29EA3: malloc (vg_replace_malloc.c:309)
by 0x40073E: main (dynamic.c:26)

LEAK SUMMARY:
  definitely lost: 40 bytes in 1 blocks
  indirectly lost: 0 bytes in 0 blocks
  possibly lost: 0 bytes in 0 blocks
  still reachable: 0 bytes in 0 blocks
  suppressed: 0 bytes in 0 blocks
```