#### Outline

- Briefly review the last class
- Pointers and Structs
- Memory allocation
- Linked lists

## C Structures and Memory Allocation

- A struct is a data structure that comprises multiple types, each known as a member
  - Example:
    - A student may have members: name (char[]), age (int), GPA (float or double), sex (char), major (char[]), etc

```
struct student {
    char name[20];
    int age;
    ...
};
```

- Memory allocation
  - If we want to create a structure that can vary in size, we will allocate the struct on demand and attach it to a previous struct through pointers

# Struct Examples

#### Recommended

```
struct point {
   int x;
   int y;
};

struct point p1, p2;

p1 and p2 are both
points, containing an
x and a y value
```

```
struct {
  int x;
  int y;
} p1, p2;

p1 and p2 are both
points containing
an x and a y, but
do not have a tag
(struct type name)
```

```
int x;
int y;
struct {
    int x;
    int x;
    int x;
    int y;
same as the other
    };
two versions, but
united into one set
of code, p1 and p2
have the tag point

int x;
    int x;
    int y;
    int y;
    int x;
    int y;
    int x;
    int y;
    int x;
    int y;
    int x;
    int y;
    int y;
    int y;
    int y;
    int y;
    int y;
    int x;
    int y;
    in
```

union a {

struct point {

# Accessing structs

- A struct is much like an array
  - The structure stores multiple data
    - To access a particular member, you use the . operator as in student.firstName or p1.x and p1.y
      - we will see later that we will also use > to reference a field if the struct is pointed to by a pointer
    - To access the struct itself, use the variable name Legal operations on the struct are assignment, taking its address with &, copying it, and passing it as a parameter

```
    Point p1 = {5, 10}; // same as p1.x = 5; p1.y = 10; only works when declaring p1
    p1 = p2; // same as p1.x = p2.x; p1.y = p2.y;
```

#### structs as Parameters

- Passing as a parameter:
  - void foo(struct point x, struct point y) {...}

• Returning a struct:

```
struct point createPoint(int a, int b)
{
    struct point temp;
    temp.x = a;
    temp.y = b;
    return temp;
}
```

# Inputting a struct in a Function

- We will need to do multiple inputs for our struct
  - let's write a separate function to input all the values into our struct
    - The code to the right does this

```
#include <stdio.h>
struct point {
           int x;
           int y; };
void getStruct(struct point);
void output(struct point);
void main( ) {
           struct point y = \{0, 0\};
           getStruct(y);
           output(y);
void getStruct(struct point p) {
           scanf("%d", &p.x);
           scanf("%d", &p.y);
           printf("%d, %d", p.x, p.y);
void output(struct point p) {
           printf("%d, %d", p.x, p.y);
```

#### This doesn't work

#### Results:

Input two numbers:

10 10

10, 10

0, 0

#### Why? C uses pass by copy

- the struct is *copied* into the function so that p in the function is different from y in main
- after inputting the values into p, nothing is returned, so y remains  $\{0, 0\}$

# One Solution For Input

- In our previous solution, we passed the struct into the function and manipulated it in the function, but it wasn't returned
  - What was passed into the function was a copy
    - So structs differ from arrays!
- In our input function, we can instead create a temporary struct and return the struct rather than having a void function

```
void main()
{
    struct point y = {0, 0};
    y = getStruct();
    output(y);
}

struct point inputPoint()
{
    struct point temp;
    scanf("%d", &temp.x);
    scanf("%d", &temp.y);
    return temp;
}
```

#### Pointers to Structs

- The previous solution had two flaws:
  - It required twice as much memory
    - we needed 2 points, one in the input function, one in the function that called input
  - It required copying each member of temp back into the members of the original struct
    - with our point type, that's not a big deal because there were only two members, but this may be undesirable when we have a larger struct
  - So instead, we might choose to use a pointer to the struct
    - We see an example next, but first...

## Pointers to Structs

```
struct foo {
               // a global definition, the struct foo is known in all of
  int a, b, c;
               // these functions
                                                Memory
                                                                    Address
};
foo fooInstance={1,2,3};
                                                                     1084
                          fooInstance.a
foo* a=&fooInstance;
                          fooInstance.b
                                                                     1088
                          fooInstance.c
                                                     3
                                                                     1092
                                                                     1096
                                                   1084
                          a
```

- If a is a pointer to a struct, then to access the struct's members, we use (\*a).x
- Or use the -> operator as in a->x

# Pointer-based Example

```
#include <stdio.h>
                      // a global definition, the struct foo is known in all of
struct foo {
                      // these functions
   int a, b, c;
};
// function prototypes
void inp(struct foo *);
                                  // both functions receive a pointer to a struct foo
void outp(struct foo);
void main( ) {
                                 // declare x to be a foo
           struct foo x;
           inp(&x);
                                 // get its input, passing a pointer to foo
                                  // send x to outp, this requires 2 copying actions
           outp(x);
void inp(struct foo *x)
                      // notice the notation here: &ptr->member
           scanf("\%d\%d\%d", &x->a, &x->b, &x->c);
                                 // same notation, but without the &
void outp(struct foo x)
{
           printf("%d %d %d\n", x.a, x.b, x.c);
```

## Nested structs with pointers

- In order to provide modularity, it is common to use alreadydefined structs as members of additional structs
- Recall our point struct, now we want to create a rectangle struct
  - the rectangle is defined by its upper left and lower right points

```
struct point {
    int x;
    int y;
}
struct rectangle {
    struct point pt1;
    struct point pt2;
}
struct rectangle r;
```

Then we can reference r.pt1.x, r.pt1.y, r.pt2.x and r.pt2.y

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    int y;
}
struct rectangle {
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    struct point pt2;
}
struct rectangle r;
```

Now consider the following

```
struct rectangle r, *rp;
rp = &r;
```

Then the following are all equivalent r.pt1.x

```
(*rp).pt1.x
rp->pt1.x
```

Then we can reference r.pt1.x, r.pt1.y, r.pt2.x and r.pt2.y

But not rp->pt1->x (since pt1 is not a pointer to a point)

# typedef

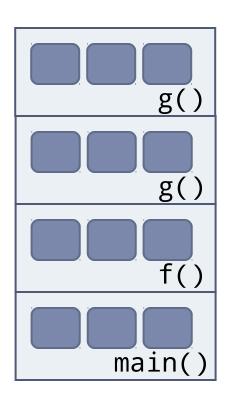
- typedef is used to define new types
  - The format is
    - typedef description name;
  - Where description is a current type or a structural description such as an array declaration or struct declaration
  - Examples:

We can simplify our later uses of node by doing the following

typedef struct node aNode; // this allows us to refer to aNode instead of struct node

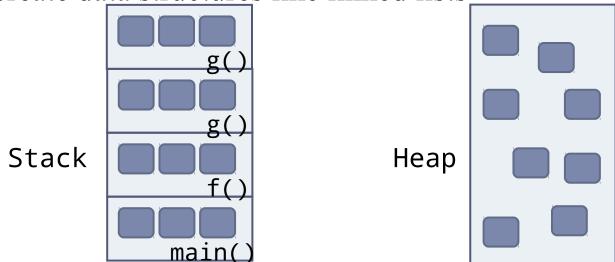
# Overview of memory management

- To this point, we have been declaring pointers and having them point at already created variables/structures
- Stack-allocated memory
  - When a function is called, memory is allocated for all of its parameters and local variables.
  - Each active function call has memory on the stack (the current function call on top)
  - When a function call terminates, the memory is deallocated ("freed up")
- Ex: main() calls f(), f() calls g() g() recursively calls g()



# Heap-allocated memory (Dynamic allocation)

- However, the primary use of pointers is to create dynamic structures
  - Use heap allocation for persistant data
  - The pointer can point to a piece of memory that has just been created (allocated)
  - We will use this approach (memory allocation + pointers) to create data structures like linked lists



#### malloc and calloc

- The two primary memory allocation operations in c are malloc and calloc
  - For most situations, we will use malloc:
    - pointer = (type \*) malloc(sizeof(type));
    - This sets pointer to point at a newly allocated chunk of memory that is the type specified and the size needed for that type
      - NOTE: pointer will be NULL if there is no more memory to allocate
  - The cast may not be needed, but is good practice
  - calloc has the form:
    - pointer = (type \*) calloc(n, sizeof(type)); // n is the size of the array
  - calloc is usually used for the creation of an array
  - Another C instruction is free, to free up the allocated memory when you no longer need it as in free(pointer);

# calloc example

```
#include <stdio h>
#include <stdlib.h>
                               // needed for calloc
void main()
          int i;
          int *x, *y;
                                                    // two pointers to int arrays
                                                    // x now points to an array of 10 ints
          x = (int *) calloc(10, sizeof(int));
          for(i=0;i<10;i++) x[i] = i;
                                                    // fill the array with values
                                                    // oops, need more room than 10
          y = (int *) calloc(20, sizeof(int));
                                                    // create an array of 20, temporarily
                                                    // pointed to by y
          for(i=0;i<10;i++) y[i] = x[i];
                                                    // copy old elements of x into y
                                                    // release memory of old array
          free(x);
                                                    // add the new elements
          for(i=10;i<20;i++) y[i] = i;
                                                    // reset x to point at new, bigger array
          x = y;
```

### Linked Structures

- Our last topic is in building linked structures
  - lists, trees, graphs
- These are dynamic structures, when you want to add a node, you allocate a new chunk of memory and attach it to the proper place in the structure via the pointers
  - In linked lists, the pointer is a next pointer to the next node in the list, in a tree, there are left and right children pointers
  - We will use malloc to allocated the node
  - We will need to traverse the structure to reach the proper place to insert a new node

#### Declarations for Nodes

```
struct node {
  int data;
  struct node *next;
};

node *front=NULL;

front is a pointer to the first
```

front is a pointer to the first node in a linked list. It may initially be NULL. Traversing our linked list might use code like this:

```
temp = front;
while(temp!=NULL)
{
   // process temp
   temp=temp->next;
}
```

```
struct treeNode {
  int data;
  struct treeNode *left;
  struct treeNode *right;
};
```

Our root node will be declared as treeNode \*root;

It is common in trees to have the root node point to the tree via the right pointer only with the left pointer remaining NULL

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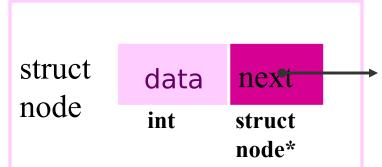
### Linked Lists



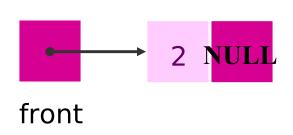
struct node\* front=NULL;

- A *linked list* is a series of connected *nodes*
- Each node contains at least
  - A piece of data (any type)
  - Pointer to the next node in the list
- front: pointer to the first node
- The last node points to NULL

```
struct node {
    int data;
    struct node *next;
};
```



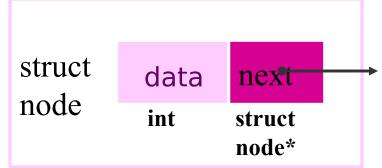
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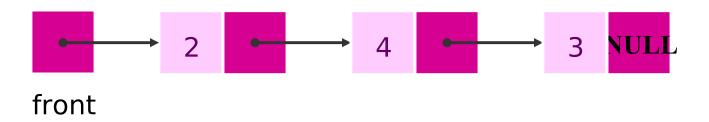
```
front=(struct node) malloc(sizeof(struct node));
front->data=2;
front->next=NULL;
```

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```
struct node {
    int data;
    struct node *next;
};
```

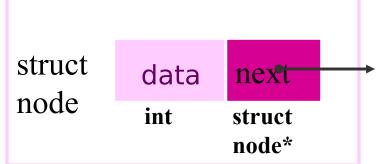


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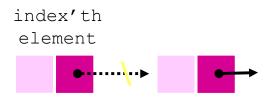
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  - Pointer to the next node in the list
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```
struct node {
    int data;
    struct node *next;
};
```



# Inserting a new node

- Node\* InsertNode(int index, double x)
- Steps
  - Locate index'th element
  - 2. Allocate memory for the new node
  - 3. Point the new node to its successor
  - 4. Point the new node's predecessor to the new node



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